

Chapter 13 Unsafe Ground: Landslides and Other Mass Movements

What is the controlling force for mass wasting?

What factors influence mass wasting?

Classification of Mass Wasting

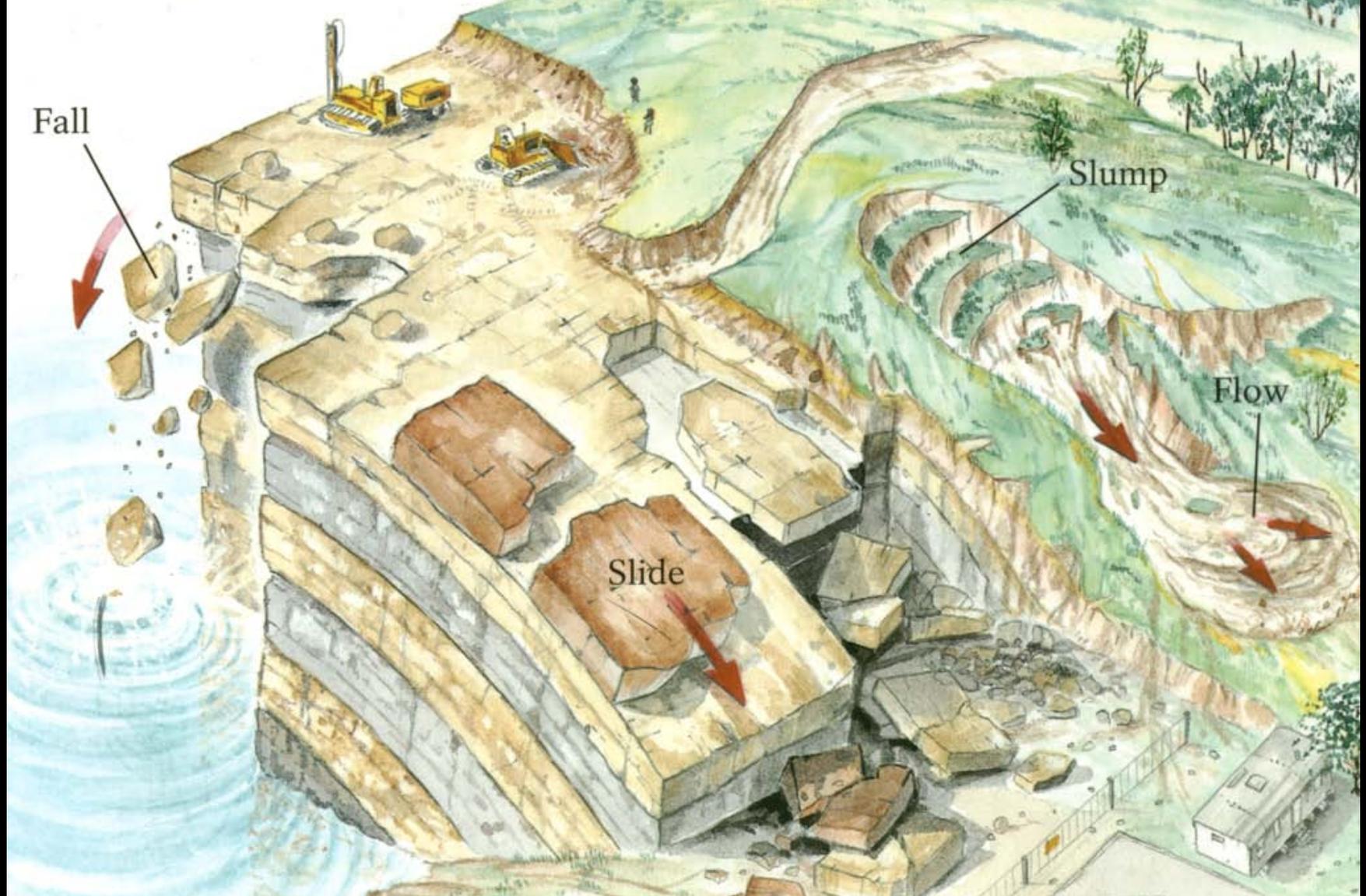
Mass wasting events are classified by:

- Nature of material (consolidated or unconsolidated)
- Speed (few cm/yr to km/hour).
- Nature of movement (as one unit or as a fluid)

MASS MOVEMENTS ARE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE DOMINANT MATERIAL, WATER OR AIR CONTENT, AND VELOCITY OF THE MOVEMENT

		Velocity →		
Material	Nature of motion	Slow (1 cm/year) Low water content	Moderate (1 km/hr) High water content	Fast (5 km/hr or more) High air content
Rock	Flow			<p>Rock avalanche</p>
	Slide or fall	<p>Rockslide</p>	<p>Rockfall</p>	
Unconsolidated material	Flow	<p>Earth creep</p>	<p>Earthflow</p>	<p>Debris flow</p>
	Slide or fall	<p>Slump</p>	<p>Mudflow</p>	<p>Debris slide Debris avalanche</p>

Mass Wasting classification



Rock Fall

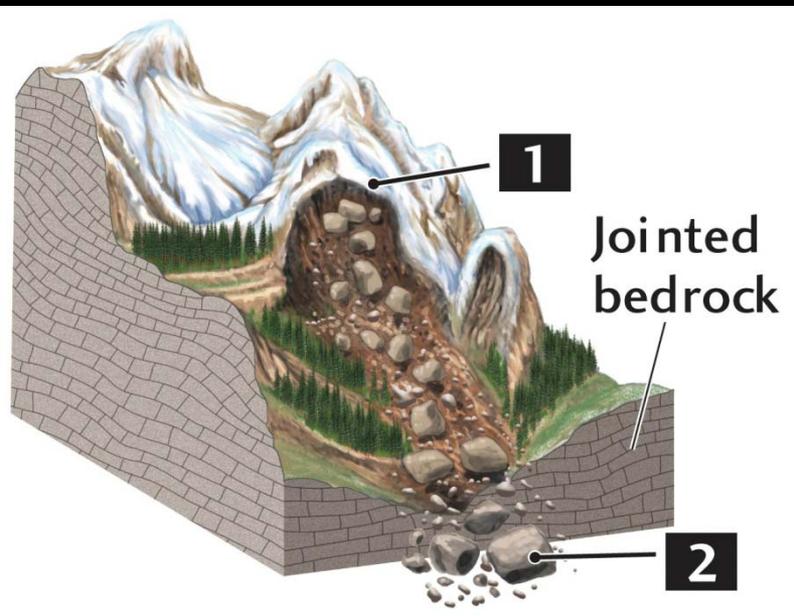
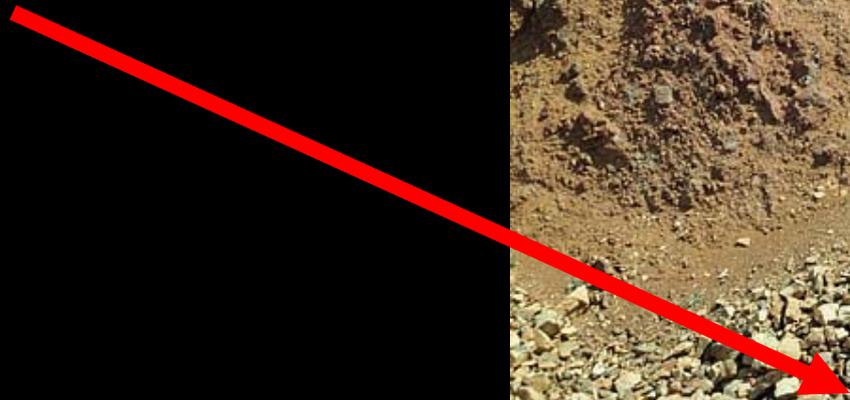


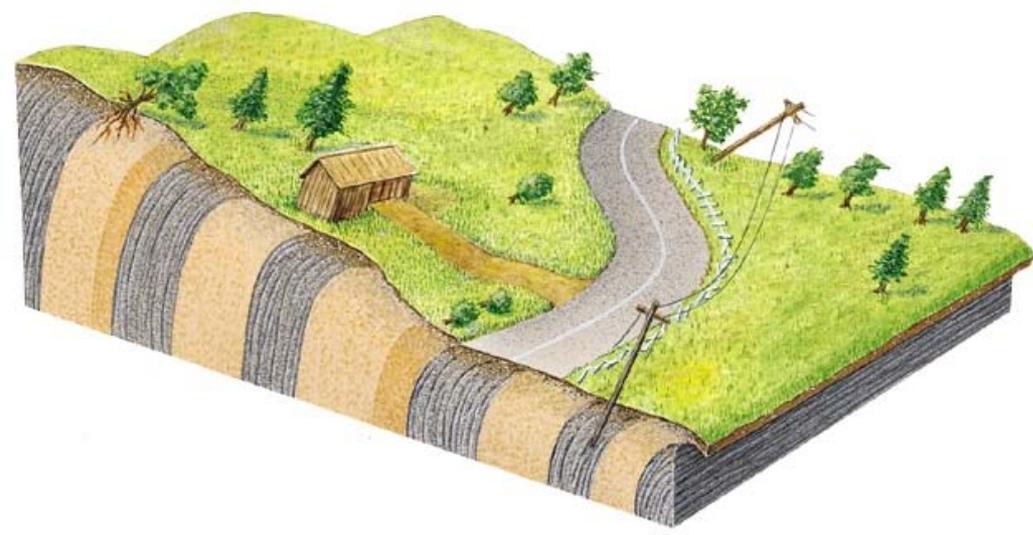
Fig 12.7

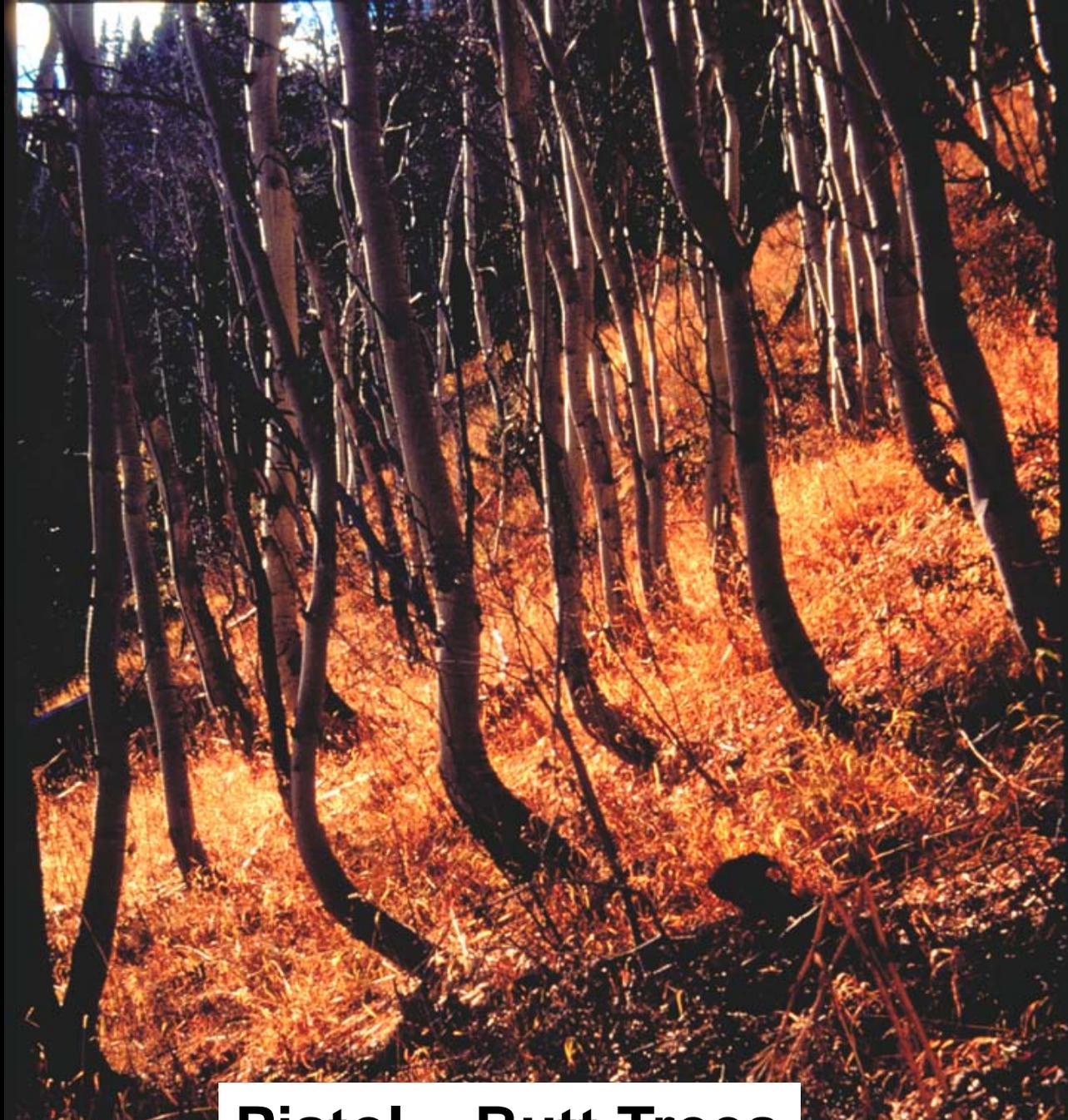
Talus



Soil Creep

Fig 12.10

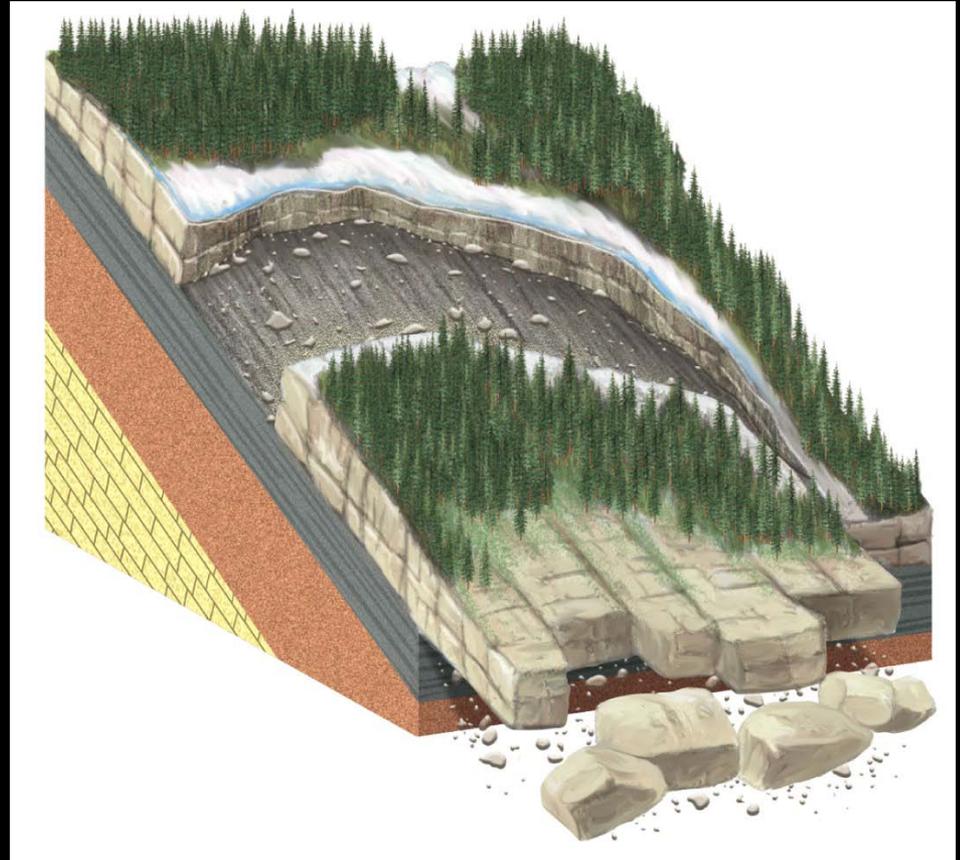




Pistol – Butt Trees

Classification

Slide - Single mass of rock or sediment is released and moves rapidly along a plane of weakness.

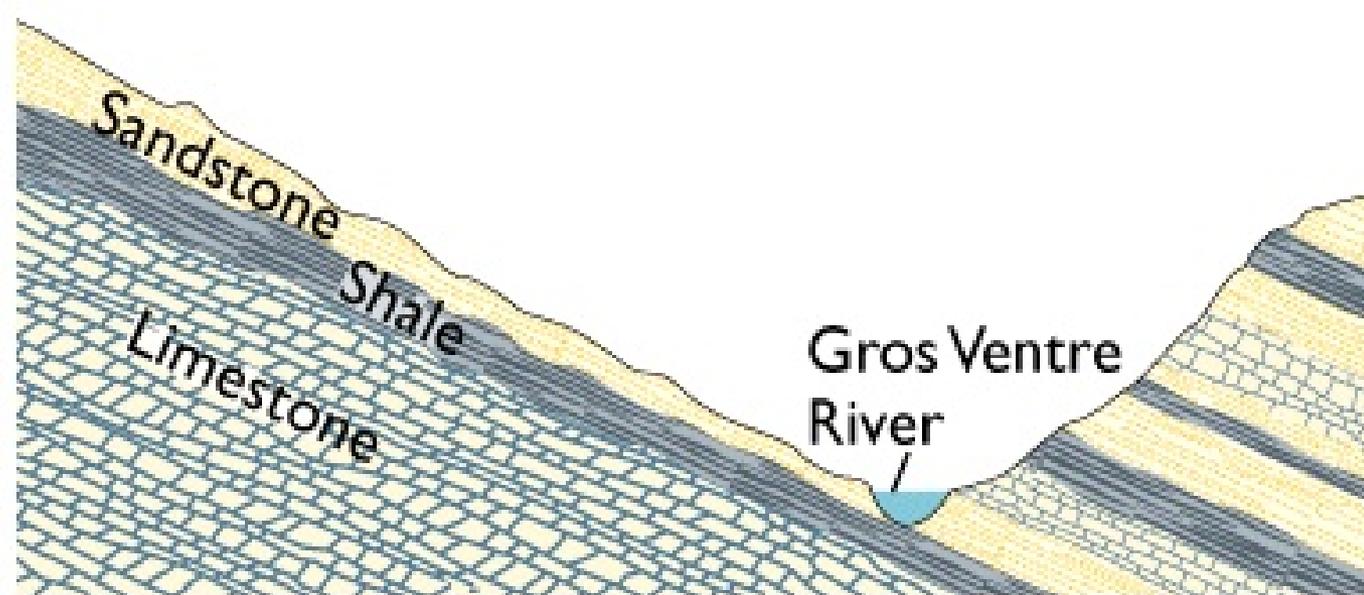


Rock Slide

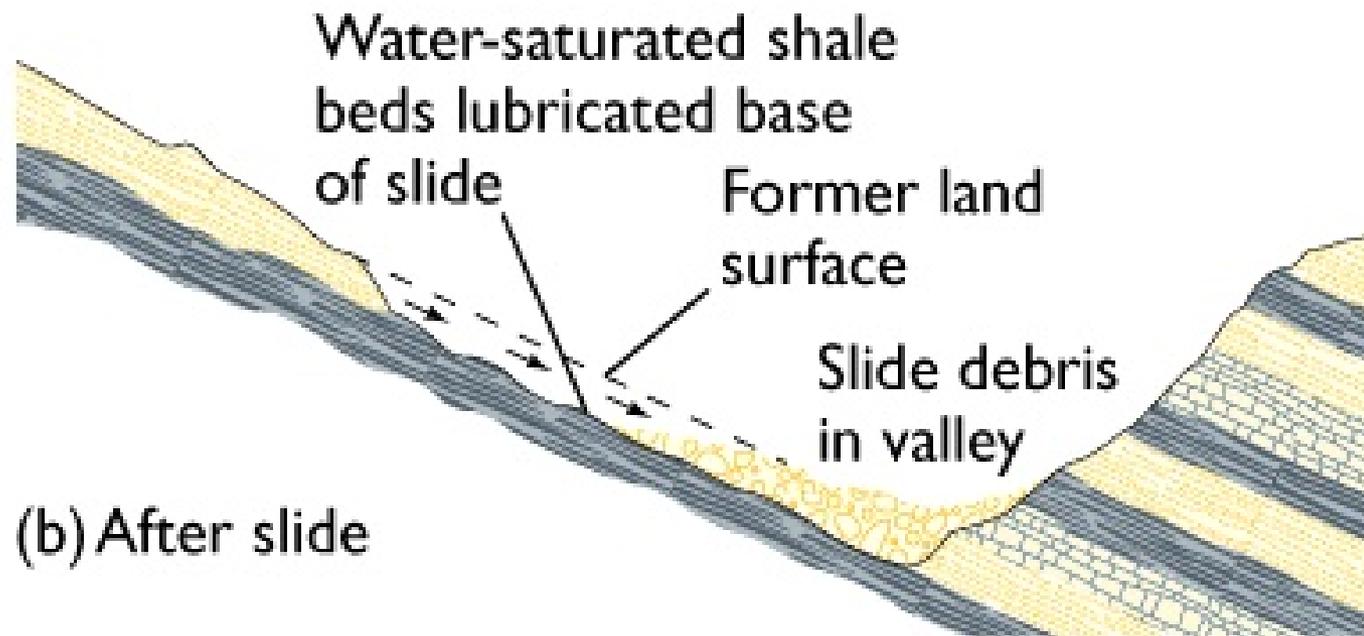
Gros Ventre,
Wyoming

(1925)

("Grow-Vaunt")



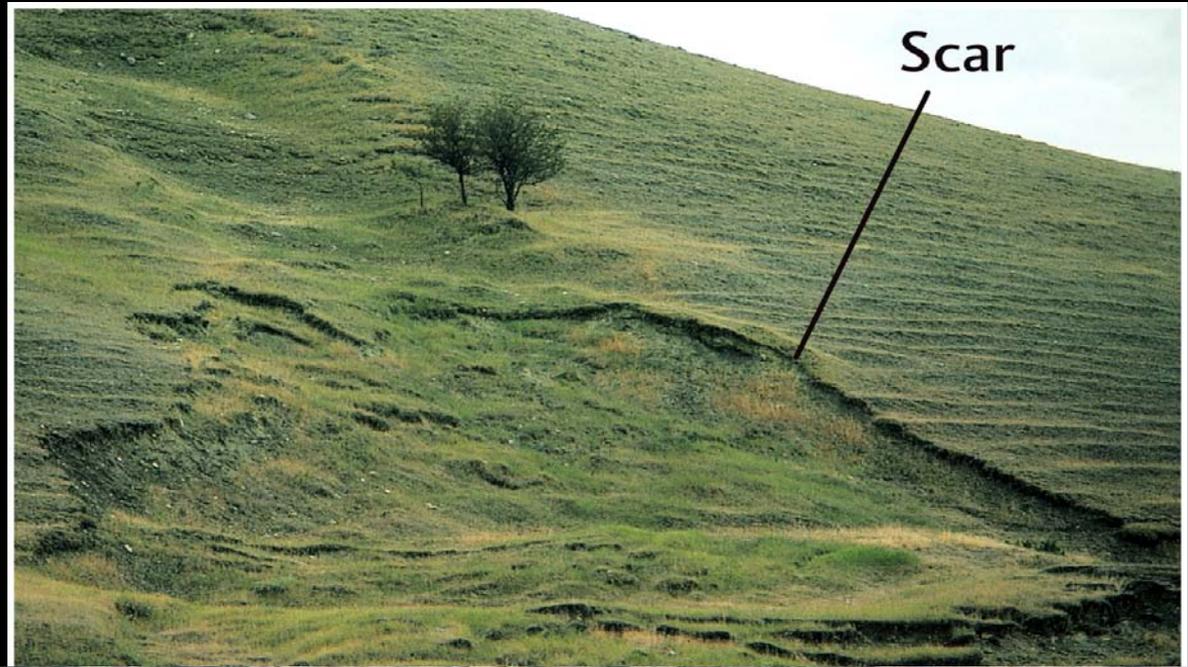
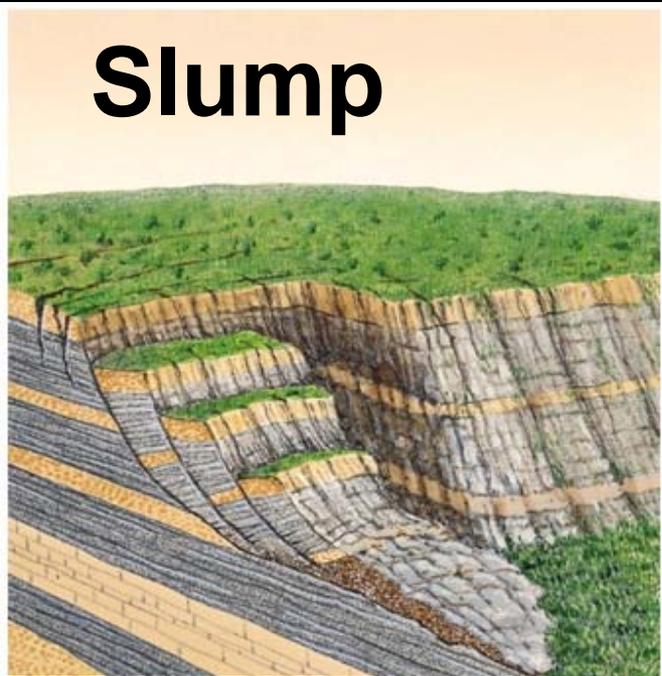
(a) Before slide



(b) After slide

What type of mass wasting?

Slump



**Slump near Naches,
Washington**

S. Kuehn



What should you look for as indicators of potential problems?

- **evidence of prior mass wasting**
hummocky topography, irregular surface, scars on mountain side, accumulation of rock and unconsolidated material at base of slope
- **open cracks on the surface**
- **look for planes of weakness (beds parallel valley wall)**
- **unnatural steep slopes**

- Structural damage – Settling and cracking of building foundations**
- Toppling, bowed, or pistol-butt trees**
- Gullying and surface erosion**
- Springs -- Mid-slope ground-water seepage from the bluff face;**

Triggers

1. Heavy rain –

- undercutting slopes by running water
- increased weight of wet soil
- increased fluid pressure reduces frictional resistance

2. Earthquakes

- ground shaking can trigger landslides

Triggers

3. Volcanoes

- ground shaking can trigger landslides

Triggers

4. Human activity

Impact of Human Activities

- Added mass of building on slopes
- Removal of vegetation
- Increasing angle of slopes
- Addition/removal of water

Triggers

Weathered, rubbly rock and soil

(a) After construction activities

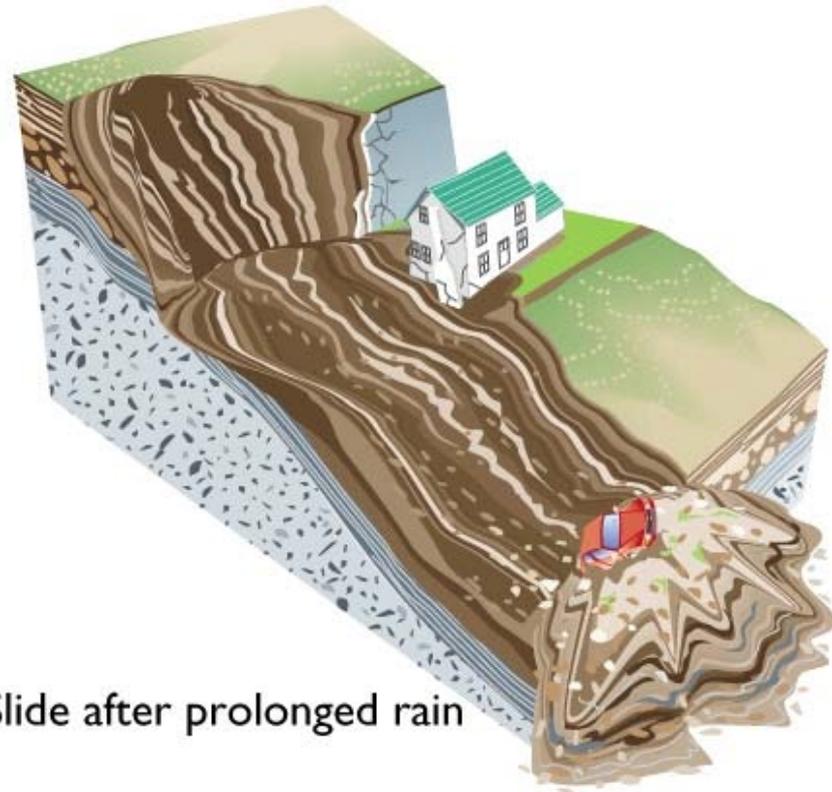
Thin concrete retaining wall

Impermeable bedrock

Clay

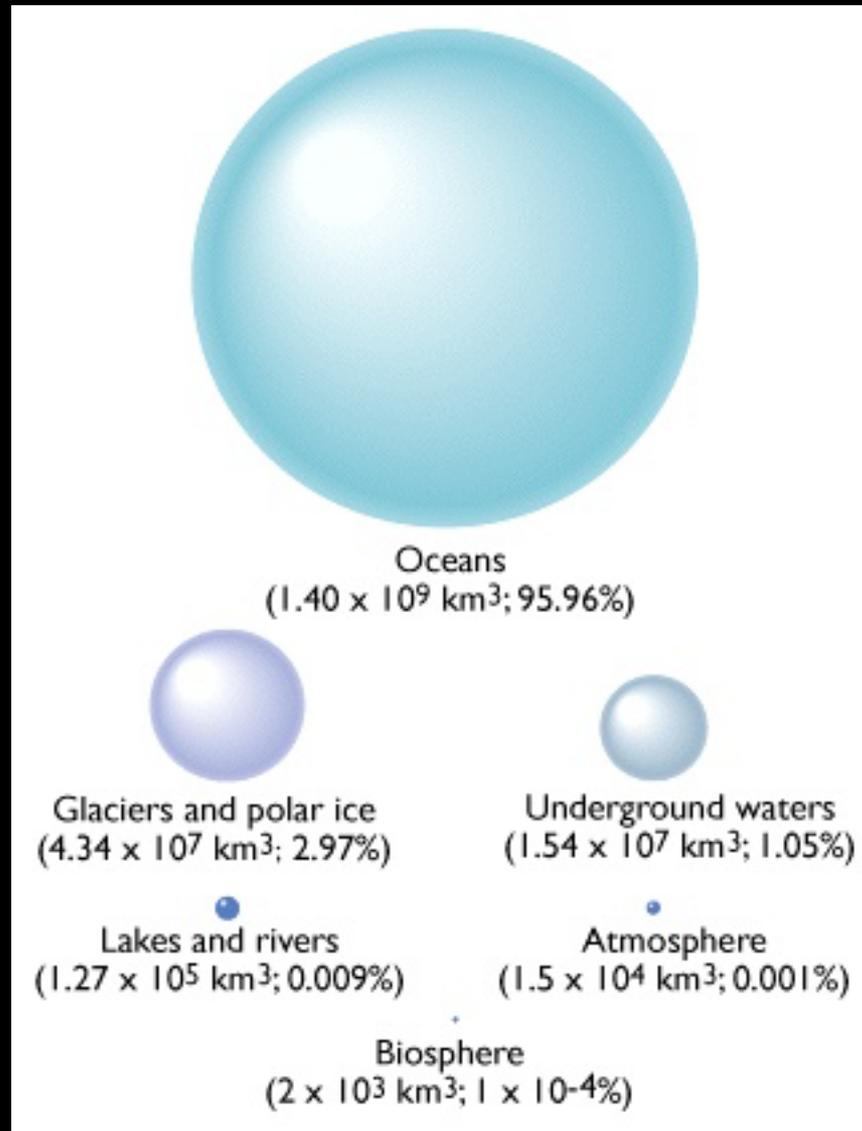


(b) Slide after prolonged rain



Chapter 14 Running Water: The Geology of Streams and Floods

Water reservoirs



Stream Channel Patterns

- Straight
- Braided
- Meandering

Braided River: High-sediment load, high velocity



Meandering Channel

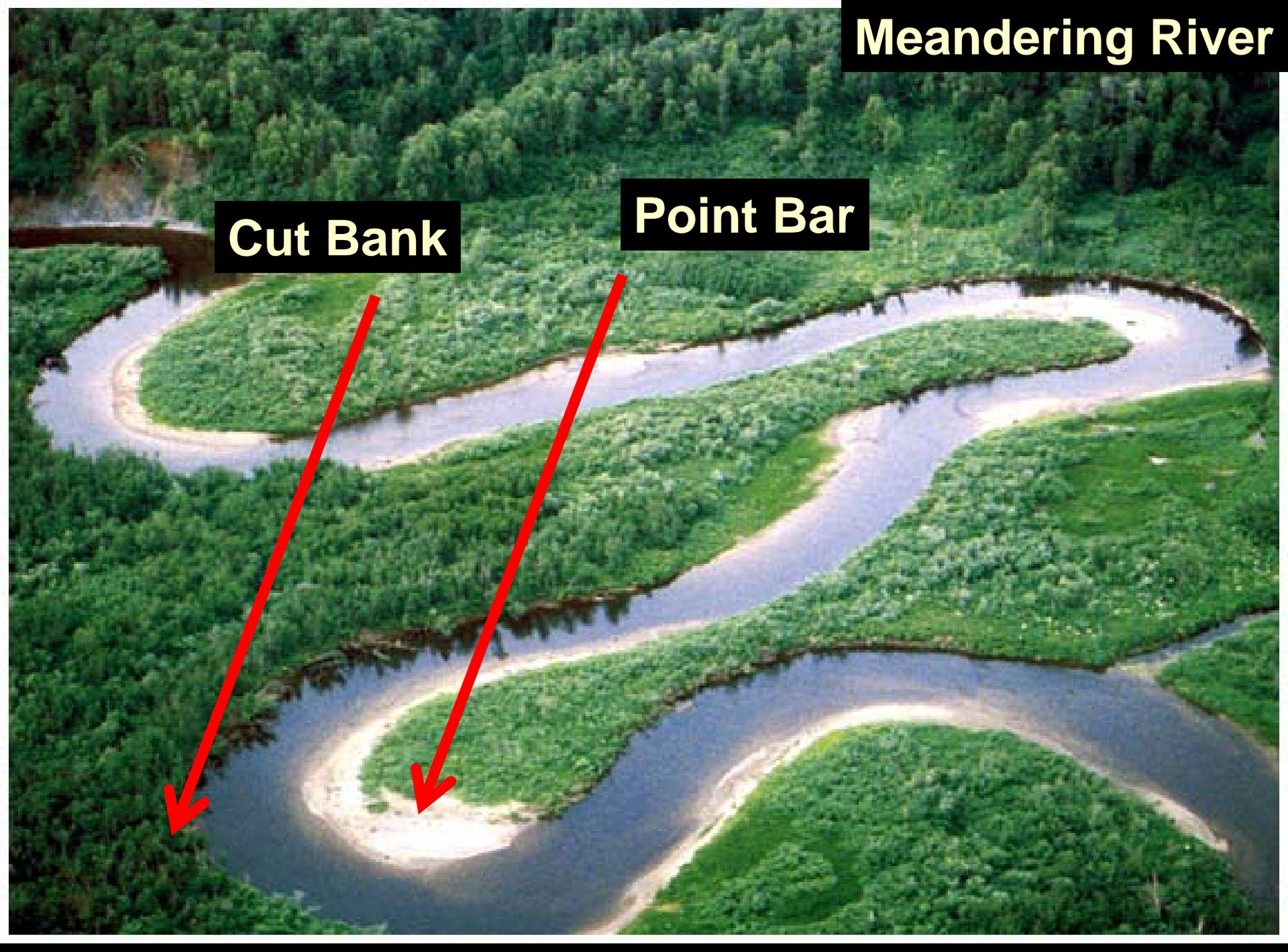
- Meander – to wander
- One main (trunk) channel that winds back and forth across the floodplain.
- Forms on low slopes through easily eroded bedrock.



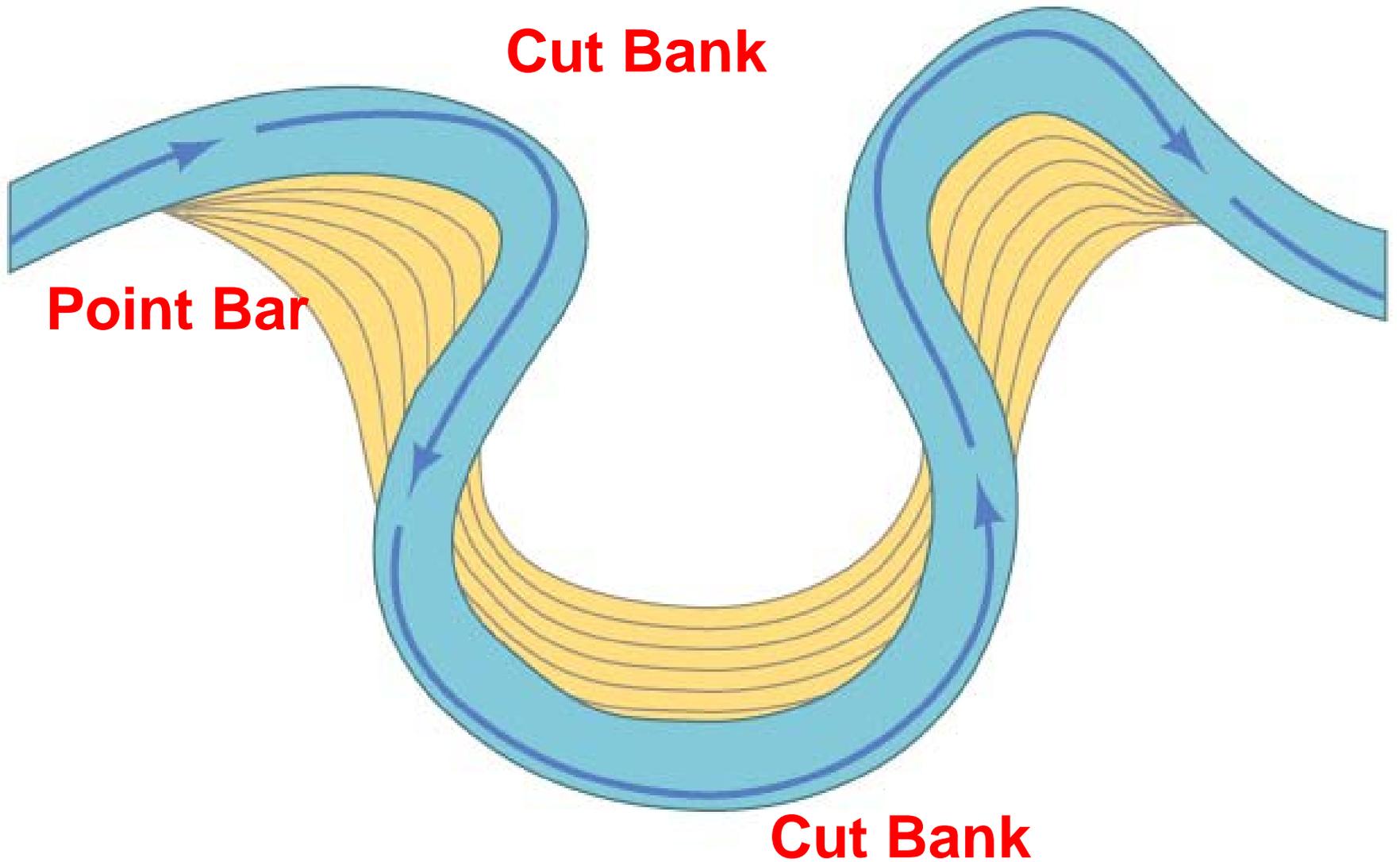
Meandering River

Cut Bank

Point Bar

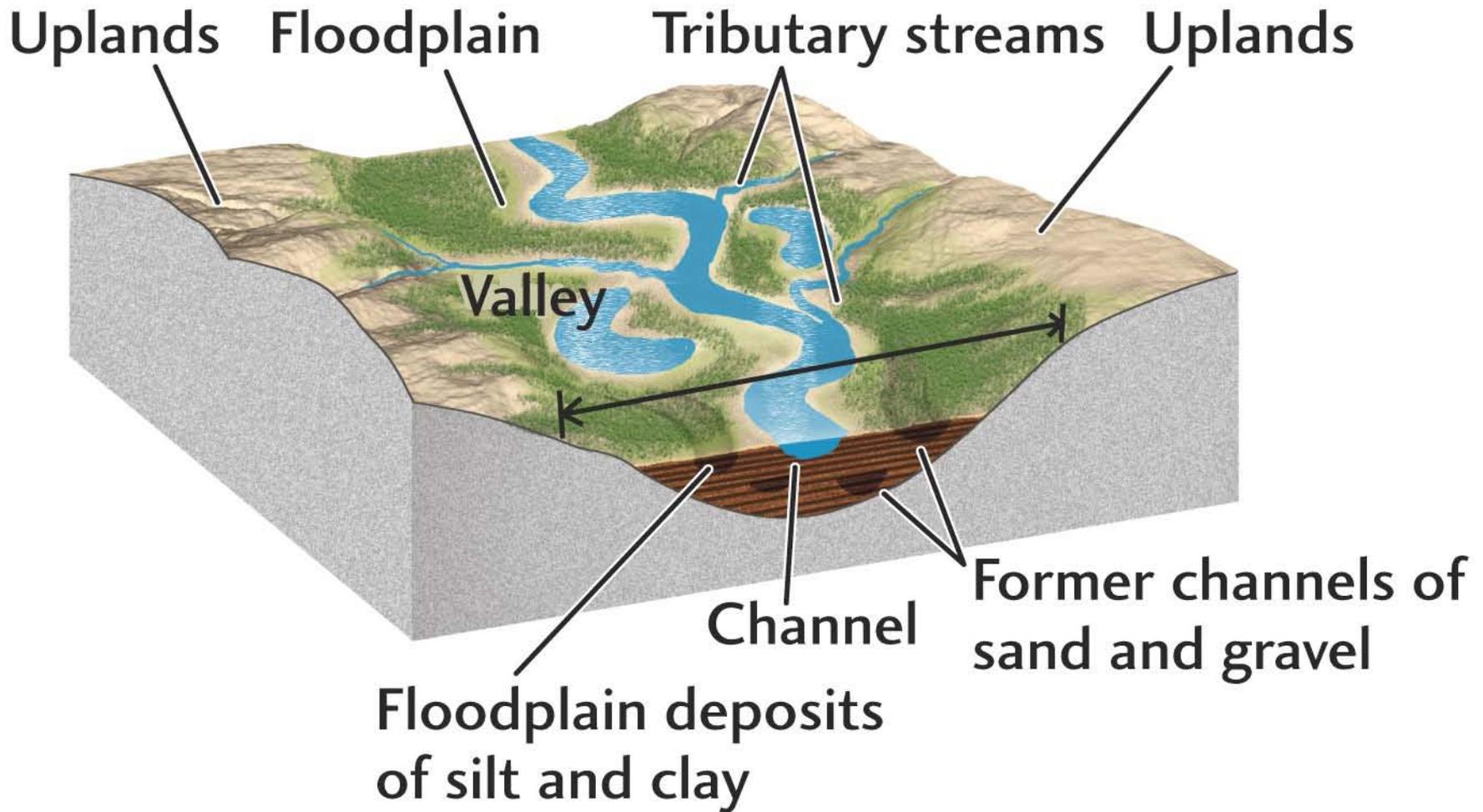


Meandering Stream (cont.)



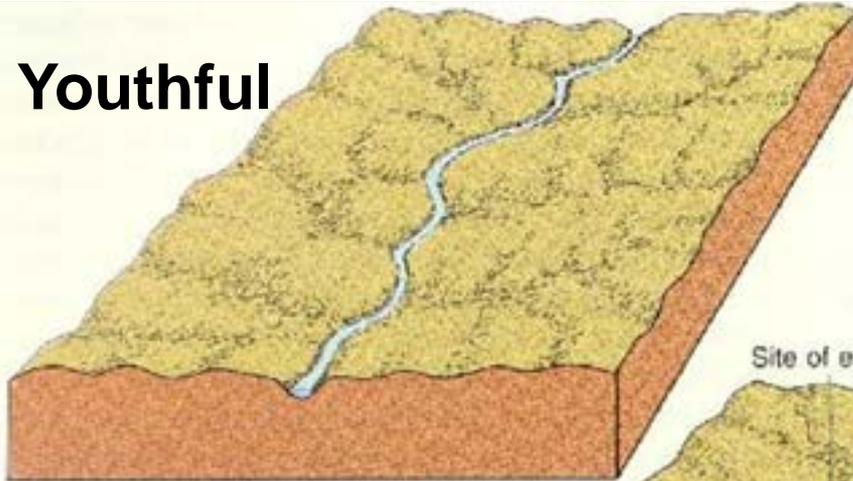
(c)

Morphology of a river system



Life stages of a river

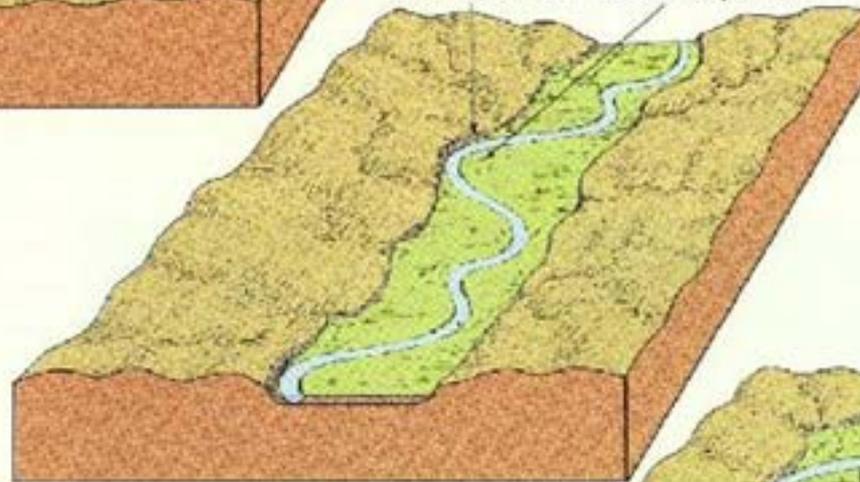
Youthful



A.

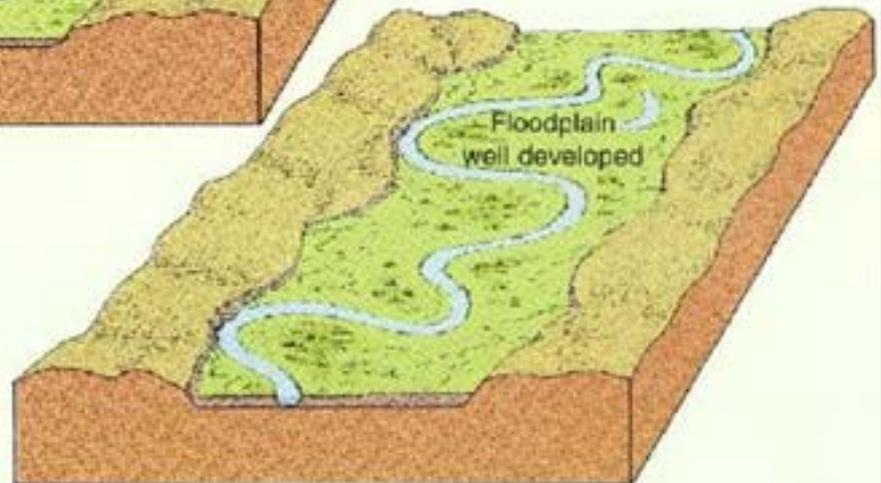
Site of erosion Site of deposition

Mature



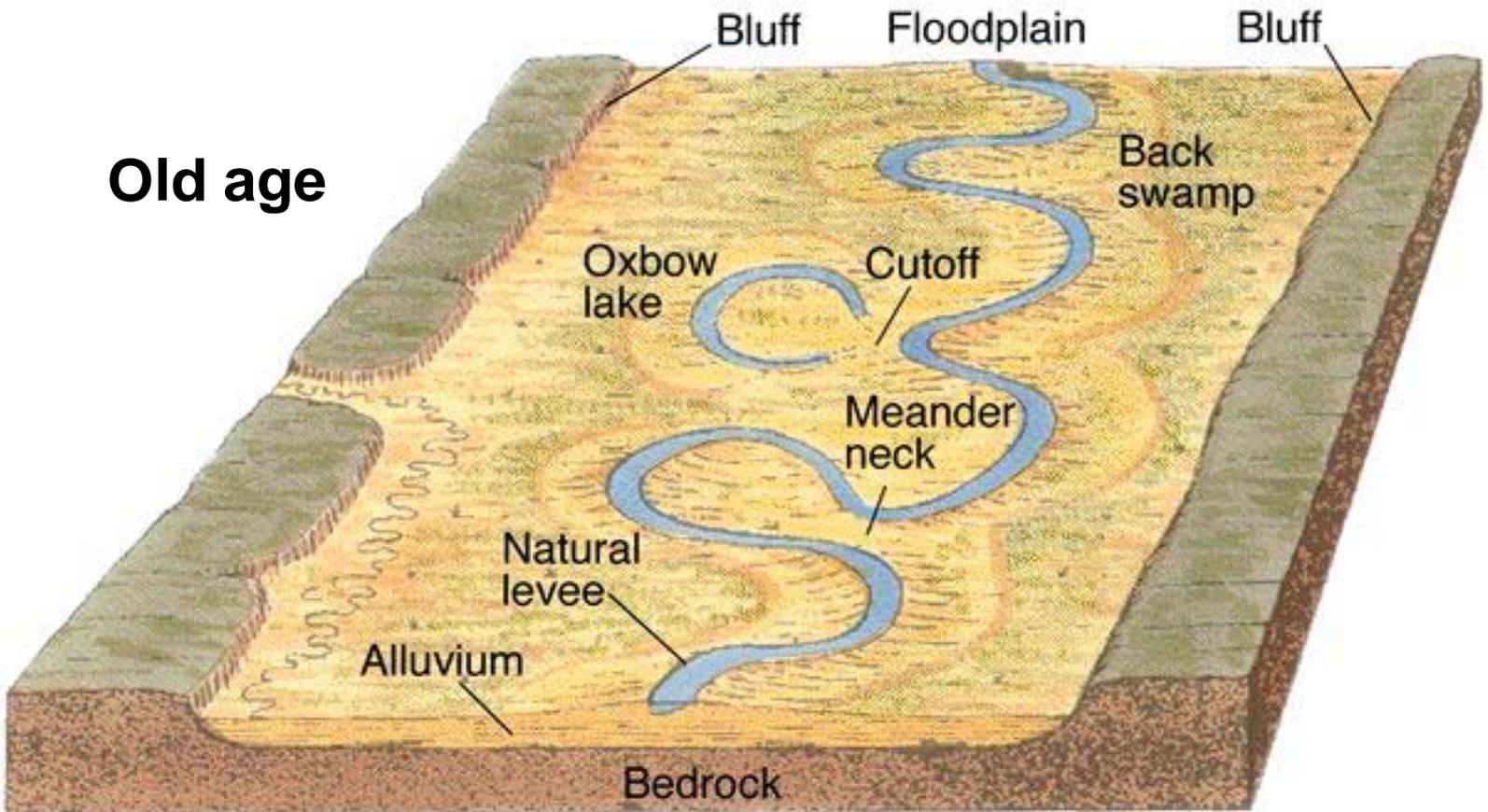
B.

Mature



C.

Old age



Drawn by A.N. Strahler.
© John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

What is the life stage of this river?



Drainage Patterns

Drainage controlled by underlying structures.

Dendritic = Flat Lying Layers

Trellis = Folded Rock Layers

Rectangular = Joints or Faults

Radial = High Mtn. Peak (Volcanoes)

Dendritic drainage

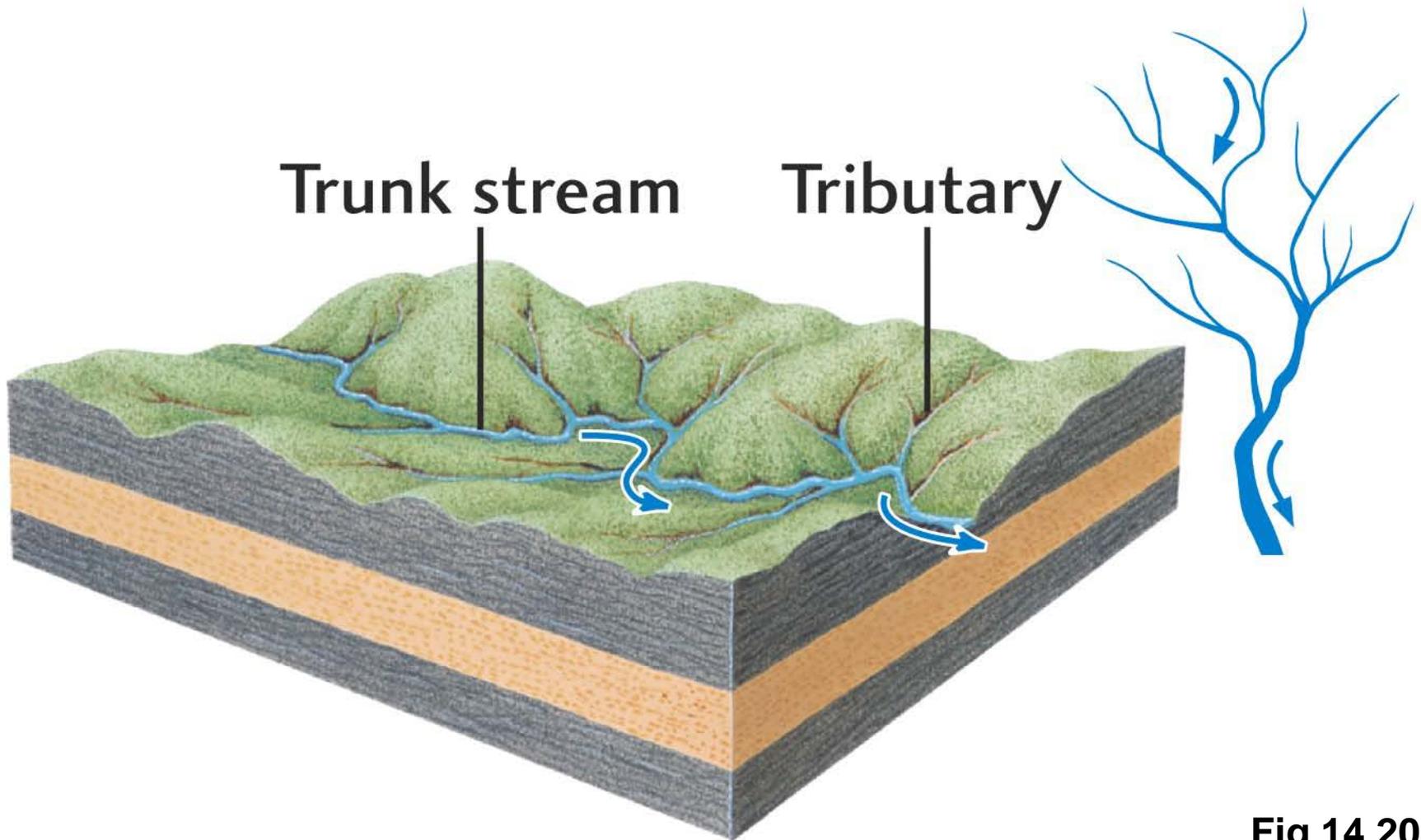


Fig 14.20



Rectangular drainage

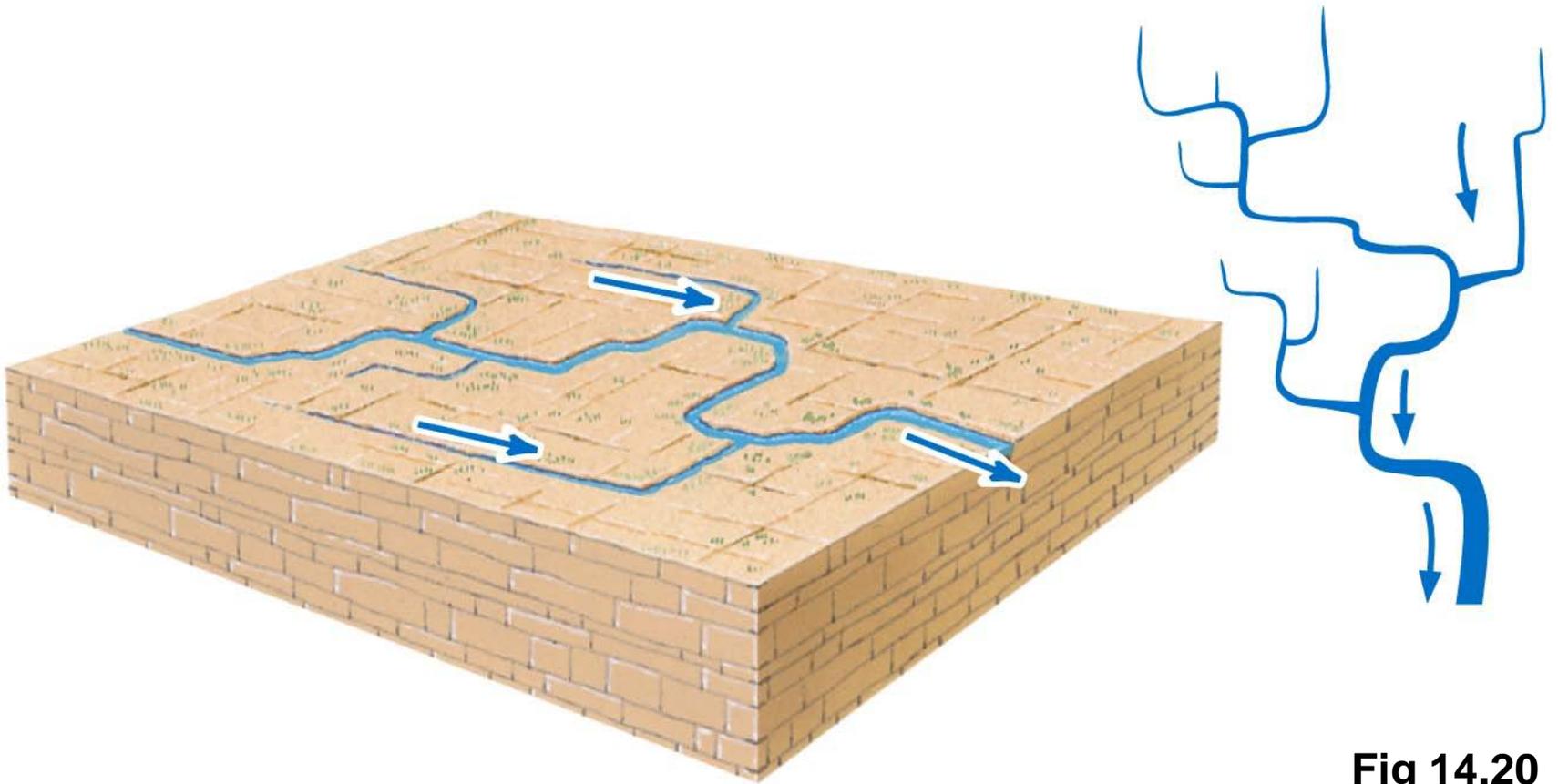
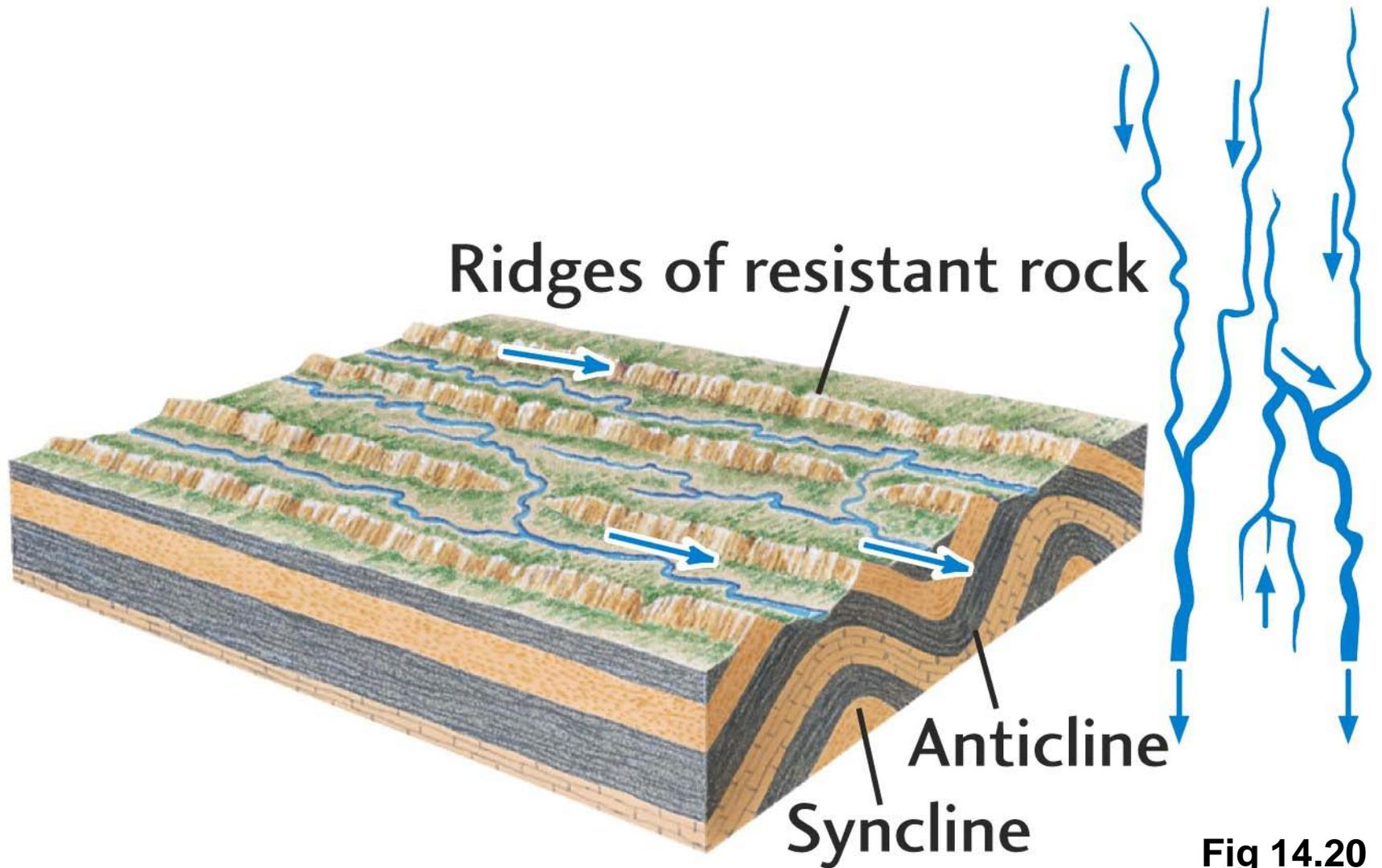


Fig 14.20

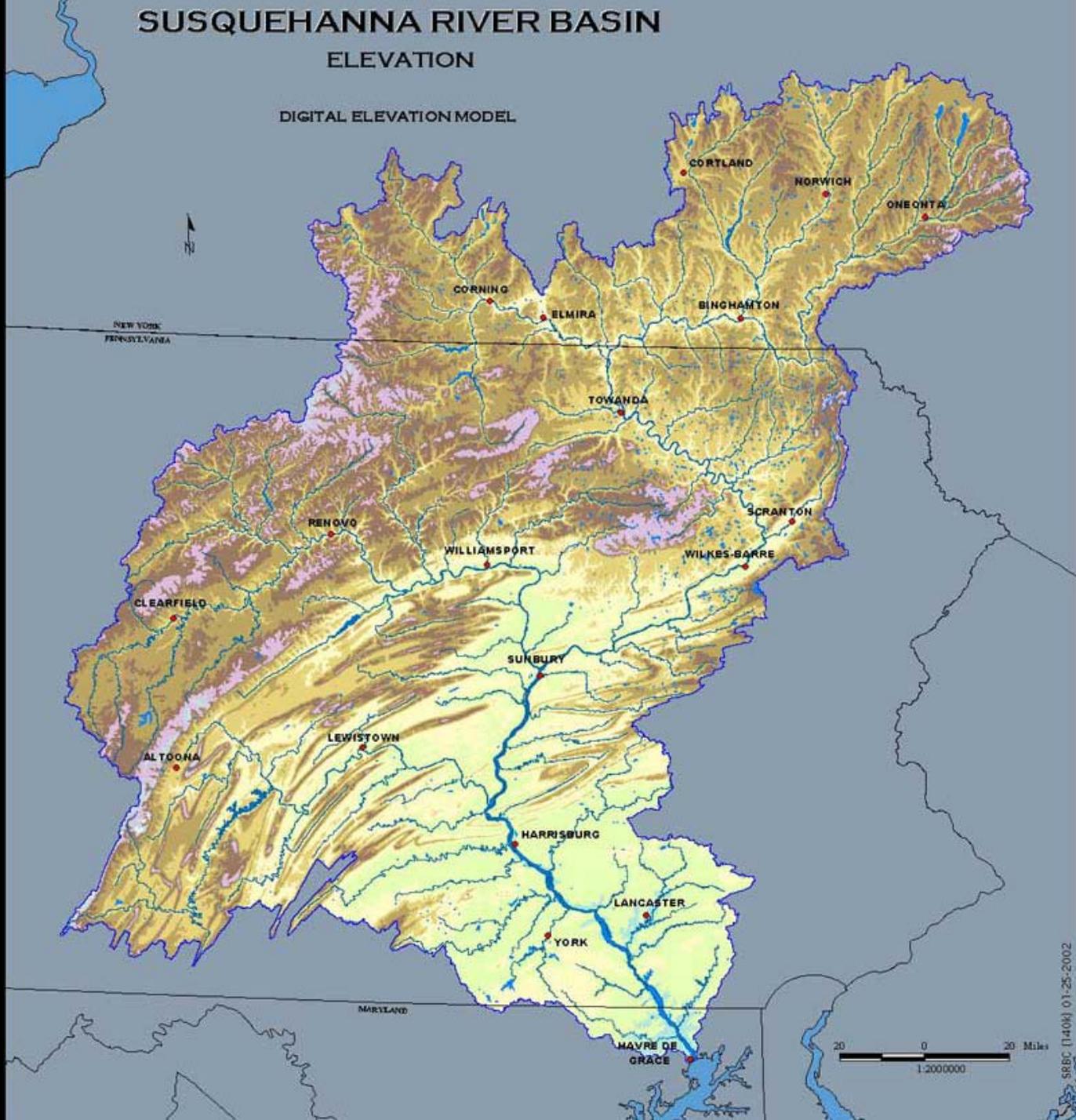
Note rectangular change in river path



Trellis drainage



Trellis drainage



Radial drainage

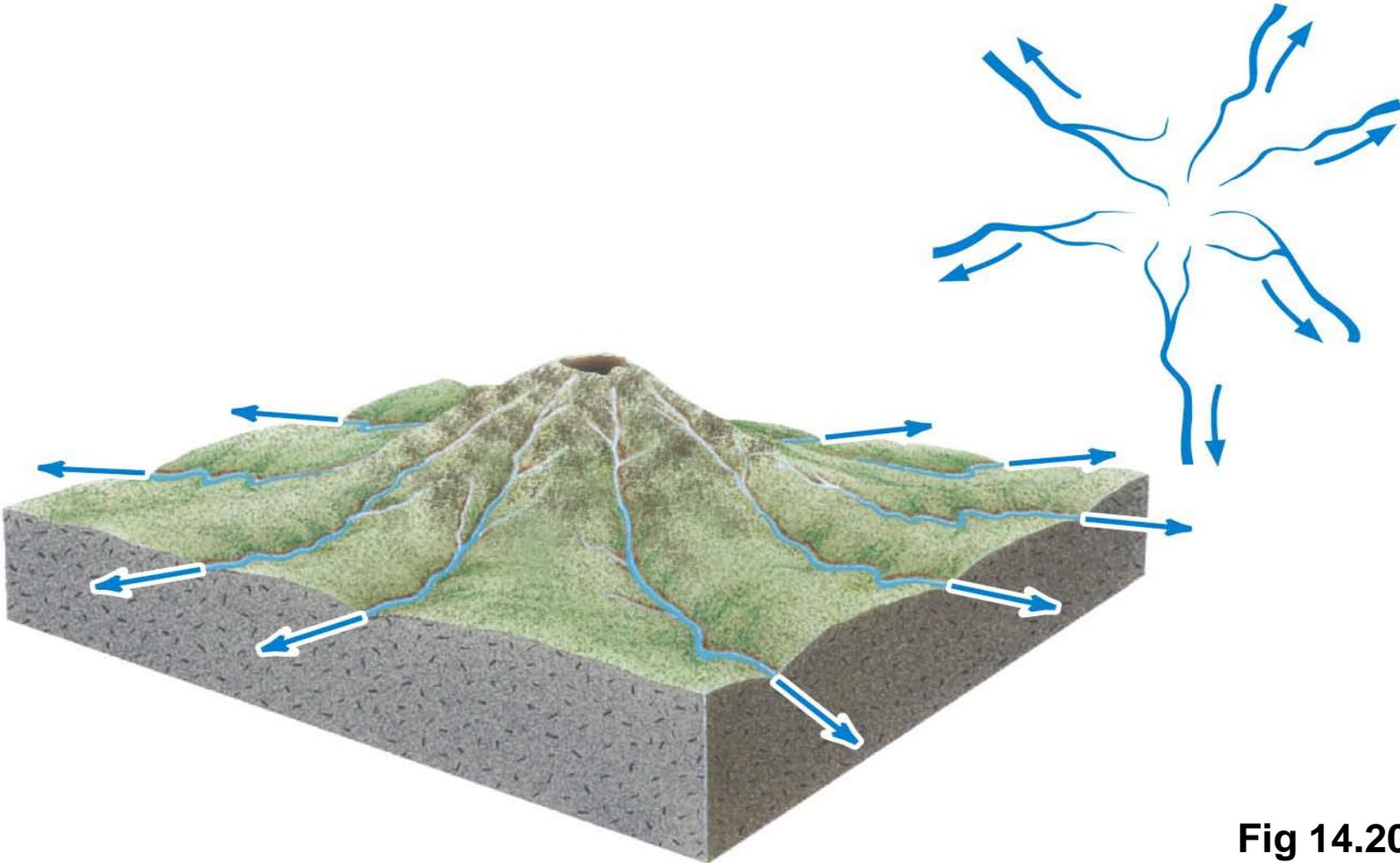
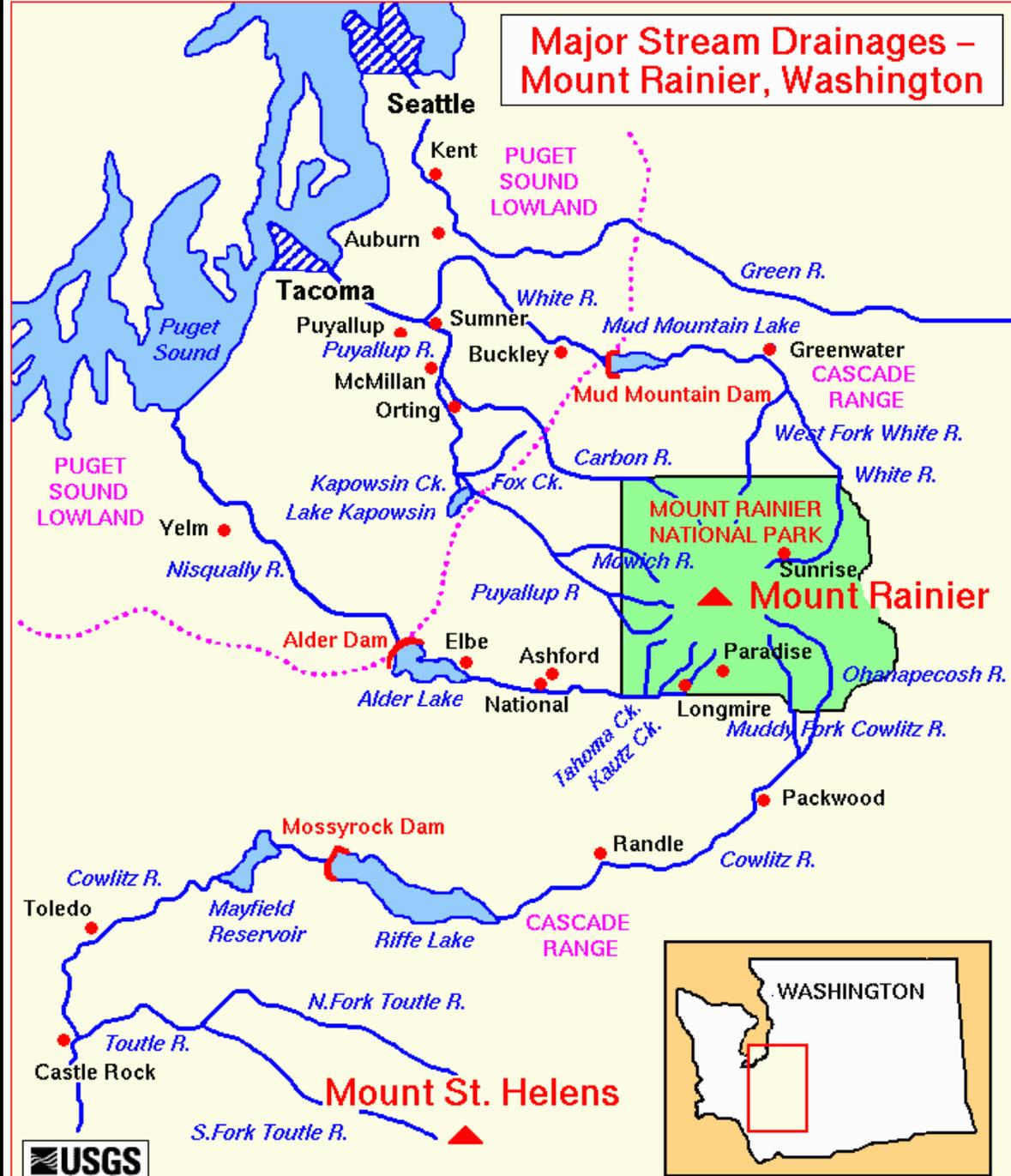


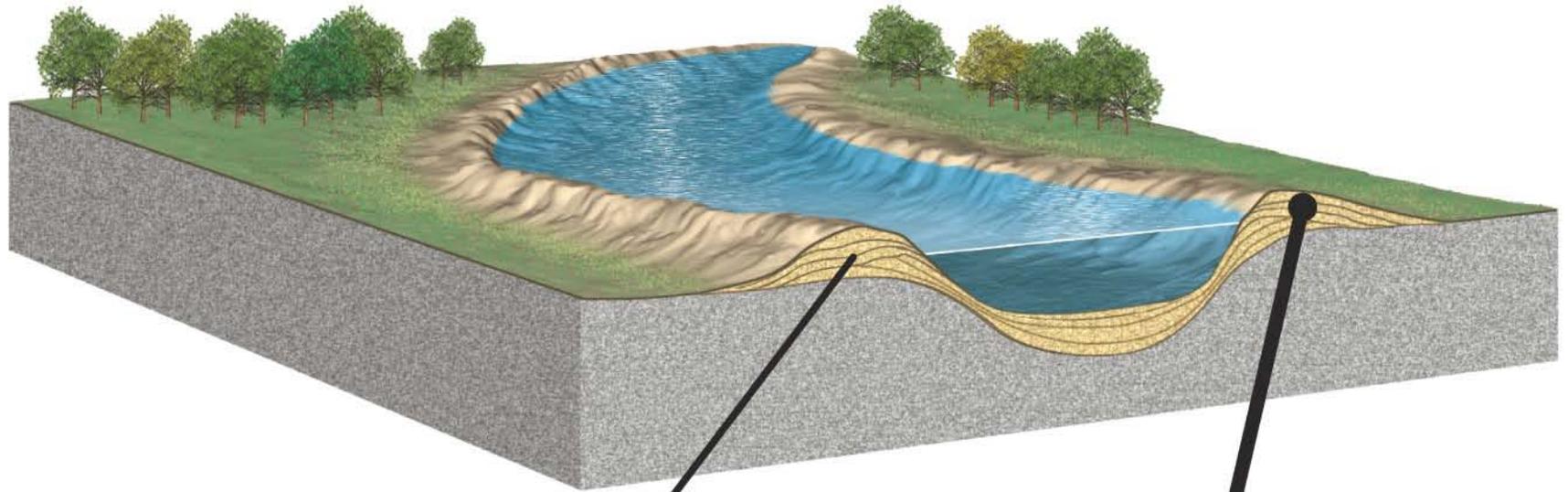
Fig 14.20

Radial drainage



Other Features of Streams

After many floods

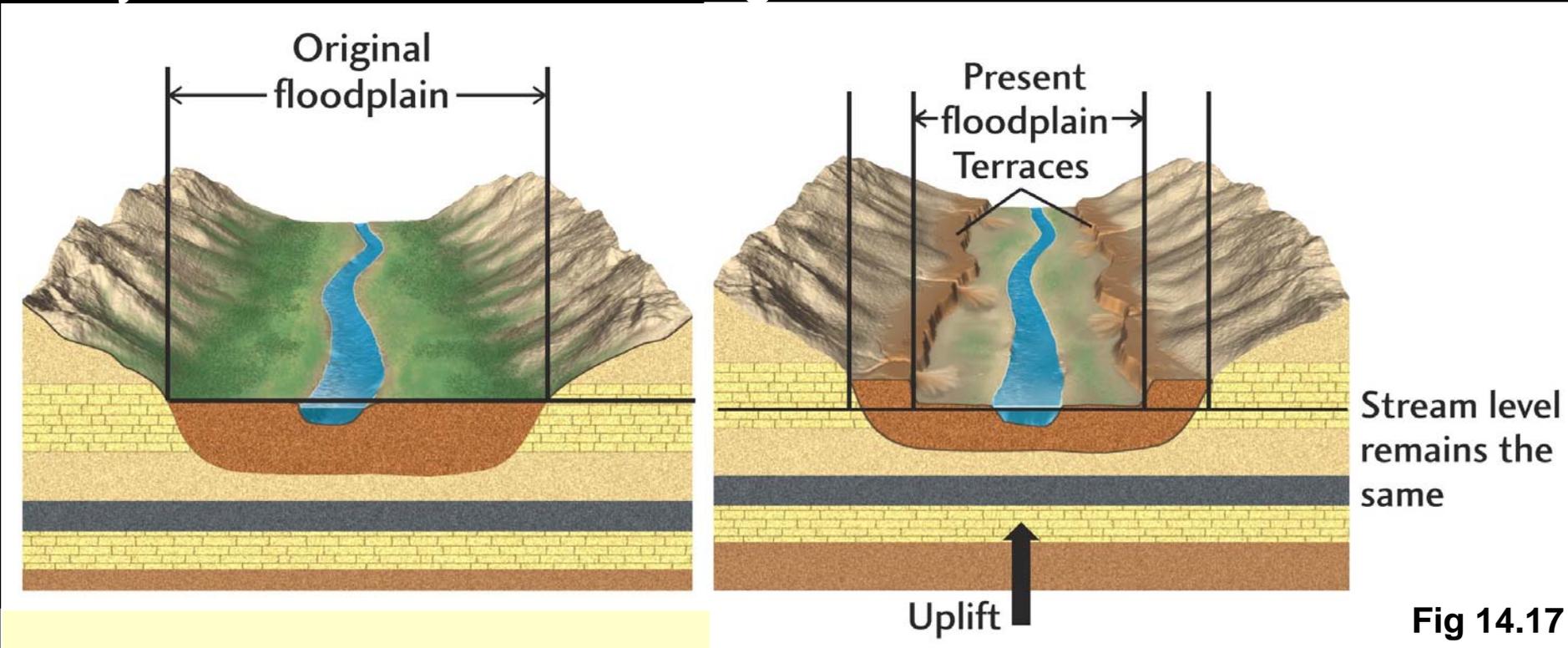


Natural levee

4

Other Features of Streams

Terraces – Mark previous level of floodplain. Formed by renewed down cutting to lower base level.



Profile View

River terraces

Fig. 14-18 Geology 2nd edition - Cherrinoff



Alluvial Fan



Delta



Chapter 16 A Hidden Reserve: Groundwater

Water table – boundary between unsaturated and saturated zone

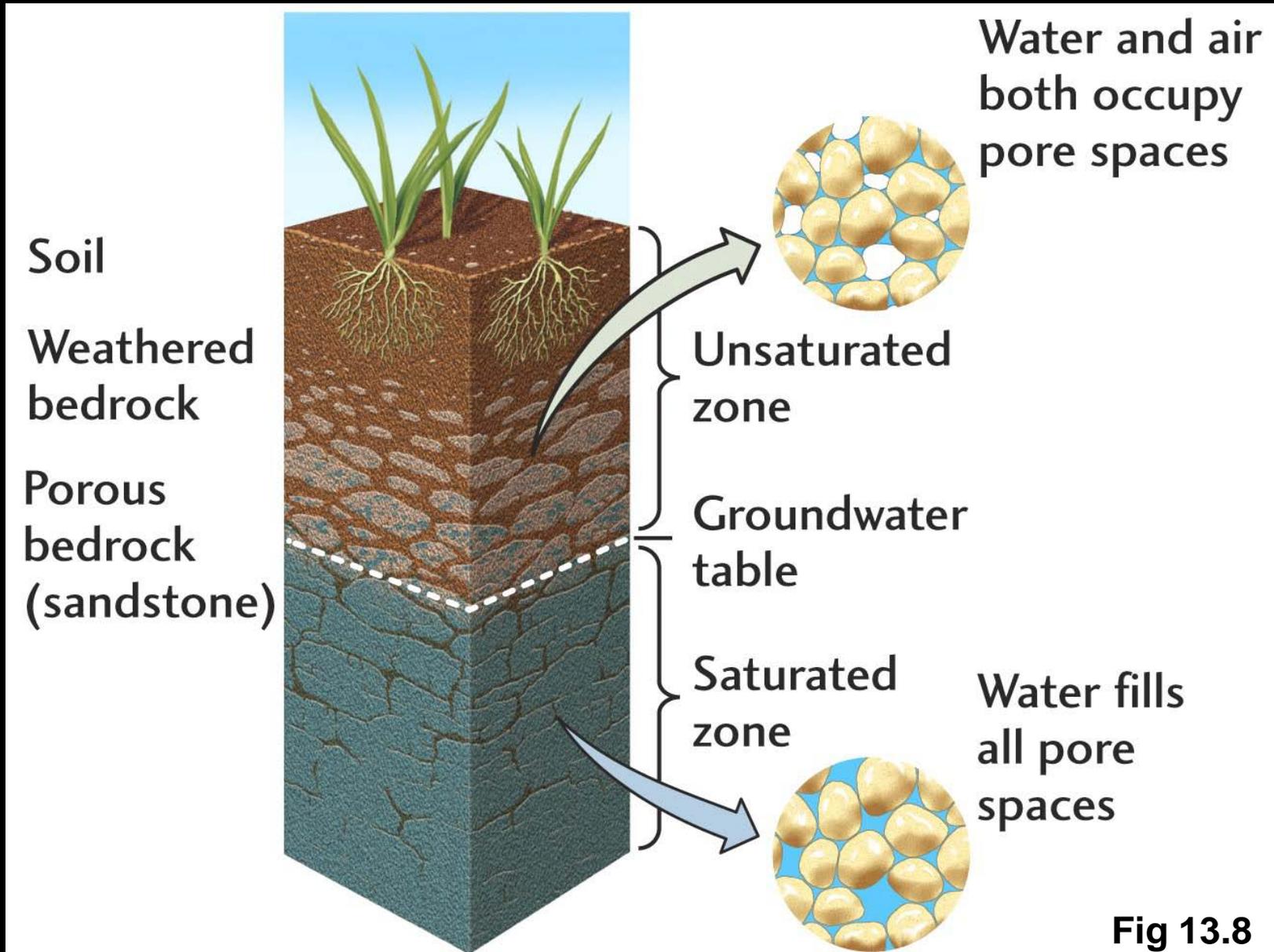
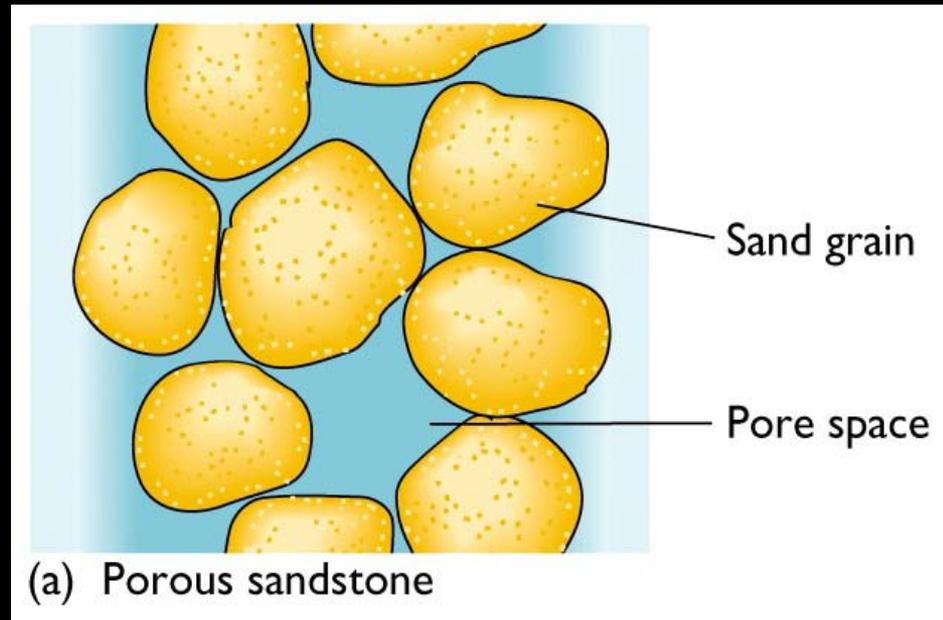


Fig 13.8

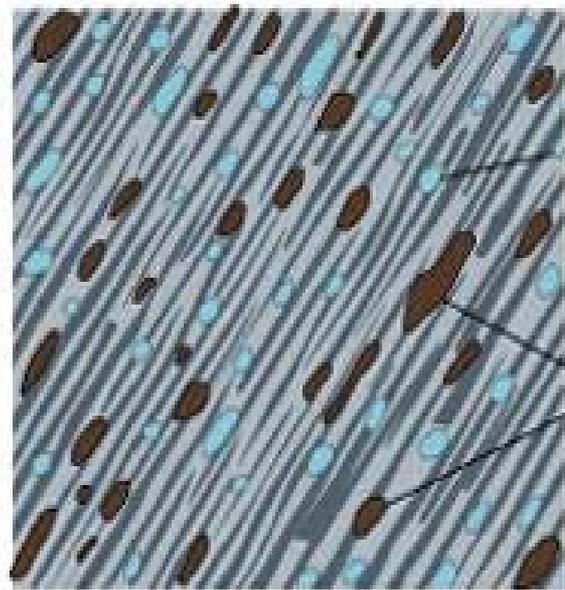
How does it get there?

Porosity – Total volume of pore (void) space in sediment or rock. May be fractures within rock or spaces between grains.



How does it get there?

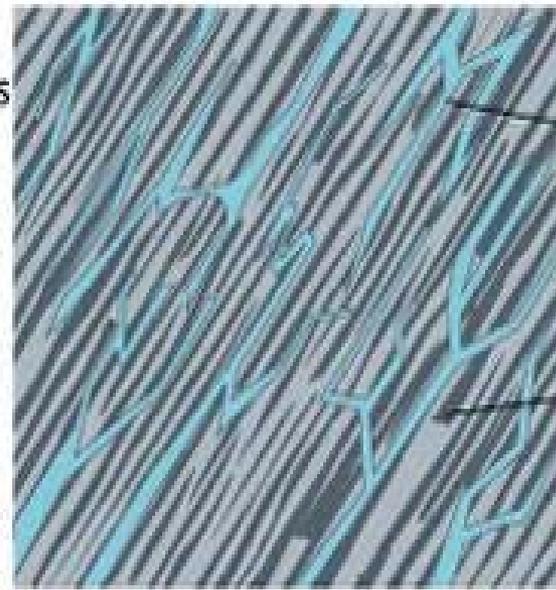
Permeability – The ability of water to flow through spaces in rock or sediment.
(Spaces must be connected!)



Very small amounts
of pore space
between clays
and silt grains

Silt grains

(e) Unfractured shale



Small amounts of
pore space along
cracks

Impermeable rock

(f) Fractured shale

Groundwater Storage

Aquifer – material (sediment and rock) that store and transmit groundwater in sufficient quantities.

High porosity and high permeability.

Rock types?

unconsolidated

gravel, sand

consolidated

sandstone, conglomerate

Groundwater Storage

Aquicludes (also called Aquitards or Confining Beds) – Beds/Rocks through which water cannot move, or moves very slowly.

Low Permeability (Porosity varies).

Rock Types?

unconsolidated

mud, clay

consolidated

mudstone, shale, slate

The two types of aquifers are:

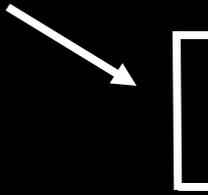
Unconfined aquifer - open to the surface (unsaturated zone and saturated zone) with a water table

Confined aquifer is sandwiched between two aquicludes and is not open to the surface at that location

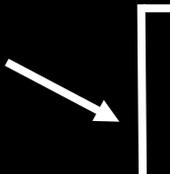
Any rock type can be considered an aquifer if it is fractured and the fractures are interconnected!

Groundwater storage

Unconfined aquifer



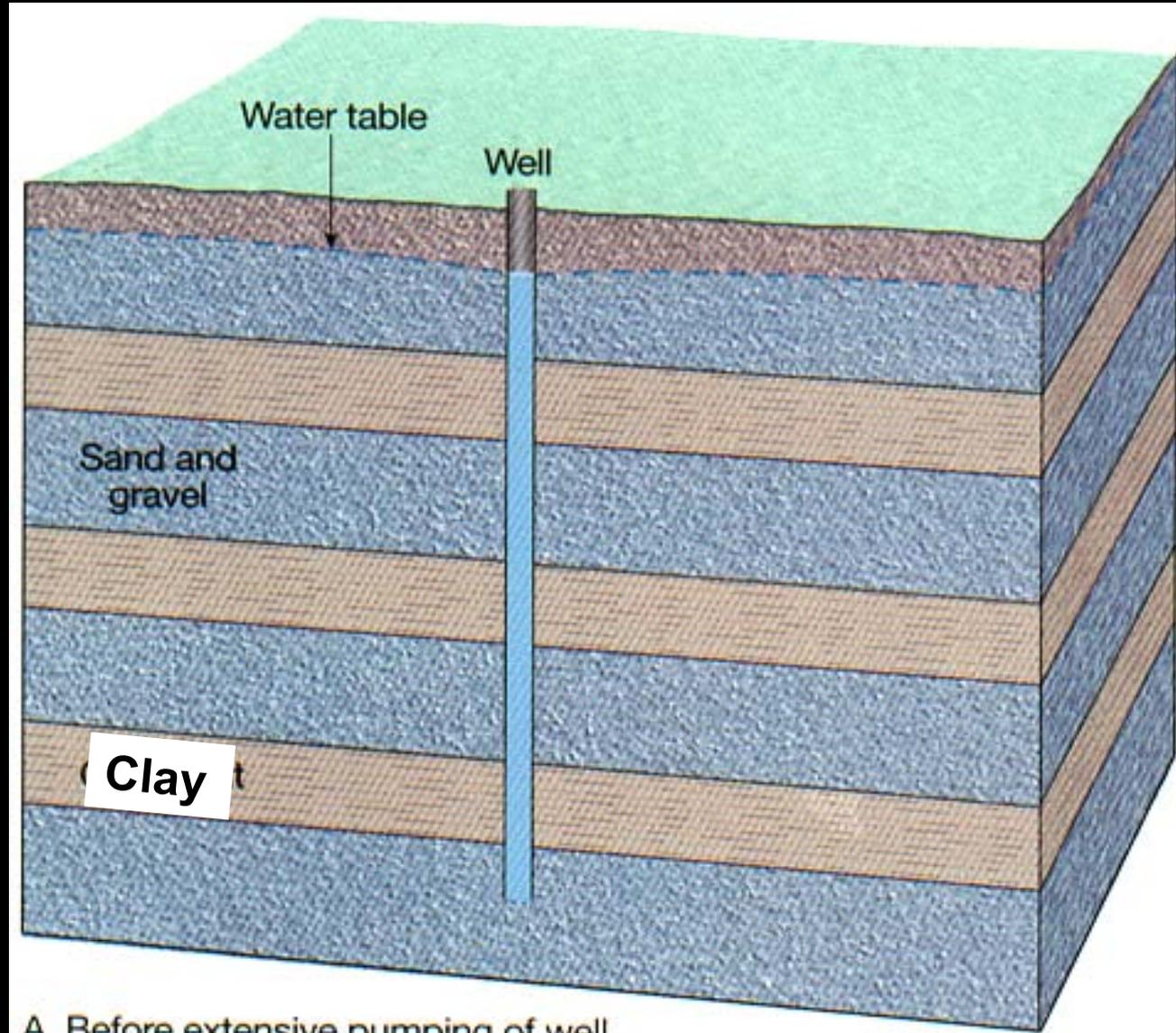
Confined aquifer



Aquiclude



Aquifer



A. Before extensive pumping of well

Groundwater storage

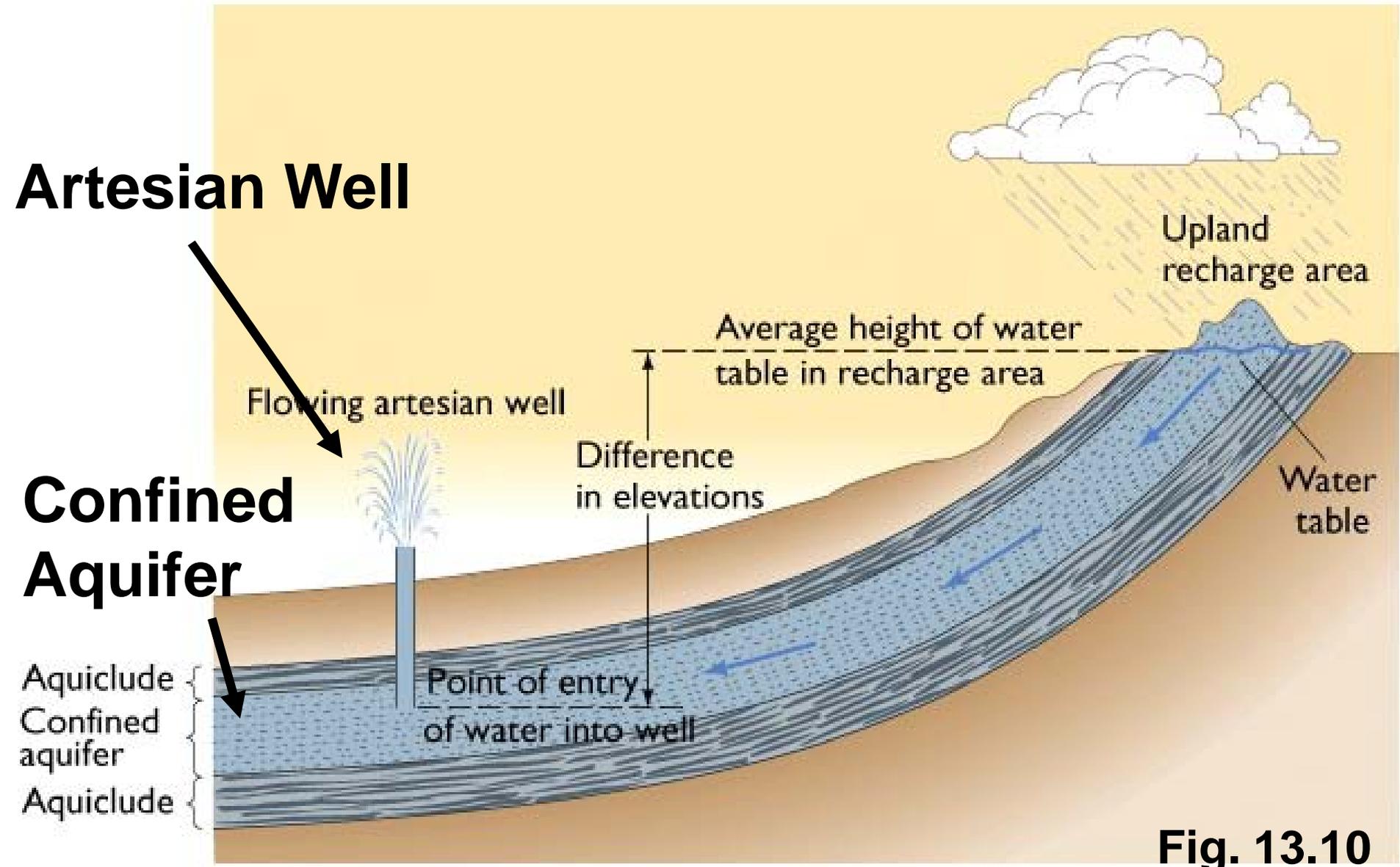
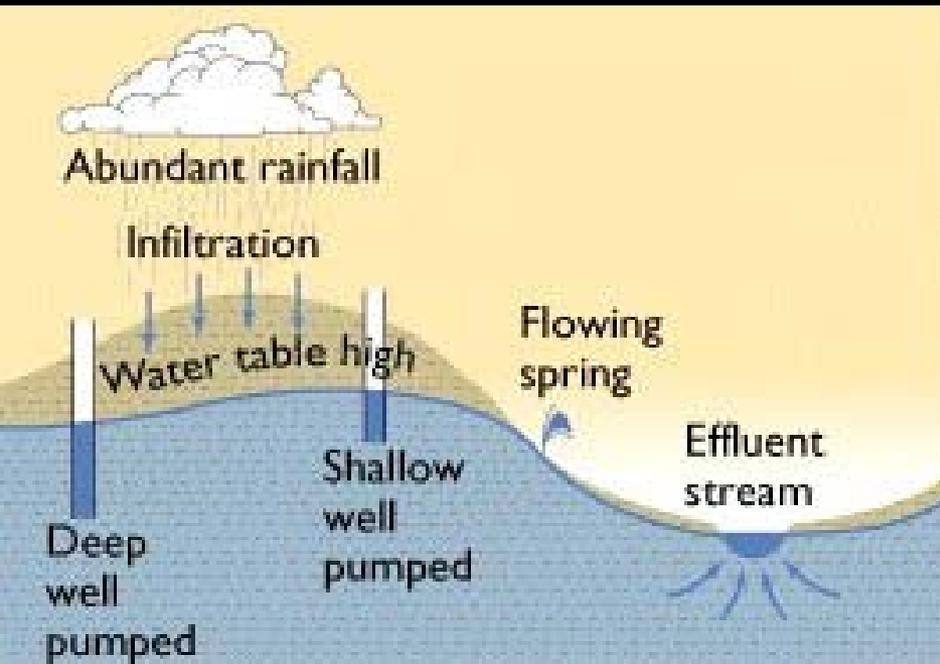


Fig. 13.10

Springs: Where the surface intersects the water table



Geysers: Intermittent hot fountains/columns of water



Ansel Adams · Classic Images



Kory Collier

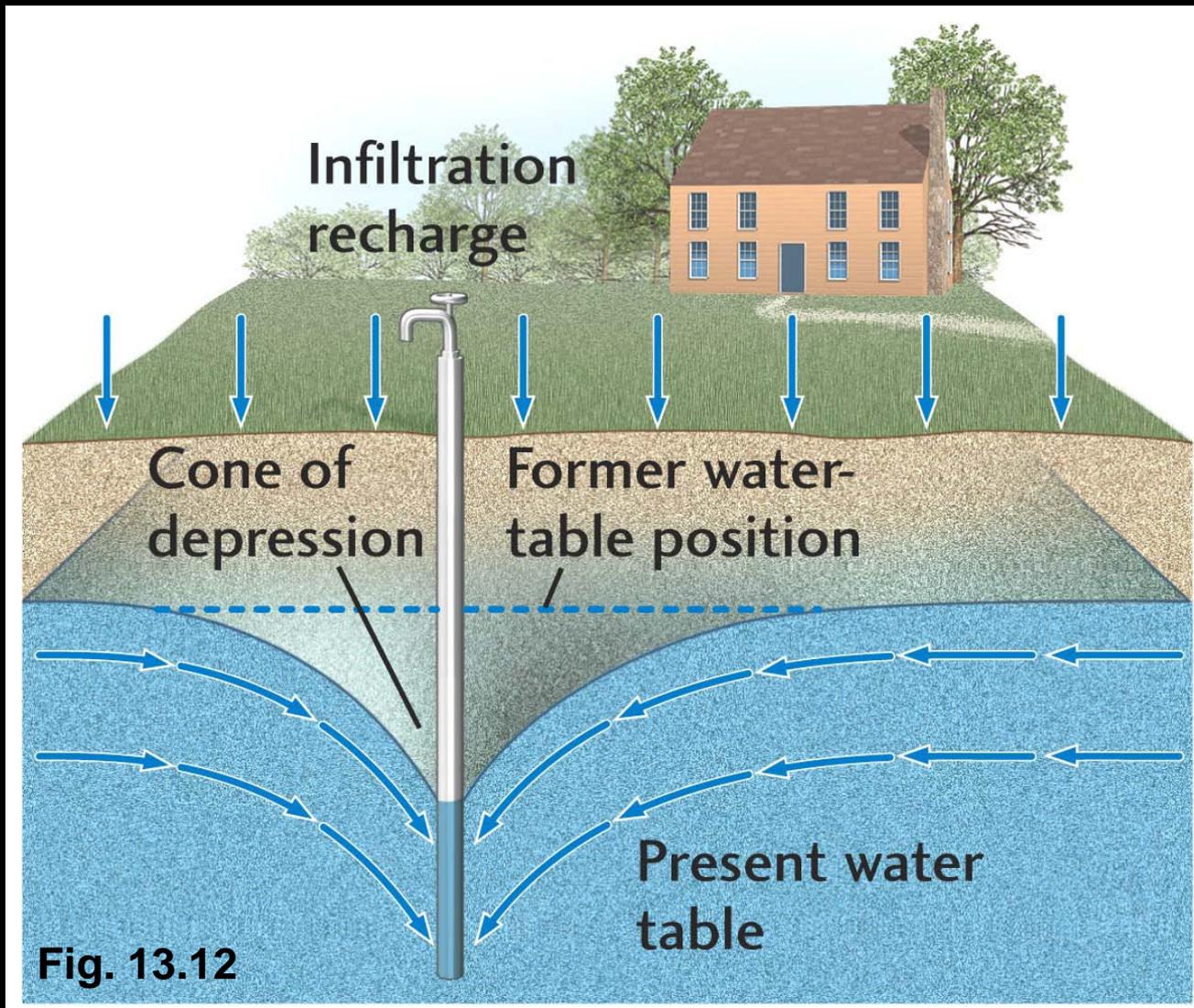
Managing Groundwater

Groundwater Withdraw is greater than
Groundwater Recharge

- Cone of Depression

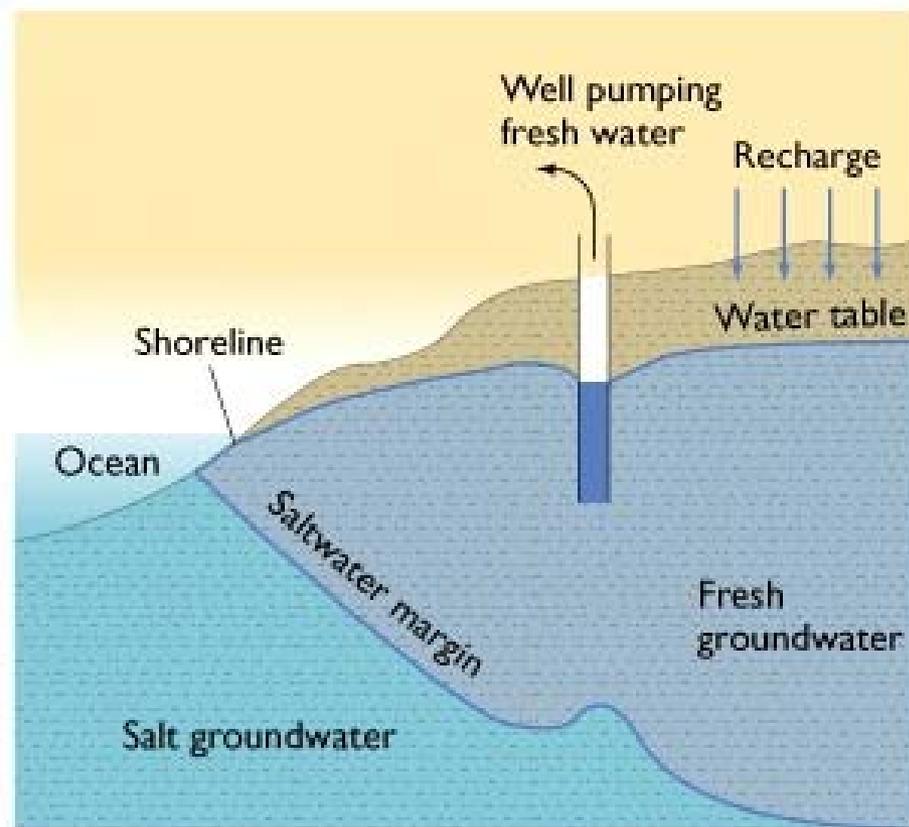
Excessive pumping draws down the water table into a cone-shaped depression around a pumping well.

Think of a ice cream shake or malt as an analogy.

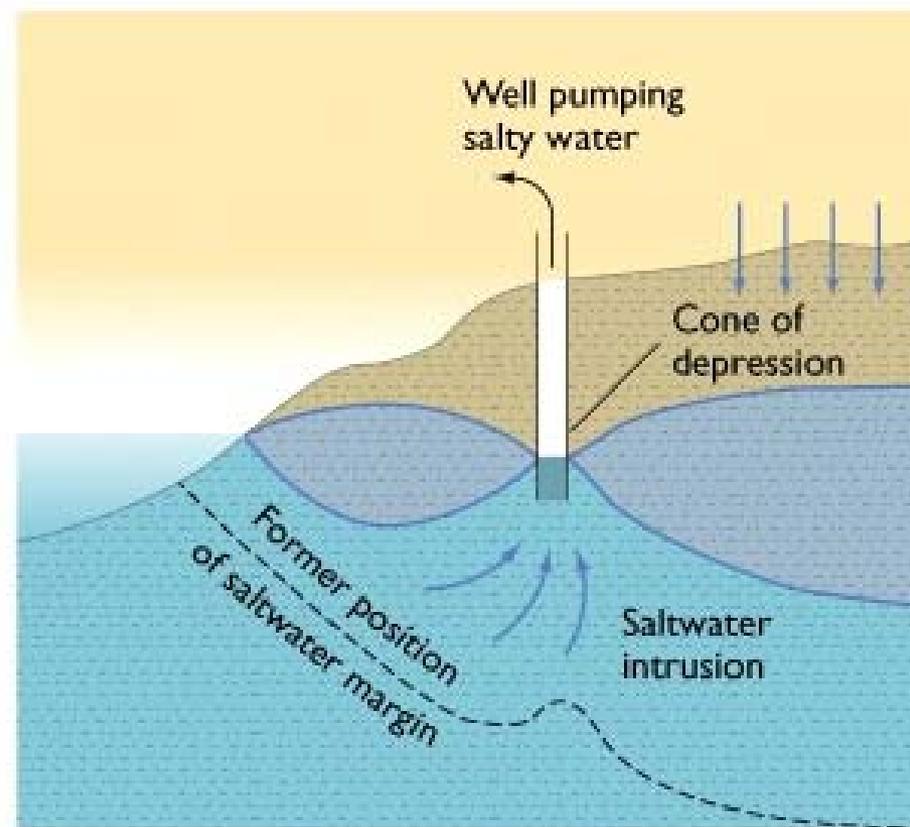


When a well pumps water out of an unconfined aquifer faster than recharge can replenish it, the water level in the aquifer is lowered in a cone-shaped area around the well, called a **cone of depression**

Saltwater Intrusion



(a) Before extensive pumping



(b) After extensive pumping by many wells

Managing Groundwater

Groundwater Withdraw is greater than
Groundwater Recharge

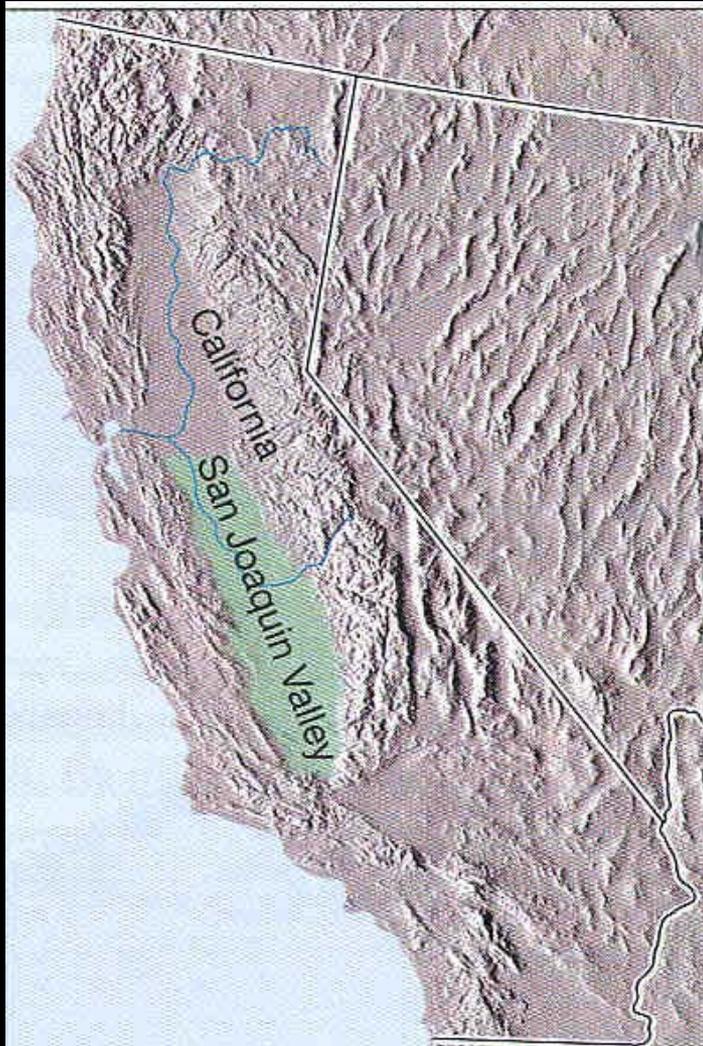
- Subsidence

When water is removed from pore spaces/cracks in sediment/rocks, the weight of overlying materials causes compaction, and sinking of land surface.

Subsidence



Subsidence (from pumping out water faster than replenishing)



Erosion by Groundwater

Dissolution

- Chemical weathering process by which slightly acidic water dissolves rock.
- Most commonly limestone
- Water picks up CO_2 from the atmosphere and from the soil and becomes slightly acidic (carbonic acid).
- Acid is strongest at the level of the water table.
- Dissolves along fractures, enlarging them into a network of caves and other features called Karst.

Karst topography

Limestone is subjected to chemical weathering

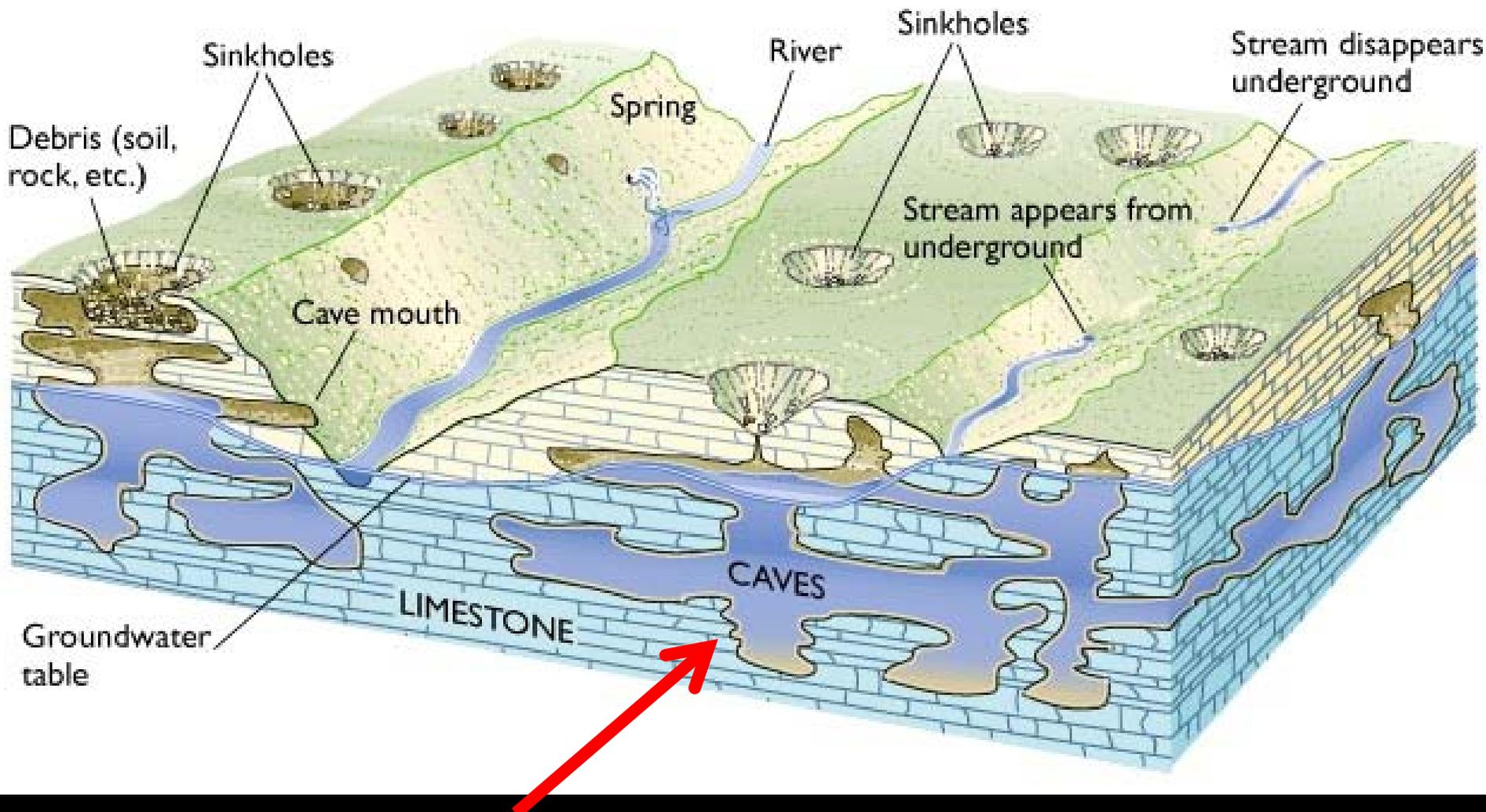


Fig 13.19

Cave Formation

Cave Formation

1. Dissolution occurs near the water table, enlarging previous fractures.
2. Water table drops - leaves a cavity full of air
3. Water infiltrates from above and minerals precipitate as water enters void space.
4. Minerals (Calcite) precipitate as formations known as speleothems.

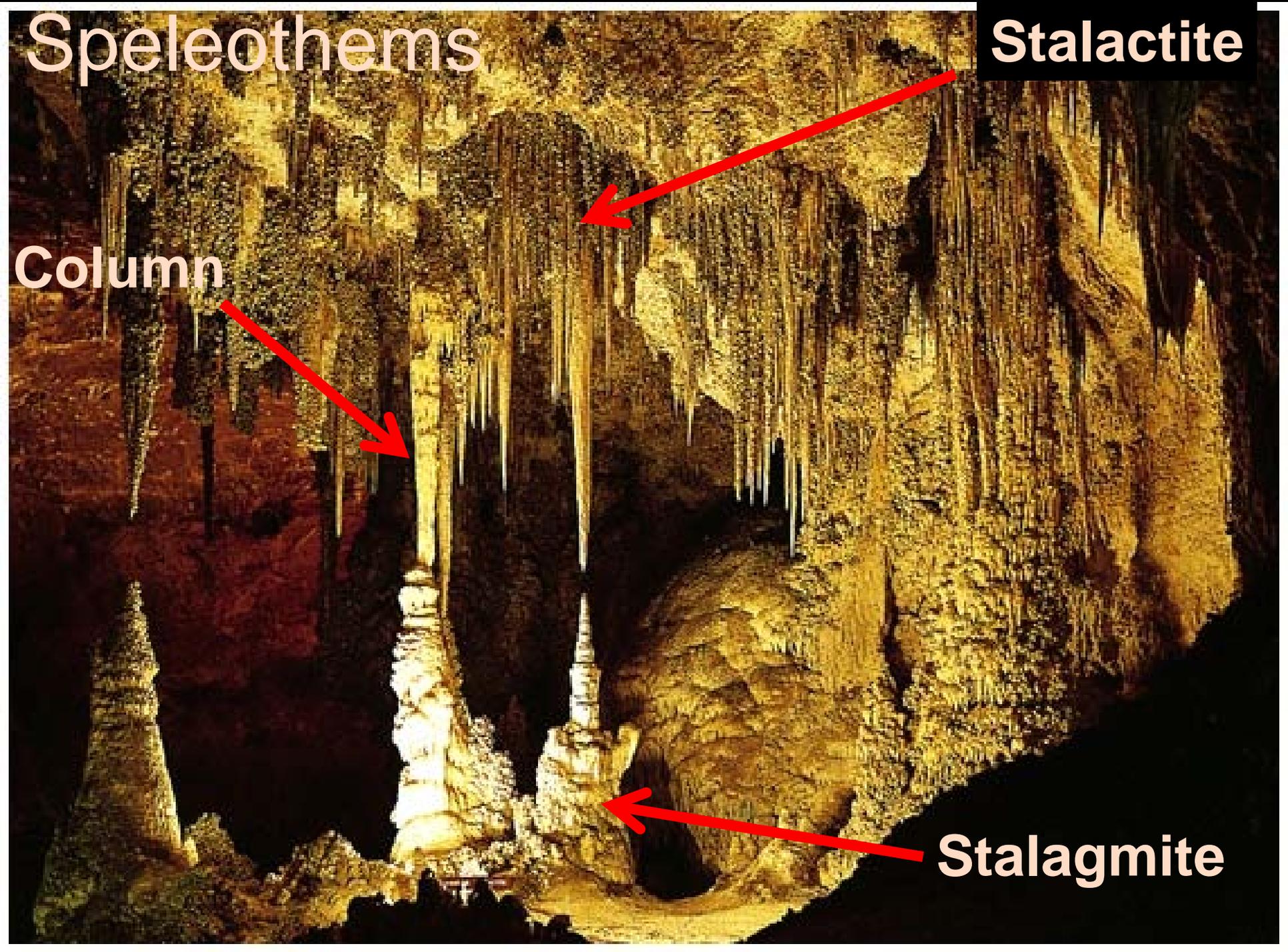
Website for virtual cave: <http://www.goodearthgraphics.com/virtcave.html>

Speleothems

Stalactite

Column

Stalagmite



Sinkhole in Winter Park, Florida This sinkhole was created when the roof of a cave collapsed. Collapse can happen very quickly and suddenly.

Fig. 12.19 Understanding Earth

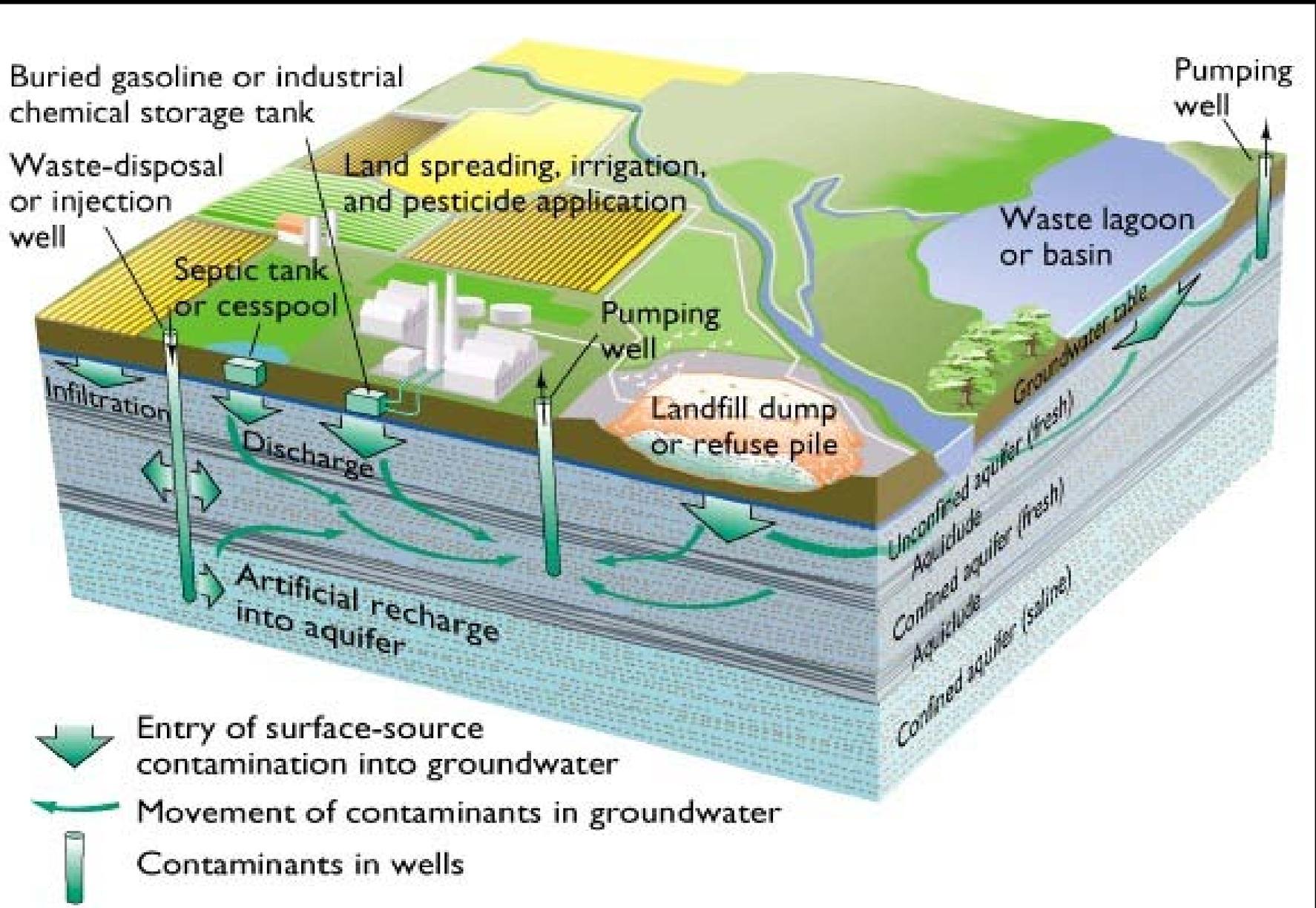


Contamination of our Water Supply

Groundwater Pollutants

- Sewage
- Leaking gasoline tanks
- Pesticide / Herbicides / Fertilizer
- Feed lots
- Cleaning solvents
- Radioactive waste

Contamination of Water Supply



Groundwater review

What are some materials that form aquifers?

What are some materials that form aquitards?

What is an unconfined aquifer?

What is a confined aquifer?

What creates a spring?

What rock type are dissolution caves formed in?

Consider the following questions:

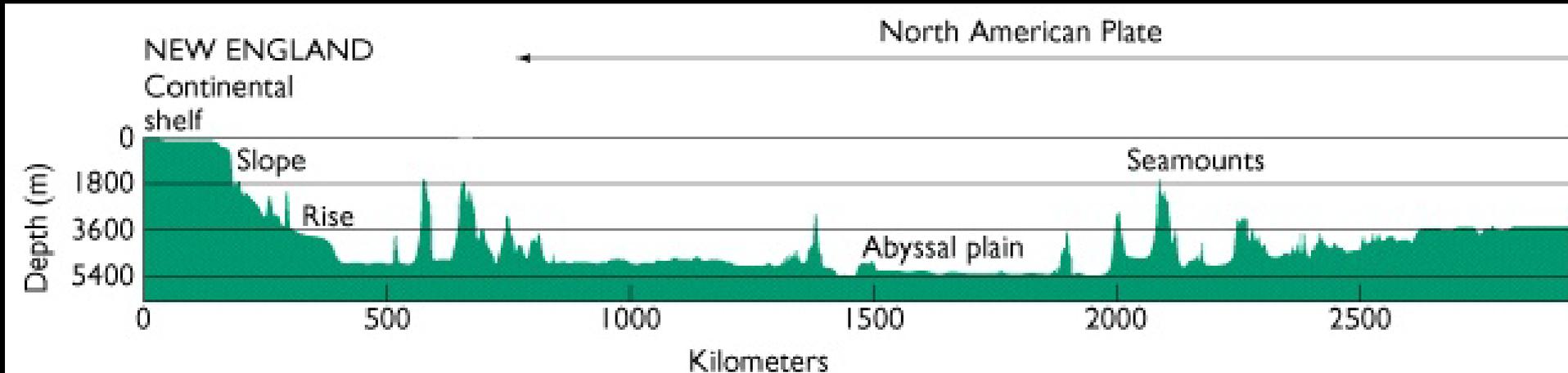
**You bought a piece of land in the country to build your house; you need both a water well and a septic system. Where are you going to put them?
Where would you go for information to insure that you have a safe water supply?**

You just bought a house in the country, the water tastes a little strange. What are you going to do?

Chapter 15 Restless Realm: Oceans and Coasts

Major Physiographic Features in the Atlantic Ocean

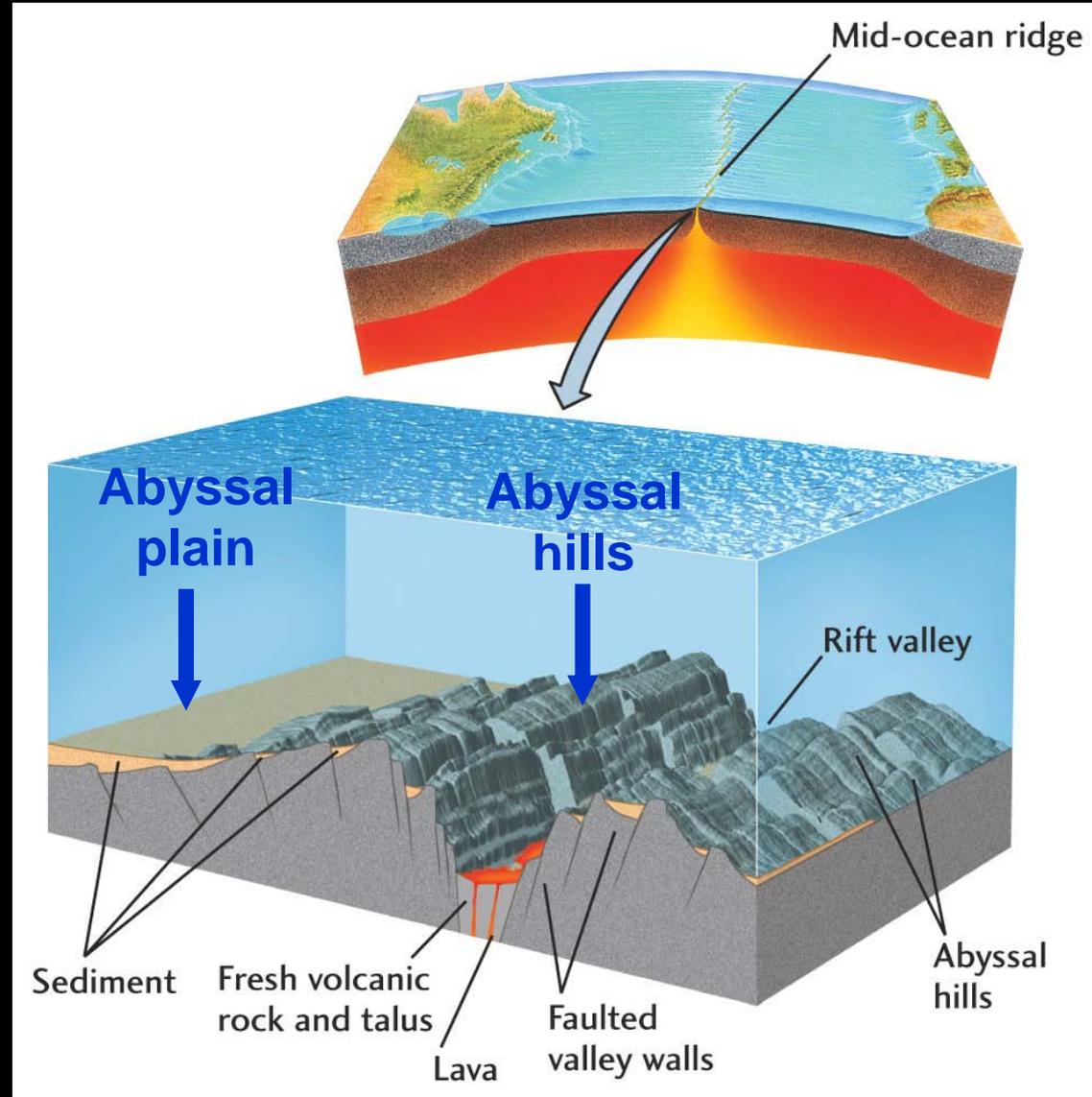
- **continental margin**
 - continental shelf
 - continental slope
 - continental rise
- **abyssal plain**
- **seamounts and guyots**
- **amid-ocean ridge**
 - abyssal hills
 - central rift valley



Abyssal Hills

Linear ridges of basalt covered with a thin veneer of deep-sea sediment on the flanks the Mid-ocean ridge.

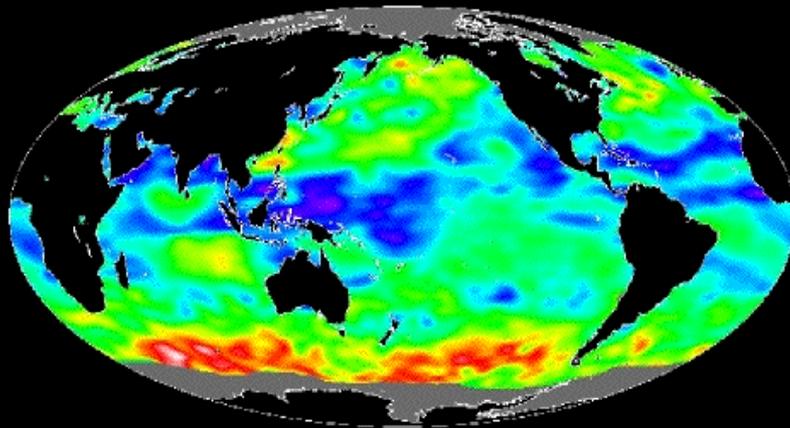
- 2-km high submarine mountain belt



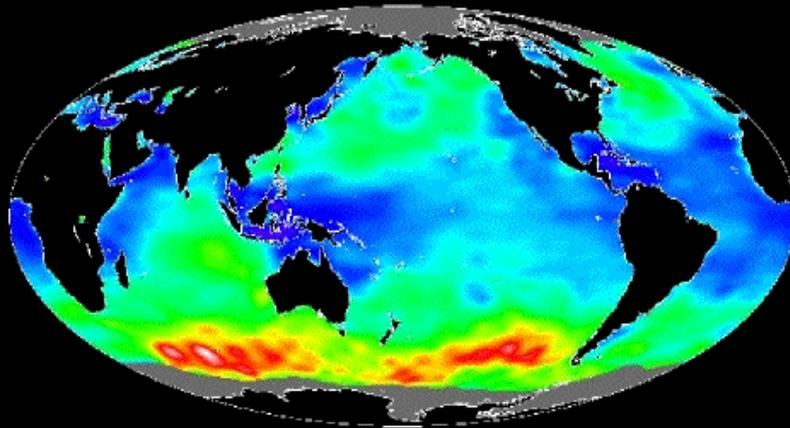
Waves are due to wind

Higher waves can be caused by:

- 1) Higher wind speed
- 2) Increased storm duration (time)
- 3) Longer *fetch* (distance over which wind blows)



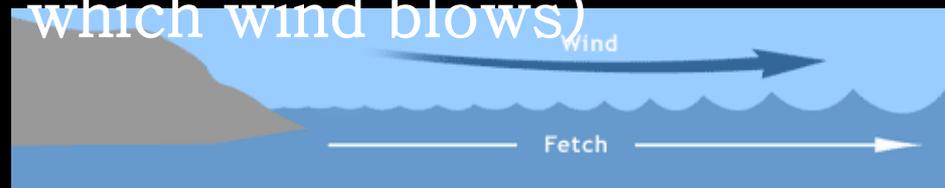
Wind Speed (m/s) Oct. 3-12, 1992



Wave Height (m) Oct. 3-12, 1992



Map of satellite data showing the geographic correlation between surface wind speeds and significant oceanic wave height in the first half of October, 1992. The highest winds and waves are found predominantly in the circum-Antarctic region at this time, the southern hemisphere spring. This is a result of both **wind speed** and **fetch**.

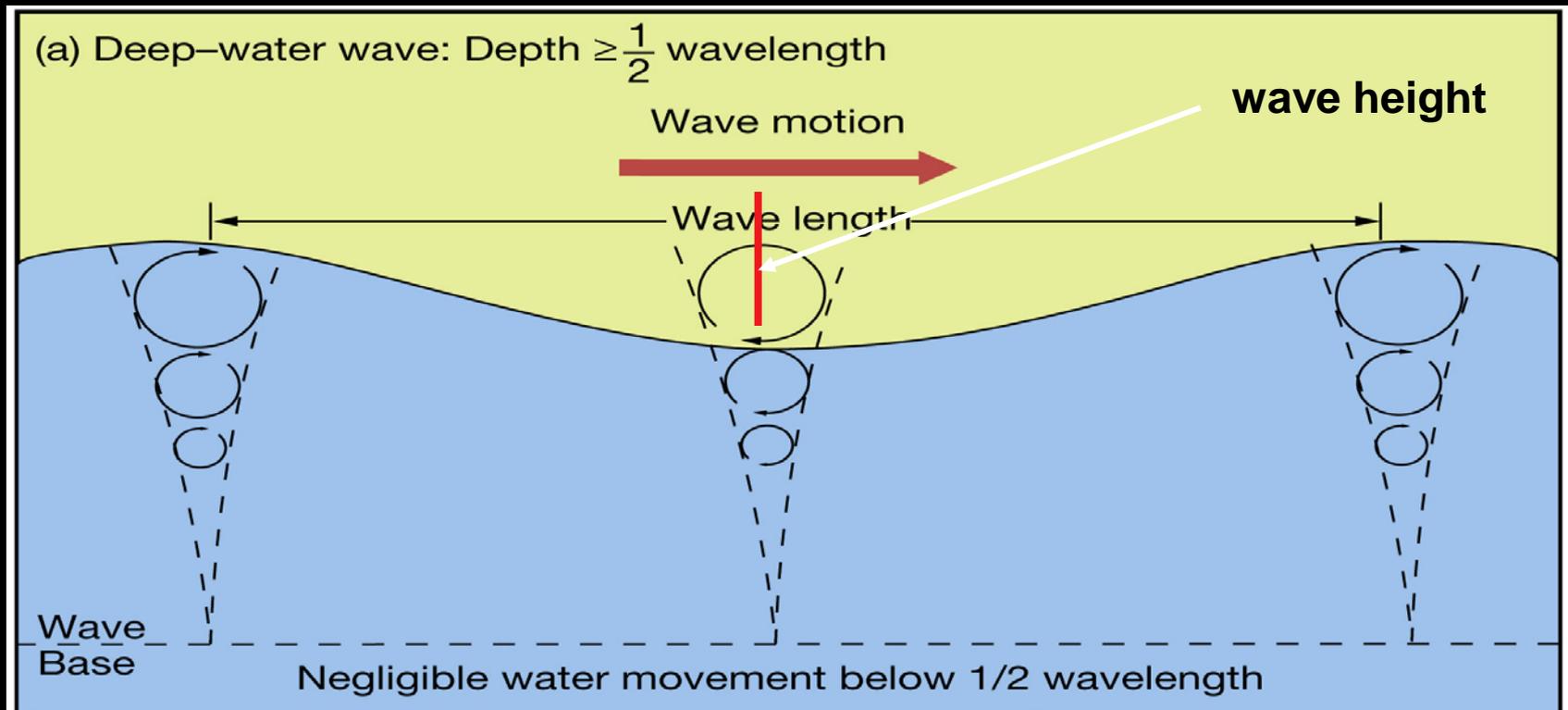


Indian ocean

Wave characteristics

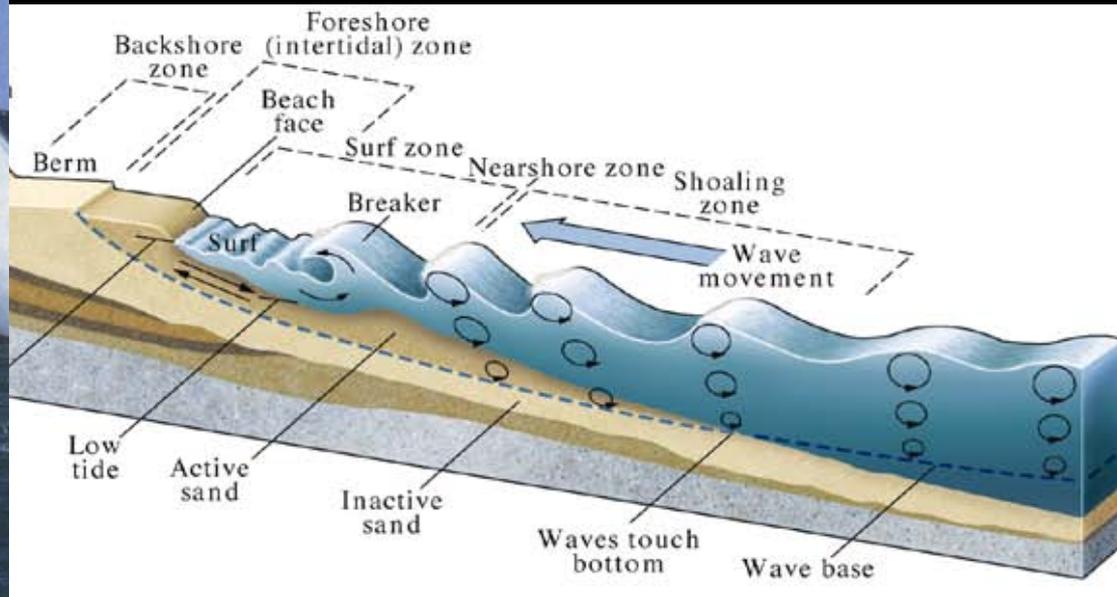
- Wave length – distance between crests
- Wave height – vertical distance between crest and trough
- Period – time between successive waves to pass

Wave base is $1/2$ wave length – there is negligible water movement due to waves below this depth

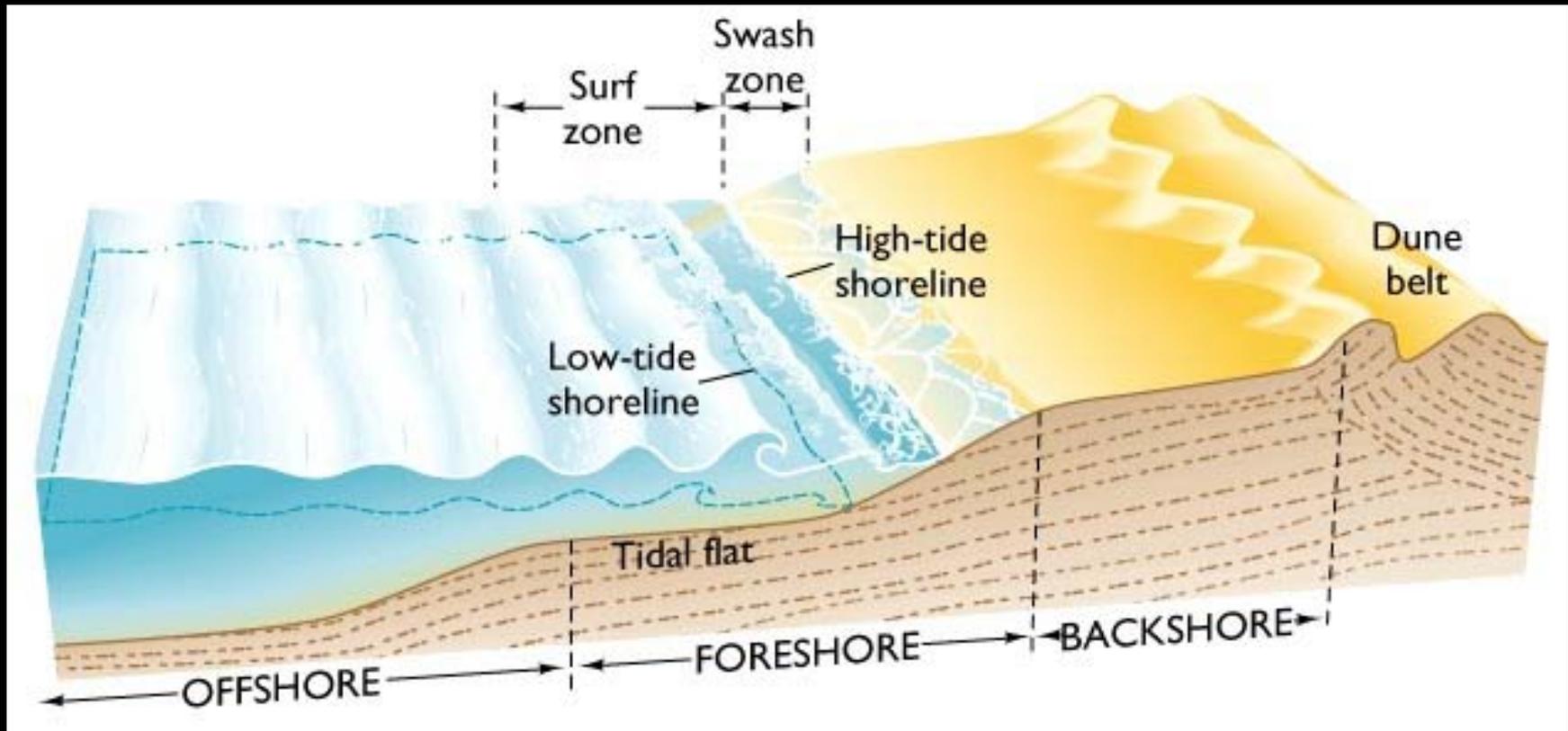


How do breakers form?

- As the swell approaches the shore where the bottom shallows to less than $\frac{1}{2}$ the wavelength, the wave touch bottom causing it to slow
 - the wave period remains the same so the wavelength decreases and the waves height increase (making the wave steeper).
- As bottom shallows further the water can no longer support itself and the waves breaks and crashes in the surf zone



Major Parts of a Beach



Surf zone – offshore belt along which breaking waves collapse as they approach the shore

Swash zone - zone where water run up on the beach from a wave

Tidal flats – the area that lie above low tide but are flooded at high tide

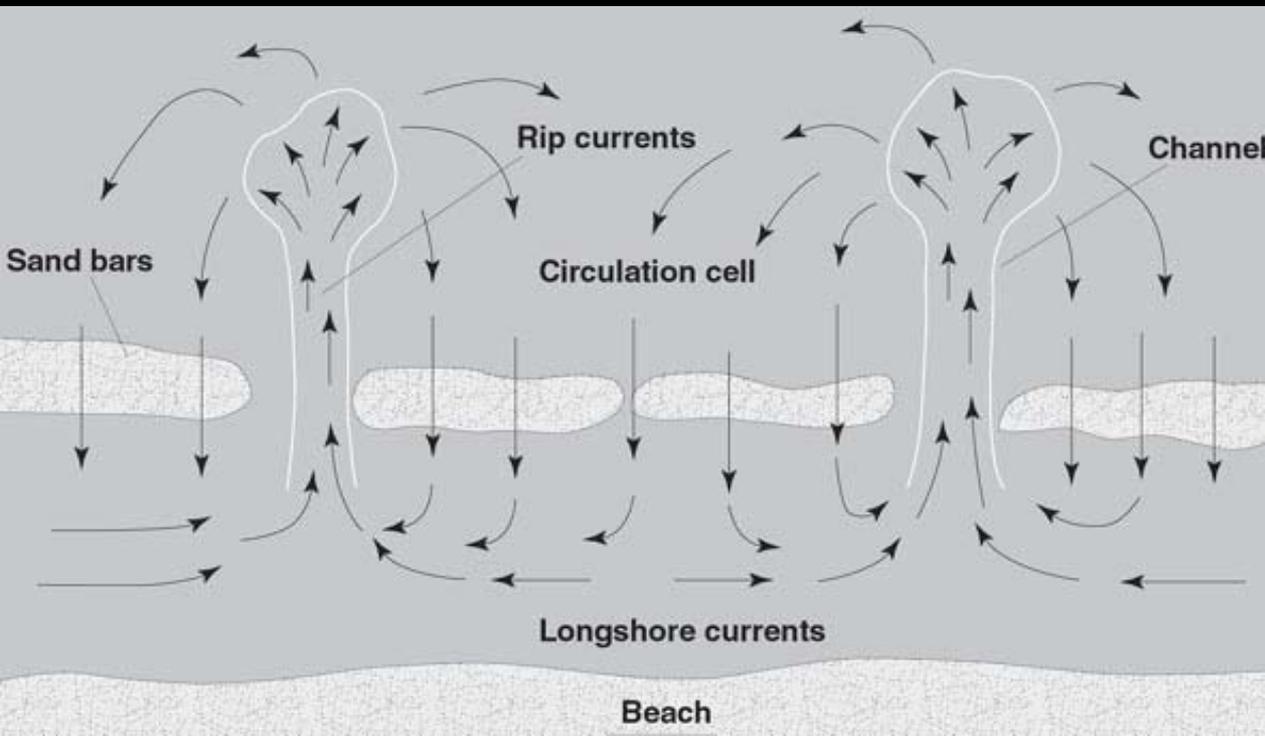


Formation of rip currents

- rapid current draining beach area through shallow nearshore bars
- fast and dangerous (most beach rescues)

What do you do if caught in a rip current?

C: 0 S: 1 Inc: 0 Qual: 80



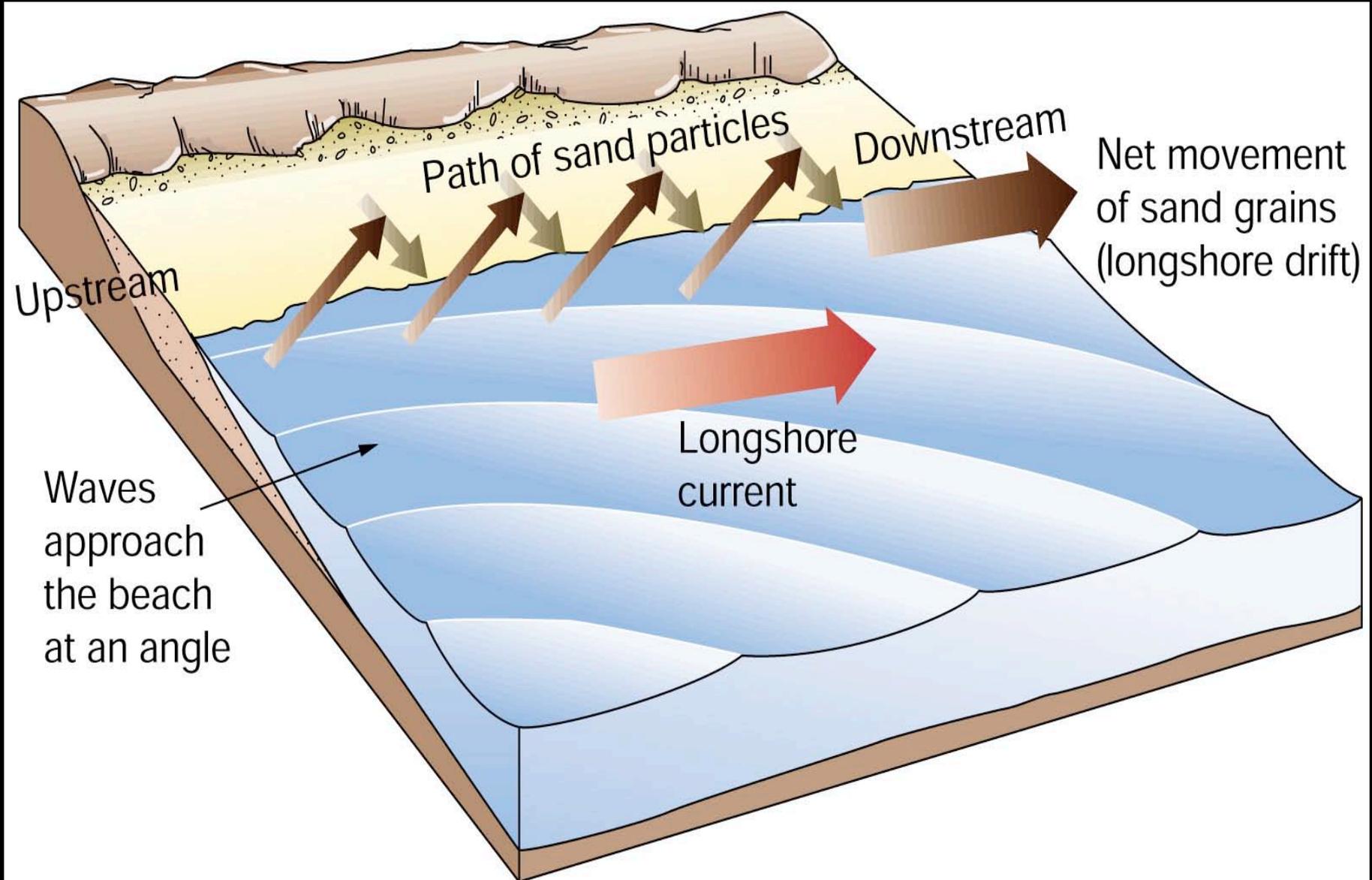
Far from shore the lines of swells are parallel to each other but are usually at some angle to the shoreline.

Wave refraction occurs as waves slow down in progressively more shallow water depths allowing the wave fronts to bend and approach the shore nearly parallel.

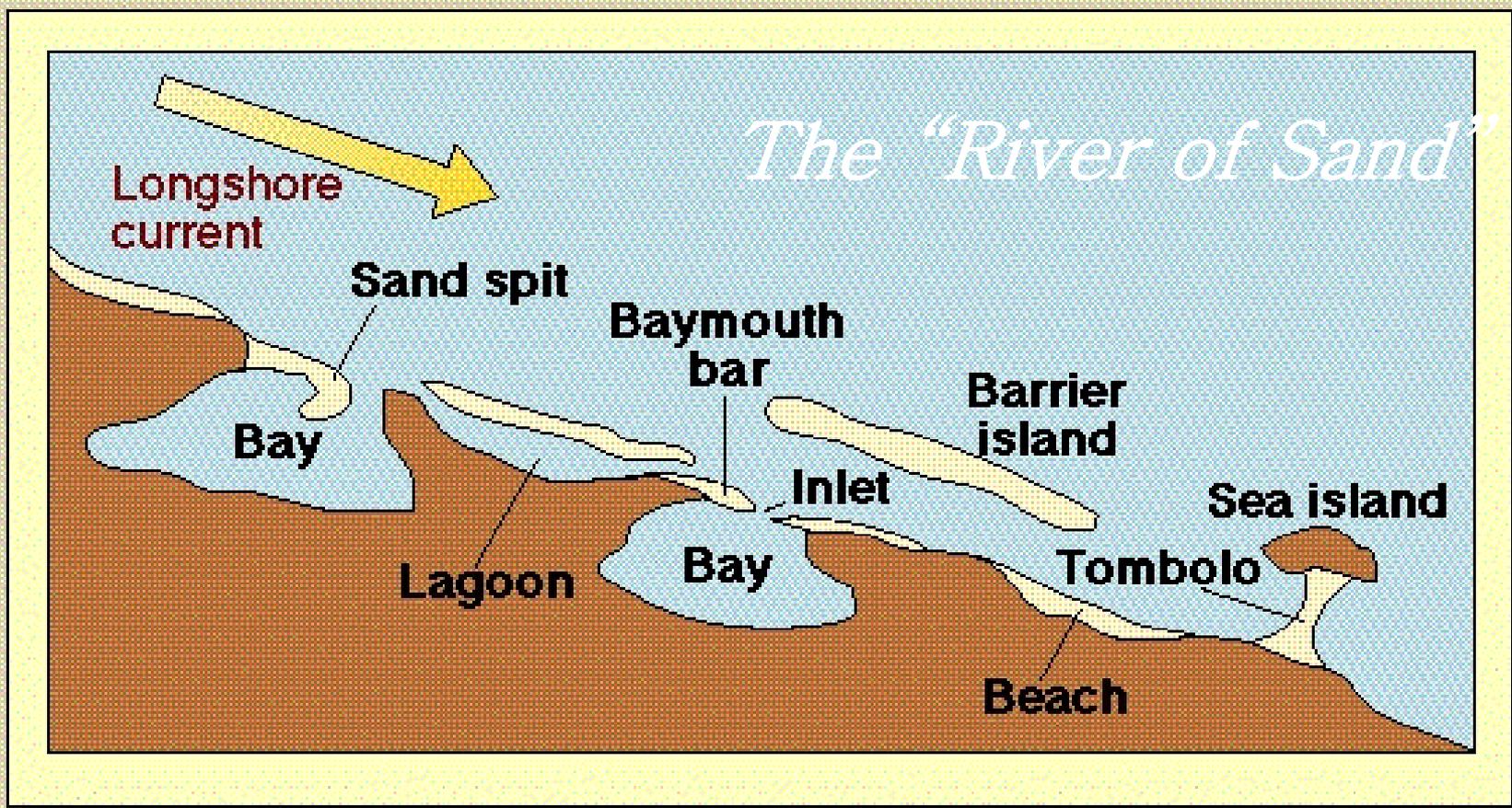


Fig. Story 17.13

Wave refraction moves sediment along the beach in a zigzag motion known as **longshore drift**.



Many coastal depositional features are formed by longshore drift.



A composite diagram of the large-scale features of depositional coasts. Not all of these features would be found in such close proximity or in this order on a real coast.



San Diego spit



Sand spit

Sand Spits

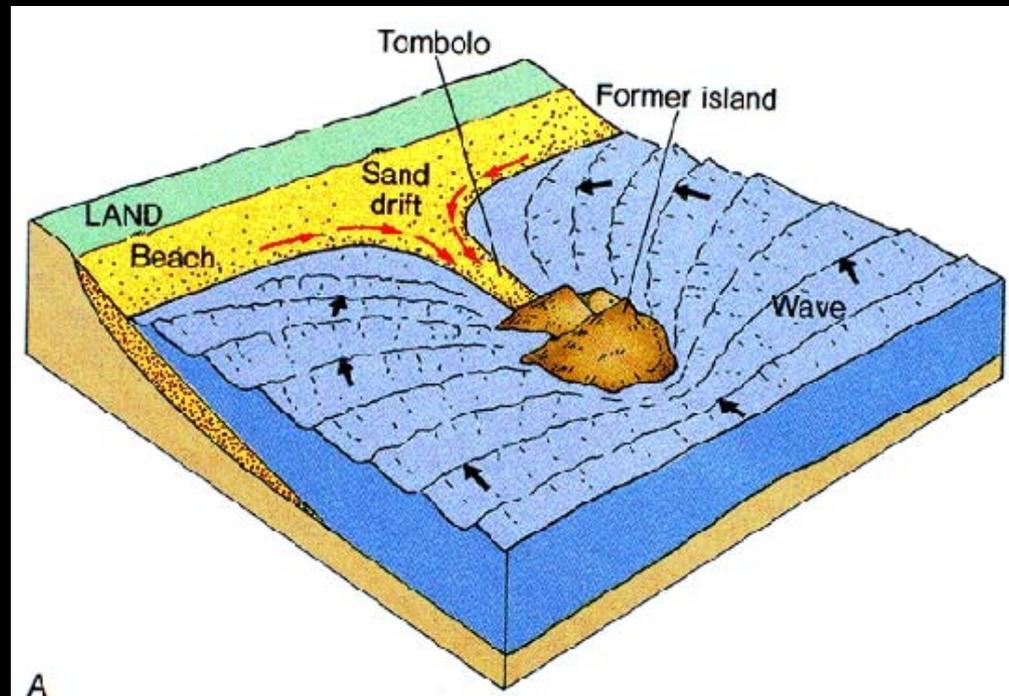
- common wherever sand is supplied and a longshore current is present



End of a spit

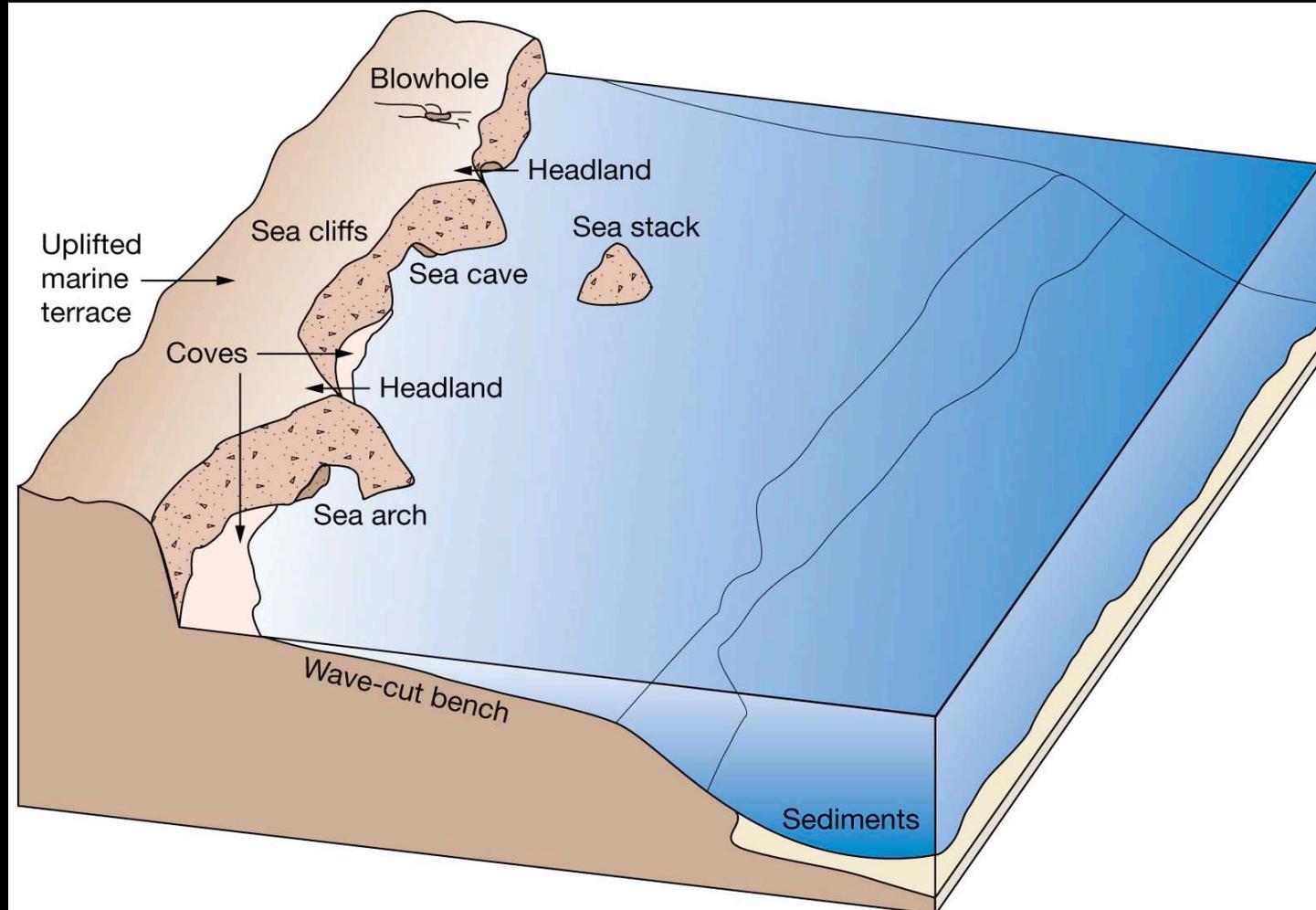
Tombolos

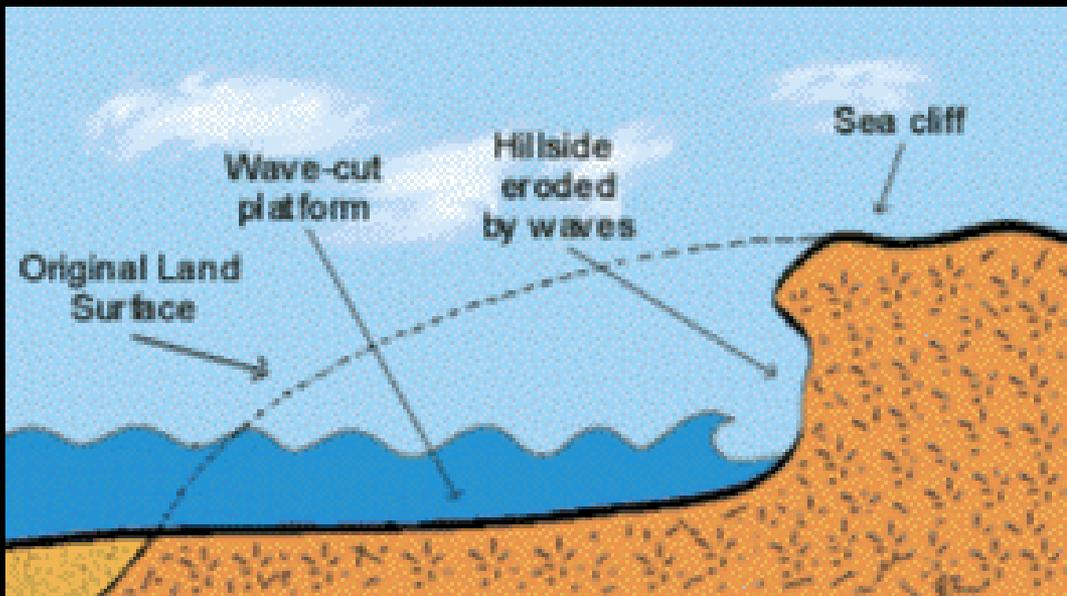
- island shields beach from wave energy
- leads to sand build up



Emergent coasts

- uplifted, tectonically active coasts often rocky
- rocky headlands alternate with pocket beaches
- formed by wave erosion





Wave cut platforms

- abrasion across surf zone erodes bedrock flat – common feature on rocky coasts

Sea stacks and arches - remnants of erosion



Uplifted beach terraces

- can be either wave cut platforms or beaches or both
- common on emergent coasts

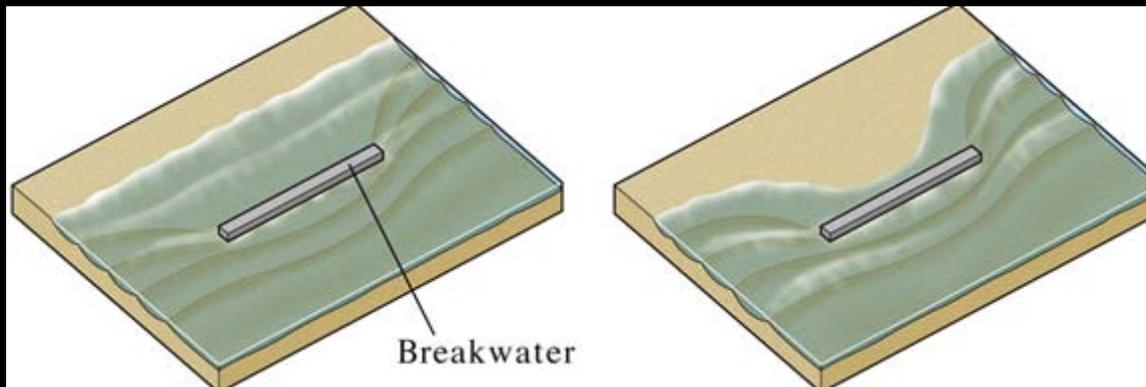
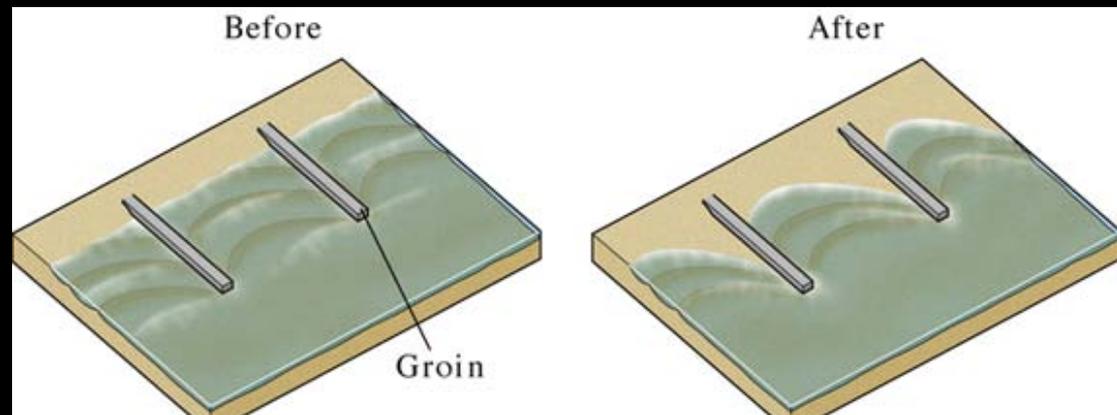


-- EX:, CA, OR,
WA, entire
west coast of
US

Preventing beach erosion

- **Structural** approaches (e.g., groins, breakwater, jetties): typically cause increased erosion down-current of structure
- **Non-structural** approaches (e.g., beach nourishment, land use planning): expensive, but doesn't cause erosion in new areas

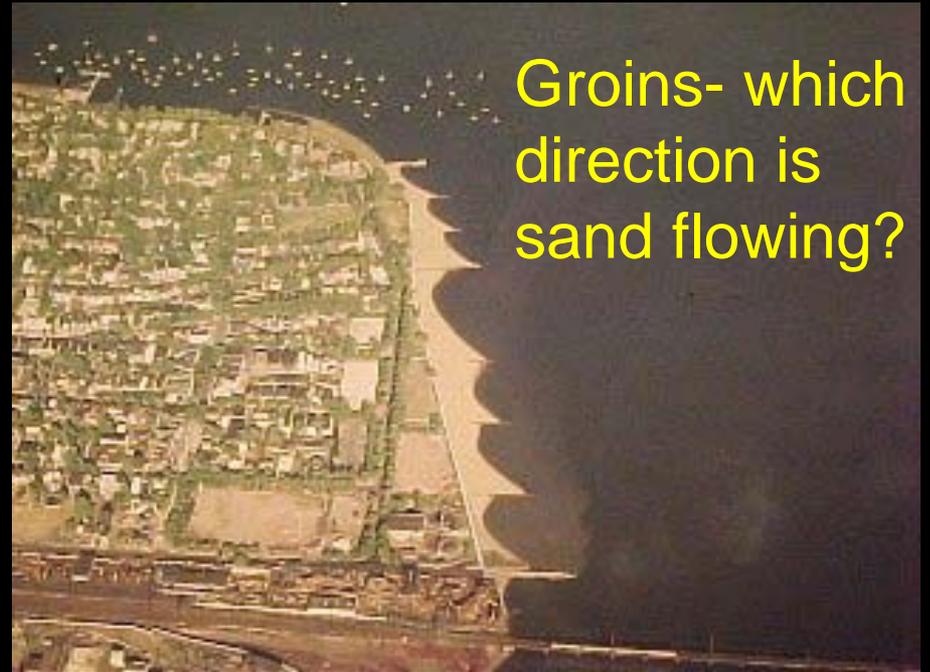
Groins - catch part of the “river of sand” from longshore drift



Breakwater - reduces local wave energy so sand is deposited, not carried away



New Jersey groins



Groins- which direction is sand flowing?



Italian breakwater

Groins and breakwaters