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XI. On the theory of the structure of crystals

Abbé Hauy

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of October, when the frost becomes sharp: nor did I ever see them again before the last week in May, or beginning of June. From their being enveloped in balls of clay, without any appearance of food, I conceive they sleep during the winter, and remain for that term without sustenance. As soon as I conveyed this specimen to my house, I deposited it, as it was, in a small chip-box, in some cotton, waiting with great anxiety for its waking; but that not taking place at the season they generally appear, I kept it until I found it begin to smell: I then stuffed it, and preserved it in its torpid position. I am led to believe its not recovering from that state, arose from the heat of my room during the time it was in the box, a fire having been constantly burning in the stove, and which in all probability was too great for respiration. I am led to this conception from my experience of the snow bird of that country, which always expires in a few days (after being caught, although it feeds perfectly well) if exposed to the heat of a room with a fire or stove; but being nourished with snow, and kept in a cold room or passage, will live to the middle of summer.

The animal above described belongs to Schreber's genus of *Dipus*, and may be characterized.

DIPUS CANADENSIS palmis tetradactylis, plantis pentadactylis, caudâ annulatâ undique fetosâ, corpore longiore.

Fig. 1. Plate VIII, represents the *Dipus Canadensis*.

Fig. 2 shows it in its torpid state.

XI. *On the Theory of the Structure of Crystals, by the Abbé HAUY. From Vol. XVII. of the Annales de Chimie.*

[Continued from Page 169.]

4. *Intermediate Decrements.*

THERE are certain crystals in which the decrements on the angles do not take place in lines parallel to the diagonals, but

but parallel to lines situated between the diagonals and the edges. This is the case when the subtractions are made by ranges of double, triple, &c. molecularæ. Fig. 47 (Plate IX.) exhibits an instance of the subtractions in question; and it is seen that the molecularæ which compose the range represented by that figure, are afforded in such a manner as if of two there were formed only one; so that we need only to conceive the crystal composed of parallelepipeds, having their bases equal to the small rectangles $a b c d$, $e d f g$, $h g i l$, &c. to reduce this case under that of the common decrements on the angles. I give the name of *intermediate decrement* to this particular kind of decrease, the progress of which will be better illustrated by the following example.

Syntactic Iron Ore (Fig. 48.).

De Pisle *Crystallographie*, tom. iii. b. 198 and 199. var. 9 and 10.

Geomet. charact. Respective inclination of the trapeziums $b c g o$, $n q g o$, of the rising pyramids $135^{\circ} 34' 31''$; of the edges $c g$, $g q$, $129^{\circ} 31' 16''$. Angles of the trapezium $b c g o$, b or $c = 103^{\circ} 48' 35''$; o or $g = 76^{\circ} 11' 25''$.

This variety of iron ore, which for the most part appears under the form of two opposite pyramids, rising from a common base, is found at Framont in les Vosges. There are some groupes, the surface of which, like the iron ore of the island of Elba, reflects the most lively prismatic colours. The crystals are often so small, that they might be taken for simple tetragonal laminæ; but, on close inspection, the small spots which form the faces of the rising pyramids may be seen.

These crystals, which M. de Pisle classed among the modifications of the dodecaedron with isosceles triangular planes, have for nucleus a cube which performs the functions of the rhomboid, as in the ore of the island of Elba. The two regular hexagons, by which they are terminated, arise from a decrement by a single range of cubic molecularæ on the angles c , n , (*fig.* 46) of the nucleus.

To form an idea then of the effect of the intermediary law, combined with the preceding, and which gives rise to the lateral trapeziums, let us suppose that $cbpr$ (fig. 49) represents the same square as fig. 46, subdivided into small squares, which are the external faces of as many *moleculæ*. If we take these *moleculæ* by pairs, so that they form rectangular parallelepipeds, having for bases the oblong squares $bngh$, $bgmG$, &c. and if we imagine that the subtractions are made by two ranges of these double *moleculæ*, the edges of the laminæ of superposition will be successively ranged in lines, as PG , TL , Rp , Sp , kz , yz , &c. and the sum of all these edges will produce two faces which, departing from the angles b , r , will converge, the one towards the other, and will unite themselves on a common ridge, situated above the diagonal cp , but inclined to that diagonal. We shall then have twelve faces as the complete result of the decrement; and calculation shows, that the six superior faces, being prolonged to the point where they meet the six lower faces, will form with them the surface of a dodecaedron, composed of two right pyramids united at their bases. These pyramids are here incomplete by the effect of the first law, which gives the hexagon $abcdru$ (fig. 48) and its opposite*.

5. Mixed Decrements.

In other crystals the decrements, either on the edges or on the angles, vary according to laws, the proportion of which cannot be expressed but by the fraction $\frac{2}{3}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$. It may happen, for example, that each lamina exceeds the following by two ranges parallel to the edges, and that it may at the same time have an altitude triple that of a simple *molecula*. Figure 54 r presents a vertical geometrical section of one of the kinds of pyramids which would result from this decrement; the effect of which may be readily conceived by con-

* The term *syntactic* denotes the combination of decrements, one of which takes place by a single range of simple *moleculæ*, and the other by two ranges of double *moleculæ*.

sidering that AB is a horizontal line taken on the upper base of the nucleus, *b a z r* the section of the first lamina of superposition, *g f e n* that of the second, &c. I call *mixed decrements* those which exhibit this new kind of exception from the simplest laws.

These decrements, as well as the intermediary ones, rarely exist any where else, and it is particularly in certain metallic substances that I have discovered them. Having tried to apply the ordinary laws to a variety of these substances, I found so great errors in the value of the angles that I at first believed they were inconsistent with theory. But after I had conceived the idea of giving to this theory the extent of which I have just spoken, I arrived at results so correct, that I no longer entertained any doubt of the existence of the laws on which these results depend.

Reflections on the preceding Results.

All the metamorphoses to which crystals are subjected depend on those laws of structure just explained, and others of the like kind. Sometimes the decrements take place at the same time on all the edges; as in the dodecaedron having rhombuses for its planes, as before mentioned; or on all the angles, as in the octaedron originating from a cube. Sometimes they take place only on certain edges or certain angles. Sometimes there is an uniformity between them, so that it is one single law by one, two, three ranges, &c. which acts on the different edges, or the different angles; as is observed in the two solids of which I shall speak hereafter. Sometimes the law varies from one edge to the other, or from one angle to the other; and this happens above all when the nucleus has not a symmetrical form; for example, when it is a parallelepipedon, the faces of which differ by their respective inclinations, or by the measure of their angles. In certain cases the decrements on the edges concur with the decrements on the angles to produce the same crystalline form. It happens also sometimes that the same edge,

edge, or the same angle, is subjected to several laws of decrement, that succeed each other. In a word, there are cases where the secondary crystal has faces parallel to those of the primitive form, and which combine with the faces produced by the decrements to modify the figure of the crystal.

I call *simple secondary forms*, those arising from an unique law of decrement, the effect of which entirely conceals the nucleus; and *compound secondary forms*, those which arise from several simultaneous laws of decrement, or from one single law which has not attained to its extent, so that there remain faces parallel to those of the nucleus, which concur, with the faces produced by the decrement, to diversify the aspect of the crystal. I shall soon make new applications of theory to the compound secondary forms, of which syntactic iron ore has already presented us an example.

If amidst this diversity of laws sometimes insulated, sometimes united by combinations more or less complex, the number of the ranges subtracted were itself extremely variable; for example, were these decrements by twelve, twenty, thirty or forty ranges, or more, as might absolutely be possible, the multitude of the forms which might exist in each kind of mineral would be immense, and exceed what could be imagined. But the power which effects the subtractions seems to have a very limited action. These subtractions for the most part take place by one or two ranges of molecules. I have found none which exceeded four ranges, except in a variety of calcareous spar, forming part of the collection of C. Gillet Laumont, the structure of which I have lately determined, and which depends on a decrement by six ranges; so that, if there exist laws which exceed the decrements by four ranges, there is reason to believe that they rarely take place in nature. Yet, notwithstanding these narrow limits, by which the laws of crystallization are circumscribed, I have found, by confining myself to two of the simplest laws, that is to say, those which produce subtractions by one or two ranges, that calcareous spar is susceptible

of two thousand and forty-four different forms : a number which exceeds more than fifty times that of the forms already known*, and if we admit into the combination decrements by three and four ranges, calculation will give 8,388,604 possible forms in regard to the same substance. This number may be still very much augmented in consequence of decrements either mixed or intermediary.

The striæ remarked on the surface of a multitude of crystals afford a new proof in favour of theory, as they always have directions parallel to the projecting edges of the laminæ of superposition, which mutually go beyond each other, unless they arise from some particular want of regularity. Not that the inequalities resulting from the decrements must be always sensible, if the form of the crystals had always that degree of finishing of which it is susceptible ; for, on account of the extreme minuteness of the molecularæ, the surface would appear of a beautiful polish, and the striæ would elude our senses. There are therefore secondary crystals where they are not observed in any manner, while they are very visible in other crystals of the same nature and form. In the latter case, the action of the causes which produce crystallization not having fully enjoyed all the conditions necessary for perfecting that so delicate operation of nature, there have been starts and interruptions in their progress, so that, the law of continuity not having been exactly observed, there have remained on the surface of the crystal vacancies apparent to our eyes. In a word, it is seen that such small deviations are attended with this advantage, that they point out the direction according to which the striæ are arranged in lines on the perfect forms where they escape our organs, and thus contribute to unfold to us the real mechanism of the structure.

The small vacancies which the edges of the laminæ of superposition leave on the surface of even the most perfect se-

* In my Essay, p. 217 *et seq.* I carried the number of these forms only to 1019 because I had not introduced as an element in my calculation a modification of the law of decrements, with the existence of which I was not then acquainted.

secondary crystals by their reentering and salient angles, thus afford a satisfactory solution of the difficulty a little before mentioned; which is, that the fragments obtained by division, the external facets of which form part of the faces of the secondary crystal, are not like those drawn from the interior part. For this diversity, which is only apparent, arises from the facets in question being composed of a multitude of small planes, really inclined to one another, but which, on account of their smallness, present the appearance of one plane; so that, if the division could reach its utmost bounds, all these fragments would be resolved into *moleculæ*, similar to each other, and to those situated towards the centre.

The fecundity of the laws on which the variations of crystalline forms depend, is not confined to the producing of a multitude of very different forms with the same *moleculæ*. It often happens also, that *moleculæ* of different figures arrange themselves in such a manner as to give rise to like polyhedra in different kinds of minerals. Thus the dodecaedron with rhombuses for its planes, which we obtained by combining cubic *moleculæ*, exists in the granite with a structure composed of small tetraedra having isosceles triangular faces, as I shall prove hereafter; and I have found it in sparry fluor, where there is also an assemblage of tetraedra, but regular; that is to say, the faces of which are equilateral triangles. Nay more: it is possible that similar *moleculæ* may produce the same crystalline form by different laws of decrement*. In short, calculation has conducted me to another result, which appeared to me still more remarkable, which is, that, in consequence of a simple law of decrement, there may exist a crystal which externally has a perfect resemblance to the nucleus, that is to say, to a solid that does not arise from any law of decrement †.

* *Mem. de l'Acad.* an 1788, p. 17 & 26.

† *Ibid.* p. 23.

*Various Examples of compound secondary Forms,*Prismatic Calcareous Spar (*Fig. 1. Plate II.*)

Spath calcaire en prisme hexaèdre. Daubenton *Tab. Miner.*, edit. 1792, p. 15, n° 6. De l'Isle *Crystrallographie*, tom. i. p. 514. var. 10.

The bases of this prism are produced in consequence of a decrement by a single range on the angles of the summits baf , gaf , bag , dex , dec , cex (*fig. 4.*), of the primitive form. The six planes result from a decrement by two ranges on the angles $bd f$, fxg , bcg , dfx , dbc , cgx , opposite to the preceding. Let $abdf$ (*fig. 50.*) be the same face of the nucleus as *fig. 4.* The decreasing edges situated towards the angle of the summit a will successively correspond with the lines bi , kl , &c. and those which look towards the inferior angle d will have the positions pointed out by mn , op , &c. But in consequence of the first decrement taking place by one range, we prove that the face which results from it is perpendicular to the axis; and calculation shows, in the like manner, that the second decrement, which takes place by two ranges, produces planes parallel to the axis, and thus the secondary solid is a regular hexaedral prism.

To display further the structure of this prism let us remark that, in the productions of any one $abcnib$ (*fig. 1.*) of the two bases, we may confine ourselves to consider the effect of one only of the three decrements which take place around the solid angle a (*fig. 4.*), for example of that which takes place on the angle baf , supposing that the laminæ applied on the two other faces, $fagx$, $bagc$, do not decrease but to assist the result of the principal decrement, which takes place in regard to the angle baf . But here these auxiliary decrements are altogether similar to that the effect of which they are supposed to prolong.

The case will be totally different if we apply the same observation to the decrements which are effected by two ranges on the inferior angles $bd f$, dfx , fxg , &c. and which produce

Fig. 3.

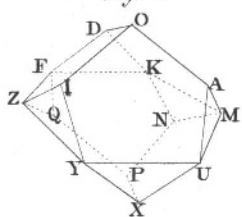


Fig. 2.

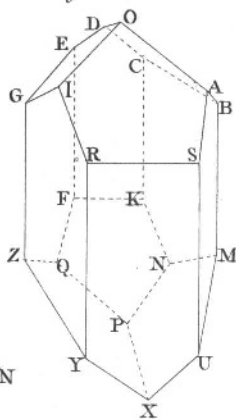


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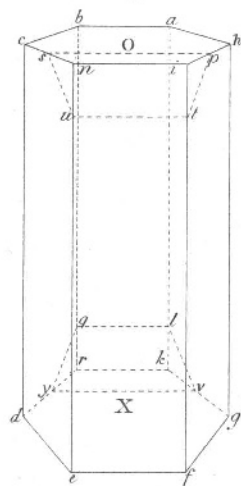


Fig. 5.

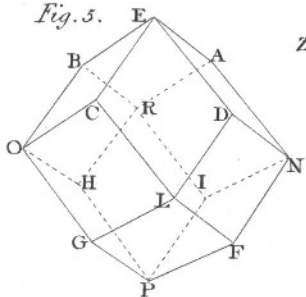


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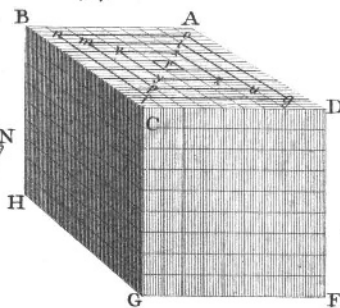


Fig. 4.

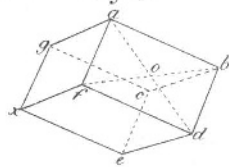


Fig. 6.

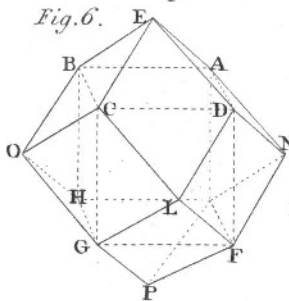


Fig. 13.

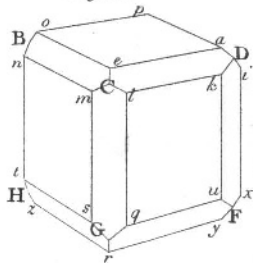


Fig. 12.

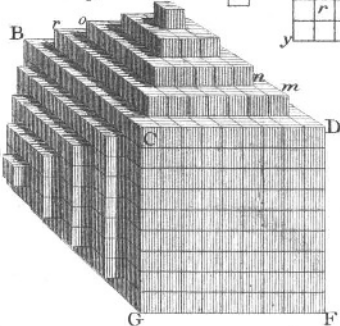


Fig. 11.



Fig. 10.



Fig. 8.

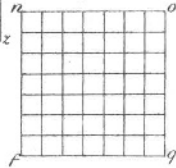
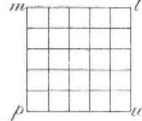
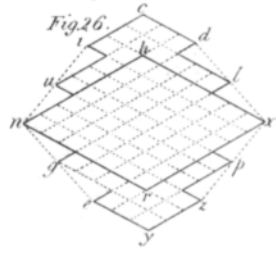
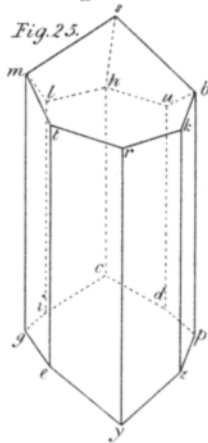
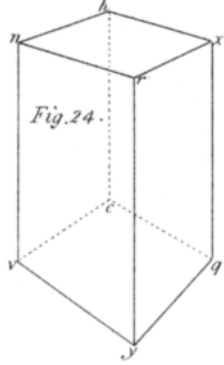
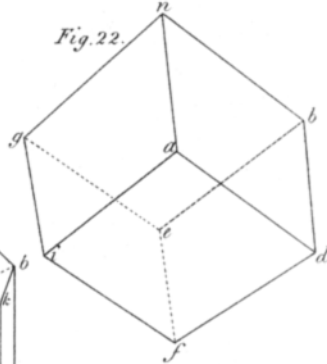
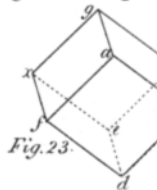
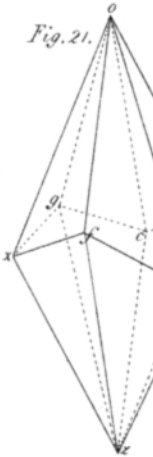
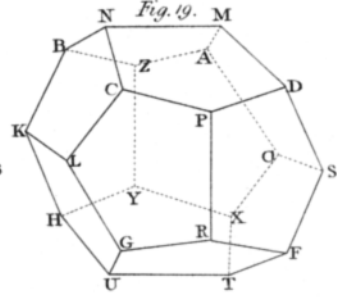
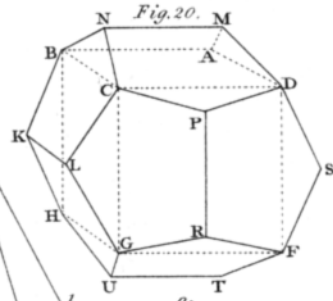
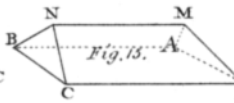
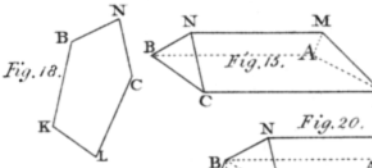
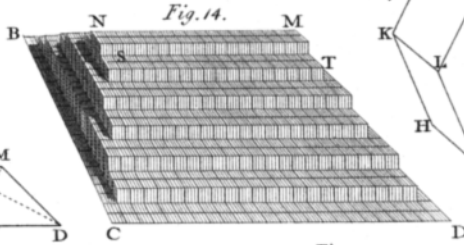
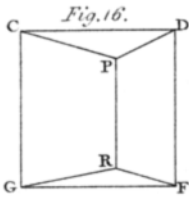


Fig. 9.



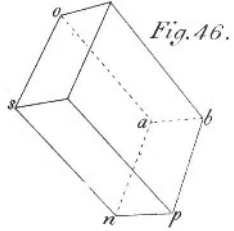
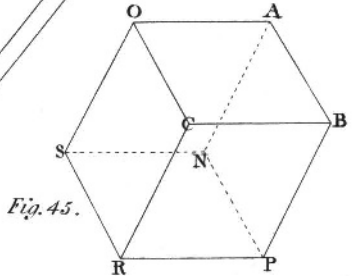
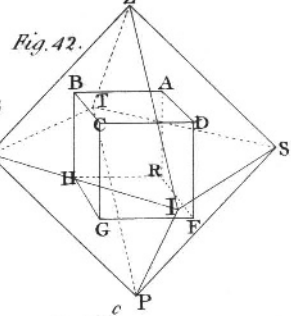
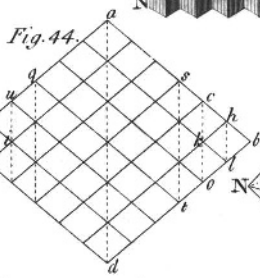
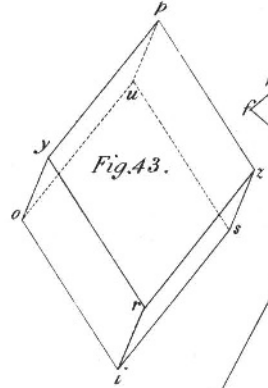
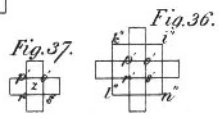
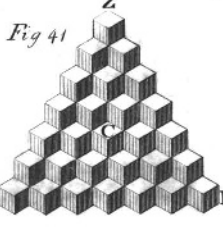
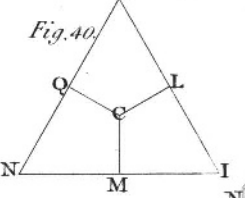
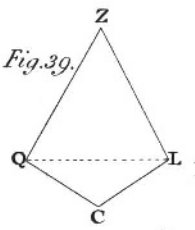
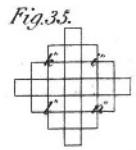
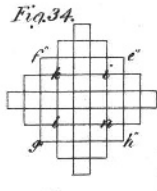
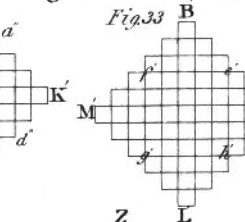
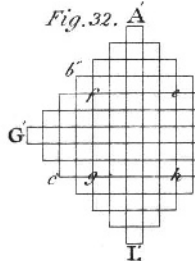
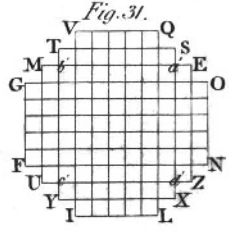
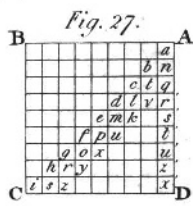
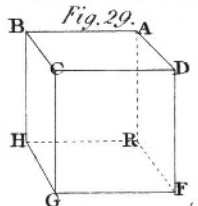
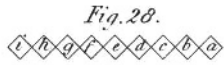
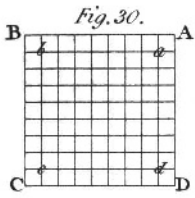
W. Lomy sculp.

PHILOSOPHICAL MAGAZINE.

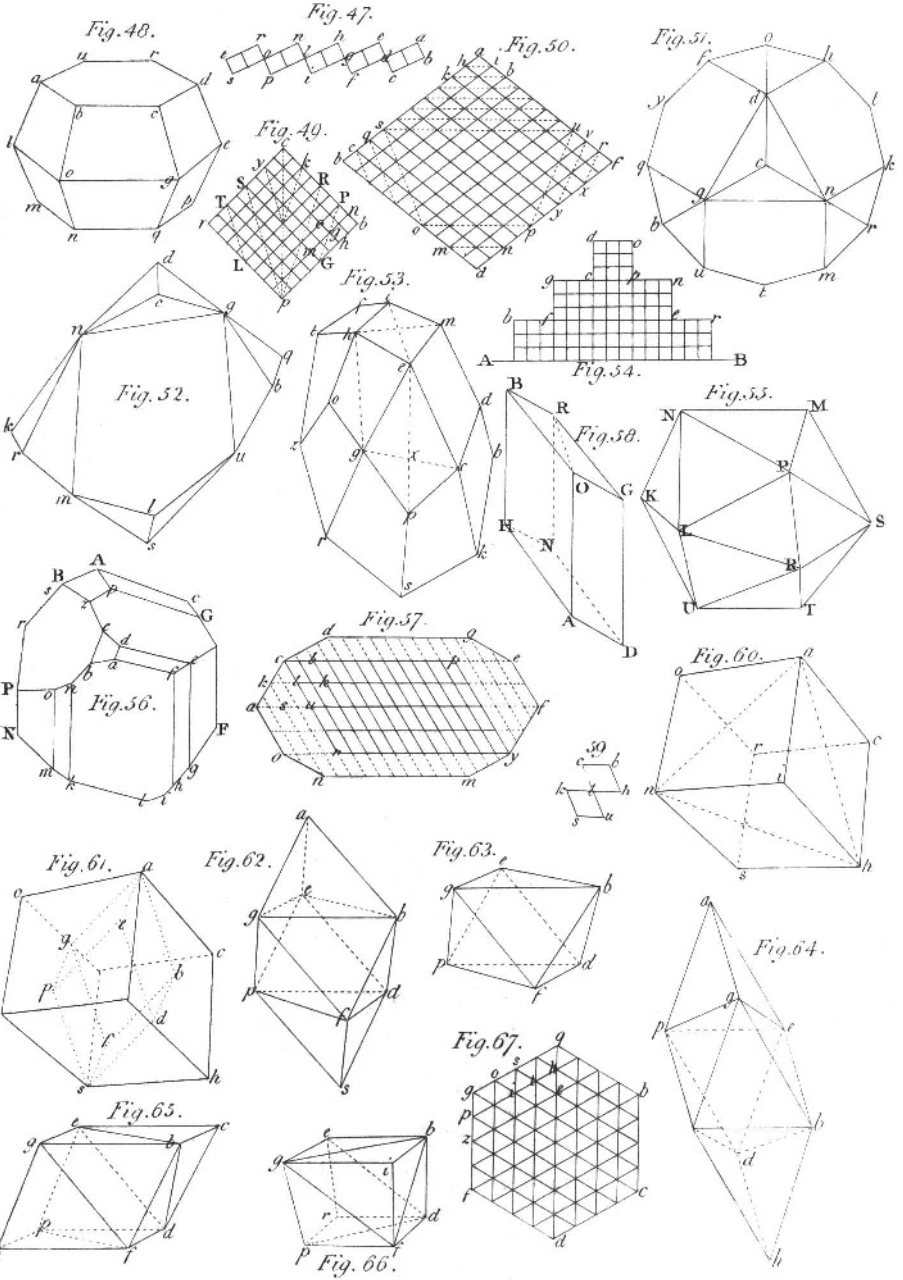


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Lowry sculp.

duce the six planes of the prism. For example, if we consider the effect of the decrement on the angle dfx , it is necessary also that the laminæ applied on the faces $afdb$, $afxg$ (*fig. 4.*), should experience towards their lateral angles afd , afx , adjacent to the angle dfx , variations which second the effect of the generating decrement. But here these variations are intermediary decrements by ranges of double moleculæ.

To conceive a better idea of these variations, let us resume the face $abcd$ (*fig. 50.*). The variations in question will take place parallel to the lines ce , rx , gz , vy , &c. that is to say, by one range of double moleculæ, and in such a manner that there will always be two laminæ on a level at their edges in the direction of the height. By this it is evident why the laminæ taken from the prism by the first sections are trapeziums, such as $plus$ (*fig. 1.*), in which the assortment of the small composing rhombuses will be the same as on the trapezium $usop$ (*fig. 50.*). We may in the like manner assign the reason of the different figures through which the laminæ, successively detached, before arriving at the nucleus, are obliged to pass. But this detail would lead us too far. In a word, I must here repeat, that every thing is included in the effect of the principal decrements: that is to say, in the present case, of those which take place on the superior and inferior angles, or parallel to the horizontal diagonals; and after the first lamina of superposition, the figure of the crystal is given according to this single condition, that the initial faces be prolonged so as to intersect each other.

The prism is susceptible of varying in the length of its axis compared with its thickness, which depends on the different epochs at which the decrements commence, or are supposed, to commence. For example: if we suppose that the decrement, which takes place towards the inferior angle, acts alone at first on a certain number of laminæ, the axis of the crystal will be so much the longer as the commence-

ment of the decrement on the superior angles shall have been retarded. This difference of epochs becomes sensible by inspecting the dodecaedron, *fig. 2*, which is one of the results of the mechanical division of the prism. It is there seen that the pentagonal laminæ of the summits, such as *A O I R S*, decrease only by their edge *R S*, which corresponds to the inferior angle *b. d f* (*fig. 4.*), while, by their upper parts, they continue to envelop the crystal without experiencing any decrement towards that side; so that it is only on the laminæ most distant from the axis, as that corresponding to *p s u l*, that the two decrements take place at the same time.

The result which we have explained is general; that is to say, that, whatever may be the angles of the primitive rhomboid, the secondary solid will always be a regular hexaedra prism.

Amphitrigonous Iron Ore.

(*Fig. 51* represents this crystal in a horizontal projection, and *fig. 52* in perspective.)

Mine de fer a 24 faces. Daubenton *Tab. Miner.* edit. 1792, p. 30, n° 2. De l'Isle *Crystallographie*, tom. iii. p. 193 et suiv. var. 5, 6, 7.

Geomet. caract. Respective inclination of the triangles *g e n*, *g c d*, &c. from the same summit $146^{\circ} 26' 33''$; of the lateral triangles *b g u*, *b g q*, to the adjacent pentagons, such as *g u t m n*, $154^{\circ} 45' 39''$.

This form is that under which the iron ore of the island of Elba most commonly appears. It results from a decrement by two ranges on the angles *c, n* (*fig. 46.*), to the summits of a cubic nucleus which produces the isosceles triangles *g c n*, *g c d n c d* (*fig. 51* and *52*), and of a second decrement by three ranges on the lateral angles *c b p*, *c r p*, *c r s*, &c. which produce the triangles *m n r*, *r n k*, *u g b*, *q g b*, &c. These two decrements stop at a certain term, so that there remain faces parallel to those of the nucleus, viz. the pentagons *g u t m n*, *b d n k l*, &c. (*fig. 51.*)

The

The first decrement is the same as that which produces the rhomboidal iron ore already mentioned. The second has this property, that, if its effect were complete, it would give a dodecaedron of isosceles triangles, or composed of two right pyramids united at their bases. In the case of any other decrement by two, four or more ranges, the faces of the dodecaedron would be scalene triangles.

The triangles of the summits are frequently furrowed by striæ, parallel to the bases gn , dn , gd , of these triangles, and which point out the direction of the decrement.

Analogical Calcareous Spar (Fig 53).

Del'Isle *Cryсталlographie*, tom. i. p. 543, pl. 4, fig. 36.

Geomet. charact. Inclination of any one, $im eb$, of the trapezoids of the summits to the corresponding vertical trapezoid $ecpg$ $116^{\circ} 33' 54''$; angles of the same trapezoid, $i = 114^{\circ} 18' 56''$; $e = 75^{\circ} 31' 20''$; m or $b = 85^{\circ} 4' 52''$. Angles of the trapezoid $ebog$, $e = 90^{\circ}$; $o = 127^{\circ} 25' 53''$; $g = 67^{\circ} 47' 44''$; $b = 74^{\circ} 46' 23''$; of the trapezoid $ceg p$, $e = 60^{\circ}$; $p = 98^{\circ} 12' 46''$; c or $g = 100^{\circ} 53' 37''$.

Geomet. proptert. 1. In each vertical trapezoid the triangle ceg is equilateral. 2. The height ex of this triangle is double the height px of the opposite triangle $cp g$. 3. In the trapezoid $ebog$ and the others similarly situated the angle beg is a right angle. 4. If the diagonal gb be drawn, the triangle beg will be similar to any one aof (fig 4.) of those which would be produced by drawing, in the primitive rhombus, the two diagonals bf , ad . 5. If in the trapezoid $emib$, or any other situated at the summits, the diagonals ei , mb , be drawn, the height el of the inferior triangle meb will be double the height il of the superior triangle mih . 6. The triangle mib is similar to half of the rhombus of very obtuse spar, divided by the horizontal diagonal; and the triangle meb is similar to half of the rhombus of the acute spar, divided in the same manner.

The

The numerous analogies by which this variety is connected with different crystalline forms, whether we consider certain angles formed by planes, as the angle beg of 90° , the angle ceg of 60° , or certain triangles obtained by drawing the diagonals of the trapezoids, have induced me to give it the name of *analogical spar*. It is derived from three other varieties mentioned before, viz. very obtuse spar by the trapezoids $emib$, $fibt$, &c.; metastatic spar by the trapezoids $emdc$, $ebog$, $obts$, &c. and the prismatic spar by the trapezoids $bdc k$, $ceg p$, &c. which are consequently parallel to the axis.

It often happens that the trapezoids $im eb$, $fibt$, &c. are separated, by an intermediary ridge, from the vertical trapezoids $ceg p$, $gozr$, &c. In that case the trapezoids dme , $geba$, &c. are changed into pentagons. I have here supposed the crystal brought back to the most symmetric figure, that is to say, having its surface composed only of quadrilaterals, as sometimes happens. This variety is found in Derbyshire.

Icosaedral Sulfure of Iron (Fig. 55).

Pyrite ferrugineuse polyèdre à vingt faces triangulaires. Daubenton *Tab. Miner.* edit. 1792, p. 30. De l'Isle *Crytallographie*, tom. iii. p. 233, var. 22.

Geomet. caract. Respective inclinations of the isosceles triangles PLR , PSR , $126^\circ 52' 11''$; of any one PNL of the equilateral triangles, to each adjacent isosceles triangle PLR or LNK $140^\circ 46' 17''$. Angles of the isosceles triangle PLR , $L = 48^\circ 11' 20''$; P or $R = 65^\circ 54' 20''$:

This variety results from a combination of the law which produces the octaedron originating from a cube (*fig. 42.*), with that which takes place for the dodecaedron with pentagonal planes (*fig. 19 and 20.*) The first law gives birth to the eight equilateral triangles which correspond with the solid angles of the nucleus, and the second to twelve isosceles triangles,

triangles, situated, two and two, above the six faces of the same nucleus. If we had a dodecaedron similar to that of *fig. 20*, and wished to convert it geometrically into an icosaedron, such as that in question, it would be sufficient to make the planes of eight sections pass through it in the following manner, viz. one through the three angles P, N, L, (*fig. 19.*), another through the angles P, M, S, a third through the angles L, R, U, &c. A comparison of the figures 19 and 55 will show, by the correspondence of the letters, the relation between the two polyedra; but this is an operation merely technical, to which nature could not descend. I shall observe besides, that the nucleus of the icosaedron, to which we should arrive, would be much smaller than that of the dodecaedron, since the solid angles of the latter nucleus would be confounded with the angles D, C, G, &c. (*fig. 20.*) of the dodecaedron; whereas the other nucleus would have its solid angles situated in the middle of the equilateral triangles M P S, N P L, U R L, &c. (*fig. 55.*)

The icosaedron of the sulphure of iron has been confounded with the regular icosaedron of geometry, which differs from it very sensibly, since all its triangles are equilateral. It is demonstrated by theory, that the existence of the latter icosaedron is as impossible in mineralogy as that of the dodecaedron; so that among the five regular polyedra of geometry, viz. the cube, the tetraedon, the octaedron, the dodecaedron, and the icosaedron, the three former only can exist there in consequence of the laws of crystallization. It is not uncommon therefore to find them among crystals of various kinds of minerals.

The icosaedron of the sulphure of iron is much less common than the dodecaedron. It is found in solitary crystals. I have one which is complete, and about half an inch in thickness.

*Polynomous Petunzé (Fig. 56) *.*

Spath étincelant ou feld-spath en prisme à dix pans avec des sommets à deux faces et quatre facettes. Daubenton *Tab. Miner.* edit. 1792, p. 4, var. 2.

Geomet. charact. Respective inclination of the narrow planes $onk m$, $cfbg$, to the adjacent planes on each side 150° ; of the planes $ctFg$, $PomN$ to those contiguous to them by the edges tF , PN 120° ; of the heptagon $pGcldez$ to the enneagon $Bzebnopr s$, $99^\circ 41' 8''$; of the trapezium $dafc$ both to the plane $nba fbilk$ and to the heptagon $pGtcdez$, 135° ; of the facet $deab$ or $ABz p$ to the same heptagon, $124^\circ 15' 15''$.

I have not yet observed the petunzé naturally crystallized under its primitive form. This form, such as it is given by the mechanical division of secondary crystals, is that of an oblique prism of four planes (*fig. 58*), two of which, such as $GOAD$, $RBNH$, are perpendicular to the bases $ADNH$, $OGRB$. The other two, viz. $BOAH$, $RGDN$, make, with the former, angles of 120° at the ridges OA , RN , and angles of 60° towards the opposite ridges BH , GD . These planes are inclined to the bases at the place of the ridges GO , BR , $111^\circ 29' 43''$, and at the opposite ridges $68^\circ 30' 17''$.

This form is at the same time that of the *moleculæ*. Theory shows that the two parallelograms $GOAD$, $OGRB$, as well as their parallels, are equal in extent; and that the parallelogram $BOAH$, or its opposite, $RGDN$, is double each of the preceding; which may serve to explain the roughness of the sections made in the direction $BOAH$, when compared with those obtained in the directions of the

* I have adopted the name *petunzé*, which is that given to this substance in China, where it is employed in making porcelain. The word *spar* (*spath*) has become so vague, by the application of it to substances very different in their nature, that it is much to be wished that it were banished from the nomenclature of minerals.

small parallelograms, and which are always extremely smooth and brilliant. Moreover, if the diagonal OR be drawn, it will be found perpendicular to OA and RN ; or, what amounts to the same, will be situated horizontally, by supposing that the ridges OA , BH , &c. have a vertical position. We shall soon have occasion to make use of this observation.

The polynomous petunzé presents the most complicated variety which I have observed among crystals of this kind. To form an idea of its structure, let us suppose that $bp\gamma r$ (*fig. 57*) represents a section of the nucleus AR (*fig. 58*) made by a plane perpendicular to the parallelograms $GOAD$, $BOAH$, and subdivided into a multitude of small parallelograms, which are the analogous sections of so many moleculeæ. Here the side γr (*fig. 57*) which is the same section of the cutting plane as $GOAD$, is greater than it ought to be in regard to the side cr (*fig. 57*), which is the same section as $BOAH$ (*fig. 58*): but these dimensions are suited to those of the secondary crystal, and here occasion no difficulty, because we may suppose that the primitive form has been extended more in one direction than in another; for this form, as I have already remarked, is only a convenient *datum* for the explanation of the structure, and the crystal consists merely in an assemblage of similar moleculeæ; so that it is the dimensions of these moleculeæ which remain invariable.

This being premised, we shall find, by comparing the figures 56 and 57; 1st, that the plane $fabnkl$ (*fig. 56*) and its opposite, which correspond to mn, dg , (*fig. 57*), are parallel to two of the planes of the nucleus, viz. $GOAD$, $BRNH$ (*fig. 58*), and consequently do not result from any law of decrement; 2d, that the plane $PomN$, and its opposite (*fig. 56*), which correspond to ao, eg (*fig. 57*), are also parallel to two of the planes of the nucleus, viz. $BOAH$, $RGDN$ (*fig. 58*); 3d, that the plane $onkm$ and its opposite (*fig. 56*), which correspond to on, eg ,
(*fig.*

(*fig. 57*) result from a decrement by two ranges parallel to the ridges $A O$, $N R$ (*fig. 58*); 4th, that the plane $c f g b$ and its opposite (*fig. 56*), which correspond to $m y$, $d v$ (*fig. 57*), result from a decrement by four ranges parallel to the ridges $G D B H$ (*fig. 58*); 5th, that the plane $c t F g$ and its opposite (*fig. 56*), which correspond to $f y$, $c a$ (*fig. 57*), result from a decrement by two ranges parallel to the same ridges $G D$, $B H$ (*fig. 58*), which decrement takes place on the other side of these ridges. It may be seen by what has been already said, that decrements different in their measure give rise to planes similarly situated, such as $o n k m$ and $c f g b$ (*fig. 56*), which is a consequence of the particular figure of the molecule.

With regard to the faces of the summit, the heptagon $p G t c d e z$ (*fig. 56*) is situated parallel to the base $B R G O$ (*fig. 58*). The enneagon $B s r P o n b e z$ (*fig. 56*) is produced in consequence of a decrement by one range on the angle $O B R$ (*fig. 58*), or parallel to the diagonal $O R$; which decrement does not attain to its full extent, and leaves subsisting the neighbouring heptagon parallel to the base $B R G O$. It may be readily conceived, after what has been said on the position of the diagonal $O R$, why the line $e z$ (*fig. 56*), which separates the two large faces of the summit, is situated horizontally, supposing that the planes have a vertical position.

The trapeziums $d a f c$, $A p G C$, result from a decrement by one range on the ridges $G O$, $B R$, (*fig. 58*). The facet $d e b a$ (*fig. 56*) arises from a decrement by two ranges, parallel to the ridge $B O$ (*fig. 58*). With regard to the other facet $A B z p$, which has the same position as the preceding, in regard to the opposite part of the crystal, it results from an intermediary law by a range of double molecule on the angle $O B R$ (*fig. 58*). The rhombuses $b c l b$, $k l f u$ (*fig. 59*), represent the horizontal sections of two of these double molecule, taken in the same range, and whose relation to the rest of the assortment will become sensible by comparing

comparing the rhombuses in question with those marked by the same letters (*fig. 57*).

The crystals of this variety are subject to a change of dimensions, which is, that the faces *p G t c d e x, f a b n k l i b*, and their opposites, which are at right angles to each other, are stretched out, in the direction of their breadth, in such a manner that they exhibit the appearance of a quadrilateral rectangular prism, the summits of which would be formed by the faces situated towards the ridges *P N, F t*.

This variety is found in opaque crystals, and of a whitish, yellowish, and sometimes reddish colour, in the granites of Auvergne, and of different countries. There are some of them in groupes and some single, but the latter are uncommon.

[*To be concluded in the next Number.*]

XII. *Description of the Apparatus employed by LAVOISIER to produce Water from its component Parts, Oxygen and Hydrogen.*

THE discovery made by Mr. Cavendish of the composition of water having effected a complete revolution in the theory of chemistry, it will no doubt gratify many of our readers to see some account of the principal apparatuses which have been contrived to exhibit this phenomenon.

Fig. 1, Plate X. is that used by Mr. Lavoisier. A is a balloon holding about 30 points, having a large opening, to which is cemented the plate of copper B pierced with four holes, in which four tubes terminate. The first tube *H b* is intended to be adapted to an air-pump, by which the balloon may be exhausted of its air. The second tube *gg* communicates by its extremity *M M* with a reservoir of oxygen gas, from which the balloon is to be filled. The third tube *d D d* communicates by its extremity *d N N* with a reservoir of hydrogen gas. The extremity *d* of this tube terminates in a capillary opening, through which the hydrogen gas contained in