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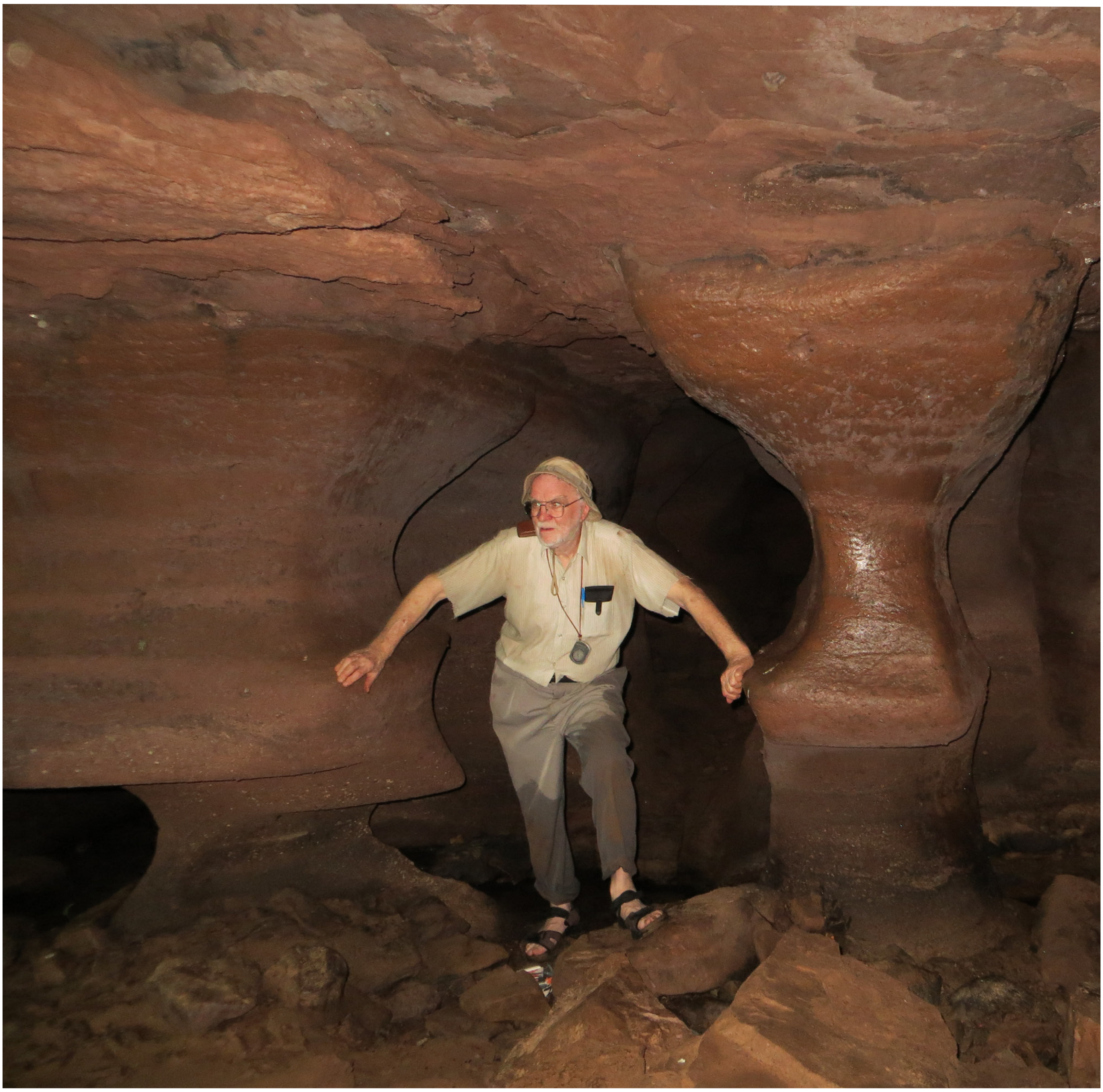
Helictite

Journal of Australasian Speleological Research



John Dunkley in network maze passage, Tham Din Phieng, Thailand.

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Helictite was established in 1962 by Edward A. Lane and Aola M. Richards, who were the foundation editors. It is intended to be wide ranging in scope from the scientific study of caves and their contents, to the history of caves and cave areas and the technical aspects of cave study and exploration. The territory covered is Australasia – Australia, New Zealand, the near Pacific Islands, Papua New Guinea and surrounding areas, Indonesia and Borneo.

In 1974 the Speleological Research Council agreed to support the Journal with financial assistance and in 1976 took over full responsibility for its production. From 1974 to 1997 the Journal was edited by Julia James assisted by other members of the Speleological Research Council Ltd. In 1998 Susan White and Ken Grimes took over as editors with Glenn Baddeley as Business Manager. Stefan Eberhard joined the editorial team in 2003.

Greg Middleton took over as Chief Editor in 2016. The accidental death of Ken Grimes in August led to further changes in editors, with Tim Moulds and Kevin Kiernan taking on the role.

In 2000 ownership of *Helictite* was transferred to the Australian Speleological Federation, Inc. and the journal has since been administered by the Helictite Commission of the ASF.

The aim of the Helictite Commission of the Australian Speleological Federation is to publish the results of scientific studies in all fields of speleology in *Helictite – Journal of Australasian Speleological Research*, and other publications.

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Submitted papers will still be reviewed and edited as before, but the layout may be varied to suit a digital format. Each paper will be published on line as it is ready as part of what is intended to be an annual volume. Intending authors should read the latest 'Information for Contributors' on the *Helictite* website.

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The *Helictite* web site is part of the parent ASF site. The URL is: http://helictite.caves.org.au

The web site is maintained by Business Manager, Glenn Baddeley. It provides contact details, information for contributors, contents, abstracts and complete PDF versions of all papers ever published in *Helictite* since 1962.

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Contents

Cover: John Dunkley in network maze passage, Tham Din Phieng, Thailand. Photo: Terry Bolger.

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Fauna of a granite cave: first data from Britannia Creek Cave (3GP10-48), Wesburn, Victoria, Australia

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Abstract

There are few studies in Australia on the fauna of granite caves. Britannia Creek Cave is a granite cave heavily used for recreation yet it has never been mapped nor has the cave fauna been documented. We present here the cave system showing eight ecological zones, A to H, which we mapped, each with different light and moisture characteristics. The faunal diversity and composition in each zone is reported using data recorded from three surveys conducted in April, August and October 2015. For all fauna observed, the zone in which it occurred was noted. Taxa were identified to species level or to genus or family where species was unknown. The composition of fauna assemblages was investigated using Multi-Dimensional Scaling (MDS). Three taxa, the Raphidophoridae (cave crickets), Keroplatidae (glowworms) and Araneae (spiders), were most abundant and occurred in all eight zones. Known cave dwellers, such as *Arachnocampa (Campara) gippslandensis* (glowworm) were observed in small isolated clusters in three zones, C, E and H.

The highest number of taxa (7) were present in the transition zone B, followed by zone A (6) and a dark zone F (6). Fewest taxa (2) were present in transition zone D.

Because there are few publications on the biology of granite caves in Australia, our data can contribute to determining future conservation and land management priorities, especially in regard to recreational use which we also recorded.

Introduction

Most caves in Australia are formed by seepage of water into limestone and other calcareous rocks, or occur as lava tubes in basaltic rock (Northup & Lavoie 2001; Finlayson & Hamilton-Smith 2003) and there are several studies on the invertebrates of these caves (e.g. Hamilton-Smith 2001; Humphreys 2008; Eberhard and others 1991). However granite caves have been little studied, especially with regard to their fauna. In Victoria, several granite cave systems occur, one being the Britannia Creek Cave (BCC) (Figure 1). Like other granite caves, BCC is a boulder-filled stream channel. The origin of this type of cave is described by Finlayson (1981, 1986), who suggested that the effects of underground streams on acid igneous rocks may lead to rapid, mass failures on the valley side slopes, resulting in deposition of granite boulders and weathered materials into the stream beds. Subsequent and continuing movement of water (stream) through the material has caused the removal of weathered material (often termed *grus*), leaving cavities and fissures between the boulders (Figure 2).

Energy in most caves originates from the surface, from where debris and nutrients are carried underground and pass through various zones within the cave. There are typically five cave zones: entrance, twilight, transition, deep cave and stale air zones (Moulds 2006). The zones nearest the entrance vary in temperature and humidity because of variation in external environmental conditions. Plant and cryptogam species, such as mosses and ferns, adapted to cool conditions, inhabit the surface at and near cave entrances and may sometimes extend into the cave (INHSCFB 2011; Moulds 2006). The twilight zone occurs further into the cave beyond the entrance zone. This zone receives reduced sunlight and plants are unable to photosynthesise or grow there (Moulds 2006). Despite the lack of vegetation, this zone supports a range of insects, spiders and other cave dwelling invertebrates (INHSCFB 2011; Moulds 2006). The transition zone (sometimes called the "variable-temperature zone") (Mohr & Poulson 1966) exists beyond the twilight zone, where light is reduced to zero (INHSCFB 2011; Moulds 2006). Here the temperature and humidity are constant. These zones

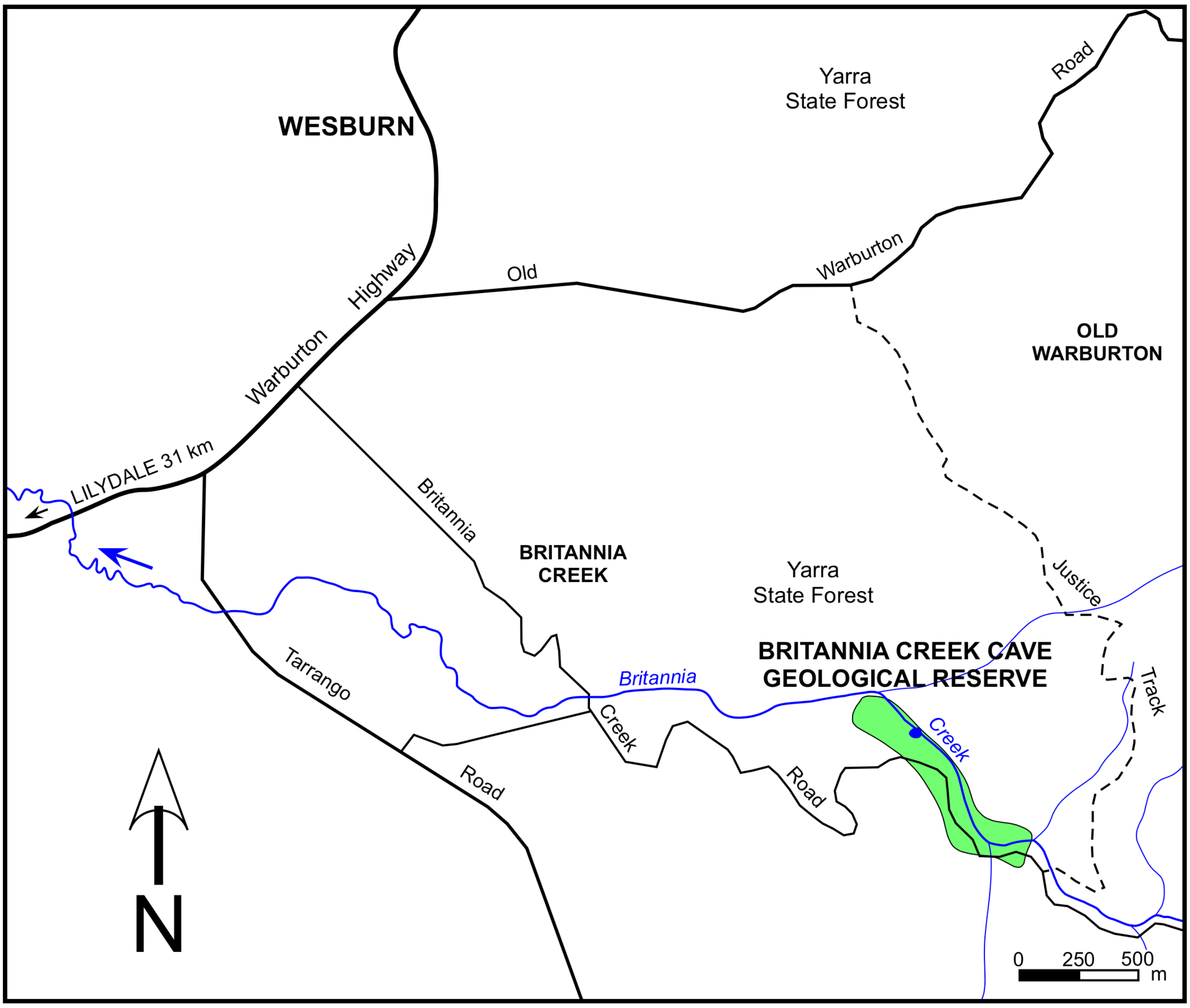

Figure 1. Map of part of Victoria, Australia, showing location of the Britannia Creek Cave Geological Reserve.

Figure 2. S.I. in typical passage, Britannia Creek Cave, with walls comprised of large weathered granite boulders. Photo: Jake Nowakowski

together are referred to as subterranean habitats and have similar characteristics to underground environments in karst (Culver & Pipan 2009; Clarke 1997), although the structure and composition of cave walls differ.

The fauna found in caves commonly includes species of conservation importance and some species may even be endemic to a single cave system (Culver and others 2000; Culver & Sket 2000). Invertebrates found in caves are generally described as cavernicoles (Clarke 1997; Hamilton-Smith 1967). Cavernicoles consist of accidentals (individuals having fallen or been carried into the cave but for which a cave is not a normal habitat), trogloxenes, troglophiles and troglobiont and their aquatic equivalents – stygoxenes, stygophiles, and stygobites (Moulds 2006; Clarke 1997; Eberhard and others 1991). The highest level of species endemism is found in the troglobites and stygobites (Gibert & Deharveng 2002).

Impacts on the cave fauna and flora must be considered. Recreational caving is one of the main negative impacts on the cave environment (Hamilton-Smith 2001; Poulter 2012). Visitors will impact the microclimate of the different cave zones by causing changes in humidity and carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. Structural damage can occur when visitors alter entrances to make access easier or mark routes through caves (Russell & MacLean 2008). Unintentional damage to fauna can be caused by trampling, bright lights from head torches and over-collecting (Eberhard 1999). Visitors can also cause damage to fragile cave decorations and deposit rubbish (Eberhard 2000).

Insecticides may seep into caves via streams and have been found in the upper layers of bat guano. Changes in stream flow because of vegetation clearing in catchments are examples of human impacts on caves leading to degradation (Poulter 2012; Hamilton-Smith 2001; Eberhard 2000). These impacts can occur in any type of cave (Poulter 2012; Russell & MacLean 2008, Eberhard 2000; Hamilton-Smith 2001).

The first aim of the project was to map the cave and identify zones based on light intensity and climate. The only cavernicole previously recorded from BCC was the troglophilic glowworm, *Arachnocampa* (*Campara*) *gippslandensis* (Baker 2010). Consequently, the second aim was to compile, as comprehensively as practical, an inventory of the fauna of the BCC and its distribution within the cave. The impacts of recreational visitors were also assessed during the fauna survey.

Methods

Site

The cave is located in the Britannia Creek catchment, in the parish of Warburton, Upper Yarra Shire, east of Melbourne, Victoria (37°47’ S and 145°39’ E) (Figure 1). The catchment is 6 km long from east to west and approximately 3 km wide from north to south (Master & Wise 1980). Current land use in the catchment is nature conservation, timber harvesting, recreation and water storage. Britannia Creek flows from east to west in the centre of the catchment where it intercepts and flows through the cave (Master & Wise 1980), which is located on the west side of the catchment. Mean annual rainfall is 1460 mm and mean temperature from April to September is 13.8°C (BCWS 2015).

The underlying basement rock is the acid granodiorite, named the Warburton Granodiorite, of upper to middle Devonian age (Finlayson 1981; Master & Wise 1980) and comprises granite boulders (core stones). The boulders are of irregular shape and varying sizes. Similar geological formations are found in a number of underground streams in Victoria (Finlayson 1981).

The surface vegetation overlying the cave belongs to the Ecological Vegetation Class #29 Damp Forest and #30 Wet Forest, Highlands Southern Fall Bioregion (DSE 2004) which is dominated by a tall eucalypt overstorey of mountain ash (*Eucalyptus regnans*), mountain grey-gum *(Eucalyptus cypellocarpa),* and messmate stringybark *(Eucalyptus obligua)* with scattered understorey trees over a tall broad-leaved shrub tree-fern understorey of rough tree-fern (*Cyathea australis*), soft tree-fern (*Dicksonia antarctica*) along the creek line and some “wet ferns” such as mother shield-fern (*Polystichum proliferum*) and hard water-fern (*Blechnum wattsii*) (DSE 2004). The vegetation around the entrances of the cave comprises a variety of species mainly composed of mosses, liverworts and prickly currant-bush (*Coprosma quadrifida*), as well as fungi.

Mapping Method

The upper chambers, lower chambers and entrances (daylight holes) of the cave were all surveyed and mapped[1] (Figure 3). Mapping was undertaken using a line survey and a forward

1 The cave is referred to as GP10-48 due to the convention of giving the lowest entry number first. However GP10 is not shown in the survey; it is believed to be connected to the surveyed passages through passages which are inaccessible due to water.

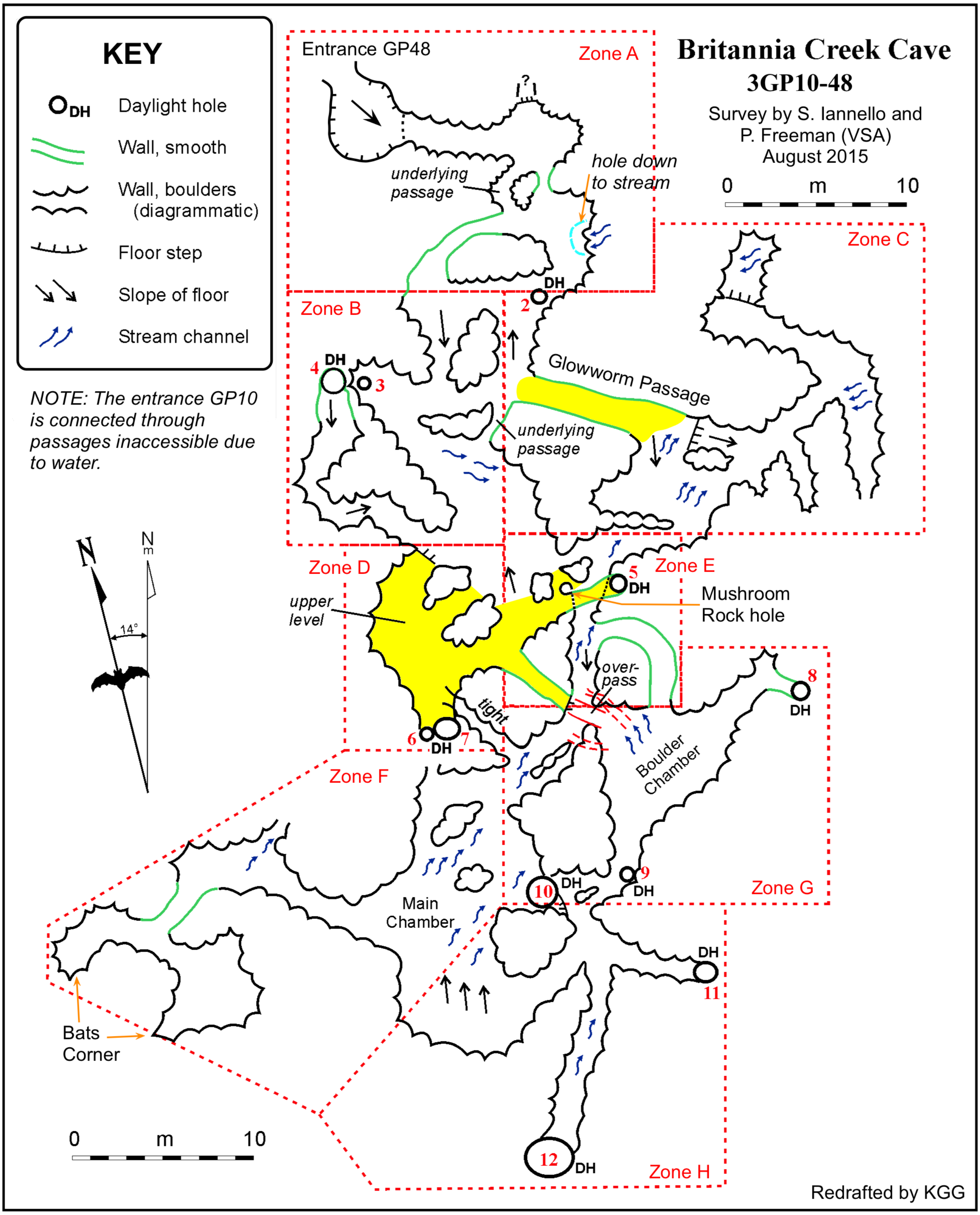

Figure 3. Map of Britannia Creek Cave with boundaries of zones A-H delineated in red. Entrances 1 to 12 depicted by a number in red. Yellow shaded areas show the upper levels of the cave.

method (Day 2002). Survey stations were set up at convenient positions along the cave passage allowing for line of sight from one station to the next. Station 1 was placed at the main entrance. A red laser pointer (Distometer X), modified to measure distance, compass bearing, angle and inclination was used at the first station to sight onto a target at the second station. Each station was referenced with a letter and number. The results were entered into COMPASS cave mapping software, which generated a skeleton map. The map was completed using CorelDraw 8 (Davis 1998) to show the shape of the cave (Figure 3). [The final version was redrafted by Ken Grimes to try to better show the nature of the majority of the walls –Ed.]

Survey method

Once mapping was complete, the map was used to design a plan to systematically survey the fauna of the cave. This allowed comparison of species richness throughout the cave in wet areas, dry areas and areas without a direct surface opening into a cave chamber. The cave was divided into eight zones A, B, C, D, E, F, G and H (Table 1) and the 12 daylight holes were numbered 1 through 12 (Figure 3). Zones F and C were both in dark areas away from any daylight hole. The other six zones were close to surface habitats accessible via either horizontal or vertical entrances. These six zones are on routes heavily used by visitors. Zones F and C have the highest stream flow passing through them and commonly flood.

Faunal survey

Each zone was surveyed for a period of 20 minutes during three survey visits (18 April, 22 August and 11 October 2015). For each survey in a zone, cave floors, walls, roofs, penetrating tree roots, cracks, fissures and voids in the rock were visually inspected for the presence of fauna. The cave fauna observed was identified to species where possible, otherwise to genus or other higher taxon. This allowed a comparison of taxon richness and composition in each zone. Collection of specimens was not permitted.

Analysis

A multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) was undertaken to examine the composition of fauna assemblages occurring in each zone (A-H). MDS is a non-parametric regression and ordination technique that indicates the rank orders of the samples and plots sample data two dimensionally. Those samples that are closer together on the plot are more similar in composition than samples plotted further apart. The 'fit' of the ordination or 'stress' measures the concordance in rank order of the observed distances that are closer together with those predicted from the samples further apart and is an indication of how reliably the ordination matches the observed data. A stress factor of <0.1 indicates high reliability with little chance of a misleading interpretation (Clarke and Gorley 2015). The MDS was based on a Bray-Curtis similarity matrix using presence/absence data. The presence/absence data was based on the three sample times combined.

Results

A map showing zones A through H and entrances 1 through 12 of the cave was constructed (Figure 3). Each zone of BCC is comprised of various granite boulder configurations, light levels, moisture and size of cavity. The most common characteristics of the cavities are low roofs and small narrow passages – the narrowest passage being the exit from zone E, approximately 600 mm x 800 mm.

A histogram showing the total number of taxa recorded in each zone for the months of April, August and October combined is given in Figure 4. Altogether 15 taxa were observed and photographs of some of the invertebrates are given in Figures 5 and 6. Zones A (6 taxa), F and C (6 taxa each) and B (7 taxa) have similar numbers of taxa compared to zone E (4 taxa). Zone G and H have the same number (3). Zone D contained the lowest (2). Table 2 lists all taxa identified in each zone.

Zone	Type	Stream flow	Cave entrance	Use Level	Level
A	Twilight	Yes	Yes	High	Lower
B	Transition	Yes	Yes	High	Lower
C	Transition	Yes, floods	No	High	Upper/lower
D	Transition	Yes	Yes	High	Upper
E	Twilight	Yes	Yes	High	Lower
F	Dark	Yes, floods	No	High	Upper
G	Twilight	Yes	Yes	High	Lower
H	Twilight	Yes	Yes	High	Lower

Table 1. Characteristics of zones recognised in Britannia Creek Cave.

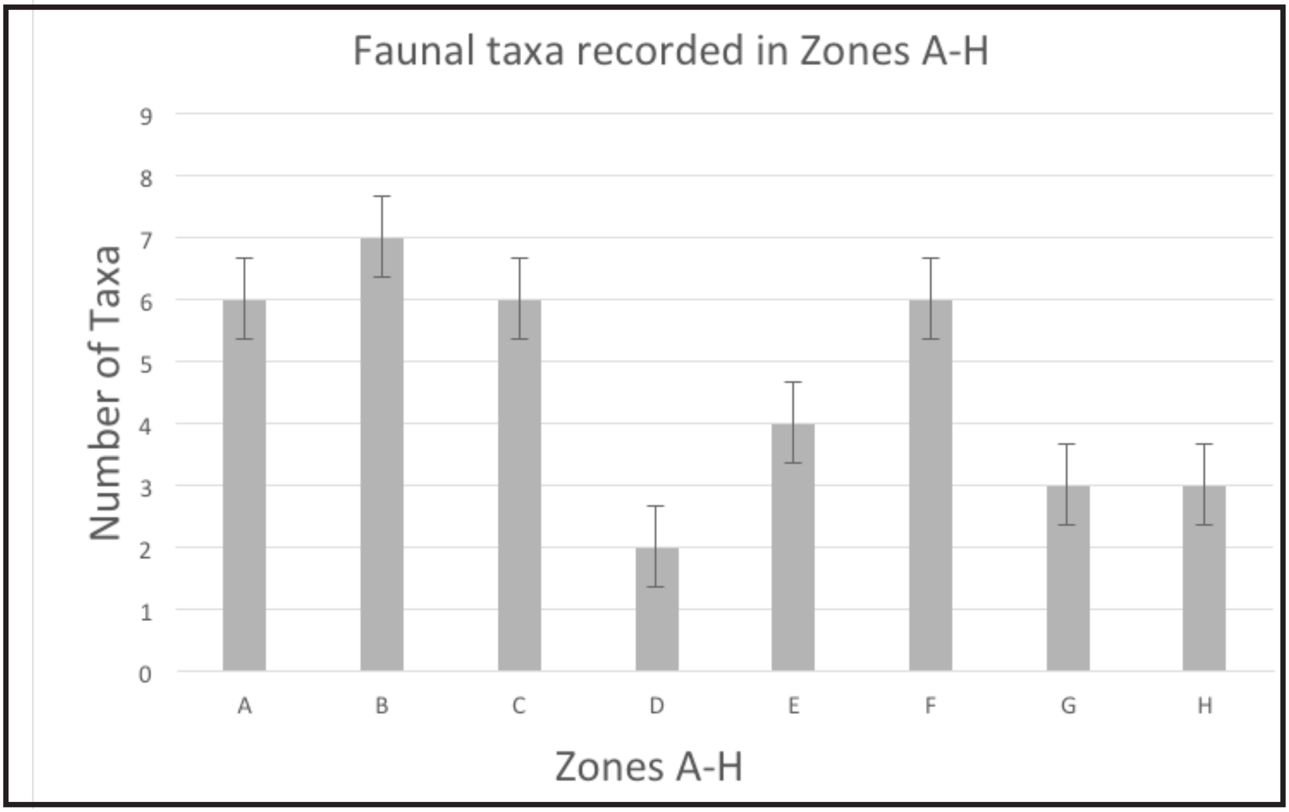

Figure 4. Number of taxa recorded in each zone of Britannia Creek Cave for the months of April, August and October combined. Total number of different taxa recorded was 15.

The MDS ordination (Figure 7) shows that zones E, B, D and F are less similar in community composition than are zones A, C and H overall. Zone pairs with similar community compositions include zones H and C, zones A and E, zones A, H, and C, and zones D and G.

Discussion

The numbers of invertebrate taxa recorded from the BCC is fewer than might be expected, even for a granite cave. Limestone caves in Australia have been recorded as having over 50 species of invertebrates (see Moulds and Bannik 2012). The reason for the low species richness is partly explained by the limited sampling method. The use of pitfall trapping, debris collection and extraction and bait traps were not permitted in the current study. In particular, this is likely to be the explanation for the lack of records of Collembola. By contrast, over 30 species of Collembola have been recorded from the (limestone) Jenolan Caves, but collections there were made over a longer period, in numerous caverns, on many occasions and using several methods (Greenslade 2002). The low taxon richness in the main passage can also be explained by the heavy use of this passage by recreational cavers. Nearly 50 visitors a day in five or six groups have been recorded (S. Iannello, unpublished data). Passages used by recreational groups are likely to be avoided by invertebrates. In addition, the numerous small cavities and narrow fissures between the granite blocks in the BCC are more likely to harbour invertebrates; it was not possible to observe these in the current survey.

Another feature likely to influence the poor taxa richness observed is the numerous entrances to the BCC. Karst caves typically have few, and often only one, entrance (together with some minute entrances). Where there are multiple entrances, they can be tens to hundreds of metres, to kilometres, apart from each other. In contrast, BCC has numerous entrances. Twelve penetrable entrances were identified; no more than 11 metres apart. Multiple entrances mean that the dark zone is limited and this is where most cave fauna typically live (Romero 2009).

Typical karst fauna in Australia and in New Zealand, the Rhaphidophoridae, Araneae and Leiodidae, are predominately located in the entrance zone, twilight zone and transition zone (Richards 1958, 1970; Eberhard 1999). They require access to prey from the surface and some taxa may exit the cave to forage (Richards 1958; Eberhard 1999). Most taxa recorded in this study were located in the twilight zone and transition zone.

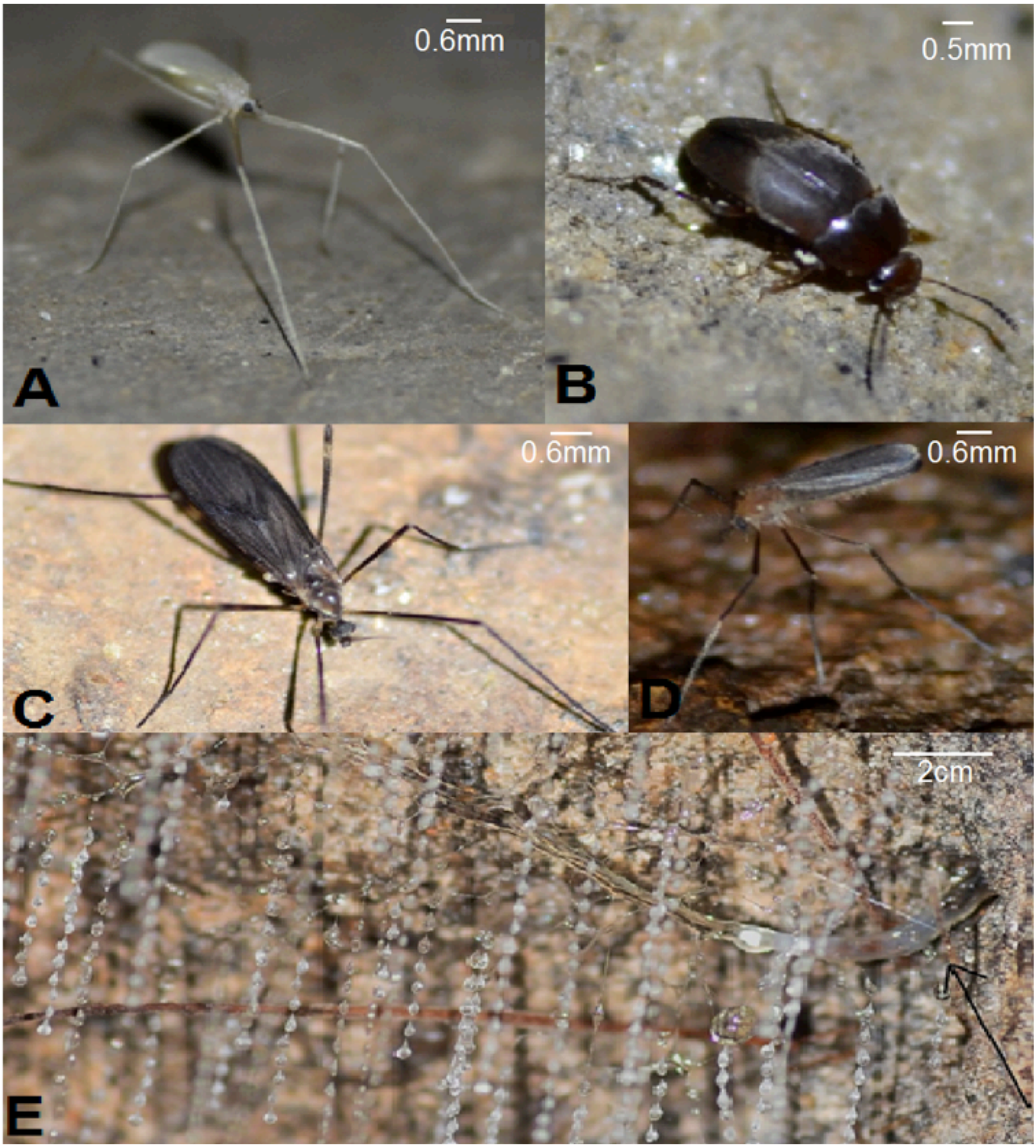

Figure 5. Photographs of live invertebrates taken in Britannia Creek Cave. A. Diptera gen. and sp. unknown; B. Coleoptera gen. and sp. unknown, Leiodidae (small carrion beetle or round fungus beetle); C. Keroplatidae, cf. Arachnacantha gippslandica *(glowworm); D. Diptera gen. and sp. unknown; E. Diptera,* Arachnacantha gippslandica *larva (glowworm). Photographs: Silvana Iannello.*

Accidentals are defined as those whose habitat is normally on the surface, rather than underground (Hamilton-Smith 1967). They may be washed in via the pathway of streams that flow through caves or may fall or roam in from the surface (Hamilton-Smith 1967). The accidental taxa observed in BCC were located in close proximity to the entrance zones and in the streams running through the cave. These included *Rhytidoponera metallica* (green-headed ant), and *Ornithorhynchus anatinus* (platypus). Britannia Creek Cave sits in a deep gully with the Britannia Creek running through it. The stream flows through the cave in several different directions before it exits via a small resurgence, so the likelihood of accidental fauna, such as the platypus, occurring in the cave stream is high.

One troglophile observed in Britannia Ck Cave is the glowworm *Arachnocampa gippslandensis*. This species is also known from the nearby

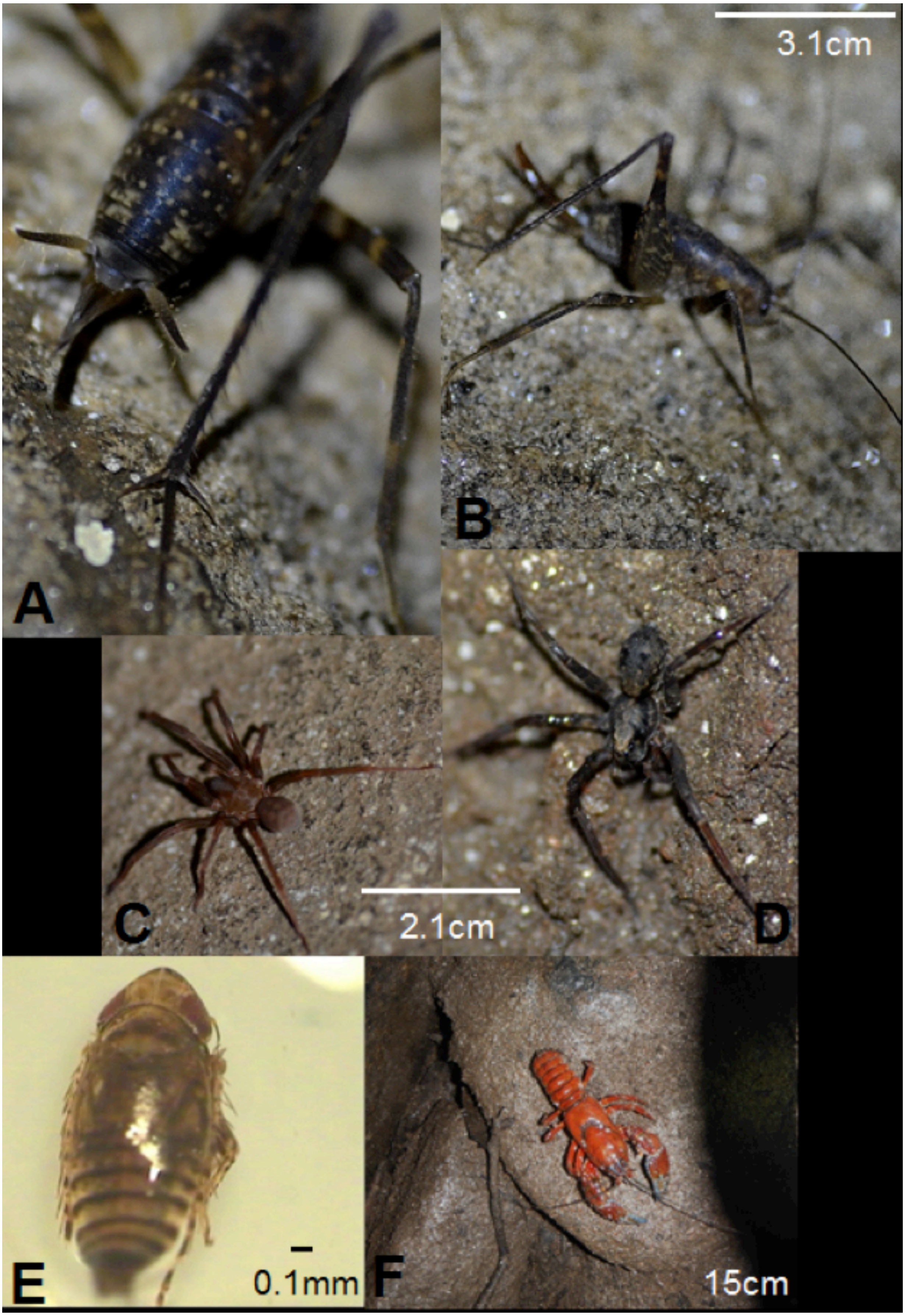

Figure 6. Photographs of live invertebrates taken in Britannia Creek Cave.
A. & B. Insecta, Orthoptera, Rhaphidophoridae, new species (cave cricket); C. & D. Araneae gen. and sp. unknown; E. Insecta, Hemiptera, Cicadellidae, Horouta *sp. (leaf hopper); F. Crustacea, Parastacidae,* Euastacus woiwuru *(freshwater crayfish). Photographs: Silvana Iannello.*

Higher taxon		Species	Family	Common name	Zones recorded
Arachnida	Araneae			spider	A to H
Arachnida	Acari			mite	B
Crustacea	Decapoda	*Euastacus woiwuru* Morgan	Parastacidae	freshwater crayfish	B
Crustacea	Isopoda			slater	E
Insecta	Diptera		Culicidae	mosquito	B
Insecta	Diptera	*Arachnocampa gippslandensis* Richards	Keroplatidae	glowworm	Clusters C, E & H A, B, G
Insecta	Diptera			fly	C
Insecta	Coleoptera		Leiodidae, (Cholevinae)	small carrion beetle or round fungus beetle	F
Insecta	Ephemeroptera			mayfly	C
Insecta	Hymenoptera	*Rhytidoponera metallica* F. Smith	Formicidae	green-headed ant	A
Insecta	Hemiptera	*Horouta* sp.	Cicadellidae	leaf hopper	F
Insecta	Neuroptera	*Kempynus millgrovensis*	Osmylidae	lacewing	A, C
Insecta	Orthoptera	**New Species**	Rhaphido-phoridae	cricket	A to H
Mollusca	Gastropoda			snail	A
Myriapoda	Diplopoda			millipede	F
Mammalia	Monotremata	*Ornithorhynchus anatinus*	Ornithorhyn-chidae	platypus	B
Mammalia	Microchiroptera			microbat	F

Table 2. List of taxa observed and photographed in the Britannia Creek Cave. The new undescribed species is indicated in bold.

Labertouche Cave and at Shiprock Falls (Baker and others 2008). The genus *Arachnocampa* is only found in Australia and New Zealand (Baker and others 2008). The larvae are bioluminescent and their main habitats are rainforest gullies and wet caves (Baker and others 2008; Baker 2010). *Arachnocampa gippslandensis*, being a cave dwelling species, has less pigmentation, produces longer snares and grows larger in comparison to its relatives that inhibit surface habitats (Baker and others 2008).

Three main *A. gippslandensis* population clusters were identified in BCC. The first one was located in zone C (Glowworm Passage) (Figure 2). Zone C (a transition zone) provides a direct visitor route to the other zones of the cave. This zone is a small narrow seven metre long passage with a low ceiling. The passage has multiple tree roots growing between the granite boulders and in the cave floor. The upper sides of the passage are where *A. gippslandensis* was located. The second population is in zone E (near an entrance). The cluster is situated in a small bell chamber at Mushroom Rock where visitor groups squeeze past to get to zone C. The third population is in zone H, also near an entrance. Here the glowworm population is located high in the roof above a shelf of granite boulders and is directly out of the main thoroughfare.

Relatively high abundance of troglophile cave cricket (Rhaphidophoridae) was observed in all zones surveyed. Rhaphidophoridae are known scavengers, but primarily prey upon arthropods (Richards 1958, 1970). A damaged and fallen specimen was compared with every described species in the Australian National Insect Collection and found to be a new, undescribed

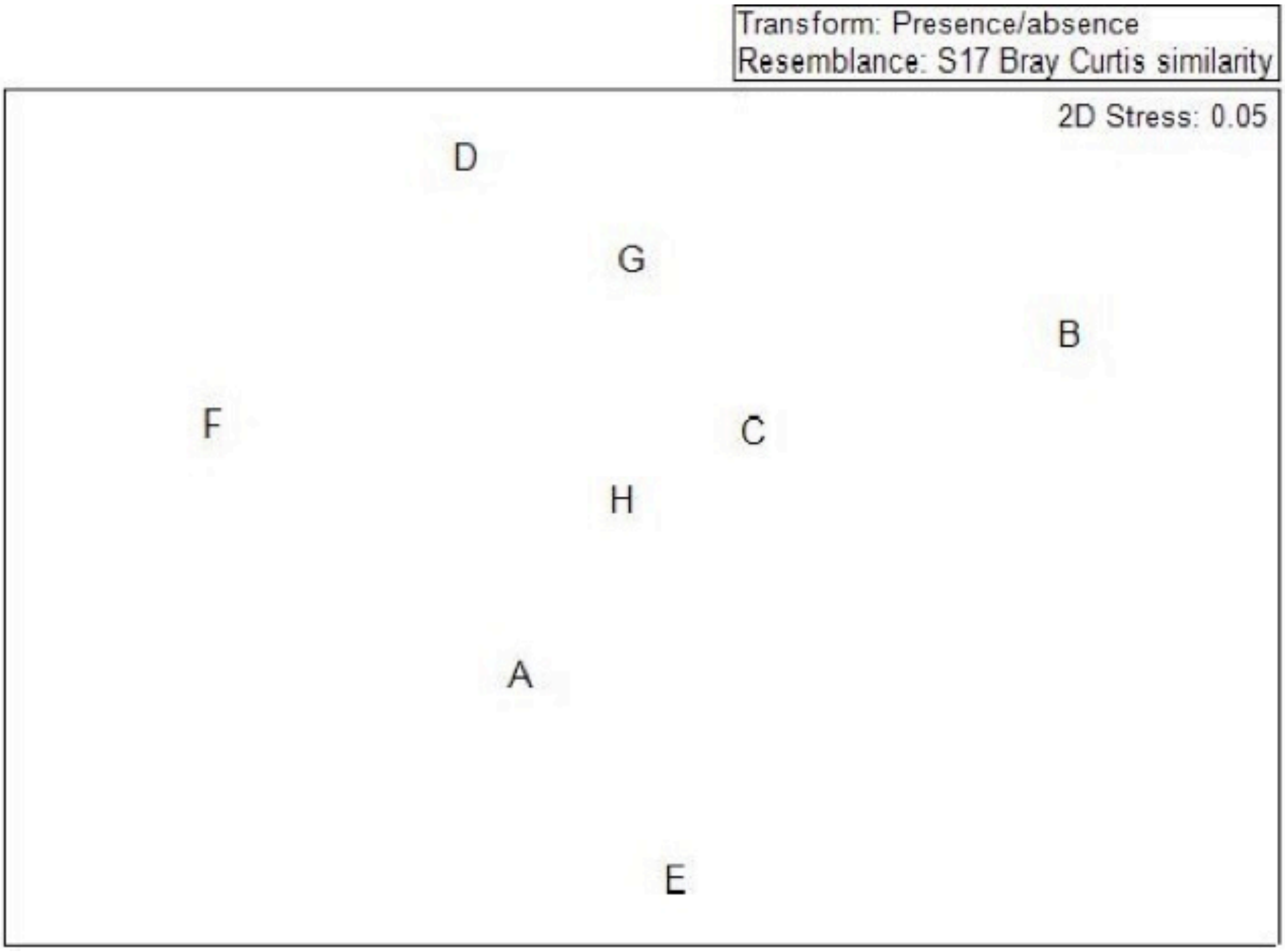

Figure 7. MDS analysis of the community composition of invertebrates recorded in zones A to H combined, at three sample times (April, August and October) in Britannia Creek Cave.

species (Youning Su pers. comm.). The only genus of Rhaphidophoridae, (Rhaphidophorinae, Macropathini) known in Victoria is *Cavernotettix* Richards comprising three species, the closest being *C. buchanensis* Richards, from Buchan Caves located approximately 250 km east of BCC. The species from BCC should be described, its genetic composition ascertained, analysed and compared with those of the other species in Victoria. This would enable construction of a phylogenetic tree so that relationships between species, their origins and the evolution and timing of cave faunas in the region could be established.

Tree roots are the exclusive habitat for some hemipterans, such as the nymphs of plant hoppers (Fulgoroidea), which feed on root sap (Eberhard 1999). One Hemiptera cicadellid, *Horouta* sp. was identified in the dark zone of zone F. Throughout the cave, multiple tree roots were observed located in zones A, C, D and G.

Another troglophile taxon identified was a cholevine beetle (Leiodidae) in zone F. Its common name is round fungus beetle (Peck 1981; Seago 2008). The tribe is a member of the largest subfamily in the Leiodidae, comprising 3000 species (Seago 2008). All cholevines are believed to be saprophagous on carrion, dung or other decaying organic matter (Seago 2008). The BCC species is related to several other species that are endemic to caves. Examples of other cave species are *Ptomaphaginus chapmani* (Peck 1981) from Sarawak, *Platycholeus horn* (two species) from North America (Seago 2008) and *Anophthalmus* and *Adelops* species from Mammoth Cave, Kentucky, USA. Other relatives are found in southern Europe (Packard 1876). The *leiodid* has not confirmed as a cave dwelling species. Zone F is a small and narrow passage similar to zone C. The beetle was only observed on granite boulders on the main route through to Bats Corner (see Figure 3). Decaying food dropped by visitors was found on the granite boulders in this zone that may explain the beetle's presence.

The trogloxenes identified at BCC were *Euastacus woiwuru* Morgan, (Freshwater Crayfish) and an unidentified Microchiroptera (bat). The fresh water Crayfish, *Euastacus woiwuru* was recorded twice in the same zone (zone B) and the microbat was recorded once in zone F. *Euastacus woiwuru* inhabits streams in central Victoria from the Dandenong Mountains east of Melbourne, north-east to Eildon and Dandongadale, east to Woods Point and Erica and south-east to the region of Thorpdale. Included in this range, as well as the Yarra, are tributaries of the Murray and Latrobe rivers and some small coastal streams. The species usually occurs at altitudes above 200 m a.s.l., occasionally at lower elevations. (Crandall 2001; Morgan 1986).

Management of recreational visitors and use

During the survey, zone C was a heavily used route by visiting tour groups. Much disturbance to the cave was observed such as soil compaction, engraving of initials on the walls, white spray painted arrows along the entire passage roof, glowworm lures disturbed, splinter breakages in the tree roots and polished tree roots, due to visitors holding onto the tree roots to support their weight while manoeuvring through the passage. It is clear that a lack of active management of the cave use poses a significant threat to the unique cave fauna. It should be noted that a natural flooding event changes use by visitor groups.

Management responsibility needs to be clearly identified for the cave system. Currently the Department Environment Land Water and Planning (DELWP) has responsibility for management of BCC. The appropriate body should, as a priority, develop an appropriate plan and implement it. The main aim of the plan should be to preserve and protect Britannia Creek Cave and its natural flora and fauna by protecting sensitive habitat, reducing human disturbance and providing a monitoring protocol, the results of which should inform management strategies, especially for the two cave-dependent species. The management plan should also aim to improve public safety and ensure the provision of information to visitors on the biological and physical features as well as the conservation values of the cave.

Conclusion

Britannia Creek Cave supports three main groups of cave fauna, found to be distributed across the different cave zones. Accidental species, such as *Rhytidoponera metallica,* were commonly found near cave entrances. The troglophiles, *Arachnocampa gippslandensis*, and the undescribed species of cave cricket were present throughout the cave system. Two trogloxene species, a microbat species (sub-Order Microchiroptera) and the freshwater crayfish *Euastacus woiwuru* were each observed in a single zone in the cave system, zone F (dark zone) and zone B (transition zone) respectively. The rarity of the cave fauna contributes to its high conservation value and there is a clear need to develop an appropriate management plan that includes management of recreational visits, to ensure conservation values are not further degraded.

Acknowledgements

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Unusual caves and karst-like features in sandstone and conglomerate in Thailand

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Abstract

Caves are common, significant and widespread in Thailand; over 5,000 are recorded. Probably no other country has a closer human association with caves, largely based on Buddhist occupation, traditions and culture. About 90% are in limestone, but about 400 sites in sandstone are known from northeast Thailand, most are of significance to local communities although of limited scientific or speleological significance. A number known to contain running water are discussed in the context of favourable bedding planes or inceptions and other characteristics. Numerous authors have demonstrated that limestone caves develop along a restricted number of bedding planes within a limestone series but less discussion has occurred about the initiation and development in sandstone and similar non-carbonate caves. Comparisons are drawn with similar caves, karst-like and ruiniform features in India, Czech Republic, Australia and elsewhere, a number of which have received little exploration and research attention until recently. Although advances have been made in the last 25 years, sandstone terrains still remain insufficiently studied.

Prefatory remarks

In 1993 Robert Wray addressed the 19th Biennial Conference of the Australian Speleological Federation in Launceston, Tasmania (Wray 1993). His paper was "Solutional Landforms on Silicates: largely ignored or largely unrecognised?" and commenced:

> *The long held belief that the formation of karst, both the small-scale features superimposed upon a landscape, and the large scale landscapes themselves, can only develop upon relatively water soluble carbonate rocks has only recently been seriously questioned. A terrain may be karstic* sensu stricto *despite a lack of subsurface drainage if solution of bedrock matrix or cement has been critical in the development of the landscape ... given the appropriate environmental conditions, almost any rock can be modelled to karst forms ... This notion challenges the classic view of karst formation being unconditionally restricted to 'soluble' rocks.*

In the years following, Robert earned his PhD from the University of Wollongong with a thesis entitled "Solutional landforms in quartz sandstones of the Sydney Basin" (Wray 1995). He conducted international research and reviews, culminating in updated global reviews of solutional weathering processes and forms in quartz sandstones and quartzites (Wray 1997a; Wray & Sauro 2017). As Wray observed:

> *... limestone and similar highly soluble rocks were long believed the sole host for large karst drainage systems ... Quartzose caves and dolines are similar in size, though, to the vast majority of smaller limestone caves and dolines, and are thus significant, and often very impressive, sandstone karst features.*

Northern Australia possesses vast areas of quartz sandstones, some of which have unusual sandstone cavern systems. Along with their other co-authors, Ken Grimes and Robert Wray prepared an excellent overview of karst-like features in this region (Grimes and others 2011; Jennings 1979) which will be discussed in the context of some in Thailand. Regrettably, Ken Grimes and Robert Wray both died recently (White 2016; Houshold 2017). Ken had a 40-year professional geological interest in pseudokarst, Robert had sandstone landforms as his primary research interests, and in 1997 they contributed neighbouring papers in *Cave and Karst Science* (Wray 1997b; Grimes 1997). Our small contribution in this volume recognises the life of two of Australia's most significant karst scientists.

Introduction

Thailand lies at the eastern edge of one of the world's major structural zones, marking a continental plate boundary where subduction of the Indian Oceanic subplate has occurred at the western edge of the Southeast Asian continental subplate. The geology may thus be regarded as resulting from a series of adjustments to compressive forces from the west in Myanmar acting upon the resistant, stable block (the Indochina plate) immediately to the east in Thailand, Laos, Vietnam and Cambodia. Limestone karst occurs widely along the entire length of western Thailand from the Shan State border with Myanmar to Malaysia, and in north central Thailand immediately east of the Chao Phraya Basin, closely abutting immediately west of the boundary of the Khorat Plateau. The limestones are characterised by Ordovician, Permian, Jurassic and Cretaceous sequences.

Northeastern Thailand encompasses about 400 km by 400 km, mostly 100-500 m in altitude but rising to over 1,600 m, comprising primarily the Khorat Plateau, encircling a geologically stable region made up predominantly of fairly flat-lying terrestrial and marine sedimentary rocks of Mesozoic Age. Some Tertiary and Quaternary volcanic rocks occur along the southern boundaries of the Khorat Plateau. Known as 'Isaan', the Khorat Plateau region is generally more arid and less developed than most of Thailand, and is often covered with low scrub or brush. It is characterised by widespread sandstones, conglomerates, siltstones and lime conglomerates of the Lower Cretaceous to Upper Jurassic Khorat Group.

Caves are common, significant and widespread in Thailand; probably no other country in the world has a closer human association with caves (Dunkley 1995; Vogt 2013). The origins of the Buddhist connection with such speleologically and culturally significant features were described by Dunkley (1995, pp. 19-22) and Munier (1998), while a more recent travel compendium (Vogt 2013) described and photographed their attraction to westerners. Caves associated with the spread of Buddhism in Thailand have been used for at least 1,500 years, spreading from the south, and at least 500, and probably as many as a thousand, such spaces have continuing direct significance and contemporary meaning to the community, ranging from whole underground temples to individual representations of the Buddha in remote passages, and perhaps down to a few candles at a shrine (Figs. 1, 2).

Fig. 1. Rock shelters traditionally sheltered Buddhist monks, who could not ask for accommodation in villages, which donate food. They thereby discovered many caves and lived in some.

Fig. 2. Most "forest monks" used only bare platforms for accommodation and first located many caves. Many still use caves for meditation.

Many are quite small, but most are of considerable local cultural, religious and historical significance, especially to Buddhism, and are treated as focal points for quite large community gatherings, religious observances and spiritual relief, as quiet places of meditation for monks, and in many cases actual living quarters. To that extent they are called caves ('tham') by the community, using the term as a convenient toponymic reference, although the word is sometimes used loosely in the case of sandstone caves and shelters (Figs. 3, 4).

Fig. 3. Tham Pha Mong (Mukdahan) is a typical roofed-over cave used by a small group of 'forest monks'. Several kilometres from the nearest village, this one has been greatly improved by community donations.

The first author of the present paper was consulted by Robert Wray in 1996 in a minor capacity, regarding certain unusual karst-like features in central Thailand, and all three authors have conducted extensive continuing exploration, documentation and field work in the caves and sandstone country of northeast Thailand for over 20 years. Over 400 sites are known from northeastern Thailand, mostly in sandstone and related formations, and not yet well documented. In eastern Thailand particularly are a significant

Fig.4. The most elaborate cave temples like Tham Sumontha Phaowana (Udon Thani) include in this case a large visitor car park and a helicopter pad.

of conglomerate, lime conglomerate and conglomeratic sandstone, with corresponding hydrologic systems grading from wholly or partly karstic to nonkarstic.

The bulk removal of silica and lime – the 'flushing' rate – is critically dependent not only on solubility and kinetics, but also on the rate at which water moves through the rock. The purpose of this paper is to draw attention to several such active sites in Thailand.

number of the so-called 'forest monks' living in or attached to caves, sometimes alone. Ellis (2017a) has catalogued over 5,000 sites in the country, releasing well-illustrated catalogues with numerous maps on a provincial basis, and is a highly recommended source of documentation, most recently Ellis (2017b) dealing with the speleology of Eastern Thailand.

Sandstone caves

Caves in sandstone and conglomerate are scattered widely in many small areas across the world, albeit in smaller numbers compared to limestone and similar more soluble rocks. Very few sandstone caves have been reported from western Europe, for example, though somewhat more from the sandstone landscapes of Poland, the Czech Republic, Turkey (Değirmenci and others 1994) and further afield in South Africa and Venezuela. Northern Australia possesses vast areas of quartz sandstones, some of which have unusual sandstone cavern systems (Grimes and others 2011, Jennings 1979). Gulden (2017) maintains an international catalogue of the longest and deepest caves in sandstone, quartzite and conglomerate, the most extensive in sandstone and quartzite measuring 18 km, the longest in conglomerate being even longer, 58 km.

Many geologic formations are mixtures of beds or packages of beds of clastic and soluble rocks, grading in the case of eastern Thailand from mostly sandstone sequences to interbeds, often quite thin,

Active stream caves and karst-like features

Tham Din Phieng, Nong Khai Province

Wat Tham Din Phieng (also called Wat Tham Si Mongkhon) (NK0007, 17°57'39.13"N, 102°18'07.92"E) is located in Sangkhom District, Nong Khai Province, Northeast Thailand, near the village of Ban Dong Tong (*wat* = temple, *tham* = cave) (Dunkley 2011). Visited in 1938 by a travelling forest monk Luangphu Hom, it was extended since 1960 by Luang Song who oversaw building of a hall. It is listed as NK0007 in the catalogue of M. Ellis who first made a speleological visit with T. Bolger in 2009. A modest donation to the wat is expected of visitors, and a small refreshment shop has recently appeared. Geological maps suggest the cave is in sandstone quartzite probably of the Early Cretaceous Sao Khua Formation of the Khorat Group, consisting predominantly of sandstone with some siltstone, and lime conglomerate and possibly punching through to the more resistant Phu Phan Formation encountered in the cave. Of Jurassic and Cretaceous age, the Khorat Group outcrops widely throughout Northeast Thailand, almost encircling the Khorat Plateau on the south and west, and along much of the 500 km length of the Phu Phan Range in the north.

The cave is only 4 km downstream from a prominent low escarpment to the west separating the Khorat Group, which dips about 15° to the east, closely equivalent to the drainage from the cave to a rising 200 m away. The cave is advertised along nearby roads, attracts a modest flow of regional visitors, is electrically lit and has featured on Bangkok television programs despite its relative isolation (Figs. 5, 6). The site is Buddhist community property, and as with numerous sandstone caves in the region, the cave and associated sacred rocks and some karst-like morphologies (sometimes artificial) form an integral part of Buddhist traditions as well as providing a focus for religious ceremonies.

Fig. 5. Entrance adjacent to wat, Tham Din Phieng showing modern additions.

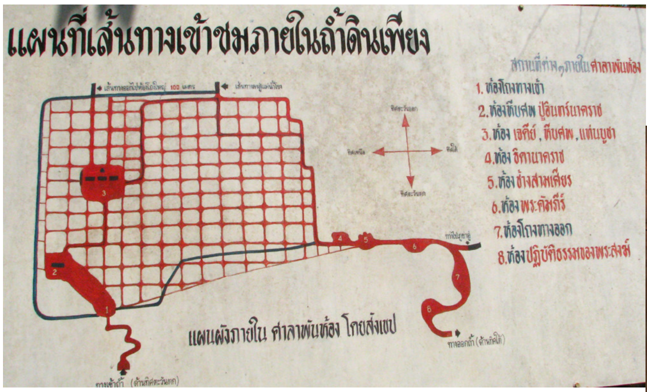

Fig. 6. Diagrammatic sketch outside entrance, Tham Din Phieng.

Above the entrance, for example, a gold-painted *naga* (sacred snake) appeared three or four years ago as tourist income increased, sited to protect the cave (the *naga* is a mythical creature, usually resembling a hooded cobra, believed to guard the border between the human world and the netherworld, often living underground, and frequently depicted in Thai folklore as mythical serpent-like creatures, and at wats where they bring rain and good crops) (Fig. 7). In NE Thailand, particularly, it is believed by locals to live in the Mekong River or estuaries. The cement steps up to and into numerous caves are traditionally flanked by a guarding *naga*. There are a few small Buddhas in the first chamber of Tham Din Phieng and more in a monk's retreat further inside.

Fig. 7. Monk at entrance to Tham Din Phieng.

Cave Description

A small stream sinks in its bed upstream of a shallow 4 m deep doline, cemented at the base for visitors. Within 20 m of the cave entrances a few shallow sandstone collapse features were examined, evidencing on-going subsurface excavation. Steps then lead down about 4 m from the small entrance where, after a narrow triangular section with knee deep water, the cave opens into a small chamber containing a few small images of Buddha. Adjacent to this chamber several rock slabs have detached from nearby walls, suggesting ongoing erosion (Figs. 8, 9). To the east and south an extensive network of maze passages is then encountered, encompassing an area about 60 x 40 m and totalling over 500 m of passages. The passages develop between two harder beds in a calcareous coarse bed about 1.5-2 m thick, liberally furnished with coarse grained, unsorted conglomerate pebbles up to 2-3 cm in diameter (Fig. 10). Smoothly planed maze passages are typically 1-2 m high and usually narrower, some partially blocked by back-flooding and breakdown. There is clear evidence of wet

Fig. 8. Characteristic network maze passages, Tham Din Phieng (Terry Bolger).

Fig. 9. Side passages at 1-2 m intervals in maze section, Tham Din Phieng.

Fig. 10. Typical lime conglomerate wall, Tham Din Phieng.

season flooding throughout and in profile the maze passages appear smoothly epiphreatic. Although their combined surface catchment is only 2-3 sq.km., two small streams flow through the cave, joining in the maze section to a narrow, wet and increasingly low crawl. The conditions support Palmer (1975) who concluded that concentrated, highly variable floodwater recharge, especially through sinking streams, tends to promote maze caves. Such caves require simultaneous enlargement of many competing paths, achieved by water with either a steep hydraulic gradient and/or short flow paths from where solutionally active water first encounters soluble rock; specific patterns being controlled by the mode of groundwater recharge and by local structural conditions. Periodic floodwaters delivered by allogenic recharge can pond in such caves under pressure, injecting water into surrounding openings and enlarging them all simultaneously (Fig. 11).

The western passage is low and may follow a dip or strike slope of about 2-3° on top of the harder underlying bed, where it displays small-scale, presumably calcitic gours (Fig. 12). The junction of the two streams suggests possible ponding by the still-aggressive water, thereby promoting mixture corrosion, and their junction could itself promote additional solution. Further, a slight change in passage orientation close to the junction of the two streams suggests minor faulting, and possibly has directed minor seepage and mixture corrosion.

Four or five risings are recorded in the valley below a rubber plantation, up to 20 m lower than the entrances. Depending on outflow, one is just large enough to enter for a few metres; another has a short shaft to running water, and two more are seasonal risings in tributaries further upstream to the south at about the elevation of the cave entrance. These may represent successive rising wet-season levels of water temporarily impounded within the cave.

Numerous large spiders (possibly *Sinopoda* sp. (Sparassidae) Peter Jäger, pers. com.) and other biota have been encountered in the cave (Figs. 13, 14). At the time of a visit in 2012 at the passage leading east of the maze, just past the junction of the streams, some cave-adapted bioluminescent creatures on silk or similar lines were encountered. A poor photograph was obtained of the site showing glow along each line. The location in a 1 m high wet passage was certainly subject to wet-season

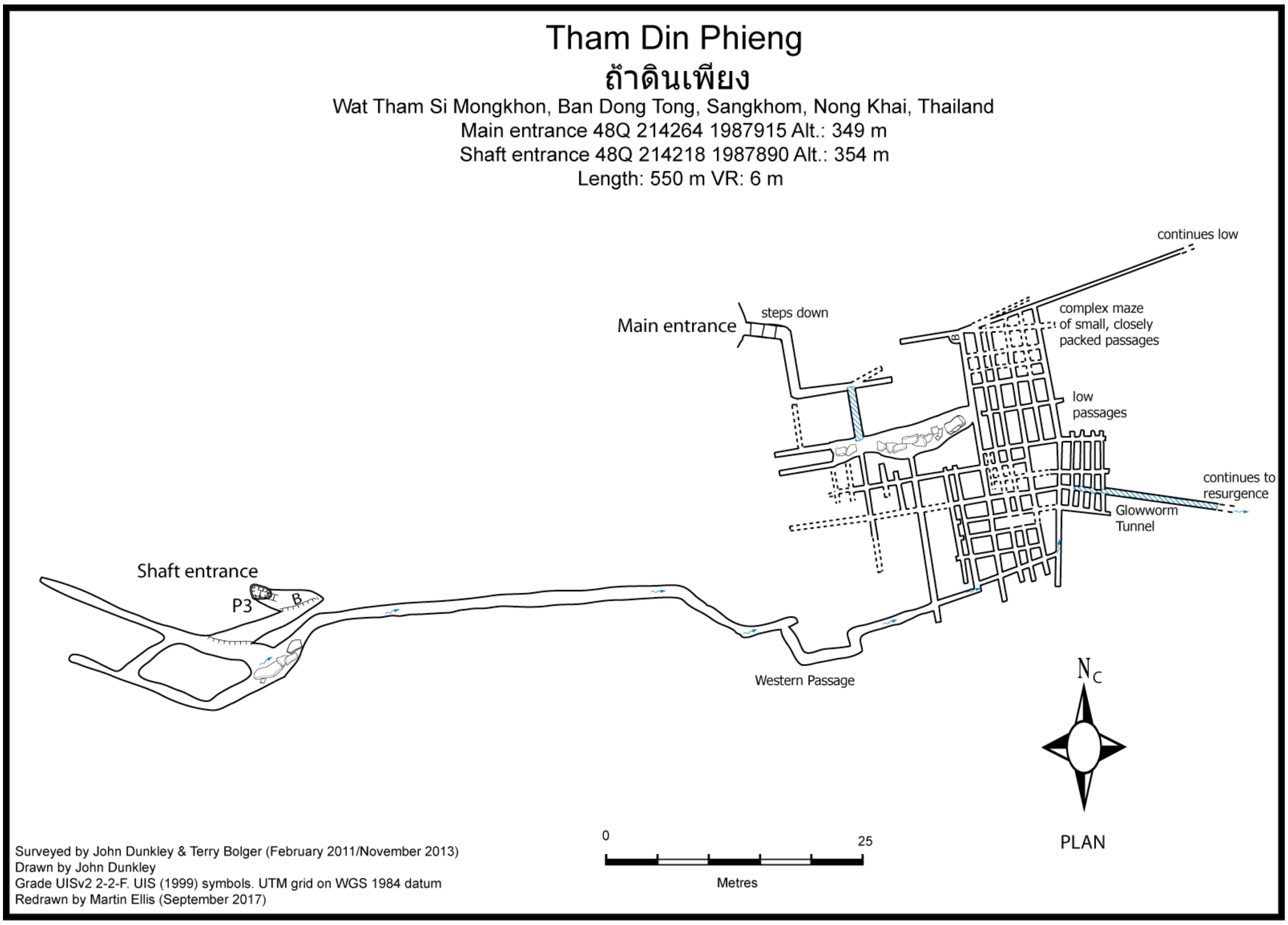

Fig. 11. Plan of Tham Din Phieng (John Dunkley, Martin Ellis).

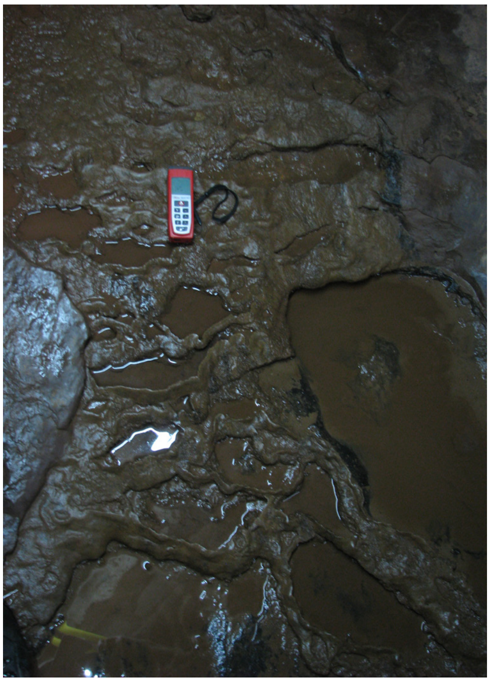

Fig. 12. Small calcitic gours on sandstone passage floor, Western Passage, Tham Din Phieng.

Fig. 13. Small spider colony Tham Din Phieng.

flooding. David Merritt (School of Biological Sciences, University of Queensland, pers. comm.) thinks these may be species of Keroplatinae, perhaps *Chetoneura*, recorded as a troglobiont with vertical lines but is not bioluminescent and is found in many parts of Asia. Unfortunately they were not encountered on a further visit, so the question of bioluminescence remains; because of the electric light and general disturbance from visitors they may have retreated into more remote passages (Fig. 15) The familiar glowworm of Australia and New Zealand *(Arachnocampa)* is the only recorded species exhibiting all three of cave adaptation, hanging lines to trap prey, and bioluminescence.

At the far end a dark, barred private monk's retreat can be seen (very typical of Thai caves),

*Fig. 14. Large spider (*Sinopoda *sp.?), Tham Din Phieng (Terry Bolger).*

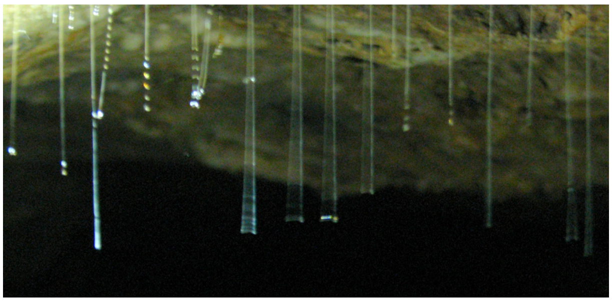

Fig. 15. Bioluminescent glowworms (?) above stream, Tham Din Phieng.

near which a collapse chamber leads upwards to an exit ladder. Within 20 m of the cave entrances a few shallow collapse features were examined, evidencing on-going subsurface excavation.

Crevice caves and karst of Phu Hin Rong Kla National Park, Phitsanulok Province

Phu Hin Rong Kla National Park (307 sq.km) 17°00'25.73"N, 100°59'20.73"E is a prominent plateau mainly in Nakhon Thai District, Phitsanulok Province of central Thailand, rising abruptly over 1,000 m from surrounding farmland and extending eastwards into Loei and Phetchabun provinces, surrounded on the east and west by steep escarpments. Geologically the Khorat Group dominates with a layer of Phu Phan Formation on top in places. This layer gradually slopes down to the north where the Khok Kruat Formation overlies it. Parts of the plateau have thin laterite soils but in the area discussed much is essentially bare.

Crevice caves and karst are narrow features of natural origin, mostly developed on or near cliffs or steep slopes, developed in quartzitic sandstone in the case of Phu Hin Rong Kla, but local terminologies are common in other rocks (see, for example, Halliday (2004) who identified 26 English language synonyms in the literature, describing varying genetic processes, while not including giant grikes or foreign terms such as kluftkarren).

The crevice karst occurs at a high point on the plateau, at an elevation of 1,100-1,250 m, characterised by long, narrow rectilinear widened cracks or networks of natural origin, possibly produced by stresses in the earth's crust, and running parallel to the western escarpment on a slope about 3-5° to the northwest. Dissolution is not the major agent in forming such caves, but can help enlarge crevices originally formed by mechanical processes from a combination of processes (Figs. 16, 17). The guiding fractures are typically steeply inclined to vertical with irregular floors formed of fallen rocks, soil and vegetal debris. The crevices are sub-parallel, undercut and well vegetated, trending SSE to NNW down a slope of 3-5° and

Fig. 16. One of many crevice caves, Lan Hin Taek.

Fig. 17. Deep crevice cave about 1m wide, 15+m deep, compare with sketch (Fig. 19).

totalling a few kilometres (Fig. 18). Typically separated by closely spaced joints 10-12 m apart, each rift is from 5-15 m deep - some reaching 25-30 m vertically - with most usually less than a metre wide, widening downwards before narrowing again, and leading drainage down dip to the sharp edge of the plateau. The features have not been well known until recently and are named Lan Hin Taek and Lan Hin Pum. During communist insurrections in the 1970s the caves were used by insurgents for shelter against aerial bombardment, and interpretation trails can be visited, including to caves.

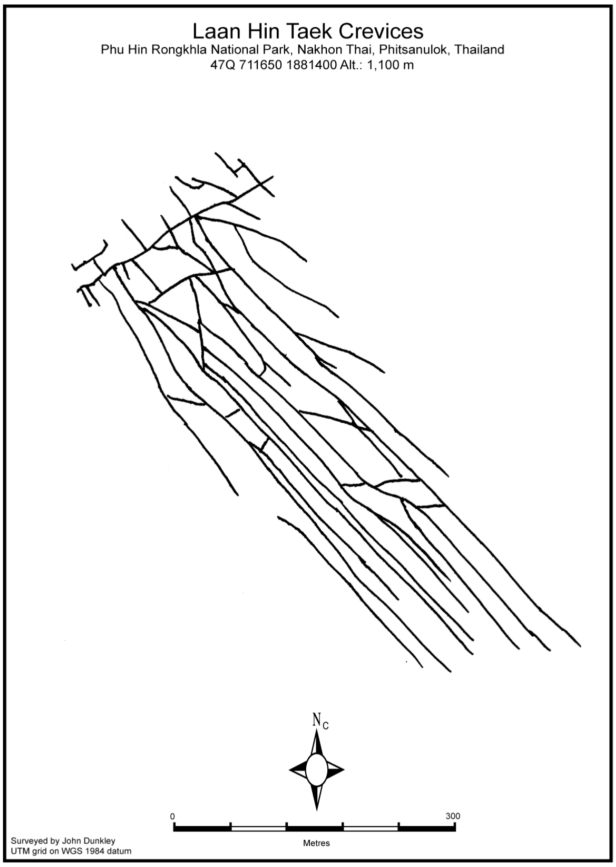

Fig. 18. Sketch of Lan Hin Taek crevices (John Dunkley, Martin Ellis).

A form of giant grikes, they were first described professionally by Odell (1985), who implied that the features were in limestone and used the Slavic term ‘bogaz’. J. Dunkley visited in 1991 and recognised the host rock as quartzitic sandstone, as did Doerr (2000). Embedded pebbles are sized up to 4 cm, well rounded and of chert and quartz. The formation was a result of deposition from a braided stream, but cross-bedding is hard to discern.

Two main exposures of the feature are readily accessible to visitors. Lan Hin Taek has more developed crevices physically, covering an area of about 700 m x 200 m wide, the total length of accessible rifts possibly totalling several kilometres. Lan Hin Pum is in two sections separated by low surface vegetation, each approximately 200 x 200 m. Several small caves occur within the crevices but few have been visited, the presence of some being inferred or observed from above. The crevices probably act as refugia for a variety of sheltered vegetation and biological communities. During the wet season water can be heard traversing the crevices (Figs. 19, 20).

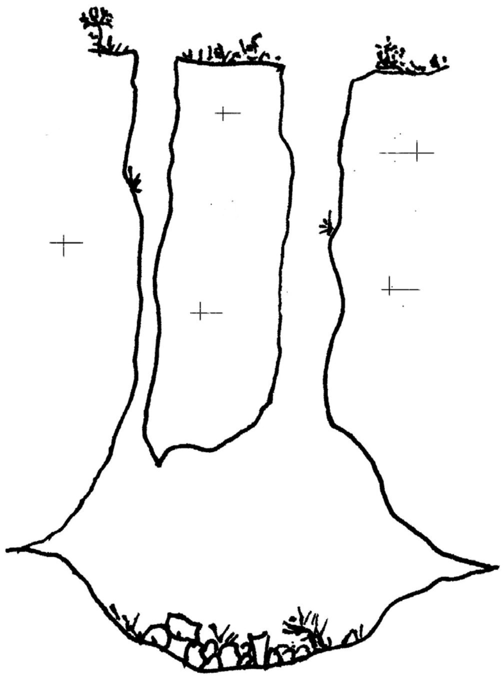

Fig. 19. Sketch of typical crevice cave, Lan Hin Taek (after Odell) (Jeanette Dunkley).

Fig. 20. Vegetation at base of crevice, Lan Hin Taek.

There are suggestions that piping may be a factor in developing this form of karst; certainly cross-sections suggest they widen at depth, but this seems very unlikely. Others have suggested pressure relief because of its location adjacent to a steep escarpment. There is little evidence of this in the field but it may be a factor in the development of Air Raid Shelter No. 1 Cave (below). Odell (1985) supported the early development of very thin solutional lineaments at depth, followed by gravitational or solutional removal of material downwards. It seems much more likely that the crevices are simply and primarily karst-like features enlarged *in situ* by on-going mechanical and solutional activity, as with giant grikes or kluftkarren, and capable of removing debris (Fig. 21). Morphologically similar but more rugged surface karst in dolostone occurs in Judbarra/ Gregory National Park and elsewhere in northern Australia where numerous caves have in time degraded into an assemblage of karst: giant grikes, ruiniform and karst corridors (Grimes 2012).

Fig. 21. "Bollards", Lan Hin Pum.

Meandering surface channels (runnels) similar to solution pans (kamenitsa) in limestone occur, along with other karren features similar to rillenkarren. Rundkarren, commonly 50-500 mm deep and wide and separated by rounded ridges are common. Such features are usually accepted as being created below superficial soil material or plants, which may explain its occurrence in some adjacent thinly vegetated areas such as between Lan Hin Pum and Lan Hin Taek. Similar features have been noted by J. Dunkley in several part of eastern Thailand, along with polygonal crack patterns near the base of such rocks. Doerr (2000) described surface features he termed 'bollard-like rocks', pedestal-shaped rocks up to 0.8 m high, but it is difficult to distinguish these from forms of rundkarren (Figs. 22, 23). Nearby a field of pentagonal and hexagonal cracking is exposed, probably not of solutional origin, more likely of tensile stress cracking (Fig. 24).

Air Raid Shelter Cave No. 1 (PS0038, 16°59'41.31"N, 101°00'48.92"E) (so named after its occupation by communist insurgents at times of aerial bombardment in the 1970s) is similar and at shallow depth, but more network-like in plan with a number of narrow side passages from a pathway winding 200 m through the bottom of the cave system (Fig. 25). Here there is some evidence of gravitational sliding of near-surface rock masses on sloping mountain sides, as an intermediate stage of breakup of the competent rock masses seen in the main karren field nearby (Figs. 26, 27).

Air Raid Shelter Cave No. 2 (PS0039) has a few low passages totalling 60 m, while a further shelter cave No. 3 (PS0064) is only 8 m long, and other caves are known.

Conglomerate cave, Tham Maa / Tham Yang, Nan Province

Tham Maa (NA0147, 19° 15'20.36"N, 101°06'11.33"E) is located in Doi Phu Kha National Park, Nan Province, in the Luang Prabang Range close to the border of Laos. Access is from the village of Ban Nam Phutthana and although it had been developed for tourism with the construction of a gate and steel stairs at the entrance, the cave is not maintained or run as a show cave.

The Shepton Mallet Caving Club has documented over 40 caves in the area between 2009 and 2016 (Ellis 2016), mostly at higher elevations ranging to 1,406 m. Further north near Tham Pha Phueng there are two distinct bands of limestone dipping west at about 40-45°, between which is a band of sandstone, possibly due to a thrust fault. All the caves are in limestone except Tham Maa / Tham Yang, the only one in conglomerate or similar.

Fig. 22. Lan Hin Pum - bollards or runnels?

Fig. 23. Runnels, Lan Hin Taek, Phu Hin Rong Kla.

Fig. 24. Polygonal cracks in sandstone, Lan Hin Pum (probably not a karst feature).

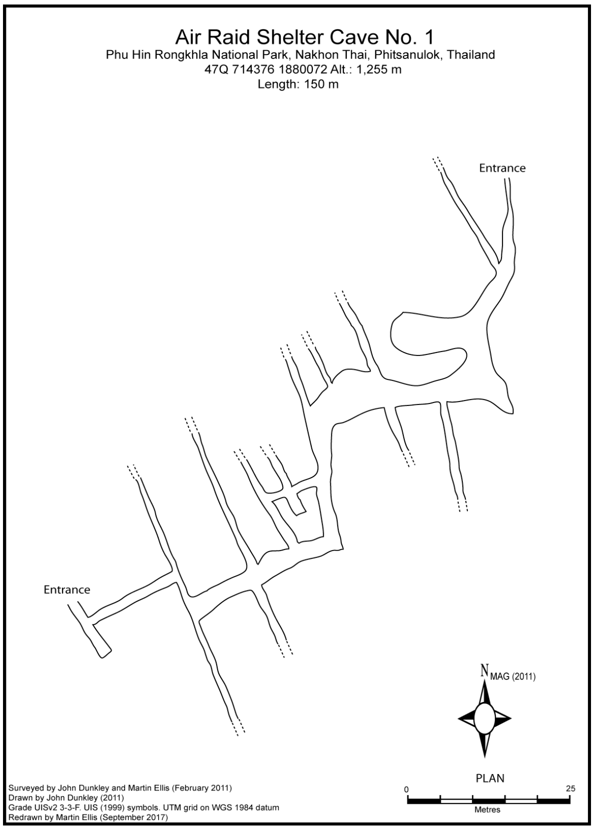

Fig. 25 Plan, Air Raid Shelter Cave No. 1 (John Dunkley & Martin Ellis).

Fig. 26. Air Raid Shelter Cave No. 1, Phu Hin Rong Kla.

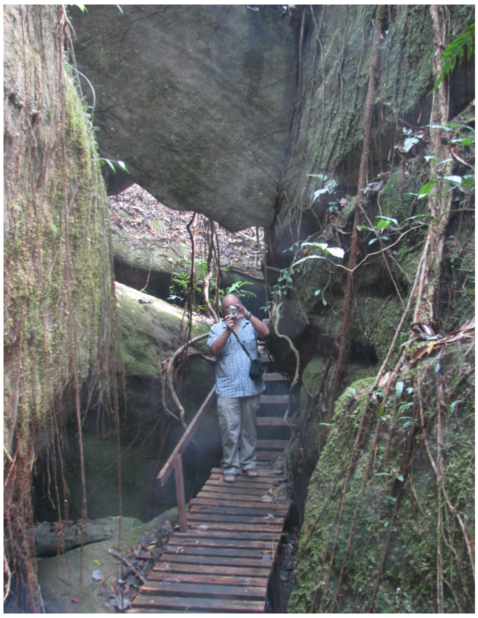

Fig. 27. Air Raid Shelter Cave No. 1, Phu Hin Rong Kla.

This is the only cave in the region formed in conglomerate and it appears to follow the strike, with the bedding dipping 45° to the north, passing beneath a low ridge between the two entrances. The downstream entrance (Tham Yang) caries a small seasonal stream into a small doline about 20 m across. The larger entrance (Tham Maa) is a collapse doline, probably intersected by the valley at some point. A gate leads to a substantial steel staircase descending 25 m, opening to a large 20 m x 20 m chamber. Climbing down fixed ladders and boulders allows access to a medium-sized active stream appearing from the northeast. An inlet floored with gours can then be followed northwards for 50 m to a choke. Upstream to the east there is a drop into a large passage (20 m high x 8 m wide) leading to a boulder fall after 40 m. The stream turns right and can be followed through boulders for 15 m into a small passage (4 m x 3 m) with easy walking on a gravel and cobble floor for 60 m to a hands and knees crawl in water. Once past this crawl the passage can be followed for a total of 300 m to end in a boulder choke. The two leads in the northern series were not fully explored; it could be that these take water sinking in the older limestone but topographically higher to the north, as photos show rounded (predominantly limestone) clasts in the reddish-brown matrix (Fig. 28).

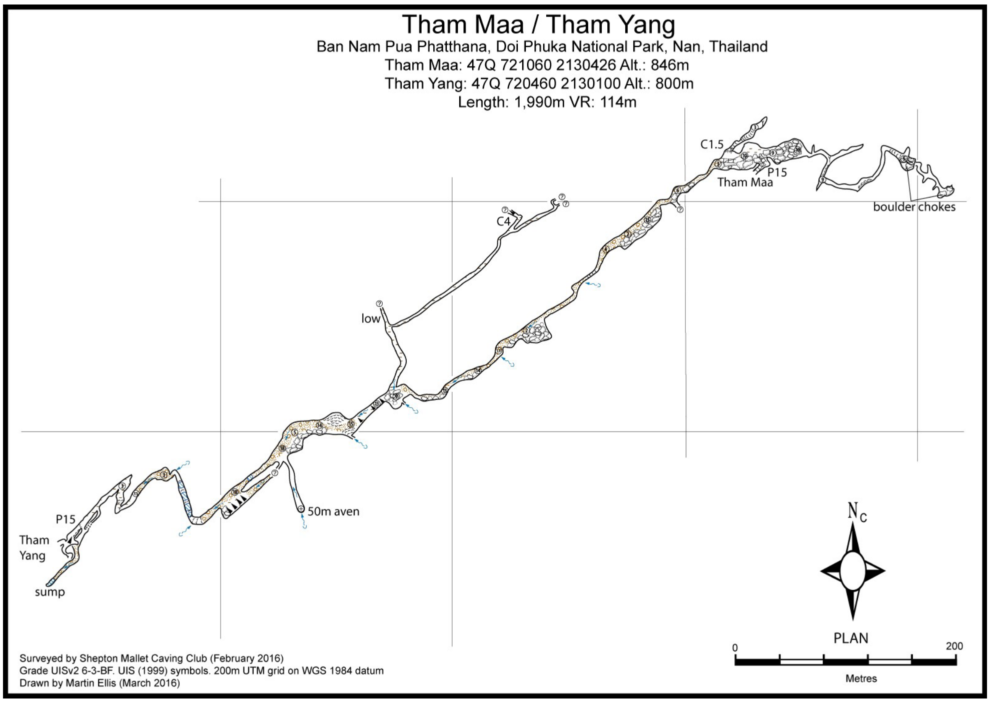

Fig. 28. Plan of Tham Maa / Tham Yang, Nan Province (Martin Ellis).

Heading downstream from the entrance chamber along the streamway requires occasional crawling, but typically follows a high rift varying from 3 to 18 m, probably controlled by the dip of the beds; as in some places the passage clearly slopes upwards to the left, facing in a downstream direction. After 350 m a chamber is reached where a 50 m high rift enters from the north. This was explored for over 200 m, but not pushed to a conclusion. Another high-level passage was surveyed over mud-coated boulders, ending after 150 m. At least six other very low or narrow tributaries feed water to the main streamway which continues through a couple of chambers to a second entrance from Tham Yang by a 15 m pitch from a shallow depression. The Tham Yang entrance in a shallow depression is 2 m by 4 m, dropping through boulders to a dry, 4.5 m wide by 4.5 m high square stream passage which can be followed 20 m down dip on a 25° slope to a 4 m climb and a further 4 m of passage which ends at the lip of a 20 m pitch into the lower streamway from Tham Maa, just upstream from a sump. The stream sumps about 60 m past the Tham Yang pitch and may be either perched or the resurgence hidden in vegetation near the river. In some areas there are 'hanging boulders', as if they were part of the bedding that had been undermined, in places bridging the passage leaving an abandoned upper level and lower active stream level. Photographs emphasise mechanical erosion of the cave walls and show rounded clasts in a reddish-brown matrix (predominantly limestone), suggesting that the matrix is less calcareous than the limestone clasts and that the source of the clasts was clearly a limestone area. There was evidence of secondary mineralisation and stress fractures cutting through some of the clasts and matrix (Andy Goddard pers. comm.) (Fig. 29).

The cave is probably formed in either the Early Cretaceous Phra Wihan or Sao Khua Formation of the Khorat Group, all of which Group is younger and mostly lower topographically than the Permian limestone which is considerably folded and faulted in contact with the younger sequences. Based on surveying by Shepton Mallet Caving Club, the main cave appears to follow a gentle slope across the strike of about 3%, similar to that observed in crevice karst of Phu Hin Rong Kla , and in Tham Seri Thai and Tham Si La At (see below).

Fig. 29. Mechanical erosion of conglomerate cave walls, Tham Maa (Andy Goddard).

Other notable pseudokarst areas with active streams

About 400 minor caves are widespread in the Khorat Series sandstone (Ellis 2017b). Many are quite extensive but mostly open to daylight, associated more with undercutting of clay and siltstone beds, leaving space for the construction of temples, meeting or sleeping quarters. A significant number have had roofs constructed over narrow passages between sandstone pillars, or extended outwards, and are of limited significance to scientists or speleologists, though still of considerable local cultural importance. As described above, as many as a thousand such 'caves' occur in both limestone and sandstone in Thailand. Tham Din Phieng is one of six or seven recorded in the sandstone country of Northeast Thailand as containing a stream that is at least seasonally active.

(Wat) Tham Patiharn (UB0018) 15°36'04"N, 105°34'24"E is well-known but in a desolate, infertile area some distance from villages, in a remote part of Ubon Ratchathani Province 5 km west of the Mekong River, in a landscape dominated by mostly bare Phu Phan Formation sandstone and shallow, thinly vegetated 'gallery forest' streams in a large field of joint networks, dipping mostly west from cliffs overlooking the Mekong River. A small entrenched stream draining a few square kilometres leads to a slightly depressed (4 m) and abrupt collapse doline about 10 m wide, with water sinking a short distance upstream of the 20 m wide by 5 m high entrance, falling through a rockfall below an impressive *naga*-lined cement staircase which leads to several underground shrines (Fig. 30). At the base of the staircase, 40 m into the cave, some steps lead down to the active streamway which is about 100 m long by 15 m wide and 2 m high. Straight on the dry upper passage is 140 m long, 20 m wide and 4.5 m high, the floor is tiled and has several shrines. A small active inlet is piped away. There are two more large chambers, about 350 m long, beyond the tiled shrine section which are home to a large number of bats. The second chamber is as big as the first, but only 2 m high. The cave was surveyed by Claude Mouret and Philippe LeClerc in 1994 to give a length of 776 m, but unfortunately the survey has not been published. Geological maps suggest it may have formed at the eastern end of a synclinal trough in the Khok Kruat Formation, possibly punching through to the underlying Phu Phan Formation; the trough bearing about 300° from the entrance. The resurgence is unknown, but is probably in the deep, forested gorge 500 m WNW of the entrance (Fig. 31).

Fig. 30. Naga-flanked staircase leading into Tham Patiharn, above and beside underground stream.

Fig. 31. Bare sandstone surface above Tham Patiharn.

Tham Seri Thai (Sakon Nakhon), (SN0002), 17°06'00"N, 103°58'22"E is marked by a nearby monument and interpretation sign, celebrating its use as a shelter by the Free Thai movement to hide weapons in World War II. Little evidence remains of this event but commemorative candles are maintained in the cave (Fig. 32). Behind a small collapse entrance a small active stream follows its 150 m length, narrowing inwards beneath a very distinctive surface slope, possibly down dip (Fig. 33). A short diversion from the access path can be made to somewhat smaller caves or fissures further downstream from Tham Seri Thai, in which running water can be encountered.

Fig. 32. Entrance to Tham Seri Thai.

Fig. 33. Tham Seri Thai rock fall leading to stream.

Tham Phung (Mukdahan) (MU0035), 16° 27’54”N, 104°33’36”E is a resurgence enterable in the dry season in which three local people drowned in 2014. Known to local villagers for many years, it is said to be capable of holding 60 people.

Tham Nam Lot (UB0068), 15° 44' 48"N, 105° 12'14"E in Ubon Ratchathani has been recently explored and surveyed for 181 m by Romanian cavers. The cave is a joint controlled, straight, 5 m wide by 3 m high passage orientated NE to SW. At the NE end the cave drops down to water level and an upstream sump. In the main passage there are two other windows dropping into the flooded passage and the stream resurges only a few tens of metres from the end of the cave (Valenas 2016).

(Wat) Tham Si La At (CH0048) 15°54’58”N, 102°03’38”E in Chaiyaphum is a single straight 64 m long rift cave below a low rise in the grounds of a wat. A few steps lead from the entrance in the shape of a *naga*’s mouth to a 2 m wide x 3.5 m high passage to a small muddy lake with variable water levels (Figs. 34, 35).

Fig. 34. Entrance to Tham Si La At, Chaiyaphum.

Fig. 35. Cave art and typical thin bed of claystone or siltstone.

Tham Nam (KL0028) 16°32’49”N, 104°08’02”E in the Phu Pha Phueng Forest Park, Kalasin is a seasonally active resurgence cave part way up the slopes of a sandstone mountain. Although not entered, the cave is reported to be long, but very low and a small concrete basin has been built at the entrance to collect water (Fig. 36).

Fig. 36. Spring leading to unexplored cave, Tham Nam, Kalasin (Martin Ellis).

DISCUSSION

Sandstone terrains still remain insufficiently understood although significant advances have been made in the last 25 years (Grimes 1975, 1997; Jennings 1983; Wray 1997b; Young and others 2009). Numerous authors have demonstrated that limestone caves develop along a restricted number of bedding planes within a limestone series but less discussion has occurred about the initiation of some sandstone caves. The term ‘inception horizon’ was introduced by Lowe (1992a, 1992b) to describe stratigraphic discontinuities along inception horizons particularly susceptible to solution, sometimes dating back to diagenesis:

> *... lithostratigraphic horizons that are especially favourable to karstification by virtue of physical, lithological or chemical deviation from the prominent carbonate facies. It passively or actively favours the localised inception of dissolutional activity, marking the transition from 'rock with no caves' to 'rock with caves' and extending through whatever time interval is required for gravitational laminar flow conditions to be established in a given situation.*

Lowe's term included origins in diagenesis, although others have since annexed the term to describe microprocesses in speleogenesis. For example, Filipponi (2009) conducted a detailed analysis of 18 horizons in six cave systems, identifying inception horizons of some centimeters to decimeters, concluding that 10% of existing bedding partings guided more than 70% of phreatic conduits, so the basic concept appears accepted as being relevant to speleogenesis. As Lowe (2000 p. 75) concluded:

> *Whether these bedding/rock combinations are referred to as inception horizons or simply as favourable beds, their role and importance are the same... These arguments relate primarily to speleogenesis in carbonate rock sequences ... Other subtle lithologic differences related to the lithostratigraphy may also influence early conduit development in less obviously karstic rocks, such as sandstone and quartzite.*

Thus it appears likely that even a partly calcareous and/or conglomerate sequence confined in sandstone between two relatively harder impermeable rocks would be favoured as a conduit.

In Tham Din Phieng, Tham Patiharn, Tham Seri Thai, Tham Maa and Tham Nam Lot the evidence suggests that a surface stream or other entrance has broken through overlying sandstone into a cave of modest dimensions in a calcareous bed. Some writers have annexed the word 'inception' to refer to more recent manifestations of clearly favourable beds, but Grimes (1997) thought that dissolution should be regarded as the "initiating process" to allow for the possibility of other processes becoming dominant in later stages of the evolution of the landform. This appears similar to what Odell (1985, p. 28) had called a 'lineament' below water table level, later extending laterally due to weathering and erosion.

Case studies from other countries

The evidence of low-angle cave development between harder beds is also supported from examples in India, Czech Republic and Australia. For example, the Caving in the Abode of the Clouds Project in India has had remarkable success in a range of network maze caves, mostly all quartzose with a siliceous cement, or with thin limestone interbeds. First reported by Breitenbach and others (2010) as two short sandstone caves, an updated poster describing more recent work in the area was displayed at the 2017 ICS Congress in Australia (Tringham pers. comm; Yokx Burgers pers. comm.). Krem Puri ('krem" = 'cave' in the local Khasi language), Mawsynram, India is a dense 2D network cave formed in the middle part of the Late Cretaceous Mahadek Sandstone Formation in Meghalaya, India. Encompassing an area of up to 2 km x 200 m wide, the surveyed length is 12.5 km including a new branch. The cave appears to have formed over a narrow stratigraphic interval (ca. 20 m) in a relict inception 2D network just a few metres thick, where the sandstones contain a calcareous cement. Abundant joint sets and faults are located along which many passages are aligned. Nearby Krem Lum Shken appears to run along an inception in a thin (ca. 0.5 m) limestone bed with rift and collapse into the surrounding sandstones. Largely parallel to beddings, it follows a gentle 2° structural dip. Several other underground streamways were found draining from nearby sinks to a SSW direction. Lum Shken is one of several caves formed mostly in sandstone; exploration and scientific investigation is continuing. As with Tham Maa, above, the relative importance of solutional versus mechanical erosion remains to be investigated.

In the Czech Republic, Mljenek and others (2009) described a more extensive system of underground spaces in sandstone called Poseidon, in the Teplicky Skaly Cliffs, Broumovsko Protected Landscape Area, part of the Bohemian Cretaceous Basin extending into Poland and Germany. Largely inaccessible before 2006, exploration has revealed a total humanly accessible passage length reaching to 27 km within a surface area of 740 m north to south and 550 m west to east. Deep crevices, vertical shafts and open gorges define a labyrinthine rectilinear network of crevices and caves developed around the edges of the sandstone plateau. Many crevices are 1 to 3 m wide but sometimes barely 50 cm wide, and some pits descend 50 to 70 m, the deepest to 105 m. Some open crevices carry small perennial streams; close to the edge of the plateau they change to deep vertical pits. While some of the complex is open to at least filtered daylight, wedged blocks of stone and other debris have created multilevel, wholly dark caverns in places.

Similar networks are reported from northern Australia. A maze cave at Kakadu, Northern Territory, is apparently restricted to a specific susceptible sandstone bed (Grimes and others 2011, p. 8). The cave is a dense horizontal network with branches every 3-5 m and narrow passages several metres high and a metre wide, shrinking to crawlways away from grike entrances. Walls and ceiling are smoothly rounded giving a "phreatic" appearance. A water mark indicates wet season flows of 10-20 cm deep in places. A large chamber has formed as a result of coalescence of several passages. Passage length was estimated from a memory sketch only, but is of the order of 400-500 m with numerous unexplored leads. Other sites are reported nearby. The description is very similar to Tham Din Phieng.

Although not a maze cave, Hilltop Cave near Mittagong, NSW, is one of the few sandstone caves containing water in New South Wales. Consisting of a gently sloping 90 m long passage, it may have developed within a series of thin beds (each about 0.5 m thick but up to 10 m total thickness in a resistant bed in the Mittagong Formation of the Wianamatta Group, which could explain upstream migration of three roughly equidistant knick-points, the last a 3 m waterfall at its lower end where it meets the underlying Hawkesbury Sandstone. The widespread Sydney Sandstones contain numerous small caves (Dunkley 2013), mostly 3-10 m or so in size, but interbeds are primarily thin clay or shale within the main sequence, giving rise to often quite wide but not long caves.

Numerous pinnacles of the kind illustrated in Grimes and others (2011) may be found, for example, in Phu Phra Bat National Park (Munier 1998, ch. 2), west of Udon Thani. These sometimes occur as quite high remnants of sandstone beds underlain by eroded clay and siltstone beds, and again sometimes used as places for meditation by Buddhist monks; some also contain prehistoric paintings. All are similar to those in sandstone throughout NE Thailand where, of course, they are known as 'tham' (cave) and very frequently are roofed over as part of a Buddhist temple or priests' camp property (see Fig. 3 above); they are also known from sites such as Cape Crawford, Northern Territory, Australia, in passages barely a metre apart but 20 m high. Most such sites are of little speleological interest, but do illustrate the process of breakdown of sandstone landforms following the descriptions of Mljenek and others (2009), analogous to the breakdown respectively of limestone and sandstone karst as described by Grimes (2012) and illustrated in Grimes and others (2011), using similar terminology such as karren zones, giant grikefields, stone city and isolated stone forest blocks.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This review has concentrated on sandstone and related caves and karst-like features containing water, including some receiving only meteoric water. Although many dry caves are culturally very significant in Thailand, active sites in sandstone are not common in Thailand or in Australia, but are of unusual geomorphological and speleological interest. In most cases there is evidence of the significance of favourable beds in directing water flow.

While sandstone terrains remain little understood, much less do we know about landforms and landscapes in conglomerates. Migon & Wray (2013) contrasted erosional landscapes in sandstone and conglomerates. Conglomerates in particular feature coexistence of clasts of different size and cement of different composition, and bedding is not as distinct as in sandstones with jointing typically sparse. Conglomerates and weak sandstones result in cement dissolution and disintegration, then by clast-after-clast release and grain-by-grain disintegration. In strong sandstones weathering focuses on joint and bedding planes, resulting in angular shapes and subsequent surface weathering.

Summarising it as a 'ruiniform' product, Grimes and others (2011) have drawn together an understanding of the stages of degradation of sandstone landscapes and related karst-like features and caves, describing processes and terminology of sandstone karst morphology, and especially its decay into giant grikes, stone city 'streets' and 'blocks', stone forest and pinnacles, small caves and rockshelters.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We wish to acknowledge the helpful contributions of Andy Goddard, Jeanette Dunkley, David Merritt, Cathy Plowman, Mark Tringham, Shepton Mallet Caving Club, National Library of Australia map collection and numerous pleasant assistants in hotels and restaurants we met when when seeking directions.

Photographs, unless otherwise attributed, are by John Dunkley.

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EDITORIAL NOTE

Sadly, on 1 February 2018, during the review process for this paper, the senior author, John Dunkley, passed away, following a brief illness. The final text was settled with the other authors. An obituary, together with what will be John's last published paper, will appear in the next issue of *Helictite* – GJM.

Obituary:

Edward A. Lane 1921 – 2017

John Dunkley
assisted by Susan and Harley Lane

The founding co-editor of *Helictite* journal, Edward Arthur Lane, died on 9th July 2017.

Born in Brisbane in 1921, Ted's family moved to Dover Heights, NSW, where he attended Sydney Grammar School. At times he worked with his father who was Director of Advertising and Publicity for Greater Union Theatres, and later J.C. Williamson Theatres Ltd, and sometimes on the totes at the race tracks on Friday nights. He became a cadet journalist, the *Sydney Morning Herald* paying for his studies at Sydney University. There he joined the Sydney University Regiment, leading to a call-up for World War 2 as a gunnery officer and cypher specialist, escorting convoys from Darwin to Thursday Island on the 'Cootamundra', later posted as liaison officer with the US Navy in the South Pacific. He married Dorothy in 1944, returned to journalism with the *Herald, Telegraph* and *Bulletin*, later becoming Press Secretary to Senator Spooner, Minister for Natural Resources. His family says he commuted from Sydney while Parliament was sitting and never lived in Canberra. Perhaps he bunked with friends during this period as he was a foundation member of Canberra Speleological Society, exploring White Fish Cave (Cooleman), Cheatmore and Krawaree (The Big Hole). He attended the foundation meeting of the Australian Speleological Federation in Adelaide in 1956, at which discussion took place about coordination of current research projects in Australian speleology and the desirability of producing a high standard publication, and he participated in the renowned Nullarbor expedition immediately afterwards.

In 1961 he transferred to the Atomic Energy Commission, retiring in 1985 as Director of Information Services.

A high quality publication was not economically viable at the time, but after a spell as Secretary of ASF in 1960-61 Ted began canvassing the concept of an Australian Cave Research Association (ACRA) with Dr Aola M. Richards, University of New South Wales. While ACRA did not proceed, a short while later Ted and Aola decided to launch *Helictite* as a non-profit publication providing a reliable news service and collection of speleological papers for those interested in any of its disciplines.

Ted Lane caving in White Fish Cave, Cooleman Plains, NSW.

The journal aimed to encompass the scientific study of caves and their contents, the history of caves and cave areas, and technical aspects of cave study and exploration, and was to cover Australia, New Zealand, the near Pacific Islands, New Guinea and surrounding areas, Indonesia and Borneo. Reflecting the Editors' strengths, the first

At Atomic Energy Commission, 1963

issue covered cave animals and their environment, and a historical review of Julian Edmund Woods' *Observations on Caves, particularly those of South Australia* (1862). Ted & Aola together published a number of valuable studies, e.g. a 53-page comprehensive report on the Discovery, Exploration and Scientific Investigation of the Wellington Caves, New South Wales; Aboriginal Hand Stencils from Caves on the Nullarbor Plain, Southern Australia; *Burramus parvus* living fossil; and Exotic Collembola from Jenolan Caves.

For most of the following years *Helictite* appeared quarterly but in 1976 ownership of it transferred to the Speleological Research Council Ltd and in 1998 the Australian Speleological Federation Inc acquired all its assets and the *Helictite* title. Ted and Aola remained as Founding Editors.

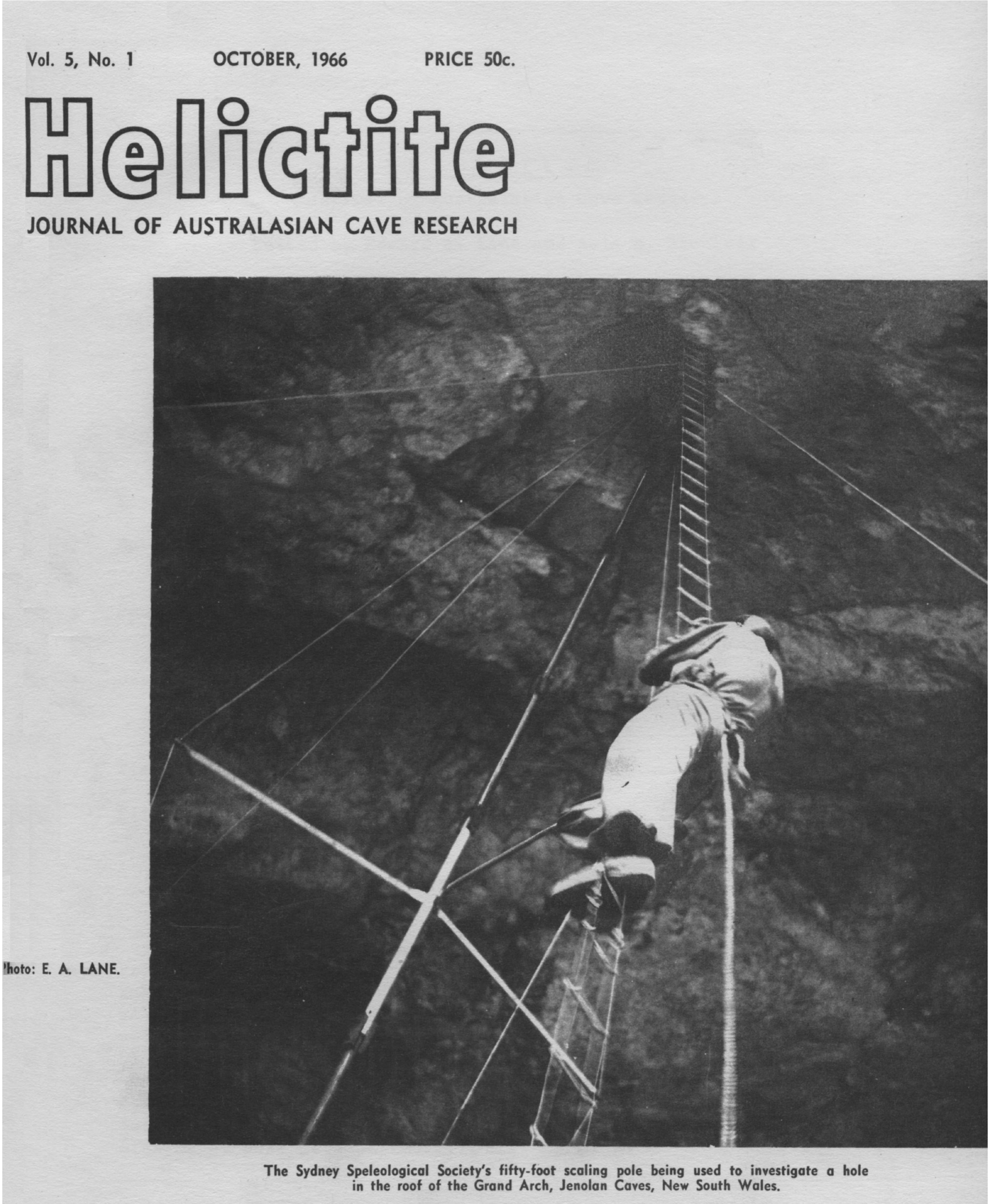
In commemoration of Edie Smith, a pioneer of Australian speleology, in 1972 the Australian Speleological Federation instituted its first ever awards. Now ranking equally as the highest award given by ASF, the inaugural Edie Smith Award was presented to Ted Lane and Dr Aola M Richards, joint editors of *Helictite*, at the ASF Ninth Biennial Conference in Sydney. The citation read *"For being a leader in many early cave exploration expeditions, a speleo-author, co-founder and co-editor of Australia's first speleologically-based scientific journal, Helictite"*. In 1967 his colleague Dr Richards was appointed a Fellow of the National Speleological Society (USA). In June 1975 a whole issue of *Australian Natural History* was devoted to Australian caves, Ted leading with an article on Lime, Limestone and the First Caves.

In retirement Ted and his wife Dorothy travelled widely.

In summary, the remarkable initiative by Ted and Aola to begin a serious speleological journal only 6 years after ASF was formed was a remarkable achievement. Only 6 or 7 such peer-reviewed journals world-wide have survived the distance; at the time *Helictite* was one of only three in the English-speaking world. It remains the sole peer-reviewed speleological journal from the Southern Hemisphere.

For 54 years *Helictite* has been fortunate to have only three key teams of Editors until a fourth (Greg Middleton, Tim Moulds and Kevin Kiernan) was appointed in 2016. Ted and Aola remain as great pioneers of Australian speleology.

Ted and Dorothy Lane, on cruise ship, 1992.



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Helictite

JOURNAL OF AUSTRALASIAN CAVE RESEARCH

Photo: E. A. LANE.

The Sydney Speleological Society's fifty-foot scaling pole being used to investigate a hole in the roof of the Grand Arch, Jenolan Caves, New South Wales.

One of Ted's photos graced the cover of the October 1966 issue of Helictite.

Obituary:

Robert Wray 1966 – 2017

Ian Houshold
assisted by members of Highland Caving Group

Robert was a most enthusiastic geomorphologist with a wide range of interests in the evolution of natural landscapes. As with many Australian researchers, he devoted much thought to reconciling anomalies between measured process rates and historical evidence for ancient land surfaces. In this context, he chose to focus on the processes and evolution of sandstone and quartzite landforms where, as he put it:

"This paradox of dissolutional landforms on some of the world's most insoluble rocks mimicking those on some of the most soluble, both in appearance and scale, has become increasingly difficult to ignore in recent years, yet little attention has been given to the detailed study of the landforms themselves or the dissolutional processes involved."

He was intrigued by the beauty and variety of sandstone landforms and the lithological, chemical, climatic and hydrological controls which encompass some of Australia's most spectacular and extensive terrains; including distinctive beehive forms of the Bungle Bungles, escarpments, caves and waterfalls of Kakadu and Arnhem Land, the cliffed and deeply incised canyons of the Blue Mountains and the iconic rounded forms of Uluru and Kata Tjuta.

Robert contributed significantly to the discussion of solution vs mechanical erosion of sandstones and quartzites, and the continuum of karst–karst-like–pseudokarst landforms. However, he did not allow the terminology to distract him from his chief aim of understanding the role of processes and long term environmental change in sandstone landscape evolution, regardless of how we label them.

He was a colleague and co-author of a trio of lecturing staff at the University of Wollongong with international interests in sandstone landforms. Following his PhD on the Sydney Sandstones, his horizons expanded to work in the Carnarvon Ranges of Queensland, Hunan in China. and the Venezuelan Tepuis, providing material for international reviews of solutional and mechanical weathering and erosion. These include his contributions to *Earth Science Reviews* and the 2013 *Treatise on Geomorphology*, and the beautifully presented book *Sandstone Landforms* co-authored

Robert Wray at Wan Fo Shan (Ten Thousand Buddhas) Mountain, Hunan, China. [photographer unknown] with his mentors, Robert and Anne Young. His work on the phreatic drainage networks of the Precipice Sandstone (Qld) will inspire novel approaches to the assessment and management of hydrogeology in sandstone terrains, and his research into silica and iron speleothems significantly adds to our knowledge of depositional features.

Robert was a strong advocate for geoconservation and appropriate management of geodiversity. Recognising the abiotic significance of iconic sandstone landforms, he contributed to many regional geoheritage assessments of Australian sandstone landscapes, with specific focus on the 'pagodas' of the western Blue Mountains, karst, karst-like and pseudokarst landforms of tropical northern Australia and internationally, on the peak forests of Hunan, China as part of the development of the UNESCO Geopark network.

Dr Wray was a very active caver with Highland Caving Group in NSW from 1988 to 1997. As he was always looking down holes to explore he was given the nickname 'Rabbit'. He was HCG President for 4 years and, as Secretary, helped resurrect the club's newsletter. He took a very active role in producing the 2-volume book *Under Bungonia* in the mid-1990s, now the guidebook to this, the most visited wild caving location in Australia.

Information for Contributors to Helictite from 2017

Aims and Scope of Helictite

Contributions from all fields of study related to speleology and karst will be considered for publication. Fields include earth sciences, speleochemistry, hydrology, meteorology, conservation and management, biospeleology, history, major exploration (expedition) reports, equipment and techniques, surveying and cartography, photography and documentation.

Our main geographic focus is Australasia: Australia, New Zealand, New Guinea and the Malay Archipelago, but we also invite studies from the Pacific and Indian Oceans, South-East Asia and Antarctica.

Papers should not exceed 10,000 words, plus figures. Contributors intending to write at greater length or requiring any advice on details of preparation are invited to correspond with the Editors at ozspeleo@iinet.net.au. Short notes or 'Letters to the Editor', expressing a personal view or giving a preliminary report of interesting findings, are also welcomed. Discussions of published papers should be received within six months of the publication date, and will be passed on to the original author for response.

All submitted papers will be peer reviewed. The editors reserve the right to determine whether any particular contribution will be accepted for publication.

The process of submission, review and publication.

1. Consultation with the editors in relation to a proposed contribution.
2. Submission of the manuscript, including graphics.
3. Peer Review.
   Decision upon tentative acceptance (possibly subject to minor corrections, major corrections or resubmission).
4. Revision by the author(s).
   Papers with major corrections or resubmitted papers may be subject to a second review.
5. Submission of the final version.
6. Layout, proof reading and publication on *Helictite* website.
7. Archiving to a permanent digital repository.

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Format of papers

Authors' names should be given, in the preferred form, below the title. Postal address or institution name should also be provided for each author, together with e-mail address, at least for the lead or corresponding author.

Papers should be preceded by a brief abstract summarising their content and highlighting their significant findings.

References should be used to indicate outside sources of information, using the 'Harvard system'. In-text citations should give the author's surname and publication date, with page number(s) if necessary, in brackets – (Jones 2011, p. 56). The reference list at the end should include **all** items cited, listed in order of authors' surnames and year of publication, giving sufficient detail for readers to be able to locate the original work. Full names of journals should be given, with volume and part numbers where applicable and page range. Book titles or chapters within books should be given in full, with editor(s) name, publisher's name, city of publication and page numbers.

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Footnotes or endnotes should be kept to a minimum.

Graphics

Maps and line diagrams should be provided as separate files, **not** pasted into text files. LZW-compressed TIF or PNG formats are preferred. Graphics may be in black & white, greyscale or colour. Text should be large enough to be readable even if reduced. Scale should only be shown in bar form (not expressed in words). It is preferred that individual graphics be designed to be published no larger than A4. If images are scanned from original artwork they should be at no less than 300 dpi.

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Photographs should be provided in JPG/JPEG format as separate files. Photographs should be attributed in their captions, unless by the sole author, or names may be included within images.

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