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Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences  
McGill University

## EPSC-201

### UNDERSTANDING PLANET EARTH

ESSENTIALS OF GEOLOGY [red on front] just came out in december

Winter term 2007

Monday, Wednesday and Friday; 13:35 to 14:25, Room Otto Maass 112

Professors Robert Martin and Alfonso Mucci

Teaching assistants: Pénélope Burniaux and Cécile Noverraz

Tentative schedule and course outline

#### WEEK      TOPICS

DO READINGS BEFORE CLASS (if possible)

- 1      **Introduction (AM)**
  - organization (course description and schedule), books, evaluation
  
- 1/2    **Origin of the Universe/Solar System/Earth (Chapter 1 and appendix a) (AM)**
  - The Big Bang (the age of the Universe)
  - Nucleosynthesis (the atom, the elements, radioactive decay and radiometric dating)
  - Origin and age of our Solar System (radiometric  $^{87}\text{Rb}/^{87}\text{Sr}$  dating)
  - Origin and composition of the Earth
  - Trivia and morphology of the Earth's surface
  - Hypsographic curve of the world's surface
  - Internal structure of the Earth
  
- 3/4    **Plate Tectonics (Chapter 2) (AM)**
  - Continental drift  
(observations on land, fitting of continental margins, apparent polar wandering)
  - Seafloor spreading or evolution of the oceanic basins  
(linear magnetic anomalies, rifting and plate motion on a spherical Earth)
  - Plate boundaries
  
- 5      **★ Minerals (Chapter 3 + Interlude A) (RM)**
  - Structure
  - Properties
  - Classification of minerals
  
- 6      **★ Heat Flow and Igneous Processes (Chapters 4 and 7) (RM)**
  - Magma
  - Volcanism
  - Classification of igneous rocks
  
- 7      **★ Metamorphic rocks (Chapter 6) (RM)**
  - Metamorphism
  - Mineralogy and petrology



- 8/9 **Sediments, sedimentary rocks and the rock cycle (Chapter 5 + Interlude B) (AM)**  
 -Mechanical and chemical weathering  
 -Soil formation and classification  
 -Sources and classification of sediments  
 -Diagenesis and sedimentary rocks (compaction, organic matter degradation and lithification)
- 10 **Earthquakes and the Structure of the Earth's Interior (Chapter 8 + Interlude C) (AM)**  
 -Causes  
 -Seismic waves and their propagation  
 -Seeing inside the Earth
- 11 **Rock deformation and Orogeny (Chapter 9) (RM)**  
 -Rock deformation  
 -Faulting  
 -Mountain building and plate tectonics  
 -Origin and evolution of the continental crust
- 12/13 **Earth and Life History (Chapters 10 & 11 + Interlude D) (RM)**  
 -Geological time  
 -Stratigraphy  
 -Evolution of life on Earth
- 14 **Resources (Chapter 12) (RM)**  
 -Metals (source and concentration processes: massive sulphide deposits, epithermal deposits and porphyry copper deposits)  
 -Petroleum (source and concentration processes)  
 -Environmental impacts of exploitation (radiative gases, acid mine drainage, etc.)

Contact hours: Three one hour lectures (including: movies, hand specimen examination).

Evaluation:	Mid-term	30%
	Cumulative final exam	70%

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*L'université McGill attache une haute importance à l'honnêteté académique. Il incombe par conséquent à tous les étudiants de comprendre ce que l'on entend par tricherie, plagiat et autres infractions académiques, ainsi que les conséquences que peuvent avoir de telles actions, selon le Code de conduite de l'étudiant et des procédures disciplinaires (pour de plus amples renseignements, veuillez consulter le site [www.mcgill.ca/integrity](http://www.mcgill.ca/integrity)).*

Required textbook:

**QE28.M3415 Marshak S. (2006) Essentials of Geology, Second Edition, W.W. Norton & Company Inc. New York, 545 pp.**



"PHYSICAL GEOLOGY" is what we're learning.


ROCK CYCLE

handout)

- rocks are brought up to the surface of the earth with volcanos (etc.)
- plate tectonics is pretty recent and revolutionized the study of geology.
- components make up earth and interact [another realization recent]
  - ↳ really complex interactions take place. With new technology its much easier. EARTH SYSTEM SCIENCE. Integrated view how earth works. might officially come to exist sept. 07.

THE BIG BANG [1927 first introduced by a priest]

- universe started from infinitely small "singularity" where entire mass of universe was contained.
- it expanded suddenly exponentially. ∴ we live in an expanding universe
- EVIDENCE: galaxies are "racing away from each other"
- heat was being dissipated and quarks started to stick together, forming atoms. Hydrogen 75%, Helium 25%.
- as the heat kept dissipating,

as universe cools, gasses made balls of cosmic dust & eventually clump together due to gravity (weak force). eventually particles stick together & form a NEBULAR DISK. →  where "protostars" exist and then it makes a galaxy. star heats up as it accumulates more matter, so hot that H's get fused together [Hydrogen ignites] and make more helium (fusion) ∴ releases A LOT of energy! and light at particular wavelengths. (distance between wave peaks).

protostars are 100x the size of sun

$$f = \frac{1}{T}$$

- light travels in waves. which have particular wavelengths & frequencies.
- doppler effect; wavelength shortens & frequency increases when its coming towards you since waves get compressed then it passes you and pitch decreases since waves are no longer compressed.   
 [handout w/ tram]
- Red shift: red is at a lower freq. than blue so as stars are moving away they look red. all galaxies show a red shift ∴ they're moving away. - magnitude of wavelength is a measure of the speed that they're moving.

distance away is calculated in a trivial fashion.



- To measure distance away of galaxies can be found using size and brightness of the galaxies.

(handout)

when the velocity vs. distance of galaxies <sup>is plotted,</sup> it appears to be linear. slope of the line is called the HUBBLE CONSTANT which gives the age of the universe. [10-15 billion years]  $\Delta$  (hubble telescope)

- We are assuming that the velocities of the galaxies haven't changed in the history of the universe.

- Big bang released heat which got bigger as universe expanded.

Nobel Prize Winners

- Penzias & Wilson tried to fix background noise in telecommunication and found that it was the residual energy from the big bang since this energy was constant anywhere they looked in the universe.

- Read Prelude of Book.

- Start Chapter 1.

- Nucleosynthesis (next class.)



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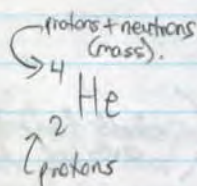
FAUL HUSSMAN

## LECTURE 2.

- As the universe expanded neutrons converted to protons and electron. (sum of charges = 0).  $\frac{1}{2}$  life of this is 12 min  $\therefore$  12 min after the big bang  $\frac{1}{2}$  particles were protons and half were neutrons.
- protons are H atoms. If you stick two protons together you get He atoms
- All matter is made of atoms. (which are  $10^{-8}$  cm (1Å))
- nucleus is about  $10^{-13}$  cm (much smaller).  $\therefore$  most of atoms volume comes from electron cloud.
- # of protons determines the <sup>(nature &)</sup> properties of the element/atom. [ $^1_1\text{H}$ ,  $^4_2\text{He}$ ,  $^6_3\text{Li}$ ]
- ratio of protons to neutrons is close to 1:1 but as # protons increase, the ratio changes to 1.5, (needs more "neutron glue" in the nucleus to hold protons together)



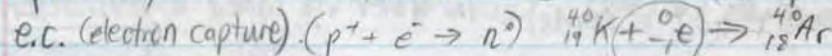
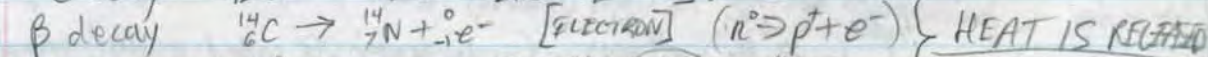
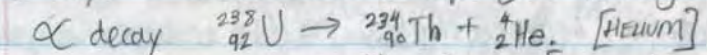
contains protons &amp; neutrons (subatomic particles)



- neutrons and protons are about 1800 times heavier than electrons and have similar mass to each other.
- atomic mass = sum of proton & neutron mass. [ $^1_1\text{H}$ ,  $^4_2\text{He}$ ,  $^6_3\text{Li}$ ]
- Isotopes: different proton-neutron combinations for certain elements. [ $^1_1\text{H}$ ,  $^2_1\text{H}$ ,  $^3_1\text{H}$ , (three isotopes of Hydrogen). (protium, deuterium, tritium).

\* Radioactive decay: isotopes are unstable and decay into something else.  
 tritium  $\rightarrow$   $^3_2\text{He}$  [tritium is a RADIO-ISOTOPE].  
 heat is involved which was very important at origin of the earth.

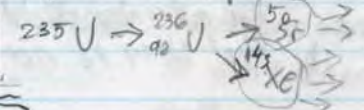
3 ways a radioactive isotope goes through radioactive decay.



HEAT IS RELEASED

another type of decay is NUCLEAR FISSION.

large radioisotope breaks up into smaller radioisotopes.



CHAIN REACTION occurs when there's a CRITICAL MASS happens in nuclear reactors & bombs.

radioisotopes all decay according to their own rate.

RATE  $\propto$  CONCENTRATION of the radioisotope.  $R \propto k[A]$ . (1st order).

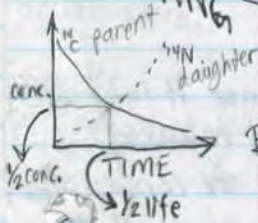
Eg.  $^{14}\text{C}$  has  $t_{1/2}$  of 5730 years. using half life of  $^{14}\text{C}$  you can determine the age of stuff.

Carbon dating is accurate to about 60,000 years ago.

other isotopes have half lives of billions of years. ( $^{235}\text{U}$ ).

Useful for determining age of solar system

\* CARBON DATING



$\frac{1}{2}$  conc.  $\rightarrow$   $\frac{1}{2}$  life

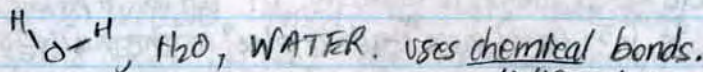
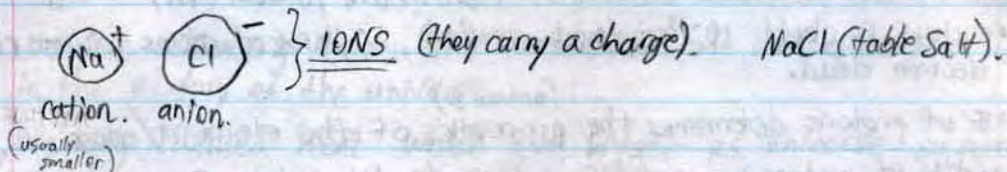
Hussman



Noble gasses are "rare gasses" with full electron shells so they are neutral and not reactive. (some metals like Gold are similar, even though they don't have full shells.)

Na has 1 valence electron.

Cl has 7 valence electrons so it wants Na's electron. to make a full shell.



↳ different from bonds in a nucleus.

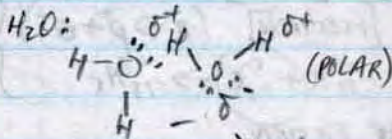
### 4 TYPES OF CHEMICAL BONDING

- 1) Ionic bonds (electrostatic) (NaCl) between ions of opposite charge.  $Na^+ + Cl^- \rightarrow NaCl$  (table salt). (e<sup>-</sup> shells don't overlap)
- 2) Covalent bonds (sharing of electrons from outer shells), eg: Carbon (overlapping clouds). (strongest)

### LECTURE #3

BONDS: Ionic (electrostatic attraction) NaCl (slightly weaker than covalent)  
 Covalent (sharing of electrons) C-C-C..., H<sub>2</sub>O (e<sup>-</sup> overlap)

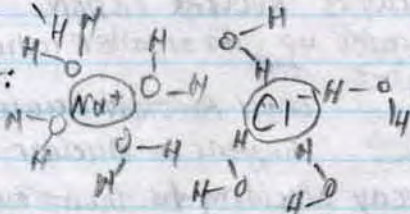
- 3) Bonds between molecules of different polarities.  
 electrostatic interaction between slightly positive or negative parts of molecules.



In water its called a HYDROGEN BOND.

responsible for all the famous properties of water.

Universal Solvent:



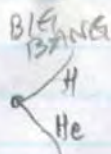
H<sub>2</sub>O molecules shield each ion so that they do not recombine.

Weaker polarity bonds: Vander Walls. (salt makes beer fizz cause it takes up water so that CO<sub>2</sub> gets released).

- 4) Metallic Bonds: sea of electrons which travel throughout the compound. that's why they can carry electricity. (3rd strongest type of bond)



Lecture #3 Continued (after 4 types of bonds)



- Universe is expanding. Energy & mass is being diluted ∴ its hard to form new elements. New elements can only be created in high temperature, high density environments such as a STAR!
- Clouds of dust start to form and attract other particles because of gravity. As they get bigger their mass increases and density increases. Eventually they get so large, so dense, so hot that they get ignited. Hydrogen burns so that they stick to other Hydrogens. This makes He!  
 $H + H \rightarrow He$  [fusion] → LARGE SOURCE OF ENERGY!

- Big Stars (Red Giants) 10-100x larger than our sun.  
 As H turns to He, density increases since mass increases. Eventually Helium also ignites (needs 4x as much energy) 200 million degrees C.  
 Carbon & oxygen can also be made at this point, and then Carbon burns and a new set of elements can be made.

our sun probably will never burn helium (its too small).

The process is self maintained! (until it gets to Iron)

~~with produce~~ burning Iron doesn't give enough energy to continue.

How do we get atoms bigger than Iron?

Neutron Bombardment: As Red Giant burns and gets really hot, & dense, it eventually implodes, then explodes resulting in a SUPER NOVA detected once every 100 years (approx). Emits a SHIT LOAD of neutrons projected at the nuclei of other elements. Through  $\beta$  decay it sheds an electron and converts the new neutron into a proton. (sneaky way of getting bigger/heavier elements)

- R (rapid) Process & S (slow process) - types of neutron bombardment.

See Handout

- Slow Process: <sup>atom</sup> loses an electron & neutron is converted to a proton. Atoms grow one by one.

It goes through a cascade. can be reproduced with particle accelerators.

- Rapid Process: neutrons are coming too fast for decay to keep up so more than one neutron comes into the element, the more neutrons, the faster the decay. A lot of isotopes are made this way.



OUR SUN also formed from a cloud of dust → nebular disc, proto sun. around the protosun discs of matter form around it which also stick together. These things get bigger, At 1 km they are called Planetesimals. As time goes on small ones get bigger and others disappear 10-20 million yrs later PROTOPLANETS around the sun. close to the sun planets have high melting points. farther planets are more volatile (sodium & Jupiter)

parts up of H & He

close to sun: terrestrial planets. Farther: YUGE planets (Jovian)

METEORITE = extraterrestrial matter that may or may not hit the earth.

CHONDRITE (Chondrules: little spheres of silicate minerals)

- Inner Planets TERRESTRIAL
- Outer Planets JOVIAN



Lecture #4

- elements after Fe were made by bombarding existing elements with neutrons.  
↳ SLOW & RAPID.

- we know the age of the solar system because of meteorites.

METEORITES: CHONDRITES: rocky type w/ minerals.

↳ Carbonaceous chondrites (have never been melted since origin), believed to be non-volatile material from when all planets and the sun were formed.

- Using radioactive elements &  $t_{1/2}$  life & decay we can determine the age of carbonaceous chondrites.

Using  $^{87}\text{Rb} \rightarrow ^{87}\text{Sr} + e^-$   $t_{1/2} = 47$  billion years.

- When plotting the data, the slope of  $^{87}\text{Rb}$  to  $^{87}\text{Sr}$  gives us the age of the solar system: 4.57 billion years

- it is believed that terrestrial planets were originally similar to carbonaceous chondrites.

- DIFFERENTIATION: heavier material on planet sank to core of planet, lighter stuff stayed near surface resulting in a layered planet.

↳ happens when planets heat up and are partially melted.

∴ STRATIFICATION of material on the basis of their density.

- Our moon is often thought of as a terrestrial planet. oldest rock on the moon that was brought back by the Apollo mission was 4.47 billion years old, solar system is 4.57 billion years old.

- Apparently a violent collision w/ earth of another planetesimal caused debris to accumulate in orbit around the earth. (moon is earth's child).

- In space there are  $10^{-10}$  atoms/m<sup>3</sup> (not alot).

- On earth (⊕) there are  $3 \times 10^{25}$  atoms/m<sup>3</sup>

• THE EARTH

- earth has a magnetic field, (like a bar magnet), which gets distorted by SOLAR WINDS. (looks like a tear drop w/ tail pointing away from the sun).

- Magnetosphere: deflects solar winds (so we don't get fried).

- Van Allen Radiation Belts: (10500-300000 km from earth) stop most cosmic rays that would normally screw up our DNA.

NORTHERN LIGHTS

(1988-solar storm)

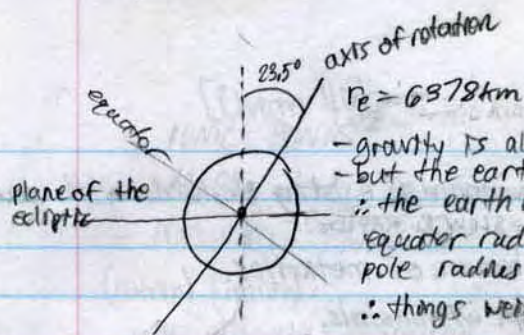
{ the stronger cosmic rays/particles follow earth's magnetic field. cosmic rays interact with gasses in the atmosphere, (rays get deflected to the poles).

- Atmosphere: 80% Nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>), 20% Oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>), traces of Ar, CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>...

- as altitude increases, air pressure decreases. on earth P = 1 atm. on everest (8.85 km) P = 0.2-0.4 atm (cant sucke without O<sub>2</sub> mask)

atmosphere is in layers. temp decreases as you go up, then increases, decreases... in different layers. [36000 ft up it's -53°C]





- gravity is always towards the centre.
- but the earth is turning so there's centrifugal force.
- $\therefore$  the earth is a bit fatter at the equator than the poles.
- equator radius =  $6378 \text{ km}$
- pole radius =  $6357 \text{ km}$
- $\therefore$  things weigh more at the poles since they're closer to centre.

Surface of earth =  $510 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$

OCEANS: =  $362 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$  (71% of earth's surface).

Fig 1.18 from book & other handout

Pacific alone is larger than continents put together!

Most continents are in northern hemisphere (65%)

Continents absorb sunlight rather than reflect  $\therefore$  northern hemisphere is warmer.

Sea level determines amount of land exposed. melting ice caps will flood some places.

- handout!
- when you swim out in the ocean, the continent goes out into the water until the continental shelf, continental slope, continental rise, abyssal plain.
  - Underwater mountain: mid-ocean ridges are on the ocean floor.



LECTURE #5

MIDTERM: Feb 16th 2007

[http://eps.mcgill.ca/~courses/C201\\_fall](http://eps.mcgill.ca/~courses/C201_fall), sections 1, 3, 4 ← good handouts <sup>online</sup>

exogenic cycle

- EARTH is dynamic. There's destruction by weathering, erosion (external forces) of topographic features on the surface of the earth (mountains).

endogenic cycle

- there is also constructional processes: volcanoes, orogeny (internal forces (earth's heat))

- organic chem compounds: - carbon based  
- involve two or more carbon atoms bond together.  
- oils, plastic, rubber.

- minerals: compounds where atoms are organized in an orderly pattern (NaCl, SiO<sub>2</sub>, sand...)

- glasses: compounds in which the atoms are not organized in an orderly pattern. (formed through rapid freezing of liquids).

- ROCKS: assemblage/mixture of minerals and/or glasses. (rocks are defined by the minerals that make it up).

make up compounds on surface of the earth

→ IGNEOUS ROCKS: form from cooling of molten rocks.

→ SEDIMENTARY ROCKS: made up of pre-existing rocks which have been broken up or precipitated from water. If they are not cemented, then its called sediments.

→ METAMORPHIC ROCKS: made of pre-existing rock whose texture and/or composition has been altered by high-temperature or pressure. (rock isn't melted, but changed)

MELTS: formed from solid materials that are melted. (lava, magma).

magma - molten rock under earth's surface.

lava - molten rock delivered on the earth's surface (volcano).

Volatile: substances that transform into gases at relatively low temperatures. (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O...).

Si, O ← silicate minerals. (most common minerals on earth's surface).

- silicate minerals are classified by their Si:(Mg+Fe) ratio.

felsic (silicic) > intermediate > mafic > ultramafic (decreasing Si content)  
less dense ← → more dense

- earth went through differentiation so we know where to find these rocks.

- Earth's crust is thin, but still thick. atm + crust = 1% earth's mass.

- deepest hole = 14km deep. how do we know what earth's made of?



## Composition of the Earth

- we have to guess since we can only dig 14km deep.
- carbonaceous chondrites help since they're similar to composition of inner planets.

(handout)

Fe, Si, O, Mg.  
more ← → less

- comparing carbonaceous chondrites to the sun, they're very similar in composition (since they're from same nebular disk etc.).
- earth's crust is less dense than the carbonaceous chondrites,  $2.50 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- average density of the earth:  $5.6 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ; Fe is more in middle.
- moon is much less dense since it's made of earth's surface material.

- CRUST: felsic, intermediate and mafic minerals (lighter minerals).
  - ↳ Continental Crust: 15-40km thick (mostly felsic & intermediate silicate rocks).
  - ↳ Oceanic Crust: 7-10km thick (mostly mafic rocks)
    - ↳ thinner but denser.

- Temperature increases by about 15-50°C per km. (geothermal gradient)
- eventually geothermal gradient decreases to about 10°C per km.

mantle has most of earth's mass & volume.

- MANTLE: (under crust) 2885km thick, ultramafic-peridotite rock. fairly hot, mostly solid, but some flows slowly. (15cm per year) it's being heated from below by earth's core. (like a lava lamp) <sup>slow</sup> CONVECTION!
- MOHO. (Andrija Mohorovičić); boundary between mantle & crust.

- CORE: (below the mantle), early '60's → 1st nuclear bombs were tested, helped us understand size of earth's core.
  - ↳ OUTER CORE: liquid Fe alloys (how do we know it's liquid? "s-waves" can't go through liquid)
  - ↳ INNER CORE: Pressure: 3,600,000 atm!!! } SOLID INNER CORE surrounded by liquid.  
Temperature: 4700°C.

- movement in liquid outer core is responsible for earth's magnetic field!

- Interior structure of earth can ALSO be classified by how material flows (if it's brittle or if it flows).

- LITHOSPHERE = CRUST + UPPER MANTLE. - continental lithosphere is thicker than oceanic lithosphere.
- AESTHENOSPHERE = LOWER MANTLE (the one that flows).

Plate tectonics: Monday's class (Ch. 2 in book)



LECTURE #6

- MIDTERM (FEB 16) ~~OR 25 FEB?~~ 2007.

↳ short answer, ONE HOUR. (during class)

- PLATE TECTONICS

- Alfred Wegener: Proposed the idea of continental drift.

- during history of earth, continents have drifted.
- wasn't well received at first until more info was available.

helped us understand how earth works. TRULY REVOLUTIONARY.

- Finally the theory of plate tectonics. (study of large scale movements & deformation of the earth's crust).

- popularized in mid '70s. early 80s it was accepted. (jagged a bit in Europe).

- LITHOSPHERE. is made up of plates that move around on the surface of the earth.

- there are large plates and several smaller ones.

- earthquakes show where plate boundaries are.

↳ happen when plates rub on each other.

EVIDENCE OF CONTINENTAL DRIFT.

- boundaries of continents will fit together if shifted. If sea level is lowered, continental shelf (true boundaries of continents) shows an even better fit.

- 270 mya.: ONE SUPER CONTINENT: PANGAEA. (one big ocean).

- 220 mya: continent broke up opening up the atlantic ocean.

● Glaciations occur at regular intervals during earth's existence, but vary in intensity.

as they move, the pebbles & boulders they carry will carve striations on the rock below (bedrock).

- When the glacier melts you can see the direction it was moving, pebbles leave a layer of sediment on the ground called a glacial Till.

- Random rocks are dumped when glacier melts are called erratic rocks.

- It was found that in the carboniferous period there were glaciers on earth (200 mya) on antarctica, S.A, Ind, australia...

(handout)

- by looking at striations, Wegener found that they were once joined (in a supercontinent PANGAEA).

- distribution of other geological deposits such as coal, many of them are found in the northern hemisphere, (which used to be near the equator) which are ideal conditions for making coal.



- moving away from the equator of pangea, there are deserts and other dry areas.
- coral also shows a pattern providing evidence of continental drift.
- As early as 1912, paleontologists looked at fossils which showed striking similarities which only make sense if the continents were joined.
- Plants; Glossopteris fossils show major patterns.
- Land Reptiles also show patterns.
- At first paleontologists thought that there were "land bridges" but Wegener opposed this since he knew the composition of the ocean floor is different than that on land. So oceans could not re-absorb land materials. ∴ NO LAND BRIDGES.
- paleontological evidence helped support idea of continental drift.
- Africa had some surprising features (truncated near the coast).
- 1927 Alexander DuRoi South African geologist sailed over to Brazil to map geological formations in south america.
- He found that they were exactly the same (fit together perfectly together).
- That's where the rest of the <sup>missing</sup> land ended up.
- Also sediments (layers) were exactly the same on both continents.
- other things that fit perfectly: Appalachian mountain rocks are found in NW Africa, scandinavia, & that area.

Geological Structures & rock formations.



- ⇒ EARTH'S MAGNETIC FIELD. (paleomagnetic measurements)
- compasses read to TRUE NORTH. depending if you're left or right of the middle, compass will be off by a "declination" angle.
- there's a relationship between the angle of inclination & the latitude. (using a dip needle). [Inclination =  $i$  angle of latitude,  $\theta = \frac{1}{2} \tan i$ ]
- GAUSS = Oersted are units of strength of magnetic field. (don't need to know)
- ordnance horseshoe magnet  $\approx 10$  gauss.
- Earth's magnetic field  $\approx 0.5$  gauss.
- by looking at the strength of inclinations, it can be determined where the pole used to be.




LECTURE # 7EVIDENCE  
OF CONTINENTAL  
DRIFT

Glaciation & Climate Belts, Fossils, Mountain belts & archaen crust, earth's magnetic properties, looking at how continents are like puzzle pieces

Heat destroys magnetism. most magnetic materials as they cool back down through the "curie point" will require a magnetization in the direction of the prevailing magnetic field.

Lava comes out of volcanoes and as it cools below the curie point, grains of stuff in it orient themselves according to the earth's magnetic field. It shows angles of declination.

**THERMOREMANT MAGNETIZATION:** record of magnetic field from lava cools below curie points.

- rocks can be dated with radi isotopes.
  - scientists took layers of earth and analyzed the inclination in the rock to find the latitude.
  - They found that the earth's magnetic pole moves over time.
- APPARENT POLAR WONDERING CURVES.**
- How? either the poles moved or the continents moved... 
  - but the polar wandering curves changed depending on where the data was taken from.
  - this proves that the continents had actually moved (& not the poles)
- If the atlantic ocean was closed up, North American & European polar curves line up (at least 200-400mya).
- It was found that before 400mya, there was a deviation in the pattern of polar curves. It is thought that pangea-like continents had probably been in existence before (recurring pattern).

What Drives Continental Drift?

[handout]

- During WWII, SONAR mapped ocean floors for sub mares. They showed mid-ocean ridges (mountains), trenches, sediments (which were only a couple <sup>km</sup> thick). thickness of sediments decreases as you come closer to mid-ocean ridges less sediments mean younger ocean floor. 1950 - HARRY HESS (Princeton).
- SEAFLOOR SPREADING:** hot lava makes new ocean floors and other oceanic floor makes trenches and get gobbled up.

[handout]

- During WWII, AIRBORNE MAGNETOMETERS to detect submarines. geophysicists took them and found magnetic anomalies. (difference between expected magnetic field of the earth at a given location & measured field)



They found both positive and negative magnetic anomalies.  
as lava is extruded, as it cools below Curie point ( $500^{\circ}$ ) they  
show the orientation of earth's magnetic field at the time.

BERNARD BEUNHES (1906) in AUVERGNE, FRANCE (mountains).

some rocks there showed opposite magnetic properties.

PAUL MERCANTON, (1926) saw this too, he thought maybe these  
rocks show reversals in magnetic field. (as if field changed) which  
was laughed at.

- MOTONORI MATUYAMA (1920s) noticed some rocks show same as today's  
and some show opposite, supporting Paul Mercanton.
- 1950s - they said under certain conditions rocks will show opposite  
to today's magnetic field.
- 1960s - now they know about convection in earth's core and agree that  
there could have been reversals.

they made a history of reversals with periods of mostly normal fields  
and mostly abnormal fields.

- MAGNETIC EPOCH or CHRON, & sub epochs/chrons.

- anomalies are due to these epochs & chrons.
- still don't know what triggers the reversals.
- can be used for dating (relatively).



LECTURE #8

- POLARITY, INCLINATION (latitude), location of poles can be found in rocks

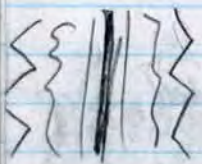
- 1960S - 3 scientists recorded magnetic bands extruded at the mid ocean ridges. where there's a magnetic record of the earth's magnetic field.

(Vine, Matthews, Morley)

Anomalies are the current earth's magnetic field plus or minus the rock's encrypted magnetic properties.

- Using magnetic stratigraphy the sea floor spreading rate can be dated.

- there's a symmetrical distribution of anomalies since when lava comes out, half flows one way and half goes other way.



- ISOCHRON: periods of equivalent time on each side of where lava come out. over last 160-200 mya. width of these are the spreading rate.

- tells us the history of the breakup of pangea.

- using present spreading rates, we can guess where continents will be in the far future.

- mountain building occurs when continents collide (Africa & Europe will probably collide & make a mountain).

Plates move 1/5 cm/year.

plate interactions/boundaries (3 TYPES)

• DIVERGENT BOUNDARIES - plates move away from each other.

- spreading occurs along the mid-ocean ridge

- surface depression along the ridge is called the spreading centre. (edge)

• CONVERGENT BOUNDARIES - plates move towards each other.

- sea floor is being destroyed (at convergent margins).

• TRANSFORM BOUNDARIES/FAULTS - when plates scrape past each other without production/destruction of the lithosphere.




DIVERGENT BOUNDARIES

- magma pushes up onto continental lithosphere which 'bulges' as high as 2.5km where eventually the continental crust will break forming "normal faults".

GABEN: hole in bulge

HORST: Rocks falling in.

TRIPLE JUNCTION:  ← breaks in that pattern (at least 3 lines).

- can be found on ocean floor.

• mid-ocean ridges occur when a suite of triple junctions coalesce →

HUSSMAN



# LAURASIA GONDWANA LAND



failed rift

- failed rifts which made grabens, are now many rivers including the St Lawrence River.

SPREADING EDGE. (made from when atlantic first opened).

- Grabens that fill up w/ fresh water are called lakes.
- eventually they get to a point where sea water intrudes & fresh water gets replaced by sea water and marine sediments occur.
- red sea has sea salt in bottom that precipitated when sea was made and its dissolving back into the water.
- Passive Margins: only sedimentation at edges of ocean.
- Plate movement varies w/ latitude & plates with more continental crust tend to move slower [Pacific plate  $\approx 18\text{cm/year}$ ].
- spreading rates increase as you get away from the spreading centre (pole).
- TRANSFORM FAULTS; offsets that make up for the differences in spreading rate due to the geometry of a sphere.

HHS





LECTURE #9

- Vine, Matthews, Morley (Canadian) found the anomalies in the rocks which were injected at the mid ocean ridges.
- In Iceland there is divergent plate boundaries, mid ocean ridges go through it. that's why there is so much volcanic activity there.

hear this story.

- rift valleys are when diverging plates make valleys which are block-like. ERABENS, HORSTS are made.
- fracture zone: separate offsets between two mid ocean ridges. where most earthquakes occur.

23456  
7890

- San andreas fault: transform fault that is on land.  
\* transform faults join divergent & convergent margins.

CONVERGENT MARGINS/BOUNDARIES: (oceanic-oceanic, oceanic-continental, continental-continental)

- oceanic-oceanic: oceanic plate subducts under another plate. oceanic lithosphere that is really old becomes denser than the asthenosphere under it. so it goes under. called the SUBDUCTION ZONE.

(JAPAN IS like this)

- (oceanic-continental) as it subducts, it melts which comes up to the surface where it makes VOLCANIC ISLAND ARCS, on the continental plate.

Accretionary prism: where plate subducts it scrapes off layers of sediment which accumulates at the boundary.

- continental-continental: causes major uplift which makes major mountain belts.

MOUNTAIN BUILDING: OROGENY

- oceanic crust can get incorporated into the uplifted land called; DIPLIOLITES. which give geoscientist an idea of what the oceanic lithosphere's made of.
- Appalation mtn belts; 3 different collisions. Appalations were there on pangea, then when it broke up they were made up again, still a mystery why it re-opened up at the same place.

himalayas  
(to mya)

234567  
2345678



2.50

PAUL

PAUL HUSSMAN

#1

LECTURE #10

BLING  
BLING

- older plate goes under younger plate since its denser
- spreading rates vary in the different mid-ocean ridges, they're moving relative to each other
- using satellites with lasers & stuff (within fractions of cm) you can tell how fast plates are moving. (call relative motion)
- need a fixed point on earth.

Intra-plate volcanism: linear volcanic mountain chains.

- hawaiian islands: sit in middle of pacific plate. (HOT SPOTS)
- suite of volcanic islands, dated using K-Ar isotopes moving away from hawaii, the mountains get older & older.
- could be used to determine actual motion of plates.
- magma rises from these spots like a volcano. As it goes through the lithosphere, it creates new volcanoes. As the plate moves, a new volcano comes up which tracks the absolute movement of the pacific plate over this PERMANENT hot spot.
- LOIHI: next volcanic island in hawaiian islands, popping out as pacific plate moves over this hot spot.
- New Islands come every ~1000000 years.
- (we're assuming the hot spot doesn't move but we don't know why).

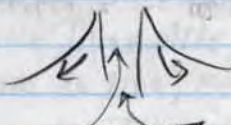
- over 100 hotspots are identified on earth. ~40 are still active today.
- by following the trace of the hot spots we can reconstruct the velocity of the plates.

What causes plates to move?

[ridge push, slab pull.]

RIDGE-PUSH:

?? ☆



pushing up, falling outward, gravity pulls one down since mid ocean ridges are higher ridge pushes on lithosphere of plate & it pulls it down

SLAB PULL:



weight pulling plate down & through,

also asthenosphere is convection causing heat to come up and sustain the system

NHL 09



LECTURE #11 (After Video)

PPT:

EPSC201 29 Jan

www.eps.mcgill.ca → department → course website → 201 WINTER

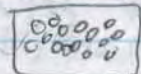
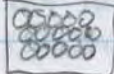
MINERALS

- Definition → Homogeneous (can't be broken down into components)
- Naturally Occurring: NOT MAN MADE.
  - Solid Substance (except for Hg (mercury))
  - DEFINABLE Chemical composition
  - Orderly arrangement of atoms
  - Inorganic (generally) → do not arise from organic processes.

Bonaville Salt Flats.  
(bottom of alkali rich lake which dried up & formed layers of salt at the bottom).

Halite, NaCl (Table Salt), is a cubic mineral

Order vs Disorder



Glass = solid with no order to structure  
↳ super cooled silicate melt, rolled & quenched.  
VOLCANIC GLASS IS NOT A MINERAL since it doesn't have a definite structure.

Snowflakes: perfectly hexagonal crystals less than 1mm across, another formation at each vertex happens the colder it is, the more extreme the protrusion is.

No two snowflakes are alike.

Volcanic rocks are made similarly.

Popstiles are the ice with sugary stuff between the pointy parts.

Ice is held together with H-Bonds (not very strong so it melts).

ICE IS A MINERAL (fits the 6 parts of the definition).

Quartz: SiO<sub>2</sub> most mpt crystal in earth's crust. (got to know it)

- used in electronics (watches), ceramics, glass,

- it has 6 sides and pyramids on top

- bubbles trap fluids inside which tell us what stuff it grew in.

Smoky Quartz: Little Three Mine, California; black Quartz.

Rose Quartz: Lavra da Ilha, Minas Gerais, Brazil; pink Quartz

↳ due to Ti, Fe, Mn...

Typical massive quartz: Tanco Mine, Manitoba

grew somewhere with little space

irregular surfaces (as seen in rocks).

Potassium-feldspar - MICROCLINE (a polymorph of K-feldspar)

- Aracua district, Minas Gerais, Brazil

- beige in colour

Amazonitic Microcline - green thing

(bathroom break)

Footprints



~~MINERALOGY~~

~~HOSSMAN~~

~~ARTISTE~~

Biotite (dark mica) - used as an indicator sheetsilicate

Beryl, variety aquamarine, Pakistan (birthstone for March).  
Faceted emerald; new discovery in the Yukon (CANADIAN DISCOVERY)

cut by a person according to certain guidelines

Canada is #3 producer of diamond as of 4, 5 years.

emeralds from Columbia - more valuable than diamond on a gram per gram basis.

Beryl:  $(Be_3Al_2Si_6O_{18})$  need a tiny bit of chromium instead of Al.

Zircon, Lawton, Oklahoma  $ZrSiO_4$  key mineral for dating rocks.

(don't need to know formulas)



LECTURE #12

$\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  - GYPSUM, soft mineral, worlds largest crystals.  
 Roughly 4000 minerals. 50 are added each year.

named after locality, discoverer, important property, important person, important institution.

- McGill connections: Adams, Dawson
- minerals are recognized by their physical properties, symmetry, shape, hardness, luster, ... etc.



- The structure of minerals is the field of crystallography.
- Crystallographers look at xray diffraction patterns to see arrangement of atoms.

- GALENA (PbS) has a structure like NaCl.

- shapes: cube, diamond, quartz, garnet, sibirite,

-  $\text{FeS}_2$ : FOOLS GOLD, cubes with striations.

- HARDNESS.

MOHS HARDNESS SCALE

• Talc Gypsum, Fingernail, Calcite, Penny, Fluorite, quartzite, glass, steel knife  
 orthoclase, steel file, quartz, topaz, corundum (ruby), diamond.

• NOT LINEAR, diamond is much higher.

tongue pressings damage teeth.

TORONTO GIRLS CAN FLIRT ← acronym for hardness scale

- Talc: used in cars, layered structure.,  $\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$  mag nesium silicate hydrates.  
 used on baby's bums.

- Calcite,  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ; with heat turns to  $\text{CaO} + \text{CO}_2$

$\text{CaO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$  make  $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$  (lime).

lime mixed w/ quartz & feldspar makes Cement.

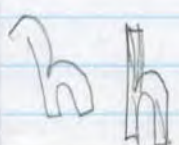
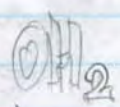
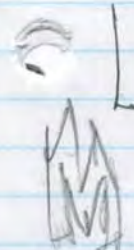
AND MANY QUEER THINGS CAN DO (the rest of the acronym),

bones, teeth are made of apatite.  $\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3(\text{F, OH, Cl})$ .

polymorph:

TORONTO GIRLS CAN FLIRT AND MANY QUEER THINGS CAN DO.

TALC GYPSUM CALCITE FLUORITE APATITE QUARTZ TOPAZ CORUNDUM DIAMOND



Hardy



## LECTURE #13

## GRAPHITE

WRITTEN W/ GRAPHITE STONE.

## ATOMIC STRUCTURE OF DIAMOND.

C-C covalent bonds in crystal lattice structure  
 magreat # of 8 electrons is satisfied

shaped by computer until you can see maximum colours  
 diamond is in North West Territories, south Africa, somewhere else.  
 it is under the lakes from glaciers in NWT. in south africa its just  
 on the ground (no glaciers).

diamond is found below lithosphere (in the asthenosphere) (~150km deep)  
 above that its graphite.

diamond needs to come up to earth twice speed of sound  
 to survive otherwise it will convert to graphite.  
 heating diamond rings will cause graphite to form.  
 rocks w/ graphite in them used to be diamond.

## CLASSES OF MINERALS

- Silicates, sulfates, (gypsum)
- Halides (halite, fluorite)
- Carbonates - ( $\text{CO}_3$ ) - like calcite  $\text{CaCO}_3$
- Sulfides - ( $\text{S}^{2-}$ ) like galena (PbS)
- native metals (Cu, Ag)
- Native elements: like diamond & graphite (C)

## Importance of silicates

silicate - oxygen tetrahedron

Olivine, Perovskite, Amphibole, Mica, Quartz, Feldspar

Polymerization: degree of sharing oxygens.

Olivine; Mg or Fe silicate  
chain silicates



LECTURE 14

- In the future maybe robots will be able to mine deeper & get more diamonds & stuff.
  - Mining is very dangerous for the time being.
  - diamonds have to come up from way down there really fast. by magma or something.
  - If it doesn't come up fast enough, it will just turn back to graphite.
  - Metastability diamonds don't look like they're changing but they slowly are. They prefer to be at much higher pressures. They are metastable.
- ★ → - how is it possible to find animal deposits from way down deep?  
Subduction due to seafloor spreading can bring them down.

ROCKS

234567

- Aggregation of minerals, which are held together by cohesive forces
  - Special case: many grains of a particular mineral make a rock.
- IGNEOUS ROCKS: have been through a molten stage. (recent melts) of material that used to be earth.

Volcanic Glass  
(another special case)

METAMORPHIC ROCK: squashed, heated, recrystallized sediments

SEDIMENTARY ROCKS: layers of sediments that get compressed into rocks

BASALT (50% silica)  
type of magma  
Hawaii

Lava flows in Hawaii

1200 °C at point of exit.

ropy lava means it flowed slowly, far from source.

blocky lava cooled close to source & fast.

Shield volcano (like Hawaii).

magma 50% silica is very runny.

Andesite 62%

75%

gradational display of explosiveness depending on the order of the tetrahedral structure

Rhyolite = very dangerous. (next class).

Shield Volcano (Hawaii)

Stratovolcano

smaller, sharper  
(more volcanic)

PAUL HUSSMAN

Paul Hussman



curtain eruption

Dike / sill (vertical, lateral) cracks in land.

Hiday



volcanoes happen at plate margins a lot.  
andesite comes from subduction - Strato volcanoes. (andes)

Hawaii = hotspot in middle of plate.

Mid-Ocean Ridge: have rifts which are curtains of lava,  
doesn't explode, just flows very slowly made of basalt.  
remelted continental crust.

## Volcanoes

Stratovolcano: different methods of eruption

danger of viscous lava:

stuff in clouds falls down & sediments on top.  
mud-flows can engulf entire towns.

STRATO ⇒ POMPEII (VESUVIUS)



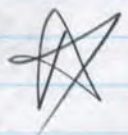
SHEILD ⇒ HAWAII





LECTURE #15  
Petrology (STUDY OF ROCKS)

50% Basaltic Magma, low viscosity  
65% high viscosity (kraft peanut butter). stratovolcanoes high, steep, narrow base



Granite: polished w/ corundum paste, contains 4 minerals, high silica content  
quartz, Sodium rich Feldspar, K-feldspar, mica.  
①                      ②                      ③                      ④

Island Arcs; why are they in arcs?  
Andesitic Rocks form subduction zones. 2 ml yrs?

- Mt. Fuji, Japan → Andesitic/Stratovolcano; Pyroclastic flow. stratosphere haze  
eruption cloud (fine particles, ash, makes a cloud can be carried by wind very far)
- Pinchincha, Ecuador
- Anak, Krakatau (Indonesia) → lahar (mud flow) → read about it, (follows a river system).  
- the more silica content, the more dangerous it is. same the structure of the rock is strong & bubbles build up a shit load of pressure & it explodes.

- glass particles made of alkalis & phosphorus & stuff rains down & is very very good for fertilization. so its good for agriculture. (glass breaks down w/ water & feeds crops).

Mt Vesuvius }  
79 A.D. }

\* Nuée ardente (Pompeii): near the base of the volcano theres a cloud w/ chunks of magma & gas (FLUIDIZATION); a lubricated solid, incandecant, liberates gases on which this stuff spreads very rapidly. Engulfs cities, towns, people & everything.

1991 - Philippines - Mt Pinatubo: Ash fall (like snow but denser). causes damage to rooves.

(Santorini)

1873 - Krakatau Eruption, 10000 times hershima explosion. 36000 killed. 18 km<sup>3</sup> material was ejected, island disappeared. caused a tsunami. boat was found many metres above sealevel.

Volcanic Gas sampling → direct sampling  
→ remote sampling (spectrophotometer).

deep rock: plutonic  
volcanic rock (higher up).

Mount Royal: intrusive body - magma lifting sedimentary rock to make a bump. magma bubble underneath stays down there.

Dike, Sill (vertical, lateral cracks in land).



Batholiths: highlands because of uplifts & erosion

Dikes: vertical structures where magma comes up a crack.

Sills: magma spreads laterally, lifts rock above.



GRANITE: - quartz

- mica

- Na-Spar

- K-spar

} minerals.



## LECTURE 16.

### RHYOLITIC VOLCANISM.

even higher  $SiO_2$  contents! (even greater than andesitic magma),  
 also more  $H_2O$  content (melting the crust),  
 $H_2O$  builds up pressure & explodes a lot.

Yellowstone park, Wyoming. : Yellowstone caldera  
 Island Park Caldera in Idaho

Yellowstone / HOTSPOT like Hawaii Islands. (mantle heats, melts crust).

Geysers, fumaroles

Water heats up & boils & erupts & it repeats.

↳ water is near surface origin  
 sometimes earthquakes arise from the foo.

### WAYS OF ROCKS MELTING.

• decompression melting how most of sea floor is made (mid ocean ridge).

• cross section of sea floor: scarps, sediment, basalt, dike, gabbro, mantle just below, crystal mush, magma chamber.

• hydration melting: subduction:

basalt reacts w/ seawater, becomes hydrated basalt.

old sea floor heats up releasing water. (at partial melting zone),  
 wet rock melts easier by a lot (by a couple hundred degrees),

$H_2O$  gives product more silica which makes andesitic volcanoes.  
 silica content increases as it rises.

know types of rocks discussed

fenocryst: new crystal

sp?

gabbro: equivalent to basalt crystals.  
 calcium rich plagioclase, pyroxene

rhyolite has flow texture, crystal fragments. made of fragments of stuff. phenocryst

Pumice (frothy & light), Granite

Properties of certain types of rocks.

SM

IRC

WOW

W

Paul H

1882

Mid Ocean Ridge

M  
 15500  
 Impossible  
 GREEN



This lecture will not be on midterm, but it will be in the final.

PAUL HUSSMAN.

LECTURE #17

(Biotite?)

Granite: Quartz, K-feldspar, Na rich plagioclase, dark mineral like mica. Its easy to bypass crystallization: cooling rate can be controlled in a furnace.

Sequence of crystallization;

as snowflakes are made they fall since they're more dense than air, same deal w/ rocks.

the crystals form in magma & settle material left over in liquid is different (w/ a little bit of H<sub>2</sub>O) H<sub>2</sub>O doesn't go into crystals.

∴ H<sub>2</sub>O proportion increases in magma

crystallization happens in a specific pattern

BOUEN'S REACTION SERIES.

Mafic, Intermediate, Silicic (what minerals do they contain?)

mineral resources (end of course).

Chromite; dense mineral, small particles settle quickly bottom of magma = layer of chromite chromium comes from this.

This is mostly in SOUTH AFRICA.

Midterm FRIDAY FEB 16, 2007

In class, short questions, short answers

NO Multiple choice, ch. 1-4, Int. A, 7.

ROCK CYCLE

• Igneous changes to metamorphic rocks by temperature & pressure

Recrystallization

snow accumulates & recrystallizes to ice which is what we ski on ice is more crystallized if its older/deeper.

Is glacier ice a rock? YES; it is an assemblage of one or more minerals.

limestone → marble

VENUS DE MILLO

marble is a favorite for sculptures. (slightly larger than real life statue)

arms are no longer there.

marble (calcite) hardness = 3 fingernails = 2.5 ∴ cant be damaged but easy to carve.

PAUL HUSSMAN

Paul Hussman (see Powerpoint)

Hussman



ABCDEFGHIJKLMN  
OPQRST  
UVWXYZ

PAUL HUS

Q  
R

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvw

ABCDEFGHIJKLMN  
OPQRST



rocks get squished resulting in elongation of the crystals  
damaged rocks that are more squished are more soluble.

Shearing: rocks (deck of cards) shift along a plane. SLATE shingles.

slaty cleavage: product of metamorphic differential stress.





Paul Hussman

FEB 14, 2007.

Paul Hussman Hello My Name is Paul.

LECTURE # 18

Midterm: Short Answer, (don't repeat the question) Paul  
8 of 12 questions must be answered.

Recrystallization: (marble) are softer.  
(calcite)  
(limestone)

movement during recrystallization  
different stress & folding. (deck of cards: slaty cleavage).  
mica nucleates causing slaty cleavage.

PHYLLITE: a bit higher grade than slate.

SCHIST: a bit higher grade than phyllite, defined by muscovite.

METAMORPHISM & FORMATION OF NEW MINERALS.

FOLIATION

SCHISTOSITY

Biotite garnet schist: will break along line due to orientation of crystals.

GNEISS: highest metamorphic grade

**GNEISS** muscovite converted to kalspar.  
alternating light & dark layers.  
presence of garnet tells us that

ANATHEXIS (PARTIAL MELTING) formation of migmatites.

melting causes lines to go horizontally instead of vertically.

[Renew Rock Cycle Slide]

Mount Royal is a laccolith from 125 million years ago.  
but its very small. Its a bulging in the crust due to a batch of  
lava pushing up on it from underneath.

Hornfels: re-cooking of slate loses foliation

Sheet Silicate

Metamorphic Minerals. Tell you what grade

aluminosilicate minerals & metamorphic grade  
andalusite, sillimite, kyanite (polymorphs).

contact metamorphism

increasing temperature  
???

in this kind of rock  
GNEISS

Lectura  
NEISS

M &  
M &

MN

OP

QRS



PAUL  
HUSSMAN.

Monday, Feb 26, 2007

LECTURE # 19

Metamorphic Index Minerals.

look for indicator minerals:

$Al_2SiO_5$  Aluminosilicate has 3 polymorphs. like diamond/graphite  
↳ Andalusite, Kyanite, Sillimanite. (according to metamorphic grade).

Metamorphic Facies

- Zoone
- green schist
- amphibolite
- granulite
- P-P
- blueschist
- eclogite

Prograde Metamorphism (upcycle)

Retrograde Metamorphism (downcycle)

- decompressing & cooling as it's coming up
- add  $H_2O$  &  $CO_2$

Observations show prograde metamorphism



Paul  
Hussman



(1st offer Indonesia)

LECTURE # 20

★ FINAL EXAM APR. 19, 2007, 9AM (TENTATIVE)

mountain belts disappear due to weathering erosion & mass-wasting.  
like a rusting car - fairly slow process, but happens always, everywhere.

Intimately related processes!

WEATHERING: chemical decay & physical fragmentation of rock under earth surface conditions.

EROSION: transport of rock fragments and mineral by a mobile agent. (typically water & wind).

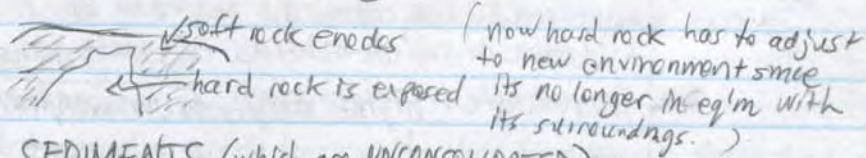
MASS-WASTING: transfer of rock material down slope under the influence of gravity.

[We are going to discuss weathering more than erosion & mass wasting.]

- why do rocks weather?

weathering is the rock's response to a changing environment.

example mont royal:



- weathering results in SEDIMENTS (which are UNCONSOLIDATED)

Sediments can be converted to sedimentary rock through diagenesis & specifically through a process called lithification.

Surface Area is increased

∴ more material available for chemical weathering

(rxn rate is proportional to SA)

- PHYSICAL (mechanical) WEATHERING: fragmentation of rock (into smaller pieces) while keeping composition/mineralogy intact.

- CHEMICAL WEATHERING: chemical composition of minerals is degraded in the rock constituents. (can result in new minerals that are more stable under earth's conditions). (rate depends on surface area exposed).

WAYS FOR ROCKS TO FRACTURE (4 ways)

- usually fracture on weak spots.

(called joints)

very efficient →

1. UNLOADING: release of pressure, removing stuff above, rocks expand under, crack \*

2. FROST WEDGING: result of alternate freezing & thawing of water (ice expands 9%)

3. THERMAL EXPANSION: forest fires can cause the outside of rocks to explode (mechanical weathering)

4. ORGANIC ACTIVITY: (plants & other organisms) seeds, roots in cracks, bacteria makes acids (CO<sub>2</sub> etc.) which accelerates chemical weathering.

\*cracks let water in which starts weathering even before exposed to the surface.

COLUMNAR JOINTS: hexagonal prisms 10s of metres high (result of contraction of cooling rock).

EXFOLIATIONS: peeling like onion skin: creates an accumulation of rock debris w/ physical weathering



SPHEROIDAL WEATHERING: the more SA exposed, the faster the weathering.

- the more a square rock erodes, it turns round.
- round rocks can roll easier away from the site.

Weathering Rate depends on a few things...; it varies.

- Properties of rock (its constituents)
- Climate  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{rainfall: water is a very good solvent} \\ \text{temperature} \end{array} \right. \rightarrow \text{holds minerals \& chemicals in solution} \begin{array}{l} \text{organic acids} \\ \text{which help} \\ \text{w/ weathering} \end{array}$
- Presence of soil & vegetation
- slope
- time.
- Stability
- Solubility.

olivine is a very easily weathered mineral (follows Bowen's rxn series).

- Water can hold in chemicals that are useful for accelerating weathering  
oxidation of sulfide minerals can make sulfuric acid which degrades rocks.
- Temperature: higher temp, faster weathering rate.



(2nd after Indonesia)

PAUL HUSSMAN.

Mar. 2, 2007

## LECTURE #21

Weathering, Mass Wasting, Erosion

Bedding: plane of weakness in the rock due to weathering.

Fractures occur when igneous rock cools since it contracts which make columnar joints [hexagonal columns] [can be seen if you walk up PEEL st.]

Exfoliation: as a result of UNLOADING rock cracks since less pressure is on top of it.

Chemical weathering occurs better since water can get in cracks.

Physical weathering occurs since water can freeze in cracks & expands, pushing blocks apart. [FROST WEDGING]

Talus slope: when frost wedging occurs on a slope and sediments accumulate at the bottom of the slope.

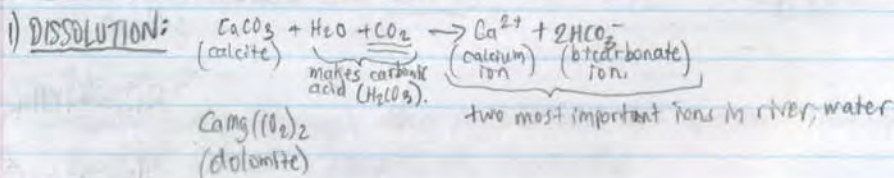
Thermal weathering: Forest fires cause exterior of rocks to explode.

Weathering occurs on surfaces: surface area matters. cubes erode on corners since that's where the most surface area per unit volume exists.

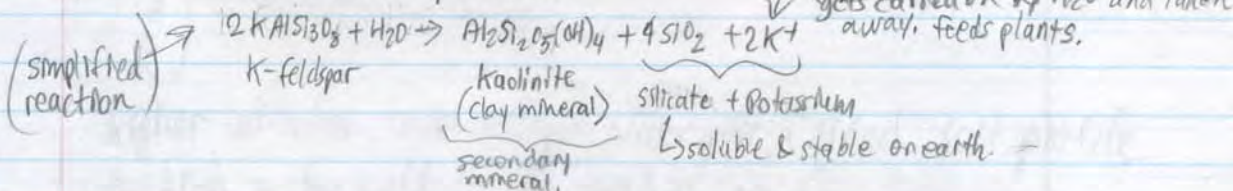
### Factors that affect weathering rates

- solubility, structure, composition, surface area
- climate, rainfall & temperature: rain brings eroding stuff to erode rocks, ↑ temp, ↑ rate.
- presence of soil & vegetation: trees grow, roots push rocks apart
- slope steepness: soil will not accumulate, gravity helps,
- length of exposure: time

## ★ CHEMICAL WEATHERING breakdown of rock to its minerals, which makes new minerals.

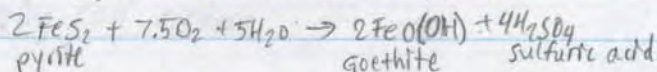


2) HYDROLYSIS: Substitution of H<sup>+</sup> or OH<sup>-</sup> (constituents of water) in a mineral. forms a secondary mineral.



3) OXIDATION: Reaction of atmospheric oxygen with reduced mineral constituents.

Pyrite: FeS<sub>2</sub>, both Iron & Sulfur are Reduced.



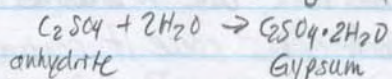
olivine, pyrite contain reduced iron (Fe<sup>2+</sup>)

Fe<sup>2+</sup> → Fe<sup>3+</sup>  
ferrous ferric

Handy



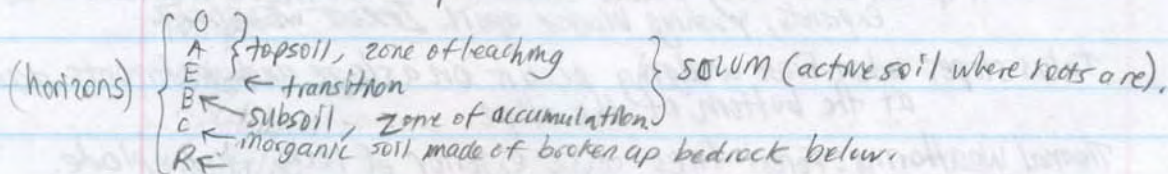
**HYDRATION:** Addition of water to minerals, minerals that were originally anhydrous, get hydrated in presence of water.



(weaken the structure of rocks by expanding)

SOIL FORMATION

material gets leached out of surface which leads to separation of material in soil profile



**ELUVIATION:** LEACHING OF MINERAL CONSTITUENTS.

N

O

P



(3rd after Indonesia)

## LECTURE #22

Factors that affect weathering rates:

- Properties of rock (or its mineral constituents: reactivity, solubility, structure)
- Climate
- Presence of soil & vegetation
- Slope steepness
- length of exposure (time).

silicate rocks are more resistant to weathering (fomb's pores)

### Chemical Weathering

Dissolution: mineral constituent goes into solution immediately

Hydrolysis: water replaces some other part of the molecule

Oxidation: reaction w/ oxygen (like Iron Oxide)

Hydrations: minerals get hydrated, expand which changes the properties.

### Dissolution

affects carbonate molecules  
weathering of marble

### Hydrolysis

weathering of granite (K-spar  $\rightarrow$  kaolinite + quartz)

silica

### oxidation

- affects minerals like olivine  $Fe^{2+} \rightarrow Fe^{3+}$  and pyrite
- rusting

### Soils

soils develop through the percolation of water through materials in the ground. results in layering.

Horizons

O

A

E

B

R

} soil profile.

higher latitudes have enough water for a good soil profile

too high = too cold  $\therefore$  no chemical weathering (no soil)

so physical weathering occurs

we're not doing soil orders.

Dissolution



3 3 3 45  
 34 (Al) (Fe) (Ca) (Al)

3 types of soils: Pedalfer, Podocal, Laterite

Pedalfer: fair amount of rainfall, soil well developed, leaching occurs. ∴ carbonate poor, rich in Iron & Aluminum oxide

Podocal:

Laterite: soluble minerals have been leached out  
 - infertile (almost no nutrients)  
 - hard (can make bricks or paint).  
 - Africa  
 - very thick

Z  
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 haolyrod

Sediments produced by weathering of bedrock.

fragments of rock & byproducts accumulated unsorted by gravitational deposition (stones roll down hill).

Various types of sediments are defined by the way they accumulate and separate on land.

- Compaction & cementation convert sediments into sedimentary rock.
- Most of earth's surface is covered by sediments or sedimentary rock even though sedimentary rock is only a small volume of earth's crust
- they are important because they determine earth have a record of the earth's history, and

Wopsvu  
 jump  
 trampol  
 ine

Sources of Sediments

clastic/detrital sediments: originate as solid fragments that are carried to the site of deposition.

chemical sediments: soluble material precipitated by inorganic processes

biochemical sediments: soluble material precipitated by organisms.

organic sediments: made of remnants of biological material. (carbon-rich)

clays: insoluble, stable, result of weathering of quartz. stablest thing & fairly insoluble.

Rock flour: mixture of fine grain minerals as a result of glaciers

clastic sediments are classified in terms of their size.

- boulders: >25.6cm
- cobbles:
- pebbles:
- sand:
- silt:
- clay: 1 or 2 microns in size.

Clipzo



### LECTURE #23

#### Horizons; layering of soil profile

Soil quality depends on many things  
Most importantly on climate (amount of rainfall & temperature)  
but also steepness of slope, etc.

latitudes: too close to equator = too hot, less water = immature soils.  
temperate regions: substantial soils that can sustain vegetation  
soil 7-10m thick.

#### Soil types

Pedalter:

Petocal:

Laterite:

#### Sediments

mud at bottom of lake, dust on windowsill = sediment  
usually taken away from its place of formation  
final resting place usually oceans.  
through processes such as sedimentation <sup>lithification</sup> it is made into  
Sedimentary rock.

sediments are weathered ~~to~~ physically or chemically.  
size of sediment depends on how it's made or how it is moving.  
as they go down hills they get smaller  
Sand particles travel very far (sand particles from sahara go by  
wind to miami florida over the entire ocean, these  
particles are sorted since only a certain "class" can make  
it the whole way across (depends on size & weight).

#### Sources of sediment

• Clastic/detrital: originate and are transported as solids  
and deposited as solids

Chemical sediments: soluble material made by chem. weathering,  
precipitated by inorganic processes

Biocemical sediments: soluble material

Organic sediments

456

789

55

55

55

5

55

55

55

55

55678

89 78910

8678

7850780

467850380

467850380

9999



- Plates of clay =  $< 2$  microns across.  
 clays are stable, soluble, fine grain, make up most of clastic sediments.
- Clastic { Quarts; mostly in clastic sediments, strong structure
- Clastic sediments; boulder, cobble, pebble, granule, sand, silt, mud.

### Chemical Sediments

- mineral constituents as a result of chemical weathering most precipitated by organisms (biogenic).
- Stalactites and Stalagmites are chemical sediments
- Silica deposited from hot springs. (crystallization).
- Corral Reefs; precipitated by organisms.
- Microfossils; produce most limestone deposits through biochemical processes (biochem) Coccolithophores, foraminifera, diatoms, radiolaria
- Evaporites; made from evaporating water.  $CaCO_3$   $SiO_2$   
 when evaporation exceeds runoff & condensation rates, salts are deposited since salt content of air is high.  
 Halites, sylvite, gypsum.

organic sediments; carbon-rich (like coal).

Diagenesis (converting sediments into sedimentary rock).

uses processes (LITHIFICATION) converting unconsolidated (loose) particles are converted into solid rock.

happens through compaction & cementation.

Compaction: accumulation of sediments get compressed under their own weight. the water gets squeezed out from between the sediment particles. the porosity decreases

↳ volume of water in pores / volume of sediment.

Cementation: process by which minerals are precipitated between mineral grains. which "welds" them together  
 calcite & silica & iron oxides

Classification of 5-meters (hardest rocks)

clast size: size

composition: what it's made of

Sphericity: how round it is. & angularity (how elongated it is),  $\square$ ,  $\square$ ,  $\square$

Sorting: all same size or all different.

Character of cement: silica, calcite, iron oxides.



GM

LECTURE #23 CONT'D

Conglomerates w/ sandstone lenses.

↳ rounded edges

Sandstone; when most particles are sand grain size.

↳ if most are quartz then its quartz sandstone.

↳ waste: quartz, feldspar, clay

GILA

3 types of sandstone

Siltstone (smaller than sand but larger than clay)  
not a very well held together rock.

Shale silt & clay size particles held together by pressure  
breaks concordably. (not in straight line)

W/lood

$M_B = \frac{1}{2} M_{max}$  at  $\frac{1}{2}$  point  $V_B = 15.2/2$

$= \frac{1}{2} 0.09775 M \cdot 0.02 L$

$V_B$

$= 1.2362 \times 10^{-4} M$





ultimate product of chem weathering & stable on earth  
most stable thing on earth  
Clastic Sediments (Clays & Quartz)  
Classes of sediments (boulders & pebbles...)  
CaCO<sub>3</sub> in ocean sediments comes from sediments of microorganisms  
White cliffs of Dover made mostly of foraminifera  
evaporites: mineral precipitates from evaporating water  
like table salt

Coal (carbon-rich remains of plants)  
DIAGENESIS → lithification  
 → compaction } sediments → sedimentary rock  
 → cementation }  
 clays & silts (fine particles)  
 coarse grains (calcium carbonate, silica (hardest rock), iron oxides)

clast size, composition, angularity & sphericity, sorting by size, character.  
Conglomerates: round clast edges (material was transported far before cementation)  
Breccia: sharp clasts (material was cemented before travelling anywhere far)

Quartz Sandstone: each grain is made up mostly of quartz  
- weak

Siltstone: made of silt grains, made from compaction, crumble easily  
shales: made from compaction of fine clay particles, doesn't crumble  
↳ show lineation, breaks along beddings.  
mudstone breaks concordantly.

Bioclimical Sed. Rocks

cherts  
evaporites

- Limestone: can be precipitated inorganically but mostly biogenically
  - Coquina: cemented mass of shell fragments
  - white cliffs of Dover; mostly foraminifera make it up.
  - CaCO<sub>3</sub> inorganically made from hot springs due to supersaturating & precipitates when it's heated its less soluble which precipitates.
  - Dolomite (another type of marble) w/ magnesium, named after the dolomite mountains. (slow process, no new ones, all are very old).  
Rock = dolomite mineral = dolomite (same name)

cherts: made of microcrystalline silica, hard rock, inorganically precipitated ultimately but most have a diagenetic source (recrystallized)

- FLINTS: arrowheads, conchoidal fracture, very hard, contains organic matter
- JASPER: red, chert w/ iron oxide :: red jewelry
- Petrified wood: silica reprecipitates in wood after its buried in sand as wood decays, holds structure of the wood.

Evaporites: from lake/sea water precipitates.  
where evaporation exceeds precipitation  
EVAPSUM (CaSO<sub>4</sub> · 2H<sub>2</sub>O)



## Organic sedimentary rocks (coal)

Coal forms in swampy areas when organic matter accumulates under  $O_2$  poor, waterlogged conditions.

320mya in carboniferous areas, coal was made from swampy lands organic matter converts to peat then lignite **COALIFICATION!** then lignite is converted to bituminous coal (most abundant on earth but dirtier to burn).  
(metamorphism)  
then converts to anthracite which is harder but cleaner (too hard to easily mine).

## BEDDING, STRATA & FORMATIONS (layers)

- layers are the most distinctive feature of sedimentary rocks which cover 70% of the earth's surface.
- **BEDDING PLANE** (where rock normally breaks) - area between layers.
- **FORMATIONS**: sequence of layers that were precipitated under similar environmental conditions of deposition, usually sandwiched ~~in~~ by very different types of layers
- **RIPPLES**: river or ocean currents cause ripples to be cemented in sedimentary rocks.
- **CROSSBEDDING**: inclined layers like sand dunes caused by crest material to be carried to the troughs. happens in different directions depending on wind, water.
- **MUDCRACKS**:



LECTURE # 25

**EARTHQUAKE:** vibrations due to fractures of rock

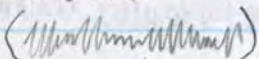
- when rocks break energy is released, S-waves are emitted and felt on the earth's surface.
- earthquakes happen all the time but they're too small to feel.
- quite a few are harmful though
- **FAULTING:** movement of lithospheric plates relative to each other.
- Earthquakes are mainly caused by **FAULTING**, usually at plate boundaries.
- **Seismology** (dates back ~2000 yrs) study of earthquakes.

**Seismoscope:** first instrument to measure earthquakes (32 BC).

ball would fall from dragons mouth into frogs mouth

**Seismographs:** weight on spring attached to pen & rotating drum

extremely sensitive instruments that they can detect vibrations as small as atoms. can detect wind.

**seismogram:** record of a seismograph 

shows location and energy of earth quake. (& the type).

**Focus/hypocentre:** point where waves are released from.

**epicentre:** position on the surface of the earth directly above the hypocentre.

Earth quakes are triggered when stress is applied on rocks.

stress is released when it builds up to the point that rock breaks/fractures. when rock breaks it causes an earthquake.

**Tectonic Forces** (responsible for rock fracture).

**Compressive Forces:** squeezing & shortening rocks (at convergent margins)

**Tensional Forces:** stretching of rock, pulling it apart (at divergent margins).

**Shearing Forces:** Push two sides of rock in opposite directions (transform faults).

**FAULT:** plane along a fracture.

**Classification of faults.**

**Inclination of the surface:**

**Relative movement of rock on its 2 sides.**

- Vertical displacements:

- Horizontal displacements:

- Horizontal & Vertical



Dip-slip fault: hanging wall slips below footwall  
Inclination is angle of fault scarp. (dip angle).  
strike line: where rock splits

Normal faulting at rift valleys  
plates move apart, make horsts & Grabens at the new rift.

Reverse faulting

plates move together,  
hanging wall is pushed up above footwall

Thrust fault: when dip angle is small like  $30^\circ$ .

Strike-slip faults: result of shearing.

Left lateral: } sit on one and see what direction land on other side is moving  
right lateral: }

oblique slip faults: combination of tensional & compressional and shearing forces.

San andreas: energy is released bit by bit since stress is permanent.  
(STICK & SLIP behaviour).

- elastic rebound theory (1874)

crust bends at san andreas fault until Apr. 1906 when strain was released & it was no longer bent (they had markers in the ground).

today there are markers in the ground monitored by lasers & satellites & GPS.  
stress built up in land over time can be easily monitored which helps predict earthquakes.

faults can be thousands of kilometers long.

horizontal displacement can be 15 m

vertical displacement can be up to 50 m (Alaska).

Mar, 1964: vertical displacement of 11.5 m (in Anchorage, Alaska)  
"good friday earthquake".

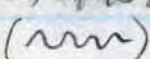
Energy is transmitted through seismic waves.

on surface of earth we feel surface waves.

Rayleigh waves } occur slowly on earth's surface.

Love waves }

Body waves travel through the earth (faster than surface waves)

Fastest type → Primary - compressional waves. travel through solids, liquids & gases  
Secondary - shear waves (like a rope fixed at one end. )  
- only travel through solids.

efg

1234



PAUL HUSMAN

## Lecture # 25 (cont'd).

Since seismic waves occur at different speeds, it allows us to measure how far away earthquakes are.

using seismographs in different locations on earth and the measured wave speeds of each type, location of quake is found. need 3 locations on earth to find spot w/ triangulation.

technology today allows us to determine magnitude & position of earthquakes in the matter of seconds



## LECTURE # 26

LECT

Earthquakes: vibrations caused by released energy when rocks under stress break, happens at faults

study of earthquakes, seismology.

measured by seismographs  $\in$  very sensitive instruments that measure vibrations in all 3 dimensions

seismogram: history of seismograph which shows location & intensity of quake.

HYPOCENTRE: underground source of earthquake

EPICENTRE: point on surface of earth above the hypocentre

Tectonic forces cause stress in rocks

different types of tectonic forces cause different types of faults.

- Dip-slip fault, strike-slip fault, oblique-slip fault.

- stick & slip behaviour: stress is applied, builds up and is suddenly released when rocks break.

energy released is in the form of seismic waves.

surface waves (love waves & rayleigh waves) happen through the surface of the medium (solid, liquid, gas).

Body waves Primary waves  
Secondary waves (solids only)

### Determining the magnitude of an earthquake

by determining the stress stored before an earthquake, and displacement of land it could be estimated how strong the earthquake is but it's not a reliable method.

Charles Richter: by measuring the amplitudes of the surface waves, the strength of earthquakes can be determined (scale is logarithmic)  
It's measured from 100km away.

energy of an earthquake is determined by Amplitude  $A$  and frequency  $f$   
 $E = f^2 A^2$

vibrations result in damage, but fires caused most damage. (gas lines)

if land moves/vibrations happen in the ocean, it can generate a tsunami.

Tsunamis are HUGE tidal waves. unlike storm waves they have extremely large wavelengths but small amplitudes. they have momentum built up when they strike land. they affect deep water too.

december 26 2004 tsunami affected indonesia, srilanka, africa...

tsunamis happen quite often in history. they are recurring events.

shallow earthquakes are more common since brittle rock is at surface  
deep ones happen at subduction zones since subducting plate maintains some brittleness as it goes down into the mantle. up to 700km deep earthquakes can happen.

### Isostatic rebound.

when ice melts, pressure is relieved on earth, crust rebounds, generates earthquakes



Predicting Earthquakes; cant be done short term.  
long term can be determined by stresses on land and how frequent they are, we only know 50 years back.

- ancient evidence like fault scarps are still fairly recent since its not eroded away.
- dating layers of the ground, displacement can be detected and magnitude.
- probability of earthquakes can be estimated.
- maps of seismic hazard have been put together.





LECTURE #27

Richter scale: logarithmic scale.  
reports max amplitude of surface waves  
100km away from epicentre.

Amplitude is only a fractional measure of the energy.  
energy is a function of both frequency and amplitude  
surface wave amplitude increases by a factor of 10  
energy increases by a factor of 32.

destruction of buildings due to movement of crust  
and fires cause a lot of damage & deaths.

earthquakes can induce landslides.

fine grain soils (sand & clay) if shaken up, liquify. mud volcanoes  
can erupt, stuff can sink, toilet drain exploded

Tsunami: [NOT A TIDAL WAVE!] generated by vertical displacements of the  
sea. displacement is given to the water ~~front~~ column.  
show small amplitude and long wavelength (VERY POWERFUL).

Mercalli Intensity Scale: how destructive earthquakes are.

most quakes happen around the Pacific circle plate thing.  
most of them are shallow earthquakes

but at convergent margins subducting crust cause deep earthquakes.  
below 670 km its too hot so rock just melts instead of breaks.

crustal rebound (as a result of melting, ice pressure is relieved and  
asthenosphere moves back in) results in local earthquakes  
like in northern Quebec.

since interior of earth is not homogeneous, waves travel at diff speeds  
at diff layers. dense material = fast waves.

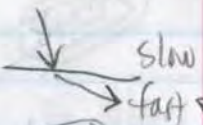
like light waves, seismic waves refract at interfaces.  
if density increases it bends up

1909 - Andrija Mohorovicic: waves take different paths depending on density  
so waves arrive at seismographs at different times.

Moho: interface between crust and mantle.

there is a shadow zone where primary waves don't make it to some because of diffraction  
S waves aren't even recorded past 1030 since they don't travel through liquid core.  
both wave types are reflected of the inner core boundary so we can  
calculate the depth of the inner core surface (2900km).

R





seismic tomography images

like a cat scan (thousands of images cross sections put together to make a 3D image)

3D images of convection are made.

velocity vs depth curve shows heterogeneous mantle

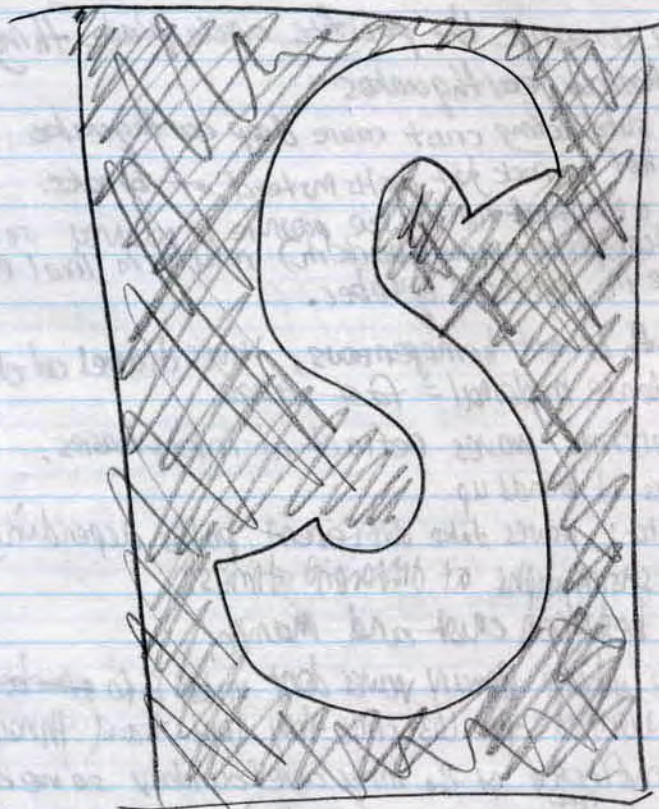
velocity increases as you go deeper in the mantle, at tectonic plate boundaries it slows down.

Transition zones (changes in structure of minerals) causes waves to change speed.

boom trucks use air to generate seismic waves, reflections are recorded.

seismic reflection profiles show structure of the sedimentary strata.

useful for mining and stuff.





MAR. 19, 2007

## LECTURE #28

## Deformation and Mountainbuilding

Brittle: shatters (ceramic plate) } temperature & time are important.  
 Ductile: deforms (silly putty).

Stress = force (such as extension  $\rightarrow$  stretching or compression  $\rightarrow$  shortening)

Strain = result of stress

shear: deck of cards,  $\theta$  = the angle

DIP & STRIKE: dip line, strike angle, bedding plane, strike line

Dip-slip faults: fault = crack where movement happens

joint =

don't need to know the difference very similar {  
 reverse = compression results in hanging wall  
 thrust = compression, hanging wall moves up  
 normal = due to extension, hanging wall moves down

Horst: uplift caused by compression.

Graben: stretching causes land to fall lower

Strike-slip fault: horizontal movement.

if on one side and if it moves right across the fault then its a right-lateral fault & vice versa.

Oblique-slip faults (combinations of different types)

eg. normal fault + right-lateral fault  
 or reverse + left lateral fault.

Thrust faults squish together to form rocky mountains  
 detachment fault (main fault below the sequence of new rocks being squished together up above).

San Andreas fault (Right-lateral fault).

transform fault (part of a HUGE fault).

## FOLDING:

Very common horizontal plane of folding {  
 Syncline: folded sedimentary sequence, striking & dipping. new rock in centre  
 Anticline: folded up thing old rocks are in centre  
 Monocline: (not so important). stretching/opening where one side collapses  
 Plunging: axis of folding plane plunges



LECTURE #29

The Brittle-Ductile Transition (p. 252) [WILL BE ON THE EXAM] ★

Temperature, Pressure, deformation rate, composition, H<sub>2</sub>O.

strike & dip symbols:

Folds & Map patterns

antiform, syncline, plunging



maps of cities are important for subway systems & nuclear reactors. You must know where the faults are.

DOMES & BASINS: interesting folds.

mountain belts have a positive build up in mass so they have a crustal root to help it stay up (buoyancy like icebergs). This is called ISOSTASY. (Isostatic equilibrium).

Mountain belts

- subduction results in mountains. rock = bad conductor. heat underneath
- Himalayas: two continents hitting each other
- Everest: people start slowly, hard to walk & talk up high. caused by continent-continent collision and mountain building.

Rift Mountains. continuous ridges.

basin & range topography

Cross section of a rift

bulging from below causes mountains.

Sleeping  
Lecture  
Television

29





PAUL HUSSMAN  
MAR. 23, 2007

LECTURE # 30

Relative Age: the principle of uniformitarianism.

(the present is the key to the past) - James Hutton, 1726-1797

Comparing recent mudcracks with paleozoic mudcracks shows that the same processes are going on now that always have  
mudcracks are made by mud drying in the sun  
paleozoic mudcracks are already filled with other material.

Relative age: the principle of Superposition  
stuff deeper down is older (in layers)

the principle of HORIZONTALITY:

principle of original continuity:

cross-cutting relationships: dykes & sills, show relative timing

xenolith: pieces of stuff from interface material inside a sill.

Fossil RECORD (paleontology). help show relative age by assemblages & correlations.  
certain fossils are present at certain depths  
either conditions have changed or species became extinct.

Unconformities & gaps in time.

uplifted segment eroded then sediment on top. (angular unconformity).

we don't know how much time has evolved between erosion & sediments.

Stratigraphic Correlation. LA vs grand canyon. LA is less compressed (and  
can be done on a global scale.

43  
43  
1  
23  
24  
34  
67  
91 X  
2580  
OLD 5189  
7  
7  
7  
7  
6789  
6789  
Paul Hussman  
Sting  
Hussman  
3210  
Paul Hussman  
67  
67

What?

Hilroy



Lecture #31

Global Stratigraphic Correlation: time periods (read the chapters).

ISOTOPES: vary w/ # of neutrons

know orders and small description of each.

Half-life: time until half amount exists.

$^{238}\text{U} \rightarrow ^{206}\text{Pb}$   $4.47 \times 10^9$  yrs

$^{235}\text{U} \rightarrow ^{207}\text{Pb}$   $704 \times 10^6$  yrs

mass spectrometry (counting masses)  
method of dating rocks.

Crystallizing ZIRCON

ZIRCON ( $\text{ZrSiO}_4$ ) valence 4+

very dense, can be separated by crushing rocks and hand picking them  
crystals can be polished into little gem-like crystals.

slight departure of Zr for U or Th.

If this happens so much, AMORPHIZATION occurs (cracks in rocks, gets damaged and age can't be determined).

throughout the paleozoic there is evidence of glacial deposits  
global warming might not be due to humans, it's nothing new.  
earth has been through this before.

humans are not that important, they come at the very end of a very long time period of the history of the earth.

radiometric dating in rocks can be erased w/ heat (metamorphism)  
so rocks like this show some major events.

lunar rocks show  $4.6$  bya crystals of zircon.

the moon has no  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  to get into cracks to disturb the parent/daughter isotope relationship, accurate dating.

shows the effects of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  on earth.

everything on earth before humans happened naturally.

History of North America

thrusts across continent and things plastered around the edges.

% continental area exposed above oceans, increased greatly in the archaen period

canada contains the most archaen crust in the world.

YOU Y  
Y Y  
NEW YORK  
1234  
56789  
GANDY  
YORK Y  
YORK Y  
CANDY CANDY  
candy  
Candy YORK  
YOU YO Y  
You You  
New York  
New York  
YES YES YES YES



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MAR 30 2007.

LECTURE #32

earth is 4.6 bya but by counting generations in the bible they thought it was only 6000 years old.

radiometric dating has allowed us to map out areas of rocks on the continent by age

North America has the most ancient rock on earth. craton → stable continent (like North America).

subduction zones on the edges create newer rocks on the edges.

granville: north of montreal: uplift of metamorphic 30-40km up. similar to himalayas but VERY eroded. (laurentians).

quebec has BIF which is magnetic: iron mines. reds quartz is in it too. Banded Iron Formation, folded.

Suspect terrains pieces of western N.A. that have joined to the continent

why is there no volcanism where africa hits asia? nothing's subducting.

GLACIATION! canada was covered with ice

# GLACIERS



albedo  
MAP



&

&&

&

&

MONTREAL

evaporation

evaporation





Missed Lecture # 33 (Non-Renewable Resources)

Lecture # 34

natural gas & oil fields are non-renewable resources.  
deeper down = hotter ∴ oil/gas gets destroyed.  
we depend on oil being shallow & risen to a trap.

Renewable Resources

Metals:

accumulations on the sea floor of metallic sulfide sediments.

EXAM ★★

how sediments form on the sea floor will be on the exam!!!  
yearly we use the most iron & steel compared to other metals.  
we can recycle metals ∴ they're renewable

FFPSB

Canada has a lot of nickel ∴ we can export it & make money.

Canada is rich in metals & other resources due to its many different types of land & stuff.

ABCD  
EFGHI

geological history of a country determines how rich a country will be with resources.

the United States besides Alaska has been explored & discovered but Canada still has many potential discoveries to be found.

northern Brazil has a lot of igneous rock w/ feldspar & stuff but most stuff gets taken out w/ water but Aluminum & Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> stay in the rocks which can be mined. hydro-electric dams are usually needed for the power to mine

EXAM:

Diagram: Black smoker sulfide ore deposits.

memorize at midocean ridges, heat from below the surface of the ocean floor heats water

hot springs: hot water going through comes out through cracks,

black smokers: very fine grains

when black smoker forms on the sea floor why would an older crystal arise when recrystallization.

where's the closest place to montreal that this happens? Iceland,

off the coast of BC, a ridge is going under Vancouver Island,

3km deep water mining costs too much and is too hard.

Hydrothermal Vein deposits

cinnabar (HgS) bearing quartz

gold dissolves mercury, boiling it off it goes into the atmosphere.

Brazil is one of the biggest Hg contribution to the atmosphere



Much better (for female)

Lesson # 24

Hg comes out of atmosphere, deposits in vegetation, stays in the food chain. Methyl Mercury gets in fish and we eat it and it gets to be poisonous.

fluid trapped in quartz

fluid inclusion; heat until bubbles are gone

moisture areas, floor near

Longo-gold bearing conglomerate



EXAM 1

EXAM 1  
 of the exam floor looks like  
 minerals at various heights, but from below the surface  
 minerals; black sand (silica & magnetite)  
 when you make a layer on the surface you would see other things  
 are also recognizable.  
 where the dust plate is mineral that has been taken  
 off the surface. It is a light-colored mineral.  
 you can see many things on the surface, but it is too hard  
 to see. You can see many things on the surface, but it is too hard  
 to see. You can see many things on the surface, but it is too hard  
 to see.



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Apr 11, 2007

## Lecture #35

### Metallic Mineral Exploration

aluminum at low temperatures is not very mobile.

bauxite (almost all aluminum oxide or Al hydroxide)

- every 36 hours alcan brings a shipload of bauxite and they refine it. the bauxite that comes in is rich in iron oxide. last week the spill, the iron rich residue left behind from refining was spilled which also contains arsenic which nobody discussed in the news.

- Pyrite reacts w/ water to make

E

Witwatersrand Goldfields 35% of world's gold is from there.

EXAM

Ore deposits from magma

just like snow nucleates and comes down in layers, SAME THING in magma happens.

$FeCrO_4$  Iron chromium oxide (chromite)

rocks have chromite bands in south africa and its easy to process chromium plated stuff like car rims, bumpers

Why only in africa and not in Canada? (geologists don't really know but think that it has to do w/ the mantle in the earth)

Sudbury has a lot of nickel. nickel is used in stainless steel.

Sudbury formed because they are the main supplier of nickel.

magma was saturated on its way up with sulfide

nickel sulfide was globulated inside the stuff like salad dressing.

sulfide is denser than the black liquid.

sudbury is a bowl by meteor impact then continental collision which squashed the area making an ellipse ~100km long & ~50km across.

meteor struck 1.8 billion yrs ago

in the future robots will mine deeper in sudbury.

ore is too deep except by the edge.

G'ZAM

Alligator



abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz  
abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz  
PAUL HUSSMAN

## Non metallic Resources

Quebec produces a lot of granite.

to get granite, no deformation could have taken place

also no other stuff reined into it. (homogeneous)

montreal has a lot of granite buildings.

polished w/ corundum makes it nice

when it gets blown forted it gets rough so you don't slip



## exam format

similar to mid term but more depth required

answer 20 out of 30 questions

cumulative (putting everything together).

Ch 12, 13 (no mass movement)

everything up until ch 12 that we discussed in class

remind the interlude.

exam  $\approx$  100%

or 30%/70%, mid/exam