

' wind moving through a subterraneous passage.
' Near this place, we find two sources of hot
' water. . . The ground, in which fire has long
' existed, is neither depressed nor elevated. . .
' Near this fire we see no volcanic stones, nor
' any mark which indicates that fire has ever
' been thrown out. However, some little hills
' in the neighbourhood have every appearance
' of having been formed, or at least changed
' by volcano's. . . In 1767, succussions of an
' earthquake were felt in the environs; but
' no change was produced on the fire, neither
' was the smoke increased or diminished. . .

' About ten leagues from Modena, at a
' place called *Barigazzo*, there are five or six
' openings where, at particular times, flames
' appear, which are extinguished by a strong
' wind: There are likewise vapours which in-
' flame by contact with fire. . . But, notwith-
' standing the unequivocal vestiges of extin-
' guished volcano's which subsist in most of these
' mountains, the fires seen there are not new
' volcano's forming, because they never throw
' out any volcanic matter *.

Hot waters, as well as the fountains of Pe-
troleum, and other bituminous and oily sub-
stances, should be regarded as another shade
between extinguished and active volcano's.

* *Mem. sur le Pétrole*, par M. Fongeroix de Banderoy, dans
ceux de l'Acad. des Sciences, année 1770, p. 45.

When

When subterraneous fires exist near strata of
coal, they dissolve the coal, and give rise to most
sources of bitumen: They likewise occasion the
heat of the hot springs which run in their neigh-
bourhood. But these subterraneous fires now
burn with tranquillity; and we only recognise
their ancient explosions by the substances they
have formerly rejected. They ceased to act
when the sea retired from them; and, as already
remarked, I believe there is no longer any rea-
son to dread the return of these direful explo-
sions, since every observation concurs in show-
ing that the sea will always retire farther and
farther.

IV.

Of Lavas and Basalts.

TO what we have said on the subject of vol-
cano's, we shall add some remarks on the mo-
tion of lavas, and on the time necessary for
their cooling and their conversion into vegeta-
ble soil.

The lava which runs from the foot of the
eminences formed by the matters rejected by
the volcano, is an impure glass in fusion. It is
a tenacious, viscous, and half-fluid substance.

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Hence

Hence the torrents of the vitrified matter, when compared to torrents of water, run slowly; and yet they often proceed to great distances. In these torrents of fire, however, there is another movement than what takes place in those of water: This movement tends to elevate the whole running mass, and is produced by the expansive force of the heat in the interior parts of the burning torrent. The external surface cools first; the liquid fire continues to run below; and, as heat acts equally on all sides, the fire, which endeavours to escape, elevates the superior parts that are already consolidated, and often forces them to rise perpendicularly. This is the origin of those large masses of lava in the form of rocks, which are found in the course of almost every torrent where the declivity is not great. By the efforts of this internal heat, the lava makes frequent explosions; its surface opens, and the liquid matter springs up and forms those masses which we see elevated above the level of the torrent. Le P. de la Torr , I believe, is the first person who observed this internal movement of burning lavas, which is always more violent in proportion to their thickness and the gentleness of the declivity. This effect is common to all matters liquified by fire, and every man may see examples of it in our common foundries*.

* The lava of iron foundries exhibits the same effect. When this vitreous matter runs slowly, and accumulates at the base,

If we observe those large ingots or masses of melted iron, which run in a mould or canal with a very small declivity, we shall perceive that they have a tendency to rise like arches, especially when the stream is very thick*. We have formerly shewn, by experiments, that the time of consolidation is always proportioned to the thickness of the ingots, and that, when their surfaces are hardened, the interior parts still continue to be liquid. It is this internal heat which elevates the ingots and makes them blister. If their thickness were greater, there would be produced, as in the torrents of lava, explosions, rup-

ture for eminences arise, which are bubbles or concave hemispheres of glass. These bubbles increase, when the expansive force is great, and the matter has little fluidity: It then suddenly explodes into a flame, and makes a considerable report. When the liquid matter is sufficiently adhesive to suffer a great dilation, these superficial bubbles acquire a volume of eight or ten inches in diameter, without breaking. When the vitrification is less complete, and the matter is viscous and tenacious, the bubbles are smaller, and in cooling form concave eminences called *maels' eye*. What happens in miniature in our foundries, is likewise exhibited upon a larger scale in the lavas of volcano's.

* I have not mentioned some particular causes which frequently produce a curvature or swelling in our melted ingots: For example, when the matter is not very fluid, or when the mould is too small, the ingots bend considerably; because these causes concur in augmenting the effect of the first. Thus the humidity of the ground, on which the torrents of lava descend, and the internal heat concur in raising the mass, and in producing explosions, which are always accompanied with those jets of matter formerly mentioned.

tures in the surface, and perpendicular jets of metallic matter pushed out by the action of the fire inclosed in the interior parts of the ingots. This explication, drawn from the nature of the thing itself, leaves no doubt concerning the origin of those eminences so frequent in valleys and plains, which have been over-run or covered with lava.

When, after descending from the mountain and traversing the fields, the burning lava arrives at the margin of the sea, its course is suddenly interrupted, the torrent advances, and, like a powerful enemy, makes the water at first retire: But the water by its immensity, by the resistance of its cold, and by its power of arresting and extinguishing fire, soon consolidates the torrent of burning matter, which can now proceed no farther, but rises up, accumulates new strata, and forms a perpendicular wall, from the top of which the lava falls and applies itself to the face of the wall thus formed. It is this falling and arresting of the burning matter that gives rise to basaltic prisms* and their jointed columns. These prisms have generally five, six, or seven sides, sometimes only three or four,

* I shall not here inquire into the origin of the term *basalt*, which M. Desmarêts of the Academy of Sciences, a learned naturalist, believes to have been applied by the ancients to different kinds of stones; but shall limit myself to the *basaltic lava*, which appears under the form of prismatic columns.

and

and sometimes eight or nine. The basaltic columns are formed by the perpendicular fall of the lava into the sea, whether it falls from high rocks on the shore, or from a wall raised by its own accumulations. In both cases, the cold and humidity of the water arrest the burning matter, and consolidate its surfaces the moment it falls; and the successive bundles or masses of lava apply themselves to each other. As the internal heat of these masses tends to dilate them, a reciprocal resistance is created; and the same effect is produced as happens in the swelling of pease, or rather of cylindrical grain, when squeezed in a close vessel filled with boiling water. Each of these grains would assume a hexagonal figure by reciprocal compression. In the same manner, each bundle or mass of lava assumes several sides by dilatation and reciprocal resistance; and, when the resistance of the surrounding bundles is stronger than the dilatation of the bundle surrounded, instead of becoming hexagonal, it has only three, four, or five sides. But, if the dilatation of the surrounded bundle is stronger than the resistance of the surrounding bundles, it assumes seven, eight, or nine sides, which are always longitudinal.

The transverse articulations of these prismatic columns are produced by a cause still more simple: The bundles of lava fall not in a regular and continued stream, nor in equal masses.

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Hence,

Hence, if there are intervals in the fall of the matter, the superior surface of the forming column being partly consolidated, is hollowed by the weight of the succeeding mass, which then moulds itself into a convex form in the concavity or depression of the first. This is the productive cause of those joints or articulations which appear in the greater part of prismatic columns. But, when the lava falls in an uninterrupted stream, then the basaltic column is one continued mass, without any articulations. In the same manner, when, by an explosion, some detached masses are darted from the torrent of lava, these masses assume a globular or elliptical figure, and are even sometimes twisted like cables. To this simple explication, all the forms of basalts and figured lavas may be easily referred.

It is to the rencounter of lava with the waves, and its sudden consolidation, that the origin of these bold coasts, which border all the seas at the foot of volcanic mountains, is to be ascribed. The ancient ramparts of basalt found in the interior parts of continents, shew that the sea has been in the neighbourhood of these volcano's when they had thrown out lava. This is an additional proof of the ancient abode of the waters upon all the lands now inhabited.

The torrents of lava are from a hundred to two and three thousand fathoms broad, and sometimes one hundred and fifty, and even two hundred

hundred feet thick: And, as we have found by experience, that the time of the cooling of glass is to that of the cooling of iron as 132 to 236, and that the times of their respective consolidation are nearly in the same proportion, it is easy to infer, that, to consolidate the thickness of ten feet of glass or lava, 201 $\frac{7}{8}$ minutes would be necessary, since it requires 360 minutes to consolidate ten feet thick of iron, consequently it will require 4028 minutes, or 67 hours eight minutes, to consolidate 200 feet thick of lava: By the same rule we shall find, that 30 days $\frac{1}{12}$, or a month, will be requisite before the surface of this lava of two hundred feet thick be sufficiently cold to admit of being touched. Hence a year will be necessary to cool a lava of two hundred feet thick, so as to admit of being touched, without burning, at the depth of one foot; and, at ten feet deep, it will be still so warm, at the end of ten years, as not to be tangible; and a hundred will be requisite to cool it to the same degree in the middle of its thickness. Mr. Brydone relates, that, more than four years after the lava had flowed, in the year 1766, at the foot of *Ætna*, it was not perfectly cool. *Massa*, a Sicilian author worthy of credit, tells us, 'that, being at Catania, eight years after the great eruption in 1669, he found, that the lava in several places was not entirely cool*.'

* Voyage au Sicile, tom. I. p. 213.

About the end of April 1771, Sir William Hamilton dropt pieces of dry wood into a crevice in the lava at Vesuvius, and they were instantly inflamed: The lava issued from the mountain on the 19th of October 1767, and had no communication with the fire of the volcano. The place where this experiment was made, was at least four miles distant from the mouth from which the lava issued. He is firmly persuaded, that many years are necessary to cool a lava of this thickness (about 200 feet).

I have had no opportunity of making experiments upon consolidation and cooling, but with balls of some inches in diameter. The only method of making experiments on a larger scale would be, to observe lavas, and to compare the times exhausted in their consolidation and cooling, according to their different thicknesses. I am satisfied that these observations would confirm the law I have established for the cooling of bodies from the state of fusion to the common temperature; and although these new observations are by no means necessary to support my theory, still they would help to fill up that immense gap between a cannon-ball and a planet.

It now remains for us to examine the nature of lava, and to show, that, in time, it is converted into fertile earth; which recalls the idea of the first conversion of the scorix of the primitive

primitive glass that covered the whole surface of the globe after its consolidation.

'Under the denomination of lava, we comprehend not,' says M. de la Condamine, 'all the matter thrown out by a volcano, such as ashes, pumice-stones, gravel, and sand; but solely those reduced to a liquid state by the action of fire, and which, by cooling, form solid masses, whose hardness surpasses that of marble. This restriction notwithstanding, many other species of lava may be conceived, according to the different degrees of fusion in the mixture, the greater or smaller quantity of metal, and its greater or lesser intimate union with the various matters. Beside many intermediate kinds, three species are easily distinguishable. The purest lava resembles, when polished, a stone of an obscure dirty grey colour. It is smooth, hard, heavy, and interspersed with small particles similar to black marble, and whitish points. It seems to contain metallic particles. At first sight, it resembles serpentine, when the colour of the lava does not tend to green. It receives a pretty fine polish, which is more or less vivid in different parts. It is made into tables, chimney-pieces, &c.

'The coarsest kind of lava is rugged and uneven. It resembles the scorix or dross of iron. The most common species holds a middle rank between the two extremes:

'It

‘ It is that which we every where find in large
 ‘ masses upon the sides of Vesuvius and in
 ‘ the adjacent fields, where it has run in torrents.
 ‘ In cooling, it has formed masses similar to
 ‘ ferruginous and rusty rocks, which are often
 ‘ many feet thick. These masses are frequent-
 ‘ ly interrupted and covered with ashes and
 ‘ calcined matter. . . . It is under several
 ‘ alternate strata of lava, ashes, and earth, the
 ‘ whole of which forms a crust of from 60
 ‘ to 80 feet thick, that temples, porticos, sta-
 ‘ tues, a theatre, and an entire city have been
 ‘ discovered *.’

M. Fougereux de Bondaroy remarks, ‘ that,
 ‘ immediately after an eruption of burnt earth or
 ‘ of a kind of ashes, Vesuvius generally throws
 ‘ out lava, which runs down the fissures or fur-
 ‘ rows made in the mountain. . .

‘ The mineral matter inflamed, melted, and
 ‘ flowing, or lava properly so called, issues through
 ‘ cracks or crevices with more or less impetu-
 ‘ osity, and in greater or smaller quantity, ac-
 ‘ cording to the violence of the eruption. It
 ‘ spreads to a greater or smaller distance, accord-
 ‘ ing to the degree of fluidity, and the declivity
 ‘ of the mountain, which more or less retards
 ‘ its cooling. . .

‘ That which now covers a part of the land

* Mem. de l’Acad. des Sciences, année 1757, p. 374.

‘ at the foot of the mountain, and which some-
 ‘ times stretches as far as Portici, consists of
 ‘ large heavy masses, bristled with points on
 ‘ their upper surface. The surface which rests
 ‘ on the ground is flatter: As these pieces lie
 ‘ above each other, they have some resemblance
 ‘ to the waves of the sea. When the pieces are
 ‘ larger and more numerous, they assume the
 ‘ figure of rocks. . .

‘ In cooling, the lava affects various forms. . .
 ‘ The most common is that of tables or boards
 ‘ of greater or smaller dimensions. Some pieces
 ‘ are six, seven, and eight feet long. It breaks
 ‘ into this form in cooling and consolidating.
 ‘ This is the species of lava which is bristled
 ‘ with points. . .

‘ The second species resembles great ropes:
 ‘ It is always found near the mouth of the vol-
 ‘ cano, and appears to have been suddenly fixed,
 ‘ and to have rolled before it hardened. It is
 ‘ lighter, more brittle, more bituminous, and
 ‘ softer, than the first species. By breaking it,
 ‘ we likewise perceive that its substance is not
 ‘ so close and compact. . .

‘ At the top of the mountain, we find a third
 ‘ species of lava, which is brilliant, and com-
 ‘ posed of threads which sometimes cross one
 ‘ another. It is coarse, and of a reddish violet
 ‘ colour. . . . Some fragments are sono-
 ‘ rous, and have the figure of stalactites. . .

‘ Lastly,

' Lastly, in certain parts of the mountain, we find lavas of a spherical form, and appear to have been rolled. It is easy to conceive how the figures of these lavas might be varied by a number of accidental circumstances,* &c.

Matter of every kind enters the composition of lavas. Iron and a small quantity of copper have been extracted from the lava found on the summit of Vesuvius. Some specimens are so impregnated with metallic substances as to preserve the flexibility of metal. I have seen two large tables of lava of two inches thick, which were polished like marble, and bended with their own weight. I have seen others, which were bended by a weight, and resumed their horizontal position by their own elasticity.

All lavas, when reduced to powder, are, like glass, susceptible of being converted, by the intervention of water, first into clay, and afterwards, by the mixture of dust and corrupted vegetables, into excellent soil. These facts are apparent from the vast and beautiful forests which surround *Ætna*, and grow upon a bottom of lava covered with several feet of good earth: The ashes are more quickly converted into earth than the powder of glass or of lava. In the craters of old extinguished volcano's, as well as on the ancient rivers of lava, we find very fertile soils. Hence the devastations occasioned by volcano's are limited by

* *Mém. de l'Acad. des Sciences, année 1766, p. 75.*

time ;

time ; and, as Nature is always more disposed to produce than to destroy, she, in a few ages, repairs the devastations of fire, and restores to the earth its former fertility by the very same materials she had employed for the purposes of destruction.