

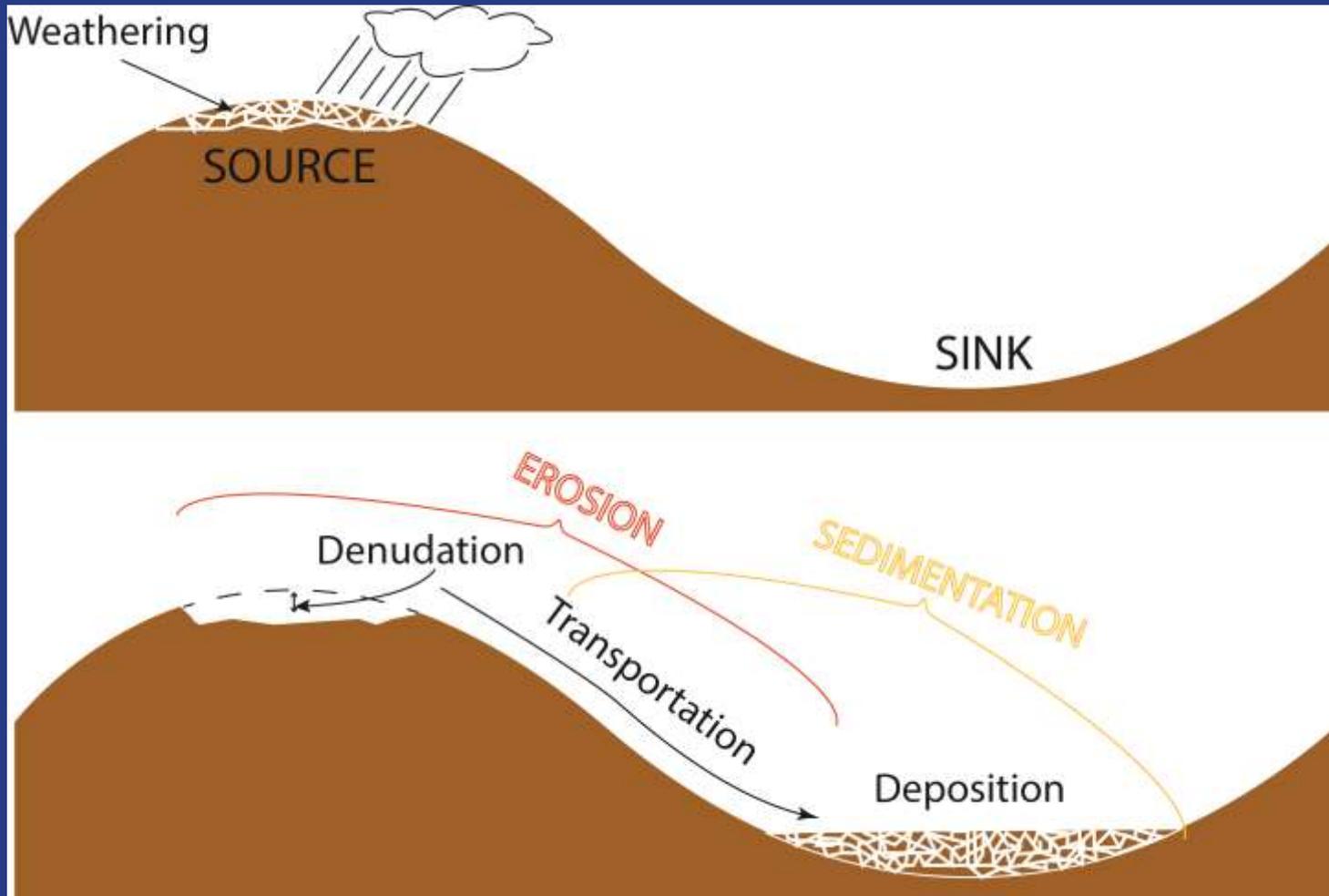
Lesson 8 cont'd

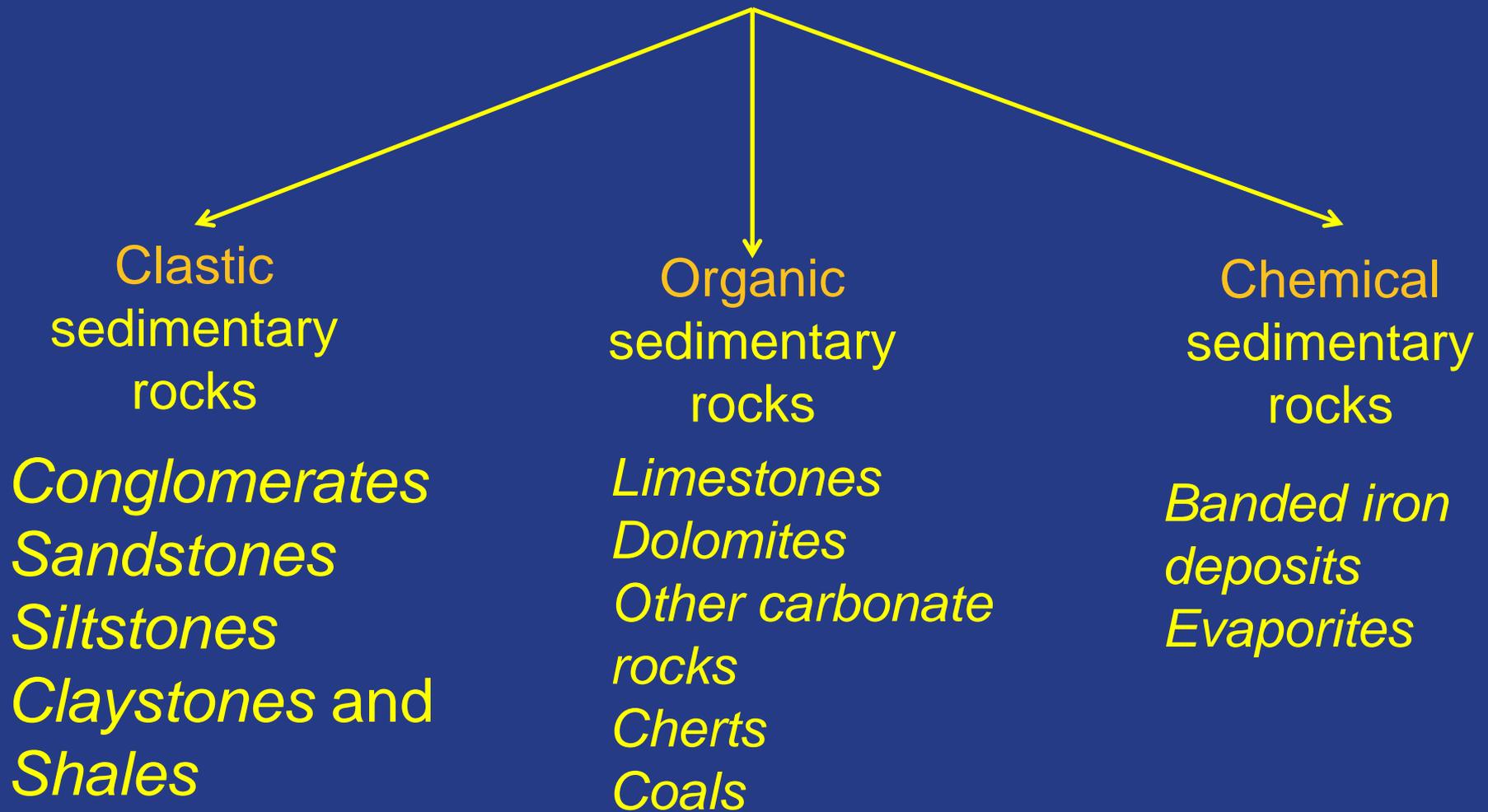
Sedimentary rocks and processes

A. M. Celal Şengör

Earlier we had listed the sedimentary processes. They are what create the sedimentary rocks.

All sedimentary processes do two things: transportation of the material prepared by weathering away from source regions and its deposition in sink regions. All sedimentary rocks have a source and a sink.



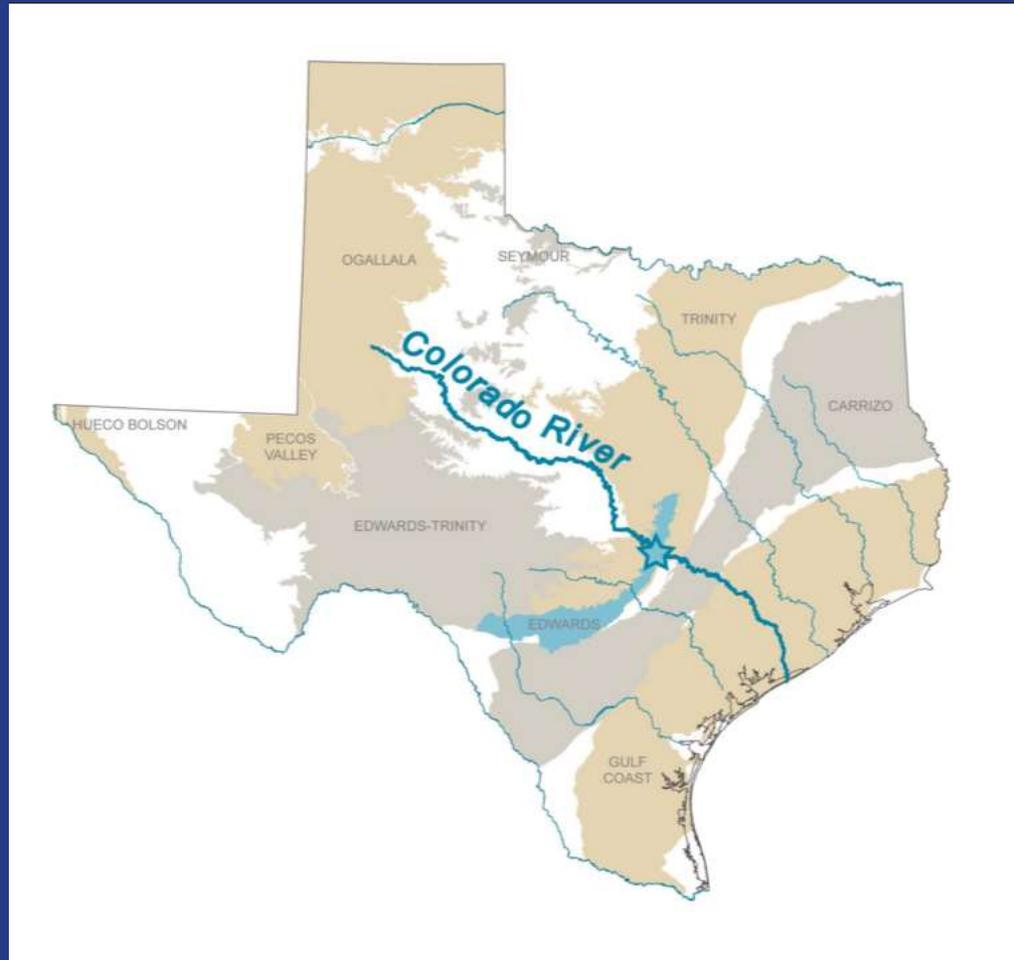


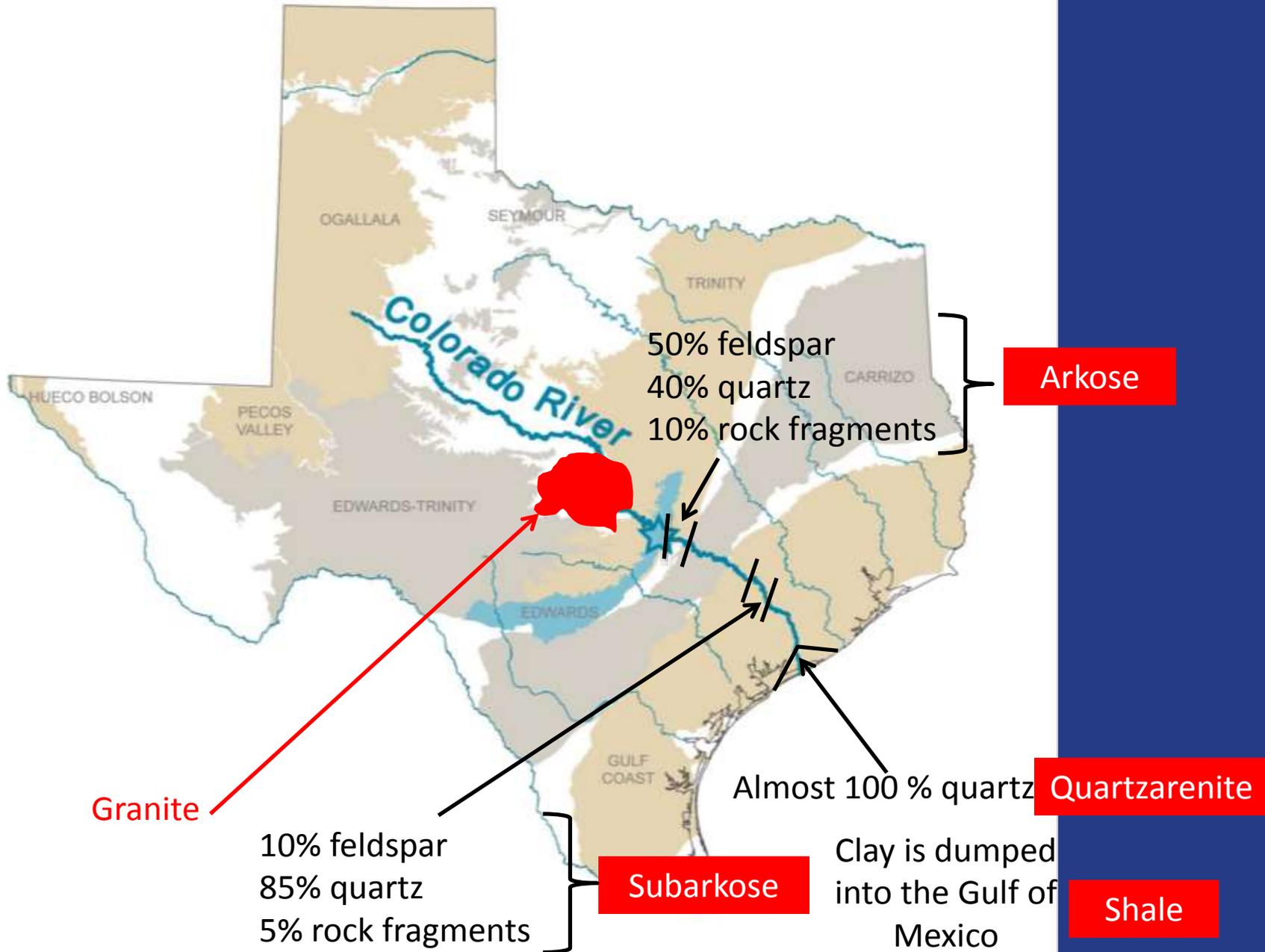
Notes:

1. Some carbonate rocks form as organic sediments and then become granulated to turn into clastic sediments. Corals sands are examples.
2. Some chemical sediments form by the help of organisms. Banded iron formations are examples.

Let us begin with clastic sedimentary rocks which are the easiest to study among all sedimentary rocks.

Let us first consider what happens during transport. We take the Colorado River in Texas as an example.





How do these different clastic sedimentary rock types form along the course of the Colorado River of Texas?

There are two mechanisms which we are already familiar with from our consideration of weathering:



Water dissolves away the ferro-magnesian minerals that had been left over from weathering and turns the feldspars into clays. With the feldspars and the ferromagnesian minerals gone, the framework of the granite dissolves and the quartz crystals become free.

What happens to them?

All particles produced by the disintegration of the granite must obey Stoke's Law:

$$V = \frac{2}{9} \frac{(\rho_p - \rho_f) g R^2}{\mu}$$

The diagram shows the equation $V = \frac{2}{9} \frac{(\rho_p - \rho_f) g R^2}{\mu}$ with red arrows pointing to each variable. The arrows point from the following text labels to the corresponding parts of the equation: 'Fall velocity in water' to V , 'Viscosity of water' to μ , 'Gravity' to g , and 'Radius of rock or mineral grain' to R^2 . Additionally, there are two red arrows pointing to the terms in the numerator: one from 'Density of mineral or rock grain' to ρ_p and another from 'Density of water' to ρ_f .

Fall velocity
in water

Viscosity of
water

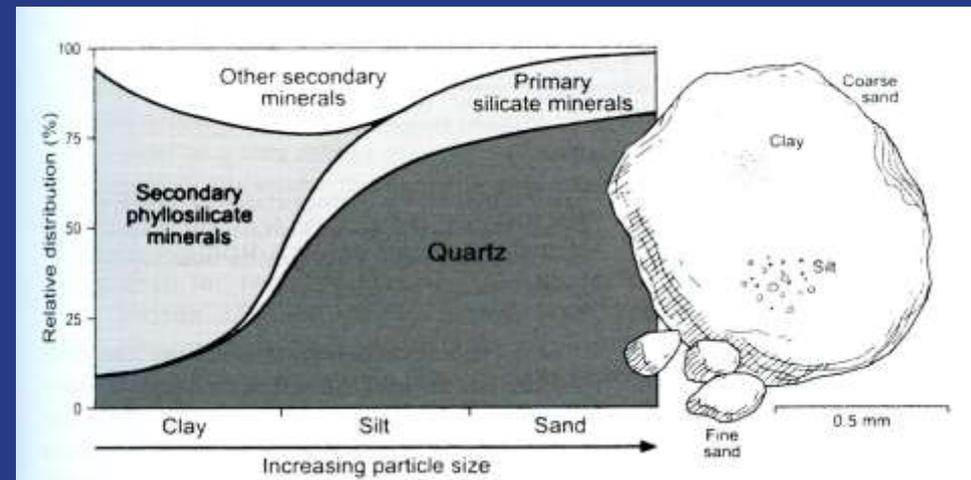
Gravity

Radius of rock or
mineral grain

Basic message of Stoke's equation: the larger and the denser a mineral or a rock fragment is, the faster it will fall to the bottom of the water.

Let us now remember the sizes and compositions of our grains:

Soil fraction	Diameter	Description
Gravel	Larger than 2 mm	Coarse
Sand	0.05 - 2 mm	Gritty
Silt	0.002 - 0.05 mm	Floury
Clay	Smaller than 0.002 mm	Sticky when wet



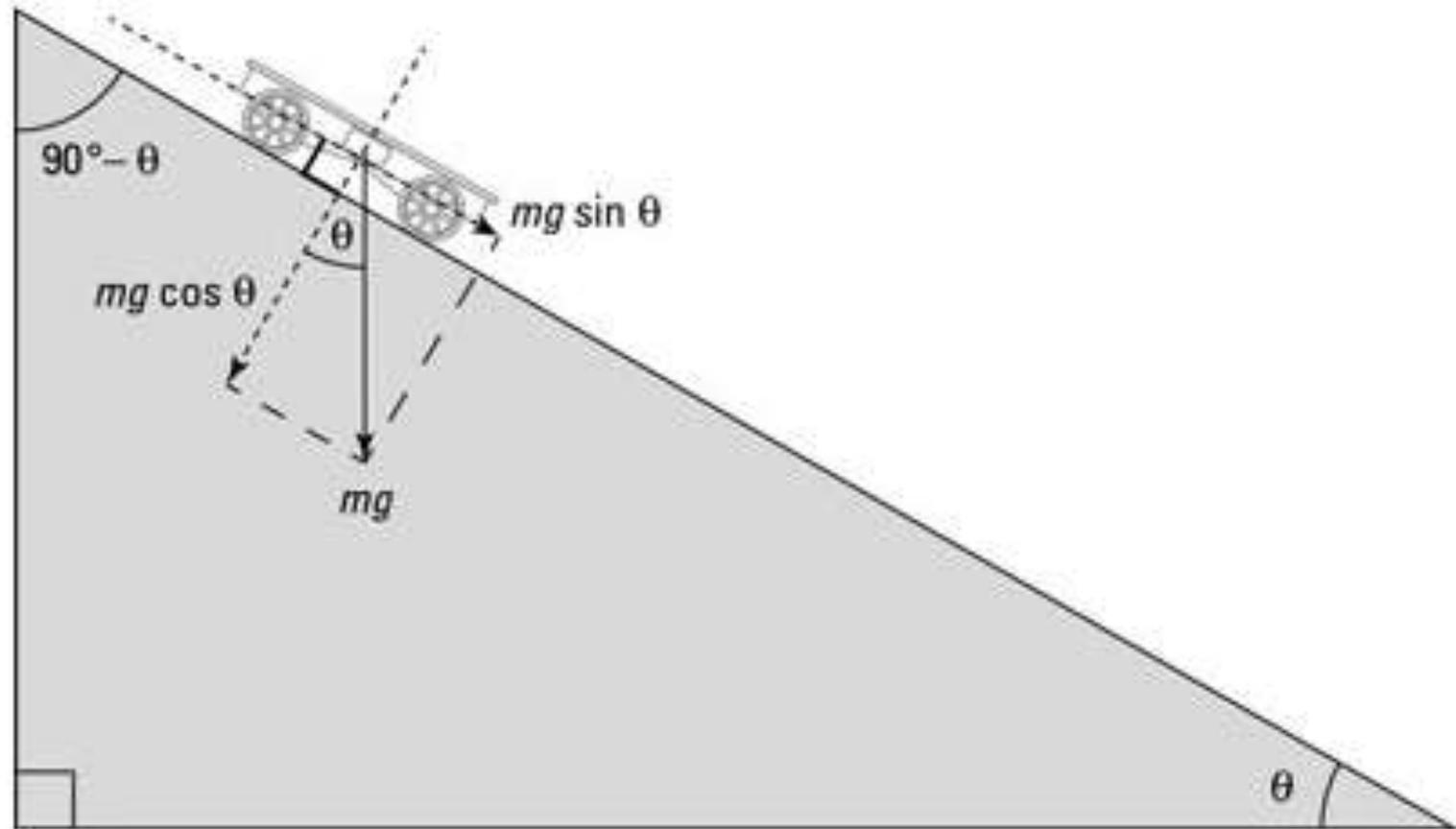
The densities of the clay minerals here produced are around 2.35 g/cm^3 . By contrast quartz is 2.65 to 2.66. Similarly the rock fragments are closer to 2.65 to 2.7

Thus, the clay minerals are both small and light, so they will float away, but the rock fragments and quartz will sink to the bottom.

How do these mineral grains get carried by the flowing stream of the Colorado?



How flowing water will carry its load is dependent on its density, velocity and the weight of its load. Since $\text{force} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration}$, for a fixed force, as the mass increases the acceleration must decrease.



But the speed of the flow of the river is dependent entirely on its slope. As the slope decreases the velocity decreases. Rivers usually go from a high-slope upper course through a medium-slope middle course and a low-slope lower course. Let us look at some river profiles first.

The profile of the Danube



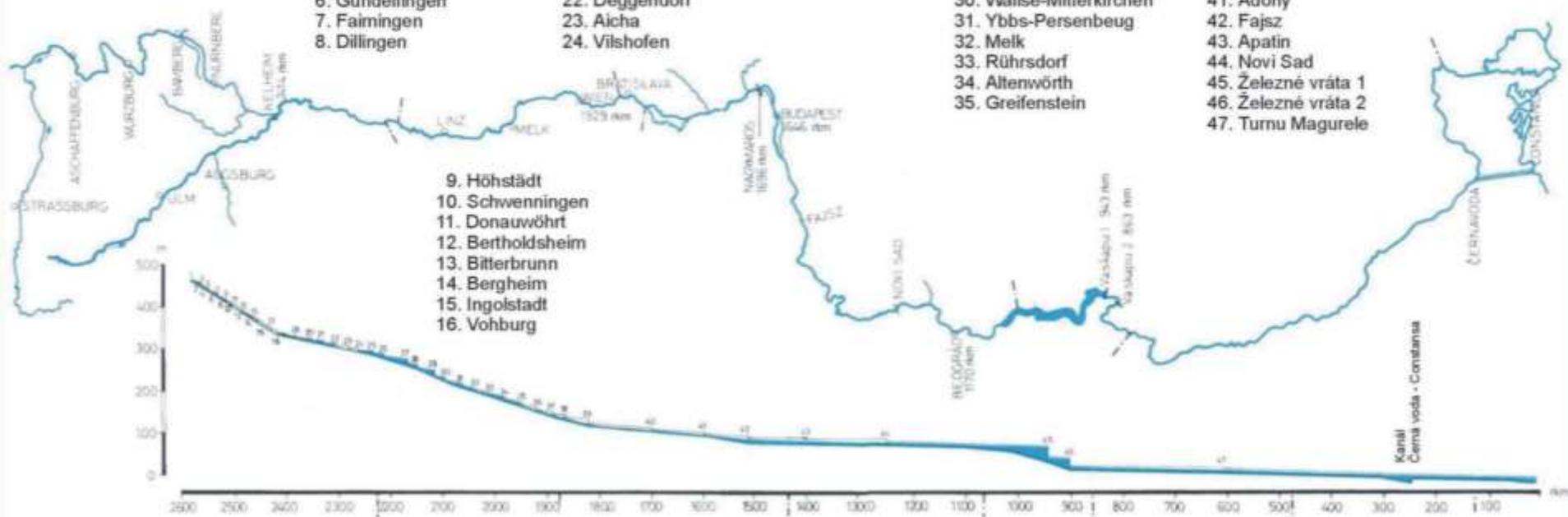
RIVER PROFILE OF THE DANUBE

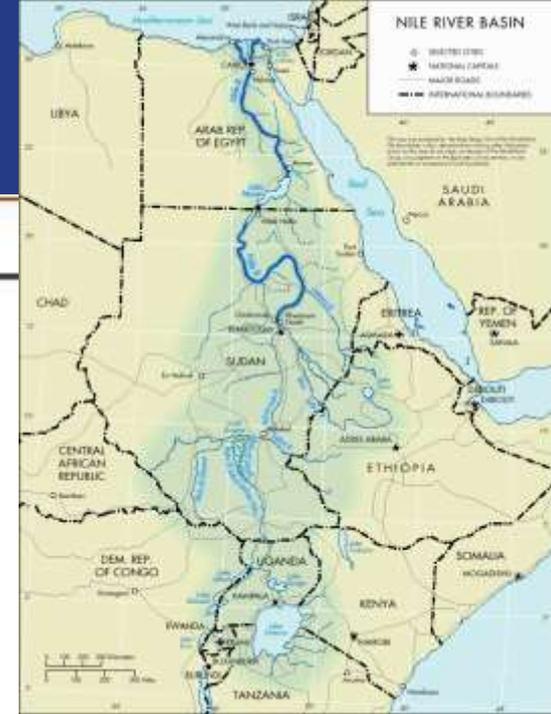
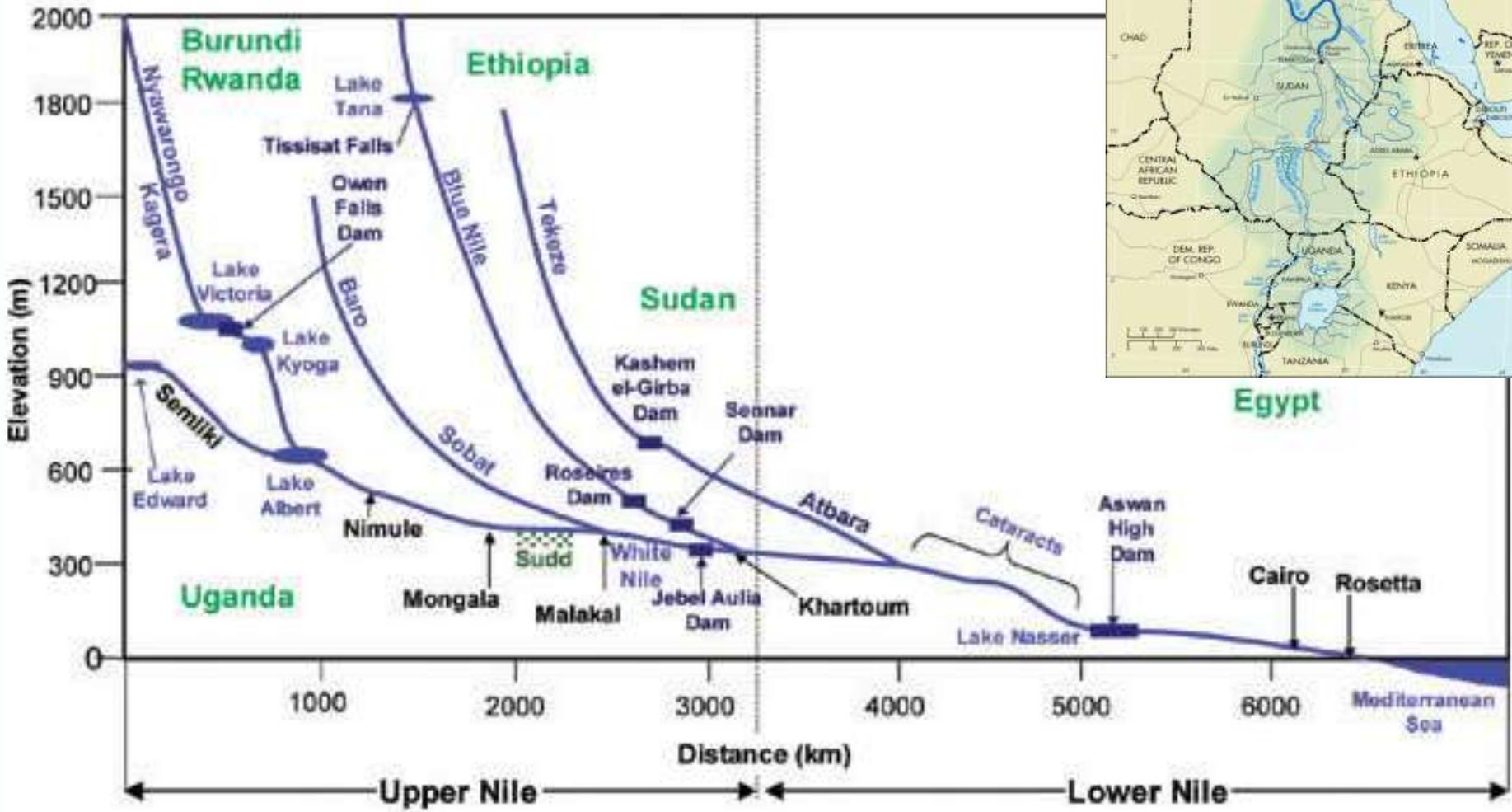
1. Ulm-Böfingerhalde
2. Oberelchingen
3. Leipheim
4. Gunzburg
5. Offingen
6. Gundelfingen
7. Faimingen
8. Dillingen

17. Neustadt
18. Bad Abbach
19. Regensburg
20. Geisling
21. Straubing
22. Deggendorf
23. Aicha
24. Vilshofen

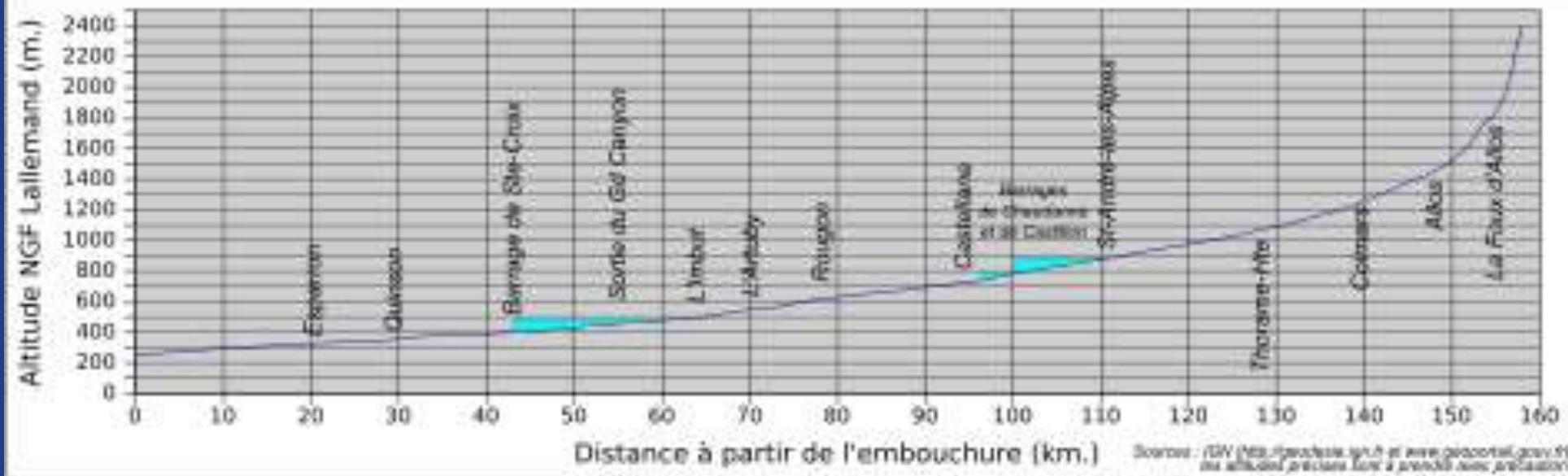
25. Kachlet
26. Jochenstein
27. Aschach
28. Ottensheim-Wilhering
29. Abwinden-Asten
30. Wallse-Mitterkirchen
31. Ybbs-Persenbeug
32. Melk
33. Rührsdorf
34. Altenwörth
35. Greifenstein

36. Wien
37. Wildungsmauer
38. Miesto nevytýčené
39. Gabčíkovo
40. Nagymaros
41. Adony
42. Fajsz
43. Apatin
44. Novi Sad
45. Železná vrata 1
46. Železná vrata 2
47. Turnu Magurele

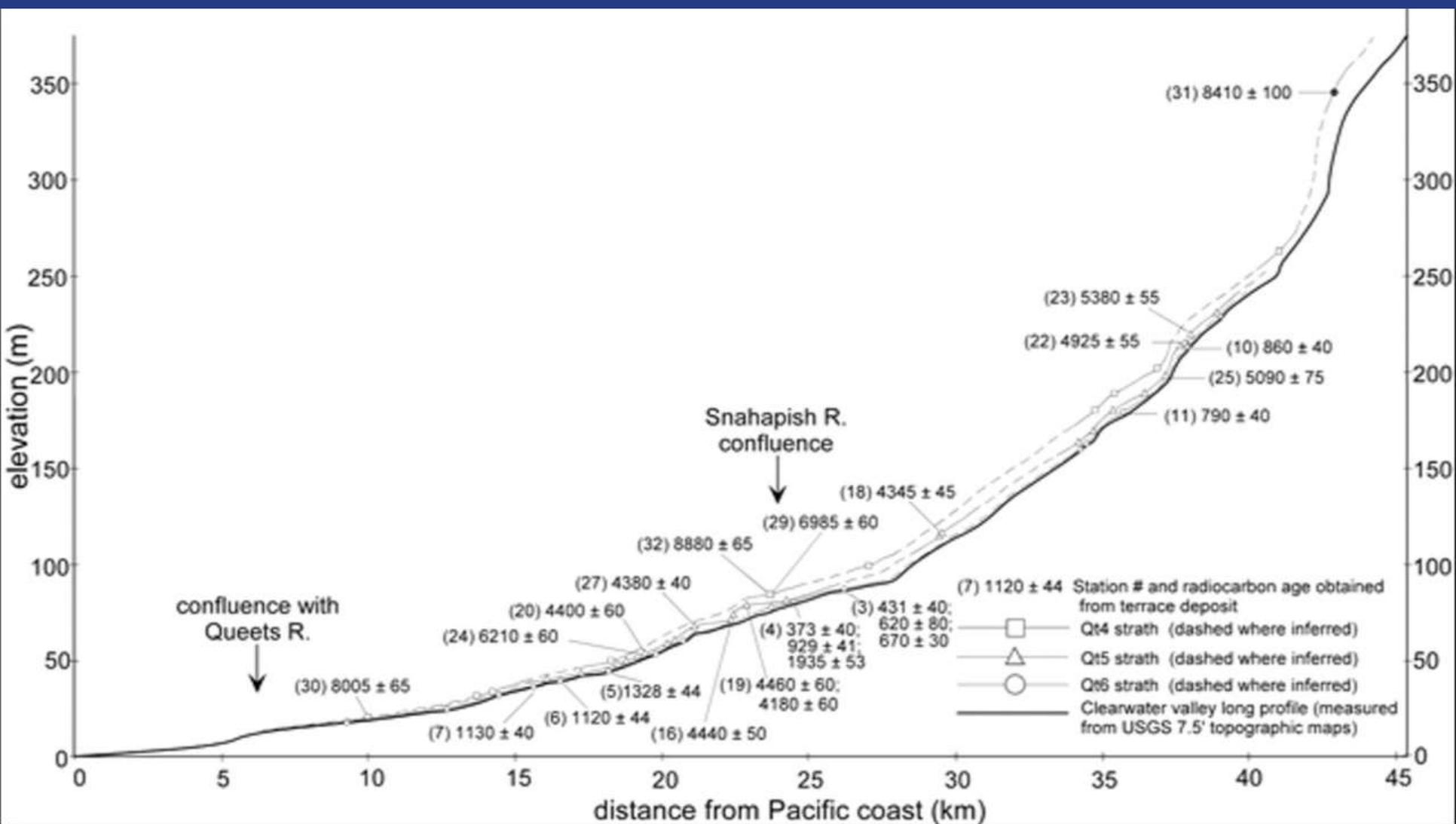




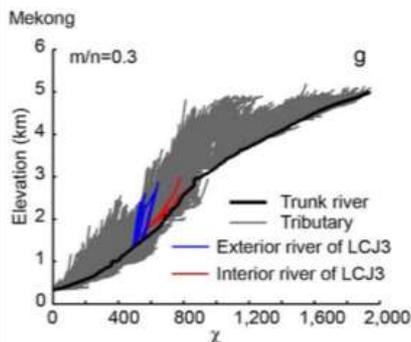
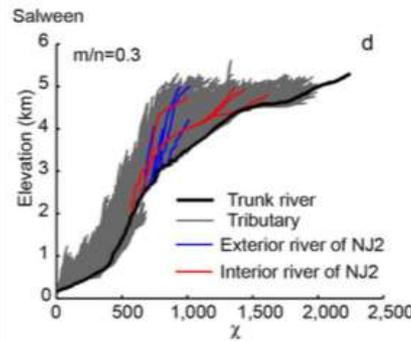
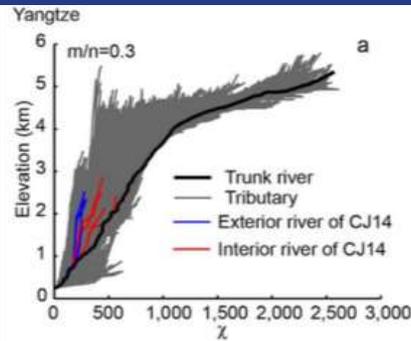
Longitudinal profile of the Nile



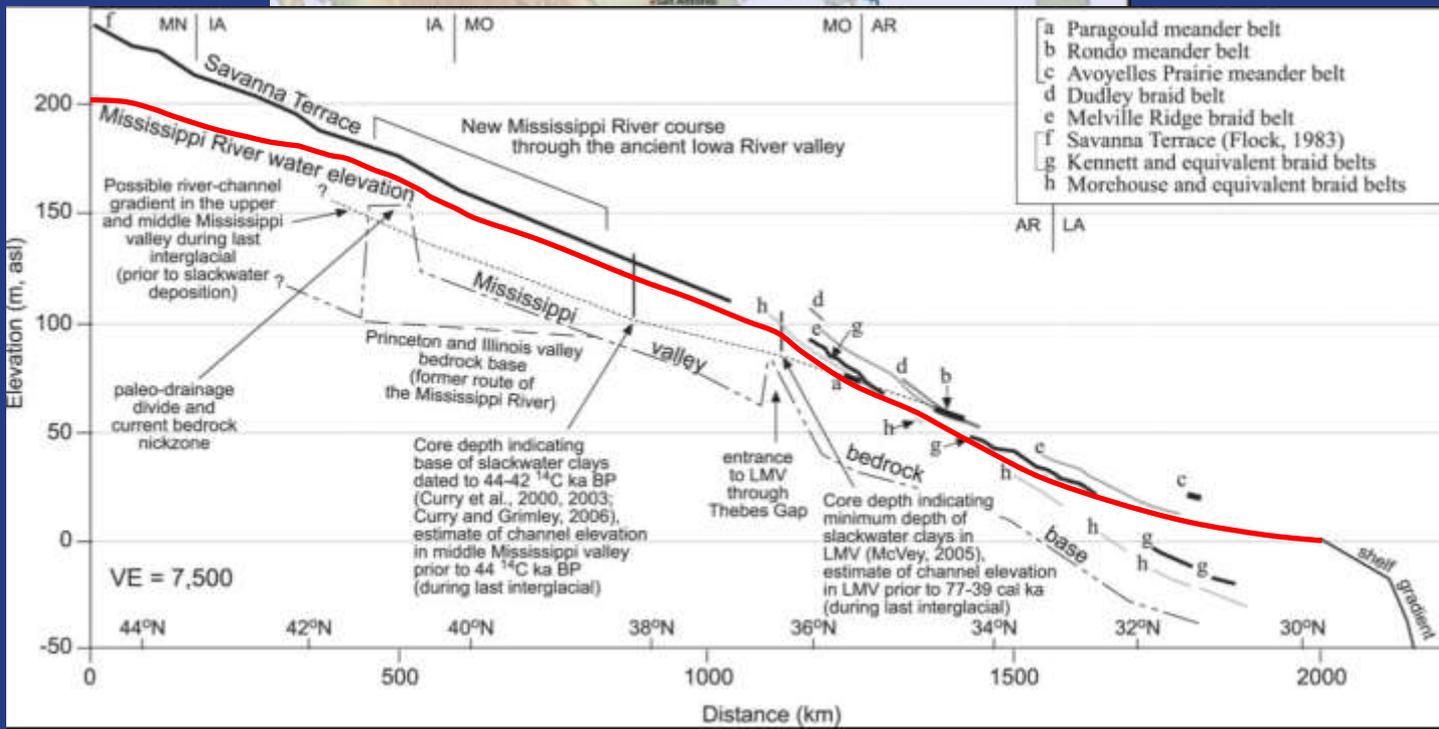
The longitudinal profile of the Verdon River, France.

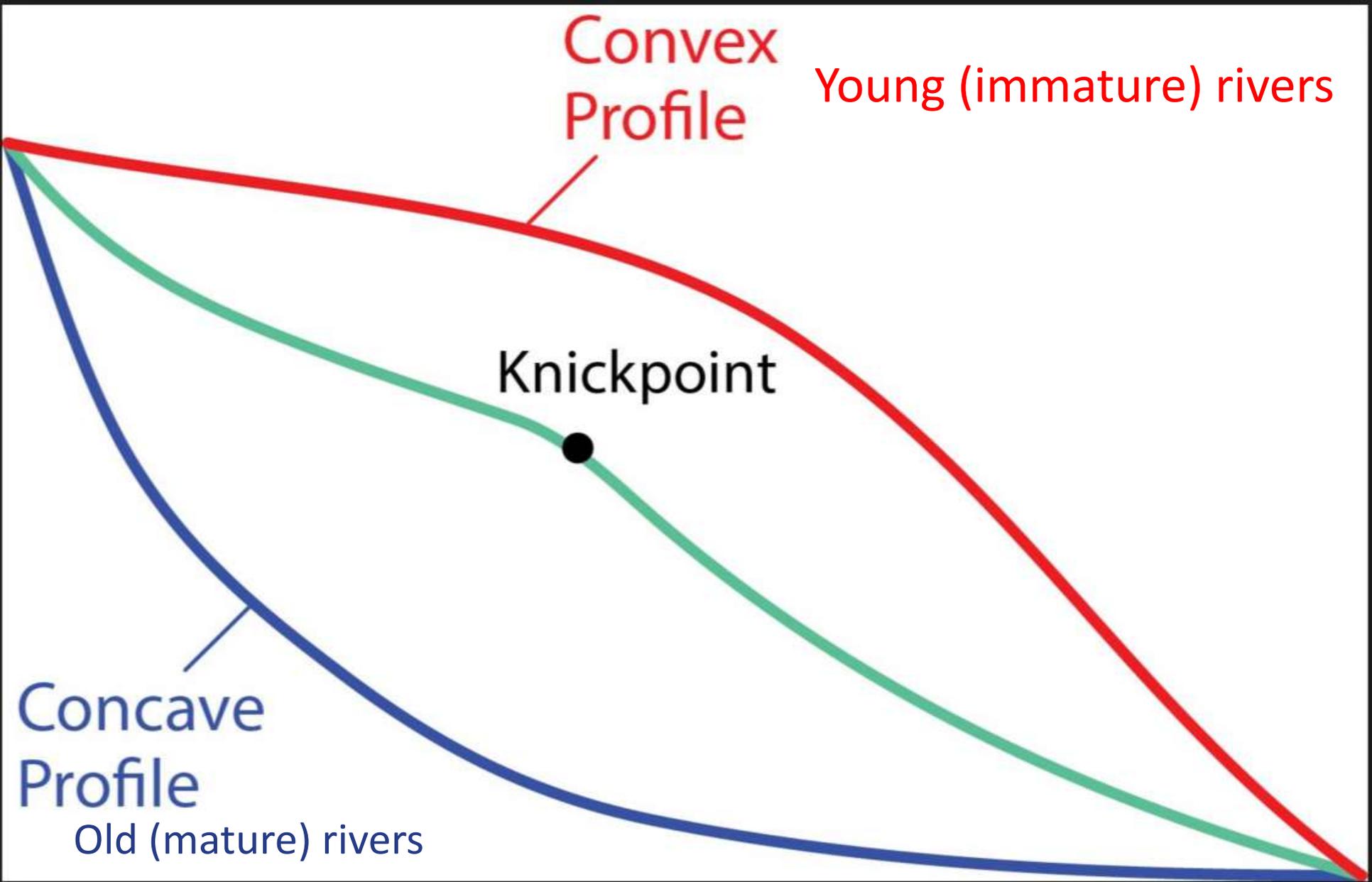


The longitudinal profile of the Clearwater River, Olympic Peninsula, Washington State, USA.



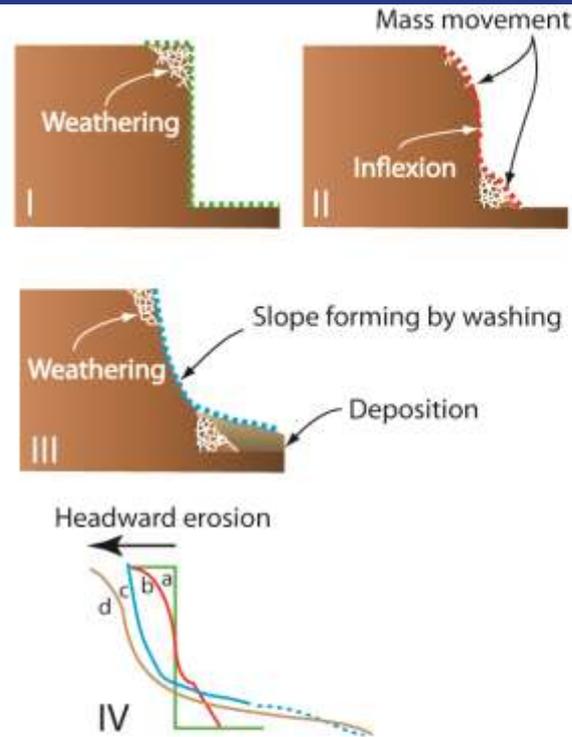
The profiles of three major rivers in a region of very young and rapid uplift.

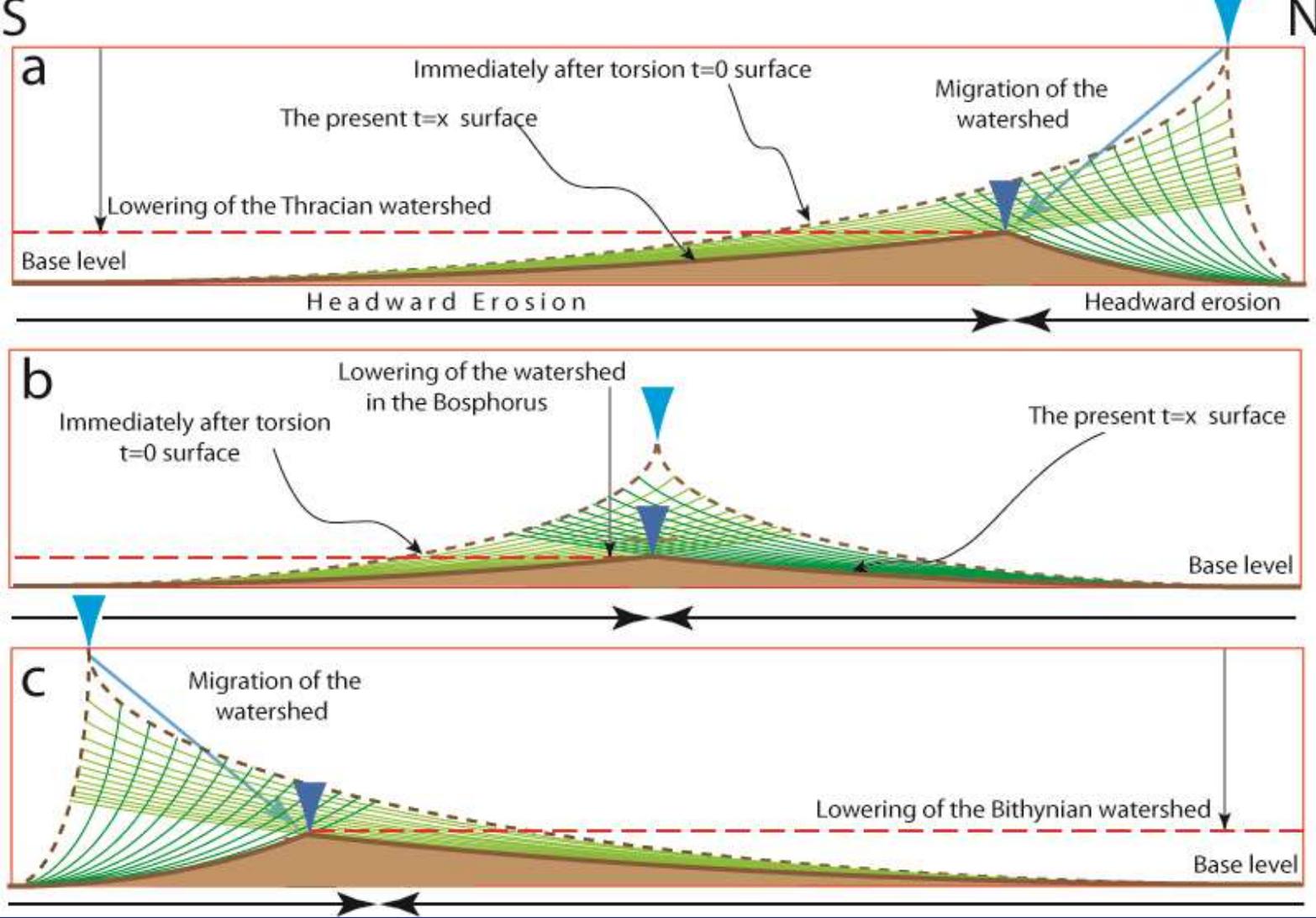




Evolution of river profiles

The origin of upwards convex and upwards concave slopes by weathering, mass wasting and fluvial erosion.





The evolution of valley profiles in the Thracian-Bithynian isthmus under the assumption of a dry climate in the late Pleistocene

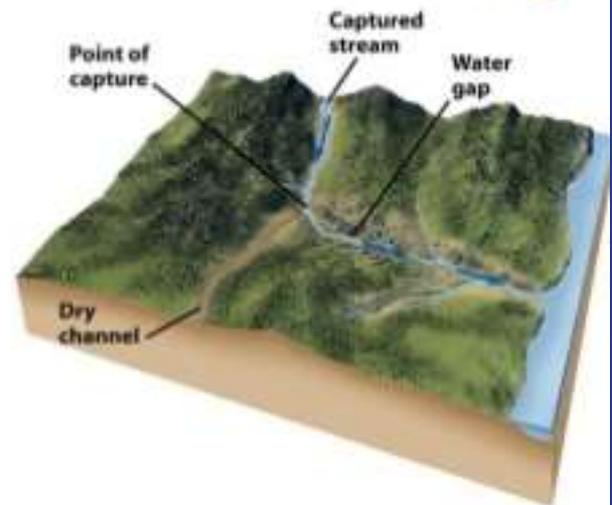
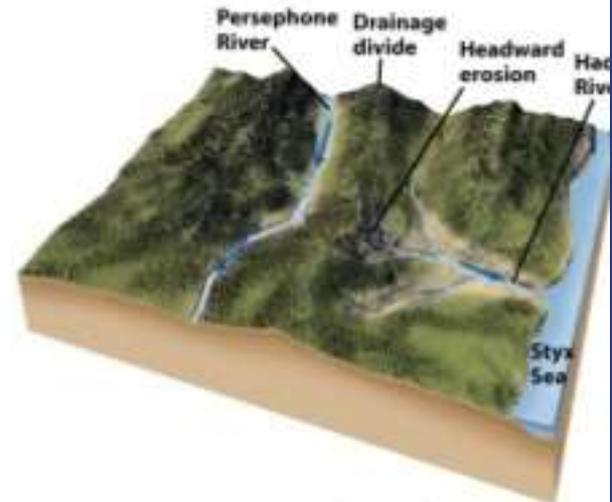


Headward erosion: Nemrut Caldera, eastern Turkey

Drainage Evolution

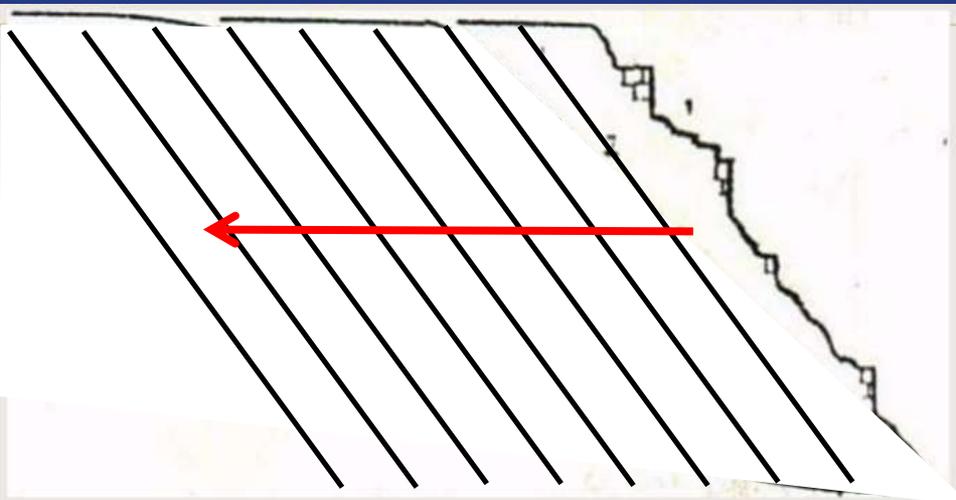
Stream piracy

- One stream captures flow from another
- Results from headward erosion
- A stream with more vigorous erosion (steeper gradient), intercepts another stream
- Captured stream flows into the new stream
- Below capture point, old stream dries up

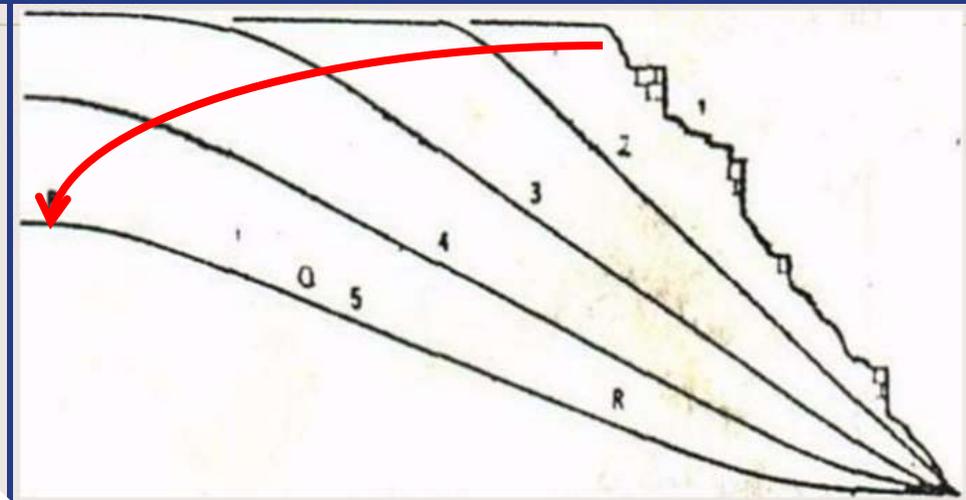




How do slopes evolve? How do we go from a highly dissected plateau to a fairly flat, low-lying plain? There have been two main ideas on this question, both of which are probably true depending on what climatic belt one is in.



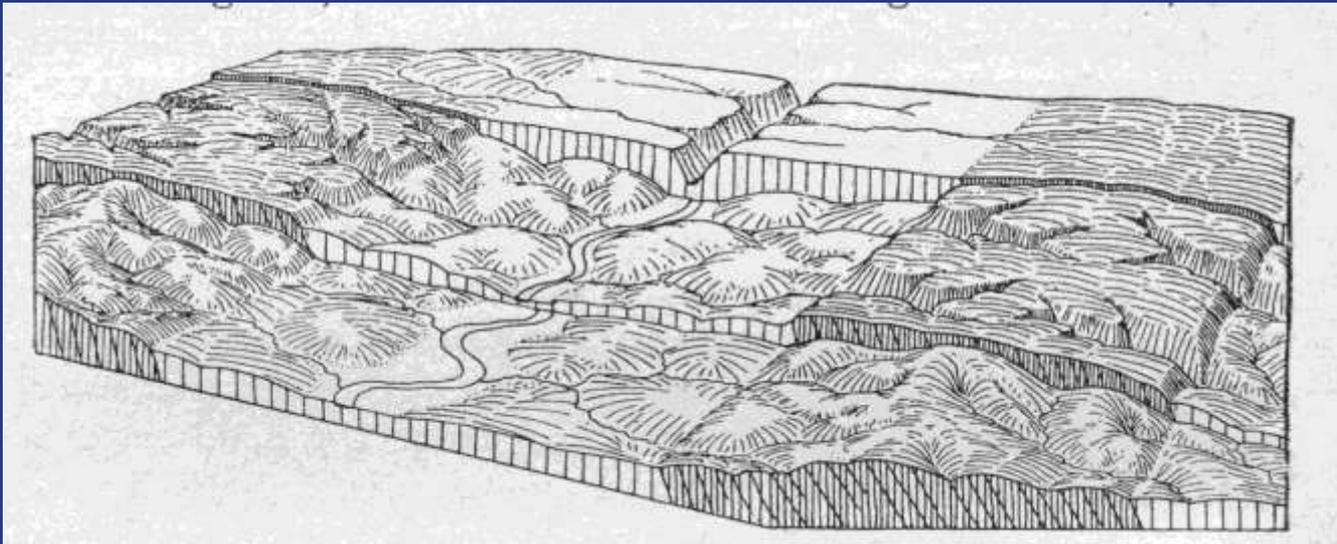
Slope retreat
(Walther Penck)
Arid morphology



Slope degradation
(William Morris Davis)
Humid morphology



This is a view of the central part of the North American continent from about 10,000 m height. Notice that not one topographic eminence disturbs the flatness of the area seen. This region is known to be underlain by large mountain belts created 1500 to 800 million years ago. What happened to them?



young

mature

old

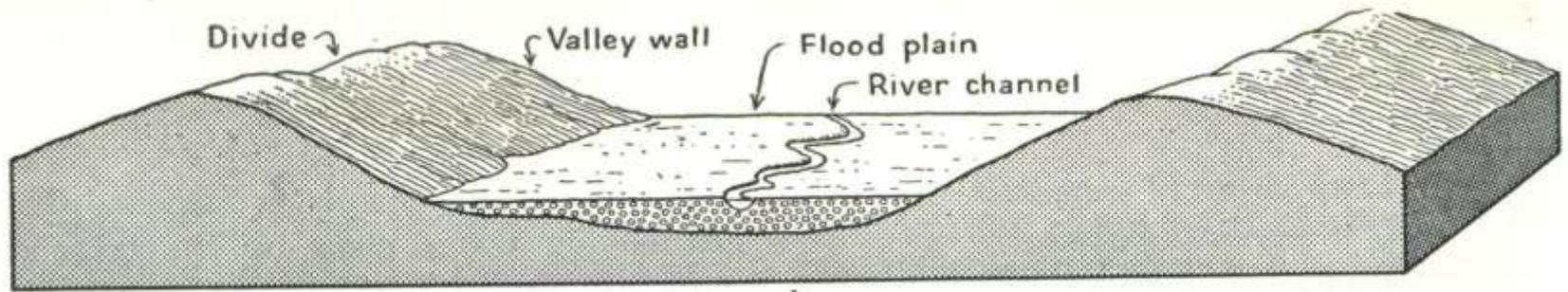
Stages of landscape development according to Davis. Notice the progressive flattening of the surface.



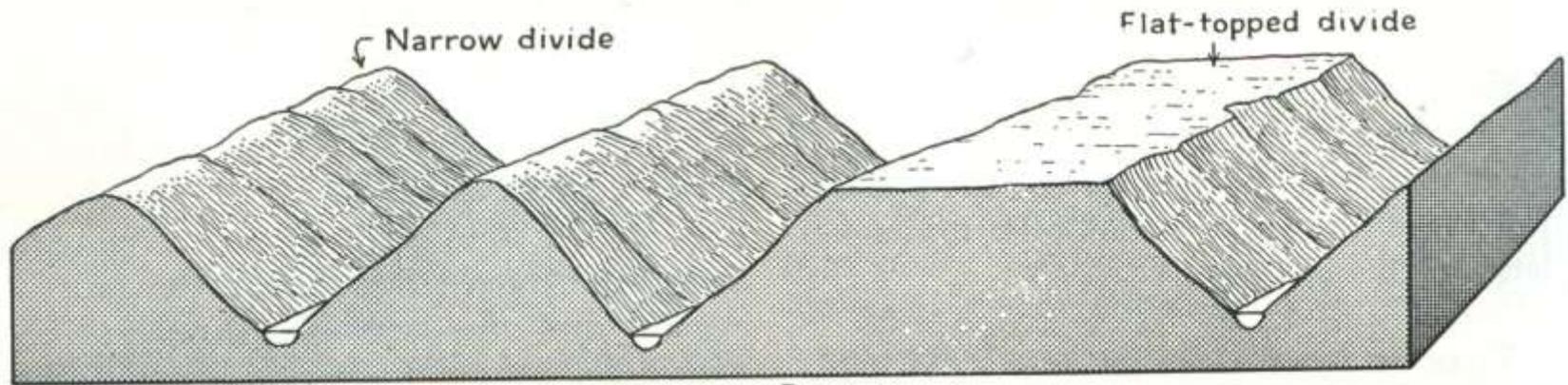
Dissection of a surface in a temperate climate (northern USA)



Dissection of a surface in a dry climate (western USA)

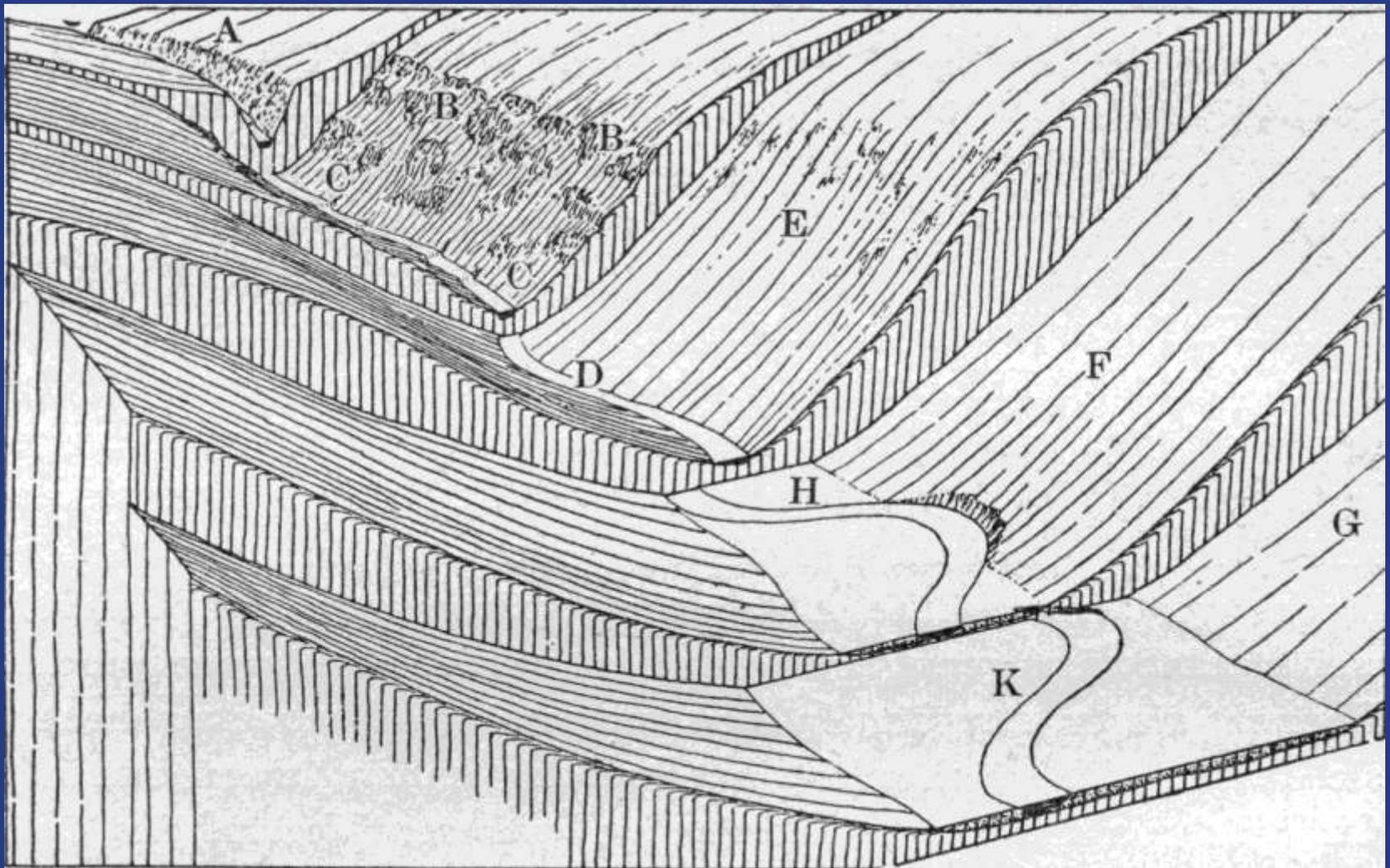


A



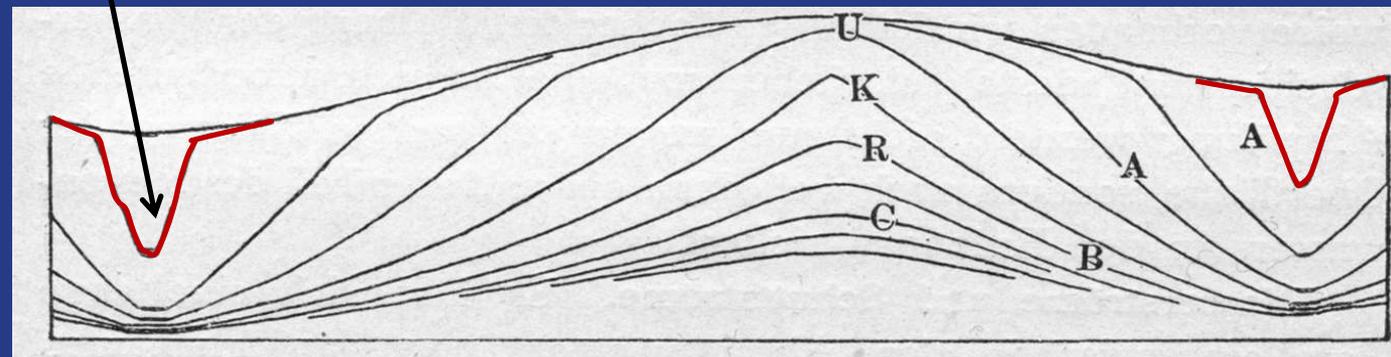
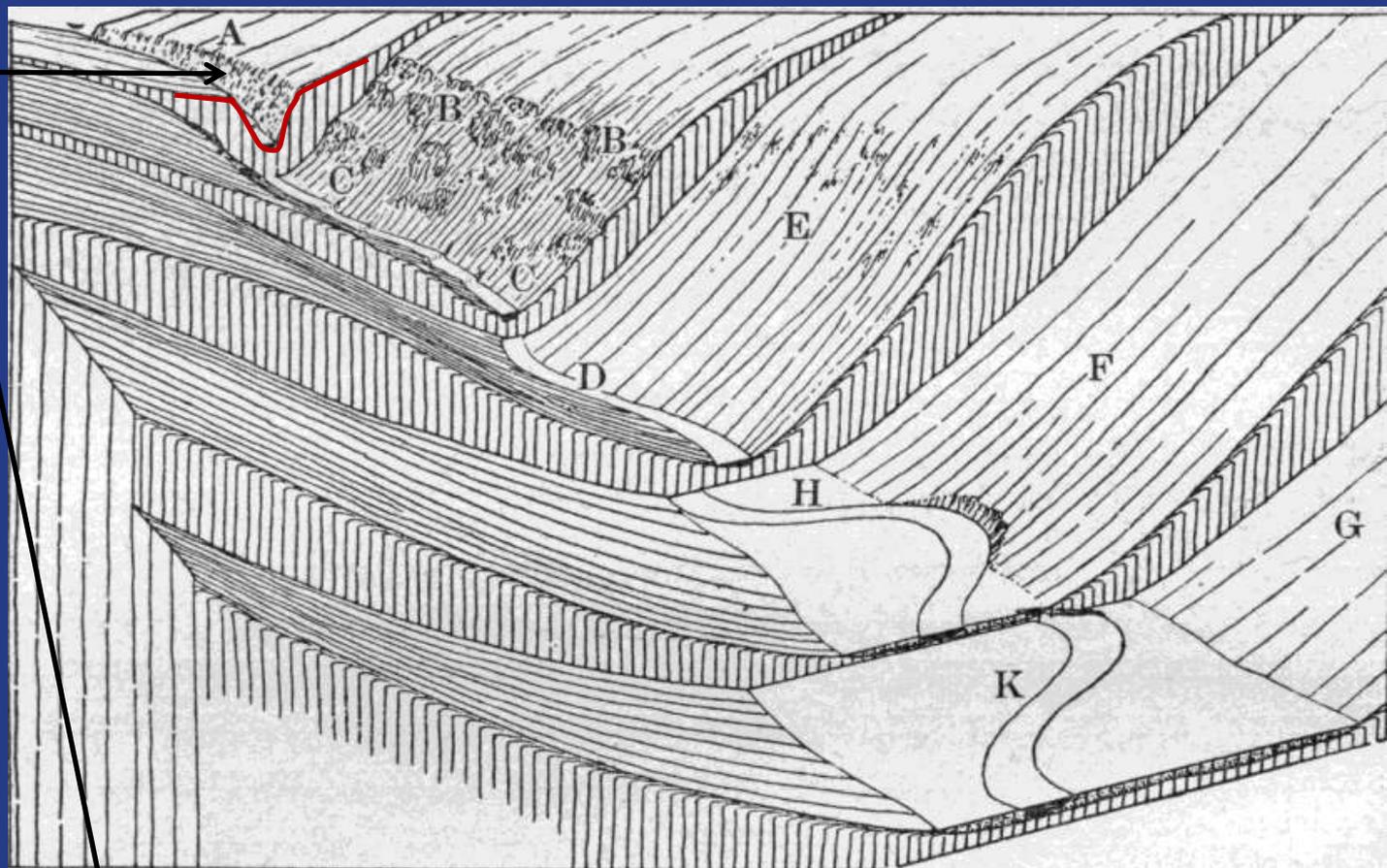
B

Basic geomorphological terminology of valleys



Development of a valley according to Davis.

Deep and narrow
young valley cut
into bedrock





Mediterranean climate
(semi humid): the
Gorge of Verdone,
France



Arid climate: Grand
Canyon of the Colorado
River, Arizona, USA



In young valleys and in the upper courses of any valley the stream comes into contact with bedrock more frequently than in the old valleys or in the lower courses of any valley.

In young valleys and in the upper courses of any valley, the gradients are steeper and the erosive power of the river is greater. It is in these areas that we see most of the erosive features of the rivers, such as:

1. Water falls
2. Rapids
3. Potholes (=devil's cauldrons)



WATERFALLS



The Niagara Falls, USA and Canada, has the highest rate of flow of any waterfall in the world, with a vertical drop of some 50 m.



Lockport Dolomite

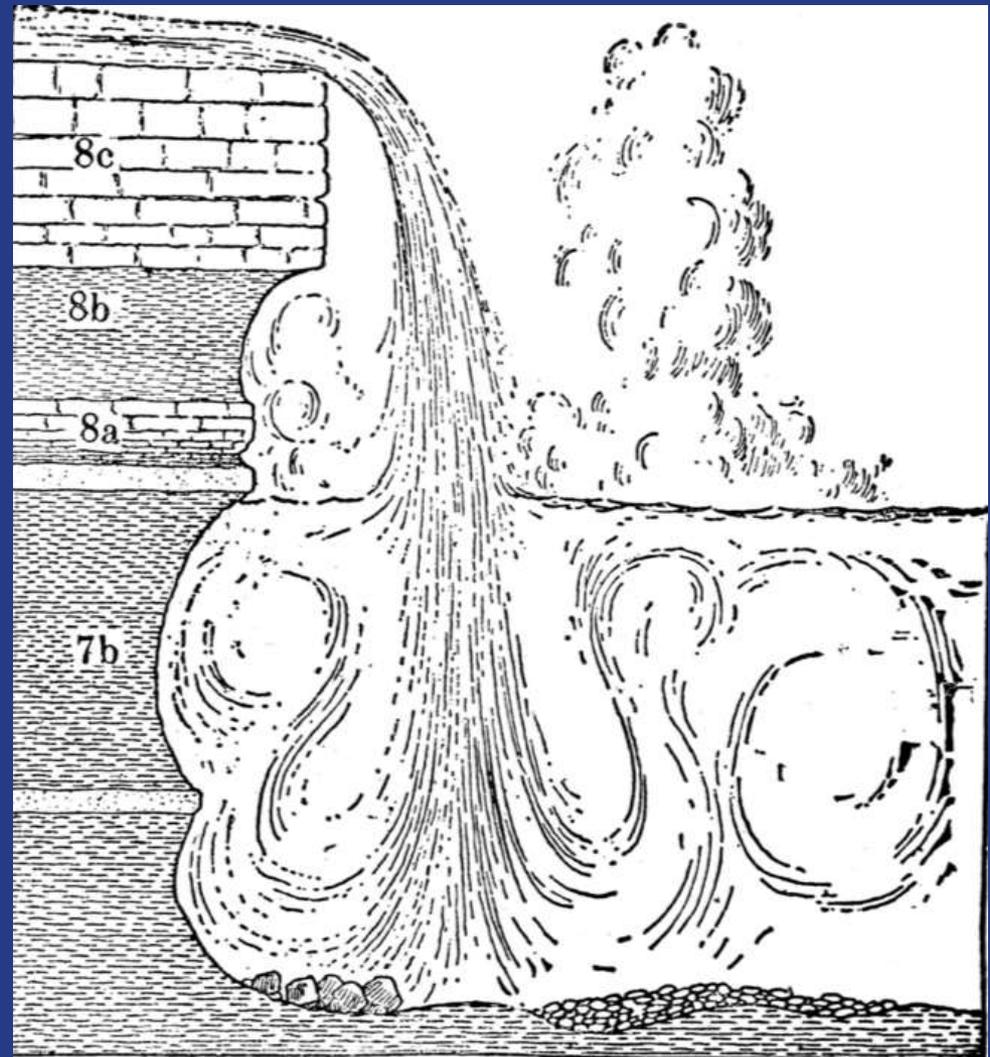
Rochester Shale

Clinton Limestone and Shale

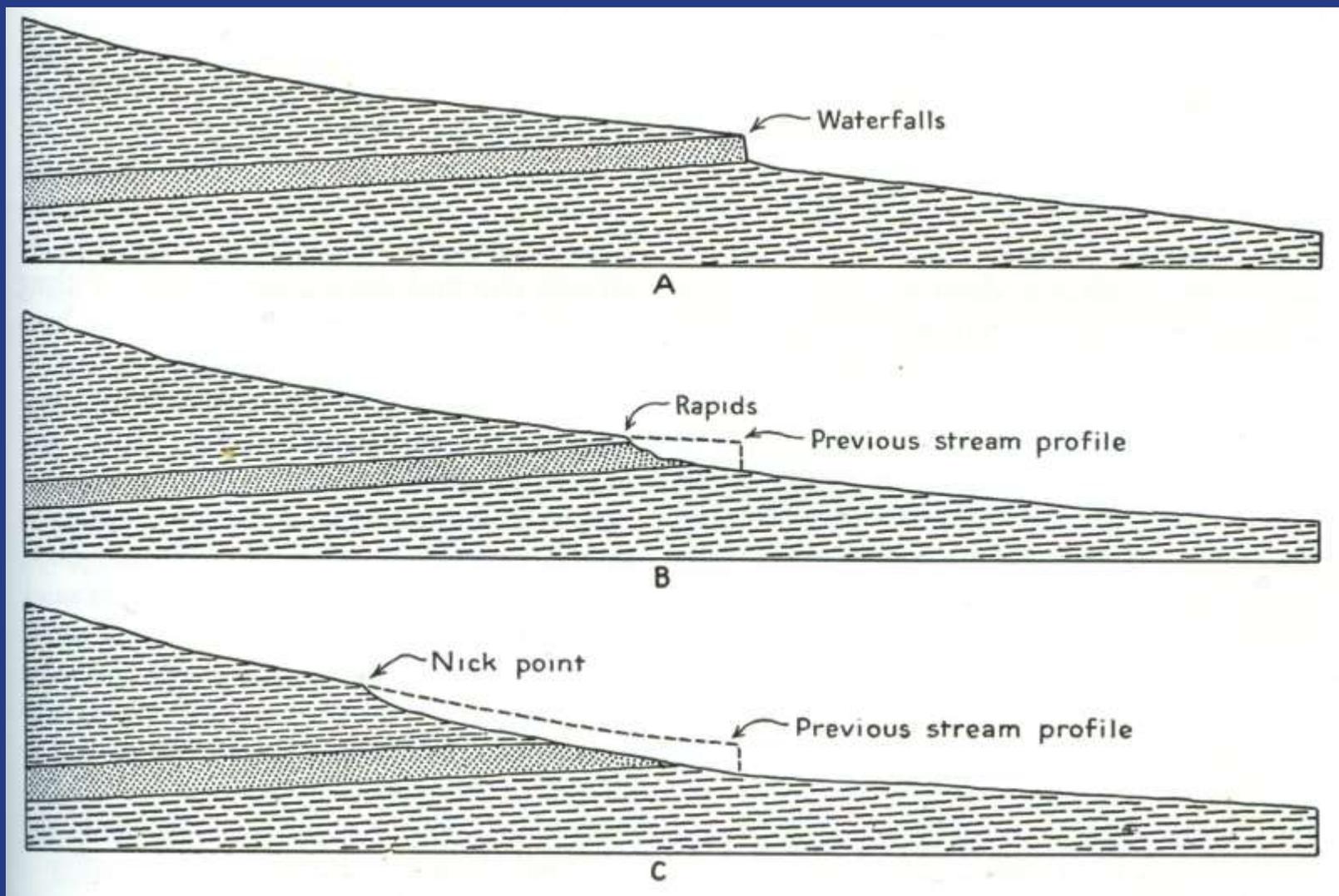
Medina Sandstone

Cataract Shale and
Sandstone

Queenston Shale



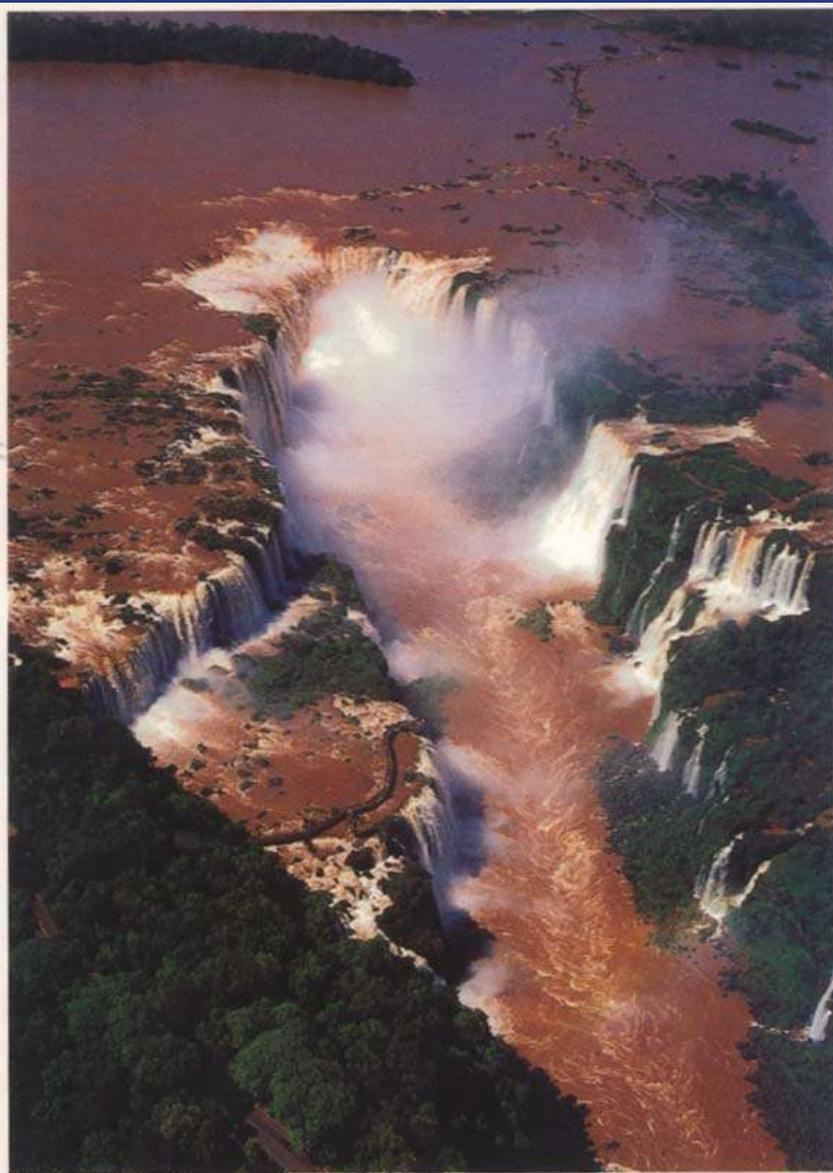
The geology of the Niagara Falls



Retreat and eventual destruction of a waterfall (inspired by the Niagara case)



J. P. Hackert's painting of the Tivoli Falls near Rome, Italy



CATARATAS DO IGUAÇU

The Iguazu Falls, Brazil



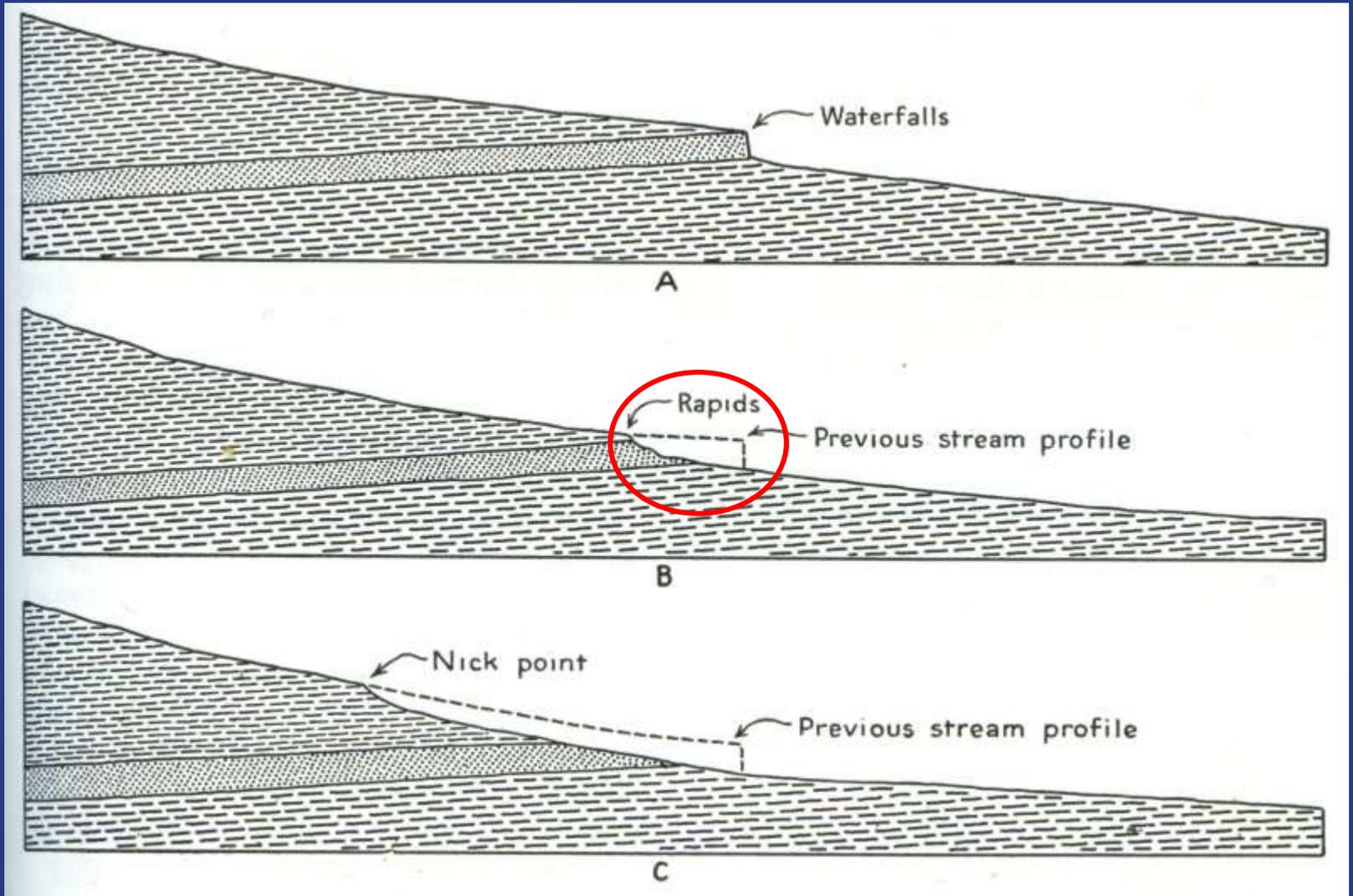
visit NATURE at www.pbs.org/nature

Angel Falls, Venezuela, on the Orinoco River, is the highest waterfall in the world. Its drop is 1000 metres and the waters reach the bottom only as vapour



The Victoria Falls (Mosi oa Tunya=smoke that thunders) on the Zambezi River at the border between Zambia and Zimbabwe, Africa. The Falls were discovered by the great Scottish geographer, missionary and humanist David Livingstone in 1855.

RAPIDS





The rapids of “Sweet’s Falls” in the upper Gauley River, West Virginia, USA

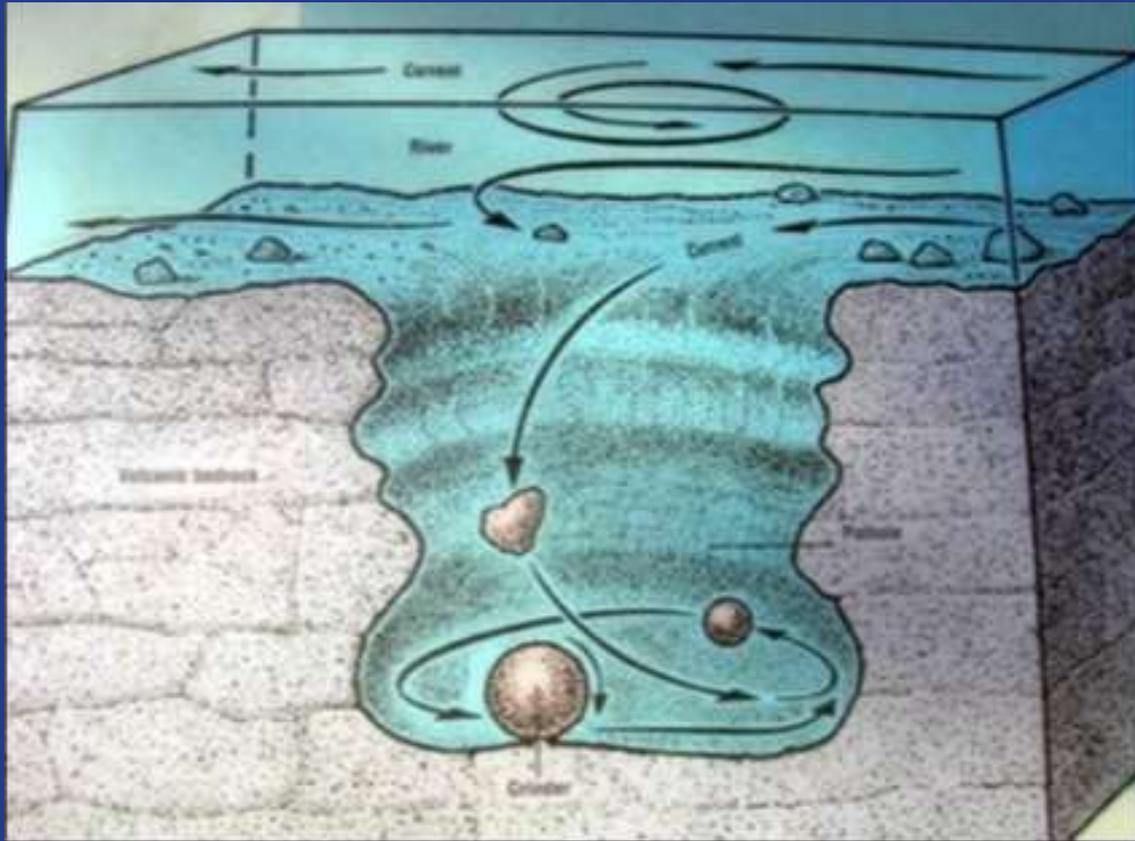


**Blakeney Rapids, Mississippi
River, Ontario, Canada**



Rapids below the falls at Fonferek Glen, Wisconsin, USA

POTHOLES (=DEVIL'S CAULDRONS)



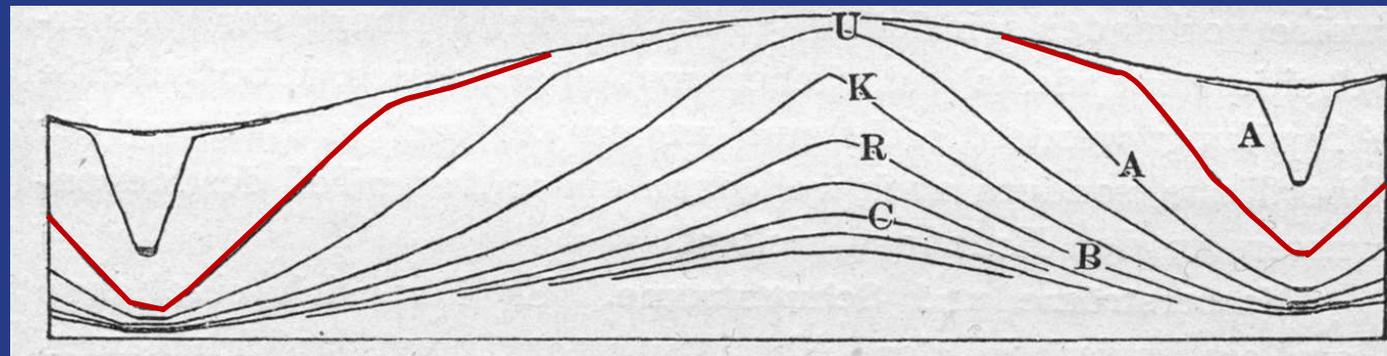
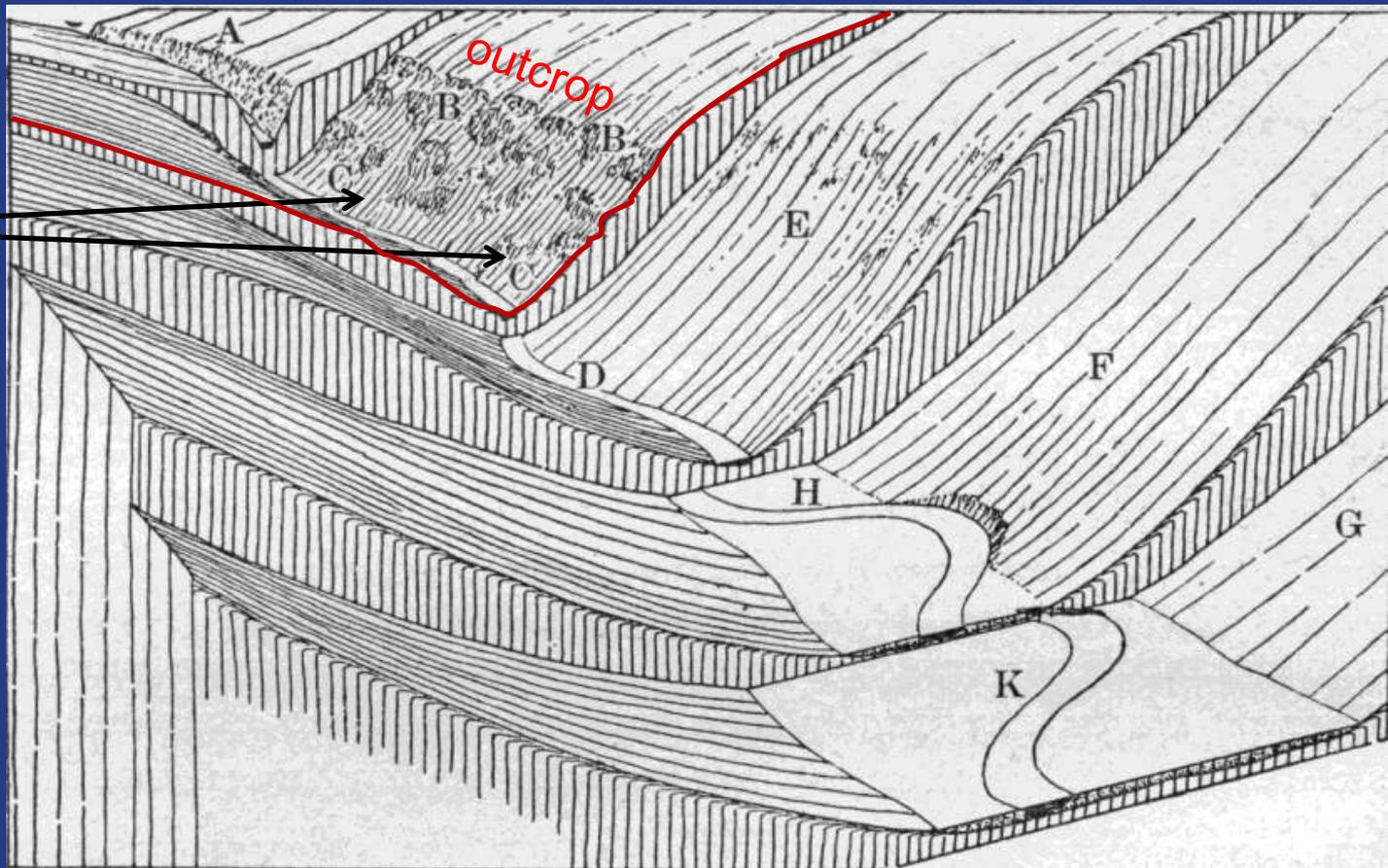


Potholes, location unknown

Bourke's Luck
Potholes, Blyde
river Canyon,
South Africa



Scree



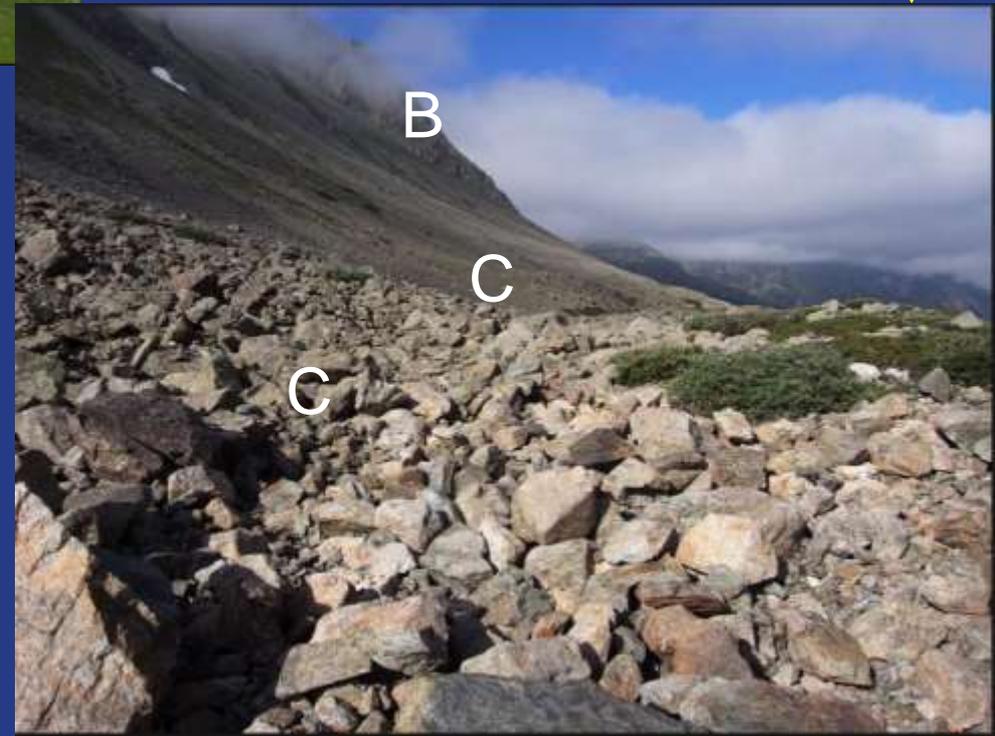
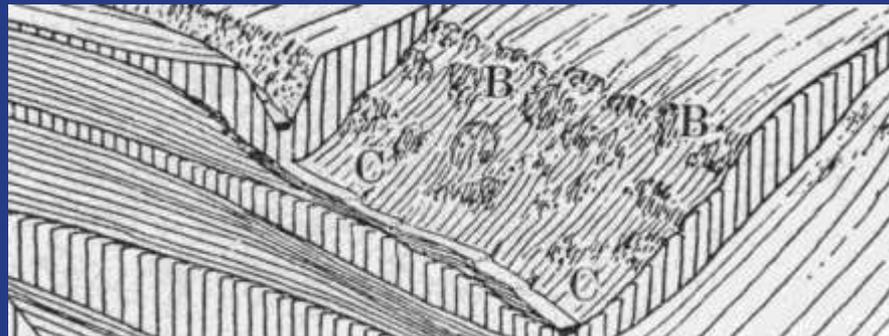
Mediterranean climate
(semi humid)



Scree in the Albula Pass



Albula Pass, Graubünden,
Switzerland

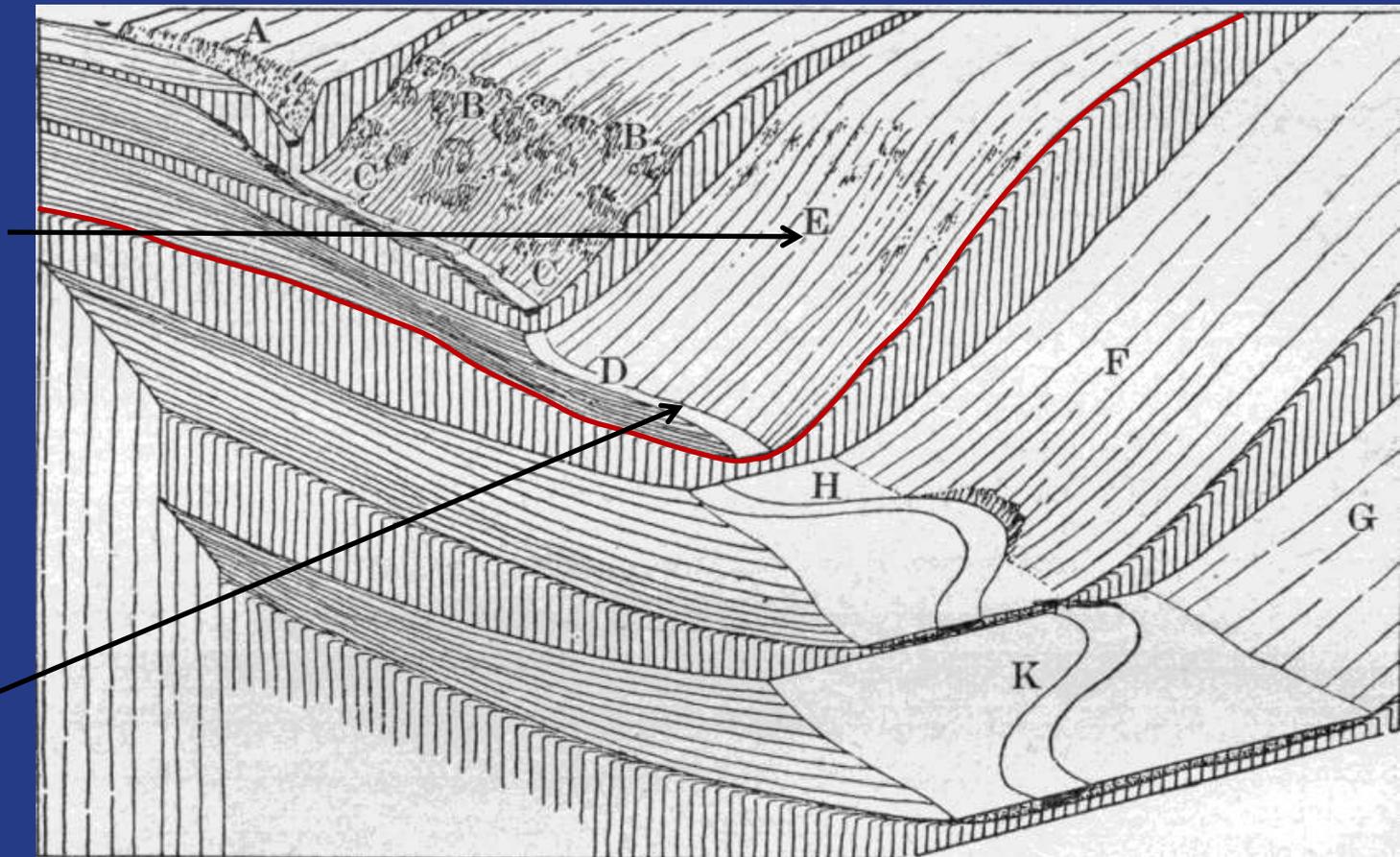


Arid climate

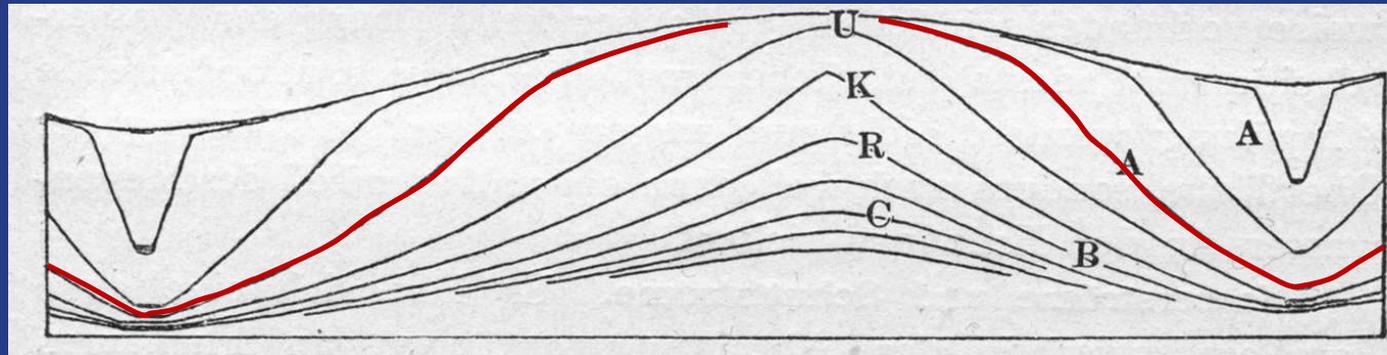


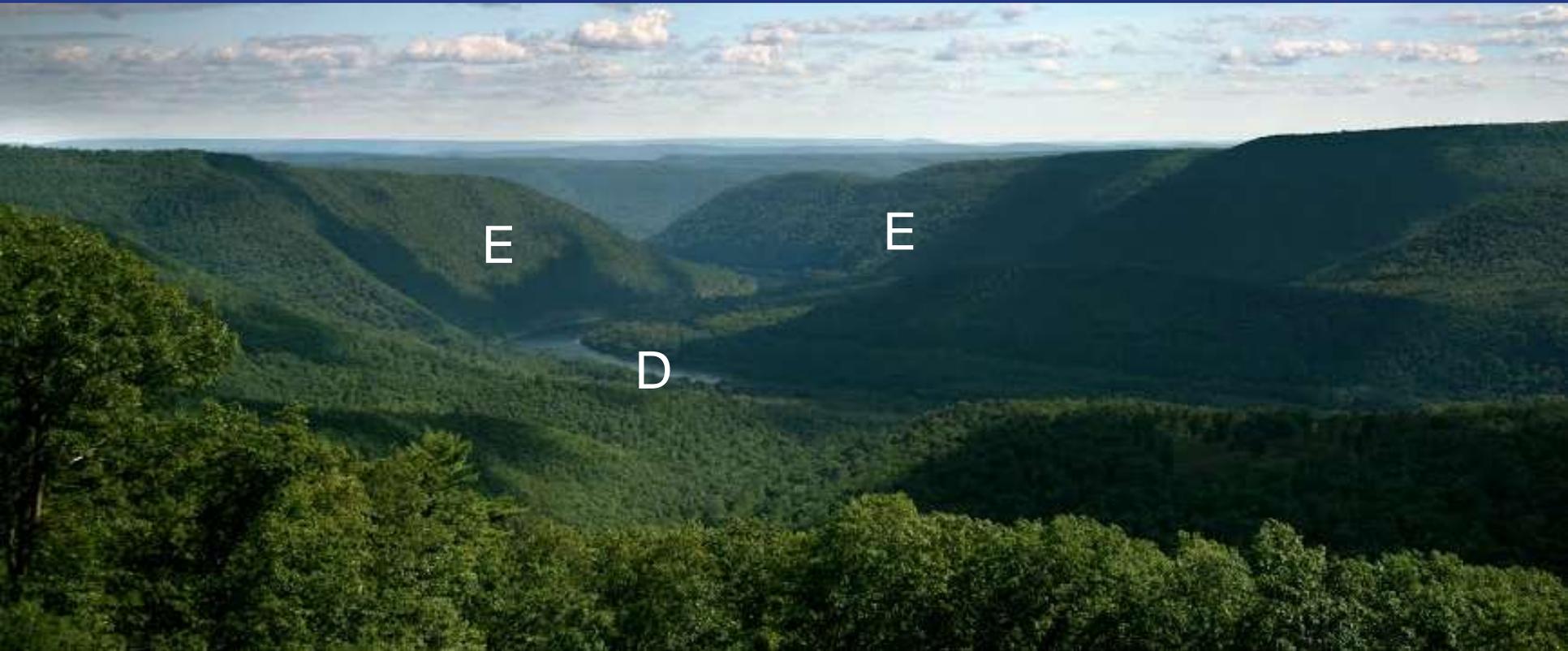
The valley of Ladakh,
Transhimalaya, Xizang
Autonomous Region
(Tibet) , China.

Scree covered slopes, small outcrops, if any



The stream approaches a point where it erodes very little

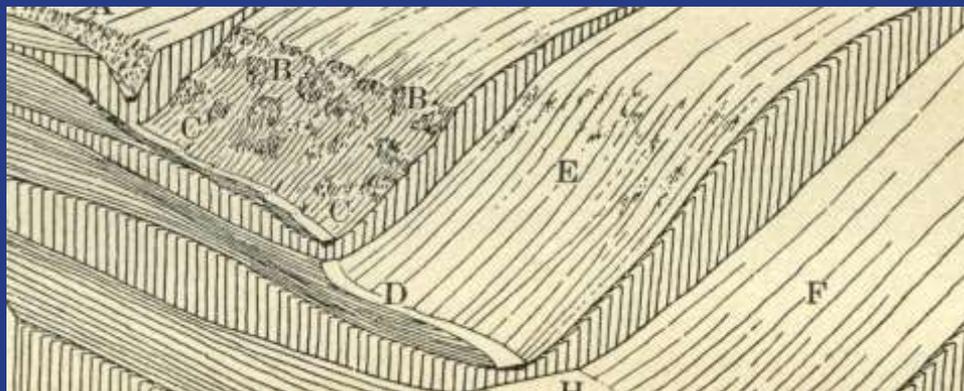




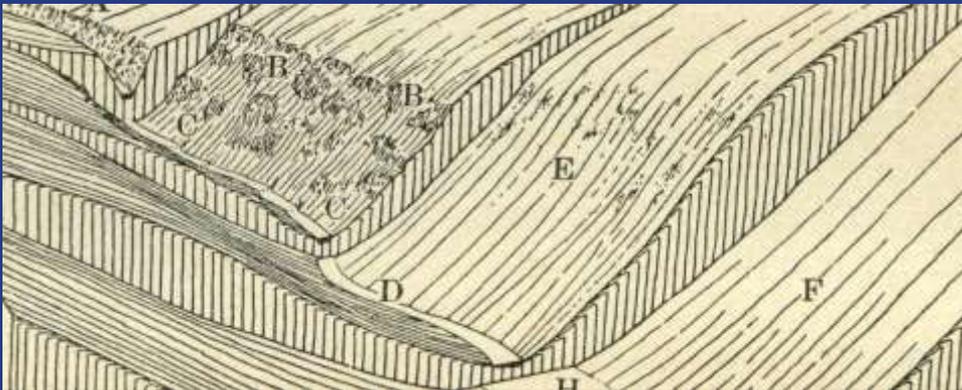
E

E

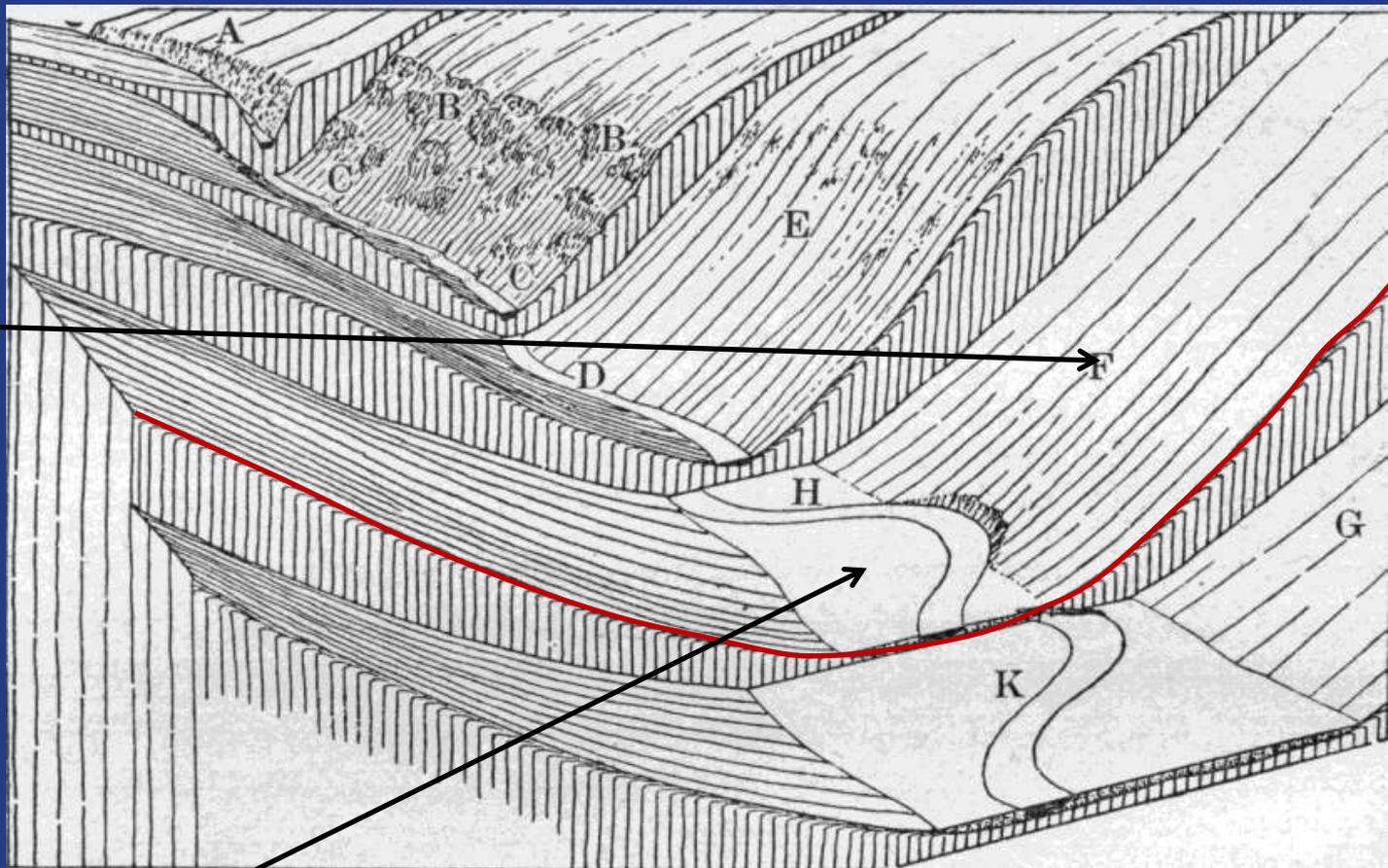
D



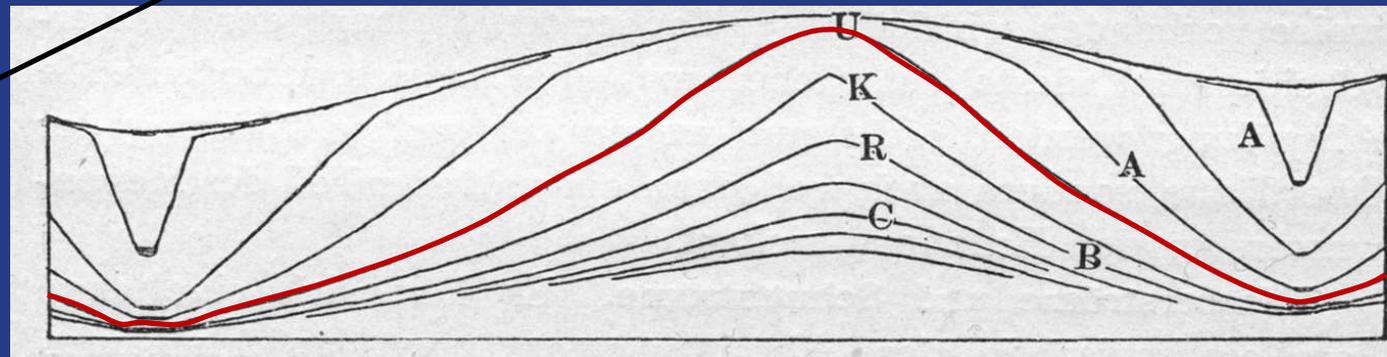
Hyner State Park in the
Pennsylvanian
Appalachians, USA,
Sesquehanna River
Valley

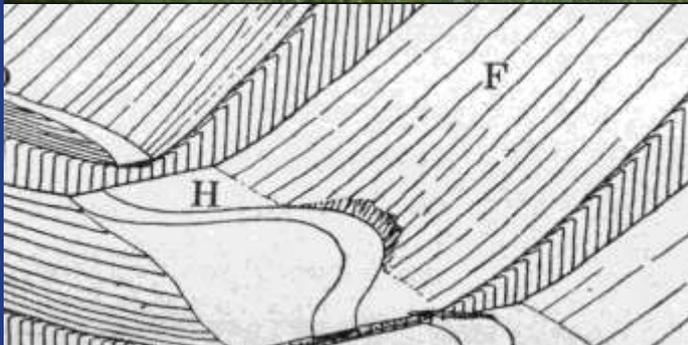
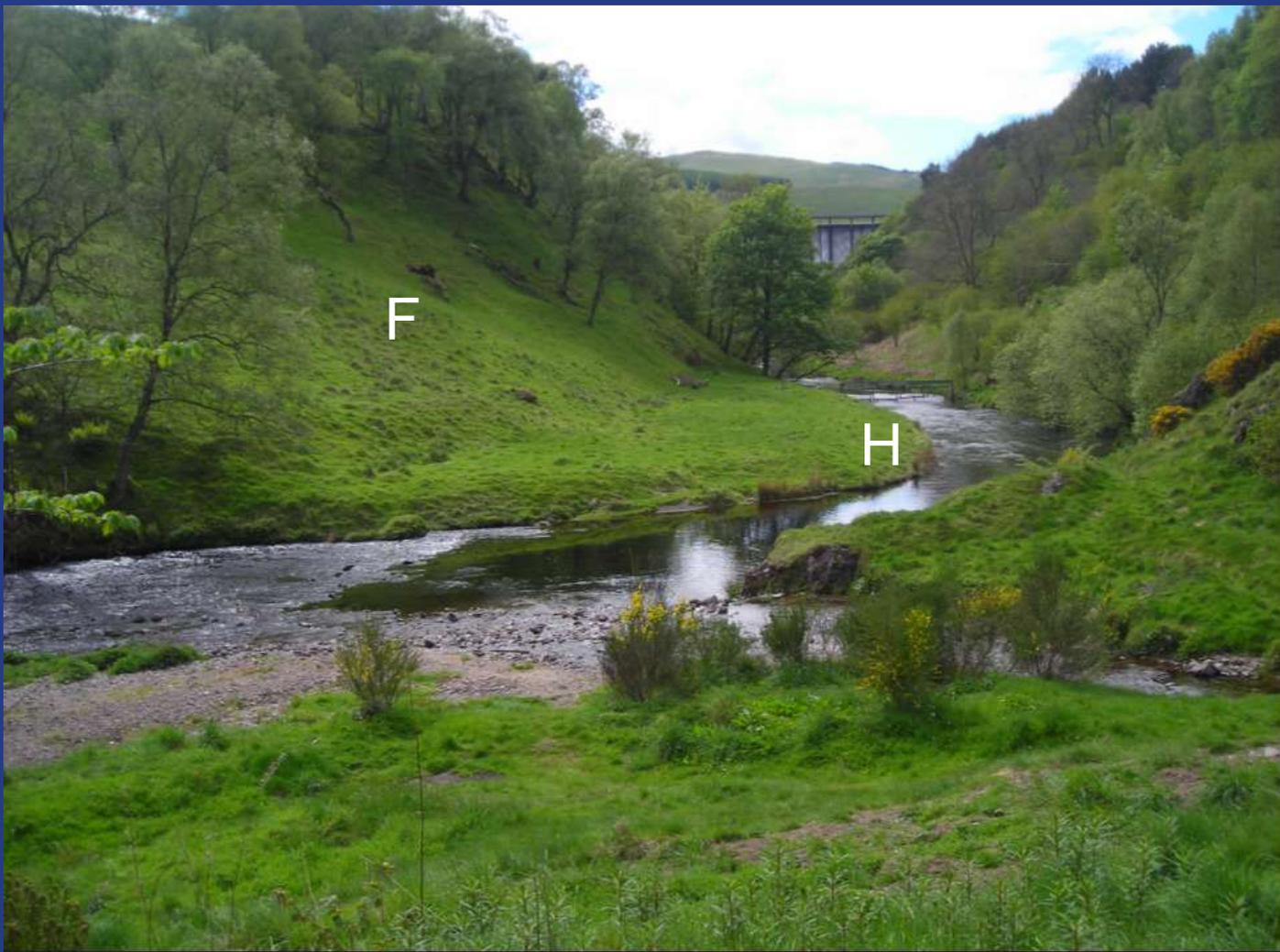


Valley slopes become gentler and the scree cover extends farther up



Valley bottom becomes wider and a flood plain appears.

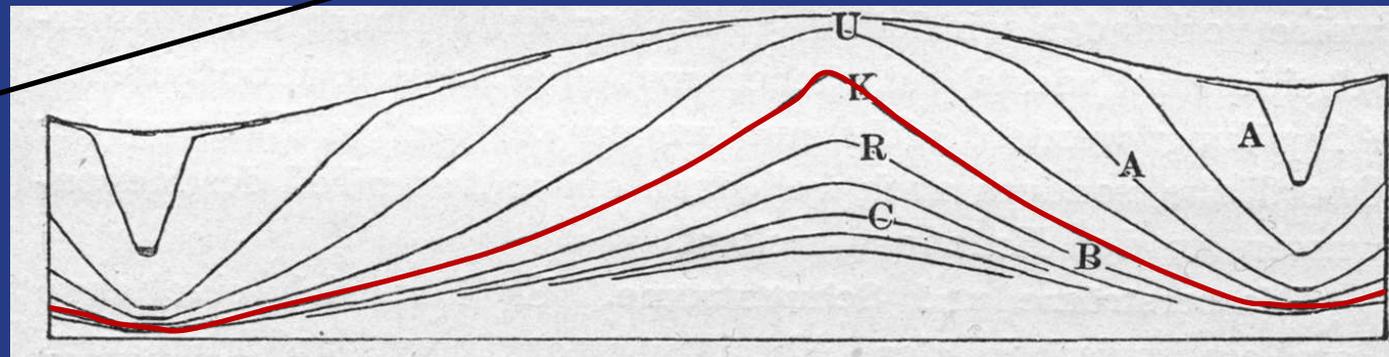
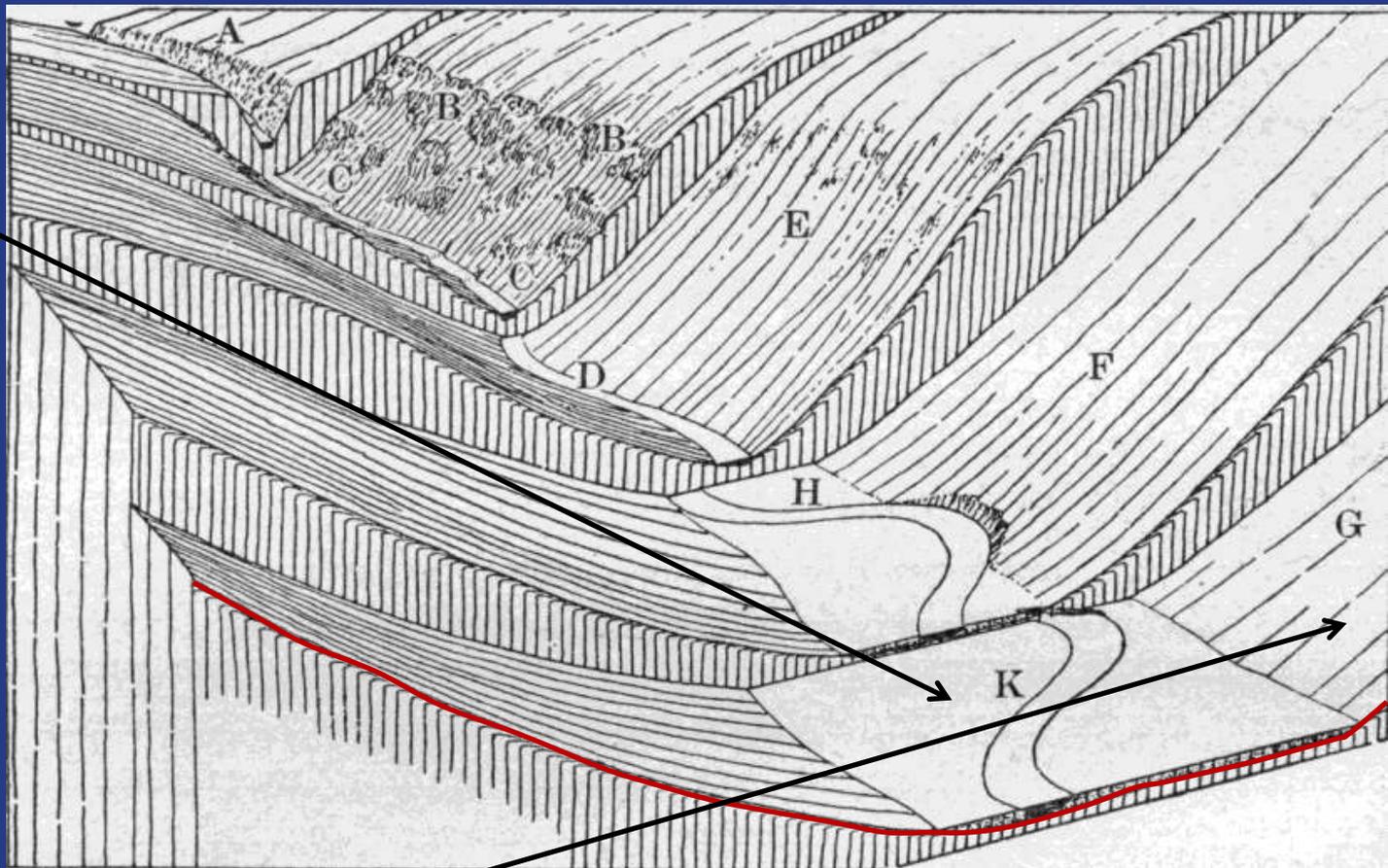




The mature river valley of the Dover River, England, with a newly-developing flood plain.

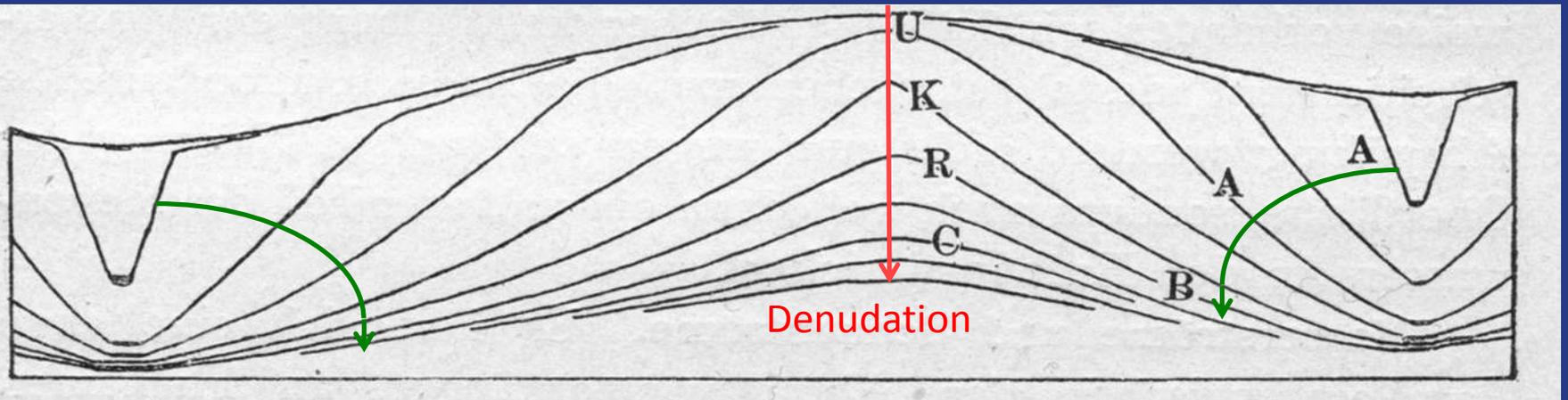
Flood plain
becomes
wider

The slope
scree
becomes
finer
grained
as the
valley
slopes
become
ever
gentler





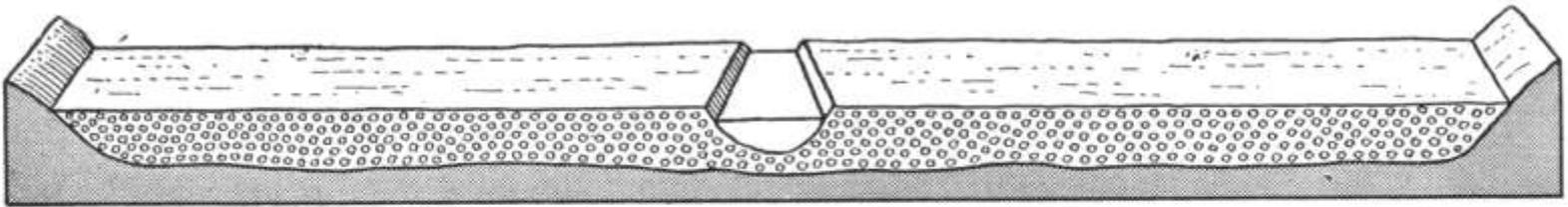
A mature valley. Notice the far slopes. Do they present a problem for the Davisian model?



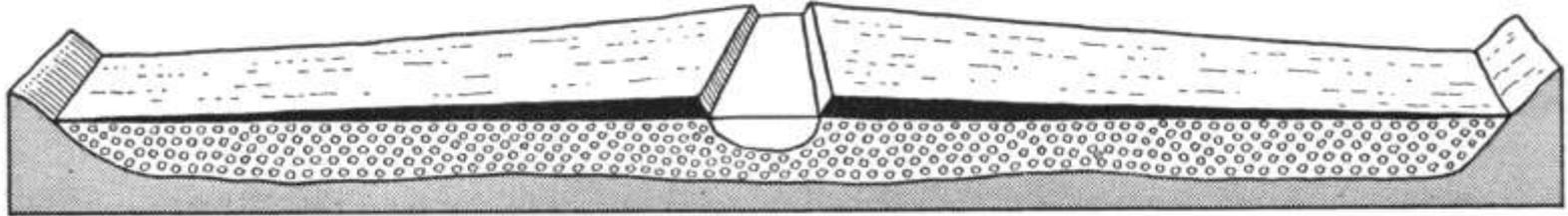
Slope flattening or slope degradation

Basic summary of Davis' model of valley evolution

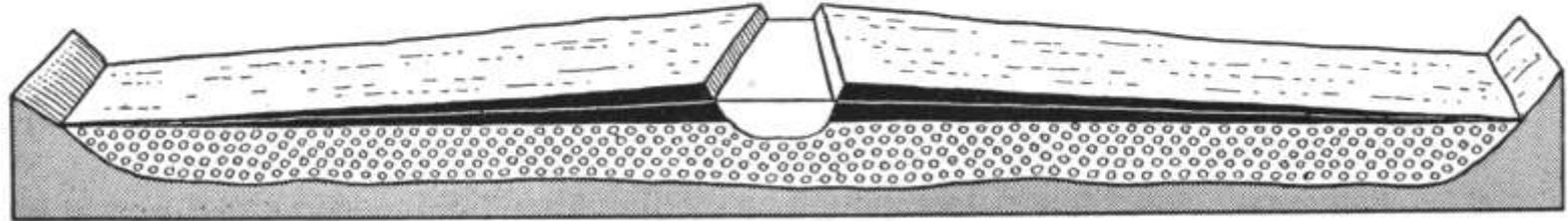
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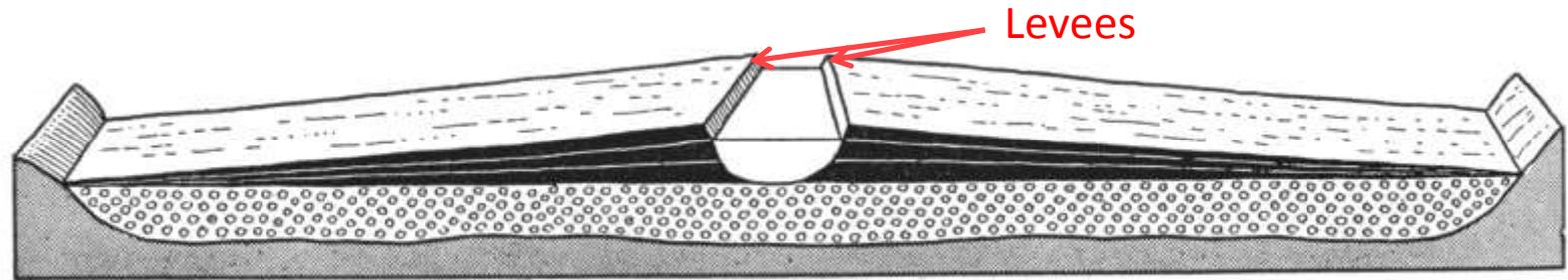
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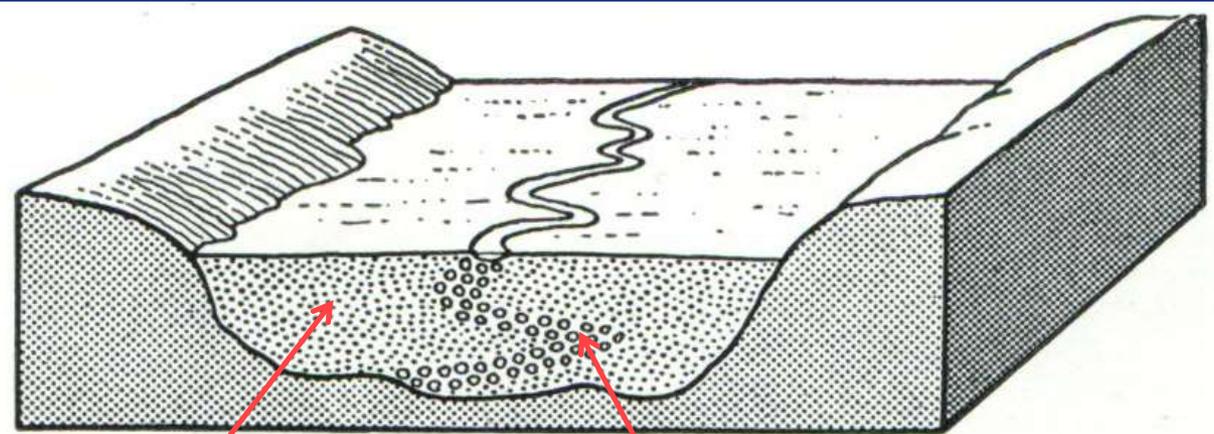
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Levees

Aggradation of a flood plain and the origin of natural levees

Fast aggrading
flood plain

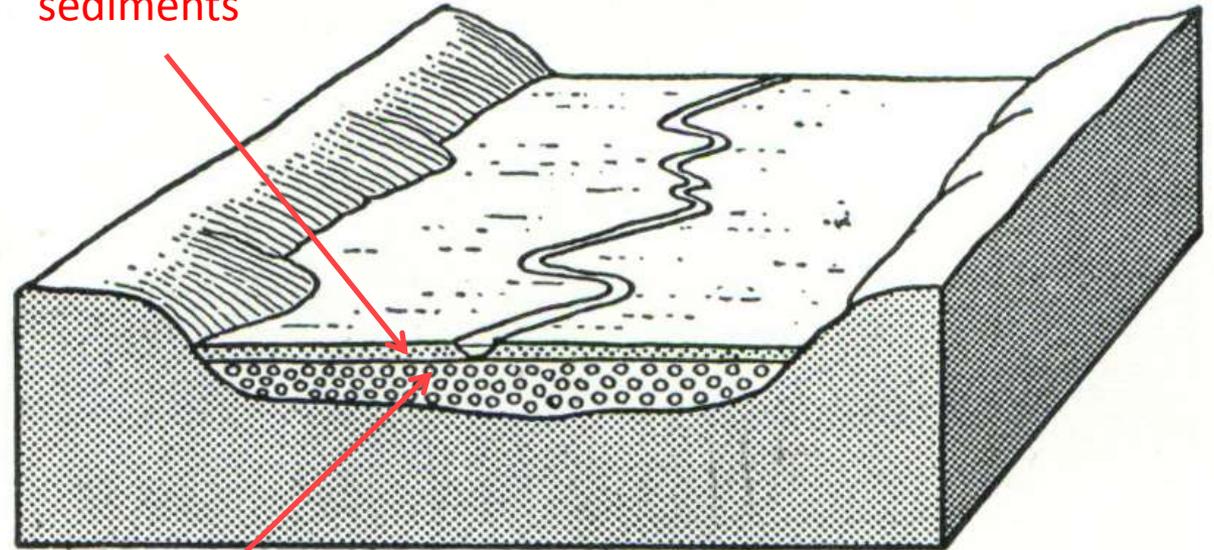


Fine-grained flood
sediments

A

Coarser bed sediments

Slowly
aggrading or
erosional flood
plain



B

Coarser bed sediments distributed across the entire flood plain
(because the river has more time to wander)

From Leet and Judson 1958



A braided stream in the Tien Shan Mountains,
Kyrgyzstan