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Estimates of the ratio between erupted magma and magma lodged as intrusions in the crust vary, depending on geologic factors and considerable uncertainties in the interpretations of the geologist. Production of basaltic magma predominantly in oceanic settings and mostly along ocean ridges far exceeds that of any other magma composition in any tectonic regime. Darmstadt, Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, Assume the book weighs 1 kg and the acceleration of gravity is 9. See the inside cover for units and conversions between them. For comparison, one beat of the human heart consumes about 1 J and a small cup of water, 3. An important type of work in geologic systems is called PV work, where P is the pressure, such as possessed by a volcanic gas, and V is the volume of the gas. Expansion of pressurized gas does work in displacing magma out of a volcanic vent, creating an explosive eruption. Kinetic energy is associated with the motion of a body. Potential energy is energy of position; it is potential in the sense that it can be converted, or transformed, into kinetic energy. A boulder cascading down a hill slope gains velocity and, therefore, kinetic energy as it loses potential energy. Potential energy can be equated with the amount of work required to move a body from one position to another in a potential field, in this instance, the gravitational field of the Earth. Thermal energy within the Earth is expended to do the work of uplifting a mountain range, which imparts increased gravitational potential energy to the mountain mass. Operating a bicycle tire pump demonstrates that mechanical work can be converted, or transformed, into thermal energy. The increased temperature of the tire pump is a manifestation of an increase in the thermal energy internally within the metal parts of the pump. The thermal energy of a body resides in the motions—kinetic energy—and the attractions—potential energy—of the atomic particles within it. An increase in the internal thermal energy of a solid is associated with greater kinetic energy via faster motion of the atoms and is manifest in a greater temperature, T. This motion can become sufficiently vigorous to break atomic bonds momentarily so that the solid becomes a flowing liquid, or, if bonds are fully broken, a gas. The term heat is sometimes used synonymously with thermal energy, but, strictly speaking, heat is transferred thermal energy caused by a difference in temperature between bodies. For example, the thermal energy of a magmatic intrusion is reduced as heat moves into the surrounding cooler wall rocks, heating them to a higher T. The joule, J, is the fundamental unit of energy see the inside cover for units used throughout this textbook. Energy is also exchanged, converted, or transformed, from one form into another. Thus, decay of an unstable radioactive U nucleus emits high-speed smaller particles whose kinetic energy is transformed into thermal energy that heats the mineral hosting the U atom. As rocks adjacent to a magmatic intrusion are heated, they expand and exert an increased pressure on adjacent rocks, displacing them outward and doing PV work on them. Thermal energy and work are, therefore, interconvertible. And work can be converted into thermal energy—such as in a tire pump. PV work is a transfer of energy due to a difference in pressure; heat is a transfer of thermal energy due to a difference in temperature, T. In all such flows and transformations of energy the total amount is rigorously and quantitatively conserved in agreement with the law of conservation of energy, also called the first law of thermodynamics. This law claims that the total amount of energy and mass in the universe is constant. The total amount of energy is not added to or subtracted from; it only moves about and is converted to other, perhaps less obvious, forms. In all such flows and transformations we are concerned with changes in the amount of energy. In contrast, the total, or absolute, amount of energy residing in a system is difficult to evaluate and generally is unimportant. Movement of thermal energy is obviously involved in magmatic rock-forming processes, such as heating solid rock so it melts, forming magma. On a larger scale, cooling oceanic lithosphere becomes denser and sinks as subducting slabs into the hotter, less dense upper mantle. Without heat, the Earth would be geologically dead. The subscript in CP indicates the heat capacity is for a condition of constant pressure, a common geologic situation, as for example, when rock is being heated by a nearby magmatic intrusion at a particular pressure in

the Earth. However, rocks generally have specific heats of 0. Use of water in building heating systems and in automobile radiators is serendipitous because water is also inexpensive and readily available. In geologic systems, water absorbs considerable heat from nearby magmatic intrusions and as it moves through cracks can effectively transport this heat to distant rock, changing its T. Heat can be transferred in four different ways: Commonly, two or three of these act in unison, as in the cooling of the lava flow in Figure 1. Radiation involves emission of electromagnetic energy from the surface of a hot body into transparent cooler surroundings, such as the Sun into surrounding space or a hot lava into the atmosphere. Advection involves flow of a liquid through openings in a rock whose T is different from that of the liquid. Because all rocks near the surface of the Earth are fractured on some scale and because these fractures are, at least partly, filled with water, advection is a significant heat transfer process. For example, hot water heated by a nearby magmatic intrusion advects through cracks in cooler rock, heating it while moderating the T of the water. The greater heat Fractured rock.

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In the preceding chapters, I characterized sedimentary rocks in terms of their physical Folk, in the various editions of his well-known petrology textbook. Such characterization is not, however, the principal reason that we normally undertake research on sedimentary rocks. Determining the physical and chemical properties of these rocks is simply a means to a more important end, which is to reconstruct the history of the rocks. Our ultimate aim in studying siliciclastic sedimentary rocks is to develop a fuller understanding of 1 the source s of the particles that make up the rocks, 2 the erosion and transport mechanisms that moved the particles from source areas to depositional sites, 3 the depositional setting and depositional processes responsible for sedimentation of the particles the depositional environment , and 4 the physical and chemical conditions of the burial environment and the diagenetic changes that occur in siliciclastic sediment during burial and uplift. These objectives, in turn, are important to the broader goal of developing reliable paleogeographic models of Earth for particular times in the past. Some studies have a further purpose of evaluating siliciclastic sedimentary rocks in terms of their economic potential as reservoir rocks for oil and gas, source beds for petroleum, host rocks for ore mineralization, groundwater aquifers, and so on. In this chapter, we deal with one of these important objectives of geologic research, understanding the sources of siliciclastic sediment. We commonly refer to sediment source as provenance. The term provenance is derived from the French *provenir*, meaning to originate or come forth Pettijohn et al. The term is also spelled *provenience*. Words such as source area and *sourceland* are sometimes used as synonyms for provenance. As the word provenance is commonly used by sedimentologists today, however, it has a broader meaning than just source area. The meaning of provenance has been extended to encompass the location of the source area how far away was it and in what direction? Provenance studies are especially important to our understanding of paleogeography. When coupled with studies of depositional environments, they help us interpret the relative positions of ancient oceans and highlands at given times in the geologic past. From such studies, we are able to reconstruct the location, size, and lithologic composition of mountain systems 7. We may even be able to make intelligent guesses about the climate and relief of these highlands, as well as the tectonic setting in which the source area lay. Most early studies of provenance focused on determining the lithology of parent source rocks, as interpreted from the particulate components of sandstones and conglomerates. Many investigators also sought to identify the locations of source areas on the basis of paleocurrent analysis of directional sedimentary structures and by mapping grain-size or grain-shape trends. Beginning in the s, emphasis shifted to interpretation of tectonic setting in terms of plate-tectonic concepts; that is, characterization of source areas as magmatic arcs, collision orogens, or continental blocks. Only a few studies have focused on interpreting climate and relief of source area, possibly owing to the fact that such interpretations are difficult to make and their reliability is somewhat tenuous. Most provenance studies have involved analysis of sandstones or conglomerates; relatively few studies of shale provenance have been published. In this chapter, we examine some of the tools and techniques that sedimentologists use to interpret provenance. Other characteristics of siliciclastic deposits useful in provenance analysis include the paleomagnetic characteristics of the rocks, which help establish the paleolatitude of the source area; vertical and lateral facies relationships of stratigraphic units, which are related to sediment transport directions; and the overall thickness and volume of siliciclastic units, which reflect to some degree the size of source area Fig. Our knowledge of the lithology of vanished ancient mountain systems rests mainly on analysis of detrital framework modes of siliciclastic deposits derived from these mountains. Mineralogy also provides our most useful evidence for interpreting tectonic setting because source-rock lithology is linked fundamentally to tectonic setting. Detrital mineralogy may also provide limited insight into climatic conditions on the basis of the assumption that mineralogic maturity of sediments is determined in part by selective destruction of minerals at weathering sites. Weathering under very cold or very dry conditions presumably allows preservation Provenance of siliciclastic sedimentary rocks Figure 7. Thus, detrital minerals

provide some clues to climate. Chemical composition of minerals, particularly their trace-element chemistry, may aid also in identifying the lithology of source rocks. The cathodoluminescence characteristics of some minerals, particularly quartz, have significant value in source-rock interpretation see Boggs and Krinsley, , ch. Mapping grain-size trends and grain-shape trends together with evidence derived from directional sedimentary structures such as flute casts and cross-beds allows interpretation of paleocurrent directions. Thus, textural and structural data help fix the general direction in which the source area was located. Grain-size and -shape data may also provide some insight into the climate and relief of source areas, under the assumption that the nature and intensity of weathering can affect the sizes of particles released from source rocks. High-relief source areas tend to promote more-rapid erosion, and thus derivation of coarser particles, than low-relief source areas where slower erosion allows more time for size reduction by weathering processes. On the other hand, the grain size of sediments is a function of numerous complex variables, such as size sorting during sediment transport, and is not easily related to climate and relief. In terms of grain shape, intense rounding of grains, for example, could point to eolian activity and desert conditions in source areas. The overall size of these vanished highlands can be estimated roughly from the volume of siliciclastic sediments preserved in the basins. Such estimates are indeed rough because the source area may have included considerable volumes of soluble rocks such as limestones. Also, much mud-size sediment derived from the source area may have been transported to and dispersed within distal areas where it cannot readily be tied to a particular source area. If they are not, they are part of a displaced or exotic terrane. In such a case, the sedimentary rocks may or may not have been rifted away from their source area, which could now exist at some completely different location with respect to the depositional basin. A knowledge of the paleolatitude at which the sediments were deposited can be useful also in interpreting the climate of the source area or at least in constraining interpretations of climate on the basis of other factors. Facies-relationships maps can be related to directional features such as cross-bedding and thus to paleoslope. Clastic ratio maps or sand-clay ratio maps, for example, give a clear indication of the general source direction of clastic detritus. Examination of a series of stratigraphic units of different ages can reveal the persistence, or lack of persistence, of a particular source area or can show geographic shifts in major sediment-dispersal centers as a function of time. Paleocurrent indicators help establish paleoslope and paleotransport directions, which, in turn, reveal the direction in which the source area lay with respect to the depositional basin. Overall, the most useful paleocurrent indicators are probably the various Provenance of siliciclastic sedimentary rocks Figure 7. Brandywine gravel of Maryland. Pettijohn, , Paleocurrent and Basin Analysis, Fig. Methods of measuring the orientation of directional structures and presentation of directional data are discussed in Section 3. Fabric elements of sediments such as long-axis orientation and imbrication of pebbles also have directional significance Section 2. When paleocurrent data are plotted on maps such as that shown in Fig. Such maps may reveal dispersal patterns and thus sediment source directions. Mapping the grain-size distributions within sandstone or conglomeratic deposits may likewise have directional significance. In conglomeratic rocks, grain-size distribution maps are typically based on maximum clast size, which is commonly given as the mean intermediate clast diameter of the ten largest clasts measured at each sample point. In sandy sediments, maps of either mean or maximum grain size may be prepared. If one works under the general assumption that sediments become 7. Note in this example that grain-size change and paleocurrent vectors indicate that the source area lay to the west of the map area. Mapping grain shape roundness, sphericity, form to establish grain-shape trends is another possible technique to identify sediment dispersal directions. When such techniques are applied to pebbles, we might expect as a gross approximation that pebble roundness would increase in the direction of sediment transport. Further, particle form and sphericity might change also as a result of shape sorting and possibly abrasion during sediment transport. For example, roller-shaped and equant-shaped pebbles might be expected to outrun disc- and blade-shaped pebbles. Problems arising from factors such as pebble recycling, pebble breakage, and addition in fluvial systems of sediment from downstream tributaries and uncertainties about the relative effects of current shape sorting and abrasion on the shapes of pebbles all weaken the reliability of interpretations based on such techniques. These common shape techniques do not work well with sand-size particles because gross properties such as roundness and sphericity of sand-size quartz are not greatly affected by stream transport. More-sophisticated

techniques for determining the shapes of quartz sand and silt by using Fourier shape analysis Chapter 2 appear to hold greater promise for detecting meaningful downcurrent changes in particle shape. Facies relationships that can be expressed in terms of thickness or lithologic character of various lithofacies can be mapped also. Such maps may be used as further evidence for sediment dispersal patterns and thus source-area location. Lithofacies-thickness isopach maps, maps that show the ratio of siliciclastic constituents to nonsiliciclastic constituents clastic ratio maps, sand-shale ratio maps, facies maps that show the geographic distribution of major lithofacies types, and so on all provide evidence of sediment dispersal patterns see Boggs, , ch. Assuming that source areas are located within a few degrees of latitude to depositional basins, paleomagnetic evidence can be used to at least approximately locate the paleolatitude of source areas. Such evidence is particularly important in working with displaced terranes that may have been transported thousands of kilometers from their original location and may even have been rifted away from their source areas. It has long been recognized, however, that the composition of these rocks is controlled by more than the composition of the source rocks alone. Source-rock composition is certainly the first-order control on sediment composition, but the original composition may be severely modified by several factors, particularly 1 climate and relief of the source region, which control chemical weathering and erosion; 2 the nature of the sediment-transport process including sediment recycling, which can affect composition by selective destruction of less-stable grains and selective sorting on the basis of size, shape, and specific gravity; 3 the depositional environment, where further selective grain destruction and sorting may take place, as well as mixing of sediment from different sources; and finally 4 diagenetic processes that may result in partial or complete dissolution of less-stable grains or their replacement by other minerals. The factors that control sediment composition are summarized graphically in Fig. As indicated by Johnsson, the processes of sediment erosion, transport, deposition, and burial are intimately interlinked, which creates a complex web of feedback mechanisms that control sediment composition. For example, tectonic setting controls the slope and relief of the source area, which in turn control the duration time of sediment residence on slopes and thus the time available for chemical weathering processes to alter or destroy less-stable minerals. Realistic provenance interpretation requires that we recognize the many factors other than composition of parent source rocks that can affect sediment composition. It has long been recognized e. Goldich, that the common rock-forming minerals have different stabilities with respect to chemical weathering processes. Minerals that crystallize at high temperatures e. Thus, chemical weathering processes act to selectively destroy less-stable minerals, which biases our ability to interpret provenance correctly from the surviving mineral assemblages in sediments. We recognize in a general way that warm, humid climates increase weathering intensity and bring about, in a given period of time, greater destruction of parent-rock minerals than do very cold or very dry climates. Also, it is commonly accepted that low relief and gentle slopes promote chemical weathering because the duration of weathering is longer on gentle slopes. On the other hand, high relief and steep slopes favor erosion and rapid removal of minerals from the weathering environment before they are severely altered by weathering processes. See Dutta and Wheat for a case study of climatic and tectonic controls on sandstone composition. Arrows indicate parameters that exert influence on each other. Transport affects the composition of sediment in a variety of ways depending upon the mode of transport. Transport of sediment by current flow is a selective process. Particles are separated into a suspension load and a bedload, and within the bedload, gravels tend to be Provenance of siliciclastic sedimentary rocks separated from sand. These processes thus bring about sorting of particles by size, shape, and density. Obviously, such sorting changes the mix of particle compositions that was initially fed into the transport system. For example, current transport causes most clay minerals and other very fine minerals to become separated from coarser-grained quartz, feldspars, and rock fragments. Furthermore, gravel, which is composed mainly of rock fragments, tends to become separated from sand-size fragments. Additional sorting occurs within the sand fraction owing to shape and density differences of grains. To illustrate, heavy minerals become sorted by density into different size groups, resulting in fine-size, dense heavy minerals being transported along with hydraulically equivalent, coarser-grained quartz and feldspar. Even the composition of pebbles may be affected by size sorting during transport. For example, the clast composition of coarse gravels on river point bars can differ significantly from the clast composition

of fine gravels on the same bars. Current transport also causes significant abrasion of gravel-size detritus, as well as mechanical shattering and breaking owing to impact.

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