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CLASS BOOK OF BÓTANY

BEING

AN INTRODUCTION

TO THE STUDY OF

THE VEGETABLE KINGDOM

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WITH UPWARDS OF 1500 ILLUSTRATIONS

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TO
HIS GRACE THE DUKE OF ARGYLL.

LORD PRIVY SEAL, &c. &c.

A NOBLEMAN

WHO OCCUPIES A DISTINGUISHED PLACE AS
A STATESMAN, A PHILANTHROPIST, A SCHOLAR, AND
A MAN OF SCIENCE.

AND WHO BY HIS RESEARCHES AND WRITINGS,
HAS ADVANCED OUR KNOWLEDGE OF
THE RELATIVE BEARINGS OF GEOLOGY AND BOTANY.

The following Work

IS BY PERMISSION DEDICATED
WITH EVERY SENTIMENT OF RESPECT AND ESTEEM

BY

THE AUTHOR.

P R E F A C E.

THE object of the present work is to initiate the student into the study of the Structure, Functions, Classification, and Distribution of Plants. The FIRST PART embraces Vegetable Organography, or a description of the tissues of which plants are composed, and of the various organs which are concerned in the processes of nutrition and reproduction, without an accurate knowledge of which it is impossible to make progress in Botanical science. The SECOND PART includes Vegetable Physiology, or the consideration of the Functions which plants perform in the living state. The THIRD PART has reference to the Classification of plants—the essential characters of the Classes and Orders being given, along with the properties of the more important species, especially such as are used in medicine or in the arts. In the FOURTH PART, the Distribution of plants is considered in a Geographical point of view; and in the FIFTH PART, the subject of Fossil Botany is discussed. Directions in regard to the Examination and Preparation of Plants for the Herbarium, Museum, and Microscope, and an explanation of the common Botanical terms, are added as an Appendix.

As it is of great importance that the tyro in Botany should become acquainted with the appearances of plants and of their organs, wood-cuts have been extensively used as illustrations.

The number of these has caused the work to extend over many more pages than was at first contemplated. The publishers have supplied wood-cuts from Maout's *Atlas Élémentaire de Botanique*, and from Kitto's *Biblical Cyclopædia*; other cuts have been derived from original sources, as well as from the works of Jussieu, Mirbel, Payer, St. Hilaire, Henslow, Harvey, Greville, Ralls, Schleiden, Mohl, Amici, Hofmeister, Henfrey, Unger, Lindley and Hutton, and Blackie's *Imperial Dictionary*. Full explanations of the cuts are given in the notes, and with them are embodied facts relating to Scripture plants, and to other matters not included in the text. At the end of different sections there is inserted a brief recapitulation or analysis of what has been stated in the previous pages; thus enabling the student to see at a glance the principal points which demand his attention; and in the case of subjects requiring further elucidation, references are made to works and papers which may be consulted. In the Histological department of the work there is a description of the microscope and its uses; and lists are given of preparations which may be easily procured for the purpose of illustration.

The Author has to acknowledge his obligation to Dr. Douglas MacLagan, for his assistance in regard to Medicinal and Poisonous plants; and to Dr. George Wilson, for aiding him in the Chemistry of Vegetation.

In prosecuting the science of Botany, the student must ever bear in mind that it is only by the examination of plants in the garden and in the fields, by careful dissections, and by microscopic investigations of living and dead tissues, that he can acquire a correct knowledge of the subject. No book can make up for the want of this; no descriptions nor illustrations can supply its place. All that the teacher can do by his lectures

and text-book is to direct the pupil in his researches, and to refer him to the Book of Nature as the guide in his investigations. The student must not be led away by human authority, however distinguished; his motto must be—

Nullius addictus jurare in verba magistri.

While he avails himself of all the aid supplied by eminent Botanists, he must endeavour by personal observation to ascertain the correctness of their statements. He must carefully avoid hasty generalization, and a blind attachment to theories, however plausible. His foundation of facts must be solid if his inductions are to be correct. It is by a patient and laborious search after truth, by a diligent and enlightened questioning of Nature, and, above all, by a humble dependence upon Him “who is before all things, and by whom all things consist,” that the botanical enquirer can expect to arrive at satisfactory results.

EDINBURGH, JANUARY 1854.

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CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS.

Page 58, line 19 from the bottom, *before Bryony insert* tendril of.

Page 92, line 19, *for part read* fact.

Page 108, between paragraphs 161 and 162, insert—

Trecul says that leaves all originate in a primary cellular mammilla, with or without a basal swelling, according as they are to have sheaths or not; and that they are developed after 4 principal types—1, the centrifugal formation, from below upwards; 2, the centripetal formation, from above downwards; 3, the mixed formation; and 4, the parallel formation. The centrifugal development may be illustrated in the leaf of the Lime-tree, which begins as a simple tumour at the apex of the stem. This tumour lengthens and enlarges, leaving at its base a contraction which represents the petiole. The blade, at first entire, is soon divided from side to side by a sinus. The lower lobe is the first secondary vein. The upper lobe is subdivided in the same manner 5 or 6 times, forming as many secondary veins. Sinuosities then appear in the lower lobe, indicating the ramifications of the lower vein; and finally fresh toothings appear corresponding with more minute ramifications. Thus the various veins in the leaf of the Lime-tree are developed like the shoots of the tree that bears them, and the toothing does not arise from cells specially adapted for that purpose on the edge of the leaf, as Mercklin has supposed. The hairs on the under surface of the leaf are also formed from below upwards.

Leaves developed centripetally are equally numerous with the preceding; of this sort are the leaves of *Sanguisorba officinalis*, *Rosa arvensis*, *Cephalaria procera*, &c. In them the terminal leaflet is first produced, and the others appear in successive pairs downwards from apex to base. The stipules are produced before the lower leaflets. All digitate leaves, and those with radiating venation belong to the centripetal mode of formation as regards their digitate venation.

In some plants, as *Acer*, the two preceding modes of development are combined. This is called mixed formation. In *Acer platanoides* the lobes and the midribs of the radiating lobes form from above downwards, the lower lobes being produced last, but the secondary venations and toothings are developed like those of the Lime-tree. In Monocotyledons we meet with the parallel leaf formation of Trecul. All the veins are formed in a parallel manner, the sheath appearing first. The leaf lengthens especially by the base of the blade, or that of the petiole when present.

Leaves furnished with sheaths, or having their lower portions protected by other organs, grow most by the base; while those which have the whole petiole early exposed to the air, grow much more towards the upper part of the petiole. (Trecul, *Comptes Rendus*, 1853.)

Page 137, line 13 from bottom, *for Potamogetous read* Potamogetons.

- Page 234, in note to Fig. 650, *omit* recurved.
- Page 244, line 10, *insert* 3 carpels or 3 separate styles; line 11, 4 carpels or 4 separate styles, &c.
- Page 268, line 13 from the bottom, *for* Fig. 782 *put* Fig. 780.
- Page 294, Fig. 883. Raspberry is put by mistake for Mulberry. The latter fruit is figured at p. 891, Fig. 1656.
- Page 295, before apocarpous fruits, put in a separate line, as a general heading—Monogynœcial fruits, formed by the gynœcium of a single flower.
- Page 296, before anthocarpous fruits, put Polygynœcial fruits, formed by the gynœcia of several flowers.
- Page 296, line 21, *after* Medlar *insert*—in the latter two of which the carpels are covered by the succulent calyx, but not incorporated with it.
- Page 421, line 7, *for* serratula *read* serrulata.
- Page 439, for additional heights of Pines see pages 908-910.
- Page 447, in note to Fig. 1143, *for* Sapindaceæ *put* Malpighiaceæ.
- Page 460, headline, *for* yretaw *read* watery.
- Page 500, line 30, *for* May *read* January.
- Page 561, in Fig. 1194 the flower should be represented as standing above the water.
- Page 563, Fig. 1200 is inverted.
- Page 571, line 32, *after* sporangia *insert* the following—
 Thuret has shown that the antheridia of Fuci contain antherozoids which are the immediate fecundating agents. Several of the Fucaceæ are dioecious. When the plants are placed for some time in a damp atmosphere, the spores and antheridia are pushed out on the surface of the fronds in great numbers. They are then easily collected and deposited in vessels filled with sea-water, or simply in a drop of water on a slip of glass, which is protected from evaporation. When kept in separate vessels, the antheridia emit antherozoids, which move about. This goes on for a day or more, while the archegonial cells are decomposed. But if the antherozoids are brought into contact with archegonial cells, then impregnation is effected; the archegonial cell becomes invested with a very distinct membrane in the course of a day or two, a septum is formed, dividing it into two hemispheres, and an elongation takes place at a point in its circumference. The development of the young plant then proceeds rapidly. The septa become numerous, elongation increases, and in about ten days the cell is converted into an ovoid cellular mass (spore) of a brown colour, supported on a transparent radicle. The radicles turn from the light.
- Page 644, line 5 from the bottom, *for* graminifolius *put* pygmæus.
- Page 750, line 7 from bottom, *after* Drymis granatensis, *read* which appears to be the same as *D. Winteri*.
- Page 857, line 1, *for* Baba *read* Buba.
- Page 1052, line 17 from the bottom, omit three lines beginning with "there," and ending "opposite to the," and insert the following:—"There are two vascular systems, one forming a series of bundles in the medullary axis of the stem, each of the bundles being placed opposite to the wedges of wood internally; and the other going directly to the leaves, the bundles of vessels being placed opposite to the"
- Page 1056, line 33, *Peuce Lindleyana* should be noticed in the Reign of Gymnosperms, as connected with the Lower Oolite.

PART II.

PHYSIOLOGICAL BOTANY.

CHAPTER I.

REMARKS ON THE GENERAL PHENOMENA OF PLANT LIFE.

484. The Physiological department of Botany, which is usually denominated Vegetable Physiology, embraces a consideration of plants in a state of activity, and performing certain functions which are intimately connected with their life and duration. These vital functions may be traced through all stages of growth, from the first cell of the embryo up to the fully developed plant. The study of the functions of the simple *plant-cell* aids much in the elucidation of all the phenomena of plant life. The cell of the Yeast plant (Fig. 1061), and of the Red and Green Snow plants (Figs. 1062, 1063), is capable of performing all the functions of nutrition and reproduction. It absorbs fluids through its walls, enlarges, elaborates secretions, and forms new cells which propagate the individual. Thus, a simple isolated cell grows or enlarges, is endowed with a certain plastic or formative vital power, by which new cells are produced, exhibits frequently movements in its interior, forms secretions, becomes often thickened by deposits on its walls, and ultimately dies. Here, then, in the cell, in all its stages of growth, formation of secretions, reproduction, and decay, is an epitome of vegetable life.

485. The cell, while carrying on these vital actions, sometimes continues to retain a more or less rounded form, as in the Red-snow plant (Fig. 1062); at other times it undergoes morphological changes, so as to assume a cylindrical, clavate (Fig. 1064), fusiform, sinuous, or starlike form. There is an active period of cell-life during which

the protoplasm or formative matter in the interior is capable of undergoing the changes to which allusion has been made. The formation of reproductive cellules within the cavity of the cell, or of deposits on its walls, frequently puts an end to its vital functions.

486. The same vital process which takes place in an isolated cell, occurs also in cells united together. In cellular plants, as Algæ (p. 348), and Fungi (p. 344), several cells are generally combined, so as to form one plant. The union takes place either in a single linear series, as in many *Confervæ* (Fig. 1065), or in a branching series, as in certain Moulds (Fig. 1066), or in several rows united laterally, so as to form a flat expansion, as in the thallus of Sea-weeds (Fig. 1067). Each cell of such plants performs its own special function, and the united cells are concerned in giving rise to combined vital phenomena. While there is individual cell-life, there is also the general life of the united cells, which, together, constitute the compound cellular plant. In such plants the functions of the different cells are specialized; some being concerned in the function of nutrition or vegetation, others in that of reproduction. In common Mould (Fig. 1068), there is observed a series of cells, *m*, forming the mycelium or spawn, which absorb nourishment, and produce stalks, *f*, by means of which nutriment is



Fig. 1061.

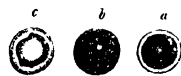


Fig. 1062.



Fig. 1063.

conveyed, and these terminate in a globular collection of cells, *s*, concerned in reproduction, to which the name of spores or germs is given. Here the functions of nutrition and reproduction are localized, each being confined to a peculiar set of cells.

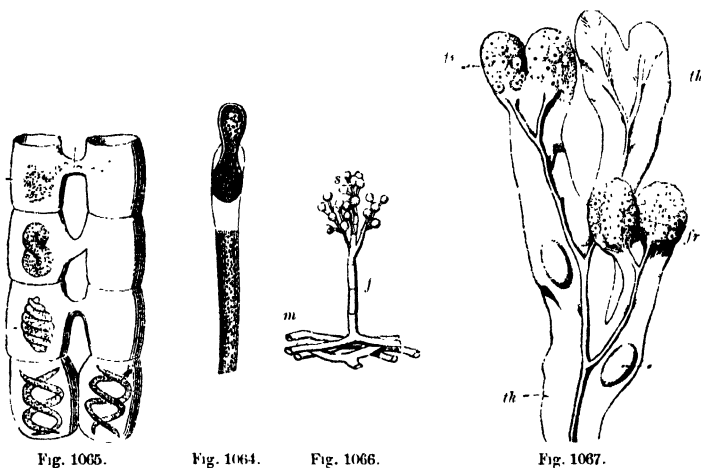
487. Proceeding from the lower forms of vegetation to the higher, we reach vascular plants, which, although cellular in their early stage of growth, present, when fully developed, marked morphological changes. In them the cells exhibit various forms—some being short and angular, others being lengthened so as to form tubes or vessels. When these vessels are thickened by ligneous deposits, they constitute woody tubes (Fig. 1069), which give strength and stability. The cavities of these tubes are frequently obliterated, as in the perfect heart wood of trees, and then their active life ceases. The production of fibres on the inner

Fig. 1061. Cells of the Yeast plant (*Torula cerevisiæ*) in different stages of growth; *a*, cell in an early state; *b*, cell with nucleus; *c*, cell with nucleoli. The simple cell performs all the functions of nutrition and reproduction.

Fig. 1062. Cells of the Red-snow plant (*Protococcus nivalis*), in different stages of growth and development; *a*, cell in the young state; *b*, cell fully formed, with cellules in its interior ready to be discharged, and to form independent plants; *c*, cell after its contents have been discharged. An isolated cell, in this instance, performs the functions of nutrition and reproduction.

Fig. 1063. Cells of the Green-snow plant (*Protococcus viridis*), in their state of full development, containing germs or cellules which when discharged produce new plants. The cells perform nutritive and reproductive functions.

walls of elongated tapering cells gives rise to the various kinds of fibro-vascular tissue (Figs. 1070, 1071, 1072). In vascular plants special cells are appropriated for secretions (p. 32), such as starch, gum, sugar, oils, and milky juices. We frequently find contiguous cells having very different contents. Thus, in the grain of the *Cerealia*, certain rows of cells contain nitrogenous compounds, while others contain starch; in the stems of grasses and *Equiseta* some cells are filled with silica, while adjoining cells contain scarcely a trace of this substance. The nutrition of the plant is carried on by one set of cells and vessels, while its reproduction, or the development of new cells, is confined to another set. Vascular plants are thus compound individuals, formed of cells in various morphological states. There is a



specialization of the functions of cells and vessels, and all by their united action contribute to the general life of the compound plant.

488. Schacht* remarks that a plant is composed of one or more cells, and that it is only in the lowest species that the cells are of the same *value*; in other words, are of the same chemical and physical nature, and of the same physiological importance. Even amongst the mushroom and sea-weed orders, it is only the lowest plants which have

Fig. 1064. Elongated club-shaped cell of *Vaucheria ovoides*, discharging a cellular spore which has been formed in its interior.

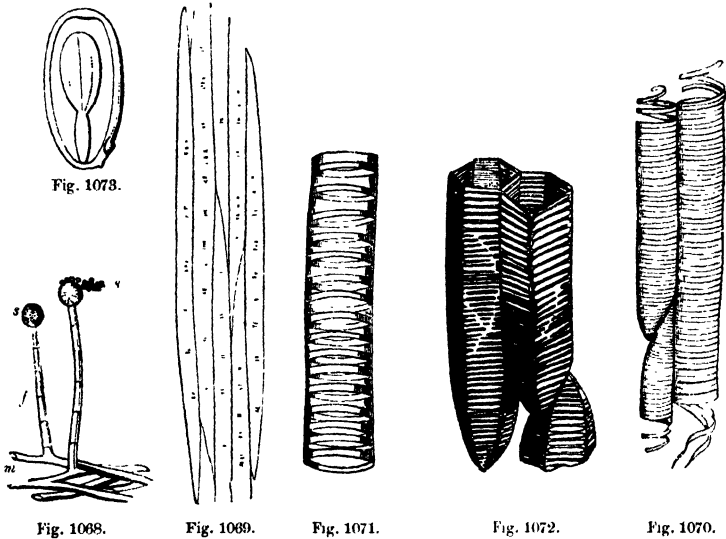
Fig. 1065. Two filaments of a cellular plant (*Zygnema*), uniting together by means of tubes. The plant consists of a filament formed by a series of cells united in a single row. The different cells appear to have different functions.

Fig. 1066. A species of Mould-fungus (*Botrytis*), consisting of certain nutritive cells, *m*, forming the mycelium or spawn, a cellular stalk, *f*, which branches at the top and bears reproductive cells, *s*.

Fig. 1067. Thallus of the common Bladder sea-weed (*Fucus vesiculosus*), consisting of numerous cells united, some being nutritive, *th, th*, others reproductive, *fr, fr*.

* Schacht, die Pflanzen-Zelle, Berlin 1852; Schacht, La vie de la Plante, Annales des Sciences Naturelles, 3d serie, xvii. 292.

cells concerned alike in the processes of vegetation and reproduction. The higher plants of these orders, like the Lichens, are composed of cells of different *value*, in the sense in which we have defined (p. 361) that phrase. In plants of still higher organization, we meet with numerous cells totally different in a physical and chemical, as well as in a physiological point of view. The life of such plants depends on the regular action of these cells of unequal value, arranged and developed in a determinate manner, but varying with the plant. At the earliest period of its organization, every plant is composed of cells of the same value. Very soon, however, two



different kinds of cells appear, one sort being concerned in the production of new cells, and called by Schacht the organizing tissue or cambium; the other serving chiefly to form nutritive matter, such as starch, gum, sugar, chlorophyll, &c., and called the nourishing tissue or proper parenchyma. The former tissue occurs at the extremities of

Fig. 1068. A species of Mould (*Mucor*) showing the nutritive cells forming the mycelium or spawn, *m*, and those composing the stalk, *f*, which bears at its summit a globular cell, *s*, containing minute reproductive germs or spores. The cells at *m* and *f* are concerned in nutrition, those at *s* are connected with reproduction.

Fig. 1069. Woody tubes consisting of elongated cells having thick walls.

Fig. 1070. Spiral vessels consisting of elongated cells which assume a tubular and fusiform shape, and have a spiral fibre formed on the inside of their walls.

Fig. 1071. Elongated cell, forming a tube, with the fibres inside in the shape of rings.

Fig. 1072. Cells elongated and enlarged, so as to form pentagonal and hexagonal tubes with the fibres inside in the shape of lines or bars.

Fig. 1073. Embryo contained in the seed of the Barberry. The lower portion of the axis gives origin to the radicle or young root which protrudes at the micropyle. The upper portion afterwards appears as the ascending portion of the axis.

the bud and root, and also gives origin to the vascular bundles; it is an active tissue, rich in azotized matters. The latter is the tissue engaged in the formation of nutritive matters, such as starch, cellulose, lignine, oils, resins, colouring matters, and organic acids. It is rich in the hydrates of carbon, which are deposited on the walls, and in the interior of the cells. This tissue becomes elongated, so as to assume the form of woody and vascular tubes, the activity of which often ceases after a certain period. The life of vegetable cells is thus, according to Schacht, a chemico-physiological phenomenon; one cell absorbs and elaborates substances differently from others. The life of the higher species of plants results from the regular vital action of cells of unequal value, which are concerned in the formation of new organs and of new matters.

489. In the growth of an ordinary vascular plant, we perceive, first, a swelling of the cellular embryo contained in the seed (Fig. 1073); the axis elongates — one portion of it, called descending, has active organizing cells connected with the formation of the root (Fig. 1074, *r*), and its fibrils, *bb*; another, called ascending, appears as a bud (gemmule), containing active organizing cells, which give rise to the stem (Fig. 1074, *a*), and its various internodes, *iiii*, bearing, first, seed-leaves or cotyledons, *c*, then ordinary leaves, simple or compound, *lll*, then flower-leaves, in the form of sepals, *s*, petals, *p*, stamens, *st*, and carpels, *ca*. In the axil of the leaves, that is, at the points where they come off from the axis, buds, *ddd*, are produced capable of developing branches, and on the edges of the carpellary leaves, *ca*, or, at other times, at the extremity of the axis, cellular buds, called ovules, are formed. There is thus, as shewn in the ideal figure, a

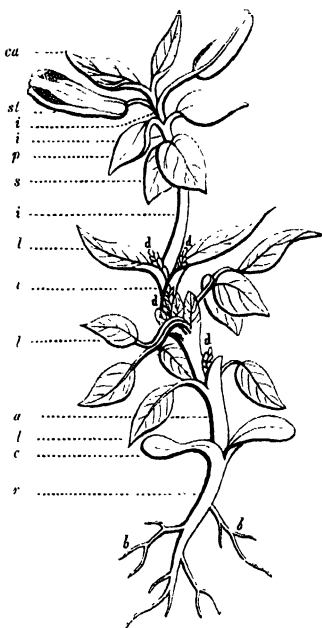


Fig. 1074.

Fig. 1074. An ideal representation of a flowering plant chiefly after Schleiden. There is a general axis from which proceeds the descending system, forming the root, *r*, with its fibrils, *bb*. From the same axis proceeds the ascending system, forming the stem, *a*, with its various internodes, *iiii*. On the ascending axis leaves are produced, first in the form of cotyledons or seed-leaves, *c*, and then in the form of simple or compound leaves, *lll*, in the axil of which buds, *ddd*, are produced. In the progress of time the flower and organs of reproduction are developed, and these are formed upon the type of the leaf; the calycine leaves or sepals, *s*, the corolline leaves or petals, *p*, the staminal leaves or stamens, *st*, and the pistilline leaves or carpels, *ca*. The ovules are either produced on the edges of the carpels or at the extremity of the axis enclosed by the carpels. Both the nutritive and reproductive organs are formed upon a common type.

central axis, from which proceeds a radicular portion in a downward direction, and a tigellary portion upwards—the former being the system connected with the absorption of nutriment from the earth by means of fibrils, the latter being concerned with the exposure of the leaves and flowers to air and light, so as to form secretions and produce seed.

490. When the young plant begins to sprout or germinate, chemical changes take place, by which the insoluble starch of the seed is converted into soluble, gummy, and saccharine matter. The descending portion of the axis then appears in the form of the radicle, which protrudes from the foramen of the seed, and gives origin to fibrilliform roots. The roots absorb liquid nourishment from the soil, which is carried up as sap through the stem to the leaves, undergoing changes in its course. This conveyance of sap is not carried on by a series of anastomosing tubes, as in the case of animals, but by a series of closed cells or tubes of different forms, which are of unequal value, and which convey liquids of various kinds from one part to another. Some of the tubes, such as the spiral vessels and their modifications, usually convey air.

491. The active cambium cells are concerned in the formation of vascular bundles, and of the parenchyma or nutritious cells of the stem and root. A cylindrical layer of these active cells is formed in the young stem between the medullary and cortical parenchyma. In an ordinary tree, this layer, called by Schacht the *thickening-zone*, continues its functions during the life of the plant, forming internally new wood, and externally new bark. In Endogens and the higher Cryptogamous plants, this thickening zone is active but for a short period of time, and hence the stems of these plants, after increasing in diameter up to a certain point, grow subsequently only in height.

492. The leaves absorb liquids and gases, and elaborate secretions, which are afterwards employed in the processes of vegetation. The green parts of plants under the influence of light carry on a process of deoxidation,* decomposing carbonic acid, and setting free its oxygen, thus counteracting the effects produced on the atmosphere by the breathing of man and animals, and by other processes of combustion and oxidation. Sir Humphry Davy remarks—"Nature has linked together organic beings, and made them mutually dependent on each other for their existence, and all dependent on light. A privation of light would be destructive to organic existence; vegetation would cease; the supply of oxygen would be quickly cut off from animals; the atmosphere would become composed of carbonic acid; and perception and volition would exist no longer." †

493. At a certain period of a plant's life flowers are produced, containing the organs of reproduction. Their function is the formation

* This process ought, perhaps, in strict chemical language, rather to be called one of *decarbonization*, inasmuch as the plant retains the carbon for its own use.

† Davy's Works, vol. i. p. 106.

of the seed containing the embryo. The seeds are scattered in various ways, and, when placed in favourable circumstances, sprout and give origin to new plants. The duration of the life of plants varies. Some plants go through all their phases of existence in the course of a year, and are called *annual*; in others the vital functions extend over two years, and they are hence called *biennial*; while a third set, such as our forest trees, continue to live during many years, and are called *perennial*. Some plants flower only once in their life, and then die after producing fruit. In such instances the flowering and fruiting may take place at the end of one year, or it may be delayed for many years. The age which some trees attain is very great. The peculiarity of the organization of vegetables, and their unlimited power of increase by buds, present great difficulties in determining the duration of perennial plants. Each individual cell, and each single organ, has a definite termination of its life. The individual shoots go through their periods of existence independently, and only share the weakness which the older organs suffer from age, when these latter are no longer able to convey onward the necessary amount of nourishment to the young shoots. In such circumstances, the latter die, not from deficiency of innate vital powers, but from defect of nourishment or starvation. If an additional supply of food could be imparted, as by grafting the shoots on vigorous stems, then their life would be prolonged. The obstacle to the conveyance of the requisite quantity of nourishment to the young shoots, in proportion as the stem elongates year by year, will naturally put an end to the existence of perennial plants. Even in those trees which attain a great age, there is thus an internal cause which tends to their ultimate death, although that may be long delayed.

494. Plants, in the exercise of their various functions, form certain organic products which supply nourishment to a higher order of beings. The animal kingdom is, in truth, dependent for its existence and support on the vegetable world. Plants, under the influence of light and heat, bring together a certain number of elements derived from the atmosphere and soil, and subject them to processes by which they are combined into nutritious matter. One portion of this is consumed by plants themselves in maintaining their structure, and in developing the embryos which are to replace them, another portion serves for food to animals, and the remainder is either returned to the soil, so as to increase its fertility, or is buried in the earth, so as to form peat, coal, and other fossil fuels destined to benefit future generations of mankind.

495. The following tabular view by Dumas* and Boussingault points out the contrast and antagonism between the processes of animal and vegetable life, and shews the mode in which they are made mutually subservient to each other :—

* Dumas, Balance of Organic Nature. See also Alison on Vital Affinity, in Trans. Royal Soc. Edin. xx. 386.

AN ANIMAL is	A VEGETABLE is
An apparatus of combustion or oxidation.	An apparatus of reduction or deoxidation.
Possesses the faculty of locomotion.	Is fixed.
Burns carbon.	Reduces carbon.
" hydrogen.	" hydrogen.
" ammonium.	" ammonium.
Exhales or gives off carbonic acid.	Fixes carbonic acid.
" water.	" water.
" oxide of ammonium.	" oxide of ammonium.
" azote.	" azote.
Consumes oxygen.	Produces oxygen.
" neutral azotized matters.	" neutral azotized matters.
" fatty matters.	" fatty matters.
" amylaceous matters, gum, and sugar.	" amylaceous matters, gum, and sugar.
Produces heat.	Absorbs heat.
" electricity.	Abstracts electricity.
Restores its elements to air and earth.	Derives its elements from air and earth.
Transforms organized into mineral matters.	Transforms mineral into organized matters.

496. The various functions of plants are under the control of vital forces, the nature of which is unknown to us. No doubt we can trace the operation in vegetables of certain chemical and physical laws, but these are regulated in their operation by the vital powers of the organism. Although we can trace the absorption of certain unorganized matters, and can ascertain by chemical means certain of the changes which they undergo in the course of their progress, still we have not been able to detect the mode in which these changes are produced by the vegetable tissues, nor the process by which the various vegetable products are secreted and deposited. When the chemist tells us that carbonic acid, water, and ammonia, form the organic tissues of plants, he does not pretend to explain the mode in which these materials are transformed by the physical and vital powers of the plant into the different organs. The chemist has done much, however, to advance the science of physiology, more especially as regards the nutrition of plants, and his researches have, in an especial manner, been productive of the happiest results in regard to the practice of agriculture. The knowledge of the composition of plants and of the soil has led to great improvements in culture, and to the judicious employment of manures of various kinds. Chemistry and Physiology must go hand in hand in the investigation of the functions of plant life.

497. Dr. Carpenter has recently hazarded the conjecture, that a living plant has not merely the power of withdrawing materials from

the unorganized world around it, but that it also can act on heat, light, and electricity, in such a way as to convert them into vital forces; and that the disintegration of the living structure, while it gives back solid and gaseous matters to the soil and air, also restores those imponderable agents to the universe.* In speaking of heat from this point of view, Dr. Carpenter states that he does not regard it as the vital principle or as identical with vital force; nor does he recognise the possibility that any action of heat upon unorganized elements can of itself develop an organized structure. There must be the pre-existence of a living organism, through which alone heat can be converted into vital force. "Starting," he says, "with the abstract nature of force as emanating from the Creator, we might say that this force, operating through unorganized matter, manifests itself in electricity, magnetism, light, heat, chemical affinity, and mechanical motion; but that, when directed through organized structures, it effects the operations of growth, development, chemico-vital transformation, and the like." "Plants form those organic compounds at the expense of which animal life (as well as their own) is sustained, by the decomposition of carbonic acid, water, and ammonia; and the *light*, by whose agency alone these compounds can be generated, may be considered as metamorphosed into the *chemico-vital affinity* by which their components are held together. The *heat* which plants receive, acting through their organized structures as *vital force*, serves to augment these structures to an almost unlimited extent, and thus to supply new instruments for the agency of light and for the production of organic compounds. Supposing that no animals existed to consume these organic compounds, they would be all restored to the unorganized condition by spontaneous decay, which would reproduce carbonic acid, water, and ammonia, from which they were generated. In this decay, however slow, the same amount of heat would be given off as in more rapid processes of combustion; and the faint luminosity which has been perceived in some vegetable substances in a state of *eremacausis*, makes it probable that the same is true of light. And though the process of decay may be prevented or modified, so that the whole or a part of the materials of vegetable structures are disposed of in other ways, yet whenever they return to the condition from which they were at first withdrawn, they not only give back to the inorganic world the materials out of which they were formed, but the light and heat to which their production was due. Thus, in making use of the stores of coal which have been prepared for his wants by the luxuriant flora of past ages, man is not only restoring to the atmosphere the carbonic acid, the water, and the ammonia, which it must have contained in the carboniferous period, but is artificially reproducing the light and heat which were then expended in the operations of vegetable growth. That the relative proportion of the light and heat thus restored should

* Carpenter on the mutual relation of vital and physical forces. Phil. Trans. for 1860, p. 727.

be the same as that which they originally bore to each other, is by no means necessary; since each (according to Professor Grove's views) is convertible into the other. In the few cases in which *motion* is affected by the vital force of plants, this may be considered as restoring to the inorganic universe a certain measure of the force which they have derived from it, in the form of light and heat."

498. Whatever may be said in regard to these speculations, there can be no doubt that heat and light are powerful agents in promoting the vital activity of plants. It is only in connection with a certain temperature that the various processes of vegetation can proceed, and light is required for deoxidation as well as for the development of nuclei, of chlorophyll, and of the other secretions which are concerned in plant-life.

CHAPTER II.

CHEMISTRY OF VEGETATION.

CONSTITUENTS OF PLANTS AND SOURCES WHENCE THEY ARE DERIVED.

499. It is impossible to study the functions of individual cells and vessels, or of the entire plant, without knowing their chemical composition, and the sources whence they derive the materials necessary for carrying on their vital processes. Hence, before proceeding to consider the plant in a state of activity, and as performing vital actions, it is necessary to give a general view of the chemistry of vegetation. This subject has engaged the attention of many distinguished chemists, among whom may be mentioned Saussure, Sprengel, Davy, Liebig, Dumas, Mulder, Boussingault, and Johnston. The subject has assumed importance in an agricultural point of view, and a knowledge of it is essential for carrying on farming operations in an enlightened manner. The theory of manures, and the practical application of them, is intimately connected with the knowledge of the composition of plants and of soils. Much has been done lately in the way of advancing scientific as well as practical agriculture, and the establishment of chemical departments by the Highland and the English Agricultural Societies bids fair to advance the farming of Britain.

500. One of the most beneficial aims of chemistry, Daubeny remarks, is to impart greater precision to known and familiar methods of culture, by pointing out the causes upon which their efficacy depends, and thus to enable the agriculturist to employ greater discrimination in their use; whilst another not less important practical end, is that of furnishing a clue to the discovery of new and economical sources for materials of acknowledged utility in husbandry, and of instructing us how to preserve in all their integrity the constituents on which their virtue depends. The diffusion of scientific information among farmers is valuable, not merely as regards the attainment of truth, but likewise in the exclusion of error. While it promotes the progress of agricultural knowledge in a right direction, it guards at the same time against the evils produced by fanciful hypotheses.

I. ORGANIC CONSTITUENTS OF PLANTS.

501. The materials of which the substance of plants is composed are of two kinds, *Organic* and *Inorganic*. The organic constituents form the great bulk of the tissues of plants; they are completely consumed when the plant is burnt; they are produced by living organs alone, and cannot be manufactured in the laboratory of the chemist. The inorganic constituents, on the other hand, form a small portion of the tissues; they are incombustible, and remain in the form of ash after the organic constituents have been consumed by fire; and they can be produced in the laboratory of the chemist. The former may be called the combustible materials produced by living plants; the latter, incombustible materials, found not only in plants, but also in the mineral kingdom. Both are derived originally from unorganized matter, and both enter into the composition of organized structures in a greater or less degree. The vegetable organic constituents are composed chiefly of Carbon (C), Oxygen (O), Hydrogen (H), Nitrogen (N).* The inorganic constituents are composed of metallic bases in combination with oxygen, acids, and metalloids. In the fresh plant there is always a large quantity of water (H O). This is removed by drying.† The quantity varies in different plants—succulent and fleshy species containing a larger proportion of water than those which are dry and hard. It has been found that 100 lbs. of the following crops, in their ordinary fresh state, lose by drying at 230° F., the following quantities of water, on an average:—

Peas lose of water	8 lbs.	Potatoes	72 to 77 lbs.
Clover seed	11 lbs.	Apples and Pears	83 to 84 lbs.
Wheat	14 lbs.	Red Beet	85 lbs.
Oats	15 lbs.	Strawberries and Gooseberries	90 lbs.
Rye	15 lbs.	Common Hornwort	90 lbs.
Wheat-straw	26 lbs.	Seakale	92 lbs.
Oat-straw	28 lbs.	French Beans and Turnips	93 lbs.

502. After the plants have been dried so as to remove the water, an estimate can be made, by burning, of the relative proportion of organic and inorganic matter—the former being dissipated by the action of fire, and the latter remaining in the form of ashes. Bous-singault gives the following tabular view of the quantity of Carbon, Hydrogen, Oxygen, Nitrogen, or the organic constituents, and of ash or the inorganic constituents:—

* Sulphur (S), and Phosphorus (P), also enter into the composition of some of the organic compounds of plants. See section entitled Azotized constituents.

† The results of Bous-singault's experiments in regard to the watery contents of plants, are given in the 2d volume of his *Economie rurale*. See also Schleiden's *Principles of Botany*, translated by Lankester, Appendix, p. 560.

	WHEAT.		OATS.		Yellow Peas.	Clover Seed.	Hay.	Turnips.	Potatoes.*
	Grain.	Straw.	Grain.	Straw.					
Carbon	46.1	48.4	50.7	50.1	46.5	49.4	45.8	42.9	44.0
Hydrogen	5.8	5.3	6.4	5.4	6.1	5.8	5.0	5.6	5.8
Oxygen	43.4	38.95	36.7	39.0	40.1	35.0	38.7	42.2	44.7
Nitrogen	2.8	.35	2.2	.4	4.2	7.0	1.5	1.7	1.5
Ash	2.4	7.0	4.0	5.1	3.1	2.8	9.0	7.6	4.0
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

This table shows that the quantity of ash is small, and that of the organic elements Carbon and Oxygen are the most abundant. The relative proportions of the different organic elements, it will be seen, vary in different plants, and in different parts of the same plant. Thus nitrogen is more abundant in the grain than in the straw of wheat and oats. It is also more abundant in yellow peas and in clover seed, than in the cereal grains and hay. Some of the organic vegetable compounds consist of Carbon, Oxygen, Hydrogen, and Nitrogen or Azote, and are hence called Nitrogenous or Azotized. Others are composed of Carbon, Oxygen, and Hydrogen, without the addition of Nitrogen, and are hence called Non-Nitrogenous or Unazotized. In considering these constituents, we shall make some remarks on the elements of which they are respectively formed.

1. NON-NITROGENOUS OR UNAZOTIZED CONSTITUENTS AND THEIR ELEMENTS.

503. The organic compounds, denominated unazotized, are important constituents of all plants. Some of them, such as cellulose, lignine, starch, gum, sugar, and oily matters, are universally diffused over the vegetable kingdom, and have already been noticed when the contents of cells were considered (pp. 31 to 34). Others, such as vegetable acids, bitter principles, and resins, are more limited in their distribution. All of these substances, except cellulose and starch, which are organized, and gum, which is amorphous, are crystalline when they can be got in a solid state. Those unazotized matters, which are still subject to the law of crystallization, do not take part in the formation of tissues. Starch and cellulose, on the other hand, are concerned in the development of the organized parts of plants, but in order to effect this, they require the addition of certain azotized products as well some inorganic matters. Cells and vessels cannot be formed without the presence of albuminous matter, which contains nitrogen and sulphur in its composition, and which cannot be produced without the presence of phosphates. The physico-vital energies of the plant effect the union of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen, in different

proportions. These elements, existing in certain states of combination in the atmosphere, are within the reach of plants at all times.

* 504. *Carbon* enters largely into the composition of plants. It is said to form two-thirds of the weight of dried plants in general. This substance is familiar to us in the form of wood-charcoal, and in its purest state it is seen in the diamond. Charcoal is porous, and has the power of absorbing soluble gases in large quantity, of separating saline and other matters from solutions, and of taking away disagreeable odours. When combined with two equivalents of oxygen, carbon forms carbonic acid (CO_2), and it is in this condition that it is taken up by the leaves and other parts of plants. Some maintain that this carbonic acid is derived by plants entirely from the atmosphere, which contains about 1-1000th of its volume of the gas. The quantity contained in the air, although it appears small when compared with the whole bulk of the atmosphere, is nevertheless sufficient to supply all the carbon of plants. A room 40 feet long, 24 feet wide, and 16 feet high, will contain in its atmosphere 15 cubic feet of carbonic acid, equal to 28 ounces by weight of carbon. The leaves of plants have a great power of absorbing carbonic acid. Boussingault proved this by passing air containing the usual proportion of carbonic acid over a vine leaf. Even by coming for a few seconds into contact with the leaf, the air was deprived entirely of its carbonic acid. The carbonic acid in the atmosphere is derived from various sources. Amongst the most evident of these are—1. The respiration and transpiration of man and animals. 2. The decomposition of dead animal and vegetable matter. 3. Various processes of combustion on the surface of the earth. 4. Volcanic action going on in the interior of the earth in different countries.

505. The function of respiration in animals consists in the giving out of carbonic acid, or, in other words, the oxidation of carbon, while the great function of vegetables is the elimination of oxygen or the deoxidation of carbonic acid. The two processes are antagonistic, and a balance is kept up between the carbonic acid given off by animals, &c., and the oxygen given out by plants. A grown person is said to give off $3\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of carbon in a day, and every pound of carbon burnt or oxidized yields more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of carbonic acid. While active volcanoes give out carbonic acid, there are also extinct ones which do so. The soil in the country on the Rhine, to the south of Bonn, gives out carbonic acid; and all the waters in that district are charged with it. The carbonic acid of coal arises from the decay of vegetable matter.

506. When plants decay they furnish to the soil a large supply of carbon in the form of *humus* or common vegetable mould. This cannot be taken up directly as food by plants, but it is acted on by air and moisture, and undergoes certain changes by which a portion of carbonic acid is probably formed. It also has the power of absorbing gases, such as ammonia, and sulphuretted hydrogen, as well as saline

substances, and of making them available for the use of plants. Humus is transformed into humic, geic, and apocrenic acids, and these combine with various matters in the soil so as to aid in the nutrition of plants. The carbonic acid in the soil, according to Liebig, is not the source whence plants derive their carbon. He thinks that it acts chiefly in dissolving the carbonates and phosphates of magnesia and lime in the soil, and in forming bicarbonates of potash and soda.

507. *Oxygen* is another organic element of plants. It is known to us in a gaseous state as forming 21 per cent. of the bulk of the atmosphere, and as supplying materials for respiration and combustion. When one atom of oxygen is combined with one of hydrogen, water is formed, and carbonic acid is the result of the union of one atom of oxygen with two of carbon. In its combinations with metals and metalloids, oxygen forms a large proportion of the solid materials of the globe. Johnston says, that "nearly one-half of the weight of solid rocks of the globe, of every solid substance around us, of the houses in which we live, of the stones on which we tread, and of the soils we cultivate, and much more than one-half by weight of the bodies of all living animals and plants, consist of this elementary body." All the oxygen in plants seems to be derived from carbonic acid and water. No vegetable contains more oxygen than can be accounted for by these two sources.

508. *Hydrogen* is another element of plants which is known to us in the state of a gas. It does not, however, occur free and in a simple state in nature. It exists in small quantity in animal and vegetable substances, forms 1-9th of the weight of pure water, and enters into the composition of coal. The hydrogen of plants is derived from water. As carbonic acid and water therefore exist at all times, more or less, in the atmosphere, it appears that the air is the source whence plants procure the *carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen*, which enter so largely into their composition. At the same time, it cannot be denied, that these elements also exist in the soil, and may be taken up by the roots of plants in the form of carbonic acid and water.

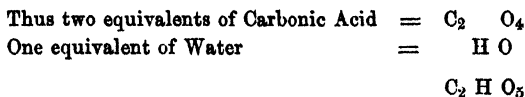
509. It will be seen, by the following tabular view, taken from an extended one given by Dr. Gregory,* that it is easy to derive the non-azotized vegetable products (*i. e.*, the products consisting of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen), from carbonic acid (CO_2), and water (HO), by a process of deoxidation; and as this process is constantly going on in every plant, by means of which oxygen is given out, we may conjecture that it is in this way that the products are formed. In the Table it will be perceived, that there are seven groups, forming successive stages in the scale of deoxidation, at one end of which stand carbonic acid and water, and at the other the non-oxygenated volatile oils; and it is evident also, that the members of one group may be converted into those of the succeeding one by the removal of oxygen, with or without the addition of water:—

* Gregory's Handbook of Organic Chemistry, p. 460

SUBSTANCE FORMED.		Carbonic Acid used in Equivalents.	Water used in Equivalents.	Oxygen separated in Equivalents.
Name.	Formula.			
A. Soluble Vegetable Acids. The Oxygen given off is less than that of Carbonic Acid.				
1. Oxalic acid (dry)	C ₂ H O ₄ ...	2	1	1
2. Gallic acid (cryst.)	C ₇ H ₃ O ₅ ...	7	3	12
3. Tartaric acid (do.)	C ₈ H ₆ O ₁₂ ...	8	6	10
4. Malic acid (do.)	C ₈ H ₆ O ₁₀ ...	8	6	12
5. Citric acid (do.)	C ₁₂ H ₈ O ₁₄ ...	12	8	18
6. Meconic acid (do.)	C ₁₄ H ₄ O ₁₄ ...	14	4	18
<i>In this group the Oxygen exceeds the Hydrogen.</i>				
B. Mild Neutral Bodies. The Oxygen of the Carbonic Acid is given off.				
7. Starch	C ₁₂ H ₁₀ O ₁₀ ...	12	10	24
8. Cane Sugar and Gum	C ₁₂ H ₁₁ O ₁₁ ...	12	11	24
9. Grape Sugar, dry	C ₁₂ H ₁₂ O ₁₂ ...	12	12	24
10. Cellulose	C ₁₂ H ₈ O ₈ ...	12	8	24
<i>In this group the Oxygen and Hydrogen are in the proportion to form water. They may be viewed theoretically as composed of Carbon plus water.</i>				
*				
C. Bitter, Acid, and Coloured Principles. The Oxygen of the Carbonic Acid, and a part of that of the Water, is given off.				
11. Meconine	C ₁₀ H ₅ O ₄ ...	10	5	21
12. Parietine	C ₁₀ H ₈ O ₃ ...	10	8	25
13. Salicine	C ₂₆ H ₁₈ O ₁₄ ...	26	18	56
14. Pectine	C ₂₈ H ₂₀ O ₂₆ ...	28	20	50
<i>In this group the Hydrogen exceeds the Oxygen.</i>				
D. Fragrant Oxygenated Volatile Oils, and Volatile Acids related to them. Still more Oxygen is given off.				
15. Oil of Anise	C ₁₆ H ₈ O ₄ ...	16	8	36
16. Oil of Cinnamon	C ₁₈ H ₈ O ₂ ...	18	8	42
E. Oily and Fatty Volatile Acids. In these the greater part of the Oxygen is given off both from the Carbonic Acid and from the Water.				
17. Valerianic acid	C ₁₀ H ₁₀ O ₄ ...	10	10	26
18. Ceanthyllic acid	C ₁₄ H ₁₄ O ₄ ...	14	14	38
19. Myristic acid	C ₂₈ H ₂₈ O ₄ ...	28	28	80
20. Bassic acid	C ₃₆ H ₃₆ O ₄ ...	36	36	104
21. Melissic acid	C ₆₀ H ₆₀ O ₄ ...	60	60	176

SUBSTANCES FORMED.		Carbonic Acid used in Equivalents	Water used in Equivalents	Oxygen separated in Equivalents.
Name.	Formula.			
F. Resins and Camphors. In these very little Oxygen is left.				
22. Many resins	C ₁₀ H ₇ O ...	10	7	26
23. Camphor	C ₁₀ H ₈ O ...	10	8	27
24. Borneo Camphor	C ₂₀ H ₁₈ O ₂ ...	20	18	56
25. Many resins	C ₂₀ H ₁₄ O ₂ ...	20	14	52
G. Non-Oxygenated Volatile Oils. No Oxygen left.				
26. Oil of Lemons, &c.....	C ₅ H ₄	5	4	14
27. Oil of Turpentine, &c.	C ₁₀ H ₈	10	8	28
28. Oil of Juniper, &c.....	C ₁₅ H ₁₂	15	12	42

510. By examining the table, it will be seen that we can procure various vegetable products in succession from carbonic acid and water by a constant loss of oxygen. Beginning with oxalic acid, for instance, we procure it from two equivalents of carbonic acid and one of water, with the loss of one equivalent of oxygen :—



and taking away one of oxygen, we have C₂ H O₄ an equivalent of oxalic acid, which exists in combination with lime and potash in many plants, such as Rhubarb, Rumex acetosa and Acetosella, Oxyria reniformis, and Oxalis Acetosella. By a still farther separation of oxygen, we account for the formation of tartaric acid in the grape and tamarind; malic acid in the apple and gooseberry; citric acid in the orange, lemon, lime, and red currant; gallic acid in the seeds of the mango; meconic acid in the opium poppy, and so on. As the loss of oxygen is greater, we pass from acids to neutral substances, such as cellulose, starch, gum, and sugar, which are very abundant products of plants (pp. 31 to 34). In them the oxygen given off is equal to that in the carbonic acid. These neutral substances seem to be steps in the scale between the acids and other vegetable products. Sugar may also be derived from any of the acids by addition of water and separation of oxygen. Thus, citric acid, C₁₂ H₈ O₁₄ + 4 H O — O₈ = C₁₂ H₁₂ O₁₂ or dry grape sugar. Again, cellulose, of which the membrane of cells and vessels is composed, may be derived from grape sugar by losing a certain proportion of water. By a still further deoxidation, we arrive at

bitter, acid, and coloured or colouring substances, as meconine in opium, salicine in Willows, and pectine in pulpy fruits; next we reach fragrant oxygenated volatile oils, as oils of Cinnamon and Anise; then volatile, oily, and fatty acids, as valerianic acid in Valerian and Viburnum Opulus, myristic acid in Nutmeg, bassic acid in the butter-tree of Africa, and melissic acids in plants yielding wax; then resins and camphors found in many coniferous plants, in the *Camphora officinarum*, and *Dryabalanops Camphora*; and, finally, to carbo-hydrogens, in which there is no oxygen, as oils of lemon, turpentine, and juniper.

2 NITROGENOUS OR AZOTIZED CONSTITUENTS, AND THEIR ELEMENTS.

511. Another class of substances found in the tissues of plants, and essential to the process of vegetation, consists of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and *nitrogen* (N), with the addition of *sulphur* (S), and alkaline or earthy phosphates. They are commonly called *Nitrogenous* or *Azotized* or *Azoto-sulphurized* substances.* Some authors include them under the general name of Mucus or Protoplasm. The constituents of these organic matters are known by the names of vegetable albumen, fibrine, and caseine. The general name of gluten is given to the glutinous part of wheat which remains after the starch and soluble constituents of the grain have been removed. This gluten consists usually of fibrine and albumen. Wheat contains from 8 to 24 per cent. of gluten; barley 3 to 6; oats 2 to 5.

512. Nitrogen enters largely into the composition of the tissues of animals, and hence it must be supplied to them in their food. Without the presence of azotized compounds, no blood nor muscle can be formed. Hence the quantity of these compounds in plants, along with phosphates which form bone, indicates their blood-forming or sanguigenous value. Nitrogen is known to us as a gas forming 79 volumes per cent. of the atmosphere, and moderating the effect of oxygen on all oxidable bodies. Like hydrogen, it is sparingly soluble in water. It enters into combination with hydrogen, and forms ammonia, composed of 1 equivalent of nitrogen and 3 of hydrogen (NH_3). Ammonia is given off during the decay of animal tissues, in the form of a pungent vapour, which is readily absorbed by water, and also in combination with other substances, such as carbonic acid and sulphuretted hydrogen. The nitrogen of the air may also, as some think, combine with hydrogen in the soil, and form ammonia. The presence of ammonia in the atmosphere was determined by Saussure in 1806. M. Ville has recently stated that the nitrogen of the air is assimilated by plants, but his observations have not been confirmed.† Daubeny, for in-

* Iacob on the azotized nutritive principles of plants. - *Annalen der Chemie und Pharmacie*, Aug 1811, translated in Taylor's *Scientific Memoirs*, vol. iii 244.

† See Ville's remarks in *Comptes Rendus* for 1852.

stance, does not believe in the assimilation of the nitrogen of the air by plants.

513. The atomic composition of these azotized matters is by no means fully ascertained. The following, according to Gregory, is their approximative composition :—

	C.	H.	N.	S.	O.	Total Atoms.
Albumen .	216	169	27	2	68	482 besides phosphates.
Fibrine .	216	169	27	2	68	482 besides phosphates.
Caseine .	288	228	36	2	90	544 besides phosphates.

All these substances are sanguigenous or blood-forming, and they are all putrescible. Fibrine coagulates spontaneously, albumen coagulates by heat, and caseine by acids. Vegetable albumen is isomeric with the albumen of blood and the fibrine of muscles. The albumen of eggs differs in having three in place of two atoms of sulphur. Fibrine acts as a ferment, and converts starch into sugar; in this state it has sometimes received the name of diastase, which, however, is not a distinct substance. Caseine also acts as a ferment and converts sugar into lactic acid. The emulsine of Almonds and the emulsive body in Mustard, appear to be varieties of caseine. Leguminous seeds, such as peas, grown in dark cellars, according to Liebig, contain much asparagine, a nitrogenous substance derived from malic acid and ammonia by the loss of hydrogen and oxygen—caseine in this case acting as a ferment. It appears that these nitrogenous matters are concerned both in germination and in the process of vegetation.

514. In order that this azotized matter may be formed, plants must have a supply of nitrogen as well as sulphur and phosphates. The two latter are derived from the soil, in the form of soluble compounds of sulphuric and phosphoric acids, while the former is derived, according to Liebig, not from the nitrogen of the air, but from the ammonia diffused through it. This ammonia constitutes only 1-10,000th of the bulk of the air at the utmost; it is usually much less. Dr. Anderson says 100 lbs. of atmospheric air contain 77 lbs. of nitrogen, and not more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain of ammonia. Still this has been shown to be sufficient for the supply of nitrogen to plants. Ammonia is returned to the air during the processes of putrefaction which go on in dead animals and plants, as well as in the excreta of the former, such as the urine. It is also yielded by transpiration. Thus ammonia is continually sent into the atmosphere, and by the constant movement of the air the supply is diffused. Ammonia is also absorbed by the soil, and may thus be rendered available for the use of plants. It is known also that in some instances volcanic action gives rise to the formation of ammonia.

515. Daubeny believes that the ammonia, as well as the carbonic acid which formed the food of the first plants, was produced, not by processes of animal decay, but by such as were proceeding within the globe prior to the creation of living beings, and that the disengage-

ment of both these compounds has been going on slowly and continually from the earliest period to the present time. While the evolution of carbonic acid indicates perhaps nothing more than the operation of subterranean heat, the escape of atmospheric air deprived of a portion of its oxygen seems to imply that the heat originates in internal combustion, by which oxygen is absorbed; and the disengagement of ammonia may lead us to presume that this combustion is connected with the decomposition of water, which alone can be supposed to supply the hydrogen necessary to form the ammonia with nitrogen. Volcanic action may, he says, cause nascent hydrogen under great pressure to be brought into contact with nitrogen, and thus produce ammonia. He considers the supply of these substances as due to the effect of volcanoes. The eminent fertility of the soil near Naples is to be attributed, he thinks, not merely to alkalies present in the volcanic material of which it is made up, but also to the slow disengagement of ammoniacal salts as well as carbonic acid from crevices in the mountain. These, by furnishing nitrogen and carbon, supersede in some degree the necessity for animal manure. The soil in this favoured spot, the Terra del Lavoro, no doubt also contains a portion of earthy phosphates, and thus may yield an uninterrupted succession of corn crops, repeated as often as the disintegration of the substratum permits, so long as the volcanic processes in progress beneath it continue to send forth volumes of the gases alluded to. The superior quality of the wheat grown in this part of Campania may, perhaps, be thought to confirm such a conjecture. It would appear that the flour of warm climates in general, contains more gluten than that of colder ones, perhaps because heat promotes the decomposition of organic matter, and consequently renders the supply of ammonia more abundant; and to this circumstance its superior fitness for the manufacture of macaroni is attributed.

516. Others think that part of the nitrogen of plants is derived from nitric acid and nitrates, and this view is gaining ground. Nitric acid is produced during thunder storms, and in the rain which falls during these storms this acid has been detected in small quantities. The nitric acid in these instances probably proceeds not only from a combination between the nitrogen and oxygen of the air, but also from a combination between the ammonia and oxygen. The minute quantity of nitric acid and nitrates in some springs may also supply nitrogen. The nitric acid in these instances appears to proceed from the decay of animal matter, and from the oxidation of ammonia. M. Barral has recently shown that nitric acid exists in considerable quantity in rain water. In the rain gauges of the Paris Observatory he found that the monthly average quantity of nitric acid was 294 grains in a cubic metre,* while that of ammonia was only 55.7 grains. Rain water is thus shown to be an important source of nitrogen for plants.

517. All the azotized matters to which we have alluded are formed by a process of deoxidation from carbonic acid (CO_2), water (HO),

* A m tre is equal to 3 2806992 l c c t

hydrated ammonia ($\text{NH}_3\text{H}_2\text{O}$), nitric acid (NO_5), and sulphuric acid (SO_3). They all contain much less oxygen than is necessary to convert their hydrogen into water, their carbon into carbonic acid, and their sulphur into sulphuric acid. They are never found alone in plants, but generally two of them together. They cannot exist without the presence of phosphates. Hence the ashes of plants are in part derived from the sanguigenous matters, such as albumen and fibrine, which enter along with cellulose into the composition of the cell-walls.

518. The first nitrogenous compounds which are formed in the plant, according to Dr. Gregory, are amides, such as malamide (asparagine), which appears in great abundance in the first young shoots of the *Leguminosæ*, and in etiolated (blanched) plants, such as asparagus and peas or vetches grown in the dark. It is formed from malic acid and ammonia (malate of NH_3), by the separation of two equivalents of water. In the same way many other amides are, in all probability, also formed. The next class of nitrogenous substances are the alkaloïds. We cannot yet trace the actual formation of these in the plant; but we have reason to think that they are formed in different ways. They may, however, be formed from carbonic acid, water, and ammonia, or nitric acid, by separation of oxygen. The next class of nitrogenous compounds is the oils containing nitrogen and sulphur, of which oil of mustard is the best known; and the last class is the sanguigenous bodies, vegetable albumen, fibrine, and caseine, which contain both nitrogen and sulphur as well as phosphates. Supposing these to be directly formed from the food of plants, they may be produced from carbonic acid, water, and ammonia, by separation of oxygen.

519. The latter bodies may also be formed from dry grape sugar, ammonia, and sulphuric acid. The following table by Gregory,* shows that the various azotized substances in plants may be formed, like the non-azotized, from the materials used for their food, by a constant process of deoxidation :—

SUBSTANCE FORMED.	FORMULA.	CO ₂ used in Equiva- lents.	HO used in Equiva- lents.	NH ₃ used in Equiva- lents.	O given off in Equiva- lents.
AMIDES.					
Malamide (asparagine)...	C ₈ N ₂ H ₁₀ O ₈	8	4	2	12
Amygdaline	C ₄₀ N H ₂₇ O ₂₂	40	24	1	82
BASES.					
Morphine	C ₃₅ N H ₂₀ O ₆	35	17	1	81
Strychnine	C ₄₄ N ₂ H ₂₂ O ₄	44	16	2	106
Quinine	C ₂₀ N H ₁₂ O ₆	20	9	1	43
Caffeine	C ₁₆ N ₄ H ₁₀ O ₁	16	0	6	28
Nicotine	C ₁₀ N H ₈	10	8	1	28
Coniine	C ₁₆ N H ₁₆	16	16	1	48

* See Gregory's Handbook of Organic Chemistry, p 472

These azotized or nitrogenized compounds contain nitrogen without sulphur, and they may be formed from acids or sugar acting on ammonia with deoxidation—the acids or sugar having been previously formed from carbonic acid and water by deoxidation. The next class of nitrogenous compounds is that of the oils containing nitrogen and sulphur, of which oil of mustard is the best known. To understand its formation, we must explain that of oil of garlic, which contains sulphur, but no nitrogen :—

SUBSTANCE FORMED.	FORMULA.	CO ₂ used in Equivalents.	SO ₃ used in Equivalents.	HO used in Equivalents.	NH ₃ used in Equivalents.	O given off in Equivalents.
Oil of Garlic (sulphuret of Allyle)	C ₆ H ₅ S	6	1	5	...	20
Oil of Mustard (sulphocyanide of Allyle)	C ₈ N H ₅ S ₂	8	2	2	1	24

The last and most complex of the nitrogenous bodies are the albuminous or sanguigenous compounds, vegetable albumen, fibrine, and caseine, which contain both nitrogen and sulphur. Their formulæ have already been given in an approximate manner. Supposing them to be directly derived from the food of plants, they may be formed thus :—

SUBSTANCE FORMED	FORMULA	CO ₂ used in Equivalents.	HO used in Equivalents	NH ₃ used in Equivalents.	SO ₃ used in Equivalents.	O given off in equivalents
Albumen and } Fibrine ... }	C H N S O 216 169 27 2 68	216	88	27	2	454
Caseine	288 228 36 2 90	288	120	36	2	612

520. The value of plants, as food for man and animals, depends chiefly on the organic matter contained in them, and more especially on the amount of nitrogenous compounds, which, however, are always associated with the alkaline and earthy phosphates so indispensable to the growth of all animals. The following table of analyses by Dr. Lyon Playfair gives the amount of organic matter in different articles of vegetable food :—

ARTICLES OF FOOD.	Dry Organic Matter, or Real Food.	The Portions subtracted as useless are—	
		Water.	Ashes.
100 lbs. of ordinary hay contain	<i>Lbs.</i> 76½	<i>Lbs.</i> 16	<i>Lbs.</i> 7½
„ Linseed cake	75½	17	7½
„ Peas	80½	16	3½
„ Beans	82½	14	3½
„ Wheat straw	79	18	3
„ Barleymeal	82½	15½	2
„ Oatmeal	89	9	2
„ Bran	81	14	5
„ Oats	79	18	3
„ Lentils	81	16	3
„ Potatoes	27	72	1
„ Red beet	10	89	1
„ Turnips	10	89	1
„ Swedes	14	85	1
„ White carrot	12	87	1
„ Mangold wurzel	10	89	1

Fromberg, taking into account the nitrogenous matter chiefly, gives the following comparative values of different articles of vegetable food:—

Beans	100	Rye	55
Peas	80	Barley	50
Oats	75	Potatoes	45
Wheat	70	Rice	35

521. Dr. Anderson has made experiments on the nutritive values of the most important kinds of food used for cattle. In these experiments the proportions of nitrogen and oil, which are by far the most valuable of the nutritious elements, have been selected as the means of comparison, as will be seen in the following table:—

In a Ton of	Nitrogen.	Oil.	In a Ton of	Nitrogen.	Oil.
Linseed, English	97 lbs.	777 lbs.	Peas	77 lbs.	29 lbs.
„ Foreign	76 „	715 „	Oats	60 „	— „
Oil Cake	103 „	224 „	Barley	42 „	— „
Poppy Cake	110 „	129 „	Oat Dust	27 „	83 „
Rape Cake	105 „	223 „	Turnips	4¼ „	7 „
Beans	85 „	32 „	Distillery Draff	5½ oz.	— „

All these are what may be called oleaginous foods, but there are also others, in which the quantity of oil is deficient, but in which there is abundance of nitrogen and of starchy and saccharine matters. Beans

and peas are the most important and valuable of these, and after them follow oats, barley, and the other grains.

522. Thus we have considered the most important elements which enter into the composition of the nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous organic constituents of plants. They can be derived from the atmosphere in the form of water, carbonic acid, nitric acid, and ammonia, and they may be termed the atmospheric food of plants. The soil, however, contributes in a certain degree to the formation of these organic matters, more especially by supplying sulphuric acid and phosphates. Bous-singault, Wiegmann, and Polstorff, found that plants placed in a soil deprived completely of all organic matter, continued to grow for some time deriving their organic constituents from air and distilled water.

II. INORGANIC CONSTITUENTS OF PLANTS.

523. The *terrestrial* or *telluric food* of plants, as it is termed, consists chiefly of certain *inorganic* matters, the amount of which is ascertained by the ash left after burning. While the organic constituents of plants are destroyed by a high temperature, and undergo decay under the agency of moisture and warmth, the inorganic constituents are incombustible, and do not undergo the putrefactive process. There are at least 12 inorganic elements which enter into the composition of plants:—

Sulphur, S, as Sulphuric acid, SO_3 .	Chlorine, Cl, in combination with metals.
Phosphorus, P, as Phosphoric acid, PO_3 .	
Silicium, Si, as Silicic acid, SiO_3 .	Iodine, I, do. do.
Calcium, Ca, as Lime, CaO .	Fluorine, F, do. do.
Magnesium, Mg, as Magnesia, MgO .	Iron, Fe, in combination with oxygen,
Potassium, K, as Potassa, KO .	Fe_2O_3 .
Sodium, Na, as Soda, NaO .	Manganese, Mn, do. MnO .

Alumina (Al_2O_3), the sesquioxide of Aluminum, which has been noticed by some authors as another inorganic constituent of plants, seems to be an accidental ingredient, being sometimes present, and at other times absent. Mr. Stevenson Macadam has recently obtained indications of the presence of Bromine (Br.) in plants.*

524. The quantity of inorganic matter in plants is small when compared with the organic constituents. It is nevertheless essential to the life and vigour of plants. The cell-walls cannot be formed without inorganic matters, and some of them enter into the composition of the azotized substances formed by plants. Thus sulphur and salts of phosphoric acid are necessary for the formation of albumen, fibrine, and caseine. In some rare instances of plants forming mould, no ash has been detected.

525. The quantity of ash left by 100 parts of the following plants is thus given by Johnston:—

* Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, vol. lxx p. 321

	Grain.	Straw.		Grain.	Straw.
Wheat . .	1.2 to 2.0	3.5 to 18.5	Rye	1.0 to 2.4	2.4 to 5.6
Barley . .	2.3 to 3.8	5.2 to 8.5	Indian Corn	1.3	2.3 to 6.5
Oats	1.6 to 2.8		Field Peas	2.5 to 3.0	4.3 to 6.2
	Wood.	Leaves.		Wood.	Leaves.
Larch . . .	0.33	6.0	Birch	0.34	5.0
Scotch Fir	0.14 to 0.19	2.0 to 3.0	Elm	1.88	11.8
Beech . . .	0.14 to 0.60	4.2 to 6.7	Ash	0.4 to 0.6	
Poplar . .	1.97	9.2	Oak	0.21	4.5
Willow . .	0.45	8.2			

Thus the quantity of inorganic matter in the same weight of different crops varies. It will be seen, for instance, that the grain of barley yields more ash than wheat or rye. The quantity of inorganic matter also in different parts of the same plant varies, as seen in the grain and straw of cereal grains, and the wood and leaves of trees.

526. It would appear by the following statements by Johnston, that the nature of the soil has a marked influence on the amount of inorganic matter in the plant :—

A. Analyses of Oats grown in different soils, as respects the quantity of ash.

	Straw.	Grain.
On Aberdeen Granite, crushed . .	9.57 per cent.	3.42
On Clay Slate, do.	7.85 „	3.51
On Greenstone, do.	7.88 „	2.25
On Limestone, do.	10.18 „	3.88
On Chalk, do.	9.36 „	3.16
On Gypsum, do.	5.83 „	3.22
On Siliceous Pit Sand	6.37 „	2.91
On Blue Tile Clay	9.21 „	3.27
On Light Loam	8.79 „	3.06

B. Analyses of Vine Twigs as grown in different soils, showing the comparative quantities of different inorganic matters.

	Soil of Primary Rocks.	Mountain Limestone	Mica Slate.
Potash	34.13	24.93	26.41
Soda	8.03	7.31	8.79
Lime	32.67	37.59	33.47
Magnesia	4.66	7.12	9.16
Oxide of Iron	0.16	0.24	0.19
Phosphoric Acid	16.35	19.55	16.87
Sulphuric Acid	2.16	2.37	2.44
Chlorine	0.50	0.35	0.25
Silica	1.45	0.62	2.48
	100.11	100.08	100.06

527. The following are given by Johnston as the mean of experiments by different chemists in regard to the inorganic constituents

of 100 parts of some of the cultivated plants and trees. Alumina is left in the list, although it may be considered as an accidental ingredient :—

A. Inorganic Matter in some of the Cereal Grains.

INORGANIC CONSTITUENTS.	WHEAT.		BARLEY.		OATS.	
	Grain.	Straw.	Grain.	Straw.	Grain.	Straw.
Potash	23.72	12.44	13.64	6.31	26.18	19.14
Soda	9.05	0.16	8.14	0.61		
Lime	2.81	6.70	2.62	9.53	5.95	8.07
Magnesia	12.03	3.82	7.46	3.22	9.95	3.78
Oxide of Iron and Man- ganese	0.67	1.30	1.48	0.83	0.40	1.83
Phosphoric Acid						
Sulphuric Acid	0.24	5.82	0.10	1.63	10.45	3.26
Chlorine	0.00	1.09	0.04	0.97	0.26	3.25
Alumina	0.00	0.00	0.21	1.39	0.06	0.00
Silica	1.17	65.38	27.10	70.58	2.67	48.42
	99.50	99.78	99.72	98.15	99.76	100.00

B. Inorganic Matter in some Cultivated Field Plants.

INORGANIC CONSTITUENTS.	FIELD BEAN.		Turnip Roots.	Potato Tubers	Ryegrass Hay.	Red Clover.
	Seeds.	Straw				
Potash	33.56	53.08	41.96	55.75	8.03	26.7
Soda	10.60	1.60	5.09	1.86	2.17	7.07
Lime	5.77	19.99	13.60	2.07	6.50	37.09
Magnesia	7.99	6.69	5.34	5.28	4.01	4.45
Alumina	0.56	0.22	1.28	0.52	0.36	0.20
Oxide of Iron						
Do. Manganese		0.16				
Phosphoric Acid	37.57	7.24	7.58	12.57	12.51	8.80
Sulphuric Acid	1.00	1.09	13.60	13.65	...	5.98
Chlorine	0.73	2.56	3.60	4.27	...	4.86
Silica	1.15	7.05	7.95	1.23	64.57	4.85
	98.93	100.00	100.00	100.20	98.15	100.00

C. Inorganic Matter in the Wood and Bark of different Trees.

INORGANIC CONSTITUENTS.	Oak Wood.	Beech Wood.	ELM.		LIME TREE.	
			Wood.	Bark.	Wood.	Bark.
Potash	8.43	15.83	21.92	2.22	35.80	16.14
Soda	5.65	2.88	13.72	10.09	6.03	5.69
Lime	75.45	63.33	47.80	72.70	29.93	60.81
Magnesia	4.49	11.29	7.71	3.19	4.14	8.03
Oxide of Iron	0.57	0.79	0.88	0.62	7.97	1.23
Phosphoric Acid	3.46	3.07	3.62	1.79	4.84	4.01
Sulphuric Acid	1.16	1.35	1.28	0.62	5.30	0.74
Chlorine	0.01	0.14	0.89	1.33
Silica	0.78	1.32	3.07	8.77	5.26	2.27
	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.16	100.25

528. The comparative results of such analyses are well seen in the following table by Johnston, by an examination of which we can detect the characteristic and predominating ingredients in certain plants :—

NAMES OF PLANTS.	Potash and Soda.	Lime	Magnesia.	Phosphoric Acid.	Sulphuric Acid.	Silica.
Wheat	33	3	12	59	0.25	1
Barley	22	3	7	39	0.10	27
Oats	26	6	10	44	11	3
Rye	34	5	10	50	1	0.4
Maize	33	1	16	45	3	1
Rice	30	1	12	53	0	3
Beans	44	6	8	38	1	1
Peas	44	5	8	33	4	0.51
Wheat Straw	13	7	4	3	6	65
Barley do.	7	10	3	3	2	71
Oat do.	29	8	4	3	3	48
Rye do.	18	9	2	4	1	65
Maize do.	35	8	7	17	0	28
Rice do.	14	0	5	1	4	74
Bean do.	55	20	7	7	1	7
Pea do.	5	55	7	5	7	20
Red Clover	36	33	8	8	3	7

NAMES OF PLANTS	Potash and Soda.	Lime.	Magnesia.	Phosphoric Acid.	Sulphuric Acid.	Silica.
Potatoes	57	2	5	13	14	4
Turnips	47	14	5	8	14	8
Beet	56	9	5	8	2	10
Cabbage	32	21	6	12	22	0.74
Potato Pulp	44	17	7	8	7	4
Turnip do.	34	23	3	9	13	1
Elm Bark	12	72	3	1.7	0.6	8
Elm Wood	35	47	7	3	1.2	3
Lime Bark	21	60	8	4	0.7	2
Lime Wood	41	29	4	4	5	5
Cherry Bark	23	41	5	3	0.8	21
Cherry Wood	36	35	11	9	4	2
Scotch Fir Seeds	23	2	15	45	...	10

529. From these tables it will be seen that the quantities of different mineral matters vary in different plants, and in different parts of the same plant. Silica is present in large quantity in the stems of grasses, while it forms usually a small proportion of grains, leguminous plants, and succulent roots. Phosphoric acid is more abundant in the grain of cereal plants than in the straw; it exists also in considerable quantity in nutritive seeds and in potatoes and turnips. Lime abounds in the stems of beans and peas, in clover, and in the bark and wood of trees; while it exists in small quantity in the cereal plants and grasses. The proportion of lime in the bark of trees is greater than in their wood. Potash and soda enter more largely into the composition of green crops than into that of white crops; they are also more abundant in the wood than in the bark of trees.

530. Most plants contain more or less of potash and soda in their composition. The former prevails in inland plants, the latter in maritime and marine plants. Some succulent sea-shore plants, such as *Salsola Kali*, and *Salicornia herbacea*, yield a large quantity of soda in their ashes. M. Göbel examined the halophytes, or alkali-yielding plants of the Caspian Steppe, and found that young plants gave more soda than old ones. The following are some of his results:—

	Per cent. Soda.		Per cent Soda.
<i>Salsola clavifolia</i> (foliosa)		<i>Salsola Kali</i> , young	25
young, dried	42	<i>Halocnemum caspicum</i> , do.	22.9
<i>Tamarix laxa</i> , young	33.6	<i>Anabasis aphylla</i> , do.	19
<i>Salsola brachiata</i> , do.	33	<i>Kochia sedoides</i> , old	9.16
<i>Halimocnemis crassifolia</i> , do.	30		

Some species of plants which grow both in maritime and inland situations contain a preponderance of soda in the former locality, and of potash in the latter. This is the case with the common Sea-pink (*Armeria maritima*), Scurvy-grass (*Cochlearia officinalis*), and sea-side Plantain (*Plantago maritima*). Dr. Voelcker analysed the ashes of the Sea-pink grown in different localities near Edinburgh—on the sea shore, on elevated trap rock, and on light sandy soil in Mr. Lawson's nursery, as well as specimens grown on rocks on the mountains of Braemar. He found the proportion of alkaline chlorides, as well as that of silica, considerable; the quantity of soda was more abundant in the ash of specimens grown near the sea-shore; soda was entirely replaced by potash in the ash of the plant grown in the nursery. The proportion of magnesia in the natural state was greater than in the cultivated condition. In the Braemar specimens lime seemed in part to replace the alkaline salts.*

531. The presence of lime has been detected in almost all plants. It is an abundant ingredient of the soil, and is often associated with magnesia. In combination with phosphoric acid, it is an essential ingredient of the nitrogenous matter of cereal grains, and of many other cultivated plants. As sulphate it occurs largely in some of the Charas and Medicks. It sometimes appears as an encrustation on the cells of plants, in the form of carbonate. This is seen in species of the genus *Chara* (especially *Chara hispida*) which grow in ponds (p. 354). In the interior of cells it is often seen in a crystalline form, constituting Raphides (p. 37). Oxalate of lime crystals occur in Rhubarb root; in the best Turkey Rhubarb they constitute 35 per cent. of the dried tissue, in East India Rhubarb 25 per cent., and in English Rhubarb 10 per cent. In some of the Cactus tribe (Fig. 88, p. 37), especially in old specimens of *Cereus senilis*, these crystals are so numerous as to render the stem brittle. Crystals of phosphate, sulphate, carbonate, tartrate, malate, and citrate of lime also occur in the cells of plants.

532. The presence of silica (SiO_2) in plants gives solidity and firmness to their stems. The quantity in some plants (p. 330) is very large.

Thus, the ashes of <i>Equisetum limosum</i>	contain	94.65	per cent. of Silica.
„ <i>Equisetum arvense</i>	„	95.48	„
„ <i>Equisetum hyemale</i>	„	97.52	„
„ <i>Calamus Rotang</i>	„	97.20	„

In these plants, as well as in grasses, the silica exists in the form of small plates, grains, or needles, as may be shown by the action of sulphuric acid. In the Bamboo (*Bambusa arundinacea*, and other species) the quantity of silica at the joints is frequently very large, and may be collected in masses, to which the name of Tabasheer is

* See Voelcker's Paper in the Transactions of the Botanical Society of Edinburgh.—Annals of Nat. History, 2d series, vol. vii. p. 266

given. In the Diatomaceæ, belonging to the lowest tribe of Alga, the cells have a siliceous covering, which enables them to retain their form, even after being acted on by strong acids. Dr. George Wilson finds that in many siliceous plants fluorine also exists in marked quantity.

533. Iodine was considered formerly as an ingredient of maritime and marine plants only, but it has been recently detected in fresh-water plants, as well as in many ordinary land plants, by Chatin,* and by Macadam.† The following are some of the plants in which iodine has been found:—Water-cress, Marsh Marigold, Water Lily, Common Reed, Forget-me-not, Water Mint, Iris, Digitalis, Oak, Beech, Birch, Common Ferns, Mosses and Lichens, species of *Juncus*, *Carex*, *Potamogeton*, *Ranunculus*, *Veronica*, *Senecio*, *Alchemilla*, *Galium*, &c. Chatin says that iodine is more abundant in plants which grow in running waters than in those of stagnant pools, and that occasionally plants which contain iodine when growing in water, lose it when they are developed in dry places. The experiments of Dickie‡ and Voelcker§ lead to the conclusion that plants which contain iodine when growing on the sea shore, lose it when they occupy an inland situation.

534. The presence of fluorine in plants was first detected by Will of Giessen, and his observations have been confirmed and greatly extended by Dr. George Wilson.¶ It occurs in small quantity in plants, and it is often associated with silica, from which it is separated with great difficulty. Plants growing on the sea-shore, such as Sea-pink and Scurvy-grass, have been proved by Voelcker to contain fluorine. The test for the presence of fluorine is the etching which hydrofluoric acid produces on glass. The following are some of Wilson's results:—

Table of Plants in which Fluorine has been found. The numbers represent grains of ashes. The blanks imply that the weight was not known.

Ashes in Grains.	Name of Plant.	Indication of Fluorine.
200	Smooth naked Horse-tail (<i>Equisetum limosum</i>)	Distinct etching.
	Common Bamboo (<i>Bambusa aruudinacea</i>)	do.
	Charcoal (derived chiefly from Oak, and to a smaller extent from Birch)	do.
	Coal	do.
	Barley Straw	do.
	Hay (Rye-grass)	do.
35	Variegated rough Horse-tail (<i>Equisetum variegatum</i>)	Faint etching.

* Chatin, various Papers in *Comptes Rendus*, vols. xxx. to xxxv.

† S. Macadam, *Trans. Bot. Soc. Edin.*, in *Annals of Nat. Hist.*, 2d series, xi. 231 - *Edin. New Philosophical Journal*, vol. lxx. p. 315.

‡ Dickie, *Trans. Bot. Soc. Edin.*, in *Annals of Nat. History*, 1st series, xi. 74

§ Voelcker, *Trans. Bot. Soc. Edin.*, in *Annals of Nat. History*, 2d series, vii. 266.

¶ Wilson, *Trans. Bot. Soc. Edin.*, in *Annals of Nat. Hist.* 2d series, xi. 228

Ashes in Grains.	Name of Plant.	Indication of Fluorine.
19	Dutch Rushes or Rough Horse-tail (<i>Equisetum hyemale</i>)	} Faint etching.
255	Marsh Horse-tail (<i>Equisetum palustre</i>)	
	Tussac-grass (<i>Dactylis cæspitosa</i>)	do.
99	Sea Lyme-grass (<i>Elymus arenarius</i>)	do.
495	Sugar Cane (<i>Saccharum officinarum</i>)	do.
1040	African Teak (<i>Oldfieldia africana</i>)	do.

535. The siliceous stems which were found to abound most in fluorine, were exactly those which contained most silica. In particular, deep etchings were procured from the Equisetaceæ (horse-tails), and from the Gramineæ (grasses), especially the common Bamboo. The last is known to contain silica in such abundance, that it collects within the joints in white masses, nearly pure. The Horse-tails are scarcely less remarkable, for the amount of silica contained in their stems, which has led to the employment of one of them (*Dutch rush*, *Equisetum hyemale*), in polishing wood and metals. The African Teak, which like the Bamboo is known sometimes to secrete silica, is also found to contain fluorine, though much less largely than the plants named; whilst the strongly siliceous stems of barley and rye-grass also yield the element in marked quantity. The Sugar-cane, however, gives less striking results than might have been expected, and the same remark applies to the Malacca-cane. Dr. Wilson's general conclusions are as follows:—1st. That fluorine occurs in a large number of plants. 2d. That it occurs in marked quantity in the siliceous stems of the Gramineæ and Equisetaceæ. 3d. That the quantity present is in all cases very small, for although exact quantitative results were not obtained, it is well known that a fraction of a grain of a fluoride, will yield, with oil of vitriol, a quantity of hydrofluoric acid sufficient to etch glass deeply, so that the proportion of fluorine present even in the plant ashes which contain it most abundantly does not probably amount to more than a fraction per cent. of their weight. The proportion of fluorine appears to be variable, for different specimens of the same plant did not yield concordant results. In this, however, there is nothing anomalous, for some Bamboos yield Tabasheer largely, whilst others are found to contain none. It seems not unlikely that soluble fluorides ascending the siliceous stem of a plant, on their way to the seeds or fruits in which they finally accumulate, may be arrested by the silica, and converted into insoluble fluosilicates (fluorides of silicon and of a metal); and a Bamboo, for example, secreting Tabasheer, may effect this change where one less rich in silica cannot determine it. The slow or quick drying of a stem may also affect the fixation of fluorides in the stems or trunks of plants.

536. Plants derive all their inorganic materials from the soil, and it is consequently of importance to determine the composition of the latter. But, before proceeding to the consideration of soils, it may be

remarked that some plants are enabled to grow without coming into contact with the soil. Thus in the Botanic Garden of Edinburgh, *Ficus elastica*, *Ardisia crenulata*, *Agave (Littaea) gemmipara*, *Billbergia nudicaulis*, and *Phoenix farinifera*, have continued to grow for nearly four years suspended in the air, and merely moistened by common water allowed to come into contact with the roots by the capillary action of a worsted thread. *Ficus australis* has grown suspended in the air for nearly twenty-five years. The plants have produced leaves and some of them flowers. They derive their organic nourishment from the air, and the quantity of inorganic matter in the water appears to be sufficient to supply their wants in that respect for a long period. What are called air-plants or Epiphytes, such as *Tillandsias* and *Orchids*, are usually attached to other plants, from the decaying bark of which they may derive inorganic matter. In hot-houses these Epiphytes have also a quantity of moss round their roots, which is another source of inorganic matter. Lichens seem to have the power, in many cases, of acting upon hard rocks, and deriving from them inorganic matters. Mulder states that mould plants found on the surface of saccharine and gummy solutions, as well as in vinegar and other organic substances, consist of cellulose and nitrogenous compounds, without any inorganic matter. These plants, according to him, leave no ash on being burnt.

III. COMPOSITION AND PROPERTIES OF SOILS AS SUPPLYING FOOD FOR PLANTS.

537. Having considered the various organic and inorganic matters which enter into the composition of plants and of vegetable products, and having noticed the chief sources whence plants derive their carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, we shall now examine generally the nature of the soil, as the source whence the mineral or inorganic matters required for vegetable growth and nutrition are derived. We have seen that the atmosphere, with its carbonic acid, water, nitric acid, and ammonia, is capable of supplying the organic constituents of vegetables. At the same time we have found that sulphur and phosphates enter into the composition of some of the most important sanguigenous (blood-producing) products. To the salts of sulphuric and phosphoric acid in the soil, we must look, therefore, for the means of enabling plants to assimilate their organic products. While we allow that the atmosphere is the great reservoir whence the organic elements are derived, still we cannot consider it as the exclusive source. It is probable that some of the carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen of plants may be supplied by the soil, and at all events we have seen that these elements cannot be combined in the form of albumen, fibrine, and caseine, without certain mineral matters of telluric origin.

538. The atmospheric supply of food is pretty uniform, and is not

under the control of man. It is to the terrestrial (telluric) supply he must look as that which can be increased and modified by his efforts. The horticulturist and farmer direct their attention to the soil, and by alterations in its composition endeavour to effect changes in the plants which they cultivate. It is therefore of importance to ascertain the mechanical nature and chemical composition of the soil.

539. The following are the substances which enter generally into the composition of soils:—Silica, clay, lime, and humus or vegetable mould. According to the preponderance of one or other of these ingredients, soils are usually classified. Thus we have—

1. Sandy or siliceous soils, containing upwards of 80 per cent. of siliceous sand.
2. Clayey or argillaceous soils, containing above 50 per cent. of clay.
3. Calcareous soils, containing above 20 per cent. of lime.
4. Marly soils, in which the proportion of lime is more than 5 per cent., and does not exceed 20 per cent. of the whole weight of the dry soil, while that of the clay is more than 20 and less than 50 per cent.
5. Loamy soils, in which there is less than 5 per cent. of lime, while the clay varies from 20 to 50 per cent.
6. Humus soils, or vegetable moulds, which vary much in composition, from the garden mould which contains 5 to 10 per cent. of organic matter, to the peaty soil, in which it may be 60 or 70 per cent.

540. The presence of sand and gravel in soils renders them loose and friable. Such soils part with moisture easily, and are usually dry. When the proportion of sand is very large, the soils are barren and unproductive. Sprengel gives analyses of sandy soils containing from 90 to 98 per cent. of silica and quartz sand. The addition of clay, chalk, and marl, is useful in rendering sandy soils more tenacious. As silica enters more or less into the composition of plants, it must be taken up from the soil by the roots of plants. In order that this absorption may take place, the silica must be dissolved in water. In its uncombined condition it is insoluble, but by combining with alkalies such as potash, it forms soluble silicates, which enter the cells of plants.

541. Clayey soils contain a large quantity of insoluble silicates and of alumina, which does not appear to be an essential constituent of plants, although it is occasionally found as an accidental addition to their tissues. The presence of clay has a tendency to make soils stiff and firm, so that they can retain the roots of plants and give them support. Clay soils are usually moist, impervious, and cold. Heavy clay land is improved by draining, by burning, and by mixing chalk and sand with it. Mr. Way finds that clay in the soil removes various important matters from the manures put upon it, and does not allow the active ingredients to pass off into the drains. It retains the alkalies, as ammonia, potash, soda, and magnesia. If a quantity of ammonia highly pungent is thrown on a filter of clay, made permeable by

sand, the water which first comes away has no smell of ammonia. Solutions of potash and soda in a caustic state are by this means deprived of their alkalies. Quicklime, dissolved in water, according to Mr. Way, is removed by passing it through clay. Carbonate of lime is so effectually removed, that hard water may be rendered soft. Pure clay will absorb 2-10ths per cent. of its weight of ammonia, that is, 1000 grains would separate 2 of ammonia. The action of clayey soil in absorbing ammonia seems to be due to the presence of certain silicates. When ammonia is added, double silicates are formed, such as the silicate of alumina and ammonia, from which the ammonia is easily removed by carbonic acid, or by a solution of common salt. It may be in this state that silica is taken up by cereal crops, the silica being deposited in the straw.*

542. Calcareous soils contain, as has been stated, upwards of 20 per cent. of lime. This substance exists abundantly in the vegetable juices, and hence its presence is required in all productive soils. Calcareous soils exhibit different physical characters according to the proportion of lime, clay, silica, &c., which enter into their composition. Some of them are deep, loose, dry, and productive; others are shallow, stony, and not favourable for vegetation. The addition of lime to soils is often highly beneficial, by destroying noxious weeds, and by preventing disease in crops. Lime, in combination with phosphoric acid, is a valuable ingredient of soils. Sulphate of lime or gypsum seems to be useful not merely in supplying sulphuric acid and lime, but also in fixing ammonia. In marly soils lime exists in the proportion of 5-20 per cent. In their characters they resemble more or less calcareous or clay soils. They are less retentive and less impervious than clay soils, but usually not so open as many calcareous soils. When clay predominates clay-marl is formed; when siliceous sand replaces the clay the soil is called a sandy-marl. In loamy soils lime is in smaller quantity, and the clay does not exceed 50 per cent. In them sand, clay, lime, and humus are in a fine state of division and intimate mixture, so that they constitute excellent soils, and may be placed next to the richer garden moulds. Many fertile alluvial deposits are loamy soils. According to the preponderance of sand, clay, and lime, these soils are either sandy loams, clayey loams, or marly loams.

543. Humus soils contain much vegetable mould. This is in itself insoluble, and cannot be taken up by plants. By the action of air and moisture, &c., the humus is decomposed, and various acids are formed, which seem to be capable of supplying carbon to plants. Humic, ulmic, and geic acids, which are formed in the soil, consist of $C_{40} H_{12} O_{12}$, with the addition of 2 or more equivalents of water; so also apocrenic acid is composed of $C_{48} H_{12} O_{24}$, and crenic acid of $C_{24} H_{12} O_{18}$. Vegetable moulds also absorb gases, such as ammonia, in large quantity, and thus supply nutritive matter to plants. These

* Way, on the power of Soils to absorb Manures.—Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society of England, xi. 313; Gardener's Chronicle, May 22, 1852.

soils are clayey, loamy, or sandy, according to the predominant character of the earthy admixtures; and when the organic matter preponderates, they become peaty or boggy. Their fertility varies much according to their composition.

544. The alkalis, potash and soda, are important constituents of plants, and they exist in greater or less quantity in soils. They enter into the composition of minerals, such as felspar. They are taken up by plants in combination with acids. They render silica soluble, and they are essential to the development of acids, such as oxalic, citric, and malic, with which they are found in combination. They appear to replace each other in certain circumstances. In many fertile soils magnesia exists in combination with carbonic acid, phosphoric acid, and lime. Einhoff mentions a productive marl containing 20 per cent. of carbonate of magnesia. Sprengel mentions another containing 28 per cent. It appears, therefore, that carbonate of magnesia with silica in the soil has no prejudicial effect. In flax there is a large proportion of magnesia. In its caustic state magnesia is injurious to vegetation.

545. Iron has been detected in greater or less quantity in the ashes of all plants. It exists in the soil in combination with oxygen, sulphur, and carbon. The oxides of iron are found, more or less, in all soils, and the peroxide, which is the most abundant, imparts that reddish colour so often observed on the earth's surface. Peroxide of iron may remain inert in soils where no strong acid exists by which it can be dissolved. The protoxide of iron is of less value than the peroxide for vegetation, as it readily forms salts which are injurious to plants. It frequently abstracts oxygen from the soil, and becomes fully oxidised. It is probable that iron is taken up by plants from the soil in the form of a carbonate dissolved in carbonic acid water. The peroxide has the power of absorbing ammonia from the atmosphere, and thus contributes to vegetable nutrition. An excess of iron, especially of the protoxide, seems to be injurious to plants cultivated for food.

546. Manganese exists sparingly in plants, and it is found in the soil combined with peroxide of iron. It is often inert. Its oxides, like those of iron, are insoluble in pure water, and hence it must be supplied to plants in combination with acids, which form with it soluble salts. Sprengel found a marl containing 4 per cent. of oxide of manganese useful in improving grass lands.

547. The presence of iodine in plants having been fully recognised by many observers, as already noticed, we must look for the sources whence it is supplied to vegetation. Chatin believes that there is an appreciable quantity of iodine in the atmosphere, in rain water, and in the soil, varying in different districts, and that the relative amount of iodine, in any one locality, determines, to a great extent, the presence or absence of certain diseases, such as goitre and cretinism. Mr. Stevenson Macadam,* from a very accurate series of experiments, has

* Macadam on the general distribution of Iodine—*Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal* for October 1852

been led to the conclusion, that air and rain water do not contain iodine, at least in such quantity as to be detected by the most delicate tests. As potassa was used by Chatin in his experiments, and as Macadam finds iodine in this substance, it is probable that the observations of the former chemist require to be verified. The existence, however, of iodine in ordinary potash, leads to the suspicion that this element is more extensively distributed in the vegetable kingdom than we have hitherto been led to believe. It is probable that the iodine of plants is derived from soluble iodides in the soil. Iodine is said to exist in coal and in the waters of the globe. The waters from igneous rocks, and from the rocks of the coal formation, are said to contain a considerable quantity of iodine. It is found in combination with sulphur, the ores of iron and manganese, and the sulphuret of mercury.*

548. The sources of the Fluorine found in plants, Wilson regards as pre-eminently two, (1) simple fluorides such as that of calcium, which are soluble in water,† and through this medium are carried into the tissues of plants; and (2) compounds of fluorides with other salts, of which the most important is probably the combination of phosphate of lime with fluoride of calcium. This occurs in the mineral kingdom in apatite and phosphorite, and in the animal kingdom in bones, shells, and corals, as well as in blood, milk, and other fluids. Fluorides are much more widely distributed than is generally imagined. They exist in well, river, and sea water. The trap rocks near Edinburgh, and in the neighbourhood of the Clyde, as well as the granites of Aberdeenshire, and the ashes of coal, contain fluorides, so that the soils resulting from the disintegration of those rocks cannot fail to possess fluorides also. All plants, accordingly, may be expected to exhibit evidence of their presence, in the following portions of their tissues or fluids:—1. In the ascending sap, simple fluorides. 2. In the descending sap, in association with the albuminous vegetable principles, and in the seeds or fruits, in a similar state of association, fluorides along with phosphates. 3. In the stems, especially when siliceous and hardened, fluorides in combination with silica.

549. The productiveness of soils is very various. Some are entirely barren, such as quartz rock. This kind of soil is seen in many mountainous districts in which the bare quartz rock continues to show itself without any vegetable covering whatever. Others contain materials fitted for nourishment, but not available until they are disintegrated. This is the case with many granitic rocks containing valuable nutritive matter which can only be taken up by plants after the rocks have been pulverized by the action of the weather. Some hard granites which are not thus acted upon, are barren. Some soils are unproductive on account of their physical characters, such as very stiff clays; others are so on account of being too loose and sandy;

* Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, July 1851, 136

† G. Wilson on the solubility of the Fluoride of Calcium in Water.—Transactions, Royal Society of Edinburgh, xv. 145. According to Wilson, pure water can dissolve 1-26923th of its weight of Fluoride of Calcium

while others, from excess of water, are too moist, and require draining before they can be productive.

550. The presence of substances in an unavailable form is the most common cause of sterility in soils. Thus most soils contain abundance of felspar which consists of potash, lime, and the various inorganic matters required by plants. Its formula is $Al_2O_3 \cdot 3SiO_2 + K_2O$; the alumina being often replaced by lime, magnesia, or oxide of iron, and the potash being sometimes replaced by soda. Felspar, however, may not be in a state of disintegration, and thus, not capable of being applied to the purposes of plants. When exposed to the air however, this felspar may gradually be disintegrated and rendered fertile. When this disintegration takes place easily, the soil may continue fertile for a long time without additions; so long indeed as any felspar remains to disintegrate. This rapid disintegration, however, does not usually take place in soils. The weather acts slowly by means of carbonic acid and water. On some hard felspars there occurs a scanty vegetation, which after many years may be burned, and then when the soil is turned up, a good crop is produced.

551. Barren felspar soils may be rendered fertile—by exposure to the air, or in other words, by lying fallow; by frequent ploughing and turning up; by the use of quicklime, which acts by accelerating the decomposition of felspar and clay, and separating the silica and potash from the former; by burning or calcination which acts in the same way as lime. Thus fallow, ploughing, liming, and burning act in the same way on barren felspar soils, by causing decomposition, and separating the materials required for the nourishment of plants. They all promote the solubility of different parts of the soil.

552. Below the ordinary soil there occurs what is called the subsoil, in which there is less organic matter than on the surface. Into this soil many soluble matters are carried down by rains. The effect of subsoil and trench ploughing is to bring up these matters and render them available for the use of plants. The beneficial results of this kind of ploughing will depend upon the composition of the subsoil. By subsoil ploughing, the subsoil is loosened, so as to be easily acted upon by air and water, and the efficiency of the drainage is increased. This kind of ploughing, however, is not fitted for all soils. In some cases it may do harm. Thus it will not be beneficial in the case of wet undrained land, nor in the case of dry sandy loam resting on a gravelly or sandy bottom. In the former case, the depth of wet soil will be increased, and in the latter, the deficiency of clay not being supplied, the porosity of the soil will be injuriously augmented so as to render the land too dry. Subsoil ploughing can only be practised with advantage in drained land. The depth of this kind of ploughing varies from 12 to 18 or 20 inches, and it is made at right angles to the lines of the drains. When judiciously performed, its effects will be to render the subsoil by degrees fit for the nourishment of plants. This kind of ploughing puts the land into a state which

facilitates the changes produced by air and water. Hence its effects are not always immediately visible. After the subsoil has been loosened and changed by the action of the weather, it is then, by means of trench ploughing, mixed with the ordinary soil, and thus the latter becomes deepened.

553. A soil, though fertile, may not be fitted for all kinds of plants. If the soluble silicates are deficient, green crops may grow, but not white crops. The absence of magnesia is said sometimes to prevent crops from bearing fruit, inasmuch as the phosphate of magnesia is an essential element of the husk of grain. Deficiency of sulphates prevents the formation of albuminous compounds, which always contains sulphur. In order, then, that we may know the crop best fitted for any soil, there must be a complete analysis of both. As regards the soil, it is not enough that we know its ingredients; we must also ascertain how much of it is available to the plant, and how much of it may be rendered so by the action of the weather. This requires a laborious series of investigations.

IV. ROTATION OF CROPS AND APPLICATION OF MANURES.

554. Some plants, we have seen, require certain inorganic matters in larger quantity than others, and it is upon the knowledge of this that the rotation of crops is founded. The soil is constantly losing inorganic matters. Oats contain 4 per cent. of ashes, hay 9 per cent. A ton of hay removes 200 lbs. of ashes, and these ashes are the very substances required by another ton of hay. By constantly cultivating the same crop, we deprive the soil, to the depth to which the roots extend, of certain materials, while others are left nearly untouched; but by alternation of crops, the latter may be made available for the purposes of growth. Farmers on this account have different crops succeeding each other in the same field. Wheat, barley, and oats are described as silica plants; peas, beans, and clover as lime plants; turnips and potatoes as potash plants. These crops, from the difference in their predominant inorganic ingredients, are made to alternate with each other. The three rotations most commonly followed in Scotland are the four-course shift, or what is known as the Norfolk system, the five-course, and the six-course. The four-course shift usually consists of—1st year, Turnips; 2. Wheat and barley, and in many cases wholly barley; 3. Grass; 4. Oats. The five-course is simply the grass being allowed to remain for two years; while the six-course shift, or system of rotation, consists of—1. Turnips; 2. Wheat and barley; 3. Clover; 4. Oats; 5. Beans or potatoes; 6. Wheat. The system of rotation, in other words, the number of years over which it extends, varies in different countries.

555. In some virgin soils, rich in phosphates and other inor-

ganic matters, the same plants may be cultivated successfully for many years. This occurred in Virginia, where for 100 years the same crops were grown without manure; but ultimately exhaustion took place, and the crops became deficient. On lava soils there are often good crops. Thus, the soils of Vesuvius, formed by disintegrated lava, produce excellent crops for many years in succession. It must be remarked, however, that frequently important materials exist in the soil in an insoluble state, and that unless means are taken to render them soluble, the plant cannot avail itself of them. A soil thus considered as comparatively barren, may in reality have abundant materials of fertility in its composition.

556. Dr. Daubeny has made the following series of experiments on the rotation of crops:—

TABULAR VIEW OF EXPERIMENTS ON ROTATION OF CROPS.

NAME OF CROP.	No. of Years during which experiments continued	Planted in same or different Plots.	Averages of first Five Years.	Averages of whole Period.	REMARKS
Potatoes (<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>)	9	In the same plot	<i>Lbs.</i> 72.9	<i>Lbs.</i> 68.9	} Merely cleaned from dust before weighing.
Flax (<i>Linum usitatissimum</i>)	9	In different	92.8	89.1	
Beans (<i>Vicia Faba</i>)	10	Same	15.0	12.6	} Dried in sun before weighing.
	10	Different	19.9	22.7	
Barley (<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>)	10	Same	32.8	24.7	} Do.
	10	Diferent	34.8	33.6	
Turnips (<i>Brassica Rapa</i>)	10	Same	30.0	28.9	} Do.
	10	Different	46.5	42.1	
Hemp (<i>Cannabis sativa</i>)	10	Same	104.0	100.8	} In a green state when weighed.
	10	Different	173.0	176.5	
Poppy (<i>Papaver somniferum</i>)	9	Same	32.55	30.13	} Dried in sun before weighing.
	7	Different	—	40.0	
Clover (<i>Trifolium pratense</i>)	9	Same	21.9	18.2	} Do.
	9	Diferent	20.3	18.7	
Buckwheat (<i>Polygonum Fagopyrum</i>)	10	Same	10.9	14.8	} Do.
	6	Different	—	16.9	
Oats (<i>Avena sativa</i>)	10	Same	11.6	9.1	} Do.
	10	Different	12.5	10.6	
Parsley (<i>Petroselinum sativum</i>)	...	Same	—	28.0	} Do.
	...	Different	—	32.4	
	10	Same	61.25	39.75	} Do.
	6	Different	—	87.8	

These experiments show a manifest advantage on the side of shifting crops, varying from 1 to 75 per cent., more generally approaching nearer the latter.

557. There is often, however, a great quantity of fertilising matter in the soil, but not in a condition immediately available for the growth of plants.* Hence, in some cases where the crop is deficient, there

* Daubeny on the distinction between the dormant and active ingredients of the soil—*Journal, Royal Agricultural Society of England, vii 237*

are valuable materials still in the soil unassimilated. Thus phosphates exist often potentially in a dormant state in the soil in great abundance, but it is not until they have been brought into a soluble form that they are of any use as the food of plants. Daubeny endeavoured to find out the nature of the dormant materials by ascertaining how much of them water, impregnated with carbonic acid, is capable of dissolving out in a given time. It is of importance for an agriculturist to discover the dormant inorganic materials, and to adopt means of rendering them available. Allowing the ground to lie fallow, and stirring and pulverising of it are methods by which air and moisture are admitted, and time is allowed for the decomposition of the materials, which are thus rendered available for plants.

558. In wild plants the phosphates are less abundant than in cultivated crops. The former do not, like the cultivated plants, produce a large quantity of sanguigenous food in a short space of time, and hence less phosphates are required. Plants have a great power of taking up phosphates, and cultivation increases this power. It is said that an acre of hay removes 100 lbs. of phosphates. In wild tropical vegetation there is a luxuriant growth, but the plants form cells, fibres, wood, resin, &c., and produce a comparatively small amount of sanguigenous compounds. All evergreen and perennial plants require less phosphates than the ordinary cultivated plants. They are enabled to extend their vegetating processes over many years, and do not demand a large quantity of phosphates within a limited period. In the case of perennials in a wild state the leaves fall on the soil and restore the inorganic matter. Cultivated plants, on the other hand, are annual and herbaceous, grow rapidly, and produce a large amount of sanguigenous products, requiring abundance of phosphates, which are annually removed.

559. The atmospheric food of plants generally continues the same, but the terrestrial food varies much. The former is not under the control of the cultivator; the latter is. Hence we must look to the terrestrial food in an experiment as to nutrition. Having ascertained the chemical composition of the plant and of the soil, we must either add the matter which is deficient, or we must render the food already in the soil more available for plant life. In regard to ordinary wild plants, there is sufficient materials in the atmosphere and soil to carry on all the processes of plant-life, more especially in the case of perennial plants, where time is allowed. In the case of cultivated crops, the object is to produce certain matter in abundance within the period of a year or less; hence the necessity for the application of manures which supply nutritive matter in larger quantities than exist in the soil at any one period.

560. The materials of which plants are composed, and which are all withdrawn from the unorganized world, are given back to the air and soil again by the disintegration of the living structures of which they have formed a part. If plants were not used for food, they would by their decay restore all that they had taken away

for the purposes of growth. But as they contribute to the nourishment of man and animals, it follows that a portion of vegetable matter is constantly removed in order to build up the animal structures. This portion must be again supplied in order that the plant may be nourished. This is the principle of the application of manures. The farmer and horticulturist add to the soil what has been removed from it by crops. In order to do this properly, there must be a knowledge of the composition of the plant, of the soil, and of the manure; and hence the importance of accurate chemical analyses. In addition to this, attention must be directed to the functions of plants, and to the mode in which they take up nourishment; and the materials of growth must be supplied in such a way as to be made available for the purposes of plant-life.

561. The object of manuring is to improve the properties of the soil, and to supply what has been taken from it by crops, which have been used for the food of man and animals. We may either supply the whole or some portion of the vegetable constituents in a soluble state, or we may add to the soil something which will decompose and act on its insoluble ingredients, so as to render them fit for the use of plants. Natural manures, such as those of the farm-yard, are excellent, because they restore to the land nearly all the substances which have been taken from it. Other manures supply one or two ingredients only. The exposure of the soil to the influence of the weather tends to make up for loss, by causing the decomposition of substances previously unfit for vegetable nutrition. Fallow then acts, in a certain degree, in restoring the fertility of the soil, but it will not give us all that is required, and, moreover, involves loss of time and money.

562. In the case of cultivated plants, those manures are considered the most valuable which furnish the materials necessary for forming the azotized compounds required for the sanguigenous food of man and animals. Hence the importance of manures containing ammonia and phosphates, substances which do not usually exist abundantly in the soil, and which are annually required in large quantity by crops. It has been found by comparative experiments that the quantity of gluten in wheat and other cereal grains is increased by the use of ammoniacal and phosphatic manures. The sewerage of towns, in this point of view, is one of the most valuable manures, and it is to be regretted that so little is done to save it for the purposes of the farmer and horticulturist. The quantity of solid and liquid excreta sent into the sea is enormous. In China great attention is paid to proper manuring, and to the saving of proper materials necessary for the growth of plants. In this respect the Chinese set an example to the inhabitants of Britain, where there is annually an enormous waste of fertilizing materials. Millions of pounds of phosphates in this country are lost, and hence the demand for bone earth and guano. The latter manure may be said to be these phosphates restored; for,

after being carried into the sea the phosphates contribute to the growth of sea-plants; these become the abodes of the lower classes of marine animals on which fishes feed; and they in their turn supply food to the piscivorous birds which furnish guano.

563. The soil has a great power of absorbing ammonia, and supplies it gradually to the roots of plants in a state fit for their nutrition. The vigour of plants is much increased by the judicious application of ammonia either in the soil or in the air. M. Ville* found that ammonia, when added to the atmosphere in which plants grew, increased the vigour of their growth, and rendered their produce more nitrogenous. When $\frac{1}{2500}$ of this gas was added to the air, the effects became perceptible at the end of eight or ten days, and they went on increasing. The leaves became of a deep green, their stalks becoming long and stiff, and their surface broad and shining. Ultimately the plants were found to contain twice as much nitrogen as those grown in pure air. The following were the results ascertained after the plants had been dried at a temperature of 248° Fahrenheit:—

	PLANTS IN PURE AIR		PLANTS IN AMMONIACAL AIR	
	Total Produce Grains	Nitrogen Grains	Total Produce Grains.	Nitrogen Grains.
Experiments in 1850 . .	64.19	1 266	110.16	4.313
Experiments in 1851 . .	68.72	0.494	135.20	1.501
Experiments in 1852 .	11.868	0.043	21.99	1.890

564. Ville, however, states that if ammonia is applied to plants several months before flowering, there is nothing remarkable produced in their vegetation; the ordinary succession of growth is not disturbed. Sometimes the plant fruits earlier and better. But if the addition of ammonia to the air is delayed till the plant is about to come into flower, then the flowering is arrested, and vegetation takes a new start; the stem lengthens and branches, numerous leaves are produced, and if the season is not too far advanced the suspended flowering takes place, but the blossoms are all blind. In grain crops which do not branch, the effect is to cause them to tiller, and no seeds are produced. Air dosed with 0.025 gr. of ammonia per cubic yard was found to be very beneficial to Orchids. In the months of June, July, and August, the effect of the ammonia appeared to be rather injurious, causing yellow spots and drying up of the leaves, owing to the roots not being able to supply the due amount of mineral matters required

* Ville, Comptes Rendus, 1852.

for the increased and more vigorous growth of the leaves. Hence the plant drew from some of its leaves the mineral matter required, and thus they faded. The leaves absorbed abundance of organic elements, but they wanted the inorganic matter necessary for assimilation. This balance between roots and leaves must be kept up. It has been remarked, for instance, in Cucurbitaceous plants, in dry weather occurring after heavy rains, that sometimes the inorganic matter appears as a saline efflorescence on the leaves.

565. It is essential that ammonia should be supplied in moderate quantity at a time, and at the proper season. It requires, also, the presence of phosphates, in order that its full effect may be secured in the production of nitrogenous matter. Some manures give off ammonia in large quantity by a process of fermentation; and in order to prevent the loss thus occasioned, it is frequently necessary to add sulphuric acid or sulphate of lime, so as to procure a non-volatile sulphate of the alkali.

566. Manures may be divided into—1. *Farm-yard manure*, containing all the ingredients required for a crop. This, when applied to the soil, is slowly decomposed, and its effects extend over several years, so that it exerts a beneficial influence upon all the crops of a rotation. It may be called in general a slowly-acting manure. 2. *Special manures*, composed of ingredients which are intended for the special benefit of the crop to which they are applied, while comparatively little effect is expected to be produced on those that succeed it. These may be called rapidly-acting manures. The first is of importance for cereals which are slow-growing plants; the second are valuable for green crops, which of all others require the greatest quantity of nourishment in a given time. While ammonia may be supplied by both, still, in the former it is slowly produced by a gradual combination between nitrogen and hydrogen, while in the latter it is ready formed, and capable of being at once used by the plant.

567. *Farm-yard manure* consists of complex animal and vegetable compounds, which by free exposure to the air undergo a kind of fermentation, so as to be converted into other substances, of which carbonic acid and ammonia are the most important. This fermentation is promoted by moistening and turning over the manure, in order to permit the free access of air. In this way the production of ammonia is facilitated, and the manure is in a condition to supply it at once to the young plants, which is of great importance for the vigour of the future crop. By this mode of preparation the manure is calculated to produce rapid effects on plants which come quickly to maturity. In order that farm-yard manure may act rapidly, and that the loss caused by exposure to the air may be prevented, a proportion of a special manure containing ammonia may be at once added to it.

568. Farm-yard manure may be applied in a solid or in a more or less fluid state. The term *liquid manuring* is properly given to the use made of the urine of cattle, containing a large amount of urea,

which, by decomposition, becomes carbonate of ammonia. Of late, however, this has been mixed with other matters from the farm-yard, as well as with carbonaceous and peaty substances, and the whole has been pumped over the field in the form of a fluid containing solid ingredients suspended in it. This kind of fluid manure is more beneficial than liquid manure properly so called. The latter, while it supplies ammonia, does not furnish the necessary phosphates, and by adding to the vigour of the plants, it impoverishes the soil of them. The former resembles in many respects the sewerage of towns, to which allusion has been made, and which is known to act most energetically in promoting the growth of plants.

569. Among *Special manures* there are some which supply ammonia and phosphates either separately or united, others furnish acids or bases, such as Sulphuric acid, Nitric acid, Potash, Soda, Lime, &c. The liquor of gas works and soot owe their manurial value principally to ammonia. Bones are prized on account of the phosphate of lime in their composition, which amounts in general to about 50 per cent. In place of using bone-dust, which acts slowly, from the insoluble nature of the phosphate of lime, farmers are in the habit of mixing bones with sulphuric acid, and thus getting a soluble compound of phosphoric acid and lime (superphosphate), which, when dissolved in water, is easily taken up by the roots of plants. The addition of sulphuric acid also acts beneficially in supplying sulphur for the azotized compounds.

570. The phosphates are highly important in an agricultural point of view. Unless they are present, no albumen nor other azotized matter can be formed. Carbonic acid and ammonia may be present; but without phosphates they cannot form sanguigenous food. Hence phosphates may be considered as the test of value of a manure in this respect. The organic matter can be supplied by the atmosphere, but the phosphates cannot. They must be added, if deficient. Many limestones and marls act as manures, from the phosphates which they contain; so do coprolites, which are the fossil dung of extinct animals. In the manufacture of superphosphate of lime, coprolites are sometimes mixed with bones and sulphuric acid. Beds of bone chalk exist, which are rich in phosphates of lime, and which might be valuable manure. In Estremadura, in Spain, Daubeny saw beds of this nature from 7 to 16 feet thick.* Numerous phosphatic nodules have been found in some parts of England. The phosphate of lime in these nodules seems to have been derived from the decomposition of marine animals, which had peopled the seas in those parts during the tertiary period. The phosphate, at first dissolved in sea-water by the agency of carbonic acid, was afterwards precipitated as that solvent escaped, and at the moment of its deposition was attracted by any hard solid body near it. Hence the origin of those pseudo-coprolites which occur in the Crag

* Daubeny on the Occurrence of Phosphorite in Estremadura.—Journal of Royal Agricultural Society of England, vol. v. p. 406.

of Suffolk; hence also the origin of the phosphatic matter often found encrusting the bones and teeth of marine animals found in the same locality. As the phosphatic nodules abound over a wide district, from the river Orwell northwards along the coast of Suffolk, they have been used as manure. They are powdered and acted upon by sulphuric acid, and are thus converted into superphosphate of lime. Phosphatic marls also exist in many English counties. Beds of phosphates extend from one side of England to the other, in a direction from north-east to south-west, viz., from Flamborough Head to the southern coast.

571. It is useful to bear in mind that in many analyses phosphate of lime has been mistaken for alumina, and hence erroneous statements have been given as to the composition of crops and soils. It would appear that bone earth, farm-yard manure, and guano, owe much of their value as manure to the phosphates which they contain. The increased cultivation of green crops in this country may be owing to the deficiency of phosphates in the soil; for these crops require less phosphates than grain crops, and are less sanguigenous.

572. One of the most important special manures is Guano, or the dung of sea-fowl, which has accumulated for centuries in some parts of the coast of South America and Africa, and now forms enormous deposits. The consumption of this manure in Britain, in 1851, is stated to be from 80,000 to 100,000 tons. Its value depends partly on ammoniacal salts and partly on phosphates. Some guanos, as Peruvian, Anagamos, and Bolivian, are rich in ammonia; while others, as Patagonian and Saldanha Bay, are rich in phosphates.

573. The following is Dr. Anderson's analysis of different kinds of guano:—*

TABLE OF THE AVERAGE COMPOSITION OF DIFFERENT SORTS OF GUANO.

	Ana- gamos	Peruvian	Ichaboe New	Ich. iboe. Old.	Pata- gonian.	Saldanha Bay.
Water	13.61	13.73	18.89	24.21	24.36	21.03
Organic Matter and Am- moniacal Salts }	57.90	53.16	32.49	39.30	18.86	14.93
Phosphates	19.50	23.48	19.63	30.00	41.37	56.40
Lime	2.49	...	2.94	...
Sulphuric Acid	2.21	...
Alkaline Salts	6.97	7.97	6.91	4.19	2.70	6.10
Sand	2.02	1.66	19.59	2.30	7.56	1.54
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Ammonia	20.53	17.00	10.42	8.50	2.66	1.62

574. Johnston has given the following arrangement of Guanos :-

	Water, per cent.	Organic Matter, per cent.	Phosphates, per cent.
Bolivian Guano	5 to 7	56 to 64	25 to 29
Peruvian do.	7 „ 10	56 „ 66	16 „ 23
Chilian or Valparaiso do.	10 „ 13	50 „ 56	22 „ 30
Ichaboe do.	18 „ 26	36 „ 44	21 „ 29
Saldanha Bay do.	17 „ 34	14 „ 22	45 „ 56
Patagonian do.	14 „ 40	16 „ 38	17 „ 40

575. Guano is very liable to adulteration, and it is absolutely essential for the farmer that the specimens should be carefully analyzed. Without chemistry the farmer possesses no means of judging whether he is applying to his land a material containing 55 per cent. of phosphate of lime or 24; 17 per cent. of ammonia or $1\frac{1}{3}$; or whether there may not be as much as 50 to 60 per cent. of foreign matter intermixed with useful constituents, without any fraud on the part of the vender. The adulterations consist of yellow sand, ground limestone, yellow marls and clays, gypsum, and ground coprolites.* Anderson states that genuine Peruvian guano should not be too dark-coloured, nor have too strong ammoniacal odour; it should contain lumps of a lighter colour than the powdery part; it should not be gritty when crushed between the fingers, and a bushel of it should weigh about 50 lbs.

576. Mr. E. J. Quekett states that guano, when viewed under the microscope as an opaque object, appears to consist of particles of an earthy brown colour, mixed with crystalline bodies of various sizes, some of which appear to be particles of sand, and others to be crystalline matter differing according to the locality whence the guano has been procured; so that the Ichaboe guano may be readily distinguished from the Peruvian, the former having much more of the crystalline matter than the latter. It happens, however, that the goodness of the guano does not depend on the presence or absence of this crystalline matter, and consequently it forms no criterion of its value. But although the microscope will not enable us to determine accurately the value of that substance, it is quite capable of determining whether it has been adulterated with foreign matters or not. Upon viewing it as a transparent object, the nature of many of the bodies composing it becomes apparent, and it is found to consist of organized, crystalline, and mineral matters. The organisms appear to be fragments of dried muscular fibre, either of birds or fish, minute fragments of shells, spicula of sponges, and (especially in that from Ichaboe) skeletons of

* Anderson on Adulteration of Guano —Transactions of Highland Society, January 1851, and July 1852. Way on the Composition of Guano, in Trans of Royal Agricultural Society of England, x. 106

animalcules of various kinds, such as *Corcinodiscus* and *Actinocyclus*.* By analysis, the crystalline matter is found to be composed of sulphate of potass and ammonia.

577. Various other special manures have been recommended, containing one or two of the inorganic constituents of plants. Nitrates and Carbonates of Potash and Soda appear to act by furnishing alkaline matter as well as nitrogen and carbon. Sea salt (Chloride of sodium) is considered by Mr. Way as beneficial both to white and green crops. He thinks that it probably acts on the silicates of lime present in the soil, setting the lime free, and acting on the silica so as to render it fit for the purposes of vegetable life. In the case of cultivated plants which naturally grow near the sea, such as Sea kale, Asparagus, Cabbage and its varieties, salt may be expected to be useful. Lime acts beneficially as a manure in the case of some plants, prejudicially as regards others. Thus the Corn marigold (*Chrysanthemum segetum*), Common heather (*Calluna vulgaris*), and various species of *Carex*, become rare when clay lands are improved by lime. When mixed with soil, lime prevents the formation of free acids, which in wet clay lands result from the decomposition of organic matters and various processes of oxidation. It also renders acids already present in the soil innocuous. It aids in the decomposition of vegetable matter in the soil, and thus promotes the formation of carbonic acid. In combination with phosphoric acid, we have already noted its efficacy. In the form of sulphate or gypsum, it is useful in absorbing ammonia, and probably in supplying sulphur.†

578. Specific manures are applied in various ways. They are either thrown broad-cast over the soil, or they are used as a top-dressing in the case of grass, or they are sown in drills along with seeds. The last is by many looked upon as the best method, inasmuch as the ammonia and other manurial matters are immediately brought into contact with the young plant at the time when it is of importance to increase its vigour. In making experiments with these manures, it is of importance not to confine the trial to one crop, but to conduct it through a whole rotation.

579. Occasionally a green crop is grown with the view of being afterwards ploughed into the soil, and of supplying, during its decomposition, materials which had been taken up by its roots from a considerable depth in the soil. This is called green manuring. Common Spurrey, Vetches, and Clovers, are sometimes employed in this way. Sea-weeds are also used as manure. They furnish salts of potash, soda, and lime, and they may probably be useful in the case of cultivated plants whose natural habitat is in the neighbourhood of the sea. In the Edinburgh Botanic Garden, Sea-weeds have been applied with

* See figures of these animalcules in Taylor's Scientific Memoirs, vol. iii. plates 7 and 8.

† For other specific manures, see Anderson on various Manufactured Manures.—Trans. Highland Society, January 1852. Voelcker on Artificial Manures.—Journal of Agriculture, March 1852. Bous-singault and Payen on Manures.—Comptes Rendus, x. 323, xi. 657.

good effect to the Coco-nut Palm, which thrives best within the influence of the sea.*

580. Recapitulation of the chief points noticed in Chemico-Physiology :—

1. Plants consist of organic and inorganic constituents.
2. Organic constituents form the bulk of vegetable tissue; they are combustible, and cannot be produced artificially from their elements.
3. Inorganic constituents are in small quantity; are incombustible, and may be produced artificially.
4. Organic constituents are either unazotized or azotized; the former consisting of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen; the latter of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen.
5. Certain azotized compounds also contain sulphur and phosphates, and are particularly important in the case of cultivated crops used for food, in consequence of being sanguigenous or blood-forming.
6. The elements of the vegetable organic constituents exist in the atmosphere and in the soil, in the form of carbonic acid, water, ammonia, and nitric acid.
7. Inorganic constituents form the ash of plants, and consist of metals, metalloids, bases, and acids, in various states of combination.
8. Inorganic matters are supplied by the soil, and are hence called terrestrial or telluric food; they are important in building up the tissues of plants.
9. Phosphates and sulphates in an especial manner are important in the development of sanguigenous products.
10. Soils consist chiefly of organic matter, silica, and clay, mixed with salts of lime, magnesia, potash, and soda.
11. In the case of cultivated plants which require to collect a large amount of food in a short time, the nature of the soil requires to be particularly attended to.
12. The soil becomes exhausted by the continued growth of plants, more especially of cultivated crops.
13. Rotation of crops is founded on the fact that some plants take up a larger quantity of certain inorganic matters than of others; and hence white and green crops, which require different proportions of inorganic constituents, are made to succeed each other.
14. When a soil is deprived of nutritive materials, they must be supplied in order to keep up its fertility.
15. The fertility of the soil is kept up by the application of manures.
16. In order that manuring may be conducted properly, there must be a complete analysis of the crop, the soil, and the manure.
17. Manures are divided into farm-yard manure and special manures.
18. Farm-yard manure supplies all the ingredients for crops, and it usually acts slowly, so as to show its effects during a whole rotation.
19. Special manures supply special substances, and are more particularly suitable for quick-growing crops. Their effects generally cease with the crop to which they are applied.
20. The most valuable ingredients in manures are ammonia and phosphates.

* For fuller details relative to Chemico-Physiology, the student may consult the following works. Boussingault *Economie Rurale*; Davy's *Agricultural Chemistry*, by Shier; Dumas, on the balance of Organic Nature; Gregory's *Handbook of Organic Chemistry*; Johnston's *Lectures on Agricultural Chemistry*; Liebig's *Chemistry of Agriculture and Physiology*, translated by Playfair; Liebig's *Letters on Chemistry*, translated by Gregory; Morton's *Cyclopedia of Agriculture*; Mulder's *Chemistry of Vegetable and Animal Physiology*, translated by Fromberg; Schlegden, *Die Physiologie der Pflanzen und Thiere, und Theorie der Pflanzen-cultur*; Wilson's *Rural Cyclopedia*; Daubeny, on the Scientific Principles of Manuring—*Journal of Agricultural Society of England*, ii. 232, also various articles by Anderson, Way, Voelcker, and others, in the *Journal of Agriculture*, and *Transactions of the Highland Society*, and in the *Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society of England*.

CHAPTER III.

PHYSIOLOGY OF THE ELEMENTARY TISSUES OF PLANTS.

I. FUNCTIONS OF CELLS AND OF CELLULAR TISSUE.

581. When we consider that cells are of universal occurrence in the Vegetable Kingdom, and that they constitute, in some instances, the entire structure of plants, we can easily understand their importance in a physiological point of view. They are capable of carrying on all the functions of plant-life. We have already remarked, that the life of an individual cell may represent that of the entire plant. In the case of a unicellular Alga, as *Palmella* (Fig. 1075), we meet with a simple cell which absorbs nutriment from the atmosphere and the soil, and forms certain organizable matters, some of which are employed in building up its texture, while others are secreted or set apart for ulterior purposes in its economy. Those actions are frequently accompanied by an evident movement of fluids and granules. In the progress of time cellules are developed in the interior of the cell, which are discharged as independent cell-plants capable of performing all the functions of the parent cell. In other instances, the original cell gives origin to new cells, either by means of nuclei (Fig. 1076), or by a constant process of division (Fig. 1077), until at length a cellular plant is produced consisting of numerous cells variously arranged. In higher Cryptogamics, the cells undergo transformations fitting them for their special functions. Vital operations are carried on in all plants by means of cells, the constitution and functions of which vary according to the nature of the plants and the position in the scale of organization which they occupy. In the higher classes of plants, certain cells are concerned in the secretion of organizable products, which are elaborated by others into new tissues. The life of the higher species of plants results from the regular action of cells, which are of unequal value as regards the formation of new organs and new products. In cells there are observed the absorption and movements of fluids, the elaboration of these by exposure to air and light, and the formation of new cells.

582. In its early state a plant consists of one or more cells. These appear to be produced from a viscid substance of an albuminous nature, to which the names of *Protoplasm*, *Cytoblastema*, and *Vegetable Mucus* have been given. This substance is first homogeneous, then granular.* It is coagulated by alcohol, and coloured yellowish-brown by iodine. It is considered as the earliest stage of vegetable tissue, and as being endowed with a certain formative power. By Barry, the organizing matter is called *Hyaline*, from its pellucid nature. Some say that in this protoplasm nuclei are developed which give origin to cells; others state that the nitrogenous matter becomes at once divided into cell-like cavities, each of which produces a covering of cellulose for itself. The formation of nuclei or cells in a protoplasmic matrix, without the influence of another cell previously existing, may be called *extra-cellular*.

583. When a cell has been produced, we can then trace some of the stages by which new cells are formed. This process is called cell-

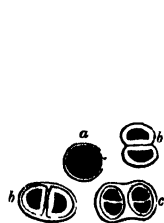


FIG 1075

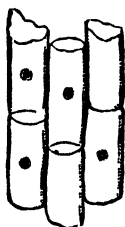


FIG 1076

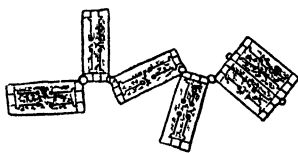


FIG 1077

development or *Cytogenesis*, and it has engaged the attention of many able physiologists. There appear to be four modes in which vegetable cells are multiplied, viz., by nuclei, by division, by gemmation, and by conjugation. New cells originate in the protoplasmic fluid contained in a parent cell by a process of *intra-cellular* formation. The new cells may either proceed from a nucleus, or, as Schleiden calls it, *Cytoblast*; or they may be formed at once in the protoplasm. In the former case, the nucleus becomes as it were the centre of vital action, and on one side of it a bladder-like vesicle arises (Fig. 1078, *b*). This original vesicle is bounded by a protoplasmic membrane, which ultimately becomes covered with a deposit of cellulose. The protoplasmic membrane forms the inner lining (primordial utricle of Mohl) of the new cell, and to it all the subsequent vital actions of the cell

Fig. 1075 Unicellular Alga (*Palmella cruenta*). The cell, *a*, absorbs, secretes, and forms new cells, by a process of fissiparous division, first into two, *b b*, and then into four parts, *c*.

Fig. 1076. Cells containing nuclei or cytoblasts, from which new cells are produced by intra-cellular cytotogenesis.

Fig 1077 Diatomaceous Alga (*Diatoma minimum*), the cells of which are increased by a constant process of fissiparous or merismatic division. The plant increases by abscission of segments.

* Some say that it consists of minute fibres, which, when united together, form the cell-wall, see page 420.

are referred.* The nucleus either remains in the cell-wall, or it is absorbed. The newly formed cell contains a formative fluid in which nuclei are produced, which, in their turn, give origin to other cells. Besides a nucleus, there are seen occasionally in cells very minute bodies called nucleoli, which some consider as being concerned in forming the wall of the nucleus. The nuclear formation of cells has been fully illustrated by Schleiden in the case of the Embryo plant. According to Mohl the nucleus is in the centre of the cell, and is attached to its walls by filamentous processes of protoplasm, as seen in the hairs of *Tradescantia*. When no nucleus is present, the protoplasm at once forms cells. This is called non-nuclear or free cell-formation. In both instances the formation of new cells takes place in the interior of previously formed cells. In progress of increase, nucleated and non-nucleated cells cause absorption of the walls of the parent cell, which finally disappears. It sometimes happens that the nucleus itself divides into two by a contraction in the middle, and each of its parts gives origin to cells. In this way a rapid multiplication of cells takes place. In Figure 1078, *b*, there is represented a parent or mother cell, containing two nucleated cells in its interior. These gradually increase, cause absorption of the walls of the parent cell, and become free. In Figure 1078, *a*, the parent cell still remains, enclosing five nucleated cells.

584. After a cell is formed, we often remark that its contents divide into two or four parts. This is accomplished by the folding inwards of the protoplasmic inner lining, the primordial utricle of Mohl. Each division forms for itself a covering of cellulose. These newly formed cells increase, cause absorption of the walls of the parent or mother cell, and separate from it as distinct cellular formations capable of going through the same process of division. Sometimes a cell divides into two or more parts, each of which becomes a separate cell, without any destruction of the walls of the original one, as shown in Figure 1079. This is accomplished by a similar folding of the inner lining, and a subsequent formation of cellulose in each division, but it differs from the previous method of division in the circumstance that the walls of the parent cell remain without being absorbed. These modes of cell-multiplication are called *fissiparous*, or *merismatic*.

585. Cells are also produced by a process of budding; in other words, by a continuous growth from various parts of previously formed cells. A cellular protuberance or mammilla appears either at the apex or at the sides of these cells, which elongates and ultimately divides by a partition or septum into two, one of which is arrested in its development, and the other goes on elongating and dividing. In this way a continuous row of cells is produced, as in certain *Algæ*

* In cells which have not attained complete development, this inner layer may be seen, especially after long immersion in alcohol. By this means it is separated from the outer covering. Iodine causes it to assume a yellow or brown colour. It may be traced in young shoots of *Elder* and of the *Fig*, in the roots of *Monocotyledons*, and in young hairs. After secondary layers of lignine have been deposited in cells, the membrane loses its activity, and is no longer visible.

and in the Yeast plant (Fig. 1080), or a branching filament, as in some kinds of *Confervæ* (Fig. 1081), and moniliform Fungi (Fig. 1082), or a flattened thallus composed of interlacing cells, as in Lichens (Fig. 1020, p. 343). This mode of cell-multiplication is *gemmiparous*, and is said to take place by a process of *gemmation*.

586. Another mode in which new cells are formed is by the *conjugation* or union of two cells having different contents (Fig. 1083). This is well seen in *Zygnema* and other allied plants, and it will be particularly noticed under Embryogeny. This process may be called *generative cell-production*. The cell developed in this way constitutes the spore or germ in the lower class of plants, and the first cell of the embryo in the higher plants (Fig. 910, e, p. 303). The embryonic cell produces nuclei, by means of which a multiplication of cells is effected.

587. The rapidity with which cells are developed in some cellular plants is astonishing. Ward observed *Phallus impudicus* shoot up

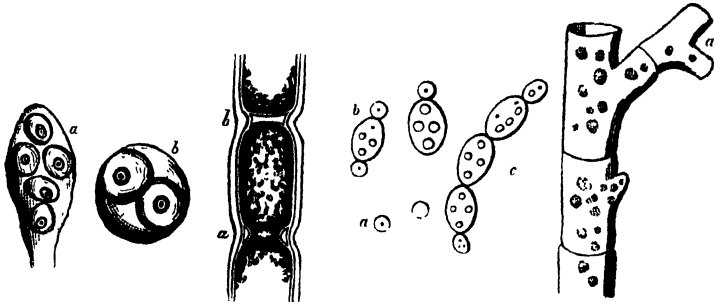


Fig. 1078.

Fig. 1079.

Fig. 1080.

Fig. 1081.

three inches in the space of twenty-five minutes. *Bovista giganteum* (gigantic puffball) has grown in a single night in damp weather from the size of a mere point to that of an enormous gourd. From an approximative calculation, it is found that in this plant not less than 20,000 new cells were formed every minute. Kieser calculated that the tissue of some Fungi augmented at the rate of 60,000 cells per minute. Large tracts of snow in the arctic regions and in alpine

Fig. 1078. Nucleated cells. *a*, Very young leaf of *Crassula obliqua*, showing the parent-cell containing five nucleated cells in its interior; *b*, cell from the young bud of a species of *Aloe*, containing two cells with nuclei or cytoblasts. The contained cells by their increase destroy the parent-cell.

Fig. 1079. Portion of a cellular plant (*Conferva glomerata*), showing at *a* the primordial utricle or inner cell-wall folding inwards, so as to make a septum or partition, which is represented at *b* in a completed state. Each portion of the divided cell forms a covering of cellulose, and becomes an independent cell.

Fig. 1080. Cells of the Yeast plant (*Torula cerevisiæ*), in different stages of growth; *a*, single cells *b*, cells giving off buds either at one or both ends; *c*, a congeries of cells united, those at the extremities producing new cells in the form of cellular buds.

Fig. 1081. Cells of an Alga (*Chetophora*), giving off new cells, *a*, by a process of budding. These new cells appear first as protuberances from the sides of previously formed cells.

districts are sometimes suddenly reddened by the development of innumerable cells of the Red Snow-plant.

588. Cellular tissue is very hygroscopic. If cellular plants, such as Sea-weeds, are dried, and then put into water, they take up the fluid rapidly. These plants may be sent from a distance in a dry state, and when moistened, they assume their proper forms. Some of them, as the different species of Tangle (*Laminaria*), have been used as hygrometers. In Mosses, the cellular teeth of the peristome (Fig. 1084, *p*), curve inwards on the application of moisture, by the distension of the outer row of cells. The twisting of the stalk of Mosses, and of the awn of the wild Oat, are accounted for in a similar manner. The fronds of a species of *Lycopodium* (*L. squamatum*), from Brazil, curl inwards in the dry season, so that the plant appears like a brown ball, and during the wet season they spread out so as to cover

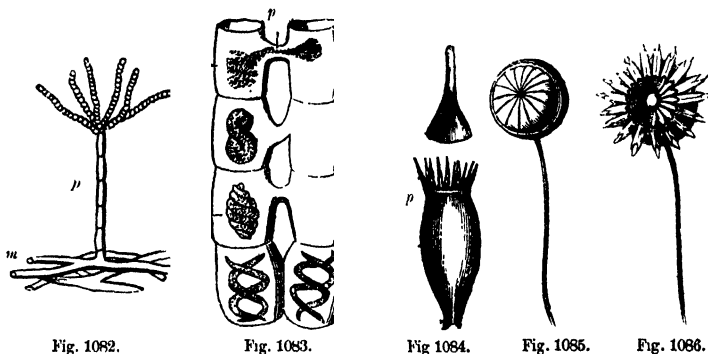


Fig. 1082.

Fig. 1083.

Fig. 1084.

Fig. 1085.

Fig. 1086.

the soil. The plant called Rose of Jericho (*Anastatica hierochuntina*), shows a similar hygroscopicity in its pod; and some of the Cape species of *Mesembryanthemum* open their seed-vessels when moisture is applied. In Figures 1085 and 1086, a seed-vessel is represented in a closed state when dry, and in an open expanded state when moist. The spores or germs of Horse-tails (*Equisetum*), are provided with cellular clavate filaments, which contract and expand under the in-

Fig. 1082. A species of Mould-fungus (*Penicillium*), consisting of long cells, *m*, producing cellular buds, which form a continuous row of cells, *p*, by gemmation and division, bearing branching moniliform threads, *c*, composed of a congeries of united cells, which seem to be formed in the same way as the cells of the Yeast plant.

Fig. 1083. Cellular filaments of an Alga (*Zygnema*), uniting by tubes, *p*, which allow the contents of one cell, *c*, to pass into another, *d*, and thus give origin to new cells, *s*, which receive the name of spores. This is called generative production of cells.

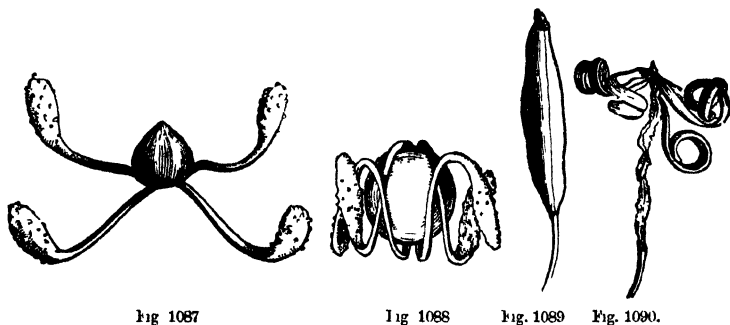
Fig. 1084. Sporangium of the Extinguisher-moss (*Encalypta*), showing the teeth of the peristome, *p*, which fold inwards when moisture is applied—this movement being caused by the distension of the outer thin-walled cells, of which the teeth are composed.

Fig. 1085. Seed vessel of a species of *Mesembryanthemum* in a closed state.

Fig. 1086. The same seed-vessel, with its valves expanded, after having been moistened by water. The swelling of the inner cells causes the curvation outwards.

fluence of moisture and dryness, and thus assist in placing the germ properly in the soil (Figs. 1087 and 1088). These *Equisetum* spores are interesting objects under the microscope, and their movements are seen by breathing upon them. Hairs, which are composed of cells, also show hygroscopic properties. The Pappus of *Scorzonera*, and the hairs of *Andropogon*, have been used as hygrometers.

589. Liquids pass through the walls of cells by a process of imbibition. Thin-walled cells take up fluids very rapidly. To the movement of fluids, through membranes of different kinds, Dutrochet has given the names of Endosmose, or inward movement, and Exosmose, or outward movement.* These movements take place both in living and in dead tissue, and they are influenced by the nature of the fluids and of the membrane. The fluids on either side of the membrane must differ from each other in density, and they must have an affinity for the interposed membrane, and for each other. By the endosmotic process, a thin liquid passes in large quantity and with great force through



a vegetable or animal membrane, in order to mix with a denser liquid, while the latter passes outwards in small quantity by a slower exosmotic movement. If a unicellular plant, as one of the cells of the Yeast plant (Fig. 1080, p. 410), is placed in a dense liquid, the contents of the cell pass outwards rapidly, and the cell becomes more or less collapsed; if, on the other hand, it is put into a thin liquid, the reverse takes place, so that the cell is distended.

590. The cells of plants contain liquids of different densities, and hence these movements must be constantly taking place, so as to cause an interchange of their contents. The bursting of the seed-vessel of

Fig. 1087. Spore of Horse-tail (*Equisetum*), with hygrometric club-shaped cellular filaments expanded in a dry state.

Fig. 1088. The same spores with the hygrometric filaments coiled round it, in consequence of the application of moisture

Fig. 1089. Ripe fruit of Balsam (*Impatiens noli-me-tangere*), in its unopened condition.

Fig. 1090. Fruit of the same plant opening by five recurved valves. The opening and curvation is traced in part to endosmose taking place in the cells.

* Dutrochet, Recherches sur l'Endosmose et l'Exosmose, Paris, 1828

the Elaterium (*Ecbalium Elaterium*), and of the Balsam (*Impatiens*), is traced in part to the distension of cells by endosmose, which causes a curvation in the parts and an ultimate rupture (Figs. 1089 and 1090). It must, however, be borne in mind, that endosmose is modified in the living plant by the vital actions going on in the cells, and that it is to these actions we must refer the continued movements of fluids through the cell-walls.

591. The endosmotic phenomena may be illustrated by means of a tube of glass containing syrup or a saturated solution of salt, the end of which is covered by a membrane, such as a piece of bladder, and then placed in water. In this case the water will enter in such quantity into the interior of the tube, through the membrane, that the fluid will rise. With a membrane about 1.6 inch in diameter, a tube of about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, and syrup of density 1.083, the fluid rose, according to Dutrochet, more than an inch and a half in an hour and a half; when the syrup had a density of 1.145, the fluid rose nearly three inches; and when the density was 1.228, the rise was four inches.

592. The force with which the movement takes place is very great. Dutrochet estimated that in the case of syrup of density 1.3, the force of endosmose was equal to the pressure of $4\frac{1}{2}$ atmospheres. He used an instrument called an endosmometer to measure the intensity of the force. This instrument is represented in Figure 1091. There is a bent tube, *t*, attached to a graduated scale; the lower end of the tube is large, and is covered by a membrane. In the interior of the enlarged extremity syrup is placed, and mercury is poured in, so as to occupy the lower curvature, *m*. When the apparatus is placed in water, *w*, the fluid rises in the tube. The extent to which it pushes up the mercury indicates the force.

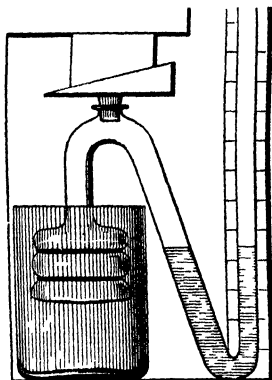
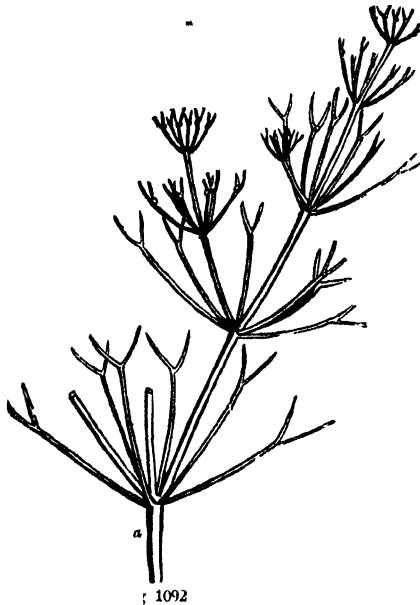


Fig. 1091.

593. In many cells there is observed a distinct motion of fluids and granules. Schleiden thinks that this takes place probably in all active formative cells at a certain stage of growth. Mohl looks upon it as a universal phenomenon, and says that it is connected with the pro-

Fig. 1091. Endosmometer or measurer of Endosmose used by Dutrochet. It consists of a glass tube, *t*, which is twice bent upon itself, and has a large open bell-shaped extremity, *w*. The portion of the tube below this extremity and the second curvature, *m*, is wider in its calibre than that part which is attached to a graduated scale, *t*, a portion of which only is represented in the Figure. The open end of the bell-shaped extremity is covered with bladder, which is firmly tied over it. Syrup is then introduced by the orifice at the top of the arch, and the opening is secured by a cork and wedge. Mercury is introduced into the tube so as to fill a portion of the lower curvature, as represented by the dark lines, and the syrup is made to fill the space between the mercury and the bladder. When the apparatus is placed in water, *w*, a process of endosmose goes on by which the water passes in large quantity through the bladder, and the force is estimated by the extent to which the mercury rises in the tube, *t*. The exosmose of the syrup goes on slowly and in small quantity. There is thus an in-going strong current, and an out going weak current.

toplasm, and not with the watery cell-sap. This intra-cellular movement or circulation is seen in many aquatic plants as well as in certain hairs. It was first noticed by Corti in *Chara** in 1774, afterwards by Amici in *Caulinia fragilis*,† and then by Treviranus in 1807. It has received the names of *Rotation* and *Gyration*. It is confined to individual cells, and its direction is more or less spiral. In Characeæ (p. 354) this spiral intra-cellular movement is observed easily under a moderate microscopic power. In *Chara* the axis is composed of elongated cells placed end to end, surrounded by a number of small secondary cells, which take a spiral course round the primary cells from left to right, and which are often encrusted with carbonate of lime. In *Nitella*, another genus of Characeæ, there are no secondary



; 1092

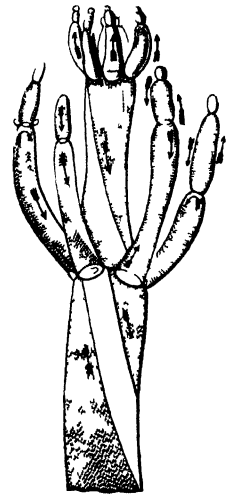


Fig 1093

spiral cells. The movements are most easily seen in the species of *Nitella*, which have unencrusted tubular cells. If the species of *Chara* are employed, the calcareous covering must be removed in the first instance. In *Nitella flexilis* (Fig. 1092) each joint, *a*, consists of a

Fig 1092 One of the Characeæ (*Nitella flexilis*), consisting of cellular tubes which form the axis and branches. In these elongated cells the movement of rotation or gyration is observed.

Fig 1093 A small portion of a *Chara* magnified to show the intra-cellular circulation. The arrows mark the direction of the fluid and granules in the different cells. The clear spaces are parts where there is no movement. The circulation in each cell is independent of that in the others.

* Corti, Osservazioni microscopiche sulla Tremella et sulla circolazione del fluido in una piante acquajuola

† Amici, sur le *Caulinia fragilis*—Annals des Sc. Nat., 1st series, n. 42. Osservazioni sulla circolazione del succhio nella *Chara* 1818

single cell composed of a membranous envelope, within which is arranged a layer of green granules, covering every part except two longitudinal lines, as seen in Figure 1093, which remain nearly colourless. During the healthy state of the plant, a constant motion of fluid containing granules takes place within the green layer, the current passing obliquely up one side, changing its direction at the extremity, and flowing down the other side. The stream takes a spiral course, and the ascending and descending currents are bounded by the transparent spaces already noticed, which appear to be caused by the adhesion of an internal membranous sac to the outer envelope. The space between the outer and inner wall is thus divided into two cavities, which communicate with each other at the ends of the cell. The rounded bodies which are carried forward in the circulation are of various sizes, and they undergo changes so as gradually to become incorporated with the tissue of the cells. The fluid does not pass from one cell to another, and if one of the long cells is divided by a ligature, a separate movement is seen in each division. Rotation continues for some days in detached cells placed in water.

594. In the cells of *Vallisneria spiralis* (Fig. 1094), a dioecious aquatic found in ditches in the south of Europe, a spiral intra-cellular movement takes place, and is easily seen under the microscope by laying a portion of the leaf in water, and making a slanting section of the end of it, so as to render the object more transparent by transmitted light. If the movement is not visible, the leaf may be immersed for a short time in water of the temperature of 70° or 80°. The piece of the leaf should always be prepared for an hour before it is exhibited. There are two kinds of cells in the plant, epidermal and parenchymatous; the former being small, from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch square, the latter being elongated and muriform, with their long diameter $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, and their short diameter $\frac{1}{6}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$. It is chiefly in the latter that the evident movements take place. There are spaces between these cells containing air, which give rise to the dark longitudinal lines marking the edges of the large internal cells when seen under the microscope. In the cells there are numerous green chlorophyll grains, some starch granules, and an occasional large nucleus, which are carried with a mucilaginous fluid round the interior of the



Fig. 1094.

Fig. 1094. *Vallisneria spiralis*, an aquatic plant found in the south of Europe. Under this name however, are included *Vallisneria Micheliana*, found in Italy, and *Vallisneria Jacquimiana*, which is a native of France, East Indies, and South America. In the cells of the plant the movements of rotation are well seen under the microscope. A small portion of the leaf may be taken, and the ends cut very obliquely, so as to make a transparent object. The application of a moderate heat to the water in which the portion of leaf is placed often expedites the circulation. *a*, The male plant, *b*, the female plant.

walls of each cell, as represented in Figure 1095. This movement is seen not only in the leaf-cells, but also in those of the root, flower-stalk, spathe, and calyx. The movement takes different directions in different cells, but it seems to keep the same course in any given cell; for if stopped, it resumes the same direction. The motion continues for many days in a detached piece of the leaf when kept in water. The rapidity of the movement varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch to 5 inches per hour. According to Mohl's experiments made at the temperature of 66° to 68° Fahr., the quickest motion was 1-125th of a Parisian line,* the slowest 1-600th, and the mean 1-185th. The nucleus moved with the same velocity as the granules of chlorophyll. The current was often quicker in one cell than in another, and occasionally a spontaneous stoppage took place at certain points.†



Fig. 1095

595. In *Vallisneria* the motion ceases entirely at about 45° Fahr., while in *Chara* it goes on at a lower temperature. A moderate heat quickens the circulation, but if above 150° , the motion ceases. It is said to go on even in darkness, and the presence of green granules does not appear to be necessary, for it is seen in the transparent roots of *Vallisneria*. Prussic acid, solutions of opium, of acetate of lead, and of corrosive sublimate, alcohol, acids and alkalis, cause cessation of the movements. In the epidermal cells of *Vallisneria*, as well as in the young shoots of *Chara*, there has been observed, under a high magnifying power, and with subdued light, a rotation of the globular bodies on their own axes.

596. Similar movements are well seen in the cells of *Anacharis Alsinastrum*, an aquatic plant which seems to have been introduced into Britain from America, and is now naturalized.‡ It belongs to the same natural order as *Vallisneria*, and it is much more easily procured. Among other plants exhibiting rotation, the following may also be noticed:—Water soldier (*Stratiotes aloides*); stipules of various species of Pond-weed (*Potamogeton*); transparent stipules at the base of the leaf-stalk of Frogbit (*Hydrocharis Morsus Ranæ*); rhizome of Arrow-head (*Sagittaria sagittifolia*).

Fig. 1095. Large internal cell of *Vallisneria*, showing the direction of the currents in intra-cellular rotation. There is an occasional nucleus seen in the course of the circulation along with the chlorophyll grains.

* A Parisian line is = .068815 of a British inch.

† These measurements were made by observing the passage of the image of a granule across the field of a glass micrometer fixed in the ocular, and at the same time counting the strokes of a second-pendulum. Mohl remarks, the smallness of these numbers may surprise many, especially when they are compared with the apparently considerable velocity which the movements exhibit under the microscope, but it must be remembered that in these circumstances the motion is seen quickened several hundred times.

‡ See Paper by Mr George Lawson in the *Scottish Florist* for April 1853

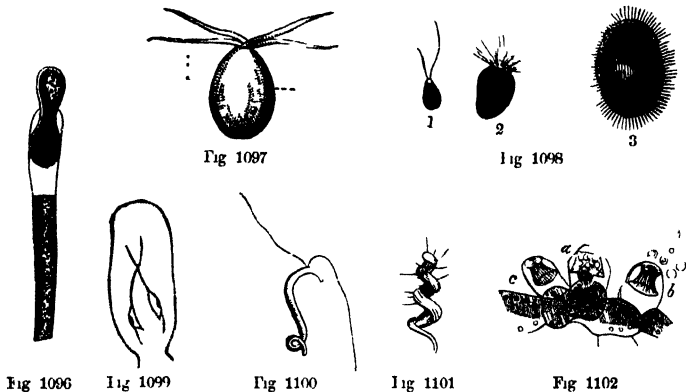
597. Spiral movements of rotation are also seen in the elongated cells forming the hairs of the Nettle, Loasa, Pentstemon, Galeopsis, Borage, Melon, and other plants, as well as in the separate cells of the staminal hairs of the Virginian Spider-wort (*Tradescantia virginica*). The hairs of *Tradescantia* assume either a blue or white colour, and are composed of several cells united together in a moniliform manner. In each of the cells the motion is seen, but it requires a higher power of the microscope than in the case of *Chara*, *Vallisneria*, and *Anacharis*. In every vesicle there is a nucleus, and there appears to be an inner and outer envelope in the space between which the movement of fluids takes place. In the hairs of *Tradescantia*, the velocity of the current, according to Mohl, varied from 1-300th to 1-900th of a Parisian line in a second, the mean velocity being 1-500th. The nucleus required from a quarter to half an hour to pass through one-third or one-half the longitudinal axis of the cell, progressing not more than 1-45,000th of a Parisian line in a second, which is much too little to allow of the movement being seen directly, even by the application of the strongest magnifying powers. In the stinging hairs of *Urtica baccifera*, the quickest motion observed by Mohl, at the temperature 66-68° Fahr., was 1-625th of a Parisian line in a second, the slowest 1-875th, the mean 1-750th. In the hairs of *Cucurbita Pepo*, the quickest was 1-770th, the slowest 1-2760th, the mean being 1-1857th of a Parisian line in a second. The protoplasmic motion is also seen in the stinging hairs of the Chili Nettle (*Loasa*), and in the hairs of the corolla of *Campanula Medium*.

598. The cause of these intra-cellular motions is obscure. They appear to be connected with the nourishment of the cell and the process of cytogenesis. Some have attempted to account for them by physical causes, but the explanations given are very unsatisfactory. Certain authors have referred the phenomenon to endosmose depending on different densities in the cell contents, while electrical agency has been called into requisition by others. Amici thinks that in *Chara* the rows of chlorophyll-granules which line the walls of the cells exercise a galvanic action upon the sap, and thus give rise to the motion. The action of the nucleus has also been thought to account for the phenomenon. It is not connected with the general circulation of the sap, but is a special movement in individual cells. As yet no good explanation has been brought forward, and all we can say is, that the movements are of a physico-vital nature.

599. Some cells connected with the lower tribes of plants move about in a liquid medium. Species of *Oscillatoria* have an undulating movement, and when placed in water in the field of the microscope, they seem to pass from one side to the other. Their elongated filamentous cells sometimes twist, and then project themselves forward by uncoiling. If we take good specimens of *Nostoc verrucosum* newly gathered, and put them on a plate full of water, we find that in two or three days the external pellicle bursts, and strings of cells spread out in the water,

and form a green pellicle at the bottom of the plate. These, when viewed by the microscope, are seen to be no longer of great length and twisted in various ways, but divided into numerous fragments of unequal length, which move about in all directions with a slow but perceptible motion.

600. In many Algae the cellular spores are surrounded by vibratile hairs called cilia, which continue to move for some time in fluid after the spore (zoospore) has been discharged from the plant (Fig. 1096). The ciliary motions cease when the spore begins to sprout. The cilia sometimes project from one end of the spore (Figs. 1097, 1098, 1, 2), at other times they surround it entirely (Fig. 1098, 3). Similar moving cells are seen in *Stephanosphaera* and other genera of Volvocineae, which are now referred to the vegetable kingdom by Sie-



bold, Williamson, Cohn, Busk, and others.* Each of the moving spores or microgonidia of these plants has four cilia.

Fig 1096 A Conservaceous Alga (*Chaetochrysis ovoides*), consisting of an elongated club-shaped cell, from one end of which is discharged a cellular germ or spore, provided with vibratile filaments called cilia, which display movements in water.

Fig 1097 Moving spore of a Conferva (*Chaetophora*), provided with four vibratile cilia. It is called a Zoospore or Sporoid on account of the motions it displays for a certain time in water.

Fig 1098 Zoospores or Sporoids of Algae, being cells provided with moving cilia. 1 Zoospore of *Conferva glomerata*, with two cilia at one end. 2 Zoospore of *Prolifera irregularis*, with a tuft of cilia at one end. 3 Zoospore of *Vaucheria*, surrounded by cilia.

Fig. 1099 Two Phytozoa, with moving cilia, contained in the antheridium of a Sea-weed (*Fucus serratus*).

Fig 1100. Phytozoon, with two vibratile processes, from the globule (antheridium) of a species of *Chara*.

Fig 1101 Phytozoon, with cilia, from the antheridian cells of the prothallium of a Fern (*Asplenium septentrionale*).

Fig 1102 Antheridia from the prothallium of the Common Brake (*Pteris aquilina*). a, An unopened antheridium. b, An antheridium bursting at the apex, and discharging free cells, each of which contains a ciliated spiral filament (spermatozoid), on its exit this spiral body moves about actively with a rotatory motion, when seen in water under the microscope. c, Antheridium after the discharge of the cells, assuming a brown colour.

* Williamson on *Volvox globator*, in *Memoirs of the Lit and Phil Soc of Manchester*, vol ix, and *Quarterly Journal of Microscop Science*, 145. Busk on *Volvox globator*, in *Quarterly Journal*

601. In the antheridia of Cryptogamic plants there occur free cel- lules containing bodies called Phytozoa, Spermatozoids, or Seminal filaments, which have vibratile moving processes. In Figure 1099 two of these phytozoa are represented in the antheridium of a Sea-weed (*Fucus serratus*), and in Figure 1100, a similar body is exhibited as taken from the globule of a species of *Chara*. In Figure 1101 there is shown a phytozoon as discharged from the prothallian cells of Ferns. Figure 1102 exhibits these antheridian cells in different stages of growth, the discharge of the phytozoary cellules being delineated at *b*. The cause of the movements of zoospores and phytozoa has not been ascertained. The subject has engaged the attention of many able physiologists, such as Thuret and Decaisne, Suminski, Mercklin, and Hoffmeister.*

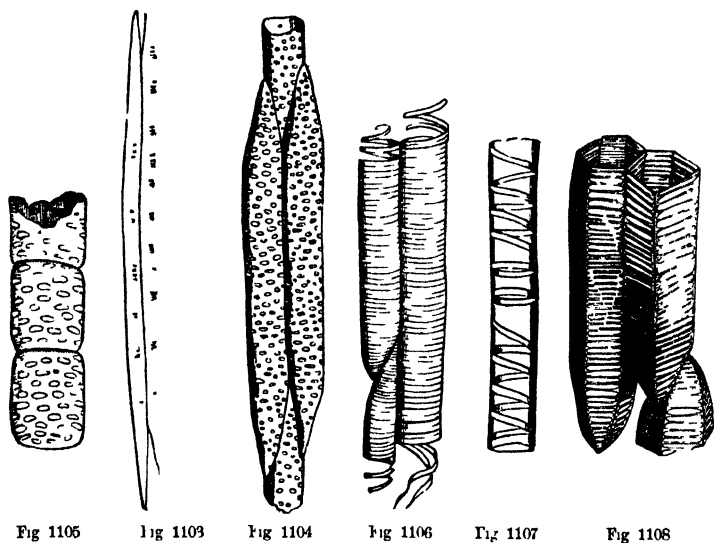
II. FUNCTIONS OF VESSELS AND OF VASCULAR TISSUE.

602. We have seen that the plant, in its earliest stage of develop- ment, consists entirely of cells. It is from them, accordingly, that the other structures are formed. Some cells become elongated, so as to form fusiform tubes, the walls of which are thickened and strengthened by deposits of different kinds, and thus give rise to woody tubes, dotted vessels, and fibro-vascular tissue. In connection with these vessels are observed nucleated cambium cells, which appear to be concerned in

of *Microscop. Science*, i. 31. Cohn on a new genus of Volvocineæ, in Siebold and Kolliker's *Zeitschrift für Zoologie*, iv. 77; translated in *Ann. Nat. Hist.*, 2d series, x. 323.

* For fuller particulars relative to the development and functions of cells, the student may consult the following works and papers:—Alison, on Vital Affinity—*Trans. Royal Soc. Edin.*, xvi. 165, and xx. 385. Amiel, on the Movements in *Caulinia fragilis*—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.*, 2d ser., i. 41. Barry, *Researches in Embryology*—*Philosophical Transactions*, 1838, p. 301, 1839, p. 307, 1840, p. 529, 1841, p. 193; *Edin. New Phil. Journal*, 1847. Carpenter's *Principles of Physiology, General and Comparative*, p. 88. Cohn, zur Lehre vom Wachsthum der Pflanzen Zelle, in *Nova Acta Natur. Curios.* xxii., 2d part, 509. Hartig, Beiträge der Entwicklungsgeschichte der Pflanzen, 1843. Hartig, on the Growth of Cells—*Linnæa*, xix. Hassall, on *Chara*, Fresh-water Alga, i. 85. Inman, on Circulation in Cells of Vegetables—*Proceed. Lit. and Phil. Soc. of Liverpool*, No. iv. p. 26, 1848. Meyen, sur la Circulation du Suc Cellulaire dans les Plantes—*Annales des Sc. Nat.*, 2d series, Bot., iv. 257. Mohl, Grundzüge der Anatomie und Physiologie der Vegetabilischen Zelle; on the Structure of the Vegetable Cell, in Taylor's *Scientific Memoirs*, iv. 91; on the Anatomy and Physiology of Cells, translated by Henfrey; sur l'Accroissement de la Membrane Cellulaire—*Botan. Zeitung*, 1846, 337, and *Annales des Sc. Nat.*, 3d series, Bot., vii. 129; on the Movement of Fluids in the Interior of Cells—*Bot. Zeit.*, Jan. and Feb. 1846; *Annales des Sc. Nat.*, 3d series, Bot., vi. 84; *Annals of Nat. Hist.*, xviii. 61. Naegeli, on the Nuclei, Formation and Growth of Vegetable Cells, translated from *Zeitschrift für Wissenschaftliche Botanik*, in Ray Society's Reports, 1846, p. 218, 1849, p. 93. Pouchet sur les Globules Circulatoires de la *Zannichellia palustris*—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.*, 2d series, iii. 39. Quekett, on *Vallisneria*—*Physiol. Journ.*, i. 33, 65. Schleiden, on Phytogenesis, translated from Muller's *Archiv. in Taylor's Scientific Memoirs*, i. 281; *Principles of Botany*, translated by Lankester, 81. Schwann, *Mikroskopische Untersuchungen ueber die Uebereinstimmung in der Structur und dem Wachsthum der Thiere und Pflanzen*, Berlin, 1839. Slack, on the Motion of Fluids in Plants—*Trans. Soc. Arts*, xlix. 142, 177. Thuret, sur les Zoospores des Algues, &c.—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.*, 2d series, Bot., xix. 206; 3d series, xiv. 214. Thwaites, on the Cell Membrane of Plants—*Annals of Nat. Hist.*, xviii. p. 15. Unger, ueber die Samenthiere der Pflanzen—*Nova Acta Natur. Curios.*, xviii. 785. Varley, on the Circulation in *Chara vulgaris*—*Trans. Soc. Arts*, xlviii. 387, xlix. 179.—See also other references to papers on Zoospores and Phytozoa of Cryptogamic plants, in notes, pp. 320 and 366.

their development. Barry maintains that in every instance in which fibres are present in tissues, he has noticed filaments of a similar nature in the earliest state. Agardh has recently stated that fibres are the origin of the tissues, and that the cell-walls are made up of bundles of solid fibres interwoven together. In the case of *Conferva Melagonium*, *Griffithsia equisetifolia*, and *Polysiphonia complanata*, he has shown in the cell-walls numerous bundles of fibres, which cross each other at the joints so as to form the diaphragm. They also seem to pass from the inner lining of one cell to that of the cells in immediate contact with it. The fibres are especially evident when the walls are ruptured. Between the bundles of fibres there are spaces which are traversed by finer fibres, with faint traces of a connecting gelatinous substance.* The tubes forming the wood (Fig. 1103) are pervious to fluids in their young state, but their walls soon become thickened by



deposits of lignine, and in the heartwood of trees their cavities are obliterated. This filling up of the tube takes place often in a concentric manner, and when it is completed, the active life of the cell or

Fig. 1103. Woody tissue, consisting of fusiform tubes, the walls of which are thickened by deposits of lignine

Fig. 1104. Dotted, pitted, and porous vessels consisting of fusiform tubes, with depressions on their walls caused by the mode in which the thickening matter is deposited

Fig. 1105 Dotted vessels composed of cells united together, with the partitions obliterated

Fig. 1106 Spiral vessels from the Melon, with the fibres partially unrolled

Fig. 1107 Spiral and annular vessels from the Melon

Fig. 1108 Scalariform vessels of Ferns

* Agardh, *De Cellula Vegetabilis fibrillis tenuissimis contexta*, Lundæ, 1852

tube may be considered as having terminated. The dotted or porous vessels (Fig. 1104) constituting bothrenchyma, do not exist in all vascular plants. Thus they do not usually exist in Conifers. Their walls are thickened to a certain extent by deposits, but spaces are left of a thinner nature. Occasionally they seem to be formed, as in Rhubarb, by a filling up of the inter-spaces between fibres, until a small pit only remains; or, as in *Alnus serratula*, by a number of lines arranged at first like those of a ladder, and then united by transverse ones forming a grating, the angles being finally filled up and rounded; or, as in *Populus tremuloides*, by a uniform deposit over the whole membrane. These vessels appear to be employed in the rapid and easy transmission of fluids, and, according to Morren, they are so constructed as to unite the utmost possible strength with the greatest lightness. Some of these dotted vessels, more especially those included under articulated or moniliform bothrenchyma (Fig. 1105), seem to be produced by the union of cells, the partitions between which are ultimately absorbed, so as to form continuous tubes, with annular depressions on the outside, marking the points of union between the cells.

603. The functions of the fibro-vascular tissue (Figs. 1106, 1107, 1108), consisting of spiral vessels or tracheæ, and their modifications (p. 27), have been long a subject of dispute. Early authors, such as Grew and Malpighi, considered them as tubes for the transmission of air, probably from their resemblance to air-tubes of animals. Hales* mentions that air-bubbles arose from the vessels of the Vine when cut, and Bischoff,† in his Dissertation on the Functions of the Spiral Vessels, says that he distinctly observed air to come from the spirals of *Cucurbita Pepo* when the stem was cut across with a very sharp knife, as well as when the vascular bundles were placed under water and gently pressed. During the day this air was found to contain 27.9 to 29.8 per cent. of oxygen. When the cut stem was inserted in coloured solutions, he found that the fluid in these circumstances entered the spiral vessels as well as the other tissues. The recent experiments of Hoffmann‡ confirm in a great measure these observations. He found that in Monocotyledons and Ferns, spiral vessels and those allied to them, such as annular and scalariform vessels, usually contained air in their normal condition; but if there was a rapid and copious entrance of sap, then the fibro-vascular tissue took up liquids as well as air. When the roots were cut across and immersed in water, then the liquid passed into all the tissues, including the spirals. From all the observations made, it would appear that spiral vessels and their allies are receptacles for gaseous matter formed in the course of the movement of the sap.

604. Laticiferous vessels (Fig. 1109) are distinguished from others by their branching and anastomosis. Some look upon them as inter-

* Hales, *Vegetable Statics*, p. 155, *et seq.* † Bischoff, *de Vasorum Spirahum functione*, Bonn. 1829.

‡ Hoffmann, on *Circulation of Sap*—Scientific Memoirs, Natural History, November 1862, 1.

cellular canals lined by a special membrane. Most authors believe that they contain the elaborated sap which has been exposed to the influence of air and light. The fluid contained in these vessels is sometimes clear and transparent, at other times opaque, from the presence of granules of resin, caoutchouc, and other matters. In plants with milky and coloured latex, as the India Rubber plant (*Ficus elastica*), the Taban, or Gutta Percha tree (*Isonandra Gutta*), Dandelion, Lettuce, the Cow tree (Fig. 1110), Euphorbias (Fig. 1111), and Celandine (Fig. 1112), when examined under the microscope, evident movements have been perceived in the laticiferous vessels. In making this examination, it is necessary to fix upon a more or less transparent organ, and to examine it while still attached to the plant, so as to avoid all sources of fallacy. In the calyx of the Celandine, the orange-

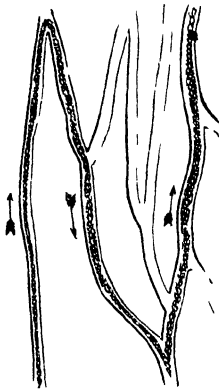


Fig 1109



Fig 1110

coloured fluid contained in the laticiferous vessels can be distinctly seen, as represented in Figure 1113, moving with great rapidity, so as to resemble in many respects the appearance presented by the circulation in the web of a frog's foot. In the stipule of the India Rubber plant, a similar motion, but usually slower and less apparent, may be detected without injuring the plant. These movements were noticed by Schultz, and were called by him vital. Mohl and others have recently attempted to show that the movements are merely caused by injury done to the tissues in submitting them to microscopic examination. But this will not account for those cases where the motion of the latex was seen in an organ without detaching it from the plant. Moreover, it is by no means difficult to distinguish between the continuous rhyth-

Fig 1109. Branching and anastomosing tubes of laticiferous vessels. In them there is an evident movement of granules of latex, as represented in some of the tubes in the Figure, the arrows marking the direction of the current.

Fig. 1110 Cow-tree of the Caraccas (*Galactodendron utile*), yielding a blaud milky juice, which is used as food. The milk is contained in laticiferous vessels.

mical motion in these vessels and that caused by pressure or by injury. When the stipule of *Ficus*, still attached to the plant, is laid gently on a glass plate under the microscope, we may, by applying artificial pressure, show that the oscillation thus caused is different from the circulation in the vessels. The movement in the laticiferous vessels has received the name of *Cyclosis*. It seems to take place in all direc-



Fig 1111.

tions, the currents, as shewn in Figures 1109 and 1113, running in contrary directions in contiguous vessels. The movement is said to be most vigorous in parts which are in the progress of development. It is promoted by the application of heat, and it is checked by cold

Fig 1111. Caper Spurge (*Euphorbia Lathyris*), yielding an acrid milky fluid, which is contained in laticiferous tissue, and exhibits the movement of *Cyclosis*. When the plant is wounded in the slightest degree there is an abundant flow of milky sap.

and by an electric shock. Carpenter considers it as analogous to the capillary circulation in animals. It is not caused by a *vis a tergo*, because it is by no means constant in its direction, and there is no

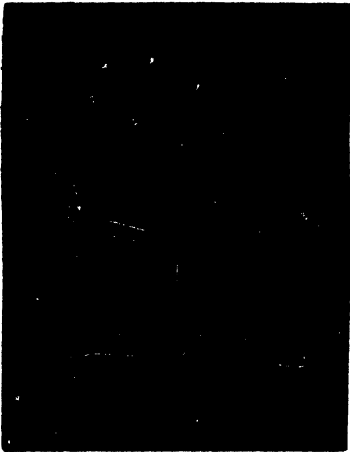


Fig. 1113.

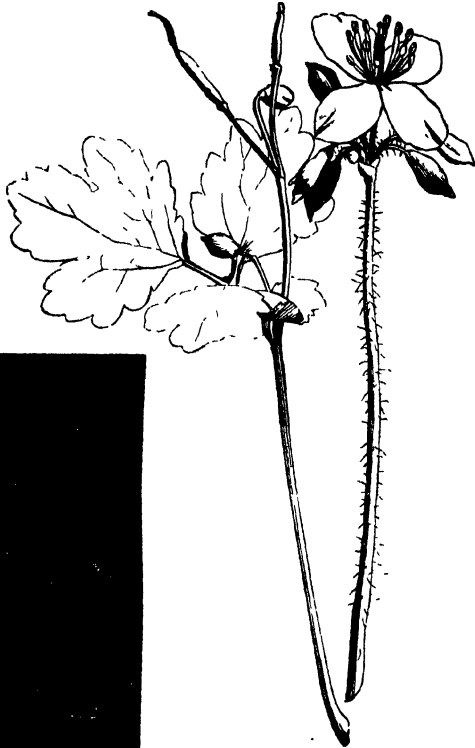


Fig. 1112

organ to supply a propelling force; and it cannot be attributed to a *vis a fronte*, like that which operates in causing the sap to ascend from the roots to the leaves. Moreover, it goes on for some time in parts detached from the rest, where neither of these powers can be exerted. There is no evidence of contraction in the vessels themselves to account for the phenomenon. It seems to be a peculiar vital movement con-

Fig. 1112. Celandine (*Chelidonium majus*), the laticiferous vessels of which contain an orange-coloured granular fluid. In the calyx, the movement of the granules can be seen under the microscope.

Fig. 1113. Portion of sepal of Celandine (*Chelidonium majus*), showing the laticiferous vessels, the course of the currents in the vessels being indicated by the arrows.

nected with formative actions, and attributable to affinities existing between the tissues and the fluids concerned in nutrition.*

605. Recapitulation of some of the chief points connected with the Physiology of the elementary vegetable tissues :—

1. Cells are met with, to a greater or less extent, in all plants.
2. Some plants are entirely cellular, and in them all the functions of life are carried on by means of cells.
3. Living cells have the power of absorbing fluids, of elaborating secretions, and of forming new cells.
4. Cells increase in size, and become altered in form and in composition, during the progress of growth.
5. Cytogenesis, or cell development, takes place through the medium of an albuminous matter called Protoplasma or Cytoblastema.
6. Multiplication of cells takes place either by means of nuclei (cytoblasts) developed within parent cells; or by fissiparous (merismatic) division, caused by the folding inwards of the primordial utricle; or by budding (gemmation); or by union of two parent cells having different contents (conjugation).
7. Cells absorb fluids through their walls by an endosmotic action; and cellular tissue exhibits hygroscopic properties.
8. Movements take place in the interior of cells, to which the name of intra-cellular rotation has been given.
9. These movements are connected with the nutrition of the cell and the production of new cells.
10. Undulating movements are evident in some cellular plants, such as *Oscillatorias*.
11. Movements of individual cells, by means of vibratile processes (cilia), have been observed in the lower classes of plants. These moving cells are called Zoospores or Sporozoids.
12. Movements of spiral ciliated filaments are seen in cellules discharged from the antheridian cells of many Cryptogamic plants. These moving filaments are called Phytozoa or Spermatozooids.
13. Vessels are produced from cells by processes of elongation and transformation, or by the union of cells and the absorption of the partitions between them.
14. The walls of vessels are strengthened by ligneous deposits, which either spread continuously over their inner surface, or appear in the form of fibres of different kinds.
15. Woody tubes at first contain fluid, but their cavities are finally obliterated by deposits of lignine
16. Dotted or Pitted vessels usually contain sap.
17. Fibro-vascular tissue of different kinds seems to be fitted chiefly for containing air.
18. Laticiferous vessels contain elaborated sap, which exhibits the movement of Cyclosis.

* For further remarks on the functions of vessels, the student should consult —Barry, on *Fibre—Phil. Trans.*, 1848, p. 89. Bischoff, *de vera Vasorum Plantarum Spirialium structura et functione commentatio*, Bonn, 1829. Hoffmann, on the *Circulation of the Sap in Plants*—translated from *Botan. Zeit. in Scientific Memoirs by Henfrey and Huxley*, part i. 1, 1852. Mohl, *ueber den Milchsafft und seine Bewegung*, &c.—*Bot. Zeitung*, Nos 33, 34, 35 (1843), also 1846, 833. *Anatomy and Physiology of the Vegetable Cell*, translated by Henfrey, 94. Schultz, *die Cyklose der Lebenssaftes in der Pflanzen*—*Nova Acta*, xviii. Suppl. ii.; *sur la Circulation et sur les Vaisseaux Laticifères dans les Plantes*. Tristan, *sur les Canaux Laticifères*—*Annales des Sciences*, 3d series, *Bot.* i. 176. Unger, *ueber die Genesis der Spirial-gefasse*—*Linnæa*, xv. 385

CHAPTER IV.

PHYSIOLOGY OF THE DESCENDING AXIS OR ROOT.

606. The Root is the descending system of the plant, and is the organ directly concerned in the absorption of nourishment from the soil. In its earliest state it is a cellular prolongation from an axis which is common to it and the stem. In cellular plants, the root consists also of cells. Root-cells are developed in a downward direction, and the fibrils spread through the soil, so as to absorb nutriment and to fix the plant firmly. The additions to roots are made at their extremities, and there it is that the chief absorbing cells are situated, constituting what have been called Spongioles. The cellular points of roots are shown in

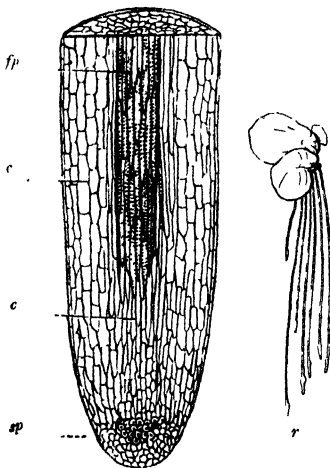


Fig. 1114.

Fig 1115

Figures 1114, *sp*, and 1115, *r*. Connected with young roots there are hairs or cellular prolongations from the epidermis, which also absorb fluid food. These hairs die early with the epidermis from which they sprung; the root then becomes covered with a corky layer, while its extremity continues to grow and send out fresh

hairs. Any injury done to the absorbing extremity interferes more or less with the proper nutrition of the plant.

607. As plants are fixed to a spot, their food must be always within reach, and it is requisite that the roots should have the power of spreading, so as to secure renewed supplies of nutriment. A beautiful provision is made for this by the elongation of the roots taking place at their extremities, so that their advancing points are enabled

Fig. 1114. Vertical section of an Orchis root, highly magnified. The absorbing extremity of the root or spongiole, *sp*; the cells, *c c*, gradually pass into vessels, *fp*.

Fig. 1115. Duck-weed (*Lemna minor*), an aquatic plant which forms the "green mantle" of the pools. The extremities of the roots, *r*, called spongioles, are covered with a beautiful cellular sheath

easily to accommodate themselves to the nature of the soil in which the plant grows. If roots had increased by additions throughout their whole extent in the same way as stems, they would in many instances, when meeting with an impenetrable soil, have been twisted in such a way as to unfit them for the free transmission of fluid. But by the mode of lengthening at the point, they insinuate themselves easily into the yielding part of the soil, and when obstacles are presented to their progress, they wind round about them until they reach a less resisting medium. They are thus also enabled to move from one part of the soil to another, according as the nourishment is exhausted.

608. The root, in its growth, keeps pace with the development of the stem and its branches. As the stem shoots upwards and develops its leaves, from which water is constantly transpired, the roots continue to spread, and to renew the delicate cells and fibrils which absorb the fluid required to compensate for that lost by evaporation, or consumed in growth. There is a constant relation between the horizontal extension of the branches and the lateral spreading of the roots. It is not by watering a tree close to the trunk that it will be kept in vigour, but by applying the water on the soil at the part corresponding to the ends of the branches. The rain which falls on a tree drops from the branches on that part of the soil which is situated immediately above the absorbing fibrils of the roots. We have here, says Roget, a striking instance of that beautiful correspondence which has been established between processes belonging to different departments of nature, and which are made to concur in the production of such remote effects as could never have been accomplished without these preconcerted and harmonious adjustments.*

609. If the roots are not allowed to extend freely, they exhaust the soil around them, and are prevented from receiving a sufficient supply of food. The plants in such a case, deprived of their proper means of support, become stunted and deformed in their appearance. How often do we see plants subjected to very injurious treatment in green-houses and hot-houses. They are put into pots of small dimensions, and they are permitted to grow until their roots completely fill the pots—nay, even sometimes until they actually force the whole plant upwards. The gardener's attention being thus drawn to them, they are transplanted; but instead of being placed in a liberal supply of earth, they are put into pots only slightly larger than the first, and by continued shiftings of a similar nature, they are kept in a state of starvation. This restricting of the roots may, no doubt, like other injuries done to plants, cause them to flower for a time; but it interrupts the growth of their branches and leaves, and destroys their natural habit. On the other hand, by adopting a system which gives the roots freedom, and puts no arrest on their development, we are imitating what takes place in nature. This is our best and surest guide, if we wish to have well-grown specimens of plants.

* Roget's *Bridgewater Treatise*, on Animal and Vegetable Physiology

610. If we wish trees to be firmly rooted, we must allow the branches to spread freely. When they are so planted that the branches and leaves of contiguous trees do not interfere with each other, and thus all parts are exposed to air and light equally, the roots spread vigorously and extensively, so as to fix the plants in the soil, and to draw up copious supplies of nourishment. But in crowded plantations, where the branches are not allowed freedom of growth and exposure, and the leaf-buds are consequently either arrested or feebly developed; the roots, also, are of necessity injured. They do not spread, and the trees are liable to be blown over by the wind; they exhaust the soil in their vicinity, circumscribed by the roots of the trees around; their functions become languid, and thus they react on the stem and branches, so that the additions to the wood are small, and the timber is of inferior quality. In such a plantation there is a marked difference between the trees on the outside and those in the centre; the former, having their branches and leaves fully exposed on one side, grow with comparative vigour, and form excellent timber on that side of the stem where light and air are admitted; while the latter, hemmed in on all sides, are drawn up like bare poles, producing a small amount of ill-conditioned wood. A crowded plantation, in which the trees are allowed to increase in size until they interfere with each other, cannot be easily reclaimed; for every attempt at thinning in this advanced stage of growth is accompanied with the risk of exposure to the blast, which speedily levels trees having no firm hold of the soil.

611. When the roots of different trees come into contact, it occasionally happens that they become united by natural grafting. Goepfert noticed this in the case of *Abies pectinata* and *excelsa*, on the Alps. In such cases, after the upper part of the trunk of the firs has been sawn off, the stumps have continued to retain their vitality, in consequence apparently of nutriment conveyed from the roots of the contiguous trees, with which they had become united.*

612. The spreading of roots in favourable circumstances is often remarkable. Thus, the roots of trees and other plants, when they reach reservoirs of water, as wells or drains, are found to increase very rapidly, and extend to a great length. Drains are sometimes completely blocked up by roots, in consequence of a single fibril entering at a small crevice, and then expanding into a large fibrous mass. The roots of the common Whin have been found extending into drains at a distance of six feet from the plant; Horse-radish roots have been detected in a drain at the depth of seven feet; the roots of Elm have filled up drains fifty yards distant from the tree, and so also roots of Ash, Willow, and Alder.†

613. Roots, by depriving the soil of certain nourishing matters, render it unfit for the growth of the same species of plant, although it

* Goepfert, sur la Formation des Bourrelets sur le Sapin.—Annales des Sc. Nat. 2d series, xix. 181.

† Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society of England, 1. 364

may still be able to contribute to the growth of other species. This is the principle of the rotation of crops, to which allusion has been made at p. 396. This exhaustion of the soil, according to Roget, affords an explanation of the phenomenon called *fairy rings*, consisting of circles of dark green grass seen in old pastures.* These have been traced to the successive generations of certain fungi spreading from a central point. "The soil which has once contributed to the support of these fungi, becomes exhausted or deteriorated with respect to the future crops of the same species, and the plants therefore cease to be produced on these spots; the second year's crop consequently appears in the space of a small ring, surrounding the original centre of vegetation; and in every succeeding year the deficiency of nutriment on one side necessarily causes the mycelium and roots to extend themselves solely in the opposite direction, and thus the circles continually proceed by annual enlargement from the centre outwards. An appearance of luxuriance of the grass follows as a natural consequence; for the soil of an interior circle will always be enriched and fertilized with respect to the culture of grass by the decayed fungi of the preceding year's growth. It often happens, indeed, during the growth of these fungi, that they so completely absorb all nutriment from the soil beneath, that the herbage is for a time totally destroyed, giving rise to the appearance of a ring bare of grass surrounding the dark ring; but after the fungi have ceased to appear, the soil where they had grown becomes darker, and the grass soon vegetates again with peculiar vigour. When two adjacent circles meet, and interfere with each other's progress, they not only do not cross each other, but both circles are invariably obliterated between the points of contact; for the exhaustion occasioned by each obstructs the progress of the other, and both are starved. It would appear that different species of fungi often require the same kind of nutriment; for, in cases of the interference of a circle of *Agaricus* with another of *Puff-balls*, still the circles do not intersect one another; the exhaustion produced by the one being equally detrimental to the growth of the other, as if it had been occasioned by the previous vegetation of its own species."† Way finds that the fungi forming fairy-rings (such as *Agaricus oreades* and *graveolens*) contain a large quantity of phosphoric acid and potash in their composition; and hence, as these are required for the nourishment of grass, the growth of fungi destroys the pasture at first. Subsequently, however, when the fungi decay, they restore to the soil valuable manure, which causes a vigorous growth of herbage.‡

614. Roots require a season of repose. This is too little attended to in the case of plants cultivated in our hot-houses. We generally find that there is a constant stimulus applied in the way of heat and

* Wollaston, Phil. Trans. for 1607, p. 133. Dr. James Hutton, on certain natural appearances of the hill of Arthur's Seat, near Edin.—Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin. 11 3

† Roget, Bridgewater Treatise on Animal and Vegetable Physiology, 1. p. 55

‡ Way, on fairy rings in pastures—Journ. Eng. Agric. Soc. vii 549.

moisture, and thus the plants are kept always in an active growing state. We ought to imitate what we see in nature. Even in warm climates, where there is not the frost of winter, there is a dry season when the functions of plants are more or less completely suspended. Hence, hot-house plants ought, at certain times, to get sparing supplies of water, so as to bring them into a dry state. Their activity is then checked, and the action of the leaves is arrested. By this means, too, there is a slow accumulation of sap, and the plant is ready, when heat and moisture are supplied, to burst forth with renewed vigour.

615. The roots of plants should not be disturbed at the time when they are in active operation. During the season of growth when the branches and leaves are pushing forth, the roots are also developing their rootlets, and constantly renewing their delicate absorbing extremities. Any attempt to transplant at this period is attended with serious injury, because those minute fibrils are destroyed by means of which the fluid transpired by the leaves is restored. It is only in autumn, when the rootlets cease to grow, and absorption becomes languid, or in early spring before their activity begins, that transplanting can be prudently conducted. In transplanting large trees it has been customary to cut the roots all round at some distance from the trunk the season before they are removed. Thus an opportunity is afforded for the production of new fibrils, which, after transplantation, are ready to absorb nourishment. If, however, the transplanting is properly effected, there seems to be no reason why the tree should not be allowed to form its fibrils and spongioles in the new ground in which it is to be placed.

616. Recently, however, Mr. M'Glashen has introduced a method of transplanting, by which the plants are easily taken up, with a large ball of soil round their roots, in a state fit for transportation to a distance. This process saves the trench digging and packing of the roots which were required in the plans pursued by Sir Henry Steuart and Mr. William M'Nab. It consists in driving spades or cutters into the soil at a proper distance from the plant, so as to enclose a square piece of soil; the upper portions of the iron cutters, after being driven in so as to be on a level with the soil, are fastened together either by hooks or by an iron frame, and then the handles of the cutters or spades are forced out from each other by means of iron bars, thus causing the lower portion of the spades to press inwards. In this way a mass of earth of a wedge-form is secured, and the whole can be easily raised up by means of levers or screws on either side. The stem of the tree is also firmly held by means of iron or wooden bars passing from one side of the apparatus to the other; and in this way a traction power is exerted in the centre, in addition to that at the different sides. The apparatus, in its simplest and smallest form, consists of two semi-cylindrical iron cutters or spades, which are pushed into the soil separately, and are fastened together at the upper part of the iron portion by means of hooks; the wooden handles are then pushed outwards and

secured in their position by a rod passing between them. The soil and plant are then easily taken out in one mass without any disturbance of the roots.*

617. The spongioles and cellular hairs of the fibrils of roots absorb fluid food, and by diffusion communicate the matter absorbed to the neighbouring cells, and these in turn send it through their membrane upwards into the stem. Senebier proved by experiments that the absorption takes place principally by the cells at the points of the roots. After the corky layer is formed, the cells seem to have less power of taking up fluids through their walls. The imbibition by the roots may be traced in part to the process of endosmose already described (p. 412), and in part to certain vital actions going on in the cells. By virtue of the chemical composition of its cell-walls and juices, and by vital affinity, a plant absorbs one substance more quickly than another, and consequently in a given time more of one than of another.

618. That the roots of plants have a certain power of selection was proved by the experiments of Saussure.† He immersed the roots of plants in water, containing in solution an equal weight of two different salts, and when the plants had absorbed half the water, he took them out and evaporated the remaining water, so as to determine how much of the salts remained. This of course indicated what the plants had taken up. The salts were not absorbed in equal quantities. Thus, when a solution containing equal parts of muriate of soda and sulphate of soda was employed, the plant took up 20 grains of the former salt and only 7 of the latter. In the case of a solution of muriate and sulphate of potash, 17 grains of the former were absorbed and only 10 of the latter.‡ This difference in the proportion of salts taken up was only observable so long as the roots were entire; for when their extremities were cut off the saline matters were taken up in the same proportion. The absorption of saline matters by the roots of plants varies in individual plants of the same species, as well as in plants belonging to different species. The absorption, according to the observations of Saussure, does not seem to have reference to the value of the substances as nutriment. Substances are taken up which prove injurious to plants. Trinchinetti placed different species of plants in mixtures of two salts—nitre and common salt—which do not decompose each other, and he found that one plant absorbed the one, and another plant the other salt, in preference. Thus *Mercurialis annua* and *Chenopodium viride* absorbed much nitre and little salt, while *Satureia hortensis* and *Solanum Lycopersicum* took up much salt and little nitre. From a solution of sal-ammoniac and common salt, *Mercurialis* absorbed more of the former, while the common Bean took up

* See Figures of the apparatus in Gardener's Chronicle, March 12, 1853.

† Saussure, *Recherches Chimiques sur la Vegetation*, 247, 261. See also Braconnot, *Annales de Chimie*, lxi. 137, and Schrader, *Gehlen's Journal*, v. 255.

‡ In repeating these experiments of Saussure, it is of importance to select salts which do not react upon each other by the process of double decomposition, otherwise the results may be complicated and unsatisfactory.

more of the latter.* Daubeny concludes from his experiments that the roots of plants, to a certain extent at least, possess a power of selection, the earthy constituents being determined as to quality by some primary law of nature, although the amount may depend on the more or less abundant supply of the principles presented to them from without.†

619. Besides absorption, it has also been stated that excretion takes place by roots, or in other words, that matters which have been taken up from the soil, and which are not required for the use of the plant, are again returned by the roots. This subject was investigated by Macaire,‡ who looked upon these excretions as injurious to plants. The recent observations of Gyde and others, however, lead to the belief that the excretions of roots are in small quantity, and that they do not possess the deleterious properties which were attributed to them. It is probable that the substances given off by roots may be referred to a process of exosmose.§ It has been stated that carbonic acid is sometimes given off by roots. Wiegmann and Poldorff ascertained that, when plants were grown in quartz sand, which had, in the first place, been made red-hot, and had afterwards been digested in nitro-muriatic acid, they furnished potash, lime, magnesia, and silica in their ashes; and they attributed this to the action of carbonic acid given off by roots, and decomposing the quartz sand.

620. Some roots which do not ramify have reservoirs of nutriment stored up in the form of nodulose or tubercular masses. This occurs in terrestrial Orchids (Fig. 1116), and in Dahlias (Fig. 1117). In the case of *Spondias tuberosa*, the tubercles of the roots contain a large quantity of watery fluid. In climbing plants, such as Ivy (Fig. 124, p. 53), the root-like processes by which they are attached to trees or walls seem to be means of support rather than organs of nutrition. Aerial roots take up nourishment from the atmosphere chiefly. This is the case with the roots of many Epiphytic Orchids (Fig. 1118), and, in consequence of not being in a resisting medium like the soil, the elongation in them seems not to be confined to the extremities, as shown by the experiments of Lindley on *Vanilla* and *Aerides cornutum*. The roots of these Epiphytes or air-plants may derive some nourishment from the decomposition of the bark of the trees on which they grow, as well as from the decay of mosses, lichens, &c. which accumulate around them, but their principal nutriment appears to be supplied by the water, carbonic acid, and ammonia of the air. Atmospheric food is that which is supplied also to the aerial roots of the Screw Pine (Fig. 122, p. 53), and Banyan (Fig. 121, p. 52), before they reach

* Trinchinetti, sulla facolta assorbente delle radici.

† Daubeny on selection by roots—*Linn Trans.* xvii. 253.

‡ Macaire-Prinsep, sur les Excretions des Racines; *Mem. de la Soc. Phys. et d'Hist. Nat. de Genève*, tom. v. 287—*Annales des Sc. Nat.* 1st series, xxviii. 402. Brugmans, de mutata humorum in regno organico indole.

§ Gyde, on Radical Excretions—*Trans. of Highland and Agricultural Society*, October 1843, p. 75, and March 1846, p. 273.

the soil. Roots, when exposed to the air, lose their fibrils, and take on the functions of stems, so as to produce leaf-buds. This was shown by an experiment of Duhamel, who inserted the branches of a Willow into the soil, and after they were fairly rooted there, raised the natural roots out of the ground, so as to be exposed to the air. In this instance the young roots perished, and the older roots became transformed into leaf-bearing branches.

621. Some plants, in place of sending their roots into the soil, or extending them into the air, have the power of attaching themselves to other plants in such a way as to prey upon their juices. These are called parasites. Some of them have green leaves, such as the Mistletoe (Fig. 125, p. 53); others have only white or brown scales, as the Scalewort and Broom-rape (Fig. 126, p. 54). In the former, the juices, after being taken up by the plant, are altered in the leaves by exposure to air and light. Some of these are root-parasites; in

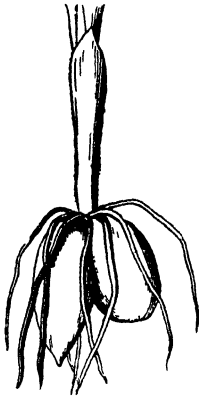


Fig 1116



Fig 1117



Fig. 1118

other words, become attached to the roots of other plants; as Broom-rape, Eyebright, Bastard Toad-flax, and Cow wheat; others are stem parasites, growing by attachment to the stems of other plants; as the Mistletoe, Myzodendron, Rafflesia (Fig. 127, p. 54), and Dodder (Fig. 128, p. 54).* All of them send cellular prolongations more or less deeply into the tissue of the plants on which they feed, and by means of these, which act as roots, they derive nutriment. They often cause

Fig 1116. Roots of a terrestrial Orchid, partly in the form of fibres, and partly in the form of tubercules, two of which are seen in the figure. These tubercular roots contain much nutritive matter

Fig. 1117. Large roots of Dahlia, containing a store of nourishing matter

Fig. 1118. An Epiphytic Orchid, with its thickened and shortened stems, and its aerial roots, which elongate throughout their whole extent.

* Griffith, on Rhizanthus—*Trans Linn Soc.*, LIX 303 Mitten, on the Parasitism of the root of *Thesium linophyllum*—*Lond. Journ. of Bot* 1847, VI 146. Decaisne, sur le Parasitisme des Rhizanthacées—*Annales des Sciences*, 3d series, Bot VIII 5 Bowman, on the Mode of Growth and Nutrition of *Lathræa squamaria*, Scalewort—*Linn Trans.* XVI 399

great injury to the plants on which they grow. Thus the Dodders destroy Lint, Clover, and other crops ; their seeds are mixed with those of cultivated plants, and when sown with them, they sprout like the rest ; but ere long the young plant produces suckers, which lay hold of the neighbouring stems, and then the Dodder acts as a true parasite, losing all connection with the soil. Many Fungi act as parasites by sending their mycelium or cellular rhizome into the tissues of living plants. These will be noticed when speaking of the Diseases of Plants.

622. Recapitulation of the chief facts connected with the Physiology of Roots :—

1. Roots are usually subterranean, and absorb nourishment from the soil, while they fix the plant.
2. Roots, when aerial, absorb nutriment from the atmosphere.
3. Parasites have roots which absorb nourishment from the sap of other plants.
4. Subterranean roots are developed in a downward direction ; they increase by their extremities, and thus accommodate themselves easily to the soil.
5. They are at first cellular, and in the lowest class of plants they continue so ; while in higher plants they exhibit in their after growth woody and vascular tissue.
6. Aerial roots appear sometimes to increase throughout their whole length.
7. The spreading of roots bears a relation to that of the branches.
8. The extremities of the roots, called spongioles, with their cellular hairs, are the chief absorbing parts.
9. The entrance of fluid into the cells of the root depends on endosmose, and also on certain vital affinities.
10. Roots absorb certain substances in larger quantity than others, and these vary in different species ; hence the necessity for rotation of crops.
11. Roots also appear to give off, by exosmose, certain matters which have not been applied to the purposes of plant life.
12. Some roots, which do not spread much, have reservoirs of nourishment attached to them.

CHAPTER V.

PHYSIOLOGY OF THE ASCENDING AXIS OR STEM.

623. The stem produces buds which are developed as branches, leaves, or flowers. It conveys fluids in various directions, and allows the organs of plants to be exposed to the influence of air and light. In the case of subterranean stems (p. 64), the leafy and flowering branches are sent upwards into the air, and they perform the functions of aerial stems. Herbaceous stems carry on their functions for one



Fig 1119

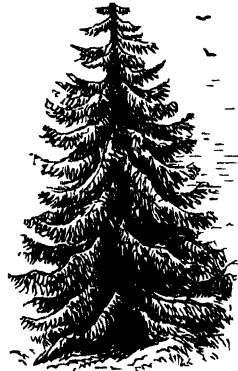


Fig 1120

year, or for a limited period, while those of a woody nature continue to perform their functions for many years. While the former attain a moderate size, and perish after a brief period of existence, the latter are permanent, and frequently, as in the case of trees, acquire a great height and diameter. Herbaceous axes occasionally attain a large size, as may be seen in Bananas and Plantains (Fig. 1119). Many

Fig 1119 Herbaceous shoot from the underground stem of the Banana (*Musa sapientum*). This aerial herbaceous branch bears leaves, flowers, and fruit, and dies after fruiting

Fig. 1120 Larch (*Larix europæa*, or *Pinus Larix*), a conifer, indigenous on the Alps of middle Europe Its stem reaches upwards of 100 feet in height

coniferous trees, as the Larch (Fig. 1120), the Scotch Fir (Fig. 1121), the Norway Spruce (Fig. 1122), the Weymouth Pine (Fig. 1123),



Fig. 1121



Fig. 1122



Fig. 1123



Fig. 1124



Fig. 1125.

the Red Pine (Fig. 1124), Douglas' Pine, Lambert's Pine, the Norfolk Island Pine (Fig. 1125) and other Araucarias, have stems varying

Fig. 1121. Scotch Fir (*Pinus sylvestris*), a coniferous tree, native of Scotland. Its stem sometimes reaches to upwards of 100 feet in height.

Fig. 1122. Common Spruce (*Pinus Picea*, *Pinus Abies*, or *Abies excelsa*), a coniferous tree of northern Europe, with a stem attaining the height of 100 feet.

Fig. 1123. Weymouth or White Pine (*Pinus Strobus*), a North American conifer, with a stem from 150 to 200 feet high.

Fig. 1124. Red Pine (*Pinus resinosa*), a coniferous tree of North America. Its stem attains a height of 80 to 100 feet.

Fig. 1125. Norfolk Island Pine (*Araucaria excelsa* or *Alingia excelsa*), an Australian conifer, the stem of which attains the height of 220 or 230 feet.

from 100 to 200 or more feet in height. Dicotyledonous forest trees in Britain, such as the Oak, sometimes attain the height of 120 feet. Forest trees on the Continent and in America are sometimes 150 feet



Fig 1126

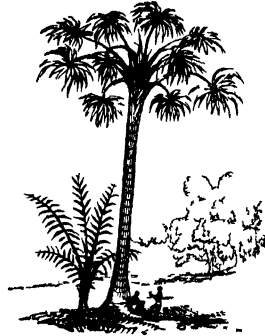


Fig. 1127



Fig 1128



Fig 1129

high. Monocotyledonous stems, such as those of Palms (Figs 1126, 1127), are usually unbranched, and their height is sometimes 150 or

Fig 1126 Date Palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*), the Palm of Scripture, found in Palestine and Egypt. It attains a height of 50 or 60 feet.

Fig 1127 Palmyra Palm (*Borassus flabelliformis*), an Indian Palm, the stem of which sometimes attains the height of 100 feet.

Fig 1128 Dragon tree (*Dracena Draco*) of Orotava, having a stem 70 feet in circumference.

Fig 1129 Baobab tree (*Adansonia digitata*) of Western Africa, having a stem 90 feet in circumference.

even 180 feet. Acotyledonous stems, as those of species of *Alsophila*, *Dicksonia* and other Tree-ferns (Figs. 934, p. 312, and 967, p. 322), attain a height of 50 or 60 feet. Some cellular stems also attain a large size. Dr. Hooker mentions a sea-weed—*Lessonia fuscens*—with a trunk 5-10 feet long, and as thick as the human thigh.* Stems often attain a great thickness. The stem of the Dragon tree of Orotava (Fig. 1128) is 70 feet in circumference; that of the Baobab (Fig. 1129) has a circumference of 90 feet; some Cedars of Lebanon (Fig. 1130) at the present day have a girth of 40 feet.† Chestnut trees (Fig. 1131) have occasionally a circumference of 60 feet, and



Fig 1130



Fig 1131

trees of the South American forests are mentioned by Martius with a girth of 84 feet at the base of the trunk.

624. The following are the measurements given by Zuccarini of the stems of some conifers, showing their height and diameter, and the proportion which these bear to each other — †

Fig 1130 Cedar of Lebanon (*Cedrus libani*) a coniferous tree having a stem 40 feet in circumference

Fig 1131 Chestnut tree (*Castanea vesca*), having a stem which frequently attains a large size. Some have been measured 60 feet in circumference. The famous Chestnut of Atna, called Castagna dei Cento Cavalieri, is made up of several stems combined

* Dr Joseph Hooker's Botany of the Antarctic Expedition—*Cryptogamia Antarctica*, 152

† Wilson's Lands of the Bible, ii 389

‡ Zuccarini on the Morphology of the Coniferae, in Ray Society's Reports on Botany, 1846, 23

NAMES OF TREES.	Height.	Diameter.	Proportion.
<i>Araucaria excelsa</i> , Norfolk-island Pine } (Fig. 1125)	220 Feet.	24 Feet.	1 to 9
<i>Abies excelsa</i> , Norway Spruce (Fig. 1122)	180 "	6 "	1 to 30
<i>Abies pectinata</i> , Silver Fir	180 "	7 "	1 to 26
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> , Scotch Fir (Fig. 1121)	130 "	6 "	1 to 22
<i>Pinus bracteata</i>	120 "	1 "	1 to 120
<i>Larix europæa</i> , Larch (Fig. 1120)	120 "	12 "	1 to 10
<i>Taxus baccata</i> , Yew	120 "	18 "	1 to 7
<i>Taxodium distichum</i> , Deciduous Cypress	120 "	36 "	1 to 3.5

625. The following are some measurements of Palms given by Martius,* partly from cultivated specimens :—

SPECIES.	Length of Caudex in feet.	Girth at the base in feet.	Girth immediately below the leaves in feet	Number of Internodes	Age. Years	Locality
<i>Acrocomia aculeata</i>	15	3	1½	15?	50	{ Loddiges Garden.
<i>Acrocomia sclerocarpa</i>	46	8	4?	...	80?	{ Brazil.
<i>Chamærops humilis</i> , <i>va.</i> } <i>elata</i> or <i>arborescens</i> }	22	1¼	10 inches.	1100?	140?	{ Paris Garden.
<i>Cocos flexuosa</i>	9	3¼	2	...	15	{ Do.
<i>Cocos nucifera</i> (Fig. 166, p. 70)	72½	7	4½	...	70	{ Brazil.
<i>Elais guineensis</i> (Fig. } 180, p 87) . . . }	11	4¾	2½	{ Vienna Garden.
<i>Euterpe edulis</i>	64	4	2½	207	40?	{ Brazil.
<i>Euterpe oleracea</i>	107	4½	1½	343	...	{ Para.
<i>Livistona chinensis</i>	5	4½	2½	57	42	{ Loddiges Garden.
<i>Mauritia flexuosa</i>	8½	8½	5	{ Amazon.
<i>Oenocarpus Bataua</i>	85	1	36?	{ Para.

Many Palms attain much greater heights than those enumerated in this table. Thus, *Euterpe oleracea* is frequently 120 feet high, *Oreodoxa oleracea* 130, *Mauritia vinifera* 150, *Ceroxylon Andicola* 160 to 180, and the slender stem of *Calamus rudentum* runs among the trees of the forest to the length of 500 feet. While some Palms, such as *Kunthia montana* and *Oreodoxa frigida*, have slender reed-like stems, others, such as *Cocos butyracea* and *Jubæa spectabilis*, have trunks which are three or even five feet in diameter.

626. The following are the measurements made by Mr. James M'Nab of some of the Palms in the Edinburgh Botanic Garden. In giving the height the leafy part at the top of the caudex is included, along with the tub in which the plant is growing :—

* Martius, *Historia Naturalis Palmarum*, tom 1

SPECIES	Height of Plant.		Girth at surface of Soil		Girth immediately below the crown of leaves		Number of Rings.	Probable Age.	Spread of Leaves.
	Feet	In	Feet	In	Feet	In		Years.	Feet
<i>Acrocomia aculeata</i>	38	2 9	1	6	98	80 ?	18		
<i>Areca triandra</i>	19	0 9	0	7	29	20	12		
<i>Caryota urens</i>	42	2 10	2	0	24	20 ?	18		
<i>Chamærops humilis</i> , var. <i>arborescens</i>	20	1 7	1	5	240	60 ?	9		
<i>Cocos nucifera</i> (Coco-nut)	18	3 4	3	0	15	25	24		
<i>Euterpe montana</i> , (Mountain cabbage)	36	3 3	0	11	74	30 ?	14		
<i>Livistona chinensis</i>	38	5 8	2	9	86	45 ?	20		
<i>Sabal umbraculifera</i>	36	6 4	50 ?	28		
<i>Sagus</i> (<i>Metroxylon</i>) <i>Rumphii</i> (<i>Sago</i>)	40	4 6	30 ?	27		
<i>Seaforthia elegans</i>	22	2 2	1	3	20	25 ?	16		

627. By means of terminal and lateral buds, stems increase in height and diameter. In their earliest state they are composed of cellular tissue, in the midst of which there is developed vascular tissue, which is arranged in different ways, as already described (p. 69). The cellular tissue of the young dicotyledonous stem is early separated into two portions—a medullary or inner, and a cortical or outer—by the formation of vascular and woody bundles, which increase in concentric zones (Fig. 1132.) The medullary portion or pith is at first succulent, and contains much nutritive matter, but in most instances it becomes dry,* and often breaks up into cavities, as in the stems of the Walnut, Jessamine, and Umbelliferae. In its young state, the pith

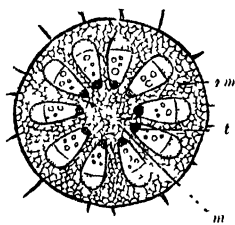


Fig. 1132

seems to be a reservoir of nourishment for the embryo plant during its early growth. The sheath surrounding the pith (Fig. 1132, *t*) contains numerous spiral vessels, which extend upwards and outwards to the leaves. In ordinary circumstances these vessels contain air. The outer cellular portion of the stem constitutes the bark, which protects the other tissues, and often contains secretions, such as gums, resins, and alkaloids. When the bark is green, it seems to exercise the same functions as leaves. It is united

Fig. 1132. Horizontal or transverse section of an exogenous or dicotyledonous stem of one year's growth. Between the pith, *m*, with its sheath, *t*, there are cambium cells forming a cylinder or thickening zone. These cells are concerned in the formation of wood. The pith and bark are united by cellular bands, *rm*, called medullary rays.

* The dry cellular tissue of the stem is sometimes used for paper, as in the case of Rice paper or Schola, which is produced in India from the stem of *Aschynomene paludosa* in the Malay Archipelago from that of *Sesuvia Taccada* and in China from that of *Artha papirica* (Lunz tsau)

to the pith by medullary rays (Fig. 1132, *rm*), which give a character to the wood. The cells and vessels of the stem are concerned in the circulation of sap, as will be afterwards noticed, and the woody tubes, when fully formed, give stability and durability to the trunk.

628. Between the pith and bark, as well as at the extremities of the buds and roots, there exist cambium cells, which, according to Schacht, form the first stage of the vascular bundles, and give origin to the proper parenchyma or nourishing tissue. A cylindrical layer of this cambium or organizing tissue is distributed in all the most perfect plants, so as to divide the parenchyma into pith and bark, as well upwards in the stem, as downwards in the root.* In Dicotyledons, this cylindrical layer, called by Schacht the *thickening zone*, is active as long as life remains. It is by means of it that the stem enlarges—the cells of the tissue forming, toward the interior, new wood, and, toward the exterior, new bark (Fig. 182, p. 78).

629. In Monocotyledons (Fig. 192, p. 88) and the higher Cryptogams (Fig. 971, p. 324), the thickening zone—in other words, the cylindrical layer of organizing tissue—continues active only for a short period of time, and hence these plants do not enlarge beyond a certain point; and at length they grow only in one direction—namely, in height. This thickening layer of cambium, while it adds to the size of the stem of Monocotyledons, causes the increase of the vascular bundles. After a certain period, however, this zone becomes woody, and then the vascular bundles only grow at their extremity, by means of unchanged cambium cells which are in immediate connection with the bundles. This cambium of the vascular bundles is essential to them, and gives them their character. In Monocotyledons it is situated in the centre of the bundles, and is surrounded by spiral, pitted, or woody vessels; in Cryptogams it surrounds the vascular bundles. The vascular bundles in both these classes of plants are limited, and they can only increase laterally by ramifying, as in *Dracæna* and some Tree-ferns.

630. The cambium appears to be the immediate agent in the development of new tissues. The origin of the cambium cells, and the mode in which the wood of trees is formed, as well as the influence exerted by the leaves and green parts of plants, have long been subjects of dispute among physiologists. Grew and Malpighi thought that the new woody layers were formed by the bark, while Hales maintained that they were formed from the previously existing wood.† Dr. Hope loosened the bark of trees, and found new layers of album formed on its inside. Duhamel‡ put plates of silver between the woody and cortical layers, and found the new formation on the outside of the plates; he also removed a portion of the bark of a plum-tree, and replaced it with a similar portion of a peach-tree, and after union

* Schacht, *Physiologische Botanik. Die Pflanzenzelle, der innere Bau und das Leben der Gewächse*, Berlin, 1852.

† Malpighi, *Opera*, 1686, i. 28, Grew, *Anatomy of Plants* 1682; Hales, *Vegetable Statics*, Lond. 1727, p. 398.

‡ Duhamel, *La Physique des Arbres*, n. 28

had taken place, he ascertained that at the point of junction a thin layer of wood had been formed by the peach bud, and none by the wood of the plum. Hence these experimenters concluded that the new wood was produced by the bark. De Candolle, as the result of his observations, maintained that both the bark and the wood were concerned in the formation of woody matter.* All appear to agree in looking upon the cambium layer as concerned in the development of the wood.

631. We have seen that recent authors have ascertained more fully the nature of cambium, and that they consider it in the light of active formative tissue, developing cells and vessels in an upward and downward direction.† Some adopt the view that there are in reality two systems in plants, an ascending and a descending one; and that what takes place in the sprouting of the embryo, continues to be manifested during the life of the plant. This view, variously modified, was adopted by De la Hire in 1708, was supported by Darwin and Knight, and was particularly espoused by Aubert du Petit Thouars in 1806, and subsequently by Gaudichaud and others.‡

632. According to Petit Thouars and Gaudichaud, we see in the embryo a radicular and a caulinary portion, the one having a tendency to ascend, the other a tendency to descend. In both of these systems cells and vessels of different kinds occur. In Dicotyledons the ascending system is connected with the medullary sheath, and passes into the buds and leaves, while the descending system is the woody tissue sent down from the leaves between the sheath and the bark. The woody fibres of the leaves, favoured by the cambium, are developed from above downwards. In the wood the ligneous tissue of the upper leaves envelopes that of the inferior ones, while in the bark the fibrous tissue is inserted in the reverse way—the internal layer, corresponding also to the superior leaves, being the newest. The extension of the cellular tissue of the stem takes place in a horizontal or transverse direction.

633. In following out these views, it has been remarked that a Monocotyledon in its simplest form may be said to consist of an axis (Fig. 1133, *b*), producing a leaf, *c d*, and bud, *e*, at its upper part, and a root, *a*, below. It may be represented as a phyton,§ or single plant or bud, having an axis or axial merithal, *b*, with a leaf or foliar merithal, *c, d*, divided into a laminar, *d*, and petiolar portion, *c*, the latter usually sheathing the axis, and a radicular merithal, *a*, whence roots are produced. This phyton is capable of producing others having a similar constitution; and thus a more complicated Monocotyledonous plant consists of a series of phytons placed one above another, the

* De Candolle, *Physiologie Végétale*, i. 165.

† Brisseau-Mirbel, *Nouvelles Notes sur le Cambium*, Paris, 1842. Mohl, *sur le Cambium*—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. Bot. xi. 321.

‡ De la Hire, *Explication Physique de la direction Verticale des Tiges des Plantes*, &c.—*Mém. de l'Acad. Franc.*, 1708; Darwin's *Phytologia*; Du Petit Thouars, *Essais sur la Végétation*; Gaudichaud, *Recherches sur l'Organographie, la Physiologie et l'Organogénie des Végétaux*, 1841.

§ Petit Thouars looks upon a bud as a phyton or young plant, while Gaudichaud considers each leaf as a phyton.

parts being alternate, as seen in Figure 1134. Each phyton has a distinct leaf, producing a bud in its axil, or at the part where it is united to the axis; it has also an ascending or foliar, and a descending or radicular system. In the case of the first phyton, the latter descends at once into the soil; but in the case of the others, it passes downwards through the first axis before it reaches the ground, or in some instances it appears externally at the base of the phyton, and thus becomes for a time aerial (Fig. 1134, r, r'). A Monocotyledonous plant thus may be said to consist of a series of phytons, arranged one within the other, with shortened axes.

634. A Dicotyledon, on the other hand, in its simplest state may be said to consist of an axis, producing two leaves at its summit and roots below (Fig. 1135). It may be represented as two phytons united, the foliar merithals, c, d , being placed opposite to each other. In the Monocotyledon each node produces one leaf, and is unifoliar; in the Dicotyledon, two, and is bifoliar. This tendency to produce two leaves at a node does not, however, remain permanently in all Dicotyledons, for by the extension of internodes the foliar merithals

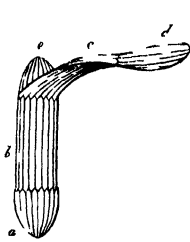


Fig 1133

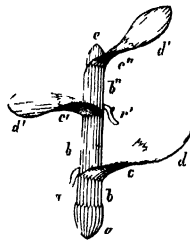


Fig 1134

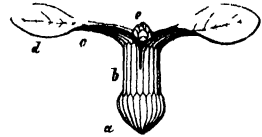


Fig 1135

frequently become alternate. A Dicotyledonous plant may be considered as consisting of a series of phytons (Fig. 1136), which produce an ascending foliar system, and a descending radicular one.

635. In the phytons or foliar types of these two great classes of plants, cells and vessels of different kinds are united; and the phytons may be considered, in reference to the entire plant, precisely in the same way as the simple cell is regarded when compared with the various tissues forming the compound individual. A phyton may be thus re-

Fig 1133. A Monocotyledonous phyton, consisting of an axis, b , producing a radicular descending portion, a , and a bud or growing point, c , which is developed in the axil of a leaf, c, d . According to Gaudichaud's view, the phyton is represented by a leaf, of which d is the lamina merithal, c the petiolar merithal, b the tigellary merithal, and a the radicular merithal.

Fig 1134. A Monocotyledon represented by a series of unifoliar phytons placed one above another. Each phyton has an axis, $b, b', b'',$ and a leaf, c, d, c', d', c'', d'' , with a radicular portion, a . The roots of the upper phytons pass downwards, and sometimes appear externally, r, r' , as occurs in Screw Pines, Palms, &c. The growing point of the axis is at c . In each leaf there is represented the lamina merithal, d , and petiolar merithal, c .

Fig 1135. A Dicotyledonous phyton, consisting of two unifoliar phytons united. In this bifoliar phyton there is an axis, b , called by Gaudichaud a tigellary merithal, a radicular portion or merithal, a , and a leaf, with its petiolar portion, c and lamina portion, d . The bud or growing point is at c .

garded as an organ furnishing a type of all parts which enter into the composition of the nutritive and reproductive compound organs. While the embryo of Phanerogamous plants may be considered as a phyton produced by the process of reproduction, the bud may be reckoned a phyton produced by the vegetative process. A bud has a certain degree of vitality inherent in itself, and it may be called a fixed embryo, or one attached to the plant, and depending for its vigour upon it, but frequently capable of growing when separated from it. A tree is composed of a series of buds (Fig. 1137, *b*), each having independent vitality, and yet all united on a common axis, on the life of which they depend for their continued growth and vigour. Buds may be taken from one tree and grafted upon another, and in some instances buds, or bodies equivalent to them, separate spontaneously from plants, and form independent individuals. This latter phenomenon occurs in *Biophyllum* (Fig. 334, p. 141), *Pinguicula*, *Malaxis*, viviparous plants, and in

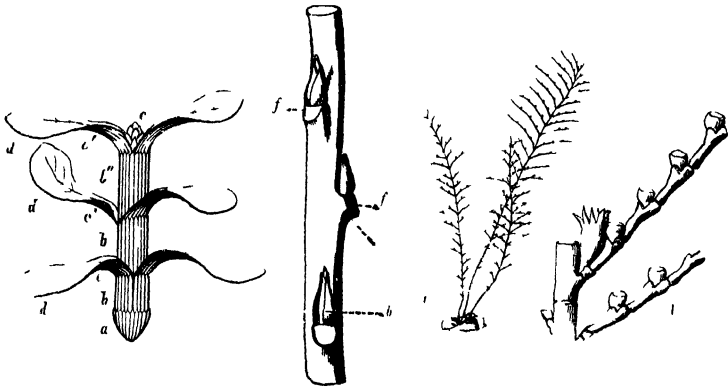


Fig 1136

Fig 1137

Fig 1138

the bulbils of *Lilium bulbiferum* and *Dentaria bulbifera*. In all this there is a remarkable analogy with what occurs in Compound Polyps. In Sertularian Polyps (Fig. 1138), there are numerous separate individuals united on a common stalk, each having a certain inherent vitality, and yet all depending on the general life of the compound Zoophyte.

Fig 1136 A Dicotyledon represented by a series of bifoliar phytons placed one above another, with their axes, *b b' b''*, their leaves, *c d, c' d', c'' d'*. The radicular portion of the lower phyton is *a* those of the other phytons pass down in the axis. The growing point is *e*.

Fig 1137 Branch of *Glycine*, showing lateral buds, *b*. These buds may represent separate plants fixed on a common stem. Gaudichaud calls them fixed embryos. Each bud has a separate vitality, so that it can be transplanted and grafted on another plant, at the same time it depends for its continued existence on the life of the tree to which it is attached. Each of these buds may be called phytons according to Petit Thouars. The scars of fallen leaves and their vessels are seen at *eff*.

Fig 1138 *Plumularia pinnata*, a compound Zoophyte. *a*, Natural size of the animal. It may be compared to a tree with numerous living buds, each of which has a separate vitality, but all depending for continued existence on the life of the compound individual. A portion of the compound Zoophyte is magnified at *b*, showing the separate Zoophytes, all of which, except one, have discharged their ova.

636. The Radicular or vertical theory of wood formation has been supported by reference to the arrangement of the vascular bundles in Palms (Figs. 1139 and 1140) and Dracænas (Fig. 1128, p. 437), and to the development of aerial roots from different parts of the stems of Screw Pines (Fig. 1141), Figs, Vellostias, and Tree-ferns (Fig. 165, p. 70). Many travellers, such as Gardner,* who examined Palms in their native countries, have espoused the vertical theory of wood formation. In these plants the bundles of woody vessels can be traced from the base of the leaves, taking a peculiar curved direction downwards, and interlacing in a remarkable manner (Fig. 1139). In many Palms

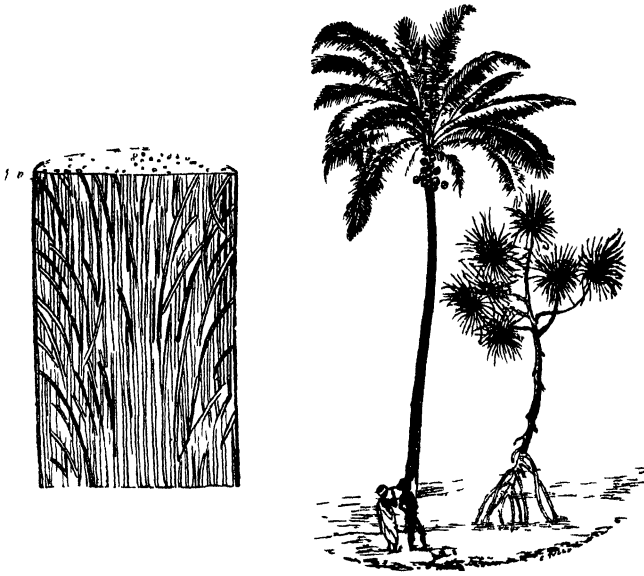


Fig. 1139

Fig. 1140

Fig. 1141

the fibres appear externally bursting through the stem, and appearing as roots. In the case of Screw Pines (Fig. 1141), the formation of external or adventitious roots is very remarkable; in them the thickness

Fig 1139 Vertical section of the stem of a Palm, showing the vascular bundles, *fr*, curving downwards and interlacing. This peculiar arrangement suggests the idea of roots ramifying.

Fig 1140 Coco-nut Palm (*Cocos nucifera*) having a tall, unbranched stem, bearing a cluster of leaves and fruit at the top. The stem increases in diameter by the addition of cells and vascular bundles in the interior, the latter being traced to the leaves, and interlacing in a remarkable manner.

Fig 1141 Screw Pine (*Pandanus odoratissimus*), showing numerous adventitious roots sent down from different parts of the stem. The stem below the points where the aerial roots appear is thinner than above. Gaudichaud thinks that these roots are in reality the vascular bundles, which, in place of passing downwards from the leaves in the interior of the trunk, appear externally. Hence, he says, arises the difference between the diameter of the stem above and below.

of the stem is diminished below the points whence the roots proceed, as if the woody matter had appeared externally in place of proceeding internally. Adventitious descending roots are also seen in many of the Fig tribe, such as the Banyan (Fig. 121, p. 52) and Peepul tree. In Tree-ferns the lower part of the stem is often much enlarged by these aerial roots being applied closely to it (Fig. 165, p. 70). Brown says that in *Kingia* (an Australian plant) the leaves send down, between the true stem and the bases of the petioles which form the only bark of the tree, a series of adventitious roots closely covering the stem, and resisting to a great degree the action of external destructive agents, such as fire. A further development of this root structure is seen in *Barbaccenia* and *Vellosia*, where the whole outer part of the stem is made up of interlaced roots, which are traced inwards and upwards to the leaves. Beautiful specimens of *Vellosia* stems are seen in the Botanical Collection of the British Museum.

637. In Bananas and Plantains, as grown in the hot-houses of Britain, we often see roots proceeding from the base of the leaves forming the herbaceous shoot. Roots are to be seen proceeding from sound portions of the wood of Willows, and running into those which are decayed. Mr. John Lowe mentions a curious instance of this in the case of a species of Willow (*Salix viminalis*), near Sleaford, in Lincolnshire. In this tree the trunk became decayed in the centre, and a large woody root, 18 inches in circumference, descended from the upper sound portion of the stem through the rotten spongy central mass, and when it reached the lower part gave off branches, which extended into the soil. This radicular stem finally produced leaf-buds and leaves. In a large specimen of Mountain Ash at Prestonhall, near Edinburgh, there is an appearance which seems to confirm the view of woody matter being formed in a downward direction from branches. A large branch was broken off, laying bare the interior of the stem to a considerable extent. The tree still lived, and from the upper branches distinct roots were sent downwards, which gradually covered a large portion of the wound. The growth was traced in a downward direction, and the root-like appearance of the fibres was quite evident. In Figure 1142 is shown an example of fibres descending from a branch in a species of *Dracæna*, and spreading over the inner woody bundles.

638. Cagnat, as already noticed (p. 102), has remarked, that the form of the woody portion of the stem is regulated by the arrangement of the leaves.* His observations show the importance of the leaves in the production of wood, and seem to support the radicular view of Gandichaud.† The fasciculated stems of certain climbing Sapindaceæ (Fig. 1143) and Bignoniaceæ, are referred by the latter author to the mode of development of the first leaves, and to the consequent primary arrangement of the woody bundles which are successively covered in the same order by the descending fibres from the other

* Cagnat, sur la disposition des Feuilles — Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. ix. 362

leaves. In these anomalous stems the central fascicle is often the most powerful, forming the mass of the stem, while the lateral bundles are weak, and form accessory axes. This arrangement is illustrated in Figure 1144, where the buds around the end of the cutting or slip produce separate fasciculi of fibres, *a*, which may represent the incipient state of such stems as those represented in Figure 1143. The fibres sent down from the buds cover the old fibres, *b*, of the central fasciculus.

639. These views of Gaudichaud and others have been opposed by many able physiologists, more especially by Mirbel, Payen, Naudin, and Trecul. Mirbel has examined in a particular manner the development of the Date, and he has been led to the conclusion that the fibres increase from below upwards, and not from the leaves downwards.* He says that a Monocotyledon produces at its summit a mass of cellular tissue called a phyllophore, into which the vessels from the

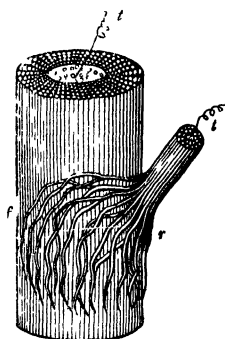


Fig. 1142.

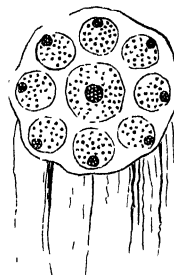


Fig. 1143.

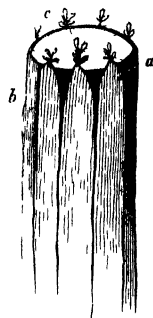


Fig. 1144.

stem penetrate to form the vascular system; after this the leaves are produced. The vessels, he says, come from the internal periphery of the young part of the stem, and arise at all heights, and the roots have at first no immediate connection with the leaves. Trecul has examined the stems of Dicotyledons, and has been led to deny the downward tendency of the wood formation. He states that after the bark has

Fig. 1142. Truncated stem of a *Dracena* after maceration, showing the tracheae, *t t*, of the ascending systems of the stem and branch. The radicular system of the old stem, *f*, is seen in the form of fibres, and the radicular woody bundles, *r*, of the branch are disposed in a grasping manner over those of the old stem. The fibres, according to Petit Thouars and Gaudichaud, come from the bases of the leaves, and belong to the descending system.

Fig. 1143. Stem of a climbing Brazilian plant belonging to the natural order Sapindaceæ. It consists of a congeries of vascular fasciculi separated from each other by cellular tissue. The central bundle is largest, and contains pith, with a medullary sheath, and spiral vessels. The other fasciculi have pith and no spirals. The form of the stem, according to Gaudichaud, depends on the phyllotaxis and on the mode in which the radicular woody bundles are sent down from the leaves.

Fig. 1144. Slip or cutting of root of *Maclura*, showing a number of buds, *c*, from which proceed radicular fibres, *a*, which are interposed between the bark, *b*, and the fibres of the old wood. The young fibres are traced to the buds, and in their progress downwards they remain distinct. This example is brought forward by Gaudichaud as illustrating his vertical theory of wood formation, and as explaining the development of such stems as those represented in Figure 1143.

* Mirbel, *Recherches sur la structure du Dattier*—*Annales des Sciences Nat.* 2d ser. xx. 5.

been removed, a new layer of woody tissue and bark is formed at detached points, into which the medullary rays are continued directly without the slightest interruption. He thinks that the woody tissue is a lateral development from the already existing longitudinal cells, and that fresh bark is formed on the woody tissue by the development of cells from the tissue, while the medullary rays penetrate directly into the new patches of wood. According to him the fibro-vascular bundles are not continued without interruption from the extremities of the leaves to the rootlets; the diameter of the stem may increase without the intervention of ligneous fibres descending from the leaves or buds; and the tissue of the wood and vessels, as well as the medullary rays and bark, are formed in situ, independently of the tissues higher up.*

640. The production of woody fibres, without the presence of leaves, has been considered as being proved by the occurrence of peculiar woody excrescences in the bark of many trees, such as Oaks, Elms, Beeches, and Cedars. The bird's eye Maple is said to be the timber cut from trees affected with these excrescences. The *bruscum* of the Romans, so much prized by their cabinet-makers, is supposed to have been Maple wood twisted by this means into singular forms. Dutrochet called these knots embryo-buds, and many look upon them as an abortive state of branches, the leaves of which have been only partially developed. Their origin is obscure, and their connection with leaves has not been distinctly traced.

641. Amidst these opposing theories, it is difficult to come to a decided conclusion. There is undoubtedly an ascending and a descending system in plants—a stem developed in an upward, and a root in a downward direction. The leaves are also of importance in the formation of wood, and the cambium cells are the active tissue of the stem. In so far all are agreed. The points of difference are the exact relation which the leaves bear to the woody fibres of the stem, and the direction in which these fibres are developed. The peculiar arrangement of fibres in the stems of Palms, and the production of aerial roots from various stems, favour in some measure the vertical theory of wood formation; while the woody excrescences occurring in the bark of some trees, and the production of particles of woody matter in the centre of decorticated portions of wood, and at the lower part of wounds, as shown by Trécul, seem to show that woody fibres are formed in some instances without any direct connection with leaves. While the weight of authority is in favour of the views recently propounded by Trécul, still there are many facts brought forward by Gaudichaud which still require explanation, and which are not easily accounted for, unless we suppose an upward and downward tendency to be impressed on the tissues of the stem and of the buds, in the same way as on the embryo at its earliest growth. Physiologists in general concur in believing, that without the presence of leaves on the stem, no woody matter is formed.

* Trécul, sur l'accroissement en diamètre des végétaux dicotylédonnés ligneux—Annales des Sc Nat. 3d ser xvii. 250.

This will be considered in the next chapter when the functions of leaves are considered.*

642. While the recent woody tubes are full of fluid, the older ones become obliterated by deposits of lignine or cellulose. The heartwood of trees thus becomes hardened and less liable to decay than the alburnum; and the durability of wood depends on the quantity of duramen and the nature of the ligneous deposit. This has been already noticed at pages 78 and 79. Hartig made some experiments on the durability of timber, and he found that small parts of Lime-tree, Black American Birch, Alder, and trembling Poplar inserted in the soil decayed in three years; and Common Willow, Horse-Chestnut, and Platanus in four; Maple, Purple Beech, and Common Birch in five; Hornbeam, Ash, and Lombardy Poplar in seven; Robinia, Oak, Scotch Fir, Weymouth Pine, and Spruce Fir were decayed a little to the depth of a quarter of an inch in seven years; while Larch, Common Juniper, Virginian Juniper, and Arbor-vitæ were not decayed at the end of seven years. Thin boards of the same woods decayed in the following order:—Platanus, Horse-Chestnut, Lime-tree, Poplar, Birch, Purple Beech, Hornbeam, Alder, Ash, Maple, Spruce Fir, Scotch Fir, Elm, Weymouth Pine, Robinia, Oak, Larch. From recent observations made by the Duke of Buccleuch at Granton, it would appear that the wood of the Greenheart-tree (*Nectandra Rodiæi*), withstands decay better than other kinds of wood, more especially when exposed to the action of sea-water.

643. Boucherie† has attempted to render the wood of trees more durable and hard while its elasticity is retained, to prevent warping, and to diminish its combustibility, by causing the stem in the fresh state to absorb solutions of pyrolignite of iron and of chloride of lime. This may be done either when the tree is in the ground, or immediately after being felled. In a growing tree he made a large opening in the lower part of the trunk, sawing out a portion of the stem so as to allow the tree to be supported only by two narrow portions of the wood on each side; then by putting a waterproof bag around the stem below this large transverse opening, so that he could insert the fluid into it, he found that he could cause the tree to absorb rapidly a large

* For further details regarding the physiology of the stem, consult, in addition to the works and papers already quoted, the following—Dutrochet, *Mémoires*, 1851. Hensley, on the structure and growth of Monocotyledons—*Annals of Nat. History*, 2d ser. i. 180. Gaudichaud, *reptique à Mirel*—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. xx. 32. Kuhn, in *Philos. Trans.* 1808. Mirel, *sur la nature et l'origine des couches corticales du liber des arbres Dicotylédoués*—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. Bot. iii. 43. Mirel, *Rapport sur une Mémoire de M. Gaudichaud, relative au développement et à l'accroissement des tiges*, &c.—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. v. 24. Mohl, *de structura Palmarum in Mart. Gen. et Spec. Palmaram*, trans. in *Ray Society's Reports* for 1849. Aubert du Petit Thouars, *sur la formation des Arbres*, Paris, 1823. Naudin, *sur le développement des axes des végétaux*—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. Bot. i. 162. Schleiden, on the theory of stem formation, in *Wiegmann's Archiv.* for 1839. Trécul, *sur la structure et le développement du Nuphar luteum*, *Mémoires sur l'origine des Bourgeons adventifs*.—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. Bot. viii. 268. *Recherches sur l'origine des racines adventives*—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. Bot. v. 340. Unger, *ueber Bau und Wachsthum des Dicotyledonenstammes*, Petersburg, 1840.

† Boucherie, *Mémoire sur la Conservation des Bois*, Paris, 1840—*Ann. de Chimie et de Physique*, lxxiv. 113. *Annales des Ponts et Chaussées*, 1841. Boucherie says, that a Poplar 92 feet high absorbed in six days nearly 66 gallons of a solution of pyrolignite of iron

quantity. By this means the fermentescible sap was displaced by a fluid less liable to change. Sometimes he caused the tree to be cut down and to be placed in an inclined position, with the lower end of the trunk immersed in the fluid to be absorbed; at other times the tree was laid in a horizontal position, while the barrel, or bag containing the fluid, was placed in a vertical position above the cut extremity. In the same way colour was imparted to wood by making the stem absorb in succession fluids, which by their union developed a coloured compound. Boucherie's plan of preserving timber was practised on a large scale in the forest of Compiègne, and was favourably reported upon by several physiologists.*

644. Recapitulation of the chief facts relative to the physiology of the stem :—

1. The stem or ascending axis bears the leaves and flowers, and exposes the organs of plants to the action of air and light.
2. The fluids taken up by the roots pass through the cells and vessels of the stem in order to reach the leaves.
3. The height and diameter of stems vary much. Some are upwards of 200 feet high, and others attain a diameter of 30 feet.
4. The cambium cells are those which are concerned in the development of new tissues. They have been called organizing cells.
5. In Dicotyledons these cambium cells are situated between the wood and bark, and at the growing points of the stem and branches. They constitute a cylindrical layer called the thickening zone. They form new layers of bark on the outside, and new layers of wood on the inside.
6. In Monocotyledons and the higher Acotyledons the thickening zone is active only for a short time, and the formative cambium cells are afterwards in immediate connection with the vascular bundles—development taking place chiefly in an upward and downward direction.
7. The formation of wood has given rise to much dispute among physiologists; some believing that it is formed in situ by the action of the formative cells, others conceiving that it is produced by the cambium cells in a descending direction, so as to be a radicular prolongation from the leaves.
8. The first theory is called horizontal, and it has been espoused by most physiologists, more particularly by Duhamel, De Candolle, Mirbel, Schleiden, Naudin, Henfrey, and Trecul.
9. The second theory is called vertical, and has been supported by Knight, Du Petit Thouars, and Gaudichaud, who look upon it as corroborated by the production of aerial roots, and by the interlacing of the fibres in the stems of Palms.
10. In the radicular or vertical view of wood formation, each bud of a tree is considered as a fixed embryo or young plant, producing leaves in an upward direction, and woody roots downwards.
11. There is an ascending and a descending system in all plants, and it appears to be difficult to account for some of the phenomena connected with stem formation, without taking these into account.
12. Physiologists agree that the production of woody fibres depends much on the development of the leaves, and that in order to produce good timber the leaves must be fully exposed to air and light. Cagnat has shown that the form of the woody stems depends on the arrangement of the leaves.
13. While the woody tubes of plants contain fluids in their early state, they often become obliterated by deposits of lignine, as in the heartwood of trees.
14. Boucherie has shown that the stems of trees can be made to absorb various fluids which act in preserving the wood from decay.

* Comptes rendus, 1840, t. 698, n. 894, also report by Chevalier, Decausse, and Gaultier de Claubry, in 1851.

CHAPTER VI.

PHYSIOLOGY OF THE LEAVES.

645. The leaves are arranged upon the axis in such a way as to be fully exposed to the influence of air and light (*Phyllotaxis*, p. 95). They are thus enabled to perform very important functions. The fluids which reach the cells and vessels of the leaves undergo changes by which they are elaborated and fitted for the formation of various vegetable secretions. In ordinary plants the non-development of the leaves arrests the formation of woody matter and of many important products. Leaves have the power of absorbing carbonic acid, ammonia, water, and aqueous solutions. They also exhale a certain amount of water, and they give off gaseous matters, especially oxygen. Thus leaves, in the performance of their functions, absorb and exhale watery and gaseous substances.

I. ABSORPTION BY LEAVES.

646. When liquids are brought into contact with the leaves of plants, absorption takes place. Bonnet found that plants of *Mercurialis*, with the surface of their leaves in contact with water, absorbed as well, and kept for a time nearly as fresh as those of which the roots were immersed in the liquid. The under surface of ordinary leaves took up liquids rapidly in consequence of the thinness of the cuticle, the laxity of the cellular tissue (Fig. 1145), and the presence of stomata (Fig. 1146), while the thick and hard epidermis on the upper surface having few stomata, presented an obstacle to absorption.* The hairs which occur especially on the under surface of leaves, seem to act like cellular rootlets, and to absorb moisture. Hoffmann ascertained that liquids are absorbed by the leaves in large quantity, and that in such cases they pass downwards by the tracheæ and the proscenchyma immediately surrounding them (Fig. 1147), displacing for a time the air usually contained in the spiral vessels.† He states that after every fall of rain or dew there is an absorption by the leaves, and that this is followed by an immediate descent of sap. The absorption takes place with greater or less rapidity according to the nature of the

* Bonnet, *Recherches sur l'usage des Feuilles dans les plantes*, Götting. 1764.

† Hoffmann on the circulation of the sap in plants, in *Scientific Memoirs—Nat Hist.* 1 46.

leaves, and the fluid passes through the intercellular spaces, as well as

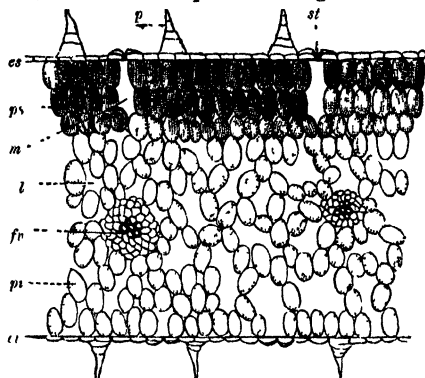


Fig. 1145

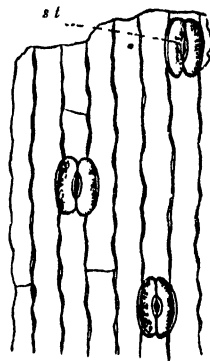


Fig. 1146

the cells and vessels. The greater and the more rapid the absorption, so much the more have the fluids a tendency to enter the spinal vessels. The absorbing power of the epidermis of leaves varies. When composed of delicate thin-walled cells, with numerous stomata, the imbibition of liquids is carried on rapidly; but when the epidermal cells are hardened, and have thick walls, absorption is much impeded. Some gaseous matters are taken up rapidly by leaves. Bousingault found that air was speedily deprived of carbonic acid by coming into contact with the leaves of the Vine for a few minutes. He placed a shoot of a Vine, bearing twenty leaves, in a glass globe, and while the sun shone on the apparatus, drew through it in an hour fifteen litres* of atmospheric air, which contained .0004 to .00045 of carbonic acid, and at

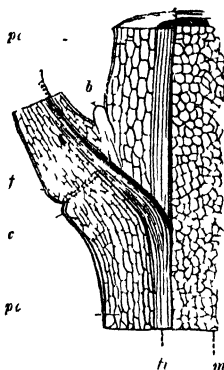


Fig. 1147

Fig 1145 Section of a Mulon leaf, perpendicular to its surface, *es*, upper epidermis, which is often thick, and has few stomata, *st* below it are parichymatous cells closely aggregated, *ps*, with occasional lacuna, *m*, containing an, *er*, the lower epidermis, which is usually thinner in its texture, and presents numerous stomata and hairs, the parenchymatous cells, *pa*, on the lower sides of the leaf are loosely aggregated, and present numerous air cavities, *l*, the bundles of vessels, *fv*, run through the texture of the leaf, *p*, hairs on the surface. Absorption of fluids and air, as well as exhalation, in most instances takes place most rapidly by the under surface. The fluids in the cells, intercellular spaces, and vessels of the leaf, are elaborated by the agency of air and light.

Fig 1146 Epidermis of a Lily, showing stomata, *st*, which open and close in the performance of their functions. Absorption and exhalation take place chiefly by means of stomata.

Fig 1147. Vertical section of a branch, showing the mode in which the vascular tissue of the leaf communicates with the centre of the stem, *pc pc*, the parenchyma of the stem, *fv*, the fibrovascular tissue surrounding the pith, *m*, and proceeding to the leaf, *f c*, the pulvinus, between *f* and *c* there is seen a depression indicating the points where the leaf is articulated to the stem, *b*, a bud in the axil of the leaf. When the leaf falls the separation takes place at the articulation. The fluids of the stem pass into the leaf, and are thus elaborated under the agency of an and light.

* A litre is 0.220067 gallons or 1.760773 pints English

the exit of the air from the globe, the carbonic acid was diminished to .0001 or .0002. Chevandier calculates that the trees of a forest during the five summer months in which they bear leaves, withdraw from the column of air around them about 1-9th of its contents of carbonic acid.* Vogel and Wittwer† caused 1,144,730 cubic centimetres‡ of atmospheric air to pass over a plant in the course of nine days; this air contained on an average 0.000380 of carbonic acid, and after contact with the plant it contained 0.000056 carbonic acid. In another experiment, carried on during a period of six days, they caused 1,255,350 cubic centimetres of atmospheric air to pass over a *Pelargonium* in full leaf, and they procured the following results:—

	Carbonic Acid.
The air contained, during the day	0.000539
" " during the night	0.000403
After it had passed over the plant,	
The air contained, during day	0.000162
" " during night	0.000267

These experiments would lead to the conclusion that both during day and night plants absorb a portion of carbonic acid.§ Saussure states that the leaves of plants during darkness absorb oxygen gas, the quantity varying in different species of plants, from a half to eight times the volume of the leaves in the course of twenty-four hours. The leaves of fleshy and aquatic plants absorb, generally speaking, less than those of ordinary deciduous trees and shrubs.|| Leaves have the power of taking up ammonia from the atmosphere, and, according to some authors, they also absorb nitrogen.

647. Some researches have been made by Garreau¶ in regard to the absorption of different liquids by the external surfaces of plants, and more especially by the leaves. In making his experiments, he employed endosmometers (long tubes with large open bulbs at the end) of nearly equal calibre, the diameter of the orifice of the ball being in all of them about half an inch, and the diameter of the tube about one-twelfth of an inch. Each epidermis, or cuticular surface, was fixed to the end of the endosmometer by means of a wax thread, and covered by wax at the margin. The fluid in the bulb of the en-

* Boussingault, *Economie rurale*, 1. 66 Mohl on the Vegetable Cell - Trans. by Henfrey, 82.

† Vogel and Wittwer de l'Influence de la Végétation sur l'atmosphère—*Ann. des Sciences Nat* 3d ser. Bot. xvi 373.

‡ A centimetre = 0.393708 of an English inch.

§ Garreau introduced a young green and leafy branch of *Fagopyrum cymosum* into a glass flask securely closed, and connected with a caoutchouc bag containing 200 cubic centimetres of carbonic acid. A communication was established between the flask and the bag, and after six hours' exposure to the light of the sun, it was found that the air of the flask and bag only contained 75 centimetres of the acid gas, the rest had been absorbed by the plant—*Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. Bot. xvi 288.

|| Saussure, *Recherches Chimiques sur la Végétation*, 1804, p 192.

¶ Garreau, *Recherches sur l'absorption et l'exhalation des surfaces aériennes des plantes* *Ann des Sc Nat* 3d ser. xiii 321

dosmometer was a solution of one part of sugar, in two parts of water. The following table shows the cuticles employed, the nature of the liquid used for endosmotic absorption, the duration of the experiment, and the result (ascent of the fluid in the tube) obtained in each case :—

Name of the plants the epidermis of which was tested.	Nature of fluid to be absorbed.	Duration of experiment.	Result in millimetres.*
1. Outer epidermis of the sheath of an old leaf of the Leek	Distilled water.	24 hours.	000
2. do.	{ Weak solution of ammonia. }	24 "	000
3. do.	{ Weak solution of potash. }	24 "	000
4. do.	{ Weak solution of acetic acid. }	24 "	000
5. do.	{ Weak solution of alcohol. }	24 "	000
The same results were obtained with the inner epidermis.			
6. Outer epidermis of sheath of young leaf of Leek .	Distilled water.	24 "	010
7. Inner epidermis of do. .	Do.	24 "	015
8. Inner epidermis of old scale of Onion	Do.	24 "	000
Same results with diluted aqua ammoniac and diluted acetic acid.			
9. Outerepidermis of old scale of Onion	Do.	24 "	000
10. Inner epidermis of young scale of Onion	Do.	24 "	020
11. Do. do.	{ Solution of acetate of morphia. }	24 "	020
12. Do. do.	{ Solution of sulphate of strychnia. }	24 "	030
13. Do. do.	{ Solution of arsenious acid. }	24 "	020

648. These experiments show that the epidermis of old but living leaves of the Leek and Onion has no endosmotic or absorbing properties. The young epidermis, on the other hand, is endosmotic, and seems to lose this property as it gets old. The epidermis, therefore, seems to be permeable by fluids only in the case of young leaves. The absence of absorption in the epidermis of old leaves is attributed by Garreau to the fatty or waxy matter which covers them,

* A millimetre is equal to 0.03937079 of an English inch, or nearly 1-25.

and with which they are impregnated. In *Ferula tingitana* it was found that the epidermis of the sheathing portion, which contained fatty matter, did not absorb until it was washed with soap and water. The upper surfaces of leaves which did not absorb liquids in their ordinary state, became absorbent when thoroughly cleaned and washed either with water alone, or with soap and water. Rain, by its effect on the surfaces of leaves, may thus increase their absorbing power. The epidermis of the bark of young shoots, where there is only a small quantity of fatty matter present, absorbed water, and when the epidermis was removed the absorption was much increased.

649. Garreau says that the results he obtained were not influenced by the number of stomata, for the kinds of epidermis which absorbed most, belonged to such plants as *Potamogeton lucens*, in which no stomata exist. His conclusions are :—1. The cuticle possesses a decided endosmotic property, the intensity of which is greater the younger the organ which it covers ; when leaves become old they seem to lose their absorbing power. 2. The absorption of the cuticle is greater the less there is of fatty or waxy matter in it. 3. The cuticle which covers the superior surface of the ribs, and more especially that which covers the petiole at the point where it joins the stem, is that part of the foliar surface which has the most marked power of absorption. 4. In some instances in which the cuticle or outer skin is absorbent, the epidermis or inner layer of integument presents obstacles to absorption. 5. Simple washing with distilled water, more especially washing with soap and water, augments the absorbing property of leaves. 6. When leaves have lost their power of absorbing water, they can still take up carbonic acid.

II. EXHALATION BY LEAVES.

I EXHALATION OF WATERY FLUID, OR TRANSPIRATION

650. The leaves of plants, in the performance of their functions, give off a quantity of watery fluid. This constitutes what is commonly called *transpiration*. The quantity of liquid transpired varies according to the structure of the leaves and the nature of the climate. When the texture of the leaf is hard and dry, as in *Banksias*, *Proteas*, and many other Australian plants, or the skin covering the leaf is thick and dense, and has few stomata or pores, as in the American *Aloe* and the *Oleander* (Fig. 1148), the amount of transpiration is comparatively small. In this way certain succulent plants, as *Cactuses* (Fig. 1149), are enabled to withstand the effects of dry and hot climates, without being destroyed by the great loss of water by exhalation. The thick covering of hairs on some leaves, as on those of *Calcitium*, seems to be connected also with the amount of transpiration. Some very hairy plants, as *Verbascum Thapsus*, *Shepherds Club*, have been known to

resist the effects of great drought. The hairs have the power of becoming more or less erect, and of absorbing the dew, while in dry weather they lie flat on the surface and hinder the passage of fluid. In leaves with a very thin epidermal covering or skin the exhalation is great.

651. Schacht remarks that in the epidermis of plants the external sides of the cells become thickened generally more than the internal. They offer, especially when corky, resistance to the evaporation of the liquids in the parts filled with sap. They would completely prevent transpiration, were it not for the presence of stomata, which allow gaseous and vaporised substances to be exhaled as well as absorbed. The epidermis of the stem, as soon as it dies, is replaced by cork,



Fig 1148



Fig 1149

which, when completely formed, prevents all transpiration, although by its porosity it may condense gases at the surface of the plant. The presence of corky matter in the cell-walls, which has been noticed by Mitscherlich (page 31), may thus materially modify the functions of absorption and exhalation. In order that leaves may perform their functions properly, there must be a certain degree of exhalation. If from the leaves being covered with soot or dirt, or with the cottony productions of scale insects, the proper amount of exhalation is prevented, much injury is done to the plant. Hence, the importance of having the leaves of plants, when growing in hot-houses and conservatories, well washed and cleaned, in order that they may perform their healthy functions.

Fig 1148 Rose-bay (*Nerium Oleander*), with lanceolate leaves, the upper epidermis of which is very dense, and resists exhalation

Fig 1149 Cochneal-Cactus (*Opuntia cochinealisfera*), a succulent plant, the epidermis of which resists exhalation of liquids. On this plant the cochineal insect feeds. The male insect is represented at a. It is the female which supplies the cochineal

652. The passage of vapour through the pores of the leaf is an imperceptible process, which is constantly going on, and the existence of it is ascertained by its effects. Woodward endeavoured to ascertain the quantity of watery fluid transpired by leaves, by placing four plants of Spearmint, with their roots in water, in a situation fully accessible to light, during fifty-six days, from 2d June to 28th July. The following table shows the quantity of water absorbed (allowance being made for evaporation), and the quantity exhaled :—

	Original Weight	Gain	Water expended	Difference, or Water exhaled
No. 1.	127 grs	128 grs.	14,190 grs	14,062 grs.
No. 2.	110 „	139 „	13,140 „	13,001 „
No. 3.	74 „	168 „	10,731 „	10,563 „
No. 4.	92 „	284 „	14,950 „	14,666 „

These experiments show that a large proportion of the absorbed fluid is again given out by transpiration.* Hales made various experiments on the amount of exhalation.† He found that a common Sun-flower, $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, weighing 3 lbs., with a surface of leaves equal to 5616 square inches, exhaled 20 ounces of liquid in the course of a day ; a Cabbage plant, with a surface of 2736 square inches, was found to exhale, on an average, 19 ounces ; a Vine of 1820 square inches, from 5 to 6 ounces ; and a Lemon-tree of 2557 square inches, 6 ounces per day. The following are the results of these experiments on exhalation or transpiration from equal areas :—

NAME OF PLANT	Time of Experiment	Depth of Transpiration
Vine	12 hours, day.	$\frac{1}{191}$ of an inch.
Sun-flower . .	A day and a night.	$\frac{1}{173}$ „
Cabbage . . .	12 hours, day.	$\frac{1}{88}$ „
Apple-tree . .	12 hours, day.	$\frac{1}{104}$ „
Lemon-tree . .	12 hours, day.	$\frac{1}{243}$ „

Hales remarked that Evergreens exhaled less than plants with deciduous leaves, and he associates this with their capability to endure the cold of winter.

653. Professor Burnett endeavoured to determine the amount of exhalation by putting fresh plants into a glass vessel graduated so that the quantity of water put in might be accurately known, and the quan-

* Woodward, Thoughts and Experiments on Vegetation—Philosophical Transactions for 1699, xxi 193

† Hales, Vegetable Statics, p 4

tity lost might be ascertained by the change in its height—the surface of the water being covered with a stratum of oil half an inch thick, which closely invested the stalks and prevented evaporation from the surface of the water. A leaf of a Sun-flower, weighing $31\frac{1}{2}$ grains, treated in this manner, absorbed in four hours 25 grains of water, and at the end of the time it had only increased in weight by $4\frac{1}{2}$ grains, so that $20\frac{1}{2}$ grains had disappeared by exhalation.*

654. Professor Henslow has proposed the following three sets of experiments on exhalation, each of them requiring two tumblers, one two-thirds full of water, the other empty. Place a card, or a piece of stiff paper varnished with a solution of shell-lac in alcohol, over each of the three tumblers containing water, large enough to cover it completely; then place an empty tumbler, mouth downwards, upon each of the cards. Call the three sets of experiments A, B, and C. Make a top to one of the sets of tumblers, B, by rolling round them two or three folds of thick paper, sufficient to prevent light from penetrating. Drill a hole in the middle of each card, just large enough to admit a leaf stalk (say of Ivy). In each hole insert the stalk of a leaf, so as to dip into the water in the lower tumbler, whilst the blade of the leaf is enclosed in the inverted empty tumbler. Place A and B in the direct rays of the sun—B with the cover on; place C in clear daylight, but removed from the influence of the direct rays of the sun. In less than five minutes the empty tumbler of A will be coated on the inside with a cloud of dew; but on taking the cover off B, it will be seen that no dew is there, neither as yet will any be found in the empty tumbler of C. If B be again closed, and matters left as before, the dew will be found to increase rapidly in A, and after some time a little will be seen in C. In B none will be found, except that occasionally there will be seen a deposit on the side of the empty tumbler opposite to the side on which the sun has been shining. In A the dew arises from the rapid exhalation of steam from the leaf when exposed to the direct rays of the sun, and the supply is kept up through the leaf-stalk. In C the exhalation is not so rapid, from want of the direct rays of the sun; while in B there is none, in consequence of the leaf being in the dark. The steam occasionally seen in B arises from mere evaporation from the leaf and card, &c.—this steam being deposited on the cooler side of the tumbler, or the one opposite to that on which the sun's rays fall; it is the effect of common evaporation and subsequent condensation. The same thing takes place in the upper part of the lower tumbler, immediately above the water. The steam which rises there condenses on the side opposite to the sun, which is kept cool by being shaded by the card above it. In A the moisture continues to accumulate over the whole surface of the tumbler, and is due to the light, rather than to the heat of the sun. These experiments lead to the conclusion that exhalation is due to the combined

* Burnett on the development of the several organic systems of vegetables, in *Journal of Royal Institution of Great Britain*, 183

effect of light, and the vital power of the leaves.* The illuminating rays, according to Daubeny, have much more effect in this respect than the heating rays.†

655. The amount of light must have a powerful influence in regulating exhalation.‡ This amount, we know, is very different in different quarters of the globe. It has been stated that a vertical ray of light in its passage through the clearest air, loses at least one-fifth of its intensity before it reaches the earth's surface. From this cause and from the actual condition of the atmosphere, it has been estimated that, under the most favourable circumstances, of 1000 rays emanating from the sun, only 378 on an average penetrate to the surface of the earth at the Equator, 228 at latitude 45°, and 110 at the Poles, while in cloudy weather these several proportions are a great deal less. Hence, the structure of leaves requires to be adapted to the various degrees of exhalation produced in these different conditions. When the first rays of the morning sun rouse the dormant energies of the leaves, they begin to exhale; but at that time of the day the temperature of the air is so cool, that the steam condenses as fast as it is discharged, hence, in the morning, there is much moisture on grass, totally independent of dew. If a plant is kept in darkness it soon becomes dropsical, because the roots continue slowly to absorb moisture, while the leaves have no power to exhale it. The moisture and dryness of the atmosphere have an effect on exhalation. The drier the air the more do plants absorb and exhale.§

656. Garreau¶ made a series of experiments on the exhalation of leaves, by enclosing a living leaf between two bell-jars, one applied to the upper, and the other to the under surface, and ascertaining the quantity of liquid exhaled by means of chloride of calcium, which absorbs water with great rapidity. He found that the exhalation from the lower surface of the leaf was usually double, and even triple or quadruple, that of the upper surface. The same results were obtained even when the leaf was reversed. The quantity of water exhaled has a relation to the number of stomata. The exhalation is greater at the line of the ribs, or at the part of the epidermis where there is least fatty or waxy matter. The secretion of this matter in abundance during the warm days of summer, may tend to prevent the plants being injured by rain and by the heat of the sun. By impeding exhalation, it tends to retain the moisture which is necessary for the functions of the leaves.

657. The difference of the exhalation is seen in the following table, in which leaves of the same plant were exposed to the air, some

* Dutrochet thinks that the effect of light in causing transpiration is the cause of the incurvation of stems when exposed on one side to light

† Daubeny, on the effects of Light upon Plants—Phil Trans for 1836, p 149 Philosophical Magazine, 1836, p. 415

‡ While evaporation goes on independently of vitality, and is regulated entirely by the moisture and dryness of the atmosphere, exhalation is a chemo-vital action, which is specially influenced by light.

§ Miquel, sur l'Exhalaison des Feuilles.—Ann des Sc Nat 2d ser xi 43

¶ Annales des Sciences Nat 3d ser Bot xiii 335

of them with the surface wiped, so as to take off a portion of the fatty covering, and others with the surface in the natural state :—

NAMES OF PLANTS.		Weight of Leaf	Weight after six hours' exposure to air.	Difference.
Centranthus ruber (Red Valerian)	{ Rubbed	1.00	0.70	0.10
	{ Natural	1.00	0.80	
Clematis Vitalba (Traveler's joy), two leaflets	{ Rubbed	0.50	0.30	0.10
	{ Natural	0.50	0.40	
Syringa vulgaris (Lilac)	{ Rubbed	0.80	0.65	0.10
	{ Natural	0.80	0.75	
Convallaria majalis (Lily of the Valley) . . .	{ Rubbed	3.00	2.90	0.05
	{ Natural	3.00	2.95	
Sedum verticillatum (Verticillate Stone-crop), 16 hours in the air . . .	{ Rubbed	2.00	1.70	0.20
	{ Natural	2.00	1.90	
Gentiana lutea (Yellow Gentian), two bracts	{ Rubbed	3.50	3.20	0.20
	{ Natural	3.50	3.40	
Iris florentina (Orris-root Iris), 24 hours . . .	{ Rubbed	13.50	11.70	0.60
	{ Natural	13.50	12.30	

658. Similar results, but more marked, were obtained when the surfaces of the leaves were washed with soap and water, care being taken to note the weight before and after the washing, for it sometimes happens that a small quantity of water enters through the epidermis covering the ribs, and through the stomata. The following table shows the exhalation from natural leaves, and from those whose surface had been cleaned with soap and water :—

NAMES OF PLANTS	Weight of natural Leaves	Weight after washing	Weight after 15 hours' exposure to air.	Loss
Syringa vulgaris (Lilac)	{ Cleaned with soap	0.67	0.70	0.38
	{ Natural	0.67	—	0.45
Clematis integrifolia (Entire-leaved Clematis)	{ Cleaned	0.47	0.52	0.33
	{ Natural	0.47	—	0.21
Acer Pseudo-platanus (Sycamore)	{ Cleaned	4.00	4.05	2.15
	{ Natural	4.00	—	3.10
Centranthus ruber (Red Valerian)	{ Cleaned	1.30	—	1.00
	{ Natural	1.30	—	0.40
Phlox paniculata (Panicled Phlox)	{ Cleaned	0.50	—	0.32
	{ Natural	0.50	—	0.36
Stachys sibirica (Siberian Stachys)	{ Cleaned	0.71	—	0.52
	{ Natural	0.71	—	0.55

The waxy or fatty matter of the epidermis seems to have a marked effect in preventing too copious exhalation, and thus, in the plants of warm countries, it operates in keeping the leaves and stems of plants in a succulent state. The conclusions which M. Garreau draws from his experiments on exhalation of fluids are—1. The quantity of water exhaled by the upper and under surfaces of the leaves is usually as 1 to 2, 1 to 3, or even 1 to 5 or more. The quantity has no relation to the position of the surfaces, for the leaves, when reversed, gave the same results as when in their natural position. 2. There is a correspondence between the quantity of water exhaled and the number of the stomates. 3. The transpiration of fluid takes place in greater quantity on the parts of the epidermis where there is least waxy or fatty matter, as along the line of the ribs.

659. In some plants, when water is supplied abundantly, there is a sort of distillation of liquid from the leaves. Arendt noticed this in a stalk of *Urtica dioica* when immersed in water. The liquid passed upwards in the grooves on the upper surface of the petiole, followed the ribs of the leaves, and then dropped from the apex of the leaves.* Gaertner observed a peculiar dropping from the leaves of *Richardia africana* (*Calla æthiopica*).† From the extremity of the leaves of this plant a watery fluid has been observed to drop in considerable quantity. The amount varies at different periods of the day, being most

copious after mid-day. It ceases with the development of the spathe and organs of reproduction. A similar watery secretion has been noticed in other Araceous plants, such as *Arum Colocasia* and a plant called *Caladium distillatorium*; the water in these instances flows from an orifice near the point of the leaf, upon the upper surface, in which terminates a canal running along the margin of the leaf, while smaller canals, running along the principal ribs, open into



Fig 1150.

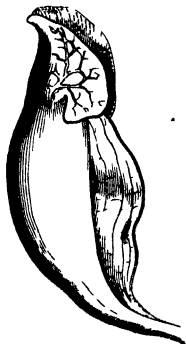


Fig 1151

the marginal one. Williamson found that from each healthy leaf of the latter plant about half-a-pint of liquid dropped during the night.‡ Water also drops from the margins of the leaves of *Canna indica*, angus-

Fig. 1150. Pitcher or ascidium of a Pitcher-plant (*Nepenthes distillatoria*), containing a secretion which holds saline matters in solution.

Fig. 1151. Pitcher of a species of Side-saddle plant (*Sarracenia purpurea*), containing a watery secretion in its interior.

* Arendt, Recherches sur l'activité capillaire des tegumens extérieurs de quelques plantes.—Ann des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. xix. 327.

† Gaertner, Pflanzen physiologische Untersuchungen, &c. in Flora, 1842. Wilson, Phytologist, 1, 612

‡ Schmidt, in Linnæus, vi 65, Williamson on *Caladium distillatorium*, in Annals of Nat. Hist 2d series, 1 188.

tifolia, and latifolia. In the hollow leaves of plants, such as *Nepenthes* (Fig. 1150), *Sarracenia* (Fig. 1151), *Dischidia*, and *Cephalotus*, a quantity of watery exhalation accumulates. Voelcker analyzed the liquid in the pitcher of *Nepenthes*, and found it to consist of water, containing in solution malic acid and a little citric acid, chloride of potassium, carbonate of soda, lime, and magnesia.*

660. The exhalation of watery fluid from the leaves of plants influences the climate of a country. Humboldt remarks, plants exhale water from their leaves, in the first place, for their own benefit. But various important secondary effects follow from this process. One of these is maintaining a suitable portion of humidity in the air. Not only do they attract and condense the moisture suspended in the air, and borne by the wind over the earth's surface, which, falling from their leaves, keeps the ground below moist and cool; but they can, by means of their roots, pump it up from a very considerable depth, and, raising it into the atmosphere, diffuse it over the face of the country. Trees, by the transpiration from their leaves, surround themselves with an atmosphere constantly cold and moist. They also shelter the soil from the direct action of the sun, and thus prevent evaporation of the water furnished by rains.† In this way they contribute to the copiousness of streams. When forests are destroyed, as they are everywhere in America by the European planters, with an imprudent precipitation, the springs are entirely dried up, or become less abundant. In those mountains of Greece which have been deprived of their forests, the streams have disappeared. The inconsiderate felling of woods, or the neglect to maintain them, has changed regions noted for fertility into scenes of sterility. The sultry atmosphere and the droughts of the Cape de Verd Islands are attributed to the destruction of forests. It is stated that in large districts of India, climate and irrigation have rapidly deteriorated from a similar cause, and that the government are now using means to avert and remedy the mischief. In wooded countries, where the rains are excessive, as in Rio Janeiro, the climate has been improved by the diminution of the trees. Gardner says, that since the axe has been laid on the dense forests surrounding the city of Rio Janeiro, the climate has become dry. In fact, so much has the quantity of rain diminished, that the Brazilian government was obliged to pass a law prohibiting the felling of trees in the Corcovado range.‡ Müller states that the cultivation of grain, which has so completely transformed one part of the wilderness of Australia, has already exercised a most beneficial influence on the increase of rain.§

661. Dr. Cleghorn remarks,¶ the conservation of forests is unques-

* Voelcker, on the Chemical Composition of the Liquid in the Ascidia of *Nepenthes*—Annals of Nat. Hist. 2d series, iv. 128.

† Humboldt's Aspects of Nature, by Mrs. Sabine, i. 127.

‡ Gardner's Travels in Brazil

§ Muller, on the Flora of South Australia, in Hooker's Journal of Botany, vol. v. 72.

¶ Report on the probable effects of the Destruction of Tropical Forests, by Dr. Cleghorn, Dr. Royle, Captain Baud Smith, and Captain Strachey, in Proceed of Brit Assoc 1851.

tionably a subject of great importance. It is now occupying the attention of the government of India, and of many other governments, and it will sooner or later engage that of all our colonies. The physical history of every country proves incontestably that a moderate extent of forests, especially on mountain slopes and elevated rocky ground, where tillage is impracticable, promotes in a high degree both the agricultural and manufacturing interests of individuals, as well as the physical soundness and productive resources of extensive countries. It appears that the influence of forests in a physical, economical, and hygienic point of view, is deserving of a more complete investigation than it has yet received. By felling trees which cover the tops and sides of mountains, men in every climate prepare at once two calamities for future generations—the want of fuel, and the scarcity of water.*

662. It is necessary to keep up the correspondence between the fluid given off by the leaves and that taken up by the roots. If the former exceeds the latter, the leaves become languid and fall off. This is one cause why plants growing in the rooms of dwelling-houses succeed badly. The atmosphere is too dry, and the exhalation from the leaves is not compensated by the fluids taken up by the roots. This cannot be remedied by an extra supply of water, for the roots are not capable of taking up the additional quantity required. Hence the use of Wardian Cases† in preventing the loss caused by transpiration, and thus enabling the plants to live even in a warm and dry room.

2. EXHALATION OF GASEOUS MATTER.—VEGETABLE RESPIRATION.

663. The leaves of plants give off gases, the nature and quantity of which vary according to the circumstances in which the plants are placed, and their state of vigour or decay. Hence leaves produce important effects on the atmosphere, and we shall find that they are employed as the means of keeping up its purity. In the year 1771, Priestley observed that plants were able to grow in air vitiated by the breathing of animals, and that they soon restored such air to its original purity.‡ Percival confirmed these observations, and showed that air containing so much carbonic acid as to prove destructive to animal life, was rendered fit for respiration after plants had grown in it.

664. Ingenhousz examined the subject more fully, and made an

* For further details regarding exhalation of liquids by leaves, in addition to the papers and works referred to, the student may consult—Carpenter, Principles of Physiology, General and Comparative, p. 770. Gmelin, de Plantarum Exhalationibus, Tubing. 1847. Quéttard—Memoires Par. 1748, p. 569, and 1749, p. 265. Lawes, on the Comparative Evaporating Properties of Evergreen and Deciduous Trees, in Journ. of Hort. Soc. of London, vi. 227. Miquel, sur l'Exhalaison Aqueuse des Feuilles—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xi. 48. Mohl, ueber die Functionen der Blätter, Tubing. 1836.

† A description of these Plant-cases will be given in the sequel.

‡ Priestley, on Air, 86.

extensive series of experiments.* In air that had been so far depraved by respiration as to extinguish a lighted candle, he placed a plant of Peppermint, and then exposed the vessel for three hours to the sun, at the end of which time the air again supported flame. When a Nettle was put into a similar portion of impure air during the night, the air was not improved; but when exposed to the sun for two hours, its original purity was restored. Such was also the case with plants of Mustard. When similar portions of the same impure air were confined in vessels with similar plants, and respectively placed in sunshine and shade, the air exposed to the sun recovered its purity in a few hours, while that in the shade was rendered more impure than before. Ingenhousz also performed experiments with immersed leaves, and found that they purified the air in the course of a very few hours in sunshine.

665. From five hundred experiments conducted between the months of June and September, Ingenhousz concludes that plants possess the power of giving out oxygen; that this operation commences some time after the sun has risen above the horizon, is more or less vigorous according to the clearness of the day and the exposure of the plant to sunshine, and is suspended during night; that in the shade, plants deteriorate the air; that leaves, stems, and green branches purify the air, and that acid and poisonous plants in this respect act in the same way as the most salutary; that the pure air (oxygen) proceeds chiefly from the lower surface of leaves, and that young leaves do not furnish so much as those which have acquired their full vigour; that some plants yield purer air than others, and that aquatics excel all others in this respect; and lastly, that the sun does not possess the power of improving the qualities of atmospherical air without the concurrence of plants.

666. Senebier also instituted a series of experiments which proved the production of oxygen gas by plants exposed to the direct rays of the sun. He considered the oxygen as derived from the decomposition of carbonic acid; and he thought that plants in a healthy state do not give out carbonic acid in darkness.† Ellis corroborated the statements of Ingenhousz, but he was disposed to consider the deteriorating effects of plants during darkness to be greater than had been supposed.‡ De Saussure found that when a plant was confined in a definite volume of pure atmospherical air, the air was unaltered in volume and composition after an equal number of days and nights. He thought that the plant formed as much carbonic acid by night as it had consumed during the day. But if a quantity of carbonic acid was added to the atmosphere in which the plant grew, or if it was made to absorb carbonic acid water, then it exhaled a quantity of oxygen. From his experiments

* Ingenhousz, *Experiments upon Vegetables*, Lond. 1776.

† Senebier, *Memoires Physico-Chimiques*, i.; *Physiologie Végétale*, iii. 104; *Traité sur la Rapport des Plantes avec l'Air Atmospherique*, Genève, 1807.

‡ Ellis, *Inquiries into the Changes induced in Atmospheric Air by Plants and Animals*.

he concluded that oxygen was exhaled during the day by the green parts of plants, while the carbonic acid present in the atmosphere was absorbed; that during the night carbonic acid was given off, while an absorption of oxygen took place; and that pale plants, such as Fungi, and the parts of plants not green, such as roots, stems, and flowers, as well as etiolated plants, exhaled carbonic acid.*

667. The following experiment has been suggested by Professor Henslow, as a simple means of showing that oxygen is given off by the leaves of plants:—Fill two or three tumblers with pond or spring water, which always holds some carbonic acid in solution. Place a leaf or two under the water in each tumbler. Common Laurel leaves do well, with a split shot or small piece of lead at one end, to keep the leaf under water, and at the same time vertical. Put one tumbler in common daylight, the others in the direct rays of the sun. In the former, no immediate effect will be observed, but in the latter, numerous bubbles appear on the surface of the leaves. These bubbles are probably portions of air separated from the water by the process of heating (as is seen in heating a tumbler of spring water by a fire or lamp); after a little (half-an-hour or more), other bubbles appear at the cut end of the leaf, and here and there on its surface. These bubbles increase rapidly in size, and rise to the surface. They proceed from the interior of the leaf, and are oxygen separated by the leaf from carbonic acid. The leaf is composed of cells, with spaces between them containing air of some sort. These spaces are abundant on lower surface, hence its paleness. By soaking leaves, as Laurel leaves, the air is expelled and water enters, and in a day or two the under surface becomes spotted and then dark. On Laurel leaves, after soaking for two or three days, the experiments on gaseous exhalation can be well shown, the oxygen coming off frequently in a stream. The effect is stopped by a shade being interposed, and may be excited by the reflected light from a looking-glass. The lower side of the leaf, during the giving off of the oxygen, resumes its pale colour.

668. Daubeny says that the action of light on plants causes the leaves to emit oxygen and decompose carbonic acid, and to become green when etiolated; that it maintains their irritability, and causes the plants to exhale water by the leaves, and to absorb watery fluid by the roots. He made experiments in regard to the effects which plants produce on the atmosphere, by placing them in large bell-jars containing 6-800 and sometimes 12-1300 cubic inches of air—the jars resting on mercury covered with a thin film of water, and so contrived that they could be pressed down in the mercury to expel the air when required, and to admit of the introduction of carbonic acid in a regulated quantity. The amount of carbonic acid added varied from 2 to 11 per cent. The plants added to the oxygen of the air so long as

* De Saussure, *Recherches Chimiques sur la Végétation*, pp. 35, 36. Saussure, *Annales de Chimie* xxiv. 133. Grisehew, *Physikalisch-Chemische Untersuchungen ueber die Athmungen der Gewaechse und deren Einfluss auf die gemeine Luft*, Leipzig, 1819.

carbonic acid was supplied, and the following are the comparative results in sunshine and shade :—

1. During fine weather and bright sunshine.

a Plants in a jar of air, without flowers, and with leaves alone.

	Maximum increase of Oxygen in the jar.
Cupressus (Cypress)	2.00 per cent.
Cedrus (Cedar)	3.75 ”
Syringa vulgaris (Common Lilac)	6.50 to 8.75 ”
Pelargonium	2.00 to 5.00 ”
Mesembryanthemum	2.40 ”

b Plants in a jar of air, with flowers and leaves.

Dahlia	3.75 per cent.
Helianthus (Sunflower)	1.00 ”

2. During bad weather, and in diffused light.

Syringa persica (Persian Lilac)	3.00 per cent.
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The greatest amount of oxygen that can be added to the air of a jar by the influence of a plant he states to be 18 per cent. The purification of the air ceases when there are no leaves.*

669. Aquatic plants appear to surpass all others in their power of decomposing carbonic acid. In some lakes in volcanic countries, where carbonic acid rises in great quantity through the waters, vegetation is very vigorous, and the separation of oxygen goes on rapidly. In speaking of the floating islands on the lake Solfatara, in Italy, Sir Humphry Davy remarks—“ The high temperature of this water, and the quantity of carbonic acid that it contains, renders it peculiarly fitted to afford a pabulum or nourishment to vegetable life. The banks of Travertine are everywhere covered with Reeds, Lichens, Confervæ, and various kinds of aquatic plants; and at the same time that the process of vegetable life is going on, the crystallizations of the calcareous matter, which is everywhere deposited in consequence of the escape of carbonic acid, proceed, giving a constant milkiness to what, from its tint, would otherwise be a blue fluid. So rapid is the vegetation, owing to the decomposition of the carbonic acid, that, even in winter, masses of Confervæ are constantly detached by the currents of water from the bank, and float down the stream, forming often small islands on its surface.”† Schleiden mentions that there is a rich vegetation round the springs in the valley of Gottingen, which abound in carbonic acid.‡

670. Morren, of Geneva, examined in a particular manner the oxygenation of the water of ponds by means of Confervæ, and he found

* Daubeny, on the Action of Plants on the Atmosphere—Phil Trans 1836, p 168

† Sir H. Davy's Consolations in Travcl, 3d edit. p 116.

‡ Wiegmann's Archiv iii. 1838

that it varies according to the intensity of the solar light and the elevation of the sun. It commences at daybreak, increases slowly at first, then rapidly, and reaches its maximum at four to five o'clock in the afternoon. In winter there must be a long succession of fine days before the water attains the same degree of oxygenation as in summer. The oxygen thus formed is sent into the atmosphere. The marshes of Anké, in Batavia, produce a variety of plants, such as Grasses, Rushes, Water Beans, &c., which grow from the bottom of the stagnant water, and the interstices between these plants are covered with *Pistia Stratiotes* (called Water Lettuce in the West Indies), which, floating on the surface of the water, decomposes noxious gases, under the influence of the solar ray, and gives out respirable air. Such plants not only give a supply of oxygen, but also tend to purify the water, and render it more fit for animal life. Cloez and Gratiolet state, as the result of recent experiments, that the decomposition of carbonic acid is performed with great rapidity by submerged aquatic plants, and that they separate more oxygen in a given time than most other plants.

671. We have seen that Ingenhousz early propounded the statement that carbonic acid was given off during darkness, and that his views in this respect were opposed by Senebier. Since their day the subject has been carefully investigated, but the views of physiologists are still divided. Some maintain that oxygen is given off by the leaves during the day, and a moderate quantity of carbonic acid is exhaled by a process of endosmose during night; others say that carbonic acid is exhaled by plants in greater or less quantity at all times, and that during the day it is decomposed so as to give out oxygen; while a third set of authors state that no carbonic acid is evolved by leaves in a healthy state, and that their true function is one of deoxidation, or rather decarbonization, which consists in the fixation of carbon and the elimination of oxygen.

672. The first of these views was for a long time generally adopted, but some recent experiments have tended to throw doubts upon it, and to confirm the views of Senebier. Mohl still supports this view. He says plants have a double respiration—one consuming carbonic acid and exhaling oxygen by day in the green-coloured organs, and one connected with a consumption of oxygen and a formation of carbonic acid in the green organs by night, and in those not green, by day and night. If we wish to speak of a respiration in plants, he says, this oxygen-consuming breathing deserves the name far more than the exhalation of oxygen by the green organs connected with the nutrient processes.*

673. The second view was propounded by Burnett, who considers the constant exhalation of carbonic acid both by day and by night as true vegetable respiration, while the decomposition of carbonic acid

* Mohl on the Vegetable Cell, translated by Hensley, 86, 87

during light, accompanied with the evolution of oxygen, is regarded by him as a process of digestion; respiration thus going on at all times, and consisting, like that of animals, in the separation of carbon, while digestion only goes on during light.* He has been supported by Carpenter, who says that the respiration of vegetables is not an occasional process, but one which is constantly going on during the whole life of the plant—by day, by night, in sunshine, and in shade—and consists in the disengagement of the superfluous carbon of the system, either by combination with the oxygen of the air, or by replacing with carbonic acid the oxygen that has been absorbed from it. If the function is checked the plant soon dies, as when placed in an atmosphere with a large amount of carbonic acid, and without the stimulus of light which enables it to decompose the acid gas.† Henfrey says a distinction is to be drawn between the process of respiration in which the liberation of superfluous oxygen takes place, leaving the other elements combined in an assimilated or organic condition, and that process in which the assimilated matter is again chemically altered by the oxidation of a certain amount of carbon, which is liberated as free carbonic acid by plants unprovided with leaves, but under most circumstances decomposed again by green plants. He thinks that carbonic acid is given off by living plants as a vital process even during light, and he suggests that the re-absorption of the evolved acid gas during the day has disguised the fact in most previous experiments.‡ Ellis says that the deteriorating process in which oxygen gas is consumed goes on at all times and in all circumstances when vegetation is active. It requires a suitable temperature to display itself, and when that temperature falls below a certain point it ceases. On the other hand, the purifying process in which oxygen gas is evolved is chiefly dependent on the agency of light. The former, he considers to be accomplished by the agency of the air, and to be essential to the life and growth of the plant; the latter, to be subordinate, depending on the agency of light, and though necessary to the perfection of vegetation, yet not essential to its existence.§

674. Garreau has made an extensive series of experiments on the respiration of plants.¶ In his early experiments he used the same apparatus as that employed by him for determining the exhalation of liquids, namely, two bell-jars, with their open ends applied respectively to the upper and under sides of the leaf, so as to enclose a circular portion between them. By means of lime-water in the vessels he determined the quantity of carbonic acid given

* Burnett, on the development of the several organic systems of vegetables—*Journal of Royal Institution of Great Britain*, 1 98.

† Carpenter, *Principles of Physiology, general and comparative*, p 730

‡ Henfrey, *Outlines of Structural and Physiological Botany*, p 108. *The Garden Companion*, July 1832, p. 97.

§ Ellis on Plant Cases, &c.—*London Mag. of Bot.* xv 502

¶ Garreau, sur la respiration des plantes—*Annales des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. Bot. xv 1, and xv 5

off at different hours. The experiment lasted for several hours in each case, and the quantity of carbonate of lime formed was dried and weighed. The results are given in a tabular form :—

NAMES OF PLANTS.	Extent of surface of leaf in metres.	Duration of Experiment.	Nature of the light.	Surface.	Quantity of carbonate obtained.
<i>Polygonum orientale</i>	0.040	12 hours.	Shade.	{ Upper.	0.000
<i>Rheum undulatum</i> } (Undulated Rhu- barb) }	0.075	do.	do.	{ Under. Upper. Under.	0.000 0.000 0.000
<i>Nicotiana rustica</i> } (Rustic Tobacco)	0.040	do.	do.	{ Upper. Under.	0.000 0.000
<i>Tropæolum majus</i> } (Indian Cress) . }	0.040	do.	do.	{ Upper. Under.	0.000 0.000
<i>Asclepias Syriaca</i> .	0.075	6 hours.	{ 6 hours of burning sun 111° F.	{ Upper. Under.	0.005 0.005
<i>Tropæolum majus</i> } (Indian Cress) . }	0.040	8 do.	{ 8 hours do.	{ Upper. Under.	0.005 0.010
<i>Tilia europæa</i> (Lime Tree) }	0.075	7 do.	{ 7 hours 113° F.	{ Upper. Under.	Traces 0.015
<i>Aralia racemosa</i> , ter- minal leaflet, . . }	0.040	6 do.	{ 6 hours 115° F.	{ Upper. Under.	0.005 0.010
<i>Rheum undulatum</i> } (Undulated Rhu- barb) }	0.280	5 do.	{ 5 hours 111° F.	{ Entire } leaf. }	0.025

From these and other experiments he drew the conclusion that the upper and under surfaces of the leaves give off carbonic acid in certain circumstances, and that the under surface gives off more than the upper; that the leaves or surfaces of the leaves which exhale most, also give off most carbonic acid; that the quantity of carbonic acid gas emitted bears a relation to the number of stomata; that the leaves do not give out carbonic acid, either in the shade or in the sun, at a moderate temperature, but that the exhalation of this gas takes place in small quantities, under the influence of the sun when accompanied with great heat; that the carbonic acid seems to be formed in the interior of the plant.

675. Subsequently, however, Garreau was led to adopt Burnett's view, that carbonic acid is expired at all times by plants, but that it is decomposed during the day as rapidly as it escapes from the plant. This latter circumstance, in his opinion, accounts for its non-appearance in his experiments already detailed. He endeavoured to prove this by making similar plants grow in two jars containing equal volumes of air, the one being supplied with a solution of baryta, the other having none. In the first jar he expected the carbonic acid, when evolved, to be at once fixed more or less completely by the

baryta before being decomposed by the reducing action of the leaves. The following are some of his latest results :—

NAMES OF PLANTS.	Dates.	Atmospheric air with or without solution of Baryta.	Temperature. Fah.	Duration of Experiment. Hours of the day.	CO ₂ expired. Cubic centum.	Remarks.
<i>Kitaibelia vitifolia</i> .	July 30	{ Without } { With }	64°.4	10 to 4	{ 0 } { 12 }	Rainy, with occasional sunshine.
<i>Rhus radicans</i> . .	July 31	{ Without } { With }	66°.2	11 to 5	{ 0 } { 11 }	Moist, and rather dull.
<i>Fraxinus excelsior</i>	Aug. 1	{ Without } { With }	64°.4	11 to 5	{ 0 } { 6 }	No sun, rather dull, rain.
<i>Acer eriocarpum</i> .	Aug. 1	{ Without } { With }	66°.2	12 to 6	{ 24 } { 41 }	Rather dull.
<i>Syringa vulgaris</i> .	Aug. 4	{ Without } { With }	64°.4	12 to 6	{ 0 } { 6 }	Three hours of beautiful sunshine.
<i>Glycyrrhiza echinata</i>	Aug. 7	{ Without } { With }	71°.6	12 to 6	{ 0 } { 8 }	Four hours of sunshine.
<i>Asclepias Cornuti</i>	Aug. 5	{ Without } { With }	73°.4	7 to 7	{ 7 } { 37 }	Six hours of exposure to a very fine sunshine.
<i>Fagopyrum cymosum</i>	Aug. 6	{ Without } { With }	77°	7 to 7	{ 9 } { 30 }	Do.
<i>Ficus Carica</i> . . .	Aug. 6	{ Without } { With }	75°.2	9 to 6	{ 9 } { 24 }	Do

These experiments, he thinks, shew that the carbonic acid, which is exhaled during sunshine, is decomposed in a great measure by the action of light so soon as it is formed, and that a high temperature increases the quantity of carbonic acid expired. The conclusions at which he finally arrives are as follow :—1. Leaves, during the day, both in sunshine and shade, give out carbonic acid, and this gas is exhaled in larger quantity in proportion to the increase of temperature. Buds give out more of the acid gas than leaves. 2. Two antagonistic processes are going on simultaneously in leaves both in shade and in sunshine—the one a process of combustion, attended with the evolution of carbonic acid, the other a process of reduction, attended with the evolution of oxygen. 3. The accumulation of carbon in plants is owing to the predominance of the second process over the first. 4. The evolution of carbonic acid is connected with the presence of protein compounds, such as protoplasmic and albuminous matter. 5. The process of combustion is to be considered as constituting vegetable respiration, while the process of reduction is to be viewed as connected with the function of nutrition.*

676. The third view of vegetable respiration has been brought prominently forward of late years by Mr. Haseldine Pepys. From

* Garreau, sur la Respiration des Plantes, in Annales des Sc. Nat 3d ser Bot. xvi 292

careful experiments, conducted during several years, he is satisfied that leaves, which are in a state of vigorous vegetation, always operate so as to keep up the purity of the air by absorbing carbonic acid, and disengaging oxygen; that this function is promoted and accelerated by the action of light; that it continues during night although more slowly; and that carbonic acid is never disengaged when the leaf is healthy.* He also finds that the fluid abundantly exhaled by plants during their vegetation is pure water, and contains no carbonic acid; and that the first portions of carbonic acid gas contained in an artificial atmosphere are taken up with more avidity by the plant than the remaining portions. The carbonic acid which is given off by leaves is attributed to a state of disease or alteration in the healthy state of the tissues, and in many experiments (as in Garreau's), the abnormal condition of the plant may perhaps account for the appearance of carbonic acid. In some of Mr. Ellis's experiments, the decaying condition of the leaves gave rise to a fallacy in the results. Cloez and Gratiolet confirm Pepys' observations. They state that oxygen is disengaged rapidly in solar light, insensibly in diffused light, and not at all in darkness, and that in the latter case no carbonic acid whatever is given off by plants.

677. From all that has been stated, it would appear that an absorption of carbonic acid by the leaves of plants and an elimination of oxygen takes place during daylight, and that this process ceases in a great measure during the night. The exhalation of carbonic acid by healthy leaves is still doubtful, and the appearance of this acid gas may in many of the experiments be traced to an abnormal condition of the leaves. The great function of the leaves thus seems to be deoxidation, by means of which they are instrumental in keeping up the purity of the atmosphere. This function of plants is antagonistic in its results to animal respiration; for while the latter takes oxygen from the atmosphere, and replaces it by carbonic acid, the former removes carbonic acid, fixes carbon, and gives out oxygen. The processes of respiration and combustion are pouring into the atmosphere a large quantity of carbonic acid gas, while the active leaves of plants are constantly removing it, and, under the action of light, substituting oxygen. While plants thus get carbonaceous food, the air is by them kept in a state fitted for animal life. The proper, constant, and unexhaustible sources of oxygen gas, as Liebig remarks, are the tropics and warm climates, where a sky seldom clouded permits the glowing rays of the sun to shine upon a most luxuriant vegetation. The temperate and cold zones, where artificial warmth must replace the deficient heat of the sun, produce on the contrary carbonic acid in superabundance, which is expended on the nutrition of tropical plants. Vegetable culture heightens the healthy state of a country. The life of animals is connected intimately, then, with the vegetable productions of the globe, not merely as regards the materials for their food, but also in reference to the air which they breathe.

* Pepys, on the Respiration of the Leaves of Plants. Phil. Trans. 1843, p. 329

678. How interesting, says Johnston, is it to contemplate the relations, at once wise and beautiful, by which dead organic matter, intelligent man, and living plants, are all bound together. The dead tree and the fossil coal lie almost useless things in reference to animal and vegetable life. Man employs them in a thousand ways as ministers to his wants, his comforts, or his dominion over nature; and in so doing, he himself directly, though unconsciously, ministers to the wants of those vegetable races, which seem but to live and grow for his use and sustenance. How beautiful also does the contrivance of the expanded leaf appear! The air contains only one gallon of carbonic acid in 2500, and this proportion has been adjusted to the health and comfort of animals, to whom this gas is hurtful. But to catch this minute quantity, the tree hangs out thousands of square feet of leaf, in perpetual motion, through an ever-moving air; and thus, by the conjoined labours of millions of pores, the substance of whole forests of solid wood is slowly extracted from the fleeting winds.*

679. As the decomposition of carbonic acid is only carried on vigorously during the day, it follows that an accumulation of it will take place in the atmosphere during darkness. Saussure found, from a mean of fifty-four observations made in a country district, that the proportion of carbonic acid in the atmosphere during the night was to its proportion in the day-time as 432 to 398; or in other words, the carbonic acid in the atmosphere was diminished nearly 10 per cent. during daylight.† It is said also that during summer, when animal life is more active, the proportion of carbonic acid is greater than in winter, as 7.13 to 4.79 parts in 10,000. The usual quantity of carbonic acid in the atmosphere, before being drawn into the lungs, is about 1-2500th; in that returned from the lungs it is about 1-25th, or it has increased 100 times in quantity. So long as plants are kept in a vigorous and healthy state, they do not give off any carbonic acid. If, however, they are kept long in the dark they begin to fade; the green colouring matter called chlorophyll is not produced as it ought to be; the plants are blanched or etiolated, and in fact get into a state of disease. In such circumstances no oxygen is given off, but, on the contrary, carbonic acid is produced.

680. Experiments have been made by Draper‡ as to the particular rays of the spectrum which are concerned in the decomposition of carbonic acid by the green parts of plants. They were made with a series of tubes half an inch in diameter and six inches long, which were arranged so that the coloured spaces of the spectrum fell on them. In these tubes water impregnated with carbonic acid and a few green leaves of *Poa annua* were placed. In the tube that was in the red space a minute bubble of gas was sometimes formed, sometimes none at all; that in the orange contained a considerable quantity; in the

* Johnston, *Elements of Agricultural Chemistry and Geology*, 6th edit. 41.

† Saussure, sur la variation de l'acide carbonique atmospherique—*Ann de Chim et de Phys* li. 199, xlv. 5. Edin. *New Philos. Journal*, xl. 22

‡ Draper, *Chemistry of Vegetation*, p. 177.

yellow ray a very large amount was found, comparatively speaking; in the green a much smaller quantity; in the blue, indigo, and violet, and the extra-spectral space at that end, not a solitary bubble. The results are tabulated thus:—

Oxygen set free in the extreme red ray00 to	.33
— — red and orange	20.00	„ 24.75
— — yellow and green	36.00	„ 43.75
— — green and blue	4.10	„ .10
— — blue	1.00	„ .00
— — indigo00	
— — violet00	

Hence he drew the conclusion that the light-giving rays and those nearest the yellow have the greatest effect in the decomposition. Light, therefore, seems to act in this process according to the intensity of its illuminating power, while the heating and the tithonic or chemical rays have no effect.

681. Cloez and Gratiolet* also endeavoured to discover the comparative influence of coloured glass on the decomposition of carbonic acid by the green parts of plants, and they found that the decomposition is most rapid under colourless unpolished glass, then comes yellow glass, then colourless transparent glass, then red, green, and lastly, blue glass. They were satisfied that these differences were not caused by differences of temperature. As regards the influence of temperature, they state that the decomposition of carbonic acid gas, by aquatic plants exposed to light in a temperature raised gradually from 39.2° F., does not commence until the temperature is 59° F., and is at its maximum at 86° F. The decomposition of the same gas, by plants exposed to light in a temperature which is lowered from 86° F., continues when the temperature is as low as 57.2°, 55.4°, 53.6°, 51.8°, but ceases when it is as low as 50° F.

682. It has been stated that plants, when blanched, give off carbonic acid. Morot says that in partially etiolated plants, when exposed to the direct rays of the sun, the yellow portion of the tissue gave out carbonic acid, while the green parts gave out oxygen. Plants having no green leaves exhale carbonic acid. Thus Lory found, from thirty experiments, that *Orobanches* (Fig. 126, p. 54) in every stage of their growth, whether exposed to light or not, absorb oxygen and give out carbonic acid.† The carbonic acid appeared to proceed, not from a direct union between the carbon of the plant and the oxygen of the air, but from processes going on in the interior of the plant. Lory took two parts of the same weight, one of *Orobanche Teucrii*, and the other of the leafy stalk of *Teucrium Chamædryis*, on which it was parasitic, and placed them in two jars of the same capacity, filled with six

* Cloez et Gratiolet, Recherches sur la Végétation — Comptes Rendus, t. xxxi p. 626, for 1850

† Lory, sur la Respiration des *Orobanches* et autres plantes vasculaires dépourvues de parties vertes — Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. viii. 158.

volumes of air to one of carbonic acid. Both were exposed to light from 9 A.M. until 3 P.M. of the succeeding day, and at the end of that time the air in which the *Teucrium* was placed contained no trace of carbonic acid, while that in which the parasitic *Orobanche* was placed yielded a large quantity of carbonic acid and a diminished amount of oxygen.

683. Draper and Ville think that plants also exhale nitrogen gas, and Cloez and Gratiolet were led to the same conclusion from their experiments. Some maintain that the ammonia taken up by plants is with the view of supplying not merely nitrogen in certain quantity, but likewise hydrogen; and that in the same way as carbonic acid is absorbed and oxygen is given off, so ammonia is absorbed and nitrogen is exhaled. If nitrogen is given off by plants, it seems probable that it is derived from the ammonia, and not from the air. Those who support this view state the antagonism between animals and plants in the following manner:—Animal respiration gives rise to carbonic acid gas, which is absorbed by plants, the carbon and part of the oxygen being fixed, and another part of the oxygen being exhaled: again, animal decomposition gives rise to ammonia, which is absorbed by plants, the hydrogen and part of the nitrogen being assimilated, and another portion of the nitrogen being exhaled. These statements, however, require confirmation.

III. INFLUENCE OF LEAVES ON VEGETABLE SECRETIONS.

684. By means of the processes of absorption and exhalation which are carried on by leaves under the influence of air and light, the contents of the cells and vessels are elaborated and fitted for the production of various important secretions. To the action of the leaves must be traced in a great measure the elaboration of the azotized and unazotized compounds, to which allusion has already been made (p. 370). When the functions of the leaves are interrupted by non-exposure to light, or by the attacks of disease, and when plants are deprived of their leaves by injuries of various kinds, their secretions are either wholly stopped, or they become altered in their nature. When leaves are blanched by being excluded from air and light, they lose their properties, their fragrant oils and resins are not developed in a proper manner, chlorophyll is not formed, nor is woody matter produced.

685. The importance of leaves in the production of timber is universally acknowledged. If they are prevented from performing their functions properly, by being kept in darkness or in the shade, wood is imperfectly formed; and if the leaves are constantly stripped off a tree, no additions are made to its woody layers. Some troublesome weeds with underground woody stems may be enfeebled and ultimately

extirpated by repeatedly cutting off their whole foliage. The difference of the wood in crowded and properly thinned plantations, depends in a great measure on the growth and exposure of the leaves. Wood grows more rapidly, and the zones or circles are larger, when there is free exposure. Hence the necessity of judicious planting if we wish to have good timber. The following measurements made of a Spruce Fir in a crowded plantation of 1000 acres in Yorkshire, and given several years ago in the Gardener's Chronicle, shows the state of the zones of wood in such cases :—

In the first 5 years, the tree grew	26	tenths of an inch in diameter.		
In the second do.	do.	24	—	—
In the third do.	do.	20	—	—
In the fourth do.	do.	12	—	—
In the fifth do.	do.	8	—	—
In the sixth do.	do.	6	—	—
In the seventh do.	do.	10	—	—

Thus, in the course of 35 years the Fir only attained a diameter of 10.6 inches, in place of 18—the annual growth of timber beginning to diminish after the first five years, and the diminution going on with great rapidity after the fifteenth year of growth, when the trees were becoming more and more crowded. At the end of the thirtieth year the annual growth was little more than one-tenth of an inch, whereas in the early years it had been more than five-tenths. The increase in the last five years seems to have been due to some of the trees having been accidentally cleared away, thus allowing more light and air to reach the leaves.

686. When a tree forms large circles of woody matter, and thus grows rapidly, it has been found that the quality of the timber is better than when the same species forms small circles and grows slowly. An examination was some time ago made of the naval woods in the dockyards of Britain, and it was found that the most durable Oak was that which had grown quickly, and had increased at the rate of one inch in diameter in the course of the year. Some excellent Oak taken from York Minster was ascertained to have had an annual growth of eight-tenths of an inch. Professor Barlow, of Woolwich, examined two specimens of timber—No. 1 from a fast-grown tree, No. 2 from a slow-grown tree. Both specimens were squared down to 2 inches, and they were broken on props placed 50 inches apart. Their specific gravity and their strength are given as follows :—

	Specific gravity.	Deflected one-fiftieth of an inch with	Broken with
No. 1	903	660 lbs. . . .	999 lbs.
No. 2	856	414 „	679 „

Thus the fast-grown timber exceeded the other in specific gravity, as well as in tenacity and strength.

687. These observations show the importance of allowing the leaves to be well developed and fully exposed, if we wish the production of timber to proceed vigorously and profitably. The same thing may be proved in regard to all the other secretions formed by plants. Thus, Potatoes grown in the shade, by which the functions of their leaves are impeded, become watery, and produce little starch in their tubers. The same causes which operate in the formation of timber also affect the development of roots, and hence the precautions taken to secure the good quality of the former have a powerful influence on the latter. Roots in their turn, by the absorption of nutriment, convey to the leaves materials for forming wood, and the more they extend the greater is the supply which they obtain. There is thus a reciprocal action between the leaves and the roots, each being dependent on the other for the due performance of their functions.*

688. While in the cultivation of trees, shrubs, and ordinary flowering plants, the object of the gardener is to allow the leaves to perform their functions perfectly, there are certain cases in which he endeavours to interrupt these functions, and to produce an unnatural condition, by which the plants are rendered more suitable for domestic purposes. All are familiar with the fact that blanching deprives the leaves of their green colour, and prevents them from acquiring their usual qualities. This depends on the effect of darkness in arresting the formation of chlorophyll or the green colouring matter, and in hindering the production of various secretions. In the case of Asparagus and Seakale, gardeners succeed by artificial etiolation (blanching) in preventing the plants from producing woody tissue—cells and thin-walled vessels being alone formed which are delicate in their texture. The tenderness and succulence of the *heart* of the cabbage are due to the outer leaves obstructing the access of light. In Celery the effect of blanching is to deprive the plant not only of the woody tissue, but also of certain other secretions which render it in its ordinary condition unpalatable. It is thus distinctly proved that leaves owe their green colour to the action of light, and that it is only when light and air are supplied freely, that they can form the secretions which are required for the vigorous and normal growth of the plant.

689. In certain instances we arrest the growth of the leaves with the view of making a tree produce flowers or fruit. This is accomplished by pruning, an operation which ought to be performed with care and judgment. In the case of forest trees, if properly planted, no pruning is required, except the removal of dead or decaying branches. The form and symmetry of a forest tree is best preserved by allowing it to grow freely in a congenial soil without being disturbed. It is different in the case of cultivated fruit trees, where the object is not so much the symmetry of the tree as the production of fruit. In them pruning may be defined the act of removing scientific

* See further remarks on this subject at page 129, paragraph 610

cally certain branches, or parts of them, for the purpose of increasing the productiveness of the tree and the size of its fruit. A shoot is removed by a clean cut with a sharp knife, the incision making a sloping wound at an angle of 45° at the back of a bud, and not so low as its base. Pruning should be performed on young branches of moderate diameter. When large branches are lopped off injury is done, and in the case of forest trees a snag is left which gives rise to the formation of a knot in the wood, and frequently, from the exposure of a large wound, the weather causes decay in the wood. By a constant process of pruning, trees become stunted in their growth. By restricting roots and pruning the branches peculiar dwarf-looking trees are produced by the Chinese. Oaks have thus been reared which, after attaining a great age, are only one foot and a half high. The removal of leaf-buds, or, as it is called, disbudding, is another mode in which pruning is practised.

IV. EFFECTS OF VARIOUS GASES UPON LEAVES.— WARDIAN CASES.

690. In considering further the functions of the leaves, it is of importance to notice the effects produced upon them by different gases. The atmospheric air, with its oxygen, nitrogen, carbonic acid, and ammonia, is the gaseous mixture best fitted for the growth of plants. Certain gases in their unmixed state are poisonous to plants, while others do not seem to produce any deleterious effects further than the retardation of growth caused by the exclusion of atmospheric air. Saussure found that a plant of *Lythrum Salicaria* flourished for five weeks in hydrogen gas, and the Messrs. Gladstone ascertained that nitrogen, oxygen, and nitrous oxide were innocuous.* Plants would not of course continue to be vigorous in such atmospheres, for they would be deprived of the carbon which is necessary for them, and which can only be procured from carbonic acid.†

691. Plants, when exposed to light, will thrive in an atmosphere containing a considerable amount of carbonic acid, but they cease to perform their functions in an atmosphere composed of carbonic acid alone. Daubeny found that Ferns and Lycopodiums, which are the plants most nearly allied to those of the coal epoch, can at the present day exist without injury in an atmosphere containing at least 5 per cent. of carbonic acid, and he thinks that this in some degree supports Brongniart's hypothesis as to the cause of the enormous production of carbon by the plants of that epoch. While plants in bright light can

* Messrs. Gladstone, on the growth of plants in various gases—*Philosophical Magazine*, 1851, 4th series, ii 215.

† Saussure, *Recherches Chimiques sur la Végétation*, 194, 200. *Annales de Chimie et de Physique* xxiv 227

live in an atmosphere containing 5 to 10 per cent. of carbonic acid, Daubeny ascertained that the addition of a larger per centage caused injurious effects. He put five species of plants under a jar containing about 2800 cubic inches of air. To this air one per cent. of carbonic acid gas was at first added, and a daily increase to the same amount in the quantity present was kept up until the proportion reached 20 per cent. This same quantity was then maintained in the jar for 20 days, by successive additions, to compensate for the ascertained amount of leakage; and the appearance of the plants was noted from time to time. It was not till the 13th day that any sensible alteration for the worse was observed. The experiment was, however, continued for 17 days more, with the following results:—

Pteris longifolia. All the old fronds were dead, but the vitality of the rhizome was not destroyed.

Pteris serrulata was slightly damaged.

Nephrodium molle was in the same condition as *Pteris longifolia*.

Gymnogramma chrysophylla had its old fronds slightly damaged, and they were of a yellow colour.

Adiantum cuneatum. All the fronds had died down.

Thus it was proved that this amount of carbonic acid, even when gradually added, would in time prove fatal to plants. That the effect was attributable, not to the diminution in the proportion of oxygen consequent on the addition of a large amount of carbonic acid, but to something positively deleterious in the latter gas itself, was inferred by exposing plants to air impregnated with 20 per cent. of hydrogen, which in the course of 10 days appeared to exert no sensible influence upon their health.*

692. In the atmosphere of towns, more especially those in which chemical and other manufactories exist, there are many gaseous and other matters present which interfere in a marked degree with the growth of plants. Every cultivator knows the difficulty of growing Roses and many valuable garden flowers in such situations. Drs. Turner and Christison were led to examine the influence of gases on plants, on account of having been called upon to give evidence as to the effects of a black-ash manufactory on the vegetation in its neighbourhood.† They found that many gases, even in minute quantity, injured and destroyed the leaves of plants, some of the gases acting as irritant poisons, others as narcotic poisons. The former destroyed the texture of the leaves and altered their colours, while the latter killed the leaves without producing any local effects on the textures. Sulphurous acid gas, which is very commonly met with in the atmosphere of towns was found to be exceedingly deleterious. Where four or even

* Daubeny, on the influence of carbonic acid gas on the health of plants, in Report of British Association for 1849, p. 56, and 1850, p. 159.

† Turner and Christison on the effects of the poisonous gases on vegetables - Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal, xxviii. 356

only 2 cubic inches were introduced, along with a young Mignonette plant, into the air of a glass jar, capable of containing 470 cubic inches, the leaves of the plant became greenish-grey and drooped much in less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours; and, though then taken out and watered, it soon died altogether. The extraordinary destructiveness of the gas is still better exemplified in the following experiment:—"A wide-mouthed bottle, containing a mixture of 6 cubic inches of air, and 25-100ths of a cubic inch of sulphurous acid gas, was fixed mouth uppermost, on a stand 20 inches high; at the bottom stood a young Mignonette plant, a young Laburnum tree 6 inches in height, and a young Larch, which had been transplanted at least five days before and had recently been well watered; and, over the whole was placed and carefully luted to the table, a glass jar 2 feet high, and of the capacity of 2000 cubic inches, so that the proportion of sulphurous acid was nearly a 9000th part. The jar stood in a situation where it was exposed to a bright diffused light, but not to the sunshine." In the course of 48 hours all the plants were evidently affected. The tips of some of the leaves of the Mignonette and Larch were shrivelled, and of a greyish colour, and some of the Laburnum leaves were marked with greyish-yellow spots. After a renewal of the air with the same proportion of the gas, the plants were allowed to remain 48 hours longer in it, and the result was, that the leaves of the Mignonette and Larch were withered, especially at the tips, while those of the Laburnum were affected in a marked degree throughout their whole extent, and the slightest touch caused them to fall off. The effect of the gas in repeated experiments seemed to resemble, in many respects, the ordinary decay of leaves in autumn. In some of the experiments, the proportion of the acid gas was a ten-thousandth only, the quantity being one-fifth of a cubic inch, and yet the destruction of the leaves was complete in 48 hours. This proportion of the gas, although destructive to plants, is hardly, or not at all discoverable by the smell.

693. The effects of other irritant gases on the leaves of plants were also well marked. Thus, muriatic or hydrochloric acid gas in small quantity was very destructive. A fifth part of a cubic inch of the gas was mixed with three inches of air, and placed under a receiver, in the same way as in the experiment with sulphurous acid gas; the plants experimented on being a healthy Laburnum tree, five inches in height, and a small Larch tree. The effects on the Laburnum were evident in the course of nine or ten hours. "In twenty-four hours the leaves had all acquired a dull greyish-green colour and dry appearance, and their edges were crisped and curled." The Larch leaves were wrinkled and dry, especially at the tips. Neither of the plants, however, were killed. All the unfolded leaves were destroyed, but new buds afterwards came out. "This gas must, therefore, be very injurious to vegetable life, when even so small a quantity as a fifth of an inch, although diluted with 10,000 parts of air, destroyed the whole vegetation of a plant of considerable size in less than two

days." In some experiments it was found that one-tenth of a cubic inch in 20,000 volumes of air had nearly the same effects. This minute proportion could not be detected by the smell. Chlorine and nitric acid gas produced similar injurious effects in a more or less marked manner. Vapours proceeding from the chimneys of chemical manufactories take effect through the epidermis of the plant exposed to them. Corn and grasses have a flinty skin, and hence they are not easily acted upon by acid vapour. Corn crops are not likely to be injured by alkali works unless the acidity of the vapour is excessive, or unless they are exposed to it when young and tender. Such is also the case with grass land. Elms, Sycamores, and some other trees suffer little from acid vapours. The reason of this has not been ascertained. Probably their surface is protected by some peculiarity of structure.

694. Acid gases attack first the tips of the leaves and then extend to the stalks, and it is found that when the quantity is not great the parts not attacked generally survive, if the plants are removed into the air. Narcotic gases act very differently. Thus, Drs. Turner and Christison found that $4\frac{1}{2}$ cubic inches of sulphuretted hydrogen in 80 volumes of air, in the course of 24 hours, caused several of the leaves of a plant to hang down perpendicularly from their stalks in a flaccid state, without injuring their colour; and though the plant was then removed into the air, the whole stem soon began to droop, and the plant died. When 6 cubic inches of the gas were mixed with 60 times their volume of air, the leaves began to be affected in 10 hours; they became quite flaccid, but did not appear changed in colour. When the leaves had once drooped the plants did not in any instance recover when removed into the air.

695. The effects produced by ammonia, cyanogen, carbonic oxide, and common coal gas, are in many respects similar to those now described, viz., a drooping of the leaves without alteration of colour, and the death of the plant even though removed into the air. The phenomena, when compared with what was observed in the instances of sulphurous and hydrochloric acid, would appear to establish, in relation to vegetable life, a distinction among the poisonous gases nearly equivalent to the difference existing between the effects of the irritant and narcotic poisons on animals. The gases which rank as irritants in relation to animals seem to act locally on vegetables, destroying first the parts least supplied with moisture. The narcotic gases, including under that term those which act on the nervous system of animals, destroy vegetable life by attacking it throughout the whole plant at once—the former probably only abstracting the moisture of the leaves, the latter acting by some unknown influence on their vitality. The differences now noticed seem to indicate that the injury caused to plants by the air of towns must be owing to some irritant gas, such as sulphurous acid. The plants are rarely killed altogether, they are only blighted for a season, and again renew their leaves in spring.

This repeated injury of the leaves must however tell ultimately on the life of the plants.*

696. The experiments just detailed show the importance of attending to the nature of the atmosphere in which plants grow. The

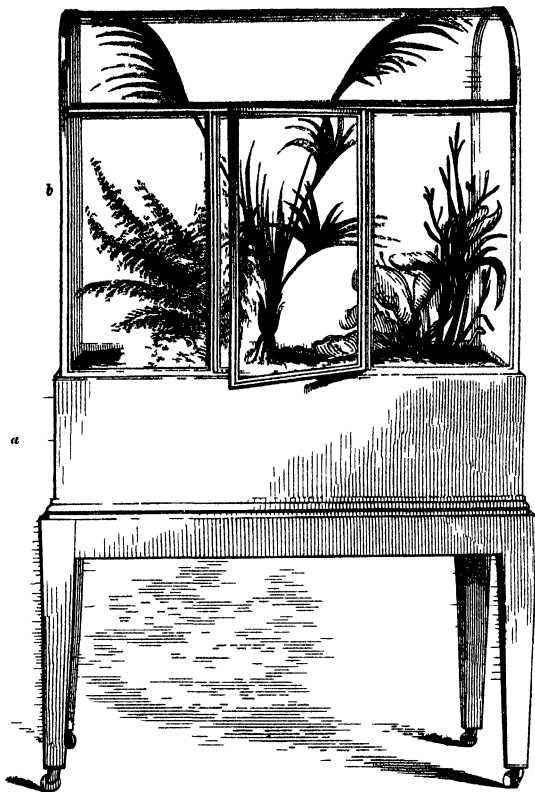


Fig. 1152

blighting effects of the air of large cities are owing to the gases contained in the smoke, and unless means are taken for guarding against

Fig. 1152 A Waidian Case for a drawing room, consisting of a strong wooden box or trough, *a*, supported on a stand, and covered with a glazed frame, *b*. The box is filled with loam, sand, and peat, laid over a layer of gravel and broken bricks. Water is freely poured over the soil at first, and it is allowed to drain off by means of two holes in the bottom of the box, which are subsequently stopped up with corks. After the plants have been put into the soil, the glazed frame, made of wood, zinc, or brass, is fitted on carefully in a groove on the upper part of the box. In the frame there is a glass door for the purpose of allowing the removal of dead leaves, and of permitting air to enter freely when the atmosphere in the Case is too moist. This kind of Case, along with others, is to be seen in the Museum of Economic Botany at the Edinburgh Botanic Garden.

* Experiments of a similar kind were performed by Messrs Gladstone, and reported to the British Association in 1850 and 1851.

these, it is not to be expected that town vegetation can be luxuriant. The common gas used in houses is also prejudicial to vigorous growth, and this combined with the dry atmosphere of rooms is the cause of plants not succeeding well in private dwellings. The transpiration from the leaves in such circumstance is very great, and it is impossible to make the roots take up sufficient moisture to supply the loss. Hence the leaves fall off and the plants become sickly.*

697. With the view of enabling plants to grow in the atmosphere of towns, notwithstanding the fuliginous matter and gases with which



Fig. 1153.

it is loaded, Mr. N. B. Ward invented closely-glazed Cases, in which he succeeded in cultivating tender plants, even in one of the most populous and smoky localities of London. Two of these Cases are represented in Figures 1152 and 1153. Each consists of a strong box or trough, *a*, made of well-seasoned wood, containing earth. The bottom of the box is covered to a moderate depth with gravel and broken bricks, over which the soil is spread, composed of fibrous loam, sand, and peat. The nature of the soil may be varied accord-

ing to circumstances, and the box may be divided into compartments containing soils of different kinds. The soil is well watered, and the superfluous water is allowed to run freely from two holes in the bottom of the box. After draining fully, the holes are tightly closed with corks, and the glazed roof or cover, *b*, is fitted on carefully in a groove round the upper part of the box. This glazed cover may be formed in various ways. It is frequently made of zinc, with large panes of glass, the upper one being curved as in Figure 1152.†

698. Plants from various countries are enabled to thrive in such a Case without interference. In May 1838 Mr. Daniel Ellis‡ constructed, under the direction of Mr. James M'Nab, a Plant-case, of which the following are the dimensions:—Stand 1 foot 10 inches in height, trough or box $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches, cover 1 foot $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches—the total

Fig. 1153. Another form of Wardian Case, prepared by Messrs. Drummond and Son, Canonmills, Edinburgh. It is constructed on the same principle as that in Figure 1152.

* The nitric acid generated in the air during thunder storms may perhaps act injuriously on the leaves of plants, unless its effects are neutralized by the presence of ammonia in the atmosphere.

† A variety of beautiful forms of Cases are given by Mr. Ward in his work on Closed Plant-cases, London, 1852. He gives an account of Fern-Cases, Alpine-Cases, Drawing-room Cases, Spring-flower Cases, Tropical-Cases, Window-Cases, Aquatic-Cases, and Transport-Cases.

‡ A full account of this Case, with drawings, is given in Loudon's Gardener's Magazine, xv. 461. The Case may be seen in the Museum of Economic Botany of the Edin. Botanic Garden

height being thus 4 feet 2 inches, the length 3 feet, and the breadth $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot. The box was made of well seasoned St. Domingo mahogany, the sides being $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, mitred and dovetailed together at the corners. The frame-work of the cover was made of brass, and brass rods extended across the roof for the purpose of suspending plants. Mr. Ellis gives the following statement regarding the growth of plants in this Case after trial of a year, during which no fresh water was given :—

PLANTS IN THE CASE.	Country.	Remarks.
<i>Chamærops humilis</i> . . .	South of Europe	{ Increased $\frac{1}{2}$ its original size
<i>Gentiana verna</i>	Britain	Flowered
<i>Adiantum Capillus Veneris</i>	Britain	Increased $\frac{1}{3}$
<i>Primula farinosa</i>	Britain	Flowered
<i>Primula scotica</i>	Britain	Flowered
<i>Chamærops Palmetto</i> . . .	North America	Increased $\frac{1}{3}$
<i>Dionæa muscipula</i>	North America	Increased $\frac{1}{3}$
<i>Sarracenia purpurea</i> . . .	North America	{ Increased 4 times its original size
<i>Epigæa repens</i>	North America	Increased $\frac{1}{3}$
<i>Aloe retusa</i>	Cape of Good Hope	{ Increased $\frac{1}{3}$, flowering spikes appeared
<i>Testudinaria Elephantipes</i>	Cape of Good Hope	{ Made a shoot 10 inches long
<i>Rhododendron Chrysanthum</i>	Siberia	Increased $\frac{1}{2}$
<i>Cycas revoluta</i>	China	Increased $\frac{1}{3}$
<i>Nepenthes destillatoria</i> . .	Ceylon	Increased $\frac{2}{3}$
<i>Cypripedium venustum</i> . .	Nepaul	Increased $\frac{1}{2}$
<i>Echinocactus multiplex</i> . .	Mexico	Increased $\frac{1}{2}$
<i>Echinocactus peruvianus</i> .	Mexico	Increased $\frac{1}{2}$
<i>Epiphyllum truncatum</i> . . .	Brazil	Increased $\frac{2}{3}$
<i>Cereus flagelliformis</i> . . .	Peru	Increased $\frac{1}{2}$
<i>Lycopodium stoloniferum</i> .	Cuba	Very luxuriant

699. Plants, in these Cases, are enabled to stand great changes of temperature without being injured, and they are protected from noxious matters in the atmosphere, besides having always sufficient moisture. Ferns and Lycopodiums, in an especial manner, succeed in such Cases. Those ferns which require much moisture and shade, such as *Trichomanes radicans*, can be grown successfully. The atmosphere, however, can be varied as regards moisture and dryness, and thus can be suited to different tribes of plants. The Cases are well fitted for rooms or dwelling-houses, inasmuch as they prevent the excessive exhalation which so generally injures plants grown in these circumstances. The windows of a room may be converted by means of double sashes into such Cases, and occasionally Wardian conservatories of large size are thus constructed. Ward has erected one at Clapham, in which he

cultivates Ferns, small Palms, Bamboos, Musas, Cannas, Clerodendrons, Achimenes. Passion-flowers, Manettias, and Aristolochias, cover the pillars and festoon the roof, from which also Orchids are suspended. A tank at the end affords accommodation for aquatic plants; and the whole, as Moore remarks, forms a beautiful miniature tropical forest scene.* An aquatic plant case, or parlour aquarium, has been employed by Mr. Warrington on the Wardian principle.†

700. The Cases have been applied most successfully to the transport of living plants, and many valuable productions have thus been introduced into different countries. Mr. Ward mentions that in June 1833 he filled two Cases with Ferns, Grasses, &c., and sent them to Sydney in safety. "The Cases were refilled at Sydney in February 1834, the thermometer being then between 90° and 100° in the shade. During their voyage to England they encountered very varying temperatures. The thermometer fell to 20° in rounding Cape Horn, and the decks were covered a foot deep with snow. At Rio Janeiro the thermometer rose to 100°, and in crossing the line to 120°. In the month of November, eight months after their departure, they arrived

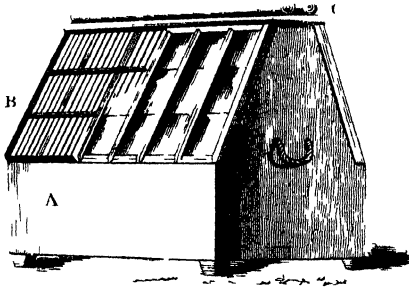


Fig. 1154

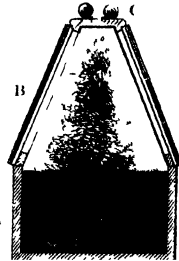


Fig. 1155

in the British Channel, the thermometer being then as low as 46°. The Cases were placed upon deck, and the plants had not been watered during the whole voyage, and yet, on their arrival in Britain, they were in a most healthy and vigorous condition." The transplantation of Coffee, and other plants whose seeds do not long retain vitality, has been effected by this means most successfully. Plants of *Musa Cavendishii* have been introduced into the Navigation Islands with the hap-

Fig 1154 A Wardian Case, designed by Messrs Drummond and Sons Canonmills, fitted for being sent to a distance, consisting of a trough, *a*, supported on feet, containing soil as in the other figures, and a sloping roof, *b*, glazed on both sides with long narrow strips of thick glass. At one side of the glass roof is shown the protective wire grating which is made so as to cover the glass on both sides. The canvas on the rollers, *c*, at the top of the case can be unrolled at pleasure, so as to cover the glass roof.

Fig 1155 A cross section of the same portable Wardian case, showing the form of the roof, *b*, the extent of the soil, *a*, the contained plants, and the rollers *c*.

* A representation of this fern house is given in the *Gardener's Magazine of Botany*, vol. iii 149, 1851.

† The *Gardener's Mag of Botany* January 1852, p. 5 where a drawing is given of the Case.

piest results ; Tea plants have been transported in great numbers from China to India under the direction of Mr. Fortune, and they are now growing vigorously in the Himalayas. Mr. Fortune sent to the Horticultural Society of London a number of these cases filled with plants from China. In the old mode of conveyance, one plant only in a 1000 survived the voyage from China to England, whereas, by the Wardian method, 215 out of 250 arrived in perfect health.* From the Botanic Garden of Edinburgh there was lately sent to India a case containing plants of *Cinchona Calisaya* (true Yellow-bark), Jalap, and Scammony, which the East India Company wished to introduce into their possessions, and the Garden at Madras, under the charge of Dr. Cleghorn, has been supplied with various important plants.

701. The Cases used in such instances are strongly and coarsely made. The glass covering is firmly fixed, and the glass itself is thick, and glazed in pieces of moderate size, so as to avoid the risk of fracture.† A Wardian transport case is represented in Figures 1154 and 1155, in which the glass frame is protected with a grating of iron wire, and in which there are canvas coverings capable of being unrolled, so as to screen from the direct rays of the sun if necessary. The soil should not be less than 8 or 10 inches deep, and the plants should be fairly established in it for some time before it is sent off, the soil being afterwards kept down by cross-bars of wood. The most important matter to be attended to in the transmission of plants in this way is their exposure to light. The moisture supplied at first should be sufficient for the voyage, and unless there is some one on board who understands the cultivation of plants, the cases should never be opened from the time they are shipped until they arrive at their destination. When a person accompanies the cases who is acquainted with their management, then they may be opened, and the plants examined from time to time with the most beneficial results. The stillness of the atmosphere seems to contribute in no small degree to the safety of the plants during vicissitudes of temperature, and the effect of the spray of the sea is prevented by the closeness of the covering. The bottom of the cases should be raised at least six inches from the deck of the vessel, so as to be less liable to injury when the decks are washed.‡

702. When Cases arrive at their destination, the plants should not be rashly exposed by the immediate removal of the glass frame. By attending to this, the plants will be less liable to be injured. It is an error to suppose that no interchange of air takes place between

* Fortune on the Transmission of Living Plants by Sea, in Journ. of Hort. Soc. of Lond. ii. 115.

† London's Encyclopædia of Gardening, edit. 1835, pp. 539, 540.

‡ Mr. Fortune gives the following directions as to the Cases when shipped :—"Do not move them from the poop; never allow them to be opened; should any accident happen to the glass, repair it immediately, either with glass, or, where that cannot be had, with a piece of thin board; in stormy weather, when there is any probability of spray coming over the poop, throw an old sail over the Cases; and lastly, never allow the sailors to throw a drop of water over them when they are washing decks in the morning."

the interior of the Cases and the atmosphere. They are not hermetically sealed, and by the law of diffusion of gases, the smallest chink will allow such an interchange to take place. But it is accomplished slowly, and many of the impurities in the air are prevented from entering the cases. Even in a glass globe hermetically sealed, plants will continue to live for many years, as was proved by an experiment conducted by Dr. Graham in the Botanic Garden of Edinburgh.*

V. COLORATION OF LEAVES.

703. The green colour of leaves depends on the production of chlorophyll (p. 34), which is only developed under the agency of light.† The leaves in the young bud are of a pale yellowish hue, and assume their green tint in proportion as they are exposed to light. The change of colour takes place more or less rapidly, according to the intensity of the light. The leaves of French Beans, which sprung white out of the earth, were observed by Senebier to become green in one hour under exposure to very bright sunshine.‡ Plants, when grown in darkness, have pale leaves, which become green on exposure to light. It is said that an etiolated plant, when exposed to light, becomes green at the end of twenty-four hours, even under water. Diffuse day-light, and even the light of lamps, will cause a green coloration,§ but the intensity of the colour is much less than in full sunshine.||

704. Ellis states that "in North America the operation of light in colouring the leaves of plants is sometimes exhibited on a great scale, and in a very striking manner. Over the vast forests of that country, clouds sometimes spread and continue for many days, so as almost entirely to intercept the light of the sun. In one instance, just about the period of vernalion, the sun had not shone for twenty days, during which time the leaves of the trees had reached nearly their full size, but were of a pale or whitish colour. One forenoon the sun broke forth in full brightness, and the colour of the leaves changed so fast, that by the middle of the afternoon the whole forest, for many

* For full details in regard to Wardian Cases, consult Hooker's Companion to the Botanical Magazine, 1836, i. 317. Ward, on the Growth of Plants in closely Glazed Cases, London, 1862. Ellis, on a Plant-case or Portable Conservatory, in London's Gardener's Magazine, xv. 481. The Gardener's Magazine of Botany, iii. 149, in which a representation is given of a large Case in Mr. Ward's suburban residence at Clapham Rise, a visit to which is recommended to all who wish to see this system of growing plants carrying out to perfection. Report of Growth of Plants in Closed Glass Vessels—Brit. Assoc. Reports for 1837, p. 501.

† Mulder says that chlorophyll is a peculiar body quite distinct from wax or fat, and that it may be decomposed, so as to form substances of a yellow, black, or blue colour. The mixture of these colours gives rise to the varieties of shades of green. Oxidizing and deoxidizing agents decompose chlorophyll, and change its colour.

‡ Senebier, Mem. Physico-Chimiques, ii. 78-91

§ De Candolle, Mem. des Savants Etrangers, i. 334

|| M. Gris states that the soluble protosalts of iron, when absorbed by roots or leaves of plants, give rise to an increased production of chlorophyll. See Comptes Rendus, xxi. p. 1386.

miles in length, exhibited its usual summer dress."* The progress of coloration in an etiolated leaf, when exposed to sunshine, was observed by Senebier. The most tender parts first passed from white to yellow; the yellow then became deeper; next some green spots appeared on different parts, which multiplied, extended, and met, till the whole exhibited a green colour.† Green plants, when placed in darkness, lose their leaves, and if allowed to grow in darkness, they afterwards produce yellow, or rather whitish-yellow leaves.

705. Morot says that chlorophyll is formed from amylaceous matters and ammonia under the influence of light, and that its formation is accompanied with the disengagement of water and oxygen. Leaves do not give out oxygen because they are green, but they do so during the process of becoming green.‡ Ellis attributes the green coloration not to the evolution of oxygen, but to the predominance of alkaline matter consequent on the deoxidation of carbonic acid. Thus he says the decomposition of carbonic acid, under the agency of light, gives rise at once to the evolution of oxygen and the formation of the green colour. Dr. Hope thinks that there exists in leaves a peculiar colorable principle called xanthogen, which affords yellow compounds with alkalis. This substance has the power of forming a green colour by the action of light.§ Etiolated or blanched plants become unhealthy, and they are said in such circumstances to evolve carbonic acid. In the case of Leguminous plants, etiolation is attended with the production of a substance called asparagine or malamide, already noticed (p. 379).

706. Experiments have been made in regard to the effects of the different rays of the spectrum in the production of the green colour of leaves. Senebier ascribed it to the violet rays,|| and Ritter and Wollaston to the chemical or tithonic rays, which are next the violet. Hunt thinks that the blue rays have the greatest effect in producing the green colour.¶ Morren, Daubeny, Draper, and Gardner, say that the yellow rays have the greatest effect in producing chlorophyll, as well as in deoxidation.** These rays have the greatest illuminating power.†† Gardner's experiments were performed by sending rays

* Ellis, on a Plant-case for growing Plants, &c.—London's Mag xv. 494.

† Senebier, *Mém Physico-Chimiques*, ii. 88.

‡ Morot, *sur la Coloration des Végétaux*.—Ann des Sc. Nat. 3d ser Bot. xiii. 160

§ Hope, Observations on the Coloured and Colorable Matters in the Leaves and Flowers of Plants, in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of Edinburgh for 1836, p. 126.

|| Senebier, *Mém. Physico-Chimiques*, ii. 55.

¶ Hunt, on the Chemical Action of the Solar Spectrum—Phil. Mag for 1840, xvi. 272.

** Draper, Chemistry of Plants, p. 61, Phil Mag for 1840, xvi. 81. Daubeny, on the Action of Light upon Plants—Trans. British Assoc for 1833, p. 436, Phil Trans. for 1836, p. 149 Gardner, on the Action of Yellow and of Indigo Light on Plants—Phil. Mag. for 1844, p. 1.

†† It is well known that the different parts of the spectrum vary in illuminating power, and that the yellow has the greatest power in this respect. A fine printed paper, held in succession in the different colours, is legible at very different distances. When held in the yellow it can be seen at a considerable distance, but held in the violet it cannot be read unless it is placed near to the eye. The other coloured spaces of the Newtonian spectrum have been shown by Fraunhofer to possess intermediate illuminating powers.

through a prism. He sowed a great variety of seeds, and allowed them to grow in darkness till they were ready for the experiment. The number of plants exposed to each ray averaged 100. The spectrum was allowed to fall on the specimens at a distance of fifteen feet from the prism, and undecomposed light was shut out by screens. Five jars, containing each about 200 turnip seedlings, were placed respectively in the orange, yellow, blue, indigo, and violet rays, at 9 A.M. on 13th August, the day being bright, and the temperature in the shade at noon being 80° F., in the sun 95°. The duration of sunshine was 6½ hours, and the results at 3½ P.M. were as follow:—

Jar.	Light.	Height of plant at 9 A.M.	Result.	Order.
1	Orange	1 inch	Green	2
2	Yellow	1 "	Full green	1
3	Blue	1¼ "	Slight olive	*
4	Indigo	1 "	Yellow	0
5	Violet	1¼ "	Yellow	0

On August 14 the same plants were used, with the addition of a fresh crop (No. 6) in the green ray. The exposure lasted from 9 A.M. till 3 P.M., or during 6 hours of sunshine. The temperature in the shade at noon was 85° F., and in the sun 105°. The results at 3 P.M. were as follow:—

Jar.	Light.	Height at 9 A.M.	Result.	Order.
1	Orange	2¼ inches	Full green	2
2	Yellow	2¼ "	Perfect green	1
3	Blue	3 "	Slight green	4
4	Indigo	3 "	Yellow	0
5	Violet	3½ "	Yellow	0
6	Green	1 "	Fair green	3

The 5th column in the tables contains a comparative estimate of the depth of colour, assuming unity of the highest value. When the plant did not become green, the value is negative. In the 1st table, opposite the blue, there is no mark in the 5th column, but there was a visible alteration designated olive, indicating the tint which vegetables assume in passing from the yellow colour of darkness to green. The tables also seem to show that the blue and violet rays had the greatest effect in promoting the growth of the plants.*

707. Gardner also gives the following table, showing the active

* This will be noticed when speaking of the germination of the seed.

and inactive rays of the spectrum in producing the green colour of plants :—

Experiment.	Plants.	Hours of Sunshine	Total Time.	Active Rays.				Inactive Rays		
				Red.	Orange	Yellow.	Green.	Blue	Indigo	Violet
1	Turnips	22	109	4	2	1	3	0	0	0
2	Beans	14	95	—	2	1	3	0	—	—
3	Turnips	8	69	4	2	1	3	—	—	—
4	Turnips	23	101	—	—	—	1	0	0	0
5	Turnips	17.5	52	—	2	1	3	4	0	0
6	Turnips	5.5	6	4	2	1	3	0	0	0

The figures indicate the order of the colour in the particular observation, 1 being the highest value. The sign — indicates that the effect of the ray was not tested, or that the result was defective. In the 5th experiment the blue ray produced a green colour, but the usual effect was a light olive. It usually takes many hours of light to develop chlorophyll. Gardner says he has seen it developed in two hours, but it generally took six or more. The experiments indicate that the less refrangible rays are most active in producing the green colour of plants. It is not stated that the blue, indigo, and violet rays will not effect this change in time, but that they are remarkably inactive. The maximum action is in the yellow light, and diminishes on either side. By making light traverse a solution of bichromate of potass, so as to have all the tithonic rays absorbed, it was found that plants still acquired a green colour, so that detithonized light is capable of producing green matter.*

708. The ray which produces green colour in plants, is also said to be that which decomposes carbonic acid.

TABLE showing the force of the Solar Rays in producing the Green Colour of Plants, in decomposing Carbonic Acid, and in Illumination.

Places of Spectrum examined.	Production of Chlorophyll	Decomposition of Carbonic Acid.	Illuminating Power.
Extreme red	0.000	0.0000	0.0000
Commencement of orange	—	.5550	—
Centre of orange777	—	—
Centre of yellow	1.000	1.0000	1.0000
Centre of green583	—	—
Centre of blue100	—	—
End of blue	—	.0027	—

* Yellow substances have a remarkable power of absorbing the chemical or tithonic rays. Photographists find that these rays will not pass through yellow-coloured glass

709. In temperate climates the leaves during the period of their diminished activity exhibit changes of colour which give rise to the yellow, brown, and red autumnal tints. These colours seem to depend on different states of oxidation in the chlorophyll. Hunt thinks that the brown colouring of the autumnal leaves is due to the rays called by Herschell parathermic, which can scarcely be said to have a defined place amid the calorific radiations, but which are usually most strongly manifested in the red rays. A slight tint of green was found to stop these parathermic rays, and on that account glass stained green with oxide of copper has been used in glazing the Palm House at Kew.* Macaire-Prinsep says that the leaves, in assuming a yellow colour, cease to give out oxygen under the influence of light.† He, as well as Ellis, think that the yellow and red tints are due to the production of an acid of some sort. The autumn tints are often very bright. The Plane tree (*Platanus orientalis*), the Hyrcanian Maple (*Acer hyrcanum*), and Balsam Poplar (*Populus balsamifera*), exhibit yellow leaves in autumn; *Acer villosum*, rich nankeen brown; *Quercus tinctoria*, *Cratægus regia*, and *Rhus coriaria*, brown; Persian Oak, *Cratægus coccinea*, *Cratægus punctata*, and *Cratægus obtusata*, red; *Acer circinatum*, *Pyrus depressa*, *P. arbutifolia*, and *P. serotina*, bright crimson; Virginian Creeper (*Ampelopsis hederacea*), deep crimson; *Rhus typhina*, reddish purple. Many Evergreens retain the usual tint of their leaves. The leaves of *Dacrydium cupressinum* have a fine green during summer, they become of a brown colour on the approach of winter, and again resume their green hue in spring.

710. It is of importance to consider in planting what is to be the effect produced in autumn. The tints may thus be well contrasted, and give rise to most beautiful groups. Lindley remarks that *Berberis aquifolium*, with its brown crimson leaves, forms a charming contrast with the ever-verdant sameness of Laurels, Bays, and other Evergreens. The Indian Chitra (*Berberis aristata*), with its dark brown wood, crimson leaves, and scarlet fruit, and a few yellow waving plumes of the French Tamarisk (*Tamarix gallica*), form pleasing groups, especially when contrasted with the hoary branches and apricot-coloured fruit of the *Cratægus odoratissima*. Red Maples, scarlet Oaks, and crimson Sumachs, may be contrasted with yellow Planes and Maples, and with Evergreens.

711. Variegation in leaves is produced either by an alteration in the green chromule or chlorophyll, or by the presence of air in certain foliar cells. Sometimes a single group of cells contains the yellow product of the decomposition of the chlorophyll, as in *Phalaris arundinacea picta*, a variety which appears in a dry soil, and disappears in a wet one; or as in variegated varieties of Holly. At other times

* Hunt, on the chemical action of solar radiations, in Report of Brit. Assoc. 1850, p. 137. On coloured glass employed at Kew—Report of Brit. Assoc. 1847.

† Macaire-Prinsep, Mém. sur la coloration automnale des feuilles—Mém. de la Soc. Phys. et d'Hist. Nat. de Genève, iv. 43.

the epidermis separates itself from the cells lying under it in particular places, and the layer of air lying between these appears like a bright silvery spot, as in *Begonia argyrostigma* and *Carduus Marianus*. Treviranus states that in Monocotyledons the variegations form bands parallel to the veins; in Dicotyledons, such as *Carduus Marianus*, the white is produced in the veins, while in such as *Aucuba japonica*, the yellow spots are distributed without order. He states also that variegation is sometimes visible on the upper surface of the leaves, and not on the under. Variegation, according to Morren, has its seat deeper in the leaf than what is called spotting.* The latter is confined to the cuticle or skin, while the former extends to the parenchyma or cellular tissue below.

712. There are various kinds of variegation; they have been reduced to a tabular form by Morren, of which the following is a brief abstract:—

1. Leaves with a border of white, yellow, pale green, or purple; seen in varieties of Box, Holly, Guelder-Rose, Beech, Chestnut, Cornel, Elm.
2. Leaves having the centre of the leaf white or yellow, the border being green; seen in varieties of Holly, Spindle-tree, Bird Cherry.
3. Leaves with the centre and border green—the one being separated from the other by a white or yellow zone; seen in Snowberry plant (*Symphoricarpos racemosus*).
4. Leaves irregularly marked with white or yellow spots, such as in *Aucuba japonica*.
5. Leaves having the ribs and veins green, and the intermediate cellular tissue or parenchyma white or yellow; this is seen in some varieties of *Aucuba japonica*, Barberry, Manna-Ash, Elder.
6. Leaves having ribs and veins white or yellow, while the intermediate parenchyma is green; seen in varieties of Apple, Elder, Wood-Sorrel, Common Avens, Common Maple.
7. Leaves striped with longitudinal, parallel, or converging bands; this is seen in many Monocotyledons, as Crown Imperial, Lily of the Valley, *Hemerocallis fulva*.
8. Leaves having three or four tints on the upper surface, distributed in the parenchyma between the principal ribs or veins, and following their direction; seen in marbled varieties of Oak, Sycamore, Horse Chestnut, Hawthorn, Cherry, Laurel, Elm, Guelder-Rose.
9. Leaves or leaflets, white, yellow, or red at one side of the midrib, the other green; seen in Lilac, Spindle-tree, Black Birch, *Rhamnus Frangula*, Box, Common Maple, *Viburnum dentatum*.
10. Leaves with the base or the apex only discoloured, as in varieties of *Cornus mascula* and *alba*.
11. Leaves having one or several discoloured transverse bands perpendicular to the direction of the midrib; seen in varieties of *Cornus mascula* and *Viburnum dentatum*.
12. Leaves entirely yellow or White, as in varieties of *Juniperus Sabina*, Common Juniper, Oak, Horse Chestnut, *Thuja orientalis*, *Acer platanoides*.

* *Dodonæa ou Recueil d'observations de Botanique*. See also Sageret sur le moyen de faire naître les végétaux à feuilles panachées—Hort. Belg. 1836, p. 145.

713. These various modes of variegations have been thus classified : 1. Margined and bordered ; 2. discoidal ; 3. zoned ; 4. spotted ; 5. and 6. reticulated ; 7. striped ; 8. marbled ; 9. variegated by half ; 10. variegated at the point ; 11. fasciate ; 12. entirely discoloured or albinism.* The causes of variegation are stated to be disease in the cellular tissue produced by climate and soil, hybridization, fertilization with variously coloured pollen, and grafting.†

VI. IRRITABILITY AND CONTRACTILITY OF LEAVES.

714. Certain leaves display evident movements under the influence of light, heat, and a stimulus either of a mechanical or chemical

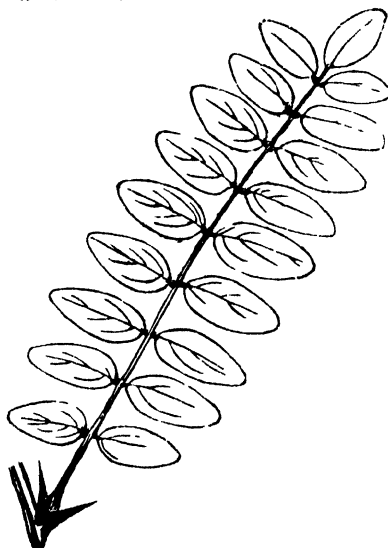


Fig. 1156

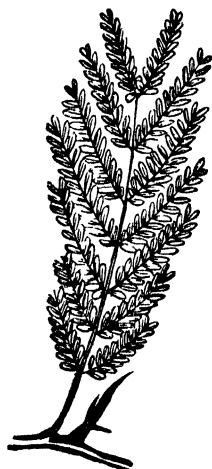


Fig. 1157.

nature. The effects of light and darkness are frequently very marked in causing the elevation and depression of leaf-stalks, and the expansion and folding of leaves. The changes which take place in leaves

Fig. 1156. Compound leaf of *Robinia*, showing an intumescence where the leaf-stalk joins the stem, and swellings at the base of each of the pinnae. The leaflets (pinnae) close during darkness, by folding upwards, so as to bring their upper surfaces into contact. The cellular swellings at the base of the petiole and leaflets seem to be concerned in those hinge-like movements.

Fig. 1157. Compound leaf of *Gleditsia triacanthos*, the leaflets of which close during darkness. Swellings exist at the base of the leaf-stalks and leaflets

* Gardener's Magazine of Botany for 1851, p. 211.

† For further remarks on the colours of leaves, see Macaue-Prinsep, sur la coloration automnale des feuilles—trans in the Edin. New Philosophical Journal, vi. 270. Mohl, sur la coloration hibernale des feuilles—Annales des Sciences Nat. 2d ser. Bot. ix. 212. Morot, Recherches sur la coloration des Végétaux—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xiii. 160.

during darkness were included by Linnæus under what he called the *sleep of plants*. During darkness leaves often hang down, and, in the case of compound leaves (Figs. 1156 and 1157), there is also a folding of the leaflets, either in an upward direction, as in the sensitive *Mimosas*, or downwards, as in *Tephrosia caribæa*. Hoffmann thinks that the sleeping and awakening of leaves are due to temperature, and that light only influences the phenomenon in so far as it contains calorific rays. Plants expand their leaves after the receipt of a certain sum of degrees of temperature.*

715. Very obvious movements occur in the leaves of many species belonging to the natural orders Leguminosæ, Oxalidacæ, and Droseracæ. Among Leguminous plants may be noticed species of *Mimosa*, *Robinia*, *Æschynomene*, *Smithia*, *Desmanthus*, and *Neptunia*; in the family of Oxalidacæ, many species of *Oxalis* exhibit a certain degree of irritability, but it is chiefly observed in the pinnate-leaved *Biophytum sensitivum*; while among Droseracæ the leaves of *Dionæa muscipula* have a remarkable irritability, and those of the species of *Drosera* also exhibit traces of it. In some plants the movements are most marked in the young state.

716. The movements exhibited by the leaves of plants may be divided in the following manner:—†

1. Movements which depend upon the periodical returns of day and night.

Under this head are included the phenomena of the sleeping and waking of plants, which are influenced solely by light and darkness. In general the parts during the night resume, as far as possible, the position which they occupied in the bud, and this the more accurately, the younger and more tender the leaf.

2. Movements, which besides being influenced by light and darkness, are also occasioned by any external or chemical agency, as evidenced by the following sensitive plants:—

<i>Æschynomene indica</i> .	<i>Mimosa pellita</i> .
" " <i>pumila</i> .	" <i>pernambucana</i> .
" " <i>sensitiva</i> .	" <i>pigra</i> .
<i>Averrhoa Bilimbi</i> .	" <i>pudica</i> .
" <i>Carambola</i> .	" <i>quadrivalvis</i> .
<i>Biophytum (Oxalis) sensitivum</i> .	" <i>sensitiva</i> .
<i>Desmanthus lacustris</i> .	" <i>viva</i> .
" " <i>stolonifer</i> .	<i>Neptunia plena</i> .
" " <i>triqueter</i> .	<i>Oxalis Acetosella</i> .
<i>Dionæa muscipula</i> .	" <i>carnosa</i> .
<i>Drosera rotundifolia</i> , and other	" <i>corniculata</i> .
<i>species</i> .	" <i>Deppei</i> .
<i>Mimosa asperata</i> .	" <i>purpurca</i> .
" <i>casta</i> .	" <i>stricta</i> .
" <i>dormiens</i> .	<i>Smithia sensitiva</i> .
" <i>humilis</i> .	

* Hoffmann, Untersuchungen ueber den Pflanzenschlaf; sur le sommeil des Plantes Annales des Sc Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xiv. 310, also Botanical Gazette, iii 62

† Schleiden's Principles of Botany, translated by Lankester, p 51

3. Movements independent, to a certain extent, of external influences, as in some of the leaflets of

Hedysarum cuspidatum.

„ *gyrans*.
„ *gyroides*.

Hedysarum lævigatum.

„ *vespertilionis*.

717. Brignoli, Morren, and others, observed excitability and movements in the ternate and quaternate leaves of several species of *Oxalis* (Fig. 1158), at a high temperature, and in the pinnate leaves of *Biophytum sensitivum*, and of *Averrhoa Carambola*.* In the case of the species of *Oxalis*, when the sun darts its rays at mid-day on these plants, the leaflets are flat and horizontal, and are so placed that their margins are in contact. But if the common petiole is struck gently and repeatedly, or if the whole plant is agitated, at the end of about one minute, provided the heat is great and the sun bright, each leaf-



Fig. 1158.

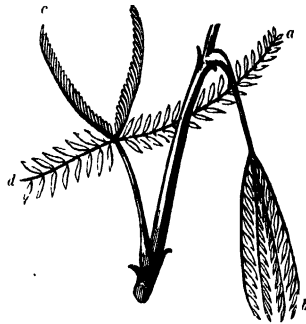


Fig. 1159.

let folds upon itself from below upwards, and subsequently hangs down. The same phenomenon takes place during darkness.

718. In *Mimosa pudica* and *sensitiva*, which usually receive the name of sensitive plants, the motions of the leaves are very conspicuous. They are influenced by light and darkness, and they are exhibited on the slightest touch. In these plants the leaf, as repre-

Fig. 1158. Wood-sorrel (*Oxalis Acetosella*), with its ternate leaves, which are said to display a certain amount of irritability when exposed to bright sunshine. During the night each of the three leaflets, forming the compound leaf, fold on their midrib, and then fall down towards the common petiole. Some say that this plant is the true Irish Shamrock.

Fig. 1159. Branch and leaves of Sensitive plant (*Mimosa pudica*), showing the petiole in its erect state, *a*, and in its depressed state, *b*; also the leaflets closed, *c*, and the leaflets expanded, *d*. At the base of the petiole, a swelling or intumescence (pulvinus) is observed, and smaller swellings exist at the base of each partial petiole, and at the base of each leaflet. During darkness the leafstalks hang down, and the leaflets are closed, while the reverse is the case during light. The cellular swellings at the base of the petioles and leaves are concerned in the movements.

* Morren, sur l'excitabilité et le mouvement des feuilles chez les *Oxalis*, Bulletin de l'Acad. Roy. de Bruxelles, vi.—Annales des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. xiv. 350. Bruce, account of the sensitive qualities of *Averrhoa Carambola*—Phil. Trans. lxxv. 356.

sented in Figure 1159, is a compound bipinnate one, having four partial leafstalks proceeding from a common petiole. The small pinnules or leaflets are expanded horizontally when the plant is in the light and in its natural state, but when it is in darkness, as well as when the leaves are touched or irritated, the pinnules fold upwards, so as to bring their upper surfaces into contact, and at length the petiole is depressed, so that the entire leaf falls down. When the whole leaves are thus folded and depressed the plant appears as if it were withered and dead. When light is introduced, or when the irritation is removed, the leaflets gradually unfold, and the leaf-stalk rises. In the ordinary state of the plant these motions go on daily. If two of the leaflets at the extremity are touched, or are irritated by heat from a lens, or by electricity, without agitating other parts, they fold upwards, and a similar movement takes place in the adjoining leaflets in regular succession from the apex to the base of the petiole. The irritation is also communicated to the neighbouring partial petiole, the leaflets of which fold in a reverse order, namely, from base to apex. The movement may be propagated until the partial petioles converge and fall down; and, finally, the general leafstalk is depressed. If the lower leaflets are first irritated, the foldings take place from the base to the apex of the petiole; if the middle leaflets are touched then the foldings occur on each side.

719. The stem itself seems not to be directly concerned in the motions. It may be injured in various ways without causing contractions to take place. A section may be made of it with a leaf attached, and yet the leaflets may remain expanded. If, however, there is applied to the stem any irritating substance, such as a mineral acid which can be absorbed by the cells, then in process of time the petioles fall and the leaflets fold. Fée states, that the cut leaves of the plant, when placed in water, retain their irritability for several days. Artificial light from six lamps, according to De Candolle, caused the expansion of the leaves. He exposed sensitive plants for several days to the influence of light during the night, and of darkness during the day. In these circumstances, the plants at first opened and shut their leaves irregularly, but at the end of some days they became accustomed to their new position, opening their leaves in the evening (their time of light), and closing them in the morning (their time of darkness). When the plants were exposed to continued light they still exhibited alternations of sleeping and waking, but each of the periods was shorter than usual. When they were kept in continued darkness the alternations of sleeping and waking became very irregular.* M. Zantedeschi, from experiments performed at the Botanic Gardens at Venice, Florence, and Padua, maintains that the lunar rays affect the motions of sensitive plants. He distinctly traced

* De Candolle, *Physiologie Végétale*, ii 800. *Mémoire sur l'influence de la lumière artificielle sur les plantes*—*Mém. de Savans Etrangers*, i 370.

the movements to the influence of the moon's light, and not to the action of heat. The chief plants experimented on were *Mimosa ciliata*, *M. pudica*, and *Desmodium gyrans*. The results, ascertained at the temperature of 70° Fahrenheit, when Saussure's hygrometer indicated a medium state of humidity, were, that the leaf-stalks of *Mimosa ciliata*, under the influence of moonlight, were raised $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch; those of *Mimosa pudica* were raised $1\frac{2}{10}$ inch; whilst the leaflets of *Desmodium gyrans* exhibited distinct vibrations.*

720. The action of the wind, or any general agitation, causes the simultaneous folding and depression of the leaves; but the quick repetition of an irritation exhausts the sensitiveness towards it. It appears that the plants may become accustomed to a weak stimulus. Thus, Desfontaines carried a sensitive plant with him in a coach, the jolting of which caused the leaves to close, but ere long the plant became accustomed to the motion, and the leaves expanded. The more vigorous the plant, and the higher the temperature to which it is exposed, the more sensitive it is. The leaf of the *Mimosa* is sensitive of various kinds of stimuli, such as shaking, wounding, burning, contact of irritating fluids, electric and galvanic shocks. Many chemical stimuli cause the leaves to fold. Thus the vapour of prussic acid, of chloroform, and of ether, is found to produce this effect; and in such cases the irritability of the leaves is either destroyed, or, at all events, a considerable period elapses before it is restored. Marcet says that one or two drops of chloroform placed on the tip of the petiole made it droop, and caused the leaflets to close in succession from apex to base. The influence extended to the other partial petioles and their leaflets. Although the leaflets expanded afterwards, yet they were nearly insensible to the excitement produced by touch. When chloroformed several times they at length lost their contractility.† Professor Simpson found that the vapour of chloroform affected the sensitive plant. If the vapour was either too strong or too long continued, the plant was destroyed. When it was weak, and applied only for a few minutes, the leaflets in some plants closed, as when irritated, and did not expand again for an unusual length of time. In other plants under exposure to chloroform, no closure of the leaflets took place, and in a few minutes the plant became so anæsthetized that the mechanical and other irritations of the leaflets and petiole did not produce the common movements, nor did the irritability become restored for a considerable time afterwards.‡

721. The Yellow-water Sensitive plant (*Neptunia plena*), found in the East and West Indies and in South America, exhibits irrita-

* Comptes Rendus, Oct. 1852.

† Marcet, on the action of chloroform on the Sensitive plant—Edin. New Philosophical Journal, xlv. 293

‡ Edin. New Philos. Journal, xlv. 295.

bility in its petioles and leaflets.* The leaves of Venus's Fly-trap (*Dionæa muscipula*), an American marsh plant, are provided with a jointed blade (Fig. 1160), on each half of which are placed three hairs, with swellings at their base. When these hairs are touched or irritated in any way, the two halves of the leaves close. Flies and other insects are often found enclosed in the leaf, and hence the name given to the plant. It is said that the Sundews (*Drosera*) of our marshes also exhibit a certain degree of contractility, but this has not been distinctly proved. Their leaves (Fig. 1161) are provided with viscid glandular hairs, to which insects are often found adherent, while the leaves are partially folded.

722. In the case of *Hedysarum* (*Desmodium*) *gyrans*, a native of the East Indies, the phenomena of leaf-motions are very remarkable.

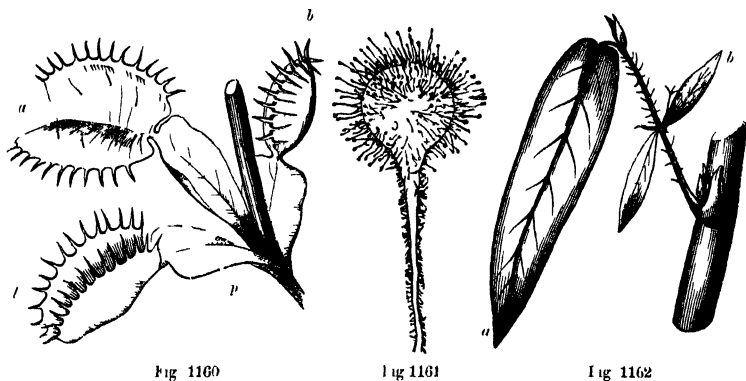


Fig 1160

Fig 1161

Fig 1162

The leaf, as represented in Figure 1162, is unequally pinnate, having a large leaflet or pinna at the extremity of the stalk, and two pairs of

Fig 1160 Leaves of Venus's Fly-trap (*Dionæa muscipula*) which exhibit evident irritability. The leaf consists of two parts, a lamina or blade, *l*, and a petiole or leafstalk, *p*. The two halves of the blade are united by a sort of hinge *a*, and there are on each of them three hairs, which, when touched, cause the folding of the lamina in the way represented at *l* and *b*. At the base of each of the hairs there is a swelling. The irritation seems to be communicated by means of the vessels to the midrib, and the folding is owing to the turgescence of the lower cells of the midrib. The motion is of the nature of a hinge joint.

Fig 1161 Leaf of a species of Sundew (*Drosera rotundifolia*), covered with glandular hairs. These hairs secrete a viscid fluid, which often detains insects. The leaves are sometimes seen partially folded. This folding is supposed to be due to irritability.

Fig 1162 A portion of the branch and leaf of the moving plant of India (*Hedysarum* or *Desmodium gyrans*). The leaf is impari pinnate, and often pinnately-trifoliate. The large odd leaflet, *a*, becomes more or less horizontal, under the influence of light and heat, and is depressed during darkness or cold. Besides the movement of rising and falling, it has also a lateral oscillatory motion, so that it often becomes oblique in its position relative to the leaf-stalk. At its base there is a cellular intumescence. The smaller leaflets, *b*, of which there are either one or two pairs have also swellings at their base. They exhibit constant jerking movements, by which they approach and retire from each other, and these motions go on to a certain extent during darkness.

* Botanical Magazine, Fig 4695, February 1853

small pinnæ placed laterally. The large leaflet exhibits oscillatory lateral movements, as well as the ordinary sleep movements, in an upward and downward direction. During the day it rises and appears to have slow motion from one side to the other, so that it often is seen in an oblique position as regards the stalk; during the night it is depressed and motionless. The little pinnæ, on the other hand, constantly exhibit a jerking motion, by which they first approach to each other, and then retire, the length of time required to complete their movements being about three minutes when the plant is vigorous and exposed to bright light. The leaflets exhibit motions even in darkness, although to a less extent. Other species of *Hedysarum* (p. 494), exhibit similar movements.*

723. The cause of these phenomena is obscure. Some have supposed that they are to be ascribed to the presence of a peculiar nervous system in plants. But there is no evidence of the existence of such a system, and the motions do not require that we should have recourse to such a theoretical explanation. All may be accounted for by changes in the contents of the cells. In some cases cells display evident contractility, so that when touched their fluids exude. This may be observed in the Wild Lettuce (*Lactuca virosa*) when growing vigorously, and it is also supposed to occur in the cells at the base of the stings on the Nettle leaves (Fig. 97, p. 43). In the case of the sensitive *Mimosas*, there are evident cellular swellings at the base of the small leaflets, as well at the base of the petioles, to which allusion has been made at page 133. These swellings, when touched directly, communicate motion to the leaves. They consist apparently of two kinds of cells, some of which display contractility, and others distensibility.† When in their ordinary state these functions are balanced; but when mechanical or chemical stimuli are applied, a change in the cell-contents takes place, accompanied with a derangement of equilibrium. When the swellings at the base of the leaflets are touched gently on the superior surface, then the liquid contents of the upper contractile cells are sent into the distensible inferior ones, and the leaflets fold upwards. This change, however, is not effected by touching cautiously the lower surface of the swellings. Again, in the swelling at the base of the petiole, the reverse is the case, for there the lower cells are contractile, and the upper distensible, and the movement caused is in a downward direction. Touching the upper side of the intumescence at the base of the petioles does not give rise to the movement. If a portion of the lower side of the swelling is removed, then the balance between its resistance and the expansive tendency of the cells on the upper side is destroyed, and the petioles remain depressed, according to Dutrochet. Any irritation applied to one part of the leaf is propagated by means of the vascular system to another

* Nuttall, *Genera of North American Plants*, n. 110.

† Dutrochet, *sur la structure intime des Animaux et Végétaux*, 1824

part, and more especially it is communicated to the distensible portion of the cellular swellings just mentioned.

724. In the day time, and under the influence of light, according to Fée, the fluids drawn to the surface of the plant are kept in equilibrium by rhythmical evaporation. There is a constant renewal of fluids to supply those which have been transpired. A blow or wound, or the application of cold, interrupts the equilibrium, the circulation is deranged, and liquids pass quickly from the cells into the vessels, and thus cause distension. During the night the sap is feebly drawn to the surface, and thus a change takes place in the relative contents of the different cells and vessels.* The phenomena are thus referred to changes in the fluid contents of the cells and vessels caused by certain vital actions. Mohl refers the movements partly to the distension of the cells, and partly to different states of tension in the tissues, and he considers the movement of irritability as not identical with the sleep movement. He says that the articulations are composed of numerous parenchymatous cells containing chlorophyll, each also exhibiting in its interior a larger or smaller globular mass of a substance strongly refracting light. The parenchymatous tissue, he says, exhibits a considerable distension. If a flat portion is cut longitudinally out of the middle of the joint, and afterwards this portion is cut lengthways into thin strips, the cellular tissue forming the sides of the strips immediately expand about one-fifth longitudinally, while the vascular bundle in the middle continues as before. Hence, he says, the vascular bundle appears to be too short in proportion to the turgescient mass of cellular tissue of the articulation, while the latter is compressed in the direction of the longitudinal axis in the uninjured part. In the ordinary state of the plant, the expansion of the cellular tissue of the upper side of the articulation maintains the equilibrium with the cellular tissue forming the under side, and thus curvation is prevented. But if the cellular tissue is cut away down to the central vascular bundle on the upper side of the articulation of a leaf still attached to the plant, the cellular tissue of the lower side having now lost its antagonist can pursue its expansion, and the leaf becomes at once pressed upwards at a sharp angle—the reverse occurring when the cellular tissue of the under side is removed.†

725. In the case of *Hedysarum gyrans* and other species, the movements are probably referrible to changes in the contents of the cells and vessels, not directly induced by mechanical irritation, and only partially influenced by the stimulus of light and heat. In Venus's Fly trap (*Dionæa muscipula*) the irritation of the hairs is apparently communicated by means of vessels to the cells between the two halves

* Fée, *Mémoire Physiol. et organog. sur la Sensitive et les plantes dites sommeillantes*—*Comptes Rendus*, 1846, xxiii. 602.

† Mohl, on the *Anatomy and Physiology of the Vegetable Cell*, translated by Henfrey, p 152

of the leaf-blades, in such a way that distension takes place in the lower cells, and thus the leaves close. The object of these various movements is not known.*

VII. DEFOLIATION, OR THE FALL OF THE LEAF.

726. Leaves continue to perform their active functions for a certain length of time, and are then replaced by others. In temperate climates these functions go on vigorously during spring and summer, but towards the end of autumn they become languid. In the ordinary trees of this country the leaves fall off during winter, a latent bud having originated in their axil whence new leaves arise in spring. In warm climates the dry season often causes a similar exuviation of the leaves. This is observed in the Brazilian forests called Caatingas. The times of the appearance and of the fall of the leaves vary in different countries, and from them may be deduced conclusions as to the nature of the seasons.

727. The periods of leafing (foliation or frondescence), and of the fall of the leaf (defoliation), are taken into account in determining the climate of different countries, and of different parts of the same country. In Britain, while some plants, such as the Honeysuckle and Gooseberry, put forth their leaves in February and March, others, such as the Oak and Ash, do not show leaves till May. The following are the statements by Berghaus as to the periods of foliation :—

Beech unfolds its leaves at Naples	in end of March.
„	in England on 1st May.
„	at Upsal beginning of May.
Foliation of Elder at Naples	1-18th January.
„	at Paris about 14th February.
„	in England about 8th March.
„	at Upsal 1-8th March.
Lilac unfolds its leaves near Naples	first half of May.
„	near Paris about 12th March.
„	at Upsal beginning of March.
Foliation of Oak takes place at Naples	beginning of April.
„	at Paris in May.
„	in England 26th April.
„	at Upsal during first days of May.

Defoliation also occurs at definite periods of the year.†

* For further remarks on this subject, see Carpenter's Principles of Physiology, general and comparative, p. 991 De Candolle, Physiologie Végétale, n. 853. Dutrochet, du reveil et du sommeil des plantes—Annales des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. vi. 177. Miquel et Meyen sur l'irritabilité du Mimosa Sensitiva—Annales des Sc. Nat. 2d ser Bot. xiii. 318. Virey, quelques considerations nouvelles sur l'acidité dans les plantes irritables—Journ. de Pharmacie, 1839, p. 289.

† Berghaus, on the Epochs of Vegetation, in Edm. New Phil Journal for 1841, xxx. 182.

728. The following table by Quetelet and Hartmann shows the periods of foliation and defoliation in different parts of Europe in the year 1841 :—*

NAMES OF PLANTS	APPEARANCE OF LEAVES.				FALL OF THE LEAVES	
	Gefle.	Brussels.	Lyons.	Ghent	Brussels	Ghent.
<i>Æsculus Hippocastanum</i> , Horse Chestnut	May 15	..	Mar. 29	...	Oct. 25-30	Oct. 21
<i>Acer Pseudo-platanus</i> , Sycamore	...	April 23	...	March 27	Oct. 25-30	...
<i>Vitis vinifera</i> , Vine	...	April 23	Nov. 10-15	...
<i>Tilia europæa</i> , Lime-tree	May 21	March 26	...	March 24	Oct. 20-25	Sept. 12
<i>Juglans regia</i> , Walnut	...	April 27	...	April 25	...	Oct. 3
<i>Prunus Cerasus</i> , Cherry	...	March 27	Oct. 27
<i>Pyrus Malus</i> , Apple	...	March 24	..	March 17	Nov. 1-5	Oct. 29
<i>Pyrus Aucuparia</i> , Mountain Ash	May 12
<i>Ribes Grossularia</i> , Gooseberry	...	March 12	Mar. 17	March 14
<i>Ribes rubrum</i> , Red Currant	...	March 18	Mar. 20	March 17
<i>Sambucus nigra</i> , Elder	...	March 18	Mar. 15	March 14	Nov. 5-10	Oct. 24
<i>Syringa vulgaris</i> , Lilac	...	March 12	Mar. 15	March 14	Nov. 5-10	Oct. 24
<i>Fraxinus excelsior</i> , Ash	May 25
<i>Daphne Mezereum</i> , Mezereon	May 3	March 16	Mar. 24
<i>Ulmus campestris</i> , Elm	May 22	March 29	..	March 26	Nov. 1-5	Oct. 31
<i>Salix babylonica</i> , Weeping Willow	...	March 17	Mar. 24	March 17	Nov. 15-20	...
<i>Populus fastigiata</i> , Italian Poplar	...	April 1	Oct. 20-25	Sept. 24
<i>Populus tremula</i> , Aspen	May 19
<i>Corylus Avellana</i> , Hazel	May 16	March 24	Mar. 25	March 18	...	Oct. 27
<i>Quercus Robur</i> , Oak	...	April 28	Nov. 10-15	...
<i>Betula alba</i> , Birch	May 14	March 27	Nov. 1-5	...
<i>Alnus glutinosa</i> , Alder	May 20

By keeping a register of the periods of foliation and defoliation, an accurate estimate may be formed of the state of the climate in different years. This subject has engaged the attention of the British Association, and tables have been prepared for the purpose of obtaining the results of such periodical phenomena.†

729. The fall of the leaf has not received the attention it deserves from physiologists. The reason frequently given for this phenomenon is the choking up of the cells and vessels of the leaf by deposit of earthy and saline matters, in consequence of the process of absorption in autumn not keeping pace with the exhalation of watery fluid. There is no doubt that mineral substances do accumulate in the leaves

* Grisebach, Report on the progress of Geographical Botany, in Roy Society's Reports for 1840, p 321

† British Association Report for 1850, p 336

in autumn, but there seems to be no proof that this is the sole cause of their fall. When autumn approaches, it is found that a gradual separation takes place between the leaf-stalk and the stem or the axis to which it is attached. This is not a mere accidental occurrence, but is a process for which regular provision is made, as has been explained by Dr. Inman.* He found that even when the shoots of a tree are young and vigorous in early spring, there is a faint line visible externally in many instances which marks the place where the separation is to take place (Fig. 1147, p. 452, *f*, *c*). The line of demarcation only extends for a short way inwards at this time, and the leaves, when pulled off, take some of the bark along with them, in consequence of the joint not being complete. As the season advances the line of division extends more deeply; cells containing crystals are developed in considerable quantity, and iodine shows by the blue colour the presence of starch, which could not be detected in the young state of the joint. A cellular process of bark dips inwards, "reaches the fibro-vascular bundles, where it receives a slight check, but soon continues its progress until these are nearly absorbed, and the prolongation of the epidermis has entirely covered the surface of the joint or articulation." The fall of the leaf does not, therefore, arise simply from the cold of winter and other vicissitudes, but is a regular process of disjunction which goes on from the time the leaf-stalk is fully formed until the leaf has ceased to perform its functions.

730. In cold climates various causes operate in causing defoliation. As the light and heat diminish there is a cessation of the functions of cells and vessels, evaporation takes place from the surface, inorganic matters accumulate in the tissues, the leaf becomes dry, its attachment to the stem is loosened, and then it either falls by its own weight, or is detached by external agencies of different kinds. Dr. Fleming† states, that winter is not the immediate cause of defoliation. Many leaves fall before the approach of winter, others perish in spring. He divides trees in reference to the duration of their leaves into three classes:—1. Those in which the leaves cease to perform their functions when the bud is complete. 2. Those in which the leaves continue to perform their functions until new ones appear the following season. 3. Those in which the leaves continue to perform their functions for several years.

731. The leaves of the first class are *deciduous*, and they seem to be connected with the ripening of the bud. When this takes place, these leaves change their colour and perish. In Willows, even in midsummer, many of the branches become naked from the fall of such leaves. In trees having two evolutions of buds in the season, as the Beech, the leaves produced in spring fall sooner than those which are developed on the summer shoots. When leaves fall off early, the bark

* Inman, on the causes which determine the fall of leaves—Proceed of the Lit and Phil. Soc. of Liverpool for 1848, No. iv. p. 89.

† Fleming on the Temperature of the Seasons, p. 86.

in its young and green state may be considered as occupying their place, and performing their functions. In many leafless plants, as Cactuses, the green branches perform the functions of leaves. This is also the case with the green frond or stalks of Liverworts and other Cryptogamic plants. Leaves of the second class Dr. Fleming calls *annual*. These continue till new leaves are produced, and are cast off in the order of their development. In Evergreen trees and shrubs the leaves of one season continue their functions until those of the next season are produced. Thus, although the plants have always leaves on their branches, there are a certain number which fall off annually, but the shoots are not left bare. The leaves of the plants of this class appear, therefore, to exercise a greater influence, in the economy of vegetation, than those connected with the first. Here the plant requires the aid of leaves at all times—no other organs, in ordinary cases, appearing to be capable of exercising their functions, or acting as a substitute. The leaves of the third class Dr. Fleming calls *persistent*. Their duration does not seem to be regulated by the perfection of the bud, nor by the development of new leaves. They continue their functions for several years. This is the case with ordinary Evergreen Firs. In these plants the leaves of various years seem to be required for the complete formation of the stem and its secretions. On the same tree, may be seen leaves two, three, or more years old.

732. In trees with persistent leaves defoliation is very irregular. Occasionally the leaves perish in the order of their production, but at other times those of a few years old may be changing colour or falling off, while those many years old may be vigorous. The leaves of *Arancaria imbricata* in Britain do not exhibit symptoms of decay; the tree does not seem to defoliate, and hence the leaves are truly persistent. The disjunction between the leaf and the stem of a plant is effected at the time when the leaves are no longer required for its growth, and the part where the leaf was attached is marked by a scar in which the bundles of vessels are regularly arranged as in the leaf or leafstalk. The scar varies in its form and appearance in different plants, and hence it may be used as a means of distinction. In fossil botany the scars of the leaves are of importance in determining *Stigmarias*, *Lepidodendrons*, *Sigillarias*, and Ferns.

733. The sap absorbed by the roots, and which contains various inorganic matters in solution, reaches the leaves, and is thus exposed to air and light. There is a large transpiration of watery fluid, and the inorganic matters not required for the organism and secretions of the plant are stored up in the leaves, forming at times incrustations on the walls of the cells. The quantity of ash left after burning leaves varies at different periods of the plant's growth. Vernal leaves contain a small amount of ash, while autumnal ones leave a large quantity when burned. The latter contain from 10 to 30 times more ashes than the wood of the same plant. Thus the—

Dried leaves of Elm yielded 11		per cent of ashes.	
Wood of do.	2	”	”
Dried leaves of Willow ”	8	”	”
Wood of do.	0.45	”	”
Dried leaves of Beech ”	6.69	”	”
Wood of do.	0.36	”	”
Dried leaves of Oak ”	4.05	”	”
Wood of do.	0.21	”	”
Dried leaves of Pitch Pine	3.15	”	”
Wood of do.	0.25	”	”

Leaves thus contain a large amount of ash, which consists of various salts of lime and potash, &c. Hence, when they fall, they return important substances to the soil. The use of leaf-mould as a manure, depends in part on this circumstance. Fallen leaves in place of being swept away as useless ought to be carefully incorporated with the soil, and thus the mineral matters which were not required for this year's growth, when dissolved and diffused in the soil, serve for the nourishment of the plant next season.*

734. Recapitulation of the principal facts connected with the physiology of leaves :—

1. Fluid matters absorbed by the roots are carried up through the stem to the leaves, in which they are exposed to the influence of air and light.
2. The spiral arrangement of leaves on the stem is calculated to promote full exposure to these influences.
3. Leaves absorb liquids and gases of different kinds, more especially water, carbonic acid, and ammonia.
4. This absorption is modified by the nature of the cuticle as regards its texture, its hairiness, and the number of its stomata.
5. When the cuticle is of a corky or waxy nature it resists absorption.
6. Absorption in ordinary leaves takes place most rapidly by the under surface, where the stomata are most abundant.
7. In the leaves of aquatic plants, especially those which are submerged, absorption takes place through every part of the leaf.
8. Leaves exhale watery fluids by a process of transpiration.
9. This function seems to be especially influenced by light, and differs from ordinary evaporation.
10. Transpiration is modified by the structure of the leaves, by the nature of the epidermis as regards density and hairiness, and by the number of stomata.
11. Transpiration in ordinary aerial leaves is usually greatest on the under surface.
12. The quantity of watery fluid exhaled varies in different instances.
13. In some plants there is, during a certain period of their growth, a constant dropping of water from the sides and extremities of the leaves.
14. The fluids exhaled and secreted by leaves are sometimes deposited in pitcher-like apparatuses.
15. Transpiration is connected with important processes going on in the cells and vessels of plants; it also has a marked effect on the nature of the climate of a country, as seen in the case of wooded countries.

* For additional remarks on defoliation, consult Giordano, *Cenno sulla decolorazione e caduta delle foglie in autunno*, Torino, 1835. Vaucher, *Mémoire sur la chute des feuilles*, Genève, 1828. Vrolik, *de Defoliatione Vegetabilium*, Lugd. Bat. 1796.

16. Leaves exhale gaseous matters in large quantity.
17. The carbonic acid absorbed by leaves, as well as that taken up by the roots and carried to the leaves, is decomposed under the influence of light, and while its carbon is retained for the nourishment of the plant, its oxygen is given off.
18. By this deoxidating or decarbonizing process, leaves keep up the purity of the atmosphere, and counteract the effects of animal respiration and combustion, which are essentially processes of oxidation.
19. During darkness this function of deoxidation ceases more or less completely.
20. Some authors state that during darkness an absorption of oxygen takes place, and an evolution of carbonic acid by an exosmotic process.
21. Other authors maintain that an evolution of carbonic acid always takes place both by day and by night, and that this is true vegetable respiration, and that during the day the carbonic acid is decomposed more or less completely, and oxygen given off by a process of digestion.
22. The leaves of aquatic plants have a great power of decomposing carbonic acid, and of exhaling oxygen.
23. The effect of light in decomposing carbonic acid depends on its illuminating power, and the phenomenon is found to proceed most vigorously in the yellow rays.
24. The evolution of nitrogen by the leaves of some plants is still a matter of doubt.
25. Plants in a decaying or diseased state, etiolated plants, as well as certain brown and pale-coloured plants, are said to exhale carbonic acid.
26. Leaves elaborate various important secretions, under the agency of air and light.
27. The formation of good timber depends on the full exposure of the leaves, and hence in crowded plantations woody matter is not properly developed; the early and judicious thinning of forests is of great importance in the production of timber.
28. The leaves of plants grown in darkness do not form woody matter; such plants become blanched, cells and thin-walled vessels alone are produced, and hence they are delicate and tender.
29. Certain gases act prejudicially as regards leaves, either by depriving them of atmospheric air, or by poisoning them.
30. Plants do not thrive in an atmosphere of pure hydrogen or nitrogen.
31. Although the leaves of plants can decompose carbonic acid, yet plants are killed by being grown in this gas without a proper admixture of atmospheric air.
32. Certain gases, as hydrochloric and sulphurous acid gas, destroy leaves by their irritant local action, but unless their action is long continued, the plants may still live, and push forth new leaves. These gases act injuriously in very minute quantity.
33. Other gases, such as sulphuretted hydrogen gas, destroy leaves by a general narcotic action, which affects the whole plant, and causes its death. These gases also act injuriously in very minute quantity.
34. The atmosphere of towns contains fuliginous matter and many gases which are injurious to plants; and this is more especially the case in towns where chemical manufactories exist.
35. Closed glass cases, called Wardian Cases, are well fitted for the growth of plants in such localities, by preventing the effect of noxious vapours. They are also suited for rooms in which the atmosphere is dry, and they are especially useful for transporting living plants to a distance.
36. The green colour of leaves depends on their exposure to light, especially to the yellow rays, which are the most illuminating rays of the spectrum.
37. Leaves grown in darkness become etiolated or blanched, and exhibit a pale yellowish colour.
38. Leaves assume yellow and red tints in autumn, owing to the oxidation of their juices. Trees may be so planted as to give beautiful contrasts in their autumnal tints.
39. Variegation in leaves is produced by an alteration in the chlorophyll of particular cells, or by the presence of air in some of the cells.

40. During darkness the leaves of many plants are folded and depressed. This was called by Linnæus the sleep of plants.
41. Certain leaves display peculiar irritability and contractility, and they are hence called sensitive.
42. These phenomena are traceable to a change in the contents of the cells and vessels, which give rise to distension and contraction. They are connected with peculiar cellular swellings at the base of the leaf-stalks and leaves.
43. The movements of these irritable leaves are of a hinge nature, and they are caused by various mechanical and chemical stimuli.
44. An irritation applied to one part of sensitive leaves is propagated frequently to other parts in succession.
45. The defoliation or fall of the leaf is caused by diminution in light and heat, cessation of the function of cells and vessels, accumulation of inorganic matter in the tissues, and the gradual formation of a division at the base of the stalk.
46. Some leaves fall after the bud is complete, others continue to live till new leaves appear, while a third set remain for several years before they fall.
47. The periods of foliation (*frondescence*) and of defoliation give indications as to the nature of the seasons.
48. Leaves contain a large quantity of inorganic matter, and when they fall they restore it to the soil.

CHAPTER VII.

GENERAL CIRCULATION OR MOVEMENT OF THE SAP.

735. Plants are not provided with a circulating system like that of animals, and they do not exhibit movements of fluids to and from a common centre. Although, says Hales, they have not an organ like the heart, by the alternate dilatation and contraction of which fluids are forced through a series of anastomosing tubes, yet has nature wonderfully contrived other means most powerfully to raise and keep in motion the sap. Liquids are diffused throughout the whole plant by the action of cells and vessels having a different chemical constitution and different functions. One cell takes the juice from another, and acts by diffusion on the others. The cells of the rootlets imbibe by endosmose fluid matters which are carried into the stem, and the cells of the leaves, by their exhaling functions, aid in promoting a general movement of sap throughout the whole system.

736. It is not easy to make experiments on the motion and course of the sap, both on account of the minuteness of the vegetable tissues, and the unavoidable injury which must be inflicted on them in any attempt to observe these living actions under the microscope. We cannot, as in animals, put ligatures on vessels, nor by an injecting apparatus send coloured matters into them. Endeavours, however, have been made to trace the course of the sap by causing the roots to absorb solutions of substances which can be easily detected by chemical reagents at different parts of their progress. Thus a weak solution of acetate of lead has been employed, which can be detected by iodine, sulphuretted hydrogen, and other tests; also a solution of ferrocyanuret of potassium, which can be tested by chloride of iron, or by sulphate of the peroxide of iron. The last has been used recently by Hoffmann* in his experiments, and he finds the blue colour produced by the action of salts of iron on the ferrocyanuret a good means of tracing the course of the sap. As the Prussian blue thus formed is insoluble in water, a little care in dissecting enables us to avoid the spreading of the colour to unaffected parts.

737. It may be remarked in general, in regard to these experi-

* Hoffmann, on the Circulation of Sap in Plants, in *Botan Zeitung*, vi and viii. translated in *Scientific Memoirs, Nat. History*, part i. Nov 1852.

ments, that very different results followed, according as the absorption took place by the uninjured roots, or by the cut surfaces of plants. In the latter instance, the fluids were found in vessels which they did not enter in the former case. In cellular plants the sap seems to move through all parts, and is not confined to any definite set of cells. In vascular plants, it appears in general that the sap enters the cells and woody vessels (and perhaps the intercellular spaces); and that the spiral vessels and those allied to them, such as annular and scalariform vessels, very generally contain air when the sap enters slowly. But when there is a rapid movement of sap either from the root upwards or from the leaves downwards, especially in Dicotyledons, then the spiral vessels take up fluids as well as air. It seems probable that the spiral vessels and their allies are receptacles for gaseous matter formed in the course of the movement of the sap.

738. In truly cellular plants, as Fungi, the course of the circulation has no accurately fixed boundaries, and presents no anatomical peculiarities. The fluid is found to proceed both forwards and laterally in the cells and intercellular spaces, proceeding most rapidly in those parts where the tissue is most lax. In plants such as Lichens, where the tissue is dense, and in which there is not much fluid, the sap passes with great slowness between and through the cells. In the case of mosses possessing leaves, the fluid was found to pass through the stem and fruit-stalk, and in the leaves it moved most rapidly in a peculiar layer of cells along the margin of the leaves, and not in the midrib. Probably the condensed cells and vessels of the midrib are concerned in the conduction of fluids from the leaves in a downward direction.

739. In Ferns, it was observed that the scalariform vessels and closed spirals contained air, and that they did not take up any of the solution of the ferrocyanide. If the petiole of the frond is cut across and inserted in the solution, then the latter passes into the scalariform vessels, driving out the air. The leaf of the Fern, when dipped in the liquid, absorbs it, but it does not pass into the scalariform vessels. In Ferns there did not appear to Hoffmann to be any path for descending juices, and this is probably connected with their mode of growth, which is by additions to their summit (acrogens). The streaked vessels in Ferns seem to be destined exclusively for gaseous matters, while the fluids absorbed from the earth first ascend within the loose cellular tissue in the vicinity of those vessels, and are from them diffused throughout the remainder of the tissues after suitable elaboration.

740. In Monocotyledons the solution of the ferrocyanide ascended chiefly through the elongated cells surrounding the spiral vessels, and the latter contained, in ordinary circumstances, air in their interior. That the spiral vessels of Monocotyledons contain air was proved by Hoffmann, not merely by finding that they never exhibited the blue colour in their interior, but also by the following experiment:—If a stem of *Dioscorea bulbifera*, held the wrong end upwards, is cut across, and the wound immediately dipped in a drop of thick solution of gum,

there is no difficulty in seeing bubbles of air emerge slowly from the spiral vessels and inflate the dense fluid, when the stem is squeezed from the root upwards towards the wound. In certain instances, however, when there is a large mass of fluid passing rapidly through the stem, the air in the spirals may to a certain extent be displaced. This, however, may be looked upon as an accidental occurrence, and not as the normal state of the vessels.*

741. In the case of dead scales of Monocotyledonous bulbs, the fluid was imbibed by all parts of the tissue, by the spirals as well as other vessels, and by the cells. This points out the difference between living and dead tissue. In fleshy Monocotyledons, such as *Aloe picta*, the movement of sap seems to be very slow. When watered with a solution of the ferrocyanide, no absorption was observed after five weeks. The absence of absorption after a stated period Hoffmann says is the less remarkable, since these plants can remain for seven months of every year in a dry part of a conservatory without even being watered, therefore without requiring any other liquid than that which they receive through evaporation when other plants are watered.

742. In regard to the course of the sap in Dicotyledons, numerous experiments have been made. Walker, Burnett, and others made incisions into the bark and wood of trees in spring and summer, and marked the points where the sap made its appearance. In this way they endeavoured to trace the course of the fluids in the stem. Walker concludes, from his experiments, that the spring sap begins to flow at the root, that it ascends slowly upwards, and bleeds successively as it ascends to the very extremity of the tree; that there is no descent of sap until after the development of the leaves.† Burnett cut notches in the trunks of various trees in spring, at different heights in each tree, from one to six feet from the ground; and in every instance the sap was seen distinctly exuding from the lowest side of the lowest section first, and progressively rising to the others day by day. The chief current was axial in the first instance, and afterwards the sap entered the branches. To the progress of the sap in the direction of the axis he attributes the early development and vigour of terminal buds.‡ Mohl states that when a ring of bark is taken off, the flow of the sap to the parts above it is not interrupted; but if a portion of the wood is carefully removed without injury to the bark covering it, then the portion of the plant above the wound dries up at once.§

743. Hoffmann bored holes in the stems of trees, such as the Sycamore, and inserted quills with the inner ends cut off obliquely,

* The tuber of *Anomatheca cruenta*, one of the Iridaceæ, is recommended by Hoffmann for experiment, as in it the spiral vessels, parenchyma, elongated vessels, and bark cells are distinct, and widely separated from each other.

† Walker's Experiments on the Motion of Sap in Trees, in *Trans. Royal Soc. Edin.* i. 8.

‡ Burnett, on the Development of the several Organic Systems of Vegetables, in *Journal of the Royal Institution*, vol. i.

§ Mohl, on the Vegetable Cell, translated by Henfrey, p. 71.

and the orifices looking upwards—the quills being cemented in their place. In this way he made experiments with the spring sap, by inserting the roots of plants in a solution of the ferrocyanuret of potassium, and testing the fluid at different heights as it was discharged in drops from the quills. He found that the exudation of the sap in spring occurred obviously earlier in the lower than in the upper part of the stem, and that the ascent of the fluid was confined to that side of the stem which corresponded to the absorbing root.

744. In spring, it appears that the sap, as it increases in quantity, besides filling the cells and vessels of the wood, also enters the spiral vessels. This is the time when the plant bleeds freely on being wounded. As the leaves expand, transpiration of fluids takes place, and then the spiral vessels contain air. In some climbing plants, this state of fulness in the spirals, as well as in the wood, continues permanently.* After the leaves expand, in ordinary trees the conduction of sap takes place through the newer woody vessels and cells, and not through the fibro-vascular tissue. The circulation of the sap during summer, when the leaves are most active, differs from that in spring, in the circumstance that the trees do not bleed when wounded. In summer, as in spring, there exists a rapid ascent of crude sap; but in addition to this, there is a descent of the elaborated fluids from the leaves to all parts of the plant. Hoffmann states that there is also a descent of unelaborated fluids after every shower of rain.

745. Some authors believe that the chief channels by which the sap ascends are the intercellular canals,† which are more or less continuous from one end of the plant to the other, and that from them it passes to the other parts, each cell and vessel taking from the general circulation what is required for its growth and nutrition. In this view the cells and vessels would be regarded as secreting organs, acting in various ways on the general mass of crude sap, and separating from it by a chemico-vital action different liquid and gaseous matters.‡ The recent experiments of Hoffmann do not support this theory of sap movement, and the general opinion of physiologists appears to be that in its upward progress the sap passes through the newer plectenchyma, as well as through the intercellular spaces, until it reaches the leaves, where it is elaborated. The different layers of wood convey sap in different quantity, the youngest being those chiefly concerned in the process. The conveyance of sap is not carried on by the old layers of wood when they become hardened by deposits. Hence trees, with a large amount of hard wood, and a moderate quantity of sap wood, dry readily, while trees, like the Birch, with a large quantity of alburnum, have sap movements even in the central layers of wood.

* Gaudichaud, sur l'Ascension de la Sève dans une Liane (*Cissus Thythophora*), in *Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. Bot. v. 138. This plant was found by Gaudichaud to contain a large quantity of sap, which poured out freely when the stem was cut.

† Ramey, experimental inquiry into the cause of the ascent and descent of the sap, London, 1847.

‡ This view was advocated by the late Mr. James Tuttle, a zealous botanical student.

746. While such is the way in which the sap of Dicotyledons ascends, it is not easy to trace the mode of its after-diffusion. The usual opinion is, that after undergoing changes in the leaves and other green organs, it descends in the direction of the bark, and is thence conveyed to all the active cells and vessels of the stem. Experiments similar to those already detailed were made by Walker and Burnett as to the descent of the sap. When incisions were made in the bark, after the sap had reached the leaves, it was found that the upper portion of the cut was first moistened apparently by liquid from the upper part of the stem. If a complete ring of bark is cut off, then the growth of the portion below the wound ceases, the thickness of the stem is not increased, and, in the case of the potato, according to Mohl, no tubers are formed. At the same time the part of the stem above the wound increases much, and, in the case of trees, a thick layer of wood is formed. Mohl says that the deposition of starch in the cells of the medullary rays in autumn, seems to show that the elaborated sap not employed in nutrition on its way to the root has passed to the wood through these rays.

747. It would thus appear that there is a descent of elaborated sap from the leaves towards the bark, and that from this it is diffused through the rest of the tissue. Rainey thinks that the descent is through the vessels and not the cells nor intercellular spaces; and Hoffmann maintains that there is still doubts as to the conduction of the sap by the bark. Schultz considers the laticiferous vessels as those through which the elaborated sap descends. The motion of the fluids in them has already been noticed (p. 422). These vessels are reckoned by Carpenter and Draper as representing in some degree the capillary system of animals.*

748. Thus, as represented generally in Figure 1163, the sap in a Dicotyledonous tree describes a sort of circle not in determinate vessels, but by a definite path, through different parts of the plant; passing upwards from the roots, *a a*, through the newer woody tissue, *b b*, reaching the leaves, *c c*, and after elaboration descending towards the exterior of the trunk, *d d*, whence it is diffused in various directions, both internally and externally. An absorption of water, containing various matters in solution, is constantly going on through the extremities of the rootlets. This crude sap is carried forward through the cells, vessels, and intercellular passages, by a force which acts by propulsion. The stimulus of light, acting on the cellular tissue of the leaves, or on green stems when no leaves are present, enables these parts to elaborate the organic compounds which are necessary for vegetable nutrition. The leaf-action may be reckoned one of attraction or suction. The diffusion of the elaborated matters constitutes the descent of the sap.

749. Gaseous matters are carried up along with the sap. The gases appear to be chiefly common air, carbonic acid, and oxygen. In the

* Carpenter, General Physiology, p. 675. Draper, Chemistry of Plants, 29.

sap of the Vine, Hales mentions the presence of air, and Geiger and Proust detected in it carbonic acid. Occasionally the air is separated, and accumulates in the spiral vessels, or in certain cavities. Air

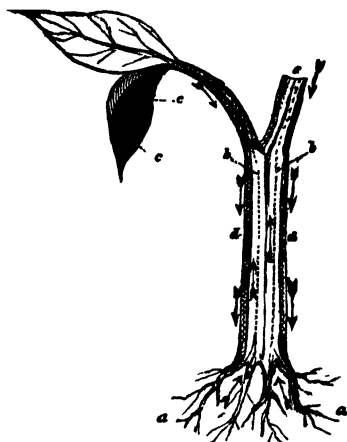


Fig 1163.

cavities exist in the pith and leaves of many plants (pp. 76 and 106), more particularly in the floating leaves of aquatics (Fig. 85, p. 37, and Fig. 314, p. 134). Liebig thinks that the rise of the sap may be referred to a disengagement of gas which takes place in the capillary vessels.*

750. Various causes conspire in originating and keeping up the movement of the sap. During winter, when vegetation is arrested, the cells of perennial plants are filled with albuminous and starchy matters. The conversion of starch into sugar in spring will at once determine an endosmotic action in the cells. We have already seen (p. 413) that

two dissimilar liquids, when separated by a membrane, mix together. The one increases in bulk and rises; the other diminishes in the same degree, and consequently sinks below its original level. This phenomenon of mixture through a membrane, accompanied with change of volume, occurs in the cells of plants. It has been referred to chemical and electrical action, and, according to Draper, depends on the capillarity of the walls of cells. The cells of the root, with their delicate walls, allow the fluids from the roots to pass readily by imbibition. A physico-chemical endosmotic action takes place by which the fluid is propelled upwards. As the sap is constantly parting with its fluid-contents, more especially when it reaches the leaves, the fluid in the upper cells is thickened, and consequently the thinner fluid below passes in by endosmose. In addition to this, there are vital actions going on in the cells and vessels, which give rise to a constant interchange of ingredients.

751. Schacht says the property which certain cells have of absorbing and elaborating one substance more abundantly than another, produces an ascending and a descending current. It is possible that each cell may direct the substances it holds in solution upwards, laterally, or downwards, according to the demands of the neighbouring cells. The current of sap will consequently be directed according to

Fig. 1163. Ideal section of the stem of a Dicotyledon, showing the general course of the sap, as indicated by the arrows. The roots, *a a*, absorb liquids, which pass through the newer pleurenchyma and intercellular spaces, *b b*, reach the leaves, *c c*, and after elaboration descend towards the outer part of the trunk, *d d*, whence they are diffused in various directions, *e*, marks the section of a branch.

* Liebig, on the motion of the juices, &c p. 99.

the wants and the degrees of vital activity of cells having different functions. The active processes of cell-formation going on at the extremity of the stem powerfully promote the ascent of nutritive juices. As the cambium of the vascular bundles extends from the extremity of the root to the apex of the stem, there is a constant transmission of fluids from cell to cell. As new cells are constantly formed at the extremity of the stem, by means of which azotized and other matters are consumed, there is a constant demand for a supply from below.

752. The exhalations going on in the leaves naturally give rise to a constant flow of fluids to supply the place of those which have been carried off. The capillary action of the intercellular canals may also aid in the movement, in proportion as watery fluid is removed from their extremities. Hales, from his experiments, deduces the presence of a powerful attractive force in every part of the plant. There is first an absorbent power in the roots, and then there is a transpiration from the surface of the leaves which demands a constant supply of watery fluid. The absorption of liquid must be equal to that lost by exhalation. If not, the circulation will cease. Unless there is a balance between absorption and exhalation, plants will diminish in vigour, and become diseased. When a plant is in its normal state of activity it does not absorb more than it consumes; the Vine and Birch only bleed in the spring when there are between the wood and bark more substances in solution than can be elaborated in the absence of leaves. This abnormal state is the result of chemical action inside the plant; when warm weather arrives, the starch collected in the autumn in the bark and sap-wood is converted into sugar and dextrine; absorption takes place through the cells of the roots; the earth loaded with moisture yields water in abundance; the transformation of starch continues, and with it diffusion. The sap, which cannot be immediately consumed, forces its way into the woody and vascular cells previously filled with air. But as soon as the extremity of the stem regains its activity, as soon as a sufficient number of leaves are developed, the sap disappears from these cells, and retains its former course; thenceforward the Vine and Birch cease bleeding.* Hales showed by experiment that the quantity of water absorbed by a shoot was in direct proportion to the number of its leaves, and that the quantity of water sunk to one-half when half the leaves were cut off. If a plant standing in the open air has one of its branches introduced into a hot-house during winter so that the leaves are expanded, absorption immediately commences at the roots. Thus the action of the leaves has a powerful effect on the absorption and movement of fluids. The experiments of Boucherie† in regard to the passage of fluids through the wood (p. 449), also show the power of the leaves in promoting the movement of fluids. Mohl made experiments on dicotyledonous trees in regard to the absorption of pyrolignite of iron, the

* Schacht, *La Vie de la Plante*, in *Annales des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot.* xvii. 202.

† Boucherie, *Comptes Rendus*, 1840, ii. 684.

diffusion of which through the plant can be easily detected by the dark colour it imparts. He found that young trees sawn off and placed in the fluid absorbed it rapidly, until all parts were saturated with it.

753. The various physical, chemical, and vital causes operating in the movement of the sap may be thus enumerated:—Endosmose acting as a *vis a tergo* or propelling power, and commencing in the cells of the root; chemico-vital actions causing changes in the contents of the cells and vessels; capillarity in the intercellular canals; and a *vis a fronte* or attracting power depending on the transpiration from the leaves. Heat and light materially promote the movement of the sap. If a branch of a vine growing in the open air is introduced into a hot-house during winter, its leaves will be developed, and there will be a vigorous motion of fluids in it, although in the other branches there is no circulation. Hales and Duhamel noticed the effect of the sun in promoting the movement of the sap in the Vine and Maple. Moisture and warmth appear to cause the most vigorous movement of the sap.^d

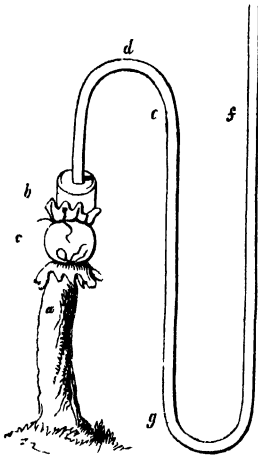


Fig. 1164

754. The force with which the sap ascends in the stem was measured by Hales by means of an apparatus such as is represented in Figure 1164. A bent tube, *f d b*, was firmly attached to a stem, *a*, the top of which had been cut off, and the force of the sap was estimated by the rise of the mercury previously introduced into the tube, so as to fill the curvation between *e* and *f*. On 6th April he cut off a Vine, 2 feet 9 inches from the ground, and fixed on it the mercurial gauge, and he found the following results:—

Date of Experiment	Rise of Mercury in Inches
April 7, 11 A.M.	17.
„ 11, 7 A.M.	21 $\frac{1}{4}$, sunshine.
„ 14, 7 A.M.	20 $\frac{1}{4}$.
„ 14, 9 A.M.	22 $\frac{1}{2}$, warm sunshine.
„ 14, 11 A.M.	16 $\frac{1}{2}$.
„ 16, 6 A.M.	19 $\frac{1}{2}$, rain.
„ 17, 11 A.M.	21 $\frac{1}{2}$, rain, and warmth.
„ 17, 7 P.M.	29 $\frac{1}{2}$, Do.
„ 18, 7 A.M.	32 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Fig. 1164. Instrument used by Hales to ascertain the force of ascent of the sap. A bent glass tube, *f g e d*, is attached to the upper part of a cut Vine stock, *a*, by means of a copper cap, *b*, which is secured by a lute and a piece of bladder, *c*. The level of the mercury at the commencement of the experiment is marked by the letters *e* and *f*. The sap as it rises in the stem of the Vine passes into the tube, so as to press the mercury down in the limb, *e*, and up in the limb, *f*.

From this time till May 5th the force gradually decreased. The force of the sap in another experiment was equal to 38 inches of mercury, which Hales states is nearly five times greater than the force of the blood in the crural artery of a horse, and seven times greater than the force of the blood in the same artery of a dog.* Brucke† found that in a Vine, the spring sap, having a specific gravity of 1.0008, raised a column of mercury to the height of $14\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and therefore exerted a pressure equal to that of a column of water 195 inches high. In another experiment sap of specific gravity 1.0009 raised the mercury to the height of $17\frac{1}{2}$ inches. ‡

755. Recapitulation of the principal facts connected with the general course of the sap :—

1. There is still much doubt as to the exact course of the sap in plants, more especially as regards the tissues through which it is conveyed.
2. In cellular plants the sap has no definite course, but seems to pass from cell to cell through every part of the tissue.
3. In vascular plants a definite course is followed by the sap in its progress, the liquid sap being contained in cells and woody tubes, while gaseous matters are contained in the fibro-vascular tissue.
4. Watery fluids are taken up by the cells at the extremity of the root; they are conveyed to the stem, and finally reach the leaves, whence they are diffused through the plant.
5. In a dicotyledonous tree the crude sap appears to ascend through the cells, plectenchyma, and intercellular spaces of the new wood, until it enters the leaves.
6. In the leaves the sap is exposed to the action of air and light, and is thus elaborated so as to be fitted for the formation of various secretions.
7. From the leaves there appears to be a descent of elaborated sap, more especially towards the exterior of the stem.
8. There is also a general diffusion of elaborated sap through the different parts of the plant.
9. The causes which operate in the progression of the sap are endosmose as a propelling force, chemico-vital actions in the cells and vessels, capillarity, and the transpiration of the leaves as an attracting force under the influence of light.
10. The absorption of fluids by the roots and the transpiration by the leaves in healthy plants must always correspond.
11. Heat, light, and moisture have a powerful effect on the motion of the sap.
12. The force with which the sap ascends is very great; in some instances it raised mercury in a tube to the height of 38 inches.

* Hales, *Vegetable Statics*, p. 105-107

† Brucke, *Poggendorff Annalen der Physik*, lxxiii

‡ For fuller remarks on the movement of the sap, consult Cotta, *Naturbeobachtungen über der Bewegung des Saftes*. Duhamel's *Physique des Arbres*. Girou de Buzareingues sur le *Mouvement des Fluides dans les Plantes*—*Ann. des Sc. Nat 2d ser Bot* v. 226. Matteucci, on the *Physical Phenomena of Living Bodies*—*Trans. by Pereira*, p 75 Schleiden's *Principles of Botany*—*Translated by Lankester*, p. 515. The movements of fluids and granules in individual cells and vessels have already been noticed under *Rotation and Cyclosis*, at pages 414 and 422

CHAPTER VIII.

PHYSIOLOGY OF THE FLOWER.

I. FUNCTIONS OF THE FLORAL ENVELOPES.

1. CHANGES IN THE CONTENTS OF THE FLORAL TISSUES.

756. The appendages of the flowers which assume a green colour perform the same functions as leaves, giving out oxygen under the influence of light. The cells of the floral leaves or bracts, and of the calycine leaves or sepals, commonly contain chlorophyll, which is produced under the agency of light by a process of deoxidation, carbon being fixed and oxygen separated. The bright-coloured parts of flowers do not appear to decompose carbonic acid; on the contrary, they exhale this gas. The petals of flowers, according to Garreau, are usually covered with a fatty matter over the whole surface, and hence they have not the property of absorbing water. But if they are washed with soap, then with ether and distilled water, they become endosmotic and absorb fluids. The petal of *Pæony* absorbed no distilled water in thirty-six hours; when washed with soap and ether, absorption took place, which was increased when the epidermis was removed.

757. The corolla is associated with the thalamus or receptacle in producing abundance of starch, which is changed into sugar during flowering, so as to afford nutriment to the stamens and pistils. While the calyx and green parts of the flower are concerned in the elaboration of the juices under the influence of light, the corolla is more immediately concerned in the protection of the internal organs, in the formation of coloured juices, and in the production of amylaceous and saccharine matters.* The quantity of starch accumulated in the receptacles of flowers is often large. This is well seen in *Compositæ*, such as the *Artichoke* and *Thistle* (Fig. 1165). The amylaceous matter during flowering in these plants becomes saccharine, and is absorbed by the flowers for their nourishment. The state of such receptacles alters during flowering. They are first amylaceous, then

* Dunal, sur les Fonctions des Organes Floraux colorés et glanduleux, Paris 1829.

saccharine, and finally become dry. In the case of the Artichoke the receptacle and bases of the phyllaries or scaly bracts are used as food in the young state, but when flowering has proceeded they no longer yield nourishment. What is commonly called *the choke* in the Artichoke is the young unexpanded flowers. So also in the Dandelion, the receptacle is at first succulent, but after flowering it becomes juiceless. Many plants which accumulate starch and nutritive matter in

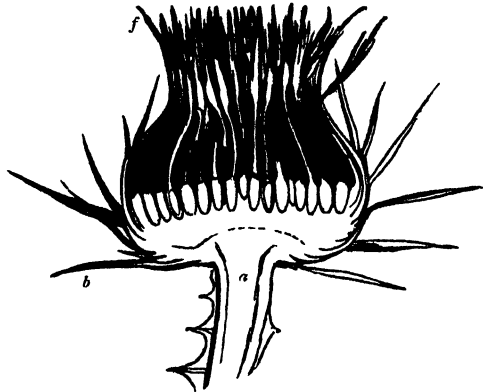


Fig. 1165

their stems, roots, and leaves, part with these stores of nourishment when flowering proceeds, and change their character. Thus the succulent roots of the cultivated turnip, beet, and carrot become comparatively dry and fibrous, and the leaves of cabbage lose much of their tenderness, when the flowering stems are developed. The active juices of plants are hence frequently best collected before flowering.

2 ABSORPTION OF OXYGEN AND EVOLUTION OF CARBONIC ACID

758. The flower, according to Saussure,* in the exercise of its functions, absorbs oxygen gas, and gives out carbonic acid. In his experiments he placed plants in a closed receptacle of air, of which they only occupied the 200th part, and measured the quantity of oxygen absorbed, comparing it with that of the volume of the flower experimented on taken as unity. The duration of the experiment, in each case, was 24 hours, the external temperature varying from 64.4° to 77° Fahrenheit.

Name of Species.	Oxygen absorbed by the Flowers.
<i>Passiflora serratifolia</i>	18.5
<i>Cucurbita Pepo</i> , Gourd, male flower	12
<i>Matthiola incana</i> , Stock	11

Fig. 1165 Head of Scotch Thistle (*Onopordum Acanthium*) cut vertically, showing the receptacle, *a*, to which the phyllaries, *b*, and flowers, *f*, are attached. This receptacle contains much starchy matter, which, as the flowers are developed, is changed into grape-sugar

* Saussure, de l'Action des Fleurs sur l'air et de leur Chaleur Propre—Ann de Chimie et de Phys xx1 279. See also Saussure, Recherches Chimiques sur la Végétation, p 133

Name of Species.	Oxygen absorbed by the Flowers.
<i>Typha latifolia</i> , Great Reed-Mace	9.8
<i>Castanea vulgaris</i> , Chestnut	9.1
<i>Polyanthes tuberosa</i> , Tuberosa	9
<i>Daucus Carota</i> , Carrot	8.8
<i>Hibiscus speciosus</i>	8.7
<i>Tropæolum majus</i> , Indian Cress	8.5
<i>Hypericum calycinum</i> , large flowered St. John's Wort	7.5
<i>Cobæa scandens</i>	6.5
<i>Lilium candidum</i> , White Lily	5.
<i>Cucurbita Pepo</i> , Gourd, female flower	3.5

759. This absorption of oxygen is carried on by the coloured corolla, along with the essential organs of reproduction.* The quantity of oxygen absorbed is much greater when the stamens and pistil are perfect than when they are abortive or wanting. A perfect flower, with the latter organs present, took up more oxygen than one which had become double by the more or less complete conversion of the stamens and pistil into petals. Thus—

Common Stock,	Single Red,	consumed	11	vol. of oxygen.
"	Double	"	7.7	"
Common Tuberosa,	Single	"	9.	"
"	Double	"	7.4	"
Indian Cress	Single	"	8.5	"
"	Double	"	7.25	"

760. In proportion to their volume the essential reproductive organs absorb more oxygen than the entire flowers :—

NAMES OF SPECIES	Flowers entire. Oxygen absorbed	Essential organs Oxygen absorbed.
Common Stock	11.5	18
Indian Cress	8.5	16.3
Gourd, male flower	7.6	16.
Large-flowered St. John's Wort	7.5	8.5
<i>Cobæa scandens</i>	6.5	7.5
<i>Hibiscus speciosus</i>	5.4	6.3

761. More oxygen is consumed by the male flower than by the female :—

Oxygen consumed by male flower of Gourd in 10 hours	7.6
Do. by female	3.5
Do. by Stamens separately	11.7
Do. by Styles and Stigmas separately	4.7

* The organs of plants which consume most oxygen are those which wither most quickly, viz. the stamens, styles, and petals

Oxygen consumed by large Reed-Mace in 24 hours, inflorescence consisting of one male and one female Spike	9.8
Do. by male Spike alone	1.5
Do. by female Spike alone	6.2
Oxygen consumed by panicles of male flower of Indian Corn in 24 hours	9.6
Do. by female flowers and their sheath	5.2

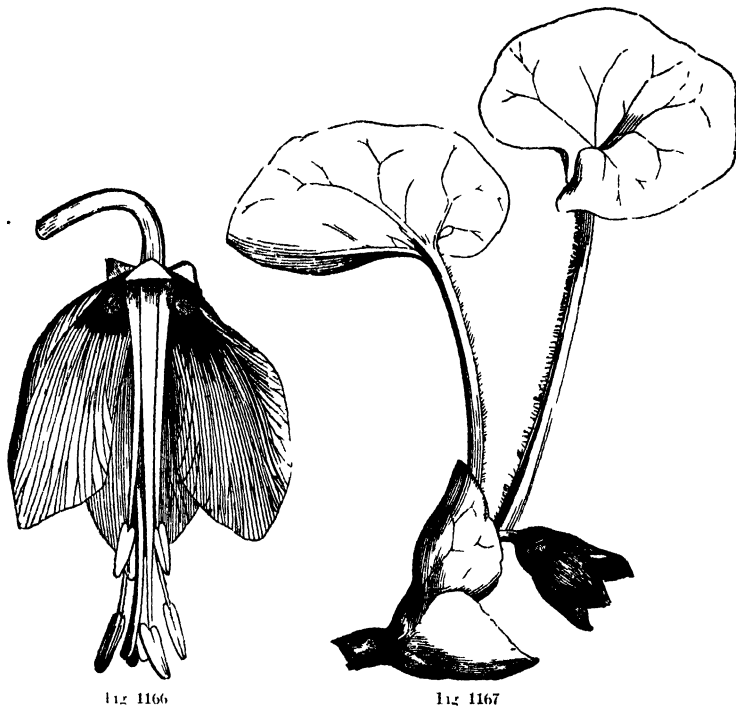
3 EVOLUTION OF HEAT DURING FLOWERING

762. At the same time that oxygen is absorbed there is a conversion of starch into grape sugar, an evolution of carbonic acid gas, and in many instances a very marked elevation of temperature, caused by the combination between the carbon of the flower, and the oxygen of the air. The starch, which is stored up in the receptacle and at the base of the petals, by passing into the state of dextrin and grape sugar, becomes fitted for vegetable nutrition. At the same time important purposes are served in the economy of the plant. Thus the saccharine and honey-like matter which often collects in the cup of the flower, and sometimes in special pits or depressions, as in Crown Imperial (Fig. 1166), and *Asarabacca* (Fig. 1167), attracts bees and various insects, which are thus made instrumental in scattering the pollen. According to Vaucher, the saccharine matter is applied to the stigma and other parts of the pistil, so as to favour the application and bursting of the grains of pollen.

763. An evolution of heat takes place during flowering; but from the large surface exposed, it seems to be in most instances carried off by the atmosphere as soon as it is developed. Cases occur, however, in which the temperature can be noted. Thus the flower of a *Cistus* (Fig. 529, p. 205) showed a temperature of 79°, while that of the air was 76°, and those of a *Geranium* 87° when the air was 81°. Otto ascertained that the flowers of *Victoria regia* at Hamburg (Fig. 235, p. 107) gave out heat when the anthers were mature. In one instance when the temperature of the hot-house was 70.7° F., and that of the tank 69.1°, that of the *Victoria* about seven o'clock in the evening was 80.3°; on another occasion, while the air was 72.5°, and the tank 69.5°, the *Victoria* was 105.1°. M. Teysman at Burtenszorg, in Java, has observed an elevated temperature in the male cone of *Cycas circinalis*; the time when it was observed being between 6 and 10 P.M.* By means of an air thermometer Saussure found the flowers of *Polyanthes tuberosa* $\frac{1}{2}$ °, those of *Bignonia radicans* 1°, those of *Cucurbita Pepo* 1° to 3° F. above the temperature of the air; while Mulder found the flower of *Cereus grandiflorus* 1° to 2° F. warmer than the atmosphere.

* De Vriese, observations upon the elevated temperature of the male inflorescence of *Cycadareum* plants—Hooker's *Kew Miscellany*, iii 186.

764. The most marked instances of the evolution of heat, however, occur in the blossoms of plants belonging to the natural order Araceæ (Fig. 1168). In them the inflorescence consists of a thick fleshy spadix (Fig. 1170) containing much starch, and bearing numerous male and female organs, *a* and *b*, enclosed in a large sheathing bract or spathe (Fig. 1169, *s*). The production of heat during the expansion of the spathe of *Arum italicum* was observed by Lamarck in 1777.* Senebier† found that the temperature of *Arum maculatum* (Fig. 1168) rose to



15.5° F. above that of the air, and Dutrochet‡ measured it from 25° to 27°. Schultz§ noticed the heat of *Caladium pinnatifidum* 9° F. above that of the atmosphere; and Goepfert|| states that the tempe-

Fig 1166 Flower of Crown Imperial (*Fritillaria imperialis*) laid open, showing the pits or depressions at the base of the petals (leaves of perianth), in which honey-like matter is secreted. The saccharine matter is formed from starch.

Fig 1167. *Asarabacca* (*Asarum europaeum*), the flowers of which have depressions on the inner and basal portion of the perianth containing saccharine matter.

* Lamarck, Encyclopedie methodique, Bot. iii 8

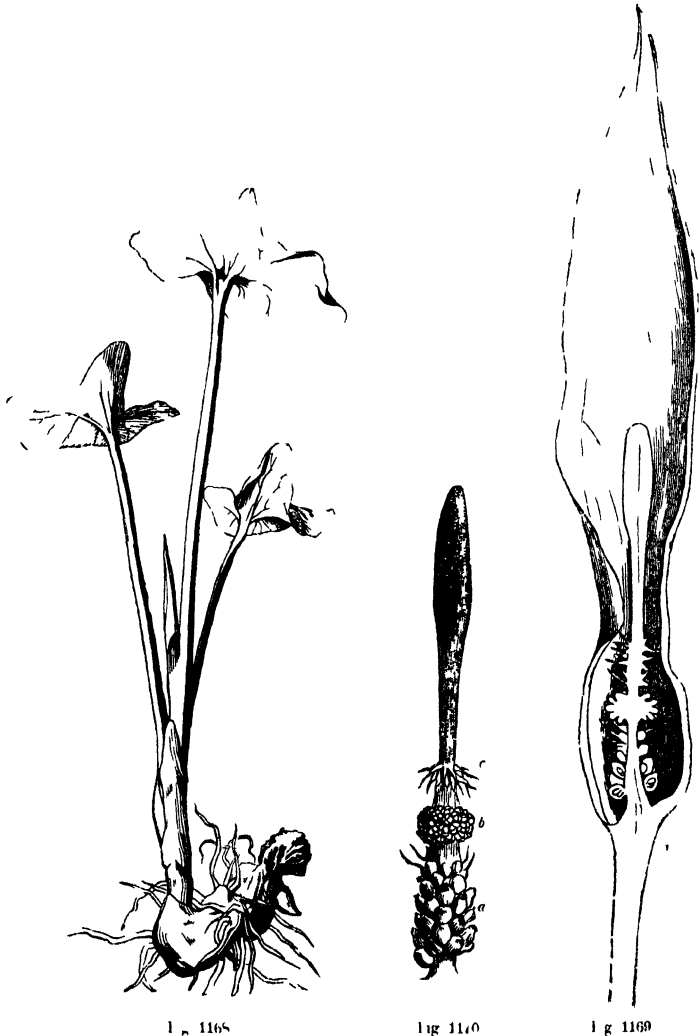
† Senebier, Physiol. Végét. ii 314

‡ Dutrochet, Comptes Rendus, 1839, 695. See also Sansure, on *Arum maculatum*—Ann. de Chimie et de Phys. xxi 284, also Treviranus, in Tiedemanns Zeitschrift für Physiol. iii 257

§ Schultz, Die Natur der lebendigen Pflanze, ii 185

|| Goepfert, ueber warme Entwicklung in der lebenden Pflanzen, Wien 1832

perature of the spadix of *Arum Draucunculus* rose to 31.5° F above that



of the air surrounding it. Brongniart in 1834 found the temperature

Fig 1168 Cuckoo-pint (*Arum maculatum*) belonging to the natural order Araceae. It is one of the plants which is remarkable for the production of heat in certain circumstances during flowering.

Fig 1169 Spathe is a floral leaf enclosing the spadix or organs of reproduction of *Arum*. There are numerous male and female flowers on a common receptacle which contains much starch.

Fig 1170 Spadix of *Arum*, showing the female flowers *a* the male, *b* the abortive flowers, *c*, and the club-shaped extremity *d* of the spadix. The spadix is succulent and contains much starch.

of *Colocasia odora** 19.8° F. above the air of the conservatory in which the specimen grew. Van Beek and Bergsma noticed the heat of the same spadix 129° when that of the air was 79°. In the Isle of France, Hubert† states that a thermometer placed in the centre of five spadices stood at 131° F., and in the centre of twelve at 142½°, while the temperature of the air was only 74.75°. De Vriese says that from the computation of several hundred observations the maximum has varied from 48° to 57° F.

765. Dutrochet's examination of the spadix of *Arum maculatum* gives the following results:—‡

DATE AND HOUR	Deviation of Thermo-electric Needle	Heat of Spadix above Air.	Temperature of Air.
May 2. 4 P.M .	64°	17.6° F.	59.9° F.
" 5.30 " .	65	18.7	60.2
" 6.30 " .	58	12.5	60.2
" 7 " .	55	10.6	60.0
" 8 " .	44	6.3	59.5
" 9 " .	30	3.4	59.0
" 10 " .	19	2.1	58.6

From these observations it appears that the maximum of temperature in the spadix occurred at 5.30 P.M., one hour and a half after the complete opening of the spathe, and that the heat was 18.7° above that of the surrounding air. On the 3d of May Becquerel's thermo-electric needle applied to the same plant remained at zero till mid-day, and then began to deviate to the opposite side, indicating that the spadix had then become colder than the air around. This deviation of the needle reached 4°, which implied that the temperature of the spadix was about ½° below the temperature of the air. On the 4th of May another specimen of *Arum maculatum* came into flower, and was experimented on. The heat at 2.30 P.M. was 14° above the air, the needle showing a deviation of 60°.

766. The seat of the highest temperature changes during flowering. When the spathe opens, the staminal organs show the greatest heat; and after the pollen is discharged, their temperature falls, and the part of the spadix above them grows warm. Hubert states that the outer surface of the spadix is that in which the temperature is principally developed. The male organs of the *Arum* are also shown to have a higher temperature than the female. Dutrochet made the

* Brongniart, sur le *Colocasia odora*, &c.—Nouv. Ann. du Mus. iii 145. See figure and description of this plant, which is called Fragrant Indian Kale, in the Botanical Magazine, Fig. 3935.

† Hubert, in Bory de St. Vincent, voyage dans les quatre Iles principales de la mer d'Afrique, ii 68. See also Journal de Physique, lx. 281.

‡ Dutrochet, Recherches sur la Chaleur propre du Spadice de l'*Arum maculatum* à l'époque de la floraison—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. xiii 65

following observations on the heat of the female flowers of *Arum maculatum* :—

DATE AND HOUR.	Deviation of Thermo-electric Needle.	Heat of Female Flowers above Air.	Temperature of Air.
May 4. 2.45 P.M. .	22°	2.5° F.	58.1° F.
" 3.30 " .	18	2	58.1
" 4.45 " .	16	1.8	58.1
" 5.45 " .	13	1.4	58.1
" 7.15 " .	11	1.2	57.7
" 9 " .	8	0.9	57.3
" 10 " .	6	0.6	57.2
May 5. 6 A.M. .	18	2	57.2
" 7 " .	26	2.9	57.2
" 8 " .	28	3.1	57.7
" 9 " .	24	2.7	58.4
" 10 " .	17	1.9	59
" 11 " .	15	1.6	59
" 12 noon .	14	1.5	59
" 1 P.M. .	13	1.4	59
" 2 " .	12	1.3	59
" 3 " .	9	1.0	59.3

767. There is also exhibited during flowering a daily maximum and minimum of temperature, which, however, do not appear to occur at regular periods. In the case of *Arum maculatum*, Dutrochet found the maximum temperature in the morning, while Senebier noticed it after 6 in the evening. In *Colocasia odora*, Brongniart found the maximum at 5 P.M. : Vrolik and De Vriese, as well as Van Beek and Bergsma, at 3 P.M. ; Hasskarl, in Java, at 6 A.M. ; Hubert, in Madagascar, after sunrise.* In the gardens of Paris, Amsterdam, and Leyden, *Colocasia odora* attains its maximum temperature at noon. The production of heat in *Arum italicum*, according to Saussure, attained its maximum from 4 to 7 P.M. In an experiment with *Colocasia*, the first flower began to expand on 4th March, but it was not till the 6th that the escape of pollen began, and the increase of temperature was perceptible to the touch. While the temperature of the air was 73.4° F., that of the spadix was 86°. The heat of the flower gradually diminished, and in the evening its temperature was the same as that of the stove. The plant, however, regained its temperature next day at the same hour, 2 P.M., and for four days it continued, though with gradually decreasing intensity, to present a similar phenomenon, when the flower finally faded.

768. Brongniart gives the following results of his observations

* Mohl, on the Vegetable Cell, by Henfrey, p. 102 Consult also Brongniart—Nouv. Annales du Museum, tom. iii. 145, Vrolik and De Vriese—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. v. 134, and xi. 65, Van Beek and Bergsma, Obs. Thermo elect. sur l'elevation de temp. des Fleurs de *Colocasia odora*.

on *Colocasia odora* as regards the time and degree of maximum heat :—

DATE OF OBSERVATION	Hour of Max. Temperature.	Temperature of Air	Temperature of Spadix.	Temperature above Air.	
Spathes opened March 14.	3½ P. M.	76.1° F.	84.2° F.	8.1° F.	
	15. 4¼ "	75.2	93.2	18	
Pollen discharged,	{ 16. 5 ..	74.8	93.2	18.4	
		17. 5 ..	75.2	95	19.8
		18. 11 A M	80.6	95.3	14.8
		19. 10 ..	77.9	82.4	4.5

The rise of temperature bore an evident relation to the development of the stamens and the emission of the pollen, and after the latter had taken place, the temperature fell, and the spadix withered.*

769. Vrolik and De Vriese record the following experiments, in the Botanic Garden at Amsterdam, on a plant of *Colocasia odora* (*Caladium odorum*), at the time when the anthers began to open :—

EXPERIMENT ON 23d June 1838.

Hour.	Temp of Air	Temp of Spadix	Temp above Air	Hour	Temp of Air	Temp. of Spadix	Temp. above Air
12.45 P.M.	64° F.	74.5° F	10.5° F	4 P.M.	64.4° F.	68° F.	3.6° F.
1.5 "	64.4	76.4	12	5 "	64.4	66.9	2.5
2 "	64.9	78.9	14	6 "	64.4	66.3	1.9
3 "	61	79.8	15.8	7 "	64.4	66	1.6
3.30 "	61	73.4	8.4	8 "	64.4	66	1.6

Continuation of Experiment, 24th June. Pollen discharged.

11 A.M.	64.9° F.	68° F.	3.1° F.	3 P.M.	60° F.	77° F.	17° F.
12 noon	65.6	69.9	4.3	4 "	59	75.3	16.3
1 P.M.	66.9	75.9	9	5 "	65.6	73	7.4
2 "	62.9	78	15.1	6 "	65.6	69.8	4.2
2.30 "	60	79.7	19.7	7 "	65.6	68	2.4

Continuation of Experiment, 25th June.

1 P.M.	69.2° F.	82° F	12.8° F	2.30 P.M.	68° F.	82° F.	14° F.
1.30 "	69.2	84	14.8	3 "	68	80.9	12.9
2 "	68.1	82.5	14.4	4 "	68	78	10

The maximum occurred on the 24th, between 2 and 3 in the after-

* Brongniart, sur le *Colocasia odora*, et sur l'Élevation de Température de sa fleur — Nouv. Ann. du Mus. d'Hist. Nat. n. 145

noon, at which time the temperature of the spadix was nearly 20° F. above that of the air in the conservatory.*

770. Garreau† gives the following tabular view of observations made at Lille on the heat given out by the spadix of *Arum italicum*. The experiment was conducted on 8th June 1851, the atmospheric temperature being 66.2° F. :—

Hours of the Paroxysm.		Heat of Spadix above Air.	Mean Heat.	Oxygen consumed.	Volume of Oxygen consumed, the Organ being taken as unity.
				Cubic cent.	
1st Hour	{ 2 h. 30 m.	5.0° F. }	7.5° F.	75	16.5
	{ 3 30	10.0 }			
2d Hour	{ 3 30	10.0 }	12.9	95	21.1
	{ 4 30	15.8 }			
3d Hour	{ 4 30	15.8 }	17.6	125	27.7
	{ 5 30	19.4 }			
4th Hour	{ 5 30	19.4 }	15.6	85	18.9
	{ 6 30	11.8 }			
5th Hour	{ 6 30	11.8 }	9.1	55	12.2
	{ 7 30	6.4 }			
6th Hour	{ 7 30	6.4 }	4.8	25	5.5
	{ 8 30	3.2 }			

The mean heat per hour was 11.2° F., the mean of the oxygen consumed 76.6, and its mean volume, when compared with the organ as unity, was 16.9. The oxygen consumed during the 6 hours of the paroxysmal heat was 460 cubic centimetres, and that consumed during the 18 succeeding hours was 230, making in all, in 24 hours, 690 cubic centimetres. The quantity of oxygen consumed increased with the temperature. Thus in three distinct experiments the results were—

No. 1.	Mean heat, 9.9° F.	Oxygen consumed, 16.1 cubic cent.
No. 2.	— 11.2	— — 16.9 —
No. 3.	— 13.1	— — 17.3 —

Garreau says that the nature of the surface of the spadix of *Arum* seems to facilitate absorption. It consists of numerous projecting cells, giving a velvety appearance to the organ, with two or three open stomata. Saussure found that the blossom of *Arum maculatum*, when cold, consumed five times its volume of oxygen, but when warm, thirty times. In a flower during the paroxysm, he found that the spathe consumed five times its volume of oxygen, the bare portion of the spadix 30 times, and the part covered with flowers 132 times.

* Vrolik et De Vriese, sur l'Elevation de Temperature du Spadix d'un *Colocasia odora*.—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. v. 134, and xi. 65.

† Garreau, Relation entre l'Oxygène et le Spadice de l'*Arum italicum*.—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xvi. 253.

771. The relation which the evolution of carbonic acid bears to the heat produced is thus shown by Dutrochet :—

NAME OF ORGAN.	Mean Temp. above Air in 12 Hours.	CO ₂ evolved in 24 Hours.
		Cubic centimetres.
Spathe of <i>Arum maculatum</i> . .	0.06° F.	4.0
Spadix of do. . .	18.00	38.0
Male organs of do. . .	12.00	135.0
Female organs of do. . .	2.7	10.0
Female flower, Gourd . . .	0.16	7.6

The quantity of carbonic acid evolved is in direct proportion to the oxygen absorbed, and the degree of chemical action which takes place determines the amount of heat.

772. The presence and contact of oxygen gas is necessary for these phenomena. When the spadix of an *Arum* is put into oxygen gas, the heat is developed rapidly and powerfully, the maximum difference between the heat of the oxygenated spadix and another in the air varying from 5° to 12° F.; and when the spadix is placed in carbonic acid gas or nitrogen, the evolution of heat ceases. The production of heat is prevented by covering the spadix with olive oil, grease, tallow, honey, or starch.*

4 PERIODS OF FLOWERING—FLORAL CALENDAR

773. The age at which different species of plants produce flowers varies. Some spring from seed and produce flowers in the course of a single year and die, others produce flowers the second year after germinating and then decay, while a third set continue to flower for many years in succession. Hence the division into annual (☉), biennial (♂), and perennial (♀) plants. In some cases flowering is long delayed, and when it does occur the development of the flowering stalk takes place with great vigour and rapidity, and the plant dies after producing fruit and seed. Species of *Agave* exhibit this phenomenon. Thus the flowering-stalk of *Agave geminiflora* (*Litsea geminiflora*) in the garden at Nymphenburg grew 13½ feet from 14th August to 10th December 1842. In the Royal Garden at Kew in 1844 *Agave vivipara* (*Fourcroya gigantea*) produced a flowering stem which at first grew at the rate of 2 feet in 24 hours; in two months the stalk attained the height of 26 feet. A plant of *Agave fetida*, which had vegetated in the Jardin des Plantes in Paris for nearly a century, and during that period had scarcely shown any signs of increase, during a warm summer began to exhibit symptoms of flowering. In 87 days

* Vahlk and De Vriese in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d series, xi 77

the flowering-stalk grew $22\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The flowering-stalk of *Agave americana* has been known to acquire a height of 30 feet in the space of 30 to 40 days.

774. Any cause, whether natural or artificial, which retards flowering, is attended with results of a similar kind more or less marked. When fruit trees have been in a non-flowering condition, they sometimes suddenly produce abundance of blossoms. A season in which blossoming has been scanty is often succeeded by one in which it is profuse. When the flower-buds are taken off early, it sometimes happens that an annual plant, such as *Mignonette*, is rendered biennial or perennial. The tree *Mignonette* is produced in this way. When plants grow in a rich soil it sometimes happens that, in place of producing flowers, they develop branches and leaves luxuriantly. In these instances cutting the roots, pruning the branches, taking a ring of bark out of the stem so as to retard the descent of sap, and transplanting into poor soil, frequently cause the plants to flower. Injuries inflicted on forest trees late in the season sometimes give rise to autumn flowering. When a branch is grafted on a vigorous stock it often happens that its flowering is accelerated. By this process a check is put to luxuriant branching, and the sap of the old stock stimulates the young graft or scion.

775. The different periods of the year in the various countries and climates of the globe are marked by the flowering of certain species of plants. Each climate has its peculiar floral calendar. Thus in Scotland we have the Winter Aconite (*Eranthis hyemalis*) and the Snow-drop (*Galanthus nivalis*) flowering in February, the Primrose (*Primula vulgaris*) in March, the Cowslip (*Primula veris*) and Daffodil (*Narcissus Pseudo-Narcissus*) in April, the Hawthorn (*Crataegus Oxyacantha*) in May, numerous successive species expanding their blossoms during each month of summer, the Ivy (*Hedera Helix*) flowering in September, and the autumn Crocus (*Colchicum autumnale*) pushing up its flowering-stalks in October. Every month and every week has thus its peculiar flowers. The expansion of certain flowers indicates the revival of vegetation after winter in temperate and cold regions, and after the dry season in warm countries. The time of expansion of the flowers of the same species in different countries gives indications in regard to the climate, and the difference of seasons in the same locality is also marked by the dates at which the same species flower.* The registration of the periodical phenomena of flowering or florescence is suggested by the British Association as one of the points to be attended to in determining the nature of different seasons.† In 1829 Schubler states that the Lily of the Valley (*Convallaria majalis*) flowered at Rome on the 26th April, at Tubingen on 10th May, at

* Linnæus gives a Floral Calendar for Upsal in *Philosoph. Botanica*, Stockholm, 1751, p. 272. See also *Naturalist Calendar*, in White's *Selborne*, 369.

† *British Assoc. Reports for 1850*, p. 338. Tables are given of the plants to be observed in regard to their periods of foliation, defoliation, and flowering.

Berlin on 17th May, and at Greifswald on 10th June. According to Berghaus the same species flower at Zurich 6 days later than at Parma, at Tübingen 13 days later, at Jena 17, at Berlin 25, at Hamburg 33, at Greifswald 36, and at Christiania 52. The Almond is said to flower at Smyrna early in February, in Germany at the beginning of April, and in Christiania not till the commencement of June. There is thus periodicity in flowering as regards the seasons, and plants retain the tendency to expand their flowers at a definite period of the year even when transported to countries where the seasons are reversed. In these circumstances they do not immediately accommodate themselves to the opposite conditions of the seasons in which they are placed, but for a while continue to show symptoms of flowering at the usual time to which they were accustomed in their native clime. Some varieties flower earlier than others of the same species. This has been noticed in the case of species of Thorn, Horse Chestnut, and many other plants. By means of slips taken from such plants gardeners perpetuate early flowering varieties.

776. Mr. McNab has for several years marked the periods of flowering of the same species in the same exposure in the Edinburgh Botanic Garden, and thus he has shown the difference in the seasons. The following is an example of his tables:—

NAME OF SPECIES OR VARIETY.	DATE OF FLOWERING.		
	1852.	1851	1850
<i>Rhododendron atrovirens</i>	Jan. 14	Jan. 2	...
<i>Garrya elliptica</i>	" 20	" 14	Dec. 24
<i>Rhododendron Nobleanum</i>	" 23	Feb. 2	...
<i>Geum pyrenaicum</i>	" 23	Jan. 20	March 22
<i>Erica herbacea</i>	" 24	" 16	...
<i>Corylus Avellana</i>	" 25	" 16	Feb. 16
<i>Azara dentata</i>	" 26
<i>Alnus glutinosa</i>	" 27	Jan. 13	...
<i>Galanthus nivalis</i>	" 28	" 17	Feb. 11
<i>Knappia agrostidea</i>	" 31	" 28	" 22
<i>Daphne Mezereon</i>	" 31	" 28	" 22
<i>Eranthis hyemalis</i>	" 31	" 15	" 14
<i>Cornus mascula</i>	Feb. 2	Feb. 14	...
<i>Symphytum caucasicum</i>	" 2	Jan. 23	March 14
<i>Galanthus plicatus</i>	" 3	" 28	Feb. 14
<i>Crocus susianus</i>	" 3	" 26	" 16
<i>Helleborus lividus</i>	" 3	" 11	March 19
<i>Sisyrinchium grandiflorum</i>	" 3	" 27	" 12
<i>Potentilla Fragariastrum</i>	" 5	" 26	Feb. 5
<i>Helleborus odorus</i>	" 10	" 20	" 14
<i>Helleborus orientalis</i>	" 14

NAME OF SPECIES OR VARIETY	DATE OF FLOWERING.		
	1852.	1851.	1850.
<i>Arabis albida</i>	Feb. 15	Feb. 7	Feb. 21
<i>Symphytum tauricum</i> . .	" 16	" 6	...
<i>Crocus vernus</i> and varieties	" 18	" 3	" 26
<i>Primula denticulata</i> . . .	" 19	" 15	" 23
" <i>nivalis</i>	" 20	March 16	March 1
<i>Symplocarpus foetidus</i> . .	" 20	Feb. 4	Feb. 18
<i>Leucojum vernum</i>	" 21	Jan. 20	" 18
<i>Arabis precurrens</i>	" 21	Feb. 1	" 24
<i>Anchusa sempervirens</i> . . .	" 21	" 14	" 26
<i>Tussilago alba</i>	" 27	Jan. 26	March 12
" <i>nivea</i>	" 27	" 28	" 2
<i>Pulmonaria angustifolia</i> . .	March 1
" <i>mollis</i>	" 2	Feb. 7	" 11
<i>Adonis vernalis</i>	" 6	" 18	" 16
<i>Dondia Epipactis</i>	" 8	Jan. 4	" 2
<i>Nordmannia cordifolia</i> . . .	" 10	Feb 20	Feb. 28
<i>Narcissus pumilus</i>	" 11	March 5	March 4
<i>Erythronium Dens Canis</i> . .	" 12	" 1	" 11
<i>Aubretia grandiflora</i>	" 18	" 1	" 24
<i>Acacia affinis</i> (open wall) . .	" 20	" 16	" 22
<i>Hyacinthus botryoides</i> . . .	" 20	" 11	" 18
<i>Scilla bifolia coerulea</i> . . .	" 20	" 6	" 13
" <i>alba</i>	" 21	" 4	" 14
<i>Ribes sanguineum</i> (first flower opened) } }	" 21	" 5	" 11
<i>Hyoscyamus Scopolia</i>	" 25	Feb. 24	" 1
<i>Draba azoides</i>	" 26	March 14	" 15
<i>Anemone hortensis</i>	" 27	" 28	April 6
<i>Saxifraga crassifolia</i>	" 27	" 4	March 20
<i>Scilla bifolia, rubra</i>	" 28	" 17	" 25
<i>Narcissus Pseudo-Narcissus</i> . .	" 28	" 27	" 24
<i>Puschkinia scilloides</i>	" 28	" 1	" 25
<i>Corydalis solida</i>	" 28	" 19	" 16
<i>Iberis sempervirens</i>	" 28	Feb. 10	" 9
<i>Asarum Europæum</i>	" 29	" 10	" 7
<i>Anemone nemorosa</i>	" 30	March 9	" 24
<i>Corydalis nobilis</i>	" 31	" 16	" 22
<i>Orobus vernus</i>	" 31	Feb. 17	Feb. 23
<i>Scilla sibirica</i>	April 1	March 26	April 6
<i>Narcissus moschatus</i>	" 1	" 26	March 24
<i>Dalibarda geoides</i>	" 2	April 3	" 30
<i>Hyoscyamus physaloides</i> . . .	" 2	March 28	" 30
<i>Omphalodes verna</i>	" 2	" 10	" 22
<i>Fritillaria imperialis</i>	" 3	" 13	" 20
<i>Hyoscyamus orientalis</i>	" 5	" 28	April 1

777. Temperature is a most important agent in causing plants to flower, but in each species the range of flowering-temperature is definite. A high temperature, in the case of plants belonging to cold regions, often makes them produce leaves in place of flowers, or if flowers are produced, they drop off and are abortive. Fruit trees of temperate regions, when grown in tropical countries, are frequently unproductive. In cultivating plants in hot-houses, it is of importance to regulate the temperature, and at the same time to attend to the state of moisture and ventilation, if we wish the plants to flower properly.

5 VIGILS OF PLANTS—SLEEP AND AWAKING OF FLOWERS

778. There are differences in regard to the hours of the day at



Fig 1171



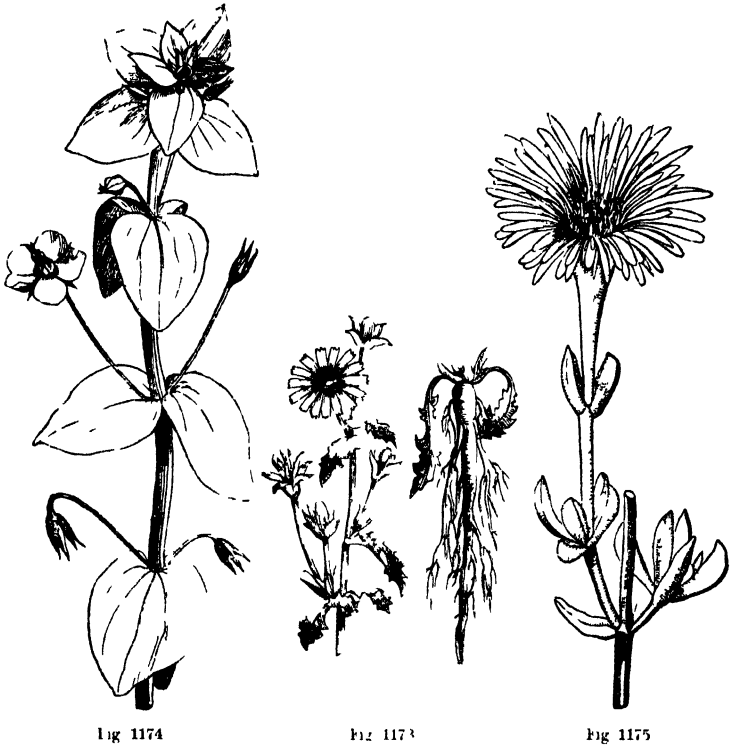
Fig 1172

which flowers expand. Some open at dawn of day, others a few hours

Fig 1171 Head of flower of the Common Marigold (*Calendula officinalis*), belonging to the Compositæ which close their florets in the evening. The outer florets, or those of the ray, cover those of the centre or disk, and thus protect them. The same thing takes place in the Daisy.

Fig 1172 A species of Star of Bethlehem (*Ornithogalum umbellatum*), which closes its flowers about 11 A.M., and is hence called Lady-Eleven o'Clock. The flowers come off from the common rachis in a corymbose form. The bulb, *a*, is scaly, and produces small bulbs or cloves in the axil of the scales. This bulb is supposed to be the *Chironium* or cab of Doves' Dung mentioned in Scripture as being sold during the famine in Samaria for a large sum.—2 Kings vi 25.

later, others at mid-day, others in the evening, and a few after darkness has come on. *Roemeria violacea* expands its blossoms early in the morning, and the petals have generally fallen off two or three hours before noon. Many Composite plants (Fig. 1171) show a remarkable tendency to open and close their florets. Species of Goat's-board (*Tragopogon*) receive the common name of *go-to-bed-at-noon* on account of closing their florets at mid-day. *Cenothera biennis* is called Evening Primrose from opening its flowers in the evening.



779. The vigils of plants attracted the attention of Linnæus, and he constructed what he called a Floral Clock, in which the hours of the day were indicated by the opening of certain flowers, and which were hence called horological. The following is a specimen of such

Fig 1173. One of the Cichoraceous plants, the Chicory (*Cichorium Intybus*), which opens its flowers early in the morning. It is a Composite plant. The root yields chicory, which is often mixed with coffee.

Fig 1174. Scarlet Pimpernel (*Anagallis arvensis*), which opens its flowers about 8 A M., and closes them during gloomy weather and rain. It is called Poor Man's Weather-glass.

Fig 1175. A Ficoid plant (*Mesembryanthemum falciforme*), the flowers of which open and close under the influence of light and darkness.

an arrangement of flowers, in which the hours indicate the periods of waking from sleep—it is given by De Candolle* from observations made at Paris :—

	Hours of Waking.
<i>Ipomœa purpurea</i>	2 A. M.
<i>Ipomœa Nil</i> (<i>Fior de Notte</i>) and <i>Calystegia sepium</i>	3-4 A. M.
<i>Tragopogon</i> , and some other <i>Cichoraceæ</i> , <i>Matricaria suaveolens</i>	4-5 A. M.
<i>Papaver nudicaule</i> and most <i>Cichoraceæ</i> (<i>Fig. 1173</i>)	5 A. M.
<i>Ecbalium Elaterium</i> , <i>Lapsana communis</i> , and some <i>Cichoraceæ</i> , <i>Convolvulus tricolor</i>	5-6 A. M.
<i>Hypochoeris maculata</i> , several species of <i>Solanum</i> , <i>Convolvulus</i> <i>siculus</i>	6 A. M.
Species of <i>Sonchus</i> and <i>Hieracium</i>	6-7 A. M.
Species of <i>Nymphœa</i> , <i>Nuphar</i> , <i>Lactuca</i> , and <i>Camelina</i> , <i>Prenanthes</i> <i>muralis</i>	7 A. M.
<i>Mesembryanthemum barbatum</i> , <i>Specularia Speculum</i> , <i>Cucumis</i> <i>Anguria</i>	7-8 A. M.
<i>Anagallis arvensis</i> (<i>Scarlet Pimpernel</i>). (<i>Fig. 1174</i>)	8 A. M.
<i>Nolana prostrata</i>	8-9 A. M.
<i>Calendula arvensis</i>	9 A. M.
<i>Arenaria rubra</i>	9-10 A. M.
<i>Mesembryanthemum nodiflorum</i>	10-11 A. M.
<i>Ornithogalum umbellatum</i> (<i>Fig 1172</i>), (<i>Lady-Eleven-o'Clock</i>)	11 A. M.
The greater part of the <i>Mesembryaceæ</i> (<i>Fig. 1175</i>), <i>Passiflora carulea</i>	12 A. M.
<i>Scilla pomeridiana</i> (at <i>Montpelier</i>), <i>Pyrethrum corymbosum</i>	2 P. M.
<i>Silene noctiflora</i>	5-6 P. M.
<i>Oenothera biennis</i>	6 P. M.
<i>Mirabilis Jalapa</i>	6-7 P. M.
<i>Lychnis vespertina</i>	7 P. M.
<i>Cereus grandiflorus</i> , <i>Mesembryanthemum noctiflorum</i> , <i>Oenothera</i> <i>tetraptera</i> and <i>suaveolens</i>	7-8 P. M.

780. Fritsch has paid particular attention to the opening and closing of flowers, and gives the results of observations made at Prague, in Bohemia. He states that these phenomena are rarely momentary, but that they are slow and continuous processes, which at all hours of the day are in varying degrees of intensity. He examined 140 species of plants belonging to 29 natural orders, and found that the phases exhibited by flowers in regard to sleeping and waking are influenced by light, by temperature, and more especially by insolation or exposure to the direct rays of the sun. They are also, in a certain degree, dependent on colour. These facts will be illustrated in the succeeding remarks taken from a translation of Fritsch's paper. †

781. Table showing the commencement of sleep and waking in different species :—

* De Candolle, *Physiologie Végétale*, ii. 464. See also Linnæus—*Philos. Bot.* Ed. Vindobon, 1768, p. 278, and *Vigilæ Florum Solarium*—*Philos. Bot.* p. 273.

† Fritsch, *Resultate mehrjährige Beobachtungen über jene Pflanzen deren Blumenkronen sich täglich periodisch Öffnen und Schliessen*—Translated in *Journ. of Hort. Soc. of London*, viii. 1.

Hours.	Commencement of Sleep. No. of Species.	Awaking. No. of Species	Hours.	Commencement of Sleep. No. of Species.	Awaking No. of Spc
0.5 P.M.	7	1	0.5 A.M.	0	0
2.5 "	16	1	2.5 "	1	3
4.5 "	24	0	4.5 "	0	12
6.5 "	25	2	6.5 "	2	34
8.5 "	6	0	8.5 "	1	28
10.5 ..	2	0	10.5 ..	1	2

From this table it appears that the hour 6 P.M., at which the greater number begin to close, is twelve hours distant from that, 6 A.M., at which the greater number begin to expand. The duration of sleep varies from 10 to 20 hours, the mean being about 14.

782. Although there seems to be no time of day when the blossoms of certain plants do not open, yet in the greater number of cases they are closed soon after sunset. The number of species which begin to awake increases slowly at the early hours of the morning, then more rapidly from 2 A.M. to 7 A.M., and decreases again rapidly after mid-day. After that hour only those species open which are night-bloomers. With the exception of a few hours about midnight there is no hour of the day at which blossoms do not begin to close; there are, however, only a few about mid-day, from which time the number increases, reaching its maximum at 6, and then again decreasing.

783. When blossoms begin to open after the cessation of sleep, the change usually takes place in the first instance slowly, then more rapidly, and, as it approaches its maximum, there is another retardation. In a few plants only the complete expansion lasts an hour, more commonly not so much; they then begin to close again, at first slowly, afterwards more rapidly, and, as they approach the maximum of approximation of their petals, the progress is again slow. The flower remains many hours in a more or less closed condition, until the time returns for a new cycle of phases. The state of expansion of the corolla varies. In some cases the limb spreads out at a right angle with the tube, in other cases the angle is less, while in some the limb is turned down so as to form an oblique angle with the tube. Estimating the angular value of the degree of expansion as follows:—

Angular value of phase.	Corresponding angle	Angular value of phase.	Corresponding angle.
Perfectly closed 0	0°	Half reflected 150	135°
Half open 50	45°	Completely reflected 200	180°
Completely expanded 100	90°		

Fritzsch obtains the following results:—

Minimum in 17 species 0	Maximum in 16 species 81-90
" 28 " 1-10	" 13 " 91-100
" 18 " 11-20	" 4 " 101-110
" 5 " 21-30	" 8 " 111-120
" 10 " 31-40	" <i>Barkhausia foetida</i> 121-130
" 4 " 41-50	" <i>Solanum vulgare</i> 131-140
Maximum in <i>Crocus vernus</i> 31-40	" <i>Scorzonera hispanica</i> 141-150
" 4 species 41-50	" <i>Tigridia pavonia</i> 180
" 10 " 51-60	" <i>Pyrethrum corymbosum</i> 190
" 14 " 61-70	
" 15 " 71-80	

SLEEP AND AWAKING OF FLOWERS.

784. The time of the greatest expansion of the flowers varies in different species. In general the number of species whose blossoms attain the maximum of their phase increases from sunrise to mid-day, and then decreases till sunset. None of the day-bloomers are open till 7 A.M., or later than 5 P.M. A similar law seems to hold good with the night-bloomers, which generally seem to open their corolla fully towards midnight, while at mid-day they are completely closed.

Table showing the time of the greatest expansion of the flower.

Time of greatest Expansion.	No. of Night Bloomers.	No. of Day Bloomers.	Time of greatest Expansion.	No. of Night Bloomers.	No. of Day Bloomers.
0.5 P.M.	0	27	0.5 A.M.	1	0
2.5 „	0	13	2.5 „	0	0
4.5 „	0	4	4.5 „	0	0
6.5 „	0	0	6.5 „	0	1
8.5 „	0	0	8.5 „	0	16
10.5 „	2	0	10.5 „	0	26

Thus at the inferior culmination of the sun the night-bloomers are most expanded; the expansion decreases as the sun approaches the horizon; at sunrise they close, when the day-bloomers commence their phases. The day-bloomers are most expanded at mid-day, and closed again towards sunset, when the night-bloomers in turn recommence their course.

785. In those blossoms which are fully expanded in the morning, the duration of expansion is short. In those blossoms which expand in the afternoon, the condition of waking is limited by the length of time the sun is above the horizon. In those blossoms which are fully expanded in the night, the duration of sleep is shortest.

Mean Duration of Sleep in Flowers which open at different times of the day :—

Morning-bloomers (41 species) 14.8 hours.	Afternoon-bloomers (27 species) 12.9 hours.
Mid-day-bloomers (15 species) 14.2 hours.	Night-bloomers (3 species) 11.8 hours.

Those blossoms which are fully expanded in the morning open in general more rapidly than they close, while in those which open in the afternoon the contrary law prevails.

786. While the time of sleep of plants is in close connection with the apparent daily course of the sun, the degree of expansion depends on the temperature of the air and various meteoric conditions, as well as on insolation or exposure to the direct rays of the sun. Hoffmann states that heat is the cause both of the awakening and the sleeping of plants, and that light only enters into those effects in so far as it contains heating rays.* The temperature at which flowers begin to

* Hoffmann, *uber der Pflanzenschlaf*, Giessen, 1850. *Recherches sur le sommeil des Plantes—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xiv. 310.* See also *Bot. Gazette*, May 1851, and Dutrochet, *du Reveil et Sommeil de Fleur—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. vi. 177*

expand varies, and the time of the year has therefore a marked influence :—

Temp. Fahr. at which Species begin to expand.		Mean Time of Observation
38.75°	Two species	April 3.
43.25	Five „	April 18.
47.75	Nine „	May 18.
52.25	Sixteen „	June 16.
56.75	Fourteen	July 5.
61.22	Six „	July 12.
66.75	Malva Alcea	July 7.

787. The following table indicates the temperature at which the greatest degree of expansion of the flowers take place :—

Temp Fahr.		Mean Time of Observation.
47.75°	Mirabilis Jalapa (night-bloomer)	} May 6.
56.75	Erodium cicutarium Lychnis vespertina (night-bloomer)	
61.25	Four species	} Aug. 10.
	Funkia japonica (night-bloomer)	
	Enothera biennis (night-bloomer)	
65.75	Three species	July 2.
70.25	Eleven „	May 27.
74.75	Thirteen „	May 30.
79.25	Fifteen „	June 26.
83.75	Twenty „	June 29.
88.25	Thirteen „	July 13.
97.25	Echinocactus Ottonis	July 15.
106.25	Carlina acaulis	Sept. 1.

The night-bloomers reach the maximum of expansion at from 47.75° to 61.25° ; the day-bloomers from 79.25° to 88.25°.

788. The temperature at which all motion in the corolla ceases varies, as seen by the following list :—

In three species, motion ceased at	74.75° F
In three „ „	83.75
In five „ „	88.25
In four „ „	92.75
In seven „ „	97.25
In Commelina coelestis „	101.75

Thus some flowers cannot bear a temperature of 74.75°, while others can endure a temperature of 100° and more.

789. Plants, in ordinary circumstances, require the light of the sun in order to awake from sleep, either directly by insolation, or indirectly by diffusion in the atmosphere. Some are so sensitive that they begin to expand the moment the sun's rays illuminate the higher regions of the atmosphere. As the intensity of light increases, the number of species which expand their blossoms increases. The

number of species increases as the hour approaches at which insolation (exposure to the direct rays of the sun) ceases. No blossom closes before the insolation begins, for even those flowers which usually close before mid-day remain for some hours open when exposed to the direct rays of the sun.

790. Exposure to artificial light causes some flowers to expand. The flowers of *Crocus* have opened under the light of an Argand lamp, those of *Gentiana verna* expanded fully when exposed to the light of a gas-burner. Gloomy weather and rain cause flowers to close. Those which are very sensitive to such influences are called meteoric. There is a periodicity in flowering which is not easily interrupted. If a plant is accustomed to flower in daylight at a certain time, it will still make an effort to expand its flowers at the wonted time even when confined in a dark room; showing that light is not the only cause of the expansion. De Candolle made experiments on the effects of light and darkness in flowering. He kept plants in two cellars, one warmed by a stove and dark, and the other lighted by lamps. On some plants, as *Convolvulus arvensis* and *Cneorum*, the artificial light had no effect; they still followed the clock hour in their opening and closing. Other plants expanded their blossoms slowly. Night-bloomers appeared disturbed both by perpetual light and perpetual darkness. In either condition they accelerated their movements so much that in 6 days they had gained half a day, and thus exchanged night for day as their time of opening.

791. As regards the connection between the colour of flowers and their expansion, Fritsch says that yellow blossoms possess the strongest tendency to contract and expand, then follow white, red, and blue. Of the species examined, the following are the relative numbers:—

Colour of Flower.	No. of Species showing Movements of Flower	Per Centage of Species Examined.
Yellow	39	42.5
White	22	23.8
Red	19	20.9
Blue	12	12.9

The following are the temperatures at which different-coloured flowers expand their blossoms:—

Colour.	Temp. at which Flowers Wake from Sleep	Temp. at which Flowers attain Greatest Expansion.	Temp. at which Flowers Lose all Motion.
White and Red	51.125°	75.65°	88.7°
Blue and Yellow	51.125	78.8	93.65

792. The direction and position of the flowers on their stalk appear in some cases to be controlled by the sun's rays. This is particularly the case in Composite plants. The capitula of some of them are erect during the day, and droop at night. Species of *Hypochaeris* are said to incline their heads towards the quarter of the heavens in which the sun is shining. The name Sun-flower (*Helianthus*, *Girasole*) was given

to a genus of Composite plants on account of the supposed influence of the sun on the direction of their heads.* In *Victoria regia* there is a spontaneous motion of the flower and the flower-stalk, the cause of which appears to be very obscure. It was observed by Paxton, and is thus described by the Hon. Mr. Chitty, as having been seen by him and Dr. M'Nab in Jamaica. On the 8th September at 6 A.M. the apex of the flower was seen pointing to the north-west. As it rose more above the water, it was seen gradually to wheel round by the west, and south, and north, to west again. The peduncle, which was several inches longer than was necessary to elevate the flower to the surface of the water, had now a spiral twist. At half-past 3 P.M. on the same day the flower was pointing north-west, while Mr. Chitty was inspecting it in that position, it suddenly and quickly wheeled round the quarter of a circle, namely, from north-west to north-east. On the following day the same phenomenon was noticed, the flower being rolled from north-east to north. The phenomenon seemed to be connected with the spiral twisting of the peduncle, and probably may be traced to the action of light and heat.

793. *Melampyrum pratense*, *arvense*, and *sylvaticum*, according to Vaucher, turn their flowers towards the light, which is not the case with *Melampyrum cristatum*. The flowers of some species of *Narcissus* incline towards the light by a double movement, that of the pedicel, which bends, and that of the peduncle, which twists. During maturation the pedicel and the capsule become erect, but the peduncle remains twisted. Occasionally movements of irritability are observed in petals. Morren observed them in the labellum of some Orchids, such as *Megaclinium falcatum*,† and they have been noticed also in the stalk of the labellum of *Drakea elastica*, which bends in a hinge-like manner when irritated. The petals of *Gentiana sedifolia* close when touched.

6. COLOURS OF FLOWERS

794. The Colours of Flowers naturally attract the attention of all, and their varied hues are in an especial manner an object of interest to the florist. These colours usually reside in the corolla, but in the case of many plants, especially Monocotyledons, they occur both in the calyx and corolla (perianth); and in some instances, as in *Salvia* and *Amherstia*, the bracts are highly coloured. The changes produced by culture on the colours of many plants are familiar to every one, and they may be well illustrated in the case of the Tulip and Dahlia, the flowers of which are naturally of a yellow colour, but in the hands of the florist assume all varieties of red, white, and yellow. From its variable nature, colour is not taken much into account by the prac-

* This turning to the sun has given rise to the name of Girasole Artichoke (*Helianthus tuberosus*, a kind of Sunflower), and the name has been corrupted to Jerusalem Artichoke

† Morren, on *Megaclinium falcatum*, in *Mém de l'Acad de Bruxelles*, xi

tical botanist in the determination of the species of flowering plants. It is chiefly in Cryptogamic plants, such as Fungi and Sea-weeds, that this character is regarded of value. It is probable, however, that too little attention has been paid to this subject, owing to the want of an accurate nomenclature, such as has been adopted by Werner in the characters of minerals. Henslow long ago suggested a method by which a correct and comprehensive nomenclature might be established for defining colours in plants. His scheme is a modification of one suggested by Mirbel, and consists in referring all natural colours to certain absolute tints or shades, determined according to fixed rules. Thus, he refers all colours to different degrees of mixture between three colours called primary. They may be assumed, for instance, to be red, blue, and yellow, or purple, orange, and green. If we take red, blue, and yellow, then a mixture of red and blue makes purple; of red and yellow makes orange; of blue and yellow makes green; and innumerable binary compounds may be made by uniting the primaries, two and two, in different proportions. Numerous shades also may be obtained between the deepest that can be found and the faintest, by diluting each colour to a greater or less extent. Thus, he divides a circle into three equal parts, and places blue, red, and yellow respectively in each of the divisions. Around this circle a second is described, and divided into six equal compartments, containing respectively the three primaries, and also those three binaries which are exactly intermediate between them, viz., orange (red and yellow), purple (blue and red), and green (blue and yellow). Another circle, containing twelve equal compartments, is now described round the last, and in these are placed the last six colours, together with six new ones formed by uniting each contiguous pair in the same way as before. Another circle would contain twenty-four colours, and so on; each fresh addition being always formed from the combination of two contiguous colours in a former circle, and between which it is exactly intermediate; and the whole being reduced to a uniform shade in depth of tint.*

795. In this way every conceivable binary compound or pure colour might be formed. But as the colours in contiguous compartments will differ less and less from each other as the circles extend, Henslow thinks that a third circle of twelve colours will be sufficient

* Henslow remarks, If the three colours, purple (B + R), orange (R + Y), and green (B + Y), or any other three taken at equal intervals round a circle constructed on the above principle, had been assumed as our three primaries, and these had been combined two and two, we should have obtained all the pure colours as before, and among them the three former primaries (blue, red, and yellow), under the character of binary compounds. This will be apparent, when we recollect that the union of three primaries such as blue, red, and yellow (B + R + Y), in equal proportions forms white light with the colours of the spectrum, and a grey or neutral tint when material colours are employed

Green + Orange = (B + Y) + (R + Y) = (B + R + Y) + Y = White + Yellow—the latter giving the colour

Orange + Purple = (R + Y) + (B + R) = (B + R + Y) + R = White + Red.

Green + Purple = (B + Y) + (B + R) = (B + R + Y) + B = White + Blue

—Henslow's Principles of Descriptive and Physiological Botany, p. 185.

to give a series which can be easily appreciated, and these he calls fundamental or basial colours. They would stand thus—

- B = Blue.
 2 B + R = Bluish-purple or purplish-blue.
 B + R = Purple.
 2 R + B = Reddish-purple or purplish-red.
 R = Red.
 2 R + Y = Reddish-orange or orange-red.
 R + Y = Orange.
 2 Y + R = Yellowish-orange or orange-yellow.
 Y = Yellow.
 2 Y + B = Greenish-yellow or yellowish-green.
 Y + B = Green.
 2 B + Y = Bluish-green or greenish-blue.

Henslow then proceeds to point out the importance of constructing a chromatometer or measurer of colours, on such principles as to enable the botanist to have a uniform standard to appeal to. There seems to be no doubt that this might be accomplished with benefit to science. The range of colours in species might thus be correctly defined, and an accurate nomenclature established, which is a great desideratum.

796. We now proceed to consider the colours presented by flowers, and more especially the changes which they undergo by cultivation. These changes, although they appear to be endless, are really limited in their extent. In reference to their colours, flowers are divided by De Candolle* into two series—1. Those having *yellow* for their type, and which are capable of passing into red and white, and never into blue. 2. Those having *blue* for their type, and capable of passing into red and white, but never into yellow. The first series is called *Xanthic*, the second *Cyanic*. The following is a tabular view of the two series, green being considered as an intermediate state of equilibrium between the two :—

Red	}	Xanthic Series.
Orange-red		
Orange		
Yellow-orange		
Yellow		
Yellow-green		

Green. Colour of Leaves.

Blue-green	}	Cyanic Series.
Blue		
Blue-violet		
Violet		
Violet-red		
Red		

* De Candolle, *Physiologie Végétale*, ii 906. See also, Schubler and Funk, *Untersuchungen ueber die Bluthenfarben*, Tubingen, 1825.

Or the table may be given thus :—

Green.					
Cyanic Series.	}	Blue-green	Yellow-green	}	Xanthic Series.
		Blue	Yellow		
		Blue-violet	Yellow-orange		
		Violet	Orange		
		Violet-red	Orange-red		
Red.					

Green, which is made up of blue and yellow, is the centre whence the two series diverge, and they meet again in red.* It would appear that all flowers capable of changing colour, do so in general by rising or falling in the series to which they belong. Thus in the Xanthic series, the flowers of the Marvel of Peru may be yellow, orange-yellow, or red; those of the Austrian Rose, orange-yellow or orange-red; those of the Indian Cress vary from yellow to orange or orange-red; those of the garden Ranunculus pass through every gradation in the series from red to green. In the Cyanic series, the Anemone varies from blue to violet and red; the Hyacinth from green to red, through all the gradations; *Lithospermum purpuro-cæruleum*, and many Boraginaceæ, from blue to violet-red; the *Hydrangea* from rose colour to blue; and the ligulate flowers of the China Aster from violet-blue to violet-red and red.

797. These rules cannot be said perhaps to be universally applicable. They appear, however, to be very general, and they are useful in enabling us to predict the possible varieties of colour in the flowers of the same species. To the Xanthic series belong *Adonis*, *Aloe*, *Cactus*, *Camellia*, *Cytisus*, *Dahlia*, *Lysimachia*, *Mesembryanthemum*, *Oenothera*, *Oxalis*, *Potentilla*, *Ranunculus*, *Rose*, *Tulip*, *Verbascum*, &c. As examples of the Cyanic series may be mentioned *Anagallis*, *Campanula*, *Epilobium*, *Geranium*, *Globularia*, *Hyacinth*, *Phlox*, *Polemonium*, *Nemophila*, *Scilla*, *Vinea*, &c. Some exceptions occur to the rule laid down: thus, while Hyacinths are in general blue, red, or white, some varieties assume a pale yellowish hue; the yellow *Auricula* of the Alps, although it does not become pure blue, exhibits occasionally a violet hue; the flowers of *Myosotis versicolor* change from yellow to pale blue.

798. The original colour of the *Tulip* is yellow, and although by cultivation it is made to assume all the varieties of colour in the yellow series, we do not find it becoming blue. Such is also the case with the common *Dahlia* and the *Rose*. No one has succeeded in getting a blue variety of either of the latter. The *Geranium*, on the other hand, although it presents all shades of blue, red, and white, does not become yellow. There seems thus to be a certain limit in the range of colour which a species can be made to assume. These remarks

* Morot, Recherches sur la Coloration des Végétaux—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xiii. 160.

apply only to the change of colour in a given species. They will not apply in all cases to every species of a genus. Thus, while most of the Gentians belong to the blue series, and do not become yellow by cultivation, there is a yellow species of the genus (*Gentiana lutea*) which never changes into blue. Such is also the case in the genera *Aconitum*, *Linum*, *Sonchus*, &c. Again, we find certain plants exhibiting, in the same flower, blue and yellow colours. This is seen in *Dendrobium sanguinolentum*;* also in Pansies, and in many other parti-coloured flowers, as in *Convolvulus tricolor*, and in species of *Myosotis*, which have a yellow zone round the corolline tube, while the upper part is blue. In these last mentioned cases each of the coloured portions of the flower vary in general only in their proper series—the part which is yellow never becoming truly blue, nor the blue yellow. The florets of the ray of Composite plants often exhibit blue colours, while those of the disc are yellow. The law by which the changes of colour are regulated has not been ascertained, and it is impossible, in the present state of our knowledge, to predict what colour a florist's flower will assume. The different rays of light have different effects as regards colours. It would appear, also, that the nature of the soil sometimes alters colours. Thus, *Hydrangea hortensis* (*Hortensia speciosa*) produces blue in place of pink flowers, when planted in some kinds of bog earth and of yellow loam.

799. The colours of flowers often appear to depend on the state of oxygenation of the juices.† Certain flowers have a pale hue when first produced, and change under the influence of sunlight: thus *Cheiranthus Chamæleo* has at first a whitish flower, then a citron-yellow, then red or slightly violet; the petals of *Stylidium fruticosum* are pale yellow at first, then lightish rose-coloured; the flowers of *Oenothera tetraptera* are first whitish, then rose-coloured or nearly red; the corolla of *Cobæa scandens* is greenish-white the first day, and violet the day following; the flowers of *Hibiscus mutabilis* appear in the morning of a white colour, towards mid-day they become flesh-coloured, and at night they are red. The central portion of the floral leaves (bracts) of *Hakea Victoria* is during the first year yellowish-white; during the second, golden-yellow; during the third year, orange; and during the fourth, blood-red. The common pink Phlox is said, early in the morning, to have a lightish blue colour, which alters as the sun advances, and becomes pink. The colours of many Boraginaceous flowers are first pink and then blue. In *Phaseolus Caracalla* the white changes to yellow, having originally been violet. Changes in oxygenation are said to cause these variations in the colours. In Phlox it has been supposed that some substance is present which becomes blue by the non-elimination of oxygen during the night;

* Botanical Register, January 1843.

† The effect of oxygenation on the flowers of plants is very marked thus the juice of *Socotrine Aloes*, when it exudes, is first violet, and next becomes brown, so also that of *Oenanthë crocata*, which is first colourless, then brown. Certain Fungi (species of *Boletus*), when bruised, assume a blue colour from oxygenation of their juice

and as the oxygen is given out during the day, the blue colour disappears; while the red, which had been partially discharged by the same cause, is restored as the oxygen is exhaled.

800. Injury to the petals, during the process of decay, causes the colours of flowers to change. The white flowers of *Camellia japonica*, when bruised, assume a brown colour, in consequence of an alteration in their colouring matter, those of *Bletia Tankervilleæ* and of *Calanthe veratrifolia* change into blue. The yellow flowers of *Melampyrum* become black on drying, and so do the purple flowers of *Lathyrus niger*. The yellow ligulate flowers of *Hieracium staticifolium*, and of some other yellow Cichoraceous plants, and the yellow flowers of some Leguminosæ, such as *Lotus*, become greenish-yellow on drying; the blue flowers of *Ipomœa Learii* in drying become red, while those of *Campanula* become whitish.

801. The colours of flowers depend on a substance different from chlorophyll. The colouring matter is usually of a fluid nature, and has not the composition of chlorophyll. The colours are, however, influenced by light, although in different ways. Marquart thinks that there is a peculiar matter called Anthocyanic or Anthokyan, which is the colouring matter of blue, violet, and red flowers, and another called Anthoxanthin, the colouring matter of yellow flowers. Orange flowers contain both. Feeble acids colour anthocyan violet, while energetic acids colour it red. Concentrated sulphuric acid colours anthoxanthin indigo-blue and then purple, by taking away the elements of water.*

802. Professor Hope† made experiments on the coloured and colourable matters of the leaves and flowers of plants. He thinks that there resides in the same parts of plants, in addition to the chromule or coloured matter, some substance probably destitute of colour, which becomes red by the action of acids, and yellow or green by the action of alkalies. This substance he denominates Chromogen, and he considers it as consisting of two distinct principles, one which forms the red compound with acids, and which he calls Erythrogen; and another which affords a yellow compound with alkalies, which he calls Xanthogen. Leaves, in addition to green chromule or chlorophyll, contain Xanthogen, and some of them (excepting those which have some tint different from the green), contain Erythrogen. White flowers contain Xanthogen, but no Erythrogen; such is also the case generally with yellow flowers, while red and blue flowers contain both Xanthogen and Erythrogen. Litmus is a solitary example of a substance abounding largely in Erythrogen, but containing no Xanthogen.

803. In 1831, Kohler, of Tübingen, published an Inaugural Dissertation, in which he gave the results of some investigations made

* Marquart, *Die Farben der Blüthen*, Bonn. 1835. On the Colours of Flowers—Edin. New Phil. Journ. xx. 429.

† Hope, Observations on the Coloured and Colourable Matters in the Leaves and Flowers of Plants—Proceedings of the Roy. Soc. of Edin 21st March 1836 Also Ellis's description of a Plant Case, in *London's Gardener's Magazine*. xv 495

by himself and Schubler, relative to the colour of the flowers in different families of plants. They examined the relations of the flowers of 4200 plants belonging to 27 different natural orders and tribes, of which 20 were dicotyledonous and 7 monocotyledonous. The dicotyledons belonged to orders and tribes represented by the following genera:—Jasmine, Nightshade, Gentian, Borage, Heliotrope, Lysimachia, Primrose, Polemonium, Convolvulus, Harebell, Violet, Butterwort, Vine, Madder, Rose, Ranunculus, Poppy, Water-lily, Figwort, Wallflower. The monocotyledons belonged to orders and tribes represented by the following genera:—Lily, Hemerocallis, Amaryllis, Squill, Iris, Smilax, and Indian-shot. The monocotyledons examined had generally a greater tendency to flowers of the white and yellow-red series of tints than the dicotyledons, while blue flowers were more frequent in the latter.

804. The following table is given of the distribution of colours in these natural orders:—

Colour of Flower	In 4200 Species.	Mean of 1000.	Colour of Flower	In 4200 Species.	Mean of 1000.
White	1193	284	Green	153	36
Yellow	951	226	Orange	50	12
Red	923	220	Brown	18	4
Blue	594	141	Black	8	2
Violet	307	73			

Hence it would appear that in the species examined, white was the most extensively distributed colour; and that among the other coloured flowers, yellow, red, and blue were of more frequent occurrence than the three intermediate tints (violet, green, and orange). Of the three primary colours, yellow was most abundant, blue the rarest, while of the three intermediate colours violet was the most frequent. It is doubtful whether a truly black colour exists in flowers. The darkest tints, as in the flower of the Bean, are of a deep brown hue.

805. Different colours prevail in different natural orders, as seen by the following table:—

100 SPECIES	White.	Red.	Violet.	Blue	Green	Yellow	Orange.
Water-lily family	46	11	—	14	—	28	—
Rose	40	32.2	0.5	—	—	52.2	—
Borage	35	10	9	28	3	13	0.5
Primrose	27	41	7	6	1.5	15	9.7
Convolvulus	27	39	10	12	—	7	2.4
Ranunculus	19	16	4	15	2	42	0.5
Campanula	10	5	21	58	—	3	0.7
Poppy	7	38	9	—	—	36	7

Thus the Water-lily and Rose families contained the greatest number

of white-flowered species, the Poppy and Campanula tribes the fewest. Primroses and Convolvulus were richest in red, Campanulas in blue, and Ranunculuses in yellow.

806. It would appear that certain districts are occasionally characterised by the prevalence of flowers of a particular colour. It is said that in New Guinea and Papua there is a great proportion of white flowers. Hinds says that out of 50 species examined by him there were 12 blue, 23 yellow, and 15 white. Brown and yellow Papilionaceæ abound in many parts of Australia. In Central America, 10° north latitude, and in a similar parallel to New Guinea, the series of colours, according to Hinds, were 12 blue, 30 yellow, and 8 white; and in a high northern latitude, 57°, there were 26 blue, 13 yellow, and 11 white.

807. The arrangement of coloured flowers in the parterre is a matter deserving the attention of gardeners.* Chevreul has written very fully on the subject. He states that an important principle is to combine such colours as produce white light. Thus red, blue, and yellow form, by their union, a white ray. Hence flowers of these colours may be, with propriety, placed together; or a flower of one of these primary colours may be combined with one whose colour is made up of the other two in the shape of a binary compound. Thus, red agrees well with green, which is made up of yellow and blue. This may be seen in the case of the scarlet Pelargonium, where the colour harmonizes with its own green leaves, or with the green of other plants around it; so also in the case of red Dahlias. Again, blue harmonizes with orange compounded of yellow and red, as may be illustrated by a combination of the *Brachycome iberidifolia* with *Erysimum Perofskianum*. Yellow harmonizes with violet, composed of blue and red, as seen in the petals of Pansies. To produce the best effect the colours should be as nearly as possible of the same tone.

808. In cases where colours do not agree, placing white between them restores the effect. White is said to come in best in the complimentary arrangement of blue and orange, and worst in that of yellow and violet. The primary colours, red, yellow, and blue combined in pairs, give a better effect than a combination of one primary colour with one binary colour containing that primary one.

Thus, Red and yellow are better than Red and orange.		
„ Yellow and blue	„ „	Yellow and green.
„ Blue and red	„ „	Blue and violet.
„ Red and blue	„ „	Red and violet.
„ Blue and yellow	„ „	Blue and green.
„ Yellow and red	„ „	Blue and violet.

Where a primary colour, and a binary one containing the primary are combined, the brighter the tint of the binary the better.

* M'Intosh, *Book of the Garden*, i. 593.

809. Chevreul has given the following illustrations of the mode of arranging flowers as regards their colours :—

1. White Arabis, *Saxifraga crassifolia*, and *Caucasian Doronicum*.
2. Saxifrage, *Doronicum*, Arabis, and Purple Honesty.
3. Blue Hyacinth, yellow Narcissus, repeated ; or Hyacinths alone, white and red repeated ; or white, blue, white, red, &c., repeated.
4. *Iberis sempervirens*, and *Alyssum saxatile* repeated ; *Iberis*, *Phlox varia* (purple), *Anemone pavonina* (red), or *Anemone appenina* (sky-blue).
5. White and blue Periwinkles, white and blue Violets, mixed along with common Anemones.
6. *Cydonia Japonica*, rising as a bush in a bed of Violets.

Kemp says that to produce strong and striking effects there must not be merely a tolerable collection of plants mixed together and disposed so as to give variety and contrast of colour, but groups of particular kinds should be planted in permanent places.*

810. Dr. Hope examined the effect of sulphurous acid on the colours of flowers. It did not affect white flowers, nor did it decolorize any of the yellow flowers submitted to its action ; of thirty or forty red flowers it decolorized all, with the exception of two or three ; of twenty blue flowers only two, (*Commelina cœrulea* and *Centaurea Cyanus* (Fig. 392, p. 163), resisted its blanching powers. It decolorized some of the orange-coloured flowers, but rendered others of them of a bright yellow ; it decolorized all the purple flowers that were tried, except purple *Centaurea Cyanus*, which it rendered blue, and purple *Scabiosa atro-purpurea*, which it reddened.†

7. ODOURS OF FLOWERS.

811. The odours of flowers, as well as their colours, vary much.‡ The sources of odours in flowers are very obscure. They are often traced to the presence of fragrant volatile oils or resins. The effluvia are of such a subtle nature as to elude chemical analysis. They are usually developed under the influence of sunshine, but in certain instances odours are emitted during the absence of light. Some flowers are only odoriferous in the evening. This is the case with *Cestrum nocturnum*, with several species of *Catasetum* and *Cymbidium*, and with *Lychuis vespertina*. Certain flowers, such as *Hesperis tristis*, and *Nyctanthes arbor tristis*, receive their specific names (*tristis*, sad) from giving out their fragrance only at night. Morren states that

* Kemp, on the laying out of a small garden.

† Hope, on Coloured and Colourable Matters in Flowers—Proceedings of Edin. Roy. Soc. March 21, 1836. Sulphurous acid, whether employed in its gaseous or liquid form, did not decolorize the chlorophyll of leaves.

‡ The study of the odour of flowers has received the name of Oosphresiology.—See Cloquet sur les odeurs, Paris, 1815.

the flowers of *Habenaria bifolia*, near Liege, which are quite scentless during the day, give out a pleasant penetrating aroma in the evening, usually about 11 p.m. He found that the perfume manifested itself at twilight, exhibited the greatest energy at the time when the darkness of night prevailed, and decreased with the dawn. Two racemes of flowers of this Orchid were placed in two cylindrical glasses filled with water, in which the plants were totally submerged. One glass was placed in the sun, the other in the shade. As evening came on a delicious aroma became evident, and was emitted during the night, but disappeared at sunrise. This leads, Morren thinks, to the conclusion that the odour depends on some physiological cause, and not on evaporation of particles, nor the accumulation of them in the parts of the plants where they have their origin. He found that aromatic Orchids, such as *Maxillaria aromatica*, lost their perfume in half an hour after the application of the pollen had been artificially made, and that the unfertilized flower retained its odour long. According to Recluz, the flowers of a plant called by him *Cacalia septentrionalis* are odoriferous when the sun shines upon them, but when the sun's rays are intercepted by artificial means, even by interposing the hand, the odour disappears. The odour returns when the sun's rays are admitted.*

812. *Trinchinetti*† divides odoriferous flowers into two classes:—

1. Those in which the intermission of odour is connected with the opening and closing of the flower, and in this class there are two sub-divisions.
 - a. Flowers which are closed and scentless during the day, and are open and odoriferous at night; such as *Mirabilis Jalapa*, *M. dichotoma*, *M. longiflora*, *Datura ceratocaula*, *Nyctanthes arbor tristis*, *Cereus grandiflorus*, *C. nycticalus*, *C. serpentinus*, *Mesembryanthemum noctiflorum*, and some species of *Silene*.
 - b. Flowers which are closed and scentless during the night, and are open and odoriferous during the day; such as *Convolvulus arvensis*, *Cucurbita Pepo*, *Nymphæa alba*, and *N. cærulea*.
2. Flowers which are always open, but which are odoriferous at one time and scentless at another Under this class there are two sections.
 - a. Flowers always open, and only odoriferous during the day; such as *Cestrum diurnum*, *Coronilla glauca*, and *Cacalia septentrionalis*.
 - b. Flowers always open, and only odoriferous at night; such as *Pelargonium triste*, *Cestrum nocturnum*, *Hesperis tristis*, and *Gladiolus tristis*.

813. The exudation of odours by nocturnal flowers sometimes takes place in a peculiarly intermittent manner. Thus in the night-blooming *Cereus* (*Cereus grandiflorus*) the flowers are fragrant only at inter-

* Recluz, de l'effet des rayons solaires sur la fleur du *Cacalia septentrionalis*—*Journal de Pharmacie*, 1827, p. 216.

† *Trinchinetti*, de odoribus Florum—Vide Morren, Rapport sur le Mémoire de M. *Trinchinetti* Acad. Roy. de Bruxelles, tom. vi

vals, giving out puffs of odour every half hour, from eight in the evening till midnight. Morren states that on one occasion the flower began to expand at six o'clock in the evening, when the first fragrance was perceptible in the hot-house. A quarter of an hour afterwards the first puff of odour took place, after a rapid motion of the calyx; at 6.23 there was another powerful emanation of fragrance; by thirty-five minutes past six the flower was completely open; at a quarter to seven the odour of the calyx was the strongest, but modified by the petals. After this time the emanations of odour took place at the same periods as before.* The odours of flowers have frequently peculiar effects on nervous individuals, particularly when the odours are connected with the presence of hydrocyanated oils. The odour of some flowers is remarkably overpowering, and that of others, such as *Stapelias* or Carrion flowers (Fig. 1176), is very offensive.



Fig 1176

814. Observations have been made by Kohler and Schubler in regard to odoriferous flowers, as occurring in species belonging to the natural orders already noticed when speaking of colours. They have arranged the coloured flowers which they examined according to their odoriferous qualities, and according to the nature of their odours:—

COLOUR	Species	Odoriferous	Odours agreeable	Odours disagreeable
White	1193	167	175	12
Yellow	951	75	61	14
Red	923	85	76	9
Blue	594	31	23	7
Violet	307	23	17	6
Green	153	12	10	2
Orange	50	3	1	2
Brown	18	1	0	1

Of the white-flowering plants examined a large number were odoriferous, and the great majority of the odours were agreeable; while of the orange and brown-coloured flowers a smaller proportion were odoriferous, and the odours were generally fetid. The Monocotyle-

Fig. 1176 One of the Carrion flowers (*Stapelia variegata*), belonging to the natural order Asclepiadaceæ. It receives its English name on account of the fetid odour of its dark brown flowers. The odour attracts flies

* Morren, Observations sur l'Anatomie et la Physiologie de la fleur du *Cereus grandiflorus*, in Bull. de l'Acad. Roy. de Bruxelles, tom 1. See also Fleming on the Temperature of the Seasons, p 93

NATURAL FAMILY	Prevailing Colours	Odoriferous Flowers per cent.
Water-lily family .	White and yellow	22
Rose " . .	Red, yellow, and white	13.1
Primrose " . .	White and red	12.3
Borage " . .	Blue and white	5.9
Convolvulus " . .	Red and white	4.13
Ranunculus " . .	Yellow	4.11
Poppy " . .	Red and yellow	2
Campanula " . .	Blue	1.31

815. Recapitulation of the principal points connected with the functions of the floral envelopes :—

1. The floral envelopes which are of a green colour perform the same functions as leaves—decomposing carbonic acid and giving out oxygen.
2. The bright-coloured floral envelopes, along with the receptacle, usually evolve carbonic acid.
3. The starch stored up in the corolla and receptacle is converted into grape-sugar.
4. While this change is taking place in the starch, oxygen is absorbed, and carbonic acid is exhaled.
5. Single flowers absorb more oxygen than double flowers, on account of the presence of the organs of reproduction, more especially of the stamens.
6. Flowers, at the time when the essential organs are fully developed, give out a certain amount of heat, which is due apparently to chemical changes going on in the cells.
7. In ordinary cases the heat is carried off rapidly by the air, and cannot be easily detected.
8. But in the case of certain plants, especially species of Araceæ, the elevation of temperature is very marked, the maximum varying from 10° to 50° F. or more above the surrounding air.
9. The maximum of temperature in the Araceæ occurs at different periods of the day—frequently between 3 and 6 p.m.
10. The temperature bears a relation to the quantity of oxygen consumed, as well as to the carbonic acid evolved.
11. The phenomenon of the production of heat requires the presence of oxygen. It is not exhibited when the plants are placed in nitrogen or carbonic acid gas, nor when the parts are covered with oil.
12. The periods of flowering vary, and hence plants are divided into annual, biennial, and perennial.
13. When flowering takes place after having been long delayed, either naturally or artificially, it frequently proceeds with great vigour and rapidity.
14. Injuries done to plants often cause them to flower.
15. The different periods of the year at which plants flower have given rise to the construction of floral calendars.

16. The climate of different countries and the nature of the seasons may be in some degree determined by the florescence or flowering of certain species of plants.
17. The registration of such periodic phenomena is important in botanical geography.
18. Plants expand their flowers at particular periods of the day, and hence floral clocks have been formed in which the hours are marked by the flowering of certain species of plants.
19. The vigils of plants, or their sleeping and awaking, depends in a great measure on temperature and light.
20. Some flowers are diurnal or day-bloomers, opening during light, others are nocturnal or night-bloomers, opening at night.
21. The mean duration of sleep in plants is about 12 or 14 hours.
22. The state of the expansion of the corolla varies in different instances, and the temperature required in day and night-bloomers for the maximum expansion is different.
23. Artificial light will cause the expansion of certain blossoms.
24. Meteoric flowers are those which close during cloudy or wet weather.
25. Differently coloured flowers seem to possess different degrees of irritability. Yellow are said to possess the strongest tendency to close and expand, then follow white, red, and blue.
26. The position of flowers on the stalk is sometimes influenced by the light of the sun. At other times there seems to be a peculiar twisting of the peduncle and turning of the flower, which cannot be traced to direct solar influence or insolation.
27. The colours of flowers have not been well defined, and there is necessity for a good nomenclature of plant-colours.
28. Colour is not employed in botanical characters, except in some of the lower tribes of plants.
29. The colours of flowers are ranged in two series—the Cyanic or blue, and the Xanthic or yellow.
30. Each of the series diverges from green as a centre, and after passing through different shades of colour, they unite again in red. In both the series red and white occur.
31. A species belonging to the blue series may exhibit all shades of white, purple, and violet, but it does not become pure yellow. A species belonging to the yellow series may exhibit all shades of white and orange, but it does not become pure blue.
32. This law refers to single species, and not to the different species of a genus, some of which may be yellow, and others blue.
33. Parti-coloured flowers exhibit colours in both series, but the colours in such cases are usually defined, and do not change into each other.
34. The arrangement of coloured flowers in the garden, so as to produce harmony, is of importance. The complementary colours, or those required to make up white light, such as blue, yellow, and red, contrast best. White often relieves the effect when there is a want of harmony.
35. The chromule or colouring matter of flowers differs from chlorophyll, and it is supposed by some to be formed of two colourable principles, one being the colouring matter of yellow flowers, and the other that of blue and red flowers.
36. There are certain prevailing colours in different natural orders, and the flora of a district or country is sometimes marked by the prevalence of certain colours.
37. The odours of flowers vary much, and depend on very subtle matters beyond the determination of the chemist.
38. Some plants give out their odours during day, others during night; and occasionally the odours are given off in puffs at short intervals.
39. The colours of flowers appear to be in some way associated with odours. Dark brown flowers have often a very disagreeable odour.
40. Some natural orders contain many odoriferous species, others do not contain any.

II. FUNCTIONS OF THE ESSENTIAL ORGANS OF REPRODUCTION.

1. BRIEF HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE SUBJECT.*

816. The idea of the existence of separate sexes in plants was entertained in early times, long before separate male and female organs had been demonstrated. The production of Dates in Egypt, by bringing two kinds of flowers into contact, proves that in very remote periods some notions were entertained on the subject. Female Date Palms (Fig. 1177) only were cultivated, and wild ones were brought from the desert in order to fertilize them. Herodotus informs us that the Babylonians knew of old that there were male and female Date-trees, and that the female required the concurrence of the male to become fertile. This fact was also known to the Egyptians, the Phœnicians, and other nations of Asia and Africa. The Babylonians suspended male clusters from wild Dates over the females; but they seem to have supposed that the fertility thus produced depended on the presence of small flies among the wild flowers, which, by entering the female flowers, caused them to set and ripen. The process was called palmification. A similar statement was made in regard to the Fig. The process of caprifigation, or bringing wild Figs in contact with cultivated ones, so as to cause

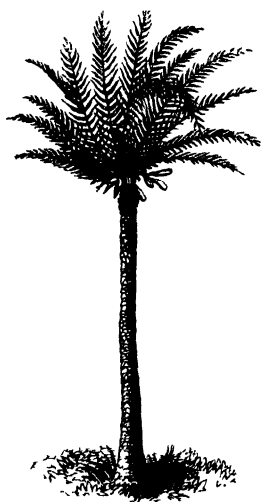


Fig. 1177

the latter to ripen soon, is mentioned by Aristotle, who observed that a certain insect was generated on the flowers of the Caprifig (wild Fig), which, having become a fly, entered the unripe fruit of the domestic Fig, and caused it to set.† Theophrastus,‡ who succeeded Aristotle in his school in the 114th Olympiad, frequently mentions the sexes of plants, but he does not appear to have determined the organs of reproduction. Pliny,§ who flourished under Vespasian,

Fig. 1177. Date Palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*), bearing fruit at the upper part of the stem, where the crown of leaves is formed.

* For full details connected with the history of Embryogeny up to 1770, see Alston's Dissertation on the Sexes of Plants, in Edin. Physical and Literary Essays and Observations, i. 228.

† Gasparrius, on the Caprifigation of the Fig, translated in Journ Hort Soc Lond. iii. 185.

‡ Theophrastus, De Historia et de Causis Plantarum, lib. i. c. 22, ii. c. 8 and 9, and iii. c. 9.

§ Plinius, Hist Naturalis, lib xiii c 4.

speaks particularly of a male and female Palm, but his statements were not founded on any real knowledge of the organs. From Theophrastus down to Cæsalpinus, who died at Rome in 1603, there does not appear to have been any attention paid to the reproductive organs of plants. Cæsalpinus* had his attention directed to the subject, and he speaks of a halitus or emanation from the male plants causing fertility in the female.

817. Grew, in a paper on the Anatomy of Plants, read before the Royal Society in November 1676, seems to have been the first who really observed the functions of the stamens and pistils. Up to this period all was vague conjecture. Grew speaks of the *attire*, or the stamens, as being the male parts, and he mentions having spoken of the subject to Sir Thomas Millington, Savilian Professor at Oxford, who entertained the same opinion. Grew says that "when the attire or apices break or open, the globules or dust falls down on the seed-case or uterus, and touches it with a prolific virtue; not by entering bodily, or as to its gross substance, but only by communicating to it some subtile or vivific effluvia."† Ray‡ adopted Grew's views, and states various arguments to prove their correctness in the preface to his work on European Plants, published in 1694. In 1694, Camerarius,§ Professor of Botany and Medicine at Tubingen, published a letter on the sexes of plants, in which he refers to the stamens and pistils as the organs of reproduction, and states the difficulties he had encountered in determining the organs of Cryptogamic plants. In 1703, Mr. Samuel Morland,|| in a paper read before the Royal Society, stated that the farina (pollen) is a congeries of seminal plants, one of which must be conveyed into every ovum or seed before it can become prolific. In this remarkable statement he seems to anticipate in part the discoveries afterwards made as to pollen tubes, and more particularly the views promulgated by Schleiden. In 1711, Geoffroy,¶ in a memoir presented to the Royal Academy at Paris, supported the views of Grew and others as to the sexes of plants. He states that the germ is never to be seen in the seed till the apices (anthers) shed their dust; and that if the stamina be cut out before the apices open, the seed will either not ripen, or be barren if it ripens. He mentions two experiments made by him to prove this—one by cutting off the staminal flowers in Maize, and the other by rearing the female plant of *Mercurialis* apart from the male. In these instances most of the flowers were abortive, but a few were fertile, which he attributes to the dust of the apices having been wafted by the wind from other plants.

818. Linnæus was the next botanical author who took up the subject of the sexes of plants, and he may be said to have opened a new

* Cæsalpinus, *De Plantis*, lib. 1. c. 3

† Grew, *Anatomy of Vegetables*, p. 171.

‡ Ray, *Historia Plantarum*, p. 18

§ Camerarius, *Epistola de Sexu Plantarum*, Tubing. 1694.

|| Morland, *Observations on the parts and use of the Flower in Plants*—*Phil. Trans.* for 1703, xxii. p. 1474.

¶ Geoffroy, *Observations sur la Structure et l'Usage des principales parties des Fleurs*, in *Mém. de l'Acad. Roy. Franc.* for 1711, p. 272

era in the history of Botany. He first published his views in 1736, and he thus writes—"Antheras et stigmata constituere sexum plantarum, a palmicolis, Millingtono, Grewio, Rayo, Camerario, Godofredo, Morlando, Vaillantio, Blairio, Jussievio, Bradleyo, Royeno, Logano, &c., detectum, descriptum et pro infallibile assumptum; nec ullum, apertis oculis considerantem cujuscunque plantæ flores, latere potest."* He divided plants into sexual and asexual, the former being Phanerogamous or flowering, and the latter Cryptogamous or flowerless. In the latter division of plants he could not detect stamens and pistils, and he did not investigate the mode in which their germs were produced. He was no physiologist, and did not promulgate any views as to the embryogenic process. His followers were chiefly engaged in the arrangement and classification of plants, and while descriptive Botany made great advances, the physiological department of the science was neglected. His views were not, however, adopted at once by all, for we find Alston stating arguments against them in his Dissertation on the Sexes of Plants. Alston's observations were founded on what occurred in certain unisexual plants, such as *Mercurialis*, Spinach, Hemp, Hop, and Bryony. The conclusions at which he arrives are those of Pontedera, † that the pollen is not in all flowering plants necessary for impregnation, for that fertile seeds can be produced without its influence. ‡

819. Soon after the promulgation of Linnæus' method of classification, the attention of botanists was directed to the study of Cryptogamic plants, and the valuable work of Hedwig on the reproductive organs of Mosses made its appearance in 1782.§ He was one of the first to point out the existence of certain cellular bodies in these plants which appeared to perform the functions of reproductive organs, and to them the name of antheridia and pistillidia were given. This opened up a new field of research, and led the way in the study of Cryptogamic reproduction, which has since been much advanced by the labours of numerous botanical enquirers (p. 321, note).

820. The interesting observations of Morland, already quoted, seem to have been neglected, and no one attempted to follow in the path which he had pointed out. Botanists were for a long time content to know that the scattering of the pollen from the anther, and its application to the stigma, were necessary for the production of perfect seed, but the stages of the process of fertilization remained unexplored. The matter seemed involved in mystery, and no one attempted to raise the veil which hung over the subject of Embryogeny. The general view was, that the embryo originated in the ovule, which was in some obscure manner fertilized by the pollen.

* Linnæus, *Systema Naturæ*, 1748, p. 216, *Philosophia Botanica*, 1751, p. 91, Vid. etiam Wahlborn, *Sponsalia Plantarum*, in *Linn. Amœn. Acad.* i. 61-109.

† Pontedera, *Anthologia*.

‡ Alston, in *Physical and Literary Essays*, i. p. 318

§ Hedwig, *Fundamentum Hist. Nat. Muscorum Frondosorum*, Lipsiæ, 1782, *Theoria Generationis et Fructificationis Plantarum Cryptogamicarum*, Petropoli, 1784, et Lipsiæ, 1796

821. In 1815, Treviranus* roused the attention of botanists to the development of the embryo, but although he made valuable researches, he did not add much in the way of new information. In 1823, Amici† discovered the existence of pollen-tubes, and he was followed by Brongniart‡ and Brown.§ The latter traced the tubes as far as the nucleus of the ovule. These important discoveries mark a new epoch in Embryology, and may be said to be the foundation of the views now entertained by physiologists, which have been materially aided by the subsequent elucidation of the process of cytogenesis, or cell-development, by Schleiden, Schwann, Mohl, and others. The whole subject has been investigated recently with great assiduity and zeal by physiologists, both as regards Cryptogamous and Phanerogamous plants. The formation of germinal vesicles in the ovule, and the development of the embryo in flowering plants, have been fully considered by Schleiden, Mirbel, Mohl, and others; the embryogenic process in Coniferous plants and in the higher Cryptogams by Hofmeister, Suminski, and Mettenius; and that of the lower Cryptogams by Thuret, Decaisne, and Tulasne. We have thus been enabled to come to certain general conclusions on this obscure subject, and future observers have been directed in the proper path of investigation.

2. SEXUALITY OF PLANTS. MATURATION OF THE ORGANS CONCERNED IN REPRODUCTION; AND CHANGES PRECEDING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE EMBRYO.

822. In flowering plants the organs concerned in reproduction are the stamens and pistils, while in flowerless plants, organs called antheridia and archegonia, as well as peculiar cells, exist, which appear to perform this function. As regards the former class of plants, many proofs have been given that the pollen discharged from the anthers must be applied to the stigmatic surface of the pistil in order to produce perfect seed. Among the best evidences of the functions of the stamens and pistil in flowering plants, are those derived from species in which these organs are separated, and in which, when contact is carefully prevented, no seed is produced. A Palm (*Chamærops humilis*, var. *elata*) which still exists at Leyden,|| and which, in the days of Clusius, produced pistilliferous flowers but no fruit, was impregnated by pollen from a staminiiferous plant, and immediately perfected

* Treviranus, von der Entwicklung des Embryo, &c. Berlin, 1815.

† Amici, Observations Microscopiques sur le Pollen—Atti della Soc. Italian. xix., trad. in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 1st ser. ii. 65. See also Amici, sur la Mode d'Action du Pollen sur le Stigmate, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 1st ser. xx. 320.

‡ Brongniart, Mém. sur la Génération et le Développement de l'Embryon dans les Végétaux Phanerogames, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 1st ser. xii. 14, 145, 225. See also xxiv. 113.

§ Brown, on the Organs and Mode of Fecundation in Orchidæ and Asclepiadæ, in Linn. Trans. xvi. 685.

|| This Palm is upwards of 250 years of age, and is noticed and figured by Dr Neill in his Horticultural Tour in Holland, &c. p. 166.

seed. Similar observations have been made in Edinburgh upon the same species of Palm, as well as on the Pitcher-plant (Fig. 1178). In plants such as Cucumbers, gardeners are well aware of the necessity of applying the male to the female flowers in order to get fruit; and the production of hybrid plants, by applying the pollen of one plant to the pistil of another, is also an evidence of the uses of these organs. Experiments of this kind require much caution to avoid fallacy arising from pollen being wafted from a distance, so as to cause female plants to produce fruit. Moreover, it sometimes happens that in plants usually producing pistilliferous flowers only, stamens are developed. This has occurred frequently in *Chamærops humilis*, var. *elata*, the arborescent form of the European Fan Palm, in the Edinburgh Botanic Garden. Such a case might have been considered, by careless observers,



Fig. 1178.

Fig. 1179.

Fig. 1180.

as an instance of a female plant producing fertile seed without the action of pollen. When flowers are completely double, that is, when the stamens and pistils are entirely converted into petals, no seed is produced. Occasionally, however, in flowers apparently double, a single stamen may exist, with sufficient pollen to fertilize the plant, or the pistil may be perfect, so that pollen from other plants may affect it, and lead to the production of perfect seed.

Fig. 1178. Flowering stalk of the Pitcher-plant (*Nepenthes distillatoria*), with its folded leaves in the form of ascidia (pitchers). The plant is dioecious, male flowers being produced on one plant as above, and female on a separate plant. By taking the pollen of the one and applying it to the pistil of the other, fertile seeds were produced many years ago in Edinburgh, for the first time in Britain.

Fig. 1179. Male (staminiferous) flowering plant of Hemp (*Cannabis sativa*).

Fig. 1180. Male and female flowers of Hemp (*Cannabis sativa*). 1. Male flower, with reflexed perianth and five stamens. 2. Cluster of female flowers of the Hemp, enclosed by bracts. It has been said that the female flowers have produced perfect seed without the application of pollen.

823. In certain cases, it has been stated that perfect seed has been produced without the agency of pollen. Pontedera and Alston brought forward supposed instances of this in Hemp (Figs. 1179 and 1180), Mercurialis, and Spinach, and similar statements were made by Bernhardi* in regard to these plants, as well as *Lychnis dioica*, and by Fresenius in regard to *Datisca cannabina*. Mr. Smith† of Kew mentions a Euphorbiaceous plant, *Cœlobogyne ilicifolia*, in which he states that perfect seeds were produced without the presence of pollen. Liebmann‡ notices a similar occurrence in a species of *Cycas* in the Botanic Garden of Copenhagen, and Gasparrini§ asserts that Figs developed in summer never contain male flowers, and yet produce seeds which contain an embryo. All these cases require further investigation. Richard, Desfontaines, and others, by careful experiments, found that no perfect seeds were produced in Hemp when the males were carefully excluded. It frequently happens that in monœcious and diœcious plants, male organs are produced among female flowers in a very obscure form. Even in the animal kingdom statements were at one time made in regard to the productiveness of females without contact with males. Such observations were found to be incorrect, and proceeded entirely from the difficulty of detecting the male organs. Thus in the *Tunicata* it was supposed that ovaries only were present, but subsequently testes were found; it required microscopic examination to detect the presence of testes in the same mass with the ovaries. In the case of the Fig, Gasparrini detected at the upper part of the nucleus of the ovule certain cells, which he called pollinides (pollinii), filled with a semi-fluid granular-matter, which might probably serve the purpose of pollen.|| A similar structure was noticed by Gasparrini in some Oranges with plurality of embryos. In the case of *Cœlobogyne* it has been stated that the glands of the bracts contain a viscid fluid, which may perhaps be employed in fertilization. These glands are considered by many as produced by a deduplication or chorization of the anthers. These anomalous cases require examination, and at all events, they are not such as to overthrow the opinion as to the necessity of the application of pollinic matter of some kind to the stigma in order to produce a fertile seed. In all investigations of this kind, it must also be remembered that the only test of true fertilization is the production of a germinating embryo, for the mere swelling of the ovary and of the ovule may take

* Bernhardi, ueber Bildung von Samen ohne Vorhergegangene Befruchtung, in Otto und Dietrich Allgem. Garten Zeit. 1839, sur la Formation des Graines sans Fecondation, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xii. 362. See also Annals of Nat. Hist. vii. 166

† Smith, Notice of a Plant which produces perfect seeds without any apparent action of pollen on the stigma, in Trans. Linn. Soc. xviii. 510, Annals of Nat. Hist. iv. 63.

‡ Liebmann, concerning the Impregnation of *Cycas*, in Proceed. of Scandln. Nat. at Copenhagen in 1847. See Proc. Linn. Soc. March 5, 1850.

§ Gasparrini, Ricerche sulla Natura del Caprifico et de Fico, &c. Napoli, 1845. Sur quelques points de Physiologie relatifs au Figuier et au Caprificuer, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xi. 365. See also Journal Hort. Soc. Lond. iii. 186.

|| Gasparrini, sur l'Origine de l'Embryon dans les Graines des Plantes Phanerogames—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. v. 206, vi. 365

place without impregnation. Thus a specimen of *Carica Papaya* (Fig. 1181) was fertilized in the Edinburgh Botanic Garden by pollen from another species of the same genus, and fruit was produced with fertile seed; and the same plant produced next year large fruit without any application of pollen, but the seed was not perfect. Henslow has conjectured that cases where fertile seed is stated to have been formed without the action of pollen, may be analogous to what is seen in Aphides, where one impregnation is sufficient to produce eight or ten generations.

824. In Phanerogamous plants provision is made for securing the application of the pollen to the stigmatic portion of the pistil or to the ovule. The relative lengths of the stamens and pistils, in erect and pendulous flowers, are varied on this account, and the mode in which the anthers open is also made subservient to the same end (p. 231). In the case of some plants, the elastic filaments are bound down by the floral envelopes until such time as the pollen is ripe, and then they are set free so as to scatter the pollen with great force. This phenomenon is seen in the common Nettle (*Urtica dioica*), and in the



Fig. 1181.



Fig. 1182.



Fig. 1183.

Pellitory of the wall (Fig. 1182). Elastic filaments occur also in *Cornus canadensis*. In this plant the corolla of each flower consists of four segments, which are for some time folded over the other floral organs, and meet in a central point. Towards their tips arises a long spine or hair. The stamens are four in number, and are kept in a very acutely bent position towards the pistil by the corolla. The base of each petal, as well as the angle of inflection of each filament, has

Fig. 1181. Papaw-Tree (*Carica Papaya*), bearing fruit. The tree is Dichogamous, that is, has separate male and female flowers. A plant in the Botanic Garden did not produce fruit until fertilized by pollen artificially applied. But after the first application, the fruit continued to swell for a second year, although it did not produce fertile seed.

Fig. 1182. Male flower of Pellitory (*Parietaria officinalis*), having four stamens with incurved elastic filaments, and an abortive pistil in the centre. When the perianth expands, the filaments are thrown out with force, so as to scatter the pollen on the female flowers in the vicinity. The same thing occurs in the Nettle, as shown in Figure 628, p. 229.

Fig. 1183. Flower of the Barberry (*Berberis vulgaris*), the stamens of which are irritable, and move towards the pistil when touched at their base. The Irritability resembles that of the Sensitive plant, and is ascribed to turgescence in certain cells, and contraction in others.

an elastic joint, and when the hairs or spines at the apex are slightly touched, the corolla flies back, and the stamens, freed from restraint, start up and scatter the pollen. This elastic state is probably owing to turgescence of the cells on one side of the filament, as well as to the temporary restraint caused by the perianth. In the species of *Kalmia* a similar phenomenon is observed, the anthers being held for a time in little pouches or sacs of the corolla, and then moving with a jerk towards the pistil.

825. In the Barberry (Fig. 1183) and Mahonia, the filaments are very irritable on their inner surface, at the point where they join the receptacle, and when touched in that situation they move towards the central organ. The motion, like that of the leaves of the Sensitive plant, seems to be connected with a small cellular swelling or gland at the base. In species of *Stylidium* (Fig. 1184), the stamens and



Fig 1184



Fig 1185

pistil are united in a common column, which is jointed and irritable, and which, when touched at the joint, passes with force and rapidity from one side of the flower to the opposite one, so as to burst the anthers and scatter the pollen on the central stigma. The stamens of the common Rock-rose (*Helianthemum vulgare*), and of species of *Cistus* (Fig. 1185), exhibit movements which are apparently connected with the application of the pollen. Morren has remarked also sensi-

Fig. 1184 A species of Stylidium (*Stylidium tenuifolium*), which displays irritability in its reproductive column 1 Plant, with its narrow leaves and numerous flowers, from each of which a column projects formed by the united stamens and pistil 2 Flower separated, showing calyx, corolla, and column; at the extremity of the latter the anther lobes are placed, surrounding the stigma in the center 3 A similar flower, showing the column in the act of passing from one side of the flower to the other

Fig 1185 Flowering stem of a species of Rock-rose (*Cistus creticus*), the stamens of which display irritability when touched

tiveness in the androecium of *Cereus grandiflorus* and of *Sparmannia africana*. In the flowers of species of *Indigofera* the carina is held up by the alæ by means of hook-like processes, and when the wings separate, the carina falls down towards the pedicel, exposing the essential organs, and probably thus contributing to the application of the pollen. In species of *Grevillea* the styles are curved, and have their stigmatic surface contained within the tips of the perianth, in which place the sessile anthers lie; and it is only after the perianth expands, and the pollen has been ripened and applied, that the style becomes straight, so as to project to a considerable length above the flower. A similar occurrence is met with in many *Proteaceæ*. In the Grass of Parnassus (*Parnassia palustris*), and in Rue (Figs. 1186 and 1187), the stamens move forward in succession towards the pistil.

826. Insects are sometimes employed in scattering pollen. The bees in collecting the honey secreted at the base of the petals are

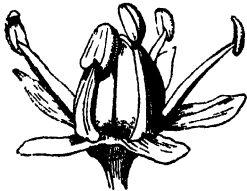


Fig. 1186



Fig. 1187



Fig. 1189



Fig. 1188.

made instrumental in applying the pollen to the stigma. In Orchids (Fig. 1188), in which the anthers are placed on the upper part of a column with the stigmatic surface separated from them, and the pollen is in masses (Fig. 1189), the agency of insects seem to be required for fertilization. The flowers of these plants exhibit remarkable animal forms, probably with the view of attracting insects. It has been remarked that in Orchids the forms of the perianth resemble

Fig. 1186. Flower of the Grass of Parnassus (*Parnassia palustris*), the stamens of which move in succession towards the pistil, in order to scatter their pollen. In the Figure, some stamens are seen applied to the pistil, and others removed from it.

Fig. 1187 Flower of Rue (*Ruta graveolens*), in which there is a successive movement in the stamens towards the pistil.

Fig. 1188 Flower of an Orchid called Twayblade (*Listera ovala*), in which the pollen forms masses easily removable by insects, and thus applied to the stigmatic surface.

Fig. 1189. Pollen masses of an Orchid, united to a gland at their base. These masses are easily detached from the anther by insects, and are thus applied to the stigma.

those of the insects belonging to the native country of the plant. The flowers also secrete a large amount of saccharine matter, and are odoriferous; their pollen-masses are very easily detached, and are very adhesive. All these circumstances seem to be connected with their mode of impregnation. In *Asclepiadaceæ*, which have also peculiar pollinia (Fig. 1190), insects are attracted by the odour of the flowers (sometimes very fetid, as in *Stapelia*, p. 547), as well as by saccharine matter. In various species of Birthwort (Figs. 1191, 1192, 1193), in which the essential organs are contained in a tubular perianth, insects are employed to effect the application of the pollen. Species of *Tipula* enter the expanded portion of the perianth, and then crawl down through the long tube to the cavity at the base con-



Fig. 1190.



Fig. 1192.



Fig. 1191.

taining the stamens and pistil. On attempting to return they are prevented from getting out by numerous hairs pointing downwards, which act like a trap. While moving about in the lower chamber, the insects spread the pollen when ripe, and afterwards when the flower fades they escape.

827. Pollen grains in general require to be protected from the

Fig. 1190. Pistil of one of the *Asclepiadaceæ*, with the calyx and flower-stalk, *a*, the pollen-masses, *p*, adhering to the stigma, *s*. Pollen-masses, *b*, separated with the gland uniting them.

Fig. 1191. Separate flower of Common Birthwort (*Aristolochia Clematidis*), formed by a single perianth enclosing the stamens and pistil at its base. The inside of the tubes of the perianth is lined with stiff hairs pointing downwards, which allow the entrance of an insect called *Tipula pennicornis*, but prevent its exit until the pollen has been scattered on the stigma, and the flower has withered.

Fig. 1192. Section of a flower of Birthwort, showing the stamens and pistil, *a*, at the bottom of the perianth, and surmounting the ovary, *o*.

direct action of moisture, which causes them to burst prematurely. The closing of flowers during rain accomplishes this object. In the Daisy and other Composite plants the outer florets close over the inner ones, and thus prevent injury from wet. When plants grow in water the pollen is sometimes of a peculiar nature, and the anthers are placed along with the pistils in a covering to protect them from the effects of moisture. This is seen in the Sea-wrack (*Zostera marina*), the pollen of which has a filamentous appearance. In other aquatics, as Water-lilies (Fig. 1194), Victoria (Fig. 235, p. 107), *Hottonia* and *Lobelia*, the peduncles rise above the water at the time when the flowers are developed. In an aquatic plant called the Water-soldier (*Stratiotes aloides*), the whole plant floats in the water, and sends down roots into the mud below. The Duck-weeds (species of *Lemna*), also produce their essential organs on floating leaves, while their roots hang in the water (Fig. 1195). In *Vallisneria* (Fig. 1196), the female plant, *b*, sends up a long spiral peduncle, which sometimes increases in length 14 inches during twenty-four hours, and which enables the flower to appear above water, and to be accommodated to its depth, at the same time that the root remains attached to the mud below; the male plant, *a*, on the other hand, is detached from the bottom of the water, floats on the surface, and there perfects its pollen, which is ultimately wafted on the pistilliferous plant. A similar phenomenon is exhibited by an African plant called *Lagarosiphon muscoides*. The *Vallisneria*, as grown in an aquarium in the stove of the Edinburgh Botanic Garden, did not display this phenomenon fully as regards the male flower. The plant produced its flowers at the bottom of the tub, and its pollen rose to the surface of the water, buoyed up apparently by a small collection of air which enabled it to float. The pollen came up for several days in large quantity.

828. The fertilizing power of the pollen is retained for a different length of time in different species of plants. According to Kölreuter and Gärtner, the pollen continued fresh in some species of Tobacco only for 48 hours; in *Datura Stramonium*, *D. Tatula*, and *D. ferox*, and in *Lychnis dioica*, for 2 days; in *Hibiscus Trionum* and the Clove-pink for 3 days; in *Lobelia syphilitica* and *L. splendens* for 8 or 9 days; in Wallflower for 14 days; in *Orchis abortiva* for 2 months.* The pollen of the Date, Cannabis, Tea, and Camellia, have been kept fresh for a year. Morren states that the pollen of *Candollea* was fertile for one year, and Michaux mentions the pollen of *Chamærops humilis* and of the Date as having been used successfully after 18 years. Pollen may be carried to a distance and retain its fertilizing power. Dates at St. Helena were fertilized by pollen brought from trees growing on the Continent of Africa. The pollen of some plants may be sent to a distance in a letter, and after many months be capable of acting on the stigma.

* Gärtner, *Befruchtung der Gewächse*. Stuttgart, 1844. Kölreuter, *Vorläufige Nachricht von einigen, das Geschlecht der Pflanzen betreffenden Versuchen* 1761-1766.

829. The quantity of pollen produced in some cases is enormous. In the case of Firs and Pines (Figs. 1197, 1198, 1199), this seems to

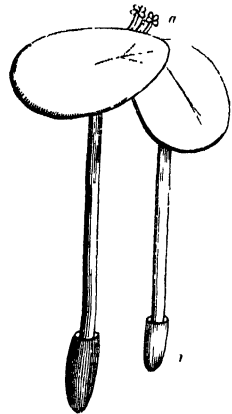


Fig. 1195.

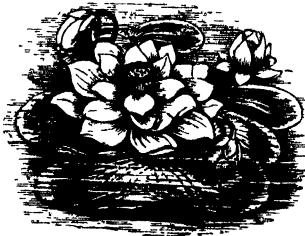


Fig. 1194.



Fig. 1196.

be connected with the fact that the cones or female organs are separate

Fig. 1193. Flowering-stalk of Common Birthwort (*Aristolochia Clematitis*). Fertilization is effected by insects.

Fig. 1194. Water-Lotus (*Nelumbium speciosum*), the flower of which appears above water, and thus the pollen is prevented from being injured by moisture. The fruit of the plant is supposed to be the Pythagorean Bean.

Fig. 1195. Plants of the Lesser Duckweed (*Lemna minor*), which float on the surface of ponds. The naked flowers, *a*, are borne upon the green leaves and appear above the water; while the roots, *r*, with their sheathed points, hang in the water.

Fig. 1196. Male and female plants of *Vallisneria spiralis*. *a*, the male plant, which is detached from the mud at the bottom of the water, and rises to the surface so as to mature its pollen and scatter it; *b*, the female plant, which remains fixed in the mud, and sends up a spiral peduncle, which uncoils according to the depth of the water, and bears the pistilliferous flowers above the water, so as to allow the pollen to be waited upon them.

from the staminal clusters, and that, moreover, the leaves are usually evergreen, and thus present an obstacle to fertilization. The yellow powder in Pine forests falls to the ground in vast quantity, and it is sometimes carried by the winds to a great distance, so as to fall in the form of what have been called *sulphur showers*. Many instances are given of coloured rain containing pollen grains. On 17th April 1850, at 11 A.M., a yellow-coloured rain fell at the Mumbles, near Swansea, the sky being at the time bright and free from clouds. The spots of rain when fresh were of an ochre-yellow, and the colour remained for many days notwithstanding heavy showers. The sediment was examined and found to consist chiefly of pollen grains, probably those of a species of *Salix*. Among the grains were also spores resembling those of *Cladosporium*. Two instances of coloured rain are recorded by Professor Bailey, one of which occurred at Troy, New York, and the other



in the harbour of Pictou.* The matter at Pictou was the pollen of the Scotch Fir (*Pinus sylvestris*), that at Troy consisted chiefly of the pollen of some Cupuliferous plant.

830. Morren counted the number of pollen grains in a plant of *Cereus grandiflorus* which grew in the stove of the Botanic Garden of Liege. He found that in each flower there were 500 stamens, and as 40 flowers were produced, the total number of stamens on the plant

Fig. 1197. One of the Conifers. A variety of the Spruce Fir. The tree bears male flowers in clusters, and female flowers in cones.

Fig. 1198. Stamen of a Fir, showing the grains of pollen, *pol*, which are abundant and discharged by the separation of the valve, *val*.

Fig. 1199. Female flowers of a Fir arranged in a cone, the scales of which are bracts covering the ovules.

* American Journal of Sciences and Arts, 1842. See also Hassall on the Pollen Granule—Annals of Nat. Hist. viii. In the Museum of Economic Botany at Edinburgh, there is a specimen of Coniferous pollen which fell in a shower at Thibodeau, 70 miles west of New Orleans, presented by Dr. Trail.

was 20,000, and of pistils 40, each having 24 stigmas. Each anther contained 500 pollen grains, and hence the total number of grains in each flower was 250,000, and upon the entire plant 10,000,000. A single plant of Chinese Laburnum (*Wistaria sinensis*) produced 675,000 flowers containing 10 stamens each, or 6,750,000 in all, and these contained 27 billions of pollen grains. In a single blossom of *Leontodon Taraxacum* Hassall counted 243,000; a flower of *Pæony* furnishes on an average 174 stamens, each containing 21,000 granules, giving a total of 3,654,000. In an entire *Rhododendron* plant the pollen grains amounted to 72,620,000. These numbers, great though they be, sink into insignificance when compared with the myriads produced

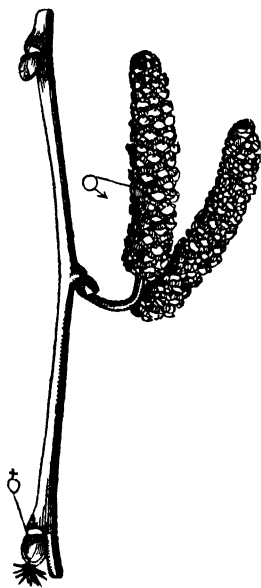


FIG 1200



FIG 1201

by a single forest tree. A Bulrush gave 144 grains by weight of pollen.* De Vriese, in speaking of a specimen of *Cycas circinalis*, states that the male cone was 0.450 metres long, and 0.200 broad; the number of scales was 3500, and the surface of each four square centimetres, the whole sums of the organs which compose the cone being thus = 14,000 square centimetres. The under surface

Fig. 1200. Flowering branch of Hazel (*Corylus Avellana*), bearing male spikes, ♂, and female spikes, ♀. These are produced before the leaves, so as to allow the pollen to reach the pistils.

Fig. 1201 Male flowers of a Willow (*Salix*), which are produced before the leaves and on a separate plant from the female flower.

of the scales was covered with unilocular anthers to the number of 400, the total number of anthers being estimated at 1,400,000. Each anther contained several thousand grains of pollen, which were developed with great rapidity.* In many catkin-bearing plants, which are monoecious or dioecious, the pollen is abundant, and the essential organs are developed before the leaves are produced. Examples of this occur in the common Hazel (Fig. 1200), and in Willows (Figs. 1201, 1202).

831. Observations have been made by Gærtner and Kölreuter as to the quantity of pollen required to fertilize the ovules. One grain, or at most three, are sufficient to impregnate the ovule of *Mirabilis longiflora* and *M. Jalapa*. In a single flower of *Hibiscus Trionum*, Kölreuter counted 4863 pollen grains, and he ascertained that 50 or 60 were sufficient to fertilize all the ovules in the ovary, usually

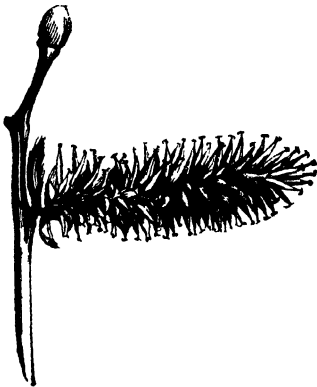


Fig. 1202



Fig. 1203

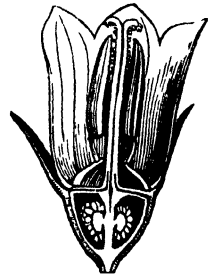


Fig. 1204.

amounting to 30; when fewer grains were employed, impregnation was not complete; thus 25 grains only impregnated from 10 to 16 ovules. In most cases the pollen of a single fertile anther is sufficient for the perfecting of the ovules, and the additional anthers are produced with the view of insuring the result. Morren states, that in the flower of *Cereus grandiflorus* he found 150,000 grains of pollen out of 250,000 which had not been applied to the stigma, while the number of ovules in each ovary was about 30,000.

832. During the evolution of the stamens and the maturation of the pollen, the pistil undergoes changes, more especially as regards

Fig 1202. Female flowers of a Willow (*Salix*), which are also produced in the early part of the season before the leaves, and are on a separate plant from the male flowers.

Fig. 1203. Style of a species of Bellflower (*Campanula*), covered with hairs, which collect the pollen.

Fig 1204. Flower of a species of Bellflower (*Campanula*), with the stamens applied to the hairs of the style so as to scatter the pollen.

the stigma, which becomes enlarged, lax in its texture, and covered with a viscid secretion. The secretion is stated by Aldridge* to have acid qualities at some period of its formation, but, according to Vaucher, it is saccharine, and resembles that formed by the nectariferous glands of petals. In species of *Campanula*, such as *C. Medium*, *rapunculoides*, *Trachelium*, and *rotundifolia*, during the discharge of the pollen, the style, which is covered with hairs (Fig. 1203), elongates, and in its upward progress brushes the pollen from the anthers (Fig. 1204). The hairs which collect the pollen apply it to the stigma, the branches of which, *s*, are at first erect, and afterwards, by changes in their cells, become revolute. The hairs occasionally appear double, from their extremities being drawn within the lower part of their tubes after performing their functions.† Brongniart looks upon these hairs as mere pollen collectors,‡ but others look upon them as directly concerned in fecundation. Hassall thinks that in *Campanulaceæ* and *Compositæ* not only the true stigma, but also that portion of the style which is covered with hairs, is essentially concerned in fecundation.§

833. In *Goldfussia* (*Ruellia*) *anisophylla*, Morren noticed that the style has a curved stigmatic apex, which gradually becomes straightened so as to come into contact with the hairs of the corolla on which the pollen is scattered.|| The stigma in species of *Mimulus*, *Diplacus*, and *Bignonia* is bilamellar, and the two lamellæ close when touched with pollen or any extraneous body.¶ It is said that in some species of *Cactus* and *Passion-flower* the styles move towards the stamen. In order that impregnation may take place, the stigma must be in a proper state to receive the pollen. Gärtner says that a fresh cut style in which the stigma is removed will not do for this purpose. In rare instances, as in the *Sea-pink* (*Armeria maritima*), the conducting tissue of the style becomes elongated, so as to pass into the ovary (Fig. 1205), and ultimately comes into contact with the ovule, when impregnation takes place (Fig. 1206).

834. Before the process of impregnation, certain changes also take place in the ovule. The relative position of its parts is frequently altered, so that the micropyle is brought near to the placenta (Fig. 1207). Moreover, one of the central cells becomes much enlarged and developed, so as to form the embryo-sac (Fig. 1208, *s*). Occasionally this sac becomes so enlarged as to appear on the outside of the ovule, as in *Avicennia*.** At the end of this sac, next to the micro-

* Aldridge, on the Structure and Functions of the Pollen, in *Lond. Journ. of Bot.* iv. 86, also on the use of Pollen in Natural Classification, in *Lond. Journ. of Bot.* i. 575.

† Wilson, on the Pollen-Collectors of *Campanula*, in *Hooker's Journal*, ii. 183.

‡ Brongniart, sur les Poils Collecteurs des *Campanules*, et sur la Mode de Fecundation de ces Plantes, in *Annales des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. xii. 244, trans. in *Ann. of Nat. Hist.* v. 380.

§ Hassall, on the functions performed by hairs on the stigma in *Campanulacæ* and *Compositæ* - *Ann. of Nat. Hist.* viii. 84.

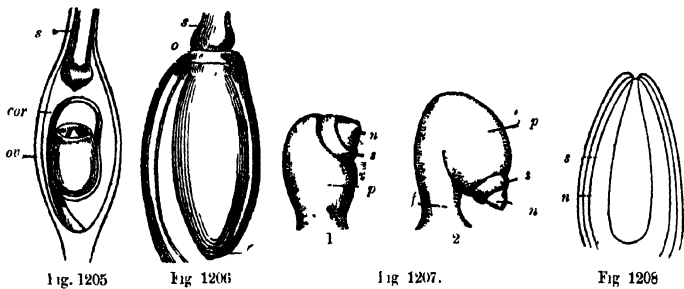
|| Morren, sur le Mouvement et l'Anatomie du Style du *Goldfussia anisophylla*—*Bull. de l'Acad. Roy. de Bruxelles*, tom. vi.

¶ Braconnot, sur l'Irritabilité du stigmate des *Mimulus*, in *Ann. de Chim. et de Phys.* xxix. 383.

** Griffith, on the Ovule of *Santalum*, &c.

pyle, several delicate free nucleated cells are produced, to which the name of embryo-vesicles or germinal-vesicles has been given (Fig. 1209, c). In this way the ovule is prepared for the action of the pollen, and for the production of the embryo plant.

835. The essential organs, when performing their active functions, absorb much oxygen and evolve carbonic acid. At the same time they acquire a certain elevation of temperature. This has been already noticed when speaking of the floral envelopes. The time of the emission of pollen seems to be that at which the maximum heat is produced, and the stamens have a higher temperature than the pistil.* When the stamens and pistil are mature the anther bursts (Fig. 1210), and scatters the pollen, *p*, on the stigma (Fig. 1211, *stig*). There it is detained, and is acted on by the viscid secretion, by means of which tubes are developed from the intine (Figs. 1212 and 1214, 2). This is a sort of germination of the pollen cell. These tubes pierce the stigmatic tissue, and convey the fovilla (Fig. 1213) through the canal of the style to the ovule. In Figure 1214, 1, the



ovary, *o*, with the ovule, *n*, and embryo-sac, *ve*, is represented; the pollen, *p*, is applied to the stigma, *stig*, and its tubes, *tp*, pass through the conducting tissue of the style, *styl*, to reach the embryo-sac.

836. The emission of tubes sometimes commences half a minute after the pollen has been applied to the stigma; in other cases, as in *Mirabilis Jalapa*, it takes from 24 to 36 hours. In the Larch Gelez-noff says that the tubes do not emerge for 35 days. Pollen tubes may be seen easily in species of *Gesnera*, by gently scraping off from the stigma the pollen which has been in contact with it for 48 hours. They may also be detected in the *Crocus vernus* when a portion of

Fig. 1205. Ovary, *ov*, of Sea-pink (*Armeria maritima*), in which the ovule is suspended by a curved cord, *cor*, and the conducting tissue, *s*, of the style elongates in a downward direction.

Fig. 1206. The ovule of the Sea-pink further advanced, showing the conducting tissue, *s*, of the style in contact with the foramen of the ovule, *o*, and pushing aside the cord.

Fig. 1207. The ovule of Celandine (*Chelidonium*), with its primine, *p*, secundine, *s*, and nucleus, *n*, projecting through the foramen, which is slightly turned round in 1, and completely turned in 2. By this change in the position of the ovule the foramen is brought near the placenta, and the pollen tubes reach it more easily; *f*, the funiculus or umbilical cord.

Fig. 1208. Ovule of Polygonum, showing the embryo-sac, *s*, developed in the midst of the nucleus, *n*.

* See remarks on this subject at pages 522, 523, and 526.

the stigma is gently pressed in water between two plates of glass until it is transparent. *Colocasia odora* is another plant in which pollen tubes are readily detected penetrating the tissue of the stigma. In the common species of British Orchis they may be traced without much

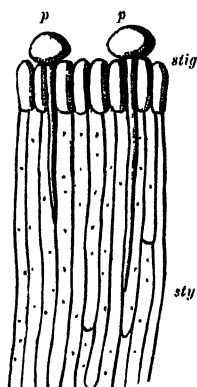


Fig. 1211.

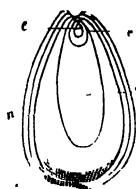


Fig. 1209.

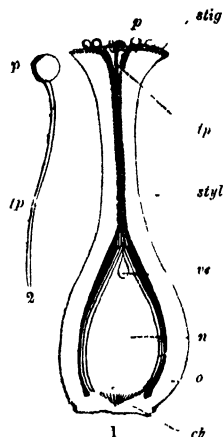


Fig. 1214.



Fig. 1210.



Fig. 1212.



Fig. 1213.

difficulty to the foramen of the ovule. The tubes may be recognized by their opaque granular contents, and their small size compared with

Fig. 1209. Ovule of *Polygonum*, showing the nucleus, *n*, and the embryo-sac, *s*, containing a vesicle or germinal cell, *c*, formed before impregnation. This cell, after fertilization, develops the first embryonal cell, *e*.

Fig. 1210. Stamen, *s*, of Wallflower (*Cheiranthus*), scattering the pollen, *p p*, from the anther, *a*.

Fig. 1211. Grains of pollen, *p p*, applied to the viscid cellular stigma, *stig*, of Frogsmouth (*Antirrhinum majus*). The style, *sty*, is laid open to show the pollen tubes passing down to the ovary.

Fig. 1212. Grain of pollen of the Evening Primrose (*Oenothera*), showing a pollen tube partially developed.

Fig. 1213. Spherical grain of pollen of the Cherry (*Cerasus*), showing a pollen tube formed by the grain, with its extremity ruptured, so as to discharge filament, *f*.

Fig. 1214. Pistil and pollen of *Polygonum*. 1. Stigma, *stig*, with pollen grains, *p*, adherent to it, sending tubes, *tp*, down the conducting tissue of the style, *styl*; the ovary, *o*, containing the ovule with its covering and central cellular mass or nucleus, *n*, containing a rudimentary embryo-sac, *ve*, in which ultimately the embryo is developed. The base of the ovule attached to the placenta is marked by the chalaza, *ch*. 2. Pollen grain, *p*, separated, with pollen tube, *tp*.

the rest of the tissue in the style. In *Digitalis purpurea* the diameter of the pollen tube is 1-166th of a millimetre, in *Orchis Morio* 1-180th, in Wallflower 1-280th, and in *Common Shepherd's Purse* 1-332d.

837. The length to which the tubes extend is often very great. In *Cereus grandiflorus*, Morren estimated that the tubes when they reached the ovary extended as far as 1150 times the diameter of the pollen-grain; in *Crinum amabile*, Hassall says they reach 1875 times the diameter of the grain, in *Cleome speciosa* 2719 times, and in *Colchicum autumnale* (Fig. 1215) 9000 times.* The length of time which the pollen tube takes to traverse the conducting tissue of the style varies. The time does not always correspond with the comparative length of the style. In some short-styled plants the time taken is very long, while in the case of the long-styled *Cereus grandiflorus* and *Colchicum autumnale* a few hours is sufficient. In the style of the former, 9 inches long, the end of the pollen tube, according to Schleiden, reached the ovule in a few hours; in that of the latter (Fig. 1215), 13 inches long, in about 12 hours. In other plants weeks sometimes elapse before the tube traverses a short distance. In the case of some Coniferous plants, as *Pinus sylvestris*, Pineau states that a year elapses before the tubes reach the embryo-sac.

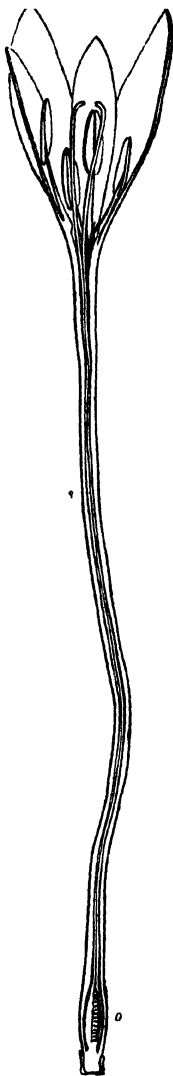


Fig. 1215.

Fig. 1215. Flower of Meadow-saffron or autumn Crocus (*Colchicum autumnale*), with its very long style, *s*. The pollen-grains applied to the stigma give out tubes, which extend to 9000 times the diameter of the grain before they reach the ovary, *o*. This is often accomplished in 12 hours.

3. VIEWS OF EMBRYOGENY OR EMBRYO-DEVELOPMENT

838. The mode in which the embryo or young plant is produced in the seed is a subject of great physiological interest. It has engaged the attention of many eminent botanists in Germany, France, Italy, Russia, Britain, and India, and within the last thirty years has called forth able papers from the pens of Amici, Brongniart, Brown, Schleiden, Mirbel, Spach, Meyen, Mohl, Unger, Hofmeister, Muller, Tulasne, Griffith, Henfrey, and others.† Notwithstanding all that has been done, however, there are still difficulties connected with vegetable embryogeny, and additional microscopic researches are required for the full elucidation of the subject. When we reflect on the

Fig. 1215. Flower of Meadow-saffron or autumn Crocus (*Colchicum autumnale*), with its very long style, *s*. The pollen-grains applied to the stigma give out tubes, which extend to 9000 times the diameter of the grain before they reach the ovary, *o*. This is often accomplished in 12 hours.

* Hassall, on the Pollen Granule—Annals of Nat. Hist. viii. 92, and ix. 544.

† See references to the works and papers of these authors in the notes to this section.

nature of the inquiry, the minuteness of the tissues to be examined, the difficulty of tracing microscopic morphological changes, and the many sources of fallacy to which such researches are exposed, it is not a matter of surprise that many conflicting opinions have been brought forward. Amidst the multiplicity of views which have been promulgated, there appear to be some facts sufficiently established, and indications have been given of the proper method in which future researches ought to be conducted, in order to arrive at satisfactory results.

A. Formation of the Embryo in Cryptogamous or Acotyledonous Plants.

839. In the simplest Cryptogamic plants, composed of a single rounded cell, as in the Yeast plant (Fig. 1061, p. 360), and the Red-snow plant (Fig. 1062, p. 360), the processes of reproduction and nutrition cannot be separated. The same cell appears to perform both functions. At a certain period of growth divisions take place in the cell-contents, and by the bursting of the parent cell germs are discharged which are capable of producing new individuals. As we ascend in the scale the plants become more complex. In place of one cell they consist of several united together either in a single or branched linear series, and combined both end to end and laterally, so as to form cellular expansions. In this state the nutritive and reproductive cells are often separate and distinct, as may be seen in common Mould (Fig. 1068, p. 362), and in Fungi generally. In Confervæ (Fig. 1083, p. 411) and in Diatomaceæ (Fig. 1077, p. 408) the existence of reproductive cells with distinct functions have been observed. In many of them we perceive at certain stages of growth cells united by a process of conjugation,* the result of this union being the production of a cellular embryo or spore (Fig. 1216, c). This conjugation is a very interesting process, and tends to throw light on the subject of reproduction throughout the whole vegetable kingdom. The cells in these plants have in their interior a granular endochrome, which appears to have different functions in the different cells. When certain cells are brought into contact, tubes are emitted which unite the two (Fig. 1216, b), the endochromes come into contact, and the result is the formation of a spore, the mixed

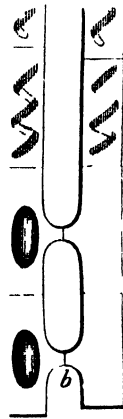


Fig 1216.

Fig. 1216. Filaments of *Zygnema*, with conjugating cells. The tubes uniting two cells are seen at *b*, and similar tubes connect two upper cells, *a* and *d*. The contents of the cells intermingle, and spores or sporid embryos, *c* and *d*, are produced. The upper cells, in which there is no conjugation, retain their usual contents, while some of the lower cells have lost their contents, and spores are produced in others.

* The name *Conjugata* is given to species of *Zygnema*, *Tyndaridea*, *Mougeotia*, *Staurocarpus*, &c., on this account.

endochromes being surrounded with a proper membrane. Sometimes the contents of one cell considered as the male pass into the other in which the spore is produced, as in *Zygnema* (Fig. 1216), and sometimes the contents of both cells unite, and the spore is produced in the tube between them, as in Diatoms. The occurrence of this process in Diatomaceæ, as observed by Thwaites,* and confirmed by Smith and others,† favours the view that these organisms belong to the vegetable kingdom.‡

840. In many of the *Confervæ*, however, spores appear to be produced without the conjugation of separate filaments. In such instances it is conjectured that different cells in the same filament perform different functions, and are so placed that at a certain period their contents by coming into contact develop a germ. The same filament may thus contain both male and female cells; although botanists as yet have not been able to show the difference between them. In some species of *Meloseira* the endochrome at each end of the cell appears to have a different property, and mixture takes place in the cavity of a single frustule. In this case there is a movement towards the centre of the cell when the spore is formed.

841. Proceeding to other divisions of Acotyledons, we find different kinds of reproductive organs, which can, however, only be observed at certain periods of development, and frequently cannot be seen after the embryo has been fully formed. In the same way as in the flowering plants, when the seed has been ripened the stamens have generally withered and fallen off, and sometimes also the style and stigma. It is of importance, therefore, in all investigations into Cryptogamic reproduction, to examine the plants at their early period of growth. The reproductive organs have received different names in different natural orders of Cryptogams. They are generally called antheridia and archegonia or pistillidia, from their supposed analogy to anthers and pistils. The antheridia contain sperm-cells, in each of which is a moving ciliated phytozoon, spirillum, or spermatozoid (Fig. 1000, p. 335), and the pistillidium or archegonium contains a germ-cell or embryonal-cell, which produces a germinating body (Fig. 1011, p. 340).§

* Thwaites, on Conjugation of the Diatomaceæ—Annals of Nat. Hist. xx. 9, 343. Thwaites has seen conjugation in *Lunotia* (*Epithemia*) *turgida*, *Cocconeia lanceolatum*, *Gomphonema minutissimum* or *curvatum*, also in species of *Meloseira*, *Orthoseira*, *Aulacoseira*, *Dickieia*, and *Schizonema*.

† Smith, on British Diatomaceæ; on Conjugation of *Closterium Ehrenbergii*, in Annals of Nat. Hist. 2d ser. v. 1. Morren, sur les Closteries, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d. Ser. Bot. v. 257.

‡ Besides this process of conjugation, by means of which a cellular embryo is formed, some of these plants have a power of merismatic or fissiparous division (Fig. 1077, p. 408), by which cells are separated, capable of independent existence. This may be compared to the process of budding, and is thus distinct from fecundation. When plants are propagated readily by the process of gemmation or budding, they frequently do not produce reproductive germs. This is true of all tribes of plants, both Phanerogams and Cryptogams.

§ In order to see the phytozoa of Sea-weeds, such as *Fucus serratus*, in motion, it has been recommended to gather the fresh plant in winter or early spring, when showing orange-coloured receptacles, to remove it from the water, and to leave it to dry partially. As the surface dries there exude from the pores of the receptacle drops of a thick orange coloured liquid, which, on being placed under the microscope and moistened with salt water, will be found to be composed of antheridia, from which issue innumerable spermatozooids, which move about. To see the moving spermatozooids

842. Spermatozoids are considered as analogous in their function to the spermatozoa of animals. In the case of animals, these spermatozoa have been traced by Dr. Henry Nelson in many instances to the ovum. Newport* has determined that in regard to certain animals (such as Amphibia), the presence of active spermatozoa is absolutely necessary to impregnate the ovum, and that impregnation is effected by simple impact. He has noted the time necessary to complete the operation, and has observed the internal changes that immediately take place in the body of the nucleus; and he has found that the spermatozoa, after producing this effect by simple external contact, become inert, and lose all power of motion. Spermatozoids have in like manner been traced to the archegonia, or the cells in which the rudimentary embryo is formed. Hofmeister states that he has often seen spermatozoids swimming about around the archegonium, in longitudinal sections of the involucre of *Jungermannia*; he has also seen them in a motionless state after the rudiment of the fruit began to be developed. Similar observations have been made in regard to Mosses and Ferns; and Suminski is disposed to think that the extremity of a spermatozoid in Ferns is developed as an embryonic cell, in the same way as Schleiden thinks the end of the pollen tube constitutes the first cell of the embryo in flowering plants. After the application of the contents of the antheridia to the archegonia, a cellular body is produced in the latter, which may be called a sporoid embryo. This cell may be discharged at once, or it may go through certain phases of existence without being separated from the plant on which it is produced. The spore or sporoid embryo is often provided with cilia, which enable it to move about in fluid until it becomes attached to rocks or other bodies, when it begins to sprout (Fig. 1036, p. 350).

843. In *Algæ* and *Characeæ*, antheridia containing sperm-cells



Fig. 1217

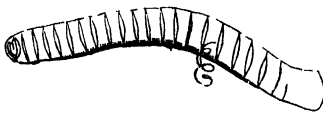


Fig. 1218.

(Figs. 1217 and 1218) have been found, as well as sporangia. Tulasne has detected them in Fungi, and Itzigsohn has observed them in Lichens, such as *Cladonia alciornis* and *Borreria ciliaris*. Leighton has noticed peculiar motions in the spores of Lichens—the move-

ments continuing for hours after the spores are set free. The spore-fruits or capsules of *Hepaticæ* are preceded by minute cellular organs called

Fig. 1217. Antheridium of a Sea-weed (*Fucus serratus*), containing phytozoary cells.

Fig. 1218. Filament from the globule of *Chara*, consisting of numerous phytozoary or sperm-cells. A spermatozoid is seen escaping from one of them.

in Ferns, take the very young prothallium, which is easily procured in the case of spores germinating on damp pots in fern-houses, and place it under the microscope between thin plates of glass, moistened with water.

* Newport, on the Impregnation of the Ovum in Amphibia—Phil. Trans for 1851, p. 169. See also Barry—Phil. Trans. 1848, p. 83.

archegonia (Fig. 1220) and antheridia (Fig. 1219), containing cells with spiral filaments, spirilla, or spermatozoids. The spermatozoids enter the archegonia, and thus a cell is produced, from which the spore-fruit or capsule, a distinct body, is produced (Fig. 1221, *s*), constituting the second generation. In *Jungermanniæ*, as well as in *Marchantiæ*, reproductive organs have been detected. Thus in *Jungermannia bicuspidata* (Fig. 1222), there is represented at *a* an archegonium containing an unimpregnated germ-cell, and at *b* an archegonium containing an impregnated germ-cell, which is the rudimentary fruit. The germ-cell, after fertilization, shows two nucleated cells, *c*, and from it, as a second generation, the fruit-bearing stalk is produced. Around the orifice of the canal leading to the germ-cell and rudimentary fruit are seen numerous spermatozoids, *s s*, which have been discharged from the antheridia.



Fig. 1219

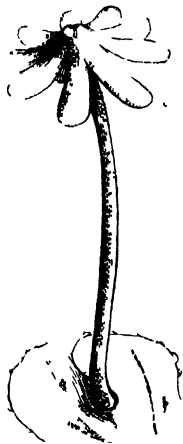


Fig. 1221

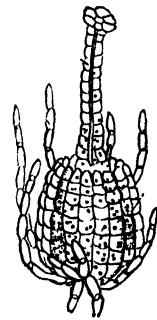


Fig. 1220

844. In Mosses there is a free germ-cell (embryonal cell) at the base of the archegonium. Spermatozoids, from the sperm-cells of the antheridium (Fig. 1223), reach it in all probability, and then it is developed into the sporangium or spore-case (Fig. 1224), which is the second generation of the plant, according to some authors. The spores produce the leafy plant (Fig. 999, p. 335), bearing antheridia and archegonia. In Figure 1225 is shown the conservoid prothallium, *p*,

Fig. 1219. Antheridium of Liverwort (*Marchantia*) discharging its sperm-cells, that is, cells containing spermatozoids.

Fig. 1220. Pistillidium or archegonium of Liverwort (*Marchantia*), containing in its interior a cell, which is impregnated by the spermatozoids of the antheridium.

Fig. 1221. Thallus of Liverwort (*Marchantia polymorpha*), bearing a stalked fruit, *s*, which is the product of the impregnated cell of the archegonium. The receptacle at the apex of the stalk bears on its under surface sporangia containing spores and elaters. The spores, when germinating produce a thallus on which antheridia and archegonia are formed.

of a Moss produced from the spore, and bearing buds, *a*, *b*, which produce leafy individuals with organs of reproduction. After the contact of these organs, a single cell of the archegonium is developed into the complete fruit (theca or sporangium) which is often borne upon a stalk (Fig. 1224). The complete fruit contains spores, which, when discharged, again develop the foliaceous plant. Bruch and Schimper* say that Mosses having antheridia and archegonia upon the same stem always bear fruit, and that in dioecious Mosses the capsule is not

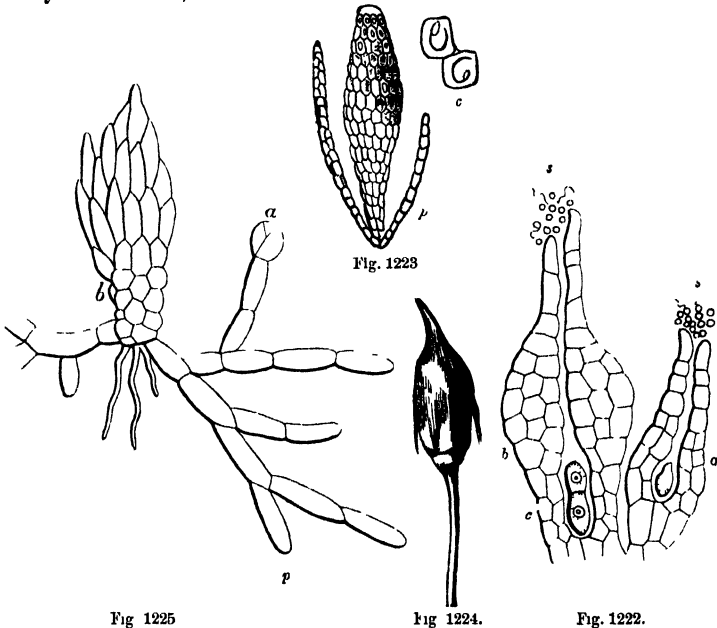


Fig 1225

fig 1224.

Fig. 1222.

developed unless the plants bearing sperm-cells and those producing germ-cells are in proximity.†

Fig 1222. Archegonia of *Jungermannia bicuspidata*. *a*, Unimpregnated archegonium, with a tube leading to a cavity, near the base of which is a cell. *b*, Archegonium after impregnation, with the cell divided into two nucleated portions. This double nucleated body is the rudiment of the fruit-bearing stalk. At the apex of the canal leading to the cell are seen spermatozooids, *s*.

Fig. 1223. The male organs of a Moss (*Polytrichum*). *a*, Antheridium containing sperm-cells, two of which are seen at *c*. These sperm-cells contain spermatozooids, which are discharged so as to impregnate the archegonium. Surrounding the antheridium there are filaments or paraphyses, *p*.

Fig 1224. Sporangium of a Moss (*Polytrichum*), supported on a stalk. This stalked sporangium is produced by the impregnated cell of the archegonium. It constitutes the second generation.

Fig. 1225 Prothallium, *p*, of a Moss (*Funaria hygrometrica*), consisting of a congeries of cells arranged in a filiform manner. This prothallium origuates from the spore, and bears a bud, *a*, and a young stem, *b*, from the base of which roots proceed. This stem bears antheridia and archegonia. An impregnated cell in the archegonium produces the stalked theca or sporangium.

* Schimper, *Recherches Anatomiques et Physiologiques sur les Mousses*, Strassburg, 1848.

† Spirilla or spermatozooids have been found in many Mosses, as in species of *Sphagnum*, *Polytrichum*, *Splachnum*, *Bryum*, and *Hypnum*. In the antheridia of *Polytrichum* each cell contains a single spirillum, which shows rapid gyrations.

845. In leafy Mosses and Jungermanniæ there is also an increase by buds. The confervoid filament produced by the spore gives origin to a number of buds (Fig. 1225), whence leafy stems proceed, and these leafy stems also produce buds or gemmæ, called innovations. There is thus a multiplication by reproduction and by gemmation, as in other plants. Thwaites thinks that the theca of Mosses and its contents are due to impregnation; that the spore-mass in the theca is equivalent to the embryo, which divides by gemmation (sporangial or embryonic gemmation) into a number of separate individuals or sporules; that these sporules give origin to other gemmæ, which arise

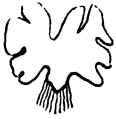


Fig. 1225.



Fig. 1227.



Fig. 1230



Fig. 1229.

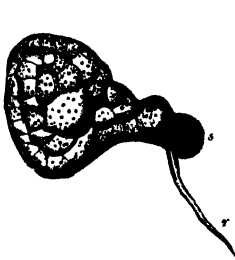


Fig. 1228.

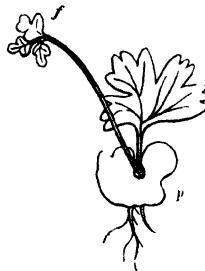


Fig. 1232

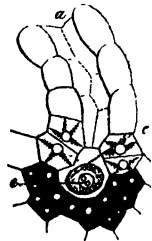


Fig. 1231.

from the confervoid filament or mycelium of the Moss in its early state (mycelial gemmation); and that a third gemmation (or gemmation

Fig. 1226. Prothallium of a Fern. It is a flat cellular expansion of a green colour, lobed at the margin, and with roots proceeding from its lower surface. On it are produced antheridia containing spermatozoids, and archegonia.

Fig. 1227. Prothallium of a species of *Pteris*, with two lobes and with roots proceeding from one side. The name of prothallus and of pro-embryo is also given to these thaloid expansions.

Fig. 1228. Cellular prothallium of a Fern (*Pteris longifolia*), produced by a spore, *s*, and giving off a root, *r*, at one end. It consists of numerous cells, and it gives origin to antheridia, and pistillidia or archegonia.

Fig. 1229. Antheridia from the prothallium of the Common Brake (*Pteris aquilina*). *a*, An unopened antheridium; *b*, antheridium bursting at the apex, and discharging free cellules, each containing a spermatozoid; *c*, antheridium after the discharge of the cellules.

Fig. 1230. A spermatozoid with cilia, discharged from a cellule in the antheridium of the Forked Spleenwort (*Asplenium septentrionale*).

Fig. 1231. Archegonium of the Forked Spleenwort (*Asplenium septentrionale*) immediately after impregnation. *a*, Canal leading to the ovule or large cell, *c*, at the base of the archegonium; *e*, nucleated embryonic cell, whence the sporangiferous frond proceeds. Spermatozoids from the antheridium reach the canal of the archegonium, and impregnate the ovule.

Fig. 1232. Young plant of a Fern (*Pteris paleacea*), showing the commencement of the sporangiferous frond, *f*, arising from the impregnated ovule in the archegonium, the prothallium, *p*, being still attached.

proper) is the production of gemmæ or innovations after the Moss is fully developed.*

846. In Ferns the prothallium, pro-embryo, or prothallus (Figs. 1226 and 1227), bears antheridia and archegonia at the same epoch. It is produced from the spore, and consists of cells, as shown in Figure 1228. The antheridia occur on the under surface of the prothallium, and they consist of a cellular papilla having a central cavity (Fig. 1229, *a*). This cavity contains free cellules, which are discharged by a rupture at the apex, *b*, and these little cellules, in bursting, give exit to a ciliated spiral filament or spermatozoid (Fig. 1230), which swims actively in water, advancing with a rotatory motion through the water when seen under the microscope. The archegonia (Fig. 1231) exist on the under side of the prothallium, near the notch of the border (Fig. 1227). They are less numerous (varying from three to eight), and consist of cellular papillæ formed by ten or twelve cells. They are larger than the antheridia, and have a central canal, *a*, leading down to a large globular cell, *c*, (called by some ovule) imbedded in the substance of the prothallium or pro-embryo, and containing the embryo germ, *e*. This canal is closed at first, and then opens. In the globular cell at the bottom of the archegonium, a free cell is first formed, which, it is supposed, is reached by the spermatozooids. Mercklin† says that he has seen spermatozooids in the canal of the archegonium of Ferns. Suminski‡ thinks that the end of a spermatozoid is developed into the embryo-cell. After a time this cell divides, and is gradually converted into an embryo, with a bud above and a radicle below, from which the regular leafy stem of the Fern grows (Fig. 1232, *f*). The life of the sporangiferous plant is indefinite, as in Tree Ferns, while the prothallium is usually of very short duration. Thus in Ferns the spores contained in the sporangium form the prothallus (Fig. 1228) without impregnation, and this latter process is necessary for the development of the germ (Fig. 1231, *e*), which gives rise to the leafy sporangiferous stem or frond; while in Mosses the spore forms the prothallus and the leafy stem without impregnation, and this operation only causes the development of the stalked theca, or spore-producing part of the plant (Fig. 1224). Hofmeister says that in Mosses the archegonium or rudiment of the fruit is like the ovule in Ferns; it contains a cell which becomes blended with the stem at one end (below), and forms a sporangium at the other end. Equisetacæ (p. 330) resemble Ferns in their reproduction and alternation of generation. Thuret found sperm-cells in the young state of the fronds of Equiseta. §

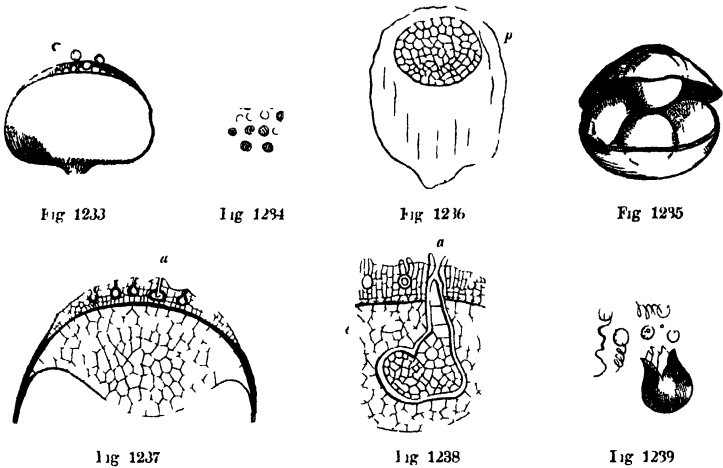
* Thwaites conjectures that the tetraspores of *Florida* (Fig. 1035, p. 349), and the opesospermata of *Chetophorea*; and the terminal spore of *Vaucheria* (Fig. 1037, p. 350), are true gemmæ.

† Mercklin, Beobachtungen an dem Prothallium der Farrnkrauter, St. Petersburg, 1850.

‡ Lezczye-Suminski, Entwickelungs-geschichte der Farrnkrauter, Berlin, 1848. See *Annals of Nat. Hist.* 2d ser. iv. 339.

§ Thuret, sur les Anthéridies des Fougères, in *Ann des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. Bot. xi. 5 Mettenius, Beiträge zur Botanik, 1850, p. 22. Milde, de Sporarum Equisetorum Germinatione, in *Linnæa* for 1850, 545 Milde, ueber Antheridien bei keimenden Equiseten, in *Bot. Zeit* for 1850, viii. 448.

847. Hofmeister and Mettenius* have examined the reproduction of Club Mosses (Lycopodiaceæ), and have detected antheridia and archegonia. They find that the small spores of Lycopods discharged from the antheridia (Fig. 1233) do not produce new plants, but have an office analogous to that of the pollen, namely, to effect the fertilization of a germ produced by the large spore (Fig. 1235). The small spores contain cellulules with spiral filaments or spermatozoids (Fig. 1234, c); the other spore emitted from the oophoridium or sporangium (Fig. 1235) is much larger than the pollinic spore, and is the ana-



logue of the ovule. The large spore forms a cellular prothallium in its interior (Fig. 1236, *p*), on which archegonia are developed.†

Fig 1233 Antheridium of a Club Moss (*Lycopodium*), containing small spores, which are cells containing spermatozoidal cellulles as seen in Figure 1234

Fig 1234 Small spore (pollinic spore) of a Lycopod (*Selaginella helvetica*), bursting and discharging cellulles, *c*, containing spermatozoids

Fig 1235 Oophoridium or sporangium of a Club Moss (*Lycopodium*) opening, and showing four large spores in its interior. These large spores or ovules contain a cellular prothallium in their interior, bearing archegonia

Fig 1236 Large spore discharged from the oophoridium of a Lycopod (*Selaginella Mertensii*), with the outer coat removed to show the young cellular prothallium, *p*, at the upper end

Fig 1237 Vertical section of the prothallium and upper half of a large spore of a Lycopod (*Selaginella denticulata*). There are several archegonia, and in one of them, at *a*, there is a central free cell, whence the leafy frond ultimately proceeds

Fig 1238 Vertical section of a small portion of the prothallium and upper part of the large spore of a Lycopod (*Selaginella denticulata*) showing the embryo, *e*, developed from a central cell of one of the archegonia, *a*, carried down by the growth of the suspensor, so as to be imbedded in the cellular tissue at the upper part of the spore

Fig 1239 The small spore of a Rhurocarp (*Ptilularia globulifera*, *Pillwort*). The inner coat is protruded, and the outer coat has burst, so as to discharge cellulles containing spermatozoids. Some of the spermatozoids are separate, and are seen coiled up in a spiral form

* Mettenius, *Beitrage zur Botanik*, Heidelberg, 1850

† Muller, on the Development of Lycopodiaceæ, in *Bot Zeitung*, trans in *Ann of Nat Hist* 1st series, xix 27. See also Henfrey, in *Garden Companion* for May 1852, p 70

The process of impregnation is supposed to take place here by the spermatozoids of the small spores coming into contact with the large spore, after the coat of the large spore has burst at its apex, so as to expose the cellular prothallium and its archegonia (Fig. 1237, *a*). The free central cell of the archegonium then enlarges, divides, and elongates into a filament, which grows down into the prothallium (Fig. 1238). A suspensor is thus formed, at the end of which is the embryo, *e*, imbedded in the cellular tissue at the upper part of the large spore. The embryo finally produces its radicle and its bud, which is developed as the leafy frond. In Rhizocarps* the antheridia are sacs containing small spores, which emit cellules with spermatozoids (Fig. 1239). The large spores contained in the sporangia of Rhizocarps (Fig. 1240) produce first a prothallium like that of Lycopods, in which archegonia appear (Fig. 1241). The prothallium usually develops only one central archegonium. To this the spermatozoids get access, and then the development of the embryo takes



Fig 1240

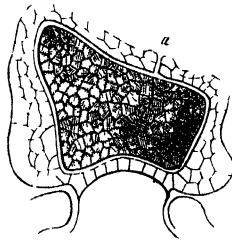


Fig 1242



Fig 1241

place, as seen in Figure 1242, where the cellular embryo within the prothallium has attained a large size.†

Fig. 1240 Large spore of a Rhizocarp (*Marsilea, Pepperwort*), which contains a cellular prothallium bearing archegonia. The mamillary projection is the point whence the gemination of the embryo proceeds after impregnation.

Fig. 1241. Vertical section of prothallium of a Rhizocarp (*Ptilularia globulifera*), containing a central archegonium, *a*, before impregnation.

Fig. 1242. Archegonium, *a*, of a Rhizocarp (*Ptilularia globulifera*) cut vertically after impregnation, showing the prothallium, with the embryo in its interior in an advanced state. This embryo gives origin to the leafy stem.

* Mottenius, Beiträge zur Kenntniss der Rhizocarpeen, Frankfurt, 1846. Nägeli, sur la Propagation des Rhizocarpees, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. ix. 99.

† For full details relative to Cryptogamic Reproduction, the student may consult the following works.—Agardh, sur la Propagation des Algues, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. v. 193. Lehrbuch der Botanik. Berkeley and Broome, on the conversion of Ascii into Spores in Fungi—British Assoc. Proc. 1851, p. 70. Colin, on Hæmatococcus—Nova Acta, xxii., and on Stephanophæra, in Ann. Nat. Hist. 2d ser. x. 401. Debes et Solier, sur les Organes Reproducteurs des Algues, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. xiv. 261. Hassall, on British Fresh-water Alge—Hedwig, Theoria Generationis et Fructificationis Plantarum Cryptogamicarum. Hensley, on the Reproduction and supposed existence of Sexual Organs in the higher Cryptogamous Plants, in Report of British Assoc. for 1851, p. 162. On the Reproduction of the Higher Cryptogamia and Phanerogamia, in Ann. of Nat. Hist. 2d ser. ix. 441. Hofmeister, vergleichende Untersuchungen der Keimung, Entfaltung und Fruchtbildung

B. Formation of the Embryo in Phanerogamous or Cotyledonous Plants.

848. In these plants we meet with conspicuous organs of reproduction in the form of pollen-bearing stamens and ovule-producing pistils. In some instances these organs are obscure or abnormally developed, and hence apparently has arisen the idea that perfect seeds have been produced without the action of pollen. These cases have already been noticed at page 555. The anomalies occur in unisexual plants, in regard to the impregnation of which there is great likelihood of erroneous observation. Believing that nothing has yet transpired to prove that pollinic and ovular cells are not concerned in Phanerogamous reproduction, we now proceed to trace the steps of this process first in Gymnosperms, and then in Angiosperms Phanerogams.

a. EMBRYOGENY IN GYMNASPERMOUS PHANEROGAMS.

849. In Gymnospermous plants, such as Coniferæ (Fig. 1243) and Cycadaceæ (Fig. 1244), impregnation is effected by direct contact between the pollen and the ovule. There is no true ovary bearing a stigma. In the Coniferæ the scales covering the seeds are either reckoned as bracts or as expanded ovarian leaves (Fig. 1245). In Cycadaceæ the naked ovules are produced on the margin of modified leaves. In both these orders it is usual to meet with more than one embryo in the perfect seed. In the Coniferæ there is also a peculiar delay in the production of the embryo, after the contact of the pollen. The phases through which the embryo passes in the seed may be reckoned as somewhat similar to those observed in the case of Lycopodium. Brown long ago noticed in the albumen of Coniferous seeds, semicylindrical bodies, three to six in number, which he called corpuscles (Fig. 1248, d). They are arranged in a circle near the

hoherer Kryptogamen, Leipzig, 1846. Ueber die Fruchtbildung und Keimung der hoherer Kryptogamen, in Bot. Zeitung for 1849, vii. 793, translated in Botanical Gazette, ii. 70. Itzigsohn, de l'existence des Spermatozoides dans certaines Algues d'eau douce, in Ann. des Sc. 3d ser. xvii. 150. Kaulfuss, das Wesen der Farnkrauter besonders ihrer Fruchtheile, &c. Leipzig, 1827. Leszczycki-Suminski, sur le développement des Fougères, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xi. 114. Milde, zur Kenntniss der Equiseten in Nova Acta Nat. Curios. xxi. part ii. 557; zur Entwickelungs-geschichte der Equiseten und Rhizokarpen—Nova Acta, xxiii. part ii. 613. Pringsheim, Entwickelungs-geschichte der Achlya prolifera, in Nova Acta, xxiii. part i. 395. Ralfs, on the British Desmidiæ. Schacht, Beiträge zur Entwickelungs-geschichte der Farnkrauter, in Linnæa for 1849, 753. Ueber Antheridien der Lebermoose, in Botan. Zeitung for 1852, x. 153. Siebold, sur les Plantes et les Animaux unicellulaires, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d series, xii. 198. Thuret, sur les Anthéridies des Fougères, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. xi. 5. Sur les Zoospores des Algues et les Anthéridies des Cryptogames, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d series, Bot. xiv. 214, and xvi. 5. Tulasne, sur l'Appareil Reproducteur dans les Lichens et les Champignons, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. xv. 370. Hist. Organog. et Physiol. des Lichens, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. xvii. 153; and Comptes Rendus, 1851. Unger, sur les Anthères des Mousses, et sur les Animalcules Spermatiques qu'elles contiennent, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xi. 257. Sur les Animalcules Spermatiques des Plantes, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xi. 271. Valentine, on the Development of the Theca, and on the Sexes in Mosses, in Linn. Trans. xvii. 465. Wigand, zur Entwickelungs-geschichte der Farnkrauter, in Bot. Zeit. Jan. and Feb. 1849; and Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xi. 126.

apex, and differ from the mass of the albumen in colour as well as consistence. In *Pinus sylvestris* and *P. austriaca* the number of corpuscles are three to five, in *Abies balsamea* and *pectinata* three in



Fig. 1243



Fig. 1244

general, and in *Abies canadensis*, *Taxus*, and *Juniperus*, four, rarely five or more. In each of these corpuscles there is a distinct embryonal funiculus. These funiculi often ramify, and each of their ramifications

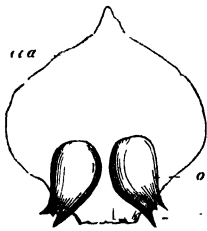


Fig. 1245

terminates in the rudiment of an embryo (Fig. 1251, 2). The corpuscles in *Pinus* are not developed, according to Brown, until the spring, or even beginning of summer of the year after flowering.* In *Cycadaceæ* the enlargement of the fruit, the consolidation of the albumen, and the complete formation of corpuscula in its apex, are wholly independent of male influence, as Brown has proved in cases where pollen could not have been applied, namely, in *Cycas* and *Zamia*, producing female flowers in England at a time when male flowers were not known to exist in the country.†

Fig. 1243 A Coniferous tree, the Stone pine, which belongs to the Gymnospermous division of Phanerogams, the seeds being naked, that is, not contained in an ovary with a stigma. The seeds are in cones.

Fig. 1244 A Cycadaceous plant (*Cycas revoluta*), belonging also to the Gymnospermous division. The seeds are produced on the edge of abnormal leaves.

Fig. 1245 Pistillate flower of a Pine, consisting of a bract, *ca*, which is a hardened bract, and two ovules, *ov*, attached to its base, *m*, the foramen of the ovule. The ovules are naked, not being contained in a true ovary.

* Brown, on the Plurality and Development of Embryos in the Seeds of Conifera—Brit. Assoc. Trans. 1834. Annals of Nat. Hist. 1st ser. xiii. 368. Annales des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xx. 193.

† Brown, on Female Flowers of Cycadææ and Conifera, Appendix to Capt. King's Voy. 1826, p. 536—Brit. Assoc. Report, 1836, p. 596. Ann. des Sc. Nat. viii. 211.

850. Mirbel and Spach* examined the seed of the Yew, and found that the ovule at first appeared as a mere bag of mucilage containing rudiments of cells which arrange themselves in a honeycomb manner. After impregnation, active changes begin in the primitive cells. They send out tubes which pass irregularly into the cavity of the young seed, and after ceasing to lengthen form cells at their extremity, which are the rudiment of the embryo. The tubes act as suspensors and finally disappear, while the cells at the end multiply and form the embryo with its cotyledons.

851. The subject has been recently examined with great care by Hofmeister,† and the following are his views. The ovule of Conifers consists of a short nucleus inclosed in a single integument, and having a large micropyle (Fig. 1246). In the delicate cellular nucleus there is developed an embryo-sac, *b*, sometimes more than one, as in the Yew tribe. The pollen grains enter the large micropyle and come into contact with the nucleus, and then send their tubes into its apex (Fig. 1247, *c*). This process sometimes requires several weeks or



Fig 1246

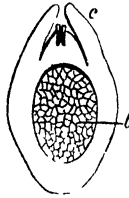


Fig 1247



Fig 1248

months. Pineau says, that in the Scotch Fir a year elapses before the tubes reach the sac. After this the embryo-sac (Fig. 1247, *b*), becomes gradually filled with cellular tissue or endosperm cells, and at

Fig. 1246 Vertical section of the ovule of the Austrian Pine (*Pinus austriaca*), showing the nucleus *a*, consisting of delicate cellular tissue containing deep in its substance an embryo-sac, *b*, formed before impregnation by the coalescence of a vertical series of a few cells. The micropyle, *m*, is very wide, and through it the pollen-grains come into contact with the summit of the nucleus, into the substance of which they send their tubes.

Fig. 1247 Vertical section of the ovule of the Scotch Fir (*Pinus sylvestris*) in May of the second year, showing the enlarged embryo-sac, *b*, full of endosperm cells, and pollen-tubes, *c*, penetrating the summit of the nucleus after the pollen has entered the large micropyle of the ovule.

Fig. 1248. Vertical section of the embryo-sac, *b*, and of part of the nucleus, *a*, of the ovule of the Weymouth Pine (*Pinus Strobus*). At the micropylar end of the embryo-sac, two cells called corpuscles, *d*, have made their appearance. Each of these is at first separated from the inner surface of the micropylar end of the sac by a single cell, which afterwards divides into four, leaving a passage from the surface of the sac down to the corpuscle. The pollen-grain, *c*, on the summit of the nucleus, then sends down a tube which perforates the embryo-sac, and reaches the corpuscle through the inter-cellular canal.

* Mirbel et Spach sur l'Embryogenie des *Pinus Laricio* et *sylyestris*, des *Thuja orientalis* et occidentalis, et du *Taxus baccata*, in Ann des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xx 257.

† Hofmeister, vergleichende Untersuchungen der Keimung, Entfaltung und Fruchtbildung hoherer Kryptogamen und der Samenbildung der Coniferen, Leipsic, 1851. See Hensley's Report in Brit Assoc. Report for 1851, p 122. See also Hensley on the Reproduction of the Higher Cryptogamia and Phanerogamia, in Annals of Nat Hist 2d ser. ix. 441

the same time enlarges. This development of endosperm cells occupies frequently a long time, especially in the *Abietinea*, which require two years to ripen their seeds. After the embryo-sac has become filled with cellular tissue, certain cells at the micropylar end of the sac enlarge and form the corpuscles of Brown, the secondary embryo-sacs of Mirbel and Spach (Fig. 1248, *d*). Each corpuscle is at first separated from the inner surface of the embryo-sac by a simple cell, which afterwards divides into four by the formation of two vertical septa crossing each other; then a passage is formed between the inner angles of these cells leading to the corpuscle. In the cavity of each corpuscle free cells appear. After the corpuscles become evident, the pollen tubes resume their growth, pass through the tissue of the nucleus, and reach the outside of the embryo-sac, one over each corpuscle. The tubes then perforate the membrane of the embryo-sac, reach the canal between the four cells, and come into contact with the corpuscle. (Fig. 1248, *d*). A cell at the lower end of the corpuscle then enlarges, and forms the embryonal vesicle. A free cell in the vesicle divides into



Fig 1249.

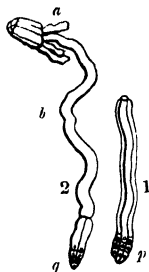


Fig. 1251.



Fig 1250

eight cells by vertical and transverse septa, and these together constitute a short cylindrical cellular body (Fig. 1249), the *pro-embryo*, as it is called by Hofmeister. The four lower cells of this pro-embryo, by the elongation of the upper ones (Fig. 1250), are finally pushed into the substance of the nucleus. The four elongated pro-embryonic cells (Fig. 1251, 1) now appear as isolated suspensors (Fig. 1251, 2), and the cell at the end of each suspensor becomes an embryo, *g*. There are thus four times as many rudimentary embryos as there are corpuscles. Usually one of these only becomes developed as the embryo of the ripe seed.

Fig. 1249 Nucleated cells of what Hofmeister calls the pro-embryo, in the ovule of the Weymouth Pine (*Pinus Strobus*). The cells are pushed downwards into the cellular tissue of the nucleus by the elongation of the upper cells, which finally form the suspensor.

Fig. 1250 The same pro-embryonic body in the ovule of the Weymouth Pine, with the lower cells pushed farther down by the elongation of the upper suspensory cells.

Fig. 1251. Suspensors taken from the ovule of the Weymouth Pine (*Pinus Strobus*). In No. 1 the four suspensors are united. They form a cylinder composed of four elongated cells, and at the end, *p*, are seen some of the lower nucleated cells of the pro-embryo. In No. 2 the suspensors have separated, three of them, *a*, are cut off, and the remaining one, *b*, is connected with the embryo, *g*, at its extremity.

852. Pineau* thinks that when the pollen tube comes into contact with the corpuscle, it bursts so as to discharge its fovilla into the corpuscle. According to Geleznoff† the embryo is formed by a cellule which originates in the end of the pollen tube, and passes through an orifice into the corpuscle. Schacht also advances a similar opinion. He says that the pollen tube in such plants as *Taxus*, *Pinus*, and *Abies*, enters the corpuscle, and fills it either entirely or partially with cellules, these cellules being always in the interior of the pollen tube, and forming the rudiment of the embryo.‡

853. The view which seems to be supported by the best physiologists is thus given by Henfrey. In Conifers and Cycads, which embrace Gymnospermous plants, the pollen grains are applied to the micropyle of the ovule, without the intervention of a stigma; they then traverse the cells of the nucleus, and reach the embryo-sac. The endospermal cells which fill this sac develop corpuscles consisting of an enlarged cell surmounted by four others, which leave a canal between them leading to the large cell. Henfrey thinks that this resembles the Archegonia of *Selaginella* and Ferns. The pollen tube enters the canal between these cells, and impregnates the large cell of each corpuscle, just as the spermatozoid acts in the case of Ferns. The large central cell then produces four suspensors, each of which presents at its extremity a rudimentary embryo, only one of which becomes fully developed. The growth of the suspensors down from the central cell, Henfrey thinks, is analogous to the growth of the suspensor in *Selaginella* and *Isoetes*. We observe a marked development of endospermal cells extending over a considerable period, and thus making an evident interval between the entrance of the pollen tubes and the production of corpuscles. Henfrey is disposed to look upon the endospermal cellular development as analogous to the prothallium produced within the large spore of Lycopods, and which in other Cryptogams, such as Ferns, is not produced within the spore, but grows out from it in the form of a green expansion bearing both archegonia and antheridia.§

b. EMBRYOGENY IN ANGIOSPERMOUS PHANEROGAMS.

854. In regard to Phanerogamous Angiosperms, when the pollen grains are discharged from the anther, they are applied to the stigmatic surface of the pistil, and the viscid fluid there secreted causes a

* Pineau, sur la formation de l'Embryon chez les Conifères, in *Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. Bot. xi. 83.

† Géleznoff, sur l'Embryogenie du Melze—*Bull. Soc. Nat. de Moscow*, xxii. and *Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. xiv. 189

‡ Schacht, *Entwickelungs-geschichte des Pflanzen-embryon*, Amsterdam, 1850.

§ For a full view of the analogies between reproduction in Cryptogams and Gymnosperms, see Henfrey's Paper already referred to. See also Corda, *Beiträge zur Lehre von der Befruchtung der Pflanzen* in *Nova Acta*, xvii. 599, for an account of the Embryogenic process in *Pinus Abies*.

rupture of the extine and the protrusion of the intine in the form of a tubular prolongation, which gradually elongates as it proceeds down the loose conducting tissue of the style. At the period of impregnation, Griffith noticed an oscillatory movement in the pollen tubes of *Dischidia*.

855. There were formerly differences of opinion as to the mode in which the influence of the fovilla was conveyed to the ovules. Hartig* maintained that in many instances the tube did not reach the ovule, but that the fovilla during the latter part of its course was conducted by the tissue of the style. Brongniart also thought that the pollen tubes burst at their lower end, and that the fovilla was conveyed by the conducting tissue to the ovules. Almost all physiologists, however, of the present day believe that the closed extremity of the pollinic tube sooner or later comes into contact with the ovule. In some cases it appears to be met by a tubular prolongation from the ovule itself. Meyen noticed in *Phaseolus* and in *Alsine media*, and Griffith† in *Santalum album*, that the apex of the embryo-sac is very much prolonged upwards so as to meet the pollen tube. Professor Dickie‡ observed similar ovular tubes in the case of *Euphrasia officinalis* and *Odontites*, *Nartheccium ossifragum* and *Veronica*. In *Eye-bright* (*Euphrasia*) the ovule-tube is less than 1-3000th of an inch in diameter.

856. When the pollen-tube reaches the ovule it proceeds through the foramen or micropyle so as to come into contact with the embryo-sac (Fig. 1208, s, p. 566). Consequent on this is the development of the cellular embryo. The determination, however, of the steps of the embryogenic process has given rise to disputes among physiologists. Some maintain that the end of the pollen-tube enters or introverts the embryo-sac, and becomes the rudimental cell of the embryo, others, that the tube merely comes into contact with the sac, in which a germinal vesicle has been previously formed ready for impregnation. Much has been done of late years to clear up the difficulties of this controverted matter, and there seems to be now a more general agreement among physiologists in regard to the principal facts of embryogeny.

857. In the year 1837 Schleiden advanced a view of embryogeny which has received a few supporters. He states that a cell of the nucleus is developed into the embryo-sac (the quintine of Mirbel), seen in Figure 1252, s, and that this occurs in all Phanerogamous plants;§ that the embryo-sac contains a substance which is gradually transformed into cellular tissue, and which ultimately constitutes (when not

* Hartig, *Neue Theorie der Befruchtung der Pflanzen*.

† Griffith, on the Ovule of *Santalum album*, in *Linn. Trans.* xviii. 59; on the Ovulum of *Avicennia*, in *Linn. Trans.* xx. 1; on the Development of the Ovulum, *Notulæ in Plantas Asiaticas*, 1847, p. 133.

‡ Dickie, on the Physiology of Fecundation in Plants, in *Annals of Nat. Hist.* 1st ser. xvii. 5; on the Ovule of *Euphrasia officinalis*, in *Ann. of Nat. Hist.* 2d ser. i. 280.

§ Schleiden examined at least 500 plants of the most different families (about 150), and states that he never failed, at least in the earlier stages, to extract the embryo-sac in whole or part. The demonstration of the sac, he says, is easiest in New Zealand Flax (*Phormium tenax*), the Almond tribe, Water-lilies, and some of the Cucumber tribe.

absorbed by the growth of the embryo) the endosperm or albumen; that the pollen tube can be traced from the stigma to the micropyle in a very large number of plants, and that in *Helianthemum dentatum* he has not unfrequently extracted the pollen-tube free, in unbroken continuity, from the pollen-grain to the ovule; that the tube next reaches the embryo-sac, *s*, the walls of which it presses in before it, and thus becomes surrounded by it, although in reality external to it, like the intestines and their peritoneal covering; that in some instances it causes absorption of the walls of the sac and enters it, and that the end of the pollen-tube, *e*, forms the rudiment of the embryo or the germinal vesicle, in which cells are developed from cytoblasts, while a portion of variable length, at the upper part of the tube, remains as the suspensor or embryophore. He applies these views to cases of polyembryony,

as occurs in *Coniferæ* and *Cycadaceæ*, as well as in the *Mistleto* and other plants, and considers that the plurality of embryos depends on more than one pollen-tube having entered the foramen of the ovule.* These opinions were adopted by Wydler† and Geleznoff,‡ and of late they have been supported by Schacht,§ who also states that the pollen-tube occasionally branches, so that one tube may give origin to several embryos.

858. The views of Schleiden, when first propounded, stimulated all vegetable physiologists. The facts were new, and seemed to upset all former ideas as to the nature of the stamens and pistils. Mirbel and Spach, Meyen, Amici, Hofmeister, Muller, Tulasne, and others, entered the field, and the result has been that Schleiden's opinions have not been confirmed. These authors agree in tracing the pollen tube downwards to the ovule, and they maintain that in the embryo-sac there exists one or more vesicles before impregnation, and that one of these vesicles, after the impact of the pollen tube with the embryo-sac, becomes altered and enlarged, so as to form the rudiment of the embryo.

Fig. 1252. Ovule of *Philydrum lanuginosum*, shortly after impregnation, according to Schleiden. The pollen-tube, *t*, has reached the foramen (micropyle), and has passed through the ovular canal to the nucleus and embryo-sac, *s*; it has entered the latter either by perforating its walls or by introverting them. The end of the pollen-tube, *e*, according to Schleiden, constitutes the first cell of the embryo. 1, the primine; 2, the secundine; *ch*, the chalaza; *r*, the raphe.

* Schleiden, einige Blücke auf die Entwickelungs-geschichte der Veget. Organism—Wiegmann, Archiv. 1837. Um Bildung des Eichens, und Entstehung des Embryon bei der Phanerogamen—Nova Acta, xix. part 1, 27. Sur la formation de l'Ovule et l'Origine de l'Embryon dans les Phanérogames, in Annales des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xi. 129. Recherches sur la Phytogenèse, in Annales des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xi. 242 and 362, translated in Taylor's Scientific Memoirs, ii. 281.

† Wydler, sur la formation de l'Embryon, in Annales des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xi. 142.

‡ Géleznoff, ueber die Bildung des Embryo, in Bot. Zeitung, 1843, 841. Bullet. of Imp. Nat. Hist. Soc. of Moscow, xvi.

§ Schacht, Entwickelungs-geschichte des Pflanzen-Embryon, Amsterdam, 1850.

859. In 1839, Mirbel and Spach* examined the embryogeny of grasses, and especially of the Indian Corn (*Zea Mais*) a monœcious grass, and they were led to contradict the views of Schleiden, and to maintain that he had mistaken a cell of the ovule for the extremity of the pollen-tube. They showed that before the pollen was ripe, a cell was developed in the ovule, which they called the primary utricle, and that this came into contact with the pollen-tube, so as to produce the embryo. Giraud† and Wilson‡ made similar observations on the formation of the embryo in Indian Cress (*Tropæolum majus*), and both are opposed to Schleiden's views. Meyen§ published a series of observations on various species of Mesembryanthemum, especially *M. pomeridianum*, in which he noticed an adhesion between the pollen-tube and embryo-sac, a discharge of part of the contents of the former without any entrance of the tube into the sac, and the formation of a germ-vesicle which gradually elongated by the production of cells, and ended in a globular body which formed the embryo.

860. In 1847, Amici, on examining *Cucurbita Pepo*, stated that he found a hollowing out of the nucleus or central part of the ovule, in such a way as to form a sac, in which there existed an embryonic or germinal vesicle before the application of the pollen. He traced the pollen-tube down the style to the ovule, so as to come into contact with the vesicle. In this stage a penetration of fluids took place, and thus the act of fecundation was accomplished. The embryonic vesicle after this increased, the development of cells took place at its base, that is, opposite to the part where the pollen-tube exerted its influence, the pollen-tube disappeared, and finally the vesicle became full of parenchyma in which the embryo was developed. In *Orchis Morio* he traced in the same way the pollen-tube (Fig. 1253, *t*) to the upper portion of the embryo-sac, *e*, where the germinal vesicle had been previously formed. Imbibition of fluid then took place between the end of the tube and vesicle, giving rise to the development of the embryo at the lower end of the vesicle, and the elongation of the upper part in the form of a confervoid filament, which acted as a suspensor of the embryo.||

861. Hofmeister,¶ in 1847, examined the mode of fecundation in species of *Cenothera*, *Godetia*, and *Boisduvalia*, and the result of his researches was, that he found an embryo-sac containing at first numerous granules from 1-3500th to 1-3000th of a line in diameter,

* Mirbel et Spach, sur l'Embryogenie Végétale, in *Annales des Sc Nat* 2d ser xi 200 and 381

† Giraud on Vegetable Embryology, in *Ann of Nat Hist* 1st ser v 225 On the Origin and Development of the Embryo in *Tropæolum majus*, in *Linn Trans* xix 161, *Ann Nat Hist* ix 245

‡ Wilson, Researches in Embryogeny, *Phytologist*, i. 625, 657, 731, 849, 881

§ Meyen, on the Act of Impregnation, and on Polyembryony, Berlin, 1846. Translated in Taylor's Scientific Memoirs, iii 1. Also, sur la fécondation des Végétaux, *Annales des Sc Nat* 2d ser xi 312

|| Amici, sur la fécondation des Orchidées, in *Ann des Sc Nat* 3d ser vii 193 from *Pariatore Gioin Bot Ital Ann* 2

¶ Hofmeister, sur la manière dont s'opère la fécondation chez les *Cenotherées*, *Bot Zeitung*, Nov 1847, *Ann des Sc Nat* 3d ser Bot ix 65 Die Entstehung des Embryo der Phanerogamen, *Leipsig*, 1849, also in *Annales des Sc Nat* 3d ser xi 375

floating in a viscid mucilaginous fluid (protoplasm); in the midst of this granular matter certain nuclei appeared, which developed cells varying in number from one to three or more (Fig. 1254, *v*). These nucleated cells appeared before impregnation; one of them became pyriform, and touched the membrane of the embryo-sac by its conical extremity, while its other extremity hung free in the embryo-sac. This cell is the germinal vesicle—the embryonary vesicle of Amici. The pollen-

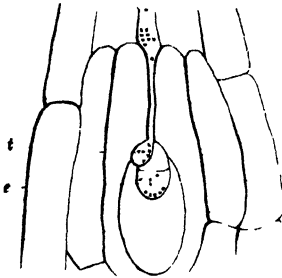


Fig 1253

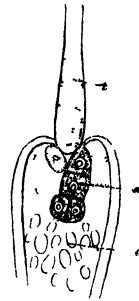


Fig 1254

tube, in passing through the micropyle, is often contracted in its diameter. The end of it is expanded when it reaches the embryo-sac, to which it is applied either at the apex or near it (Fig. 1254, *t*). Sometimes the end of the tube, still closed, introverts the sac, as seen in the Figure, or even perforates it, so as to come into contact with the germinal vesicle. In either case an endosmotic action takes place between the contents of the tube and the sac or the vesicle. In consequence of this action, cell-formation begins in one, rarely more germinal vesicles. The vesicle increases, and is transformed into a compound cellular mass, which Hofmeister calls the pro-embryo. This divides into two by the formation of a septum; the upper part elongates, and forms a septate cellular suspensor, *s*, while the lower portion becomes globular, divides into four, and is developed as the embryo, surrounded by endospermal cells, *e*.

862. In 1848, Mohl* confirmed the researches of Amici in his examination of the *Orchis Morio*. In this plant he traced the formation

Fig 1253. Section of ovule of an *Orchis* (*Orchis Morio*) showing the pollen tube passing through the endostome, and reaching the embryo-sac in the nucleus. The closed and enlarged end of the tube, *t*, is applied to the sac, in which a vesicle had been previously formed. Transudation of fluids takes place, and the embryo, *e*, is developed at the lower end of the germinal or embryonary vesicle while the upper part of the vesicle elongates, and forms a conserved suspensor.

Fig 1254. Section of the ovule of *Enothera*, showing the pollen tube, *t*, with its enlarged extremity applied to the end of the embryo-sac, and introverting it slightly, the germinal vesicle in the sac has been impregnated, and has divided into two parts, the upper part forming a conserved septate suspensor, *s*, and the lower dividing into 4 parts, which form a globular mass—the rudimentary embryo, surrounded by endospermal cells, *e*.

* Mohl, sur le développement de l' Embryon dans l' *Orchis Morio*, Bot Zeitung, 1847, and in Ann des Sc. Nat 3d ser 1x 24

of the embryo-sac and embryonic vesicle, and the descent of the pollen tubes. The ovule arises from the placenta as a projecting cell, which by division becomes a cellular papilla (the nucleus) having a central cell (embryo-sac) surrounded by a simple cellular layer. The two coats grow over this, and by the greater elongation of one side the ovule becomes anatropous. The nucleus loses its cellular coat by absorption, and finally consists simply of an embryo-sac. In the apex of this sac, at the time when the pollen falls on the stigma, three cellules (embryonal vesicles) make their appearance. The pollen tubes pass down the style and finally reach the placenta, and enter, either singly or more than one, the micropylar canal of the ovule, and come into contact with the embryo-sac on the outside, close to the place where the embryonal vesicles lie. The pollen tube does not penetrate the sac. After this, one of the embryonal vesicles begins to swell, divides by a septum into two, the upper cell grows out in a filamentous form through the micropyle, while the lower cell enlarges and divides repeatedly, so as to form a cellular globule, the embryo. The filamentous prolongation, apparently analogous to the suspensor, withers. Mohl concludes by stating that he differs from Schleiden in his views, and that he considers the pollen grain not as a plant ovum, but as the male fertilizing organ. In the protoplasm of the embryo-sac, according to him, nuclei appear before the pollen tube reaches the sac, and thus give rise to the formation of germinal vesicles, one of which, after impregnation, gives origin to the embryo.

863. Muller,* in 1848, examined the development of the vegetable embryo in *Orchis Morio*, *Monotropa Hypopitys*, *Begonia cucullata*, *Elatine Alsinastrum*, and *Epilobium angustifolium*. The conclusions at which he arrives are, that the pollen tube is applied to the embryo-sac for the purpose of supplying to it, by a process of endosmose, the fertilizing or fecundating matter which is contained in the tube; that the embryo takes its origin in a cytoblast, and not in the extremity of the pollen tube. Unger, † in 1849, made the embryo of the *Hippuris vulgaris* an object of study, and traced in this plant the various stages of embryo growth. His results are similar to those just noticed, and are at variance with the views of Schleiden.

864. Tulasne ‡ is the next vegetable embryologist who entered the field. His researches were carried on in 1849, and had reference principally to the natural orders *Scrophulariaceæ*, *Halorageæ*, *Campanulaceæ*, and *Cruciferae*. He confirms in most particulars the observations of Amici, Hofmeister, Mohl, and Muller. In *Cruciferae* and *Scrophulariaceæ* there is a large embryo-sac (Fig. 1255) in the midst of a cellular nucleus. At the upper part of the embryo sac embryonal vesicles are produced, *b*; and in the lower and middle

* Muller, sur le Développement de l'Embryon Végétale—Ann des Sc Nat Bot 3d ser ix 33

† Unger, Die Entwicklung des Embryo von *Hippuris vulgaris*, in Mohl et Schlechtendal, Bot Zeit vii 329

‡ Tulasne, Etudes d'Embryologie Végétale, Ann des Sc Nat 3d ser Bot xii 21

part of the sac a number of free cellules, *c*, called endospermal cells (in which the albumen or endosperm is formed). The pollen tube, *a*, penetrates the apex of the cellular nucleus, and reaches the embryo-sac at a point removed from the vesicles. The impregnated embryonal vesicle, *b*, is next divided into two parts by a septum, the upper part being elongated into a cylinder, the suspensor, while the lower division, *d*, forms the embryo. The embryo then develops its different parts, the two cotyledons and the radicle with the first bud or plumule (Fig. 1257). In some plants, as Cruciferæ, the endosperm preceding the embryo is entirely absorbed, so that the seed is



Fig 1255

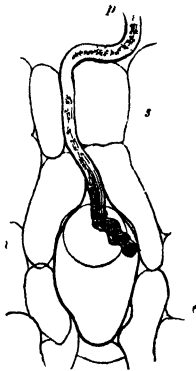


Fig 1258

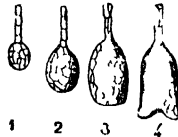


Fig 1257

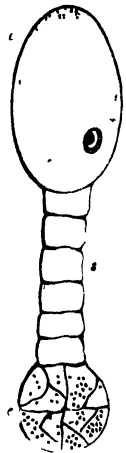


Fig 1256

exalbuminous; in others it remains in the form of albumen surrounding the embryo. In *Nymphæa* the endospermal cells remain as albuminous matter inside the sac, and there is also a layer of albumen (exosperm) formed by the nucleus outside the sac.

865. Henfrey* has made observation on the ovule of *Orchis Morio*,

Fig. 1255 Section of part of the ovule of a species of Speedwell (*Veronica triphyllos*), showing the pollen tube, *a*, passing through the cellular tissue of the nucleus, and reaching the embryo-sac, which contains the rudimental embryo, *d*, attached to the sac by its suspensor, *b*, and endospermal cells, *c*, at the lower part of the sac

Fig 1256 Embryo of the Whitlow-grass (*Draba verna*), with its suspensor The embryo, *e*, consists of a globular mass at the end of a suspensor 2 and 3 Embryo more advanced 4 Embryo showing the division into two cotyledons

Fig 1257 The embryo in different stages of development 1 Embryo in young state as a globular mass at the end of a suspensor 2 and 3 Embryo more advanced 4 Embryo showing the division into two cotyledons

Fig 1258 Section of ovule of an Orchid (*Orchis Morio*), showing the inner coat or secundine, *s*, the pollen tube, *p*, passing through the endostome to reach the nucleus of the ovule, with the embryo-sac, *e* The end of the pollen tube, *l*, is applied to the outside of the sac, in which there is a single germinal vesicle or embryonal vesicle, *v*, which ultimately forms the embryo and its suspensor

* Henfrey on the Ovule of *Orchis Morio*, in Linn Trans xx: 7

and states that the embryo is really produced by the ovule itself; that the germinal vesicle (Fig. 1258, *v*) exists within the embryo-sac, *e*, before the pollen exerts its influence; that the pollen tube, *p*, penetrates the coats of the ovule to reach the embryo-sac, to which its extremity, *t*, is applied; and that the passage of the pollinic fluid through the intervening membranes impregnates the germinal vesicle, and determines its development into an embryo; that the germinal vesicle divides into two cells (Fig. 1259, *v*), the upper forming an articulated Conferva-like filament (Fig. 1260, *f*), which grows out from the sac, the lower enlarging so as to fill the sac and form the embryo (Fig. 1260, *g*). Dr. Cobbold* has come to similar conclusions from the examination of the embryogenic process in *Orchis mascula*.

866. Dr. Sanderson made observations on *Hippuris vulgaris*, † the result of which is that he adopts more or less completely the views of Amici and Hofmeister, in opposition to those of Schleiden. He finds the embryo vesicle developed in the interior of the embryo-sac (Fig. 1261) before impregnation. The vesicle consists at first of a single

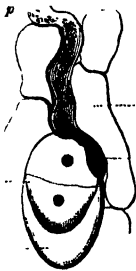


Fig. 1259.

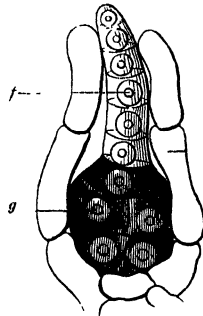


Fig. 1260.

elongated cell attached to the free extremity of the embryo-sac. After impregnation the vesicle is transformed into a spheroidal cell, which is divided into two by a transverse septum; the upper portion elongates and forms a septate confervoid filament (Fig. 1262, *f*), the suspensor; while the lower assumes a spheroidal form, the embryo-globule (Fig. 1262, *e*), and subsequently divides into four. Cells are produced in this globule, and finally the embryo is developed from it. He divides the essential phenomena of the embryogenic process in Phanerogamous

Fig. 1259. Section of a portion of the ovule of *Orchis Morio*, showing the pollen tube, *p*, passing through the endostome, or foramen, in the secundine, *s*, and the extremity of the tube, *t*, applied to the embryo-sac, *e*, which contains the impregnated vesicle, *v*, now divided into two nucleated cells by a transverse septum.

Fig. 1260. Embryo of *Orchis Morio* in a more advanced state. The germinal vesicle, in the sac surrounded by the inner coat, *s*, is divided into two portions, *g*, the embryo globule, or the rounded mass of nucleated cells which form the embryo, and the confervoid nucleated filament, *f*, which constitutes the suspensor.

* Cobbold on the Embryogeny of *Orchis mascula*, in *Quart. Journ. of Microscop. Science*, i. 90.

† Sanderson on the Embryogeny of *Hippuris vulgaris*, in *Annals of Nat. Hist.* 2d ser. v. 259.

Angiosperms into three classes. 1. The development of the embryo-sac, or the separating and setting apart of a cell of the female organ for reproductive purposes. 2. Changes which take place in the cavity of the sac previous to impregnation. These consist in the development of a vesicle (probably always from a cytotblast) at the micropylar end of the sac, and of endospermal cells which serve a temporary purpose of nutrition. The vesicle (called embryo-vesicle, or germ vesicle) contains a fluid granular protoplasm. 3. Changes which take place in the embryo-sac after the act of impregnation, in other words, after the pollen tube has been brought into contact with the embryo-sac, and an interchange of their contents has taken place. These changes consist

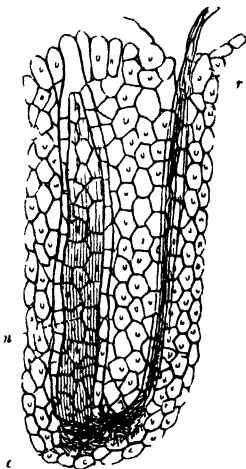


Fig 1261

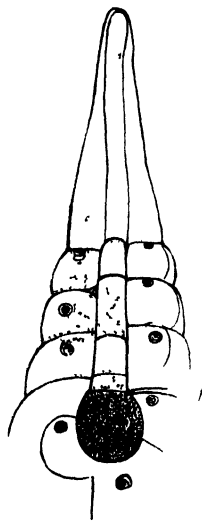


Fig 1262

in the enlargement and division of the vesicle into two parts by a transverse septum; the multiplication of cells so as to form a confervoid filament, and the development by endogenous cell-production (usually at the lower part of the filament, sometimes in the centre), of a globular body, which constitutes the future embryo.

867. Sanderson remarks that although in general but little benefit is to be derived from analogies drawn between the animal and vege-

Fig 1261. Ovule of the common Mare's-tail (*Hippuris vulgaris*), with the raphe, *r*, proceeding from the hilum to the chalaza, *c*, the nucleus, *n*, containing the elongated embryo-sac in which the germinal vesicle is formed

Fig 1262 Embryo of the common Mare's-tail (*Hippuris vulgaris*), after impregnation The vesicle has divided into two portions, the lower forming a globular cellular mass, the rudimental embryo, *e*, the upper forming a confervoid filament, the suspensor, *f*, which proceeds upwards in the elongated embryo-sac, part of which is seen at the apex Nucleated cells surround the sac, and there are nucleated cells in the embryo

table kingdoms, and in many instances such analogies lead to erroneous conclusions,* yet as, in the present instance, they seem to be pretty evident and well marked, it may not be uninteresting to consider their general outline. They are contrasted in the following way:—

I. Individualization of a cell of the female organ for reproductive purposes.

Animal.	Vegetable.
Ovulum.	Embryo-sac.

II. Changes in this cell before impregnation by development of nucleus and nucleolus.

Animal.	Vegetable.
Germinal vesicle, or germinal spot.	Embryo vesicle, or germinal vesicle, and cytotblast.

III. Changes in this cell after the act of impregnation.

Animal.	Vegetable.
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Development of 2 cells from germinal spot. 2. Further multiplication of cells within the germinal vesicle, which become ultimately absorbed. (Cleavage of yolk mass.) 3. Conversion of yolk mass into the embryo, or development of embryo on its surface. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Division of 2 cells in embryo vesicle. 2. Multiplication of cells in embryo vesicle, which become ultimately absorbed. 3. Conversion of contents of embryo vesicle into the embryo.

868. The following may be given as a *Resumé* of the facts ascertained relative to the process of impregnation in Angiospermous Flowering plants. The pollen grains are applied to the stigmatic portion of the pistil, and by the action of the viscid secretion of the stigma a sort of germination commences—often in a few minutes, sometimes not for many hours, by means of which minute tubes are developed from the inner lining of the grains. These tubes, by continuous growth at their ends, are elongated, and pass through the conducting tissue of the style into the ovary—attaining, in some long-styled plants, a length exceeding the diameter of the grain many thousand times. Before the tubes reach the ovary the ovules have undergone changes in their interior; the embryo-sac has become enlarged, so as sometimes to occupy nearly the entire nucleus, as in *Orchidaceæ* and *Compositæ*, and occasionally, as in *Santalum*, *Osyris*, and *Avicennia*, to project out of the micropyle in the form of an ovular tube or bag.†

* Dr. Sanderson remarks, that the terms placenta and ovule apply to organs in plants which are not the analogues of organs so called in animals. The terms, as applied botanically, are misnomers.
 † Griffith states that in *Osyris*, *Santalum*, and *Avicennia* the embryo-sac, after the application of the pollen, enlarges, so as to be on the outside of the nucleus or body of the ovule—Linn. Trans. xx 1.

The protoplasmic matter contained in the embryo-sac immediately before impregnation becomes altered, so as to produce endospermal cells. Nuclei appear in the protoplasm at the upper end of the sac next the micropyle. These nuclei, which are usually three, give origin to as many cells, which are termed the germinal or embryonal vesicles, and which are essential for the formation of the embryo.* The pollen tube, subsequent to this, reaches the upper part of the embryo-sac, after penetrating through the micropyle and any nuclear cells that may lie between it and the sac.

869. On reaching the embryo-sac the pollen tube is either arrested or it elongates still more, so that its swollen extremity penetrates laterally between the embryo-sac and the surrounding cellular tissue, or in certain rare instances (as in *Narcissus poeticus*, *Digitalis purpurea*, and *Campanula Medium*) introverts the embryo-sac, and even penetrates it (as in *Canna*), so as to come into contact with the germinal vesicles. When the end of the tube comes into contact with the sac, it is probable that there is a transudation of the fluid matter of the fovilla, which passes through the membrane of the pollen tube, through the embryo-sac, and through the wall of the germinal vesicle, and thus impregnation is effected. After reaching the sac, the pollen tube begins to decay; its contents acquire a granular, half-coagulated aspect; and it finally disappears by absorption. It usually happens that only one germinal vesicle is impregnated, and in the progress of its subsequent growth it causes absorption of the others; sometimes, however, several are impregnated, and thus there may be a plurality of embryos formed (polyembryony). The impregnated vesicle enlarges, acquires an ovate, cylindrical, or clavate form, constituting the pro-embryo of Hofmeister. The vesicle divides in all cases by a transverse partition into two cells, one above the other; the lower of these produces cellular tissue in its interior, and is sometimes at once transformed into the embryo. At other times, and more frequently, there is a successive production of cells in the pro-embryonic body, so that the upper division of the vesicle forms a confervoid-like filament, the suspensor, while the lower is transformed into a globular cellular mass, which is the rudiment of the embryo. The suspensor is sometimes of great length; thus, in *Draba verna*, it is three times the length of the embryo, and in *Gnetum* it is three and a half to five inches in length, while the whole seed is only one inch long. It is attached to the radicular end of the embryo, while the cotyledons are formed at the opposite side. In monocotyledons a single sheathing cotyledon is developed; in dicotyledons two opposite leaves, and after their formation the apex produces the terminal bud or plumule. The embryo is thus suspended in an inverted manner in the seed. In the progress of development a marked division takes

* In *Lychnis Githago* there is only one vesicle; in *Funkia cærulea* four or more; and in *Canna* one vesicle displaces the rest before impregnation

place below the radicular extremity and the suspensor, and the latter finally shrivels.

General Conclusions in regard to the Embryogenic Process.

870. Such, then, are the most important views relative to vegetable embryogeny, and we are enabled, from the observations which have been made, to draw the following conclusions on the subject:— In all divisions of the vegetable kingdom impregnation seems to consist in the contact of two cells having different contents. In the lowest class of plants two of the cells of the filaments conjugate; in the higher Cryptogamics, antheridian cells emit spermatozoids, and these come into contact with an archegonial cell or ovule, which either forms at once a separate embryo, or gives rise to the formation of a spore-bearing frond; in Gymnosperms the pollen cells are applied directly to the ovule, and send short tubes into the nucleus which reach the ovular reproductive cell or embryo-sac; and in Angiosperms the pollen sends its tubes through the stigma and style before reaching the ovule and its cell.

871. In Angiospermous flowering plants there are stamens containing pollinic cells, and pistils containing ovular cells; these two cells are united by the pollen tube; this tube reaches the embryo-sac with its vesicles and endospermal cells; after the impregnation of a germinal vesicle the formation of the embryo and its suspensor proceeds at once by merismatic division; the plant undergoes all its metamorphoses in the ovary, and separates finally as a rudimentary perfect individual; the embryo is either monocotyledonous or dicotyledonous.

872. In Gymnospermous flowering plants there are stamens, containing pollinic cells, and cones, or modified branches, bearing ovular cells; these two cells come into direct contact; the pollen, after reaching the nucleus of the ovule through the large micropyle, remains for a long time before the pollen tube is formed; this tube (after many months) passes through the upper part of the nucleus to the embryo-sac, containing corpuscles and endospermal cells; after this a cell of the corpuscle becomes developed by merismatic division into the embryo and suspensor; the embryo is either dicotyledonous or polycotyledonous.

873. In vascular Cryptogamous flowerless plants, such as Lycopods, organs are produced which contain bodies equivalent to pollen-cells, and there are also other organs (sporangia or oophoridia) containing large spores, which are equivalent to ovular cells; the larger spores contain endospermal cells in the form of a cellular prothallium; the prothallium bears archegonia (corpuscles), which, after impregnation by spermatozoids from antheridian cells, give rise to the cellular body, whence a sporangiferous individual arises; the antheridia

and archegonia are not placed together on a prothallium. In other vascular Cryptogamous flowerless plants, such as Ferns and Equisetums, the spore-cases (sporangia) enclose spores which contain a rudimentary prothallium, only developed during germination, and producing both antheridia and archegonia; the spermatozoids of the former impregnate a vesicle or cell of the latter, which then gives origin to the sporangiferous individual representing the stem, leaves, and cones of Gymnosperms. In cellular plants the union of two cells, either directly or by the intervention of a tube, gives rise to the formation of a spore or sporoid embryo.

4 HYBRIDIZATION, OR THE PRODUCTION OF HYBRIDS IN PLANTS

874. In connection with the subject of fertilization, the production of hybrids or mules deserves attention. When the pollen of one species is applied to the stigma of another species, so as to effect fecundation, the seeds thus formed give rise to individuals which are intermediate in their characters between the two parents. The plants produced by this heterogeneous fertilization are called hybrids or mules. A true hybrid is a cross between two species, but the term is often applied to crosses between mere varieties, races, or sub-species. The latter sort of crosses have been occasionally denominated sub-hybrids in order to avoid confusion. In hybridizing it is necessary to bring together species which are allied, as, for instance, the species of the same genus, or those of allied genera. It is not, however, easy to determine the plants which can produce hybrids. Many plants which seem to be nearly allied do not inoculate each other. Sageret failed in his endeavours to fecundate an apple tree by a pear tree, and no one has succeeded in getting hybrids between the gooseberry and currant, nor between the strawberry and raspberry. The statements in regard to the intermixture of the orange and pomegranate, and of roses and black currants, are not founded on facts. Sometimes we meet with hybrids between different genera, and such have been called Bigeners. Kölreuter obtained them among the Malvaceous genera, also between *Papaver* and *Glaucium*; Gärtner between *Datura* and *Hyoscyamus*, and *Nicotiana*; Wiegmann between a garden bean and a lentil. In these instances the breed is monstrous and sickly, and is usually of very short duration. Occasionally, however, in the case of genera nearly allied, the hybrids are more permanent, as in the plant called *Bryanthus erectus*, which is a hybrid between *Rhodothamnus Chamæcistus* and *Phyllodoce cærulea*.*

875. It is not common to meet with hybrids in a wild state, because there is a much greater likelihood of the pistil being impregnated by the pollen of the anthers beside it, than by that from a distance; and if fecundation has taken place, then pollen applied from

* Paxton's Flower Garden for Sept. 1860, pl. 19

other sources has no effect. De Candolle* gives a list of about forty natural hybrids between species of *Ranunculus*, *Anemone*, *Hypericum*, *Scleranthus*, *Potentilla*, *Geum*, *Medicago*, *Galium*, *Centaurea*, *Cirsium*, *Stachys*, *Rhinanthus*, *Digitalis*, *Verbascum*, *Gentiana*, *Mentha*, *Polygonum*, *Quercus*, *Salix*, and *Narcissus*. Lindley mentions *Cistus Ledon* as being constantly produced in nature between *C. monspessulanus* and *C. laurifolius*; and *Cistus longifolius* between *C. monspessulanus* and *C. populifolius*; *Saxifraga luteo-purpurea* and *S. ambigua*, between *S. aretioides* and *S. calyciflora*.† Dioecious plants, in which male and female flowers are on separate individuals, seem to be liable to produce hybrids, and hence perhaps the difficulty of determining the species of Willows. Hybrids are constantly produced artificially by gardeners, in order to improve the characters of the flowers or of the fruit.

876. It has been found that for successful hybridizing the pollen must be in perfection, and the stigma also must be fully developed. There appears always to be a preference for its own pollen on the part of the stigma. When strange pollen is applied, even in the case of species which hybridize, it does not act so effectually on the ovules as the pollen belonging to the flower. Hybrid fecundation then is usually less complete than natural fecundation. Gærtner found that out of nineteen flowers of *Nicotiana Langsdorfii* fecundated by *N. marylandica*, and out of fourteen fecundated by *N. paniculata*, he succeeded only in five, and in nine of the same species fecundated by *N. quadrivalvis*, only one was successful. The capsule of *Nicotiana macrophylla* contains 2416 perfect seeds, while this species fecundated by *N. quadrivalvis* contained only 658. The capsule of *Papaver somniferum* contains 2130 seeds, but when fecundated by *Glaucium luteum*, only six were perfect. Dichogamous plants, that is, those in which the sexes are separate, are not so susceptible of the influence of strange pollen. This seems to be a provision to guard against hybridity in such cases. Hybrids are more common in polyspermous genera than in those in which the seeds are few.

877. When impregnation takes place between two pure species the characters of the parents never remain pure and unaltered in the formation of the hybrid. In general every part of the new production is modified, so that it presents a decided difference from either of the parents, though resembling the one more than the other. Sometimes the influence of the male predominates, sometimes that of the female. In *Digitalis* it is said that the influence of the female plant prevails, in *Nicotiana* that of the male. Herbert says, that in hybrid *Amaryllises* the flowers and organs of reproduction partake of the character of the female parent, while the foliage and habit, or the organs of vegetation, resemble the male. Fries Morel says that hybrid *Carnations* resemble the female parent in form, and the male in colour. In a hybrid between *Phyllocactus crenatus* (female), and *Cereus speciosissi-*

* De Candolle, *Physiol. Végét.* ii 707† Lindley, *Introduction to Bot.* vol. ii. p. 243

mus (male), the stem, and in some respects the flowers, were those of *crenatus*, and the colour that of *speciosissimus*. The male gave colour and changed somewhat the form of the flower, while the female gave general habit. The specific differences, according to Gærtner, of nearly allied species, appear more distinct in the hybrids to which they give rise, than in the pure species. Thus *Lobelia cardinalis*, *fulgens*, and *splendens*, which are very nearly allied, give totally distinct hybrids when united with *Lobelia syphilitica*. On the other hand, *Nicotiana magnifolia*, *macrophylla*, *marylandica*, and *petiolata*, give identical hybrids when impregnated with *N. glutinosa*. The supposed species in this latter case are probably therefore mere forms. Hybrid types are considered as depending on the specific distinction of species, and not on any external influences.

878. Hybrids occur in which the characters of the parents are intimately blended, so that it is impossible to say to which there is a greater resemblance. Sometimes the number of the organs is curiously intermediate; thus *Cucubalus* has three stigmas, and *Lychnis* five, and a hybrid between them has four. Again, hybrids occur in which one part or other approaches the paternal or maternal form, though the characters of the parent never pass altogether pure into the new organism. *Lychnis vespertino-diurna*, a hybrid between the two species whose name it bears, has no perfect diurnal sleep as in *L. vespertina*, but the petals roll back slightly when the sun shines or the weather is hot; the hybrid resembles *vespertina* in its small leaves, *diurna* in the vital phenomena; *vespertina* in its large flowers, and straight blunt stigmas, *diurna* in the pubescence; *vespertina* in the more pyramidal fruit, and also in the size and colour of the seeds. There is a third set of hybrids in which there is resemblance to one of the parents, whether male or female, so decided, that the agreement is at once perceptible and beyond doubt.

879. In certain circumstances we find the typical forms which are combined in the hybrid separated so as to appear in the same individual. Thus a hybrid* between *Cytisus Laburnum* and *Cytisus purpureus*, called *Cytisus Adami* or Red *Laburnum*, occasionally has branches, some of which bear the flowers of the male, and others those of the female parent. Sageret mentions a case of a hybrid sprung from a female Chinese Melon and a male Market Melon, in which, of two branches exactly opposite each other, one bore nothing but the latter Melon, whilst the other branch bore a cross between both Melons.†

880. Thwaites observes that the fertilization of the ovule consists in the union of a part of the contents of a pollen-grain with certain matter contained in the germinal vesicle, and that the embryo origi-

* This hybrid is by some attributed to the grafting of *Cytisus purpureus* on *Cytisus Laburnum*, and not to fertilization, and Herbert thinks that a combination between the cells of each of the plants may be considered as originating it

† Sageret, Mém sur les Cucurbitacées, et sur la production des Hybrides, Paris, 1826 27

nates from the mixed substance ; and he thinks that this is confirmed by what takes place in hybridization—the hybrid plant owing its existence to an endochrome made up of a portion of the endochromes of each of the parent plants, and the proportion varying in different ovules. The ovules of *Fuchsia coccinea*, impregnated by the pollen of *Fuchsia fulgens*, produce plants of every intermediate form between these two species—some resembling the one and others the other species, but the majority partaking of the characters of both. The variations are referred to the different proportions in which the endochromes are mixed. One of the hybrid seeds produced twin plants which were dissimilar.*

881. Hybrids, although they may be fertile at first, rarely continue so for many generations.† Herbert mentions hybrid *Narcissuses* which never produced seed.‡ The non-production of fertile seeds in some plants has led to the idea that they are mules. The cause of sterility in mules has not been fully ascertained. Henslow could not find in a hybrid *Digitalis* any structural changes which could account for barrenness. It may be that the pollen is not perfect in its development. In many hybrids there occur monstrosities in the pollen granule. Thus in the pure species of *Fuchsia* each granule is furnished with either two or three pollen-tubes ; while in the pollen of *F. Standishii* a hybrid between *F. fulgens*, whose grains of pollen have but two tubes, and another species the granules of which have three, great confusion prevails—some of the granules having two or three tubes like the type, while others have four tubes. Many appear abortive, consisting only of extine, and no fovilla. This will account for the seeds of hybrid species being so frequently unproductive, since they either have not received the influence of the degenerated pollen at all, or have done so in an imperfect manner. It would be interesting to know if sterile hybrids wanted some peculiar matter in their fovilla, in the same way as sterile mules among animals have no spermatozoa.

882. Hybrids may be fertilized by pollen taken from one of the parents, and then their offspring approaches in character to that parent. Hybrids impregnated for a third or fourth time with the pollen of the original male plant, approach more and more to the male type. Such is also the case when the impregnation is effected by pollen taken from the original female type, but in this instance the change is usually more slow. Gärtner, to whom we are indebted for most of these remarks on hybridity, gives a tabular view of the number of impregnations requisite to complete changes of species by hybridization. He produced hybrids between the two species named, and then, by using the pollen of the original male or female parent, he found that in

* Thwaites, on *Diatomaceæ*, in *Ann Nat Hist* 2d ser. i 163.

† Although hybrids have generally little tendency to reproduce themselves by generation, and usually die out, still there are certain supposed hybrids which continue to propagate themselves. Sageret, for instance, thinks that the *Colza* is a hybrid between the *Cabbage* (*Brassica oleracea*), and the *Turnip* (*Brassica Napus*)

‡ *Bot. Register*, Aug 1843

progress of time the species are brought back to the male or female type. By this means he ascertained the following facts:—

Aquilegia atro-purpurea became . . .	A. canadensis in	3	generations.
A. canadensis	A. atro-purpurea	4	”
A. canadensis	A. vulgaris	4	”
Dianthus arenarius	D. Caryophyllus	5-6	”
—————	D. pulchellus	5-6	”
—————	D. chinensis	5-6	”
—————	D. superbus	5	”
Dianthus Armeria	D. deltoides	5-6	”
————— barbatus	D. Carthusianorum	3-4	”
—————	D. chinensis	5	”
Geum urbanum	G. rivale	4	”
Lavatera pseudolbia	L. thuringiaca	4	”
Lychnis diurna	L. vespertina	4	”
————— vespertina	L. diurna	3	”
Œnothera nocturna	Œ. villosa	4	”
————— villosa	Œ. nocturna	4-5	”

These observations relative to hybrids, must not be considered as in any way favouring the erroneous and unfounded statements made in regard to the conversion of one species into another of a very different structure, as of Oats into Rye, Rye into *Bromus secalinus*, *Bromus sterilis* into *Hordeum murinum*, *Brassica Rapa* into *Thlaspi arvense*, *Thlaspi arvense* into *Camelina sativa* or *Capsella Bursa pastoris*.*

883. Hybridizing is an important horticultural operation. By it the gardener endeavours to increase the size of flowers, to improve their colour, to approximate their forms to some assumed standard of perfection, to enlarge the foliage as in esculents, to render tender plants hardy, to heighten the flavour of fruits, and to exchange early for late varieties. The changes produced by muling on the size and colour of the blossoms are very remarkable. By inoculating *Cereus speciosissimus* with *C. grandiflorus*, we find that the *immediate* result is a seedling whose flowers are ten inches in diameter. The hues resulting however from the union are not necessarily intermediate. Blue and yellow do not produce green, as proved by a hybrid between *Verbascum phœniceum* and *V. phlomoides*. By muling, beautiful varieties have been produced between *Rosa indica* and *R. moschata*, *Azalea pontica* and *A. nudiflora coccinea*, *Rhododendron arboreum* and *R. caucasicum*, *Catawbiense*, *ponticum* and *campanulatum*; between *Rhodothamnus Chamæcistus* and *Phyllodoce cærulea*,† *Veronica fruticulosa* and *saxatilis*, *Cereus speciosus* and *speciosissimus*; also between species of *Fuchsia*, *Mahonia*, *Potentilla*, *Pelargonium*, *Cal-*

* For fuller remarks on hybridization, see the translation of Gärtner's Paper on Muling in *Vegetables*, in *Journ. of Hort. Soc. of Lond.* vi. p. 12.

† Mr. Isaac Anderson, a successful hybridizer, states that the hybrid between these two genera can only be produced by taking the pollen of *Rhodothamnus* and applying it to the stigma of *Phyllodoce*. He has constantly failed in impregnating the pistil of the former with the pollen of the latter.

ceolaria, Viola, Dahlia, Erica, Narcissus, and numerous others. In the case of Rhododendrons, gardeners have been able to secure the fine colour of the Indian *R. arboreum* with the hardiness of the American species. By inoculating the common Heartsease with the large-flowered Pansy of the Altai mountains, a degree of vigour has been infused into the former which we could not hope to obtain by ordinary means. The fine varieties of Pelargonium have been obtained, by cultivation and by hybridizing, from the small-petaled Pelargonium of the Cape. Fruits and culinary vegetables are sometimes improved by hybridity. These hybrids cannot be continued from seed. They must be propagated by offsets or cuttings. The effect of hybridizing or crossing is very marked in the case of certain Cereal plants. Mr. Maund has done much in this way, and has in some instances produced important varieties. These were shown at the Great Exhibition, along with others, from Mr. Raynbird.

884. This subject has important bearings on the origin and limitation of species. If, as some old authors supposed, there were only a few species originally formed, and all the rest are the result of hybridization, there would be no limit to the production of species, and no permanence in their characters. This opinion, however, is not supported by facts. It is believed that the types of all the species now on the globe were originally placed on it, and have given origin to offspring like themselves, capable of reproducing the species. We have already mentioned that hybrids are rare in a wild state, and they are seldom permanent and fertile, and they have always a tendency to revert to one of the original types.*

885. Recapitulation of the chief facts connected with Embryogeny:—

1. The existence of separate sexes in plants was conjectured in early times, but the organs of reproduction in flowering plants were not discovered till 1676 by Grew.
2. Linnæus made these organs the foundation of his sexual system of classification.
3. Hedwig discovered sexual organs in Mosses, and such organs have now been demonstrated in other Cryptogamous plants.
4. The stamens containing pollen, and the pistils containing ovules, have been proved to perform the function of reproduction in flowering plants.
5. Some anomalous cases have occurred in which perfect seed was produced apparently without the presence of pollen, but these require confirmation.
6. The pollen must be discharged from the anther and brought into contact with the stigma, in order that an embryo plant may be formed.
7. Various means are taken to accomplish this, such as elasticity and irritability of the stamens, winds, and insects.
8. Pollen can retain its vivifying power sometimes for a long time, and may thus be carried to a distance without injury to its properties.

* For farther observations on Hybridization, the student may consult the following papers:—
Gærtner, *Versuche ueber die Bastardurzeugung im Pflanzen-reich*, &c., in *König. Holland. Acad. der Wissenschaften*, Stuttgart, 1849—trans. and abridged by Berkeley, in *Journ. of Hort. Soc. Lond.* v. 158.
Herbert on Hybridization among vegetables, *Journ. Hort. Soc. Lond.* ii. 1. Kolreuter, *Vorlauf Nachricht von emigen das Geschlecht der Pflanzen betreff. Versuchen*, &c, Leipzig, 1761-1766.
Standish and Noble on Hybrid Rhododendrons in *Journ. Hort. Soc. Lond.* v. 271.

9. The quantity of pollen produced is much greater than is actually required for the impregnation of the ovules, with the view of ensuring fertilization.
10. In some cases where stamens and pistil are on different parts of a plant, or on different plants, the leaves are not produced until after impregnation, so as to allow the pollen and ovules to come into contact.
11. In some Evergreens, as Firs and Pines, the quantity of pollen produced is very large, and it is occasionally wafted by the winds to a distance so as to fall like a shower of sulphur.
12. The stigma is prepared for the reception of the pollen grains by the secretion of a viscid substance, which, besides detaining them, causes them to protrude tubes.
13. The style is also sometimes provided with hairs for the purpose of collecting and applying the pollen.
14. While maturation of the pollen is going on in the anthers, the ovules are also undergoing changes by which the foramen is brought near the placenta, and certain cells are developed in their interior for the purpose of embryogeny.
15. The ovular cells thus produced are the embryo-sac, and the germinal vesicles or nucleated cells in its interior, which are surrounded by parenchyma, called endospermal cells.
16. One of the nucleated germinal vesicles, after impregnation, is transformed into the embryo with its appendages, while the endospermal cells contain albumen.
17. In some of the lowest unicellular plants reproduction is carried on by one cell, probably by means of a difference in its contents.
18. In general, however, it may be said, that the act of impregnation consists in the union of two cells having different contents.
19. In some cellular plants, as *Confervæ* and *Diatomaceæ*, there is distinct conjugation or union of cells by means of an interposed tube, and the result of this is the formation of a cellular embryo.
20. In other Cryptogamic plants there are distinct sexual organs, namely, antheridia, containing phytozoary or spermatozoidal cells, and pistillidia or archegonia, containing ovular cells.
21. The antheridia discharge the phytozoa or spermatozoids, which reach the archegonia, and impregnate a germinal vesicle which ultimately gives rise to the embryo.
22. In *Hepaticæ*, antheridia and archegonia are produced on the thallus, and the impregnated cell of the latter gives rise to the spore-bearing stalk (the fruit or capsule).
23. In *Mosses*, antheridia and archegonia are borne on leafy stalks, and after impregnation the archegonial cell gives rise to the stalked theca or sporangium with its spores.
24. In *Ferns* and *Equisetums*, the antheridia and archegonia are produced on a cellular prothallus which is developed during the germination of the spores, and after impregnation the archegonial cell gives rise to the sporangiferous frond or stalk.
25. In *Lycopods* and *Rhizocarps*, there are antheridian cells with spermatozoids, and large spores or ovules, containing archegonia on a cellular prothallus in their interior, and after impregnation the archegonial cell gives origin to a sporangiferous frond.
26. In *Gymnospermous* or *naked-seeded* flowering plants, there are stamens containing pollen, and ovules supported on cones or altered branches, and in them the pollen enters the large micropyle of the ovule without the intervention of stigma and style.
27. When the pollen reaches the nucleus of the naked ovule it remains long dormant, and after many weeks and months sends out a tube which reaches the embryo-sac and impregnates a corpuscle.
28. One of the cells of the corpuscle then takes on an active function, and develops the embryo with its suspensor in the midst of endospermal cells.
29. There is frequently a plurality of embryos in *Gymnosperms*, owing to the impregnation of several vesicles in an ovule.
30. In *Phanerogamous* flowering plants stamens are present, containing pollen cells, and pistils containing ovular cells.

31. In these plants the pollen tube passes through the stigma and the conducting tissue of the style until it reaches the foramen (micropyle) of the ovule.
32. In some instances a tube is prolonged upwards from the ovular walls, or from the embryo-sac, to meet the pollinic tube.
33. The pollen tube passes into the micropyle and reaches the embryo-sac contained in the upper part of the nucleus.
31. Schleiden thinks that the end of the pollen tube introverts the embryo-sac, and in some cases perforates it, and that it becomes the first cell of the embryo.
35. Almost all physiologists, particularly Amici, Hofmeister, Mohl, and Tulasne, agree in thinking that Schleiden was mistaken in regard to the extremity of the pollen tube, and they believe that the embryo is formed from a distinct cell previously existing in the embryo-sac.
36. In some instances the pollen tube indents the embryo-sac, at other times it perforates it, and comes into actual contact with a cell contained in the sac.
37. In the embryo-sac there are produced before impregnation certain cells, often three, called germinal or embryonary vesicles, only one of which in general is impregnated by the pollinic fluid, which transudes through the membrane of the pollen tube and the walls of the embryo-sac and vesicle.
38. After impregnation, the vesicle divides by a transverse septum into two parts, the upper portion forming a confervoid partitioned filament or suspensor, and the lower becoming filled with cells constituting the rudimentary embryo.
39. The suspensor is attached to the part which forms the radicle of the embryo, and at the opposite end one or two cotyledons are produced, enclosing the first bud or plumule.
40. An embryo is usually produced in each ovule (monembryony), but when more than one germinal vesicle is impregnated there is a plurality of embryos (polyembryony).
41. When the pollen of one species is applied to the pistil of another species, we occasionally find seeds produced which give rise to individuals intermediate between the two parents; these individuals are called hybrids or mules.
42. In order that hybridizing may be successful, the species must be allied in certain particulars; hybridization cannot be practised indiscriminately.
43. Hybrids are rarely fertile, or at all events rarely continue fertile for any length of time; they have a tendency to die out or to return to one of the parent types.
44. Hybrids may be fertilized by pollen taken from one of the parent types, and they then approach more and more to the type whence the pollen was taken.
45. A plant has a preference for the pollen from its own species, and hence hybrids are rare in nature, and there is no evidence of true species being produced by hybridity.
46. Hybrids are not always strictly intermediate between their parents; sometimes the characters of the male parent, at other times that of the female prevail.
47. By hybridizing we endeavour to improve the size, form, and colour of flowers, to produce hardy varieties, and to heighten the flavour of fruit.

CHAPTER IX.

PHYSIOLOGY OF THE FRUIT.

886. While the object of fecundation is to develop the embryo in the seed, it causes at the same time changes in the pistil. The stigma and style become dry, and either fall off, as in the Peach (Fig. 770, p. 264), Orange, and Nut, or are persistent, as in the Poppy (Fig. 808, p. 273), Mangosteen, Clematis (Fig. 836, p. 281), and in many pods (Fig. 825, p. 278). The pericarp in some instances becomes swollen, even although the ovule is not fecundated. In such cases the fruit is abortive in as far as reproduction is concerned, although it may be valued for domestic purposes. Many of the best Oranges and Grapes contain no perfect seeds, and the fruit of the Banana (Fig. 873, p. 290), Plantain, Bread-fruit (Fig. 783, p. 268), and Pine-apple (Fig. 882, p. 293), is most palatable when it is seedless. The age of trees seems to have an influence over the production of seeds. In the case of the Orange, it is said by Bullar that old trees often produce seedless fruit. The fruit during its growth attracts nourishment from the surrounding parts, and it is of importance that it should receive a large supply of elaborated sap.

887. In their natural state some plants exhaust themselves in the production of fruit, and die after one year, if annuals, or after two, if biennials. Sometimes fruiting is long delayed, and ultimately takes place vigorously and abundantly. This is observed in plants such as the American Aloe, which only fruits once after many years, and then dies. The division of plants into Monocarpic and Polycarpic is founded on their times of flowering and fruiting. The former are such as flower and fruit only once in their life and then die. This may take place at the end of one year, two years, or many years. The latter are such as flower and fruit many times in the course of their lives. A plant which has been prevented by an inclement season from perfecting its fruit, will often bear a large quantity the following season, if genial. An annual, by being prevented from fruiting, may be made to endure for two or more years. The increased vigour of perennials enables them to withstand the exhaustion induced by fruiting.

888. In the case of cultivated plants, where the object of the gardener is to have a supply of good fruit, many artificial means have been adopted to promote the development and maturation of the pericarp. The application of manure to the soil, by increasing the vigour of the plants, aids in this matter; also checking the branches by judicious pruning, so as to cause a great flow of sap to the fruit; and cutting a ring of bark from the branches, so as to produce accumulation of sap above the wound. In ringing the bark, care must be taken to make the cut so that the two lips of the wound may reunite in the course of a few months. If the cut is large, then the branch may be destroyed. It is prudent not to ring the bark of the main stem, but only that of branches; and the wound should be covered with grafting-clay and damp moss, so as to allow the healing process to go on. Checking the roots has an important influence on the production of fruit. Mr. Bellamy, in an excellent garden at Starcross, in Devonshire, although he had abundance of fruit, could not succeed in producing Greengages. He took three of his trees and conveyed them to his estate in Dorsetshire, a cold, bleak, chalky, mountainous district, exposed to north, north-west, and easterly winds, where scarcely a blade of grass appeared till May. The second year after transplantation, the trees bore abundantly the finest fruit imaginable. This they continued to do for three years, and then ceased. Mr. Bellamy removed them again, and again they bore fruit. Ever after he planted out ten trees every year, keeping up a stock of forty, and never after wanted abundance of Greengages. The check given to the root produced fruit in place of wood.

889. When fruit sets in large quantity, it is prudent to thin it early, and thus allow only a moderate quantity to come to perfection. As the sap is distributed to the whole fruit, this operation will permit more nourishment to go to that which remains. By judicious thinning, although the quantity of fruit is diminished, its quality is much improved. In this way the size and flavour of Peaches, Nectarines, Apricots, Grapes, and other cultivated fruits, are increased. If plants are permitted to bear fruit when very young, it often fails to come to maturity. This is the case in the Melon, for instance, if the fruit is allowed to form at a very early period of the life of the plant; whereas, if the plant is not allowed to bear fruit till the leaves are fully formed and the sap has accumulated, the fruit rapidly swells, and arrives at great perfection.

890. The pericarp sometimes preserves its green colour and leafy aspect, as in the Pea, and continues to act as leaves do—decomposing carbonic acid during daylight, and giving out oxygen. According to Saussure and Couverchel, all fruits in a green state perform this function of deoxidation.* Saussure states that green sour Grapes, while growing on the Vine, and exposed to the sun in close vessels, give

Saussure, *Recherches Chimiques sur la Végétation*. Couverchel, *Mémoire sur la Maturation des Fruits*, in *Ann. de Chimie et de Physique*, xlv. 147.

out oxygen. Sometimes the cells of the pericarp become hardened and thickened by the deposit of lignine, and the seed-vessel becomes dry, assuming a white or brown colour. In these circumstances its active vital functions cease, and it no longer produces any marked effect on the air. In other instances the pericarpial cells contain matters which, in the progress of maturation, undergo chemical changes, so that the fruit becomes succulent, and its epicarp assumes various tints of red, yellow, and blue. As transpiration and evaporation take place from the surface of succulent fruits, the fluids in the outer cells become thickened, and thus promote the endosmotic action between them and the cells containing thinner liquids. In this way the fruit swells considerably. When the fruit has attained its full size the stalk dries up, and may be easily detached from the plant; at the same time waxy matter is deposited in the cuticle, which prevents the drying process from going on rapidly.

891. During their early state pulpy fruits are tasteless or slightly bitter, and they have at that time the structure and chemical constitution of leaves. In their second stage of development they acquire a sour taste from the production of acids, such as malic acid in the Apple and Gooseberry, tartaric acid in the Grape and Tamarind, citric acid in the Lemon, Orange, Red Currant, and Cranberry. In the third stage, or that of ripening, the acids diminish in quantity, they are more fully neutralized by the alkalies present in the fruit, and are partially decomposed; the cellulose forming the walls of the cells and vessels is also transformed, and along with the gum is converted into grape sugar. Saccharine matter may be formed from the acids in the fruit, by the addition of the elements of water, and the separation of oxygen. Thus citric acid, $C_{12} H_{14} O_{14}$ with the addition of 6 equivalents of water, and the separation of 6 equivalents of oxygen, gives $C_{12} H_{14} O_{14}$ the equivalent of crystallized sugar.* During these changes there is a loss of watery fluid, a slight increase of temperature, and an evolution of a small quantity of carbonic acid. Dutrochet says that during the ripening of a Pear, the mean temperature during 12 hours was $0.07^{\circ} F.$, and the quantity of carbonic acid evolved in 24 hours varied from 0.5 to 0.7 per cent; a Plum in similar circumstances showed a mean temperature of 0.11° , and gave out in 24 hours 1.6 of carbonic acid. Saussure and Couverchel state that Grapes, Apples, and Pears, when separated from their respective plants, and kept at a temperature of about $60^{\circ} F.$, gave out carbonic acid. Fremy found that ripe fleshy fruits gave out a large quantity of carbonic acid when boiled in a saline solution.†

* The formation of sugar from acids is thus shown by Professor Gregory in his Hand-book of Organic Chemistry, p. 460 —

Acid employed.	Water added	Oxygen separated	Crystallized sugar
Citric, $C_{12} H_{18} O_{14}$	+ 6 HO	O ₆ =	$C_{12} H_{14} O_{14}$.
Malic, 3 ($C_8 H_4 O_{10}$)	+ 16 HO.	O ₁₈ =	2 ($C_{12} H_{14} O_{14}$)
Tartaric, 3 ($C_8 H_6 O_{12}$)	+ 10 HO.	O ₁₈ =	2 ($C_{12} H_{14} O_{14}$)

† Fremy, *Recherches Chimiques sur la Maturation des Fruits*, in *Comptes Rendus*, xix 784

892. Berard, in a memoir presented to the French Academy of Sciences,* gives the following analysis of succulent fruits in different stages of maturation :—

CONSTITUENTS.	Melting Peaches.		Duke Cherries.		Red Currants.		Greengage Plums.		Apricots.		
	Green.	Ripe.	Green.	Ripe.	Green.	Ripe.	Green.	Ripe.	Green.	More advanced.	Ripe.
Albuminous matter	0.41	0.93	0.21	0.57	1.07	0.86	0.45	0.28	0.76	0.34	0.17
Chlorophyll.....	0.27	Red colouring matter	0.05	Red colouring matter	0.05	Red colouring matter	0.03	0.08	0.04	0.03	0.10
Ligneous matter (Cellulose and Lignin)	3.01	1.21	2.44	1.12	8.45 (Including seeds).	8.01	1.26	1.11	3.61	2.53	1.86
Gum and Dextrin	4.22	4.85	6.01	3.23	1.36	0.78	5.53	2.06	4.10	4.47	5.12
Sugar	0.63	11.61	1.12	18.12	0.52	6.24	17.71	24.81	trace	6.64	16.48
Malic Acid	1.07	1.10	1.75	2.01	1.80	2.41	0.45	0.56	2.70	2.80	1.80
Citric Acid	—	—	—	—	0.12	0.31	—	—	—	—	—
Lime.....	0.08	0.06	0.14	0.10	0.24	0.29	trace	trace	trace	trace	trace
Water.....	90.31	80.24	88.28	74.85	86.41	81.10	74.57	71.10	89.39	84.49	74.87
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

* Berard, Mémoire sur la Maturation des Fruits, in Ann. de Chimie et de Physique, 2d series, xvi, 152, 225

893. The changes which take place during ripening are thus shewn to consist chiefly in a diminution of the quantity of water and of ligneous matter, and an increase in the quantity of sugar. The changes in these ingredients are thus tabulated:—

NAMES OF FRUITS.	WATER.		SUGAR.		LIGNEOUS MATTER.	
	Unripe	Ripe	Unripe	Ripe.	Unripe.	Ripe.
Melting Peaches .	90.31	80.24	0.63	11.61	3.01	1.21
Duke Cherries .	88.28	74.85	1.12	18.12	2.44	1.12
Red Currants . .	86.41	81.10	0.52	6.24	8.45	8.01
Greengage Plums	74.57	71.10	17.71	24.81	1.26	1.11
Apricots . . .	89.39	84.49	{ trace and then 6.64 }	16.48	3.61	1.86
Jargonelle Pears .	86.28	83.88		6.45	11.52	3.80

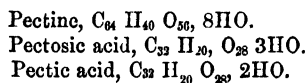
894. Berard thinks that these changes in fruits depend essentially on the action of the oxygen of the air. Fleishy fruits, he says, may be preserved with little alteration for many weeks in vacuo, in nitrogen, and in hydrogen gas; Peaches, Plums, and Apricots, may be kept from twenty to thirty days, and Pears and Apples for three months, in a sealed bottle, containing a little sulphate of iron, lime, and water, which remove the oxygen of the air. Fremy found that the ripening of the fruit was arrested by covering it with varnish, which he supposes to act partly by preventing the access of air, and partly by stopping the transpiration, and thus checking the flow of sap into the fruit.* Couverchel says that the sugar of fruits is formed by the action of organic acids on the gum, dextrin, and starch; while others think that the cellulose and lignin are also transformed into sugar by the action of acids. The formation of sugar in the fruit, according to Fremy, is checked by watering the tree with alkaline solutions, or by causing the fruit-bearing branches to absorb these solutions. The diminution of the sour taste in ripe fruits is due in part to the neutralization of the acids, and in part to chemical changes in them. When green fruits are cooked, similar changes take place in their ingredients, by which the acid and gummy matters are converted into sugar.

895. Certain fruits, more especially those belonging to the natural orders Pomaceæ and Ebenaceæ, after being ripe, undergo a series of chemical changes when pulled and allowed to remain in a room at a moderate temperature. The austerity of Medlars is diminished under this process, to which the name of bletting (French, *blette*) is given

by Lindley. It is a stage intervening between what is commonly called ripeness and decay. The chemical changes, as shewn in the table, consist in a loss of weight, in consequence of a separation of water and a diminution in the quantity of saccharine and ligneous matter. There is a slight increase at the same time in the albuminous matter and in the malic acid.

INGREDIENTS.	JARGONELLE PEARS.		
	Unripe.	Ripe.	Bleeting.
Albuminous Matter	0.08	0.21	0.23
Chlorophyll	0.08	0.01	0.04
Ligneous Matter (Cellulose and Lignin)	3.80	2.19	1.85
Gum	3.17	2.07	2.62
Sugar	6.45	11.52	8.77
Malic Acid	0.11	0.08	0.61
Lime	0.03	0.04	trace
Water	86.28	83.88	62.73
	100.00	100.00	76.85

896. During the maturation of certain fruits, oily and aromatic substances are produced which give a peculiar flavour. In fruits which form jellies, there is developed a gelatinous matter, to which the name of Pectic acid is given. The production of this acid has been particularly examined by Fremy.* He states that a substance called Pectose, insoluble in water, alcohol, and ether, accompanies cellulose in the pulp of green fruits, and of certain roots, as Carrots and Turnips. By the simultaneous action of acids and heat it is transformed into Pectine, which is soluble in water, and which is developed in ripe fruits. The malic and citric acids of fruits seem to operate along with heat in converting pectose into pectine, and its various modifications, such as metapectine and parapectine. By means of another substance, called Pectase, which acts as a ferment, pectine is converted into pectosic and pectic acids. These various substances are found in the gelatinous matter of succulent fruits, and the following is their composition :—



The pectase of fruits, during its solution, reacts on the pectine, produced by the action of acids on pectose, and transforms it into gelatinous pectic acid. Fremy formed a jelly by introducing pectase into

* Fremy, Mémoire sur la Maturation des Fruits, in Ann de Chimie et de Physique, 3d ser. xxiv 5, also in Journ de Chimie Médicale (in 1845, p 132

a solution of pectine. Vegetable jellies are also formed by pectosic acid.

897. According to Dutrochet,* there is in green fruits during their active growth a certain amount of specific heat, which can be detected by means of Becquerel's thermo-electric needle. The following table shows the amount of this specific heat :—

NAME OF FRUITS.	Deviation of Becquerel's Needle.	Proper Heat of Fruit.	Temp. of Air.
Green Pear	1°	0.10° F.	57.2° F.
Green Apple	1 $\frac{1}{3}$ °	0.14°	63.5°
Green Plum	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ °	0.16°	64.4°
Green Peach	1 $\frac{1}{3}$ °	0.14°	63.1°
Green fruit of Ribes Uva-crispa . . .	1°	0.10°	57.2°
Green fruit of Liriodendron tulipifera	1 $\frac{3}{4}$ °	0.18°	69.8°
Green cone of Abies alba (Michaux),	1 $\frac{1}{3}$ °	0.18°	71.6°
Green fruit of Datura Stramonium, } eight days after flowering }	1 $\frac{1}{3}$ °	0.11°	64.4°
Green fruit of Papaver somniferum, } two days after flowering }	2°	0.21°	67.1°

898. The greater number of plants ripen their fruit considerably within a year from the time when the flower expands, and some require only a few days for the purpose. Some trees, as certain species of Oak, require eighteen months; Juniper fruit, and cones of the Firs, the fruit of some American Oaks, and of the *Metrosideros* of New Holland, hang above twelve months; and the Cedar requires twenty-seven months to mature its fruit or to bring its seeds to perfection. The Orange presents a singular phenomenon in respect to maturation of its fruit. This is generally looked upon as ripe at the end of the first year; but it often happens in the south of Europe that, in order to obtain Oranges of the best quality, the fruit is allowed to remain for a second summer on the tree. It is not easy then to say what is the real term of maturation in this fruit in its natural state. Discussions have arisen as to the time when the fruit of the cereal plants is most productive to the farmer. Many think that Wheat ought to be cut before the fruit reaches perfect maturity, inasmuch as it then yields most flour. When allowed to remain till fully ripe, then the outer covering or bran thickens at the expense of the flour. Such is also said to be the case in Oats. About a fortnight before ripening is said to be the proper time for cutting corn, as the skin is then thinner, the grain fuller, the bushel heavier, and the yield of flour greater.

899. The following table† will give some idea of the diffe-

* Dutrochet, sur la chaleur des êtres vivans à basse température—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xiii. 65
† De Candolle, Physiologie Végétale, u. 568.

rent periods required for the maturation of the fruit in different plants :—

Periods which elapse between flowering and the maturation of the fruit.

- 13 days, *Setaria viridis*.
 14 — *Digitaria sanguinalis*, *Avena pratensis*.
 16 — *Festuca ovina*, *Briza media*.
 17 — *Aira cæspitosa*, *Bromus cristatus*.
 18 — *Avena elatior*, *Festuca sylvatica*.
 19 — *Glyceria aquatica*, *Hordeum pratense*, *Medicago sativa*.
 20 — *Dactylis glomerata*, *Milium effusum*, *Lolium perenne*,
Triticum repens.
 21 — *Poa alpina*, *Onobrychis sativa*.
 22 — *Cynosurus cristatus*, *Aira flexuosa*.
 23 — *Trisetum flavescens*.
 24 — *Festuca glabra*, *Poa cristata*.
 25 — *Alopecurus pratensis*, *A. alpinus*, *Avena pubescens*, *Fes-*
tuca arundinacea, *Nardus stricta*.
 27 — *Bromus sterilis*, *Holcus mollis*, *Agrostis vulgaris*, *Festuca*
loliacea.
 28 — *Festuca fluitans*.
 30 — *Alopecurus agrestis*.
 31 — *Agrostis canna*, *A. stricta*, *Cynodon Dactylon*, *Phalaris*
canariensis.
 37 — *Festuca dumetorum*.
 41 — *Stipa pennata*, *Molinia cærulea*.
 43 — *Holcus lanatus*, *Sanguisorba canadensis*, *Trifolium pratense*,
Bunias orientalis, *Arundo colorata*.
 45 — *Elymus arenarius*, *Elymus geniculatus*, *Phleum pratense*,
Beckmannia erucaeformis, *Poa fertilis*, *P. pratensis*.
 51 — *Cynosurus cæruleus*.
 52 — *Trachynotia cynosuroides*.
 53 — *Anthoxanthum odoratum*.
 57 — *Holcus odoratus*.
 2 months, Strawberry, Elm, Cherry, Raspberry, Euphorbia Esula,
Spiræa Filipendula, *Potentillas*, Poppies.
 3 — *Reseda luteola*, *Prunus Padus*, *Cotoneaster*, *Celandine*,
Lime-tree.
 3 to 5 — Apple, Plum, Sloe, Beech, Walnut.
 4 — Horse-chestnut, Hawthorn, Roses.
 5 — Birch, Alder.
 5 to 6 — Vine, Pear.
 6 — Chestnut, Medlar, Hazel, Almond, Hippophæ.
 7 — Olive, Savin, *Daphne Laureola*, *Quercus Robur*.
 8 to 9 — *Colchicum autumnale*, Mistletoe.
 10 — *Pinus Laricio*.
 11 — Most Pines.
 12 — Most Mosses, some Conifers.

900. The period in which fruits ripen is materially accelerated by an increase of temperature, and their flavour is also improved. Hence

the use of putting fruit under glass, or on slates of a dark colour, or wrapping it up in thin bags. The maturation is also accelerated by removing a ring of bark from the branch or stem, which leads to an accumulation of descending sap above the cut. This is practised in vineyards in France on a large scale, and by this operation the ripening of grapes is accelerated twelve or fifteen days. De Candolle mentions a Vine near Geneva which never produced fruit till this operation was performed. When fruit-trees belonging to a cold climate are transferred to a hot one, it frequently happens that no fruit is produced; the leaves become luxuriant, and the flowers, if they expand, are abortive. A high temperature sometimes seems to cause the production of unisexual male flowers only. Hence plants in hot-houses when over-stimulated by continued heat, are often abortive. They require a season of rest or repose in order to perform their functions properly.

901. The various kinds of edible fruits require different climates in order to attain perfection. Thus the Apple and Pear succeed best in the middle temperate climes, Peaches and Oranges require warm temperate regions, while Bananas, Bread-fruit, and Mangos demand tropical heat. Three of the finest known fruits are the Pine-apple, which attains perfection in Guayaquil, the Cherimoya, on the slopes of the Andes, and the Mangosteen, in the Indian Archipelago. It has been remarked, in regard to native fruits, that white berries are commonly sweet, red ones sour, blue have a sour mixed with a sweet flavour, and black are either almost tasteless or poisonous. The seeds of many fruits, such as the Apple and Pear, have a tendency to sport, as it is called, when highly cultivated. By the art of horticulture the native Crab-apple and Pear have been made to produce all the esteemed varieties of the present day. These varieties are propagated by the process of grafting, to be afterwards described. By making slips of improved kinds grow on well-grown stocks, vigour is imparted to them, and the maturation is accelerated.

902. Recapitulation of the chief facts connected with the physiology of the fruit :—

1. Fruit is produced after fecundation, and is not perfect unless it contains seeds capable of germinating.
2. Some fruits which are valued for domestic purposes do not produce seeds, owing to imperfect impregnation, and probably depending in some measure on the age of the plants and their cultivation.
3. Fruiting has a tendency to exhaust the plant; annuals die after performing this function.
4. If a plant is prevented one season from producing fruit, it frequently furnishes a large supply the following year.
5. The operations of pruning, ringing the bark, and checking the roots, often make fruit-trees productive.
6. Cultivated fruits are much improved in quality by judicious thinning at the early stage of growth.
7. Green-coloured fruits, particularly when they retain their leafy character, decompose carbonic acid under the agency of light, and give out oxygen.

8. Hardened Pericarps, which are often of a brown or whitish colour, cease to perform active functions.
9. Succulent fruits often assume tints of yellow, red, or blue, and they seem to give out carbonic acid during their maturation.
10. Fleshy or succulent fruits during ripening exhibit an increase of temperature, and lose their austeriety and sourness by the conversion of cellulose, dextrin, and acids into grape sugar, as well as by the neutralization of their acids.
11. Succulent fruits swell by an endosmotic action in their cells; those near the surface losing fluid by transpiration, and thus having their contents thickened, which circumstance causes a flow of less dense fluids from the internal parts.
12. The transpiration is often ultimately checked by the deposit of waxy matter in the cuticle.
13. During the maturation of fleshy fruits there is a loss of water, a diminution of cellulose and lignin, and an increase of saccharine matter.
14. Some austere fruits, when taken from the tree in an apparently ripe state, undergo farther changes when kept in a moderate temperature; these changes consist chiefly in a loss of water, and a diminution in the quantity of ligneous matter, and of sugar. This process has been called bletting.
15. Green fruits contain pectose, which, by the aid of heat and acids, is transformed into pectine, and during maturation pectine is converted into pectosic, pectic, and metapectic acids, which give the jellying quality to fleshy fruits.
16. In green fruits there is a certain amount of proper heat, seldom exceeding one-tenth of a degree.
17. The time required for the maturation of fruit varies much; in grasses the time which elapses between flowering and the ripening of the fruit varies from thirteen to forty-five days; while in other fruits several months are required, and in some instances a year or more.
18. The ripening of fruit is accelerated by heat, and by various horticultural operations.
19. Different fruits are adapted to different climates; in tropical regions, where fruits are best fitted for the well-being of man, they are produced in great abundance.
20. Fruits are much improved by high culture, and by the process of grafting on approved stocks.

CHAPTER X.

PHYSIOLOGY OF THE SEED.

I. MATURATION OF THE SEED, AND MODES IN WHICH SEEDS ARE SCATTERED AND DEPOSITED IN THE SOIL.

903. The production of an embryo is the object of fertilization. In the case of flowering plants this embryo is contained in the seed, in which it attains a certain degree of development. In these plants after impregnation the ovule undergoes evident changes. The embryo plant enlarges, attracts nourishment from the surrounding tissues, and either absorbs all the contents of the ovule, or becomes surrounded by a store of perisperm (albumen), which is deposited within or on the outside of the embryo-sac (Fig. 908, p. 302), or in both situations (Fig. 907, p. 302). The nucleus of the ovule is either absorbed or becomes filled with various azotized and unazotized matters, while the coats (especially the outer one) become denser and firmer, and the foramen is closed. Lignin is often deposited on the walls of the cells of the episperm. The seed by means of these changes is rendered more fit to resist vicissitudes of temperature and other accidents which might injure the vitality of the embryo.

904. An aperispermic embryo (Fig. 923, p. 305) has all the nutriment contained in its own substance, especially in its cotyledons, and when the coats of the seed are removed the embryo alone is found within. A perispermic embryo has a separate store of nutriment beside it, and when the seed-coats are taken off the embryo is found surrounded more or less completely by this nutritive matter or perisperm (Fig. 908, p. 302). The perisperm consists of amylaceous, gummy, and saccharine matters, with oils, resins, nitrogenous substances, and certain salts, such as phosphates, sulphates, and chlorides. The presence or absence of perisperm seems to be connected with the mode in which the seed germinates, and the nature of the perisperm varies according as the seeds sprout rapidly or lie long dormant in the soil. The store of nourishment laid up in the seed is greater than the embryo requires in ordinary circumstances. When the perisperm is not allowed to be fully formed before the seed is detached from the plant, it sometimes happens that owing to the soft and succulent condition of

the albumen, the embryo sprouts rapidly. In such cases, however, the embryo does not germinate vigorously, and is apt to fail from want of a due supply of nutriment. Some seeds continue to be of a soft texture, while others assume a stony hardness, as is the case in the Date (Fig. 786, p. 269), and in the Ivory Palm. Some ripe seeds are of greater specific gravity than water, and sink when thrown on it. In other instances, especially when air is contained in the envelopes, as in the Indian Cress, the seeds float in water.

905. When the seed is ripe, it is either discharged from the seed-vessel, or the fruit remains indehiscent, and falls with the seed still contained in it. Fleshy fruits, such as Apples and Peaches, fall from the tree when ripe, and their succulent portion serves as nutriment for the young embryo while sprouting. Many dry fruits, especially such as are monospermal, fall along with the seed which they enclose. In the cereal grains the pericarpial covering and the integument of the seeds are incorporated (Fig. 848, p. 283), and in the fruit of Labiatae and Boraginaceae (Fig. 838, p. 281) these two coverings continue attached when the seed is ripe. In Compositae (Fig. 494, p. 197) and Valerian (Fig. 497, p. 198) the hairy calyx remains attached to the fruit, so as to be the means of dispersing it along with the contained seed, and in samaroid fruits (Fig. 850, p. 284, and 851, p. 285) there are winged appendages for the same purpose. In the case of the Dandelion (Fig. 495, p. 198), the receptacle, which is at first succulent and flattened, becomes dry and convex, and the phyllaries, which are erect, become deflexed, so as to allow the fruit to be easily scattered. Other dry fruits dehisce in various ways, as already mentioned (p. 271, *et seq.*), so as to scatter the seeds. The opening of the seed-vessels takes place either as the result of a drying process, as in Mahogany, or from the effects of moisture, as in species of Mesembryanthemum (Figs. 1085 and 1086, p. 411), and in the pod of Anastatica hierochuntina, commonly called the Rose of Jericho (p. 411).

906. Some plants are called Hypocarpogean, because their fruit is subterranean—that is, it is either produced on peduncles underground, or, after being ripened in the air, is pushed into the soil by a curvation of the fruit-stalk. The fruit of *Colchicum autumnale* (Fig. 641, p. 232) is situated underground in the first instance at the base of the long tube of the flower. *Vicia amphicarpos* and *Lathyrus setifolius* var. *amphicarpos* produce fruit both on aerial and subterranean branches. *Arachis hypogaea*, called Earth-nut, produces on its aerial branches abortive flowers, while on those underground it develops perfect pods. Many aquatic plants which flower in the air deposit their fruit in the mud at the bottom of the water, as is the case in *Vallisneria* (Fig. 1094, p. 415), and in *Trapa* (Fig. 314, p. 134). The peduncle of *Linaria Cymbalaria* at the time of flowering is straight and short, but it afterwards elongates and curves irregularly, until it comes to a fissure in the rock or wall on which it grows; there it inserts the capsule, which subsequently allows the seeds to escape.

The peduncle of *Cyclamen* (Fig. 469, p. 193) curves in a similar way, so as to place the seed-vessels in the earth. The extremity of the peduncle of *Trifolium subterraneum* is provided with a hard point, by means of which, after its curvation, it penetrates the soil and deposits its pods. Seeds are sometimes provided with hairy and winged appendages, as seen in the case of Cotton, Willow (Fig. 896, p. 297), *Asclepias* (Fig. 895, p. 297), Pine (Fig. 893, p. 297), Mahogany, and *Bignonia*, for the purpose of being wafted to a distance by the agency of winds. The seeds of plants valuable as food have been dispersed by man over various quarters of the globe. Streams also convey to a distance the seeds of plants which grow on their banks. The pulpy covering of some fruits renders them fit for the food of birds and other animals, and when the seeds are hard and enclosed in a stony endocarp, they may escape the action of the gastric juice, and be deposited in a state fit for germination.

907. Seeds are scattered in such a way as to reach the soil best fitted for their growth, whether the plants are terrestrial or aquatic. Provision is made for the propagation of the species by the production of a large number of seeds, so as to make up for the loss occasioned by decay, or by the seeds being eaten by animals. The number of seeds produced by the *Seje Palm* is 8000, by the common *Spear-thistle* (*Carduus lanceolatus*) 24,000, by the oriental *Poppy* (*Papaver orientale*) 32,000, and by the *Tobacco-plant* (*Nicotiana Tabacum*) 40,000 or more. Some common weeds spread very rapidly in gardens in consequence of the number of their seeds. A writer in the *Gardener's Chronicle* estimates that the common *Groundsel* (*Senecio vulgaris*) ripens about 52 seeds in each head of flowers, and produces about 40 heads or 2080 seeds; the *Dandelion* ripens about 135 seeds in each head, of which it produces about 20, or 2700 seeds; the *Sow-thistle* (*Sonchus oleraceus*) ripens about 230 seeds in each head, and produces about 48, thus yielding 11,040 seeds per plant, and the annual *Spurges* (species of *Euphorbia*) form about 180 seed-vessels, each containing 3 seeds, and therefore produce about 540 seeds per plant. Taking, then, a single plant of each of these species, we find that they will together produce 16,380 seeds, which after germination will cover about $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres of land at 3 feet apart. This statement shows the importance of eradicating such weeds before they ripen their seeds.

II. GERMINATION OR SPROUTING OF THE EMBRYO PLANT.

908. Germination is the term applied to the sprouting of the embryo when placed in circumstances favourable for its growth. In the case of flowerless plants a cell or spore separated from the parent plant is developed into a new organism, while in flowering plants an embryo

plant already in a certain stage of development within the seed, begins to send out first its root, and then its cotyledons and primary stem-bud. In the case of the latter class of plants, germination may be defined the act by which the fecundated embryo of a seed leaves the state of torpor in which it has remained for a longer or shorter period, starts into life, as it were, comes out from its envelope, and sustains its existence until such time as the nutritive organs are developed.

1. REQUISITES FOR GERMINATION.

909. In order that germination may go on, certain conditions are necessary. The most important of these requisites are moisture, a certain temperature, and air. The absence of light is also favourable for the process, and, according to some, electricity promotes it. In general, seeds do not sprout until they are placed in the position which the plants are subsequently to occupy. Occasionally, however, seeds begin to germinate before being detached from the plant, as in the case of the Mangrove tree (Fig. 123, p. 53). Instances are given of the seeds of Poppy, and of those of the Lemon, Papaw, and Gourd, germinating in their seed-vessels, and we often find Coco-nuts germinating during their transport from their native country to Britain. In such cases there is a sufficient supply of nourishment for the embryo in its early state.

910. A certain amount of moisture is required for germination. If seeds are kept in a dry state they can be preserved for a long time without sprouting.* Water is required for the solution of the nutritive matter of the seed, as well as for exciting the endosmotic action of the cells. No circulation nor movement of fluids can take place in the seed until water is taken up. The nourishment of plants is absorbed chiefly in a liquid state. Seeds imbibe a large quantity of water, and in so doing their cells become much distended. By this means they are enabled to burst the hard endocarpiol coverings which often surround them, as in the case of what is called stone-fruit. De Candolle says that a Haricot or French bean, weighing about $7\frac{2}{3}$ grains, absorbed about $10\frac{1}{2}$ grains of water during germination, and another, weighing $4\frac{1}{3}$ grains, absorbed $6\frac{1}{2}$ of liquid. In countries in which dry seasons occur, germination is for a time checked, but when the wet season arrives, the seeds sprout with great rapidity and vigour.

911. The amount of heat required for the development of the embryo varies much. Some seeds, as those of plants belonging to cold regions, require a moderate temperature, others belonging to hot countries demand an elevated one. It may be said in general that a temperature varying from 60° to 80° F. is the most favourable for

* SAUSSURE, de l'influence du dessèchement sur la germination de plusieurs graines alimentaires. Genève, 1824.

germination.* In cold regions the spores of Cryptogams germinate at a very low temperature. In other instances germination proceeds at high temperatures. Dr. Hooker states, that on the edges of hot springs in the valley of Soane in India, the temperature of which was sufficient to boil eggs, there occurred sixteen species of flowering plants—Desmodium, Oldenlandia, Boerhaavia, some Compositæ, Grasses, and Cyperaceæ. He also mentions Ranunculus sceleratus as growing in the vicinity of hot springs near Monghyr in India, at a temperature of 90°. According to Andrejewskyi the following plants grow, watered by the hot springs of Abano—Althæa rosea, Hypericum perforatum, Ajuga Chamæpitys, Sedum acre, Spargula arvensis, Arenaria rubra, Mentha arvensis, Adiantum Capillus Veneris, and some Mosses; Ulva labyrinthiformis, Conferva alba, C. anonyma, C. Aponitana, and C. capillacea were found growing in water at temperatures varying from 112° to 146° F. On the edge of the boiling springs in New Zealand Colenso mentions that Ferns (as Pteris Brunonianua), Carices, and Composite flourished luxuriantly. Forster, who sailed with Captain Cook, found the ground near a volcano in the Island of Tanna so hot as to raise Fahrenheit's thermometer to 210°, and at the same time this spot was covered with flowers. A hot spring in the Manilla Islands, which raises the thermometer to 187°, has plants flourishing in it and on its borders. In hot springs near a river of Louisiana, with a temperature varying from 122° to 145°, Confervæ, herbaceous plants, shrubs, and trees flourish. A species of Chara has been found growing and reproducing itself in one of the hot springs of Iceland, which boiled an egg in four minutes, and various Confervæ have been seen in the boiling springs of Arabia and of the Cape of Good Hope.

912. The necessity of air for germination was demonstrated by Ray, Boyle, and others before the chemical composition of the atmosphere was discovered. Scheele, Senebier,† and Saussure showed that the presence of oxygen gas was required in order to aid in the changes which take place in the seed. When seeds were placed in an atmosphere of hydrogen, nitrogen, and carbonic acid, they did not germinate. When they are buried deeply in the soil, so as to be deprived of the access of air, they do not grow. In such circumstances, when the soil is turned up so as to bring the seeds near the surface, germination often commences. In this way seeds, which have been long dormant, spring up on the embankments of railways, and white Clover frequently appears when the soil is stirred. Some substances which supply oxygen, as weak solutions of chlorate of potass and of oxalic acid, are said to be useful in promoting germination. Chlorine acts in the same way by decomposing water and setting oxygen free.

913. Seeds germinate more rapidly in shade than in light, and in diffuse daylight more quickly than when exposed to the direct solar

* Edwards et Colin, de l'influence de la Temperature sur la Germination, Paris, 1834

† Huber et Senebier, sur l'influence de l'Air dans la Germination

rays.* Boitard sowed *Auricula* seeds in three flower-pots, one covered with a transparent glass bell-jar, the second with a bell-jar of ground glass, and the third with a bell-jar enveloped in black cloth. In nine days the latter had sprouted; those under the ground glass germinated on the 12th day; and those under the transparent glass jar had not germinated by the 15th day. In these experiments, however, if the sun was shining, temperature might have something to do with the result. Experiments have been made as to the effects of different rays on germination. Senebier sowed Lettuce seeds in several small cups. One of the cups he left exposed to light and air; another he placed in darkness, and a third he confined under a large glass vessel, whose bottom was thrust so far up into its body as to leave a hollow space 9 or 10 inches in height, and 4 or 5 in width; this vessel was then filled with water, through which the light that fell on the seeds beneath necessarily passed; a fourth cup was placed in a similar vessel which contained yellow fluid; a fifth beneath a similar vessel filled with red fluid; and a sixth under one that contained fluid of a violet hue. Through these fluids the yellow, red, and violet rays were respectively transmitted, while the others were for the most part intercepted. He found that the plants illuminated by the yellow rays grew most rapidly in height; next those in the violet rays; afterwards those in the red; the plants which grew in light transmitted through water were still smaller, and approached in size to those which vegetated in the open air, while those in perfect darkness attained the greatest height of all. These last plants perished on the 8th day, those in the yellow light on the 9th day, while all the others continued to vegetate. At the end of about five weeks, the plants under the red vessel were 4 inches 9 lines in height; under the violet vessel 3 inches 3 lines; under the water vessel 2 inches 10 lines; and those in the open air 1 inch and 3 lines. The leaves of plants in the red light were smaller than those of plants in the violet, and than the leaves of plants grown under the water-glass, or in air. Those exposed to the yellow were at first green, and then became yellow; those in red light appeared green, and preserved a tinge of that colour; those in the violet were quite green, and their colour augmented with their age; while those in darkness had no colour. Thus the violet rays acted powerfully in giving the green colour, but they did not act in the same manner as regards the growth and development. Senebier concluded that the height and size of a plant was proportionate to the intensity of the illumination, while its verdure depended more on the quality of the rays.

914. Hunt made experiments on the effects of coloured rays on the germination and growth of plants.† He passed the sun's rays through variously coloured glass, such as deep red glass coloured by oxide of gold, deep yellow glass prepared with the glass of antimony, red lead,

* Senebier, *Mém. Physico-Chimiques*, iii. 41. Saussure, *Recherches Chimiques sur la Végétation*, 28.

† Hunt, on the Chemical Action of Solar Radiations—*Brit. Assoc. Report for 1850*, p. 137.

and oxide of iron, deep blue glass coloured with cobalt, as well as through coloured solutions. He concluded that the process of germination and budding is essentially influenced by the chemical principle actinism, transmitted through the blue media. While the rays connected with blue light promoted germination, the luminous yellow rays impeded it. He found also that the decomposition of carbon is peculiarly due to the luminous principle, and hence that the formation of wood in plants is a function of their vitality excited by light; that the development of the flower is due to a delicate balance of the forces actinism and light, since we find that both the luminous and chemical agencies are very active during the process; and that the ripening of the fruit and the perfecting of the healthful conditions of the seed are due to a combination of the calorific and chemical forces—as evidenced in the so-called parathermic rays. From these facts it appears that the germination of seeds in the spring, the flowering of plants in summer, and the ripening of fruits in autumn, are dependent on the variations in the amount of actinism or chemical influence, of light and of heat at those seasons. He has suggested a kind of glass, coloured pale green with oxide of copper, as being the best for conservatories, and this has been adopted in the construction of the Palm-house at Kew.

915. Some have supposed that electricity promotes germination and growth. The subject was brought into notice so far back as 1746, when Mr. Maimbry at Edinburgh announced that electrified plants grew more rapidly and vigorously than those that were not so treated. About the same time the Abbé Nollet stated that electrified seeds germinated with increased facility, and he was supported by Bertholon and Jalabert. The Rev. E. Sidney has lately maintained that electricity produces a marked effect on growing plants, that their pointed leaves withdraw it from the air with great rapidity, and that during a highly electrical state of the atmosphere the growth of some young shoots is promoted. In the process of germination this agent seems to act to a certain extent. Solly, however, thinks that the influence of electricity on the growth of plants, so far as it can be determined, is very small.*

916. Dr. Antisell of Dublin says, that as atmospheric electricity is positive in its character and that of the earth negative, any body serving as a point of discharge for these two kinds, receives a shock which, in the case of a growing tree or plant, would be a stimulus to its growth if the shock is gentle, while it would be fatal if the shock was severe, as in thunder-storms. So long as the earth and the atmosphere are in equilibrio, the results of electricity on vegetation are not striking, but, should any disturbing cause arise, they become evident. One of these causes is evaporation of water. Rapid formation of clouds in the tropics always precedes thunder-storms; the electricity of the atmosphere accumulating round these clouds and discharging on the nearest objects. The issue tube of a steam-engine is a ready yielder of elec-

* Solly on the Influence of Electricity on Vegetation—*Journ Hort Soc Lond* 1 81, and II. 42

tricity. When water is evaporated there is always electrical disturbance. When evaporation is slow, the disturbance is slight but constant, and acts on vegetation. Hence, in countries where evaporation takes place from a large supply of moisture, vegetation is rapid and luxuriant. This depends, he thinks, partly on the moisture, and partly on electricity developed during evaporation. Showers are much more efficacious than water supplied artificially. Negative electricity is said to be favourable in a peculiar degree to vegetable growth. Every shower of rain conveys a quantity of electricity to the herbage it wets. Every operation of burning produces electricity. When wood is burned it becomes negative, while the carbonic acid arising from it is positive. Decomposition of carbonic acid in the leaf produces a like change; the oxygen which escapes being positive, while the cells in which the change takes place are negative. Dr. Forster a few years ago announced remarkable effects from the transmission of the galvanic influence through fields of Cereal grains, and recommended what he called a system of electro-culture, by means of wires passed from plates of zinc and copper round the fields. Dr. Fyfe examined the system recommended by Forster, and was not able to detect any evident results on crops. The apparatus which had been suggested was found not to produce any current of electricity, no effect being visible on the electrometer.*

917. While moisture, heat, air, and darkness, are favourable to germination, it is of importance that these requisites should be properly supplied. In nature seeds are sown in the earth to a moderate depth, so as to be excluded from light, and at the same time to be acted on by air, moisture is supplied by rains and dews, and a certain temperature is given. Such is the plan which we ought to imitate in garden and field operations. In order that seeds when scattered may be placed at a proper depth, the soil must be properly ploughed and pulverised. The preparation of the soil materially promotes germination; when properly ploughed the seeds sink to the same depth throughout the field. The pulverising of the soil is much promoted by the action of frost, which causes the clods to break up. The exposure of the soil to the action of the air is another important object in ploughing. The greatest surface is exposed by ploughing when the turf lies at an angle of 45°, and the turf will lie in this position when its depth is to its breadth, as about 7 to 10. The advantage of equal machine-sowing is, that the seeds germinate about the same time, and the crop is also all ripened at once, and the diminution in the quantity of flour caused by allowing some part of it to remain long in a ripe state is avoided. When seed is sown broadcast by the farmer, a certain quantity remains uncovered even after harrowing, and hence it does not germinate freely. This may be one reason why dibbling is more successful as regards the number of seeds which ger-

* Fyfe, Experiments on electro-culture, in *Trans. Ed. Soc. of Arts*, iii 100

minate, and why with a smaller expenditure of seed an equal return is made.

2. DEPTH OF SOIL REQUIRED FOR GERMINATION. EFFECTS OF DRAINING.

918. The experiments made in regard to the depth at which seeds should be placed, agree in showing the advantage of shallow sowing. Petri gives the following as the result of his experiments on sowing rye:—

Depth at which the Rye was sown.	Number of grains that germinated.	Period at which the plants appeared above ground.
$\frac{1}{2}$ inch.	7 eighths	11 days.
1 —	the whole.	12 —
2 —	7 eighths.	18 —
3 —	6 eighths.	20 —
4 —	one-half.	21 —
5 —	3 eighths.	22 —
6 —	1 eighth.	23 —

The following are the experiments of Burger with Maize or Indian Corn:—

Depth at which Seeds were sown.	Period at which they came up.	Depth at which Seeds were sown.	Period at which they came up.
1 inch	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ days	3 inch	12 days
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ „	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ „	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ „	13 „
2 „	10 „	4 „	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ „
2 $\frac{1}{2}$ „	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ „	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 6	17 $\frac{1}{2}$ „

The more slightly the seed is covered by the earth, the more rapidly the bud makes its appearance, and the stronger afterwards is the stalk. The deeper the seed lies, the longer the shoot remains before it comes to the surface. Ugazi, from observations made in Bavaria, gives half an inch and one inch as being the best depths at which ordinary cereal grains, as well as Peas, Millet, Maize, Buckwheat, and Lentils, should be sown in argillaceous soils, while two to three inches is the depth proposed in sandy soils.* Large seeds must be placed deeper than small ones.

919. Experience proves, that stirring the soil, so as to insure a loose surface, is highly beneficial to growing crops. Air is thereby enabled to act more perfectly upon the substances from which plants derive their nourishment; and in dry weather the escape of moisture is prevented. When the surface is compact, the sun's rays dry the ground to a greater depth than when it is loose. When the particles

* Bulletin des Sciences Agricoles.

of the soil are in close contact, the uppermost, parched by the heat of the sun, draw humidity from those immediately under them, and these again from others still lower. On the contrary, when the surface is loose and well pulverised, it may lose its moisture rapidly and become very dry; yet, from imperfect adhesion with the inferior portion, the latter cannot readily communicate its moisture. In short, the loose soil at the top becomes an interposing medium which protects the under stratum from the drying effects of the sun.*

920. In order that land may be productive in the case of cultivated grains, moisture must be supplied in proper quantity, and a certain amount of heat must be imparted to the soil. This is accomplished by the operation of draining, which has been carried to great perfection of late. Much injury is inflicted on the soil by stagnant water. The land is rendered cold, inasmuch as the sun's rays, in place of being expended in heating the soil, are absorbed by the water, the temperature of which is not raised so rapidly as that of the earth or of the air. There is thus a great loss of heat. Moreover, by the exclusion of air there is often an imperfect decay of vegetable and animal matters in the soil, so that acids are produced which are deleterious and hurtful to vegetation. Superabundant moisture also acts prejudicially on the climate of a country, and it injures plants by rendering them weak and dropsical. The importance of giving bottom heat to plants cannot be too strongly insisted on.

921. The object of draining is not so much to get rid of the water, as to make it percolate freely through the whole of the soil, laterally as well as perpendicularly, and thus obtain from it the nutriment in the shape of ammonia, carbonic acid, &c., which it contains. As the water disappears, air occupies its place, and hence drained soil is aerated. Mr. Smith of Deanston had the merit of reducing thorough draining to a system. His system consisted in forming parallel drains of from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet in depth in the furrows between the ridges, at such short intervals as to insure the speedy removal of all superfluous water, whether derived from rain or from springs. The parallel drains are made so as to cut the different strata of the land perpendicularly to the line of strike, whilst the main or leading drains run across the direction of the dip, and are about 6 inches deeper than the parallel drains.† The effects of draining are both mechanical and chemical. It gives rise to improved efficiency in ploughing, harrowing, and weeding, besides saving seed. It also aids the fertilizing power of manures, ameliorates the climate, raises the temperature of the soil, accelerates the harvest, and improves the herbage and other crops. The economical advantages of draining are thus summed up by Johnston:—1. Stiff soils are more easily and more cheaply worked. 2. Lime and manures have more effect, and go further. 3. Seed-time and harvest are earlier and more sure. 4. Larger crops are reaped, and of better quality. 5. Valuable crops of Wheat and Turnip are made to grow where scanty

* Gardener's Chronicle, Sept 15, 1811

† Smith, Remarks on Thorough Draining, 1844

crops of Oats were formerly the chief return. 6. Naked fallows are rendered less necessary, and more profitable rotations can be introduced. 7. The climate is improved, and rendered not only more suited to the growth of crops, but more favourable to the health of man and animals.*

922. Drained land in summer is from 10° to 20° warmer than water-logged land. Professor Schubler states that the loss of heat caused by evaporation in undrained lands amounts to 11¼° to 13½° F. Parkes says that in draining the Red Moss near Bolton-le-Moor the thermometer in the drained land rose in June 1837 to 66° at seven inches below the surface, while in the neighbouring water-logged land it never rose to above 47°. In the London Horticultural Society's Garden the mean temperature of thoroughly-drained soil at one foot below the surface, in the month of July, is 63°.49; and if we take water-logged land to be the same as spring water, 47°, then there is a gain of 16½°. Experiments have been made which show that in peaty soil saturated with water, the addition of boiling water to the surface will not raise the temperature to any depth in the soil, so that wet land will thus remain cold in spite of all the warm rain that falls. This is not the case with drained soil where there is a constant percolation.

923. The depth of drains, and their distance from each other, must be regulated by the nature of the soil, and of the subsoil. Mr. Smith says that where you meet with a hard bottom, you must go down till you meet with a good one, but you must never allow depth to compensate for width. Drains should of course never be shallower than the known depth to which the roots of annuals descend. In imperious soils, Smith says that 15 to 18 feet is a good working distance for drains. In extremely stiff clay, drains do not seem sufficiently to dry the land when first made; the improvement in these cases is gradual, and may take several years, but the result is certain. Drains in these soils should be 2½ to 3½ feet deep. In very light soils the distance between the drains may be from 30 to 40 feet, and the depth at least 30 inches. By making deep, and at the same time efficient drains, we increase the quantity of soil available for the purposes of plants. In the case of deep-rooted plants, it is essential that water should be removed from the lower as well as from the upper portion of the soil.

924. Drains must be kept clear, otherwise their good effects will be lost. Occasionally they become choked up, the roots of plants getting access to them (see page 428). All that can be done to prevent this, is to make deep drains, and not to allow them to pass near trees; also to keep the land clean. Shallow drains are more likely to be affected because the roots reach them more easily. The trees liable to send in roots are Ash, Sycamore, Alder, Poplar, Willow, Lime, Elm, Privet, and Laurel; these trees form fibrous roots with great rapidity. Clean land, with annual crops, will be little liable to have the drains choked in this way, because the roots of annuals are

* See Johnston's Lectures on Agricultural Chemistry, 550.

usually not deep, and if they get into drains they will quickly die. Docks, Thistles, Burdocks, Plantains, Bistorts, and Dandelions, are very injurious when in the vicinity of drains.

3. VITALITY OF SEEDS, AND MODES OF PRESERVATION.

925. Some seeds must be sown immediately after they are ripe, otherwise they lose their vitality, and decay. This is the case with the seeds of Magnolia, Coffee, Clove, and with those of an oily and mucilaginous nature. Even though the germinating power is lost, the seeds may be in a state fit for food. The seeds of the double Coco-nut (*Lodoicea Seychellarum*), when carried from the Seychelles Islands to the Maldives, and those of *Entada* (*Pursætha*) *scandens*, when borne by the gulf-stream from the Antilles to the outer Hebrides, are to all appearance fresh, although they will not sprout when planted. Wheat which had been placed in wooden casks, well pitched and secured against the influence of the weather, in 1548, made excellent bread at Zurich in 1799, although it did not germinate. Seeds with very delicate integuments can seldom be kept longer than a few weeks or months, while hard and bony seeds have been known to germinate after the lapse of many years. Certain seeds are known to retain their germinative powers for a long time. The seeds of Cucumber have germinated after seventeen years, those of *Colsa* and *Malva crispa* after eighteen, of *Althæa rosea* after twenty-three, Maize after thirty, Haricots, or French beans, after thirty-three, Melons after forty-one.* For sixty years a bag of seeds supplied the Jardin des Plantes annually with Sensitive plants. Haricots taken from the Herbarium of Tournefort, and which were at least one hundred years old, were found to germinate, as were also seeds of *Hieracium*, fifty years old, from Fries' Herbarium. Grains of Rye have been found fertile after one hundred and forty years.

926. The subject of the Vitality of Seeds has engaged for ten years the attention of a committee of the British Association, and from time to time reports have been issued. Experiments have been made on seeds illustrating nearly three hundred genera, and upwards of seventy natural orders. It was found that the seeds of *Allium fragrans*, *Camassa esculenta*, *Pinus Pinea*, *Lupinus grandifolius*, *Galega sibirica*, *Cassia canarina*, *Clarkia elegans*, &c., germinated after a period varying from ten to nineteen years; those of species of *Malva*, *Hibiscus*, *Crotalaria*, *Hedysarum*, *Phaseolus*, *Dolichos*, *Tamarindus*, and *Eucalyptus*, &c., retained their vitality for twenty or thirty years; while seeds of species of *Colutea* and *Coronilla* germinated after forty or fifty years. It would appear, in general, from the experiments, that the seeds of Leguminous plants retain their vitality for a long time. †

* Lefebure, sur la Germination des Plantes, Strasburg, 1804. Gerardin, sur la propriété des Graines de conserver longtemps leur vertu germinative, Paris, 1809.

† See Summary of Experiments in British Association Report for 1850, p. 162.

927. Seeds placed in particular circumstances have retained their vitality for a great number of years, and even for centuries. Savi saw for ten years young Tobacco plants continue to spring up in his garden from seed which had been sown naturally. All the young plants were regularly rooted out, and yet the supply continued for the length of time mentioned; showing that many seeds remained dormant, and only appeared as the soil was turned up and exposed to air. Duhamel noticed the re-appearance of *Datura Stramonium*, after twenty-five years, in a ditch which had been filled up and afterwards cleared. Miller noticed *Plantago Psyllium* grow in a ditch at Chelsea which had been newly cleared, and where it had never been known to grow in the memory of man. Mr. Vernon Harcourt mentions the following instance of delayed germination. A field was prepared for white Carrots; the Carrots were sown, but the season being very dry they did not grow. The ground was, however, soon covered with a crop of white Turnips, which had been sown eight years before. The Turnip seed had been carried down by rains below the ordinary depth of ploughing, and beyond the reach of atmospheric influence, and there they remained in a condition which artificial preservation finds it difficult to imitate, being neither parched up by too much heat, nor decomposed by stagnant moisture, until they were brought by the subsoil plough to the surface, where their vital powers were stimulated to action.

928. Lindley mentions the germination of Raspberry seeds found in 1834 or 1835 in an ancient barrow (tumulus) near Maiden Castle, along with coins of the Emperor Hadrian. The seeds were in the cavity of the abdomen of a skeleton found in a coffin thirty feet below the surface, and may have been 1600 to 1700 years old. Mr. Kemp details a case of prolonged vitality in seeds found at the bottom of a sand-pit twenty-five feet in depth. The plants produced were *Polygonum Convolvulus*, *Rumex Acetosella*, and a variety of *Atriplex patula*. From various circumstances he concludes that they were deposited there at a time when a lake was formed in the course of the Tweed, about a quarter of a mile from Melrose; and as no lake existed in the time of the Romans 2000 years ago, he concludes that the seeds were very ancient. They are of a farinaceous character.* Desmoulins gives the following instance of seeds retaining their vitality for a long period in particular circumstances. In the spring of 1834 a proprietor of land in the neighbourhood of Bourdeaux having caused a piece of ground to be dug over to a considerable depth for the purpose of planting a vineyard, discovered a good many tombs, most of which presented this remarkable peculiarity that the head of the skeleton deposited therein rested on a heap of apparently well-preserved seed. The graves, from various collateral circumstances, were proved to be of Roman origin, and were referred to the third or fourth century of the Christian era. The seeds were carefully collected and sown, and on germination were found to be chiefly *Heliotropium europæum*, Me-

* Kemp, on the Vitality of Seeds, &c., in *Ann. of Nat. Hist.* 1st ser. xlii. 89

dicago lupulina, and *Centaurea Cyanus*. The facts of this case establish the position that certain kinds of seeds, if entirely excluded from the agents needful for vegetation, or rather, if shielded from the combination of influences requisite for germination, will maintain their vital property uninjured for the space of fifteen or sixteen centuries, and display it afresh when placed in favourable circumstances.* Burroughes found that seeds of *Centranthus ruber*, taken from an ancient coffin in Wymondham Abbey, germinated.†

929. In Stirlingshire germinative seeds of the Corn Marigold (*Chrysanthemum segetum*) were found under six or seven feet of peat moss. When new land is turned up it frequently happens that seeds spring up which have lain long dormant. White Clover (*Trifolium repens*) appears in these circumstances. In the fens of Cambridgeshire, after being drained and ploughed, large crops of *Sinapis arvensis* and *alba* are said to spring up. When certain marshes in Zealand were drained, *Carex cyperoides* was observed to grow in abundance, although not previously known in the neighbourhood. *Fumaria micrantha* has been known to appear in large quantity on newly stirred ground near Edinburgh. After extensive conflagrations plants often make their appearance which had not been previously seen in the neighbourhood. In Newfoundland, after a fire in the forests, the ground has become covered with a luxuriant growth of Raspberry bushes, succeeded by a thick wood of Birch, although previously to the fire nothing but Fir and Spruce had been seen for miles. The virgin forests of Brazil (*Mattos Virgens*), when destroyed by fire, are succeeded by plants of a totally different kind. Such forests are called *Capoeiras*. After the great fire of London, Ray states that *Sysimbrium Irio* came up in great profusion.

930. It is not easy to account for the manner in which the vitality of many seeds is thus preserved. Uniform temperature, moderate dryness, and exclusion from light and oxygen, appear to be essential requisites. If the temperature is elevated, and moisture and oxygen are present, then germination commences. The vitality of seeds in certain favourable circumstances may thus be preserved for a very extended period, but it is by no means easy to imitate these conditions. The statements made in regard to the preservation of Mummy Wheat have not been confirmed by careful observation. Even in the cases which appeared to be conclusive, fallacies have been detected. Thus Mummy Wheat, supplied by Sir G. Wilkinson to various parties, was found in some cases to contain grains of Maize, a plant of the New World, which leads to the conclusion that in this case the grains had been tampered with. We have no evidence that the Wheat cultivated as Mummy Wheat was that deposited 3000 years ago in the Mummy-cases.

* Desmoullins, Notice sur des graines trouvées dans les tombeaux Romains, translated in Hooker's Companion to the Botanical Magazine, vol. ii. p. 293.

† Hooker's Companion to the Botanical Magazine, ii. 296.

931. Preservation of seeds in a germinating condition is a matter of importance in as far as the introduction of plants from abroad is concerned. Seeds brought from India to Britain round the Cape rarely vegetate freely, while those brought overland succeed well. Seeds are best transported in their pericarps. The flinty coatings of many foreign legumes will preserve the living germ for an indefinite period. Seeds of Coniferæ in a germinative state are often found in cones attached to the spray on which they grew, three or four years after the flowers that produced them had been dead. In preserving seeds an important requisite is to have them ripe and dry. Corn, pulse, and farinaceous seeds generally, will live for a long time if gathered ripe and preserved quite dry. Such seeds should be put into dry paper, and exposed during transportation to free ventilation in a cool place, as for instance in a coarse bag suspended to a nail in a cabin. Many seeds which cannot be transported when exposed to air, will retain their vital properties if buried in clay. Oily seeds, and those having much tannin in their composition, as Beech-Mast, Acorns, and Nuts, must not only be ripe and dry, but also must be excluded from the air. They are usually put into dry earth or sand pressed hard; or they are preserved in charcoal powder, and enveloped in tin or wax. Perhaps they might be preserved in hermetically sealed bottles full of carbonic acid. Exalbuminous seeds, and those having dense and fleshy albumen, bear transportation best.* Mr. M'Nab has suggested a mode of transmitting seeds by having a strong box about ten inches square, with the sides three quarters of an inch thick, in which alternate layers of earth and seeds are placed, the whole being firmly pressed together. In this way seeds have been sent by Dr. M'Nab from Jamaica to the Botanic Garden of Edinburgh, and nearly the whole of them germinated. On the arrival of such a box the layers of earth and seeds are taken out in succession and put into separate boxes. Wardian Cases (Fig. 1154, p. 484) may also be employed for the transmission of seeds in earth. The seeds will thus be brought frequently in a germinating condition.

932. Alphonse De Candolle finding that there have been fallacies in regard to the vitality of seeds, from not attending to the particular circumstances in which they have been preserved, made experiments on the subject by taking seeds of different natural orders, collected simultaneously in the same garden, transported and preserved in the same manner, sown in equal numbers, and in similar conditions of soil, humidity, and temperature.† The seeds were collected in the Florence Garden in 1831, and were sown on the 14th May 1846, being nearly 15 years old. He selected 368 species belonging to about 150 different

* Hooker, Remarks on the Transportation of Seeds, in his Paper on the Vegetation of the Galapagos Islands, in Linn. Trans. xx 256.

† De Candolle, on the relative Duration of the Power to germinate in Seeds belonging to different natural Families, in Annales des Sc. Nat. 1st ser Bot. xx 38; translated in Annals of Nat. Hist. 1st ser xx 38

genera, and 53 families. Twenty seeds of each were sown in peat mould in pots, and watered. The pots were kept under examination till autumn. The mean temperature in June, the period when several species sprung up, was 66.2° F., that of July 65.3° F., and the maximum reached 86° and 87.8° F. Out of the 368 species only 17 germinated; of the 17 species which came up, *Dolichos unguiculatus* was the only one that yielded more than one-half the seeds sown, viz., 15 out of 20, others had 1, 2, or 3 germinations in 20 seeds. *Lavatera crotica* approached nearest *Dolichos*, but there were only 6 out of 20 that germinated.

933. The natural families experimented on by De Candolle are classed as follows, commencing with those where the largest proportion of species preserved the power of germinating, and ending with those where ten or more species having been sown, none came up:—

NATURAL ORDERS.	No of Species which germinated.	No. of Species sown.	Per cent. which germinated.
Malvaceæ	5	10	50
Leguminosæ	9	45	20
Labiatae	1	30	3.3
Scrophulariaceæ	0	10	0
Umbelliferae	0	10	0
Caryophyllaceæ	0	16	0
Gramineæ	0	32	0
Cruciferae	0	34	0
Compositæ	0	45	0

The seeds of Malvaceæ and Leguminosæ excelled all the orders examined in the duration of the faculty of germination, while in Compositæ, Cruciferae, and Gramineæ, the germinative power did not appear to last long.

934. Of the 368 species there were 357, the duration of which was known from Botanical works, and 11 doubtful. Of these 357 species there were—

	No. which germinated.	Per cent.
Annuals 180	9	5.0
Biennials 28	0	0.0
Perennials 105	4	3.8
Ligneous 44	3	6.7

Woody species seem to preserve the power of germinating longer than others, whilst biennials are at the opposite extreme. Perennials probably lose the power of germination more quickly than annuals. Large seeds appeared to De Candolle to preserve the power of germinating longer than small ones. The presence or absence of separate albumen did not seem to make any difference. Some albumens, such as those of Coffee and of Umbelliferae, are difficult to preserve from special

chemical conditions. Compositæ seem to lose their germinating power very early. From other experiments, De Candolle concludes, that the duration of the faculty of germination is frequently in an inverse proportion to the power of germinating quickly.

935. As regards spores, some of them seem to lose their vitality soon. Thus Thuret could only make fresh spores of *Equisetum* germinate. Others appear to retain the vital properties for a very long period. Ferns have been raised from spores taken from plants preserved in old Herbaria. Two plants of *Gymnogramma Calomelanos* were obtained in the Liverpool Garden from sowing spores which were taken from the Herbarium of Forster, and were about fifty years old. A similar power seems to reside in the spores of many of the lower Cryptogams, which are only developed in peculiar circumstances; as for instance in the spores of parasitic Fungi, which are constantly floating in the atmosphere, ready to germinate whenever they light on an appropriate nidus.

936. Various means have been adopted to make old seeds germinate. Otto of Berlin puts seeds into a bottle filled with a solution of oxalic acid, and allows them to remain till germination is observable (generally from twenty-four to forty-eight hours), and then sows them in the usual way. They are sometimes wrapped in a woollen cloth soaked in oxalic acid. Seeds from twenty to forty years old have been made to grow by this means, when they would not germinate in the usual way. Others propose a solution of chlorate of potash, or of chlorine, or a very weak solution of nitric acid, as a means of promoting germination (see page 616). Humboldt states that the seeds of the common Cress (*Lepidium sativum*) in a solution of chlorine germinated in six or seven hours, whereas in water germination did not take place for thirty-six or thirty-eight hours.*

937. Different seeds have different powers of resisting external influences. Cereal grains have been found by Edwards and Colin to bear a short exposure to 122° F. in water, 143°.6 in steam, and 167° in dry air, as well as a dry cold of 70° below the freezing point.† Thus these grains bear 21°.6 more in steam than in water, and 23°.4 more in dry air than in steam. Mr. Hemingway states that seeds of Elder (*Sambucus nigra*) germinated after being twice boiled in making wine, being present during the vinous fermentation, and remaining for twenty months in the dregs of the cask.‡ The seeds of *Phytolacca decandra*, and of the Raspberry, have been known to germinate after exposure for a short time to the heat of boiling syrup. Payen found that the sporules of *Oidium aurantiacum* bore a temperature of 221° to 248° F. even in moist air for half an hour without destroying their vegetating power.§

* Humboldt, *Flora Fribergensis Subterranea*, 1793, p. 156.

† Edwards et Colin, de l'influence de la température sur la Germination, in *Annales des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. Bot. i. 257, sur la Végétation des Cereales sous de hautes températures, in *Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. Bot. v. 1.

‡ Hemingway, on the Vitality of Seeds, in *Ann. of Nat. Hist.* 1st ser. viii. 317.

§ Payen, les températures que peuvent supporter les sporules de l'*Oidium*.—*Ann. de Chim. et de Phys.* xcix. 253.

4 LENGTH OF TIME REQUIRED FOR GERMINATION

938. The time required for the germination of seeds depends greatly on the texture of their coats, as well as their age. Some exalbuminous seeds, such as Cresses, which are also very hygroscopic, sprout in twenty-four hours, others require many days, or even months. Hard seeds, such as those of some Palms, lie long dormant. The seeds of the Almond tree, which germinate in five or six days when sown immediately, require a year when kept till spring. Large seeds are slower in germinating than small ones, because they require more water, and their absorbing surface does not increase in proportion to their size. Seeds having an osseous or stony spermoderm, and those which are sown naturally while contained in a hard pericarp, as Nuts and Achenes, germinate more slowly than others. The germination may be expedited by thinning or chipping the envelope, so as to allow water to penetrate more easily. In seeds, however, which take a very long time to germinate, this procedure may cause them to decay. Many of the seeds enclosed in a hard shell or stone germinate in the midst of a decaying mass, which must contribute to the decomposition of the shell. Soaking hard seeds in water, or causing them to pass through the digestive canal of animals, greatly accelerates germination. The seeds of Hawthorn, and others of a similar nature, are thus often deposited by birds in peculiar localities in a state fit for immediate germination.

939. Alphonse De Caudolle examined the germination of 863 species in the open air, and the following table shows the general results. In each of the orders there were a considerable number of species experimented on, and the epochs of the maximum of germination are stated in the order of their rapidity:—

NATURAL ORDERS.	No of Species	Day on which the greater Number germinated.
Amaranthaceæ	28	6th to 8th day
Cruciferæ	55	8th day
Boraginaceæ	15	9th „
Caryophyllaceæ	40	9th „
Malvaceæ	25	10th „
Compositæ	160	11th „
Convolvulaceæ	12	11th „
Graminæ	99	11th „
Plantaginaceæ	14	11th „
Polygonaceæ	22	12th „
Chenopodiaceæ	27	13th „
Valerianaceæ	18	13th „
Campanulaceæ	9	14th „
Labiata	21	14th „
Leguminosæ	122	14th „

* De Caudolle, Physiologie Végétale, ii 618

940. Out of 379 seeds raised in a stove under the same circumstances, the results obtained by Alphonse De Candolle as to the date of germination were as follow :—

Seeds.	Day of Germination.	Seeds.	Day of Germination.	Seeds	Day of Germination.	Seeds.	Day of Germination.
1	2d	15	8th	23	14th	1	23d
10	3d	17	9th	7	15th	2	25th
20	4th	41	10th	8	16th	4	26th
46	5th	17	11th	17	17th	15	27th
52	6th	20	12th	3	20th	13	28th
27	7th	17	13th	1	21st	3	30th

941. The experiments of Alphonse De Candolle give the following results as to germination at different temperatures :—*

NAMES OF SPECIES.	NUMBER OF DAYS REQUIRED FOR GERMINATION.	
	In the open air, 46.4° to 53.6° F.	In a stove, 64.4° to 77° F.
<i>Erigeron caucasicum</i>	10	2
<i>Thlaspi ceratocarpum</i>	8	4
<i>Dolichos abyssinicus</i>	10	3
<i>Zinnia tenuiflora</i>	11	5
— <i>coccinea</i>	22	5
<i>Grahamia aromatica</i>	14	5
<i>Solidago hirta</i>	11	5
<i>Lablab vulgaris</i>	14	10
<i>Anthemis rigescens</i>	7	6
<i>Rheum undulatum</i>	8	7
<i>Duvaua dependens</i>	22	16

It is stated in Silliman's Journal that the Lima Bean, at a temperature of 88° in the shade, will appear above ground in 7 days; at a temperature of 62°, in 20 days. The Marrowfat Pea at 51° requires 19 days, while at 74° it requires only 11 days. The germination of Radishes varies with the temperature from 6 to 12 days.

942. The rapidity with which some annuals germinate in arctic regions when the heat of summer returns is very remarkable. They pass through their periods of germination, flowering, and fruiting in a very short period. Such is also the case in warm countries after the dry season. After the dry season in the Brazilian plains, and when

* De Candolle, *Physiologie Végétale*, ii. 649.

the first few showers have fallen, Gardner remarked that the annual Grasses pushed forth their blades with astonishing rapidity and vigour. Spruce states that on the sandy shores of the Amazon and Tapajoz, after the waters leave them, several small annual or rather ephemeral plants spring up. They start up from the sand, flower, and ripen their seeds in the course of a few days, and then wither. Amongst them are an *Alisma*, two or three *Eriocaulons*, a *Xyris*, and some minute *Cyperaceæ*.

5. CHEMICAL CHANGES DURING GERMINATION.

943. During the germination of seeds, alterations take place in the nature of their contents. When the embryo occupies the entire seed, changes occur in the cotyledons, by means of which nutritive matter is prepared; when there is a separate store of perisperm, its constituents are acted upon by moisture, heat, and air, so as to undergo chemical changes. Alterations take place in the azotized matter, and part of the fibrin gives origin to diastase, which acts as a ferment; acetic acid is also formed, and the starchy matter is converted into dextrin and grape-sugar. Thus insoluble matters are rendered soluble, and a large amount of saccharine matter is produced. At the same time there is an evolution of carbonic acid, in consequence of a combination between the oxygen of the air and the carbon of the seed, and as the result of this chemical action a certain amount of heat is developed.* The heat is carried off very rapidly by the soil in ordinary cases, so that it is difficult to ascertain its amount; but when seeds are laid in moist heaps the increase of temperature becomes apparent.

944. Saussure made experiments as to the changes produced on the air during germination.† He put 21 grains of Wheat soaked in water into a close vessel containing air, during 21 hours. They began to germinate at the end of 17 hours.

The Air before the Experiment contained—		The Air after the Experiment contained—	
Cubic Centimetres.		Cubic Centimetres.	
Nitrogen . . .	148.84	Nitrogen . . .	148.32
Oxygen . . .	39.86	Oxygen . . .	37.44
		Carbonic acid .	2.47
	188.7		188.23

Thus the Wheat diminished the atmosphere by 0.47 cubic centimetres; it formed 2.47 of carbonic acid, and removed 2.42 of oxygen and 0.52

* See Ingenhousz, *Experiences sur les Végétaux*, ii. 35, 37. Senecier, *Physiol. Végétale*, iii. 118. Saussure, *sur la Végétation dans l'Air Atmosphérique* in *Ann. de Chimie et de Phys.* 1st series, xxiv. 139; also *Recherches Chimiques sur la Végétation*, p. 10. Goepfert, *ueber warme entwicklung in der lebenden Pflanze*.

† Saussure, *sur l'Alteration de l'Air par la Germination*, in *Annales des Sc. Nat.* 2d ser. ii. 270 also *Mém. de la Soc. d'Hist. Nat. de Genève*.

of nitrogen. Three seeds of Haricot (*Phaseolus vulgaris*), after being soaked in water, were enclosed in a vessel of air for 48 hours. They commenced germinating in 24 hours:—

Air before the Experiment.		Air after the Experiment.	
	Cubic Centimetres		Cubic Centimetres.
Nitrogen . . .	151.41	Nitrogen . . .	150.44
Oxygen . . .	40.24	Oxygen . . .	31.26
		Carbonic acid . .	9.53
	<hr/> 191.65		<hr/> 191.23

In this instance the air was diminished by 0.42 cubic centimetres, 9.53 of carbonic acid were formed, and 8.98 of oxygen and 0.97 of nitrogen disappeared. When the Beans were again soaked in water, and allowed to grow for 48 hours more in the same quantity of fresh air, until the radicles were from 16 to 27 millimetres in length, there were formed 15.94 cubic centimetres of carbonic acid, while 15.13 of oxygen and 0.81 of nitrogen disappeared. In the same way four seeds of the Bean (*Faba vulgaris, equina*) enclosed in air for 48 hours, gave the following results:—

Air before the Experiment.		Air after the Experiment	
	Cubic Centimetres		Cubic Centimetres.
Nitrogen . . .	210.26	Nitrogen . . .	209.41
Oxygen . . .	36.29	Oxygen . . .	44.38
		Carbonic acid . .	11.27
	<hr/> 266.55		

Here 11.27 cubic centimetres of carbonic acid were produced, while 11.91 of oxygen and 0.85 of nitrogen disappeared.

945. Four Peas soaked in water were placed for 48 hours in oxygen gas, and the same number were placed in air during the same period. At the end of the experiment the radicles in oxygen were from 15 to 23 millimetres in length, those in the air from 12 to 19:—

Gas before the Experiment		Gas after the Experiment.	
	Cubic Centimetres		Cubic Centimetres
Oxygen . . .	194.7	Oxygen . . .	178
Nitrogen . . .	4.8	Carbonic acid . .	15
		Nitrogen . . .	4.7
	<hr/> 199.5		<hr/> 197.7

Air before the Experiment.		Air after the Experiment	
	Cubic Centimetres		Cubic Centimetres.
Nitrogen . . .	161.2	Nitrogen . . .	160.17
Oxygen . . .	43.1	Oxygen . . .	31.23
		Carbonic acid . .	11.7
	<hr/> 204.3		<hr/> 203.1

In the oxygen 15 cubic centimetres of carbonic acid were formed, and

16.7 of oxygen disappeared; while in the air 11.7 of carbonic acid were formed, and 11.87 of oxygen disappeared.

946. While Saussure states that a certain amount of nitrogen is absorbed during germination, Boussingault says that in his experiments with Trefoil and Wheat, there was neither gain nor loss of nitrogen.* Boussingault† gives the following results of experiments on the changes which take place in the elements of the seed during germination:—

	WEIGHT.	COMPOSITION			
	Grammes.	C	H.	O.	N.
Seed before germination	2.405	1.222	0.144	0.866	0.173
Seed after germination	2.241	1.154	0.141	0.767	0.179
Difference	-0.164	-0.068	-0.003	-0.009	+0.006

The total loss during germination was 0.164 grammes, and of that 0.068 was due to loss of carbon.

947. In the malting of Barley these changes are well seen. The grain is steeped in water in the first instance, so as to soften and swell; it is then laid in heaps 30 inches deep for 20 or 30 hours. In this situation it becomes warm, and germination commences.‡ This is moderated by laying the grain in thin strata of a few inches thick, on large airy but shaded floors. There it remains 12 or 14 days, until germination is sufficiently advanced, being frequently turned in the meantime, in order to allow each grain to germinate equally, and to prevent entangling of the radicles of contiguous grains. During this process sugar is formed, which is intended for the nourishment of the young plants, and if left long it would all be absorbed. This is prevented and germination stopped by exposing the grain in a kiln to a temperature rising from 100° to 160° or more. Thus the grain is dried and its vitality destroyed.

948. During germination it is probable that there is a certain electric disturbance. Carpenter says, the conversion of the starch of the seed into sugar involves the liberation of carbonic acid, and of a small quantity of acetic acid. Now as all acids are negative, and as like electricities repel each other, it is probable that the seed is at that time in an electro-negative condition. Hence germination is said to be quickened by connecting the seed with the negative pole of a feeble galvanic apparatus, whilst it is retarded by being connected with the positive pole.§

* Boussingault, *Recherches Chimiques sur la Germination*, in *Comptes Rendus*, vi 102.

† Boussingault, *Economie rurale*, i. 39.

‡ Goepfert states that seeds of different kinds, when made to germinate in quantities of about a pound in air of 48° to 66° F., showed temperatures varying from 66° to 120°.

§ Carpenter, *Gen. and Comp. Physiology*, p. 72.

6. GERMINATION OF ACOTYLEDONOUS, MONOCOTYLEDONOUS, AND DICOTYLEDONOUS PLANTS.

949. When the spores of the lower Acotyledonous plants germinate, they send out cellular processes of a more or less conical form, which serve the purpose of roots, and which often divide. These cellular prolongations may be formed from the entire walls of the spore, or from its inner covering. In Figure 1263 there is represented the spore of a cellular plant before germination, provided with four cilia. In Figure 1264 are seen the germinating spores of another cellular plant, in which the cilia have disappeared, while one end of the spore has elongated in a conical manner, *a*, and has finally divided into three, *b*. The protrusion of a similar ramified root-like process is well seen in unicellular plants (Fig. 1265).

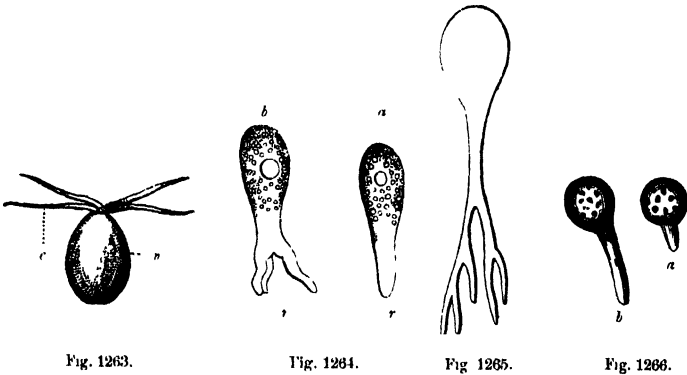


Fig. 1263.

Fig. 1264.

Fig. 1265.

Fig. 1266.

950. The germination of the spores of Liverworts (*Marchantia*) exhibit a similar production of elongated conical processes (Fig. 1266). When these tubular prolongations protrude through the outer coat of a spore, they exactly resemble the pollen tube, which may be considered as the result of the germination of a single cell placed on the stigmatic surface—the soil fitted for its growth (Fig. 1211, p. 567). In Figure 1267, the spore of a Sea-weed (*Fucus canaliculatus*) is represented during germination, with its cellular roots protruded through

Fig. 1263. Spore, *s*, of an Algae (*Chatophora*), before germination, provided with cilia, *c*, which lose their moveable properties and fall off when the spore begins to grow.

Fig. 1264. Germinating spores of a cellular plant (*Prolifera rivularis*). *a*, Spore giving out a conical root-like process, *r*, while the other extremity, containing a nucleus and granules, form a cellular frond. *b*, The same spore, with the root-like process, *r*, dividing.

Fig. 1265. A unicellular plant (*Botrydium granulatum*), germinating and giving off at the lower end of the cell ramifying processes which fulfil the functions of root-fibrils, while the upper part is the cavity in which fructification is produced.

Fig. 1266. Germinating spores of a species of Liverwort (*Marchantia polymorpha*), in different stages of growth. A small cellular protuberance first appears, *a*, which ultimately elongates, as seen at *b*. In the progress of development roots are produced, and a thalloid expansion bearing fructification.

the epispore. In the germinating spores already noticed, one part appears as a root-like portion, while the opposite end is developed as a thallus bearing fructification. While the germinating spores of Liverwort are shown in Figure 1266, the fully developed plant, with its thallus and fructification, is seen in Figure 1007, p. 337.

951. In the case of Fungi, there is produced a peculiar subterranean axis called mycelium or spawn, on which the fructification is ultimately developed (Fig. 1021, p. 345). This mycelium spreads equally on all sides from the original point of development. In this respect it is analogous to the thallus of Lichens. The more delicate the mycelium the quicker it grows, and the more easily the older portions perish. The circumference is often vigorous, while the central parts are dead or evanescent, so that the mycelium grows in the form of an increasing circle. Then, at the time of the formation of spores, numerous pilei arise from the outer part of the mycelium in the form of a circle or ring, and thus a fairy ring is formed; in the same way as in many Lichens, the thallus spreads in a circle, and at its extremities produces fructification or apothecia (Fig. 1013, p. 342). In many *Parmeliæ* and in *Peltigenæ* the growth and decay are slow, and they often vegetate and fructify perfectly towards the margin of the thallus, while the centre is entirely decayed. Even where the thallus is very persistent, the progress of vegetation and fructification from the centre to the circumference is distinctly visible. In old specimens the centre is usually free from apothecia (unless when a new superincumbent thallus has been formed after the decay of the old); then succeeds a ring of large, perfect apothecia, and then, near the margin of the thallus, a circle of young apothecia, which are younger in proportion as they are nearer the margin. A large fairy ring, formed apparently from many individuals of one species of Fungus disposed in a circle, really, then, constitutes the organs of fructification of a single individual only. Many obstructions occur to the development of such individuals, and hence the reason of their rare occurrence. Stones, stems of trees, insects, and unfavourable weather, all interfere with the progress of the mycelium. A fairy ring of *Clavaria Botrytis* has been noticed twenty feet in diameter, with tufts of fruit-bearing branches one or two inches distant from each other.

952. The spores of many of the lower Acotyledons, such as Fungi, are so minute as to be easily scattered by the wind, and thus they are sometimes developed in very anomalous situations. Spores sometimes find a nidus in diseased structures in man and animals. Thus, in the disease of the skin called *Porrigo favosa*, as well as in *Mentagra* and *Aphthæ*, peculiar cellular bodies are produced, which appear to be altered and metamorphosed vegetable forms. In the case of the silk-worm, a Cryptogam called *Botrytis Bassiana* is found in a disease to which they are liable, and which has been called *Muscardinæ*. Caterpillars exhibit occasionally germinating spores of species of *Sphæria*. *Sphæria Robertsii* grows on the larva of *Hepialus virescens*

in New Zealand (Figs. 1023 and 1024, p. 345). Other Sphærias are produced in similar situations. Mr. Jones Stephens has recently noticed one on the larva of a lamellicorn beetle from Bogota.* Species of *Polistes* are seen flying about in the West Indies with vegetable growths projecting from them. They are called vegetating wasps. *Sporendonema muscæ* is a vegetable form which grows on the body of a fly in the tropics. The spores of Fungi are diffused in the air, ready to alight on any body which can furnish a nidus for them. In this way various kinds of Mould are developed—the spawn or mycelium produced from the spore ramifying through the decaying matter, and sending up at intervals fructification. In some cases the mycelium becomes remarkably developed, and does not produce ordinary spore-bearing organs. Thus in vinegar and syrup a peculiar fungoid mass is often produced, which is probably a modified form of some kind of Mould. The Vinegar-plant seems to



Fig. 1267



Fig. 1268

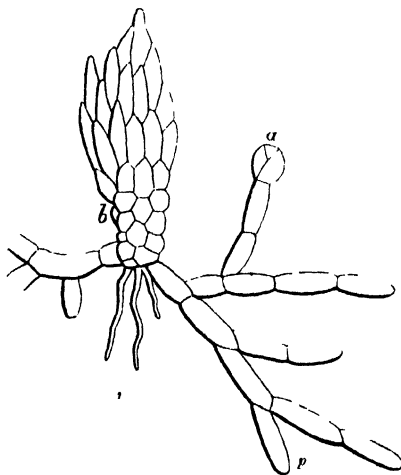


Fig. 1269

be a peculiar mycelial development of the Mould called *Penicillium glaucum*. During the germination of the spores, certain changes are induced in the fluid surrounding them. Thus a saccharine solution is

Fig. 1267. Germination of spore of a Sea-weed (*Fucus canaliculatus*). Cellular filaments are seen bursting through the outer covering of the spore. These filaments appear to be formed by a prolongation of the inner coat of the spore.

Fig. 1268. Spore of a Moss (*Funaria hygrometrica*) germinating. The spore, *a*, gives out a cellular process, which elongates and divides, as seen at *b*. This produces the cellular prothallus.

Fig. 1269. The same Moss further developed, showing the cellular prothallus, *p*, or pro-embryo, with its roots, *r*, and buds, *a*, *b*, whence arise leafy stems bearing the organs of reproduction.

* See Hooker's Journal of Botany, III. 77. Berkeley, on Entomogenous Sphærias, in Lond. Journ. Bot. II. 205. Bennett, on Parasitic Vegetable Structures found growing on living Animals, in Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin. xv. 279. Goodsir, on Sarcinula, in Ed. Med. and Surg. Journ. No. cl. Also Ann. Nat. Hist. XI. 125.

converted into vinegar. The mycelium is sometimes formed in separate layers, which can be detached from each other, so as to form independent vegetating masses. The spores of a Fungus (*Merulius lacrymans*), when introduced into wood, germinate, and produce the disease called dry-rot.*

953. In higher Cryptogams the spore produces first a cellular prothallus, whence roots and reproductive organs proceed. In Mosses the germinating spore forms, in the first instance, a cellular prolongation, which becomes a conferva-like germ, whence buds arise, bearing the leafy plant with its fructification. This is shown in Figure 1268, where a germinating spore, *a*, of a Moss is seen protruding a cellular process, which elongates and divides, as seen at *b*, and finally, as

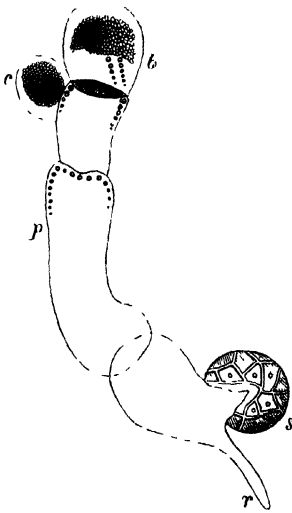


FIG. 1270.

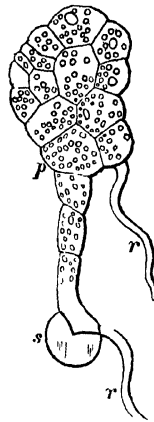


FIG. 1271.

shown in Figure 1269, forms a jointed cellular prothallus, *p*, whence buds are produced, *a*, *b*, bearing the leaves and the organs of repro-

Fig. 1270. Spore, *s*, of a Fern (*Pteris vittata*) germinating, and producing a cellular prothallus, *p*, which consists, in this early state, of five cells. Some of the cells, *b*, *c*, contain chlorophyll granules. A root, *r*, is produced from the lowest cell.

Fig. 1271. Spore of Fern (*Pteris serrulata*) germinating. The spore, *s*, gives rise to a cellular prothallus, *p*, whence cellular roots are given off, *r*, *r*. The prothallus bears the organs of reproduction, and gives origin to the sporangiferous frond. See also Figures 1226, 1227, and 1228, p. 574.

* Among the forms of Mould may be noticed—*Ascophora Mucedo*, on bread; *Mucor Mucedo*, on dried preserves; *Monilia*, on fruits; *Mucor herbariorum*, on dried plants; *Racodium*, in low cellars, as in the London Docks; *Penicillium glaucum*, common on organic substances—often growing on books, when exposed to moisture and a certain temperature; various species of *Mycotrichium*, *Chaetomium*, *Oidium*, *Sporocybe*, and *Cladosporium*, on paper, linen, and parchment, according to the varying conditions of heat and moisture; *Omygena equina*, on the hoofs of dead horses; *Omygena corvina*, on the feathers of ravens; *Omygena felina*, on the dung of cats, &c.

duction. In Ferns the spore gives origin to a thalloid expansion, the prothallus, whence roots proceed, and ultimately the sporangiferous frond. In Figure 1270 there is represented the spore, *s*, of a Fern giving out a cellular prothallus. This prothallus enlarges, as seen in Figure 1271, gives out root-like processes, *r r*, and finally bears the organs of reproduction.*

954. The embryo of a monocotyledon has often at first sight no marked division of parts (Fig. 1272). There is seen a slight projection at one end, *r*, which ultimately forms the root, and a uniform conical mass, which consists of the cotyledon, *c*, with the primary bud and axis; at the lower part there is a slit, *s*, which, as germination proceeds, gradually opens, so as to allow the plumule to protrude. The enveloping body is the single cotyledon. The same appearance is presented in the embryo of a species of Pondweed (Fig. 1273). The general axis, *a*, gives off at one end a radicle, *r*, forming the root, while the cotyledon, *c*, at the other extremity, envelopes the



Fig 1272

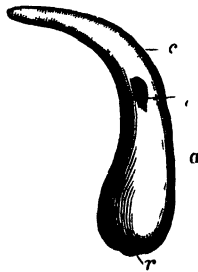


Fig 1273



Fig 1274

first bud or plumule, *g*, which, in germinating, protrudes through an opening or slit in the cotyledon.

955. In a monocotyledonous seed there is generally a supply of albumen, which is gradually dissolved and absorbed as germination

Fig 1272 Embryo of a species of Arrow grass (*Tyglochin Barbaresi*) showing a uniform conical mass, with a slit, *s*, near the lower part. The cotyledon, *c*, envelopes the young bud, which protrudes at the slit during germination. The radicle is developed from the lower part of the axis, *r*.

Fig 1273 Curved conical embryo of a species of Pondweed (*Potamogeton perfoliatus*). The axis, *a*, gives off at its lower extremity a radicular process, *r*, whence rootlets proceed, while the single cotyledon, *c*, envelopes the first bud, *g*, called gemmule or plumule, which in germinating protrudes through a slit or fissure.

Fig 1274 Grain of Wheat (*Triticum*) germinating. The embryo lies at one side of the grain, *g*. The radicular portion of the embryo gives off rootlets, *r r r r r*, covered with cellular hairs. The principal root is the central one, the others being developed subsequently in succession. The roots pass through sheaths, *c c c*. The ascending axis, *t*, sheathed in the cotyledon, rises upwards. From the mode in which the roots proceed from an internal radicular axis, the embryo was called by Richard endorhizal.

* For further remarks on the germination of Ferns, see Hefrey, in the Gard. Mag of Botany for 1851, p. 22, Lindsay, in Linn Trans n 93, Henderson, in Mag of Zoology and Botany, 1 888, and Mac-Vicar, in Trans of Roy Soc of Edin x 268. Also Suminski's work, and others referred to in the notes at pages 320 and 330.

proceeds. Sometimes the whole of the perisperm and its cells disappear ; at other times, as in the seed of the Ivory Palm (*Phytelephas macrocarpa*), a portion is removed, and a sort of cellular skeleton is left within the seed. The radicular portion of the axis is more or less truncated, and sends off numerous rootlets, which pass through sheaths or coleorrhizæ formed by the lower part of the axis. This is shown in the germinating grain of Wheat (Fig. 1274), in which the rootlets, *r*, are covered with cellular hairs for the purpose of absorption. The central root is first developed, and the others come off in succession as secondary rootlets. When there is no albumen present, the cotyledon is usually pushed upwards beyond the seed. Thus, in the common Horned Pondweed (Fig. 1275), the parts of the germinating embryo are a radicular portion, *r*, an axis or cauliculus, *a*, with a cotyledon, *c*, which is pushed upwards, and embraces the primary bud, *p*.

956. In many perispermic monocotyledonous seeds the cotyledon is partly contained within the seed, and partly appears externally. That portion within the seed is called intra-seminal, and corresponds to the blade or lamina of the leaf; the narrow protruded portion, which varies much in length, represents the petiolar portion, which often ends in a sort of sheath embracing the axis. In Figure 1276, a representation is given of the seed of the Indian Shot in different stages of germination. A portion, *c*, of the single cotyledon remains within the seed, while another portion, *a*, protrudes, ending in a sheathing portion, *s*, which surrounds an axis, *t*, whence spring the radicles, *r r'*, which pass through sheaths, *col*, and a primary bud, *b*, which rises to form the stem. In Figure 1277 is seen the double Coco-nut germinating, with its long cotyledonary process, *c*, and the axis, whence proceeds the root, *r*, and the first bud of the stem, *a*. In the Date (Fig. 1279), the seed, *s*, gives exit to a long cotyledonary petiole, *b*, with its sheathing extremity; roots, *a*, proceed from the lower part of the axis, and the bud, consisting of sheathing leaves, *c d e*, from the upper part. In the Coco-nut (Fig. 1278), the intra-seminal portion of the cotyledon, *c*, becomes a large cellular mass, which gradually absorbs all the perisperm. The extra-seminal portion



Fig. 1275

Fig. 1275 Germination of the embryo of the Common Horned Pondweed (*Zannichellia palustris*). The radicular portion, *r*, is united to the ascending axis, *a*, at the column, or neck, *n*, the cotyledon, *c*, is pushed upwards, enclosing the primary bud or gemmule, *p*. The cotyledon in this case extends out of the seed. The embryo is aperispermic or exalbuminous.

protruded through the foramen and the hole in the endocarp is very short, and is connected with the axis, from which arises the plumule or first bud, *b*, and the radicles, *r*.

957. In Grasses, as shown in Figure 1280, the cotyledon, *c*, enlarges within the seed, and, on one side of the perisperm, roots, *r*, are protruded through sheaths, *co*, while the plumule, *g*, rises upwards,

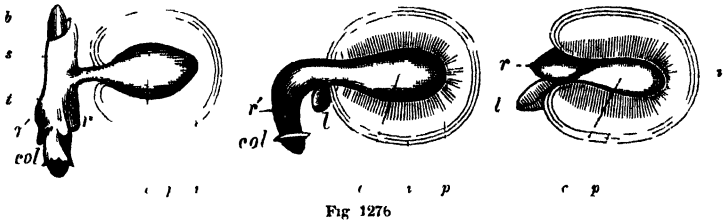


Fig 1276



Fig 1277



Fig 1278

consisting of sheathing leaves arranged alternately. The sheathing cotyledon, *c*, with the radicle and the plumule, are also represented in

Fig 1276 The seed of the Indian Shot (*Canna indica*) in different stages of germination. The embryo is seen surrounded by the perisperm or albumen *p* which is enclosed within the integuments of the seed, or the general spermoderm, *t*. The micropyle is the point where the first part of the embryo protrudes, and the opening shows a lid-like process, *l*, which is raised in order to allow the passage of the germinating part. 1 The seed in its early germinating state, with the radicular axis *r*, protruding, sheathed by the cotyledon. 2 The embryo enlarged and the perisperm diminished, the radicular portion, *r'*, more fully protruded, and the radicle, coming through a sheath or coleorhiza, *col*. 3 The embryo still further increased, and the perisperm, *p*, diminished, a narrow portion of the cotyledon, *a*, protruded, ending in a sheathing portion, *s*, which embraces the axis, *t*, whence proceed the radicles, *r'*, passing through coleorhizae, *col*, and the first bud of the ascending axis, plumule, *b*, ascending.

Fig 1277. Double Coco-nut (*Fodocea Seychellarum*) germinating. The embryo protrudes through the foramen of the seed, and through a hole in the hard pericarp. The long cotyledonary process, *c* ends in an axis, whence proceed the radicle, *r*, and the first bud of the stem, *a*.

Fig 1278 The Coco nut (*Cocos nucifera*) germinating. The intra-seminal portion of the cotyledon becomes a large cellular mass, *c*. The protruded caulicular portion is short, and ends in the axis, whence proceed the first bud or plumule, *b*, and the radicles, *r*.

the Maize or Indian Corn, in Figure 1281. In the Quaking-grass (Fig. 1282) the cotyledon remains within the grain, *c*, and the axis elongates, bearing the leaves, *f g h i k*; while the first root, *a*, proceeds from the lower part of the axis, and subsidiary or secondary roots are given off from the leaves of the first bud. In all cases of monocotyledonous germination, after the radicles have descended into the soil, the plumule or first bud of the axis is developed, and the leafy stem is gradually formed. The leaves are usually alternate, and are often sheathing.

958. In dicotyledonous germination the radicle is protruded through the foramen of the seed, and then the cotyledons are either

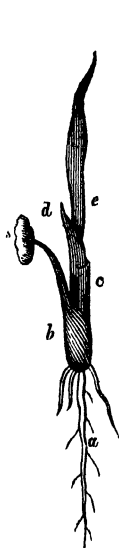


Fig. 1279.

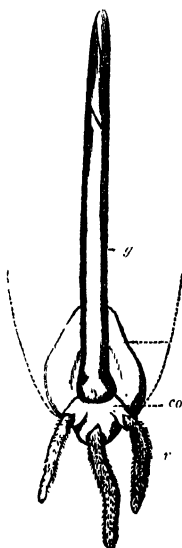


Fig. 1280

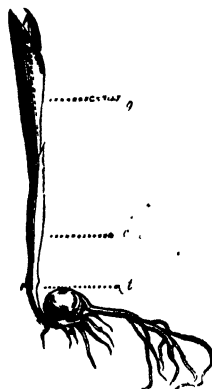


Fig. 1281.

protruded, so as to appear above ground as epigeal leaves of a green colour, or they remain within the covering of the seed as fleshy hypogeal lobes, containing much nutriment in their substance. The first kind of germination is seen in Figure 1283, where a French Bean is depicted producing its radicle, *r*, and its green epigeal cotyledons, *c c*,

Fig. 1279. Germination of the seed of the Date-palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*). The seed, *s*, containing a portion of the cotyledon inside (corresponding to the lamina of the leaf). The petiolar portion of the cotyledon, *b*, ending in a sheathing portion. The first root, *a*, and above it the other roots subsequently formed, as the leaves, *c d e*, are developed.

Fig. 1280. Grain of the Oat (*Avena*) germinating. The embryo lies on one side of the grain. The radicular portion gives off rootlets, *r*, covered with cellular hairs, which pass through sheaths, *co*. The single cotyledon, *c*, remains within the grain, and the plumule or first bud of the stem, *g*, is developed.

Fig. 1281. Grain of Maize or Indian Corn (*Zea Mais*) germinating. The roots proceed from the lower part of the axis, *t*; the single cotyledon, *c*, embraces the young ascending axis, whence arises the plumule, *g*.

which enclose the first bud or plumule, *g*; and the same thing is seen in Figure 1284, where the embryo of a Sycamore is seen with its radicular axis, *r*, giving origin to roots, its ascending axis, *a*, with the two cotyledons, *c c*, which are green, leafy, and epigeal, enclosing the first bud, *b*. The second kind of dicotyledonous embryo may be illustrated by the Bean and Pea (Fig. 1285), where the fleshy lobes, *c c*, which form the great bulk of the seed, are hypogeal, and are gradually absorbed during the growth of the plant. In the case of the Orange (Fig. 1286) the cotyledons, *c*, are hypogeal and fleshy, the radicle, *r*,



Fig. 1282.

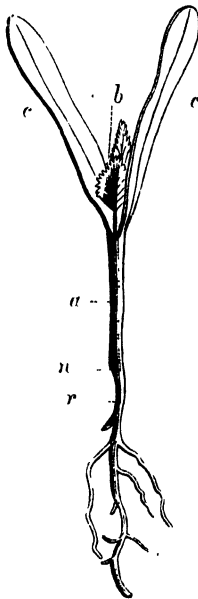


Fig. 1284.

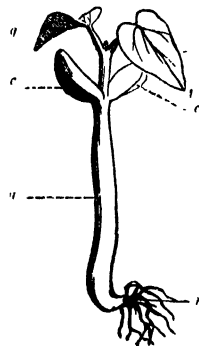


Fig. 1283.

passes downwards in a tapering manner, while the plumule, *p*, proceeds in an upward direction, bearing the leaves, *l l*.

Fig. 1282. Germination of the grain of Quaking-grass (*Briza media*). The grain, *c*, with its coverings and glumes, containing within it the single cotyledon; *b*, the truncated radicular axis, whence proceed the roots and rootlets, *a*; the elongating axis, *d*, with the first sheathing leaf, *f*, the second, *g*, the third, *h*, the fourth, *i*, and the fifth, *k*; other roots, *e*, proceeding from the bud with its leaves.

Fig. 1283. Dicotyledonous embryo of a French-bean or Haricot (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) germinating, showing the radicular portion, *r*, giving off roots, the portion of the axis (cauliculus), *a*, between the roots and the two leafy epigeal cotyledons, *c c*, and the primary bud or plumule, *g*, giving origin to the primordial leaves. The roots do not pass through sheaths, and the embryo is called by Richard exorhizal.

Fig. 1284. Dicotyledonous embryo of the Sycamore (*Acer Pseudo-Platanus*) germinating. The radicular portion of the axis, *r*, whence the rootlets proceed; *n*, the neck where the ascending and descending axis separate; *a*, the axis with the two leafy epigeal cotyledons, *c c*, between which is situated the primary bud, *b*, with the incipient primordial leaves

959. The dicotyledonous seed is sometimes exalbuminous or apermispermic, as in the Pea and Orange, in which the fleshy cotyledons have a store of nutriment laid up in them for the growth of the embryo; at other times the seed is albuminous or perispermic, as in Castor oil and in the Dock (Fig. 914, p. 303), and then the nutriment is separate from the embryo, and is gradually dissolved and absorbed during germination. Sometimes the two cotyledons become united, and when the embryo germinates they appear as one; at other times divisions take place, so that the embryo becomes polycotyledonous, as in Firs (Fig. 1287). After the cotyledons have appeared they separate so as to allow the first bud, called plumule or gemmule, to be developed

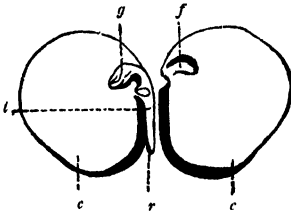


Fig. 1285.



Fig. 1287.

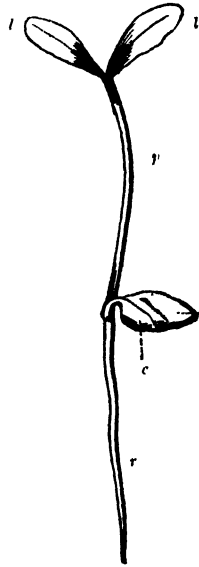


Fig. 1286.

between them (Fig. 1284, *b*). This bud forms the axis on which the leaves and flowers are produced. In proportion as the permanent leaves increase, the cotyledonary leaves (after acting as temporary organs of nutrition) wither and fall off, and if they are subterranean

Fig. 1285. Embryo of the Pea (*Pisum sativum*). The cotyledons, *c*, or seed-lobes, are fleshy, and remain below ground, in other words, are hypogeal. The radicle, *r*, protrudes through the micropyle, and is the first portion of the embryo which appears during germination. The plumule, gemmule, or first bud, *g*, afterwards appears and rises upwards to form the ascending axis. The common axis, *l*, whence the radicle and plumule proceed, is united to the cotyledons by a short petiole, *f*, a small depression in one cotyledon, where the young bud, *g*, lay.

Fig. 1286. Seed, *s*, of the Orange (*Citrus aurantium*) germinating. The fleshy cotyledons, *c*, within the spermoderm, the tapering radicle, *r*, the plumule, *p*, with the leaves, *l*. The seed is exalbuminous, and the embryo exorhizal.

Fig. 1287. Young embryo of a Fir germinating, showing the common axis, *l*, whence proceeds the radicle, *r*, and the divided leafy epigeal cotyledons, *c*. The embryo is called olicotyledonous.

they are gradually absorbed. The leaves which are produced in succession sometimes differ in their form. Thus in *Victoria regia* the youngest leaf is linear and almost filiform, the next is hastate, the third sagittate, and the fourth is nearly ovate, with a deep incision at the base. The future leaves gradually assume a more or less circular form, generally with a distinct line showing the place of the union of the lobes.* The rate at which the axis increases varies according to the amount of temperature and moisture which is supplied.

7. DIRECTION OF GROWTH IN ROOTS AND STEMS

960. Much obscurity exists as to the cause of the direction taken by the opposite extremities of the germinating plant, that is to say, of the downward growth of the root, and of the upward growth of the terminal bud. Mohl remarks—"To no phenomenon have we been rendered more indifferent, by having it daily before our eyes, than to the definite direction in which every part of a plant lies in reference to a perpendicular line; and yet in the circumstance that the stem grows upwards, the root downwards, and the leaf with its upper surface turned towards the sky, we behold a series of the most wonderful phenomena, the causal relations of which are unfortunately but too little understood."

961. Duhamel, Dodart, and others† attempted to explain the directions of the stem and root, by the influence of the darkness and the moisture of the soil on the latter, and the light and dryness of the air on the former. But this explanation has been shown to be unsatisfactory. For in all circumstances, whatever be the position of the seed and the media surrounding it, whether the seed germinates in earth, in water, or in air, in darkness or in light, still the radicle and plumule assume their normal direction. Johnson made a French Bean germinate in a tube filled in the upper part with wet earth, and in the lower with dry, and yet the radicle did not change its direction. When seeds are made to germinate on the surface of water, having a transparent tube below and an opaque one above, the radicles pass downwards to the transparent part, and the plumule upwards to the dark. When a seed is placed in wet earth or moss, and suspended in basket-work in the air, the root will proceed downwards into the air, showing that darkness and moisture will not account for its direction. Roots springing from aerial branches, as in the Screw Pine and Banyan, descend downwards in the air in the first instance, and many months elapse before they reach the soil.

962. It is curious, however, to remark in certain instances curvatures taking place in aerial roots, so that they come into contact with a supply of nourishment. Thus in a plant of *Pandanus graminifolius*, in the Botanic Garden of Edinburgh, in which roots spring from

* Hooker, *Victoria regia*, Lond. 1851.

† Duhamel, *Physique des Arbres*. Meese, sur l'Influence de la Lumière sur les Plantes, in *Journ de Physique*, vii 112.

branches at points six inches or more beyond the circumference of the tub in which the plant grows, there is a distinct inclination and curvation of the aerial roots, so as to reach the earth in the tub. Durand* says there is no evidence of roots seeking good soil and directing their growth in such a way as to reach the part whence most nourishment is to be derived. There is no doubt, however, that when roots do come into contact with moist soil containing much nutriment they grow very rapidly in that direction.

963. Knight attributes the direction of the stem and roots to gravitation, and the peculiar state of the contents of the tissues.† When the stem of a plant has a horizontal position, there is, he thinks, a gravitation of fluids towards the lower side, and as increased nourishment is thus given to that side, and as the stem enlarges throughout its substance, the cells swell and cause the end of the stem to point upwards. In the case of the root, the increase takes place at the extremity, and to this the fluids gravitate, so as to cause the point to descend. Knight performed the following experiments:—He caused Beans to germinate on the circumference of a horizontal wheel rotating rapidly, and he found that the radicles turned towards the periphery, while the plumules inclined towards the centre. When the wheel performed two hundred and fifty revolutions in a minute, the radicles pointed downwards about ten degrees below, and the plumules as many degrees above, the horizontal line of the wheel's motion—centrifugal force having made both to deviate 80° from the perpendicular direction each would have taken had it vegetated at rest. Seeds were also made to germinate on the circumference of a wheel to which a rapid vertical rotatory motion was given. The radicles, in this case, turned their points outwards from the circumference of the wheel, while the plumules took the opposite direction.

964. Knight supposed that there was a more or less liquid condition of the parts of the young plant, a difference in density of the parts, and a tendency in the denser parts towards the root. The beans on the vertical wheel were under the influence of the centrifugal force only, and their denser parts or roots pointed outwards from the circumference; while, on the horizontal wheel, the effect was intermediate between the centrifugal force and gravity. Dutrochet performed a similar experiment in regard to leaves, and he found that they were influenced by gravity, and turned their lower surfaces towards the periphery of the wheel. ‡

965. Dutrochet refers the phenomena to the different organization of the stem and root, and he traces the curvation of the stem upward, and of the root downward, to endosmose in the cells of these organs. He found that a plate cut longitudinally in the direction of a radius, from a herbaceous stem, and placed in water, curved so as to render

* Durand, sur la tendance des racines à chercher de bonne terre, &c. in *Comptes Rendus*, xxi. 987.

† Knight, on the Direction of the Radicle and Plumule during the Vegetation of Seeds.—*Philos Trans.* 1806 p. 99, and *Hort. Papers*, p. 124.

‡ Dutrochet, *Mémoires*, ii. 54.

the outer part concave ; while a similar plate, cut out of a young root, curved in the opposite way. These curvations he attributes to differences in the size of the cells. In the case of the young stem, the cells decrease in size, from the pith to the bark, while in the root the cortical cells are larger. These tendencies to curve exist in stems and roots, in consequence of the cells being full of fluids, and so long as the perpendicular position is maintained, the force of curvature in the different parts is kept in equilibrium. But when a stem or root is placed in an inclined position, the concentrated sap, by the force of gravity, flows to the lower side, and limits or weakens the endosmose exercised by the cells on that side, and thus they cease to counteract the tendency to incurvation on the upper side, which will be directed either upwards or downwards according to the situation of the different kinds of cells. When it takes place in a branch or stem in which there are large central cells, the curvation will be upwards, when in a root where the large cells are external, the curvation will be downwards. Thus Dutrochet refers all the movements in these organs to the soft parenchymatous cells, and the curvatures to the distention of cells on the side of the organ which becomes convex.*

966. Mohl says that both stem and root can only retain the perpendicular direction which they assume through the influence of gravity, when they are wholly removed from light, or light is freely admitted to all sides of them. If the light is admitted only to one side, then the axis becomes more or less inclined from its proper position. If light is admitted through a small aperture to a germinating plant, its stem curves towards the light. De Candolle's explanation that the curvation in plants exposed to light on one side, depended on the elongation of the cells on the dark side, and on the formation of carbon on the light side, so as to render it rigid, has not been confirmed by the observations of Dutrochet† and Gardner. Payer found that common Cress reared on moistened cotton in a room lighted by a single window, or in a box with a single aperture, instead of rising perpendicularly, as if it were growing in the open air or in complete darkness, inclined towards the light, at the same time preserving its straightness throughout, and forming an angle with the ceiling. On the contrary, when a growing plant which had been raised either in darkness or in the open air, and had taken a vertical direction, was placed in either of the above conditions, the young stem first became bent, and then inclined towards the light, in two distinct and successive phenomena; first, the lower part of the stem still retained its vertical position, while the upper part was more or less horizontal; second, the upper portion being a little straightened, and the lower a little inclined, the whole of the stem became straightened, and finally pointed in the direction of the light. Although a plant thus inclined itself to the side whence light proceeded, it did not seem to be necessary that the

* For remarks on this obscure subject, see Mohl on the Vegetable Cell, translated by Huxley, p. 143.

† Dutrochet, sur la tendance des Racines à fuir la Lumière, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. ii. 96.

point of curvature should receive any portion of the rays of light. This bend did not remain in the young stem after the cause which produced it had been removed. The intensity of the curve differed in different circumstances. If, instead of a case with one aperture, young plants were placed in a box with two openings, and thus received light in two directions, peculiar phenomena occurred. If there were two apertures on one side of a box, so that the rays of light in passing through them formed an angle more or less acute with each other, and the light was of equal intensity, then the stem moved in the direction of the resultant or of the bisector of the angle. If the power of the two lights was unequal, either from a difference in the size of the apertures, or from shading, the stem curved towards the stronger light. If again the two apertures, in place of being on the same side of the box, were on opposite sides, and the intensity of the rays equal, the plant neither leaned to the one nor to the other.*

967. Macaire † found that while light caused the stems of plants to bend towards it, there was no attraction exerted by which the plant could be moved from its position. This he showed by the growth of Duck-weed, and of Peas, Beans, and Mustard seeds, placed on little floats of cork in water, to which light was admitted only on one side. There was no change of position in the Duck-weed, and no movement of the floats, although the stems bent towards the light. Macaire also states that the position of leaves is influenced by light. When he lighted a leaf from below, and threw a shade over the upper surface, it turned round. He reversed twigs, and found that a twisting of the leaves took place—the turning being quicker in cases where the two surfaces were of very different colours, one being a deep green, and the other pale. The leaves of the Raspberry twisted round in less than two hours. The twisting takes place sometimes in the blade, and at other times in the stalk. Leaves of Lilac and *Polemonium cæruleum* twisted back by a spiral curling of the limb; leaves of the Bean, Raspberry, Chestnut, Maple, Geranium, and Judas-tree, by the petiole. Leaves reversed under water, and with their petiole fastened in a hole, turned over by the blade. A leaf deprived of its petiole, and laid on the surface of water, with its lower surface towards the sun, rolled itself together like a ball, so as to expose its natural upper surface to the light, and hide the other. In a leaf placed under water on a float, the reversal occurred without any movement in the float.

968. Dutrochet, Payer, and Durand say that roots in general have a tendency to avoid the light. They showed this by experiments on *Pothos digitata*, and on various Cruciferous plants, such as Cabbage, Mustard, Radish, Stock, Colza, &c. Some roots, however, are said,

* Payer, *Mém. sur la tendance des tiges vers la Lumière* Journ. de Pharm. et de Chim 8d ser. III 136. See also his paper sur la tendance des Racines à fuir la Lumière, in *Comptes Rendus*, xvii. 1048

† Macaire, sur la direction prise par les Plantes in *Bibliothèque Universelle de Genève* III 331

when grown in transparent glasses, to turn towards the light, such as the roots of *Mirabilis Jalapa* and *Allium Cepa*. But the correctness of the conclusions in these cases has been doubted by Macaire.* The Mistleto (Fig. 125, p. 53) seems to grow indifferently in all directions at the period of germination. The radicle always curves in such a way as to make its extremity touch the bark. Dutrochet says that the radicles of the Mistleto direct themselves toward the side which is most dark, and which in their ordinary vegetation is the trunk of the tree. He made the seeds germinate on the glass of a window of a room, some on the outside and others on the inside, and found that the latter directed their radicles inwards from the window, while those on the outside directed their radicles towards the glass of the window, as if to pass into the room or the darker part. The Mistleto, then, obeys the attraction of the branch on which it is parasitic, just as ordinary plants obey the attraction of the earth. Its roots descend towards the centre, while its stems grow perpendicular to the surface of the branch.

969. Observations have been made in regard to the effects of coloured rays on the direction of stems, leaves, and roots. The effects of the rays of the spectrum in causing flexion of plants were first noticed by Dr. Poggioli of Bologna. Gardner of New York says that all erect plants grown in darkness, when exposed to the influence of the solar spectrum, incline themselves towards the prism, and that this effect is produced by every variety of light, but in an especial manner by the indigo ray.† The force which constrains the movements of plants towards the light, according to him, has its maximum in the indigo ray. The bending towards that ray takes place often in a few hours, and sometimes exceeds 90°. The amount of light required for deflection is very small. He does not think that the chemical or heat-giving rays are the cause of the bending, but he attributes it to a modification of light. Dr. Gardner suggests that, as indigo light has a peculiar effect in governing the direction of the stems of plants (an action accomplished by light which is very feeble as compared with that of the yellow rays), the colour of the sky may regulate the upright growth of plants. As the blue rays do not cause in a marked degree the decomposition of carbonic acid, it is thought that Gardner's experiments contradict the views of De Candolle as to the bending of stems. When plants are exposed to the coloured rays of the spectrum, there is thus a flexion towards the light, and also a special movement towards the space illuminated by the indigo ray. Payer's observations corroborate those of Gardner as to effect of the

* Payer, sur la tendance des Racines à fuir la Lumière, in *Comptes Rendus*, xvii. 1048. Durand sur la tendance qui ont les Racines à fuir ou à chercher la Lumière, in *Comptes Rendus*, xxi. 1923. Brongniart et Dutrochet, Rapport sur la Mém. de Durand sur la fuite de la Lumière par les Racines, in *Ann. des Sc. Nat.* 3d ser. Bot. v. 65. Mucaire, on the Directions assumed by Plants, in *Phil. Trans.* 1848, p. 253.

† Gardner, on the Action of Indigo Light in producing the Movements of Plants, in *Lond. and Edin. Phil Mag* xxiv. 6.

blue rays on the curvature of stems, and Dutrochet found that the red rays had also a slight effect.* Macaire made experiments as to the effect of different coloured rays in causing leaves which were reversed to turn into their proper position. While blue and violet rays (transmitted through glass of these colours) caused the reversal of the leaves, red rays had no effect. While in stems there is a flexion towards light, and especially towards the indigo ray, in roots, according to Dutrochet, there is a tendency to avoid the light, and a flexion to avoid the space illuminated by that ray. The movements of the roots are thus, generally speaking, the reverse of those of the stem.

970. The stems of plants undergo sometimes remarkable torsions on themselves, so as to give the axis a spiral form. Besides this, some plants have volubile stems, which twine in a spiral manner round supports. Others have spiral tendrils which twine in a similar manner. The summits of such stems, when separated from supports, exhibit also a revolute motion. We have already seen that, as regards the tissues of plants, and the disposition of the leaves and of the parts of the flowers, there is a more or less complete spiral arrangement (p. 97). Dutrochet has paid particular attention to the torsions and twinings of stems, but he has not been able to give satisfactory explanations of them.† The volutions or twinings proceed in different directions in different plants. The following details are given by Dutrochet from observations made at temperatures varying from 62.6° to 66.2° F. The revolutions of the stems are, considered as respects an observer, supposed to be in the centre or axis round which the plant twines :—

NAME OF SPECIES.	Direction of the Volution.	Time required for a complete Volution
<i>Convolvulus arvensis</i>	Right to left.	9 to 10¼ hours.
<i>Convolvulus sepium</i>	Do.	15 to 18½ —
<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	Do.	5½ to 8½ —
<i>Cuscuta europæa</i>	Do.	1½ to 2 —
<i>Humulus Lupulus</i>	Left to right.	20 to 23 —
<i>Polygonum dumetorum</i>	Do.	3½ to 7¼ —
<i>Lonicera Periclymenum</i>	Do.	3½ to 5½ —
<i>Tamus communis</i>	Do.	9¼ —

In the case of *Solanum Dulcamara*, the stem twists in two directions ;

* Dutrochet, de l'inflexion des Tiges Végétales vers la Lumière colorée, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. xx 329.

† Dutrochet, des Mouvements revolutifs spontanés qui s'observent chez les Végétaux, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. xx. 306; sur la volubilité des Tiges des certaines Végétaux, in ibid. 3d ser. Bot. ii. 156. See also Braun, sur les torsions normales dans les Plantes, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. xii. 380. Johnson, on Divergence as the cause of motions in Plants, in Lond. and Edin. Phil. Mag. vi. 165, and vii. Knight, on the Motion of the Tendrils of Plants, in Phil. Trans. for 1812, p. 314

the revolution from right to left was accomplished in $4\frac{1}{4}$ hours, that from left to right in $3\frac{1}{4}$. In the tendrils of plants similar movements



Fig. 1291.

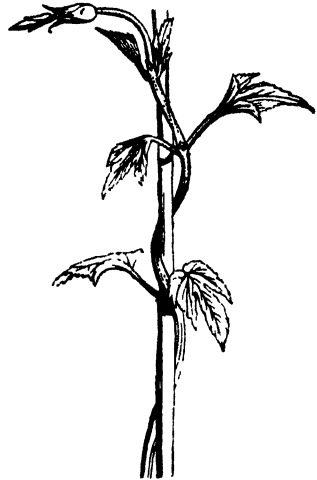


Fig. 1289.



Fig. 1290.



Fig. 1288.

are observed (Figs. 1290 and 1291). In those of the Cucumber

Fig. 1288. Twining or voluble stem of the Hedge Bindweed (*Convolvulus* or *Calystegia sepium*). The volutions are from right to left, as regards a person supposed to be in the axis of the plant.

Fig. 1289. Twining or voluble stem of the Hop (*Humulus Lupulus*). The volutions are from left to right, as regards a person supposed to be in the axis of the plant. The free summit of the stem has a revolute movement.

Fig. 1290. Melon (*Cucumis Melo*), with its curving tendril, *t*, which is a modification of a stipule.

Fig. 1291. Part of the stem of the Vine (*Vitis vinifera*), with its spiral tendril, *t*, which is a modified branch.

(*Cucumis sativus*) and Bryony (*Bryonia alba*), the movements of revolution take place in two opposite directions, not only in different tendrils, but also in the same tendril—one portion turning from right to left, and another from left to right. Plants turning from right to left (*sinistrorsum*) are marked). They occur among the Dicotyledonous orders *Menispermaceæ*, *Leguminosæ*, *Convolvulaceæ*, *Acanthaceæ*, *Passifloraceæ*, *Apocynaceæ*, *Cucurbitaceæ*, *Malpighiaceæ*, and *Euphorbiaceæ*. Those turning from left to right (*dextrorsum*) are marked (. They occur among the Dicotyledonous and Monocotyledonous orders *Violaceæ*, *Caprifoliaceæ*, *Chenopodiaceæ*, *Polygonaceæ*, *Urticaceæ*, *Rubiaceæ*, *Dioscoreaceæ*, *Smilacæ*; as well as in Ferns among the *Acotyledons*.

971. Dutrochet distinguishes between the twining of a stem round a support, the revolute movement of its free summit, and the torsion of a stem on its axis. He states also that the revolute movement at the summit follows the direction of the twining of the stem, and is also in the same direction as the torsion of the stem itself. The direction of the spiral described by the leaves is the same as that of the revolute movement of the summit of the twigs. The cause of these movements is very obscure. They are attributed to actions going on in the cells, which, by their distension or contraction, give rise to changes in the direction of the parts, in the same way as has been noticed in the case of sensitive leaves.

972. On reviewing all that has been stated on the subject of the direction taken by stems, leaves, and roots, we are disposed to think that the explanations are very unsatisfactory. While the facts are obvious, the cause is obscure. The experiments instituted do not suffice to prove that gravitation is the cause of the root penetrating the earth, for the portion of the plant which grows upwards is frequently the heaviest, and yet at the same time rises in a lighter medium. Moreover, the points of the roots have been found to penetrate to a certain extent into such a dense fluid as mercury.* Again, the mode of germination of the Mistleto and other parasites upon the stems of trees shows that the direction is governed by some more special influence than that of gravity. Henfrey remarks that “so far as we are in a position to tell, there is some definite, and as yet unknown, cause which makes the radicle first grow towards the earth or other source of nourishment, which it penetrates by elongation, a resisting point being offered by the weight of the seed or the earth covering it; and then, in its further growth downward, it requires a point of resistance to be afforded by the adhesion of the earth around the collar, ring, or neck of the root, since the elongation takes place in the structures just above the point of the root, thus exerting a pressure upwards and downwards, which if the upper part of the root be kept free, and the weight of the plant balanced, will cause the whole to rise bodily up-

* Payer, sur la tendance des Racines à s'enfoncer dans la terre, &c.—*Comptes Rendus*, ix 1257. Durand, sur un fait singulier de la Physiologie des Racines, in *Comptes Rendus*, xx. 1257

wards. Thus when seeds germinate in damp moss lying upon a hard surface, the elongation of the root will push the stem up through the moss, unless the root branches so as to get fixed down by entanglement among the loose matters. We may admit, therefore, that we are at present totally ignorant of the cause of the direction taken by roots—all the notions hitherto advanced having been purely speculative.”*

973. Recapitulation of the chief facts connected with the physiology of the seed:—

1. After impregnation, the ovule enlarges, its foramen closes, and various azotized, unazotized, and inorganic matter are deposited in it.
2. The nutrient matter is either stored up in the embryo, more especially in its cotyledons, or it is laid up in the form of a separate perisperm or albumen surrounding the embryo.
3. The density of the perisperm is connected with the length of time required for germination.
4. When the seed is ripe it either falls to the ground along with the pericarp, or it is discharged from the seed-vessel in various ways.
5. In many succulent and monospermal pericarps there is no separation between the coverings of the seed-vessel and the seed until germination begins.
6. Some single-seeded pericarps have winged or hairy appendages, in order that they may be dispersed by the wind.
7. Many polyspermal seed-vessels open with elasticity, or by the agency of moisture, in order to scatter the seed.
8. In some instances fruits are hypocarpean, in other words, ripen their seeds under ground.
9. Seeds are dispersed by the elasticity of their pericarps, or by the agency of winds, water, or animals.
10. Some seeds have winged or hairy appendages, so as to be wafted to a distance.
11. The propagation of the species is insured by the production of a large number of seeds.
12. Germination is the sprouting of the embryo plant when placed in circumstances favourable for its growth.
13. The requisites for germination are moisture, heat, and air. Darkness is also favourable to the process.
14. Moisture is required for the solution of nutritive matter, and for exciting the endosmotic action of the cells. It also causes the seed to swell, and enables it to burst its coverings.
15. A certain amount of heat is necessary for germination, varying in general from 60° to 80° F. Much depends on the climate in which the plant naturally grows. Some seeds bear a very high temperature, others a very low one.
16. Air, or rather oxygen, is required for germination. When seeds are buried deep and excluded from air, they do not germinate.
17. Seeds will not germinate in hydrogen, nitrogen, nor carbonic acid gas.
18. Germination takes place best in the shade, and the blue rays of light seem to act most beneficially in promoting the process.
19. Electricity has by some been considered favourable to germination. But the experiments in regard to electro-culture have not been successful.
20. In order that cultivated seeds may germinate well, they must be sown at equal depths in well pulverized and well drained ground.
21. Undrained land is cold, and does not supply the air and heat required for ordinary germination.

* Hufrey on Germination, in Gardener's Mag of Botany for 1851, p. 122.

22. The effects of draining are both mechanical and chemical. It gives rise to improved efficiency in ploughing and harrowing; it aids the effects of manures, it raises the temperature of the soil, ameliorates the climate, and accelerates harvest.
23. Drains should extend below the depth to which the roots of the ordinary cultivated plants penetrate, and their distance from each other may vary from 15 to 18 feet.
24. Drains must be kept pervious and protected against the entrance of roots.
25. The depth at which seeds ought to be sown is from half an inch to an inch. Shallow sowing enables the seeds to germinate rapidly and surely.
26. Some seeds require to be sown immediately after ripening, otherwise the embryo loses its germinating power.
27. Some seeds can be kept for a long time, and still retain their vitality.
28. Seeds buried in the soil often remain in a state fit for germination, and sprout when the earth is turned up, and when they are exposed to the influence of air, heat, and moisture.
29. Instances are given of the vitality of seeds being preserved for centuries in such circumstances.
30. The conditions in which seeds are preserved are not easily imitated.
31. It has not been proved that any true Mummy Wheat has germinated.
32. In transporting seeds it is requisite that they should be ripe and dry, and that they should be preserved in a dry and airy place.
33. Exalbuminous seeds, and those having a horny and dense albumen, seem to bear transportation best. Oily seeds must be excluded from the air.
34. Seeds can be transported successfully when placed in earth in alternate layers; the earth being pressed down.
35. The seeds of Leguminous and Malvaceous plants have been known to retain vitality long in ordinary circumstances.
36. The spores of Cryptogamic plants appear to retain their germinating power for a long period.
37. Chlorate of potass, oxalic acid, and chlorine have been used to accelerate the germination of old seeds.
38. The length of time required for germination varies from a few days or even hours to many weeks or months, according to the nature of the seed and the degree of temperature applied.
39. During germination the albuminous matter of the seed is dissolved, a ferment called diastase is produced, starch and dextrin are converted into grape sugar, some acetic acid is formed, oxygen is absorbed, heat is developed, and carbonic acid is evolved.
40. An acotyledonous spore during its germination, sends out cellular rootlike processes, and produces a thallus or frond, on which the organs of fructification are developed.
41. In the higher cryptogamic plants, as Mosses and Ferns, the spore produces at first a cellular prothallus which sends off rootlets, bears the organs of reproduction, and finally gives origin to the leafy sporangiferous frond.
42. A monocotyledonous embryo in germinating, emits from its radicular extremity rootlets which pass through sheaths or coleorrhiza, and sends out its plumule or gemmule enveloped in the single cotyledon, which splits at one side to allow the ascending axis to push forth.
43. Sometimes the laminar portion of the cotyledon remains in the interior of the seed, while a cotyledonary petiole is sent out, which ends in a sheath enveloping the young axis.
44. The intra-seminal portion of the cotyledon varies in size and form, and the extra-seminal part is sometimes much elongated.
45. A dicotyledonous embryo, in germinating, protrudes its radicle through the micropyle, while the two cotyledons either appear above ground as seminal leaves, or remain below ground as seminal lobes; the plumule or gemmule arises from between the cotyledons, and constitutes the first bud of the ascending axis.

46. The radicle of the embryo, in germinating, has a downward growth, while the plumule rises upwards.
47. The cause of the directions taken by these parts is not satisfactorily explained. Knight attempted to explain their direction by the law of gravitation in connection with the fluid matter contained in the cells of the embryo. Dutrochet endeavoured to account for the phenomena by the difference in the size of the peripheral and central cells, and the different curvatures thus caused.
48. Light has a powerful influence on the stem. When admitted on one side it causes the stem to bend towards it. Light causes the leaves, when reversed, to return to their normal position.
49. Roots appear to have a tendency to avoid the light. The root of the Mistletoe during germination is directed towards some dark body, as the bark of a tree.
50. The blue rays of the spectrum appear to have the greatest effect in causing the bending of the stem, and the turning of leaves.
51. The torsions of certain stems upon themselves, their volutions round other bodies, and the revolute movements of their free summits, are influenced by causes which are unknown. By some these phenomena are attributed to the influence of light, and to changes in the interior of certain cells, which thus cause curvation. There is a spiral tendency in all stem-growth, as shown by the spiral arrangement of the leaves and other organs.

CHAPTER XI.

PROPAGATION OF PLANTS BY BUDS AND SLIPS.

974. Besides the propagation by means of seeds containing an embryo, or by cellular spores, plants are also capable of extension by division. In unicellular plants, and others of the lowest class, it is common to find each cell possessing the power of producing a new individual, either by simple division or by the formation of a cellular bud. In higher plants this mode of propagation is carried out by means of an assemblage of cells, which are developed into an organ or bud of a more complicated nature, before it is detached. Multiplication by division of cells is very common among the lowest Algæ, such as Desmidiaceæ and Diatomaceæ (Fig. 1292). In the case of Lichens

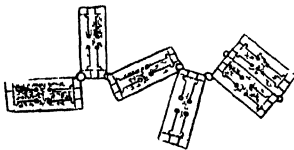


Fig. 1292

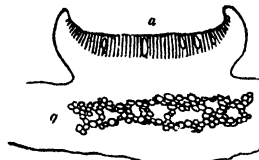


Fig. 1293

(Fig. 1293) the thallus produces gonidia, *g*, which appear to be a collection of cellular buds capable of producing independent individuals. On the thallus of Liverworts (*Marchantia*) cup-like bodies (Fig. 1294, *g*) are produced containing gemmæ.* In Mosses the power of reproduction by gemmæ is very marked. Almost every cell of the surface of Mosses, according to Schimper,† is capable of giving origin to a

Fig. 1292 One of the Diatomaceæ (*Diatoma marimum*), a cellular Alga, which is propagated by division of cells, as shown in the Figure. The separate portions are called frustules, and when detached they form new individuals.

Fig. 1293 Vertical section of the thallus and fructification (Apothecium) of a Lichen. The thallus contains green active cells, called gonidia, *g*, which seem to be buds capable of propagating the plant. The apothecium, *a*, contains spore-cases, and spores which also reproduce the plant. The latter are produced by the agency of the sexes, while the gonidia are formed independently of impregnation.

* Mübhel, Recherches sur le *Marchantia polymorpha*
 † Schimper, Recherches Anatom. et Morphol. sur les Mousses

leafy plant or innovation. The development of buds on the prothallus is also shown in Figure 1225, p. 573.

975. The higher classes of plants may be considered as consisting of numerous buds united on a common axis. These possess a certain amount of independent vitality, and they may be separated from the parent stem in such a way as to give origin to new individuals. In some instances buds are produced which are detached spontaneously at a certain period of a plant's life. The bulbils or bulblets of *Lilium bulbiferum* (Fig. 1295), *Lilium tigrinum*, *Ixia bulbifera*, and *Dentaria bulbifera*, are of this nature. The cloves formed in the axils of the scales of bulbs (Fig. 1172, *a*, p. 530), are gemmæ or buds which can

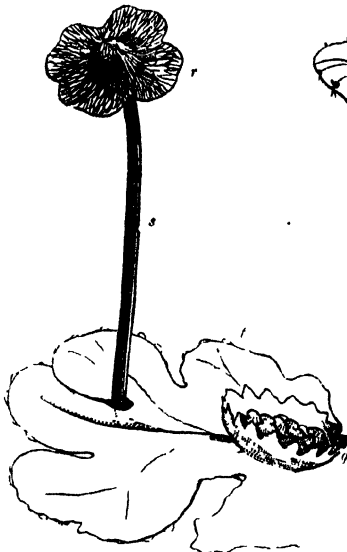


Fig 1294

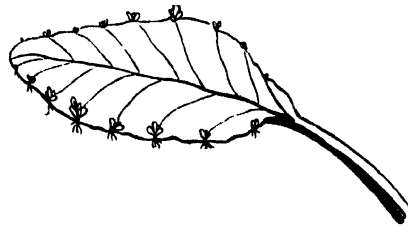


Fig 1296

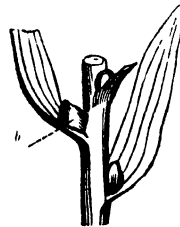


Fig 1295

be detached so as to form new plants. Such is also the case with corms, as in *Colchicum* (Fig. 159, p. 67). In these instances the buds are developed in the usual way in the axils of leaves or scales, that is to say, at the points where they join the stem. Some leaves naturally produce buds on their surface, as may be observed in *Malaxis*, *Aspidium bulbiferum*, and *Nymphaea micrantha*. Other leaves, when placed in particular circumstances, give rise to leaf-buds at their margin. Thus

Fig. 1294. A species of Liverwort (*Marchantia polymorpha*), with its green thallus, *t*, bearing a cup-like body, *g*, in which minute cells or free buds are seen. Besides these gemmæ there is also a stalked receptacle, *s r*, bearing organs of reproduction

Fig. 1295. Stem of a bulbiferous Lily (*Lilium bulbiferum*), bearing bulbils or bulblets, *b*, in the axils of the leaves. These bulbils are easily-detached buds, which can propagate the plant.

Fig. 1296. Bud-bearing leaf of *Bryophyllum calycinum*. The buds are produced all around the margin, at the extremities of the primary veins

the leaves of *Bryophyllum calycinum*, when placed on the surface of damp soil, exhibit little shoots all around their edge (Fig. 1296). The leaves of *Dionæa muscipula* (Fig. 237, p. 107), can also be made to produce buds, and so can those of species of *Gesnera*, *Gloxinia*, and *Achimenes*. Occasionally leaves take root and form plants, as was observed by Knight in *Mentha Piperita*.* Buds are formed accidentally on the leaves of *Drosera*, *Portulaca*, *Cardamine pratensis*, and *Nepeta Glechoma*. They are also formed on fleshy detached leaves, as on those of different species of *Crassula* and *Aloe*, on the bulb-scales of *Eucomis regia*, *Lilium candidum*, *Hyacinth*, and *Squill*, and on the leaves of *Ornithogalum thyrsoides*. The leathery leaves of *Ficus elastica*, *Hoya carnosa*, and of species of *Citrus*, *Aucuba*, and *Theophrasta*, are occasionally bud-bearing.†

976. In some instances plants, in place of producing seeds, bear peculiar bud-like bodies on their floral axis. This occurs in what are called viviparous or proliferous plants, such as *Festuca ovina var. vivipara*, *Aira alpina*, *A. cæspitosa var. vivipara*, *Poa alpina*, *Cynosurus cristatus*, *Polygonum viviparum*, and in some species of *Allium*. In these viviparous plants (which are often alpine) alterations take place in different parts of the flower by which young plants are produced. In *Poa alpina*, Dickie‡ noticed that the paleæ are the parts which chiefly deviate from the usual condition; they acquire an increase of development, perform all the functions of leaves, and possess the property of striking root when brought into contact with the soil. In *Polygonum viviparum* the perfect flowers are chiefly at the apex of the rachis, and the bud-like bodies are below, and consist of a central cellular amylaceous mass covered by scales. In *Saxifraga cernua* the gemmæ are somewhat similar. When detached from the parent they send out cellular roots, and the central part gives origin to the new plant. *Saxifraga foliolosa*, an arctic plant, has no perfect flowers, but is reproduced by leafy buds.

977. Besides this natural mode of propagation by gemma, new plants are also produced by divisions of the stem and branches. Many of the lower class of plants increase by a constant division of their axis or filaments. In the higher plants similar modes of propagation occur. Thus the Potato is naturally reproduced by means of tubers which are shortened under-ground branches, and sections of tubers containing buds (eyes) produce separate plants. When some under-ground stems are cut to pieces every fragment is capable of giving origin to buds and new plants. This may be seen in many *Carices* growing in sand, in creeping grasses, and in the Horse-radish. Hence the difficulty of eradicating these plants. When the stem of a tree is cut off we frequently perceive an abundant production of leaf-buds on the trunk which remains in the soil. Pollard-trees become very bushy by the production of numerous branches. Pollarding

* Knight, *Physiol. Papers*, p. 270.

† Munter, *Bot. Zeit.* for 1845, p. 537

‡ Dickie, *Notes on Viviparous plants*, in *Ann of Nat Hist* 1st ser \ 297

may be practised with most dicotyledonous trees, but it does not succeed in Coniferæ.

978. By means of slips or cuttings of the stem, gardeners propagate plants, more especially important varieties. These slips may be at once put into the soil, as in the case of Willows and Cactuses, and be made to put forth roots, or to strike, as it is called. By cuttings gardeners propagate Gooseberries, Currants, Figs, Vines, and some other plants. In deciduous trees the operation is best performed in winter. Sometimes gardeners employ layering, by bending down a branch into the earth, keeping it there with pegs, allowing it to form roots, and then cutting it off from the parent stem. In order to cause layers to form roots, they sometimes make a slit or notch on the shoot, or put a ligature round it, or ring the bark. In striking cuttings of plants, it is of great importance to attend to heat, light, and moisture, and to supply them in proper proportion. In causing cuttings to strike, we require a somewhat higher temperature than that of the climate in which they naturally grow. A Willow-cutting stuck in the open ground will strike root, but it does so much faster and more vigorously if placed in a hot-bed. A White-thorn cutting in the open ground will not root at all; in a warm propagating house it will do so readily. It is not the temperature of the atmosphere, but the temperature of the soil that requires to be raised. We must first obtain roots and then leaves will follow. The cellular tissue of roots is first produced by a local process, and the production of this tissue is kept up by the heat of the soil. Hence the necessity for bottom heat, in order to secure good roots in the first instance; and without them there will be no vigorous leaf-buds. Cuttings of different plants may, by being covered with wax, or by being placed in damp clay or moss, be transported to a distance. In this way slips of various fruit-trees, as well as of herbaceous plants, as Begonias, have been sent to a great distance.*

979. Another mode of propagating plants is by grafting, or by taking a part of one plant and making it grow upon another plant. This process sometimes takes place naturally. The branches of trees, when they come into contact, especially when there is an abrasion of the bark, unite. A curious instance of this is seen at the old burying-place of the M'Nabs at Killin. Old stems of the Ivy frequently show this natural grafting.† The roots of the Spruce Fir on the Alps

* In noticing the modes of sending slips to India, Falconar gives the following directions:—Cut the slips early in winter (November), selecting oldish, firm twigs, with the greatest number of buds; roll them up separately in cotton, after covering the wounds at the ends with cobbler's wax, or some similar composition. Make them up into bundles of from six to ten each, and wrap these bundles separately in cotton, colled round them with moderate firmness; twenty to forty slips are enough for one packet. Put a wrapper or two of paper around the whole, and finish with an envelope of stout silk or even cloth, freely spread over on the inside with India rubber in the liquid or adhesive state, so that the side and end folds may stick in close apposition, making the whole air and water tight. In this way slips have been sent to Saharunpoor by Bombay (a distance of 7000 miles from Falmouth), in a state fit for planting when transmitted in less than two months.

† Specimens of this natural grafting may be seen in the Edinburgh Museum of Economic Botany.

sometimes unite by natural grafting, and thus, after the trees have been cut down, the old stumps continue to live. The following instance of remarkable root-grafting is recorded by Lindley. Two Carrots, red Surrey and white Belgian, grew so close that each twisted half round the other, and they became united. The red Carrot, with its small overgrown part above the junction, took the colour and large dimensions of the white, which in like manner, with its larger head above the joining, took the colour and small dimensions of the red one at and below the union. The roots were joined by a narrow neck, their upper and lower portions remaining separate. Each gave to its companion its own qualities, and received from the other its qualities. The white-headed Belgian Carrot gave a white extremity to its red companion, while the red-headed Surrey Carrot gave a red extremity to its pale-coloured companion.

980. The subject of grafting has received particular attention from Thouin and D'Albret.* The discovery of the art of grafting is said to be of the highest antiquity, but its inventor is not known. The Phœnicians transmitted it to the Carthaginians and Greeks, and the Romans received it from the latter. The authors who have treated of the art in some detail are—Theophrastus, Aristotle, and Xenophon among the Greeks; Inago among the Carthaginians; Varro, Pliny the naturalist, Virgil, Agricola, in Italy; Sickler in Germany; Bradley, Miller, and Forsyth, in England; Olivier de Serres, La Quintinie, Duhamel, Rosier, Cabanis, Thouin and D'Albret, in France. By grafting we propagate many woody, resinous, soft, or herbaceous plants, which either supply seeds rarely, or are difficult to strike from cuttings or layers. We propagate certain varieties, valued either for their fruit, the structure and form of flower, their colour, perfume, the nature of their wood, their general aspect, or the shades and variation of their foliage.

981. There are certain important requisites which must be attended to in grafting. In the case of Dicotyledonous trees, care must be taken to bring the growing parts into contact—the two alburnums and the two libers. We cannot expect that the old wood of trees, in which the active processes of plant life have ceased, will unite. In the case of Monocotyledonous trees, grafting does not succeed well. The plants on which grafting is practised must be botanically allied, or at all events there must be a similarity in the composition of their sap. Union may take place between plants which, in their natural state, require the same chemical ingredients in the same proportions. This is generally the case with varieties of the same species, more rarely with plants of different species, and least frequently with such as belong to different genera. The Lemon may be grafted on the Orange, because, as Lindley says, the sap of the latter contains all the

* Thouin, *Mémoires sur les Greffes*, in *Annales du Museum*, xvi. 209 and 360, xvii. 84; also article *Grefte*, in *Dict d'Agriculture*, 1822 D'Albret, *Cours Theorique et Pratique de la Taille des Arbres Fruitiers*, 1851.

oats, and saline substances which the former requires, and can supply them in sufficient quantity to the engrafted twig. But the Fig or the Grape would not flourish and ripen fruit on the same stock, because these fruits require other substances than the root of the Orange extracts from the soil, or in greater quantity than the sap of the Orange can supply them. The sap of the stock, in order that grafting may be successful, must contain all that the engrafted bud or shoot requires in every stage of its growth. If the potash or lime required by the Grape be not taken up, and in sufficient quantity, by the root of the Orange, it will be in vain to graft the former upon the latter, with the hope of its coming to maturity or yielding perfect fruit.

982. Grafting of varieties on the stem of the species whence they are derived is very common, and is constantly practised with Roses, Camellias, Apples, &c. Species of the same genus are also frequently united. The Peach (*Amygdalus persica*) may be grafted on the Almond (*Amygdalus communis*), the Apricot (*Prunus Armeniaca*) on the Plum (*Prunus domestica*), the Plum on the Cherry (*Prunus Cerasus*), and the Pavia (*Æsculus Pavia*) on the Horse-chestnut (*Æsculus Hippocastanum*). But the operation will not succeed between the Horse-chestnut and the Almond. Genera of the same natural order also may sometimes be united. Thus the Pear (*Pyrus communis*) may be grafted on the Quince (*Cydonia vulgaris*), or on the Thorn (*Cratægus Oxyacantha*), or on the Amelanchier (*A. vulgaris*), all of these belonging to the natural order Rosaceæ. The Lilac (*Syringa vulgaris*) is said to adhere to the Ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), and to *Phillyrea latifolia*; the Olive (*Olea europea*) to the Ash; the Chionanthus to the Ash and Lilac; all belonging to the natural order Oleaceæ. The Chestnut (*Castanea vesca*) may be grafted on the Oak (*Quercus Robur*), in the family of Amentifereæ; and *Bignonia radicans* on *Catalpa*, in Bignoniaceæ.

983. There are marked instances of plants which seem to be allied, and yet which cannot be grafted on each other. Thus Chestnuts will not graft on Beeches, nor Apples on Pears. As regards the persistence of leaves, it is in general necessary that the plants should correspond. But to this there are exceptions. Some Evergreens can be grafted on deciduous plants. *Prunus Laurocerasus* and *P. lusitanica*, both Evergreens, live for some time grafted on the Bird Cherry (*Prunus Padus*), and are less sensible to cold than those growing on their own roots. *Eriobotrya japonica* and *E. glabra*, also Evergreens, live for a very long time grafted on the Hawthorn (*Cratægus Oxyacantha*). The Cedar of Lebanon, grafted on the Common Larch, lives upwards of ten years, but it remains stunted and dwarf.

984. Although the general law is, that grafting can only take place between plants, especially trees, of the same family, there are certain exceptions. Lorantheous parasites can form a union with genera in different orders. Thus the Mistleto has been found on the

Apple, Pear, Service-tree, Almond, belonging to Rosaceæ; Robinia, belonging to Leguminosæ; Ash, Oak, Poplar, Willow, belonging to Amentiferæ; Walnut, in Juglandaceæ; Spruce and Larch, in Coniferæ; Ash, in Oleaceæ. In these parasites, however, the process by which they adhere is not ordinary grafting. The seeds, and not the buds or slips, are applied to the stems on which they grow, and certain root-like processes are sent inwards. The habits of the plants are, moreover, such that they can accommodate themselves in a remarkable way to different kinds of nutriment. In ordinary circumstances, we cannot indiscriminately graft one plant upon another. The statements, however, made by Virgil* and Pliny† on this subject show that the ancients were of a different opinion. Pliny talks of seeing one plant bearing numerous kinds of different fruits. This can only be accounted for by the practice called *Grefte des charlatans*, which consists in cutting down a tree, hollowing out its trunk, and inserting numerous different plants in the centre, with their roots in the soil. In the course of years the young plants fill up the trunk, and appear as if they came from one stem; and the deception is rendered more complete when the trunk has not lost its vitality, and is able to push out buds with leaves.

985. The mode in which grafting is accomplished varies. Thouin has described about a hundred different ways, and D'Albret has written a volume on the subject. The mode of grafting may be divided into three—1. grafting by approach; 2. by slips or scions; and, 3. by buds. Grafting by approach or inarching is performed between two plants growing near each other. Wounds exactly similar are made on the parts which are to be grafted, and the boughs are brought into contact at the wounds thus produced, and are tied together so as to be kept in union. In this kind of grafting both the plants to be united live on their own roots, and mutually co-operate to form a union. The two plants so grafted may be allowed to live together during their united existence, or one of the plants may be cut off (headed down) after the grafting has been effected. In the last case the object is to transfer valuable species to stocks of a hardier and more vigorous nature. By inarching, many fine trees and shrubs are propagated; some large trees in parks and forests are made to assume an agreeable and picturesque aspect; and we are sometimes enabled to produce curved or angular timber, useful for the navy and in the arts. Inarching is performed when the sap is in full flow in spring.

986. In grafting by slips or scions the parts are cut in various ways. The slip cut from the one tree is called the graft or scion,

* "Et steriles platani malos gessære valentes,
Castaneæ fagos, ornusque incanuit albo
Flore pyri, glandemque suos fregere sub ulmis."—*Virgil*, *Georg.* ii. 70.

† "Tot modis insitam arborem vidimus juxta Tiburtes Tullias omni genere pomorum ornustam alio ramo nucibus, alio baccis, aliunde vite, ficis, piris, puniciis, malorumque generibus, sed huic brevis fuit vita."—*Plin.* lib. xvii. c. 16, sect. 26.

while the other tree to which it is united is called the stock. The stocks employed for ordinary fruits have been divided into two kinds—tree-stocks and dwarfing-stocks. The former consist of plants which naturally attain the same size as those from which the grafts or scions are taken; the second are plants of diminutive size. The usual dwarfing-stock for Apples is the Paradise or Doucin, for Pears the Quince, for Plums the Bullace, and for Cherries *Prunus Mahaleb*. The most common kind of grafting is called whip-grafting or tongue-grafting (Fig. 1297). The top of the stock and the base of the scion or graft are cut off obliquely at corresponding angles; a horizontal cut is then made near the top of the stock, *a*, and a slit made downwards in the centre of its sloping face; a similar slit in an upward direction is made in the scion, *b*. The tongue or cleft process of the stock is then inserted between the lips of the cut in the scion, and they are closely adjusted and united by clay or other means. Side-grafting resembles whip-grafting, but is performed on the side of the stock without heading it down.

987. Cleft-grafting consists in cutting the trunk, branches, shoots, and even roots of plants, and making in the section a cleft, which usually divides it into two equal parts, for the introduction of kindred grafts, in order that these may be nourished by the stock (Fig. 1298). Sometimes a wedge-shaped slit is made on one side of the stock for the insertion of a slip (Fig. 1299). We must join as exactly as possible all the parts of the graft operated upon with those of the cleft made in the stock; the liber especially should coincide. Grafts having leaves should be kept for a certain number of days in a moist temperature of 60° or 75° in a still atmosphere, and not exposed to bright light. This grafting is usually practised at 4-6 inches above the ground, and rarely higher than 32 feet. The thickness of the stocks varies from $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch. Crown-grafting is performed by heading down the stock by a horizontal section, and inserting numerous grafts between its bark and wood, so as to form a sort of crown round it. An old method of grafting was called wimble or peg-grafting, in which a slip was inserted in a perforation or hole made in the stock. Flute or tubular grafting is rarely practised. It is performed by heading down the stock, so as to leave a few inches of clear bark next the cut. The bark is then split into longitudinal slips, which are turned down. A scion is taken of the same length as the part of the stock laid bare; the bark is detached by rubbing, the wood is pulled out, so as to leave the bark hollowed, which is then applied like a flute over the bare stem of the stock, and is properly fitted to it. If the bark is too large, a bit is cut out, and if it is too small, a slit is made, and one of the slips of the bark of the stock is made to supply the space.

988. Another mode of propagation is by means of buds taken from one plant and applied to the cut surface of another plant (Fig. 1300). This process is called budding, or grafting by buds. It consists in the removal of a portion of the bark bearing a bud from one

plant, and inserting it in a slit of the bark of another tree. The stock on which the bud is placed has a portion of bark removed in the way represented in Figure 1300, *a*, flaps at the side being left so as to

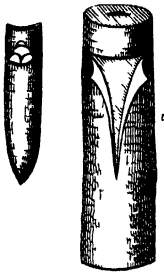


Fig. 1300

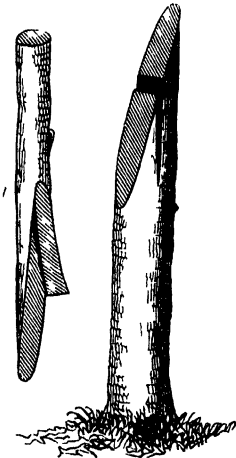


Fig 1297

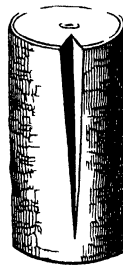


Fig. 1299

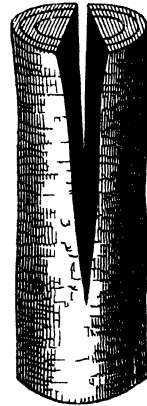


Fig 1298

cover a portion of the inserted bark, which is represented at *b*, with the bud or eye on it. The bud is tied down by bast. This kind of grafting is practised in spring and autumn, and is constantly employed for the multiplication of fruit trees. Budding is a kind of transplant

Fig 1297 Whip or tongue grafting. The stock, *a* is cut in such a way as to have a long, cleft process into which the slip or scion *b* similarly cut is inserted.

Fig. 1298 Cleft grafting, in which the stock *a* is split across so as to allow the insertion of the slip or scion *b* which is cut in such a way as to fit the wound in the stock.

Fig. 1299 A kind of cleft grafting in which the cleft is made at one side of the stock *t* and the scion, *b* is prepared so as to fit it.

Fig 1300 Propagation by budding. *a* The stock the bud of which is cut so as to receive the bud *b*. The cut edges of the bark of the stock are folded over the portion of bark bearing the bud after its insertion in the triangular wound.

ing. In ordinary transplanting, a tree is dug out of the ground at one place and removed to another. In budding, a piece is cut out of the stem of one tree, and is removed to another. The earth is the source of food to the former; elements already extracted from the earth are the nutriment of the latter. If from any cause a transplanted tree loses its fluid contents faster than it can get more from the earth, it dies; if a bud loses its fluid contents faster than it can get more from the living tissue to which it has been transferred, it also perishes. The leaf-bud of a tree consists of a central vital point, over which a skin of bark is drawn. If the growing point is destroyed, the bud perishes. It forms what is named the eye of the bud, and being brittle and tender, easily snaps off when the wood of the bud is jerked out. Great care is necessary in keeping the bud entire. The bark of the stock should run freely, so that the wood may completely separate. This takes place most readily in half-ripe young wood. Grafting succeeds best in plants with woody stems, but occasionally it is practised in herbaceous plants with success. The latter kind of grafting was adopted by Tschudy.* The graft is inserted in the axil of the leaf of the stock. In ordinary grafting, clay, or a mixture of bees-wax and tallow, are used for covering the grafted parts. Bits of India-rubber $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch broad are used for fastening grafts on slender stocks or branches.

989. Several advantages are derived from the multiplication of vegetables by grafts. We are enabled to perpetuate remarkable varieties which could not be produced by seed; we procure quickly many valuable trees, which are with difficulty multiplied by other means; we hasten the period of fruit-bearing; and we improve and propagate varieties of fruit trees. In the case of cultivated Apples and Pears, the seeds of our best fruits, such as the Ribston Pippin, the Nonpareil, and the Jargonelle, if sown, will not produce plants bearing these varieties of fruit, but they will have a tendency to reproduce the original species, viz., the Crab-apple or Pear. In the Peach orchards of America the kernels of the finest sorts are seldom found to produce trees bearing fruit fit for the table. It is said that one hundred seeds of the Golden Pippin, when sown in good soil, will produce large-leaved Apple trees, bearing fruit of a considerable size; but the tastes and colours of each will be different, and none will be the same in kind with the Pippin; some will be sweet, some bitter, some sour, some mawkish, some aromatic, some yellow, others green, red, or streaked. Such is the usual case with the seeds of cultivated Apples. Many seeds of the Ribston Pippin and of the Nonpareil have been raised, and none of the progeny have inherited the peculiar flavour and excellence of the parents. Seedlings from the same tree differ, and even pips from the same apple produce different kinds of fruit. There is a strong tendency in the plants raised from seeds of cultivated fruits to return to the state of wildings. By means of grafting we are enabled to continue esteemed varieties, and at the same

* Tschudy, Essai sur la Greffe de l'Herbe, des Plantes, et des Arbres, 1819

time to impart vigour to young slips by putting them on good and well-grown stocks.

990. The seeds of certain plants have a tendency to *sport*, as it is called, especially when highly cultivated and supplied with abundance of good nutriment. This is the case with the seed of the Crab-fruit when sown in good soil. By the art of the gardener an improvement is produced in fruit naturally sour and inedible. The seeds of such fruits, especially after a long period of cultivation, have a tendency to produce plants which bear fruit of a better quality than the Crab. Plants showing such a tendency are carefully preserved, and slips are taken from them and grafted on well grown stocks, and thus additional vigour is imparted. Grafting has the effect of supplying to the scion a store of nutriment ready prepared and at once fitted for use. Moreover, the nature of the stock imparts often certain qualities to the fruit borne by the graft. The flavour of the Greengage Plum is said to differ according to the tree on which it grows, and this is said also to be the case with some varieties of Cherry. The process of ennobling fruit trees is by grafting slips on excellent stocks. Grafting sometimes changes the habit of the plant. Thus the *Prunus canadensis*, which in its natural state is a shrub, becomes an erect tree when grafted on the Plum. Such is also the case with *Cytisus sessilifolius* when grafted on the Laburnum, and with *Cerasus Chamæcerasus* on the Cherry. The Lilac grafted on the Ash becomes a tree. While some plants become more hardy by grafting, others become more delicate.

991. Mr. Knight entertained the idea that the only true mode of continuing plants was by seed, and that a young shoot taken from an old tree could not be made to live longer than the natural term of life of the tree from which it was taken. On this principle he accounted for the disappearance, or at least the scarcity, of many well-known fruits, such as the Red Streak, the Golden Pippin, and the Golden Harvey. According to Mr. Knight's theory, the vegetable individual is a plant which has originated from the development of a single seed; this individual may consist of many detached portions, each of which may exist apart from the others. A cutting of a tree is a part of the individual from which it was taken, and although it may have become a tree, still, according to Knight's view, it is no more than a developed state of a portion of the original plant. All parts of a tree are viewed as having a common end of their life, and different trees raised from one and the same tree by grafts are considered as decaying about the same time as the parent plant.

992. These views have not been confirmed by the observations of physiologists. Experiments show that young shoots of old trees, when used as grafts or slips, furnish as vigorous plants as the shoots of young trees. Even the terminal bud of some Palms, as the Date, has been removed at a time when vegetation was beginning to decrease in an old tree, and has been planted and produced a vigorous plant. A whole series of cultivated plants, such as the Vine, the Hop, the Italian

Poplar, and the Weeping Willow, are constantly propagated by division without any decreased power of vegetation being observed. Dr. Graham cut a twig of a Willow which, according to Mr. Knight, was dying of old age, and he transferred it to the Edinburgh Botanic Garden, where it is now a large and vigorous tree, although the individual from which it was taken died long ago.

993. Dr. Fleming, in the Quarterly Journal of Agriculture, refutes Knight's views, by showing that there are numerous plants which are propagated naturally by buds of various kinds, and that many such extensions are known to outlive the plants from which they are taken. Lindley remarks, there is no truth in the statement that propagation by seed is the only natural method of reproduction in plants. Many are propagated naturally by stems, bulbs, and tubers. The Sugar-cane propagates by the stem which, when blown down by a storm, emits roots at every joint, the Tiger-lily propagates by bulbs, the Jerusalem Artichoke and the Potato by tubers, and the species of Achimenes by scaly bodies like tubers. Such modes of propagation do not cause debility. The wild Strawberry has been more propagated by runners than by seeds, and yet there are no signs of decay. The Jerusalem Artichoke was introduced in 1617, and has been propagated by tubers, and yet there is no debility. The Couch-grass is propagated by its creeping stems, and yet, unfortunately for the farmer, it is as vigorous as ever.

994. There is no evidence of plants multiplied by division wearing out. The White Beurré Pears of France have been propagated thus from time immemorial. Cultivated Vines have been transmitted by perpetual division from the time of the Romans. The *Vitis præcox* of Columella is admitted by Dr. Henderson, on the best authority, to have been the Maurillon or Early Black July Grape of the present day; the Nomentana to have been the German Trammer; the Græcula, the modern Corinth or Currant; and the Dactyle, our Cornichons or Finger Grapes. The Golden Pippin and the Golden Harvey are still in the market. The former is among the most vigorous Apples of Madeira, and grows well in the London Horticultural Society's Garden. The Old Nonpareil was known in the time of Queen Elizabeth. Any scarcity in the production of these Apples must be attributed not to old age, but to negligence or want of care in cultivation. There is however no doubt that cultivated plants become feeble by the influence of various causes, such as exhaustion of the soil, improper food, mutilation, the effects of cold, &c. It is also true that seeds or slips taken from diseased and weak plants will partake often to a certain degree of the constitution of the plants from which they have been taken.

995. While numerous experiments have proved that the young shoots of old trees, when used as grafts, furnish as vigorous plants as the shoots of young trees, and that Knight's views in regard to there being one common period of death for all parts of a tree, are erroneous, there is still wanting definite information as to the age which trees

attain. The duration of their life has not been accurately determined. It exceeds so much the limit of man's life that it is not easy to collect data on the subject. Some exogenous trees attain a very great age. Trees which, in individual cases, attain great ages, belong to the most different natural families. Among them may be mentioned the Baobab, the Dragon-tree, species of *Eucalyptus*, *Taxodium distichum*, *Pinus Lambertiana*, *Hymenæa Courbaril*, species of *Cæsalpinia* and *Bombax*, the Mahogany tree, the Banyan, the Tulip-tree, the Oriental Plane, Limes, Oaks, and Yews.*

996. Mr. Knight, from adopting his peculiar theory of propagation, was led to set about producing new varieties of fruits from seeds. He procured seeds from the most esteemed varieties, cultivated them highly, selected those which gave the best promise of good fruit, grafted them on vigorous stocks, and thus he was enabled to produce the Acton Scott Peach, the Ingestrie and Downton Apples, and many others. He also effected valuable improvements in fruit by hybridizing. He found that a Crab fertilized by pollen from good fruiting plants, produced better kinds from seeds than could be had from seeds of improved fruits. Van Mons has also adopted means of producing improved varieties of fruit from seed. The following is the method he pursues:†—Seeds of cultivated varieties, or of wildings which have sprung from cultivated varieties, are sown. The plants from this sowing are reared and made to fruit as quickly as possible. Another generation is raised from these seeds. Thus he goes on always sowing the seeds of the last raised generation. Good new sorts are thus sometimes obtained amongst those of the second or third generation. But each successive generation is characterised by a more general amelioration than that of its predecessor, till at last a high degree of excellence is obtained. Of some fruits, good varieties are obtained from the third sowing. In others, after the fourth or fifth. In Pears, after the sixth or seventh. The varieties are afterwards propagated by grafting.

997. Some maintain that the stock and scion are incapable of producing any influence upon each other respectively, and that each retains to the last its own peculiar quality. This seems to be true, so far as their visible organisation is concerned; for when grafted trees are cut down, the timber of the stock and scion remains just what it is in cases where no grafting has taken place, and the shoots that pro-

* De Candolle gives the following list of some remarkable trees, the ages of which had been ascertained:—

	Years.		Years.
Elm (<i>Ulmus campestris</i>), about	335	Olive (<i>Olea europæa</i>)	700
Cypress (<i>Cupressus sempervirens</i>)	350	Oriental Plane (<i>Platanus orientalis</i>)	720
Cheirostemon platanoides	400	Cedar (<i>Cedrus Libani</i>)	800
Ivy (<i>Hedera Helix</i>)	450	Lime (<i>Tilia europæa</i>)	1076, 1147
Larch (<i>Larix europæa</i>)	576	Oak (<i>Quercus Robur</i>)	810, 1080, 1500
Chestnut (<i>Castanea vesca</i>)	600	Yew (<i>Taxus baccata</i>)	1214, 1158, 2568, 2880
Orange (<i>Citrus Aurantium</i>)	630	<i>Taxodium distichum</i>	3000 or 4000
Some Palms (<i>Ceroxylon</i> and <i>Cocos</i>)	600-700	Baobab (<i>Adansonia digitata</i>) about	5000

† Poiteau, *Annal. Soc. d'Hort. de Paris*, 1819.

ced from them generally manifest in like manner exactly their original nature. In grafting an early Hawthorn on a late, and *vice versa*, it was found by the Archbishop of Dublin that the scions kept their times (about a fortnight difference), as if on their own stocks.* If we bud a Peach upon a Plum, each retains its own peculiar foliage. There can be no doubt, however, that the nature of the stock has a decided effect on the slip or scion, both as regards its nutritive and its reproductive organs. Thus it is stated that Pears grafted on the Mountain Ash are rendered more hardy, and bear fruit earlier; and when grafted on Quinces they become higher coloured. Apples grafted on the Siberian Bitter-sweet Apple are more highly coloured than when grafted on the Crab. Peaches on Plum stocks are coarser than on Peach stocks. The Beurré-Diel grafted on the Thorn produces hard fruit. This shows that the stock has an influence on the graft, and points out the importance of selecting stocks of good quality. The plan of ennobling fruit trees proceeds on the principle of grafting on superior stocks. Treffz made some experiments, from which it appeared that this ennobling process had a marked effect on the fruit of Apples, Currants, Gooseberries, Apricots, and Quinces.

998. In some instances it appears that the slip or scion has a decided effect on the stock. Thus, according to Hales, if we bud the variegated Jasmine on a non-variegated one, it sometimes happens that the buds sent out from the latter bear variegated leaves. It is reported that at Chelsea the variegated White Jasmine was budded upon a branch of a fine plant of Revolute Jasmine with green leaves, and in the succeeding year a slight appearance of variegation came out on the leaves of the Revolute Jasmine. The next year the branch which had been budded was cut out, so that the Revolute Jasmine was thus apparently deprived of all influence from the variegated bud. Nevertheless, the variegation in the remainder of the plant continued to increase, and the leaves and branches ultimately became all variegated, even more than the White Jasmine, whose bud was originally inserted. A variegated Ash graft has also caused variegation in the leaves of a common Ash stock. At Morningside, near Edinburgh, Mr. Evans states there is an instance of *Pyrus Aria* grafted on *Pyrus Aucuparia*, in which the stock, about two feet below the point of junction, has produced leaves resembling those of the graft along with those peculiar to itself.

999. Recapitulation of the chief facts relative to the propagation of plants by slips and buds:—

1. The lower classes of plants frequently multiply by division and separation of cells.
2. The higher classes of plants are often propagated by the separation of buds and offsets.
3. In viviparous plants buds occupy the place of seeds.
4. Gardeners propagate particular varieties of plants by cuttings or layering.

5. Cuttings may either be inserted at once in the soil, or may be placed upon other plants by the process of grafting. In the latter case the slip or cutting is called the graft or scion, while the plant in which it is inserted is called the stock.
6. Grafting succeeds best with woody plants, but occasionally the parts of herbaceous plants may be united.
7. By grafting, varieties are continued which could not be propagated by seed, especially many which are valued for their flowers or fruit; at the same time the period of fruit-bearing is hastened.
8. Grafting can only be successfully performed between allied plants, more particularly individuals of the same species, and species of the same genus; occasionally allied genera can be united.
9. The various modes of grafting may be included under inarching, grafting by slips, and budding.
10. In grafting it is of importance to place the active growing parts of the plants in contact, and to keep them in apposition.
11. Good varieties of fruit are produced by sowing the seed in good soil, and by grafting on good stocks.
12. The seeds of the finest varieties of Apples, when sown, have a tendency to produce plants like the Crab-apple—the original species—and it is only by high cultivation and grafting that they can be perpetuated.
13. The stock has an effect on the graft or scion; hence the propriety of grafting on good stocks, which is denominated ennobling.
14. Mr. Knight supposed that all parts of a tree have one common period of death, and that young grafts taken from old trees would die at the same period as the plants whence they were taken.
15. He attributed the scarcity of many of the fine Apples of the 17th century to the fact that the original plants having died from old age, all the slips taken from them had also reached the limit of their existence.
16. He thought that reproduction by seed was the only true way of continuing the plant.
17. These views have not been confirmed by physiologists, who have shown that many plants are propagated naturally by buds and shoots and yet do not decrease in vigour; and that the failure of certain fruits is due to defect in management, and not to old age.
18. The age which trees attain has not been fully determined; some live for many centuries.
19. While the stock has a decided influence on the graft, it is also found in some instances that the latter has an effect on the former.
20. A plant with variegated leaves grafted on one with green leaves has sometimes caused variegation in the leaves of the stock.

CHAPTER XII.

DEVELOPMENT OF HEAT, LIGHT, AND ELECTRICITY BY PLANTS.

1000. *Temperature of Plants.*—We have already seen that, during the periods of flowering and germination, a considerable amount of heat is evolved (p. 519, 633). This seems to depend on the combination between the oxygen of the air and the carbon of the plant, and is accompanied with the formation of grape sugar and the evolution of carbonic acid. The heat at these stages of growth is often very evident, more especially in cases where numerous germinating seeds are placed together, and numerous flowers are enclosed in a common covering. The phenomenon requires to be noticed in circumstances in which the heat cannot be carried off rapidly by the air or the soil.* It is a matter of interest to determine whether or not heat is produced during the ordinary vital actions going on in the cells and vessels of plants. The investigation of this point has called forth the labours of several physiologists. Hunter instituted a series of experiments respecting the temperature of trees. He bored holes to the depth of ten or twelve inches in the trunks of trees, and inserted thermometers. He found that in spring, autumn, and winter the temperature of the internal part of a tree was usually about two degrees above that of the air. The results, however, were variable, and no satisfactory conclusions were deduced.† Schoepf, Bierkander, Maurice, and Pictet made similar experiments, and they agree in giving to trees with thick trunks a temperature lower than that of the air during great heat, and higher than that of the air during extreme cold.

1001. An extensive series of observations were made by Schubler at Tubingen by putting thermometers into holes which penetrated to the centre of the trunks of Pines and other trees. He found that the

* Fourcroy et Vauquelin, Mém. sur la Germination et la Fermentation des Graines, in *Annales du Muséum*, vi 1

† Hunter, *Experiments on Animals and Vegetables*, with respect to the power of producing heat, in *Philos. Trans.* vol. 65, for 1775, p. 446.

temperature in the centre of a tree at sunrise, when the weather was clear, was higher than that of the surrounding atmosphere; and that at mid-day, or rather during the hottest part of the day, the contrary was the case. Schubler said that the tree was $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ colder than the air in summer, and $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to 3° warmer in spring.* While in Schubler's experiments the temperature of trees with tolerably thick stems never attained the extreme of the temperature of the atmosphere, Reaumur saw slender trees heated 18° to 29° above the temperature of the air in the sun.† In all these experiments the results seem to depend on the effects of the sun's rays, on evaporation, on the temperature of the soil as influencing the ascending sap, and on the bad conducting power of the wood.

1002. The temperature of a plant, that is, of its juices, Dr. Hooker finds to depend materially on that of the soil at its spongioles. A good large unripe Shaddock on the tree will maintain the same temperature on the plains of India with the thermometer in the air at mid-day at 110° , and at midnight at 68° , the black bulb in the sun at 150° , and the radiating thermometer at night at 58° , with the plant and fruit fully exposed to all these vicissitudes. He mentions that, when the surface sand in the valley of Soane was heated to 110° , the fresh juice of *Calotropis* was only 72° . This latter temperature he found at fifteen inches depth in the soil where the plant grew. The power which the plant has in maintaining a low temperature of 72° , though the main portion which is subterranean is surrounded by a soil heated between 90° and 100° , is remarkable, and is no doubt proximately due to the rapidity of evaporation from the foliage, and consequent activity in the circulation. Its exposed leaves maintained a temperature of 80° , nearly 25° lower than the similarly exposed sand and alluvium. On the same night the leaves were cooled down to 54° , when the sand had cooled to 51° . Before daylight the following morning the sand had cooled to 43° , and the leaves to 45.5° .‡ It appears that the internal temperature of the trunks of trees depends in a great measure on that of the soil at the depth to which the roots penetrate. The liquid taken up by the roots rising vertically in the trunk, and being at the degree of heat which the soil possesses at the depth of the roots, tends to warm the tree in the cold season, and to cool it in comparison with the air in the warm season.

1003. While the nutritive processes are going on in the plant there is a certain amount of heat produced. This, however, is speedily

* Schubler, ueber die Temperatur der Vegetabilien, in Poggendorf, Annalen x. 589, and Thomson's Chemistry of Vegetables, 956. Halder, Beobachtungen ueber die Temperatur der Vegetabilien, Tubingen, 1826. Goepfert sur le Développement de la chaleur dans les Plantes, Breslau, 1850, and Vienna, 1832.

† Mohl, on the Vegetable Cell, by Henfrey, p. 102.

‡ The sap of the Ice-plant (*Mesembryanthemum crystallinum*) is said to be colder than the surrounding air. John states that on 13th September, when engaged in examining it at Berlin, the thermometer in the shade stood at $54\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, but when plunged into the sap of this plant it sunk to 41° . Evaporation probably had a powerful effect.

carried away by evaporation and other causes, and is not easily rendered evident. Dutrochet, by means of Becquerel's thermo-electric needle, showed an evolution of heat in plants. In doing this he required to prevent evaporation by putting the plant in a moist atmosphere. In these circumstances the temperature of the active vegetating parts, the roots, the leaves, and the young shoots, indicated a temperature above the air of $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of a degree Fahrenheit. Van Beek and Bergsma, in their experiments on *Hyacinthus orientalis* and *Entelea arborescens*, found the proper heat of the active parts of plants about 1.8° F. above that of the air.* The vital or proper heat of plants, according to Dutrochet, is found chiefly in the green parts, and it undergoes a quotidian paroxysm, reaching the maximum during the day, and the minimum during the night. When stems become hard and ligneous, they lose this vital heat. Large green cotyledons gave indications of a proper heat. The hour of quotidian maximum varied from 10 A.M. to 3 P.M. in different plants.†

1004. The following are some of the observations made by Dutrochet in regard to the diurnal paroxysms of heat in the stem of *Euphorbia Lathyris* (Fig. 1111, p. 423):—

HOUE OF DAY.	Deviation of Thermo-electric Needle.	Proper Heat of Plant above the Atmosphere.	Temperature of the Atmosphere.
5th June.			
6 A.M.	$1\frac{1}{2}$	0.160° F.	62.24° F.
7 "	$1\frac{3}{4}$	0.198	62.24
8 "	2	0.324	62.24
9 "	3	0.324	62.42
10 "	4	0.450	62.60
11 "	4	0.500	62.96
12 "	$5\frac{1}{2}$	0.558	63.14
1 P.M.	$5\frac{1}{2}$	0.610	63.50
2 "	$4\frac{1}{2}$	0.500	63.86
4 "	3	0.216	63.68
6 "	1	0.108	63.50
8 "	$\frac{1}{2}$	0.054	62.96
9 "	$\frac{1}{4}$	0.027	62.60

The observations were continued on the 6th June with similar results, but the proper heat did not attain such a high maximum.

* Van Beek et Bergsma, sur la Température des Végétaux, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. vii. 90.

† Dutrochet, Recherches sur la Température propre des Végétaux, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. Bot. xi. 77, 84. See also Edin. New Phil. Journal, xxviii. 103. Dutrochet, sur la chaleur propre des êtres vivans à basse Température, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 2d ser. xiii. 5, 65

1005. The following are some of the results which Dutrochet obtained, with different species of plants :—

NAMES OF PLANTS	Hour of Maximum of Vital Heat.	Deviation of the Needle.	Maximum of Vital Heat.	Temperature of the Atmosphere.
<i>Rosa canina</i>	10 A.M.	3½	0.380° F.	71.60° F.
<i>Allium Porrum</i>	11 „	2	0.216	74.84
<i>Borago officinalis</i>	12 NOON.	1½	0.160	66.20
<i>Euphorbia Lathyris</i>	1 P.M.	5½	0.610	63.50
<i>Papaver somniferum</i>	1 „	3½	0.380	68.72
<i>Cactus flagelliformis</i>	1 „	2	0.216	67.10
<i>Helianthus annuus</i>	1 „	3¾	0.396	56.84
<i>Impatiens Balsamina</i>	1 „	1¾	0.198	60.80
<i>Ailanthus glandulosa</i>	1 „	2¾	0.290	71.60
<i>Campanula Medium</i>	2 „	5	0.558	61.16
<i>Sambucus nigra</i>	2 „	3½	0.380	66.74
<i>Lilium candidum</i>	2 „	4½	0.504	63.10
<i>Asparagus officinalis</i>	3 „	4	0.450	53.6
<i>Lactuca sativa</i>	3 „	1½	0.160	71.24

The hour of maximum varied from 10 A.M. to 3 P.M., and the temperature varied from about one-tenth to rather more than half a degree Fahrenheit. In the case of Fungi the following results were obtained :—

NAMES OF PLANTS	Deviation of the Needle.	Heat of Fungus above the Air	Temperature of the Atmosphere
<i>Agaricus eburneus</i>	3½	0.36° F.	68.90° F.
<i>Agaricus colubrinus</i>	1¾	0.18	68.36
<i>Agaricus annularius</i>	1¾	0.18	63.50
<i>Boletus æreus</i>	7¼	0.81	66.74
<i>Lycoperdon hirtum</i>	4½	0.47	70.06

1006. Rameaux* repeated the experiments relative to the temperature of the trunks of trees, and likewise those relating to the heat of the active vegetating parts of plants, and he came to the conclusion that the temperature of plants depends on two distinct sources—
 1. Organic actions going on in the young, soft, and herbaceous parts of plants, and which give rise to a temperature so slight that it requires delicate instruments to show it. 2. Meteorological influences, either immediate, as exercised on parts of plants exposed to the air, or mediate,

* Rameaux, des Températures Végétales, in Ann des Sc Nat 2d ser Bot xix 5

as exercised on the soil and on the sap which is drawn up from it; the former being the most energetic. He remarks that in a tree at any one instant there are as many different temperatures as there are points unequally accessible to external sources of heat; that the sum of all these temperatures, or the entire heat of the tree, augments and diminishes with the surrounding temperature; that the variations of temperature are more rapid and more intense in the superficial than in the deep layers, and that parts having a small diameter are cooled and heated with more rapidity and energy than those whose diameter is great; that during day the temperature of the different concentric layers of a tree diminishes in going from the surface to the centre, and that this diurnal distribution is established more or less quickly and completely according to the nature of the surrounding temperature and the diameter of tree; that during the night, on the contrary, the temperature of the different layers increases from the surface to the centre, the nocturnal distribution varying in the same way according to the surrounding temperature and the diameter; that the action of solar rays is the most powerful cause of the temperature of plants; and that the ascending sap increases or diminishes the temperature of the parts it traverses according as these parts have a temperature lower or higher than its own.

1007. Gardner* made experiments on the influence of the dew-point in vegetables, considered especially with reference to their temperature. He concludes that certain vegetables are without specific heat; that the variations, plus and minus the atmospheric air, observed in plants, are owing chiefly to the state of the dew-point, its elevation causing an increase of heat by checking evaporation, and its depression by favouring evaporation producing coldness; that the sensible heat of plants is directly as the atmospheric temperature and the chemical action going on in their cells, and inversely as the radiation, evaporation, and conduction of the soil and air.

1008. *Luminosity of Plants*.—Considerable differences of opinion exist as to the luminosity exhibited by plants. Light is undoubtedly given out by Fungi in certain circumstances, but the occurrence of luminous phenomena in the higher plants is still a matter of dispute. Luminosity has been noticed in many species of *Agaricus* growing on dead or decaying wood, such as *Agaricus olearius*, indigenous in the south of Europe; *Agaricus Gardneri*, in Goyaz, Brazil; *Agaricus igneus*, in the island of Amboyna; and *Agaricus noctilucens*, in Manilla. The first two are of an orange colour, the third of an ash colour, and the fourth white. The light of the *Agaric* of the Olive-grounds (*Agaricus olearius*) may be compared to that of phosphorus; it is a continued white light without scintillations, very bright when the plant is young and recently gathered. *Agaricus igneus* has a bluish light. The whole plant of *Agaricus Gardneri*

* Gardner, on the Influences of the dew-point on the Temperature of Vegetables, in *Annals of Philosophy* for 1842

gives out at night a bright phosphorescent light, somewhat similar to that emitted by the larger fire-flies, having a pale greenish hue. From this circumstance, and from growing on a Palm, it is called by the inhabitants of Villa de Natividade, Flor de Coco.*

1009. Drummond describes two species of *Agaricus* near the Swan River, which emit a most curious light.† They grow parasitically on trunks of trees such as *Banksias*. When placed on paper, the *Agarics* emitted by night a phosphorescent light sufficient to allow a person to read by it, and they continued to do so for several nights with gradually decreasing intensity as the plant dried up. Another phosphorescent *Agaric* was noticed by Mr. Drummond in Australia on the trunk of a dead *Eucalyptus occidentalis*. The upper surface of the pileus was nearly black, while the central portion and the gills were milk-white, the stipe being attached to one side of the pileus.

1010. Some species of *Rhizomorpha* are remarkable for the phosphorescence which they display. These plants vegetate in dark caverns, and in the coal mines of Germany. They are seen hanging from the roof in great numbers. Their luminous qualities are most developed in the furthest recesses of the mines.‡ Prestoc has noticed that the spawn of the Truffle (Fig. 1022, p. 345) is luminous, and that it may thus be collected at night in the Truffle-grounds. These are instances of luminosity in living Fungi, which disappears with life. Luminosity has also been observed in plants in a state of putrescence, as in rotten wood and in half-decayed potatoes.

1011. Tulasne has made observations on the light given out by *Rhizomorpha subterranea*. By preserving it in a proper state of humidity the phosphorescence was kept up for several evenings. When the Fungus began to dry it lost its luminosity.§ Tulasne considers the light as similar to the phosphorescence in decaying plants, and he concludes that the same agents, namely oxygen, water, and heat, furnish the combination necessary for producing phosphorescence, both in organized living beings and in those which have ceased to live. In both cases the luminous phenomenon accompanies a chemical reaction, which consists chiefly in the combination between organized matter and the oxygen of air, that is to say, a slow combustion, giving rise to carbonic acid. The light from *Rhizomorpha* and *Agaricus olearius*, as well as that from decaying wood, is stated by Meyen to be increased on plunging the plant or wood into oxygen gas; he attributes the phenomenon to chemical action going on both in living and in decayed tissues.

1012. The light given out by some Mosses, as *Schistostega osmundacea* and *Mnium punctatum*, depends on optical appearances, and

* Gardner, on a New Phosphorescent Species of *Agaricus*, in Hook. Journ. of Botany, ii. 426.

† Drummond, on a curious luminous species of Fungus, from the Swan River, in Lond. Journ. of Bot. i. 215.

‡ Humboldt, ueber unterirdische Gasarten—Nova Acta, xi. Part 2, 605. Nees Von Eschbeck, die unterirdischen Rhizomorphen, in Nova Acta, xi. Part 2, 603.

§ Tulasne, sur la Phosphorescence Spontanée de l'*Agaricus olearius*, du *Rhizomorpha subterranea*, et des Feuilles Mortes du Chêne—Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d. ser. Bot. ix. 338.

has nothing to do with the development of light from the substance of the plants. In the former the cellulose of the germinating plant swollen into little globules, and in the latter the small drops of water on the leaves, produce a glimmering by a peculiar refraction and reflection of the daylight. The light of *Schistostega* is of a delicate emerald green. Similar appearances were observed by Milde on the young frond or prothallus of Ferns.

1013. The younger Linnaeus states that the flowers of *Nasturtium*, the African Marigold, the orange Lily and other orange flowers, give out, at the end of a hot summer day, intermittent phosphorescence resembling little flashes of light. Dowden also mentions a luminous appearance of a similar nature in the common Marigold (*Calendula vulgaris*). He noticed it on the 4th of August 1842 at 8 p.m. after a week of very dry warm weather. A gold-coloured lambent light seemed to play from floret to floret, and to make a course round the disk of the flower.* James states that at Moseley in Worcestershire, after a hot dry day, the flashes of light from *Papaver pilosum* or hairy red Poppy, were observed by himself and others. The light given out by flowers has been remarked by various other observers. The plants in the flowers of which it has been observed are *Tropæolum majus*, *Helianthus annuus*, *Calendula officinalis*, *Tagetes erecta* and *patula*, *Lilium chalcedonicum* and *bulbiferum*, *Polyanthes tuberosa*, *Papaver orientale* and *pilosum*, *Chrysanthemum inodorum*, *Oenothera macrocarpa*, and *Gorteria rigens*. These luminous phenomena in flowers are considered by Professor Allman as being merely optical illusions. He says they are only seen in orange and gaudy flowers, and at twilight, not in darkness, and that they must be traced to an intermittent effect on the retina. Kützing agrees in thinking that the luminous appearances in flowering plants are illusory, and he quotes the following passage from Goethe in proof of this:—"On the 19th June 1799, late in the evening, when the twilight was passing into a clear night, as I was walking up and down with a friend in the garden, we remarked very plainly about the flowers of the Oriental Poppy, which were distinguishable above every thing else by their brilliant red, something like flame. We placed ourselves before the plant and looked steadfastly at it, but could not see the flash again, till we chanced in passing and repassing, to look at it obliquely, and we could then repeat the phenomenon at pleasure. It appeared to be an optical illusion, and that the apparent flash of light was merely the spectral representation of the blossoms of a blue-green."

1014. The sap of plants is said to be luminous in certain instances. Mornay† describes a tree in South America called *Cipó de Cunanam*,

* Dowden, on a Luminous Appearance of the Common Marigold, in *Brit. Assoc. Transactions* for 1843, p. 79. The experiment was made with the Double Marigold, which does not exhibit the phenomenon of folding its florets in the evening.

† Mornay, in *Philos. Trans.* for 1816, p. 279

with a milky juice, which gave out in the dark a bright light when wounded. The phosphorescent light appeared at every cut in the stem, and each drop of the milky juice was luminous. Martius also observed the same kind of light in the sap of *Euphorbia phosphorea*, a Brazilian plant, when wounded. When this was observed, the temperature was 97.25° F., but it ceased when the heat sank to 68° F.; he did not find that it affected the galvanometer in the least.* Senebier states that on one occasion, when confining an *Arum* in oxygen gas, it gave out light as well as heat. A fragment of a plant sent from the Madras Presidency, under the name of *Cardiospermum*, is said to be luminous. It was discovered in the jungle, and is said to cast a blaze of phosphoric light over all the grass in the vicinity. It has been celebrated by Indian writers. Lindley states that the dried fragment when moistened regained its phosphorescent appearance, shining in the dark like a dead fish or similar putrefying substance. The fragment became lustreless when dry, and acquired luminosity again when a moistened cloth was applied to its surface for an hour or two. Lindley thinks that it is the rhizome of some endogen with equitant leaves, and that it may perhaps be part of a *Cymbidium* or *Eulophia*, or a *Marica*. The rhizome of a grass called *Anthesteria anathera* is occasionally luminous by night in India during the rainy season. Other Grasses, as *Andropogon contortus* and *Iwaruncusa*, are reported to possess the same property.†

1015. *Electricity of Plants*.—Some observations have been made relative to the electricity of plants, which may be referred to at this place. Pouillet stated that electricity was developed during the ordinary process of growth in vegetables. Several pots filled with earth, and containing different seeds, were placed on an insulated stand in a chamber, the air of which was kept dry by quicklime. The stand was placed in connection with a condensing electrometer. At first no electric disturbance was manifested; but the seeds had scarcely sprouted when signs of it were evident; and when the young plants were in a complete state of growth they separated the gold leaves of the electrometer half an inch from each other. The exhalation from leaves may be considered as a cause of the development of electricity, as well as the changes effected by leaves on the oxygen and carbonic acid of the atmosphere. Plants are considered as generally in a nega-

* Martius, Reise nach Brasilien, i. 726. Meyen, ueber das Leuchten des Meeres, in Nova Acta, xvi. Part 2, 138.

† Madden, in the Journ. of Agricult. and Hort. Soc. of India for 1850.

For further remarks on the luminosity of plants, consult Gesner, de Raris et Admirandis Plantis quæ sive quod noctu luceant sive alias ob causas Lunaræ dicuntur, Tiguri, 1555. Meyen, Neues Syst. der Pflanzen Physiol. ii. 192. Schleiden, Principles of Botany—translated by Lankester, pp. 542, 543, where numerous bibliographical references are given.

In the case of *Dictamnus Fraxinella*, it is reported that in a still warm evening the resinous vapour given off by the plant is in such abundance as to take fire when a flame is applied to it. The writer of the work entitled Garden Flowers says, that on a fine summer evening in June, before the twilight had commenced, he held a light about half an inch from the flower, when the vapour which it emitted took fire, and a beautiful blue flame ran over every part of the plant, which was about three feet high. It occupied half a minute in progress, and the plant was not injured.

tively electrical state. Dr. Graves thinks that in this way in tropical climates, where the superincumbent atmosphere is rendered positively electrical by evaporation from the sea, the negative state of plants leads to thunder storms. It is said that the pith and bark, as well as the two extremities of fruits, are in opposite states of electricity.

1016. Wartmann has made an extensive series of observations on the influence of atmospheric electricity, and that of the battery, in the development of plants; on the influence of electricity on the circulation of the sap; and on the electric currents existing in the soil and in plants. He states that there are electric currents in almost all parts of plants; that in the roots, stems, and branches, there exists a central descending current and a peripheral ascending one; that there are also lateral currents between the pith and the cambium; that the electric state of the soil, and probably also the exhalation which takes place by the organs furnished with stomata, influences the electricity of the atmosphere around.* Becquerel says that in the act of vegetation the earth acquires continually an excess of positive electricity, the bark and part of the wood an excess of negative electricity: that the leaves act like the green part of the parenchyma of the bark—that is to say, the sap which circulates in their tissues is negative with relation to the wood, to the pith, and to the earth, and positive with regard to the cambium; that the electric effects observed in vegetables are due to chemico-vital actions; and that the opposite electric states of vegetables and the earth give reason to think that, from the enormous vegetation in certain parts of the globe, they must exert some influence on the electric phenomena of the atmosphere.†

1017. Recapitulation of the chief facts connected with the temperature and luminosity of plants:—

1. During the periods of germination and flowering there is an evolution of heat which, in the case of numerous germinating seeds placed together, and of numerous flowers enclosed within a large bract, is often very marked.
2. The heat in these instances depends on a chemical action going on in the cells, and is accompanied with the evolution of carbonic acid.
3. The temperature of the central parts of the trunks of trees depends on that of the sap which is taken up by the roots, and which, owing to the bad conducting powers of the wood, parts with its heat very slowly.
4. In cold weather the internal temperature of the trunks of trees is often higher than that of the air, and in warm weather it is often lower.
5. Evaporation has a decided influence on the temperature of plants, as by means of it there is often a rapid abstraction of caloric.
6. The active growing parts of plants exhibit a moderate elevation of temperature, seldom exceeding 1° F. above that of the air; this is called by Dutrochet the vital or proper heat of plants.

* Wartmann Notes sur les Courants Electriques qui existent dans les Végétaux, in Bibliothèque Universelle de Genève, lxxv. Suppl. p. 301. Zantedeschi, sur l'Influence Mutuelle du Magnétisme et des actions Chimiques, in Bibliothèque Univ. de Genève, xliii 22

† Becquerel, sur les Causes du Dégagement de l'Electricité dans les Végétaux— Comptes Rendus, xxxi. 633. Electro-Physiologie, in Comptes Rendus, xxxii 657 See also Bertholon, sur l'Electricité des Végétaux

7. It attains a quotidian maximum, the period varying between the hours of 10 A.M. and 3 P.M.
8. Meteorological influences and organic actions affect the temperature of plants.
9. Some plants have a luminous appearance in certain circumstances.
10. This luminosity is very evident in the case of some Fungi, in which the light is of a bluish tint.
11. The phosphorescence of Fungi has been referred to chemical changes connected with the absorption of oxygen and its combination with carbon.
12. Certain luminous appearances have been traced to optical effects on the retina; this is especially the case with some Mosses.
13. Intermittent light is reported to have been emitted by some orange-coloured flowers in calm warm evenings.
14. There are great doubts as to the nature of this light, and many authors consider it as an optical illusion.
15. The milky sap of some plants has exhibited luminosity at a high temperature.
16. The rhizomes of some endogens of warm countries have also been found luminous.
17. The electrical phenomena exhibited by plants are very obscure, and the statements in regard to them are vague and unsatisfactory.
18. A disturbance of electrical equilibrium is said to take place during the growth of plants.
19. Plants are considered generally as in a negatively electric state, but opposite states are said to occur in different parts of the same plant.
20. Electric currents of an ascending and descending nature are mentioned by some as occurring in plants.

CHAPTER XIII.

VEGETABLE NOSOLOGY, OR THE DISEASES AND INJURIES OF PLANTS.

1018. It would be difficult to name any department of vegetable physiology concerning which so little is positively known, even to those most conversant with such matters, as the nature of the diseases to which plants are liable. The number of writings on the subject is inconsiderable, and the information afforded by them still more so. The subject, nevertheless, is one of great importance. It is intimately connected with the prosperity of our forests and the productiveness of agriculture. Plants, like all other organized bodies, are subject to a great many accidents and diseases. The most common causes of disease are improper soils, ungenial climates, frosts, long continued rains, great drought, violent storms, parasitic plants, insects, and wounds of various kinds.

1019. According to Schleiden, plants in a state of high cultivation are all more or less in a condition predisposed to disease. There is an unnatural and excessive development of particular structures or particular substances, and thus, the equilibrium being destroyed, the plants are liable to suffer from injurious external influences. The general morbid condition produced by cultivation is heightened into specific predisposition to disease when the conditions of cultivation are opposed too strongly or too suddenly to those of nature; as when natives of light or sandy soils, such as the Oat or Potato, are planted in heavy land; or when Wheat, Rye, or Barley are sown in land the first year after it has been manured; or when the climate is very unlike the original one of the plant, as in the case of Maize in most parts of Europe. The outward forms of diseases are sufficiently known, but the internal appearances are less understood, and for their proper apprehension they require a knowledge of vegetable anatomy. The characters are essentially similar in all living vegetable cells. There is a wall or membrane, composed of cellulose, lined by a viscid layer (the primordial utricle), composed of an albuminous matter abounding in nitrogen; the cavity of the cell is filled with watery

juice, containing little nitrogenous matter, but having all the other compounds, such as gum, sugar, vegetable acids, inorganic salts, &c. dissolved in it. The chemical force of the plant appears to reside in the nitrogenous layer; all growth depends upon it, and it does not disappear until the cell-wall has become properly developed. When diseased plants are examined in the early stage, the first morbid appearance occurs in the nitrogenous layer, which becomes discoloured, coagulated, and granular, and the disease then extends to the cellular wall.

1020. The diseases of plants may be divided in the following way:—1. Diseases which are caused by an excess or deficiency of those agents which are necessary for the vigorous growth of plants; such as soil, light, heat, air, and moisture. 2. Those which are either originally caused, or, at all events, aggravated and modified by the attacks of parasites, more particularly belonging to the natural order Fungi. 3. Those due to the action of poisons, either taken up from the soil or from the atmosphere. 4. Those caused by mechanical injuries of different kinds, as by the attacks of animals, more particularly insects. Diseases caused by changes in the atmosphere are often epidemic, and spread over extensive districts of country. Those which are due to parasitic Fungi are propagated by contagion—the minute spores being carried by the winds. Exciting causes operate with great intensity in cases where plants are previously predisposed to disease. Thus, if a plant is in an enfeebled or weak condition, it is very liable to suffer both from epidemic and contagious diseases.

1021. The cryptogamic diseases of plants must be considered contagious, since they are produced by the contact of one portion of organic matter with another. The contact of diseased cells produces disease in healthy cells. Thus, if a healthy plant of *Cactus* be inoculated with some of the fluid from a plant affected with moist gangrene, diseased action will immediately commence and extend more or less rapidly. The action is analogous to what takes place with ferment when introduced into a saccharine liquid. The liability of the plant to the development of epidemic disease is produced by the state of the atmosphere as regards moisture, the prevalence of hot or cold weather, the amount of light, and probably the electrical condition of the air and earth. The natural decay of plants also renders them liable to attacks of Fungi, &c. Thus leaves before they fall are often affected. The trunk and branches of a tree become most frequently gangrenous when they have attained maturity. Soft fruits, as Apples, Pears, Oranges, Melons, and Grapes, are more exposed to the attacks of disease the riper they get. Ripe fruit is already entering into a state of decay, and this process is hastened by the introduction of the seeds of Fungi, or of the cells of diseased tissue. Most epidemic diseases may be averted by keeping plants properly exposed to light, air, and moisture.

1022. Many of the causes we have noticed may operate together

in producing disease. If, from defect of nourishment in the soil, a plant is stunted or weak, it becomes predisposed to disease, and is very liable to the attacks of parasites. A sudden frost coming on in spring, after the sap has begun to flow, causes severe injury, and either kills the plant or renders it liable to disease. This occurrence is common in Britain, and is the cause why many half-hardy exotics require to be covered or kept in a dormant state until the season has advanced beyond the risk of frost. Many such plants grown on a wall with a southern exposure are stimulated by the heat of a fine day in early spring, and are thus unable to resist later frosts. Warm sun during the day, and frost at night, have proved fatal to many exotics introduced into Britain. Plants are fitted by their constitution for different climates. Some will bear a great range of temperature without injury; others can only bear a limited one. Some require a hot summer and a cold winter; others require a medium summer and a moderate winter.

1023. It has often been stated that tender exotics may by long cultivation be made to bear the climate of Britain. It has been thought that they may become accustomed to it by degrees, and thus be acclimatized. Some have even hinted that by sowing the seeds of such plants, in the first instance, in a warm temperate region, then collecting the seeds produced by the plants, and sowing them in colder districts, the species may be rendered hardy. We are constantly told that plants which, when first introduced into Britain, were put into stoves and greenhouses, are now growing in the open border freely, and that they can stand a climate which they could not do at first. Such statements do not rest on a sound basis; each species of plant bears a certain range of temperature, and we cannot extend its natural limits. The plants said to be acclimatized were not tried in the open air when first introduced, otherwise they would have been found to be hardy, without any previous process of cultivation in greenhouses. The well known shrub *Aucuba japonica* was treated in a stove when first introduced, and was afterwards planted out, and found to stand our climate. This was not an instance of acclimatizing, but indicated an error regarding the constitution of the plant which was brought from the colder parts of Japan, and was capable of enduring the cold of this climate naturally. Man did nothing in the way of changing its constitution and powers of endurance. A plant called *Aponogeton distachyum* flowers freely in the open pond of the Edinburgh Botanic Garden. This plant was introduced from Southern Africa, and was at first grown in stoves. A specimen was accidentally thrown into the garden pond many years ago, and there it has continued to thrive ever since, flowering during almost the whole year. The roots of the plant are deep in the water, and the pond is supplied by springs.* Had it been

* In the growth of aquatics attention must be paid not merely to the temperature of the surrounding air, but also to that of the water in the ponds. In the case of *Richardia athiopica* and *Aponogeton distachyum*, plants of warm countries which grow in our ponds, facts are wanting as to

put into the pond when first introduced, the same result would have followed. We are too apt to suppose that plants coming from countries called hot, must necessarily be stove plants; not reflecting that they may have grown in very elevated and cold regions in these countries. Such is the case with many species introduced from Chili, Nepal, and Japan. There is no evidence that plants long cultivated in this country are able to withstand our winter cold better than formerly. The Dahlia, the Heliotrope, and the Potato, are affected in the same way by frost as when they were first introduced. Long cultivation has done nothing to increase their hardiness. When we consider that the great risk in this country is the accession of frost after a few genial days or weeks of spring, we may do something for the preservation of half-hardy plants by planting them in such localities and soils as to prevent them from being stimulated too easily, and from being attacked by frost when full of sap. We can put tender plants on elevated situations, not exposed to the direct rays of the sun, and on well drained soils, and thus prevent much injury. Hardiness, as we have already seen, may also be imparted by hybridizing and grafting. Tender trees or shrubs grown in warm and moist valleys, exposed to the sun's rays, are often injured by spring frosts. It is of great importance to define accurately when a plant may be said to suit a particular climate. It is not enough that it lives and sends out leaves, it must also be able to produce flowers and seeds, and to elaborate the peculiar secretions and products on which its qualities depend. The seeds of the Indian Hemp have been transmitted to this country, and the plants have grown well, even to the height of ten feet with thick stems, vigorous leaves, and abundance of flowers; but they did not produce the churrus or resinous matter which renders the plant valuable in India as a medicinal agent. The summer heat was wanting to enable the plant to perform all its functions. Such is also the case with Rhubarb, which, as regards the size and vigour of the plant, thrives well in this climate, but the root does

their habits in their native clime, and it would appear probable that in those instances in which they have been successfully cultivated in Britain, their roots and the lower part of their stems have been exposed to the influence of springs of a higher temperature than that which usually occurs in the ponds of this country. This view is confirmed by the circumstances connected with the growth of *Aponogeton distachyum* in the Edinburgh Botanic Garden. Mr. M'Nab has supplied us with the following particulars:—

“The *Aponogeton distachyum* was long cultivated in the Edinburgh Botanic Garden as a stove aquatic, in which situation it grew freely and flowered profusely. It was also long treated in the green-house aquarium, where it attained the same state of perfection as it did in the stove-house.

“About the year 1828, the large water-trough containing the *Aponogeton* was sunk into the west end of the open pond to a depth of three feet, where the plant has continued to thrive vigorously every year since, considerable patches (some eight feet in diameter) being seen in various parts of the pond.

“The depth of the pond varies from two to four feet, the bottom being wholly coated with mud, composed chiefly of decayed vegetable matter. It was originally paved with stones, each eight inches deep, and from four to five inches broad, and only being placed in the interstices, so as to allow the springs, which are very numerous, to rise freely between them.

“The *Aponogeton* generally flowers during eight or nine months in the year. In autumn it produces viviparous buds, which drop from the plant, and grow freely in the mud. During severe winters, the leaves of the *Aponogeton* are destroyed by the frost, but the roots have never been killed, although the pond is frequently frozen over.”

not produce a medicinal agent of the same quality as that grown in Chinese Tartary.

1024. Cold and bad soils are fruitful sources of disease. When plants are grown without the influence of light, they assume a white or yellowish aspect, thus becoming blanched or etiolated. In certain instances plants, even when exposed to light, present a pale and sickly hue, which is often referrible to the nature of the soil, or to constitutional weakness. In many crops we observe plants having a pallid aspect owing to ungenial weather and damp soil in the first instance. The diseased state thus induced is called by Berkeley chlorosis; some have recommended for its removal the application of a weak solution of sulphate of iron along with draining.* Plants, whose natural habitat is shady, become diseased when excess of light is supplied. Frosts, as well as excess of heat, render the stamens and pistils abortive. Spotting of the leaves, and canker of the stem, are often due to similar causes. When moisture is supplied in too great quantity, the plants become dropsical; and when the transpiration exceeds the absorption, the leaves often fall off. The dry and hot atmosphere of rooms often causes defoliation and disease in plants. Excessive development of hairs is sometimes a consequence of growing plants in very dry air. Diseases caused by changes in the atmosphere are often epidemic, and attack large districts of country.

1025. The influence of the sea breeze, carrying with it saline matter, is prejudicial to most plants. Plantations are frequently injured from this cause. A good illustration is seen at Gosford, near Edinburgh, where the trees, on reaching the top of a wall, are stopped in their growth by the sea breeze, and their tops form an inclined plane proceeding inwards from the wall as a base. Some plants withstand this influence better than others. The following trees, shrubs, and herbs, have been recommended as withstanding the sea air:—

Acer Pseudo-Platanus.
Pinus Strobus.
 ——— *Pinca.*
 ——— *Cembra.*
 ——— *Pinaster.*
Quercus Ilex.
Pyrus Aria.
Hippophae rhamnoides.
 ——— *conferta.*
Tamarix gallica.
 ——— *germanica.*
Pyrus japonica.
Leycesteria formosa.

Spiræa salicifolia.
Colutea cruenta.
Sambucus racemosa.
Coronilla Emerus.
 ——— *varia.*
Statice latifolia.
 ——— *tartarica.*
Armeria, various species.
Lathyrus grandiflorus.
Saxifraga cordata.
 ——— *crassifolia.*
Iberis sempervirens.

1026. Trees are sometimes destroyed or injured by external causes, such as by strong winds, severe storms, and electricity. The effects

* Berkeley, on Chlorosis in Plants, in Morison's Cyclopaedia.

of lightning on trees is occasionally remarkable. The largest trunks are split into pieces. This was well seen in the case of a fine Oak at Edmonstone, near Edinburgh, which was struck by lightning in the summer of 1849. The trunk was shivered to pieces, and large portions were thrown to a considerable distance. Martius thinks that the splitting of trees into shreds in these instances depends on the effect of intense heat on the sap. The splitting takes place in various ways in different trees. In Oaks the cleavage is very perfect. The tree is divided into laths which are often thin and flexible, the direction of the cleavage corresponding to the medullary rays. In Beech trees the cleavage is coarser than in Oaks. In Poplars the cleavage is perpendicular to the medullary rays. Resinous trees, as Pines, Firs, and Larches, are not so liable to be cleft, probably from the nature of their non-conducting resinous matter, and from the small amount of sap. The Oak, Elm, Poplar, Beech, Holly, Horse-Chestnut, and Ash have been observed to be struck by lightning.

1027. The attacks of parasitic Fungi cause extensive injury and disease in plants. Some think that the spores of Fungi coming into contact with the plant act both as the predisposing and exciting cause of disease; others, perhaps more correctly, think that some change is first produced in the cells of the plant, which enables the spores to find a nidus, and then the disease goes on rapidly, assuming a peculiar type on account of the presence of the Fungus. In the same way as vegetable organisms found in diseases of the skin are not to be looked upon as the origin of the disease, but as being developed in textures previously morbid, and as giving often a peculiar character to the disease.* Many of the diseases of cultivated crops are attributed to Fungi.† The spores of Fungi are very minute, and are constantly floating in the air. They can easily be applied to the surfaces of plants. When they find an appropriate soil they send out extensive filiform ramifications which spread under the epidermis of plants, raise blisters, and finally burst forth in the form of orange, brown, and black spots constituting the fructification. They attack the stem, leaves, flowers, and fruit. Different species are restricted to different plants, and even to different parts of the same plant. The forms

* This subject has been already noticed under germination (p. 636). For further particulars as to the effects of Fungi and other cellular plants on diseases, and the nature of Entophytes growing on living organisms, the student may consult Deslongschamps on Cryptogamies on the internal surface of the air-cells in the eider-duck, in *Comptes Rendus*, 1841, p. 1110. *Annals of Nat. Hist.* viii. 229. Muller, on Fungi in the Lungs of Birds, *Archiv.* 1842, p. 198. *Philosophical Magazine* for 1853, ii. 74. *Annals of Nat. Hist.* ix. 131. Hannover, on Entophytes of Mucous Membranes, in *Muller Archiv.* for 1842 p. 281. Gruby, on Porrigophytes, in *Muller Archiv.* for 1842, p. 22, and in *Comptes Rendus* for 1843, xi. 301. Stilling, on a Contagious Conservoid Growth on Living Frogs, in *Muller Archiv.* for 1841, p. 279. Goodsir, on *Achyla prolifera* on Gold-fish, in *Ann. Nat. Hist.* ix. 833. Remarks on Entophytes, in *Ray Soc. Reports* for 1845, p. 417-432. See also reference in note at page 636.

† See Henslow, Report on the Diseases of Wheat, in *Journ. Agricult. Soc. of England*, ii. 1. Sidney, on the Parasitic Fungi of the British Farm, in *Ibid.* x. 382. Philippiar, *Traité Organographique et Physiologico-Agricole sur la Curie, le Charbon, l'Ergot, la Rouille, et autres maladies du même genre qui ravagent les Céréales*, Versailles, 1837. Graham, on the Injuries sustained by Plants from the attacks of Parasitic Fungi, in *Journ. Eng. Agric. Soc.* xi. 413.

which the same Fungus assumes seem to vary sometimes, according to the plant on which it grows.

1028. The disease called Bunt, Smutballs, or Pepper-brand, is occasioned by the plant called *Uredo Caries* by De Candolle, and *Uredo foetida* by Baner. It attacks the grains of Wheat, and may be detected in them in their earliest state. It is represented in Figure 1301. It consists of extremely minute globules of a dark colour, at first attached to a thread-like matter or mycelium. Bauer estimates the diameter of each of the globules at 1-1600th of an inch, and consequently a grain of Wheat (reckoned at less than 1-1000th of a cubic inch) would contain four millions such spores.* The spores or powdery matter has a disgusting odour; hence the specific name given to it. The disease is propagated by contact. Steeping the grain is recommended by some as a means of prevention, and alkaline solutions have been suggested as a remedy. *Uredo linearis*, which is met with also in this disease, is considered as being a young state of the Mildew plant.

1029. Another disease, called Smut or Dust-brand, is caused by a Fungus called *Uredo segetum*. It resembles the Bunt Fungus in colour and shape, but its spores are not half so large, and it does not possess a fetid odour.† This Fungus destroys the ear of Corn by first causing the innermost parts of the flower to become abortive, while the pedicels on which these are seated swell and become very fleshy. The Fungus then consumes the whole of this fleshy mass, and at length appears between the chaff scales in the form of a black soot-like powder. It is said also to attack the stem and leaves. When ripe, the spores burst through the epidermis, and are dispersed in the form of a black powder like charcoal. The spore is 1-2800th of an inch in diameter. Smut is rare in Wheat, it is common in Barley, and more so in Oats. It is also seen in many grains, such as *Arrhenatherum avenaceum*.

1030. The disease denominated Rust, Red-rag, Red-robin, and Red-gum, is caused by a Fungus called *Uredo Rubigo* (Fig. 1302). It forms yellow and brown oval spots and blotches upon the stem, leaf, and chaff. The spores burst through the epidermis, and are dispersed as very minute grains. The disease is common in Corn and in Grasses. Mildew is a disease caused by a Fungus denominated *Puccinia graminis* (Fig. 1303). The ripe spore-cases of this plant are small dark brown club-shaped bodies, their thicker end being divided into two chambers, each filled with minute spores, and their lower end tapering into a fine stalk. The sori or clusters of spore-cases burst through the epidermis sometimes in vast numbers.‡ The minute

* See Figure by Bauer, in Penny Magazine for 1833, p. 126.

† See Figure by Bauer, in Penny Magazine for 1833, p. 180. See also Brongniart, sur le Développement du Charbon (*Uredo segetum*), dans les Graminées, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 1st ser. xx. 171.

‡ Banks, on Blight, Mildew, and Rust of Corn, with Figures by Bauer, in Annals of Botany, ii 51; also Nicholson's Journal, x. 225. Henslow, on the Specific Identity of Fungi producing Rust and Mildew, in Journ. Eng. Agric. Soc. ii 22. Lambert, on Blight of Wheat, in Linn. Trans. iv 183. Kirby, on certain Fungi which are parasites of the Wheat, in Linn. Trans. v 112.

spores seem to enter the plant by the stomata. Some think that they, as well as other minute spores, are absorbed by the roots. The disease attacks Wheat. Spring Wheat is less liable to this disease than winter Wheat, and heavy soils are less subject to it than light ones. Many have supposed that the Barberry is in some way connected with the production of Mildew. This idea has been proved to be erroneous by the experiments of Staudinger, near Hamburg, and of Hornemann, at Copenhagen. Unger entertains the idea that Blight, Mildew, and Smut are to be considered as Exanthematous diseases of plants, caused by the spores of Fungi entering the stomata.*

1031. Henslow has shown by experiment, that if the diseased seeds of Wheat be steeped in a solution of sulphate of copper, they will not produce diseased grain, and that the sulphate of copper does no injury to their germination. The solution used is one ounce of sulphate of copper to a gallon of water for every bushel of Wheat. Grain also steeped in hot water did not reproduce these fungoid diseases. In East-Lothian, with the view of preventing Smut, seed Wheat is often



Fig. 1301

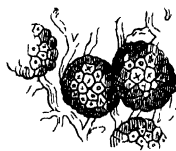


Fig. 1302



Fig. 1303.

steeped in stale urine, and afterwards some newly slaked lime sifted on it. Sometimes a solution of salt is used as a pickle. Fourcroy and Vauquelin ascertained by analysis that blighted Wheat contained an acrid oil, putrid gluten, charcoal, phosphoric acid, phosphate of ammonia and magnesia, phosphate of lime, and no traces of starch.† As regards Bunt or Pepper-brand, Henslow remarks, that upon simply immersing the grain in water, the infected seeds float, and on the water being poured off nothing but the sound ones remain in the vessel. This simple process of separation is not, however, perfectly effective, because in thrashing the Wheat, many of the infected grains are crushed,

Fig. 1301 The Fungus (*Uredo Caries* or *Uredo foetida*) which causes the disease called Bunt, Smutballs, or Pepper-brand. It consists of dark globules attached to a thread-like mycelium.

Fig. 1302. Fungus (*Uredo Rubigo*) which is met with in the disease called Rust or Red-gum. It forms yellow or brown oval spots upon different parts of plants.

Fig. 1303. Fungus (*Puccinia graminis*) which is found in the disease called Mildew. It consists of dark-brown club-shaped bodies, the thicker end of which is divided into two cavities filled with spores.

* Unger, Die Exantheme der Pflanzen und einige mit diesen verwandte Krankheiten der Gewächse, Vienne, 1833; also Ann des Sc Nat 2d ser. Bot. li 193.

† Fourcroy et Vauquelin, de la Nature Chimique du Ble Carlé, in Annales du Muséum vi 332

and the spores are dispersed in the form of fine powder, which adheres obstinately to the sound grains by means of an oily or greasy matter found in the Fungi. In order to detach them thoroughly, it has been considered useful to add some alkaline ley to the water in which they are washed. The alkali unites with the oil, and forms a soapy matter. Lime has been used for this purpose; common potash, substances containing ammonia, and the liquid from stable-dung, have also been employed. Other matters, as sulphate of copper, act by destroying the vegetating powers of the Fungi.

1032. Mr. Ellis of Barming, Kent, says, that the invariable prevention of Smut in Wheat is accomplished by scalding the blackest Wheat in boiling water, and afterwards drying it with lime. The Wheat placed in a colander or in a basket, is immersed in boiling water for a few seconds, just long enough to wet it completely; it is then immediately dipped in cold water, afterwards dried with lime, mixed with the other Wheat, and sown. By this means the Wheat was always found to be cured of Smut, while the vegetating principle was uninjured; great care being taken that the water was boiling, and the Wheat taken out of the water as soon as completely wetted. Mr. Ellis tried an experiment on a bushel of the blackest Wheat he could procure, which he divided in 16 equal parts, sowing them all the same day, but with different treatment. The result at harvest was, that the Wheat sown without preparation produced 33 black ears out of every 100, while that dipped in the boiling water and limed, had not a black ear in several thousands which were examined.

1033. Many other species of *Uredo*, as well as *Ustilago*, give rise to diseases. They receive their names from the plants on which they are parasitic, and it seems probable that the same species presents various forms according to the situation in which it grows.* *Ustilago Maydis*, or Maize Smut, is a Fungus which gives rise to protuberances on different parts of the Maize. The stem, upper leaves, and especially the bracts, become immensely swollen when attacked by this disease, and the ovaries, ovules, and male blossoms are not exempt. The parts affected are at first white, tinged with red, smooth and juicy. The cellular tissue increases in volume, and is permeated by radiating lines consisting of mycelium and spores. The spores are



Fig. 1304. The spores of *Ustilago hypodytes* (Fig. 1304), also cause disease in grasses. The spores are black and round, and the disease

twice as large in linear measure as those of the Out-Smut. At first the small balls contain a dark strong-smelling fluid, but ultimately the masses become dry, and present a quantity of dark dust mixed with irregular threads. *Ustilago vittata* causes disease in grasses in India.

they occasion is denominated Grass-Smut. The plant is described by Tulasne. According to Leveillé, the immense quantity of black dust resulting from it in the hay fields of France produces injurious effects on haymakers.

1034. A species of *Depazea* or *Septoria* sometimes produces disease in the knots of the Wheat. Various species of *Erysiphe*, such as *E. guttata*, *penicellata*, *graminis*, *adunca*, and *bicornis*, give rise to kinds of mildew. *Erysiphes* are often met with in common Pea crops. Some say that *Oidium*s are merely particular states of *Erysiphes*. The plant producing mildew in the Vine, is *Oidium Tuckeri* of Berkeley. Other species of *Oidium* probably cause mildew in the Peach, Rose, Hop, Pea, and Onion. For destroying the mildew in Vines, sulphur is recommended to be dusted on them. Some also use a solution of hydro-sulphate of lime made by boiling sulphur and lime in water. A Fungus called *Rhizoctonia Mali*, is said to grow on the roots of Apples, Pears, and Quinces, and to cause destruction to the trees.

1035. Ergot is a monstrous state of the grain, in which the enlarged and diseased ovary protrudes in a curved form resembling a cock's spur; hence the name from the French *ergot*, meaning a spur. The ovary is black externally, spongy internally, and contains much oily matter. Some consider it as produced by the attack of a Fungus, which induces a diseased condition in the ovarian cells. The disease is usually met with in Rye, and the name of Spurred Rye is applied to it. It sometimes occurs in Wheat and in Barley, and it has also been noticed in *Lolium perenne* and *L. arvense*, *Festuca pratensis*, *Phleum pratense*, *Dactylis glomerata*, *Anthoxanthum odoratum*, *Phalaris arundinacea*, and *Alopecurus agrestis*. Ergot consists of a very dense tissue formed by polygonal cells united intimately with one another, and filled with an oily fluid. It is developed in the unimpregnated ovule of Rye; for although extremely dilated by the entophyte, and rendered difficult of recognition, the integuments of the ovule increase without completely losing the form which they would have assumed if they had grown into a true grain, imitating in this respect the ovaries of Wheat, in which *Tilletia Caries* (Bunt) has replaced the seed. The solid mass which has been called *Sclerotium Clavus* by De Candolle, and the filamentous portion called *Sphacelia*, by Leveillé and Fee, and *Ergotatia* by Quekett, are only, properly speaking, organs of vegetation. The Fungus destined to grow from this apparatus is an elegant *Sphaeria*, probably that called by Fries *Cordyliceptis purpurea*. This plant has been seen by Schumacher in diseased cereal grains, and it has been detected by Roussel in *Sclerotium Clavus* growing on *Bromus sylvaticus*, and *Arundo Calamagrostis*, and by Dumeril in Ergot of Rye. Tulasne has shown, that this *Cordyliceptis* is produced from the Ergot when it is allowed to vegetate. Ergot of Grasses and Ergot of Cyperaceæ, according to Tulasne, do

not belong to the same vegetable species.* Rye affected with this disease, when used as bread, is very prejudicial. The Abbé Tessier showed that Ergot caused gangrene in animals fed on it, and many instances are recorded of gangrene of the extremities occurring in persons who had lived on diseased Rye. Ergot is said to prevail in Rye grown on wet and stiff land.†

1036. The disease which has recently attacked the Potato in various parts of the world, is by many attributed to the attack of Fungi. This view has been strongly advocated by Berkeley,‡ who describes the Fungus as *Botrytis infestans* (Fig. 1305). The spores are supposed to enter the stomata, and to cause disease in the leaves in the first instance, which afterwards extends to the tubers.§ The effects produced on the leaves resembled much those caused by poisonous gases, such as hydrochloric, sulphurous, and nitric acids (p. 478).



Fig. 1305

Berkeley attributes the Potato disease entirely to Fungi. He states that the disease commenced in the leaves. They were attacked by the Mould, which ran its course in a few hours, and from the rapidity of the action the period for examination of the leaves was often passed over. The Fungus generated does not live on decayed or decaying matter, but is one which produces decay, and renders the plants unhealthy. The Fungus acts by feeding on the juices of plants, preventing the elaboration of the sap in the leaves, obstructing the admission of air and the emission of transpired fluids. The stem is thus overcharged with moisture, and ultimately rots, while every source of nutriment is cut off from the half-ripe tubers. The atmospheric conditions during the late disease made the Fungus spread rapidly.

1037. While there is no doubt that the *Botrytis* is developed in the progress of the Potato disease, the question arises whether or not it is the originating cause. The view which seems to be most consonant with the phenomena is, that changes are induced in the cells of the

Fig. 1305. Fungus (*Botrytis infestans*), which occurs on diseased leaves of Potatoes, and which is supposed by Berkeley, Morren, and Townley, to be the original cause of the late Potato disease. The Fungus is represented spreading through the substance of the leaf by means of its mycelium, which sends up, through the leaf, fructification bearing numerous spores.

* Tulasne on the Ergot of Rye, *Sclerotium Clavus*, in *Comptes Rendus* for Dec 8, 1851 and in *Ann. Nat. Hist.* 2d ser. ix. 494

† For remarks on Ergot, see Fontana, sur l'Ergot, in *Journ. de Physique*, vii. 42 Tessier sur les Maladies des Graines. Smith on Ergot, in *Linn. Trans.* viii. 3.

‡ Berkeley on the Potato disease, in *Journ. of Hort. Soc. of London*, 1846

§ Morren and Townley also adopt the fungus-view of the Potato disease. The following is the description of the *Botrytis infestans* of Montagne — Mycelium or sterile floccilax, erect, white, more or less branched at apex; branches everywhere knotted, erect-patent, spores lateral and terminal, solitary, ovoid-elliptical, comparatively large, same colour as tissue, sub-apiculate, with a granular nucleus. *Botrytis infestans* has also been noticed in the Tomato, while *Botrytis parasitica* has been observed in Turnips. Beet-root and Carrots are liable to similar attacks from species of *Botrytis*

Potato by cultivation, which render the leaves liable to disease. Atmospheric influences are thus enabled to act upon them, so as to cause alterations in their cells; and the attack of a Fungus such as the *Botrytis* accelerates the morbid action, and causes it to assume a peculiar form. In this way high cultivation, atmospheric influences, and Fungi, all contribute to cause the disease. In the Potato disease of 1845, Harting says that brown granular matter was deposited in the cells, first in those near the epidermis, then the cellular walls lost their transparency, and the cellulose could no longer be isolated by boiling water, next the cell-wall was destroyed, and small cavities were formed in the midst of the tissue, in which were agglomerated grains of starch, and finally parasitic organisms appeared in the cavities. The vegetable parasites developed were *Polyactis alba*, *Fusisporium Solani*, *F. didymum*, *F. candidum*, and *Oidium violaceum*. When the disease had advanced, insects were also present.

1038. Cram attributed the disease of the tubers of the Potato to rupture of the starch cells and mixture of their contents with nitrogenous matter, thus causing fermentation as in the Apple and Grape.^x Solly objects to the Fungus theory of Potato disease. He says that decaying organic matter is necessary for the growth of Fungi. He thinks that the disease is caused by the presence of putrifying azotized matter in the stem, just below the surface of the soil; that this is carried to all parts of the plant, causes a struggle between vital and chemical forces, and induces decomposition by a process of fermentation. The azotized matter, in a condition to act as ferment, is produced by the state of the season, by deficiency of light, and by other meteorological causes. Analyses show that the constituents of the diseased Potato undergo a rapid and important change. Dr. Lyon Playfair and Mr. Phillips found that the amount of albumen and gluten decreased from 2.34 in the sound Potato to .32 in the diseased, and when the disease advanced they finally disappeared.

1039. Mitscherlich† says that the change which cellulose undergoes by the action of a peculiar ferment is characteristic of the substance. This fermenting agent is obtained when half-putrid Potatoes cut up into pieces are placed in water, with portions of fresh Potatoes, and allowed to stand until the cells of the fresh portions begin to be easily separable. It is also formed, though more slowly, when fresh Potatoes, cut up, are set aside, covered with water; the liquid is filtered, and fresh Potatoes, cut in slices, added to it; when these are decomposed, a portion of the liquid may be treated with water, and more slices of Potato added, which soon become decomposed, and in

* Hassall thinks, that the rapid decay of many fruits, more especially those of the Apple tribe, is owing to the formation of Fungi in their interior. These fungi appear in the form of ramified filaments passing in all directions between and around the cells of the parenchyma of the fruit. They insinuate themselves between the cells of the pulp of the fruit, detach them from their connection with each other, destroy their vitality, and ultimately produce decomposition.

† Ann. der Chem. und Pharm. lxxv. p. 305, Reports of the Berlin Acad. March 1850, p. 102. Chemical Gazette

this manner increase the activity of the liquid. Hence, just as in the fermentation of an infusion of malt, the yeast, the fermentative Fungus, becomes augmented, so does the ferment increase. It only acts upon the cellulose, which forms the walls of the starch-cells of the Potato; first, the cells separate from each other, so that it furnishes us with a convenient means of obtaining the cells with their contents in an isolated state, and facilitating their examination; the walls of the cells are subsequently also dissolved, and the starch particles fall out; in this manner, in twenty-four hours, a slice of Potato is rendered so soft, to a depth of two lines, that this portion can be removed by a pair of forceps, the hard mass of the Potato lying beneath the softened layer; so that this process takes place successively from the outside towards the interior; not by the whole of the Potato being simultaneously permeated by the ferment to the innermost portion. Exactly the same process as that which we can produce spontaneously, he says, occurs in the Potato disease, which, during late years, has done so much mischief. In this also, the cellulose, and not the starch, is decomposed; and the liquid, which the author had kept for a long time in contact with one of the diseased Potatoes, immediately produced the decomposition of a sound one. This decomposition is, therefore, he says, not the disease itself, but merely the result of it. Its cause undoubtedly depends upon the dying, or the previous death, of the entire plant; and just as it is well known in the case of other plants, that they die when the apices of their roots are too strongly cooled, so may a sudden cold rain, following a long warm winter, produce a similar condition of the Potato plant. It is only after decay has commenced that Fungi and insects attack the plant.

1040. Liebig attributed the Potato disease to diminished or suppressed transpiration depending on the hygrometric state of the atmosphere.* He refers to Hales' accurate researches in regard to the Hop-blight, in which the disease is traced to the want of correspondence between absorption and transpiration, and a consequent stagnation and decomposition of the juices. The same thing, he thinks, takes place in the Potato in consequence of cold and an atmosphere loaded with moisture, and he shows that in 1845 and 1846, when the disease overran Europe, damp, cold, and rainy weather followed heat and drought, just at the period of the most luxuriant growth of the Potato. The vessels and cells became charged with fluids, owing to the checked transpiration; there was stagnation of the sap and death. Fungi and putrefaction are, according to him, the consequences of the death of the plant. Klotzsch proposes to check the Potato disease by pinching off the extreme points of the branches and twigs to the extent of half an inch downwards, when the plants have attained the height of six or nine inches above the soil, and to repeat this on every branch and twig on the tenth or eleventh week. This check to the

* Liebig on the Potato Blight, in his *Researches on the Motion of the Juices in the Animal Body*, p. 87

stem and branches, he thinks, will direct the nutrient matters in the direction of the increase and multiplication of subterranean as well as aerial branches. This leads to increased development of tubers, and strengthens the leaves and stalks.* Tombelle Lomba of Namur says that he has saved Potatoes from disease by cutting off the stems, after flowering, with a very sharp sickle, and then covering the ground with earth to the depth of not less than one and a half inch. The top-dressing thus applied was not disturbed until the Potatoes were ripe. The haulm was removed after being cut. It is said that the tubers acquired a good size, and were of excellent quality. If these facts are true, it would appear that, while leaves are necessary to the development of tubers, the latter, on acquiring a certain size, can continue their growth by their own proper and unassisted vitality.

1041. The general conclusions to be drawn from all that has been said relative to the Potato disease are, that changes are induced in the cells and vessels of the Potato by certain obscure meteorological and epidemic causes, that an alteration takes place in the cellulose and in the contents of the cells, which speedily leads to decay; that parasitic Fungi find a nidus in the decaying organic matter, so as to accelerate and give a character to the disease, and that as yet no remedy has been devised.†

1042. Dry rot is a disease to which the wood of trees is liable. It may be traced in the first instance to some alteration in the woody tissue produced by moisture or other causes, and the subsequent development of a Fungus which spreads its mycelium through the texture, and produces rapid disorganization. Trees growing in wet and ill-drained soil are subject to rot. The more abundant the alburnum or sap-wood, the more liable are trees to decay. The disease which has recently attacked the Larch is attributed by some to the roots reaching ungenial soil, and to the production of dry rot. This rot in the Larch begins in the heart-wood, near the root, and it spreads outwards; layer after layer crumbling like saw-dust. Among the crumbling mass is to be found in abundance the mycelium of some Fungus. When the rot has reached the alburnum a thick leathery white formation appears between the bark and wood, which formation is identical with the appearances connected with dry rot. In dry rot the decay takes place in the first instance in the contents of the woody tubes, and thus a suitable soil is supplied for the spores of Fungi, such as *Merulius lacrymans* or *vastator*, and *Polyporus destructor*. When these plants begin to grow, they spread their mycelium with great rapidity. If air is allowed to circulate freely around wood, dry rot does not attack it. But if it is placed in a damp situation without a circulation of air, then decay takes place. The spawn of the dry-rot Fungus deprives

* Klotzsch in Appendix to Liebig's Researches on the Juices of Animals, p. 102.

† For further remarks on the Potato Disease, see Report on this subject in the Transactions of the Highland Society for October 1846, p. 436, also Fromberg on the Potato Disease, in Journal of Agriculture for July 1846, p. 339 Martius on the Potato Epidemic (in German), Munich 1842

the woody tubes of their contents, for the purpose of getting the nourishment it requires, and the wood loses its consistency and toughness, the walls of the tubes becoming brittle, and ruptured.*

1043. The great cause of decay in wood is moisture. Wood in a dry state may be preserved for a long time, as may be seen in the case of wood in some old buildings as Westminster Hall. Saw-dust is wood in small pieces; when wet it soon rots, but when dried thoroughly it may be kept for an indefinite period. To have timber in the driest state, it ought to be felled between the fall of the leaf and the spring, the nearer the former time the better. The timber of some trees is much more subject to decay than that of others. The wood of the Cypress is very durable.† A great error in building is painting wood early, and thus enclosing within it the elements of decay by not allowing the escape of moisture. In olden times the wood was left bare, and exposed to currents of air which kept it dry. Hence its durability. Such is the case with the roof of Westminster Hall, which dates from the time of Richard the Second, and still is sound. So also the wooden roof of York Minster, constructed in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; also the timber of the Hospitium, constructed about the same period in the garden of the Yorkshire Philosophical Society. Old doors and ancient pews in village churches owe their durability to the same causes, namely, thorough drying by exposure to air without being covered with paint or plaster.

1044. Various means have been proposed for preventing timber from being attacked by dry rot. We have already alluded (p. 149) to Boucherie's method of causing growing trees to absorb fluids of different kinds, which he considered as acting on the contents of the woody tubes in such a way as to render them less liable to disease. The solutions he employed were acetate of lead, pyrolignite of iron, and corrosive sublimate. He also found that trees, immediately after being cut down, when their extremities were immersed in these solutions, absorbed them with rapidity. A tree having been sawn near the root, is placed in a horizontal position, and a cap of leather or waterproof cloth is tied firmly over the lower end, leaving a sufficient space for the solution. This is introduced by a flexible tube luted to the leathern cap, and communicating with a barrel placed at some height above the timber, so as to give the pressure of a column of six or eight feet. The liquid is put into the barrel. In this way twenty or forty gallons of the solution of acetate of lead may be made to filter through the pores of the wood. Mr. Hyett has adopted Boucherie's method, and has given colours to timber by making the wood absorb in succession fluids,

* Schwabe on Dry Rot, in *Linnaea* for 1840, p. 194. Dr. R. Dickson's Lecture on Dry Rot. Ray Society's Reports for 1845, Botany, p. 84. See also Quekett on the Presence of a Fungus in the interior of a living Oak Tree, in *Quart. Journ. of Microscopical Science*, i. 72. Naegeli on Fungi in the interior of Plants, in *Linnaea*, xvi. 289.

† Chests containing Egyptian Mummies were made of Cypress. The gates of St. Peter's at Rome which had lasted from the time of Constantine to that of Pope Eugene the fourth, i. e. 1100 years, were of Cypress, and had during that time suffered no decay.

which, by their combination, produced a coloured compound, such as ferrocyanuret of potassium and sulphate of iron.

1045. Timber, after being cut, has been subjected to various processes for the purposes of rendering it durable. Kyanizing is performed by subjecting the wood to the action of corrosive sublimate, by means of which it is probable that the albuminous matter is coagulated, fermentation is prevented, and hence the wood is rendered less liable to decay and to the attacks of Fungi. Kyan's solution is made to pass rapidly through wood in vacuo. Sir William Burnett found that the application of chloride of zinc to vegetable matters, such as wood and canvas, had the property of effectually guarding them against all the ordinary causes of destruction, without communicating any bad property to the substance prepared from it. Canvas so acted on was kept long in damp cellars, and exposed to various vicissitudes, without being injured, while ordinary canvas in similar circumstances became rotten. The process has received the name of Burnettizing. Burnett's antiseptic solution, of one pound of chloride of zinc to five gallons of water, has been tried in Woolwich Dockyard with success.

1046. Mr. Bethell uses creasote for the preservation of wood. The creasote acts by coagulating the albumen, and preventing putrefactive decomposition. Along with the creasote there are other products of the distillation of coal tar, especially bituminous oils, which enter into the cells, and by surrounding the woody fibres, prevent the action of water and air. There are two methods pursued—1. By placing the wood in a strong iron cylinder, exhausting the air from it by an air-pump, until a vacuum is produced equal to about 12 lbs. on the square inch; then the creasote is allowed to flow into the cylinder, and afterwards pressure is put on the creasote by a force-pump equal to about 150 lbs. on a square inch. The timber is then taken out fit for use. 2. By placing the timber in a drying-house, and passing the products of the combustion of coal-tar through it. Thus the timber is dried rapidly, and impregnated to a certain extent with oily matter, and with the creasote given off from the fuel used to heat the house. The timber is then taken out, and immersed in hot creasote in an open tank. A load of fir timber will absorb 40 gallons; close-grained woods less. A cubic foot of Beech usually weighs 8 lbs. heavier after being so prepared. Creasote is said to prevent the decay of wood, and to stop the attacks of *Teredo navalis*.

1047. Gangrene is a disease of plants similar to what occurs in animal tissues. It is met with in leaves, fruits, and stems. Succulent parts are most liable to be attacked. It is divided into moist and dry gangrene; the moist occurring in the succulent parts of plants, and the dry attacking the woody parts, as the stem of shrubs and trees. All forms of gangrene are sometimes called Canker; but this term is more especially confined to a peculiar disease of the bark and stem of Apple and Pear-trees. Moist gangrene occurs often in *Cactaceæ* and *Mesembryaceæ*; it is also met with in the Cucumber, Melon,

and other fruits, as well as in the Balsam and in succulent plants. It begins by dark green spots of various sizes, which soon increase and change colour. A swelling first takes place, and then a contraction; the epidermis bursts, and a dark fluid oozes out, having a fetid odour. The disease goes on increasing, until complete disorganisation takes place. The diseased cells are found to contain dark granules. Sometimes also a vibrio has been detected. The disease is produced by cold and moisture. Its cure is attempted by cutting away diseased parts, giving a proper amount of temperature, a drier atmosphere, and a drier soil.

1048. A peculiar disease attacks some kinds of Stone-fruit. It consists in a peculiar enlargement of the shell of the young fruit, which then grows up into a distended leathery bag. The cause of it is unknown. In a Bird Cherry found on the Himalayas, this is so common

as to have given rise to the supposition that the plant in this condition is a distinct species, which has been called *Cerasus cornuta*. On the banks of the Dee, near Aberdeen, Mr. Wyville Thomson observed the fruit of the *Prunus communis*, var. *insititia*, presenting the appearance of green legumes in place of drupes—the fruit being abortive.



Fig 1306

1049. Phanerogamous parasites are also injurious to plants. Among them may be noticed especially species of *Cuscuta* or Dodder (Fig. 1306), which prove destructive to crops of Flax and Clover. Their seeds are sown with these crops, and germinate like other plants. Ere long they become attached to the stems of the plants in their vicinity by means of suckers, and then they act as true parasites, living on the sap of the plants, and finally destroying them. It is of great importance for the farmer to see that the seeds of Flax

and Clover are free from those of Dodder. Other parasites, as Broom Rapes (Fig. 126, p. 54), Mistletoe (Fig. 125, p. 53), &c., in a certain degree injure the plants on which they grow, but they are by no means so injurious as the Didders."

1050. Many substances act as poisons to plants as well as animals. We have already given full details in regard to the effects of poisonous

Fig. 1306 A parasitic plant called Dodder (*Cuscuta*), which grows from seed in the usual way, with its roots in the soil, but afterwards twines round other plants, such as Trefoil and Flax, and attaches itself to them by means of suckers, *a*. It loses all connection with the soil, and lives on the plant, which it finally destroys

gases on vegetation (p. 478). The experiments of Turner and Christison distinctly show that irritant gases, such as sulphurous, hydrochloric, and nitric acid, act by destroying first the parts to which they are applied, more especially those where there is abundance of moisture; while narcotic gases, like hydrosulphuric acid, have a general effect on the irritability of the plant. Marcet and Macaire* experimented on the influence of fluid poisons on plants. They concluded that metallic poisons acted on vegetables in the same way as on animals. They were absorbed, and destroyed the organs to which they were applied; while narcotic vegetable poisons destroyed the whole vitality of the plants, without any local irritation. In their experiments they employed arsenious acid, corrosive sublimate, salts of mercury, tin, copper, and lead, *Cocculus indicus*, *Belladonna*, *Opium*, *Nuxvomica*, *Digitalis*, oxalic acid, and prussic acid.

1051. Injurious effects are produced on plants by insects of various kinds. Some of them feed on the plants; others form habitations for themselves in the leaves and flowers; others puncture different organs with the view of depositing their ova. Earcockle, Purple, or Peppercorn, is a disease caused by a minute animal called *Vibrio Tritici*, or the Eel of the Wheat. The disease was noticed by Needham more than a century ago. The infected grains turn dark green at first, and ultimately nearly black. They become rounded, resembling a small Peppercorn, but with one or more deep furrows on their surface. The husk of the chaff spreads open, and the awns are twisted. The blighted grains are full of a moist, white, cottony substance, and contain no flour. When the cottony matter is placed in a drop of water under the microscope, a multitude of minute eel-shaped animalcules are seen in active motion.† Early in March the animalcules find their way into the grain from the earth, and thence into the young plant. They ascend within the stem, and reach the ovary. They then grow rapidly, and die after depositing numerous ova. The young are hatched in eight or ten days afterwards, and speedily attain $\frac{1}{33}$ d of an inch in length, and $\frac{1}{1200}$ th of an inch in diameter. When full-grown, the vibrio is $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch long, and $\frac{1}{30}$ th of an inch in diameter. Not less than 50,000 of the young might be packed in a moderately-sized grain of wheat. They retain their vitality long. The mass may be allowed to dry, so that the slightest touch would reduce it to powder, and yet, when moistened with water, the animalcules will revive and become active. They may be dried and revived many times before they are killed. According to Bauer and Henslow, these revivals may extend over six or seven years. The infected grains

* Marcet, de l'action des Poisons sur le Regne Végétal, in Ann. de Chimie et de Physique, xix. 200, Macaire-Prinsep, *ibid.* xxvix. 85

† Roffredi, sur l'origine des petits Vers ou Anguilles du Bled rachitique—*Journ. de Physique*, v. 1, 197, vii. 369, also Needham's remarks on the same subject—*Journ. de Physique*, v. 226. Bauer on *Vibrio Tritici*, with Drawings, in *Phil. Trans.* for 1823, p. 1, Curtis on *Vibrio Tritici*, in *Journ. Agric. Soc. England*, vi. 513. Spikelets of *Poa* are sometimes seen of a purple colour, containing numerous *Vibrios*.

float in water for a short time, but on being saturated with moisture they sink. Scalding water kills the vibrio.

1052. Entomological writers give accounts of numerous insects which are prejudicial to white and green crops.* Some, like locusts, destroy the whole vegetation rapidly; others are more slow in their ravages. Curtis enumerates sixty insects which prey upon the Potato crop.† The Wheat midge (*Cecidomyia Tritici*) is a minute two-winged fly, myriads of which are seen, in the early part of June, from seven to nine in the evening. They deposit their eggs, by means of a long retractile ovipositor, in the blossoms of Wheat. From these eggs are produced small yellow maggots, which are the larvæ of the fly, and which occasion much mischief.‡ A short time before the proper period of ripening, several ears in a field of Wheat may be seen to present a yellow and prematurely ripened appearance. On examining these ears, there will be found a multitude of these little yellow larvæ lying between the husk and the young grain. They eat up the pollen, and thus prevent the grain from coming to maturity. The destruction thus caused sometimes amounts to one-third of the crop. The caterpillars of the Wheat midge are about 1-12th of an inch in length, and the chrysalis is reddish orange. It is not easy to suggest a remedy against the Wheat midge. All that can be done is to endeavour to separate the pupæ from the corn in barns by means of a wire-gauze sieve placed below the winnowing machine. The Hessian fly (*Cecidomyia destructor*) is injurious to Wheat in North America. It deposits its eggs near the base of the straw, and destroys the stem above the root. These species of *Cecidomyia* are fortunately often destroyed in great numbers by the Ichneumons, which deposit their ova in their bodies.

1053. Aphides attack almost every plant. Many of them infest the cultivated crops. *Aphis Fabæ* is an insect of a sooty black colour which attacks the Bean crops, appearing first on the tender upper shoots. The aphides multiply to an enormous extent. A single insect, according to Allman, may be in one year the progenitor of 100,000,000,000,000,000 of young ones. A similar insect attacks the Pea. *Aphis Rapæ* is a green-coloured insect which infests Turnips. The infected leaves are curled up and distorted, and the insects are found in multitudes within the folds, towards the end of summer and in autumn. The insect attacks the Potato, and is identical with *Aphis vastator*. The only remedy for Aphides is to remove the infected leaves as soon as they are discovered.§ The larva of the beautiful

* Duncan, on Insects most injurious to Vegetables, and on the means best calculated to counteract their ravages, in *Trans. of Highland Soc.* for 1844. Hardy, on Insects injurious to the Turnip Crop. Westwood, numerous Entomological Papers, during 1850-53, in the *Gardener's Chronicle*. See also M'Intosh's *Book of the Garden*, vol. ii.

† Curtis, on Insects affecting the Potato Crop, in *Journ. Agric. Soc. England*, x. 70.

‡ Kirby, *History of Tipula Tritici* and of *Ichneumon Tipular*, with observations on other insects that attack the Wheat, in *Linn. Trans.* iv. 230, and v. 96.

§ Leaves occasionally present an aspect as if injured by insects, when in reality the appearance is caused by parts of the tissue decaying in a peculiar way. See *Gardener's Chronicle*, Sept. 22, 1849.

little beetle called *Coccinella*, or Lady-bird, commits great devastation among the destructive Aphides, on which it feeds. The larva of another insect, called the Lacc-wing or *Chrysopus*, also destroys Aphides.

1054. The Apple-tree mussel or dry scale, *Aspidiotus conchiformis*, attacks the bark of Apples, Pears, Plums, Apricots, and Peaches. Species of *Coccus* are often destructive to plants. One of them destroyed, in 1843, the whole Orange-trees in the island of Fayal, one of the Azores. The usual exportation of fruit from Fayal was 12,000 chests annually, but in 1843 there was not one. The insect extended its devastation also to St. Michel's. The support of the numerous families, the fortunes of the merchants engaged in this commerce, the revenue of the country, and the wealth and even the very existence

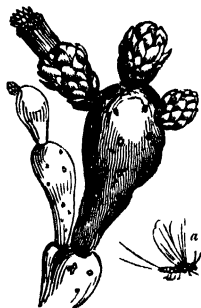


Fig. 1307

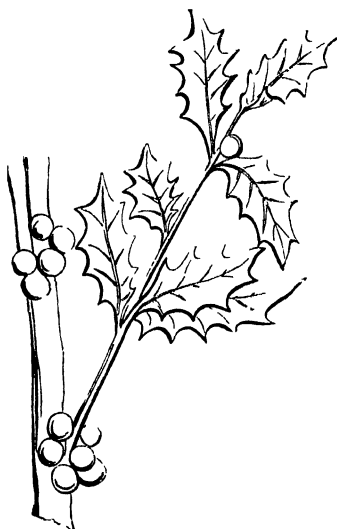


Fig. 1308

of the population, were thus directly affected by the operations of a diminutive insect. A species of *Coccus* infests Coffee plantations in Ceylon, and often causes great destruction to the crop. After the attack of the *Coccus*, a dark-coloured Fungus attacks the plants. The

Fig. 1307. Species of Cactus, on which the Cochineal insect (*Coccus Cacti*) feeds. The plant is called *Opuntia cochinealifera*. The female insect supplies the dye. The Nopaleries of the West Indies are plantations of this Cactus, which is called the Nopal plant. The male winged insect is represented at *a* in the Figure.

Fig. 1308 The Kermes Oak (*Quercus coccifera*), on which the *Coccus ulcis* feeds. This *Coccus*, represented on the branch in the Figure, yields a scarlet dye, which appears to be the scarlet alluded to in many passages of Scripture (Gen. xxxviii. 28; Exod. xxxviii. 6, 8, 15, Num. iv. 8, Lev. xiv. 4; 2 Sam. i. 24, Lam. iv. 5, Nahum, ii. 4). Mr. Hamel, however, endeavours to prove that the red colour so often spoken of in the Bible and by ancient writers was produced by the Armenian Cochineal, which is found on the roots of *Æluropus lævis*, a common plant in the Steppes of Erivan.

cochineal insect feeds on a species of Cactus (*Opuntia cochinellifera*), and produces injury to the plant (Fig. 1307). The female insect supplies the dye.

1055. The Kermes insects (*Coccus ilicis*) are found on a species of Oak (*Quercus Ilex*) common in the Levant, Spain, and South of France (Fig. 1308). The Crimson Kermes dye was used in early times. It was known to the Phœnicians by the name of Tola or Thola, and to the Greeks under that of Coccus, whence the Romans derived their name Coccineus, the Spaniards their Coccinella, and the English their Cochineal. It was known to the Arabs and Persians by the names of Kermez and Alkermez, whence the French derived the name of the colour, Cramoisie, and we our Crimson. From the Latin epithets *vermiculum* and *vermiculatum*, given to it in the middle ages, when it was thought to originate from a worm, have been derived the French vermeil and the English vermilion, although now applied to cinnabar. On the roots of *Scleranthus perennis*, the *Coccus polonicus*, or *Coccus radicum*, is found. It furnishes the Polish or German cochineal. It was formerly collected for dyeing red in the Ukraine and Lithuania.*

1056. Species of *Lozotania* roll up the leaves of different trees and shrubs. The pea-green moth (*Tortricida viridana*) curls up the leaves of the Oak in a peculiar manner. A moth called *Tinea Clerckella* attacks the leaves of Pears and Apples, and especially the Chaumontelle and Glout-morceau Pears, causes blisters on the leaves, and destroys the parenchyma. Blister-moths also attack the leaves of Oak, Elm, and Celery. Many insects, called Miners (from the caterpillars feeding only on the pulp of leaves and leaving the cuticle entire), attack the Turnip, Vine, Primrose, Rose, *Cineraria*, and Bramble. They form tortuous galleries in the leaf, and change its colour into a red-brown or ochreous tint. This mode of life is not restricted to one order of insects. Certain species of beetles, moths, and flies have the same propensity. Species of *Phytomyza* and *Chromatomyia* cause markings on leaves by undermining them. *Chromatomyia nigra* (*Phytomyza nigra*) causes white marks on the leaves of the Primrose. These are winding canals on the upper side of the leaves. *Ch. obscurella* and *flaviceps* act in the same way on the leaves of Honeysuckle. *Ch. Syngenesiæ* is one of the miners which attack the leaves of *Senecio vulgaris* and *Jacobæa*, *Carduus arvensis*, *Sonchus oleraceus*, &c. *Phytomyza flava* is a mining insect which attacks the leaves of *Ranunculus repens*. *Ph. albiceps* attacks the leaves of *Heracleum Sphondylium* and *Carduus arvensis*. *Ph. Aquilegiæ* attacks Columbine leaves. *Cossus ligniperda* and *Scolytus destructor* cause diseases in the bark of

* Lac is a dye procured from a *Coccus* (*Coccus Ficus*, or *Coccus Lacca*). The lac insects in the East Indies are nourished on many different trees. Lac in its natural state is called *stick-lac*. *Seed-lac* is a collection of granules got from stick-lac, after the colouring matter has been extracted by water. *Lump-lac* is seed-lac after it has been purified by fire and formed into cakes; while *shell-lac* is the purified lac, or the substance liquefied, strained, and formed into transparent laminae.

Elms, &c. The only way to cure the disease is by cutting out all the old infected bark, destroying the channels in which the ova and larva are, and then washing with lime water mixed with some soot.

1057. Many trees, especially the Oak and Willow, are liable to the disease called Galls, which is due to attacks of insects (species of *Cynips*, &c). The insects wound the bark and leaves while depositing their ova, and the irritation causes a formation of a deposit around them. The galls of commerce are produced on *Quercus infectoria*. In blue galls the insect is still in the interior, while in white galls the insect has escaped by a perforation. There are various kinds of galls formed on different parts of the Oak. The Oak-apple is the largest gall of the Oak, and it is developed on the extremity of a twig. It is divided into numerous cavities, each containing a grub, pupa, or perfect fly, according to the season. Another gall is produced by a *Cynips*. It is in size and form like a Currant, and is developed on the male catkins of the Oak, which, when the gall is on them, continue to live even when other catkins have fallen off. Another gall like the last is found attached to the leaves of the Oak. Some of them are as large as a marble. The Artichoke gall is an irregular development of the bud, and consists of a number of leafy scales overlapping each other. At first sight it might be taken for a young cone; but on dissection it is found like other galls to contain insects in various stages of growth according to the season. The Oak spangle is an appendage of the leaf attached by a central point to its under surface; the inner side is smooth, the outer red, hairy, and fringed. Each contains a single insect, which retains its habitation till March, long after the leaves have fallen to the ground. These spangles resemble parasitic Fungi in their appearance, and have often been mistaken for them.*

1058. The species of Spruce (*Abies*) are liable to a peculiar disease produced by the attacks of an insect called *Adelges Abietis*. This disease consists of an alteration in the colour and form of the leaves, which are aggregated together in the shape of cone-like excrescences. Mr. Hardy, in describing the insect and its mode of attack, says:—The original matriarch lives outside the gall, remaining all winter in a dwarf state at the root of a bud. As soon as the bud swells, she revives likewise, and speedily becoming enlarged with the juice imbibed, she lays some hundreds of eggs. The bud meanwhile, instead of growing in length, becomes fleshy, and this fleshiness is communicated to the leaves. The consequence is an arrested bud, into the recesses of which the young, issuing from the cluster of ova on the

* The apples of Sodom are by some supposed to be galls found on an Oak. The galls, when on the tree, are said to be of a rich purple colour, and to be varnished over with a soft substance of the consistence of honey. They shine with a brilliant lustre in the sun, and appear like a tempting fruit, but when chewed they have an intensely bitter taste (Lambert on Galls found on a species of Oak on the shore of the Dead Sea, in Linn. Trans. xvii. 445). Some, however, consider the so-called apples of Sodom (*Mala insana*) to be the fruit of *Solanum sodomium* and of *Calotropis gigantea*.

outside of it beneath, betake themselves, and become soon closed in by the increased irritation occasioned by their presence in its interior.*

1059. The wire-worm is very destructive to plants. It is a cylindrical worm of a yellowish colour, marked by very distinct rings, and covered with a hard, horny skin. It is not a perfect insect, but the larva of a beetle called *Elater*. It lives for five years in the state of larva, becoming more destructive all that time, and then changes to an inactive pupa, from which the perfect beetle finally emerges. The beetle itself does not destroy plants. Allman mentions numerous remedies as having been proposed against the wire-worm. The use of the roller is by some strongly recommended; also, the folding of oxen and sheep in the infected fields. Several chemical applications have also been used, such as lime, soot, and common salt. A curious discovery has been recently made on the subject, namely, that certain plants have the power of expelling the wire-worm. These plants are Woad and White Mustard; and it is found that if a crop of either of these plants be grown on a field infested with the wire-worm, this pest will be completely expelled, and the field may be sown with the ordinary crops the following year. Hand-picking is an obvious and most useful mode, and the farmer should be warned to protect rooks, which, though they do a little harm in eating up some of his corn, or rooting out a Potato or two, do infinitely more good in destroying wire-worms and other injurious insects.

1060. The remedies proposed for the attacks of insects are numerous. Quick-lime, Sulphur, Turpentine, Tobacco, have all been recommended. In the case of Aphides the vapour of Tobacco is useful. It is not easy to get rid of the species of *Coccus* with their cottony covering. The only remedy seems to be the cleaning of the leaves and other parts of the plant by the hand. The vapour of sulphur will kill many insects, but then it acts injuriously on plants. A solution of Tobacco, the crushed leaves of the Cherry Laurel, which give out a hydrocyanated vapour, ammoniacal liquor, coal tar, and many other substances, have been employed in different instances. The insect (*Anobia*) which feeds on plants in Herbaria may be destroyed by a solution of corrosive sublimate and Camphor in Alcohol. In order to prevent the attacks of these insects, it is advisable to touch all the specimens in a herbarium with such a solution.†

1061. As regards a remedy for the Potato disease, M. Bollman, one

* For an account of insects attacking wood, see Kirby on insects that prey on timber, in Linn Trans. v. 246.

† Curtis recommends the following mixture —

Corrosive sublimate, two drachms
Sulphuric ether, three drachms.
Dissolve and add alcohol, three ounces
Spirit of turpentine, two ounces

The mixture commonly used in Edinburgh consists of—

Corrosive sublimate, one drachm.
Camphorated spirit, three ounces.

of the Professors in the Russian Agricultural Institution at Gorigoretsky, has recently stated that thoroughly dried Potatoes always produce a crop free from disease. The drying must be conducted at a high temperature, perhaps from 80° to 100° F. or more, and must be continued for a long time—a month at least. Bollman has succeeded in having excellent crops of Potatoes since 1850 by adopting this method, while other fields around his were suffering from the disease. Other parties in Russia have found the plan successful. Professor Bollman remarks that it is usual in some parts of Russia to smoke-dry Flax, Wheat, Rye, and Onion seeds. Potatoes smoke-dried have been found by M. Wasileffsky to be little liable to disease. The Potato will bear a very high temperature during the process of drying. In one instance the thermometer stood at 136°, and it was ascertained that the vitality of the Potato was not destroyed even when its rind was charred.*

1062. Recapitulation of the chief facts connected with the diseases and injuries of plants:—

1. The common causes of diseases in plants are improper soils, ungenial climates, frosts, rains, drought, storms, parasitic plants, insects, and wounds of various kinds.
2. Diseases frequently originate in the nitrogenous lining of the cell-walls, and thence are propagated to the contents of the cells and to contiguous tissues.
3. Diseases have been divided into—those arising from excess or deficiency of light, heat, air, moisture, or the ingredients of the soil; those caused by parasitic Fungi; those attributable to the action of poisons; and those produced by mechanical injuries, and by attacks of insects.
4. Some of these diseases are propagated by contagion, more especially those occasioned by Fungi; others spread epidemically, and seem to depend on atmospheric changes and meteorological causes.
5. Some plants are more predi-posed than others to disease, and it is found that those plants are most liable to be attacked by parasitic Fungi which are enfeebled in their growth.
6. Plants grown in an ungenial climate and soil, are very liable to disease; tender exotics in Britain are often injured by spring frosts.
7. Plants are suited to particular climates, and it is impossible to increase by cultivation their power of enduring heat or cold; there is no evidence of plants being acclimatized by a process of cultivation.
8. The sea-breeze, carrying with it saline particles, is often very injurious to trees. Some trees resist the effects of the sea breeze better than others.
9. The attacks of parasitic Fungi are a very frequent source of disease. These Fungi may either originate the disease, or aggravate and modify it after it is produced.
10. Many diseases in cultivated grains, such as Bunt, Smut, Rust, and Mildew, are referred to attacks of species of *Uredo*, *Puccinia*, and *Ustilago*.
11. Various remedies have been suggested, such as steeping grain in boiling water, in a solution of sulphate of copper and in alkaline solutions.
12. Other Fungi, more especially species of *Erysiphe* and *Oidium*, gives rise to Mildew in plants. The Vine Mildew caused by *Oidium Tuckeri*, is said to be prevented by the application of sulphur.
13. Ergot is a diseased condition of the ovary of Grasses, which assumes a spurred appearance, well seen in diseased Rye. It seems to be caused by an attack of a Fungus called *Cordyliceptis purpurea*.

* Bollman, *Experiences et Conclusions sur les Moyens de prévenir la Maladie des Pommes de Terre*, St. Petersburg, 1853; also *Gardener's Chronicle*, June 4, 1853.

14. The late Potato disease has been attributed by Berkeley and others, to a Fungus attacking the leaves, and afterwards causing injury to the tubers. The disease seems to appear first in the leaves, which, when affected, present the same aspect as those injured by irritant gases.
15. By others the disease is attributed to changes in the cells caused by cultivation, which render the plant liable to various epidemic influences; a nidus is formed for the spores of Fungi, which accelerate decay, and give a peculiar character to the disease.
16. Bollman says that drying, if conducted at a sufficiently high temperature, and continued long enough, is a complete antidote to the disease.
17. Dry rot is a disease to which the wood of trees is liable; alterations take place in the cells and vessels, and a Fungus called *Merulius lacrymans* or *vastator*, is developed, which causes a very rapid disintegration of the wood.
18. Dry-rot occurs also in wood after being cut, when it is exposed to damp, and when at the same time there is not a free circulation of air. Some woods are more liable to dry-rot than others.
19. The modes of preventing dry-rot are keeping the wood dry and well ventilated; steeping it in a solution of corrosive sublimate (*Kyanizing*), or in a solution of chloride of Zinc (*Burnettizing*); or causing it to absorb, after *Boucherie's* method, solutions of acetate of lead, or of pyrolignite of iron, or of creasote.
20. Some succulent plants are liable to gangrene, by which the parts become sphacelated, and decay.
21. Plants are also liable to be destroyed by the attack of phanerogamous parasites, such as the *Dodder*.
22. Metallic and vegetable poisons destroy plants; the former act as irritants, the latter as narcotics.
23. Acid and narcotic gases in the atmosphere are injurious to plants, causing disease and death.
24. Many insects act injuriously on plants, either destroying them at once, or inflicting wounds which end in a diseased condition of the parts.
25. The disease called *Earcockle* or *Purple*, is caused by the *Vibrio Tritici* or *Wheat-eel*.
26. Species of *Cecidomyia*, *Aphis*, and *Coccus*, are destructive to cultivated plants.
27. Galls are produced by the attacks of insects (species of *Cynips*), which deposit their ova in the bark and leaves of plants. Oaks and Willows are frequently affected with galls.
28. A species of *Adelges* causes a peculiar cone-like formation on the branches of *Spruce*.
29. The *wire-worm*, which is the larva of a beetle, is very destructive to plants.
30. Various remedies have been suggested to prevent the attacks of insects, such as quicklime, sulphur, turpentine, Tobacco, and the liquor of gas-works.

PART III.

TAXOLOGICAL BOTANY, OR THE CLASSIFICATION OF PLANTS.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL REMARKS ON CLASSIFICATION.

1063. In examining the Vegetable Kingdom, we observe that the individuals composing it are formed by the Almighty in accordance with a principle of order, as well as a principle of special adaptation. We have already remarked the order pursued in the arrangements of the various parts of the root, stems, leaves, and flowers of plants, and we have traced, in some degree, the modes in which they are fitted to perform their different functions. We now proceed to apply the facts of Vegetable Anatomy and Physiology to the classification of plants, and to consider the plan according to which they are grouped together in classes and families.

1064. We see around us various kinds or sorts of plants which more or less resemble each other—or, in other words, are more or less related to each other. In Taxological or Systematic Botany we endeavour to mark these resemblances and to determine their relations. It is impossible to give a scientific arrangement of the plants of the globe without a thorough knowledge of structure and morphology, and without an extensive knowledge of the vegetation of all parts of the world. We cannot expect to determine the system on which plants have been grouped until we have an accurate acquaintance with all the forms which they present. Hence, in the present state of our

knowledge, there must be imperfection in our attempts at systematizing. The Floras of many regions in Africa, India, China, Australia, and America, are still unknown, and we may therefore conclude that in all systems there will be gaps to be filled up as our knowledge increases. Sufficient, however, is known to enable us to group plants according to certain evident alliances.

1065. The necessity for arrangement is evident, when we reflect that there are more than 120,000 known species of plants on the earth. In order to make these available for scientific purposes, it is absolutely essential that they should be named and classified. In associating plants in certain groups we naturally proceed on an idea of resemblance or likeness. While in ordinary language this idea is vague, and is often founded on imperfect data, it is clear that in science it must be strict and rigorous. It is not enough to say that one plant resembles another in its general aspect, we must ascertain the particulars of agreement, and the points in which they differ; we must weigh well the importance of the characters, and must compare organs which are equivalent in value; and thus we shall often find, that plants which to common observers appear alike, are in reality totally different. The study of organography gives us a strict and accurate technical language which must be rigidly adhered to in classification. The labour bestowed in the acquisition of botanical terminology is by no means lost. It is the foundation on which all classificatory arrangements proceed. We must not be misled by the mere derivation of terms, we must study their true import. Thus the term papilionaceous means, like a butterfly; but we must not on that account suppose that every flower having a fancied resemblance to a butterfly is papilionaceous. We know that in scientific language such a flower is composed of certain definite parts, the vexillum, alæ, and carina, arranged in a certain order, and to them we must look as constituting the character.

1066. Plants as they occur in nature are viewed as individuals resembling or differing from each other. Some individuals are so decidedly alike that we at once give them the same names. Thus a field of wheat is composed of numerous similar individuals which can be separated from each other, but cannot be distinguished by any permanent or marked difference. Although there may be some difference in size and other minor points, still we at once say they are stalks of Wheat. Every grain of Wheat when sown, produces a stalk of Wheat; these stalks yield grains which produce individuals like their parents. The shoots or buds given off from the base of Wheat by tillering, also produce stalks of Wheat. On such universal and inevitable conceptions as these, our idea of *Species* is founded.

1067. A *Species*, Forbes remarks, is the type or original of each sort of plant, represented in time by a succession of similar individuals; and may be defined as an assemblage of individuals presenting certain constant characters in common, and derived from one original protoplast or stock. The individuals are thus considered as having arisen

from one parent stock. They may differ slightly in size, or in colour, and other unimportant respects, but they resemble each other more closely than they resemble any other plants, and their seeds produce similar individuals. Martin says, species are distinct forms of plants originally created, and producing, by certain laws of generation, others like themselves. Species, then, comprehend all the individuals which have issued from a single being or one pair of beings, according as the sexes are conjoined or separated.

1068. Observation and common daily experience demonstrate, in the actual circumstances in which we exist, the permanence of the types which constitute the species of living bodies. There is no evidence whatever of a transmutation of species. The erroneous statements regarding the conversion of Oats into Rye have proceeded on imperfect observations.* The individuals, however, of a species may present certain differences in regard to size, colour, &c., these differences depending on soil, and on different conditions of heat, light, and moisture. Such differences are not incompatible with the idea of a common origin, and moreover, there is always a tendency to return to the original type. Hence Ball defines a species, that group of vegetable forms of which we are led, by observation and analogy, to believe that the differences between the individuals composing it may be made to disappear by the continued agency of external circumstances, either upon the individuals themselves or upon their descendants. What are called *Varieties*, therefore, are variations in species which are not in general of a permanent character, and cannot be kept up in ordinary circumstances by seed. By cultivation, however, such varieties are sometimes perpetuated. This is usually accomplished by means of cuttings or grafts, and in certain instances even by seed. Thus the varieties of the cereal grains and of culinary vegetables have been propagated so as to constitute permanent races.

1069. Plants which are cultivated are liable to *sport*, as it is called, and the peculiarities and variations thus produced are sometimes kept up. Thus, Lindley remarks, there are races of double Larkspurs, and of striped flowers, called uniques. So also there are permanent varieties of Camellias and Chrysanthemums, Pelargoniums, Orchids, Amaryllides, Fuchsias, and many other garden flowers. The Carrot, when cultivated, in place of flowering, lays up a large store of nourishment in its root, and does not flower till the second year. The Moss-rose is a sport produced by glandular projections of the calyx and peduncle. This is called mossiness. The first Moss-rose was a sport, and the rest are kept up by careful selection and cultivation. The

* A curious case has been narrated, in which a spikelet of Oat came out from a head of Wheat. On examination, it appeared that the stalk of the Oat had twisted itself round the ear of Wheat when both were very young, and they had grown up together in close apposition—the chaff of the Wheat completely hiding the stalk of the Oat, which was at last, by some accident or violence, snapped from its parent and left clinging to its supporter, all trace of its origin being hidden—*Gardener's Chronicle*, October 6, 1849.

Celosia has a thickened, flattened (fasciated) stalk, and crowded flowers—a sport forming the Cockscomb. The tendency to grow in a fasciated Cockscomb manner is kept up by saving seeds of these sporting specimens, and rejecting all which do not show the monstrosity. The Canterbury Bell often shows a sport in the form of a fasciated flowering stem, and of flowers running together into a fine crescent-shaped head.

1070. In culinary vegetables the tendency to sport is very evident. In this way all the varieties of Cabbage, Cauliflower, Brocoli, Savoys, and Curled Greens are derived from one stock, *Brassica oleracea*. This plant grows wild on the sea-shore, and when cultivated it assumes peculiar forms. Thus it forms a heart, as in ordinary Cabbage; its flower-stalks become thickened and shortened, as in Cauliflower and Brocoli; or its parenchyma is largely developed between the vessels, so as to give rise to the crisp and curled appearance of Greens. This tendency in the plant to produce monstrosities was early noticed by cultivators, and care was taken to propagate those individuals which showed abnormal appearances. The seeds of such were saved, put into good soil, and no plants were allowed to remain except such as presented the required form. In this manner certain races of culinary vegetables have been established. If, however, these cultivated plants are allowed to grow wild and scatter their seed in ordinary soil, they will in the progress of time revert to the original type or species. Instances such as these show the remarkable effects of cultivation in perpetuating varieties by seed.

1071. Remarkable varieties in fruit are produced by cultivation and grafting, as already explained (p. 664). All these varieties are kept up by the art of the gardener. The seeds of the best Apples, when sown, have a tendency to produce plants which bear fruit resembling the Crab, and if they are sown in ordinary soil, and allowed to grow in a wild state, they will return at length to the type or true species (*Pyrus Malus*), which they will perpetuate.

1072. In regard to the cereal grains, Wheat, Barley, Oats, &c., they have been so long cultivated that we are at a loss to know the original types or species. We have been forced, in the mean time, to call them species, although they are probably mere cultivated varieties of unknown species, perpetuated as races. That Wheat is an abnormal state of some plant, it has been remarked, might be conjectured from the fact that it does not become wild; if left to itself it disappears. Not that (as in the case of many abnormal states of plants) it does not produce fertile seeds, nor does it (as is the case with others) return to its original state; but when deprived of that cultivation which has brought it to the abnormal state, it dies off, it becomes choked or destroyed by external agents which it is too weak to resist, or it does not multiply in a ratio sufficient to counterbalance the numerous causes of destruction to which wild plants are liable. Fabre has stated re-

cently that the Wheat is a cultivated variety of the grass called *Ægilops ovata*. This plant first undergoes a change by which it becomes what has been called *Ægilops triticoides*, and then in successive years is converted into true Wheat. The wild grass called *Ægilops ovata*, according to him, is subject to a sport (*Ægilops triticoides*), and the seeds of this variety have a tendency to sport still more; until, in the course of about twelve years, by careful cultivation it can produce the form known as cultivated Wheat.* This discovery, as Lindley says, does not invalidate the characters by which the genera *Ægilops* and *Triticum* (as taken from wild species, such as *Triticum maritimum*, &c.) are separated, any more than the existence of a *Peloria* in *Linaria* invalidates the characters derived from the distinction between regular and irregular flowers.

1073. It is of great importance to distinguish between mere varieties and true species, and to determine the limits of variation in different species.† By not attending to this, many varieties have been described as species, and by their change or disappearance have given rise to great confusion and incorrectness both in descriptions and in arrangements. We must not exalt into species individuals showing differences which are not of a permanent nature in the ordinary wild state of the plant. The multiplication of the species of *Salix*, *Rosa*, *Rubus*, *Hieracium*, *Saxifraga*, and *Solanum*, and of many other genera, is to be attributed in no small degree to inattention to the limits within which certain species vary. Another source of fallacy arises from hybrids being occasionally reckoned as true species, as in the case of *Bryanthus erectus*, already noticed (p. 594). Hybrids or cross breeds, as already stated, are rare among wild plants, but they are common in gardens. These hybrids, however, are rarely fertile, or at least do not continue so for many generations. They have always a tendency to revert to one of the parents.‡

1074. Certain species not identical in origin, have common features of resemblance, and are associated together under what is called a *Genus*. A genus, then, is an assemblage of nearly related species, agreeing with one another, in general structure and appearance, more closely than they accord with other species. Thus the Scotch Rose, the Dog Rose, the China Rose, and the Sweet-briar, are all different species included in one genus, *Rosa*. So also Brambles and the Raspberry are comprehended in the genus *Rubus*. It may happen that a single species may be reckoned as forming a genus, when the peculiarities are as marked as those constituting other genera. Thus, if there was only one species of Oak, it would be sufficient to constitute a genus, as much so as at present, when it includes 200 species. It is

* See Fabre's views, as given in the *Gardener's Chronicle* for July 17, 24, and 31, 1852. See also Courte Introduction au Travail de M. Esprit Fabre d'Agde, sur la Metamorphose de deux *Ægilops* en *Triticum*, par M. Felix Dunal. Des *Ægilops* du Midi de la France, et de leur transformation, par M. Esprit Fabre d'Agde.

† Henslow, on the requisites necessary for the advance of Botany, with remarks on the limits of Species, in *Mag. Zool. and Bot.* 113.

‡ See full notice of Hybrids at p. 594, *et seq.*

distinguished by its acorn from other allied genera, such as the Beech, the Hazel, and the Chestnut. The species in a genus present one general plan, and may be said to be formed after the same pattern. Some species of a genus, having special points of resemblance, may be grouped together in a Sub-genus.

1075. Forbes,* in treating of the relations of individuals, species, or genera, to geological time and geographical space, remarks:—"The *individual*, whether we restrict the word to the single organism, however produced,—or extend it to the series of organisms, combined or independent, all being products of a single seed or ovum—has but a limited and unique existence in time, which, short as it must be, can be shortened by the influence of unfavourable conditions, but which no combination of favouring circumstances can prolong beyond the term of life allotted to it according to its kind. The *species*, whether we restrict the term to assemblages of individuals resembling each other in certain constant characters, or hold, in addition, the hypothesis (warranted, as might be shown from experience and experiment), that between all the members of such an assemblage there is the relationship of family, the relationship of descent, and consequently that they are all the descendants of one first stock or protoplast, is like the individual in so much as its relation to time are unique: once destroyed, it never reappears. But, unlike the individual, it is continued indefinitely so long as conditions favourable to its diffusion and prosperity—that is to say, so long as conditions favourable to the production and sustenance of the individual representatives or elements, are continued coincidentally with its existence. The *genus*, in whatever degree of extension we use the term, so long as we apply it to an assemblage of species intimately related to each other in common and important features of organization, appears distinctly to exhibit the phenomenon of centralization in both time and space, though with a difference, since it would seem that each genus has a unique centre or area of development in time, but in geographical space may present more centres than one. An individual is a positive reality; a species is a relative reality; a genus is an abstraction, an idea—but an idea impressed on nature and not arbitrarily dependent on man's conceptions. An individual is one; a species consists of many resulting from one; a genus consists of more or fewer of these manies resulting from one linked together not by a relationship of descent but by an affinity dependent on a Divine idea. Lastly, An individual cannot manifest itself in two places at once; it has no extension in space; its relations are entirely with time, but the possible duration of its existence is regulated by the law of its inherent vitality: A species has correspondent and exactly analogous relations with time and space—the duration of its existence as well as its geographical extension, is entirely regulated by physical conditions: A

* Prof. E Forbes on the supposed Analogy between the Life of an Individual and the Duration of a Species.

genus has dissimilar or only partially comparable relations with time and space, and occupies areas in both, having only partial relations to physical conditions."*

1076. On looking at genera, it will be seen that some of them, such as Oaks, Hazels, Beeches, and Chestnuts, have a strong resemblance or family likeness, and that they differ remarkably from such genera as Firs and Pines, Maples and Ashes. Certain genera may in this way be grouped so as to form Orders or Families. While genera are groups of allied species, Orders are groups of allied genera, or, according to Forbes, more comprehensive genera. Thus, Firs, Pines, and Larches, belong to different genera, but all agree in being cone-bearing, and are grouped under Coniferæ. The Rose, the Raspberry, the Bramble, the Strawberry, the Cinquefoil, the Cherry, and the Plum, all agree in their general organography, and are united under Rosacæ. Certain genera have more points in common than others, and are grouped together under sub-divisions of orders called Sub-orders. Thus, the Plum and the Cherry have a drupe as their fruit, and are more nearly allied to each other than they are to the Apple; again, the Strawberry, Raspberry, and Bramble, are more allied to each other than to the Cherry or Apple. We have thus Sub-orders of Rosacæ, namely, Amygdaleæ, including the Plum, Peach, Cherry, and Almond; Pomeæ, including the Apple, Pear, Medlar, and Quince; Potentilleæ, including the Strawberry, Cinquefoil, and Raspberry; and Roseæ, comprehending the Roses. The order Leguminosæ contains plants having legumes, and it is divided into Sub-orders, according to the nature of the flowers, namely, Papilionacæ, with papilionaceous flowers, æstivation imbricate, upper petal exterior; Cæsalpiniæ, flowers not papilionaceous, but irregular, æstivation imbricate, upper petal interior; and Mimoseæ, flowers not papilionaceous, regular, æstivation valvate. Cruciferous plants agree in their tetrapetalous flowers with the petals arranged like a cross, and in their tetradynamous stamens, and they are divided into Sub-orders founded on their fruit, namely, Siliquosæ, with

* In writing upon this subject Professor Forbes says — "What we call class, order, family, genus are all only so many names for genera of various degrees of extent. It is in this sense I use the term genus. Technically a genus is a group to which a name (as Ribes) is applied, but essentially Exogen, Ranunculacæ, and Ranunculus, are genera of different degrees. Now, one of the chief arguments in favour of the *naturalness* of genera or groups, is that derived from the fact, that many genera can be shown to be centralized in definite geographical areas, Erica for example; that is, we find the species gathered all or mostly within an area, which has some one point where the maximum number of species is developed. But in geographical space we not unfrequently find that the same genus may have two or more areas within each of which this phenomenon of a point of maximum number of species is seen, with fewer and fewer species radiating as it were from it. This is what I mean by more centres than one in geographical space. Thus Viola has an American, as well as an Old World point of maximum development, around which we may group the species, gradually diminishing in number. In time, however, or in other words, in geological distribution, so far as we know, each generic type has had, so to speak, a unique and continuous range. Thus we find that all the species of a genus are grouped together within a succession of formations which commence at a certain point and cease at another, but when once a generic type has ceased, it never reappears. Therefore I speak of a genus having a unique centre in time. I say that a genus is an abstraction, a Divine idea. I think the very fact of the centralization of groups of allied species, in other words, of genera, in space and time, is sufficient proof of this. Doubtless we make many so-called genera that are artificial, but a true genus is natural, and as such is not dependent on man's will."

a siliqua, and Siliculose with a silicula. Orders may be divided still more minutely so as to group certain nearly allied genera into Tribes and Sub-tribes.

1077. Certain orders agreeing in evident and important general characters are united together so as to form Classes; and subdivisions of classes are made in the same way as in the case of orders. There are thus Sub-classes associating certain orders included in one Class. The usual divisions are Classes, Orders, Genera, and Species. These occur in all systems of classification.

1078. A more minute subdivision may be made as follows:—

I. Classes.	III. Genera.
a. Sub-classes.	a. Sub-genera or Sections.
II. Orders or Families.	IV. Species.
a. Sub-orders.	a. Varieties.
b. Tribes.	
c. Sub-tribes.	

1079. An enumeration of the marks by which one Class, Order, Genus, or Species is distinguished from another is called its Character. In giving the characters of any division, we notice merely those which are necessary to distinguish it from others. This is called its Essential Character. A plant may also be described completely, beginning at the root, and proceeding to the stem, branches, leaves, flowers, fruit, seed, and embryo. This is not essential, however, for the purposes of classification, and would be quite superfluous in that point of view. In the character of the Classes the important points of structure on which they are constituted are given. In the character of Orders (the ordinal character) we give the general structure of the included plants, especially of their flowers and fruit. In the Generic character, we notice the modification of the ordinal character in a given genus—the character being taken from the parts of the flower and fruit, as in the order. In the Specific character are included certain less important modifications of form, whether in the stem, leaves, or flowers, which serve to distinguish allied species.

1080. The essential character of a genus, when given in Latin, is put in the nominative case, that of a species in the ablative. The names of the Classes are variously derived, according to the views of the authors in regard to classification. They express some points of structure or development which are of marked importance or permanence. The Orders are named from some characteristic genus included in them, except in artificial methods, where some organ is taken as the means of distinction. Genera are derived either from the Latin name of one of the species, from the structure or qualities of the included species, or from the name of some botanist, &c. Thus *Prunus* is a genus including the Plum, the Sloe, &c.; *Rosa*, the Rose; *Papaver*, the Poppy; *Hookeria* is a genus named after Hooker; *Lithospermum*,

from two Greek words signifying a stone and seed, is given to a genus, the species of which have hard stony nuts or achenes.

1081. In giving the name of a plant we mention its genus and species. Thus the common Dog-rose is called *Rosa canina*, the first being the generic name, the second the specific. Specific names may indicate the country in which a plant is found, the locality in which it grows, the form of its roots, stem, or leaves, the colour of its flowers, &c. A species named in honour of its discoverer or describer has the specific name usually in the genitive, as *Veronica Jacquinii*, named after Jacquin. When the name is given in compliment to a botanist, without reference to the discovery, then the specific name is in the adjective form, as *Veronica Lindleyana*. Sometimes a generic name is used specifically, and then it is put as a noun after the genus, with a capital letter, and the two names may not agree in gender; thus we have such names as *Cratægus Oxyacantha*, *Æthusa Cynapium*, *Viburnum Opulus*, *Veronica Chamædrys*. To the genus and species are added certain letters, indicating the botanist who founded them. Thus *Valeriana* L. is the genus Valerian, as constituted by Linnæus, and *Valeriana officinalis* L. is the officinal Valerian, as described by Linnæus; *Oxytropis*, DC., is the genus so called by De Candolle. Sometimes authors happen to describe the same plant by different names. It is of importance, therefore, to give the Synonymes of other botanists, with their names. Thus *Salvadora persica* of Garcin is *S. Wightii* of Arnott, and *S. indica* of Wight's Illustrations.

1082. After the description of a plant we usually mention its Habitat, that is, the country or province in which it grows, with the nature of the locality, whether alpine or lowland, dry or moist, &c. When the plant is an annual, this is indicated by the marks A. or ☉, biennial by B. or ♂, perennial by P. or ♀, a shrub by Sh. or h, and a tree by T. If an authentic specimen has been seen from the author of the species, then a point of admiration is put before his name thus, ! DC. De Candolle uses the letters v. v. s. (*vidi vivam spontaneam*), to indicate that he has seen a living native specimen of the plant, v. v. c. (*vidi vivam cultam*) to mark that he has seen a living cultivated specimen, v. s. s. (*vidi siccam spontaneam*) a dried native specimen, v. s. c. (*vidi siccam cultam*) a dried cultivated specimen. Other abbreviations have been noticed under Organography, and a tabular view of them will be given with the Glossary.

CHAPTER II.

SYSTEMS OF CLASSIFICATION.

1083. There are two systems pursued in the arrangement of plants ; one is called the Artificial method, and the other the Natural method. In both of them the genera and species, or the minor divisions, are the same, but the higher divisions of classes and orders are totally unlike, and are founded on entirely different principles. The genera and species are very differently arranged in the two systems. In artificial methods one or two organs are selected in an arbitrary manner, and they are taken as the means of forming classes and orders ; while in the natural method plants are grouped according to their alliance in all their important characters. Plants belonging to the same class and order in the former system may have nothing in common except the number of the stamens and pistils, or the form of their flowers, or some other arbitrarily selected character ; while in the latter, plants in the same class and order are related by true affinity, and correspond in all the essential points of their structure and organography. When a student knows the artificial class and order to which a plant is to be referred, he does not thereby become acquainted with its structure and properties ; plants diametrically opposed in these respects may be associated together. When he determines, on the other hand, the place of a plant in the natural system, he necessarily acquires a knowledge of its structural relations and affinities. Hence a knowledge of the latter system is that which must be the aim of every botanical student.

I. ARTIFICIAL SYSTEMS OF CLASSIFICATION.

1084. One of the earliest attempts at a methodical arrangement of plants was made by Andreas Cæsalpinus,* a native of Arezzo in Florence, some time Professor of Botany at Padua, and afterwards Physician to Pope Clement VIII. He is called by Linnæus, *primus verus systematicus*. In his work *De Plantis*, published at Florence in 1583, he distributed the 1520 plants then known into fifteen classes,

* Cæsalpinus (Andreas), *de Plantis libri*, xvi. 1583.

the distinguishing characters being taken from the fruit. About the year 1670, Dr. Robert Morison* of Aberdeen published a systematic arrangement of plants. He divided them into eighteen classes, distinguishing plants according as they were woody or herbaceous, and taking into account the nature of the flowers and fruit. In 1690 Rivinus† promulgated a classification founded chiefly on the forms of the flowers. Tournefort‡ about the same time took up the subject of vegetable Taxonomy. He was a cotemporary of Ray, and was Professor of Botany at Paris in 1683. He was long at the head of the French School of Botany, and published a systematic arrangement in 1694-1700. He described about 8000 species of plants, and distributed them into twenty-two classes, chiefly according to the form of the corolla, distinguishing herbs and under-shrubs on the one hand from trees and shrubs on the other. The system of Tournefort was for a long time adopted on the Continent, but was ultimately displaced by that of Linnæus.

1085. Carl von Linné, or, as he is commonly called, Linnæus,§ was born on the 23d of May 1707, at the village of Røshult (Råshult), in Smaland, a province of Sweden, where his father, Nicholas Linnæus, was clergyman. He entered as a pupil at the University of Lund, and about the years 1727-28, was received into the house of Stobæus, a physician in that city, where he had abundant opportunities of prosecuting Natural History. He afterwards proceeded to Upsal, and had to struggle with great difficulties during his studies there. He aided Celsius in his Hierobotanicon or account of the plants of Scripture, and he became assistant to Rudbeck, professor of botany. He afterwards travelled in Lapland, took his degree in Holland, visited England, and commenced practice in Stockholm, where he lectured on botany and mineralogy. He finally became professor of botany at Upsal, and was one of the most popular lecturers of the day. He died on the 8th of January 1778, in the 71st year of his age. His Herbarium is now in the possession of the Linnæan Society.

1086. One of his biographers, in summing up his merits, says,—“Educated in the severe school of adversity, accustomed from his earliest youth to put a high value on verbal accuracy and logical precision; endowed with a powerful understanding, and capable of undergoing immense fatigue, both of body and mind, Linnæus produced a most important revolution in botanical science. He improved the distinctions of genera and species, introduced a better nomenclature on the binomial method, and invented a new and comprehensive system founded on the stamens and pistils. His verbal accuracy and the remarkable terseness of his technical language, reduced the crude matter that

* Morison, *Preludia Botanica*, 1672. *Plantarum Historia Universalis*, 1690.

† Rivinus (*Augustus Quirinus*) *paterno nomine Bachmann, Introductio Generalis in Rem Herbariam*, Lipsiæ, 1690.

‡ Tournefort, *Elémens de Botanique*, 1694. *Institutiones Rei Herbariæ*, 1700.

§ Linnæus, *Systema Naturæ*, 1735; *Genera Plantarum*, 1737; *Philosophia Botanica*, 1751; *Species Plantarum*, 1753.

was stored up in the folios of his predecessors into a form which was accessible to all men. He separated with singular skill the important from the unimportant in their descriptions. He arranged their endless synonymes with a patience and a lucid order that were quite inimitable. By requiring all species to be capable of a rigorous definition, not exceeding twelve words, he purified Botany from the endless varieties of the gardeners and herbalists; and by applying the same strict principles to genera, and reducing every character to its differential terms, he got rid of the cumbrous descriptions of the old writers." It is said of Linnæus, that although no man of science ever exercised a greater sway, or had more enthusiastic admirers, yet his merit was not so much that of a discoverer as of a judicious and strenuous reformer. The knowledge which he displayed, and the value and simplicity of the improvements which he proposed, secured the universal adoption of his suggestions, and crowned him with a success altogether unparalleled in the annals of science.

1087. The system of Linnæus is founded on the sexes of plants, and hence it is often denominated the sexual system. It is called an artificial method because it takes into account only a few marked characters in plants, and does not propose to unite them by natural affinities. It is an index to a department of the book of nature, and as such is useful to the student. It does not aspire to any higher character, and although it cannot be looked upon as a scientific and natural arrangement, still it has a certain facility of application which commends it to the tyro. In using it, however, let it ever be remembered, that it will not of itself give the student any view of the true relations of plants as regards structure and properties, and that by leading to the discovery of the name of a plant, it is only a stepping-stone to the natural system. Linnæus himself claimed nothing higher for it. He says—*Methodi Naturalis fragmenta studiose inquirenda sunt. Primum et ultimum hoc in Botanicis desideratum est. Natura non facit saltus. Plantæ omnes utrinque affinitatem monstrant uti territorium in mappa geographica.** Accordingly, besides his artificial index, he also promulgated fragments of a natural method of arrangement.

1088. In the artificial system of Linnæus, plants are divided into Flowering and Flowerless—the latter being included in the twenty-fourth class, under the name of Cryptogamia, and the former, or Phanerogamia, being divided into twenty-three classes, the characters of which are founded on the number, the insertion or position, the relative length, and the connection of the stamens. Among flowerless plants the orders are similar to those of the natural system, while in flowering plants they are determined by the number of the styles, the character of the fruit, the number and connection of the stamens in those classes where these characters are not already taken into consideration, and on the hermaphrodite or unisexual nature of the flowers.

1089. The first eleven classes are determined by the number of

* *Ann. Philos. Botanica, Stockholm. 1751, p. 27.*

the stamens, the term *andria* being employed to express male or stamen, and the Greek numerals being prefixed. In these classes there are stamens and pistils in every flower, the stamens are distinct from each other, and although they may differ in length, yet these differences are not in the ratio of two long and two short, or of four long and two short.

- Class I. **MONANDRIA**—plants having flowers with one stamen, as *Hippuris*, *Centranthus* (Fig. 556, p. 210).
- II. **DIANDRIA**—flowers with two stamens, as *Veronica* (Fig. 559, p. 211), *Ash* (Fig. 638, p. 231), *Lilac*, *Salvia*. There is one British grass in this class.
- III. **TRIANDRIA**—flowers with three stamens, as *Wheat* (Fig. 637, p. 231), *Oat* (Fig. 565, p. 212), and many Grasses, *Scirpus* (Fig. 635, p. 230), *Valerian* (Fig. 496, p. 198), *Iris*. Many of the plants are *Monocotyledonous*.
- IV. **TETRANDRIA**—flowers with four stamens, as *Alchemilla* (Fig. 585, p. 219), *Galium*, *Plantago*. The stamens in this class do not differ in length in the proportion of two long and two short.
- V. **PENTANDRIA**—flowers with five stamens, as *Vitis* (Fig. 571, p. 216), *Chenopodium* (Fig. 412, p. 174), *Campanula*, *Primula*, *Solanum*, *Umbelliferous plants*. This class embraces a large number of *Dicotyledons*.
- VI. **HEXANDRIA**—flowers with six stamens, as *Narcissus* (Fig. 569, p. 214), *Lily* (Figs. 411, 413, p. 174), *Tulip* (Fig. 593, p. 220), *Hyacinth*, *Luzula* (Fig. 572, p. 215). This class contains many *Monocotyledons*. The six stamens do not differ in length in the proportion of four long and two short.
- VII. **HEPTANDRIA**—flowers with seven stamens, as *Æsculus* (Fig. 335, p. 143). This class contains only one British plant, *Trientalis europæa* (Fig. 1309).
- VIII. **OCTANDRIA**—flowers with eight stamens, as *Erica*, *Vaccinium*, *Paris*.
- IX. **ENNEANDRIA**—flowers with nine stamens, as *Rhubarb* (Fig. 577, p. 216). There is only one British plant in this class, *Botomus umbellatus*.
- X. **DECANDRIA**—flowers with ten stamens, as *Sedum* (Fig. 525, p. 204), *Saxifraga*, *Dianthus*.
- XI. **DODECANDRIA**—flowers with twelve to nineteen stamens, as *Reseda*, *Asarum*.



Fig. 1309.

The two succeeding classes contain plants with hermaphrodite flowers, having twenty or more unconnected stamens :—

Fig. 1309. European Chickweed Winter-green (*Trientalis europæa*), the only British plant in the class *Heptandria* of Linnæus.

Class XII. ICOSANDRIA—flowers with twenty or more stamens inserted on the calyx—or in other words, perigynous—as in Rosaceous plants, Pear (Fig. 395, p. 165), *Opuntia* (Fig. 589, p. 219), Cherry (Fig. 612, p. 227).

- **XIII. POLYANDRIA**—flowers with twenty or more stamens inserted on the receptacle—in other words, hypogynous—as in *Ranunculus*, *Papaver* (Fig. 611, p. 226), *Anemone*.

The characters of the two next classes are founded on the relative length of the stamens, the flowers being at the same time perfect, the stamens usually unconnected, but sometimes united by their anthers :—

Class XIV. DIDYNAMIA (meaning superiority of two)—flowers having four stamens, two of which are long and two short, the latter being next each other, as in *Antirrhinum* (Fig. 625, p. 229), *Lamium*, *Scrophularia*, *Gloxinia*.

- **XV. TETRADYNAMIA** (meaning superiority of four)—flowers having six stamens, of which four are long and two short ; the long stamens are in pairs opposite to each other, and the short stamens are inserted on either side between the pairs, as in Wall-flower (Figs. 409 and 410, p. 173), and in Cruciferous plants generally.

The four following classes are determined by the connection or union of the stamens—this union taking place by their filaments or by their anthers :—

Class XVI. MONADELPHIA (meaning a single brotherhood)—stamens united by their filaments, so as to form a single tube or column round the pistil, as in *Malva* (Fig. 604, p. 222, and Fig. 618, p. 228), *Geranium*.

- **XVII. DIADELPHIA** (meaning two brotherhoods)—stamens united into two sets or bundles by their filaments, as in *Lathyrus* (Fig. 620, p. 228), and in many Papilionaceous flowers ; *Polygala*, *Fumaria*. In many instances the sets are unequal—nine stamens forming one, and a single stamen forming the other.

- **XVIII. POLYADELPHIA** (meaning many brotherhoods)—stamens united into more than two sets or bundles by their filaments, as in *Hypericum* (Fig. 621, p. 228). The only British genus in this class is *Hypericum* (St. John's-wort) ; it contains many species.

- **XIX. SYNGENESIA** (meaning growing together)—stamens united together by their anthers, as in *Senecio* (Fig. 105, p. 45), and other Composite flowers.

In the next class the character is founded on the union between the stamens and pistil :—

Class XX. GYNANDRIA (meaning pistil and stamen)—stamens and styles united together in one column, as in *Orchis* (Fig. 616, p. 228), *Aristolochia* (Fig. 617, p. 228), *Asclepias* (Fig. 657, p. 235).

In the three succeeding classes the flowers are unisexual, some containing stamens only, others, pistils only :—

- Class XXI. MONOGYIA** (meaning one household)—flowers with stamens only and others with pistils only on the same plant, as in the *Hazel* (Fig. 582, p. 217), *Euphorbia* (Fig. 506, p. 200), *Carex*, *Arum*, *Pinus*.
- **XXII. DIGYIA** (meaning two households)—flowers with stamens only and others with pistils only on separate plants, as in the *Willow* (Fig. 390, p. 162, Figs. 578, 579, p. 216), *Hemp* (Fig. 574, p. 216), *Hop*, *Poplar*.
- **XXIII. POLYGAMIA** (meaning many marriages)—stamens and pistils separate in some flowers and united in others, either on the same or on different individuals, as in some *Palms*, *Atriplex*. The British genera in this class are *Atriplex*, *Obione*, and perhaps *Parietaria*.

The last class includes Flowerless plants.

Class XXIV. CRYPTOGAMIA—plants in which, as implied in the name, the organs of reproduction are concealed, as in *Ferns* (Fig. 969, p. 324), *Mosses* (Fig. 1003, p. 335), *Lichens* (Fig. 1013, p. 342), *Fungi* (Fig. 1031, p. 347), and *Sea-weeds* (Fig. 1046, p. 352).

1090. The Orders in the first thirteen classes of the Linnæan system are determined by the number of the styles, or of the stigmas when there are no styles. The term *gynia* is applied to them (meaning female or pistil), with the prefix of a Greek numeral.

- Order 1. MONOGYNIA**, includes plants in the first thirteen classes, with one style to each flower, as in *Primula* (Fig. 699, p. 246), *Tobacco* (Fig. 415, p. 175).
- **2. DIGYNIA**, includes those with two styles, as in *Dianthus* (Fig. 691, p. 243).
- **3. TRIGYNIA**, those with three styles, as in *Silene*.
- **4. TETRAGYNIA**, those with four styles, as in *Paris*.
- **5. PENTAGYNIA**, those with five styles, as in *Columbine* (Fig. 416, p. 175), *Sedum* (Fig. 680, p. 241), *Flax*, (Fig. 692, p. 245).
- **6. HEXAGYNIA**, those with six styles, as in *Butomus*.
- **7. HEPTAGYNIA**, those with seven styles.
- **8. OCTOGYNIA**, those with eight styles.
- **9. ENNEAGYNIA**, those with nine styles.
- **10. DECAGYNIA**, those with ten styles, as in *Phytolacca*.

Order 11. *DOBŒAGYNIA*, those with eleven or twelve styles, as in *Semprevivum*.

— 12. *POLYGYNIA*, those with more than twelve styles, as in *Ranunculus* (Fig. 694, p. 245), Strawberry, (Fig. 695, p. 245).

The orders in Class XIV. *Didynamia*, are distinguished by their seed-vessels :—

1. *GYMNOSPERMIA* (meaning naked seeds) the fruit consisting of single-seeded Achenes, which Linnæus mistook for naked seeds, as in *Dead-nettle* (Fig. 339, p. 145), and other *Labiatae*.
2. *ANGIOSPERMIA* (meaning seeds in a seed-vessel), numerous seeds enclosed in an evident pericarp or seed-vessel, which is often bilocular, as in *Scrophularia* (Fig. 789, p. 269).

The orders in Class XV. *Tetradynamia*, are also distinguished by the fruit :—

1. *SILICULOSA*, fruit, a Silicle or short pod, as in *Capsella* (Fig. 805, p. 273), and *Draba* (Fig. 804, p. 273).
2. *SILIQUOSA*, fruit, a Siliqua or long pod, as in *Wallflower* (Fig. 803, p. 273).

The orders of Classes XVI. XVII. XVIII. are distinguished by the number of the stamens, that character not being taken into account in forming these classes. The orders are named in the same way as the classes, thus :—

1. *Triandria*, with three stamens, as in *Tamarind* ; 2. *Pentandria*, with five, as in *Passiflora*, *Erodium* ; 3. *Hexandria*, with six, as in *Fumaria* ; 4. *Heptandria*, with seven, as in *Pelargonium* ; 5. *Octandria*, with eight, as in *Polygala* ; 6. *Decandria*, with ten, as in *Geranium*, *Genista*, *Lathyrus*, and many *Papilionaceous* flowers ; 7. *Dodecandria*, with twelve ; 8. *Polyandria*, with twenty or more, as in *Hibiscus*, *Malva*, *Hypericum*.

In Class XIX. the orders are determined by the state of the flowers, whether hermaphrodite or unisexual, or having separate involucre. At first Linnæus included all synantherous plants, and put such genera as *Viola*, *Lobelia*, and *Siphocampylus*, in a separate order, denominated *Monogamia*. Afterwards, however, he made the class a natural one, by including only compound flowers (*Compositæ*). The following are the orders :—

1. *POLYGAMIA ÆQUALIS* (Fig. 1310, *a*), (meaning flowers all equal). The flowers in the *Capitula* are all perfect—that is, each of them has stamens and pistil, as in *Dandelion* (Fig. 361, p. 153).
2. *POLYGAMIA SUPERFLUA* (Fig. 1310, *b*), (meaning some flowers superfluous). The flowers of the disk, or centre of the *Capitula*, are

hermaphrodite (Fig. 105, p. 45), while those of the ray or of the margin are pistillate (Figs. 352, 353, p. 209), and are fertilized by the pollen of the central flowers, as in the Daisy.

3. **POLYGAMIA FRUSTRANEA** (Fig. 1310, *d*), (meaning some flowers neuter). The flowers of the disk or centre are perfect (hermaphrodite), those of the ray are neutral (having either abortive pistils or none), as in *Centaurea* (Fig. 392, p. 163), which is the only British genus in the order. The marginal flowers, in such instances, often become very large and showy.
4. **POLYGAMIA NECESSARIA** (Fig. 1310, *e*), (meaning central and marginal flowers necessary for perfect seed). The flowers of the disk are staminate, those of the ray are pistillate, as in *Calendula* (Fig. 371, p. 156). No British plants are found in this order.
5. **POLYGAMIA SEGREGATA** (Fig. 1310, *e*), (meaning flowers separated), each flower of the Capitulum separated from the others by a distinct involucre, as in *Echinops* (Globe-thistle). No British plants are found in this order.

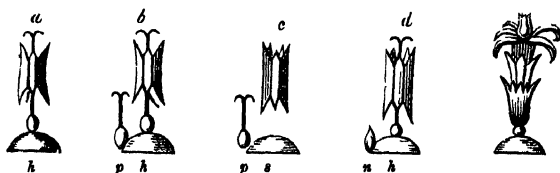


Fig. 1310.

6. **MONOGAMIA** (meaning that the flowers are single and not compound), solitary flowers—that is, not collected in a Capitulum, but with united anthers, as in *Viola*, *Lobelia*. This order was afterwards abolished, and the plants contained in it were referred to the class indicated by the number of the stamens (*Pentandria*).

In Classes XX. XXI. and XXII. the number of the stamens which is not taken into account in determining the classes is used to distinguish the orders :—

1. **Monandria**, one stamen, as *Orchis*, *Euphorbia*, (Fig. 506, p. 200, and Fig. 610, p. 226).
2. **Dianndria**, two stamens, as *Stylidium*, *Cypripedium*, *Lemna* (Fig. 603, p. 221), *Salix* (Figs. 578, 579, p. 216).
3. **Triandria**, three stamens, as *Carex* (Fig. 634, p. 230), *Phoenix*.
4. **Tetrandria**, four stamens, as *Urtica* (Fig. 628, p. 229), *Myrica*.
5. **Pentandria**, five stamens, as *Humulus*, *Cannabis* (Fig. 574, p. 216).
6. **Hexandria**, six stamens, as *Aristolochia* (Fig. 617, p. 228), *Cocos*,

Fig. 1310. These Figures illustrate the orders of the class Syngenesia of Linnaeus, and the subdivisions of the natural order Compositæ. *Polygamia equalis*, *a*, with the flowers all hermaphrodite, *h*; the ovary, style, and stigma are represented as situated on the receptacle with the united anthers surrounding the style. *Polygamia superflua*, *b*, in which the tubular or floscular flowers of the disk, *h*, are hermaphrodite, and the ligulate flowers of the ray, *p*, are pistillate and fertile. *Polygamia necessaria*, *c*, in which the flowers of the disk or centre, *s*, are staminate, while those of the ray or margin, *p*, are pistillate and fertile. *Polygamia frustranea*, *d*, in which the flowers of the disk, *h*, are hermaphrodite, those of the ray, *n*, are neutral or abortive. *Polygamia segregata*, *e*, in which the flowers, *i*, are involucrete.

Tamus. 7. Octandria, eight stamens, as *Populus*, *Corylus* (Fig. 388, p. 161). 8. Enneandria, nine stamens, as *Mercurialis*. 9. Decandria, ten stamens. 10. Dodecandria, twelve stamens, as *Stratiotes*. 11. Polyandria, stamens ∞ , as *Poterium*. 12. Monadelphica, filaments united in one tube, as *Pinus*, *Anacharis*, *Taxus* (Fig. 619, p. 228). 13. Polyadelphia, filaments united in many clusters, as *Ricinus* (Fig. 622, p. 229).

In Class XXIII. the orders are founded on the position of the hermaphrodite, staminate, and pistillate flowers:—

1. MONECIA, hermaphrodite, staminate, and pistillate flowers on the same plant, as *Parietaria*, *Acacia*, *Atriplex*.
2. DICECIA, hermaphrodite flowers on one plant, staminate and pistillate flowers on another plant, occasionally in *Chamærops* (Figs. 580, 581. p. 216) and *Hippophae*.
3. TRICECIA, hermaphrodite flowers on one plant, staminate on a second, and pistillate on a third.

In Class XXIV. the orders are the same as in the natural system, and therefore not definable by a single character:—

1. Filices, Ferns (Fig. 969, p. 324).
2. Musci, Mosses (Fig. 1003, p. 335).
3. Hepaticæ, Liverworts (Fig. 1007, p. 337).
4. Lichenes, Lichens (Fig. 1013, p. 342).
5. Algæ, Seaweeds (Fig. 1046, p. 352).
6. Fungi, Mushrooms (Fig. 1031, p. 347).

1091. The system of Linnæus, even when regarded simply as an index to the vegetable kingdom, is by no means complete. The parts of flowers often vary in number, and cannot be confined within the strict rules required by this method of arrangement; moreover, unless the stamens and pistils are perfect and complete, and the plant is in full flower, it is impossible to determine its class and order. When the system is rigidly adhered to, we find that species belonging to the same genus are separated. Thus the genus *Lychnis* has most of its species hermaphrodite, with ten stamens and five styles, but there is at least one British species diœcious. In order, therefore, to keep the genus entire, and not separate the species, Linnæus adopted the plan of putting *Lychnis* in the class Decandria and order Pentagynia, and under the class Diœcia order Decandria, placing the name of the diœcious species, and referring the student to the 10th class for a description. In this way the genera—which are founded on natural affinities, and are not constructed by a mere arbitrary method—are preserved in their integrity. All the species of one genus are placed together, whether they accord or not with the characters of the class and order; the place of the genus being determined by the characters of the majority of the species. The names of the anomalous species are given in italics, in the classes and orders to which they belong according to the Linnæan method, and reference is made to the description of them as given under the genus.

1092. Key to the Classes and Orders of the Linnæan artificial system :—

A. FLOWERING PLANTS, PHANEROGAMIA.

I. Stamens and Pistils in every flower.

1. Stamens unconnected.

a. Stamens either of equal length, or at all events neither didynamous nor tetradynamous;

2	II. Diandria	— 2. Digynia	2 free Styles.
3	III. Triandria	— 3. Trigynia	3 —
4	IV. Tetrandria	— 4. Tetragynia	4 —
5	V. Pentandria	— 5. Pentagynia	5 —
6	VI. Hexandria	— 6. Hexagynia	6 —
7	VII. Heptandria	— 7. Heptagynia	7 —
8	VIII. Octandria	— 8. Octogynia	8 —
9	IX. Enneandria	— 9. Enneagynia	9 —
10	X. Decandria	— 10. Decagynia	10 —
12 to 19,	XI. Dodecandria	— 11. Dodecagynia	12 to 19
20 or } perigynous ...	XII. Icosandria	— 12. Polygynia	20 or more.
more, } hypogynous ...	XIII. Polyandria		

b. Stamens differing in length in certain proportions :

Two long and two short	XIV. Didynamia ...	Order 1. Gymnospermia Fruit, Achenes.
		— 2. Angiospermia ...Fruit, Capsular.
Four long and two short	XV. Tetradyndia ...	Order 1. SiliculosaFruit, a Silicula.
		— 2. SiliquosaFruit, a Siliqua.

2. Stamens connected—

By their Filaments in } one parcel or tube	} XVI. Monadelphia	} Order Triandria 3 Stamens.
By their Filaments in } two parcels		
By their Filaments in } three or more parcels	} XVII. Diadelphia ...	} — Decandria10 —
	XVIII. Polyadelphia	and so on as in the first 13 Classes.
		Order 1. Polygamia equalis, florets all ♀.
		— 2. Polygamia superflua, florets of the disk ♀, those of the ray ♀, but fertile.
		— 3. Polygamia frustranea, florets of the disk ♀, those of the ray abortive.
		— 4. Polygamia necessaria, florets of the disk, ♂, those of the ray ♀, and fertile.
		— 5. Polygamia segregata, each flower with a separate involucre.
By their Anthers (Com- } posite flowers)	XIX. Syngenesia.	Order Monandria.....1 Stamen.
		— Diantria.....2 Stamens.
		and so on as in the first 13 Classes.
With the Pistil on a } column	XX. Gynandria...	

II. Stamens and Pistils in separate flowers.

On the same Plant	XXI. Monoccia ...	} Order Monandria1 Stamen.
On separate Plants	XXII. Diccia	
		— Hexandria6 —
		— Polyandria { Numerous Stamens.
		and so on as in the first 13 Classes.
		Order Monadelphia..... { Stamens mo- nadelphous.

III. Stamens and Pistils in the same and in separate flowers on the same or on separate Plants

} XXIII. Polygamia	Order 1. Monoccia, ♂, ♂, and ♀ on the same plant.
	— 2. Diccia, ♂, ♂, ♀, on two plants.
	— 3. Triccia, ♂, ♂, ♀, on three plants.

B. FLOWERLESS PLANTS.

Organs of reproduction } inconspicuous	XXIV. Cryptogamia	} Order 1. Filices, Ferns.	
			— 2. Musci, Mosses.
			— 3. Hepaticæ, Liverworts.
			— 4. Lichenes, Lichens.
			— 5. Algæ, Sea-weeds.
			— 6. Fungi, Mushrooms.

1093. The Linnæan method is sometimes used as an index to the natural system, as seen in the British Floras of Hooker and Arnott, and of Babington. When we keep the system in its proper place, there is no fear of the student being misled by false ideas of its value. It has been well remarked by Professor Edward Forbes:—“Those who slightly think of the Linnæan system forget in the present to look back fully and fairly on the past. They should remind themselves of the state in which Botany was when Linnæus undertook to make its treasures consultable. The understanding of things depends greatly on the perception of their order and relations. When that order and those relations require deep study ere we can comprehend them clearly, the man who gives us a clue, however insignificant it may be in its own nature, is not only conferring on us an invaluable benefit, but endowing the despised instrument with golden value. Such a clue did Linnæus give when he put forth his system. The scientific systematist, surrounded by the stores of his herbarium, should not forget that those treasures were often amassed in the first instance by adventurous and earnest men, rendering good service by their hands and energy, as good in its humble way as that which he gives by his head and philosophy. It was not to be expected of such men that in the field they should occupy themselves with thoughts of arrangement and affinity; their part was to observe and select, and the guide to their observation and selection was in most cases no other than the Linnæan system. An easy means of acquiring and arranging information is a great help to the workmen of science, and no department has gained more thereby than Botany, which, through the facilities afforded by the artificial method devised by Linnæus, has had its facts amassed in enormous quantity for the use of its more philosophic votaries, and owes its present advanced state in a great measure to such humble means. The clue to the labyrinth then having served such noble purposes becomes a consecrated object, and should rather be hung up in the temple than thrown aside with ignominy.”*

1094. Artificial aids are required in all systems of classification. Hence we find that many authors have adopted a method of analysis in order to detect the place of a plant in the system, and to ascertain its name. This process of analysis is one which we naturally adopt in discriminating objects. It was suggested by Lamarck, and has been used by Lindley and other advocates of a natural method. It is also applied to the Linnæan system, and it may be illustrated by a quotation from Ralf's work entitled *Analysis of the British Flora*. It will be seen that there are two characters given, one of which must belong to the plant under examination, and by a process of analysis the student proceeds from one to another until he determines the genus or species. Thus in the following analytical table, a plant belonging to *Didynamia Angiospermia* is under consideration. If it has a superior perianth, and is a British plant, it must be *Linnæa*; if the perianth is

* Forbes, *Introductory Lecture delivered in King's College, London*

inferior, we proceed to No. 2, and then we determine whether it is leafless and scaly, or possesses leaves. In the former case we are referred to No. 3, and find that the plant is either *Lathræa* or *Orobanche*; in the latter we proceed to No. 4, and so on.

1095. Analytical method of ascertaining the name of a plant:—

Class DIDYNAMIA, Order ANGIOSPERMIA.

1.	{	Perianth superior	Linnaea.
		Perianth inferior	2
2.	{	Plant leafless, scaly	3
		Plant with leaves	4
3.	{	Corolla with upper lip galeate entire	<i>Lathræa</i> .
		Corolla ringent 4-5 cleft	<i>Orobanche</i> .
4.	{	Seeds 2-4, pericarp evanescent	<i>Verbena</i> .
		Seeds numerous, pericarp not evanescent	5
5.	{	Calyx inflated	6
		Calyx not inflated	7
6.	{	Calyx 4-toothed	<i>Rhinanthus</i> .
		Calyx 5 toothed	<i>Pedicularis</i> .
7.	{	Calyx 4-toothed	8
		Calyx 5-parted	10
8.	{	Capsule 2-seeded	<i>Melampyrum</i> .
		Capsule many-seeded	9
9.	{	Upper lip of Corolla notched	<i>Euphrasia</i> .
		Upper lip of Corolla entire	<i>Bartsia</i> .
10.	{	Corolla gibbous or spurred at the base	11
		Corolla not gibbous nor spurred	12
11.	{	Corolla spurred	<i>Linaria</i> .
		Corolla gibbous	<i>Antirrhinum</i> .
12.	{	Corolla nearly regular	13
		Corolla irregular	14
13.	{	Corolla rotate	<i>Sibthorpia</i> .
		Corolla campanulate	<i>Limosella</i> .
14.	{	Corolla subglobose	<i>Scrophularia</i> .
		Corolla campanulate	<i>Digitalis</i> .

The same method may be pursued in regard to the species of a genus, as well as in regard to the orders of the natural system.*

II. NATURAL SYSTEM OF CLASSIFICATION.

1096. In arranging plants according to the Natural System, the object is to bring together those which are allied in all essential points of structure. It is called natural, because it proposes to follow the system of Nature, and thus takes into account the true affinities of plants on a comparison of all their organs. One of the first natural

* See Lindley's *Elements of Botany*, and Ralf's *Work* already referred to in the text.

methods of classification was that proposed by Ray about 1682.* He separated flowering from flowerless plants, and divided the former into Dicotyledons and Monocotyledons. His orders were founded on correct views of the affinities of plants, and he far outstripped his cotemporaries in his enlightened views of arrangement. He may be said to have laid the foundation of that system which has been elucidated by the labours of Jussieu, De Candolle, Brown, Lindley, Endlicher, and others.

1097. Antoine Laurent de Jussieu, the great leader in the natural method of classification, was born at Lyons in 1748, and was educated at Paris under the care of his uncle, Bernard de Jussieu. At an early age he became Botanical Demonstrator in the Jardin des Plantes, and was thus led to devote his time to the science of Botany. Being called upon to arrange the plants in the garden, he necessarily had to consider the best method of doing so, and adopted a system founded in a certain degree on that of Ray, in which he embraced all the discoveries in organography, adopted the simplicity of the Linnæan definitions, and displayed the natural affinities of plants. Jussieu subsequently became Professor of Rural Botany, and he died in 1836 at the age of 88.

1098. The system of Jussieu made its way slowly in this country, and it was not until Robert Brown brought it under notice that it was adopted.† It is now the basis of all natural classifications. One of the early supporters of this natural method was Auguste Pyrame De Candolle, who was born in 1778, and who, after attending the lectures of Vaucher at Geneva, devoted himself to botanical pursuits. He subsequently prosecuted his studies at Paris, and lectured on Botany at the College of France. He commenced his publications in 1802, and in 1804 he promulgated his *Elementary Principles of Botany*. In 1807 he became Professor of Botany at Montpellier, and in 1816 he was appointed to the Chair of Natural History at Geneva, with the charge of the Botanic Garden. In that city he carried on his future botanical labours, and began his *Prodromus Systematis Universalis Regni Vegetabilis*, which was intended to embrace an arrangement and description of all known plants. He was enabled to complete eight volumes of the work before his death, and it has since been carried on by his son Alphonse De Candolle, with the aid of other eminent botanists. The system followed by De Candolle is a modification of that of Jussieu, and it is generally adopted at the present day. De Candolle's own herbarium was extremely rich. He had visited and carefully examined many of the most extensive collections, especially those of Paris; and many entire collections, as well as separate families, in which he was specially engaged, were from time to time submitted to his examination by their possessors. He had thus opportunities of comparison greatly beyond what in ordinary circumstances fall to the lot of an

* Ray, *Methodus Plantarum*, 1682; and *Methodus Plantarum emendata et aucta*, 1706.

† Brown, *Prodromus Floræ Novæ Hollandiæ*, 1810.

individual. His library, too, was stored with almost every important publication that could be required for his undertaking. With such ample materials, aided by his untiring zeal and the persevering energy of his character, he steadily pursued his allotted task, and only ceased to labour at it when he ceased to live. For some years his health declined, and it is to be feared that the severe and incessant attention which he paid to the elaboration of the great family of *Compositæ* had made a deep inroad upon it. As a relaxation from his labours he undertook in the last years of his life a long journey, and attended the scientific meeting held at Turin; but he did not derive from this the anticipated improvement in his health, which gradually failed until his death, on the 9th September 1841.*

1099. In arranging plants according to a natural method, we require to have a thorough knowledge of structural and morphological botany, and hence we find that the advances made in the latter departments have materially aided the efforts of systematic botanists. We may regard plants in various points of view, either with reference to their elementary tissues, their nutritive, or their reproductive organs. The first two are the most important, as being essential for the life of individuals, while the latter are concerned in the propagation of the species. These sets of organs bear a certain relation to each other, and we find that plants may be associated by a correspondence in all of them. In comparing the characters of plants, we must take care that we contrast organs belonging to the same class of functions, and the value of the characters must depend upon the importance of the functions performed by the organs.

1100. Henslow gives the following rules for fixing the subordination and relative values of characters:—1. When two organs, belonging to different classes of functions, have the same relative value in their respective series, that organ will possess the greatest value which belongs to the most important function. 2. Those organs of the same series are of the greatest value which are of the most general occurrence. 3. The adhesion which often subsists between an inferior and a superior organ, serves to point out the relative value of any two of the former; since it will be the same as that which was previously established for those of the latter, to which they respectively adhere. 4. The greater degree to which an organ is liable to vary, indicates an inferiority of value. Thus, the shape of the leaves is of little importance beyond determining the specific distinctions of plants. 5. The relative periods at which organs are formed and developed may also be taken as some test of their relative importance; those which are earliest formed being considered more important than others, with which they are immediately connected, of the same class.†

* Daubeny, Sketch of the Writings and Philosophical Character of Augustin Pyramus De Candolle, in *Edin. New Philos. Journal* for April 1843. Dunal, *Eloge Historique de A. P. De Candolle*, Montpellier, 1842.

† Henslow, *Principles of Descriptive and Physiological Botany*. p. 140.

1101. The following table illustrates the relative values of organs belonging to the elementary tissues, and to the nutritive and the reproductive functions :—

Relative Values.	Elementary Tissues.	Nutritive Organs.	Reproductive Organs.
1.	Cellular Tissue.	—	—
2.	{ Vascular Tissue. Spiral vessels. Porous vessels. Scalariform vessels. Stomata.	Embryo.	—
		Cotyledon.	—
3.	—	Radicle.	—
		Plumule.	—
		Spore.	—
		Prothallus.	—
		{ Descending Axis. Ascending Axis. Leaf. Frond. Thallus.	{ Stamens and Pistils. Antheridia and Archegonia. Fruit. Pericarp. Theca.
4.	—	—	{ Perianth. Calyx. Corolla.
5.	—	—	{ Inflorescence. Thalamus. Bracts and Involucre.

1102. Cellular tissue is reckoned of the highest value, as being of universal occurrence, and as carrying on, in many instances, all the functions of plants. In considering the elementary tissues alone, we divide all plants into Cellular and Vascular—the former including the lower tribes, such as Lichens, Seaweeds, and Mushrooms, the latter including the higher flowerless plants with scalariform vessels, and all the flowering plants with spiral vessels. Stomata are found in vascular and not in cellular plants. In the nutritive and reproductive organs there is nothing which can be considered of the same value as cellular tissue. In the nutritive organs the embryo occupies the highest place, and by examining it we divide plants into Acotyledonous, having no cotyledons, but occasionally producing a prothallus, Monocotyledonous, with one cotyledon, and Dicotyledonous, with two cotyledons. Proceeding to the secondary organs in the nutritive class, we find that the root gives rise to the divisions of Heterorhizal, Endorhizal, and Exorhizal of Richard. Next the stem is Cellular or Thallogenous, Acrogenous, Endogenous, and Exogenous. The thallus is veinless, the frond of Acrogens has often a forked venation, the leaves of Endogens are parallel-veined, and those of Exogens reticulated. In the reproductive system the stamens and pistils occupy the highest place, as being the essential organs of flowering plants (Phanerogamia), while antheridia and archegonia have the same value in flowerless plants (Cryptogamia). Succeeding these organs in value comes the fruit, which is either a theca

with spores, or a pericarp with seed. The floral envelopes are the next in the series; they are absent in Cryptogamous plants, and present in Phanerogamous; their arrangement is ternary in Monocotyledons, quinary and quaternary in Dicotyledons. The inflorescence and bracts, as found in flowering plants, occupy the lowest place in the subordination.

1103. We thus find, that by comparing these different organs in plants, we arrive at certain great natural divisions, including plants which are associated by affinity of structure and function, as exhibited in the following table :—

Cellular Plants without Vessels or Stomata.	Vascular Plants with Scalariform Vessels, and Stomata.	Vascular Plants with Spiral Vessels, and Stomata.	
Acotyledonous. Heterorhizal. Thallogenuous. No Venation.	Acotyledonous, with Prothallus. Heterorhizal. Acrogenous. Forked Venation.	Monocotyledonous. Endorhizal. Endogenous. Parallel Venation.	Dicotyledonous. Exorhizal. Exogenous. Reticulated Venation
Cryptogamous. Thecae with Spores, or naked Spores.	Cryptogamous. Thecae with Spores.	Phanerogamous. Angiospermous or Gymnospermous.	
Flowerless.	Flowerless.	Floral Envelopes Ternary.	Flor. Env. Quaternary or Quinary.
No Inflorescence, nor Bracts.	No Inflorescence, nor Bracts.	Having Inflorescence and Bracts.	

1104. It is impossible to represent the affinities of plants in a linear series. Different groups touch each other at several different points, and must be considered as alliances connected with certain great centres. We find also that it is by no means easy to fix the limits of groups. There are constantly aberrant orders, genera and species, which form links between the groups, and occupy a sort of intermediate territory. In this, as in all departments of natural science, there are no sudden and abrupt changes, but a gradual transition from one series to another. Hence exact and rigid definitions cannot be carried out. In every natural system there must be a certain latitude given to the characters of the groups, and allowance must be made for constant anomalies, in as far as man's definitions are concerned. Maout considers the vegetable kingdom as divided into three great *continents*, which are the Classes, Dicotyledons, Monocotyledons, and Acotyledons; each of them is divided into *regions*, which are Subclasses; these in their turn are divided into *cities*, which are the Orders; the cities into *quarters*, which are Genera; and these into *houses*, which are Species. Continents are separated by seas of different extent, and there are projecting promontories which make them approach at some points; Regions are separated by straits or united by

isthmuses ; Cities communicate by lines and roads, representing a sort of

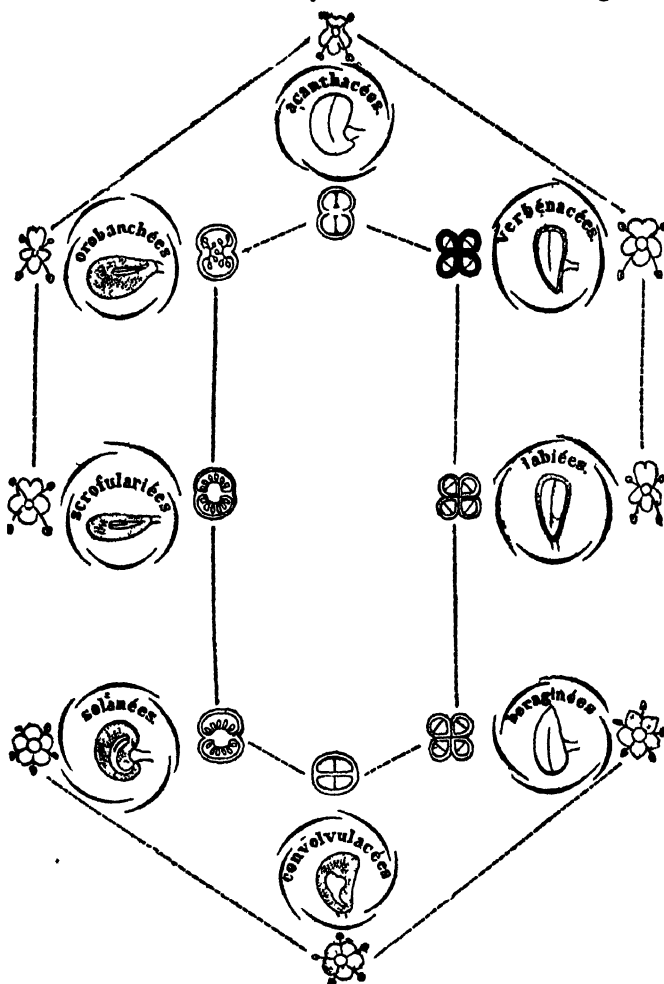


Fig 1311

network. So it is in some degree with Classes, Sub-classes, and Orders.*

Fig 1311. Diagrammatic view, as given by Maout, of the affinities between certain orders among the Gamopetalous Dicotyledons. In each order there is given a representation of the corolla and stamens, the arrangement of the parts of the flower, the seed with the embryo, and the ovary containing the ovules. The dotted lines indicate the transition from one order to another, and when they are interrupted they point out a want of immediate connection in that quarter. The orders with regular corollas below are thus shown to be separated from those with irregular corollas above.

* Maout, *Éléments de Botanique*, p 867

1105. In the great class of Dicotyledonous plants there is a subclass called Corollifloræ, and under it are included numerous Alliances and Orders. Taking one of these Alliances, Maout endeavours to show the affinities of the Orders by the accompanying diagram (Fig. 1311). Let us commence with Solanaceæ. In proceeding from that Order to the others we may take two roads, the one represented by the pistils, which may be called the Gynœcial road, the other by the corolla and stamens, which may be denominated the Andrœcial road. In going from Solanaceæ to Scrophulariaceæ, we find it impossible to pass by the Andrœcial road, as there is no connection between a regular corolla with five stamens, and an irregular one with four unequal stamens, as shown in the figure. But if we take the Gynœcial road we are conducted at once to the Scrophulariaceæ, the structure of which is the same, since it consists of a double carpel forming a two-celled ovary, with many ovules. In passing to Orobanchaceæ we go at once by the Andrœcial road, as the form of the corolla and the nature of the stamens correspond; but while in both the seeds are albuminous, the ovaries differ, for by a partial obliteration of the septum, the ovary in the Orobanchaceæ becomes unilocular in place of bilocular.

1106. From Solanaceæ the transition to Boraginaceæ is through Convolvulaceæ, and we may pass both by the Gynœcial and Andrœcial road. There is in each of the three orders a regular corolla with five divisions, and bearing five alternate stamens. From the bilocular multi-ovular ovary of Solanaceæ, we pass through the bilocular quadri-ovular ovary of Convolvulaceæ to the four-lobed and quadri-ovular ovary of Boraginaceæ. The latter have a marked affinity to Labiatae as regards the quadri-ocular ovary, but differ in having a regular corolla, with five equal stamens, in place of an irregular one with four didynamous ones. The transition from Labiatae to Verbenaceæ is easy both as regards the Gynœcial and Andrœcial road; the irregular corolla with didynamous stamens being found in both, and the ovary having four divisions which form separate achænia in Labiatae, and united ones in Verbenaceæ. We next proceed to Acanthaceæ, with their irregular flowers and didynamous stamens, and their two-celled ovary with four ovules. In this way also there is direct passage to Scrophulariaceæ, with irregular flowers, didynamous stamens, and a two-celled ovary with numerous ovules.

1107. Thus the circuit is completed, and the affinities of the orders, as regards their corolla, stamens, and pistils, are seen. Solanaceæ, Convolvulaceæ, and Boraginaceæ have regular corollas with five stamens, while the other orders have irregular corollas with didynamous stamens. The lines indicate the alliance of the first three orders in this respect, while the interruption of the lines at the margins shows the want of correspondence between them and the other orders in their corolline characters. In the Gynœcial System we find orders with unilocular, bilocular, and quadrilocular ovaries; the two former being either multiovular or quadriovular, and the latter being quadriovular. From the bilocular and multiovular ovary of Solanaceæ we come to

the bilocular quadriovular one of Convolvulacæ, then to the four-divided ovaries of Boraginacæ and Labiatæ, the quadrilocular ovary of Verbenacæ, the bilocular quadriovular ovary of Acanthacæ, and then to the unilocular bicarpellary ovary of Orobanchacæ, which leads to the bicarpellary bilocular ovaries of Scrophulariacæ and Solanacæ. The lines connecting them show that there is a transition from the one to the other. The orders from Convolvulacæ to Orobanchacæ are represented with perisperm surrounding the embryo, while those on the other side are usually aperispermic. The direction of the parts of the embryo is also shown with the arrangement of the parts of the corolla. This must be looked upon as giving a view of the usual characters of these orders, and by no means as pointing out all their peculiarities. In many of them the stamens, in place of being didynamous, are reduced to two by abortion, and other variations of a similar kind occur.

1108. Having examined the general principles upon which the natural system is founded, we shall now give a sketch of some of the more important Taxological plans which have been propounded. Jussieu* divided plants into three primary groups—Acotyledones, Monocotyledones, and Dicotyledones, and included under them fifteen classes. One of the classes is Acotyledonous, three Monocotyledonous, and eleven Dicotyledonous. The three Monocotyledonous classes are distinguished by the position of the stamens, whether inserted on the thalamus (hypogynous), attached to the calyx (perigynous), or to the ovary (epigynous). Dicotyledonous plants are divided into Apetalous (monochlamydeous), plants having a calyx only; Monopetalous (gamopetalous), plants having united petals; Polypetalous, plants having separate petals; and Diclinous, plants which are unisexual and incomplete: the last constitutes the fifteenth class, while the other ten classes of Dicotyledons included in the other three divisions are determined chiefly by the position of the stamens and the corolla in relation to the ovary.

1109. Under these classes he included 100 orders. Class 1, is represented by such orders as Fungi, Algæ, Musci, Filices. Class 2, by Aracæ, Cyperacæ, and Graminæ. Class 3, by Palmæ, Liliacæ, Amaryllidacæ, and Iridacæ. Class 4, by Musacæ and Orchidacæ. Class 5, by Aristolochiacæ. Class 6, by Proteacæ, Lauracæ, Polygonacæ. Class 7, by Amaranthacæ, Plantaginacæ. Class 8, by Acanthacæ, Labiatæ, Scrophulariacæ, Solanacæ, Boraginacæ, and Gentianacæ. Class 9, by Ericacæ, Campanulacæ. Class 10, by Compositæ. Class 11, by Dipsacacæ and Rubiacæ. Class 12, by Araliacæ and Umbelliferæ. Class 13, by Ranunculacæ, Papaveracæ, Cruciferæ, Aceracæ, Hypericacæ, Guttiferæ, Geraniacæ, Malvacæ, and Caryophyllacæ. Class 14, by Saxifragacæ, Cactacæ, Onagracæ, Rosacæ, and Leguminosæ. Class 15, by Angiospermous orders, such as Euphorbiacæ, Cucurbitacæ, and Amentiferæ; and by Gymnospermous orders, such as Coniferæ.

* Jussieu (Antoine Laurent de), *Genera Plantarum, secundum ordines naturales disposita*, 1774.

1110. Tabular View of Jussieu's Natural System.

ACOTYLEDONES,		Class I. Acotyledones.			
MONOCOTYLEDONES,	{ Stamens Hypogynous, { Stamens Perigynous, { Stamens Epigynous, { Stamens Epigynous, { Stamens Perigynous, { Stamens Hypogynous, { Corolla Hypogynous, { Corolla Perigynous, { Corolla Epigynous, { Petals Epigynous, { Petals Hypogynous, { Petals Perigynous, Flowers unisexual, or without a Perianth,	II. Mono-hypogynæ. III. Mono-perigynæ. IV. Mono-epigynæ. V. Epistaminæ. VI. Peristaminæ. VII. Hypostaminæ. VIII. Hypocorollæ. IX. Pericorollæ. X. Epicorollæ, Syn-antheræ. (Anthers united). XI. Epicorollæ, Coris-antheræ. (Anthers separate.) XII. Epipetalæ. XIII. Hypopetalæ. XIV. Peripetalæ. XV. Diclines.			
		DICOTYLEDONES.	{ Apetalæ, (No petals). { Monopetalæ, (Petals united). { Polypetalæ, (Petals separate). Flowers unisexual, or without a Perianth,	Class II. Dicotyledones or Exogonæ.	
				Sub-class 1. Thalamifloræ. Petals distinct, stamens hypogynous.	
				— 2. Calycifloræ. Petals distinct or united, stamens perigynous or epigynous.	
				— 3. Corollifloræ. Petals united, hypogynous, usually bearing the stamens.	
				— 4. Monochlamydæ. Having a calyx only, or no floral envelope.	
				Class II. Monocotyledones or Endogonæ.	
				— 5. Mono-Phanerogamæ. Having floral envelopes.	
				— 6. Mono-Cryptogamæ. Without floral envelopes.	
				B. ACOTYLEDONÆ OR CELLULARES.	
— 7. Foliosæ. Having leaves.					
— 8. Aphyllæ. Leafless.					

1111. De Candolle's system* is in many respects similar to that of Jussieu. He has the same primary divisions. Under Dicotyledons there are four groups, under Monocotyledons two groups, and under Acotyledons two groups. Among Dicotyledons the sub-classes are founded on the number of the floral envelopes, the union or separation of the petals, and the insertion of the stamens. Among Monocotyledons he included some Cryptogamous plants, and he formed two divisions, according as the floral envelopes were present or absent. The Acotyledons or Cellular plants were divided into those having leaves and those without leaves.

1112. Tabular View of De Candolle's Natural System.

A. VASCULARES OR COTYLEDONÆ.

Class I. Dicotyledones or Exogonæ.

- Sub-class 1. Thalamifloræ. Petals distinct, stamens hypogynous.
- 2. Calycifloræ. Petals distinct or united, stamens perigynous or epigynous.
- 3. Corollifloræ. Petals united, hypogynous, usually bearing the stamens.
- 4. Monochlamydæ. Having a calyx only, or no floral envelope.

Class II. Monocotyledones or Endogonæ.

- 5. Mono-Phanerogamæ. Having floral envelopes.
- 6. Mono-Cryptogamæ. Without floral envelopes.

B. ACOTYLEDONÆ OR CELLULARES.

- 7. Foliosæ. Having leaves.
- 8. Aphyllæ. Leafless.

* De Candolle (Augustin Pyramus), *Théorie Élémentaire de la Botanique, ou Exposition des Principes de la Classification Naturelle*, 1813.

As examples of Sub-class 1, may be mentioned *Ranunculaceæ*, *Papaveraceæ*, *Caryophyllaceæ*, *Hypericaceæ*; as examples of Sub-class 2, *Leguminosæ*, *Rosaceæ*, *Umbelliferæ*, and *Compositæ*; of Sub-class 3, *Gentianaceæ*, *Labiataæ*, *Solanaceæ*, *Primulaceæ*; of Sub-class 4, *Polygonaceæ*, *Euphorbiaceæ*; of Sub-class 5, *Liliaceæ*, *Palmæ*, *Graminæ*; of Sub-class 6, *Equisetaceæ* and *Filices*; of Sub-class 7, *Musci* and *Hepaticæ*; and of Sub-class 8, *Fungi* and *Algæ*.

1113. As one of the most complete works on the Genera of Plants has been published by Endlicher,* it seems proper to give a sketch of his system. He divides the whole Vegetable Kingdom into two Regions:—

Regio I. THALLOPHYTA. Stemless plants, with no vessels nor evident organs of reproduction, producing germinating spores. This Region is divided into two Sections:—

Sectio I. PROTOPHYTA. Plants developed without soil; deriving nourishment from the elements in which they grow; their fructification being indefinite. This embraces the classes *Algæ* and *Lichenes*.

Sectio II. HYSTEROPHYTA. Plants produced on decaying organisms; nourished externally from a matrix; all the organs appearing at once, and perishing in a definite manner, as in the class of *Fungi*.

Regio II. CORMOPHYTA. Plants with stem and root growing in opposite directions. Spiral vessels and organs of reproduction distinct in the more perfect. This Region includes three Sections.

Sectio III. ACROBRYA. Stem increasing by the apex, the lower part being unchanged, and only conveying fluids. Under this section are three Cohorts, as he denominates them.

Cohors 1. Anophyta. Having no spiral vessels; both sexes perfect; spores free within sporangia; as illustrated by the classes *Hepaticæ* and *Musci*.

Cohors 2. Protophyta. Having vascular bundles more or less perfect, and spores free within unicellular or pluricellular sporangia; including five classes, illustrated by the orders *Equisetaceæ*, *Filices*, and *Lycopodiaceæ*.

Cohors 3. Hysterophyta. Organs of reproduction perfect; seeds acotyledonous; polysporous; plants parasitic; as shewn in the class *Rhizanthææ*.

Sectio IV. AMPHIBRYA. Plants with stems increasing in diameter at the circumference, the vegetation being peripheral; containing eleven classes, illustrated by the orders *Glumaceæ*, *Juncaceæ*, *Liliaceæ*, *Araceæ*, *Palmæ*.

* Endlicher, (Stephanus) *Genera Plantarum secundum Ordines Naturales disposita*, 1836-1840.

Sectio V. ACRAMPHIBRYA. Plants having a stem which increases both in length and diameter, the vegetation being peripheric-terminal. Under this he includes four Cohorts.

Cohors 1. *Gymnospermæ.* Plants with naked ovules, impregnated by the application of the pollen to the micropyle; including the class *Coniferæ*.

Cohors 2. *Apetalæ.* Plants without a perigone, or with a rudimentary or simple one, which is green or coloured, and is either free or united to the ovary; including six classes, illustrated by the orders *Piperaceæ*, *Amentiferæ*, *Urticaceæ*, *Polygonaceæ*, *Lauraceæ*, and *Proteaceæ*.

Cohors 3. *Gamopetalæ.* Plants with calyx and corolla, the latter being gamopetalous, rarely abortive. It includes ten classes, illustrated by the orders *Plumbaginaceæ*, *Compositæ*, *Campanulaceæ*, *Cinchonaceæ*, *Asclepiadaceæ*, *Labiataæ*, *Scrophulariaceæ*, *Primulaceæ*, *Ericaceæ*.

Cohors 4. *Dialypetalæ.* Calyx and corolla present; the former being polysepalous or gamosepalous, free or adherent to the ovary; the latter being usually polypetalous, rarely cohering by means of the base of the stamens, its insertion being hypogynous, perigynous, or epigynous, rarely abortive. This contains twenty-two classes, illustrated by the orders *Umbelliferaæ*, *Saxifragaceæ*, *Ranunculaceæ*, *Cruciferaæ*, *Papaveraceæ*, *Caryophyllaceæ*, *Malvaceæ*, *Geraniaceæ*, *Rosaceæ*, *Leguminosæ*.

1114. The following is the arrangement adopted by Lindley* in his recent work on the Vegetable Kingdom :—

- Class I. **THALLOGENS**—Asexual or Flowerless plants without proper stems or leaves. Under this he includes three Alliances—*Algae*, *Fungales*, and *Lichenaes*.
- II. **ACROGENS**—Asexual or Flowerless plants with stems and leaves, including three Alliances—*Muscales*, *Lycopodales*, and *Filicales*.
- III. **RHIZOGENS**—Sexual or Flowering plants, with Acotyledonous embryos and fructification springing from a thallus, as in *Rafflesiaceæ*.
- IV. **ENDOGENS**—Monocotyledonous flowering plants with Endogenous stems, parallel venation, and ternary symmetry. This class is subdivided into 4 sections—
 1. Plants with glumaceous flowers formed by imbricated bracts.
 2. Petaloid unisexual flowers.

* Lindley (John), *The Vegetable Kingdom, or the Structure, Classification, and Uses of Plants, illustrated upon the Natural System, 1846*. This work gives a full view of all the systems of Natural Classification, and may be consulted by the student for complete details.

3. Petaloid hermaphrodite flowers adherent to the ovary.

4. Petaloid hermaphrodite flowers free from the ovary.

Under these sections are included 11 Alliances, such as Glumales, Arales, Palmales, Narcissales, Orchidales, Juncales, and Liliales.

Class V. DICTYOGENS—Monocotyledonous plants with reticulated venation, including such orders as Dioscoreaceæ, Smilacæ, and Trilliaceæ.

— **VI. GYMNOGENS**—Polycotyledonous Exogens with naked seeds, as Coniferæ and Cycadaceæ.

— **VII. EXOGENS**—Dicotyledonous plants with seeds in a seed-vessel. Under this class he puts the following sub-classes :—

Sub-class 1. *Diclinous Exogens*, or Dicotyledons with unisexual flowers, and no tendency to form hermaphrodite flowers; including 8 Alliances, such as Amentales, Urticales, Euphorbiales, Menispermals, Cucurbitales.

Sub-class 2. *Hypogynous Exogens*, or Dicotyledons with hermaphrodite or polygamous flowers, and stamens entirely free from the calyx and corolla; including 14 Alliances, such as Violaes, Cistales, Malvales, Nymphæales, Ranales, Berberales, Ericales, Rutales, Geraniales, Silenales, Chenopodales, and Piperales.

Sub-class 3. *Perigynous Exogens*, or Dicotyledons with hermaphrodite or polygamous flowers, the stamens growing to the side of either the calyx or the corolla, ovary superior, or nearly so. This includes 10 Alliances, such as Daphnales, Rosales, Saxifragales, Gentianales, Solanales, Echiales, and Bignoniales.

Sub-class 4. *Epigynous Exogens*, or Dicotyledons with hermaphrodite or polygamous flowers, the stamens growing to the side of either the calyx or corolla, ovary inferior, or nearly so. This includes 7 Alliances, such as Campanales, Myrtales, Cactales, Grossales, Cinchonales, Umbellales, and Asarales.

1115. These are some of the most important methods of arrangement as adopted in the standard works of the day, and a comparative view of them is given by Henslow* in the following Table :—

* Henslow, Syllabus of a Course of Lectures on Botany, Cambridge, 1848.

Henslow's Approximate Comparison of the Systematic Views of Jussieu, De Candolle, Endlicher, and Lindley.

JUSSIEU, 1789.	DE CANDOLLE, 1819.	ENDLICHER, 1866.	LINDLEY, 1846.
<p>I. ACOTYLEDONES 1 { algae, 2. lichenes, fung., 1. musci, 4. hepaticæ, 3. filices, 5. }</p>	<p>* Cellulares v. Acotyledoneæ. } aphyllæ } ACOTYLEDONES IV. } foliosæ } * * Vasculares v. Cotyledoneæ. † Monocotyledones v. Endogeneæ. MONO-CRYPTOGAMÆ III.</p>	<p>* Thallophyta. } I. PROTOPHYTA. II. HYSTEROPHYTA. * * Cormophyta. } 1. Anophyta. } 2. Protophyta. III. ACROBRYA. } 3. Hysterophyta. IV. AMPHIBRYA. } 1. Gymnosperme. } 2. Apetale. V. ACRAMPHIBRYA. } 3. Gamopetale. } 4. Dialypetale.</p>	<p>(alliances). † Flowerless. I. THALLOGENS ... { 1. algae. } 2. lichenes. } 3. fungales. } 4. muscales. II. ACROGENS { 5. lycopodales. } 6. filicales. * * Flowering. III. RHIZOGENS. (1 alliance.) IV. ENDOGENS (11 alliances.) and V. DICTYOGENS. (1 alliance.) VI. GYMNOGENS. } 1. Dedicinus (8 alliances.) } 2. Hypogynous (14 alliances.) } 3. Perigynous (10 alliances.) VII. EXOGENS. } 4. Epigynous (7 alliances.)</p>
<p>II. MONOCOTYLEDONES. { 2 } 4 } 3</p>	<p>MONO-PHANEROGAMÆ ... II. † † Dicotyledones v. Exogeneæ. } 4. Monochlamydeæ } 3. Corollifloræ } 2. Calycifloræ } 1. Thalamifloræ</p>	<p>DICOTYLEDONES I. } 1. Gymnosperme. } 2. Apetale. } 3. Gamopetale. } 4. Dialypetale.</p>	<p>III. DICTYOLEDONES. } 4. Dichines irregulares { 15 } 1. Apetale { 6 } 7 } 8 } 9 } 10 { cordan- } 11 { there. } 12 { synan- } 13 { there. } 14 } 15 } 16 } 17 } 18 } 19 } 20 } 21 } 22 } 23 } 24 } 25 } 26 } 27 } 28 } 29 } 30 } 31 } 32 } 33 } 34 } 35 } 36 } 37 } 38 } 39 } 40 } 41 } 42 } 43 } 44 } 45 } 46 } 47 } 48 } 49 } 50 } 51 } 52 } 53 } 54 } 55 } 56 } 57 } 58 } 59 } 60 } 61 } 62 } 63 } 64 } 65 } 66 } 67 } 68 } 69 } 70 } 71 } 72 } 73 } 74 } 75 } 76 } 77 } 78 } 79 } 80 } 81 } 82 } 83 } 84 } 85 } 86 } 87 } 88 } 89 } 90 } 91 } 92 } 93 } 94 } 95 } 96 } 97 } 98 } 99 } 100</p>

1116. The following is the arrangement which we propose to follow in the Class-Book :—

Plants are arranged in two great Divisions—**PHANEROGAMOUS, CO-TYLEDONOUS, or FLOWERING Plants**; and **CRYPTOGAMOUS, ACOTYLEDONOUS, or FLOWERLESS Plants**. Of Phanerogamous Plants there are two classes :—

CLASS I. DICOTYLEDONES, EXOGENÆ, or ACRAMPHIBRYA, in which spiral vessels are present (Fig. 1312); the stem is exogenous

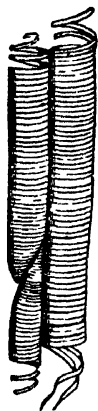


Fig. 1312.



Fig. 1313

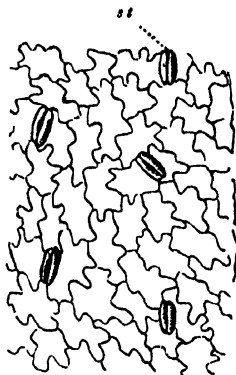


Fig. 1314.



Fig. 1316.



Fig 1315



Fig. 1317.

(Fig. 1313); stomata are present (Fig. 1314); the venation of the leaves is reticulated (Fig. 1315); the flowers have stamens and pistils,

Fig 1312. Spiral vessels as occurring in a Dicotyledon or Exogen.

Fig. 1313. Exogenous stem of an Oak, showing concentric circles of wood and a separable bark

Fig. 1314. Stomata in the epidermis of a Dicotyledon.

Fig. 1315. Reticulated venation in the leaf of a Dicotyledon

Fig. 1316. Quinary symmetry in a perfect or hermaphrodite flower of a Dicotyledon.

Fig 1317. Quaternary symmetry in a perfect flower of a Dicotyledon.

and the symmetry is quinary or quaternary (Figs. 1316 and 1317); the ovules are either in an ovary (Fig. 1318), or naked (Fig. 1319); and the embryo is dicotyledonous (Fig. 1320). In this class there are included four Sub-classes.

Sub-class I. **THALAMIFLORÆ**—Flowers usually dichlamydeous, petals separate, inserted on the thalamus, and stamens hypogynous (Figs. 1321 and 1322). It may be illustrated by the following natural orders:—

Ranunculaceæ.
Magnoliaceæ.
Papaveraceæ.
Crucifereæ.

Violaceæ.
Caryophyllaceæ.
Malvaceæ.
Aurantiaceæ.

Hypericaceæ.
Guttifereæ.
Geraniaceæ.
Rutaceæ.



Fig. 1318.

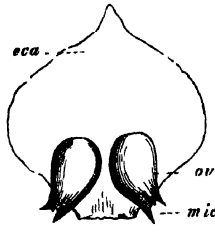


Fig. 1319

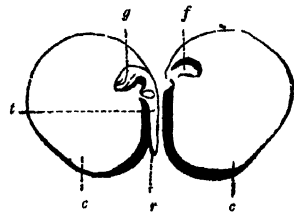


Fig. 1320.



Fig. 1321.

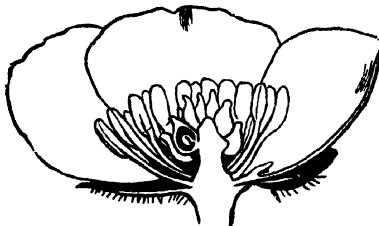


Fig. 1322



Fig. 1323.

Sub-class II. **CALYCIFLORÆ**—Flowers usually dichlamydeous, petals either separate or united, stamens either perigynous (Fig. 1323) or epigynous (1324). This sub-class has two sub-divisions—

1. *Polypetalæ* or *Dialypetalæ*—in which the petals are separate (Fig. 1325), illustrated by the following natural orders:—

Fig. 1318. Ovary of a Dicotyledon, containing ovules (Angiospermæ).

Fig. 1319. Naked ovules of a Dicotyledon, with the exposed micropyle, *mic*, and a scale or bract, *eca* (Gymnospermæ).

Fig. 1320. Dicotyledonous embryo of an Exogen. Cotyledons, *c c*, radicle, *r*, tigellus, *t*, plumule or gemmule, *g*, and depression for it, *f*.

Fig. 1321. Diagram to illustrate Thalamifloral Dicotyledons. Sepals, *s*, petals, *p*, and stamens, *st*, all free, and inserted into the receptacle, *r*, below the ovary.

Fig. 1322. Flower of a *Ranunculus*, illustrating Thalamifloral Exogens. The petals are separately inserted on the thalamus, and the stamens are hypogynous.

Fig. 1323. Diagram to illustrate Calycifloral Dicotyledons with perigynous stamens. Petals, *p*, and stamens, *s*, inserted on the calyx, *c*, surrounding the ovary.

Celastraceæ.
Anacardiaceæ.
Leguminosæ.
Rosaceæ.

Melastomaceæ.
Myrtaceæ.
Onagraceæ.
Passifloraceæ.

Crassulaceæ.
Cactaceæ.
Saxifragaceæ.
Umbellifereæ.

2. *Monopetalæ* or *Gamopetalæ*—in which the petals are united (Fig. 1326), as illustrated in the orders—

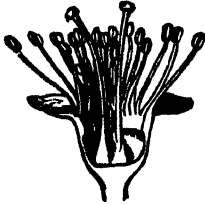


Fig. 1325

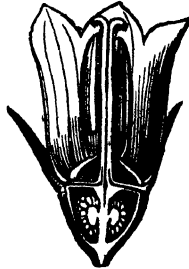


Fig. 1326

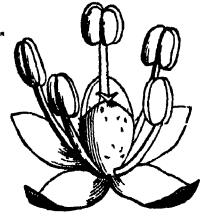


Fig. 1329.

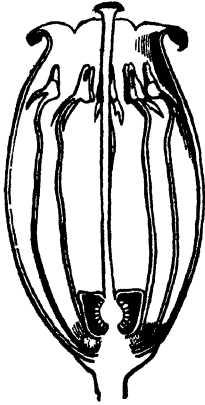


Fig. 1327.



Fig 1324



Fig 1330

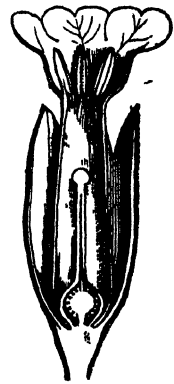


Fig 1328.

Caprifoliaceæ.
Galiaceæ.
Cinchonaceæ.

Dipsacaceæ.
Valerianaceæ.
Compositæ.

Campanulaceæ.
Lobeliaceæ.
Vacciniaceæ.

Fig. 1324. Diagram to illustrate Calycifloral Dicotyledons with Epigynous stamens. Petals, *p*, and stamens, *s*, united to the calyx, *c*, and all adherent to the ovary, *o*, so as to be above it, *r*, receptacle.

Fig. 1325. Flower of Cherry, one of the Rosaceæ, showing a Calycifloral Exogen, with a polypetalous corolla.

Fig. 1326. Flower of Campanula, showing a Calycifloral Exogen, with a gamopetalous corolla.

Fig. 1327. Flower of a Heath, showing a Corollifloral Exogen, with the stamens hypogynous, and free from the corolla.

Fig. 1328. Flower of Primula, showing a Corollifloral Exogen, with the stamens united to the corolla, which is hypogynous.

Fig. 1329. Flower of Chenopodium, showing a Monochlamydeous Exogen. In this plant the embryo is truly Dicotyledonous.

Fig. 1330. Achlamydeous male flower of Euphorbia, one of the Dicotyledons. Peduncle, *p*, δ , the solitary stamen or male flower attached to the peduncle by a joint, *a*.

Sub-class III. **COROLLIFLORÆ**—Flowers dichlamydeous, petals united, corolla hypogynous. In this sub-class there are two subdivisions :—

1. *Hypostamineæ*—in which the stamens are inserted into the receptacle and not united to the corolla (Fig. 1327), as illustrated in the orders—

Ericaceæ. | Epacridaceæ.

2. *Epicorollæ* or *Epipetalæ*—in which the stamens are inserted on the corolla (Fig. 1328), as illustrated by the orders—

Gentianaceæ.	Solanaceæ.	Acanthaceæ.
Polemoniaceæ.	Scrophulariaceæ.	Primulaceæ.
Convolvulaceæ.	Labiata.	Plumbaginaceæ.
Boraginaceæ.	Verbenaceæ.	Plantaginaceæ.

Sub-class IV. **MONOCHLAMYDÆ**, or **APETALÆ**—flowers either with a calyx only (Fig. 1329), or achlamydeous (Fig. 1330). In this sub-class there are two subdivisions :—

1. *Angiospermeæ*—in which the ovules are contained in a pericarp, and are fertilized by the action of the pollen on the stigma (Fig. 1329), as in the following natural orders, many of which contain unisexual flowers—

Chenopodiaceæ.	Proteaceæ.	Euphorbiaceæ.
Polygonaceæ.	Thymelæaceæ.	Urticaceæ.
Begoniaceæ.	Aristolochiaceæ.	Piperaceæ.
Lauraceæ.	Nepenthaceæ.	Amentifera.

These orders are all truly Dicotyledonous, while another order *Rafflesiaceæ* (Fig. 127, p. 54), is Acotyledonous.

2. *Gymnospermeæ*—in which the ovules are not contained in a true pericarp, and are fertilized by the direct action of the pollen without the intervention of a stigma (Fig. 1331), and the embryo is polycotyledonous (Fig. 1332), as illustrated in the natural orders—

Coniferae. | Cycadaceæ.

CLASS II. MONOCOTYLEDONES, ENDOGENÆ, or AMPHIBRYA, in which spiral vessels are present; the stem is endogenous (Fig. 1333); stomata occur; the venation is usually parallel (Fig. 1334); sometimes slightly reticulated (Fig. 1335); the flowers have stamens and pistils, and the symmetry is ternary (Figs. 1336, 1337); the ovules are contained in an ovary; the embryo is monocotyledonous (Fig. 1338).

Under this Class are included three Sub-classes :—

Sub-class I. **DICTYOGENÆ**—plants with reticulated venation in their leaves (Fig. 1335), as illustrated in the orders *Dioscoreaceæ*, *Trilliaceæ*, and *Smilacææ*.

Sub-class II. **PETALOIDEÆ, or FLORIDEÆ**—in which the leaves are parallel-veined; the flowers usually consist either of a coloured

perianth (Fig. 1339), or of whorled scales (Fig. 1336) This sub-class is divided into—

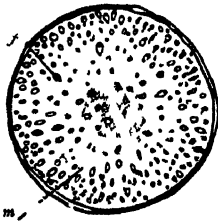


Fig 1333



Fig 1331

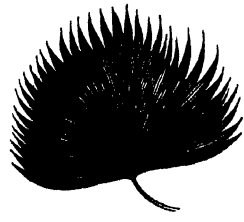


Fig 1334

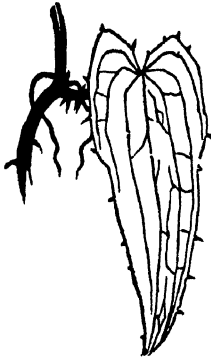


Fig 1335

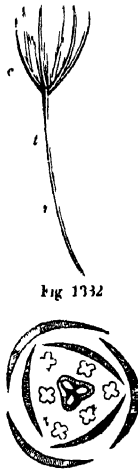


Fig 1332



Fig 1336



Fig 1337

1. *Epygna*—in which the Perianth is adherent, the ovary is

Fig 1331 Cone of a Pine belonging to Coniferae, in which the ovules are covered by bracts, but are not contained in a true ovary with a stigma

Fig 1333 Polycotyledonous embryo of a Pine, one of the Gymnospermous Dicotyledons The radicle, *r*, the tigellus, *t*, and the cotyledons, *c*

Fig 1333 Endogenous stem of a Monocotyledonous plant, *m*, the loose central cellular portion *f*, the outer or cortical portion

Fig 1334 Parallel-veined leaf of a Monocotyledon or Endogen

Fig 1335 Slightly reticulated leaf of a Monocotyledonous plant (a species of *Smilax*) The plant is referred to the sub-class Dictyogens

Fig 1336 Trimerous flower of a Monocotyledon (*Lusula*), with ternary symmetry The floral envelopes are glumaceous but verticillate in this plant

Fig 1337 Ternary symmetry in a perfect or hermaphrodite flower of a Monocotyledon (*Lilium album*)

inferior, and the flowers are usually hermaphrodite (Fig. 1340), as in the following natural orders —

Hydrocharidaceæ.	Marantaceæ	Hæmodoraceæ.
Orcidaceæ.	Musaceæ.	Amaryllidaceæ.
Zingiberaceæ.	Iridaceæ.	Bromeliaceæ.

2. *Hypogynæ*—in which the Perianth is free, the ovary is superior, and the flowers are usually hermaphrodite (Fig. 1337), as illustrated by the following orders :—

Liliaceæ.	Pontederiaceæ.	Commelynaceæ.
Melanthaceæ.	Juncaceæ.	Alismaceæ.
Gilliesiaceæ.	Palmæ.	Butomaceæ.



Fig 1339

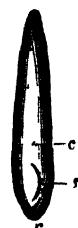


Fig 1338



Fig 1340

3. *Incompleteæ*—flowers incomplete, often unisexual, with no proper perianth, or with a few verticillate scales (Fig. 1341), as illustrated in the following natural orders :—

Pandanaceæ	Naiadaceæ.
Araceæ.	Restiaceæ

Sub-class III. *GLUMIFERÆ*—flowers glumaceous, consisting of imbricated bracts (Fig. 1342), venation parallel, as illustrated by the natural orders —

Cyperaceæ	Graminææ
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Fig. 1338. Monocotyledonous embryo of an Endogen (*Triglochin*), showing the cotyledon, *c*, the radicle, *r*, and the slit, *s*, where the plumule appears during germination.

Fig. 1339. A Monocotyledon (*Crocus sativus*), with parallel venation, and a coloured perianth, the parts of which exhibit trigonal symmetry

Fig. 1340. Monocotyledon (*Leucojum*), with the ovary inferior, and the floral envelopes and stamens epigynous

CLASS III. ACOTYLEDONES, or ACROGENÆ and THALLOGENÆ,

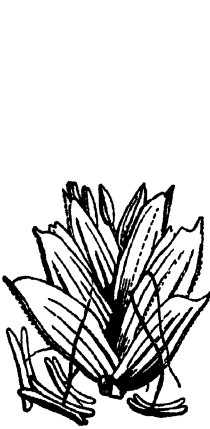


Fig. 1842.



Fig. 1841.



Fig. 1843.



Fig. 1844.

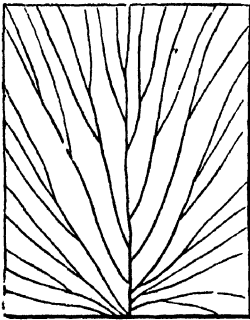


Fig. 1845.



Fig. 1847.

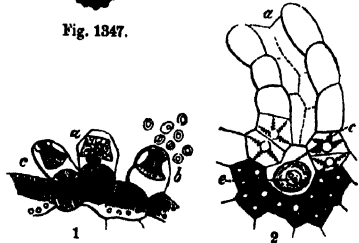


Fig. 1846.

or THALLOPHYTA and ACROBRYA, in which the plants are either

Fig. 1841. One of the incomplete unisexual Monocotyledons. A species of *Arum*, in which the male and female flowers are separate, and are each surrounded by minute scales; *a*, female flower; *b*, male flowers; *c*, abortive flowers; *d*, extremity of the spadix.

Fig. 1843. Glumiferous Monocotyledon (*Triticum*), consisting of numerous flowers formed by imbricated bracts.

Fig. 1843. Scalariform vessels, which are met with in the higher division of Acotyledonous plants, particularly in Ferns.

Fig. 1844. Acrogenous woody stem of a Fern.

Fig. 1845. Forked venation of the frond of a Fern.

Fig. 1846. Antheridia, 1, and Archegonium, 2, of a Fern, being the supposed organs of reproduction. For explanation, see Figures 1229 and 1231, p. 574.

Fig. 1847. Spore or cellular germinating body of an Acotyledonous plant.

entirely cellular, or consist partly of scalariform vessels (Fig. 1843) : the stem when woody is Acrogenous (Fig. 1844) ; stomata occur in the higher orders ; the leaves are either veinless or have a forked venation (Fig. 1845) ; no flowers are present ; the reproductive organs consist of Antheridia and Archegonia (Fig. 1846) ; spores or cellular embryos are produced which have no cotyledons (Fig. 1847).

Under this class there are two divisions :—

Sub-class I. ACROGENÆ, ACROBRYA, or CORMOGENÆ—with a distinct stem (Fig. 1844), bearing leaves and branches (Fig. 1848), as illustrated in the natural orders—

Equisetacæ.		Lycopodiacæ.		Musci.
Filices.		Rhizocarpeæ.		Jungermanniacæ.

Sub-class II. THALLOGENÆ, THALLOPHYTA, or CELLULARES—having no distinct stem nor leaves, but forming a cellular expansion of various kinds which bears the organs of reproduction (Fig. 1849). It is illustrated by the orders—

Lichenes.		Fungi.		Algæ.
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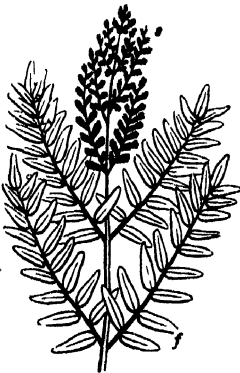


Fig. 1848

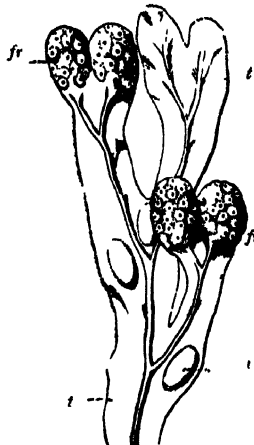


Fig. 1849

1117. The system of De Candolle is the basis of this proposed arrangement, and some of the Divisions are derived from Jussieu and

Fig. 1848. An Acrogen (*Osmunda regalis*), with an axis and leaves. The upper part of the frond, *f*, bears the fructification, *s*, in the form of sporangia and spores.

Fig. 1849. A Sea-weed (*Fucus vesiculosus*), illustrating one of the cellular Cryptogamic plants. It produces a cellular thallus, *t*, which bears the fructification, *fr*, *fr*. Vesicles of air, *v*, exist in the frond. The venation is false, consisting only of condensed cellular tissue, without any woody tubes or vessels.

Lindley. An index to this arrangement is given in the following tabular view :—

A. PHANEROGAMEÆ, COOTYLEDONEÆ, OR FLOWERING PLANTS.

CLASS I. Dicotyledones, Exogenæ, Acramphibrya.

* Dichlamydeæ, having Calyx and Corolla.

Sub-class I. Thalimifloræ (Polypetalæ or Dialypetalæ Hypogynæ)	<i>Ranunculacæ.</i>	
Sub-class II. Calycifloræ	Perigynæ { 1. Polypetalæ or Dialypetalæ and Epi-gynæ { 2. Monopetalæ or Gamopetalæ	<i>Rosacæ.</i> <i>Compositæ.</i>
Sub-class III. Corollifloræ (Monopetalæ or Gamopetalæ, Hypocorollæ).		
1. Hypostaminæ (Stamens free from Corolla, hypogynous) ...	<i>Ericacæ.</i>	
2. Epicorollæ (Stamens on hypogynous Corolla)	<i>Boraginacæ.</i>	

** Monochlamydeæ and Achlamydeæ, having a Calyx only, or no Envelope.

Sub-class IV. Monochlamydeæ or Apetalæ ...	1. Angiospermeæ { a. Embryo Dicotyledo- nous (spermogens) b. Embryo Acotyledo- nous (sporogens) 2. Gymnospermeæ or Gymnogeneæ, embryo usually Polycotyledonous	<i>Polygonacæ.</i> <i>Rafflesiacæ.</i> <i>Coniferæ.</i>
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CLASS II. Monocotyledones, Endogenæ, Amphibrya.

Sub-class I. Dictyogeneæ, leaves netted	<i>Trilliaceæ.</i>	
Sub-class II. Petaloideæ or Florideæ, with a verticillate perianth	1. Epi-gynæ	<i>Orchidacæ.</i>
	2. Hypogynæ	<i>Liliacæ.</i>
	3. Incompleteæ	<i>Aracæ.</i>
Sub-class III. Glumifloræ, with imbricated bracts	<i>Gramineæ.</i>	

B. CRYPTOGAMEÆ, ACOTYLEDONEÆ, OR FLOWERLESS PLANTS.

CLASS III. Acotyledones Acro-Thallogeneæ.

Sub-class I. Acrogeneæ, Acrobrya, Cormogeneæ	<i>Filices.</i>
Sub-class II. Thallogeneæ, Thallophyta, Cellulares	<i>Algæ.</i>

CHAPTER III.

ARRANGEMENT AND CHARACTERS OF THE NATURAL ORDERS.

1118. Having now considered the primary divisions of the natural system, we proceed to give the characters of the natural orders, which are associated under the different classes and sub-classes. We have already stated, that in a linear series it is impossible to group the orders according to their affinities. Each order is allied, not merely to those which immediately precede and follow it in such a series, but to various other orders which are necessarily removed from it. On the confines of classes and sub-classes, orders occur which have characters common to two or more of the groups, and we constantly meet with aberrant genera which form a connecting link between two orders. In Botany, as in all departments of natural science, there are no rigid lines of demarcation, but one division seems to pass into another by an insensible gradation. Our definitions express the most marked and important characters of the groups, without attempting to embrace all the anomalies; and as our knowledge of the vegetation of the globe advances, we are enabled to improve the definitions of the groups, and to form intermediate divisions.

1119. In the following pages the natural orders are briefly defined, their general geographical distribution is given, some of the illustrative genera in each order are enumerated, the properties of the plants included in the orders are mentioned in so far as they have been determined, and a short notice is added of the more important medicinal and economical plants. At the end of each of the sub-classes an analysis is given of the natural orders included in it, so as to enable the student to detect the place of a genus or species in the natural system. In this the plan adopted by Lindley has been followed, with some modifications. The student is referred to Lindley's standard work, entitled "The Vegetable Kingdom," for a full account of the characters, alliances and affinities, distribution and properties, of the orders.

I.—PHANEROGAMEÆ, COTYLEDONEÆ, OR FLOWERING PLANTS.

CLASS I.—DICOTYLEDONES, EXOGENÆ, OR ACRAMPHIBRYA

SUB-CLASS 1.—THALAMIFLORÆ.

1120. Natural Order 1.—*RANUNCULACEÆ*, the Buttercup order
(Figs. 1350 to 1356)—Herbs, rarely shrubs, with an acrid watery

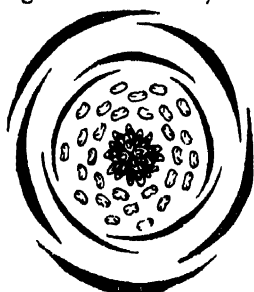


Fig 1350



Fig 1352



Fig 1351



Fig 1353



Fig 1354



Fig 1355



Fig 1356

juice, and generally with much-divided, exstipulate leaves (Fig. 263,
p 117), the petioles of which are dilated and sheathing. Sepals 3-6,

Figures 1350 to 1356 illustrate the natural order Ranunculaceæ

Fig 1350 Diagram of flower of *Ranunculus* with five sepals five petals, numerous stamens and carpels Fig 1351 Spurred petal of *Columbine* Fig 1352 Section of flower of *Ranunculus*, showing sepals, *s*, petals, *p*, numerous stamens, with adnate anthers, placed below the carpels Fig 1353 Numerous single-seeded carpels of *Ranunculus* Fig 1354 Rape achene of *Ranunculus* Fig 1355 Rape follicle of *Columbine* Fig 1356 Anatropal seed of *Aconite*, cut vertically, showing abundant homogeneous albumen, and a small embryo

Further illustrations of the Crowfoot order—lower of *Ranunculus*, Fig 337, p 144 Flower of *Columbine*, Fig 393 p 164, Fig 524, p 204, Fig 670 p 237, Fig 403, p 190 Scale-bearing petal of *Ranunculus*, Fig 511, p 202 Petal of *Trollius* Fig 512 p 202 Petal of *Hellebore*, Fig 518

usually deciduous, sometimes deformed (Fig. 482, p. 195). Petals 3-15, sometimes anomalous (Fig. 1351), at other times suppressed. Stamens usually ∞ , with adnate anthers (Fig. 1352). Carpels numerous, one-celled (Fig. 1353, Fig. 693, p. 245), or united into a single, many-celled pistil (Fig. 698, p. 246). Fruit, achenes (Fig. 1354), follicles (Fig. 1355), or baccate. Seeds anatropal, with horny albumen, and a minute embryo (Fig. 1356).

1121. The Buttercup or Crowfoot family characterise a cold, damp climate, and when met with in the tropics, they occur on the sides and summits of mountains. There are about 1000 known species, of which 1-5th is found in Europe, and 1-7th in North America. *Illustrative Genera*.—Clematis, Thalictrum, Anemone, Hepatica, Adonis, Myosurus, Ranunculus, Caltha, Trollius, Eranthis, Helleborus, Aquilegia, Delphinium, Aconitum, Pæonia, Actæa, Podophyllum.

1122. The plants of the order have narcotico-acrid properties, and are usually more or less poisonous. The acridity varies at different seasons, and in different parts of the plant; it is frequently volatilised by heat, and destroyed by drying. Some plants of the order are bitter and tonic.

Aconitum ferox. The root furnishes the Indian poison called Bikh, Bish, or Nabee. *Aconitum Napellus*, Monkshood (Fig. 482, p. 195). The leaves are used to allay pain in neuralgia, and contain a narcotic alkaloid, Aconita, or Aconitina.

Clematis erecta and *Flammula*. The leaves have been employed as blisters.

Coptis trifolia, Gold thread. The roots are used in North America as a stomachic bitter.

Delphinium Staphisagria, Stavesacre. The seeds contain an alkaloid called Delphinia, and have been used for destroying vermin. The species of *Delphinium* are commonly known as Larkspurs.

Helleborus officinalis (the Black Hellebore of the ancients), *H. niger*, and other species, are famed as drastic purgatives.

Moutan officinalis (*Pæonia Moutan*) is the Tree-Pæony of China, remarkable for its showy flowers and large disk (Fig. 672, p. 238). Fortune mentions a plant near Shanghai which produced from 800 to 400 blossoms annually.

Nigella sativa (Fig. 266, p. 118). The seeds were formerly used instead of pepper, and they are supposed to be the fitches or black cummin (Ketzach) mentioned in Isaiah xxviii. 25, 27.

Podophyllum peltatum, May-apple, is used in North America as a cathartic. Its fruit is acid, and is called Wild Lemon.

Ranunculus, Crowfoot or Buttercup, whence the order is named. The species are generally acrid in a fresh state. The pericarps lose their acridity as they become ripe. The seeds are bland. *Ranunculus sceleratus* and *Flammula* are very acrid. The fasciculated roots of *R. Ficaria* have been used as an article of food, on account of the starch which they contain.

1123. Nat. Ord. 2.—DILLENACEÆ, the Dillenia order.—Trees, shrubs, or under-shrubs, with alternate, exstipulate leaves, five per-

p. 208. Petal of Larkspur, Fig. 521, p. 208. Petals of Aconite, Fig. 523, p. 208. Follicles of Columbine, Fig. 416, p. 175; Fig. 773, p. 265. Disk and Follicles of Pæony, Fig. 672, p. 238, and Fig. 783, p. 269. Achene of Clematis, Fig. 743, p. 255. Forms of leaves, Fig. 262, p. 117; Fig. 265, p. 118; Fig. 267, p. 119, and Fig. 305, p. 180.

sistent sepals in two rows, five deciduous imbricated petals, indefinite stamens often turned to one side, a 2-5-carpellary apocarpous or syncarpous fruit, arillate anatropal seeds, and homogeneous albumen. There are about 200 known species which occur chiefly in Australasia, India, and Equinoctial America. They have astringent qualities, and some of them are large trees, which afford excellent timber. *III. Gen.*—*Dillenia*, *Hibbertia*, *Candollea*, *Curatella*, *Delima*, *Tetracera*.

1124. Nat. Ord. 3.—MAGNOLIACEÆ, the Magnolia order (Figs. 1357, 1358).—Trees or shrubs, with alternate coriaceous leaves, and convolute stipules, which cover the buds, and are deciduous. They are remarkable for the beauty of their foliage, and the fragrance of their flowers. Sepals usually 3-6, deciduous. Petals, three or more, imbricated (Fig. 1357). Stamens ∞ , distinct, with adnate anthers.



Fig 1357



Fig 1358

Carpels, one-celled, numerous, on an elevated receptacle. Fruit, of numerous, dry or succulent, dehiscent or indehiscent, carpels. Seeds often arillate, and suspended from the fruit by a long funiculus; albumen fleshy and homogeneous; embryo minute. The Magnoliads abound in North America, and characterise one of Schouw's phytogeographic regions. There are two sub-orders:—1. *Magnolieæ*, with the carpels arranged in a cone-like manner, and leaves not dotted; 2. *Winterææ*, with the carpels verticillate in a single row, and dotted leaves. The known species amount to nearly 70. *III. Gen.*—*Talauma*, *Magnolia*, *Liriodendron*, *Tasmania*, *Drimys*, *Illicium*.

1125. The plants of this order have bitter, tonic, and aromatic qualities.

Drimys Winteri (Fig. 1358) yields Winter's bark, so called on account of its being discovered by Captain Winter.* It has stimulant aromatic properties. Its woody tissue presents a punctated appearance. *Drimys granatensis* supplies the aromatic bark called Casca d'Anta in Brazil.

Fig 1357 The White-wood or Tulip-tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*)

Fig 1358 Winter's bark (*Drimys Winteri* or *aromatica*), brought from the Straits of Magellan, in 1579, by Captain Winter

* At a meeting of the Linnæan Society, held June 18, 1850, the President (Dr Robert Brown) exhibited portions of Winter's bark trees, from the Straits of Magellan, cut down in 1826 by Captain

Illicium anisatum, on account of its flavour and the stellate arrangement of its fruit, receives the name of Star-Anise. It is used by the Chinese as a spice, and for flavouring liqueurs.

Liriodendron tulipifera (Fig. 1857) is called Tulip-tree, from the appearance of its flowers. Its leaves are abrupt or truncated. It is sometimes called White-wood. The bark is bitter and tonic.

Magnolia glauca, Swamp Sassafras or Beaver-tree, yields a bark which is used as a substitute for Cinchona.

Tasmannia aromatica is a New Holland tree, the fruit of which is sometimes used as a substitute for pepper.

1126. Nat. Ord. 4.—ANONACEÆ, the Custard-apple order.—Trees or shrubs with alternate, entire, exstipulate leaves, three persistent sepals, six petals in two rows, usually valvate, sometimes combined, numerous stamens covering a large hypogynous receptacle, numerous carpels containing one or more ovules, a succulent or dry fruit, consisting of a number of one or many-seeded carpels, distinct or combined, seeds with a brittle spermoderm, ruminate albumen, and a minute embryo. There are about 300 known species of Anonads. They occur in tropical regions, and many of them furnish valuable fruits. *Ill. Gen.*—*Bocagea*, *Xylopia*, *Uvaria*, *Guatteria*, *Duguetia*, *Anona*, *Rollinia*.

1127. The plants of this order are generally aromatic and fragrant.

Anona squamosa yields the sweetsop, *A. muricata* the soursop, and *A. reticulata* the netted Custard-apple. *A. Cherimolia* produces the Peruvian Cherimoyer, said to be one of the finest known fruits. *A. palustris* furnishes West Indian Cork-wood.

Duguetia quitarensis is said to supply the elastic wood called Lance-wood, used by coachmakers.

Monodora Myristica, the Calabash-Nutmeg. Its seeds contain an aromatic oil resembling that of the East Indian nutmeg.

Uvaria febrifuga produces a febrifuge fruit.

Xylopia aromatica yields a dry aromatic fruit, used as pepper in Africa, and commonly called Piper æthiopicum. *X. glabra* is the Bitter-wood of the West Indies.

1128. Nat. Ord. 5.—SCHIZANDRACEÆ, the Schizandra order.—Trailing shrubs, with alternate exstipulate leaves, allied to Anonaceæ, but differing in their habit, their unisexual flowers, their imbricate revestation, and their homogeneous albumen. The stamens are often monadelphous, and the fruit consists of numerous baccate carpels. There are 12 known species which occur in India, Japan, and the hotter parts of North America. They abound in an insipid mucus, and the fruit of some is edible. *Ill. Gen.*—*Kadsura*, *Schizandra*.

1129. Nat. Ord. 6.—MENISPERMACEÆ, the Moon-seed order.—

P. P. King, E.N., presenting inscriptions made through the bark by a nudalupman who accompanied the Spanish expedition under Captain Cordoba in 1786, and by one of the companions of Captain Bougainville in 1767; the annual rings in the former case distinctly corresponded with the interval between 1786 and 1826

Trailing shrubs with alternate, simple, usually entire leaves, and unisexual (often dioecious) flowers. Symmetry generally ternary. Stamens distinct or monadelphous, and attached to an androphore. Carpels supported on a gynophore, one-celled, containing a single curved ovule. Fruit drupaceous, one-celled, curved around a placental process. Seed solitary and curved; embryo with the cotyledons coiled up in a peripheral form. The woody matter is often closely compacted in wedges, separated by large medullary plates, giving the stem a peculiar aspect on a cross section.* *Menispermads* are common in the tropical woods of Asia and America, and they climb among the trees to a great height. There are about 300 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Anamirta*, *Jateorrhiza*, *Menispermum*, *Cissampelos*, *Cocculus*.

1130. The plants of this order have narcotic and bitter properties; some of them are very poisonous.

Anamirta paniculata yields the fruit known in commerce as *Cocculus indicus*, and which has been sometimes illegally used to impart bitterness to malt liquor. The seed contains a crystalline narcotic principle called *Picrotoxine*, while the pericarp yields another poisonous alkaloid, called *Menispermine*.

Coccinium (*Menispermum*) *fenestratum* supplies a false *Calumba* root which contains much *Berberine*.

Jateorrhiza palmata (*Cocculus palmatus*) supplies the bitter tonic root known as *Calumba* (Figs. 131-133, p. 55). It contains a bitter principle called *Calumbine*.† *Cissampelos Pareira*, Wild Vine or Velvet-leaf, furnishes the tonic and diuretic root, known by the name of *Pareira brava*.

1131. Nat. Ord. 7.—*LARDIZABALACEÆ*, the *Lardizabala* order.—Twining shrubs, with alternate exstipulate leaves, ternary symmetry and unisexual flowers, resembling *Menispermads*, but differing in their compound leaves, ovules sunk on the inner surface of the ovary, and minute embryo in abundant solid albumen. They are found in the cooler parts of South America and China. They seem to have no active properties. Some yield edible fruits. There are 15 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Akebia*, *Holböllia*, *Lardizabala*.

1132. Nat. Ord. 8.—*BERBERIDACEÆ*, the *Barberry* order (Figs. 1359-1362).—Shrubs, or herbaceous perennial plants, with alternate compound leaves, which are often spiny from non-development of the parenchyma (Fig. 238, p. 107). Sepals, three, four, or six, deciduous, in a double row. Petals equal to the sepals in number, and opposite to them, or twice as many. Stamens equal in number to the petals, and opposite to them (Fig. 1359). Anthers with two cells, each opening by a recurved valve from below upwards (Fig. 1360, and Fig. 646, p. 233). Carpel solitary, one-celled; stigma orbicular (Fig. 1361). Fruit baccate or capsular. Seeds anatropal; albumen fleshy and horny (Fig. 1362, and Fig. 913, p. 303). They

* For remarks on this heteromorphous family, see Paper by Miers, in *Annals and Mag. of Nat. Hist.* 3d Ser. vii. 83.

† See remarks on true and false *Calumba* plants in the *Botanical Magazine* for July 1853, tab. 4658.

are found in temperate parts of the northern and southern hemispheres. There are 100 known species.

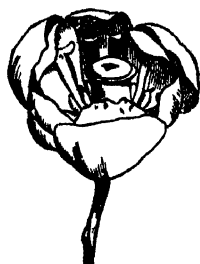


Fig. 1359.



Fig. 1360.



Fig. 1361.



Fig. 1362.

1133. In their properties they are acid, bitter, and astringent.

Berberis vulgaris, the common Barberry. Its fruit contains oxalic acid, and is used as a preserve; while its bark and stem are astringent, and yield the bitter yellow crystalline matter Berberine. Its stamens display peculiar irritability (p. 557). The root of several species of *Berberis* is said to have furnished the astringent matter called *Lycium* by *Dioscorides*, and still used in India under the name of *Ruswut*.—See Dr. Simpson in *Monthly Journal of Med. Science*, Jan. 1858.

Leontice (*Caulophyllum*) *thalictroides*, blue Cohosh, has an evanescent pericarp, the drupe-like seeds becoming naked.

Mahonias are shrubs commonly cultivated in gardens. They are Barberries with pinnate leaves.

1134. Nat. Ord. 9.—CABOMBACEÆ, the Water-Shield order.—Aquatic plants with floating peltate leaves. Sepals and petals three or four, alternating. Stamens 6-36. Carpels distinct, two to eighteen. Seeds definite; embryo in a vitellus, outside abundant fleshy albumen. They are allied to *Nymphæaceæ* and *Nelumbiaceæ*, and differ in their distinct carpels, definite ovules, abundant albumen, and nearly complete absence of a torus. They occur in America and New Holland. There are 3 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Cabomba*, *Hydropeltis*.

1135. Nat. Ord. 10.—NYMPHÆACEÆ, the Water-Lily order (Figs. 1363 to 1366).—Aquatic herbs with large showy flowers, and cordate or peltate leaves (Fig. 1363), arising from a prostrate rhizome, which is sunk in the mud. Sepals usually 4, persistent. Petals numerous, deciduous, inserted on a fleshy torus, and passing by a gradual transition out of the sepals into the stamens, which are numerous, have petaloid filaments, and are inserted into the torus (Fig. 1364). Ovary surrounded by the torus, many-celled, many-seeded, with radiating stigmas (Figs. 1364, 1365). Fruit indehiscent, pulpy when ripe. Seeds anatropous, attached to spongy dissepiments (Fig. 1365); embryo small, in a vitellus, outside farinaceous albumen (Fig. 1366,

Figures 1359 to 1362 illustrate the natural order *Berberidaceæ*.

Fig. 1359. The flower of the Barberry, showing its sepals, petals, and irritable stamens having appendages at their base. Fig. 1360. The two-celled anther opening by two valves, which become recurved as seen in Fig. 644, p. 233. Fig. 1361. Solitary one-celled carpel, with the orbicular nearly sessile stigma. Fig. 1362. Anatropal seed, with orthotropal embryo in the axis of solid albumen.

Fig. 900, p. 299). There are considerable differences of opinion as to the position of Water-lilies. The structure of the rhizome resembles that of Endogens, in which class many botanists are disposed to place them (see Lindley's Vegetable Kingdom, p. 410). The Water-lilies chiefly inhabit quiet waters in the northern hemisphere; they are



Fig 1363

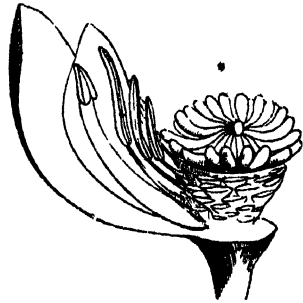


Fig 1364



Fig 1365



Fig 1366

rare in the southern hemisphere. There are 50 described species.
Ill. Gen.—Euryale, Victoria, Nymphaea, Nuphar.

1136. The order possesses bitter, astringent, and some say narcotic properties. The plants contain much starch in their rhizomes, which are used for food in the same way as potatoes. Their petioles

Figures 1363 to 1366 illustrate the natural order Nymphaeaceae

Fig 1363 *Nymphaea Lotus*, showing large, cordate, reticulated leaves with involute vernation, and showy flowers — (See note, p 237) Fig 1364 Section of flower of *Nymphaea alba*, showing peduncle, torus or disk, petals, stamens with petaloid filaments, and radiating stigmas Fig 1365 Section of flower of *Nuphar luteum*, showing sepals, petals, stamens, and ovary with ovules Fig 1366 Seed of *Nymphaea alba*, cut vertically, to show the embryo in the vitellus or embryo-sac, with perispermic albumen — (See also Fig 900, p 299)

have large air-tubes, as well as spiral fibres, which can be separated and used for wicks.

Nuphar luteum, yellow Pond-lily, has styptic leaves. Its flowers have a peculiar smell, said to resemble brandy.

Nymphaea alba, white Water-lily. Its rhizomes have been used for dyeing and tanning. *Nymphaea Lotus*, Lotus Water-lily, is supposed to be the Shushan and Shushannah of the Old Testament (Note, p. 237).

Victoria regia (Fig. 285, p. 107), Victoria Water-lily, is found in the still waters of the whole of the warm parts of Eastern South America.* Its flowers, when expanded, are a foot and more in diameter. Its leaves vary from four to six or eight feet in diameter. Their under surface is of a red colour, and exhibits large prominent ribs. The edges of the leaves are finally turned upwards. The seeds are used for food. They are roasted with Indian corn, and hence the plant is called Water-maize—(See also p. 644).

1137. Nat. Ord. 11.—NELUMBIACEÆ, the Water-Bean order (Fig. 1194†, p. 561).—Aquatic herbs resembling Water-lilies, but differing in their large exalbuminous embryo, and their remarkably enlarged tabular torus, in the hollow of which the nuts are half buried, and finally become loose (Fig. 1367). Found in quiet waters of temperate and tropical regions in the southern hemisphere; very frequent in the East Indies. There are at least 3 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Nelumbium*.

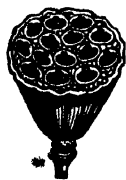


Fig. 1367.

1138. The plants of the order are remarkable for their large, showy flowers and leaves. Their nuts are eatable.

Nelumbium luteum, yellow Water-bean, has starchy rhizomes, with tubers, like those of the sweet potato, which are used for food. *N. speciosum*, sacred Water-bean, is the Egyptian Lotus represented on Egyptian and Indian monuments. Its fruit, which is edible, is supposed to have constituted the Pythagorean Bean. Its rhizome is used for food in China. The threads from the spiral vessels of its leaf and flower-stalks are used for wicks.

1139. Nat. Ord. 12.—SARRACENIACEÆ, the Water-Pitcher order.—Perennial herbs growing in bogs, with hollow pitcher-shaped or

Fig. 1367. The enlarged honeycombed torus of *Nelumbium* with the nuts immersed in it.

* In Hooker's illustrations of the Royal Water-lily, it is stated, that it was first noticed by Haenke fifty years ago, in the Rio Mamore, a tributary of the Amazon, then by Bonpland in 1820 near Corrientes, who called it a *Nymphaea*; then by D'Orbigny in 1828; by Poppig in 1832 on the Amazon, who called it *Euryale Amazonica*; by Schomburgk on 1st January 1837, in the Berbice river, and in 1843 in the Essequibo; in 1845 by Mr. Bridges in Bolivia; and by Weddell in the river Barbado; next by Dr. W. H. Campbell in the Essequibo; and finally, in 1849, by Mr. Spruce near Santarem, and at other places. The *Victoria* has various native names, such as *Mururá*, *Irupé* or *Yrupé*, *Moringua*, and *Dachocho*. It is plentifully distributed throughout the whole Amazon district. Some leaves are mentioned by Spruce as being twelve feet in diameter. The deeper the water in which the *Victoria* grows, the larger the leaves. Spruce says that the leaves, when turned up at the margins, look, when floating, like large tea-trays, with here and there a bouquet protruding between them. The native name of *Yrupé* has reference to this; it means water-platter,—from *y* water, and *rupé* a dish.—See description of *Victoria* in *Kew Journal*, June 1810, p. 176. See also Lawson on Water-lilies.

† In this figure the flowers ought to have been represented as supported on long stalks above the water. The large tabular torus is seen in the centre.

trumpet-shaped leaves (Fig. 332, p. 141). Calyx usually consists of five persistent sepals. Petals five or 0. Stamens ∞ . Style often expanding at its summit into a large peltate plate, with a stigma beneath each of its five angles. Fruit, a 2-5-celled capsule with axile placentas, bearing numerous albuminous seeds. The pitchers formed by the petioles of the leaves contain a peculiar secretion, the use of which is unknown. *Sarracenia* receives the name of Side-saddle flower, in allusion to its tubular leaves. The plants are found abundantly in North America. *Heliampora nutans* occurs in Guiana. There are 7 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Sarracenia*, *Heliampora*.

1140. Nat. Ord. 13.—PAPAVERACEÆ, the Poppy order (Figs. 1368

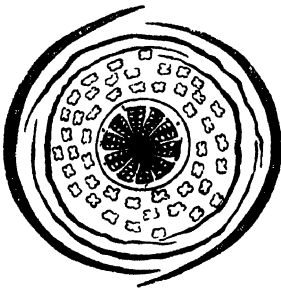


Fig 1368



Fig 1369

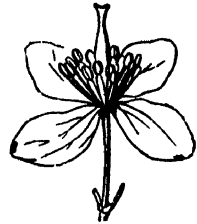


Fig 1370



Fig 1371



Fig 1372.



Fig 1373



Fig. 1374.

to 1374).—Herbs with milky or coloured juice, and alternate exsti-

Figures 1368 to 1374 illustrate the natural order Papaveraceæ

Fig. 1368. Diagram showing two sepals, four crumpled petals, numerous stamens, pistil with parietal placentas. Fig. 1369. Dissepalous caducous calyx. Fig. 1370. Tetrapetalous corolla, and numerous stamens inserted below a pod-like pistil. Fig. 1371. Siliquesform fruit of Celandine. Fig. 1372. Pistil of Poppy with sessile stigma, *sti*. Fig. 1373. Capsular fruit of Poppy opening by pores below the stigma. Fig. 1374. Seed with embryo, and albumen.

pulate leaves. Sepals two, rarely three, caducous (Fig. 1369). Petals four (Fig. 1370), rarely six, usually crumpled in æstivation. Stamens 8-24 or more (Fig. 1370). Fruit unilocular, siliqueform (pod-like), with 2-5 parietal placentas (Fig. 1371), or capsular with numerous placentas (Figs. 1372 and 1373). Seeds numerous, with embryo in the midst of fleshy and oily albumen (Fig. 1374). The order is chiefly confined to Europe. There are 130 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Bocconia*, *Sanguinaria*, *Chelidonium*, *Argemone*, *Meconopsis*, *Papaver*, *Glaucium*, *Eschscholtzia*, *Platystemon*.

1141. Narcotic properties characterise the order. Some of the plants yield an acrid juice.

Argemone Mexicana, Mexican or Gamboge Thistle, has narcotico-acrid seeds. An aperient oil is procured from them.

Bocconia frutescens, Parrot-weed or Tree-celandine, yields an acrid yellow juice.

Chelidonium majus, Celandine (Fig. 809, p. 274), has an orange juice which exhibits the movements of *Cyclosis* (page 423).

Eschscholtzia has a peculiar enlargement of the upper part of the peduncle, from which the calyx separates like the extinguisher of a candle.

Papaver somniferum, Opium Poppy. The unripe capsules yield a milky juice, which, when concrete, constitutes opium.* The active principle of opium is the alkaloid called *Morphia*, which is combined with meconic acid. Turkey opium is that chiefly used in Britain. The seeds of the opium poppy yield a bland oil, which is extensively used on the Continent. Poppy oil-cake has also been used for cattle.

Sanguinaria canadensis, Blood-root or Puccoon, yields a red juice. The plant is emetic and purgative. It contains a basic matter *Sanguinarine*.



Fig. 1375.

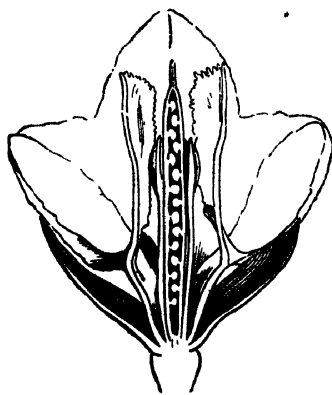


Fig. 1378.

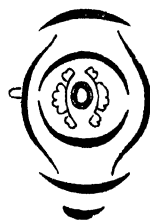


Fig. 1376.



Fig. 1377.

1142. Nat. Ord. 14.—FUMARIACEÆ, the Fumitory order (Figs. 1375 to 1378).—Herbs with brittle stems, a watery juice, alternate,

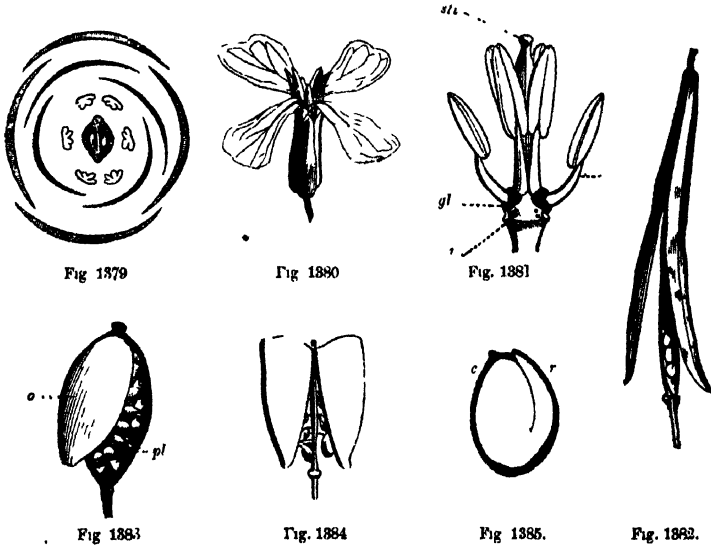
Figures 1375 to 1378 illustrate the natural order Fumariaceæ.

Fig. 1375. Raceme of *Fumaria officinalis*, with irregular petals, one of which is gibbous at the

* See account of preparation of opium at Patna, in Hook. *Journal of Botany* for August 1849, p. 281.

cut, exstipulate leaves, and irregular unsymmetrical flowers (Fig. 1375). Sepals two, deciduous. Petals four, cruciate, irregular, one or two of them often saccate or spurred, and the two inner frequently cohering at the apex, so as to include the anthers and stigma. Stamens either four and free, or six and diadelphous, each bundle being opposite the outer petals, and the central anther being two-celled, while the two outer are one-celled (Fig. 1376). Fruit, a round and indehiscent nut (Fig. 1377), or a one-celled and two-valved pod (Fig. 1378). Seeds crested, with a minute embryo and fleshy albumen. Fumeworts occur chiefly in temperate regions of the northern hemisphere. Some of them, as *Diclytra spectabilis*, are very showy. They possess slight bitterness and acidity. There are 110 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Hypecoum*, *Diclytra*, *Corydalis*, *Fumaria*, *Platycapnos*.

1143. Nat. Ord. 15.—CRUCIFERÆ or BRASSICACEÆ, the Cruciferous or Cabbage order (Figs. 1379 to 1388).—Herbaceous plants with



alternate, exstipulate leaves, racemose or corymbose flowers (Fig. 374, p. 157), usually yellow or white, and an ebracteated inflorescence.

base. Fig. 1376. Diagram of flower of Fumitory, showing single bract below, two sepals, two outer and two inner petals, six stamens in two bundles, two of the stamens perfect and four imperfect, one-celled pistil with a single seed.—(See note, p. 190). Fig. 1377. Fruit of Fumitory, an schens. Fig. 1378. Section of *Hypecoum*, showing a pod-like fruit with numerous seeds.—(See p. 261).

Figures 1379 to 1388 illustrate the natural order Cruciferæ.

Fig. 1379. Diagram of a Cruciferous flower, with four imbricate sepals, four petals, six stamens, tetradynamous, the two short ones solitary, and opposite the lateral sepals, the four

Sepals four, deciduous (Fig. 1380)*. Petals four, cruciate (Fig. 1380). Stamens tetradynamous (Fig. 1381). Fruit, a siliqua (Fig. 1382),



Fig. 1383.



Fig. 1386.



Fig. 1387.

or silicula (Figs. 1383, 1384). Seeds exalbuminous (Fig. 1385); embryo with the radicle folded on the cotyledons (Figs. 1386-88). The want of symmetry in the flower is explained at page 190. The plants are generally distributed, but abound in cold and temperate regions, especially in Europe. There are about 1700 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Matthiola*, *Cheiranthus*, *Nasturtium*, *Barbarea*, *Arabis*, *Cardamine*, *Dentaria*, *Lunaria*, *Alyssum*, *Draba*, *Cochlearia*, *Thlaspi*, *Teesdalia*, *Iberis*, *Cakile*, *Hesperis*, *Sisymbrium*, *Erysimum*, *Camelina*, *Capsella*, *Lepidium*, *Isatis*, *Brassica*, *Sinapis*, *Crambe*, *Raphanus*, *Bunias*, *Senebiera*, *Subularia*, *Schizopetalon*.

1144. The order has been divided into Sub-orders and Tribes, according to the nature of the fruit and of the embryo. The following are the Sub-orders founded on the nature of the fruit:—1. *Siliquosæ*,—a siliqua, opening by valves (Fig. 1382, Fig. 707, p. 248, and Fig. 825, p. 278). 2. *Siliculosæ*, *Latiseptæ*,—a silicula, opening with two flat or convex valves, replum in the broadest diameter (Fig. 1383, Fig. 827, p. 278). 3. *Siliculosæ*, *Angustiseptæ*,—a silicula with folded or keeled dehiscent valves, replum in narrow diameter (Fig. 1384, Fig. 828, p. 278). 4. *Nucumentacæ*,—an indehiscent silicula, often one-celled, having no replum. 5. *Septulatæ*,—valves with transverse phragmata on their inside. 6. *Lomentacæ*,—a pod dividing transversely into single-seeded portions, the beak sometimes containing one or two seeds, while the true pod is abortive (Fig. 829, p. 278). Divisions of these sub-orders are formed according to the nature of the embryo:—1. *Pleurorhizæ* (Fig. 1386),—cotyledons accumbent $\alpha =$. 2. *Notorhizæ* (Fig. 1387),—

long in pairs opposite the anterior and posterior sepals, siliquose fruit, with two divisions to the right and left of the axis, separated by a replum, seeds attached by a funiculus to each side of the placentas. The floral symmetry is quaternary, but the stamens become six by collateral chorisis of two of them, and the fruit bicarpellary by abortion of two of the carpels. Fig. 1380. Cruciferous flower of *Brassica Eruca*. Fig. 1381. Tetradynamous stamens of Wallflower, α , receptacle, r , gland at base of stamens, g , stigma, st . Fig. 1382. Siliqua of Wallflower, opening by two valves from below upwards, seeds in a single row, attached to either side of the siliqua. Fig. 1383. Silicula of *Draba*, (*Latiseptæ*) opening by two flat valves. Fig. 1384. Silicula of *Capsella* (*Angustiseptæ*) opening by two folded boat-shaped valves. Fig. 1385. Exalbuminous seed of Wallflower. Fig. 1386. Accumbent cotyledons, and lateral radicle of Wallflower (*Pleurorhizæ*). Fig. 1387. Incumbent cotyledons and dorsal radicle of *Hesperis* (*Notorhizæ*). Fig. 1388. Twice folded or coiled up cotyledons and dorsal radicle of *Bunias* (*Spirolobæ*).

Additional figures illustrating the Cruciferous order. Figs. 98 and 99, p. 43; Fig. 409, p. 173; Fig. 490, p. 194; Fig. 513, p. 202; Fig. 594, p. 220; Fig. 708, p. 248; Fig. 890, p. 297.

cotyledons incumbent $o \parallel$. 3. Orthoplocææ,—cotyledons conduplicate $\left. \begin{array}{l} o \\ \parallel \end{array} \right\}$. 4. Spirolobææ (Fig. 1388),—cotyledons twice folded $o \parallel \parallel$. 5. Diplecolobææ,—cotyledons thrice folded $o \parallel \parallel \parallel$.—(See fuller explanation of some of these terms, p. 304.)

1145. Crucifers are antiscorbutic and pungent, and occasionally acrid in their properties. None of them are poisonous. The order contains many of the culinary vegetables in constant use. The plants have much nitrogen and sulphur in their composition. Many garden flowers, as Wallflower, Stock, Rocket, and Honesty, belong to this order.

Anastatica hierochuntina, the Rose of Jericho, is found in the deserts of Syria and Egypt. Its annual stems, when withered and dried, coil up like a ball, but expand on the application of moisture.

Brassica campestris is the origin of the Swedish Turnip. The seeds of *B. chinensis* furnish oil at Shanghai. *B. Napus*, Rape or Coleseed, yields a bland fixed oil; oil-cake is prepared from its seeds. *B. oleracea*, is the type whence the varieties of Cabbage, Brocoli, Cauliflower, and Greens are derived by cultivation. *B. Rapa*, the common Turnip.

Cochlearia officinalis, common Scurvy-Grass, found both on the sea shore and high on the mountains. *C. Armoracia* (*Armoracia rusticana*) the Horse-radish.

Crambe maritima, the Sea-kale. Its seeds yield a kind of oil-cake called Crambolina. *Isatis tinctoria*, Woad, yields a blue dye. *Isatis indigotica*, is used as Indigo in China.

Lepidium sativum, common garden Cress, has pungent qualities.

Nasturtium officinale, common water Cress, supplies an excellent salad.

Raphanus sativus, the Radish (Fig. 594, p. 220).

Sinapis alba, white Mustard. The seeds are whitish, and contain a fixed oil, with a principle called Sinapin, which gives rise to the formation of an acrid matter. *Sinapis nigra* (*Brassica nigra*), black Mustard. The seeds are dark coloured, and supply the proper table mustard. They contain a fixed oil, besides Myronic acid and Myrosine. The two latter, on the addition of water, combine and form a pungent volatile oil, on which the physiological action of mustard depends.

1146. Nat. Ord. 16.—CAPPARIDACEÆ, the Caper order (Figs. 419, 420, p. 176).—Herbs, shrubs, or trees with alternate leaves and tetramerous flowers; allied to Crucifers, but distinguished by the stamens being often indefinite, and if six, scarcely ever tetradynamous, by the want of a replum in the one-celled ovary, which is often supported on a gynophore, and by their reniform seeds. Capparids are chiefly tropical plants. There are about 350 species. There are two sub-orders:—1. Cleomææ, fruit capsular. 2. Cappareææ, fruit berried. *III. Gen.*—Gynandropsis, Cleome, Physostemon, Polanisia, Cadaba, Capparid, Cratæva.

1147. In their properties, Capparids resemble Crucifers. They have pungent, stimulant, and antiscorbutic qualities.

Capparis spinosa (Fig. 419, p. 176) in the southern parts of Europe, *C. rupestris* in Greece, *C. Fontanesii* in Barbary, and *C. ægyptiaca* in Egypt, supply Capers, which are the flower-buds of the plants. The last named species is supposed to be the Hyssop (*Æobh* and *Hyssopus*) of Scripture.

Cleome and Polanisia furnish very pungent species, which are sometimes used like mustard.

Cratœva gynandra, Garlick Pear, has a vesicant root.
Polanisia icosandra has been used as a vermifuge.

1148. Nat. Ord. 17.—RESEDACEÆ, the Mignonette order (Figs. 1389 to 1392).—Herbaceous plants, rarely shrubs, with alternate leaves having minute glands at their base, and racemose or spiked inflorescence (Fig. 370, p. 155). Sepals 4-7, sometimes united. Petals 2-7, lacerated and unequal, with broad or thickened claws (Figs. 1389, 1390). Stamens definite, inserted on a fleshy disk. Fruit



Fig. 1389.



Fig. 1390.



Fig. 1391.



Fig. 1392.

usually one-celled, opening early at the apex, with 3-6 parietal placentas (Figs. 1391, 1392); sometimes it appears as carpellary leaves surrounding a central placenta. Seeds several, reniform, or curved and exalbuminous; embryo arcuate. The plants of the order chiefly inhabit Europe and the adjoining parts of Asia and Africa. There are 41 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Reseda*, *Astrocarpus*.

1149. The properties of the order are little known. Some of the species display slight acidity.

Reseda Luteola, Weld, yields a yellow dye. *Reseda odorata*, Mignonette, is prized for the fragrance of its flowers. It is rendered shrubby by pinching off the flower-buds.

1150. Nat. Ord. 18.—FLACOURTIACEÆ or BIXACEÆ, the Arnatto order.—Shrubs or small trees, with alternate exstipulate leaves, often marked with round transparent dots. Sepals and petals 4-7, the latter sometimes 0. Stamens, same number as petals or a multiple of them. Ovules attached to parietal placentas. Fruit one-celled, either fleshy and indehiscent, or a 4-5-valved capsule containing pulp, in which numerous albuminous seeds are enveloped. The plants are almost entirely natives of the hottest parts of the East and West Indies and of Africa. There are 90 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Bixa*, *Oncoba*, *Ludia*, *Laetia*, *Prockia*, *Azara*, *Flacourtia*, *Erythrospermum*.

1151. Some of the plants of the order are bitter and astringent, others yield edible fruits.

Bixa Orellana has angular seeds covered with an orange-red pulp, which constitutes Arnatto, and is used for red dye, and for staining cheese, as well as in the manufacture of Chocolate.

Flacourtia sapida and *sepiaria* furnish sub-acid fruits.

Figures 1389 to 1392 illustrate the natural order Resedaceæ.

Figs 1389 and 1390. Lacerated petals of *Reseda*, with their scale-like broad claws. Fig. 1391. Transverse section of the ovary of *Reseda*, showing three parietal placentas with several ovules. Fig. 1392. Fruit of *Reseda*, open at the apex, so that the seeds become seminude or exposed.

1152. Nat. Ord. 19.—CISTACEÆ, the Rock-rose order (Figs. 1393 and 1394).—Shrubs or herbs, often viscid, with simple, entire leaves, and showy flowers. Sepals 3-5, persistent, unequal, the three inner with twisted aestivation. Petals five, very rarely three, caducous, often crumpled, twisted in an opposite direction from the sepals. Stamens definite or ∞ , distinct. Fruit a one-celled capsule with parietal placentas, or imperfectly 3-5-celled, by dissepiments arising from the

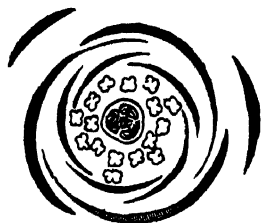


Fig. 1393.

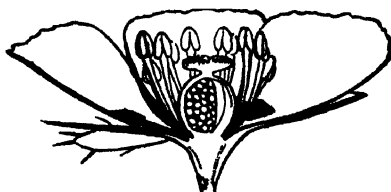


Fig. 1394.

middle of the valves, and bearing placentas at or near the axis (dehiscence being loculicidal). Seeds usually orthotropal, with mealy albumen; embryo curved or spiral. The plants are found chiefly in the south of Europe and north of Africa. There are about 190 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Fumana*, *Cistus*, *Helianthemum*, *Lechea*, *Hudsonia*.

1153. The Rock-roses are generally resinous and balsamic.

Cistus creticus (Fig. 529, p. 205), and other species (*C. ladaniferus*, *C. ledon*), furnish the resinous substance called Ladanum, which is used as a stimulant and emmenagogue. Some suppose that this is the myrrh mentioned in Genesis under the Hebrew name of Lot.

Cochlospermum Gossypium yields the gum Kuteera, which resembles tragacanth in its properties.

Helianthemum vulgare, and its varieties, show a remarkable irritability in the stamens when touched (page 557).

1154. Nat. Ord. 20.—VIOLACEÆ, the Violet order (Figs. 1395 to 1399).—Herbs or shrubby plants, with usually alternate, stipulate leaves (Fig. 321, p. 137), having an involute vernation, and flowers often irregular (Fig. 320, p. 137, and Fig. 398, p. 168). Sepals five, persistent, attached above their base. Petals five, often unequal, one being spurred (Fig. 1396). Stamens five, with short and broad filaments, which are often elongated beyond the introrse anther lobes; in the irregular flowers two of the stamens have appendages; anthers sometimes united (Fig. 1397, Fig. 650, p. 234). Style declinate, with an oblique hooded stigma (Fig. 1397, Fig. 750, p. 256). Fruit

Figures 1393 and 1394 illustrate the natural order Cistaceæ.

Fig. 1393. Diagram of the flower of *Helianthemum*, showing two outer sepals, three inner contorted, five petals twisted in an opposite direction to the sepals, numerous stamens, a one-celled pistil with three parietal placentas. Fig. 1394. Section of flower of *Helianthemum*, showing sepals, petals, indefinite stamens, ovary with numerous ovules, short style and peltate stigma.

a three-valved capsule (Fig. 1398), with parietal placentas in the middle of the valves (loculicidal). Seeds definite or ∞ , albuminous,

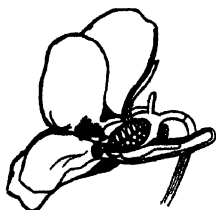


Fig. 1396.



Fig. 1397.



Fig. 1395.



Fig. 1398.

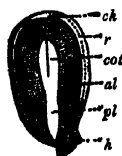


Fig. 1399.

anatropal, with a straight embryo (Fig. 1399). There are two suborders:—1. *Violeæ*, with irregular flowers, occurring chiefly in Europe, Siberia, and America; 2. *Alsodeæ*, with regular flowers, principally found in South America and Africa.* There are upwards of 300 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Viola*, *Ionidium*, *Amphirrhox*, *Alsodeia*.

1155. The Violet-worts are generally emetic, and some have purgative properties. In the roots of many of them a principle called *Violin*, similar to *Emetin*, has been found.

Ionidium parviflorum, and other species, are called *Cuchunchully*, and are used in Peru and in other parts of America as cathartics and emetics. *Ionidium Itubu*, called *Poaya*, yields a root which is employed like *Ipecacuan*.

Viola canina, *Dog Violet*, has been prescribed in skin diseases. *Viola odorata*, *March Violet*, is famed for its fragrance. It is the *Ion* of the Greeks. Its petals yield a blue colour, used as a test for acids and alkalis, and they possess laxative qualities. The root of the plant is emetic and purgative. *Viola tricolor* is the origin of all the varieties of *Pansy* or *Heartsease*.

1156. *Nat. Ord. 21.*—*DROSERACEÆ*, the *Sun-dew* order (Figs. 1400, 1401).—Herbaceous marsh-plants, often covered with glandular hairs

Figures 1395 to 1399 illustrate the natural order *Violaceæ*.

Fig. 1395. Diagram of the flower of the *Pansy*, having five sepals, five petals, five stamens with appendages, a three-valved fruit with parietal placentas. Fig. 1396. Section of the flower of a *Violet*, showing the spurred petal, with a staminal appendage within it, and the ovary with numerous ovules. Fig. 1397. Five stamens of a *Violet* united by their anthers, two of them with long filiform appendages; obliquely hooded stigma in the centre. Fig. 1398. Fruit of the *Pansy* opening in a loculicidal manner by three valves. Seeds numerous in the middle of the valves. Fig. 1399. Anatropal seed of the *Pansy* cut vertically, showing the straight embryo, *pe*, with the cotyledons, *cot*, in the midst of albumen, *al*. The hilum is marked *h*, the chalasa, *ch*, and the raphe, *r*.

* Some add *Sauvagesiæ*, which have regular flowers, with no apicular staminal appendages, five hypogynous scales, and septical fruit.

(Fig. 1400); they have alternate leaves, with fringes at their base, and a circinate vernation. Sepals five, persistent. Petals five, im-



Fig. 1400.



Fig. 1401.

bricate. Stamens as many as petals, or two or three times as many, distinct, withering. Styles 3-5, sometimes united. Fruit a one-celled, 3-5-valved capsule, with loculicidal dehiscence. Seeds numerous; embryo small, in the base of fleshy albumen. The plants are found in marshy grounds in various parts of the world. There are 90 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Drosera*, *Aldrovanda*, *Drosophyllum*, *Dionæa*.

1157. The Sundews have acid and slightly acrid properties.

Aldrovanda vesiculosa is so called on account of its vesicle-like leaves, which are whorled and cellular.

Dionæa muscipula, Venus's Fly-trap (Fig. 1401), found in the North American marshes, has hairs on its leaves, which, when touched, cause the closure of the two halves of the blade (p. 497).

Drosera, Sundew. The species are remarkable for their glandular hairs, which are covered with drops of fluid in sunshine (Fig. 1400). Hence the name of *Ros Solis*, and of the Italian liqueur *Rosoli*, in the preparation of which a species of Sundew is employed. The hairs in some of the *Droseras* (*D. lunata*) are said to close upon insects which light on them. *Drosera communis* is said to be poisonous to sheep.

1158. Nat. Ord. 22.—POLYGALACEÆ, the Milkwort order (Figs. 1402 and 1403).—Herbs or shrubs with simple exstipulate leaves (Fig. 1402). Pedicels have three bracts, and the flowers are irregular, unsymmetrical, and falsely papilionaceous. Sepals five, irregular, odd one posterior, two inner ones (wings) usually petaloid. Petals more or less united, usually three, of which one (the keel) is anterior, larger, and sometimes crested. Stamens 6-8, usually combined into a tube which is split on the upper side; anthers one-celled, opening by

Figures 1400 and 1401 illustrate the natural order Droseraceæ.

Fig. 1400. Leaf of *Drosera rotundifolia*, or round-leaved Sundew, covered with glandular hairs. Fig. 1401. Leaves of *Dionæa muscipula*, called Venus's Fly-trap, showing the expanded blade of the leaf, *a*, with three irritable hairs on each division of the lamina. These hairs, when touched cause the closure of the two halves of the lamina or blade of the leaf.

pores. Ovary usually two celled, with a single pendulous, anatropal ovule in each cell; style curved. Capsule flattened with albuminous, carunculate seeds, containing a straight embryo. The order is considered by St. Hiltaire and others as allied to Sapindaceæ, and some authors place it near Leguminosæ, from which it differs in its hypogynous stamens, and in the odd sepal being superior and the odd petal inferior. The plants are scattered over various quarters of the globe. There are about 500 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Salomonina*, *Polygala*, *Mundia*, *Securidaca*.



Fig. 1402.



Fig. 1403.

1159. The Milkworts are generally bitter and acrid, and their roots yield a milky juice.

Polygala Senega, Snake-root, is a North American species, the root of which is used as an emetic, cathartic, and sialagogue. It contains an acrid principle called Polygaline or Senegine. Many other species of *Polygala* have similar qualities, and are reputed to be antidotes to the bites of snakes.

1160. Nat. Ord. 23.—KRAMERIACEÆ, the Rhatany order.—The genus *Krameria* is the only one in this order which differs from *Polygalaceæ* in the want of the falsely papilionaceous flowers, in its simple one-celled ovary, and in the absence of albumen.

Krameria triandra, which yields the Rhatany-root, is a native of South America. The root is very astringent. It yields a blood-red-infusion, which has been used to adulterate port wine. It is prescribed medicinally as an astringent in hemorrhage and chronic mucous discharges. It is also mixed with charcoal in tooth-powder.

1161. Nat. Ord. 24.—TREMADRACEÆ, the Porewort order.—The plants of this order are slender, heath-like shrubs, with hairs usually glandular. They are allied to *Polygalaceæ*, and differ in their regular symmetrical flowers, valvate calyx, and hooked appendages at the apex of their seeds. They are found in New Holland. There are 16 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Tetratheca*, *Tremandra*, *Platytheca*.

1162. Nat. Ord. 25.—TAMARICACEÆ, the Tamarisk order (Figs. 1404-5).—Shrubs or herbs usually growing by the sea-side, with entire, scale-like leaves, and spiked or racemose flowers (Fig. 1404). Calyx 4-5-parted, persistent. Petals 4-5, withering, imbricate. Stamens 4-5, or twice that number, free or united; anthers introrse, opening longitudinally. Styles three. Fruit, a three-valved, one-

Figures 1402 and 1403 illustrate the natural order *Polygalaceæ*.

Fig. 1402. *Polygala vulgaris*, common Milkwort, with its simple exstipulate leaves, irregular flowers, and crested keel. Fig. 1403. Diagram of the flower of *Polygala*, with three bracts, five unequal sepals, two interior large and petaloid, five (usually only three) unequal petals, eight stamens diadelphous, and a two-celled ovary. The pollen of *Polygala* is represented in Figs. 660, 661, p. 236.

celled capsule, with three basal or parietal placentas, bearing numerous anatropal, comose, exalbuminous seeds. Embryo straight. The species



Fig. 1404



Fig. 1405

abound in the basin of the Mediterranean, and are confined to the northern hemisphere of the Old World. The known species amount to 43. *Ill. Gen.*—*Tamarix*, *Myricaria*, *Trichaurus*.

1163. Tamarisks have an astringent, and slightly bitter and tonic bark. Those growing close to the sea abound in salts of soda.

Myricaria germanica is a common ornamental garden shrub.

Tamarix africana and *T. gallica* (Fig. 1404), when burned, yield much sulphate of soda. The latter is said to be one of the plants which yield manna. *Tamarix mannifera* produces a kind of manna (called Mount Sinai manna), which seems to be a secretion from a species of *Coccus* inhabiting the tree. Other species of *Tamarix* are attacked by gall-producing insects, and the galls are used as astringents. *Tamarix orientalis* (Fig. 1405) is said to be the Hebrew Eshel, which is translated in some parts of the Bible, grove, and tree.—(See Gen. *xxi.* 33; 1 Sam. *xxii.* 6, and *xxxii.* 18).

1164. Nat. Ord. 26.—FRANKENIACEÆ, the Frankenia order.—Herbs or undershrubs, with opposite exstipulate leaves, and flowers embosomed in leaves. They are allied to *Caryophyllaceæ*, and differ in their parietal placentation, and straight embryo. They have a tubular furrowed calyx, and long-clawed petals with appendicular scales. They occur chiefly in the north of Africa and south of Europe. Their properties are mucilaginous. There are 24 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Frankenia*, *Beatsonia*, *Anisadenia*.

1165. Nat. Ord. 27.—ELATINACEÆ, the Water-pepper order.—

Figures 1404 and 1405 illustrate the natural order Tamaricaceæ.

Fig. 1404. *Tamarix gallica*, supposed by some to be one of the plants which supplied the manna mentioned in Scripture, Exod. *xvi.* 15, &c. Fig. 1405. *Tamarix orientalis*, the Tamarisk-tree of the East, supposed to be the Eshel of the Hebrews

Small annuals growing in marshes, with opposite leaves, interpetiolar membranaceous stipules, and minute axillary flowers. Sepals and petals 3-5. Stamens as many, or twice as many as the petals, distinct. Fruit a 3-5-celled septicial capsule. Seeds numerous; embryo straight. The order is perhaps allied to Rutaceæ, in which alliance it is placed by Lindley. The plants are found in all quarters of the globe. Their properties are said to be acrid; hence the English name of the order. There are 22 known species. *III. Gen.*—Elatine, Bergia, Anatropa.

1166. Nat. Ord. 28.—CARYOPHYLLACEÆ, the Clovewort order (Figs. 1406 to 1412).—Herbaceous plants with stems tumid at the



Fig. 1406.

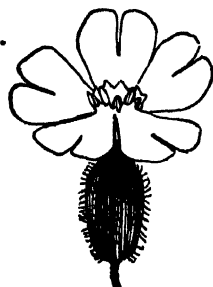


Fig. 1407



Fig. 1408

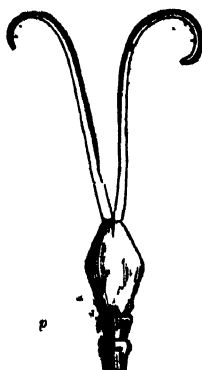


Fig. 1409.



Fig. 1411.



Fig. 1412.

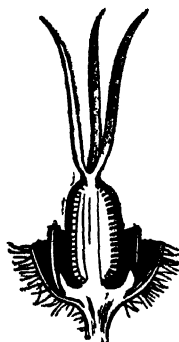


Fig. 1410.

articulations, entire, opposite leaves, and cymose inflorescence (Fig. 397, p. 168). Sepals 4-5, distinct or united (Fig. 1407, Fig. 485, p. 196). Petals 4-5, unguiculate (Fig. 1408, Fig. 459, p. 189), sometimes 0.

Figures 1406 to 1412 illustrate the natural order Caryophyllaceæ.

Fig. 1406 Diagram of the flower of *Dianthus*, belonging to the sub-order *Sileneæ*, showing five imbricated sepals which are united below, five imbricated and contorted petals, ten stamens in two rows, ovary at first with partitions but finally one-celled with a free central placenta. Fig. 1407. Flower of *Lychnis* with gamosepalous calyx, five unguiculate or bifid petals having scales at the

Stamens as many, or twice as many as the petals, sometimes fewer. Ovary often supported on a gynophore (Fig. 1409), usually one celled, with a free central placenta (Fig. 1410). Styles 2-5, papillose on their inner surface (Figs. 1409 and 1410). Fruit a capsule opening by 2-5 valves, or by teeth at the apex, which are twice as many as the stigmas (Fig. 1411). Seeds usually indefinite; embryo curved round mealy albumen (Fig. 1412). There are three Sub-orders:—1. *Sileneæ*, the Pink tribe, with united sepals opposite the stamens when the latter are of the same number. 2. *Alsineæ*, the Chickweed tribe, with distinct sepals, bearing the same relation to the stamens as in *Sileneæ*. 3. *Molluginæ*, the Carpetweed tribe, in which the petals are wanting, and the stamens are alternate with the sepals when of the same number. The plants are found principally in temperate and cold regions. There are about 1100 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Dianthus*, *Saponaria*, *Gypsophila*, *Silene*, *Lychnis*, *Cucubalus*, *Sagina*, *Buffonia*, *Alsine*, *Honckenya*, *Arenaria*, *Stellaria*, *Cerastium*, *Mollugo*.

1167. Cloveworts have scarcely any marked properties. Some say that the principle called Saponine, which is found in some of the plants, has poisonous qualities. Some of the plants have showy flowers.

Dianthus Caryophyllus, the Clove-pink, is the origin of all the cultivated varieties of Carnation. In the variety called *Picotee*, the petals are slightly serrated with a number of small dots or lines either on a white or a yellow ground. In the Carnation the petals are entire or striped only; there are no dots nor small lines, and no break in the colour of the stripe. Bizarres are Carnations with two or more colours on a white ground. Flakes are Carnations with only one colour.

Saponaria contains Saponine, which imparts to it saponaceous qualities. The same principle is found in species of *Silene*, *Lychnis*, and *Cucubalus*.

1168. Nat. Ord. 29.—VIVIANIACEÆ, the *Viviania* order.—Herbaceous or suffruticose plants, with opposite or whorled exstipulate leaves and regular flowers in corymbose cymes. They are characterised by a ten-ribbed valvate calyx, a marcescent corolla, ten free stamens, a three-celled loculicidal capsule, and albuminous seeds, with a curved embryo. They are found in South America, and are not remarkable for any useful properties. There are 15 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Cæsarea*, *Viviania*, *Linostigma*.

1169. Nat. Ord. 30.—MALVACEÆ, the Mallow order (Figs. 1413 to 1418).—Herbs, shrubs, or trees, with alternate, stipulate, palmately-divided leaves (Fig. 101, p. 44), often stellate hairs, and showy in-

throat. Fig. 1408. Unguiculate petal of Pink. Fig. 1409. Capsule of Pink composed of two carpels with two styles which are stigmatose along their inner surface; the ovary is stipitate or supported on a gynophore, p. Fig. 1410. Flower of *Lychnis* cut longitudinally, showing the capsule with its central placenta and numerous ovules. Three out of five styles are left. Fig. 1411. Fruit of *Lychnis* opening by ten teeth at its apex, and surrounded by the persistent calyx with its five segments. Fig. 1412. Seed of *Lychnis*, showing the embryo curved round mealy albumen.

For additional illustrations, see Fig. 404, p. 170; Fig. 723, p. 250; Figs. 892 and 894, p. 297.

volucrate flowers on axillary peduncles (Fig. 1414). Sepals five, rarely three or four, united at the base, valvate, often having an epicalyx. Petals of the same number as the sepals, twisted (Fig. 1413).

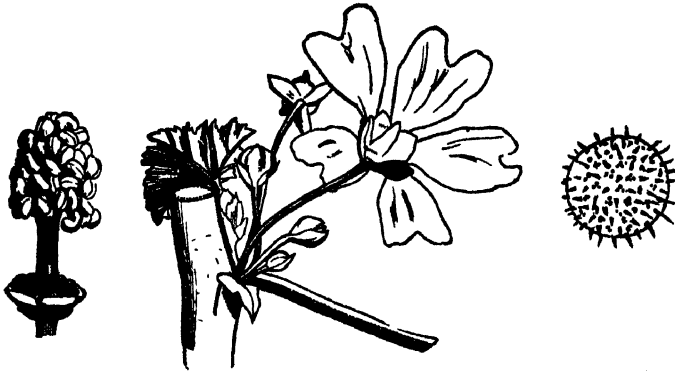


Fig. 1416.

Fig. 1414.

Fig. 1417.

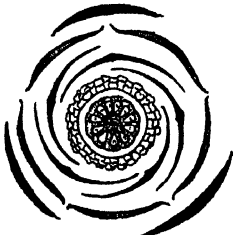


Fig. 1413.

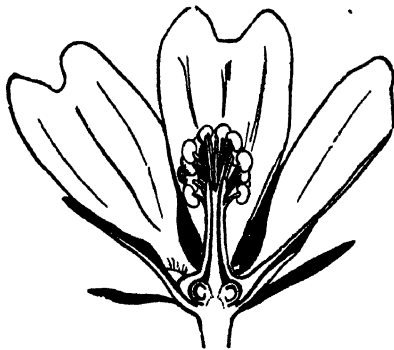


Fig. 1415.



Fig. 1418.

Stamens ∞ , monadelphous, united to the claws of the petals; anthers one-celled, reniform, introrse, opening transversely (Fig. 1416); pollen hispid (Fig. 1417). A many-celled ovary, with placentas in the

Figures 1413 to 1418 illustrate the natural order Malvaceae.

Fig. 1413. Diagram of flower of Mallow, showing three parts of epicalyx or involucre, five parts of the valvate calyx, five contorted petals, numerous monadelphous columnar stamens, ovary composed of numerous carpels united round a central axis. Fig. 1414. Cymose axillary cluster of flowers of *Malva sylvestris*. Fig. 1415. Vertical section of the flower of Mallow, showing calyx, corolla monadelphous stamens and the carpels. Fig. 1416. Monadelphous stamens, forming a columnar androecium; anthers one-celled, reniform, opening by a transverse slit. Fig. 1417. Pollen of Mallow, with rough points on the extjæne. Fig. 1418. Persistent calyx surrounding the fruit of the Mallow.

axis (Fig. 1418); or several ovaries, separate or separable when ripe; styles equal in number to the carpels, distinct or united. Fruit composed of several monospermal or polyspermal carpels, either combined or separate. Seeds with little albumen; embryo curved with folded cotyledons. The plants abound in tropical regions, and in the hotter parts of the temperate zone. There are 1000 known species. *III. Gen.*—Malope, Althæa, Lavatera, Malva, Sida, Abutilon, Urena, Pavonia, Thespesia, Abelmoschus, Hibiscus, Gossypium, Lagunea.

1170. The properties of the Mallowworts are mucilaginous and demulcent. They supply various kinds of fibres.

Abelmoschus esculentus furnishes a mucilaginous fruit used in soups, and called Ochro, Okra, or Gombo.

Abutilon esculentum. Its flowers are used in Brazil as a vegetable.

Althæa officinalis, Marsh Mallow, the Guimauve of the French, is used medicinally to supply mucilage. *Althæa rosea*, the Hollyhock, the Malache of Dioscorides, has similar properties. Its leaves furnish a blue dye like Indigo. In 1821, 280 acres of land in England were planted with it in order to furnish fibres.

Gossypium. Various species of this genus furnish cotton, which consists of the hairs attached to the seeds. These hairs are usually hollow cells, but occasionally * they become flattened.* There are probably four distinct species of plants furnishing the Cotton of commerce:—1. *Gossypium herbaceum* (Fig. 101, p. 44), the common Cotton plant of India, a variety of which supplies the Chinese or Nankin Cotton. 2. *G. arboreum*, the Tree-Cotton of India, with red flowers, and a fine silky cotton. 3. *G. barbadense*, Barbadoes Cotton, called in India Bourbon Cotton; this supplies the highly esteemed Sea Island Cotton, also the Georgian and New Orleans Cotton. 4. *G. peruvianum* of Cavanilles, or *G. acuminatum*, which supplies the Pernambuco or Brazil Cotton; it has black seeds adhering together into a kidney-shaped mass. The quality of Cotton is influenced much by the dryness and moisture of the climate. It does not thrive in a very moist atmosphere. In Sea-Island Cotton it is not found that the salts of soda exist in great quantity. It chiefly contains salts of potash. The value of Cotton in manufacture depends on the length or tenacity of its tissue or staple.† The import of Cotton into Great Britain in 1850, amounted to 928,248,232 pounds. The growth of the cotton manufacture in this country will be shown by the following statement of the weight of the raw material used in different years of the present century, viz.—

	Lbs.		Lbs.
1800	56,010,782	1835	868,702,968
1805	59,682,406	1840	592,488,000
1810	132,488,935	1845	721,979,958
1815	99,306,343	1846	442,759,886
1820	151,672,655	1847	474,707,615
1825	228,005,291	1848	718,020,161
1880	263,961,452	1849	775,469,008

The average weekly consumption of cotton in Great Britain in 1852, was estimated at 85,804 bales (average weight of each 380 lbs.), consisting of 5750 Upland, 22,002 New Orleans and Alabama, and 450 Sea Island (in all 28,202 American), 2404 Brazil, 1877 Egyptian, 3162 East Indian, and 159 West Indian, &c. The seeds of Cotton supply oil fit for lamps, and when bruised they

* Crum, in speaking of dyeing, says that in the case of cotton there is usually an absorption of the fluid, and then in the process a deposit of the metallic or solid colouring matter inside the tubes. In some cases in which the cotton was not dyed, he found it a flattened solid fibre, without any tube. This may depend on an abortive state of the seed combined with pressure.

† Boyle on the Culture and Commerce of Cotton in India and elsewhere.

are used for oil-cake. In Esther i. 6, the Hebrew word translated Green, is a Sanscrit word, *Karpas*, which is supposed to mean cotton. Cotton is noticed in Sanscrit writings 800 B.C. Cotton seems to be meant by the Latin word *Carbasus*. Royle suggests, that the curtain found by Layard at Nineveh, which fell to pieces when touched, was made of Cotton.

Hibiscus cannabinus. Its inner bark furnishes a kind of Sun-hemp in India. *Hibiscus mutabilis* has showy flowers which change colour, passing in the course of the day from a cream-coloured rose to a delicate pink or rich rose. *Hibiscus Rosasinensis*. Its petals are used by the Chinese to blacken their eye-brows.

Lavatera arborea, the Tree-Mallow, grows on rocks exposed to the influence of the sea, as on the Bass Rock and Ailsa Crag.

Malachra capitata. Its leaves are used in Panama as an anthelmintic.

Malva Alcea, has astringent petals which furnish a black dye. *Malva sylvestris*, the common Mallow, has been used as a demulcent.

Paritium tiliaceum is employed for the preparation of cordage.

Sida. Various species of this genus furnish fibres. *Sida Phyllanthos* and *Sida Pichinchensis* ascend on the mountain of Antisana and the volcano Rucu-Pichincha, to the elevation of 13,000 or 15,000 feet.

1171. Nat. Ord. 31.—STERCULIACEÆ, the Silk-cotton order.—Large trees or shrubs, with simple or compound leaves, and occasionally unisexual flowers, resembling the *Malvaceæ* in their general characters, particularly in their columnar stamens, but differing in their two-celled extrorse anthers. They are tropical plants. There are 130 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Adansonia*, *Eriodendron*, *Bombax*, *Durio*, *Ochroma*, *Cheirostemon*, *Helicteres*, *Heritiera*, *Sterculia*, *Delabechea*.

1172. The Sterculiads resemble the *Malvaceæ* in their properties.

Adansonia digitata (Fig. 176, p. 78), the Baobab tree, Monkey-bread or Ethiopian Sour-gourd, is one of the largest trees in the world, its trunk attaining a diameter of 30 feet. Its fruit yields an acid pulp which is mixed with water, and used as a drink. Its leaves, when dried, furnish the substance called Lalo, employed in Africa as an astringent. The tree yields useful fibres. The bark is febrifugal.

Bombax Ceiba, the Silk Cotton-tree, has a cottony matter surrounding its seeds, which is used for stuffing cushions and other domestic purposes. Such is also the case with *Bombax pentandrum*, the Cotton-tree of India. The hairs want the tenacity required for manufacture. Canoes are made from the trunk of *Bombax* in the West Indies.

Brachychiton is the Bottle-tree of New Holland.

Cheirostemon platanoides, *Arbol de las Manitas*, or the Hand-plant of Mexico (*Macpalxochiquahuilt* of the Mexicans), is so called from the peculiar appearance of its five curved anthers.

Chorisia speciosa, yields a Cotton called vegetable silk, used for stuffing cushions.

Durio zibethinus, the Durian, yields an edible fruit with a civet-like odour. At first the perfume is very disagreeable, but by degrees the fruit is highly relished.

Eriodendron Samauma summits all the trees in the Amazon forests, and is called by Spruce the monarch of the forest. It rarely puts forth a branch until it has overtopped all the trees around.

Helicteres, Screw-tree, so called on account of the screw-like appearance of its twisted foliicles.

Ochroma Lagopus is a West Indian tree, having a light cork-like wood, a tonic bark, and a woolly lining of its fruit.

Sterculia guttata and *villosa* furnish fibres which are made into ropes and cloth.

1173. Nat. Ord. 32.—BYTTNERIACEÆ, the Chocolate order (Fig.

1419).—Trees, shrubs, and undershrubs, with simple leaves, resembling the Sterculiaceæ and Malvaceæ, but differing from the former in their introrse anthers, slightly monadelphous and often partially sterile stamens; and from the latter in their usually definite not columnar stamens, two-celled anthers, and smooth pollen. The fruit is a capsule composed of a few carpels. They are chiefly tropical or sub-tropical plants. Upwards of 400 species have been recorded. *Ill. Gen.*—Thomasia, Lasio-petalum, Abroma, Byttneria, Theobroma, Guazuma, Hermannia, Pentapetes, Dombeya, Astræa, Pterospermum, Eriolæna.



Fig. 1419.

1174. In their properties Byttneriads resemble Malvaceæ.

Abroma angustum has a fibrous bark, which is used for cordage.

Guazuma ulmifolia yields a sweetish mucilaginous fruit.

Theobroma Cacao, the Cacao-tree (Fig. 1418), is a small tree which abounds in the forests of Demerary. From the seeds called Cacao-beans, the substances called Cocoa and Chocolate are prepared. The former consists of the roasted seeds or their outer coverings, reduced to powder, while the latter is prepared from the beans, with a mixture of Sugar, Vanilla, Cinnamon, and Arnotto. In 1852 the British importation of Cocoa was 6,268,525 lbs., of which 3,882,944 were for home consumption. The seeds contain a tonic principle called Theobromine, allied to Theine, and a fatty oil is expressed from them called the Butter of Cacao. From the pulp of the fruit a kind of spirit is distilled.

1175. Nat. Ord. 33.—TILIACEÆ, the Linden order (Fig. 357, p. 151, Fig. 929, p. 307).—Trees or shrubs with alternate leaves having deciduous stipules (Fig. 282, p. 123), floral envelopes tetramerous or pentamerous, calyx valvate, stamens ∞ , outer ones sometimes petaloid and abortive, anthers two-celled (Fig. 651, p. 234), a glandular disk, style one, fruit dry or pulpy with several cells, often by abortion one-celled, seeds anatropal and albuminous. They are chiefly tropical plants. In northern temperate regions some form timber-trees. There are upwards of 350 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—Sloanea, Luhea, Corchorus, Triumphetta, Tilia, Grewia, Aristotelia, Elæocarpus, Monocera, Friesia.

1176. The plants of the order possess mucilaginous qualities. Many of them yield timber, fibres, and edible fruits.

Aristotelia Maqui produces a succulent fruit, which is eaten, and is made into wine.

Corchorus capsularis yields the textile material called Jute, or Jute Hemp, used for manufacturing coarse canvas or Gunny, of which Rice-bags are made. *C. olitorius*, Jews' Mallow, is used as a pot-herb. The infusion of the leaves of *C. mompoxensis* is used as tea in Panama.

Grewia sepida. Its berries are acid, and are used for Sherbet in the East.

Tilia europæa, the Lime or Linden tree, has a fibrous endophloem, which furnishes the Bass or Bast employed in the manufacture of Russian mats, and used by gardeners in tying up plants. The wood is used for wainscoating and carving,

Figure 1419 illustrates the natural order Byttneriaceæ. *Theobroma Cacao*, the small tree which yields Cacao beans, whence cocoa and chocolate are made. The large capsular fruit is shown which contains pulp and seeds.

and for the manufacture of gunpowder-charcoal. An infusion of the flowers has been used as an antispasmodic and sedative. *T. americana* is called Basswood.

1177. Nat. Ord. 34.—DIPTEROCARPACEÆ or DIPTERACEÆ, the Sumatra-Camphor order.—Large trees with resinous juice, alternate, involute leaves, convolute stipules; long, wing-like, imbricate, unequal, calyx lobes; contorted petals; indefinite, distinct, or polyadelphous stamens, subulate anthers; coriaceous, one-celled fruit, surrounded by the calyx, the enlarged divisions of which form winged appendages; single, exalbuminous seed. Tropical Indian trees. There are nearly 50 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Dipterocarpus*, *Dryabalanops*, *Vateria*, *Shorea*.

1178. The plants of this order yield a resinous balsamic juice which assumes various forms.

Dipterocarpus. Various species yield a balsam called Gurjun or Wood-oil, which is used like Copaiva Balsam, and is also employed in painting.

Dryabalanops *Camphora* or *aromatica*, supplies the hard Camphor of Sumatra, which exists in a solid state in the interior of the wood, sometimes in pieces weighing 10 or 12 lbs. It also yields on incision a resinous oily fluid called the Liquid Camphor, or Camphor-oil of Borneo. The tree is from 100-180 feet high, and 7-10 feet in diameter at its base.

Shorea robusta. The wood is much used in India under the name of SâI. The plant also yields a balsamic resin called Dhoona or Dammer pitch, used for incense.

Vateria indica furnishes the Piney Resin or Piney Dammar of India, which is extensively used as a varnish, and for making candles.

1179. Nat. Ord. 35.—CHLÆNACEÆ, the Leptolæna order.—Trees or shrubs with alternate, feather-veined, entire leaves, convolute stipules, involucrate flowers, which have three imbricate sepals, five convolute petals, numerous stamens, often monadelphous, a three-celled ovary, a capsular fruit, and albuminous seeds. They are found in Madagascar. There are about 8 species, the properties of which are not known. *Ill. Gen.*—*Sarcolæna*, *Leptolæna*, *Schizolæna*, *Rhodolæna*.

1180. Nat. Ord. 36.—TERNSTRÖMIACEÆ, the Tea order (Figs.



Fig. 1420.



Fig. 1421.

1420, 1421).—Trees or shrubs with alternate coriaceous, usually exsti-

Figures 1420 and 1421 illustrate the natural order Ternstromiaceæ.

Fig. 1420. *Thea bohea*, or *Cantonensis*, the plant which yields Black and Green Tea at Canton. Fig. 1421. *Thea viridis*, the plant of the best Tea districts of China, which supplies the Black and Green Tea generally used in Britain.

pubescent, and entire leaves, showy and generally unsymmetrical flowers. Sepals 5-7, with imbricate aestivation. Petals 5, 6, or 9, often combined at the base. Stamens ∞ , distinct or united. Fruit a 2-7-celled capsule, usually with a central column. Seeds large, very few, with or without albumen. They are ornamental plants, found chiefly in Tropical America and in Eastern Asia. Those cultivated in Britain are principally from North America and China. There are about 140 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Ternströmia*, *Freziera*, *Laplacea*, *Kielmeyera*, *Stuartia*, *Gordonia*, *Camellia*, *Thea*.

1181. The plants of the order have stimulating and slightly narcotic properties.

Camellia japonica. Numerous varieties of this plant are cultivated, which are highly esteemed by florists. The plants require moderate protection in Britain.

From the seeds of *C. oleifera* an oil is expressed. *C. Sasanqua*, called *Sasanqua Tea*, has fragrant flowers, which are sometimes mixed with other kinds of Tea.

Freziera theoides, a shrub common on the volcano of Chiriqui, is used for Tea in Panama.

Thea is the genus which includes the various species and varieties of Tea. According to Fortune, there are two species of Tea, *Thea Bohea* (Fig. 1420), and *Thea viridis* (Fig. 1421), from each of which Black and Green Tea is manufactured. The latter species is that which supplies the Tea sent from China to Britain. The difference in the appearance and quality of Teas depends partly on the climate and species, but chiefly on the time of gathering, and the mode of manufacture. The young leaves, quickly dried and subjected to a particular kind of manipulation, supply the Green Tea, while the older leaves dried more slowly, and after undergoing a process of fermentation, constitute the Black Tea. In some instances Tea is dyed of a green colour by means of a mixture of Turmeric, Prussian Blue, and Gypsum.* The ordinary Black Teas of commerce are known by the names of Bohea, Congou, Souchong, and Pekoe; while the Green are Twankay, Hyson, Hyson Skin, Gunpowder, and Imperial. Teas are occasionally perfumed by the addition of the flowers of *Olea fragrans*, and *Aglaia odorata*. The East India Company, at Dr. Royle's suggestion, are now cultivating the Chinese Tea plant in their Himalayan possessions with great success. The plants were transported by Mr. Fortune from the best Tea district in China. In 1851 the Tea plantations in India covered 656 acres of public land, besides that in the occupation of the Zemindars. The Assam Tea is furnished by a distinct species called *Thea Assamica*, with larger leaves and a taller stem. Tea contains oily matter, tannin, and a bitter principle called Theine, which is identical with Caffeine. In 1852 there were imported into Britain 66,361,020 lbs. of Tea, of which 54,724,615 were for home consumption. Large quantities of a spurious article called *Lie-Tea*, has been of late imported into Britain for the purposes of adulteration. It consists of the sweepings of tea warehouses, granulated by addition of gruel formed from the husks of rice, and coloured by addition of Turmeric and Prussian Blue. The Brick Tea of Thibet occurs in blocks, shaped like bricks, and wrapped up in paper or other materials. It is one of the Lie-Teas, pressed into moulds and dried.

1182. Nat. Ord. 37.—OLACACEÆ, the Olax order.—Trees or shrubs, often spiny, with alternate, exstipulate leaves, a cup-shaped calyx, be-

* Specimens of the dye, along with various kinds of Tea, have been presented by Mr. Fortune to the Edinburgh Museum of Economic Botany. For further details relative to Tea, see Fortune's *Three Years' Wanderings in the Northern Provinces of China*; Ball, on the *Cultivation and Manufacture of Tea*; Boyle, *Illustrations of the Botany of the Himalaya*, and *Productive Resources of India*; Warrington on the *Teas of Commerce*, in the *Quarterly Journal of the Chemical Society*, iv. for June 1852. Seemann, in the *Kew Miscellany* for January 1852.

ing enlarged with the fruit and often covering it, five valvate petals, 5-10 stamens, partly sterile, five fertile ones being opposite the petals, a disk, a succulent fruit with a hard endocarp, and an albuminous seed without integuments (exutive). An order of mostly tropical shrubs, containing few species. Some yield edible fruits. *Ill. Gen.*—*Opilia*, *Olax*, *Heisteria*, *Ximenia*, *Diplocalyx*, *Iodina*.

1183. Nat. Ord. 38.—**ICACINACEÆ**, the *Icacina* order.—Evergreen trees and shrubs allied to *Olacaceæ*, but differing in the calyx not enlarging with the fruit, stamens being alternate with the petals, ovary plurilocular, with axile placentation, and seeds having the usual integuments (indutive). The order is chiefly tropical. There are 65 species, the properties of which are not known. *Ill. Gen.*—*Icacina*, *Sarcostigma*, *Pogopetalum*.

1184. Nat. Ord. 39.—**CYRILLACEÆ**, the *Cyrilla* order.—Evergreen shrubs with exstipulate leaves, allied to *Olacaceæ* and differing chiefly in their imbricate not valvate petals, which are not hairy. They are found in North America. There are five species known. *Ill. Gen.*—*Cyrilla*, *Elliottia*.

1185. Nat. Ord. 40.—**AURANTIACEÆ**, the Orange order (Figs. 1422 to 1424).—Trees or shrubs with alternate, compound, exstipulate, dotted leaves, and fragrant flowers (Fig. 315, p. 135). Calyx short, urceolate or campanulate, 3-5-toothed. Petals 3-5. Stamens equal



Fig. 1422.

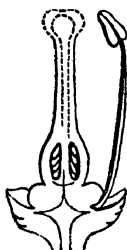


Fig. 1423.

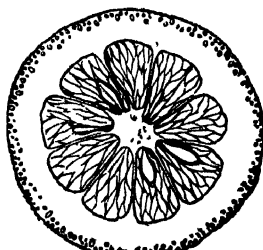


Fig. 1424.

in number to the petals, or a multiple of them, inserted along with the petals on a hypogynous disk (Fig. 1423); filaments sometimes united in one or more bundles. Ovary free; style cylindrical; stigma thickish (Fig. 1423). Fruit a hesperidium (Fig. 1424), sometimes, as in fingered Citrons and horned Oranges becoming monstrous by the separation of the carpels (Figs. 886, 887, p. 294) or by the multiplication of carpels, so that one fruit is included within another. Seeds exalbuminous (Figs. 898, 899, p. 299), often polyembryonous. Chiefly East Indian plants, the known species being about 100. *Ill. Gen.*—*Limonia*, *Glycosmis*, *Rissoa*, *Bergera*, *Murraya*, *Cookia*, *Feronia*, *Ægle*, *Citrus*.

Figures 1422 to 1424 illustrate the natural order *Aurantiaceæ*.

Fig. 1422. Diagram of the flower of the Orange, with five divisions of the calyx, five imbricate petals, irregularly polyadelphous stamens, and pulpy ovary. Fig. 1423. Pistil of Orange, with hypogynous disk and stamen inserted into the lower part of it. Fig. 1424. Hesperidium, or fruit of Orange (see p. 288), with separable rind, and separable pulpy cells formed by the endocarp. See also Orange leaf, Fig. 304, p. 130; young fruit and disk, Fig. 867, p. 288.

1186. The leaves and the rind of the fruit contain a volatile fragrant oil, and the pulp of the fruit is more or less acid.

Ægle Marmelos, the Indian Bael or Bela, yields a delicious fruit. Its root and bark are antispasmodic. The decoction and jelly of the fruit are used in diarrhoea.

Citrus Aurantium, the Sweet Orange, has been so generally distributed over different quarters of the globe, that its native country can scarcely be determined. It has been naturalised in Europe. Oranges are imported into Britain from the Azores, Lisbon, Malta, and Sicily. In 1851 the imports were 300,500 packages, weighing 35,000 tons. The chief kinds are the Common Orange, the Chinese or Mandarin, the Maltese and the St. Michaels. The last is characterised by its smooth rind and absence of pips (p. 602). There are other varieties of Orange, such as the Navel Orange of Pernambuco, so called from the peculiar appearance at the top of the fruit (p. 293), and the Tangerine Orange. The Orange-tree is very fruitful; a single tree will produce 20,000 Oranges fit for use. The rind yields an oil called Oil of Orange, while the flowers supply another kind of oil. The pulp of the fruit contains malic acid. *C. vulgaris* (*C. Bigaradia* of some authors), the Bitter or Seville Orange, is probably a variety. It differs from the Sweet Orange in the larger wing of its petiole, its more fragrant flowers, its darker fruit, and its more bitter rind and pulp. In the young state, the fruit is known as Orangettes or Curaçoa Oranges. The flowers yield an essential oil called Neroli oil. The distilled water of the flowers has hypnotic qualities. The rind of the Bitter Orange is used in conserves, as for making marmalade. *C. Limonum*, the Lemon, yields an acid antiscorbutic juice. It contains citric acid. Its rind is adherent and not separable like that of the Orange; such is also the case with the Lime and Citron. A good Lemon-tree will produce 8000 Lemons. The fruit is imported from Sicily, Spain, and Portugal. *C. Limetta* produces the Lime, and var. *Bergamia*, the Bergamot. *C. Medica* is the source of the Citron.* *C. Decumana* furnishes the Shaddock; *C. paradisi* the forbidden fruit; and *C. Pompelmos* the Pompelmoose. *C. japonica*, the Kumquat of China, is grown in pots for its flowers and fruit. The fruit is small, oval, and orange-coloured.

Cookia punctata furnishes the edible Wampee fruit of China and of the Indian Archipelago.

Feronia elephantum yields a gum resembling Gum Arabic.

1187. Nat. Ord. 41.—HYPERICACEÆ, the St. John's Wort order (Figs. 1425 to 1428).—Herbs, shrubs,



Fig. 1426.

or trees with a resinous juice, regular flowers, opposite, entire, exstipulate leaves, usually with transparent dots and blackish glands. Sepals 4-5, persistent, two outer often smaller. Petals 4-5, unequal-sided, twisted in æstivation, often bordered with black dots. Stamens generally ∞ and polyadelphous (Fig. 1426). Carpels 3-5 partially united. Fruit a

Figures 1425 to 1428 illustrate the natural order Hypericaceæ.

Fig. 1425. Diagram of the flower of *Hypericum*, with five sepals, two of them exterior, five twisted petals, numerous polyadelphous stamens, three united carpels, with numerous seeds on a central placenta, which sends processes outwards. Fig. 1426. Section of a flower of *Hypericum*, showing sepals, petals, bundles of stamens, ovary with numerous ovules on a central placenta, and long styles. Fig. 1427. Flower of *Parnassia palustris*, showing the free stamens and the ovary. Fig. 1428. Petal of *Parnassia*, with a bundle of abortive stamens, usually called the nectary. *Parnassia* is removed from *Droseraceæ* on account of its exalbuminous seeds, and other characters.

* This seems to be the Hebrew Tappuah, translated Apple-tree and Apples in Prov. xxv. 11; Cant. ii. 3, 5, vii. 3, viii. 5; Joel i. 12.

capsule with septicial dehiscence. Seeds numerous and exalbuminous. The order is generally distributed both in warm and temperate regions. There are 280 known species. The properties of the plants are

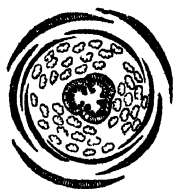


Fig. 1425.



Fig. 1427.

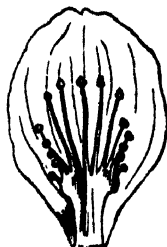


Fig. 1428.

usually purgative; some are tonic and astringent. Many *Hypericum*s yield a yellow juice and an essential oil. Species of *Vismia* yield a gum resin like Gamboge. *III. Gen.*—*Ascyrum*, *Hypericum*, *Parnassia*, *Elodea*, *Vismia*, *Reaumuria*. *

1188. Nat. Ord. 42.—GUTTIFERÆ or CLUSIACEÆ, the Gamboge order.—Trees or shrubs with a resinous juice, opposite coriaceous entire leaves, and occasionally unisexual flowers. Sepals and petals 2, 4, 5, 6, or 8, the former often unequal, the latter equilateral. Stamens numerous, often united. Disk fleshy. Ovary one or many-celled; stigma usually sessile and radiate. Fruit dry or succulent, one or many-celled. Seeds exalbuminous, often immersed in pulp. Natives of humid and hot places in tropical regions, chiefly South America. There are 150 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Clusia*, *Moronobea*, *Mammea*, *Garcinia*, *Xanthochymus*, *Cambogia*, *Mesua*, *Calophyllum*.

1189. The properties of the order are in general acrid and purgative. The plants yield a yellow gum resin.

Calophyllum Calaba furnishes the East Indian resin called Tacamahaca. Other species also yield resin and oils.

Cambogia Gutta (*Hebradendron cambogioides* of Graham) is the source of Ceylon species Gamboge.

Clusia. The species are handsome trees, which send out remarkable abnormal roots from their stems and branches. *Clusia alba* yields a resinous juice which is employed in place of pitch. *Clusia flava* is called Mountain or Wild Mango, and in Jamaica it receives the name of Balsam-tree.

Garcinia. Different species of this genus yield a substance like Gamboge. *Garcinia cochinchinensis* has been said to be the source of the Siam Gamboge, but this is very doubtful. *Garcinia elliptica*, found in Sylhet and Tavoy, also supplies a kind of Gamboge. Coorg or Wynaad Gamboge is also the produce of a *Garcinia*, perhaps *G. pictoria*. Gamboge is used as a pigment and as a drastic purgative. *Garcinia Mangostana*, a native of Malacca, produces the Mangosteen, one of the finest known fruits. It is filled with a delicious pulp. Its rind is used as an astringent.

Mammea americana produces an excellent fruit, the Mammee Apple or wild Apricot of South America.

* Some put *Reaumuria* in a separate order, *Reaumuriacæ*, distinguished by its shaggy seeds and appendages at the base of the petals.

1190. Nat. Ord. 43.—**MARCGRAVIACEÆ**, the Marcgravia order.— Trees or shrubs allied to Guttiferae, and differing chiefly in their alternate leaves, unsymmetrical flowers, and versatile anthers. Some of the plants have remarkable pitcher-like bracts. They are found in equinoctial America chiefly. Little is known of their properties. The species are 26. *Ill. Gen.*—Norantea, Marcgravia.

1191. Nat. Ord. 44.—**HIPPOCRATEACEÆ**, the Hippocratea order.—Shrubby plants with opposite simple leaves having deciduous stipules. Sepals and petals five, imbricate. Stamens three, monadelphous. Fruit either consisting of three winged carpels or baccate. Brown and Lindley put the order near Celastraceæ, notwithstanding its hypogynous stamens. They are principally South American plants; some occur in Africa and India. Little is known of their qualities. The nuts of Hippocratea comosa are oily and sweet. The fruit of Tontelea pyriformis is eaten in Sierra Leone. There are 86 species recorded. *Ill. Gen.*—Hippocratea, Tontelea, Salacia.

1192. Nat. Ord. 45.—**MALPIGHIACEÆ**, the Malpighia order.— Trees or shrubs, often climbing, with opposite or alternate leaves, and short deciduous, sometimes intrapetiolar, stipules; occasionally showing peltate hairs. Sepals five, combined at the base, glandular. Petals five, unguiculate. Stamens ten, often monadelphous. Ovary generally of three carpels. Fruit a drupe, a woody nut, or a samara. Seed orthotropical, suspended by a cord, exalbuminous; embryo straight or curved. Malpighiads are nearly all tropical plants. There are 555 species described. *Ill. Gen.*—Malpighia, Byrsonima, Nitraria, Banisteria, Hiptage, Hiræa, Gaudichaudia.

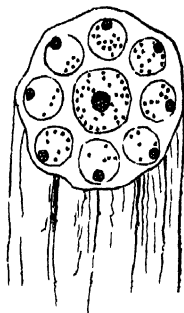


Fig 1429

1193. Their properties are generally astringent. Many are handsome trees or climbers with showy flowers. The wood is sometimes formed in an anomalous manner (Fig. 1429).

Byrsonima The bark of some of the species is used for tanning, and as a tonic and astringent. Some produce acid astringent fruit used in dysentery

Malpighia glabra and *punicifolia* furnish the Barbadoes Cherry, used in Jamaica as a dessert.

Nitraria tridentata, according to Munby, is the true Lotus-tree of the ancients. It is found in the desert of Soussa, near Tunis, and produces a succulent fruit having stimulating qualities. The genus is by some put in a separate order called Nitrariaceæ.

1194. Nat. Ord. 46.—**ERYTHROXYLACEÆ**, the Erythroxylon order.—Allied to Malpighiads, and distinguished by the flowers growing from among imbricated scales, the absence of calycine glands, the pre-

some of glabrous scales at the base of the petals, and by the ovules being anatropal and axillary. They are West Indian and South American plants. Some of them have stimulating qualities, others yield a tonic bark. *Erythroxyion Coca*, a Peruvian plant, called Ipadu by the Indians of the Rio Negro, is famed for exciting the nervous system.* The bark of *E. suberosum* supplies a reddish-brown dye. There are 75 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Erythroxyion*.

1195. Nat. Ord. 47.—**ACERACEÆ**, the Maple order (Fig. 1430).—Trees with opposite, simple, often palmate, exstipulate leaves (Fig. 1430), and corymbose or racemose unsymmetrical flowers. Calyx usually of five parts. Petals as many as the sepals, or none. Stamens generally eight, inserted on or around a hypogynous disk. Ovary of two carpels, more or less united; ovules in pairs. Fruit samaroid (Fig. 1430, Fig. 850, p. 284). Seed solitary, exalbuminous; embryo coiled. Found in the temperate parts of Europe, Asia, and America. There are 60 species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Acer*, *Negundo*.



Fig 1430

1196. Their properties are saccharine, the trees yield light and useful timber.

Acer Pseudo-platanus is the Common Sycamore or Greater Maple, which thrives well even when exposed to the sea. Its leaves resemble those of the True Plane, hence its specific name. In Scotland it is called Plane Tree. Its timber is used for machinery, for bowls and other turnery, and for charcoal. *A. campestre*, the Common Maple, has often beautifully-veined wood. *A. saccharinum*, the Sugar-Maple, supplies the maple sugar of America. The saccharine juice is procured by incisions in the stem. *A. dasycarpum* and other species yield sugar.

1197. Nat. Ord. 48.—**SAPINDACEÆ**, the Soapwort order (Fig. 1431).—Trees, shrubs, or climbers with tendrils, rarely herbs; having alternate or opposite, usually compound leaves, and unsymmetrical, generally irregular and polygamous flowers. Calyx with 4-5 sepals. Petals 4-5, occasionally 0, sometimes with an appendage inside. Disk fleshy. Stamens usually 8-10. Ovary 2-3-celled; style undivided, or 2-3-cleft. Fruit capsular (Fig. 791, p. 270) or fleshy, sometimes winged. Seeds exalbuminous, arillate; embryo usually curved. Found chiefly in the tropical parts of South America and India. The *Hippocastanæ* or Horse-chestnuts, distinguished by opposite leaves, and two ovules in each cell, one erect, and the other suspended, occur in the north of India, Persia, and the United States. There are about 400 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—

Fig 1430 Branch of *Acer saccharinum*, the Sugar Maple, showing palmate leaves and samaroid fruit

* Spruce says, that an Indian with a chip of Ipadu in his cheek will go two or three days without food, and without feeling any desire to sleep. The leaves are the part used.

Serjania, *Paullinia*, *Schmidelia*, *Sapindus*, *Cupania*, *Nephelium*, *Æsculus*, *Pavia*, *Dodonæa*, *Ophiocaryon*, *Meliosma*.

1198. The properties are various. Many of the plants have saponaceous qualities, hence the name of the order. Some are astringent; others yield edible fruits and seeds, and not a few are poisonous.

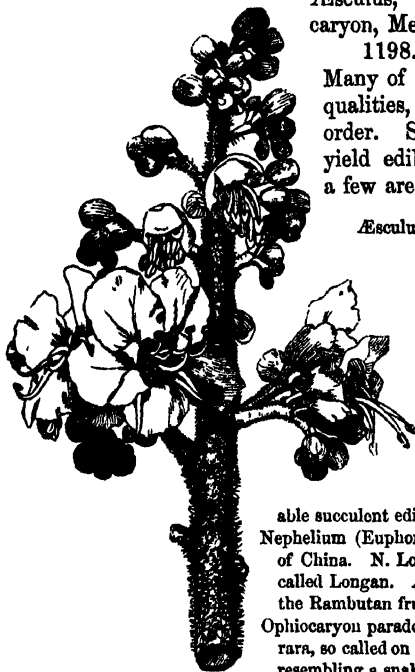


Fig. 1431

Æsculus Hippocastanum, the Horse-chestnut (Fig. 1431). Its bark is febrifugal. Its seeds contain saponaceous matter. They are used as food for sheep, and they have been recommended as substitutes for Coffee. The leaves and fruit of *Æsculus ohiotensis*, Buck-eye or American Horse-chestnut, are said to be poisonous.

Cupania (Blighia) sapida, furnishes the Akee fruit, with its remarkable succulent edible arillus.

Nephelium (Euphoria) Litchi, furnishes the Li-chi fruit of China. *N. Longan* supplies another Chinese fruit called Longan. Another species of *Nephelium* yields the Rambutan fruit.

Ophiocaryon paradoxum is the Snake-nut-tree of Demerara, so called on account of its peculiar coiled embryo, resembling a snake.

Paullinia sorbilis, the Guaraná plant. The seeds of this plant, after being dried and deprived of their white aril, are pounded and kneaded into a dough, which is afterwards made up into cakes or balls, so as to constitute the Guaraná of the Indians of the Rio Mauhé, and of other parts of Brazil. This substance supplies an important beverage to a very large population, and its tonic properties seem to be due to a bitter crystalline matter called Guaranine, identical with Theine. Some species of *Paullinia* have anomalous fasciculated stems.

Sapindus Saponaria, Soap-berry. The acrid fruit of this and other species forms a lather with water, and is used for soap. The pounded fruit is said to poison fish. *S. esculentus* produces an edible fruit.

1199. Nat. Ord. 49.—RHIZOBOLACEÆ, the Suwarrow-nut order. —Trees with opposite, digitate, exstipulate leaves. Sepals 5-6, more or less combined. Petals 5-8, unequal. Stamens ∞ arising with the petals from a hypogynous disk. Fruit of several combined indehiscent, one-seeded nuts. Seed reniform, exalbuminous, with a cord dilated into a spongy excrescence; radicle very large. Found in South America. Known species 8. *Ill. Gen.*—Caryocar.

1200. The plants of the order are large timber trees, some of which yield edible fruit.

Fig. 1431 Flowering branch of *Æsculus Hippocastanum*, the Horse-chestnut, showing cymose irregular unsymmetrical flowers having five petals and seven stamens

Caryocar butyrosum (Pekea tuberculosa) is a gigantic tree of Demerara, producing the Souari, Suwarrow, or Surahwa nuts, the kernels of which are esteemed the most agreeable of all the nut kind. They yield a bland, sweet oil. The timber of the tree is used for ship-building.

1201. Nat. Ord. 50.—MELIACEÆ, the Melia order.—Trees or shrubs with alternate, exstipulate, simple or compound leaves. Sepals 3, 4, or 5, more or less united. Petals, the same number. Stamens twice as many as the petals. Disk, cuplike. Ovary, with cells varying from 3 to 12. Fruit succulent or capsular. Seeds not winged, with or without albumen; embryo with leafy cotyledons. They are chiefly tropical plants, and are found in Asia, America, and Africa. Known species 150. *Ill. Gen.*—Melia, Aglaia, Lansium, Trichilia, Guarea, Carapa.

1202. The properties of the order are bitter, astringent, and tonic. Some of the plants act as powerful purgatives and emetics.

Carapa. The species of this genus have frequently a febrifuge bark, and some yield an anthelmintic oil.

Guarea. The species have often purgative and emetic properties, and require caution in their use.

Lansium. From species of this genus the fruits of the Indian Archipelago, called Langsat or Lanséh and Ayer are procured.

Melia Azedarachta, the Neem-tree or Pride of India, has febrifugal qualities. The pericarp yields an oil used for lamps.

Under this order many Botanists have placed the genus Canella. Its place, however, seems to be uncertain. Martius puts it under a separate order, Canellacæ, allied to Guttiferæ. Canella alba has an aromatic bark, and is called Wild Cinnamon in the West Indies. Canella Bark has some resemblance to Winter's Bark.

1203. Nat. Ord. 51.—HUMIRIACEÆ, the Humirium order.—Balsamic trees or shrubs, with alternate, simple, exstipulate leaves. Calyx in five divisions. Petals five, imbricate. Stamens ∞ , monadelphous; anthers two-celled, with a membranous connective beyond the lobes. Disk often present. Ovary five-celled. Fruit a drupe. Seed albuminous; embryo orthotrope. Natives of tropical America. The Balsam of Umiri is procured from *Humirium floribundum*, by making incisions into its trunk. Known species 18. *Ill. Gen.*—Humirium.

1204. Nat. Ord. 52.—CEDRELACEÆ, the Mahogany order.—Trees with alternate, pinnate, exstipulate leaves, allied to Meliacæ, and chiefly distinguished by their indefinite and winged seeds. The fruit is capsular, the valves separating from a thick axis. They are common in the tropical parts of America and India. Known species 25. *Ill. Gen.*—Swietenia, Soyaida, Chloroxylon, Flindersia, Cedrela.

1205. The properties of the order are fragrant, aromatic, and tonic. Many yield timber.

Cedrela febrifuga, is so called from possessing a febrifugal bark. *C. Toona*, *Toon*, has similar properties; it is a timber-tree of India.

Chloroxylon Swietenia produces the Satin-wood of India, and yields a kind of Wood-oil.

Oxleya xanthoxyla is the Yellow-wood of New South Wales.

Soyimida febrifuga, the Red-wood tree, is febrifugal and astringent.

Swietenia Mahagoni, the Mahogany, grows in dense forests, and forms one of the most lofty and gigantic tropical trees. The wood is chiefly imported from Honduras and Cuba. It is said that 31,668 tons of mahogany were imported into Britain in 1848.

1236. Nat. Ord. 53.—VITACEÆ or AMPELIDÆ, the Vine order (Figs. 1432-1434).—Shrubby plants climbing by tendrils, with tumid



Fig 1432



Fig 1433

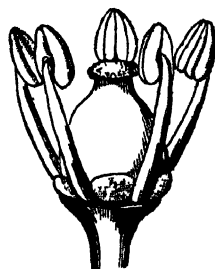


Fig 1434

joints, simple or compound leaves, opposite below, alternate above, and small green flowers arranged in a racemose or umbellate manner (Figs. 152 and 153, p. 64). Calyx small, nearly entire (Fig. 1432). Petals 4-5, induplicate, inserted outside a disk, sometimes cohering at their tips, and caducous (Fig. 1432). Stamens 4-5, opposite the petals, inserted on the disk (Fig. 1433). Ovary usually two-celled, with two erect ovules in each cell. Fruit a uva (Fig. 1434). Seeds with a bony spermoderm; embryo small in horny albumen. The tendrils in this order are abortive branches (p. 64). Vineworts inhabit the milder and hotter regions of the globe. They are common in the East Indies. The Grape Vine (Fig. 152, p. 64), is said to be a native of the shores of the Caspian, whence it has been widely distributed. Known species 260. *Ill. Gen.*—*Cissus*, *Ampelopsis*, *Vitis*, *Lœca*.

1207. The plants of this order have acid leaves and a pulpy fruit more or less acid at first, but developing Grape-sugar as it ripens. They have frequently large dotted vessels abounding in sap, and they bleed copiously. Spiral vessels with air are common in the Vine.

Ampelopsis (Cissus) virginica is the Virginian Creeper, commonly cultivated as a climber.

Figures 1432 to 1434 illustrate the natural order Vitaceæ

Fig 1432 Flower of *Vitis vinifera*, common Grape Vine, showing the gamosepalous calyx and the petals united at the apex, and separating below Fig 1433 Androecium and gynoecium of the Vine, with the disk surrounding the base of the ovary Fig 1434 The Grape or fruit of the Vine, a uva, or berry not adherent to the calyx (p 287) After the forbidden fruit, it is the first fruit mentioned in Scripture, the Hebrew word *Gaphen* meaning Vine, occurring in Gen ix 20 It is the *Ampelos* of the Greeks, hence the name *Ampelidæ* given to the order

Cissus. Some of the species yield acrid fruit, others are useful as dyes.

Vitis vinifera, the Grape Vine, has followed the footsteps of man. Its fruit has been greatly improved by cultivation, and has been used for the making of wine for more than 4000 years. Its leaves are astringent. The verjuice of the young fruit contains much tartaric, and some citric and malic acid. Bitartrate of Potass is found in the fruit. It is said that 800 tons of Grapes are imported into Britain every autumn from Sicily, Lisbon, and Hamburg. In a dried state Grapes are known as Raisins (*uvæ passæ majores*). The Sultana Raisin of Smyrna is seedless. The finest Raisins are the Muscatel. Archer says, that the average annual quantity of Raisins imported into Britain during the last five years, has been 12,000 tons. The dried Currants of commerce, a corruption of Corinthia (*uvæ passæ minores*), are the produce of the small seedless Corinthian Grape, which is cultivated in many of the Greek islands. The quantity of Currants imported annually is said to be 21,000 tons. *Vitis vulpina* abounds in some parts of America. In Rhode Island it is called Wild Vine, and its fruit is known as Fox-Grapes.

1208. Nat. Ord. 54.—GERANIACEÆ, the Cranesbill order (Figs. 1435 and 1436).—Herbs or shrubs, with tumid joints, opposite or

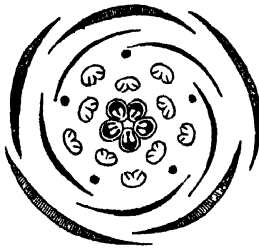


Fig. 1435



Fig. 1436

alternate leaves, usually palmately-veined and lobed (Fig. 422, p. 177), often stipulate. Sepals 5, imbricate, one sometimes spurred. Petals 5, unguiculate, contorted in æstivation. Stamens usually 10, monadelphous, occasionally some sterile. Ovary of five bi-ovular carpels placed round an elongated axis to which the styles adhere. Fruit formed of five one-seeded carpels, which finally separate from the base of the central axis or beak, and curve upwards by means of the attached styles (Fig. 1436); the fruit is said to be gynobasic, and the long beak or carpophore gives origin to the name of the order. Seed exalbuminous; embryo curved and doubled up, with plaited cotyledons. Distributed over various parts of the world. The species of *Pelargonium* abound at the Cape of Good Hope. Known species about 500.

Ill. Gen.—*Erodium*, *Geranium*, *Monsonia*, *Pelargonium*.

Figures 1435 and 1436 illustrate the natural order Geraniaceæ

Fig. 1435. Diagram of the flower of a *Geranium*, with five imbricate sepals, five twisted petals, ten perfect stamens in two rows, and an outer row of abortive stamens, five bi-ovular carpels forming the ovary. Fig. 1436. Fruit of a *Geranium*, showing the five monospermal carpels separating from the base of the long beak-like process, and curving up by means of the styles, which remain adherent to the upper part of the beak.

1209. The order has astringent and aromatic properties. Many of the plants are fragrant. Some have a musky odour.

Geranium maculatum receives the name of Alum-root from the astringency of its root. *G. parviflorum* yields edible tubers called native carrots in Australia.

Pelargonium In this genus the adherent calycine spur is well seen. The species are showy and fragrant, and are extensively cultivated under the common name of Geraniums. They have been improved by hybridization and by the art of horticulture. *P. triste* supplies tubers which are eaten at the Cape of Good Hope.

1210. Nat. Ord. 55.—LINACEÆ, the Flax order (Figs. 1437 to 1440).—Herbs with entire, sessile, alternate or opposite or verticillate



Fig 1438



Fig 1439

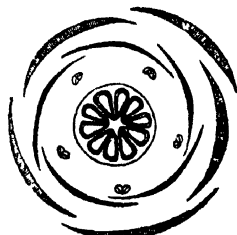


Fig 1437



Fig 1440

leaves (Fig. 1438), which are exstipulate or have occasionally a pair of minute glands at their base. Flowers regular and symmetrical. Sepals 3-5, imbricate. Petals 3-5, contorted in æstivation. Stamens united at the base, 3-5, usually with intermediate abortive ones in the form of teeth opposite the petals. Ovary 3-5-celled; styles 3-5 (Fig. 1439). Fruit a plurilocular capsule, in which the cells are more or less completely divided into two by spurious divisions proceeding from the dorsal sutures (Fig. 1440). Seeds, one in each cell, anatropal, with little or no albumen; embryo straight, cotyledons flat. Distributed over various quarters of the globe, but most abundant in Europe and

Figures 1437 to 1440 illustrate the natural order Linaceæ

Fig 1437 Diagram of the Flax plant, showing five imbricate sepals, five contorted petals, five alternating stamens, and five divisions of the ovary, each of which is divided into two by a spurious septum from the dorsal suture. Fig 1438 *Linum catharticum*, the Flax plant. It is the Hebrew *Pishtah* referred to in Exod ix 31, Josh ii 6, and in many other passages of the Old Testament, and it is the *Lanon* of Matth xii 20. Fig 1439 Syncarpous pentacarpellary ovary of the Flax plant, with five distinct styles. Fig 1440 Syncarpous fruit of the Flax plant, showing the five cells or locules, divided each into two by a spurious dorsal septum.

the north of Africa. Known species 90. *Ill. Gen.*—*Linum*, *Cliococca*, *Radiola*.

1211. The order is distinguished by its mucilaginous properties, and by yielding valuable fibres. Some species are purgative and diuretic.

Linum catharticum, perhaps too much neglected, is called Purging-flax from its properties. *L. usitatissimum*, the cultivated Flax (Fig. 1488), yields tenacious fibres (Fig. 45, p. 23), used in the manufacture of linen. Its seeds are demulcent and oily. The oil is procured from them by expression. They supply oil-cake for cattle, and in the state of powder the cake is employed as poultices. An infusion of the seeds is used as a demulcent. Linseed-oil mixed with Lime-water, under the name of Carron-oil, is a favourite remedy for burns and scalds. The broken fibres detached during the process of heckling, are used as tow by surgeons. Of late years the fibres of Flax, by being steeped in a solution of Carbonate of Soda, and afterwards dipped in a weak acid solution, are broken up into minute divisions, so as to form what is called Flax-Cotton, which has been used in manufacture in the same way as Cotton. The quantity of foreign flax imported into Britain in 1849 was 1,806,786 cwts.

1212. Nat. Ord. 56.—OXALIDACEÆ, the Wood-sorrel order (Fig. 1441).—Herbaceous or shrubby plants with alternate, rarely opposite, simple or compound leaves, and regular flowers. Sepals five, imbricate. Petals five, twisted. Stamens ten, more or less monadelphous, of different lengths. Fruit usually a five-celled capsule, sometimes drupaceous. Seeds with a fleshy outer coat, which bursts in an elastic manner when ripe, so as to expel the seeds; embryo straight and large in thin albumen. The plants are allied to Geraniaceæ, and differ chiefly in their gynoecium. The plants of the order are met with both in hot and in temperate regions. They are very common in America and at the Cape of Good Hope. The shrubby species are confined to warm climates. Known species about 330. *Ill. Gen.*—*Oxalis*, *Biophytum*, *Averrhoa*, *Hugonia*.



Fig 1441

1213. The Oxalids or Wood-sorrels have generally acid properties, from the presence of oxalic acid in the form of Binoxalate of Potass, which is called the salt of sorrel. Some of them have sensitive leaves (p. 493.)

Averrhoa Bilimbi, the Blimbing of the East Indies, has an acid fruit, which is used as a pickle. *A. Carambola* has a similar fruit.

Oxalis crenata bears tubers which are used as potatoes. It is one of the plants called Arracacha. Its leaves are acid. *O. Deppei* has fleshy roots, which are used as culinary vegetables. *O. anthelmintica* has acrid tubers, which are used as a vermifuge. *O. bupleurifolia* and other Indian species have phylodia (p. 185.)

1214. Nat. Ord. 57.—BALSAMINACEÆ, the Balsam order (Figs. 1442 and 1443).—Annual succulent herbs, with simple, exstipulate leaves, and irregular flowers. Sepals five, coloured, irregular, the odd one spurred. Petals five, irregular, distinct or cohering. Stamens five. Ovary of five united carpels; stigmas sessile (Fig. 1442). Fruit, a capsule opening septifragally by five elastic valves, which become coiled up (Fig. 1443). Seeds exalbuminous; embryo straight. The flowers are usually showy. The ripe capsules burst elastically when touched, so as to scatter the seeds; hence the name of *Impatiens noli-me-tangere* given to one of the species. The plants abound in India. There are 110 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Impatiens*, *Balsamina*, *Hydrocera*.



Fig. 1442.



Fig 1443.

1215. Nat. Ord. 58.—TROPÆOLACEÆ, the Indian Cress, or Nasturtium order (Fig. 1444).—Trailing or twining herbs, with alternate, exstipulate, and peltate or palmate leaves. Calyx spurred (Fig. 1444), formed by five united sepals. Petals five, the two upper arising from the throat of the calyx, remote from the three lower unguiculate petals. Stamens usually eight, distinct. Ovary of three united, one-seeded, carpels. Fruit indehiscent, monospermal, carpidia separating from a common axis. Seeds exalbuminous, filling the cells; embryo large. They are chiefly South American plants. There are about 40 species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Tropæolum*.



Fig 1444.

1216. The properties of the order are acidity and pungency, resembling in this respect some of the Cruciferæ.

Tropæolum majus is the common Indian Cress, or garden Nasturtium, the unripe fruit of which is pickled, and used as a substitute for Capers. The roots of *T. tuberosum* are eaten in Peru. The species have showy, yellow, orange, scarlet, and blue flowers; thus the Xanthic and Cyanic series are represented in the genus.

1217. Nat. Ord. 59.—LIMNANTHACEÆ, the *Limnanthes* order.—The plants of this order differ from Tropæolacææ in their regular flowers, their erect ovules, and in the tendency to adhesion between the

Figures 1442 and 1443 illustrate the natural order Balsaminacææ.

Fig 1442 Fruit or capsule of *Impatiens noli-me-tangere*, Touch-me-not, consisting of five united carpels, with a sessile stigma. Fig. 1443 Capsule of *Impatiens*, with five recurved valves, which separate with elasticity from the central placenta so as to scatter the seeds (p. 413).

Fig. 1444. Irregular flower of *Tropæolum majus*, common Indian Cress or garden Nasturtium, with its coloured, spurred (calcarate) calyx, and five petals, three of which are stalked.

stamens and the calyx. Probably the order should be placed among Perigynous Exogens. It contains a few North American species, which have properties similar to Indian Cresses. *Ill. Gen.*—*Limnanthes*, *Flörkea*.

1218. Nat. Ord. 60.—PITTIOSPORACEÆ, the *Pittosporum* order.—Trees or shrubs, with alternate, simple, exstipulate leaves. Sepals and petals, 4-5, distinct, or slightly cohering. Stamens five; anthers often porose. Ovary 2-5-celled; style one. Fruit, a capsule or berry. Seeds numerous, anatropal, often covered with a resinous pulp; embryo minute, in fleshy albumen. New Holland plants chiefly. They have more or less resinous qualities. The berries of some *Billardieras* are eatable. In *Cheiranthra linearis* the anthers are thrown to one side, and have a hand-like aspect. Known species 78. *Ill. Gen.*—*Pittosporum*, *Cheiranthra*, *Sollya*, *Billardiera*.

1219. Nat. Ord. 61.—BREXIACEÆ, the *Brexia* order.—Trees, with alternate, simple, stipulate leaves, and green flowers in axillary umbels. Calyx five-parted. Petals five, contorted. Stamens five, arising from a narrow cup, with teeth between them. Style one. Fruit drupaceous, five-cornered, five-celled, rough. Seeds numerous, albuminous. Madagascar plants, of which little is known. There are 6 species described. *Ill. Gen.*—*Brexia*.

1220. Nat. Ord. 62.—ZYGOPHYLLACEÆ, the Bean-caper and *Guaia-cum* order (Figs. 1445 and 1446).—Herbs, shrubs, or trees, with

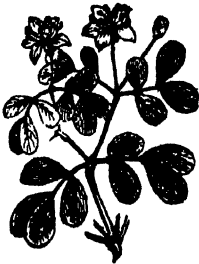


Fig. 1445.



Fig. 1446.

opposite, stipulate, usually pinnate, not dotted leaves. Calyx 4-5-

Figures 1445 and 1446 illustrate the natural order Zygophyllaceæ.

Fig. 1445. *Guaiacum officinale*, *Guaiac* or *Lignum Vitæ*. It has pari-pinnate shining leaves. Fig. 1446. *Tribulus terrestris*, showing its pinnate leaves and spiny carpels of a triangular form attached to an axis. The name of *Caltrops* is applied to the genus in consequence of the fruit resembling the machines formerly used to obstruct cavalry.

parted, convolute. Petals unguiculate, at first minute, afterwards large, imbricate. Stamens 8-10, often arising from the back of scales. Ovary 4-5-celled, surrounded by glands or a disk; style simple. Fruit usually a capsule, 4-5-angled, opening in a loculicidal manner by 4-5 valves. Seeds usually albuminous (*Tribulus* is exalbuminous); embryo green. Bean-capers are generally distributed. Some are peculiar to America; others are found in Europe, India, Africa, and New Holland. There are 100 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Peganum*, *Fagonia*, *Roepera*, *Zygophyllum*, *Guaiacum*, *Melianthus*, *Tribulus*.

1221. The plants have diaphoretic and anthelmintic properties. The wood of the arborescent plants of the order is very hard and durable.

Guaiacum officinale (Fig. 1445), a West Indian tree, supplies the resin called Guaiac, which exudes from it spontaneously and after incisions. The wood is hard, and when fully matured has a greenish black colour. It receives the name of *Lignum vitæ*, and is remarkable for the crossing of its fibres. The resin (*Guaiacine* of some) and the wood are stimulant and diaphoretic, and have been employed medicinally in cutaneous and syphilitic affections. *G. sanctum* has similar properties.

Larrea mexicana is called the Creazote plant.

Melianthus major secretes much saccharine matter in its flowers.

Tribulus terrestris (Fig. 1446) is supposed to be the *Tribolos* translated Thistles in *Matt. vii. 16*, and *Heb. vi. 8*. It grows in dry, barren places in the East. It is a prickly plant, which runs along the surface of the ground.

Zygophyllum Fabago, *Bean-caper*, is so called on account of its flower-buds being used as substitutes for *Capers*.

1222. *Nat. Ord. 63.*—RUTACEÆ, the Rue order (Figs. 1447 to 1449).—Herbs, shrubs, and trees, with exstipulate dotted leaves

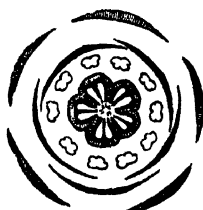


Fig. 1447.



Fig. 1448.

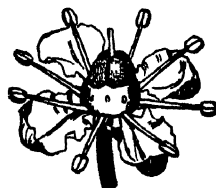


Fig. 1449.

and perfect flowers (Fig. 668, p. 237). Calyx in 4-5 divisions. Petals 4-5, occasionally 0. Stamens, as many, or twice, or thrice as many, as the petals, placed outside a hypogynous disk. Ovary, sessile

Figures 1447 to 1449 illustrate the natural order Rutaceæ

Fig 1447. Diagram of *Rata graveolens*, common or garden Rue, showing five divisions of the calyx, five twisted petals, ten stamens in two rows, five divisions of the ovary with two ovules in each. Fig. 1448. Flower of Rue showing the hooded petals, the stamens, the hypogynous punctated disk, and the ovary with its carpels; the flower being pentamerous. Fig. 1449. The same organs shown in a tetramerous flower of Rue

or stalked (Fig. 421, p. 176), 3-5-lobed; styles united, occasionally separated at the base. Fruit of several carpels, either combined, or more or less distinct, often separating when ripe, and dehiscing by one or both sutures. Seeds, one or two in each carpel; the true Ruteæ (European plants) have albuminous seeds, while the Diosmeæ (from the Cape and New Holland) have exalbuminous seeds. The plants are found in Europe, Cape of Good Hope, New Holland, and America. There are upwards of 400 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—Galipea, Cusparia, Bonplandia, Pilocarpus, Boronia, Correa, Adenandra, Diosma, Barosma, Dictamnus, Ruta, Cneorum.

1223. The order is characterised by its peculiar penetrating odour. The plants are employed medicinally as antispasmodics, tonics, and febrifuges.

Correa alba. Its leaves are used in Australia for tea.

Dictamnus Fraxinella, False Dittany (Fig. 421, p. 176), abounds in volatile oil, so that the atmosphere around it is said, in certain circumstances, to become inflammable.

Diosmas are the Bucku or Buchu plants found at the Cape of Good Hope, which are remarkable for their overpowering and penetrating odour, owing to the presence of a yellowish volatile oil. *Diosma*, or rather *Barosma crenata, serratifolia*, and other species, are used medicinally in *Catarrhus Vesicæ*. Their leaves are antispasmodic and diuretic.

Esenbeckia febrifuga is employed in Brazil as a substitute for Peruvian bark.

Galipea officinalis furnishes a tonic, febrifugal bark called Angostura. A similar bark is furnished by *G. Cusparia* (*Bonplandia trifoliata*). It is probable that the Melambo bark is the produce of another species.

Ruta graveolens, common Rue (Fig. 668, p. 237), has antispasmodic, anthelmintic, and emmenagogue properties. Its leaves and unripe fruit are used medicinally. The plant is the Peganon of Scripture mentioned in Luke xi. 42. *R. montana* is a very acrid Spanish plant, the juice of which is said to cause vesication.

1224. Nat. Ord. 64.—XANTHOXYLACEÆ, the Prickly-Ash order.—Trees or shrubs, with exstipulate, dotted leaves, resembling the Rutaceæ, and distinguished by their polygamous flowers. They are chiefly found in tropical America. Known species, 110. *Ill. Gen.*—Xanthoxylon, Ptelea, Cyminosma.

1225. They have pungent and aromatic qualities, and have been used medicinally as stimulants, sialagogues, and tonics. They yield a volatile oil, and a bitter principle called Xanthopicrine.

Ptelea has a bitter aromatic fruit, which is used for Hops, and as a pickle.

Xanthoxylons receive in America the name of Prickly Ash, and from their pungency they are often called Peppers. *X. caribæum* is used as a febrifuge. *X. Budrunga* has fragrant seeds having the odour of Lemons. The fruit and seeds of *X. hostile* have been used for intoxicating fish.

1226. Nat. Ord. 65.—OCHNACEÆ, the Ochna order.—A small group of undershrubs or trees allied to Rutaceæ, and distinguished by their simple, dotless, stipulate leaves, and their enlarged fleshy gyno-

base or torus. They are found in the tropical parts of India, Africa, and America. Known species, 90. *Ill. Gen.*—*Gomphia*, *Walkera*, *Ochna*, *Godoya*, *Coriaria*?

1227. The order is characterised by bitter, tonic properties. The plants want the aromatic qualities of the Rueworts.

Coriaria. This genus is by some placed in this order; while by others it is made the type of a new order, *Coriariaceæ*. *C. myrtifolia* has poisonous properties. Its tricostate leaves (Fig. 275, p. 122) are sometimes mixed with *Senna*, and have produced narcotic effects. This species, as well as *C. ruscifolia*, are used for staining black. An infusion of the leaves strikes a dark blue with sulphate of iron. The fruit of some of the *Coriarias* is edible.

Gomphas are used as bitter tonics, and some of them yield oil.

Ochna hexasperma has an astringent bark.



Fig 1450

Ailanthus, *Brucea*, *Picrasma*, *Spathelia*.

1229. Bitterness prevails in this order, the plants being used as tonics.

Brucea antidysenterica has a bitter and astringent bark and wood. Its bark was formerly supposed to be false *Angostura*, and to have poisonous properties; but this is now shown to be the produce of *Strychnos Nux-vomica*.

Castela Nicolsoni, Goatbush, is sometimes used as a substitute for *Quassia*.

Picrasma (Picrasna) excelsa, Bitterwood, is a large tree, the wood of which is the common *Quassia* of the shops. It is bitter and tonic, and is sometimes used as a substitute for hops. An infusion of it poisons flies. It contains a bitter principle called *Quassin*.

Quassia amara, the true *Quassia* plant, called *Guavito Amargo* in Panama (Fig. 1450), is a tall shrub found in Surinam, having pinnate leaves with winged petioles. The wood is not imported into Britain.

Simaba Cedron is a tree of New Grenada, which has long been celebrated as an antidote to snake bites. The seeds, or rather the cotyledons, are used for this purpose.

Simaruba amara, or *officinalis*. The bark of the root is used as a substitute for *Quassia*. It is prescribed in cases of diarrhoea and dysentery. Its timber is said to resemble that of the White Pine.

Fig. 1450. *Quassia amara*, true *Quassia* plant of Surinam—*a*, showing its impari-pinnate leaves with winged petioles, and racemose flowers; *b*, its stipitate fruit, consisting of five drupes surrounding a common receptacle with a simple style.

1230. Analysis of the Natural Orders of Thalamifloral Exogens, with references to the numbers of the orders in the preceding pages.*

I. Flowers Polyandrous. Stamens more than 20.

1. *Leaves exstipulate (without stipules).*

a. Carpels more or less distinct (at least as to the styles), or solitary.

Stamens distinct (not united).

Carpels immersed in a tabular fleshy disk..... Nelumbiaceæ, 11.

Carpels not immersed in a disk.

Embryo in a vitellus..... Cabombaceæ, 9.

Embryo not in a vitellus, minute.

Seeds arillate..... Dilleniaceæ, 2.

Seeds exarillate.

Albumen ruminant Anonaceæ, 4.

Albumen homogeneous.

Flowers hermaphrodite Rartunculaceæ, 1.

Flowers unisexual Schizandraceæ, 6.

Stamens monadelphous or polyadelphous Hypericaceæ, 41.

b. Carpels wholly combined into a solid pistil, with more placentas than one.

Placentas parietal.

Seeds exalbuminous Capparidaceæ, 16.

Seeds albuminous.

Embryo in a vitellus Nymphaeaceæ, 10.

Embryo not in a vitellus.

Seeds in pulp, sap watery Flacourtiaceæ, 18.

Seeds not in pulp, sap milky Papaveraceæ, 18.

Placentas in the axis.

Stigma umbrella-like, petaloid Sarraceniaceæ, 12.

Stigma simple.

Leaves compound..... Rhizobolaceæ, 49.

Leaves simple.

Petals equal in number to the sepals.

Seeds few.

Stigma nearly sessile, radiating or peltate Guttiferae, 42.

Stigma on a distinct style, five-lobed Humiriaceæ, 51.

Seeds numerous.

Petals flat Marcgraviaceæ, 43.

Petals crumpled Cistaceæ, 19.

Petals not equal in number to the sepals Ternströmiaceæ, 86.

2. *Leaves stipulate (with stipules).*

a. Carpels more or less distinct (at least as to the styles) or solitary.

Carpels indefinite Magnoliaceæ, 3.

b. Carpels wholly combined into a solid pistil, with more placentas than one.

Calyx imbricate or twisted in aestivation.

Flowers involucrate Chlénaceæ, 85.

Flowers not involucrate..... Cistaceæ, 19.

* This artificial analysis of the Orders of Thalamifloral Exogens is intended to aid the student in finding the order to which a plant belongs. Lindley's analytical method is followed with certain modifications, so as to adapt it to De Candolle's system.—(See Lindley's Vegetable Kingdom, p. 801) Such analyses are necessarily more or less imperfect, on account of the shortness of the characters given.

Calyx valvate in aestivation.	
Calyx irregular, enlarged in fruit.....	Dipterocarpaceæ, 84.
Calyx regular, not enlarged.	
Stamens monadelphous.	
Anthers, one-celled	Malvaceæ, 80.
Anthers, two-celled.	
Stamens columnar, all perfect	Sterculiaceæ, 81.
Stamens columnar, some sterile.....	Byttneriaceæ, 82.
Stamens distinct.....	Tiliaceæ, 83.

II. Flowers Oligandrous. Stamens fewer than 20.

1. <i>Leaves exstipulate.</i>	
a. Carpels more or less distinct, or solitary.	
Anthers with recurved valves.....	Berberidaceæ, 8.
Anthers with longitudinal valves.	
Albumen abundant, embryo minute.	
Flowers unisexual or polygamous.	
Seeds numerous	Lardizabalaceæ, 7.
Seeds solitary or twin.....	Xanthoxylaceæ, 64.
Flowers hermaphrodite.	
Embryo in a vitellus.....	Cabombaceæ, 9.
Embryo not in a vitellus.	
Herbs, with homogeneous albumen.	
Sepals two.....	Fumariaceæ, 14.
Sepals more than two.....	Ranunculaceæ, 1.
Shrubs, with ruminant albumen	Anonaceæ, 4.
Albumen scanty or 0, embryo large	Menispermaceæ, 5.
b. Carpels combined into a solid pistil or ovary.	
Placentas parietal.	
Stamens tetradynamous.....	Cruciforæ, 15.
Stamens not tetradynamous.	
Large hypogynous disk.	
Flowers tetramerous, fruit closed at apex	Capparidaceæ, 16.
Flowers not tetramerous, fruit open at apex ...	Rosaceæ, 17.
Small hypogynous disk or 0.	
Albumen abundant.	
Fruit fleshy or with central pulp.....	Flacourtiaceæ, 18.
Fruit without central pulp, juice milky....	Papaveraceæ, 13.
Albumen scanty or 0.....	Frankeniaceæ, 26.
Placentas covering the dissepiments.....	Nymphæaceæ, 10.
Placentas in the axis.	
Styles separate to the base.	
Calyx valvate.....	Vivianiaceæ, 29.
Calyx imbricate.	
Petals twisted in aestivation, embryo straight...	Linaceæ, 55.
Petals not twisted, embryo curved.....	Caryophyllaceæ, 28.
Styles more or less combined.	
Fruit gynobasic.	
Stamens arising from scales	Simarubaceæ, 66.
Stamens not arising from scales.	
Styles wholly combined.	
Flowers hermaphrodite	Rutaceæ, 63.
Flowers unisexual or polygamous.....	Xanthoxylaceæ, 64.
Styles divided at the apex.	
Flowers irregular.	

- | | |
|---|--------------------|
| Fruit with elastic recurved valves | Balsaminaceæ, 57. |
| Fruit without elastic valves | Tropæolaceæ, 58. |
| Flowers regular..... | Limnanthaceæ, 59. |
| Fruit not gynobasic. | |
| Calyx imbricate. | |
| Calycine divisions forming a complete whorl. | |
| Carpels four or more. | " |
| Seeds winged..... | Cedrelaceæ, 52. |
| Seeds wingless. | |
| Stamens united into a long tube..... | Meliaceæ, 50. |
| Stamens free, or nearly so. | |
| Leaves dotted | Aurantifacæ, 40. |
| Leaves without dots..... | Brexiaceæ, 61. |
| Carpels fewer than four. | |
| Seeds comose | Tamaricaceæ, 25. |
| Seeds not comose. | |
| Ovules ascending or horizontal..... | Pittosporaceæ, 60. |
| Ovules suspended..... | Cyrillaceæ, 39. |
| Calycine whorl irregular. | |
| Flowers symmetrical..... | Guttifera, 42. |
| Flowers unsymmetrical. | |
| Petals with appendages at their base ... | Sapindaceæ, 48. |
| Petals without appendages at their base. | |
| Fruit a samara..... | Aceraceæ, 47. |
| Fruit not samaroid. | |
| Flowers having a papilionaceous aspect. | |
| Ovary two-celled..... | Polygalaceæ, 22. |
| Ovary one-celled..... | Krameriaceæ, 23. |
| Calyx valvate. | |
| Anthers porose..... | Tremandraceæ, 24. |
| Anthers opening by slits. | |
| Calyx enlarging in fruit..... | Olaceæ, 37. |
| Calyx continuing small | Icacinaceæ, 88. |
| 2 <i>Leaves stipulate.</i> | |
| a. Carpels distinct or solitary. | |
| Anthers with recurved valves..... | Berberidaceæ, 8. |
| b. Carpels wholly combined, with more placentas than one. | |
| Placentas parietal. | |
| Leaves with circinate vernation and glandular hairs | Droseraceæ, 21. |
| Leaves with straight vernation and no glandular hairs | Violaceæ, 20. |
| Placentas in the axis. | |
| Styles distinct to the base. | |
| Calyx imbricated. | |
| Marsh plants, petals small, sessile..... | Elatinaceæ, 27. |
| Trees or shrubs, petals conspicuous, stalked..... | Malpighiaceæ, 45. |
| Calyx valvate..... | Tiliaceæ, 33. |
| Styles more or less combined. | |
| Fruit gynobasic. | |
| Gynobase fleshy | Ochnaceæ, 65. |
| Gynobase dry. | |
| Leaves regularly opposite | Zygophyllaceæ, 62. |
| Leaves more or less alternate. | |
| Fruit beaked... .. | Geraniaceæ, 54. |
| Fruit not beaked | Oxalidaceæ, 56. |
| Fruit not gynobasic. | |
| Calyx imbricate. | |

Flowers involucrate	Chilasnacæ, 85.
Flowers not involucrate.	
Stamens three	Hippocrateacæ, 44.
Stamens more than three.	
Calyx glandular.....	Malpighiacæ, 45.
Calyx not glandular.	
Embryo curved.....	Sapindacæ, 48.
Embryo straight.....	Erythroxylicæ, 46.
Calyx valvate.	
Stamens columnar.....	Sterculiacæ, 81.
Stamens not columnar.	
Stamens opposite to the petals if equal to them in number.....	Vitacæ, 53.
Stamens alternate with the petals if equal to them in number.....	Tiliacæ, 83.

Apetalous species occur in the following Thalamifloral orders:—Ranunculacæ, Menispermacæ, Papaveracæ, Flacourtiacæ, Caryophyllacæ, Sterculiacæ, Byttneriacæ, Tiliacæ, Malpighiacæ, Geraniacæ, Rutacæ, Xanthoxylacæ. Some species belonging to the orders Anonacæ and Rutacæ are Gamopetalous.

SUB-CLASS 2. — CALYCIFLORÆ.

1. POLYPETALÆ, OR DIALYPETALÆ.

1231. Nat. Ord. 67.—STACKHOUSIACEÆ, the Stackhousia order.—Herbs, occasionally shrubs, with simple, alternate, stipulate leaves. Calyx five-cleft, tube inflated. Petals five, arising from the top of the calycine tube, claws united. Stamens five, distinct, perigynous. Styles 3-5. Fruit of 3-5 monospermal, indehiscent carpels, with a central column. Seed anatropal, albuminous. The order contains a few New Holland plants. Known species 10. *Ill. Gen.*—Stackhousia.

1232. Nat. Ord. 68.—CELASTRACEÆ, the Spindle-tree order.—Shrubs or trees, with alternate, rarely opposite, simple, stipulate leaves. Sepals and petals 4-5, imbricate. Stamens 4-5, inserted on a large disk which surrounds the ovary. Fruit superior, 2-5-celled, capsular or drupaceous. Seeds usually arillate, albuminous, with a large straight embryo. Chiefly natives of the warm parts of Europe, North America, and Asia; also of the Cape of Good Hope. Known species about 270. *Ill. Gen.*—Euonymus, Catha, Celastrus, Elæodendron.

1233. The order is more or less acrid, and some of the plants yield oil.

Catha edulis is the Kat or Khât of the Arabs, the leaves of which are stimulant. *Celastrus* receives the name of False Bitter-sweet. *C. scandens* has a purgative and emetic bark. The plant is called Virginian Wax-work in America. *C. venenatus* is very spiny. *C. paniculatus* has stimulant seeds.

Elaeodendron. The species of this genus have drupaceous fruit, which is sometimes edible.

Euonymus europæus, the common Spindle-tree, has a beautiful scarlet arilode (Fig. 901, p. 299). The charred wood is used in France for cannon gunpowder, and the charred young shoots are employed in drawing. *E. tingens* has a yellow inner bark, which is used as a dye. *E. atro-purpureus* and *E. americanus* (sometimes called Strawberry-tree) have crimson capsules, and bright scarlet arilodes. The name Burning-bush is given to *Euonymus* in America.

1234. Nat. Ord. 69.—STAPHYLEACEÆ, the Bladder-nut order.—Shrubs allied to Spindle-trees, and distinguished by their compound leaves, with stipules and stipels, more or less separate carpels, and a bony spermoderm. Some consider them as having hypogynous stamens, and place them near Sapindaceæ. They are scattered over the globe. They receive the name of Bladder-nut from the membranous inflated fruit of some species, such as *Staphylea pinnata*. Their bark is often bitter, while their seeds are oily and acrid. Known species 14.

III. Gen.—*Staphylea*.

1235. Nat. Ord. 70.—RHAMNACEÆ, the Buckthorn order (Fig. 1451).—Shrubs or trees, often spinose, with simple, alternate leaves, and small flowers. Calyx 4-5-cleft, valvate. Petals 4-5, cucullate or convolute, inserted on the throat of the calyx, sometimes 0. Stamens 4-5, opposite the petals. Ovary sometimes adherent to the calycine tube, immersed in a fleshy disk; ovules solitary. Fruit a capsule, berry, or drupe. Seeds erect, albuminous, not arillate. Generally distributed. Known species 250.

III. Gen.—*Paliurus*, *Zizyphus*, *Hovenia*, *Rhamnus*, *Ceanothus*, *Phyllica*, *Pomaderris*, *Gouania*.

1236. The properties of the order are generally acrid and purgative. Some are bitter, tonic, and astringent; others yield dyes. The fruit of some is edible.

Ceanothus americanus. An infusion of the twigs is prescribed as an astringent, and the leaves are used for tea under the name of New Jersey tea.

Hovenia dulcis is remarkable for the enlargement of its peduncles, which become succulent, and are used as a fruit in China.

Rhamnus, Buckthorn, is the type of the order. *R. catharticus* yields a cathartic



Fig 1451

Fig. 1451. *Paliurus auleatus* or *Zizyphus Paliurus*, a thorny Rhamnaceous plant, supposed to be the Hebrew Shamir, translated Briars in many passages in Isaiah.

fruit. The syrup of Buckthorn, and the dye called sap-green or bladder-green, are prepared from it. The fruit of *R. infectorius*, *R. saxatilis*, and *R. amygdalinus*, constitute the French berries of the shops, which, in their unripe state, are used for a yellow dye.

Sageretia theezans is used for tea by the poor in China.

Zizyphus (Fig. 150, p. 63). The species of this genus supply eatable fruit in general. Jujube paste is prepared from the fruit of *Z. Jujuba* and *vulgaris*. *Z. Lotus* is the Lote-bush, the fruit of which is used by the Arabs. It gave its name to the ancient Lotophagi. The Hebrew Naazuz or Naatzutz, translated Thorn (Is. vii. 19, and lv. 13), perhaps refers to a species of *Zizyphus*. Royle conjectures that it may mean an *Acacia*.

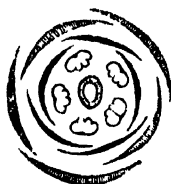


Fig. 1452.



Fig. 1454.

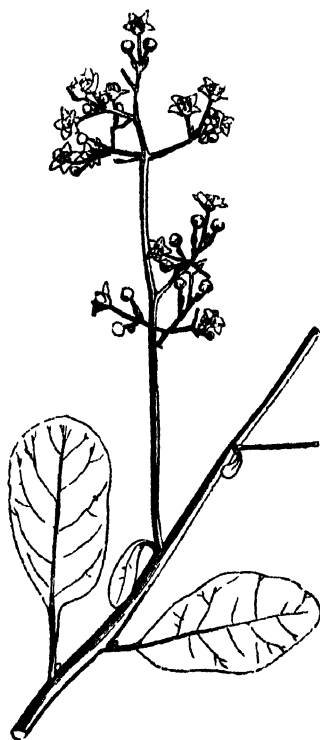


Fig. 1455.

1237. Nat. Ord. 71.—ANACARDIACEÆ, the Cashew order (Figs.

Figures 1452 to 1455 illustrate the natural order Anacardiaceæ.

Fig. 1452. Diagram of the flower of *Rhus*, showing five divisions of the calyx, five imbricate petals, five alternating stamens, a one-celled ovary, with a solitary ovule. Fig. 1453. Branch of *Rhus Cotinus* bearing cymose clusters of small flowers, and alternate, simple, exstipulate leaves. Fig. 1454. Branch of *Rhus Cotinus*, the Wig-tree, bearing hairs in place of flowers. Fig. 1455. *Pistacia Terebinthus*, the Terebinth tree, a native of the southern part of Europe and north of Africa. It yields the liquid resinous exudation called Chian Turpentine. It is supposed to be the Hebrew *Alah*, translated tree in Gen. xviii. 4. It is also translated oak, toll-tree, elm, and even plain (Gen. xiii. 18).

1452-1455).—Trees or shrubs, with alternate, exstipulate, dotless leaves, and small, sometimes unisexual, flowers (Fig. 1453). Sepals 3-5, united. Petals 3-5, imbricate. Stamens equal in number to the petals, and alternate with them, or twice as many or more, perigynous or attached to a disk. Ovary one-celled; styles and stigmas usually three; ovule solitary, with a long curved cord attached to a basal placenta. Fruit indehiscent, a nut or drupe. Seed exalbuminous, embryo curved. The order forms a part of the Terebinthaceæ of Jussieu. Chiefly found in tropical America, Africa, and India. Known species about 100. *Ill. Gen.*—*Pistacia*, *Schinus*, *Duvaua*, *Melanococca*, *Rhus*, *Melanorrhœa*, *Stagmaria*, *Mangifera*, *Anacardium*, *Semecarpus*, *Spondias*.



Fig. 1455.

1238. The plants abound in a resinous, or milky, acrid, and poisonous juice, which often becomes black in drying. The fruit, however, in some cases is eatable.

Anacardium occidentale, the Cashew-nut, has a fleshy edible peduncle supporting a nut, the kernel of which can be eaten, while the pericarp is acrid. The bark yields gum. The fruit of *A. orientale* is said to produce cerebral effects.

Mangifera indica produces the Mango, a highly valued tropical drupaceous fruit. The choicest kind of Mango in the East Indies is called Muldah. There are many varieties in the West Indies. Nos. 11 and 82 (being numbered so in the St. Andrews Botanical Garden, Jamaica) are among the best; the former being green-coloured, the latter yellow.

Melanorrhœa usitatissima is the source of the varnish of Martaban.

Pistacia Lentiscus and *atlantica* yield the resin called mastich. The former species abounds in the island of Chios, whence mastich is imported. *P. Terebinthus*, the Terebinth-tree (Fig. 1455) is the source of Chian turpentine. *P. vera* produces the *Pistacia* or *Pistachio* nut, with its green-coloured oily kernels. The Hebrew Botnîm, translated nuts (Gen. xliii. 11), seem to refer to the *Pistachio* nuts. *P. Khinjuk* and *P. cabulica* of Stocks, yield a resin which is used for mastich in Scinde.

Rhus, the Sumach, (Fig. 1453) supplies many poisonous species, the juice of which is acrid, and causes crisympelas. *R. Toxicodendron*, the Poison-oak or Poison-ivy, has been used as a remedy in paralysis. *R. venenata* is the poison Sumach, or Poison-elder. *R. typhina*, *R. glabra*, and *R. coriaria*, have acid fruits and astringent barks used for tanning. *R. Cotinus*, Venetian Sumach, (Fig. 1453) often produces hairs in place of flower-stalks (Fig. 1454) and is called the Wig-tree. Its wood is called young fustic. *R. Metopium* furnishes the hog-gum of

Jamaica. Crystalline wax, or insect wax of China, Pe-la of the Chinese, is procured from *Rhus succedaneum* by the instrumentality of an insect of the Cicada family.

Sabia, a genus doubtfully referred to this order, is said to be allied to Menispermaceæ, and probably forms the type of a new order, Sabiaceæ.

Schinus Molle, and other plants of the order, have leaves full of resin, which is expelled with force when they are thrown into water, and the recoil gives rise to a movement of the leaf.

Semecarpus Anacardium, the marking Nut-tree, supplies the black varnish of Sylhet.

Spondias. Several of the species, as *S. purpurea* and *S. Mombin* have eatable fruit called Hog-plums.

Stagmaria verniciflua, a plant of the Indian Archipelago, supplies the acrid resin called Japan Lacquer.

1239. Nat. Ord. 72.—AMYRIDACEÆ, the Myrrh order (Figs. 1456 and 1457).—Trees or shrubs, with alternate or opposite, compound,



Fig 1456



Fig 1457

occasionally stipulate and dotted leaves. Calyx 2-5-divided. Petals 3-5, valvate. Stamens twice as many as the petals. Ovary 1-5-celled, surrounded by an annular disk; ovules in pairs; placenta apicular. Fruit 1-5-celled, hard and dry; exocarp splitting into valves. Seeds anatropal, exalbuminous. Some consider the order as allied to Aurantiaceæ. Natives of tropical India, Africa, and America.

Figures 1456 and 1457 illustrate the natural order Amyridaceæ.

Fig. 1456 *Balsamodendron Myrrha*, supposed to yield Myrrh, the Hebrew *Mor* (Exod xxx 28; Esth. ii. 12; Psalm xlv. 8; Cant. iv. 6, v. 5, 18); and the *Murra* or *Smurna* of the Greek (Matt. u. 11; Mark xv. 23; John xix. 39). The plant has spiny branches and alternate compound leaves. Fig. 1457. Plants supposed to be the *Basam*, *Baal-Shemen*, or *Balsam-trees* of Scripture. They have alternate, ternate, *a*, or unequally pinnate leaves, *b*. The Hebrew *Basam* is translated spices in Exod. xxxv. 29, 1 Kings x. 10; Cant. v. 1, 18, vi. 2.

Known species about 50. *III. Gen.*—*Boswellia*, *Protium*, *Balsamodendron*, *Elaphrium*, *Bursera*, *Icica*, *Canarium*, *Amyris*.

1240. The order abounds in balsamic resin. Some of the plants are bitter, others poisonous.

Amyris hexandra and *A. Plumieri* are two of the sources whence *Elemi* is procured.

A. toxifera is poisonous. Some species yield a bark which is used for paper.

• *Balsamodendron*, *Balsam-tree*. This genus seems to furnish important products.

B. Myrrha (Fig. 1456), or an allied species, appears to be the source of the Hebrew *Mor*, or the *Myrrh* of commerce, which is an aromatic, bitter gum-resin, containing volatile oil. The *Balsam-tree*, the Hebrew *Basam* or *Baal-Shemen*, translated spices in many parts of the Bible, seems to be a species of *Balsamodendron* (Fig. 1457). It must not be confounded with the *Balm* and *Balm of Gilead* of Scripture, the *Tzeri* of the Hebrew, the source of which is unknown. *B. Mukul* and *B. pubescens* produce the resin called *Bdellium*.

Boswellia thurifera (serrata) and *B. glabra* supply *Olibanum*, which seems to be the Hebrew *Lebonah*, and Greek *Libanos*, translated *Incense* or *Frankincense* in the Bible. The bark of *B. papyrifera*, an Abyssinian tree, separates in thin white layers like the *Birch*.

Elaphrium tomentosum supplies one of the resins called *Tacamahac*. *E. elemiferum* yields *Mexican Elemi*.

Icica. Several species of this *Genus* yield balsamic resins and *incense-wood*.

I. Icariba supplies *Brazilian Elemi*. *I. altissima* produces the *Cedar-wood* of *Guiana*, used for making canoes.

1241. *Nat. Ord. 73.*—CONNARACEÆ, the *Connarus* order.—Trees or shrubs with alternate, compound, dotless, and usually exstipulate leaves. *Calyx* 5-parted, imbricate. *Petals* 5, usually imbricate. *Stamens* 10, perigynous or hypogynous, opposite the petals, usually united. *Carpels* one or more; style terminal; ovules 2, orthotropal. *Fruit* follicular. *Seeds* with or without albumen, often arillate. *Tropical American plants*. The aril of some *Omphalobiums* is eaten, and *Zebra-wood* is furnished by *O. Lamberti*. *Known species* 41. *III. Gen.*—*Connarus*, *Omphalobium*, *Cnestis*.

1242. *Nat. Ord. 74.*—LEGUMINOSÆ or *FABACEÆ*, the *Leguminous* order (Figs. 1458 to 1467).—Herbs, shrubs, or trees, with alternate,



Fig. 1458.



Fig. 1459.



Fig. 1461.



Fig. 1463.

usually compound, stipulate leaves (Fig. 297, p. 128). *Calyx* 5-divided (Fig. 1461), hypogynous, odd segment inferior (anterior). *Petals*

Figures 1458 to 1467 illustrate the natural order *Leguminosæ*.

Fig. 1458. Diagram of the papilionaceous flower of *Lathyrus*, showing five divisions of the calyx with the odd segment anterior, five irregular petals, consisting of vexillum, two alae and carina, the odd petal being posterior, ten stamens, diadelphous, and a one-celled ovary, which becomes the legume in

usually five, sometimes one or more abortive, papilionaceous or regular (Figs. 1459 and 1466, and Fig. 452, p. 187), odd petal (if any)



Fig. 1460.

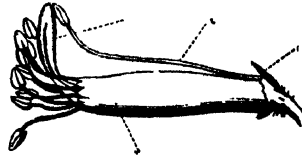


Fig. 1462.

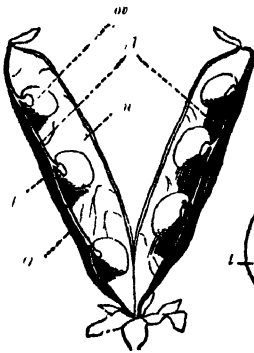


Fig. 1464



Fig. 1466.

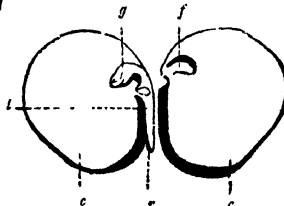


Fig. 1465.



Fig. 1467.

superior (posterior). Stamens definite or indefinite, perigynous, rarely hypogynous, distinct or united in one or more bundles (Figs. 1460, 1462). Ovary superior, one-celled, one or many-seeded, sometimes consisting of one carpel (Fig. 1463), sometimes of two or five. Style and stigma simple (Fig. 1463). Fruit a legume (Fig. 1464) or

fruit. Fig. 1459. Papilionaceous flower. Fig. 1460. Section of the flower of *Lathyrus*, showing the essential organs enclosed in the carina, and the vexillum above. Fig. 1461. Calyx of *Lathyrus*, showing five segments, with the odd one inferior or anterior. Fig. 1462. Essential organs of *Lathyrus*, showing nine separate (diadelphous), and the pistil with its curved style in the centre. Fig. 1463. Pistil of Broom, composed of one carpel, with the coiled style, arising from the upper or ventral suture. Fig. 1464. Legume of Pea, showing dorsal and ventral suture with the ovules, *ov*, attached to the latter, *pl*, by cords, *f*; the wall of the carpel formed of three layers, *ep*, epicarp, and *en*, endocarp, with the mesocarp between them. Fig. 1465. Exalbuminous embryo of the Pea, showing two fleshy hypogeal cotyledons, *cc* (sarcolobæ), radicle, *r*, plumule, *g*, raised from a depression, *f*, and tigellus, *t*. Fig. 1466. Flower of *Cercis Siliquastrum*, Judas-tree, showing the vexillum or upper petal interior, as in sub-order-Cesalpiniæ. Fig. 1467. *Alhagi Maurorum*, a kind of Camel's Thorn, a thorny plant, extending from the North of India to Syria, which exudes a sweetish juice. This concretes in small granular masses, which constitute Persian Manna. The plant is one of those supposed to have yielded the Manna of Scripture—Exod. xvi.; Numb. xi.

For farther illustrations of the order, see *Ononis spinosa*, Fig. 149, p. 62. Pinnated and stipulate leaves, Figs. 294 and 296, p. 127; Fig. 299, p. 128; and Fig. 300, p. 129. *Genista monosperma*, the Hebrew *Bothem*, Fig. 533, p. 206. Parts of papilionaceous flower, Figs. 685, 686, and 687, p. 207. Pistil of *Lathyrus*, Fig. 689, p. 243. Legumes of various kinds, Fig. 818, p. 276; Figs. 819-823, p. 277.

a drupe.* Seeds with or without albumen; embryo with large cotyledons (Fig. 1465). The order is a very extensive one, and the plants belonging to it are found in all parts of the world. They are most abundant in warm regions, and diminish on approaching the poles. Known species 6500.

1243. Leguminous plants have been divided into three sub-orders.—Sub-order 1. Papilionaceæ, petals papilionaceous, imbricate, upper one exterior (Figs. 1458 and 1459, and Fig. 476, p. 194). *Ill. Gen.*—Podalyria, Piptanthus, Chorozema, Pultenæa, Mirbelia, Liparia, Hovea, Borbonia, Crotalaria, Lotononis, Cytisus, Trifolium, Indigofera, Psoralea, Galega, Brongniartia, Astragalus, Vicia, Arachis, Coronilla, Hedysarum, Clitoria, Kennedyia, Glycine, Dioclea, Erythrina, Phaseolus, Cajanus, Rhynchosia, Abrus, Dalbergia, Sophora.—Sub-order 2. Cæsalpinieæ, petals imbricated, upper one interior (Fig. 1466). *Ill. Gen.*—Leptolobium, Cæsalpinia, Cassia, Swartzia, Amherstia, Bauhinia, Cynometra, Dimorphandra.—Sub-order 3. Mimoseæ (Fig. 76, p. 33), petals valvate in æstivation. *Ill. Gen.*—Parkia, Mimosa, Acacia.

1244. The properties of the order are very various. Some are nutritious, others tonic and astringent, others purgative, and some poisonous. The plants supply timber, fibres, gums, dyes, and various other economical articles.

Sub-order 1. PAPILIONACEÆ, Pulse Section.—Among the plants of this sub-order may be noticed, Beans, Peas, Lentils, Kidney-beans, and Pulse of various kinds, Lupins, Clover, Lucerne, Medick, Saintfoin, Liquorice, Tragacanth, Indigo, Kino. The greater number are more or less nutritious or wholesome. There are, however, some poisonous plants, as *Coronilla varia*, some Gompholobiums, seeds and bark of *Laburnum*, seeds of *Lathyrus Cicera*, and *L. Aphaca*, roots of *Phaseolus multiflorus* (the Scarlet-runner), and of *P. radiatus*, bark of the root of *Piscidia erythrina* (Jamaica Dogwood), branches and leaves of *Tephrosia toxicaria*, and the seed of an unknown species used in Calabar for trials by ordeal. Some of the plants, as *Desmodium gyrans* (Fig. 811, p. 133), display remarkable irritability in their leaves (p. 498). Many have very showy flowers, which render them favourites in cultivation.

Æschynomene. A species of this genus, *Æ. paludosa*, supplies Indian Rice-paper, the Shola of India.

Alhagi Maurorum (Fig. 1467), Camels-thorn, is said to yield a kind of manna.

Andira inermis, Cabbage-tree. The bark is anthelmintic.

Arachis hypogæa, Ground-nut, produces a subterranean legume. Its seeds yield an oil called in India Katchung-oil. It is used for burning, and for dressing cloth

Astragalus gummifer, verus, and other species, furnish Gum Tragacanth.

Baptisia tinctoria, the Wild Indigo of America, is used as a dye.

Butea frondosa, the Dhak-tree or Pulas of India, yields a kind of Kino. This plant in full flower is said to be a gorgeous sight. The mass of inflorescence, Dr. Hooker says, resembles sheets of flame. The bright orange-red petals contrast brilliantly with the jet-black velvety calyx.

Colutea arborescens, Bladder-Senna, is so called from its inflated legumes (Fig. 824, p. 278), and from being used as a substitute for the obovate Senna (Fig. 274, p. 122.)

Crotalaria juncea produces a fibrous bark, whence Sun or Bengal Hemp is prepared.

Cytisus (*Sarothamnus*) *scoparius*, the common Broom, acts as a diuretic.

Dalbergia Sissoo is a valuable timber-tree of India. The wood is called Sissoo and Sheeshum by the natives.

* See description of various kinds of legumes, pages 276, 277, and 278, also transformations of the pistil of Leguminous plants, p. 287.

- Dipterix odorata* has fragrant seeds called Tonka-beans. *D. oleifera* yields a fragrant seed called the Eboe-nut on the Mosquito shore.
- Ervum Lens*, Lentil (Fig. 251, p. 115), the Hebrew Adashim, when boiled forms a pottage of a red or chocolate colour, much valued in Egypt and Western Asia.
- Geoffroya superba* yields a drupaceous fruit, which is used by the Brazilians on the banks of the Rio San Francisco.
- Glycyrrhiza glabra* supplies Liquorice-root. Other species have similar roots, which owe their sweetness to the presence of Glycion.
- Indigofera tinctoria*, and *I. cærulea*, supply the Indigo of commerce. The peltate hairs of this genus separate it from *Tephrosia*.
- Mavia judicialis* of Bertoloni, is the Mavi of the Caffres, and yields a poisonous bark used by them as a test in judicial trials.
- Mucuna pruriens* and *prurita*, Cowitch, have legumes covered with irritating hairs, which are used mixed with syrup as a vermifuge. *M. urens* and *M. altissima* yield a black dye.
- Myrospermum peruvianum* of Sonsonate yields the Balsam of Peru, or St. Salvador Black Balsam, which is procured by incisions in the trunk. The fruit yields the white balsam of Sonsonate, which contains a crystalline substance called Myroxocarpine. *Myrospermum toluiferum* yields the Balsam of Tolu.
- Pterocarpus Marsupium*, an Indian tree, is the source of Malabar Kino. *P. erinaceus* yields a similar concrete exudation. *P. Dalbergioides*, and *P. indicus*, yield a kind of Kino in Maulmain. *P. santalinus* furnishes the dye called Red Sandal-wood. *P. Draco* yields Gum-Dragon.
- Pueraria tuberosa*. The tubers are collected and used for their cooling properties.
- Soja hispida*. The pods are used in the sauce called Soy.
- Triptolomea*. Several species of this genus are said to yield the Rose-wood of commerce.

Sub-order 2. CÆSALPINIÆ, Senna Section.—This sub-order is characterized chiefly by purgative and by dyeing properties. Among the important plants are Senna, Tamarind, Logwood, Sappan-wood, and Camwood.

- Baphia nitida* yields a dye-wood called Barwood or Camwood.
- Bauhinia Vahlia*. The fibres of its bark are used for ropes in Kumaon.
- Cæsalpinia Sappan* furnishes the Sappan, Wukkum, or Bukkum-wood of Scinde, which is used as a dye. *C. echinata* and other species supply the Pernambuco-wood of commerce, *C. brasiliensis*, the Brazil-wood. *Divi-divi* or *Libi-dibi* is the twisted legumes of *C. coriaria*; they are astringent, and are used in tanning. The legumes of *C. Papai*, under the name of Pi-pi, are also mixed with those of the last mentioned species.
- Cassia*. The species of this genus furnish the various kinds of Senna. Alexandrian Senna contains leaves of *Cassia acutifolia* (Fig. 255, p. 116), and *C. obovata* (Fig. 253, p. 115.) Bombay or Mecca Senna is the produce of *Cassia lanceolata* (Fig. 252, p. 115); Tinnevely Senna, of *Cassia elongata*, and *C. lanceolata*; Tripoli Senna, of *C. æthiopica*; and Aleppo Senna, of *C. obovata*. *C. Fistula* (*Cathartocarpus Fistula*), has an indehiscent legume, multicellular by spurious septa, and containing pulp which is secreted by the inner lining (Fig. 705, p. 247). *Cassia Chamæcrista* is the Sensitive Pea, or the Partridge Pea of America. Along with some other species it shows irritability in the leaves.
- Ceratonia Siliqua* (Fig. 771, p. 265), the Algaroba-bean or Carob-tree, has an edible legume, which is used as food for horses. Some call it St. John's Bread, from its supposed use by the Apostle in the Wilderness, under the name of Locust. It is called in Syria the Husk-tree, and its legumes are given to pigs. The fruit appears to be the Keratim or husks mentioned by St. Luke (See note, p. 265).
- Copaifera*. Various species yield the West Indian and Brazilian Balsam of Copaiva, which consists of a resin and oil, and is used in inflammations of the mucous membranes. *C. bracteata* and *pubiflora* furnish the Purple-Heart or Purple-Wood of Guiana, used for making musket ramrods.

Hæmatoxylon campechianum, the Logwood-tree, is used as a dye, and as an astringent in diarrhoea. The stem has often an irregularly fluted appearance.

Hymenæa Courbaril, West Indian Locust-tree, attains an enormous size, and supplies one kind of Anime resin. Its bark is vermifuge. Its wood, under the name of Locust-wood, is used by ship-carpenters. Its colour is light-yellow.

Mora excelsa is a large timber tree of Guiana, from 90 to 100 feet in height.

Poinciana pulcherrima. The bark and root are used in Mexico as a remedy in Lepra and other cutaneous diseases.

Tamarindus indica, the Tamarind-tree, contains in its pod a laxative pulp, which is a secretion from the endocarp.

Sub-order 8. MIMOSÆ, Gum Arabic Section.—In this sub-order gummy and astringent matters prevail.

Acacia. Various species, such as *A. Ehrenbergii*, *tortilis*, *vera*, and *arabica*, yield Gum Arabic and Gum Senegal. The Wattles of Australia are species with astringent barks. *A. dealbata* is used for tanning. *A. formosa* supplies the valuable Cuba-timber called Sabicu, which was used in forming the stairs of the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park. *A. Catechu* furnishes a kind of Catechu or Cutch in the East Indies. The pods of *A. nilotica*, under the name of Neb-neb, are used by tanners. *A. varians* is said to have poisonous qualities. *A. Seyal* is the Shittah-tree or Shittim-wood of the Bible (Fig. 76, p. 83, see note). The Babul or Babool wood, used for tanning in Scinde, is got from *A. arabica*. *Phyllodia* (Fig. 819, p. 186), are found in many of the Australian *Acacias*.

Entada scandens. The seeds are often wafted from the West Indies to the Outer Hebrides, and to the shores of Ireland.

Mimosa pudica (Fig. 812, p. 138), and *sensitiva*, display remarkable irritability in their leaves (p. 493).

1245. Nat. Ord. 75.—MORINGACEÆ, the Moringa order.—This order is considered as allied to Leguminosæ, the plants differing chiefly in their petaloid sepals, stamens arising from a perigynous disk, a pod-like capsular fruit with three valves, three parietal placentas, and loculicidal dehiscence, with the seeds buried in the substance of the valves. Lindley thinks that the parietal placentation, and other characters, places the order near Violaceæ, although differing in its perigynous stamens. Trees with pinnate or tripinnate leaves, found in the East Indies and in Arabia. Known species 4. *Ill. Gen.*—*Moringa*.

1246. The properties of the order are usually stimulant and pungent. Some species yield a fragrant oil.

Moringa pterygosperma, Horse-radish tree, has winged seeds, beautifully arranged in the pod, the body of the seed being in the spongy valves, and the wings spreading out in three directions. The root has the taste of Horse-radish, and has been used as a stimulant and rubefacient. The bark of the tree yields gum, and its seeds are called Ben-nuts, supplying Ben-oil, used by perfumers and watchmakers.

1247. Nat. Ord. 76.—ROSACEÆ, the Rose order (Figs. 1468 to 1478).—Trees, shrubs, or herbs, with alternate, usually stipulate leaves (Fig. 1470), and regular, rarely unisexual, flowers. Calyx 4-5-lobed, sometimes calyculate, fifth lobe posterior. Petals 5 (Fig. 1471), rarely 0. Stamens definite or indefinite. Disk lining the tube of the calyx (Fig. 1472), or surrounding its orifice. Ovaries solitary or several, one-celled (Fig. 1472), with one or few anatropal ovules.

Styles lateral (Fig. 1473), or terminal. Fruit achenes (Fig. 1472), drupes (Fig. 1474) or acini, follicles (Fig. 1475), or pomes (Fig. 1478).

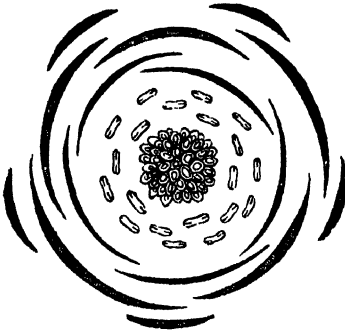


Fig. 1468.



Fig. 1470.



Fig. 1472.



Fig. 1471.

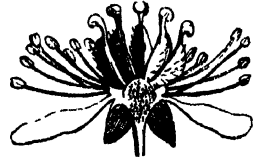


Fig. 1475.

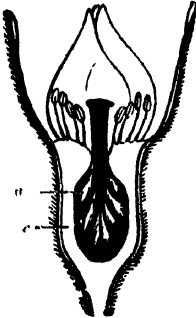


Fig. 1477.



Fig. 1478.

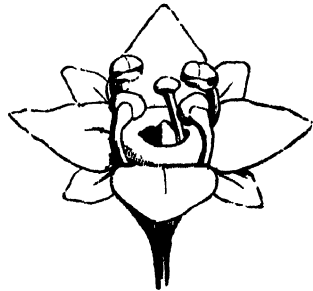


Fig. 1476.

Seeds one or more, exalbuminous, with a straight embryo having flat

Figures 1468 to 1478 illustrate the natural order Rosaceæ.

Fig. 1468. Diagram of the flower of the Strawberry, showing five outer calyx segments (epicalyx) five inner segments, odd one superior, five petals, numerous stamens and carpels. Fig. 1469. Diagram of the flower of the Rose, showing five divisions of the calyx, the odd one being superior (posterior) five petals, odd one inferior, numerous stamens and carpels. Fig. 1470. Branch of Rose, showing compound leaves and adnate stipules. Fig. 1471. Flower of Strawberry, showing five divisions of calyx, five petals, the odd one inferior. Fig. 1472. Flower of the Strawberry cut vertically, showing calyx, petals, stamens attached to the calyx, numerous one-seeded carpels on an elevated receptacle.

cotyledons (Fig. 1474). This order is generally distributed over the globe, but the species are most abundant in temperate climates, where

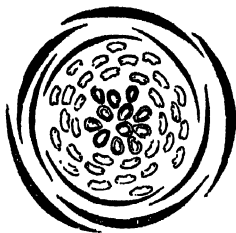


Fig. 1460.

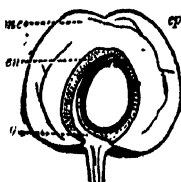


Fig. 1474.



Fig. 1478.

they supply many important fruits. The known species amount to about 985.

1248. The following are the divisions of the order:—Sub-order 1. Chrysobalanæ, trees or shrubs, carpel solitary, cohering more or less to one side of the calyx, ovules two, erect, style basilar, fruit a drupe, stipules not united to the petiole. *Ill. Gen.*—Chrysobalanus. Sub-order 2. Amygdalæ, or Drupifæræ, trees or shrubs, with a deciduous calyx-tube, carpel solitary, free, style terminal, fruit a drupe (Fig. 852, p. 285), stipules not united to the petiole. *Ill. Gen.*—Amygdalus, Prunus, Cerasus. Sub-order 3. Rosæ, herbs and shrubs, carpels not adhering to the tube of the calyx, styles terminal or lateral, fruit achenes or follicles, stipules united to the petiole. Under this sub-order there are four tribes:—Tribe 1. Spiræidæ, fruit a whorl of follicles, not enclosed within the calycine tube (Fig. 1475). *Ill. Gen.*—Kerria, Spiræa, Neillia, Gillenia, Brayera. Tribe 2. Potentillidæ (Dryadæ of some), calyx-tube short or nearly flat, not enclosing the fruit; fruit achenes or drupes (acini), five or more, upon a flat or convex receptacle (Fig. 424, p. 177). *Ill. Gen.*—Rubus, Fragaria, Potentilla, Sibbaldia, Geum, Dryas. Tribe 3. Sanguisorbidæ, achenes 1-2, enclosed within the dry calyx-tube, petals often 0 (Fig. 1476). *Ill. Gen.*—Alchemilla, Sanguisorba, Poterium, Agrimonia. Tribe 4. Rosidæ, achenes numerous, enclosed within the fleshy calycine tube, which is

Fig. 1478. Carpel of Strawberry (achene) with lateral style. Fig. 1474. Drupe of Cherry, with its epicarp, *ep*, fleshy mesocarp, *me*, stony endocarp, *en*, pendulous seed, *g*. Fig. 1475. Section of flower of Spiræa, showing perigynous stamens and follicular fruit. Fig. 1476. Flower of Alchemilla, with a double tetramerous calyx, four stamens, and a basilar style. Fig. 1477. Fruit of the Rose cut vertically, showing the thickened or disk-bearing calyx-tube, *c*, bearing the stamens, and enclosing the achenes, *a*, with their styles, which pass through the contracted throat of the calyx. The limb of the calyx is free above, and the petals are attached to the orifice of the calyx. Fig. 1478. Fruit of the Apple cut transversely, showing five carpels, which are enclosed in a fleshy disk-bearing calyx. The fruit may be considered as composed of carpels adhering by their back to the succulent calyx-tube which encloses them.

Additional Figures illustrating the order Rosaceæ. Leaves, stipules, and inflorescence, Fig. 302, p. 129; Figs. 373, and 375, p. 157; Fig. 613, p. 227; Fig. 895, p. 165. Calyculate calyx of Strawberry, Fig. 507, p. 200. Flowers, fruit, &c. of Drupifæræ, Fig. 688, p. 241; Fig. 612, p. 227; Fig. 770, p. 264. Follicle of Spiræa, Fig. 686, p. 242. Fruit of Rose, Fig. 425, p. 178. Stamen and style of Alchemilla, Fig. 642, p. 233; Fig. 737, p. 252. Monstrosities in Rosaceæ, Figs. 426 and 427, p. 178; Figs. 428, 429, and 430, p. 181.

contracted at the orifice (Fig. 1477). *III. Gen.*—*Rosa*. To these may be added the tribe *Quillaieæ*, with capsular fruit and winged seeds, as in the genera *Quillaia* and *Lindleya*; and the tribe *Neuradæ*, with the calyx adherent to a ring of ten carpels, and a pendulous seed, as in the genus *Neurada*. Sub-order 3. *Pomeæ*, trees or shrubs, carpels 1-5, adhering more or less to the tube of the calyx and to each other; fruit a pome (Fig. 1478, and 776, p. 267); stipules not united to the petiole. *III. Gen.*—*Cydonia*, *Pyrus*, *Mespilus*, *Cotoneaster*, *Cratægus*.

1249. Astringent properties are exhibited by the bark and root of most of the plants of the order. Prussic acid occurs in the sub-orders *Amygdalææ* and *Pomeæ*. Many of the plants supply edible fruits.

Sub-order 1. *CHRYSOBALANÆÆ*.—This sub-order is a tropical one, and produces edible, plum-like fruits.

Chrysobalanus Icaco, the Cocoa-plum, is a West Indian stone-fruit. *C. luteus* yields a similar fruit in Sierra Leone. The bark and leaves of the former have been used as an astringent in diarrhoea.

Sub-order 2. *AMYGDALÆÆ*, or *DRUPIFERÆÆ*.—Hydrocyanic acid is present in the leaves, flowers, and seeds of the plants of this sub-order. Their bark is astringent, and yields gum. The fruit is in many cases edible.

Amygdalus communis, the Almond-tree (Figs. 858 and 859, p. 286), is a native of Asia and Barbary, and is cultivated extensively to the south of Europe. It is the Hebrew *Luz* and *Shaked*. There are two varieties,—one producing sweet, and the other bitter almonds. The kernels of the former contain a fixed oil and emulsine, while those of the latter contain in addition a nitrogenous substance called *Amygdaline*, which, by combination with emulsine, produces a volatile oil and Prussic acid. The hydrocyanated oil of Bitter-almonds is used in the same way as Prussic acid. It sometimes gives rise to *Urticaria*. *A. persica* produces the Peach, and a variety yields the Nectarine.

Cerasus serotina, Black Cherry, is a large tree. The wood is used in America for cabinet-making. The bitter tonic and astringent bark, containing hydrocyanic acid, is employed in medicine under the name of *Prunus virginiana*. But *Prunus (Cerasus) virginiana* is a shrub with astringent fruit, and is called *Choke-Cherry*. *C. Laurocerasus*, Cherry-laurel, or common Bay-laurel, yields a hydrocyanated oil. Cherry-laurel water is employed medicinally as an anodyne and sedative. *C. avium* is the Wild-cherry, a variety of which is used in the preparation of *Kirschenwasser*. The kernels of species of *Cerasus* impart flavour to *noyau*, *ratafia*, cherry-brandy, and *maraschino*.

Prunus communis is the source of the common Plum. Varieties of this species are said to produce the *Sloe* (Fig. 148, p. 62) and *Bullace*. *P. lusitanica* is the Portugal laurel, a well-known evergreen. *P. Armeniaca* is the Apricot.

Sub-order 3. *ROSÆÆ*.—The plants in this section are chiefly characterised by astringent and febrifugal properties. They have frequently edible fruits, such as the Strawberry, the Raspberry, and the Bramble or Blackberry.

Brayera anthelmintica, *Cusso* or *Kouso*, an Abyssinian plant, is used as a vermifuge. *Potentilla Tormentilla* has an astringent root used for tanning. Many other *Potentillas* (*Cinquefoils*) have astringent and febrifugal qualities.

Quillaia saponaria is remarkable for its saponaceous bark, which abounds in saponine, and is used for soap.

Rosa canina, Dog-rose, yields an astringent fruit employed in diarrhoea. *R. gallica*, French or Provins Rose, is used in a similar way. *R. centifolia*, the common Cabbage-rose, and its varieties *R. damascena* and *R. moschata*, yield a fragrant essential oil, called *Attar of Roses*, which is distilled from the petals. Dr. Hooker

states, that 20,000 flowers of *Roses* (*R. damascena*) at Ghazepore are required to make a rupee weight of the attar, which sells for £10.

Spiræa Ulmaria, Meadow-sweet, has fragrant flowers, which are said to yield Prussic-acid. From the root of *S. Kamtschatica* a strong liquor is prepared in Kamtschatka.

Sub-order 4. **POMEÆ.**—Edible fruits are furnished by this sub-order, and the seeds yield Prussic-acid. Among the fruits are the Apple (*Pyrus Malus*), Pear (*P. communis*), Medlar (*Mespilus germanica*), Quince (*Cydonia vulgaris*), Loquat (*Eriobotrya japonica*). The Hawthorn, Service-tree, and Mountain-ash are also included in this sub-order.

1250. Nat. Ord. 77.—**CALYCANTHACEÆ**, the Calycanthus order.—Shrubs with quadrangular stems, having four woody axes surrounding the central one, opposite, entire, exstipulate leaves, and solitary lurid flowers. Calyx of numerous coloured sepals confounded with the petals, and all united below into a fleshy tube, bearing numerous stamens on its rim. Outer stamens extrorse; inner, sterile. Ovaries several, one-celled, adherent to the calycine tube; ovules one or two. Fruit, achænia enclosed by the calyx. Seed exalbuminous; cotyledons convolute. The plants are found in North America and Japan. Their flowers have an aromatic fragrance, and their bark is sometimes used as a carminative. *Calycanthus floridus*, Carolina Allspice, furnishes a bark which is sometimes used in place of Cinnamon. There are 6 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Calycanthus*, *Chimonanthus*.

1251. Nat. Ord. 78.—**LYTHRACEÆ**, the Loosestrife order.—Herbs, rarely shrubs, often with quadrangular branches, with usually opposite, and entire exstipulate leaves. Among these exalbuminous perigynous orders it is distinguished by its tubular calyx enclosing a 2-6-celled ovary which is free from it, its united styles, membranous capsular fruit, and stamens inserted on the calycine tube below the petals. The plants are chiefly tropical; some are found in Europe and in North America. Species 300. *Ill. Gen.*—*Peplis*, *Ammannia*, *Lythrum*, *Cuphea*, *Lawsonia*, *Lagerströmia*.

1252. Astringency is met with in many plants of the order. Some of them furnish dyes.

Cuphea. In the species of this genus the placenta bursts through the ovary and floral envelopes, and appears as an erect process bearing the young seeds.



Fig. 1479.

Fig. 1479. *Lawsonia inermis*, the Henna of the Arabs, supposed to be the Hebrew Kopher or Copher, translated Camphire in the Song of Solomon, i. 14, and iv. 13.

Lagerströmia Regiæ has winged seeds, which are said to be narcotic.

Lawsonia inermis (Fig. 1479), is supposed to be the Kopher of the Hebrew, translated Camphire in the Song of Solomon. It is the Henna or Alkanna of Cyprus and Egypt, which is used in the East for dyeing the nails, the palms of the hand, and the soles of the feet, of an iron-rust colour. The plant is also prized for the fragrance of its flowers. It is employed for dyeing morocco leather.

Lythrum Salicaria, Purple Loosestrife, a British plant, found also in New Holland, has been prescribed in diarrhœa.

1253. Nat. Ord. 79.—RHIZOPHORACEÆ, the Mangrove order.—Trees or shrubs, with simple, opposite leaves, having deciduous interpetiolar stipules. Calyx adherent, with 4-12 valvate lobes. Petals 4-12. Stamens twice or thrice as many. Ovary 2-4-celled, with 2 pendulous ovules in each cell. Fruit monospermal, indehiscent, crowned by the calyx. Seed exalbuminous; embryo germinating in the pericarp. The plants grow in the unhealthy maritime swamps of the tropics. Known species 21. *Ill. Gen.*—*Rhizophora*, *Kandelia*.

1254. Mangroves have usually astringent barks, employed as febrifuges and for tanning. Some are used for dyeing black.

Rhizophora Mangle, the Mangrove tree (Fig. 123, p. 58), has remarkable aerial roots, which descend into the mud at the mouths of rivers, and raise the stem of the plant upwards. The fruit of the plant is edible. The bark is used for tanning.

1255. Nat. Ord. 80.—VOCHYSIACEÆ, the Vochysia order.—Trees or shrubs, with their young branches often quadrangular, leaves entire, usually opposite and stipulate. Sepals 4-5, upper one spurred. Petals 1-5, unequal. Stamens 1-5. Fruit a triquetrous, 3-celled capsule, with a central placenta. Seeds exalbuminous, usually winged. Found in equinoctial America. Some of the plants are timber trees. Known species upwards of 50. *Ill. Gen.*—*Qualea*, *Vochysia*.

1256. Nat. Ord. 81.—COMBRETACEÆ, the Myrobalan order.—Trees or shrubs, with alternate or opposite, entire, exstipulate leaves, often apetalous. They are distinguished from the orders near them by their one-celled ovary, containing 2-4 suspended ovules, but only a single seed in the fruit, and convolute cotyledons. Natives of tropical regions. Known species 200. *Ill. Gen.*—*Bucida*, *Terminalia*, *Getonia*, *Conocarpus*, *Combretum*, *Quisqualis*, *Gyrocarpus*.

1257. The plants of this order have astringent properties. Some species are cultivated for ornament; others yield timber.

Combretum alternifolium. From the bark of this plant a gummy matter exudes.

Terminalia bellerica yields a fruit known by the name of Myrobalan. *T. Chebulæ* produces a similar fruit. Both are used as astringents. *T. Catappa* has edible seeds. *T. alata* has an astringent and febrifugal bark. *T. Benzoin* has a milky juice which, when dried, is used as incense.

1258. Nat. Ord. 82.—MELASTOMACEÆ, the Melastoma order.—Trees, shrubs, or herbs, with opposite, ribbed leaves, and showy flowers. The anthers are long, rostrate, and bent down parallel to the filaments in æstivation, lying in spaces between the calyx and ovary. The plants differ from *Lythraceæ* in the calyx-lobes not being valvate, and from *Myrtaceæ* in the leaves not being dotted. *Memecylon* has sometimes been made the type of a separate order on account of its adherent

calyx, ribless leaves, and convolute cotyledons. The plants are chiefly tropical. Known species about 2000. *Ill. Gen.*—Centradenia, Lasiandra, Melastoma, Osbeckia, Rhexia, Medinilla, Sonerila, Miconia, Clidemia, Memecylon, Mouriria.

1259. The plants of this order possess a slight degree of astringency. Some yield dyes, others edible fruits. None are poisonous.

Melastoma. The succulent fruit of many of this species is eaten, and the generic name implies that it dyes the mouth of a black colour. *M. malabathrica* has been employed medicinally in diarrhoea.

Mouriria Puse produces an edible fruit the size of a small Plum.

1260. Nat. Ord. 83.—ALANGIACEÆ, the Alangium order.—Trees or shrubs, with branches often spiny, leaves entire, alternate, exstipulate, and without dots. Calyx adherent, 5-10-toothed. Petals 5-10, linear, reflexed. Stamens equal in number to the petals, or two or four times as many; filaments villous at the base; anthers adnate, linear. Fruit a drupe adherent to the calyx. Seed anatropal, pendulous, albuminous; cotyledons flat. Natives of India and North America. Many of the plants supply timber; others have edible fruits. Some are aromatic. Known species 8. *Ill. Gen.*—Alangium, Marlea, Nyssa.

1261. Nat. Ord. 84.—PHILADELPHACEÆ, the Syringa order.—Shrubs, with opposite, deciduous, exstipulate, dotless leaves. Calyx adherent, 4-10-lobed, valvate. Petals alternate with the calycine segments. Stamens indefinite. Styles distinct or united. Fruit a half-inferior 4-10-celled capsule, with an axile placenta. Seeds albuminous. The species are scattered over Europe, North America, and India. The flowers of *Philadelphus coronarius*, common garden *Syringa*, have an overpowering odour, and yield an oil. It is called Mock Orange in America. The leaves of the plant taste like Cucumbers. The leaves of the species of *Deutzia*, especially *D. scabra*, are covered with beautiful star-like hairs or scales. The known species of the order amount to 25. *Ill. Gen.*—*Philadelphus*, *Decumaria*, *Deutzia*.

1262. Nat. Ord. 85.—MYRTACEÆ, the Myrtle order (Figs. 1480

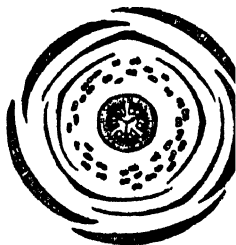


Fig. 1480.

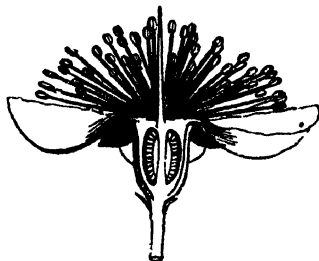


Fig. 1481.

to 1482).—Trees or shrubs, with entire, exstipulate, usually opposite

Figures 1480 to 1483 illustrate the natural order Myrtaceæ.

Fig. 1480. Diagram of the flower of *Myrtus*, showing five segments of the calyx, five petals with quincuncial aestivation, numerous stamens, a three-celled ovary with seeds attached to a central pla-

and dotted leaves (Fig. 1482), often having an intramarginal vein.



Fig. 1482

Calyx adherent (Fig. 1481), 4-5-cleft, sometimes operculate. Petals 4-5, sometimes none. Stamens usually ∞ (Fig. 1481), with long filaments and ovate anthers. Style simple. Fruit baccate in true Myrtæ and capsular in Leptospermæ. Seeds usually numerous, exalbuminous. Tropical and sub-tropical plants. Known species 1300. *III. Gen.*—*Melaleuca*, *Eucalyptus*, *Metrosideros*, *Leptospermum*, *Babingtonia*, *Punica*, *Psidium*, *Pimenta*, *Myrtus*, *Caryophyllus*, *Eugenia*, *Jambosa*.

1263. The plants of this order are generally aromatic, and yield a pungent volatile oil. Some of them are astringent, others yield gummy and saccharine matter.

Caryophyllus aromaticus, the Clove plant.

The unexpanded flower-buds constitute the Cloves of commerce. The roundish projection of the Clove is the unexpanded petals, which are surrounded by the tubular calyx. The name is a corruption of the French *clou*, and indicates the resemblance of this spice to a nail. The properties of Cloves are due to an aromatic pungent volatile oil.

Eucalyptus. The species of this genus have an operculate calyx, and their bark often separates in layers. They constitute the Gum-trees of Australia, which supply a large quantity of tannin. *E. resinifera* yields, on incision, an astringent matter called Botany-Bay Kino. *E. mannifera* exudes a sweet substance resembling manna. *E. dumosa* is often covered with a saccharine matter called Lurp, produced by the attack of a Coccus. *E. robusta* has cavities in its stem containing a red gum. What is called a Box-flat in Australia is one covered with *Eucalypti*.

Eugenia Pimenta bears an aromatic fruit, having the flavour of Cloves, Cinnamon, and Nutmeg, and which, when dried, constitutes Allspice, Pimento, or Jamaica Pepper. *E. acris* also supplies Pimento. *E. malaccensis* and *E. Jambos* produce the Rose-apples of the East. *E. cauliflora* supplies an edible fruit in Brazil, called Jaboticaba.

Leptospermum. The leaves of some of the species, as *L. scoparium*, are used in Australia as a substitute for Tea.

Melaleuca minor. Its leaves furnish the green pungent oil of Cajeput, which dissolves caoutchouc, and which has been used externally as a rubefacient, and internally as a stimulant and carminative. The leaves of some species are used as Tea.

Metrosideros. Some of the species supply hard and heavy timber, from which the clubs and other weapons of the South Sea Islanders are made.

Myrtus communis, the common Myrtle (Fig. 1482), is the most northern species of

centa. Fig. 1481. Flower of Myrtle cut vertically, showing adherent calyx, separate petals, numerous stamens inserted into the calyx, inferior ovary with ovules, and a simple style. Fig. 1482. *Myrtus communis*, the common Myrtle, the Hadas of the Hebrew, as noticed in Neh. viii. 15; Isaiah xli. 19, iv. 13; Zech. i. 8, 10, 11.

the order. Its buds and berries have been used as spices. A fragrant distilled water is prepared from the flowers. The plant is the Hadas of the Bible.

Psidium. Species of this genus supply the fruit called Guava. The chief sources are *P. pyriferum*, *P. pomiferum*, and *P. Cattleyanum*. *P. pygmeum* yields a fine-flavoured fruit, the size of a Gooseberry.

Punica Granatum, the Pomegranate, is the Rimmon of Scripture.* The fruit has a peculiar structure (Figs. 865, 866, p. 288). Various parts have been used medicinally, (especially for the cure of tape-worm), such as the bark of the root, the crimson flowers called *Cytinus* by Dioscorides, the double flowers or *Balaustium*, and the rind of the fruit or the *Mallorium* of the Romans. The latter is said to form the principal material for tanning morocco leather. Some look upon *Punica* as an osculant genus connecting *Myrtaceæ* with *Lythraceæ* and *Onagraceæ*, and forming the type of a distinct order.

1264. Nat. Ord. 86.—CHAMÆLAUCIACEÆ, the Fringe-Myrtle order.—Small heath-like bushes, with evergreen leaves abounding in oil. Allied to *Myrtaceæ*, but differing in their fringed or feathery calyx, sterile staminal row, and 1-celled ovary. They are fragrant New Holland plants. Known species 50. *Ill. Gen.*—*Calytrix*, *Chamælaucium*, *Darwinia*.

1265. Nat. Ord. 87.—LECYTHIDACEÆ, the Monkey-pot order.—Large trees, with stipulate leaves and showy flowers. Allied to *Myrtaceæ*, but distinguished by their large almond-like seeds, their alternate, dotless leaves, and by their stamens being in part collected into a hooded plate. The fruit is a woody capsule, often with circumscissile dehiscence (Fig. 1483). Natives of the warm regions of South America. Known species 38. *Ill. Gen.*—*Couratari*, *Lecythis*, *Bertholletia*, *Couroupita*.

1266. Many of the plants yield edible seeds. Their seed-vessels are sometimes used as cups and bowls, and their wood is put to economic uses.



Fig. 1483.

Bertholletia excelsa. The seeds of this tree are the Brazil, Castanha, or Para nuts of the shops. The tree often attains a height of 120 feet.

Couroupita guianensis is called the Cannon-ball tree, from the form of its seed-vessel. It is called Wild Apricot in Cayenne.

Lecythis ollaria is one of the largest trees in the Brazilian forests. Its seed-vessel receives the name of Monkey-pot. The seeds are called Sapucaya nuts, and are much relished by monkeys, which are sometimes entrapped by the capsule when grasping the nuts. The liber separates easily into numerous layers. A small-fruited *Lecythis* is called by the Indians *Macacarecuya* or Monkey's drinking-cup.

1267. Nat. Ord. 88.—BARRINGTONIACEÆ, the Barringtonia order.—Trees or shrubs referred by most authors to the Myrtle alliance, but distinguished by the presence of a large quantity of albumen, alternate, dotless, and often serrated leaves. The fruit is pulpy. Natives of the tropics. The bark of some of the plants is bitter and tonic. Known species 28. *Ill. Gen.*—*Barringtonia*, *Careya*, *Gustavia*.

Fig. 1483. Pyxidium or operculate capsule of *Lecythis ollaria*. It is called Monkey-pot. The seeds in the interior are eaten by monkeys.

* The Pomegranate is noticed in various parts of the Bible, as in Exod. xxviii. 33; Num. xx. 5; Deut. viii. 8; 1 Kings vi. 18, 20, 43; Cant. viii. 2, &c. Its acid juice was used as a cooling sherbet. The English name is derived from the pomum granatum (grained apple) of the Romans.

1268. Nat. Ord. 89.—ONAGRACEÆ, the Evening-Primrose order (Figs. 1484 and 1485).—Herbs or shrubs, with alternate or opposite, simple, exstipulate, dotless leaves, and showy tetramerous flowers. Calyx superior, tubular, limb 4-lobed, valvate. Petals usually 4, twisted in æstivation. Stamens epigynous, generally 4 or 8; pollen triangular (Fig. 1485). Ovary 2-4 celled; styles united; stigma capitate or 4-lobed. Fruit capsular or baccate. Seeds exalbuminous. Chiefly natives of the temperate parts of America. Known species 450. *Ill. Gen.*—*Jussiaea*, *Isnardia*, *Oenothera*, *Godetia*, *Clarkia*, *Epilobium*, *Fuchsia*, *Lopezia*, *Circea*, *Gaura*.

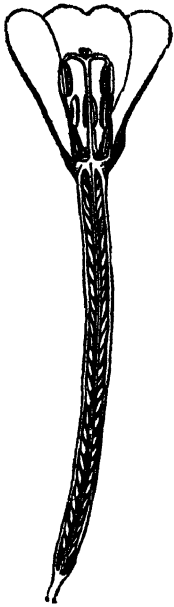


Fig. 1484.



Fig. 1485.

1269. The plants of this order have mucilaginous and astringent properties. Some yield edible roots and fruits.

Epilobium, Willow-herb (Fig. 1484). The species have an elongated 4-valved capsule, and comose seeds.

Fuchsia is remarkable for its coloured calyx and succulent subacid fruit.

Oenothera, Evening Primrose, is so called, because many of the species open their flowers at night. *O. biennis* and other species are cultivated on account of their edible roots.

1270. Nat. Ord. 90.—HALORAGEACEÆ, the Mare's-tail order.—



Fig. 1486.

Herbs or undershrubs, often aquatic, with alternate, opposite, or whorled leaves, and small, frequently incomplete flowers. They may be regarded as an imperfect form of Onagraceæ, from which they are distinguished by their minute calyx, and their solitary pendulous seeds. They are frequently apetalous, and the stamens are sometimes reduced to one. They are found in all quarters of the globe. Known species 70. *Ill. Gen.*—*Hippuris*, *Myriophyllum*, *Haloragis*, *Trapa*.

1271. Some of the plants of the order yield edible seeds; others have a fragrant odour.

Hippuris vulgaris, common Mare's-tail, has a beautiful necklace-like arrangement of cells in its stem, with large air cavities.

Figures 1484 and 1485 illustrate the natural order Onagraceæ.

Fig. 1484. Flower of *Epilobium*, showing the long pod-like ovary adherent to the tube of the calyx, the epigynous petals and stamens, with the single style and papillose lobed stigma. Fig. 1485. Triangular pollen of *Oenothera*, with a single pollen tube protruded.

Fig. 1486. *Trapa natans*, belonging to the order Halorageaceæ. It is called Water-chestnut (Marron d'eau of the French). Its petioles are inflated in order to float the plant; and its seeds are edible.

Trapa natans, the Water-Chestnut (Fig. 1486), furnishes edible seeds, which are said to have constituted the food of the ancient Thracians. *T. bicornis* has a remarkable horned fruit like the head of a bull. The plant abounds in shallow lakes in China, and is called Ling by the Chinese, who use the seeds for food. The seeds of *T. bispinosa* are eaten in India. The species of this genus have unequal cotyledons.

1272. Nat. Ord. 91.—LOASACEÆ, the Chili-Nettle order.—Herbs with rigid or stinging hairs, opposite or alternate, exstipulate leaves, and showy flowers. Calyx adherent, limb 4-5-parted. Petals 5 or 10, often cucullate. Stamens ∞ , distinct or united in bundles. Ovary 1-celled, with several parietal placentas; style single. Fruit capsular or succulent. Seeds albuminous. American plants, some of which receive the name of Chili-Nettles on account of the stinging property of their hairs. Known species 75. *Ill. Gen.*—*Mentzelia*, *Bartonia*, *Loasa*, *Gronovia*.

1273. Nat. Ord. 92.—CUCURBITACEÆ, the Gourd order (Figs. 1487

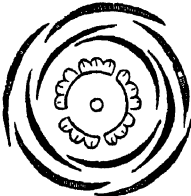


Fig. 1487.



Fig. 1491.

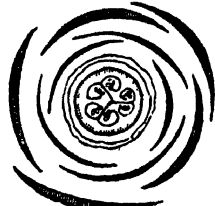


Fig. 1488.



Fig. 1490.



Fig. 1460.

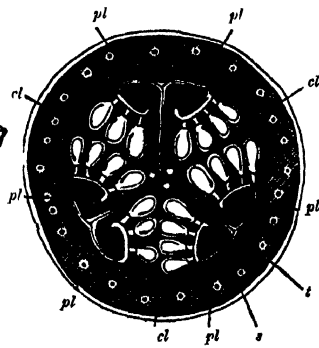


Fig. 1492.

to 1493).—Succulent climbing plants, with extra-axillary tendrils (in place of stipules), alternate, palmately-veined, scabrous leaves, and

Figures 1487 to 1493 illustrate the natural order Cucurbitaceæ.

Fig. 1487. Diagram of the male flower of the Melon, showing five divisions of the calyx, five imbricate segments of the corolla, five stamens with sinuous anthers, four of the stamens being united in pairs, and the fifth one free; in the centre is seen the abortive ovary. Fig. 1488. Diagram of

unisexual flowers. Calyx adherent, limb 5-toothed (Fig. 1490) or obsolete. Petals 4-5, usually united, reticulated (Fig. 1489). Stamens generally 5, distinct or combined; anthers long and sinuous (Fig. 1491).



Fig. 1493.

Ovary 1-celled, inferior, with 3 parietal placentas (Fig. 1492); stigmas thick, dilated or fringed. Fruit a pepo (page 288). Seeds flat, exalbuminous; cotyledons leafy. Chiefly natives of hot countries; they abound in India and South America. Known species about 300. *III. Gen.*—*Anguria, Bryonia, Citrullus, Ecbalium, Momordica, Luffa, Lagenaria, Cucumis, Cucurbita, Coccinia, Trichosanthes, Telfairia, Feuillæa, Sicyos.*

1274. The plants of the order may be said in general to possess a certain degree of acidity, which is sometimes so marked as to give rise to drastic purgative qualities. In many cases, however, as in the Melon, the Cucumber, the Vegetable Marrow, Gourd, Pumpkin, and Squash, the fruit is edible when cultivated. The seeds are usually harmless.

Bryonia alba and *B. dioica* have large roots, which are powerful purgatives. Their young shoots are used as potherbs.

Citrullus (*Cucumis*) *Colocynthis, Coloquintida, or Bitter Apple* (Fig. 1493), has a round fruit, the pulp of which is the *Colocynth* of the shops. It is supposed to be one of the plants included under the Hebrew word *Pakyoth*, and translated *Wild Gourds* in Scripture, 2 Kings iv. 39.

Cucumis sativus (Fig. 869, p. 289), yields the common Cucumber. It is the Hebrew *Kishuim* (Numb. xi. 5; Is. i. 8). *C. Melo* (Fig. 322, p. 137, Fig. 327, p. 139) is the Common Melon, one of the plants referred to in Scripture under the name *Abattachim*.

Cucurbita Citrullus, the *Water Melon* (Fig. 870, p. 289), is supposed to be one of the plants included under the Hebrew *Abattachim*, translated *Melons* in Scripture (Numb. xi. 5). The juice of its fruit is cool and refreshing. *C. maxima*, the *Red Gourd, C. Pepo* or *Benincasa cerifera*, the *White Gourd*, and *C. ovifera*, *Vegetable Marrow*, are used as culinary vegetables.

Ecbalium purgans (*Momordica* Elaterium*), is called *Squirting Cucumber*, on account of the elastic mode in which its seeds are scattered (page 413). The feculence deposited from the juice of the fruit constitutes the *hydragogue cathartic* called *Elaterium*.

Lagenaria vulgaris, *Bottle Gourd*, is so called on account of the fruit being used as bottles, after the pulp and seeds have been removed.

the female flower of the Melon, showing a similar arrangement of the floral envelopes, an abortive circle of stamens, and the ovary, with three parietal curved placentaries sending processes towards the centre. Fig. 1489. Male flower of the Melon, showing the gamosepalous hairy calyx, with a five-toothed limb, and five reticulated petals. Fig. 1490. Female flower of the Melon, showing the adherent hairy calyx, with its toothed limb, and five reticulated imbricate petals. Fig. 1491. Stamens of the Melon, with anfractuose (sinuous) anthers, and appendages projecting above the lobes. (See Pollen, Figs. 653, 654, p. 234). Fig. 1492. Transverse section of the Pepo of the Melon, showing the three parietal placentaries, *p*, which send processes, *s*, from the circumference or back of the carpels, *t*, towards the centre. The divisions between the carpels are marked, *cl*. Fig. 1493. *Citrullus* or *Cucumis Colocynthis*. The *Colocynth* plant, with its palmately-veined leaves, cirrhone stipules on one side of the leaf, and pulpy fruit or Pepo.

* A true *Momordica* has a solitary bract on the peduncle, which this plant wants.

Luffa fistida. The fruit, when ripe, consists of entangled fibres, which are divided into three parietal masses.

Sechium edule furnishes the fruit called Chocho, which is esculent.

Telfairia pedata has edible seeds as large as Chestnuts, and having the flavour of Almonds.

1275. Nat. Ord. 93.—PAPAYACEÆ, the Papaw order (Fig. 1494).—Trees or shrubs often having an acrid milky juice, with alternate, lobed, long-petioled leaves, and unisexual flowers.

The plants are distinguished from Cucurbitaceæ by not climbing, and by having a free ovary with 5 placentas and albuminous seeds. The natural order Pangiaceæ may be included, which differs only in having a polypetalous corolla and scales attached to the throat of the female flower. Papayaceæ are chiefly found in South America; Pangiaceæ in India. Known species about 30. *Ill. Gen.*—*Carica*, *Modecca*, *Pangium*, *Hydnocarpus*.

1276. Many of the Papaw-worts have an acrid milky juice, while the Pangiads are poisonous.

Carica Papaya (Fig. 1494), the Papaw-tree, has an edible fruit. The juice of the unripe fruit is said to render meat tender, and to act medicinally as a vermifuge. The leaves are used in Panama as a substitute for soap. *C. digitata* is reputed poisonous in Brazil.

Hydnocarpus venenatus, is so called on account of its poisonous narcotic fruit, which is used in Ceylon for intoxicating fish.

1277. Nat. Ord. 94.—BELVISIACEÆ, the Belvisia order.—Shrubs, with simple, alternate, leathery, exstipulate leaves. Calyx, a thick coriaceous cup, with 5 segments, valvate. Corolla of 3 distinct gamopetalous rings, the first being large and conspicuous, and consisting of 5 lobes, each with 7 ribs and 7 teeth, the second being a narrow membrane cut into sharp pointed segments, the third being an inconspicuous membranous cup finely cut. Stamens 20, in an erect cup-like form, unequally united. Disk fleshy, cup-like, covering the ovary, and standing as high as the stigma. Ovary 5-celled; ovules 2 in each cell, suspended from an axile placenta; style and stigma pentagonal. Fruit a large round berry crowned by the calyx. Seeds large and reniform. Natives of tropical Africa. The pulp of the fruit is eatable, and the rind contains so much tannin as to be used for making ink; the wood is soft, and contains numerous dotted vessels. Bentham considers the order as a section of Myrtaceæ, while Lindley considers it as allied to Rhizophoraceæ. Known species 4. *Ill. Gen.*—*Aster-anthos*, *Napoleona* (*Belvisia*).

1278. Nat. Ord. 95.—PASSIFLORACEÆ, the Passion-flower order.



Fig. 1494.

Fig. 1494. *Carica Papaya*, the Papaw-tree, belonging to the natural order Papayaceæ. It is a South-American tree, with large lobed leaves supported on long petioles. The fruit is borne at the upper part of the stem.

—Herbs or shrubs usually climbing by tendrils, with alternate, stipulate, sometimes glandular leaves. Calyx of 5 sepals, united below, the throat bearing 5 petals and filamentous or annular processes. Stamens 5, monadelphous, surrounding the gynophore; anthers extrorse. Ovary free from the calyx, 1-celled; styles 3, club-shaped. Fruit mostly fleshy, stalked, 1-celled, with 3 parietal polyspermous placentas. Seeds albuminous, arillate. They are common in tropical America. Known species 210. *Ill. Gen.*—*Paropsia*, *Passiflora*, *Tacsonia*.

1279. Astringent and narcotic qualities appear to prevail in the order. Many of the species, however, produce edible fruits.

Paropsia edulis, a Madagascar plant, has an eatable fruit.

Passiflora, Passion-flower, so called from a fancied resemblance in the parts of the flowers to the appearances presented on Calvary at the Crucifixion. *P. quadrangularis* produces the large *Granadilla*, a well-known West Indian fruit. Other species of *Passiflora*, such as *P. maliformis*, *P. edulis*, and *P. laurifolia*, also furnish fruit which is used as a dessert. The roots of *P. quadrangularis*, and the flowers of *P. rubra* are narcotic, while the leaves of *P. laurifolia* are bitter and anthelmintic.

Tacsonia mollissima, and *T. tripartita*, have edible fruits.

Some include the genera *Malesherbia* and *Gynopleura* in this order. By Lindley they are placed in a separate order, *Malesherbiaceæ*, *Crownworts*, differing from *Passionworts* in their non-climbing habit, in the want of stipules and aril, and in the styles arising from the back of the ovary. There are four species which are natives of Chili and Peru.

1280. Nat. Ord. 96.—TURNERACEÆ, the *Turnera* order.—Herbs, sometimes shrubby plants, having a *Cistus*-like habit, with alternate, exstipulate, pubescent leaves. Calyx 5-lobed, bearing 5 petals and 5 stamens. Ovary free, 1-celled, with 3 parietal placentas and 3 styles which are often forked or multifid at the apex. Fruit a 3-valved capsule. Seeds albuminous, strophiolate at one side. The plants have astringent, tonic, and occasionally aromatic qualities, and are natives of South America and the West Indies. Known species 60. *Ill. Gen.*—*Turnera*, *Piriqueta*.

1281. Nat. Ord. 97.—PORTULACACEÆ, the *Purslane* order.—Succulent herbs or shrubs, with alternate or opposite, entire, exstipulate leaves. Calyx of 2 coherent sepals. Petals 5. Stamens variable in number, sometimes opposite the petals; anthers versatile. Ovary 1-celled, formed of 3 united carpels. Fruit capsular, usually dehiscent by valves or by a lid (Fig. 1495). Seeds numerous, albuminous, attached to a central placenta; embryo peripheral. This order has the stamens sometimes hypogynous, and it has been placed near *Caryophyllaceæ* by some authors. The plants are found in dry places, in various parts of the world, more particularly in South America and at the Cape of Good Hope. Known



Fig. 1495.

Fig. 1495. Seed-vessel of *Portulaca*, Purslane, opening by a lid. Seeds attached to a central placenta.

species 190. *III. Gen.*—*Portulaca*, *Grahamia*, *Talinum*, *Calandrinia*, *Claytonia*, *Montia*.

1282. Esculent and antiscorbutic qualities prevail in the order. Some have showy flowers, which are ephemeral.

Claytonia tuberosa has a tuberous root, which is eaten in Siberia. *C. perfoliata* is used as a potherb in North America.

Portulaca oleracea, common Purslane, has been long celebrated as an esculent vegetable. It has antiscorbutic qualities.

1283. Nat. Ord. 98.—ILLECEBRACEÆ or PARONYCHIACEÆ, the Knotwort order.—Herbaceous or suffruticose plants, with opposite or alternate, often clustered, sessile, entire, stipulate leaves, and minute flowers. Sepals 3-5, distinct or cohering. Petals small, sometimes 0. Stamens opposite the sepals, if equal to them in number. Ovary superior; styles 2-5. Fruit dry, 1-3-celled, indehiscent or opening by 3 valves. Seeds either numerous and attached to a free axile placenta, or solitary and pendulous from a cord attached to a basal placenta. Seeds albuminous; embryo curved. This order is by some placed near Caryophyllaceæ, from which it differs in the presence of scarious stipules and in its perigynous stamens. The plants are natives chiefly of barren places in the South of Europe and north of Africa, and their properties are astringent. In this order some include *Scleranthus*, *Basella*, *Mellocca*, and a few allied genera, embracing in all 26 species. These differ, however, from Knotworts in the absence of petals and stipules. Lindley looks upon them as allied to *Chenopodiaceæ*, and places them in distinct orders, *Scleranthaceæ* and *Basellaceæ*. The known species of Knotworts are about 100. *III. Gen.*—*Corrigiola*, *Herniaria*, *Illecebrum*, *Loefflingia*, *Paronychia*, *Polycarpon*, *Spergula*, *Spergularia*.

1284. Nat. Ord. 99.—CRASSULACEÆ, the Stonecrop order (Figs. 1496-1499).—Succulent herbs or shrubs, with exstipulate leaves and cymose, often secund flowers (Fig. 1497). Sepals 3-20, more or less combined. Petals 3-20, separate or united. Stamens equal in number to the petals, or twice as many. Carpels 1-celled, of the same number as the petals, having hypogynous scales at their base (Fig. 1499, and Fig. 678, p. 240). Fruit follicular. Seeds numerous, albuminous. Natives of dry places in all parts of the world. Known species 450. *III. Gen.*—*Tillæa*, *Crassula*, *Bryophyllum*, *Cotyledon*, *Echeveria*, *Sedum*, *Sempervivum*, *Penthorum*.

1285. Acridity prevails in many plants of this order. Some species are refrigerant, others astringent.

Bryophyllum calycinum (Fig. 334, p. 141), has a gamopetalous corolla, and produces marginal buds on its leaves.

Sedum Telephium has been employed in diarrhoea as an astringent. *S. acre*, Biting Stonecrop (Fig. 1497), possesses acridity, and has emetic and purgative properties.

Sempervivum tectorum, Houseleek, constantly bears ovules instead of pollen. It contains malate of lime, and is reputed a cooling remedy.

Under this order some include the Chilian genera, *Francoa* and *Tetilla*, containing five species. Others place them in a distinct order, *Francoaceæ*, differing from the *Stonecrop* order in the absence of scales, in their consolidated ovary, and in their minute embryo in the base of much albumen.

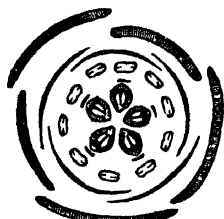


Fig. 1496.



Fig. 1499.



Fig. 1498.



Fig. 1497.

1286. Nat. Ord. 100.—MESEMBRYANTHEMACEÆ or FICOIDEÆ, the Fig-Marigold order (Figs. 1500 to 1502).—Succulent shrubs or herbs, with opposite simple leaves and often showy flowers. Sepals 4-8, more or less united. Petals and stamens ∞ . Capsule usually many-celled, opening in a stellate manner (Figs. 1501 and 1502); placenta central or parietal. Seeds numerous, albuminous; embryo curved or spiral. Natives of the hot sandy plains of the Cape of Good Hope; a few also are found in Europe, South America, and China. Known species 375. *Ill. Gen.*—*Mesembryanthemum*, *Glinus*, *Orygia*, *Lewisia*.

1287. Some of the plants are esculent, others furnish alkaline matter, while a few are diuretic.

Lewisia rediviva has great powers of vitality. Its root is farinaceous, and is used as food in Oregon.

Mesembryanthemum crystallinum is called the Ice-plant, on account of the watery vesicles on its surface. It is burned along with other species to furnish soda.

The watery fluid on the leaves of the Ice-plant, according to Voelcker, consists

Figures 1496 to 1499 illustrate the natural order Crassulaceæ.

Fig. 1496. Diagram of *Sedum*, Stonecrop, showing five sepals, five petals, ten stamens in two rows, and five carpels with hypogynous scales. Fig. 1497. *Sedum acre*, Biting Stonecrop, with its second yellow flowers in a racemose cyme. Fig. 1498. Flower of *Sedum acre*, showing five petals, ten stamens in two verticils, and five carpels forming the pistil. Fig. 1499. Fruit of *Sedum acre*, consisting of five follicles with glands at their base. See also Fig. 678, p. 240.

of organic matter (albumen, malic acid, &c.), chloride of Sodium, Potash, Magnesia, and Sulphuric Acid. *M. Tripolium* shows well the stellate capsule opening, when moisture is applied (Fig. 1501). *M. edule*, called Hottentot's-Fig, has esculent leaves. Other species are used as potherbs.



Fig. 1501.

Fig. 1500.



Fig. 1502.

1288. Nat. Ord. 101.—TETRAGONIACEÆ, the Tetragonia order.—Succulent plants nearly allied to Fig-Marigolds, but differing in the want of petals and in having definite stamens. The fruit is either an indehiscent nut or a pyxidium. They are found in the South Sea Islands, the Mediterranean, and the Cape of Good Hope. Many of them are saline, others are esculent. *Tetragonia expansa* is used as Spinage in New Zealand. Known species 65. *Ill. Gen.*—*Tetragonia*, *Aizoon*, *Sesuvium*.

1289. Nat. Ord. 102.—CACTACEÆ, the Cactus order (Figs. 1503 to 1508).—Succulent often spiny herbs, with remarkable stems, which are angular, two-edged, or leafy, and have their woody matter often arranged in a wedge-like manner. Calyx of numerous sepals combined and epigynous. Petals indefinite. Stamens ∞ , with long filaments. Ovary 1-celled, with parietal placentas; style single; stigmas

Figures 1500 to 1502 illustrate the natural order Mesembryanthemaceæ.

Fig. 1500. *Mesembryanthemum falciforme*, one of the Fig-Marigolds, with its fleshy schnitar-like leaves, and numerous petals, which expand and close under the influence of light and darkness. Fig. 1501. Seed-vessel of *Mesembryanthemum Tripolium*? *a*, seed-vessel closed, *b*, seed-vessel opened in a stellate manner under the influence of moisture. Fig. 1502. Ripe capsule of *Mesembryanthemum*. The carpels separating and spreading out in a stellate manner.

several. Fruit baccate. Seeds exalbuminous. Natives of America.



Fig. 1503.

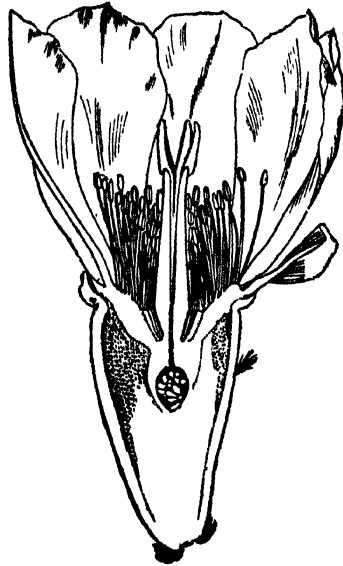


Fig. 1507.



Fig. 1504.

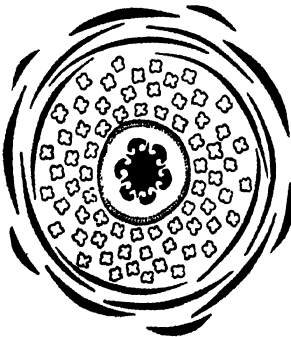


Fig. 1506.



Fig. 1508.



Fig. 1505.

Species about 800. *III. Gen.*—Melocactus, Mammillaria, Echinocactus, Cereus, Polocereus, Epiphyllum, Rhipsalis, Opuntia, Pereskia.

Figures 1503 to 1508 illustrate the natural order Cactaceæ.

Fig. 1503. *Opuntia vulgaris*, Prickly Pear, or Indian Fig, with its succulent jointed stem and stellate spines. Fig. 1504. Melocactus, the Melon Cactus, with its rounded and angular stem. Fig

1290. The fruit of many of the Indian Figs is subacid and refreshing. In some instances, it is sweetish and insipid. The stems of some of the species are eaten by cattle. The plants of the Cactus tribe present remarkable stems; sometimes spherical (Fig. 1504), sometimes articulated or jointed (Figs. 1503 and 1505), and sometimes assuming the form of a tall upright polygonal column. From their succulent nature, the plants thrive in hot and dry situations. To some of the plants the name of "vegetable fountains in the desert" has been applied. Some attain the size of trees, being 32 feet high and 3 feet in circumference.

Cereus grandiflorus is a night-flowering plant, so is also *C. nycetalus* and some other species (pp. 532 and 546).

Echinocactus. Some of the species attain an enormous size. *E. Visnaga* or *platyceras*, at Kew, measured 9 feet in height, $9\frac{1}{2}$ in circumference, and weighed a ton. The number of spines and bristles was reckoned at 51,000. On the top of the plant a woolly matter is produced called Muff Cactus. Seemann counted 8360 spines on *E. Wislizenii*.

Melocactus, the Melon Cactus (Fig. 1504). In the dry plains of South America the animals suffering from thirst seek the Melon Cactus, and after tearing off its formidable spines, refresh themselves with its abundant juice.

Opuntia cochineifera, the Nopal plant (Fig. 1505), affords nourishment to the *Coccus* Cacti or Cochineal insect in Mexico and Peru. The female insect is gathered just before the laying of the eggs. Some years ago Humboldt estimated the value of Cochineal exported annually from South America at £500,000. Britain consumed £275,000 worth. *O. vulgaris*, the common Prickly Pear (Fig. 1508), is so called from the spiny nature of its pyriform fruit. The fruit of *O. Tuna* forms a carmine pigment.

Pereskia aculeata supplies an edible fruit, sometimes called Barbadoes Gooseberry. *Polocereus senilis*, Old-Man Cactus, is so called from resembling a grey head in appearance. In Kew it attained a height of 14-16 feet, and had 72,000 spines.

1291. Nat. Ord. 103.—GROSSULARIACEÆ, the Gooseberry order (Figs. 1509 to 1511).—Shrubs which are either spiny or prickly (Fig. 1509) or unarmed, with alternate palmately-lobed leaves (Fig. 1510) without true stipules. Calyx-tube adherent to the ovary, limb 4-5-lobed, sometimes coloured. Petals small, 5. Stamens 5. Ovary 1-celled, with 2 parietal placentas; styles more or less united. Fruit a berry (Fig. 777, p. 267), crowned with the remains of the flower, with two parietal placentas (Fig. 1511). Seeds numerous, albuminous; embryo minute. Natives of the temperate regions of Europe, Asia, and America. Species about 100. *Ill. Gen.*—*Ribes*, *Polyosma*.

1292. Wholesome plants, furnishing often edible fruits, containing malic and other organic acids.

Ribes Grossularia, the Gooseberry; *R. nigrum*, the Black Currant; *R. rubrum*, the

1505. *Opuntia cochineifera*, the Cochineal or Nopal Cactus, with the male *Coccus*. The female insect dried constitutes the Cochineal. The plantations of this Cactus are called *Nopaleries*. Fig. 1506. Diagram of the flower of *Opuntia*, showing numerous sepals and petals, which pass insensibly into each other, indefinite stamens (often 800 or 400), and a one-celled ovary formed of several carpels, with parietal placentas. Fig. 1507. Section of the flower of *Opuntia*, showing the floral envelopes, the epigynous stamens attached to the upper part of the calycine tube, the ovary and style. Fig. 1508. Ovary, style, and stigma of *Cereus grandiflorus*.

Red Currant, furnish valuable fruits. *R. sanguineum*, *R. fuchsoides*, and other species, are showy garden shrubs.

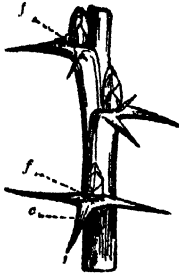


Fig. 1509.



Fig. 1511.



Fig. 1510.

1293. Nat. Ord. 104.—ESCALLONIACEÆ, the Escallonia order.—Evergreen shrubs, often odoriferous, with alternate exstipulate leaves, allied to the last order, and differing from it in their capsular bicarpellary fruit, epigynous disk, axile placentas, and oily albumen. By some they are placed among Saxifrages, from which they differ in their simple style and oily albumen. Natives chiefly of South America. Escallonias attain a high elevation on the mountains. Species 60. *Ill. Gen.*—Escallonia, Itea.

1294. Nat. Ord. 105.—SAXIFRAGACEÆ, the Saxifrage order (Figs. 1512 to 1514).—Herbs with alternate leaves (Fig. 1512). Calyx of 4-5 more or less cohering sepals. Petals 5 or 0. Stamens 5-10. Ovary more or less completely inferior, consisting of 2 carpels which diverge at the apex (Fig. 1514). Fruit a 1 or 2-celled capsule. Seeds numerous; embryo straight in fleshy albumen. Natives of northern alpine districts. Some extend very high; thus *Saxifraga Boussingaulti* reaches to nearly 16,000 feet on Chimborazo. Some grow on rocks, old walls, in woods, or near streams. They have generally caespitose leaves and glandular stems, and their flowers are usually white, sometimes yellow or red. *Saxifraga aizoides* adorns the Highland streams with its rich yellow blossoms; and *S. oppositifolia*, with its red flowers, forms a rich covering of the mountain rocks in early summer. Their properties are astringent. *Heuchera americana* is called alum-root on account of its astringency. Species 310. *Ill. Gen.*—*Saxifraga*, *Chryso-splenium*, *Heuchera*, *Mitella*, *Tiarella*, *Astilbe*.

Figures 1509 to 1511 illustrate the natural order Grossulariaceæ.

Fig. 1509. Branch of *Ribes Grossularia*, Gooseberry, showing the spines produced from the pulvillus or cushion, *c*, close to the scars of the leaves, *ff*, from the axil of which buds are produced. Fig. 1510. Cluster of flowers of *Ribes rubrum*, Red Currant, with a palmate leaf at the base. Fig. 1511. Baccate fruit of *Ribes Grossularia*, showing seeds attached to two parietal placentas, and immersed in pulp secreted by the endocarp.

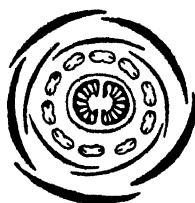


Fig. 1513



Fig. 1512



Fig. 1514

1295. Nat. Ord. 106.—HYDRANGEACEÆ, the Hydrangea order.—Shrubs with simple exstipulate leaves, often considered as a sub-order of Saxifragaceæ, but differing in their opposite leaves, their tendency to form abortive radiant flowers, and in the carpels being often more than two. Natives of the temperate regions of Asia and America. Hydrangeas from China and Japan are commonly cultivated. Some of the species are used instead of Tea. Species 45. *Ill. Gen.*—Hydrangea, Adamia, Bauera.

1296. Nat. Ord. 107.—CUNONIACEÆ, the Cunonia order.—Trees or shrubs allied to Saxifragaceæ, and differing in their shrubby growth, opposite leaves, and interpetiolar stipules. The latter character separates them from Hydrangeas, which are exstipulate. Natives of the Cape of Good Hope, South America, the East Indies, and Australia. Their properties are astringent. Species 100. *Ill. Gen.*—Weinmannia, Cunonia, Belangera.

1297. Nat. Ord. 108.—BRUNIACEÆ, the Brunia order.—Heath-like shrubs, with small, rigid, entire leaves. Calyx usually superior, 5-cleft. Petals and stamens 5; anthers extrorse. Ovary 1-3-celled, with 1-2 suspended ovules in each cell; style simple or bifid. Fruit either dehiscent and 2-celled, or indehiscent and 1-celled. Seeds solitary or in pairs; embryo minute, in fleshy albumen. Natives chiefly of the Cape of Good Hope. Species 65. *Ill. Gen.*—Brunia, Staavia, Grubbia, Ophiria.

Figures 1513 to 1514 illustrate the natural order Saxifragaceæ.

Fig. 1512. *Saxifraga tridactylites*, Rue-leaved Saxifrage, with wedge-shaped, trifid leaves, and flowers in a racemose cyme. Fig. 1513. Diagram of the flower of *Saxifraga tridactylites*, with 5 divisions of the calyx, 5 petals, 10 stamens in 2 rows, and a bicarpellary ovary with numerous ovules. Fig. 1514. Carpel of Saxifrage, cut vertically, showing the adherent calyx, the beak of the carpel or style and stigma, and the ovules attached to the placenta

1298. Nat. Ord. 109.—HAMAMELIDACEÆ, the Witch-Hazel order.—Trees or shrubs, with alternate, feather-veined leaves, having deciduous stipules. Calyx 4-5-divided. Petals 4, 5, or 0. Stamens 8; anthers introrse. Ovary 2-celled, inferior; ovules solitary or several; styles 2. Fruit a 2-valved loculicidal capsule. Seeds pendulous, albuminous. Natives of North America, Asia, and Africa. *Rhodoleia Championi* is a showy plant, with red involucreal leaves, found in China. *Hamamelis virginica* furnishes edible oily seeds. *Ill. Gen.*—*Hamamelis*, *Fothergilla*, *Sedgwickia*, *Rhodoleia*.*

1299. Nat. Ord. 110.—UMBELLIFERÆ or APIACEÆ, the Umbelli-

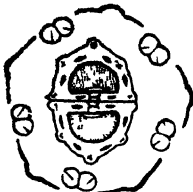


Fig. 1516

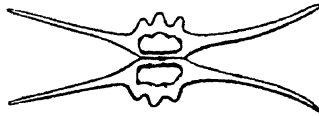


Fig. 1518



Fig. 1519



Fig. 1515.

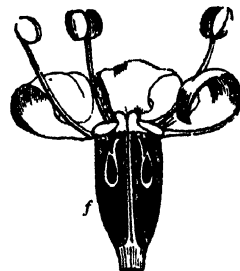


Fig. 1517.

ferous order (Figs. 1515 to 1519).—Herbs with solid or hollow stems,

Figures 1515 to 1519 illustrate the natural order Umbelliferae.

Fig. 1515. *Coriandrum sativum*, the Coriander plant, with its compound leaves, sheathing petioles, and flowers in compound umbels. It is the Gad of Scripture (Exod. xvi. 31; Num. xi. 7). Fig. 1516 Diagram of the flower of *Foeniculum vulgare*, common Fennel. The calyx limb is obsolete; there are 5 petals, 5 alternating stamens, and a cremocarp consisting of two achenes or mericarps united by

* Gardner gives a new definition of the natural order Hamamelidaceae in Hook. Jour. Nov. 1849. He includes—1. Altingiæ, comprising *Liquidambar*, *Sedgwickia*, and *Bucklandia*. 2. Hamameleæ, comprising *Fothergilla*, *Helwingia*, *Hamamelis*, &c. 3. Brunieæ, comprising *Brunia*, &c.

alternate leaves generally compound and sheathing at the base, and umbellate, involucrate flowers (Fig. 1515). Calyx adherent to the bicarpellary ovary, limb 5-toothed or obsolete. Petals 5, inflexed at the point, often unequal, the outer ones being radiant. Stamens 5, alternate with the petals, and inserted with them on the outside of an epigynous disk or stylopod (Fig. 1517). Styles 2. Fruit a cremocarp (diachænum), the 2 carpels or mericarps separating when ripe by their inner faces or commissure, and being suspended by a forked carpophore (Fig. 1519); the carpels marked with ribs or ridges called *juga* and intervening spaces called *valleculæ*, and often containing *vittæ* (Figs. 1516 and 1518). Seed solitary, pendulous; embryo minute, in the base of horny albumen. The Sections formed from the nature of the albumen, whether flat or curved, are not now adopted, inasmuch as they are found to be unsatisfactory. In the genera, the ridges on the fruit, the presence or absence of *vittæ*, and the form of the albumen, are taken into account. The umbels are sometimes reduced to a sort of head by the absence of peduncles. Natives of the northern parts of the northern hemisphere, and found high on the mountains of the tropics. Species 1520. *III. Gen.*—Hydrocotyle, Mulinum, Sanicula, Eryngium, Cicuta, Apium, Pimpinella, Bupleurum, Æthusa, Crithmum, Pachypleurum, Angelica, Ferula, Peucedanum, Heracleum, Siler, Cuminum, Thapsia, Daucus, Elæoselinum, Caulalis, Scandix, Smyrniun, Coriandrum.

1300. The properties of Umbelliferous plants are various. Some are harmless and esculent, such as the Carrot and Parsnip; others are acro-narcotic poisons, as Hemlock; a third set are antispasmodic, owing to the presence of a gum resin containing a fetid sulphur oil, such as Assafœtida; while a fourth set are carminative from containing a volatile oil, as Caraway and Coriander.

1. HARMLESS UMBELLIFERÆ, used as esculents.

Anthriscus Cerefolium, Chervil.	Foeniculum vulgare, Fennel (Figs. 1516 and 1517).
Apium graveolens, Celery.	Haloscias (Ligusticum) scoticum, Scottish Lovage.
Arracacha esculenta, Arracacha.	Pastinaca sativa, Parsnip.
Bunium flexuosum, Earth-nut.	Petroselinum sativum, Parsley.
Carum Bulbocastanum, Pig-nut.	Prægos pabularia, Fodder, in Tartary.
Crithmum maritimum, Sampire.	Sium Sisarum, Skirret.
Daucus Carota, Carrot (Fig. 377, p. 158).	Smyrniun Olusatrum, Alexanders.
Eryngium campestrè, Eryngo root.	
Eryngium foetidum, Culantra of Panama.	

their faces, with 5 primary ridges or *juga*, and *valleculæ* between them. There are 4 *vittæ* on each side marked by dots between the ridges, and 2 on each side of the commissure. The albumen is solid, not furrowed or involute at the suture. Fig. 1517. Flower of Fennel cut vertically, showing the obsolete calyx limb, the inflexed petals and the stamens outside the stylopod or epigynous disk, 2 short styles, 2 achenes, *f*, with a single pendulous ovule in each. Fig. 1518. Transverse section of cremocarp or fruit of Angelica, showing the 2 hemicarps or achenes forming it. There are 5 ridges on each achene, and the two lateral ones expand into long wings. The albumen is solid. Fig. 1519. The fruit of Fennel, separating into 2 achenes suspended by the split carpophore. Styles stylopod, and the ridges of the fruit are seen.

2. POISONOUS UMBELLIFERÆ, containing acrid and narcotic principles.

- Æthusa Cynapium*, Fool's Parsley (Fig. 379, p. 159), said to have produced narcotic symptoms, when taken by mistake for Parsley. It has a reflexed involucrel.
- Cicuta virosa*, Water Hemlock or Cowbane, an aquatic plant with large air-cells at the lower part of the stem. The roots of *C. maculata* have caused fatal poisonous effects in America.
- Conium maculatum*, Hemlock, used medicinally as an anodyne, contains a very active volatile oleaginous alkali called Conia, which causes death by paralyzing the muscles of respiration.
- Eranthe Crocata*, Hemlock-Dropwort or Dead-tongue, a reputed poison, but, like many other Umbellifers, not found by Christison to be poisonous in all circumstances. Much depends apparently on the locality. *C. Phellandrium*, Fine-leaved Water-Dropwort, another species said to be poisonous.

3. GUM-RESINOUS UMBELLIFERÆ, often having a fetid odour.

- Dorema Ammoniacum*, or *Diserneston gummiferum*, a Persian plant, yields gum Ammoniac.
- Ferula persica* probably supplies a kind of *Assafetida*. Another species seems to be the source of *Sagapenum*. *F. orientalis* yields a fetid resin in Morocco. The roots of some species of *Ferula* are farinaceous and esculent.
- Narthex Assafetida*, a plant found in Persia and Afghanistan, furnishes the true *Assafetida*. It has leaves resembling the *Pæony*, and its vittæ form a sort of network on the surface of the fruit.
- Opeoidia galbanifera* and *Galbanum officinale*, have each been thought to yield *Galbanum*, mentioned in Scripture under the name *Chelbenah* (Exod. xxx. 84). It seems to be the *Chalbane* and *Metopion* of *Dioscorides*. Its source, however, is not determined.
- Opoponax Chironum*, or *Pastinaca Opoponax*, produces the gum-resin called *Opoponax*.

4. AROMATIC and CARMINATIVE UMBELLIFERÆ, containing volatile oil.

- Archangelica officinalis*, *Angelica*. The root and fruit are aromatic and stimulant. The tender shoots are made into an aromatic sweetmeat.
- Anethum graveolens*, *Dill* (Fig. 376, p. 158), the Greek *Anethon*, translated *Anise* in Scripture (Matt. xxiii. 23).
- Carum Carui*, *Caraway*, the achenes of which are sold under the name of *Caraway seeds*.
- Coriandrum sativum*, *Coriander* (Fig. 1515), the Hebrew *Gad*. The achenes or mericarps are sold as *Coriander seeds*.
- Cuminum Cyminum*, *Cummin* (Fig. 347, p. 148), the Hebrew *Cummin* or *Kammon* (Is. xxviii. 25, 27), the Greek *Kuminon* (Matt. xxiii. 23).
- Daucus Carota*, *Carrot*. The achenes are aromatic, and are said to be diuretic. The boiled root is often used to make poultices.
- Fœniculum vulgare* or *F. dulce*, common *Fennel*, and *F. panmorum* in India.
- Levisticum officinale*, *Lovage*, yields a gum resin resembling *Opoponax*. The achenes are used to make an aromatic liqueur.
- Pimpinella Anisum*, *Anise*, a different plant from the *Anise* of our version of the Bible, which is really *Dill*.

1301. Nat. Ord. 111.—ARALIACEÆ, or HEDERACEÆ, the Ivy order (Fig. 1520).—Trees, shrubs, or herbs with the habit of Umbelliferæ, from which they differ in having the ovary composed of more than 2 carpels which do not separate in fruit, but become drupaceous or baccate, and in having fleshy in place of horny albumen. They are found in tropical and sub-tropical regions. Species about 160. III.

Gen.—Panax, Aralia, Hedera, Adoxa, Gunnera, and perhaps Helwingia.

1302. The properties of the order are aromatic, stimulant, and tonic.

Adoxa Moschatellina, tuberous Moschatell, has its stamens split so that each half bears a one-celled anther.

Aralia racemosa and other species yield an aromatic gum-resin. *A. nudicalis* is called Wild Sarsaparilla in North America. *A. papyrifera*, Bok-shung of China, found in the island of Formosa, is the plant which supplies the Chinese Rice paper.

Casimiroa edulis, Zapote blanco, yields an edible fruit in Mexico.

Gunnera scabra has astringent roots which are used for tanning.

Hedera Helix, common Ivy (Fig. 1520, and Fig. 124, p. 58). Its black berries are emetic and purgative.

Helwingia ruscifolia, a Japan esculent, is referred to this order by Dr. Hooker. Lindley places it in a separate unisexual order, Helwingiaceæ, in his Garryal alliance.

Panax Schinseng is the Asiatic Ginseng root, extravagantly prized by the Chinese as a stimulant and restorative. *P. quinquefolium*, exported to them from America, is also used.

1303. Nat. Ord. 112.—CORNACEÆ, the Cornel order.

—Chiefly trees or shrubs, with leaves almost always opposite and exstipulate; flowers in cymes or in involucrate heads. Calyx adherent, limb 4-toothed. Petals 4, valvate in aestivation. Stamens 4, alternate with the petals. Styles united into one. Ovary 2-celled;

ovules solitary, pendulous. Fruit a 2-celled drupe. Embryo in fleshy albumen. Natives of the temperate regions of Europe, Asia, and America. Species 40. *III. Gen.*—*Benthamia*, *Cornus*, *Aucuba*.

1304. The plants of this order have tonic and febrifugal properties. Some are astringent.

Aucuba japonica is a commonly cultivated Japan shrub, remarkable for its variegated leaves (p. 491).

Cornus, Dogwood. The bark of various species, as *C. florida*, *C. sericea*, and *C. cir-*



Fig. 1520.

cinata, are used as substitutes for Cinchona in the United States. *C. maculata*, the Cornelian Cherry, has an austere fruit. *C. suecica* of the Scottish Highlands is tonic.

2. MONOPETALÆ OR GAMOPETALÆ.

1305. Nat. Ord. 113.—LORANTHACEÆ, the Mistleto order (Fig. 1521).—Parasitic shrubs with articulated branches, opposite, exstipulate fleshy leaves, and hermaphrodite or unisexual flowers. Calyx tube adherent to the ovary, bracteate. Corolla of 4-8 united petals. Stamens 4-8, opposite the petals. Ovary 1-celled; ovule solitary, pendulous. Fruit inferior, succulent. Albumen fleshy. In place of one order, Miers makes two, Loranthaceæ and Viscaceæ. Loranthus, which is the type of the first, has showy dichlamydeous hermaphrodite flowers, lengthened stamens, and an ovary containing a solitary suspended ovule; while *Viscum*, the type of the second, has small, monochlamydeous, dioecious flowers, with nearly sessile stamens, and an ovary containing 3 ovules attached to a free



Fig. 1521.

central placenta, one of the ovules only being perfected in the baccate fruit. Viscaceæ is placed near Santalaceæ. Natives chiefly of the equinoctial regions of Asia and America; a few are European and African. Known species 412. *Ill. Gen.*—*Myzodendron*, *Viscum*, *Loranthus*, *Nuytsia*.

1306. Astringent properties prevail in the order. The plants are truly parasitic, and they have often a peculiar woody structure with scalariform vessels. Occasionally 2 or 3 embryos are produced in the seed.

Loranthus. The species have very showy flowers. *T. tetrandrus* yields a black dye in South America.

Myzodendron has long feathery seminal processes, which enable the seeds to float in the air, and afterwards aid in holding them on the branches of other plants until the radicle protrudes. The wood is deposited in concentric circles, separated by a broad zone of parenchyma, with large medullary rays. There is a great amount of scalariform tissue (*Flor. Antarct. i. 298*).

Nuytsia floribunda, an Australian plant, has bright orange-coloured flowers, and has been called the Fire-tree.

Viscum album, the Mistleto (Fig. 1521), produces a viscid matter in its fruit, which is used for bird-lime. This substance causes the seed of the plant to adhere to the Oak, Apple, or other trees on which it grows. Spirals are found in the part of the viscid matter next to the seed. The Druids performed peculiar ceremonies in taking this sacred plant from the Oak.

1307. Nat. Ord. 114.—CAPRIFOLIACEÆ, the Honeysuckle order (Figs. 1522 and 1523).—Shrubs or herbs, often twining, with oppo-

Fig. 1521. *Viscum album*, the Mistleto, a parasitic plant, illustrating the natural order Loranthaceæ. By some it is placed in a Monochlamydeous order called Viscaceæ.

site, exstipulate leaves (Fig. 1522). Calyx adherent to the ovary,



Fig. 1522.



Fig. 1523.

limb 4-5-cleft, usually bracteate. Corolla regular or irregular. Stamens 4-5, alternate with the corolline lobes. Ovary 3-5-celled; stigmas 3-5 (Fig. 1523). Fruit usually a berry, 1 or many-celled, crowned by the calyx-lobes. Albumen fleshy. Natives chiefly of the northern parts of Europe, Asia, and America. Known species 220. *Ill. Gen.*—Linnaea, Abelia, Symphoricarpus, Leycesteria, Caprifolium, Lonicera, Viburnum, Sambucus.

1308. Some of the plants are astringent, others have emetic and purgative properties. Many have showy and fragrant flowers.

Linnaea borealis, two-flowered *Linnaea*, is a plant of northern climates, named after Linnaeus. The leaves in Sweden are used as a diaphoretic.

Lonicera Periclymenum, common Honeysuckle or Woodbine, possesses emetic and purgative qualities. *L. Caprifolium* (Fig. 1522) has well-marked connate leaves.

Sambucus nigra, common Elder (Fig. 1523 and Fig. 396, p. 166). Its flowers yield a volatile oil, and the berries are used in making a kind of wine. Its leaves and inner bark have purgative qualities. The tree has been generally distributed over the globe. It accommodates itself to the piercing cold of Lower Canada and to the sultry sun of Trinidad and Barbadoes.

Symphoricarpus racemosus, a common garden shrub, has a white fruit which receives the name of Snowberries.

Viburnum Opulus, Gueldres Rose, is said to be emetic and cathartic. The inner bark of *V. Lantana* is acrid.

1309. Nat. Ord. 115.—CINCHONACEÆ, the *Cinchona* order (Figs. 1524 to 1527).—Trees, shrubs, or herbs with simple opposite leaves, interpetiolar glandular stipules (p. 46), and cymose inflorescence (Fig. 1524). Calyx adherent, entire, or toothed. Corolla regular. Stamens attached to the corolla. Ovary 2-celled; style 1. Fruit inferior, separating into 2 cocci, or indehiscent and dry, or succulent (Fig. 1526). Seeds definite and erect or ascending; or indefinite and attached to a central placenta; embryo small, in horny albumen. Chiefly found in tropical regions. Known species 2500. *Ill. Gen.*—Opercularia, Anthospermum, Spermacece, Cephaelis, Psychotria, Coffea, Ixora, Mitchella, Guettarda, Hamelia, Isertia, Hedyotis, Oldenlandia, Pentas, Portlandia, Cinchona, Exostemma, Nauclea, Gardenia, Mussaenda.

1310. This extensive order furnishes many important products. The plants have tonic, stimulant, febrifugal, emetic, and purgative

Figures 1522 and 1523 illustrate the natural order Caprifoliaceæ.

Fig. 1522. *Lonicera Caprifolium*, perfoliate Honeysuckle, with its upper connate leaves and cymose clusters of flowers. Fig. 1523. Pistil of *Sambucus nigra*, common Elder, with the ovary partially adherent to the tube of the calyx, which has a five-lobed limb. Three stigmas at the summit of the ovary.

properties. Some species are said to have intoxicating and even poisonous qualities. Many of the plants of the order have flowers remarkable for their beauty and odour.

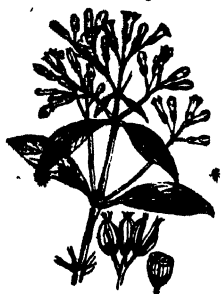


Fig. 1524.



Fig. 1525.



Fig. 1526.



Fig. 1527, a.



Fig. 1527, b.

Cephaelis Ipecacuanha (Fig. 1525), has an annulated root (Fig. 188, p. 57), which is the Ipecacuan of the Pharmacopœias. It is emetic and diaphoretic, and contains a principle called Emetine.

Cephalanthus, on account of its remarkable capitulate clusters of flowers, has received the name of Button-Bush.

Chiococca densifolia, Cahinca Root, and *C. anguifuga*, are reputed in Brazil as efficacious in snake bites, and powerfully emeto-cathartic.

Cinchona (Fig. 1524) is the genus which furnishes the species of Peruvian-bark trees. They contain three important alkalies, Quinine, Quinidine, and Cinchonine, combined with Kinic acid, and a peculiar variety of tannin. Some of these have a brown, and others have a white epidermis, the former being the most valuable. The most important varieties in English commerce are—Yellow or Calisaya bark, yielded by *Cinchona Calisaya*. Crown or Loxa Bark, by *C. condaminea* var. *vera*. Cusco Bark, by *C. pubescens* var. *Pelletieriana*. Gray or Huancoco Bark.

Figures 1524 to 1527 illustrate the natural order Cinchonaceæ.

Fig. 1524. *Cinchona*, the genus whence the order is named. It embraces the species of Peruvian or Jesuit's Bark. The plants have opposite leaves and interpetiolar stipules, with a 2-celled seed-vessel, and flowers in corymbose cymes. Fig. 1525. *Cephaelis Ipecacuanha*, with its annulated root (See Fig. 188, p. 57). Fig. 1526. *Coffea arabica*, the Coffee tree, a native of Arabia and the confines of Abyssinia. It has a succulent reddish-brown fruit and horny albumen, which, when roasted, supplies the beverage called Coffee. Fig. 1527, a. Root of *Psychotria emetica*, one of the false Ipecacuan roots. It is called striated or black Ipecacuan. b. Root of *Richardsonia emetica*, called White or Amylaceous Ipecacuan.

by *C. nitida* and *C. micrantha*. Huamalies or Rusty Bark, by *C. condamina* var. *Chatmarguera*. Fibrous Cartagena Bark, by *C. condamina* var. *lanceifolia*. Hard Cartagena bark, by *C. cordifolia*, and Red Bark by an undetermined species. Quinine is got chiefly from Calisaya Bark, Cinchonine from Cusco, and Grey Bark, and Quinidine from several of the inferior kinds, such as the fibrous Cartagena Bark. The region of South America inhabited by Cinchonas extends over 29° of lat. according to Weddell. It represents a narrow riband, which, with its bands, describes a vast curve, following the direction of the great Cordillera of the Andes, commencing with the 19th parallel south, and generally coinciding with its eastern slope, where it maintains an elevation varying a little according to latitude, but confined within the limit of 7000-8000 feet. The middle of this curve, which is at the same time its most western limit, and nearest the coast line, is situated near Loxa, in longitude 82° west of Paris; its lower extremity touches upon long. 62°, and its upper disappears about 70°. As the bark is becoming scarce, it is of importance to extend the cultivation of the trees. *C. Calisaya* or the yellow bark tree has been introduced by Royle into India; some specimens were sent from the Edinburgh Botanic Garden grown from seeds supplied by Mr. Pentland.

Coffea arabica (Fig. 1526), the Coffee tree, has a succulent fruit of a reddish-brown colour when ripe. The fruit contains two seeds, which are enclosed in an endocarp called the parchment of the coffee. The hard albumen is used to furnish the well-known beverage. It contains a bitter principle called Caffeine, which is identical with Theine. The import of Coffee into Britain in 1862 was 54,877,254 lbs., of which 35,044,876 were for home consumption.

Coprosma microphylla yields the fruit called native currants in Australia.

Contarea latiflora perhaps yields the variety of Copalchi Bark, imported from Chili under the name of Natri.

Exostemma. The species of this genus yield various kinds of false Cinchona. They have exerted stamens, while in the Cinchona the stamens are included.

Gardenia is a beautiful genus of plants extensively cultivated in hothouses for their odoriferous properties. One is called Cape Jasmine.

Genipa. Species of this genus supply edible fruits. Some yield a dye.

Guettarda speciosa is said to produce Zebra-wood, which is imported in small planks from the West Indies.

Morinda citrifolia. Its root furnishes the dye called Sooranjee, which contains a crystalline colouring matter called Morindine.

Oldenlandia umbellata. The bark of the root, under the name of Chay or Che root, is used to dye red, purple, and orange-brown.

Psychotria emetica (Fig. 1527, a), yields a spurious kind of Ipecacuan, called striated or black Ipecacuan.

Richardsonia scabra and *R. emetica* (Fig. 1527, b), produce the spurious Ipecacuan called white or amylaceous.

Uncaria Gambir. An astringent extract called Gambeer is prepared by the Malays from the leaves. It is a kind of Catechu.

1311. Nat. Ord. 116.—GALIACEÆ or STELLATÆ, the Madder order (Figs. 1528 to 1530).—Herbs agreeing in most points with Cinchonaceæ, and often included with them in a common order called Rubiaceæ. The chief distinguishing marks are their square stems, verticillate and exstipulate leaves. The name Stellatæ is derived from the star-like arrangement of the leaves. Some look upon the verticils as



Fig. 1529.



Fig. 1530

Figures 1528 to 1530 illustrate the natural order Galiaceæ or Stellatæ.

Fig. 1528. Branch of *Rubia tinctoria*, Madder, showing quadrangular stem, verticillate leaves,

partly of true leaves and partly of stipules. Natives of the northern parts of the northern hemisphere and of high mountains in South America and Australia. Known species

320. *Ill. Gen.*—*Vaillantia*, *Galium*, *Rubia*, *Crucianella*, *Asperula*, *Sherardia*.

1312. The plants supply important dyes. Some have tonic and diuretic properties, and the horny albumen is occasionally used for Coffee.

Asperula odorata, Woodruff, acquires fragrance when dried.

Galium Aparine, Goose-grass or Cleavers, is a very rough-stemmed species, the albumen of which has been employed as a substitute for Coffee. Its juice has been recommended in cutaneous diseases.

Rubia tinctorum, Madder root, a most important dye-stuff, is extensively cultivated in the south of Europe and in Holland. By particular manipulation, it gives the colour called Turkey red. Several colouring matters are got from it, probably all produced from a single yellow principle which exists in the living plant. The roots of *R. cordifolia* (Munjista) furnish the dye called Munjeet in India.



Fig 1528

the corolla (Fig. 624, p. 229). Ovary with one cell and 2 abortive ones; ovule solitary. Fruit dry and indehiscent, with 1 fertile cell, sometimes papose (Fig. 1534). Seed suspended (Figs. 624, p. 229, and 727, p. 251), exalbuminous. Natives of temperate climates in Europe, Asia, and America. Species 185. *Ill. Gen.*—*Patrinia*, *Nardostachys*, *Valerianella*, *Fedia*, *Centranthus*, *Valeriana*.

1314. Many of the plants in the order are strong-scented or aromatic, owing to the presence of a peculiar volatile oil. In medicine, they are employed as tonics and antispasmodics.

Centranthus ruber, Red Valerian (Fig. 556, p. 210), has one stamen and a spurred corolla. Its leaves are used as a salad.

Nardostachys Jatamansi (Figs. 1535 and 1536) appears to be the plant which sup-

and cymose clusters of flowers. Fig. 1529. Diagram of the flower of Madder with the rim-like calyx-
limb, 5 parts of the corolla, 6 stamens, and a 2-celled and 2-seeded ovary. Fig. 1530. Pistil of Mad-
der, with the adherent calyx-tube, obsolete limb in the form of a mere rim at the top of the ovary, 2
styles and 2 stigmas

plied the *Nerd* or *Nard* of the Hebrews and the *Nardos* of the Greeks, and which is rendered in our translation of the Bible by the word *Spikenard*.



Fig. 1536.



Fig. 1534.

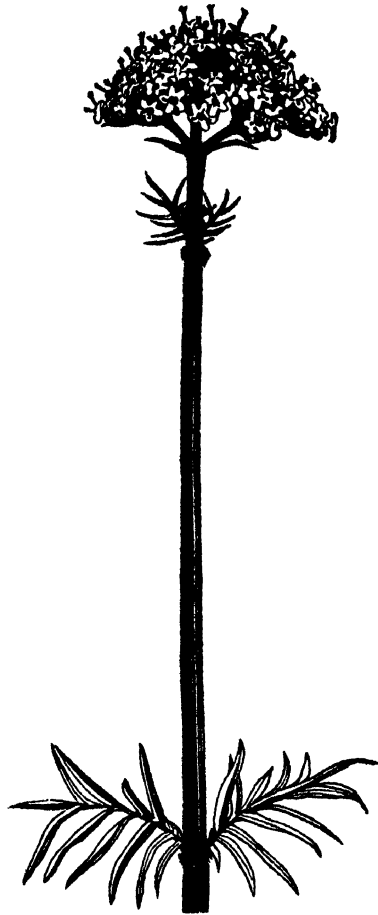


Fig. 1531.

Valeriana officinalis (Fig. 1531) furnishes the Valerian root of the druggists, which

Figures 1531 to 1536 illustrate the natural order Valerianacæ.

Fig. 1531. *Valeriana officinalis*, common Valerian, with impari-pinnate leaves, and flowers in a corymbose cyme. Fig. 1532. Diagram of Valerian, showing calycine feathery pappus, 5 lobes of the corolla, one gibbous, 3 stamens, and one perfect ovarian cell with a single ovule. Fig. 1533. Flower of Valerian, with adherent calycine tube, obsolete limb which becomes papose, irregular corolla gibbous at the base and with a 5-lobed limb, 3 stamens, and one style with 3 stigmas. Fig. 1534. Fruit of *Centranthus ruber*, Red Valerian, indehiscent, containing one perfect seed (3 others being abortive), and having a feathery papose calyx-limb at the apex. Fig. 1535. *Narpostachys Jatamansi*, the plant which supplied the ancient Spikenard. It is the Hebrew *Nerd* or *Nardi* (Cant. I. 12, and iv. 13, 14), and the Greek *Nardos* (Mark xiv. 3; John xii. 3). Fig. 1536. The appearance of Spikenard, as taken from a druggist's shop in London, and figured by Dr. Royle.

yields Valerianic acid, and is used as an antispasmodic in nervous affections. *V. Phu, celtica, sitchensis, Sallunca*, and other species, have similar properties.



Fig. 1586



Fig. 1582.



Fig. 1583.

Valerianella olitoria is called Lamb's Lettuce, on account of being used as a salad.



Fig. 1587.

1315. Nat. Ord. 118.—DIPSACACEÆ, the Teazel order (Fig. 1537).—Herbs or undershrubs, with opposite or whorled, exstipulate leaves, and flowers in capitula surrounded by an involucre (Fig. 1537). Calyx adherent, membranous, surrounded by an involucre. Corolla tubular, with an oblique 4-5-lobed limb. Stamens 4, anthers distinct. Ovary 1-celled; ovule pendulous. Fruit dry, indehiscent, crowned by the pappus-like calyx. Seed albuminous. Natives of the south of Europe, the Mediterranean, and the Cape of Good Hope. Species 150. *III. Gen.*—*Morina, Dipsacus, Cephalaria, Knautia, Scabiosa.*

1316. Some of the species are used in dressing cloth. Astringent qualities reside in some of the plants.

Dipsacus Fullonum, Fuller's Teazel. The dried heads, with their uncinatc spiny

Fig. 1587. Head of flowers of *Scabiosa purpurea*, belonging to the natural order Dipsacaceæ. There are numerous flowers on a common receptacle, with an involucre surrounding them. The anthers are not united as in Compositæ.

bracts, are used by fullers. *D. sylvestris*, Wild Teasel, has connate leaves, which form by their union a cavity capable of containing a considerable quantity of water.

Scabiosa, Scabious. Many of the species are showy, and cultivated in gardens. *S. succisa* has astringent properties.

1317. Nat. Ord. 119.—CALYCERACEÆ, the Calycera order.—A small order of herbs with alternate exstipulate leaves, and capitate flowers, intermediate between Dipsacaceæ and Compositæ, differing from the former in their united filaments and partially united anthers, and from the latter in their pendulous ovule, albuminous seed, and in their anthers. They inhabit the cooler parts of South America. *Ill. Gen.*—*Boopis*, *Calycera*, *Acicarpha*.

1318. Nat. Ord. 120.—COMPOSITÆ or ASTERACEÆ, the Composite



Fig. 1538.



Fig. 1539.



Fig. 1543.



Fig. 1545.

order (Figs. 1538 to 1549).—Herbs or shrubs with alternate or opposite, exstipulate leaves, and hermaphrodite or unisexual flowers (called

Figures 1538 to 1549 illustrate the natural order Compositæ and its sub-orders Cichoraceæ, Cynarocephaleæ, and Corymbifereæ.

Fig. 1538. Capitulum of *Calendula officinalis*, garden Marigold, showing the ligulate or semilobed florets of the circumference or the ray, and the tubular or flosculus florets of the centre or disk. All the florets form one indefinite inflorescence with centripetal expansion. Fig. 1539. Marigold head seen below, so as to display the involucre, \dagger , composed of phyllaries surrounding the florets. Fig. 1540. Tubular or flosculus flower (floret) of *Senecio Jacobaea*, common Ragwort, taken from the

florets) collected into dense capitula on a common receptacle (Figs. 1538, 1547), and surrounded by a set of bracts (called phyllaries),



Fig. 1540.

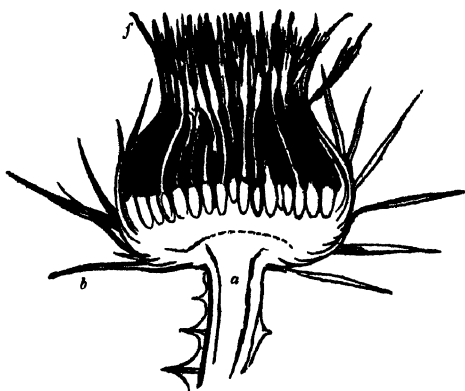


Fig. 1547.



Fig. 1541.



Fig. 1546.



Fig. 1542.



Fig. 1544



Fig. 1549.

forming an involucre (Fig. 1539), the separate florets being often furnished with bractlets in the form of chaff (called squamæ or

disk of the capitulum, showing achene, *a*, with superior paplose calyx, *c*, tubular corolla, united anthers, and forked style, *s*. Fig. 1541. Female ligulate or semiflorescous flower (floret) of Ragwort, taken from the ray of the capitulum, showing the achene, *a*, with the superior paplose calyx, the strap-shaped corolla, and the forked style. Fig. 1542. Tubular floret of *Helianthus annuus*, the Sunflower, showing the achene, with the adherent calycine tube, the superior bristly limb, the 5-lobed corolla, and the 5 stamens combined by their anthers (synantherous) round the style. Fig. 1543. Style of *Achillea Millefolium*, Milfoil, forking so as to form 2 papillose stigmatic surfaces, which are curved outwards. Fig. 1544. Pistil of *Chrysanthemum*, Ox-eye, showing the inferior ribbed achene, *c*, the obsolete calyx limb, the long style, *s*, dividing at the apex, *f*. Fig. 1545. Achene of *Tragopogon pterifolius*, Salsify, with the calyx limb in the form of persistent feathery (plumose) pappus. Fig. 1546. *Cichorium Intybus*, Chicory

palææ). Calyx adherent, limb entire or toothed, or mostly expanded into a pappus (Fig. 1540). Corolla regular (Fig. 1542), or irregular (Fig. 1541). Stamens 5; anthers syngenesious (Fig. 1540). Ovary single; style 1, bifid at the apex when fertile (Fig. 1544); stigmas on the inner surface of each branch of the style (Fig. 1543). Fruit an achene, crowned with the limb of the calyx (Fig. 1545). Seed solitary, erect, exalbuminous; embryo straight. The plants are found in all parts of the world. In warm countries they sometimes assume arborescent forms. Known species between 9000 and 10,000.

Ill. Gen.—*Scolymus*, *Lapsana*, *Hyoseris*, *Hypochaeris*, *Scorzonera*, *Lactuca*, *Hieracium*, *Vernonia*, *Eupatorium*, *Aster*, *Bellis*, *Chrysanthemum*, *Senecio*, *Cynara*, *Carduus*, *Mutisia*.

1319. The plants of this very extensive order have been variously divided by authors. They were included by Linnæus in his class Syngenesia, the divisions of which are given at page 720. By Jussieu the following divisions have been established:—1. *Cichoraceæ*, the florets all ligulate and perfect. 2. *Cynarocephalæ*, the florets all tubular, homogamous, or those of the ray neuter; style swollen below its branches. 3. *Corymbiferæ*, florets of the same head all homogamous (usually tubular); or those of the circumference filiform or tubular and pistilliferous, or ligulate; style of the perfect florets not swollen below its branches. De Candolle gives the following primary divisions:—1. *Tubulifloræ* (embracing *Cynarocephalæ* and *Corymbiferæ* of Jussieu), hermaphrodite flowers tubular, with 5, rarely 4, equal teeth. 2. *Labiatifloræ*, hermaphrodite flowers, or at least the unisexual ones, two-lipped. This includes chiefly some peculiar American genera. 3. *Ligulifloræ* (*Cichoraceæ* of Jussieu), all the florets hermaphrodite and ligulate. Under these sub-orders De Candolle formed tribes from the form and nature of the style and stigma, attention being paid to the mode in which the branches of the style separate, the nature and extent of the papillæ, and the hairs on the stigmatic surface and on the style, &c.

1320. The properties of Composite plants are various. Bitterness plant, with its compound flowers and large root, which is often mixed with Coffee. The plant illustrates the sub-order *Cichoraceæ*. Fig. 1547. Capitulum of *Onopordium Acanthium*, called Scotch Thistle by gardeners, showing the involucre, *b*, receptacle, *a*, and florets, *f*. It illustrates the sub-order *Cynarocephalæ* (see also *Centaurea*, Fig. 392, p. 168). Fig. 1548. Corymbose capitula of *Senecio Jacobææ*, common Ragwort. It illustrates the sub-order *Corymbiferæ*. Fig. 1549. *Artemisia judaica*, one of the plants supposed to be the Absinthium of the New Testament, translated Wormwood (Rev. viii. 11). This species, and perhaps *A. romana* and *A. Abrotanum*, may be implied in the Hebrew *Laanah* translated Wormwood (Deut. xxix. 18; Jer. ix. 18, xxiii. 15; Lam. iii. 15, 19; Amos v. 7, and also vi. 12, where it is translated Hemlock).

Additional figures illustrating Compositæ. Florets of *Chrysanthemum* and *Achillea*, Fig. 491, p. 197; Fig. 548, p. 308; Fig. 553, p. 309; and Fig. 554, p. 210. Receptacle and pappus of Dandelion, Fig. 365, p. 154.



Fig. 1548.

seems to prevail in the order to a greater or less degree. This is accompanied with tonic, stimulant, aromatic, or even narcotic qualities.

Sub-order 1. CICHORACEÆ, Chicory or Lettuce Section (Fig. 1546).—The plants in this division abound in a milky juice, which has bitter, diuretic, and narcotic properties. Some are esculent vegetables and salads. They are most abundant in cold regions. Many of the plants exhibit in a marked degree the phenomena of opening and closing their capitula (page 531).

Cichorium Intybus, Chicory, or Wild Succory (Fig. 1546), is much cultivated, especially in France and Germany. Its roots are used as a substitute for Coffee, or as an addition to it. The admixture, without due indication of it, is forbidden in Britain. The leaves are made to yield a blue dye. *C. Endivia* is the Endive or garden Succory, the leaves of which are used as a salad when etiolated.

Lactuca virosa, Wild Lettuce, gives out abundantly a white juice which, when inspissated, constitutes the anodyne narcotic called *Lactucarium*, or *Lettuce-opium*. *L. sativa*, common Lettuce, also yields a similar juice, but by cultivation as a salad it loses much of its narcotic property. Both plants contain a neutral active principle called *Lactucin*.

Leontodon Taraxacum, common Dandelion (Fig. 861, p. 158), has a milky juice which, when concrete, has been used medicinally as a diuretic, and economically as Coffee. It contains a bitter crystalline principle, *Taraxacin*.

Scorzonera hispanica. The root, under the name of *Scorzonera*, is used as a vegetable. The roots of *S. deliciosa* are eaten in Sicily.

Tragopogon porrifolius, Salsafy, is also cultivated on account of its edible root. When cooked it has the taste of oysters.

Sub-order 2. CYNAROCEPHALÆ, the Artichoke or Thistle Section (Fig. 1547, and Fig. 392, p. 168).—The plants in this division are usually bitter and tonic. Some are esculent.

Arctium, Burdock. The roots of species of this genus have been employed medicinally as substitutes for *Sarza*.

Aucklandia Costus. This plant is found in Cashmere, and its root is said to be the ancient *Costus*, celebrated for its virtues. The root has an aromatic pungent odour, and is used for incense. It is known in Northern India under the name of *Koosht*. In Bengal it is called *Puchak*.

Carduus, Thistle. Many different species have been dignified with the name of Scotch Thistle. It is probable that a common species such as *C. lanceolatus* is most deserving of the name. Some have fixed on doubtfully native species, such as *C. Marianus* (*Silybum Marianum*), to represent Scotland; and at present gardeners employ for this purpose a Thistle belonging to another genus, *Onopordum Acanthium* (Fig. 1547).

Carthamus tinctorius, Safflower. The dried flowers yield a pink dye.

Cynara Scolymus, common Artichoke. The succulent receptacle is the part used for food. *C. Cardunculus*, Cardoon, is another esculent vegetable.

Sub-order 3. COREMBIFERÆ, the Chamomile Section (Fig. 1548).—The plants of this division are bitter and aromatic. They usually contain more or less of a volatile oil.

Anacyclus Pyrethrum, Pellitory of Spain, is used medicinally to promote the flow of saliva. *A. officinarum* has similar properties.

Anthemis nobilis, Chamomile. The odoriferous flowers are used for fomentation. A warm watery infusion of them acts as an emetic and diaphoretic. The extract and cold infusion are bitter tonic.

Arnica montana, Leopard's-bane, or Mountain Tobacco, has been given in nervous diseases as an acrid stimulant.

Artemisia Absinthium, Wormwood, is bitter stomachic. *A. Contra*, *Vahliana*, and other species (Fig. 1549), are used as anthelmintics, under the name of Wormseed. Some of the species are used in the preparation of beer, vinegar, and liqueurs such as the *Crème d'Absinthe*.

Celmisia coriacea, a New Zealand plant, has a woolly epidermis on its leaves, which is spun into threads and woven into fabric.

Ceradia furcata is a peculiar coral-like plant, found on the west coast of Africa, and yielding a resinous matter called African bdellium.

Dahlia variabilis has been made by cultivation to assume all varieties of colour. Both tubular and ligulate florets become quilled. The plant belongs to the xanthic series, and hence we have not a blue Dahlia.

Gnaphalium. Many species of this and other allied genera, in consequence of their dry involucre, constitute what are called everlasting flowers. *G. orientale* is much used in Pere-la-Chaise. Many beautiful species are brought from the Cape of Good Hope.

Helianthus annuus, common Sunflower. Its achenes have been used for Coffee.

H. tuberosus is the well-known Jerusalem (Girasole) Artichoke.

Helichrysum cochleariforme, or a species closely allied to it, is given in infusion to consumptive patients at the Cape of Good Hope, under the name of Boschesh Tea.

Inula Helenium, Elecampane, is an aromatic plant which has been used as a tonic and diuretic. It contains a starchy matter called Inuline.

Lychnophora Pinaster is a peculiar Composite plant, having the appearance of a Scotch Fir. A species on the mountains of Minas Geraes in Brazil, is a shrub six feet high, having horizontal branches and narrow leaves six inches long. The whole plant except the upper side of the leaves is covered with a dense coat of long brownish-coloured wool, which is often collected and used for beds and pillows.

1321. Nat. Ord. 121.—BRUNONIACEÆ, the Brunonia order.—Herbs with radical exstipulate leaves, and capitulate, involucrate flowers supported on scapes. Calyx free, in 5 divisions. Corolla 5-parted, inserted at the base of the calyx. Stamens inserted with the corolla. Ovary 1-celled; ovule solitary; stigma enclosed in a 2-valved cup. Fruit a utricle, enclosed in the hardened calycine tube. Seed erect, exalbuminous. Australian plants. Species 2. *III. Gen.*—Brunonia.

1322. Nat. Ord. 122.—GOODENIACEÆ, the Goodenia order.—Herbs, rarely shrubs, not lactescent, with scattered exstipulate leaves, and distinct, not capitate flowers. Calyx usually superior, 3-5-divided. Corolla more or less superior, usually irregular, with a split tube and a 5-parted lipped limb; aestivation conduplicate. Stamens 5, separate. Ovary 1-2-celled; placenta free, central; stigma surrounded by an indusium. Fruit capsular or drupaceous. Seeds albuminous. Natives chiefly of Australia and the islands of the southern ocean. Species about 150. *III. Gen.*—Selliera, Goodenia, Leschenaultia, Scævola, Dampiera.

1323. Some of the plants are used as esculent vegetables, and their pith is employed for economical purposes.

Scævola Taccada is the plant which furnishes the Rice-paper of the Malay Archipelago. Its leaves, when young, are eaten as pot-herbs. Its fruit is drupaceous.

1324. Nat. Ord. 123.—STYLIDIACEÆ, the Stylewort order (Fig. 1550).—Herbs or undershrubs, with scattered or whorled exstipulate leaves. Calyx adhe-

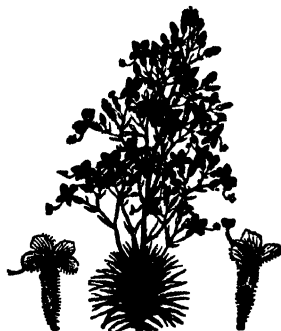


Fig. 1550.

Fig. 1550. *Styliidium tenuifolium*, slender-leaved Stylewort, with its narrow scattered leaves,

rent, with 2-6 divisions. Corolla usually irregular, 5-6-divided; aestivation imbricate. Stamens 2; filaments united with the style into a column; anther-lobes on the top of the column lying over the stigma. Ovary usually 2-celled, often with 1 or 2 epigynous glands in front. Fruit usually a 2-celled and 2-valved capsule. Seeds albuminous. Peculiar plants, remarkable for their gynandrous structure and for their irritable column (p. 557). Natives chiefly of the swamps of Australia. Species 121. *Ill. Gen.*—*Stylidium*, Forstera.

1325. Nat. Ord. 124.—CAMPANULACEÆ, the Hare-bell order (Figs. 1551 to 1555).—Lactescent herbs or undershrubs, with alternate exsti-

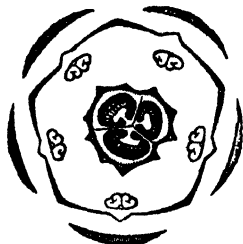


Fig. 1551



Fig. 1555.



Fig. 1552.



Fig. 1554.

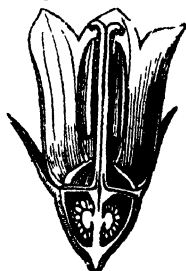


Fig. 1553.

panulate leaves, and usually showy blue or white flowers (Fig. 394, p. 165). Calyx superior, limb commonly 5-cleft, persistent (Fig. 1553). Corolla regular, campanulate, usually 5-lobed, marcescent (Fig. 1552). Stamens 5, distinct. Style with collecting hairs (Fig. 1554 and Fig. 109, p. 45). Fruit a 2 or many celled capsule, loculicidal, dehiscing by openings at the sides or by valves at the apex. Seeds numerous,

panicle cymose flowers, irregular epigynous corolla, and irritable column, formed by the union of stamens and style. The column projects from the flower, and, when irritated, moves from one side of the flower to the other.

Figures 1551 to 1555 illustrate the natural order Campanulaceæ.

Fig. 1551. Diagram of the flower of *Campanula Rapunculus*, Rampon, showing 5 divisions of the calyx limb, 5 reduplicate-valvate divisions of the corolla, 5 stamens, alternating with the corolla lobes, and a 3-celled ovary. Fig. 1552. Bell-shaped corolla of *Campanula Rapunculus* with superior calyx. Fig. 1553. Vertical section of the flower of *Campanula Medium*; superior calyx, ovary with central placenta and numerous seeds, stamens with filaments dilated at the base, and anthers applied to the collecting hairs on the style. Fig. 1554. Style with collecting hairs. Fig. 1555. Section of ovary of *Campanula Medium*, showing 5 cells and numerous ovules attached to processes proceeding from the central placenta.

albuminous, attached to a central placenta (Fig. 1555). Chiefly natives of the northern parts of Europe, Asia, and North America. Those with capsules opening by lateral pores appear to be natives of the northern hemisphere; those with apicular valves, of the southern. Known species 500. *Ill. Gen.*—*Jasione*, *Lightfootia*, *Canarina*, *Wahlenbergia*, *Prismatocarpus*, *Phyteuma*, *Campanula*, *Specularia*, *Musschia*, *Cyphia*.

1326. The Bellworts have an acrid milky juice, but occasionally the young shoots and roots are cultivated as articles of food.

Campanula, Hare-bell, has many species which are admired for their beauty. *C.*

Rapunculus, Rampion, is used as an esculent vegetable.

Cyphia glandulifera. Its tubers are farinaceous, and are eaten in Abyssinia. Those of *C. digitata* are used by the Hottentots.

1327. Nat. Ord. 125.—LOBELIACEÆ, the Lobelia order.—Lactescent herbs or shrubs, with alternate, exstipulate leaves. Calyx superior, limb often 5-lobed. Corolla irregularly 5-lobed, often deeply cleft. Stamens 5, epigynous, synantherous. Stigma fringed. Fruit capsular, 1 or more celled, dehiscing at the apex. Seeds numerous, albuminous. Natives chiefly of tropical or subtropical climates. Species 375. *Ill. Gen.*—*Clintonia*, *Lobelia*, *Tupa*, *Siphocampylus*, *Delissea*, *Colensoa*.

1328. The Lobeliads have usually an acro-narcotic milky juice, and hence the species are often poisonous. The milky juice is sometimes used for caoutchouc.

Lobelia inflata, a North American species, is used medicinally under the name of Indian Tobacco. Its properties are antispasmodic and sedative, as well as expectorant and emetic. The root of *L. syphilitica* has emetic properties. *L. urens*, a native of the South of England and other parts of Europe, has blistering qualities.

Tupa. Some of the species are said to be dangerous poisons.

1329. Nat. Ord. 126.—STYRACACEÆ or SYMPLOCACEÆ, the Storax order (Fig. 1556).—Trees or shrubs, with alternate, exstipulate leaves, usually with stellate tomentum. Calyx free, persistent, with 5 or 4 lobes, or entire. Corolla 5 or 10 divided. Stamens definite or indefinite, arising from the corolla, more or less cohering. Ovary 3-5-celled. Ovules partly erect and partly pendulous. Fruit succulent, enclosed by the calyx, often unilocular by abortion.

Seeds albuminous. Miens divides this into two orders, *Styracaceæ* and *Symplocaceæ*, the former differing in their uniserial stamens,



Fig. 1556.

Fig. 1556. *Styrax officinale*, the Storax tree, a native of Syria and Arabia. It seems to be the Hebrew Libneh, translated Poplar, Gen xxx 37, and Hos iv 13

linear anthers, superior ovary, free central placenta, one-seeded drupe, and stellate hairs. Sparingly distributed, chiefly in tropical and sub-tropical regions. Species about 120. *Ill. Gen.*—*Styrax*, *Halesia*, *Pamphilia*, *Symplocos*, *Hopea*.

1330. Some of the plants are bitter and aromatic, others yield a fragrant stimulant resin.

Halesia. The species are natives of America, and from the appearance of their flowers receive the name of Snow-drop trees.

Styrax Benzoin, a tree of the Malay Archipelago, produces the concrete balsamic exudation Benzoin, which is employed medicinally as an expectorant, and is also used for incense. *S. officinale* (Fig. 1556), a native of Syria, produces the resin called Storax, which is prescribed as a pectoral remedy. The tree is probably the Hebrew Libneh, translated in our version of the Bible, Poplar. Both these balsamic resins contain Benzoic acid. A fragrant secretion from *S. reticulata* is also used as frankincense.

Symplocos tinctoria has sweet leaves, which are used as a dye. The leaves of *S. Alstonia* are sometimes employed as Tea.

1331. Nat. Ord. 127.—COLUMELLIACEÆ, the Columellia order.—Evergreen shrubs or trees, with opposite exstipulate leaves and yellow flowers. Calyx adherent, 5-parted. Corolla rotate, 5-8-parted. Stamens 2, on the corolla. Anthers sinuous. Disk epigynous. Fruit a 2-celled polyspermal capsule. Seeds albuminous. A small and doubtful order, placed by Lindley in his Cinchonal Alliance. Natives of Mexico and Peru. Species 3. *Ill. Gen.*—*Columellia*.

1332. Nat. Ord. 128.—VACCINIACEÆ, the Cranberry order.—Shrubs with alternate exstipulate leaves. Calyx superior. Corolla 4-6-lobed. Anthers biporose, with appendages. Fruit succulent, 4-10-celled. Seeds albuminous. The order differs from Ericaceæ chiefly in its epigynous calyx. Natives of temperate regions, and found often in sub-alpine swamps. Species 200. *Ill. Gen.*—*Gaylussacia*, *Oxycoccus*, *Vaccinium*, *Thibaudia*.

1333. Astringent properties prevail in the order. The berried fruit is subacid and eatable.

Oxycoccus palustris (*Vaccinium Oxycoccus*), a marsh plant, produces the Cranberry in Britain. *O. macrocarpa* is the American Cranberry.

Thibaudia. The species help to form the shrubby region of the Andes. The fruit of some is used as food, and for making wine.

Vaccinium Myrtillus is the Bilberry or Blaeberry. *V. Vitis Idæa*, Red Whortleberry or Cowberry, is used as a substitute for the Cranberry. *V. uliginosum* produces the Black Whortleberry of Highland districts.

1334. Analysis of the natural orders of Calycifloral Exogens, with references to the numbers of the orders in the preceding pages.

A. POLYPETALOUS ORDERS.

I. Flowers Polyandrous. Stamens more than 20.

1. Ovary wholly superior.

a. Leaves exstipulate (without stipules).

Carpels more or less distinct or solitary.

Ovules suspended or ascending Rosaceæ, 76.

Ovule attached by a cord to the base of the cell ... Anacardiaceæ, 71.

- Carpels combined into a solid pistil, with more placentas than one.
 Calyx of two sepals cohering at the base Portulacaceæ, 97.
 Calyx of more than two sepals, tubular, permanent Lythraceæ, 78.
- b. *Leaves stipulate (with stipules)*.
 Carpels more or less distinct or solitary.
 Calyx with the odd lobe inferior Leguminosæ, 74.
 Calyx with the odd lobe superior Rosaceæ, 76.
 Carpels combined into a solid pistil, with more placentas than one.
 Placentas in the axis Portulacaceæ, 97.
2. Ovary inferior, or partially so.
- a. *Leaves exstipulate*.
 Placentas parietal.
 Petals definite, distinct from the calyx, hooded Loasaceæ, 91.
 Petals indefinite, passing into the sepals Cactaceæ, 102
 Placentas in the axis.
 Leaves with transparent dots.
 Ovary 1-celled, cotyledons not distinct Chamælauciaceæ, 86.
 Ovary more than 1-celled, cotyledons distinct ... Myrtaceæ, 85.
 Leaves without dots.
 Petals indefinite Mesembryanthemaceæ, 100.
 Petals definite.
 Petals linear, reflexed Alangiaceæ, 88.
 Petals round and concave.
 Style one, stigma capitate Barringtoniaceæ, 88.
 Styles and stigmas more than one Philadelphaceæ, 84.
- b. *Leaves stipulate*.
 Carpels more or less distinct or solitary.
 Carpels covered by the calyx Rosaceæ, 76.
 Carpels combined into a solid pistil.
 Leaves opposite Rhizophoraceæ, 79.
 Leaves alternate; fruit a pyxis Lecythidaceæ, 87.

II. Flowers Oligandrous. Stamens fewer than 20.

1. Ovary wholly superior.
- a. *Leaves exstipulate*.
 Carpels more or less distinct or solitary.
 Carpels, each with a hypogynous scale Crassulaceæ, 99.
 Carpels without hypogynous scales.
 Carpels several, all perfect Calycanthaceæ, 77.
 Carpels solitary, or all but one imperfect.
 Leaves dotted Amyridaceæ, 72.
 Leaves not dotted.
 Plants with resinous juice Anacardiaceæ, 71.
 Plants without resinous juice Connaraceæ, 78.
 Carpels combined (at least by their ovaries) into a solid pistil.
 Placentas parietal.
 Flowers unisexual Papayaceæ, 93.
 Flowers hermaphrodite Turneraceæ, 96.
 Placentas in the axis.
 Styles distinct to the base,
 Carpels, each with a hypogynous scale Crassulaceæ, 99.
 Carpels two, without scales Saxifragaceæ, 105.
 Styles more or less combined.
 Calyx imbricate.
 Sepals two Portulacaceæ, 97.

- Sepals more than two.
 Ovules ascending Celastraceæ, 68.
 Ovules suspended..... Bruniaceæ, 108.
 Calyx valvate or open.
 Stamens opposite to the petals, isomerous ... Rhamnaceæ, 70.
 Stamens alternate with the petals, if isomerous Lythraceæ, 78.
- b. *Leaves stipulate.***
 Carpels distinct or solitary.
 Fruit leguminous; odd sepal inferior Leguminosæ, 74.
 Fruit not leguminous; odd sepal superior Rosaceæ, 76.
 Carpels combined (at least by their ovaries) into a solid pistil.
 Placentas parietal.
 Flowers with a ring of appendages (abortive petals) Passifloraceæ, 95.
 Flowers without a ring of appendages Moringaceæ, 75.
 Placentas in the axis.
 Styles distinct to the base.
 Petals minute..... Illecebraceæ, 98.
 Petals conspicuous.
 Leaves opposite Cunoniaceæ, 107.
 Leaves alternate Saxifragaceæ, 105.
 Styles more or less combined.
 Calyx imbricate.
 Flowers spurred Vochysiaceæ, 80.
 Flowers not spurred.
 Leaves simple Stackhousiaceæ, 67.
 Leaves compound Staphyleaceæ, 69.
 Calyx valvate or open.
 Stamens opposite to the petals, isomerous ... Rhamnaceæ, 70.
 Stamens alternate with the petals, if isomerous Amyridaceæ, 72.
- 2. Ovary inferior, or partially so.**
a. *Leaves exstipulate.*
 Placentas parietal.
 Fruit baccate Grossulariaceæ, 108.
 Placentas in the axis.
 Flowers in umbels.
 Styles two Umbelliferae, 110.
 Styles three or more Araliaceæ, 111.
 Flowers not in umbels.
 Carpel solitary.
 Plants parasitic Loranthaceæ, 113.
 Plants not parasitic.
 Petals linear, reflexed Alangiaceæ, 88.
 Petals oblong.
 Plants with resinous juice Anacardiaceæ, 71.
 Plants without resinous juice.
 Cotyledons convolute Combretaceæ, 81.
 Cotyledons flat Halorageæ, 96.
 Carpels more than one.
 Calyx limb minute, inconspicuous..... Halorageæ, 90.
 Calyx limb evident.
 Carpels divaricating at the apex.
 Leaves alternate; herbs Saxifragaceæ, 105.
 Leaves opposite; shrubs Hydrangeaceæ, 106.
 Carpels not divaricating, combined.
 Calyx valvate.
 Embryo curved Tetragoniaceæ, 101.
 Embryo straight.

Stamens opposite the petals, isomerous.....	Rhamnaceæ, 70.
Stamens alternate with the petals, if isomerous.	
Albumen none	Onagraceæ, 89.
Albumen copious	Cornaceæ, 112.
Calyx not valvata.	
Stamens doubled downwards, anthers elongated, leaves ribbed	Melastomaceæ, 82.
Stamens not doubled down, anthers short.	
Seeds very numerous, minute	Escalloniaceæ, 104.
Seeds few, 1-4	Bruniaceæ, 108.
b. Leaves stipulate.	
Placentas parietal.	
Stipules cirrhose	Cucurbitaceæ, 92.
Placentas in the axis.	
Stamens opposite the petals, isomerous	Rhamnaceæ, 70.
Stamens alternate with the petals, if isomerous.	
Leaves opposite.....	Rhizophoraceæ, 79.
Leaves alternate	Hamamelidaceæ, 109.

B. GAMOPETALOUS ORDERS.

1. Ovary superior.

a. *Leaves exstipulate.*

Carpel solitary.

Stigma with a cuplike indusium..... Brunoniaceæ, 121.

Carpels more than one.

Carpels distinct..... Crassulaceæ, 99.

Carpels combined.

Flowers unisexual
 Papayaceæ, 93. |
Flowers hermaphrodite
 Styracaceæ, 126. |
b. *Leaves stipulate.*Stipules minute
 Stackhousiaceæ, 67. |

2. Ovary inferior.

a. *Carpel solitary.*

Anthers united.

Ovule pendulous
 Calyceaceæ, 119. |
Ovule erect.....
 Compositæ, 120. |

Anthers free.

Fruit a single achene, without any rudimentary ones.

Fruit crowned with the calyx, and covered
with an involucrel
 Dipsacaceæ, 118. |
Fruit not crowned, and without involucrel..
 Loranthaceæ, 118. |
Fruit an achene, with the rudiments of two
others
 Valerianaceæ, 117. |
b. *Carpels more than one.*

Leaves exstipulate.

Anthers united
 Lobeliaceæ, 125. |

Anthers free.

Stamens two
 Columelliaceæ, 127. |

Stamens more than two.

Anthers opening by pores
 Vacciniaceæ, 128. |

Anthers opening by slits.

Stigma with an indusium
 Goodeniaceæ, 122. |

Stigma without an indusium.

Flowers pentandrous or tetrandrous.

Leaves alternate
 Campanulaceæ, 124. |

Leaves opposite	Caprifoliaceæ, 114.
Leaves verticillate.....	Galiaceæ, 116.
Flowers polyandrous	Balvisiaceæ, 94.
Flowers gynandrous	Stylidiaceæ, 123.
Leaves stipulate.	
Stipules interpetiolarly	Cinchonaceæ, 115.
Stipules cirrhose	Cucurbitaceæ, 92.

In some Calycifloral Exogens the insertion of the stamens is so near the base of the calyx, that it is difficult to separate them from Thalamifloral Exogens. This may be seen in Leguminosæ and Portulacaceæ. Occasionally the petals are abortive, so that the plants become monochlamydeous. The orders in which this anomaly occurs are:—Celastraceæ, Rhamnaceæ, Amyridaceæ, Leguminosæ, Rosaceæ, Lythraceæ, Combretaceæ, Myrtaceæ, Haloragaceæ, Passifloraceæ, Portulacaceæ, Illecebraceæ, Tetragoniaceæ, Saxifragaceæ, Cunoniaceæ, and Lorantheæ.

SUB-CLASS 3. — COROLLIFLORÆ.

1. HYPOSTAMINEÆ.

1335. Nat. Ord. 129.—ERICACEÆ, the Heath order (Figs. 1557 to 1559.)—Shrubs or undershrubs with evergreen, rigid, entire, whorled



Fig. 1557.



Fig. 1558.

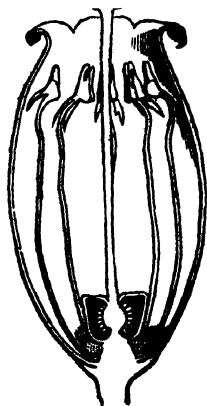


Fig. 1559.

or opposite, exstipulate leaves (Fig. 1557). Calyx inferior, 4-5-cleft,

Figures 1557 to 1559 illustrate the natural order Ericaceæ.

Fig. 1557. *Erica cinerea*, fine-leaved Heath, showing its entire exstipulate leaves and ovate ventricose corolla with a 4-divided limb. Fig. 1558. Diagram of *Erica*, showing a tetramerous flower having 4 divisions of the calyx and corolla, 8 stamens, and a 4-valved capsule. Fig. 1559. Vertical section of the flower of *Erica*, showing calyx, corolla, hypogynous stamens with porose, appendiculate anthers, and ovary with axile placentas and numerous ovules.

persistent. Corolla 4-5-cleft. Stamens 8-10 or twice these numbers, hypogynous (Fig. 1559). Anthers 2-celled, biporose, with appendages. Ovary surrounded by a disk or scales. Fruit capsular, rarely baccate. Seeds numerous, with an adherent testa, and cylindrical embryo in the axis of fleshy albumen. There are 2 divisions of the order, according to Lindley.—1. *Ericaceæ*, fruit loculicidal, rarely septicidal or berried; buds naked. 2. *Rhododendreæ*, fruit capsular, septicidal; buds scaly, resembling cones. They abound at the Cape of Good Hope, and occur also in Europe, America, and Asia. There are about 850 known species. *III. Gen.*—*Erica*, *Macnabia*, *Calluna*, *Menziesia*, *Phyllodoce*, *Dabœcia*, *Andromedâ*, *Clethra*, *Epigæa*, *Gaultheria*, *Arbutus*, *Enkianthus*, *Arctostaphylos*, *Azalea*, *Kalmia*, *Rhodothamnus*, *Rhododendron*, *Befaria*, *Ledum*.

1336. Some of the Heathworts are astringent, others have edible fruit, and others, such as species of *Rhododendron*, *Kalmia*, and *Ledum*, are poisonous. The species of *Erica* have no active properties.

Andromeda polifolia, found in marshes in Britain, is said to be poisonous.

Arbutus Unedo bears a fleshy fruit like a Strawberry, and hence it is called the Strawberry tree. It is common on the islands at the Lakes of Killarney. It is recommended as an astringent in *Leucorrhœa*.

Arctostaphylos Uva-Ursi, Bearberry, is an astringent. An infusion of its leaves is prescribed in discharges from the mucous membrane of the bladder. The plant grows at considerable elevations on the British mountains, and also comes down to near the sea level. The berries of *A. alpina* are used as food.

Azalea pontica is said to be the plant which supplied poisonous honey in the retreat of the 10,000, as mentioned by Xenophon.

Calluna vulgaris, the common Heather. This genus differs from *Erica* in having a septicidal capsule.

Erica. This genus has its maximum at the Cape of Good Hope. It has been remarked by Humboldt, that of the 430 known species of *Erica*, only one has been discovered across the whole extent of the New World from Pennsylvania and Labrador to Nootka Sound and Alashka. In Britain there are six species; of these, *E. Tetralix* and *cinerea* (Fig. 1557), are common everywhere, *E. mediterranea* and *Mackayi* are confined to Connemara in Ireland, while *E. ciliaris* and *vagans* are found both in England and Ireland.

Rhododendron Chrysanthum, found in Siberia, has marked narcotic properties.

R. ferrugineum and *hirsutum*, under the name of Rose of the Alps, form a shrubby belt on the Swiss mountains. Some *Rhododendrons*, such as *R. Dalhousiæ*, are epiphytic. *R. nivale* was found by Dr. Hooker on the mountains of the Thibetan frontier, at an elevation of 16,000 to 18,000 feet. Major Madden says that *R. arboreum* in Kumaon attains a height of 40 feet, with a circumference of 16 feet.

1337. Nat. Ord. 130.—PYROLACEÆ, the Wintergreen order.—Herbs, with simple leaves, generally included as a sub-order of *Eri-caceæ*, but distinguished by their habit, their more or less declinate styles, loose testa, and minute embryo at the base of fleshy albumen. Natives of northern countries. *Chimaphila umbellata* is tonic and diuretic. Species 20. *III. Gen.*—*Cladothamnus*, *Chimaphila*, *Pyrola*.

1338. Nat. Ord. 131.—MONOTROPACEÆ, the Fir-Rape order.—Parasitic plants of a brown colour, allied to *Pyrolaceæ*, but differing in their scaly stems, in the longitudinal dehiscence of their anthers,

and in their minute embryo being at the apex of the albumen. They are also considered by many as a sub-order of Ericaceæ, from which their habit, their antherine dehiscence, loose testa, and minute embryo, separate them. Chiefly found parasitic on Firs in Europe, Asia, and North America. Species 10. *Ill. Gen.*—*Monotropa*, *Hypopithys*.

1839. Nat. Ord. 132.—EPACRIDACEÆ, the Epacris order.—Shrubby plants, with usually alternate, simple, and parallel-veined leaves, having overlapping bases; flowers commonly pentamerous. They represent the Heaths in Australia, and differ from Ericaceæ principally in having one-celled anthers without appendages. Natives of the Indian Archipelago and Australia. They are cultivated for the beauty of their flowers. The baccate species supply edible fruits in general. *Astroloma humifusum* is called Tasmannian Cranberry, and *Leucopogon Richei* is one of the plants called native Currants. Species 320. *Ill. Gen.*—*Epacris*, *Sprengelia*, *Dracophyllum*, *Styphelia*, *Acrotriche*.

2. EPICOROLLÆ OR EPIPETALÆ.

1340. Nat. Ord. 133.—EBENACEÆ, the Ebony order (Fig. 1560).

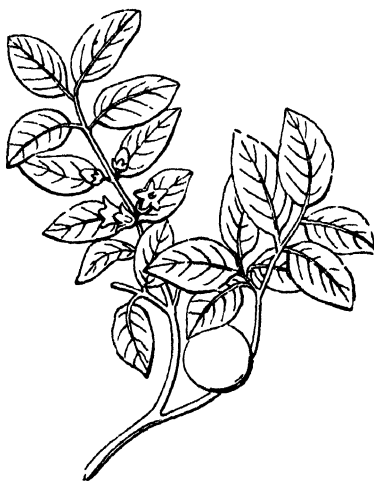


Fig. 1560.

—Trees or shrubs not lactescent, with alternate, exstipulate, coriaceous, entire leaves, and polygamous flowers. Calyx 3-7-cleft, persistent. Corolla 3-7-cleft, often pubescent. Stamens usually twice or quadruple the number of the corolline segments; anthers with longitudinal dehiscence. Ovary 3 or several celled; style with as many divisions; ovules 1 or 2 in each cell, pendulous. Fruit a round or oval berry; seeds large and bony, albuminous. Chiefly tropical plants. Many are found in India, a few in colder climates. Species 160. *Ill. Gen.*—*Royena*, *Diospyros*, *Maba*, *Cargilia*.

1341. The trees of this order are remarkable for their hard and

valuable timber. The bark of some of the species is astringent, while the fruit is in many cases eatable.

Diospyros. The heartwood of several species of this genus constitute different kinds of Ebony. *D. Ebenus* (Fig. 1560) furnishes the Mauritius Ebony; *D. Melanoxylon*, the Ebony of Coromandel; *D. Ebenaster*, the bastard Ebony of

Fig. 1560. *Diospyros Ebenus*, the Ebony tree, belonging to the Nat. Ord. Ebenaceæ. It seems to be the Hebrew *Hoblim*, translated Ebony in *Ezek. xxvii. 15*.

Ceylon; and *D. hirsuta*, the variegated Calamander wood of Ceylon. *D. Kaki* produces an edible plum-like fruit called in Japan Keg-fig. *D. virginiana*, the Persimmon, has an austere fruit, which becomes sweet in the progress of ripening, more especially after frost. The bark of the tree is astringent.

1342. Nat. Ord. 134.—AQUIFOLIACEÆ or ILLIOACEÆ, the Holly order (Fig. 248, p. 112).—Evergreen trees or shrubs, with coriaceous, exstipulate leaves, and small axillary flowers. Calyx of 4-6 sepals. Corolla 4-6-parted. Stamens 4-6, alternate with the corolline segments; anthers dehiscing longitudinally. Ovary 2-6-celled; a single pendulous ovule in each cell. Fruit fleshy, containing from 2 to 6 nucules. Embryo minute in fleshy albumen. Natives of various parts of the world, but sparingly distributed. Species 110. *III. Gen.*—*Cassine*, *Ilex*, *Prinos*, *Byronia*.

1343. Bitter, tonic, astringent, and emetic properties exist in the order. Some are used in the same way as tea.

Ilex Aquifolium, the common Holly (Fig. 248, p. 112), has a tonic bark, which has been used in intermittents. Its berries cause vomiting and purging. Bird-lime is obtained from its bark. *I. paraguayensis* is called *Maté* in South America, where its leaves are used for tea, which is called *Congonha*. They contain Theine. The plant is used universally throughout Brazil, Uruguay, Paraguay, the Plate District, Chili, and Peru. The leaves of *I. vomitoria* are used in the preparation of the black drink of the Creek Indians.

Prinos verticillatus is used as a tonic in North America.

1344. Nat. Ord. 135.—SAPOTACEÆ, the Sapodilla order.—Trees or shrubs, often with milky juice, alternate, coriaceous, entire, exstipulate leaves, and hermaphrodite flowers. Calyx 4-8-parted. Corolla 4-8-cleft, sometimes with numerous segments. Stamens definite, half of them petaloid and sterile; anthers extrorse. Ovary 4-12-celled, with a single pendulous ovule in each cell; style 1. Fruit baccate. Seeds with a bony testa, usually albuminous. Natives of the tropics chiefly. Species 212. *III. Gen.*—*Chrysophyllum*, *Sapota*, *Achras*, *Isonandra*, *Bassia*, *Mimusops*.

1345. The fruit of many of the plants of this order is edible. The bark is bitter and febrifugal. Some furnish caoutchouc, and others fatty matter.

Achras Sapota produces the edible Sapodilla Plum; *A. mammosa*, the fruit called Marmalade. The seeds of the former are aperient, and its bark is febrifugal.

Bassia butyracea has an oily fruit which furnishes a kind of butter used in Nipal. The Shea, or Galam butter of Mungo Park, is the product of another species. The flowers of *Bassia latifolia*, the Mahona, are collected after they fall, and are used for food, and for the distillation of spirits. A single tree will yield 200 to 400 lbs. of flowers. The fruit of *B. longifolia* gives oil for lamps.

Chrysophyllum. The species of this genus supply fruit for dessert. *C. Cainito* is the Star-apple.

Isonandra Gutta is the Taban-tree, which furnishes Gutta Percha.

Mimusops. The species have edible fruits, some of which, as that of *M. Elengi*, are said to be excellent. The flowers of this plant are aromatic, and its seeds are oily.

1346. Nat. Ord. 136.—MYRSINACEÆ, the Myrsine order.—Trees or

shrubs, with coriaceous, exstipulate, smooth leaves, and flowers often marked with glandular dots or lines. Calyx and corolla 4-5-cleft. Stamens 4-5, opposite the corolline segments, occasionally 5 alternate sterile ones. Ovary unilocular, with a free central placenta in which the ovules are imbedded. Fruit fleshy. Seeds 1 or more, with horny albumen. The plants are said to resemble Primulacæ in everything except their arborescent habit, fleshy fruit, and pitted placenta. They are limited in their geographical range, and abound in islands with an equable temperature, as the islands of the Indian Ocean, Mauritius, Bourbon, and Madagascar. Many of them are handsome evergreen shrubs. The seeds of *Theophrasta Jussæi* supply flour for bread in St. Domingo, and the fruit of *Myrsine africana* is mixed with barley for the food of asses in Abyssinia. Species about 320. *Ill. Gen.*—*Mæsa*, *Embelia*, *Myrsine*, *Ardisia*, *Jacquinia*, *Theophrasta*.

1347. Nat. Ord. 137.—JASMINACEÆ, the Jasmine order.—Shrubs, often twining, with opposite or alternate, usually compound leaves. Calyx and corolla regular, with 5-8 divisions. Stamens 2, included within the hypocrateriform corolla. Ovary 2-celled. Fruit a double berry or capsule. Seeds with little or no albumen and a straight embryo. Natives principally of tropical India. They are remarkable for their fragrance. The oil of Jasmine is obtained from *Jasminum officinale* and *J. grandiflorum*. The flowers of *Nyctanthes Arbor-tristis* are valued as a perfume in India. Species 100. *Ill. Gen.*—*Jasminum*, *Nyctanthes*, *Monodora*.

1348. Nat. Ord. 138.—OLEACEÆ, the Olive order (Figs. 1561 to

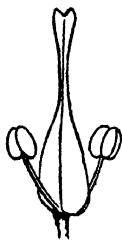


Fig. 1563.

1564.)—Trees or shrubs with opposite, simple, or pinnate leaves. Calyx persistent, sometimes 0. Corolla 4-cleft, sometimes of 4 petals connected in pairs, sometimes 0. Stamens usually 2 (Fig. 1563). Ovary 2-celled; ovules 2, pendulous in each cell. Fruit fleshy (Fig. 1562) or dry, often 1-seeded by abortion (Fig. 1564.) Seeds albuminous; embryo straight. Natives of temperate climates. Species 130. *Ill. Gen.*—*Chionanthus*, *Olea*, *Phillyrea*, *Ligustrum*, *Fraxinus*, *Ornus*, *Syringa*.

1349. Some of the plants of the order have emollient and laxative properties; others are bitter, tonic, and febrifugal. Some supply oil, others manna.



Fig. 1564.

Fraxinus excelsior, the Ash. This is distinguished by its samaroid fruit. It yields a sweet secretion. Its bark is febrifugal. Its leaves have been recommended in gout and rheumatism.

Figures 1561 to 1564 illustrate the natural order Oleaceæ.

Fig. 1561. *Olea europæa*, Olive tree. Fig. 1562. Branch of *Olea europæa*, Olive, with drupes. The plant is often used in Scripture to mark a fertile country (Deut. vi. 11, viii. 8, xxviii. 40, &c.) The wood was used for making the Cherubim and for doors and posts (1 Kings vi. 23, 31, 32). Fig. 1563.

Olea europæa (Figs. 1561, 1562, and Fig. 81, p. 86), the Olive, has a drupaceous fruit which yields, on expression, Olive Oil. The finest oil is imported from



Fig. 1561.



Fig. 1562.

Florence and Provence. Its bark is reputed tonic, and exudes a resin which contains a crystalline principle, olivine. It is the Hebrew Zait or Sait, and the Greek Elaia, frequently mentioned in Scripture. Two varieties of Olive-trees are distinguished, the long-leaved, which is cultivated in the South of France and Italy, and the broad-leaved in Spain. The wild Olive, called by the Greeks Agrielaia, was a low spiny tree, the branches of which were grafted on the cultivated Olive (Rom. xi. 17, 24). Olive trees attain a great age. Some of those in Palestine are calculated at 2000 years old. The tree is one of the earliest mentioned in the Bible (Gen. viii. 11). Its oil and wood were highly prized. *Olea fragrans* is used in China to perfume tea.

Ornus rotundifolia is called Manna-ash, on account of its sweet exudation, to which the name of manna is given at the present day. A similar product is yielded by *O. europæa*.



Fig. 1565.

1350. Nat. Ord. 139.—SALVADORACEÆ, the *Salvadora* order (Fig. 1565).—Small trees or shrubs, with

Naked (Achlamydeous) flower of *Fraxinus excelsior*, the Ash, showing 2 stamens and a 2-celled pistil. Fig. 1564. Samaroid fruit of the Ash, laid open to show the solitary anatropal pendulous ovule filling the single perfect cell.

Fig. 1565. *Salvadora persica*, belonging to the natural order Salvadoraceæ. It is the Greek Sinapi, translated Mustard in the New Testament (Matt. xiii. 31, xvii. 20; Mark iv. 31; Luke xiii. 19, xvii. 6). The Arabic name for mustard, Khardal, is applied at the present day to this tree in Palestine, and its seeds are used in the same way as mustard.

opposite leaves and minute paniced flowers. Calyx of 4 minute sepals. Corolla 4-partite. Stamens 4. Ovary superior. Fruit baccate, 1-celled. Seed solitary, exalbuminous. The order is considered by Planchon as allied to Oleaceæ. Natives of Syria and India. *III. Gen.*—*Salvadora*, *Bouea*.

1351. The plants are acrid and stimulant, and some of them have properties like Mustard.

Salvadora persica (Fig. 1565) appears to be the Mustard-plant of Scripture. It has a small seed which grows into a tree. It is found in Persia, Arabia, Palestine, and North Africa, and seems to be different from the Indian plant, which is *S. Koenigii* or *S. indica*.

1352. Nat. Ord. 140.—ASCLEPIADACEÆ, the Milkweed order (Figs.



Fig. 1566.



Fig. 1567.



Fig. 1568.

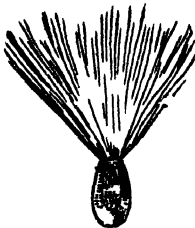


Fig. 1569.



Fig. 1570.

1566 to 1570).—Lactescent, often twining shrubs or herbs, having

Figures 1566 to 1570 illustrate the natural order Asclepiadaceæ.

Fig. 1566. Flower of *Asclepias*, showing the united stamens surrounding the pistil. The stamens have horn-like appendages, *a*, which form a staminal crown. The sepals and petals, *p*, are reflexed. Fig. 1567. One of the stamens of *Asclepias* removed, showing the filament, *f*, the anther, *a*, containing pollen masses, and the peculiar staminal appendage, *p*. Fig. 1568. Pistil of *Asclepias*, *a*, with pollen masses, *p*, adhering to the stigma, *s*. Pollen masses, *b*, detached from the stigma, united by a gland-like body. Fig. 1569. Comose seed of *Asclepias*. Fig. 1570. *Stapelia variegata*, one of the Carrion flowers, so called from their fetid odour. The plant has a resemblance to a Cactus or *Euphorbia* in its stem and branches.

entire, usually opposite leaves, with interpetiolar stipulary cilia. Calyx 5-divided. Corolla 5-lobed, æstivation imbricate, rarely valvate. Stamens 5; filaments usually connate; pollen in wax-like masses (Fig. 1568, *b*), cohering in pairs and attached to glands at the five angles of the stigma (Fig. 1568, *p*), which is common to the two styles. Fruit consisting of two follicles, containing numerous comose seeds (Fig. 1569), with thin albumen. Chiefly tropical plants, found in Africa, India, and America. Species about 920. *Ill. Gen.*—*Hemidesmus*, *Periploca*, *Secamone*, *Solenostemma*, *Calotropis*, *Cynanchum*, *Asclepias*, *Gonolobus*, *Stephanotis*, *Dischidia*, *Hoya*, *Ceropegia*, *Stapelia*.

1353. The *Asclepiads* have acrid, stimulating, purgative, diaphoretic, and emetic properties. Most of the species have milky juice containing caoutchouc.

Asclepias tuberosa, the Butterfly-weed or Pleurisy-root, is employed medicinally in North America as a laxative and diaphoretic. *A. curassavica* is called Wild Ipecacuan in the West Indies, on account of its emetic qualities. Some species of *Asclepias* are called in America Wild Cotton, on account of the hairs attached to their seeds. *A. tenacissima* yields Jeteo or Tongoose fibre.

Calotropis gigantea is the Mudar plant of Bengal. The bark is employed medicinally as an emetic and diaphoretic. It contains a substance, mudarine, remarkable as being less soluble in hot than in cold water. It is said to yield Yercum fibres. *C. procerà* (Hamiltonii), is another species which supplies Mudar; specimens of which have been transmitted to the Botanical Museum at Edinburgh by Lieutenant R. MacLagan.

Cynanchum monspeliacum has a purgative juice which is used at Montpellier to adulterate Scammony. *C. vincetoxicum*, which is emeto-cathartic, derives its name from supposed virtues as an antidote to poisons.

Dischidia Rafflesiana, a twining plant of India, is furnished with ascidia.

Gomphocarpus fruticosus, is called Argel in Syria, and is said to be used as an adulteration of Senna. It sometimes receives the name of Silk-plant. *G. pedunculatus* has an edible root.

Gymnema lactiferum yields a bland milk, and is called the Cow-plant of Ceylon.

Hemidesmus indicus is called Indian Sarsaparilla, because its roots are used in India as a substitute for that drug. It contains a solid volatile matter, which gives it aromatic qualities.

Hoya. The species of this genus, from the peculiar appearance of their flowers, are denominated Wax-plants.

Marsdenia tinctoria supplies a blue dye resembling indigo.

Periploca mauritiana yields the purgative secretion called Bourbon Scammony.

Solenostemma (*Cynanchum*) Argel. The leaves of this plant are used for adulterating Alexandrian Senna.

Stapelia (Fig. 1570). The species of this genus have fetid flowers (p. 547).

1354. Nat. Ord. 141.—APOCYNACEÆ, the Dogbane order (Figs. 1571–1573).—Trees or shrubs, usually milky, allied to the *Asclepiadaceæ*, and differing from them in the contorted æstivation of the corolla, distinct filaments (Fig. 1572), granular pollen, and a peculiar hourglass-like stigma (Fig. 1573). Natives of the tropics of Asia, America, and Africa. Species 570. *Ill. Gen.*—*Allamanda*, *Carissa*, *Cerbera*, *Tan-ghinia*, *Urceola*, *Vinca*, *Plumiera*, *Balfouria*, *Strophanthus*, *Nerium*, *Apocynum*, *Echites*, *Cleghornia*, *Mandevilla*.

1355. Many of the plants are poisonous, some are drastic purgatives. The bark is sometimes tonic and febrifugal. The milky juice

of several species supplies caoutchouc. *Vinca*, the Periwinkle, is the only British genus in the order.

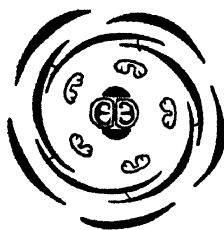


Fig. 1571.

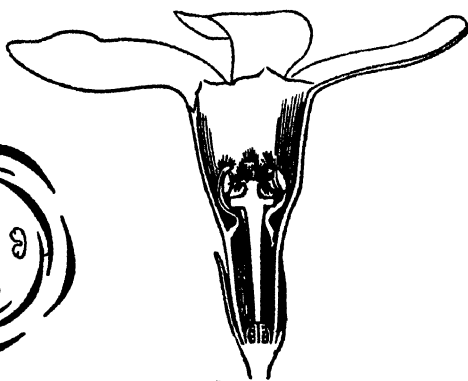


Fig. 1572.



Fig. 1573.

Apocynum cannabinum has emetic roots. *A. androssemifolium* has similar qualities.

Aspidosperma excelsum supplies the peculiarly fluted yarrourra-wood, fine specimens of which are seen in the Edinburgh Museum of Economic Botany. It is used for making paddles in Guiana. The wood was formerly imported into Glasgow, and used for gin rollers in the machinery sent to Demerara for cleaning cotton.

Collophora. Two species on the banks of the Rio Negro yield a bland milky juice. One of the species is called Cuma-i, Sorveira, or Cow-tree. Its milk is sweet and viscid, and, when dry, resembles caoutchouc.

Nerium oleander, Rose-Bay (Fig. 284, p. 106), is said to be the Rhodon of the Apocrypha, translated Rose. It is a poisonous plant with showy flowers. Its stamens have feathery prolongations from the connective (Fig. 648, p. 233). *N. odorum* has similar qualities.

Plumieria Mulongo has soft and white wood, which is used for making spoons and other articles in the Amazon district.

Roupellia grata produces what is called Cream-fruit in Sierra Leone.

Tabernaemontana utilis is the Cow-tree of Demerara, the milky juice of which is nutritious.

Tanghinia venenata yields the famous ordeal poison of Madagascar, called Tanghin.

Ureola elastica receives its specific name from yielding caoutchouc.

Vahia madagascariensis and *V. gummifera*, also furnish caoutchouc.

Wrightia tinctoria supplies a blue dye like Indigo.

1856. Nat. Ord. 142.—LOGANIACEÆ OF SPIGELIACEÆ, the *Strychnia* order (Fig. 1574).—Shrubs, herbs, or trees, with opposite, entire,

Figures 1571 to 1573 illustrate the natural order Apocynaceæ.

Fig. 1571. Diagram of the flower of *Vinca*, Periwinkle, showing 5 divisions of the calyx, alternating with five of the twisted corolla, 5 stamens alternating with the corolline segments, and 2 carpels forming the pistil. Fig. 1572. Vertical section of the flower of *Vinca*, showing the stamens attached to the gamopetalous corolla, and the peculiar stigma. Fig. 1573. Pistil of *Vinca* separated, showing the remarkable stigma, *s*, covered with hairs, and having an hourglass contraction in the middle. Ovary, *o*, with disk, *d*, style, *t*.

stipulate leaves. Calyx inferior, 4-5-parted. Corolla 4 5 or 10-cleft; aestivation convolute or valvate. Stamens varying in number, not always isomerous with the corolla. Fruit a 2-celled capsule, with loose placentas, or a berry, or succulent, with 1 or 2 nucules. Seeds usually peltate, albuminous. Chiefly tropical. Known species 170. *III. Gen.*—*Spigelia*, *Strychnos*, *Gardneria*, *Logania*, *Fagraea*, *Potalia*.



Fig. 1574.

1357. The plants of this order are highly poisonous. They produce tetanic convulsions and narcotism. Some of them are used medicinally as active remedies in certain kinds of palsy. Intense bitterness is met with in some of the species, and in very moderate doses they act as tonics.

Ignatia amara, St. Ignatius's Bean, produces convulsions and death. In very small doses it is tonic.

*Spigelia*s are said to be acro-narcotic. The root and leaves of *S. marilandica*, Carolina Pink-root, and of *S. Anthelmia*, are used as vermifuges, but they require to be administered cautiously.

Strychnos is a very poisonous genus. The peltate seeds of *S. Nux-Vomica* (Fig. 1574), produce powerful effects on the spinal marrow, and cause death by tetanus. They contain the alkaloid called Strychnia, which in doses of $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain, is given in cases of paraplegia, unaccompanied with head symptoms. Another poisonous alkaloid called Brucla, also exists in the seed. The fruit is about the size and colour of a small orange, having a brittle shell, enclosing a pulp. Its bark constitutes false Angustura. The bark of the root of *S. Tieuté* supplies the Java poison called Upas Tieuté, while *S. toxifera* is said to be the basis of the famous Woorall, Ourari, or Uirari poison. *S. cogens* is used to poison arrows in Panama and Darien. Other species, such as *S. pseudoquina*, are chiefly bitter and tonic, and have been prescribed in cases of intermittent fever. The bark of the latter is known as Copalche bark. *S. potatorum* is the Clearing-nut of India used to clarify muddy pond or river water.

1358. Nat. Ord. 143.—GENTIANACEÆ, the Gentian order (Figs. 1575 to 1577, and Fig. 369, p. 155).—Herbs, rarely shrubs, with opposite, entire, exstipulate, usually ribbed leaves, and showy variously-coloured flowers. Calyx divided (Fig. 486, p. 196), persistent. Corolla persistent, imbricate, induplicate, often twisted in aestivation, sometimes with a fringed limb. Stamens alternate with the corolline segments. Ovary of 2 carpels, placed to the right and left of the axis, one-celled, with 2 parietal, often introflexed, placentas (Fig. 1577); style 1; stigmas 2. Fruit a capsule or berry. Seeds numerous, with fleshy albumen and a minute embryo. Natives of almost all parts of the world. Some are found at an elevation of 16,000 feet, others in hot tropical plains. Species about 460. *III. Gen.*—*Gentiana*, *Swertia*, *Agathotes*, *Chironia*, *Exacum*, *Cicendia*,

Fig. 1574. *Strychnos Nux-Vomica*, the Poison-nut or Koochla, a tree abounding on the Malabar and Coromandel coasts. It has opposite ribbed leaves, a round fruit, *b*, of a reddish colour, about the size of a small orange. The seeds, *c*, are circular, flat, and umbilicated on one surface. They contain abundant albumen, *d*, and a small embryo.

Erythraea, *Sabbatia*, *Chlora*, *Lisianthus*, *Menyanthes*, *Villarsia*, *Limnanthemum*.

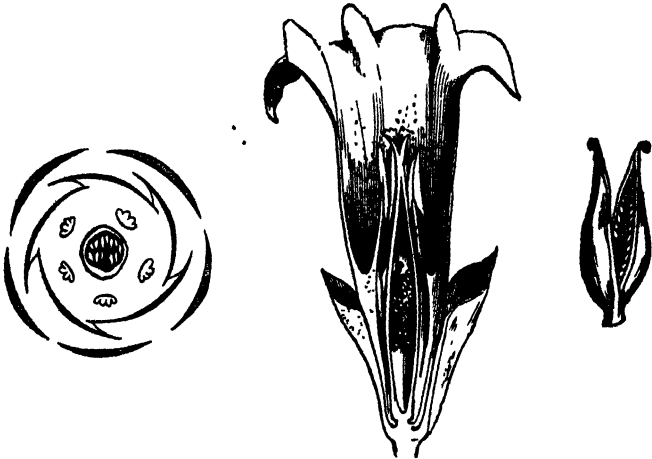


Fig. 1575.

Fig. 1576.

Fig. 1577.

1359. Bitterness is the property which prevails generally in this order. Occasionally the species have emetic and narcotic qualities.

Agathotes Chirayta of the Himalaya, is used in medicine as a tonic and stomachic. *Erythraea Centaurium*, common Centaury, a native of Britain, has similar properties. *Frazera Walteri*, a North American plant, has a bitter root, which is used as a substitute for *Calumba*.

Gentiana lutea, the yellow Gentian of the Alps, is a medicinal plant. Its root is used as a bitter tonic.

Menyanthes trifoliata, Bog-bean or Buck-bean, is a native bitter. Its rhizome is employed in the same way as Gentian, and it has been recommended as a substitute for hops.

1360. Nat. Ord. 144.—BIGNONIACEÆ, the Trumpet-flower order. —Trees or twining or climbing shrubby plants, with exstipulate, usually opposite and compound leaves, and showy, often trumpet-shaped flowers. Their woody stem is sometimes divided in a cruciform manner. Calyx entire or divided, often spathaceous. Corolla with a swollen throat, and a more or less irregular 4-5-lobed limb. Stamens 5, unequal, one generally abortive; sometimes didynamous. Ovary surrounded by a disk, 2-celled; carpels anterior and posterior; placentas in the axis. Fruit a 2-valved, often pod-like capsule, divided by a spurious placental dissepiment. Seeds winged, exalbuminous; embryo with broad leafy cotyledons. Natives of America.

Figures 1575 to 1577 illustrate the natural order Gentianaceæ.

Fig. 1575. Diagram of the flower of *Gentiana*, showing five parts of the calyx, five imbricate divisions of the corolla, five stamens, and a bicarpellary ovary, with numerous ovules. Fig. 1576. Vertical section of the flower of *Gentiana acaulis*, showing divided calyx, imbricate corolla, epicroelline stamens, bicarpellary ovary, one-celled, with numerous ovules attached to parietal placentas. Fig. 1577. Capsule of *Gentiana*, showing the two carpels with parietal placentas and ovules. The carpels are placed to the right and left of the axis.

The bark of *Jacaranda bahamensis*, Paló de Baba, is used in the isthmus of Panama as an anthelmintic. *Bignonia Chica* supplies a red dye called Carajune, used by the Indians of South America for painting their bodies and their arrows. Species 450. *Ill. Gen.*—*Bignonia*, *Calosantes*, *Tecoma*, *Jacaranda*, *Eccremocarpus*.

1361. Nat. Ord. 145.—GESNERACEÆ, the Gesnera order (including Cyrtandraceæ).—Herbs or shrubs, often growing from scaly tubers, with rugose, usually opposite and whorled exstipulate leaves, and showy flowers. Calyx half-adherent, 5-parted. Corolla more or less irregular, 5-lobed. Stamens 2, or 4, didynamous, with the rudiment of a fifth; anthers often combined. Ovary 1-celled, surrounded by a disk in the form of glands or a ring. Fruit capsular or succulent, 1-celled, with 2 lobed parietal placentas to the right and left of the axis. Seeds numerous, albuminous. They are natives of various parts of the world, chiefly the warmer regions of America. The succulent fruits are occasionally eatable, and some of the species yield a dye. Species 270. *Ill. Gen.*—*Columnnea*, *Gesnera*, *Niphæa*, *Achimenes*, *Gloxinia*, *Æschynanthus*, *Didymocarpus*, *Chirita*, *Streptocarpus*, *Ramondia*, *Rhabdotheramnus*, *Christisonia*, *Championia*, *Cyrtandra*.

1362. Nat. Ord. 146.—CRESCENTIACEÆ, the Calabash-tree order.—Small trees, with exstipulate leaves, and flowers growing out of the old stems and branches. The plants are allied to Bignoniaceæ, from which they differ in their parietal placentas, their wingless seeds, fleshy cotyledons, and in the pulpy contents of their woody indehiscent fruit. Natives of tropical regions. *Crescentia Cujete*, the Calabash-tree, has a gourd-like fruit with a hard shell which is used for bottles. The fruit sometimes attains a diameter of two feet, and is used as a float in crossing rivers in Africa. *Colea cauliflora* receives its specific name from the mode in which its flowers appear on the naked stem. Species 34. *Ill. Gen.*—*Crescentia*, *Parmentiera*, *Colea*.

1363. Nat. Ord. 147.—PEDALIACEÆ, the Pedalium order.—Glandular herbs, with exstipulate leaves and large bracteated flowers. They are allied also to Bignoniaceæ, from which they differ in their parietal placentation, their wingless seeds with a papery episperm. From Crescentiaceæ they are distinguished by the want of pulp in the fruit. The ovary, at first 1-celled, sometimes becomes divided by placental septa into 4 or 6 cells. Natives of tropical countries, especially Africa. Species about 25. *Ill. Gen.*—*Martynia*, *Pedalium*, *Uncaria*, *Pretræa*, *Sesamum*.

1364. The plants of the order have generally a heavy odour. Their seeds yield oil as well as starchy matter.

Martynia proboscoidea has remarkable hooked appendages to its fruit.

Sesamum orientale. The seeds of this plant are called Teel seeds, and yield a fixed oil, which is sometimes used under the name of Gingilee oil, to adulterate oil of Almonds.

Uncaria. This name indicates the hooked nature of the fruit. *U. procumbens* is called the Grapple-plant at the Cape.

1365. Nat. Ord. 148.—POLEMONIACEÆ, the Phlox order (Figs.

1578 and 1579).—Herbs, with opposite or alternate leaves. Calyx 5-cleft. Corolla regular, 5-lobed, convolute. Stamens 5, alternate with the corolline lobes; pollen blue. Ovary superior, 3-celled; style 1;

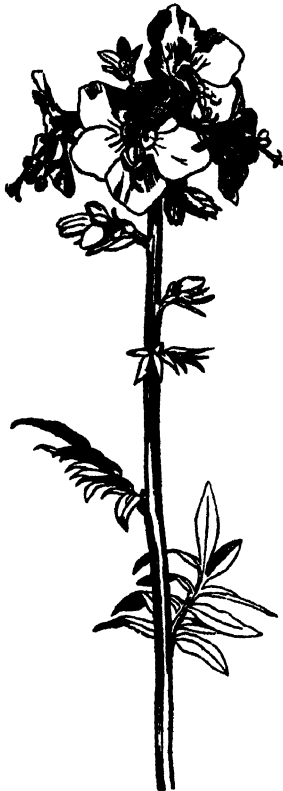


Fig. 1579.

stigmatrifid. Capsule 3-celled, 3-valved, valves separating from the axis. Seeds albuminous, often with a mucous covering containing spiral threads, which spread out

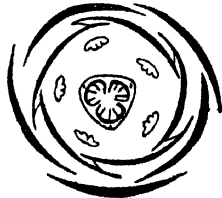


Fig. 1578.

in coils when water is applied (page 19). Natives chiefly of the temperate parts of America. *Polemonium œruleum* (Fig. 1579) is commonly cultivated under the name of Greek Valerian. Species 104. *Ill. Gen.*—Phlox, Collomia, Gillia, Lep-tosiphon, Polemonium, Cantua, Cobæa.

1366. Nat. Ord. 149.—HYDROPHYLLACEÆ, the Hydrophyllum order.—Herbs or small trees, usually with alternate and lobed hispid leaves. Calyx 5-cleft, often with appendages, persistent. Corolla regular, somewhat bell-shaped. Stamens 5, alternating with the corolline lobes. Ovary superior, with 2 parietal placentas, which often line the ovary; styles 2. Fruit a 2-valved, 1-celled, or spuriously 2-celled capsule, filled with a large placenta. Seeds reticulated; embryo small in hard albumen. Natives chiefly of the temperate parts of America. Some species are tropical. Species 75. *Ill. Gen.*—Hydro-

phyllum, Nemophila, Eutoca, Phacelia, Hydrolea, Nama, Codon.

1367. Nat. Ord. 150.—DIAPENSIACEÆ, the Diapensia order.—Prostrate shrubby plants, with crowded heath-like exstipulate leaves and solitary terminal flowers. They are in many respects allied to Polemoniaceæ, from which they differ chiefly in their imbricated bracts, transversely 2-celled anthers, and peltate seeds. These characters with the 3-celled ovary also separate them from Hydrophyllaceæ. Natives

Figures 1578 and 1579 illustrate the natural order Polemoniaceæ.

Fig. 1578. Diagram of the flower of *Polemonium œruleum*, showing five divisions of the calyx, five convolute lobes of the corolla, five alternating stamens, and a tricarpellary ovary. Fig. 1579. *Polemonium œruleum*, Greek Valerian, or Jacob's ladder, with its pinnate leaves, cymose inflorescence, and rotate corolla.

of northern Europe and North America. Species 2. *Ill. Gen.*—*Dianthis*, *Pyxidanthera*.

1368. Nat. Ord. 151.—CONVOLVULACEÆ, the *Convolvulus* order (Figs. 1580 to 1582, and Figs. 140 and 141, p. 59).—Herbs or shrubs,

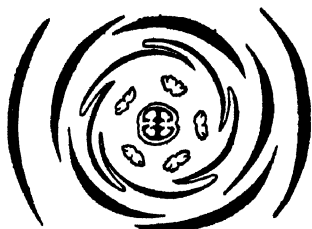


Fig. 1580.



Fig. 1582.



Fig. 1581.

usually twining (Fig. 141, p. 59) and lactescent, with alternate, exstipulate leaves and regular flowers (Fig. 1581), having a unifloral or multifloral cymose inflorescence. Calyx 5-divided, imbricated, persistent. Corolla plaited. Stamens 5, alternate with the corolline lobes. Ovary free, 2-4-celled; ovules 1-2 in each cell, erect; styles united, often divided at the apex. Capsule 2-4-celled, sometimes by absorption 1-celled, septifragal. Seeds large, with mucilaginous albumen; embryo curved (Fig. 1582), with crumpled cotyledons. Chiefly natives of the tropics. Species about 665. *Ill. Gen.*—*Evolvulus*, *Calystegia*, *Convolvulus*, *Exogonium*, *Ipomœa*, *Quamoclit*, *Batatas*, *Pharbitis*, *Dichondra*.

1369. The order is characterised by purgative properties, and it contains some important medicinal plants.

Convolvulus, Bindweed, has many showy species, the roots of which yield a resinous exudation, having cathartic properties. *C. Scammonia* is the source of the purgative gum-resin, Scammony. The root of *C. sepium*, called also *Calystegia sepium*, yields a similar product. *C. Batatas* (*Batatas edulis*), on the other hand, has a saccharine root, which is called Sweet Potato.

Exogonium (*Ipomœa*) *Purga* is the plant which yields Jalap. It is a native of Mexico, and can be cultivated in the open air in many parts of Britain.

Ipomœa macrorrhiza has large edible farinaceous roots. *I. Orizabensis* yields an inferior kind of Jalap, known as fusiform, or light Jalap.

Pharbitis Nil, called *Merchai* in Bengal, has purgative seeds.

1370. Nat. Ord. 152.—CUSCUTACEÆ, the Dodder order (Figs. 1583 and 1584).—Leafless parasitic twining herbs, generally reckoned a sub-order of *Convolvulacæ*. They are marked by scales alternat-

Figures 1580 to 1582 illustrate the natural order *Convolvulacæ*.

Fig. 1580. Diagram of the flower of *Calystegia* (*Convolvulus*) *sepium*, Great Bindweed, showing two bracts, five divisions of the calyx, five lobes of the plaited campanulate corolla, five stamens, and a two-celled ovary, with two ovules in each cell. Fig. 1581. *Convolvulus Scammonia*, the Scammony plant, found in Greece and the Levant. The concrete milky juice of the large root constitutes Scammony, which is imported from Smyrna. The root of *Calystegia sepium* (Fig. 140, p. 59), supplies a spurious kind of Scammony. Fig. 1582. Seed of *Calystegia sepium* cut vertically, showing the curved embryo and plaited cotyledons, with the mucilaginous albumen. See also Fig. 1311, p. 780, which illustrates the affinities of the order.

ing with the corolline lobes, and a filiform spiral acotyledonous embryo. The seeds germinate in the usual way, and afterwards the plants



Fig. 1583.

become true parasites. Some of them destroy Flax, Clover, and other crops (page 696). They are also purgative in their qualities. Natives of temperate regions. Species 50. *Ill. Gen.*—*Cuscuta*, *Epilinella*, *Lepidanche*.



Fig. 1584.

1371. Nat. Ord. 153.—CORDIACEÆ, the *Sebesten* order.—Trees with alternate, exstipulate, rough leaves. Calyx 4-5-toothed. Corolla 4-5-cleft, regular. Stamens alternate with the corolline segments; anthers versatile. Ovary superior, 4-8-celled; stigma 4-8-cleft. Fruit drupaceous, 4-8-celled, with a single exalbuminous seed in each cell, pendulous by a long cord. Embryo with plaited cotyledons. The drupes of *Cordia Myxa* and *C. latifolia* are called *Sebesten* plums, and are used as food. The bark is tonic. The plants of this order are natives of the tropics. Species 180. *Ill. Gen.*—*Cordia*, *Myxa*, *Varronia*, *Sebestena*.

1372. Nat. Ord. 154.—BORAGINACEÆ, the *Borage* order (Figs. 1585 to 1588).—Herbs or shrubs with round stems, alternate, rough leaves, and flowers in scorpioidal cymes (Fig. 1585). Calyx 4-5-divided, persistent. Corolla usually regular, usually 5-cleft (Fig. 1586), imbricate, often with faucial scales (Fig. 1587). Stamens alternate with the corolline segments. Ovary 4-lobed; style basilar (Fig. 1588). Fruit 2 or 4 distinct achenes. Seed exalbuminous. The plants were called *Asperifoliæ* from their rough leaves. Natives of the northern temperate regions principally. Species 683. *Ill. Gen.*—*Cerithe*, *Echium*, *Borago*, *Symphytum*, *Lycopsis*, *Anchusa*, *Onosma*, *Pulmonaria*, *Myosotis*, *Asperugo*, *Cynoglossum*, *Omphalodes*.

1373. Demulcent mucilaginous qualities pervade the order. Some of the plants yield a dye, others are used as pot-herbs.

Anchusa tinctoria, *Alkanet*, as well as other plants of the order, yields a reddish brown dye, which is procured from its roots.

Borago officinalis, *Borage*, when steeped in water, imparts coolness to it.

Mertensia maritima, a sea-shore plant, has leaves which taste like oysters.

Myosotis palustris is the *Forget-me-not*. It is a marsh species, with spreading hairs.

Figures 1583 and 1584 illustrate the natural order Cuscutaceæ.

Fig. 1583. A species of *Cuscuta* or *Dodder*, a parasitic plant, destructive to crops of Flax and Clover. Bunches are seen on its twining stem, by means of which it attaches itself to living plants. (See page 696). Fig. 1584. Section of the seed of *Dodder*, showing the filiform spiral acotyledonous embryo surrounding the fleshy albumen.

Symphytum asperinum, a native of the Caucasus, has been cultivated in Britain as forage. It is particularly recommended as supplying nourishment for pigs.



Fig. 1585.



Fig. 1586.



Fig. 1587.

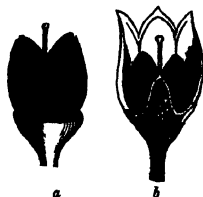


Fig. 1588.

1374. Nat. Ord. 155.—EHRETIACEÆ, the Ehretia order.—The plants of this order are often reckoned a sub-division of the Boraginæ order, from which they differ in their terminal style, proceeding from a concrete 4-celled ovary, and their drupaceous fruit. Some of them, as the Peruvian Heliotrope, have a fragrant odour. They are generally tropical trees or shrubs. Species 297. *Ill. Gen.*—Ehretia, Tournefortia, Heliotropium.

1375. Nat. Ord. 156.—NOLANACEÆ, the Nolana order.—Herbaceous or shrubby plants with alternate exstipulate leaves, having characters in common both with Convolvulaceæ and Boraginaceæ. Their distinguishing characters are their straight inflorescence, valvate calyx, plaited corolla, ovary composed of 5 or more separate carpels, variously combined, united styles, somewhat capitate stigma, and embryo curved

Figures 1585 to 1588 illustrate the natural order Boraginaceæ.

Fig. 1585. *Myosotis palustris*, Forget-me-not, showing gyrate or scorpioid inflorescence, alternate leaves, round stem, rotate corolla. Fig. 1586. Flower of *Symphytum*, Comfrey, with a five-partite hairy calyx, and a five-lobed tubular-campanulate corolla. Fig. 1587. The same laid open to show epicallose stamens and scales between them. Fig. 1588. Fruit of *Myosotis*; *a*, four achenes with basilar style; *b*, fruit cut vertically, showing two achenes attached to the axis, whence the style appears to proceed.

Farther illustrations of Boraginaceæ:—Corolla of *Myosotis*, stamens and scales, Fig. 544, p. 206; Fig. 623, p. 229. Flower of *Lycopsis arvensis*, Fig. 560, p. 211. Stamen and appendage in Borage, Fig. 681, p. 280. Pistil of *Carinthe*, Fig. 700, p. 246. Fruit of *Symphytum*, Fig. 729, p. 268. Also Fig. 1811, p. 730, which shows the affinities of the order.

in a small quantity of albumen. South American plants. Species 35.
III. Gen.—*Nolana*, *Alona*, *Sorema*.

1376. Nat. Ord. 157.—SOLANACEÆ, the Potato order (Figs. 1589 and 1590).—Herbs or shrubs with alternate, often geminate leaves, cymose, generally extra-axillary inflorescence, and isomerous flowers. Calyx and corolla, with 5, rarely 4, partitions. Corolline lobes nearly



Fig. 1590.

equal, aestivation valvate or induplicate-valvate. Stamens 5, very rarely 1 sterile; anthers opening by slits or pores (Fig. 1589). Ovary generally bilocular; style simple; stigma 2-lobed or clavate. Fruit capsular or baccate (Fig. 1590), with 2 cells, rarely more from placental septa. Seeds albuminous; embryo curved (*curvembryæ*) or



Fig. 1589.

straight (*rectembryæ*). Natives of various parts of the world, and abundant within the tropics. *III. Gen.*—*Metternichia*, *Cestrum*, *Habrothamnus*, *Jaborosa*, *Ioichroma*, *Physalis*, *Capsicum*, *Witheringia*, *Solanum*, *Lycopersicon*.

1377. The plants of this order do not display the marked narcotic properties of the next order, and their juice, according to Dr. T. Anderson, does not cause dilatation of the pupil. Some of them yield edible tubers and fruit, others are tonic, pungent, and stimulant.

Capsicum. The species of this genus yield Cayenne-pepper and Chillies, which are acrid and irritant: *C. annuum* is the common *Capsicum*, the fruit of which is not so pungent as that of *C. frutescens*, *C. minimum*, and *C. baccatum*, which receive the name of Bird-pepper. There are numerous varieties of *Capsicum*.

Lycopersicon esculentum produces the Tomato, or Love-apple, which is used for sauce.

Physalis peruviana yields an edible berried fruit called Peruvian Winter Cherry. It is surrounded by the enlarged and inflated calyx. *Physalis alkekengi*, Winter Cherry, has a showy red, accrescent calyx (Fig. 1590, and Fig. 500, p. 199).

Puneeria coagulans is the Puneer plant of Khorasan. The dried fruit is sold in the Indian bazaars under the name of Puneer-já-fotá (Puneer cardamoms), as a carminative and stomachic. It is regarded as the true Hub-ul-Kaking of Arabian and Persian writers. The dried berries are also used for coagulating milk, and for making cheese.

Solanum tuberosum, the Potato, has starchy tubers. *S. Dulcamara*, Bitter-sweet, or woody Nightshade, is used as a diaphoretic in cutaneous diseases. *S. melongena* and *S. ovigerum*, produce edible fruits known by the name of Egg-apples. *S. pseudoquina* acts as a tonic and febrifuge. The berries of *S. nigrum* are edible, and so are those of *S. quitoense*, under the name of Quito Oranges. The fruit of *Solanum laciniatum* is eaten in Australia under the name of Kangaroo-apple. *Solanum sanctum*, according to Forskall, is used in Arabia for coagulating milk. Some suppose that the Hebrew word Chedek, translated Thorns in

Figures 1589 and 1590 illustrate some characters in the natural order Solanaceæ.

Fig. 1589. Anthers of *Solanum*, opening by pores at their apex. Fig. 1590. Accrescent calyx of *Physalis* cut vertically, showing the baccate fruit.

See also Fig. 1511, p. 780, for the affinities of the order.

Prov. xv. 19, and Brier in Micah vii. 4, refers to this species, which is called by some *Solanum spinosum*. The Hebrew words *Besha*, translated Cuckle in Job xxxi. 40, and *Beushim*, translated Wild Grapes in Is. v. 2, are supposed to refer to a species of *Solanum*, either *S. incanum* or *S. nigrum*.

1378. Nat. Ord. 158.—**ATROPACEÆ**, the Deadly Nightshade order (Figs. 1591 to 1596).—This order agrees in most respects with the



Fig. 1591



Fig. 1595

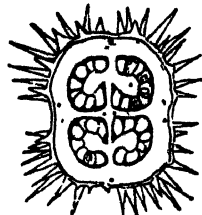


Fig. 1594



Fig. 1592.



Fig. 1596



Fig. 1593

last, of which it may be considered a section. Miers makes it a separate order, distinguished from Solanaceæ by its corolline æstivation being more or less imbricate (Fig. 1591), never valvate. The lobes of the corolla are somewhat unequal. Stamens 5, of which sometimes 1, very rarely 3, are sterile; anthers dehisce longitudinally. The geographical distribution is similar to that of Solanaceæ. The two orders contain about 1000 known species. *Ill. Gen.*—*Nicotiana*, *Datura*, *Brugmansia*, *Duboisia*, *Salpiglossis*, *Browallia*, *Petunia*, *Nierembergia*, *Hyoscyamus*, *Scopolia*, *Anisodus*, *Atropa*, *Nicandra*, *Mandragora*, *Lycium*, *Solandra*, *Franciscea*.

1379. The plants of this order are in general narcotic poisons. Their juice has the property of causing dilatation of the pupil.

Figures 1591 to 1596 illustrate the natural order Atropaceæ.

Fig. 1591. Diagram of the flower of *Nicotiana Tabacum*, Tobacco, showing five divisions of the calyx, five imbricate corolline lobes, five stamens alternating with these lobes, and a dimerous ovary. Fig. 1592. Flower of *Atropa Belladonna*, Deadly Nightshade, showing a five-divided calyx and a five-lobed campanulate corolla. Fig. 1593. Baccate fruit of *Belladonna*, with persistent calyx. Fig. 1594. Dimerous ovary of *Datura Stramonium*, Thorn-Apple. It becomes four-celled by placental prolongations forming spurious septa. Fig. 1595. Albuminous seed of the Thorn-Apple, with curved embryo, cut vertically. Fig. 1596. Pyxidium of *Hyoscyamus niger*, Henbane, showing the operculum or lid by which the two-celled capsule opens.

Atropa Belladonna, Deadly Nightshade or Dwale (Figs. 1592-93), has shining brownish-black berries. It contains an alkaloid, *Atropia*, to which its narcotic properties are due.

Datura Stramonium, Thorn-apple, is so called from its spiny capsule (Fig. 797, p. 272), which is spuriously four-celled (Fig. 1594 and Fig. 711, p. 248). The leaves and seeds contain a narcotic alkaloid *Daturia*. It, as well as other species, such as *D. Tatula*, *Metel*, and *ferox*, are smoked in asthmatic cases. *D. sanguinea*, under the name of *Florispondio*, is used in the Isthmus of Panama to produce excitement.

Hyocyamus niger, Henbane (Fig. 498, p. 199), is a viscid biennial, having a peculiar odour. Its flowers are dingy yellow, and display purple venation. The seed-vessel is a pyxidium (Fig. 1596). The juice dilates the pupil. Similar properties are possessed by other species, as *H. albus*.

Mandragora officinalis, the Mandrake (Fig. 862, p. 287), stimulates the nervous system. The root is supposed to be the Hebrew *Dudaim*, translated *Mandrakes* in the Scripture (page 287). Some think that *M. autumnalis* of Bertoloni, a plant with deep mazarin blue flowers, is the real Mandrake of Scripture. It is a native of the South of Italy and the Levant.

Nicotiana Tabacum supplies American Tobacco. This plant has reddish funnel-shaped flowers (Fig. 528, p. 205; Fig. 541, p. 207; Fig. 415, p. 175). Its leaves contain an oleaginous alkaloid, *Nicotina*, and a concrete volatile oil, *Nicotianina*. *N. persica* is the source of Shiraz or Persian Tobacco. The leaves of *N. rustica* constitute the Syrian Tobacco. The import of unmanufactured Tobacco into Britain in 1852, was 83,205,685 pounds.

1380. Nat. Ord. 159.—OROBANCHACEÆ, the Broom-rape order (Figs. 1597 and 1311, p. 730).—Leafless, scaly herbs, parasitic on the roots of other plants. Calyx 4-5-toothed, persistent. Corolla with an irregular or bilabiate limb, imbricate. Stamens 4, didynamous. Ovary 1-celled, with 2 or more parietal placentas; the 2 carpels forming the ovary placed to the right and left of the axis. Fruit a capsule, covered by the withered corolla, 1-celled, 2-valved. Seeds albuminous, minute. Natives of Europe, middle and northern Asia, North America, and the Cape of Good Hope. Species about 120. *Ill. Gen.*—*Epiphegus*, *Orobanche*, *Lathræa*, *Æginetia*, *Obolaria*.

1381. The properties of the order are bitter, astringent, and escharotic.

Fig. 1597. *Orobanche Eryngii*, a kind of Broom-rape parasitic on the root of *Eryngium*.

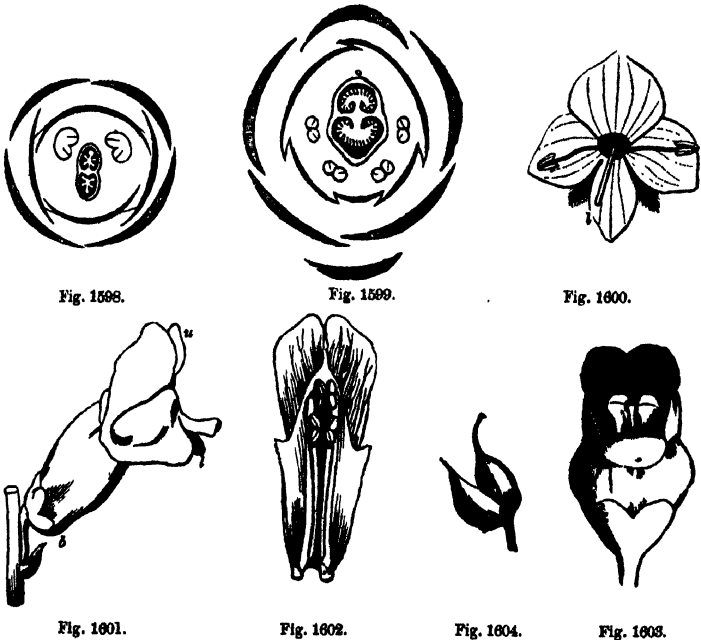


Fig. 1597.

Epiphegus virginiana, Beech-drops, is a native of North America. Its root is used as an application to cancerous sores. Hence it receives the name of Cancer-root.

Orobanches, Broom-rape. The species of this genus are parasitic on the roots of different plants. *O. major* grows on the Broom and Furze; *O. minor* on Clover; *O. Hedera* on Ivy. The stems of *Orobanches* have a large central cellular portion, surrounded by numerous fibro-vascular bundles arranged in a circle without any medullary rays. Their roots present a central vascular region composed of about four bundles, forming, on a transverse section, a sort of cross. At the lower part of the stem a tuber exists, which gives off buds. *Orobanches* are attached to the roots of other plants, and they appear to be truly parasitic, although, from the existence of tubers and roots, they are considered by Henfrey as deriving nourishment also in the ordinary way. In *O. minor*, Henfrey traced the root of the *Trifolium*, to which it is attached, into the substance of the tuber, its fibro-vascular structures ramifying in the substance of the parasite.

1882. Nat. Ord. 160.—SCROPHULARIACEÆ, the Figwort order (Figs.



1598 to 1604).—Herbs or undershrubs with opposite, whorled, or alternate leaves, and anisomerous flowers. Calyx of 5 or 4 parts.

Figures 1598 to 1604 illustrate the natural order Scrophulariaceæ.

Fig. 1598. Diagram of the unsymmetrical, slightly irregular, flower of *Veronica*, with four divisions of the calyx, four of the corolla, imbricate, two stamens, and a bilocular ovary. Fig. 1599. Diagram of the flower of *Antirrhinum majus*, Frogmouth, showing single bract below, five divisions of the irregular calyx, five segments of the irregular personate corolla, four perfect stamens, and a rudiment of a fifth above the ovary, a two-celled ovary composed of two carpels placed posteriorly and anteriorly as regards the axis. Fig. 1600. Irregular flower of *Veronica*, Speedwell, with two stamens. Fig.

Corolla irregular (Figs. 1600 and 1601), lobes unequal, imbricate in æstivation. Stamens 2 (Fig. 1600) or 4, didynamous (Fig. 1602), rarely 5, or with a rudimentary fifth (Fig. 1603). Ovary bilocular, carpels anterior and posterior. Fruit capsular, rarely baccate, usually 2-celled (Fig. 1604). Seeds albuminous, with a straight or slightly curved embryo. Natives of all parts of the world, cold as well as hot. Some are root-parasites, as Eyebright, Cow-wheat, and Yellow-rattle. Species about 1800. *Ill. Gen.*—*Calceolaria*, *Verbascum*, *Linaria*, *Antirrhinum*, *Collinsia*, *Schizanthus*, *Pentstemon*, *Mimulus*, *Limosella*, *Sibthorpia*, *Digitalis*, *Veronica*, *Bartsia*, *Euphrasia*, *Rhinanthus*, *Pedicularis*, *Melampyrum*.

1383. The Figworts are more or less suspicious in their properties. Some are acid, others sedative. There are many showy garden plants in this order.

Digitalis purpurea, Foxglove (Fig. 558, p. 211), is used medicinally as a diuretic and sedative of the heart's action. The officinal parts are the leaves and seeds. Its active principle, Digitaline, is said to be 100 times as powerful as the powder of the dried plant.

Mimulus, Monkey-flower. The species of this genus, and of others in the order, have irritable bilamellar stigmas (page 565). *M. luteus*, a Chilian plant, has become naturalised in Britain.

Verbascum Thapsus, Mullein, is sometimes called Flannel-flower. Its woolly hairs are used for tinder.

Veronica officinalis. The leaves are bitter and astringent, and are made into tea on the Continent. The plant has been called Thé de l'Europe.

1384. Nat. Ord. 161.—LABIATÆ or LAMIACEÆ, the Labiate or



Fig. 1608.



Fig. 1609.

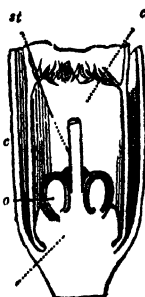


Fig. 1610.

Dead-nettle order (Figs. 1605 to 1610).—Herbs or undershrubs* with

1601. Irregular personate flower of *Antirrhinum majus*, Frogmouth. Fig. 1602. Vertical section of flower of Frogmouth, showing four didynamous stamens attached to the corolla. Fig. 1603. Irregular lipped flower of *Scrophularia*, Figwort, with a transverse staminodium or abortive fifth stamen. Fig. 1604. Two carpels, forming the fruit of *Scrophularia*, Figwort. The carpels are placed anteriorly and posteriorly as regards the axis.

Additional illustrations of *Scrophulariaceæ*:—*Veronica*, Fig. 340, p. 145. *Antirrhinum*, Fig. 561, p. 309; Fig. 810, p. 374; and Fig. 663, p. 336. *Linaria*, Fig. 557, p. 210. The affinities of the order are shown in Fig. 1311, p. 730.

Figures 1605 to 1610 illustrate the natural order Labiate.

Fig. 1605. Diagram of the flower of *Lamium album*, White Dead-nettle, showing five segments of

* *Hypsis membranacea* of Benthham attains in Brazil a height of 20 or 30 feet.

tetragonal stems, opposite, exstipulate, often aromatic leaves, and flowers in verticillasters (Fig. 1606). Calyx tubular, persistent, 5 or



Fig. 1605.



Fig. 1607.



Fig. 1606.

10-toothed (Fig. 1607) or bilabiate. Corolla bilabiate. Stamens 4, didynamous (Fig. 1608), or by abortion 2; anthers 2-celled, or 1-celled by abortion (Fig. 1609). Ovary deeply 4-lobed, on a disk (Fig. 1610); style basilar; stigma bifid. Fruit 1-4 achenes, enclosed by the calyx. Seeds erect, with little or no albumen. Natives of temperate climates. Species 2350. *Ill. Gen.*—*Lavandula*, *Lycopus*, *Salvia*, *Monarda*, *Origanum*, *Thymus*, *Hyssopus*, *Melissa*, *Prunella*, *Nepeta*, *Melittis*, *Lamium*, *Stachys*, *Ballota*, *Phlomis*, *Teucrium*, *Ajuga*.

1385. Labiate plants have no deleterious qualities. They are generally aromatic and fragrant. Some are tonics. Many of them, such as Lavender, Mint, Thyme, Sage, Rosemary, Marjoram, Basil, Savoury, and Hyssop, are used as carminatives and antispasmodics, and are cultivated in gardens for culinary purposes. Many contain a kind of stearoptine like camphor. Oils are procured from the leaves of most of the species, and to these their fragrance is due.

Lavandula vera is the plant which yields oil of Lavender. *L. latifolia* gives oil of Spike.

Lycopus europæus, Gipsy-wort, and *L. virginicus*, Bugle-weed, are used as astringents and sedatives.

the calyx, five segments of the bilabiate corolla, two of which form the upper lip and three the lower, four stamens, didynamous, and four-parted ovary. Fig. 1606. *Lamium album*, with tetragonal stem, opposite leaves, and flowers in verticillasters. Fig. 1607 Irregular calyx of *Lamium*. Fig. 1608. Irregular bilabiate corolla of *Lamium*, showing upper and under lip and didynamous stamens. Fig. 1609. Distractile connective of *Salvia*, Sage, with one antherine lobe, *a*, perfect, the other, *b*, sterile. Fig. 1610. Vertical section of flower of *Salvia*, showing two of the achenes, *a*, with the single style, *st*, the corolla, *cc*, the calyx, *c*, and the discoid receptacle, *r*.

Additional illustrations of Labiate:—Flower of *Lamium*, Fig. 547, p. 208; Fig. 605, p. 222. Flower of *Teucrium*, Fig. 580, p. 209. Flower of *Ajuga reptans*, Fig. 548, p. 208.

Mentha. The species of this genus are the various kinds of Mint, as Spearmint, Peppermint, and Penny-royal. *Mentha sylvestris* is the Greek Heduosmon, translated Mint in Scripture (Fig. 407, p. 171).

Pogostemon Patchouly is said to furnish the perfume called Patchouli or Puchá-pát, which is exported from Penang.

Salvia, Sage, is used as a stomachic, and is sometimes employed in the form of tea. The distractile connective of species of *Salvia* with their one-called anther (Fig. 1609), and their spiral cells, have been already noticed (pages 19 and 228).

1386. Nat. Ord. 162.—VERBENACEÆ, the Vervain order (Figs. 1611 and 1612, and Fig. 1311, p. 730).—Herbs, shrubs, or trees, with



Fig. 1612.

exstipulate, usually opposite leaves, resembling much the Labiatae in their characters and differing in their achenes being concrete, their style terminal, and their leaves usually not containing receptacles of oil. Corolla generally irregular. Stamens 4, didynamous, or 2; anthers 2-celled. Seeds erect or ascending; radicle inferior.

Natives both of tropical and of temperate regions. In the order are included the Myoporaceæ, which differ only in their seeds being pendulous and in the radicle of the embryo being superior. Species about 700. *Ill. Gen.*—*Verbena*, *Stachytarpheta*, *Lippia*, *Lantana*, *Tectona*, *Premna*, *Clerodendron*, *Vitex*, *Myoporum*, *Avicennia*.

1387. Bitter, tonic, as well as aromatic properties are found in the Vervains. *Verbena* was supposed to have many valuable qualities, and was an object of superstitious regard among the Druids.

Aloysia (*Lippia*) *citriodora*, is commonly cultivated under the name of Sweet Verbena, on account of its fragrance.

Avicennia tomentosa, and other species, grow in salt swamps, and send out abnormal roots like the Mangrove. The bark of some is used for tanning.

Gmelina arborea, Ghumbar or Gomar, is a timber tree of India.

Stachytarpheta jamaicensis has tonic qualities. Its leaves are sometimes used for tea.

Tectona grandis is the Teak-tree of India (Saguan or Segoon teak), the wood of which is hard and durable, and is used for ship-building. It is sometimes called Indian Oak. The wood resists well the attacks of *Limnoria terebrans* when exposed to the action of sea water.

Vitex negundo, *V. Agnus castus*, and *V. trifolia*, have acrid fruit, which is sometimes used for Pepper.

1388. Nat. Ord. 163.—SELAGINACEÆ or GLOBULARIACEÆ, the Globularia order.—A small group of herbaceous or shrubby plants,



Fig. 1611.

Figures 1611 and 1612 illustrate the natural order Verbenaceæ.

Fig. 1611. Diagram of the flower of *Verbena*, Vervain, showing a bract below the flower, 5 segments of the calyx, 5 divisions of the corolla, 4 stamens didynamous, and a 4-celled ovary, consisting of 4 concrete 1-ovuled carpels. Fig. 1612. Flowering spike of *Verbena*, Vervain, showing slightly irregular flowers.

with alternate exstipulate leaves and bracteated flowers resembling Verbenaceæ, from which they differ in their 1-celled anthers, pendulous ovules, and superior radicle. Globularia has a solitary carpel. Allied to this order and Vervains is a small group, Stilbaceæ, of which the Cape genus Stilbe is the type; they have slightly irregular flowers, with 4 or 5 stamens, one often abortive, anthers 2-celled, ovary 2-celled, style terminal, fruit 1-seeded, seed erect, embryo inferior. Some of the species of Selaginaceæ are fragrant. They are natives of the Cape of Good Hope chiefly; some are European. Species 120. *III. Gen.*—Selago, Globularia.

1889. Nat. Ord. 164.—ACANTHACEÆ, the Acanthus order (Fig. 1311, p. 730).—Herbs or shrubs, with simple, opposite, exstipulate leaves and bracteated showy flowers. Calyx of 5 sepals, distinct or combined, persistent. Corolla usually irregular, lipped. Stamens 4, didynamous, often 2 by abortion. Ovary of 2 carpels, placed anterior and posterior; placentas parietal, but extending to the axis; style 1. Fruit a 2-celled capsule, opening by elastic valves. Seeds 1, 2, or many in each cell, attached to hooked placental processes, exalbuminous. Chiefly tropical plants, some of them, as Justicia, Ruellia, Aphelandra, and Hexacentris, remarkable for the beauty of their flowers. The lobed and sinuated leaves of Acanthus furnished the ornaments of the Corinthian capital. Species 1450. *III. Gen.*—Thunbergia, Ruellia, Goldfussia, Strobilanthes, Barleria, Acanthodium, Gendarussa, Lankesteria.

1390. Nat. Ord. 165.—LENTIBULARIACEÆ, the Bladderwort order.—Herbs growing in water or in wet places, with radical leaves which are either undivided or cut into filiform root-like segments bearing little bladders, and irregular showy flowers. Calyx divided, persistent. Corolla bilabiate, irregular. Stamens 2, included; anthers 1-celled. Ovary superior, 1-celled; placenta free, central; ovules ∞ . Fruit a 1-celled capsule. Seeds exalbuminous. Found in various parts of the world, most abundant in the tropics. The name Butterwort, applied to Pinguicula, is said to indicate its property of giving consistence to milk. Utricularia nelumbifolia grows in the water which collects in the bottom of the leaves of a large Tillandsia in Brazil. This Utricularia sends out runners and shoots, and often in this way unites several plants of Tillandsia. The leaves are peltate, more than 3 inches across, and the flowering stem is 2 feet long. Species 175. *III. Gen.*—Utricularia, Pinguicula.

1891. Nat. Ord. 166.—PRIMULACEÆ, the Primrose order (Figs. 1613 to 1616).—Herbs with opposite, or alternate, or whorled, exstipulate leaves, and flowers often on scapes. Calyx 5-cleft, rarely 4-cleft, regular, persistent. Corolla regular, 5 or 4-cleft, very rarely 0 (as in Glaux). Stamens opposite the corolline segments. Ovary superior, 1-celled, with a free central placenta (Fig. 1614); style 1; stigma capitate (Fig. 699, p. 246); ovules mostly indefinite, and amphitropal. Fruit a capsule opening by valves or a lid (Fig. 1615). Seeds peltate, albuminous; embryo straight (Fig. 1616), transverse.

The plants abound in cold and in northern regions. Species 215.
 III. Gen.—Androsace, Primula, Cortusa, Cyclamen, Dodecatheon, Sol-



Fig. 1615.



Fig. 1616.

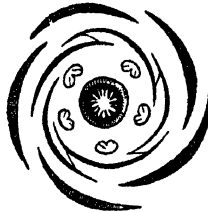


Fig. 1613.

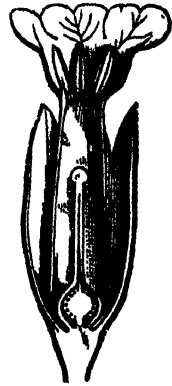


Fig. 1614.

danella, Glaux, Lysimachia, Trientalis, Centunculus, Anagallis, Hotttonia, Samolus.

1392. Sedative, diaphoretic, and even drastic purgative plants are found in this order.

Anagallis arvensis, Scarlet Pimpernel (Fig. 282, p. 105; Fig. 487, p. 197), has a capsule opening by circumscissile dehiscence (Fig. 1615). Its flowers close in cloudy weather (page 532).

Cyclamen europæum (Fig. 360, p. 152), and other species, are called Sowbread, on account of their tubers being eaten by pigs.

Primula. In this genus are included the various species of Primrose, Cowslip, Oxlip, and Auricula. The flower of *Primula veris*, Cowslip, are sedative, and are used in making a kind of wine. The yellow *Primula Auricula* of the Alps is the origin of the cultivated Auriculas.

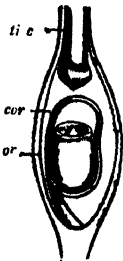


Fig. 1617.

1393. Nat. Ord. 167.—PLUMBAGINACEÆ, the Leadwort order (Fig. 1617).—Herbs or undershrubs, with alternate or clustered, entire, exstipulate leaves, which are somewhat sheathing, and flowers in panicles or in heads. Calyx tubular, plaited, persistent. Corolla salver-shaped, with a 5-parted limb, or composed of 5 unguiculate petals. Stamens opposite the lobes of the gamopetalous corolla,

Figures 1613 to 1616 illustrate the natural order Primulaceæ.

Fig. 1613. Diagram of the flower of *Cyclamen europæum*, Sowbread, showing 5 imbricate divisions of the calyx, 5 contorted divisions of the corolla, 5 stamens opposite the corolline segments, and a 1-celled pistil, with a free central placenta, and numerous ovules. Fig. 1614. Vertical section of the flower of *Primula*, showing calyx, corolla, epicorolline stamens, pistil with unilocular ovary, single style and capitate stigma. Fig. 1615. Capsule of *Anagallis arvensis*, Scarlet Pimpernel, opening with a lid, by circumscissile dehiscence. Fig. 1616. Seed of *Anagallis*, cut vertically, showing fleshy albumen and straight embryo.

Fig. 1617. Ovary of *Armeria maritima*, Sea-pink, cut vertically; showing the ovule, *ov*, with its coverings, suspended by a cord or funiculus, *cov*, which rises from the bottom of the cell. The conducting tissue of the style, *stic*, passes for a certain extent into the ovary.

and hypogynous or attached to the claws of the polypetalous corolla. Ovary superior, 1-celled, with a single ovule pendulous from a long funiculus which arises from the base of the cell (Fig. 1617); styles 5, separate or partially united. Fruit a utricle, or opening by 5 valves. Seed inverted, albuminous. Found in salt marshes and on the sea-coasts of temperate regions; some are tropical. The species have tonic, astringent, and acrid properties; some cause blistering. *Plumbago europæa*, Toothwort, is used for toothache. *P. toxicaria* supplies the principal ingredient of a poison used in Mozambique by the Caffres. Species 231. *Ill. Gen.*—*Statice*, *Armeria*, *Plumbago*.

1394. Nat. Ord. 168.—PLANTAGINACEÆ, the Ribgrass order (Fig. 1618).—Herbs having usually ribbed and radical leaves, with spiked, occasionally unisexual flowers. Calyx 4-parted, persistent. Corolla scarious and persistent, 4-parted. Stamens 4, alternate with the corolline segments; filaments long and slender. Ovary of one carpel, 2 rarely 4-celled by placental prolongations; style 1. Fruit a membranous pyxis with a free placenta. Seeds 1, 2, or many, albuminous. The plants are generally distributed, but are chiefly natives of temperate climates. They have bitter and astringent properties. The seeds of some are demulcent. Species 120. *Ill. Gen.*—*Littorella*, *Plantago*.

1395. Analysis of Corollifloral Exogens, with references to the numbers of the orders in the preceding pages.



Fig. 1618.

A. HYPOSTAMINEÆ.

- 1. Ovary composed of one carpel.
 - Stigma with an indusium Brunoniaceæ, 121.
- 2. Ovary composed of more than one carpel.
 - a. Anthers opening by pores.
 - Seeds with a loose testa. Herbs Pyrolaceæ, 130.
 - Seeds with a firm testa. Shrubs.
 - Anthers 2-celled, with appendages Ericaceæ, 129.
 - Anthers 1-celled, without appendages Epacridaceæ, 132.
 - b. Anthers opening by slits.
 - Leafy resinous plants Rutaceæ, 63.
 - Scaly brown parasites Monotropaceæ, 131.

B. EPISTAMINEÆ OR EPICOROLLÆ.

- 1. Flowers Regular.
 - 1. Ovary having three, four, or five lobes (achenes in fruit).
 - Inflorescence scorpioid Boraginaceæ, 154.
 - Inflorescence straight Nolanaceæ, 156.
 - 2. Ovary not divided into lobes.
 - a. Compound ovary formed by four, five, or more carpels.
 - Stamens opposite to the corolline divisions.

Fig. 1618. Spike of *Plantago*, Ribgrass, showing numerous sessile flowers on a common elongated axis.

- Styles five, rarely three or four..... Plumbaginaceæ, 167.
- Style one.
- Trees or shrubs, with fleshy fruit..... Myrsinaceæ, 136.
- Herbs, with capsular fruit Primulaceæ, 166.
- Stamens alternate with the corolline divisions.
- Carpels separate Anonaceæ, 4.
- Carpels combined.
- Ovules erect or ascending.
- Æstivation of corolla imbricate..... Sapotaceæ, 135.
- Æstivation of corolla plaited..... Convolvulaceæ, 151.
- Ovules pendulous.
- Embryo large, amygdaloid Sapotaceæ, 135.
- Embryo small, not amygdaloid.
- Stamens twice as many as the corolline divisions Ebenaceæ, 138.
- Stamens the same number as the corolline divisions Aquifoliaceæ, 184.
- b. Compound ovary formed by three carpels.
- Herbs with angular, oval, or winged seeds..... Polemoniaceæ, 148.
- Prostrate undershrubs with peltate seeds .. Diapensiaceæ, 150.
- c. Compound ovary formed by two carpels.
- Stamens two.
- Corolla 4-cleft Oleaceæ, 138.
- Corolla 5-8-divided, hypocrateriform Jasminaceæ, 137.
- Stamens four or more.
- Inflorescence scorpioidal.
- Fruit capsular Hydrophyllaceæ, 149.
- Fruit drupaceous..... Ehretiaceæ, 155.
- Inflorescence not scorpioidal.
- Leaves alternate.
- Style dichotomous, fruit drupaceous Cordiaceæ, 153.
- Style not dichotomous, fruit capsular, follicular, or baccate.
- Leaves with interpetiolar ciliary stipules Asclepiadaceæ, 140.
- Leaves without stipules or cilia.
- Ovules definite, æstivation plaited Convolvulaceæ, 151.
- Ovules indefinite.
- Æstivation valvate or induplicato-valvate Solanaceæ, 157.
- Æstivation imbricate, or some modification of it Atropaceæ, 158.
- Leaves opposite or whorled, or clustered.
- Anthers united to the stigma Asclepiadaceæ, 140.
- Anthers free from the stigma.
- Leaves stipulate, often 3-5-ribbed Gentianaceæ, 143.
- Leaves exstipulate.
- Stigma with an hour-glass contraction, æstivation contorted Apocynaceæ, 141.
- Stigma without a contraction, æstivation valvate Loganiaceæ, 142.
- Leaves absent. Scaly parasites Cuscutaceæ, 152.
- d. Ovary formed by one carpel.
- Fruit spuriously 2-celled Plantaginaceæ, 168.
- Fruit 1-celled and 1-seeded Salvadoraceæ, 139.

II. Flowers Irregular.

1. Ovary having four lobes
- Flowers in verticillasters, fruit achenes Labiata, 161.

2. Ovary not divided into lobes.
- a. Ovary formed by one carpel Selaginaceæ, 168.
 - b. Ovary formed by two carpels.
 - Fruit of 4 concrete achenes Verbenaceæ, 162.
 - Fruit of two concrete achenes Selaginaceæ, 163.
 - Fruit capsular or succulent.
 - Placentas parietal.
 - Seeds winged Bignoniaceæ, 144.
 - Seeds not winged.
 - Leafy plants.
 - Cotyledons minute, radicle long Gesneraceæ, 145.
 - Cotyledons large and fleshy, radicle short.
 - Fruit drupaceous or capsular Pedaliaceæ, 147.
 - Fruit woody, with a pulpy interior Crescentiaceæ, 146.
 - Leafless plants.
 - Scaly brown parasites Orobanchaceæ, 169.
 - Placentas in the axis.
 - Seeds albuminous. Scrophulariaceæ, 160.
 - Seeds exalbuminous.
 - Seeds with wings..... Bignoniaceæ, 144.
 - Seeds without wings, attached to hard placental processes Acanthaceæ, 164.
 - Placentas free, central Lentibulariaceæ, 165.

In the natural orders Oleaceæ and Primulaceæ, apetalous and even achlamydeous species are met with, which therefore belong properly to the sub-class Monochlamydeæ. Among Ericaceæ, Pyrolaceæ, Monotropaceæ, Epacridaceæ, Primulaceæ, and Plumbaginaceæ, there occur polypetalous species with hypogynous stamens, which consequently belong properly to the sub-class Thalamifloræ.

SUB-CLASS 4.—MONOCHLAMYDEÆ OR APETALÆ.

1. ANGIOSPERMÆ

a. SPERMOGENÆ,

Having true Seeds with a Dicotyledonous Embryo.

1396. Nat. Ord. 169 —NYCTAGINACEÆ, the Marvel of Peru order (Fig. 1619).—Herbs or shrubs with opposite leaves, and involucrate, often showy flowers. Perianth tubular and funnel-shaped, the limb plaited, coloured, and separating from the hardened base, which encloses the one-celled utricular fruit, and appears to be incorporated with it. Stamens hypogynous, 1-20. Embryo coiled round mealy albumen (Fig. 1619). Natives of warm regions. Their roots are purgative, as seen in the case of *Mirabilis Jalapa*.



Fig 1619

Mirabilis

Fig. 1619 Fruit of *Nyctago* or *Mirabilis Jalapa*, cut vertically, showing the peripheral embryo coiled round mealy albumen, with the inferior radicle pointing to the foramen.

dichotoma, the Marvel of Peru, is called Four-o'clock plant, from opening its flowers about that time in the afternoon. Species about 100. *Ill. Gen.*—Boerhaavia, Mirabilis, Bugainvillia, Pisonia.

1397. Nat. Ord. 170.—AMARANTHACEÆ, the Amaranth order.—Herbs or shrubs with opposite or alternate, exstipulate leaves, and capitate or spiked, bracteate coloured flowers, which are occasionally unisexual. Perianth of 3-5 scarious sepals. Stamens 5, hypogynous, distinct or monadelphous; anthers often 1-celled. In other respects resembling Chenopodiaceæ. Most common within the tropics. They have mucilaginous properties. Some are used as potherbs, and many of them are cultivated on account of their dry, persistent, and finely coloured bracts and perianth. Amaranths are known in gardens by the name of Princes Feather (*A. hypochondriacus*) and Love-lies-bleeding (*A. caudatus*). *Celosia cristata*, the Cockscomb, has astringent properties. Species 486. *Ill. Gen.*—*Celosia*, *Amaranthus*, *Achyranthes*, *Polycnemum*, *Gomphrena*.

1398. Nat. Ord. 171.—CHENOPODIACEÆ, the Goosefoot order (Fig. 1620).—Herbs or undershrubs, with exstipulate, alternate, and occasionally opposite leaves, and small herbaceous, often unisexual flowers. Perianth divided deeply, sometimes tubular at the base, persistent. Stamens inserted into the base of the perianth, and opposite to its divisions. Ovary free, 1-celled, with a single ovule attached to its base. Fruit a utricle or achene, sometimes succulent. Embryo coiled round mealy albumen, or spiral without albumen. Inconspicuous plants, found in waste places in various parts of the world, chiefly in extra-tropical regions. Species 510. *Ill. Gen.*—*Salicornia*, *Atriplex*, *Halimus*, *Obione*, *Spinacia*, *Blitum*, *Beta*, *Suaeda*, *Schoberia*, *Salsola*.

1399. Many of the plants of this order are used as potherbs, for instance, Spinage, Garden Orach, and Beet. Soda is supplied by some of the species of *Salicornia* and *Salsola* growing on the sea shore. Anthelmintic and antispasmodic properties are also met with in the order.

Beta vulgaris, common Beet, is cultivated in France for the sake of its sugar. *B. vulgaris var. campestris*, Mangold Wurzel, is used as food for cattle.

Chenopodium Quinoa is a Peruvian plant, the seeds of which are used as food. Voelcker says, that the meal prepared from them is very nutritious. *C. Bonus Henricus*, English Mercury, is a good substitute for Spinage. *C. anthelminticum* yields a kind of worm-seed oil.

1400. Nat. Ord. 172.—BASELLACEÆ, the Basella order.—A small order of climbing, herbaceous, and shrubby tropical plants, closely allied

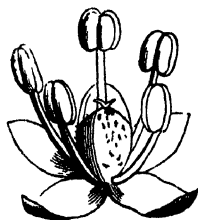


Fig. 1620.

Fig. 1620 Flower of *Chenopodium*, Goosefoot, showing the perianth, consisting of five parts united at the base, five stamens opposite the segments of the perianth, ovary single, superior, with two styles.

to Chenopodiaceæ, and differing chiefly in their coloured double perianth, and in their stamens being attached to its sides. Some species of *Basella* are used as Spinage. *Mellocca tuberosa* has a tuberous root, which is used in Peru as a substitute for the Potato. Species 12. *Ill. Gen.*—*Basella*, *Mellocca* (*Ullucus*).

1401. Nat. Ord. 173.—SCLERANTHACEÆ, the Knawel order.—Inconspicuous weeds, often included among the Illecebraceæ, but differing from that order in their apetalous flowers, exstipulate leaves, hardened tube of the perianth inclosing the 1-celled fruit, and perigynous stamens. They seem to be more nearly allied to Chenopodiaceæ. They occur in barren places in various parts of the world. Species 14. *Ill. Gen.*—*Scleranthus*, *Habrosia*.

1402. Nat. Ord. 174.—PHYTOLACCACEÆ, the Poke-weed order.—Herbs or undershrubs with alternate, exstipulate, often dotted leaves, and racemose flowers. Perianth of 4-5 leaves, often petaloid. Stamens hypogynous or nearly so, indefinite, or 4-5 and then alternate with the divisions of the perianth. Ovary of 1 or many united one-seeded carpels; styles and stigmas distinct. Fruit either succulent or dry. Embryo curved round mealy albumen. Many of the plants are American. They have acrid, emetic, and purgative qualities. The berries of *Phytolacca decandra*, Poke or Poca, yield a deep purple juice. Its root is emetic, and is used in rheumatic and syphilitic pains. The young shoots are eaten as Asparagus. *Gyrostemon*, a genus with unisexual flowers, is considered as a type of an allied order, *Gyrostemonaceæ*. Species 64. *Ill. Gen.*—*Phytolacca*, *Schollera*.

1403. Nat. Ord. 175.—PETIVERIACEÆ, the Petiveria order.—A small order of plants separated from Phytolaccaceæ on account of their stipulate leaves, exalbuminous seeds, straight embryo, and convolute cotyledons. Tropical American plants. They have acrid properties and an alliaceous odour. Species 10. *Ill. Gen.*—*Petiveria*, *Seguiera*.

1404. Nat. Ord. 176.—POLYGONACEÆ, the Buckwheat order (Figs. 1621 to 1625).—Herbs, rarely shrubs, with alternate leaves, ochreate stipules, and occasionally unisexual flowers. Perianth often coloured. Stamens definite, and inserted into the base of the perianth (Fig. 1623). Ovary formed of 3 carpels, 1-celled, containing a single orthotropical ovule (Fig. 1625). Fruit a triangular nut, often covered by the perianth (Fig. 1624). Embryo usually on one side of mealy albumen. Generally distributed both in cold and warm climates. Species about 500. *Ill. Gen.*—*Eriogonum*, *Oxyria*, *Rheum*, *Polygonum*, *Fagopyrum*, *Coccoloba*, *Rumex*, *Triplaris*, *Brunnichia*.

1405. Acid, astringent, and purgative qualities are met with in the plants of this order.

Coccoloba uvifera, Sea-side-grape, yields an astringent matter like Kino. Its fruit, covered by the succulent perianth, is in clusters like grapes.

Fagopyrum esculentum, and other species, are cultivated as Buckwheat. Their fruit supplies nutritious food in many northern countries. Buckwheat is sown in Britain in order to give food for pheasants.

Polygonum Bistorta has a twisted rhizome, which is used as an astringent. *P. Hydropiper* is acrid, and hence its name Water-pepper. The roots of *P. viviparum* are used by the Esquimaux as food.



Fig. 1622.

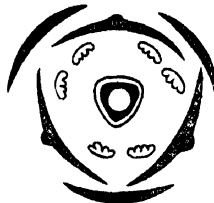


Fig. 1621.

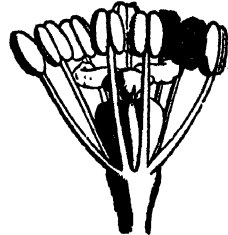


Fig. 1623.

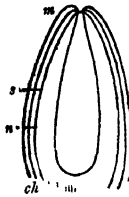


Fig. 1625.



Fig. 1624.

Rheum. Various species of this genus yield the different kinds of Rhubarb. The true officinal species is still unknown. It grows in the very centre of Thibet, a region not usually visited by scientific travellers. *R. palmatum* is generally said to be the plant which supplies Russian or Turkey Rhubarb. Among the other species may be noticed *R. undulatum*, *R. rhaponticum*, *R. compactum*, *R. Emodi*, and *R. Webbianum*. The two latter supply Rhubarb in India. The root of all of these has more or less cathartic properties combined with a certain degree of astringency. The petioles are used in tarts. Oxalic acid exists in the juice, and crystals of oxalate of lime give grittiness to the roots.

Rumex alpinus, called Monk's-rhubarb, has been used as a substitute for true Rhubarb. *R. Acetosa*, *R. Acetosella*, and *R. scutatus*, have oxalic acid in their leaves. *R. Patientia* (Fig. 1622), was formerly cultivated as a subacrid potherb. The fruit of this or *R. orientalis* is used for packing Smyrna opium.

1406. Nat. Ord. 177.—BEGONIACEÆ, the Begonia order.—Herbs or succulent undershrubs, with alternate oblique stipulate leaves, and

Figures 1621 to 1625 illustrate the natural order Polygonaceæ.

Fig. 1621. Diagram of the flower of *Rumex*, Dock, showing a six-partite perianth, in two alternating rows, six stamens in pairs, and a one-celled ovary formed of three carpels. Fig. 1622. Flowering branch of *Rumex Patientia*, showing cymose clusters, with the two rows of the perianth, the inner large and covering the fruit. Fig. 1623. Flower of *Rheum*, with perianth removed, showing nine stamens, which are inserted into the base of the perianth, and are arranged in alternating rows of three, a single tricarpellary ovary with three styles and three disk-like stigmas. Fig. 1624. Fruit of *Rumex* cut vertically, showing the triquetrous achene closely invested by the inner segments of the perianth, two out of the three styles, and the arcuate embryo on one side of farinaceous albumen. Fig. 1625. Orthotropal ovule of *Polygonum*, embryo-sac, *s*, nucleus, *n*, chalaza, *ch*, and foramen, *m*.—See also Fig. 755, p. 256; Fig. 757, p. 259; and Fig. 757, p. 264.

cymose, pink, unisexual flowers. Perianth superior, coloured, with 4 divisions in the male flower, and 5-8 in the female. Stamens ∞ , distinct, or united; anthers collected into a head. Ovary winged, 3-celled, with 3 placentas meeting in the axis. Fruit capsular, winged, 3-celled. Seeds ∞ , exalbuminous, reticulated. Found in the East and West Indies, and in South America. They are said to have bitter and astringent qualities. Begonias receive the name of Elephant's-ear from the appearance of their oblique leaves. Their succulent stalks are sometimes used like Rhubarb. Species 159. *III. Gen.*—*Begonia*, *Eupetalum*.

1407. Nat. Ord. 178.—LAURACEÆ, the Laurel order (Figs. 1626 to 1631; also Fig. 242, p. 109, and Fig. 246, p. 111).—Trees with



Fig. 1626.



Fig. 1628.



Fig. 1627.

extipulate, usually alternate, dotted leaves. Perianth 4-cleft (Figs. 1629 and 1631), or 6-cleft in 2 rows. Stamens often 8-12, the 3 or 4 innermost being abortive staminodia, and the outer fertile; filaments sometimes bearing glands (Fig. 1630); anthers 2-4-celled, opening by recurved valves. Ovary superior, 1-celled, with 1 or 2 pendulous ovules. Fruit a berry or drupe; pedicel often thickened; seed solitary, exalbuminous; embryo with large cotyledons. Tropical plants.

Figures 1626 to 1631 illustrate the natural order Lauraceæ.

Fig. 1626. Diagram of the male or stamiferous flower of *Laurus nobilis*, Sweet Bay, showing four divisions of the perianth, twelve stamens in three rows, some fertile, some abortive, and the abortive pistil as a point in the centre. Fig. 1627. Diagram of the female or pistilliferous flower of *Laurus nobilis*, showing a four-divided perianth, and a one-celled ovary in the centre, with two abortive stamens. Fig. 1628. *Laurus nobilis*, the Sweet Bay or the victor's Laurel. It is supposed to be the Ezrach of the Bible (Ps. xxxvii. 35). The tree attains a height of twenty to thirty feet, and is common in the south of Europe, Spain, Italy, Greece, and the Levant. Fig. 1629. Stamiferous flower of *Laurus nobilis*, with a four-divided perianth, twelve stamens in three rows, some with introrse.

Species 450. *III. Gen.*—Cinnamomum, Camphora, Persea, Nectandra, Oreodaphne, Sassafras, Benzoin, Tetranthera, Laurus.

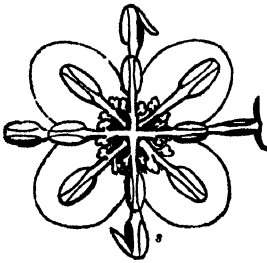


Fig. 1629.



Fig. 1630.

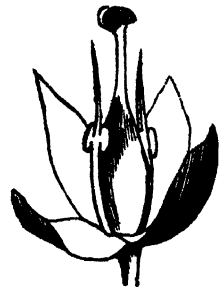


Fig. 1631.

1408. Aromatic and fragrant plants, yielding fixed as well as volatile oils and camphor. Some have tonic and febrifugal barks; others supply edible fruits. The timber of some of the plants is valuable. One of the Lauraceæ, called Itauba, according to Spruce, is the most valuable timber for shipbuilding which the Amazon affords. Its range seems to be from the mouth of the Tapajoz to that of the Rio Negro.

Camphora officinarum, a tree found in China and Japan, supplies camphor, which is procured from the wood by distillation and sublimation. Camphor-wood is used for entomological cabinets.

Cassytha, Dodder-Laurel, is by Lindley considered the type of a new order *Cassythaceæ*. The species differ from the Lauraceæ in being leafless scaly parasites, and their fruit is enclosed in a succulent calyx.

Cinnamomum zeylanicum (Fig. 242, p. 109), is the Cinnamon-tree, the bark of which constitutes the Cinnamon of commerce. It is the Kinnamon or Kinnamomum of the Bible (see note, p. 109). The tree attains a height of about 80 feet. It has acuminate tricostate leaves, the ribs coming into contact at the base, but not uniting. The best Cinnamon is procured from branches three years old. *C. Cassia* (Fig. 246, p. 111), supplies the Cassia-bark; the Kiddah or Cassia of Scripture (Exod. xxx. 24; Ps. xlv. 8; Ezek. xxvii. 19). It has oblong-lanceolate triplicostate leaves. Cassia buds seem to be also the produce of this tree. *C. Cullilawan*, a native of Amboyna, yields a bark having the flavour of Cloves. The same flavour exists in the leaves of the true Cinnamon-tree.

Dicypellium caryophyllatum, a Brazilian tree, is the source of the Clove-bark of commerce, which is used as a spice.

Laurus nobilis, Sweet-bay (Fig. 1628), yields a concrete green oil, called Oil of Bays. Its branches were used to crown the victors in the ancient games. It seems to be the Ezrach of the Bible, translated green Bay-tree. The leaves are aromatic. *Nectandra Rodlei* (*N. leucantha* var. *N. ab. E.*), called Bibiru or Sipiri, yields the Bebeeru-bark, which contains an antiperiodic alkaloid Beberine. Its wood is called Green-heart, and is used in ship-building as well as in constructing piers. The wood seems to resist the attacks of animals in the sea (p. 449). *N. Puchury*

others with extrorse anthers opening by hinged valves. Near the base of the inner filaments stalked glands are seen. Fig. 1630. Stamen of the same flower, showing hinged valves and two stalked glands at the base of the filament. Fig. 1631. Female flower of *Laurus nobilis*, with 4 divisions of the perianth, a single pistil in the centre, and two abortive stamens.

produces an aromatic seed, the cotyledons of which are imported under the name of *Sassafras-nuts*, or *Pichurin-beans*. They are used for flavouring chocolate.

Persea gratissima has an edible fruit known as the *Avocado-pear*. *P. indica* is the *Vinatico* of Madeira, and yields a kind of coarse mahogany.

Sassafras officinale, a large American tree, is used as a diaphoretic. Its root is the official part.

1409. Nat. Ord. 179.—ATHEROSPERMACEÆ, the *Plume-Nutmeg* order.—Trees, with opposite exstipulate leaves, and bracteated unisexual flowers. Perianth tubular, divided at the top into segments, in 2 rows, the inner partly petaloid. Stamens numerous, inserted in the bottom of the perianth; filaments with scales at their base; anthers with valvular dehiscence. In the female flowers, there are often abortive stamens in the form of scales. Carpels numerous, each having a single erect ovule. Fruit achenes, enclosed in the tube of the perianth, having persistent feathery styles. Seed solitary, erect; embryo minute in the base of fleshy albumen. Fragrant plants from Australia and Chili. Species 4. *Ill. Gen.*—*Atherosperma*, *Laurelia*.

1410. Nat. Ord. 180.—MYRISTICACEÆ, the *Nutmeg* order.—Tropical trees, with alternate, exstipulate leaves, and unisexual flowers. Perianth 3-4-cleft, valvate. Stamens 3-12, distinct or monadelphous; anthers extrorse, often united. In the female flowers, the perianth is deciduous. Carpels 1 or many, each with a single erect anatropal ovule. Fruit succulent, 2-valved. Albumen ruminant. Some regard this order as an apetalous unisexual form of *Anonaceæ*. Natives of the tropical parts of India and America. Species 35. *Ill. Gen.*—*Myristica*, *Pyrrhosa*.

1411. The plants of this order are acrid and aromatic. Their bark yields a red juice.

Myristica moschata is the *Nutmeg-tree* of the *Moluccas*. The fruit is drupaceous and dehisces, so as to display the scarlet mace, which consists of a reticulated arilode covering the shell in which the seed or *Nutmeg* is enclosed. A fatty matter and a volatile oil are procured from the *Nutmeg*. The average quantity of *Nutmegs* annually sold by the Dutch East India Company in Europe during the last century, has been estimated at 250,000 lbs., besides about 100,000 lbs. sold in India. Of *Mace* the average quantity sold in Europe has been reckoned at 90,000 lbs. per annum, and 10,000 lbs. in India. In 1814, when the *Moluccas* were in possession of the English, the number of *Nutmeg-trees* planted out was estimated at 570,500, of which 480,000 were in bearing, including 65,000 monocious trees. The produce of the *Moluccas* has been reckoned at from 600,000 to 700,000 lbs. per annum, of which one-half goes to Europe, and about one-fourth that quantity of *Mace*. The annual consumption of *Nutmegs* in Britain is said to be 140,000 lbs. The South American species of *Nutmeg* have been much increased by the discoveries of *Hostmann* in *Surinam*, and of *Gardner* and *Spruce* in *Brazil*. There are in all thirteen known South American *Myristicæ*. They are lofty trees, producing seeds which have aromatic properties similar to those of the Eastern species. They are coarser, however, and the chief use made of them is the extraction of wax for making candles; and their bark yields an acrid medicinal oil too coarse to be used otherwise than for external application. *M. madagascariensis* is the source of the wild *Nutmeg* of *Madagascar*. *M. Otoba* produces the *Brazilian Nutmeg*, and *M. spuria* the false *Nutmeg* of the *Indian*

Archipelago. The name of Nutmeg has been also given to the fruit of some Lauraceous plants.

1412. Nat. Ord. 181.—MONIMIACEÆ, the Monimia order.—Trees or shrubs, with opposite, exstipulate leaves, and unisexual flowers, resembling Atherospermaceæ, from which they differ chiefly in the anthers dehiscing longitudinally, in the ovule being pendulous, and in the want of feathery styles to the fruit. The plants are chiefly South American. They are aromatic. Species 40. *Ill. Gen.*—Monimia, Citrosma, Boldoa.

1413. Nat. Ord. 182.—PROTEACEÆ, the Protea order.—Shrubs or small trees, with hard, dry, exstipulate leaves. Perianth divided into 4, valvate. Stamens 4, placed on the segments of the perianth. Ovary of one superior carpel, containing 1 or more ovules; fruit dehiscent or closed. Seed exalbuminous; embryo straight. Natives of Australia and the Cape of Good Hope chiefly. *Leucadendron argenteum* is the Silver-tree or Witteboom of the Cape; it has a silky covering of its leaves. *Protea grandiflora* is called Wagenboom. It attains a height of 8-14 feet, and, along with other Proteaceæ, supplies the principal fuel of Simon's Town, Cape of Good Hope. Species 650. *Ill. Gen.*—*Leucadendron*, *Protea*, *Conospermum*, *Franklandia*, *Persoonia*, *Grevillia*, *Knightia*, *Telopea*, *Lomatia*, *Stenocarpus*, *Banksia*.

1414. Nat. Ord. 183.—ELÆAGNACEÆ, the Oleaster order.—Trees or shrubs, usually lepidote (Fig. 108, p. 45), with exstipulate leaves, and unisexual, rarely hermaphrodite, flowers. Male flowers in the axil of scales; perianth of 2-4 leaves, sometimes united; stamens 3, 4, or 8. In ♀ and ♂ flowers perianth tubular, with a fleshy disk. Ovary free, 1-celled, with a single ascending ovule. Fruit a crustaceous achene, enclosed in the succulent perianth. Found chiefly in the northern hemisphere. Many are cultivated for their silvery scaly foliage (Fig. 108, p. 45). The scales are beautiful microscopic objects. Some of the species yield edible succulent fruit. *Hippophaë rhamnoides*, Sea Buckthorn, is a spiny plant which thrives on the sea shore, and forms an excellent fence. *Elæagnus parvifolia*, small-leaved Oleaster, bears clusters of red edible berries, mottled with scales. Species 30. *Ill. Gen.*—*Shepherdia*, *Hippophaë*, *Elæagnus*.

1415. Nat. Ord. 184.—PENÆACEÆ, the Penæa order.—Shrubs with opposite exstipulate leaves. Perianth inferior, bracteated, salver-shaped, limb 4-lobed. Stamens 4 or 8, inserted on the perianth. Ovary 4-celled, with 4 appendaged stigmas. Fruit a 4-celled capsule. Seed exalbuminous; embryo with minute cotyledons. Evergreens, found at the Cape of Good Hope. Some yield a gum-resin called Sarcocol. Species 21. *Ill. Gen.*—*Penæa*, *Sarcocolla*, *Geissoloma*.

1416. Nat. Ord. 185.—THYMELÆACEÆ, the Mezereon order.—Shrubby plants with stipulate leaves, and ♂ rarely ♀ flowers. Perianth coloured, tubular, with a 4-5 lobed imbricate limb. Stamens often twice as many as the lobes of the perianth, and inserted on its tube. Carpel solitary, superior, with a single pendulous ovule. Fruit

nut-like or drupaceous. Seed with or without albumen; embryo straight. Natives both of cold and of warm climates in various parts of the world. Species 300. *Ill. Gen.*—*Dirca*, *Daphne*, *Passerina*, *Pimelea*, *Gnidia*, *Thymelina*, *Lagetta*, *Hernandia*.

1417. The plants of this order possess acrid, irritant, and occasionally narcotic qualities. The bark of many of them is tough and tenacious, so as to be used for cordage.

Daphne cannabina has a fibrous inner bark, which is used for ropes and for the manufacture of paper. This paper in India is said to resist the attacks of many insects. *D. Mezereum*, *Mezereon*, is a spring-flowering plant, the bark of which is used in cutaneous diseases, and also as an application for toothache. *D. Laureola*, *Spurge Laurel*, has an irritant bark, and its berries are poisonous. The flowers of *D. odora* and other species have a delightful perfume.

Dirca palustris, called *Leather-wood*, *Moose-wood*, and *Wickopy*, is a North American plant, the twigs of which are used as thongs. Its fruit is narcotic.

Lagetta lintearia is called *Lace-bark tree*, on account of the beautiful meshes of its inner bark.

1418. *Nat. Ord.* 186.—**AQUILARIACEÆ**, the *Aquilaria* order (Fig. 1632).—Trees with exstipulate leaves. Perianth tubular, with a 4-5-lobed imbricate limb. Stamens usually 8-10, inserted into the throat of the perianth. Ovary superior, 2-celled, with 2 suspended ovules. Fruit a 2-valved capsule, or succulent. Seeds exalbuminous. Natives of the tropical parts of Asia. Species 10. *Ill. Gen.*—*Aquilaria*, *Gyrinopsis*, *Leucosmia*.

1419. Some of the plants yield resinous matter, which is used as a stimulant.



Fig. 1632.

Aquilaria Agallochum (Fig. 1632), and *A. ovata* or *malaccensis*, supply the *Aloes-wood* or *Eagle-wood*, which contains a fragrant resin, used in India as a remedy for gout. It appears to be the *Ahalim* or *Ahaloth* of the Old Testament, and the *Aloe* of the New, translated *Aloes*.

1420. *Nat. Ord.* 187.—**CHAILLETIACEÆ**, the *Chaillietia* order.—Trees or shrubs with alternate stipulate leaves. Perianth 5-parted; aestivation induplicato-valvate. Stamens in two rows, 5 outer sterile, petaloid, alternate with the divisions of the perianth, 5 inner fertile, with glands at their base. Ovary superior, 2-3 celled; ovules 2, pendulous. Fruit 1-3-celled, dry. Seeds solitary, exalbuminous. This order is more properly placed near *Celastraceæ*. The plants are con-

Fig. 1632. *Aquilaria Agallochum*, the plant which yields *Aloes-wood*, *Agila-wood*, or *Eagle-wood*. It appears to be referred to in *Psal. xiv. 8*; *Prov. vii. 17*; *Cant. iv. 14*, under the name of *Ahalim*, and in *John xix. 39*, under the name of *Aloe*. *Lign Aloes* of *Numb. xxiv. 6*, is probably the same tree.

sidered dichlamydeous, some being polypetalous, others gamopetalous. *Chaillertia toxicaria* has a poisonous fruit called Ratsbane in Sierra Leone. Natives of tropical America and Africa, and of the East Indies. Species 26. *Ill. Gen.*—*Chaillertia*, *Moacurra*, *Tapura*.

1421. Nat. Ord. 188.—SAMYDACEÆ, the *Samyda* order.—Trees or shrubs with alternate, stipulate, usually dotted leaves. Perianth 4-5-parted; æstivation imbricate. Stamens inserted into the tube of the perianth, 2, 3, or 4 times as many as its divisions, some of them occasionally sterile; filaments united. Ovary superior, 1-celled, with numerous ovules. Fruit a leathery, 1-celled, 3-5-valved capsule. Seeds albuminous, arillate, attached to parietal placentas. Tropical, chiefly American plants, with astringent bark and leaves. Species 80. *Ill. Gen.*—*Samyda*, *Casearia*, *Candelabria*.

1422. Nat. Ord. 189.—HOMALIACEÆ, the *Homalium* order.—Trees or shrubs with alternate leaves with or without stipules. Perianth infundibuliform, with 5-15 gland-bearing divisions, and alternating petaloid scales. Stamens inserted on the perianth, either singly or in bundles of 3 or 6. Ovary adherent, 1-celled; ovules numerous, pendulous; placentas 3-5, parietal; styles 3-5. Fruit a capsule or berry. Seeds albuminous. Lindley thinks this order has true petals, and he places it between *Loasaceæ* and *Cactaceæ*. Tropical plants of India, Africa, and America, having astringent properties. Species 30. *Ill. Gen.*—*Homalium*, *Blackwellia*, *Trimeria*, *Nisa*.



Fig. 1633.

1423. Nat. Ord. 190.—SANTALACEÆ, the *Santalum* order (Fig. 1633).—Trees, shrubs, or herbs with alternate, entire, exstipulate leaves, and small flowers, sometimes ♂ ♀. Perianth adherent, 4-5-cleft, valvate. Stamens 4-5, inserted into the throat of the perianth, opposite its segments. Ovary 1-celled; ovules 1-4; placenta central. Fruit monospermal, dry, or succulent. Seed albuminous. Found in Europe, Asia, America, and Australia, Species 110. *Ill. Gen.*—*Thesium*, *Osyris*, *Fusanus*, *Santalum*.

1424. Some of the species are astringent, others yield edible fruit. The wood is in some instances fragrant, and the bark is tough and tenacious.

Fusanus acuminatus, the *Quandang* nut, has an edible fruit.

Pyrularia oleifera (*pubera*), *Buffalo-tree*, yields a nut from which a fixed oil is procured.

Santalum album (Fig. 1688), a Malabar tree, from 25 to 30 feet high, produces Sandal-wood, which is used as a perfume in China, and in India as an astringent. It may probably be the Hebrew *Almuggim* or *Algummim*, translated *Almug* or *Algum* trees in the Bible. Other species, as *S. Freycinetium*, yield fragrant woods.

Thesium linophyllum, and other species of Bastard Toadflax, are parasitic on the roots of other plants.

Some put the natural order *Viscaceæ* here, separating it from *Loranthaceæ*. It is said to agree with *Santalaceæ* in its apetalous flowers, valvate aestivation, and stamens opposite the segments of the adherent perigone, ovary unilocular, placentas central, but differs in its opposite leaves, dioecious flowers, and in the form of its embryo. The order includes such parasitic genera as *Viscum*, or the Mistletoe, and *Myzodendron*.

1425. Nat. Ord. 191.—ARISTOLOCHIACEÆ, the Birthwort order (Figs. 1634 to 1637).—Herbs or climbing shrubby plants, with alternate leaves, solitary or clustered brown or greenish coloured ♂ flowers, and wood arranged in separable wedges. Perianth tubular (Fig. 508, p. 200), adherent (Fig. 1636), valvate. Stamens 6-12, epigynous, distinct or adherent to the style and stigmas (Fig. 1637). Ovary 3-6-celled; ovules ∞ ; stigmas radiating. Fruit a 3-6-celled polyspermal capsule or berry. Seeds albuminous; embryo minute. Found in various parts of the world,

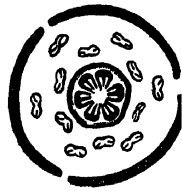


Fig. 1634.



Fig. 1635.

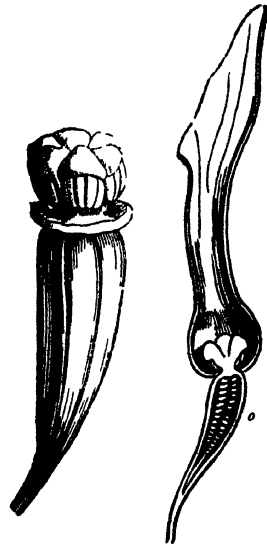


Fig. 1637.

Fig. 1636.

Figures 1634 to 1637 illustrate the natural order Aristolochiaceæ.

Fig. 1634. Diagram of the flower of *Asarum europæum*, *Asarabacca*, showing three divisions of the perianth, nine stamens in three rows, and a three-celled ovary. Fig. 1635. *Aristolochia Clematitis*, common Birthwort, showing its cordate leaf, and clustered axillary irregular flowers. Insects are

but abundant in the tropical parts of South America. Species 130.

III. Gen.—*Asarum*, *Aristolochia*, *Bragantia*, *Trichopodium*.

1426. Birthworts have pungent, aromatic, stimulant, and tonic properties. Some have been celebrated for their effects on the uterus, others as antidotes for snake-bites.

Aristolochia, Birthwort. Various species, as *A. longa*, *A. rotunda*, *A. Clematitis* (Fig. 1636), and *A. indica*, have been used as emmenagogues; the root being the officinal part. The root of *A. serpentaria*, Virginian Snake-root, formerly of repute in typhus fever, and also in cases of snake-bite, is a valuable stomachic. Lindley thinks that the celebrated Guaco of the Columbians may be *A. angulicida*. The roots of many of the species are said to stupify snakes. *A. cordata* has a crimson-coloured flower 17 inches in diameter.

Asarum europæum, *Asarabacca* (Fig. 288, p. 124), has acrid properties. Its leaves and roots are used as a medicinal snuff. *Asarum canadense* is called Wild Ginger or Canada Snake-root.

1427. Nat. Ord. 192.—NEPENTHACEÆ, the Pitcher-plant order (Fig. 1638, and Fig. 331, p. 141).—Herbaceous or suffruticose plants, with alternate



Fig. 1638.

leaves, having calyptrimorphous ascidia at their extremities, wood in separable wedges, and racemose diœcious flowers. Perianth inferior, 4-leaved, imbricate. Stamens columnar, with anthers collected into a head. Ovary superior, tetragonal, 4-celled; ovules ∞ , ascending. Fruit a 4-celled, 4-valved capsule, loculicidal. Seeds with a loose testa, albuminous. Found in marshy ground in the East Indies and China.* Voelcker found that the fluid in the unopened pitcher of *Nepenthes distillatoria*, grown in the

Edinburgh Botanic Garden, contained malic and a little citric acid, chloride of potassium, soda, lime, and magnesia. Species 8 or 10. *III. Gen.*—*Nepenthes*.

1428. Nat. Ord. 193.—DATISACEÆ, the *Datisca* order.—Herbs or trees, with alternate exstipulate leaves, and δ φ flowers. Perianth, 3-4 divided, adherent to the ovary. Stamens 3-7, ovary unilocular, with 3-4 polyspermous parietal placentas. Fruit a 1-celled capsule opening at the apex. Seeds strophiolate, exalbuminous.

required for impregnation (page 559). Fig. 1636. Flower of *Aristolochia* laid open, to show the inferior ovary with numerous ovules, and the irregular, adherent perianth. Fig. 1637. Flower of *Aristolochia*, with the non-adherent part of the perianth removed, showing the epigynous essential organs with the inferior ovary, the stamens united with the styles on a column, and the radiating stigmas above.

Fig. 1638. Flowering branch of *Nepenthes distillatoria*, the Pitcher-plant, belonging to the natural order *Nepenthaceæ*. The racemose flowers are seen with the operculate ascidia at the end of the leaves.—(See page 141).

* These plants are grown in great perfection by the Messrs. Veitch at Exeter, who have sent specimens of the pitchers to the Museum of Economic Botany at Edinburgh.

The plants are scattered over various parts of the world, chiefly in the northern hemisphere. Bitter and purgative properties are met with in the order. Some yield fibres. Species 4. *Ill. Gen.*—*Datisca*, *Tetrameles*, *Tricerastes*.

1429. Nat. Ord. 194.—EMPETRACEÆ, the Crowberry order.—Shrubs, with heath-like, evergreen, exstipulate leaves, and small axillary unisexual flowers. Perianth of 4-6 hypogynous persistent scales, the innermost sometimes petaloid and united. Stamens 2-3, alternate with the inner row of scales. Ovary free, on a fleshy disk, 2-9-celled; ovules solitary. Fruit fleshy, with 2-9 nucules. Seed solitary, ascending; embryo with an inferior radicle. A small group, allied to Euphorbiaceæ, and distinguished chiefly by its ascending seeds and inferior radicle. Natives chiefly of the northern parts of Europe and America. Their leaves and fruit are often subacid. *Empetrum nigrum*, Crowberry, has black watery fruit, which is refreshing on the hills. Species 4. *Ill. Gen.*—*Empetrum*, *Corema*, *Oakesia*, *Ceratiola*.

1430. Nat. Ord. 195.—EUPHORBIACEÆ, the Spurgewort order



Fig. 1639.



Fig. 1640.

(Figs. 1639 to 1646).—Trees, shrubs, or herbs, with opposite or alternate, often stipulate leaves, and involucrate, unisexual, sometimes

Figures 1639 to 1646 illustrate the natural order Euphorbiaceæ.

Fig. 1639. *Buxus sempervirens*, the Box-tree, with its aggregated monocious flowers, the female, with three styles. It is the Teashur of the Bible.—(See note to page 101). Fig. 1640. Young stem of *Ricinus communis*, Castor Oil plant, with alternate, peltate leaves, having a radiating venation. It seems to be the Kikayon of the Scripture, translated Gourd in the book of Jonah.—(See also Fig. 249,

achlamydeous flowers (Fig. 1641). Perianth, when present, inferior, lobed, with glandular, scaly, or petaloid appendages. Stamens definite or ∞ , separate (Fig. 1642), or united in one or more bundles (Fig. 1645). Ovary 1, 2, or 3 or more-celled; ovules 1 or 2, suspended.

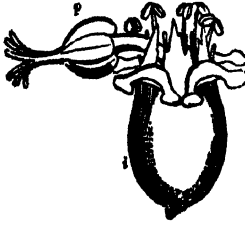


Fig. 1641.

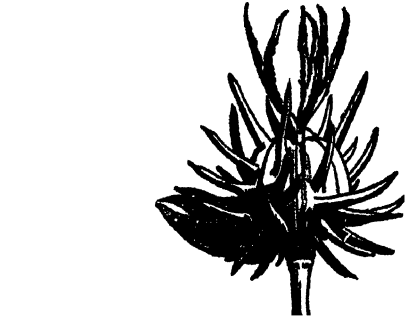


Fig. 1642.



Fig. 1643.



Fig. 1645.



Fig. 1644.



Fig. 1644

Fruit usually trilocular (Figs. 1643 and 1646), the carpels separating with elasticity, sometimes fleshy and indehiscent. Seeds albuminous, often arillate. Embryo with a superior radicle (Fig 1644). Lindley considers this a dichlamydeous order, and as becoming monochlamydeous or achlamydeous by abortion. The plants abound in equinoctial America. Some are found in North America, Africa, India, and Europe. Species 2500. *Ill. Gen.*—*Euphorbia*, *Poinsettia*, *Hura*, *Stillingia*, *Cœlebogynne*, *Mercurialis*, *Acalypha*, *Siphonia*, *Jatropha*, *Ricinus*, *Rottlera*, *Croton*, *Crozophera*, *Cluytia*, *Andrachne*, *Xylophylla*, *Phyllanthus*, *Buxus*.

1431. The plants of the order are generally acrid and poisonous,

p. 112, and note). Fig. 1641. Involucre, *i*, of *Euphorbia*, containing numerous naked male flowers, *m*, and one female, *p*, supported on a stalk, and having three forked styles at the summit of the three-celled ovary. Fig. 1642. Single achlamydeous male flower of *Euphorbia*, with a scale, *s*, at the base of the peduncle, *p*; the thickening near the top shows the point where the peduncle and stamen join. The latter bears a dithecal anther. Fig. 1643. Section of trilocular fruit of *Euphorbia*. Fig. 1644. Section of a single carpel of the trilocular fruit, shewing the pericarp, the strophilate seed, and the embryo in the axis of fleshy albumen, with a superior radicle. Fig. 1645. Polyadelphous stamens of the male flower of the Castor Oil plant. Fig. 1646. Trilocular spiny fruit of the Castor Oil plant.

For further illustrations, see Fig. 264, p. 117; Fig. 506, p. 200; and Fig. 610, p. 326.

abounding in a milky juice. Starchy matter is procured from many of the species, as well as oils and caoutchouc.

Buxus sempervirens, the Box-tree. The Hebrew Teashur (Fig. 1639, and Fig. 402, p. 169) is a native of most parts of Europe, and grows well in England, as at Boxhill. The wood imported from the Levant is prized by wood engravers. The leaves are purgative. The wood of *B. balearica*, Turkey-box, is also much used.

Croton Eleuteria produces a tonic bark known by the name of Cascarilla. Other species, as *C. pseudo-quina*, *C. nitens*, supply a similar bark; the former is called Copalche bark, a name which is also given to the bark of *Strychnos pseudo-quina* in Brazil. The seeds of *C. Tigilium* yield, by expression, Croton-oil, which is a drastic purgative in doses of one or two drops.

Crozophora tinctoria yields Turnsole, a purple dye, which is made blue by Ammonia. *Euphorbia Lathyris*, Caper-spurge (Fig. 609, p. 225), has been used as a purgative. A cathartic oil is procured from its seeds. *E. officinarum* is the source of the purgative resin called Euphorbium. *E. antiquorum* and *E. canariensis* appear also to be sources whence Euphorbium is procured. Some of these plants have a Cactus-like aspect; other Euphorbias have showy scarlet involucre, and some are very spiny, forming impenetrable hedges in Africa and India. The juice of *E. phosphorea* is said by Martius to give out light (p. 677). The roots of *E. pilosa* and *E. palustris* have been used as purgatives in cases of hydrophobia. Cattimandoo, a substance analogous to Gutta Percha, is procured in India from a species of Euphorbia, according to Dr. Hunter. The root of *E. Ipecacuanha* is used as an emetic.

Hippomane Mancinella, Manzanillo de playa of Panama, is the famous Manchineel, the juice of which is a virulent poison. The fruit is beautiful, and looks like an apple.

Hura crepitans, Sandbox tree, or Savilla of Panama, has an acrid juice. Its fruit consists of 15 carpels, which separate with great force, and with a loud noise.

Janipha Manihot, or *Manihot utilisima* of Pohl, is the Cassava or Manioc plant. Its root contains much starchy matter, along with a narcotic poison, which can be removed by washing. In the variety called Bitter Cassava, there is a bitter matter mixed with the starch, while in the Sweet Cassava, called *J. Loeflingii* by some, there is no bitterness. The starch is used under the name of Cassava and Brazilian Arrow-root, and when prepared on hot plates and granulated, it is called Tapioca. In Rio, Cassava is called *Farinha de Mandioca*.

Jatropha Curcas (*Curcas purgans*), Physic-nut, Coquillo, and *J. multifida*, have acrid cathartic seeds. The leaves of the latter are said to be used as a culinary vegetable in Panama, their poisonous qualities being destroyed by boiling.

Mercurialis, Dog-mercury, has only two carpels in its fruit. It acts as an emetic and cathartic.

Oldfieldia africana is the tree which supplies the African Teak or Oak, which is highly valued as timber. Its weight is said to be 60 or 70 lbs. the cubic foot, while that of Oak and Malabar Teak seasoned is 49 lbs. only.

Omphalea triandra is a Guiana plant, the juice of which turns black, and is used as Ink.

Ricinus communis, Castor-oil plant, called also *Palma Christi* and *Pentadactylon* (Fig. 1640; Fig. 249, p. 118, and Fig. 264, p. 117), sometimes attains a great size in warm climates. Its seeds yield Castor-oil by expression in the cold. The plant is supposed to be the Kikayon of the Bible, translated Gourd.

Rottlera tinctoria has a mealy covering of its fruit, which yields a scarlet dye. The root also supplies a similar pigment. Red granular dots are seen in the leaves.

Stillingia sebifera is the Tallow-tree of China. Its seeds yield a fatty matter, which is used for candles. The seeds are boiled and beaten to separate the tallow. As imported it is a hard whitish solid oil, which fuses at about 80°

Siphonia elastica, a tree of Guiana and Brazil, yields a large quantity of milky juice containing caoutchouc. The bottle India-rubber is prepared from it.

Xylophylla produces flowers on the edges of leafy peduncles. This also occurs in other genera.

1432. Nat. Ord. 196.—SCEPACEÆ, the Scepta order.—Trees, with alternate stipulate leaves and unisexual flowers, resembling Euphorbiaceæ, and differing chiefly in being amentiferous. The perianth is 4, 5, or 6-leaved; stamens 2-5; ovary 2-celled, ovules in pairs; seeds arillate, often buried in hairs. Natives of India. Species 6. *Ill. Gen.*—Scepta, *Lepidostachys*.

1433. Nat. Ord. 197.—CALLITRICHACEÆ, the Starwort order.—Aquatic herbs, with opposite leaves, and minute axillary unisexual achlamydeous flowers. Stamen 1, rarely 2; anther reniform, 1-celled. Ovary solitary, tetragonal, 4-celled; ovules solitary in each cell; styles 2. Fruit 4-celled, 4-seeded, indehiscent. Seeds peltate, albuminous; embryo with a superior radicle. Natives of still waters in Europe and North America. Species 6. *Ill. Gen.*—*Callitriche*.

1434. Nat. Ord. 198.—CERATOPHYLLACEÆ, the Hornwort order.—Aquatic herbs, with verticillate leaves and monœcious flowers. Perianth inferior, 10-12-cleft; anthers sessile, 12-20; ovary 1-celled, with 1 pendulous ovule. Fruit an achene; seed exalbuminous; embryo with an inferior radicle. Found in ditches in various parts of the world. Species about 6. *Ill. Gen.*—*Ceratophyllum*.

1435. Nat. Ord. 199.—URTICACEÆ, the Nettle and Hemp order (Figs. 1647 to 1652).—Trees, shrubs, or herbs, with watery juice and alternate stipulate leaves (Fig. 1647), often covered with asperities or stinging hairs (Fig. 107, p. 45). Flowers unisexual, rarely ♂, scattered or collected into heads or catkins. Perianth divided (Fig. 1650); stamens definite, opposite the lobes of the perianth, and inserted into its base (Fig. 1650); filaments sometimes curved and elastic (Figs. 626 and 627, p. 229); ovary superior, 1-celled, with a solitary ovule (Fig. 1651); fruit indehiscent, with a single seed. Embryo straight, hooked, or spiral, with or without albumen; radicle superior (Fig. 1652).

1436. There are two divisions of this order. Sub-order 1. *Urticeæ*, the true Nettles; plants having often stinging hairs, and elastic curved filaments; seed erect, albuminous; embryo straight. Dispersed over every quarter of the globe. Species about 300. *Ill. Gen.*—*Urtica*, *Böhmeria*, *Pilea*, *Parietaria*, *Rousselia*. Sub-order 2. *Cannabineæ*, the Hemp and Hop tribe; rough plants, with erect filaments, suspended exalbuminous seed, and hooked or spiral embryo. Natives chiefly of temperate regions. Species 2. *Ill. Gen.*—*Cannabis*, *Humulus*.

1437. Some of the plants have caustic juice connected with stinging hairs; others yield valuable fibres. Occasionally narcotic qualities are present.

Sub-order 1. *URTICACEÆ*, Nettleworts.—Many of the plants in this division follow the footsteps of man, and are thus scattered over the world. In the young state some Nettles are used as potherbs. Useful fibres are often furnished by their inner bark.

Böhmia nivea supplies the fibres whence Chinese grass-cloth is made. The manufactured material is used for jackets, dresses, and sailcloth in India (See page 28). *B. Puya* is put to a similar use in Nipal and Sikkim.



Fig. 1647.

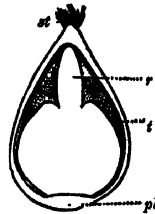


Fig. 1652.



Fig. 1651.



Fig. 1648.



Fig. 1649.

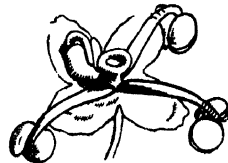


Fig. 1650.

Urtica, the Nettle (Fig. 107, p. 45), is well characterised by its stinging hairs. The effects produced by some species, such as *U. crenulata* and *urentissima*, are very severe and lasting. *U. tenacissima* yields a tough cordage in Sumatra. *U. gigantea* attains a height of 20 feet. Some species produce esculent tubers. The

Figures 1647 to 1653 illustrate the natural order Urticaceæ.

Fig. 1647. *Parietaria officinalis*, Pellitory of the Wall, with alternate leaves and clustered unisexual flowers. Its filaments are curved and elastic (see Figs. 626 and 627, p. 229). Fig. 1648. Diagram of the barren flower of *Urtica*, Nettle, showing four parts of the perianth, four stamens opposite them, and the abortive pistil. Fig. 1649. Diagram of the fertile flower of *Urtica*, Nettle, showing four divisions of the perigone (perianth), two of which may be reckoned bracts, and a single-celled ovary in the centre, containing one ovule. Fig. 1650. The male (barren) flower of the Nettle, showing the perianth, four stamens with curved elastic filaments, and two-celled (dithecal) anthers; in the centre is seen the rudiment of a pistil. Fig. 1651. Fertile (female) flower of the Nettle, showing two divisions of the perianth, the one-celled one-seeded ovary, and the penicillate sessile stigma at the top. Fig. 1652. Achens of the Nettle, cut vertically, showing the penicillate stigma, *st*, the single erect ovule, *t*, attached to the placenta, *pl*, and the embryo with its superior radicle, *r*. There is very little albumen, the embryo occupying nearly the whole cavity of the seed.

Hebrew words *Kinosh* and *Kinshon* have been doubtfully translated *Nettles* in Prov. xxiv. 31; Is. xxxiv. 13; and Hos. ix. 6.

Sub-order 2. CANNABINÆ, Hempworts, are celebrated for their tenacious fibres, as well as for their tonic and narcotic qualities.

Cannabis sativa (Fig. 47, p. 23, and Fig. 574, p. 216) is the common Hemp plant, which has been cultivated from the earliest times for the purposes of manufacture. The fibres are imported in large quantity from Russia. An Indian variety, *C. indica*, possesses powerful narcotic qualities. Its leaves are covered with a resinous matter called *Churrus*. The names of *Bhang*, *Gunjah*, and *Haschisch*, are given to the dried plant in different states. *Bhang* is much used for intoxication in India. The Indian variety, when grown in Britain, does not possess narcotic qualities; although the plant grows well, and attains a height of 10 feet or more, it does not produce the resinous varnish on the leaves. Under the name of *Diamba*, the plant is found in the interior of tropical Western Africa, near the Congo or Zaire river. It is used for the purpose of intoxication, and is sold under the names of *Maconie* and *Makiah*, terms, as Hooker remarks, having a similarity to the Greek word *Mekon* meaning Poppy. The *Majoon* of Calcutta, the *Rupouchari* of Cairo, and the *Dawamese* of the Arabs, are also preparations of Hemp, used for intoxication.

Humulus Lupulus, the Hop (Fig. 852, p. 149), is cultivated on account of its bitter principle, *Lupulin*, which exists in the resinous scales (Fig. 110, p. 45) surrounding the fruit. The plant has tonic and hypnotic properties. Its stem twines from left to right (Fig. 142, p. 59) Upwards of 20,000 tons of Hops were gathered in England in 1850

1438. Nat. Ord. 200.—ARTOCARPACEÆ, the Bread-fruit and Mulberry order (Figs. 1653 to 1659).—Trees (Fig. 1654) or shrubs, with



Fig. 1653



Fig 1654

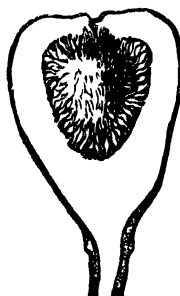


Fig 1655

a milky juice, and alternate lobed leaves, having large stipules (Fig. 1653). The flowers are ♂ ♀, and are collected into dense heads or

Figures 1653 to 1659 illustrate the natural order Artocarpaceæ.

Fig. 1653 *Artocarpus incusa*, the Bread-fruit tree, with its pinnatifid leaves, spikes of male flowers, *a*, and dense head of female flowers, *b*, forming the anthocarpous or polygynous fruit Fig 1654. *Galactodesmum utile*, the Cow-tree of Demerara, which yields a nutritive milky sap Fig. 1655. Male flower of *Morus nigra*, Black Mulberry, shewing four stamens opposite the four segments of the perianth, and the rudimentary pistil in the centre. Fig 1656 Fruit of the Mulberry, consisting of numerous female flowers united into a succulent mass. It is a polygynous or anthocarpous fruit Fig. 1657. The ovary of the Mulberry cut vertically, shewing its single cell, with a solitary pendulous

catkins. The plants are considered by many as a section of *Urticaceæ*, from which they differ chiefly in being lactescent, in their fruit being



Fig 1657

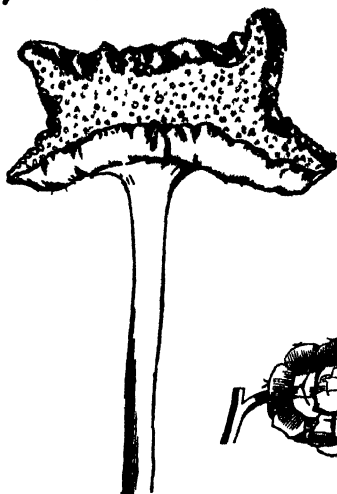


Fig 1659

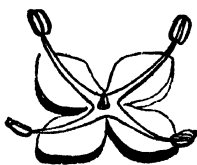


Fig 1655

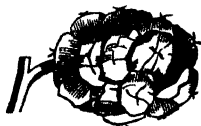


Fig 1656

a sorosis (Fig. 1653, *b*), or syconus (Fig. 1658). Perianth divided (Fig. 1655), often awanting; ovary 1-celled; ovules erect or pendulous (Fig. 1657). Fruit polygynœcial or anthocarpous, consisting of achenes immersed in the persistent fleshy perianths (Fig. 1656), or situated upon (Fig. 1659) or within large fleshy receptacles (Fig. 1658). Seeds albuminous or exalbuminous; embryo straight or hooked (Fig. 1657).

1439. There are two divisions of this order. Sub-order 1. *Artocarpææ*, the Bread-fruit tribe, with flowers in dense heads, fruit usually a sorosis, seed erect or pendulous, with a variable quantity of albumen, embryo straight; natives of the tropics. Species about 60. *Ill. Gen.*—*Brosimum*, *Antiaris*, *Artocarpus*, *Cecropia*, *Conoccephalus*, *Treculia*, *Pyrenacantha*. Sub-order 2. *Moreæ*, the Mulberry and Fig tribe, with flowers in heads, spikes, or catkins, fruit a sorosis or syconus, seed pendulous, embryo hooked, albumen fleshy; natives both of temperate and tropical climates. Species 184. *Ill. Gen.*—*Morus*, *Broussonetia*, *Maclura*, *Ficus*, *Urostigma*, *Sycomorus*, *Caprificus*, *Dorstenia*, *Trophia*.

1440. The plants of this order supply, in many instances, edible fruits; their milky juice often abounds in caoutchouc, and, in some

ovule, and a hooked embryo lying in fleshy albumen—the radicle being folded on the cotyledons, and pointing to the foramen which is at the top. The style is bifid, its lobes unequal. Fig. 1658. Polygynœcial or anthocarpous fruit of *Ficus Carica*, the Fig, being a hollow receptacle, containing numerous flowers in its interior. Fig. 1659. Fruit of *Dorstenia*, the *Contrayerva* plant, consisting of a receptacle bearing numerous female flowers, which are united to form a polygynœcial or anthocarpous fruit.

instances, is bland and nutritious, while their inner bark supplies fibres. Bitter, tonic, as well as acrid and poisonous properties, are found in the order.

Sub-order 1. **ARTOCARPEÆ**, the Bread-fruit tribe.—Edible fruits and virulent poisons are found in this Sub-order.

Antiaris toxicaria is a large tree, whence the Javanese poison called *Upas-Antiar* is obtained, and which owes its activity to a peculiar principle *Antiarin*. It is often confounded with the *Upas-Tjetdeck*, which is got from *Strychnos Tieté*, and contains *Strychnia*. *A. saccidora* is a gigantic tree, having a trunk 18 feet in circumference at the base. Its seeds are intensely bitter, and are found by Dr. MacLagan to contain a crystalline bitter matter. Its inner bark has tenacious fibres, which are used for cordage and matting. The tree is common in the jungles near Coorg, where the people manufacture curious sacks from it. A branch is cut corresponding to the length and breadth of the sack wanted. It is soaked a little, and then beaten with clubs until the liber separates from the wood. The liber, in the form of a sack, is then turned inside out until the wood is sawed off, with the exception of a small piece left to form the bottom of the sack. These sacks are in general use among the villagers for carrying rice.

Artocarpus incisa, the Bread-fruit tree (Fig. 1658), has large pinnatifid leaves, while *A. integrifolia*, the *Jak* or *Jack-fruit*, has undivided leaves. The former is the finer fruit; the latter often attains a large size, weighing 30 or more pounds.

Brosimum Namagus, according to Seemann, has a fibrous bark, which is used in Panama for garments, beds, ropes, and sails.

Cecropia peltata has hollow branches, which are made into wind-instruments. Its bark also furnishes cordage. Its leaves are said to be a favourite food of the sloth.

Galactodendron utile, the *Palo de Vaca*, or *Cow-tree* of South America (Fig. 1664), has a waxy emulsive juice, which is nutritive.

Phytocrene is a peculiar genus, which has been put by Arnott and Miers in a separate *Dichlamydeous* order *Phytocrenaceæ*, perhaps allied to *Icacinaceæ* and *Ebenaceæ*. It is a climbing shrub, with large medullary rays and intervening bundles of open ducts. It has unisexual flowers, with sepals and petals, fruit consisting of a large mass of aggregated drupes, and seed with copious albumen. The plant is called *Water-vine*, on account of the quantity of watery fluid which is discharged from its porous wood when wounded.

Piratinera guianensis, *Buracurra* or *Paira*, the *Snake-wood* or *Letter-wood* of Demerara, has beautiful markings, which render it valuable for furniture. A large specimen is seen in the Museum of Economic Botany at Edinburgh. It is a tree 60 to 70 feet high, and 2 to 3 feet in diameter; milk exudes from the bark. The outer part of the wood is white and very hard; the heart-wood which, in the largest trees, is not more than 6 or 7 inches in diameter, is of great weight, hardness, and solidity, of a beautiful deep-red, variegated with black spots of different sizes and figures, and hence its name.

Sub-order 2. **MORÆÆ**, Mulberries and Figs.—Edible fruits and caoutchouc are supplied by this sub-order. Tonic, emetic, acrid, and cathartic properties also occur.

Broussonetia papyrifera, the *Paper-mulberry*, is used in China and Japan for the manufacture of *Crape-paper*.

Dorstenia Contrayerva, and other species (Fig. 1659), have a stimulant, tonic, and diaphoretic rhizome, which is used medicinally under the name of *Contrayerva-root*.

Ficus Carica, the common *Fig* (Fig. 782, p. 268, and Fig. 1659), is used as a laxative and as a *cataplasm* (Is. xxxviii. 21). It is the *Teenah*, the first tree mentioned by name in Scripture (see reference in note, p. 268). Turkey Figs are imported

from Smyrna in small boxes called drums. The number of Figs imported into Britain in 1851 was nearly 700 tons.

Maclura tinctoria supplies the yellow dye-wood called Fustic. *M. aurantiaca*, the Osage Orange, has its fruit filled with a yellow matter, which is used as a dye.

Morus nigra, the Black Mulberry (Fig. 774, p. 266, and Fig. 1656), appears to be the Greek *Sykaminos*, translated Sycamine-tree in the Bible. The Hebrew word translated Mulberry in Scripture, seems to refer to a species of Poplar—(See references in note, p. 266). The leaves of *Morus alba*, the White Mulberry, and other species, are used for feeding silk-worms. Its root is used as a vermifuge.

Sycomorus antiquorum (*Ficus Sycomorus*) is the Sycamore Fig, the Hebrew Shikmoth and Shikmim, and the Greek *Sykomoros** (Fig. 775, p. 266). The wood is very durable, and is said to have been used in the construction of mummy cases—(See references in note, p. 266).

Urostigma (*Ficus*) *elasticum* (*Macrophthalma elastica* of Gasparrini), and other species, supply caoutchouc abundantly. *U. religiosum* is the sacred Fig or Pippul-tree of India. *U. indicum* (*benghalense*) is the Banyan-tree of India (Fig. 121, p. 52). Some of the species when injured by the attack of cocci, give out a kind of gum lac.

1441. Nat. Ord. 201.—ULMACEÆ, the Elm order.—Trees or shrubs with scabrous, alternate, stipuled leaves, and ♂ or ♂ ♀ flowers in loose clusters. Perianth inferior, membranous, campanulate and irregular. Stamens definite, attached to the base of the perianth. Ovary 1-2-celled; ovules solitary, pendulous; stigmas 2. Fruit 1 or 2-celled, indehiscent, dry, or drupaceous. Seed solitary, without or with little albumen. There are two sections of this order:—Sub-order 1. Celtideæ, Nettle-trees, with a 1-celled ovary and amphitropal ovules. Sub-order 2. Ulmeæ, true Elms, with a 2-celled ovary and anatropal ovules. Natives chiefly of northern countries. Species 60. *Ill. Gen.*—Celtis, Planera, Ulmus.

1442. Bitter and astringent properties exist in the bark and fruit of some of the plants of this order. Many are valuable timber-trees.

Celtis occidentalis, Nettle-tree, or Sugar-berry, produces astringent drupes, which are used in dysentery. The fruit is sometimes called Hackberries. *C. orientalis* has slightly aromatic qualities. The young branches of *C. australis* are used in mucous discharges.

Ulmus, Elm, has a samaroid fruit. *U. campestris*, the English Elm, has small leaves, while *U. montana*, Wych, or Scotch Elm, has large leaves. The latter alone flowers and fruits freely in Scotland. A variety is called the Weeping Elm. The inner bark of *U. campestris* is astringent; that of *U. fulva*, the slippery Elm of North America, is mucilaginous, and is used in decoction as a demulcent. Elm wood is soft and tough, and resists well the action of water.

1443. Nat. Ord. 202.—STILAGINACEÆ, the Stilago order.—Trees or shrubs with alternate, stipuled leaves, and minute ♂ ♀ flowers in scaly spikes. They are allied to Urticaceæ, and are chiefly distinguished by their large disk and vertical antherine cells, opening transversely, and having a fleshy connective. Their fruit is drupaceous, and seed suspended and albuminous. Natives of the East Indies and of Madagascar. The drupes of *Antidesma pubescens*, and of *Stilago Bunias*, are sub-acid and edible. Species about 20. *Ill. Gen.*—*Antidesma*, *Stilago*, *Falconeria*, *Stilaginella*.

* From two Greek words, signifying Fig and Mulberry, the tree resembling the former in its fruit, and the latter in its leaves.

1444. Nat. Ord. 203.—**LACISTEMACEÆ**, the *Lacistema* order.—Shrubs with alternate, simple stipuled leaves, and ♂ or ♂ ♀ flowers in axillary catkins. Perianth free, divided, with a large bract. Stamen 1, hypogynous; connective separating antherine cells, which open transversely. Disk often fleshy. Ovary 1-celled; placentas parietal. Fruit a 1-celled 2-3-valved capsule, loculicidal. Seeds suspended, arillate, albuminous. Natives of the tropical woods of America. Species 6. *Ill. Gen.*—*Lacistema*, *Synzyganthera*.

1445. Nat. Ord. 204.—**PODOSTEMONACEÆ**, the River-weed order.—Submersed aquatic herbs, with capillary or minute leaves, which are often densely imbricated. They have the aspect of Mosses or Liverworts. Flowers usually ♀. Perianth imperfect or 0, sometimes of 3 parts, with a spathe. Stamens 1, or many, hypogynous. Ovary 2-3-celled; placenta parietal or axile. Fruit a 2-3-valved capsule. Seeds numerous, exalbuminous; embryo orthotropical. Chiefly natives of South America. Some of the species are used for food. Species about 100. *Ill. Gen.*—*Hydrostachys*, *Lacis*, *Podostemon*, *Tristicha*, *Weddelina*.

1446. Nat. Ord. 205.—**CHLORANTHACEÆ**, the *Chloranthus* order.—Herbs or undershrubs, with jointed stems, opposite simple leaves, sheathing petioles, interpetiolar stipules, and spiked ♂ or ♂ ♀ flowers. Scaly bract, no perianth. Stamens definite, lateral, 1 or more; anthers 1-2-celled, with a fleshy connective. Ovary 1-celled; ovule orthotropical. Fruit drupaceous. Seed pendulous; embryo minute, at the apex of fleshy albumen; no vitellus. Natives of the warm regions of India and America chiefly. They have aromatic and stimulant properties. The leaves of *Chloranthus inconspicuus* are sometimes used to perfume tea. The roots of *C. officinalis* are used as fragrant antispasmodics and stimulants. Species 15. *Ill. Gen.*—*Hedyosmum*, *Ascarina*, *Chloranthus*, *Sarcandra*.

1447. Nat. Ord. 206.—**SAURURACEÆ**, the Lizard's-tail order.—Marshy herbs, with alternate, stipuled leaves, ♀ spiked flowers, each supported on a scale. Perianth 0. Stamens 3-6, hypogynous, club-shaped, persistent. Ovaries 3-4, distinct or united. Ovules few, orthotropical. Fruit of 4 achenes, or a 3-4-celled capsule. Embryo in a vitellus, outside mealy albumen, at the apex of the seed. Natives of North America, China, and Northern India. Their properties are acrid. Species 7. *Ill. Gen.*—*Saururus*, *Houttuynia*.

1448. Nat. Ord. 207.—**PIPERACEÆ**, the Pepper order (Figs. 1660 and 1661).—Shrubs or herbs with jointed stems, usually opposite or verticillate leaves, stipules sometimes present, flowers ♀ in spikes, each supported on a bract, no perianth. Stamens 2 or more; ovary free, 1-celled; ovule 1, erect, orthotropical. Fruit somewhat fleshy, indehiscent, 1-celled, 1-seeded. Seed erect; embryo in a vitellus or fleshy sac outside the albumen, and at the apex of the seed. The stems of Pepper have a peculiar arrangement of the woody matter in wedges and not in concentric zones. Natives of tropical regions, especially in America and Asia. Species 600. *Ill. Gen.*—*Peperomia*, *Macropiper*, *Chavica*, *Cubeba*, *Piper*, *Artanthe*.

1449. The plants of this order are pungent and aromatic, owing



Fig. 1660.



Fig. 1661.

to the presence of an acrid resin, an oil, and a crystalline matter called Piperin. Some possess narcotic qualities, others are astringent.

Artanthe elongata, a native of South America, has styptic leaves, which are used as astringents under the name of Matico. They are employed to arrest hemorrhage, an effect which is perhaps partly mechanical. Other species of *Artanthe*, as *A. adunca* and *crocata*, are used as aromatics.

Chavica Roxburghii, and other species (Fig. 1660), produce Long-pepper, which is the dried female spikes. The leaves of *C. Betle* are chewed by the Malays as stimulants.

Cubeba officinalis, and other species, produce the aromatic pungent fruit called Cubebs, used in arresting mucous and other discharges. The plant contains a resin, volatile oil, and a principle called Cubebin. *C. canina* and *C. borboniensis* are allied species, which probably also supply Cubeb-pepper.

Macropiper methysticum has a thick rhizome which, under the name of Ava or Kava, is celebrated for its intoxicating and narcotic qualities.

Piper nigrum (Fig. 1661) is a climbing East Indian plant, the dried unripe fruit of which constitutes Black-pepper. White-pepper is the ripe fruit with the dark outer fleshy covering washed off. These Peppers are used as condiments and stimulants.

1450. Nat. Ord. 208.—MYRICACEÆ, the Gale order (Fig. 1662).—Amentiferous shrubs or small trees, with resinous glands, alternate leaves, and unisexual flowers. Perianth 0. Stamens 2-8, usually in the axil of a bract; anthers 2-4-celled. Ovary



Fig. 1662.

Figures 1660 and 1661 illustrate the natural order Piperaceæ.

Fig. 1660. Branch of *Piper longum*, a species of *Chavica*, perhaps *C. Roxburghii*, showing its spiked female flowers, which, when dried, constitute Long Pepper. The leaves are cordate acute. *Chavica peepuloides* and *C. officinarum*, as well as the species already mentioned, supply the official Long Pepper, according to Miquel. See his *Systema Piperacearum Nova Acta xxi. and Suppl.* Fig. 1661. *Piper nigrum*, the plant which yields Black and White Pepper, with its spiked flowers and cordato-acuminate leaves.

Fig. 1662. *Myrica cerifera*, Wax Myrtle, Bay Myrtle, or Candleberry bush, one of the Myricaceæ. It has alternate simple leaves, and bears male and female flowers in catkins. Its succulent fruit is covered with a waxy secretion, hence its specific name.

1-celled, with hypogynous scales; ovule solitary, orthotrope; stigmas 2. Fruit drupaceous, often covered with wax, and with adherent fleshy scales. Seed solitary, erect, exalbuminous; embryo with superior radicle. Found both in temperate and in tropical countries. Species about 20. *III. Gen.*—*Myrica*, *Comptonia*.

1451. The plants have aromatic, tonic, and astringent properties. Tannic and benzoic acids, as well as wax, resin, and oil, are procured from different species.

Comptonia asplenifolia, Sweet Fern, is used in North America in diarrhoea. Its bark is astringent and aromatic, and its leaves contain glandular dots.

Myrica Gale, Gale, or Scotch or Dutch Myrtle, is common in moist heathy grounds in Britain. When boiled it supplies a kind of wax which floats on the surface of the water. It yields an oil. The berries of *M. cerifera*, Wax Myrtle or Candleberry (Fig. 1662), furnish a greenish-coloured wax when put into hot water. Other species yield wax. The fruit of *M. Sapid*a is slightly acid and eatable.

1452. Nat. Ord. 209.—SALICACEÆ, the Willow order (Figs. 1663 to 1670).—Amentiferous trees or shrubs, with alternate, simple,

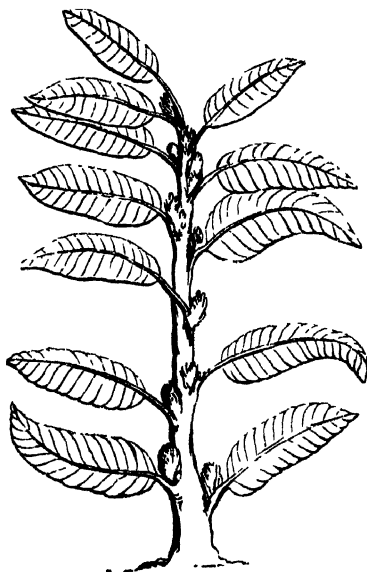


Fig. 1663.



Fig. 1664.

stipuled leaves, sometimes with petiolar glands, and ♂ ♀ flowers. Perianth 0, or cup-like. Stamens 2-30. Ovary superior, 1-celled;

Figures 1663 to 1670 illustrate the amentiferous natural order Salicaceæ.

Fig. 1663. *Salix ægyptiaca*, a species of Willow found in Palestine, and supposed by some to be the Hebrew *Trahtsapha*, translated Willow-tree in Ezek. xvii. 5. Fig. 1664. Branch of *Salix*, Willow, with an amentum or catkin of male flowers. Fig. 1665. Branch of Willow, with a spike of fe-

ovules numerous, erect, attached to the bottom of the cell, or to the base of 2 parietal placentas; stigmas 2. Fruit leathery, 1-celled,

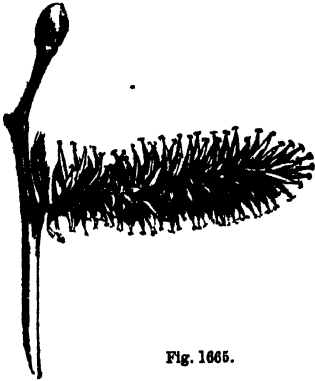


Fig. 1665.

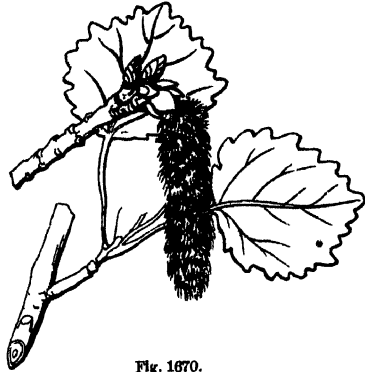


Fig. 1670.



Fig. 1669.



Fig. 1668.



Fig. 1666.



Fig. 1667.

2-valved, polyspermal. Seeds covered with basal silky hairs, exalbuminous; embryo erect, with an inferior radicle. Chiefly found in northern regions; some grow on the high mountains of South America, others in antarctic regions. *Salix arctica* and *polaris* extend further north than any other woody plants. *S. herbacea* is the smallest British species. Species 220. *III. Gen.*—*Salix*, *Populus*.

1453. The plants of this order are useful timber trees, and they are employed for various economical purposes. Their bark is tonic and

male flowers. Fig. 1666. Single male flower of a Willow, showing the single bract, *br*, bearing 2 stamens, with a gland, *g*, at the base. The flower is called naked or achlamydeous. Fig. 1667. Single female flower of a Willow, with bract, *br*, bearing a stipitate or stalked ovary, with 2 stigmas, *st*, at the summit, and a gland, *g*, at the base. The flower is also naked. Fig. 1668. Comose seed of the Willow, showing the hairs proceeding from its base. Fig. 1669. *Populus alba*, the White Poplar tree, or Abele. Fig. 1670 *Populus tremula*, the trembling Poplar or Aspen, with its rounded crenate-dentate leaves, long petioles flattened laterally, and amentum or catkin. It is supposed to be one of the plants included under the Hebrew words *Baca* and *Becam*, and translated either *Baca* or *Malberry* trees in Scripture.—See references in note, p. 134.

astringent. The downy matter surrounding the seeds is used for stuffing cushions, and for making paper.

Populus, Poplar, contains many important species, such as *P. alba*, White Poplar or Abele (Fig. 1669), the bark of which is febrifugal, *P. monilifera*, Black Italian Poplar, *P. tremula*, trembling Poplar or Aspen (Fig. 1670), supposed to be the Baca and Becaim of Scripture, translated Mulberry trees (p. 184), *P. fastigiata* and dilatata, the Lombardy Poplar, which is common in plantations, *P. nigra*, Black Poplar, and *P. balsamifera*, Balsam Poplar, erroneously supposed by Linnæus to yield the balsamic resin called Tacamahac. The Hebrew word Libneh, translated Poplar (Gen. xxx. 37, and Hos. iv. 13), is supposed to refer to the Storax tree (See Nat. Ord. Styracaceæ, p. 841). Layard says, the only trees within the limits of Assyria sufficiently large to furnish beams to span a room 30 or 40 feet wide, are the Palm and the Poplar. Their trunks still form the roofs of houses in Mesopotamia. The boats now employed on the lower part of the Tigris and Euphrates, are constructed of planks taken from a species of Poplar, probably *Populus euphratensis*.

Salix is the genus which contains the various species of Willow, Sallow, and Osier, used for basket-work and charcoal, as well as medicinally. The bark of *S. alba*, *S. Helix*, *S. purpurea*, *S. fragilis*, *S. caprea*, *S. pentandra*, and many other species, contains a bitter tonic principle called Salicin. *S. babylonica* is the Weeping-willow, supposed to be the Hebrew Oreb or Orebim, written also Arab and Arabim, and translated Willows (Lev. xxiii. 40; Job xl. 22; Ps. cxxxvii. 2; Is. xv. 7, and xlv. 4). In all these passages allusion is made to the trees as growing by the brooks, the water courses, and the rivers. In Job. xl. 17, the same word is translated Cedar.

1454. Nat. Ord. 210.—ALTINGIACEÆ or BALSAMIFLUÆ, the Liquidambar order.—Amentiferous unisexual trees, with alternate, stipuled leaves, and involucrate catkins. Anthers ∞ , nearly sessile, with a few minute scales. Ovaries 2-celled, collected into a round mass, each with a few scales; styles 2; ovules ∞ , amphitropal. Fruit, consisting of 2-celled capsules, enclosed in scales, and forming a sort of cone. Seeds winged, peltate, albuminous; embryo inverted, radicle superior. Natives of the warmer parts of India and America; also found in the Levant. Species 3. *III. Gen.*—Liquidambar.



Fig. 1671.

1455. Fragrant and balsamic properties are met with in this order. The bark of some of the plants is bitter.

Liquidambar styraciflua, *L. orientale*, and other species, yield a balsamic juice called Liquidambar, often confounded with liquid Storax.

1456. Nat. Ord. 211.—BETULACEÆ, the Birch order (Fig. 1671).—Amentiferous trees or shrubs, with alternate, simple, stipuled, often feather-veined leaves, and unisexual flowers, which have small

Fig. 1671. *Betula alba*, the common Birch, an amentiferous tree, belonging to the natural order Betulaceæ. Its male flowers, *a*, are produced in scaly catkins, and they have no proper perianth; its female flowers, *b*, are in scaly spikes or catkins, and are also naked.

scales in place of a perianth. Stamens opposite the scales. Ovary 2-celled; ovules 1 in each cell, pendulous, anatropal; stigmas 2. Fruit dry, indehiscent, 1-celled, 1-seeded. Seed exalbuminous; radicle superior. In *Alnus* there is a 4-leaved membranous perianth. Chiefly found in northern and cold regions. Species 65. *Ill. Gen.*—*Betula*, *Alnus*.

1457. The plants of this order are usually timber trees with deciduous leaves. Their bark is tonic and astringent.

Alnus glutinosa, Alder, grows in moist places. Its wood resists well the action of water, and hence has been used for the piles of bridges. The Bialto at Venice is built on Alder piles, and so are many houses in Amsterdam. The bark is used as an astringent gargle, as well for dyeing and tanning. Sabots are made of the wood. *A. incana* is used in Kamtschatka for building and for fuel, and bread is manufactured from its bark.

Betula alba and *glutinosa*, the common Birch, adds much interest to the mountain landscape. An empyreumatic oil procured from the white rind is used in preparing Russia leather, and gives to it a peculiar odour. A wine is made from the saccharine sap. The wood is tough and white, and is used for charcoal. The bark of *B. papyracea* is used in North America for making boats and various other articles. *B. nigra*, Black Birch, has hard and valuable timber. It, as well as *B. lenta*, yields sugar. The bark of *B. Bhajapaltra* is used in some parts of India as paper.

1458. Nat. Ord. 212.—CORYLACEÆ or CUPULIFERÆ, the Hazel



Fig. 1672.

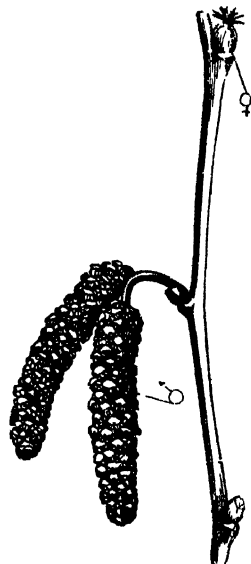


Fig. 1676.

and Oak order (Figs. 1672 to 1676). Amentiferous trees or shrubs,

Figures 1672 to 1676 illustrate the amentiferous natural order called Corylaceae or Cupuliferæ.
Fig. 1672. *Quercus Egilops* or *Valonia*, the great Prickly-cupped Oak. Along with other species of Oak, it is included in the Hebrew word *Alon*, translated Oak (Gen. xxxv. 8; Josh. xix. 38; Is. ii.

with simple, alternate, stipulate, often feather-veined leaves, and monoecious flowers (Fig. 1676). Barren flowers in catkins. Sta-



Fig. 1674.

Fig. 1673.

Fig. 1675.

mens 5-20, inserted in the base of scales, or of a membranous valvate perianth. Fertile flowers aggregate (Fig. 1676, ♀), or on a spike. Ovary, with several cells (Fig. 1675) crowned by the remains of an adherent perianth enclosed in an involucre or cupula (Fig. 257, p. 116). Ovules in pairs or solitary, pendulous or peltate; stigmas several. Fruit a glans (Fig. 1674, and Fig. 778, p. 267); seed solitary, exalbuminous. The plants abound in the forests of temperate regions in the form of Oaks, Hazels, Beeches, and Chestnuts. Species about 280. *Ill. Gen.*—*Corylus*, *Carpinus*, *Ostrya*, *Fagus*, *Castanea*, *Quercus*, *Lithocarpus*, *Callæocarpus*.

1459. The plants of this order afford valuable timber and edible seeds. Astringency also prevails in a marked degree in the bark.

Carpinus Betulus, the Horn-beam, has white, hard, and tough wood, which is used in turning, and for implements of husbandry. Its wood burns like a candle. The inner bark yields a yellow dye.

Castanea vulgaris, or *C. vesca*, the Spanish Chestnut (Fig. 1181, p. 438), is much cultivated on account of its timber. Its nuts also are used as food in the South of Europe. About 50,000 bushels are imported annually into Britain. The famous *Castagno del cento cavalli* of Mount *Ætna* seems to be composed of several trunks. *C. americana* produces a small sweet Chestnut, which is occasionally imported from the United States.

Corylus Avellana, the common Hazel (Fig. 1676, and Fig. 351, p. 149), yields excellent charcoal for drawing. It grows wild in the forests of the temperate parts of Europe, and in many parts of Asia. There are many varieties of Hazel-nut, such as the White and Red Filbert, the great and clustered Cob, and the Barce-

13; vi. 13; xlv. 14; Hos. iv. 13; Amos ii. 9; Zech. xi. 2). Another Hebrew word *Alah*, translated also Oak, is supposed to be the Terebinth tree, noticed under *Anacardiaceæ* (p. 797). Fig. 1673. *Quercus* infectors, the species which is said to produce the Aleppo galls. These are caused by the puncture of the ovipositor of the *Diplolepis* or *Cynips Gallæ-tinctorum*. In the blue state the galls contain the larva, in the white perforated state the insect has escaped. Fig. 1674. Acorn of the Oak, called glans. The ovary is surrounded by a cup, consisting of united bracts (p. 149; see also Fig. 778, p. 267). Fig. 1675. Transverse section of the young acorn, showing its three carpels, with two ovules in each. Two of the carpels and five of the ovules are obliterated during the growth of the fruit, which thus becomes unilocular and monospermal. Fig. 1676. Flowering branch of *Corylus Avellana*, the Hazel or Hazel, bearing male flowers ♂ in catkins (amentiferous), and female flowers ♀ in rounded The latter in a mature state are seen in Fig. 351, p. 149.

lona nut. In 1850, the import of nuts into Britain, according to Archer, was above 140,000 bushels. Nuts yield an oil which is used by watchmakers and by artists.

Fagus sylvatica, the common Beech, supplies timber for various purposes. Its fruit, under the name of Beech-mast, is eaten by pigs. *F. ferruginea* of North America has edible fruit. *F. antarctica* is an antarctic species, while *F. Forsteri* is found at Tierra del Fuego, and is evergreen.

Ostrya virginica yields hard timber, and has been called Iron-wood in America.

Quercus Robur is the common British Oak (Fig. 269, p. 120), the bark of which is used for tanning and as an astringent remedy. There are two varieties, one with stalked acorns (Fig. 1674 and Fig. 778, p. 267), and another (*Q. sessiliflora*) with sessile fruit. Some consider these as species, and describe an intermediate one. The cups of *Quercus Ægilops* (Fig. 1672, and Fig. 257, p. 116) are used by dyers under the name of Valonia. The tree is called the great Prickly-cupped Oak. It is a handsome tree in the Levant. It is said that 150,000 cwt. of Valonia are annually imported into Britain. Along with other species of Oak, such as *Q. Ilex* Evergreen Oak, *Q. Grammuntia* holly-leaved Montpellier Oak, *Q. crinita* hairy-cupped Oak, and *Q. coccifera* or Kermes Oak, it is included probably in the Hebrew word Allon, translated Oak in Scripture. The galls produced by attacks of insects on the Oaks, and especially on *Q. infectoria* (Fig. 1678), a native of Asia Minor, are used for tanning and for making ink. The outer part of *Q. Suber* (Fig. 173, p. 72) constitutes Cork. *Q. tinctoria* yields the Quercitron bark, used as a yellow dye. *Quercus coccifera*, the Kermes Oak (Fig. 1308, p. 699), derives its name from a species of coccus which adheres to the branches, and forms reddish balls about the size of a pea. These yield a crimson dye which was formerly much in request. The dye was used by the Hebrews, and seems to be referred to in the word translated Scarlet in Is. i. 18, and Lam. iv. 5, which also means a kind of worm. Up to 1851 the number of known species of Oak was estimated at 230. They are found principally in the northern hemisphere. The number of species belonging to Europe, Asia, and Africa, is reckoned about 110, and the American species upwards of 100. In Europe, north of the Alps, there are only 2 or 3 deciduous species. In southern Europe there are 18, mostly evergreen. *Q. esculenta*, *Ilex*, and *Ballota* in the south of Europe, Asia Minor, and northern Africa, and *Q. Hindsii* in America, yield edible fruit. *Q. Phellos*, *Bannisteri*, *tinctoria*, *palustris*, *rubra* and *coccinea*, do not ripen their fruit until the second year. The two latter have blood-red leaves in autumn. *Q. Ilex* is by some supposed to be the Hebrew Tirzah, translated Cypress in the Scripture.

1460. Nat. Ord. 213.—CASUARINACEÆ, the Beefwood order.—Leafless trees, with pendulous, jointed, striated, sheathed branches, and spikes or heads of unisexual flowers proceeding from bracts. Barren flowers in spikes, and whorled round a jointed rachis. Perianth 2-leaved, with 2 alternating bracts. Stamen 1, carrying up the united 2 leaves of the perianth in the form of a lid. Fertile flowers, capitate, without a jointed rachis, and naked. Ovary 1-celled; ovules 1 or 2, orthotrope; styles 2. Fruit, winged achenes, combined into a bracted cone. Seed exalbuminous; episperm with spiral cells; radicle superior. Tropical or sub-tropical plants, having the aspect of Equisetums. They abound in Australia. Their wood is hard and heavy, and on account of its colour is called Beefwood. The bark of some of the species of *Casuarina* is tonic and astringent. *C. quadrivalvis* is called She-oak. Species about 30. *III. Gen.—Casuarina.*

1461. Nat. Ord. 214.—PLATANACEÆ, the Plane order (Figs. 1677

to 1679).—Amentiferous trees or shrubs, with alternate, deciduous,

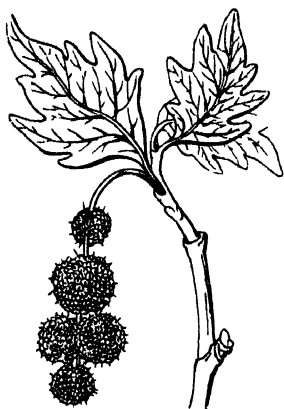


Fig. 1678



Fig 1679

palmate, or toothed, stipulate leaves, and unisexual naked flowers in

globose catkins (Fig. 1678). Barren flowers—Stamens single, mixed with scales. Fertile flowers—Ovary 1-celled; style thick and subulate. Ovules 1-2, orthotropal, suspended. Nuts clavate, with a persistent style. Seeds usually solitary and albuminous; radicle inferior. Natives of the Levant and North America chiefly. They are fine trees, but their timber is not durable. *Platanus orientalis*, Oriental Plane (Figs. 1677 and 1678), has palmate leaves resembling those of the common Sycamore. It grows in the western part of Asia, and extends



Fig. 1677

as far east as Cashmere. Its wood is fine-grained and hard, and when old it acquires dark veins so as to resemble walnut wood. The tree was valued for its shade by the Greeks and Romans, and it was held sacred in the east. It seems to be the Hebrew Armon, translated

Figures 1677 to 1679 illustrate the natural order Platanaceæ.

Fig. 1677. *Platanus orientalis*, the Oriental Plane, supposed to be the Hebrew Armon, translated Chestnut-tree in the Bible (Gen. xxx. 8; Esek. xxxi. 8). Fig. 1678. Branch of *Platanus orientalis*, showing the globose clusters or catkins of female flowers. Fig. 1679. *Platanus occidentalis*, the American Plane-tree. It is called Button-ball in America, from the form of its catkins.

Chestnut in Scripture. *P. occidentalis* (Fig. 1679) has timber of a reddish colour. Species about 6. *III. Gen.*—*Platanus*.

1462. Nat. Ord. 215.—JUGLANDACEÆ, the Walnut order (Figs. 1680 to 1684).—Trees with alternate, pinnate (Fig. 1680), stipuled

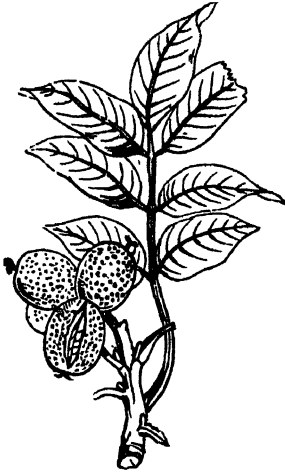


Fig. 1680.

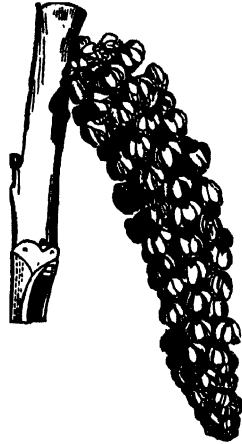


Fig. 1681.

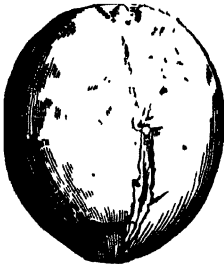


Fig. 1682.



Fig. 1684.



Fig. 1683.

leaves, and unisexual flowers. ♂: Amentiferous (Fig. 1681). Perianth

Figures 1680 to 1684 illustrate the natural order Juglandaceæ.

Fig. 1680. Branch of *Juglans regia*, the Walnut-tree, with an impari-pinnate leaf and a cluster of drupaceous fruit. It appears to be the Hebrew Egoz, translated nuts in Scripture (Song of Solom. vi. 11). Fig. 1681. Amentum or catkin of the Walnut-tree, containing numerous male flowers amidst scales or bracts. Fig. 1682. Entire drupaceous fruit of the Walnut-tree. It is sometimes called a Tryma (p. 285). The Greeks called it Karuon or Karuon bashikon, royal nut; also Persnikon or Persian. The name *Juglans* means Jupiter's nut, *Jovis glans*. Fig. 1683. The Walnut, with the epicarp and mesocarp removed, showing the hard 2-valved endocarp, which sends processes inwards from its inner surface. Fig. 1684. Exalbuminous seed or kernel of the Walnut, cut transversely, showing the divisions which correspond to the hard projections of the endocarp or shell. The seed is 4-lobed at its apex and base.

3-5-parted, with a scaly bract. Stamens 3 or more. ♀: In terminal clusters or in loose racemes, with distinct or united bracts. Perianth adherent, 3-5-divided. Ovary 2-4-celled at the base, unilocular at the apex. Ovule solitary, orthotropal, and erect; style 1 or 2. Fruit a tryma (Fig. 1682), endocarp stony and often 2-valved (Fig. 1683). Seed exalbuminous, 2-4-lobed at the base, and partly divided by partial dissepiments (Fig. 1684). Natives chiefly of North America. Some are found in the East Indies, Persia, and the Caucasus. Species 27. *Ill. Gen.*—*Juglans*, *Carya*, *Pterocarya*, *Engelhardtia*, *Fortunæa*.

1463. The plants are fine trees with edible oily seeds and an acrid bark. Purgative qualities are found in some of the species.

Carya alba, the common Hickory-tree, produces an eatable nut. The wood is tough and elastic. The seeds of *C. amara* are very bitter. *C. olivæformis* produces an elliptical nut called the Peccan-nut, which is used like the Walnut.

Juglans regia, the Walnut-tree (Fig. 1680), is a graceful wide-spreading tree, affording a grateful shade. It seems to be the Egoz of Scripture, translated Nuts. The Walnut, according to Royle, extends from Greece and Asia Minor, over Lebanon and Persia, as far as Cashmere. The outer covering of the fruit is astringent, and the spermoderm when fresh is bitter. Its seeds yield a drying oil in large quantity. Its leaves when bruised have an agreeable odour. The wood of *J. nigra*, Black Walnut, has a fine brown colour, and is valued in carpentry. *J. cinerea* supplies the Butter-nut of Canada.

1464. Nat. Ord. 216.—GARRYACEÆ, the Garrya order.—Shrubs with opposite, exstipulate leaves, and amentiferous unisexual flowers, surrounded by united bracts. ♂: Perianth of 4 leaves, alternating with 4 stamens. ♀: Perianth adherent, bidentate. Ovary 1-celled; styles 2; ovules 2, pendulous with long cords. Fruit a 2-seeded berry. Embryo minute in the base of fleshy albumen. The wood is not arranged in circles, and there is an absence of dotted vessels. Natives chiefly of the temperate parts of America. Species 6. *Ill. Gen.*—*Garrya*, *Fadgenia*.

b. SPOROGENÆ OR RHIZANTHÆ,

Having Spore-like Seeds with an Acotyledonous Embryo.

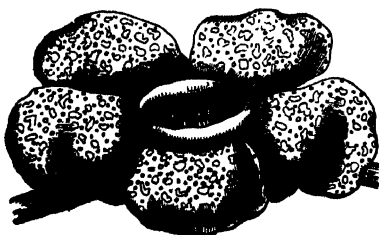


Fig. 1685.

1465. Nat. Ord. '217.—RAFFLESIACEÆ, the Rafflesia order (Fig. 1685).—Stemless and leafless parasites, consisting only of ♀ or ♂: ♀ flowers growing on the branches of trees. Perianth superior, with a 5-parted limb, thickened processes or calli either distinct or united into a ring, being attached to

Fig. 1685. *Rafflesia Arnoldi*, a Rhizanth or Rhizogen, belonging to the natural order Rafflesiaceæ. It is parasitic on a species of *Cissus*. The perianth has a 5-lobed limb. The throat shows a projecting ring. In the interior is the column bearing the essential organs of reproduction.

the throat of the tube. The essential organs are combined in a column (synema) which adheres to the tube of the perianth. Anthers 2-celled, either distinct and opening by vertical apertures, or combined together, so as to become a multicellular mass opening by a common pore. Ovary 1-celled, placentas parietal. Fruit indehiscent. Seeds ∞ ; embryo cellular, undivided. East Indian and South American plants, parasitic on species of *Cissus* and on some Leguminosæ. Species 16.

Ill. Gen.—*Rafflesia*, *Sapria*, *Apodanthes*, *Pilostyles*.

1466. Some of the plants are said to be styptic. Their perianth has a fungoid appearance.

Rafflesia Arnoldi, a Sumatra parasite, is capable of containing twelve pints of fluid in its cup. The flower is said sometimes to have a weight of 14 lbs. *R. Patma* is employed as an astringent and styptic in Java. *R. Horsfieldi*, *R. Cumingi*, and *R. Rochussenii*, have similar properties.

1467. Nat. Ord. 218.—CYTINACEÆ, the *Cistus*-rape order.—Root-parasites, having σ or δ φ flowers, which are either solitary and stemless, or proceed from bracts arising from a scaly stalk. Perianth has a tubular form, and a 3-6-lobed limb. Anthers sessile, 2-celled, opening longitudinally. Ovary inferior, 1-celled; placentas parietal. Fruit containing pulp. Seeds ∞ , immersed in pulp, and with a leathery covering; embryo undivided. Natives of the south of Europe and the Cape of Good Hope. Parasitical on the roots of *Cistus*, and on those of some succulent plants. Astringency is a property of some of the plants. Some exhale a peculiar animal odour. Species 7. *Ill. Gen.*—*Cytinus*, *Hydnora*, *Hypolepis*.

1468. Nat. Ord. 219.—BALANOPHORACEÆ, the *Balanophora* order.—Leafless root-parasites, with tubers or rhizomes, whence proceed naked or scaly peduncles, bearing heads of unisexual bracteated flowers, mixed with filaments. σ : Flowers generally white. Perianth tubular, 3-5-lobed or entire. Stamens 3-5, rarely 1; anthers free or united into a multicellular mass. φ : Perianth having its tube closely investing the ovary, and its limb 0 or bilabiate; rarely 6-leaved. Ovary 1-celled; ovule a pendulous, cellular nucleus; styles 1-2. Fruit somewhat drupaceous. Seed solitary, albuminous; embryo undivided. Parasitic on the roots of various Dicotyledons, and abounding on the mountains of tropical countries, especially the Andes and Himalaya. *Ill. Gen.*—*Balanophora*, *Cynomorium*, *Sarcophyte*, *Lophophytum*, *Helosis*, *Corynea*, *Phyllocoryne*.

1469. Some of the plants have styptic properties. Some have a very fetid odour; others, as *Lepidophytum* and *Ombrophytum*, are eatable.

Cynomorium coccineum, commonly called *Fungus melitensis*, a Maltese plant, has been long celebrated for arresting hemorrhage.

Mystropetalon is a genus of monœcious root-parasites, resembling *Balanophora*, and forming, according to Dr. Hooker, a distinct order, *Mystropetalinæ*.

2. GYMNOSPERMÆ OR GYMNOGENÆ.

1470. Nat. Ord. 220.—CONIFERÆ or PINACEÆ, the Coniferous or Pine order (Figs. 1686 to 1696).—Resinous trees or shrubs, with



Fig 1686

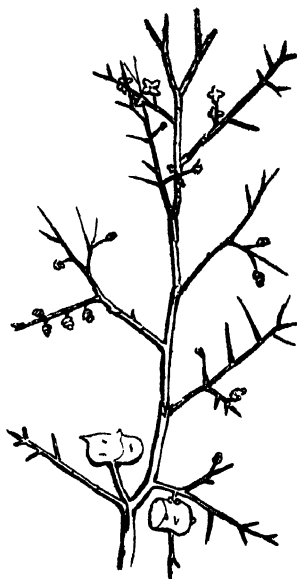


Fig 1687

disc-bearing woody tissue (Fig. 1689), linear, acerose or lanceolate, parallel-veined leaves, sometimes clustered and having a membranous sheath at the base (Fig. 1688); flowers unisexual and achlamydeous. Male flowers in deciduous catkins, each consisting of 1 stamen or of several united; anthers 2 or many-celled, dehiscing longitudinally, often crested above (Fig. 1690) Female flowers in cones; scales arising from the axil of membranous bracts supplying the place of ovaries; no style nor stigma; ovules naked, 1, 2, or several, at the base of each scale, with a large micropyle at the apex (Fig. 1693). Fruit a cone (Fig. 1692) formed of hardened scales, sometimes with

Figures 1686 to 1696 illustrate the natural order Coniferum

Fig 1686 *Cedrus Libani*, the Cedar of Lebanon Fig 1687 *Callitris quadrivalvis*, called also *Thuja articulata*, the Arar-tree, which yields Thyne wood and Sandarach Fig 1688 Linear leaves of *Pinus Strobus* in a cluster of five, with a scaly sheath at the base Fig 1689 Punctated or disc-bearing woody tissue of a Conifer Fig 1690 Stamen of a Conifer, with longitudinal dehiscence, *ca*, containing pollen, *po*, and terminated by a crest at the apex Fig 1691 Ripe curved pollen of a Fir, with the exine separated and appearing as hemispherical portions at the extremities of the grains Fig 1692 Cone or fruit of *Pinus sylvestris*, Scotch Fir Fig 1693 Scale, *sc*, of a young cone separated, with two ovules, *ov*, at the base, having large micropyles, *mic* Fig 1694 Scale of a mature cone, with two winged seeds at the base, the micropyle, *m*, and the chalaza, *ca*. Fig

the addition of bracts also, which either disappear, or become enlarged and lobed. Seed with a hard crustaceous spermoderm, sometimes



Fig 1688

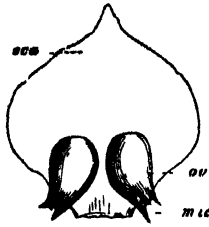


Fig 1689



Fig 1690



Fig 1691



Fig 1692

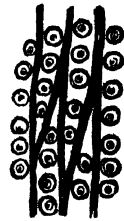


Fig 1693



Fig 1694

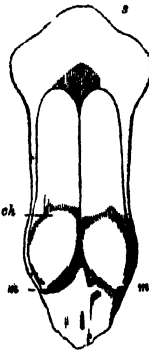


Fig 1695

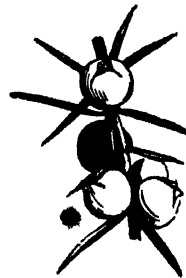


Fig 1696

winged (Fig. 1694, and Fig. 893, p. 297); embryo in fleshy oily albumen, sometimes polycotyledonous (Fig. 928, p. 307); radicle having no definite boundary, but losing itself among the lax cells of the albumen near the apex of the seed. Conifers are found in various

1695 Cone or fruit of *Cupressus sempervirens*, the Cypress Fig 1696 Fructing branch of *Juniperus communis*, Juniper, with linear acroscarpic leaves, and succulent cones called galbani.

Further illustrations of Conifers Discs on the wood, Figs 55, 56, and 57, p. 26; *Pinus Strobus*, Weymouth Pine, Fig. 1123, p. 436, *P. resinosa*, Fig 1124, p. 436, impregnation of Conifers, p. 578, of 209

parts of the world, both in cold and in warm climates. They are most abundant in temperate regions, both in the northern and southern hemispheres. In the former they occur in the form of Pines, Spruces, Larches, Cedars, and Junipers, while in the latter we meet with species of Araucaria, Eutassa, and Dammar. Species 120 or more. The two following divisions have been adopted:—Sub-order 1. Abietinæ, the Fir tribe; ovules inverted, pollen oval, or curved (Fig. 1691). *III. Gen.*—*Pinus*, *Abies*, *Picea*, *Larix*, *Cedrus*, *Cunninghamia*, *Araucaria*, *Eutassa*, *Dammar*. Sub-order 2. Cupressinæ, the Cypress tribe; ovules erect, pollen spheroidal, cone occasionally succulent, forming a galbulus. *III. Gen.*—*Juniperus*, *Fitzroya*, *Saxe-Gothæa*, *Thuja*, *Libocedrus*, *Cryptomeria*, *Cupressus*, *Callitris*, *Widdringtonia*, *Taxodium*.

1471. Conifers supply valuable timber, and yield resin, oil, pitch, and turpentine of various kinds.

Abies includes different species of Fir and Spruce, in all of which the leaves come off singly. In the true *Abies* group the leaves are flat, and the scales of the cone deciduous, while in the *Picea* section the leaves are tetragonal, and the scales are persistent. *Abies balsamea*, the Balm of Gilead Fir, and *A. canadensis*, Hemlock Spruce, yield Canada Balsam. The leaves of the latter, along with those of *Abies nigra*, supply by boiling the extract used in making Spruce Beer. *A. pectinata*, the Silver Fir, furnishes Strasburg Turpentine. *A. excelsa*, Norway Spruce (Fig. 1122, p. 436), supplies common Frankincense or Thus. M. Gross has succeeded in making paper from the wood of this pine. The wood must not be too old. It is reduced to a pulp and then formed into paper. The printing-paper made from Pine-wood is said to be excellent. It is also said to be superior paper for printing in colours. Pasteboard made of it is very strong. *A. Douglasii* is a gigantic Pine of California, which thrives well in Britain. It attains a height of 245 feet, with a circumference of $57\frac{1}{2}$ feet at 3 feet from the ground; *A. grandis* 224; *A. trigona* 300; *A. alba* and *A. rubra* 160-170 feet. The bracts of *Abies bracteata*, bracteated Silver Fir, have an elongated process 2 inches in length, many times longer than the scales of the cone.

Araucaria contains Chilian and Australian species, which have single-seeded scales with adherent seeds, and many-celled anthers. *A. imbricata* from Chili, and *A. Bidwillii* from Moreton Bay, have edible seeds. The latter are called Bunya-Bunya. The former tree attains the height of 234-260 feet. *A. Cunninghamii* is the Moreton Bay pine.

Callitris quadrivalvis, the Arar-tree, appears to yield the resin called Sandarach or Pounce, used for scattering over manuscripts. According to Royle and others, it is the Thyme-wood of the Bible, and the Citron-wood of the Romans. The tree is a native of Mount Atlas and other hills on the coast of Africa. Its timber is balsamic, odoriferous, and durable. The timber-work of the roof of the Mosque, now the Cathedral of Cordova, built in the 9th century, is of this wood. In Australia there are 12 or 15 species of *Callitris*. They are often called Cypress-pines. *C. australis* is the Oyster Bay pine.

Cedrus Libani, the Cedar of Lebanon (Fig. 1686, and Fig. 1130, p. 438), is the Eres or *Æres* of the Bible, celebrated in the construction of the Temple of Solomon. It is a wide-spreading tree 50-80 feet high, with horizontal branches. Some of the old Cedars still exist on Lebanon. Belon, about 1550, found these Cedars 28 in number; Rawolf in 1574, 24; De la Roque in 1688, 20; Maundrell in 1696, 16; Pococke in 1744-45, 15; Lamartine in 1832, 7. *C. Deodara*, the Deodar, is a noble Himalayan Cedar, which some have thought to be a variety of the Cedar of Lebanon. Its wood is durable, is not liable to warp, nor is it sub-

ject to the attack of insects. Major Madden states, that in the temple at Kunawar, which is supposed to be from 600 to 800 years old, the Deodar beams were perfect. Pieces from the Zein-ul-Kadol bridge in Cashmere were only slightly decayed, although exposed to the action of water for 400 years. The Deodar is inferior to the *Pinus longifolia*, Cheer, in resisting pressure at right angles. Major Madden mentions Deodars 15, 20, 30, and 86 feet in girth, and 150 to 200 feet high.

Cryptomeria japonica, the Japan Cedar, is a graceful tree, a recent valuable addition to the Conifers cultivated in Britain.

Cupressus includes the various species of Cypress. *C. sempervirens*, common Cypress (Fig. 881, p. 298), is supposed to be the Berosh or Beroth of the Bible, translated Fir. The word Tizrzah, translated Cypress in Is. xlv. 14, is supposed to refer to the *Quercus ilex* or Evergreen Oak. The Cypress has a tapering form resembling the Lombardy Poplar. It attains a height of 50 or 60 feet. It is a native of the Grecian Archipelago, Asia Minor, Syria, Persia, and Palestine. Its wood is very indestructible. The gates of Constantinople, which stood for more than 1000 years, were made of this wood. It has been thought that the Etz-Gopher, Gopher-wood, mentioned in Gen. vi. 14, included the Cypress as well as other Coniferous woods. The leaves of *C. thyoides*, according to Lindley, are poisonous.

Dammara is represented by a species in the southern hemisphere, and by another in the northern hemisphere. The former, *D. australis*, is the Kaurie or Cowdie Pine of New Zealand, which attains a height of 200 feet, and supplies valuable timber for masts, as well as a hard useful resin. The latter, *D. orientalis*, yields the Dammar resin of India.

Eutassa excelsa (Fig. 59, p. 26) is the famous Norfolk Island Pine, which grows to the height of 181-224 feet, and the wood of which is very valuable. The wood, like that of the *Araucaria*, is marked by alternating double discs (Fig. 58, p. 26).

Juniperus includes the species of Juniper. They have a succulent cone called galbulus (Fig. 880, p. 292), and the fruit is familiarly designated as a berry. The fruit of *J. communis* (Fig. 1696), common Juniper, yields an oil which has diuretic properties, and enters into the composition of Hollauds. The wood is reddish, and serves for veneering. The volatile oil procured from the branches and leaves of *J. Sabina*, Savin, is a very active and dangerous emmenagogue. The wood for forming Cedar pencils is got from *J. bermudiana*; a less valuable sort comes from *J. virginiana*, the Red Cedar. The latter plant is used in America as a substitute for Savin. Dr. Fleming has pointed out, that Cedar-wood cabinets are injurious to objects of natural history, as well as to instruments of different kinds. The resinous matter becomes deposited over the objects like a varnish. He recommends White American Fir as the best material. *J. Oxycedrus* has very durable wood, and was, according to some, used by the Greeks in carving the images of their gods. Its empyreumatic oil is used in skin diseases under the name of Huile de Cade. The Hebrew word Rothem, translated Juniper in Scripture, seems to refer to a species of Broom (Fig. 538, p. 266).

Larix includes the Larches, which have clustered deciduous leaves. *L. europæa*, the European Larch (Fig. 1120, p. 435), is a valuable timber tree which succeeds well in Britain. It yields venetian turpentine. A saccharine matter like Manna exudes from its branches.

Pinus includes the Pines, in which the leaves are in clusters of 2, 3, 4, or 5, surrounded by a membranous sheath at the base, which may be looked upon as the primary leaf, from the axis of which the others proceed. *P. sylvestris*, the Scotch Fir (Fig. 51, p. 25), supplies turpentine and pitch, which are also procured from *P. Pinaster* the Cluster Pine, *P. palustris* the Swamp Pine of Virginia, and *P. Tæda* the Frankincense Pine. The inner bark of the Scotch Fir supplies the Bark-bread of Norway. From the leaves of *Pinus sylvestris* M. Panewitz makes a hemp-like fibre, called Pine-wool, which is employed for stuffing pillows,

cushions, and mattresses. It is said to last long, and to retain its elasticity; it does not harbour insects, and does not become mouldy. It is also woven into blankets and counterpanes. A manufacture of Pine-wool is carried on near Breslau. The liquid or decoction developed by the process contains prussic acid and oleo-resinous matter. The maritime variety of *P. Pinaster*, called the Bourdeaux Pine, thrives well on the sea-shore, and binds together the loose sand. *P. Pineæ*, the Stone Pine, supplies edible seeds. It is the source of Carpathian Balsam. *P. Pumilio* supplies Hungarian Balsam. The Hebrew word *Oren*, translated Ash in *Is. xlv. 14*, is conjectured to be a species of Pine. *Pinus Fremontiana* attains a height of 224 feet; *P. Lambertiana* 224-285; *P. Strobus* 160 to 200, and sometimes even 266 feet.

Sequoia gigantea is said to attain a height of 800 feet.

Taxodium distichum, the Ahuahuete of the Mexicans, the deciduous Cypress, attains the height of 120 feet, with a diameter of 32 to 40 feet, according to Humboldt (*Aspects of Nature*, ii. 94.)

Thuja. The species of this genus are known by the common name of *Arbor-vita*. *T. occidentalis* is very fragrant, while *T. orientalis* is not so. *T. gigantea* in Columbia attains the height of 180 feet.

1472. Nat. Ord. 221.—TAXACEÆ, the Yew order (Figs. 1697 to 1699).—Trees or shrubs having narrow, evergreen, alternate, or distichous leaves (Fig. 1697),

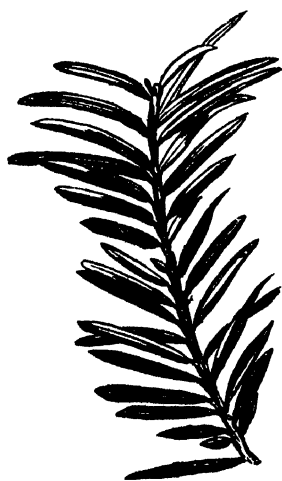


Fig. 1697.



Fig. 1698.



Fig. 1699.

which are either veinless or have a forked venation. Closely allied to Coniferæ, and generally included as a section of the order, but differing in not producing true cones. They have monadelphous stamens (Fig. 1698); solitary, naked ovules, and their seed is supported on, or enclosed by, a succulent cup-shaped receptacle (Fig. 1699). They are natives of temperate regions, and abound in Asiatic countries. They are found also in Europe, New Zealand, and at the Cape of Good Hope. Known species about 60. Zuccarini estimates the species of Coniferæ and Taxaceæ at 208, of which about 160 are in the northern hemisphere, and about 50 in the southern.

Ill. Gen.—*Taxus*, *Podocarpus*, *Dacrydium*, *Phyllocladus*, *Cephalotaxus*, *Salisburia*.

1473. Like the Conifers they yield valuable and durable timber, along with resinous and astringent matter. Some are poisonous.

Figures 1697 to 1699 illustrate the natural order Taxaceæ.

Fig. 1697. Distichous leaves of *Taxus baccata*, the Yew. Fig. 1698. Stamiferous flower of the Yew, with bracts at the base and numerous monadelphous stamens. Some consider this as one stamen divided into numerous antherine cells by the connective. Fig. 1699. Fruit of the Yew, a naked seed partially enclosed in a succulent receptacle.

Dacrydium taxifolium, the Kakaterro of New Zealand, is a lofty tree, producing valuable wood. *D. cupressinum*, the Dimon pine, is sometimes 218 feet high. *D. Franklinii* is the famous Huon pine of Australia, which attains a height of 60-100 feet, with a diameter of 2-8 feet. It yields a valuable timber.

Podocarpus Totarra, the Totarra, is said to be the most highly prized timber-tree in New Zealand. *P. dacrydioides* is the Kaikatia of that country; *P. spicata*, the Mal or Matai; and *P. ferruginea*, the Miro or Maira.

Salisburia adiantifolia, the Ginko, has a resinous fruit, which is used by the Chinese under the name of Pa-Kwo.

Taxus baccata, the common Yew, has a beautiful red covering of its seed. Its leaves and seeds are narcotico-acrid. The wood is very indestructible, and the tree attains a great age. Some Yews are recorded upwards of 8000 years old. The outer portion of the wood is much esteemed for making bows.

1474. Nat. Ord. 222.—GNETACEÆ, the Jointed-Fir order.—Small trees or creeping shrubs, not resinous, with jointed stems and branches, and opposite, reticulated, sometimes scaly leaves. They are closely allied to Coniferæ and Taxaceæ, and are chiefly distinguished by the want of true cones, by the male flowers having a 1-leaved perianth, by the anthers being 1-celled and porose, by a third ovular covering next the nucleus being protruded through the foramen in a style-like manner, and by their long, twisted embryonic suspensor. The epispERM is succulent. Natives of temperate as well as warm regions in Europe, Asia, and South America. The seeds of several of the species are eaten. Within the succulent epispERM of *Gnetum urens*, stinging needle-like cells exist. Species about 20. *Ill. Gen.*—*Ephedra*, *Gnetum*.

1475. Nat. Ord. 223.—CYCADACEÆ, the Cycas order (Figs. 1700



Fig. 1700.



Fig. 1701.

and 1701).—Small palm-like trees or shrubs, with unbranched stems,

Figures 1700 and 1701 illustrate the natural order Cycadaeæ.

Fig. 1700. *Cycas revoluta*, one of the false Sago plants found in Japan. Fig. 1701. *Encephalartos (Zamia) pungens*, another starch-yielding Cycad.

occasionally dichotomous, marked with leaf-scars, and having large medullary rays, along with pitted woody tissue. Leaves pinnate, and usually circinate in veneration. Flowers ♂ ♀ and achlamydeous. Males in cones, the scales bearing clusters of 1-celled anthers on their lower surface. Females consisting of ovules on the edge of altered leaves, or placed below or at the base of scales. Seeds either hard, or having a soft, spongy spermoderm, sometimes polyembryonous; embryo hanging by a long suspensor in a cavity of fleshy or mealy albumen; cotyledons unequal. Natives chiefly of the tropical and temperate regions of America and Asia. Species 46. *Ill. Gen.*—Cycas, Dion, Zamia, Encephalartos, Macrozamia.

1476. Cycads have a mucilaginous juice, in which there is often much starch, which is used for food.

Cycas revoluta (Fig. 1700), a Japan species, has starchy matter in its stem, which is collected and eaten like Sago. *C. circinalis*, in the Moluccas, yields a similar kind of false Sago, as well as a gummy exudation resembling Tragacanth.

Dion edule derives its specific name from the fact of its starchy seeds yielding a kind of Arrow-root in Mexico.

Encephalartos is also a starch-producing genus. Many of the species supply what is called Caffre-bread. *E. pungens* (Fig. 1701) ripened its fruit at Chatsworth.

Zamia is also amylaceous. Some of the species supply a kind of Arrow-root in the West Indies.

1477. Analysis of the natural orders of Monochlamydeous Exogens, with references to the numbers of the orders in the preceding pages.

1. ANGIOSPERMÆ.

a. SPERMOGENÆ.

1. Achlamydeous Exogens (without a perianth).

a. *Leaves exstipulate.*

Flowers hermaphrodite.

Embryo in a vitellus Piperacæ, 207.

Embryo not in a vitellus Podostemonacæ, 204.

Flowers unisexual.

Flowers amentaceous, carpel single Myricacæ, 208.

Flowers not amentaceous, carpels two or more.

Fruit indehiscent, seeds peltate Callitrichacæ, 197.

Fruit usually tricocous, seeds not peltate Euphorbiacæ, 195.

b. *Leaves stipulate.*

Flowers hermaphrodite.

Carpel solitary.

Ovule erect, embryo in a vitellus Piperacæ, 207.

Ovule suspended, no vitellus Chloranthacæ, 205.

Carpels 3 or 4.

Ovule erect, embryo in a vitellus Saururacæ, 206.

Flowers unisexual.

Ovary 1-celled.

Ovules numerous, comose Salicacæ, 209.

Ovules solitary or in pairs.

Ovule erect.....	Myricaceæ, 208.
Ovule pendulous	Platanaceæ, 214.
Ovary 2 or more-celled.	
Seeds winged.....	Altingiaceæ, 210.
Seeds not winged	Euphorbiaceæ, 195.

2. Apetalous Exogens (having a single perianth).

a. Ovary superior.

* *Leaves exstipulate.*

Flowers hermaphrodite.

Carpel solitary.

Anther-valves recurved Lauraceæ, 178.

Anthers slit.

Leaves lepidote (covered with scales) Elæagnaceæ, 188.

Leaves not lepidote.

Perianth long or tubular.

Perianth partially hardened.

Base hardened Nyctaginaceæ, 169.

Tube hardened Scleranthaceæ, 173.

Perianth not hardened.

Stamens in the points of the perianth ... Proteaceæ, 182.

Stamens not in the points of the perianth.

Ovule orthotrope, erect Polygonaceæ, 176.

Ovule anatropal, pendulous Thymelæaceæ, 185.

Perianth short, not truly tubular, segments nearly separate to the base.

Stamens hypogynous.

Stamens alternate with the segments or ∞ Phytolaccaceæ, 174.

Stamens opposite the segments.

Flowers bracteate Amaranthaceæ, 170.

Flowers not bracteate Chenopodiaceæ, 171.

Stamens perigynous Basellaceæ, 172.

Carpels more than one, either separate or combined.

Carpels several, separate Phytolaccaceæ, 174.

Carpels several, combined into a solid pistil.

Seeds exalbuminous.

Perianth tubular.

Ovary 2-celled Aquilariaceæ, 186.

Ovary 4-celled Penæaceæ, 184.

Perianth not tubular, imperfect, or spatheaceous Podostemonaceæ, 204.

Seeds albuminous.

Perianth coloured, embryo peripheral Phytolaccaceæ, 174.

Flowers unisexual.

Carpels solitary or quite separate.

Perianth tubular.

Anthers opening by recurved valves..... Atherospermaceæ, 179.

Anthers opening longitudinally Myristicaceæ, 180.

Perianth open, not tubular.

Seeds exalbuminous, embryo straight.

Perianth 2-leaved Casuarinaceæ, 218.

Perianth many-parted Ceratophyllaceæ, 198.

Seeds albuminous.

Embryo peripheral..... Chenopodiaceæ, 171.

Embryo straight Monimiaceæ, 181.

Carpels more than one, combined into a solid pistil.

Ovules definite.

- Ovule ascending Empetraceæ, 194.
 Ovule suspended Euphorbiaceæ, 195.
 Ovules indefinite.
 Leaves with ascidia Nepenthaceæ, 192.
- ** Leaves stipulate.**
 Flowers hermaphrodite.
 Carpel solitary.
 Stipules ochreate Polygonaceæ, 176.
 Stipules simple Petiveriaceæ, 175.
 Carpels more than one combined into a solid pistil.
 Leaves with round solitary transparent dots Samydaceæ, 188.
 Leaves without dots.
 Perianth regular, in a double row Chailletiaceæ, 187.
 Perianth irregular, in a single row Ulmaceæ, 201.
 Flowers unisexual.
 Carpel solitary.
 Antherine cells perpendicular to the filament Stilaginaceæ, 202.
 Antherine cells parallel to the filament.
 Sap watery Urticaceæ, 199.
 Sap milky Artocarpaceæ, 200.
 Carpels more than one combined into a solid pistil.
 Amentiferous.
 Seeds arillate.
 Stamen 1, connective large Lacistemaceæ, 203.
 Stamens 2-5, connective inconspicuous Scepceæ, 196.
 Seeds not arillate Betulaceæ, 211.
 Not amentiferous Euphorbiaceæ, 195.
- b. Ovary inferior, or partially so.
 * *Leaves exstipulate.*
 Flowers hermaphrodite.
 Ovary 3-6-celled, many-seeded Aristolochiaceæ, 191.
 Ovary 1-celled.
 Style 1 Santalaceæ, 190.
 Styles 3-5 Homaliaceæ, 189.
 Flowers unisexual.
 Amentiferous.
 Leaves alternate Myricaceæ, 208.
 Leaves opposite.
 Simple leaves Garryaceæ, 216.
 Compound leaves Juglandaceæ, 215.
 Not amentiferous Datisceæ, 198.
- ** Leaves stipulate.**
 Flowers hermaphrodite.
 Style simple Aristolochiaceæ, 191.
 Styles 3-5 Homaliaceæ, 189.
 Flowers unisexual.
 Fruit cupulate Corylaceæ, 212.
 Fruit naked.
 Simple (monogynœcial) Begoniaceæ, 177.
 Multiple (polygynœcial) Artocarpaceæ, 200.
- b. *SPOROGENÆ OR RHIZANTHÆ.*
 Ovules solitary Balanophoraceæ, 219.
 Ovules indefinite.

Anthers opening by slits	Cytinaceæ, 218.
Anthers opening by pores	Rafflesiaceæ, 217.

2. GYMNOSPERMÆ OR GYMNOGENÆ.

Stem jointed	Gnetaceæ, 222.
Stem not jointed.	
Leaves pinnate	Cycadaceæ, 228.
Leaves simple.	
Seeds in cones	Coniferae, 220.
Seeds solitary	Taxaceæ, 221.

Among Thalamifloral Exogens, the following orders contain Monochlamydeous or Achlamydeous species:—Ranunculaceæ 1, Menispermaceæ 6, Papaveraceæ 13, Flacourtiaceæ 18, Caryophyllaceæ 28, Sterculiaceæ 81, Byttneriaceæ 82, Tiliaceæ 88, Malpighiaceæ 45, Geraniaceæ 54, Rutaceæ 68, Xanthoxylaceæ 64.

Among Calycifloral Exogens, the following orders contain Monochlamydeous or Achlamydeous species:—Celastraceæ 68, Rhamnaceæ 70, Amyridaceæ 72, Leguminosæ 74, Rosaceæ sect. Sanguisorbeæ 76, Lythraceæ 78, Combretaceæ 81, Myrtaceæ 85, Haloragaceæ 90, Cucurbitaceæ 92, Passifloraceæ 95, Portulacaceæ 97, Illecebraceæ 98, Tetragoniaceæ 101, Saxifragaceæ 105, Cunoniaceæ 107, Loranthaceæ 118.

Among Corollifloral Exogens, the following orders contain Monochlamydeous or Achlamydeous species:—Oleaceæ 188, Primulaceæ 166.

Some consider Begoniaceæ 177, Chaillietiaceæ 187, Samydeaceæ 188, and Homaliaceæ 189, as truly Dichlamydeous, referring them to the Thalamifloral and Calycifloral divisions of Exogens.

CLASS II.—MONOCOTYLEDONES, ENDOGENÆ, OR AMPHIBRYA.

SUB-CLASS 1.—DICTYOGENÆ.

Endogens having Net-veined Leaves, which usually disarticulate with the Stem. Woody Matter of the Rhizome disposed in a circular wedge-like manner.

1478. Nat. Ord. 224.—DIOSCOREACEÆ, the Yam order.—Twining shrubs, with epigeal or hypogeal tubers, usually alternate leaves, and small, bracteated, unisexual flowers growing in spikes. Perianth 6-cleft, in 2 rows, herbaceous, adherent. Stamens 6, inserted into the base of the perianth. Ovary inferior, 3-celled; ovules 1-2, suspended; style trifid. Fruit compressed, 3-celled, 2 cells often abortive, sometimes fleshy. Seeds albuminous; embryo in a cavity. Chiefly found in tropical countries. Tamus, however, grows in temperate regions. Species 150. *Ill. Gen.*—Tamus, Testudinaria, Dioscorea, Rajania.

1479. Acridity prevails in the order, but it is often associated with a large amount of starch.

Dioscorea. Various species of this genus, such as *D. sativa*, *D. alata*, and *D. aculeata*, produce edible tubers, which are known by the name of Yams, and are used like potatoes. The acrid principle in them is much diluted, and probably disappears by boiling.

Tamus communis, Black Bryony, has an acrid purgative and emetic root, and a baccate fruit of a red colour. Its young shoots are occasionally used as Asparagus, but they are not safe.

Testudinaria Elephantipes has a remarkably tuberculated tuberous stem, and has been called Elephant's-foot or Tortoise plant of the Cape. The central cellular part is eaten by the Hottentots.

1480. Nat. Ord. 225.—SMILACEÆ, the Sarsaparilla order (Figs. 1702 and 1703).—Herbs or shrubby plants, often climbing, with



Fig. 1702.



Fig. 1703

petiolate leaves jointed to the stem, and hermaphrodite or unisexual flowers. Perianth 6-parted. Stamens 6, perigynous or hypogynous. Ovary 3-celled; stigmas 3; ovules orthotropical. Fruit a few or many-seeded berry. Seed albuminous. Natives of temperate and tropical regions. Species about 120. *Ill. Gen.*—Smilax, Ripogonum.

1481. The plants of the order have demulcent, mucilaginous, and diuretic properties.

Smilax embraces the various species of Sarsaparilla, the roots of which are used medicinally as tonics and alteratives. *S. officinalis* supplies Jamaica Sarsaparilla, which is the best. *S. syphilitica*, and probably *S. papyracea*, as well as *S. brasiliensis*, furnish the Lisbon or Brazilian Sarza; while *S. medica* is said to be the source of the Vera Cruz sort. *S. aspera* and *S. excelsa* are used as substitutes in the South of Europe, and many other species are employed in different parts of America and Asia. What is called China root is the produce of *S. China*.

1482. Nat. Ord. 226.—TRILLIACEÆ, the Trillium order.—Herbs with tubers or rhizomes, verticillate leaves, and large terminal ♂ flowers. Perianth of 6 or 8 parts, in 2 rows, the inner sometimes coloured. Stamens 6, 8, or 10, with apicular processes. Ovary superior, 3-5-celled; placenta axile; styles 3-5. Fruit succulent, 3-5-

Figures 1702 and 1703 illustrate the natural order Smilacæ.

Fig. 1702. *Smilax ruda*, with cordate acute leaves which are jointed with the stem. Fig. 1703. Reticulated leaf of *Smilax*, with stipular tendrils.

celled. Seeds \acute{c} , albuminous. Natives of the temperate parts of Europe, Asia, and North America. The properties of the order are acrid, narcotic, and emetic. *Paris quadrifolia* is said to be narcotico-acrid.* The rhizomes of *Trillium* are often emetic. Species 30. *Ill. Gen.*—*Paris*, *Trillium*, *Medeola*.

1483. Nat. Ord. 227.—ROXBURGHACEÆ, the *Roxburghia* order.—Twining shrubs, with large, solitary δ flowers, allied to *Trilliaceæ*, and distinguished chiefly by their 1-celled, 2-valved fruit, with a basal placenta. Perianth 4-leaved, coloured. Stamens 4, hypogynous. Ovules anatropal. Natives of the hot parts of India. Species 4. *Ill. Gen.*—*Roxburghia*.

1484. Nat. Ord. 228.—PHILESIACEÆ, the *Philesia* order.—A small order, nearly allied to the last, from which it differs in its trimereous symmetry, parietal placentas, and orthotropical ovules. The plants are found in Chili, and seem to have properties like *Smilax*. *Lapageria rosea* is a showy climber. Species 2. *Ill. Gen.*—*Philesia*, *Lapageria*.

SUB-CLASS 2.—PETALOIDEÆ OR FLORIDÆ.

1. EPIGYNÆ.

Perianth adherent, Ovary inferior, Flowers usually Hermaphrodite.

1485. Nat. Ord. 229.—HYDROCHARIDACEÆ, the *Frog-bit* order (Fig. 1704).—Aquatic plants, with spatheaceous, δ , or unisexual flowers. Perianth of 6 leaves, the 3 inner petaloid. Ovary 1-celled, or spuriously 3-9-celled; stigmas 3-9; placentas parietal. Fruit dry or fleshy, indehiscent; seeds exalbuminous; embryo straight, orthotropical. This order ought probably to be placed among the unisexual plants, and close to *Naiadaceæ*. Its perianth, however, differs from that of the plants in the division *Incompletæ*. Found chiefly in Europe, Asia, and North America. Movements in the cells are seen under the microscope (pages 415-16). *Anacharis Alsinastrum* has become naturalized in many parts of Britain, and grows so rapidly as to fill up water-courses. *Vallisneria* is remarkable for its mode of impregnation (p. 560). Some of the plants are esculent. Species about 25.



a Fig. 1704. b

Fig. 1704. *Vallisneria spiralis*; the male plant, a, the female plant, b.

* The four cross leaves of this plant gave rise to its name, True-love Knot.

III. Gen.—*Udora*, *Anacharis*, *Hydrilla*, *Lagarosiphon*, *Vallisneria*, *Stratiotes*, *Hydrocharis*.

1486. Nat. Ord. 230.—ORCHIDACEÆ, the Orchis order (Figs. 1705 to 1712).—Terrestrial or epiphytic herbs or shrubs, with fibrous



Fig 1705

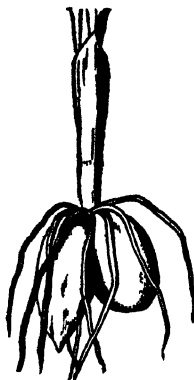


Fig 1706



Fig. 1710

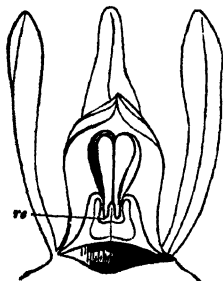


Fig. 1708



Fig. 1711



Fig. 1712.

(Fig. 1114, p. 426), or tuberous roots (Fig. 1706), a short stem or a pseudo-bulb (Fig. 1705), entire, often sheathing leaves, and hermaphrodite showy flowers. Perianth of 6 segments, in 2 rows (Fig. 1708), mostly coloured, one, the lowest (so situated from the twisting of the ovary) generally differing in form from the rest, and often

Figures 1705 to 1712 illustrate the natural order Orchidaceæ.

Fig. 1705. Orchideous Epiphyte, showing its peculiar flowers and pseudo-bulb. Fig 1706. Tubercular roots of *Orchis mascula*, a terrestrial Orchid. The dried tubercles constitute Salep. Fig. 1707. Diagram of the flower of *Orchis*, *s, sl, sl*, the three divisions of the outer perianth, the first being inferior and the other two lateral, *pl, pl*, the two lateral divisions of the inner perianth, *ps*, the superior division or the labellum, which becomes inferior by the twisting of the ovary; *s*, the fertile stamen, with its two pollen masses in the anther-lobes, the two lateral stamens are abortive; *c*, the one-celled ovary cut transversely, having three parietal placentas. Fig 1708. Flower of an Orchid, consisting of three outer divisions of the perianth, *s s s*, three inner, *p p l*, the latter, *l*, being the labellum, which is inferior in this figure by the twisting of the ovary; *s*, the spur of the labellum; *c*, the

spurred; it is called the labellum or lip, and has sometimes 3 marked portions,—the lowest being* the hypochilium, the middle the meso-



Fig. 1708.

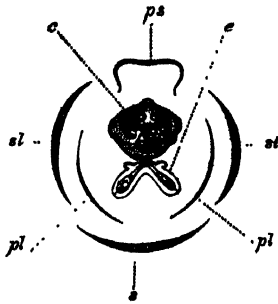


Fig. 1707.

chilium, and the upper the epichilium. By adhesion or abortion, the parts of the perianth are sometimes reduced to 5 or 3. Essential organs united on a common column or gynostemium (Fig. 1709). Stamens 3, the 2 outer, sometimes the central one, being abortive; anthers 2-4-8-celled; pollen powdery, or adhering in masses called pollinia (Fig. 1710), attached to the rostellum by a naked or saccate gland. Ovary 1-celled, with 3 parietal placentas (Fig. 1711); stigma a viscid space in front of the column. Fruit usually a 3-valved capsule, which often opens by 6 portions, owing to the midribs of the valves separating (Fig. 1712). Seeds ∞ , exalbuminous, with a loose reticulated episperm; embryo solid and fleshy. This order is well distinguished by its peculiar gynandrous flowers, labellum, and pollinia. The labellum is marked by various processes or calli, which may be reckoned abortive stamens. The flowers present often remarkable insect forms, and their colours are frequently variegated in a curious manner. The flowers have frequently a strong odour. In some instances, as in *Malachadenia clavata*, the odour is very fetid, like carrion. The labellum sometimes exhibits movements (p. 537). Orchids are widely distributed, but are most abundant in warm moist climates. They are sometimes found at great elevations, as *Oncidium nubigenum*, at 14,000 feet on the Andes, and *Epidendrum frigidum* at from 12-13,000 feet on the Columbia mountains. Some of them are much restricted in their distribution, as may be exemplified in

twisted ovary; *st*, the stigma; *a*, the anther containing pollinia. Fig. 1709. Upper part of an Orchid flower. The outer divisions of the perianth are seen, and two of the inner, the third or labellum being removed. The two anther lobes are seen with the pollinia attached to the upper part of the stigma by viscid matter, *vs*. Fig. 1710. Pollen masses of an Orchid, with their caudicles and common gland. Fig. 1711. Ovary of Orchis cut transversely, showing three parietal placentas. Fig. 1712. Fruit of Orchis, opening by three valves, each bearing placenta and ovules, and the three midribs of the carpels remaining attached at the top, so that there appear to be six valves, three spreading, ovuliferous, and three adherent without ovules

Additional illustrations of Orchidaceæ:—Terrestrial Orchid with tubercles, Fig. 136, p. 56. Flower of *Listera ovata*, Fig. 526, p. 267. Orchis flower, Fig. 538, p. 267. Pollen mass and tube, Fig. 685, p. 236.

some of the Table Mountain species of *Disa*. The terrestrial species are usually met with in temperate climates, while the epiphytal are confined to warm regions. Spruce mentions an Orchid in Brazil nine feet high. Lindley, whose works on Orchids are standard ones, considers that there are upwards of 3000 species, of which 40 are British. *III. Gen.*—*Pleurothallis*, *Liparis*, *Malaxis*, *Dendrobium*, *Bolbophyllum*, *Corallorhiza*, *Epidendrum*, *Lælia*, *Cattleya*, *Vanda*, *Saccolabium*, *Aerides*, *Cymbidium*, *Oncidium*, *Miltonia*, *Stanhopea*, *Gongora*, *Maxillaria*, *Lycaste*, *Catasetum*, *Orchis*, *Ophrys*, *Gymnadenia*, *Herminium*, *Disa*, *Arnottia*, *Cephalanthera*, *Pogonia*, *Vanilla*, *Neottia*, *Goodyera*, *Cypripedium*.

1487. Fragrant, aromatic, tonic, and mucilaginous properties are met with among Orchids. The roots of some of the terrestrial species contain much bassorin, and they constitute the nutritious substance called Salep. Blue colouring matter, like indigo, is met with in the leaves and flowers of some species.

Aplectrum hyemale is called Putty-root, on account of the viscosity of its tubers. *Cypripedium*, *Lady's-slipper*, is so called on account of its hollow labellum. The two lateral stamens are fertile, while the central one is sterile and petaloid. In consequence of union of two of the outer segments, there are only five divisions of the perianth. *C. pubescens* has been used as an antispasmodic in epilepsy.

Eulophia vera and *E. campestris* are Indian Orchids, the roots of which furnish Salep.

Orchis mascula, and other species, such as *O. Morio* and *O. papilionacea*, also yield Salep.

Vanilla planifolia and *aromatica* yield the fragrant *Vanilla*, used in confectionary and in the preparation of Chocolate. The part of the plant employed is the dried seed-vessel. Crystals, believed to be Benzoic or Cinnamic acid, are often seen on the fruit when drying. The nature of the aromatic principle is unknown. A kind of *Vanilla* called *Chica* in Panama, comes from a species of *Sobralia*.

1488. Nat. Ord. 231. — APOSTASIACEÆ, the *Apostasia* order. — A small order of herbaceous plants closely allied to Orchids, from which they differ chiefly in their regular flowers, 3-celled loculicidal fruit, and in the style being free from the stamens throughout a considerable part of its length. The column is short, and is formed by the filaments along with the lower part of the style. Natives of the hot forests of India. Species 5. *III. Gen.* — *Apostasia*, *Neuwiedia*, *Rhyncanthera*?

1489. Nat. Ord. 232. — BURMANNIACEÆ, the *Burmannia* order. — A small order of herbaceous plants, with tufted, radical, acute leaves, or none, and a slender stem bearing alternate bract-like leaflets. They resemble Orchids in their minute seeds with a loose reticulated epispERM, their parietal placentas, and their solid embryo; and are chiefly distinguished by their regular tubular flowers, stamens 3 or 6, dehiscing transversely, free, and inserted into the tube of the coloured perianth. Natives chiefly of tropical regions in Asia, Africa, and America. Some are bitter and astringent. Species 38. *III. Gen.* — *Burmannia*, *Tetraptera*, *Apteria*, *Thismia*?

1490. Nat. Ord. 233.—ZINGIBERACEÆ or SCITAMINEÆ, the Ginger order (Fig. 1718).—Herbs with a rhizome, simple sheathing leaves, the veins parallel and diverging from a midrib, and flowers arising from membranous spathes. Perianth tubular, irregular, and in 3 rows, the outer (calyx) 3-lobed, the middle (corolla) and inner (staminodes) each 3-parted, with a segment differing from the rest. Stamens 3, free, the 2 lateral abortive; anthers 2-celled. Fruit a 3-celled capsule or berry. Seeds numerous, albuminous; embryo in a vitellus. Nearly all tropical plants; abundant in the East Indies. Species 250. *Ill. Gen.*—Mantisia, Zingiber, Curcuma, Roscoea, Amomum, Elettaria, Hedychium, Renealmia, Alpinia, Costus.



Fig. 1718.

1491. The plants of this order have aromatic, stimulating properties, and are used as condiments, and as stomachic remedies. Their flowers are often very gaudy, and their bracts are sometimes finely coloured.

Alpinia Galanga yields Galangale root, which has properties similar to Ginger, and contains also much amyloseous matter. *A. racemosa* has similar qualities.

Amomum is a genus which yields aromatic carminative seeds. The capsules of Amomum Cardamomum are called round Cardamoms; those of *A. angustifolium* are the Madagascar Cardamoms. Other varieties are the produce of *A. maximum* and *A. aromaticum*. *A. Melegueta*, called Melegueta Pepper, and *A. Grana Paradisi*, furnish the aromatic grains of Paradise, which are used in veterinary medicine, and also as additions to spirits and beer.

Curcuma longa has a yellow-coloured rhizome, the branches of which constitute Turmeric. It is a carminative, and enters into the composition of Curry. The rhizome of *C. angustifolia* supplies a kind of Arrow-root in the East Indies. Many other species yield starch.

Elettaria major is said to be the plant which furnishes Ceylon Cardamoms, while *E. Cardamomum* supplies those of Malabar.

Zingiber officinale, the Ginger plant, has an aromatic rhizome which, when scraped and dried in the sun, constitutes White Ginger, and when unscraped and dried after immersion in hot water, forms Black Ginger. In the young state the rhizome is fleshy, and is used as a preserve, while in its advanced state it becomes woody and starchy.

1492. Nat. Ord. 234. — MARANTACEÆ or CANNACEÆ, the Arrow-root order.—Herbaceous plants closely allied to Zingiberaceæ, from which they differ chiefly in the want of aroma, in having one of the lateral stamens fertile (the other two being abortive), in the single stamen having a petaloid filament, which bears a 1-celled anther (the other antherine lobe being sterile), in the style being petaloid, and in the embryo not being contained in a vitellus (Fig. 1276, p. 640). Natives of the tropics of America, Africa, and Asia. Species 160. *Ill. Gen.*—Maranta, Thalia, Phrynium, Calathea, Canna.

1493. Amylaceous qualities prevail in this order, and starch is prepared from many of the species.

Caena indica is commonly called Indian Shot, on account of its round black seeds.

The corms or rhizomes of *C. coccinea*, *C. edulis*, and *C. Achiras*, all yield starch, some of which is known as *Tous-les-mois*.

Maranta arundinacea yields Arrow-root, which is procured from its tuberous rhizome. Other species, such as *M. nobilis* and *M. indica*, also supply this starchy matter.

1494. Nat. Ord. 235.—MUSACEÆ, the Banana order (Figs. 1714 and 1715).—Plants with underground stems, their petioles forming



Fig 1714

a spurious aerial stem, their leaves having parallel veins diverging from a midrib (Fig. 1714), and their flowers being bracteated. Perianth irregular and petaloid, 6-parted in 2 rows. Sta-

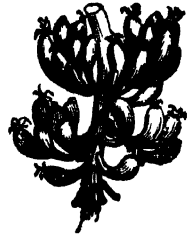


Fig 1715

mens 6, inserted on the perianth. Anthers linear, 2-celled, often crested. Fruit a 3-celled loculicidal capsule, or succulent and indehiscent (Fig. 1715). Seeds albuminous; embryo orthotropal. Tropical plants. Species 20. *Ill. Gen.*—*Heliconia*, *Musa*, *Strelitzia*, *Ravenala*.

1495. Valuable plants as regards food, clothing, and other domestic purposes. They yield much nutritive food, as well as useful fibres.

Musa paradisiaca, the Plantain, and *M. sapientum*, the Banana, supply well-known fruits, which serve for the food of the inhabitants of many tropical countries.

The plants are very productive. Some clusters contain from 150 to 180 Bananas. The fruit should be taken off the plant before it is ripe, and allowed to come to maturity in a warm place. The plant produces fruit abundantly in the Palm-House of the Edinburgh Botanic Garden. *M. Cavendishii* is a small species, which is also very prolific. *M. textilis* produces Manilla Hemp, which is used in manufacture. All the species contain abundance of spiral fibres, which are sometimes used for tinder. The young shoots are used like Cabbage.

Ravenala speciosa produces an edible seed. Its stem and leaf-stalk yield a large quantity of watery fluid, and hence it has been called Water-tree.

1496. Nat. Ord. 236.—IRIDACEÆ, the Iris order (Figs. 1716 to 1721).—Herbs with corms (Fig. 1721), rhizomes or fibrous roots, and mostly equitant leaves (Fig. 1717), and spathaceous flowers. Perianth 6-divided in 2 rows (Fig. 1718), sometimes irregular. Stamens 3, inserted at the base of the outer row of the perianth; anthers innate,

Figures 1714 and 1715 illustrate the natural order Musaceæ

Fig. 1714. *Musa sapientum*, the Banana plant, with its spurious aerial stem and parallel-veined leaves. Fig. 1715. Succulent indehiscent fruit of the Banana.

extrorse. Style dividing into 3 petaloid stigmatiferous portions (Fig.

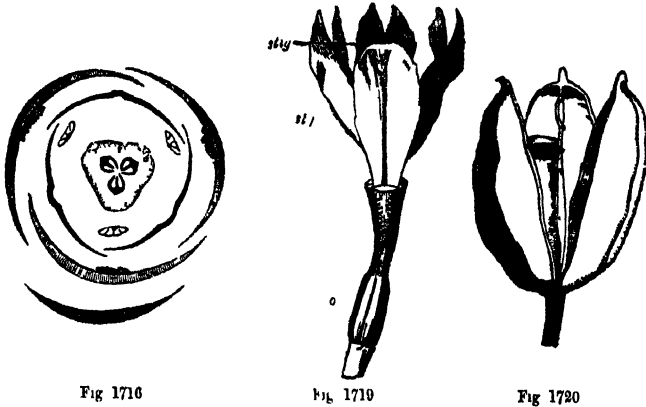


Fig 1716

Fig 1719

Fig 1720

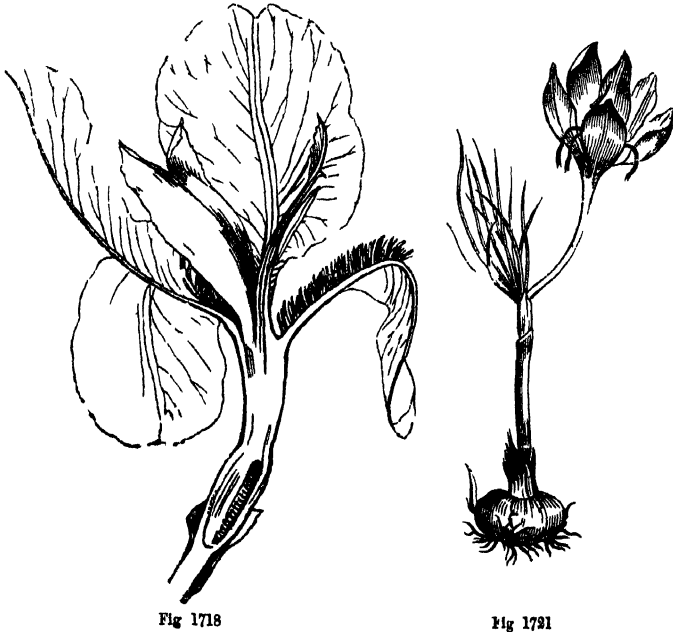


Fig 1718

Fig 1721

1719). Capsule 3-celled, 3-valved, loculicidal (Fig. 1720). Seeds

Figures 1716 to 1721 illustrate the natural order Iridaceæ

Fig 1716 Diagram of the flower of Iris showing a bract or spathe below, three outer divisions of the perianth with hairs, three inner, three stamens and three divisions of the ovary Fig 1717 Equitant leaves and rhizome of Iris Fig 1718 Flower of Iris cut vertically, showing inferior ovary with ovules, the divisions of the perianth and part of the style Fig 1719 Flower of Iris, with the

with hard albumen. Found in various temperate and warm parts of the world. Harvey says that Iridaceæ have their maximum at the Cape of Good Hope, and from September to November the face of the country glitters with blossoms of countless species of *Ixia*, *Gladiolus*, *Watsonia*, *Babiana*, and *Sparaxis*, of every shade of colour.



Fig. 1717

Species 550. *III. Gen.*—*Sisyrinchium*, *Moræa*, *Iris*, *Tigridia*, *Witsenia*, *Gladiolus*, *Antholyza*, *Watsonia*, *Sparaxis*, *Ixia*, *Trichonema*, *Crocus*.

1497. Acrid, purgative, and emetic properties are met with in some plants of the order. Some are fragrant and aromatic; others supply starch and materials for dyeing.

Crocus sativus (Fig. 1721, and Figs. 160 and 161, p. 68) is the Karcum of the Scriptures. Its dried stigmatic processes constitute Saffron, which is of a deep orange, and contains a colouring matter called polychroite. Saffron is employed as a carminative, antispasmodic, and emmenagogue, and owes its properties to a volatile oil. *C. odoratus* is said to supply Sicilian Saffron.

Iris, *Iris* or *Flower de Luce* (Fig. 1718), contains several emetic and purgative species. The leaves of *I. foetidissima*, when bruised, give out a peculiar odour, said to resemble roast-beef. *I. Pseudacorus* has an acrid rhizome. Its roasted seeds have been recommended as a substitute for Coffee. The rhizome of *I. florentina*, the Florence *Iris*, is the aromatic *Orris*-root, which has the odour of Violets, and which at the same time possesses some acidity.

1498. Nat. Ord. 237.—AMARYLLIDACEÆ, the Amaryllis order (Figs. 1722 to 1725).—Bulbous, sometimes fibrous-rooted plants, with ensiform leaves, and showy flowers, which are mostly spathaceous and on scapes (Figs. 1723 and 1724). Perianth coloured, limb 6-parted or 6-cleft, sometimes with a corona, as in *Narcissus* (Fig. 1725). Stamens 6, inserted at the bottom of the segments (Fig. 1725), sometimes united by a membrane, as in *Pancreatium*; anthers introrse. Stigma 3-lobed. Fruit a 3-celled, 3-valved, loculicidal capsule, with many seeds; or a berry with 1-3 seeds, spermoderm not crustaceous; albumen fleshy; embryo with radicle next the hilum. Natives of various parts of the world, but attaining their maximum at the Cape of Good Hope. Species 400. *III. Gen.*—*Galanthus*, *Leucojum*, *Amaryllis*, *Crinum*,

limb of the perianth removed. The ovary, *o*, tube of perianth, *t*, upper petaloid and divided part of the style, *sty*, stigma, *stig*. Fig 1720 Capsular fruit of *Iris*, opening by loculicidal dehiscence. Fig. 1721. *Crocus sativus*, the Saffron plant, the Karcum of the Bible (Cant. iv. 14), and the *Krokos* of the Septuagint, with its underground stem or corm, its tubular perianth, and narrow sheathing leaves.

Hæmanthus, Pancratium, Narcissus, Alstroëmeria, Doryanthes, Agave, Littæa, Fourcroya.

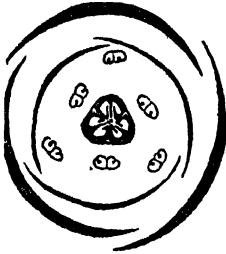


Fig. 1722.

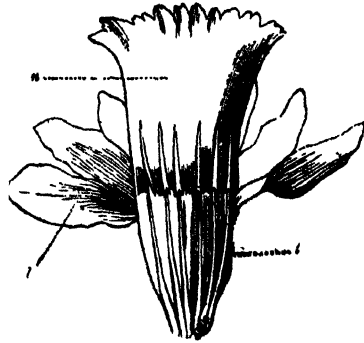


Fig. 1725.



Fig. 1723.



Fig. 1724

1499. Many Amaryllids display poisonous properties. Some are

Figures 1722 to 1725 illustrate the natural order Amaryllidaceæ.

Fig. 1722. Diagram of the flower of *Leucojum vernum*, Spring Snowflake, with six divisions of the perianth, three outer and three inner, six stamens in two verticils, and a three-celled ovary with a central placenta. Fig. 1723. *Narcissus Tuzetta*, Polyanthus-Narcissus, showing numerous flowers coming out from a scape. The plant appears to be the Hebrew Chabazzeloth, translated Rose (Cant. ii. 1; Is. xxxv. 1). Fig. 1734. *Leucojum vernum*, the Spring Snowflake, showing scape, spathe, inferior ovary, and six-divided perianth. Fig. 1725. Perianth of *Narcissus Pseudo-narcissus*, the Daffodil, cut vertically, showing tube, *l*, limb, *l*, corona, *n*, and six stamens attached to the perianth.

emetic and purgative, and some yield useful fibres. The bulbs of the Snowdrop and Snowflake are said to be emetic.

Agave americana, American Aloe, is a plant which often delays flowering for many years, and then pushes up its flowering spike with great rapidity (p. 526). The juice of the plant, just before flowering, is used in America for the manufacture of an intoxicating beverage. The Mexican Pulque is a preparation of this kind, which, according to some, is procured from *Agave potatorum*, called the Maguay in Mexico. The roots of the Agave are sometimes used as a substitute for Sarsaparilla. Its fibres constitute Pita Flax, and are sometimes made into paper. Its juice, as well as that of *A. Saponaria*, is used as a detergent. In some parts of America, as in Mexico, the Agaves are used for various useful purposes. The flowers of some are boiled and used as food. In Ecuador the spongy substance of the flower-stem of *Agave americana* is employed instead of tinder, and in all the schools the green leaves serve as paper. A punishment among the Aztecs was introducing the spiny points of the leaves into the skin.

Alstroemeria. The species of this genus are remarkable for their twisted leaves. Some have much starch in their roots.

Hæmanthus toxicarius and other species have poisonous bulbs, the juice of which is used by the Hottentots for poisoning their arrows.

Narcissus tazetta (Fig. 1723) is supposed to be the Hebrew Chabazzeleth, translated Rose in Scripture. *N. Pseudo-narcissus*, common Daffodil (Fig. 1725), has narcotic flowers and emetic bulbs.

1500. Nat. Ord. 238. — HYPOXIDACEÆ, the Hypoxis order. — Herbs with tuberous or fibrous roots, linear, dry, often hairy leaves, and trimerous flowers in scapes. Closely allied to Amaryllids, and differing chiefly in their strophilate seeds, and embryo with the radicle remote from the hilum. Natives of warm regions. Species 60. *Ill. Gen.* — *Curculigo*, *Forbesia*, *Hypoxis*.

1501. Nat. Ord. 239. — HÆMODORACEÆ, the Blood-root order. — Perennial plants with fibrous roots, ensiform equitant leaves, and woolly hairs or scurf on their stems and flowers. Perianth tubular, 6-divided. Stamens 3, opposite the segments, or 6; anthers introrse. Ovary 3-celled, sometimes 1-celled; style and stigma simple. Fruit usually capsular and valvular, covered by the withered perianth. Embryo in cartilaginous albumen, radicle remote from the hilum. Natives of America, the Cape, and New Holland. Species 50. *Ill. Gen.* — *Hæmodorum*, *Lachnanthes*, *Anigosanthus*, *Conostylis*, *Aletris*, *Vellozia*, *Barbacenia*.

1502. Bitterness is found in some of the plants of the order (*Aletris*). Their roots are sometimes nutritious, and many of them are of a red colour, whence the name of the order.

Hæmodorum. The roots of some of the Swan River species are roasted and used for food.

Lachnanthes tinctoria has a red root, which is used for dyeing in America.

Vellozia is a remarkable Brazilian genus, the species of which have branching trunks covered with adpressed roots, and with the withered remains of the leaves. They have been called perennial or tree lilies. Along with *Lichnophora*, they give a decided feature to the peculiar vegetation of the mountains of Minas Geraes in Brazil.

1503. Nat. Ord. 240. — TACCACEÆ, the Tacca order. — Perennial herbs, with tuberous roots, radical curve-veined leaves, and flowers in

scapes. Perianth tubular, 6-divided. Stamens 6, inserted in the base of the segments; filaments petaloid; anther below the points of the filaments. Styles 3. Fruit baccate, 1-celled, or half 3-celled. Albumen fleshy. Acrid plants found in the warmest parts of India and Africa, as well as in the South Sea Islands. The tubers of *Tacca pinnatifida*, and other species, yield starch, which is used as food, the acrid matter being removed by washing. It is sometimes called Otaheite Salep, or Tahiti Arrow-root. Species 8. *Ill. Gen.*—*Tacca*, *Attaccia*.

1504. Nat. Ord. 241.—BROMELIACEÆ, the Pine-apple order (Fig. 1726).—American and chiefly tropical plants, with rigid, channelled, often scurfy and spiny leaves, and showy flowers. Outer perianth 3-parted, persistent; inner of 3 withering leaves. Stamens 6, inserted in the tube of the perianth; anthers introrse. Style single. Fruit capsular or succulent, 3-celled, many-seeded. Embryo minute, in the base of mealy albumen. Many of the plants grow in an epiphytic manner, and are called air plants. This is the case especially with *Tillandsias*. Species 170. *Ill. Gen.*—*Ananassa*, *Bromelia*, *Æchinea*, *Billbergia*, *Pitcairnia*, *Tillandsia*, *Bonapartea*.

1505. Some of the species have anthelmintic properties. Some supply edible fruit, gum, colouring matter, and valuable fibres.

Ananassa sativa, the Pine-apple or *Ananas*, has a polygynœcial fruit formed by the union of numerous succulent ovaries and bracts. When ripe, the fruit is sweet and finely aromatic. Archer says, that more than 200,000 Pine-apples were imported into Britain from the Bahamas in 1851. They were not equal to the British grown fruit. The fibres are used in manufactures. Specimens of cloth made from them are seen in the Edinburgh Museum of Economic Botany.

Bromelia Pinguin is used as a vermifuge in the West Indies. Its ovaries are not combined into one mass, and they illustrate well the formation of the Pine-apple. Some species yield fibres which are made into ropes.

Tillandsia usneoides, Tree-beard, appears like a mass of black fibres hanging down from the trees in South America. It has been used for stuffing birds and cushions under the name of Spanish Moss.

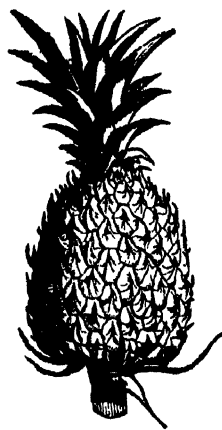


Fig. 1726.

2. HYPOGYNÆ.

Perianth free, Ovary superior, Flowers usually Hermaphrodite.

1506. Nat. Ord. 242.—LILIACEÆ, the Lily order (Figs. 1727 to 1735.)—Herbs, shrubs, or trees, with bulbs (Fig. 1728, and Fig. 162, p. 68),

Fig. 1726. The polygynœcial or anthocarpous fruit of *Ananassa sativa*, the Pine-apple, formed of united ovaries and bracts in a succulent state,

corms, rhizomes (Fig. 156, p. 65), or fibrous roots, simple, sheathing, or clasping leaves, and regular flowers. Perianth coloured, of 6 leaves

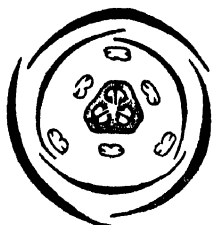


Fig. 1727.



Fig. 1734.

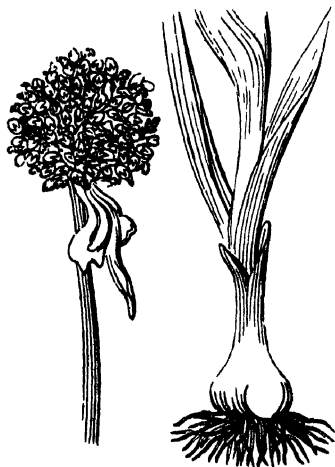


Fig. 1728.

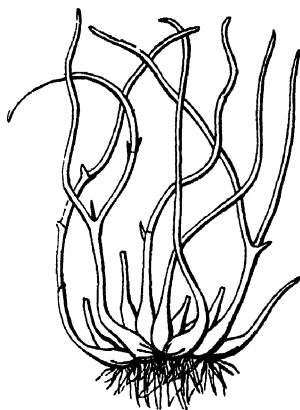


Fig. 1729.

(Fig. 1733), or 6-cloft. Stamens 6, inserted in the perianth; anthers introrse (Fig. 1734). Ovary 3-celled (Fig. 1735); style 1; stigma simple or 3-lobed. Fruit trilocular, capsular, or succulent. Seeds in 1 or 2 rows, sometimes in pairs or solitary; albumen fleshy. Natives

Figures 1727 to 1735 illustrate the natural order Liliaceæ.

Fig. 1727. Diagram of the flower of *Fritillaria imperialis*, Crown Imperial, showing a perianth of 6 parts, in 2 verticils, 6 stamens in two rows, and a 3-celled ovary. Fig. 1728. *Allium Porrum*, the Leek, with parallel-veined, sheathing leaves, bulb, umbellate cluster of flowers and spathe. It is the Hebrew Chatzar, Chazar, or Chajir, translated in the Scripture Leeks (Numb. xl. 5); grass (1 Kings xviii. 5; 2 Kings xix. 26; Job xl. 15; Ps. xxxvii. 2, &c.); herb (Job viii. 12); hay (Prov. xxvii. 25; Is. xv. 6); and court (Is. xxxiv. 13). The word seems to mean greens or grass in general. Fig. 1729. *Allium ascalonicum*, the Shallot or Eschalot, commonly cultivated in the kitchen garden. It is supposed to be the Shumim of Scripture, translated Garlic (Numb. xi. 5). Fig. 1730. *Scilla* or *Squilla maritima*, or *Urginea maritima*, the officinal Squill plant. Fig. 1731. *Yucca gloriosa*, called Adam's needle. Fig. 1732. *Ruscus aculeatus*, common Butcher's-broom, with bracteated flowers on phylloid peduncles. Fig. 1733. Flower of *Lilium album*, White Lily, with a 6-leaved perianth, 6

both of temperate and tropical regions. In the latter we meet with arborescent species, such as the Dragon-trees (Fig. 201, p. 91), and



Fig. 1780.



Fig. 1731.



Fig. 1733.



Fig. 1735.



Fig. 1732.

with succulent species, as Aloes. In temperate climes we have species of Tulip, Lily, Hemerocallis or Day-lily, Convallaria or Lily of the Valley, Fritillary, Asparagus, Polianthes or Tuberoses, Hyacinth, Squill, Ornithogalum or Star of Bethlehem, Onion and Leek, Erythronium or Dog-tooth Violet. The limits of the order are not well defined, and Lindley thinks that it must be ultimately split into a number of separate orders. The species, as given by him, amount to upwards of 1200. *III. Gen.* — Tulipa, Gagea, Lloydia, Fritillaria, Liliium, Hemerocallis, Phormium, Aloe, Yucca, Allium, Scilla, Hyacinthus, Conanthera, Asphodelus, Anthericum, Xanthorrhœa, Wachen-dorfia, Asparagus, Dracæna, Ruscus, Aspidistra, Ophiopogon.

1507. The properties of the order are various. Some of the plants

stamens, and 1 style. Fig. 1734. Flower of the Tulip, with the perianth removed, showing 6 stamens, the outer row of 3, *es*, the inner row, *st*, surrounding the pistil with its 3-lobed stigma. Fig. 1735. Ovary of *Lilium album*, White Lily, cut transversely, shewing 3 cells, with the ovules packed one above another in two rows, and attached to a central placenta.

are used as emetics and purgatives, while others are stimulant and diaphoretic. Some yield resinous and astringent matter, while others supply valuable materials for manufacture. Asparagus seeds have been recommended as a substitute for coffee.

Allium Porrum, the Leek (Fig. 1728, and Fig. 164, p. 68), is the Hebrew Chatzir, the Greek Prason, the bulb of which is esculent, stimulant, and diuretic. These properties are found also in *A. Cepa*, the Onion, the Betzal or Betzallim of Scripture (Numb. xi. 5); *A. sativum*, Garlic, the Scorodon of the Greeks; *A. Schönoprasum*, the Chive; *A. ascalonicum*, the Shallot (Fig. 1729), the Hebrew Shumin translated Garlic; and *A. Scorodoprasum*, the Rocambole. Most of these plants have sulphuretted oil in their composition, as well as free phosphoric acid. In warm dry countries some of these bulbous plants grow to a large size, and instead of being acrid and pungent, are bland articles of food. This is seen in the case of Portugal, Spanish, and Egyptian Onions.

Aloe is the genus which supplies the drug called Aloes. It is the inspissated juice of various species, such as *A. spicata*, *vulgaris*, *socotrina*, *indica*, and *purpurascens*.

Camassia esculenta, the Quamash of the North American Indians, has edible bulbs. They, as well as others, are called Biscuit-roots.

Dracena Draco is one of the Lily tribe, which attains the size of a large tree (Fig. 201, p. 91). It yields a resin called Dragon's-blood. Many of the *Dracenas* have forking stems, and their bark can be separated from the wood. *D. terminalis*, called Ki, supplies food, and an intoxicating beverage in the Sandwich Islands. Its roots are said to be astringent.

Fritillaria imperialis (Fig. 587, p. 219), called Crown Imperial, from the mode of arrangement of its depending flowers, has nectariferous depressions at the base of the leaves of its perianth (Fig. 111, p. 46). Its fetid bulb is said to be poisonous.

Lilium chalcedonicum, the scarlet Martagon Lily (Fig. 411, p. 174), is supposed to be the Krinon or Lily of the field of the New Testament (Matth. vi. 28, and Luke xii. 27). *L. bulbiferum* (Fig. 163, p. 68), has bulbils or separable buds in the axils of its leaves. The bulbs of *L. tenuifolium*, *L. kamschaticum*, and *L. spectabile*, are used as food in Siberia.

Ornithogalum umbellatum, the common Star of Bethlehem (Fig. 1172, p. 530), has white flowers streaked with green, and its bulb is supposed to be the Hebrew Chirionim or cab of Doves' Dung mentioned in 2 Kings vi. 25, as having been sold at a high price at the siege of Samaria.

Phormium tenax (Fig. 48, p. 24) supplies New Zealand Flax, the fibres of which are very tenacious. Its root has been used as a substitute for Sarsaparilla.

Ruscus, Butcher's-broom (Fig. 1732), is remarkable on account of its phylloid peduncles. Various species have been prescribed as diuretics.

Sansevieria. Species of this genus produce African or Bowstring-hemp, which is very strong and tough.

Urginea Scilla, known as Scilla or Squilla maritima (Fig. 1780), a Mediterranean sand plant, has an acrid bulb which, when dried, constitutes the common Squill of the shops. It is used as an emetic, expectorant, and diuretic. *S. indica* is employed in India as a substitute.

Xanthorrhœa Hastata, *X. arborea* and other species, are the Grass-trees of New South Wales, which have peculiar stems covered with the bases of the leaves, and send up long spikes of flowers (p. 92). They yield a fragrant red resin called Botany-Bay gum.

Yucca gloriosa and other species, known by the name of Adam's Needle (Fig. 1781), furnish useful fibres.

1508. Nat. Ord. 243. — MELANTHACEÆ or COLCHICACEÆ, the Colchicum order (Figs. 1736 to 1739).—Herbs with bulbs, corms (Fig. 1738), or fasciculated roots, and white, green, or purple flowers,

which are sometimes polygamous. Perianth petaloid, of 6 leaves,

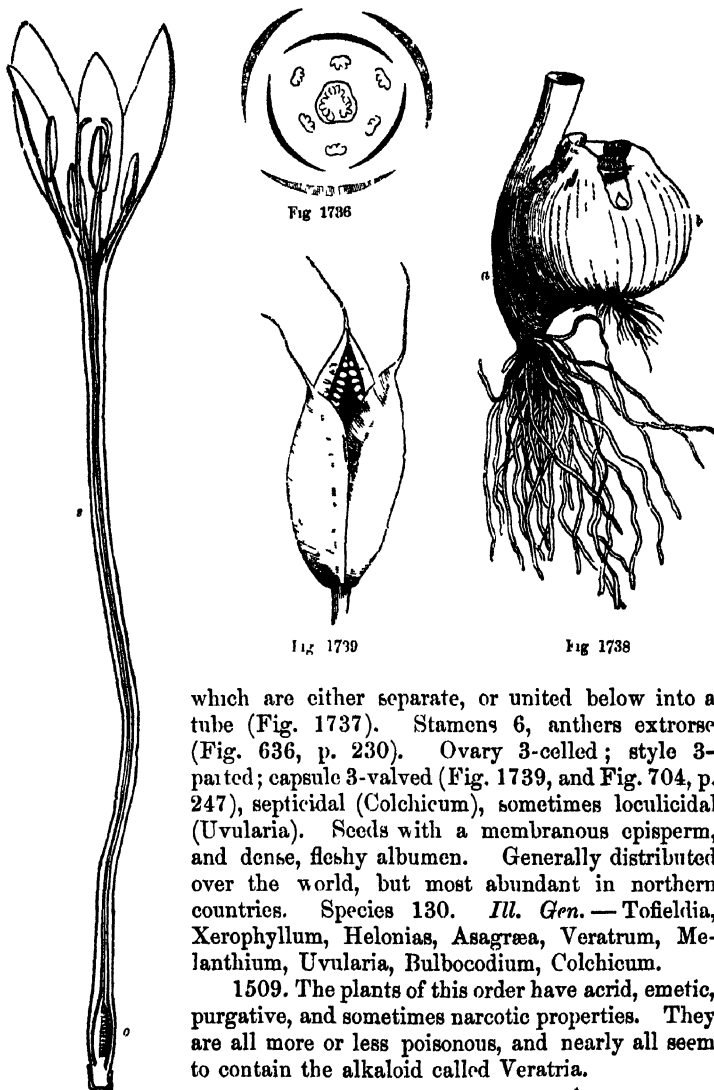


Fig 1737

Figures 1736 to 1740 illustrate the natural order Melanthaceæ

Fig 1736 Diagram of the flower of *Colchicum autumnale*, Meadow Saffron, showing a 6-leaved perianth, in 2 verticils, 6 stamens, and an ovary formed of 3 carpels Fig 1737. Flower of *Colchicum autumnale*, common Meadow Saffron, showing its subterranean ovary, *o*, very long tube of the perianth, *t*, and the stamens attached to it above Fig 1738 Young, *b*, and old, *c*, corms of *Colchicum* Fig 1739 Capsule of *Colchicum*, shewing 3 cells with septicidal dehiscence

which are either separate, or united below into a tube (Fig. 1737). Stamens 6, anthers extrorse (Fig. 636, p. 230). Ovary 3-celled; style 3-parted; capsule 3-valved (Fig. 1739, and Fig. 704, p. 247), septicidal (*Colchicum*), sometimes loculicidal (*Uvularia*). Seeds with a membranous episperm, and dense, fleshy albumen. Generally distributed over the world, but most abundant in northern countries. Species 130. *Ill. Gen.*—*Tofieldia*, *Xerophyllum*, *Helonias*, *Asagrea*, *Veratrum*, *Melanthium*, *Uvularia*, *Bulbocodium*, *Colchicum*.

1509. The plants of this order have acrid, emetic, purgative, and sometimes narcotic properties. They are all more or less poisonous, and nearly all seem to contain the alkaloid called *Veratria*.

Asagrea officinalis, found in the alpine districts of Mexico, is the chief source of the Cevadilla or Sabadilla seeds, which contain veratria, and are used in neuralgic and rheumatic affections.

Colchicum autumnale, the Meadow Saffron, or Autumn-flowering Crocus (Fig. 1787), flowers in autumn, and sends up its leaves and seed vessel during the succeeding spring. Its corms (Fig. 1788) and ripe seeds contain an alkaloid Colchicia, and are prescribed in gout and rheumatism. The corms of *C. variegatum* were the Hermodactyls of the Greeks and Arabians.

Veratrum album, White Hellebore, was much used by the Greeks as a purgative in mania. The plant is both acrid and narcotic. *V. Sabadilla* is another of the sources whence Sabadilla seeds are procured.

1510. Nat. Ord. 244.—GILLIESIACEÆ, the Gilliesia order.—Bulbous herbs, with grass-like leaves, and umbellate, spathaceous flowers. Perianth of 2 portions,—outer petaloid and herbaceous, of 6 leaves, called by Lindley bracts; inner minute, either a single lobe or urceolate and 5-toothed. The latter is by some considered an abortive staminal row. Stamens 6, sometimes 3 sterile. Capsule 3-celled, 3-valved, loculicidal, polyspermal. Episperm black and brittle; embryo curved; albumen fleshy. Chilean plants. Species 5. *Ill. Gen.*—Gilliesia, Miersia.

1511. Nat. Ord. 245.—PONTEDERIACEÆ, the Pontederia order.—Aquatic plants, with leaves sheathing at the base, petioles occasionally dilated, and spathaceous flowers, either solitary or in spikes. Perianth coloured, tubular, 6-parted, irregular, persistent. Stamens 6 or 3, perigynous; anthers introrse. Capsule sometimes slightly adherent, 3-celled, 3-valved, loculicidal. Seeds numerous; placenta central; albumen mealy. Natives of America, India, and Africa. Species 30. *Ill. Gen.*—Heteranthera, Leptanthus, Pontederia.

1512. Nat. Ord. 246.—XYRIDACEÆ, the Xyris order.—Swampy, rush-like plants, with ensiform or filiform radical leaves sheathing at the base. Flowers in scaly heads. Perianth of 6 parts, 3 outer glumaceous. Stamens 6, 3 fertile inserted on the inner perianth. Anthers extrorse. Ovary 1-celled; placentas parietal; ovules orthotropical. Capsule 1-celled, 3-valved, polyspermal. Albumen fleshy; embryo remote from the hilum. Tropical plants. Some species of Xyris have been used in cutaneous affections. Species 70. *Ill. Gen.*—Xyris, Abolboda, Rapatea.

1513. Nat. Ord. 247.—PHILYDRACEÆ, the Water-wort order.—Plants allied closely to Xyrids, and differing chiefly in the want of an outer perianth, in the inner perianth being 2-leaved, in having 3 stamens, 2 of which are abortive, and in the embryo being large in the axis of the albumen. The flowers have spathaceous bracts; the roots are fibrous, the stem simple, leafy, and often woolly, and the leaves sheathing at the base. Natives of New Holland and China. Species 2. *Ill. Gen.*—Philydrum, Heteria.

1514. Nat. Ord. 248.—COMMELYNACEÆ, the Spider-wort order.—Herbs with flat leaves, usually sheathing at the base. Outer perianth of 3 parts, herbaceous; inner also 3, coloured, sometimes cohering. Stamens 6, or fewer, hypogynous. Anthers introrse; ovary 3-celled;

placenta central; style 1. Capsule 2-3-celled, 2-3-valved, loculicidal. Seeds with a linear hilum; embryo pulley-shaped, in a cavity of the albumen, remote from the hilum. In *Tradescantia* the filaments are provided with jointed hairs (Fig. 95, p. 43), which show rotation in their cells (p. 417). The rhizomes of some species of *Commelyna* are amylaceous and edible. Species 260. *III. Gen.* — *Commelyna*, *Aneilema*, *Tradescantia*, *Cyanotis*, *Campelia*, *Flagellaria*.

1515. Nat. Ord. 249.—MAYACACEÆ, the *Mayaca* order.—Mosslike plants, with narrow leaves, resembling *Spider-worts*, but differing in their 1-celled anthers, carpels opposite the inner divisions of the perianth, 1-celled ovary and capsule, and parietal placentas. Natives of America. Species 4. *III. Gen.*—*Mayaca*.

1516. Nat. Ord. 250.—JUNCACEÆ,



Fig. 1741



Fig. 1740.

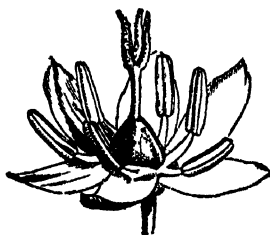


Fig. 1742.

the *Rush* order (Figs. 1740 to 1742).—Herbs with fasciculate or fibrous roots, fistular or flat and grooved leaves, and glumaceous (sometimes petaloid) flowers in clusters, cymes (Fig. 1741), or heads. Perianth dry, greenish or brownish, 6-parted (Fig. 1742). Stamens 6 or 3, perigynous; anthers introrse. Ovary 1 or 3-celled; ovules 1, 3, or many in each cell; style 1; stigmas

Figures 1740 to 1742 illustrate the natural order *Juncaceæ*.

Fig. 1740. Diagram of the flower of *Luzula*, *Wood-rush*, showing 6 divisions of the perianth in 2 rows, 6 stamens, and a 3-celled ovary. Fig. 1741. *Luzula nivea*, with paniced cymose inflorescence. Fig. 1742. Perianth of *Luzula*, with 6 divisions of its glumaceous perianth, 6 stamens, pistil with 1 style and 3 stigmas.

often 3. Fruit a 3-valved loculicidal capsule, or monospermal and indehiscent. Seeds with a thin spermoderm, which often becomes gelatinous when moistened; albumen fleshy; embryo minute. Natives chiefly of cold and temperate regions. Some of the plants have been used as anthelmintics and diuretics; the cellular tissue at the base of the leaves is sometimes eaten. The leaves are used generally for mechanical purposes, to form matting and the bottoms of chairs, and the pith for the wicks of candles. In the county of Norfolk, rushes are gathered and sold in large quantities. The number of rushes at an annual sale has amounted to 5,760,000. Species 200. *Ill. Gen.*—*Luzula*, *Juncus*, *Narthecium*, *Xerotes*, *Astelia*, *Kingia*, *Baxteria*.

1517. Nat. Ord. 251.—PALMÆ, the Palm order (Figs. 1743 to 1751).—Arborescent plants, with a simple (Figs. 1743 and 1744),



Fig. 1743.



Fig. 1746.



Fig. 1747.

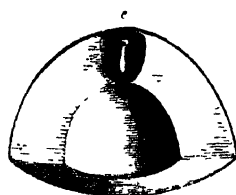


Fig. 1750.

sometimes branched stem (Fig. 1745), marked by the bases of the leaves or their scars, leaves in terminal clusters, pinnate or fan-shaped (Fig. 243, p. 109), flowers ♂ ♀ or ♂ (Figs. 1748 and 1749), on a simple or branched spadix, enclosed in a 1 or many-valved spathe (Fig. 341, p. 146). Perianth in two verticils, each of 3 parts (Figs. 1746 and 1747). Stamens usually 6, seldom 3, sometimes ∞. Ovary 1-3-celled, with a single ovule in each cell. Fruit a nut (Fig. 1277, p. 640), or drupe (Fig. 786, p. 269), or berry. Albumen carti-

Figures 1743 to 1751 illustrate the natural order Palmæ.

Fig. 1743. *Phoenix dactylifera*, the Date Palm, the Tamar of Scripture (Exod. xv. 27; Ps. xcii. 12. See also Fig. 187, p. 87; Fig. 786, p. 269; Fig. 1126, p. 437; and Fig. 1279, p. 641). Fig. 1744. A species of *Sagus* or Sago-palm. Fig. 1745. *Hyphæne thebaica*, the Doum Palm, with its dichotomous stem. Fig. 1746. Diagram of the ♂ flower of *Chamærops*, Fan-palm, shewing six divisions of the perianth and six stamens. Fig. 1747. Diagram of the ♀ flower of *Chamærops*, shewing six divisions of the perianth in two rows, and three cells of the ovary. Fig. 1748. Male (stamiferous) flower

lignous or hard (Fig. 903, p. 301), often ruminata, with a central cavity; embryo in a particular cavity remote from the hilum (Fig.



Fig 1744



Fig 1748



Fig 1749



Fig 1751



Fig 1745

1750), its cotyledon often becoming enlarged during germination, and filling the central cavity (Fig. 1751). Chiefly tropical plants, requiring a mean temperature of $78^{\circ}.2$ to $81^{\circ}.5$ F. Some, however, extend to temperate regions. *Chamerops humilis*, the dwarf Fan-palm, is found native in the south of Europe, and *C. Palmetto* grows in the milder parts of North America. Some have slender, reed-like stems, others attain a considerable diameter. Some have a low caudex, or a subterranean stem, while others have an erect trunk 190 feet high. Some, such as *Iriartea exorhiza*, send off numerous aerial roots, like the Screw-pine. Although the individual flowers are small, yet when combined on a large spadix they produce a marked effect. It has been estimated that, in of *Chamerops*. Fig 1749 Hermaphrodite flower of *Chamerops* Fig 1750 Section of seed of Coconut, shewing the central cavity in the albumen, and the embryo, *e*, lying in a separate cavity remote from the hilum Fig 1751 The Coco-nut germinating, the cotyledon becoming enlarged internally, and filling up part of the cavity

some instances, 200,000 flowers are enclosed in one spathe.* The known species amount, according to Martius, to 582, of which 91 have fan-shaped leaves. *Ill. Gen.*—*Chamædorea*, *Kunthia*, *Leopoldinia*, *Euterpe*, *Oreodoxa*, *Areca*, *Seaforthia*, *Harina*, *Saguerus*, *Caryota*, *Calamus*, *Plectocomia*, *Sagus*, *Mauritia*, *Borassus*, *Lodoicea*, *Hyphæne*, *Manicaria*, *Corypha*, *Livistona*, *Copernicia*, *Sabal*, *Chamærops*, *Phoenix*, *Acrocomia*, *Attalea*, *Elais*, *Cocos*, *Phytelephas*.

1518. Palms yield numerous important products, and they are applied to a great many uses. They supply starch, sugar, oil, wax, and edible fruits; their buds are eaten like vegetables; their leaves form coverings for habitations, and materials for manuscripts, the reticulum makes coarse cloth, and the saccharine juice is sometimes fermented, so as to form a spirit called arrack, or palm-wine called toddy.

Areca Catechu furnishes the Pinang or Betel-nut, used all over the east as a masticatory. The extract of the seeds forms one of the varieties of Catechu. The large terminal bud of *A. oleracea*, West India Cabbage Palm (Fig. 190, p. 88), is boiled as an esculent vegetable.

Astrocaryum vulgare, the Tucum Palm, is a fibre-yielding species. Ropes and various articles are manufactured from it. The fruit of *A. Murumuru* is edible.

Attalea excelsa is the Urucuri Palm, according to Spruce. *A. funifera* supplies the hard Coquilla-nuts, the pericarp of which is used for making handles of doors, of sticks, and of umbrellas. It is said that 800,000 Coquilla-nuts were imported in 1852. The Palm also supplies fibres like Piassaba.

Borassus flabelliformis, the Palmyra Palm (Fig. 1127, p. 437), furnishes Palmyra wood. *Calamus* (*Rotang*) *Scipionum*, *C. Zalacca*, and *C. Rudentum*, supply Malacca and Rattan Canes. Archer estimates the consumption of Rattan Canes in Britain at 7,500,000 annually. Partridge Canes, and those called Penang Lawyers, are also the produce of species of *Calamus*. *C. Rudentum*, the Cable Cane, is said to have a stem 500 feet long. *C. Draco* yields a reddish resin.

Caryota urens is one of the Palms which furnish Sugar, as well as the fermentable fluid called Toddy. It is said that this Palm will yield 100 pints of Toddy in 24 hours.

Ceroxylon Andicola (Fig. 83, p. 87), a South American Palm, produces wax on the surface of its stem.

Chamærops humilis, the only European Palm, is used in Sicily to form hats, baskets, and various useful articles. *C. argentea*, a Cuba Palm, supplies materials for the chip or Brazilian grass-hats.

Cocos nucifera, the Coco-nut Palm (Fig. 166, p. 70), is perhaps put to a greater number of uses than any other Palm, both as regards food, luxuries, clothing, habitations, and utensils. The sugar it supplies is called Jaggery. The very durable fibres of the covering of the fruit are manufactured into cordage, called Coir rope, and are also made into matting, door-mats, and scrubbing brushes. Its wood is used in manufactures under the name of Porcupine-wood. The albumen of the seeds yields the concrete Coco-nut oil, extensively used for making candles and soap. From seven to ten nuts are said to be the average produce of a spathe. The Coco-nut Palm begins to bear (after being transplanted) in 13-16 years, and continues in vigour 40 years. By slicing its spadix, the juice, called Callu, or toddy, is procured. This is either boiled to yield Jaggery, or is fermented and distilled to furnish Arrack. In a productive season the Coco-nut Palm pushes out a new spadix every month.

Copernicia cerifera, the Carnauba Palm, has its stem marked by the bases of the

* For remarks on the structure of Palm stems, and illustrations, see p. 88, *et seq.*; for measurements of Palms, see pp. 439 and 440; and for the germination of Palms and illustrations, see p. 639. See also Martius' large work on Palms, and Wallace on the Palm-trees of the Amazon.

leaves, which are arranged in a beautiful spiral manner. It also supplies wax from the lower surface of its leaves.

Elais guineensis (Fig. 82, p. 87) supplies the solid Palm-oil imported from Africa.

It is procured by bruising the fruit. *E. Melanococco* yields a similar product.

Euterpe montana is called Mountain Cabbage-Palm, because the young leaf-bud is used as an esculent vegetable. *E. edulis*, Assai or Assai-zedro, yields a pulpy fruit, from which a grateful beverage is prepared.

Hyphene thebaica, the Doom-Palm of Egypt (Fig. 1745), has a dichotomous trunk. The pericarp of its fruit has the taste of gingerbread, and is edible. The plant yields a resin called Egyptian Bdellium.

Leopoldinia Piassaba yields the fibres called Piassaba or Piaçava, as well as Monkey-grass and Para-grass, which are used for brushes.

Lodoicea seychellarum (Fig. 1277, p. 640), a Palm of the Seychelles islands, produces the fruit called Double Coco-nut.

Manicaria saccifera, Bussu, has a sack-like spathe, which is used for caps and for making cloth.

Mauritia vinifera, the Muriti-Palm, and *M. flexuosa*, yield a kind of Palm-wine.

Maximiliana regia is a fine South American Palm, the large spathe of which is used as a ready-made basket for carrying earth, clay, and farinha. A specimen is seen in the Edinburgh Botanical Museum.

Metroxylon lève, a native of Borneo and Sumatra, is one of the sources of the starchy matter called Sago. The starch exists in the cellular tissue of the stem, and after being washed out is granulated. A single Palm will yield 600 to 800 lbs.

Phoenix dactylifera (Fig. 1748, Fig. 187, p. 87, and Fig. 1126, p. 487), the Date-Palm, is a species which grows in the northern parts of Africa. It supplies a nutritious fruit (Fig. 786, p. 269). It is the Palm referred to in Scripture under the name of Tamar. Dates are imported into Britain from Barbary and Egypt, and are usually of the variety called Tafilat. There are said to be 46 varieties of Date cultivated in the oasis of Fezzan. Richardson says, that 19-20ths of the population of Fezzan, in Africa, live on Dates during nine months of the year, and that many of the animals also feed on them. *P. sylvestris*, Wild Date, yields sugar in Bengal.

Phytelephas macrocarpa, Pallipunta, and Homoro, or Tagus of the Indians, a Palm of the Magdalena-river district, is called the Vegetable Ivory-Palm, because the hard horny albumen of its seed is used like ivory. Archer says, that 80,000 nuts were imported in 1852. The large round clusters of nuts receive the name of Cabeza del Negro.

Plectocomia elongata produces pinnate leaves, the midribs of which are extended in a naked form beyond the pinna, and bear on their under surface remarkable spiny processes like the foot of a mole. These enable it to attach itself to neighbouring plants.

Saguera saccharifer is a valuable Sago Palm, and yields a large quantity of saccharine juice when its spadix is wounded. From this sugar is prepared. The Palm supplies a kind of fibre called Gommuti or Ejow fibre.

Sagus (Fig. 1744). Several species supply the starchy matter called Sago. *Sagus Rumphii* is the Sago-Palm of Malacca. The reticulum is black, and resembles pieces of thin whalebones mixed with horse-hair. It can be used for brushes.

1519. Nat. Ord. 252.—ALISMACEÆ, the Water-plantain order. — Floating or marsh plants, with a creeping rhizome, narrow or broad leaves, and flowers in umbels, racemes, or panicles. Perianth of 6 pieces; outer 3 herbaceous; inner 3 petaloid. Ovaries several, 1-celled; ovules solitary, or 2 superposed. Fruit indehiscent. Seeds exalbuminous; embryo like a horse-shoe, undivided. Natives chiefly of northern countries. The fleshy rhizomes of *Alisma* and *Sagittaria* are edible. Species 50. *III. Gen.*—*Alisma*, *Sagittaria*, *Actinocarpus*.

1520. Nat. Ord. 253.—JUNCAGINACEÆ, the Arrow-grass order.—Marsh plants, with narrow radical leaves, and ♂ flowers in spikes or racemes. Perianth greenish. Stamens 6; anthers extrorse. Carpels 3-6, united or distinct; ovules 1 or 2, erect. Fruit dry, 1-2-seeded. Albumen 0; embryo straight, with a lateral cleft (Fig. 1272, p. 638). A small order of plants found in cold and temperate regions. Species about 20. *Ill. Gen.*—Triglochin, Scheuchzeria, Tetronceum.

1521. Nat. Ord. 254.—BUTOMACEÆ, the Flowering-rush order.—Aquatics, with very cellular leaves, often milky, and umbellate handsome flowers. Perianth of 6 pieces, 3 inner petaloid. Stamens definite or ∞ . Ovaries 3-6 or more, distinct or united; ovules ∞ . Fruit, follicles, distinct or united. Seeds ∞ , attached to a reticulated placenta, spread over the whole inner surface of the fruit; albumen 0. Natives chiefly of northern countries. *Butomus umbellatus* is an ornamental Enneandrous plant. It has acrid and bitter properties. *Limnocharis* has a hole in the apex of its leaf. The cellular texture of the leaf is very beautiful. Species 7. *Ill. Gen.*—*Butomus*, *Hydrocleis*, *Limnocharis*.

3 INCOMPLETEÆ

Flowers incomplete, generally Unisexual, without a proper Perianth, or with a few Verticillate Scales.

1522. Nat. Ord. 255.—PANDANACEÆ, the Screw-pine order (Fig. 1752).—Trees or bushes, often branching dichotomously, or in a candelabra-like manner, having adventitious roots (Fig. 167, p. 70), leaves imbricated, linear-lanceolate or pinnate or fan-shaped, and spiny; and flowers unisexual or polygamous, spathaceous, covering a spadix completely. Perianth 0, or a few scales. Stamens numerous; anthers 2-4-celled. Ovaries 1-celled, collected into parcels; stigmas sessile; ovules solitary or numerous. Fruit either 1-seeded fibrous nuts, or many-seeded berries. Albumen fleshy; embryo minute, without a lateral slit. Natives of tropical regions, and abundant in insular situations. The seeds of the Screw-pines are eatable, and their spermoderm contains



Fig 1752.

numerous crystals. The flowers of some species are fragrant, and the juice of *Nipa* is fermentescible. *Nipa fruticans* produces the *Atap*, one of the fruits of tropical India. Species about 80 or 90. *Ill. Gen.*—*Pandanus*, *Freycinetia*, *Carludovica*, *Nipa*, *Cyclanthus*.

1523. Nat. Ord. 256.—TYPHACEÆ, the Bulrush order.—Herbs growing in marshes or ditches, having stems without nodes, rigid,

Fig. 1763 *Pandanus odoratissimus*, the Screw-pine, with adventitious roots, and spiny leaves like those of Pine-apples, arranged in a spiral (screw-like) manner

anisiform leaves, and monoecious flowers on a spadix, without a spathe. Perianth 3 or more scales, or a bundle of hairs. Stamens 1-6, distinct or monadelphous; anthers innate. Ovary solitary, 1-celled; ovule solitary, pendulous. Fruit dry or spongy, indehiscent, 1-celled, angular by pressure. Seed solitary, pendulous, with a membranous spermoderm adhering to the pericarp. Embryo in the axis of mealy albumen, straight with a lateral cleft; radicle next the hilum. Most abundant in northern countries. Species 13. *III. Gen.*—Typha, Sparganium.

1524. Starch is a product of the rhizomes of many of the plants, and the pollen, which is very abundant, is inflammable, and is also used for food.

Typha. The young shoots of *T. latifolia* and *T. angustifolia*, the greater and less Reed Mace, are sometimes eaten like Asparagus. Their large amylaceous rhizomes are also used as food. The pollen of *T. elephantina* or Elephant-grass, is made into a kind of bread in Scinde, called Boor or Booree. The pollen of *T. utilis* in New Zealand is used in making a kind of bread called Hunga-hunga. The pollen contains both amylaceous and azotized matter.

Johnston states, that children carry the flowered plant of *T. latifolia* in processions, and burn the dried spadix for tapers.

1525. Nat. Ord. 257.
—ARACEÆ, the Arum order (Figs. 1753 and 1754).—Herbs or shrubby plants, sometimes climbing, often with corms (Fig. 1753); leaves sheathing at the base, convolute in aestivation, sometimes compound, and usually with branching veins; flowers monoecious, on a spadix (Fig. 1754) mostly with a spathe (Fig. 342, p. 146). Perianth 0. Sta-



Fig 1754



Fig 1753

Figures 1753 and 1754 illustrate the natural order Araceæ
Fig. 1753 Arum maculatum, Cuckow-pint, with its underground amylaceous corm, its sagittate leaves, and young spathe. Fig 1754. The spadix of Arum maculatum, removed from its spathe; female flowers, a, male, b, abortive, c, fleshy end of spadix, d.

mens definite or ∞ ; anthers extrorse, 1 or 2-celled or more. Ovary with 1 or more cells. Fruit succulent; seeds pulpy; embryo in the axis of fleshy and mealy albumen, with a lateral cleft. Abundant in tropical climates; rare in cold or temperate regions. Species 170.

III. Gen.—Cryptocoryne, Lagenandra, Arum, Colocasia, Caladium, Dieffenbachia, Richardia.*

1526. Acridity prevails in the order, and many of the plants are irritant poisons. Some, as *Lagenandra toxicaria*, are very dangerous. The corms sometimes supply starch, which is separated from the acrid matter by washing.

Arum. The species of this genus are remarkable for the production of heat when the pollen is ripe (page 520). Some of them, as *A. Dracunculus*, have a very fetid odour. *A. maculatum*, Cuckow-pint, or Wake-Robin (Fig. 1758, and Fig. 842, p. 146), has an amylaceous acrid corm.* The starch used to be separated in large quantities at Weymouth and in the island of Portland, and sold under the name of Portland Sago. *A. campanulatum* is cultivated in some parts of India on account of its edible corms.

Caladium bicolor, and other species, have corms which, when roasted or boiled, are used as food.

Colocasia. The species of this genus are milky. They develop heat during flowering (page 524). *C. esculenta*, and other species, have edible corms, which are called Cocoes and Eddoes in the West Indies. The corms of *C. macrorhiza* constitute the edible Tara of the South Sea Islanders; while those of *C. himalensis* afford food in the Himalayas.

Dieffenbachia seguina is called Dumb-cane in the West Indies, because when chewed, it causes painful swelling of the tongue.

Richardia africana is commonly cultivated under the name of Æthiopian Lily. It has a white spathe. In its native country it is called Varkensblader or Pig's-leaf.

1527. Nat. Ord. 258.—ORONTIACEÆ or ACORACEÆ, the Orontium or Sweet-flag order.—Herbs with broad, occasionally ensiform leaves, and spadiceous flowers enclosed by a spathe. They are usually associated with Araceæ, from which they differ in their hermaphrodite flowers, and in having frequently a perianth consisting of 4-8 scales. Lindley, on account of their ♂ flowers, places them near Juncaceæ. Natives both of tropical and cold regions. Species 70. *III. Gen.*—*Calla*, *Monstera*, *Pothos*, *Dracontium*, *Symplocarpus*, *Orontium*, *Acorus*.

1528. Acridity is met with in this order, which also contains nutritious, bitter, and aromatic plants.

Acorus Calamus, common Sweet-Sedge, has an agreeable odour, and has been used as a stimulant, tonic, and antispasmodic. Its starchy matter is associated with a fragrant oil, and it is used as hair-powder.

Calla palustris has acrid, amylaceous rhizomes which, after washing, are used as food. The plant extends to Lapland.

Monstera (Dracontium) pertusa has a remarkable perforated leaf. It is an acrid plant, and its leaves are used for blistering.

Symplocarpus foetidus, Skunk-cabbage, has a very fetid odour. Its rhizome and seeds are used as antispasmodics.

* The name Lords and Ladies, given to this plant, is said to be in allusion to the fact, that in former days those personages were attired in stiff starched ruffs, in the preparation of which starch from the root of this plant was employed.

1529. Nat. Ord. 259.—PISTIACEÆ or LEMNACEÆ, the Duckweed order (Figs. 1755 to 1757).—Floating plants with lenticular or

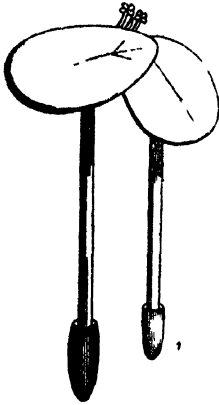


Fig. 1756.



Fig. 1755



Fig. 1757.

lobed leaves or fronds (Figs. 1755 and 1756), bearing 1 or 2 monoecious flowers enclosed in a spathe, but with no perianth (Fig. 1757). Stamens definite, often monadelphous. Ovary 1-celled; ovules 1 or more, erect or horizontal. Fruit indehiscent or baccate, 1 or more-seeded. Seeds with a thick ribbed epispem and an indurated micropyle; embryo in the axis of fleshy albumen, with a lateral cleft, or at the apex of the nucleus. Natives both of cool and of warm regions. Lemnas form a green covering of pools in Britain. They have a peculiar root-sheath (Fig. 1756). *Pistia Stratiotes*, Water-lettuce, floats in the ponds of warm countries (p. 467). Species 20. *Ill. Gen.*—*Lemna*, *Spirodela*, *Pistia*, *Ambrosinia*.

1530. Nat. Ord. 260.—NAIADACEÆ or POTAMOGETONACEÆ, the Naias or Pondweed order.—Plants of fresh or salt water, with cellular leaves and stems, and inconspicuous spiked flowers, which are sometimes hermaphrodite. Perianth of 1-4 scaly pieces or 0. Stamens definite, hypogynous. Ovary free, of one or more carpels, 1-celled; ovule solitary, erect or pendulous, rarely 3 and erect. Style simple, or 2-3-cleft. Fruit indehiscent, dry, 1-celled, and usually 1-seeded; albumen 0; embryo with a lateral cleft (Fig. 1273, p. 638, and Fig. 1275, p. 639). What is called the perianth in *Potamogeton*, and a few other allied genera, is considered by some as composed of bracts,

Figures 1755 to 1757 illustrate the natural order Pistiacem.

Fig. 1755. *Lemna minor*, lesser Duck-weed, with its frond and sheathed roots. Fig. 1756. The same magnified, showing the imperfect flowers produced on the frond and the distinct pilorhizæ or sheaths, *r*, at the extremities of the roots. Fig. 1757. The flower of *Lemna minor*, showing two male flowers with quadrilobular anthers, and a female flower in the centre, all surrounded by an urceolate spathe.

bearing unisexual flowers. If that is the true view, then this order will not include any ♂ plants. Natives of temperate and warm climates. Species about 40. *Ill. Gen.*—Potamogeton, Ruppia, Aponogeton, Ouvirandra, Caulinia, Naias, Zannichellia, Zostera, Thalassia, Amphibolis.

1531. Some species are styptic, others yield edible roots, and a few are used for stuffing cushions and beds. In the cells of many of the plants, rotation is seen (p. 416).

Aponogeton distachyum, a Cape aquatic, thrives well in some ponds in Britain. It flowers nearly during the whole year (p. 682).

Ouvirandra fenestralis, a South African plant, has peculiar skeleton cellular leaves. *Potamogeton*, Pondweed, and a few allied hermaphrodite (?) genera, are put by Lindley in *Juncaginaceæ*. The root of *P. natans* is used for food in some countries.

Zostera, Sea-wrack, is made the type of an order, *Zosteraceæ*, by Lindley. It grows in sea-water, has its flowers enclosed in herbaceous spathes, and its pollen has a beautiful filamentous appearance.* The dried plant is sometimes used for stuffing beds, &c.

1532. Nat. Ord. 261.—*TRIURIDACEÆ*, the *Triuris* order.—A small tropical order of cellular, unisexual plants, allied to *Naiadaceæ*, but distinguished in part by their peculiar seed, which consists of a hard striated integument, containing an embryo in the form of a multicellular nucleus. Species 8. *Ill. Gen.*—*Triuris*, *Hexuris*, *Sciaphila*.

1533. Nat. Ord. 262.—*RESTIACEÆ*, the *Restio* order.—Herbs or undershrubs, with narrow leaves, or 0, naked or sheathed stalks, and flowers in bracteated heads or spikes, generally ♂ ♀; glumaceous bracts 2-6, sometimes 0. Stamens 2-3; anthers usually 1-celled. Ovary 1 or more-celled; ovules, one in each cell, pendulous. Fruit a capsule or nut. Embryo lenticular, outside the albumen. Natives chiefly of South America, Australia, and South Africa. Their wiry stems are used for baskets and brooms, and for thatching. Species about 170. *Ill. Gen.*—*Chætanthus*, *Willdenovia*, *Lepidanthus*, *Thamnochortus*, *Restio*.

1534. Nat. Ord. 263.—*ERIOCAULONACEÆ*, the *Pipewort* order.—Marsh plants, with minute, unisexual flowers, allied to the last order, and differing principally in their capitate inflorescence, 2-celled anthers, ovary surrounded by a 2-3-toothed membranous tube, and seeds with rows of hairs. The species abound in South America, Brazil containing upwards of 100 species of *Eriocaulon*, some of them branching plants 6 feet high. Other plants of the order are found in Australia and North America. *Eriocaulon septangulare*, jointed Pipewort, is the only species found in Britain. It is met with in Skye and Galway. Species 200. *Ill. Gen.*—*Eriocaulon*, *Cladocaulon*, *Paspalanthus*.

1535. Nat. Ord. 264.—*DESVAUXIACEÆ*, the *Bristlewort* order.—Small herbs, like species of *Scirpus*, having setaceous leaves, flowers glumaceous in a spathe, distinguished from *Restiaceæ* principally in having separate ovaries attached to a common axis, and fruit consisting

* See Hofmeister on *Zostera*, in Hensley and Huxley's Scientific Memoirs, 1. 239.

of utricles opening longitudinally. They inhabit the South Sea Islands and New Holland. Species 15. *III. Gen.*—*Centrolepis*, (*Desvauxia*), *Aphelia*.

SUB-CLASS 3.—GLUMIFERÆ.

1536. Nat. Ord. 265.—CYPERACEÆ, the Sedge order (Figs. 1758



Fig. 1758.

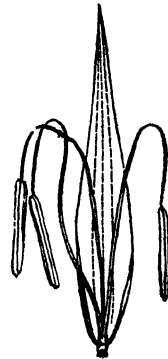


Fig. 1759.

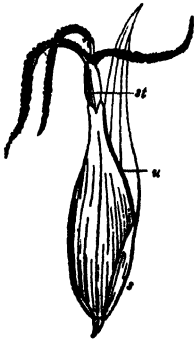


Fig. 1760.

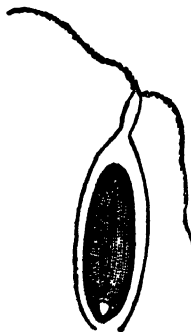


Fig. 1761.



Fig. 1762.

to 1762).—Grass-like, cæspitose plants, have solid, usually un-

Figures 1758 to 1762 illustrate the natural order Cyperaceæ.
 Fig. 1758. *Cyperus esculentus*, with its edible corms or tubers. It is conjectured to be the Hebrew *Achu*, translated *Flag* in Job vii. 11, and *Meadow* in Gen. xli. 2, 18. Fig. 1759. Stamiferous flower of *Carex*, Sedge, consisting of a scale or glume bearing 3 stamens with long filaments and innate anthers. Fig. 1760. Pistilliferous flower of *Carex*, consisting of a scale or glume, *s*, bearing a pistil surrounded by an urceolate perigynium, *a*, through which projects the style, *st*, with its three

jointed, and frequently angular stems (Fig. 157, p. 66), leaves with entire sheaths, and ♂ or ♂ ♀ flowers, each with a solitary bract or glume (Fig. 1759), imbricated on a common axis, so as to form a spikelet. The lowermost glumes are often empty. Perianth 0, or existing in the female flowers in the form of a membranaceous covering called perigynium (Fig. 1760). Stamens hypogynous, definite, varying from 1 to 12, most commonly 3; anthers innate, 2-celled. Ovary superior, often surrounded by hypogynous bristles called setæ (Fig. 1762); ovule 1, erect; style single, 2-3-cleft; stigmas 2-3. Fruit a crustaceous or bony achene. Embryo lenticular, in the base of fleshy or mealy albumen (Fig. 1761). Generally distributed all over the world, and growing abundantly in moist situations. Species 2000. *Ill. Gen.*—*Carex*, *Kobresia*, *Scleria*, *Rhynchospora*, *Schœnus*, *Cladium*, *Lipocarpa*, *Fuirena*, *Fimbristylis*, *Isolepis*, *Scirpus*, *Blysmus*, *Eleocharis*, *Eriophorum*, *Cyperus*, *Papyrus*, *Kyllingia*, *Mariscus*, *Abilgaardia*.

1537. Some of the Sedges are diaphoretic and demulcent, others are bitter, stomachic, and astringent. By means of their creeping underground stems, some of them bind together the loose sands of the sea-shore. Some of the plants, such as *Cyperus Hydra*, prove troublesome weeds on account of their creeping, subterranean stems. The cellular tissue is occasionally used for paper.

Carex arenaria (Fig. 157, p. 66), *C. incurva*, and other species, are found on the sandy shores of Britain, and along with *Psamma arenaria*, and other Grasses, are useful in forming the Bent, which prevents the sand from being blown inland. The creeping stems of *C. arenaria* are used as a substitute for Sarsaparilla.

Cyperus longus has been used as a tonic and astringent, its roots being the official part. The roots of *C. rotundus* contain an aromatic volatile oil. The corms of *C. esculentus* (Fig. 1758) have been used as food, and when roasted, they have been recommended as a substitute for Coffee. The corms of *C. bulbosus* are also eaten. *Eriophorum*, Cotton-grass, is so called on account of the long silky hypogynous bristles or hairs which surround the fruit. The leaves are considered to be astringent. The hairs cannot be manufactured, but they are employed for paper, for wicks of candles, and for stuffing cushions.

Papyrus antiquorum (Fig. 25, p. 19, and Fig. 26, p. 20) appears to be the Hebrew Gome, which is translated Rush or Bulrush in Scripture (Exod. ii. 3; Job viii. 11; Is. xviii. 2, and xxxv. 7). It is probably the Bulrush of the Nile which, with its spreading rhizomes, helped to consolidate the mud of the Delta. It was used for making boats, and for ropes. The cellular tissue which fills the interior of its stem has been used for making paper. In Sicily a species is used for this purpose at the present day, which, according to Parlature, is *P. sicula*, the plant usually cultivated in European gardens. A specimen of Sicilian Papyrus paper is seen in the Edinburgh Botanical Museum. *P. corymbosus* supplies Indian-grass matting.

Scirpus lacustris, *C. Tabernæmontani*, and other species of Clubrush or Bull-rush, are used, like Rushes, for making mats, baskets, and the bottoms of chairs.

stigmas. Fig. 1761. The ripe pistil of *Carex* cut vertically, showing the minute embryo in the base of the albumen. Fig. 1762. Hermaphrodite flower of *Scirpus*, Club-rush. The glume has been removed, and there are seen six hypogynous, retrorsely-toothed bristles, three stamens with innate anthers, and the pistil with a single style and three stigmas.

1538. Nat. Ord. 266.—GRAMINEÆ, the Grass order (Figs. 1763 to 1781).—Herbaceous plants, with round, usually hollow, jointed stems; narrow, alternate leaves, having a split sheath and often a ligule at its summit (Fig. 1772); hermaphrodite or monœcious, or polygamous

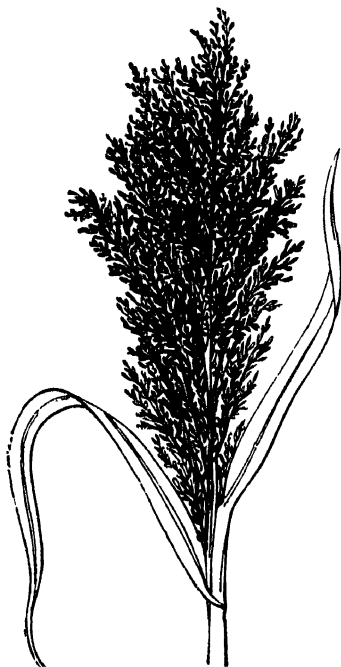


Fig. 1763.



Fig. 1764.

flowers, either solitary or arranged in spiked or panicle locustæ (Fig. 1773). The flowers are considered as composed of a series of bracts; the outer, called glumes (Fig. 1774), alternate, often unequal, usually 2 (Fig. 1778), sometimes 1, rarely 0; the next, called pales or glu-

Figures 1763 to 1781 illustrate the natural order Gramineæ.

Fig. 1763. *Arundo Donax*, a panicle grass, supposed to be one of the plants implied in the Hebrew *Kaneh*, and the Greek *Kalamos*, translated Reed in many parts of Scripture (1 Kings xiv. 15; Job xl. 31; Is. xix. 6; Ezek. xxix. 6; Matt. xii. 20). Fig. 1764. *Andropogon Calamus aromaticus*, a grass which yields a fragrant oil, and supposed by Royle to be the Hebrew *Kaneh Bosem*, and *Kaneh Hattob*, translated Sweet Calamus (Exod. xxx. 23), and Sweet Cane (Jer. vi. 20); probably also the Calamus of Cant. iv. 14, and Ezek. xxvii. 19, and the Sweet Cane of Is. xliii. 24. Fig. 1765. *Panicum miliaceum*, Millet, appears to be the Hebrew *Dokham* or *Docham*, translated Millet in Ezek. iv. 9. Fig. 1766. *Lolium temulentum*, the Darnel-grass, said to be the only poisonous grass; but there are doubts in regard to its narcotic qualities. Some suppose it to be the *Zizania* or *Tares* of Scripture (Matt. xiii. 25, &c.), the infelix iolium of Virgil (See also Fig. 385, p. 160). Fig. 1767. *Dactylis cœpitosa*, the Tussock-grass of the Falkland Islands, a valuable kind of pasture grass. Fig. 1768. Spike of *Triticum*, Wheat, consisting of numerous spikelets arranged along a common rachis. Fig. 1769. *Triticum Spelta*, Spelt, a kind of awned or aristate Wheat, supposed to be the Hebrew *Kusemeth*,

mellæ (pales or glumellæ), usually 2, alternate (Figs. 1775 and



Fig. 1765.

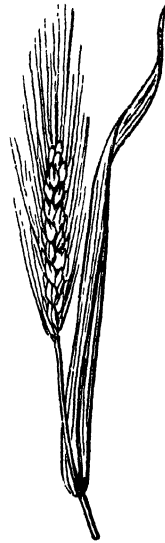


Fig. 1769.

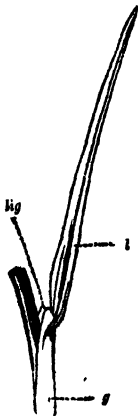


Fig. 1772.

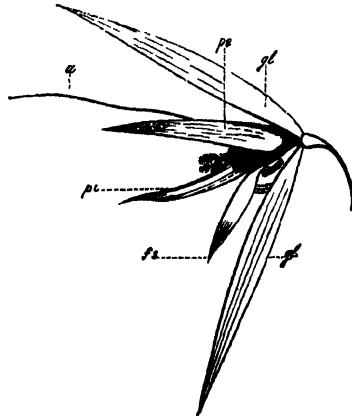
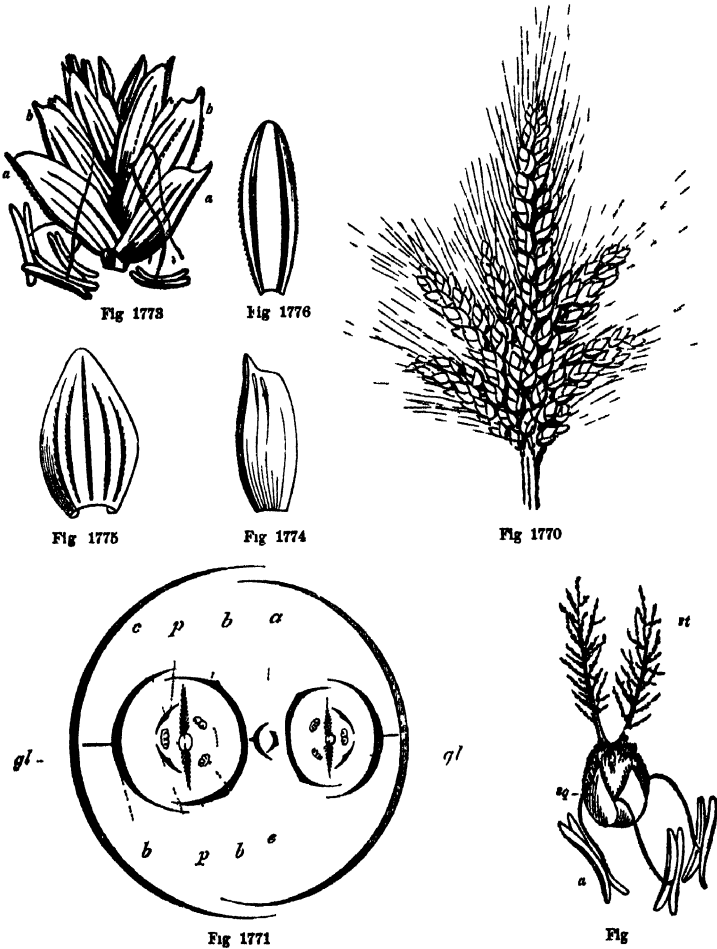


Fig. 1778.

translated Eye (Exod. ix. 32; Is. xxviii. 25), and Fitches (Ezek. iv. 9). Fig. 1770. *Triticum compositum*, Egyptian Wheat, having numerous spikes (ears) coming from one stalk. It is one of the plants included in the Hebrew Chittah, translated Wheat in various parts of the Old Testament (Gen. xxx. 14; Exod. ix. 32; Deut. viii. 8, &c.) Fig. 1771. Diagram of a spikelet of *Avena*, Oat, showing two glumes, *gl gl*, enclosing three flowers, one of which, *a*, is abortive; the two paleas or glumellæ, *b b*, the inner apparently formed by the union of two; two scales, lodicules, *pl pl*, the third being abortive and marked by a dotted curve; three stamens, *e*, ovary, *c*, with two feathery styles.

1776), the lower or outer one being simple, the upper or inner having



2 dorsal or lateral ribs, and supposed to be formed by 2 pales united ; sometimes 1 or both are wanting. The glumes enclose either one

Fig 1772 Leaf, *l*, of *Poa*, Meadow grass, with a split sheath, *g* and a ligule, *lig* Fig 1773 Spikelet of Wheat, composed of numerous flowers, *bb* enclosed within two glumes, *aa* The stamens have thread like filaments and versatile anthers Fig 1774 A glume of Wheat seen in profile. Fig 1775 Outer pale or glumelle of Wheat with one mid rib and four lateral ribs Fig 1776 Inner pale or glumelle of Wheat, with two ribs, indicating its probable formation by the union of two pales Fig 1777 Ovary of Wheat with the pales removed, shewing the hypogynous scales, lodicules, *sq*, three stamens with versatile anthers, *a*, and two feathery styles, *st* Fig 1778 Spikelet of *Avena sativa*, Oats, shewing two glumes, *gl* *gl*, outer pale or glumelle, *ps*, with a dorsal awn (arista), *a*, inner pale, *ps*, the pales enclosing the essential organs, abortive or sterile flower, *fs* Fig 1779 Flower of

flower, as in Fox-tail grass, or more flowers, as in Wheat (Fig. 1773), and among the flowers there are frequently abortive florets (Fig. 1771),



Fig. 1768.

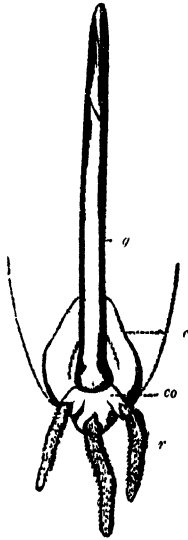


Fig. 1781.



Fig. 1766.

α , and Fig. 1778). Stamens hypogynous, 1-6, usually 3 (Fig. 1777); anthers versatile. Ovary superior, 1-celled, with 2 (rarely 1 or 0) hypogynous scales called lodicules (Figs. 1777 and 1779); ovule 1; styles 2 or 3, rarely united; stigmas often feathery (Fig. 1777). Fruit a caryopsis (p. 282). Embryo lenticular, external, lying on one side, at the base of farinaceous albumen (Fig. 1780). Germination endorhizal (Fig. 1781). Grasses are widely distributed, and are found in all quarters of the globe. Schouw conjectures that they constitute 1-22d of all known plants. They are usually social plants, forming herbage in temperate regions, and sometimes becoming arborescent (50 or 60 feet high) in tropical countries. There appear

Oat cut vertically, showing inner pale, *pi*, lodicules, *lg*, three stamens, and ovary with two feathery styles. Fig. 1780. Caryopsis, grain of Oat; pericarp, *o*, spermoderm, *f*, farinaceous albumen, *a*. Embryo plant lying at one side at the base, with radicle, *r*, plumule, *g*, and cotyledon, *c*. Fig. 1781. Grain of Oats germinating; radicles, *r*, coleorhiza or sheath, *co*, plumule, *g*, and cotyledon, *c*.

to be nearly 4000 known grasses. *III. Gen.*—*Oryza*, *Zizania*, *Zea*, *Coix*, *Alopecurus*, *Phleum*, *Holcus*, *Milium*, *Panicum*, *Stipa*, *Agrostis*,

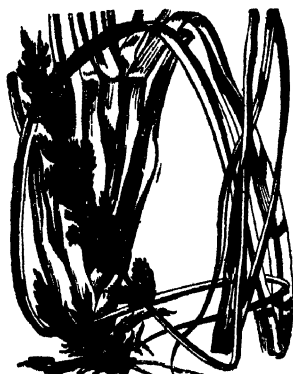


Fig 1767



Fig 1780



Fig 1779

Arundo, *Echinaria*, *Cynodon*, *Chloris*, *Spartina*, *Hierochloe*, *Anthoxanthum*, *Aira*, *Arrhenatherum*, *Poa*, *Briza*, *Dactylis*, *Cynosurus*, *Festuca*, *Bromus*, *Bambusa*, *Lolium*, *Triticum*, *Elymus*, *Hordeum*, *Ægilops*, *Nardus*, *Lepturus*, *Saccharum*, *Andropogon*.

1539. This is perhaps the most important order in the vegetable kingdom, as supplying food for man and animals. To it belong the cultivated grains, Wheat, Oats, Barley, Rye, Rice, Maize, and Millet. Most of these have been so long under constant cultivation that their native state is unknown. Some curious observations, however, have been lately made in regard to the native state of Wheat (p. 709). The properties of the order are nutritive in a marked degree. Some yield fragrant oils, others produce sugar. The fragrant odour given out by *Anthoxanthum*, and other grasses used for hay, has been attributed to benzoic acid. Some, as *Bromus catharticus* and *B. purgans*, were stated to have cathartic qualities, but this seems to be erroneous. *Lolium temulentum*, Darnel-grass (Fig. 1766), supposed to be the Tares, *Zizania*, of Scripture, has been said to be narcotic and poisonous, but this has not been fully proved. Some grasses, with creeping subterranean stems, as *Triticum repens*, Quick-grass, are troublesome weeds; others of a similar nature, as *Elymus arenarius* and *Psamma arenaria*, bind the loose sand of the sea-shore together. Spruce says that grasses chiefly belonging to the tribes *Oryzæ*, *Chloridæ*, and *Panicæ*, constitute the mass of the numerous floating islands in the Amazon, called *Ilhas de Capim*. These islands are sometimes acres in extent, and from 5 to 8 feet of their thickness is under water. The

Additional illustrations of Gramineæ.—Grains of Wheat, Figs 846 and 847, p 838. Culm of Wheat, Fig 291, p 126 Germination of Wheat, Maize, and Briza, Fig 1274, p 638, Fig 1281, p 641, and Fig 1282, p 642. Consult also Parnell's work on British Grasses, and Lawson's List of cultivated Grasses

hollow stems of some tropical Grasses contain a cool fluid which supplies a refreshing drink. The cuticle of Grasses is siliceous.

Anatherum muricatum is an Indian grass, having an aromatic rhizome, which is sold as a perfume under the name of Vetivert.

Andropogon Schoenanthus, Lemon-grass or Ginger-grass, and *A. Calamus aromaticus* (Fig. 1764), yield a fragrant oil. The latter is considered by Royle the Kaneh Bosen, Sweet-cane, or Calamus of the Bible. *A. saccharatum*, Shaloo, is cultivated in India as a nutritious grain. The grain of *A. Sorghum* is imported under the name of Durra or Doura. It resembles Millet.

Arundo includes many of the plants commonly called Reeds, some of which, such as *Arundo Phragmites* (*Phragmites communis*), are probably implied in the Hebrew word Agmon, which occurs in Job xl. 21, xli. 2; Is. ix. 14, xix. 15, lviii. 6, and has been translated Flag, Hook, Rush, and Bulrush. *A. Donax* (Fig. 1768) is considered by Royle to be one of the plants included in the Hebrew Kaneh and Greek Kalamos, translated Reed in Scripture.

Avena sativa, the common Oat, is a grain of northern climates.* *A. nuda*, the naked or Hill Oat, used to be cultivated in Scotland, and *A. orientalis*, Tartarian Oat, with its unilateral panicle, is still occasionally grown in fields. *A. fatua*, the Wild Oat, has a very hygrometric awn.

Bambusa arundinacea, the Bamboo, attains a great height, and in hothouses in Britain it has sometimes grown at the rate of a foot or more per day. Wallich mentions, that in the Calcutta Garden the shoots of *Bambusa gigantea* grew not less than 25 feet 9 inches in length during July 1838 (Kew Miscel. i. 218). Occasionally the Bamboo has a diameter of 9 or 10 inches. The young shoots are used for pickles, and the hollow stem is employed for a variety of purposes. Paper is prepared from it, and a siliceous matter called Tabasheer is procured from its joints (p. 389). Dr. Hooker, in speaking of the Bamboos near Darjeeling, says—"There are so many kinds, they so seldom flower, require so much experience in their native states, and so cautious an examination from the botanist, that it is next to impossible to define the limits of ten or twelve species easily distinguished by the Lepchas who inhabit the district. A very large kind of Bamboo is used by the Lepchas for *choongis* or water-buckets, another for quivers, a third for flutes, a fourth for walking-sticks, a fifth for plaiting work (baskets), a sixth for arrows; while a larger sort serves for bows. In an economical point of view, they are classed into those which split readily and those which do not. The young shoots of one or more are eaten, and the seeds of another, either raw or cooked, are made into a fermented drink. In China the Bamboo is used for numerous purposes—for water-pipes, fishing-rods, for making hats, shields, umbrellas, soles of shoes, baskets, ropes, paper, scaffolding-poles, trellis-work, sails, covers of boats, and Katamarans." The young shoots are boiled and eaten, and sweetmeats are also made of them.†

Colix Lachryma has hard grains, which are commonly called Job's-tears, and are used as beads.

Dactylis cæspitosa, the Tussac-grass of the Falkland Islands (Fig. 1767), has been cultivated with some success in Shetland and in the island of Lewis. It yields valuable fodder. *D. glomerata* is the common Cock's-foot grass.

Gynierium argenteum, the Pampas-grass of the Cordillera, thrives well in some places in Britain, and is a graceful grass. The flowers are in panicles 1½ to 2½ feet long, and of a silvery whiteness. *G. saccharoides* yields sugar in Brazil.

Hordeum includes the species of Barley which, along with Oats, is a grain of temperate and cold climates. *H. distichum*, two-rowed Barley, is the common cul-

* The chief varieties of Oat in cultivation in Scotland are the Potato, Sandy, Hopetoun, Early Angus, Poland, and Common Oat.

† A Chinese cloak, made from Bamboo leaves, and wove paper, made from strips of Bamboo, have been presented by A. H. Balfour, Esq., Hong Kong, to the Edinburgh Botanical Museum.

tivated species. *H. vulgare*, Bere, Bigg, or four-rowed barley, and *H. hexastichum*, six-rowed Barley, are confined to higher districts, and are rarely cultivated in Britain. The Hebrew word *Seorah* or *Shoreh*, translated Barley, occurs in many parts of Scripture (Exod. ix. 81; Lev. xxvii. 16; Is. xxviii. 25; Joel i. 11, &c.); and Barley-bread is referred to as being used by the common people (Judges vii. 13; 2 Kings iv. 42; John vi. 9, 18).

Oryza sativa, Rice, is the grain which is said to support the majority of the human race. Rice Starch is manufactured and sold under the name of Patent Starch. Rice, along with Maize and Millet, is the chief grain of warm countries. *Panicum miliaceum*, a kind of Millet (Fig. 1765), is cultivated for its grain in warm countries. † It is the Hebrew *Dokham*. The grain is called Warree in the East Indies. *P. jumentorum* is the Guinea-grass; *P. spectabile* the Angola-grass.

Paspalus virgatus, Lamaha-grass, is excellent fodder in Demerara.

Phalaris canariensis produces the grain called Canary-seed, used for birds.

Saccharum officinarum, the Sugar-cane (Fig. 78, p. 33), is an important Grass. The import of Cane-sugar into Britain in 1852, was 7,214,685 cwts., besides 548,628 cwts. of Molasses.

Secale cereale, Rye, is subject to a disease called Ergot, which renders it unfit for use (page 689). The Hebrew word *Kussemeth*, translated Rye, appears to mean *Triticum Spelta*, Spelt Wheat (Fig. 1769).

Sorghum. This genus yields the grain called Guinea-corn. Sugar is procured from *S. saccharatum*, Sweet Sorgho. *S. vulgare* is called great Millet or Sowaree.

Triticum vulgare is the common Wheat; the variety called *T. aestivum*, or Spring Wheat, being sown in spring, and that called *T. hybernum*, Winter Wheat, being sown in autumn.* Some varieties of Wheat are destitute of awns, others are awned like barley, as is seen in *T. Spelta*, Spelt (Fig. 1769), the Hebrew *Kussemeth*. *T. compositum* is the Egyptian or many-eared Wheat (Fig. 1770), ‡ and is included in the Hebrew word *Chittah*. M. Esprit Fabre has recently maintained, that all the varieties of cultivated Wheat are derived from a grass called *Ægilops ovata* (p. 709).

Zizania aquatica supplies the Swamp-rice of Canada.

1540. Analysis of the Monocotyledonous natural orders, with references to the numbers of the orders in the preceding pages.

I. Endogens with netted leaves.

1. *Perianth adherent, ovary inferior.*

Unisexual, fruit capsular, a cavity in the albumen Dioscoreaceæ, 224.

2. *Perianth free, ovary superior.*

Ovary 1-celled.

Placentas basal, flowers tetramerous Roxburghiaceæ, 227.

Placentas parietal, flowers trimerous Philesiaceæ, 228.

Ovary 3-5 celled.

Flowers ♂ ♀; perianth with 6 divisions, all petaloid, leaves articulated with the stem..... Smilacæ, 225.

Flowers ♂; perianth with 6 or 8 divisions, all herbaceous or 3 petaloid, leaves not articulated Trilliaceæ, 226.

II. Endogens with parallel-veined leaves.

1. Flowers with a verticillate perianth, and usually hermaphrodite.

a. *Perianth adherent, ovary inferior.*

Flowers gynandrous.

* The varieties of Wheat recommended for cultivation in Scotland are Fenton, Hunter's, and Hopetoun.

- Ovary 1-celled, placentas parietal Orchidaceæ, 230.
 Ovary 3-celled, placentas axile Apostasiaceæ, 231.
- Flowers not gynandrous.
- Veins of the leaves running from the midrib to the margin.
- Stamens, one only fertile.
- Anther 1-celled, filament petaloid Marantaceæ, 234.
 Anther 2-celled, filament not petaloid Zingiberaceæ, 233.
 Stamens, 5 or 6 fertile Musaceæ, 235.
- Veins of the leaves running parallel to the midrib.
- Stamens 3.
- Anthers extrorse, distinct embryo in dense albumen Iridaceæ, 236.
 Anthers introrse, embryo a loose cellular nucleus Burmanniaceæ, 232.
- Stamens 6.
- Anthers turned outwards Burmanniaceæ, 232.
 Anthers turned inwards.
- Leaves equitant Hæmodoraceæ, 239.
 Leaves flat, not equitant.
- Fruit 3-celled.
- Outer perianth coloured, albumen fleshy or hard.
- Seed with a beaked strophiole, radicle remote from the hilum, leaves dry Hypoxidaceæ, 238.
 Seed not strophiolate, embryo next the hilum, leaves not dry Amaryllidaceæ, 237.
- Outer perianth herbaceous, albumen mealy.
- Leaves rigid, channelled, often scurfy Bromeliaceæ, 241.
- Fruit 1-celled Taccaceæ, 240.
- Stamens more than 6. Aquatic plants Hydrocharidaceæ, 229.
- b. Perianth free, ovary superior.*
- Outer perianth herbaceous or glumaceous.
- Carpels more or less separate.
- Placentas parietal, forming a network on the inner surface of the ovary, fruit many-seeded Butomaceæ, 254.
 Placentas axile or basal, fruit 1-2-seeded.
- Anthers extrorse, embryo straight, with a lateral slit Juncaginaceæ, 253.
 Anthers introrse, embryo like a horse-shoe, no slit Alismaceæ, 252.
- Carpels combined into a solid pistil.
- Verticils of the perianth visibly different.
- Placentas axile, anthers 2-celled Commelynaceæ, 248.
 Placentas parietal, anthers 1-celled Mayacaceæ, 249.
- Verticils of the perianth not different, usually dry and glumaceous Juncaceæ, 250.
- Outer perianth petaloid.
- Carpels more or less separate.
- Seed solitary, flowers on a scaly spadix Palmæ, 251.
 Seeds numerous, flowers not spadiceous.
- Anthers extrorse Melanthaceæ, 243.
 Anthers introrse.
- Perianth of 6 parts Butomaceæ, 254.
 Perianth of 2 parts Philodracæ, 247.
- Carpels combined into a solid pistil.
- Anthers extrorse.
- Outer perianth glumaceous Xyridaceæ, 246.
 Anthers introrse.

- Flowers more or less irregular, perianth rolling
inwards after expansion, aquatics ... Pontederiaceæ, 245.
- Flowers regular, no rolling inwards of the perianth.
Inner perianth minute, of a single lobe, or
urocelate or 5-toothed ... Gilliesiaceæ, 244.
Inner and outer perianth alike ... Liliaceæ, 242.
2. Flowers without a true perianth, either achlamydeous or with a few verticillate
scales, often unisexual.
- a. *Flowers on a spadix.*
- Flowers hermaphrodite ... Orontiaceæ, 256.
Flowers unisexual.
- Embryo with a cleft at one side in which the plumule lies.
Fruit succulent, stamens very short, perianth 0 ... Araceæ, 257.
Fruit dry, filaments long, with cuneate anthers,
perianth being scales or hairs ... Typhaceæ, 256.
Embryo without a cleft.
Fruit, 1-seeded fibrous nuts, or many-celled berries ... Pandanaceæ, 255.
- b. *Flowers not on a spadix.*
- Ovules pendulous.
Carpel solitary.
Anthers 1-celled ... Restiaceæ, 262.
Anthers 2-celled ... Naiadaceæ, 260.
Carpels several.
Carpels separate.
Anthers 1-celled ... Desvauziaceæ, 264.
Anthers 2-celled.
Ovary surrounded by a membranous tube ... Eriocaulonaceæ, 268.
Ovary without a surrounding tube ... Naiadaceæ, 260.
Carpels combined into a solid pistil ... Restiaceæ, 262.
- Ovules erect.
Embryo with radicle and cotyledon conspicuous.
Seeds with a thick coriaceous ribbed sper-
moderm, and an indurated foramen, flowers
spathaceous ... Pistiaceæ, 259.
Seeds without a thickened covering, foramen
not indurated, flowers naked or with scales ... Naiadaceæ, 260.
Embryo consisting of a cellular nucleus, with no
division of parts ... Triuridaceæ, 261.
3. Flowers consisting of imbricated bracts, called glumes.
- Stem hollow, leaf-sheath split, embryo outside the al-
bumen at its base ... Gramineæ, 266.
Stem solid, leaf-sheath not split, embryo within the
base of the albumen ... Cyperaceæ, 265.

II.—CRYPTOGAMEÆ, ACOTYLEDONEÆ, OR FLOWERLESS PLANTS.

CLASS III.—ACOTYLEDONES OR ACRO-THALLOGENÆ.

SUB-CLASS 1.—ACROGENÆ, ACROBRYA, OR CORMOGENÆ.

1541. Nat. Ord. 267.—FILICES, the Fern order (Figs. 1782 to 1784).—Leafy plants, the leaves, or more properly fronds, being cir-

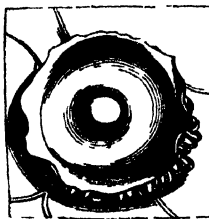


Fig. 1788.

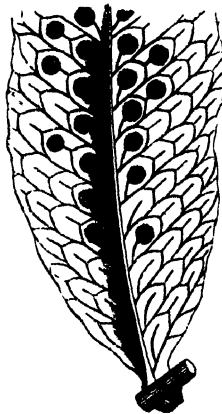


Fig. 1782.



Fig. 1784.

minate in veneration (Fig. 974, p. 324), and arising from a rhizome (Fig. 69, p. 29), or from a hollow arborescent trunk (Fig. 973, p. 324), having the acrogenous structure (p. 92). The fronds bear

Figures 1782 to 1784 illustrate the natural order Filices.

Fig. 1782. Frond of *Nipholobolus*, showing clusters of sporangia, called sori, at the extremities of the veins. The Fern is dorsiferous, inasmuch as the sori are on the back of the fructiferous leaf or frond. Fig. 1788. Sorus of *Aspidium trifoliatum*. The cluster of sporangia is covered by an indusium, or as it is sometimes called an involucre, derived from the epidermis of the frond. The indusium is orbicular and attached by its centre. The sporangia are annulate. Fig. 1784. Sporangium of *Lestrea Filix-mas*, supported on a cellular stalk, *p*, which is prolonged round the spore-case in the form of an elastic ring, *a*, which by straightening opens the sporangium transversely, so as to scatter the spores.

Further illustrations of Filices:—Stems of Ferns, Figs. 208 and 204, p. 93; Fig. 972, p. 324. Scalariform vessels of Ferns, Fig. 970, p. 324. Venation of Ferns, Figs. 975 to 982, pp. 325 and 326. Indusium, Fig. 984, p. 327. Spores, Figs. 988 and 989, p. 318, and Fig. 983, p. 326. Prothallus, Figs. 1270 and 1271, p. 637.

on the veins of their lower surface (Fig. 1782), or along their margins, sporangia, which open in various ways in order to discharge minute spores. The supposed organs of reproduction, called antheridia and archegonia (Figs. 1226 to 1232, p. 574), are seen on the young frond, when first developed from the spore in the form of a prothallus.— (For full details of structure and reproduction see pages 321 and 575). A moist, insular climate is that best adapted for Ferns in general. They abound in tropical islands, where they sometimes have trunks 50 or 60 feet high (Fig. 165, p. 70, and Fig. 967, p. 322). Ferns form the characteristic Flora of New Zealand. Species between 2000 and 3000.

1542. The following divisions have been adopted:—Sub-order 1. Polypodiaceæ, the Polypody tribe (Fig. 205, p. 94); Sporangia, in variously-shaped clusters, called sori, on the back or margins of the fronds, each sporangium having a vertical, incomplete ring (annulus), or a horizontal complete one, which, when mature, straightens so as to open the spore-case transversely, or irregularly, and thus discharge the spores (Fig. 1784). The sori are covered by an indusium or involucre (Fig. 1783), or by the reflexed margins of the frond. *Ill. Gen.*—Gymnogramma, Ceterach, Polypodium, Adiantum, Pteris, Allsorus, Blechnum, Asplenium, Nephrodium, Polystichum, Cystopteris, Davallia, Cibotium, Hemitelia, Alsophila, Cyathea, Ceratopteris, Parkeria, Hymenophyllum, Trichomanes, Gleichenia. Sub-order 2. Osmundaceæ, the Flowering-fern tribe (Fig. 985, p. 327); Sporangia dorsal, or clustered on the margin of a transformed frond, with a terminal or dorsal ring, more or less complete, reticulated, and opening vertically (Fig. 986, p. 328). *Ill. Gen.*—Osmunda, Aneimia, Schizæa, Lygodium, Mohria. Sub-order 3. Ophioglossaceæ, the Adder's-tongue tribe; Sporangia in a spike-like form, sessile on the margin of a contracted frond, without reticulation or a ring (exannulate), 2-valved; fronds with straight vernation. *Ill. Gen.*—Ophioglossum, Botrychium. Sub-order 4. Danæaceæ, the Danæa tribe; Sporangia dorsal, combined in masses, exannulate, splitting irregularly by a central cleft. *Ill. Gen.*—Kaulfussia, Angiopteris, Danæa, Marattia.

1543. Some Ferns are used medicinally as anthelmintics, while others are demulcent and astringent. The rhizomes of several species, such as *Diplazium esculentum*, *Pteris esculenta*, *Marattia alata*, *Nephrodium esculentum*, are used as food in Australia, the Sandwich Islands, and India. Some species are fragrant, as *Aspidium fragrans*, *Polypodium phymatodes*, and *Angiopteris erecta*.

Adiantum Capillus Veneris, true Maiden-hair, has been used in the preparation of Syrup of Capillaire. *A. pedatum* is also employed for a similar purpose, as well as for pectoral mixtures.

Aspidium Barometz, the Barometz, has received the name of Scythian-lamb, from the appearance presented by its woolly rhizome when the leaves are cut off in a particular way, and it is turned upside down.

MARSILEACEÆ—LYCOPODIACEÆ.

Davallia canariensis, found in the Canary Islands, is called Hare's-foot Fern, on account of the form of its hairy rhizome.

Lastrea Filix-mas is an effectual vermifuge in cases of Tape-worm. The powdered rhizome, and an oleo-resin extracted from it by ether, are the forms employed.

1544. Nat. Ord. 268.—MARSILEACEÆ or RHIZOCARPEÆ, the Pepperwort or Rhizocarp order. — Aquatic plants, with creeping stems, bearing leaves, which are usually divided into 3 or more cuneate portions (Fig. 996, p. 332), and have a circinate vernation. The fructification is produced at the base of the leafstalks, and consists of sporocarps or involucre enclosing clustered organs (Fig. 995, p. 333), which consist of antheridian (Fig. 1239, p. 576) and pistillidian cells (Fig. 1241, p. 577). The germinating body has an oval form, and occasionally a mammilla on one side (Fig. 1240, p. 577), whence roots and leaves proceed.—(See full description, pages 333 and 577). Found in ditches in various parts of the world, chiefly in temperate regions. Species about 20. *Ill. Gen.*—*Pilularia*, *Marsilea*, *Azolla*, *Salvinia*.



Fig. 1785



Fig 1786



Fig 1787

1545. Nat. Ord. 269.—LYCOPODIACEÆ, the Club-moss order (Figs. 1785 to 1787).—Plants with creeping stems or corms, which produce leafy branches, somewhat resembling Mosses. The leaves are small, sessile, and imbricated or verticillate. The fructification occurs in the axil of leaves (Fig. 994, p. 329), and often in a spike-like form (Fig. 1785), and consists of kidney-shaped, 2-valved cases, which contain antheridian or spermatozoidal cells (Fig. 1786), and roundish or four-

sided bodies, called oophordia, opening by 2 valves, and containing 4 large spores (Fig. 1787). In the interior of the latter a pro-embryo is developed (Fig. 1236, p. 573), in which archegonia are produced (Figs. 1237 and 1238, p. 576), and thereafter impregnation gives rise to the germinating body.—(Full details are given at pages 331 and 576). Natives both of cold and warm climates, but abounding in the tropics, and especially in insular situations. Species about 200. *Ill. Gen.*—*Psilotum*, *Lycopodium*, *Selaginella*, *Isocetes*, *Phylloglossum*.

1546. Some of the plants have emetic and purgative properties. The powdery matter contained in their fructification is inflammable.

Figures 1785 to 1787 illustrate the natural order Lycopodiaceæ.

Fig. 1785. End of fructiferous branch of *Lycopodium clavatum*, common Club-moss. The leafy branch, *l*, ends in stalk bearing two spikes of fructification, *f*. Fig. 1786. A kidney-shaped 2-valved

Lycopodium clavatum furnishes the yellow Lycopode powder, which is often called vegetable brimstone, and used for fire-works, as well as for covering pills. A similar powder is furnished by *L. Selago* and other species. *L. catharticum* is said to be a powerful cathartic. *L. squamatum* (*Selaginella convoluta*), is hygrometric, coiling up like a ball when dry, and expanding when moisture is applied.

1547. Nat. Ord. 270.—EQUISETACEÆ, the Horsetail order (Fig. 1788).—Cryptogams having rhizomes or underground stems, bearing hollow, striated, siliceous branches, which are jointed and have membranous sheaths at the articulations. The place of leaves is supplied by green-coloured branchlets, which are sometimes verticillate. The fructification consists of cone-like bodies (Fig. 1788, *f*) bearing peltate polygonal scales (Fig. 989, p. 328), under which are spore-cases opening inwards by a longitudinal fissure, and enclosing spores with 2 hygrometric club-shaped elaters (Figs. 990 and 991, p. 328). The plants have a confervoid prothallus, and on it antheridian and archegonial cells are developed.—(Full details are given at pages 330 and 575). Found in ditches and rivers in all parts of the world, both warm and cold. In tropical regions some attain a height of 15 or 16 feet. Species about 12. *Ill. Gen.*—*Equisetum*.

1548. A large amount of silica is found in the cuticle of the Horsetails, associated also with fluorine (p. 388). The rhizomes contain starch.

Equisetum hyemale, rough Horsetail, is used for polishing furniture, as well as ivory and brass. It is imported from Holland under the name of Dutch Rushes.

1549. Nat. Ord. 271.—MUSCI, the Moss order (Figs. 1789 and 1790).—Erect or creeping, terrestrial or aquatic plants, with cellular stems, bearing minute cellular leaves. The organs of fructification consist of cylindrical, pear-shaped, or ellipsoidal stalked sacs, containing antheridian cells with phytozoa (Fig. 1000, p. 335), and of spherical or obovate archegonia, from which, after impregnation, are developed urn-shaped sporangia (Fig. 1001, p. 335), supported on stalks called setæ (Fig. 1789, *p*), and containing germinating spores. The sporangia have a calyptra (Fig. 1002, p. 335), an operculum, and frequently a peristome, consisting of processes called teeth (Fig. 1790, *p*), which are either 4 or some multiple of that number.—(Full details are given at pages 334 and 572). They are found in all parts of the world, and abound



Fig. 1788.

case, containing antheridian cells with phytozoa; these cells are sometimes called small spores. Fig. 1787. Oophoridium, with four large spores, each containing a prothallus on which archegonia are formed.

Fig. 1788. Fructification of *Equisetum telmateia*, Great Water Horse-tail, showing the stalk surrounded by membranous sheaths, *s s*, which are fringed by numerous processes or teeth. The fructification, *f*, at the extremity, is in the form of a cone bearing polygonal scales, under which are spore-cases containing spores with clavate filaments (p. 328).

in moist temperate regions. Species between 1100 and 1200. There



Fig. 1789.

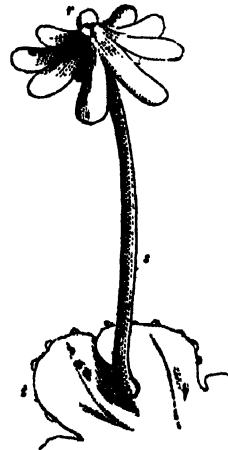


Fig. 1791.

are two divisions of the order. Sub-order 1. Andreaeae, Split-mosses; Sporangia calyptrate, splitting longitudinally into 4 equal valves, which are kept together at the summit by a persistent operculum. *Ill. Gen.*—*Andreaea*. Sub-order 2. Bryaceae, true Urn-mosses; Sporangia calyptrate, opening at the summit, and not by valves. *Ill. Gen.*—*Phascum*, *Gymnostomum*, *Splachnum*, *Orthotrichum*, *Weissia*, *Dicranum*, *Didymodon*, *Bryum*, *Bartramia*, *Funaria*, *Polytrichum*, *Buxbaumia*, *Hypnum*, *Neckera*, *Hookeria*, *Fontinalis*, *Sphagnum*.



Fig. 1790.

1550. Nat. Ord. 272.—HEPATICÆ, the Liverwort order (Fig. 1791).—Plants having a cellular axis of growth which bears leaves or a thallus (Fig. 1791). Antheridia (Fig. 1008, p. 340) and archegonia (Fig. 1222, p. 573) are placed either in the substance of the thallus, or on sessile or stalked processes. The stalks support sporangia or peltate sporangiferous receptacles. Sporangia sometimes open by valves, and bear elaters.—(Full details are given at pages 338 and 571). The plants are generally distributed both in cold and warm climates, and more especially inhabit damp places. Some of the species of *Marchantia*, especially *M. hemispherica*, have been recommended as poultices in cases of *Anasarca*. Species about 700. The following are the divisions of the order. Sub-order 1. Jungermanniaceae, the Scale-moss tribe; Sporangia opening by 4 valves, the spores mixed with elaters. *Ill. Gen.*—*Blasia*, *Pellia*, *Radula*, *Jungermannia*, *Plagiochila*, *Gyromitrium*, *Anthoceros*, *Monoclea*. Sub-order 2. Marchantiaceae, the true Liverwort tribe (Fig. 949, p. 316); Sporangia not opening by valves, bursting irregularly, spores mixed with elaters (Fig. 1012, p. 340). *Ill. Gen.*—

Figures 1789 and 1790 illustrate the natural order Musci.

Fig. 1789. *Funaria hygrometrica*, hygrometric Cord-moss. Peristomial cellular leaves, *f*, from which arise stalks or setae, *s*, bearing sporangia, *u*, with a split calyptra, *c*, and an operculum, *o*. Fig. 1790. Sporangium, *u*, of *Encalypta*, Extinguisher-moss, with its stalk, *s*, and operculum, *o*, removed to show 16 processes, *p*, called teeth, of the peristome.

Additional illustrations of Mosses:—*Polytrichum*, Fig. 947, p. 316, and Fig. 954, p. 317. Sporangia, Figs. 1004 and 1006, p. 337. Germinating spores and prothallus, Figs. 1263 and 1269, p. 636.

Fig. 1791. Portion of the thallus, *t*, of *Marchantia polymorpha*, Liverwort, bearing the fructification on a peltate receptacle, *r*, supported on a stalk, *s*.

Fegatella, *Lunularia*, *Marchantia*, *Targionia*. Sub-order 3. Ricciaceæ, the Crystalwort tribe; Sporangia not opening by valves, and having no elaters. III. Gen.—*Riccia*.

SUB-CLASS 2.—THALLOGENÆ, THALLOPHYTA,
OR CELLULARES.

1551. Nat. Ord. 273.—LICHENES, the Lichen order (Figs. 1792 to 1794).—Cellular plants growing on stones, on the surface of the



Fig. 1793.



Fig. 1792.



Fig. 1794.

earth, or on trees, and taking up nourishment by all points of their surface, having a foliaceous, crustaceous, or leprous thallus (Fig. 1792). Their fructification consists of thecæ or asci, containing 4, 8, 12, or 16 sporida (Fig. 1794). The thecæ are often mixed with paraphyses, and by their union form circular, cup-shaped, or linear masses, which are called shields (Fig. 1793). There are also spermogones or conceptacles, containing cells with antherozoa, which are motionless, and have received the name of spermatia. The spermogones are either in the substance of the thallus, or superficial, and the spermatia are discharged through a pore. Between the upper and lower thalloid layers, green cells, called gonidia (Fig. 1020, p. 343) are found.—(Full details are given at page 341). Lichens, although growing on the bark of trees, do not destroy plants like Fungi. Thus, in the case of the officinal barks, those specimens which are covered with healthy Lichens, abound in the peculiar principles which make them valuable as medicines, while those portions which are covered by the beautiful *Hypochnus rubro-cinctus*, and other Fungi, are totally worthless, because their tissue has been penetrated and preyed upon by the mycelium. Lichens and Mosses, however,

Additional illustrations of Hepaticæ:—Antheridia and pistillidia, Figs. 1009 and 1011, p. 340. Germinating spores, Fig. 1266, p. 634.

Figures 1792 to 1794 illustrate the natural order Lichenes.

Fig. 1792. *Parmelia*, with fructification in the form of round apothecia. Fig. 1793. Portion of the thallus of a Lichen, showing a round apothecium. Fig. 1794. Theca or ascus, *t*, of a Lichen, containing four sporida; paraphyses in the form of filaments surround the theca.

may injure the growth of trees by closing up the stomata. Lichens are found in various parts of the world. The pulverulent species are the first plants which cover the bare rocks of newly-formed islands. Species 2400. *III. Gen.*—Pulveraria, Calycium, Opegrapha, Urceolaria, Umbilicaria, Verrucaria, Endocarpon, Sphærophoron, Lecidea, Patellaria, Cladonia, Stereocaulon, Parmelia, Sticta, Cetraria, Roccella, Ramalina, Evernia, Usnea.

1552. Many of the Lichens are used for dyeing, others are employed as articles of food and medicine. The nature of the dyes produced by Lichens has been lately investigated by Dr. Lauder Lindsay.* Some Lichens are aromatic, and a fragrant powder called Cyprio at Rome is in part made from them. Oxalate of lime exists largely in some species, more especially in Variolarias.

Cetraria islandica, Iceland-moss (Fig. 75, p. 32), contains starch, along with a bitter principle; it has been used as a tonic and demulcent. *C. nivalis* is also nutritious.

Cladonia rangiferina (Fig. 1016, p. 843) is called Reindeer-moss, on account of supplying food for that useful animal.

Gyrophora embraces many dark-coloured Rock-lichens, which have a certain amount of nutritious qualities. Franklin and his companions lived on some of the species for many weeks in the arctic regions. The plants were denominated Tripe de Roche.

Lecanora tartarea, called in commerce Rock-moss, supplies the dye denominated Cudbear. It is used in the form of liquid and of paste. *L. Perella* has also dyeing properties. *L. esculenta* and *L. affinis* are used as food; the former is eaten in Tartary and in other countries.

Lecidea geographica is a green-coloured Lichen which covers mountain rocks, and often assumes map-like appearances. *L. aromatica* is sweet-scented when bruised.

Parmelia parietina yields a crystalline yellow colouring matter, Chrysophanic acid, identical with the yellow colouring matter of Rhubarb root. *P. fragrans* gives out a fine odour when moistened.

Roccella tinctoria (Fig. 1015, p. 842) is one of the Lichens imported under the name of Orchella-weed, from the Canary and Cape de Verd islands, the Azores, Madeira, South America, Barbary, Corsica, and Sardinia. The colouring matter is called Archil or Orchil; it is used for dyeing purple and red. Some have supposed that it supplied the purple of ancient Tyre, referred to in Ezek. xxvii. 7. *R. fuciformis* is another Orchella-weed imported from Angola, Madagascar, Madeira, and South America. *R. hypomecha* is another dyeing Lichen imported from the Cape of Good Hope. *Litmus* is a dye procured from several species of *Roccella*.

Sticta pulmonaria is nutritious, and has been used as an article of diet.

1553. Nat. Ord. 274.—FUNGI, the Mushroom order (Figs. 1795 to 1797).—Cellular plants, with a spawn, mycelium (Fig. 1795, *m*), by which they are nourished, and which bears organs of fructification of various kinds. Spores are produced, which are either naked (Fig. 1795), or enclosed in thecæ (Fig. 1796). There appear to be an-

* Dr. Lindsay's papers were read to the Edinburgh Botanical Society, and his observations are partly recorded in the Transactions of the Society, as given in the Annals of Natural History, and in the Phytologist. Specimens of the Lichens used for dyeing, and of the dyes which they yield, have been presented by Dr. Lindsay to the Edinburgh Museum of Economic Botany.

theridian cells, containing spermatozooids, by the action of which on archegonial cells germinating spores are developed. In Agarics (Fig. 1797), the mycelium bears tubercles enclosed in a volva, which rup-



Fig. 1795.

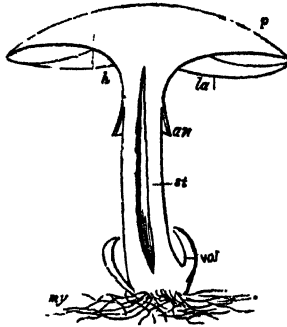


Fig. 1797.

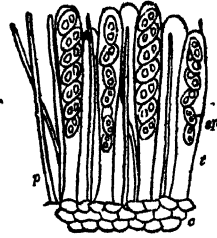


Fig. 1796.

tures so as to allow of the development of the stalked pileus, with its lamellæ and hymenium.—(Full details are given at page 344). Species between 4000 and 5000. III. Gen.—Agaricus, Boletus, Polyporus, Merulius, Hydnum, Clavaria, Exidia, Tremella, Phallus, Clathrus, Lycoperdon, Geaster, Reticularia, Craterium, Nidularia, Stilbospora, Torula, Puccinia, Uredo, Ustilago, *Æcidium*, Ceratium, Aspergillus, Botrytis, Morchella, Helvella, Peziza, Cyttaria, Tuber, Sphæria, Onygena, Mucor.

1554. This order contains esculent and poisonous plants; the genus *Agaricus*, to which the true Mushroom belongs, contains both, and it is not easy to give rules for distinguishing the two kinds. In general terms it may be said that poisonous Fungi are often highly coloured, are scaly or spotted on their surface, have tough or watery flesh, and grow in clusters in wet or shady ground; whereas edible species are rarely highly coloured, being commonly white or brownish, are seldom scaly or spotted, have brittle, not tough or watery flesh, and grow solitary in dry pastures. Fungi that are bitter or styptic, and that burn the fauces, or those that yield pungent milk, are unsafe. Those whose flesh is livid, and those which assume various hues when broken or bruised, are to be avoided. Badham says that the immense majority of Fungi are harmless, and that innocuous and esculent kinds are the rule, while poisonous are the exception. Their qualities seem to depend in part on the mode in which they

Figures 1796 to 1797 illustrate the natural order Fungi.

Fig. 1795. *Botrytis*, a kind of Mould-Fungus, consisting of a mycelium, *m*, a septate cellular stalk, *s*, which branches at the apex and bears naked spores. Fig. 1796. Vertical section of the fructification of *Peziza*, showing a cellular stratum, *c*, bearing clavate asci or thecae, *t*, which contain sporidia, *sp*; paraphyses or abortive filaments, *p*. Fig. 1797. *Agaricus campestris*, common Mushroom, cut vertically. Mycelium or spawn, *my*; volva or wrapper, *vol*, which is burst; stipe or stalk, *stip*; pileus or cap, *p*; bearing lamellæ or gills, *la*, with the hymenium, *h*, the annulus or ring, *an*, which is the remains of the ruptured velum or veil.

Additional illustrations of Fungi:—Species of *Uredo*, *Puccinia*, *Ustilago*, and *Botrytis*, causing diseases, Figs. 1801 to 1805, pp. 687, 688, and 690. Naked spores of Mushroom, Fig. 1028, p. 346.

are prepared for food, and this may account for species which are eaten in some countries having proved poisonous in others. Badham states that the yearly average of taxed Mushrooms in Rome during 10 years (1837 to 1847) was between 60,000 and 80,000 pounds weight. He says there are 30 esculent species in Britain.* Drummond remarks, that few orders of plants appear to contribute more to the support of animal life than the Fungi in Western Australia. Many species, particularly of the genus *Boletus*, are used as food by the natives, and directly supply no inconsiderable portion of their support for several months in the year. He was surprised at the large number of Fungi that were eaten by marsupial animals. They often dig up species, being guided to them by smell, and the cracking of the ground over them.

1555. Fungi contain much nitrogen in their composition, and they do not appear to give out oxygen gas. They are often developed with great rapidity. The spawn spreads under ground, or in the interior of living or dead organisms, and when favourable circumstances occur, the fructification bursts forth with astonishing quickness. *Phallus impudicus* and *Bovista giganteum* have grown to a great size in a single night (p. 410). The spores of Fungi seem to resist well the action of cold and heat, and to retain their vitality frequently for a great length of time (p. 628). Many of them are developed on living plants, and cause disease and death by their parasitic growth. Some of the species are limited to certain kinds of decaying matter. This has been remarked in species of *Onygena*, which have been on that account denominated *O. equina*, *O. felina*, and *O. corvina*. Moulds are formed by different species of *Aspergillus* (Fig. 1026, p. 346), *Penicillium* (Fig. 1021, p. 345), *Botrytis* (Fig. 1795), *Mucor* (Fig. 1029, p. 347), *Myxotrichum*, *Chætomium*, *Oidium*, *Sporocybe*, and *Cladosporium*. Some of them are developed in syrup and vinegar. The mycelium of Fungi, in certain conditions, seems to form the Vinegar-plant (p. 636), the Yeast-plant† (Fig. 1061, p. 360, and Fig. 1080, p. 410), and many of the so-called genera *Ozonium*, *Himantia*, *Fibrillaria*, *Acrothamnium*, and *Byssocladium*. These assume a leathery, gelatinous, fibrous, or byssoid appearance. The parasitic Fungi causing smut, mildew, ergot, and dry-rot, and those connected with diseases in the Potato and Vine,

* Dr. Badham was shocked to see numerous edible Funguses or Toadstools rotting uncared for at the time when famine prevailed:—"To see unused, pounds innumerable of extempore beefsteaks growing on our oaks in the shape of *Fistulina hepatica*; *Agaricus fuscipes* to pickle, in clusters under them; Puffballs, which some have compared to Sweet-bread; *Hydna* as good as oysters; *Agaricus deliciosus*, like tender lamb-kidneys; excellent yellow *Chantarelle*; the sweet nutty-flavoured *Boletus* in vain calling himself *edulis* when there was none to believe him; the dainty *Orcella*, and the *Agaricus heterophyllus* which taste like the Craw-fish when grilled; the *Agaricus ruber* and *virscens* to cook in any way, and equally good in all." The following are the species eaten by Badham and his friends in England:—*A. rubescens*, *procerus*, *prunulus*, *ruber*, *heterophyllus*, *virscens*, *deliciosus*, *nebularius*, *personatus*, *virginicus*, *fuscipes*, *oreades*, *ostreatus*, *Orcella*, *campestris* (and var. *edulis* and *pratensis*) *exquisitus*, *comatus*, and *nimarius*; *Amanita vaginata*; *Cantharellus cibarius*; *Polyporus frondosus*; *Boletus edulis* and *scaber*; *Fistulina hepatica*; *Hydnum repandum*; *Helvella lacunosa*; *Peziza Acetabulum* and *Bovista plumbea*; *Lycoperdon gemmatum*; *Clavaria strigosa*.

† The Yeast-plant is probably a masked form of an *Oidium* or *Penicillium*,

have been noticed at page 685, *et seq.** During the progress of diseases in man and animals, especially those of the skin and mucous membrane, cellular plants like Fungi † are produced (p. 635). Animals are also infested with species of *Sphaeria* and *Botrytis* which cause their death (p. 635). Leidy describes species of *Enterobryus*, *Eccrina*, *Arthromitus*, *Cladophytum*, and *Corynocladus*, as growing on the mucous membranes of living animals. †

Agaricus campestris (Fig. 1797) is the common Mushroom of Britain; it is distinguished in part by its pink gills. *A. Georgii* is another edible British species, which sometimes attains a large size; *Withering* mentions a specimen weighing 14 pounds. *A. prunulus* is said to be the most delicious Mushroom. It is much prized on the Continent, but it is totally neglected in Britain. Many species of *Agaric*, as *A. piperatus*, *A. rhacodes*, and others, are poisonous. Fairy rings (p. 429) are formed by *A. oreades* (the English champignon), *Orcella*, *Georgii*, *prunulus*, *personatus*, and *campestris*. Some of the *Agaricus* are luminous (p. 676).

Amanita muscaria is a poisonous species, which produces giddiness and narcotic symptoms. When eaten it communicates intoxicating qualities to the urine.

Boletus edulis, as its name implies, is an edible species.

Cyttaria Darwinii is a globular bright-yellow Fungus, which grows on a species of Beech, and is used as food in Tierra del Fuego. *C. Berteroi* is a Chilean species, which grows on *Fagus obliqua*, and is also edible.

Exidia Auricula Judae, Jew's-ear, has been used for arresting hemorrhage. *E. hispidula* grows in China on the decaying stems of the Castor-oil plant. It is used as an article of food, in soups and stews, and is employed as a styptic, under the name of *Mó-ghí*, or ears of trees.

Morchella esculenta, Morel, an edible Fungus, is imported from Italy in a dry state.

Penicillium glaucum is the common Mould developed wherever organic substances are in fitting conditions of moisture and temperature. Books are constantly injured by its growth, on which it produces spots and continuous patches. Various species of Mould-Fungi are produced on paper, linen, and parchment, in different circumstances. The Vinegar-plant (p. 686) seems to be the abnormally developed mycelium of *P. glaucum*, or perhaps *P. crustaceum*.

Phallus impudicus has a most penetrating disagreeable odour. Such is also the case with *Clathrus cancellatus*.

Polyporus squamosus is stated by Berkeley to have grown in three weeks to 7 feet 5 inches in periphery, and to have weighed 34 lbs. It is cut from the Ash in autumn in a consolidated state to make razor strops. After being pressed, rubbed with pumice, and sliced longitudinally, the strops are glued on a wooden stretcher. *P. betulinus* is also used in a similar way. *P. fomentarius* is the source of the tinder called *Amadou*, which is used as a styptic and as a moxa.

Sphaeria sinensis, the *Hia-tsoo-tom-chom* of the Chinese, is a Fungus parasitic on a caterpillar. It is a celebrated drug in China. Its properties are considered tonic, like the Ginseng. *S. Robertsii* (Figs. 1023 and 1024, p. 845), *S. militaria*, *S. entomorrhiza*, and *S. sphaerocephala*, are also found on caterpillars.

Tuber is the genus which embraces the various kinds of Truffa, an underground Fungus, which is scented out by dogs and pigs. Limestone districts are said to

* In addition to the remedies mentioned at this place, it may be noticed, that Dr. Price recommends for the Vine disease the use of Pentasulphide of Calcium applied in a diluted state. This is decomposed by the carbonic acid of the atmosphere, and thus the sulphur is deposited so as to form a uniform coating on the Vine twig. In the Potato disease Herapath recommends the putting of the dried tubers into a dilute solution of sulphate of copper; while Clausen advocates the putting of them into a weak solution of sulphuric acid and then into lime water; the sulphate of lime thus produced being considered by him a preservative.

† *Achoerion Schoenleinii* is one of these parasitic fungus-like forms described by Dr. Bezzet.

‡ Leidy, *A Flora and Fauna within Living Animals*. See also Robin, *Des Végétaux qui croissent sur l'Homme et sur les Animaux*.

be most favourable for its growth. *T. aestivum* is consumed in France, and to this species belong by far the greater quantity of Truffles, under whatsoever name, which are sold in the English markets. *T. melanosporum* is a richly scented Truffle, common in the Paris market. *T. cibarium* (Fig. 1022, p. 345), *brunale*, *griseum*, *moschatum*, and *rufum*, are also used. Truffles are imported from France and Italy preserved in oil. The black esculent Truffles are gregarious; they are found every year in the same spots, which are hence called Truffle-grounds. Their layers are mostly circular. In Britain they are generally only a few ounces in weight. In Van Diemen's Land there is a species called Native Bread, which sometimes weighs *lbi.* or *lbii.* It has been called *Mylitta australis*, but is probably a *Tuber*. Few Truffles have been found in America. The soil for Truffles is composed of decayed Beech and Oak leaves, materials of old ant hills, loamy pasture, chalk, road-sand, and a small proportion of iron. They may be propagated by taking the plants in their mature state and when undergoing decomposition, breaking them down, and placing them in proper soil.

1556. Nat. Ord. 275.—CHARACEÆ, the Chara order (Fig. 1798).



Fig. 1798.

—Aquatic plants composed of parallel cellular tubes, which give off whorled branches (Figs. 1054 and 1055, p. 354), and which are often encrusted with carbonate of lime. In their tubes, rotation is observed (p. 414). Their reproductive organs consist of globules containing antheridian cells with spirilla, and spiral nucleoles (Fig. 1798) containing germinating cells or spores.—(Full details are given at page 354). Charas are found submersed in stagnant fresh or salt water in various parts of the world. They have a fetid odour. In the case of reservoirs of water for the supply of towns, it has been found that the presence of *Chara flexilis* has been the means of communicat-

ing a peculiar fugitive and intermittent odour. Species 35. *Ill. Gen.*
—Chara, Nitella.

1557. Nat. Ord. 276.—ALGÆ, the Sea-weed order (Figs. 1799 to 1805).—Cellular plants found in the sea, in rivers, lakes, marshes, and hot-springs, all over the world, consisting of a brown, red, or green thallus, sometimes stalked, which bears the organs of fructification (Fig. 1799). These consist of antheridian cells containing phytozoa (Figs. 1033 and 1034, p. 349), and of others containing germinating spores of different kinds (Fig. 1801). These organs of reproduction are often united in the same conceptacle (Fig. 1800). In other cases, they are on different parts of the same plant, or even on different plants. Thuret has proved, that in diœcious Fuci the antheridia are necessary for the impregnation of the archegonia. The spores sometimes have moving cilia, and are called zoospores (Fig. 1804), at other times four are united so as to constitute tetraspores (Fig. 1802). In some of the filamentous Algæ there is a conjugation of 2 cells, so as to produce a spore (Fig. 1803), in others there is a fissiparous

Fig. 1798. Cellular tubes of Chara, with verticillate branches, from the axil of which proceeds the nucleole, *n*, containing a germinating spore, while below the branches is placed the globule, *g*, containing antheridian cells and spermatozoids.

Additional illustrations of Characeæ:—Reproductive organs, Figs. 1061 to 1063, p. 353, and

division of cells. (Fig. 1805).—(Full details are given at page 348).

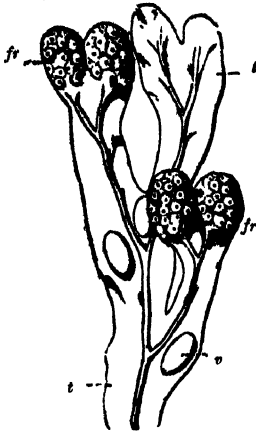


Fig. 1799.

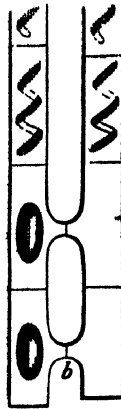


Fig. 1803.

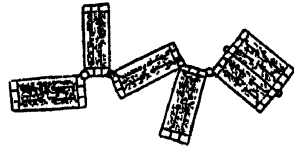


Fig. 1805.

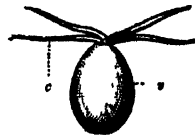


Fig. 1804.



Fig. 1801.

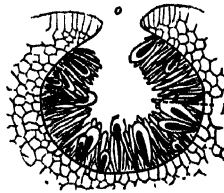


Fig. 1800.



Fig. 1802.

1558. Species of Algæ abound both in salt and fresh water, whether running or stagnant, and in mineral springs. Harvey states that the strongly impregnated sulphureous streams of Italy,* the eternal snows of the Alps and Arctic regions, and the boiling springs of Iceland, have each their peculiar species. Even chemical solutions, if long kept, produce Algæ. Very few comparatively inhabit stations which are not submerged or exposed to the constant dripping of water; and in all situations where they are found, great dampness at least is

Figures 1799 to 1805 illustrate the natural order Algæ, with its four divisions.

Fig. 1799. Thallus, *t t*, of *Fucus vesiculosus*, the common Bladder Sea-weed, with air cavities, *v* and masses of conceptacles constituting the fructification, *fr fr*, which is sometimes called gleba. Fig. 1800. Transverse section of one of the conceptacles containing spores in their coverings, *p*, along with paraphyses. The spores escape by an opening, *o*. Fig. 1801. Ceramidium or fructification of *Bonnemaisonia asparagoides*, containing pear-shaped germinating spores, which are discharged by an opening at the apex of the sac. Fig. 1802. Tetraspore, *t*, of *Callithamnion cruciatum*. Fig. 1803. Conjugating filaments of *Zygnema*, with their uniting tubes, *b*, endochrome in a spiral form, and oval spores. Fig. 1804. Zoospore of *Chætophora*, with vibratile filaments called cilia. Fig. 1805. Diatoms with its frustules separating by fusiparous division.

Additional illustrations of Algæ.—Unicellular Algæ, Fig. 1089, p. 350; Fig. 1040, p. 351. Antheridia and filaments, Figs. 1048 and 1049, p. 353. Germinating spores, Figs. 1264 and 1265, p. 634.

necessary to their production. There are three colours in Algae, grass-green, olivaceous, and red. Grass-green is characteristic chiefly of fresh water Algae, and of those in shallow parts of the sea; olivaceous-brown or olive-green is almost entirely confined to marine species; red is almost exclusively marine, its maximum being in deep water. The green species have the simplest structure, and have ciliated spores; the olivaceous are most perfect and compound in the organs of vegetation, and attain the largest size; while the red are the most beautiful, and have two kinds of spores. When decaying they undergo various changes of colour. Some Sea-weeds are microscopic, others growing in the depths of the Pacific have trunks exceeding in length those of the tallest forest trees, and fronds rivalling the leaves of the Palm. Some have fronds formed of delicate perforated net-work, resembling fine lace or the skeletons of leaves. *D'Urvillæa utilis* and *Lessonia fuscens* are thick-stemmed species, in which the cellular tissue is arranged in the form of concentric circles. Many of the lower Algae approach nearly to some of the lowest animal forms, and it is difficult to form a line of demarcation. Species of *Navicula*, *Pleurosigma*, and other allied forms, are placed by some among Diatoms, by others among animals. Williamson, Cohn, Busk, and others, have examined the structure and development of *Vulvox globator*, *V. aureus*, *V. stellatus*, and *Sphærosira Vulvox* of Ehrenberg, and they look upon them as truly vegetable. They are plants in the homologies of their structure, in their chemical composition, and apparently in their cellular tissue. On testing them with iodine and sulphuric acid, cellulose and starch are detected. The analogies of their development with that of *Protococcus nivalis* and *P. viridis* (Figs. 1062 and 1063, p. 360) are very strong, as also with the supposed animalcules called *Euglena viridis*. It seems probable that the whole of the *Monadinae*, the *Cryptomonadinae*, and the *Volvocinae* of Ehrenberg, belong to the vegetable rather than to the animal kingdom. Peculiar forms are met with in diseased states of the stomach and bladder, which are referred to Diatoms; one of them is called *Sarcinula ventriculi*. *Achlya prolifera* is sometimes produced on the gills of gold fishes, and other animals in a state of disease.

1559. The order has been divided in the following manner:—
 Sub-order 1. *Melanospermæ* or *Fucaceæ*, brown-coloured Sea-weeds (Fig. 1799); Marine plants of an olive-green or olive-brown colour, consisting of multicellular fronds, which assume a thalloid or a filamentous form; fructification consisting of conceptacles (Fig. 1800, and Fig. 1047, p. 352), containing archegonial and antheridian cells, the latter containing phytozoa (Fig. 1050, p. 353), the former being developed as germinating spores (Fig. 1267, p. 636). *Ill. Gen.*—*Fucus*, *Himantalia*, *D'Urvillæa*, *Halidrys*, *Cystoseira*, *Sargassum*, *Desmarestia*, *Alaria*, *Laminaria*, *Lessonia*, *Padina*, *Dictyosiphon*, *Cladostephus*, *Chordaria*.
 Sub-order 2. *Rhodosperrmæ* or *Ceramiaceæ*, rose-coloured Sea-weeds; Marine plants of a rose-red, purple, or red-brown colour,

leafy, cylindrical or filamentous; fructification consisting of conceptacles containing spores (Fig. 1801, and Fig. 1044, p. 352), and clavate filaments considered as antheridia. The spores are arranged often in fours, and are called tetraspores (Fig. 1802). *Ill. Gen.*—*Callithamnion*, *Griffithsia*, *Ceramium*, *Ptilota*, *Iridæa*, *Phyllophora*, *Chondrus*, *Laurencia*, *Dasya*, *Polysiphonia*, *Rhodomela*, *Corallina*, *Rhodymenia*, *Plocamium*, *Delesseria*. Sub-order 3. *Chlorospermæ*, or *Confervaceæ*, green-coloured Sea-weeds (Fig. 1037, p. 350); unicellular (Fig. 1062, p. 360), or multicellular (Fig. 1042, p. 351), marine or fresh-water plants; the cells contain a green (rarely purple or red) endochrome; reproduction effected by conjugation of cells (Fig. 1803, and Fig. 1043, p. 352); zoospores (Fig. 1804, and Fig. 1038, p. 350), often produced. *Ill. Gen.*—*Ulva*, *Caulerpa*, *Porphyra*, *Chætophora*, *Achlya*, *Conferva*, *Zygnema*, *Vaucheria*, *Oscillatoria*, *Rivularia*, *Nostoc*, *Palmella*, *Protococcus*. Sub-order 4. *Diatomacæ*, *Brittleworts* (Fig. 1805); plant a frustule, consisting of a unilocular or a septate cell; cells composed of 2 symmetrical valves; gemmiparous increase by self-division (Fig. 1805); reproduction by conjugation and the formation of sporangia. There are 2 distinct sections: *a. Diatomæ*; invested with a siliceous epidermal covering, and found both in salt and fresh water.* *Ill. Gen.*—*Eunotia*, *Cymbella*, *Cocconeis*, *Coscinodiscus*, *Actinocyclus*, *Arachnoidiscus*, *Campylodiscus*, *Nitzschia*, *Navicula*, *Pleurosigma*, *Cocconema*, *Gomphonema*, *Licmophora*, *Meridion*, *Fragilaria*, *Achnanthes*, *Diatoma*, *Isthmia*, *Melosira*, *Mastogloia*, *Dickieia*, *Schizonema*, *Homœocladia*. *b. Desmidiæ*; minute fresh-water plants of a green colour, without a siliceous epidermis.† *Ill. Gen.*—*Desmidium*, *Micrasterias*, *Euastrium*, *Cosmarium*, *Xanthidium*, *Staurostrum*, *Tetmemorus*, *Closterium*, *Pediastrum*. Agardh divides Algæ into *Fucoideæ*, corresponding to *Melanospermæ* of Harvey, *Florideæ* equivalent to *Rhodospermæ*, and *Zoospermæ* corresponding to *Chlorospermæ*. The primary divisions into orders he bases on the structure and development of the sporiferous nucleus.‡

1560. Many of the Algæ supply nutritious matter, and are used as food. Among them may be noticed species of *Rhodymenia* (*Dulse*), *Sphærococcus*, *Alaria*, *Iridæa*, *Laminaria*, *Porphyra*, *Ulva* (*Laver*), and *Gelidium*. The edible nests formed by swallows in China have been supposed to be made of portions of gelatinous Sea-weeds.

Anabaina Flos aquæ (*Dolichospermum Thompsoni*) gives a green colour to some lakes in Ireland, also to the Serpentine and to Lochmaben Loch.

Chondrus (*Sphærococcus*) *crispus*, and *C. mammillosus*, receive the name of *Carra-gen* or *Irish Moss*. Their fronds consist in great part of a substance somewhat allied to starch, which is extracted by boiling in water. On cooling it forms a jelly.

Diatomacæ. The indestructible nature of their siliceous covering has served to perpetuate *Diatoms* in numerous localities. Myriads of the exuvie of these plants

* Smith, *British Diatomacæ*

† Balis, *British Desmidiæ*

‡ Agardh, *Species, Genera et Ordines Algarum*

occur in the form of extensive deposits in various parts of the world. It is said that the city of Richmond, in Virginia, is built on a stratum of Diatomaceous remains 18 feet in thickness. Extensive tracts in arctic and antarctic regions are covered with similar relics of a former vegetation. Diatomaceous deposits have been found in Britain at Peterhead, Premnay, Dolgelly, Lough Mourne, Lough Island-Reavey, Marl, Raasay, Cantyre, and the island of Mull; in the last-mentioned deposit Dr. Gregory has detected 150 species. Diatoms are also met with in Guano. The whitish powdery substance known by the name of Mountain Meal or Berg-mehl in Sweden, is composed of fossil Diatomaceæ. Dr. Hooker found Diatomaceæ discolouring the seas of the South Pole, and he also detected them in the lava of the volcanic mountain Victoria. They are sometimes carried in the form of small dust into the atmosphere. *Campylodiscus Clypeus* was found at Grahams-land in mud from 270 fathoms. Beds of peat often contain myriads of Diatoms. The mud at the mouths of many rivers is made up in a great measure of these organisms. The same species are found in very widely separated localities. The beautiful marking on some Diatoms render them excellent test objects for microscopes. On species of *Nitzschia*, *Navicula* and *Pleurosigma*, there are both longitudinal and transverse markings—the latter being the finer. The distance between them is often 1-30,000th or 1-40,000th of an inch, and some are even said to be 1-100,000th and 1-180,000th of an inch separate; and it is said that the latter markings have only been seen with a 1-12th objective, and by means of oblique light.

D'Urvillea utilis is used for food on the coast of Chili.

Fucus nodosus and *F. vesiculosus* (Fig. 1799), when fermenting at a temperature of 90°-96° F., yield acetic acid. The air bladders of the latter plant vary in form and appearance according as it grows in the sea or in brackish water.

Gigartina speciosa is used for jelly by the colonists of Swan River.

Gracilaria lichenoides is the Ceylon-moss of the East, and is used in soups and jellies. *G. spinosa* is the Agar-Agar or Agal-Agal of the Chinese, which is also an article of diet. *G. Helminthocorton* is the Corsican-moss, used as a vermifuge. It is often mixed with other Sea-weeds, such as *Laurencia obtusa*. *G. tenax* is used in China for glue and varnish.

Laminaria saccharina yields upwards of 12 per cent. of Mannite. This substance is also procured from *L. digitata*, *Alaria esculenta*, and other Sea-weeds, which furnish five to six per cent. *L. potatorum* is used as food in Australia.

Nostoc edule is employed in China as an article of diet. An edible *Nostoc*, perhaps a variety of *N. commune*, is used in arctic regions as food. A similar *Nostoc* is found on the mountains of central Asia.

Porphyra vulgaris and *P. laciniata* are collected on the rocky shores of Europe, and by boiling are reduced to a dark-brown semifluid mass, which is eaten with lemon-juice or vinegar, under the name of marine sauce or Slouk or Slowcan.

Protococcus nivalis (Fig. 1062, p. 860) helps to give a red colour to snow, and *P. viridis* (Fig. 1063, p. 860) a green colour. *P. atlanticus* imparts a red colour to the waters of the Atlantic in some places.

Rhodymenia palmata is the Dulse of the Scotch, the Dilleak of the Irish, which is used occasionally as food by poor people.

Sargassum bacciferum constitutes the Gulf-weed, which has been noticed by all who have crossed the Atlantic. The Gulf-weed has never been found attached, but always floating. In that state it is healthy, putting out new fronds, but never showing fructification. Harvey conjectures, that it may be a pelagic variety of *Sargassum vulgare*, in the same way as the variety *subcostatus* of *Fucus vesiculosus* has never been found attached, but growing in salt marshes; so also *Fucus Mackaili*, which has never been found attached, and which may be a form of *Fucus nodosus*, growing on muddy shores.

Trichodesmium erythrum is said to help in giving a red colour to the waters of the Red Sea.

1561. Analysis of the Acotyledonous natural orders, with references to the number of the orders in the preceding pages.

I. ACROGENS.

1. Axis of growth elongated, bearing leaves or green branches.

Spores provided with elaters, or with clavate filaments.

Sporangia opening by four valves Hepaticæ, 272.

Sporangia collected in cone-like heads, and opening by a longitudinal fissure..... Equisetaceæ, 270.

Spores without elaters or clavate filaments.

Sporangia enclosed in a 2 or 4-valved involucre or sporocarp.

Sporocarps at the base of the leaves or leafstalks Maralleaceæ, 268.

Sporangia not enclosed in sporocarps.

Sporangia on the back or margin of the fronds..... Filices, 267.

Sporangia distinct from the fronds or leaves.

Sessile in the axil of leaves Lycopodiaceæ, 269.

Stalked Musci, 271.

2. Axis of growth not distinct, no true leaves.

Spores with or without elaters Hepaticæ, 272.

II. THALLOGENS.

Plants with a mycelium or spawn Fungi, 274.

Plants without a mycelium.

Terrestrial..... Lichenes, 273.

Aquatic.

Germinating bodies in spiral nucleoli Characeæ, 275.

Germinating bodies in non-spiral cells Algæ, 276.

The Monochlamydeous orders Rafflesiaceæ, Cytinaceæ, and Balanophoraceæ, included by Lindley in his class of Rhizogens or Rhizanthæ, have an acotyledonous embryo. Triuridaceæ among Endogens appear to have a similar embryo. Some leafless Exogens, such as *Cuscuta*, have no cotyledons in the embryo.*

* For full details in regard to the classification, the characters, affinities, and properties of the natural orders, the student should consult Lindley's *Vegetable Kingdom*, 8d Edition. For the characters of Genera, Endlicher's *Genera Plantarum* may be consulted; and for the characters of species, DeCandolle's *Prodromus*, and Kunth's *Enumeratio Plantarum*. The natural orders, genera, and species of British plants, are given in Hooker and Arnott's *British Flora*, and in Babington's *Manual of British Botany*.

PART IV.

GEOGRAPHICAL BOTANY,

OR THE GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS.

1562. This department of Botany is one of vast extent and importance, and the consideration of it would require much more space than can be allotted to it in the present work. All that we can attempt to do is to give some general facts regarding the distribution of plants over the globe, and to point out some of the causes which regulate this distribution.

1563. The nature of the vegetation covering the earth varies according to climate and locality. Plants are fitted for different kinds of soil, as well as for different amounts of temperature, light, and moisture. From the Poles to the Equator there is a constant variation in the nature of the Flora. Between the Lichens and Mosses of the Arctic and Antarctic regions, and the Palms, Bananas, and Orchids of the Tropics, there is a series of regulated changes in the number and forms of the members of the vegetable kingdom. The same thing is observed in the vegetation of lofty mountains at the Equator, in descending from their summit to their base. There are a few spots in which no vegetation whatever can be detected. Among such barren districts may be mentioned the hot, sandy deserts of Africa, and some of the Antarctic Islands. Dr. Hooker states, that in Franklin Island, lat. $76^{\circ}.8$ S., long. $168^{\circ}.12$ E., he could not perceive the smallest trace of vegetation, not even a Lichen or piece of Sea-weed growing on the rocks. In some inhospitable cold regions the vegetation is very scanty, and consists chiefly of Cryptogamics. On Deception Island Hooker found only Lichens, and no grass; on Cockburn Island, he saw Lecanoras, Lecideas, and five Mosses. This seems to be the limit of land vegetation in the south. In northern regions vegetation approaches nearer the pole than in southern ones. In Walden Island, in lat. $80\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ N., ten species of flowering plants have been enumerated; while in the southernmost isles of the South

Shetlands, in lat. 63° S., only a solitary grass has been found. A few species of Ranunculus and Saxifrage, along with a small number of Cruciferæ, Compositæ, and Grasses, constitute the chief Phanerogamous Flora of Melville Island. The only woody species in Spitzbergen and its vicinity are *Salix arctica* and *S. polaris*. As we proceed from the Poles to the Equator, vegetation increases in amount and in variety. From a region characterized by the presence of Lichens, Mosses, Saxifrages, and Gentians, we come to that of Cruciferæ and Umbelliferæ; we then reach the grassy pasture, and the Coniferous and Amentiferous trees of temperate regions; and passing through the districts of the Vine, the Orange, and the dwarf Palm, to those of the Date, Coffee, Cotton, Sugar-cane, and Pine-apple, we arrive at the luxuriant vegetation of Equatorial regions. In this progress, as Humboldt remarks, we find organic life and vigour gradually augmenting with the increase of temperature. The number of species increases as we approach the Equator, and decreases as we retire from it. Each zone, however, has its own peculiar features. The Tropics have their variety and grandeur of vegetable forms, while the North has its meadows and green pastures, and the periodical awaking of nature in Spring.

I.—INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE, MORE ESPECIALLY OF TEMPERATURE AND MOISTURE, ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS.

1564. In determining the effects of climate on vegetation, our attention is chiefly directed to temperature and moisture,—to the daily, monthly, and annual distribution of heat, and to the amount of rain. We must also take into account light, the nature of the plant, its exposure, and many other causes, the effects of which are by no means easily estimated. They operate, however, usually within narrow limits, heat and moisture being the general agents. While in a given place the quantity of heat received varies according to different circumstances, it is found that the mean is pretty uniform. The quantity of heat is modified by winds and moisture. In China, for instance, the north-east monsoon causes a great depression of temperature. The general preponderance of moist warm winds over dry cold ones is the reason why mild winters are more frequent in Europe than severe ones. Mountain chains, by intercepting winds, often produce a marked effect on climate. The effect of the sea in modifying the temperature is seen in insular climates, which are more equable than those of vast continents. Marine currents have also a decided influence on temperature. Thus the gulf-stream in the Northern Atlantic Ocean carries warm water towards the Arctic regions, and materially affects the temperature of the coasts around which it flows; while the

Peruvian coast current, by bringing cold water from the antarctic regions towards the Equator, also modifies temperature.

1565. The temperature of the globe varies both as regards latitude and altitude, and vegetation at the same time undergoes changes. Latitudinally the globe, as regards temperature, may in a general way be divided into a tropical region, extending from the Equator to 23° 28'; a sub-tropical, as far as 40°; a temperate from 40° to 60°; and a cold region beyond 60°. Dove, in his account of the distribution of heat over the globe, arrives at the following conclusions.* The decrease of temperature in advancing from the Equator towards the Pole is least near the Equator, and becomes progressively greater to about 45° of latitude. The temperature of the Equator is 79°.8, that of the Pole 2°.2, the difference on the mean of the year being, therefore, 77°.6. The difference of temperature between the Equator and the Pole is 48° in July, and 106° in January. The temperature of the Pole rises in July to 30°.6 F., and in January sinks to 26°.6. From the Pole to the latitude of 40°, July is the warmest month. In lat. 30°, August is the warmest; and in lat. 20°, July and August are alike. In lat. 10°, May is the warmest month. At the Equator, the maxima are in April and November, and the minima in July and at the end of December. From 60° to 80°, the decrease of temperature is found by the following formula (in which t_x denotes the mean temp. of the year according to Fahrenheit in the latitude x), $t_x = + 3°.65 + 105°.75 \cos.^2x$. The warmest parallel is not exactly at the Equator; in the northern hemisphere, the parallel of 10° is slightly warmer than the Equator. Up to 40° south latitude, the temperature of the southern hemisphere is lower than that of the northern.

1566. In a hypsometrical or altitudinal point of view, different zones of temperature are recognised, corresponding more or less with those of latitude. On an average, it may be said, that there is a difference of 1° of Fahrenheit for every 300 or 400 feet of ascent, and a difference of 1° of the thermometer in the boiling point of water for every 550 feet of ascent. The following is a general view of the hypsometrical decrease in temperature.

Height above the Level of Sea.	Cordilleras of the Andes, 10° N. to 10° S.	Mountains of Mexico, 17° to 21° N.L.	Mountains of Europe, 45° to 47° N.L.
	Mean Ann. Temp.	Mean Ann. Temp.	Mean Ann. Temp.
0	81°.5 F.	78°.80 F.	53°.6 F.
3,197 feet	71°.24	67°.64	41°.
6,394 feet	64°.4	64°.4	31°.64
9,591 feet	57°.74	57°.2	23°.36
12,789 feet	44°.6	45°.5	
15,985 feet	37°.7	33°.8	

* Dove, on Distribution of Heat on the Surface of the Globe, printed by the British Association, 1853.

The height of the snow line at the Equator is upwards of 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. At lat. 40°, it is about 9000 feet; at lat. 55°, about 5000 feet; in lat. 80°, about 450. The snow line, or the edge of the belt of perpetual snow, on the southern face of Himalaya, is at 15,500 feet; while on the northern face it reaches 18,500 feet. On Cotopaxi the limit of the snow line is about 15,735 feet; on Chimborazo, 15,320; on Ararat, 13,441; on the Caucasus, 10,602; on the Pyrenees, about 8,680; on the Appenines, about 9,231; on the Alps, about 8,600; on Norway, lat. 62°, 5,120; in Iceland, lat. 63½°, 2,642; at Hammerfest, lat. 70°, 2,585; and at the North Cape, 2,275.

1567. Each species of plants can bear a definite range of temperature. A certain amount of heat is also required during a given period of time, in order that a plant may be enabled to perform all its functions properly. Although a plant may continue to live in a certain climate, it may not thrive. The only true indication of climatal adaptation is, that the plant can perfect its seed and produce its various secretions (page 683). The latitude of a place does not at once tell the range of temperature. Many places in the same parallel of latitude differ widely in this respect. Lines, called Isothermal, have been drawn through places in which the mean annual temperature is the same, and it is found that while at the Equator these correspond nearly with the lines of latitude, as we recede from the Equator the two are widely separated. Yearly isotherms run in curves, rising in their course from the east of America towards the west of Europe, and sinking towards the south in the interior of the continent. The yearly isotherm of 50° passes through latitude 42°.30 in the east of America, 51°.30 in England, 47°.30 in Hungary, and 40° in eastern Asia. The want of conformity between the isothermal and latitudinal lines will be easily understood, when we consider that a place having a moderate summer and winter temperature may have the same annual mean as one having a very cold winter and a very warm summer. The vegetation in such districts would, however, be very different, and thus the annual isotherms are not sufficient for the purposes of botanical geography. Plants which stand the winter of London will not withstand the cold of places in Hungary in the same annual isotherm. In estimating, therefore, the effect of different climates on vegetation, attention must be paid also to the summer and winter heat. Lines passing through places with an equal mean summer heat are called Isothermal, while those indicating an equal mean winter temperature are called Isocheimal or Isocheiminal. The latter in continents bend considerably towards the south, while the former bend towards the north, but approach nearer the parallels of latitude in the interior of continents. Some plants require a long period of winter repose and a few weeks only of warm and continued summer; others demand a dry season succeeded by a moist one. Some require a hot summer after an

extremely cold winter of moderate duration ; others succeed in a climate where the temperature of both seasons is moderate.

1568. In determining the limits of distribution in the vegetable kingdom, we must know the mean monthly and the mean daily temperature during those periods when vegetation is active. We must ascertain the number of days which a plant requires to produce successively its leaves, flowers, and fruit, and we must estimate the mean temperature during that period. The conditions which define the limits of a plant require that we should know at what degree of temperature its vegetation begins and ends, and further, the sum of the mean temperatures during that time. Adanson first stated, that by adding the mean temperature of each day from the commencement of the year, it was found that when the sum reached a certain figure the same phenomena of vegetation were exhibited, such as leafing and flowering. Boussingault afterwards promulgated the statement, that if we multiply the number of days (the length of time the culture of a summer plant endures) by the mean temperature of this time, the product will be the same in all countries and in all years. Thus if a plant, he says, has taken 20 days to ripen its seeds from the period of flowering, and the mean temperature during these 20 days has been 50° , it will be found that the heat received by the plant has been 1000° . The same sum may be given by a greater amount of heat during a smaller number of days. Lucas says that at Arnstadt, which is 897.4 French feet above the level of the sea, and has a mean temperature of $46^{\circ}.6$ F., winter Rye requires an average temperature of $48^{\circ}.1$ F. during 105 days, in all 5048° , to bring it into flower ; from the flowering to the ripening 53 days, with a mean temperature of $63^{\circ}.4$, in all $3360^{\circ}.2$; altogether the duration of the vegetation of Rye amounts to 158 days, with a mean temperature of 53° , the sum of this being $8466^{\circ}.9$. Again, winter Wheat requires for flowering 129 days, with a mean temperature of $50^{\circ}.6$, in all $6527^{\circ}.4$; from flowering to ripening 53 days, with a mean temperature of 63° , in all 3339° . The total duration of the vegetation of Wheat is thus 182 days at Arnstadt, with a mean temperature of 54° , which makes a total of 9828° . Wheat requires a higher mean temperature than Rye to bring it into flower ; it therefore blossoms on an average 24 days later, and consumes $6527^{\circ}.4$ of heat, while Rye only requires 5048° . From the flowering to the maturation, Wheat and Rye require nearly the same length of time and the same amount of heat.* Boussingault's law has been somewhat modified by Alphonse De Candolle, who has pointed out many sources of error to be avoided. It is difficult to fix the time which is to be taken into account ; the temperature of the soil requires to be attended to ; low temperatures, and especially all below 32° , which do not excite the phenomena of vegetable life, should be left out of the calculation ; and the thermometric measurements should be made by observations

* *Botanische Zeitung*, 1849. *Bot. Gazette*, i. 172

on the plants themselves, and not merely on the air. By attention to these points, he thinks that useful and accurate conclusions may ultimately be arrived at relative to the temperature required for the performance of vegetable functions.

1569. Light and heat are so intimately connected, and so generally accompany each other, that the laws of the one are very nearly those of the other. Both of them are of the utmost importance in vegetation. Light is concerned in the various functions of plants. The physiological action of the leaves cannot go on without it, and the activity of vegetable life is in no small degree dependent on it. Some plants require full exposure to light, others luxuriate in the shade. The difference of the intensity of light in different countries influences the secretions of plants, and has a certain effect on the nature of the vegetation. While the chemical constitution of the atmosphere is nearly the same every where, its density varies much. This depends both on elevation and on the matters which may be suspended in it. It is probable that the varying density of the atmosphere at different elevations produces little or no effects in comparison with those which result from the modifications which the temperature, light, and humidity of the air undergo. Humboldt is disposed to think that diminished atmospheric pressure has an influence on vegetation. Dr. Hooker, however, has not been able to verify this on the Himalaya. A comparison of arctic vegetation with that of elevations of 17,000 feet, where 15 inches of pressure were removed, showed no difference in the habits and characters of such plants as were common to both regions. It does not induce any peculiarity of vegetation, for the alpine floras, both of India and America, are truly arctic ones. *Cardamine hirsuta*, *Capsella Bursa-pastoris*, and other Plain-plants of the cold weather in India, Hooker remarks, are identical with the same species of the alpine summer. The variation, therefore, due to elevation would not appear to depend on laws of diminished pressure. The presence of saline or extraneous gaseous matters in the atmosphere, in certain localities, will affect vegetation.

1570. Moisture is an agent which exerts a powerful influence on the distribution of plants. Vegetation develops itself only when moisture is present. Very dry regions are deficient in vegetable productions, while the luxuriance of tropical vegetation is connected with great heat and moisture. Plants differ in regard to the quantity of moisture they require. Some are of a loose, spongy texture, with large, soft leaves, little or no pubescence, and many stomata, and demand a great deal of water. Others, growing in sandy, dry situations, where little rain falls, are firm and succulent, and often have long hairs and few stomata. The hard dry texture of the leaves of *Banksias* and other Australian plants, seems to be connected with the small amount of moisture in the atmosphere. Forests have a marked effect on the humidity of climates, and the felling of them has often been productive of very injurious consequences, by diminishing the quantity

of water (page 462). In warm climates, the dry season may be said to correspond to our winter in its effects on vegetation. In some parts of South America, where no rain falls for many months of the year, the leaves during the dry season fall, buds are developed in their axils, and it is only when the wet season arrives that the trees become clothed with verdure, and the herbage appears. As regards rains, Schouw divides Africa and Europe, from the Equator to 60°, into—1. The zone of summer rains, extending from the Equator to 15° N. lat. 2. The rainless or desert zone, from 15° to 30° N. lat. 3. The zone of winter rains, including the north of Africa and the south of Europe, between 30° and 45° N. lat. 4. The zone of constant rains—that is, rains (including snow) in all seasons. The absence of rain seems occasionally to retard the period of flowering. Thus Ball states, that on the borders of the Tagus, in a dry season, he found the *Calluna vulgaris* growing on bare granite, and just coming into full flower, about two months later than it did in Scotland, which was 18° farther north.

II.—INFLUENCE OF SOILS ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS.

1571. Soils, or the media in which the roots of plants grow, regulate to a certain degree their distribution. In estimating this influence we must take into account the geognostic nature of the soil, its state of aggregation, its temperature, moisture, and exposure. Some plants are terrestrial, others aquatic; some grow suspended in the air, others are parasitic. The effects produced by ordinary soils depend perhaps more on their mechanical nature than on their chemical composition. Hard, undecomposed felspar will bear a scanty vegetation, but when disintegrated and loose it affords abundant nourishment. The vegetation of limestone and trap rocks is more luxuriant than that of sandy soils. The moisture retained by aluminous soils is much greater than that by siliceous soils. The latter support plants with long branching roots, while the former are adapted for plants whose roots do not penetrate deeply. Thurmann endeavours to show, that there exist appreciable relations between the distribution of species and the subjacent rocks; and that these relations are owing more to the physical properties of the rocks, than to their composition. He divides rocks, as regards vegetation, into eugeogenous, which are easily disintegrated, and furnish an abundant detritus; and dysgeogenous, which are not easily disintegrated, and yield only a scanty detritus.

1572. In speaking of the Lycian Flora, Forbes remarks:—"At

almost any distance we could distinguish the serpentine from the limestone country, not merely from the peculiar bossy character, and the pink colour of the tints of the former, contrasting strongly with the abrupt and broken escarpments, and grey and yellow rocks of the latter, but also from the disposition of the arborescent vegetation. On the serpentine, usually Pines only grew, and never in thick forest masses, but scattered as it were individually, and as if they had been planted in a quincunx arrangement; while the limestone was wooded, and in many parts it bore great forests; thick clustered oaks covered a luxuriant underwood, interrupted by groves of Strawberry-trees, and by clumps of lofty Pines. High in the mountains the Pines prevailed over the Oaks, and higher still the Cedar-junipers (*J. excelsa*) replaced them. This difference between limestone and serpentine was seen equally in the yaylahs (high-grounds) and among the high mountains, and in the low country near the sea. In the latter we found serpentine marked by *Senecio squalidus*, a little *Erophila*, and *Cheilanthes odora*; on limestone, *Acrostichum lanuginosum* was the conspicuous Fern."* He also remarked that the Anemones on the tertiary rocks were mostly red, those on the Scaglia or the secondary cretaceous limestone, were oftener blue and purple. Many plants seem to thrive best on chalky soils, others on siliceous, argillaceous, or peaty soils. Certain species grow only on soils impregnated with saline matters; others require to be within the influence of the sea. Parasitic plants are often confined to peculiar species of plants.

1573. Plants, in reference to the physical localities or stations in which they grow, have been divided into terrestrial, aquatic, marshy, epiphytic, and parasitic. Among terrestrial plants, the nature of the soil in which they grow gives rise to various groups. Arenaceous or sand plants have a peculiar character in all parts of the world, and the greater number are probably grasses. On our shores, *Carex arenaria* (Fig. 157, p. 66), *Psamma arenaria*, *Elymus arenarius*, and *Triticum junceum*, bind the loose sand by their creeping stems. *Sedum acre*, *Plantago arenaria*, and many species of *Cerastium*, *Tussilago*, and *Potentilla*, grow in similar localities. Calcareous or chalk plants are found on limestone rocks. Many Orchids belong to this division, especially species of *Ophrys* (Fig. 136, p. 56), and *Cypripedium*. *Teucrium montanum*, *Clematis Vitalba*, and *Onobrychis sativa*, are also recorded as calcareous plants. Saline plants are those found in maritime situations, or near salt lakes, and which seem to require much soda in their composition, and which have been called Halophytes. Among them are species of *Salsola*, *Salicornia*, *Armeria*, *Statice*, *Samolus*, and *Glaux*. Rupestral and mural plants are those found on rocks and walls, such as species of *Saxifrage*, *Sedum*, *Draba*, *Sisymbrium*, *Parietaria*, *Linaria Cymbalaria*, *Asplenium Ruta-muraria*, *A. Trichomanes*, Lichens, and Mosses. Some also grow on the ruins of

* Forbes's Travels in Lycia, ii. p. 160.

old buildings, and on rubbish-heaps, &c., near the habitations of man and animals. Among these are included Nettles, Docks, *Hyoscyamus*, *Xanthium*, and *Sempervivum tectorum*. Plants which grow in cultivated grounds, as in fields and gardens, may be said to form a special division. Among them may be noticed *Centaurea Cyanus* (Fig. 392, p. 163), *Lychnis Githago*, *Spergula arvensis*, *Sinapis arvensis*, *Lolium temulentum*, *Stellaria media*, *Lamium amplexicaule*, *L. intermedium*, *Chenopodium album*, species of *Veronica* and *Euphorbia*.

1574. Plants of uncultivated ground are :—Meadow and Pasture plants, such as Grasses, Trefoils, Clovers, species of *Ranunculus*, *Veronica*, *Campanula*, *Galium*, and *Myosotis*, *Bellis perennis*, *Lotus corniculatus*, *Pimpinella Saxifraga*, *Gentiana campestris*: Heath plants, such as *Calluna vulgaris*, the species of *Erica*, *Juniperus communis*, species of *Ledum*, *Andromeda*, and *Polytrichum*: Forest-plants, growing in woods, such as the different kinds of trees forming *Pineta*, *Fageta*, *Querceta*, *Palmeta*, *Oliveta*, according as these are composed of species of *Pinus*, *Fagus*, *Quercus*, *Palms* or *Olives*; and the plants which grow under their shade, as *Oxalis Acetosella*, *Trientalis europæa*, *Linnæa borealis*, *Geum rivale*, *Hepatica triloba*, *Vaccinium Myrtillus*, and species of *Orchis*: Bush-plants, or those growing in bushy places, as *Origanum vulgare*, *Corydalis bulbosa*, *Vincetoxicum officinale*: Mountain-plants, which vary much according to elevation, and which include species of *Saxifraga*, *Gentiana*, *Primula*, *Rhododendron*, *Salix*, *Cyperaceæ*, *Juncaceæ*, *Labiatae*, &c.: Hedge plants, such as Hawthorn and Sweet-briar, and the plants which twine among their branches, as *Lonicera*, *Humulus*, *Bryonia*, *Tamus*, *Clematis*, *Lathyrus*, as well the species of *Viola*, *Adoxa*, and *Oxalis*, which grow at their roots.

1575. Aquatic plants may either grow in salt or in fresh water. Among the former are marine species, such as the common species of *Fucus*, and other Sea-weeds which grow buried in the ocean, and the *Sargassum*, or Gulf-weed, which floats on its surface; with them may be included such Phanerogamous plants as *Zostera*. Among the latter are some which root in the mud, and flower above the water, as species of *Nymphæa* (Fig. 1363, p. 754), *Nuphar*, *Potamogeton*, *Ranunculus*, *Utricularia*, *Sagittaria*; others flower under water, as *Subularia aquatica*; while others float in the water, as species of *Lemna* (Fig. 117, p. 51), *Pistia*, *Stratiotes*, and various green fresh-water *Algæ*. Some aquatics are fluviatile, as *Ranunculus fluviatilis* and *Cœnanthe fluviatilis*; others grow in fresh clear water springs, or near them, as *Montia fontana*.

1576. Marshy plants are those which grow in different kinds of wet soil. Some of them, as *Comarum*, *Menyanthes*, species of *Bidens*, *Cœnanthe*, *Cicuta*, and *Carex*, grow in very wet places, which are not always easily accessible; others, as *Primula farinosa*, and *Pinguicula alpina*, grow in firmer, peaty soil. To this class may be referred certain amphibious plants, which generally grow submerged, but

which can live in dry soil. Among them are included various forms of *Ranunculus*, *Polygonum amphibium*, *Nasturtium amphibium*, *Limosella aquatica*, as well as species of *Rhizophora* and *Avicennia*, which are found in warm countries at the muddy mouths of rivers.

1577. Epiphytic plants are those which send their roots into the air, and grow attached to other plants. Among them are enumerated numerous species of tropical orchids (Fig. 143, p. 60), and other air-plants, such as species of *Tillandsia* and *Pothos*. Parasitic plants are those which derive nourishment from other plants. Among them are included those growing on living vegetables, such as species of *Loranthus*, *Viscum* (Fig. 125, p. 53), *Lathræa*, *Orobanche* (Fig. 126, p. 54), *Cuscuta* (Fig. 128, p. 54), *Rafflesia* (Fig. 127, p. 54), and many Fungi; those growing on dead vegetable or animal tissues, as the various Mould-plants (Fig. 1021, p. 345), also species of *Onygena* and *Splachnum*. Among peculiar epiphytes and parasites may be mentioned *Racodium cellare*, a fungus found on wine casks; *Byssocladium fenestrale*, a filamentous cellular plant (mycelium?) growing on window panes; *Conferva dendrita*, developed on paper; species of *Sphæria*, growing on living animals (Figs. 1023 and 1024, p. 345), and *Sarcinula ventriculi*, found in animal fluids.

III.—EFFECTS OF CLIMATE ON THE PERIODS OF LEAFING, FLOWERING, AND FRUITING.

1578. Epirrheology or the influence of various physical agents on plants, is well illustrated by the variations in the epochs of foliation, defoliation, flowering, and fruiting, which have already been partially alluded to at pages 500 and 527. Berghaus has paid particular attention to this subject, and has given tabular views of these epochs in different countries. We have already seen that germination, or the first budding of plants, is materially influenced by temperature (p. 629, 630). The unfolding of the leaves takes place at different periods of the year in different countries (p. 500). Thus the Elm (*Ulmus campestris*) unfolds its leaves at Naples at the beginning of February, at Paris in the month of March, in England 15th April, and at Upsal about the middle of March. Schubler found in general that in the middle latitudes of Europe and North America, the flowering of plants is delayed four days for each degree of latitude towards the north. Berghaus* remarks that in higher latitudes, in districts situated in the north of Germany, the development of vegetation is less retarded than in more southern positions. The delay in the period of flowering, between Hamburg and Christiania, amounts to only 3.4

* Berghaus on the Epochs of Vegetation. Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, xxx. 182

days for one degree of approach towards the north, while that between southern Germany and Smyrna, in Asia Minor, which is in the same parallel as the most southern portions of Europe, amounts for the same space to 7.4 days. The cause of this difference arises from the different lengths of the days, which in higher latitudes, during the warm period of the year, increase in a much greater degree than they do in southern parallels, by which the vegetation is hastened into development more speedily; and it is only in this way that it is possible, in higher latitudes, for various summer plants to reach their requisite maturity. The activity of vegetation is not increased in equal proportions in different plants by the same elevation of temperature. Plants of northern climates are less retarded in their development at the same low temperature than are plants of more southern regions.

1579. When we compare the epochs of flowering in Europe and America, we find that—

NAMES OF PLANTS.	NEW WORLD.	OLD WORLD.	
	Lat. 40 deg. 20 min. Perth-Amboy, Jersey.	Naples, 40 deg. 51 min.	Tubingen, 48 deg. 52 min.
The Peach-tree blossoms	21st April . .	8th February	6th April.
The Pear-tree "	27th " . .	8th March . .	4th May.
The Apple-tree "	2d May	8th " . . .	8th "

Between Perth-Amboy, on the east coast of North America, and Naples, there is therefore a difference in the flowering period of the Peach-tree of 10 weeks, although the two places are nearly under the same parallel; and there is a difference of 6 weeks in the case of the Pear-tree and 8 in the Apple. Perth-Amboy, however, lies in the isothermal parallel of $54\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, while Naples is nearly in that of $63\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. At the former place the winter has a temperature of only $32^{\circ}54$ F., and at the latter of 50° F. The mean temperature of April at New York, Lat. $40^{\circ}40'$, is $49^{\circ}.1$ F., and at Tubingen $48^{\circ}.2$ F. The Peach, therefore, requires for the development of its blossoms at least $48^{\circ}.2$ F., and Naples has that temperature in the month of February.

1580. As regards the ripening of the Peach, the same variations occur. Wheat harvest begins at Naples in June, in central Germany in July, in the south of England and the middle districts of Sweden about the 4th of August. Barley harvest commences at Naples in June, in central Germany about the end of July or beginning of August, in the south of England about the 14th of August, and in the middle districts of Sweden about the 4th of August. Ripe Cherries may be had at Naples during the first days of May, at Paris and in central Germany about the end of June, and in the south of England

about the 22d of July. Owing to the comparatively higher summer heat in Sweden, and to the more rapid vegetation than in England, the Wheat harvest does not take place sooner in the south of England than at Upsala; and Barley is 10 days later of ripening in England than in Sweden. From observations made during two years in Saxony, we find, as a mean result, that from the flowering to the ripening of the fruit, 56 days are required for Wheat, 59 for Rye, 31 for Barley, 45 for Oats. From observations at Wurtemberg, the same period of vegetation required 56.4 days for Rye, 42½ for Triticum Spelta, 51½ for winter Barley, 25 for summer Barley, and 25½ for Oats. The following are given as the periods of vegetation of winter Wheat:—

LOCALITIES.	Mean period of Sowing.	Mean time of Harvest.	Difference in Days.
Malta	December 1.	May 13.	163
Sicily (Palermo)	December 1.	May 20.	170
Naples	November 16.	June 2.	195
Rome	November 1.	July 2.	242
Berlin	299
Alps at 3000 feet	September 12.	August 7.	329

For Winter Rye the following periods are given:—

LOCALITIES	Mean period of Sowing	Mean time of Harvest.	Difference in Days.
Alps at 3000 feet	September 20.	July 30.	313
Alps at 4000 feet	September 8.	August 14.	340

The progression from southern Italy to the north of Germany produces the same effect as a considerable increase in elevation. In both cases there is a great prolongation of the period of vegetation in Cereals. At 5000 to 5200 feet, the extreme limit of Rye, it often remains a whole year in the ground.

1581. Thurmann states that in the Jura, generally speaking, a delay of 17 days in the harvest corresponds to a difference of altitude of 1000 feet. On the Alps, according to Schlagintweit, there is a delay of 11 days in the development of vegetation for every 1000 feet. Quetelet finds that in the climate of Europe every 600 or 700 feet produces a delay of about 4 days, which is equal to about 1° of latitude. Schlagintweit,* who has examined particularly the vegetation of the Alps, gives the following tabular view of the effect of elevation on the epochs of vegetation:—

* Pflanzengeographie Untersuchungen, von Adolphe Schlagintweit.

MEAN COMMENCEMENT OF PERIODS OF VEGETATION, AT DIFFERENT ALTITUDES IN THE ALPS.

Indication of Periods.	From 1500 to 2000 feet.	From 2000 to 3000 feet.	From 3000 to 4000 feet.	From 4000 to 5000 feet.	From 5000 to 6000 feet.	From 6000 to 7000 feet.	From 7000 to 8000 feet.
Melting of the snow, and re-appearance of vegetation	17 March	30 March	10 April	21 April	12 May	2 June	28 July
Culture of summer Cereals	25 "	8 April	15 "	24 "	13 "	"	"
Loss Falls of Snow :—	20 April	16 June	15 May	28 May	15 June	"	"
Mean	15—25 May	"	30 June	15 July	"	"	"
Foliations :—							
Fagus sylvatica	2 May	11 May	22 May	31 May	17 May	7 "	1 "
Fraxinus excelsior	8 "	11 "	26 "	"	Growth of meadows.	"	"
Juglans regia	10 "	19 "	In very favourable situations.	"	"	"	"
Flowering :—							
Viola odorata	4 April	12 April	21 April	4 "	12—15 May	2—6 June	28—30 June
Prunus Cerasus	5 May	10 May	16 May	28 "	First spring flowers.	11 July	29 July
Fragaria vesca	4 "	10 "	16 "	"	Rhododendron.	"	"
Syringa vulgaris	9 "	21 "	2 Jume	"	"	"	"
Scilla cereale hibernum	4 June	14 June	21 "	28 June	8 July (5200)	8 August	"
Sambucus nigra	8 "	19 "	29 "	"	21 July (5200)	"	"
Hordeum distichum, and hexastichum	11 "	20 "	30 "	11 July	1 July	"	"
Hay harvest	15—20 June	24 "	25 "	27 June	"	"	"
Ripening of Fruits :—							
Prunus Cerasus	25 June	18 July	3 August	20 August	3 September (5200)	3 September (5200)	1 October
Scilla cereale hibernum	18 July	31 "	8 "	18 "	11 September (3500)	11 September (3500)	"
Hordeum distichum, and hexastichum	25 "	7 August	17 "	29 "	29 September (5200)	29 September (5200)	"
Trifolium vulgare setivum	9 August	21 "	31 "	13 September	16 "	"	"
Avena sativa	14 "	27 "	6 September	16 "	"	"	"
Sambucus nigra	9 September	21 September	8 October	10 November	28 October	15 October	1 October
Snow covering the ground (almost continuously, commencement of winter)	10 December	30 November	20 November	"	"	"	"

These periods are not yet well determined.

1582. As regards the fall of the leaf, or defoliation, Berghaus remarks, that the Hazel-nut tree, the Ash, Lime, Poplar, and Maple, lose their leaves at Upsala at the very beginning of autumn; while in the neighbourhood of Naples they remain in full foliage during the whole month of November. The Apple-tree, the Fig-tree, the Elm, Birch, and different kinds of Oak, which in Paris are deprived of their leaves at the beginning of November, retain them at Naples till the end of December. In England, the Walnut is one of the first trees that loses its leaves; and after it the Mulberry, the Ash (especially when it has had much blossom), and then the Horse-chestnut.*

IV. — DISTRIBUTION OF CLASSES, ORDERS, GENERA, AND SPECIES OF PLANTS OVER THE GLOBE.

1583. Some plants are generally distributed over the globe, occurring in both hemispheres, and having an extensive latitudinal range; others are restricted and endemic in their distribution. There are numerous interesting facts in regard to geographical distribution in Hooker's Antarctic Flora, a work from which many of the following examples are taken. *Trisetum subspicatum* is a Grass having a very wide range. It extends from Tierra del Fuego over the whole of the Peruvian Cordilleras, and over the Rocky Mountains to Melville Island, Greenland, and Iceland; it is found in the Swiss and Tyrolese Alps, on the Altai, in Kamtschatka, and in Campbell's Island. The range is from 54° S. lat. to 74½° N. lat., through 128½° of latitude. *Drimys Winteri* (Fig. 1358, p. 750) extends over no less than 86° of latitude, or 5160 geographical miles, forming at the southern limit of its growth one of the trees which advance nearest to the antarctic circle, and reaching as high a latitude as any flowering plant, save the solitary Grass of the South Shetland Islands. "No vegetable production of its size affords a parallel case to this, either in America or in any other country. Such an extraordinarily extended range is in part obviously due to some peculiarities in the form and surface of South America, where under every degree of latitude there are large areas either at the level of the ocean, or at an elevation where such a tree can enjoy a climate that is equable." *Gentiana prostrata* has a great range, both in longitude and latitude. In southern Europe it inhabits the Carinthian Alps between 6000 and 9000 feet high; in Asia, it occurs on the Altai mountains about N. lat. 52°; in America, on the tops of the Rocky Mountains, in lat. 52° N.,

* See tabular view of foliation and defoliation, p. 501.

at an elevation of 15,000 to 16,000 feet; and on the east side of the Andes of South America, in 85° S. It descends to the level of the sea at Cape Negro, in the Straits of Magalhaens, in lat. 53° S.; and at Cape Good Hope, in Behrings Straits, lat. 68½° N. *Potentilla anserina* is widely distributed both in the northern and southern hemispheres. It grows throughout Europe, from the shores of the Mediterranean to the Arctic Sea; over all Asia to the north of the Altai range; in North America, from lat. 40° to Whale-fish Island in 70° N. lat.; and from the Oregon River to Kotzebue's Sound on the west coast. It is frequent in Tasmania, but is not indigenous there. *Pinus sylvestris* extends from the north of Persia, lat. 36°, to the north of Lapland, lat. 70°; and from Eastern Siberia, 65° 15', to the mouth of the Ob in the Frozen Sea. It thus ranges over a space of 34 degrees of latitude, and 74 degrees of longitude. *Epilobium tetragonum*, a British plant, extends from Canada to Fuegia. *Callitriche verna* is universally diffused through the temperate regions of both hemispheres. *Oxalis corniculata*, *Calystegia Soldanella* and *Senebiera didyma*, natives of Britain, are found in the Galapagos Islands. *Carex festiva* ranges in the northern hemisphere, from Greenland on the east, to Unalaschka on the west, crossing by Cumberland House on Bear Lake, and thence runs south along the Rocky Mountains. In Europe, it has only been found in Lapland. *Hymenophyllum Wilsoni* is found in all the four quarters of the globe, also in Australia, New Zealand, Tierra del Fuego, and the Falkland Islands. *Cistopteris fragilis* is very extensively diffused. It avoids such hot and equable climates as the low lands of the tropics. In America, it ranges along the Cordilleras, from the Arctic Sea and Greenland to the Straits of Magalhaens; in Europe, from Iceland and Lapland to the Mediterranean; in Asia, between Kamtschatka and the Himalaya; but in Africa, it is confined to the Canary Islands and the Cape of Good Hope.

1584. The British and European grass, called *Phleum alpinum*, is found at the Straits of Magalhaens, on the east side of the Andes at an elevation of 6000 to 7000 feet, on the Cordilleras of Mexico, and on the Peak of Orizaba, 10,000 to 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. Many species in the Falkland Islands are identical with those found in Iceland. The following British plants, along with many others, are found at Chamisso Sound (Behrings Straits), *Vaccinium uliginosum*, *V. Vitis-Idsea*, *V. Oxycoccus*, *Rubus Chamæmorus*, *Arctostaphylus alpina*, *Cornus suecica* and *Empetrum nigrum*. *Funaria hygrometrica*, a well-known British Moss, is found all over the world. On turning the surface of the ground, in all quarters of the globe, this Moss springs up. *Galium Aparine* is a British plant, found at the Cape of Good Hope, at the Straits of Magalhaens, in the island of Chiloe; and in North America it ranges between the latitude of Fort Vancouver and the Mississippi River. *Plantago maritima* occurs in Britain, at the Cape, and at the southern point of America. *Montia*

fontana is found in Iceland, Britain, and Kerguelen's Land, S. lat. 52°. *Chara flexilis* also occurs in the last two places. Cryptogamic cellular plants have generally a very wide range; many of them are universally distributed.

1585. Hooker has recognised more than 30 antarctic forms as identical with European ones. Among them may be enumerated—

Lycopodium Selago
clavatum.

Poa nemoralis.

— pratensis.

— annua.

Aira flexuosa.

Festuca duriuscula.

—— bromoides.

Agrostis alba.

Lolium perenne.

Alopecurus alpinus.

Phleum alpinum.

Carex curta.

Eleocharis palustris.

Armeria maritima.

Plantago maritima.

Chenopodium glaucum.

Limosella aquatica.

Convolvulus sepium.

Galium Aparine.

Leontodon Taraxacum var. *levigatum*.

Erigeron alpinus.

Senecio vulgaris.

Hippuris vulgaris.

Epilobium tetragonum.

Lathyrus maritimus.

Montia fontana.

Stellaria media.

Sagina procumbens.

Cerastium arvense.

Sisymbrium Sophia.

Capsella Bursa-pastoris.

Cardamine hirsuta.

Apium graveolens.

The last two are found in Fuegia, in the Falkland Islands, and in Tristan d'Acunha.

1586. Some plants which have a great latitudinal range are restricted to a narrow space as regards longitude. This is the case with the species of *Erica*, which extend from the Cape of Good Hope to northern regions. Certain species of *Rhododendron*, *Magnolia*, *Azalea*, *Actæa*, and *Andromeda*, occur on the east of the Rocky Mountains, and are not found on the western side. In the western part of Ireland we meet with *Daboecia polifolia*, *Erica mediterranea*, and *Arbutus Unedo*, which are not met with in other parts of Britain, and which again appear on the mountains of Asturias. On the western side of the Cordilleras of Chili, *Calceolarias* grow, which are not found on the eastern side. *Lobelia Dortmanna* seems to be confined to the western European countries. *Tamus communis*, *Briza minor*, *Gastridium lendigerum*, and *Calamintha officinalis*, are said to have a tendency to migrate in a north-westerly direction towards their vanishing point.

1587. While some plants are generally and widely distributed, others are limited to particular countries, and sometimes confined within very narrow limits. The floras of the different quarters of the world contain certain plants, which are restricted to them, and some which are only found in a few localities. One region in the Andes is marked by the occurrence of species of *Bejaria*, and others by *Cinchonas*. Certain plants belonging to the natural order *Polemoniaceæ* are peculiar to California; an Orchid, called *Disa grandiflora*, is confined to Table Mountain; *Codon Royeni* and *Protea acaulis* are

restricted to a few localities at the Cape of Good Hope. Numerous instances of a similar kind may be given, more particularly in the case of islands. The flora of islands near continents partakes of the character of that of the mainland. Those remote from continents, however, have often a more or less endemic flora. St. Helena had a peculiar flora, which has been strangely altered by foreign introductions. The flora of Madeira consists of 672 Phanerogamous plants and Ferns, of which 85 are absolutely peculiar to it, while 480 are common to Europe. The flora of the Azores is estimated at 425 species, of which 280 are common to them and Madeira. The Canaries and Madeira have 312 in common, and 170 are common to Madeira and Gibraltar, where 456 species have been collected. *Vaccinium maderense*, *Matthiola maderensis*, *Sideroxylon Marmulana*, and *Erica arborea*, are characteristic Madeira plants. *Aira antarctica*, the most southern flowering plant known, is restricted to the antarctic islands. *Origanum Tournefortii* is said to be found only on one of the islands of the Ægean Sea. *Pringlea antischorbutica*, Kerguelen's Land Cabbage, is an interesting plant growing on an island, the remotest of any from a continent, and which, according to Hooker, yields, besides this esculent, only 17 other flowering plants.

1588. We sometimes meet with marked centres, where the maxima of the genus of an order, or of the species of a genus, occur, the number of the genera or species diminishing as we recede from these centres, and ending perhaps in a solitary representative in some distant country. Gentians and Saxifrages have their maxima in the European Alps; Eriocaulons have their great centre in Brazil, but a few species are found in other countries. Thus, *E. decamgulare* is found in North America, *E. septangulare* in Galway and the Isle of Skye, and a few other species in New Holland and India. Epacridaceæ are restricted to Australia. The genus *Viola* has two marked centres, one in Europe and another in America. The form of the European and American species are quite distinct. The maximum of the genus *Erica* is at the Cape of Good Hope; but members of the Heath family extend to northern regions in the form of *Erica Tetralix*, *E. cinerea*, and *Calluna vulgaris*. The maximum of the orders Palmæ, Musaceæ, Piperaceæ, Zingiberaceæ, and Marantaceæ, is in equatorial regions, but certain species are found in high latitudes. Thus the Palm, denominated *Chamærops humilis*, is found in Europe as high as latitude 43° to 44° N.; *C. Palmetto*, in North America, in lat. 34° to 36° N.; while some species occur in New Zealand, in lat. 38° S. Acacias have their maximum in Australia, but *Acacia heterophylla* is found in the Sandwich Islands. The Laurel order is tropical, but *Laurus nobilis* grows in Europe. The tropical Myrtaceæ have *Myrtus communis* to represent them in Europe, *Leptospermeæ* in Australia, and *Metrosideros lucida* in Lord Auckland's group, lat. 50½° S.

1589. An order, or a genus, or a species, in one country is occasionally represented in another by forms which are either allied, or

have a physiognomic resemblance. There is thus sometimes a repetition of resembling or almost similar forms in countries separated by seas or extensive tracts of land. The Ericaceæ of the Cape have in Australia a representative in the nearly allied Spacridaceæ; the Cactaceæ of America are represented by certain succulent forms of Mesembryanthemaceæ and Euphorbiaceæ in Africa; and by some Crassulaceæ in Europe. The species of *Cistus*, found in Spain and Portugal, have their representatives in the north of Europe in the species of *Helianthemum*. The Pines and Firs of the northern hemisphere have representatives in the southern hemisphere in the genera *Araucaria*, *Dammara*, and *Dacrydium*.* *Trientalis europæa* has a representative form in America, *T. americana*; *Cornus suecica* occurs in Europe, *C. canadensis* in Canada. *Empetrum nigrum*, in arctic regions, has *E. rubrum* to take its place in the antarctic; *Pinguicula lusitanica*, in the northern hemisphere, has *P. antarctica* closely resembling it in the southern; *Hydnora africana* and *H. triceps* in South Africa are represented in South America by *H. americana*. The *Culcitium* of the Andes have their counterpart in the woolly *Espeletia* of the mountains of New Granada. *Drapetes muscosa*, a Thymelaceous plant, confined in its geographical range to the mountains of antarctic America, is represented in New Zealand by a very similar one, forming its only congener, *D. Dieffenbachii*.

1590. The mode in which the globe has been clothed with vegetation, has given rise to much discussion. We know from the Sacred Record, that on the third day of the Creation of the present state of the globe, the earth brought forth grass, and herb yielding seed after his kind, and the tree yielding fruit after his kind; but whether the whole earth was at once clothed with vegetation, or certain great centres were formed, whence plants were gradually to spread, we have no means of knowing. The endemic limitation of certain orders, genera, and species, would certainly lead to the opinion, that, in many instances, there have been definite centres, whence the plants have spread only to a certain extent. But the general distribution of other tribes of plants, and the occurrence of identical species in distant parts of the world, would favour the view, that countries with similar climates had originally many species of plants in common. In the case of Grasses, we would naturally suppose that they must have been produced in their social state, forming pasture for the nourishment of animals; and such we might conjecture to be the case with social plants in general.

1591. Edward Forbes advocates strongly the view of specific

* In speaking of southern Conifers, Hooker states that four genera are peculiar to the southern hemisphere—*Araucaria*, *Phyllocladus*, *Microcachrys*, and *Arthrotaxis*; three others have their maximum to the south of the tropics—*Callitris*, *Podocarpus*, and *Dacrydium*. *Dammara* has one species in each hemisphere. *Thuja* is equally divided between the two; whilst *Juniperus* and *Cupressus* are barely, if at all, represented, except perhaps the latter by *Arthrotaxis*.—Hooker, *Journal of Botany*,

centres, and endeavours to account for the isolation of certain species or assemblages of plants from their centres, by supposing that these outposts were formerly connected, and have been separated, by geological changes, accompanied with the elevation and depression of land. Schouw opposes the view of specific centres. He thinks that the existence of the same species in far distant countries is not to be accounted for on the supposition of a single centre for each species. The usual means of transport, and even the changes which have taken place by volcanic and other causes, are inadequate to explain why many species are common to the Alps and the Pyrenees on the one hand, and to the Scandinavian and Scotch mountains on the other, without being found on the intermediate plains and hills; why the flora of Iceland is nearly identical with that of the Scandinavian mountains; why Europe and North America, especially the northern parts, have various plants in common, which have not been communicated by human aids. Still greater objections to this mode of explanation, he thinks, are founded on the fact that there are plants on the Straits of Magalhaens, and in the Falkland and other antarctic islands, which belong to the flora of the arctic pole; and that several European plants, as *Phragmites communis*, *Alisma Plantago*, *Aira flexuosa*, species of *Typha*, *Lemna*, *Scirpus*, &c., appear in New Holland, Van Diemen's Land, and New Zealand, and which are not found in intermediate countries. In the case of Cryptogamic plants, the number of such recurring species is much increased. It is also difficult to conceive that large tracts continued quite barren until migration caused them to be covered with vegetation. Schouw, therefore, supposes that there were originally not one, but many primary individuals of a species.

1592. From all that has been said on this interesting subject, we are led to the conclusion that many plants must have originated primitively over the whole extent of their natural distribution; that certain species have been confined to definite localities, and have not spread to any great distance from a common centre; while others have been generally diffused, and appear to have been created at the same time in different and often far distant localities; that migration has taken place, to a certain extent, under the agency of various natural causes; that geological changes may, in some instances, have caused interruptions in the continuity of floras, and may have left isolated outposts in various parts of the globe; and finally, that social plants were probably created in masses, that being the natural arrangement suited to their habits.

V.—MODES IN WHICH PLANTS HAVE BEEN DISSEMINATED.

1593. Provision has been made for the extension of plants over the globe. The usual modes of transport are man, tides of the sea, rivers, winds, and birds. The Coco-nut wafted on the ocean is able to resist the action of the salt water by means of its fibrous covering, and lands on islands and shores in a state fit for germination. In this way recently produced coral islands are covered with vegetation. The hairy fruits and seeds of many plants are wafted to a distance by the winds, and rivers carry down the seeds of plants which have grown at their source. Birds which feed on pulpy fruits, often deposit the hard seeds at distant parts. Man, in his migrations, has distributed many plants, including common weeds, as well as plants useful for food or clothing. *Rumex crispus*, *R. Acetosa*, and *R. Acetosella*, *Senecio vulgaris*, *Agrostis alba*, *Poa annua*, *Cerastium triviale*, *Stellaria media*, and *Veronica serpyllifolia*, have been introduced by man into the Falkland Islands. The last-mentioned weed has also been introduced near Quito. *Capsella Bursa-pastoris*, *Centaurea Cyanus*, and *Lolium temulentum* have been carried to South Australia. Fennel, *Trifolium repens*, *Echium violaceum*, *Sonchus oleraceus*, *Medicago denticulata*, *Lolium perenne*, *Hordeum murinum*, and *H. pratense*, are recorded by Bunbury as growing abundantly near Buenos Ayres; all of them being British species which have followed man in his migration. The Thistle and the Artichoke, coming with Europeans, have quickly spread themselves over the Pampas of Buenos Ayres.

1594. Certain useful plants are considered by Schouw* as originally characteristic of nations, although at the present day they have become much more widely diffused. In the South Sea Islands, the Bread-fruit tree (Fig. 783, p. 268) and Coco-nut palm (Fig. 166, p. 70), supply important articles of food and clothing. New Zealand flax (Fig. 48, p. 24) is characteristic of the island whence it derives its name. Among the Malays of the Indian Islands, the Clove-tree, Nutmeg, Pepper (Fig. 1660, p. 895), and Ginger (Fig. 1713, p. 921), are the principal characteristic plants, and these are also common in India. Maize, which gives the most abundant, and also the most uncertain of all crops, was originally confined to America; such was also the case with the Potato. The Maguey plant (*Agave potatorum*) is a valuable product of Mexico, and may be called the Vine of the Mexicans; while *Agave americana* is useful for clothing. *Chenopodium Quinoa* is a plant used for food in the high districts of Mexico, Peru, and Chili; the *Mauritia* Palm is an important means of subsistence to the tribes of the Orinoco; the Date-Palm (Fig. 1748,

* Schouw's Earth and Man, translated by Henfrey, p. 291

p. 984) is equally useful in the north of Africa, and in the Arabian deserts. The Coffee-tree (Fig. 1526, p. 830) characterizes the south of Arabia, and Abyssinia. Rice and Cotton were two important plants for the Hindoos; the Tea-plant (Fig. 1421, p. 773) for the Chinese; Wheat, Barley, Rye, and Oats, for the Indo-Caucasian races of Western Asia and Europe; the Olive (Fig. 1562, p. 851) and the Vine (Fig. 152, p. 64) for the inhabitants of Mediterranean districts; and the Rein-deer Moss (Fig. 1016, p. 343) for the Laplanders.

1595. While such was the original distribution of these plants, great changes have taken place chiefly by the agency of the Caucasian races, who have transplanted to their own countries the characteristic plants of other nations. Thus Schouw goes on to remark,—they have brought the Apricot, the Peach, and the Almond, from Asia Minor and Persia, and the Orange from China; they have transplanted Rice and Cotton to the Mediterranean coasts; they have brought the Maize and Potato from America to Europe. They have also carried their own characteristic plants to their colonies, and have transported into various climates useful and ornamental vegetable productions. European Corn plants have been widely spread through North America, in Mexico, the elevated countries of South America, Chili, Buenos Ayres, in South Africa, in the temperate parts of Australia and Van Diemen's Land. The Vine has been spread to Madeira, the Canary Islands, South Africa, and the high lands of South America. The Coffee-tree and Sugar-cane (Fig. 78, p. 33) have been transplanted by man into the West Indies and Brazil; the Nutmeg and Clove into the Mauritius and Bourbon, and various West India islands; plantations of Tea have been formed in Brazil, Java, and India; Rice and Cotton have been cultivated in the warmer parts of North America and Brazil, and New Zealand Flax in New Holland.

1596. Man has diffused widely plants which are useful for food, or for the purposes of manufacture. The consideration of the distribution of the Cereal grains and of the Potato is a subject of much interest. The former have been so long cultivated, and so extensively spread, that it is difficult to discover their native country. They are not seen in a wild state, unless it be true, as Esprit Fabre says, that *Ægilops ovata* is the wild condition of Wheat, and they have a wide geographical range, so as to be fitted for various climates. Rice is the grain which furnishes food to the greatest number of the human race; it is extensively used in the warm countries, and more especially in China. Maize bears the greatest range of temperature, and succeeds in the hottest climates. Millet also is associated with it in hot countries. Wheat succeeds best on the limits of the sub-tropical region, and, as we proceed north, is succeeded by Rye, and then by Barley and Oats, which extend farthest north in Europe.

1597. The Old World has been divided into the following agricultural zones:—1. The zone of Barley, Oats, and the Potato, including Finmark and the higher districts of Scandinavia, the Faroe

Islands, Shetland, and the most northern part of Scotland and Ireland—the north boundary being 62° , 70° , and 67° , and the south boundary 57° in Scotland, 52° in Ireland, 65° and 60° . 2. The zone of Rye and Wheat occupying the greater part of Europe north of the Alps, and extending to about 50° latitude, or as far as the polar limit of the cultivation of the Vine; in this zone, Buck-wheat, Peas, and Beans, are also important articles of food. 3. The zone of Wheat, including those parts of Europe and Western Asia which lie south of the 50^{th} degree; in several districts Maize is cultivated as well as Wheat. 4. The zone of Rice and Wheat in those provinces which are subject to the influence of tropical seasons; in tropical Western Africa, Rice and Maize are the chief grains. The zone extends from about 15° N. lat. to 23° S. lat. In America, Berghaus distinguishes the following zones:—1. Rye, Wheat, and Barley (summer Cerealia). 2. Rye and Maize. 3. Wheat and Maize. 4. Wheat. In the tropical zone, Maize is the principal Cereal grain.

VI.—PHYSIOGNOMY OF VEGETATION IN DIFFERENT QUARTERS OF THE GLOBE.

1598. In this department of botanical geography we consider plants according to the distribution of forms, marking the predominance of this or that form of plants by the absolute mass of its individuals or by the impression it makes from the character given to the flora. The prevalence of a single form will often produce a much greater physiognomic effect than the number and variety of the floral productions. Hinds says that a general physiognomic impression is sometimes conveyed by the prevalence of colour. Yellow colours, according to him, abound on the tropical mountain plains in autumn, while blue colours prevail in sub-tropical regions. In northern latitudes and in alpine districts white flowers are more common than on the plains. He makes the following statements as to the proportion of colours in the flowers of different countries:—

	Cyanic.	Xanthic.	White.
Central America . . .	12	30	8
Sandwich Islands . . .	12	31	7
Alaska	26	13	11
California	25	19	6
New Guinea	12	23	15
Hong-Kong	13	27	10

1599. Social plants, in an especial manner, affect the landscape from growing in masses. Among social plants may be noticed the Reindeer-moss of arctic regions, the Cladonias and Mosses of the waste levels of northern Asia; Grasses forming pastures, or arboresecent forms, as Bamboos; Phragmites communis, and Scirpus lacustris of marshy grounds; Willows, Epilobium angustifolium, and Heaths; Cactuses in South America; Avicennias and Mangroves at the muddy estuaries of tropical rivers; Ferns in the South Sea islands and in New Zealand; Banksias in New Holland; Coniferous trees and Birches in the Baltic and Siberian plains; Cinchona-bark trees on the Andes. Aquatic plants, both of fresh and salt water, grow socially more frequently than land plants. Thus Sea-weeds, such as Sargassum bacciferum, Macrocyttis pyrifera and Fucus antarcticus are found in masses in the ocean. Agricultural nations increase the domain of various social plants in temperate and northern zones, while they root out and destroy many wild species.

1600. There are certain marked vegetable forms which are concerned in determining the aspect or physiognomy of nature in different countries. Some of these leading forms coincide with natural orders; at other times, several distinct botanical groups require to be united.

The PALM FORM (Figs. 187-190, pp. 87 and 88)—gives a marked character to the warmest regions of the globe, between 10 deg. north and 10 deg. south lat. The true Palm climate has a mean annual temperature of 78.2 deg. to 81.5 deg. F. South America is conspicuous for the beauty and number of its Palms. Certain Palms are associated in large groups, as the Coco-nut, Mauritia flexuosa, and some species of Chamærops. The indigenous vegetation of Europe comprises a single Palm-form, Chamærops humilis, or sea-coast Dwarf Palm, which in Spain and Italy extends as far north as the 44th parallel of latitude. In Asia and America Palms extend to 34 deg. north lat.; the southern limit of Palms in Africa is 34 deg., in New Zealand 38 deg., and in South America 36 deg. In the Old World the Eastern Archipelago produces the greatest number of Palms, in the New World the great valleys of the Amazon and the Orinoco. The Coco-nut is a littoral Palm. The Date, another social Palm, has been brought from Africa to the south of Europe, where it grows, but not in a vigorous manner, with a mean temperature of 59 deg. to 62.4 deg. F. Some alpine Palms, as Kunthia montana and Ceroxylon Andicola (Fig. 188, p. 87), attain an elevation of 6400 to 9600 feet on the Andes. With the Palm form has been associated the Cycadaceous order (p. 911), which resembles it somewhat in the appearance of its naked stems and tufts of pinnated leaves.

The BANANA and PLANTAIN FORM (Fig. 245, p. 110)—is usually associated with the Palms in the torrid zone. In this form the physiognomist includes the natural orders Musaceæ (p. 922), Zingiberaceæ, and Marantaceæ (p. 921). The plants representing this form have succulent herbaceous stems and long delicately-veined verdant leaves. Groves of Bananas and Plantains are ornaments of equatorial regions, and supply important food for the inhabitants.

The MALVACEOUS FORM (Fig. 1414, p. 769)—represented in warm

climates by trees with thick trunks, large soft cordate or lobed leaves, and gorgeous flowers. It includes the orders Malvaceæ (p. 768), Byttneriaceæ, Sterculiaceæ (p. 771), and Tiliaceæ (p. 772), the Silk Cotton-tree, the Chocolate-tree, the Hand-tree of Mexico, the Baobab of Senegal (Fig. 176, p. 73). *Cavanillesia platanifolia*, and *Sparmannia africana*, are examples. The larger Malvaceous forms appear as soon as the Alps are crossed.

The MIMOSA FORM (Fig. 1159, p. 494)—is represented by Leguminosæ, with delicately pinnate leaves (Fig. 1157, p. 492), and is met with both in warm and in temperate regions. It is not seen in the temperate zone of Europe, though found in the United States.

The HEATH FORM (Fig. 1557, p. 846)—belongs especially to the African continent and islands, as well as to Australia. Under it are included the species of *Erica* and *Calluna*, the Epacridaceæ of Australia, the sub-order Diosmeæ of the order Rutaceæ, and some Proteaceæ. Humboldt associates with it the leafless or phyllodiferous Acacias of New Holland. In some respects it approaches the Coniferous form. While in the colder temperate zone this form is diminutive, it assumes an arborescent aspect in Africa, and even as far as the northern shore of the Mediterranean. *Erica cinerea*, *E. Tetralix*, *E. carnea*, and *Calluna vulgaris*, cover large tracts in Germany, France, Britain, and Norway. In southern Africa the species of *Erica* abound.

The CACTUS FORM (Figs. 1503 and 1504, p. 820)—with its peculiar jointed or spherical or polygonal stems without true leaves, is exclusively American. Humboldt says :—"There is hardly anything in vegetable physiognomy which makes so singular and ineffaceable an impression on a newly arrived person, as the sight of an arid plain thickly covered, like those of Cumana, New Barcelona, and Coro, in the province of Jaen de Bracamoros, with columnar and candelabra like divided Cactus stems." Some of the stems become hard and ligneous, and are very indestructible. Certain Euphorbias may be said to represent this form in Africa.

The ORCHIDEOUS FORM (Fig. 1705, p. 918)—is represented by the epiphytes which enliven the rocks and the trunks of trees in tropical climates, and which are distinguished by the animal shapes and colouring of their flowers. In temperate climes this form does not display the same magnificence ; in them the plants are not epiphytic.

The CASUARINA FORM (p. 901)—consists of leafless trees, with branches resembling those of *Equisetums*, found chiefly in the islands of the Pacific ocean and in India. Along with phyllodiferous Acacias and some Myrtaceæ, Casuarinas give a uniform character to the Tasmanian flora.

The CONIFEROUS FORM (Figs. 1121-1125, p. 436)—is represented by the needle-leaved trees of northern regions, the Pines, Cypresses, and Thujas ; and by the broader-leaved *Dammara* and *Salisburia* of more southern regions. In the Himalaya and the Mexican mountains Coniferous and Palm forms are associated.

The POTHOS FORM (p. 939)—prevails chiefly in the tropics, and is represented by *Pothos*, *Dracontium*, *Caladium*, and *Arum*. They have succulent stalks, large thick-veined leaves, and flowers more or less spathaceous.

The **LIANA FORM** (Figs. 197 and 198, p. 90)—is represented by the twining rope-plants, the Paullinias, Banisterias, Bauhinias, Bignonias, Passifloras, and Aristolochias, of the hottest parts of South America, and the Hop and Vine of temperate climes.

The **ALOE FORM** (Fig. 1731, p. 929)—consists of plants with succulent tufted leaves, found in arid regions, often growing singly, and imparting, according to Humboldt, a peculiar melancholy character to the tropical regions in which they are found. With the Aloe are associated some Bromeliaceæ, as Pitcairnia, the American Aloe, some thick short-stemmed Euphorbias, the Dragon-trees, the Yuccas, and the Screw-pines.

The **GRAMINEOUS OR GRASSY FORM** (p. 945)—illustrated in tropical regions by arborescent Bamboos, and in temperate regions by meadows and pastures. In the southern part of Europe *Arundo Donax* (Fig. 1763, p. 945), represents the arborescent form. Sugar-cane, Rice, and Millets, are grassy forms of warm regions, while Barley and Oats are extratropical. Along with true Grasses are associated Cyperaceæ (p. 943), Juncaceæ (p. 933), Restiaceæ, and Eriocaulonaceæ (p. 942). The genus *Carex* (Fig. 157, p. 66), is one of the Grassy forms of cold regions. The Tussac-grass (Fig. 1767, p. 949) gives a feature to the flora of the Falkland Islands. *Aira antarctica* is the most antarctic flowering plant hitherto discovered.

The **FERN FORM** (Figs. 967 and 969, pp. 322 and 324)—gives a character to the landscape of warm and tropical regions. Like Grasses, Ferns have a gigantic appearance in the hotter parts of the globe. Tree-ferns, with their elegantly cut foliage, belong chiefly to the tropical zone, growing at an elevation of 2000 or 3000 feet above the level of the sea. Some extend to New Zealand and Tasmania. On the Andes they are associated with the Cinchona trees. In temperate insular climates, such as that of New Zealand, Ferns predominate. Tree-ferns were found by Hooker in Enderby and Campbell's Islands, which are the highest south latitudes in which they occur.

The **LILLACEOUS FORM** (Figs. 1723 and 1724, p. 925)—includes the orders Liliaceæ (p. 927), Amaryllidaceæ (p. 924), and Iridaceæ (p. 922). In southern Africa the species of *Amaryllis*, *Ixia*, and *Gladiolus*, with their ensiform leaves and gorgeous blossoms, represent this form. In America the Liliaceous form is represented by *Alstrœmerias* and species of *Pancreatum*, *Hæmanthus*, and *Crinum*, which, however, are less social than the European Iridaceæ.

The **WILLOW FORM** (p. 896)—is represented by the species of *Salix* which spread over the northern hemisphere from the equator to Lapland. They increase in northern countries. In the Swiss and Scandinavian mountains, as well as in Scotland, we meet with small creeping Willows, such as *Salix herbacea*, *S. reticulata*, and *S. lanata*. In Spitzbergen very dwarf forms occur. There are no Willows in Australia.

The **MYRTLE FORM** (Figs. 1482, p. 810)—gives a peculiar character to the south of Europe, especially the Mediterranean islands; to New Holland, in species of *Eucalyptus*, *Melaleuca*, *Metrosideros*, and *Leptospermum*; and to the district of the Paramos in the Andes, where certain species of *Escallonia*, *Symplocos*, *Myrica*, and *Myrtus*, are found. The form consists of plants with stiff, shining, small, generally entire and dotted leaves, and includes plants belonging to

the orders *Myrtaceæ* (p. 809), *Escalloniaceæ* (p. 822), *Styracaceæ* (p. 841), and *Myricaceæ* (p. 895). One species of *Myrtus* is found in *Fuegia* in lat. $56\frac{1}{2}$ deg. S. *Metrosideros lucida* is found in Lord Auckland's group, lat. $50\frac{1}{2}$ deg. S.

The **MELASTOMA FORM** (p. 808)—is represented by the species of *Melastoma* and *Rhexia*, with their ribbed and beautifully veined leaves, which abound in tropical America, and some of which ascend to 10,000 and 11,000 feet on the Andes.

The **LAUREL FORM** (Figs. 242 and 246, pp. 109 and 111)—is represented in South America by species of *Laurus* and *Persea*, as well as by some of the *Guttiferae* (p. 777), such as *Calophyllum* and *Mammea*.

The **FORM of DICOTYLEDONOUS TREES** (Figs. 172 and 173, p. 72)—is represented in northern climates by the Oak, Beech, Elm, Horsechestnut, Poplar, Alder, and Birch; in warmer climates by the Olive, and in the hottest regions by the large-leaved Bread-fruit trees and *Cecropias*.

The **Moss FORM** (Fig. 1003, p. 335)—is characteristic of cold regions. Hooker mentions, that in New South Shetland there are specks of Mosses struggling for existence. In Cockburn Island five Mosses are found.

The **LICHEN FORM** (Figs. 1013-1015, p. 342)—is associated with Mosses, and may be said to extend still farther. It forms the limit of terrestrial vegetation. On Deception Island Lichens only exist.

VII.—THE STATISTICS OF VEGETATION OVER THE GLOBE.

1601. This subject involves the consideration of the number of known vegetable species in the world, their numerical distribution, and the relative proportion of classes, orders, genera, and species in different countries. In the present imperfect state of our knowledge of the floras of different countries, it is impossible to tell the exact number of species of plants in the globe. Those known at the present day, described and undescribed, amount probably to nearly 120,000, and from this estimates have been made of the total vegetation, the numbers varying from 150,000 to 200,000. Hinds, reckoning the species at 134,000, gives the following conjectural distribution as compared with surface:—

	Species.	Extent of Surface.
Europe . . .	11,200 .	2,793,000 geog. sq. miles.
Asia . . .	36,000 .	12,118,000 "
Africa . . .	25,200 .	8,500,000 "
North America . . .	14,400 .	7,400,000 "
South America . . .	40,000 .	6,500,000 "
Australasia . . .	7,200 .	3,100,000 "
	134,000'	40,411,000

The following is the estimated number of known and described plants:—

	Genera.	Species.
Acotyledonous plants* .	1,400 .	15,000
Monocotyledonous plants .	1,450 .	14,000
Dicotyledonous plants .	6,300 .	67,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	9,150 .	96,000

1602. The relative numerical proportion of these great classes of plants varies in different quarters of the world. It is estimated that Cryptogamic plants are to Phanerogamous plants as 1 to 7. In northern and alpine regions the proportion of the former increases. In equatorial regions, Monocotyledons are to Dicotyledons in the proportion of 1 to 5 or 6; in temperate regions as 1 to 4; and arctic regions as 1 to 3. In temperate and cool climates there is an increase of Monocotyledonous plants, particularly of Gramineous forms. Tropical islands in general possess proportionally more Monocotyledons than do the continents; the usual proportion in these islands is said to be 1 to 4. An equable temperature, and a rather humid climate, are favourable to Monocotyledons. They diminish both under the extreme cold of the arctic zone and the great heat of the tropics. They increase towards the southern temperate and antarctic zones. Hooker remarks, that the Galapagos Islands differ from other tropical islands in having a small proportion of Monocotyledons, which in them are only $\frac{1}{3}$ of the Dicotyledons.† He also states, that in St. Helena Monocotyledons are to Dicotyledons nearly as 1 to 5, in the Society Islands as 1 to 4.2, in the Sandwich Islands 1 to 4, in the Cape de Verd Islands 1 to 5, in the Canaries 1 to 6, in Madeira 1 to 5.4, in the Azores 1 to 4.1, in Great Britain 1 to 4, in Shetland 1 to 3.3, in the Faroe Islands 1 to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$. There is thus an increase in the proportion of Monocotyledons in passing from the Canaries, lat. 28°, to Madeira, lat. 32°, the Azores, lat. 38°, Great Britain, lat. 50°.57, Shetland, lat. 60°, and Faroe, lat. 62°. In the arctic regions, on the other hand, Hooker remarks, the proportion seems to be inverted. In Iceland, lat. 65°, the proportion is 1 to 4.8; in Spitzbergen, lat. 78°.80, it is 1 to 4.9; on the east coast of Greenland it is 1 to 5; in the arctic American islets, lat. 68°, it is 1 to 5.3; at Baffin's Bay, lat. 70°.76, it is 1 to 5.7; at Port Bowen and Prince Regent's inlet, lat. 74°, it is 1 to 7. Melville Island presents an exception, the proportion being 1 to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 3. On the antarctic islands, Monocotyledons bear a great proportion to Dicotyledons; thus, in Kerguelen's land, the proportion is 1 to 2. On this island there are 150 species

* Klotzsch estimates Acotyledons at 19,080, viz., Fungi 8000 (species of *Agaricus* forming $\frac{1}{2}$), Algae 2680, Lichens 1400, Musci and Hepaticae 3800, and Ferns 3200 (Polypodiaceae being 3165).

† Hooker on the Vegetation of the Galapagos Islands. Linn. Trans. xx. 239.

of plants, of which 18 are flowering plants, 8 Ferns, 25 Mosses, 10 *Jungermannia*, and the rest are Lichens and Sea-weeds. In Campbell's Island, where Hooker collected from 200 to 300 species, the proportion is 1 to 4, and in Lord Auckland's group 1 to 2.2.

1603. In central and southern Europe, the proportion of Monocotyledons to Dicotyledons, which is 1 to 4 in the plains, decreases with the elevation on dry mountain slopes, till, at the height of 8526 feet, it is 1 to 7. Moist mountain slopes favour Monocotyledons, the proportion on them being as 1 to 3. In South Australia, Monocotyledons are to Dicotyledons as 1 to 4, varying, however, according to latitude, the mean being between the vegetation of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. In Western Australia, the proportion is 2 to 9, while the Acotyledons are to Dicotyledons as 1 to 6. In Western Eskimaux land, Seemann enumerates 315 species, of which 73 are Cryptogamic and 242 Phanerogamous, the latter being made up of 45 Monocotyledons and 197 Dicotyledons. The proportion of species in some of the orders is given by him as follows:—Mosses 30 species, Lichens 21, Grasses 20, Compositæ 30, Saxifragacæ 19, Rosacæ 18, Caryophyllacæ 15, Cruciferæ 17, and Ranunculacæ 15; the genus *Saxifraga* has 18 species, *Potentilla* 9, *Salix*, *Ranunculus*, and *Polytrichum* 8, *Pedicularis* and *Hypnum* 7, *Senecio* 6, the rest of the genera having fewer species.

1604. In the low plains of the great continents within the tropics, Ferns are to Phanerogamous plants as 1 to 20; on the mountainous parts of the great continents, in the same latitudes, as 1 to 8 or 1 to 6; in Congo as 1 to 27; in New Holland as 1 to 26. In small islands, dispersed over a wide ocean, the proportion of Ferns increases; thus, while in Jamaica the proportion is 1 to 8, in Otaheite it is 1 to 4, and in St. Helena and Ascension nearly 1 to 2. In the temperate zone, Humboldt gives the proportion of Ferns to Phanerogamous plants as 1 to 70. In North America the proportion is 1 to 35, in France 1 to 58, in Germany 1 to 52, in the dry parts of south Italy as 1 to 74, and in Greece 1 to 84. In colder regions the proportion increases, that is to say, Ferns decrease more slowly in number than Phanerogamous plants. Thus in Lapland the proportion is 1 to 25; in Iceland 1 to 18, and in Greenland 1 to 12. The proportion is least in the middle temperate zone, and it increases both towards the equator and towards the poles; at the same time, it must be remarked, that Ferns reach their absolute maximum in the torrid zone, and their absolute minimum in the arctic zone.

1605. Taking other natural orders, we find that *Juncacæ*, *Cyperacæ*, and *Gramineæ* increase in proportion to all the Phanerogamous species as the latitude becomes higher; thus, in the torrid zone, the proportion is 1 to 11, in the temperate zone 1 to 8, and in the arctic zone 1 to 4. *Cinchonacæ*, *Leguminosæ*, *Euphorbiacæ*, and *Mal-*

vases, increase in their proportion to Phanerogamæ as we approach the equator.

	Torrid Zone.	Temp. Zone.	Arctic Zone.
Rubiaceæ, including } Cinchonaceæ and } Galiaceæ . . . }	1 to 14 (1 to 25 in America.)	} 1 to 60	1 to 80
Leguminosæ . . .	1 to 10		
Euphorbiaceæ . . .	1 to 32	1 to 18	1 to 35
Malvaceæ . . .	1 to 35	1 to 80	1 to 500
		1 to 200	wanting.

The natural orders Cruciferae, Umbelliferae, and Compositae, have their highest quotients in the temperate zone.

	Torrid Zone.	Temp. Zone.	Arctic Zone.
Cruciferae . . .	1 to 800	{ 1 to 18 } { (1 to 60 in } America.) }	1 to 24
Umbelliferae . . .	1 to 500	1 to 40	1 to 60
Compositae . . .	{ 1 to 18 } { (1 to 12 in } America.) }	{ 1 to 8 } { (1 to 6 in } America.) }	1 to 13

Piperaceæ are plants of the hottest regions; Papaveraceæ are chiefly European; Cinchonaceæ, within the tropics, form 1-29th of the flowering plants; Scrophulariaceæ, in the middle of Europe, are to Phanerogamæ as 1 to 26, in North America as 1 to 36. Labiatae have their maximum between 40° and 50° N. lat.; their relation to flowering plants in France is 1 to 24, in Germany 1 to 26; in Sicily 1 to 21, in the Balearic Islands 1 to 19, in Lapland 1 to 40, and they do not occur in Melville Island. Boraginaceæ are chiefly confined to the temperate regions, while Primulaceæ and Gentianaceæ abound in colder zones. Caryophyllaceæ are 1 to 22 of the Phanerogamous plants in France, 1 to 27 in Germany, 1 to 17 in Lapland, and 1 to 72 in America; Malvaceæ 1 to 86 in Sicily, 1 to 145 in France, 1 to 233 in Sweden, 1 to 125 in temperate North America, and 1 to 47 in equinoctial America. Compositae, in relation to Phanerogamous plants, are 1 to 7 in France, 1 to 8 in Germany, 1 to 15 in Lapland, 1 to 6 in North America, 1 to 2 in tropical America, 1 to 16 in New Holland, and 1 to 13 in Melville Island.

1606. The proportion of species as well as of genera, belonging to the same natural order, varies in different countries. Of Ranunculaceæ 1-5th of the species are European, 1-7th North American, 1-17th

South American, and 1-25th Indian; of Papaveraceæ nearly 2-3ds are European; of Cruciferae 205 species, according to De Candolle, are found in the frigid zone of the northern hemisphere, 80 in the tropics (chiefly on mountains), 548 in the northern temperate zone, and 86 in the southern temperate zone; of known Malpighiaceæ South America possesses 408 species, Mexico 61, West Indies 56, Africa and its islands 25, Asia, Arabia, India, and Ceylon 16, Indian Archipelago, China, and Polynesia 14; of Hypericaceæ 41 are North American, 24 Asiatic, 21 South American, 19 European, 7 African, 5 Australian, 5 in the Azores and Canaries, 4 common to Europe and Asia, 1 West Indian, and 1 common to Europe, Asia, and Africa; De Candolle states that about 1600 species of Leguminosæ are found in the equinoctial zone, about 1300 to the north of the tropics, and about 500 to the south. Out of 272 species of Crassulaceæ, De Candolle states 133 are found at the Cape of Good Hope, 52 in Europe, 18 in the Levant, 18 in the Canaries, 12 in Siberia, 9 in Barbary, 8 in Mexico, 7 in the United States, 4 in South America, 4 in China and Japan, 3 in the East Indies, 2 in New Holland, 1 in South Africa. Of 9030 Compositæ mentioned by authors, 3590 are found in America, 2224 in Africa, 1827 in Asia, 1042 in Europe, and 347 in the South Sea Islands. Of 2500 species of Euphorbiaceæ 3-8ths are found in equinoctial America, 1-8th in tropical Africa, 1-6th in India, 50 species in America, and 120 in Europe. Lomler calculates that 165 Coniferae exist in the northern and 51 in the southern hemispheres. There are, according to him, 22 in Europe, 87 in Asia, 16 in Africa, 83 in America, and 35 in Australia. In the tropical zone 24, in the north temp. 159, and in the south temp. 33. The number of Coniferae in the southern hemisphere is as follows:—16 species in New Holland, 10 in Tasmania, 13 in New Zealand and the South Sea Islands, 8 in South America, 6 in South Africa and Mauritius.

1607. The following are some of the orders which prevail in cold regions, with their relative proportion to Phanerogamous plants:—

	Region of Alpine Plants in France.	Summit of Pic du Midi.	Melville Island.
Gramineæ	1 to 15	1 to 10.1	1 to 4.7
Cyperaceæ	1 to 26	1 to 25.3	1 to 16.7
Compositæ	1 to 11.2	1 to 5.4	1 to 13.4
Campanulaceæ	—	1 to 71	1 to 6.7
Saxifragaceæ	1 to 7.9	1 to 17.7	1 to 6.7
Rosaceæ	1 to 19.7	1 to 17.7	1 to 16.7
Leguminosæ	1 to 39.5	1 to 17.7	1 to 32.5
Caryophyllaceæ	1 to 11.2	1 to 11.9	1 to 13.4
Cruciferae	1 to 13	1 to 11.9	1 to 4.9
Ranunculaceæ	1 to 39.5	wanting.	1 to 13.4

VIII.—ZONES OF VEGETATION AS REGARDS LATITUDE.

1608. We have already seen that the vegetation varies according to latitude, and that we may trace a series of changes in the flora from the equator to the poles. Meyen proposes to mark out round the world a number of climacteric zones or belts, and to connect with the fact of these zones of climate the peculiarities of the vegetation of the belts. Meyen's plan is not quite correct, because he has made his belts to correspond with the parallels of latitude, and has asserted that between such and such parallels a certain form of vegetation would be found all over the world. The boundary lines of the zones, in order to be accurate, should be undulatory; they should correspond with the isotherm of the particular month in which there is the greatest development of vegetable life. Such undulatory zones, in which the plants present a certain resemblance to each other by sea and land, are denominated by Forbes Homöoic.

1609. As regards vegetation, Meyen divides the Torrid zone into—1. The equatorial, extending 15° on both sides of the equator, having a mean annual temperature of $78^{\circ}.8$ to $82^{\circ}.4$ F. 2. The tropical, reaching from the 15th degree on each side of the equator to lat. 23° , having a mean annual temperature of $73^{\circ}.4$ to $78^{\circ}.8$, a summer heat of $80^{\circ}.6$ to 86° , and a winter temperature in the eastern coast countries of 59° . The Temperate zone is divided by Meyen into—1. The sub-tropical, from the tropics to 34° lat., with a mean annual temperature of $62^{\circ}.6$ to $71^{\circ}.6$, and a summer temperature of $73^{\circ}.4$ to $82^{\circ}.4$. 2. The warmer temperate zone, from lat 34° to 45° , having a mean annual temperature of $53^{\circ}.6$ to $62^{\circ}.6$, the summer temperature, in North America 77° , in Europe 68° to $75^{\circ}.2$, and in eastern Asia $82^{\circ}.4$; the winter temperature in America being $32^{\circ}.54$ to $44^{\circ}.6$, in Europe $34^{\circ}.7$ to 50° , and in eastern Asia $26^{\circ}.6$. 3. The colder temperate zone, between the parallels of 45° and 58° , the temperature of the year $42^{\circ}.8$ to $53^{\circ}.6$; the minimum summer temperature on the west coast $56^{\circ}.31$, in the interior of the continent 68° ; the minimum winter temperature in the interior of Europe 14° . 4. The sub-arctic zone, from lat. 58° to the polar circle in lat. $66^{\circ}.32$, mean annual temperature $39^{\circ}.2$ to $42^{\circ}.8$; temperature of summer in America $66^{\circ}.2$, in the Old World $60^{\circ}.8$ to 68° ; winter temperature of America 14° , of western Europe $24^{\circ}.8$, and of the interior of Russia $10^{\circ}.4$ to 14° . The Frigid zone is divided into—1. The arctic, from the polar circle to lat. 72° , mean annual temperature being $28^{\circ}.4$ to 32° , and towards the eastern continental regions much lower. 2. The polar, beyond 72° of latitude; mean annual temperature in the Old World $16^{\circ}.7$, in the New World $1^{\circ}.4$; the summer of the former $38^{\circ}.3$, of the latter $37^{\circ}.4$; winter of the former— $2^{\circ}.2$, of the latter— 28° .

1610. EQUATORIAL ZONE.—This embraces central Africa, including the Guinea coast and Abyssinia, &c., Ceylon, the southernmost

part of Hindostan, Malaya, Cochin China, Sumatra, Borneo, Java, New Guinea, islands in the eastern seas, the northernmost part of Australia, the northern part of South America, including Columbia, Peru, the Guianas, and part of Brazil. The vegetable forms characteristic of this zone are Palmæ, Musacæ, arborescent Grasses, Zingiberacæ, Marantacæ, Orchidacæ, and Lianas. Species of *Bombax* and *Ficus* occur here, with gigantic trees such as the Baobab, species of *Swietenia*, *Hymenæa*, and *Cæsalpinia*. The orders Malpighiacæ, Anonacæ, Anacardiaceæ, Lecythidacæ, Sapindacæ, Artocarpacæ, Sterculiacæ, Ebenacæ, Meliacæ, Lauracæ, and Rafflesiaceæ, are also well represented in this zone.

1611. TROPICAL ZONE.—This includes parts of Bolivia, Brazil, and Paraguay in South America, the majority of the West India Islands, Yucatan, Guatemala, and part of Mexico, Nubia and Senegambia in Africa, Madagascar, Mauritius, and North Australia, part of China and India, Burmah, and the south of Arabia. As Palms and Bananas may be said to characterise the equatorial zone, so may arborescent Ferns and species of *Ficus* be said to predominate in the tropical zone. Besides many equatorial forms, we meet here with plants belonging to the orders Piperacæ, Melastomacæ, and Convolvulacæ.

1612. SUB-TROPICAL ZONE.—This embraces the north of Africa, including the Great Desert, Morocco, Barbary, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Egypt; in Asia, Palestine, Syria, north of Arabia, Persia, Cabul, Beloochistan, Thibet, the north of India, and China; the southern part of Australia; south Africa; Paraguay, La Plata, Chili, and Banda, in South America; the Bahamas, Bermuda, Mexico, Texas, the Southern States and California, in North America. In this zone vegetation is green throughout all the year, like the forests of the damp regions of the torrid zone. It is called the region of Myrtacæ and Lauracæ. Certain Palm forms are seen, such as *Phoenix dactylifera* in Egypt (represented in India by *Phoenix sylvestris* and *P. humilis*), *Hyphæne thebaica*, *Chamærops Palmetto*. In this zone we meet with succulent Crassulacæ, Mesembryanthemacæ, Cactacæ, and arborescent Euphorbiacæ, plants belonging to the orders Ternstroemiaceæ and Magnoliacæ; and in the southern hemisphere especially Proteacæ, Epacridacæ, and Ericacæ, along with species of *Zamia* and *Diosma*.

1613. WARMER TEMPERATE ZONE.—In Europe this includes the southern flora as far as the Pyrenees, the mountains in the south of France, and those in the north of Greece. Asia Minor, the country between the Black Sea and the Caspian, the north of China, and Japan lie in this zone. It has been called the region of evergreen trees. *Chamærops humilis* represents the Palms, *Erica arborea* the Heaths, *Laurus nobilis* the Laurels, and *Myrtus communis* the Myrtles, in this zone, in which there are many sub-tropical forms. Species of *Cistus*, *Vaccinium*, *Smilax*, *Eucalyptus*, and *Melaleuca* are met with, as well as many forms of Compositæ, also Figs, Oranges, Pomegranates, and the Vine.

1614. **COLDER TEMPERATE ZONE.**—In the northern hemisphere the characteristic forms of the vegetation of this zone are seen in England, the north of France, and Germany. The forests consist of Dicotyledonous trees and especially Coniferæ; the successful cultivation of Wheat scarcely extends beyond the limits of this zone. Heaths, covered with *Calluna vulgaris*, add a feature in the physiognomy of this zone. The floras of Tierra del Fuego, the Straits of Magalhaens, the Falkland Islands, and Kerguelen's Land, are also included in this zone. We meet with *Drymis Winteri*, *Fagus antarctica*, and *F. Forsteri*, *Dactylis cæspitosa*, *Pringlea antiscorbutica*, and many other interesting forms described by Dr. Hooker in his *Flora Antarctica*.

1615. **SUB-ARCTIC ZONE.**—This zone is of less extent than the preceding, and in the interior of Asia it is perhaps not so easily distinguishable from it as it is in Europe. In the northern hemisphere it is the zone of Firs and Willows. In the southern hemisphere it embraces a few barren islands. The northern parts of Siberia and Norway, the Faroe Islands, and Iceland, belong to this zone. In the Faroe Islands Barley does not always ripen, but the Turnip and Potato succeed. The Amentiferæ in them, as well as in Iceland, do not become trees. Grasses, *Calluna vulgaris*, *Juniperus communis*, form features in the physiognomy of Iceland, and Alpine species come down nearly to the sea level. In Siberia, forests of *Pinus Cembra*, Larch, Spruce, Poplar, and Birch occur.

1616. **ARCTIC ZONE.**—In this zone the Birch predominates, and along with it are seen *Pinus sylvestris* and *Abies excelsa*. The Birch reaches nearly the North Cape, and Firs extend to 69° or 70°. Grasses are also found, and numerous Lichens and Mosses. At Hammerfest, in lat. 71°, Potatoes, Turnips, Carrots, and Cabbage succeed. Species of *Rhododendron*, *Andromeda*, and *Azalea* occur in the American arctic zone.

1617. **POLAR ZONE.**—In this zone there are no trees nor bushes, and no cultivation of plants for food. Species of Saxifrage, *Dryas*, *Papaver*, *Ranunculus*, *Cardamine*, *Cochlearia*, *Pedicularis*, *Silene*, *Potentilla*, *Salix*, *Juncus*, *Eriophorum*, *Parrya*, *Platypetalum*, *Phippsia*, *Dupontia*, and a few others, are found in this inhospitable belt. In Melville Island there are 67 species of flowering plants, in Spitzbergen 45. In cold zones we find more genera and fewer species than in warmer regions.

IX.—ZONES OF VEGETATION AS REGARDS ALTITUDE.

1618. The vertical range of vegetation has been divided into zones similar to those of the horizontal range. The relation of plants to such zones of elevation is called Hypsometrical. As we ascend from the plain to the top of a mountain we pass through different belts of vege-

tation, the extent and variety of which differ in different countries. When Tournefort ascended Mount Ararat he was struck with the circumstance, that, as he left the low ground at the base of the mountain, he passed through a series of belts, which reminded him of the countries he had passed through in travelling from the south to the north of Europe. At the base the flora was that of the west of Asia; as he ascended higher he reached the flora of the countries on the north of the Mediterranean, then that of northern Europe, and when he reached the summit he found the Lapland plants. Humboldt found that on all mountains there occurs such a representation of different floras, and that particular alpine forms are found almost over the whole world at a particular elevation.

1619. The relation between latitude and altitude is seen in the following table, which gives the limits of certain trees in both points of view:—

	Latitude.	Elevation on the Grimsel.
<i>Fagus sylvatica</i> , Beech . . .	60° N.	3232 feet.
<i>Quercus Robur</i> , Oak . . .	61°	2624 "
<i>Corylus Avellana</i> , Hazel . . .	63°	3478 "
<i>Prunus Cerasus</i> , Cherry . . .	—	3478 "
<i>Abies excelsa</i> , Spruce . . .	67° 40'	5068 "
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> , Scotch Fir . . .	70°	5927 "
<i>Betula alba</i> , Birch . . .	70° 40'	6479 "

1620. On the lofty mountains of South America and Asia we are enabled to trace the various forms of vegetation very distinctly. The following are the elevations of some of these mountains:—

Peaks on the Andes.		Peaks on the Himalaya.	
<i>Desyacassada</i> . . .	19,570 feet.	Gossain Than . . .	24,700 feet.
<i>Descabesado</i> . . .	21,100 "	Nanda Devi . . .	25,749 "
<i>Chimborazo</i> . . .	21,441 "	Cholo . . .	26,000 "
<i>Illimani</i> . . .	24,350 "	Dhavalagiri . . .	27,080 "
<i>Sorato</i> . . .	25,400 "	Kinchin-junga . . .	28,172 "

Kinchin-junga, in the snowy ranges of the Sikkim Himalaya, is, according to Hooker, the highest mountain in the world.

1621. Humboldt, in describing the South American alpine flora, says—"In the burning plains scarce raised above the level of the Southern Ocean, we find *Musaceæ*, *Cycadaceæ*, and *Palmeæ*, in the greatest luxuriance; after them, shaded by the lofty sides of the valleys in the Andes, arborescent Ferns; next in succession, bedewed by cool misty clouds, *Cinchonas* appear. When lofty trees cease, we come to *Aralias*, *Thibaudias*, and *Myrtle-leaved Andromedas*; these are succeeded by *Bejarias* abounding in resin, and forming a purple belt around the mountains. In the stormy region of the *Paramos*, the more lofty plants and showy flowering herbs disappear, and are succeeded by

large meadows covered with Grasses on which the Llama feeds. We now reach the bare trachytic rocks, on which the lowest tribes of plants flourish. *Parmelias*, *Lecideas*, and *Leprarias*, with their many-coloured thalli and fructification, form the flora of this inhospitable zone. Patches of recently fallen snow now begin to cover the last efforts of vegetable life, and then the line of eternal snow begins."

1622. This vegetation is illustrated in the map (accompanying this volume), which shows the distribution of plants in equinoctial America, according to elevation above the level of the sea. Beginning with subterranean plants, such as species of *Tuber* and *Byssus*, we then have the region of Palms and Bananas extending from the level of the sea to 2952 feet, which is above the level of the inferior limit of *Cinchona*-bark trees. We next come to the region of arborescent Ferns, extending from 1322 to 4920 feet. The region of the *Cinchona*-bark extends from 2296 to 9512 feet. The region of the Wax Palm reaches from 5904 to 9184. Near the upper limit of *Cinchona* we meet with the regions of *Wintera*, *Escallonia*, *Barnadesia*, and *Duranta*; we are here above the limit of great trees. The *Gentian*, *Chuquiraga*, and *Espeletia* region extends from 6560 to 18,448 feet; the region of Grasses from the latter height as far as 15,088 feet; and this is immediately succeeded by the region of Lichens, which reaches to 16,072 feet. The upper limit of the *Mimosa sensitiva* is marked at about 7000 feet, and that of shrubby plants at about 11,000 feet. By consulting the map, as given by Humboldt, the genera characterising the different regions will be seen.

1623. On the Mexican volcano of Orizaba the following regions have been observed:—1. Hot region, 0-3000 feet, characterised by trees of *Mimosa*, *Bombax*, *Citrus*, and *Combretum*. 2. Warm moist region, 3000 to 6000 feet, a rich botanical region exhibiting forests of *Lauraceæ*, *Myrtaceæ*, *Anacardiaceæ*, *Malpighiaceæ*, and *Anonaceæ*, with numerous woody and herbaceous Lianas; Coffee and Cotton are cultivated up to 4000 or 5000 feet, Sugar and Bananas up to 5500. 3. Region of Oak forests 6000 to 7800 feet, exhibiting species of *Quercus*, *Alnus*, *Ulmus*, *Clethra*, also Ferns, *Orochids*, and, at the upper limit, *Vaccinium* and *Andromeda*. 4. Coniferous region, 7800 to 11,000 feet, in which occur *Pinus leiophylla*, *P. Montezumæ*, *Abies religiosa*. 5. Region of the *Stevia*, 11,000 to 13,600 feet, species of *Compositæ*, *Cruciferae*, *Caryophyllaceæ*, *Umbelliferae*, and *Rosaceæ*. 6. Alpine mountain plains, 13,600 to 14,800 feet, in which Grasses, Mosses, and Lichens abound; among the last Phanerogamous plants are *Phacelia lactea*, *Cnicus nivalis*, *Draba vulcanica*, and species of *Castilleja*, *Saussurea*, and *Arenaria*.*

1624. Madden and Strachey give the following account of the Himalayan vegetation, proceeding from the plains of India through Kemaon to Thibet:†—"Ascending, we find forms of temperate climates gradually

* Liebmans in *Botanische Zeitung*, 1844.

† Notes on the Botanical Geography of part of the Himalaya and Thibet. *Trans. Brit. Assoc. for*

introduced above 3000 feet, as seen in species of *Pinus*, *Rosa*, *Rubus*, *Quercus*, *Berberis*, *Primula*, &c. At 5000 feet the arboreous vegetation of the plains is altogether superseded by such trees as Oaks, *Rhododendron*, *Andromeda*, *Cypress*, and *Pine*. The first ridge crossed ascends to a height of 8700 feet in a distance of not more than 10 or 12 miles from the termination of the plains. The European character of the vegetation is here thoroughly established, and although specific identities are comparatively rare, the representative forms are most abundant. From 7000 to 11,000 feet, the region of the alpine forest, the trees most common are Oak, Horse-chestnut, Elm, Maple, Pine, Yew, Hazel growing to a large tree, and many others. At about 11,500 feet the forest ends, *Picea Webbiana* and *Betula Bhojpatra* being usually the last trees. Shrubs continue in abundance for about 1000 feet more; and about 12,000 feet the vegetation becomes almost entirely herbaceous. On this southern face of the mountains the snow-line is probably at about an elevation of 15,500 feet. The highest dicotyledonous plant noticed was at about 17,500 feet, probably a species of *Echinosperrum*. An *Urtica* also is common at these heights. The snow-line here recedes to 18,500 or 19,000 feet. In Thibet itself the vegetation is scanty in the extreme, consisting chiefly of *Caragana*, species of *Artemisia*, *Astragalus*, *Potentilla*, a few *Gramineæ*, &c. The cultivation of Barley extends to 14,000 feet. Turnips and radishes on rare occasions are cultivated at nearly 16,000 feet. Vegetation ends at about 17,500 feet, scanty pasturage being found in favoured localities at this elevation; and the highest flowering plants are *Corydalis*, *Cruciferae*, *Nepeta*, *Sedum*, and a few others."

1625. Madden observed on the Himalaya, at Kemaon, such northern forms as Pines, Firs, Cypressess, Yews, Oaks, Maples, Hazels, Ash, and many deciduous trees of cold climates, associated with Palms, Bamboos, and Bananas. Among the Palms may be noticed *Phoenix humilis*, which extends to 5500 feet of elevation, and *P. Khasyana*, from 6-8000 feet. Among the Bamboo forms are mentioned *Arundinaria falcata* from 3500 to 8500 feet, *A. utilis* from 7-9000 feet, and other species, which extend to 11,500, and are thus associated with all the Himalayan *Coniferae*, except *Pinus longifolia*, which does not reach such an elevation, its limit being about 7000 feet. A species of *Musa* ascends on the eastern Himalaya, north of Assam, to 7000 feet.* On the mountains of Mexico we meet with a Palm, *Corypha dulcis*, mixed up with the forests of *Pinus occidentalis*. On the Andes, the Wax Palm, *Ceroxylon Andicola*, reaches the elevation of 9500, and along with *Chusquea* (a Bamboo form) is associated with representatives of northern plants. On the Himalaya, at Kemaon, an erect tree *Juniper*, fruticose *Rhododendrons* 8 feet high, *Betula*, *Salix*, and *Pyrus*, ascend to 15,000 feet in favourable situations, but all are stunted. *Lonicerae* are the commonest shrubs at 14,000 feet, along with species of *Rosa* and *Berberis*.

* Major Madden on the occurrence of Palms and Bamboos, with Pines, &c., in the Himalaya Trans. Bot. Soc. Edin. 1858 and Ann Nat Hist Soc. Edin. 1859.

1626. Thomson, in his Thibetan travels, gives a full account of the vegetation of the mountains in that quarter. In speaking of Western Thibet,* he remarks, that "the chain to the south of the Chenab river, rising to an elevation of 15,000 feet, excludes a considerable quantity of humidity from the valley of that river, and the vegetation, although not altogether losing its truly Himalayan character, becomes much modified. Thus the Oaks, Rhododendrons, and Andromedæ, so common on the southern mountains, are not found; while fruit-trees become more abundant, and the Grape Vine ripens its fruit admirably. Passing to the north, the next ridge that is crossed reaches a height of 20,000 to 22,000 feet, the passes being usually upwards of 18,000 feet in elevation. To the north of this range the climate and vegetation suddenly changes, and the Thibetan types are at once established. The general character of the flora is Europeo-Siberian, but much modified by the extreme aridity which almost excludes trees and shrubs; it hardly exceeds 500 or 600 species in all. The chief groups are Boraginacæ, Chenopodiaceæ, Cruciferæ, Leguminosæ section Astragalineæ, and Artemisioid Compositæ. The few trees consist of a Poplar and an occasional Juniper. The more common shrubs are Lonicera, Tamarix, Myricaria, and Hippophæe. The high alpine herbaceous flora is almost strictly Siberian, and is a little more varied and inferior than in other parts of this region, from the additional moisture derived from the melting of the snow. It extends sometimes even to a height of 18,500 feet." Thomson noticed *Biebersteinia odora* on the Roonung Pass in Kunawar, at 14,200 feet. Just below where the glacier terminated, a minute *Astragalus* was seen, with a *Lychnis* and two Grasses, and these were soon followed by a *Nepeta*, four species of *Potentilla*, a Fern, a *Gnaphalium*, and two *Carices*. These may be considered specimens of the most alpine vegetation on some of the mountains of India. On the Sikkim Himalaya Hooker found herbaceous plants sufficiently abundant in certain spots at 18,000 feet, and shrubby ones, as *Lonicera* and *Rhododendron*, at 17,000, along with *Gnaphalium* and *Ephedra*. A species of *Urtica* attains this elevation, as well as *Zannichellia* and *Ranunculus*. Compositæ are among the most alpine, this order being represented by species of *Gnaphalium*, *Saussurea*, *Artemisia*, and *Erigeron*, at 17,000 to 17,500 feet, together with *Astragalus* and *Valeriana*.†

1627. On the mountains of Kurdistan the following zones have been observed:—1. From the plains of Mesopotamia to the height of 1000 feet is the zone of *Glycyrrhiza*, *Robinia*, *Nigella damascena*, Wild Vine, Pistachio, Oleander, Rosa, Plane-tree, *Syringa argentea*, and the country of Rice, Grapes, Melons, Maize, &c. 2. From 1000 to 4000 feet, the zone of *Quercus* *Ægilops* and *infectoria*, and other Oaks, and the country of Pears, Apples, Plums, &c. 3. From 4000

* Trans. Brit. Assoc. 1851, p. 73.

† For full details relative to the Himalayan Flora, see Thomson's Travels in Thibet and Hooker's Journal of an Oriental Naturalist.

to 5000 feet, the zone of *Lonicera alpigena*, *Jasmine*, *Amygdalus nana* and *Astragalus verus*. 4. From 5000 to 7000 feet, the zone of *Astragalus Tragacantha*, *Rhamnus saxatilis*, *Pæony*, *Fennel*, *Primula Auricula*, *Eranthis hyemalis*, *Crocus alpestris*. 5. From 7000 to 9000 feet, the zone of *Saxifrages*, *Alchemilla alpina*, *Gentiana aclepiadea*, *Veronica aphylla* and *saxatilis*, and *Polytrichum septentrionale*.

1628. If we examine the vegetation of the mountains of Europe we shall find a series of similar changes. In the regions of the plains and lower hills of the Alps, extending to 1700 feet, the Vine grows; to this succeeds the zone of Chestnuts, which extends to 2500 feet; the zone of the Beech, and of the higher dicotyledonous trees, reaches from 2500 to 4000 feet; we then come to the sub-alpine region, the zone of Coniferae, extending to about 6000 feet, in which are found the Scotch Fir, the Spruce, the Larch, and the Siberian Pine, along with certain sub-alpine forms of herbaceous plants; next comes the alpine region, or the zone of shrubs, extending to 7000 feet, characterised by *Rhododendron hirsutum*, and *R. ferrugineum*, which represent the *Bejarias* of the Andes; finally, we reach the subnival region, extending to 8500 feet, and comprehending the part between the limits of shrubs and the snow-line, where we meet with numerous species of *Ranunculus*, *Draba*, *Saxifraga*, *Gentiana*, *Primula*, and *Poa*, besides other genera belonging to *Ranunculaceæ*, *Cruciferae*, *Caryophyllaceæ*, *Leguminosæ*, *Compositæ*, *Gramineæ*, *Lichenes*, and *Musci*. On some of the Alps we find flowering plants reaching to the height of between 10,000 and 11,000 feet or more. *Schlagintweit** found, on the central and southern Alps, at from 10,650 to 11,700 feet, *Androsace glacialis*, *A. helvetica*, *Cerastium latifolium*, *Cherleria sedoides*, *Chrysanthemum alpinum*, *Gentiana bavarica*, *Ranunculus glacialis*, *Saxifraga bryoides*, *S. oppositifolia*, and *Silene acaulis*. The extreme limit of Mosses in the Alps is in general little above that of Phanerogamous plants. The last Lichens are to be found on the highest summits of the Alps, attached to projecting rocks, without any limitation of height.

1629. On the Pyrenees the following zones are observed:—1. The zone of Vine and Maize cultivation, and of the Chestnut woods. 2. A zone extending from the limit of the Vine to about 4200 feet, at which limit the cultivation of Rye ceases; here we meet with *Buxus sempervirens*, *Saxifraga Geum*, *Erinus alpinus*, *Arnica montana*, &c. 3. From the limit of the cultivation of esculent vegetables at 4200 feet, to the zone of the Spruce Fir. 4. From the limit of the Spruce Fir zone at 6000 to 7200 feet, characterised by the presence of the Scotch Fir. 5. From 7200 to 8400 feet, is an alpine zone, characterised by the dwarf Juniper, *Draba aizoides*, *Saxifraga bryoides*, *Soldanella alpina*, *Juncus trifidus*, &c. 6. A zone above 8400 feet, exhibits a few alpine species, as *Ranunculus glacialis*, *Draba nivalis*, *Stellaria cerastoides*, *Androsace alpina*, and *Saxifraga grœnlandica*.

* *Pflanzengeographie Untersuchungen*. See *Annals Nat. Hist.* July 1861, and *Ilan. Trans.*

1630. Desmonsins, in his Flora of the Pyrenees, mentions the limits of several alpine species.

	French Feet.		French Feet.
Cochlearia pyrenaica	5500 to 6000	Parmelia chrysoleuca	5400 to 9000
Herniaria pyrenaica	3000 to 7500	" cartilaginea,	
Astragalus depressus	7500 to 8400	elegans, cinerea,	
Vicia pyrenaica	8500	badia	9000
Pedicularis pyrenaica	9000	Lecidea geographica	9000
Anictangium ciliatum	8400	Umbilicaria cylindrina	6000 to 9000

Massot gives the following limits of ligneous plants on the Canigou in the Pyrenees, which rises to the height of 9136 feet.

	Feet.		Feet.
Cultivation of Olive	1378	Lonicera Xylosteum	5134
Abundant cultivation of Vine	1804	Corylus Avellana	"
Euonymus europæus	"	Fagus sylvatica	5334
Acer monspessulanum	2296	Limit of cultivation of Potato,	
Attempted cultivation of Vine	2460	and Rye harvest in begin-	
Sarothamnus scoparius	"	ning of September.	"
Alnus glutinosa	2624	Amelanchier vulgaris	"
Castanea vesca	2624	Populus tremula	5380
Rye harvest middle of July	"	Pyrus Aucuparia	6029
Cornus sanguinea	"	Pinus Picea	6396
Ilex Aquifolium	3240	Sambucus racemosa	6768
Prunus spinosa	3444	Pinus Abies	7921
Cratægus Oxyacantha	4100	Genista purgans	"
Rubus fruticosus	4336	Rhododendron ferrugineum	8332
Pyrus Aria	5134		

1631. There are thus in lofty mountain districts evident belts of vegetation. At the lower part is the region of Lowland Cultivation, where the ordinary cultivated plants of the country thrive. In cold regions this is very limited, while in warm regions it is extended; on Teneriffe and Ætna it rises to 3000 feet, and includes the Vine district, while on the Andes its limit is from 5000 to 6000 feet. To this region succeeds that of Trees. In high northern latitudes, as at 70°, it reaches to between 700 and 800 feet; on Ætna to 6200; on the Andes to 10,800, and it is marked by Escallonia myrtilloides, Aralia avicennifolia, and Drymis Winteri; on the mountains of Mexico to 12,000 feet, and is marked by Pinus Montezumæ; on the south side of the Himalaya to 11,500, and on the north side to 14,000,—being limited on the former by Quercus semecarpifolia and Coniferae, and on the latter by the Birch. On the Pyrenees its limits are marked at about 7000 feet by Pinus uncinata, on the Alps at about 6000 feet by Pinus Picea, on the Caucasian mountains at 6700 feet, and in Lapland at about 1500 feet by the Birch. Next in order comes the Shrubby region, the limits of which in Europe are marked by Rhododendrons, which cease on the Alps at 7400 feet, and on the Pyrenees at 8332 feet; on the Andes it is limited by Bejarias and shrubby Compositæ,

at a height of 13,420 feet; on the south side of the Himalaya, by species of Juniper, Willow, and Ribes, at an elevation of 11,500 feet, and on the north side by *Genista versicolor*, at 17,000 feet. In Lapland, species of Willow and *Vaccinium*, with the dwarf Birch, reach 3300 feet. As *Rhododendron hirsutum* and *ferrugineum* succeed the arborescent vegetation of the Swiss Alps, and *R. ferrugineum* that of the Pyrenees, so does *R. lapponum* succeed the Conifers in Lapland and *R. caucasicum* on the Caucasus. The next region is that of Grasses,

which on the Andes and the Himalaya, extends to between 14,000 and 15,000 feet. On the Andes the limit of flowering plants may be said to be at about 13,000 or 14,000 feet; and there we meet with the yellow flowering *Compositæ*, *Culcitium rufescens*, *C. ledifolium*, and *C. nivale*, along with *Sida pichinchensis*, *Ranunculus nubigenus*, and *R. Gusmanni*, *Myrrhis Andicola*, and *Fragosa aretioides*. *Saxifraga Bous-singaulti* has been found on Chimborazo at the

height of 15,773 feet. In the Mexican part of the tropics the zone nearest snow exhibits *Cnicus nivalis*, and *Chelone gentianoides*; on the cold mountain region of New Grenada we meet with the woolly *Espeletia grandiflora*, *E. corymbosa*, and *E. argentea*, which represent the *Culcitiums* of the Andes. Finally, we come to the region of Cryptogamic plants, which extend to the snow-line, Lichens being the last plants met with.

1632. In contrasting the zones of altitude with those of latitude, Meyen gives the following regions of alpine vegetation:—The region of Palms and Bananas (equatorial) extending from the sea level to 1900 feet; the region of Tree-ferns and of Figs (tropical) 1900 to 3800 feet; the region of Myrtles and Laurels (subtropical) 3800 to 5700 feet; region of evergreen dicotyledonous trees (warm temperate) 5700 to 7600 feet; region of deciduous dicotyledonous trees

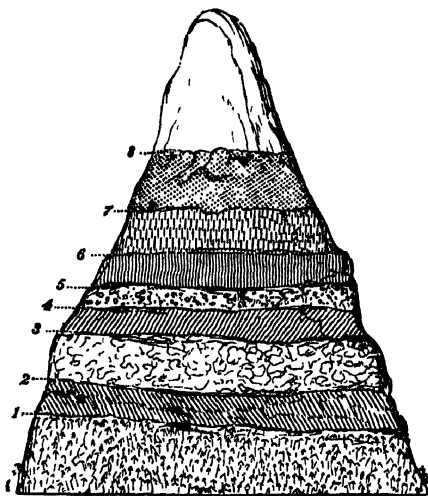


Fig. 1806.

Fig. 1806. Plan of a lofty mountain in the torrid zone, with a scale indicating the number of feet, each division of the scale being equal to about 1000 feet. 1, Region of Palms. 2, Region of Tree Ferns. 3, Regions of the Vines. 4, Limit of ordinary large trees. 5, Limit of Cinchona. 6, Shrubby region. 7, Region of Grasses. 8, Region of Lichens.

(cold temperate) 7600 to 9500 feet; region of *Abietinæ* (subarctic) 9500 to 11,400 feet; region of *Rhododendrons* (arctic) 11,400 to 13,300 feet; region of alpine plants (polar) 13,300 to 15,200. In Figure 1806, a representation is given of the forms of vegetation on a tropical mountain. No. 1 is the region of Palms and Bananas, which is 3000 to 4000 feet above the level of the sea, the temperature ranging from 81° to 71° . No. 2, the region of Tree-ferns, reaching to about 5000 feet, mean temperature 66° . No. 3 indicates the limit of the Vine in lat. $16^{\circ}.24'$ S. at about 7000 feet. No. 4, the limit of ordinary great trees, mean temperature being 61° . No. 5, limit of *Cinchona*, extending to 9000 or 10,000 feet on the Andes. No. 6, shrubby region, marked on the Andes by *Bejarias* at about 10,000 feet. No. 7, region of Grasses. No. 8, region of Lichens, and the snow-line at about 15,000 or 16,000 feet.

X—SCHOUW'S PHYTO-GEOGRAPHIC REGIONS.

1633. In dividing the globe into Phyto-geographic regions, Schouw takes into account the nature of the flora in regard to species, genera, and orders, irrespective of the effects they may produce on the physiognomy of the country. In constituting a botanical region, he lays down the principle that at least one-half of the species and one-fourth of the genera should be peculiar to it, and that individual orders should either be peculiar to it or reach their maximum in it. He constitutes 25 Regions:—1. Region of *Saxifragæ* and *Mosses*. 2. Region of *Umbelliferæ* and *Cruciferæ*. 3. Region of *Labiatae* and *Caryophyllaceæ*. 4. Region of *Asters* and *Solidagos*. 5. Region of *Magnolias*. 6. Region of *Camellias* and *Teas*. 7. Region of *Zingiberaceæ*. 8. Himalayan Alps. 9. Asiatic Islands. 10. Mountains of Java. 11. Islands of the Pacific. 12. Region of *Balsam trees*. 13. The Desert Region. 14. Region of Tropical Africa. 15. Region of *Cactuses* and *Peppers*. 16. Mountains of Mexico. 17. Region of the Medicinal Barks. 18. Region of *Calceolarias* and *Escallonias*. 19. West Indian Region. 20. Region of *Palms* and *Melastomas*. 21. Region of *Tree Compositæ*. 22. Antarctic Region. 23. Region of *Meembryanthemums* and *Stapelias*. 24. Region of *Epacridaceæ* and *Eucalypti*. 25. Region of New Zealand.

1634. REGION I.—The region of *Saxifragaceæ* (p. 822) and *Musci* (p. 957), or the Alpine Arctic Flora.—This embraces the north polar lands from the limits of ice to the zone of trees, or what is called the Arctic flora, in which *Carices* abound; and the upper parts of the mountains of Europe and northern Asia from the snow-line down to the arborescent belt, or the Alpine flora, in which *Primulaceæ* and *Phyteumas* are prevalent. The region in general is characterised by

the abundance of Mosses and Lichens, by the presence of Saxifragaceæ, Gentianaceæ, Caryophyllaceæ, Cyperaceæ, and Salicaceæ, by the total absence of tropical orders, by a marked decrease in the forms peculiar to the temperate zone, by forests of Coniferæ and Betulaceæ, by the small number of annual plants and the prevalence of perennial species, and by the liveliness of the colours of the flowers. The mean temperature of the arctic division is 41° to 66° , that of the alpine districts is 36° to 47° . In this region there is no cultivation.

1635. REGION II.—The region of Umbelliferæ (p. 824) and Cruciferæ (p. 758).—This extends over northern Europe and Asia from the southern limit of the last region to the Pyrenees, the Alps, the Balkan mountains, the Caucasus, and the Altai; the mean temperature being 36° to 57° . It is distinguished by the presence of Umbelliferous and Cruciferous plants. Coniferæ, Amentiferæ, Ranunculaceæ, Rosaceæ, and Fungi, are abundant. The trees are usually deciduous. In the northern part of this region Cichoraceæ prevail, while in its southern, as in Asiatic Russia, Cynarocephalæ, Astragaluses, and Saline plants seem to have their maximum. Barley, Oats, Rye, Wheat, and Buckwheat, are cultivated along with the ordinary fruit-trees and culinary vegetables of temperate regions.

1636. REGION III.—The region of Labiatæ (p. 866) and Caryophyllaceæ (p. 767) or the Mediterranean Flora.—This comprises the countries of the Mediterranean Sea, Spain, the south of France, Italy, Greece, Asia Minor, Egypt, the whole of northern Africa to the Sahara and the great Atlas chain, the Canaries, and Madeira. The upper mountain regions belong to Schouw's first region and the middle to his second. The mean temperature is 54° to 72° . The region is characterised by the prevalence of plants belonging to the Labiate and Clovewort orders. Species of Compositæ, Galiaceæ, and Boraginaceæ also abound, and there is an increase in the plants belonging to the orders Leguminosæ, Malvaceæ, Solanaceæ, Urticaceæ, and Euphorbiaceæ. Some tropical families are represented by Palms, Laurels, Arums, Pistacias, and Millet. It is the region of evergreen trees. In Spain species of *Cistus* are prevalent, in the south of France and in Italy aromatic Labiatæ and Scabiosas. Besides the plants cultivated in the last region, there are also Rice, Guinea-corn, the Olive, Fig, Almond, Orange, and Cotton. Among the plants of the Mediterranean flora, requiring both a warm summer and a warm winter, may be enumerated Oleander, Aloe, *Chamærops humilis*, *Phoenix dactylifera*, *Capparis*, *Ceratonia Siliqua*, *Cyclamen Clusii*, *Ornithogalum arabicum*, arborescent species of *Dianthus*, several Ferns; and of cultivated plants, *Ricinus communis*, Egg-plant, *Hibiscus esculentus*, *Capsicum*, *Acacia Farnesiana*, *Phaseolus Caracalla*, *Sterculia platanifolia*, and *Schinus Molle*. In the island of Madeira we meet with *Erica arborea*, *Vaccinium maderense*, and many peculiar species. Of 596 species inhabiting Madeira and Porto Santo 108 are endemic, and of the 108, 28 are common to Madeira and the Azores. Of the Azorean species

4-5ths are European, and may have been carried by man; of the remaining fifth nearly the whole are peculiar to the Azores or to the archipelago of the Atlantic Islands, which includes also Madeira and the Canaries. In the latter we meet with *Pinus canariensis*.

1637. REGION IV.—The region of *Asters* and *Solidagos*.—This extends over the northern part of North America from the limits of the first region to the parallel of 36° north. Besides the number of species of *Aster* and *Solidago* (belonging to *Compositæ*, p. 835), this region is marked by a great variety of Oaks and Firs, by numerous species of *Vaccinium*, by the smallness of the number of *Cruciferae*, *Umbelliferae*, *Cinchonaceae*, *Cynarocephalae*, and by the absence of the genus *Erica*. The mean temperature is 54° to 72°. In the northern part of the region there is no cultivation. In the southern the cultivated plants are similar to those of the second region, and *Maize* is very frequent.

1638. The Californian and Oregon districts, to the west of North America, constitute a region not yet fully explored. Many showy *Polemoniaceae* are found here; also *Eschscholtzia californica*, species of *Platystemon*, *Nemophila*, *Gilia*, *Collinsia*, *Clarkia*, *Bartonia*, and *Eutoca*. Many interesting *Coniferae* also occur, such as *Abies Douglasii*, *Pattoniana*, *nobilis*, *amabilis*, *grandis*, *lasiocarpa*, *Pinus Lambertiana*, *Sabiniana*, *insignis*, *Jeffreyi*, *ponderosa*, *monticola*, *californica*, *Fremontiana*, *Coulteri*, *flexilis*, *muricata*, *tuberculata*, *Libocedrus decurrens*, *Thuja gigantea*, *Sesquioia gigantea*, *Juniperus dealbata* and *occidentalis*, *Castanea chrysophylla*. In the upper Oregon districts Geyer enumerates *Umbelliferae*, *Scrophulariaceae*, *Asphodeleae*, *Polemoniaceae*, *Boraginaceae*, *Vacciniaceae*, *Ranunculaceae*, *Cruciferae*, *Onagraceae*, *Rosaceae*, *Polygonaceae*, *Labiatae*, *Caryophyllaceae*, *Compositae*, *Gramineae*, species of *Mahonia*, *Lewisia*, *Geranium*, *Ribes*, *Lobelia*, *Clintonia*, *Pentstemon*, *Camassa*, *Horkelia*, and *Eriogonum*. The bulk of the wood in upper Oregon is composed of *Pinus ponderosa*, and along with it occur *Abies balsamea*, *canadensis*, *Douglasii*, *nobilis*, and *alba*. In the basaltic plains of upper Oregon, Geyer says there are no *Papaveraceae*, *Urticaceae*, *Violaceae*, *Vitaceae*, *Solanaceae*, *Jasminaceae*, *Amaranthaceae*, *Elaeagnaceae*, *Oxalidaceae*. Vivid colours mark this region. Blue and purple eastward; scarlet with golden-yellow westward; glaucous green reigns in the herbage over the plains; deep saturated green in the valleys.* In Vancouver's Island, there are many interesting Pines and Oaks, also *Rhododendron macrophyllum*.

1639. REGION V.—The region of *Magnolias* (p. 750).—This embraces the southern part of North America between the parallels of 30° and 36°. Here we meet with numerous tropical forms, as *Zingiberaceae*, *Cycadaceae*, *Anonaceae*, *Sapindaceae*, *Melastomaceae*, and *Cactaceae*. From the corresponding latitudes in the Old World, it is further distinguished by a smaller proportion of *Labiatae* and *Caryophyl-*

* Hooker's Journal of Botany, 1846, et seq.

laceæ, and by having more trees with broad shining foliage and showy blossoms, such as *Magnolia*, *Liriodendron*, *Æsculus*, and with pinnated leaves, as *Robinia*, *Gleditschia*, and *Acacia*. Mean temperature 59° to 72°. The cultivated plants are the same as those of Schour's 3d region; Rice is a common grain here, and the Sugar-cane and Cotton are productive.

1640. REGION VI.—The region of *Ternstroemiaceæ* (p. 773) and *Celastraceæ* (p. 794) or the Japanese region.—This extends between the parallels of 30° and 40° north latitude, and embraces Japan, the north of China, and Chinese Tartary, constituting the eastern temperate parts of the Old World. The flora seems to be intermediate between that of the Old and the New World. The vegetation is more tropical than European, for we meet with *Zingiberaceæ*, *Musaceæ*, *Palmeæ*, *Cycadaceæ*, *Anonaceæ*. The genera *Camellia*, *Thea* (Figs. 1420 and 1421, p. 773), *Citrus*, *Rhamnus*, and *Lonicera*, are abundant. Among the more characteristic species are *Eriobotrya japonica* the Loquat, *Cryptomeria japonica*, *Salisburia adiantifolia*, *Pæonia Moutan*, *Anemone japonica*, *Stillingia sebifera* the Tallow-tree, *Camphora officinalis*, *Azalea sinensis*, *Wistaria sinensis*, *Gossypium religiosum*, *Enkianthus quinqueflorus*, *Cymbidium sinense*, *Pinus sinensis*, *P. Jezöensis*, *Juniperus rigida*, *J. chinensis*, *Podocarpus Nageia*, and species of *Biota*. The mean temperature is 54° to 68°. The cultivated plants are Wheat, Barley, Oats, Rice, Millet, and Buckwheat, the ordinary fruits of temperate climates, along with the Orange, Melon, and Cotton.

1641. REGION VII.—The region of *Zingiberaceæ* (p. 921) or the Indian Flora.—This embraces India, the island of Ceylon, and the south-eastern peninsula, to the height of 4500 to 5500 feet above the level of the sea. There are here numerous species belonging to the Ginger order as well as to *Leguminosæ*, *Cucurbitaceæ*, and *Tiliaceæ*. The Coco-nut, Mangosteen, Turmeric, Cinnamon, Cotton, Indigo, Clove, and Pepper, are abundant. In the island of Ceylon we meet with *Salvadora persica*, *Feronia Elephantum*, *Thespesia populnea*, *Chloroxylon Swietenia*, *Schleucheria trijuga*, and *Borassus flabelliformis*. Rice and various kinds of Millet and Guinea-corn are cultivated in this region. Mean temperature 65°.75 to 81°.50.

1642. The south of China and Cochín-China may be considered as a distinct region. It partly resembles that of India, but contains many peculiar plants. In the island of Formosa occurs *Aralia papyrifera* the Rice-paper plant; near Hong Kong are found *Chirita sinensis*, *Rhodoleia Championi*, *Arundina sinensis*, *Spathoglottis Fortuni*, *Cunninghamia sinensis*, *Olea fragrans*, *Campanula grandiflora*, *Brassica chinensis*, *Enkianthus reticulatus*, and the Litchi and Longan fruits.

1643. REGION VIII.—The Emodic region.—This embraces the alpine region of India south of the ridge of the Himalaya, including Sirmore, Gurwal, Kemaon, Nepal, and Bhotan, to a height of from 4500 to 10,700 feet above the level of the sea. Some European

species are met with in these high districts, for instance, *Ranunculus accleratus*, *Nasturtium officinale*, *Veronica Anagallis*, and *Polygonum amphibium*. *Cedrus Deodara*, *Pinus excelsa*, *P. longifolia*, *Picea Webbiana*, and other *Coniferae*, along with *Chamaerops Khayana*, species of *Oak*, *Dammar*, *Rhododendron*, *Berberis*, *Primula*, &c., also occur. In the lower parts of the region tropical plants grow. The mean temperature is 87° to 66°. Many European grains and fruits are cultivated along with mountain Rice.

1644. REGION IX.—The region of the Asiatic Islands.—This comprises the mountainous districts of the islands between the south-eastern peninsula and Australia, to a height of 5500 feet above the level of the sea. *Myristica moschata*, *Dryobalanops Camphora*, and *Dammara orientalis*, grow in this region. Much of it is still unexplored. The same plants are cultivated as in India, and we also find *Carica Papaya* (Fig. 1494, p. 815), *Artocarpus incisa* (Fig. 1658, p. 890), *Jatropha Manihot*, *Broussonetia papyrifera*, *Gossypium vitifolium*. The mean temperature is 66° to 84°.

1645. REGION X.—The region of Upper Java.—This comprehends those districts of the island of Java, and probably also the numerous islands of the Asiatic archipelago, having an absolute elevation of 5500 feet above the level of the sea. Little is known in regard to the vegetation.

1646. REGION XI.—The Polynesian region.—This comprises all the islands of the Pacific ocean within the tropics. Among the plants of this region may be mentioned *Artocarpus incisa*, *Tacca pinnatifida* the Pia, which yields a kind of Arrow-root, *Cocos nucifera* (Fig. 166, p. 70), *Lodoicea seychellarum* (Fig. 1277, p. 640), *Jambosa malaccensis* the Ohiaai, and many species of *Arum*, *Dioscorea*, *Musa*, and *Ficus*. The genera *Dissochaeta*, *Orophea*, *Pterisanthes*, *Arthrophyllum*, and *Visenia*, occur in this region. The mean temperature is 72° to 82°. Many valuable fruits are cultivated as food. In the Sandwich Islands, belonging to the Hawaiian group, nearly one-third of the vegetation is composed of Ferns. There are three Palms, the Coco-nut and two species of *Livistona*. The rest of the flora consists of Myrtles, Grasses, Sedges, Mimoseæ, and Arums. *Acacia heterophylla*, called Koa, yields durable timber. The root of *Dracæna terminalis*, called Ki, is eaten. The fruit of *Physalis pubescens* is used; also the fruit of *Pandanus odoratissimus*, called Lahala; that of *Osteomeles anthyllifolia*, the Ulei; that of *Morinda citrifolia*, the Noni; and that of *Morus indica*, the Kilica. *Colocasia esculenta*, the Kalo, is used as a vegetable. Cloth is made from *Broussonetia papyrifera* and *Boehmeria albida*, cordage from *Paritium tillaceum*, water-flasks from *Lagenaria vulgaris*, and *Macropiper methysticum* is the great remedy for diseases. Peculiar Compositæ, Lobeliaceæ, Goodeniaceæ, and *Cyrtandrea*, are met with in those islands.

1647. REGION XII.—The region of Amyridaceæ (p. 798).—This includes the south-western part of the highlands of Arabia. In

the flora are many trees yielding gum and balsamic resins, such as species of *Mimosa*, *Acacia*, *Balsamodendron*, and *Amyris*. Coffee and the Sensitive-plant occur here. In this district are cultivated Maize and Millet, the Date, the Vine, Sugar-cane, Cotton, and Indigo.

1648. REGION XIII.—The Desert region.—This comprehends northern Africa, to the south of the Atlas Mountains, between lat. 15° and 30° north, and the northern part of Arabia. *Phoenix dactylifera* (Fig. 1743, p. 934) and *Hyphæne thebaica* (Fig. 1745, p. 935) are characteristic plants of the region. The cultivation of Guinea-corn, Wheat, Millet, and other grains of the south of Europe and India, is confined to the banks of the Nile and the Oases. The mean temperature is 72° to 86° .

1649. REGION XIV.—The region of tropical Africa.—This comprises that part of Africa which lies between 15° north latitude and the Tropic of Capricorn, or more correctly, between the northern and southern limits of periodical rains, with the exception of Abyssinia and the unknown countries of the interior. On the western part of this region, *Elais guineensis* the Palm-oil plant (Fig. 82, p. 37), and *Adansonia digitata* the Baobab (Fig. 176, p. 73), grow. Vogel noticed near Cape Coast Castle, *Arachis africana*, *Bignonia tulipifera*, *Euphorbia drupifera*, *Hibiscus populneus*, and *Blighia sapida* the Akee. He also mentions in this West African flora, *Sarcocephalus esculentus*, *Schmidelia africana*, *Borreria kohautiana*, and a species of *Stylosanthes*. On the coast of Guinea and Congo, the flora is intermediate between that of America and Asia, but chiefly resembling the latter. Species of *Sorghum*, *Sterculia acuminata* the Kola-nut, and the Poison-bean of Calabar, belong to this region. Near Abbeokouta, Dr. Irving noticed in cultivation, Cotton, Indigo, Tobacco, Sugar-cane, Ginger, Yams, Cassada, Rice, Maize, Guinea-corn, Arrow-root, Bananas, Coco-nuts, Papaw, Oranges, Pine-apples, Bamboo, and *Hibiscus esculentus* or Ochro. On the eastern part of this region, which includes Madagascar, we meet with *Tanghinia venifera*, species of *Ambora*, *Danais*, *Didymomeles*, *Dombeya*, *Dufourea*, and *Senacea*. The mean temperature of the region is 72° to 86° .

1650. REGION XV.—The region of Cactaceæ (p. 819), and Piperaceæ (p. 894).—This embraces Mexico, Guatemala, the Isthmus of Panama, and South America as far as the river Amazon, and to an elevation of 5500 feet above the level of the sea, between lat. 30° N. and the equator. Guiana, New Grenada, and certain parts of Peru are included. Cactuses and Peppers abound in this region. Seemann says that the Isthmus of Panama is characterised in part by the leaves of the plants being covered with hair and tomentum, by the abundance of greenish, yellow, and white flowers, and by the numerical superiority of Leguminosæ, Melastomaceæ, Compositæ, Cinchonaceæ, Orchidaceæ, and Filices. In the northern part of South America, *Mauritia flexuosa*, the Murichi or Ita Palm, is found. In this region, as well as in the whole of the warm parts of eastern

South America, *Victoria regia* (Fig. 235, p. 107) occurs. *Phytelphas macrocarpa*, the vegetable ivory palm, is a native of Columbia and Peru; Humboldt found it in New Grenada, and on the banks of the Magdalena river. *Anona Cherimolia* yields the Cherimoyer, a famous Peruvian fruit. Many tropical plants are cultivated here, such as Maize, Guinea-corn, Yams, Plantains, Coco-nut, Chocolate, Vanille, Sugar, Coffee, and Cotton.

1651. REGION XVI.—The region of the Mexican Highlands.—This embraces the districts of Mexico which have an elevation of more than 5500 feet above the level of the sea. Some important Coniferæ are met with here, such as *Pinus religiosa*, *P. apulcensis*, *P. Hartwegii*, *P. Montezumæ*, and *Taxodium distichum*. The mean temperature is 64° to 78°. Maize and many European grains and plants are cultivated.

1652. REGION XVII.—The region of Cinchonas or medicinal Bark-trees (p. 829). This comprehends the Cordilleras of South America, between the parallels of 5° N. lat. and 20° S. lat., at an elevation of 5000 to 9600 feet. The mean temperature is 59° to 68°. The Cinchona region is seen on Humboldt's map, which is appended. Here the various kinds of yellow, red, and pale Bark thrive. In the lower part of the region Coffee and Maize are cultivated, and in the higher regions the European grains and fruits, along with the Potato and the *Chenopodium Quinoa*. *Ceroxylon Andicola* (Fig. 83, p. 37) is also found in this region of the Andes.

1653. REGION XVIII.—The region of Escallonias (p. 822) and Calceolarias (p. 866).—This comprises the highest districts in South America above the upper limit of Cinchonas. The mean temperature varies from 59° to 84°. Besides Escallonias and Calceolarias, we meet with many alpine plants, such as species of *Gentiana*, *Ranunculus*, *Saxifraga*, *Stellaria*, *Draba*, *Potentilla*, *Lobelia*, *Geranium*, *Salvia*, *Tussilago*, *Espeletia*, *Aster*, also *Drimys Winteri*, *Junci*, *Carices*, and Grasses.

1654. REGION XIX.—The West Indian region.—This region comprehends the West Indian Islands, the flora of which may be said to be intermediate between that of Mexico and the northern parts of South America. Ferns and Orchids prevail. Mean temperature 59° to 78°. Many tropical fruits are met with, such as Mango, Guava, Banana, Avocado-pear, and Custard-apple. The cultivated plants are the same as those in the 15th region.

1655. REGION XX.—Region of Palms (p. 934) and Melastomas (p. 808).—This comprises that part of South America to the east of the Andes which lies between the equator and the tropic of Capricorn. Mean temperature 59° to 82°. Here we have the luxuriant Brazilian flora, as illustrated in Humboldt's map; Palms, Melastomaceæ, Myrtaceæ, Tree-ferns, and Crotons, form the thick underwood, and beneath these, delicate herbaceous Ferns. *Dorstenias*, *Heliconias*, with a few tall Grasses, are found in the open parts. Arborescent *Solanums*, *Vernonias*, and large Compositæ, species of *Ficus*, *Laurus*, *Cassia*,

Lasiandra, *Solandra*, and *Fuchsia* occur. Gardner states,—“In place of the few Mosses and Lichens which cover the trunks and boughs of the forest trees of temperate climes, in Brazil they are bearded from the roots to the very extremities of the smallest branches, with Ferns, Araceæ, Tillandsias, Cactuses, Orchids, Peperomias, Gesneras, and other epiphytic plants. Many large trunks are encircled with twining stems of Bignonias, and shrubs of similar habit; the branches of which frequently become thick, and compress the tree so much, that it perishes in the too close embrace.” On the mountains of Minas Geraes, species of *Vellozia*, *Lichnophora*, and *Eriocaulon*, give a peculiar feature to the vegetation. Tropical plants are cultivated.

1656. REGION XXI.—The region of arborescent Compositæ.—This embraces South America on both sides of the Andes from the tropic of Capricorn to lat. 40° south. In it are included the southern part of Brazil, La Plata, and Chili. Mean temperature 59° to 75°. In many respects the flora resembles that of the mountainous districts, in the presence of *Calceolarias*, *Escallonias*, species of *Weinmannia*, *Buddlea*, and *Campanula*. In Chili there are many genera which also are represented in Australia and at the Cape of Good Hope; among which may be noticed *Protea*, *Gunnera*, *Goodenia*, *Arancaria*, and *Ancistrum*. *Araucaria imbricata*, the Banksian or Chili Pine, is a hardy Conifer of this district, extending on the Chilian Andes from 37° to 40° S. lat. *Thuja chilensis* occurs on the mountains of south Chili. In this region we also meet with *Thuja tetragona* the Alerce of Chili, and *Podocarpus chiliana*. *Araucaria brasiliana* is found on the mountains near Rio Janeiro in the province of St. Pauls. Many European plants are cultivated; among others, Wheat, the Vine, and the Peach.

1657. REGION XXII.—The Antarctic region.—This embraces the southern part of America, the straits of Magalhaens, Tierra del Fuego or Fuegia, the Falkland Islands, and others more to the south. Mean temperature 41° to 46°. Many mountainous plants are found in this region. The vegetable forms of the north temperate and arctic zones prevail. Species of *Saxifraga*, *Gentiana*, *Arbutus*, and *Primula*, with many other European genera, abound. In Fuegia the Evergreen Beech, *Fagus Forsteri*, which never sheds its coriaceous foliage, is a very prevalent tree, also the Deciduous Beech, *Fagus antarctica*, the leaves of which change colour and fall, and *Drymis Winteri* (Fig. 1858, p. 750). These three trees occupy exactly the same position in Fuegia that the Birch, Oak, and Mountain Ash do in Scotland. The vegetation of Fuegia includes a number of British plants, though 106 degrees of ocean roll between, and some of the species in question inhabit no intermediate latitudes. The genera are in a great measure identical with those of Britain. Fuegia is the native place of the *Fuchsia*. In the Falkland Islands there are about 120 flowering plants, consisting chiefly of those found on the mountains of Fuegia, and

on the acid coast and plains of Patagonia. Grasses and *Bolax glebaria* the Balsam-bag (one of the Umbelliferae), form the chief botanical features. *Dactylis cespitosa*, the Tussock-grass (Fig. 1767, p. 949), appears, Hooker remarks, like a forest of miniature Palms. It forms hillocks about six feet high, and 4-5 in diameter, some of the blades of grass being six feet long. *Bolax glebaria* forms hard hummocks four feet high and the same diameter, which give out a balsamic resinous smell. Their form and occurrence on this barren soil has given rise to the name of Misery-balls. Among shrubby plants may be noticed *Veronica elliptica* and *decussata*, *Chilictrichum amelloides*, *Empetrum rubrum*, and *Pernetia empetrifolia*. Of Ferns, *Lomaria alpina* and *L. magellanica* are found. Lichens abound, and the *Usnea melaxantha* forms a miniature shrubbery on the rocks. In the islands farther south, Mosses and Lichens form the chief flora.

1658. REGION XXIII.—The region of *Mesembryanthemum* (p. 818) and *Stapelia* (p. 852).—This embraces southern Africa from the tropic of Capricorn to the Cape Coast. Mean temperature 55° to 73°. Besides species of *Mesembryanthemum* and *Stapelia* (Fig. 1570, p. 852), there are a prodigious number of species of *Erica*. The latter genus attains its maximum here. We also meet with species of *Gnaphalium*, *Elichrysum*, *Pelargonium*, and *Aloe*, with plants belonging to the orders Iridaceæ, Bruniaceæ, and Selaginaceæ. *Pachylepis cupressoides* and *P. juniperoides* are Cape Conifers. *Thalictrum caffrorum* and *Conium africanum* are South African species. On Table Mountain at the Cape, peculiar species of *Disa* are found. Many European grains and fruits are in cultivation along with *Sorghum caffrorum* and *Convolvulus Batatas*. In Natal, where the mountains rise to nearly 10,000 feet, Krauss distinguishes a coast or forest region where species of *Rhizophora*, *Avicennia*, *Ficus*, *Tabernæmontana*, *Zygia*, and *Phoenix reclinata*, are found; a hilly pasture region with species of *Acacia*, *Aloe*, *Euphorbia*, *Andropogon*, and tropical Leguminosæ, Labiatæ, Acanthaceæ, and Scrophulariaceæ; a mountainous region with species of *Podocarpus*, *Ixia*, *Hypoxis*, *Watsonia*, also Ferns, Cyperaceæ, Orchids, Proteaceæ, and Geraniaceæ.

1659. REGION XXIV.—The region of *Epaoridaceæ* (p. 848) and *Eucalypti* (p. 810).—This comprehends Australia beyond the tropics with the island of Tasmania or Van Diemen's Land. Mean temperature 52° to 72°. The number of known Australian plants amounts to about 7000 or 8000. Müller makes the following observations on the flora of Australia.* The flora of Australia approaches in its tropical portion to the plants of India, and in its extra-tropical portion to those of South Africa. The flora may be divided into a western, southern, eastern, and Tasmanian flora. In the western districts Leguminosæ and Proteaceæ predominate, forming one-fourth of the entire vegetation; and Grasses are rare. In the southern flora, Compositæ and Leguminosæ abound along with *Salsolæ*, *Myoporaceæ*, *Haloragaceæ*,

* Hooker's Journal of Botany, or Kew Garden Miscellany, 1853, p. 65.

Caryophyllaceæ, and Cruciferae. The genus *Mesembryanthemum* is here seen as a connecting link with the South African flora; *Nitraria*, with the Siberian, and *Crantzia* with the North American flora. In the eastern flora Proteaceæ and Epacridaceæ are found, with fewer Compositæ than in the south, and a larger number of Ferns and Grasses than in the western district. On Brisbane mountains, near Moreton Bay, we meet with *Araucaria* (*Eutassa*) *Bidwillii*, the Bunya-Bunya, and in the same district *Araucaria* (*Eutassa*) *Cunninghami*, the Moreton Bay Pine. The Tasmanian flora is an insular one. Ferns abound, Goodeniaceæ are scarce, Loranthaceæ and Cæsalpinieæ are wanting. Plants are found belonging to the natural orders Stackhousiaceæ, Tremandraceæ, Proteaceæ, Styliaceæ, Myrtaceæ, Restiaceæ, Diosmeæ, Casuarinaceæ, and Mimoseæ. In South Australia Compositæ form 1-8th of the whole vegetation; Compositæ and Leguminosæ form together one-third of the whole of the Dicotyledons. Nearly 100 of the plants now growing wild have been introduced from Europe and the Cape. The introduction of European culture is changing the aspect of Australia as well as its climate. Rain now falls where none did before. The flora of South Australia has been divided into two marked forms, that of the Grass-land and that of the Scrub. Grass-land resembles European pastures. Along with it there are associated light park-like forests of Eucalypti, with their smooth stems robbed of their outer bark, standing at regular intervals, and their crowns never in contact with each other. In poorer soil Casuarinas grow, also gummiferous Acacias, as *A. retinoides* and *pyncantha*, and species of *Bursaria*, and *Grevillea*, along with occasional *Melaleucas* or *Leptospermums*, especially in the beds of rivers dried up in summer. The Scrub shows no turf; a few scattered *Stipas* and *Neurachnes* constitute the only grasses. There is profusion of bushes and small trees. The plants have a heath-like foliage or vertically-placed leaves, and their colour is of a dead blue-green in general. The Palm forms which occur in Australia are species of *Livistona*, *Seafurthia*, and *Corypha*. In the British colonies of Australia the European grains and fruits are cultivated. In Norfolk Island, which may be connected with the Australian flora, *Araucaria* (*Eutassa*) *excelsa*, the Norfolk Island Pine (Fig. 59, p. 26) grows to a great size. Van Diemen's Land contains 10 *Coniferae* endemic to the island, according to Hooker. These are *Callitris australis*, Oyster-Bay Pine, 50-70 feet high; *C. Gunnii*, native Cypress, 6-10 feet; *Arthrotaxis selaginoides*, *A. cupressoides*, and *A. laxifolia*; *Microcachrys tetragona*, 15-20 feet; *Podocarpus alpina*, *P. Lawrencii*; *Phyllocladus asplenifolia*, celery-topped or Adventure Bay Pine, 50-60 feet; *Dacrydium Franklinii*, Huon Pine, 60 to 100 feet high, with a diameter of 2 to 3 feet. The banks of the Huon river are clothed with the loftiest and most valuable timber-trees of the colony. Sir John Ross measured some trees 180 feet high and 28 in circumference. One tree was shown to him which exceeded 200 feet in height, and was 38 feet in circumference about 3 feet from the ground.

1660. **REASON XXV.**—The region of New Zealand.—This includes the islands of New Zealand and those which are adjacent. Between lat. 34° and 36° S, the mean temperature is 61° to 63°. Here we meet with *Phormium tenax*, the New Zealand Flax-plant (Fig. 48, p. 24), *Corypha australis*, the southern Palm, abundance of Ferns, many of them arborescent, species of *Dracæna*, and many *Myrtaceæ*. The New Zealand *Coniferæ* consist of *Dammara australis*, Kauri, Cowdie, or Kauri Pine, *Podocarpus spicata*, Mai or Matai, *P. ferruginea*, Miro or Maira, *P. Totarra*, *Totarra*, *P. dacrydioides*, *Kaikatia*, and others; also *Dacrydium cupressinum*, the Dimon Pine, *D. Colensoi*, *D. laxifolium*, and *Phyllocladus trichomanoides*, *Tauehaha*. Many European plants are cultivated. The known flora of New Zealand amounts to about 1900 or 2000 species, of which 730 are flowering plants, thus making Phanerogams to Cryptogams nearly as 2 to 3. The Phanerogamous flora of New Zealand shows a large amount of absolutely peculiar or endemic plants, which are said by Hooker to amount to 507 species, and to constitute more than 2-3ds of the whole. Among the orders to which the endemic species belong may be noticed *Coniferæ*, *Scrophulariaceæ*, *Epacridaceæ*, *Compositæ*, *Araliaceæ*, *Umbelliferaæ*, *Myrtaceæ*, and *Ranunculaceæ*. The remaining 1-3d of the flora is thus analysed by Hooker—193 species are Australian, 89 are South American, 77 species common to both these countries, 60 are European, and 50 are species of the Antarctic Islands, *Fuegia*, &c. Among the peculiar genera of New Zealand are enumerated *Anisotoma*, *Hoheria*, *Phormium*, *Carmichaelia*, *Tupeia*, and *Alseuosmia*. In New Zealand there are of European species 60 Phanerogams, 50 Mosses, 13 *Hepaticæ*, 45 *Algæ*, 50 *Fungi*, and 100 *Lichens*.* The flora of the Auckland group and Campbell's Island may be considered as a continuation of that of New Zealand, differing only in being more typical of the antarctic regions. In the Auckland group the country is generally covered by *Pteris esculenta*, *Leptospermum scoparium*, *Phormium tenax*, and *Cordyline stricta*. We also meet with *Vitex littoralis*, *Knightia excelsa*, species of *Metrosideros*, the Kauri Pine, *Cyathea dealbata*, *Areca sapida*, and numerous Ferns. Some European plants, as *Cardamine hirsuta*, *Montia fontana* and *Callitriche*, are found. The woods consist of 4 or 5 species of trees or large shrubs, which are enumerated by Hooker in the order of their abundance. 1. *Metrosideros lucida*. 2. *Dracophyllum longifolium*. 3. *Panax simplex*. 4. *Ve-*

* See full details, along with interesting views of the distribution of plants, in Hooker's *Flora of New Zealand*, Introductory Remarks. Hooker, who adopts the view of specific centres, endeavours to account for the plants found in the New Zealand Flora, by assuming that there was at one time a land communication by which the Chilean plants were interchanged; that at the same or another epoch the Australian, at a third the Antarctic, and at a fourth the Pacific floras were added to the assemblage. The presence of antarctic plants on the lofty mountains is accounted for by attributing this to a change of climate, induced by changes in the relation between sea and land. The presence of a large continent connecting the antarctic islands, would render New Zealand as cold as Great Britain during the glacial epoch. The isolation of New Zealand afterwards would lead to an amelioration of climate, and at the same time to the retirement of the plants to the summit of the New Zealand mountains.

ronica elliptica. 5. *Coprosma foetidissima*. Under the shade of these, near the sea-beach, about 15 different Ferns grow abundantly, the most remarkable of which is *Aspidium venustum*.

XI.—ZONES OF MARINE VEGETATION.

1661. The ocean, as well as the land, possesses its vegetable forms, which are of a peculiar kind, and exist under different conditions of pressure, of surrounding medium, and of light. Some seaweeds, Harvey remarks, are cosmopolitan or pelagic, as species of *Ulva* and *Enteromorpha*, which are equally abundant in high northern and southern latitudes, as they are under the equator, and in temperate regions. *Codium tomentosum*, *Ceramium rubrum*, *C. diaphanum*, species of *Ectocarpus*, and several *Confervæ*, have a range nearly as wide. *Plocamium coccineum* and *Gelidium corneum* are common to the Atlantic and Pacific oceans; *Rhodymenia palmata*, the common Dulse of Britain, is found at the Falkland Islands and Tasmania. *Fucus tuberculatus* extends from Ireland to the Cape of Good Hope; *Fucus vesiculosus* occurs on the north-west coasts of America, and on the shores of Europe; while *Desmarestia ligulata* is found in the north Atlantic and Pacific oceans, as well as at the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn. Many Diatomaceæ are distributed from pole to pole. In the antarctic ocean, Hooker found the siliceous coats of Diatoms constituting a bank which stretched 200 miles north from the base of Victoria Barrier, at an average depth of 1800 feet.

1662. In general, however, Sea-weeds are more or less limited in their distribution, so that different marine floras exist in various parts of the ocean. Lamouroux estimates the marine species at 5000 to 6000, and he has shown that they are distributed in various regions. The northern ocean, from the pole to the 40th degree, the sea of the Antilles, the eastern coasts of South America, those of New Holland, the Indian Archipelago, the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, the Chinese and Japanese seas, all present so many large marine regions, each of which possesses a peculiar vegetation. The degree of exposure to light, and the greater or less motion of the waves, are very important in the distribution of Algæ. The intervention of great depths of the ocean has a similar influence on sea plants as high mountains have on land plants. *Laminariæ* are confined to the colder regions of the sea; *Sargassa* only vegetate where the mean temperature is considerable. Under the influence of the gulf-stream, *Sargassum* is found along the east coast of America, as far as lat. 44°; and the cold south polar current influences the marine vegetation of the coasts of Chili and Peru, where we meet with species of *Lessonia*, *Macrocystis*, *D'Urvilleæ*, and *Iridææ*, which are characteristic of the antarctic flora. *Melanospermeæ*, according to Harvey, increase as we approach the tropics, where the

maximum of the species, though, perhaps, not of individuals, is found; Rhodospereæ chiefly abound in the temperate zone; while Chlorospereæ form the majority of the vegetation of the polar seas, and are particularly abundant in the colder temperate zone. The green colour is characteristic of those Algæ, which grow either in fresh water or in the shallower parts of the sea; the olive-coloured Algæ are most abundant between the tide-marks; while the red-coloured species occur chiefly in the deeper and darker parts of the sea.

1663. Marine vegetation varies both horizontally and vertically, but less so than land plants, owing probably to the more uniform temperature. The ocean has been divided into different provinces of marine vegetation:—1. The Northern Ocean, from the pole to the 60th parallel of north latitude. 2. The North Atlantic, between the 60th and 40th parallels, which is the province of the species of *Fucus* proper. 3. The Mediterranean, which is a sub-region of the warmer temperate zone of the Atlantic, lying between the 40th and 23d northern parallels. 4. The tropical Atlantic, in which *Sargassum* abounds. 5. The Antarctic American regions from Chili to Cape Horn, and the whole circumpolar ocean south of the 50° of latitude. 6. The Australian and New Zealand province. 7. The Indian Ocean and Red Sea. 8. The Japan and China seas; besides certain provinces in the Pacific.

1664. As regards perpendicular direction, Forbes remarks, that one great marine zone lies between high and low water-marks, and varies in species according to the kind of coast, but exhibits similar phenomena throughout the northern hemisphere. A second zone begins at low water-mark, and extends to a depth of 7 to 15 fathoms. This is the region of the large *Laminarias* and other *Fuci*. Marine vegetation, including the lower forms, extends to about 50 fathoms in the British seas; to 70, 80, or 100, in the Mediterranean and the Ægean Sea. Ordinary Algæ, however, seem scarcely to exist below 50 fathoms. Diatomaceæ exist in the deep abysses of the ocean, and *Nullipora* and *Corallines* increase as other Algæ diminish, until they characterize a zone of depth, where they form the whole obvious vegetation. Forbes gives the following instances of the depth to which marine vegetation extends in the Mediterranean:—*Codium flabelliforme* and *Microdictyon umbilicatum*, 30 fathoms; *Rityphlæa tinctoria*, *Chrysymenia uvaria*, *Dictyonemia volubilis*, and *Constantinea reniformis*, 50 fathoms; *Nullipora polymorpha*, 95 fathoms. As we descend in the ocean, we reach apparently a zero of vegetable life.

1665. The distribution varies also in a latitudinal or horizontal direction. *Chorda Filum* lies in beds of 15 to 20 miles in length, and only about 600 feet in breadth, in the North Sea and the British Channel. *Sargassum bacciferum* constitutes the Gulf-weed, which has been noticed by all who have crossed the Atlantic. The *Sargasso* Sea occupies the eddy or whirl caused by the revolution of the current in the Atlantic, and occupies a space of 260,000 square miles.

There are two principal banks of Gulf-weed;—one, the largest, extending from 25° to 36° of north latitude, and a little west of the meridian of Fayal; the other, a short way west of the Bahamas, between the 22d and 26th degrees of latitude. The Gulf-weed has never been found attached, but always floating. In that state it is healthy, pushing out new fronds, but no fructification has been seen. Harvey conjectures that it may be a pelagic variety of *Sargassum vulgare*, in the same way as the variety *subcostatus* of *Fucus vesiculosus* has never been found attached, but growing in salt marshes. The most remarkable of marine plants, both for their size and the extent of their range, are the *Macrocystis pyrifera* and the *Laminaria radiata*. Immense masses of the *Macrocystis*, like green meadows, are found in every latitude. It ranges from the antarctic to the arctic circle through 120 degrees of latitude. It requires a mean depth of 6 or 9 fathoms. Many specimens have been seen 300 feet long. Hooker estimated some, in a strait between the Crozet Islands, at 700 feet. It girds the globe in the southern temperate zone, but not in the tropics nor in the northern hemisphere. The tribe *Fucoideæ* abounds towards the poles, and there the plants attain their greatest bulk, diminishing rapidly towards the equator and ceasing some degrees from the Line itself. *Cystoseiræ* represent the *Fucoideæ* in the higher latitudes of the southern hemisphere. Hooker remarks, that throughout all latitudes the two tribes *Fucoideæ* and *Cystoseiræ* form the prevailing marine vegetation, and that the genera of north cool zones are represented by others in the south. The genera *Fucus* and *Himanthalia*, in the north, are represented by *D'Urvillæa* and *Sarcophycus* in the south; so also the genera *Cystoseira* and *Halidrys* of the former are represented by *Cystophora* and *Scytothalia* in the latter. *Laminarias* abound in the antarctic ocean and northwards to the Cape of Good Hope. The red, green, and purple Lavers of the British seas are found at the Falkland Islands. *Lessonia*, with a stem 10 feet long and 12 inches in circumference, and its fronds 2-3 feet long and about 3 inches broad, is found in immense masses off the Patagonian regions. *D'Urvillæa utilis* is another large antarctic Sea-weed, which, along with *Lessonia*, is often found at the Falkland Islands, formed by the surf into enormous vegetable cables, several hundred feet long, and thicker than the human body. The stems of *Lessonia*, when washed ashore, look like dead wood. Of the strictly antarctic marine plants, Hooker has identified 1-5th with those of Britain. In the north-west American Sea we meet with the remarkable *Nereocystis*, consisting of a very long thread-like stalk bearing a large vesicle and fronds; while in the Australian and New Zealand regions we have the peculiar genera of *Cystophora*, *Hormosira*, *Lansburghia*, and others.

1666. The marine vegetation of the Mediterranean, compared with that of the neighbouring seas, presents a somewhat peculiar aspect. Species which inhabit the Red Sea scarcely occur in the Mediterranean, with the exception of certain cosmopolites which are almost universally

distributed. The genera which are most characteristic of the Red Sea and most numerous in species, *Sargassum* and *Caulerpa*, are represented in the Mediterranean by very few, and those distinct, species. The difference is also great between the marine vegetation of the Mediterranean and Atlantic. The genus *Fucus*, which abounds in the Atlantic, is altogether wanting in the Mediterranean, or represented by mere floating specimens, which assume, however, a peculiar form in the Adriatic. Many species of *Floridææ* which abound in the open seas do not adorn the rocks in the Mediterranean.

XII.—DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS IN BRITAIN.

1667. The climate of Britain is warmer than that of other places in the same parallel of latitude. Its most striking feature is the absence of extremes, either as regards cold or heat. It is, generally speaking, mild and damp. Dove gives the following statement as to the monthly excess of temperature in the British Isles, above the respective average temperature of other places in the same parallel of latitude :—

January.	Orkney, 31°.5 ; Edinburgh, Dublin, 27° ; London, 18°.
February.	Orkney, 27° ; Edinburgh, Dublin, 22°.5 ; London, 18°.
March.	Orkney, 22° ; Aberdeen, Glasgow, Dublin, 18°, London, 14°.
April.	Orkney, 13° ; Middle of England and Ireland, 9°, London, 6°.
May.	Great Britain and Ireland, 5°.6°.
June.	Great Britain and Ireland, 2°.
July.	Great Britain and Ireland, 2°.
August.	Great Britain and Ireland, about 3°.
September.	Great Britain, 4°.5° ; Ireland, 3°.
October.	Great Britain and Ireland, 9° to 14°.
November.	North of Scotland, 22°, Edinburgh, Dublin, 18°, London, 14°.
December.	Hebrides, 27°, Orkney, Dublin, 22°, Cornwall, 18°, London, 16°.

—While the winters are mild, the heat of the three summer months, June, July, and August, in which the growth and ripening of crops take place, is by no means great, being very little above that due to the latitude. The heat of these months is most important. It should be noticed that the day and night may be both mild during these months, and thus give rise to a high average temperature. But the important thing is to have high temperature during the day, even although the nights are cool. The eastern coasts of Britain partake more of the continental climate, while on the western the climate is of an insular and equable character. The mean temperature varies from 46° to 52° F. Some of the mountains rise to the height of 4400 feet, and

there is a fall of 1° of the thermometer for every 240 or 250 feet of ascent. The number of Phanerogamous species of plants amounts to about 1600, while the Cryptogamous are about 2800.

1668. In considering the distribution of British plants as regard areas, Watson divides Britain (excluding Ireland and the Channel Islands) into 18 provinces, or groups of counties which together constitute the basin of a principal river, or have some other physical peculiarity in common. In each of these provinces he notices the heights attained by the loftiest mountains. The details connected with those provinces are given in his *Cybele Britannica*. Many of the British species appear to have been introduced, and some appear to have little claim to be included in the flora. Hence Mr. Watson distinguishes—1. Native species, apparently aboriginal, such as *Corylus*, *Calluna*, *Bellis*, *Teesdalia*. 2. Denizen species, doubtfully native, although maintaining their habitats without the aid of man, as *Aconitum*, *Pæonia*, *Viola odorata*, *Impatiens noli-me-tangere*. 3. Colonist species, or weeds occurring in cultivated land and about houses, perhaps owing their presence to the operations of man, as *Adonis*, *Papaver*, *Agrostemma*. 4. Alien species, originally introduced, although now more or less naturalised, as *Sempervivum*, *Mimulus*, *Hesperis*, *Camelina*. 5. Incognitæ, or species reputed British but requiring confirmation, as *Ranunculus gramineus*, *Gentiana acaulis*, *Tussilago alpina*, *Echinophora spinosa*.

1669. According to the nature of the localities in which British plants grow, they have been thus divided by Watson:—1. Pratal, plants of meadows or rich and damp grass lands, as *Geranium pratense*; 2. Pascual, plants of pastures and grassy commons, as *Trifolium repens*; 3. Ericetal, plants of moors and heaths, as *Calluna* and *Erica*; 4. Uliginal, plants of swamps and boggy ground, as *Drosera* and *Pinguicula*; 5. Lacustral, immersed or floating plants, as *Subularia* and *Nymphæa*; 6. Paludal, plants of wet marshy ground, as *Typha*; 7. Inundatal, plants of places liable to be inundated in wet weather, as *Nasturtium terrestre*; 8. Viatical, plants of roadsides and rubbish heaps, as *Lamium album* and *Urtica dioica*; 9. Agrestal, plants of cultivated ground, as *Papaver*; 10. Glareal, plants of dry exposed ground, chiefly gravel or sand, as *Ornithopus* and *Sedum acre*; 11. Rupestral, rock and wall plants, as *Cotyledon* and *Asplenium Ruta-muraria*; 12. Septal, hedge plants, as *Bryony*; 13. Sylvestral, plants of woods, as *Paris*; 14. Littoral, plants of the sea-shore, as *Statice* and *Convolvulus Soldanella*.

1670. Taking a general view of the distribution of British flowering plants and Ferns (excluding the Hibernian and Sarnian species), Watson recognises the following types:—1. British type—species widely spread over Britain—found in all or nearly all the 18 provinces, and forming probably 2-5ths of the British species, such as *Alnus glutinosa*, *Betula alba*, *Corylus Avellana*, *Salix caprea*, *Rosa canina*, *Lonicera Periclymenum*, *Hedera Helix*, *Sarothamnus scoparius*, *Calluna vulgaris*, *Ranunculus acris*, *Cerastium triviale*, *Potentilla Tor-*

mentilla, *Trifolium repens*, *Stellaria media*, *Lotus corniculatus*, *Bellis perennis*, *Senecio vulgaris*, *Carduus palustris*, *Leontodon Taraxacum*, *Mycosotis arvensis*, *Prunella vulgaris*, *Plantago lanceolata*, *Polygonum aviculare*, *Urtica dioica*, *Potamogeton natans*, *Lemna minor*, *Juncus effusus*, *Carex panicea*, *Poa annua*, *Festuca ovina*, *Anthoxanthum odoratum*, *Pteris aquilina*, *Polypodium vulgare*, *Lastrea Filix-mas*. 2. English type—species chiefly or exclusively found in England, and decreasing in frequency northwards, constituting about 1-5th of the whole flora, as *Rhamnus catharticus*, *Ulex nanus*, *Tamus communis*, *Bryonia dioica*, *Hottonia palustris*, *Chlora perfoliata*, *Sison Amomum*, *Moenchia erecta*, *Linaria Elatine*, *Ranunculus parviflorus*, *Lamium Galeobdolon*, *Hordeum pratense*, *Alopecurus agrestis*, *Ceterach officinarum*, besides very local plants such as *Cyperus longus* and *Cicendia filiformis*. 3. Scottish type—species chiefly prevalent in Scotland or the north of England, forming about 1-20th of the flora, as *Empetrum nigrum*, *Rubus saxatilis*, *Trollius europæus*, *Geranium sylvaticum*, *Trientalis europæa*, *Habenaria albida*, *Haloscias scoticum*, *Mertensia maritima*; also *Primula farinosa*, *Goodyera repens*, *Corallorhiza innata*, and *Saxifraga Hirculus*, which are comparatively limited in their distribution and partial in their localities; besides some very local plants such as *Arenaria norvegica*, *Primula scotica*, and *Ajuga pyramidalis*. 4. Highland type—species either limited to the Scottish Highlands or extending to the mountains of the north of England and Wales; a more boreal flora than the last, the species being especially limited to the mountains or their immediate vicinity, and forming probably about 1-15th of the flora, as *Azalea procumbens*, *Veronica alpina*, *Alopecurus alpinus*, *Phleum alpinum*, *Juncus trifidus*, *Sibbaldia procumbens*, *Eriogon alpinus*, *Gentiana nivalis*; to these may be added the following, which, however, descend also lower, *Salix herbacea*, *Silene acaulis*, *Saxifraga stellaris*, *Oxyria reniformis*, *Thalictrum alpinum*, *Luzula spicata*, *Juncus triglumis*, *Rubus Chamæmorus*, *Epilobium alsinifolium*, *Draba incana*, *Dryas octopetala*, *Alchemilla alpina*; likewise some very local species, as *Lychnis alpina* and *Oxytropis campestris*. 5. Germanic type—species chiefly seen in the east and south-east of England (bounded by the German ocean eastward)—forming about 1-15th or 1-20th of the flora, as *Frankenia laevis*, *Anemone Pulsatilla*, *Reseda lutea*, *Silene noctiflora*, *Silene conica*, *Bupleurum tenuissimum*, *Pimpinella magna*, *Pulicaria vulgaris*, *Lactuca Scariola*, *Halimus pedunculatus*, *Aceras Anthropophora*, *Ophrys aranifera*, *Spartina stricta*; also very local plants such as *Veronica verna*. 6. Atlantic type—species found in the west and south-west of England and Wales, having a tendency to the western or Atlantic parts of the island—forming about 1-15th or 1-20th of the flora, as *Sinapis monensis*, *Matthiola sinuata*, *Raphanus maritimus*, *Sedum anglicum*, *Cotyledon Umbilicus*, *Eufragia viscosa*, *Pinguicula lusitanica*, *Euphorbia Peplis* and *E. Portlandica*, *Scirpus Savii*; also more limited species, as *Sibthorpia europæa*, *Erica vagans*, *E. ciliaris*, *Physospermum cornubiense*, *Polycarpum tetraphyl-*

lum, *Adiantum Capillus-Veneris*, *Cynodon Dactylon*. 7. Local or doubtful type—species which cannot be referred to any of the preceding types, as *Potentilla rupestris*, *Lloydia serotina*, confined to peculiar mountains in Wales, *Draba aizoides* and *Cotoneaster vulgaris*, found on the rocky coasts of Wales very locally, *Draba muralis* and *Hutchinsia petræa*; also *Eriocaulon septangulare*, found in the Isle of Skye, and formerly included under Watson's Hebridean type. If Ireland and the Channel Islands are also taken into account, Hibernian and Sarnian types would be added.

1671. On ascending lofty mountains in Britain, there is a marked variation in the nature of the vegetation. On Ben-muich-Dhui, which attains an elevation of upwards of 4000 feet, Watson gives a full list of the species observed in succession. On leaving the plants of the low country we find *Myrica Gale*, extending on this mountain to 1400 feet, and in succession we come to the upper limits of the following species:—*Erica cinerea*, *Pinus sylvestris*, *Carex pauciflora*, *Pedicularis sylvatica* at 1838 feet, *Tofieldia palustris*, *Erica Tetralix*, at 2370 feet, *Arctostaphylos Uva-Ursi*, *Thalictrum alpina*, *Vaccinium Vitis-Idæa*, *Hieracium alpinum*, *Juniperus communis var. nana*, at 2660 feet, *Potentilla Tormentilla*, *Calluna vulgaris*, at 2690 feet, *Azalea procumbens*, *Armeria maritima*, *Cochlearia grœnlandica*, *Arabis petræa*, *Rubus Chamæmoris*, *Epilobium alpinum*, *E. angustifolium*, *Vaccinium uliginosum*, *Sibbaldia procumbens*, *Saxifraga stellaris*, *Alchemilla alpina*, *Empetrum nigrum*, *Juncus trifidus*, *Gnaphalium supinum*, and on the summit *Silene acaulis*, *Carex rigida*, *Luzula arcuata* and *L. spicata*, *Salix herbacea*.

1672. A very full list has been given by Watson of the plants of the Grampians, viewed in their relations to altitude.* Examples of the altitudinal limits of some alpine species are given below:—

	Lower Limit.	Upper Limit.		Lower Limit.	Upper Limit.
	Feet	Feet		Feet.	Feet.
<i>Thalictrum alpinum</i>	1050	3900	<i>Astragalus alpinus</i>		2700
<i>Draba rupestris</i>	8700	8900	<i>Oxytropis campestris</i>		2100
— <i>incana</i>	2000	3800	<i>Dryas octopetala</i>	2500	2700
<i>Thlaspi alpestre</i>		2400	<i>Potentilla alpestris</i>	1600	2700
<i>Arabis petræa</i>	2000	3200	<i>Rubus Chamæmoris</i>	1750	3800
<i>Cochlearia grœnlandica</i>	0	3900	<i>Sibbaldia procumbens</i>	1500	4200
<i>Silene acaulis</i>	1250	4800	<i>Alchemilla alpina</i>	450	4200
— <i>maritima</i>	0	3800	<i>Epilobium alpinum</i>	1400	3900
<i>Lychnis alpina</i>		3200	— <i>alsinifolium</i>	800	2900
<i>Alsine rubella</i>	2550	3900	<i>Sedum Rhodiola</i>		3900
<i>Cherleria sedoides</i>	2550	3900	<i>Saxifraga cernua</i>	8750	3900
<i>Spergula saginoides</i>	1950	2550	— <i>rivularis</i>	8000	3600
<i>Stellaria ceratoides</i>	2700	3900	— <i>nivalis</i>	2000	4000
<i>Cerastium alpinum</i>	2550	3900	— <i>hypnoides</i>	1200	3900
— <i>latifolium</i>	8000	3750	— <i>oppositifolia</i>	950	4000

* Hooker's Lond Journ. of Bot i 50 and 341

	Lower Limit.	Upper Limit.		Lower Limit.	Upper Limit.
	Feet.	Feet.		Feet.	Feet.
<i>Saxifraga stellaris</i>	1400	4800	<i>Luzula spicata</i>	1800	4850
— <i>compitosa</i>		8900	<i>Juncus trifidus</i>	2000	4200
— <i>algoides</i>		8150	— <i>castaneus</i>	2400	3000
<i>Cornus suecica</i>	1750	2850	— <i>biglumis</i>	2700	3800
<i>Gnaphalium supinum</i>	1400	4350	— <i>triglumis</i>	1750	2700
<i>Erigeron alpinus</i>	2450	2700	<i>Carex rupestris</i>	2100	2700
<i>Saussurea alpina</i>	2000	4000	— <i>Vahlil</i>	2400	2550
<i>Apargia Taraxaci</i>	2800	3000	— <i>leporina</i>		3600
<i>Hieracium alpinum</i>	1850	8000	— <i>rigida</i>	1850	3900
<i>Mulgedium alpinum</i>	2300	2850	— <i>Persoonii</i>		3600
<i>Vaccinium uliginosum</i>	1500	3800	— <i>aquatilis</i>	900	3800
<i>Phylodoce cœrulea</i>		2700	— <i>saxatilis</i>	2550	3150
<i>Asalea procumbens</i>	1850	3550	— <i>atrata</i>	2500	3600
<i>Arctostaphylos Uva-Ursi</i> ..		2850	— <i>vaginata</i>	2400	3000
— <i>alpina</i>	1850	2700	— <i>capillaris</i>	1700	2700
<i>Gentiana nivalis</i>	2500	3900	— <i>rariflora</i>	2400	3000
<i>Bartsia alpina</i>	1800	3000	<i>Poa alpina</i>	2500	3900
<i>Veronica alpina</i>	2500	3600	— <i>Balfourii</i>		3000
— <i>saxatilis</i>	2200	2700	— <i>laxa</i>	3000	3600
— <i>humifusa</i>	2000	3750	<i>Alopecurus alpinus</i>	2100	3600
<i>Myosotis alpestris</i>	3100	3900	<i>Phleum alpinum</i>	2100	3600
<i>Armeria maritima</i>		3600	<i>Aira alpina</i>	2700	4100
<i>Plantago maritima</i>		1350	<i>Sesleria cœrulea</i>		2700
<i>Oxyria reniformis</i>	800	3900	<i>Lycopodium annotinum</i>		2700
<i>Empetrum nigrum</i>		3900	— <i>alpinum</i>		3600
<i>Salix arenaria</i>	1050	2550	<i>Asplenium viride</i>		2850
— <i>lanata</i>	2400	2700	<i>Polystichum Lonchitis</i>		3800
— <i>reticulata</i>	2550	3300	<i>Cystopteris montana</i>		3000
— <i>herbacea</i>	1850	4350	<i>Allosorus crispus</i>		3000
<i>Betula nana</i>	1650	2700	<i>Polypodium alpestre</i>	2000	3000
<i>Tofieldia palustris</i>	1050	2550	<i>Woodsia hyperborea</i>		2700
<i>Luzula arcuata</i>		4350	<i>Pteris aquilina</i>		1950

1673. Considering British plants in climatic or ascending zones, they are divided by Watson into—

I. AGRARIAN REGION—limited generally by the *Pteris aquilina*, and indicating the region of Corn cultivation. In the Highlands it may be said to extend as high at least as 1200 feet.

It is subdivided into three zones :—

1. *Infer-agrarian Zone*—embracing all the country southward from the Dee and Humber, except the mountainous parts of Wales, and the higher hills and moors in the provinces of the Severn and Peninsula (including Gloucester, Worcester, Warwick, Stafford, Hereford, Monmouth, Cornwall, Devon, and Somerset). Some of the peculiar species are *Clematis Vitalba*, *Rubia peregrina*, *Cyperus longus*, *Erica ciliaris*, *Sibthorpia europæa*, and *Scilla autumnalis*.
2. *Mid-agrarian Zone*—all the low grounds, clear from the mountains, situate between the entrance of the Clyde and Tay on the north, and those of the Humber and Dee on the south, also probably a narrow coast-line of the East Highlands, extending from Perth to Aberdeen, and possibly even to Inverness. Also a narrow belt extending round the hills of Wales. *Rhamnus catharticus* and *Frangula*, *Tamus communis*, *Bryonia dioica*,

Acer campestre, *Ulex nanus*, *Viburnum Lantana*, *Eucrymus europæus*, and *Cornus sanguinea*, occur in this zone, but are not restricted to it. There is no *Clematis*.

3. *Super-agrarian Zone*—coast-line and low plains and moors in the north and north-west of Scotland, where alpine plants descend to the sea shore; such as *Thalictrum alpinum*, *Draba incana*, *Saxifraga oppositifolia*, *Arctostaphylos alpina*, and *Dryas octopetala*. Also other parts where the elevation of the ground leads to the production of the same species, or of such plants as *Arctostaphylos Uva-Ural*, *Saxifraga stellaris*, *Alchemilla alpina*, *Tofieldia palustris*, *Juncus triglumis*. Also tracts of slight elevation in the proximity of high mountains, upon which a corresponding flora prevails. At its lower limits appear *Ilex*, *Corylus*, *Quercus*, *Fraxinus*, *Lonicera*, *Cratægus*, and fruticose *Rubi*.

II. ARCTIC REGION—characterised by the absence of Corn cultivation.

1. *Infer-arctic Zone*—this has its terminal line at the limit of *Erica Tetralix*.
2. *Mid-arctic Zone*—space above the limit of *Erica Tetralix*, and within or below that of *Calluna vulgaris*. In this zone most of the rare alpine plants are found, such as, *Saxifraga nivalis*, *Gentiana nivalis*, *Erigeron alpinus*, *Astragalus alpinus*, *Veronica alpina*, *Alopecurus alpinus*, &c.
3. *Super-arctic Zone*—above the limit of *Calluna*, characterized by *Saxifraga cernua* and *rivularis*, and *Luzula arcuata*.

1674. These six climatic zones are thus presented in a tabular form :—

I. AGRARIAN REGION.

1. *Infer-agrarian Zone*—*Clematis*, *Rubia*, *Cyperus longus*.
2. *Mid-agrarian Zone*—*Rhamnus catharticus* without *Clematis*
3. *Super-agrarian Zone*—*Pteris aquilina* without *Rhamnus*, &c.

II. ARCTIC REGION.

4. *Infer-arctic Zone*—*Erica Tetralix* without *Pteris*.
5. *Mid-arctic Zone*.—*Calluna vulgaris* without *Erica*.
6. *Super-arctic Zone*—*Salix herbacea* without *Calluna*.

1675. Edward Forbes has followed Watson in his views of distribution, and has promulgated a theory in regard to the origin of the flora of Britain.* He considers the vegetation of Great Britain and Ireland as composed of several floras, which are to be reckoned outposts separated by geological changes from more extended areas. The following five floras, according to him, make up the vegetation of Britain and Ireland : 1. A west Pyrenean flora (Iberian or Asturian type), confined to the mountainous districts of the west and south-west of Ireland, characterized by botanical peculiarities, which depend on the presence of a few prolific species belonging to the families *Saxifragaceæ*, *Ericaceæ*, *Lentibulariaceæ*, and *Cruciferae*. The nearest parts where these plants are native is the north of Spain. The species are *Saxifraga umbrosa*, *S. elegans*, *S. hirsuta*, *S. Geum*, *S. hirta*, *S. affinis*, *Erica Mackaiana*, *E. mediterranea*, *Daboecia polifolia*, *Arbutus Unedo*, *Pinguicula grandiflora*, *Afabis ciliata*. 2. A flora in the south-west of England and

* Forbes on the connexion between the distribution of the existing Fauna and Flora of the British Isles and certain Geological changes, Mem. Geol. Society of Great Britain, 1. 286.

south-east of Ireland (Armorican type), which is intimately related to that of the Channel Isles and the neighbouring coast of France (Brittany and Normandy). This is Watson's Atlantic type. In the Channel Isles, we have such peculiar plants as *Ranunculus ophioglossifolius*, *Sinapis Cheiranthus*, *Erucastrum incanum*, *Arthrobium ebracteatum*, *Linaria pelisseriana*, *Echium violaceum*, *Orchis laxiflora*, *Gymnogramma leptophylla*, &c. Again, in the south-west of England, we meet with *Helianthemum polifolium*, *Tamarix gallica*, *Hypericum linarifolium*, *Oxalis corniculata*, *Corrigiola littoralis*, *Physospermum cornubiense*, *Lobelia urens*, *Scilla autumnalis*, *Trichonema Columnæ*, &c. While in the south-east of Ireland the following plants connect the flora with that of Devonshire and Cornwall:—*Matthiola sinuata*, *Senebiera didyma*, *Linaria Elatine*, *Sibthorpia europæa*, *Erica vagans*, *Cicendia filiformis*, and others. 3. The flora of the south-east of England, where the rocks of the Cretaceous system are chiefly developed, and in which many species occur common to this district and the opposite coast of France. This corresponds nearly to Watson's Germanic type. Among the characteristic plants may be noticed, *Thlaspi perfoliatum*, *Linum perenne*, *Genista pilosa*, *Inula Conyza*, *Centaurea Calcitrapa*, *Phyteuma orbiculare*, *Gentiana Pneumonanthe*, several species of *Verbascum*, *Salvia pratensis*, *Ajuga Chamæpitys*, and many chalk Orchids. 4. An alpine flora (Boreal or Scandinavian type), developed chiefly on the mountains of Scotland, and also partially on those of Cumberland and Wales. The species found on the latter are all, with the exception of *Lloydia serotina*, inhabitants also of the Scotch Highlands. The Scotch alpine all occur in Scandinavia, where they are associated with numerous additional species. This flora corresponds nearly to Watson's Highland type. This flora is represented in Shetland by *Arenaria norvegica*, and in Orkney by *Primula scotica*. It is largely developed on the Scottish Alps, the species being those already noticed at page 1028. 5. The general flora of the British islands, identical with that of central and western Europe, and which is called a Germanic flora. It corresponds to Watson's British, English, and Scottish types. It is a flora which overspreads many local floras throughout Europe, and gives a general character to the vegetation by the presence of such common species as *Bellis perennis*, *Primula vulgaris*, *Ranunculus acris*, *B. Ficaria*, *Cardamine hirsuta*, and our most common trees and shrubs. Certain species are more limited in their distribution, and characterize particular districts. Some are limited to the eastern counties of England, others occur in Scotland and England, and not in Ireland. Certain species flourish best on limestone, others in sandy soils.

1676. There are in Britain a few sporadic plants, which are met with only in one or two localities. Thus *Oxytropis campestris* is limited to a single rock in Glen Fiadh, Clova; *Lychnis alpina* to a small alpine summit, Little Gilrannoch; *Astragalus alpinus* to a rock in Glen Dole, Clova, and to Little Craigindal, a mountain in Braemar; *Saxifraga cernua* to the summit of Ben Lawers; *Eriocaulon septan-*

galère to the Isle of Skye in Scotland, and to Connemara in Ireland. The last-mentioned plant belongs to an American genus, and is supposed by some to have migrated from the New World.

1677. Forbes endeavours to prove that the specific identity, to any extent, of the plants of one area with those of another, depends on both areas forming, or having formed, part of the same specific centre, or on their having derived their vegetable population by transmission, through migration, over continuous or closely contiguous land, aided, in the case of alpine floras, by transportation on floating masses of ice. According to him, "the oldest of the floras now composing the vegetation of the British isles, is that of the mountains of the west of Ireland. Though an alpine flora, it is southernmost in character, and is quite distinct as a system from the floras of the Scottish and Welsh Alps. Its very southern character, its limitation, and its extreme isolation, are evidences of its antiquity, pointing to a period when a great mountain barrier extended across the Atlantic from Ireland to Spain. The distribution of the second flora, next in point of probable date, depended on the extension of a barrier, the traces of which still remain, from the west of France to the south-east of Britain, and thence to Ireland. The distribution of the third flora depended on the connexion of the coast of France and England towards the eastern part of the channel. Of the former existence of this union no geologist doubts. The distribution of the fourth, or alpine flora of Scotland and Wales, was effected during the glacial period, when the mountain summits of Britain were low islands, or members of chains of islands, extending to the area of Norway through a glacial sea, and clothed with an arctic vegetation, which in the gradual upheaval of those islands and consequent change of climate, became limited to the summits of the new-formed and still existing mountains. The distribution of the fifth, or Germanic flora, depended on the upheaval of the bed of the glacial sea, and the consequent connexion of Ireland with England, and of England with Germany, by great plains, the fragments of which still exist, and upon which lived the great elk, and other quadrupeds now extinct. The breaking up or submergence of the first barrier led to the destruction of the second; that of the second to that of the third; but the well-marked epoch of migration of the Germanic flora indicates the subsequent formation of the straits of Dover and of the Irish Sea, as now existing."

1678. "To determine the probable geological epoch of the first or west-Irish flora—a fragment, perhaps with that of north-western Spain, of a vegetation of the true Atlantic—we must seek among fossil-plants for a starting-point. This we get in the flora of the London clay, or Eocene, which is tropical in character, and far anterior to the oldest of the existing floras. The geographical relations of the Miocene sea, indicated by the fossils of the crag, give an after-date certainly to the second and third of the above floras, if not to the first. The epoch of the red or middle crag was probably coeval with the second flora; that of the mammaliferous crag with the third. The

data of the fourth is too evident to be questioned; and the glacial region in which it flourished is to be regarded as a local climate, of which no true traces—as far as animal life is concerned—exist southwards of the second and third barriers. This was the newer Pliocene epoch. The period of the fifth flora was that of the post-tertiary, when the present aspect of things was organised. Adopting such a view of the relations of these floras in time, the greatest difficulties in the way of changes of the earth's surface and destruction of barriers, deep sea being found where land (probably high land) was, are removed when we find that those greater changes must have happened during the epoch immediately subsequent to the Miocene period; for we have undoubted evidence that elsewhere, during that epoch, the Miocene sea-bed was raised 6000 feet in the chain of Taurus, and the barriers forming the westward boundary of the Asiatic Eocene lakes so completely annihilated, that a sea several hundred fathoms deep now takes their probable place. The changes required for the events which are supposed to be connected with the peculiar distribution of the British flora are not greater than these. The distribution of endemic animals, especially that of the terrestrial mollusca, seems to support these views."

1679. While there are evident and distinct features in the plants which constitute the floras of different parts of Britain, there are many difficulties to be overcome before we can adopt the speculative views of Forbes. The connection between the Tertiary and the present epoch is not made out as far as the species of plants are concerned, and we are disposed to look upon the existing flora of the globe as a distinct and independent one. Schouw differs from Forbes in his explanation of the flora of the British islands. He does not believe in the migration and geological changes to which Forbes alludes. He thinks that the west and south-west coast of Britain and Ireland had at first a mild climate, especially in winter, and that in consequence plants were produced there common to the analogous climates of Spain and the south of France; while the Scotch and English mountains were distinguished throughout by a polar climate, and produced nearly the same vegetation as the Lapland and Scandinavian mountains.

1680. D'Arochac* says, that in a botanical point of view, it would perhaps be desirable to determine whether the external circumstances under which the five floras of Great Britain now live, such as latitude, altitude, temperature, winds, humidity or dryness, exposure, nature of the soil, greater or less distance from the coast, &c., are altogether insufficient to explain their different characters. We know that plants have very different geographical limits. Thus there are some which we meet with over an extent of 25° in latitude, and much more in longitude, while others occupy only zones extremely restricted in both senses; it would, therefore, be useful to study the five British floras in this point of view. The radiation of plants from a centre is

* *Hist. des Progrès de la Géologie de 1804 à 1845*, II. 128. Paris. 1846. *Edin. New Phil. Journal*, xlviii. 23.

by no means satisfactorily proved; and it may be asked, for example what is the original centre from which the species common to North America and southern Europe could have radiated? D'Archiac thinks that inconvenience arises from an attempt to give an account of facts hitherto inexplicable in our science, by drawing from another science suppositions made, as it appears, with the sole view of these explanations, and for which there is no sufficient authority. Proofs drawn from geology must rest on more certain data, he thinks, than those which have been adduced by Professor Forbes.

1681. Martins considers the flora of Britain as a derivative one, originating partly from Europe, and partly from America. Arctic plants, he thinks, have been carried from Greenland, by Iceland and the Faroe Islands, to Shetland and the mountains of Scotland; and have also been transported from Scandinavia. A few species, such as *Eriocaulon*, have been carried by the Gulf Stream from America to the western coast of Britain, while the great mass of the flora has been derived from the continent of Europe. Martins accounts for the transport of seeds to Britain by the following agents:—
1. Currents. These are concerned in distribution of maritime and littoral plants. These currents carry seeds to a great distance. The Gulf Stream carries seeds from America to shores of Scotland. Seeds of *Entada scandens* are thus wafted to the western islands. M. Martins has picked these seeds at North Cape, and they have also been picked on the shores of White Sea, and on the shores of Iceland.
2. Winds are another means of transport. On 2d September 1845, at 9 A. M., there was an eruption of Hecla in Iceland; and, on the morning of 3d September, ashes were carried by the N.W. wind to the Faroe Islands. On the same day similar ashes were found in Shetland and Orkney. A similar occurrence took place in February 1847. Such a wind would easily transport small seeds.
3. Agency of birds. Myriads of sea-birds, during the whole summer, leave the shores of Europe, and repair to Shetland, Faroe, and Iceland; among them may be mentioned, species of *Larus*, *Mormon*, *Alca*, *Uria*, *Procellaria*, *Tringa*, *Anas*, *Lestris*, *Colymbus*, *Sterna*, &c., many of which pick up seeds.

1682. Martins mentions as examples of an Alpine flora passing from Greenland to Scotland by Iceland and Faroe, *Thalictrum alpinum*, *Draba incana*, *Silene acaulis*, *Cerastium latifolium*, *Sedum Rhodiola*, *Saxifraga oppositifolia*, *Sibbaldia procumbens*, *Haloscias scoticum*, *Azalea procumbens*, *Empetrum nigrum*, *Gymnadenia albida*, *Poa alpina*, &c. &c. He also gives the following tabular view of the number of European and American-European species found in Shetland, the Faroe Islands, and Iceland:—

	Shetland, Faroe, and Iceland	146	American-European	142
			European	4
Species common to	Shetland and Faroe	87	American-European	19
			European	13
	Shetland and Iceland	40	American-European	84
			European	6
	Faroe and Iceland	67	American-European	63
			European	4

Species peculiar to	Shetland	74	{	American-European	84
				European	40
	Faroe	31	{	American-European	19
				European	12
	Iceland	122	{	American-European	108
				European	24

1683. The marine flora of Britain, with the exception of such plants as *Zostera*, *Zannichellia*, and *Naias*, is Cryptogamic, and does not present very definite zones of distribution. Cryptogamic plants in general can endure great vicissitudes of climatal conditions. Species of *Ulva*, *Enteromorpha*, and other genera seem to be universally distributed from pole to pole. There are, however, Algæ of a higher type which are more limited, and the diffusion of which is determined by lines of coast and depth of water. British marine vegetation presents two well marked types according to Forbes, a southern and a northern. The genera *Padina* and *Halysieris* have their northern limit on the south coast of England, where they are rare. The genera *Cystoseira*, *Sporochnus*, *Cutleria*, and certain species of *Sphacelaria*, *Mesogloia*, *Rhodymenia*, *Gigartina*, and *Dictyota*, mark out a southern region, including the British Channel and part of the east coast, the Bristol Channel, and the south and west of Ireland; while the presence of *Odonthalia dentata*, *Rhodomela cristata*, *R. lycopodioides*, and *Fucus Mackaii*, characterise a northern flora, on the coasts of Scotland, the north of England and of Ireland.

1684. On the shores of Britain, Dr. Greville remarks, it is easy to perceive that some species, as *Gelidium corneum*, *Phyllophora rubens*, and *Sphærococcus coronopifolius*, become more plentiful and more luxuriant as we travel from north to south; and, on the other hand, that *Ptilota plumosa*, *Rhodomela lycopodioides*, *Rhodymenia sobolifera*, and several others, occur more frequently and in a finer state as we approach the south. *Odonthalia dentata* and *Rhodymenia cristata* are confined to the northern parts of Great Britain, while the species of *Cystoseira*, *Fucus tuberculatus*, *Halysieris polypodioides*, *Rhodymenia jubata*, *R. Teedii*, *Microcladia glandulosa*, *Rhodomela pinastroides*, *Laurencia tenuissima*, *Iridæa reniformis*, and many others, are confined to the southern parts. The proportion of the different marine plants on the shores of Britain are as follows:—*Melanospermæ* 1-5th, *Rhodosperrmæ* 3-8ths, and *Chlorosperrmæ* 1-4th of the whole.

1685. Dickie, in speaking of the British Algæ which have a southern type, says that they may be classed under three heads—1. Those confined to the southern parts of Great Britain and Ireland; 2. Species of a more extensive range, which extend to the north of Ireland and south-west of Scotland; and 3. Those found abundantly in the south of England, and ranging along the western coasts of both islands as far as Orkney and Shetland. The species comprehended under these three heads, and amounting to at least 20, seem to be absent from a certain part of the east coast of Scotland. A considerable portion

of them re-appear in Shetland and Orkney. He thinks that the appearance of southern forms of Algæ, at the extreme northern parts, is to be attributed to the influence of the Gulf Stream as regards temperature.

1686. British Algæ are variously distributed, some in deep, others in shallow water. *Laminaria digitata* only extends to the low line of ebb during stream tides; *L. saccharina* flourishes along an inner belt, partially uncovered during the ebbs of the larger neaps; *Fucus serratus* and *F. nodosus* thrive in a zone still less deeply covered by water, and which even the lower neaps expose; *F. vesiculosus* occurs in a zone higher still, altering its form as it goes farther inland; *F. canaliculatus* also rises high on rocky beaches. If landsprings escape from the beach there may be found an upper terminal zone of *Confervæ* mixed with *Ulva latissima*, *Porphyra laciniata*, and *Enteromorpha compressa*. In the lake of Stennis at Stromness, Orkney, there occur at the part where the sea enters, specimens of *Fucus nodosus* and *vesiculosus* in their ordinary form, along with *Halidrys siliquosa*. A little further in, where there is more fresh water, *Halidrys* and *Fucus nodosus* disappear; *F. vesiculosus* becomes stunted, its air-bladders being altered or disappearing; and ultimately, it becomes narrowed like the *Confervæ*, and altogether loses its usual aspect.*

1687. The British marine plants, according to Forbes, are distributed in depth or bathymetrically in a series of zones or regions which extend from high water mark down to the greatest explored depths. The first or littoral zone is that tract which lies between high and low water marks, and therefore is very variable in extent according to the amount of rise and fall of the tides. It has been divided into sub-regions characterised by the prevalence of certain marine species. 1. The sub-region of *Fucus canaliculatus*. 2. The sub-region of *Lichina*. 3. The sub-region of *Fucus articulatus*, *F. nodosus*, and *Corallina officinalis*. 4. The sub-region of *Fucus serratus*. The Littoral zone is succeeded by narrow belts of such Sea-weeds as *Himanthalia lorea*, *Conferva rupestris*, *Laurencia pinnatifida*, *Chondrus crispus*, and *C. mammillosus*. The second or Laminarian zone commences at low water mark, and extends to a depth of from 7 to 15 fathoms. Here we meet with the great Tangle Sea-weeds and deep water Fuci. Species of *Laminaria*, *Rhodymenia*, and *Delesseria*, are found in an upper sub-region of this zone. In the lower sub-region they are rare, and are succeeded by the coral-like *Nullipore*. The zones below them are entitled the Coralline zone, extending from 15 to 50 fathoms, and the region of the deep sea corals from 50 to beyond 100 fathoms. These zones do not exhibit any conspicuous vegetable forms; they are characterised by the presence of certain animals. At the depth of 50 fathoms in the British seas, there seems to be a total absence of vegetable life.†

* Hugh Miller, *Footprints of the Creator*.

† For fuller details in regard to Botanical Geography, the following works may be consulted:—Humboldt *de distributione geographica plantarum*; Humboldt, *Aspects of Nature*. De Candolle,

1688. Recapitulation of the chief points connected with Botanical Geography :—

1. The distribution of plants over the globe is regulated by climate, more especially by temperature and moisture.
2. The climate suited to a plant is that in which it can perform all its functions properly, and produce its characteristic secretions.
3. The globe, as regards temperature, is divided latitudinally and altitudinally into different zones, and the nature of the vegetation in these zones varies.
4. To ascertain the temperature which a plant will bear, we require to know not merely the mean annual temperature, but the mean summer and winter heat, and particularly the mean monthly and daily temperature during the period when vegetation is active.
5. Lines passing through places having the same mean annual temperature are called Isothermal; those through places with an equal mean summer heat are Isothermal, and with an equal mean winter temperature Isocheimal.
6. The lines of equal mean monthly temperature are denominated monthly Isotherms, and they are of more importance in Botanical Geography than annual Isotherms.
7. A plant requires a certain amount of temperature during a given epoch, and this may be communicated more or less rapidly in different climates. Hence the rapidity of the epochs of vegetation varies in different countries.
8. In an altitudinal point of view, or hypsometrically, the temperature varies, the fall being on an average about 1° for every 300 or 400 feet of ascent.
9. The nature of the soil influences in some measure the distribution of plants, but the connection between different rocks and the plants growing on them, is still obscure. Some plants seem to prefer limestone rocks, others trap, and so on.
10. There are differences in the nature of the localities in which different species of plants grow. Some are aquatic, others terrestrial; some have their roots in the earth, others are epiphytic and parasitic; some prefer dry soil, others marshy ground; some grow on rocks or stones, others in sand or clay, and so on.
11. Some plants are generally diffused over the globe, and have a wide geographical range; others are endemic, and are confined within narrow limits.
12. The same species are sometimes found in very distant parts of the globe; at other times the species of one country are represented by allied species in another.
13. The orders and genera of one country have frequently marked representatives in another.
14. It would appear that the same species have been in many instances originally placed in very widely separated localities; while at other times species have been created on one spot, and have only extended a short distance from a centre.
15. The dissemination of plants has been effected by the agency of man, water, winds,

Essai élémentaire de Géographie Botanique; also *Géographie Botanique* in *Dict. de Sciences Nat.* xviii. Schouw, *Grundzüge der Pflanzen Geographie*, translated into German from the Danish. Schouw's *Earth and Man*, translated by Henfrey; Schouw, *Europa*. Meyen's *Botanical Geography*, in *Ray Society's publications*. Berghaus, *Grundriss der Geographie* in *Linnæus*, i.; *Physikalischen Atlas*. Hooker on *Botanical Geography*, in *Murray's Encyclopædia of Geography*. Martius *die Physiognomie des Pflanzen-reiches in Brasilien*. Malte Brun's *Physical Geography*. Schlagintweit, on the *Periodical Phenomena of Vegetable Life on the Alps*, *Trans. in Journ. Hort. Soc.* viii. 61. Hinds, *the Regions of Vegetation*. Royle, *Himalayan Flora*. Gardner's *Travels in Brasil*. Thomson's *Western Himalaya and Thibet*. Hooker, *Journal of an Oriental Naturalist*. Hooker's *Antarctic and New Zealand Flora*. De Candolle, *Alph. on the effect of Heat on Plants*, in *Lond. Hort. Soc. Journ.* v. 178. Quetelet, *Observations sur la floraison des plantes*. Martius *de la délimitation des Régions Végétales sur l'Europe*. Henfrey, *Vegetation of Europe*. Grisebach, *Reports on Botanical Geography*, in *Ray Society's publications* for 1845 and 1849. Johnston's *Physical Atlas*, *Botanical part*. Black's *Atlas*. Traill's *Physical Geography*. Harvey's *Nereis Australis, Nereis Boreali-Americana*, and *Manual of British Algae*. Besides these, the *Floras* of different countries may be consulted, for a list of which, see *Fritsch's Thesaurus Litterarum Botanico*, where the works are classified according to the countries.

and animals. The *Cerealia* have been distributed very extensively by man, and bear a wide range of temperature. Many common weeds have been dispersed also in this way.

16. The general physiognomy of a country is often marked by the prevalence of certain conspicuous plant forms. Social plants, or those growing naturally in masses, particularly give a character to a country.
17. The physiognomy of vegetation is represented by certain forms, such as Palms, Bananas, Cactuses, Coniferae, Heaths, Mimosas, Grasses, Ferns, Willows, Myrtles, Dicotyledonous trees, Mosses, and Lichens, &c.
18. These physiognomic forms characterise different countries, and sometimes those of one country have their representatives in similar forms in another.
19. The prevalence of certain colours also contributes to the physiognomy of vegetation in different countries.
20. By the statistics of vegetation is meant the number of species or genera on the globe, the relative proportion of classes and orders, or the proportion of species of a particular genus or order in different countries.
21. Zones of vegetation are given by different authors both in a latitudinal and altitudinal point of view.
22. Meyen divides the vegetation of the globe into eight distinct zones. These zones are reckoned both as regards latitude and altitude, and are characterised by particular orders and genera of plants.
23. Schouw divides the globe into 25 phyto-geographic regions, marked by the prevalence of certain orders and genera. Many of them are ill-defined on account of the want of data, and it is not to be expected that they can be accurate until the floras of the different quarters of the globe have been carefully ascertained.
24. Marine vegetation is also divided into zones according to depth, or bathymetrically.
25. Forbes characterises a Littoral, a Laminarian, and a Deep-sea zone. At great depths there is an absence of vegetation. Different seas have marine plants peculiar to them.
26. The British Flora has been divided into different types, both as regards latitude and altitude. The climatic zones in Britain are divided into Agrarian and Arctic, and each of these is subdivided into three.
27. The British Flora partakes more or less of the characters of that of different parts of Europe, and there are certain American forms also represented.
28. Forbes endeavours to account for the differences in the floras of Britain, by considering them as outposts, separated by geological changes from larger areas.

PART V.

PALÆONTOLOGICAL BOTANY, OR THE STUDY OF FOSSIL PLANTS.

1689. The changes which have taken place in the nature of living beings since their first appearance on the globe till the period when the surface of the earth having assumed its present form, has been covered by the creation which now occupies it, constitutes one of the most important departments in geology. It is, as Brongniart remarks, the history of life and its metamorphoses. The researches of geologists show clearly that the globe has undergone various alterations since that "beginning" when "God created the heavens and the earth." At various periods of the world's history, new mineral beds have covered the surface of the earth, and elevations of different portions of its crust have taken place, while at the same time the living beings inhabiting it have been buried in sedimentary deposits, to be replaced by a creation more or less different from the preceding. Some of these epochs have been marked apparently by great changes in the physical state of our planet, and they have been accompanied with equally great modifications in the nature of the living beings which inhabited it. The study of the fossil remains of animals is called Palæozoology, while the consideration of those of vegetables is denominated Palæophytology. Both are departments of the science of Palæontology, which has been the means of bringing geology to its present state of advancement. The study of these extinct forms has afforded valuable indications as to the physical state of the earth and as to its climate at different epochs.

1690. The vegetation of the globe, during the different stages of its formation, has undergone very evident changes. At the same time there seems to be no reason to doubt that the plants may all be referred to the great classes distinguished at the present day, namely, Thallo-gens, Acrogens, Gymnosperma, Endogens, and Exogens. The relative proportion of these classes, however, has been different, and the predominance of certain forms has given a character to the vegetation of different

epochs. The farther we recede in geological history from the present day the greater is the difference between the fossil plants and those which now occupy the surface. At the time when the coal-beds were formed, the plants covering the earth belonged to genera and species not recognised at the present day. As we ascend higher, the similarity between the ancient and the modern flora increases, and in the latest stratified rocks we have in certain instances an apparent identity, at least as regards genera. At early epochs the flora appears to have been uniform, to have presented less diversity of forms than at present, and to have been similar in the different quarters of the globe. The vegetation also seems to indicate that the nature of the climate was different from that which characterises the countries in which these early fossil plants are now found.

1691. Fossil plants are by no means so easily examined as recent species. They are seldom found in a complete state. Fragments of

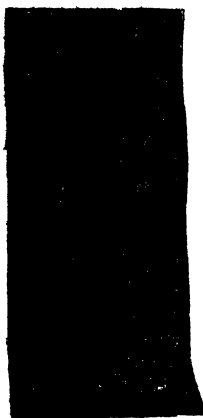


Fig. 1807.

stems, leaves, and fruits are the data by which the plant is to be determined. It is very rare to find any traces of reproductive organs. The parts of fossil plants are usually separated from each other, and it is very difficult to ascertain what are the portions which should be associated together so as to complete a specimen. The anatomical structure of some of the organs, especially of the stem, can sometimes be detected by thin microscopic slices being placed under the microscope; and in the case of Coniferous wood, the punctated woody tissue (Fig. 1807) has proved of great service as regards fossil Botany.

1692. Brongniart* says that the mode in which plants are preserved in a fossil state may be referred to two principal classes:—1. The impression or cast of the plants, accompanied with the complete destruction of the vegetable tissue, and the preservation of few of its constituent parts. 2. Petrification or Carbonization, which preserves more or less completely the structure of the tissues of vegetable organs, by changing completely or only modifying their nature. The first state is rather rare, but it is the usual state of fossil vegetables in the variegated sandstone and tertiary limestones. The place of the vegetable is either empty or replaced by a substance of a ferruginous, calcareous, or earthy nature, having no organisation. The second state or the impression with some preserved portion of vegetable tissue, is very frequent in the case of stems found in the coal formation. This is their ordin-

Fig. 1807. Section of *Peuce Withami*, after Lindley and Hutton, a fossil Conifer of the coal epoch. The punctated woody tissue is shown.

* Brongniart, *Tableau des Végétaux Fossiles*.

any mode of preservation. In such stems we must carefully distinguish the different zones of tissue, and their external and internal surfaces, which produce so many different appearances. So also as regards fossil fruits. The thickness of the pericarp often gives rise to two very different forms, and frequently cavities are caused by the destruction of tissue.

1693. Carbonized vegetables, or those which have passed into the state of Lignites, often undergo modifications which render it difficult to understand them rightly. Sometimes a portion of the organs of vegetables, passed into the state of lignite, is transformed into pyrites, or else pyrites of a globular shape is found in the middle of the tissue, and may be taken for a character of organisation. The section of certain dicotyledonous fossil woods, in that case, may resemble Monocotyledons. Petrification, as in the case of silicified woods, often preserves all the tissues equally, at other times the soft tissues are altered or destroyed; the cellular tissue being replaced by amorphous chalcedony, while the ligneous and vascular tissues alone are petrified, so as to preserve their forms. In some cases the reverse takes place as to these tissues; the fibrous portions disappear, leaving cavities, while the cells are silicified. Sometimes we find the parts regularly silicified at one place, so as to retain the structure, while at another an amorphous mass of silica is found. In such cases there appear, as it were, distinct silicified ligneous bundles in the midst of an amorphous mass, resembling some anomalous Brazilian stems. The appearance depends, however, merely on irregular silicification or partial petrification. Fossil woods, by means of chemical tests, are shown to possess portions of vegetable tissues cemented into a mass by silica. In some cases we find the vessels and cells separately silicified, without being crushed into a compact mass. In these cases, the intercellular membrane not being silicified, the mass breaks down easily; whereas, when complete silicification takes place, the mass is not friable. Coniferous wood is often friable, from silicified portions being still separated from each other by vegetable membrane more or less entire. During silicification it frequently happens that the plant has been compressed, broken, and deformed, and that fissures have been formed filled with crystallised or amorphous silica.

1694. The silicified stems of trees have been observed in various parts of the world, with their structure well preserved, so that their Endogenous and Exogenous character could be easily determined. The Rev. W. B. Clarke notices the occurrence of a fossil Pine-forest at Kurrur-Kurrân, in the inlet of Awaaba, on the eastern coast of Australia. In the inlet there is a formation of conglomerate and sandstone, with subordinate beds of lignite—the lignite forming the so-called Australian coal. Throughout the alluvial flat, stumps and stools of fossilized trees are seen standing out of the ground, and one can form no better notion of their aspect than by imagining what the appearance of the existing living forest of Eucalypti and Casuarinæ

would be if the trees were all cut down to a certain level. In a lake in the vicinity there are also some fossilized stumps of trees, standing vertically. In Derwent Valley, Van Diemen's Land, fossil silicified trees, in connection with trap rocks, have been found in an erect position. One was measured with a stem 6 feet high, a circumference at the base of 7 feet 3 inches, and a diameter at the top of 15 inches. The stems are Coniferous, resembling *Araucaria*. The outer portion of the stem is of a rich brown glossy agate, while the interior is of a snowy whiteness. One hundred concentric rings have been counted. The tissue falls into a powdery mass. Silica is found in the inside of the tubes, and their substance is also silicified.

1695. In order to study fossil plants well, there must be an acquaintance with systematic botany, a knowledge of the microscopical structure of all the organs of plants, such as their roots, stems, barks, leaves, fronds, and fruit; of the markings which they exhibit on their different surfaces, and of the scars which some of them leave when they fall. It is only thus we can expect to determine accurately the living affinities of the fossil. Brongniart says, that before comparing a fossil vegetable with living plants, it is necessary to reconstruct as completely as possible the portion of the plant under examination, to determine the relations of these portions to the other organs of the same plant, and to complete the plant if possible, by seeing whether, in the fossils of the same locality, there may not be some which belong to the same plant. The connection of the different parts of the same plant is one of the most important problems in Palæophytology, and the neglect of it has perhaps led to a needless multiplication of fossil species; portions of the same plant having been described as separate species or genera. In some instances the data have been sufficient to enable botanists to refer a fossil plant to a genus of the present day, so that we have fossil species of the genera *Ulmus*, *Alnus*, *Pinus*, &c. Sometimes the plant is shown to be allied to a living genus, but differing in some essential point, or wanting something to complete the identity, and it is then marked by the addition of the term *ites*, as *Pinites*, *Thuites*, *Zamites*, &c.

1696. Before drawing conclusions as to the climate or physical condition of the globe at different geological epochs, the botanist must be well informed as to the vegetation of different countries, as to the soils and localities in which certain plants grow, whether on land or in the sea, or in lakes, in dry or marshy ground, in valleys or on mountains, or in estuaries, in hot, temperate, or cold regions. It is only by a careful consideration of all these particulars that any correct inferences can be drawn as to the condition of the globe.

1697. The rocks of which the globe is composed are divided into two great classes, those which contain fossil remains, and which are called fossiliferous, and those having no such remains, and which are designated non-fossiliferous or azoic. The igneous unstratified rocks, included under the names of Granitic and Trappean, show no appear-

ance of animal or vegetable remains. Trap rocks, however, have in some cases covered or enclosed vegetable structures, and these are found in an altered condition. Thus, in Antrim, near the Giant's Causeway, lignite is found in connection with the basalt, showing distinct dicotyledonous structure charred, with the bark, &c., along with chalk flints. Dicotyledonous wood and charcoal have also been found by the Duke of Argyll under trap in the Island of Mull. In trap rocks near Edinburgh, lignite with distinct structure has also been detected. Silicified wood and coal, imbedded in trap rocks, have been seen in Kerguelen's Land. The wood is found enclosed in basalt, whilst the coal crops out in ravines, in close contact with the overlying porphyritic and amygdaloidal greenstone. Hooker has also seen silicified wood, in connection with trap, in Macquarrie's plains, in Tasmania.

1698. Fossil remains have not been found in certain rocks having a stratified appearance, and which, from the changes they have undergone, were denominated by Hutton Metamorphic. These include Gneiss and Mica-slate, which are looked upon as stratified rocks, which have probably been formed at a high temperature, and have been subsequently altered by the effects of heat. The absence of organic remains in rocks, however, is not always sufficient to enable us to state that these rocks were formed before animals or vegetables existed. Forbes has shown that, even at the present day, there are depths in the ocean which are destitute of organic life. Hence rocks deposited at such depths might contain no organic remains.

1699. The stratified rocks which contain fossils, have been divided into three great groups, the Palæozoic, the Secondary, and the Tertiary. The formations included under these are exhibited in the following table, as condensed from Ansted's geology:—

I. PALÆOZOIC ROCKS, containing the earliest fossil remains. They include the Transition, Primary fossiliferous and Grauwacke rocks.

1. *Lower Palæozoic*.—These comprehend the Silurian and Cambrian rocks.
2. *Middle Palæozoic*.—The Devonian system, or Old Red Sandstone, so well developed in Scotland.
3. *Upper Palæozoic*.—The Carboniferous system, or the Coal Measures, with millstone-grit, carboniferous limestone and shales; and the Permian system, or the magnesian limestone.

II. SECONDARY OR MEZOZOIC ROCKS, constituting a second great epoch in the history of fossils.

1. *Lower Secondary*.—The upper New Red Sandstone of Britain, or the Triassic system of Germany. Here we meet with Red Sandstone and conglomerates, saliferous red and variegated marls.
2. *Middle Secondary*.—The Liassic system, with its limestones and marls; the Oolitic divided into Lower Oolite (Calcareous sand, Stonesfield slate, Bradford clay, &c.), Middle Oolite (Oxford clay, Coral clay, Calc grit, &c.), and Upper Oolite (Kimmeridge clay, Portland stone); the Wealden, as illustrated in Purbeck beds and Hastings sand.
3. *Upper Secondary*.—The Cretaceous system, with its lower and upper greensand and chalks, and the Gault.

III. TERTIARY OR CAINOZOIC ROCKS, constituting the third grand fossilife-

1701. Among the fossil Thalamifloral Dicotyledons, Unger mentions species belonging to the orders—

Magnoliaceæ.	Byttneriaceæ.	Sapindaceæ.
Anonaceæ.	Tiliaceæ.	Cedrelaceæ.
Nymphaeaceæ.	Aurantiaceæ.	Zygophyllaceæ.
Capparidaceæ.	Malpighiaceæ.	Xanthoxylaceæ.
Malvaceæ.	Aceraceæ.	Coriariaceæ.

Among Calycifloral Dicotyledons—

Celastraceæ.	Rosaceæ.	Haloragaceæ.
Rhamnaceæ.	Calycanthaceæ.	Cucurbitaceæ.
Anacardiaceæ.	Combretaceæ.	Cornaceæ.
Amyridaceæ.	Melastomaceæ.	Loranthaceæ.
Leguminosæ.	Myrtaceæ.	Eubiaceæ.

Among Corollifloral Dicotyledons—

Ericaceæ.	Aquifoliaceæ.	Apocynaceæ.
Styracaceæ.	Sapotaceæ.	Gentianaceæ.
Ebenaceæ.	Oleaceæ.	

Among Monochlamydeous Angiosperms—

Nyctaginaceæ.	Euphorbiaceæ.	Betulaceæ.
Lauraceæ.	Urticaceæ.	Altingiaceæ.
Proteaceæ.	Artocarpaceæ.	Platanaceæ.
Aquillariaceæ.	Ceratophyllaceæ.	Corylaceæ.
Samydaceæ.	Salicaceæ.	Juglandaceæ.
Santalaceæ.	Myricaceæ.	Rafflesiaceæ.

Among Monochlamydeous Gymnosperms—

Coniferae.	Taxaceæ.	Gnetaceæ.	Cycadaceæ.
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Among Dictyogenous Monocotyledons—

Smilacæ.

Among Petaloid Monocotyledons—

Orchidaceæ.	Palmeæ.	Typhaceæ.
Zingiberaceæ.	Pandanaceæ.	Naladaceæ.
Musaceæ.	Araceæ.	Restiaceæ.
Liliaceæ.		

Among Glumiferous Monocotyledons—

Cyperaceæ. Gramineæ.

Among Acrogenous Acotyledons—

Filices.	Lycopodiaceæ.	Musci.
Marsiliaceæ.	Equisetaceæ.	Hepaticæ.

Among Thallogenous Acotyledons—

Lichenes. Characeæ. Algæ. Fungi.

1702. On taking a general survey of the known fossil plants, Brongniart thinks that he can trace three periods of vegetation, characterised by the predominance of certain marked forms of plants. In the most ancient period there is a predominance of Acrogenous Cryptogamic plants; this is succeeded by a period in which there is a pre-

ponderance of Gymnospermous Dicotyledons; while a third period is marked by the predominance of Angiospermous Dicotyledons. There is thus—1. The reign of Acrogens, which includes the plants of the Carboniferous and Permian periods. During these periods, there seems to be a predominance of Ferns, a great development of Lycopodiaceæ, arborescent forms of *Lepidodendron* and *Sigillaria*, Gymnosperms allied to *Araucaria*, and anomalous Gymnosperms, as *Nöggerathia*. 2. The reign of Gymnosperms, comprehending the lower and middle secondary periods. Here we meet with numerous Coniferæ and Cycadaceæ, while Ferns are less abundant. 3. The reign of Angiosperms, embracing the Cretaceous and the Tertiary periods. This is characterised by the appearance of Angiospermous Dicotyledons, a class of plants which constitute more than three-fourths of the present vegetable productions of the globe, and which appear to have acquired a predominance from the commencement of the Tertiary formations. These plants appear even at the beginning of the Chalk formation.

1703. I. REIGN OF ACROGENÆ.—In the lower Palæozoic strata the plants which have been detected are few. In the Silurian, Cambrian, and Old Red Sandstone systems, we meet with the remains of ancient marine plants, as well as a few terrestrial species. In the Lower Silurian or Grauwacke, near Girvan, Hugh Miller has found a species resembling *Zostera* in form and appearance. In the lower Old Red Sandstone of Scotland, he has detected Fucoids, a *Lepidodendron*, and Lignite with a distinct Coniferous structure resembling that of *Araucaria*,* besides a remarkable pinnate frond. In the middle Old Red of Forfarshire, as seen in the Arbroath pavement, he has collected specimens of a peculiar plant, bearing organs which resemble in appearance small receptacles of *Nelumbium*, besides a Fern with reniform pinnæ and a *Lepidodendron*; while, in the upper Old Red near Dunse, a *Neuropteris*, like *N. gigantea*, of the Coal Measures, and a *Calamite* have been discovered by him.† In the Old Red Sandstone rocks at Oporto, Bunbury detected *Pecopteris Cyathea*, *P. muricata*, and *Neuropteris tenuifolia*—Ferns allied to those of the Coal Measures.

1704. The Carboniferous period is one of the most important as regards fossil plants. The vegetable forms are numerous and uniform throughout the whole system, whether exhibited in the Old or the New World. The important substance called coal owes its origin to the plants of this epoch. It has been formed under great pressure, and hence the appearance of the plants has been much altered. On examining thin sections of coal under the microscope, we can detect vegetable tissues both of a cellular and vascular nature. In Wigan canal coal, vegetable structure is seen throughout the whole mass. Such is likewise the case with other canal, parrot, and gas

* Miller's *Footprints of the Creator*, 182-189. Doubts have been thrown on the antiquity of this specimen by those who support the erroneous progressive development theory; but the presence, in the same nodule, of a scale of a fish only found in the lower Old Red, puts the matter beyond doubt.

† Specimens of these fossil plants, as well as numerous others, illustrating the fossil flora of Scotland, are to be seen in Mr. Miller's interesting Museum.

coals. In common household coal, also, evident traces of organic tissue have been observed. In some kinds of coal punctated woody fibre has been detected, in others scalariform tissue, as well as cells of different kinds. Sporangia are also occasionally found in the substance of coal, as shown by Mr. Daw in that from Fordel. The structure of coal in different beds, and in different parts of the same bed, seems to vary according to the nature of the plants by which it has been formed. Hence the different varieties of coal which are worked. The occurrence of punctated tissue indicates the presence of Coniferæ in the coal bed, while scalariform vessels point to Ferns, and their allied forms, such as *Sigillaria*, *Stigmaria*, and *Lepidodendron*. The anatomical structure of the stems of these plants will undoubtedly have some effect on the microscopic characters of the coal produced from them. In some cannel coals the structure resembles that of Tree-ferns of the present day. A brownish-yellow substance is occasionally present, which seems to yield abundance of carburetted hydrogen gas when exposed to heat.

1705. It appears that in general each bed of coal is accompanied by the remains of a somewhat limited amount of species. Their number, particularly in the most ancient beds, is scarcely more than eight or ten. In other cases the number is more considerable, but rarely more than thirty or forty. In the same coal basin each layer often contains several characteristic species which are not met with either in more ancient or more recent strata. Thus, there are sometimes small local or temporary floras, each of which has given birth to layers of coal. The quantity of carbonaceous and other matter required to form a bed of coal is immense. Maclaren has calculated that one acre of coal, three feet thick, is equal to the produce of 1940 acres of forest.* The proportion of carbon varies in different kinds of coal. Along with it there is always more or less of earthy matter, which constitutes the ashes. When the earthy substances are in such quantity that the coaly deposit will not burn as fuel, then we have what is called a shale. The coal contains plants similar to those of the shales and sandstones above and below it. In a coal-seam there is the Underclay, containing roots only; then the Coal composed of plants, whose roots are in the clay, with others which have grown along with them, or have been drifted; while above the coal is the Shale bearing evidences of vigorous vegetation, and which appears like a great deposit from water charged with mineral matter, into which broken pieces of plants have fallen. There is no clear division between coal and shale.

1706. The total thickness of coal in the English coal-fields is about 50 or 60 feet. In the Mid-Lothian field, there are 108 feet of coal. Coal beds are worked at 1725 feet below the sea-level, and probably extend down to upwards of 20,000 feet. They rise to 12,000 feet above the sea-level, and at Huanuco, in Peru, to 14,700.† It is said that the first coal-works were opened in Belgium in 1198, and

* Maclaren, *Geology of Fife and the Lothians*, p 116 † *Our Coal Fields*, by a Traveller under ground.

soon after in England and Scotland; it was not till the 15th century that they were opened in France and Germany. In 1843, the following were the statements as to some of the English collieries:—

NAMES OF COLLIERIES.	Average Depth.	No. of Pits or Collieries.	Men and Boys Employed.	Engine Power in Horses.	Coal raised per annum in Tons.
Tyne River Collieries	510 Feet.	92	12,833	9690	2,468,481
Wear River Collieries	450	88	11,558	8907	2,355,486
Tees River Collieries	380	12	1,379	800	1,682,464

The following calculations have been made as to the extent of the coal formation in different countries, and the amount of coal raised:—

COUNTRIES.	Square Miles of Coal Formation.	Tons of Fuel raised in 1845.
Great Britain	11,859	81,500,000
Belgium	518	4,960,077
United States	133,132	4,400,000
France	1719	4,141,617
Russian States	—	3,500,000
Austrian States	—	659,340

The coal-fields in Great Britain have been estimated at 4251 square miles. M'Culloch estimates the total number of persons employed in the collieries of Great Britain at 160,000 or 180,000, and the total capital employed in the British coal trade at £10,000,000.

1707. Unger enumerates 683 plants of the coal measures, while Brongnart notices 500. Of the last number there are 6 Thallogens, 346 Acrogens, 135 Gymnosperms, and 13 doubtful plants. This appears to be a very scanty vegetation, as far as regards the number of species. It is only equal to about 1-20th of the number of species now growing on the surface of the soil of Europe. Although, however, the number of species was small, yet it is probable that the individuals of a species were numerous. The proportion of Ferns was very large. There are between 200 and 300 enumerated. The following are some of the Cryptogamous and Phanerogamous genera belonging to the flora of the Carboniferous period:—Cyclopteris, Neuropteris, Odontopteris, Sphenopteris, Hymenophyllites, Alethopteris, Pecopteris, Coniopteris, Cladophlebis, Senftenbergia, Lonchopteris, Glossopteris, Caulopteris, Lepidodendron, Lepidostrobus, Lepidophyllum, Ulodendron, Halonia, Knorria, Psaronius, Sigillaria and Stigmara, Calamites, Asterophyllites, Sphenophyllum, Nöggerathia, Walchia, Peuce, Dadoxylon, Pissadendron, Trigonocarpum.

1708. Ferns are the only carboniferous fossil group which present an obvious and recognisable relationship to an order of the present day. While cellular plants and those with lax tissues lose their characters by fossilization, Ferns are more durable, and retain their structure.

It is rare, however, to find the stalk of the frond completely preserved down to its base. It is also rare to find fructification present. In this respect, fossil Ferns resemble Tree-ferns of the present day, the fronds of which rarely exhibit fructification.* Only one surface of the Fern-frond is exposed to view, and that generally the least important in a botanical point of view. Fructification is sometimes evidently seen, as figured by Corda in *Senftenbergia*. The absence of fructification presents a great obstacle to the determination of fossil Ferns. Circinate vernation, so common in modern Ferns, is not commonly seen in the fossil species, and we do not in general meet with rhizomes. Characters taken from the venation and forms of the fronds are not always to be depended upon, if we are to judge from the Ferns of the present day. There is a great similarity between the carboniferous Ferns of Britain and America. In the English coal measures the species are 140. The preponderance of Ferns over flowering plants is seen at the present day in many tropical islands, such as St. Helena and the Society group, as well as in extra-tropical islands, as New Zealand. In the latter, Hooker picked 36 kinds in an area of a few acres; they gave a luxuriant aspect to the vegetation, which presented scarcely twelve flowering plants and trees besides. An equal area in the neighbourhood of Sidney (in about the same latitude) would have yielded upwards of 100 flowering plants and only two or three Ferns. This Acrogenous flora, then, seems to favour the idea of a humid as well mild and equable climate at the period of the coal formation—the vegetation being that of islands in the midst of a vast ocean.

1709. Among the Ferns found in the clays, ironstones, and sandstones of the Carboniferous period, we may give the characters of some by way of illustration. *Pecopteris* (Fig. 1808) seems to be the fossil representative, if not congener, of *Pteris*. *Pecopteris heterophylla* (Fig. 1809) has a marked resemblance to *Pteris esculenta* of New Zealand. The frond of *Pecopteris* is pinnatifid or bi-tri-pinnatifid—the leaflets adhering to the rachis by the whole length of their base, sometimes confluent; the midrib of the leaflets runs to the point, and the veins come off from it nearly perpendicularly, and the fructification when present is at the ends of the veins. *Neuropteris* (Figs. 1810, 1811, and 1812) has a pinnate or bipinnate frond, with pinnæ somewhat cordate at the base—the midrib of the pinnæ vanishing towards the apex, and the veins coming off obliquely, and in an arched manner. *Neuropteris gigautea* (Fig. 1811), has a thick bare rachis, according to Miller, and seems to resemble much *Osmunda regalis*. *Odonopteris* has leaves like the last, but its leaflets adhere to the stalk by their whole base, the veins spring from the base of the leaflets, and pass on towards the point. *Sphenopteris* (Fig. 1813), has a twice or thrice pinnatifid frond, the leaflets being narrowed at the base, often wedge-shaped, and the veins generally arranged as if they radiated from the base. *Sphenopteris elegans* resembled *Pteris aquilina* in having a

* Hooker states, that of two or three kinds of New Zealand Tree-fern, not one specimen in a thousand bears a single fertile frond, though all abound in barren ones

stout leafless rachis, which divided at a height of seven or eight inches from its club-like base into two equal parts, each of which con-

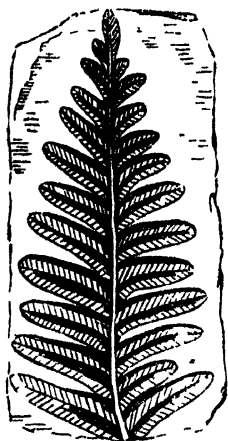


Fig 1808



Fig 1813

Fig 1809

Fig 1814



Fig 1810

Fig 1811

Fig 1812

tinued to undergo two or three successive bifurcations. A little below the first forking two divided pinnæ were sent off. A very complete specimen, with the stipe, was collected in the coal-field near Edinburgh, by Hugh Miller, who has described it as above. *Lonchopteris* has its frond multi-pinnatifid, and the leaflets more or less united together at the base; there is a distinct midrib, and the veins are reticulated. *Cyclopteris* (Fig. 1814), has simple orbicular leaves, undivided or lobed at the margin, the veins radiating from the base, with no midrib. *Schizopteris* resembles the last, but the frond is deeply divided into numerous unequal segments, which are usually lobed and taper-pointed. *Caulopteris* (Fig. 1815), is the name given to the stems of Tree-ferns found in the coal fields.

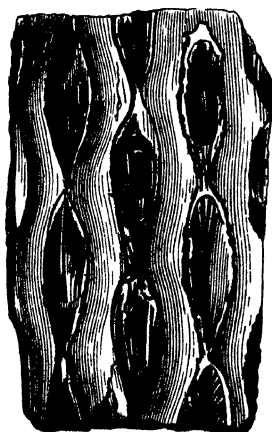


Fig 1815

Figures 1808 to 1814 exhibit the fronds of some of the Ferns of the Carboniferous epoch
 Fig 1808. *Pecopteris* (*Alethopteris*) *aquilina* Fig 1809 *Pecopteris* (*Alethopteris*) *heterophylla*
 Fig 1810 *Neuropteris* *Lochii* Fig 1811 *Neuropteris* *gigantea* Fig 1812 *Neuropteris* *acuminata*
 or *smilacifolia* Fig 1813 *Sphenopteris* *affinis* Fig 1814 *Cyclopteris* *dilatata*
 Fig 1815 Stem of Tree-fern called *Caulopteris* or *Ptychopteris* *Macrodiscus*

They are marked externally by oblong scars similar to those of Tree-

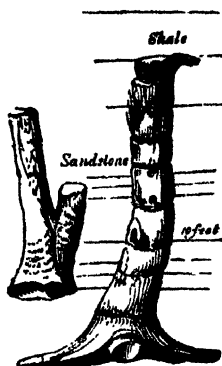


Fig. 1816.

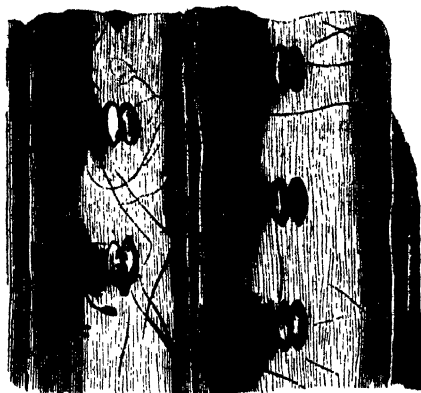


Fig. 1820.

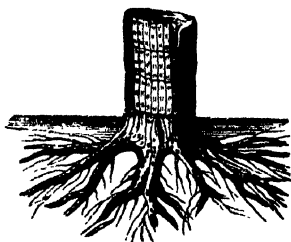


Fig. 1817.

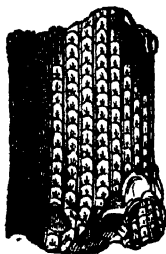


Fig. 1818.

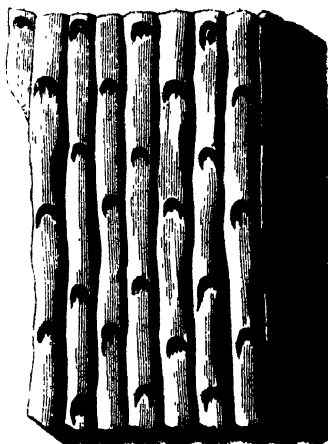


Fig. 1819.

ferns of the present day. These stems probably belong to some of the

Figures 1816 to 1820 exhibit forms of *Sigillaria* stems found in the shales of the Carboniferous epoch.

Fig. 1816. Stem of *Sigillaria pachyderma* in an erect position, covered by successive deposits of sandstone and shale; one of the stems is bifurcated. Fig. 1817. *Sigillaria* stem with its external markings, and roots which are *Stigmarias*, as proved by Mr. Binney. Fig. 1818. *Sigillaria pachy-*

fronds to which other names are given, but as they have not been found attached, it is impossible to determine the point. Miller has described a fern as occurring in the coal measures, which at first sight presents more the appearance of a Cycadaceous frond than any other vegetable organism of the Carboniferous age yet seen. Hethus describes it:—"From a stipe about a line in thickness there proceed at right angles, and in alternate order, a series of sessile lanceolate leaflets, rather more than two inches in length, by about an eighth part of an inch in breadth, and about three lines apart. Each is furnished with a slender mid-rib; and, what seems a singular, though not entirely unique feature in a Fern, the edges of each are densely hirsute, and bristle with thick short hair. The venation is not distinctly preserved."

1710. *Sigillaria* is perhaps the most important plant in the coal formation. It is found in all coal shales over the world. There are upwards of 60 species. It occurs in the form of lofty stems, 40-50 feet high, and 5 feet broad (Figs. 1816 and 1817). Many stems of *Sigillaria* may be seen near Morpeth, standing erect at right angles to the planes of alternating strata of shale and sandstone (Fig. 1816). They vary from 10 to 20 feet in height, and from one to three feet in diameter. Sir W. C. Trevelyan counted 20 portions of these trees within the length of half a mile, of which all but four or five were upright. Brongniart mentions similar erect stems as being found near St. Etienne. The stem of *Sigillaria* is fluted in a longitudinal manner, and has a succession of single and double scars, which indicate the points of insertion of the leaves (Figs. 1818 and 1819). When the outer part of the stem separates like bark, it is found that the markings presented by the inner surface differ from those seen externally (Fig. 1820). This has sometimes given rise to the erroneous supposition that they belong to different genera. In *Sigillaria elegans* there is a woody system similar to that to be noticed in *Stigmara*, which is broken up into cuneiform plates, separated by medullary rays, and there is another vascular system, forming a series of bundles in the medullary axis of the stem, each placed opposite the wedges of wood. The bundles which go directly to the leaves are placed opposite to the woody wedges externally (not as in *Stigmara*, opposite to the medullary rays). It is probable that, in *Sigillaria*, the outer and inner bundles of tissue communicate by the medullary rays, and that they are thus both connected with the leaves. There is a curious crucial mark quartering the base of the root, and corresponding with four main roots which proceed from it.

1711. It has been recently ascertained by Mr. Binney of Man-

derma after Lindley and Hutton, from the shale of Killingworth Colliery, showing the scars or places through which the vessels of the stem passed to the leaves. The bark remains on the specimen, and the scars are clear, broad, and well defined. Fig. 1819. *Sigillaria* (*Favularia*) *tessellata*, from the Denbigh coal shale, showing the fluted stem with scars. Fig. 1820. *Sigillaria reniformis* after Lindley and Hutton, decorticated, that is to say, with the bark removed, showing contiguous oval scars arranged in pairs. When the plant is corticated, or has the bark entire, then the scars are roundish, kidney-shaped, having a point in the centre, and at a little distance on each side a curved mark.

chester, that the plant called *Stigmaria* (Fig. 1821) is not a separate genus, but the root, or rather the rhizome of *Sigillaria*. It is one of the most common productions of the coal measures, and consists of long rounded or compressed fragments, marked externally by shallow circular, oblong, or lanceolate cavities (Fig. 1822) in the centre of slight tubercles, arranged irregularly, but sometimes in a quincuncial manner. The cavities occasionally present a radiating appearance. The axis of the fragments is often hollow, and different in texture from the parts around. This axis consists of a vascular cylinder or woody system, divided into wedge-shaped masses by medullary rays of various breadths. In these rays there is another system of smaller tubes, which originate probably from the outer cellular axis, and not from the central woody cylinder. From the scars and tubercles arise long ribbon-shaped processes, which appear to have been hollow roots compressed. *Stigmaria ficoides* (Fig. 1821) is often found creeping in the under-clay of a coal seam, sending out numerous roots from its tubercles, and pushing up its aerial stem, in the form of a fluted *Sigillaria*. On the Bolton and Manchester Railway, Mr. Binney discovered *Sigi-*



Fig. 1821.

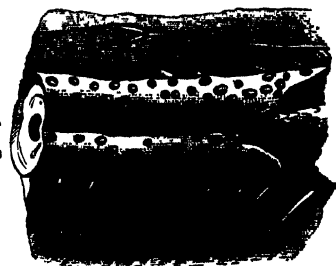


Fig. 1822.

larias standing erect, and evidently connected with *Stigmarias* which extended 20 feet or more.* While the rhizomes, stem, and roots have thus been determined, we have no means of ascertaining the foliage. Mr. King and others suppose that the Fern-like frond called *Neuropteris* is connected with *Sigillaria*, but this is a mere conjecture. It is probable that *Sigillaria* was an acrogenous plant allied to *Lycopodiaceæ*, although of higher organization. Brongniart reckons it among peculiar *Gymnosperms*, and King considers it intermediate between *Ferns* and *Cycadaceæ*, and says, "if, in imagination, we delineate a channelled stem of any height between 12 and 100 feet, crowned with a

Fig. 1821. *Stigmaria ficoides*, consisting of the lower part of a stem of *Sigillaria*, with roots or rhizomes, bearing fibrils.

Fig. 1822. *Stigmaria ficoides* (*S. Anabathra* of Corda), which is considered as the root or rhizome of a *Sigillaria*. The markings are the points whence rootlets proceed.

* The imbedding of plants in an erect state in strata is similar to what was noticed at the present day by Gardner in Brazil, where stems of recent *Coco-nut Palms* were seen covered with sand to the depth of 50 feet.

pendent Fern-like foliage, furnished with wide-spreading thickly fibril-



Fig 1823



Fig 1824

led roots, and growing in some densely-wooded swamp of an ancient Mississippi, then we shall have formed a tolerably close restoration of a *Sigillaria* vegetating in its true habitat."

1712. *Lepidodendron* (Figs. 1823 and 1824) is another genus of the coal measures which differs from those of the present day. It seems to occupy an intermediate place between *Lycopodiaceæ* and *Coniferæ*. The

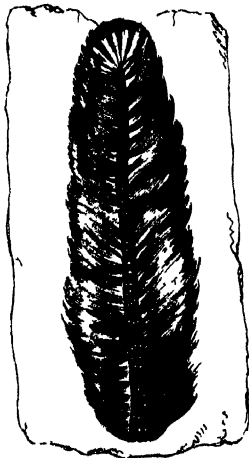


Fig 1825



Fig 1826

stem is from 20 to 45 feet high, marked outside by peculiar scaly-like scars (Fig. 1824), hence the name of the plant. The linear or lanceolate leaves are arranged in the same way as those of *Lycopodiums* or of *Coniferæ*, and the branches fork like the former. There is a

Figures 1823 to 1826 exhibit the stems of *Lepidodendron*

Fig 1823 Bifurcating stem of *Lepidodendron obovatum* (*elegans*) showing the scale-like scars, and the narrow-pointed leaves, resembling those of *Lycopodium* Fig 1824 Scars on the stem of *Lepidodendron obovatum* taken from the Bensham coal-seam at Jarrow colliery (after Lindley and Hutton) The marks on the outside are obovate areolæ, with a rounded apex and tapering base, bearing a nearly circular scar at the top of the areolæ Fig 1825 *Lepidostrobus ornatus*, after Lindley and Hutton, from the Bensham coal-seam of the Jarrow colliery, showing central axis with leaflets It seems to be the fructification of a *Lepidodendron*.

Fig. 1826 *Trigonocarpum oliviforme*, an ovate, acuminate, three-ribbed and striated fruit or seed which some suppose to be a sporangium of a *Lepidodendron*, others refer it to *Cycadaceæ*

double vascular system in the trunk, one in the centre, and another placed externally to the woody mass. The latter vascular system forms a continuous zone outside the wood; its inner edge is well defined, and its outer, whence bundles are given off to the leaves, is sinuous. Although the scars on *Lepidodendron* are usually flattened, yet in some species they occupy the faces of diamond-shaped projections, elevated one-sixth of an inch or more above the surface of the stem, and separated from each other by deep furrows;—the surface bearing the leaf being perforated by a tubular cavity, through which the bundle of vessels that diverged from the vascular axis of the stem to the leaf passed out. The fruit of *Lepidodendron* is seen in *Lepidostrobus* (Fig. 1825), which appears to consist of scales covering sporangia, in the interior of which are spores, consisting of three or four angular sporules, which have been seen in a separate state. It is probable that many other fossil forms are connected with or allied to *Lepidodendrons*. Thus *Lepidophyllum* is probably the leaf of some species of the genus, while *Strobilites* is a form of the fruit. The slender terminal branches are noticed under the name of *Lycopodites*, and it is likely that one or more of the kinds of *Trigonocarpum* (Fig. 1826) are sporangia of a *Lepidodendron*. In coal from Fordel, Mr. Daw has detected innumerable bodies which appear to be sporangia of *Lycopodites*. Both *rodendron* and *Knorria* appear to be forms allied to *Lepidodendron*. Some think that *Halonion* is the root of *Lepidodendron*. *Ulodendron* appears to be a distinct genus. Hugh Miller states that *Ulodendron minus*, found in ferruginous shale in the Water of Leith, near Colinton, exhibits beautiful sculptured scars, ranged rectilinearly along the stem. The surface is covered with small sharply-relieved obovate scales, most of them furnished with an apparent midrib, and with their edges slightly turned up. The circular or oval scars of this genus are probably impressions made by a rectilinear range of almost sessile cone-like fructification placed on either side. When decorticated, the stem is mottled over with minute dottings arranged in a quincuncial manner, and its oval scars are devoid of the ordinary sculpturings.

1713. *Calamites* (Figs. 1827 and 1828) is a reed-like fossil, having a subcylindrical, furrowed, and jointed stem, the furrows of the joints alternating and often converging. The stem is often crushed and flattened, and may probably have been originally hollow. At the joints, (Fig. 1828), there are toothed sheaths or tubercles, which are

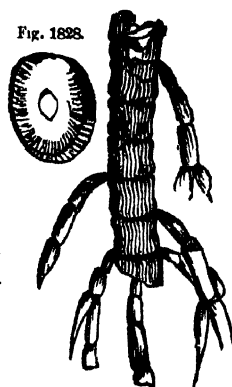


Fig. 1827.

Fig. 1827. *Calamites* Lindleyi (C. Mougeoti L. and H. foss. flora), a jointed reed-like stem, with furrows on the surface. Stem with branches according to some, roots according to Binney.

Fig. 1828. *Calamites* Lindleyi. Partition of one of the joints.

disposed symmetrically between the furrows. The fructification is unknown. There appears to have been a bark which could be separated from the woody tissue below. The plants have been seen erect by Mr. Binney, and he has determined that what were called leaves or branches by some, are in reality roots. There are 51 species recorded. They have been compared to Equisetaceæ.

1714. True Exogenous trees exist in the coal-fields both of England and Scotland, as at Lennel Braes and Allan Bank, in Berwickshire, High-Heworth, Fellon, Gateshead, and Wideopen, near Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and in quarries to the west of Durham; also in Craigleith quarry, near Edinburgh, and in the quarry at Granton. In the latter localities, they lie diagonally athwart the strata, at an angle of about 30°, with the thicker and heavier part of their trunks below, like snags in the Mississippi. From their direction, we infer that they have been drifted by a stream which has flowed from nearly north-east to south-west. At Granton, one of the specimens exhibits roots. In other places the specimens are portions of stems, one of them six feet in diameter by 61 feet in length, and another four feet in diameter by 70 feet in length. These Exogenous trees are Gymnosperms, having woody tissue like that of Coniferæ. We see under the microscope punctated woody tissue, the rows of disks being usually two, three, or more, and alternating. They seem to be allied in these respects to *Araucaria* and *Eutassa* of the present flora. *Dadoxylon* or *Pinites* *Withami* is one of the species found in Craigleith quarry; the concentric layers of the wood are obsolete; there are 2, 3, or 4 rows of disks on the wood, and 2-4 rows of small cells in the medullary rays. Along with it there have also been found *Dadoxylon* *medullare*, with inconspicuous zones, 2, 3, and 4 rows of disks, and 2-5 series of rows of cells in the rays. *Pissadendron antiquum* (*Pitus antiqua*), having 4-5 series of cells in the medullary rays, and *P. primævum* (*Pitus primæva*), with 10-15 series of cells in the medullary rays, occur at Tweedmill and Lennel Braes in Berwickshire; *Peuce Withami* (Fig. 1807, p. 1040) at Hilltop, near Durham, and at Craigleith; *P. Lindleyana*, at Whitby and Scarborough; *P. australis* in Van Diemen's Land; and *P. Pritchardi* in Ireland. *Sternbergia* is considered by Williamson as a *Dadoxylon*, with a discoid pith like that seen now-a-day in the Walnut and Jasmine, as well as in some species of *Euphorbia*.* *Sternbergia approximata* is named by him *Dadoxylon approximatum*. *Nöggerathia* and a few other plants, such as *Flabellaria* and *Artisia*, are referred by Brongniart to *Cycadaceæ*. *Nöggerathia* has pinnate leaves, cuneiform leaflets, sometimes fan-shaped; the veins arise from the base of leaflets, are equal in size, and either remain simple or bifurcate, the neuration or venation being similar to that of some *Zamias*.

1715. Our knowledge of the real state of the vegetation of the earth when coal was formed must be very limited, when we reflect

* Williamson on the Structure and Affinities of *Sternbergia*, in *Manch. Lit. and Phil. Soc. Mem.* ix.

how seldom the fructification of coniferous trees has been met with in the coal measures. One example is given in Lindley and Hutton's work, under the title of *Pinus anthracina*. Lyell never saw one fossil fir-cone of the Carboniferous epoch, either in the rocks or museums of North America or Europe. Bunbury never heard of more than one example, that noticed by Lindley and Hutton. Sir Charles Lyell remarks—"To prevent ourselves, therefore, from hazarding false generalizations, we must ever bear in mind the extreme scantiness of our present information respecting the flora of that peculiar class of stations to which in the Palæozoic era the coal measures probably belonged. I have stated elsewhere my conviction that the plants which produced coal were not drifted from a distance, but nearly all of them grew on the spot where they became fossil. They constituted the vegetation of low regions, chiefly the deltas of large rivers, slightly elevated above the level of the sea, and liable to be submerged beneath the waters of an estuary or sea, by the subsidence of the ground to the amount of a few feet. That the areas where the carboniferous deposits accumulated were low, is proved not only by the occasional association of marine remains, but by the enormous thickness of strata of shale and sandstone to which the seams of coal are subordinate. The coal measures are often thousands of feet, and sometimes two or three miles in vertical thickness, and they imply, that for an indefinite number of ages a great body of water flowed continuously in one direction, carrying down towards a given area the detritus of a large hydrographical basin, draining some large islands or continents, on the margins of which the forests of the coal period grew. If this view be correct, we can know little or nothing of the upland flora of the same era, still less of the contemporaneous plants of the mountainous or alpine regions. If so, this fact may go far to account for the apparent monotony of the vegetation, although its uniform character may doubtless be in part owing to a greater uniformity of climate then prevailing throughout the globe. Mr. Bunbury has successfully pointed out that the peculiarity of the carboniferous climate consisted more in the humidity of the atmosphere and the absence of cold, or rather the equable temperature preserved in the different seasons of the year, than in its tropical heat; but we must still presume that colder climates existed at higher elevations above the sea."

1716. The plants of the coal measure seem to be evidently terrestrial plants, and fresh-water aquatics. Brongniart agrees with Lyell in thinking that the layers of coal have in general accumulated in the situation where the plants forming them grew. The remains of these plants covered the soil in the same way as layers of peat, or the vegetable mould of great forests. In a few instances, however, the plants appear to have been transported from a distance, and drifted into basins. Phillips is disposed to think that this was the general mode of formation of coal basins. He is led to this conclusion by observing

the fragmentary state of the stems and branches, the general absence of roots, and the scattered condition of all the separable organs. Those who support the drift theory, look on the coal plants as having been swept from the land on which they grew by watery currents at different times, and deposited in basins and large sea-estuaries, and sometimes in lakes. The snags in the Mississippi, the St. Lawrence, and other large rivers, are given as instances of a similar drifting process.

1717. The nature of the vegetation during the Permian Period, which is associated with the Carboniferous, under the reign of Acrogens, has not been positively determined. Brongniart has enumerated the fossils in three different localities, which he refers doubtfully to this period. 1. The flora of the bituminous slates of Thuringia, composed of Algæ, Ferns, and Coniferæ. 2. Flora of the Permian sandstones of Russia, comprehending Ferns, Equisetaceæ, Lycopodiaceæ, and Nöggerathia. 3. Flora of the slaty schists of Lodève, composed of Ferns, Asterophyllites, and Coniferæ. The genera of Ferns here met with are also found in the Carboniferous epoch; the Gymnosperms are chiefly species of *Walchia* and *Nöggerathia*. *Lepidodendron elongatum*, *Calamites gigas*, and *Annularia floribunda*, are also species of this period.

1718. II. REIGN OF GYMNOSPERMS.—In this reign the Acrogenous species are less numerous, the Gymnosperms almost equal them in number, and ordinarily surpass them in frequency. There are two periods of this reign, one in which Coniferæ (p. 906) predominate, while Cycadaceæ scarcely appear, and another in which the latter family preponderates as regards the number of species, and the frequency and variety of generic forms. Cycadaceæ (p. 911) occupied a more important place in the ancient than in the present vegetable world. They extend more or less from the coal formation, up to the Tertiary. They are rare in the Grèsbigarré, or lower strata of the Triassic system, and in the Chalk. They attain their maximum in the Lias and Oolite, in each of which upwards of 40 species have been enumerated, and they disappear in the Tertiary formations.

1719. In Brongniart's Vosgesian period, the Grès-bigarré, or the Red Sandstones and Conglomerates of the Triassic system, there is a change in the flora. Sigillarias and *Lepidodendrons* disappear, and in their place we meet with Gymnosperms, belonging to the genera *Voltzia*, *Haidingera*, *Zamites*, *Ctenis*, *Æthophyllum*, and *Schizoneura*. Species of *Neuropteris*, *Pecopteris*, and other acrogenous coal genera are still found, along with species of *Anomopteris* and *Crematopteris*—peculiar Fern-forms, which are not found in later formations. Stems of arborescent Ferns are more frequent than in the next period.

1720. The Triassic period of Brongniart embraces the Keupric epoch or variegated marls of the Triassic system, the Liassic epoch, the Oolitic, and the Wealden. The flora of the Keupric epoch differs

from that of the Grès-bigarré of the Vosges. The Acrogens are changed as regards species, and frequently in their genera. Thus we have the genera *Camptopteris*, *Sagenopteris*, and *Equisetum*. Among Gymnosperms, the genera *Pterophyllum* and *Taxodites* occur.

1721. In the Lias the essential characters of the flora are the predominance of Cycadaceæ, in the form of species of *Cycadites*, *Otozamites*, *Zamites*, *Ctenis*, *Pterophyllum* (Fig. 1829), and *Nilsonia* (Fig. 1830), and the existence among the Ferns of many genera

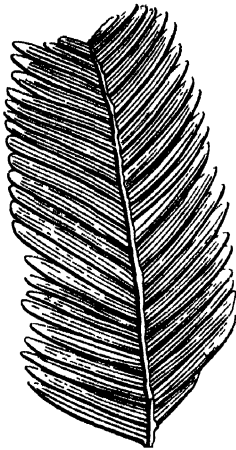


Fig. 1829.

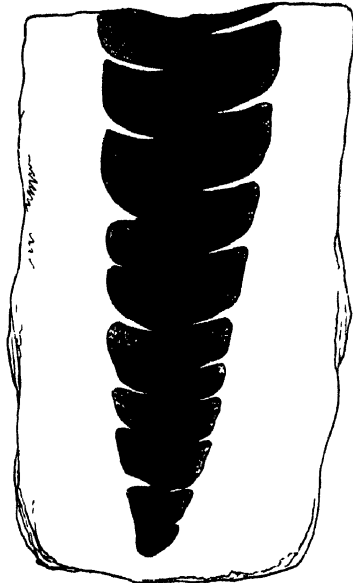


Fig. 1830.

with reticulated venation, such as *Camptopteris* and *Thaumatopteris*, some of which began to appear at the Keupric epoch. Coniferous genera, as *Brachyphyllum*, *Taxodites*, *Palissya*, and *Pence* are found. In the Lias near Cromarty, Miller found a cone with long bracts like those of *Pinus bracteata*.

1722. In the Oolitic epoch, the flora consists of numerous Cycadaceæ and Coniferæ, some of them having peculiar forms. Its dis-

Figures 1829 and 1830. Cycadaceæ of the Jurassic epoch of Brongniart.

Fig. 1829. *Pterophyllum Prealianum* (*Zamia pectinata* of Brongniart, and Lindley and Hutton), a pinnated leaf, with a slender rachis. The pinnae are linear, somewhat obtuse, with slender equal ribs. It is found in the Oolite of Stonesfield (Lindley and Hutton). Fig. 1830. *Nilsonia compta* (*Pterophyllum comptum* of Lindley and Hutton), from the Oolite of Scarborough. Lower part of the pinnatifid leaf, with blunt almost square divisions. There are numerous veins, slightly varying in thickness, while in *Pterophyllum* there are numerous veins of equal thickness, in *Cycadites* there is a solitary vein forming a thick midrib.

tinctive characters are, the rarity of Ferns with reticulated venation, which are so numerous in the Lias, the frequency of the Cycadaceous genera *Otozamites* and *Zamites*, which are most analogous to those now existing, and the diminution of *Ctenis*, *Pterophyllum* (Fig. 1829), and *Nilsonia* (Fig. 1830), genera far removed from the living kinds; and lastly, the greater frequency of the coniferous genera, *Brachyphyllum* and *Thuites*, which are much more rare in the Lias. In the Scotch Oolite at Helmsdale, Miller has detected about 60 species of plants, including Cycadaceæ and Coniferæ, with detached cones, and Fern forms resembling *Scolopendrium*. He also discovered a species of *Equisetum*, and a *Calamite* which is a connecting link between the Oolitic and Carboniferous epochs.

1723. There is an absence of true coal fields in the secondary formations generally; but in some of the Oolitic series, as in the lower Oolite at Brora, in Sutherlandshire, and the Kimmeridge clay of the



Fig. 1831.



Fig. 1832.

upper Oolite, near Weymouth, there are considerable deposits of carbonaceous matter, but the vegetable remains are only in the state of imperfect lignite. In the sandstones and shales of the Oolitic series, especially in the lower Oolite of the north of England, as at Whitby and Scarborough, as well as in Stonesfield slate, the Portland Crag of the middle, and the Portland beds of the upper Oolite, numerous fossil plants are found. The upper Oolite at Portland contains an interesting bed about a foot in thickness, of a dark brown substance, containing much earthy lignite. This is the Dirt-bed, made up of black loam, which, at some far distant period, nourished the roots of trees, fragments of whose stems are now found fossilized around it. These consist of an assemblage of silicified stumps or stools of large trees,

Fig. 1831. *Cycadoidea megalophylla* (*Mantellia nidiformis* of Brongniart), a subglobose depressed trunk, with a concave apex, and with the remains of the petioles disposed in a spiral manner, the markings being transversely elliptical. It is found in the Oolite of the Island of Portland, in a silicified state.

Fig. 1832. *Zamioctrobus ovatus* (*Zamia ovata* of Lindley and Hutton), an ovate cone with a truncated base and obtuse apex. The genus seems to be intermediate between *Encephalartos* and *Zamia*. It is found in the green-sand at Faversham (Lindley and Hutton).

standing from 1-3 feet from the mould. Most of them are erect, some slightly inclined, and the roots remain attached to the earth in which they grew. They appear to resemble Cycadaceæ. One of these is *Cycadoidea megalophylla*, shown in Figure 1831.

1724. The flora of the Wealden epoch is characterised in the north of England by the abundance of the Fern called *Lonchopteris Mantellii*, and in Germany by the predominance of the Conifer denominated *Abietites Linkii*, as well as by numerous Cycadaceæ, such as species of *Cycadites*, *Zamites*, *Pterophyllum*, *Zamiostrobus* (Fig. 1832), *Cycadoidea*, *Clathraria*. Mantell states that he has found 40 or 50 fossil cones in the Wealden of England. The remains are those of land vegetables. The Wealden fresh water formation terminates the reign of *Gymnosperms*.

1725. III. REIGN OF ANGIOSPERMS.—This reign is characterised by the appearance of *Angiospermous Dicotyledons*, plants which constitute more than three-fourths of the present vegetable productions of the globe, and which appear to have acquired the predominance from the commencement of the Tertiary epoch. These plants, however, appear even at the beginning of the Cretaceous period. In this reign, therefore, Brongniart includes the upper secondary period, or the Cretaceous system, and all the Tertiary period. The Cretaceous may be considered as a sort of transition period between the reign of *Gymnosperms* and *Angiosperms*. The Chalk flora is characterised by the *Gymnospermous* almost equalling the *Angiospermous Dicotyledons*, and by the existence of a considerable number of *Cycadaceæ*, which do not appear in the Tertiary period. The genus *Credneria* is one of the characteristic forms. In this period we find *Algæ* represented by *Cystoseirites*, *Confervites*, *Sargassites*, and *Chondrites*; Ferns by peculiar species of *Pecopteris* and *Protopteris*; *Naiadaceæ* by *Zosterites*; Palms, by *Flabellaria* and *Palmacites*; *Cycadaceæ*, by *Cycadites*, *Zamites*, *Microzamia*, and *Zamiostrobus*; *Coniferæ*, by *Brachyphyllum*, *Widdringtonites*, *Cryptomeria*, *Abietites*, *Pinites*, *Cunninghamites*, *Dammarites*, *Araucarites*; and *Angiospermous Dicotyledons*, by *Comptonites*, *Alnites*, *Carpinites*, *Salicites*, *Acerites*, *Juglandites*, and *Credneria*. Between the Chalk and the Tertiary period, there is a *Fucoidean* epoch, characterised by deposits rich in *Algæ*, of a very peculiar form, belonging to the genera *Chondrites* and *Munsteria*. No land plants have been found mingled with these marine species.

1726. The Tertiary period is characterised by the abundance of *Angiospermous Dicotyledons* and of *Monocotyledons*, more especially of Palms. By this it is distinguished from the more ancient periods. *Angiosperms* at this period greatly exceed *Gymnosperms*. *Cycadaceæ* are completely wanting in the European Tertiary strata, and the *Coniferæ* belong to genera of the temperate regions. Although the vegetation throughout the whole of the Tertiary period presents pretty uniform characters, still there are notable differences in the generic and specific forms, and in the predominance of certain orders at

different epochs. Brongniart does not entirely agree with Unger as to these epochs. Many of the formations classified by Unger in the Miocene division he refers with Raulin to the Pliocene. He divides the Tertiary period, as regards plants, into the Eocene, Miocene, and Pliocene epochs, and gives the following comparative results from an examination of their floras :—

Classes and Sub-Classes.	Eocene Epoch.	Miocene Epoch.	Pliocene Epoch.
Thallogensæ	16	6	6
Acrogensæ	17	4	7
Monocotyledones.....	33	26	4
Dicotyledones—			
Gymnospermæ	40	19	31
Angiospermæ	103	78	164
	209	133	212

In the Eocene formation, the fossil fruits of the Isle of Sheppey increase the number of Phanerogamous plants. This is an exceptional locality, and is perhaps an example of the effects of currents in conveying exotic plants from remote climates. The number of plants as given by Brongniart is much smaller than that mentioned by Unger (p. 1044). The latter includes in his enumeration a considerable amount of uncertain species.

1727. The Eocene epoch in general is characterised by the predominance of Algæ and marine Naiadaceæ, such as *Caulinites* and *Zosterites*; by numerous Coniferæ, the greater part resembling existing genera among the Cupressinæ, and appearing in the form of *Juniperites*, *Thuites*, *Cupressites*, *Callitrites*, *Frenelites*, and *Solenostrobus*; by the existence of a number of Extra-European forms, especially of fruits, such as *Nipadites*, *Leguminosites*, *Cucumites*, and *Hightea*; and by the presence of some large species of Palm belonging to the genera *Flabellaria* and *Palmacites*. Amber is considered to be the produce of many Coniferæ of this epoch, such as *Peuce succinifera*. It occurs in east Prussia in great quantity, and it is said that many pieces of fossil wood occur there, which, when moderately heated, give out a decided smell of amber. Connected with these beds are found cones belonging to *Pinites sylvestris* and *P. Pumilio*, others to *Pinites Thomasianus* and *P. brachylepis*. The latter two being forms not resembling the species which now exist. Berkeley has detected in amber fossil Fungi, which he has named *Penicillium curtipes*, *Brachycladium Thomasinum*, and *Streptothrix spiralis*.* Some Characeæ are also met with, as *Chara medicaginula* and *C. prisca*, with

* *Annals and Mag. of Nat. Hist.* 2d Ser. ii. 380.

a fossil called Gyrogonites, which is supposed to be the nucule, or, in other words, the fructification of these plants.

1728. The most striking characters of the Miocene epoch consist in the mixture of exotic forms of warm regions with those of temperate climates. Thus we meet with Palms, such as species of *Flabellaria* and *Phenicites*, a kind of Bamboo called *Bambusium sepultum*, Lauraceæ, as *Daphnogene* and *Laurus*, Combretaceæ, as *Getonia* and *Terminalia*, Leguminosæ, as *Phaseolites*, *Desmodophyllum*, *Dolichites*, *Erythrina*, *Bauhinia*, *Mimosites*, and *Acacia*, all plants of warm



Fig 1833

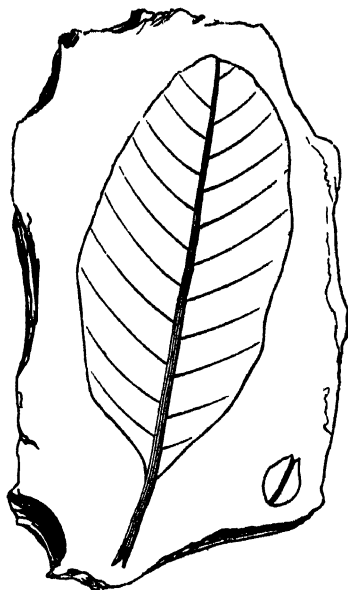


Fig 1835

climates; *Echitonium*, *Plumiera*, and other Apocynaceæ of equatorial regions, and *Steinhauera*, a tropical Cinchonaceæ genus; mingled with species of *Acer* (Fig. 1833), *Ulmus* (Fig. 1834), *Rhamnus* (Fig. 1835), and Amentiferous forms, such as *Comptonia*, *Myrica*, *Betula*, *Alnus* (Fig. 1836), *Quercus*, *Fagus*, *Carpinus*, all belonging to temperate and cold climates. There are a very small number of plants belonging to orders with gamopetalous corollas. As connected with

Figures 1833 to 1836 show the leaves of plants belonging to the Miocene epoch.

Fig. 1833. *Acer trilobatum*, a three-lobed palmate leaf, like that of the Maple, with the lobes unequal, incised-dentate, the lateral ones spreading, found at Ennigen. Fig. 1834. *Ulmus Bronnii*, a petiolate leaf, like that of the Elm, unequally ovate acuminate, feather-veined and toothed, found in Bohemia. Fig. 1835. *Rhamnus Alzoon*, a petiolate elliptical obtuse feather-veined leaf, with an entire margin, found in Styria. Fig. 1836. *Alnus gracilis*, an ovate-oblong leaf, like that of the Alder, found in Bohemia.

the Miocene epoch, we may notice the leaf-buds found at Ardtun in the island of Mull by the Duke of Argyll.* Above and below these beds basalt occurs, and there are peculiar tuff beds alternating with the leafy deposits. These tuff beds are either of volcanic origin, or are a conglomerate stratified deposit altered in a metamorphic manner. The beds are associated with chalk and flints. The leaves are those of plants allied to the Yew, Rhamnus, Plane, and Alder, along with the fronds of a peculiar Fern, and the stems of an Equisetum. The



Fig. 1884.



Fig. 1887.



Fig. 1838.

genera are *Taxites* or *Taxodites* (Fig. 1837), *Rhamnites* (Fig. 1838), *Platanites*, *Alnites*, *Filicites*, and *Equisetum* (Fig. 1839).

1729. The flora of the Pliocene epoch has a great analogy to that of the temperate regions of Europe, North America, and Japan. We meet with *Coniferae*, *Amentiferae*, *Rosaceae*, *Leguminosae*, *Rhamnaceae*, *Aceraceae*, *Aquifoliaceae*, *Ericaceae*, and many other orders. There is

Figures 1837 to 1839 exhibit fragments of plants which occur in the leaf bed at Ardtun Head, in Mull, and which is referred to the Miocene epoch. The figures are taken from the Duke of Argyll's paper.

Fig. 1837. *Taxites*, or perhaps *Taxodites Campbellii*, a branch with leaves resembling those of the Yew, or rather those of *Taxodium*. Fig. 1838. *Rhamnites multinervatus*, a leaf resembling that of *Rhamnus*. Fig. 1839. *Equisetum Campbellii*, a stem like that of an *Equisetum* of the present day.

* Trans. Geol. Soc. of London, vii.

a small number of Dicotyledons with gamopetalous corollas. The twenty species with such corollas recognised by Brongniart are referred

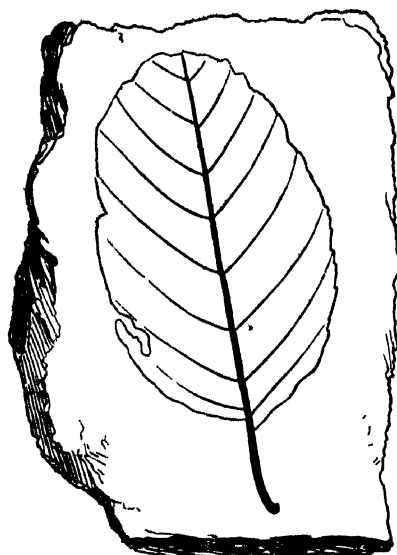


Fig. 1836.



Fig. 1839.

to the Hypogynous Gamopetalous group of Exogens, which in the general organisation of the flowers approach nearest to Dialypetalæ. In this flora there is the predominance of Dicotyledons in number and variety; there are few Monocotyledons and no Palms. No species appear to be identical, at least with the plants which now grow in Europe; and if in some rare cases identity appears to exist, it is between these plants and American species. Thus the flora of Europe, even at the most recent geological epoch, was very different from the European flora of the present day.

1730. Taking the natural orders which have at least four representatives, Raulin* gives the following statement as to the Tertiary flora of central Europe. The Eocene flora of Europe is composed of 128 species, of which 115 belong to Algæ, Characeæ, Pandanaceæ, Palmæ, Naiadaceæ, Malvaceæ, Sapindaceæ, Proteaceæ, Papilionaceæ, and Cupressineæ. The Miocene flora has 112 species, of which 69 belong to Algæ, Palmæ, Naiadaceæ, Apocynaceæ, Aceraceæ, Lauraceæ, Papilionaceæ, Platanaceæ, Quercineæ, Myricaceæ, and Abietineæ. The Pliocene flora has 258 species, of which 226 belong to Algæ,

* Raulin, sur les Transformations de la Flore de l'Europe centrale pendant la période Tertiaire.—
Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. x. 193.

Fungi, Musci, Filices, Palmæ, Ericacæ, Aquifoliacæ, Aceracæ, Ulmæ, Rhamnacæ, Papilionacæ, Juglandacæ, Salicacæ, Quercinæ, Betulacæ, Taxacæ, Cupressinæ, and Abietinæ. The Eocene species are included in genera which belong at the present day to inter-tropical regions, comprising in them India and the Asiatic islands of Australia. Some are peculiar to the Mediterranean region. The aquatic plants, which form almost one-third of the flora, belong to genera now peculiar to the temperate regions of Europe and of North America, or occurring everywhere. The Miocene species belong to genera, of which several are found in India, tropical America, and the other inter-tropical regions, but which for the most part inhabit the sub-tropical and temperate regions, including the United States. Some of the genera are peculiar to the temperate regions. The aquatic genera, poor in species, occur everywhere, or else solely in the temperate regions. The Pliocene species belong to genera which almost all inhabit the temperate regions, either of the old continent or of the United States. A few only are of genera existing in India, Japan, and the north of Africa. These various floras, which present successively the character of those of inter-tropical, sub-tropical, and temperate regions, show that central Europe has, since the commencement of the Tertiary period, been subjected, during the succession of time, to the influence of these three different temperatures. It would appear then, Raulin remarks, that the climate of Europe has during the Tertiary period gradually become more temperate. This may proceed either from a displacement of the earth's axis or from the gradual cooling of the earth, or from a different proportion of land and water.

1731. Brown coal occurs in the upper Tertiary beds, and in its vegetable structure is easily seen under the microscope. Goepfert, on examining the brown coal deposits of northern Germany and the Rhine, finds that Coniferæ predominate in a remarkable degree; among 300 specimens of bituminous wood collected in the Silesian brown coal deposits alone, only a very few other kinds of Dicotyledonous wood occur. This seems remarkable, inasmuch as in the clays of the brown coal formation in many other places leaves of deciduous Dicotyledonous trees have been found; and yet the stems on which we may suppose them to have grown are wanting. They seem to have disappeared by disintegration on account of the non-durability of their wood. The coniferous plants of these brown coal deposits belong to Taxinæ and Cupressinæ chiefly; among the plants are *Pinites protolarix* and *Taxites Ayckii*. Many of the Coniferæ exhibit highly compressed, very narrow annual rings, such as occur in Coniferæ of northern latitudes. Goepfert has described a trunk, or rather the lower end of a trunk, of *Pinites protolarix*, discovered in 1849 in the brown coal of Laasan in Silesia. It was found in a nearly perpendicular position, and measured more than 32 feet in circumference. Sixteen vast roots ran out almost at right angles from the base of

the trunk, of which about four feet stood up perfect in form, but stripped of bark. Unfortunately the interior of the stem was almost entirely filled with structureless brown coal, so that only two cross sections could be obtained from the outer parts, one sixteen inches, the other three feet six inches broad. In the first section Goepfert counted 700, in the second 1300 rings of wood, so that for the half-diameter of $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet, at least 2200 rings must have existed. Since there is no reason to believe that the rings were more frequently formed in earlier ages than the annual zones are now, this tree would appear to have been from 2200 to 2500 years old. Dicotyledonous stems in lignite are often of great size and age. In a trunk near Bonn, Nöggerath counted 792 annual rings. In the turf bogs of the Somme, at Yseux near Abbeville, a trunk of an Oak tree has been found above 14 feet in diameter.

1732. We have thus seen that the vegetation of the globe has undergone various changes at different periods of its history, and that the farther back we go, the more are the plants different from those of the present day. There can be no doubt that there have been successive deposits of stratified rocks, and successive creations of living beings. We see that animals and plants have gone through their different phases of existence, and that their remains in all stages of growth and decay have been imbedded in rocks superimposed upon each other in regular succession. It is impossible to conceive that these were the result of changes produced within the limits of a few days. Considering the depth of stratification, and the condition and nature of the living beings found in the strata at various depths, we must conclude (unless our senses are mocked by the phenomena presented to our view) that vast periods have elapsed since the Creator in the beginning created the heavens and the earth. The six days in which the present state of the globe was formed is what is recorded in Genesis. All the previous epochs are passed over, and are only marked in the palæontological records, which are brought to view and decyphered by geologists.

1733. When we find animals and plants of forms unknown at the present day, in all conditions as regards development, we read a lesson in regard to the history of the earth's former state as conclusive as that which is derived from the Nineveh relics (independent of Revelation) in regard to the history of the human race. There is no want of harmony between Scripture and geology. The Word and the Works of God must be in unison, and the more we truly study both, the more they will be found to be in accordance. Any apparent want of correspondence proceeds either from imperfect interpretation of Scripture or from incomplete knowledge of science. The changes in the globe have all preceded man's appearance on the scene. He is the characteristic of the present epoch, and he knows by Revelation that the world is to undergo a further transformation, when the elements shall melt with fervent heat, and when all the present state of things shall

be dissolved ere the ushering in of a new earth, wherein righteousness is to dwell.*

1734. Recapitulation of the chief points connected with Fossil Botany:—

1. The vegetation of the globe has varied at different epochs of the earth's history.
2. The farther we recede in geological history from the present day, the greater is the difference between the fossil plants and those which now occupy the surface.
3. All fossil plants may be referred to the great classes of plants of the present day, Acotyledons, Monocotyledons, and Dicotyledons.
4. The fossil genera and species are different from those of the present flora, and it is only when we reach the recent Tertiary period that we meet with some apparently identical genera.
5. Fossil plants are preserved in various conditions according to the nature of their structure, and the mode in which they have been acted upon.
6. Cellular plants have rarely been preserved, while woody species, and especially Ferns, which are very indestructible, have retained their forms in many instances.
7. In some cases, especially when silicified or charred, the structure of the woody stems can be easily seen in thin sections under the microscope.
8. The determination of fossil plants is a matter of great difficulty, and requires a thorough knowledge of structure, and of the markings on stems, roots, &c.
9. The rocks containing organic remains are called fossiliferous, and are divided into Palaeozoic, Secondary, and Tertiary, each of these series being characterized by a peculiar flora.
10. The mere absence of organic remains will not always be a correct guide as to the state of the globe, for rocks deposited in a deep sea may show no such remains.
11. The number of fossil species has been estimated at between 2000 and 3000, but many parts of plants are probably described as separate species, or even genera, and hence the number is greater than perhaps it ought to be.
12. Brongniart divides the fossil flora into three great epochs:—1. The reign of Acrogens; 2. The reign of Gymnosperms; 3. The reign of Angiosperms.
13. The reign of Acrogens embraces the Carboniferous and Permian epochs, in which there was a predominance of that class of plants, associated, however, with others of a higher class.
14. The reign of Gymnosperms embraces the lower and middle Secondary periods, and is characterised by the presence of numerous Coniferæ and Cycadaceæ.
15. The reign of Angiosperms includes the Cretaceous and Tertiary periods, and is marked by the appearance of Angiospermous Dicotyledons.
16. Coal is a vague term, referring to all kinds of fuel formed by plants, and displaying a greater or less amount of vegetable structure under the microscope.
17. When there is a great admixture of mineral matter, so that it will not burn as fuel then a shale is produced.

* On the subject of Fossil Botany the following works may be consulted:—Bowerbank, Fossils of the London Clay. Brongniart, Histoire des Végétaux Fossiles; Prodrome d'une Histoire des Végétaux Fossiles; Observations sur la Structure intérieure du Sigillaria, &c., in Archives du Museum, i. 405; Exposition chronologique des Périodes de Végétation, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. Bot. xi. 285. Coal Plants, in Penny Cyclopædia, vii. Corda, Flora der Vorwelt. Goepfert, Systema Filicum Fossilium, in Nova Acta, xvii. suppl.; Monographie der Fossilien Coniferen, 1850. Giebel, Palaeontologie. Hooker on the Vegetation of the Carboniferous Period, in Mem. of Geol. Survey ii. King on Sigillaria, &c., in Edin. New Phil. Journal, xxxvi. Lindley and Hutton, Fossil Flora. Our Coalfields, by a Traveller under ground. Schouw's Earth and Man, translated by Henfrey. Raulin sur la Flore de l'Europe pendant la période Tertiaire, in Ann. des Sc. Nat. 3d ser. x. 198. Unger, Genera Plantarum Fossilium; Chloris Protogæa; Le Monde Primitif (a work which contains picturesque views of the supposed state of the earth at different geological epochs). Witham on the Structure of Fossil Vegetables. Besides geological works such as those of Lyell, Ansted, Mantell, and Beudant.

18. The microscopic structure of Coal varies according to the nature of the plants of which it is composed, and the changes produced by pressure, heat, and other causes. Cellular tissue, punctated woody fibres, and scalariform vessels have been detected in it.
19. Certain temporary and local floras seem to have given origin to peculiar layers of coal.
20. At the Carboniferous epoch we meet with Ferns, Sigillarias and their roots or rhizomes called Stigmarias, Lepidodendrons, Lycopodiaceae, Ulodendrons, Calamites, and Dicotyledonous Gymnosperms, &c.
21. The plants forming coal appear frequently to have grown in the basin where the coal has been found; but some plants seem also to have been drifted like snags.
22. The strata between the Permian epoch and Chalk display numerous Gymnosperms, especially belonging to the Cycadaceous order. Some of them exhibit limited coal deposits.
23. The Chalk and Tertiary strata display not only Acrogens and Gymnogens, but also Angiospermous Dicotyledons, some of which, at the Miocene period, belong apparently to genera of the present day.
24. Raulin thinks, that during the Tertiary epoch the flora of Europe has gradually assumed a more temperate character.

APPENDIX.

I. DIRECTIONS FOR COLLECTING AND PRESERVING BOTANICAL SPECIMENS.*

1.—INSTRUMENTS REQUIRED FOR THE EXAMINATION OF PLANTS.

1735. We have already adverted to the examination of specimens by the aid of lenses and microscopes (p. 12.) It is sufficient to state here that the student requires for the determination of the orders, genera, and species of the plants he gathers, a lancet-pointed knife, a pocket lens for $\frac{1}{4}$ to 1 inch focus, and a pair of small forceps. With the view of holding the object steadily, the blades of the forceps may be made so as to be fastened by a sliding button.

1736. When examining minute plants, such as Diatomaceæ and Desmidiæ, during an excursion, it is useful to have a simple microscope similar to that represented in Figs. 1840 and 1841.† It consists of a Wollaston's doublet, fixed in a round plano-concave brass disc (Fig. 1840, *a*), attached to a small brass handle (Fig. 1840, *b*.) For ordinary botanical purposes a lens magnifying 65 to 70 diameters is enough; but the lenses may be procured with a power of 150 to 220 diameters. On the plane side of this brass disc, there is a ring of silver (Fig. 1840, *c*), in which a thin piece of glass is fixed, also supported by a brass handle, which acts as a spring, so as to keep the two rings in contact. In the handle of the first-mentioned disc, there is a screw (Fig. 1841, *d*), which passes through it, and by the motion of which the two handles can be separated or allowed to come close to each other. By this means an exact focal distance can be obtained.

* In these directions, we have followed in a great measure those drawn up by Dr. Greville and Professor Christison, and published by the Botanical Society of Edinburgh.

† This instrument, called Gairdner's portable simple microscope, is manufactured by Mr. Bryson, 24 Princes Street, Edinburgh, and is fitted in a case so as to be easily carried in the pocket. It is described in Dr. Bennet's Lectures on Clinical Medicine, from which the figures are taken.

A drop of fluid containing Diatoms, &c. is placed on the outside of the thin glass in the silver ring, and it is then covered by a similar piece of thin glass, which adheres by means of the fluid. The object being brought into focus, as in Figure 1841, the observer can distinguish the characters of the minute plant, so as to determine whether it is necessary to take specimens home for more careful examination by the compound microscope.

1737. We have already stated that for the purposes of classification a

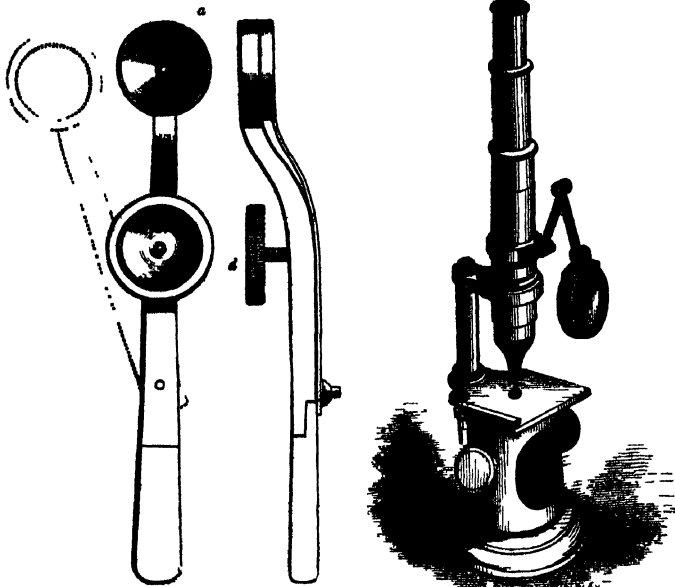


Fig 1840

Fig 1841

Fig 1842

simple microscope is that which is most serviceable to the botanical student, while for physiological researches, a compound instrument is indispensable. Very good students' instruments are made by Smith and Beck in London, and by Nacet and Oberhäuser in Paris. One of the latter as used by Dr Bennett, is shewn in Figure 1842, which is taken from his lectures on Clinical Medicine. The figure is one-fourth of the real size of the instrument. The body consists of a telescope tube eight inches in length, held by a split tube three inches long. It may be elevated or depressed by the hand by a cork-screw movement, and this constitutes the coarse adjustment. It is attached to a cross-bar and pillar, at the lower portion of the latter of which there is a fine

Figures 1840 and 1841 represent Gardner's portable simple microscope

In Fig 1840 there is given a front view of the instrument, showing the posterior silver ring, *c*, enclosing a piece of thin glass, separated and turned aside from the disc, *a*, containing the doublet, to which the eye of the observer is applied. Fig. 1841 exhibits a lateral view of the instrument, with the screw, *d*, by means of which the handles are separated or approximated, so as to bring the object into focus.

Fig 1842 Oberhäuser's portable student's microscope

adjustment screw. The stage is three inches broad, and two and a half inches deep, with a circular diaphragm below it. The base of this portable instru-

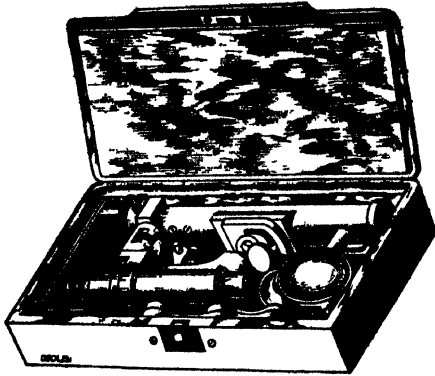


Fig. 1843.

ment is loaded with lead so as to give it steadiness. A similar instrument is made by Nachet, in which there is a broader stage, and a broader base,

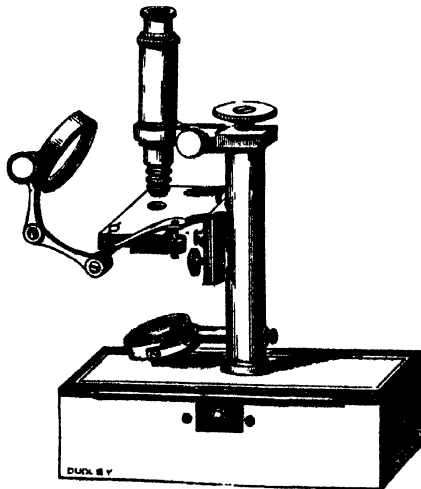


Fig. 1844.

as well as a means of inclining the body of the instrument. It has been preferred by botanical students in Edinburgh, and it is cheaper than Ober-

Figures 1843 and 1844 represent Gruby's portable compound microscope one-half its real size.
 Fig. 1843. The instrument in its case. Fig. 1844. The instrument mounted. A full description is given by Dr. Bennett in the Edinburgh Monthly Medical Journal for December 1846.

2.—SELECTION OF SPECIMENS FOR THE HERBARIUM.

1738. Specimens should, if possible, be gathered in fine weather, and free from external moisture. In selecting them, care should be taken to have the plants in a perfect state of growth, with all the parts from which characters are taken. The entire plant, with roots, stem, leaves, and flowers, when practicable, should be preserved; and the roots should be washed before being put into the box of the collector. In the case of very large herbaceous plants or shrubs or trees, portions only can be taken. These should always be carefully selected so as to exhibit the characteristic organs. In plants, such as *Hieracia*, where the root and stem leaves differ, both should be preserved. In the case of tall and slender Gramineæ and Cyperaceæ, the specimens may be folded once or twice backwards and forwards, and thus suited to the size of the paper used in forming the herbarium; and the folds may be secured during drying by being pushed into slits in small strips of paper, to be afterwards noticed. Ferns and many other tall plants may be preserved entire in the same way. A thick branch or stem should be split, so as to allow of pressure being applied; and very thick roots, as well as bulbs and corms, may be similarly treated.

1739. Plants belonging to such orders as Leguminosæ, Rosaceæ, Umbelliferae, Compositæ, &c., require that we should have both the flowers and the fully matured fruit preserved. In the case of dioecious plants, it is obvious that male and female flowers must be taken. This may be illustrated in the species of *Salix*, of which, moreover, it is requisite to dry both the flowering shoot and the leaf-bearing branch. This implies collecting the specimens at different periods of the year, care being taken that they are procured from the same plant. The species of *Rubus* cannot be recognised without having the young barren shoots preserved, as well as the flowering and fruiting ones. Care must be taken that the characters are recognisable after the plant has been glued on paper; thus both sides of the fronds of Ferns must be displayed, and this may be done either by folding or by having two fronds. Specimens should be taken from different districts and from different localities with the view of recording their geographical distribution. Varieties are also of importance; and monstrosities, as illustrating morphology.

1740. Dissections of the different parts of plants, dried separately and afterwards glued on paper in proper order, are most valuable to the student in fixing in his mind the characters of plants. Beautiful specimens of such dissections made by Dr. Murchison, Dr. Lauder Lindsay, Dr. Priestley, and Mr. Maclaren, are to be seen in the Museum of Economic Botany at the Edinburgh Botanic Garden. When examining a plant carefully, with the view of determining its genus, it is useful to make a dissection of those parts of the flower whence the generic characters are taken, and to preserve in an envelope, along with the specimen, the separate portions after being dried. This will render the herbarium specimen very valuable for future reference. No bad specimens should be preserved. Dr. Greville says that it should be adopted as a canon by the botanical collector, that no specimen is to be admitted under the idea that it will do for a duplicate, if it would not do for his own herbarium.

3.—APPARATUS REQUISITE FOR COLLECTING AND PRESERVING PLANTS.

1741. **THE DIGGER.**—This is a sort of trowel (Fig. 1845) seven or eight inches long, the iron or steel spud $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide at the top, narrowing gradually to two inches at the bottom, the lower angles being slightly rounded. It should be made sufficiently strong to resist considerable force in digging out plants from the crevices of rocks, &c. The iron portion which unites the spud to the handle should be particularly attended to in this respect. This small spade is put into a leather sheath which is fastened round the waist by means of a strap. A long string passed through the handle fastens the spade to the strap, and prevents it from being lost.

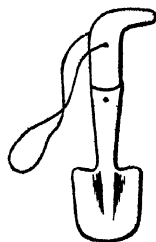


Fig. 1845.

1742. **THE VASCULUM OR BOTANICAL BOX.**—This is a japanned tin-case, convex on both sides (Fig. 1846), not less than twenty inches long, so as to contain full-sized herbarium specimens. The width and depth will vary according to the fancy of the collector; but a box eight or nine inches wide by five inches deep is found not to be too large in productive herborizations. A good sized handle is placed at one end of the box, and wire loops are firmly fastened at each end, *a*, on the lower side, so as to receive a strap by means of which the box is carried on the back. It is of importance to have the lid of the vasculum large, occupying

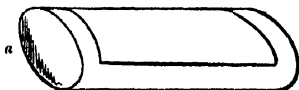


Fig. 1846.

nearly the whole of the upper surface, in order that the specimens may be put in without being folded or crushed. The best mode of securing the lid is by a wire passing into a tin sheath, and so formed as not to be liable to slip out when the box is held by the handle. The specimens should be put in the box in a uniform manner, the flowers at one end and the roots at the other; and care should be taken to have the former (which should be the end where the handle is) always kept in the higher position when carried on the shoulders. Besides this larger box, which Greville calls the *Magnum*, there should be a small pocket vasculum of a similar form for holding Mosses and small plants. In collecting minute aquatic plants, as *Desmidiæ* and *Diatomacæ*, it is necessary to have small glass bottles or test-tubes fitted to a small case. The corks should be numbered to facilitate notes being taken at the time of the localities in which the specimens were collected.

1743. **THE FIELD BOOK.**—In many instances, it is found of advantage to put plants into paper during the course of a walk. This is especially necessary in the case of species whose flowers fall off, such as *Trientalis europæa*, *Rubus Chamæmoris*, and *Veronica saxatilis*, as well as some delicate plants, as Ferns, whose fronds easily shrivel. This is accomplished by having a field book, which may be made of any size, from that of a large pocket

Fig. 1845. Botanical digger, to be carried in a leather sheath, fastened round the waist by means of a strap.

Fig. 1846. The form of the botanical box recommended. For dimensions, see the description in the text.

book to a folio, and is in fact a portfolio, containing a quantity of absorbent paper, temporary pressure being given by a couple of straps (Fig. 1847). A convenient field-book used by students in Edinburgh is represented by Figure 1848. It is made of two mahogany boards about nine inches long by five broad, containing from 12 to 24 parcels of paper, each parcel consisting of four sheets, the back of the parcels being covered with strips of leather or cloth. The boards may be rendered firm by being made each of two thin layers of crossed wood fastened together in the way afterwards noticed when speaking of large boards. Two narrow leather straps pass through two holes in one margin of each of the boards, and also through slits in the leather-covered backs of the parcels of the paper, *a*, so as to prevent them from falling

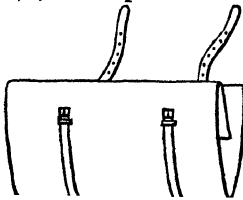


Fig. 1847.

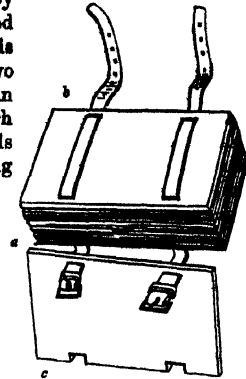


Fig. 1848.

out when the field-book is opened. In the case of one of the boards the two straps also pass through perforations in its other margin, *b*, and under these another strap is passed for the purpose of suspending the field book round the neck. The two small straps pass through grooves in the margin of the other board, *c*, and are thus buckled so as to apply pressure. An oil cloth covering may be attached to be used in wet weather.

1744. PAPER.—The paper used for the process of drying plants should be moderately absorbent, so as to take up the moisture of the plants, and at the same time to dry rapidly after being used. That which is generally employed in Edinburgh is Weir's botanical drying paper.* Bental's paper is also used, and is equally good. The size recommended is eighteen inches long by eleven broad. In the case of very delicate plants which cannot be easily removed, it is best to put them at first carefully within a sheet of very thin crown tea-paper of the same size as the drying paper, and when transferring the specimens into dry paper, to remove the thin paper and its contents without disturbing the specimens. This is useful in the case of such plants as *Myriophyllum*, *Ceratophyllum*, *Vallisneria*, and other aquatics, as well as *Viola lutea*, whose petals collapse if removed in the ordinary way after a day's pressure. In order to keep the paper dry during travelling, a cover of oil cloth is requisite. It should be put round the paper, while the thick boards are placed on the outside. When plants are in the process of drying, the oil cloth acts prejudicially, in preventing evaporation. It should not therefore be used in such circumstances, unless positively necessary.

Fig. 1847. A portfolio which may be used as a field-book, pressure being applied by means of straps, and an oil-cloth cover being used when required.

Fig. 1848. Field-book generally used in Edinburgh.

* This paper can be had from Cowan & Co., 17 Princes Street, Edinburgh, under the name of the Edinburgh Botanical Drying Paper.

1745. **BOARDS.**—In order to subject the specimens to pressure, boards of different kinds must be used. These should be exactly the size of the drying paper. Two of the boards should be thicker and stouter than the rest, so as to serve for outside boards, without being liable to split. These outside boards are often made double, and $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch thick; each double board being composed of two thin ones, the grain of the one crossing that of the other (as in the case of the field boards already mentioned), closely glued together, and firmly secured by small screws along the edge, at intervals of three inches. They may be rounded on their outer margins. Besides these, there ought to be provided eight inside boards about $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch in thickness. These ten boards form a set which will serve for two reams of paper. When the plants are dried by the pressure of a weight, it is well to have the lower board raised above the floor by a couple of flat cross bars on its under surface. Some sheets of stout pasteboard are convenient for separating the plants, and for packing them as they become dry, and particularly for preventing woody plants from injuring those placed above and below them.

1746. **PRESS.**—There are various modes of applying pressure. Some use screw presses of different kinds, with the screw applied in the centre, or at both ends. The simplest method is to employ iron weights, or a heavy square stone, with an iron ring fixed in the centre. The pressure is in this way never relaxed, as is the case with the screw press. The weight used should not be less than 100 pounds. In travelling, the best mode of applying pressure is by straps, or by means of a stout rope passed round the ends and margin of the boards and paper in a cross manner, and then tightened by means of a rack-pin. In order to allow free ventilation, and thus to dry plants more rapidly, Mr. Twining recommends, instead of boards, frames made of crossed bars with spaces between them; the surface applied to the paper being flat,—the other being ribbed by means of prominent cross bars, so as to leave a ventilating space between the one

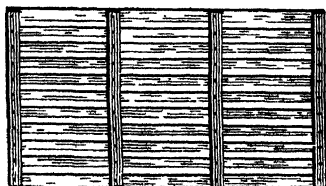


Fig. 1849

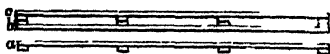


Fig. 1850

frame and the other (Figs 1849 and 1850). By an apparatus consisting of eight of such inner frames, and two outer frames of a stouter nature, so as to bear pressure, the plants as well as the paper may be dried rapidly. The apparatus, with paper and plants firmly strapped, is suspended in a draft of air coming through a partially closed window, or on the branch of a tree in sunshine; and it is said that desiccation of the plants and paper is accomplished in four days. By the use of artificial heat in an open and airy

Figures 1849 and 1850 show the kind of boards recommended by Mr. Twining

Fig. 1849 is a frame composed of bars of wood, with thick cross pieces, which, when applied to another frame of a similar nature, leave open spaces. Fig. 1850 The side view of the frames, showing the mode in which the cross bars act in allowing ventilation. *a*, Side view of a single frame with its four cross bars, *b* and *c*, side view of two frames laid one on the other, kept half an inch apart by means of the transverse slips of wood.

place, as, for instance, by being placed before the fire, the drying may be accomplished in twenty-four or forty-eight hours. Mr. Twining, when in Switzerland, first pressed the plants tightly for 24 hours, and then piled them properly in the frame-work apparatus, which was hung up in the hot air of a drying room, and in twenty-four hours more they were ready for packing, the paper also which contained them being perfectly dry and bibulous.* Henslow recommends that, with the view of ventilating plants during drying, holes should be made in the ordinary boards at regular intervals, and that two of the inner boards should always be placed together, separated by flat cross bars which may either be fastened to the boards by liquid glue prepared from shell lac, or may be kept loose, and inserted when required. A complicated apparatus is suggested by M. Gannal, the particulars of which are given in the *Botanical Gazette*, ii. 55; and there also another mode of drying is described, in which plants, after having been kept in a press for a few hours, are exposed to the sun, or placed on a stove or in an oven, in an apparatus called the *Coquette*. This consists of two open covers made of strong iron-wire network fastened into frames made of light iron rod, pressure being applied by straps or ropes, as already mentioned. The open frames allow the moisture to escape freely. A sand-bag is sometimes useful in equalizing the pressure on the plants, more particularly when some of them have thick stems.

1747. Having all the necessary apparatus, the following is the mode of procedure in the operation of preparing plants for the herbarium. Greville suggests that the collector should in the first place provide himself with a number of slips of paper two inches long by one inch broad, with a slit half an inch in length cut in the centre, and should have his knife and an ordinary pair of surgeon's forceps at hand. A parcel of not less than four sheets of paper is put on one of the outside boards, then one or more specimens are laid on the sheet according to their size. The specimens should be spread out carefully, their natural habit being preserved as far as possible. When plants require to be folded, the slips of paper already mentioned are passed over the bent portions, so as to retain them in their position. Having placed one specimen or set of specimens on the sheet, another parcel of not less than four sheets is laid over them, and in doing this, the leaves and other parts are arranged with the hand or the forceps. The same process is repeated until a dozen or more such parcels have been arranged one over the other. Then a thin board is inserted, and other parcels of paper and specimens are arranged above it, until they are exhausted, or until the bundle is of sufficient size. Another outer board is then laid on the top, and the whole is subjected to pressure. The paper is changed after twelve hours' pressure, the plants being lifted by means of the forceps, and placed in dry parcels of paper, while that which is moist is hung up to dry. The intervals between the changing of the paper may be increased or diminished according to circumstances. Very succulent and wet plants require frequent changing, grasses scarcely require any. In eight or ten days, moist specimens will be so dry as to require only a slight pressure. Succulent plants, such as species of *Sedum*, are so tenacious of life, that they will continue to live even under great pressure. They must be first killed by immersion in boiling water for five or ten minutes, then dried between coarse napkins, and finally committed to paper. Unless this is done, the plants will continue to live for many weeks,

* See a description and drawing of this apparatus, in *Botanical Gazette*, ii. 59.

and the leaves die and fall off by degrees. Some have recommended scarification in the case of succulent plants, in order to allow the sap to flow out rapidly. Orchids and other plants which take a long time to dry, and lose their colour during desiccation, should be put into hot paper which must be changed several times daily. In the case of some thick-headed plants, as Thistles, the capitula must either be cut, or they must be crushed between paper by temporary pressure from the foot; this treatment must also be applied to such plants as *Eryngium maritimum* and the Holly. Sometimes the flower or parts of the flower may be separated advantageously during drying by the insertion of small pieces of blotting paper. Viscid bulbs may also be surrounded by separate bits of paper, to prevent them from adhering to the drying paper. Aquatic plants and those collected in rainy weather should be dried as far as possible by means of napkins before being put into paper. The wet paper is to be hung up in parcels of four sheets in some warm room, and in the course of twelve hours it will be ready for use a second time. Along with the specimens, there ought to be inserted a label containing the name of the country, and of the station, its elevation above the level of the sea if possible, the nature of the locality in which the plant grew, and the date of collection. Every observation made when examining or collecting the plant should be carefully recorded at the time. In the course of long excursions, it is necessary to devote every now and then some time to the proper arranging and tallying of the specimens. On this subject Greville says, "half a day, therefore, at least, in the middle of the week, say the morning of every Wednesday till two o'clock, should be appropriated to the preservation and arrangement of your plants; and a part or the whole of every Saturday should invariably be set apart for the same purpose, in order that they may not be injured by remaining untouched on the Lord's Day."

1748. In preparing Cryptogamic plants during an excursion, it is not necessary to take such pains at first in their preparation, in as much as they may be moistened subsequently, and dried more carefully. Specimens of Cryptogamic plants may be easily picked up by travellers, and, after being allowed to dry in the air, without any further trouble and preparation they may be sent home in a state fit for after examination, as well as for the herbarium. Sea-weeds in such circumstances should be dried in the shade, without any previous washing in fresh water. Many excellent Algæ may be gathered in pools on the rocks at low water, and after storms the beach is often strewn with good specimens. None should be gathered in a state of decay, or with their colours altered. Those which grow on other species should be dried so as to show their natural attachment. Mosses and *Jungermanniæ* may be collected in tufts or masses of considerable size, always selecting such as are in fructification. These tufts can be dried by moderate pressure, and afterwards separated, moistened, and subjected to more careful preparation. Lichens may be treated like Mosses. Some of them, however, adhere to rocks or trees, portions of which must be taken along with the plants. Such specimens cannot be subjected to pressure, but are left to dry, and are then wrapped in paper. Fungi are with difficulty preserved in a dry state. In preparing species of *Agaricus*, *Boletus*, &c., a thin slice is taken from the centre, extending from the upper part of the pileus to the lower part of the plant. This is dried separately. The loose cellular tissue is then removed from the interior of the stalk, and the lamellæ from the lower side of the pileus, and these organs are then dried. By these means the form of the

Fungus is shown, and the nature of its hymenium, &c. Sea-weeds are prepared by being first washed in fresh water, and when delicate they are floated out on stiff white paper, which is cut into regular sizes, by dividing sheets into a given number of parts. Many of them adhere to this white paper when dry. The larger Melanospermous Algæ should be put into boiling water until the mucus is all given out, and then wiped with a coarse napkin before being committed to paper. Minute Diatomaceous plants, as well as other Cryptogamic species of a small size, are best preserved on covered pieces of glass or mica.*

1749. After specimens have been thoroughly dried, a selection is made for the herbarium. Such selected specimens are fastened by means of thin fine glue on thick white paper, 17 inches long and 10½ broad.† The specimen is laid on a common newspaper, and the glue is then applied lightly with a camel's hair pencil to the surface, or to portions of the surface; and, the place it is to occupy on the fine paper having been marked with a pencil, the specimen is raised with the forceps, and is carefully placed in its position. After this any glue which may have spread on the paper is removed, and the whole is subjected to slight pressure for an hour or two between sheets of the usual drying paper. The name of the plant, its locality, date of collecting, and other particulars are then marked on the paper, and the specimen is ready for being placed in the drawers of the herbarium case. Thick or naked stems are best fastened by strips of gummed paper, or, what is stronger, especially for stout plants, paper covered with glue, which should always be ready for use, and of the same shade of colour as the herbarium paper. All dried specimens, especially those sent from abroad, should be touched with a strong solution of corrosive sublimate in camphorated spirit or in naphtha (half a drachm to the ounce) before being glued. This is the only effectual mode of preventing the attack of insects. The species of a genus after being glued should be put into one or more envelopes made of similar paper, or of cartridge paper, and the name of the genus attached at the lower part of the sheet on the outside, so as to allow of easy reference. The natural orders should also be separated by thin pasteboard of the same size as the herbarium paper, each piece of pasteboard having the name of the order suspended from it in front.

1750. The size of the wooden Case for the herbarium must of course depend on the extent of the collection. In a private collection it is better to have numerous small Cases which are easily removed at pleasure along with the specimens. This should be particularly attended to by medical students and others who have the prospect of going abroad, and who may wish to transport their collections to foreign countries. In such instances, the Cases should be strongly made, and should be not more than four feet high, with two rows of drawers. These drawers are made open in front, and should slide freely in the Case. In the Edinburgh University Herbarium, the size of the drawers or trays is—depth (inside measurement), 4 inches, length 19 inches, and breadth 11½ inches. The size of the trays should of course correspond to that of the herbarium paper. Some collectors have peculiar fancies in regard to the size of their herbarium. Thus a

* For full directions as to collecting and preserving Sea-weeds, see Harvey's *Nereis Boreali-Americana*, Part ii. p. 23. For Diatoms see Smith's *British Diatomaceæ*.

† The paper used in Edinburgh is sold by Cowan and Co., Princes Street, under the name "M. B. Laid Medium, flat 4to." They have also Generic Envelopes to suit, made of the same paper, or of cartridge paper.

valuable collection of Cryptogamic plants and grasses left by Menzies to the Edinburgh Botanic Garden has the following dimensions:—Height of the mahogany cases 30 inches, breadth in front $28\frac{1}{2}$, from front to back 11; depth of the trays (inside measurement) $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches, length $9\frac{1}{2}$, breadth 6.

4.—PRESERVATION OF FRUITS AND OTHER BOTANICAL SPECIMENS FOR A MUSEUM, &c.

1751. Fruits, specimens of wood and bark, large roots, Lichens, and minute Algae on rocks or stones, and other specimens which cannot be preserved in a herbarium, may be either placed in drawers, in glazed cases, or in glass jars. The jars should be of regular sizes as regards height, say 4, 6, 8, 12, or 16 inches, their breadth varying according to the size of the specimen. Succulent fruits and roots are best preserved in a strong solution of salt and water, or in pyroligneous acid diluted with 3-5 parts of water, or in alcohol. In some instances a solution of 4 ounces of bay salt, 2 ounces of burnt alum, and 5 grains of corrosive sublimate in 2 quarts of boiling water, has been used. The solution, after being made, is filtered. All these solutions are apt to cause greater or less change in the colour of the specimens. Specimens in diluted pyroligneous acetic acid often become pulpy and brittle after a few years, so as not to admit of being handled, and most colours are altered by it. Spirit renders all colours alike brown. It is better adapted for delicate specimens, which are afterwards to be used for dissection. Before being put up in jars, fresh specimens should be kept for a month or more in the solution, so as to allow any colouring matter and other impurities to be separated, otherwise the preparation will become obscure and require to be re-adjusted. For the top of the jar a glass cover is the best, either luted or held in its place by a metallic ring (Fig. 1851, *a*), which is fitted carefully to it, and covers a portion of the glass lid. Two grooves may be made on the inner side of the rim at the top of the jar for holding a piece of whalebone, to which the specimen may be attached by means of a thread, as seen in the figure. In the case of dry preparations, the metallic ring already mentioned answers well.

1752. It is difficult to keep the solution of salt in the preparation jar. Dr. Christison says:—"The most effectual method, when the mouth of the jar does not exceed 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, is to have a space half an inch or more at the top without fluid, to clean and dry the top of the jar thoroughly, to drop melted sealing-wax on the upper surface of the top, so as to form a uniform ring over it, to place over the mouth a watch-glass of such size as to cover the whole lip, and even to overhang it a little, to press this gently down with one finger, and to fuse the wax between the top of the jar and the watch-glass, by moving a large spirit flame around the edge." Where the mouth of the jar is large, then a round flat piece of glass may be used, or sheet caoutchouc. The latter, after being gently heated, is

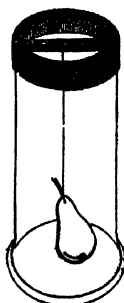


Fig. 1851.

stretched moderately, not strongly, by one, or still better, by two persons, while a third secures round the neck two or three folds of stout twine as a temporary ligature. A stout thin cord is then drawn steadily and tightly round three or four times above the former, taking care that the caoutchouc is not cut, and that the turns of the twine lie regularly above each other; and finally, that a secure knot is made.

1753. Small specimens for the microscope, such as Diatoms and Desmidiæ, and many small Sea-weeds, as well as vegetable tissues, are put up in slides 3 inches long by 1 broad (Fig. 1852), in the centre of which there is a circular cavity formed by a layer of asphalté,* and covered by a circular piece of thin glass. The asphalté is applied by means of a hair pencil, the slide being placed on a moveable brass disk (Fig. 1853), which has circular marks on it corresponding to the required dimensions of the cavity. The depth of the cavity can be varied according to circumstances, by putting one or more layers of asphalté. After the thin glass cover is put on, it is luted carefully with asphalté. The cavity is filled with distilled water, weak pyro-ligneous acid, alcohol, diluted glycerine, a very weak solution of creazote (one drop to the ounce of distilled water), or some other fluid. When specimens are very minute, the asphalté-cell is not required; the thin glass is applied at once to

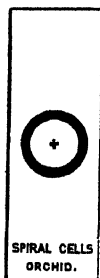


Fig. 1852.

the slide, a drop or two of the fluid being inserted along with the specimen. In the case of some dry preparations, as pollen-grains, and the fine-lined Diatoms, no fluid whatever is required, but precautions must be taken against the access of damp. Canada balsam is useful in some instances. The specimen is put on a slide, then a minute portion of the balsam is put above it, and the thin glass above all; the slide is heated gently below by means of a spirit lamp until the balsam becomes quite fluid, and until all the air has been expelled by the weight of the glass cover. It is then set aside to dry, and ultimately a rim of asphalté is put round the margin of the glass cover. Canada balsam is well fitted for many Diatoms, and for thin sections of woods. In putting up woods, the specimen is placed in the centre of the glass, a drop of turpentine is

put on it to expel the air, Canada balsam is then applied before the turpentine dries, and the same procedure is followed as above. For preparing fossil woods

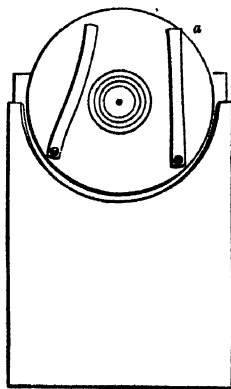


Fig. 1853.

Fig. 1852. Glass slide for microscopic preparations, 8 × 1 inch. In the centre is a ring of asphalté, forming a cell to contain fluid; the object, marked by a × in the centre, is covered by a circular piece of thin glass fitted to the asphalté rim. The name of the object is often written on the glass, but perhaps it is preferable to write the name on coloured paper, and attach it to the glass by isinglass or fine bookbinder's glue.

Fig. 1853. Apparatus for aiding in making the circular rim of asphalté; *b*, a piece of mahogany; *a*, a circular piece of brass, which can be moved round by the hand, and has two brass springs on

* Prepared Asphalté is much better than gold size or black japan varnish, inasmuch as it dries more rapidly, and is less liable to run. It can be procured from Smith and Beck, 6 Coleman Street, London, and from Bryson, 24 Princes Street, and Stark, 145 Princes Street, Edinburgh.

Nicol gives the following directions:—Cut off a thin slice in the required direction, grind it flat, and polish it. The smooth surface is then cemented to a piece of plate-glass by means of Canada balsam, of which a thin layer is to be applied to the slice of fossil wood, and another to the glass. They are then placed on a plate of metal, and gradually heated over a slow fire, so as

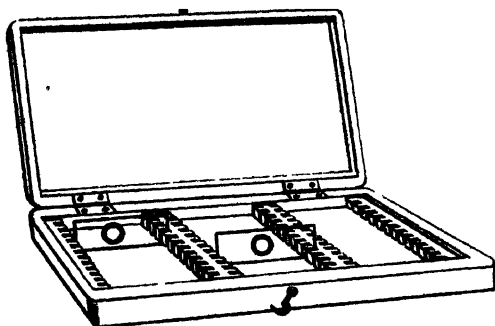


FIG. 1854

to inspissate the balsam, care being taken not to raise the heat so high as to produce air-bubbles in the fluid. The slice and glass are then removed and placed upon each other; the superfluous part of the balsam being squeezed out by a slight degree of pressure, accompanied with a sliding motion. When the preparation has cooled, the portion of balsam adhering to the edges of the slice is to be removed with a pen-knife, and the slice is ground down to the requisite degree of thickness, and polished.* In all instances slides should be labelled with the name, locality, and date, and they should be numbered and catalogued so that they may be easily referred to when put up in Cases such as that shown in Figure 1854, or in cabinets.†

1754. The Diatomaceæ being either free, or attached to Algæ, &c., diffe-

rs surface for holding a glass slide firm. In the centre of the brass disc are circular markings fitted for the size of asphalté cells required. These marks being seen through the slide laid above them, guide the hand in making the circular asphalté rim, the brass disc being turned round during the application.

Fig. 1854. A Case for containing slides after being prepared. There are three divisions, each containing twelve slides, two of which are shown projecting above the lower division of the box, the lid being hollowed to receive them. Numbers corresponding to those on the slides are fastened on the partitions at the sides of the grooves which retain the slides. On the front of the box a notice of the numbers contained in it should be fastened. Corresponding numbers, with full particulars as to the preparations, ought to be inserted in a book which serves as a catalogue, in which there should be first a numeral progressive series, and then an alphabetical register for genera. Card boxes for holding 24 slides are made by Smith and Beck and others, price one shilling each. They are excellent for forming a general collection. Cabinets are also made for slides, consisting of drawers half-an-inch deep (including the bottom) divided so as to hold 30, 40, or 50 slides, all on their back; the drawers being slightly bevelled at their divisions on one side, so that the slides may be tilted up by pressing them down. Smith and Beck charge for a cabinet of Honduras mahogany, capable of holding 500 slides, four guineas; 750 slides, five pounds; 1000 slides, six guineas; and 2000 slides, eleven pounds.

* Witham's Fossil Vegetables, p. 76.

† In making sections of minute objects, such as Diatoms, they are mixed up with plaster of Paris and mucilage, and then the whole is sliced by means of a sharp razor. Small pieces of wood are sometimes put into a slit in a cork, and then the whole sliced.

rent modes must be resorted to for collecting them. Those which are attached require only (either at the time or after being dried) to be rinsed gently in fresh water to get rid of the sand or mud, and salt if any, and then placed in a small saucer in boiling water, with a few drops of nitric or muriatic acid. The cuticle being corroded, the Diatoms fall to the bottom, the floating Algae are taken out with a glass rod, and the residue washed. This step is merely preparatory to that of burning or boiling the objects. If the Diatoms be free, they should, as far as possible, be gathered free from sand or mud, by skimming the surface of the pond or pool with an iron spoon; but as much mud and sand may still be mixed with them, they ought to be afterwards placed in a saucer in a little water, and exposed to the sun for a day or two. A tumbler or hand-glass will prevent too much evaporation. Diatoms, if recently gathered and alive, will come to the surface of the sediment, or water, or both, and this affords an easy mode of separating certain species. They may now be skimmed off with a small spoon, or, what is preferable, a camel's hair pencil, and removed to clean water; and this process is to be repeated till the mud is got rid of entirely. As for preparing the specimens, they may be either burned, or boiled in nitric acid. For the isolated Diatoms,* as *Navicula*, *Pleurosigma*, *Cocconeis*, &c. boiling is preferable; but for the others, as *Synedra*, *Fragilaria*, *Melosira*, *Meridion*, &c., if one wishes to have a few frustules cohering together to show their habit, then burning must be adopted, as the acid separates them joint by joint, and valve from valve. This is accomplished by arranging the specimens in the centre of a glass slide, and laying them on a thin iron-slide, and placing the whole within a little iron tray, closed in the form of a slipper, to exclude ashes. This is exposed to the fire till the slide is red hot. The slide is now allowed to cool, and the specimen is ready for being covered either with or without the intervention of balsam. The latter is called *dry* mounting, and is best accomplished by making a ring of asphalt, and following the same process as for liquid mounting, but without liquid. When nitric acid is to be used, the cleaned Diatoms are put into a large-sized test tube of German glass, with as little water as possible, and about one part of nitric acid to four of water. After being boiled for two or three minutes over a spirit-lamp, the Diatoms must be allowed to subside, and as much liquor as possible poured off with any fragments of vegetable matter floating in it. This boiling sometimes suffices, but it is always preferable to add some of the strong acid, and boil the whole again for a few minutes, so as to dissolve any vegetable or animal substances remaining. As the silicious covering is very thin, and easily broken by a sudden change of temperature, care must be taken in washing away the acid, either to use boiling water, or to allow the Diatoms in the test tube to cool. When a sufficient supply of *pure distilled* water can be easily got, it alone ought to be used for washing them; but, when that is not the case, ordinary water may be employed for the first washing, but the after washings must be all made with distilled water until the acid is got rid of. After being thoroughly washed, the Diatoms are kept in a small test-tube with some distilled water. In taking the specimens from the test-tube, in order to put them on the slide, a pipette or dropping-tube is employed, having a bore of about 1-30th to 1-50th of an inch at its lower end.

* By free Diatoms are meant those that are not parasitical. By isolated or solitary Diatoms are meant those not connected nor cohering together into threads or plates, or by a stipe, tube, or gela-

1755. Mr. Jackson remarks that it is desirable that no object submitted to a higher power than a quarter-inch objective of 75° aperture should ever be mounted under a cover thicker than 1-140th of an inch; if the aperture exceeds 120° , the best thickness for the cover is 1-250th of an inch.* Glass of this thickness can easily be cut with a good writing diamond, when laid on a piece of plate glass.† To clean the covers, he recommends putting them in strong sulphuric acid for a day or two, and then washing them repeatedly with water; after that placing them, a few at a time, on a tightly stretched clean cambric handkerchief, and rubbing them very gently with another handkerchief on the finger. They should then be removed to a clean box, with forceps, and carefully kept from dust and from contact with the fingers. The covers should be sorted according to their thickness, and this is done at once by Ross's "lever of contact," which consists of a long slender index, having a projecting *touch* near the centre of motion, which is kept in contact with a plane surface by means of a spring. When a piece of glass is inserted under the touch, the index points to the thickness on a graduated arc. The thickness may also be measured in the usual way by placing a fragment in the pliers, with the edge upwards, under the microscope, armed with an inch object-glass and an eye-piece micrometer.‡

1756. In sending home succulent fruits or roots, &c. from abroad, collectors should put them into strong brine in a barrel, sewing up each specimen in cloth of some kind, and attaching a wooden label numbered by branding; a list with corresponding numbers opposite the names or descriptions being transmitted at the same time. The specimens should be loosely packed, and yet so as not to change their position easily. In regard to the transmission of plants in a living state, details have been given at p. 484, and the best mode of sending seeds is noticed at p. 626.

* I am informed by a friend, that on account of the brittleness of the glass, covers thinner than 1-140th or 1-150th of an inch are, in the hands of most manipulators, practically useless, as they break by the mere wiping or mounting, and that glass 1-150th of an inch is not too thick either for Smith and Beck's 1-5th object-glass with 100° of aperture, or Ross's 1-8th with 156° of aperture, but that when dry mounting is adopted, the object ought to be arranged on the under side of the cover, thus bringing it as near the lenses as possible

† Quekett on the Microscope. 2d Edit p 265. ‡ Quarterly Journal of Microsc. Science, i. 141.

II. GLOSSARY,

OR

EXPLANATION OF SOME OF THE MOST IMPORTANT BOTANICAL TERMS.

- A**, *alpha* privative of the Greek, placed before a Greek or Latin word, indicates the absence of the organ; thus, *aphyllous*, without leaves.
- ABAXIAL** or **ABAXILLE**, not in the axis, applied to the embryo when out of the axis of the seed.
- ABORTION**, non-development of a part.
- ABRUPT**, ending in an abrupt manner, as the truncated leaf of the Tulip tree; *abruptly-pinnate*, ending in 2 pinnae, in other words, *pari-pinnate*; *abruptly-acuminata*, a leaf with a broad extremity from which a point arises.
- ABSCISSION**, cutting off, applied to the separation of the segments or frustules of Diatoms.
- ACAULIS** or **ACAULESCENT**, without an evident stem.
- ACCRESCENT**, when parts continue to grow and increase after flowering, as the calyx of *Phyllis*.
- ACCRETE**, grown together.
- ACCOMBENT**, applied to the embryo of Cruciferae, when the cotyledons have their edges applied to the folded radicle.
- ACEROSK**, narrow and slender, with a sharp point.
- ACHENE** or **ACHENIUM**, a monospermal seed-vessel which does not open, but the pericarp of which is separable.
- ACHLAMYDEOUS**, having no floral envelope.
- ACHROMATIC**, applied to lenses which prevent chromatic aberration, i. e., show objects without any prismatic colours.
- ACICULAR**, like a needle in form.
- ACICULUS**, a strong bristle.
- ACINACIFORM**, shaped like a sabre or scimitar.
- ACOTYLEDONOUS**, having no cotyledons.
- ACROCARPI**, Mosses having their fructification terminating the axis.
- ACROGEN** and **ACROGENOUS**, a stem which increases by its summit, and which has a peculiar arrangement of vascular tissue—See Index.
- ACULEUS**, a prickle, a process of the bark, not of the wood, as in the Rose; *Aeuleate*, furnished with prickles.
- ACUMINATE**, drawn out into a long point.
- ACUTE**, terminating gradually in a sharp point.
- ADELPHOUS** or **ADELPHIA**, in composition, means union of filaments.
- ADHERENT**, united, adhesion of parts that are normally separate, as when the calyx is united to the ovary.
- ADNATE**, when an organ is united to another throughout its whole length, as the stipules
- Rose, and the filament and anther in *Ranunculus*.
- ADRESSED** or **APPRESSED**, closely applied to a surface, as some hairs.
- ADUNCUS**, crooked or hooked.
- ADVENTITIOUS**, organs produced in abnormal positions, as roots, from aerial stems.
- ÆSTIVATION**, the arrangement of the parts of the flower in the flower-bud.
- AFFINITY**, relation in all essential organs.
- AGAMOUS**, the same as *Cryptogamous*.
- ALA**, a wing, applied to the lateral petals of a papilionaceous flower, and to membranous appendages of the fruit, as in the Elm, or of the seed, as in Pines.
- ALBUMEN**, the nutritious matter stored up with the embryo, called also *Perisperm* and *Endosperm*.
- ALBURNUM**, the outer young wood of a Dicotyledonous stem.
- ALGOLOGY**, the study of Sea-weeds.
- ALSIACIOUS**, a polypetalous corolla, in which there are intervals between the petals, as in *Cluckweed*.
- ALTERNATE**, arranged at different heights in the same axis, as when each leaf is separated by internodes by those next it.
- ALVEOLE**, regular cavities on a surface, as in the receptacle of the Sunflower, and in that of *Nelumbium* which is called *Alveolate*.
- AMENTUM**, a catkin or deciduous unisexual spike; plants having catkins are *Amentiferous*.
- AMNIOS**, the fluid or semi-fluid matter in the embryo-sac.
- AMORPHOUS**, without definite form.
- AMPHISARCA**, an indehiscent multilocular fruit with a hard exterior, and pulp round the seeds, as seen in the Baobab.
- AMPHITROPAL**, an ovule curved on itself, with the hilum in the middle.
- AMPLEXICAUL**, embracing the stem over a large part of its circumference.
- AMPULLA**, a hollow leaf, as in *Utricularia*.
- ANALOGOUS**, when a plant strikingly resembles one of another genus, so as to represent it.
- ANASTOMOSIS**, union of vessels; union of the final ramifications of the veins of a leaf.
- ANATROPAL** or **ANATROPOUS**, an inverted ovule, the hilum and micropyle being near each other, and the chalaza at the opposite end.
- ANCEPS**, two-edged.

- ANDROECIUM**, the male organs of the flower.
- ANDROGYNOUS**, male and female flowers on the same peduncle, as in some species of *Carex*.
- ANDROPHORE**, a stalk supporting the stamens, often formed by a union of the filaments.
- ANDR**, male or stamen, in composition, *Andro* and *Andros*.
- ANFRAC TUOUS**, wavy or sinuous, as the anthers of Cucurbitaceae.
- ANGIENCHYMA**, vascular tissue in general.
- ANGIOSPERMUS**, having seeds contained in a seed-vessel.
- ANISOS**, in composition, means unequal.
- ANISOSTEMONOUS**, stamens not equal in number to the floral envelopes, nor a multiple of them.
- ANNOTINUS**, a year old.
- ANNULUS**, a ring, applied to the elastic rim surrounding the sporangia of some Ferns, also to a cellular rim on the stalk of the Mushroom, being the remains of the veil.
- ANTERIOR**, same as *inferior*, when applied to the parts of the flower in their relation to the axis.
- ANTHELA**, the cymose panicle of Juncaceae.
- ANTHER**, the part of the stamen containing pollen.
- ANTHERIDIUM**, male organ in Cryptogamic plants, frequently containing moving filaments.
- ANTHEROZOA**, moving filaments in an antheridium.
- ANTHESIS**, the opening of the flower.
- ANTHOCARPOUS**, applied to multiple or polygynous fruits, formed by the ovaries of several flowers.
- ANTHODIUM**, the capitulum or head of flowers of Composite plants.
- ANTHOPHORE**, a stalk supporting the inner floral envelopes, and separating them from the calyx.
- ANTHOS**, a flower, in composition, *Antho*; in Latin *Flos*.
- ANTHOTAXIS**, the arrangement of the flowers on the axis.
- ANTICUS**, placed in front of a flower, as the lip of Orchids; *Anthera Antice*, anthers which open on the surface next the centre of the flower; same as *Introrse*.
- ANTITROPAL**, applied to an embryo whose radicle is diametrically opposite to the hilum.
- APERISPERMIC**, without separate albumen; same as *Esalbuminos*.
- APETALOUS**, without petals, in other words, monochlamydeous.
- APHYLLOUS**, without leaves.
- APICAL** or **APICULAR**, at the apex; often applied to parts connected with the ovary.
- APICULATE**, having an apiculus.
- APICULUS** or **APICULUM**, a terminal soft point springing abruptly.
- APOCARPOUS**, ovary and fruit composed of numerous distinct carpels.
- APOPHYSIS**, a swelling at the base of the theca in some Mosses.
- APOTHECIUM**, the rounded, shield-like fructification of Lichens.
- APTEROUS**, without wings.
- ARACHNOID**, applied to fine hairs so entangled as to resemble a cobweb.
- ARCHEGONIUM**, the young female organ in Cryptogamic plants.
- ARCUATE**, curved in an arched manner, like a bow.
- AREOLATE**, divided into distinct angular spaces, or *Areolae*.
- ARELLUS** and **ARELLONE**, an extra covering of the seed, the former proceeding from the placenta, the latter from the exostome, as in *Mace*.
- ARISTA**, an awn, a long pointed process, as in Barley and many grasses which are called *Aristate*.
- ARMATURES**, the hairs, prickles, &c., covering an organ.
- ARTICULATED**, jointed, separating easily and cleanly at some point.
- ASCENDING**, applied to a procumbent stem, which rises gradually from its base; to ovules attached a little above the base of the ovary; and to hairs directed towards the upper part of their support.
- ASCIDIUM**, a pitcher or folded leaf, as in *Nepenthes*.
- ASCUS**, a bag, applied to the thecae of Lichens, and other Cryptogams, containing sporidia or spores.
- ASPERITY**, roughness, as on the leaves of *Boraginaceae*.
- ATRAC TENYMA**, tissue composed of spindle-shaped cells.
- ATROPOUS** or **ATROPAL**, the same as *Orthotropous*.
- AURICULATE**, having appendages, applied to leaves having lobes or leaflets at their base.
- AWN** and **AWNED**, see *Arista* and *Aristate*.
- AXIL**, the upper angle where the leaf joins the stem.
- AXILE** or **AXIAL**, belonging to the axis.
- AXILLARY**, arising from the axil of a leaf.
- AXIS**, is applied to the central portion of the young plant, whence the plumule and radicle are given off, and the name is given in general to the central organ bearing buds; in Grasses, the common stem of a locusta.
- BACCA**, berry, a unilocular fruit having a soft outer covering and seeds immersed in pulp. All such fruits are called *Baccate*.
- BALAUSTA**, the fruit of the Pomegranate.—See reference in Index.
- BARK** (cortex), the outer cellular and fibrous covering of the stem; separable from the wood in Dicotyledons.
- BASAL** or **BASILAR**, attached to the base of an organ.
- BASIDIUM**, a cell bearing on its exterior one or more spores in some Fungi, which are hence called *Basidiosporous*.
- BAST** or **BASS**, the inner fibrous bark of dicotyledonous trees.
- BIDENTATE**, having two tooth-like processes.
- BIFABIOUS**, in two rows, one on each side of an axis.
- BIFID**, two-cleft, cut down to near the middle into two parts.
- BIFORINE**, a raphidian cell with an opening at each end.
- BILAMELLAR**, having two lamellae or flat divisions, as in some stigmas.
- BILOCULAR**, having two loculements.
- BIPARTITE**, cut down to near the base into two parts.
- BIPINNATE**, a compound leaf divided twice in a pinnate manner.
- BIPINNATIFID**, a simple leaf, with lateral divisions extending to near the middle, and which are also similarly divided.
- BIPINNATIPARTITE**, differing from bipinnatifid in the divisions extending to near the midrib.
- BIPOROSE**, having two rounded openings.
- BIS**, twice, in composition *Bi*.
- BISERRATE**, or duplicate-serrate, when the serratures are themselves serrate.
- BITERNATE**, a compound leaf divided into three, and each division again divided into three.
- BLADE**, the lamina or broad part of a leaf, as distinguished from the petiole or stalk.
- BLANCHING**, see *Etiolation*.
- BLETTING**, a peculiar change in an austere fruit, by which, after being pulled, it becomes soft and edible.
- BOLE**, the trunk of a tree.
- BOTHRENCHYMA**, dotted or pitted vessels, with depressions on the inside of their walls.
- BRACHIATE**, with decussate branches.
- BRACT**, a leaf more or less changed in form, from which a flower or flowers proceed; flowers having bracts are called *Bracteated*.

BRACTEOLA or **BRACLET**, a small bract at the base of a separate flower in a multifloral inflorescence.

BRYOLOGY, the study of Mosses; same as *Mossology*.

BULB, an underground bud covered with scales.

BULBIL or **BULBLET**, separable buds in the axil of leaves, as in some Lilies.

BULBOUS-BASED, applied to hairs which are tumid at the base.

BYSOID, very slender, like a cobweb.

CADUCOUS, falling off very early, as calyx of Poppy.

CAMPITOSE, growing in tufts.

CALATHIFORM, hemispherical or concave, like a bowl of cup.

CALATHIUM, same as *Capitulum* and *Anthodium*.

CALCAR, a spur, a projecting hollow or solid process from the base of an organ, as in the flowers of Larkspur and Snapdragon; such flowers are called *Calcareate* or spurred.

CALCULATE, slipper-like, applied to the hollow petals of some Orchids, also to the petals of *Calceolaria*.

CALLOSITY or **CALLUS**, a leathery or hardened thickening on a limited portion of an organ.

CALYPTROEA, a sub-class of Polypetalous Exogens, having the stamens attached to the calyx.

CALYCCULUS or **CALICULUS**, an outer calycine row of leaflets, giving rise to a double or calyculate calyx.

CALYPTRA, the outer covering of the sporangium of Mosses.

CALYX, the outer envelope of the flower; when there is only one envelope, it is the calyx.

CAMBium, mucilaginous cells, between the bark and the young wood, or surrounding the vessels.

CAMPANULATE, shaped like a bell, as the flower of Hare-bell.

CAMPULITROPAL or **CAMPYLOTROPAL**, a curved ovule with the hilum, micropyle and chalazs near each other.

CANALICULATE, channelled, having a longitudinal groove or furrow.

CANCELATE, latticed, composed of veins alone.

CAPILLARY, filiform, thread-like or hair-like.

CAPITATE, pin-like, having a rounded summit, as some hairs.

CAPITULUM, head of flowers in Compositae.

CARPOLATE, having tendrils.

CAPRIFICATION, the ripening of the Fig, by means of the wild fig or *Caprificus* (see Embryogeny, in Index).

CAPSULE, a dry seed-vessel, opening by valves, teeth, pores, or a lid.

CARINA, keel, the two partially united lower petals of papilionaceous flowers.

CARINAL, applied to aestivation when the carina embraces the other parts of the flower.

CARNOSE, fleshy, applied to albumen having a fleshy consistence.

CARPEL or **CARPIDIUM**, the leaf forming the pistil. Several carpels may enter into the composition of one pistil.

CARPOLOGY, the study of fruits.

CARPOPHORE, a stalk bearing the pistil, and raising it above the whorl of the stamens, as in *Lychnis* and *Caper*.

CARPOS, fruit, in composition *Carpis*.

CARNICULA, a fleshy or thickened appendage of the seed.

CARYOPSIS or **CARYOPSIS**, the monospermal seed-vessel of Grasses, the pericarp being incorporated with the seed.

CATEIN, same as *Amentum*.

CAUDATE, having a tail or feathery appendage.

CAUDEX, the stem of Palms and of Tree-ferns.

CAUDICLE, **CAUDICULA**, the process supporting the pollen mass in Orchids.

CAULESCENT, having an evident stem.

CAULICLE, **CAULICULUS**, stalk connecting the axis of the embryo and the cotyledons.

Caulis, an aerial stem.

CELLULOSE, the chemical substance of which the cell-wall is composed.

CENTIMETER, a French measure, equal to 0.3937079 British inch.

CENTRIFUGAL, applied to that kind of inflorescence in which the central flower opens first.

CENTRIFETAL, applied to that kind of inflorescence in which the flowers at the circumference or base open first.

CERAMIDIUM, an ovate conceptacle having a terminal opening, and with a tuft of spores arising from the base; seen in Algae.

CEREAL, applied to Wheat, Oats, Barley, and other grains.

CERNUOUS, pendulous, nodding.

CHALAZA, the place where the nourishing vessels enter the nucleus of the ovule.

CHLAMY, covering, applied to the floral envelope, in composition *Chlamydeus*.

CHLOROPHYLL, the green colouring matter of leaves.

CHLOROS, green, in composition *Chloro*.

CHORISIS or **CHORIZATION**, separation of a lamina from one part of an organ so as to form a scale or a doubling of the organ; it may be either transverse or collateral.

CHROMA, colour, in composition *Chrom*.

CHROMOGEN and **CHROMULE**, the colouring matter of flowers.

CHRYSOS means yellow like gold, in composition *Chryso*.

CICATRIGULA, the scar left after the falling of a leaf; also applied to the hilum or base of the seed.

CILIA (Cilium), short stiff hairs fringing the margin of a leaf; also delicate vibratile hairs of zoospores.

CINENCHYMA, laticiferous tissue, formed by anastomosing vessels.

CIRCINATE, rolled up like a crosier, as the young fronds of Ferns.

CIRCUMCISBILE, cut round in a circular manner, such as seed-vessels opening by a lid.

CIRCUMSCRIPTION, the periphery or margin of a leaf.

CIRRHUS, a tendril, or modified leaf in the form of a twining process.

CLADENCHYMA, tissue composed of branching cells.

CLADOS, a branch, in composition *Clado*.

CLATHERATUS, latticed like a grating.

CLAVATE, club-shaped, becoming gradually thicker towards the top.

CLAW, the narrow base of some petals, corresponding to the petiole of leaves.

CLEFT, divided to about the middle.

CLINANDRIUM, the part of the column of Orchids bearing the anther.

CLINANTHIUM, the common receptacle of the flowers of Compositae.

CLINE, a bed, in composition *Clis*, used in reference to parts on which the floral organs are inserted.

CLOVES, applied to young bulbs, as in the Onion.

CLYPEATE, having the shape of a buckler.

COCCIDIUM, a rounded conceptacle in Algae without pores, and containing a tuft of spores.

COCCUS and **COCCUM**, applied to the portions composing the dry elastic fruit of Euphorbiaceae.

COCHLEAR, a kind of aestivation, in which a helmet-shaped part covers all the others in the bud.

COCKLEBERRYFORM, shaped like a spoon.

COLEORHIZA, a sheath covering the radicles of a monocotyledonous embryo.

COLLATERAL, placed side by side, as in the case of some ovules.

- COLLENCYMA**, the inter-cellular substance which unites cells.
- COLLUM**, neck, the part where the plumule and radicle of the embryo unite.
- COLPENCYMA**, tissue composed of wavy or sinuous cells.
- COLUMELLA**, central column in the sporangia of Mosses; also applied to the carpophore of Umbellifers.
- COLUMN**, a part in the flower of an Orchid supporting the anthers and stigma, and formed by the union of the styles and filaments.
- COMA**, applied variously, to tufts of hairs, to bractes occurring beyond the inflorescence and to the general arrangement of the leaf-bearing branches of a tree, &c.
- COMMISSURE**, union of the faces of the two achenes in the fruit of Umbellifer.
- COMOSE**, furnished with hairs, as the seeds of the Willow.
- COMPOUND**, composed of several parts, as a leaf formed by several separate leaflets, or a pistil formed by several carpels either separate or combined.
- COMPRESSED**, flattened laterally or lengthwise.
- CONCEPTACLE**, a hollow sac containing a tuft or cluster of spores.
- CONDUCTING TISSUE**, applied to the loose cellular tissue in the interior of the canal of the style.
- CONDUPLICATE**, folded upon itself, applied to leaves and cotyledons.
- CONE**, a dry multiple fruit, formed by bracts covering naked seeds.
- CONENCHYMA**, conical cells, as hairs.
- CONFEROID**, formed of a single row of cells, or having articulations like a Conferva.
- CONJUGATION**, union of two cells, so as to develop a spore.
- CONNATE**, applied to two leaves united by their bases.
- CONNECTIVE**, the part which connects the anther lobes.
- CONNIVENT**, when two organs, as petals, arch over so as to meet above.
- CONTORED**, when the parts in a bud are imbricated and regularly twisted in one direction.
- CONVOLUTE** or **CONVOLUTIVE**, when a leaf in the bud is rolled upon itself.
- CORALLINE**, like Coral, as the root of Corallorhiza.
- CORCULUM**, a name for the embryo.
- CORD**, the process which attaches the seed to the placenta.
- CORDATE**, heart-shaped, a plane body with the division or broad part of the heart next the stalk or stem.
- CORDIFORM**, a solid body having the shape of a heart.
- CORIACEOUS**, having a leathery consistence.
- CORN**, thickened underground stem, as in the Colchicum and Arum.—See Index.
- CORMOGENÆ**, having a corn or stem.
- CORNU**, a horn; *Cornuous*, having the consistence of horn; *Bicornis* or *Bicornute*, having two horns.
- COROLLA**, the inner envelope of the flower.
- COROLLIFLORÆ**, Gamopetalous Exogens, with hypogynous stamens.
- CORONA**, a corolline appendage, as the crown of the Daffodil.
- CORUGATED**, wrinkled or shrivelled.
- CORTEX**, the bark; *Cortical*, belonging to the bark; *Corticated*, having the bark.
- CORTINA**, the remains of the veil which continue attached to the edges of the pilius in Agarics.
- CORYMBE**, a raceme in which the lower stalks are longest, and all the flowers come nearly to a level above; *Corymbiferous* or *Corymbosæ*, bearing a corymb, or in the form of a corymb.
- COSTA**, a rib, applied to the prominent bundles of vessels in the leaves; *Costate*, provided with ribs.
- COTYLEDON**, the temporary leaf or lobe of the embryo.
- CRAMPONS**, a name given to adventitious roots which serve as fulcra or supports, as in the Ivy.
- CREMOCARP**, the fruit of Umbellifera, composed of two separable achenes or mericarps.
- CRENATE**, having superficial rounded marginal divisions.
- CRENATURES**, divisions of the margin of a crenate leaf.
- CREST**, an appendage to fruits or seeds, having the form of a crest.
- CRISP**, having an undulated margin.
- CROWN OF THE ROOT**, the short stem which is at the upper part of the root of perennial herba.
- CRUCIFORM** and **CRUCIATE**, arranged like the parts of a cross, as flowers of Crucifera.
- CRUSTACEOUS**, hard, thin, and brittle; applied to those Lichens which are hard and expanded like a crust.
- CRYPTOGAMOUS**, organs of reproduction obscure.
- CRYPTOS**, inconspicuous or concealed, in composition *Crypto*.
- CUOLLATE**, formed like a hood.
- CULM**, stem or stalk of grasses.
- CUNEIFORM** or **CONATE**, shaped like a wedge standing upon its point.
- CUPULA**, the cup of the acorn, formed by aggregated bracts.
- CURVEMBRYÆ**, with the embryo curved.
- CUSPIS**, a long point large at the base, and gradually attenuated; *Cuspidate*, prolonged into a cuspis, abruptly acuminate.
- CUTICLE**, the thin layer that covers the epidermis.
- CYATHIFORM**, like a wine-glass; concave, in the form of a reversed cone.
- CYCLOGENS**, applied to Dicotyledons with concentric woody circles.
- CYCLOSIS**, movement of the latex in laticiferous vessels.—See Index.
- CYLINDRENCHYMA**, tissue composed of cylindrical cells.
- CYMBIFORM**, shaped like a boat.
- CYME**, a kind of definite inflorescence, in which the flowers are in racemes, corymbs, or umbels, the successive central flowers expanding first; *Cymose*, inflorescence in the form of a cyme.
- CYPSELA**, monospermal fruit of Compositæ.
- CYSTIDIA**, sacs containing spores; a kind of fructification in Fungi.
- CYTOBLAST**, the nucleus of a cell.
- CYTOBLASTEMA**, mucilaginous formative matter of cells, called also *Protoplasma*.
- CYTOGENESIS**, cell-development.
- CYTOS**, a cell, in composition, *Cyto*.
- DÆDALENCHYMA**, entangled cells.
- DECA**, ten, in Greek words, same as the Latin *Decem*; as *decandrous*, having ten stamens; *decagynous*, having ten styles.
- DECIDUOUS**, falling off after performing its functions for a limited time, as calyx of Ranunculus.
- DECIDUOUS TREES**, which lose their leaves annually.
- DECIMETRE**, the tenth part of a metre or ten centimetres.
- DECLINATE** or **DECLINING**, directed downwards from its base, applied to stamens of Amaryllis.
- DECOMPOUND**, a leaf cut into numerous compound divisions.
- DECORTICATED**, deprived of bark.
- DECUMBENT**, lying flat along the ground, and rising from it at the apex.
- DECURRENT**, leaves which are attached along the side of a stem below their point of insertion. Such stems are often called *Winged*.
- DECUSSATE**, opposite leaves crossing each other in pairs at right angles.
- DEDUPLICATION**, same as *Chorisis*.

- DEFINITE**, applied to inflorescence when it ends in a single flower, and the expansion of the flowers is centrifugal; also when the number of the parts of an organ is limited, as when the stamens are under twenty.
- DEFLEXED**, bent downwards in a continuous curve.
- DEFOLIATION**, the fall of the leaves.
- DEGENERATION**, when an organ is changed from its usual appearance and becomes less highly developed, as when scales take the place of leaves.
- DEHISCENCE**, mode of opening of an organ, as of the seed-vessel and anther.
- DELTOID**, like the Greek Δ in form, properly applied solely to describe the transverse section of solids.
- DENTATE**, toothed, having short triangular divisions of the margin. The term is also applied to the superficial divisions of a gamosepalous calyx and a gamopetalous corolla.
- DENTICULATE**, finely-toothed, having small tooth-like projections along the margin.
- DEPRESSED**, flattening of a solid organ from above downwards.
- DETERMINATE**, applied to definite or cymose inflorescence.
- DEXTROSE**, directed towards the right.
- DIACHANTUM**, same as *Cremocarp*, fruit composed of two achenes.
- DIACHYMA**, the parenchyma of the leaf.
- DIADELPHOUS**, stamens in two bundles, united by their filaments.
- DIALYCARPOUS**, pistil or fruit composed of distinct (separate) carpels.
- DIALYPETALOUS**, a corolla composed of separate petals.
- DIALYSEPALOUS** or **DIALYPHYLLOUS**, calyx composed of separate sepals.
- DICHLAMYDEOUS**, having calyx and corolla.
- DICHOTOMOUS**, stem dividing by twos.
- DICLINOUS**, unisexual flowers, either monoecious or dioecious.
- DICOTYLEDONOUS**, embryo having two cotyledons.
- DICTIOGENOUS**, applied to monocotyledons having netted veins.
- DIDYMOUS**, twice, union of two similar organs.
- DI-DYNAMOUS**, two long and two short stamens.
- DIGITATE**, compound leaf composed of several leaflets attached to one point.
- DIGYNOUS**, having two styles.
- DILAMINATION**, same as *Deduplication* and *Chorisis*.
- DIMEROUS**, composed of two pieces.
- DIMIDIATE**, split into two on one side, as the calyptra of some Mosses.
- DIOECIOUS**, staminate and pistilliferous flowers on separate plants.
- DIPLOOUS**, double, in composition, *Diplo*.
- DIPLOPERISTOMI**, Mosses with a double peristome.
- DIPLOSTEMONOUS**, stamens double the number of the petals or sepals.
- DIPTEROUS**, having two wings.
- DIS**, twice, in composition, *Di*, same as Latin *Bis* or *Bi*; as *dissepalous*, having two sepals, *dispermeous*, two seeded.
- DISCIFORM** and **DISCOID**, in the form of a disc or flattened sphere; *discoïd path*, divided into cavities by discs.
- DISCOID**, also applied to the flocculose or tubular flowers of Compositae.
- DIACS**, the peculiar rounded and dotted markings on coniferous wood.
- DIAX**, a part intervening between the stamens and the pistil in the form of scales, a ring, &c.
- DISPERMIOUS**, having two seeds.
- DISSECTED**, cut into a number of narrow divisions.
- DISSEMENT**, a division in the ovary; *true*, when formed by edges of the carpels; *false*, when formed otherwise.
- DISKILIENT**, applied to fruit which bursts in an elastic manner.
- DISTICHOUS**, in two rows, on opposite sides of a stem.
- DISTRACILIS**, separating two parts to a distance from each other.
- DIVARICAL**, having two loculements.
- DIVARICATING**, branches coming off from the stem at a very wide or obtuse angle.
- DODRCA**, twelve; in Latin *Duodecim*.
- DODRCAEUS**, having twelve stamens.
- DOLABRIFORM**, shaped like an axe.
- DORSAL**, applied to the suture of the carpel which is farthest from the axis.
- DORSIFEROUS**, Ferns bearing fructification on the back of their fronds.
- DORSUM**, the back, the part of the carpel which is farthest from the axis.
- DOUBLE FLOWER**, when the organs of reproduction are converted into petals.
- DRUPE**, a fleshy fruit like the Cherry, having a stony endocarp. *Drupels*, small drupes aggregated to form a fruit, as in the *Ra*.
- DUMOSE**, having a low shrubby aspect.
- DURAMEN**, the inner heart-wood of Dicotyledonous trees.
- DYNAMIS**, power, in composition means superiority in length; as *didynamous*, two stamens longer than two others.
- E** or **EX**, in composition corresponds to *alpha* privative; as *abrupteata*, without bracts, *acardate* without awns, *edentate*, without teeth, *ecostate*, without ribs.
- ELATKE**, spiral fibres in the spore-cases of Hepaticae.
- ELLIPTICAL**, having the form of an ellipse.
- EMARGINATE**, with a superficial portion taken out of the end.
- EMBRYO**, the young plant contained in the seed.
- EMBRYO-BUDS**, nodules in the bark of the Beech and other trees.
- EMBRYOGENE**, the development of the embryo in the ovule.
- EMBRYOLOGY**, the study of the formation of the embryo.
- EMBRYO-SAC** or **EMBRYONARY-SAC**, the cellular bag in which the embryo is formed.
- EMBRYOTEGA**, a process raised from the spermoderm by the embryo of some seeds during germination, as in the Bean.
- ENDOCARP**, the inner layer of the pericarp next the seed.
- ENDOCROME**, the colouring matter of cellular plants.
- ENDOGEN**, an inside grower, having an endogenous stem.—See reference in Index.
- ENDON**, within or inwards, in composition *Endo*.
- ENDOPHYLLUM**, the inner bark or liber.
- ENDOPLEURA**, the inner covering of the seed.
- ENDORHIZAL**, numerous rootlets, arising from a common radicle, and passing through sheaths, as in endogenous germination.
- ENDOSMOSE**, movement of fluids through a membrane.—See reference in Index.
- ENDOSPERM**, albumen formed within the embryo-sac.
- ENDOSPOROUS**, Fungi having their spores contained in a case.
- ENDOSTOME**, the inner foramen of the ovule.
- ENDOTHECIUM**, the inner coat of the anther.
- ENNERVIS**, without veins.
- ENNEA**, nine; in Latin *Novem*.
- ENNEANDROUS**, having nine stamens.
- ENRIFORM**, in the form of a sword, as the leaves of Iris.
- ENTIRE** (*integer*), without marginal divisions; (*integerrimus*, without either lobes or marginal divisions.)
- ENVELOPES**, **FLORAL**, the calyx and corolla.

- EPI**, upon, in composition, means on the outside or above, as *epicnary*, the outer covering of the fruit, *epigynous*, above the ovary.
- EPICALYX**, outer calyx, formed either of sepals or bracts, as in Mallow and Potentilla.
- EPICARP**, the outer covering of the fruit.
- EPICHLILUM**, the label or terminal portion of the strangulated or articulated lip (labellum) of Orchids.
- EPICOROLLINE**, inserted upon the corolla.
- EPIDERMIS**, the cellular layer covering the external surface of plants.
- EPIGEAL**, above ground, applied to cotyledons.
- EPIGONE**, the cellular layer which covers the young sporangium in Mosses and Hepaticæ.
- EPIGYNOUS**, placed above the ovary by adhesion to it.
- EPIPETALOUS**, inserted upon the petals.
- EPIPHYLLOUS**, growing upon a leaf.
- EPIPHYTTE**, attached to another plant, and growing suspended in the air.
- EPIDERMIOLOGY**, the influence of external agents on plants.
- EPISPERM**, the external covering of the seed.
- EPISPORE**, the outer covering of some spores.
- EQUANT**, applied to leaves folded longitudinally, and overlapping each other without any involution.
- ERECT**, applied to an ovule which rises from the base of the ovary; also applied to innate anthers.
- EROSE**, irregularly toothed, as if gnawed.
- ERUMPENT**, prominent, as if bursting through the epidermis, as seen in some tetraspores.
- ETWIKO**, the aggregate drupes forming the fruit of Babus.
- ETIOLATION**, blanching, losing colour in the dark.
- EXALBUMINOUS**, without a separate store of albumen or perisperm.
- EXANNULATE**, without a ring, applied to some Ferns.
- EXOENTRIC**, removed from the centre or axis, applied to a lateral embryo.
- EXOPULUS**, a receptacle containing fructification in Lichens.
- EXCURRENT**, running out beyond the edge or point.
- EXINTINE**, one of the inner coverings of the pollen-grain.
- EXO**, in composition, on the outside.
- EXOGEN**, outside grower, same as Dicotyledon.
- EXOHIZAL**, radicle proceeding directly from the axis, and afterwards branching, as in Exogems.
- EXOSMOSE**, the passing outwards of a fluid through a membrane.—See reference in Index.
- EXOSPOROUS**, Fungi having naked spores.
- EXOSTOME**, the outer opening of the foramen of the ovule.
- EXOTHECIUM**, the outer coat of the anther.
- EXsertED**, extending beyond an organ, as stamens beyond the corolla.
- EXSTIPULATE**, without stipules.
- EXTINE**, the outer covering of the pollen-grain.
- EXTRA-AXILLARY**, removed from the axil of the leaf, as in the case of some buds.
- EXTROSE**, applied to anthers which dehisce on the side farthest removed from the pistil.
- EXUTIVE**, applied by Miers to seeds wanting the usual integumentary covering, as in Olacaceæ.
- FALCATE** or **FALCIFORM**, bent like a sickle.
- FARINACEOUS**, mealy, containing much starch.
- FASCIATION**, union of branches or stems, so as to present a flattened ribband-like form.
- FASCIOLE**, a shortened umbellate cyme, as in some species of Dianthus.
- FASCIATE**, having a pyramidal form, from the branches being parallel and erect.
- FAVELLA**, a kind of conceptacle in Algae.
- FEATHER-VENEERED**, a leaf having the veins passing from the midrib at a more or less acute angle, and extending to the margin.
- FENESTRATE**, applied to a replum or leaf with openings in it, compared to windows.
- FIBRO-CELLULAR** tissue, composed of spiral cells.
- FIBROUS**, composed of numerous fibres, as some roots.
- FIBRO-VASCULAR** tissue, composed of vessels containing spiral and other fibres.
- FID**, in composition, cleft, cut down to about the middle.
- FILAMENT**, stalk supporting the anther.
- FILAMENTOUS**, a string of cells placed end to end.
- FILIFORM**, like a thread.
- FIMBRIATE**, fringed at the margin.
- FISSIPAROUS**, dividing spontaneously into two parts, by means of a septum.
- FISSURE**, a straight slit in an organ for the discharge of its contents.
- FISTULOUS**, hollow, like the stem of Grasses.
- FLABELLIFORM**, fan-shaped, as the leaves of some Palms.
- FLAGELLUM**, a runner, a weak, creeping stem bearing rooting buds at different points, as in the Strawberry.
- FLEXUOSE** or **FLEXUOUS**, having alternate curvations in opposite directions; bent in a zig-zag manner.
- FLOCCI**, woolly filaments with sporules in Fungi and Algae.
- FLOCCOSE**, covered with wool-like tufts.
- FLORAL ENVELOPE**, the calyx and corolla.
- FLOSCULOUS**, the tubular florets of Composite.
- FOLIATION**, the development of leaves.
- FOLIOLE**, same as *Phylla* and *Sepala*.
- FOLLICLE**, a fruit formed by a single carpel, dehiscing by one suture, which is usually the ventral.
- FOOT**, French, equal to 1.07892 foot British.
- FORAMEN**, the opening in the coverings of the ovule.
- FOVEATE** or **FOVEOLATE**, having pits or depressions called foveæ or foveolæ.
- FOVILLA**, minute granular matter in the pollen-grain.
- FROND**, the leaf-like organ of Ferns bearing the fructification; also applied to the thallus of many Cryptogams.
- FRONDOSE**, applied to Cryptogams with foliaceous or leaf-like expansions.
- FRUSTULES**, the parts or fragments into which Diatomaceæ separate.
- FRUTEX**, a shrub; *Fruticose*, shrubby.
- FUGACIOUS**, evanescent, falling off early, as the petals of Cistus.
- FULVUS**, tawny-yellow.
- FUNICULUS**, the umbilical cord connecting the hilum of the ovule to the placenta.
- FURCATE**, divided into two branches, like a two-pronged fork.
- FURFURACEOUS**, scurfy or scaly.
- FUSIFORM**, shaped like a spindle.
- GALBULUS**, the polygynœcial succulent fruit of Juniper.
- GALEA**, applied to a sepal or petal shaped like a helmet; the part is called *Galeata*.
- GAMO**, in composition, means union of parts.
- GAMOPETALOUS**, same as *Monopetalous*, petals united.
- GAMOPHYLLOUS** and **GAMOSEPALOUS**, same as *Monophyllous* and *Monosepalous*, sepals united.
- GENINATE**, twin, organs combined in pairs.
- GENMA**, a leaf-bud; *Germination*, the development of leaf-buds.
- GENMIFEROUS**, bearing buds.
- GENMIPAROUS**, reproduction by buds.
- GENMULO**, same as *Plumule*, the first bud of the embryo.
- GENICULATE**, bent like a knee.
- GERMEN**, a name for the ovary.
- GERMINAL VESICLE**, a cell contained in the embryo sac, from which the embryo is developed.

GERMINATION, the sprouting of the young plant.

GIBBOUSITY, a swelling at the base of an organ, such as the calyx or corolla.

GIBBOUS, swollen at the base, or having a distinct swelling at some part of the surface.

GLABROUS, smooth, without hairs.

GLAND, an organ of secretion consisting of cells, and generally occurring on the epidermis of plants.

GLANDULAR HAIRS, hairs tipped with a gland, as in *Drosera* and Chinese Primrose.

GLANS, nut, applied to the Acorn or Hazel-nut, which are enclosed in bracts.

GLAUCCUS, covered with a pale-green bloom.

GLOBULE, male organ of Chara.

GLOMIDATE, barbed, applied to hairs with two reflexed points at their summit.

GLOMERULUS, a rounded, cymose inflorescence, as in *Urtica*.

GLUMACEOUS, of the nature of glumes.

GLUME, a bract covering the organs of reproduction in the spikelets of Grasses, which are hence called *Glumiferous*.

GLUMELLE and GLUMELLULE, a name applied to the palea or pale of a Grass.

GONIDIA, green germinating cells in the thallus of Lichens.

GONUS or GONUM, in composition, means either kneed or angled; in the former case the *o* is short, in the latter long. *Polygonum*, many-kneed; *Tetragonum*, four-angled.

GRAIN, caryopsis, the fruit of Cereal Grasses.

GRAINS of pollen, minute cells composing the pollen.

GRANULATED, composed of granules.

GRUMOUS, collected into granular masses.

GYMNOGEN, a plant with naked seeds, *i. e.*, seeds not in a true ovary.

GYMNOS, naked, in composition *Gymno*.

GYMNOSPERMOUS, plants with naked seeds, *i. e.*, seeds not in a true ovary, as Conifers.

GYMNOSPORE, a naked spore; *Gymnosporous*, having naked spores.

GYMNOSTOMI, naked-mouthed, Mosses without a peristome.

GYANDROUS, stamen and pistil united in a common column, as in Orchids.

GYNE, female, and **GYN**, **GYNOUS**, and **GYNO**, in composition, refer to the pistil or the ovary.

GYNZIUS, the position of the stigma on the column of Orchids.

GYNOBASE, a central axis to the base of which which the carpels are attached.

GYNOECIUM, the female organs of the flower.

GYNOPHORE, a stalk supporting the ovary.

GYNOSTEMIUM, column in Orchids bearing the organs of reproduction.

GYRATE, same as *Circinate*.

GYRATION, same as *Rotation* in cells.

HABIT of a plant, its general external appearance.

HALOPHYTES, plants of salt-marshes, containing salts of soda in their composition.

HASTATE, halbert-shaped, applied to a leaf with two portions at the base projecting more or less completely at right angles to the blade.

HAULM, dead stems of herbs, as of the potato.

HAUSTORIUM, the sucker at the extremity of the parasitic root of Dodder.

HEART-WOOD, same as *Duramen*.

HELICOIDAL, having a coiled appearance like the shell of a snail, applied to inflorescence.

HELMET, the upper petaloid sepal of *Aconitum*.

HEMI, half; same as Latin *Semis*.

HEMICARP, one of the achenes forming the cremocarp of Umbellifere.

HEPTA, seven; same as Latin *Septem*.

HEPTANDROUS, having seven stamens.

HERM, a plant with an annual stem, opposed to a woody plant.

HERBACEOUS, green succulent plants which die down to the ground in winter; annual shoots; green-colored cellular parts.

HERMAPRODITE, stamens and pistil in the same flower.

HERMIDIUM, the fruit of the Orange, and other Anaradiaceae.—See reference in Index.

HERMOPHYCALOUS, Composite plants having male and female capitula on the same plant.

HERODROMOUS, running in different directions.

HEROGAMOUS, Composite plants having hermaphrodite and unisexual flowers on the same head.

HETROPHYILLOUS, presenting two different forms of leaves.

HETEROHIZAL, rootlets proceeding from various points of a spore during germination.

HETERO, dissimilar or diverse, in composition *Hetero*.

HETROTROPAL, ovule with the hilum in the middle, and the funiculus and chalasa at opposite ends.

HEXA, six; same as Latin *Ses*.

HEXANDROUS, having six stamens.

HILUM, the base of the seed to which the placenta is attached either directly or by means of a cord. The term is also applied to the mark at one end of some grains of starch.

HIREUTE, covered with long stiff hairs.

HISPID, covered with long very harsh hairs.

HISTOLOGY, the study of microscopic tissues.

HOLOBREMICOUS, covered with minute silky hairs, discovered better by the touch than by sight.

HOMODROMOUS, running in the same direction.

HOMOGAMOUS, Composite plants having the flowers of the capitula all hermaphrodite.

HOMOGENEOUS, having a uniform structure or substance.

HOMOS and **HOMOIOS**, similar, in composition *Homo*.

HOMOTROPAL, same as *Orthotropal*.

HOBIOLOGICAL, flowers opening and closing at certain hours.

HUMIFUSE, spreading along the ground.

HYALINE, transparent or colourless, applied by Barry to the part where the cell-nucleus appears.

HYBRID, a plant resulting from the fecundation of one species by another.

HYMENIUM, the part which bears the fructification in Agarics.

HYPANTHODIUM, the receptacle of *Dorstenia*—see Index.

HYPO, under or below, in composition *Hyp*.

HYPOCARPOEAN, plants producing their fruit below ground.

HYPOCHILIUM, the lower part of the labellum of Orchids.

HYPOCRATERIFORM, shaped like a salver, as the corolla of *Frimula*.

HYPOGAL or **HYPOGEOUS**, under the surface of the soil, applied to Cotyledons.

HYPOGYNOUS, inserted below the ovary or pistil.

HYPOTHALLUS, the mycelium of certain Entophytic Fungi as Uredines.

HYSOMETRICAL, measurement of altitude.

ICOSANDEIA, having twenty stamens, or more inserted on the calyx; *Icosandrous*, having twenty stamens.

ICOSI, twenty; in composition *Icos*. Same as Latin *Figinti*.

IMBRICATE or **IMBRICATED**, parts overlying each other like tiles on a house. *Imbricated aestivation*, the parts in the flower-bud alternately overlapping each other, and arranged in a spiral manner.

IMPARI-PINNATE, unequally-pinnate, pinnate leaf ending in an odd leaflet.

INARCHING, a mode of grafting by bending two growing plants towards each other, and causing a branch of the one to unite to the other.

- INARTICULATE**, without joints or interruption to continuity.
- INCH**, French, is equal to 1.06578 inch British.
- INCISED**, cut down deeply.
- INCLUDED**, applied to the stamens when enclosed within the corolla, and not pushed out beyond its tube.
- INCUMBENT**, cotyledons with the radicle on their back.
- INDEFINITE**, applied to inflorescence with centripetal expansion; also to stamens above twenty, and to ovules and seeds when very numerous.
- INDEHISCENT**, not opening.
- INDETERMINATE**, applied to indefinite inflorescence.
- INDIGENOUS**, an aboriginal native in a country.
- INDUPLICATE** or **INDUPLICATIVE**, edges of the sepals or petals turned slightly inwards in aestivation.
- INDUSIUM**, epidermal covering of the fructification in some Ferns.
- INDUTIVE**, applied by Miers to seeds having the usual integumentary covering.
- INERMIS**, unarmed, without prickles or thorns.
- INFERIOR**, applied to the ovary when it seems to be situated below the calyx; and to the part of a flower farthest from the axis.
- INFLORESCENCE**, the mode in which the flowers are arranged on the axis.
- INFUNDIBULIFORM**, in shape like a funnel; as seen in some gamopetalous corollas.
- INNATE**, applied to anthers when attached to the top of the filament.
- INNOVATIONS**, buds in Mosses.
- INTERCELLULAR SPACE**, same as *Lacuna*.
- INTERFOLIAE**, between two opposite leaves.
- INTERNODE**, the portion of the stem between two nodes or leaf-buds.
- INTERPETIOLAE**, between the petioles of opposite leaves; as the stipules of Cinchona.
- INTERRUPTEDLY-PINNATE**, a pinnate leaf in which pairs of small pinnae occur between the larger pairs.
- INTEXTINE**, one of the inner coverings of the pollen-grain.
- INTINE**, the inner covering of the pollen-grain.
- INTROSE**, applied to anthers which open on the side next the pistil.
- INVOLUCEL**, bracts surrounding the partial umbel of Umbelliferae.
- INVOLUCRE**, bracts surrounding the general umbel in Umbelliferae, the heads of flowers in Compositae, and in general any verticillate bracts surrounding numerous flowers. It is also used in the same sense as the Indusium of Ferns.
- INVOLUTE** or **INVOLUTIVE**, edges of leaves rolled inwards spirally on each side, in aestivation.
- IRREGULAR**, a flower in which the parts of any of the verticils differ in size.
- ISOCYHMAL** or **ISOCHEIMINAL**, lines passing through places which have the same mean winter temperature.
- ISOMERIC**, applied chemically to substances which, though differing in qualities, have the same elements in the same proportions.
- ISOMEROUS**, when the organs of a flower are composed each of an equal number of parts.
- ISOS**, equal, in composition *Isos*.
- ISOTHERMONOUS**, when stamens and floral envelopes have the same number of parts or multiples.
- ISOTHERMAL**, lines passing through places which have the same mean summer temperature.
- ISOTHERMAL**, lines passing through places which have the same mean annual temperature.
- JUGA**, a name given to the ribs on the fruit of Umbelliferae.
- JUGUM**, a pair of leaflets; *jugate*, applied to the pair of leaflets in compound leaves; *aeijugate*, one pair; *dijugate*, two pairs, and so on.
- KEEL**, same as *Carina*.
- LABEL**, the terminal division of the lip of the flower in Orchids.
- LABELLUM**, lip, one of the divisions of the inner whorl of the flower of Orchids. This part is in reality superior, but becomes inferior by the twisting of the ovary.
- LABIATE**, lipped, applied to irregular gamopetalous flowers, with an upper and under portion separated more or less by a hiatus or gap.
- LACINIATED**, irregularly cut into narrow segments.
- LACTESCENT**, yielding milky juice.
- LACUNA**, a large space in the midst of a group of cells.
- LAEVIGATUS**, having a smooth polished appearance.
- LAEVIS**, even.
- LAMELLAE**, gills of an Agaric; also applied to flat divisions of the stigma.
- LAMINA**, the blade of the leaf, the broad part of a petal or sepal.
- LANCEOLATE**, narrowly elliptical, tapering to each end.
- LANUGINOUS**, woolly, covered with long flexuous interlaced hairs.
- LATERAL**, arising from the side of the axis, not terminal.
- LATEX**, granular fluid contained in laticiferous vessels.
- LATICIFEROUS**, vessels containing latex, which anastomose.
- LATISEPTAE**, Cruciferous plants having a broad replum in their siliqua.
- LEGUME**, a pod composed of one carpel, opening usually by ventral and dorsal suture, as in the Pea. For varieties of Legume see reference in Index.
- LENTICLE**, a small process on the bark of the Willow and other plants, whence adventitious roots proceed.
- LENTICULAR**, in the form of a doubly-convex lens.
- LEPIDOTE**, covered with scales or scurf; *lepis*, a scale.
- LIANAS** or **LIANES**, twining woody plants.
- LIBER**, the fibrous inner bark or endophleum.
- LIEBKRUHN**, a metallic mirror attached to the objective of a microscope for the purpose of throwing down light on opaque objects.
- LIGNINE**, woody matter which thickens the cell-walls.
- LIGULATE**, strap-shaped florets, as in Dandelion.
- LIGULE**, a process arising from the petiole of grasses where it joins the blade.
- Composite plants having ligulate florets.
- LEMB**, the blade of the leaf; the broad part of a petal or sepal; when sepals or petals are united, the combined broad parts are denominated collectively the limb.
- LINE**, the 12th part of an inch; *Line*, French, is equal to 0.088815 inch British.
- LINEAR**, very narrow leaves, in which the length exceeds greatly the breadth.
- LINELLA**, sessile linear apothecium of Lichens.
- LOBE**, large division of a leaf or any other organ; applied often to the divisions of the anther.
- LOCULICIDAL**, fruit dehiscing through the back of the carpels.
- LOCULUS** or **LOCULAMENT**, a cavity in an ovary, which is called *unicular* when it has one cavity, *bilocular* with two, and so on. The terms are also applied to the anther.
- LOCUSTA**, a spikelet of grasses formed of one or several flowers.
- LODICULA**, a scale at the base of the ovary of Grasses.
- LOMNENTUM** and **LOMNENTACROUS**, applied to a legume or pod with transverse partitions, each division containing one seed.

LUNATE, crescent-shaped.

LYRATE, a pinnatifid leaf with a large terminal lobe, and smaller ones as we approach the petiole.

MACROA, large, in composition *Macro*.

MALPIGHIANOUS HAIRS, petiole hairs, such as are seen in Malpighiaceae.

MARCESCENT, withering, but not falling off until the part bearing it is perfected.

MARGINATE, applied to calyx, same as *Obsolete*.

MASKED, same as *Personate*.

MATE, a term sometimes used for crop; an agricultural term.

MATTILLA, the fibrous matter covering the petioles of Palms.

MEDULLA, the cellular pith.

MEDULLARY RAYS or **PLATES**, cellular prolongations uniting the pith and the bark.

MEDULLARY BRUSH, sheath containing spiral vessels surrounding the pith in *Exogon*.

MICROSTEMONOUS or **MICOSTEMONOUS**, the stamens less in number than the parts of the corolla.

MEMBRANACEOUS or **MEMBRANOUS**, having the consistence, aspect, and structure of a membrane.

MENISUS, a lens having a concave and a convex face, with a sharp edge.

MERENONYMA, tissue composed of rounded cells.

MERICARP, carpel forming one-half of the fruit of Umbelliferae.

MERTHAL, a term used in place of internode; applied by Gaudichaud to the different parts of the leaf.

MESOCARP, middle covering of the fruit.

MESOCILLIUM, middle portion of the labellum of Orchids.

MESOPHLOEM, middle layer of the bark.

MESOPHYLLUM, the parenchyma of the leaf.

MESOS, the middle, in composition *Meso*.

MESOSPERM, applied to a covering of the seed derived from the secundine.

METRE, equal to 89.37079 inches British.

MICROMETER, instrument for measuring microscopic objects.

MICROPILE, the opening or foramen of the seed.

MICROA, small, in composition *Micro*.

MILLIMETRE, equal to 0.0937079 English inch, or 25 26964 millimetres equal to an English inch.

MITRIFORM, shaped like a mitre, as the calyptra of some Mosses.

MONADELPHOUS, stamens united into one bundle by union of their filaments.

MONANDROUS, having one stamen.

MONEMBRYONY, having a single embryo.

MONILIFORM, beaded, cells united, with interruptions, so as to resemble a string of beads.

MONOCARPIC, producing flowers and fruit once during life, and then dying.

MONOCHLAMYDEOUS, flower having a single envelope, which is the calyx.

MONOCLINOUS, stamens and pistils in the same flower.

MONOCOTYLEDONOUS, having one cotyledon in the embryo.

MONOCIOUS, stamens and pistils in different flowers on the same plant.

MONOGYNICAL, applied to simple fruits, formed by the pistil of one flower.

MONOGYNOUS, having one pistil or carpel; also applied to plants having one style.

MONOPETALOUS, same as *Gamopetalous*.

MONOPHYLLOUS, same as *Canthocarpalous*.

MONOS, one, in composition *Mono* and *Mon*, as *monandrous*, one stamen; sometimes applied to the union of parts into one, as *monopetalous*, meaning combined petals; same as Latin *Unus*.

MONOPHYLLOUS, same as *Gamopetalous*.

MONOSPERMUS or **MONOSPERMEAL**, having a single seed.

MORONOCOT, having a single loculement.

MORONOCOTY, an abnormal development, applied more especially to double flowers.

MORPHOLOGY, the study of the forms which the different organs assume, and the laws that regulate their metamorphoses.

MUCRO, a stiff point abruptly terminating an organ; *Mucronate*, having a mucro.

MUCUS, definite, peculiar matter forming a covering of certain sea-weeds.

MULTICOSTATE, many-ribbed.

MULTIFID, applied to a simple leaf divided laterally to about the middle into numerous portions; when the divisions extend deeper it is *Multipartite*.

MULTILOCLULAR, having many loculements.

MULTIPLE, applied to anthocarpous or polygynous fruits formed by the union of several flowers.

MURICATE, covered with firm, short points or excrescences.

MURIFORM, like bricks in a wall; applied to cells.

MUSCOLOGY, the study of Mosses.

MUTICUS, without any pointed process or awn.

MYCELIUM, the cellular spawn of Fungi.

NAKED, applied to seeds not contained in a true ovary; also to flowers without any floral envelope.

NAPEIFORM, shaped like a turnip.

NATURALISED, originally introduced by artificial means, but become apparently wild.

NAVICULAR, hollowed like a boat.

NECTARIFEROUS, having a honey-like secretion; applied to petals having depressions or furrows at their base, which contain a sweet secretion.

NECTARY, any abnormal part of a flower. It ought to be restricted to organs secreting a honey-like matter, as in *Crown Imperial*.

NERVATION or **NERVATURE**, same as *Venation*.

NETTED, applied to reticulated venation, also covered with raised lines disposed like the threads of a net.

NITIDUS, having a smooth and polished surface.

NODE, the part of the stem from which a leaf-bud proceeds.

NODOSE, having swollen nodes or articulations.

NODULOSUS, applied to roots with thickened knots at intervals.

NOROLOGY, vegetable, the study of the diseases of plants.

NOTORHIZEA, radicle on the back of the cotyledons, as in some *Cruciferae*.

NUCLEUS, the body which gives origin to new cells; also applied to the central cellular portion of the ovule and seed.

NUCULANUM, applied to the fruit of the Medlar having nuckles; some also apply this term to the Grape.

NUCULE, hard carpel in the Medlar, also one of the parts of fructification in *Characeae*.

NUCCIMENTACEOUS, *Cruciferae* having a dry monospermous fruit.

NUT, properly applied to the glans, but also applied to any hard nut-like fruit, as in *Carex* and *Bumex*.

OB, in composition, means reversed or contrariwise.

OBCOMPRESSED, flattened in front and behind, not laterally.

OBCORDATE, inversely heart-shaped, with the divisions of the heart at the opposite end from the stalk.

OBLONG, about $\frac{2}{3}$ as long as broad; elliptical, obtuse at each end.

OBOVATE, reversely ovate, the broad part of the egg being uppermost.

OBsolete, imperfectly developed or abortive; applied to the calyx when it is in the form of a rim.

- OSTEA**, not pointed, with a rounded or blunt termination.
- OSTIOLATE**, margins of one leaf alternately overlapping those of the leaf opposite to it.
- OSTIUM**, back, applied to the sheathing stipule of Polygonaceae.
- OSTEOPHYTES**, having eight stamens.
- OCTO**, eight, in composition *Oct*.
- OCROGYNOUS**, having eight styles.
- OBICUM** and **OBICIOUS**, in composition, have reference to the position of the reproductive organs, as *Androsium*, the staminal organs; *Dianthus*, stamen and pistil in different flowers.
- OFFICIAL**, sold in the shops.
- OLEACEOUS**, used as an excellent potherb.
- OLIGANEROUS**, stamens under twenty.
- OLIGOS**, few or in small number, in composition *Oligo* and *Olig*.
- OMPHALODE**, the central point of the hilum where the nourishing vessels enter.
- OPHRODIDIUM**, organ in Lycopodiaceae containing large spores.
- OPAQUE**, dull, not shining.
- OPHROULUM**, lid, applied to the separable part of the theca of Mosses; also applied to the lid of certain seed-vessels; *Operonate*, opening by a lid.
- OPPOSITE**, applied to leaves placed on opposite sides of a stem at the same level.
- ORBICULAR**, rounded leaf with petiole attached to the centre of it.
- ORGANOGENY**, the development of organs.
- ORGANOGRAPHY**, the description of the organs of plants.
- ORTHOPLACERIS**, *Oracifera* having conduplicate cotyledons.
- ORTHOS**, straight, in composition *Ortho*, same as Latin *Rectus*.
- ORTHOPEPAL** and **ORTHOPEPOUS**, ovule with foramen opposite to the hilum; embryo with radicle next the hilum.
- OVAL**, elliptical, blunt at each end.
- OVARY**, the part of the pistil which contains the ovules.
- OVATE**, shaped like an egg, applied to a leaf with the broader end of the egg next the petiole or stalk; *Ovate-lanceolate*, a lanceolate leaf, which is somewhat ovate.
- OVENCHYMA**, tissue composed of oval cells.
- OVULE**, the young seed contained in the ovary.
- PAGINA**, applied to the surface of the leaf, or any flat surface.
- PALAEONTOLOGY**, the study of Fossils.
- PALAEOPHYTOLOGY**, the study of Fossil plants.
- PALATE**, the projecting portion of the under lip of personate flowers.
- PALRA** or **PALR**, the part of the flower of Grasses within the glume; also applied to the small scaly laminae which occur on the receptacle of some Compositae.
- PALRACHOUS**, chaffy, covered with small erect membranous scales.
- PALMATE** and **PALMATIFID**, applied to a leaf with radiating venation, divided into lobes to about the middle.
- PALMATIFRAXITE**, applied to a leaf with radiating venation, cut nearly to the base in a palmate manner.
- PANDURIFORM**, shaped like a fiddle, applied to an oblong leaf, with a sinus on each side about the middle.
- PANICLE**, inflorescence of Grasses, consisting of spikelets on long peduncles coming off in a racemose manner.
- PANICULARE**, forming a panicle.
- PANICULACHOUS**, corolla composed of vexillum, two alae, and carina, as in the *Poa*.
- PAPILLATED** and **PAPILLOSE**, covered with small nipple-like prominences.
- PAPPUS**, the hairs at the summit of the achenes in Compositae. They consist of the abraded calycine limb. Pappus, provided with awns.
- PARAPHYTES**, filaments, sometimes articulated, occurring in the fructification of Mosses, and other Cryptogams; also applied by some authors to abortive petals or stamens.
- PARASITE**, attached to another plant, and deriving nourishment from it.
- PARENCHYMA**, cellular tissue.
- PARIENTAL**, applied to placenta on the wall of the ovary.
- PARI-PINNATE**, a compound pinnate leaf, ending in two leaflets.
- PARTITE** or **PARTED**, cut down to near the base, the divisions being called *Partitions*.
- PATELLA**, rounded sessile apothecium of Lichens *PATELLA*, spreading widely.
- PATHOLOGY**, vegetable, same as *Necology*.
- PATULOUS**, spreading less than when patent.
- PECTINATE**, divided laterally into narrow segments, like the teeth of a comb.
- PEDATE** and **PEDATIFID**, a palmate leaf of three lobes, the lateral lobes bearing other equally large lobes on the edges next the middle lobe.
- PEDICEL**, the stalk supporting a single flower, such a flower is *Pedicellate*.
- PEDUNCLE**, the general flower-stalk or floral axis. Sometimes it bears one flower; at other times it bears several sessile or pedicellate flowers.
- PELAGIC**, growing in many distant parts of the ocean.
- PELLICLE**, the outer cuticular covering of plants.
- PELOEIA**, a name given to a teratological phenomenon, which consists in a flower, which is usually irregular, becoming regular; for instance, when *Lanaria*, in place of one spur, produces five.
- PELTATE**, shield-like, fixed to the stalk by a point within the margin; *peltate hairs*, attached by their middle.
- PENDULOUS**, applied to ovules which are hung from the upper part of the ovary.
- PENICILLATE**, pencilled, applied to a tufted stigma resembling a camel's hair pencil, as in the *Nettle*.
- PENNI-NERVED** and **PENNI-VINED**, the veins disposed like the parts of a feather, running from the midrib of the leaf to the margin.
- PENTA**, **PENTE**, five, same as *Quinque* in Latin.
- PENTAGYNOUS**, having five styles.
- PENTAMEROUS**, composed of five parts; a pentamerous flower has its different whorls in five, or multiples of that number.
- PENTANDROUS**, having five stamens.
- PEPO** and **PEPONIDA**, the fruit of the Melon, Cucumber, and other Cucurbitaceae.—See reference in Index.
- PEE**, when placed before an adjective, sometimes gives it the value of a superlative, as *perpusillus*, very weak; at other times it means through, as *perfoliate*, through the leaf.
- PERCURRENT**, running through from top to bottom.
- PERENNIAL**, living, or rather flowering, for several years.
- PERFOLIATE**, a leaf with the lobes at the base, united on the side of the stem opposite the blade, so that the stalk appears to pass through the leaf.
- PERL**, ground; in Latin *Orus*.
- PERIANTE**, a general name for the floral envelope; applied in cases where there is only a calyx, or where the calyx and corolla are alike.
- PERIGAR**, the covering of the fruit.
- PERICHERIAL**, applied to the leaves surrounding the fruit stalk or sets of Mosses.
- PERIGLIANUM**, the large sheathing petiole of Umbelliferae.
- PERIGLIUM** and **PERIPHORANTHIS**, the involucre of Compositae.

PERICARP, a name applied to the outer layer of bark.

PERICARION, the envelope of the fructification in *Geotrichomyces* Fungi.

PERIGYNE, same as *Perianth*. Some restrict the term to cases in which the flower is female or pistilliferous. It has also been applied to the involucre of *Juncus* Mannes.

PERIOPHYUM, applied to the covering of the world in the genus *Carex*.

PERIOPHYTES, applied to corolla and stamens when attached to the calyx.

PERIOPHYLLUM, applied to an embryo curved so as to surround the albumen, following the inner part of the covering of the seed.

PERISPERM, the albumen or nourishing matter stored up with the embryo in the seed.

PERISPERM, the outer covering of a spore.

PERISPERM, the opening of the sporangium of Mosses after the removal of the calyptra and operculum.

PERISPERM, a conceptacle in Cryptogams, containing spores, and having an opening at one end.

PERSISTENT, not falling off, remaining attached to the axis until the part which bears it is matured.

PERISPERM, a gamopetalous irregular corolla having the lower lip pushed upwards, so as to close the hiatus between the two lips.

PERISPERM, having silks or holes.

PERISPERM, the scales of the leaf bud.

PETALOID, like a petal.

PETALS, the leaves forming the corolline whorl.

PETIOLE, having a stalk or petiole.

PETIOLE, a leaf stalk, *Petiole*, the stalk of a leaflet in a compound leaf.

PHANEROGAMOUS, having conspicuous flowers.

PHANEROGAMOUS, *Phaner*, conspicuous, in composition *Phanero* and *Phano*.

PHLEUM, a name applied in composition to the bark.

PHLOANTHEM, applied to the receptacle of Compositae.

PHORUS, *Phorum*, and *Phorp*, in words derived from the Greek, are used as terminations, meaning that which bears, equivalent to the Latin *Ferus* and *Fer*.

PHRAGMA, transverse division or false dissepiment in fruits.

PHYCOLOGY, the study of Algae or Sea-weeds.

PHYLLARIA, the leaflets forming the involucre of Composite flowers.

PHYLLIDIUM, leaf-stalk enlarged so as to have the appearance of a leaf.

PHYLLOID, like a leaf.

PHYLLOPTOSIS, the fall of the leaf.

PHYLLOTAXIS, the arrangement of the leaves on the axis.

PHYLLUM, leaf, in composition *Phyllo* and *Phyllos*, in Latin *Phylum*.

PHYSIOGNOMY, general appearance, without reference to botanical characters.

PHYSIOLOGY, Vegetable, the study of the functions of plants.

PHYTOGENESIS, the development of the plant.

PHYTOGRAPHY, the description of plants.

PHYTOLOGIST, the study of plants.

PHYTON, a name given by Gaudichaud to the simple individual plant, as represented by a leaf. In words derived from the Greek, *Phyton* and *Phyto* mean plant.

PHYTOGAM, moving filaments in the antheridia of Cryptogams.

PHYLLOSTOMA, a covering of the root, as in *Laminaria*.

PHYLLO, the cap-like portion of the Mushroom, bearing the hymenium on its under side.

PHYLLO, provided with hairs, applied to pappus composed of simple hairs.

PHYLLOSTOMA, tissues composed of tabular cells.

PHYLLOSTOMA, a name applied to the outer layer of bark.

PHYLLOSTOMA, a compound leaf having leaflets arranged on each side of a central rib.

PHYLLOSTOMA, a simple leaf cut into lateral segments to about the middle.

PHYLLOSTOMA, a simple leaf cut into lateral segments, the divisions extending nearly to the central rib.

PHYLLOSTOMA, the small plane of a bipinnate or tripinnate leaf.

PISTIL, the female organ of the flower, composed of one or more carpels; each carpel being composed of ovary, style, and stigma.

PISTILLATE and **PISTILLIFEROUS**, applied to a female flower or a female plant.

PISTILLIDIUM, the female organ in Cryptogams.

PLACENTA, the cellular part of the ovary bearing the ovules.

PLACENTARY, a placenta bearing numerous ovules.

PLACENTATION, the formation and arrangement of the placenta.

PLATE, large or broad, in composition *Platy*, in Latin *Latus* and *Latis*.

PLEION, several, in composition *Pleio*, in Latin *Plus*.

PLEIOTRACHEM, spiral vessels with several fibres united.

PLENUM, when applied to the flower, means double.

PLEURISCHYMA, woody tissue.

PLEUROCARPI, Mosses with the fructification proceeding laterally from the axis of the leaves.

PLEUROCHYTES, Cruciferous plants having the radicle of the embryo applied to the edges of the cotyledons, which are called *Acromesent*.

PLICATE and **PLICATIVE**, plaited or folded like a fan.

PLUMOSE, feathery, applied to hairs having two longitudinal rows of minute cellular processes.

PLUMULE, the first-bud of the embryo, usually enclosed by the cotyledons.

PLURI, in Latin words means several.

PLURILOCULAR, having many loculi or cells.

PODANTHUM, a stalk bearing the fructification in some Lichens.

PODOCARP, a stalk supporting the fruit.

PODOSTYLIUM, a stalk supporting an ovary.

PODOSPERM, the cord attaching the seed to the placenta.

POGON, beard, in Latin *Barba*.

POLLARD-TREES, cut down so as to leave only the lower part of the trunk, which gives off numerous buds and branches.

POLLEN, the powdery matter contained in the anther.

POLLEN-TUBE, the tube emitted by the pollen-grain after it is applied to the stigma. See *Indes*.

POLLINIA, masses of pollen found in Orchids and Asclepiads.

POLYADELPHOUS, stamens united by their filaments so as to form more than two bundles.

POLYANDRIOUS, stamens above twenty.

POLYCARPIC, plants which flower and fruit many times in the course of their life.

POLYCOTYLEDONOUS, an embryo having many cotyledons, as in Fins.

POLYEMBRYONY, having more than one embryo.

POLYGAMOUS, plants bearing hermaphrodite as well as male and female flowers.

POLYMERICAL, applied to multiple fruits formed by the united pistils of many flowers.

POLYMEROUS, having many pistils or styles.

POLYMEROUS, assuming many shapes.

POLYPETALOUS, a corolla composed of separate petals.

POLYPHYLLOUS, a calyx or involucre composed of separate leaflets.

POLYS, many, in composition *Poly*; in Latin *Mul-ta*.

POLYSEPALOUS, a calyx composed of separate sepals.

POCK, spruit like the Apple and Pear—See refer-ence in Index.

PODS of the leaf, same as *Stomata*.

POREOUS vessels, same as Pitted or Dotted vessels

POREACT, extended forwards.

POSTERIOR, applied to the part of the flower placed next the axis; same as *Superior*.

POSTICUS, same as *Retrosæ*; applied to anthers

POUCH, the short pod or silicle of some Cruciferae.

POUS, PODOS, a foot or stalk, in composition *Podo*; in Latin *Pes, Pedis*.

PRÆFLOURATION, same as *Activation*.

PRÆFOLIATION, same as *Vernation*.

PRÆMORSE, bitten, applied to a root terminating abruptly, as if bitten off.

PRICKLES, hardened epidermal appendages, of a similar nature to hairs.

PRIMINE, the outer coat of the ovule.

PRIMORDIAL, the first true leaves given off by the young plant; also the first fruit produced on a raceme or spike

PRIMORDIAL UTRICLE, the lining membrane of cells in their early state.

PRISMENCHYMA, tissue composed of prismatical cells.

PROCESS, any prominence or projecting part, or small lobe.

PROCURRENT, lying on the ground.

PRO-EMBRYO or PROTALLUS, names given to the first part produced by the spore of an acrogen in germinating.

PROLIFEROUS, bearing abnormal buds.

PRONE, prostrate, lying flat on the earth.

PROPAGULUM, an offshoot, or germinating bud attached by a thickish stalk to the parent plant

PROGENCHYMA, fusiform tissue forming wood

PROTOPLASM, the matter which seems to be con-cerned in the early formation of nuclei and cells.

PRUINOSE, covered with a coarse granular secre-tion, as if dusted.

PSEUDO, false; in Latin *Spurius*.

PSEUDO-BULB, the peculiar aerial stem of many epiphytic Orchids.

PSEUDO-SPERMIOUS, applied to plants bearing single-seeded seed-vessels, such as Achenee, resembling seeds.

PREIDOGRAFIA, a treatise on Ferns.

PUBESCENCE, short and soft hairs covering a surface, which is hence called *Pubescent*.

PULVERULENT, covered with fine powdery matter.

PULVINATE, shaped like a cushion or pillow.

PULVINUS, cellular swelling at the point where the leaf-stalk joins the axis.

PUNCTATED, applied to the peculiar dotted woody fibres of Coniferae.

PUTAMEN, the hard endocarp of some fruits.

PERENÆ, stony coverings of the seeds in the Medlar.

PYRIDUM, same as *Pome*.

PEIFORM, pear-shaped.

PYXIS and PYXIDIUM, a capsule opening by a lid

QUADRI, in composition, means four times.

QUADRIFARIOS, in four rows.

QUADRIFID, four-cleft, cut down into four parts to about the middle.

QUADRIFUGATE, having four pairs of leaflets.

QUADRILOCULAR, having four loculements.

QUADRIPARTITE, divided deeply into four parts.

QUARTINE, the fourth coat of the ovule, which often is changed into albumen.

QUATERNATE, leaves coming off in fours from one point.

QUINARY, composed of five parts, or of a mul-tiple of five.

QUINATE, five leaves coming off from one point.

QUINCUNX, when the leaves in the bud are five, of which two are exterior, two interior, and the fifth covers the interior with one margin, and has its other margin covered by the exterior. *Quincunxial*, arranged in a quincunx.

QUINQUE, in compound words means five.

QUINQUEFID, five-cleft, cut into five parts as far as the middle.

QUINQUELOCULAR, having five loculements.

QUINQUEPARTITE, divided deeply into five parts

QUINTINE, the fifth coat of the ovule, otherwise called the embryo-sac.

RACE, a permanent variety.

RACEME, cluster, inflorescence in which there is a primary axis bearing stalked flowers.

RACEMOSE, flowering in racemes.

RACHIS, the axis of inflorescence; also applied to the stalk of the frond in Ferns, and to the common stalk bearing the alternate spikelets in some Grasses.

RADIANT, applied to flowers which form a ray-like appearance, as seen in Umbelliferae and in *Viburnum*, &c

RADIATE, disposed like the spokes of a wheel; also applied to the florets of the ray or circum-ference of the capitula of Compositee.

RADICAL, belonging to the root, applied to leaves close to the ground, clustered at the base of a flower stalk

RADICLE, the young root of the embryo

RADIUS, the ray or outer part of the heads of Composite flowers

RAMAL, belonging to the branches.

RAMENTA, the scales or chaff of Ferns.

RAMOSE and RAMOUS, branched

RAPHE, the line which connects the hilum and the chalazæ in anatropal ovules.

RAPHIDES, crystals found in cells, which are hence called *Raphidian*

RHCEPTACLE, the flattened end of the peduncle or rachis, bearing numerous flowers in a head, applied also generally to the extremity of the peduncle or pedicel

RECLINATE, curved downwards from the hori-zontal, bent back up

RECTEMBRYÆ, the embryo straight in the axis of the seed

RECTINERVIS and RECTIVENIUS, straight and parallel-veined

RECTISERIAL, leaves disposed in a rectilinear series.

RECURVED, bent backwards

REDUPLICATE, edges of the sepals or petals turned outwards in aestivation

REGMA, seed-vessel composed of elastic cocci, as in *Euphorbia*.

REGULAR, applied to an organ, the parts of which are of similar form and size

RELIQUE, remains of withered leaves attached to the plant

RENIFORM, in shape like a kidney.

REFAND, having a slightly undulated or sinuous margin

REPLUM, a longitudinal division in a pod formed by the placenta, as in Cruciferae

RESUPINATE, inverted by a twisting of the stalk

RETICULATED, netted, applied to leaves having a network of anastomosing veins.

RETIFORM, like network.

RETINAULUM, the glandular viscid portion at the extremity of the glandule in some pol-linia.

RETINERVIS and RETIVENIUS, having reticulated veins

RETROSE, turned backwards.

RETUSE, when the extremity is broad, blunt, and slightly depressed.

REVOLUTE and REVOLUTIVE, leaf with its edges rolled backwards in vernation.

RAISA, in words derived from the Greek, means root.

RAZONIA, a stem arising horizontally, more or less covered by the soil, giving off buds above, and roots below.

REIZOTAXIS, the arrangement of the roots.

REIZOSIS, a Labiate fever, in which the upper lip is much arched.

ROBACREOUS, applied to corollas having separate sessile petals like the Rose.

ROSETTE, leaves disposed in close circles forming a cluster.

ROSTELLUM, a prolongation of the upper edge of the stigma in some Orchids.

ROSTRATE, beaked, having a long sharp point.

ROTATE, a regular gamopetalous corolla with a short tube, the limb spreading out more or less at right angles.

ROTATION or **GRANTION**, a peculiar circulation of the cell sap, seen in Hydrocharidaceae, &c.

RODIMENTARY, an organ in an abortive state arrested in its development.

RUGOSE, wrinkled.

RUMINATE, applied to mottled albumen.

RUNCINATE, a pinnatifid leaf with a triangular termination, and sharp divisions pointing downwards as in Dandelion.

SACCATE, forming a sack or bag, seen in some petals.

SAGITTATE, like an arrow, a leaf having two prolonged sharp-pointed lobes projecting downwards beyond the insertion of the petiole.

SAMARA, a winged dry fruit, as in the Elm.

SARCOCARP and **SARCODERM**, the mesocarp of the fruit having become succulent.

SARMENTUM, sometimes meaning the same as *Flagellum*, or runner, at other times applied to a twining stem which supports itself by means of others.

SCABROUS rough, covered with very stiff short hairs, *Scabriscurius*, somewhat rough.

SCALARIFORM, vessels having bars like a ladder, seen in ferns.

SCANDENT, climbing by means of supports, as on a wall or rock.

SCAPE, a naked flower-stalk, bearing one or more flowers arising from a short axis, and usually with radical leaves at its base.

SCARIOUS, having the consistence of a dry scale, membranous, dry, and shrivelled.

SCION, the young twig used as a graft.

SCLEROGEN, the thickening matter of woody cells.

SCORIFORM, in the form of hinge, or like fine saw-gust.

SCOBINA, the flexuose rachis of some Grasses.

SCORPIOIDAL, like the tail of a scorpion, a peculiar twisted tylose inflorescence, as in *Borraginaceae*.

SCOBICULATE, pitted, having small depressions.

SCUTELLUM, a sort of apothecium in Lichens.

SECUND, all turned to one side.

SECUNDINE, the second coat of the ovule within the yelline.

SEREGATE, separated from each other.

SEMI, half, same as the Greek *Hemis*.

SEMIFLOSCULOUS, same as *Lagulate*.

SEMINAL, applied to the cotyledons, or seed-leaves.

SEPAL, one of the leaflets forming the calyx.

SEPTATE, divided by septa or partitions.

SEPTEN, seven, in Greek *Heptis*.

SEPTIMATE, organs approaching in seven, a compound leaf with seven leaflets coming off from one point.

SEPTICIDAL, dehiscence of a seed-vessel through the septa or edges of the carpels.

SEPTIFRAGAL, dehiscence of a seed-vessel through the back of the loculements, the valves also separating from the septa.

SEPTUM, a division in an ovary formed by the sides of the carpels.

SERICEOUS, silky, covered with fine, close-gathered hairs.

SERRATE or **SERRATED**, having sharp processes arranged like the teeth of a saw. *Stavus*, when these are alternately large and small, or where the teeth are themselves serrated.

SERRATURES, pointed marginal divisions arranged like the teeth of a saw.

SERULACE, with very fine serratures.

SENGUI, in composition, means one and a-half.

SESSILE, without a stalk, as a leaf without a petiole.

SETA, a bristle or sharp hair; also applied to the gland-tipped hairs of Rosaceae and Hieraceae, and to the stalk bearing the theca in *Mosses*.

SETACEOUS and **SETIFORM**, in the form of bristles.

SETIGEROUS, bearing setae.

SETOSE, covered with setae.

SEX, in Latin six, same as Greek *Hex*.

SILICULA or **SILICLE**, a short pod with a double placenta and replum, as in some Cruciferae.

SILICULOSUM, bearing a silicle.

SILIQUA, a long pod similar in structure to the silicle.

SILIQUEFORM, fruit like a siliqua in form.

SILIQUEOUS, bearing a siliqua.

SIMPLE, not branching, not divided into separate parts, *Simplicifruis* are those formed by one flower.

SINIBIFORSE directed towards the left.

SINUATED the margin having numerous large obtuse indentations.

SINUOUS, with an wavy or ficruous margin.

SOBOLES, a creeping under ground stem.

SOCIAL PLANTS, such as grow naturally in groups or masses.

SOREDIA, powdery cells on the surface of the thallus of some Lichens.

SOROSIS, a compound or polygynous succulent fruit, such as Breadfruit and Mulberry.

SORUS, a cluster of sporangia in ferns.

SPADIX a succulent spike bearing male and female flowers as in *Arum*.

SPATHACEOUS, having the aspect and membranous consistence of a spathe.

SPATHE, large membranous bract covering numerous flowers.

SPATHELLA, another name for the glumellae of Grasses.

SPATHULATE, shaped like a spatula, applied to a leaf having a linear form, enlarging suddenly into a rounded extremity.

SPAWN, same as *Mycelium*.

SPECIFIC CHARACTER, the essential character of a species.

SPERMATIA, motionless spermatozooids in the conceptacles of Fungi.

SPERMATIZOIDS, moving filaments contained in the antheridia of Cryptogams, called also phytozoa and antherozoids.

SPERMODERM, the general covering of the seed. Sometimes applied to the epispem or outer covering.

SPERMOGONE, a conceptacle containing fructification in Fungi.

SPHERENCHYMA, tissue composed of spherical cells.

SPIRE, inflorescence consisting of numerous flowers sessile on an axis.

SPIKELT, small cluster of flowers in Grasses.

SPINE or **THORN**, an abortive branch with a hard sharp point.

SPINESCENT or **SPINOSUS**, bearing spines.

SPIRAL VESSELS or **SPIROIDIA**, having a spiral fibre coiled up inside a tube.

SPHILLUM, same as *Sporangiozoid*.

SPIROLOBRA, Cruciferae having the cotyledons twice folded, the radicle being dorsal.

SPONGIOLE or **SPONGELT**, the cellular extremity of a young root.

SPERMATOPHYTES, a class consisting of spores.

SPORE, a cellular germinating body in Cryptogamic plants.

SPOROBLAST, a cellular germinating body in Cryptogamic containing two or more cells in its interior.

SPOROCHAE, the involucre or ovoid-sac containing the organs of reproduction in Marsilaceae.

SPOROPHYTES, a stalk supporting a spore.

SPOROZOITE, a moving spore furnished with cilia or vibratile processes.

SQUAMA, a scale; also applied to bracts on the receptacle of Compositae, to bracts in the inflorescence of Amelissiferae, and to the lodicules of Grasses.

SQUAMOSE, covered with scales.

SQUARENESS, covered with processes spreading at right angles or in a greater degree.

STACHYS and **STACHYA**, in Greek words signifies a spike.

STAMEN, the male organ of the flower, formed by a stalk or filament and the anther containing pollen.

STAMINATE and **STAMINIFEROUS**, applied to a male flower, or to plants bearing male flowers.

STAMINODIUM, an abortive stamen.

STANDARD, same as *Veilium*.

STELLATE or **STELLIFORM**, arranged like a star.

STERIGMATA, cells bearing naked spores.

STERILE, male flowers not bearing fruit.

STICHIDIA, pod-like receptacles containing spores.

STICHIOUS, at the termination of words means a row, as *stichious*, in two rows.

STIGMA, the upper cellular secreting portion of the pistil, uncovered with epidermis; *Stigmatic*, belonging to the stigma.

STIMULUS, a sting, applied to stinging hairs with an irritating secretion at the base.

STRIFE, the stem of Palms and of Tree-ferns; also applied to the stalk of Fern-fronds, and to the stalk bearing the pilous in Agarics.

STIPPLE, a small leaflet at the base of the pinnae or pinnales of compound leaves.

STIPITATE, supported on a stalk.

STIPULARY, applied to organs occupying the place of stipules, such as tendrils.

STIPULATE, furnished with stipules.

STIPULE, leaflet at the base of other leaves, having a lateral position, and more or less changed either in-form or texture.

STOLON, a sucker, at first aerial, and then turning downwards and rooting.

STOLONIFEROUS, having creeping runners which root at the joints.

STOMATES and **STOMATA**, openings in the epidermis of plants, especially in the leaves.

STRANGULATED, contracted and expanded irregularly.

STRIA, a narrow line or mark.

STRIPATED, marked by streaks or striae.

STRIGOSE, covered with rough, strong, adpressed hairs.

STROBILUS, a cone, applied to the fruit of Firs as well as to that of the Hop.

STROPHIGMA, a sort of swell or swelling on the surface of a seed.

STRUMA, a cellular swelling at the point where a leaflet joins the midrib; also a swelling below the sporangium of Mosses.

STUPOSE, having a tuft of hairs.

STYLE, the stalk interposed between the ovary and the stigma.

STYLOPOD, an epigynous disk seen at the base of the styles of Umbelliferae.

SUBERROSE, having a corky texture.

SUBSCULUM, same as *Hypothelium*.

SUBSTRANEA, underground, same as *Hypogaeal*.

SUBULATE, shaped like an awl.

SUFFUTREOUS, having the characters of an underground.

SULCATE, furrowed or grooved.

SUTURE, applied to the ovary when two are not adherent to the calyx; to the calyx when it is adherent to the ovary; to the part of a flower placed next the axis.

SUPERVOLUTE or **SUPERVOLUTUM**, a leaf-collared upon itself in vegetation.

SURCULUS, a sucker; a shoot thrown off underground, and only rooting at its base.

SUSPENDED, applied to an ovary which hangs from a point a little below the apex of the ovary.

SUSPENSOR, the cord which suspends the embryo, and is attached to the radicle in the young state.

SUTURAL, applied to that kind of dehiscence which takes place at the sutures of the fruit.

SUTURE, the part where separate organs unite, or where the edges of a folded organ adhere; the *ventral suture* of the ovary is that next the centre of the flower; the *dorsal suture*, corresponds to the midrib.

SYCONUS, a multiple or polygynous succulent hollow fruit, as in the Fig.—See references in Index.

SYMMETRY, applied to the flower, has reference to the parts being of the same number, or multiples of each other.

SYN, in composition, means united.

SYNANTHEROUS, anthers united.

SYNANTHOS, flowers united together.

SYNCARPOUS, carpels united so as to form one ovary or pistil.

SYNGENOUS, same as *Synantheros*.

SYNOCHEMATE, stipules uniting together on the opposite side of the axis from the leaf.

TAPHRENCHYMA, pitted vessels, same as *Bathyschlyma*.

TAP-ROOT, root descending deeply in a tapering undivided manner.

TAXONOMY, principles of the classification of plants.

TEGUMEN, the second covering of the seed, called also *Endopleura*.

TEGUMENTA, scales protecting buds.

TERRATOLOGY, study of monstrosities and morphological changes.

TERCINE, the third coat of the ovule, forming the covering of the central nucleus.

TRETSZ, nearly cylindrical, the transverse section nearly circular.

TERNARY, parts arranged in threes.

TERNATE, compound leaves composed of three leaflets.

TESTA, the outer covering of the seed; some apply it to the coverings taken collectively.

TETACULATE, root having two oblong tubercles.

TETRA, in Greek words four; in Latin *Quater* or *Quadri*.

TETRADYNAMOUS, four long stamens and two short, as in Cruciferae.

TETRAGONOUS or **TETRAGONAL**, having four angles, the faces being convex.

TETRAGYNOUS, having four carpels or four styles.

TETRAKEROUS, composed of four parts; a figure is tetramerous when its envelopes are in four, or multiples of that number.

TETRANDROUS, having four stamens.

TETRAPTEROUS, having four wings.

TETRAQUETROUS, having four angles, the faces being concave.

TETRAPORE, a germinating body in Algae composed of four spore-like cells; but also applied to those of three cells.

TETRAPEGAL, having four loculements.

THALAMIFLORAL, parts of the floral envelope inserted separately into the receptacle or thalamus.—See Index.

THALAMUS, the receptacle of the flower, or the part of the peduncle into which the floral organs are inserted.

THALLOIDES OF THALLENTERIA, plants producing a thallus.

THALAMUS, collective expression in lichens and other Cryptogams, bearing the fructifications.

THALLOID, sporophangium on a spore-case containing spores.

THALLOPHORE, a stalk supporting the ovary.

THECASPOROUS, applied to Fungi which have the spores in thecae.

THELOIDE, the corolla of a gamopetalous flower.

THYRSUS, a sort of panicle, in form like a bunch of grapes, the inflorescence being mixed.

THYLLOID, the young embryonic axis.

TOISE, is equal to 1 94904 metres or 6 89469 English feet.

TOMENTOSE, covered with cottony, entangled pubescence called *tomentum*.

TORULOSE, presenting succose rounded swellings, as in the moniliform pods of some Cruciferae.

TORSUS, another name for thalamus, sometimes applied to a much developed thalamus, as in *Nelumbium*.

TRACHELE, a name for spiral vessels.

TRACHEOXYMA, tissue composed of spiral vessels.

TRANSPIRATION, the exhalation of fluids by leaves &c.

TRIS, three, **TRIS**, three, in composition **TRI**.

TRIADELPHOUS, stamens united in three bundles by their filaments.

TRIANDRUS, having three stamens.

TRIANGULAR, having three angles, the faces being flat.

TRICHOIDIOUS, dividing successively into three branches.

TRICOCOUS, formed by three elastic monospermal carpels.

TRICUSPIDATE, having three long points or cusps.

TRICOSTATE, three-ribbed ribs from the base.

TRIDENIATE, having three teeth.

TRIFARIUS, in three rows looking in three directions.

TRIFID three cleft a leaf divided into three segments which reach to the middle.

TRIFOLIATE or **TRIFOLIOLATE**, same as *Ternate*. When the three leaves come off at one point the leaf is *ternately trifoliolate*, when there is a terminal stalked leaflet and two lateral ones, it is *pinnately trifoliolate*.

TRIGONOUS having three angles, the faces being convex.

TRIGYNUS, having three carpels or three styles.

TRIJUGATE, having three pairs of leaflets.

TRIOCUAR, having three loculaments.

TRIMERUS, composed of three parts, a *trimerous flower* has its envelopes in three or multiples of three.

TRINERVIS, having three ribs springing together from the base.

TRIPARTITE, deeply divided into three.

TRIPINNATE, a compound leaf three times divided in a pinnate manner.

TRIPINNATIFID, a pinnatifid leaf with the segments twice divided in a pinnatifid manner.

TRIPLEUCOSTATE, three ribs proceeding from above the base of the leaf.

TRIQUETRUS, having three angles, the faces being concave.

TRISTIGOUS, in three rows.

TRITERNATE, three times divided in a ternate manner.

TROPHOSPERM, a name for the placenta.

TRUNCATE, terminating abruptly, as if cut off at the end.

TUBER, a thickened underground stem as the potato.

TUBERCULE, the swollen root of some terrestrial Orchids.

TUBEROSUS, applied to roots in the form of tubercles.

TUBULAR, applied to the regular series of the Craspedes.

TUBULAR-BELL-SHAPED, applied to a campanulate corolla which is somewhat tubular in its form.

TUBICULATE, applied to a bud covered by thin external scales, as the Onion.

TUBINATE, in the form of a top.

TURBO, a young shoot covered with scales coming from an underground stem, as in *Asparagus*.

TYPE, the perfect representation or idea of anything.

TYPICAL, applied to a specimen which has essentially the characteristics of the species, or to a species or genus characteristic of an order.

UMBEL, inflorescence in which numerous stalked flowers arise from one point.

UMBELLULE, a small umbel, seen in the compound umbellate flowers of many Umbelliferae.

UMBILICATE, fixed to a stalk by a point in the centre.

UMBILICUS, the hilum or base of a seed.

UMBO, a conical protuberance on a surface.

UMBONATE, round, with a projecting point in the centre like the boss of an ancient shield.

UMBRAQUIFFRUS, in the form of an expanded umbrella.

UNCINATE, provided with an *uncus* or hooked process.

UNDECIM, eleven, in Greek *Endeca*.

UNGUIS, claw, the narrowed part of a petal; such a petal is called *Unguiculate*.

UNI, in composition **UNI**, same as Greek *Monos*.

UNICELLULAR, composed of a single cell, as some Algae.

UNILATERAL, arranged on one side, or turned to one side.

UNILOCULAR, having a single *loculus* or cavity.

UNISexual, of a single sex, applied to plants having separate male and female flowers.

UNICOLATE, urn shaped, applied to a gamopetalous globular corolla, with a narrow opening.

USTULATE, blackened.

UTRICE, a name for a thin-walled cell, or for a bladder-like covering.

UTRICULUS, applied to a kind of fruit like the achene, but with an inflated covering, also to the persistent confluent perigone of *Carex*.

VAGINA, sheath, lower sheathing portion of some leaves.

VALVE, an interval between the ribs on the fruit of Umbelliferae.

VALVATE, opening by valves, like the parts of certain seed-vessels, which separate at the edges of the carpels.

VALVATE DETACHMENT and **VERNATION**, when leaves in the flower-bud and leaf-bud are applied to each other by their margins only.

VALVES, the portions which separate in some dehiscent capsules. A name also given to the parts of the flower of grasses.

VASCULAR TISSUE, composed of spiral vessels and their modifications. See *Index*.

VASIFORM TISSUE, same as *Dotted vessels*.

VEINS, bundles of vessels in leaves.

VELUM, veil the cellular covering of the gills of an Agaric, in its early state.

VELUTINOUS, having a velvety appearance.

VENTATION, the arrangement of the veins.

VENTRAL applied to the part of the carpal which is next the axis.

VENTRICOSE, swelling unequally on one side.

VERMICULAR, shaped like a worm.

VERNATION, the arrangement of the leaves in the bud.

VERUCOSE, covered with wart-like excrescences.

VERSATILE, applied to an anther which is attached by one point of its back to the filament, and hence is very easily turned about.

WHEEL, a whorl, parts arranged opposite to each other at the same level, or, in other words, in a circle round an axis. The parts are said to be *Verticillate*.

VERTICILLANTER, a false whorl, formed of two nearly sessile cymes placed in the axils of opposite leaves, as in Dead-nettle.

VESELLE, another name for a cell or utricle
VESSELS, tubs with closed extremities See *Index*

VEHILLARY, applied to aestivation when the vexillum is folded over the other parts of the flower

VEXILLUM, standard, the upper or posterior petal of a papilionaceous flower

VIGINTI, twenty, same as Greek *Icos*.

VILLOUS, covered with long soft hairs, and having a woolly appearance

VIRGATE, long and straight like a wand

VISCOUS, clammy, like bird lime.

VITELLUS, the embryo-sac when permanent in the seed

VITUM, cells or clavate tubes containing oil in the pericarp of Umbelliform

VIVIPAROUS, plants producing leaf-buds in place of fruit.

VOLUBILE, twining, a stem or tendril twining round other plants

VOLVA, wrapper, the organ which encloses the parts of fructification in some Fungi in their young state

WHORLED, same as *Verticillate*

WINGS, the two lateral petals of a papilionaceous flower, or the broad flat edge of any organ

XANTHOS, yellow, in composition *Xantho*.

ZOOSPORE, a moving spore provided with cilia, called also *Zoosperm* and *Sporozoid*.

ZOOTRYCA a cell containing a spermatozoid.

ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

THE names of Authors are abridged in Botanical works by giving the first letter or syllable, &c — Thus, L stands for Linnaeus, DC for De Candoë, Br for Brown, Lam and Lmk for Lamarek, Hook for Hooker, Hook fl for Hooker junior, Lndl for Landley, Arn for Arnott, H and B for Humboldt and Bonpland, H B and K for Humboldt, Bonpland, and Kunth, W and A for Wight and Arnott, Berk for Berkeley Bab for Babington &c

The symbol ∞ or ∞∞ means an indefinite number, in the case of stamens, it means above 20

○ ○ ○ or A means an annual plant

♂ ○ ○ ○ or B means a biennial plant

⌋ △ or P means a perennial plant

½ b or Sh means a Shrub, 1 a Tree

↳ turning to the left, (turning to the right

○ = Cotyledons accumbent, radicle lateral

○ || Cotyledons incumbent radicle dorsal

○↳ Cotyledons conduplicate, radicle dorsal

○ || || Cotyledons plicate or folded twice, radicle dorsal

○ || || || Cotyledons folded three, radicle dorsal

♂ ♀ Hermaphrodite flower, having both stamens and pistil

♂ Male, stamiferous staminate, or sterile flower

♀ Female, pistilliferous, pistillate or fertile flower

♂ ♀ Unisexual species, having separate male and female flowers

♂ — ♀ Monoecious species, having male and female flowers on the same plant

♂ ♀ Dioecious species, having male and female flowers on different plants

♂ ♀ Polygamous species, having hermaphrodite and unisexual flowers on the same or different plants

! Indicates certainty as to a genus or species described by the author quoted

? Indicates doubt as to the genus or species

○ Indicates absence of a part

V V S Vidi vivam spontaneam, indicates that the author has seen a living native specimen of the plant described by him.

V V O Vidi vivam cultam, indicates that he has seen a living cultivated specimen.

V S S Vidi siccam spontaneam, indicates that he has seen a dried native specimen

V S C Vidi siccam cultam, indicates that he has seen a dried cultivated specimen

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