

Physical Geology

Across the American Landscape

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Third Edition

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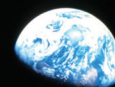
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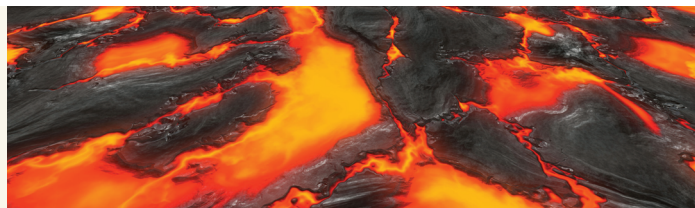
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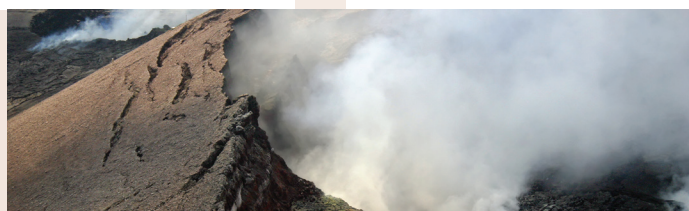
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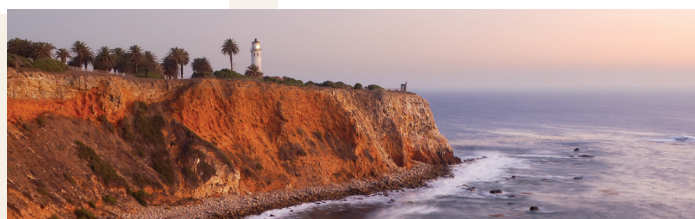
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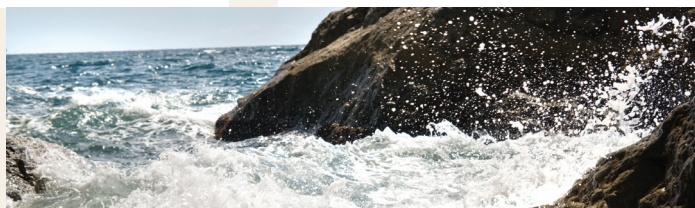
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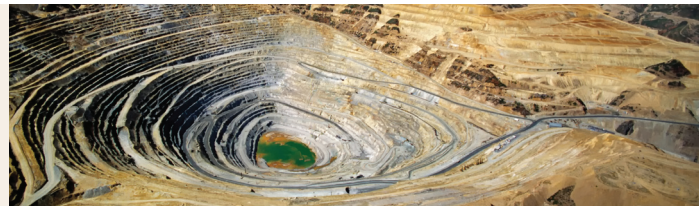
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Preface

It seems almost every child goes through a rock phase, a time when every outing results in bags and pockets stuffed with rocks that must be brought home to be studied or merely possessed. Rocks seem to bring out an innate curiosity in all of us about the world in which we live, how it formed, and how it works.

Some people never leave that rock phase; those people become geologists. Others may leave the rocks behind as they pursue new interests, but that childhood curiosity, we are convinced, continues to operate within us. *Physical Geology Across the American Landscape* is a textbook designed not only to impart scientific data about the landforms of the North American continent but also to take students on an exploration that stimulates and satisfies the desire to know more about their home planet.

During that exploration, students will discover that geology is more than identifying the rocks that found their way into childhood pockets. It is the study of features and processes that are often either too distant or too ordinary to occupy daily attention, but that have a dramatic impact on their daily lives. While reading this textbook, the student will discover that the local backdrops so taken for granted—the rolling hills, streams and rivers, shorelines, and mountains—are more than just scenery. Every geological feature has a story to tell.

Some of the stories are short and dramatic, such as a single earthquake, volcanic eruption, or landslide. Others unfold over millions of years and involve incomprehensibly large forces. Still others are unfolding as the result of our own actions. *Physical Geology Across the American Landscape* ties together all of this information to create a comprehensive understanding of Earth's features, events, and processes. In reaching this understanding, students not only will be able to identify some of those pocket rocks but also will be prepared to make new assessments of the state of our planet, to make smart decisions, and to find solutions to some of humanity's most pressing issues. At the same time, they'll discover what every geologist already knows: not only is the study of Earth useful, it's also captivating—not to mention, a lot of fun.

Textbook Objectives

Physical Geology Across the American Landscape was designed to be used as a guide and core source of content for a college introductory geology lecture course or as an integral part of *Physical Geology Across the American Landscape Online Course*. This textbook was written to accomplish three overall objectives with the general purpose of creating a greater understanding of the planet on which we live, with a focus on the North American continent. After reading this textbook and completing the activities assigned by their instructor, students will be able to:

- **Explain common geological features and processes, using the major concepts and theories of geology.**

Why do earthquakes happen in California and rarely in Florida? Why are there volcanoes in Alaska but not in Texas? Why are some states flat and others hilly or mountainous? Why do we care about glaciers that existed 10,000 years ago? Why are there so many landslides after a big rain? How do geologists know where to look for oil or gold? Why are some rocks colorful, some banded, and some a boring gray? How do scientists know how old a fossil is? Throughout this textbook, students will learn the answers to all of these questions and more. They'll not only be able to identify key geological features, but will also be able to explain the processes that formed them.

- **Effectively write and verbally communicate, using solid research, observations, reasoning, and the scientific method, to support opinions and ideas.**

Students will not only learn about features and processes, they will take a look at how geologists have gathered and analyzed information to discover how Earth works. In doing so, students will gain a new appreciation of the ways in which geologists have objectively observed the environment, noted and mapped details, obtained data, and then used logic and inference to draw the conclusions that are the foundation for our understanding of our planet.

- **Critically analyze and evaluate information to make informed decisions about environmental issues and/or current events using the principles and methods of geology.**

Earth may be at its most critical period in human history. Climate change, dwindling resources, and toxins in our environment present simultaneous challenges to the generations alive today. The choices that must be made over the next few years and decades require a thorough understanding of the factors and processes involved. Each chapter in this book contains a section on environmental concerns that brings these issues into focus. After reading this textbook, students not only will comprehend individual issues but also should have a grasp of the big picture that will allow them to make informed decisions.

Unifying Theme

Earth is a dynamic planet with processes that produce constant change, some of it fast and some of it slow. These changes have formed the landscapes around us, which will continue to be altered over time. This is the underlying theme and message of *Physical Geology Across the American Landscape*. Once students complete reading this book, nothing in the American landscape will look quite the same to them.

Textbook Organization

Physical Geology Across the American Landscape contains 14 chapters plus an introductory chapter. The chapters are presented in distinct units within the textbook, allowing instructors to customize the course to suit their individual teaching preferences.

The Introduction chapter places Earth within context. It first describes the various Earth systems—atmosphere, hydrosphere, cryosphere, lithosphere, and biosphere—and how these systems interact to produce both short-term and long-term changes familiar to the student. The chapter then goes on to reveal how Earth formed and how Earth compares to other planets in our Solar System.

Unit 1: Earth's Interior and Tectonic Processes

Chapters 1 through 4 discuss how seismologists use data, logic, and inference to determine the composition of Earth's interior and figure out the workings of plate tectonics. Chapter 1 reveals how the refraction of seismic waves provided evidence for what lies beneath Earth's surface. Chapter 2 tells the story of how the theory of plate tectonics slowly evolved through the gradual accumulation of evidence. Chapter 3 focuses on two of the consequences of plate tectonics, rock deformation and mountain-building. Chapter 4 completes the sequence with an in-depth look at earthquakes.

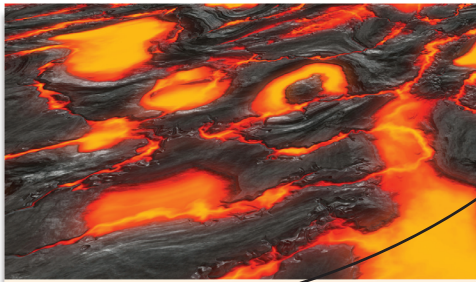
Unit 2: Earth's Minerals and Rocks

Chapters 5 through 8 zoom in on the actual substances that compose Earth. Chapter 5 provides a brief introduction to minerals, their chemistry, their properties, and their identification. Chapter 6 focuses on igneous rocks, how they form, and how they are identified, and then goes on to discuss volcanoes and volcanic activity. Chapter 7 explores weathering, soils, and sedimentary rocks. Chapter 8 discusses metamorphic rocks and explains and describes what happens when rocks are exposed to extreme conditions.

Unit 3: Time, Surface Features, and Resources

Chapter 9 on Geologic Time is a stand-alone chapter that explains relative and absolute dating in the context of geologic time and its divisions. Chapters 10 through 13 focus on the processes that form and alter the American landscape. Chapter 10 is a discussion of mass wasting processes. Chapter 11 discusses streams and rivers, the groundwater system, and karst topography. Chapter 12 takes the student offshore to explore the ocean floor, winds, waves, and currents, as well as shoreline erosional and depositional processes. Chapter 13 focuses on climatic features, first visiting the cryosphere with a discussion of glaciers and glacial features, and then moving to the desert environment. Chapter 14 on Geological Resources is another stand-alone chapter. It discusses the identification, classification and extraction of energy, mineral and water resources in the context of an exponential growth in population.

Textbook Features



LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you will be able to:

1. Describe the medium and velocity (speed) of the four basic seismic waves and the use of seismograph recordings.
2. Describe how earthquake waves can be used to reveal information about Earth's interior.
3. Explain the process of isostasy and how continental lithosphere floats on the mantle.

AT A GLANCE

- 1.1 Seismic Waves
 - 1.1.1 Compression and Shear Waves
 - 1.1.2 Body Waves
 - 1.1.3 Surface Waves
- 1.2 The Seismograph

CHAPTER 3 ROCK DEFORMATION AND MOVEMENT

FIGURE 3.13 This subparallel fold is called a normal fault. The fault is a fracture along which the rock on one side has moved downward relative to the rock on the other side.



Folds take many forms. Geologists describe a fold in terms how its axial plane and limbs are positioned. An axial plane is an imaginary plane that runs through the center of the fold. In a symmetrical fold (a), the axial plane is vertical, and the limbs are of equal lengths and have equal dip angles. An asymmetrical fold (b) has a slightly inclined axial plane, so the limbs are unequal and have different dip values. An overturned fold (c) is also asymmetrical, but the limbs have unequal lengths, but the difference between the limbs is more radical. In a recumbent fold (d), the axial plane is inclined far enough for the limbs to dip in the same direction. A revolute fold is the most extreme fold, with the axial plane and both limbs lying almost horizontal.

In general, symmetric folds form as the result of compression, whereas asymmetric folds form as the result of shear. The type of fold also indicates how much energy was present when the fold was created. The more energy, the more the axis of the fold inclines. Symmetric folds

FIGURE 3.14 Folds are described by their axial plane and limbs. The axial plane is the imaginary plane that divides the fold into two halves. The limbs are the two sides of the fold.

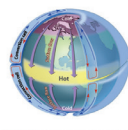
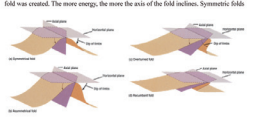


FIGURE 12.10 The greater density of air at the equator causes air to heat and rise, initiating a convection cell between the equator and the poles. In reality, this air flow occurs over long distances between the equator and the poles in each hemisphere. The movement of air within these cells causes the air to curve to the right in the Northern Hemisphere and to the left in the Southern Hemisphere.

While the winds of these convection cells blow either north to south, or south to north, there are not the directions from which they seem to be experienced from a point on Earth's surface. Even as the winds blow in a consistent direction, Earth is rotating beneath them. Furthermore, the air speed is higher at the equator than it is at the poles (imagine the difference in speed required to drive a car around the equator in 24 hours versus driving in a small circle around the north pole in the same 24 hours). The difference in rotational speed affects the direction of the air flow, as seen from Earth. Called the Coriolis effect, it causes the moving air to deflect to the right of the direction of movement in the northern hemisphere and to the left of the direction of movement in the southern hemisphere (Figure 12.12).

The deflection caused by the Coriolis effect is the source of the westerlies, the west winds that drive weather systems across much of the North American and European continents, as well as the northern portion of the Asian continent (see Figure 12.3 on page 533). The westerlies are the surface winds of the Ferrel cell, deflected to the right. Close to the equator, the Coriolis

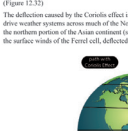


FIGURE 12.12 From the point of view of a surface observer, Earth's rotation causes the wind to appear to be deflected to the right of the direction of movement in the northern hemisphere and to the left of the direction of movement in the southern hemisphere. The deflection is caused by the Coriolis effect, which is the result of Earth's rotation.

Physical Geology Across the American Landscape includes a number of features designed to make learning easier and more productive.

Each chapter begins with clearly defined learning objectives so that students are aware of what they are expected to learn over the succeeding pages. The objectives are phrased in terms of not just what students will understand, but what they will be able to do to demonstrate their understanding.

CHAPTER 4 ENERGY RESOURCES

FIGURE 4.10 Georgia's Stone Mountain is a granite rock that was intruded into the surrounding area and is a classic example of an igneous rock. The granite is a coarse-grained, crystalline rock that is composed of quartz, feldspar, and mica. The granite is a classic example of an igneous rock that is composed of quartz, feldspar, and mica.

When the crust of the massive plutonic body is less than 100 km, the body is called a rock. Stone Mountain in Georgia is a granite rock that intruded into the surrounding area and is a classic example of an igneous rock. The granite is a coarse-grained, crystalline rock that is composed of quartz, feldspar, and mica. The granite is a classic example of an igneous rock that is composed of quartz, feldspar, and mica.

Another aspect of the larger massive bodies is the mode of intrusion. In some cases, the rocks surrounding the pluton show evidence of having been deformed as the magma was intruded (Figure 4.24). In other cases, the spacing of the surrounding host rock can be seen to be truncated, or "cut off," at the edge of the pluton in such fashion that it was apparent that the magma either engulfed the country rock or was emplaced from the rock during an event, a process called magmatic brecciation (Figure 4.26).

During magmatic brecciation, fragments of the country rock may break off and fall into the magma. If the magma is too cool for the fragments to melt, the new igneous rock will solidify around them. These pieces of "foreign" rock were contained within the pluton are called xenoliths (Figure 4.27), and they provide evidence for magmatic brecciation.

The brecciation is an example of a massive plutonic body. A xenolith forms when magma is injected into a sill in sufficient quantities to accumulate and push the overlying rocks up. Consequently, a xenolith has the texture and composition of the magma that it intruded (Figure 4.28 on page 533). Examples of xenoliths, now exposed by erosion, can be found in the Henry Mountains of eastern Utah (Figure 4.28).

A dramatic example of a massive plutonic body is the volcanic neck. Some types of magma will solidify in the conduit leading to the top of the volcano. If the surrounding layers of the volcano are worn away, the rock may stand alone—a solidified remnant of the magma that once occupied the volcano. These rock formations are called volcanic necks. Such necks are referred to as cinder cones, because they are elongated. A well-known example of a volcanic neck is Shiprock, New Mexico (see Figure 6.30 on page 333). Shiprock's Tower is a volcanic neck (Figure 6.30 on page 333) that is also a volcanic neck; it features the columnar joints described in Chapter 3, a sign that the magma intruded in a conduit.

Key terms are highlighted, with formal definitions appearing in the margins for easy reference.

High-quality photographs illustrate these concepts across the American landscape, supplemented with location maps placing each photograph within a geographic context.

Vibrant illustrations bring to life key concepts in ways that help students visualize how geological processes work.

At the end of each chapter section, concept checks test

CHAPTER 3 ROCK DEFORMATION AND MOVEMENT

FIGURE 3.14 Folds are described by their axial plane and limbs. The axial plane is the imaginary plane that divides the fold into two halves. The limbs are the two sides of the fold.

Other areas of rock are not of igneous origin and are bounded by faults, but their origin has not yet been defined. Rock units are termed igneous rocks, and they are the subject of study in geophysics (see the next chapter). Many of the most massive, flat-topped mountains in the landscape along the west coast of North America are igneous rocks that are the result of their origin has yet to be defined.

Concept Check

1. What are faults?
2. Why are the rocks in a fault different from the surrounding rock?
3. What is the process of normal accretion?
4. What are anticline, and syncline?

student comprehension, helping to ensure they have mastered key concepts before moving on to build upon them in the next section.

See It Sidebar:

GRAND TETONS

Grand Teton National Park

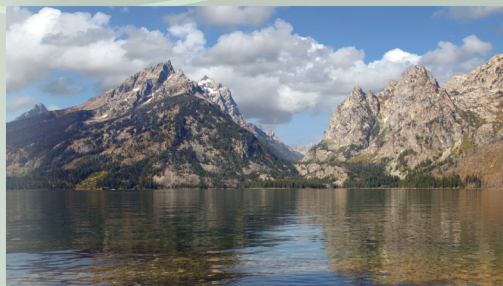
Strain or deformation is the geologic response to stress and is defined as any change in either size and or shape. Most rocks are subjected to some type of deformation that takes the form of one or more of the three basic geologic structures: folds, faults, or joints. Regardless of type, all geologic structures are the result of stress and strain. Mountain building results in a mountain range, which is a single mass of mountain ridges, closely related in age and origin. When mountain ranges connect, what results are mountain belts, cordillera, or mountain chain formations. The formations are complex, interconnected

series of mountain ranges having a well-defined longitudinal trend, commonly several thousands miles in length and several hundred miles wide. Grand Teton National Park in Wyoming is one of the best places to see rock deformation and mountain building. It includes the major portions of two great landforms: (1) the Teton Range, an elongate, up-faulted block tilted to the west and about 45 miles long; and (2) Jackson Hole, a narrow, down-dropped fault block, about the same length and 6 to 12 miles wide. The valley's remarkably flat floor varies in elevation from 6,000 to 7,000 feet. At least



The peaks of the Teton Range as seen from Shawbiter Landing. Photo Credit: Shutterstock 82152342. Photo by Mike Norton

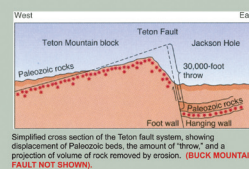
NATIONAL PARKS



Grand Teton Jenny Lake. Shutterstock 848143259. Credit: St Nick

seven of the Teton peaks exceed 12,000 feet in elevation; Grand Teton is 13,770 feet high. The ultimate cause of the faulting in the Teton area is related to the geologic history of the surrounding region. During the Laramide orogeny, which began at the end of the Cretaceous time, whole regions of western North America were folded, uplifted, and subjected to reverse faulting and thrust faulting on a grand scale. After compressive forces subsided, crustal extension and uplift produced many fault-block ranges and basins. In structural terms, the Teton Fault is a steeply dipping normal fault. By definition, the hanging wall of a normal fault has moved down in relation to the footwall. The Teton Fault dips to the east. Therefore, the hanging wall side, the Jackson Hole block, moved downward in relation to the Teton Range block, which moved up. The relatively straight and smooth eastern front of the Teton Range is suggestive of faulting. Not many geologic processes other than faulting produce linear features. Because the mountain front has been eroded and cut by canyons, it does not represent the original fault scarp, but does suggest the approximate slope and location of the scarp.

As the structurally controlled mountain framework rose, moisture-bearing clouds were forced to release rain in order to surmount the heights of the Grand Tetons. Greater precipitation at the high elevations fed snowfields and increased the volume and velocity of streams. Running water and glacial ice, with the help of weathering and mass wasting processes, set about sharpening peaks, excavating canyons, and sculpturing the range-making Grand Teton National Park an excellent See It location for geology.



Simplified cross section of the Teton fault system, showing displacement of Paleozoic beds, the amount of 'throw', and a projection of volume of rock removed by erosion. (BUCK MOUNTAIN FAULT NOT SHOWN).

A highlight of *Physical Geology Across the American Landscape* is the collection of *See It* Sidebars that describe the most dramatic and pristine landscapes on our continent, our National Parks. Chapters feature various National Parks as examples illustrating the chapter material. The sidebars explore the geology of each park with regard to the chapter topic, accompanied by superb photographs from North America's most impressive scenery.

Finally, at the end of each chapter, a succinct summary capsulizes the material presented in the chapter, followed by a list of review questions to test student understanding of the material and flag any areas in which further study might be needed.

SUMMARY

When rocks are under sufficient stress, they deform. There are three types of stress: tension (stretching), compression (pushing), and shear (rotational or tearing). The response of rocks to stress is called strain. Strain varies depending on whether the rock is elastic, brittle or ductile (plastic). Elastic rocks temporarily deform and resume their shape when the stress is removed. If a rock's elastic limit is exceeded, its type of strain depends upon whether it is brittle or ductile. Brittle rocks break as a response to stress; plastic rocks become thinner and longer under tensional stress, and fold under compression.

The deformation of rocks under stress creates geologic structures. Geologists describe the orientation of geologic structures in terms of strike and dip. Strike describes the orientation of a structure's axis, and is the compass direction, relative to magnetic north, of an intersection between a horizontal plane and the surface of the structure. Dip describes the angle between the horizontal plane and the surface of a limb, or slope, of the structure, and is expressed in degrees.

Geologic structures formed by rocks under stress are folds, faults, and joints. Folds are described by the direction in which they bend. An anticline bulges upward and a syncline bulges downward. Anticlines and synclines often appear together. A monocline has a single limb, or slope, and is described as a local steepening in an otherwise gentle incline. Monoclines often have the appearance of steps. Symmetric folds have limbs of equal length and similar dips on either side of the axis; asymmetric folds have limbs of different lengths with different dip values.

Anticlines are further described by the inclination of the axis of the fold and the resulting orientation of the limbs. A symmetrical fold has a near vertical axis and limbs of equal length and dip values; an asymmetrical fold has a slightly inclined axis and limbs of unequal length and dip values; an overturned fold has a very inclined axis with limbs that dip in the same direction; and a recumbent fold has an axis and limbs that lie almost horizontal. Plunging folds have an axis that tilts toward one of its ends, penetrating into the ground. Plunging folds can be recognized by the distinctive V or U shape they assume where the axis intersects with the ground.

Faults are fractures that occur when brittle rocks are stressed and where there has been displacement after the fracture. Tension produces a normal fault in which the hanging wall moves down relative to the footwall. Compression produces reverse faults in which the hanging wall moves up relative to the footwall. A special type of reverse fault is known as a thrust fault which has a dip angle less than 30°, but the motion is still along the dip, so all reverse faults are referred to as dip slip faults. Shear produces strike-slip faults in which the fault plane is nearly vertical. Left-lateral strike-slip faults are those in which the opposite side of the fault appears to have moved to the left; in a right-lateral strike-slip fault, the opposite side of the fault appears to have moved to the right. Transform faults at plate boundaries are strike-slip faults.

Joints are fractures without any displacement, and often occur in sets as the result of stress. Most rock beds have joints. In addition, the shrinking of igneous rock as it cools can cause columnar jointing, and the expansion of igneous rock after overlying pressure is released can create exfoliation joints.

The apparent motion of rocks that have faulted can be determined by the presence of slickensides or drag folds. The apparent motion of rocks that have folded is determined by the direction in which asymmetric folds incline.

About the Author

John J. Renton, Ph.D., holds the Eberly Family Chair for Distinguished Teaching at West Virginia University, where he has been teaching for more than 40 years. He received his bachelor's degree in Chemistry from Waynesburg College and went on to earn his master's and Ph.D. in Geology from West Virginia University.

Renton is the author of the textbook, *Planet Earth*, second edition, which is the preceding edition of this textbook. He has also authored and coauthored nearly 50 geological academic papers and has worked on more than four million dollars of coal-related research grants.

Professor Renton is the recipient of several awards for his success in teaching, including the Outstanding Educator Award from the Eastern Section of the American Association of Petroleum Geologists, the Outstanding Teacher Award from the Eberly College of Arts and Sciences, the university-wide Outstanding Teacher Award and most recently, Professor of the Year Award from the West Virginia University Foundation.

About the Instructional Designer

Sylvia E. Amto'elau, M.S., served as the instructional designer of this textbook, as well as its accompanying laboratory manual, online laboratory, and online course, from concept to completion. She is an instructional designer for **Coast Learning Systems**, a division of Coastline Community College in Fountain Valley, California. Sylvia has assisted in design and development on several educational projects, including online courses in accounting, Arabic, chemistry, Chinese, education, math, and student success for more than 8 years. At Coastline Community College, Sylvia is responsible for providing instructional design, training, and support for all faculty, particularly in areas related to distance learning. As a member of the Senate Academic Standards Committee, she participated in the development of the Coastline Academic Quality Rubric. She is also a part-time faculty member teaching computer application courses and has experience teaching courses in various delivery modalities such as classroom, hybrid, and online. In addition, Sylvia has worked on the California Virtual Campus project, training and assisting Southern California community college faculty in the design, development, and delivery of online instruction. Sylvia holds a Master of Science degree in Instructional Technology and a Bachelor of Arts degree in Mathematics.

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