Sedimentary Geology



Sedimentology vs. Stratigraphy

- **Sedimentology** is the study of the origin and classification of sediments and sedimentary rocks
 - Mostly the physical and chemical properties, and the *processes* by which they formed
- **Stratigraphy** is the science of layered rocks
 - Mostly the interpretation of rock sequences, their age, and correlation
- The interpretation of **depositional environments** relies on both sedimentology and stratigraphy!

Applications

- The ultimate goal of stratigraphy and sedimentology is to develop a *deeper understanding of Earth history*, via:
 - Paleogeography
 - Paleoecology
 - Paleoclimatology
- Strat and Sed have practical applications in
 - Mineral extraction industries (oil & gas; mining)
 - Hydrogeology
 - Environmental geology

Chapter 1—Key points

- Know the main kinds of <u>chemical weathering</u> processes and what kinds of minerals are affected by each process (be able to give examples).
- Know the <u>by-products</u> of each subaerial weathering process.
- Know the <u>relative stability</u> of common minerals under weathering conditions
- What is the <u>significance</u> of weathering to stratigraphy and sedimentology?
- Be able to discuss the criteria by which <u>paleosols</u> can be recognized.



Weathering VS. Erosion & Landscape Stability

Weathering and soils

- Weathering is the <u>disintegration</u> (physical) and/or <u>decomposition</u> (chemical) of rocks
- The products of weathering are <u>residual</u> <u>particles</u>, <u>secondary minerals</u>, <u>and dissolved</u> <u>compounds</u>
- Weathering products are the source materials for <u>sediments</u> and <u>soils</u>

Physical weathering

- Physical weathering is the mechanical disintegration of rocks into smaller fragments or individual grains
 - Frost wedging (freeze/thaw cycles)
 - <u>Sheeting</u> (release of overburden pressure)
 - Break-up of rocks by **plant and animal activity**
- Physical weathering is relatively less important than chemical weathering, and it <u>operates in</u> <u>concert with chemical weathering</u>

Physical weathering enhanced by natural joints in igneous rock



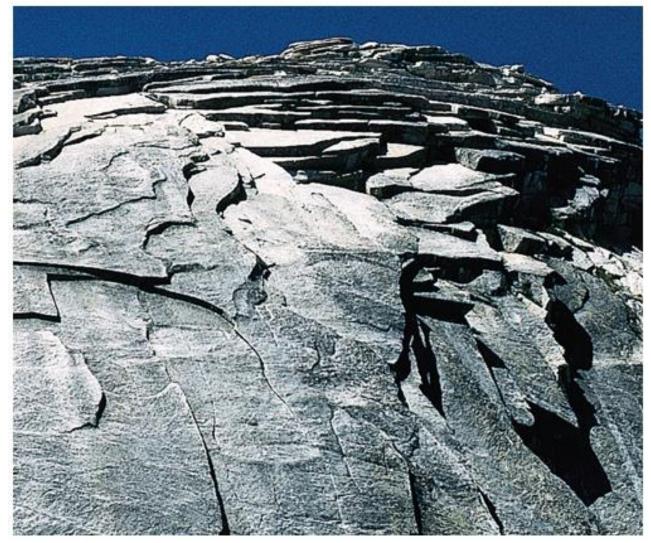
Physical weathering enhanced by tree roots



Physical weathering: **frost action**

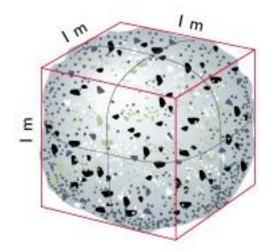


Physical weathering: exfoliation (sheeting)



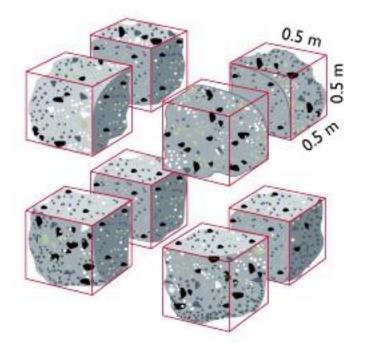
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Interaction of physical weathering and chemical weathering



Breakup along fractures

Single boulder, approximately 1 m on a side Volume = 1 m³ Surface area = 6 m²



8 fragments, each approximately 0.5 m on a side Volume = $(0.5)^3 \times 8 = 1 \text{ m}^3$ Surface area = 12 m²

Chemical weathering

- Chemical weathering is the decomposition of rocks by water and atmospheric gases dissolved in water (O_2, CO_2)
 - Minerals of the parent rock are <u>dissolved and</u> removed in solution
 - New, <u>secondary minerals</u> may form
 - The fabric of the parent rock is disrupted, leaving behind a <u>residue of more resistant</u> <u>mineral grains and secondary minerals</u>

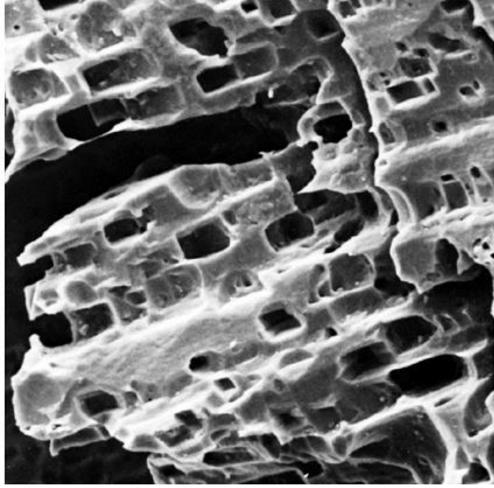
Chemical weathering (continued)

- The <u>major</u> types of chemical weathering are
 - Hydrolysis
 - Hydration
 - Oxidation
 - Solution

Hydrolysis

- <u>Hydrolysis</u> is the reaction between silicate minerals and acid (H⁺) that leads to the breakdown of the minerals and the release of metal cations and silica
- Source of acids is CO₂ dissolved in water
 - $CO_2 + H_2O \Leftrightarrow H_2CO_3 \Leftrightarrow H^+ + HCO_3^-$
 - Acids also originate from plants
- Feldspars that undergo hydrolysis typically produce secondary clay minerals
 - Orthoclase (K) feldspar \rightarrow kaolinite or illite + silicic acid
 - Plagioclase (Na) feldspar \rightarrow kaolinite or smectite + silicic acid

SEM micrograph of feldspar etched by hydrolysis



Hydration

 <u>Hydration</u> is the process by which <u>water</u> is added to a mineral to form a new mineral anhydrite + water ⇔ gypsum

 $CaSO_4 + 2H_2O \Leftrightarrow CaSO_4 \times 2H_2O$

 Hydration generally does not produce secondary products, but it does result in a volume increase, and therefore the potential for mechanical disintegration

Oxidation

- <u>Oxidation</u> is the decomposition of iron- and manganese-bearing silicates by oxygen dissolved in water
- Fe²⁺ → Fe³⁺ + e^{-,} where the loss of the electron leads to the loss of other cations, such as Si⁴⁺, in order to maintain electrical neutrality. This leads to collapse of the crystal lattice

$$4Fe^{2+}SiO_3 + O_2 \rightarrow 2Fe^{3+}O_3 + 4SiO_2$$

pyroxene hematite quartz

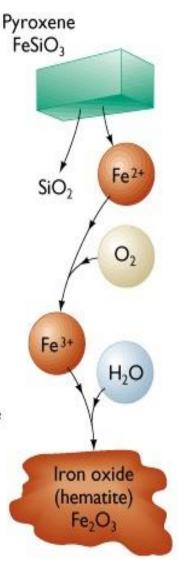
Oxidation



Iron pyroxene dissolves to release silica and ferrous iron to solution

Ferrous iron is oxidized by oxygen molecules to form ferric iron

Ferric iron combines with water to precipitate a solid, iron oxide, from solution



Solution

- <u>Simple solution</u> is the <u>dissolution</u> of soluble minerals upon contact with water
- Highly soluble minerals include
 - Evaporites (gypsum, halite)
 - Calcite
 - Dolomite

$H_2O + CO_2 + CaCO_3 \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2HCO_3^{-}$ calcite bicarbonate

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Chemical weathering (continued)

- *Rates* of chemical weathering vary with <u>climate</u> and <u>mineral composition</u> and <u>grain</u> <u>size</u> of the parent rock
 - Chemical weathering is <u>faster in wet climates</u>
 - Chemical weathering rates <u>increase with</u> <u>increasing temperature</u>
 - Fine grained rocks of a given composition weather more slowly than their coarser grained equivalents

		Stability of Common Minerals Under Weathering		
	Stability of Minerals	Rate of Weathering		
	Most stable	Slowest		
	Iron oxides (hematite)	1		
By-products of	Aluminum hydroxides (gibbsite)			
hemical weathering	Quartz			
	Clay minerals			
	Muscovite mica			
	Potassium feldspar (orthoclase)			
	Biotite mica			
	Sodium-rich feldspar (albite)			
	Amphiboles			
	Pyroxene			
	Calcium-rich feldspar (anorthite)			
	Olivine			
	Calcite			
	Halite	¥		
	Least stable	Fastest		

Chemical weathering (continued)

• Relative stability of sand- and silt-sized common minerals under weathering conditions (note relationship to <u>Bowen's Reaction Series</u>):

Mafic minerals

olivine

pyroxene

amphibole

biotite

Felsic minerals

Ca plagioclase

Ca-Na plagioclase Na-Ca plagioclase Na plagioclase

orthoclase, muscovite, quartz

Products of weathering

- New sedimentary particles:
 - Parent rock <u>residues</u>, composed of resistant minerals and rock fragments
 - <u>Secondary minerals</u>, largely the result of hydrolysis and oxidation
- Raw material for chemical sedimentary rocks:
 - <u>Soluble compounds</u>, largely the result of hydrolysis and simple solution
- Until they are removed by erosion, particulate residues and secondary minerals remain in situ to form a <u>soil</u>

Products of weathering (continued)

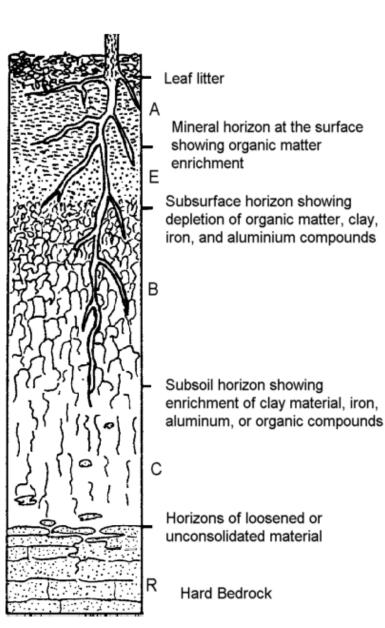
- Weathering of <u>igneous and metamorphic</u> rocks produces immature soils rich in unstable minerals. As the soil matures, it retains only the more resistant minerals. Clays, iron oxides or hydroxides, and aluminum hydroxides are present as secondary minerals
- Weathering of <u>siliciclastic sedimentary</u> rocks produces soils that are depleted in unstable minerals (because the unstable minerals were eliminated in a previous weathering cycle)
- Weathering of <u>limestones</u> produces thin soils with insoluble silicates and iron-oxide residues

Soils

- Soil above bedrock is made up of:
 - Weathering by-products
 - Residual grains (chemically stable minerals)
 - Secondary minerals (clays, iron oxides, aluminum hydroxides)
 - Organic matter
- Soil type is determined by:
 - Bedrock lithology/Parent material
 - Climate

Soil Profile

Generalized soil profile



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Soils and climate



(a) LATERITE

Wet climate

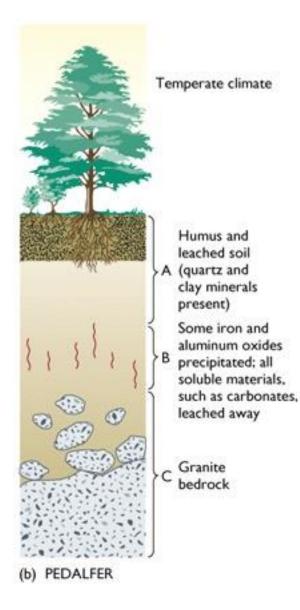
Thin or absent humus

Thick masses of insoluble iron and aluminum oxides; occasional quartz

Iron-rich clays and aluminum hydroxides

Thin leached zone

Mafic igneous bedrock



Dry climate Humus and leached soil Calcium B carbonate pellets and nodules precipitated Sandstone, shale, C and limestone bedrock

(c) PEDOCAL

Paleosols

- Paleosols are <u>ancient</u> or <u>fossil soils</u> preserved in the stratigraphic record
- Paleosols generally occur beneath <u>unconformities</u>
- Paleosols provide good clues for the interpretation of <u>paleoenvironments and</u> <u>paleoclimates</u>

Paleosols

Criteria for recognizing paleosols:

- 1. Presence of recognizable soil horizons
 - Organic upper horizon
 - Subhorizons exhibbing increasing clay and/or reddish color
 - Uppermost surface sharply truncated
 - Chemically different than parent material including gradational mineral content, with unstable minerals decreasing in abundance up-section
- 2. Presence of soil structures (e.g. peds)
- 3. Laterally extensive
- 4. Root traces, or other disruption of original sedimentary structures by organic activity

Soil structures: <u>peds</u>

TYPE	PLATY	PRISMATIC	COLUMNAR	ANGULAR BLOCKY	SUBANGULAR BLOCKY	GRANULAR	CRUMB
SKETCH		N			66	2°2°60	::::
DESCRIPTION	tabular and horizontal to land surface	elongate with flat top and vertical to land surface	elongate with domed top and vertical to surface	equant with sharp interlocking edges	equant with dull interlocking edges	spheroidal with slightly interlocking edges	rounded and spheroidal but not interlocking
USUAL HORIZON		Bt	Bn	Bt	Bt	А	А
MAIN LIKELY CAUSES	initial disruption of	swelling and shrinking on wetting and drying	as for prismatic, but with greater erosion by percolating water, and greater swelling of clay	cracking around roots and burrows; swelling and shrinking on wetting and drying	as for angular blocky, but with more erosion and deposition of material in cracks	active bioturbation and coating of soil with films of clay, sesquioxides and organic matter	as for granular; including fecal pellets and relict soil clasts
SIZE CLASS	very thin <1 mm	very fine <1 cm	very fine < I cm	very fine <0.5 cm	very fine < 0.5 cm	very fine <1 mm	very fine <1 mm
	thin 1 to 2 mm	fine I to 2 cm	fine I to 2 cm	fine 0.5 to I cm	fine 0.5 to I cm	fine I to 2 mm	fine I to 2 mm
		medium 2 to 5 cm	medium 2 to 5 cm	medium I to 2 cm	medium I to 2 cm	medium 2 to 5 mm	medium 2 to 5 mm
		coarse 5 to 10 cm	coarse 5 to 10 cm	coarse 2 to 5 cm	coarse 2 to 5 cm	coarse 5 to 10 mm	not found
					very coarse > 5 cm	very coarse>10mm	not found

Soil structures: *Root traces*



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Paleosols in Badlands



Jungle on a Seabed

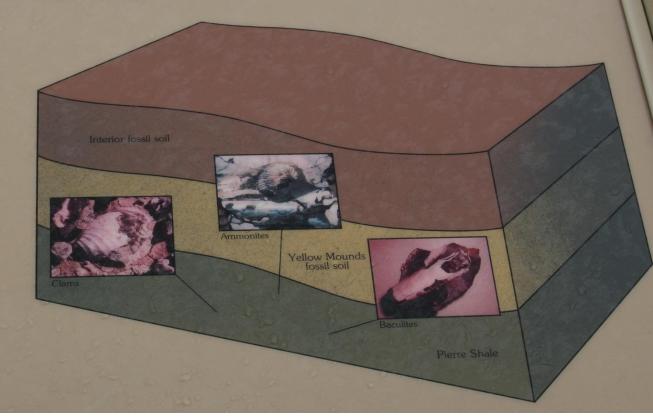
A jungle grew here. Before that, a shallow sea covered the land. Both are gone now, but both left evidence of their passing.

The sea's signature is ammonites, baculites, and clams, pearly fossils entombed in a fossil mud called the Pierre Shale. This shale is exposed in the gully below you.

A jungle sprang up after the sea drained away about 65 million years ago. For a long time tree roots broke up the shale, and chemicals from decaying plants produced a yellow soil. About 37 million years ago sediment from the west washed over the jungle.

The jungle rebounded, converting the new sediment into a red soil. Buried by later sediments, both yellow and red soils were fossilized. We call them the Yellow Mounds Paleosol and the Interior Paleosol.

For younger fossil soils, see "A Changing Climate – A Changing Scene" exhibit, a mile east on the Loop Road.



Paleosol overlain by river channel deposit





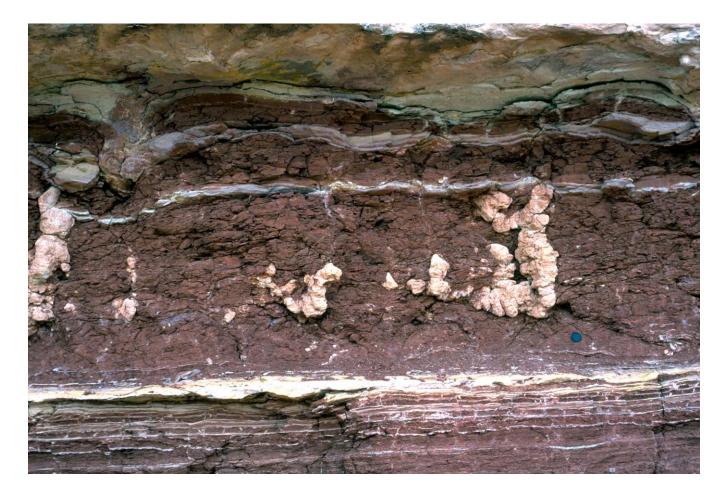
Paleosol with root traces



Triassic paleosol with vertebrate animal burrow



Triassic paleosol with vertebrate animal burrow



Paleoclimates

- Clues to the reconstruction of ancient climates are preserved in sedimentary rocks and paleosols
 - 1. <u>Sedimentary facies</u> (climate-sensitive rock types)
 - 2. Fossil plants and animals

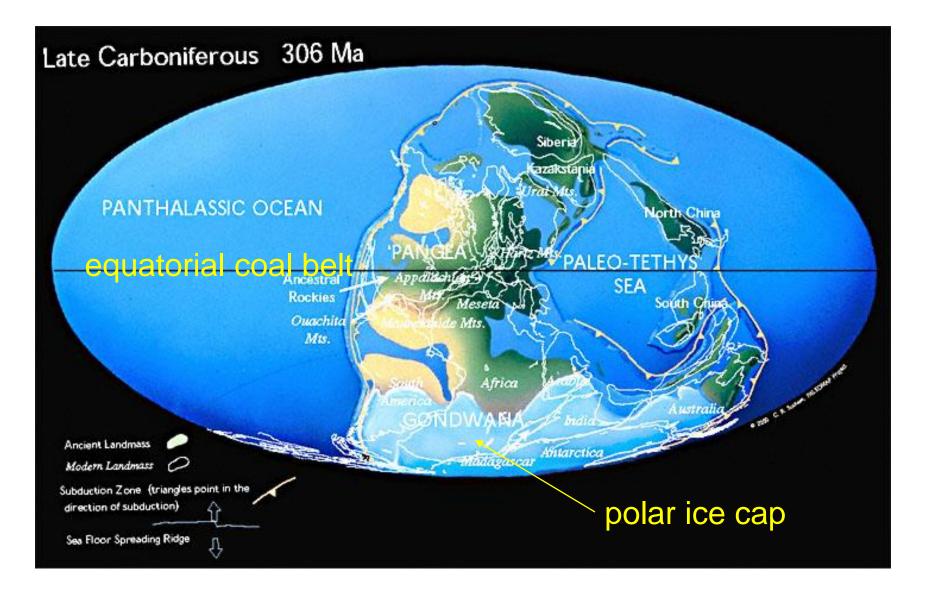
Climate-sensitive rock types

- Marine carbonates and reefs
 - Oxygen isotope ratios in carbonates can be used to infer paleotemperatures
- Evaporites
- Glacial deposits
- Coals
- Eolian deposits

Climate-sensitive biota

- Land plants
 - Tree rings
 - Pollen and spore assemblages
- Land animals
 - Reptiles, amphibians, mammals
 - Must use with analogy to nearest living relatives
- Marine invertebrates and protists
 - Must be able to recognize warm-water vs. cool-water assemblages of species

Pennsylvanian climate reconstruction



Permian climate reconstruction

