

Chapter 1 : Nature of Geology

- observational science
- there are a lot mountains on the West coast

how does geology influence where we live

- we live within a 50 mile radius of a large water body
- transportation
- need water to survive
- food (fishing)
- 1/3 of the entire food for the country comes out of the Central Valley
- nature likes to build things up and tear them down

Creatures tend to bundle where there is resource pool, be it water, food, shelter, energy, etc

what is inside earth

- upper layer is the crust (two types):
 - continental
 - oceanic
- thickest layer
 - mantle
- deepest layer:
 - iron-nickel core (molten outer core, solid inner core)

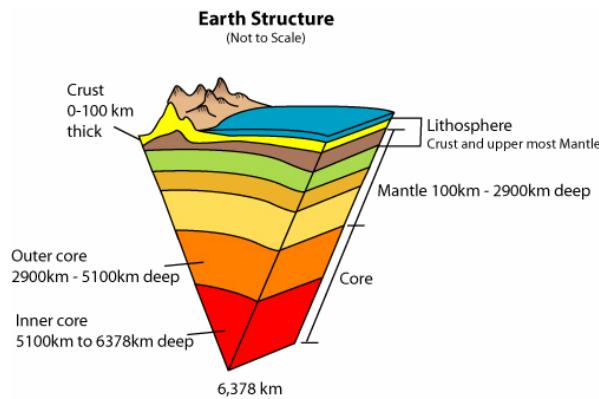


Figure 1: earth struct

some layers are stronger than others

- The top layer of the Earth is stronger than the middle.
 - For example, a tootsie pop very dense on the outside and as you approach the center, it gets chewier.
- This external layer is called the lithosphere which contains (in order):
 - continental crust
 - oceanic crust
 - lithospheric mantle
- The inner layer is called the asthenosphere
 - it is hot, weak and mostly solid

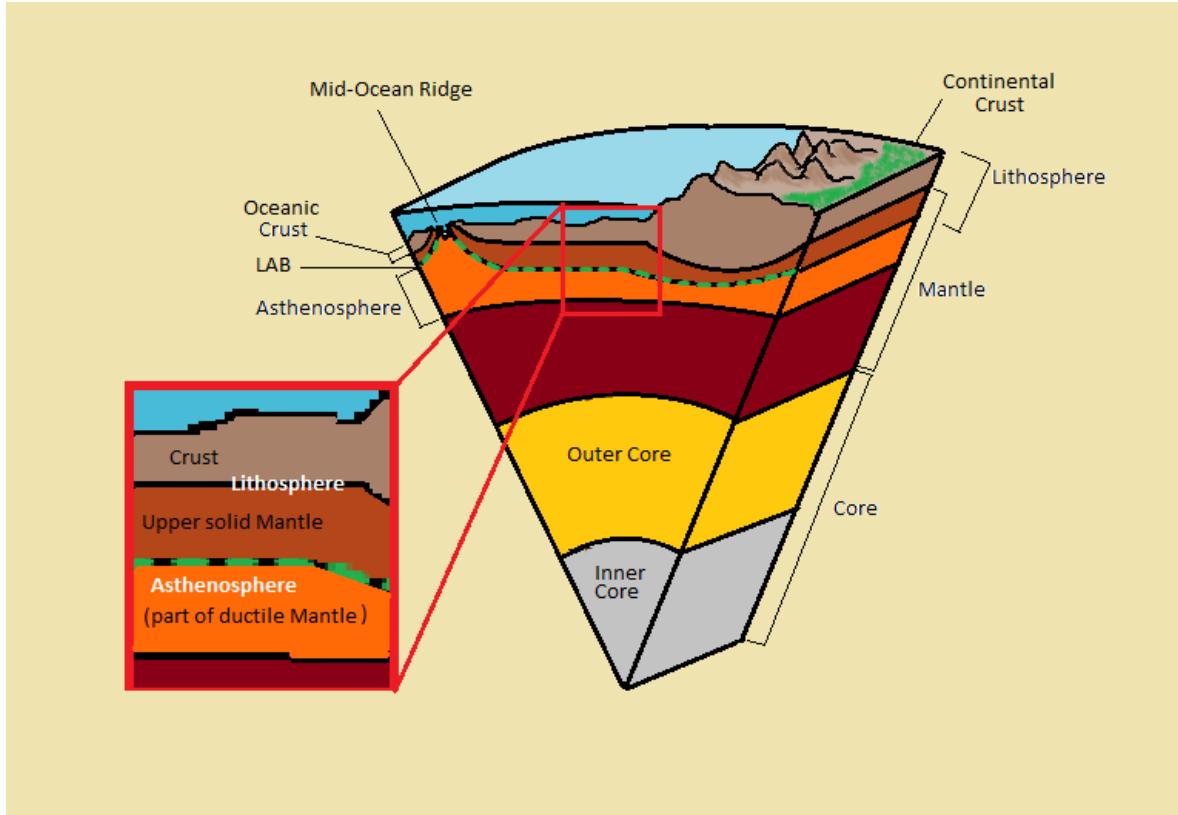


Figure 2: litho and asthen diagram

- Hot things want to rise
 - lava rises because it is less dense than the surrounding rock

Mountains get more precipitation because they are higher in elevation

- clouds get to the mountains first
- one side gets water and the other side gets nothing
- the wet side of the Andes allows for more life and the other side, Chile, its one of the driest places on earth

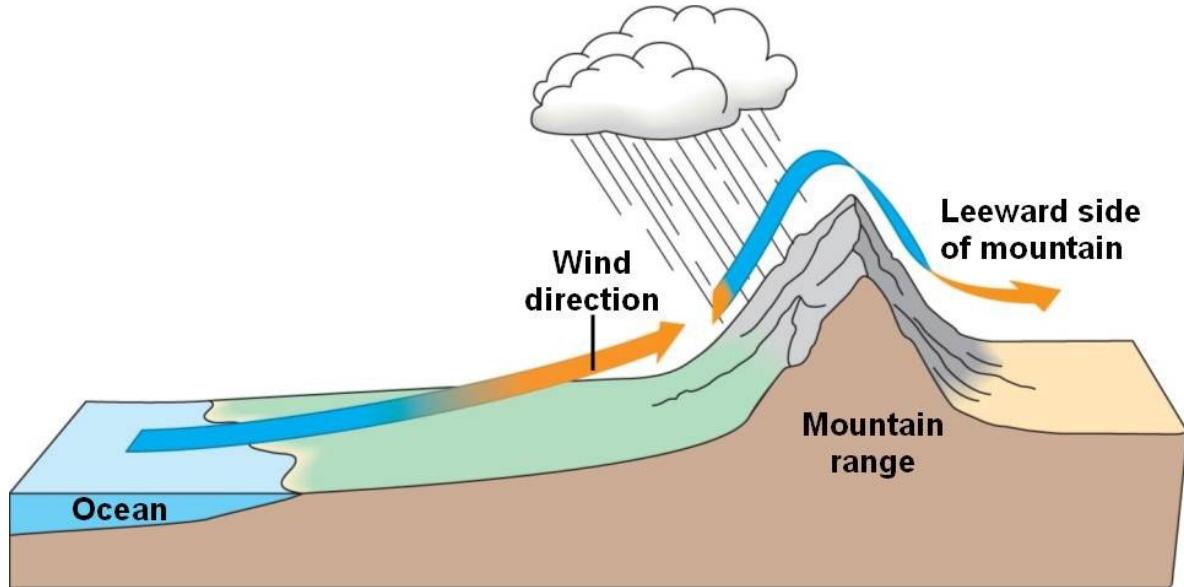


Figure 3: leeward mountain diagram

why are some regions high in elevation

- areas that have a thick continental crust tend to be higher in elevation
- these areas also are thicker than the oceanic crust it neighbors
- Thick blocks are higher than the thinner blocks around them
- Thinner blocks are lower because they are more dense
- This relationship between crustal thickness and elevation: **isostasy**

isostasy

Formal definition:

- the equilibrium that exists between parts of the earth's crust, which behaves as if it consists of blocks floating on the underlying mantle, rising if material (such as an ice cap) is removed and sinking if material is deposited.

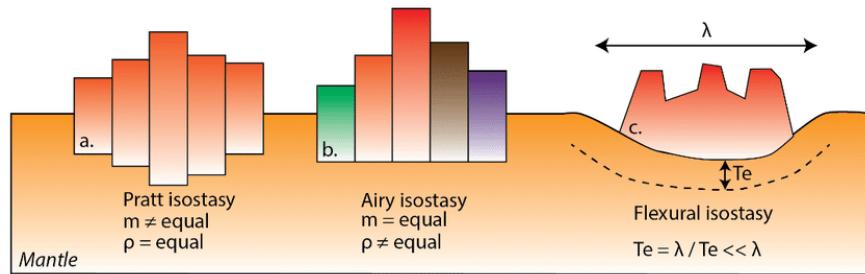


Figure 4: isostasy model

earth's forces and how they help process it's materials

Many different environmental factors help shape the Earth such as atmospheric pressure, gravity, etc

steep mountain front

- steep and angular
- have not moved far
- rocks -> sand grains

rock formation

- **igneous** rocks (fire rocks)



Figure 5: fire rock

These rocks form from magma and are expelled by volcanoes

- **metamorphic** rock (rocks that have changed)



Figure 6: changing rock

These rocks can be found away from a volcano, more specifically rocks moved by nature. Sand is an example of this as grains of sand are actually microscopic balls of rock.

- **sedimentary** (rock layers)



Figure 7: layered rock

Layered slabs of rock where the bottom is older than the top. This is the only rock to support fossils, other rocks would erode or destroy fossils.

rock cycle

The process in which rocks change between states and types.

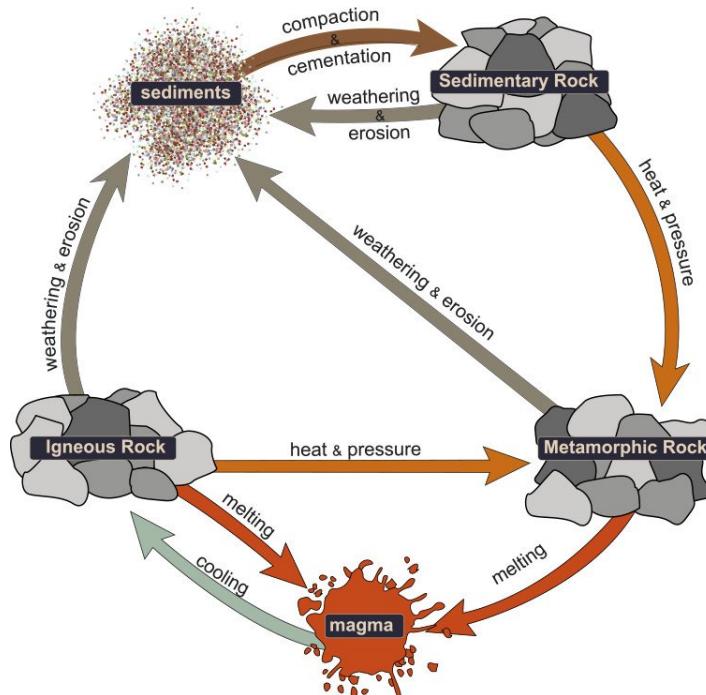


Figure 8: rock cycle

Chapter 2 : Investigating Geologic Questions

Things to look out for

- Observe the Mediterranean Sea, noting how it connects (or does not connect)
 - Human intervention
 - Plate tectonics allow for water to flow
- Draw what you see
- Different scales (perspectives) are different ways of viewing a scene
 - Earth from space vs microscope
- Compare this rock to deposits from two environments shown below
 - Which environment has deposits most similar to the rock
- uniformitarianism (rocks are being moved now and it can be assumed that they moved in the past)

Interpreting Evolution of Landscapes

- rain, wind, erosion etc

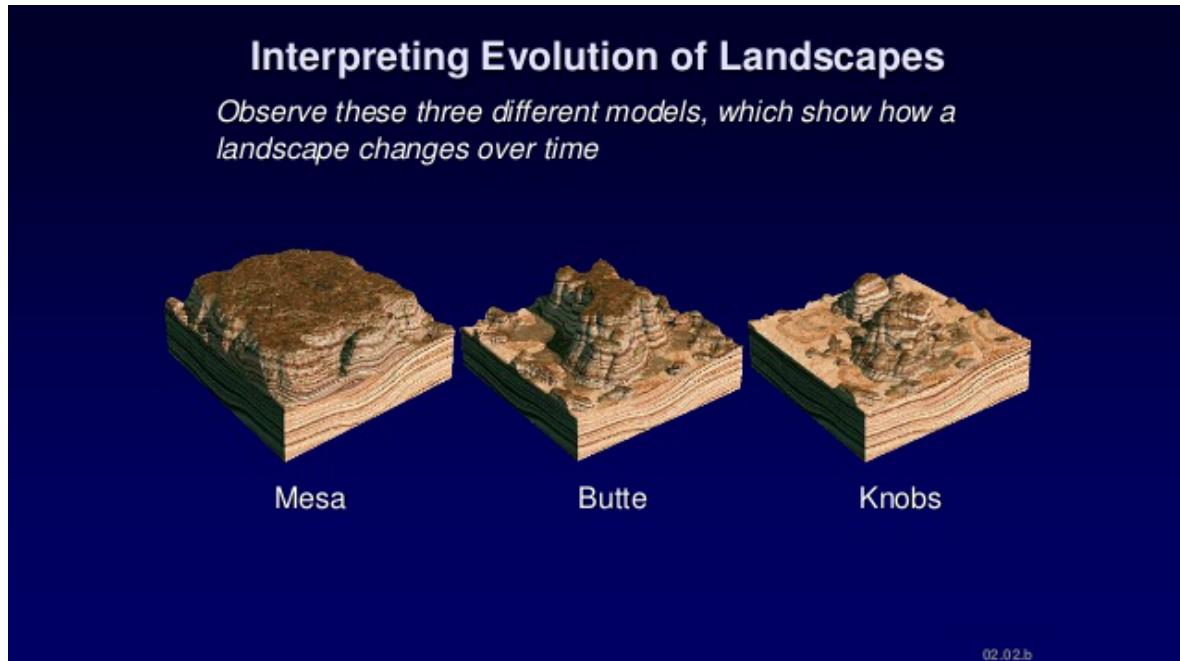


Figure 1: landscape transformation diagram

Determining Sequences of Events: Position of Layers

The bottom most layer is the oldest in the stack



Figure 2: Positions of Layers

Cross-Cutting Relations

Faults, fractures and cracks can only occur if the layers existed first

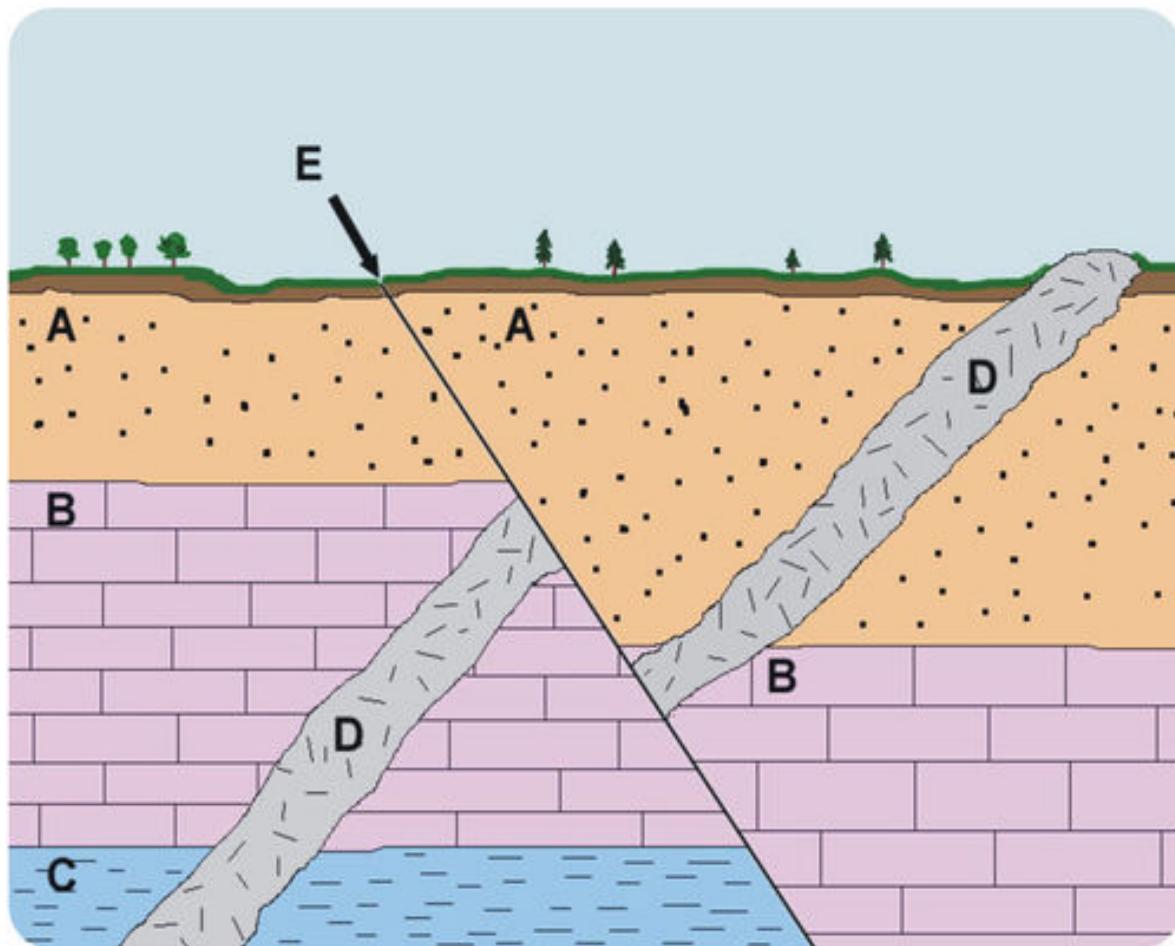


Figure 3: Cross-cutting relationship

Pieces of clast

Older rock that is trapped inside newer rock

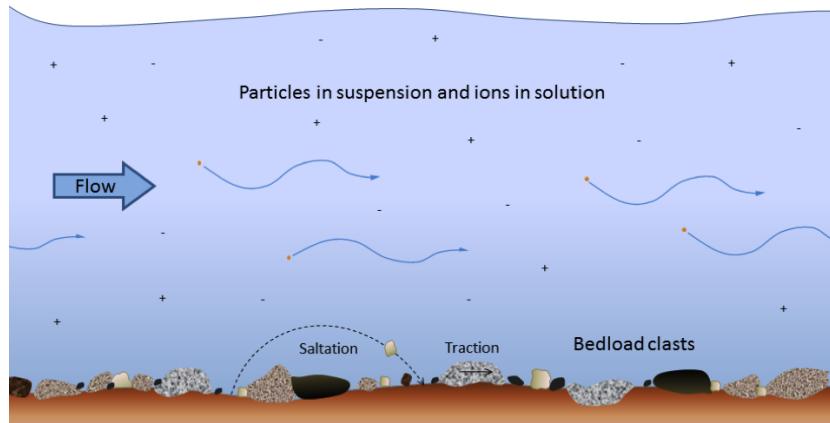


Figure 4: Clast found in an younger solution

Contact Effects

Hot molten rock burns cooler surrounding rock. This is called the “Baked Zone”



Figure 5: Baked Rock Vein

Rock layers can be different

Types of Maps

- Shaded-relief map
- Topographic map with elevation contours (change in gradient)



Figure 6: Shaded relief map of California

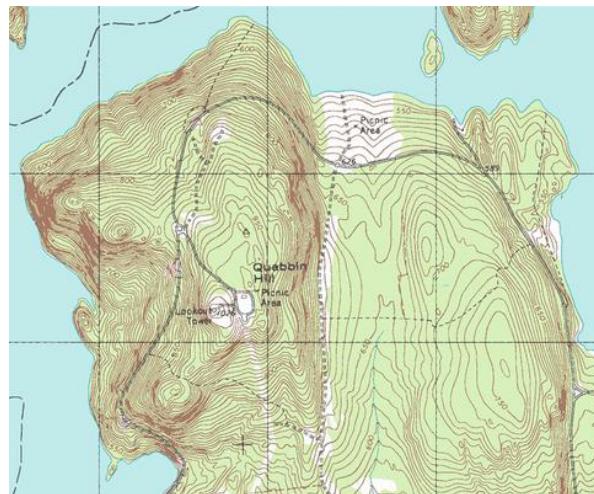


Figure 7: Topographic map of California

Qualitative vs Quantitative

- Qualitative : descriptions
- Quantitative : numeric measurements (conveyed with numbers)

Density

- Mass/Volume

Weight

- Downward force an object exerts via gravity

Chapter 3 : Plate Tectonics

There are many plate boundaries and they have unique characteristics

Fossil Data and Continental Drift

- similar animals at boundaries between continents
- continents were all together at one time
- WW2 changed our perspective
- map where all the earthquakes happen, where all of the volcanoes were
- mountains in the belts

Three Types of Relative Plate Motions

Moving apart: divergent boundary (Atlantic ocean)

- magma is coming up from the bottom to fill the gap
-

Moving toward each other : Convergent Boundary

- same density
- the plate begins to melt at some depth and forms a chain of islands
 - move horizontally past one another: transform boundary (san andres fault)
 - zig-zag pattern and is not a linear path for the fault

What moves the Plates

We are not sure what the root cause of the movement is

Chapter 4 : Earth Minerals

- Solid
- Natural
- Inorganic
- Ordered internal structure
- Specific chemical composition



Figure 1: Examples of minerals

Is ice a mineral

Ice by definition it is a mineral (when solid) but as a liquid is not.



Figure 2: Ice, ice, baby

Mineral formation in other rocks

Composed of visible or microscopic crystals: **crystalline rock**



Figure 3: Crystalline Rocks

Composed of pieces (clasts): **clastic rocks**



Figure 4: Clastic Rock

Distinguishing One Mineral from Another

Crystal formation

Cleavage

- How it shears along smooth planes parallel to the zones of weak bonding.
- Sheets joined by long bonds between sheets break along the weakest bonds
- Bonds with the same strength can break along N sets of planes without passing through an atom
- In other arrangements, the mineral will break in nearly any direction so it will fracture instead of cleave.

Color

Luster

How much it reflects in the light

Hardness

How strong the bonds are between the atoms

Effervescence

The foaming and fizzing reaction when certain chemicals come in contact with it

Streak

What color does it leave behind if scraped on a porcelain plate

Magnetism

Does it attract magnets

Density

What controls a crystal's shape

- Sizes and packing of atoms
- Internal structure of the mineral
- orderly arrangement of atoms in repeating patterns

Different shapes

- Cube
- Tetrahedron
- Octahedron

Shape	Cube	Octahedron	Rhombohedron	Six-sided Prism center with six-side pyramids on both ends	Six-sided Platy
Minerals that can form this shape	Halite, Pyrite	Fluorite, Diamond	Calcite, Rhodochrosite	Quartz, Amethyst	Lepidolite, Mica

Figure 5: Crystal shape diagram

Major Classes of Rock-Forming Minerals

Silicate Minerals

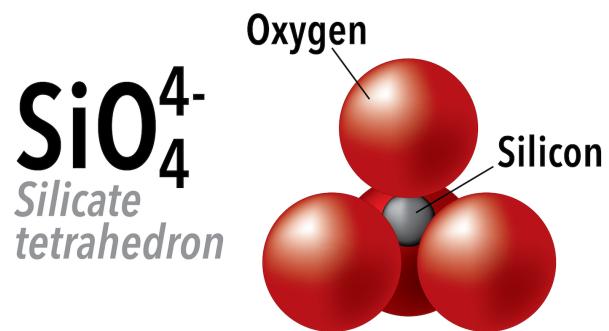


Figure 6: Silicate Tetrahedron

Can bond together and with other elements

Independent Tetrahedra

Tetrahedra bond to other elements, not other tetrahedra



Figure 7: Olivine

Single Chain



Figure 8: Pyroxene

Double Chain



Figure 9: Amphibole

Sheet Silicate



Figure 10: Mica

Frameworks



Figure 11: Quartz

Nonsilicate Minerals

Carbonates



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Figure 12: Calcite

Oxides



Figure 13: Magnetite

Sulfides



Figure 14: Pyrite

Halides



Figure 15: Halite

Sulfates



Figure 16: Gypsum

How Atoms Bond

Sharing

Covalent bond

Example: water

Loaning

Ionic bond

Example: salt

Free flow

Metallic bond

Example: copper

Stick together

Intermolecular bonds

Example: Oxygen and Hydrogen bond

Crystal Structure and Bonds

- Carbon makes up both graphite and diamonds
- The only difference between the two is the bonds that make up the substance
- Diamonds have an extremely strong network of bonds

Properties of Water

- Oxygen and hydrogen share electron
- Water molecules are polar
- Helps dissolve other compounds



Figure 17: Water molecule diagram

Chapter 5 : Igneous Environments

Must completely melt to become an igneous rock

Characteristics

Depending on where it came from, it dictates what it looks like

Oceanic vs. Yellowstone

Volcanoes can have weak spots, not one single point in the mountain

Textures

- Pegmatite : large individual crystals
- Coarse Grained :
- Medium grained :
- Fine grained
- Glassy
- Porphyritic
- Vesicular : trapped gasses inside the rock and floats (pumicis)
- Welded

High pressure, high heat rock wants to push its way up because hot things want to rise. The rate in which it cools is proportional to how fast it is coming up from the ground

Water plays a big role in volcanic rocks

Felsic

- Granite
- Rhyolite

Takes a long time for this to break down

Cooling at the surface : extrusive (Rhyolite is volcanic ash) Cooling under the ground : intrusive

Intermediate

- Diorite
- Andesite

Mafic

- Gabbro
- Basalt

Ultramafic

Melting

Converting solid to liquid

You will get some new type of rocks when you do that

Temperature and pressure graph (insert here)

Role of Source Area

Different viscosity (how easily it flows) - High : honey - Low : water

How much water is in the subsurface is important

Pillow basalts form when lava comes in contact with water directly

Irregular Plutons

Small amount of exposed igneous rock

Batholith

When giant igneous rocks were buried and now has been uplifted

Dikes

Vertical cut

Sill

Horizontal cut

Apache Tears

- Teardrop shaped obsidian

Chapter 7 : Sedimentary Environments



Figure 1: Rocks have layers too

Exam will be 50-54 questions and the test is out of 100 points

Extra questions are delegated for extra credit

Formation

They form at a low place - Depositional environment

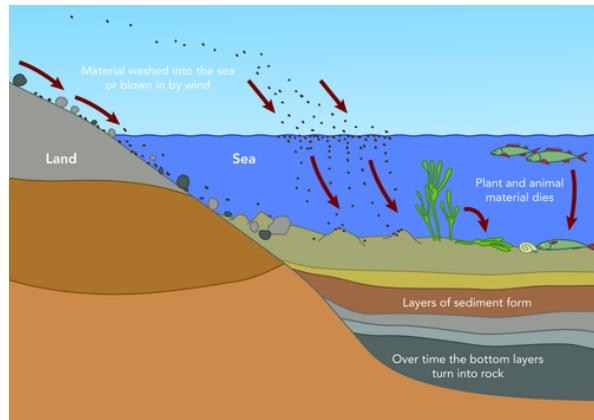


Figure 2: Sedimentary rock formation diagram

Places

- Mountains
- Steep streams
- Sand dunes
- Slow moving rivers (Mississippi River)
- Deltas, wetlands (places where coal forms)
- Lakes
- Beaches
- Reefs
- Lagoons
- Beach dunes
- Tidal flats

Physical Weathering

- Fracturing and crack rocks
- Frost and mineral weathering
 - (Ice expands when it freezes)
 - Sugar at the bottom of tea when there is too much sugar to be in solution
- Thermal expansion
- Roots and other biological activity



Figure 3: Goblin State Park

Chemical Weathering

- Dissolution
 - Water is slightly acidic (anything with pH of 7 and below)
- Hydrolysis
 - the chemical breakdown of a compound due to reaction with water
- Oxidation
- Biological reactions
 - Plants will poison other plants to prevent them to get their resources
 - Animals will dig and dig

Clast Sizes

- Boulders, cobbles, pebbles

Shape

- Rounder == more distance traveled
- Angular == freshly broken

Sorted

- Poorly sorted (fairly grade)
 - assorted sizes of clast
- Moderately sorted (moderate)
 - mostly the same size of clast
- Well sorted (poorly graded)
 - nearly all the same size

Controls on size, shape, and sorting

- Steepness of slope
- Strength of current
- Agent of transport

Common Clastic Sedimentary Rocks

- Conglomerate (Coarsest)
- Breccia
- Sandstone
- Shale (Finest)

How Clastic Sediments Becomes rock

- Compaction (Stuff on top of it)
- Cementation (Sand + Lime = Cement)

Rocks Formed by Chemical Reactions

- Setting → Rock salt
- Setting → Travertine (limestone)
- Setting (Coral reef) → Limestone with fossils
- Setting (Plant matter) → Coal

Other nonclastic sedimentary rocks

- Gypsum
- Chalk
- Dolostone
- Chert

Types of bedding

- Parallel bedding



Figure 4: Parallel Bedding Example

- Cross bedding
- Graded bedding

Characteristics of Breccia

- With rocky matrix
- Without rocky matrix

Environments of Formation

Deformation and Metamorphism

Exam 1 Answers

1. b 2. a 3. b 4. c 5. a 6. c 7. a 8. b 9. a 10. a 11. b 12. c 13. a 14. b 15. b 16. b 17. d 18. e 19. d 20. a 21. c 22. c 23. d 24. e 25. c 26. c	27. e 28. c 29. b 30. b 31. d 32. e 33. a 34. d 35. c 36. e 37. d 38. d 39. a 40. e 41. a 42. e 43. b 44. a 45. e 46. d 47. a 48. c 49. b 50. a 51. c 52. b
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Making Metamorphic Rocks

Strength of Rock

- Too much stress = failure
- more heat means more ductile

How rocks respond to force and stress

- small amount of stress → block remains unchanged
- compression, shear, tension
- shallow levels: rocks fracture
 - earthquakes
- deeper levels: rock flows

Types of Fractures

- joint: small
 - burial
 - cooling and contraction
 - unloading
- fault: big (rocks have slipped past one another)
 - left lateral: block on opposite side moves to left
 - right lateral: block on opposite side moves to right

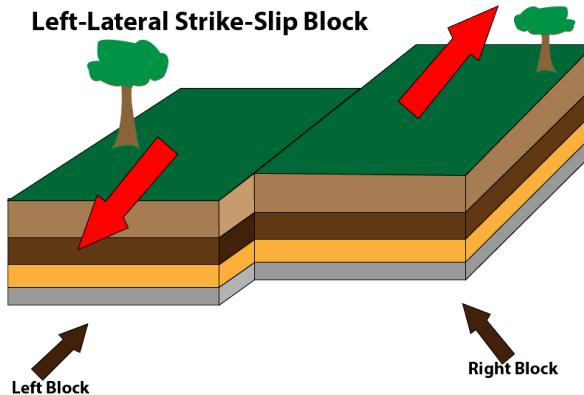


Figure 1: Left lateral

- right lateral: block on opposite side moves to right

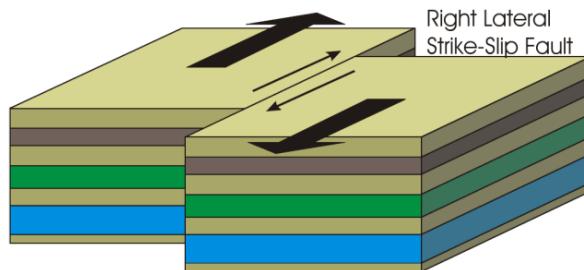


Figure 2: Right lateral

- anticline: up
- syncline: down

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Some header