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# ELEMENT

OF

# TAN

CONTAINING

The HISTORY of the SCIENCE:

WITH

Accurate Definitions of all the Terms of Art, exemplified in Eleven COPPER-PLATES;

The THEORY of VEGETABLES:

The scientific Arrangement of Plants and NAMES used in Botany;

Rules concerning the general History, Virtues, and Uses of Plants.

Being a Translation of the Philosophia Botanica, and other Treatifes of the celebrated LINN AUS.

> TO WHICH IS ADDED, AN APPENDIX.

Wherein are described some Plants lately found in Norfolk and Suffolk, illustrated with three additional COPPER-PLATES, all taken from the Life.

# By HUGH ROSE, APOTHECARY.

## LONDON:

Printed for T. CADELL, opposite Catharine-Street in the Strand; and M. HINGESTON, near Temple-Bar. MDCCLXXV.

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# LINNÆUS'S PREFACE

TO THE

# BOTANIC READER.

SEVERAL years ago I comprized in a few aphorisms or short sentences the theory and institutions of botany under the name of Fundamenta Botanica, or the Fundamentals of Botany; the explanation of which aphorisms, by examples, observations, and demonstrations, distinct and accurate definitions of the parts of plants and terms of art, I have intituled Botanic Philosophy (Philosophia Botanica), because in them were contained the principles and precepts of the science.

Of this Botanic Philosophy I have some time since published different parts; upon the first part or chapter of the Fundamenta Botanica, a book called Bibliotheca Botanica, the 3d edition, was published in 1751, containing 220 pages; on the second another called Classes Plantarum, the 2d edition, in 1747, contains 656 pages; on the fifth a treatise called Sponsalia Plantarum, or the Nuptials of Plants; on the seventh,

A 2

eighth,

iv

eighth, ninth, and tenth, a book called Critica Botanica, or Botanic Criticisms, published in 1737, 270 pages, in 8vo; on the twelfth, a tract under the name of Vires Plantarum, or the Virtues of Plants. remaining chapters, viz. the third, fourth, fixth, and eleventh, I had long resolved to publish, together with those mentioned above, in one work, enlarged with new examples, observations, and demonstrations, under the title of Botanic Philosophy, and for this purpose I had made large collections. In the mean time, being frightened with the prospect of what still remained to be faid on this subject, I began to be weary of fuch a laborious undertaking, and had put it off to a more feafonable opportunity; while my time, daily engroffed with cares both public and private, or taken up in the business of my profession, and travels undertaken on account of natural history. flipped fo fast away, that I began to despair of the fuccess of such a work.

In the mean time my Bookfeller urging the necessity of a new edition of the Fundamenta Botanica, all the copies of the former being fold off, my Pupils at the same time earnestly intreating me to add the parts of plants and terms of art properly defined, in the same way I used to deliver them in my lectures; to this their request were added, the exhortations of some of my friends,

eminent

# TO THE BOTANIC READER. V

eminent in botany, that I would explain the terms of art, and give definitions of the parts of plants: in order to fatisfy both, I began to reduce my collections into an abridgement for publication. But no fooner had I fet about this work, than a fevere fit of the gout fo broke my strength of body and mind, that it was stopped as soon as begun.

Having now in some measure recovered my strength, I here present the reader with an abridgement of the Botanic Philosophy. The book, though small at present, as containing only the outlines or rudiments of botany, published for the sake of my pupils, I intend, if health and leisure should permit, shall make its appearance, one time

or other, with large additions.

Being now busied in collecting the species of plants, I earnestly beg and intreat all the most eminent botanists in Europe to send me compleat specimens of such scarce plants as they have duplicates of, or of those I have not hitherto mentioned, that I may refer them to their proper genera, with their adequate specific differences; and it shall be my care, in return, under every such species in this work, publicly to testify my gratitude to those who have favoured me with such specimens.

Upfal, Sept. 16, 1750.

CHA. LINNE'E.

## THE

## TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE.

O UR author's design, in this compendi-ous treatise, is to give us the outlines of botany. The first two chapters contain a brief account of the rife and progress, the fate, changes, and discoveries in botany; the times when, and the places where, cultivated; its improvements, and all the methods used by the moderns in the disposition and diffribution of plants. As the whole of practical botany confifts in definition, disposition, and denomination, Linnæus proceeds in the third and fourth chapters to lay down accurate descriptions and definitions of all the parts of plants. In the fifth chapter, where he treats of the fexes and generation of plants, we have almost every thing relating to the theory of vegetables. In the fixth, feventh, and eighth chapters, he treats of the other two parts of practical botany, to wit, disposition and denomination, or the disposing and naming, i. e. the arrangement of plants and names used in botany, both classic, generic, and specific. In the four last chapters he treats of the varieties, fynonyms,

nyms, general history, medicinal virtues, and other uses of plants, whether esculent or economical.

The compleat history of any plant should

contain the following particulars:

1. The class and order of each systematic writer to which it does belong; and also the natural order, tribe, or family. This part of the subject is discussed in Chap. II.

2. The generic name of the plant. This

is handled in Chap. VII; and,

3. The etymology or derivation of this name, in Chap. VII.

4. The generic characters, in Chap. VI.

5. The specific difference of this from others of the same genus, in Chap. VIII.

6. The fynonymous names (in Chap. X.) of all the different writers who have treated on the plant, Chap. I.

7. The several varieties of the plant, in

Chap. IX.

8. The description of all its external parts, in Chap. III, IV, V, and XI.

9. An accurate figure of the plant, in

Chap. XI.

10. The place of growth, foil, and culture. See Chap. XI.

11. The times of leafing, flowering,

fruiting. See also Chap. XI.

12. The medicinal virtues and œconomical uses. See Chap. XII.

1 4

In treating of the medicinal virtues, we ought to describe the manner of gathering and curing, or preparing the plant; -the origin of its use; the inventor or discoverer if known, with the time when, and the place where, first discovered; -felect passages of the poets or others may and ought to be illustrated; -historical traditions, pleasant and entertaining, mentioned; -the parts in use;-the marks by which to know its goodness;—the qualities, as far as they are deducible from the fructification, natural order, fmell, tafte, colour, and place of growth; -experiments on the fubject; -its chemical analysis; -its real medicinal virtues, its good and bad effects, in what diseases useful, in what hurtful;its preparations, what compounds it enters; its doses, and manner of giving; and lastly, its succedanea.

In treating of the economical uses of any plant, we should also describe the manner and time of gathering or felling, curing or preparing, method of using, origin, inventor, historical traditions, select passages, &c. And thus we see, that every chapter of this treatise is extremely useful, and that all of them together constitute the funda-

mental parts of botany.

And as the whole of this useful Treatise has not hitherto appeared in an English drefs,

drefs, the Translator humbly hopes that the prefent publication, in which he has endeavoured throughout, without taking too great liberties, to give the true fense and meaning of his author, may be of general use to those that are fond of this study or fashionable amusement, and meet with a favourable reception from the public. He also flatters himself that the errors and mistakes, which may be found in the following sheets, are not very great, and therefore begs the candid reader would look upon them with an indulgent eye.

## ERRATA.

Page 3. line 6. for Differentia read Differentiae. P. 7. l. 24. for Antonius read Antoniuse. P. 22. l. 7. for as the mostes read as in the mostes, ibid. l. 29. for fructif. read fructification. P. 24. l. 1. read imperfett herbs. P. 25. l. 6. 9. 11. 13. p. 27. l. 19. 21, 22. 24. for comp. fl. read compound flower. P. 30. l. 20. 32. p. 31. l. 1. for comp. fl. read compound flowers. Ibid. l. 16. 18. 21. for comp. fl. read compound flowers. Ibid. l. 16. 18. 21. for comp. fl. read compound flowers. Ibid. l. 16. 18. 21. for comp. fl. read compound flowers. Ibid. l. 16. 18. 21. for comp. fl. 13. for Indian fl. read Indian flowering-read. P. 86. l. 22. for hip-pophite read bispephäe. P. 115. l. 6. for pissillar read pissillar. P. 210. l. 14. for belietores read belieteres. P. 150. l. 18. for pulling read falling. P. 279. l. 19. for calamare read calamarriae. P. 293. l. 2. for tagates read tagetes. P. 295. l. 11. for filia read tilia. P. 313. l. 10. for agriiolium read agrifolium, P. 348. l. 11. for eryphille read erispope. P. 359. l. 21. should begin with a rule thus —— P. 368. l. 4. for perfect read imperfect. P. 453. l. 22. for about a foot read about half a foot. P. 455. l. 10. for thick read flender.

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# THE ELEMENTS

O F

# B O T A N Y

## PART I.

## INTRODUCTION.

## SECT. I.

LL things that fall under our notice in this our earth, are the four fimple elements; earth, water, air, fire; and natural bodies, which are compounded of the four elements.

## SECT. II.

The natural bodies are commonly divided into the three great kingdoms of nature, the fossil, vegetable, and animal. To describe and demonstrate the properties of the four elements, is the business of natural philosophy; and to describe the subjects of the three great kingdoms of nature, is properly the business of natural history.

SECT.

### SECT. III.

The subjects of the fossil kingdom (though they are the most simple and inorganical bodies) have notwithstanding a certain fort of growth. The vegetables have not only an increase of growth, but, being besides organized bodies, and having a regular propulsion of fluids through their proper vessels, are also endued with life. Animals, the most perfect in the scale of natural bodies, besides growth and life, are endued with senses.

## SECT. IV.

That branch of natural history which teaches the right knowledge of vegetables, and their application to the most beneficial uses, is called botany; of the fundamental principles of which we intend to treat in the same order with Linnæus, who divides his *Philosophia Botanica*, or Rudiments of Botany into the twelve following chapters, viz.

r. Bibliotheca. Of the various authors and books written on botany.

2. Systemata. The different botanic syst-

tems.

3. Plantæ. The different parts of plants, and their terms explained.

4. Fructificatio. The different parts of

fructification.

5. Sexus.

5. Sexus. The fexes and generation of plants.

6. Characteres. The characters of the ge-

nera, classes and orders.

7. Nomina. The generic names:

8. Differentia. The specific names or differences.

9. Varietates. The varieties.

10. Synonyma. The fynonymous names.

11. Adumbrationes. The history or com-

12. Vires. The virtues and uses of plants.

# CHAP. I. The Botanic Library.

## SECT. V.

This first chapter contains an account of the various authors, and their books which have been written on the subject of botany.

## SECT. VI.

The authors (phytologi) who have written on plants, may be called either true botanists (botanici), or only lovers of botany (botaniphili). The chief botanists since the revival of learning (for we shall have occasion under section ninth to speak of the antients) are the following. In the 15th century Gaza and Barbarus: In the 16th century Brunselsius, Tragus, Cordus, Ruellius, Gesner, Fuschius, Matthiolus, B 2

the state of

Dodonæus, Lobel, Clusius, Cæsalpinus, Dalechampius, Camerarius, Tabernomontanus, Alpinus, J. Bauhin, Columna, C. Bauhin, Gerard. In the 17th century, Robinus, Swertius, Jungermannus, Parkinfon, Ferrarius, Cornutus, Stapelius, Hernandez, Marcgravius, Piso, Turner, Læselius, Jungius, Rudbeck, Ray, Hoffman, Chabræus, Merret, Bocco, Aldrovandus, Morison, Muntingius, Zannoni, Amman, Dodart, Breynius, Rheede, Commelin, Magnolius, Herman, Rivinus, Plukenet, Petiver, Plumier, Tournefort, Sloane, Bobart, Volkamerus.

In the 18th century, Sherard, Rudbeck, Juffieu, Boerhaave, Kempfer, Feuillee, Knautius, Bradley, Isnard, Vaillant, Blair, Pontedera, Ruppius, Dillenius, Montius, Buxbaumius, Tillius, Martyn, Michelius, Catesby, Geofroy, Celsius, Linnaus, Haller, Miller, Burman, Ludwig, Amman, Gronovius, Royen, Gesner, Gmelin, Wackendorf, Lechius, Kalmius, and Hasselquist, with many others; besides the several societies which have been established in different parts of Europe, as in Germany, England, France; at Upsal, Petersburg, Norimberg, Stockholm, &c. by whom many of the chief discoveries and improvements have been made.

## SECT. VII.

The true botanists are of two forts, collectors or methodical writers.

## SECT. VIII.

The collectors, whose chief care has been about the number of species, are the following, viz.

## SECT. IX.

1. The most antient and original writers (patres) among the Greeks, Romans, and Arabians, from Hippocrates and Theophrastus, down to the revival of learning in the 15th century, who may be faid to have laid the foundation, and to have taught the first rudiments, of botany; the knowledge of which the Greeks received from the Egyptians, and they from the Chaldeans; the Romans not till after the defeat of Pompey; the Goths in the fourth, and the Lombards in the fifth century; the Arabians in the fixth and feventh centuries, and among them it was cultivated till the middle of the twelfth century. From thence to the middle of the 15th century, when learning began to be restored in Europe, there are a few obscure writers. All those writers are very deficient in the defcription of plants, for they feldom give any description, and what few they have left us are very incompleat and imperfect.

B<sub>3</sub> The

The Greek writers are, Hippocrates, who flour shed in the 5th century before the Christian æra; Aristotle in the 4th; Theophrastus in the 3d, Bassus, Nicander, Xenophon in the 2d century, Apuleius, Dioscorides, Rufus, Galen, Oribasius, Æthius, Alexander Trallian, Paulus Ægineta, Myrepfus, and Actuarius. Hippocrates has mentioned in his works only the names and medicinal virtues of about 234 plants. Aristotle, who flourished in the 4th century before the Christian æra, has mentioned a few plants. Theophrastus, the father of botany, who flourished in the 3d century before Christ, has given us the names of about 500 plants, chiefly without descriptions; and those he has left are very short and imperfect. Dioscorides, who lived in the time of Nero, mentions about 600 plants in all, 410 of which are briefly described by him; of all the others he has given nothing but their names and virtues. Galen, who flourished at Rome about the year of Christ 133, has treated on the virtues of about 450 plants, in his 6th, 7th, and 8th books of fimple medicines, besides many other plants which are mentioned in different parts of his works. Oribasius, Ætius, Alexander Trallian, and Paulus Ægineta, who flourished in the 4th, 5th, oth, and 7th centuries, added little or nothing to what had been advanced by their predecessors, but borrowed all from Galen, either in the very words of that writer, or

even more briefly expressed.

The Roman or Latin writers are Cato, who lived about 149 years before Christ; Varro, in the reign of Augustus Cæsar. In both these writers on agriculture we find fomewhat concerning plants. Virgil, and Antonius Musa, both in the reign of Augustus. The first wrote four books on husbandry, in which he mentions a great many plants. Musa, a physician, wrote a book, which goes under his name, on betony, and the virtues of that plant. Cólumella, in the time of Claudius, wrote on agriculture; he wrote also a poem in the most pure and elegant Latin, called Hortulus, or his little garden. Pliny lived from the reign of Tiberius to that of Titus: he treats of plants from the 12th to the 27th book of his natural history, and has mentioned above 1000 plants. Palladius, in the time of Antonius Pius, wrote on hufbandry.

The Arabian writers are Serapio, Rhazes, Avicenna, Avenzoar, Abenguefit, Abenbitar, Averrhoes; all between the 9th and 12th centuries. They added many things to what the Greeks had formerly advanced on this subject, and indeed a great many of

B 4

the medicines now used in the shops were introduced by the Arabians, and wholly

unknown to the Greeks.

And laftly, the following obscure and barbarous writers, viz. Nicolaus Myrepfus, Hildegardis, Platearius, Matthæus Sylvaticus, Arnoldus de Villa Nova, Jacobus de Dondis, Petrus Crescentiensis, Joannes Cuba, Quiritius, Joannes de Bosco, Paulus Suardus, all lived between the beginning of the 12th, and middle of the 15th century; during which time ignorance in the arts and sciences prevailed almost over the whole world, till, at last, about the close of the 15th century, the works of Theophraftus, Dioscorides, and others, were translated by Theodorus Gaza, and Hermolaus Barbarus, out of the original Greek, into the Latin; and learning began to revive in Europe.

## SECT. X.

2. The fecond order of the collectors are the commentators (commentatores), who, either by translating, commenting upon, or restoring the true reading of the antients; have thereby elucidated or cleared up their writings; as Bodæus à Stapel on Theophrastus, Dalechampius and Gronovius on Pliny, Matthiolus and Gefner on Dioscorides.

## SECT XI.

3. Those who have given cuts or figures of the plants (ichniographi) on wood, copper, or other plates, as Gerard, Parkinson, Morison, Plukenet, Petiver, Dillenius, &c.; though an hortus siccus, properly made and methodically disposed, is far preferable to any cuts, and absolutely necessary to every botanist.

## SECT. XII.

4. The next fort of collectors are those who have given us descriptions or histories of the vegetable kingdom (descriptores), either in whole or in part, as Dodonæus, Gerard, Parkinson, Bauhin, Ray, Morison, Dillenius, Scheuchzer, &c.

## SECT. XIII.

5. Next follow those who have written whole treatises on one single plant (monographi), or one genus, as Kempser on tea, Boerhaave on the protea, Dillenius on the mesembryanthemum, Haller on allium, Breynius on ginseng, Bradley on succulent plants, Linnæus on the betula nana, sicus, passifistora, senega, and several others in his Amenitates Acad.

## SECT. XIV.

6. Again some have treated on the most scarce and rare plants (curiosi); as Gmelin

on the plants of Siberia, Linnæus on the Lapland plants, Læselius on the Prussian, Ray on the English, Amman on the Russian, Haller on the Swiss plants, Dillenius, in his Hortus Elthamensis, on the Indian plants; as also Plukenet in his Phytographia; with a great many others too tedious to mention.

## SECT. XV.

7. In the next place we may reckon those who have given catalogues of all the plants (adonides) that were cultivated in particular gardens, public or private; as Magnolius's garden of Montpelier, Herman's Leyden garden, Volkamerus's Norimberg garden, Haller's Gottingen garden, Linnæus's Upsal garden; with many others.

## SECT. XVI.

8. Others have collected all the indigenous or fpontaneous plants (floriflæ) or natives, as we may properly call them, of some particular country, kingdom, province, or district; as Gmelin in his Flora Sibirica, Amman in his Flora Ruthenica, Haller in his Flora Helvetica, Ray in his Flora Anglica, Ruppius in his Flora Jenensis, Linnæus in his Flora Suecica, &c.

## SECT. XVII.

o. Lastly, others have traveled into far distant countries on purpose to collect the foreign plants; as Scheuchzer's travels through the Alps, Pona's plants of Mount Baldus, Ray's travels and voyages, Tournefort's voyage to the Levant, Shaw's travels into Africa, &c. Alpinus to Egypt, Kempser to Japan, Margravius and Piso to Brazil, Feuillee to Peru, Hernandez to Mexico, Cornutus to Canada, Rheede to Malabar, Rumphius to Amboyna, Sloane to Jamaica, Plumier to North America, &c.

### SECT. XVIII.

The methodical writers (methodici), fee N° 7, whose business was chiefly the regular disposition and denomination, or ordering and naming the plants, are of several forts or orders; and

## SECT. XIX.

1. Philosophers (philosophi) or theoretical botanists; and of them,

## SECT. XX.

1. Some have written orations or declamations (oratores) in praise of botany, or a few general observations concerning the utility of the science, &c. see the Amæn. Acad.

# THE ELEMENTS Part I.

### SECT. XXI.

2. Some in the controversial way (eristici) have written in defence of certain systems; as Tournesort's Elements, Colet's Critical Letters, Ray's Sylloge and Rivinus' Letters to Ray, Linnæus' Methodus Plantarum, and Sigesbeck's Criticism on the same, &c.

## SECT. XXII.

3. Some have laid down the laws and principles of vegetation, (physiologi) and the doctrine of the fexes of plants; as Millington in 1676, Camerarius's Epistle, Vaillant's Discourse, Wahlbom in his Sponsalia Plantarum, or Nuptials of Plants.

## SECT. XXIII.

4. Others have laid down certain rules and aphorisms on the fundamentals of botany; as Linnæus in his Fundamenta Botanica, Ludwigius in his Botanical Aphorisms, &c.

## SECT. XXIV.

2. The fecond order of methodical writers (fee N° 18.) are the fystematics (fystematici), who have disposed the plants into certain classes, and are either the orthodox or heterodox, that is to say, the true systematics, or the false.

### SECT. XXV.

The false systems, not being sounded on the fructification, have ranged the plants, some in an alphabetical manner (alphabetarii), others according to the structure of their roots (rhizotomi), others according to the different species of their leaves (phyllophili), or the habit or external appearance of plants (physiognomi), or their time of slowering (chronici), their places of growth (topophili), their medicinal uses (empirici), or lastly, according to the order laid down in the several dispensatories (seplassarii).

## SECT. XXVI.

The true fystematics (orthodoxi), who have always built their several methods on the fructification, are either universal, taking in the whole compass of vegetables; or partial, comprehending only a small part.

## SECT. XXVII.

The universal systems have been formed either on the several parts of

## SECT. XXVIII.

The fruit, (fructiflæ) viz. the pericarpium, feed or receptacle; as Cæsalpinus, Morison, Ray, Knautius, Herman, and Boerhaave; or on the

SECT.

## THE ELEMENTS Part I.

## SECT. XXIX.

14

Corollæ or petals of the flower (corollifæ), as Rivinus, and Tournefort, &c. or on the

## SECT. XXX.

Calyx or flower-cup (calyciftæ), as Magnolius and Linnæus, in the year 1737; as we shall afterwards see in chap. II.; or, lastly, on the

## SECT. XXXI.

Sexes of plants (fexualifiæ), as that of Linnæus, first published in 1735, and now universally allowed to be the best.

## SECT. XXXII.

Of the partial fystems (partiales), which have been generally of one class only; the chief are the following, together with the authors who have treated on them.

## SECT. XXXIII.

The compound flowers by Vaillant in 1718, and Pontedera in 1720.

## SECT. XXXIV.

The umbelliferous plants by Morison in 1672, and Artedi in 1735.

## SECT. XXXV.

The graffes by Ray in 1703, by Monti in 1719, Scheuchzer in 1719, by Michelius in

in 1729, and Linnæus in 1737, in his Genera Plantarum.

## SECT. XXXVI.

The mosses by Dillenius, professor of botany at Oxford, in 1741.

## SECT. XXXVII.

The funguses by Dillenius, then physician at Gissein in Germany, in 1719, and Michelius in 1729.

### SECT. XXXVIII.

The third fort of methodical writers (fee N° 18.) are called nomenclators, and are those who have written any thing concerning the names of plants; of whom

## SECT. XXXIX.

1. Some have collected all the fynonymous names (fynonomiftæ) given by different authors to plants, as Caspar Bauhin in his Pinax.

## SECT. XL.

Some have written critical differtations (critici) on the generic and specific names of plants, as Linnæus in his Critica Botanica.

## SECT. XLI.

Others have endeavoured to find out the etymology (etymologici), or original derivation

# 16 THE ELEMENTS. Part I.

vation of such names, as Falugius in his Prosopopæia.

## SECT. XLII.

Others have made collections (lexicographi) of the different names of plants used in different languages, as Menzelius in his Lexicon Polyglotton.

## SECT. XLIII.

The lovers of botany (botanophili, N° 4.) are those who have written various observations on plants in general, though not properly belonging to botany as a science; as, for instance,

## SECT. XLIV.

1. On the internal structure of plants, (anatomici) as Malpighi, Grew, Hales.

## SECT. XLV.

2. On the culture of plants (bortulani), as Miller, Bradley, and others on husbandry and gardening.

## . TE SO SECT. XLVI. . ...

3. On the medicinal virtues and uses of plants, which some have endeavoured to deduce from

## SECT. XLVII.

Aftrology (astrologi), that is to say, from the influence of the stars, as Bodestein; others from the similitude (signatores) between the part of the plant and the part injured or diseased, as Pappen; others from

## SECT. XLVIII.

Chemistry (chemici), that is to fay, from a chemical analysis of the plants, as Geofroy, Tournefort, &c.

## SECT. XLIX.

Others from observation and experience (observatores), as Herman, Boerhaave, Linnæus in his Materia Medica, Haller; or from mechanical and physiological principles.

## SECT: L.

Others have endeavoured to ascertain the virtues of esculent plants from smell and taste (diætetici), as Quercetan, Nonnius, Behren, Lister.

## SECT. LI.

And lastly, others have distinguished the virtues of medicinal plants according to the natural classes (botano-fystematici) to which they belonged, as Camerarius in his Convenientia

venientia Plantarum, and Haffelquist in his Tract called Vires Plantarum, in the Amæn. Acad.

## SECT. LII.

Of the fourth and last species of the lovers of botany (see N° 43.) we shall reckon those who have written various observations on the manifold uses of plants in common life, as Linnæus in his Flora Oeconomica, his Pan Suecicus, his Iter Olandicum, Gothicum, Westrogothicum, Scanicum; or those who have written the lives of famous botanists; or those who have explained the scripture plants, as Celsius in his Hierobotanicon; or lastly, the botanic works of several excellent poets, as Macer, Strabus, Rapin, Nevianus, Pectorius, Santolinus, Falugius, and Cowley.

## CHAP. II. SYSTEMS OF BOTANY.

## SECT. LIII.

TO the true systematics, and to them only, all the clearness and perspicuity, as well as certainty of botany as a science, is owing: they are the following, together with their systems.

## SECT. LIV.

Cæsalpinus founds his system on the fruit. He is the first true systematic writer;

ter; distributing his classes according to the situation of the corculum or germ of the seed and receptacle.

1. Arbores Corculo ex Apice Seminis. Trees with the germ on the point of the feed.

2. — Corvulo ex Basi Seminis. Trees with the germ on the base of the seed.

3. Herbæ Monospermæ. Herbs having one feed only.

4. Disperma. Herbs having two feeds.

5. — Tetraspermæ. Herbs having four feeds.

6. — Polyspermæ. Herbs having many feeds.

7. — Monococcæ. Herbs having one grain or kernel.

8. — Monocapfulæ. Herbs having one capfule.

9. — Bicapfulæ. Herbs having two capfules.

10. — Fibrofæ. Herbs having fibrous roots.

roots. Herbs having bulbous

12: Cichoraceæ. Herbs having fuecory or endive-like flowers.

13. — Flore Communi. Herbs having a common flower.

ing feveral follicles or feed-bags.

C 2 15. Herbæ

15. Herbæ Ananthæ et Aspermæ. Herbs having neither flower nor seed.

## SECT. LV.

Morison founds his system on the fruit, the corollæ, and habit of the plants.

1. Arbores. Trees.

2. Frutices. Shrubs.

3. Suffrutices. Undershrubs.

4. Herbæ Scandentes. Herbs climbing.

5. Leguminosæ. Herbs leguminous or papilionaceous.

6. — Siliquosa. Herbs podded.

7. — Tricapfulares. Herbs tricapfular, or with three capfules.

8. \_\_\_ a numero Capsularum dietæ.

Herbs with 4, 5, &c. capfules.

9. — Corymbiferæ. Herbs corymbiferous.

10. — Lactescentes s. pappose. Herbs having a milky juice, or downy tops.

11. — Culmiferæ. Herbs culmiferous,

as graffes.

12. — Umbelliferæ. Herbs umbelliferous.

13. Tricocca. Herbs having three kernels.

14. — Galeatæ. Herbs having helmetshaped flowers.

15. — Multicapfulares. Herbs having many capfules.

16. Herbæ

16. Herbæ Bacciferæ. Herbs berry-bearing.

17. — Capillares. Herbs called capillary

plants, as the fern kind.

18. Heteroclitæ. Herbs anomalous or irregular.

## SECT. LVI.

Herman builds his fystem on the fruit, classing the plants according as they have naked feed or feed vessels, in the following manner.

1. Herbæ Gymnomonospermæ simplices. One naked seed, and a simple flower.

2. \_\_\_\_\_ compositæ. One naked seed, and a compound flower.

- 3. Gymnodispermæ stellatæ. Two naked seeds, and stellated or star-shaped.
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_ umbellatæ. Two naked feeds, and umbelliferous.

5. — Gymnotetraspermæ asperifol. Four naked seeds, and rough leaves.

6. \_\_\_\_\_ verticillat. Four naked feeds, and verticillated or whorlhaped.

7. Gymnopolyspermæ. Many naked feeds.

8. — Angiospermæ, bulbosæ tricapsul. Having seed vessels, bulbous and tricapsular.

C 3 9. Herbæ

22	THE-ELEM	IENTS	Part I.
9.	. Herbæ Angiospermæ seed vessel.	Univascula	ares. One
10.			s. Two
	feed vessels.	ciera (cul ac	Three
+ + +	feed veffels.	i vajemini e	.ş. I IIICQ
12.	Four feed vestiels.	Quadriv.	asculares.
13.	Five feed veffels.	Quinquev.	asculares.
	Five feed veffels.	ilianola	Podded
14	which are always tet	rapetalous	i odded
15.		1eguminolo	r. Le-
16.	guminous and papilio	Julticap sula	ires. Ma-
- 44	ny capfules.  Fleshy fruit. Berry  Fleshy fruit. Apple  Apetalæ Calya  petals, but having a	avaiola F	Caccifora
+/.	Fleshy fruit. Berry	bearing.	incontrat.
18.	Flathy fruit Apple	arnofæ. F	Pomiferæ.
19.	Apetalæ Calye	ulatæ.	Without
	petals, but having a	calyx.	Gaminea
	Without petals, chair	fy or Itan	nineous,
21.	out petals, calyx, cha	s. muscosa	. With-
	a naked anthera, as t	the mosses	
22.	. Arbores. Incompletæ,	Juliferæ.	Trees.
<b>23</b> .	Imperfect fructif. bea	nbilicatæ.	Trees
	with a fleshy fruit, u	mbilicațe	d or na-
	vel-shaped.	24.	Arbores
		15	

24. Arbores Carnosce non umbilicatæ. Trees with a fleshy fruit not umbilicated.

25. — Fructu Sicco. Trees with a dry fruit.

## SECT. LVII.

Christopher Knautius takes Ray's method inverted, as follows.

1. Herbæ Bacciferæ. Herbs berry-bearing.

2. — Monopetalæ. Monopetalous, 1

3. — Tetrapetalæ regulares. Tetrapetalous and regular, 4 petals.

5. —— Pentapetalæ. Pentapetalous, or 5 petals.

6. — Hexapetalæ. Hexapetalous, or 6 petals.

7. — Polypetalæ. Polypetalous, or many petals.

8. — Multicapfulares. Multicapfular, or many capfules.

9. — Gymnospermæ. Naked seeds.

10. — Solidæ. Solid, or not downy.
11. — Pappolæ. Downy feeds.

12. — Apetalæ. Without petals.

13. — Stam'neæ. Stamineous, without petals or calyx.

14. — Inconspicuæ. Imperceptible. C 4 15. Herbæ

15. Herbæ Imperfecta. Imperfect.

16. Arbores. Trees.

17. Frutices. Shrubs.

## SECT. LVIII.

Boerhaave blends Herman's system with that of Ray and Tournesort, in the following manner.

1. Herbæ Submarinæ. Herbs submarine,

or sea plants.

2. — Terrefires. Imperfect land plants.

3. — Capillares. Capillary plants, or the fern kind.

4. — Gymnopolyspermæ. Many naked feeds.

5. — Gymnotetraspermæ verticillatæ. Four naked seeds, and verticillated.

6. \_\_\_\_\_ afperifoliæ.
Four naked feeds, and rough leaves.
7. \_\_\_\_\_ tetrapetalæ.

Four naked feeds, and four petals.

8. — Monangiæ. Having one feed

vessel. Having one seed vessel.

9. — Diangiæ. Two feed veffels.

10. — Triangia. Three feed vessels. 11. — Tetrangia. Four feed vessels.

12. — Pentangia. Five seed vessels.

13. — Polyangiæ. Many feed vessels.

14. — Gymnodispermæ umbellatæ. Two naked seeds, and umbelliserous.

15. Herbæ

trapetalous and cruciform.

30. —— Leguminofæ. Leguminous.

31. —— Apetalæ. Having no petals.

32. —— Amentaceæ. Bearing catkins.

33. —— Monopetalæ. Monopetalous

33. — Monopetalæ. Monopetalous flowers.
34. — Rosaceæ. Rosaceous flowers.

## SECT. LIX.

I. Ray's first method or system is taken chiefly from the fruit, as in the following table.

- 1. Arbores. Trees.
- 2. Frutices. Shrubs.
- 3. Herbæ imperfectæ. Herbs imperfect.
- 4. Flore carentes. Having no flower.
- 5. Capillares. Capillary plants.
- 6. Stamineæ. Stamineous, having only the flamina.
- 7. Gymnomonospermæ. One naked feed.
- 8. Umbellatæ. Umbelliferous.
- 9. Verticillatæ. Verticillated, annular or ring-shaped.
- 10. Asperifoliæ. Rough leafed.
- 11. Siellatæ. Stellated or star-shaped.
- 12. Pomiferæ. Apple-bearing herbs,
- 13. Bacciferæ. Berry-bearing herbs,
- 14. Multifiliquæ. Many podded.
- 15. Monopetalæ uniformes. Monopetalous uniform or regular.
- 16. \_\_\_\_\_\_ difformes. Monopetalous irregular, or different forms.
- 17. Tetrapetalæ filiquofæ. Tetrapetalous, large pods.
- 18. \_\_\_\_\_ filiculosæ. Tetra-
- 19. Papilionaceæ. Papilionaceous.

20. Herbie Pentapetalie. Pentapetalous, or five petals.

21. — Frumenta. Corns.

22. Gramina. Graffes.

23. - Graminifolia. Grass - leafed plants.

24. — Bulbosa. Bulbous rooted plants.

25. — Bulbosis affines. Plants near akin to the bulbous.

II. Ray's method amended is taken from the fruit and corolla, as may be feen in the following table.

1. Herbæ Submarinæ. Submarine plants or fea plants.

2. — Fungi. Funguses. 3. - Musci. Mosses.

4. — Capillares. Capillary plants.

5. — Apetala. Without petals.

- 6. Planipetalæ. Comp. fl. femiflosculous, or half florets.
- 7. Discoidece. Comp. fl. radiated. 3. Corymbiferæ. Comp. fl. corym-

biferous.

9. — Capitate. Comp. fl. flosculous, or whole florets.

10. Monospermæ. One feed.

11. — Umbellatæ. Umbellated.

12. - Stellate. Stellate, or star-shaped.

13. - Asperifoliæ. Rough leafed.

14. Herbæ

14. Herbæ Verticillatæ. Verticillate, or whorled.

15. - Polyspermæ. Many seeds.

16. — Pomiferæ. Apple-bearing herbs.
17. — Bacciferæ. Berry-bearing herbs.

18. — Multisiliquæ. Many pods.

19. — Monopetalæ. Monopetalous, or one petal.

20. — Di-tripetalæ. Two and three

petals.

21. - Siliquofæ et filiculofæ. Great and fmall, or long and fhort pods.

22. Leguminosæ. Leguminous plants.

23. — Pentapetalæ. Pentapetalous, or five petals.

24. — Bulbosæ, et bulbosis affines. Bulbs, and bulbous-like plants.

25. - Stamineæ. Stamineous, i. e. hav-

ing only the stamina. 26. - Anomalæ. Herbs of an uncer-

tain family. 27. Arbores Arundinaceae. The palms.

28. \_\_\_ Apetala. Trees without petals.

29. - Fruetu umbilicato. Trees with an umbilicated fruit.

30. - Fruetu non umbilicato. Trees with fruit not umbilicated.

Fruetu sicco. Trees with a dry fruit.

32. - Fruetu filiquoso. Trees with podded fruit.

Arbores

33. Arbores Anomalæ. Trees anomalous or irregular.

## SECT. LX.

Camellus attempted to dispose the plants according to the valves of the pericarpium, thus, Pericarpia Afora. Pericarpium without valves. \_\_\_ Unifora. valve. with two valves. ---- with three \_\_\_ Trifora. valves. \_\_\_\_ Tetrafora. . with four valves. Pentafora. with five valves. - Hexafora, &c. with fix valves, &c.

## SECT. LXI.

Rivinus forms his fystem on the regularity and number of the petals, taking in also the fruit, which is of three forts, viz. either 1. naked, or having 2. a dry, or 3. a sleshy pericarpium.

Ruppius afterwards improved Rivinus's

fystem in the compound flowers.

1. Regulares

30	THE ELÊME	NTS Part I.
1	. Regulares Monopetalæ.	Regular. Mo-
	nopetalous, or 1 petal.	· 10 1111-71
2.	Dipetalæ.	Dipet-
2	alous, or 2 petals.  Tripetale.	Tripet-
(3)	alous, or 3 petals.	
4	. — Tetrapetalæ.	Tetra-
	petalous, or 4 petals.	
5.	petalous, or 5 petals.	Pentà-
6.	Hexapetalæ.	- Hexa-
	petalous, or 6 petals.	
	Polypetalæ.	Poly-
8	petalous, or many petals Irregulares Monopetala.	Irremilar Mo-
	nopetalous, or 1 petal.	irregular. 1110-
9.	——— Dipetalæ.	Di-
	petalous, or 2 petals.	,
10.	Tripetale.	-Tri-
11.	petalous, or 3 petals.  ——— Tetrapetalæ.	Te-
	trapetalous, or 4 petals.	
12.	Pentapetalæ.	——— Pen-
	tapetalous, or 5 petals.	
13.	apetalous, or 6 petals.	Hex-
14.	Polypetalæ.	Poly-
To a	petalous, or many petals	
15.	Compositive ex flore regular	ri. Comp. fl. of
16.	regular florets.	ri et irregulari.
	Comp. fl. of regular and in	regular florets.
		17. Compositæ

17. Compositæ ex flore irregulari. Comp. fl. of irregular florets only.

18. Incompletæ Imperfectæ. Incompleat or

imperfect plants.

## SECT. LXII.

Knautius (Christian) inverted Rivinus's fystem, preferring number to regularity. He maintained also that there were no flowers without petals, nor any naked seeds.

1. Monopetali Uniformes. Monopetalous, uniform or regular.

2. \_\_\_\_\_ Difformes. Monopetalous,

difform or irregular.

3. \_\_\_\_\_ aggregati uniformes. Monopetalous, comp. uniform or regular.

4. \_\_\_\_\_\_ Difformes. Monopetalous, comp. difform or irre-

gular:

5. Uniformi-difformes.
Monopetalous, comp. uniform and difform together.

6. Dipetali Uniformes. Dipetalous, uni-

form or regular.

7. —— Difformes. Dipetalous, difform or irregular.

8. Tripetali Uniformes. Tripetalous, uniform or regular.

9. —— Difformes. Tripetalous, difform or irregular.

10. Tetrapetali

10. Tetrapetali Uniformes. Tetrapetalous, uniform or regular.

difform or irregular. Tetrapetalous,

12. Pentapetali Uniformes. Pentapetalous, uniform or regular.

13. ——— Difformes. Pentapetalous, difform or irregular.

14. Hexapetali Uniformes. Hexapetalous, uniform or regular.

15. \_\_\_\_\_ Difformes. Hexapetalous, difform or irregular.

16. Polypetali Uniformes. Polypetalous, uniform or regular.

17. \_\_\_\_ Difformes. Polypetalous, difform or irregular.

## SECT. LXIII.

Ludwigius united Rivinus's method with that of Linnæus, thus,

Monantheræ, monostyli. One anthera and one

style.

Diantheræ, distyli. Two antheræ, two styles. Triantheræ, tristyli. Three antheræ, three styles.

Pentantheræ, tetrastyli. Five antheræ, four

ftyles. Decanthera, &c. polyftyli, &c. Ten anthe-

ræ, &c. many styles, &c.

Thus taking his classes from the antheræ, and the orders of his classes from the styles.

2

## SECT. LXIV.

Tournefort's fystem is formed on the regularity and figure of the petals, together with the two-fold situation of the receptacle of the flower. His orders on the piftillum or calyx.

HERBÆ. HERBS.

1. Simplices monopetalæ campaniformes.

Simple flowers monopetalous, bellflaped.

2. Simplices monopetalæ infundibuliformes & rotatæ. Simple flowers monopeta-

lous, tunnel and wheel-shaped.

3. Simplices monopetalæ labiatæ. Simple flowers monopetalous, labiate or lip'd.

4. Simplices monopetalæ anomalæ. Simple flowers monopetalous, anomalous or irregular.

5. Simplices polypetalæ cruciformes. Simple flowers polypetalous, cruciform or

cross-shaped.

6. Simplices polypetalæ rosaceæ. Simple flowers polypetalous, rosaceous, like a rose.

7. Simplices polypetalæ umbellatæ. Simple flowers polypetalous, umbellated.

8. Simplices polypetalæ caryophy laceæ. Simple flowers polypetalous, caryophyllaceous, clove-form.

 Simplices polypetalæ liliaceæ. Simple flowers polypetalous, liliaceous, or lilyform.

10. Simplices polypetalæ papilionaceæ. Simple flowers polypetalous, papilionaceous, butterfly-form.

11. Simplices polypetalæ anomalæ. Simple flowers polypetalous, anomalous or ir-

regular.

12. Compositæ slosculosæ. Compound flowers flosculous, tubular or whole florets.

13. ——— Semifiosculose. Compound flowers semiflosculous, flator half florets.

radiated, like the spokes of a wheel.

15. Apetalæ. Apetalous, having no petals.

16. Ananthæ spermatophoræ. No flower, but bearing seed.

17. Ananthæ & aspermæ vulgo. No flower nor seed in the vulgar estimation.

ARBORES. TREES.

18. Arbores, Apetalæ stamineæ. No petals, but bare stamina.

19. — Apetalæ amentaceæ. No pe-

20. \_\_\_\_ Monopetalæ. Monopetalous.

21. — Rosacea. Rosaceous.

22. — Papilionaceæ. Papilionaceous.

## SECT. LXV.

Pontedera's fystem is a compound of Tournefort and Rivinus's fystems.

1. Incertae. Uncertain to which class

they belong.

2. Floribus destitutæ. Having no flowers. 3. Gemmis

Radiatæ capitulis. Radiated.

13. \_\_\_\_ Anomalæ. Irregular.

Papilionaceæ. Papilionaceous.

\_\_\_\_\_ Liliaceae. Liliaceous.

16. \_\_\_\_ Caryophyllaceæ. Caryophillaceous.

17. \_\_\_\_ Cruciformes. Cruciform, or cross shaped.

18. — Umbellatæ. Umbellated.
19. — Filamentosæ. Stamineous, or naked stamina.

20. Gemmiferæ Filamentofæ. Bearing buds, flamineous, or naked flamina.

21. Apetalæ. Bearing buds, apetalous, without petals. Theres

D 2 22. Gemmiferæ

22. Gemmiferæ Anomalæ. Bearing buds, irregular.

23. \_\_\_\_ Campaniformes. Bearing

buds, bell-shaped.

24. ——— Rotatæ. Bearing buds, wheel-shaped.

25. \_\_\_\_ Infundibuliformes. Bearing

buds, tunnel-shaped.

26. ——— Papilionaceæ. Bearing buds, papilionaceous.

27. Rosacea. Bearing buds,

rofaceous.

## SECT. LXVI.

Magnolius's fystem is formed on the callyx and fruit.

HERBÆ. HERBS.

ignotum. Calyx external, including a flower unknown.

5. Calyce externo includente florem flamineum. Calyx external, including a

flower stamineous.

4. Calyce externo includente florem monopetalum. Calyx external, including a flower monopetalous.

3. Calyce externo includente florem polypetalum. Calyx external, including a

flower polypetalous.

2. Calyce externo includente florem compositum. Calyx external, including a flower compound.

6. Herbæ

6. Herbæ Calyce externo sustinente florem monopetal. Calyx external, supporting a flower monopetalous.

7. — Calyce externo sustinente florem polypetal. Calyx external, supporting a

flower polypetalous.

8. — Calyce interno tantum. Calyx internal only, which is the corolla.

9. Calyce externo internoque flore monopetalo. Calyx external and internal, flower monopetalous.

10. — Calyce externo internoque flore di-tripetalo. Calyx external and internal, flower with two and three petals.

11. — Calyce externo internoque flore tetrapetalo. Calyx external and inter-

nal, tetrapetalous.

12. — Calyce externo internoque flore polypetalo. Calyx external and internal, polypetalous.

ARBORES. TREES.

13. Calyce externotantum. Calyx external only.

1 4. \_\_\_\_ internotantum. Calyx internal only.

15. - externo internoque simul. Calyx external and internal both.

## SECT. LXVII,

Linnæus formed in 1737 a system from the calyx, as follows.

1. Spathacei. Spathaceous, like a sheath or hose.

2. Glumosi. Glumose, or chaffy. 3. Amentacei. Amentaceous, or catkins. D 3 4. Umbellati.

4. Umbellati. Umbellated.

5. Communes. Common calyx, or flower cup.

6. Duplicati. Double calyx.

7. Floribundi. Flowering; the petals and famina are inserted into the flower-cup.

8. Coronati. Crowned, or crown-shaped with a radius.

9. Anomali. Irregular.

10. Difformes. Difform, or different shapes.

11. Caduci. Caducous, which fall off, or

shed their leaves.

12. Persistentes uniformes monopetali. Not caducous, uniform and monopetalous.

13. \_\_\_\_ uniformes polypetali. Not caducous, uniform and polypetalous.

14. ——— difformes monopetali. Not caducous, difform and monopetalous.

15. ———— difformes polypetali. Not ca-

5. — difformes polypetali. Not caducous, difform and polypetalous.

16. Incompleti. Incompleat calyx.

17. Apetali. Apetalous, or a bare calyx without petals.

18. Nudi. Naked, or no petals nor calyx.

## SECT. LXVIII.

Linnæus's fexual fystem is formed on the number, proportion, figure, and fituation of the famina and pistilla, which he calls the male and female parts of vegetables. It consists

confifts of 25 classes, which are taken from the stamina, or rather the antheræ; and the orders of the first 13 classes from the piftilla, as monogynia, digynia, trigynia, tetragynia, &c. that is, 1, 2, 3, 4 pistilla, &c. The orders of the last 12 classes are characterized from other parts of the fructification, &c. fix or feven of his classes are natural, and have been most of them affumed by all the fystematic authors. These are the 14th, which contains the labiated and personated flowers of Tournesort; the 15th, the tetrapetalous and cruciform of Tournefort; the 16th, the mucilaginous monopetalous of Tournefort; the 17th, the papilionaceous or leguminous plants of Tournefort; the 19th, the compound flowers which make three of Tournefort's claffes, viz. the flosculous, semiflosculous, and radiated; the 24th, the ananthous and afpermous of Tournefort; the 25th, is the first of Royen.

1. Monandria.

2. Diandria.

Characters of the Classes. One fertile stamen, i. e. having the anthera.

Two fertile, or fruitful

Aamina.

Three ditto.

Four ditto, all of an equal length, by which this is distinguished from the 14th class.

Claffes.

5. Pentandria.

6. Hexandria.

7. Heptandria. 8. Octandria.

9. Enneandria.

10. Decandria. II. Dodecandria.

12. Icosandria.

13. Polyandria.

Characters of the Classes.

Five ditto.

Six ditto, all of an equal length, which this is distinguished from the 15th class.

Seven ditto.

Eight ditto.

Nine ditto.

Ten ditto.

From 11 to 19 ftamina inclusive.

Twenty stamina and upwards, fometimes fewer, which are fixed to the inner side of the corolla or calyx, and not to the receptacle; and the corolla is fastened to the inner fide of the calyx, which is concave and monophylous, confifts of one leaf.

From 15 to 1000 ftamina, which are fastened to the receptacle. It differs from the Icosandria in the calyx, and the infertion of the stamina and corolla.

14. Didynamia.

Classes.
14. Didynamia,

Characters of the Classes.

Four flamina. The two next to one another fhorter than the other two, one flyle and an uneven

corolla.

15. Tetradynamia.

Six flamina tapering and erect; the two opposite flamina are as long as the calyx, the other four a little longer, but shorter than the corolla, four

even petals.

A Perianthium, not caducous, often double, five petals. The filaments are all joined below into one parcel, but not above, the external

are shortest.

The filaments are joined below into two parcels; the lower has nine. A perianthium monophyllous, campanulated, caducous; the cor. always papilionaceous and uneven.

18. Polya-

16. Monadelphia.

17. Diadelphia.

Classes. Characters of the Classes.

18. Polyadelphia.

The filaments of the flamina are united below into three or more distinct parcels.

19. Syngenesia.

The flamina are joined by their antheræ (rarely by their filaments) in the form

20. Gynandria.

of a cylinder.
The flamina grow upon the style, or on the receptacle elongate, in the form of a style; which in that case supports both the flamina and pissilla.

21. Monæcia.

Male and femaleflowers in diffinct cups on the fame plant.
All these are called androgynous plants.

22. Diæcia.

Male and female flowers on different plants of the same species.

23. Polygamia.

Male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers diffinct in the fame species, Classes.

Characters of the Classes. species, and sometimes on the fame plant. All the plants of this class are called polygamous.

24. Cryptogamia.

The fructification either wholly escapes our notice, or the flowers are hid within the fruit.

25. Palmæ. This last class is by way of an appendix to the fexual system; because their fructification is hither-22d, and 23d classes. petalous.

Palms, which have always a fimple stem. not branched, the top frondose, the fructification on a spadix, which is originally contained within to but imperfectly spatha or sheath. The made out. They flowers of all the palm are all of the 21st, kind are always tri-

Monoclinia, i. e. the first 20 classes have the male and female parts both in the fame calyx; or in other words they are all hermaphrodite flowers. The 21st, 22d, 23d classes are diclinia, i. e. they have the male and female organs in distinct flowers.

Obf. The Dodecandria and Polyandria, in my opinion, are not sufficiently distin-

guished.

Obf. on class 22, Diacia. There are many flowers which have the male and fe-

male

male organs on different plants of the fame species, which are put under other classes, and could not be reckoned under the Diacia, because all the species of those genera are not distinct sexes, as for example, the carex dioica, valeriana dioica, morus nigra, phylica dioica, rhamnus alaternus, falix pentandra, rumex acetofa, laurus nobilis, acer rubrum, lychnis dioica, cucabalus otites, phytolacca dioica, rubus chamæmorus, clematis dioica, thalietrum dioicum, napæa dioica, gnaphalium dioicum, &c. Vide Syst. Nat. 642, &c.

See Tab. I. where the classes and their characters are represented on a beautiful

copper-plate.

## SECT. LXIX.

Haller in 1740, Royen in 1742, and Wackendorf in 1747, have each of them endeavoured to find out a natural method, or nature's fystem, in the cotyledons, the calyx, the fex, and other parts and circumstances of plants.

Royen's natural method is as follows.

1. Palmæ. Palms.

2. Lilia. Lilies.

- 3. Gramina. Graffes and corn.
- 4. Amentaceæ. Catkins.
- 5. Umbellatæ. Umbels.6. Compositæ. Compound flowers.
- 7. Aggregatæ. Aggregate flowers.

8. Tricocca.

8. Tricocca. Three kernels or grains.

9. Incompletæ. Incomplete or impersect. 10. Fruetissoræ. That bear the slower upon the fruit, or above the germ.

11. Calyciflora. That bear the flower within the calyx, or below the germ.

12. Ringentes. Gaping flowers.

13. Siliquosæ. Siliquose, or podded.

14. Columnifera. Plants with a pillar-like appearance in the middle of the flower.

15. Leguminosæ. Leguminous plants or pulse.

16. Oligantheræ. Stamina, fewer than the divisions of the corolla.

17. Diplofanthera. Stamina, double the number of the divisions of the corolla.

- 18. Polyantheræ. Many more antheræ than the divisions of the corolla.
- 19. Cryptantheræ. Hidden antheræ.

20. Lithophyta. Hard or stony plants.

# Haller's natural method.

1. Fungi. Fungules.

2. Musci. Mosses.

- 3. Epiphyllospermæ. Bearing feed on the leaves.
- 4. Apetalæ. Without petals.

5. Gramina. Graffes.

6. Graminibus affines. Grafs-leafed plants.

7. Monocotyledones Petaloidea. One cotyledon or lobe, with petals.

8. Polyflemones.

8. Polystemones. Many more stamina than petals.

9. Diplostemones. Double the number of

stamina to the petals.

10. Isostemones. Equal number of stamina and petals.

11. Mejestomones. Lesser number of stamina

than petals.

12. Staminibus sesquialteris. Half as many more stamina than petals.

13. Staminibus sesquitertiis. A third part

more flamina than petals.

14. Staminibus 4 ringentes. Four stamina, and a gaping corolla.

15. Congregatæ. Aggregate and compound

flowers.

## Wackendorf's natural method.

1. Gymnospermæ. Naked seeds.

2. Homoiodiperianthæ. Plants with feed vessels. The stamina and petals equal to the divisions of the calyx.

3. Anomoiodiperianthæ. Plants with feed vessels. The flamina and petals not equal to the divisions of the calyx.

4. Pollaplostemonopetalæ. The stamina much more numerous than the petals.

5. Anisostemonopetalæ. The stamina and

petals unequal in length.

6. Cylindrobafiostemones. Filaments united in a cylinder below the antheræ, distinct at top, as in the monadelphia.

7. Dima-

7. Dimacrostemones. Four stamina, two long, and two short.

8. Tetramacrostemones. Six stamina, four

long, and two short.

9. Distemonopleantheræ. Filaments united in two parcels below, as in Diadelphia.

10. Eleutheranthera. Aggregate flowers properly fo called, as Dipfacus.

11. Cylindrantheræ. Compound flowers properly so called, as in Syngenesia.

12. Monoperiantha. Flowers having no corollæ.

13. Monophythanthæ. Monæcious flowers.

14. Diphythantha. Diacious flowers.

15. Acalyces. Flowers having no calyx.

16. Calycinæ. Visible flowers which have a calyx, and a fingle cotyledon, as Juncus.

17. Spathaceæ. Spathaceous plants. - 18. Glumosæ. Chaffy plants.

19. Cryptanthæ. Fructification scarce vifible.

Thus have we mentioned all the univerfal methods of claffing plants, made use of by the true or orthodox systematics before the middle of this century.

We shall next speak of the partial systems, which have been generally of one

class only.

## SECT. LXX.

Vailliant has distributed the compound flowers according to the calyx, receptacle,

and coronula, or little crown of the feed, thus,

Claffes. Cynarocephali. Capitata of Ray,

round or globular heads.

Corymbiferic Compound flowers corymbiferous.

Cichoreacei. Compound flowers

semiflosculous or half florets.

where each floret has a proper calyx.

Orders. Calyx simplex. Calyx simple.

- imbricatus. Calyx imbricated.

within another calyx. Calyx included

naked or bare.

- Receptaculum paleaceum. Receptacle chaffy.

Receptaculum pilosum. Receptacle

hairy.

48

——— Coronula nulla. Crown of the feed none.

- Coronula: pilofa. Crown of the feed

a hairy.

## SECT. LXXI.

The umbelliferous plants were claffed by Morifon according to the figure of the feeds, but by Artedius according to the *involucra* into three claffes, thus,

Involucrum

Involucrum universale et partiale. Univerfal and partial involucrum. - partiale tantum. Partial involucrum only. - nullum. No involucrum. SECT. LXXII. Ray, Montius, and Scheuchzer have difposed the grasses according to their affinity with the different forts of corn, &c. Michelius according to the glume or chaff, fimple or compound; and Linnæus according to the fexes. Ray, Montius, and Scheuchzer's genera of graffes are: Spicata Triticea. Spiked like wheat. Hordeacea. Spiked like barley.

Secalina. Spiked like rye. \_\_\_\_ Loliacea. Spiked like darnel. ---- Panicea. Spiked like panic. - Phalaroidea. Spiked like canarygrafs. - Alopecuroidea. Spiked like fox-

---- Typhoidea. Spiked like cats-tail. ---- Myosuroidea. Spiked like mousetail. --- Echinata. Spiked rough or briftly. --- Cristata. Spiked and crested. --- Aromata. Spiked aromatic graffes. --- Dactyloidea. Spiked fingered. Paniculata

Paniculata Simplicia mutica. Panicle fimple and beardlefs.

- Simp. ariftata. Panicle fimple

and bearded.

Affines Linagrossis. Grass-like plants, Linagrostis, cotton grass.

Grass-like plants, { Juncoides, } rushes. funcoides. Funcus.

Grass-like plants. Canna, Indian-fl. reed.

- Scirpus. - Cyperus.

F 64 . 4.13

Grafs-like plants, { Scir-Cype-

Cyperoides. Cyperoides, or carexes.

## SECT. LXXIII.

Dillenius has with the most amazing diligence discovered, and compleatly described and figured, the mosses; his principal distinction of which is with or without a calyptra.

## SECT. LXXIV.

Dillenius has ranked the alga according to their texture, and Michelius according to their flowers.

## SECT. LXXV.

As to the funguses, Dillenius has distinguished them according to their tops or caps, which are underneath folded, porous, or echinated; and Michelius according to their fructification.

## SECT. LXXVI.

As to the *lithophyta*, or ftony plants, as they have been called, fuch as corallines, &c. which were of old reckoned of the fossil or mineral kingdom, Marsilius put them under the vegetables, but Peysonellus restored them to their right place, to which they certainly belong, the animal kingdom,

## SECT. LXXVII.

Besides all the above-mentioned systems or methods of distributing the plants deduced from the fructification, and which may therefore be called artificial, there is a natural method, or nature's system, which we ought diligently to endeavour to find out. Some detached fragments of this we shall here subjoin. And that this system of nature is no chimæra, as some may imagine, will appear, as from other considerations, so in particular from hence, that all plants, of what order soever, shew an affinity to some others to which they are

nearly allied. In the mean time, till the whole of nature's method is compleatly discovered (which is much to be wished), we must be content to make use of the best artificial systems now in use.

## NATURAL ORDERS\*.

1. Palmæ. Palms, and some genera that agree with them in habit; cocos, phænix, stratiotes, &c.

2. Piperitæ. Pepper, and some other that resemble it in habit, structure, and sen-

sible qualities; piper, arum, &c.

3. Calamariæ. Reed-like plants. In these the leaf is entire at the base, they have no joints nor petals; scirpus, schænus.

4. Gramina. Graffes; triticum, secale.
5. Tripetaloideæ. Plants with three pe-

tals; calamus, juncus.

6. Ensatæ. Plants with sword-shaped

leaves; iris, gladiolus.

7. Orchideæ. Orchifes, and those that resemble them in habits, powers, and sensible qualities; orchis, satyrium.

8. Scitamineæ. Aromatic plants, and fome others which afford agreeable fruit, and agree in habit; musa, costus, amomum.

9. Spathaceæ.

<sup>\*</sup> See Mr. Milne's Botan. Dict. To the fensible and ingenious writings of that gentleman, I acknowledge myself indebted for many things, particularly for his accurate definitions.

9. Spathaceæ. Spathaceous plants, whose flowers are contained within a spatha or sheath; narcissus, galanthus, amaryllis.

10. Coronariæ. Plants of the garland or lily tribe; lilium, tulipa, hemerocallis, friti-

laria, hyacinthus, ornithogalum.

11. Sarmentosæ. Plants with climbing stems and branches; tamus, smilax, aristolochia.

12. Holoracea. Pot herbs, plants for the table, and other domestic uses; blitum,

Spinachia, atriplex, beta.

13. Succulentæ. Succulent and fleshy plants; castus, mesembryanthemum, aizoon, sempervivum, sedum, cotyledon.

14. Gruinales. Plants like the geranium in habit; linum, drosera, oxalis, geranium.

15. Inundatæ. Plants which grow in the water; potamogeton, ruppia, myriophyl-

lum, ceratophyllum, hippuris.

16. Calycifloræ. Plants with the stamina inserted into the calyx, have no corolla, and their fruit is a pulpy drupa or bacca; osyris, trophis, hippophae, elæagnus.

17. Calycanthemæ. Plants with the corolla and famina inserted into the calyx;

epilobium, oenothera, glaux.

18. Bicornes. Plants with horned antheræ; kalmia, ledum, azalea, rhododendrum, erica, vaccinium, arbutus, andromeda, pyrola, epigea.

E 3 19. Hesperidea.

19. Hesperideæ. Plants in habit like the myrtle; eugenia, psidium, myrtus, caryophyl-

lus, philadelphus.

20. Rotaceæ. Plants with one flat wheel-shaped petal, and no tube; trientalis, centunculus, anagallis, lysimachia, phlox, gentiana, swertia.

21. Preciæ. Early flowering plants, as primula, and some others that agree in habit; androsace, diapensia, dodecatheon, cortusa, cyclamen, menyanthes, hottonia, samolus.

22. Caryophylleæ. Plants of the pink or carnation tribe, and others nearly allied to them; dianthus, faponaria, filene, cucubalus,

lychnis, cerastium, holosteum.

23. Tribilatæ. Plants with three feeds, each marked with a fear; melia, acer, æsculus, staphylea, sapindus.

24. Corydales. Plants with hooded or helmet-shaped flowers; melianthus, epime-

dium, fumaria, utricularia, pinguicula.

25. Putamineæ. Plants whose fruit is covered with a hard woody shell; cleome,

capparis, morisona.

26. Multifiliquæ. Plants which have many seed vessels; Pæonia, aquilegia, aconitum, delphinium, dietamnus, ruta, nigella, trollius, helleborus, caltha, ranunculus, adonis, anemone, thalietrum.

27. Rhoeadeæ. Plants of the poppy tribe, or refembling them in habit; arge-

mone, chelidonium, papaver, sanguinaria, po-

dophyllum.

28. Luridæ. Plants of an ominous appearance, hurtful or noxious; verbascum, digitalis, nicotiana, atropa, byoscyamus, datura, capsicum, solanum.

29. Campanaceæ. Plants having bellshaped flowers; convolvulus, polemonium,

campanula, trachelium.

30. Contortæ. Plants with a monopetalous corolla, twisted or bent towards one side; genipa, vinca, nerium, periploca, apocynum, cynancum, asclepias, stapelia.

31. Vepreculæ. Plants that resemble the

daphne, dirca, gnidia, passerina, thesium. 32. Papilionaceæ. Plants that have papilionaceous flowers, i. e. fomewhat refembling a butterfly in shape, of which number are all the leguminous plants; pisum, vicia, ervum, cicer, orobus, lupinus, arrachis, medicago, trifolium, lotus.

33. Lomentaceæ. Plants which afford a fine dye, with others like them in habit; cæsalpinia, hæmatoxylon, cassia, mimosa, hy-

menæa, polygala.

34. Cucurbitaceae. Plants refembling the gourd in figure, habit, virtues, and fenfible qualities; anguria, elaterium, cucurbita, cucumis, momordica, passiflora.

35. Senticosæ. Briars, brambles, and others which refemble them in external

appear-E 4

appearance; alchimilla, agrimonia, dryas, geum, tormentilla, fragaria, rubus, rofa.

36. Pomaceæ. Plants with a pulpy efculent fruit of the apple, berry, and cherry kind; ribes, forbus, cratægus, mespilus, pyrus, punica, prunus, amygdalus.

37. Columniferæ. Plants whose flamina and pifiilla have the appearance of a column or pillar in the middle of the flower; malva, alcea, althæa, lavatera, hybiscus.

38. Tricoccæ. Plants with a fingle three-cornered capfule, having three cells, each containing one feed; euphorbia, croton, ja-

tropha, ricinus, mercurialis, buxus.

39. Siliquosæ. Podded plants; the tetrapetalæ cruciformes of Tournefort, and tetradynamia of Linnæus, draba, lepidium, alyssum, iberis, cochlearia, lunaria, myagrum, sinapis, brassica, crambe, turritis, cheiranthus.

40. Personatæ. Plants with a masked flower; the ringentes of Rivinus, chelone, antirrhinum, rhinanthus, pedicularis, euphrasia, melampyrum, orobanche, acanthus.

41. Asperisoliæ. Rough-leased plants; the didynamia angiospermia of Linnæus, symphytum, borrago, echium, asperugo, litho-

Spermum.

42. Verticillatæ. Verticillate plants, they have four naked feeds, and flowers growing in whorls; the labiatæ of Tournefort, and didynamia gymnospermia of Linnæus, thymus,

mus, satureia, melissa, origanum, hyssopus, lavendula salvia, mentha, nepeta, teucrium.

43. Dumosæ. Plants which are thickfet with irregular branches, and bushy; rhamnus, ceanothus, ilex, viburnum, celastrus, cassine, euonymus.

44. Sepiariæ. Woody plants proper for hedges; jasminum, ligustrum, phillyræa, olea,

fraxinus, syringa.

45. Umbellatæ. Umbelliferous plants; eryngium, sanicula, daucus, angelica, pastina-ca, sium, sson, coriandrum, cicuta, anethum, cuminum.

46. Hederaceæ. Plants resembling the

ivy; panax, hedera, vitis, cissus.

47. Stellatæ. Starry plants, with two naked feeds, and leaves round the stem in form of a star; sherardia, asperula, gallium, valantia, rubia, cornus.

48. Aggregatæ. Aggregate flowers, confifting of a number of florets, which have each a proper and a common calyx; flatice, globularia, dipfacus, scabiosa, knautia, circæa,

lonicera, linnæa, viscum.

49. Compositæ. Compound flowers; arctium, carduus, cnicus, cichorium, lapsana, leontodon, lactuca, gnaphalium, tanacetum, matricaria, inula, tussilago, aster, helenium, othonna, bidens, helianthus, melampodium, tagetes, zinnia, amellus, artemisia, seriphium, filago, xanthium.

50. Amentacea.

50. Amentaceæ. Plants bearing catkins; falix, populus, platanus, fagus, juglans, corylus, betula, myrica.

51. Coniferæ. Cone-bearing plants; pi-

nus, cupressus, thuja, juniperus, taxus.

52. Coadunatæ. Plants with numerous feed vessels, joined together to form a single round or conical fruit; annona, uvaria, magnolia, liriodendron.

53. Scabridæ. Plants with rugged or bristly leaves; ficus, parietaria, urtica, mo-

rus, ulmus, cannabis, bumulus.

54. Miscellaneæ. Miscellaneous plants; reseda, poterium, lemna, coriaria, empetrum, amaranthus, nymphæa, swietenia, telephium.

55. Filices. Ferns; ophioglossum, osmunda, adiantum, asplenium, polypodium, pilularia,

isoetes.

56. Musci. Mosses; lycopodium, fontinalis, sphagnum, phascum, mnium, splachnum, polytrichum, bryum, hypnum.

57. Algæ. Flags; marchantia, jungermannia, anthoceros, targionia, lichen, blasia, riccia, tremella, ulva, fucus, chara, conserva.

58. Fungi. Funguses; agaricus, boletus, hydnum, phallus, clathrus, elvela, clavaria,

peziza, lycoperdon, byffus, mucor.

59. Dubii ordinis. Doubtful genera; amyris, berberis, cuscuta, diosma, empetrum, fuschia, galax, hydrophyllum, illicium, limonia, mangifera, nepenthes, ophioxylon, plantago, randia, santalum, trapa, ximenia, Sc.

As

As to all the other genera under this last number, which are near one hundred and twenty, it is uncertain of what order they are.

In the above table I have added only a few examples to each number, referring the reader to the *Genera Plantarum*, Edit. vi. for the other *genera* contained under each number.

## CHAP. III. Of the PARTS of PLANTS.

AFTER this long but necessary digreffion concerning the authors on botany, and the several botanic systems, we shall now resume our subject.

### SECT. LXXVIII.

A vegetable (see N° 4.) is an organical body, which draws the matter of its nou-rishment and growth by pores or vessels placed on its external surface; and consequently it may be aptly enough called an inverted animal. As to the component parts of vegetables they consist of three sort vessels (with their contained sluids, sap and air), to wit, 1. The sap vessels, in which the circulation, or rather propulsion, is carried on. 2. Small reservoirs, wherein the sap is lodged; and lastly, very small vessels, air vessels, or trachere, by which they draw and retain the air.

Vegetables

Vegetables may be divided into the three following tribes, viz. 1. Monocotyledones; 2. Dicotyledones; and 3. Acotyledones. The first have only one seminal leaf, valve, or lobe; and therefore the leaves they put forth, at their first springing out of the ground, are entirely fimilar to the succeeding ones. This tribe comprehends the three families of 1. palms, 2. graffes, and 3. bulbous plants of the lily kind, &c. The fecond tribe have two feminal leaves, and comprehend the two numerous families of, 4. herbs, and, 5. trees. The third tribe have no feminal leaves or lobes; they comprehend the four families of, 6. ferns, 7. mosses, 8. algae or flags, and, 9. funguses.

1. The palms have a fimple stem, not branched; the top is frondose, i. e. shaped like the fern kind, the fructification is on a spadix, which is originally contained within a spatha or sheath. The slowers

are always tripetalous.

2. Graffes have the most simple leaves, an articulated or jointed stalk and tubular, their calyx is glumose or chaffy, each calyx containing one feed only.

3. Bulbous plants of the liliaceous kind; as allium, narcissus, ornithogalum, hyacinthus,

erocus, iris, &c.

4. Herbs, and

5. Trees: these need no definition.

6. Ferns

6. Ferns have, properly speaking, no stem, but consist of what botanists call frons, which is a composition of leaf and stem. Ferns also for the most part have their seeds on the backside of the leaf.

7. Mosses have an anthera without any filament supporting it, remote from the semale flower; have no pistillum; their seeds have no cotyledons or lobes, nor any coat or tunic.

8. Algæ have their root, leaf, and stem, all in one.

9. Funguses are plants seemingly impersect, low, having neither slower, leaf, colour, nor texture, analogous to others; of a quick growth, and short duration.

The component parts of trees, the most perfect vegetables, are, 1. The outer bark, cortex; 2. the inner bark, liber; 3. the blea or white sap, alburnum; 4. the fibres, filaments, or woody parts, lignum; and 5. the pith, medulla. By the inner bark of trees is caused their increasing growth or thickness, by the addition of a new covering or ring of wood, every year. Hence the principal part of trees is that portion of the bark which is joined to the wood, or the inner bark, by whose assistance trees perpetuate life, their trunks become thicker, and their germination or budding, as well as fruitfulness, succeed. Of trees, some are gemmi-

gemmiparous, and others not. Those growing in warm climates are mostly destitute of buds, and those in cold climates are for the most part furnished with buds. Hence it is, that trees which are natives of the warmer climates cannot be naturalized to our cold northern climes, because of their want of buds. " All trees, fays Alfton, " whether they do or do not bear gems or " buds, are furnished with a true bark, with a liber or inner bark, and with an " alburnum, which is that fappy part of " trees betwixt the inner bark and wood, " or the external foft part commonly call-" ed the white sap; and these are the prin-" cipal parts of them. Consequently we " may infer, that fuch plants, whose stems " are not annual, but endure for some " years, and are not covered with a true " bark, but only with a cuticle or film, " may be styled shrubs or undershrubs, or " numbered with herbs." Though Linnæus fays, that nature has put no limits or distinction betwixt trees and shrubs; for, fays he, it cannot confift, as has been commonly thought, in having or not having buds, fince many trees in hot countries, as we faid before, are entirely destitute of buds. Buds are the rudiments of leaves and flowers, or both, and also of young shoots. Perennial herbs have gems or eyes,

as they are commonly called, on their roots, and fome roots there are which confift of a great many little bulbs; all thefe are analogous to the buds on trees. So then perennial plants have a double fet of flowers at one and the fame time, as one may fay, the bulbs, or eyes and buds containing the rudiments of the next fucceeding flowers in embryo. Another diffinc-tion of trees is into the evergreens and de-ciduous, that is, those which shed their leaves every autumn. Herbs are annual, biennial, or perennial; the perennial are of two forts; evergreens, as the lavender, rofemary, &c. or caducous, which die down to the root every year. Another general division of vegetables may be into exotic and indigenous plants. Exotics or foreign plants are of four forts; 1. the Tropical, which are never exposed to the air of our climate, but kept within stoves all the year round; 2. the African or fucculent plants, which in the fummer will bear being exposed abroad in the day-time; 3. the Tame (mansuetæ), which in the summer will bear being fet abroad day and night; 4. the Naturalized, which will bear our winters, as rue, lavender, &c. Indigenous plants or natives, which grow fpontaneously with us, are diffinguished according to their place of growth into marsh, wood, mountain, fea, river, plants, &c.

#### SECT. LXXIX.

The three principal parts of vegetables are; 1. the root; 2. the herb, or main body of the plant; and 3. the fructification. Of the two first only we shall treat in this Chapter, and of the fructification in the following.

#### SECT. LXXX.

The root which draws nourishment for the supply and production of the whole plant and its fructification, confifts of the flock (caudex) and radicle.

A. The radicle is that fibrous part of the root in which the descending stock terminates, and by which the root draws nourishment for the support of the whole plant.

B. The descending stock gradually strikes downward into the ground, and puts forth radicles. From its various structure it has been distinguished by botanists into,

1. The perpendicular root, when it runs

in a strait line downwards.

2. The horizontal root, which runs transversly under the earth. Iris.

3. The simple root (see f. 129.) which

is not subdivided.

4. The branched root (see f. 130.) which is divided into lateral branches.

5. The tapering root (see f. 129.) which is oblong, thick at the upper end, and gradually . dually smaller to the other extremity;

as in Daucus, postinaca.

6. The tuberous root (see f. 128.), which consists of a bundle of roundish knobs. As in pæonia, hemerocallis, helianthus, solanum, filipendula.

7. The creeping root (see f. 131.), which runs out to a great length, putting forth small roots here and there as it creeps

along.

8. The fibrous root, which confifts only of small fibres.

9. The fumped root, whose lower extremity is not tapering to a point, but stumped, or as it were bitten off. As in scabiosa, plantago, valeriana.

C.

The afcending stock gradually raises itself above ground, often supplying the place of a trunk, and produces the main body of the plant. It is for this reason that all trees and shrubs may be considered as roots above ground; and therefore a tree turned upside down, will produce leaves from the descending stock, and roots from the ascending.

SECT. LXXXI.

The fecond part of the vegetable is the HERB or main body of the plant, which rifes from the root, and is terminated by the fructification. It confifts of the trunk,

the leaves, the fulcra, props or supports, and the hybernacula or winter quarters: the wunk; whose use is to multiply the herb, leads immediately from the root to the fructification; the leaves transpire and draw the air, as the lungs in animals, and also afford shade; the fulcra or props serve as supports to the plant, which however feldom perishes, though deprived of those fulcra; the hybernacula or winter quarters, to wit, the bulbs and buds, contain the herb or plant, as it were, in miniature.

#### SECT. LXXXII.

The TRUNK, which produces the leaves and fructification, is of feven forts, viz. the caulis, culmus, scapus, pedunculus, petiolus, frons, and slipes.

A.

The caulis or stem is the proper trunk of the herb, and produces leaves and fructification.

a. Simplestems are extended in a continued direction to the top, without deviation, and are the following:

1. The entire stem is most simple, hav-

ing fcarce any branches.

2. The naked stem is without leaves, as in the euphorbia, cactus, stapelia, ephedra, cuscuta.

3. The leafy stem, which is furnished

with leaves.

4. The

4. The bending stem is turned according to the joints in different directions, as in ptelea; to the left; or according to the motion of the sun, as it is commonly called, as in humulus, helvine, lonicera, tamus; to the right, or contrary to the sun's motion, as in convolvulus, bafella, phaseolus, cynanche, euphorbia, eupatorium.

5. The twining stem (sig. 115.), mounts in a spiral line upon the branch of stem of

another plant.

6. The reclining stem, which bends like a bow towards the earth, as in the ficus.

7. The procumbent stem, which lies flat

on the ground.

8. The creeping stem (fig. 112.), which lying on the ground puts forth small roots here and there, as in the hedera, bignonia.

9. The long and flender or twig-like flem (farmentofus, see f. 131.), is also creeping, and almost naked or without leaves.

10. The parafitic stem is that which grows on some other plant, and not out of the ground; as the epidendrum, viscum, tillandsa.

11. The round stem is cylindrical.

opposite to one another, as in the fifyrinchium.

13. The two, three, four, five, and many edged stems are all species of the foregoing.

F 2

14. The

14. The three-cornered stem has three

plain fides, and three angles.

15. The triangular, quadrangular, quincangular, and multangular stems, which have two, three, four, five, or many angles.

16. The furrowed stem is marked with broad and deep channels through its whole

length.

17. The *ftriated* or ftreaked ftem is fluted or marked with very fmall parallel channels through the whole length.

18. The smooth stem, which has a

fmooth or even furface.

19. The hairy stem, which is covered with soft hairs; as in rhus, tomex.

20. The rough stem is covered with

rough projecting points.

21. The briftly stem is spread over with stiff bristles; as in brassica erucastrum.

# Simple branching Stems.

22. The ascending stem, where the branches come out horizontally, and then gradually turn upwards.

23. The fpreading stem, where the branches are spread out wide, as in the

common water germander.

24. The diffich stem, where the branches are put forth in two rows, or from two sides of the stem only.

25. The

25. The *brachiate* stem sends out its branches in opposite pairs, each pair crossing the other. (See f. 117.)

26. The most branched stem abounds with branches disposed without any regular order.

27. The propped stem is supported by the branches which descend to the earth; as in ficus, rhizophora, mangroove.

28. The proliferous stem, which throws out its branches from the center of the

apex; as in the pinus.

# Compound Stems.

b. 29. The forked stem is when the divifion is always made in two parts; as in the cerastium dichotomum. (See f. 116.).

30. The fubdivided frem is divided into

branches without any order.

31. The jointed stem has joints or knots at certain distances; as in falicornia,

B.

The culmus, straw or haulm, is that fort of stem which is proper to grasses and corn, bearing the leaves and fructification thereof. Besides many of the distinctions given for the caulis, it admits also of some peculiar to itself, as,

32. The straw without knots or joints.
33. The jointed straw or haulm. (See

f. 114.).

34. The squamose or scaly straw. (See f. 111.).

F 3 C. The

C.

The fcapus or stalk is an universal trunk, bearing the fructification only, and not the leaves; as in narcissus, pyrola, convallaria, byacynthus. (See f. 113.).

D.

The peduncle or footstalk of the flower is a partial trunk, bearing the fructification

only, but not the leaves.

When branched or divided, each of the divisions is called *pedicellus*, or a little flower-stalk. Flower-stalks are distinguished from the place of the plant where they grow, into,

1. The radical flower-stalk, when they

proceed immediately from the root.

2. The cauline flower-stalk, which proceeds from the stem.

3. The branch peduncle, which pro-

ceeds from the branches.

4. The axillary or bosom flower-stalk, which comes out between the leaf and stem, or between the branch and stem.

5. The terminal flower-stalk, which comes from the extremity of the branch or

stem.

6. The folitary peduncle, when there is

only one in the fame place.

7. The fcattered peduncles, when a great many grow together without any order. Again, flower-stalks are distinguished from the different modes in which flowers are borne and connected on them, into,

8. The

8. The uniflorous, biflorous, triflorous, or multiflorous peduncle, that is, which bear one, two, three, or many flowers.

9. The fasciculus, a bunch or bundle, where the peduncles are erect, parallel, placed crose to one another, and all of the fame height, as in sweet william, dianthus barbatus, Pl. 10. f. 164.

10. The capitulum, a little head, where many flowers are collected into a head at the extremity of a peduncle, as in globe

amaranthus, gomphrena, f. 171.

11. The spike where the sessile flowers are placed alternately upon both fides of a simple common flower-stalk (f. 165.). A spike is said to be single rowed (spica secunda), when the flowers are all turned one way, as in dactylis cynosuroides; or double rowed (spica disticba), when the flowers. look to both fides, or fland two ways.

12. The Corymbus, where the leffer flower-stalks of unequal lengths are produced along the common peduncle on both fides, and rife to the same height, so as to form a flat or even surface at top, as in spiraa opulifolia, gold of pleasure, &c. (see

f. 163. Pl. 10.)

13. The panicle where the fructifications are dispersed upon foot-stalks variously subdivided (f. 170.), as in oats, &c. A panicle is faid to be diffuse, when the partial foot-stalks diverge, and the fructifications

F 4 hang

hang loose; as in the poa aquatica, or straight and narrow; when the foot-stalks approach near to one another, as in festuca ovina, aira cœrulea.

14. The thyrsus is a panicle contracted into an oval or egg-shaped form, resembling the cone of a pine; as in lilac, butter-

burr, f. 168.

15. The racemus or cluster, consists of a common peduncle, having short lateral branches, all of equal lengths, proceeding from it; as in the vitis, ribes, f. 166.

16. The verticillus or whorl, where the flowers are produced in rings at each joint of the stem, with very short foot-stalks, as in mint, horehound, &c. See f. 169.

E.

The petiolus or foot-stalk of the leaf is a species of trunk which bears the leaf, but not the fructification. It happens sometimes, though very rarely, that the fructification and leaf are both produced on the same foot-stalk; as in turnera, Syrian mallow.

F.

The frons is a species of trunk consisting of a branch and leaf, and frequently the flower and fruit all blended together. It belongs properly to the ferns and palms, f. 108.

The flipes is the base or lower part of a frons and fungus, and is only proper to the palms, ferns, and fungi.

SECT.

### SECT. LXXXIII.

Leaves are either *simple*, compound, or determinate, which last term respects their disposition upon the plant.

A.

Simple leaves are those which have only a single leaf on a foot-stalk. Simple leaves differ in respect to circumference, angles, sinuses, extremity, margin, surface, and substance.

a. As to their circumference simple leaves

are either,

1. Round (orbiculatum), as in rumex digynus, fig. 1.

2. Roundish (subrotundum), see f. 2.

3. Egg-shaped (ovatum), as in vaccinium myrtyllus, f. 3.

4. Oval (ovale) as in the rose, f. 4.

5. Parabolic or half oval (parabolicum), f. 110.

6. Shaped like a spatula (spatulatum),

f. 109.

7. Wedge-shaped (cuneiforme), as in apium graveolens, f. 45.

8. Oblong (oblongum), as in forrel, &c.

f. 5.

b. In respect to their angles simple leaves are,

9. Lancet-shaped (lanceolatum), as in

plantago lanceolata, f. 6.

10. Linear or equally broad every where (lineare); as in rolemary, pine, graffes, f. 7.

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11. Chaffy and evergreen (acerosum), as in pinus, abies, juniperus, taxus, f. 102.

12. Awl-shaped, or tapering to a point (fubulatum), as in arenaria faxatilis fedum rupestre, &c. See f. 8.

13. Triangular (triangulare), f. 12.

14. Quadrangular, quincangular, i. e. with four, five angles, &c. f. 20.

15. Deltoid, shaped like a delta (del-

toides), as in populus nigra, f. 58.

16. Round (rotundum), which has no angles.

c. Sinuses are deep cuts or openings in

the disk of the leaf.

17. Kidney-shaped (reniforme), as in asarabacca, saxifraga granulata, f. 9.

18. Heart-shaped (cordatum), as in lime-

tree, f. 10.

19. Moon-shaped (lunulatum), f. 11, as in moonwort.

20. Arrow-shaped (fagittatum), f. 13, as in field-bindweed.

21. Spear-shaped (hastatum), f. 15, as in dulcamara, scutellaria hastisolia.

22. Fiddle-shaped (panduræforme), f. 15,

nearly resembles it.

23. Parted or cut half way down (fiffum), f. 16.

24. Lobed or divided almost to the midrib (lobatum). From the number of divifions in this and the foregoing, the leaves

are

are termed, bifida, trifida, quadrifida, quinquifida, multifida, or biloba, triloba, quadriloba, quinqueloba, i. e. divided into two, three, four, five, or many fegments or lobes.

25. Hand-shaped (palmatum), f. 22. as in

palma Christi, rheum palmatum.

26. Pinnatifid, cut like wings (pinnati-fidum), f. 23.

27. Shaped like a lyre (lyratum), f. 76.

28. Jagged (laciniatum), f. 24.

29. Sinuated, having finuses (sinuatum),

f. 25.

30. Divided to the base (partitum), s. 28. From the number of divisions they are termed bipartitum, tripartitum, quadripartitum, quinquepartitum, multipartitum, i. e. having two, three, four, five, or many divisions.

31. Entire (integrum), having no divi-

fion or finus.

d. The extremity or tip of simple leaves is either,

32. Stumped (truncatum), as in the tulip

tree.

33. Bitten (præmorfum), f. 18.

34. Blunted (retusum), f. 46.

35. Notched (emarginatum), at the tip, f. 45.

36. Obtuse or blunt (obtusum), f. 40.

37. Acute or sharp-pointed (acutum),

38. Tapering

38. Tapering to a point (acuminatum), f. 42.

Obtuse with a point (obtusum cum acu-

mine), f. 43.
39. Terminated with tendrils (cirrhofum); f. as in superb lily, &c.

e. The margin or brim of a simple leaf

is either,

40. Prickly (spinosum), as in holly. Unarmed (inerme), without prickles,

opposed to the former. 41. Toothed or indented (dentatum),

f. 30. as in dandelion.

42. Sawed or serrate (serratum), f. 31,

as in vaccinium myrtillus.

43. Notched (crenatum), f. 38, as in primula farinosa.

Notches blunt, f. 36. notches sharp,

f. 35, notches double, f. 33.

44. Serpentine edged, f. 29, repandum. 45. Griftly or cartilaginous (cartilagineum), f. 34.

46. Fringed or ciliate (ciliatum), f. 50,

as in erica ciliaris.

47. Torn or ragged (lacerum), the various fegments of the margin of different forms.

48. Gnawed (erosum), f. 21, is a finuated leaf, f. 25, with other very small obtuse sinuses on its margin.

49. Very entire (integerrimum), f. 42. f. The f. The furface, upper or under of a fimple leaf is either,

50. Clammy (viscidum), as in senecio

viscosus.

51. Cottony (tomentosum), as in cerastium tomentosum, f. 48. verbascum thapsus.

52. Wooly (lanatum), as in salvia, sideritis, ledum villosum, and some geraniums.

53. Hairy (pilosum), f. 47. as in cortusa, and juncus pilosus.

54. Briftly (hispidum), f. 49. as in tur-

ritis birfuta.

55. Rough with knots (scabrum), as in

fome of the fig marygolds.

56. Prickly (aculeatum), as in some of the thistles.

57. Streaked with parallel lines (firia-

58. Blistered (papillosum), see f. 54. as

in some of the fig marygolds.

points (punctatum), as in St. John's-wort.

60. Glittering or shining (nitidum), as in ferula Canadensis, angelica Canadensis.

61. Plaited (plicatum), as in ladies-

mantle, f. 37.

62. Waved (undulatum), as in rheum undulatum.

63. Curled (crifpum), f. 39. as in braffica crifpa; all curled leaves are monsters.

64. Wrinkled (rugofum), as in fage, f. 51.

65. Hollow or concave (concavum).

66. Veined (venosum), when the veins are branched, as in laurus nobilis, &c. f. 52.

67. Ribbed (nervosum), when the veffels are not branched, as in plantain, f. 53.

68. Beautifully coloured (coloratum), as

in amaranthus tricolor.

69. Smooth (glabrum).

g. Simple leaves with respect to their substance are either,

70. Cylindrical (teres), f. 62. as in al-

lium vineale, and allium oleraceum.

Semicylindrical (semicylindraceum), half a cylinder, as in chenopodium maritimum.

71. Tubular, or hollow like a pipe, (tu-

bulofum), as in the onion.

72. Fleshy (carnosum), as in all the succulent plants.

73. Compressed (compression), when the leaf is thicker than the breadth of the disk.

74. Plane, even or level (planum), of an

equal thickness throughout.

75. Humped or bunched (gibbum), con-

vex on both fides, f. 76.

76. Depressed (depressum), when the disk is lower than the sides.

77. Convex (convexum), when the disk

is higher than the fides.

78. Channelled (canaliculatum), f. 61, funk almost to a semicylinder.

79. Sword-shaped (ensiforme), as in iris, gladjolus.

80. Shaped

80. Shaped like a Persian scymitar (acinaciforme), f. 56, as in some of the signarygolds.

81. Tongue-shaped (linguiforme), f. 55,

as in some of the fig marygolds.

82. Hatchet-shaped (dolabriforme), f. 57,

as in some of the fig marygolds.

83. Two edged (anceps), as in the fify-rinchium.

84. Three cornered (triquetrum), f. 59, with three angles and three flat fides.

85. Furrowed (fulcatum), f. 60, with

longitudinal ridges and channels.

86. Keel-shaped (carinatum) on the under surface, as in crinum Afiaticum.

87. Membranaceous (membranaceum), thin like films.

### B

Leaves are called compound when there are two or more upon one foot-stalk. Such leaves are either once or twice, or more than twice compounded.

b. 88. A compound leaf, properly fo called, is, when a fingle foot-stalk supports

more than one leaf.

89. It is called jointed when one leaf grows out of the extremity of the other,

fee f. 107. as in the prickly pear.

90. Fingered, when a fingle foot-stalk has several small leaves connected to its extremity, f. 66. as in horse-chesnut, lupin, setterwort; and these singered leaves are said to be,

91. Binatum, compounded of two, fee f. 63. or

92. Ternatum, compounded of three,

fee f. 64, 65. or

93. Quinatum, compounded of five, or

94. Pinnatum, when a fingle foot-stalk has a great many small leaves attached along its sides; and these pinnated leaves either end with

An odd one, as in f. 68, or with

A tendril, as in f. 72, or with neither, and then they end

Abruptly, as in f. 69, or the pinnæ or

fmall leaves are

Opposite to one another on the mid-rib, or they are

Alternately placed, as in f. 70, or they

are

Interrupted, i. e. with every other leaf

Jointed, when the common foot-stalk

is fo, as in f. 75, or

Decurrent, when the lobes run down along the mid-rib, as in f. 74.

95. Conjugate is a pinnate leaf, consist-

ing only of two lobes, f. 73.

i. In a leaf twice compounded, the common foot-stalk bears other lesser or partial foot-stalks.

96. A decompounded leaf, when a footstalk once divided connects several lesser leaves.

97. Bigemi-

97. Bigeminate leaf, when a forked foot-stalk connects four small leaves on its extremities.

98. Double-three-leaved (biternatum or diplicato-ternatum), when each of the lateral foot-stalks supports three leaves, f. 77. as in barrenwort.

99. Bipinnate or doubly pinnate, f. 78.

a double winged leaf.

100. Foot-shaped (pedatum), when the foot-stalk divides at top into two parts, on the inside of which the lobes are supported, as in passion-slower, arum, &c. see f: 67.

k. More than twice compounded leaves.

101. A more than twice compounded leaf, when the lateral foot-stalks are subdivided into other partial foot-stalks, which last bear the lobes or lesser leaves.

102. Triple-three-leafed (triternatum or triplicato-ternatum), as in f. 79. where double-three-leafed are inferted into a com-

mon foot-stalk.

103. Triple-winged (tripinnatum or triplicate-pinatum) as in f. 80. where double-winged leaves are inferted into a common foot-stalk.

C

As to the determination or disposition of leaves, we are to consider their place, situation, insertion, and direction.

- l. Place.

104. A feed leaf (folium feminale) is a G production

production of the cotyledons or lobes of the feed, fee f. 91.

105. A radical or root leaf (folium radicale), or bottom leaf, comes immediately

from the root.

106. A ftem leaf (folium caulinum) proceeds from the stem or stalk of the plant, see f. 90.

107. A branch leaf (folium rameum) is

feated upon the branch, see f. 89.

108. An axillary leaf (folium axillare) proceeds from the bosom or armpit of a branch.

109. A flower leaf (folium florale) is placed at the coming out of the flower, fee f. 88.

m. Situation.

110. Leaves are called starry or whorled (fiellata or verticillata), when more than two leaves surround the stem in rings or

whorls, fee f. 106.

quina, fena, &c. i. e. three, four, five, fix, according to the number of leaves which compose the star or whorl; as in nerium, brabeium, bippuris, fedum verticillatum, gallium spurium.

112. Opposite leaves, i. e. facing one another, where each pair is crossed by that immediately above or below it; as in myrtle, jessamy, and rocket, &c. see f. 82-87.

113. Alternate,

113. Alternate, when they come out fingly, and are ranged gradually upon both fides of the stem; as in antirrhinum, cymbalaria, see f. 103.

plentifully round the stem without any regular order; as in several species of the

lily.

115. Crowded (conferta), when they come out in such quantities as to cover the branches, leaving scarcely any space between them; as in toadslax, antirrhinum, monspession, see f. 102.

fish-scales (imbricata), as in some species

of faxifrage, fee f. 101.

when many leaves proceed from the same point; as in the larch, and some pines, see f. 100.

118. Ranged along two sides of the branches only (distinct), as in the fir-tree.

n. Infertion.

119. A target-shaped leaf (peltatum) has the foot-stalk inserted into the center of the lower disk or surface; as in water-lily, palma Christi, Indian cress, and geranium peltatum, see f. 99.

120. A leaf furnished with a foot-stalk

is called folium petiolatum, see f. 98.

is called folium sessile, see f. 97.

122. A

runs downwards along the stem beyond its base; as in thistle, verbascum, and globe

flower, see f. 96.

123. A leaf is faid to embrace the stem (fol. amplexicaule), when by its base it entirely surrounds it transversely; as in moth mullein, and black henbane, see f. 95. When such a leaf half surrounds the stem, it is called (femiamplexicaule).

124. A perforated leaf (perfoliatum) is, when the stem penetrates the leaf above its base; as in the round-leafed bupleurum, see

f. 94.

125. Two opposite leaves grown together into one at their base are called folia connata, as in lonicera, eupatorium, see s. 93.

126. A glove-like leaf (fol. vaginans) has the base formed into a tube, which embraces the stalk like a sheath; as in corn, grass, and some of the lilies, see f. 92.

o. Direction.

127. Adversum, a leaf whose upper disk is turned to the meridian, and its margin or edge to the sky; as in amomum.

128. An oblique leaf (obliquum), when the base looks to the sky, and the tip to the horizon; as in ruscus, fritillaria, and protæa.

129. Bent inwards (inflexum), when they are turned upwards towards the plant, fee f. 87.

130. Laid

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130. Laid close to the stem (adpressum).

131. Upright (erectum), is nearly perpendicular, see f. 86.

132. Spreading (patens), when they re-

cede from the stem, see f. 85.
133. Horizontal (horizontale or patentisfimum), when they form right angles with the stem, see. f. 84.

134. Reclined (reclinatum or reflexum), when they are bent downwards, fo that the tip is lower than the base, see f. 83.

135. Rolled back (revolutum), when the

tip is rolled downwards, f. 82.

136. Hanging down (dependens), when

they point with the tips to the earth.

137. A rooting leaf (radicans) is one, which being planted strikes root, as in aloe.

138. A floating leaf (natans), lies on the furface of the water, as in water-lily and pondweed.

139. A funk leaf (demerfum) is one which lies below the furface of the water.

N. B. There are above forty more fpecies of leaves in Elmgren's Termini Botanici in the Amenitates Academia, Vol. VI.

#### SECT. LXXXIV.

Fulcra (fee N° 81.), the props or sup-ports of the plant, are the seven following, viz. stipula, bractea, spina, aculeus, cirrbus, glandula, pilus.

G 3 1. Stipula 1. Stipula is a scale or small leaf on each fide the base of the foot-stalks of the flowers and leaves, though in the Amen. Ac. it is confined to the foot-stalks of the leaves only. These stipula may be seen in the tamarind tree, cassia, rose, honey slower, tulip tree, apricot, peach, bird cherry, and the leguminous plants (see f. 178. b.)

2. Bractea is the floral leaf, or leaf next the flower, but differing both in shape and colour from the other leaves of the flower, Examples of this may be seen in the lime tree, bulbous fumitory, cow wheat, sage, lavender, monarda, hellebore, fennel flower, passion flower, bird's-foot, French honey-suckle, African broom, milkwort, rest-harrow, lady's-singer, kidney-bean, cytisus, lotus, indigo, and many others (see f. 120.).

3. Spina, a thorn, proceeds from the woody part of the plant, and is exemplified in prunus, rhamnus, hippophite, celastrus, lycium, &c. (see f. 121.). Spines often disappear by culture; as may be seen in pyrus

malus.

4. Aculeus, a prickle, proceeds only from the bark of the plant. Examples of this may be feen in the rose, bramble, currant,

barberry, &c. (see f. 122, 123.).

5. Cirrbus, a clasper or tendril, is a small spiral string, by which a plant fixes itself to any thing in its neighbourhood for support

fupport. Examples of this are the vine, the vetch, peafe, cucumbers, bignonia, &c.

(fee f. 118.)

6. Glandula, a gland, is a small prominent body, serving as an organ of secretion. They are chiefly to be found on the footstalks and other parts of the leaves, and on the tender sipulæ. Examples may be seen in palma Christi, cassava, passion slower, wild sena and acacia; in willow, in almond tree, gourd, gelder rose, bird cherry, tamarisk, butterwort, sun-dew, apricot tree, &c. (see f. 119.)

7. Pilus, hair, is defined by Linnæus to be a small excretory duct of some secretion

in the plant.

### SECT. LXXXV.

Hybernaculum (see N° 81.), the winter quarters, is that part which is destined by nature to inclose and defend the tender plant in its embryo state from external injuries, during the winter, is of two sorts, the bulbus and gemma.

1. The bulb is generally fituated on the root, or descending stock, and is either

Scaly, as in the lily, f. 125.
Solid, as in the tulip, f. 126.
Coated, as in the onion, f. 127, or
Jointed, as in lathræa, martynia, adoxa.
They are only large buds under ground.

G 4

Bulbs

Bulbs are fometimes placed on the stem, and other parts of herbaceous plants, as may be seen in some species of the lily and

garlick.

2. Gemma, the bud, is feated on the afcending flock or trunk, and confifts of fipulæ, scales, foot-stalks, and rudiments of the leaves, or scales of the bark. They are only small bulbs above ground.

Most part of the plants in cold countries have buds, but in warm countries tearce

any of the plants have them.

Many trees have no buds; as philadelphus, frangula, T. alaternus, T. paliurus, T. jatropha, hibiscus, bahobah, justicia, cassia, mimosa, gleditschia, erithryna, anagyris, medicago, nerium, viburnum, rhus, tamarix, hedera, erica, malpighia, luvatera, solanum, asclepias, ruta, geranium, petiveria, pereskia of Plumier, cupressus, thuia, sabina.

Buds and bulbs are of various forts, viz. Deciduous, as in dentaria, ornithogalum,

lilium, faxifraga.

Containing the leaves but not the flowers;

as in alnus.

Containing the leaves and flowers in diftinct buds; as in populus, falix, fraxinus.

Containing the leaves and female flowers

only; as in corylus, carpinus.

Containing the leaves and male flowers only; as in pinus, abies.

Containing

# Chap. IV. OF BOTANY.

Containing the leaves and hermaphrodite flowers; as in daphne, ulmus, cornus, amygdalus.

Containing both the leaves and flowers as in most trees. See Læfling's Diff. de Gemmis Arborum in the Amæn. Academ.

In this last the leaves come out upon a small branch, which afterwards produces slowers.

### CHAP. IV. Of the FRUCTIFICATION.

In the foregoing Chapter we have spoken of all the parts of plants except those of the fructification. In this fourth chapter we shall treat of the several parts of fructification; of the threefold structure of the fructification; of simple and aggregate flowers; and lastly, of luxuriant flowers.

#### SECT. LXXXVI.

Fructification is a temporary part of vegetables, appointed for the purpose of generation, terminating the old vegetable, and beginning the new. The parts of fructification are the seven following, viz.

1. The calyx, flower-cup or empalement.

2. The corolla, petals or painted leaves of the flower.

3. The flamina, threads or chives.

4. The pistillum, or pointal.

5. The

5. The pericarpium, or feed veffel.

6. The feeds.

7. The receptacle or base on which all the other parts of the fructification are connected.

I. The calyx (which is the termination of the outer bark of the plant, presenting itself in the fructification, in this form) comprehends the feven following species, viz. the perianthium, the involucrum, the amentum, the spadix, the gluma, the calyptra, and volva, of each of which in their order.

- 1. The perianthium, or flower-cup properly fo called, is the most common species of calyx, and fituated close to the fructification. If it incloses the stamina and germen, it is called the perianthium of the fructification. If it incloses the flamina and not the germen, it is the perianthium of the flower. If it includes the germen, and not the flamina, it is the perianthium of the fruit.
- 2. The involucrum or cover (f. 134.) is fituated at the bottom of an umbel at some distance from the flower. It is called universal involucrum or cover, if it is situated at the bottom of an universal umbel; and a partial involucrum or cover, if at the foot of a partial umbel.

3. The amentum or catkin (fig. 139) is that

that fort of calyx which confifts of a great number of chaffy scales proceeding from a common receptacle or slender thread, as in the willows and poplars, &c.

4. The *spatha* or sheath (fig. 132. 136.) is a fort of calyx which bursts lengthways, and puts forth a stalk supporting the flowers; as in narcissus, snow-drop, arum, and

the palms.

5. The gluma or chaffy husk (f. 133.) is that fort of calyx peculiar to graffes, composed of thin scales or valves, which are often terminated by an arista, a beard or awn.

6. The calyptra, a veil or hood, (f. 135.) is a fort of calyx peculiar to mosles, placed over their antheræ, and resembling a Monk's cowl, or rather an extinguisher.

7. The volva (see f. 141.) is a fort of calyx peculiar to the fungi or mushroom tribe, involving or inclosing their fructification. It is membranaceous and torn

quite round.

II. The corolla, literally a wreath or garland, ferving together with the calyx as covers to the parts they inclose, is the termination of the inner bark of the plant prefenting itself in this form, and consists of the petalum and nectarium.

8. The petalum is the corollaceous covering of the flower. If the flower is monopetalous,

monopetalous, i. e. confifts of one petal, the lower hollow part of fuch a corolla is called

The tube, see f. 142. letter a.

And the upper part which spreads wider is called

The limb, see f. 142. letter b.

Again, this upper part or limb in monopetalous flowers, from its different figure, has got different names, for it is either

Bell-shaped (campanulatus), without any

tube below; or

Tunnel-shaped or conical (infundibuliformis), with a tube; or

Saucer or falver-shaped (hypocraterifor-

mis), f. 142. with a tube.

Wheel-shaped (rotatus), without any tube below: or

Gaping (ringens), lipped or masked.

If the *corolla* be polypetalous, *i. e.* confifts of many petals, the lower part of each petal is called

The unguis, or claw, fee f. 144. letter a.
And the upper part which is wider, is called

The lamina, or thin plate, see f. 144. letter b.

Again, this upper part, or lamina, is either

Cross-shaped (cruciformis), of four equal spreading petals, f. 144.

Butterfly-

Butterfly-shaped (papilionaceus), irregular, of four petals; the under one keel-shaped, the upper one ascending, and the

two fide ones standing fingle.

9. The nectarium is that part of the corolla which contains the honey, having a wonderful variety both as to shape and situation, and is sometimes united with the petals, and sometimes separate from them, see f. 138. 145. 147. 148.

III. The *fiamina* are those parts of a flower appropriated to the preparation of the *pollen* or fecundating dust, and consist of the *filamentum*, the *anthera*, and the

pollen.

10. The filamentum, or thread, ferves to elevate the anthera, and connect it to the

flower, see f. 143.

men, is that part which contains the pollen or fecundating dust, and discharges it when ripe.

12. The pollen, or impregnating dust, is that fine powder contained within the antheræ, or tops of the stamina, and dispersed, when ripe, upon the semale organ, for im-

pregnating the same.

IV. The pistillum, or pointal, or female organ, adheres to the fruit, and is that part appropriated for the reception of the pollen, spoken of above It consists of the germen, the stylus, and the stigma.

13. The

13. The germen, or feed-bud, is the base or lower part of the pistillum, containing the rudiments of the unripe fruit, or feed, in the flowering state of the plant.

14. The flylus, or style, is that part of the pistillum which stands upon the germen,

and elevates the fligma or fummit.

15. The *fligma*, the fummit, or top of the flyle, is that part which receives the fertilizing dust of the *antheræ*, and transmits its *effluvia*, through the flyle, into the

middle of the germen or feed bud.

V. The pericarpium, or feed veffel, is that part which contains the feeds, and discharges them when ripe. It comprehends the eight following species, viz. the capsula, the siliqua, the legumen, the conceptaculum or folliculus, the drupa, the pomum, the bacca, and the strobilus; of each of which in their order.

16. The capfula, a capfule or little cafket, is a dry, hollow feed vessel, that splits or opens in some determinate manner, see f. 161, 162, 163.

Capfules, when opened or fplit, are divided outwardly into one or more pieces,

called

Valvulæ, or valves, see f. 162. letter a. The parts which divide the capsule internally into cells, are called

Dissepimenta, or partitions, see f. 162.

letter b.

And the substances which connect the partitions to the seeds, are called

Columellæ, or little pillars, see f. 162.

letter c.

And the empty spaces for containing the feeds, are called

Loculamenta, or cells, see f. 162. letter d.

17. The *filiqua*, or pod (f. 157.), is a feed veffel with two valves, having the feeds fixed along the joining or edge of both valves.

18. The legumen, or cod (f. 155.), is a feed vessel with two valves, having the feeds fixed along the edge of one of the

valves only.

19. The conceptaculum, a receiver, or folliculus, a little bag, is a feed vessel with one valve (f. 156.), splitting lengthways from top to bottom, and has no seam for fastening the seeds within it.

20. The drupa (f. 159.), or stone fruit, is a pulpy seed vessel, which has no valve or opening, and contains within it a stone

or nut.

21. The ponum, or apple (f. 158.), is a pulpy feed veffel, which has no valve or external opening, and contains within it a capfule.

22. The bacca, or berry, is a pulpy feed veffel (f. 160.), which has no valve, and contains feeds which are naked, or have no

other covering than the pulp.

23. The

23. The *ftrobilus*, or cone (f. 140.), is a feed veffel composed of woody scales, laid over one another like tiles; it opens only at top, the scales being fixed below to the center of the cone.

VI. Semen, the feed, is a deciduous part of the plant, containing the rudiments of a new vegetable, and fertilized by the fprinkling of the male dust. Under this head are comprehended the feed properly so

called, the nut and propago.

24. The feed properly fo called is made

up of the following parts, viz.

1. Corculum, the little heart, the point or

fpeck of life. It consists of the

Plumula, or fealy part of the corculum, which afcends and becomes the ftem, and the

Roftellum, that fimple part of the corculum, which ftrikes downwards and becomes the root.

- 2. Cotyledons, the porous and perishable fide lobes of the seed.
- 3. Hilum, an external mark or fcar in the feed, where it had been attached to the feed vessel.
- 4. Arillus, the proper exterior coat of the feed, which falls off spontaneously, see Pl. VIII. A.
- 5. Coronula, the crown of the feed, which is termed pappus or down, and is either feathered

feathered or hairy. The thread which supports the pappus is called *flipes*, see f. 164.

6. Ala, the wing of the seed, or the

6. Ala, the wing of the feed, or the thin membrane by which it is difperfed, f. 152.

25. The nut is a feed covered with a

hard bony skin.

26. Propago, the feed of the mosses,

which has no tunic or covering.

VII. The receptaculum, or receptacle, the feventh and last part of the fructification on which the other fix are connected, comprehends the receptaculum proprium, the receptaculum commune, the umbella, the cyma, and the spadix: and first of

27. The receptaculum proprium, or proper receptacle, which belongs to the parts of a fingle fructification only. It is called

the receptacle

Of the fructification, when it is common to both flower and fruit. It is called the

receptacle

Of the flower, when the parts of the flower only are fastened to it without the germen; and the receptacle

Of the fruit, when it is a base for the fruit, and at a distance from the receptacle of the flower; and the receptacle

Of the feeds, when it is a base to which the seeds are fixed within the pericarpium or seed vessel, f. 163.

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28. The

28. The receptaculum commune, or common receptacle, is that which connects feveral florets together; fo that if part of them were taken away, an irregularity would enfue, fee f. 137. That thin fubflance, which grows on the common receptacle, and feparates the florets, is called

palea or chaff, f. 146.

29. The umbella or umbel is a receptacle, where a number of small flower-stalks rise from the same center to an equal height, and form an even surface at top. It is called a simple umbel when it has no subdivisions; as in panax. It is called a compound umbel, and sometimes an universal umbel, when all the flower-stalks are subdivided into other smaller umbels, commonly called partial umbels, f. 134.

30. The cyma is a receptacle, where a

30. The cyma is a receptacle, where a number of flender flower-stalks rife from the same center to an equal height, as in the former; but the partial foot-stalks are irregularly dispersed, without order; as in

elder, gelder rose, &c. f. 172.

31. The *spadix* (f. 136.), is the receptacle of the palms, and is always branched. It is also used to signify the flower-stalk of every plant, which was originally contained within a *spatha* or sheath; but in this last case it is often simple.

## SECT. LXXXVII.

The parts of a flower are the calya, corolla, stamina, and pistillum.

The parts of the fruit are the pericar-

pium, the feed, and the receptacle.

The parts therefore of the fructification, which comprehends both, are the flower and fruit.

Obf. That the calyx is a part of the flower, though it is often present with the fruit, clearly appears from hence, that it never comes out after the flower is blown. It is true the calyx of the patagonula grows to a much larger fize in the fruit than it had been of when in the flower; and there are many plants furnished with deciduous flower cups, which fall off as foon as the flowers are opened; as in the barrenwort and poppies.

## SECT. LXXXVIII.

The effence of a flower confifts in the antheræ and stigma.

The effence of the fruit consists in the

feed.

The effence of fructification in the flower and fruit.

The effence of vegetables in the fructifi-

cation: for.

1. The pollen is that fine dust of vegetables, which, being discharged, emits a fubtle and elastic vapour imperceptible to the naked eye. 2. The

H 2

2. The feed is a deciduous part of a plant, containing the rudiments of a new plant, and quickened or enlivened by the pollen.

3. The anthera is the organ which pro-

duces and discharges the pollen.

4. The pericarpium is the organ which produces and discharges the seeds.

5. The filament supports the anthera,

and connects it to the plant.

6. The germen is the unripe rudiment of the pericarpium or feed vessel, existing for the most part at the same time that the antheræ discharge their dust.

7. The stigma is the moist summit or

top of the germen.

8. The ftyle supports the stigma, and con-

nects it to the germen.

- 9. The corolla and calyx ferve as covers to the ftamina and piftilla; the calyx being a prolongation of the outer, and the corolla of the inner bark.
  - 10. The receptacle is that which con-

nects all the foregoing parts.

From these definitions it plainly appears

- 11. That a flower is constituted of the antheræ and flygma, whether the covers (viz. the calyx and corolla) be wanting or not. And
- 12. That the fruit is conflituted of the feed, whether there be a feed vessel or not. And

13. That

13. That every fructification has the anthera, fligma, and feed. And lastly,

14. That every vegetable, without exception, is furnished with flower and fruit.

The effence of a feed confifts in the corculum, which is connected with and wrapped within the lobe or lobes, and is besides

closely covered with its proper coat.

The effence of the corculum confifts in the plumula, which is the vital speck of the plant under the smallest dimension, and like the gemma or bud increases infinitely. The base of the plumula is the rostellum, which descends and strikes root, being originally contiguous to the mother plant.

The propagines or feeds of mosses have neither coat nor lobes, but are naked plumulæ, where the rostellum is fixed into the

calyx of the plant.

## SECT. LXXXIX.

The perianthium or calyx may always, with certainty, be distinguished from the bractea or floral leaf; in that the former withers when the fruit is ripe, if not before; but the bracteæ continue longer.

Examples of the bractea or floral leaf may be seen in the cow-wheat, monarda, sage, lavender, bartsia, hebenstretia, mussen-

da, lime-tree, fumitory.

That

That the bractea is often taken for the perianthium or calyx, appears from the hellebore, nigella, passion-flower, hepatica and peganum, where the calyx is wanting.

## SECT. XC.

The corolla may be distinguished from the calyx by this rule; the former in point of situation is ranged alternately with the stamina, whereas the segments of the calyx

stand opposite to the stamina.

That the *flamina* are ranged alternately with the petals, as the petals are with the calyx, and confequently that the *flamina* are opposed to the fegments of the calyx, will plainly appear from the compleat flowers of the *tetrandria* and *pentandria*, I mean those which have both calyx and corolla.

Examples to prove the truth of this rule may be taken from the chenopodium, urtica, and parietaria, where it will appear that

the corolla is wanting.

Some would infer, when one of the two covers is present, that this must be the co-rolla, as being the more excellent of the two; but the contrary will appear from the ammania, isnarda, peplis, ruellia and campanula, which often want or exclude the co-rolla, but not the calyx.

That the calyx, as proceeding from the outer bark of the plant, is coarfer and

thicker

thicker than the corolla, is abundantly evident; but their limits are fcarce ever determinable, except from the colour, which is by no means fufficient; as appears from the bartfia, whose calyx is of a deep red.

Several flowers have coloured and naked petals, which, instead of falling off at the time of flowering, grow green, harden, and remain on the plants; as may be seen in

the bellebore and star of Bethlehem.

That nature has put no abfolute limits between the calyx and corolla, will appear from the daphne, where both are grown together, and quite united in the margin, like a leaf of box.

Some make the *euphorbia* to be monopetalous, but they have taken the *calyx* for the *corolla*; for that the *peltx* or fhields in this flower are the real petals, appears from fome annual Indian species of this plant, which have most distinct white petals.

## SECT. XCI.

The number of the petals in a flower is to be reckoned from the base of the *corolla*; and the number of the segments in a petal is to be reckoned from the middle of the limb or *lamina*.

If the petals are quite distinct at the bottom, then the flower is said to be polypetalous, or to consist of more petals than one;

H4 but

but if the petals are united at the bottom, though ever so slightly, then the slower is monopetalous, or consists of one petal only. Thus the cranberry is monopetalous, and not tetrapetalous, because, though the petals fall off in four distinct parts, they were originally united at the base into one.

## SECT. XCII.

We come now to the threefold structure of the fructification, viz. the most natural, the differing structure, and the singular structures, which are observable in all the parts of fructification, and ought to be described according to the number of these parts; and their figure, their proportion one to another; their situation, insertion, and connection: for other differences, such as magnitude or size, colour, smell, taste, are often fallacious, and not to be depended upon.

## SECT. XCIII.

The most natural structure of the fructification is that which most frequently and commonly occurs, and that in the greatest part of plants.

## SECT. XCIV.

The most natural number is where the calyx is divided into as many segments as the

the corolla; and the filaments also are of the same number, each filament being furnished with a single anthera: but the division of the pistillum usually agrees in number with the cells of the seed vessel, or the receptacles of the seeds.

The number five is most frequent in the parts of fructification, as appears from the plants of the pentandria, fyngenefia, and others. The calyx and corolla are cut into five fegments in a great many plants. The most natural number is exemplified in lysi-

machia and linum.

### SECT. XCV.

The most natural figure is where the calyx is less spreading than the corolla, which is gradually widened upwards, and furnished within with the filaments and pistilla standing upright and tapering: when all these parts (except the calyx) are fallen off, the pericarpium big with seeds swells and continues to grow in largeness.

## SECT. XCVI.

The most natural proportion is where the calyx is less than the corolla, and the stamina and pistilla of an equal length with the ealyx, if it is an erect flower. In a drooping flower the pistillum longer than the stamina. In a decumbent flower the stamina

and pistilla declining to the under side. In an ascending flower the stamina and pistilla placed close under the upper side. The drooping slower is exemplished in fritillaria, campanula, galanthus, and geranium; the decumbent slower in cassia, and all the leguminous plants; the ascending slower in betony, mint, horehound, &c. and all the plants of the didynamia gymnospermia. When the pistilla are shorter than the starmina, the anthera meet at top, as in saxifraga, parnassia.

## SECT. XCVII.

The most natural situation is where the perianthium or calyx surrounds the receptacle; the corolla is seated on the receptacle, and alternate with the calyx; the silaments are situated within the corolla, opposite to its segments; the antheræ are seated on the tops of the silaments; the germen occupies the center of the receptacle; the slyle standing on the top of the germen; and the sligma feated on the top of the slyle. When these are sallen off, the germen grows to a seed vessel, supported by the calyx, and including within itself the seeds sixed to the receptacle of the srunt. The receptacle of the slower mostly grows under, seldom round or over, the seed vessel.

### SECT. XCVIII.

The differing structure, or the structure differing from the most common, is taken from those parts of the fructification, which are often found to differ in different plants.

The differences or variations of structure are the foundation of the genera, and their characters. The more natural any class is, so much the less apparent is the differing structure. Every singular structure has differences or variations from the common, but every difference or variation is not singular.

## SECT. XCIX.

The calyx differs in respect to, 1. number, composition, parts, segments; 2. sigure, equality, margin, top or brim; 3. pro-

portion; 4. place, and duration.

1. In respect to number, the calyx is either single, as in primula, and most other plants; or double, as in malva, hibiscus, and bixa; or wanting, as in tulipa, fritillaria, and several of the lily tribe. In respect of composition, the calyx is either imbricated with various scales laid over each other like tiles, as in hieracium, sonchus, camellia; or squarrose; i. e. composed of scales spreading wide open all round, as in carduus, onopordum, conyza, or augmented; i. e. when a shorter and different row of leaves surrounds

the base of the calyx externally, as in coreopfis, bidens, crepis, dianthus; or multiflorous; i. e. common to many florets, as in scabiofa, and all the compound flowers of the syngenesia. In respect to parts, the calyx consists either of one leaf, as in datura, primula; or of two leaves, as in papaver, fumaria; or of three leaves, as in tradescantia; or of four leaves, as in sagina, epimedium, and the plants of the tetradynamia; or of five leaves, as in ciftus, adonis, cerbera; or of fix leaves, as in berberis; or of ten leaves, as in bibifcus. In respect of segments, a monophyllous calyx is either entire, as in genipa; or cut into two fegments; as in utricularia; or cut into three segments, as in alisma, cliffortia; or cut into four legments, as in rhinanthus; or cut into five fegments, as in nicotiana; or cut into fix fegments, as in pavia; or cut into eight fegments, as in tormentilla; or cut into ten segments, as in potentilla, fragaria; or cut into twelve fegments, as in lythrum.

2. In respect to figure, the calyx is either globular, as in cucubalus; or club shaped, as in filene; or restexed, as in asclepias; or erect, as in primula, nicotiana. In respect to equality, the calyx is either even, as in lychnis; or uneven, as in the helianthemum of Tournesort; or hath every other segment shorter, as in potentilla, tormentilla.

In respect to margin, the calyx is either quite entire, as in most plants; or serrated, as in some of the hypericums; or ciliated, as in some of the centaureas. In respect to the top or summit, the calyx is either acute, as in primula, androsace; or acuminated, sharppointed, as in hyoscyamus; or obtuse, as in nymphæa, garcinia; or with one segment stumped or lopped off, as in verbena.

3. In respect to proportion, the calyx is either longer than the corolla, as in agrofemma, sagina, and some species of antirrhinum; or of the same length with the corolla, as in some species of cerasium; or

shorter than the corolla, as in filene.

4. In respect to place, the calyx is either situated under the flower, as in linnæa, morina; or under the fruit, as in linnæa, morina; or under the fructification, as in pæonia. Obs. that linnæa and morina have each of them two calyces, the one of the flower, and the other of the fruit. In respect to duration, the calyx is either caducous, falling off, as soon as the flower is blown, as in papaver, epimedium; or deciduous, falling off with the corolla, as in berberis, and the plants of the tetradynamia class; or abiding till the fruit is ripe, as in plants of the didynamia.

The involucrum, another species of calyx, is either of one leaf, as in bupleurum; or of

two leaves, as in euphorbia; or of three leaves, as in butomus, alisma; or of four leaves, as in cornus; or of five leaves, as in daucus; or of fix leaves, as in hæmanthus.

The *spatha*, another species of calyx, is either of one leaf, as in narcissus; or of two leaves, as in *stratiotes*; or imbricate, as in

musa.

## SECT. C.

The differences or variations of the corolla are in respect to, 1. the petals, segments, nectaria; 2. sigure, equality, margin; 3. proportion; 4. place, and duration.

1. In respect to the petals, the corolla consists either of one petal, as in convolvulus, primula; or of two petals, as in circæa, commelina; or of three petals, as in alisma, fagittaria; or of four petals, as in plants of the tetradynamia; or of five petals, as in the umbelliferous plants; or of fix petals, as in tulipa, lilium, podophyllum; or of nine petals, as in thea, magnolia, liriodendrum; or of many petals, as in nymphæa. In respect to segments of polypetalous slowers, they are either two, as in alsine, circæa; or three, as in holosseum, hypecoum; or sour, as in lychnis; or sive, as in reseala. In monopetalous slowers the segments of the corolla are much more common than in the

polypetalous. Of the variations of the nectaria we shall treat below under Sect. HO.

2. In respect to figure, the petals are either waved, as in gloriofa; or plaited, as in convolvulus; or rolled back, as in afparagus, dodecatheon meadea; or twisted, as in nerium, asclepias, vinca, apocynum, cynanchum, stapelia. In respect to equality, the petals are either equal, as in primula; or unequal, as in butomus; or regular, as in aquilegia; or irregular, as in aconitum, lamium. In respect to margin, the petals are either crenated, as in linum; or ferrated, as in tilia, alisma; or ciliated, as in ruta, menyanthes, tropæolum; or denticulate, i. e. with little teeth between the divisions, as in famolus, fideroxylon, and the rough-leafed plants of Ray; or with a hairy furface, as in menyanthes.

3. In respect to proportion, the petals are either very long, as in catesbaa, siphonanthus, brunsfelsia, craniolaria; or very short, as in fagina, centunculus, ribes.

In respect to place, the base of the corolla is commonly close to the calyx, if there be one; or, as in very few instances, the corolla is separated from the calyx by the germen, viz. in adoxa, sanguisorba, mirabilis. In respect to duration, the corolla either continues till the fruit is ripe, as in the nymphæa;

phea; or falls off at the first opening of the flower, as in actea, thalietrum; or falls off with the flower, as in most plants; or does not fall, but withers, as in campanula, orchis, cucumis, cucurbita, bryonia, and feveral others.

## SECT. CI.

The filaments of the flamina vary in respect to, 1. number, segments; 2. figure; 3. proportion; 4. or fituation. The antheræ in respect to, 1. number, cells, desiciency; 2. figure, opening; 3. connection; 4. and fituation.

1. In respect to number, the filaments vary from one to ten, twelve, twenty, and upwards, as in the fexual fystem. The number of fegments are fometimes two, as in falvia; in some three, as in fumaria; and in others nine, as in most plants of the

diadelphia class.

2. In respect to figure, the filaments are either capillary, i. e. like hairs, as in plantago; or plane and flat, as in ornithogalum; or wedge-shaped, as in thalictrum; or spiral, as in hirtella; or tapering, as in tulipa; or notched, as in porrum; or reflexed, turned back, as in gloriofa; or rough and hairy, as in tradescantia, anthericum.

3. In respect to proportion, the filaments are either unequal, as in daphne, lychnis,

faxifraga;

faxifraga; or irregular, as in lonicera, and the plants of the class didynamia; or very long, as in trichostema, plantago, birtella; or

very short, as in triglochin.

4. In respect to situation, the silaments are either opposite to the leaves of the callyx, as in urtica; or alternate with them, as in eleagnus; or inserted into the corolla, as in the monopetalous flowers, but scarce ever in the polypetalous; or inserted into the calyx sometimes in flowers which have no petals, as in eleagnus, and always in plants of the icosandria class, and also in epilobium, Oenothera, jussiea, ludwigia, oldenlandia, isnarda, ammania, peplis, lythrium, glaux, rhexia: but the filaments are most commonly inserted into the receptacle, as are also the calyx and corolla.

1. In respect to number, the anthera is either one only on each filament, as in most flowers; or one common to three filaments, as in cucurbita; or one common to five filaments, as in plants of the fyngenesia; or two anthera on each filament, as in mercurialis; or three on each filament, as in fumaria; or five on three filaments, as in bryonia; or five to each filament, as in theobroma. In respect to cells, the anthera have either one cell, as in mercurialis; or two, as in helleborus; or three, as in orchis; or four, as in fritillaria. Desicient or

wanting, sometimes one anthera, as in chelone, martynia; or two, as in pinguicula, verbena; or three, as in gratiola, bignonia, some of the geraniums; or sour, as in curcuma; or sive, as in pentapetes, and some

of the geraniums.

z. The figure of the antheræ is either oblong, as in lilium; or globular, as in mercurialis; or arrow-shaped, as in crocus; or angular, as in tulipa; or horned, as in hamamelis, erica, vaccinium, pyrola. The antheræ burst either on the side, as in leucoium, and most plants; or at top, as in galanthus, kiggleria; or from the base to the top, the whole length, as in epimedium, leontice.

3. The antheræ are connected or fastened by their base, as in most flowers; or by their tops, as in galanthus, kiggleria; or on their sides, as in canna; or grow to the nectarium, as in costus.

4. The antheræ are fituated or placed on the tops of the filaments, as in most flowers; or on the sides of the filaments, as in paris, asarum; or on the pisillum, as in aristolochia;

or on the receptacle, as in arum.

The figure of the particles of the farina, or fecundating dust, viewed with a microfcope, is very different in different flowers; as for instance, it is quite round and prickly like a hedge-hog in belianthus, perforate in geranium,

geranium, double in fymphytum, wheelshaped and teethed in malva, angular in viola, kidney-shaped in narcissus, or, lastly, like a thin leaf rolled up, as in borrago.

## SECT. CII.

The pifilla varies in, 1. number, fegments; 2. figure; 3. length, thickness; and, 4. fituation of all its three component parts; to wit, the germen, flyle, and fligma.

Of the germen, which is only the rudi-

Of the germen, which is only the rudiment of the feed vessel, we shall treat in the next section, where the variations of the

pericarpium are enumerated.

The flyles, which are always distinct from the calyx and corolla, vary in number, as may be seen in the sexual system, where the number of pistilla is always taken from the flyles, if there are any, and if not, from the flymata. In respect to segments, the flyle is either bisid, i. e. cut into two segments, as in persicaria, cornutia; or into three segments, as in clethra, frankenia; or into sour segments, as in clethra, frankenia; or into sour segments, as in geranium; or forked, as in clutia.

2. The figure of the ftyle, is either cylindrical, as in monotropa; angular, as in canna; tapering, as in geranium; capillary, i.e. like a hair, as in ceratocarpus; or thicker above than below, as in leucoium.

I 2

3. In respect to length, the flyle is either very long, as in tamarindus, cassia, campanula, scorzonera, zea; or very short, as in papaver; or of an equal length with the stamina, as in nicotiana, and most other slowers. As to thickness, the slyles are either thicker than the stamina, as in leucoium; or smaller than the stamina, as in ceratocarpus; or of the same thickness, as in lamium.

4. In point of fituation, the flyle is placed either on the top of the germen, as in most flowers; above and below the germen, as in capparis, euphorbia; or on one side of the germen, as in plants of the icosandria polygynia; and others, as hirtella, furiana. In respect to duration, the flyle is sometimes permanent or abiding, as in plants of the te-

tradynamia.

1. The fligma is either one, as in the generality of flowers; or two, as in fyringa; or three, as in campanula; or four, as in epilobium, parnafia; or five, as in pyrola. The fegments of the fligma are either rolled together, as in crocus; or capillary, like hairs, as in rumex; or rolled back, as in dianthus, campanula, and the plants of the fyngenefia clais; or bent to the left, as in filene; or divided into fix parts, as in afarum; or divided into many parts, as in turners.

2. As to figure, the figma is either formed into a round head, as in tribulus, bugonia, vinca, ipomæa, clusia; or globular, as in primula, hottonia, linnaa, limofella; or egg-shaped, as in genipa; or obtuse, as in andromeda; or stumped, as in maranta; or depressed obliquely, as in actaa, daphne; or notched, as in melia; or orbicular, i. e. round and flat, as in lythrum; or targetshaped, as in farracena, nymphæa, clusia, papaver; or like a crown, as in pyrola; or cross-shaped, as in penæa; or hooked, as in viola, lantana; or channeled, as in colchicum; or concave, as in viola; or angular, as in muntingia; or streaked with parallel lines, as in papaver; or feathered, as in rheum, triglochin, tamarix, and the graffes; or hairy, as in cucubalus, lathyrus.

3. As to length, the fligma is either long and flender, as in zea; or of the fame length with the flyle, as in genipa. As to thickness, the fligma is fometimes like a

petal or flower-leaf, as in iris.

4. In point of duration, the *fligma* is fometimes abiding, as in *farracena*, *hydrangea*, *nymphæa*, *papaver*; but most commonly withers, as in the generality of flowers.

## SECT. CIII.

The pericarpium, or feed veffel, varies in, 1, number, cells, valves, partitions; 2. species,

cies, figure, bursting; 3. confinement of

the feeds; and, 4. fituation.

1. As to number, which respects only the external division, the pericarpium is either wholly wanting, as in thymus, and all the other plants of the didynamia gymnospermia; or the pericarpium consists of one capfule only, as in lychnis; or of two capfules, as in pæonia, asclepias; or of three capfules, as in veratrum, delphinium; or of four capfules, as in rhodiora; or of five capfules, as in aquilegia; or of many capfules, as in caltha, trollius, belleborus. As to cells, respecting only the internal division, the pricarpium confifts either of one cell only, as in primula, trientalis; or of two cells, as in byoscyamus. sinap's, nicotiana; or of three cells, as in lilium; or of four cells, as in euonymus; or of five cells, as in pyrola; or of fix cells, as in afarum, ariftolochia; or of eight cells, as in linum radiola; or of ten cells, as in linum; or of many cells, as in nymphaa As to valves, the feed veffel confifts either of two, as in chelidonium, braffica; or of three valves, as in viola, polemon um, bel anthemum; or of four valves, as in ludwigia, cenothera; or of five valves, as in bottonia. The internal partitions are either parallel, as in lunaria, draba; or run cross the seed vessel, as in biscutella, thlaspi.

2. As to the different species of feed veffels, they are enumerated in section 86. The figure of the feed vessel is either like a top, as in pyrus; or blown up like a bladder, as in staphylæa, cardispermum; or like thin membranes or films, as in ulmus; or having three, four, or five angles and fides, as in averrhoa, zygophyllum; or jointed, as in ornithopus, hedyfarum, raphanus. The bursting of the feed vessel, when the fruit is ripe, is either on the top in four fegments or parts, as in diantbus; or in five parts, as in alfine; or in ten parts, as in cerastium; or this burfting is on the lower part of the pericarpium, either into three parts, as in triglochin, campanula; or into five parts, as in ledum; or the opening is lengthways at the angles, as in oxalis, orchis; or by a little hole, as in campanula; or the opening is horizontally, as in anagallis, plantago, amaranthus, portulaca, hyoscyamus. All jointed fruit split at the joints, which contain each one feed; as in ornithopus, bedyfarum, hypecoum, scorpiurus, raphanus.

The confinement of the feeds is fometimes elastic, bursting like a spring, as in oxalis, elaterium, momordica, impatiens, cardamine, phyllanthus, euphorbia, justicia, ruellia, dictamnus, hura, ricinus, tragia, jatropha,

croton, clusia, acalypha.

4. The fituation of the pericarpium is at the receptacle of the flower, either below it, as in vaccinium, epilobium; or above

it; as in arbutus, tulipa; or both above and below it, as in faxifraga, lobelia.

## SECT. CIV.

The feeds are observed to differ or vary in, 1. number, cells; 2. figure, substance, coronula, or little crown of the feed, arillus, or exterior coat; 3. fize; 4. fituation; 5. corculum, or little heart of the feed; and, 6. receptacle.

.... 10' : 10' i. ..

1. The feeds are in number either one, as in polygonum, colinfonia; or two, as in the umbelliferous and flarry plants; or three, as in euphorbia; or four, as in the roughleafed and verticillated plants. In most plants each feed has one cell, but fometimes there are two, as in cornus, xanthium,

locusta, valeriana, cordia.

2. The figure of the feeds is either girt, as in arenaria, bryonia; or heart-shaped, as in medeola; or kidney-shaped, as in phaseolus, anacardium; or egg-shaped, as in polygala, ifatis; or prickly, as in myofotis, lappula. The substance of seeds is either bony, as in corylus, lithospermum, and the various kinds of nuts; or callous, as in ci-The little crown of tron, lêmen, orange. the feeds is either a finall calyx formed of the perianthium of the flower, as in scabiosa, knautia, ageratum, arctotis; or of a pappus, confifting of fingle thread-like hairs, as in hieracium,

bieracium, sonchus; or a feathered or compound woolly pappus, as in crepis, scorzonera, tragopogon; or a chaffy pappus, as in bidens, silphium, tagetes, coreopsis; or wholly wanting, as in tanacetum. The arillus, or exterior coat of the seed, is to be seen in coffea, jasminum, cynoglossum, cucumis, dictamnus, diosma, celastrus, euonymus.

3. The fize of feeds is fometimes very small, as in campanula, lobelia, trachelium, ammania; and sometimes very large, as in

coccus.

4. The fituation of the feeds is either neftling, i. e. dispersed in the pulp, without any order, as in nymphan; or connected to the future, or seam, as in the podded plants; or fixed to little pillars, which serve to connect the partitions to the seeds, as in malva; or placed on receptacles, as in nicotiana, datura.

5. The receptacle of the feeds is chiefly to be confidered in the compound flowers. Its figure is either plain, as in achillea; or convex, as in matricaria; or conical, as in anthemis, melampodium. Its furface is either naked, as in matricaria; or dotted, as in tragopogon; or woolly, as in andryala; or briftly, as in centaurea; or chaffy, as in hypochæris, anthemis.

The receptacles of the fruit of some simple flowers is very singular, viz. in the

magnolia, uvaria, michelia.

6. The

6. The bilum, or scar of the feed, is most evident in cardiospermum, staphylæa. The corculum is close to the bilum. The feat of the corculum (fays Cafalpinus) is either in the top or bottom of the feed.

## SECT. CV.

A fingular structure of the parts of fructification is fuch a one as occurs but in a very few genera, and is directly opposed to the natural structure mentioned in sect. 93. This structure is exemplified in the arum, whose stamina are within the pistilla; in the adoxa, where the germen is between the calyx and corolla; in the falvia, whose filaments are jointed; in the eriocaulum, whose stamina are placed upon the germen, and the corolla and calyx are below the germen; and in the magnolia, where the receptacle of the fruit is a large round head, and the feeds, which are like berries, hang by a flender thread out of the capfule.

## SECT. CVI.

The calyx is generally of a green colour, and feldom of those gay colours which the corolla, or painted leaves of the flower have; but in the bartsia Americana the calix is blood-red; in the cornus herbacea the involucrum is as white as fnow, and the petals black; in the cornus Americana the in-

valuerum

volucrum is red, and heart-shaped; in the astrantia the involucrum is coloured; in the palms the spatca are of a blood colour.

Where the corolla is wanting, the calyx is usually more coloured, especially at the time of flowering; as in ornithogalum, perficaria, polygonum.

When the calyx or corolla are less coloured, the leaves often take a colour; as in

amaranthus tricolor.

## SECT. CVII.

In plants of the *icofandria*, and fome others, the inner fide of the *perianthium* or calyx furrounds the receptacle of the flower; and in the gourd kind, and fome others, the inner fide of the calyx grows to the receptacle of the flower, quite round.

This aphorism is thus explained:

In most plants the flamina and petals are inserted into the receptacle, in the bottom of the flower; but plants of the icosandria class, and many others, have a monophyllous calyx, i. e. consisting of one piece, the inner side of which is gut round with a line, into which the flamina and petals are interted. The same fort of calyx supporting the flowers is observed in other plants; as in lythrum, epilobium, enthera, ammania, isnarda, priis, elæagnus. In the gourd kind, viz. cucumis, cucurbita, and others of the same

fame natural order, as passifica, fevillea, momordica, trichosanthus, bryonia, sicyòs, melothria, gronovia, the calyx, to which the corolla is, as it were, glued, lines the receptacle of the flower quite round, and the same thing holds in the caetus. There are some where the receptacle elevates the pericarpia, or seed vessels; as passifica, capparis, breynia, arum, calla, dracontium, pothos, zostera, nepenthes, clutia, helitteres, sisyrinchium.

## SECT. CVIII.

In a polypetalous flower the filaments of the flamina are distinct or separate from the petals, but in monopetalous flowers the filaments of the famina are inserted into the corolla most commonly. This rule holds in general: there are exceptions in both cases. For in flatice, which is pentapetalous, the filaments are inferted into the claws of the petals; and in melanthium, which has fix petals, the filaments are also inferted into the petals; and in lychnis, faponaria, cucubalus, filene, and agrostemma, which are pentapetalous, every other fla-men is fastened to the claws of the petals. These are exceptions to the first part of the rule. And in some monopetalous flowers the flamina are separate or distinct from the corolla, viz. in ledum, azalea, andromeda, clethra,

clethra, erica, myrsine, memecylum, santalum, vaccinium, arbutus, royena, diospyros, melostoma, and pyrola, which constitute the natural order called bicornes, i. e. plants with horned antheræ. This holds also in cissus and aloe.

## SECT. CIX.

The antheræ are commonly placed upon the tops or fummits of the filaments. But there are fome exceptions to this general rule; e.g. where the antheræ are fastened to the sides of the filaments, as in paris, asarum. And in aristolochia the antheræ adhere to the stigma without any filaments.

### SECT. CX.

When the nectarium is distinct from the petals, it is commonly very irregular, and

affords many fingular variations.

That the nectaria commonly make a part of the corolla, is undeniable; but that they also often grow distinct or separate from the corolla, will clearly appear from the following examples, viz. aconitum, aquilegia, helleborus, isopyrum, nigella, garidella, epimedium, parnassia, theobroma, cherleria, sauvagesia. The chief distinctions of the nectaria are, 1. spur-shaped nectaria, which are found both in monopetalous flowers, as antirrhinum, valeriana, pinguicula, and utricularia;

cularia; and also in polypetalous flowers, as in orchis, delphinium, viola, impatiens, fumaria. 2. Such as are on the inner fide of the petals, as in fritillaria, lilium, swertia, iris, hermannia, uvularia, hydrophyllum, myofurus, ranunculus, bromelia, erythronium, berberis, vallisneria. 3. Nectaria which crown the corolla, as in passificra, narcissus, pancratium, olax, lychnis, filene, coronaria, flapelia, asclepias, cynanchum, nepenthes, cherleria, clusia, hamamelis, diosma. 4. Nectaria of a fingular construction, as in reseda, cardiospermum, amomum, costus, curcuma, grevia, urtica, andrachne, epidendrum, helictores, falix. 5. Nectaria that are found on the calyx, as those in tropæolum, monotropa, biscutella, malpighia. 6. Such as are found on the antheræ, as in 'adenanthera; or on the filaments, as in laurus, dictamnus, zygophyllum, commelina, mirabilis, plumbago, campanula, roëlla. 7. Nectaria that are found on the germen, as those of hyacinthus, iris, butomus, cheiranthus, hesperis. 8. Nectaria that are found on the receptacle, as in lathræa, helxine, collinsonia, sedum, cotyledon, sempervivum, mercurialis, kiggleria, clutia, phyllanthus, melianthus, diosma.

## SECT. CXI.

The piftillum is commonly placed within the antheræ, but the arum is a fingular exception;

exception; for, in this, the receptacle is lengthened in the form of a club, on the lower part of which are fituated the piftilla, and the antheræ on the upper; fo that the piftilla stand on the outside and round the famina. The same thing holds in the calla Æthiopica; and in rumex there is a singularity in the insertion of the stamina.

#### SECT. CXII.

The style is commonly placed on the top of the germen, except in a few genera; as the rosa, rubus, fragaria, potentilla, tormentilla, dryas, geum, comarum, sibbaldia, agrimonia, alchemilla, aphanes, suriana, hirtella; to which we may also add, passerina, gnidia, struthea, stelleria. See sect. 102.

# SECT. CXIII.

The pericarpium, or feed veffel, is commonly shut, nor does it ever contain within it other lesser pericarpia, but often forms a berry when it is of a pulpy substance.

The feed vessel is exactly shut in most plants, but in reseda and datisca it always gapes. In parnassia it gapes at the time of flowering, and afterwards is shut. It does not appear that there is any feed vessel which naturally contains within itself other lesser seed vessels; for when several small feed

veffels

vessels seem as it were to be contained within one larger, this outer one is only a common receptacie, as appears in magnolia, uvaria, michelia. Berries are distinguished into proper and improper. That pulpy fruit which is formed of the pericarpium is a berry properly fo called, and that which is formed of any of the other parts is an improper berry. The end and defign of berries is, that being swallowed by divers animals, they may thereby be diffeminated by their dung, as in the miffeltoe, and many others. The following are improper berries, and confequently fo many examples of fingularity in this part of the fructification: 1. when they are formed of the calyx, as in blitum, morus, basella, ephedra, coix, rosa, coriaria; or 2. of the receptacle, as in taxus, rhizophora, anacardium, ochna, laurus, dorstenia, ficus, fragaria; or 3. of the feed, as in rubus, magnolia, uvaria, mi-chelia, prasium, uvularia, panax, adonis, crambe, ofteofpermum; or 4. of the arillus, as in euonymus, celastrus; or 5. of the nectarium, as in mirabilis; or 6. of the corolla, as in poterium, adoxa, coriaria; or 7. when the berry is a capfule, as in euonymus, androsæmum, cucubalus, epidendrum; or 8. when the berry is a dry fruit, as in linnaa, gallium, tetragonia, myrica, trientalis, tropæolum, xanthium, juglans, ptelea, ulmus, comarum,

comarum, amygdalus, mirabilis; or 9. when it is a capsule externally, as in dillenia, clufia, nymphæa, capparis, breynia, morisona, stratiotes; cyclamen, strychnus; or, 10. when it is hollow, as in staphylæa, cardiospermum, capsicum; or, 11. when it is a folliculus, or little bag, as in actæa; or, 12. when it is a cod, as in hymenæa, cassa, inga of Plumier, ceratonia; or, lastly, when it is a cone, as in annona, juniperus.

The berry naturally does not split or burst, because it is soft, and made to be

dispersed by the means of animals.

In the adon's capens the berries are evidently aggregate, i. e. several united into one.

### SECT. CXIV.

Compleat flowers are either fimple or

aggregate.

A compleat flower has both the calyx and corolla; and an incompleat flower wants either the calyx or corolla. An apetalous flower wants the corolla, but not the calyx. A naked flower wants the valyx, but not the corolla; though this last would more properly be called a naked flower, if both calyx and corolla were wanting, which is a thing that very rarely happens.

SECT. CXV.

A simple flower is that where no part of the fructification is common to more than one only. A compound fruit, or one with many capsules, does not constitute a compound flower; for a compound fruit may be, and often is, where the flower is fimple.

# SECT. CXVI.

An aggregate flower is one which has some part of the fructification common to feveral flowers or florets, and it is divided into the aggregate properly fo called, the compound, the umbelliferous, the cymose, &c. A flower is faid to be aggregate, when feveral florets are so joined by the mediation of some part of the fructification common to them all, that the taking away of one. floret would destroy the form of that whole, of which it made a part. The part which is common in aggregate flowers is either the receptacle or calyx, and each partial flower in them is called a floret. The primary modes of aggregate flowers (fee Pl. VIII. &X.) are the feven following, viz. 1. The umbellate or umbelliferous flower has a receptacle divided into feveral flower-stalks, all rising from the same center to an equal height. 2. The cymofe flower has a receptacle divided into feveral flower-stalks, rising from the same center

center to an equal height; but the partial foot-stalks are irregularly dispersed without any order, as in laurustinus. 3. A com-pound flower has a large and entire receptacle, with the florets fessile. 4. An aggregate flower, properly fo called, has a fo an enlarged receptacle, with the florets not fessile as in the former, but each furnished with a foot-stalk; as in scabioja, knautia, dipfacus, cephalanthus, globularia, leucadendron, protea, brunia, barreria, flatice T.
5. An ameutaceous aggregate flower has a flender thread-like receptacle, furnished with chaffy fcales; as in xanthium, ambrosia, parthenium, iva, alnus, betula, salix, populus, corylus, carpinus, juglans, fagus, quercus, liquidambar, cynomorium, ficus, dorilenia, parietaria, urtica, pinus, abies, cupressus, thuia, juniperus, taxus, ephedra. 6. A glumofe aggregate flower has also a sleneer thread-like receptacle, whose base is furnished with a common glume, or chaffy husk; as in bromus, festuca, avena, arundo, briza, poa, aira, unicla, cynosurus, mel ca, elymus, lolium, triticum, secale, bordeum, scirpus, cyperus, carex. 7. A spadiceous aggregate flower has a receptacle common to many florets, contained within a spatha. The receptacle in these is called a spadix, which in the palms is always divided; but simple, and covered all round with florets, K. 2

in the calla, dracontium, and pothos; on the lower fide of the receptacle only in arum; and upon one fide only in zostera.

### SECT. CXVII.

A compound flower is a species of aggregate that contains many fessile florets, on a common entire receptacle, and within one perianthium or calyx; each floret being furnished with anthera which grow together in form of a cylinder. The properties then of a compound flower are the five following, viz. 1. A common, enlarged, and undivided receptacle; 2. a common perianthium or calyx, furrounding all the florets; 3. five antheræ grown together in form of a cylinder; 4. monopetalous fessile florets; 5. a germen containing only one feed under each floret. It is effential to compound flowers to have the antheræ grown together in form of a cylinder, and a fingle feed under each floret; but we must observe, that there are compound flowers, whose calvx is furnished with only one floret, as echinops, stebe, corymbium; and one species of artemisia. There are commonly reckoned three kinds of compound flowers, viz. 1. The ligulate, or semissescular of Tournefort; i. e. half storets both in the disk and radius; 2: tubular, or flosculous of Tournesort; i. e. whole florets.

florets, and nearly equal throughout; 3. radiated, when the florets of the disk are tubular or whole, and those of the circumference of another form; for they may have in the circumference, 1. either half florets, which are properly the radiated flowers of Tournefort; or, 2. whole florets, but unlike to those of the disk, as in centaurea; or, 3. naked florets, as in gnaphalium and artemisia. A compound flower for the most part consists of many florets, but feldom of a determinate number, except in the following instances, ligulate, prenanthes of five florets, tubular, eupatorium scrophulariæ fol. of 20 florets, eupatorium perfoliatum of 15 florets, eupatorium digitatum, eupatorium zeylanicum, eupatorium secundum H. ups. eupatorium quartum H. ups. each of five florets, eupatorium volubile of four florets, radiated. Arctotis has in the radius or circumference 20 florets, rudbeckia 12, tetragonotheca and osteospermum each ten, coreopsis and othonna each eight, achillaa, eriocephalus, micropus, seriphium, sigesbeckia, acmella, melampodium, chrysogonum, tagetes, each five florets in the radius,; one species of the figesbeckia three florets in the radius; and the milleria one only in the radius, and three in the disk.

SECT. CXVIII.

An umbellate flower is another of the aggregate kind. It confifts of many florets on a common receptacle, which is divided into foot-stalks, rifing to the same height, and all fpringing from the same center. A cyma is also of the aggregate kind. It confifts of many florets placed on a common receptacle, which is divided into feveral foot-stalks, all rising to the same height, the primary foot-stalks springing from the tame center, but the fecondary or partial ones dispersed, without any order.

An umbel, then, is that mode of flowering, where all the foot-stalks spring from the fame center with an even circumference. A simple umbel, where the receptacle is thus divided only once. A compound umbel is where all the common foot-stalks are subdivided into little umbels, commonly called partial umbels. The properties of umbelliferous flowers, properly fo called, are the following; 1. a common receptacle, divided into feveral foot-stalks, which fpring from the same center, and are equal in their circumference, whether the umbel at top be plane, convex, or concave; 2. a germen under each floret; 3. five diftinct and deciduous flamina to each floret; 4. a bifid piflillum; 5. two feeds connected at their upper extremities. In umbellifer-

ous flowers the universal involucrum may vary, some confisting of four leaves, as in bydrocotyle, fison, cuminum; some of five leaves, as in bupleurum, scandix, bubon; some of seven leaves, as in ligusticum; some of ten leaves, as in artedia. The partial involucrum in some is halved, or goes half round only, as in ethusa, coriandrum, sanicula; in others it is caducous, as in ferula, beracleum. The disk or middle of the umbel also varies, being in some all male flowers, as in astrantia, caucalis, artedia, oenanthe, scandix: again, an umbell may be radiated, i.e. when the petals in the circumference or margin are larger than those of the disk, as in tordyllium, caucalis, coriandrum, ammi, and one species of beracleum.

The cyma, in the same manner as an umbel, has all the primary foot-stalks produced from the same center; but the partial ones scattered or dispersed irregularly, as in opulus, cornus sanguinea, and ophiorrhiza. That the receptacle is thus produced appears from the involucrum; and the cornus mas, or umbellata, clearly demonstrates the same; another species of which is the cornus sanguinea, whose slower-stalks are branched in the same manner as those in the laurussinus.

SECT. CXIX.

In a luxuriant flower the covers of the fructification, viz. the calyx and corolla, are fo multiplied, or increased in number, as to exclude or destroy the essential parts of the same. Luxuriant flowers are of three forts; 1. multiplied; 2. full; and, 3. proliferous: but the mutilate flower is that which excludes the corolla. A flower then is faid to be luxuriant, when some parts of the fructification are augmented in number, and others excluded. This is occafioned for the most part by the luxuriancy of nourishment. That flower which wants the corolla, though it ought naturally to have one, is called mutilate, and this defect is commonly owing to a want of fufficient heat. It often happens in ipomæa, campanula, ruellia, viola, tusfilago, cucubalus.

# SECT. CXX.

We commonly fay a flower is multiplied, when the corolla is so increased as to exclude only a part of the flamina; and such a flower is either duplicate or triplicate, &c. The perianthium and involucrum are very rarely increased, so as to constitute a multiplied flower, and the flamina scarce ever. The multiplied flower is distinguished from the full one, in that the corolla is so increased in the latter, that the flamina

stamina are totally excluded. But the multiplied flower has only a double, triple, or quadruple row of petals. Therefore a double flower is the first and lowest degree of plenitude or fullness. Instances of the triple corolla are campanula fol. urtica, flore duplici and triplici of Tournefort, framonium flore violaceo duplici triplicive of Tournefort, stramonium flore altero alteri innato of Vaillant. Monopetalous flowers are often multiplied, but feldom become full. The polypetalous flowers are also frequently multiplied, as in hepatica, anemone. The perianthium seldom constitutes a multiplied flower, though there are some instances of this; as in dianthus caryophyllus spicam frumenti referens, where the scales of the calyx are fo prodigiously multiplied, as to constitute an entire spike in a very singular manner. Some of the Alpine graffes become, as it were, full, the chaff growing into leaves; as in the festuca vivipara. In the falix rosea, where the stamina or pistilla are destroyed by infects, the scales of the catkin grow into leaves. In the plantago rosea the bracteæ of the spike grow into leaves. A coloured perianthium is not to be taken for a multiplied flower, though it be in fome degree unnatural; as in primula prolifera odorata of Tournefort, primula prolifera flore majore of Tournefort, primula prolifera flore purpureo of Tournefort.

SECT. CXXI.

A flower is faid to be full, when the corolla is so multiplied or increased, that all the flamina are excluded. This is brought about by the flamina growing into petals, which fill the flowers, and often fuffocate the pistillum after all the stamina are excluded. Polypetalous flowers are chiefly subject to plenitude or fullness, as in malus, pyrus, persica, cerasus, amygdalus, myrtus, rosa, fragaria, ranunculus, caltha, hepatica, anemone, aquilegia, nigella, papaver, pæonia, dianthus, silene, lychnis coronaria, lilium, fritillaria, tulipa, narcissus, colchicum, crocus, cheiranthus, hesperis, malva, alcea, hibiscus. Plenitude or fullness very rarely takes place in monopetalous flowers, though there are some instances of this; as in primula, byacinthus, datura, polyanthus, &c. It is evident that full flowers, having the parts of generation destroyed, must be barren. Nor ought we ever to constitute a genus from full flowers; because they are imperfect, or want those parts of fructification from which the generic characters are deduced. And here we must not omit to add, that full flowers are the greatest glory and delight of your professed florists and gardeners, &c.

# SECT. CXXII.

There are many of the natural orders of plants which never produce luxuriant flowers. Of this kind are the following, viz. 1. All the apetalous plants (ord. nat. 12. 15.), i.e. those which have no petals. 2. The verticillated plants (ord. nat. 42.), i. e. fuch as have their flowers growing in whorls; they are the labiata of Tournefort, or the didynamia gymnospermia of Linnæus. 3. All the personatæ of Tourn. (ord. nat. 40.), plants with masked flowers, except the antirrhinum. 4. All the asperifoliæ (ord. nat. 41.), or rough-leafed plants of Ray (didynamia angiospermia of Lin.). 5. All the stellatæ of Ray (ord. nat. 47.), i. e. starry plants, with two naked feeds, and leaves round the stem in form of a star, as the rubia, &c. 6. The umbellatæ of Ray (ord. nat. 45.), or umbelliferous plants, except some which produce proliferous umbels. 7. The papilionaceous (ord. nat. 32.), or leguminous plants are not subject to any luxuriancy, except a few, which produce full flowers, as ternatea flore pleno cœruleo, of Tourn., coronilla herbacea flore vario pleno of Tourn., anthyllis vulgaris flore pleno, spartium.

## SECT, CXXIII,

A flower becomes proliferous when one grows out of another, which happens for the most part in full flowers. A proliferous

flower is faid to be leafy, when its offspring produces leaves. Luxuriancy of nourishment, which is the cause of plenitude in flowers, being still more increased, occafions also their prolification. In all proliferous flowers (except the compound), the pistillum springs up into another flower, therefore the offspring always shoots from the center of a full flower. A leafy proliferous flower is very rare, but instances of this have been seen in rosa, anemone, and some others; but the other fort of prolification is frequently seen, as in ranunculus, anemone, &c.

## SECT. CXXIV.

Prolification of fimple flowers is always from the *piftillum*, but of aggregate flowers from the receptacle.

Prolification is brought about in two different ways; 1. from the center; 2. from

the fide.

1. Prolification from the center is, when the piftillum shoots up into another flower standing on a single foot-stalk, and this happens always in simple flowers, as, e. g. in dianthus caryophillus altilis major, flore pleno prolifero; ranunculus radice tuberosa flore pleno et prolifero of Tourn.; ranunculus tuberosus Anglicus polyanthos of Vaill.; anemone latifolia pavo dicta, prolifera of Tourn.; anemone pavota latifolia multiplex of Valent.; geum flore

flore uno alteri innato of Tourn.; geum flore triplici, secundo primi, tertio secundi calyce innato of Tourn.; rosa rubra prolifera.

2. Prolification from the side, which happens in the aggregate flowers properly so called; is, when several flowers, each supported on a single foot-stalk, spring out of one common calyx, as in bellis bortensis prolifera, C. B. calendula prolifera, C. B. bieracium falcatum, C. B. scabiosa foliis gingidii prolifera.

The prolification of umbelliferous flowers is, by increasing the umbel, so that from a simple one another springs up; as in cornus, periclymenum humile flore flori innato. In the same manner is a double compound umbel from a compound one; as in felinum, thysfelinum palustre lastescens, it often happens.

# SECT. CXXV.

The impletion or filling up of simple flowers is either by the petals or nectaria; for, the plenitude of simple flowers and that of compound ones is different. The impletion of aquilegia is in three different ways. 1. By the petals being multiplied, and all the nectaria excluded, which is the aquilegia flore roseo, C.B. 2. By the nectaria being multiplied, and all the petals excluded, which is the aquilegia flore multiplici, C.B. 3. By the nectaria being multiplied,

tiplied, and the five petals retained, the fpaces between the petals being each filled up with three nectaria one within another. The impletion of the nigella is by the nectaria only, for the five lower petals are, as in a natural state, egg-shaped and entire; but the other, which fill up the flower, are cut into many fegments, three-lobed and plain; therefore these last are the multiplied nectaria. The impletion of the narcissus is from the multiplication both of petals and nectaria, or from the multiplication of the nectaria alone. The impletion of the delphinium is generally with plain petals, and the nectarium totally excluded. The change which is brought about in the faponaria Anglica is very fingular, for this plant from a pentapetalous becomes a true monopetalous flower. And very remarkable also is the alteration in the peloria, a fingular variety of the common toadflax.

# SECT. CXXVI.

Polypetalous flowers are most subject to multiplication; but the monopetalous flowers seldom go beyond a double corolla, which species of luxuriancy is most frequently met with in them. Yet plenitude of monopetalous flowers is no contradiction, as it has been reckoned by some; for there are instances of it in colchicum, crocus, byacinthus.

cinthus, polyanthes. The impletion or filling of monopetalous flowers is by the fegments of the corolla; but that of the polypetalous by the multiplication of the petals. The epulus flore globoso of C. B. which is the gelder rose, is a most singular instance of plenitude; for the common opulus bears a cyma, which consists of a number of bell-shaped hermaphrodite flowers in the disk, and, in the radius or circumference, of barren flowers, i. e. wanting the pifiilla, with plain wheel-shaped corollæ; but in the opulus flore globoso all the flowers of the disk become like those of the radius. with large barren wheel-shaped corollæ, fo that, like the compound flowers, the impletion is here only by a number of large barren flowers filling the disk. Hence the nature of a cyma comes nearest to that of an umbel, which thing, the cornus mas, which has an umbelliferous flower, compared with the cornus femina, which bears a cyma, plainly fhews.

### SECT. CXXVII.

The impletion of compound flowers of the fyngenefia class is, either by tubular or

plain petals.

The compound flowers, as we observed before, are either, 1. tubular, i. e. flosculous of Tournefort, which have whole flo-

rets, and nearly equal both in the disk and in the radius; or, 2. ligulate, i. e. femifloscular of Tournefort, which have half florets only both in the disk and in the radius; or, 3. radiated, where the florets of the disk are tubular or whole, and those of the circumference ligulate or half florets. Now the impletion of compound flowers is in two different ways; 1. by the radius only in radiated flowers, where the radius is fo far multiplied as totally to fill the disk; as is the case in belianthus, calendula, chryfanthemum, anthemis, matricaria, ptarmica, tagetes, and the centaurea cyanus; 2. by the disk, in which case the radius is not multiplied, but the florets of the disk are lengthened, and become less divided at their brims; and in some the plain florets of the radius become tubular. Examples of this fort of impletion may be had in bellis, matricaria, and tagetes. In the carduus ferratula, or faw-wort, the florets are both larger and longer. The impletion of the xeranthemum, or everlasting flower, which is by the multiplication of the paleæ or chaff, is very fingular, and indeed proper only to itself.

## SECT. CXXVIII.

Simple flowers in a state of impletion differ from compound ones in their natural state.

ftate, because the simple luxuriant flowers have each but one common pistillum in the center of the flower, whereas in compound flowers each floret has its own pistillum and stamina.

#### SECT. CXXIX.

Compound flowers, filled with plain petals, may be eafily distinguished from those of the same fort in a natural state, by the former having their stigmata lengthened, and their germina enlarged and diverging. By this rule, we may distinguish the full semifloscular flowers from those in a natural state, as in scorzonera and the lapsana vulgaris; which last is frequently found with a full flower at Upsal; as was also the tragopogon vulgare, in the year 1733, at the same place.

# SECT. CXXX.

Compound flowers of the radiate kind, filled with plain petals, may be easily known from compound flowers with plain petals in a natural state, which are the semifloscular of Tournesort: by this rule, the full flowers have no antheræ, which the natural ones are surnished with.

This rule then serves to distinguish between the semifloscular flowers of Tournefort, and the radiate with a full flower;

L e.g. be-

e. g. between the hieracium and chryfan-themum.

The compound full flowers, with plain petals, are the radiate of Tournefort, with the whole disk filled with plain petals, or half florets, similar to those of the radius; as in chrysanthemum, belianthus, and calendula.

On the other hand, the compound natural flowers, with plain petals, are the femifloscular of Tournefort, as hieracium, leontodon, fonchus. Now in the femifloscular the florets are always hermaphrodite; but the full radiate flowers never are furnished with antheræ. Thus the full flowers of the tagetes have pistilla in each floret, without samina; but the leontodon has each floret furnished both with stamina and a pistillum.

# SECT. CXXXI.

In a compound natural flower, if the florets in the radius are furnished with pistilla, all the full flowers also of the same fort have each of the florets furnished with a pistillum; but if in the compound natural flower, the pistilla in the florets of the radius are wanting, the florets also of all the full flowers of the same fort want the pistilla.

In radiated flowers the florets of the radius are so multiplied (as has been observed

above, in fect. 127.), as wholly to fill the disk, in which case all the florets which fill the disk are entirely similar to those of the radius in a natural state, e.g. in matricaria, bellis, chrysanthemum, tagetes, with full flowers, each floret is furnished with its proper pistillum or style. But in belianthus, calendula, centaurea, with full flowers, we may observe, that each petal or floret wants the style, as the florets of the radius in a natural state also do.

Seeing, therefore, that in a radiated flower in its natural state, none of the florets of the radius are ever furnished with antheræ; this affords an easy and infallible distinguishing mark between the semiflocular flowers of Tournesort, and the radiated full flowers, as we observed in the

last section.

# CHAP. V.

Of the Sexes of PLANTS.

# SECT. CXXXII.

In the first place we shall shew, that there was only one pair of every living thing, whether animal or vegetable species, created at the beginning.

#### SECT. CXXXIII.

Though vegetables are destitute of senses, they are nevertheless endued with life, as well as animals. This will appear, if we consider the propulsion of their sap, their origin, nutrition, age, motion; their diseases, death, anatomy, and organization.

# SECT. CXXXIV.

Every living thing derives its origin from an egg; consequently vegetables also, whose feeds are eggs; as appears by the producing offspring similar to the parent plant.

# SECT. CXXXV.

That every vegetable is produced from an egg, reason and experience teach; and the cotyledons or seed lobes farther confirm it.

### SECT. CXXXVI.

The cotyledons of animals proceed from the yolk of the egg, on which is produced the speck of life; therefore the seminal leaves, in which is wrapped up the corculum, or essence of the seed, are also cotyledons.

#### SECT. CXXXVII.

That the offspring proceeds not from the egg alone, nor from the male sperm alone, undeniably appears from the consideration of mules, the reason of the thing, and the structure of the parts.

# SECT. CXXXVIII.

That the egg, not impregnated, should produce an animal, is contrary to all experience; the same holds true in vegetables.

### SECT. CXXXIX.

Every species of vegetable is furnished with slower and fruit, even when these are not discoverable to the naked eye.

### SECT. CXL.

Every fruit is preceded by a flower, as every birth by generation,

# SECT. CXLI.

Fructification confifts in the genitals of plants; so that their flowering is analogous

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to generation, and the ripe fruit to the compleat fætus.

# SECT. CXLII.

Every flower is furnished with anthera and stigmata.

# SECT. CXLIII.

That the antheræ are the male organs of plants, and their dust the true sperm, will appear, if we consider their essence, their preceding the fruit, their situation, time, cells, castration, and the structure of their dust.

#### SECT. CXLIV.

That the *fligmata*, which are always connected to the *germen*, are the female organs, will appear, if we confider their effence, their preceding the fruit, their fituation, time, their pulling off, and their being cut off.

#### SECT. CXLV.

That vegetable generation is performed by the falling of the dust of the antheræ upon the moist sigmata, where the particles burst and shed their seminal virtue, which is absorbed by the moisture of the sigmata, is confirmed by our sight, by their proportion, place, time, rains, culture of paim

trees,

trees, nodding, funk, and fyngenesious flowers; nay, by the genuine consideration of all forts of flowers.

# SECT. CXLVI.

The calyx then is the marriage bed, the corolla the curtains, the filaments the fpermatic veffels, the antheræ the testicles, the dust the male sperm, the stigma the extremity of the semale organ, the style the vagina, the germen the ovary, the pericarpium the ovary impregnated, the seeds the ovula or eggs.

# SECT. CXLVII.

The stomach of plants is the earth, the lacteal vessels the root, the bones the trunk, the lungs are the leaves, and the heart is heat; hence a plant was by the antients called an inverted animal.

### SECT. CXLVIII.

A flower which is furnished with antheræ only, is called a male flower; one which contains fligmata, a female flower; and that which has both these, an hermaphrodite flower.

### SECT. CXLIX.

A plant, which has only male flowers, is called a male plant; that which has only L 4 female

female flowers, a female plant; that which has only hermaphrodite flowers, an hermaphrodite plant; that which bears male and female flowers both together, is called an androgynous plant; and that which bears hermaphrodite and female or male flowers together, is called a polygamous plant; but these last mostly consist of male hermaphrodites or female hermaphrodites.

### SECT. CL.

No luxuriant flowers are natural, but all monsters; full flowers are eunuchs, and therefore always miscarry; multiplied flowers do not always; proliferous flowers increase the deformity.

The foregoing aphorisms are the contents in brief of the following Treatise, called The Nuptials of Plants; in which the Author has endeavoured fully to illustrate and prove the several doctrines contained in these propositions.

# Of the SEXES of PLANTS.

# SECT. CXXXII.

INNÆUS fets out on this subject, by endeavouring to shew, that there was only one pair of every living thing, whether animal or vegetable species, created at the beginning.

According

According to Mofes's account, fays he, we are fure that was the case in the human fpecies; and that this first pair was placed in Eden, and that Adam gave names to all the animals. Now, that he might be enabled to do this, it was necessary that all the species of animals should be in paradife, which could not be unless the species of vegetables had been there likewise. This appears from the nature of their food, particularly that of insects, most of which live upon one plant only. If the world had been formed in its present state, all the species of animals must have been dispersed over the globe as they are at this prefent time; in which case Adam could not have given names to them. But these difficulties will vanish, if we suppose, that at the beginning all the earth was covered with fea, except one island large enough to contain all animals and vegetables. This fupposition will appear highly reasonable, if we consider that the earth has been, and is still, gaining upon the sea; and that there are many fosfil shells and plants found every where, which cannot be accounted for by the deluge. Now all vegetables and animals might in this island have a foil and climate proper for each, only by supposing it placed under the Æquator, and crowned with a very high mountain. For it is well known.

known, that the same plants are found on the Swiss, the Pyrenean, the Scotch Alps, on Olympus, Lebanon, Ida, as on the Lapland and Greenland Alps. And Tournefort found at the bottom of Mount Ararat, the common plants of Armenia; a little higher up, those of Italy; higher, those which grow about Paris; afterwards, the Swedish plants; and, lastly, on the top, the Alpine plants of Lapland. Again, it will appear that, from one plant of each species, the immense number of individuals now existing might arise, if we consider the amazing fertility of certain plants, e. g. the elecampane, one plant of which produced in one feafon 3000 feeds, one of India wheat 2000, one of the funflower 4000, one of the poppy 3200, one of tobacco 40,320. But supposing any annual plant to produce yearly only 2 feeds, even of this plant after 20 years there would be 1,048,576 individuals; for they would increase yearly in a double proportion, viz. 2, 4, 8, 16, &c. Add to all this, that many plants propagate furprizingly by the roots; others, by being perennial, produce every feason, for many years successively, a vast number of seeds from one individual; and others, which bear buds, may be faid to produce so many individuals as there are buds, fo that one tree of a very moderate fize shall often produce 10,000. Lastly, the vast variety of ways which nature has provided for the diffemination of feeds is truly wonderful; for fome are blown by the winds to a great distance, especially by the stormy winds in spring and autumn. In most plants the fruit is raised above the ground by firm stalks or stems, and where these are weak, the plants often climb, that the fruit may be elevated above the ground, and by that means the plants may be more eafily shaken by the winds. For the same reason, all that species of seed-vessel called the capfule, open at the top, that the feeds may be more readily dispersed. Many feeds are winged, and by that means are spread far and near. These wings, for the conveyance of feeds to a great distance, confift either of a fine feathered or hairy down, beard, or tail, as in most of the compound flowering plants, and also valerian, icabious, thritt, pasque flower, poplar, cats-tail, reed-grass; or of a thin membrane or film, as in the fir, birch, meadow-rue, maple, ash, elm, hops, dock, &c. Some feeds, and feed veffels, are blown up, that their volume being increased they may become the lighter, as the winter cherry, campion, trefoil, bladder sena, fumitory, bladdernut, chiches. Many feed veffels are endued with a remarkable elasticity, by which means they throw their feeds at a great distance.

distance, as touch me not, wood-forrel, dittany, cucumber, lady's-fmock, oats, cranesbill, horse-tail, ferns, &c. Many seeds, and feed veffels, are armed with hooks, &c. by which they stick to animals, and so are dispersed, as burdock, agrimony, dock, nettle, pellitory, arrow head, martynia, liquorice, enchanter's nightshade, crosswort, goose-grass, hounds-tongue, mousear, vervain, wild carrot, fanicle, hemp, agrimony. Many feeds and fruits are fwallowed whole by animals, and thereby diffeminated or returned with interest, as mifletoe, oats, juniper, vanelloe. Berries and other fruits are allotted by nature for food to animals, that while they eat the pulp, they may fow their feeds, which always pass through them unhurt. Many feeds also are scattered and dispersed by mice, fquirrels, and other animals. The earthworms also, the hedge-hog, the mole, the fwine, prepare the ground for the reception of feeds. Not to mention feas, lakes, rivers, showers, tides, by the help of which feeds are often conveyed unhurt to diftant countries; a rare and wonderful instance of which we have in anastatica, or rose of Jericho. Some feeds retain their power of vegetation for many years, and others are preserved long by nature's wise contrivance, as mimofa, cassia, cucumber. The bottom

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of the fea does not destroy the vegetative quality of some feeds. The likeness of some feeds to fnails preferves them from becoming a prey to animals, as in falicornia, medicago. Some plants hide their feeds in the ground, as the ground nut (arrachis), trifolium subterraneum, some species of the lathyrus, valantia, or cross-wort. Many are defended from animals by proper armour, as spines, prickles, thorns, tall stems, &c. Fleshy plants are propagated by the leaves. Among trees, each individual is, as it were, a garden hedged round by nature's wonderful contrivance. The feed bud, and the corculum, or little heart of the feed itself, both proceed from the pith of the plant; hence it follows, that all generation, properly speaking, is no more than a continued multiplication.

# SECT. CXXXIII.

Though vegetables are destitute of senfes, they are nevertheless endued with life, as well as animals. This will appear if we consider, 1. the Propulsion of their sap; 2. their Origin; 3. Nutrition; 4. Age; 5. Motion; 6. their Diseases; 7. Death; 8. Anatomy; and, 9. Organization.

Though it may feem at first like a paradox, that plants as well as animals are endued with life, yet, I believe, no one will

readily

readily deny it, who attentively confiders this truth, and duly weighs the arguments that are brought to confirm it. Though every one feems to know what life in an animal body is, yet the true definition thereof we owe to the great Dr. Harvey. He first discovered the circulation of the blood, and rightly maintained that life confifted in the circulation. Agreeable to his opinion, we may define life to be the spontaneous propulfion of the fluids or juices through their proper vessels. 1. Propulsion of the Sap .-If any limb of an animal be tied fo tight with a ligature that the fluids cannot pass, a gangrene or compleat mortification is thereby produced. This is a common experiment in physiology, to demonstrate the propulsion of the fluids in the animal body. And likewise, if a branch or twig of any tree or plant be tied fo tight that the fluids cannot be propelled beyond the ligature, then that part beyond the ligature withers and dies, in the fame manner as in animals. The antients were perfuaded that the fluids of plants passing from the root into the ascending trunk, descended again to the roots; but the most famous naturalist of this age, Dr. Hales, has refuted this opinion; for he has demonstrated that the fluids which are carried from the root through the trunk to the branches do not descend descend again, but are carried off by the transpiration of the leaves. Wheresoever then there is a spontaneous propulsion of the fluids, there is life. In vegetables of every kind there is a propulsion of fluids; therefore every one must allow that they are endued with life. It appears also, that fome of the antients were of the fame opinion, but they carried things too far, by ascribing souls also to plants; and thus, while they would be thought to be very quick-fighted, they were blind with their eyes open. For they taught that there were three forts of fouls; the rational, which they ascribed to man; the sensitive, to brutes; and the vegetative, to plants. But barely to enumerate fuch notions is a fufficient confutation of them; yet we must allow, that the difference betwixt animal and vegetable life confifts in the former having fensation, and the latter none. Though what has been faid may be fufficient to shew, that plants as well as animals are endued with life, yet it will not be foreign to the purpose to confirm the same truth by other arguments.

2. Origin.—Of the origin of plants we

shall speak in the following section.

3. Nutrition.—The next argument we shall draw from nutrition. Wherever there is nutrition, it is manifest there is a propulsion

pulsion of fluids, and confequently life; this being implied in the very fense and meaning of the word nutrition or nourishment. Now all herbs and plants receive their nourishment from the earth, and therefore are endued with life. That the food or nourishment of plants is derived from the finest and most subtle part of the earth, which by the means of water enters the pores of the roots, has been clearly shewn, by various arguments, in Kylbel's Differtation on this subject. Hence it is, as daily experience in all fort of foils evinces, that plants which are not supplied with a fufficient quantity of fluid impregnated with this very fine and fubtle earth, decline, wither, and at last die, being starved for want of proper nourishment. For this reason plants growing in a dry and parched foil become poor and flender, and shew evident figns of a want of nourishment. But it is quite otherwise with plants that grow in a foil of copious nourishment, which are not only green, strong, and thriving, but also seem to rejoice and grow luxuriant in their happy state, in the same manner as the lacteal veffels of the human body absorb much nourishment from a plentiful fupply of food, and render the body fat and well-favoured; and the contrary, from a defect of food.

three

4. Age. - No one can doubt but that every living thing has its beginning and ending, and undergoes innumerable changes. Thus we see, that infancy is weak, feeble, barren; but youth is comely, flourishing, and luxuriant; manhood is fertile, plump, strong, and of full stature; and lastly, old age flags, droops, becomes dry, hoary, languid, the fad prefages of its approaching diffolution. And are not plants subject to the same vicissitudes, and go through the fame stages? In their infant or very young state they are small and weak, destitute of flowers and fruit; when more advanced, they wanton in beautiful and shining flowers, being then most agreeable, and, as it were, in the joyous spring of life; in summer, being then more plump, firm, and strong, but less splendid, they bear fruit; in autumn, or old age, they droop, grow dry, and wither, returning to dust from whence they sprang. The ivy in its first or tender state has spear-shaped leaves, and bears neither flower nor fruit. This is that variety which Bauhine calls bedera bumi repens, ivy when more advanced, bears five lobed leaves, climbs on trees and walls, and is barren. This variety Bauhine calls bedera major sterilis, the greater barren ivy. In its next or more mature state it sends forth three lobed leaves, and, leaving its props and supporters, it rifes by its own strength, and puts on the appearance of a pretty tall tree, being loaded with flowers and fruit. This is the *bedera arborea* of C. B. tree ivy. But when old, it puts forth egg-shaped leaves without lobes. This is the *bedera* poetica of C. B. poets ivy. Daily experience abundantly shews, that all plants, as well as the ivy, undergo the same fate. From the feed spring up tender shoots, which at first are not larger than small shrubs; then, by degrees, they acquire a firm trunk, and also bear flowers and fruit; lastly, the branches flag, and are covered, as well as the trunk, with moss, first one branch decaying, and then another, till the whole tree is decayed; and, having run through its several stages of existence, at last dies.

5. Motion.—It is evident that a dead body has no motion of its own; if therefore any body has spontaneous motion, it must also have life. For proper and internal motion in every body depends on the spontaneous propulsion of fluids, and where such a propulsion of fluids is, there is life. That there is motion in plants is apparent to every one; e. g. herbs in green-houses or stoves incline or turn towards the light, and if they find a hole in the walls, shutters, or frames, there they endeavour to

penetrate. Several plants, especially those with compound yellow flowers, nod, and during the whole day turn their flowers towards the fun; to wit, to the East in the morning, to the South at noon, and to the West toward evening; as the same is observable in the fonchus arvensis, tree fow-thistle. And I believe every body knows, that a great part of plants in a ferene thy expand their flowers, and, as it were, with chearful looks behold the light of the fun; but before rain they shut them up; e. g. the tulip (See sect. 145.). The flowers of the draba Alpina, Alpine whitlow grass, the parthenium foliis ovatis crenatis, bastard feverfew with egg-shaped crenated leaves, and the trientalis, or winter-green, hang down in the night, as if the plants were afleep, lest rain or the moist air should injure the fertilizing dust. The trefoils, and one species of wood-sorrel, shut up or double their leaves before storms and tempests, but in a ferene sky expand or unfold them, fo that the hufbandman can pretty clearly foretell tempests from them. And it is well known that the bauhinia, or mountain ebony, fensitive plants, and cassia, ob-ferve the same rule. The flowers or goatsbeard open in the morning at the approach of the fun, and shut about noon; hence it is called by the English John-go-to-bed-M 2 atat-noon. Parkinsonia, tamarind tree, aschynomene, or bastard sensitive plant, and feveral others of the diadelphia class, in serene weather, expand their leaves in the daytime, and contract them in the night. The tamarind tree is faid by Alpinus and Acosta to enfold within its leaves the flowers or fruit every night, to guard them from cold or rain. This feemed like a paradox to Syenus and Ray: but the flower-stalk with the flower or fruit lies upon the winged leaves, from the bosom of which it springs; hence it is, that while the leaves fold themfelves up every night, they shut up or enclose the fructification within them. Some of the mimofæ, or fenfitive plants, and the oxalis, or wood-forrel with pinnated leaves, upon being touched roll up their leaves, and turn downwards or shrink, and after a little space extend them again, as if they had both life and fensation. (See fect. 145.). As it cannot be denied, but that man, or any other animal, destitute of motion, grows pale and weak; fo, on the other hand, it is a certain truth, that motion or exercise renders them florid, stout, fat, and healthy; fince exercise enlarges the limbs, as Avicenna rightly observes. Hence the rustic excels the courtier in strength of body and larger limbs, being used to much walking, and other exercise; and it is well known

known that the right hand of mechanics, and other people inured to labour, is for the most part bigger than the left. These obvious truths need no laboured demonstration. Plants in stoves and green-houses, though they have fufficient heat and nourishment, are slender, weak, and lose the colour of their leaves, and feem to languish for want of motion: and trees, furrounded with high walls or buildings, and confined within narrow bounds, are flender, and grow tall, but not strong. Pines in very thick woods, where the high winds have not free access to shake them, grow tall and flender, and chiefly fit only for hop poles; while others planted in open fields, and frequently shaken by stormy winds, have not only thick and strong stems, but also strike deep root, and raise beautiful and spreading branches.

6. Difeases.— When life, in any manner of way, is hurt or injured, that state we call disease; to which vegetables as well as animals are subject. By too great heat they are parched, languish and droop; by too much cold they are often killed, or at least are subject to cold tumours, analogous to kibes and chilblains in the human body. Sometimes they are liable to canker, sometimes to vermin, from whence they are said

to be loufy.

7. Death. — Death is the privation of life. Every living thing is subject to death, as constant experience teaches. Since then we know that vegetables as well as animals die by diseases and external injuries, we may ask how can vegetables exchange life for death, if they were not previously endued with life. For if we break a stone, which has no life, into a thousand parts, it by no means undergoes such a change as we observe in vegetables.

8. Anatomy.--Whoso is desirous of knowing the internal fabrick of plants, let him consult Malpighi and Grew's Anatomy of Plants, who have in a wonderful manner laid down the composition, and enumerated and delineated the fibres, membranes, tubes, cells, tracheæ or air vessels, and other parts of those organical bodies; though I make no doubt, but posterity will explain these

parts in a quite different manner.

9. Organization. — We have already shewn that the fluids or sap of vegetables is propelled through the vessels, and transpires by the leaves. The structure of their parts informs us, that those sluids are separated through glands, in which other sluids also are prepared for the fruit, the sertilizing dust, the nectar or honey juice. Almost all the hairs we see on plants are nothing but excretory ducts; and almost all the indentures

indentures of the leaves have their glands, which separate a peculiar sluid or juice. To suppose, with the vulgar, that the moisture we see in a summer's morning on the leaves of plants is always a dew, is a great mistake; for it is generally a sluid separated from them by their own peculiar glands. All which arguments here adduced, abundantly prove, that plants as well as animals are endued with life.

#### SECT. CXXXIV-CXXXVII.

It is well known that the antients supposed two forts of generation, to wit, equivocal and univocal. This latter, they faid, took place, when any thing was produced from its proper egg or matrix; the æquivocal, when any living thing was generated fortuitously or by chance, and the confufed mixture of particles. Thus, e.g. fleas were generated from urine and faw-dust; that myriads of little infects like atoms came up out of flimy water; and maggots out of cheese in the summer; that several forts of herbs quickly sprang up out of mould taken from a confiderable depth below ground; and laftly, they believed that worms were produced from putrid carcafes, having, they faid, had ocular demonstration of the same. Others thought that the Creator, at the beginning, mixed feeds and MA eggs

eggs with the earth every where; fo that when fuch earth was dug up, and the fun by his heat had hatched the feeds, from thence, I say, they imagined that herbs, plants, and animals fprung up, which were concealed therein from the creation. all the ingenious men of this age, who have imbibed the found principles of natural philosophy and natural history, have long ago rejected this opinion, which abounds with ridiculous chimæras. For God at the first gave to every living thing its own proper feed; and to each a tendency or propenfity to propagate its species; and established this first and great law to remain unalterable, " Increase and multiply." If from putrefaction, and the heat of the fun, living creatures and plants could be produced, it would be needless, and confequently highly unworthy of the Supreme Being, to have created fo many and fo amazingly curious veffels for the preparation of the feed, for in that case putrefaction would be equivalent to creation. And if very minute infects and other animals could be produced from putrefaction, and hatched by the heat of the fun, why might not horses, elephants, and other large animals, be produced in the fame way? For in large bodies the mechanism is easier, as the matter is more manageable; but in fuch minute

minute infects, and, as we may fay, fuch nothings, what wisdom, what power, what inexplicable perfection is displayed, fince nature is never more compleat than in her most minute works? Plin. N. H. must be void of understanding who does not perceive the abfurdity of equivocal generation, when he fees a body made with fuch wonderful art, and adorned with fo many thousand pipes and canals, that no mechanic, even the most perfect of mortals, can find out all the contrivance, much less imitate this wonderful fabric; yet can, as it were by a wilful mistake, say, that he believes all those things were made by a fortuitous and confused concourse of atoms. For it would follow from hence, that new fpecies both of animals and plants would always occur, neither of which we obferve, or have any account of. In this case too, there could be no arguing from the genera to the species. In a word, there would be no fuch thing as certainty, but all confusion. Redi, having a mind to examine equivocal generation, put recent flesh into a glass vessel, covered with a very thin linen cloth, and exposed it to the sun; after a little time, he found that flies laid their eggs upon the linen cloth; but no maggots were produced in the flesh. We cannot conclude that infects are produced

by equivocal generation, because we see many thousands of them about pools and ditches, where the putrifying filth of those places furnishes plentiful nourishment for them, which is the reason that their eggs are rather deposited there, and are more eafily hatched, and thrive better, even as lice on the scald heads of children abound more, because of their plentiful nourishment. The stapelia birtusa produces a flower that stinks like carrion, for which reason the sless, deceived by the smell, fill the whole flower full of their eggs, taking it for putrid flesh. We have no reason to believe, what some have afferted, that wheat degenerates into barley, and barley into oats, and oats into brome-grass; for every species produceth its own like; nor was it ever known that the fierce eagle produced the timorous dove. Having confuted equivocal generation, it will follow that every living thing is produced by univocal generation, or from an egg. Now vegetables we have proved before are endued with life, therefore they also proceed from eggs. And indeed the great Harvey long ago maintained this doctrine, that every living thing derives its origin from an egg. But some of the moderns have strenuously endeavoured to overthrow this opinion; their cause being chiefly supported

ported by fuch arguments as the following: If, fay they, we take a part from the root, and fet it in the ground, it strikes root, and a new plant springs up; again, if a polypus is cut into several parts, from each of these parts an entire and compleat polypus is formed, according to the late discoveries of Trumbull and others. But do we not as frequently fee that a plant produces from the same root several shoots or stems? for a stern is nothing but a root above ground; for which reason, if we turn a tree, e.g. the lime tree upfide down, the stem will become the root, and the root be changed into branches, which we may reckon among the late discoveries in gardening. Besides, what we have said is farther confirmed by the branches, all of which fpring from the stem or root; but the stem or root from whence this branch or shoot was taken, role from a feed or egg. The fame thing may be faid of the polypus among animals, and therefore a polypus lives a vegetable life, or a vegetable lives the life of a polypus; and this manner of propagation, though very rare in the animal kingdom, is most common in the vegetable kingdom. No one ought to wonder that new leaves are produced every year from the root or branches, for in the fame manner do we daily see the feathers of birds produced.

A feather, which is a most curious piece of workmanship, consists of a concave base, filled with a veffel like a lymphatic, fo that the aliment can pass upward but not downward; next there is the mid-rib, and the lateral branches both partial and proper, fo that a feather may be compared to a fern twice compounded. Now daily experience informs us that feathers, though adorned with fuch curious mechanism, fall off every year, and that others, springing from the body of the bird, succeed in their room. Moreover, it is evident that feathers grow only out of the body of the bird, that this body is their root, and that this root owes its origin at first to a feed or egg. fame also holds in plants: therefore polypi, and plants of every kind, have undoubtedly feeds or eggs, by which they are multiplied, without being cut or propagated by shoots, layers, branches, or fuckers. Add to this, that the famous Bern. Justieu discovered eggs or feeds in the polypi; as may be feen in the Transactions of the Stockholm Society for the Year 1746.

Here we are to observe, that all viviparous animals have their eggs, out of which comes their offspring, though these eggs are contained in their proper matrix, and excluded in due time, in the same manner as an egg in the nest, cherished by the

incubation

cubation of the bird, whose uterus is the nest. Nor can we deny, but the smallest vegetables have feeds, although often not discoverable by the naked eye. In ducksmeat, Valisherius has discovered the seeds; and Michelius in the mucor and by flus; Bobart in the ferns; Linnæus in the mosses; and Reaumur in the fungi. The antients thought that misseltoe was produced without feed, having feen it often grow from the underfide of branches; but how the feeds of the misseltoe could be conveyed from one tree to another, and there adhere to the underside of the branches, was very difficult for them to conceive. But time has discovered, that the thrush, swallowing the berries on account of the pulp, afterwards voids the feeds entire, which flick with the excrements to the branches. These vifcous feeds are washed by the rains, so that fome of them are often protruded to the lower fide of the branches, where they grow; and thus,

The thrush, when he befouls the bough,

Sows for himself the seeds of woe.

Some people are persuaded, that the sessible and flat funguses on trees are morbid excrescences, but it is plain they are true species of those agaries which are furnished with caps and stems, and grow on the ground, whose seeds falling on a most tree produce,

as it were, half caps without stems. That feeds are the eggs of plants appears from hence, that as every egg produces an offspring similar to the parent, so also do the feeds of vegetables, and confequently they also are eggs. The containing parts of a hen's egg are the shell, the external film or membrane, the internal membrane lying immediately under the former, the chalaza or membrane inclosing the yolk, twifted at the extremities. The parts contained are, the air within the external membrane at the obtuse end of the egg, the thinner and exterior part of the white, the interior and thicker part of the white, the yolk, the bilum, fear or cicatrice, in the center of which is the speck of life. Pl. XI. fig. 15. When an egg is fet under the hen, after two days incubation, the speck of life becomes red, fends out its blood vessels through the yolk, and at last we find the whole chick is formed out of the speck of life, the yolk becomes the fecundines, the white, that fluid which nourishes the chick in the egg, or liquor of the amnion, and the two membranes become the amnion and chorion. A feed has also a shell, external membrane or film, a membrane including the yolk, the yolk itself, and the scar or point of life. Pl. XI. fig. 16. In feeds the white is wanting, there being

no use for it, as the moisture of the earth fupplies its place, and nourishes the embryo of the plant. Likewise the eggs of fishes have no white, because they are always in the water. When the flower is going off, the feed begins to swell, and on its outfide there is feen a veficle, which is the amnion of Malpighi, furnished with an umbilical cord or navel ftring, which is produced through the chorion to the oppo-fite fide of the egg. While with the egg the amnion increaseth, on its top is observed another fmall body, which likewife increafeth continually, till it has filled the whole chorion and egg; and the amnion and chorion are turned into the external shell or coat of the feed. Logan's Exper. 9. by which it appears that the fame changes are brought about in the feed as in the egg; and therefore, that the feeds are the eggs of plants cannot be doubted. That plants fpring from the yolk of the egg'is farther confirmed by the lobes, which, when we fpeak of cows and other fimilar quadrupeds, are nothing else than feveral fecundines, always adhering to the fætus, drawing their supply of fluids from the matrix, which fluids they prepare for the nourishment of the tender fætus. That most plants have feminal leaves or lobes is very well known. Now these seminal leaves once constituted

constituted the whole seed, except the bilum, or little heart, in which is the point of life; and these lobes prepare the nourishment for the very tender plant, until it be able to strike root in the earth; in the same manner as the yolk in an egg, becoming the placenta, prepares the nourishment, and sends it by the navel string to the chick; after which they drop off. Hence it appears, that the seminal leaves are the lobes. But since all lobes come from the egg or seed, we may fairly conclude that plants are produced from eggs.

#### SECT. CXXXVIII.

From what has been faid it appears, that all vegetables have eggs from which they are produced. Now daily experience teaches us, that no egg can produce an animal, till it be impregnated or fecundated by the male: a hen indeed will lay eggs, but not fuch as will produce chicken, unlefs they are impregnated or fertilized by the cock or male. That all generation precedes the birth appears throughout univerfal nature. In quadrupeds it does without doubt: but as to fifhes there is a vulgar notion that their generation follows or comes after the birth or exclusion of their eggs, and that the male sperm is emitted upon the eggs after they are excluded from the matrix of

the female. But this opinion will foon be laid aside, when it is now made to appear, by modern observations, that the male fish emits his sperm a day or two before; that the female, which follows him, greedily devours the fame, and thus conceives by the mouth before the exclusion of the eggs. Amphibious animals have their proper laws; for they copulate as all other animals, but with this difference, that the male of ferpents, in like manner as the crab, have two penes, and the rattle-snake four rough echinated penes. The generation of frogs is still very obscure; and is likely to be fo, till Reaumur shall favour the public with his later observations. which is much to be wished for. In the mean time however, there is no doubt to be made, but that the exclusion of their eggs follows after their copulation. There have been many different opinions of the physiologists, how, or in what manner, generation was brought about, or rather the fecundation, but this remains as great a mystery as ever. The effervescencies, precipitations, and other ridiculous notions, of the antients are now justly laid aside; but the physicians have hitherto acquiesced chiefly in two opinions: the first was, that of the great Harvey, to wit, that in the speck of life, or cicatrice, the entire rudiments

rudiments of the future fætus were present, perfect in all its members, and that it was only requifite that the male sperm should add or excite the first spirit, motion, and life. His followers also contend, that so curious and wonderful a machine as an animal body is, could never be formed and perfected by another machine. And that therefore in the ovarium of the first female there must needs be her offspring or ova, and in them others, and so on in an infinite series through all the subsequent de-feending generations. In a word, that in the ovarium, or loins, of Eve, the whole race of mankind were contained, whether past, present, or future. Now allowing that matter were infinitely divisible, yet it exceeds all belief, that so many myriads should be contained in one egg. The second hypothefis, or supposition, how generation, or the fecundation of the egg, was brought about, was that of Leuwenhoek, that the cicatrice of the egg was empty, and the male sperm replete with myriads of animalcules, which being admitted into the ovarium of the female, some of them entered the empty ovula contained therein, increased, and at last became a compleat fætus. Thus his followers established their opinion on vain figments instead of rational experiments. Gordon argued, that the cicatrice cicatrice was hollow, and that one animalcule of the male sperm filled it, and by a wonderful metamorphofis was transformed into a compleat animal. Dalempatius maintained, that these animalcules were compleat, wrapped up in a thin involucrum. Andry fancied imaginary valves and perforations in the ovula. Lifter maintained, that those animalcules served only to excite venery. Valifnerius, that the male sperm was by them only kept in motion. Many of the moderns have adopted this last opinion. For the carina, or keel-shaped appearance, which Malpighi observed as the first rudiments of the fætus that appeared in the egg after incubation, was very like those animalcules: but they have all erred in this affair. For, in the first place, those corpuscles which Leuwenhoek discovered in the male sperm, are by no means animalcules having proper and voluntary motion, but mere inert particles diffused through the male sperm, like so many oily particles swimming in a fluid, as we clearly obferved by means of Liberkynius's choice microscopes. 2. If they were really animalcules, according to Leuwenhoek's opinion, to be metamorphosed in the ovula, they must necessarily have their own two tunics; and, by casting those tunics succesfively one after another, they must be N 2 changed, changed, first, from the state of a larva, or grub, into the state of a pupa, nympha, chrysalis, or aurelia, and next into a compleat animal: but the amnion and chorion of the fætus derive their origin from the egg, and not from those animalcules, as they are called. 3. That the Author of nature always acts in the most compendious way, as I think no one will readily deny; fo, on the other hand, neither will any one believe that the same All-wife Creator formed fo many myriads of animalcules for the fake of one only. 4. How this hypothesis will account for generation, I cannot see; for, fupposing that those corpuscles were really animalcules, then they also would have their animalcules by which they were produced, and these last others, and so on without end, which is the greatest absurdity. 5. The fecundines are from the yolk, and it is well known, that the yolk is found in an egg not fecundated; if, therefore, we should ascribe the rudiments of the fætus to the male sperm, then the umbilical cord, with its membranes, would be totally diftinct from the yolk, and by that means not have the same common tunic with the yolk, which we know to be false. How then generation, or the fecundation of the ovula, is effected, we are wholly ignorant. When a horse copulates with a she-ass, the species produced,

produced, which we call hybrid, mongrel or mule, is neither like the male nor female; which would certainly be the cafe, were the rudiments of the fætus to derive their origin wholly from one fex only. If a water spaniel is impregnated by a pointer, the semale puppies are like the bitch, and the males like the dog. The fame thing holds good, as I know from experience, when a Friseland hen is impregnated by a common dunghill cock. Dr. Bartholin, in his observations, tells us of a certain Negro. who, during his confinement in jail at Copenhagen, got a wench with child. She in due time was delivered of a boy, who was in colour altogether like the mother, except the penis, which was black, a fufficient indication who the father was. All these things plainly shew, that the rudiments of the fætus are not derived wholly from one fex only. We have now shewn that plants have eggs, which are their feeds, and that no egg can produce a fætus till it be impregnated by the male, and of confequence neither can the eggs of vegetables. Hence it will follow that plants must necessarily be furnished with the organs of generation.

### SECT. CXXXIX.

That we may make a full enquiry into this subject of the generation of plants, it N 3 will

will be proper to investigate the situation of their genital organs. Now we have proved that the feeds are the eggs of plants, and from the last section it appears that wherefoever the fecundated eggs are, there we are to feek for the organs of generation; and we shall find the genital organs of plants where the feeds are produced. But the feeds are produced where the flower and fruit are; therefore the flower and fruit are the genital organs of plants. Some have afferted that certain vegetables wanted flowers, and others both flowers and fruit. Tournefort maintained that the alga, or flags and mosses, had feeds, but no flower; and that the fungi, and some others, had neither flowers nor fruit. Hence some of the moderns have argued against the fructification. But for one to deny flowers and fruit even to the most minute vegetables, which he finds in all the larger species that can fall under his inspection, is the part of a madman, not of a fair and rational enquirer. For it is the same as if we should conclude concerning fome minute species of infects, that they had neither feet, nor eyes, nor mouth, nor genitals, because we cannot discover them with the naked eye, Bobart fowed the feeds of ferns, which grew very well. Plumier discovered the flowers in some of the fern kind, and the fame fame may be easily investigated in the trichomanes of Linnæus. Linnæus discovered the feeds of mosses, and in the polytrichum we have pretty clear figns of both fexes. In the lycopodium selaginoides, or prickly club-moss, Linnæus observed, that one part of the fructification contained the fertilizing dust, and the other the seeds, which were evident figns that the plant had both flower and fruit. B. Juffieu traced the flowers of the pilularia or pepper-grafs. Reaumur discovered the fructification in the fuci. Linnæus numbered the flamina and pistilla in the jungermannia epiphylla, or broad-leafed jungermannia. Valifnerius has delineated in the lemna or duck's-meat, the calyx, the stamina, the pistillum, the capsula, and the seeds. Michelius has frequently numbered the flami-na of the fungi, and has fown their feeds, which grew very well. Nov. Gen. Tab. 68. 73. and 74. Hence therefore we may conclude, that these lowest tribes of vegetables are all furnished with flowers and fruit, although by reason of their exceeding minuteness they have not hitherto been distinctly known to botanists. In short, there never was a clear and evident example produced of any plant which wanted flowers and fruit, and therefore we may justly fay, that in their fructification confifts the effence of plants.

N 4

### SECT. CXL.

Universal experience attests, that the flower always precedes or goes before the fruit, in the same manner as generation precedes the birth in animals; so that not one example of the contrary can be produced in any individual. The colchicum, autumnale, or meadow-faffron, flowers in the autumn, but the fruit, with the stem and leaves, appears the following fummer in the months of May and June. The hazle puts forth his flowers early in the spring, but ripens his fruit or nuts in August. In a word, the flowers always come before the fruit in every plant, without exception.

#### SECT. CXLL.

Since in animals all generation precedes the birth, and in vegetables every flower precedes the fruit, we must necessarily ascribe fecundation to the flower, and the birth or exclusion of the feed to the ripe fruit.

### SECT. CXLII.

Hence we may define a flower to be the genital organs of a plant ferving for fecundation, and the fruit to be the genital organs ferving for the birth or maturation of the feed. There has been much dispute among botanists concerning the definition The life governor and

of a flower; many have afferted that the effence of a flower confisted in the corolla; or petals; this opinion Knautius embraced, and also denied that there ever were any flowers destitute of petals. But experience and our fenses tell us, that there are many plants, some of which want the calyx, as the tulip, fritillary, &c. others the corolla, as the graffes, cats-tail, bur-reed, and pine; others the filaments of the famina, as the birthwort; others the flyle, as the tulip, grass of Parnassus, &c.; but that all flowers whatever, except the mosses only, are furnished with the antheræ or stigmata, or both together; and as this holds univerfally in every species of plant (the mosses only excepted), these parts must necessarily constitute the effence of a flower. we find a flower with anthera, but no fligmata, we may also affuredly find another flower either in the fame, or a different plant of the same species, which has stigmata with the anthera, or without them. Pontedera, on the authority of the Hortus Malabaricus, contends, that there are some plants which have no antheræ; e.g. the cycas circinalis, or fagoe palm tree, the celtis, or nettle tree, with some others. But in this he is mistaken, for even the number of the antheræ in those plants he mentions is at present very well known to botanists.

The same objection has been made in regard to the isoetes, or quill-wort; but Linnaus discovered the anthera of this plant; It. Scan. Hence we perceive the error of the followers of Rivinus, who took the nectaria in the hellebore, nigella, and paffion-flower, for flowers; which nectaria have properly no pistilla nor antheræ. For the act of fecundation two things are requifite, namely, the genital organs of both iexes; because, as was said above, one of the fexes alone cannot propagate the species. Now the act of fecundation is performed in the flower, therefore it follows, that the genital organs of both fexes must be present in the flower. We are here however to observe, that the genital organs of both fexes are not always prefent in one and the same flower. It is sufficient that the genital organs of the male be in one flower, and those of the female in another. Since every plant bears feeds by which its offspring can be propagated, and no egg can be hatched before fecundation, it will follow, that fecundation is as necessary as the feeds themselves. Hence it appears, that the genital organs of both fexes, which ferve for fecundation, are altogether neceffary, if the flower is perfect, and that they are the effential parts. But we find no parts of a flower that are effential but the antheræ and sligmata; therefore these parts are the genital organs of both sexes, serving for secundation.

### SECT. CXLIII.

The male organs of generation in animals are very different. Some have a penis, as the quadrupeds, birds and ferpents, fome of the fishes, insects and worms; others have no penis, as many of the true fishes, and those called shell-fish. Some have seminal veficles, as the greatest part of quadrupeds; others have none, as the dog kind. Some have testicles distinct from the feminal vesicles, as the quadrupeds; and others have both testicles and seminal vesicles united in one, as the fishes. Now we maintain that the antheræ, the male organs of generation in flowers, are nothing else but the bodies which prepare and contain the male sperm; therefore these antheræ are the testicles together with the seminal vesicles, and their dust the genuine male fperm of plants, answering to those parti-cles which are called animalcules in the male sperm of animals. The truth of this we shall prove by the following arguments. 1. Preceding the fruit. - The antheræ and their dust always come before the fruit. When the fruit sheds its seeds, it is come to maturation. This is the case with the antheræ:

antheræ; for when they shed their dust, they are come to maturation, and have done their office; yet their dust is always shed when the flower is in full vigour, and then the antheræ drop, and are useless. 2. Situation. - The antheræ are always fo fituated in the flower, that their dust, which is the male sperm, may reach the pistillum or female organ; for the stamina either furround the pistillum, as in most flowers; or, if the piftillum incline to the upper fide of the flower, the flamina do the same, as in the didynamia; or if the pistillum nods, the flamina ascend, as in the cassias, and the common winter-green. Several plants in the monæcia class have the male flowers over the female, as Indian corn, palma Christi. 3. Time. - The antheræ and fligmata are in full vigour at the felf-fame time, and this not only when both are in one and the same flower, but also when they are in distinct or separate flowers, fo that the long catkins of the hazle, birch, alder, never discharge the dust of their antheræ before the ftigmata below them are come out. The male hemp never sheds his dust before the pistilla of the female plant appear. 4. Cells.—Tourne-fort was of opinion that the antheræ did the office of kidneys, purging the feveral parts of the plant from all fuch particles as:

were not fit for its nourishment, by receiving them into their cells, and that their valves were burst open by those accumulated excrements. Pontedera's opinion was, that the antheræ are nothing else but a cluster of cells, which receive a peculiar juice or fluid, and then transmit it through the filaments to the receptacle, from whence it is carried to the embryos of the feed; but the falsehood of this opinion will appear from the confideration of all the plants of the diacia class, the figure of the pollen, artificial fecundation, caprification, and the culture of palm trees. If we cut afunder the antheræ before they shed their dust, we find their structure altogether as wonderful and curious as the feed veffels themselves. For within, they confift either of one cell, as the mercury; or two, as bellebore; or three, as the orchis; or four, as the fritillary; and they open or split either longitudinally, as the leucoium, or greater fnowdrop; or at the base, separating into pieces or valves, as the barren-wort; or from the top, as the common fnow-drop; or at the two points or horns, as the whortle, heath, winter-green, and marsh rosemary. Castration. - If we cut off the anthera of any plant which bears but one flower, taking care at the fame time that no other plant of the same species is near it, the fruit proves

proves abortive, or at least produces feeds which will not vegetate. This is a certain truth, which any one will find upon trial. 6. Figure. - The figure of the fertilizing dust will clearly convince any one that this fine powder is not accumulated by chance, or from the dryness of the antheræ. Malpighi, Grew, Moreland, and Geofroy, who have all viewed the figure of these particles with good microscopes, found all the particles exactly equal to one another, but in different genera as great a difference in shape and figure, as the feeds themselves ever have. As for example, in the fun-flower the particles are globular and echinated, or full of prickles; in the bloody cranes-bill, they are like a perforated globule of fire; in the mallows, they appear like wheels with teeth; in the ricinus, or palma Christi, they are shaped like a grain of wheat; in the pansies, they are angulated; in the Turkey wheat, flat and fmooth; in the borrage, like a thin leaf rolled up; in the narcissus, kidney-shaped; in the comphrey, like double globules, &c. The powder of the antheræ in point of fecundation answers to Leuwenhoek's animalcules in the male fperm; and the stigma, which receives this dust, is always moistish, that the dust may instantly adhere or stick to it. The observation of the famous botanist Bernard Juffieu Juffieu concerning the maple, deserves our notice. "Those gentlemen (fays he), who have examined the fertilizing dust of the maple by microscopes, have drawn the particles in form of a cross. But I found their form to be globular, and as foon as the particles touched any moisture, they burst into four parts or valves, in the shape of a cross." From which observation we may infer, that those particles are hollow globules containing fome fubtle matter within, and that as foon as the hollow globules touch the moisture, they burst and discharge their exceeding fine contents. This last observation throws some light on the generation of animals from its analogy to the feminal animalcules. Upon the whole it abundantly appears, that the antheræ are the male organs of generation, and their dust the genuine male sperm. Since in every flower the antheræ and stigmata are the genital organs ferving for fecundation, and the antheræ the male organs, it is obvious to every one, that the ftigmata, the other effential part of the flower, is the female organ of generation, which we shall more fully prove by the following arguments.

SECT. CXLIV.

The parts of the piftillum are three, the germen, the flyle, and the fligma. The germen,

men, or feed bud, while the plant is in flower, is always imperfect and immature, being only the rudiments of the future fatus; the style is no effential part, for it is wanting in many species of plants; but the germen can never bring the fruit to maturity, except it be within the flower along with the ftigma. Hence it follows, that the fligma is that part of the flower which receives the impregnating dust. This will farther appear; 1. From the Situation .- For we are to confider that the fligma is always fo fituated, that the antheræ, or their impregnating dust, can reach it, as we have shewn above. Hence the fyngenesious plants are rarely barren. Moreover the fligma has always a figure proper and peculiar to itself, so that in most (though not all) plants it is double, when the fruit confifts of two cells, as in the masked and umbelliferous plants; triple, when the feed veffel has three cells, as in the lilies; quadruple, when the feed veffel has four cells, as in the grass of Parnaffus; there are five figmata when the feed veffel has five cells, or five feeds, as in the geranium, winter-green, wood-forrel; there are fix figmata when the feed veffel has fix cells, as in the afarabacca; there are ten stigmata when the feed vessel has ten cells, as in the pork-physic; there are many fligmata when the feed veffel has

many

many cells, as may be feen in the mallows, or in the poppy, which is furnished with as many receptacles for the feed as there are stigmata. 2. Time. - The stigmata are always in full vigour at the same time with the antheræ. For, in the Indian wheat; as Logan observes, on the same day that the anther a burst their inclosure, and hang down in the open air, are feen the bundles and extremities of the ftyles coming out of the sheath of the spike to open view. 3. Falling off .- The stigmata in most plants, when they have discharged their office, drop off in the same manner as the antheræ do; which is a most evident fign that the fligmata contribute nothing to the ripening of the fruit, but serve only for the purpose of generation. 4. Being cut off. - If the figmata be cut off before they have received the impregnating dust of the anthera, the plant is castrated as to the female organs, and the fruit perishes: a sufficient demonstration that the sigma is that part of the female organ of generation deftined for conception. The fligma of a flower has, besides, two other singular properties; namely, that it is always divefted of the cuticle or film, nor has it any bark as the other parts, and then it is always bedewed with a moisture. Hence it appears, that the arguments of Pontedera have

have no force to invalidate our doctrine. For when he would oppose the doctrine of the generation of plants, the whole force of his argument was drawn from the umbelliferous plants, whose ftyles are not come up when their ftamina appear. But the fligma is that part which serves for the purpose of generation, and not the ftyle, which may be wanting in many, as it is not an effential part of the flower. It is sufficient therefore, that the fligmata in the umbelliferous plants be in full vigour at the self-same time with the antheræ, though the ftyle be lengthened after conception, which is the case also in the maple.

#### SECT. CXLV.

The generation then of plants is brought about by the antheræ shedding their dust on the stigmata. It is not sufficiently clear in what way the generation of animals is accomplished; but thus far we are certain of, that the male sperm must come in contact with the semale organ, if there be any impregnation. In the vegetable kingdom the genital dust is carried by the air to the moist sligmata, where the particles burst and discharge their exceeding sine or subtle contents, which impregnate the ovary. That this is the case, will be shewn by the following arguments. 1. Sight.—When a plant

a plant is in flower, and the dust of the antheræ flying about, that part of this dust lights upon and cling sto the fligma, is obvious to every beholder. The flower of the punites shews this in a most agreeable manner; for, when the flower is fcarcely opened, you shall see the sigma, like a concave globe, gaping wide open on one fide, and of a pure white colour; but, as foon as the five flamina have discharged their dust, you may observe the whole fligma filled with this genital dust, and covered all over with a yellow or brownish colour, yet the tube of the pistillum remains clear and transparent. Before this impregnation, if you gently squeeze the *fligma*, there oozes from it a certain sweetish liquor, which retains and attracts the genital dust. In the hedgehyflop also the fligma gapes or opens to receive the male dust, upon which it shuts, and the ovary being thus impregnated ripens its seed. The iris shews us a particular structure; for the stigmata spreading wide wholly cover the antheræ, yet they are fo fituated in regard to the petals, that by means of a gentle wind under the fligmata the male dust can mount by the chan-nels of the petals. The campanula differs from other flowers in this, that the male dust adheres to the side of the rough style, and from thence is communicated to the 0 2 Rigma

fligma by certain canals. In the fyngenefious plants the fligmata rise through a cylinder of the anthera, and as each fligma comes up, it always brings along with it the fertilizing dust; hence fecundation rarely fails in fuch plants, as was observed before. 2. Proportion. - For the most part, the flamina and piftillum are of the same height, that the male dust may more easily come at the fligma; but in some plants it is not so, and then a singular process of fecundation may be observed. In the geranium inquinans, or African tree cranes-bill, with a thick mallow leaf and scarlet flower, where the pistillum is shorter than the stamina, the flowers before they blow are pendulous, but upon their opening they stand upright, that the powder may fall upon the fligma; after which they again nod till the fruit is ripe, and then they stand upright a fecond time, that their feeds may be more eafily scattered about. The same may be feen in the claytonia sibirica. Some of the pinks have piftilla longer than the flamina: the flowers do not nod, but the pistilla are reflected or bent back like rams horns towards the antherce. The flower of the nigella arvensis, or horned field fennel flower, when it first opens, has the five pistilla erect and longer than the stamina; but when the flower is well expanded, the styles are bent back back that they may touch the antheræ which furround them: when they have received the male dust, they are again elevated, and ever after remain erect. In the tamarind tree, passion-flower, and cassias, the ftyles are reflected nearly in the same manner towards the antherae. 3. Place .-The famina for the most part furround the piftillum, fo that some of the dust is always blown by the wind on the fligma. Plants of the didynamia class, which have their flowers erect, and standing at an acute angle with the stem, bend their stamina and pistilla to the upper lip of the flower, where the fligma, placed among the anthera, is generally defended from rain. Flants of the diadelphia class, which have their flowers nodding at an acute angle from the perpendicular line, have the stamina and pistilla declining within the keel of the corolla, which is compressed or flat, that the fecundation may be thereby facilitated, while the vexillum keeps off the rain. Plants of the monæcia class have the male flowers mostly placed above the female, that the dust may more readily fall on the pistilla, as may be feen in the carex, Indian wheat, Job's-tears, bur-reed, cats-tail, leffer burdock, cassava, ambrosia, water-milfoil, arrow-head, and palma Christi. Yet there are a few exceptions, among which we 03 shall

shall reckon the pine and the fir, where the antheræ are so very numerous, that if any animal, or the wind, shake the tree, we may fee the dust flying upwards like smoke; and fo plentiful is the dust, that if, in the time of flowering of the pine, fir, or juniper, it chances to rain, the banks of the adjacent standing waters are painted with yellow rings of the dust from those trees. The teucrium flavum, or shrubby germander, has a yellow corolla, the two upper fegments of which ascending, press like fingers the anthera, which are placed on nodding filaments, to the figma, that the genital powder may touch it, and they continue to cover it for some days after the fecundation, and then resume their former place. The veratrum album, or white hellebore, has its male flowers placed below, but the others and upper flowers are all hermaphrodites; for which reason the male flowers, as not being so necessary, are placed lower. 4. Time. - Here we are to observe, that the stamina and pistillum come at the fame time, and that not only in one and the same flower, but also where some are male and others female, on the same plant, a very few only excepted. The wonderful contrivance of the great Author of Nature in the jatropha, or cassava, and the plantain tree, is truely worth our observation. The jatropha jatropha urens, or prickly cassava, has a corymbus, whose first or uppermost forks bear female flowers, which come out a day or two before the males, the other forks or branches of the corymbus produce male flowers, but the female flowers, which come out first, cannot be impregnated by their dust, because they were withered before the males expanded; and therefore those female flowers prove abortive, unless they are impregnated from fome other corymbus which has male flowers at the fame The musa paradisaica, or plantain tree, produces a *spadix*, which contains often 200 germina, the few female flowers of which continue in blow for some days; when the female flowers have done blowing, the males fucceed, and continue in flower till the fruit is ripe, in which are to be found no feed at all. Wherefore the authors of the Hortus Malabaricus have afferted that feeds were evidently wanting in the plantain tree, which feemed a paradox to me; but when I faw the first female flowers destitute of males, and that the males which followed came too late to impregnate the females, I clearly perceived that no feeds would ever be produced in this species, unless several plants placed together were to flower nearly at the same time, and then one could impregnate the O 4 other.

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other. There is one thing farther remarkable in the musa, and that is, that it produces two forts of flowers very different in the fame plant, some of which want the fligmata, and others the antheræ; the first may be called male hermaphrodites, and the latter female hermaphrodites. Here then we have an unexampled species of polygamy, where those different flowers may impregnate each other, and one female joined with barren males is impregnated by the males belonging to another female, which is itself barren. Another thing which merits our observation in regard to time is, that when the male and female flowers are in distinct cups on the same plant, or on different plants of the same species, and where the male flowers are not erected perpendicularly over the females, there it is necessary that the flowering be over before the leaves come out, lest the fecundation should be hindered by the intervention of the leaves; e.g. in the mulberry, miffeltoe, alder, birch, hornbeam, beach, oak, hazel, walnut, and also in the willow, fea-buckthorn, myrica or Dutch myrtle, poplar, ath, and dogs mercury. 5. Rains. - In almost all forts of flowers we fee how they expand or open by the heat of the fun, but in the evening, and in a moist state of the air, they close or contract

tract their flowers, left the moisture getting to the dust of the antheræ should coagulate the same, and render it incapable of being blown on the sigmata; but (which is indeed wonderful) when once the secundation is over, the flowers neither contract in the evening, nor yet against rain. Flowers with covered anthera never shut up in the night time; e.g. those of the didynamia and diadelphia classes. The antheræ of the rye hang out beyond the flower, and if rain falls while it is in flower, the dust is clotted, and hence the husbandmen do truely predict a bad crop of rye, for the kernels are not fo numerous, because many of the florets prove abortive. But the antheræ of the barley lie fo close within the husk, that the rain cannot get at it. If rain falls upon the bloom of the apple, pear, or cherry, the gardiner immediately dreads the bloffoms falling off, or proving abortive; and experience confirms the truth of this, for the powder of the anthera is fpoiled; yet this accident oftener happens in the cherry than the apple or pear, for all the antheræ of the cherry flowers difcharge their dust at once; but the case is not to in the others. Smoak also is injurious, by drying up the moisture of the stigmata. 6. Culture of Palm Trees. - That the cultivators of the common palm tree,

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or date tree, cut off the male spadixes, and place them over the females, is recorded by Theophrastus, Pliny, Prosper Alpinus, Tournefort, Kempfer, and others; and if they neglect to do this, the dates are harsh, bad tasted, and many trees wholly destitute of nuts or fruit. The date tree is every year thus impregnated in Arabia, Persia, and Egypt, by the inhabitants. " The male spathæ being ripe (says Kempfer) are taken from the top of the tree, the spadixes taken out, and divided into lesser branches, that the rudiments of the fruit may be sprinkled with the minute atoms of their dust; a fmall branch of the male spadix is fixed into the middle of the female spadix, and thus discharges its dust on the seed buds. It is remarkable that the spadixes dried are still proper to impregnate the females, and may be kept a whole year without losing their virtue. It fometimes happens that the females are impregnated by the dust blown to them by the wind; but fince this is precarious, it is better done by the hand. If there is no impregnation, the female trees inevitably drop all the rudiments of the fruit, which is a great calamity to the owners, and to the country people in general, who are supported by their crop of dates, as we are by our crops of corn. I remember it happened in my time, that the

the Grand Signior meditated an invasion of the city and territory of Bassora, which the Prince of the country prevented, by giving out that he would destroy all the male palm trees on the first approach of the enemy, and by that means cut off from them all supplies of subfishence during the sliege." Thus far Kempfer. Hear also what Tournesort says on this subject. "Hagdi Mustapha, ambassador from Tripoli, told me, that a branch of the flower of the male palm was inferted into the spatha of the female just at the time the spatha used to open; for when the flower is fully expanded, it sheds its dust, without the affistance of which the dates would be harsh and ill-tafted, difagreeable, and without stones or kernels, and only fit to be given to camels and other beafts of burden." the males and females of the piftachia nuttree they observe the same method as in those of the date tree. For in Sicily (says Geofroy in his Materia Medica) the countrymen pluck clusters of flowers from the male pistachia, with the fecundating dust of which they impregnate the female flowers. Others gather the male flowers, expose them to dry in proper bags, and scatter the proliferous dust on the semale flowers, that the fruit may not prove abortive, and the crop fail. 7. Nodding Flowers .-Since

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Since the male dust is generally of a greater specific gravity than the air, in most plants that have the pistillum longer than the stamina, the All-wife Creator has made the flowers nodding, that the powder may more easily reach the figma, as may be feen in the common fnow-drop, greater fnowdrop, fow-bread, narcissus, fritillary, campanula, and dogs-tooth violet, &c. Now it cannot be faid that this happens merely from the weight of the flower, for fometimes the fruit in the fame plants, which is ten times heavier than the flower, grows erect, as in the crown imperial, fritillary, and others. 8. Sunk Flowers. - The stems of many plants grow under water; but a little before they blow, the flowers emerge or rife above the furface of the water, as we see in the water-lily, frogs-bit, broadleafed pondweed, perennial arfmart, &c. There are others in which all the parts grow under water, as the water-milfoil, water-foldier, feveral of the pondweeds, all which, about the time of flowering, raife their flowering stems above the water, which stems fink again as foon as the time of flowering is over. The valifneria of Micheli, a kind of pondweed, which grows in Italy, bears a very long scapus, or flowering stem, but twisted in form of a screw; hence it appears very short. This plant grows grows in rivulets and ditches under water, and bears on the extremity of its stem one flower only. About the time of blowing the scapus is lengthened, till the calyx has reached the furface of the water; which done, the flower is expanded, and after a few days, the flowering and impregnation being over, it finks again, the stem turn-ing in a spiral form as before. This is the female plant. The valisherioides of Micheli grows in the same places under water, having a flower stem scarce an inch high, which confequently does not reach the furface of the water; this bears many flowers, which, when the time of flowering approaches, drop from the scapus, and rife like little bladders; as foon as they have reached the furface of the water. though before thut, they then open, and fwimming about shed their dust on the female flowers, which are also swimming in the fame places. This is the male plant of the former. H. Cliff. 454. Micheli, without attending to the fex, has carefully observed and faithfully described this circumstance. 9. Syngenesious Flowers.—The compound flowers are formed in different ways. In the polygamia æqualis all the florets are furnished with stamina and pistilla. In the polygamia superflua all the florets have stamina and pistilla in the disk or mid-

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dle of the flower, but in the radius there are only female flowers, which are impregnated by the male dust of those in the disk. In the polygamia superflua the disk is filled with hermaphrodite florets as in the former; but the female flowers, which constitute the radius, cannot ripen their feed, being all without fligmata. Lastly, the florets of the polygamia necessaria, which fill the disk, have the stamina and pistilla, but for want of the stigmata these florets bear no feed, and the plants would all have been barren, had not the All-wife Creator furnished the radius, which confists only of female florets, with compleat piftilla that have the stigmata, and consequently ripen the feed. 10. Consideration of all Sorts of Flowers. - The tenth and last argument is drawn from the genuine confideration of all forts of flowers. And here for brevityfake we shall examine only a few out of the many that might be adduced in proof of the Linnæan doctrine of the generation of plants. The celosia, or cock's-comb, is furnished with a pistillum surrounded by five stamina, whose filaments are joined below by a thin plaited film. In moist weather this film is relaxed, and the antheræ stand at a great distance from one another, but in dry weather the film is contracted, by which means the filaments come close together,

gether, fo that the antheræ almost touch the stigma, and hence the impregnation is affifted. The faxifrage has ten stamina, in the center of which are two pistilla. After being in flower for some days, two of the stamina, which stand opposite to one another, meet, that their dust may fall perpendicularly down on the fligmata, while their antheræ force open, as it were, each others fariniferous cells by rubbing against one another; next day these two stamina recede from one another, and two others supply their place, and thus they continue to do till all the males have discharged their dust in the fame manner. The grass of Parnassus has five short stamina, one of which, as soon as the filament is fufficiently lengthened, touches the fligma with its anthera, and, having discharged its fertilizing dust, immediately rifes, and whereas it was bent inward before, it now bends backward, and the filament grows afterwards almost as high as the corolla; then the second stamen comes forward in the fame way and manner; then the third, fourth, and fifth, till they have all discharged their office. The lychnis flos cuculi, or meadow pinks, and the gypsophila fastigiata, a kind of sopewort, have procumbent stems; but when the time of flowering approaches, these are raised upright, that the dust of the anthera, being being exposed to the wind, may be more readily blown upon the fligmata. This is also the reason why the greatest part of flowers are elevated on flowering stems above the ground, that the wind may more easily shake them. For the narcissus, snowdrop, violet, cross-wort, and some others, have their stems erect, but after the time of flowering their stems recline to the ground. Almost all the spiked plants begin their flowering below, or in the lower part of the stem, that in case the dust of the first should not prove sufficient, that of the latter may make up the loss. Of this fort are also the corymbiferous and umbelliferous plants, not to fay the compound flowers, where the florets constituting the radius open first, then follow the interior florets, and the disk is elevated or raised, that the exterior florets may also receive some of their dust, if they were not sufficiently im-pregnated before. This is so certain and constant a rule, that when I found the hieracium præmorsum, the greater broad-leafed hawk-weed, or greater upright mouse-ear, observe a different order, i. e. the uppermost flowers come out first, I thought it a fingular instance in nature. The pellitory clearly shews us the process of generation; if we observe it in a morning at a proper hour, we shall fee how its antheræ burst with

with great elasticity, and emit their dust - all round; and, of confequence, also upon the piftillum. The fame experiment fucceeds, if we touch the antheræ with the point of a needle, as Vaillant has observed. The melons, pompions, cucumbers, gourds, &c. have two forts of flowers; the one male, which are called barren; the other female, which bear the pistilla and fruit. The gardeners advise, that the barren flowers should be carefully pluckt off, by reason they think these deprive the plant too much of its nourishment. But without doubt they are mistaken; for they had better take the entire male flowers and fprinkle the females with their dust at noon, or roll the male flowers on the female, by which means the male dust will readily reach the fligmata, and the females thus impregnated will ripen their fruit; for the reason why the fruit drops off is for want of being impregnated, and not for want of nourishment, as is the vulgar opinion. Hence it is, that if gardeners do not give air to their stoves, so that generation may be affifted by the help of the wind, the fruit drops off, or miscarries. In 1723, a pompion flowered in Stenbrohalt garden, the male flowers of which were carefully pluckt off every day, as foon as they appeared, left they should draw from the female flowers too much of their nourishment; the consequence

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consequence was, that not one fruit appeared on the plant that feafon. If one pluck the flowers of the male hemp, before those of the female plant are opened, he will get none, or but very few ripe feeds. Yet it happens fometimes, that the female hemp bears one or two male flowers, by which fome of the females may be impregnated; and this circumstance deceived Camerarius. The hops are of two forts, the one male, and the other female; and that which they commonly call the fruit, is only the calying expanded and lengthened; hence the female plants, though not impregnated, can bear cones. This it was which deceived Tournefort, fo that he would not acknowledge the fexes of plants; because a female plant of the hops in the Paris garden throve well, and bore fruit in plenty every year; when no male plants of the hops were within feveral miles of it. The fame thing happens in the mulberry and blite, the berries of which are only fucculent calyxes, but not feed veffels or ovaria. In the tulip there is an agreeable experiment of the gardeners. If one has only red tulips, out of any one flower of this fort let him take all the antheræ, before they shed their dust; then let him take a tulip with a white flower, and iprinkle with its antheræ the stigma of the red one; when its feed ripens, let

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let him fow it in a bed by itself, and he will have fome flowers red, fome white, and fome of both colours; in the fame manner as from two animals of different colours, the offspring is of various colours. One Richard Baal, a gardener at Brentford, fold a great quantity of cauliflower feed, which he raised in his own garden, to several gardeners in the suburbs of London, who carefully fowed the feeds in good ground, but they produced nothing but the common long-leafed cabbage, for which reason they complained that they were imposed upon, and commenced a fuit against the aforesaid Baal in Westminster-hall; the judge's opinion was, that Baal must return the gardeners their money, and also make good their loss of time and crops. Ray's Hist. I. p. 42. This cheat we ought not to lay to the poor gardener's charge, for it is wholly to be afcribed to his good plants being impregnated by the common cabbage. Wherefore, if one has an excellent fort of cabbage, he ought not to let it flower in the same bed with any other of an inferior fort, left the good fort should be impregnated with the dust of the other, and the feeds produce a degenerate race. If one intends to plant the poplar or willow for walks, let him take only the male plants for this purpose; for if the females P 2

are planted, they will multiply fo fast as to form a grove instead of a walk. The juniper does not produce fruit every year in equal plenty, for if rain falls during its time of flowering, the fruit is deprived of the farina, and falls off. A female plant of the juniper grew for many years in Clifford's garden, but never produced any fruit for want of a male plant. The rhodiola, or rose-wort, grew in the Upfal garden from the year 1696, at which time profesior Rudbeck brought it thither from the mountains of Lapland; but it never ripened its feeds, being without a male plant. It is needless to mention more examples, though I could eafily deduce fome fingular experiments from many more plants, to corroborate our doctrine of the generation of plants, which the brevity of this differtation does not allow. I shall not speak of the maize, the generation of which is denied by Siegesbeck and others, from the fituation of the antheræ and pistilla; but refer for this to a treatife written by Mr. Logan of Philadelphia, intituled, Experiments concerning the Generation of Plants. And as to the hazle, fee the experiments of the famous Mr. Bradley, professor of botany in Cambridge. As to the fig tree, we shall explain its peculiar manner of generation, which is called caprification,

more at large. Tournefort, while he was in the islands of the Archipelago, accurately observed this, and has described it in the following manner. "There are three varieties of the caprificus, or wild fig, which is the male, called by the natives fornites, cratirites, and orni. These produce their fruit at three different times of the year; the fruit of the fornites, or first variety, begin to bud in August, and hold to the end of November, at which time many fmall infects make their escape from them, and lay their eggs on the cratirites, or fecond variety, whose fruit are now coming out. The cratirites, or fecond variety, bud in the end of September, and hold till May following. The infects fometimes come out of these before the orni, or third variety, are budded; in which case, the hufbandmen carefully feek for those trees of the cratirites whose infects have not yet come out, and tie them on the branches of the orni, that the infects may lay their eggs thereon. The orni, or third variety, bud in May, and are ripe in July. In all the three varieties, certain infects are generated, which deposite their eggs, and these eggs become worms, and afterwards are turned into flies before the fruit falls off. The countrymen chiefly gather the erni in June and July, a little before the dogdays,

days, or when the infects begin to fly, and tie them with threads to the cultivated fig tree; then the infects, by wounding the orifices of the cultivated figs, make their way into the cavities of the fruit, which ripen after this in about fourteen days." This riddle we shall now explain. The caprificus, or wild fig, is the male plant, and the cultivated fig the female. The flowers are disposed within the cavity of the receptacle, which is so close shut, that often it will fcarce admit the end of a common needle through the pore in its extremity. Now the fig-flies, which are of the ichneumon kind, being transformed, and furnished with wings, about the time the farina of the male fig is ripe, make their escape from those male figs, and being wholly covered with their dust, after copulation, they seek for a place to lay their eggs, and flying to every one of the female figs, they enter their cavities, which are filled with pistilla from all fides, by which means they must necessarily brush off that farina, or male dust, with which they were covered, and thus the feeds are impregnated. It is true, the female fig can ripen its fruit, though the feeds are not impregnated, because this fruit is not a pericarpium, or feed vessel, but only a receptacle: so also the hop, mulberry, strawberry, and blite, can produce. fruit,

fruit, though their feeds do not ripen, because their fruit is nothing but a receptacle or calyx. Some botanists who were ignorant of this, feeing those trees produce fruit without previous impregnation, thought they had found an unanswerable argument against the generation of plants; but they did not consider, that the fruit of the fig is not a feed vessel, but a common receptacle. Yet it appears, that the fruit of the fig, if the feeds are impregnated, grow to a much larger fize than those which are not; which Tournefort also obferved; for he tells us, that a fig tree, in Franche Compte, where there is no caprification, produced every year only 25 pound weight of figs; but that another of the same size in one of the islands of the Archipelago, produced yearly 280 pound weight of figs, which is above ten times the quantity of the other. This age hath clearly refuted the opinion of Camerarius, who maintained that the feeds of figs never produced any plants. For Linnaus tells us, that fig trees are raised every year in Holland from the seeds, provided the fruit is brought from Italy. But if the fruit grew in France, England, Germany, or Sweden, where there are no wild figs, the feeds produce nothing; on the other hand, if those seeds are fown, which grew in Italy

or the Greek islands, where the male fig abounds, the plants spring up with ease, putting forth leaves, which at first are like those of the mallow. The same experiment was tried with good fuccess in the Upsal garden in the year 1744. I shall only briefly mention the utility of infects in the secundation of plants. In a great many flowers there is a nectarium, or honey juice, separated by the flower, which Pontedera thinks is that balfam which the feeds imbibe, to make them keep and preserve their vegetative quality longer; and as long as this balfam is not dried up or spoiled, so long the seeds are fit to germinate. Several insects, as bees, flies, butterflies, live on this honey juice only. Quintilian, the Roman orator, has a very fingular case in one of his orations. "A poor man and a rich man (fays he) had each a small garden adjoining to one another. The rich man had many fine flowers in his garden, and the poor man had bees in his. The rich man complained that his flowers were spoiled by the poor man's bees, which he warned him to remove. The poor man not complying, the other fcattered poison on his flowers; on which the poor bees all died; and Dives is guilty of this great injury. The poor man pleads that the bees did no hurt at all to the rich man's

man's flowers; that neither the Creator, nor any human laws, had ever restrained bees within any certain limits; and therefore the rich man might hinder the bees from fettling on his flowers if he could." But the other might have objected, that the bees were so far hurtful to his flowers, that they fucked the honey juice, and carried off the fertilizing dust. But after all, my opinion is, that the bees are more ufeful than hurtful to flowers, fince by their unwearied labours they spread the fertilizing dust, so that it may reach the pistillum: for it is not clear what use the honey juice is of in the æconomy of flowers. From what has been faid it appears, that the generation of plants is performed by the genital dust of the antheræ falling on the moist fligma, or female organ, which dust by the help of the moisture adheres and bursts, discharging its contents, the fubtle particles of which are absorbed by the flyle, into the ovarium, germen, or feed bud. We deny, however, that the dust of the antheræ penetrates through the figle to the germen and rudiments of the feed, as Moreland, Geofroy, Logan, and fome others, were of opinion; for one example from Vaillant of the poppy will be fufficient to disprove this, fince it appears, by ocular inspection, to be false. The species meant,

meant, is the papaver orientale, or the oriental rough poppy, with a large flower. If one opens a flower of this plant, cutting its pistilium perpendicularly downwards, he shall find the lamellæ, or folds, the placentæ, and the small feeds slicking to them, all of a pure white colour, though at the fame time the ftyle and all the ftigma are wholly tinged with a purple hue from the dust of the antheræ. From whence we may fairly conclude, that not one grain or particle of the farina enters the folds of the receptacle, or the feeds themselves. 'The malva alcea, and the malva moschata, i. e. the vervain mallow, and the jagged-leafed vervain mallow, have kidney-shaped anthere, or fummits, which contain a dust confifting of large globular particles confpicuous enough to the naked eye, and having their diameters equal to those of the flyles; whence it is evident they never can pass through the styles. Needham has obferved, that the dust of martagon lily confifts of rough or prickly globules, which as foon as they touch any moisture burst on the fides, and, like an colipile, with great impetuolity discharge a gelatinous matter, filled with innumerable points and atoms, which impregnate the ovula, or rudiments of the feeds. All the females also among animals discharge a seminal fluid at the

the fame time with the males, and therefore this feminal fluid is also necessary on the part of the female. This same viscid and ropy fluid on the fligmata of plants is called by Malpighi a turpentine, or balfam. Hence Ray also says, that in no kind of animals that he knew did the sperm enter the ovarium, and in many kinds not even the uterus, or womb itself, but only its exceeding subtle effluvia to impregnate the ovula, or eggs. Upon the whole I think that the flowering of plants may be truely called their generation, and that the Antients with great propriety named the flower, the joy of plants.

#### SECT. CXLVI.

The calyx then is the marriage bed, in which the flamina and pifiila, the male and female organs, celebrate the nuptials of plants; and here also those tender organs are cherished and defended from external injuries. The corolla, or petals, are the curtains, closely surrounding the genital organs, in order to keep off storm, rain, or cold; but when the sun shines bright, they freely expand, both to give access to the sun's rays, and to the fecundating dust. The silaments are the spermatic vessels by which the juice, secreted from the plant, is carried to the anthera. The anthera are

the testicles, and may not improperly be compared to the foft roe or milt of fishes. The dust of the antheræ answers to the fperm and feminal animalcules; for, though it is dry, that it may the more easily be conveyed by the wind, yet it gets moisture upon touching the sligma. The sligma is that external part of the female organ which receives the male dust, and on which this male dust acts. The style is the vagina, or tube, through which the effluvia of the male dust pass to the germen or feed bud. The germen is the ovary, for it contains the unimpregnated or unfertilized feeds. The pericarpium, or feed veffel, anfwers to the impregnated ovary; and, in fact, is the fame with the germen, or feed bud, only increased in bulk, and loaded with fertile feeds. The feeds are the eggs, of which we have spoken more fully in fect. 136, and 137. We ought to observe, that the calyx is a production of the external bark of the plant; the corolla, of the inner bark; the ftamina, of the alburnum, or white fap; the pericarpium, or feed vef-iel, of the woody substance; and the feeds of the pith of the tree; for in this manner they are placed; and in this manner alfo. they are unfolded. Therefore in a flower we find all the internal parts of a plant unfolded. This, though obscurely, was taken notice

notice of by Cæsalpinus, and also by Mr. Logan of Philadelphia. Flowers then are nothing else but the genitals of plants, with this difference from those of animals, that their organs of generation are reckoned obfcene, and modefly forbids us to examine them; for which reason nature has taken care frequently to hide them from our fight. But in the vegetable kingdom it is quite otherwise; for here those parts are not hid, but rather exposed to the view of all. Add to this, that they are the most beautiful of all the parts of plants, in which the study, love, and contemplation of men are conversant. As the genitals of all animals have a rank and strong smell in rutting time, fo the flowers or genitals of plants also fend forth a smell, which, though very different in different plants, is for the most part very agreeable, so that one fancies himself drinking nectar with his nostrils. We see then how the great Creator has enriched the most innocent nuptials of plants with the most fingular and superb ornaments. Let us behold the marriage bed, or calyx, with what art it is constructed; the curtain, or superb covering called the corolla, how neat and elegant its extremity or termination, how splendidly cut or carved, how fine and thin, and with what lively and beautiful colours

it is adorned! that we may truely fay, in the emphatical language of scripture, that Solomon in all his glory was not arrayed like one of them. The amaranthus tricolor wants this beautiful covering of the corolla; but here nature has taken care to cover the flowers with a shade or fine-coloured crown of the leaves, which is laid over the flowers, that the few males, being defended from showers, might more easily and fafely difcharge their farina on the females below. All animals appear most beautiful and shewy just before their copulation. The hart toffes up his prominent horns; the birds shine and glitter with gay colours; the fishes taste then most deliciously. But when the time of copulation is over, the hart lofes his lofty or towering horns; the birds lose much of their beauty; and the fishes a great deal of their former flavour or fine tafte. Now plants are subject to the fame changes: for in the spring and flower-ing time their verdure and beauty is most amazingly gay; but, when that is over, they lose much of their former splendor. Thus copulation weakens and debilitates. In the filk-worm, moths, and butterflies, one may fee, when their copulation is over, how their wings droop, and their life expires; but if a butterfly is shut up in a room alone, and not suffered to copulate with others.

others, it will often remain in health and vigour for half the year. In the annual and biennial plants one may observe, that before they have flowered, they resist the cold of winter, e. g. the pinks, lichnifes, and others; but if they flower the first year, as foon as winter approaches they generally die; if, on the other hand, they do not flower, they will often continue in vigour three or four years. The plantain tree has often continued in the gardens of Holland for a hundred years; but when it has once flowered, no art, skill, or experience, can prevent its lofty stem from perishing the following year. The corypha, or umbrella palm tree, remains barren for thirty-five years, growing in that time to the height of seventy feet; and in the space of four months after that time, it rifes thirty feet higher, puts forth its flowers, and produces its fruit the same year; which done, it totally dies, both root and ftem. Hort. Cliff. 482. The lavatera arborea, or fea-tree mallow, will rife to the height of a common pear tree, bearing the winter frosts very well; but when it has once blown, though it were to produce but one flower only, not all the affiftance of gar-deners or green-houses, or any art, can prevent its perithing on the first approach of winter.

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SECT. CXLVII.

The stomach of plants is the earth, from which they receive their nourishment; and the finest and most subtle part of the foil is their chyle. The root, which carries the chyle from the stomach to the body of the plant, is analogous to the lacteals or chyliferous vessels of animals. The trunk, which supports and gives strength to the whole plant, is analogous to the bones. The leaves, by which plants transpire, are instead of lungs. The leaves may be also compared to the muscles of animals; for by their agitation with the wind the plant is put in motion. For this reason, herbs furnished with leaves cannot thrive, except they have air; but fucculent plants, which have no leaves; e.g. fcme of the euphorbias, torch-thistles, melonthiftle, prickly pear, and the ftapelia, though thut up in green-houses, and quite deprived of the external air, do thrive very well. If you shut up a tree or a shrub, which is full of leaves, in a close room in the fummer-time, it will die; but if in the winter, when it has loft all its leaves, it will remain fafe. Heat is to plants analogous to the heart in animals. Plants have no heart, nor indeed have they any occasion for such an organ, for they live in the fame manner as polypes do in the animal kingdom:

kingdom: their juices mixed with air are propelled through their vessels, but not circulated back again by returning vessels. The blood-vessels of animals are divided into various branches, fo also are the veffels of plants. Plants for the most part have their genital organs placed at their ramifications, in the same manner animals have theirs at the ramification of the iliac veffels, with this difference however, that the ramifications of plants ascend, whereas those of animals go downwards or backward; hence the antients called a plant an inverted animal.

#### SECT. CXLVIII.

From what has been faid it follows, that a flower, which is furnished with anthera, but wants the fligmata, is a male flower; that a flower which has fligmata, but no antheræ, is a female; and one that has both, is an hermaphrodite flower. Nor need we wonder, that in the vegetable kingdom many plants are hermaphrodite, though in the animal kingdom there are very few of this kind; for here one fex can eafily go to the other; whereas plants are fixed to one fpot, and cannot go from it. Justly therefore has the All-wife Creator furnished finails and other flow-paced animals with the genital organs of both fexes, left

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lest (seeing they rarely meet) the species should be extinct or lost: during their co-pulation then, the one acts on the other, and each acts the part of male and semale, while both impregnate and are impregnated by each other.

### SECT. CXLIX.

We call a plant which has only male flowers, a male plant; that which has only female flowers, a female plant; and that which has only hermaphrodite flowers, an hermaphrodite plant. A fourth fort, having on one and the fame stem both male and female flowers diffinct, is called an androgynous plant. There is also a fifth fort, namely, when on one and the fame plant there are not only hermaphrodite flowers. but also male or female flowers; and this is called a polygamous plant. When male flowers are added to the hermaphrodite, they serve to impregnate those which have not been impregnated by their own males, e. g. in the cross-wort, and white hellebore; or, if female flowers are added, they are impregnated by the farina of the hermaphrodite flowers, as in the pellitory and orrache. It is very remarkable, that the feeds of the hermaphrodite flowers in the orrache are altogether unlike to the feeds of the female flowers both

in shape and size, yet they produce the same plant; as well as the seeds of compound flowers do, which grow in the disk and in the radius, or in the center and margin of the flower. To this place we may refer a third fort of polygamous plants, in which there are two sorts of hermaphrodite flowers on one individual, one fort wanting the stigmata, and the other the anthera, as in the plantain tree.

#### SECT. CL.

When there are more petals in flowers than they ought to have, fuch are faid to be luxuriant; and they are of three forts, viz. Full, when all the flamina are wanting, and petals only grow in their room; Multiplied, when fome of the flamina are wanting, and fome remain; or Proliferous, when another flower with its proper flowerstalk grows out of the pistillum, or center of the flower. All luxuriant flowers are justly reckoned monsters, fince the effential parts are changed into a different nature and figure; which notwithstanding is much admired by florists, who take great delight in full and multiplied flowers, or double flowers as they commonly call them. It is remarkable, that when monopetalous flowers are changed into luxuriant or full ones, only the corolla is increased, as in the 0 2 gelder

gelder rose, African marygold, feverfew, &c. Yet this holds chiefly in compound flowers, and but feldom in any other. Hence we may fee, that no full flowers are ever natural, but always propagated from fingle ones, for nature never produces any race of mere monsters. These full flowers are at first produced from a superabundance, of nourishment. And fince these full flowers are destitute of all the stamina, they are also deprived of the male organs of generation, which should impregnate the fligmata; but no feeds will germinate (as we have observed before), unless they have been fertilized by the male dust; therefore fuch flowers must necessarily be barren, or produce no feeds. Of this fort are the pinks, the bepatica, stock-julyflower, Indian cress, pomegranate, rose, ranunculus, marsh marygold, lychnis, violet, wall-flower, piony, and narcissus, &c. All these, with full flowers, never produce feeds, but are propagated by fuckers, off-fets, or flips, i. e. by dividing the roots. I am well aware, that the poppy, the fennel-flower, and fome few among the compound flowers, do fometimes produce good feeds, because some of their stamina remain to impregnate the pistillum. fame way of reasoning may be applied to all proliferous flowers, e. g. the ranunculus, rose, avens; for they are all barren, hecause

because they want the germen, and female parts of generation, when the prolification is from the center of the flower; but their offspring fometimes produce good feeds, providing they are not full flowers. From this differtation the reader may perceive, how fimilar nature is to herfelf, and how exact in following her own laws in all her works. Who would ever believe fo many truths were discoverable concerning plants? though, without doubt, there are many more that remain still undiscovered. shall conclude with the words of Pliny; " That there is in plants a natural instinct to generation; and that the males, by a certain blaft and fubtle powder, do confummate the nuptials on the females." Nat. Hist. b. xiii, ch. 4.

# C H A P. VI.

CHARACTERS of the GENERA, &c.

### SECT. CLI.

THE foundation of botany confifts in a regular disposition and denomination, or naming of the plants, both generical and specific.

## SECT. CLII.

Now a regular or fystematical disposition of vegetables is either *Theoretical*, which lays down the classes, orders, or subdivisions, and the *genera*; or *Practical*, which teaches the several species and varieties.

### SECT. CLIII.

A regular disposition, or ordering of vegetables, may be laid down either in the form of fynopsis, or system; and both are commonly called by the name of a method: which, I think, should first lay down the more perfect and complete plants, and then proceed to those that are small and imperfect.

## SECT. CLIV.

A fynopsis gives us such a division of the plants, as is, for the most part, merely arbitrary, and is therefore generally, now-adays, rejected by most botanists. For a fynopsis lays down a way to botany, but does not determine the limits, as may be seen in Ray; for he has two classes, one of herbs, and another of trees, which he calls anomalous, or irregular and uncertain, not reducible to any head or class, or division of his method.

### SECT. CLV.

A fystem, or systematical method, confists of five members or branches, which are peculiarly appropriated to itself, to wit, Classes, Orders, Genera, Species, and Varieties. This systematical method was first invented by Tournefort, and is infinitely preferable to a synopsis.

### SECT. CLVI.

A fystem is a clue to guide us to botany, which without any such guide is a mere chaos, or rude and indigested heap of confusion. As for example, let any unknown Indian plant be presented to a lover of botany, who understands no system, and he shall turn over all the descriptions, figures, cuts, plates, indexes, and catalogues in vain,

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nor shall he at last find out the plant, unless it be by mere chance: but the systematical botanist can soon determine, whether it be a genus which is already known, or whether it be a new genus never before described by any.

### SECT. CLVII.

Of species of plants we reckon so many as there were different and constant forms of plants created in the beginning by the Infinite and Eternal Mind: and those different forms, according to the laws of generation, have always produced others similar or like to the parent plants, from whence they respectively sprang. Neither have we any reason to think that there are any new species of vegetables since the creation.

## SECT. CLVIII.

Of varieties there are as many as there are plants, differing in certain circumflances of form and appearance, produced from the feed of the fame species. The varieties of plants are accidental changes, generally owing to the climate, soil, exposure, heat, winds, bruises, age, diseases, too much or too little nourishment, culture, &c. and by a change of soil, &c. are generally reduced to their proper species.

The varieties of plants are chiefly in point of magnitude, plenitude, crispation, i. e. curled leaves and petals, colour, taste, smell. Varieties might be excluded from botany, but that for œconomical uses the large and curled varieties are most esteemed; and full or double flowers; as also the fine, beautiful-coloured, striped, and blotched varieties are in great esteem among gardeners and florists; and those varieties which are most remarkable for taste and smell are most valued by physicians; it becomes necessary therefore to enumerate the chief varieties under every species where there are any.

#### SECT. CLIX.

We say there are so many genera as there are similarly constructed fructifications of distinct natural species; that is to say, when two or more distinct species agree in all or most of the parts of fructification, they are said to be of the same genus; not but that there are in botany many genera which consist of no more than one species each, as we shall have occasion afterwards to observe under sect. 203.

### SECT. CLX.

A class is an affemblage of several general agreeing in the parts of fructification, according

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according to the principles of nature and art; or, in other words, a class is a collection of genera, to all of which one certain common character is so appropriated, as that thereby all the genera of this class may be distinguished from all those of the other classes. That there are natural classes (see above in sect. 77.), such as the umbelliferous plants, verticillate, siliquose, or podded plants, leguminous plants, or pulse, compound plants, grasses, &c. is evident enough. And the artificial classes are only to supply the places of the natural, till the whole of these last be discovered,

#### SECT. CLXI.

The orders are subdivisions of the classes, that too many genera might not occur at once to be distinguished, which might create trouble and difficulty; for ten or twelve genera are more easily distinguished than an hundred.

## SECT. CLXII.

The species and genera are always the work of nature. The varieties are often owing to culture; but the classes and orders are partly natural, and partly artificial.

#### SECT. CLXIII.

The habit or outward appearance of plants is a certain conformity or agreement between vegetables that are nearly allied to each other, or of the same genus in respect to placentation, radication, ramification, intorfion, gemmation, foliation, stipulation, pubescence, glandulation, lactescence, inflorescence, &c. which terms we shall presently explain, only first observing, that the natural method fo much fought after by botanists, is in a great measure deduced from the habit; and that the fructification, which is the invention of the moderns, is not yet fo thoroughly understood, as to discover all the classes of the natural method, though it may be confidered as the primary guide thereto.

I. Placentation is the disposition of the cotyledons or lobes of the seed, at the time when it begins to germinate or sprout. In respect to placentation, plants are said to be, i. Acotyledones, i. e. without cotyledons or lobes, when these are wholly wanting; as in mosses, ferns, slags, and funguses.

2. Monocotyledones, having a single cotyledon (though these are properly acotyledons, since the cotyledons remain within the seed): these are perforate, as in the grasses; unilateral, on one side, as in the palms; or reduced, as in the onion.

3. Dicotyledones,

with two cotyledons; these are either unchanged, as in the leguminous plants, apples, stone-fruit, and the plants of the class didynamia; folded, as in gossipium, or cotton; doubled, as in malva, the mallow, and the plants of the class tetradynamia; rolledup, as in buck-wheat; spiral, as in the glass-wort, marsh samphire, basella, or Malabar nightshade, ceratocarpus, and all the oleraceous tribe, or pot-herbs; reduced,

as in the umbelliferous plants.

II. Radication is the disposition of the root, in respect to the descending and ascending stock, and the radicles; see examples above in fect. 80. Roots may be farther distinguished into, 1. Bulbous, scaly, as in the lily; coated, as in the onion; double, as in the fritillary; folid, as in the tulip. 2. Tuberous, handed, as in orchis; in bundles, as in piony; pendulous, as in the dropwort, and wild olive. 3. Jointed, as in wood-forrel, toothwort, lathraa, and marynia. 4. Spindle-shaped, as in the carrot, parfnep, radish, &c. 5. Globular, as in the earth-nut, bulbous-rooted crowfoot. and the charophyllum bulbofum, or bulbous wild chervil, Pl. VII.

III. Ramification regards the fituation of the branches, which the leaves also observe. Some plants have no branches, though they have leaves on the stem; as in dittany, piony, barrenwort, May-apple. Opposite and alternate leaves on plants for the most part shew them to be widely different, if we except a few, of which some of the species have opposite leaves, and others alternate; as in the *spurges*, cistus, lantana, or pliant-mealy tree, antirrhinum, or snapdragon, lily, and the willow-herb. The lower leaves at the branches are opposite, and the upper leaves at the flowers alternate, in the jasmine, veronica, borrage, and calves-snout. The lower leaves are alternate, the upper leaves on the branches opposite, in the pondweeds, and the potentilla supina, or lesser mountain cinquesoil. The lower leaves are opposite, and the upper fet on by threes, in the nerium oleander, or rosebay. The lower leaves are set on by threes, and the upper are alternate, in ruscus, or the butcher's-broom. The lower leaves are fet on by fours, and the upper are alternate, in coreopsis alternisolia, or Virginia corn marygold with a winged leaf, and antirrhinum chalepense, or the fnap-dragon of Aleppo. The natural fituation of the leaves on plants differently branched, is best learnt from the radical leaves.

IV. Intersion is the bending or turning of any part of a plant towards either side. Caules volubiles, winding or twining stems,

either to the left thus (, as in black bris ony, yams, hops, honeysuckle, buck-wheat; or to the right thus), as in kidney-bean, spurge, convolvulus, hatchetvetch, &c. Cirrhi volubiles, twining clafpers or tendrils, wind to the right, and back again. Most leguminous plants have claspers of this fort. The rough bindweed, and most species of pepper, have claspers on the foot-stalks of the leaves. The corolla bends to the left (i.e. the curvature looks to the right, if you suppose yourself in the center, and looking towards the fouth), in perriwincle, oleander, afcle-pias, periploca, and flapelia; to the right; in pedicularis palustris, or marsh lousewort; &c. Trientalis, or winter-green, is singular in having all the petals imbricate, one fide of each lying over the other to the right. The gentian is imbricate, contrary to the fun, before the petals open. Some pistilla bend to the left, as in cucubalus, and filene, or campions. Some germina, or feed buds, are twisted to the left, as in the screw tree, and meadow-sweet. Of flowers fome have a refupination, that is, the upper lip of the corolla looking towards the earth, and the under lip towards the sky, as in some of the violets, some species of the fatyrium, and the bafil, &c.: others have an obliquity, as in that species of hyffop called lophanthus, the Siberian catmint, and some species of the lousewort. Of spikes, some are spiral, as in claytonia, and many of the rough-leased plants; or crooked, as in saururus, lizard's-tail, the sensitive plant, poppy, red sedum, and martagon lily. In various plants there is sound a twisting of the sibres, which serves as an hygrometer for measuring the degree of moisture of the air; e. g. in the oats, there is an awn, or beard, twisted like a rope; in the geraniums, the arillus of the seed has a spiral tail; and in the bryum bygrometricum, the peduncles, or slower-stalks, are twisted contrary ways above and below.

V. Gemmation is the construction of the bud, which consists of leaves, flipulæ,

foot-stalks, and scales.

Buds of foot-stalks are either,

1. Opposite, as in ligustrum, phillyrea, nystanthes, syringa, hypericum, coriaria, buxus, jasminum, vaccinium, arbutus, andromeda, ledum, daphne, laurus, myrica, linnæa, diervilla, lonicera, euonymus, fraxinus, acer, esculus, bignonia, opulus, sambucus, and psidium: or,

2. Alternate, as in falix, spiræa, genista, folanum, hippophäe, berberis, ilex, ribes, juglans, pistacia, and plumbago.

Buds of stipulæ are either,

3. Opposite, as in cephalanthus, and rhamnus catharticus, or,

4. Alternate,

4. Alternate, as in populus, tilea, ulmus, quercus, fagus, carpinus, corylus, betula, al-nus, ficus, and morus.

Buds, partly of flipulæ, and partly foot-

stalks, are,

5. Alternate, as in forbus, crategus, prunus, mespilus, pyrus, malus, cotoneaster, amygdalus, cerasus, padus, melianthus, rosa, rubus, vitis, robinia, cytisus, potentilla fruticosa, and staphylæa.

Buds are,

6. Irregular, in abies, pinus, and taxus. Buds are wholly,

7. Wanting in feveral plants, as has

been shewn above in sect. 85.

VI. Foliation is that complication or folding which the leaves have whilft they lie concealed within the buds and first shoots of plants. This part of the habit of plants, which has been altogether overlooked by former botanists, contains the following distinctions. The leaves are either said to be,

1. Involuta, rolled in; when their lateral margins are rolled inward in a fpiral form on both fides; as in the honeyfuckle called diervilla, fpindle tree, buckthorn, apple tree, poplar, violet, plantain, ftarheaded water plantain, potamogeton natans, water lily, lizard's-tail, annual ftarwort, hops, nettle, hepatica, dwarf elder, and bladder nut. See tab. XI. fig. 2.

2. Revoluta,

2. Revoluta, rolled back; when their lateral margins are rolled backwards in a spiral form on both sides; as in rosemary, oleander, marsh rosemary, some of the docks, pellitory, primrose, colts-soot, shrubby cinquesoil, &c. See tab. XI. sig. 3.

3. Obvoluta, when their alternate margins embrace the ftrait margin of the opposite leaf; as in pinks, lychnis, fopewort, teazel, fcabious, valerian, horehound, fage,

&c. See tab. XI. fig. 7.

4. Convoluta, rolled together; when the margin of one fide furrounds the other margin of the fame leaf like a hood; as in arum, pepper, frogs-bit, plumb, apricot, lettuce, hawk-weed, goats-beard, bittervetch, tare, peafe-everlasting, starwort, butterwort, whortle-berry, barberry, cabbage, horse-radish, comfrey, houndstongue, eringo, marsh tresoil, saxifrage, dittany, barrenwort, and many of the grasses. See tab. XI. fig. 1.

5. Imbricata, imbricate; when they lie over each other in parallel lines, and with a strait surface; as in fyringa, privet, phillyraa, St. John's-wort, crosswort, pursua, bay tree, spurge-laurel, sea-buckthorn, butcher's-broom, perennial bluebottles, campanula, Greek valerian, &c.

See tab. XI. fig. 6.

6. Equitantia, riding; when the fides of the leaves are parallel, and approach each other in fuch a manner, that the inner leaves are included within the outer (which is not fo in the conduplicate, or following mode of foliation); as in the day-lily, iris, calamus aromaticus, carex, poa, and some other graffes. See tab. XI. fig. 5.

7. Conduplicata, doubled together; when the fides of the leaf are parallel, and approach each other; as in the oak, beach, hazle, hornbeam, lime, cherry, almond, black alder, walnut, ash, forb, rose-bush, bramble, filver-weed, pease, parsnip, and most of the leguminous plants. See tab.

XI. fig. 4.

8. Plicata, plaited; when their complications are in plaits lengthways, like the leaves of lady's-mantle, &c.; as in birch, alder, beach, vine, maple, water elder, currant, marsh mallow, common mallow, hops, nettle, passion-flower, and lady's-mantle. See tab. XI. fig. 8.

9. Reclinata, reclined; when the leaves are turned backwards and downwards to the foot-stalk; as in May-apple, leopard'sbane, anemone, pasque-flower, bepatica, and

tuberous moschatel.

10. Circinalia, lying in wreaths or ringlets; when the leaves are rolled in spirally downwards; as in the ferns, and some of the palm trees.

VII. Stipu-

VII. Stipulation is the fituation and structure of the flipulæ at the base of the leaves. For the flipulæ, as well as the leaves, are of different forms and structure in different plants. 1. In some plants there are no flipulæ, as in the rough-leafed plants, borrage, &c.; plants of the didynamia class, starry plants, madder, &c.; podded plants, as horferadish, &c.; those of the lily kind, orchifes, and many of the syngenesia class. Others have slipulæ, as the papilionaceous plants, those of the icofandria, and also the cassia, sensitive plant, log-wood, and feveral others. 2. Most plants have two stipulæ, one on each side of the footstalk. Some have only a fingle one, as the melianthus, or honey-flower, on the infide: butcher's-broom on the outfide. 3. In some the stipulæ are deciduous; as in the cherry, almond, poplar, lime, elm, ash, oak, beach, hornbeam, hazle, birch, alder, fig, and mulberry, &c. In others abiding, as in the plants of the diadelphia class, and those of the polyandria polygynia. 4. In fome they grow close to the plant; as in the rofe, bramble, cinquefoil, honeyflower, &c. But in most plants they are loofe. 5. In fome they are fituated on the infide of the leaf; as in the fig and mulberry. In others on the outfide of the leaf; as in alder, birch, lime, and the plants of the diadelphia class.

VIII. Pubescence is that armour of plants by which they are defended from external

injuries. This is of feveral forts.

1. Roughness, which is composed of particles scarce visible to the naked eye, that are scattered over the surface of the plant. 1. This roughness is glandular, confisting of little glands, which are either like millet-feed; like little bladders; as in fig marygold; like lentils; globular, as in orrach; ferving for fecretion; like little chains; or like little bottles. 2. This roughness confists of small briftles, which are either cylindrical, conical, hooked, bearing glands, forked, hatchet-shaped, as in hops; aggregate and starry, as in madwort, and screw tree; or aggregate and fimple, as in fea-buckthorn. 3. This roughness consists of joints, which are either fimple, knotty, tailed, branching, as in mullein, or feathery.

2. Wool, which is a preservative for many plants against the bad effects of too much heat; as in the Canary ironwort, Canary sage, the sage called Æthiopis, the horehound, base horehound, mullein, woolly-headed thisse, and the onopordon,

another species of thistle.

3. Down, which has commonly a hoary appearance, ferves to defend plants against winds; as in the woolly Malabar tree, to-mex, finall-trefoil, sea pursane.

4. Strigæ

4. Strigæ (to express the meaning of which the English language has no word) are hard, rigid, and sharp-pointed prickles, disposed in rows, and serve as a defence against the injuries of small animals; as in the torch-thistle, prickly pear, Syrian mallow, bramble, Barbadoes cherry, &c.

5. Hooks: these stick to animals as they pass by; and are either three-pointed, as in lappula; or crooked and bent inwards, as in burdock, horehound, lesser burdock,

Guinea henweed.

6. Stings, keep off naked animals by their venomous points; as in the nettle,

cassava, acalypha, tragia.

7. Prickles, ferve to keep off particular animals; as in brafiletto, caper-bush, cleome, or bastard mustard, aralia, the berry-bearing angelica, sensitive plants, volkameria, pisonia or fingrigo, parkinsonia, coral tree, salse acacia, solanum, rough bindweed, convolvulus, duranta, cotton bush, drypis, some spurges, goats-thorn, goats-beard, and bugonia; in which last the prickles are spiral.

8. Forks, confift of two or three prongs, and ferve as a defence against various animals; as in barberry, gooseberry bush, triple-thorned acacia, fig marygold, hard-seeded chrysanthemum, black horehound, barleria,

fagonia, and prickly burnet.

R 3 9. Thorns,

9. Thorns, or spines, serve to keep off cattle. These are either upon the branches, as in the buckthorn, pear, plumb, sloe, and orange trees, sea-buckthorn, gmelina, common buckthorn, boxthorn, lilythorn, staff-tree, surze, base horehound, restharrow, &cc.; or on the leaves, as in aloe, agave, salie acacia, holly, manchineel, carline thisse, artichoke, bears-breech, juniper, saltwort, milkwort, butcher's-broom, and some of the folanums; or on the calyx, as in the thisse, mad-apple, &c.; or on the fruit, as in caltrops, spinach, agrimony, and thorn-apple.

IX. Glandulation comprehends the fecretory vessels of plants, which are either,

1. Glandulæ, glands properly so called; some on the foot-stalks of the leaves, as in passion-slower; some on the serratures of the leaves, as in willow; some on the base of the leaf, as in the almond, gourd, quick-in-hand, bird-cherry, marsh elder; some on the back of the leaf, as in the tamarisk; some on the surface of the leaf, as in sundew, butterwort; some on the slipulæ, as in the apricot; some like hairs, as in the currant-bush; and others like small pores, as in the tamarisk.

2. Folliculi, or little bags, are vessels filled with air; as in utricularia, or water milfoil, and aldrovanda,

3. Utriculi,

3. Utriculi, or little bottles, are vessels filled with a secreted fluid; as in nepenthes,

marcgravia, and fide-faddle flower.

X. Lactescence, or milkyness of plants, is when a quantity of juice flows out on any injury being done to them. The colour of this liquor is either white, as in the spurges, poppy, dogs-bane, swallowwort, cardinal flower, sheeps scabious, campanula, maple, sumach, milk-parsley, one species of melon-thistle, sow-thistle, dandelion, hawk-weed, goats-beard, nipplewort, and several others, the compound semifloscular flowers of Tournesort; or the colour is yellow, as in celandine, bocconia, puccoon, and gamboge; or red, as in rumex sanguinea, or bloodwort.

XI. Inflorescence is the manner in which flowers are connected by their foot-stalks to the plant; this by former botanists was called a mode of flowering. See tab. VIII. and X. In this respect plants are either,

1. Verticillate, producing their flowers in rings or whorls round the ftem; as in

horehound, &cc.; or,

2. Corymbiferous, bearing their flowers in a *corymbus*; as in mustard, horse-radish, turnips, and all the plants of the *tetrady-namia* class.

3. Spicate, producing their flowers in spikes; as in arum, American nightshade, pepper, and many of the grasses.

R 4 4. Pani-

4. Paniculate, having the flowers in pa-

nicles; as in many of the graffes.

5. Axillary, when the flowers come out from the bosom of the leaves or branches, as do most flowers; therefore the following modes of flowering are rare. 1. When the flowers come out directly opposite to the leaf, as in pepper, lizard's-tail, porkphysic, bittersweet, vine, geranium, water crowfoot, the annual ciffuses, Jew's mallow, and cissus. 2. When the flowers come out alternately between the opposite leaves, as in osclepias, or swallow-wort. 3. When the flowers come out at the fide of the base of the leaf, as in nightshade, claytonia, and all the rough-leafed plants, as goose-grass, madder, &c. 4. When the flower-stalk is inserted into the foot-stalk of the leaf, as in Syrian mallow, and turnera. 5. When the flowers bear tendrils, as in heart-pea, and vine. 6. When the flowers come out above the wings of the leaves, as in the rough-leafed plants, and Montpelier cinquefoil. And here we might mention some other particulars belonging to this subject; e. g. the time of germinating, or how long time feeds take from fowing to springing out of the ground, which in some is very short, as in plants of the tetradynamia; in others a year, as in hypecoum, horned poppy, corn cow-wheat,

and

and ranunculus falcatus; and in others two years, as in the medlar, rofe, cornel, and white thorn; also the time of opening their buds, and time of flowering, which in some is annual, in others oftener; and lastly, the time they take to come to perfection, which is very different in different plants.

#### SECT. CLXIV.

The primary disposition or arrangement of vegetables, ought to be derived from the parts of fructification only. Former botanists urged the insufficiency of the parts of fructification in ferving as a foundation for the classes and genera, when, perhaps, they were not all fo accurately known as at prefent. However, they are now, as defcribed by Linnæus, abundantly fufficient and numerous. See above in fect. 86. chap. IV. All genera, therefore, established on the habit and other circumstances of plants, and not on the fructification alone, are to be rejected. Thus the limodorum of Tournefort, or purple bird's-nest, with a fibrous root, is by Linnæus made a species of orchis. Bistorta of Tournefort, with a fleshy root, is a polygonum. Rapa of Tournefort, with a gibbose root, is a brassica. Sisarum, or skirrers, of Tournefort, with a tuberous root, is a fium. Hermodactytus

modactylus of Tournefort, with a tuberous root, is an iris. Anacampseros, orpine, of Tournefort, with an upright stem, is a fedum. Psyllium, or fleawort, of Tournefort, with a branched stalk, is a plantago. Suber, or cork tree, of Tournefort, with a fungous bark, is a quercus. Larix of Tournefort, with the leaves in bundles or packets, is a pinus. Genistella of Tournefort, or dwarf-broom, with jointed leaves, is a genista. Dracunculus, or dragons, of Tournefort, with pedate leaves, is an arum. Trichomanes, English black maiden-hair, of Tournefort, with pinnated leaves, is an asplenium. Faba, the bean, of Tournefort, with leaves without claspers, is a vicia. Cerasus, the cherry, of Tournesort (facie propria), is a prunus. Abfynthium, wormwood, of Tournefort (facie externa), is an artemisia. Moly, of Boerhaave, with a fweet smell, is an allium. Colocynthis of Tournefort, with a bitter fruit, is a cucumis. There are a great many more examples adduced, but these are sufficient to illustrate our meaning.

#### SECT. CLXV.

Vegetables, which agree in the parts of irudification, are not to be arranged in different claties, orders, or genera. Gefner was the first who suggested this aphorism; Cæfalpinus

Cæsalpinus the first who reduced it into practice; Morison revived, and Tourne-fort improved, this grand discovery in the science of botany.

#### SECT. CLXVI.

Vegetables, which differ or difagree in the parts of fructification, are not to be arranged in the fame classes, orders, or genera. The truth of this rule is evident, it being the reverse of the former.

#### SECT. CLXVII.

The characteristic or distinguishing mark of each genus is to be fixed from the number, figure, proportion, and fituation or connection, of all the parts of fructification. There are seven species of calya, viz. perianthium, involucrum, amentum, spatha, gluma, calyptra, volva. Parts of the corolla two, viz. petalum, and nectarium. Of the stamina three, viz. filamentum, anthera, and pollen. Of the piftillum three, viz. germen, flylus, and fligma. Of the pericarpium eight species, viz. capfula, filiqua, legumen, conceptaculum, drupa, pomum, bacca, strobilus. Of the feed three species, viz. semen, nux, propago. Of the receptacle five, viz. receptaculum proprium, receptaculum commune, umbella, cyma, spadix: in all 38. By the help of these, like so many letters or characters.

racters, we are enabled to read the genera. And each of these parts is to be considered in respect to number, sigure, situation, and proportion; by which means the characters are increased to four times the number, or 152, which being multiplied by 38, the number of parts, produces 5776; and therefore the fructification is sufficient, at least, for so many genera; and we are fure that fuch a great number of genera never existed. From this it plainly appears, that there is no occasion to have recourse to the habit, the colour, magnitude, or any other circumstance in plants, but the fructification alone, in order to constitute, ascertain, and determine, the genera.

#### SECT. CLXVIII.

In establishing the genera we ought to have a particular regard to the habit, lest an erroneous genus should now and then be constituted on too slight an examination. An experienced botanist can often readily determine, from the habit of plants, the tribe or family to which they belong; by this means the habit becomes a check against constituting wrong genera. Thus nigella, belleborus, caliba, are known to be different genera at first fight by their different habit, which is farther consisted by

an accurate examination of their fructification. Again, fambucus and ebulus, agreeing in habit, are to be joined under one genus, as their fructifications also agree. The same may be said of trifolium and triphylloides. The first is tetrapetalous, and the other monopetalous; yet they agree in habit, and are both found to be of the same genus, notwithstanding this slight difference. Though we are closely to consult the habit, yet no mark taken from thence is ever to be expressed among the distinguishing charac-

ters of the genera.

Characters taken from the habit, though not fufficient in themselves to distinguish all the genera, yet often serve to discover a plant at first fight. Such characters may be made in the following manner: in the caryophillei, pink or carnation-like plants, fuch as dianthus, cucubalus, agroftemma, lychnis, saponaria, silene, arenaria, alsine, cerastium, holosteum, sagina, spergula, stellaria, &c.; the cotyledons or lobes are two, the roots are fibrous, the branches oppofite, jointed, and erect; the bending of the piftilla is to the leftward; the leaves in their buds, or first shoots, are obvolute or rolled against each other, lance-shaped, and undivided; they have no flipulæ; scarce any armour offensive or defensive; and, lastly, their mode of flowering is dichotomous or forked.

forked. And thus may the characters be made out in the other tribes of Linnæus's fragments of a natural method in fect. 77. ch. II.

#### SECT. CLXIX.

Those parts of the fructification which ferve to establish one genus, do not necesfarily answer the same purpose in another genus; or, in other words, those parts of the fructification which are constant in one genus, are found to be inconstant in another: thus, in carica, the flowers of the male plant are monopetalous, and those of the female pentapetalous; in myrica, fome species have naked seeds, others berries; in fraxinus, fome have a naked flower, others a corolla; in geranium, some have regular corollæ, others irregular; in linum, some are tetrapetalous, others pentapetalous; in aconitum, some are tricapsular, others quinquecapfular; in trifolium, some are monopetalous, others polypetalous; fome monospermous, others polyspermous. Some have urged, that a monopetalous and polypetalous, a monospermous and a polyfpermous plant, can never belong to the fame genus; and therefore, contrary to nature, they have formed many fpurious genera.

#### SECT. CLXX.

We rarely find a genus in which all the parts of fructification are constant throughout the species. To this inconstancy is owing, the great number of factitious or spurious genera in Tournefort and others; for, although fuch variations afford excellent specific distinctions, they are not sufficient to constitute real genera. All genera therefore grounded on the variation of fome parts of the fructification, are to be rejected. Thus cardaiaca of Tournefort, motherwort, with a five-toothed calyx, is by Linnæus made a species of leonurus. Linaria of Tournefort, toadflax, with a tailed corolla, is an antirrhinum. Glaucium of Tournefort, yellow horned poppy, with a rosaceous corolla, is a chelidonium. Polygonatum of Tournefort, Solomon's feal, with a tubular corolla, is a convallaria. Centaurium minus of Tournefort, with a tunnel-shaped corolla, is a gentiana. Auricula ursi, with a saucer-like corolla, is a primula. Oxycoccus, with a tetrapetalous corolla, is a vaccinium. Porrum, leek with trifid flamina, is an allium. Radiola, all feed with a quadrifid flower, is a linum. There are many more examples, but these are sufficient to illustrate the proposition. For if genera were to be multiplied in this manner, without any necessity, we should fogn

foon have as many genera as species, and the science of botany, as far as it respects arrangement, be at an end.

#### SECT. CLXXI.

In many genera fome striking or fingular mark of fructification is observed, which we call the effential character. Thus the effence of brunella, torenia, euphrafia, alyffum, and crambe, confifts in the teeth of. the stamina; that of curcuma, chelone, bignonia, martynia, in a mutilate stamen; that of ranunculus in its nectarium, which is a fmall prominence in the claw of each petal; that of hydrophyllum in its closed chinks within the divisions of the petal; that of belleborus, and nigella, in their hollow nectaria; that of byofcyamus, in the covering of its feed vessel, by which it is distinguished from winter-cherry; that of pancratium, sea-daffodil, in the infertion of its staming into the upper part of the nectarium, by which it is distinguished from narcissus, where the stamina are placed within the nectarium, and fastened to its tube; that of reseda, in its lateral nectarium; that of campanula, in its five-valved nectarium; and that of iris, in its fingular sigma, which refembles three petals or flower-leaves.

#### SECT. CLXXII.

When any fingular mark of fructifica-tion, peculiar to any genus, is not found in all the species of that genus, we should take care not to confound those several genera, but keep them separate; or, in other words, the striking or singular characteristic mark of every genus must run through all the species. For want of attending to this rule, we are apt to confound genera that should be distinguished. Thus aloe and agave were formerly incorporated into one genus, as were likewise ranunculus and adonis, andromeda and erica. Aloe is now feparated from agave, American aloe, because its stamina are inserted, not into the petals, but into the common receptacle; adonis is separated from ranunculus, because it wants the prominence in the claws of the petal, which is the diftinguishing mark of ranunculus; andromeda from erica, because of the two horns of the antherae, which are more conspicuous in the erica than the andromeda.

### SECT. CLXXIII.

When the striking characteristic mark of any genus is found in another genus near akin to it, we should be careful not to separate one and the same genus into more than it naturally should be, nor to accumulate a whole natural tribe under one genus.

S Thus,

Thus, in fedum, sempervivum, rhodiola, crassula, tillæa, cotyledon, the nectaria adhere to the base of the pistillum. Yet all these distinct genera are not, on this account, to be combined under one genus. So also in epilobium and enothera the calyx is tubulose, yet they are distinct genera. In mespilus, cratægus, and sorbus, the structure of the slower is alike, but they are not therefore to be united into one genus.

#### SECT. CLXXIV.

The more constant any part of fructification is throughout a great number of species, the more certainly it is to be depended on, as a characteristic mark in diftinguishing the genera. The nectarium of the genus hypecoum is constant, but not the jointed pod. The spotted berry of the convallaria, is found in all the species; the corolla in lily of the valley; Solomon's feal, and one blade, which are three species of convallaria, is very different. The corolla of wild fena is constant, but not the pod. In the genus lobelia, which includes feveral genera of other authors, the corolla is con-The feed vessel in cardinal-flower, rapuntium of Tournefort, laurentia of Michelius, and lobelia of Plumier, which are all species of the Linnæan genus, are all different. That of the lobelia of Plumier,

is pulpy; and of the cherry kind, containing a nut, or flone with two cells; whereas in the other species it is a dry membranaceous capsule. In vervain, the calyx and corolla are constant throughout the species; the flamina and seeds are different.

### SECT. CLXXV.

In some genera, one part of the fructification, and in other genera, another part of the fructification, is observed to be more constant than the rest; but every one of them is subject to variation sometimes. Thus we find the pericarpium to vary in the congeners of impatiens, campanula, primula, papaver, cissus, fumaria, and arbutus; the calyx in those of nymphæa, and cornus; the corolla in those of vaccinium, convallaria, andromeda, gentiana, and linum; and the seeds in those of ranunculus and alisma.

#### SECT. CLXXVI.

If the flowers agree, though the fruits differ, such genera ought to be joined. Thus, in cassia, hedysarum, sophora, lavatera, hibiscus, and mimosa; the flowers are similar, but the fruit different in the same genus.

### SECT. CLXXVII.

The figure of the flower is more confant than that of the fruit; the propor-S 2 tion

tion of the parts is very different, but it is always most constant. That the flower is more certain than the fruit, appears by many examples; as from campanula, primula, antirrhinum, alisma, bibiscus, cistus, fumaria, arbutus, clematis, papaver, ranunculus, hesperis, datura.

#### SECT. CLXXVIII.

The number of the parts is more subject to vary than the figure, yet it is best explained by the proportion of number; but flowers varying in number upon the same plant, are to be determined by the primary flower. Thus, in ruta, chrysofplenium, monotropa, tetragonia, euonymus, philadelphus, adoxa, the number of the parts varies from sive to four; the natural number therefore must be determined by the primary flower. But in the variations of the number of parts, there is a proportional affinity; thus in flowers, the stamina vary from ten to eight, and from sive to four; the corolla and calyx from five to four, and the whole flower from four to three; and the fruit from sive to three, and from sive to four.

#### SECT. CLXXIX.

The fituation of the parts is most invariable, scarce ever differing in plants of the same fame genus. For which reason Tourne-fort, in the orders of his classes, reckoned the fituation of the receptacle of great moment.

#### SECT. CLXXX.

Rivinus and his followers have laid too great a stress on the regularity of the petals. For we see in the umbelliferous plants, some have regular corollæ, others irregular, in the same genus; and in the European geraniums the corolla is regular, but in the African geraniums irregular, &c.

#### SECT. CLXXXI.

Nature has made the nectarium of the greatest consequence. The nectarium had not so much as a name before Linnæus described it; but that it is of very great confequence in determining the genera, is evident from the following genera, in which it is the distinguishing mark, viz. orchis, satyrium, monotropa, fumaria, viola, malpighia, bannisteria, adenanthera, commelina, laurus, helxine, dictamnus, zygophyllum, swertia, lilium, fritillaria, hydrophyllum, ranun-culus, hermannia, berberis, staphylea, passiflora, narcissus, pancratium, mirabilis, nerium, stapelia, asclepias, diosma, campanula, plumbago, hyacinthus, rhododendrum, cheiranthus, finapis, kiggleria, clutia, aquilegia, nigella, S 3 aconitum.

aconitum, parnassia, epimedium, theobroma, reseda, grewia, helleborus, isopyrum, tropæolum, impatiens.

#### SECT. CLXXXII.

The flamina and calyx, being less liable to luxuriance, are far more certain than the petals; for there are many plants that vary in the figure of the corolla or petals in the same genus; as in vaccinium, pyrola, andromeda, nicotiana, menyanthes, primula, veronica, gentiana, hyacinthus, scabiosa, narciffus. Some vary in the number of petals; some species, for example, of the ranunculus being pentapetalous, and others polypetalous; as also in helleborus, there are fome pentapetalous, and others polypetalous; and in flatice, there are pentapetalous and monopetalous species; and in fumaria, dipetalous and tetrapetalous. And fometimes the number of petals is found to vary in the fame species, as in carica, jatropha.

#### SECT. CLXXXIII.

The structure of the pericarpium, so much insisted on by former botanits, appears by innumerable examples to be of less consequence than they believed it to be. All genera therefore established on diffinctions of the pericarpium, fruit, or seeds only,

are to be rejected as fictitious; thus, the lycoperficon of Tournefort, having a fruit with many cells, is made a folanum by Linnæus; afarina of Tournefort, having a fruit with many valves, is an antirrhinum; raphanistrum of Tournefort, with a jointed fruit, is a raphanus; onobrychis of Tournefort, with a fruit having one feed, is an hedysarum; anemonoides of Tournefort, with naked feeds, is an anemone; persicaria of Tournefort, with triangular feeds, is a polygonum: there are fixty or seventy examples brought in here by Linnæus of the same kind, but these few are sufficient to illustrate the meaning of this aphorism.

#### SECT. CLXXXIV.

Luxuriant flowers, eunuchs and mutilate flowers, being all monstrous productions of nature, are allowed no place in constituting the genera. In full flowers no number of petals can be assigned, and the flamina in most generic characters of this fort would be totally excluded. Mutilate flowers have no corolla, and for this reason in some species of campanula, ipomæa, and ruellia, the corolla would be wholly excluded from the description, contrary to the nature of the other species.

#### SECT. CLXXXV.

In multiplied and full flowers, the genus may be discovered by the calyx, and the lowest series of petals; and in proliferous flowers, by the offspring. The calyx in full flowers is never altered, and therefore from it we may often discover the genus; as in hepatica, ranunculus, and alcea. And in polypetalous flowers, the lowest series of petals remaining always the same in number, even in full flowers, we may from thence often discover the genus; as in papaver, nigella, and rosa.

#### SECT. CLXXXVI.

Characters (marks or figns) are the definitions or descriptions of the genera; these characters are of three sorts; the factitious, the essential, and the natural. For the habitual character, or that taken from the habit or outward appearance of plants, so much made use of by former botanists before the discovery of the fructification, is now grown obsolete and out of use in determining the genera.

#### SECT. CLXXXVII.

The effential character furnishes the genus to which it is applied, with a single mark so particular and striking, as to distinguish the genus in which it is found,

from every other genus at first fight. It ferves to distinguish such genera as arrange themselves under the same natural order. Its excellence confifts in its brevity. The knowledge of those genera in which it is found, is most easily and quickly acquired; though perhaps not a tenth part of all the known genera can be thus characterized. Out of many examples that might be produced, we shall only mention the following genera, viz. falvia, iris, plantago, parnassia, narcissus, dianthus, ranunculus, acanthus, hibiscus, passifisora. Thus the effential mark of falvia, is its transverse filament; of iris, confifts in its petal-shaped figmata; that of plantago, in its capfule, which splits horizontally; that of parnassia, in its singular nectaria ciliated and globular; that of narcissus, in its tunnel-shaped nectarium, with the petals fastened to its inside; that of dianthus, in having four scales at the base of the calyx; that of ranunculus, in its nectarium, which is a small prominence at the claw of each petal; that of acanthus, in its calyx of three pair of leaves; that of hibifcus, in its outer calyx, which confifts of many leaves; that of passifica, in its crown-like nectarium.

### - SECT. CLXXXVIII.

The factitious, accidental, or artificial character.

character, can only distinguish the genus in the same artificial order, by a greater or less number of characteristic marks, but can never distinguish the genus in a natural order. Such therefore, whether effential or natural, as cannot fufficiently diftinguish the genus in a natural order, are factitious or artificial characters; as those of Tournefort, Ray, Rivinus, &c. It is well defined by Ray, when he fays, " that no more characteristic marks of the genus are to be collected, than are found absolutely necessary in determining the genus with certainty and precision. The characters of the classes and orders only, in the sexual fystem, are artificial, as was before observed at fect. 162.

### SECT. CLXXXIX.

The natural character collects all the possible marks of the genera, and therefore includes both the essential and factitious. Linnæus sirst introduced those characters in his Genera Plantarum. As the natural character includes all the possible marks of the genera, it serves equally well for every system; lays a foundation for other new systems; and remains unchanged, whatever number of new genera may hereaster be discovered; and can only be amended, upon the discovery of new species, by excluding the supersluous marks.

SECT.

#### SECT. CXC.

The factitious character is only fuccedaneous, or ferves to fupply the place of others; the effential is the most excellent, but scarce possible to be had in all the genera. The natural character is, with the utmost difficulty, made out; but, being once made out, is the base of all systems, preserves the genera entire and unchanged, and is applicable to every true system, that has been, or shall be, invented. The factitious characters are fuch as those of Ray, Tournefort, Rivinus, &c. The effential characters being fuch as can diffinguish genera, which have the greatest affinity to one another in a natural order, ferve equally to distinguish such genera when separate from one another. The natural character lays down all the possible characteristic marks, is useful in every method that is, or can be, invented; and affords a foundation to the old and new fystems, that are built upon the fructification.

### SECT. CXCI.

Every true botanist therefore should be acquainted with the natural character. If the essential characters of all the genera were discovered, the knowledge of plants would become easy, and many of the natural characters would be of no value or importance;

importance; but we are to understand that no man can ever be a good botanist without the knowledge of the natural character; for whenever new genera were discovered without the natural character, a botanist would always be at a loss. He who thinks himself an expert botanist from the essential character only, and neglects the natural character, both deceives, and is deceived; fince the effential character, upon the discovery of new genera, must often be fallacious. The natural character is the foundation of the genera, and without it no one can judge rightly of any genus; and therefore I conclude, that it is, and always will be, the absolute foundation of the knowledge of plants.

### SECT. CXCII.

The natural character lays down all such differing and singular marks of fructification as run alike through all the species, omitting the other marks as superfluous. It is a work of infinite labour to limit the characters through all the species. All the parts of fructification are to be examined, even the most minute; since, without the knowledge of the fructification, there is no certainty of the genus.

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### SECT. CXCIII.

No character is compleat and infallible, until it has been applied to all the species. The most finished botanist, and he only, is proper to make out the most compleat natural character, fuch as is applicable to the greatest number of species, every one of which will necessarily exclude some superfluous mark or other. The natural character is made out by the most accurate defcription of the fructification of the first species; then all the other species of that gemus should be compared with the description of the first, and all marks in which they difagree should be excluded, by which means the character will become at last complete.

#### SECT. CXCIV.

The mode of flowering does not afford a proper characteristic mark. That part of the plant on which the fructification is fituated, is not a characteristic mark, though Ray, Rivinus, Heucher, Knaut, Kramer, &c. were of a different opinion; but, being hurtful to the science, it has been rejected by the greatest botanists, as Tournefort, Vaillant, and others. The feveral modes of flowering, as the verticillate, corymbiferous, spicate, paniculate, &c. we have mentioned above, fee fect. 163. Ray, Rivinus.

vinus, Boerhaave, have given the mode of flowering a place in their characters of the genera, that they might follow nature more closely, and have thereby lost fight of nature the sooner.

### SECT. CXCV.

The character should have the name of the genus at top, whose description it is to contain.

### SECT. CXCVI.

Every one of the feven principal parts or species of fructification should, in a natural character, begin a new line, sentence, or paragraph, by which means every thing will appear more distinct, the part in question presently sound, and desiciencies quickly observed.

#### SECT. CXCVII.

The name of the part of fructification should begin the line in different letters or characters; for the same reason as in sect. 196.

### SECT. CXCVIII.

No character should assume any mark of similitude, except it be common and obvious to every body; otherwise it will not be understood by those who are unacquainted

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quainted with the art or science from whence the fimilitude is borrowed.

## SECT. CXCIX.

The character should describe those marks which run alike through all the species in the most compendious terms. The terms of art every botanist should be well acquainted with. From your descriptive characters let all pompous expressions and slowers of rhetorick be excluded, for there is nothing more hateful than the style of an oration in botanical characters. By means of the terms of art, we are enabled to express our ideas in a few words. Let the character of the genus linum, in the florid stile of an oration, serve as an example to illustrate this aphorism.

The external green tegument or covering, which incloses the flower before its expanfion, is, as it were, divided at the base into five equal parts, yet in fuch a manner that each part is of a greater length than breadth, and is narrow at each extremity; the tops of the fections ending in tharp points. Thefe five parts have a perpendicular fituation, and are very short, compared to the leaves of the flower; neither do they fall off with the inner-coloured leaves of the flower, but remain till the fruit is ripe. Within these outward leaves there are also five other leaves.

leaves, which are tender, of a fine colour, oblong, spreading more and more in breadth as they ascend, almost in the shape of a tunnel; they are also much larger than the external green leaves. Then within these five large coloured leaves of the flower there are five thread-like parts at the upper extremity, gradually tapering to a point. These are almost perpendicular, and in length do not exceed the external leaves of the flower. On the top of each is fastened a small, simple, thickish substance, which opens at the base into two acute segments, and scatters a dust. Having taken an accurate view of these parts, we next observe in the center of the flower a certain fubstance, which afterwards grows into the fruit, and about the time of flowering is almost shaped like a little ball, on the top of which are fixed five flender threads, of the fame thickness throughout. stand almost perpendicular, and are of the fame length with the five thread-like parts described above, but these have no thickish heads on their tops, but are turned a little outward. When the time of flowering is over, the fruit grows dry, is almost globular, but marked with five obscure angles, having at the top a sharp point. we cut this fruit transversely, we shall see it internally divided into ten apartments, and and when it opens spontaneously, we shall find that it opens into five equal parts, within which are contained ten seeds nearly of an oval sigure, but longer, and sharppointed at one end, being also a little flat, and their surface smooth and polished.

Now let us hear the character of the fame genus in the comprehensive language

of a botanist.

The calyx, or empalement, confifts of five leaves, which are erect, lance-shaped, acute, small, and permanent.

The corolla has five petals, tunnel-shaped; each being in form of a wedge, obtuse,

fpreading, and large.

The *ftamina* are five tapering erect filaments, of the fame length with the calyx. There are five other withered alternate filaments. The antheræ are arrow-shaped.

The piftillum has an egg-shaped germen; five flyles, erect, filiform, of the length of the flamina. The fligmata are simple and

reflexed.

The pericarpium, or feed veffel, is a roundish five-cornered capsule, with five valves, and ten cells.

The feeds are fingle, egg-shaped, flattish,

sharp pointed, and very smooth.

SECT. CC.

Only the pure and proper terms of art (81-85) are to be used; obscure and erroneous terms are never to be admitted. Neither should doubtful terms be used: for, as Ray observes, the marks of the genera ought to be clear, distinct, and exactly defined; not in obscure and indetermined expressions, of which we are uncertain how far their meaning extends.

Here follows an explanation of fome terms made use of by Linnæus in his gene-

ric characters.

Masculus flos, a male flower, is the sterilis, or barren flower, of Tournefort; the paleaceus, or chaffy flower, of Ray; the abortivus, abortive flower, of other writers.

Apetalus, without petals, is the imperfeetus, imperfect flower of Rivinus; the stamineus of Ray; the incompletus, incomplete flower of Vaillant.

Petalodes, having petals, is the perfectus,

perfect flower of Ray, &c.

Calyculatus, having a calyx, is the com-

pletus, compleat flower, of Vaillant.

Irregularis, irregular, is the difformis, difformed flower, of Jungius; and the anomalus of Tournefort.

Ringens, gaping flower, is the labiatus, lipped flower, of Tournetort; barbatus, bearded flower, of Rivinus; the personatus, masked flower, of Tournefort.

Multifidus.

Multifidus, jagged, is the laciniatus, cut flower, of Tournefort; monopetaloides, of others.

Compositus, compound, is the conglobatus of Pontedera; aggregatus of Knaut; and

the capitatus of Ray.

Planipetalus, flat florets, is the femiflofculosus, half florets, of Tournefort; lingulatus, tongued florets, of Pontedera; cichoreaceus, succory flowers, of Vaillant.

Radiatus, radiated, is the stellatus, starry

flowers, of Morison.

Discus, disk, is the umbo, the shield, of

Anthera is the apex, summit, of Ray;

capsula staminis of Malpighi.

Receptaculum, receptacle, is the fedes, the feat, of Ray; placenta, after-birth, of Boerhaave; thalamus, the bed, of Vaillant.

Amentum, catkin, is the julus, nucamen-

tum, catulus, of others.

Strobilus, is the conus of other botanists.

Drupa, stone-fruit, is the prunus and fructus mollis oscillo, a pulpy fruit with a stone, of Tournefort.

Gymnospermus fructus, is the semina nuda

of Rivinus.

Angiospermus fructus, is semina percarpio tecta, fruit covered with a seed vessel, of Rivinus.

Classis is the ordo of Tournefort; genus fummum, the highest genus of Ray.

C2 Ordo

Ordo is the fectio of Tournefort; genus

subalternum of Ray.

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Linnæus has enriched botany with many new terms; as involucrum, spatha, corolla, anthera, pollen, germen, sigma, legumen, drupa, cyma, axillus, sipula, scapus, braetea, pedunculus, glandula. Terms of art have deterred foolish and ignorant people from meddling with anatomy, mathematics, and chemistry; whereas the want of terms has well nigh demolished the science of medicine. Terms of art are very useful as they affist in just thinking, and expressing any thing in the most compendious manner, providing such terms have true and adequate definitions.

### SECT. CCII.

The characters should be kept immutable and unchanged in all systems, though ever so different one from another. As long as the chief systematic botanists introduced new characters and new ideas of a genus, so long was botany exposed to barbarism in the time of Ray, Tournefort, Rivinus, Boerhaave, Knaut, and others. But now things being a little more settled, although several new methods have been introduced since their time, no detriment has ensued to botany from thence; as appears from the writings of Gronovius,

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Royen, Wackendorf, Gmelin, Guettard, Dalibard, &c.

#### SECT. CCIII.

A genus may consist of one species only, though for the most part the genera consist of several species. There are many genera that consist of one species only, as parnaffia, epimedium, linnæa, limosella, valisheria, theophrasta, cannabis, humulus, butomus, subularia, nepenthes, &c.; and there are many genera that consist of a great number of species, as sedum, convolvulus, saxifraga, antirrhinum, aster, carex, euphorbia, geranium, campanula, silene, hypericum, gnaphalium, salix, allium, potentilla, centaurea, aloe, gentiana, ranunculus, chenopodium, buphthalmum, lichen, &c.

### SECT. CCIV.

What has been faid of the generic characters (164-202) holds true also of the classic; though this last allows of greater latitude in all respects.

## SECT. CCV.

The classes are less natural than the genera, and the orders less than either. From the affinity of some genera to natural tribes or orders, we frequently incur the danger of throwing all T ?

into confusion, by reducing to one genus a whole natural tribe or family. In some of the natural orders the genera have a very fimilar appearance. Many genera of the mallow tribe, as the common mallow, malva, marsh mallow, althua, hollyhock, alcaa, tree mallow, lavatera, Indian mallow, urena, and Syrian mallow, bibifcus, are of this kind. The following genera, taken from three other natural orders, are very timilar in their appearance, and might, by an inaccurate observer, be confounded under three genera only.—I. The house-leek, sempervivum, lesser houseleek, sedum, navel-wort, cotyledon, lesser orpine, crasfula, rofe-wort, rhodiola, and fmall annual houseleek, tillaa. 2. The torch-thistle, caclus, fig marygold, mesembryanthemum, aizoon, and tetragonia. 3. The campion, lychnis, cockle, agroftemma, viscous campion, filene, carnation, dianthus, sope-wort, saponaria, mouse-ear chickweed, cerastium, spurrey, spergula, sand-wort, arenaria, mountain chickweed, mæbringia, and sagina. In this manner feveral natural orders might each be reduced to a fingle genus; and thus the science be as effectually destroyed by the enormous fize of the genera, as former-ly by the unnecessary multiplication of their number. Thus, for example, the starry plants, umbelliferous, podded, and verticillate

cillate plants, the orchises, &c. might each be reduced to a fingle genus.

## SECT. CCVI.

The more natural the classes are (all other circumstances being alike), so much the better and more excellent they are. Those plants that are of the same natural order, tribe, or family, agree in habit, manner of growing, properties, virtues, and uses. The three principal obstacles that have hitherto stood in the way of the natural method, are, 1. A neglect of the habit of plants, particularly the foliation, ever fince the doctrine of the fructification has been cultivated. 2. The want of many foreign genera not yet discovered. 3. An affinity of the known genera to two or more natural orders; e.g. the juncus, to the calamaræ, gramina and coronariæ, which are the third, fourth, and tenth of the natural orders; fee fect. 77. and fo in many others.

### SECT. CCVII.

Classes and orders which are too numerous, or too long, create great trouble and difficulty; ex. g. the pentandria and syngenesia, where the genera are very difficult to distinguish.

### SECT. CCVIII.

In every order, the genera which have the greatest affinity one to another, ought T 4

to be placed next one another. Thus, for example, in the tetrandria monogynia, there are plants of three natural orders, (one example or two of each will be sufficient to illustrate our meaning); of the aggregatæ, which is the 48 natural order, fcabiofa, leucadendron; of the stellatæ, which is the 47 natural order, rubia, asperula; and of the calycanthemæ, which is the 17 natural order, epilobium, ludwigia; now leucadendron should be placed first, and then all those of the aggregatæ, to which order it belongs, should follow; then asperula, and all those of the siellatæ; then ludwigia, and all those of the calycanthemæ.

## SECT. CCIX.

Adhering to the habit for a character of plants, and wholly laying afide or neglecting that of the fructification, the only true principle of fystematic arrangement, is so far from true science, that I cannot help pronouncing it great folly. The great usefulness of an accurate knowledge of the habit of plants has been already allowed, and sufficiently insisted upon, in some of the foregoing sections; but Linnæus will not allow it any place in determining the generic characters, which, according to him, ought to be derived from the fructification only. This being granted, botany (says Linnæus) depends on, is supported

or upheld by, fixed genera; the progress of

which is as follows:

Tournefort, who first formed the generic characters according to the rules of art, constituted about 632 genera.

Plumier added to them 92 genera.

Boerhaave 16. Petit 3. and the

Members of the royal academy at Paris 8.

Vaillant 26, and also began the refor-

mation of botany.

The two Justieus 4.

Ruppius and Dillenius in Germany, 45; afterwards

Dillenius, when professor at Oxford, added 16 new genera.

added 16 new genera.

Pontedera, in Italy, 4.

Micheli, also in Italy, 21.

Buxbaum, a German, 1.

Amman, in Russia, 5.

Houston, in America, 15.

Haller, in Switzerland, 1. Gmelin, in Siberia, 1.

Monti added one genus.

Linnæus examined all these genera according to the rules of art, reformed the characters, and, as it were, formed them all anew in his Genera Plantarum, first published in 1737, and several times since. He added besides 261 genera of his own,

viz. 69 genera of European, 69 genera of Afiatic, 73 genera of American, and 50 genera of African plants, making in all 1136 genera.

In the Systema Natura, 12 Edit. there are 1288 genera, and 7783 species of plants,

## CHAP. VII.

NAMES of the GENERA, &c.

#### SECT. CCX.

A FTER a regular distribution, the next part of practical botany is denomination, or naming the plants: for without names the knowledge of things is entirely lost. Here Linnæus observes, that the names of the antient Greek and Roman writers are generally preferable to those of the moderns.

### SECT. CCXI.

To give true and proper names to plants belongs to the genuine fystematic botanists, and to them only. For such only are able to distinguish the genera, and to know the names which were formerly in use. Many foolish people have given the most absurd names

names to plants; as Paier noster for cyperus, bonus Henricus for chenopodium, noli me tangere for impatiens, morsus diaboli for scabiosa, filius ante patrem for tustilago, mater herbarum for artemisia, surge et ambula for gentiana, suga dæmonum for hypericum, oculus Christi for aster, palma Christi for ricinus, spina Christi for rhamnus, calceus Mariæ for cypripedium, chlamys Mariæ for alchemilla, stragula Mariæ for gallium, labrum Veneris for dipsacus, umbilicus Veneris for cotyledon, calceus Veneris for cypripedium, petten Veneris for scandix, barba fovis for sempervivum.

## SECT. CCXII.

All names used to express vegetables are either those of the classes, orders, genera, species, or varieties. Every plant ought to have both a generic and specific name. But the name of the class and order should never make a part of the name of any plant, but always be understood.

## SECT. CCXIII.

All plants of the same genus ought to have the same generic name. The citron, orange, and lemon, are all of the same genus; yet Tournefort gives each of them a different generic name, viz. citrus, aurantium, and limon. The apple, the pear, and the quince, are all of the same genus;

yet Tournefort gives each of them a different generic name, viz. malus, pyrus, and cydonia; and thereby transgresses against this rule.

### SECT. CCXIV.

On the contrary, all plants of a different genus ought to have a different generic name. Authors have greatly transgressed against this rule; for instance, they have given the name of consolida to many different genera; thus they have called symphytum, consolida major; ajuga, consolida media; brunella, consolida minor; bellis, consolida minima; tormentilla, consolida rubra; cissus, consolida aurea; delphinium, consolida regalis; solidago, consolida sarracenica; comarum, consolida palustris. In like manner they have given the name of trisolium to many different genera; thus they have called cytisus, trisolium arborescens; oxalis, trisolium acetosum; lotus, trisolium corniculatum; medicago, trisolium falcatum; bepatica, trisolium bepaticum; menyanthes, trisolium palustre, &c.

### SECT. CCXV.

The same genus shall have no more than one generic name. Contrary to this rule, authors have given to many plants two different names; as aconitum cæruleum, or nappellus; aconitum salutiferum, or anthora.

## SECT. CCXVI.

All botanists shall call the same genus by one and the same generic name. In contradiction to this rule, we find the asclepias of Tournefort called vincetoxicum by Hk., and birundinaria by Ray; the limosella of Pontedera called plantaginella by Dillenius, and menyanthoides by Vaillant; the bottonia of Boerhaave called stratiotes by Vaillant, and myriophyllum by Ray; the rhadiola of Dillenius called linoides by Ray, and chamælinum by Vaillant.

## SECT. CCXVII.

One and the same generic name, used for the designation of two or more different genera, is to be excluded from all but one. Thus the aconitum of Tournesort is the generic name, and should be retained; but the aconitum of Ray is an belleborus, and should be rejected: so also the ascepias of Tournesort is the generic name for the swallow-wort, and should be retained; but the asclepias of Hk. is the stapelia, another genus, and consequently this name of asclepias should not be used for it.

### SECT. CCXVIII.

He who constitutes a new genus, ought also to give it a name. For it is highly absurd and ridiculous to say with Pluk.

methonicæ

methonicæ folio planta; or with others, to give a plant no other name or title but anonymos, that is to fay, the plant without a name.

### SECT. CCXIX.

The generic name should be immutably fixed, before any specific name is given; that is, before we give names to any of the species. For a specific name without a generic, is like a clapper without a bell, or a pestle without a mortar.

## SECT. CCXX.

Primitive generic names ought not to be introduced into botany. Such are many of the barbarous Indian names.

## SECT. CCXXI.

Generic names, confisting of two entire and distinct words, ought to be banished from the science of botany. Such are the bella donna of Tournefort, for atropa; centaurium majus of Tournefort, for centaurea; crista galli of Dillenius, for rhinanthus; corona solis, for belianthus; dens leonis, for leontodon, &c.

## SECT. CCXXII.

Generic names, compounded of two entire Latin words joined in one, are scarcely tolerable. Such compound words are most beautiful

beautiful in the Greek language, but the Latin does not often admit such, as comaurea, chrysocoma. Linnæus has admitted a few such compound Latin words, as rofmarinus, cornucopiæ, sempervivum, sanguisorba, but forbids the imitation of them in future.

### SECT. CCXXIII.

Generic names confisting of a Greek and Latin word, or two words of different languages, are mongrels, and ought not to be employed or used. Such are, e. g. morinda, cardamindum, sapindus.

### SECT. CCXXIV.

Generic names compounded of two generic names, the one whole, and the other mutilate, as for example, linagrofis, are unworthy of a place in botany, except they are both of Greek extraction, as elæagnus.

## SECT. CCXXV.

A generic name having one or two fyllables prefixed, in order to make it fignify a quite different genus from what it did before, ought to be wholly excluded; as, for example, bulbocastanum, chamænerium, chamæpithys, &c.

### SECT: CCXXVI.

Generic names ending in oides ought to be banished from the science of botany; such as agrimonoides, alysoides, cyperoides, nymphoides, pentaphylloides, rhamnoides, ricinoides, telephioides, tribuloides, &c.

## SECT. CCXXVII.

Generic names, made by the addition of one or more fyllables at the end of other generic names, are very improper; fuch as napellus, myrtillus, lappula, lupinaster, alfinastrum, rapistrum, limonium, fabaria, balfamita, campborata, lapathum, erucago, saliunca, linophyllum, fagopyrum, morocarpus, cotylifolia, &c.

## SECT. CCXXVIII.

Generic names beginning or ending with the same sound, occasion great confusion; as alfine, alsinoides, alsinella, alsinastrum, alsinastroides, juncus, juncoides, juncago, scirpus, scirpoides, cyperus, cyperoides, lycogala, lycopersicon, lycoperdon, lycopodium, nymphæd, nymphoides, micronymphæa, leuconymphæd, &c.

## SECT. CCXXIX.

Generic names, which are not of Greek or Latin extraction, are to be rejected; fuch as bovista, beccabunga, brunella, percepier,

pier, orvala, sarsaparilla, galega, ketmia, albagi, ribes, doronicum, tenga, adhatoda, jabotapita, &c. Yet Linnæus has admitted many barbarous names by forming them like to fome Latin or Greek word; thus, thea, tea, from the Greek word OEA: coffea, coffee, of the Arabians, from ΚΩΦΕΩ, obmutesco; musa of the Arabians, plantain tree (Anton. Musa), the name of a Roman physician; with many others.

#### SECT. CCXXX.

Generic names of plants borrowed from the nomenclatures of zoologists, lithologists, or any other, if henceforth assumed by totanists, ought to be given up to their respective sciences; such as elephas for rhinanthus, erinaceus for hydnum, lagopus for trifolium, meleagris for fritillaria, natrix for ononis, buglossum for anchusa, ephemerum for commelina, locusta for valeriana, balanus for ne: penthes, granatum for punica, sol for helianthus, china for cinchona, patientia for rumex, concordia for agrimonia.

## SECT. CCXXXI.

Generic names used in anatomy, pathology, therapeutics, or mechanics, ought to be exploded; fuch as auricula for primula, epiglottis for astragalus, umbilicus for cotyledon, paralysis for primula, sphacelus for salvia, ptarmica for achillea, cardiaca for leonurus.

leonurus, serra for bisserrula, muscipula for silene, corona for helianthus, solea equina for hippocrepis.

## SECT. CCXXXII.

A generic name, which is contrary to any species of that genus, is a bad one; such as cyanus luteus, convolvulus ereclus, pilosella glabra, unifolium diphyllum; blue bottle with a yellow flower, &c. the abfurdity of which is evident.

#### SECT. CCXXXIII.

Generic names, borrowed from the nomenclatures of the natural classes and orders, ought to be laid aside; such as fungus, alga, muscus, filix, palma, lilium, planta, arbor, frutex, suffrutex, berba, vegetabile.

## SECT. CCXXXIV.

Many of the modern diminutive generic names, formed of Latin words, though none of the best, are nevertheless tolerable; as pulsatilla (pulsare, to beat); from its slowers being beaten and tossed with the wind; nigella (niger, black), from the blackness of its seeds; gratiola (gratia, favour, esseable), from its use in medicine; mitreola (mitra, a mitre), from the shape of its fruit; pyrola (pyrus, a pear), from its pear-shaped leaves; phaseolus (phaselus, a boat, or small ship), from the husk of the feeds resembling a ship; gladiolus (gladius, a sword),

a fword), from its fword-shaped leaves; fpinachia (fpina, a thorn), from its prickly fruit; tustiago (tustis, the cough), from its great efficacy in coughs; with about 70 more names of the same fort, which Linnæus has retained.

### SECT. CCXXXV.

Generic names, which are adjectives, are not so good as substantive nouns, and therefore none of the best; as arenaria, convallaria, clavaria, capraria, cochlearia, eriophorum, echinophora, imperatoria, hepatica, scabiosa, angelica, impatiens, gloriosa, mirabilis, pedicularis, Parnassia, Smyrnium, Colchicum, Samolus, carica, &c. with above 60 more of the same sort; all which, however, are retained by Linnæus.

## SECT. CCXXXVI.

Generic names should not be abused, by giving them to faints, or men renowned in any other art or science, in order to preserve the memory, or court the favour, of such; as for example, herba S. Alberti, for arabis; Antonii, for epilobium; Benedicti, for geum; Christophori, for actea; Gerardi, for egopodium; Georgii, for valeriana; Gulielmi, tor agrimonia; Jacobi, for senecio; Johannis, for hypericum; Kunigundis, for eupatorium; Ladislai, for gentiana; Laurentii, for sanicula; Pauli, for primula; U 2

Petri, for parietaria; Philippi, for isatis; Quirini, for tustilago; Ruperti, for geranium; Simeonis, for malva; Stephani, for circæa; Valentini, for pæonia; Zachariæ, for centaurea; Barbaræ, for erysimum; Catharinæ, for impatiens; Claræ, for valeriana; Crucis, for nicotiana; Mariæ, for tanacetum; Othiliæ, for delphinium; Rose, for pæonia; Divines, as uvedalia, for osteospermum; or Great Men, as bonarota, for veronica.

## SECT. CCXXXVII.

The generic names borrowed from the fables of the poets, fabulous names of their heathen deities, or those consecrated to the memory of antient kings, or other great men, who have promoted the knowledge of botany, ought to be retained. The names common among the antient Greek and Roman poets are the following; viz. Ambrofia, Nepenthes, Cornucopiæ, Protea, Actea, Narcissus, Hyacinthus, Adonis, Crocus, Centaurea, Chironea, Achillea, Pæonia, Cerbera, Amaryllis, Phyllis, Circaa, Andromeda, Daphne, Canna, Syringa, Medeola, Smilax, Mentha, Myrsine, &c. From the names of heathen deities the following genera are denominated; viz. Asclepias, from Æsculapius, the god of physic; Mercurialis, from Mercury, the messenger of the gods; Hymenæa, from Hymen, the god of marriage; Serapias, from Serapis, an Egyptian

Egyptian deity; Satyrium, from the Satyrs, or woodland deities; Tagates, the name of Jupiter's grandion; Nymphæa, from the nymphs who presided over waters; Naias, from the Naiads, or goddeffes of rivers and fountains; Nyssa, the name of a nymph; Dryas, from the Dryads, deities of woods and trees; Atropa, the name of one of the Furies, &c. From names of antient kings and queens; as, Eupatorium, from Eupator, king of Pontus; Gentiana, from a king of Illyria; Lysimachia, from Lysimachus, king of Sicily; Telephium, from a king of Mysia; Teucrium, from Teucer, king of Troy; Pharnaceum, from Pharnaces, king of Pontus; Artemisia, the wife of Mausolus fo called; Althaa, wife of Oeneus fo called; Helenium, from Helen, wife of Menelaus, &c. From the names of the improvers and patrons of botany; Eugenia, from prince Eugene; Petrea, from Lord Petre; Sherardia, from William Sherard, Esq; Cliffertia, from Geo. Clifford, J. U. D. Stewartia, from the right hon. John Earl of Bute, &cc.

## SECT. CCXXXVIII.

Generic names, made to preferve the memory of any excellent botanists, ought to be kept facred. For as this is the only and highest reward of their labour, it ought to be of facred estimation, and only difpenfed to those of great merit in this department.

partment, that others may thereby be incited to cultivate and adorn the science. Of such generic names Linnæus has upwards of 200, but I shall only mention a sew; as Aldrovanda, Alpinia, Baubinia, Boerhavia, Cæsalpinia, Catesbæa, Dillenia, Dodonæa, Frankenia, Fuschia, Gerardia, Hermannia, Houstonia, Jungermannia, Kempseria, Linnæa, Martynia, Morisona, Ovieda, Parkinsonia, Raiana, Sherardia, Sibbaldia, Sloanea, Theophrasta, Tournesortia, Valisneria, Waltheria, Ximenia, Zanichellia, Zinnia, &c.

## SECT. CCXXXIX,

Generic names in use, and not contrary to the foregoing rules, other circumstances being equal, should be retained. Now generic names are faulty, or contradict the rules before laid down, in three several respects; 1. In being contrary to the genus: see what has been said above in sect. 215, 216, 217. 2. In being ill-constructed, or badly formed: see sect. 220—229. 3. In being given improperly: see sect. 231, 232, 233. 236. There are many obscure Latin and Greek names of plants, the origin or derivation of which is not known, or at best but dubious; and also several which are considerably altered from the original words, arising from the erroneous reading of the antient manuscripts. All these, which

which are above 200, ought to be retained according to this aphorism, as they are not contrary to the rules before laid down. I shall mention a few examples of each fort; as aloe, borassus, cactus, daucus, eryngium, fucus, geum, hibiscus, isatis, lichen, melica, nardus, oryza, peziza, rhamnus, sinapis, taxus, vella, ulex, xyris, zea .- Acer, bellis, carex, ervum, ficus, genista, bedera, ilex, laurus, malva, opulus, panicum, quercus, rofa, fambucus, filia, verbena, ulmus, ulva. - Agrimonia for argemonia, aquilegia for aquilina, betonica for vettonica, brassica for MPASIKH, coriandrum for coriannum, diapensia for diapenthes, euphrasia for euphrosyne, gomphrena for gromphena, P. lupulus for upulus, malope for malache, borrago for corago, betula for betulla, equisetum for equiselis, P. myrsine for myrsinum, P. melothria for melothron, P. phleum for phleos, P. spira for spiran, P. &c.

## SECT. CCXL.

Generic names, which exhibit the effential character or habit of plants, are preferable to all others. The effential character can but feldom be expressed in the names; as belieteres, the screw tree, from EAIE a fcrew, and some others. 1. The habit indicates some similitude or likeness, by which the idea is excited in the mind, and from the idea the name is derived. Of this fort there are near 400 generic names. I shall give a

few examples to illustrate the meaning of this aphorism. 1. From the habit; as glycyrrhiza, literally, the fweet root; liriodendrum, the lily tree; bamatoxylum, red wood; eriocaulon, woolly stem; bydrophyllum, water leaf; chrysocoma, yellow top; galanthus, milk-white flower; melanthium, black flower; xeranthemum, dry flower; trichostema, capillary stamina; dianthera, double antheræ; ceratocarpus, horny fruit; tetragonotheca, quadrangular capsule; lithospermum, hard or stony seed; melampyrum, black grain; chrysobalanos, golden drupa or flone fruit; echinops, like a hedge-hog; eriocephalus, woolly head; leontodon, lion'stooth; cynoglossum, hound's-tongue; melastoma, black mouth; buphthalmum, ox eye; myosotis, mouse ear; tragopogon, goat'sbeard; anthoceros, horned flower; alopecurus, fox-tail; polygonum, many joints; ornithopus, bird's-foot; chrysosplenium, golden .fpleen; bupleurum, ox rib; diosma, Jupiter's perfume. 2. From animals; as tragacantha, goat's-thorn; geranium, like a crane; orchis, a testicle; pteris, winged. 3. From instruments or utenfils; as lychnis, a lanthorn; othonna, flaxy. 4. From the structure; as adoxa, inglorious; aizoon, live for ever; gnaphalium, downy; drosera, like dew. 5. From the medicinal virtue; as panax, universal medicine; poterium, a cup; oxalis, four; picris, bitter. 6. From the foil, or place

place of growth; as origanum, mountain's joy; hydrocharis, delight of the water; potamogeton, near the river. 7. From various circumstances; as theobroma, food of the gods; cypripedium, Venus's thoe; ornithogalum, bird's-milk; anemone, wind flower; crategus, strong; fcandix, shepherd's needle, &c.

### SECT. CCXLI.

The Greek names of plants, made use of by the antients, are to be found in the writings of Hippocrates, Theophrastus, and Dioscorides, &c. and the Latin names in Pliny, the writers on husbandry, and the

poets.

Of the former fort Linnæus has given us about 362, and of the latter 427. I shall give a few examples of each; as acanthus, bromus, cannabis, Daphne, elymus, gentiana, Helenium, isatis, lathyrus, mentha, Narcissus, ononis, panax, rhamnus, Smyrnium, vella, xanthium, zea.—Acer, bellis, caltha, ductylos, ervum, sicus, genista, hedera, ilex, lilium, malva, nepeta, ophrys, panicum, quercus, rubia, salix, tilia, vaccinium, ulva, zoster.

## SECT. CCXLII.

An antient generic name agrees best to an antient genus. This Linnaus has done, when the generic name consisted of two Latin words, by changing the name into one Greek word of the same import; as Dens

Dens leonis into leontodon, ferrum equinum into hippocrepis; or by changing two words into one thus, gramen parnassi into parnassia, lilium convallium into convallaria; or by shortening the name when too long thus, instead of calophyllodendron, calophyllum, for saphylodendron, saphylæa, for tetragonocarpus, tetragonia, for hydroceratophyllum, he has put ceratophyllum, &c.

### SECT. CCXLIII.

A generic name, that is worthy to be retained, ought not to be changed for any other, though more fit and proper. Thus menyanthes, on account of its woolly flower, might more properly be called erianthus, woolly flower, or lafianthus, hairy flower. But fuch innovations ought by no means to take place, because new names more fit might be every day invented without end.

## SECT. CCXLIV.

New generic names ought not to be made, so long as there are any of the synonymous names that deserve to be retained. When new genera are discovered, new names ought to be given them; but if an antient genus must be divided into two or more, it is proper not to coin new generic names, so long as there are any of the synonymous names belonging to any of the species

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species of that genus, worthy to be retained.

## SECT. CCXLV.

The generic name of one genus, unless it be superfluous, ought not to be transferred or given to another genus, though it would suit it better. For who at this time would change the names which have been long in use among the moderns, for those of the antients, supposing we certainly knew what plants they gave such names to, which is often not the case? Thus the hyacinthus of the antients is the delphinium of the moderns, and the tribulus of the antients is the fagonia, and the opulus of the antients is the humulus, of the moderns, &c.

### SECT. CCXLVI.

If any genus, received according to the rules of nature and art, ought to be divided into two or more genera, then the original name shall be given to the most common and officinal plant. Thus, supposing the genus cornus were to be divided into three genera, viz. the cornus mas for one genus, the cornus offea for the fecond, and the cornus offea for the third; the original generic name of cornus should be given to the most common, which is the cornus mas,

## SECT. CCXLVII.

Generic names are to be written in Roman and not Greek characters; as androfæmum not ΑΝΔΡΟΣΑΙΜΟΝ, &c.

### SECT. CCXLVIII.

The termination and found of generic names ought to be made as easy as possible. There are some unusual terminations, as tetrahit, hedypnois, &c. and some ill-sounding words, as caraxeron, &c. which should be wholly rejected.

#### SECT. CCXLIX.

Generic names that are too long, very difficult to pronounce, or difagreeable in found, are to be rejected. Too long, as kalophyllodendron of Vaillant, which is the calophyllum of Linnæus; the hydrophyllocarpodendron of Boerhaave, which is the protea of Linnæus. Difficult to pronounce, as acrochordodendros of Plumier, i. e. cephalanthus of Linnæus; the flachyarpogophora of Vaillant, i. e. achyranthes of Linnæus. Difagreeable found, as galcobdolon of Dillenius, i. e. leonurus of Linnæus, &c.

### SECT. CCL.

To make use of terms of art in the room of generic names is very wrong, and highly improper, as tuberosa H. for polianthes, graminisolia

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minifolia R. for subularia, spica H. for laven-dula, &c.

#### SECT. CCLI.

What has been faid of generic names holds true also of the names of classes and orders; each of which ought to have a name proper to itself, one and the same name always, not a primitive, foreign, mongrel, barbarous, nor equivocal word, not contrary to the class or order, not derived from any man's name, not too long a word, not difficult to pronounce, &c.

## SECT. CCLII.

Names of classes and orders, taken from the virtues, root, herb, and habit, are bad, and very improper; as cordialis, capillaris, bulbosæ, tuberosæ, asperifoliæ, succulentæ, verticillatæ, siellatæ, dorssferæ, arbores, frutices, &c.

## sect. ccliii.

Names of classes and orders should include the effective class and order; as papilionaceæ, T. cruciformes, T. syngenistæ, L. &c.

## 7 LSECT. CCLIV.

Names of classes and orders taken from the name of any plant, by which the antients meant a whole tribe, are excluded from the genera, and ought only to be used in the natural orders; as palma, filix, &c.

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SECT. CCLV.

The names of classes and orders should consist of a single word; as campaniformes, monopetali, monandria, personati, tripetali, triandria, &c.

## CHAP. VIII.

# Of Specific Differences.

SECT. CCLVI.

Plant is faid to be compleatly named A When it has got both the generic and when it has got both the generic and fpecific name. A young botanist should know all the classes; a candidate should be acquainted with all the genera; and a mafter in the science should know the greatest part of the species: for the greater number of species he knows, so much the better botanist he is. And it is a certain truth, that all folid erudition and true natural knowledge depends upon knowing the species. Now the knowledge of a species confists in some essential mark or character, by which alone it may be distinguished from all other species of the same genus. Without the knowledge of the genus there is no certainty of the species. The specific difference contains the marks wherein

wherein one species differs from others of the same genus. But the specific name contains only the effential marks of the difference.

### SECT. CCLVII.

The true or legitimate specific name ought to diftinguish a plant from all its congeners, i. e. from all the other species of the same genus; but for the trivial name there are not hitherto any fixed rules. This rule is the foundation of the specific names; and if this foundation is neglected, all will be full of uncertainty. For all specific names, which do not distinguish a plant from its congeners, are false; and all fpecific names, which distinguish a plant from others besides its congeners, are also false. It follows, therefore, that the specific name is the effential difference. Trivial names, confifting of a fingle word, taken from any remarkable circumstance whatever, may, and ought, to be used, being very convenient on account of their brevity. Thus pyrola, with ascending flamina, and a declining pointal, is the pyrola irregularis; pyrola, with the flowers in scattered clusters, and the stamina and pistilla upright, is the pyrola balleriana; pyrola, with clusters on one fide of the flowering stem only, is the pyrola secunda; pyrola, with

with flowers growing in an umbel, is the pyrola umbellata; pyrola, with a naked stem bearing only one flower, is the pyrola uniflora. But the consideration of trivial names is no part of our intention here, being at present only to treat concerning specific differences.

#### SECT. CCLVIII.

The specific name ought to discover the plant to which it belongs at first fight, fince it contains the specific difference inscribed upon the plant itself. The names of the old botanists, and especially of the most antient, were trivial, or rather trifling and infignificant. The natural character of a fpecies is the description; but the effential character of a species is the difference. Linnæus was the first who began to form the effential specific names, there being no specific distinctions formed before his time worthy of notice. Many of the most excellent modern botanists have followed the fame method, as Royen, Gronovius, Guettard, Dalibard, Haller, Gmelin, Burman, Linnæus's specific names have extracted the differences out of the description, and out of the differences have inveftigated the most select essential character peculiar to each. All accidental marks, which do not exist in the plant itself, or

are not obvious to our fenses, such as time, place, duration, use, ought to be wholly excluded from the specific name. All specific names also are erroneous, which are derived from the order of our ideas, or from supposition; as tinus prior, tinus alter, tinus tertius, meum spurium, acorus verus.

### SECT. CCLIX.

The specific name ought to be taken from such parts of plants as are not subject to variation. Among former botanists the species were multiplied by reckoning up all the varieties as real species. This proceeded either from the fear of confounding different species, or from the want of effential differences or diffinctions, or from the ignorance of the continued generation of the species (see sect. 79. 132.), or from the obscure knowledge of a distinct species, or from the contagious folly of florists, and a study of minute distinctions, &c. The colour, smell, taste, roughness, crispation, impletion, and monstrous structure of plants are very variable, feldom permanent. The patrons of varieties, who have adopted them in the room of real species, were principally fome very late botanists, viz. Barrelier, Tournefort, Boerhaave, Pontedera, and Micheli. There is not any one thing which has done more diffredit to botany

botany than the introduction of the varieties, and thereby confounding the fynonyms. Micheli has reckoned up no less than 16 varieties of the common Dutch clover, and described them as so many species.

## SECT. CCLX.

Magnitude or largeness doth not properly distinguish the species one from another; for it varies according to the place, soil, climate, and quantity of nourishment, in the same manner as in animals. And if the magnitude is variable, and yet does not change the species, it cannot give to the specific name any essential difference. Therefore all specific names, taken from the largeness of the plant, leaves, or fructification, are erroneous; as alsine altissima, nicotiana latisolia, magnolia store ingenti, &c.

## SECT. CCLXI.

Comparative marks with other species of a different genus, are false distinctions. Former botanists pre-supposed beginners to have an empirical knowledge of most European plants, and therefore their writings were rather proper for the perusal of expert botanists; but Linnæus's whole endeavours are to teach the principles of the

art scientifically to the ignorant. According to the rules of art, a plant should be mutually known from its specific name, and the name from the plant, and both from their proper character, written in the former, and delineated in the latter; any other character besides cannot be admitted. For names pre-supposing the knowledge of other plants have led men round in a circle; as for example, Jacobæa bieracii folio, hieracium blattariæ folio, blattaria verbasci folio, verbascum conyzæ folio, conyza salviæ folio, salvia hormini folio, horminum betonicæ folio, betonica scrophulariæ folio, scrophularia melissæ folio, melissa plantaginis folio, plantago coronopi folio, coronopus senecionis folio, senecio facobææ folio. All specific names, which include a similitude or likeness to the leaf, flower, or habit of any other plant, Linnæus pronounces false and erro-neous; as for instance, facobæa betonicæ folio, adonis buphthalmi store, clinopodium ori-gani facie, admis helleboroides, brassica asparagoides, cirsium bellebori nigri radice.

### SECT. CCLXII.

Comparative marks with other species of the same genus are not good, or proper distinctive marks. A specific name cannot be made true and permanent, unless all the species of the same genus are present,

fince it must contain that mark or character which is not to be found in any other of the species of the same genus; it therefore belongs to a master in the science to make a specific name, and to the learner to know a plant from such a name. Now a learner cannot collect the species; but should endeavour to know one after another, since they neither grow together, nor exist together. Therefore all specific names are erroneous, which suppose another species of the same genus known; as orchis slore candidissimo, campanula angustifolia, magno store, minor. Campanula, store minore, ramosor.

## SECT. CCLXIII.

The name of the first finder or discoverer, or of any other person whatsoever, should never be admitted into the specific difference. Names are, as it were, the hands of plants, of which the generic is the right, and the specific name the left hand; they may be compared to those who will give no credit nor trust to any thing but what they see; let those therefore be presented to a botanist, which are incapable of deceiving him. For we hold all fuch specific names to be erroneous, which are formed from the name of the first discoverer or describer, or from fomething in the history of the plant, or given

given as a memorial of any one; e.g. trifolium Gastonium, conyza tertia Dioscoridis, conyza media Matthioli, campanula a Carolo Tossano missa, amanita divi Georgii.

#### SECT. CCLXIV.

The place of growth does not diffinguish the species. The place of growth ought not to make a part of the specific name, for the following reasons. 1. No one would readily go to Japan, the Cape of Good Hope, or Peru, in order to know a plant. 2. The place of growth is often changed; and all the Alpine plants, and those that grow on very high mountains, out of the Alps become marshy plants. 3. The fame species has not one place of growth only; for Lapland, Siberia, Canada, Asia, America, often produce the same species. 4. A botanic garden, well furnished, often contains plants from all parts of the globe. 5. Who would not endeavour to know or find out a plant that was given him, without knowing the place of growth? 6. Botanists love to know the species in a hortus siccus; physicians and apothecaries, in the shops. 7. The place of growth is only relative to us, and our knowledge here in Europe. So that a place of growth (which every plant must have) is accidental, and very changeable; and therefore

therefore ought not to make a part of the specific name. For all such names are false and erroneous distinctions, whether taken from the soil, country, frequency or scarcity of plants; as valeriana sylvestris, palustris, campana, montana, Alpina, cochlearia Anglica, pulmonaria Gailica, aster Atticus, cananthe rara, hydrocotyle vulgaris, muscus vulgatissimus.

SECT. CCLXV.

The time of flowering of plants, and their springing out of the ground, are most fallacious distinctions. Time is accidental with respect to a plant, for it existeth not in a plant, but rather a plant existeth in time; the times of plants are no constituent parts, and are very liable to change. Pluquenet and his cotemporaries introduced from both the Indies an amazing number of plants, which were not properly defined either as to the genera or species, for which reason I cannot say whether this tended more to the advantage or disadvantage of botany. A house built upon a bad foundation should be pulled down, and rebuilt on a fure and folid one; whatever is ferviceable of the old materials should be used, and the rest rejected; though the work should be slow in coming to a conclusion: fo also should it be with regard to specific names, that botany may at last be established

blished upon a firm foundation. All specific names therefore, taken from the time, whether the year, month, day, or hour, are false and erroneous; as tulipa præcox, tulipa serotina, crocus vernus, geranium æstivale, crocus autumnalis, aconitum byemale, rosa omnium calendarum, viola Martia, rosa Maialis, boletus fulii mensis, boletus Augusti mensis, lychnis noctifiora, althæa horaria.

#### SECT. CCLXVI.

The colour, which varies amazingly in the fame species, can be of no service in specific distinctions. The inconstancy of colour may be plainly feen in our domeftic animals. Nothing is more mutable and inconstant than the colour in flowers; the red and blue flowers, of all others, most readily and frequently change into white. The flowers of Marvel of Peru and sweet Williams, have the corolla of different colours even in the same plant. The colour wonderfully attracts and delights the eye; the most noble and penetrating of our fenses. Botanists therefore, through great carelessness and indolence, were easily attracted by colours, but there is no dependance on them. Hence the labours of florists took their rise, to the great disgrace and discredit of botany. For none ever ran to fuch extravagant lengths as they have done; witness X 4.

witness in the tulip, anemone, ranunculus, hyacinth, polyanthus, &c. Tournefort, who joined the florists, saw, as it were, through a multiplying glass 63 species of hyacinth in one, and 93 species of tulip in one, more than there really were. All specific names therefore, taken from the colour of the flower, fruit, feeds, root, plant, leaves, or any imaginary quality, are false and erroneous. Leaves are faid to be coloured when they assume any other colour than green. These vary exceedingly, and often lose that strange colour, which in some is variegated with white fpots; as in the fow-bread, creeping ranunculus, Dutch clover; in others, with black spots, as in the cuckowpint, ivy-leafed ranunculus, and fome orchises; in some, with red spots, as the amaranthus tricolor; in some, chequered, as in Venus's flipper, and some of the satyriums; in some, dotted on the underside of the leaf, as in pimpernel, and sea plantain; in some, with a white line, as in the striped Canary grafs, and empetrum on the underfide of the leaf; in some, with a white margin, as in the holly and box, &c. But to return: we will now give a few examples of fuch erroneous specific names as are taken from the colour, 1. of the flower; as primula veris flore luteo, rubro, albo, ferrugineo; auricula ursi flore coccineo, purpureo, violaceo, variegato. - gato. 2. Of the fruit, as melo fructu luteo, cucumis fructu albo, pepo fructu variegato; prunus fructu atro-cæruleo, flavo, cerei coloris. 3. Of the feeds, as papaver semine albo, nigro, sinapi semine rufo, luteo. 4. Of the root, as daucus radice atro-rubente, aurantii coloris, lutea. 5. Of the plant, as braffica viridis, rubra, alba; marubium album, nigrum, hyofcyamus niger, martagon cruentum. 6. Of the leaves, as agriiolium foliis ex luteo variegatis, &c. ocymum maculatum. 7. Or from any imaginary quality, as alypum f. frutex terribilis, campanula pulchra, filix saxatilis elegantissima.

## SECT. CCLXVII.

The fmell can never clearly diftinguish the species. The smell is, of all other qualities, the most variable; different in different subjects. As many individuals, so many different smells, even in the same species sometimes. This appears from dogs finding out their mafters in a croud. Smells admit of no determined limits, nor can they be defined; and therefore all specific names are defervedly exploded as erroneous, which admit of finell as a mark of distinction; e. g. bypericum bircinum, melo moschatus, hesperis noctu olens, caryophillus inodorus, ocymum citri, anifi, fæniculi, melissæ, cinnamomi, rutæ odore, &c.

SECT.

SECT. CCLXVIII.

The taste, which often varies in respect of the person who tastes, should wholly be excluded from specific distinctions. At different times of life people judge differ-ently of tastes, which we also know are much altered by diverfity of foil and climate; and many plants, by nature four, austere, harsh, bitter, and disagreeable, are rendered mild, fweet, pleafant, and wholfome by culture; witness the cichoreum sylvestre, endive, which is very bitter; lactuca sylvestris, narcotic and poisonous garlick, which in Greece has not that strong smell as with us; apium palustre, very disagreeable, wild crab apple, extremely four: but culture has multiplied that and the pear into fuch a number of varieties, that Boerhaave reckons 172 of the latter, and 200 of the former; each of which, on account of fomething peculiar in their tafte, hath got a distinct proper name. All specific names then, derived from the taste, are ridiculous, and ought to be excluded from specific distinctions; as apium ingratius, dulce, . lactuca opii succo viroso, lactuca mitis, pisum cortice eduli, pyrus fructu saccharato ore deliquescente.

SECT. CCLXIX.

The medicinal virtues and other uses of plants afford vain and erroneous diffinc-

tions to a botanist. For by this method of distinguishing the species, experiments must be tried in order to ascertain their virtues, fo that, in tasting the mancheneel, e. g. one would try the most dangerous experiment, and the flightest taste of one species of arum, mentioned by Sir H. Sloane, inftantly takes away the use of speech. The medicinal plants, and their names, should be placed among the synonyms. And physicians have no right to prescribe names to botanists, seeing they themselves do not recede from the use of their own officinal names. Are we, on their account, to make of the turbith, scammony, mechoacan, cneorum, soldanella, &c. so many distinct genera, contrary to the laws of nature, which has comprehended them all under one, viz. the convolvulus; or of one and the same genus Punica are we to make several genera of plants, viz. of the flowers one, under the name of balaultium; another of the fruit, by the name of granatum; and a third of the peel, under the name of malacorium? Wherefore we pronounce all fuch specific names as the following to be false and erroneous, viz. agrimonia officinarum, solanum lethale, aconitum salutiferum, genista scoparia, rubia tinetoria, dipsacus fullonum, menyanthes antiscorbutica, rhamnus catharticus, solanum somniferum, pisum cortice eduli, Punica quæ malum granatum fert.

## SECT. CCLXX.

The fex can never in any case constitute different species. Here we understand males and females in the diacia class, or in distinct individuals of the same species. Many authors have constituted distinct species of males and females, which differed in nothing but the fex, and therefore ought not to be distinguished into two separate species; e.g. urtica mas, and femina, humulus mas, and femina, cannabis mas, and femina: Nay, the more antient botanists distinguished many plants into males and females, where there were not distinct sexes, but very different plants; as the male and female anagallis, aristolochia, abrotanum, abies, amaranthus, balsamina, caltha, ciftus, cornus, crista galli, ferula, filix, mandragora, nicotiana, orchis, pæonia, pulegium, quercus, symphytum, tilia, veronica.

## SECT. CCLXXI.

Monstrous flowers and plants all have their origin from simple and natural ones, and are therefore never to be taken for diftinct species. Of multiplied, full, and proliferous flowers, all which are monstrous productions, we have spoken under sect. 119, 120, 121, 122, and also in sect. 150. These monstrous productions are frequently owing to culture, and too much nourishment.

nourishment. No one ever reckoned monflers in the animal kingdom for distinct species; and for the same reason monstrous plants ought not to be taken for distinct species. Let your large, multiplied, full, and proliferous flowers be banished from botany, and an amazing number will thereby be cut off, which has long been a burden to the science.

### SECT. CCLXXII.

Pubefcence, or the armature of plants, is a ridiculous diffinction; fince plants often lose it by culture or change of place. The most fierce animals by culture are made surprizingly tame; and we also see the same thing in plants very common. Trees cultivated in gardens often lose their spines, and instead of a sour and harsh fruit, produce mild and agreeable fruit; witness the pear, citron, lemon, orange, medlar, goofeberry, artichoke. Wild fuccory or endive has rough leaves, with large finuses and teeth, of a very bitter disagreeable taste; but the cultivated fort has its leaves more entire, very fmooth, and of a pleasant taste. Plants also very often lose their roughness by age or change of place. The beech at first springing up out of the ground is very rough, and foon after becomes smooth; the young plants of the

the beliocarpus have hairy leaves, but the full-grown, smooth ones; the triumfetta when young is downy, the old plants quite rough; the woodroof in the woods is hairy, in open places rough; the peren-nial arimant growing in wet places is very fmooth, in dry places rough; mother of thyme in open fields is smooth, on the fandy fea-beach rough; the devil's-bit in open places is fmooth, in woods a little rough; buckthorn plantain in a moist soil has fmooth whole leaves, in dry foil rough leaves with teeth; the martagon lily in the woods is rough, in gardens exceedingly fmooth; the palmated lady's-mantle in open dry funny places is fmooth and yellowish, in spongy and shady ground its leaves are green and hairy. A mild climate often renders plants more mild; and on the contrary, a fevere cold climate renders them more harsh. We are not therefore to have recourse to the roughness or fpines of plants for a specific character, unless we are obliged thereto by the greatest necessity.

## SECT. CCLXXIII.

Duration often respects the place of growth more than the plant, and therefore should not be admitted into specific distinctions. Warm countries, which enjoy perpetual

petual fummer, produce plants which scarcely suffer any decay the whole year round; hence it is, that very many plants in those countries are perennial and shrubby, which with us become annual; as the tropæolum, or Indian cress, the beet, marjoram, and tree mallow, &c. Cold countries make perennial plants become annual; as the marvel of Peru, Ricinus or palma Christi, &c. From the duration of plants therefore no specific difference should be taken, unless it is manifestly unchangeable.

#### SECT. CCLXXIV.

A multiplication, or great increase of the parts of plants, often varies according to the place of growth, and is therefore no proper distinctive mark of the species. A creeping stem, by putting out roots at every joint, generally multiplies exceedingly. Plants are multiplied either by the soil, or in the root, stem, leaves, or fructification. A plant is faid to be frequent and common, which in a proper foil grows spontaneous and plentiful. A plant is called cæspitosa, which has a number of stems coming from one and the fame root. This circumstance is not constant, for such a plant in a poor thin foil can hardly produce one stem; and on the contrary, a stem lopped off near the

root in a plant which commonly produces but one, shall in that case put forth many stems. A plant is called fasciata, when several stems grow close together in a bundle or packet, so as to appear like one. The fame may be done by art, if feveral stems are forced to penetrate through a narrow hole or space. This is frequently done in the ranunculus, beet, asparagus, dame's-violet, pine, celofia, or cock's-comb, goat's-beard, stinking May-weed, amaranthus. A plant is called plicata, when a tree or arm of a tree grows up with very fmall twigs, interwoven, plaited, or matted like a magpye's neft, which the vulgar think is the work of some demon. It is common in the birch of Norland, and in the hornbeam of Scania, and is often feen also in the pine. Curled leaves (sect. 63.83.) are those whose circumferences are increased, so that their edges flow like waves. Bliftered leaves are when the difk is increased, so that the substance of the leaf on the upper fide rifes like cones, hollow below; as in the bafil, and many of the fages. That multiplied, full, and proliferous flowers, have their origin from fimple ones, has been already explained, 119. 122. 150. and 271. Several plants are no more than varieties multiplied in some of their parts instead of real species; as ophioglossum lingua bifida, plantago spica bifida. SECT.

### SECT. CCLXXV.

The root often affords a true and real distinction, but we must not have recourse to it till every other method has been tried in vain. If there is any other diffinguishing mark, which is conftant and permanent, we are not to have recourse to the root, for we are not often at liberty in gardens to take up plants by the root; in a hortus ficcus the root is not eafily preserved; and in fresh specimens, or plants growing, we seldom see the root. The more easily and readily plants can be distinguished, so much the better; but necessity has no law. It is very difficult to distinguish the different species of scilla by the herb or grass, but very easy by the root or bulb, which is either coated, or folid, or fealy. The different forts of orchis cannot rightly be diftinguished without having recourse to the roots, which are either fibrous, roundish, or testiculated.

### SECT. CCLXXVI.

The best distinctive marks are oftentimes taken from the trunk or stalk. The stalk or stem in many plants affords such essential distinctions or differences, that without it there is no certainty of the species. The angular stem distinguishes many plants, which are otherwise scarcely distinguishes, which are otherwise scarcely distinguishes.

guishable. 'The hypericum hirsutum, tutsan, or hairy St. John's-wort, hypericum persoratum, common St. John's-wort, and hypericum quadrangulum, St. Peter's-wort, are distinguished by the first having a round, the second a two-edged, and the third a quadrangular stem. The convallaria polygonatum, sweet smelling Solomon's seal, and convallaria multislora, common Solomon's seal, by the first having a two-edged, and the second a round stem. The pyrola rotundisolia, common winter-green, and pyrola minor, lesser winter green, are distinguished from all the other species of pyrola by their naked three-cornered stem.

#### SECT. CCLXXVII.

The leaves furnish the most elegant and most natural specific distinctions. Nature is no where more various than in the leaves. the different forts of which are exceedingly numerous, and ought to be carefully learned by every student of botany. The leaves recommend themselves to our notice, because they are most beautiful and shewy, have the greatest diversity of species, and most easily afford specific distinctions; hence Linnæus has taken very many of his specific distinctions from the leaves, as may be feen in his Sp. Pl. and Fl. Suec. &c. There are some species of leaves, which rarely occur, besides those mentioned in fect.

fect. 83. chap. III. These are the, 1. Cucullatum, or cowl-shaped leaf, whose edges closely meet at the base, but are expanded at the extremity. 2. The glandulofum, or glandular leaf, which has fmall glands, either on the back of the leaf, or on the margin. 3. The acerofum, or chaffy leaf, which is like a pin, as in the cone-bearing plants, firs, &c. 4. The radicatum, or rooting leaf, which strikes root from the fubstance of the leaf itself. 5. The coadunata, or conjoined leaves, which grow together at the base. 6. The decussata, or leaves croffing one another, which run four different ways. 7. The affurgentia, or leaves rifing with a curve, or bending at the bottom, and strait at the top. 8. The obversa, or leaves turned upside down, whose base is narrower than the tip.

### SECT. CCLXXVIII.

The fulcra, or props, (viz. the flipulæ, braɛteæ, or floral leaves, spines, prickles, tendrils, glands, hairs), and the hybernacula, or winter quarters, (viz. the bulbs and buds) commonly leave the best specific distinctions. Without the affistance of those marks it is scarce possible to distinguish the species of some genera. The prickles in the rubus, the spines in prunus, and the braɛteæ in fumaria, and some others, are very remarkable. Coma, or tust, consists

fifts of bracteæ remarkably large at the extremity of the stem, as in the crown imperial, lavender, fage. The glands in the padus, urena, mimofa, cassia, afford essential marks of distinction. The glandular ferratures at the base of leaves, in beliocarpus, falix, amygdalus; the back of the leaves full of glands, in padus, urena, paffiflora; the glandular prickles which feparate a fluid from the substance of the leaves, in the baubinia aculeata, are all fo many examples of distinctive marks afforded by the glands, without the knowledge of which the species cannot rightly be distinguished in many genera, particularly mimosa, cassia, and some others. The almond can only be distinguished from the peach by the glands in the ferratures of the leaves. The species of urena cannot be determined till we have examined the glands of the leaves. The convolvulus, with a tubercle on the calyx, would be divided into feveral species by reason of the different sigure of the leaves, did not the glands join them into one. The monarda, with glands on the corolla, is thereby clearly diffinguished from the other species of that genus. The stipulæ are of great consequence in some large genera, where there is a doubt about the species. One species of melianthus has fingle, and another double, stipulæ.

The

The cassia, with kidney shaped bearded stipulæ, is by that mark clearly distinguished from all the other species of that genus. The buds in the same genus are often widely different, as appears in rhamnus, where the buckthorn, alaternus, paliurus, and frangula, have very different buds. The species of saliw, which are very numerous and intricate, may most easily and certainly be distinguished by the buds and soliation. The bulbs are the best and almost the only distinctive marks of the genus scilla. The bulbs in the bosom of the leaves on the tooth-wort, lily, star of Bethlehem, saxifrage, and bistort, afford a most singular mark to determine the species.

#### SECT. CCLXXIX.

The mode of flowering (whether verticillate, corymbiferous, ipiked, panicled, or axillary,) is a most real, certain, and true distinctive mark of the species. Inflorescence is the mode or manner in which the flower-stalk produces the fructification, either as to the structure, or place, or situation. In many genera this mode of flowering affords the most beautiful distinctions. Some of the spiraus have flowers doubly clustered, others corymbiferous, and others umbelliferous, that without knowing the mode of flowering there is no certainty of

the species. A peduncle produces the flowers in various ways. It is faid to be flaccid, when it is so weak as to hang drooping down only by the weight of the flower; nodding, when bent at top, and the flower hangs a little to one fide; as in the bidens radiata, carduus nutans, scabiosa Alpina, belianthus annua, enicus Sibiricus. Flowers are called fastigiate, when the partial flower-stalks are all of an equal height, and bear the fructifications in a bundle, as in the dianthus and filene. When the flowers stand remote from one another, the flower-stalks are said to be spreading; and close, when the contrary; flowers are conglomorate, when the branched flowerstalk bears the flowers without any order, very close and compact. The reverse of this, is a spreading panicle; a jointed flower-stalk, which has one joint, as in oxalis, sida, hibiscus; sometimes two, and fometimes three flower-stalks come out together at the same place, as in capraria, and one species of the impatiens. The flower-stalks in the aira flexuosa are waved or bent in serpentine turns; sometimes the flower-stalks remain on the plant after the fruit is fallen off, as in the jambolifera, ochna, justicia; sometimes the flower-stalks are thicker towards the flower than at the other extremity, as in cotula, tragopogon, and most of the nodding flowers.

## SECT. CCLXXX.

The parts of fructification (viz. the calyw, corolla, stamina, pistilla, feed vessel, and feeds) often afford the most constant and invariable specific distinctions. For there are in the fructification more parts than in the whole plant besides, and therefore more marks of distinction may be derived from thence. The marks of fructification are to be distinguished into essential, natural, and specific; which last only belongs to the species, and the two former to the genera. If you take away the flower, the gentians are not to be diftinguished, as appears by the observations of Haller; but the corollas being in some of them bell-shaped, wheel-shaped, tunnel-shaped; in others cut into four, five, or eight fegments, afford very easy distinctions. St. John's-wort with three styles is easy to be distinguished from that with five. The African geraniums are to be separated from the European by an irregular flower and flamina connected together. Here Linnæus gives definitions and explanations of feveral technical terms, which frequently occur in specific distinctions derived from the fructification, and which had not been before explained in his chapter of the fructification.

In the lichens, a tubercle is that fort of Y 4 fructi-

fructification which confifts of rough points or dots, like dust thrown together. A shield (fcutellum) is an orbicular concave fructification, with the margin elevated quite round. A target (pelta) is a flat fructification, for the most part glued to the margin of the leaf.

In mosses, the little head (capitulum) is

the anthera.

In funguses, the hat (pileus) is the round horizontal top, which bears the

fructification underneath.

In graffes, the spicula is the partial spike, which former botanists called locusta. The beard is called tortilis, when bent and twisted in the middle, as in oats. Articulus is that part of the stem between two

knots (genicula).

A compound radiated flower confifts of a difk and radius. The radius of the irregular petals in the circumference. The difk of the smaller and generally regular petals in the middle. A flower doubly compounded contains within a common calyx lesser calyces common to many flowers, as in the spharanthus.

A corolla is equal when its parts are equal in figure, magnitude, and proportion. Unequal, where the parts do not correspond in magnitude, but in proportion, so that the flower becomes regular, as in butomus.

A regu-

A regular corolla is equal in figure, magnitude, and proportion of parts. Irregular, is different either in the parts, figure, magnitude, or proportion. Rictus, is the gaping between the two lips of a flower. Faux, is the aperture of the tube of the corolla. Palatum, the hump or prominence in the aperture. Calcar, or fpur, is the nectarium, a part of the corolla stretched out into a conical shape behind the flower. An urceolate corolla is inflated or blown up, and convex all round like a little bottle or pitcher. Cyathiformis is a corolla, shaped like a wine glass. Connivens is that fort of corolla, the extremity of whose lobes converge or approach each other. Lacera, a torn corolla, which is cut into very fmall

Anthera versatilis and incumbers, is that which is fixed on the side to the filament.

Anthera erecta is fixed by the base.

A feed veffel is called inflated, when hollow like a bladder, and not diftended with feeds, as in the funaria cirrhofa. It is termed prismaticum, when it is narrow, and confifts of several angles and plain sides. Turbinatum, when shaped like a top, as in the pear. Contortum, when twisted like a screw, as in ulmaria, belieteres, and thalietrum. Acinacisorme, when the fruit is compressed like a knife, with one longitudinal angle sharp,

sharp, and the other blunt, as in mesembryanthemum. It is said to have its seeds nestling (seminibus nidulantibus), when they are dispersed without any order in the pulp of a berry. It is called echinatum, when every where armed with prickles or spines, like a hedge-hog. Torosum, when protuberant on both sides, with little knobs or prominences, as in lycopersicon, phytolacca.

#### SECT. CCLXXXI.

It is abfurd to make use of the generic marks of the natural characters in specific distinctions; as ranunculus calycibus pentaphyllis, floribus pentapetalis, petalorum unguibus nectariferis. For they can never distinguish the species, because in every genus they agree through all the species, and consequently cannot be marks of any specific difference.

## SECT. CCLXXXII.

All fpecific diffinctions must necessarily be taken from the number, figure, proportion, fituation, and connection, of the

various parts of plants.

We have already laid down the fallacious and true, or conflant diffinctive marks of the species. They are fallacious, when not sufficient; when merely accidental; when variable; when derived from the magnitude of the plant; or comparative

with

with other species of a different genus; or comparative with other species of the same genus; or taken from the name of the first finder, or any other person; or from the place of growth; time of flowering or fpringing; colour; fmell; tafte; medicinal virtues, and other uses; the sex; mon-strous flowers and plants; pubescence; duration; and, lastly, from a multiplication, or great increase, of the parts of plants. The true, constant, and faithful marks are taken from the parts of a plant, as the root, stem, leaves, fulcra, or props, the mode of flowering, and the different parts of fructification, according to the number, figure, fituation, connection, and proportion, as in the genera. These are every where constant, both in the fresh plants, dried plants, and figures.

## SECT. CCLXXXIII.

We ought always to be careful not to fubflitute a variety in the room of a species. This is a difficult point, and requires the greatest care. The cause of our running into so many errors in this particular, is owing to nature's appearing in so many different forms; to the different and singular nature of countries and climates; to the places of growth being sometimes very remote; and lastly, to the shortness of human life.

life. Now that which promises certainty in distinguishing the species from the varieties, is to cultivate them in the most different and various soils; to examine attentively all the parts of a plant; to examine the fructification in all its parts, even the most minute; to inspect the other species of the same genus; to attend to the constant laws of nature, which proceeds by slow degrees; to observe the remote modes of varieties; and, lastly, to place the species under the next different genus.

### SECT. CCLXXXIV.

The name of the genus must be prefixed to every one of the species. After the species are reduced to their genera, every one of them should have the name of the genus prefixed to which they belong.

### SECT. CCLXXXV.

The specific name ought always to sollow the name of the genus. Since without knowing the genus, there is no certainty, it necessarily follows, that the name of the genus should begin the sentence or specific distinction, and this last immediately follow the generic name.

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#### SECT. CCLXXXVI.

The specific name without the generic is like a bell without a clapper. A specific difference is only a distinction of the genus into two or more species, and therefore without the genus no difference can be conceived. Names are made by art, that we may be enabled by them scientifically to determine plants. Differences without a generic name are like animals without heads; as for example, myagro affinis herba, capfulis subrotundis. J. B.

## SECT. CCLXXXVII.

The specific name should not be a part of the generic, by adding a syllable or two to the end, and thereby making a diminutive word; as gentianella instead of gentiane parva, or little gentian.

## SECT. CCLXXXVIII.

The genuine specific name is either synoptical or essential. The specific names should distinguish the species readily, surely, and easily. Every possible distinction of a species should be collected, and from them the best should be taken, that we may at last know the species with certainty. The mode of specific names is either synoptical or essential, or a mixture of both.

## SECT. CCLXXXIX.

The fynoptical specific name gives to plants of the same genus distinctive marks, branched into divisions and subdivisions. When the effential marks of the species cannot be traced, the synoptical specific name is often made use of to distinguish them, and is therefore a fuccedaneum to the effential name. In genera, where the species are very numerous, we are often obliged to give the specific distinctions in a synopsis; thus, salix foliis serratis glabris ovatis acutis subsessibles. Now the effential specific character of the same plant is, salix stosculis pentandris; sweet willow.

#### SECT. CCXC.

The effential specific name gives one striking distinctive mark peculiar only to that species to which it is applied. The effential specific name consists generally of one or two words, or one idea. After the genera are established, and the species determined by their essential differences, we are got to the ne plus ultra of botany. For if botanists had once arrived so far, that they could determine every species by an essential name, they could proceed no farther towards perfection in the art. The excellency of a name consists in its brevity, facility, and certainty. After the essential

name is discovered, a synopsis should not be admitted into the specific difference. Botanists ought therefore to endeavour to find out the essential specific names of as many species as possible, because they are on all accounts the most excellent.

#### SECT. CCXCI.

The shorter the specific name or difference is, it is so much the better, providing it be sufficient to distinguish the species in question from all other of the same genus. For it is folly to use a great many where sew words are quite sufficient. And we see that nature herself also is very compendious in all her operations. The number of words in a specific difference ought not to exceed twelve; and in like manner, a generic name for the most part should not exceed twelve letters.

## SECT. CCXCII.

The specific name should admit no more words than are absolutely necessary to distinguish the species from all other of the genus. There ought not to be one superfluous word in a specific difference. And that specific distinction, which is expressed in the shortest way, and sewest words, is the best.

## SECT. CCXCIII.

No fpecific name can be given, or is wanted, to a species, which is the only one of the genus. Therefore where no specific difference is expressed, we are to suppose there is no other but that one species of the genus hitherto discovered.

## SECT. CCXCIV.

He who discovers a new species, should give it a specific name, unless it be the only one of the genus. He should not only give its specific difference, but also increase, diminish, or alter those of the other species of that genus, that all of them may be sufficiently distinguished for the future.

### SECT. CCXCV.

The words made use of in a specific name or difference should not be compound ones, like the names of the genera, nor Greek, but only Latin; for the more simple, clear, and evident, so much the better.

## SECT. CCXCVI.

The specific name must not contain figures of rhetoric, much less should it be erroneous, but faithfully describe things as nature exhibits them. We shall give a few examples of such erroneous specific names

as are here meant; as falicaria purpurea, instead of corollis purpureis; lupinus store luteo, instead of storibus luteis; limon incomparabilis, instead of maximus; narcissus calyce luteo, instead of nectario luteo.

#### SECT. CCXCVII.

The specific name should not be a word either of the comparative or superlative degree; for such suppose the knowledge of another plant. And all specific names, which have a comparison to any thing without the plant, are erroneous; as equifetum lævius. But the superlative degree, applied to a part within the plant, is very proper, frequently used, and an excellent specific mark; as lobelia pedunculis brevissimis, tubo corolla longissima.

## SECT. CCXCVIII.

The specific name should always be in positive, not negative, terms. For negatives express nothing, or only inform us what is not, but not what is. When we have positive, we should never make use of negative, terms; and thus proper words will be always ready at hand to express opposite meanings; as rotundatum and angulatum, obtusum and acutum, serratum and integerrimum, tomentosum and glabrum, petiolatum and sessible, aristatus and muticus, retiolatum and sessible aristatus and muticus, retionalizations.

moti and conferti, herbaceus and fruticosus. The most tedious description of a plant in negative terms conveys not the least idea of it to any one; therefore all such specific names are erroneous; as lysimachia non papposa, instead of seminibus nudis; hippuris non aspera, instead of glabra; bidens folio non dissecto, i. e. integro; phalangium non ramosum, instead of caule simplici, lychnis petalis non bisidis, instead of integris.

#### SECT. CCXCIX.

Every fimilitude used in a specific name fhould be common and obvious to all, though even these should be used but sparingly. Similitude expresses that in one word, which otherwise would require a long description to demonstrate it; but we are to observe, that every similitude is lame, and therefore it is difgracing of botany to use any obscure similitude, or which is not clear and obvious to the lowest capacity. And indeed no other fimilitudes should be used but such as are taken from the external parts of the human body; as the head, the ear, the hand, foot, &c. Many obfcure fimilitudes have been introduced by botanists; as agarieus tubæ fallopianæ instar, orchis simiam referens, orchis cercopithecum referens, hemionitis soliis securis Romanæ sigura, &c.

#### SECT. CCC.

A specific name should admit no adjective without its corresponding substantive. And all specific names are erroneous which admit adjectives without their corresponding substantives; as millefolium cornutum, i. e. foliis cornutis; nigella cornuta, i. e. capsula cornuta; lysimachia corniculata, i. e. capsula corniculata; viola tricolor, i. e. corolla tricolore; myrtus cristata, viz. foliis cristatis; amaranthus cristatus, viz. spica cristata; gramen cristatum, i. e. bratteis cristatis.

#### SECT. CCCI.

Every adjective in a specific name should follow its own substantive. As in the generic character, the part to be described is always first mentioned; so also in a specific difference, the substantive, to which the adjective agrees or belongs, should always be first mentioned, that the meaning may be very distinct; and lest, by an error of the press in placing the points wrong, a quite different sense should be given to the words; as corona solis parvo flore, tuberosa radice, instead of corona solis flore parvo, radice tuberosa.

### SECT. CCCII.

Adjectives used in a specific name are to be taken from the select terms of art (80—86), providing those are sufficient to express

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press the meaning. If botanists could agree in the terms of art, and constantly use the same terms, the science would become very easy. A paraphrase should never be used, so long as there are terms of art properly defined; e.g. conyza humidis locis proveniens, instead of palustris. Synonymous terms should be excluded, and one select term constantly used to express the same thing; as, e.g. instead of caryophyllus supinus, caryophyllus procumbens, ligustrum soliis pictis, ligustrum foliis variegatis, hieracium radice succisa, hieracium radice superiore.

#### SECT. CCCIII.

Conjunctive or disjunctive particles should never be used in a specific name. Conjunctive and disjunctive particles, such as, et, atque, simul, vel, sive, seu, should be excluded; and all specific distinctions expressed in the ablative case, without any preposition. When any of the conjunctive or disjunctive particles are wanted, they should be added in the end of the following word, as carduus foliis lanceolatis ciliatis integris laciniatisque.

## SECT. CCCIV.

Distinctive points should be placed after the parts of plants in a specific name, and not after the adjectives. These points are

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(,) (;) (:) (.) by which, properly placed, a specific difference becomes very clear. Linnæus uses the comma to distinguish the parts, and the colon where there is a subdivision of a part, and the punctum, or full stop, at the end of the sentence; thus, baubinia inermis, foliis cordatis semibistidis: laciniis acuminato-ovatis erecto-debiscentibus.

#### SECT. CCCV.

A parenthesis ought never to be admitted into a specific name. For a parenthesis, either expressed or understood, argues either an exception or want of order; thus, sinapistrum pentaphyllum, slore carneo, minus; androsemum maximum (quasi frutescens) bacciferum; dens leonis qui pilosella folio minus villoso.

## C H A P. IX.

## VARIETIES.

## SECT. CCCVI.

To the generic and specific names should be added those of the varieties, if there be any. Varieties are plants of the same species, which are changed by some accidental cause. The great usefulness of many varieties in domestic economy, diet, and medicine, has made the knowledge of them necessary in common life; otherwise varieties belong not to botanists as such, but so far as they should take care that the species be not unnecessarily multiplied or consounded. A botanist should insert, when it is necessary, such varieties as are clear and evident, at the end of each specific distinction to which they belong, on account of their common utility.

### SECT. CCCVII.

The names of the genera, species, and varieties, should be written in different characters, the first in Roman capitals, the next in the common Roman letters, and the last in Italics. The generic name should always

always be in great letters or Roman capitals, the specific in common or small Roman letters, and the varieties in Italics; as CONVALLARIA scapo nudo; corolla plena.—CONVALLARIA scapo nudo; corolla rubra.

### SECT. CCCVIII.

The sexes of plants constitute the natural varieties; all other varieties beside these are monstrous. Plants of the diæcia class constitute one mode of varieties truly natural, distinguished into males and semales; to know which, and to add them to botanic differences, is very necessary. But we should take care not to be misled by the antient botanists; who, being ignorant of the secundation of plants, took the males for semales, and the semales for males; as for example, their mercurialis mas, cannabis mas, and lupulus mas, are the semale plants.

### SECT. CCCIX.

The monstrous varieties are the mutilate, multiplied, full, and proliferous flowers; as also luxuriant stems bundled, plaited or twisted, and mutilate; luxuriant leaves curled, bladdery or blistered, in number, sigure, proportion, situation, and connection of all the parts; and lastly,

these varieties often consist in the difference of colour, fmell, tafte, magnitude, time, and duration. The primary modes of varieties are here enumerated, viz. 1. The corolla is either mutilate, that is, wanting where it ought naturally to be. This of-ten happens in ipomæa, campanula, ruellia, viola, tussilago, cucubalus. 2. The corolla multiplied, as in campanula foliis urticæ, flore duplici and triplici, &c. 3. The corolla full, as in aquilegia flore roseo, C. B. where the impletion is by the petals multiplied, and all the nectaria excluded; aquilegia flore multiplici, C. B. where the impletion is by the nectaria being multiplied, and all the petals excluded. 4. The corolla proliferous, as in ranunculus radice tuberofa, flore pleno and prolifero, T. where the prolification is from the center of the flower; bellis hortensis prolifera, C. B. where the prolification is from the fides of the flower. 5. Luxuriant stems are either bundled, that is, when several stems grow close together in a bundle or packet, so as to appear like one. This is frequently effected by art, as in ranunculus, asparagus, &c. See sect. 274. Or, 6. Luxuriant stems are plaited or twisted, as in birch and hornbeam, &c. See sect. 274. Or, 7. Stems are mutilate or wanting in some plants, which ought naturally to have them. Of this Linnaus gives

gives no example. 8. Luxuriant leaves are either curled, as in malva crispa, J. B. lactuca crispa, C. B. &c. 9. Luxuriant leaves are studded or embossed, as in ocymum foliis bullatis, C. B. 10. Varieties often consist in the difference of colour, 266. 11. Smell, 267. 12. Taste, 268. 13. Magnitude, 260. 14. Time, 265. And, 15. Duration, 273. Of all which, various examples have been given in chap. VIII. from sect. 260 to 273.

### SECT. CCCX.

The flightest varieties are not worth the care of a true systematic botanist. The florists, by an over-great study and assiduous inspection, have discovered such amazing wonders in flowers, as no man, the most clear-fighted in the world, could ever discern, but those who are versed in this fludy. The grand objects of their attention are the most beautiful flowers, such as tulips, hyacinths, anemonies, ranunculuses; pinks, carnations, auriculas, and polyanthuses. To the hidden varieties of these flowers they have given such names as excite wonder and astonishment. These men cultivate a science peculiar to themselves, the mysteries of which are only known to the adepts; wherefore let no found botanist ever enter into their focieties. Their pompous names are fuch as the following: Phœbus, Apollo, Dædalus, Cupido, the Triumph of Flora, the Glory of Flora, the Splendor of Asia, the Crown of Europe, the Pearl of Holland, Alexander the Great, Charles the XIIth, Julius Cæfar, Emperor Augustus, the Cham of Tartary, the Grand Signior, the Great Mogul, Scipio Africanus, Milton, Tullius Cicero, with 1000 other ridiculous appellations. The common gardeners also have given names, which are neither explained by them, nor capable of explanation, to their almost endless variety of fruits, apples, pears, and stone-fruit, &c. But the order of fungi, to the difgrace of the art, remains to this day a heap of confusion, botanists not knowing in them which is a species, or which is a variety.

### SECT. CCCXI.

The luxuriance of leaves in opposition and composition very easily happens. The curled and blistered leaves are all monstrous. Opposite leaves in pairs often become starry or whorled, consisting of three or sour leaves surrounding the stem in rings, and in that case a quadrangular stem becomes a many-angled one; as lysimachia lutea major foliis ternis, quaternis, quinis, T.; anagallis cærulea foliis binis ternisve ex adverso nascentibus,

nascentibus, R.; anagallis Phænicia fol. amplioribus ex adverso quaternis, T.; salicaria trisolia caule hexagono, T. Fingered leaves often add one or two fegments to their usual number, as trifolium quadrifolium hortense album, C. B. Plants with curled leaves are all monstrous varieties, in the same manner as multiplied corollæ in flowers; and therefore no plants furnished with such leaves are natural, but have their origin from waved leaves preternaturally extended, as abium f. petroselinum crispum, C. B. nasturtium bortense crispum, C. B. malva crispa, J. B. lactuca crispa, C. B. cichorium crispum, T. lapsana folio amplissimo crispo, B. tanacetum foliis crispis, B. matricaria crispa, mentha crispa danica, Park. The fmell in tanfy, mint, bafil, and feverfew, is increased with the curled leaves, which is a fingular circumstance. Bladdery or bliftered leaves take their rife mostly from wrinkled ones, having the fubstance of the leaves increased and multiplied, and confequently greatly elevated on the upper side, as ocymum foliis bullatis, C. B. lastuca capitata foliis magis rugosis, B. The saponaria concava anglica has a fingular emboffed leaf without the wrinkles, for the margins are contracted, and the leaves become hollow like a spoon. Small cut leaves sometimes take their rise from broad

ones, but this fort of variety is not very common; as brassica angusto apii folio, B. sambucus laciniato folio, sonchus asper laciniatus, valeriana sylvestris foliis tenuissime divisis.

### SECT. CCCXII.

It is generally superfluous to reckon morbid plants, or even the ages of plants, among the varieties. There are different morbid plants mentioned by botanists, according to their different diseases. Eripylle of Theophrastus is a white mould, with fmall brown fessile heads, which is spread over the leaves of plants. This is common in the hops, lamium purpureum, galeopsis retrabit, lithospermum arvense, acer platanoides. Rubigo is a powder like the rust of iron on the under side of leaves. It is to be seen in alchemilla vulgaris, rubus saxatilis, fenecio sylvaticus, and some others. Clavus is. that disease where the seeds are prolonged into a black horny appearance; as in rye, fome of the graffes, and carexes. Ufilago is that disease by which the flowers and feeds of feveral plants are reduced into a black powder. Examples of this may be feen in wheat, barley, rye, oats, marsh scorzonera, goats-beard, &c. Infects laying their eggs on several plants give rise to various excrescences; as the galls of oak, those of ciftus, aspen tree, several of the willows,

willows, elm, lime, ground-ivy, and hieracium myophorum; those of the salvia baccifera, called fage apples, the pulp of which is of a sweet and very agreeable taste; and laftly, those of the scarlet oak, called kermes, or scarlet paste. Of the same nature are those substances on the briar called bedeguar, covered with green, red, or yellow fibres; and likewise the small bladders on the furface of elm leaves and black poplar; the contorsions of some of the veronicas, cerastiums, and lotus; the scaly appearance of the fir and rose willow. Insects often cause an impletion and prolification of flowers, as we fee the corn feverfew becomes proliferous by means of certain small infects; and the carduus crifpus, or thiftle upon thistle, by the same means bears large full florets, or rather proliferous and leafy, the pistilla or pointals growing up into leaves.

### SECT. CCCXIII.

The colour is very subject to vary, especially from blue or red to white. The principal colours enumerated by botanists are the following: water colour, hyalinus, aqueus, vitreus; white, albus, lacteus, niveus; lead colour, cinereus, incanus, lividus, plumbeus; black, niger, pullus; brown, fuscus, jet black, ater; yellow, luteus; straw coloured,

loured, flavus, fulphureus; flame coloured, fulvus, croceus, flammeus; iron coloured, gilvus, testaceus, ferrugineus; red, ruber, sanguineus; flesh coloured, incarnatus; scarlet, coccineus, puniceus; purple, purpureus, Phaniceus; violet coloured, cæruleo purpureus, violaceus; blue, cæruleus; green, viridis, prasinus. The various colours of plants are mostly appropriated to particular parts; thus, black is common in the roots and feeds, rarely in the feed vessel, scarce ever in the corolla; green, in the leaves and calyx, very rarely in the corolla; water colour common in the filaments and styles; yellow in the antheræ, and also in the petals of autumnal flowers, and the femiflosculous flowers of Tournefort; white is common in the petals of spring flowers, sweet berries and roots; red, in the petals of sum-mer flowers, and in acid fruits; blue and violet, common in the petals. The colours of flowers are often changed; red into white, in the flowers of ling, mother of thyme, betony, pink, vifcous campion, cockle, trefoil, orchis, fox-glove, carduus, faw-wort, cudweed, rose, poppy, fumitory, and geranium; blue into white, in campanula, Greek valerian, convolvulus, hepatica, colombines, violet, vetch, goats-rue, milk-wort, viper's-buglofs, alkanet, comfrey, borrage, hyffop, fcabious, blue bottle,

tle, fuccory; yellow is changeable into white in melilot, agrimony, mullein, tulip, moth mullein, alcea, cyanus Turcicus, and corn marygold; white is changed into purple in wood forrel, thorn apple, peafe, and daify; blue into yellow in commelina and crocus; red into blue in pimpernel. Several different changes of colours happen in the petals of some plants; as in colombines the blue is liable to change into red, and also into white; in milk-wort, hepatica, and blue bottle, the same; in marvel of Peru, and primrose, red into yellow and white; in touch-me-not, tulip, and lady'sfinger, yellow into red and white; in wallflower, yellow into blue and white. The fame mutability is observable in other parts of plants. Berries change from green to red, and from red to white; and in ripe fruit, whether red, white, or blue, the colour is subject to vary, especially in apple, pear, plumb, and cherry trees. Seeds, though rarely, are subject to vary; and such variations in colour are often feen in the feeds of poppies, oats, peafe, beans, and kidney beans. The root, though not very subject to change, is found to vary in the common carrot and radish. The leaves frequently become spotted, as in arsmart, some orchises, ivy-leased ranunculus, Alpine hawk-weed and lettuce; and those of

amaranthus, or flower-gentle, change their green altogether, and affume another beautiful colour. The whole plant often affumes a colour which is unnatural or foreign to it, as may be feen in fome species of eryngo, mug-wort, orrach, amaranthus, purslane, and lettuce.

### SECT. CCCXIV.

Aquatic plants commonly have their lower or bottom leaves; and mountain plants, on the contrary, their upper leaves, much cut or divided. Leaves of a different shape or figure are rarely feen on the same plant, yet it happens sometimes, as in euphorbia heterophylla, rudbeckia triloba, lepidium perfoliatum, and hibifcus virginius. Water plants have their lower leaves, which are under water, finely cut; as in water crowfoot, and some species of fisymbrium, cicuta, sium, phellandrium, ananthe. Mountainous plants, on the contrary, have their lower leaves mostly entire, and the upper ones more cut; as in some species of faxifrage, parsley, anise, and coriander.

### SECT. CCCXV.

A natural plant or species should not be marked or distinguished by a name opposed to the varieties. Since varieties are superfluous in botany, this rule is strictly to be observed, observed, lest distinctive marks should be increased without end; for there is surely no occasion to distinguish a natural plant from monsters.

### SECT. CCCXVI.

Culture, from whence fo many varieties have their origin, is also the best examiner of varieties. The superabundance of nourishment occasioned by culture, has produced your full flowers, fweet, cooling, and agreeable fummer fruits, delicate shoots, large and luxuriant herbs, and tender fallads and pot herbs; all which, left to themfelves in a poor and meagre foil, do again assume their wild and natural habit. Thus the fweetest grapes become four, the most agreeable apples become harsh and crabbed, the most grateful pear austere, the mildest and foftest almonds bitter, the juicy and fucculent peach hard and dry, the smoothest lettuce prickly, the tender pulpy asparagus woody, the most delightful and best tafted cherries exceedingly four and difagreeable; in fine, corn, and all farinaceous grain, herbage, and fruit of every kind, dwindle and become of no value without culture. The foil changes plants, and from thence varieties arile; and the foil being changed, they return to their original form. This is examplified in the buxus arborescens, Αа

arborescens, box-tree, and buxus humilis, dwarf-box, which, however different in appearance, yet are of the same species; as are also the acanthus mollis and acanthus aculeatus, the soft and prickly bear's-breech; the cynara aculeata and cynara non aculeata, the artichoke with and without spines, &c.

#### SECT. CCCXVII.

To collect the different varieties under their respective species, is a task of no less merit, than to place all the species under their respective genera. The strenuous endeavours of the moderns, about the end of the last century, to increase the number of plants, far exceeded the constancy of the antients in diffinctly laying down the fpecies; and, like a contagion, infected the teience, by the introduction of varieties in the room of species; while on account of the flightest difference a new species was made, to the great detriment of botany; and fo far did this method prevail, that varieties were turned into species, and species into genera. This erroneous method of proceeding was first opposed by Vaillant, then by Linnæus, afterwards by Jussieu, Haller, Royen, Gronovius, and feveral others; and their opposition prevented the ruin of the science. Several varieties are easily explained and reduced, by comparing the variable

riable marks of the variety with the natural plant; yet there are many varieties that require both knowledge and experience, e. g. that the fumaria bulbofa radice cava and non cava, major and minor, are of the same species, appears by their exceedingly minute calyx, by being of the same genus, by the scale of the bud, the structure of the leaves, the fituation of the branches, the place of the bractea, the corolla, the pod, the feeds, and figma; but the variation is in the bractea being divided, and the root more or less hollow. There are nine or ten varieties of the valeriana locusta, or lamb's lettuce, all which are very different in the fruit, and leaves, which are more or less cut; yet that they are all of the same species appears by the forked stalk, the annual root, the structure of the leaves, corolla, and feed. There are fifteen or fixteen varieties of the medicago polymorpha, being fo many different forms of the fruit in distinct varieties, yet the same species. To conclude, we may truly say that a botanist, who will exercise himself in finding out the varieties, shall never be able to come to the end of the various forms of sporting nature.

### CHAP. X.

### SYNONYMS.

SECT. CCCXVIII.

S YNONYMS are the different names given to the same plant by different botanists; and these are either of the genera, or species, or varieties. The most antient and original writers among the Greeks and Romans generally agreed in the names of plants, being content with generic names only. The commentators, on account of lame or no descriptions, and a want of figures, in the writings of the antient botanists, have applied their names, I mean the fame identical names, to various plants. Those who have given descriptions of plants, when a far greater number were discovered, have given them names also, according to every one's own particular fancy. C. Bauhine, in his *Pinax* published in 1622, a work which cost him 40 years labour, has collected and joined together all the names of his predecessors, reducing them to 6000 species. Since his time, many curious botanists, by diligent fearching, have discovered new plants in every part

part of the world, and have thereby augmented them to double their former number. The systematic botanists, at first disagreeing greatly in the conftruction of the genera, established many false ones; which occasioned very salse names to be given to While as yet there were no rules laid down for specific distinctions, botanists gave fuch differences or distinctions to the species, as were partly trivial, partly variable, and all of them fallacious. William Sherard, Esq; a great botanist, laboured in the continuation of Bauhine's Pinax; and dying in the year 1728, left the work to Dillenius, who continued this work of Sherard to the year 1747, in which he died. Dr. Sibthorp, successor of Dillenius, is now in possession of this work in manufcript, and continues to augment the same. Haller, in feveral works of his, has endeavoured to give a compleat lift of all the fynonymous names of the Swifs plants. Such a compleat lift of the fynonyms is very neceffary and useful to botanists; for, having found the author's name only for the plant in question, we have along with it the names which all other botanists have given to the same plant, and by the references may turn to all the figures and descriptions of the fame; and may from thence learn every particular hitherto known concern-

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ing the plant; and lastly, the plurality of names given to one and the same will no longer give us the idea of different plants. The synonyms of the species chiefly belong to botanists; but those of the varieties, which are often superfluous, any one may add them who pleases, that the number of false species may be lessened.

#### SECT. CCCXIX.

Among fynonymous names the best should take the lead, whether it be the select name given by any other botanist, or the writer's own name for the plant. Among synonyms the author's shall stand first, whether it be properly his own, or borrowed from any other. The first then shall be the select name of the species, and the best among all the synonyms. Therefore I think it is wrong for any author to place his own select name of a plant the last among the synonyms, and also the true specific differences after the salse and fallacious ones; instances of which may be seen in Haller.

### SECT. CCCXX.

The fynonyms of the fame species are to be joined all together. Botanists lay down their synonyms either by beginning with the most antient, and bringing them down in the order of time, to the modern ones; or, by beginning with the modern generic names, and ending with the most antient, which Linnaus says is his most usual way.

#### SECT. CCCXXI.

Each of the fynonyms should begin a new paragraph.

The fynonyms are recited in the following different ways by different authors.

1. According to the genera, thus, Parthenium foliis ovatis crenatis, Hort. Cliff. 442. Gron. Virg. 115. Roy. Lugd. 86. Ptarmica Virginiana; foliis helenii, Morif. Blæf. 297.

Ptarmica Virginiana, scabiosæ austriacæ foliis dissectis, Pluk. Alm. 308. tab. 53. sig.

5. and tab. 219. fig. 1. &c.

2. By blanks beginning the line.
Parthenium foliis ovatis crenatis, &c.
Ptarmica Virginiana, foliis helenii, &c.
Scabiosa austriaca foliis dissettis, Pluk.
Alm. 308, &c.

3. In a continued feries without paragraphs.

Parthenium folius ovatis crenatis, bastard feversew of Virg. Hort. Cliff. 442. Gron. Virg. 115. Roy. Lugd. 86. Ptarmica Virginiana, foliis belenii, Moris. Bless. 297. Ptarmica Virginiana, scabiose austriaca foliis dissettis, Pl. Alm. 308. t. 53. f. 5. &c.

A a 4 4. By

4. By not repeating the generic name. Parthenium foliis ovatis crenatis, Hort. Cliff. 442. Gron. Virg. 115. Roy. Lugd. 86. Ptarmica Virginiana, foliis helenii, Morif.

Blæs. 297. Virginiana, scabiosæ austriacæ foliis dissectis, Pluk. Alm. 308. t. 53. f. 5. &c.

5. By an abbreviation with a parenthesis. Parthenium foliis ovatis crenatis, Hort. Cliff. 442. Gron. Virg. 115. Roy. Lugd. 86. Dracunculus latifolius (f. Ptarmica Virginiana (scabiosæ austriacæ foliis dissettis, Pluk. Alm. 308. t. 53. f. 5. and t. 219. f. 1.) folio belenii, Morif. Blaf. 297.) hift. 3. p. 41, &c.

The first method is the best, and that

which is always used by Linnæus.

### SECT. CCCXXII.

After each fynonym the author, book, and page, are to be quoted. It will not be fufficient only to quote the author's name, fince one and the fame man has often been author of feveral different works; and there have been often two or more of the same name, as e.g. two Getners, two Bauhines, two Millers, &c. Neither is it sufficient to quote the work only without mentioning the author, fince many have been published under the same title by different authors; as, e. g. Hort. Lugd. by Vorstius, Pavius, Pavius, Herman, Boerhaave, Royen; Hort. Patavin. by Cortusus, Guilandinus, Schenkius, Veslingius, Marcellus; Flor. Parifian. by Cornutus, Tournefort, Vaillant, Dalibardus, &c. Authors in quoting their own works commonly omit their own name, and only mention the name of the book, or sometimes only the initial letters of the same; as (Dill.) Catal. Giff. or C. G. Hort. Eltham. or H. E. Histor. Musc. or H. M. The name of the work should be comprehended in one word, and written with a small initial letter, the name of the author beginning with a capital letter. The page should be added in the last place, that the plant may be readily found.

### SECT. CCCXXIII.

In a compleat enumeration of the fynonyms, it is proper to mark the name of the first discoverer, if known, with an asterism.

### SECT. CCCXXIV.

The vernacular names of different countries are either wholly to be excluded, or placed together at the end of the fynonyms.

### CHAP. XI.

# HISTORY OF PLANTS.

### SECT. CCCXXV.

THE history of plants should contain their names, etymologies, classes, generic characters, specific differences, varieties, synonyms, descriptions, figures, places, and culture; times, virtues, uses, when, where, and by whom discovered, &c. From this aphorism we learn, that the history of plants should contain every thing pertaining to them, such as their names, signs, outward appearance, nature, and use. In a word, the history of plants should comprehend,

1. The felect or chosen name of the ge-

nus to be treated of or described.

2. The etymology or derivation of the generic name, with the proper and literal

fense of the original.

3. The class and order to which this genus does belong, according to one or more telect fystems. The genera to which this particular one has been referred by the different systematical writers.

4. The

4. The natural character of the genus, giving all the possible characteristics or distinguishing marks. The essential character, laying down the most peculiar mark of that genus. The artificial character, distinguishing the genera which are conjoined in that system. The mistakes of authors in their referring this to other genera, to be deduced from the natural character. The genus to which it naturally belongs. A confirmation of the select name of the genus, and why the others are rejected.

5. Next should follow the specific differences or distinctions of each species in their order from others of the same genus.

6. Then all the principal varieties of each species that are to be found in authors, reduced to their proper place; that is, to the respective species to which they do be-

long.

7. Then all the fynonymous names of the chief fystematic writers, and all other authors antient or modern, under each plant. The Latin, Greek, English, French, Spanish, Italian, and German names, &c. with their meanings and derivations.

### SECT. CCCXXVI.

8. Next should follow a description, which is the natural character of the whole plant, and should describe all its external parts;

parts; and that not in the common way, by barely describing the root, stem, leaves, and fructification, but also particularly noticing the leaf and flower-stalks, the sipulæ, bracteæ, glands, hairs, buds, foliation, and the whole habit of the plant.

### SECT. CCCXXVII.

And fuch a description should be delivered in the most compendious, yet perfect, and compleat manner, couched only in terms of art, if these are sufficient, according to the number, figure, proportion, situation, and connection of all the parts.

#### SECT. CCCXXVIII.

Again, a description of a plant should follow the order of its growth, beginning at the root, and so proceeding to the stem, footstalks, leaves, flowers, &c.

### SECT. CCCXXIX.

A description should delineate the distinct parts of plants in separate paragraphs; the parts of the plant should be printed in Roman characters, and the description in Italics.

### SECT. CCCXXX.

A description should not be too long, tedious, and prolix, nor too short and impersect;

perfect; for the first includes many vain, superfluous, and variable circumstances; and the other excludes some singular marks, and essential, though small, parts of a plant; as the stipulæ, bracteæ, glands, hairs, and such like.

### SECT. CCCXXXI.

In the description of plants the measure of magnitude is most conveniently taken from the parts of the human body. In describing the parts of plants, Tournefort introduced a meafure laid down according to an accurate geometrical fcale, which many of his followers have retained; fo that the effence of the description consisted in an accurate menfuration of the whole. But as every one conversant in botany very well knows that the parts of plants vary in nothing fo much as in that of dimension. Linnæus very rarely admits any other meafure than that arising from the respective length and breadth of the parts compared together. In cases that require actual menfuration, he recommends, instead of Tournefort's artificial scale, the following natural scale of the human body, which is much more convenient, and not less accurate. This scale consists of the following degrees. 1. A hair's breadth (capillus), which is the twelfth part of a line. 2. A line

line is the length of the crescent at the root of the nail of the finger (not thumb), meafured from the fkin towards the body of the nail, and is equal to the twelfth part of a Paris inch. 3. A nail (unguis) is the length of a finger nail, and equal to fix lines, or half a Paris inch. 4. A thumb (pollex) is the diameter of the first joint of the thumb, and equal to an inch, Paris measure. 5. A palm (palmus) is the diameter or transverse breadth of four fingers extended, or the palm exclusive of the thumb, and equal to three Paris inches. 6. A span (spithama) is the distance between the extremity of the thumb and that of the fore finger, when extended, and equal to feven Paris inches. 7. A great span (dodrans) is the distance between the extremity of the thumb, and that of the little finger, when extended, and equal to nine Paris inches. 8. A foot (pes) is the measure from the bending of the elbow to the base of the thumb, and equal to twelve Paris inches. 9. A cubit (cubitus) mea; fured from the bending of the elbow to the extremity of the middle finger, and is equal to seventeen inches. 10. An arm-length (brachium) from the arm-pit to the extremity of the middle finger, and is equal to twenty-four Paris inches, or two feet. 11. A fathom (orgya) the measure of the human

human stature; the distance between the extremities of the two middle singers, when the arms are extended, equal, where greatest, to six seet.

### SECT. CCCXXXII.

9. Figures of plants should be drawn of the natural fize and fituation. There should be annexed accurate figures of all the plants, which should represent them in their natural fituation and magnitude. The figures of the old botanists often represent the largest trees and smallest herbs of the fame bigness; procumbent and creeping plants for the most part erect; which faults ought carefully to be avoided. In large plants, when their true magnitude cannot be represented in the figures, it is proper to exhibit a finall branch, and the whole plant in miniature adjoining thereto. Figures confisting only of the outlines, such as those of Fuschius and Plumier, are most eafily executed, and represent the plants exceedingly well. The wooden cuts, formerly fo much in use, such as those of Rudbeckius, Matthiolus, Gerard, and others, were as good as copper-plates, and of much easier purchase; but are now entirely out of use, to the great detriment of botany. The knowledge of drawing, engraving, and botany, are necessary and requi-

requisite in finishing good figures of plants; and as any of these accomplishments are more or less wanting, so the figures will be more or less perfect. Hence it is, that botanists, who were well skilled in drawing and engraving, have lest the most excellent figures, as Dillenius.

### SECT. CCCXXXIII.

The best figures should exhibit all the external parts of plants, even the smallest also of the fructification. For in the smallest eft parts, especially those of the fructification, there are the most numerous and excellent distinctions, by which to characterize the species. The hairs, glands, sipulæ, sloral leaves, stamina, and pointals, which were neglected in the sigures of the old botanists, should never be omitted in a good sigure.

### SECT. CCCXXXIV.

10. The native places or stations of plants respect the country, climate, soil, and situation, nature of the ground, earth, and mould. The only true soundation of gardening, and the right cultivation of plants, depends on the knowledge of the native places of their production, from whence the rules and principles of the art ought to be derived. Miller's Gardener's Dictionary

Dictionary lays down the particular culture of every plant; but this method of gardening through all the known species of plants would be too tedious, diffuse, and burdenfome. From the natural place of their growth we know where to find the different species of plants for gardens, herbals of dried plants, medicinal and economic uses. The country respects the kingdom, provinces, districts; and, when the plants are very rare and scarce, the places of their growth ought to be most particularly mentioned. The climate respects the latitude, longitude, and altitude of the place, which last is its perpendicular height above the level of the fea. Vaillant was the first who introduced the climates in describing the native places of plants, and this he did with regard to the latitude only. But that the latitude alone is not fufficient, and much less the longitude, appears from this; that places very remote from each other, but under the fame latitude, produce plants very different. Rome in Italy, Pekin in China, and New York in America, are situated nearly under the fame degree of North latitude; Rome being 41:51. Pekin 39:55. and New York 41:0. In like manner Palestine and Florida on the North, and the Cape of Good Hope and Chili on the South, are nearly under the fame latitudes; but those countries produce Bb plants

plants very different from one another. It is much more proper to observe the altitude of the place in describing the habitations of plants; thus the aquatic plants of India often agree with those of Europe, as the hooded milfoil, the fun-dew, the waterlily, the arrow-head, and aldrovanda. The Alpine plants of Lapland, Greenland, Siberia, Switzerland, Wales, Scotland, the Pyrenean mountains, Olympus, Ararat, and Brazil, are often the same, though growing in places fo remote from each other. Suppose a meadow a little higher than the fea, and full of fuch plants as commonly grow in meadows, and the adjacent ground a little higher still, and further from the fea; this last will produce other plants very different from the meadow: examples of which may be feen every where. In describing the habitations of plants, we ought always particularly to mention the foil, fituation, nature of the ground, earth, mould, &c. in which they grow. This is very various, being either in the sea, on the sea shore, about fountains or springs, in rivers, or on the banks of rivers, in lakes, ditches, water-pits, ponds, pools, fens, marshes, bogs; on the tops of very high mountains, and in thick forests on their sides; on little hills, declivities, cliffs, rocks, stones, caverns, old high walls; groves, woods, hedges, and shady places:

places; heaths, commons, fields, fallows, closes, plowed lands, gardens, dunghills, rubbish, meadows, pastures, loam, sand, gravel, clay, chalk or marl; or laftly, on the roots, trunks, and branches of trees or other plants. In this respect plants may be arranged into fix general divisions, according to their places of growth above recited, viz. aquatic, Alpine, hilly, shady, campaign, and parafitic plants, each of which contains feveral fubdivisions. shall give examples of each in their order. 1. In the sea, many of the confervas, some charas, ulvas or lavers, all the fucuses, 20ftera marina, grass wrack; potamageton marinum, sea pondweed; ruppia marina, sea grafs. On the fea shores, hippophae rhamnoides, sea buckthorn; atriplex portulacoides, fea purslane; atriplex laciniata, hastata, serrata, littoralis, pedunculata, jagged sea orrache, wild orrache, indented sea orrache, grassleafed orrache, stalked sea orrache; scirpus maritimus, round-rooted bastard cyperus; rumex maritimus, golden dock; after tripolium, sea star-wort; glaux maritima, sea milk-wort, or black falt-wort; eryngium maritimum, sea holly; arenaria peploides, sea chickweed; statice limonium, sea lavender; artemisia maritima, sea wormwood; plantago maritima, sea plantain; plantago coronopus, buckshorn plantain; triglochin maritimus, sea spiked grass; crambe maritima, sea colewort; lotus B b 2 maritimus.

maritimus, sea lotus; pisum marinum, sea pease; ligusticum Scoticum, Scottish sea parfley; salicornea Europæa, marsh samphire; falfola kali, prickly glass-wort; chenopodium maritimum & fruticosum, sea blite and shrub stonecrop; bunias cakile, sea rocket; arenaria rubra marina, fea fpurrey; cochlearia Anglica & Danica, English and Danish fcurvy-grass; with many others. In lakes, &c. isoëtes lacustris, quill-wort; sparganium natans, least bur-reed; nymphæa lutea & alba, yellow and white water lily; potamogeton natans, perfoliatum & lucens, broadleafed, perfoliate and long-leafed pondweed; myriophyllum spicatum & verticillatum, spiked and verticillated water milfoil; ceratophyllum demersum, horned-leafed pondweed; scirpus acicularis & lacustris, least upright club-rush and bull-rush; typha latifolia & angustifolia, great cats-tail, and narrow-leafed cats-tail; arundo phragmites, common reed grass; equisetum fluviatile, river horse-tail; lobelia dortmanna, Clusius's water gladiole; fubularia aquatica, awlwort; limosella aquatica, bastard plantain; plantago uniflora, grass-leafed plantain, &c. In more shallow waters; potamogeton crifpum & compressum, greater water caltrops, small branched pondweed with a flat stalk; potamogeton pectinatum, gramineum, pusillum, fennel-leafed, grass-leafed, and small grassleafed pondweed; zanichellia palustris, horned fruited

fruited pondweed; callitriche verna & autumnalis, vernal and autumnal star-wort; utricularia vulgaris & minor, greater and leffer hooded milfoil; stratiotes aloides, water foldier; bydrocharis morsus, frogs-bit; ranunculus aquatilis, various leased water crowfoot; sagittaria sagittifolia, arrowhead; butomus umbellatus, flowering rush; alisma plantago aquatica & ranunculoides, greater and leffer water plantain; hottonia palustris, water violet; hippuris vulgaris, mare's tail; phellandrium aquaticum, water hemlock; ænanthe fistulosa & crocata, water and hemlock drop-wort; cicuta virofa, longleafed water hemlock; fium latifolium & nodistorum, great and creeping water parsnip; sison inundatum, least water-parsnip; iris pseudacorus, yellow water flower-de-luce; polygonum amphibium, perennial arimart; fontinalis antipyretica, greater water moss; acorus calamus, sweet flag; menyanthes tri-foliata, water trefoil; ranunculus lingua, great spear-wort; aira aquatica, water hairgrass; poa aquatica, reed meadow-grass; festuca fluitans, flote fescue grass; montia fontana, water chickweed; veronica beccabunga, brooklime; nasturtium aquaticum, water cresses; pilularia globulifera, pepper-grass; rumex aquaticus, water dock; phala-ris arundinacea, reed canary-grass; fcirpus palustris, club-rush; othonna palustris, marsh sleabane; osmunda regalis, osmund royal; B b 3 lythrum

lythrum salicaria, purple spiked loose-strife; lycopus Europæus, water horehound; senecio paludosus, bird's-tongue; arundo calamagrostis, branched reed-grass; lysimachia thyrfiflora & vulgaris, tufted and yellow loofestrife; eupatorium cannabinum, hemp agrimony; scutellaria galericulata, hooded willow herb; mentha aquatica, water mint; bydrocotyle vulgaris, marsh penny-wort; teucrium scordium, water germander; carex pseudo-cyperus, bastard carex; sparganium erectum, great bur-reed; acrosticum thelypteris, marsh fern; sisymbrium amphibium, water radish. In places that are overflown in the winter, fuch plants as the following; betula alnus, the alder; falix pentandra, fragilis, aurita, repens, sweet, crack, round-leafed, and creeping willow; juncus articulatus & bulbosus, jointed leafed and bulbose rush; triglochin palustre, arrowheaded grass; sanguisorba officinalis, burnet; cornus Suecica, dwarf honeyfuckle; epilobium palustre, marsh willow-herb; veronica scutellata, narrow-leafed water speedwell; alopecurus geniculatus, flote fox-tail; carex caspitosa, acuta, &c. turfy and brown carex; caltha palustris, marsh marygold; ranunculus auricomus, sweet wood crowfoot; gentiana pneumonanthe, calathian violet; equisetum palustre, marsh horse-tail; trifolium fragiferum, strawberry trefoil; lathyrus palustris, marsh chickling-vetch; inula pulicaria,

pulicaria, small fleabane; linum rhodiola, all feed, &c. In fpungy and fpouty ground; viburnum opulus, marsh elder; myrica gale, gale, or Dutch sweet willow; geum rivale, water avens; Parnassia palustris, grass of Parnassius; spira aulmaria, meadow sweet; comarum palustre, purple marsh cinquesoil; carex flava, yellow carex, &c.; angelica sylvestris, wild angelica; gallium palustre, white lady's-beditraw; nardus stricta, matgrass; pedicularis palustris, marsh louse-wort. In bogs and turfy ground; sphag-num palustre, common bog-moss; splachnum ampullaceum, common splachnum; scirpus cæspitosus, dwarf club-rush; eriophorum polystachion, cotton grass; carex pulicaris, flea carex; juncus effusus, common softrush; erica tetralix, cross-leased heath; vaccinium oxycoccos, cranberries, fun-dew, butter-wort; equisetum limosum, smooth horsetail; ophrys paludosa, the least orchis. 2. On or near the tops of very high mountains, or growing in forests on the sides of such high mountains. These are called Alpine plants; betula nana, dwarf birch; falix berbacea, herbaceous willow; arbutus Alpina, mountain strawberry tree; dryas octopetala, mountain avens; sibbaldia procumbens, baftard cinquefoil; alchemilla Alpina, cinquefoil lady's-mantle; rhodiola rosea, rosewort; saxifraga nivalis, oppositifolia, aizoides, cæspitosa, mountain, mountain heath-B b 4

like, yellow mountain, small mountain sengreen; trollius Europæus, globe flower; rumex digynus, round-leafed mountain forrel; draba incana, wreathen podded whitlow-grass; viola biflora & montana, Welsh and yellow violet; anthericum calyculatum, Scottish asphodel; tussilago frigida, mountain colts-foot; sonchus Alpinus, mountain fow-thiftle. 3. In groves and woods grow the shady plants; as fagus sylvestris, beech tree; fraxinus excelsior, ash tree; corylus avellana, hazle nut; tilia Europæa, lime tree; acer platanoides, greater maple; rhamnus catharticus, buckthorn; prunus padus, cluster cherry; euonymus Europæus, spindle tree; ribes Alpinum, mountain currants; daphne mezereon, spurge olive; rhamnus frangula, blackberry-bearing alder; rosa eglanteria, sweet briar; rubus fruticosus, bramble; milium effusum, millet-grass; cireæa Alpina, lutetiana, mountain and common enchanter's nightshade; fanicula Europæa, fanicle; galeopsis galeobdolon, yellow nettle-hemp; convallaria majalis, May-lily; ornithogalum luteum, yellow star of Bethlehem; fumaria bulbofa, bulbofe fumitory; lathyrus latifolius, broad-leafed peafe everlasting; primula veris, cowslips; paris quadrifolia, herb paris; campanula trachelium, great throat-wort; asperula odorata, wood-10 f, hart's-tongue; melampyrum nemorum, cretted cow-wheat; pinus sylvestris & abies, Scotch Scotch and common fir; taxus baccata, yew tree; juniperus, common juniper; berberis vulgaris, barberry; populus tremula, trembling poplar; betula alba, birch tree; vaccinium myrtillus, black whorts; pyrola, winter-green, all the forts; anemone nemorosa, wood anemone; juncus pilosus, common hairy wood-rush; lycopodium clavatum, common club-moss; annotinum, Welsh clubmoss; equisetum sylvestre, wood horse-tail; byemale, shave-grass; melampyrum sylvaticum, yellow cow-wheat; gnaphalium sylvestre, upright cudweed. 4. On heaths, commons, fields, fallows, &c. fuch plants as rubus caesius, dewberry bush; ononis spinofa, prickly rest-harrow; convolvulus arvensis, small bindweed; mentha arvensis, corn-mint; papaver dubium, long smoothheaded poppy; pisum arvense, common pease; myagrum sativum, gold of pleasure; erysimum cherianthoides, treacle worm-seed; lapsana communis, nipple-wort; ervum tetraspermum, smooth tare; euphorbia helioscopia, wart-wort; panicum crus galli, loose panic-grass; dianthus armeria, Deptford pink; avena fatua, bearded wild oats; lolium annuum, annual darnel; agrestis Spica venti, filky bent-grass; bromus secalinus & arvensis, field and corn brome-grass. In closes, plowed lands, gardens, dunghills, rubbish, &c.; ægopodium podagraria, herbgerard; leontodon taraxacum, dandelion; gallium

gallium aparine, goose-grass; æthusa cynapium, fool's-parsley; sonchus oleraceus, sowthistle; chenopodium polyspermum, vulvaria, viride, hybridum, round-leafed blite, stinking orrache, green blite, maple-leafed blite; thlaspi bursa passioris, shepherd's purse; lamium purpureum, red dead-nettle; veronica agrestis, germander speedwell; geranium cicutaria, hemlock-leafed cranesbill, and several others; urtica urens, common nettle; euphorbia peplus, petty spurge; amaranthus blitum, least blite; ulmus campestris, com-mon elm; sambucus nigra & ebulus, common and dwarf elder; marubium album, white horehound; nepeta cataria, cat-mint; artemisia absynthium, common wormwood; plantago major, great broad-leafed plantain; bryonia alka, white briony; cynoglossum officinale, hound's-tongue; leonurus cardiaca, mother-wort; datura stramonium, thornapple; byoscyamus albus & niger, black and white henbane; hordeum murinum, wall barley; verbena officinalis, vervain; lamium album, white dead-nettle; veronica chamadrys, wild germander; reseda luteola, weld; malva sylvestris, common mallow; polygonum aviculare, knot-grass; senecio vulgaris, common rag-wort; with many more. meadows and pastures, &c. such plants as the following; pyrus malus & communis, apple and pear tree; lolium perenne, perennial darnel; campanula rotundifolia & patula, leffer

lesser round-leafed and field bell-flower; hypericum quadrangulare, St. Peter's-wort; trifolium pratense, meadow trefoil; spiræa filipendula, drop-wort; lotus corniculata, bird's-foot trefoil; aira cæspitosa & caryophyllæa, turfy and filver hair grass; cynosurus cristatus, crested hair-grass; poa pratensis, great meadow-grass; avena flavescens, yellow oat-grass; carex panicea, pink earex; lychnis dioïca, white and red campion; phleum pratense, meadow cats-tail; alopecurus pratensis, meadow foxtail-grass; leontodon autumnale, yellow devil's-bit; linum catharticum, purging flax; tragapogon pratense, yellow goat's-beard; melampyrum pratense, meadow cow-wheat. In fandy ground; salix arenaria, fand willow; spartium scoparium, common broom; genista tinctoria, dyer's weed; ligustrum vulgare, privet; elymus arenarius, sea lyme-grass; arundo arenaria, fea reed-grass; carex arcnaria, sea carex; dianthus arenaria, stonepink; scleranthus perennis, perennial knawel; thymus serpillum, mother of thyme; antir-rhinum linaria, toadflax; statice armeria, thrift; asiragulus arenarius, purple mountain milk-wort; festuca ovina, sheep's fescuegrafs; cerastium semidecandrum, least mouseear chickweed; filago montana, least cudweed; arenaria purpurea, purple-flowered fpurrey; bromus tectorum, wall brome; valeriana locusta, lamb's-lettuce; myosurus minimus.

nimus, mouse-tail; phleum arenarium, sea canary-grass; aira canescens & præcox, grey and early hair-grass. In clayey ground; tuspilago farfara, common coltsfoot; anthyllis vulneraria, lady's-finger; potentilla reptans, common cinquefoil; plantago media, hoary plantain; cichoreum intybus, wild succory; inula dysenterica, middle fleabane. In chalky ground; hippocrepis comosa, tufted horseshoe-vetch; bedysarum onobrychis, faintfoin; trifolium scabrum, oval-headed trefoil; verbena officinalis, vervain; campanula glomerata, lesser throat-wort; reseda lutea, base rocket; cheiranthus luteus, wall-flower. 5. On dry, fandy, and gravelly hills, icorched with the fun, grow, falix caprea, common fallow; prunus spinosa, sloe tree; crategus oxyacantha, hawthorn; rosa canina, red flowered dog's-rose; medicago falcata, yellow medick; trifolium repens, creeping trefoil; alchemilla vulgaris, lady's-mantle; cucubalus behen, white corn campion; ranunculus bulbosus, bulbose crowfoot; plantago lanceolata, rib-wort plantain; avena pratensis, meadow oat-grass; daucus carota, bird's-nest; gentiana campestris, vernal dwarf gentian; trifolium : agrarium, hop trefoil; holcus lanatus, meadow foft-grafs. On the declivities, or dry floping fides, of little hills; quercus robur, oak; crategus aria, white beam tree; forbus aucuparia, mountain ash; prunus domesticus, garden plum;

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plum; lonicera periclymenum, honeysuckle; rosa spinosissima, burnet rose; carpinus betulus, hornbeam; acer campestre, common maple; trifolium montanum, mountain trefoil; hypericum perforatum, perforate St. John's-wort; geranium sanguineum, bloody cranesbill; anemone pulsatilla, pasque flower; saxifraga granulata, white faxifrage; polygala vulgaris, milk-wort; achilla millefolium, yarrow; ophigloffum vulgare, adder'stongue; melampyrum cristatum, crested cowwheat. In rocky and stony places; rubus idæus, raspberry bush ; sedum telephium, rupestre, reflexum, album & acre, orpine, St. Vincent's rock stone-crop, yellow stonecrop, white flowered and wall stone-crop; sempervivum tectorium, houseleek; polypodium vulgare, common polypody; asplenium ruta muraria, wall-rue; acrosticum septentrionale & ilvense, forked and hairy fern; convallaria polygonatum & multiflora, sweet fmelling and common Solomon's feal; geranium Robertianum, herb Robert; potentilla rupestris, bastard upright cinquesoil; hypericum montanum, mountain St. John'swort; rubus saxatilis, stone bramble; melica nutans, melick-grafs; poa compressa, creeping poa; silene nutans, Nottingham catchfly; aira flexuosa, mountain hair-grass, 6. On the trunks, branches, and roots of trees and other plants; viscum album, misseltoe; cuscuta Europæa, dodder; monotropa

tropa bypopytis, bird's-nest smelling like primrose roots; lathræa squamaria, tooth-wort; orobanche major, broom-rape; besides various mosses, lichens, and funguses. In loam, and the common black vegetable earth or mould (which is the principal food of plants), most plants will grow, as appears by gardens in which plants from various foils do thrive. From what has been faid it appears, that the nature of any ground or foil may be readily known from the bare inspection of the plants that grow in the same. Thus, the potentilla argentea, tormentil cinquefoil, indicates clay under the furface; melampyrum cristatum, crested cow-wheat, grows only in hilly ground; melampyrum arvense, purple cow-wheat, in plowed land; melampyrum nemorum, wood cow-wheat, in groves or shady places; melampyrum pratense, meadow cow-wheat, in meadow or pasture ground; melampyrum fylvaticum, yellow cow-wheat, in woods; pedicularis fylvatica, common louse-wort, in spungy or spouty ground; aira cærulæa, purple hair-grass, in turfy ground.

#### SECT. CCCXXXV.

The time of the whole duration of plants, or the years of their age, the time of their germination, that is, their sprouting or springing out of the ground after sowing, the time of their soliation, or leaf-

ing, flowering, fleeping, watching, fruiting, and shedding their leaves, plainly indicates the climate, or points out to us how one climate differs from another. And first of germination, which is the time that feeds require to fpring out of the ground, or to put forth their feminal leaves after fowing. And in this respect the seeds of plants differ amazingly, from one or two days to as many years. Thus, e.g. the millet and wheat come up in one or two days; the navew, rocket, blite, mustard, turnip, spinache, and kidney-bean, in three or four days; the dill, lettuce, cucumber, gourd, and creffes, in four or five days; the beet and radish in six days; barley in seven days; orrach in eight days; cabbage in ten; beans require from fifteen to twenty; the onion comes up in nineteen or twenty days; the hyffop in thirty days; parfley feed in forty days; fmallage in forty or fifty days; the peach, almond, walnut, chefnut, and piony, in one year; the cornel and hazle-nut in two years after fowing. The foliation or leafing of plants is the time of the spring or summer they unfold, expand, or put out their first leaves. The order of the leafing of trees at Upfal in Sweden, 1755, is as follows:

1. Red elder.

3. Gooseberry,

<sup>2.</sup> Honeyfuckle,

4.	Red currant,	15 1 -	
	Spiraa frutex,	11 1	
		May	~g.
7.	Spindle tree,	Ulli II	14.
· 8.	Shrub cinquefoil,	771767	7
q.	Common elder,	ذر بداد	6 3
	Privet,	1 1	14.
	Quicken tree,	=0	
	The ofier,	3. S	13:
	Alder,		14.
	Sea buckthorn,	May	
	Apple tree,	773	15.
	Cherry tree,		15.
	Water elder,		14.
	Birch,	1	13.
	Hazle,	1-	9.
20.	Elm,		15.
	Dog rofe,		Y
	Pear tree,	-	
-23.	Plum tree,		
	Buckthorn,		15.
25	Berry-bearing alder,		21.
26.	Lime tree,	- 10	21.
	Beech,		16.
	. Aria Theophrasti,	OUE.	
	Afp,	1 - 1	20.
	Maple,		
	Oak,		21.
22	Ash.		21.

The order of the leafing of some trees and shrubs in Norfolk, in the year 1755,

#### Chap. XI. OF BOTANY. 385 as observed by Mr. Stillingsleet, is as follows: Jan. 15. 1. Honeysuckle, Mar. 2. Goofeberry, II. 3. Currant, II. 4. Elder, II. 5. Birch, Apr. 6. Weeping willow, 1. 7. Raspberry, 8. Bramble. 3. Bramble, 36 Apr. 9. Briar, 4. 6. ro. Plum, 6. 11. Apricot, 6. 12. Peach, 7. 13. Filberd, 14. Sallow, 7. 7. 15. Alder, 9. 16. Sycamore, 17. Elm, 10. 18. Quince, 10. 19. Marsh elder, II. 12. 20. Wych elm, 13. 21. Quicken tree, 22. Hornbeam, 1.3. 23. Apple tree, 14. 16. 24. Abele, 16. 25. Chefnut, 17. 26. Willow, 18. 27. Oak, 1.8. 28. Lime, 19. 29. Maple, 21. 30. Walnut, 31. Plane,

31. Plane,	Apr.	21.
32. Black poplar,	•	21.
33. Beech,		21.
34. Acacia robinia,		21.
35. Ash,		22.
36. Carolina poplar,		22.
Flowering is the time that	each fp	ecies
f plants puts forth their i	first flo	wers.
hus at Upfal in 1755;		
Common coltsfoot,	Apr.	12.
Spring crocus,		13.
Snow-drops,		13.
Pile-wort,		i 5.
Yellow star of Bethlehem,		15.
Mezereon,		15.
Perfoliate honeyfuckle,		1.5.
Noble liver-wort,		16.
Yellow water lily,		17.
White poplar,	1	19.
Wild black hellebore,		21.
Black poplar,		30.
Butter-bur,		30.
Garden polyanthus,	May	Γ.
Wood anemone,	, ,	3.
Sweet violet,		3.
Ofier,		7.
Tuberous moschatel,		7.
Wood-forrel,		13.
Bear's-ear,		14.
Wild English daffodil,		15.
Marsh marygold,	¢ 5	21.
Tulip,		25.
	Ground	

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Ground-ivy,	May 26.
Globe flower,	27.
Lily of the valley,	30.
Apple tree,	2.
Buckbean,	3.
Goofeberry bush,	June 7.
Dame's-violet,	7• 8.
Barberry,	
Yellow water flag,	10.
White campion,	14.
Water elder,	14.
Grafs of Parnaffus,	16.
Ox-eye daify,	17.
Eye-bright, Bulbose lily,	17.
Deadly nightshade,	18.
Wall pepper,	20.
Yellow day-lily,	20.
Blue bottle,	22.
Yellow loofe-strife,	22.
Rose-bay willow herb,	23.0
Golden rod,	23.
Mock orange,	23.
Tway blade,	26.
Yellow medic,	27.
White briony,	28.
Corn marygold,	29.
Feverfew,	29.
Maiden pink,	29.
Field scabious,	29.
Common elder,	29.
Small bindweed,	July 1.
C c 2	Giant

Giant throat-wort, July	2.
Meadow rue,	2.
Purple fox-glove,	4.
Meadow fweet,	4.
Six o'clock primrose,	4.
Common yarrow,	6.
Yellow lady's-bedstraw,	6.
St. John's-wort,	6.
Common briar,	7.
Mother-wort,	7· 8.
Deptford pink,	8.
Burdock,	9.
Mug-wort,	10.
Water betony,	10.
Tree fow-thiftle,	HI.
Wild fuccory,	12.
White stone-crop,	14.
Red-day lily,	16.
Dwarf elder,	17.
White lily,	20.
Calathian violet,	26.
Orpine, Aug.	I.
Devil's-bit,	28.
Meadow faffron,	28.

The times of flowering of some plants at Stratton in Norfolk, as observed by Mr. Stillingsleet in 1755.

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Red dead-nettle,	Jan.	23.
Laurustinus,		23.
Snow-drops,		26.
Common daify,	-in-	26.
7	I	Hafel

and the second second second	
Chap. XI. OF BOTANY.	389
Hasel tree, Feb	. 22.
Sallow, Mar	. 11
Scurvy-grafs,	21.
Aſp,	21.
Alder,	26.
Sweet violet,	28.
Pile-wort,	28.
Primrofe,	29.
Yew tree,	29.
Elm tree, Apr.	
Apricot,	1.
Wild English dasfodil,	ī.
Red currants, Peach,	3· 6.
T) 1 1'	
Wood anemone,	10.
T :	12.
0 1	13.
Goofeberry,	13.
Turnips,	15.
Ground-ivy,	16.
Plum tree,	16.
Wood-forrel,	16.
Marsh marygold,	16.
White willow,	17.
Oak,	18.
Cherry tree,	18.
Wall-flower,	21.
Ash,	22.
Buckbean,	22.
Sycamore,	25.
Hornbeam,	25.
C c 3	Wild

Wild cicely,	Apr., 25.
Wild germander,	26.
Lilac,	27.
Birch tree,	27.
Sweet wood crowfoot,	28.
Bugle,	29.
Avens,	May 1.
Water violet,	_3∙
Lamb's-lettuce,	4.
Cowflips,	4.
Wild valerian,	4.
White faxifrage,	6.
Woodroof,	8.
Solomon's feal,	10.
Horse chesnut,	12.
Bulbose crowfoot,	14.
Hedge-mustard,	16.
Earth-nut,	20.
Columbines,	. 25.
Clover,	37.
Cuckow flower,	30,
Water elder,	June 2.
Bramble,	5.
Sanicle,	8.
Field scabious,	12.
Common mallow,	15.
Yarrow,	18.
Wheat and rye,	21.
Corn marygold,	23.
Wild fuccory,	28.
Blue bottles,	28.
Calathian violet,	July 2.
	Maiden

Chap. XI. OF BOTANY.	391
Maiden pinks, July	7.
Kidney-beans,	10.
White lily,	11.
Mug-wort,	16.
Water hemp agrimony,	18.
Penny-royal,	22.
Great bindweed,	27.
Tree fow-thiftle,	28.
Devil's-bit,	28.
Rue, Aug.	I.
Tansey,	5.
Common wormwood,	9.
Burdock,	12.
Vervain mallow,	15.
Yellow devil's-bit,	21.
Smallage,	20.

From the blow of the snow-drops to that of the meadow saffron, at Upsal, is about 135 days, at Norwich about 190 days. The grass of Parnassus is the forerunner of hay-harvest; and the meadow saffron of

fowing wheat.

Teasel.

The watching or vigils of plants are the precise times of the day that their flowers open and shut. Such flowers as observe a determinate time of opening and shutting are called solar; and are of three forts, viz.

1. Meteorical, which observe the hour of expanding with less accuracy, but open sooner or later according to the degree of

Cc4 shade,

shade, moisture, dryness, greater or lesser

pressure of the atmosphere.

2. Tropical, are those which open in the morning and shut up before night, but the time of their opening is sooner or later as the days increase or decrease; therefore they observe the Turkish or unequal hours.

3. The third fort of folar flowers is called the Equinoctial. These open precisely at a certain hour of the day, and generally shut up every day at a determinate hour, and therefore observe European or equal hours.

Here follow the most common solar flowers, with their times of opening and

shutting.

Tt. J t an and	Opens.	Shuts,
1. Leontodon taraxa- cum, dandelion, 2. Leontodon hispi- dum, rough dan-	5 6 8 9	
delion, 3. Leontodon autumnale, yellow de-	4	3
vil's-bit, 4. Hypochærismacu- lata, spotted hawk-	7	3
weed, 5. Hypochæris radi-	6	4 5
cata, long-rooted hawkweed,	7 8	2

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	Opens.	Shuts.
6. Hypochæris glabra,	- I	
fmooth hawkweed,	0 10	I
	9 12	1
7. Hieracium auricula,		
narrow-leafedhawk-		
weed,	8	2
8. Hieracium murorum,		
French or golden		
lung-wort,	6 7	2
lung-wort, 9. Hieracium umbella-	•	
tum, narrow - leafed		
bushy hawkweed,	6	-
10. Hieracium sabau-	•	<b>5</b> .
dum, broad - leafed		
		- 3
bushy hawkweed,	7	I 2
11. Hieracium auranti-		
acum, golden mouse-		
ear,	6 7	3 4
ear, 12. Crepis tectorum,		
fmooth fuccory		
hawkweed,	4 5 10 12	
13. Crepis Alpina, Al-	. 3	
pine bastard hawk-		
weed.	5 6 11	
weed, 14. Crepis rubra, red	2 -0 ++	
flowered Apulian		
hawkwood	6 -	
hawkweed,	6 7	I 2
15. Picris echioides,		
ox's-tongue,	4 5 12	9

	Opens.		Shuts.		
16. Sonchus arvensis, tree fow-thistle,					
17. Sonchus oleraceus,	U	7	10	12	
common fow-thif-				1	
tle, 18. Sonchus Alpinus,	5		11	12	
blue flower Alpine					
1	~			12	
19. Sonchus palustris,	1			12	
	6	7			2
20. Lactuca fativa,		•			
garden lettuce, 21. Scorzonera Tingi-	7			10	
tana, Tangier vi-				4	
per's-grass,	4	6		10	
22. Tragapogon pra-					
tense, yellow goat's-					
beard, 23. Tragapogon Co-	3	5	9	10	
lumnæ, Columna's					
goat's-beard,	5	6		II	
24. Tragapogon Dale-					
champii, Dalecham-					
pius's great hawk- weed,	5	-7			
25. Lapfana rhagadio-	,	/		12	4
lus, rhagadiolus,	5	6		I Q	I
26. Lapfana stellata,					
starry hawkweed,	7	8			2

•	Opens.	Shuts.
38. Arenaria rubra,	1	2 -
purple flowered spur-		
rey, 39. Anagalis arvensis, pimpernel,	9 10	2 3
39. Anagalis arvensis,	1101	0.0
I 1	7.62 -	17 :
40. Anagalis Monelli,		
Monellus's narrow-		1 0
leafed pimpernel,	7 8	11
41. Portulaca oleracea,		
garden purslane,	9 10 11 12	
42. Dianthus prolifer.	0	1
proliferous pink,	8	I.
43. Mesembryanthemum	* **	
barbatum, star-point-	m Q	2
ed ficoïdes, 44. Mesembryanthemum	/ 0	7
crystallinum, diamond		
A 1	9 10	3 4
45. Mesembryanthemum	9 19	3 7
nodiflorum, fig mary-		,
gold of Naples, 1	0 11	3.
46. Mesembryanthemum		- Y
linguiforme, tongue-		
leafed ficoides,	7 8	3
47. Oenothera biennis,	11111	
night primrose, opens		
at		6 .

From the above-mentioned flowers an hour-index may be formed, or a method of

of discovering the true time of the day, after having excluded the meteorical and tropical flowers, thus:

At 3. Tragapogon pratense, N° 22. of the list.

4. Leontodon hispidum, 2.

5. Sonchus oleraceus, 17.

6. Hypochæris maculata, 4.

6. Hieracium umbellatum, 9.

7. Hieracium fabaudum, 10. 8. Hieracium auricula, 7.

9. Hypochæris glabra, 6.

9, 10. Malva Caroliniana, 35.

10. Lactuca sativa, 20.

11. Crepis Alpina, 13.

12. Sonchus Alpinus, 18.

1. Dianthus prolifer. 42. 2. Sonchus palustris, 19.

3. Leontodon bispidum, 2.

4. Tragapogon Dalechampii, 24.

5. Nymphæa alba, 29.

6. Oenothera biennis, 47, opens.

7. Papaver nudicaule, 32.

8. Hemerocalis fulva, 33, &c.

The calendula pluvialis, 31, opens between fix and feven in the morning, and shuts at four in the afternoon, if the weather is dry; but if it opens not its flowers at feven in the morning, you are fure to have rain that day. There is but one exception from this rule, and that is, if there comes rain with thunder, the prognostic from this flower is then not to be depended on. If the *fonchus Sibiricus*, or Siberian fowthistle, shuts up its flowers in the nighttime, the following day is generally fine; but if its flowers keep open all night, the

following day is generally rainy.

Of the fleep of plants (as we may call it) in the night, we have spoken somewhat in chapter V. sect. 133. This sleep of plants is a certain position or situation of their leaves very different from that they have by day, and takes place almost in every species of plants. In those with simple leaves it is in the four following ways. 1. By conniving, when two opposite leaves are so closely applied to one another by their upper furface, as if they were but one leaf, by which means the tender buds of the future leaves and fructification are preferved as under a cover from the injuries of the night air; as in garden orache, and common chickweed. 2. By including, when alternate leaves during the night lie close to the stem, and thereby include and guard the tender buds, boughs, or flowers; as in enothera mollis, or hairy tree primrose. 3. By furrounding, when the leaves, which by day have a horizontal polition, are raifed upwards in the night, and furround both the stem and tops of the young shoots.

shoots, in form of a tunnel, under which the tender flowers and young leaves are covered and preferved from being hurt or injured; as in mandrake and thorn-apple. 4. By guarding, when the uppermost leaves with their long footstalks, which stood be-fore in a horizontal position, now hang down quite round, and form as it were a vault, to preserve the flowers and tender leaves from the wind, dew, rain, and other external injuries; as in impatiens noli tangere, or quick-in-hand. In the plants that have compound leaves this night position of their leaves is in the fix following ways. 1. By folding together, when the partial leaves are laid close to one another, like the leaves of a book, thereby covering their upper furfaces; as in fweet pea, or painted lady, and common bean. 2. By involving, when the partial leaves only connive, or come close together at top, and all of them together form a cavity to include and guard the tender flower; as in bladder trefoil, and heart trefoil. 3. By diverging, when the partial leaves approach one another at the base, but spread open at their extremities or tips; as in common melilot. 4. By hanging down of the partial leaves, that the young shoots be not too much loaded by the dew or rain, or shaken by the wind; as in white lupine. 5. and 6. By inverting and imbricating, or lying over

one another like tiles, that the upper and more tender furface of the partial leaves may be covered, and the common footstalks defended from wind, rain, and storms; as in almost all the species of cassia, tamarind tree, logwood, most species of the mimosa or fenfitive plant, and triple-thorned acacia.

Now this nocturnal change in the position of the leaves of plants, which we call fleep, may be ascribed by some, partly to the darkness, and partly to the cool air, of the night. But that these are not the sole cause of this phænomenon appears from hence, that the same plants, though placed in a stove, where the degree of heat is the fame both day and night, do notwithstanding at their usual hours in the evening contract their leaves, and go to fleep, and open or expand them again very early in the morning; and, which is very remarkable, that they observe the same vicissitudes of contracting and expanding their leaves, whether the window shutters of the stove are shut or open. Let it be observed, that as animals while young and tender fleep most, so also do plants in their young state, but when grown up they indulge less in this respect.

The next thing to be observed, is the time that plants ripen their fruits and seeds. Common barley fown in Lapland May 31, 1732, was cut July 28, confequently ripened

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ripened in 58 days. The same fort of bar-ley sown at Upsal Mar. 6, 1750, was cut Aug. 4, and ripened in 151 days. And we find that at Upfal the medium is 110 days, in Scania 90 days, and in Lapland 60 days. For as eggs require a fixed time for the ex-clusion of the young, so the barley does in different provinces to ripen the feed, as appears by the above examples. And thus should observations be made on other plants as to the time of ripening their feeds.

Defoliation is the time of autumn, when trees shed their leaves, and thereby point out the progress of autumn, and the approach of the ensuing winter. The ash is among the first that sheds, and the last that puts out its leaves. The first fall of the leaves of trees with us is about the autumnal equinox. We ought carefully to obferve also the first blowing of the meadow

faffron.

The time of the duration of plants comprehends the years of their age; which in many are eafily reckoned from the internal concentric circles or rofiny rings in the trunk when felled. Here Linnaus gives an example, from his journey through Oeland, of an oak, which had 200 of those internal concentric circles, by which it appeared to have been fown in the year 1481. And another example is produced, from his n a journey

journey through Westrogothia, of a pine fown in the year 1337, and 409 years old when felled. The ages of the pine, cedar, apple tree, pear tree, &c. may be known also from their annual boughs or branches. The time when the most fevere or most mild winters happened, may also be made out from the internal rings of

many trees, particularly the oak.

Botanists, having been hitherto taken up in acquiring the knowledge of plants, and confounded, or as it were overwhelmed, with the prodigious number and vast variety which nature every where prefented to their view, have not been at leisure to make a regular course of observations in the manner of aftronomers, although, in my opinion, fuch observations would have been of far greater utility to the public. Calendars of Flora should be made out in every province yearly, according to the time of plants coming into leaf, flower, fruit, and shedding their leaves; observing also the climate, that the difference of one country from another might from thence appear. The time also of folar flowers opening and shutting should be made out in every climate, that any one, without the help of a clock, or feeing the fun, might know the time of the day. Maps of the plants also should be formed,

which would point out every where the country, climate, and foil. Such observa-tions would be highly useful in discovering more clearly the nature of the earth in general. The progress of the year from the putting out to the fall of the leaves of trees would shew the climate, and also the greatest heat and cold of the place. In our botanic thermometer the freezing point is o, and that of boiling water 100. autumnal plants are those of Virginia, which flower kindly with us in Sept. and-Oct. but rarely produce ripe feeds. The winter plants are those of the Cape of Good Hope, that flower with a gentle heat in the middle of winter, which is Midsummer time in their native places. The spring or vernal plants are all those called the Alpine, which produce their flowers and fruit very early. The plants which flower twice a year, to wit, in spring and autumn, are all the Indian ones between the Tropics. The cold plants, fuch as the Alpine, &c. will fcarcely bear the heat of 30 degrees on our thermometer. The temperate plants, fuch as those of Spain, Italy, &c. will scarce bear the cold of 8 degrees. The warm plants will bear the heat of 40 degrees, but the cold of 10 degrees will kill them. The cold plants placed in a stove, at first grow very luxuriant, but in a Dda

short time grow weak and die. The warm plants in a cold situation do first cease to grow, then lose their leaves, and produce neither flowers nor fruit.

#### CHAP. XII.

Of the VIRTUES and USES of PLANTS.

#### SECT. CCCXXXVI.

THE virtues of plants ought, by the true systematic botanist, to be derived from the fructification, observing at the fame time the tafte, fmell, colour, and place of growth. The different fects of phyficians have been in every age folici-, tous to trace and discover the virtues of plants. The empiries were the first: they built their rules and maxims on experience alone. Of this number were Diotcorides, and all the antient physicians and botanists who lived before the revival of learning. After which period, physicians attempted by some different and shorter ways to difcover the virtues of plants, all which proved falle and delusive theories (except the method

thod here proposed), as we shall see in the fequel. And first of astrologers, who supposed that the stars had a certain influence upon every plant, by which each produced its effect upon that part of the human body over which fuch stars presided like tutelar deities. Thus they supposed certain stars presided over the heart, and that the plant, which was subject to their influence as well as the heart, was an useful and proper medicine for disorders of the heart, &c. 2. The next were those who from some external figns or marks on plants endeavoured to afcertain their virtues. They knew that certain medicines of a yellow colour, fuch as faffron, turmerick, rhubarb, celandine, were given with fuccess in that yellow disease called the jaundice. They found also that medicines of a red colour, fuch as dragon's-blood, Japan earth, tormentil, bloody-dock, were used in the cure of the bloody flux; hence they were perfuaded there was a great mystery in the colour. Moreover, they thought proper to confult the figure also. Thus they imagined they faw in the flowers of the orchises the figures of the male and female parts of generation, and hence concluded that those plants must be provocatives to venery. So the oriental anacardium from its figure must strengthen the D d 3 heart:

heart; and the occidental, for the fame reason, the kidneys. The large roundheaded common white cabbage must be good for diforders of the head, &c. 3. The chemists thought proper to examine plants according to the principles of their art. They faw that they could separate all the principles of minerals and folils, and that they could also by the help of fire feparate certain parts of bodies, which being exhibited in fmall quantities, would produce wonderful effects, fuch as the oil, spirit, water, falt, and earth; and thus they gave us all the constituent parts of plants feparately, and hence concluded in what way plants compounded of those parts would produce their effect. The members of the royal academy of sciences at Paris thought proper to make a farther enquiry into this subject, about the end of the last century, as Geofroy and Tournefort inform us. The members of this illustrious fociety, after long and laborious refearches on this subject, were at last obliged to own, that although in many plants the end feemed to be attained pretty clearly, yet in many others they were far from the end proposed. For they observed, for example, that the ginseng produced the same chemical principles as the common hepatica. Hence they were led to conclude, as Chomel

Chomel tells us, who was himself a member of the fociety, that though they had chemically analysed almost 2000 plants, no other certain discovery was made, but that from all those they could commonly extract a small quantity of an acid liquor like vinegar, a greater or lesser quantity of es-sential or settle oil, a certain quantity of fixed or volatile falt, infipid phlegm and earth; and very often that all these were contained in the fame quantity and proportion in plants which had the most different effects. Thus they found that their labour was vain and useless: yet it had this good effect, to take off people's prejudices con-cerning the usefulness of chemistry in afcertaining the virtues and powers of medicines. We grant that chemistry, which furnishes us with very efficacious and compendious medicines, is of the greatest use to physic; but we deny that the virtues of plants can be demonstrated à priori by means of chemistry. Nor is it indeed clear, that the chemists by their art alone ever discovered any virtues of plants which were unknown before. These methods therefore here mentioned of determining the virtues of plants proving ineffectual, let us next examine the method here proposed from the fructification,

SECT. CCCXXXVII.

Plants which are of the same genus, agree in their medicinal virtues; those of the fame order in the natural method, are nearly of the same virtues; and those which are of the same natural class, have in some measure the same virtues. And here we shall first observe, that such plants as agree exactly in fructification, or, in other words, are of the same genus, have very feldom hitherto been found to differ in medicinal virtues; e. g. all the species of convolvulus, viz. the scammony, turpeth, jallap, mechoacan, foldonella, &c. have the fame virtues. The fame may be faid of the species of allium, viz. garlick, onion, leeks, moly, cives, eschalots, rockambole, &c. And also of the species of laurus, viz. cinnamon, camphire, fatfafras, benzoin, &c. And also of the species of euphorbia, viz. the pine spurge, broad-leafed or garden spurge, German spurge, the euphorbium of the shops, &c. And also of the species of artemisia, viz. lavender cotton, worm-feed, common wormwood, fea wormwood, Roman wormwood, fea wormwood with a lavender leaf, &c. The fystematic botanists endeavoured long fince to determine the virtues of plants according to the classes and orders of their feveral fystems; but feeing there was no natural fystem then constructed,

structed, and botanists were obliged to take the foundation of their systems, which were partly natural and partly artificial, from some part or other of the fructification, and by that means either to break the natural classes, or transgress the rules of their fystems, and by so doing frustrate the defign of them, which was, according to certain principles, to lead to the knowledge of any genus; this being the case, I say, it was no wonder the virtues of plants in some classes feemed to differ widely from one another. That there are natural classes or affemblages of plants truly natural we have already feen in the first chapter; for although botanists have not hitherto found out any fystem which could comprehend all the natural classes entire, nevertheless the fragments of a natural method, as far as hitherto discovered, have been laid down in the chapter above quoted. As all plants were found to have a fructification, botanists justly concluded that this was the only effential part of all vegetables. They had indeed long endeavoured to find out a systematic arrangement of plants, and to this end had attempted to form fuch an arrangement from the various parts of plants, viz. the root, the stem, the leaves, but in vain. At last they betook themselves to the fructification, and in this they could

410 THE ELEMENTS Part II. not agree in opinion, fome taking the feeds, others the fruit, and others the flower, as the foundation of their fystem, not considering that all the parts of fructification ought to coincide, to constitute one certain fystematic genus. These difficulties being now got over, we shall lay it down as a rule, that plants which agree in flower and fruit are of the same genus; and that those which agree in genus have an affinity one to another, and agree also in their medicinal virtues, in fuch a manner that we may in a great measure à priori determine the effects of any plant in this way. For in the fructification the internal effence of a plant is fet before us, by viewing of which we may read its characters; and in them the All-wife Creator has clearly pointed out its nature, manner of growth, and medicinal virtues. We see then that there are natural genera throughout the whole vegetable kingdom; and we see also, that while we collect the natural genera into one natural class, their limits approach so near to one another, that it is difficult to diffinguish the genera one from another, so great is their affinity; as may be feen in the umbelliserous, compound, papilionaceous plants, and feveral others. We contend

therefore, that the virtues of plants are best and most safely determined according

to the natural claffes, providing we are acquainted before hand with the virtues of one or two plants of the fame clafs; for if this is wanting, in vain shall we also expect any affistance even from these means. And beside this way, there is no other by which we can arrive at the sure knowledge of the virtues of plants, but only by experience. Let us then try this botanical method according to the natural orders, and see how far the plants contained in them agree in virtues and uses.

#### SECT. CCCXXXVIII.

The leaves of the graffes afford nourishment and support to our flocks, herds, and beafts of burden; the smaller seeds of graffes ferve for food to birds; and the larger, called esculent seeds, to man. The graffes are all those plants which in the fexual system are comprehended under the triandria digynia, with a few others, and constitute the fourth order of the natural method. All these are eaten by such animals as we mentioned, and are indeed the principal part of their food, though some are more fond of one grass than another. The seeds of many graffes, as the millet, canary, fescue, panic, and others, are greedily de-voured by turkies, geese, chickens, and fmall birds. The larger feeds or grain, as

rice, wheat, rye, barley, oats, millet, panic, mayz, &c. do all make part of man's daily food; but the annual darnel, which is a large grain almost like wheat, intoxicates in beer, though it even loses this quality when made into bread; and has been used in time of scarcity. And among all this numerous tribe there is not to be found one poisonous species.

#### SECT. CCCXXXIX.

The starry plants are chiefly diuretic. They are of the tetrandria monogymia, and 47 order of the natural method. Of these, the madder and woodroof are officinals, well known for their diuretic virtues. Akin to them are the goose-grass, lady's-bedstraw, &c. which also promote urine pretty powerfully.

#### SECT. CCCXL.

The rough-leafed plants are more or less of the oleraceous kind, and also mucilaginous and glutinous. They are of the pentandria monogynia, and 41 order of the natural method. Of the oleraceous kind, are the alkanet, borrage, &c. Of the mucilaginous and glutinous, the principal is the comfrey root.

#### SECT. CCCXLI.

The lurid plants, i. e. of an ugly, difagreeable, or forbidding aspect, taste, and finell, are of a suspected nature. They are of the pentandria monogynia, mostly berrybearing plants, and constitute the 28 order of the natural method. The capficum, or Guinea pepper, is highly corrolive. All the nightshades more or less poisonous, not excepting the potatoes, though in a very small degree. The winter cherry a most violent diuretic, and unsafe. The mandrake, mad apples, deadly nightshade, henbane, and thorn apple, bring on madnefs, and even death. Tobacco highly narcotic, emetic, and purgative. The mullein kills fishes, and intoxicates them so, that one may take them with their hands; hence physicians, though they apply it often outwardly as an emollient, never use it inwardly.

#### SECT. CCCXLII.

The umbelliferous plants which grow in dry foils are aromatic, heating, and driving; but these that grow in watry places are often poisonous. The virtues of umbelliferous plants reside in their roots and seeds; they are of the pentandria digynia, and 45 order of the natural method. Those especially which are officinal plants do grow

in dry soils, as the spignel, laser-wort, wild carrot, hog's-sennel, opoponax, galbanum, asa setida, angelica, lovage, cumin, masterwort, dill, fennel, carraway, anise, parsley, &c. All these have an aromatic smell, are hot to the taste, resolvent and carminative, diaphoretic and diuretic. On the other hand, those which grow in watry places are poisonous, as the long-leased water hemlock, hemlock drop-wort, common water hemlock, phellandrium aquaticum, wild smallage, apium palustre, least water parsnip.

#### SECT, CCCXLIII.

Plants of the hexandria class have roots according as their smell and taste are either esculent or noxious. They are of the 9 and 10 orders of the natural method. So we find the root of narcissus, snow-drops, fritillary, crown imperial, squill, lily of the valley, hyacinth, aloes, autumnal snow-drop, lily narcissus, sacutumnal snow-drop, lily, sasphodel lily, spider-wort, to be all poisonous or hurtful, having a strong disagreeable smell; especially the crown imperial, hyacinth, and narcissus. Garlick, onion, leek, &c. contain a great deal of volatile alcali, are acrimonious, and often corrosive, if taken in too great quantity; but roasted or boiled, they lose their acri-

mony, and become esculent and agreeable. The roots of martagon, tulip, and star of Bethlehem, are eatable, having no smell. The tulip root is eaten in some places of Italy; and the martagon lily makes part of their daily food in Siberia.

### SECT. CCCXLIV.

The plants with horned antheræ (Bicornes, Cl. 8. and 10. Ord. Nat. 18.) are aftringent, and their acid berries are esculent. Marsh cifus, winter-green, ling, whorts, bearberry, are all aftringent; among which the most remarkable are the ling, whorts, and bearberries, the leaf of this last being used in Sweden for tanning of leather. The acid and esculent berries of this tribe are the black and red whorts, cranberries, bearberry, strawberry tree, American gooseberry, &c.

# SECT. CCCXLV.

All the pulpy fruits of the icofandria class (Ord. Nat. 19. 35, 36.) are esculent and wholsome. The pulpy fruits of this are the apple, pear, pomegranate, wild fervice, medlar, true forb, hips, bramble, raspberry, strawberry, almond, peach, plum, apricot, cherry, prickly pear, guava, &c. all which are esculent. Nor is there any plant in this class whose fruit or any other

other part is poisonous. For it is much to be doubted, whether the laurel or cherrybay has such a noxious quality as has been ascribed to it.

# SECT. CCCXLVI.

Plants of the polyandria class (Ord. N. 26 & 27.) are chiefly poisonous. The wolf-bane or monk's-hood, colombines, stavesacre, larkspur, hellebore, pasqueflower, piony, virgin's-bower, water lily, nigella, ranunculus, marsh marygold, poppy, celandine, herb Christopher, prickly poppy, gamboge, wild Syrian rue and spurge, &c. are all more or less hurtful or unfriendly to nature. And even tea is not to be used when fresh cured. The anthora, or wholfome helmet-flower, has been by many reckoned an alexipharmic, and even its root an antidote for the poisonous wolf'sbane, which is of the same genus; but this is much doubted by Clufius Bauhine and Lobel; and Solerius affirms, that the bigness of a kidney-bean of this root, taken inwardly, purges both upwards and downwards. It is certain, this species is less hurtful than the other aconites; and may be given in a fmall dose, and be serviceable in eruptive fevers. For all medicines of the vegetable kingdom, which we are acquainted with, and which kill worms

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and promote eruptions, have something in them noxious, as appears by the seeds of colombines. There is besides a remarkable bitterness and acrimony in the root of anthora, from which one would readily guess it to be hurtful and corrosive.

### SECT. CCCXLVII.

The verticillate plants (didynamia gymnospermia, Ord. Nat. 42.) are fragrant, nervine, refolvent, and deobstruent; their virtues are chiefly in the leaves. For the root of none of them is used in medicine; the stem has but little fmell, is dry and woody; hence many of them were called undershrubs by the old botanists; the calyx also, which constitutes the greatest part of the flower, is dry and fapless, and the seeds rarely used; but their virtue is chiefly in the leaves, as in the Syrian marum, whose leaves are fo fragrant, that in the whole vegetable kingdom there is scarce any thing to parallel them, not even in the dracocephalum Canariense, or balm of Gilead. There is no poisonous or hurtful plant of this order. The following plants are highly fragrant, and by their action on the nerves refolvent, and expel wind, promote the menses, &c. viz. marum, dittany, favory, thyme, origanum, marjoram, basil, penny-royal, mint, baum, lavender, rosemary, fage, clary.

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SECT. CCCXLVIII.

The podded plants (tetradynamia class, Ord. Nat. 39.) which grow in moist or watry places, are acrid, inciding, abstergent, and diuretic; but when dried are good for no-thing. The principal plants of this class for these purposes are the pepper-wort, feurvy-grass, horse radish, lady's-smock, mustard, water-cresses, winter-cresses. In all the others the taste is much weaker, though of the same fort. The virtues of these plants is lost by drying. There is no noxious or hurtful plant in the whole class.

### SECT. CCCXLIX.

The pillar-bearing plants (columnifera, Ord. Nat. 39. monadelphia polyandria) are mucilaginous, lubricating, and obtund acrimony; externally applied to tumours, they are ripening. All these plants have an emollient or foftening quality; and he that is acquainted with the nature of mallows and marsh-mallows, knows the effects of them all. The same lubricating virtues are found in every part of these plants. They lubricate and obtund acrimony in coughs, stranguries, nephritic disorders, colics, and excoriations, and by that means ease pain. They maturate or ripen tumours by their foftening quality. Nor is there

# Chap. XII. OF BOTANY.

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any hurtful or poisonous plant in this whole tribe or natural order.

### SECT. CCCL.

The leaves of papilionaceous plants (diadelphia decandria, Ord. Nat. 32.) are eaten by cattle and other beafts of burden; their feeds, which are farinaceous and flatulent, are the food of various animals. Every one knows that those animals are fond of the trefoils and clovers, yellow medick, lucern, black nonefuch, bird's-foot trefoil, faintfoin, vetches, tares, fenugreek, &c. all which are cultivated for their use. Horses are particularly fond of lentils, and foon grow fat by eating them. The feeds of the papilionaceous plants are eaten by various animals, especially boiled; though chickens are not fond of the feeds of kidney-beans and lupines. It is well known that the feeds of peafe, beans, vetches, kidneybeans, chiches, and lentils, are esculent, farinaceous, and flatulent; and not proper for those of weak stomachs, except they be exceedingly well boiled. Among all the leguminous or papilionaceous tribe there is no deleterious or hurtful plant to be found.

### SECT. CCCLI.

Plants of the *fyngenefia* class, many of which are officinal, are commonly bitter.

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This is the 40th order of the natural method. There are many plants of this class used in the shops; as burdock, carline thistle, coltsfoot, butterbur, pellitory, arnica montana, leopard's-bane, Afiatic centory or Behen, fuccory, viper's-grass, dandelion, several of which are reckoned deobstruent. Among the bitters are the following, common wormwood, fea wormwood, Roman wormwood, fea wormwood with a lavender leaf, lavender cotton, fouthern wood, costmary, tansey, feverfew, chamomile, hemp agrimony, verbesina acmella, or water hemp agrimony of Ceylon, cudweed, golden rod, daify, fneez-wort, yarrow, stachas, or French lavender, maudlin, May-weed, milky thistle, carline thistle, blessed thistle, mouse-ear hawk-weed. And in the whole class there is not a poisonous plant, except the wild lettuce with a milky juice, the leopard's-bane, doronicum, and the carthamus, or fafflower.

# SECT. CCCLII.

The tribe of orchifes (gynandria diandria, Ord. Nat. 7.) are provocatives to venery. The roots of orchis, fatyrium, falep, ophrys, bastard hellebore, lady's-slipper, vanilla, and some others of this order, are univerfally acknowledged to have these virtues and properties. These roots have also a strong

strong or rank smell when fresh; and the stronger they smell, the more efficacious they are reckoned.

### SECT. CCCLIII.

The cone-bearing plants (Ord. Nat. 51.) are refinous and diuretic; as the pines, firs, junipers, cyprefs, tree of life, turpentine tree, favin, olibanum, &c. all which are ever-green, refinous, warm, stimulating, and diuretic, communicating to the urine the smell of sweet violets.

### SECT. CCCLIV.

The cryptogamia class (Ord. Nat. 55, 56, 57, 58.) contains mostly suspected or dangerous plants. Of the filices, there are scarce any esculent, and but very sew medicinal plants; the same may be said of the mosses and algae, of which some are purgative; and as to the tribe of sunguses, they are at best but dangerous plants either for sood or physic. Many plants of this class, particularly the ferns, mosses, and sunguses, have a very disagreeable slavour or bad smell.

# SECT. CCCLV.

Plants which have a nectarium distinct from the petals are commonly poisonous. Such are the barren-wort, nigella, colom-E e 3 bines,

bines, aconite, dog's-bane, stapelia, narcissus, honey-slower, grass of Parnassus, hellebore, most of the swallow-worts, horned wild cumin, quick-in-hand, monotropa, or bird's-nest smelling like primrose roots, hyacinth, oleander, white dittany, clutia, kiggleria, marvel of Peru, zygophyllum, or bean caper, all which are of a poisonous nature. But the white swallowwort, or silken cicely, which is not milky, is the only officinal species of the genus asclepias.

### SECT. CCCLVI.

Milky plants are mostly poisonous, except the semifloscular plants of Tournefort. Such are of order 30, in the natural method, as rauwolfia, cerbera, plumieria, or red jafmine, tabernæmontana, periploca, or Virginian filk, apocynum, or dog's-bane, cynanchum, ceropegia, asclepias, or swallow-wort, statelia, vinca, the periwincle, nerium, the oleander, &c. And also order 27, as the bocconia, argemone, or prickly poppy, chelidonium, celandine, papaver, common poppy, Janguinaria, the puccoon, podophylium, May-apple. As also order 38, the spurges, gamboge, dalechampia, jatropha, the caffava, &c. and some others of different orders, as rbus, fumach, fig, maple, melia, the beadtree, and many of the agaries. But the temiflotfemifloscular plants of Tournesort are not dangerous or noxious, viz. prenanthes, ivy-leased wild lettuce, chondrilla, gum succory, hieracium, hawk-weed, crepis, ditto, hypochæris, ditto, picris, ox-tongue, hyoseris, swine's succory, leontodon, dandelion, tragopogon, goat's-beard, lactuca, garden lettuce. But there are some species of the wild lettuce very possonous. Of the campanaceæ order 29, there are some that can scarcely be said to be noxious, as the campanula; and others are possonous, as the lobelia, cardinal-slower.

### SECT. CCCLVII.

A dry foil renders plants more aromatic, a moist foil more insipid, a watry soil ge-

nerally corrofive.

The best aromatic plants grow in dry places; as cinnamon, cloves, rosemary, tage, thyme, savory, basil, origanum, lavender, hyssop, baum, nep, &c. All aromatics have the best taste when dried; and medicinal plants when green are more inspid, but their taste is improved by drying. Plants that grow in a moistish, succulent foil, and also in shady places, are more inspid, as most of the oleraceous tribe; and thus the leaves of navew, turnip, endive, that grow in cellars, become white and watry. So all fruits growing E c 4

in moist and shady places are harsh and crude; but in dry warm foils, exposed to the fun, are sweet and agreeable to the taste. Very many of the aquatic plants are acrid and corrofive, as ranunculus, water lily, long-leafed water hemlock, hemlock drop-wort, common water hemlock, smallage, arsmart, &c. And many of the vernal plants for the fame reason are acrimonious, as the pasque flower, anemone, golden saxifrage, spurge olive, and spurge laurel. But all aquatic plants lose their acrimony amazingly by being cultivated in a more dry place; e.g. skirrets, the only fpecies of frum which grows in dry places, is not only esculent, but very sweet and pleafant. And the fweet smallage, called celleri by the Italians, is a most agreeable esculent plant; but when it grows spontaneously in watry places, it is acrid, naufeous, and hurtful, being made mild and esculent only by culture in a dryer soil.

# SECT. CCCLVIII.

The qualities of plants, in which their medicinal virtues confift, are discovered also by taste, smell, and colour. The external senses are the natural instruments by which animals are to explore the qualities of plants and other substances; and we see how by the help of smell and taste, cattle

and other animals for the most part browse fafely among noxious and falutary plants, cautiously avoiding the one, and choosing the other. Of those substances that are less volatile the taste is the best examiner, as the fmell is of those that are more volatile. Horses will carefully shun the phellandrium aquaticum, or common water hemlock, while it is yet green, it being a deadly poifon to them; and this they are warned to by their smell and taste: but oxen, enticed thereto by the same sense of smell and taste, will eat the plant in question, it being to them both wholfome and agreeable. And it is highly worthy our observation, that the Author of Nature has appointed certain plants for the food of certain animals, left those of different kinds should deprive one another of fubfiftence; and hence fome plants are poisonous to certain animals, fo that they are not to touch them but at their peril, of which they have fufficient notice from their smell and taste. Nor is it less worthy our attention, that the tafte is greatly changed or altered in certain circumstances; e.g. in a putrid fever the patient cannot endure the smell or taste of roast meat; but at such a time acids are highly agreeable. In the green fickness, and that disorder of infants where their stomachs are oppressed with an acid, earthy and

and absorbent substances, charcoal, chalk, tobacco pipe clay burnt, &c. are both agreeable and useful. Those species of plants that have the most taste and smell are the most efficacious of all others of the fame genus, and possess the greatest medicinal virtues; e. g. the true Turkey rhubarb far excels the Rhapontick, &c. And we find that plants deprived of tafte and fmell, are also deprived of the virtues and qualities which they originally were poffessed of, whether good or bad; as cassava, calla, arum, yucca, when deprived of their fucculent juice, wherein their pungent and acrimonious taste consists, either by drying or otherwise, become mere inert, farinaceous, and even esculent substances.

# SECT. CCCLIX.

Sapid and sweet-smelling plants are good; nauseous and stinking ones are often poifonous or hurtful. All animals, as well as man, are guided and directed by their senses of smell and taste to the choice of proper food or aliment. In the same manner as any plant acts on the nerves of smell and taste, so it also acts on the nerves of every part of the body. We ought however always to consider the nature of other plants that have an affinity to the plant in question; and if we find by experience that they

are innocent, we may fafely trust to our tafte and smell for the use of any such plant. Sweet-smelling plants are the following, viz. milium effusum, millet-grass,bolcus odoratus, sweet-smelling soft-grass, woodroof, melilot, mock orange, jalmine, white lily, tuberofe, citron, orange, lemon, bean, oleander, crocus, violet, lime, especially the flowers of all these, which diffuse a most agreeable odour. Plants that are difagreeable to the smell are the following, viz. the fungi, stinking May-weed, dwarf elder, bane-berries, aconite, black hellebore, white hellebore, afarabacca, roots of narcissus, crown imperial, superb lily, leaves of stinking bean trefoil, flowers of stapelia, fome of the chenopodiums, nightshade, thorn apple, tobacco, henbane, hedge hyflop, stinking horehound, leopard's-bane, bitter apple, coriander, rue, box, hound's-tongue, opium, walnut, convallaria, aloe, African marygold, dill, valerian; all which are pernicious, emetic, or purgative, except the three last, which are anodyne.

# SECT. CCCLX.

Contrary qualities produce contrary effects: e.g. binding and loofening medicines have contrary qualities, and produce contrary effects. Difeases in the human body arise from the solids being too rigid

or too flaccid, or from the fluids being too thick or too thin. This contrariety ought to be well attended to, otherwise there can be no fuccess in the cure of diseases. If, e. g. the fibres are too rigid, they should be toftened: if the fluids are too much attenuated, they should be thickened in order to bring about a cure. Hence diseases are often cured by contrary diseases. Thus an hæmorrhage, or flux of blood from the nostrils, for example, cures inflammatory fevers; hence phlebotomy or bleeding is proper in fuch fevers. A flux, or loofeness, is cured by costiveness, which last is brought on by aftringents. Convultive disorders are cured by sleep, which last is procured by opium. Sleepy disorders, on the contrary, are cured by convulsions; e. g. by fneezing, which is a violent convulfion; this is caused by medicines which stimulate the nostrils, called errbines: and so of many others. Now all medicines act by bringing about some change in the body. Every change is a disease, and therefore there are as many difeases as modes of change. Hence it appears, that by the use of medicines contrary diseases are excited. We are also to observe, that the fame plants have different qualities in their different parts, as the root, leaves, ftem, flowers, feed, and fruit; e.g. the milky

milky juice of the fig tree is caustic and corrosive, but the fruit is emollient, sweet, and agreeable. The fruit of the peach tree is pleasant and agreeable; the seeds bitter, and will kill horses and dogs in the same manner as bitter almonds. The seeds of the citron and lemon are bitter, the peel aromatic, and the pulp acid, &c. We are also to observe, that the self-same medicines given in greater or lesser quantities produce very different effects.

### SECT. CCCLXI.

All plants act either by their effluvia on the nerves, or by their fapid part on the muscular fibres, or by both on the fluids. That medicines act not only in the first passages, but also on the most remote parts of the body, daily experience evinces: for we find that the most solid parts of animals have the fmell and taste of those things they have fed on. The flesh of some birds that feed on fmall fishes, and cattle that feed on turnips, taste of those several substances. A remarkable smell is communicated to the urine from turpentine, nutmeg, mace, asparagus, garlick, and carduus. Some fungi give a nauseous taste to cow's milk; and goat's milk is purgative, after those animals have been eating feammony or fpurge. The milk and butter in Gothland

has the taste of garlick, from the cattle's feeding on fcordium, onions, and leeks. The milk of nurses is bitter after their taking extract of wormwood, and purgative from hedge hyssop. The sless of hares fed on cabbage has a very difagreeable tafte. The mutton about Montpelier tastes of rosemary; and the beef and mutton in England often taste of turnips. The flesh of thrushes that have fed on buckthorn berries is purgative in autumn. The bones of hogs and chickens that have been fed with madder are of a red colour. The fruit of the prickly pear makes the urine red; rhubarb makes it yellow; and the feeds of lovage black. The powder of tobacco sprinkled on ulcers or sores will cause vomiting. Hence we fee it is the more necessary to be well acquainted with the virtues of fimples; as it appears certain that medicines often exert their power and efficacy not only in the first passages, but through the whole body, and penetrate its most minute canals and meanders.

# SECT. CCCLXII.

Perfumes are analeptic or reviving; fragrant substances orgastic, or extremely agreeable; aromatic smells are rouzing; abominably stinking smells are stupisying; and nauseous ones are corrosive. The organs

of fmell, being fituated fo near to the brain or common fenfory, are the foonest of all affected; hence volatile medicines restore life and vigour as it were in a moment to hysterical and fainting people. Every volatile smell is called by the chemists the governing spirit; this often is of so subtle a nature, that it cannot be collected or confined in any veffels. It is different in different plants; thus lavender, baum, thyme, marum, origanum, bafil, favory, have all a fweet and aromatic fmell; yet lavender has not the smell of baum, nor baum of marum, but every one has its peculiar fmell; and therefore affects the nerves differently, and produces a different effect on them. For in the same manner as they affect the organs of fmell, fo they do the nerves, after they are diffused through the whole mass of blood; hence the wonderful operation of medicines on the human body, fcarcely to be learned by any theory, but only by the knowledge of the simples them-Thus, e. g. the flowers of the tuberose diffuse such a smell through a whole house or room, that an hysterical woman on entering the fame shall fall down like one dead. The smell of cinnamon excites the nerves most powerfully, infomuch that a fingle drop of its effential oil taken on fugar diffuses its volatile fla-

vour through the whole body, that every part fmells of cinnamon. The flowers of oleander have a very strong, pleasant, and fomewhat narcotic fmell, which will affect one that fleeps in the fame chamber where these flowers are, with a carus. This is a species of apoplexy, attended with profound fleep and a fever. The fmell of musk-mallows will often cause young girls to faint. Rue recovers those that are overcome with fweet fmells. All the Europeans that first landed at Surinam died fuddenly, without any one being able to affign the cause, till at last it appeared to be occasioned by the finell of that poisonous tree called the manchencel. The shade of walnut, elder, &c. is prejudicial, often caufing fevers in those that fit or fleep under them. Groves of the stinking bean trefoil give people violent headachs. Cats are enchanted, as it were, with the fmell of nep, marum, and valerian. The fumes of wine, during its fermentation, iffuing from large veffels or casks, have proved fatal in a moment. And the smell of some fungi has also been known to be fatal. Bane-berries, stinking May-weed, and stinking horehound, allure toads by their smell. Many have been fuffocated by the fumes of charcoal. A dog by the smell will trace his master's steps in the most populous city. The very fmell

of coloquintida will both vomit and purge. Sweet-fmelling plants, as woodroof, drive away moths and other destructive vermin; and when chewed preserve people from infectious disorders. These, and many other instances that might be produced, shew the great and fingular effects of finell in plants and other fubstances. Perfumes act like ambergreafe, musk, or civet, and are the following; woodroof, melilot, jaggedleafed vervain mallow, musky cranefbill, musk-mallows, millet-grass, and holcus odoratus, sweet-smelling soft-grass. Fragrant plants are the flowers of faffron, wallflower, tuberose, Arabian and common jasmine, white lily, lime tree, violet; and also the following herbs, lavender, thyme, marjoram, basil, origanum, savory, baum, marum. Aromatics (which generally agree both in smell and taste) are cinnamon, sweet-bay, sassafras, camphire, cardamoms, fpicey cloves, nutmeg, fweet-flag, bishop'sweed, angelica, citron, lemon. Bad smells are those of garlick, onion, leek, faucealone, scordium, petiveria, assa fætida; all which have more or less of the garlick fmell. There are besides, the orchis, stinking orrache, stinking hawk-weed, herb Robert, which have a rank odour. Heavy, flinking, and narcotic fmells, are those of flinking horehound, flinking May-weed, Ff tagetes

tagetes or African marygold, opium, hemp, dwarf elder, stinking bean trefoil. Nau-feous smells, are those of black and white hellebore, convallaria, afarabacca, tobacco, coloquintida.

SECT. CCCLXIII.

Sapid fubstances act both on the fluids and folids. The qualities of medicines in regard to taste are the ten following, viz. 1. Watery; as common water, tea, coffee, whey, fmall beer, gruel, &c. these cleanse, moisten, and dilute. 2. Viscous or gluey; as gum arabic, gum dragant, marsh mallows, quince feeds, linfeed, fleafeed, comfrey, and feveral farinaceous substances; they are mucilaginous, foften, fmooth, and resist acrimony, and thicken the fluids. 3. Oily; as various oils drawn from feeds; they are obtunding and emollient, or blunting and foftening. 4. Sweet; as fugar, honey, most farinaceous substances, nuts, almonds, piftachia nuts, figs, dates, &c. they nourish, sweeten the acrimonious fluids, and render them mild and foft. 5. Acid or four; as vinegar, wines, currants, lemons, tamarinds, strawberries, cherries, and other fruits, also garden forrel and wood forrel; they dilute, cool, quench thirft, refift putrefaction, strengthen the nerves, help digestion. 6. Dry; as, in outward application, flour, powder of mastick, &c. and inwardly, bistort, tormentil, and various aftringents; they leffen the fuperfluous humidity. 7. Acrid; as mustard, horse-radish, scurvy-grass, garlick, arum, onion, iris, rue, squill, wall-pepper, &c. all which are possessed of a volatile acrimony, which goes off by drying; they cut and divide tough and tenacious fluids, and even corrode the folids. 8. Salt; as common falt, marsh samphire, falt-wort, common famphire, fea arrowhead, chenopodium maritimum; they stimulate and irritate the nerves, promote all the evacuations, refift putrefaction, and in small quantities are cooling. 9. Bitter; as gentian, centory, carduus benedictus, wormwood, chamomile, &c. they are alcaline and stomachic, cure spontaneous acids in the stomach and bowels, increase the appetite, and supply the place of bile. 10. Styptic, rough, or aftringent; as galls, floes, red roses, bloody dock, tamarisk, medlar, quince, &c. they thicken the fluids, and strengthen the fibres. Those qualities that are of the same nature are watery and viscous, fweet and oily, acid and faline, acrid and bitter, dry and aftringent. The fame qualities contrasted run thus; watery and dry, oily and flyptic, acid and bitter, fweet and acrid, faline and viscous. The oppofite qualities that act on the fluids are, Ff2 cleanfing

cleanfing and abforbent, cooling and balfamic, fweetening and cutting, blunting and thickening, mucilaginous and penetrating. The opposite qualities that act on the folids are, moistening and drying, attenuating and strengthening, fattening and scouring, softening and astringent, smoothing and corroding.

### SECT. CCCLXIV.

A pale colour indicates an infipid fubstance; green, a crude one; yellow, a bitter; red, an acid; white, a fweet; and black, a difagreeable one. Many of the bitters are of a yellow colour; as gentian, aloe, centory, rhubarb, celandine, turmerick, and feveral of the yellow flowers. A red colour often shews an acid taste; as in cranberries, red whorts, barberries, raspberries, red currants, cherries, plums, mulberries, fea buckthorn; and also in some herbs which turn of a red colour towards autumn, as garden forrel, wood forrel, bloody dock, and some others of the dock tribe, red cabbage. Green indicates a crude taste; as in all unripe fruits, and young leaves of plants. A pale colour indicates an infipid fubstance; as in asparagus, cabbage, young lettuce, and endive. White indicates sweetness; as in white currants, whitewhite-berried bramble, fome fweet apples, and white plums. Black often indicates a difagreeable tafte, and poisonous quality; as in the berries of deadly nightshade, herb Christopher, sumach, common nightshade, laurustinus, crowberries, cherry-bay, &c. The best examiners of an acid are blue or purple; such as an infusion of tournesol, or violets, which, being mixed with an acid, turns red; and with an alcali, green. Tournesort made use of a deep blue paper, which, being moistened with the juice of the plant he would examine, shewed its acid or alcaline quality.

### SECT. CCCLXV.

The economical uses of plants in human life are very great and many. For, besides surnishing food and medicine for man and beast, the vegetable kingdom also supplies materials for building of houses and ships, for furniture, for carriages of various sorts, for instruments of agriculture and other arts and manusactures, for hedges and sences, for dying and tanning, for linens and cottons, for fire and candles, for articles of commerce, for pleasure or ornament, as in painting, plants for pleasure gardens, parterres, green-houses, stoves, &c.

Ff3

# 438 THE ELEMENTS, &c.

In every branch of natural knowledge, the first principles should be established on, and confirmed by, repeated observations and experience.

Ad utilitatem vitæ omnia confilia factaque nostra dirigenda sunt.

TACIT.

# FINIS.

# APPENDIX.

# XICIAL A

# APPENDIX;

Containing descriptions of some plants lately discovered in Norfolk and Suffolk, never found before in England, or not described as English plants; illustrated with figures of the same, taken from the life, and curiously engraved on three additional copper-plates.

GERANIUM Palustre? Marsh crane's-bill.

Lin. Gen. Plant. 832. Monadelphia decandria.

GERANIUM pedunculis bifloris longiffimis declinatis, foliis quinquelobis incifis, petalis integris. Lin. Sp. Plant. Ed. 2. p. 954? Amæn. Acad. iv. p. 323? Burm. ger. 13? Geranium with very long declining biflorous flower-stalks, leaves confisting of five lobes cut on the margins, and entire petals.

Geranium fanguineum majus. Best. eyst. vern. 1. tab. 9. sig. 2? Greater geranium,

with a blood-coloured flower.

Geranium batrachoïdes palustre flore sanguineo. Dillen. Eltham. 160. tab. 134. fig. 161? Dillen. App. 55? Haller. Opusc. 109? Marsh crowfoot crane's-bill, with a bloody flower.

The

The root of this plant is perennial, of a brown colour, pretty thick, and fends out feveral large lateral fibres, which contain a

ligneous pith.

From the root spring several stems, each as thick as a goofe-quill at the bottom, jointed, roundish, or rather somewhat quadrangular, about two feet high, branched and much divaricated, each branch divided into three or four bifurcations, the uppermost terminating with the flowers. stems are a little hairy, as is the whole plant.

At each joint come out two leaves, one on each fide, opposite, rugged and wrinkled; the radical ones, and those at the first joint, are long and broad, confifting of five lobes each, which are cut on the edges, the two exterior lobes being deeply divided; they

are also supported on very long

Foot-stalks, which as well as the leaves diminish gradually to the top, the uppermost of the latter being fessile, and cut into three divisions.

Each foot-stalk has two thin smooth ta-

pering flipulæ, one on each fide.

The flower-flalks are long and biflorous: out of the center also of each bifurcation comes one long flower-stalk, which in like manner bears two flowers. The partial flower-stalks are recurved and pendulous before before the flowers open; but during the time of flowering they only decline a little, and after the petals are fallen off they are erect. They are also furnished with very small stipulæ of the same shape with those at the base of the foot-stalks of the leaves.

The calyx confifts of five small acute

bearded leaves.

The corolla is of a deep purple or blood colour at the first blowing of the flower, but afterwards turns to a pale purple.

The petals are entire, marked with three

brown lines, and wooly at the base.

The geranium palustre grows in Russia, Germany, and England. It is perennial, and slowers in May and June. Found near Spixworth church about five miles from Norwich, in 1771, by Mr. Wm. Humphry. For the figure of this plant see Plate I. of the Appendix, in which letter (a) represents the front view of the flower, letter (b) the back view of the same, both of their natural size.

If the plant above described be not the geranium palustre, which I do not affirm it to be, I should be glad to know what species it is. It differs from the geranium sylvaticum in several particulars. For it is a much larger plant, the leaves are not so much divided, not so shining, but more rough and wrinkled; the flower-stalks lon-

ger, and more reflexed; the petals at the first blowing of the flower are of a blood colour, whereas those of the geranium sylvaticum are of a fine blue.

VERONICA verna. Spring veronica, or fpeedwell.

Lin. Gen. Plant. 25. Diandria mono-

gynia.

VERONICA floribus solitariis, foliis digitato-partitis, pedunculo longioribus. Sp. Plant. p. 19. Flor. Suec. Ed. 2. N. 23. Spring veronica with flowers coming out single, leaves divided like singers, and longer than the flower-stalk.

Veronica humilis erecta montana, flore parvo cæruleo. Dillen. App. 38. Low upright mountain veronica with a small blue

flower.

Alsine triphyllos cærulea (foliis minoribus). Bauh. Pin. 250. Trifid chickweed with a

blue flower and leffer leaves.

The root is small and sibrous. The flem is very slender, single, divided into two or three branches, upright, round, and about two or three inches high. The leaves are alternate, supported on very short foot-flalks: the lower leaves are divided into sive parts like singers; the upper ones, and also the bracter, or floral leaves, are whole, acute.

acute, and lanceolate; all of them being fmooth, fucculent, and longer than the flower-flalks, which come out folitary, one from the bosom of each leaf, bearing a small blue flower, which is succeeded by a heart-shaped feed vessel, as in the other veronicas. This grows in Sweden, Germany, Spain, and England, in dry, open, barren soil, on houses, old walls, and rocky places. It is an annual plant, and flowers in April and May. Found by Sir John Cullum near Bury in Sussolk. See Plate II. of the Appendix, fig. 1.

HOLOSTEUM umbellatum. Umbelliferous wild pink.

Lin. Gen. Plant. 104. Triandria tri-

gynia.

HOLOSTEUM (umbellatum). Sp. Plant.

130.

Holosteum storibus umbellatis. Læst. It.

Holosteum ruellii s. gramen leucanthemum. Lib. i. c. 38.

Holosteum caryophyllæum arvense. Taber-

nom. Icon. 233. Caryophyllus arvensis umbellatus. Park.

theatr. 1338. Wild pinks in tufts.

Caryophyllus arvensis holosteus. Ger. Em. 505. Broad-leased wild pink.

Caryophyllus

Caryophyllus arvensis umbelliserus. J. B. R. Hist. Pl. 1028. Field chickweed bearing the flowers in an umbel.

Caryophyllus arvensis umbellatus folio gla-

bro. Casp. B. Pin. 210.

Caryophyllus arvensis. Casp. Bauh. Hist.

3. p. 361.

Caryophyllus umbelliferus. Vaill. Bot. Paris.

Lychnis graminea hirsuta umbellisera. Moris. Hist. ii. p. 546. s. 5. tab. 22. fig.

Spergula foliis oppositis, pedunculis umbellatis. Guett. Stamp. 298. Dalib. Paris.

134.

The root is annual, flender, a little branched, fibrous, and runs perpendicular-

ly down.

The flems are numerous, filiform, jointed, round, perfoliate, upright, from two or three to fix inches high, having mostly three joints; the space betwirt the two lowest is smooth, the others for the most

part vifcous and hairy.

The leaves are fet on in pairs at each joint, very entire, opposite, sessile, erect, cohering at the base, each pair crossing those above and below, smooth on the under side, the upper surface and margins a little hairy; concave at the base, keel-shaped, ovate, obtuse and sleshy. The radical

dical leaves are narrower and longer than the others.

The two external bracteæ are large, and of the form of the leaves; the internal (one to every flower-stalk) are lanceolate, and

very finall.

The flower-flalks are numerous, all from one center, viz. the extremity of the stem, unequal in length, some hanging down, some declining a little, some erect, and some bent in different directions, siliform, uniflorous, and abiding.

The feed-veffel is an egg-shaped capfule, of one cell, bursting at the top into six

valves.

N. B. The filaments, styles, and valves of the pericarpium do very often exceed the

number allotted to this genus.

This species of bolosteum is a native of Spain, Italy, France, Germany, and England. Found in great plenty on the city walls of Norwich, and many other old walls of that city, and on some banks and walls in the neighbourhood. First noticed and examined by Mr. John Pitchford in Spring 1765. It is an annual plant, and flowers in April and May. See Plate II. of the Appendix, sig. 4.

TILLEA

TILLEA muscosa. Mosfy tillea.

Lin. Gen. Plant. 177. Tetrandria tetra-

gynia.

TILLEA (muscosa) procumbens. Lin. Sp. Pl. 186. Hort. Upsal. 24. Sauv. Monsp. 129. Procumbent mosfy tillæa.

Tillaa. Dalibard. Paris. 43.

Tillæa muscosa perfoliata annua. Mich. Gen. 22. tab. 20. Mossy annual perfoliate tillæa.

Crassula foliis sessilibus connatis, floribus aggregatis in foliorum alis. Guettard. Stamp. 1. p. 97. Crassula, or lesser orpine, with fessile leaves cohering at the base, and aggregate flowers coming out from the boiom of the leaves.

Polygonum muscosum minimum. Boccon. Sicil. 56. tab. 29. Least mosfy polygonum,

or knot-grass.

Sempervivum omnium minimum repens mufcosum polygoni facie. Bocc. Mus. ii. p. 36. tab. 22. Least creeping mosty houseleek, with the appearance of a polygonum.

The root is annual, small, and fibrous.

The flems are numerous, creeping, filiform, round, smooth, jointed, perfoliate, one or two inches high, at first nearly erect, at length procumbent, pellucid, fometimes whitish, sometimes of a red colour, as is the whole plant generally.

The

The branches come out folitary from the bosom of the leaves, and mostly opposite.

The leaves are fet on in pairs at each joint, very entire, opposite, sessile, erect, cohering at the base, bent inwards, each pair crossing those above and below, smooth, shining; on the lower surface convex, gibbose, broadest in the middle, and membranaceous at the base; on the upperside concave, narrow at the tip, sleshy, semicylindrical, and obtuse; sometimes as long, sometimes half as long as the intermediate space betwixt one joint and another.

The flower-flalks, which are very short, filiform, and erect, come by two or three

from the bosom of each leaf.

The bracleæ are like the leaves, about half the length, two to each flower-stalk.

The calyx confifts of three parts, ovate, acute, bearded, concave, conniving, and

rough.

The corolla is made up of three petals, egg-shaped, acute, conniving, concave, pellucid, and less than the segments of the calvx.

The flamina are three capillary filaments, having roundish, incumbent anthera, which

open on the fides.

The pifillum confifts of three ovate germina, shorter than the flamina; and three tapering erect flyles, with simple fligmata.

Gg The

The feed-veffel confifts of three oblong capfules, which are acute, spreading, and longer than the petals, burfting longitudinally, and contain two very small ovate feeds each.

Obf. The parts of fructification in this species are trifid, seldom or never quadrifid, and, though by Linnæus it is placed in the 4th class, comes properly under the trian-

dria trigynia.

This plant grows in Italy, Sicily, France, and England, in dry, barren, fandy, and gravelly foil. Found on Drayton heath, and feveral other places near Norwich, in great plenty. It is an annual, and flowers from June to October. First examined and afcertained by the Rev. Mr. Bryant in 1766. See Plate II. of the Appendix. 2 A. The plant of its natural fize. 2 B. a plant in its young state magnified. a. The flower fpringing from the bosom of the leaf. b. The flower expanded. c. The capfules of the feed both magnified.

OPHRYS paludofa. The least orchis. Lin. Gen. Plant. 1011. Gynandria diandria.

OPHRYS (paludofa) bulbo subrotundo, scapo subnudo pentagono, foliorum apicibus scabris, nectarii labio integro. Spec. Plant. 1341.

Flor. Suec. 813. Hudf. Flor. Ang. 339; Least orchis, with a roundish bulb, fivecornered stalk almost naked, tips of the leaves rough; and lip of the nectarium whole.

Orchis minima bulbosa: Ray Supp. 587.

Ray Synop. 378. Least bulbose orchis.

The bulb is egg-shaped, bent inwards, and terminates in a root below. The bulbs flick together downwards like a chain, having a small branch for a line of distinction.

The falk is five-cornered, and naked the greatest part of its length, which is from

three to fix inches or more.

It is furnished with three or four radical leaves, which are alternate, shaped like a spathula, having their tips rough on the interior surface, and shorter on the exterior.

Several green yellowish flowers come

out at the top of the stalk in a cluster.

The two lateral petals are of an oblong egg-shape, reflexed and erect. The two interior lateral petals are linear and recurved; the uppermost petal is streight, and forms a hollow vault for the flamina.

The lip of the nectarium is lanceolate and

egg-shaped, reflexed and entire.

The least orchis grows in Sweden, Scotland, and England, in turfy bogs. Found on Felthorp bogs by Mr. Charles Bryant,

G g z

in 1769. It is a perennial plant, and flowers in June and July. See Plate II. of the

Appendix, fig. 3.

This plant was fent to Mr. Ray by Dr. Preston, professor of botany, at Edinburgh, and immediate predecessor in that department to the late Dr. Alfton.

The plant represented on Plate II. of the Appendix, at fig. 5. and 6. (the former being of the natural fize, and the latter the plant magnified) has been found near Nor-wich for feveral feafons fucceffively, and always in the fame state. I know it had been faid to be the juncus bufonius in a young state, but being much in doubt about it, I had it examined carefully last fummer by a friend, who took up a large clod full of these minute plants, and put it into a pot, which he fet in a moist place by the fide of his fish-pond. The event proved them not to be compleat plants of themfelves, but real feedlings of the juncus bufonius, Wherefore I thought proper to infert this account to prevent others from being misled for the future.

GENISTA pilosa. Hairy dyer's-broom. Lin. Gen. Plant. 859. Diadelphia decandria.

GENISTA

GENISTA foliis lanceolatis obtusis, caule tuberculato decumbente. Sp. Plant. 999. Hort. Cliff. 355. Flor. Suec. 588, 635. Roy. Lugb. 371. Genista with lanceolate obtuse leaves, and a knotty decumbent stem.

Genista ramosa foliis hyperici. Baub. Pin. 395. Branched genista, with a leaf like S.

John's-wort.

Chamægenista foliis genistæ vulgaris. Bauh. Pin. 395. R. Hist. Pl. 1725. Dwarf genista, with leaves of common broom.

Chamægenista montana hispida. Bauh. Pin. 396. Hairy mountain dwarf genista.

Chamægenista prima. Clus. Hist. 1. p. 103. The first dwarf broom.

Genistella pilosa. J. Bauh. Hist. 1. p. 3.

Hairy dwarf broom.

Chamægenista pannonica. Ger. Em. 1313. Park. Theatr. 229, Hungarian dwarf broom.

This shrubby plant grows about a foot high, or more, having a long *root*, which runs obliquely, and is furnished with many small fibres.

The twigs, which for the most part spread on the ground, are pliant, slender, cylindrical, and subdivided into many small, angular, striated branches.

The leaves are very finall, coming out by two, three, or four, from the same point,

Gg3 white

white and hairy on the under side, smooth

on the upper.

The flowers, which are numerous, come out on the fides of the small branches, of a yellow or saffron colour, having hairy flower-cups and petals.

The pods are small, about an inch long, broadish, hairy, and contain many feeds.

Grows in Germany, Hungary, France, Sweden, and England, in dry and hilly places. Flowers in May and June. Found by Sir John Cullum about Lackford, four or five miles from St. Edmund's Bury, in July 1774. See Plate III. of the Appendix. Fig. 1. the plant in its natural fize; letter (a) the flower magnified.

HYDNUM auriscalpium. Hydnum like an ear-picker.

Lin. Gen. Plant. 1211. Cryptogamia

fungi.

HYDNUM stipitatum, pileo dimidiato. Flor. Lap. 524. Flor. Suec. 1100, 1260. Roy. Lugb. 519. Hydnum with a stalk, and half a head.

Erinaceus parvus hir sutus ex susco fulvus, pileo semiorbiculari, pediculo tenuiore. Mich. Gen. 132. tab. 72. fig. 8. The small rough prickly sungus, of a brownish colour, having a semiorbicular head, and a stender pedicle or foot-stalk.

Fungus

Fungus erinaceus parvus in conis abietis nafcens. Buxb. Cent. i. tab. 57. fig. 1. Small prickly fungus, which grows on the cones of the fir-tree.

Fungus erinaceus parvus, pediculo longiore auriscalpium referens buxei coloris. Buxb. Hall. 129. tab. 129. Small prickly fungus with a pretty long stalk, resembling an

ear-picker, of the colour of box.

This fungus has a thick upright flalk two inches high, covered all over with a fine foft down like velvet. It supports a small semiorbicular head, which is somewhat convex on the upper, and concave on the lower side, the latter being full of small prominences resembling prickles, whence the name of erinaceus, or hedge-hog. The whole plant is of a brownish colour, and in shape resembles an ear-picker.

Grows in pine woods on the ground, and out of dead branches or cones. Found last autumn near Norwich, in a small plantation of Scotch pines called Hardy's Grove. See Plate III. of the Appendix, where the plant is represented in its natural fize at fig. 2. and the lower concave side of its

femiorbicular head at letter (b).

END OF THE APPENDIX.

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# EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

#### PLATE L.

# Classes. See p. 39-43.

1. Monandria,

2. Diandria,

3. Triandria.

4. Tetrandria,

5. Pentandria,

6. Hexandria,

7. Heptandria, 8. Octandria,

9. Enneandria,

10. Decandria,

11. Dodecandria,

12. Icofandria,

13. Polyandria.

14. Didynamia,

15. Tetradynamia,

16. Monadelphia,

17. Diadelphia,

18. Polyadelphia,

19. Syngenefia,

20. Gynandria,

21. Monæcia,

22. Diecia,

22. Diæcia,

23. Polygamia,

24. Cryptogamia.

#### PLATE, II. LEAVES.

I fire

# Simple Leaves. See Sect. 83.

Fig.

1. Round-Folium orbiculatum. 2. Roundish-Folium subrotundum.

3. Egg-shaped-Folium ovatum.

4. Oval-Folium ovale, subrotundum, ellipticum.

5. Oblong-Folium oblongum.

6. Lancet-shaped-Folium lanceolatum.

7. Linear—Folium lineare. 8. Awl-shaped—Folium subulatum.

9. Kidney-shaped - Folium reniforme.

10. Heart-shaped—Folium cordatum.

11. Moon-shaped—Folium lunulatum. 12. Triangular-Folium triangulare.

13. Arrow-shaped-Folium Sagittatum.

14. Heart and arrow-shaped-Folium cordato-sagittatum.

15. Spear-shaped-Folium haftatum.

16. Parted half way down-Folium fiffum.

17. Three lobed-Folium trilobum.

18. Bitten-Folium præmorfum.

19. Lobed

19. Lobed—Folium lobatum.

20. Quincangular, with five angles—Fo-lium quincangulare.

21. Gnawed-Erofum.

- 22. Hand-shaped—Palmatum.
- 23. Pinnatifid—Pinnatifidum.
- 24. Jagged—Laciniatum.

25. Sinuated-Sinuatum.

- 26. Sinuated and indented—Dentato-sinu-atum.
- 27. Sinuated backward—Retrorsum sinuatum.
- 28. Divided to the base-Partitum.
- 29. Serpentine edged-Repandum.
- 30. Toothed or indented-Dentatum.

31. Sawed-Serratum.

32. Doubly ferrated or fawed—Duplicatoferratum.

33. Doubly notched—Duplicato-crenatum.

- 34. Cartilaginous or gristly—Cartilagineum.
- 35. Sharp-notched—Acute crenatum.
- 36. Blunt-notched-Obtuse crenatum.
- 37. Plaited-Plicatum.
- 38. Notched—Crenatum.

39. Curled-Crispum.

40. Obtuse or blunt-Obtusum.

41. Acute or sharp-pointed—Acutum.
42. Tapering to a point—Acuminatum.

43. Obtuse with a point—Obtusum acu-

44. Notched

Fig.

44. Notched at the tip sharp—Emarginatum acute.

45. Notched at the tip wedge-shaped— Cuneiforme emarginatum.

46. Blunted-Retusum.

47. Hairy-Pilofum.

48. Cottony—Tomentofum.

49. Briftly-Hispidum.

50. Fringed-Ciliatum.

51. Wrinkled-Rugosum.

52. Veined-Venosum.

53. Ribbed—Nervofum.

54. Blistered—Papillosum.

55. Tongue-shaped—Linguiforme.

56. Shaped like a Persian scymitar—Acinaciforme.

57. Hatchet-shaped-Dolabriforme.

58. Deltoid, shaped like the old Greek delta—Deltoïdes.

59. Three-cornered—Triquetrum.

60. Furrowed-Sulcatum.

61. Channeled—Canaliculatum.

62. Cylindrical-Teres.

#### PLATE III.

Compound Leaves, Sect. 83.

Fig.

63. Fingered, or compounded of two-

64. Fingered,

64. Fingered, or compounded of three fessile leaves—Ternatum foliolis sessilibus.

65. Fingered, or compounded of three pedunculate leaves—Ternatum foliolis petiolatis.

66. Fingered, or compounded of many

sessible leaves—Digitatum.

67. Foot-shaped—Pedatum.

68. Pinnated, and ending with an odd one—Pinnatum cum impari.

69. Pinnated, and ending abruptly-Pin-

natum abrupte.

70. Pinnated, and alternately placed— Pinnatum alternatim.

71. Pinnated, with every other leaf smaller—Pinnatum interrupte.

72. Pinnated, and ending with a tendril — Pinnatum cirrhosum.

73. Pinnated, and conjugate—Pinnatum

conjugatum.

74. Pinnated, and decurrent—Pinnatum decursive.

75. Pinnated, and jointed—Pinnatum ar-

ticulate.

76. Shaped like a lyre—Lyratum.

77. Double three-leafed—Biternatum v. duplicato-ternatum.

78. Double winged-Bipinnatum v. dupli-

cato-pinnatum.

79. Triple

Fig.

79. Triple three-leafed—Triternatum v. triplicato-ternatum.

80. Triple winged ending abruptly—Tri-

pinnatum sine impari.

81. Triple winged ending with an odd one—Tripinnatum cum impari.

#### PLATE IV.

# Determinate Leaves, Sect. 83.

Fig.

82. Rolled back-Revolutum.

83. Reclined-Reclinatum.

84. Horizontal-Horizontale.

85. Spreading-Patens.

86. Upright-Erectum.

87. Bent inwards-Inflexum.

88. A flower leaf—Florale.

89. A branch leaf-Rameum.

90. A stem leaf-Caulinum.

91. A feed leaf-Seminale.

92. A glove-like leaf-Vaginans.

93. Two opposite leaves grown together —Connatum.

94. A perforated leaf-Perfoliatum.

95. Embracing the stem-Amplexicaule:

96. A running leaf-Decurrens.

97. A.

97. A leaf furnished with no footstalk—
Sessile.

98. A leaf furnished with a footstalk—

Pedunculatum.

99. A target-shaped leaf-Peltatum.

100. Placed in bundles-Fasciculata.

101. Laid over each other like tiles—Imbricata.

102. Chaffy and evergreen-Acerofa.

103. Alternate leaves—Alterna.

104. Opposite leaves - Opposita.

205. Starry, composed of four leaves— Quaterna.

106. Starry, or whorled leaves-Stellata.

107. A jointed leaf-Articulatum.

108. A frons, confifting of a branch and leaf.

109. Shaped like a spatula—Spatulatum.

110. Parabolic, or half oval-Parabolicum,

#### PLATE V.

# Trunk, Sect. 82.

Fig.

— Squamose, or scaly straw or haulm — Squamosus culmus.

112. A creeping stem-Repens caulis.

113. A

Fig.

113. A scapus, or stalk.

114. A jointed straw or haulm.

115. A twining stem-Volubilis caulis.

116. A forked stem-Dichotomus caulis.

ing in pairs—Brachiatus caulis.

## PLATE VI.

Fulcra, or Props, Sect. 84.

Fig.

A flipula, which is a scale or small leaf on each side of the base of the soot-stalks of the leaves. c. Glands on the foot-stalks of the leaves.

119. a. Glands supported on small foot-

stalks.

120. a. Bracteæ, or floral leaves. b. The leaves.

121. a. Simple spines or thorns. b. A triple spine.

122. a. Simple aculei, or prickles.

123. b. Triple aculei, or forked prickles.

or bosoms of the leaves. b. The axilla,

#### PLATE VII.

Roots, Sect. 80, 85. 163.

Fig.

125. A. A scaly bulb, as in the white lily

—Bulbus squamosus.

125. B. A folid bulb, as in the tulip—

Bulbus solidus.

126. A. A double bulb, as in chequered daffodil—Bulbus duplicatus.

126. B. A globular, or round root, as in earth-nut—Radix globosa.

127. Transverse section of a coated bulb— Bulbus tunicatus.

128. A. A tuberous handed root, as in the orchis—Radix tuberosa palmata.

128. B. A bundled root—Radix fascicu-

lata.

129. A. A granulous root, as in white faxifrage—Radix granulofa.

129. B. A tuberous and pendulous root, as in dropwort—Radin tuberosa pendula.

130. A. A simple tapering root, as in the carrot—Radix sufformis.

130. B. A jointed root, as in wood-forrel

-Radix articulatus.

131. A. A branched root—Radix ramosa, 131. B. A creeping root—Radix repens.

Hh PLATE

#### PLATE VIII.

Parts of the Flower. See Sect. 86.

Fig.

132. A. a. An arillus opened. b. The feed.

132. B. a. A spatha or sheath, as in the narcissus.

133. a. A chaffy husk, gluma. b. The

beard or awn, arista.

- 134. a. An univerfal umbel. b. A partial umbel. c. An univerfal involucrum or cover. d. A partial involucrum.
- 135. a. The capitulum, or little head of a moss. b. The operculum, or cover. c. The calyptra, hood or extinguisher.

136. A Spatha and Spadix, as in the palms,

Sect. 86.

137. a. A common receptacle of a compound flower not chaffy.

138. The nectaria of the Parnassia.

139. A carkin, amentum.

140. A cone, frobilus.

141. a. The cap. b. The volva. c. The stipes of a fungus.

142. a. The tube. b. The limb of a monopetalous corolla.

143. 6.

The figma. d. The filaments. e.
The antheræ. f. The petals of a flower.

144. a. The unguis. b. The lamina of a

polypetalous flower.

145. a. A bell-shaped nectarium of the nar-

146. A paleaceous or chaffy common receptacle of a compound flower.

147. The horned nectaria of the aconite.

148. The horned nectarium in the calyw of the tropæolum.

### PLATE IX.

Parts of the flower and fruit, Sect. 86.

Fig.

- c. The fiyle. d. The fligma. e.
  The flaments. f. The antheræ
  bursting and discharging their pollen. g. Two antheræ whole or not
  burst.
- a. The feed. b. The little calyx.

  H h 2

  151. a.

Fig.

151. a. The pollen viewed with a microscope. b. An elastic blast discharged from it.

152. A winged feed. a. The feed. b.

The wing.

153. a. A filament. b. The anthera.

T54. a. The germen. b. The style. c. The stigma.

155. A legumen or cod. a. The feeds fixed along the edge of one of the valves only.

156. A folliculus, or little bag. a. The

receptacle of the feeds.

157. A siliqua, or pod. a. b. The margins of both valves along which the feeds are fixed.

158. A pomum, or apple. a. The pulp.

b. The capfule.

159. A drupa, or stone-fruit. a. The pulp. b. The nucleus, or stone.

160. A berry, bacca. a. The feeds. b.

The pulp.

ror. A capfula bursting at the top.

162. a. The valves. b. The dissepimenta, or partitions. c. The columella, or little pillars. d. The receptacle.

163. A capfula cut down lengthways, that the receptacle of the feeds may be

feen.

164. ar

thered pappus, or down. b. Feathered pappus. c. The feed. d. The slipes, or thread, which supports the pappus.

#### PLATE X.

Modes of Flowering, Sect. 82.86.116, 117.

Fig.

163. A Corymbus. See Sect. 82.

164. A fasciculus, bunch or bundle, as in sweet Williams. Sect. 82.

165. A spike, as in perennial darnel.

Sect. 82.

166. A racemus, or cluster, as in currants. Sect. 82.

167. An aggregate flower, properly fo called. Sect. 116, 117. Shewn in the *scabiofa*.

168. A thyrsus. Sect. 82. Exemplified

in the butter-bur.

169. A verticillus, or whorl of the horehound. Sect. 82.

170. A panicle. Sect. 82.

171. A capitulum, or little head of field calamint. Sect. 82.

172. A cyma of the gelder rose. Sect. 86.

173. A floret of a compound flower.

An

An umbel. See Pl. VIII. fig. 134. A spadix and spatha. Pl. VIII. fig. 136. A compound flower. Pl. VIII. fig. 137, - and 146.

An amentum, or catkin. Pl. VIII. fig. 139. A ftrobilus, or cone. Pl. VIII. fig. 140.

#### PLATE XI.

Foliation, &c. Sect. 163. Nº 6.

# The Leaves cut transverfly.

- 1. Convolute, rolled together fingle.
- 2. Involute, rolled in.
- 3. Revolute, rolled back.
- 4. Conduplicate, doubled together.
- 5. Equitant, riding.
- 6. Imbricate, tiled.
- Obvolute, rolled against each other.
   Plicate, plaited.

#### More than one Leaf.

- 9. Convoluta, rolled together double.
- 10. Involuta opposita, rolled in opposite.
  11. Involuta alterna, rolled in alternate.
- 12. Revoluta opposita, rolled back opposite.
- 13. Equitantia ancipitia, riding two-edged. 14. Equitantia

14. Equitantia triquetra, riding three-cornered.

Parts of an Egg and Seed. Sect. 137. 15. The containing parts of an hen's egg are; A. the shell; B. the exterior film; C. the interior film; E.D. E. the chalaza, or membrane, inclosing the yolk twifted at the extremities.

The parts contained are; H. the air within the exterior membrane at the obtuse end of the egg; I. the thinner and exterior part of the white; K. the interior and thicker part of the white; F. the yolk; G. the bilum, scar or cicatrice.

16. A feed. I. the shell, or exterior film; L. the film including the yolk; M. the yolk; H. the scar, or point of

life.

# APPENDIX.

#### PLATE I.

Fig.

a. The front view of the flower. b.
The back view of the fame; both of their natural fize.

#### PLATE II.

Fig.

1. Veronica verna, natural fize, p. 444.

2. 2 A. Tillea muscosa, natural fize, p. 448.
2 B. The plant in its young state magnified. a. The flower springing from the bosom of the leaf. b. The flower expanded and magnified. c. The capfules of the seed magnified.

3. Ophrys paludofa, natural fize, p. 450. 4. Holosteum umbellatum, of the natural

fize, p. 445.

5. A feedling of the juncus bufonius, natural fize.

6. The fame magnified.

#### PLATE III.

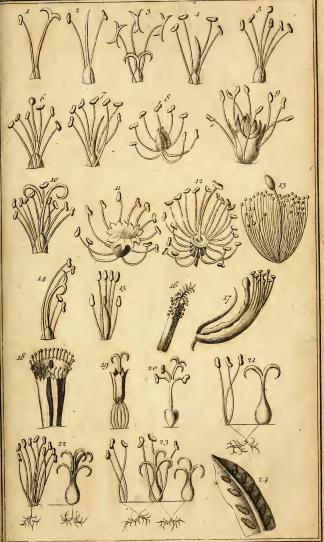
Fig.

1. Genista pilosa, natural fize, p. 452. a.

The flower magnified.

2. Hydnum aurifealpium, natural fize, p. 454. b. The lower concave fide of its femiorbicular head.

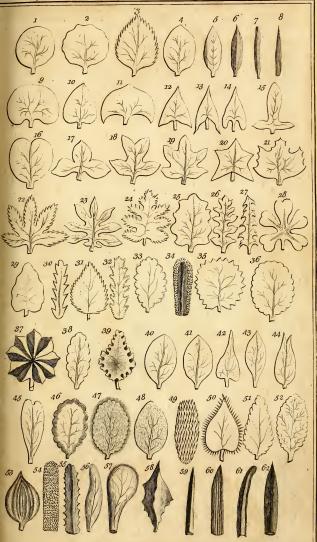
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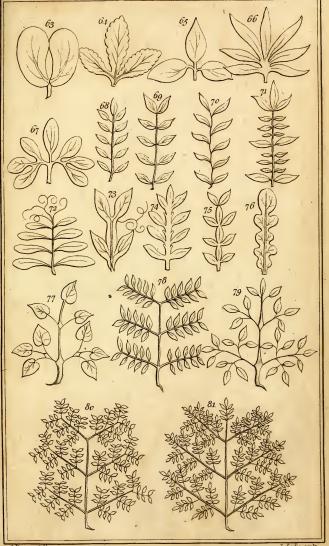
C.Bryant delin .

J.Lodge sou

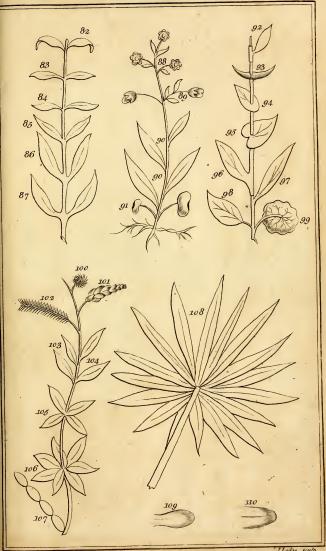




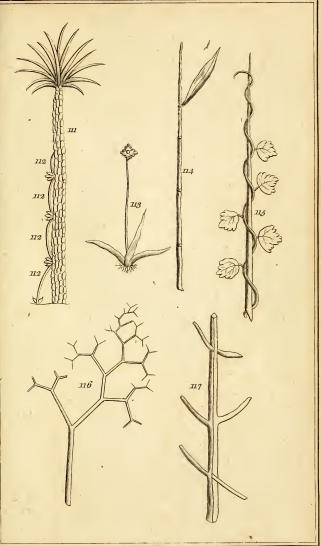








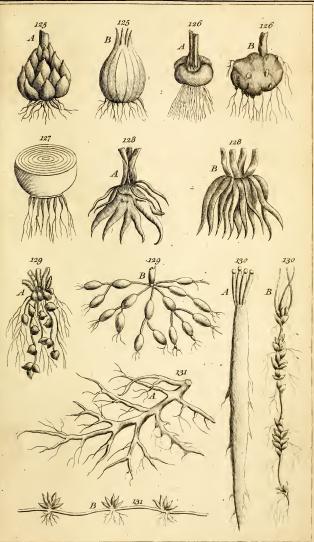








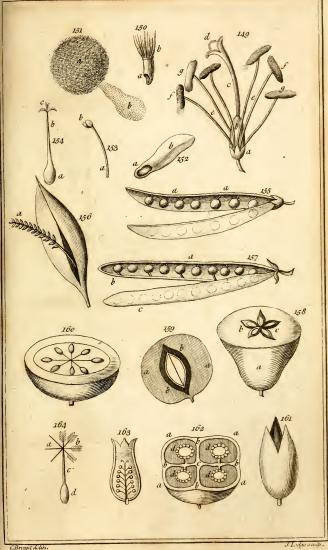




















vant delin.

. I Ludge sculp









Tab. 77







Tab. III.



C.Bryant delir







