

P R O O F S

OF THE

THEORY OF THE EARTH.

ARTICLE XVII.

*Of New Islands, Caverns, perpendicular Fissures,
&c.*

NEW islands are produced either suddenly by the operation of subterraneous fires, or slowly by the accumulated sediments of water. Upon this subject we are furnished with indubitable facts, both by ancient historians, and by modern voyagers. Seneca tells us, that, in his time, the island of Therasia* suddenly emerged from the sea, to the astonishment of many spectators. Pliny relates, that 13 islands formerly arose all at once from the bottom of the Mediterranean, and that Rhodes and Delos are the chief of them. According to Ammianus Marcellinus, Philo, Pliny, &c. these 13 islands were

* Now called Santorini.

not

not formed by an earthquake or by a subterraneous explosion, but were formerly concealed under the water, which sunk and uncovered them. Delos was even distinguished by the name of Pelagia, because it formerly belonged to the sea. Whether these 13 new islands were produced by the action of subterraneous fire, or by any other cause which diminished the quantity of water in the Mediterranean, it is not easy to determine. But we are informed by Pliny himself, that the island of Hiera, in the neighbourhood of Therasia, is composed of ferruginous masses, and of earth which had been thrown up from the bottom of the sea; and, in another place, he mentions several other islands which had been formed in the same manner. Upon this subject, however, we have facts more recent, and less involved in obscurity.

On the 23d day of May 1707, at sun-rising, there appeared, at the distance of two or three miles from the island of Therasia or Santorini, something which had the resemblance of a floating rock. Some men, stimulated by curiosity, approached it, and discovered that it had arisen from the bottom of the sea; that it increased under their feet; that oysters and other shells still adhered to the rocks; and that many pumice-stones lay on its surface. Two days before this rock appeared, there had been a slight earthquake in Santorini. This island continued to augment considerably, without any accident, till the 14th

of

of June. It was then about half a mile in circumference, and 20 or 30 feet high, and the earth was white and mixed with clay. After this time, the sea began to be more and more agitated; vapours arose from it which infected the island of Santorini, and on the 16th of July, 17 or 18 rocks rose all at once from the bottom of the sea, and united into one mass. These phenomena were attended with a frightful noise, which continued two months; and flames issued from the new island, which still augmented both in circumference and height; and the explosions were so violent, that they drove large stones to more than 7 miles distance. The island of Santorini itself was regarded by the ancients as a recent production; and, in 726, 1427, and 1573, it received considerable additions, beside the small islands formed in its neighbourhood*. The same volcano, which, in the days of Seneca, raised the island of Santorini, produced, in Pliny's time, that of Hieru or Volcanella, and, in our days, the rock above described.

On the 10th of October 1720, a great fire was seen to arise from the sea near the island of Tercera. Navigators being sent, by order of government, to examine it, they perceived, on the 19th of the same month, an island covered with fire and smoke; and a prodigious quantity of ashes was thrown to a great distance, as from a volcano, and accompanied with a noise similar to that

* See l'Hist. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1708, p. 23.

of

of thunder. The earth was also perceived to shake in the neighbourhood; and a vast number of pumice-stones were found floating on the sea all round the new island: This last phenomenon has sometimes been remarked in the open sea*.

The historian of the French academy†, in relating this event, remarks, that, after an earthquake in the island of St. Michael, one of the Azores, there appeared a torrent of fire between this island and that of Tercera, which gave rise to two new rocks: And, in the subsequent year, the same historian gives the following detail:

' M. de l'Isle has informed the academy of several particulars concerning the new island among the Azores, which he received in a letter from M. de Montagnac consul at Lisbon. On the 18th of September 1721, M. de Montagnac's vessel was moored off the fortress of St. Michael; and he learned the following particulars from the pilot of the port.

' During the night of the 7th or 8th of December 1720, there was a great earthquake in Tercera and St. Michael, which islands are distant from each other about 28 leagues, and a new island rose from the sea. It was, at the same time, remarked, that the point of the island of Peak, at the distance of 30 leagues,

* See Philosophical Transact. Abridg. vol. vi. part 2. p. 154.

† Ann. 1721, p. 26.

which

‘ which formerly threw out flames, was extinguished. But a continual thick smoke issued from the new island, which was distinctly perceived by M. de Montagnac, as long as he continued in that part. The pilot assured him, that he had sailed round the island, and approached it as near as he could with safety. He sounded on the south side of it with a rope of 60 fathoms; but found no bottom. On the west side, the water was much changed: It appeared to be mixed with white, blue, and green; and, at the distance of two miles, it seemed to be shallow and boiling. On the north-west, the side from which the smoke issued, he found, at 15 fathoms, a bottom of coarse sand. He threw a stone into the sea, and, at the place where it fell, he observed the water boil, and mount into the air with great impetuosity. The bottom was so hot, that, at two different times, it melted a piece of suet which had been fastened to the end of the plumb-line. The pilot likewise remarked, that smoke issued from a small lake, in the midst of a sandy plain. This island is nearly round, and high enough to be perceived, in clear weather, at the distance of seven or eight leagues.

‘ We have since learned, by a letter from M. Adrien, French consul at St. Michael, dated in March 1722, that the new island is considerably diminished; that it is nearly on a
‘ level

‘ level with the water; and that it will probably soon disappear.’

From these, and many other facts of a similar nature, it is apparent, that inflammable bodies exist under the bottom of the sea, and that they sometimes produce violent explosions. The places where they happen may be considered as submarine volcano’s, which differ from common volcano’s only in the shorter duration of their effects; for, after the fire opens a passage to itself, the water rushes in, and extinguishes them. The elevation of new islands necessarily leaves caverns, which are soon filled by the waters; and the new ground, which consists of matter thrown out by the submarine volcano, must, in every respect, resemble that of the Monti di Cinere, and other eminences which have been raised by terrestrial volcano’s. It is on account of the waters rushing into the voids and fissures produced by explosions, that submarine volcano’s exhibit their effects less frequently than common volcano’s, though both derive their origin from the same cause.

To subterraneous, or rather submarine, fires, must be ascribed all those ebullitions of the sea, and water-spouts, which have been remarked in different places by mariners: They also produce storms and earthquakes, the effects of which are felt equally at sea as upon land. The islands raised by submarine volcano’s are generally composed of pumice-stones and calcined rocks.

Fire

Fire has frequently been observed to issue out of the waters of the sea. Pliny tells us, that the whole surface of the Thrasymen lake has appeared to be inflamed; and Agricola informs us, that, when a stone was thrown into the lake of Denstat in Thuringia, its descent was marked by a train of fire.

Lastly, The great quantities of pumice-stones discovered by voyagers in different parts of the ocean, as well as in the Mediterranean, evince the existence of volcano's in the bottom of the sea, which differ not from those upon land, either in the violence of their explosions, or in the matter they throw out, but only in their rarity, and in the shortness of their duration. Hence it may be remarked, that the bottom of the sea every way resembles the surface of the earth, not admitting even the exception of volcano's.

Between sea and land volcano's there are many relations. Both of them exist on the tops of mountains. The Azore islands, and those of the Archipelago, are only the points of mountains, some of which are above, and others under, the surface of the water. From the account of the new islands among the Azores, it appears, that the place where the smoke issued was only 15 fathoms deep, which, when compared with the ordinary depth of the ocean, demonstrates this place to be the top of a pretty high mountain. The same remark may be

made with regard to the new island near Santorini. Its depth must have been inconsiderable, since oysters were found attached to the rocks which rose above the surface of the water. It likewise appears, that sea-volcano's, as well as those upon land, have subterraneous communications; for, at the very time that the new island among the Azores arose, the summit of the volcano of St. George, in the island of Peak, sunk. It also merits observation, that new islands never appear but in the neighbourhood of old ones; and that there are no examples of new islands in open seas: They ought, therefore, to be regarded as continuations of the ancient islands; and, when volcano's happen to exist in the latter, it is not surprising that the former should contain the same materials, which may be kindled either by fermentation alone, or by the action of subterraneous winds.

Besides, new islands produced by earthquakes, or by subterraneous fires, are few in number. But the number of those formed by slime, sand, and earth, transported by rivers, or by the motions of the sea, is almost infinite. At the mouths of rivers, such quantities of earth and sand are amassed, as frequently give rise to islands of considerable extent. The sea, by retiring from certain coasts, leaves uncovered the highest parts of the bottom, and these parts constitute so many new islands. In the same manner, when the sea encroaches upon the land, it

covers the plains, and the more elevated grounds appear in the form of islands. It is for this reason that there are few islands in the open seas, and that they are so numerous near the coasts.

Fire and water, though of very opposite natures, exhibit many effects so similar, that the one may often be mistaken for the other. Beside the productions peculiar to these elements, as crystal, glass, &c. they give rise to many great phenomena, which have such strong resemblances, that they can hardly be distinguished. Water, as we have seen, elevates mountains, and forms the greatest number of islands: Some mountains and islands likewise derive their origin from fire. The same observation is applicable to caverns, fissures, gulfs, &c. Some of them are the effects of fire, and others of water.

Caverns are, in a great measure, peculiar to mountains: They are seldom or never found in plains. They are frequent in the Archipelago, and other islands; because islands are generally nothing but the tops of mountains. Caverns, like precipices, are formed by the sinking or mouldering of rocks, or, like abysses, by the action of fire; for, to make a cavern form a precipice or an abyss, nothing farther is necessary than that the tops of the opposite rocks should come together and form an arch, which must frequently happen when they are loosened at the root, and shaken by earthquakes, or by the operation of time and of the weather. Ca-

averns may be produced by the same causes which give rise to gulfs, apertures, or sinkings of the earth; and these causes are explosions of volcanoes, the action of subterraneous vapours, and earthquakes, which create such commotions in the earth, as must necessarily produce caverns, fissures, and hollows of every kind.

The cavern of St. Patrick in Ireland is not so considerable as it is famous: The same remark may be made with regard to the Grotto del Cane in Italy, and to that of Mount Beni-guazeval, in the kingdom of Fez, which throws out fire. There is a very large cavern in the county of Derby in England. It is much larger than the celebrated cavern of Bauman, near the Black Forest of Brunswick. I was informed by the Earl of Morton, a philosopher more respectable for his merit than his high rank, that the entrance to this cavern, called the *Devil's-hole*, is larger than the door of any church; that a small river runs through it; that, after advancing some way, the vault of the cavern sinks down so low, that, in order to proceed farther, it is necessary to lie flat in a boat, and to be pushed through this narrow passage by people accustomed to the business; and that, after getting through, the roof, or arch of the cavern, rises to a great height; and, after walking a considerable way on the side of the river, the arch sinks again so low as to touch the surface of the water. Here the cavern terminates. The river,

which seems to have its source in this part of the cavern, swells occasionally, and transports heaps of sand, which, by accumulating, forms a kind of blind alley, whose direction is different from that of the principal cavern.

In Carniola, near Potpechio, there is a large cavern, in which is a pretty considerable lake. Near Adelsperg, we meet with a cavern in which a man may travel two German miles. It contains several tremendous and deep precipices*. The Mendip hills in Somersetshire likewise present us with extensive caverns, and very fine grottos. Near these caverns we find veins of lead, and sometimes large oak-trees, buried 15 fathoms deep. In the county of Gloucester, there is a large cavern called *Pen-park-hole*, at the bottom of which we meet with 32 fathoms of water. Here are also veins of lead.

It is apparent, that the Devil's-hole, and other caverns, from which large springs or brooks issue, have been gradually formed by the operation of the water, and their origin cannot be ascribed to earthquakes or volcano's.

One of the largest and most singular caverns we are acquainted with, is that of Antiparos, of which M. Tournefort has given a complete description. We first find a rustic cave about 30 feet wide, divided by some natural pillars. Between two pillars on the right, the ground slopes gently, and then more precipitately for about

* See *Asia trad. Lipf.* anno 1689, p. 558.

20 paces

20 paces to the bottom of the cavern. This is the passage to the grotto or interior cave, and is nothing but a dark hole, through which a man cannot pass without stooping, and the assistance of lights. We then descend, by means of a rope fixed at the entrance, a horrible precipice, and arrive on the borders of another still more tremendous, with corresponding abysses on the left. By a ladder placed on the margin of these gulfs, we get over a vast perpendicular rock. We then continue to slip through places less dangerous. But, when we think ourselves in the greatest safety, we are suddenly stopped by a frightful pass; to escape through which, we are obliged to glide on our backs along a large rock, and to descend by means of a ladder. When we arrive at the bottom of the ladder, we stumble for some time among irregular rocks, and then the famous grotto presents itself. This grotto is about 300 fathoms below the surface of the earth, and it appears to be about 40 fathoms high, and 50 wide. It is full of large and beautiful stalactites, which both depend from the roof of the vault and cover the floor*.

In that part of Greece called Achaia by the ancients, now Livadia, there is a large cavern in a mountain which was formerly famous for the oracles of Trophonius: It is situated between the Lake of Livadia and the sea, from which, at the nearest part, it is distant about four miles; and

* See Tournefort's voyage to the Levant,

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there

there are no less than 40 subterraneous passages through which the waters run under the mountain*.

In all countries which are subject to earthquakes or volcano's, caverns are frequent. The structure of most of the islands of the Archipelago is exceedingly cavernous. The islands in the Indian Ocean, and particularly the Moluccas, appear to be chiefly supported upon vaults. The land of the Azores, of the Canaries, of the Cape de Verd islands, and, in general, of almost all small islands, is, in many places, hollow and full of caverns; because these islands, as formerly remarked, are only the tops of mountains, which have suffered great convulsions either from volcano's, or by the action of the waters, of frosts, and of other injuries of the weather. In the Cordelieres, where volcano's and earthquakes are frequent, there are many caverns, precipices, and abysses.

The famous labyrinth in the island of Crete is not the work of nature alone. We are assured by M. Tournefort, that, in many parts of it, the operation of men is evident; and, it is probable, that this is not the only cavern which has been augmented by art. Mines and quarries are constantly digging; and, after these have been long deserted, it is not easy to determine whether such excavations have been the effects of nature or of art. Some quarries are amazingly exten-

* See Gordon's Geography, p. 179.

five.

five. That of Maestricht, for instance, is sufficient to shelter 50,000 men, and is supported by more than 1000 pillars of 20 feet high; and the earth and rock above is 25 fathoms thick*. The salt mines of Poland exhibit excavations still more extensive. Near large cities, quarries and artificial hollows are common. But we must proceed no farther in detail. Besides, the operations of men, however great, will always make but an inconsiderable figure in the history of nature.

Volcano's and water, which form caverns in the bowels of the earth, produce likewise on its surface fissures, precipices, and abysses. At Cajeta in Italy, there is a mountain which had been formerly split by an earthquake in such a manner, that the separation seems to have been made by the hands of men. We have already mentioned the *Wheel-track*, or great fissure in the island of Machian, the abyss of Mount Ararat, the port or gap in the Cordelieres, that of Thermopylae, &c. To these we might add the gap in the mountain of the Troglodites in Arabia, and that of the *Ladders* in Savoy, which was begun by nature, and finished by Victor-Amadeus. Considerable sinkings in the earth, the fall of rocks, and the subversion of mountains, are frequently produced by the waters, as well as by subterraneous fires. Of this many examples might be given.

* See Phil. Trans. Abridg. vol. ii. p. 463.

' In the month of June 1714, a part of the mountain of Diableret in Valois fell suddenly, and, in a few hours, the sky being serene, it appeared to have assumed a conical figure. It destroyed 55 houses, besides several men, and a great many cattle; and it covered a league square with its ruins. The sky was darkened with the dust: The collection of stones and earth which were amassed on the plain, exceeded 30 Rhenish perches in height, dammed up the waters, and gave rise to new lakes of considerable depths. But this phenomenon was not accompanied with the least vestige of bitumen, sulphur, or calcined lime-stone; nor, consequently, of subterraneous fire: The base of this great rock appeared to be rotten, and reduced to powder *.

There is a remarkable example, of these sinkings near Folkestone in the county of Kent. The hills in the neighbourhood sunk insensibly, without any earthquake or other commotion. The interior parts of these hills consist of rocks and chalk; and, by their sinking, they have pushed part of the adjacent land into the sea. A well attested relation of this fact may be seen in the Philosophical Transactions †.

In 1618, the town of Pleurs was buried under the rocks at the foot of which it had been situated. In 1678, a great inundation was oc-

* Hist. de l'Acad. des Sciences, année 1715, p. 4.
† Abrégé. vol. iv. p. 250.

casioned,

casioned, in Gascony, by the sinking of some portions of one of the Pyrennees, which forced out the water that had been pent up in the subterraneous caverns of these mountains. In the year 1680, a still greater inundation was produced in Ireland, by the sinking of a mountain into caverns which had been full of water. It is not difficult to investigate the cause of these effects. It is well known, that subterraneous waters are every where frequent. These waters gradually work away sand and earth in their passages; and, consequently, they may, in the course of time, destroy the stratum of earth which serves as a basis to the mountain: If this stratum fail more on one side than on another, the mountain must, of necessity, be overturned; or, if the base wastes gradually and equally throughout, the mountain will sink, without being overturned.

Having mentioned a few of those convulsions and changes produced in the earth by what may be called the accidents of nature, we must not pass over in silence the perpendicular fissures in the different strata. These fissures are obvious, not only in all rocks and quarries, but in clays, and in every species of earth which has never been removed from its natural position. They are called perpendicular fissures; because, like the horizontal strata, they are never oblique, but from some accidental change. Woodward and Ray talk of fissures, but in a general and confused manner,

manner, and they never mention them under the appellation of perpendicular fissures, because they imagined that they might be indifferently either oblique or perpendicular. No author has hitherto attempted to explain their origin, tho' it is apparent, as remarked in a former article, that they have been occasioned by the drying of the materials which compose the horizontal strata. In whatever manner this drying should happen, perpendicular fissures must have been a necessary consequence; for the matter of the horizontal strata could not be diminished in size, without splitting, at different distances, in a direction perpendicular to the strata themselves. Under perpendicular fissures, I comprehend, not only the natural cracks in rocks, but all those separations which have been effected by convulsive accidents. When a mass of rock has suffered any considerable motion, the fissures are sometimes placed obliquely; but it is because the mass itself is oblique; and the smallest attention to quarries of marble and lime-stone, or to great chains of rocks, will convince us, that the general direction of fissures is perpendicular to the strata in which they are found.

The bowels of mountains are chiefly composed of parallel strata of stones and rocks. Between the parallel strata, we often meet with beds of matter softer than stone; and the perpendicular fissures are filled with sand, crystals, metals, &c. The formation of these last bodies

dies is more recent than that of the horizontal strata in which sea-shells are found. The rains have gradually detached the sand and earth from the tops of mountains, and left the stones and rocks bare, which afford an opportunity of distinguishing with ease both the parallel strata and the perpendicular fissures. On the other hand, the rains and rivers have successively covered the plains with considerable quantities of earth, sand, gravel, and other bodies which are either soluble in, or easily divisible by water. Of these have been formed beds of tufa, of soft stone, of sand, of rounded gravel, and of earth mixed with vegetable substances. But these beds contain no sea-shells, or at most, but fragments of them, which have been detached from the mountains along with the earth and gravel. These recent beds should be carefully distinguished from the ancient and original strata, in which we almost universally find a greater number of entire shells placed in their natural situation.

In examining the internal order and distribution of the materials of a mountain, composed of common stone or calcinable lapidific matter, we generally find, after removing the vegetable soil, a bed of gravel, of the same nature and colour with the stones which predominate in the mountain; and, under the gravel, we meet with the solid rock. When the mountain is cut by a deep trench or *ravine*, the different banks or strata are easily distinguishable. Each horizontal

tal stratum is separated by a kind of joint or suture, which is likewise horizontal. These strata generally augment in thickness, in proportion to their depth or distance from the top of the mountain; and they are all divided, vertically, by perpendicular fissures. In general, the first stratum under the gravel, and even the second, are not only thinner than those which form the base of the mountain, but so much cut by perpendicular fissures, that small portions of them only have any coherence. Most of these fissures, which exactly resemble the cracks in earth that has been dried, gradually disappear as they descend, and, at the base of the mountain, where they cut the larger strata in a more regular and more perpendicular manner than those near the surface, their number is much smaller.

These strata of rock often extend, without interruption, to great distances. Stones of the same species likewise are almost uniformly found in opposite mountains, whether they be separated by a narrow neck or a valley; and the strata never entirely disappear, unless when the mountain terminates in a large and level plain. Sometimes we find, between the vegetable soil and the gravel, a stratum of marl, which communicates its colour, and other qualities, to the neighbouring beds: The perpendicular fissures in the inferior rocks are, in this case, filled with marl, where it acquires a hardness equal, in appearance, to that of the surrounding stone; but,

when exposed to the air, it splits, and becomes soft and ductile.

The beds of stone which compose the tops of mountains are generally soft and tender, but those near the base are exceedingly hard. The first is commonly white, and of a grain so fine as to be hardly perceptible. In proportion as they descend, the rocks become more compact, and have a better grain; and the lowest beds are not only harder than the superior ones, but are also more compact and heavy. Their grain is fine and brilliant; and they are often so brittle as to break as purely and neatly as flint.

The heart of a mountain, then, is composed of different strata of stones, which are harder or softer in proportion to their distance from the summit; and they are broad at the base, and sharp and narrow at the top. The last is, indeed, a necessary result of the first: For, as the stones grow harder as they descend, it is natural to think, that the currents, and other motions of the water, which scooped out the valleys, and formed the contours of the mountains, must have gradually consumed, by their lateral friction, the materials of which the mountains are composed; and that this consumption would be proportioned to the hardness or softness of the matter acted upon. But, as the upper strata are known to be softest, and as their density increases according as they approach the base, the mountains

tains must, of necessity, have assumed their present inclined, and somewhat conical figure. This is one great cause of the declivity of mountains; and it must always become more gentle, in proportion as the earth and gravel are brought down by the rain from their summits. For these reasons, the declivity of hills and mountains, composed of calcinable bodies, is less than that of those which consist of granite, or of flint in large masses. The latter generally rise almost perpendicularly to very great heights; because in these masses of vitrifiable matter, the superior, as well as the inferior strata, are extremely hard, and have presented nearly an equal resistance to the operation of the waters.

Though, in the tops of some hills which are flat, and pretty extensive, we find hard stone immediately under the vegetable soil; yet it should be remarked, that, in every example of this kind, what appears to be the summit of a hill is only a continuation of some more elevated hill in the neighbourhood, the upper strata of which consist of soft, and the inferior strata of hard stone; and the hard stone found on the top of the first hill is only a continuation of the under strata of the higher hill.

Still, however, on the tops of hills which are not surmounted by higher grounds, the stone is mostly of a soft and friable nature; and hard stone cannot be had without digging to a considerable depth. It is between these layers of hard

hard stone only that marble is to be found; and it is variegated with different colours by metallic substances carried down by rain-water, and filtrated through the strata: And it is probable that, in every country which furnishes stones, marble would be found, if pits were dug to a sufficient depth: *Syoto enim, says Pliny, loco non suum marmor invenitur?* It is, in fact, a more common stone than is generally imagined, and differs from other stones only in the fineness of its grain, which renders it compact, and susceptible of a fine and brilliant polish.

Both the perpendicular fissures, and the horizontal joints of quarries, are often filled, or encrusted, with concretions, which are sometimes transparent, and of regular figures, as crystals, and sometimes earthy and opaque. Water runs through the perpendicular fissures, and even penetrates the close texture of the stone itself. Stones which are porous imbibe water so copiously, that frost splits them in pieces. The rain-waters, by filtrating through different strata, are impregnated with a great variety of substances. They first sink through the perpendicular fissures; they then penetrate the strata of stone, and deposite in the horizontal joints, as well as in the perpendicular fissures, such matter as they collect in their course, and give rise to different concretions, according to the nature of these substances. For example, when the water filtrates through marl, clay, or soft stone, the matter

ter which it deposites is nothing but a fine pure marl, and commonly appears in the perpendicular fissures under the form of a porous, soft, white, light substance, known among naturalists under the name of *Lac Luna*, or *Medulla Saxi*.

When veins of water, charged with stony matter, run along the horizontal joints of soft stone or chalk, this matter adheres to the surface of the stones, and forms a white, scaly, light, and spongy crust, which, from its resemblance to the agaric, has been called *mineral agaric*. But, if the strata through which the water penetrates be hard stone, the filter being closer, the water it allows to pass will be impregnated with a stony matter more pure and homogeneous; and, consequently, the particles being capable of a more compact and intimate union, will form concretions, nearly of equal density with the stone itself, and somewhat transparent. In quarries of this kind, the surface of the stones are encrusted with undulated concretions, which entirely fill up the horizontal joints.

In grottos and cavities of rocks, which may be regarded as the basins or common sewers of the perpendicular fissures, the different directions of the veins of water give different forms to the concretions that result from them. These forms are generally wreathed, or resemble an inverted cone, attached to the roof of the cavern; or, rather, they are white, hollow cylinders, com-

posed of concentric coats. The impregnated waters sometimes fall in drops upon the floor of the cavern, and form columns, and a thousand whimsical figures, to which naturalists have given the different appellations of *stalactites*, *stalagmites*, *speocollæ*, &c.

Lastly, When the concreting juices issue immediately from marble, or very hard stone, the lapidific matter is rather dissolved than suspended in the water, and it forms a kind of columns with triangular points, which are transparent, and consist of oblique coats. This substance is distinguished by the name of *spar* or *spalt*. It is transparent and colourless, except when the stone or marble through which it filtrates contains metallic particles. This spar is of equal hardness with the stone itself, and it dissolves in acids, and calcines with the same degree of heat. Hence it is evident, that spar is a true stone, and perfectly homogeneous. It may even be considered as a pure and elementary stone.

Most naturalists, however, consider this as a distinct substance, existing independent of stone: It is the lapidific or crystalline juice, which, in their estimation, not only cements the particles of common stone, but even those of flint. This juice, they allege, daily augments the density of stones by reiterated filtrations, and at last converts them into flint: When concreted into spar, it perpetually receives fresh supplies of still purer juice, which increases both its hardness

and its density, till it changes to the consistence of glass, then to that of crystal, and at last it is converted into genuine diamond.

But, on this supposition, Why does the lapidific juice produce stone in some provinces only, and nothing but flint in others? It may be said, that the one province is less ancient than the other, and that the juice has not had time sufficient to complete its natural operations. But in this there is not the shadow of probability. Besides, from whence does this juice proceed? If it gives rise to stones and flints, from whence does it derive its own origin? It is obvious, that it has no existence independent of those substances which alone can impart to the water that penetrates them, a petrifying quality that uniformly corresponds with their nature and peculiar properties. Thus, when it filtrates through stone, it produces spar; when it issues from flint, it forms crystal; and there are as many species of this juice as of bodies from which it proceeds. Experience confirms this account of the matter. The waters, which filtrate through quarries of common stone, form tender and calcinable concretions similar to the stones themselves. On the other hand, the waters which exude from granite or from flint, produce concretions hard and vitrifiable, and they have all the other properties of flint, as the former had all those of stone. In the same manner, the waters, which filtrate through mineral and metallic substances,

give

give rise to pyrites, marcasites, and metallic grains.

It was formerly remarked, that all matter might be divided into the two great classes of Vitrifiable and Calcinable. Clay and flint, marl and stone, may be regarded as the two extremes of each class, the intervals between which are filled with an almost infinite variety of mixts, that have always one or other of these substances for their basis.

The substances belonging to the first class can never acquire the properties of those of the latter. Stone, however ancient, will for ever be equally removed from the nature of flint, as clay is from that of marl. No known agent can ever force them from the circle of combinations peculiar to their nature. Places which produce marble and stone will always continue to do so, as infallibly as those that produce only sandstone, flint, and granite, will never produce limestone or marble.

If we examine the order and distribution of the materials of a hill composed of vitrifiable substances, we shall generally find, under the vegetable soil, a stratum of clay, which is likewise a vitrifiable substance analogous to flint, and which, as already remarked, is only a decomposition of vitrifiable sand; or rather, we shall find, under the soil, a stratum of vitrifiable sand. This stratum of clay or of sand corresponds with the bed of gravel in hills consisting of calcinable matters.

matters. Below the stratum of clay or of sand, we meet with some beds of free-stone, which seldom exceed half a foot in thickness, and they are divided into small portions by perpendicular fissures. Under these are several strata of the same matter, and likewise beds of vitrifiable sand. In proportion as we descend, the free-stone is more dense, and its thickness increases. Below these, we find what I call *live-rock*, or *flint in large masses*, a substance so hard as to resist the file, and all kinds of acids, more powerfully than vitrifiable sand or powder of glass, upon which aquafortis seems to have some effect. When struck with another hard body, it throws out sparks of fire, and exhales a penetrating sulphureous vapour. This flinty substance is commonly found along with beds of clay, of slate, of pit-coal, of vitrifiable sand; and it corresponds to the strata of hard stone and marble, which serve as the bases of hills that consist of calcinable matter.

The waters, in passing through the perpendicular fissures, and in penetrating the strata of vitrifiable sand, of free-stone, of clay, and of slate, are impregnated with the finest and most homogeneous particles of these substances, and produce various concretions, such as talc, asbestos, and other bodies which owe their existence to distillation through vitrifiable matter.

Flint, notwithstanding its hardness and density, has, like marble and common stone, its exuda-

tions, from which result stalaclites of different species, varying in transparency, colour, and configuration, according to the nature of the flint that produces them, and to the different metallic or heterogeneous particles it contains. Rock-crystal, all the precious stones, and even the diamond itself, may be regarded as stalaclites of this kind. The flints in small masses, the strata or coats of which are generally concentric, are only stalaclites or parasitical stones from the flints in large masses; and most of the fine opaque stones are nothing but species of flint. The substances produced by the vitrifiable class of bodies are not, as we have seen, so various as the concretions formed by those of the calcinable. Most of the concretions formed by flint are hard and precious stones; but those produced by calcareous stones are friable, and of no value.

Perpendicular fissures are found in flint-rocks as well as in stone. They are even frequently larger in flint, which proves this substance to be drier than stone. Both the hill consisting of calcinable, and that composed of vitrifiable matter, have clay or vitrifiable sand for their bases, which are the most commonly diffused matters of the globe, and which I regard as the lightest, being the scoriae of the vitrified matter that constitutes the interior parts of the earth. Thus all mountains as well as plains are founded either on clay or sand. We have seen, for example, in the pits of Amsterdam, and in that of Marly-

Ja-ville, that vitrifiable sand was always the deepest stratum.

It may be observed, in most bare rocks, that the walls of perpendicular fissures, whether they be narrow or wide, correspond as exactly with each other as split pieces of wood. In the large quarries of Arabia, which consist mostly of granite, the perpendicular fissures are frequent; and, though some of them are 20 or 30 yards wide, the sides correspond exactly, and leave a deep cavity between them*. It is likewise common to find, in perpendicular fissures, shells divided into two pieces, each piece remaining attached to the opposite sides of the fissure; which proves, that these shells were deposited in the solid stratum before it was split †.

In some quarries mentioned by Mr. Shaw, the perpendicular fissures are exceedingly large; and for this reason, perhaps, they are less numerous. In quarries of granite and flint in large masses, blocks of stone may be raised, as the obelisks and columns at Rome, of 60, 80, 100, and 150 feet long, without the least interruption. It appears, that these vast blocks have been raised from the same quarry, and, like some species of free-stone, that they may be had of any given thickness. In other substances, the perpendicular fissures are very narrow, as in clay, in marl, and in chalk; and they are wider in

* See Shaw's Travels,

† See Woodward, p. 298.

marble

marble and hard stone. Some are imperceptible, because they have been filled with a matter nearly similar to that of the stone itself; but still they interrupt the continuity of the stones, and are called *hairs* by the workmen. I have often remarked, that these hairs in marble and stone differed from perpendicular fissures only in the separation of parts not being complete. These species of fissures are filled with a transparent matter, which is a true spar. In quarries of free-stone, the fissures are numerous, and considerably large, because rocks of this kind have often a less solid base than that which supports marble or lime-stone, the former generally resting upon a fine sand, and the latter upon clay. In many places, free-stone is not to be found in large masses; and in most quarries, where this stone is good, the blocks lie irregularly upon one another, in the form of cubes or parallelopipeds, as in the hills of Fountainebleau, which appear, at a distance, like the ruins of old buildings. This irregular disposition has been occasioned by the sandy foundation of these hills allowing the blocks to sink and tumble upon each other, especially where quarries have been formerly wrought, which has given rise to a great variety of fissures and intervals between the different blocks: And it may be remarked, in all countries abounding with sand and free-stone, that there are many fragments of rocks and large stones in the middle of the plains and valleys;

and that, on the contrary, in countries abounding with marble and hard stone, these scattered fragments, which have rolled down from the hills, are exceedingly rare. This phenomenon is owing to the different solidities of the bases upon which these stones are supported, and to the extent of the banks of marble or lime-stone, which is always more considerable than that of free-stone.

P R O O F S

OF THE

THEORY OF THE EARTH.

ARTICLE XVIII.

Of the Effects of Rains—Of Marshes, Subterraneous Wood and Waters.

IT has already been remarked, that rains, and the currents of water which they produce, continually detach, from the summits and sides of mountains, earth, gravel, &c. and carry them down to the plains; and that the rivers transport part of them to the sea. The plains, therefore, by fresh accumulations of matter, are perpetually rising higher; and the mountains, for the same reason, are constantly diminishing both in size and elevation. Of the sinking of mountains, Joseph Blancanus relates several facts which were publicly known in his time. The steeple of the village of Craich, in the county of Derby, was not visible in 1572,
from