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Preface

As with previous editions, *Applications and Investigations* in *Earth Science* is intended to be a supplemental tool for achieving an understanding of the basic principles of geology, oceanography, meteorology, and astronomy. While enrolled in what may be their first, and possibly only, Earth Science course, students will benefit from putting the material *presented* in the classroom to *work* in the laboratory. Learning becomes more significant when accomplished by discovery.

Ninth Edition Features

One of the goals for this ninth edition was to minimize the need for lengthy presentations at the start of each lab session. This allows more time for student involvement in lab activities, as well as more time for instructors to interact with students individually or in small groups. Here is a list of important features associated with this new edition:

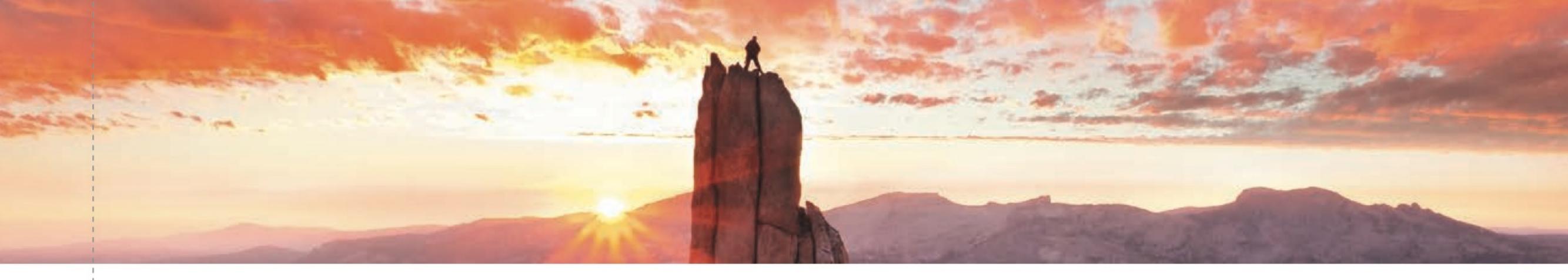
- **Revised organization**. Previous users of this lab manual will see that the order of the exercises in Part I Geology has been changed. It now reflects the topic order associated with *Earth Science* 15th edition, the textbook most often used in conjunction with this lab manual. Of course, because exercises are largely self contained, they may be assigned in a different order.
- New lab exercise on *Volcanism and Volcanic Hazards*. At the urging of several reviewers and past users of this lab manual, a new exercise has been added. *Exercise 5: Volcanism and Volcanic Hazards* examines the nature of volcanic eruptions and the formation and characteristics of different types of volcanoes. The new exercise also explores some of the geologic hazards associated with volcanoes.
- Pre Lab Videos. Each lab is accompanied by a Pre Lab Video, prepared and narrated by Professor Callan Bentley. Each lesson examines and explains the key ideas explored in the exercise, thereby largely eliminating the need for a pre-lab lecture by the instructor.
- A design and layout that promotes user flexibility.

 Each exercise is divided into sections that include background material and one or more related activities for students to complete. This layout makes it easier for instructors to customize each exercise to fit the allotted lab period and their individual teaching preferences.

 The design also effectively ties figures and tables to the associated activities.

- Mastering™ Geology. Mastering Geology is an online homework, tutorial, and assessment program designed to work with this lab manual to engage students and improve results. Interactive, self-paced activities provide individualized coaching to help students stay on track. With a wide range of activities available, students can actively learn, understand, and retain even the most difficult Earth Science concepts. Materials in Mastering Geology include Pre-Lab Videos, Geoscience Animations, Mobile Field Trips, "Project Condor" Quadcopter videos, GIS-inspired Map-Master 2.0 interactive maps, *In the News* articles, Key Term Study Tools, and an optional Pearson eText.
- SmartFigures—art that teaches. Inside most exercises are *SmartFigures*. Students may use a mobile device to scan the Quick Response (QR) code next to a SmartFigure to view enhanced, dynamic art. Each 2- to 4-minute feature is a mini-lesson that examines the concepts illustrated by the figure. Several new SmartFigures have been added to this new edition. In addition to the Tutorials that appeared in the previous edition, there are now several SmartFigure Animations and SmartFigure Videos. SmartFigures is truly *art that teaches*.
- Exercises that are largely self-contained. Significant effort has been put into making the exercises less reliant on traditional text material and/or direct faculty instruction. In some cases, additional background material is provided within the exercise. Questions that rely heavily on outside material have been modified or replaced. We are confident that this approach makes exercises more useful and meaningful for students as well as instructors.
- Inquiry-based lab experiences. Whenever possible, the
 exercises provide hands-on learning. We also endeavor
 to engage students in gathering and analyzing scientific
 data to improve their critical reasoning skills.
- Content and illustrations revised to improve clarity. Our many years in the classroom have made us keenly aware of the frustration that students and instructors face when instructions, illustrations, and questions are unclear. Likewise, we recognize that instructors are genuinely interested in making learning experiences meaningful for their students. With those ideas in mind, the exercises were reviewed not only by Earth Science faculty but also by a support team with educational backgrounds other than Earth Science—a reflection, essentially, of the majority of the students who utilize this manual.





We sincerely hope that this ninth edition enhances the planning and implementation of instructional goals of all faculty—those who have used our materials for many years as well as those who bring fresh ideas and perspectives to the classrooms of the twenty-first century.

Acknowledgments

Writing a laboratory manual requires the talents and cooperation of many people. It is truly a team effort, and we authors are fortunate to be part of an extraordinary team at Pearson Education. In addition to being great people to work with, all are committed to producing the best textbooks possible. Special thanks to our Executive Editor at Pearson Education, Christian Botting. We appreciate his enthusiasm, hard work, and quest for excellence. We also want to acknowledge our conscientious Content Producer, Becca Groves for the skills she exhibited in keeping this project on track.

As always, we want to acknowledge the production team, led by Patty Donovan at SPi-Global, who turned our manuscript into a finished product. The team included copy editor Kitty Wilson, compositor SPi Global, and proofreader Linda Duarte. These talented people are true professionals, with whom we are very fortunate to be associated.

We owe special thanks to a number of other people who were critical to this project:

- Working with Dennis Tasa, who creates the manual's outstanding illustrations, is always enjoyable and rewarding. We value his amazing artistic talent, imagination, and extraordinary patience with extensive revisions. Dennis and his excellent staff have definitely strengthened an already outstanding art program.
- We value the support of Teresa Tarbuck of Vincennes
 University, whose editorial assistance greatly enhanced
 this ninth edition. She helped make the exercises more
 current, readable, and engaging.
- Callan Bentley has been an important contributor to this edition of *Applications and Investigations*. Callan is a professor of geology at Northern Virginia Community College in Annandale, where he has been honored many times as an outstanding teacher. He is a frequent

contributor to *Earth* magazine and author of the popular geology blog *Mountain Beltway*. Callan was responsible for preparing the Pre Lab Videos as well as many of SmartFigures that appear throughout this manual.

Appreciation also goes to our colleagues who prepared in-depth reviews of prior editions and the current edition. Their critical comments and thoughtful input helped guide and strengthen our efforts. Special thanks to:

Glenn Blaylock, Laredo Community College Nahid Brown, Northeastern Illinois University Brett Burkett, Collin County Community College James Cunliffe, Nashville State Community College Dora Devery, Alvin Community College Carol Edson, Las Positas College Ethan Goddard, St. Petersburg College Roberta Hicks, Memorial University of Newfoundland Jane MacGibbon, University of North Florida Remo Masiello, Tidewater Community College Mark Peebles, St. Petersburg College Colleen Petosa, Tarrant County College Melissa Ranhofer, Furman University Jeffery Richardson, Columbus State Community College James Sachinelli, Atlantic Cape Community College Brian Scheidt, Mineral Area College Jana Svec, Moraine Valley Community College Krista Syrup, Moraine Valley Community College

Last, but certainly not least, we gratefully acknowledge the support and encouragement of our wives, Joanne Bannon and Nancy Lutgens. Preparation of *Applications and Investigations in Earth Science*, ninth edition, would have been far more difficult without their assistance, patience, and understanding.

Ed Tarbuck Fred Lutgens

Symbols used on topographic maps produced by the U.S. Geological Survey

Variations will be found on older maps.

Control data and monuments		Coastal features	
Vertical control		Foreshore flat	(Alle
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Third order or better, recoverable mark	×120.0	Rock bare or awash	*
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Spot elevation	×53	Exposed wreck	* 74
		Depth curve; sounding	3
Contours		Breakwater, pier, jetty, or wharf	
Topographic		Seawall	
Intermediate			
Index	6000	Rivers, lakes, and canals	
Supplementary	Arran District	Intermittent stream	
Depression		Intermittent river	
Cut; fill • Bathymetric		Disappearing stream Perennial stream	
Intermediate*		Perennial river	
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State or territorial			
County or equivalent	12. TARESTA	Dam carrying load	
Civil township or equivalent			
Incorporated city or equivalent			
Park, reservation, or monument		Perennial lake; Intermittent lake or pond	
		Dry lake	Dry lal
Surface features		Narrow wash	
Levee	_Levee _	Wide wash	→ Wide wash
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Intricate surface area	Strip mine,	Well or spring; spring or seep	- P
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Mine shaft		Landing strip Well (other than water); windmill	~ *
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Metric and English Units Compared

Units

1 kilometer (km)	<u>800</u>	1000 meters (m)
i kilometei (kili)	_	rood inclors (iii)
1 meter (m)	=	100 centimeters (cm)
1 centimeter (cm)	=	0.39 inch (in.)
1 mile (mi)	Ξ	5280 feet (ft)
1 foot (ft)	=	12 inches (in.)
1 inch (in.)	=	2.54 centimeters (cm)
1 square mile (mi ²)	=	640 acres (a)
1 kilogram (kg)	=	1000 grams (g)
1 pound (lb)	=	16 ounces (oz)
1 fathom	=	6 feet (ft)

Conversions

When you want to convert:	Multiply by:	To find:
Length		
inches	2.54	centimeters
centimeters	0.39	inches
feet	0.30	meters
meters	3.28	feet
yards	0.91	meters
meters	1.09	yards
miles	1.61	kilometers
kilometers	0.62	miles

Area

square inches	6.45	square centimeters
square centimeters	0.15	square inches
square feet	0.09	square meters
square meters	10.76	square feet
square miles	2.59	square kilometers
square kilometers	0.39	square miles

When you want	Multiply	To
to convert:	by:	find:

Volume

cubic inches	16.38	cubic centimeters
cubic centimeters	0.06	cubic inches
cubic feet	0.028	cubic meters
cubic meters	35.3	cubic feet
cubic miles	4.17	cubic kilometers
cubic kilometers	0.24	cubic miles
liters	1.06	quarts
liters	0.26	gallons
gallons	3.78	liters

Masses and Weights

ounces	20.33	grams
grams	0.035	ounces
pounds	0.45	kilograms
kilograms	2.205	pounds

Temperature

When you want to convert degrees Fahrenheit (°F) to degrees Celsius (°C), subtract 32 degrees and divide by 1.8.

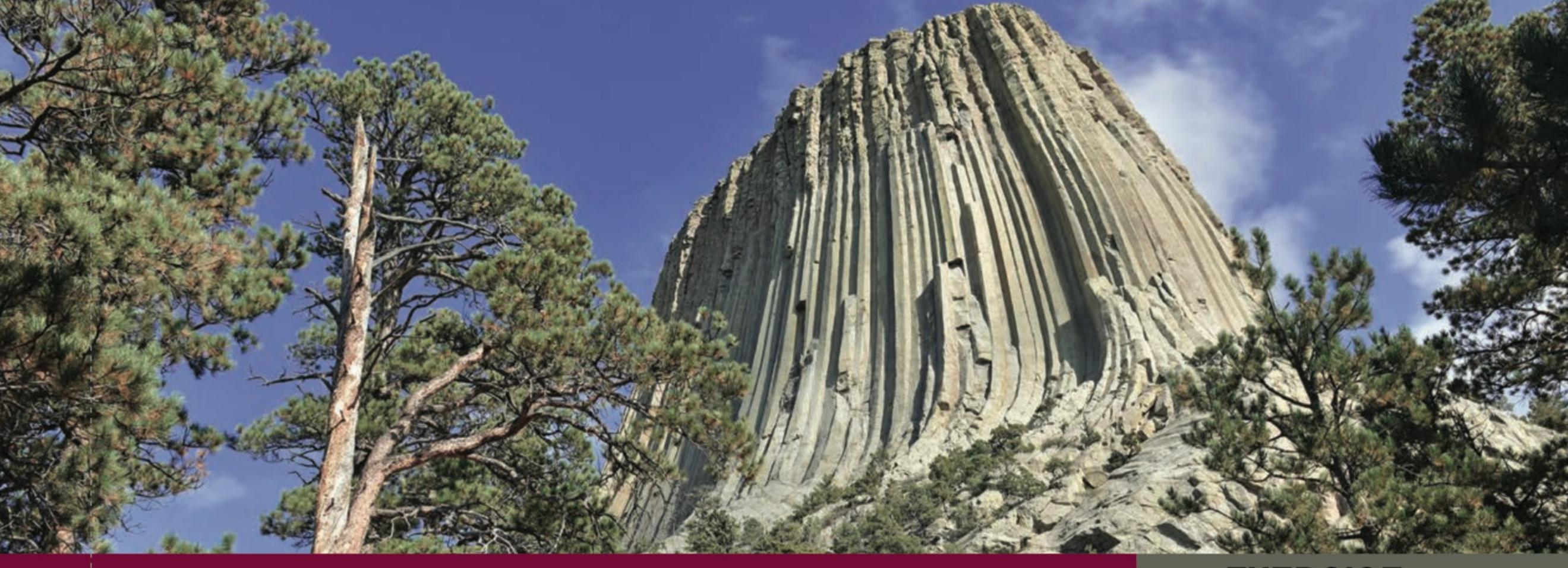
When you want to convert degrees Celsius (°C) to degrees Fahrenheit (°F), multiply by 1.8 and add 32 degrees.

When you want to convert degrees Celsius (°C) to kelvins (K), delete the degree symbol and add 273. When you want to convert kelvins (K) to degrees Celsius (°C), add the degree symbol and subtract 273.

Fahrenheit, Celsius and Kelvin Units Compared

Kelvin Units Compared					
°F	°C	K			
210	100	373			
200	90				
190					
180	80 80	353 353			
170 160					
150	70 	343 			
140	60	333 333			
130 <u> </u>					
120	50 	323 			
110	40				
100					
90	30	303 303			
80 <u> </u>					
60	20 	293 			
50	_ 10	_ 283			
40					
30	0	273 			
20					
10					
0_=		 253 			
-10_=					

^{*} Topographic Bathymetric maps only



The Study of Minerals

EXERCISE

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Each statement represents an important learning objective that relates to one or more sections of this lab. After you complete this exercise you should be able to:

- List the main characteristics that an Earth material must possess to be considered a mineral.
- Describe the physical properties commonly used to identify minerals.
- Identify minerals using a mineral identification key.
- Identify the most common rock-forming minerals and list the uses of several economic minerals.

MATERIALS

set of mineral specimens streak plate dilute hydrochloric acid contact goniometer

hand lens magnet glass plate

PRE-LAB VIDEO https://goo.gl/8Wkho7





Prepare for lab! Prior to attending your laboratory session, view the pre-lab video. Each video provides valuable background that will contribute to your understanding and success in lab.

INTRODUCTION

For a student learning about our planet, identifying minerals using relatively simple techniques is an important skill. Knowledge of common minerals and their properties is basic to an understanding of rocks. This exercise introduces the physical and chemical properties of minerals and how these properties are used to identify common minerals.

Minerals: Building Blocks of Rock

List the main characteristics that an Earth material must possess to be considered a mineral.

Earth's continental and oceanic crust is home to a wide variety of useful and essential rocks and minerals. Many of them have economic value. In addition, all the processes that geologists study are in some way dependent on the properties of these basic Earth materials. Events such as volcanic eruptions, mountain building, weathering and erosion, and earth-quakes involve rocks and minerals. Consequently, a basic knowledge of Earth materials is essential to understanding all geologic phenomena.

What Is a Mineral?

We begin our discussion of Earth materials with an overview of minerals—the building blocks of rocks. Geologists define **mineral** as any naturally occurring inorganic solid that possesses an orderly crystalline structure and a definite chemical composition that allows for some variation. Thus, Earth materials that are classified as minerals exhibit the following characteristics:

- Naturally occurring Minerals form by natural geologic processes. Synthetic
 materials—that is, those produced in a laboratory or by human intervention—are
 not considered minerals.
- Generally inorganic Inorganic crystalline solids, such as ordinary table salt (halite), that are found naturally in the ground are considered minerals. (Organic compounds, on the other hand, are generally not. Sugar, a crystalline solid that comes from sugarcane or sugar beets, is a common example of such an organic compound.)
- Solid substance Only solid crystalline substances are considered minerals. Ice (frozen water) fits this criterion and is considered a mineral, whereas liquid water and water vapor do not.
- Orderly crystalline structure Minerals are crystalline substances, which means their atoms (ions) are arranged in an orderly, repetitive manner. This orderly packing of atoms is reflected in regularly shaped objects called *crystals*. Some naturally occurring solids, such as volcanic glass (obsidian), lack a repetitive atomic structure and are not considered minerals.
- Definite chemical composition that allows for some variation Minerals are chemical compounds having compositions that can be expressed by a chemical formula. For example, the common mineral quartz has the formula SiO₂, which indicates that quartz consists of silicon (Si) and oxygen (O) atoms, in a ratio of one to two. This proportion of silicon to oxygen is true for any sample of pure quartz, regardless of its origin, size, or when it formed. However, the compositions of some minerals vary within specific, well-defined limits. This occurs because certain elements can substitute for others of similar size without changing the mineral's internal structure.

What Is a Rock?

Most minerals occur as components of rocks. Simply, a **rock** *is any solid mass of mineral, or mineral-like matter* (*such as volcanic glass*), *that occurs naturally as part of our planet*. Most rocks, like the sample of granite shown in **Figure 1.1**, occur as aggregates of several different minerals. The term *aggregate* implies that the minerals are joined in such a way that their individual properties are retained. Note that the different minerals that make up granite can be easily identified. However, some rocks are composed almost entirely of one mineral. A common example is the sedimentary rock *limestone*, which occurs as an impure mass of the mineral calcite.

Physical Properties of Minerals

Minerals have definite crystalline structures and chemical compositions that give them unique sets of physical and chemical properties shared by all specimens of that mineral, regardless of when or where they form. For example, if you compare two samples of the mineral quartz, they will be equally hard and equally dense, and they will break in a similar



■ SmartFigure 1.1 Most rocks are aggregates of minerals.

VIDEO

https://goo.gl/dLJ6f7



manner. However, the physical properties of individual samples may vary within specific limits due to ionic substitutions, inclusions of foreign elements (impurities), and defects in the crystalline structure.

Some mineral properties, called diagnostic properties, are particularly useful in identifying an unknown mineral. The mineral halite, for example, has a salty taste. Because so few minerals share this property, a salty taste is considered a diagnostic property of halite. Other properties of certain minerals vary among different specimens of the same mineral. These properties are referred to as ambiguous properties.

Next, we examine the most common physical properties used to identify minerals, which include luster, color, streak, crystal shape (or habit), hardness, cleavage, fracture, and specific gravity. We will then look at some special properties that are useful in the identification of a few specific minerals.

Minerals: Building Blocks of Rock

1.	List the five	characteristics	an Earth	material	must	have ir	order	to be	considered	a minera	ıl.
	a			b							

2. Use the geologic definition of a mineral to determine which of the items listed in Figure 1.2 are minerals and which are not. For each item listed, check either Yes or No and explain your choice.

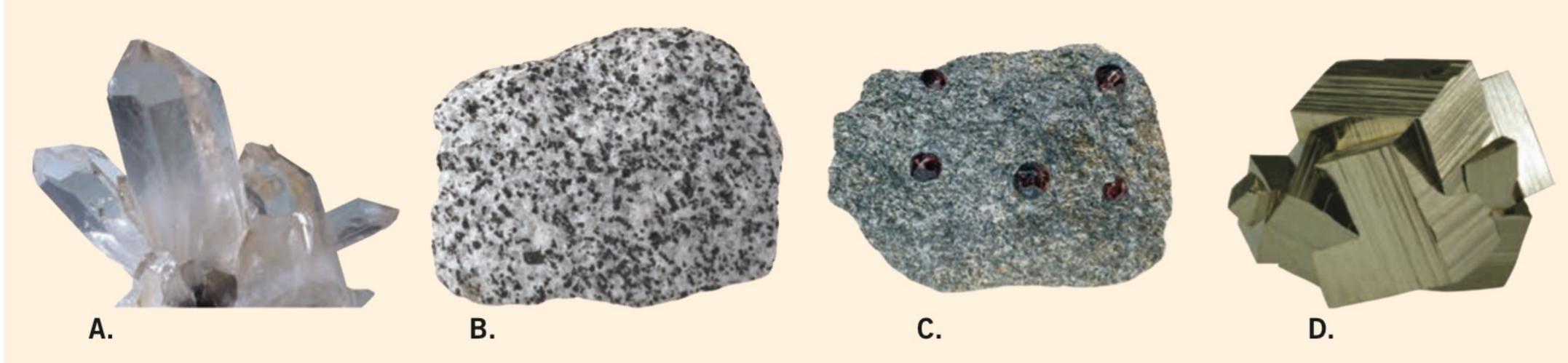
Mineral	Yes	No	Explanations
Rain water			
Quartz			
Coal			
Silver			
Wood			
Synthetic diamonds			
Halite			

Figure 1.2 Which of these materials are minerals?

Activity 1.1 continued

3. Figure 1.3 provides images of some rocks and minerals. Which of these appear to be rocks, and which are most likely minerals? (Identify the samples by letter.)

Rocks: _____ Minerals: ____



▲ Figure 1.3 Rock or mineral?

4. The five samples shown in Figure 1.4 are all specimens of the mineral fluorite. Is color a diagnostic or ambiguous property of fluorite? Explain.

SmartFigure 1.4 Color variations exhibited by the mineral fluorite. (Photo by Dennis Tasa)

VIDEO https://goo.gl/qbLhc7





1.2 Luster

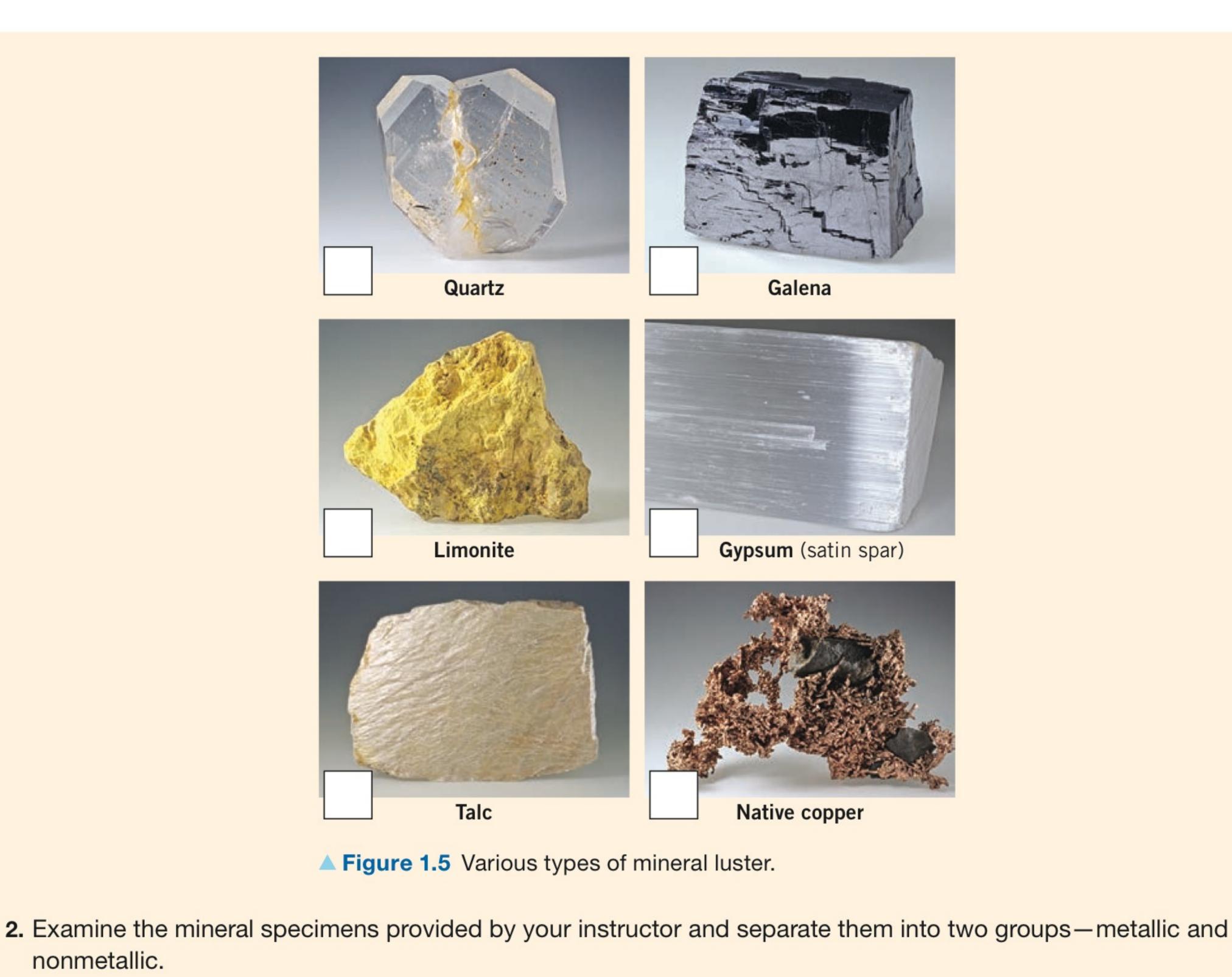
■ Describe the physical properties commonly used to identify minerals.

The appearance of light reflected from the surface of a mineral is known as **luster**. Minerals that have the appearance of metals, regardless of color, are said to have a **metallic luster**. Some metallic minerals, such as native copper and galena, develop a dull coating or tarnish when exposed to the atmosphere. Because they are not as shiny as samples with freshly broken surfaces, these samples exhibit a *submetallic luster*.

Most minerals have a **nonmetallic luster** and are described using various adjectives, such as *vitreous* (*glassy*), *dull* or *earthy* (a dull appearance like soil), or *pearly* (such as a pearl or the inside of a clamshell). Still others exhibit lusters that are *silky* (like silk or satin cloth) or *greasy* (as though coated in oil).

Luster

1. Examine the luster of each mineral in **Figure 1.5**. Place the letter A, B, C, D, or E in the space provided that corresponds to the luster exhibited. Letters may be used more than once. **A.** Metallic luster, **B.** Nonmetallic luster—glassy, **C.** Nonmetallic luster—dull, **D.** Nonmetallic luster—silky, **E.** Nonmetallic luster—greasy.



1.3 Color and Streak

nonmetallic.

■ Describe the physical properties commonly used to identify minerals.

Color is generally the most conspicuous mineral characteristic. However, because color is often variable, it usually is not a diagnostic property of most minerals. There are exceptions. For example, the mineral sulfur is usually bright yellow.

Metallic: _____

Nonmetallic:____

The color of a mineral in powdered form, called streak, is often useful in identification. A mineral's streak is obtained by rubbing it across a streak plate (a piece of unglazed porcelain) and observing the color of the mark it leaves. Although the color of a particular mineral may vary from sample to sample, the streak is usually consistent.

Streak can also help distinguish between minerals with metallic luster and those with nonmetallic luster. Minerals with a metallic luster generally have a dense, dark streak (Figure 1.6), whereas minerals with a nonmetallic luster typically have a light-colored streak.

Not all minerals produce a streak when rubbed across a streak plate. For example, the mineral quartz is harder than a streak plate and, therefore, produces no streak using this method.



▲ SmartFigure 1.6 Using streak to help identify a mineral.



VIDEO https://goo.gl/GzAZMk

Color and Streak

1. Based on the samples of quartz in Figure 1.7, explain why color is not a diagnostic property of this mineral.



Figure 1.7 Color variations exhibited by the mineral quartz.

2. Figure 1.8 shows two specimens of the mineral hematite and their corresponding streaks. For both samples, describe the color of the specimen and the streak.



Figure 1.8 Hematite, an ore of iron, is found in both nonmetallic and metallic forms.

Specimen A:
Specimen B:
Specimen B:

3. Select three of the mineral specimens provided by your instructor. Do they exhibit a streak? If so, is the streak the same color as the mineral specimen?

Specimen A:
Specimen B:
Specimen C:
Specimen C:

4. To some observers, the mineral shown in Figure 1.9 exhibits a metallic luster, while others describe its luster as nonmetallic. Based on the streak of this sample, how would you describe its luster?

Luster:



Figure 1.9 Using streak to assist in describing luster.

1.4 Crystal Shape, or Habit

■ Describe the physical properties commonly used to identify minerals.

Recall that all minerals are crystalline, and when they form in unrestricted environments, they develop crystals that exhibit geometric shapes. For example, well-developed quartz crystals are hexagonal, with pyramid-shaped ends, and garnet crystals are 12-sided (Figure 1.10). In addition, some crystals tend to grow and form characteristic shapes or patterns called crystal shape, or habit. Commonly used terms to





A. Quartz

B. Garnet

describe various crystal habits include bladed (flat, elongated strips), fibrous (hairlike), tabular (tablet shaped), granular (aggregates of small crystals), blocky (square), and banded (layered).

Although crystal shape, or habit, is a diagnostic property for some specimens, many of the mineral samples you will encounter consist of crystals that are too tiny to be seen with the unaided eye or are intergrown such that their shapes cannot be determined.

▲ Figure 1.10 Characteristic crystal forms of A. quartz and **B.** garnet.

Crystal Shape, or Habit

1. Select one of the following terms to describe the crystal shape, or habit, of each specimen shown in Figure 1.11: cubic crystals, hexagonal crystals, fibrous habit, banded habit, blocky habit, bladed habit, tabular habit.

Specimen A: _____

Specimen B: _____

Specimen C: _____

Specimen D: _____

- 2. Use a contact goniometer, illustrated in Figure 1.12, to measure the angle between adjacent faces on the quartz crystals on display in the lab.
 - a. Are the angles about the same for each quartz specimen, or do they vary from one sample to another?

b. Write a generalization that describes how the angle between crystal faces relates to the size and/or shape of the sample.



Specimen A

Specimen B

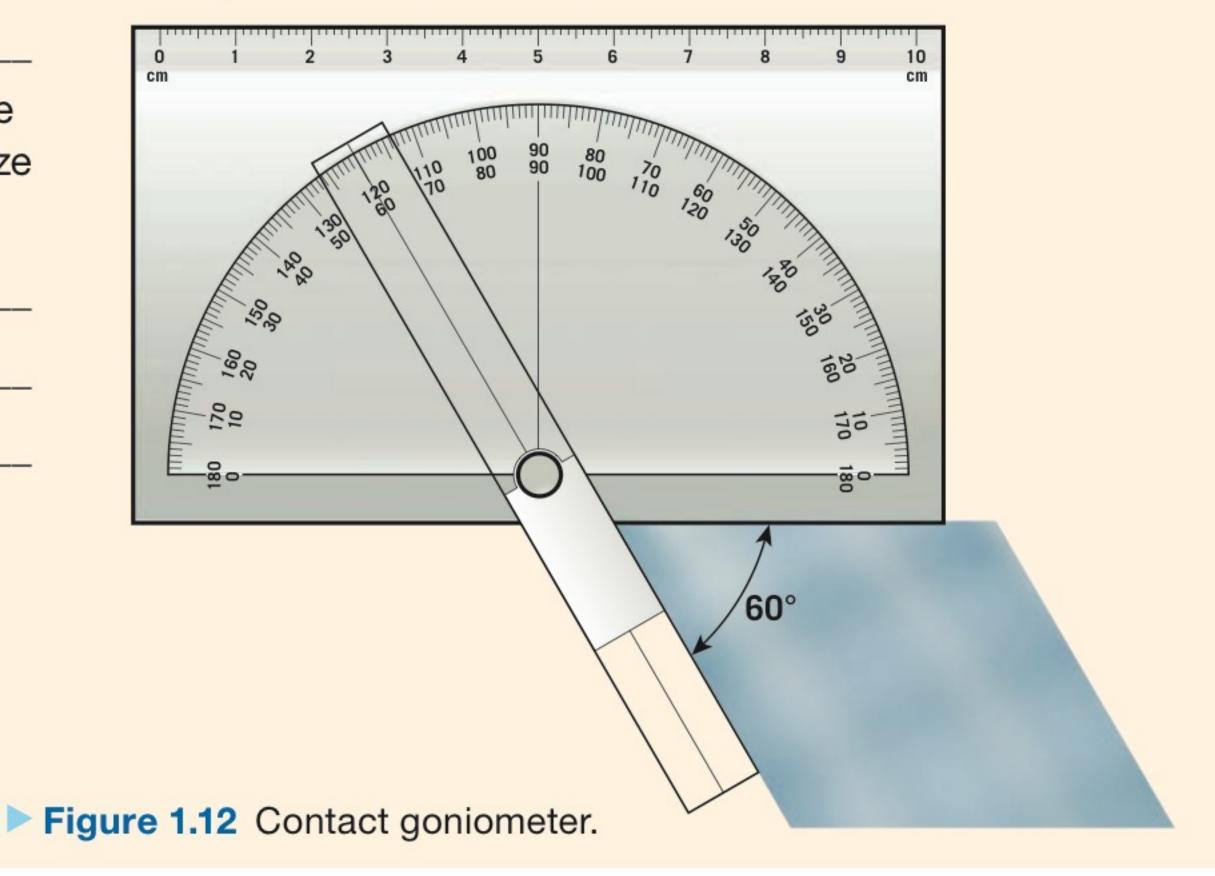




Specimen C

Specimen D

▲ Figure 1.11 Crystal shapes and habits.



Hardness

Describe the physical properties commonly used to identify minerals.

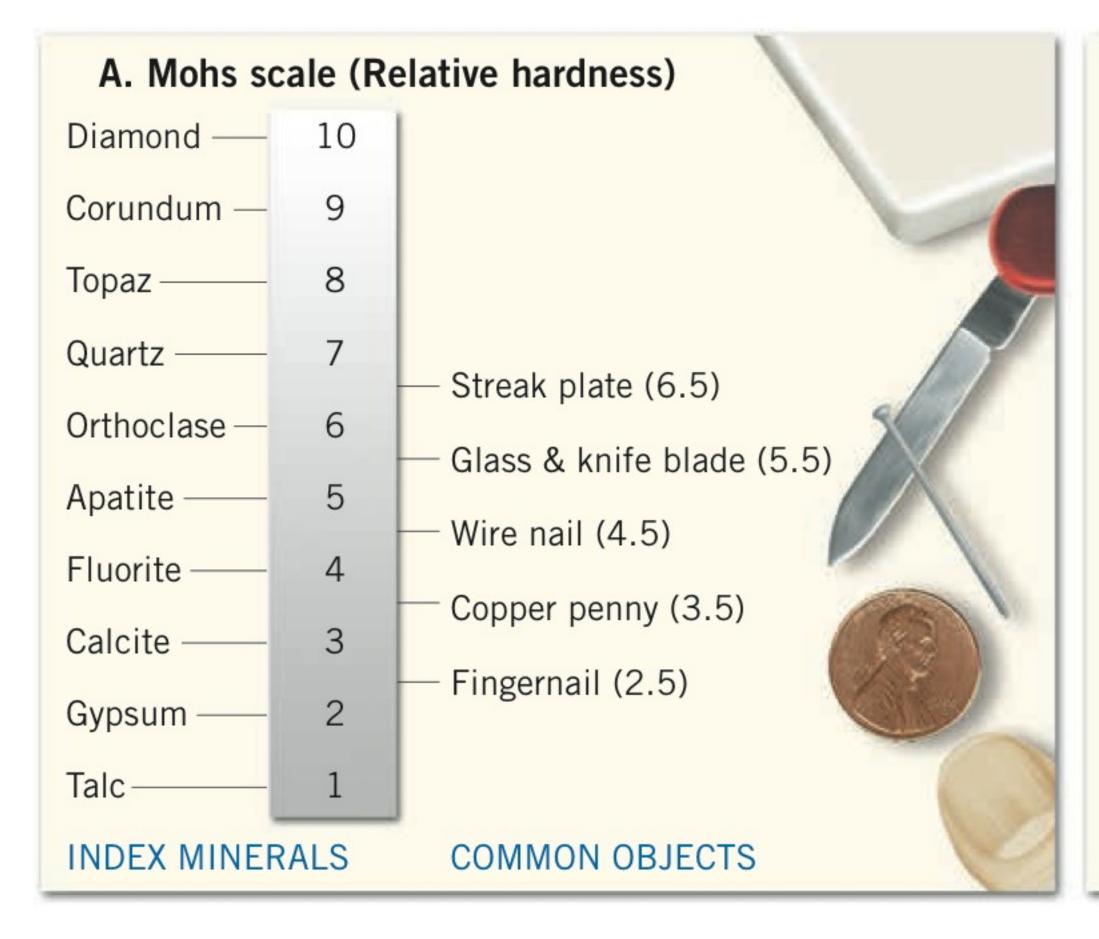
One of the most useful diagnostic properties is hardness, a measure of the resistance of a mineral to abrasion or scratching. This property is determined by rubbing a mineral of unknown hardness against one of known hardness or vice versa. A numerical value of hardness can be obtained by using the Mohs scale of hardness, which consists of 10 minerals arranged in order from 1 (softest) to 10 (hardest), as shown in Figure 1.13. It should be noted that the Mohs scale is a relative ranking; it does not imply that mineral number 2, gypsum, is twice as hard as mineral 1, talc.

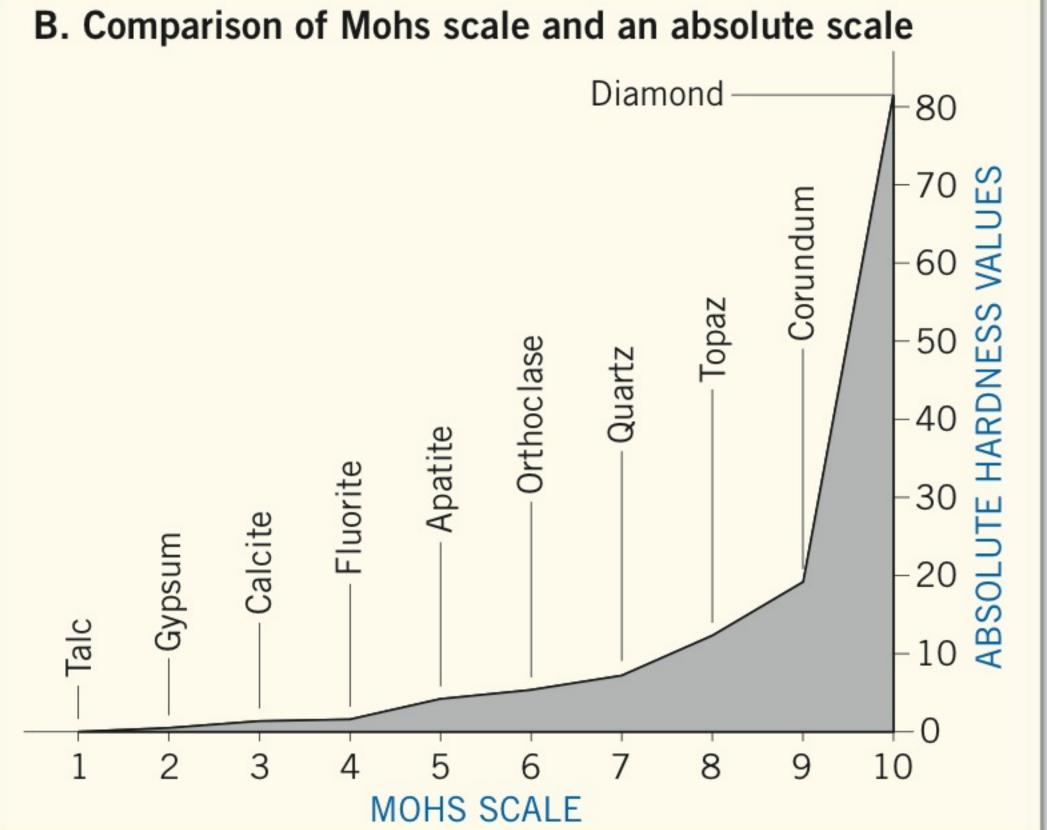
In the laboratory, common objects are often used to determine the hardness of a mineral. These objects include a human fingernail, which has a hardness of about 2.5, a copper penny (3.5), and a piece of glass (5.5). The mineral gypsum, which has a hardness of 2, can be easily scratched with a fingernail. On the other hand, the mineral calcite, which has a hardness of 3, will scratch a fingernail but will not scratch glass. Quartz, one of the hardest common minerals, will easily scratch glass. Diamonds, hardest of all, scratch anything, including other diamonds.

▼ SmartFigure 1.13 Hardness scales. A. Mohs scale of hardness, with the hardnesses of some common objects. **B.** Relationship between the Mohs relative hardness scale and an absolute hardness scale.

VIDEO https://goo.gl/n4U6HL







ACTIVITY 1.5

Hardness

Specimen C:

1. The minerals shown in Figure 1.14 are fluorite and topaz that have been tested for hardness using a wire nail. Use the Mohs scale in Figure 1.13 to identify which is fluorite and which is topaz.

MINERAL NAME

Specimen A: Specimen B:

2. Select three mineral specimens from the set provided by your instructor. Determine the hardness of each mineral, using Table 1.1 as a guide.



Specimen A: Specimen B:





Table 1	.1	Harc	ness	Guide
HADDI	MEG	9		

HARDNESS	DESCRIPTION
Less than 2.5	A mineral that can be scratched by your fingernail (hardness $=$ 2.5)
2.5 to 5.5	A mineral that cannot be scratched by your fingernail (hardness $=$ 2.5) and cannot scratch glass (hardness $=$ 5.5)
Greater than 5.5	A mineral that scratches glass (hardness $= 5.5$)

1.6 Cleavage and Fracture

■ Describe the physical properties commonly used to identify minerals.

In the crystalline structure of many minerals, some chemical bonds are weaker than others. When minerals are stressed, they tend to break (cleave) along these planes of weak bonding, a property called cleavage. When broken, minerals that exhibit cleavage have smooth, flat surfaces, called cleavage planes, or cleavage surfaces.

Cleavage is described by first identifying the number of directions of cleavage, which is the number of different sets of cleavage planes that form on the surfaces of a mineral

when it cleaves. Each cleavage surface of a mineral that has a different orientation is counted as a different direction of cleavage. However, when cleavage planes are parallel, they are counted only *once*, as one direction of cleavage.

Minerals may have one, two, three, four, or more directions of cleavage (Figure 1.15). For minerals with two or more directions of cleavage, you may also determine the angle(s) at which the directions of cleavage meet. The most common angles of cleavage are 60, 75, 90, and 120 degrees.

When minerals such as muscovite, calcite, halite, and fluorite are broken, they display cleavage surfaces that are easily detected. However, other minerals exhibit cleavage planes that consist of multiple offset surfaces that are not as obvious.

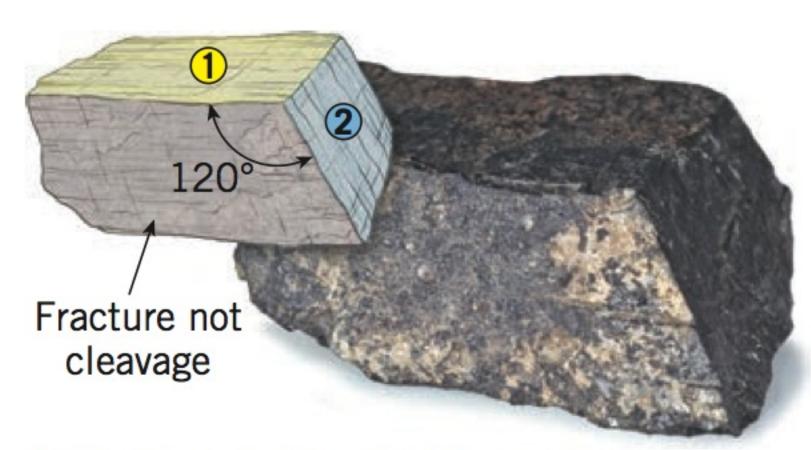
SmartFigure 1.15 Common cleavage directions of minerals. A. Basal cleavage produces flat sheets. **B.** This type of prismatic cleavage produces an elongated form with a rectangular cross section. C. This type of prismatic cleavage produces an elongated form with a parallelogram cross section. **D.** Cubic cleavage produces cubes or parts of cubes. E. Rhombic cleavage produces rhombohedrons. F. Octahedral cleavage produces octahedrons.

VIDEO https://goo.gl/4w3QPn

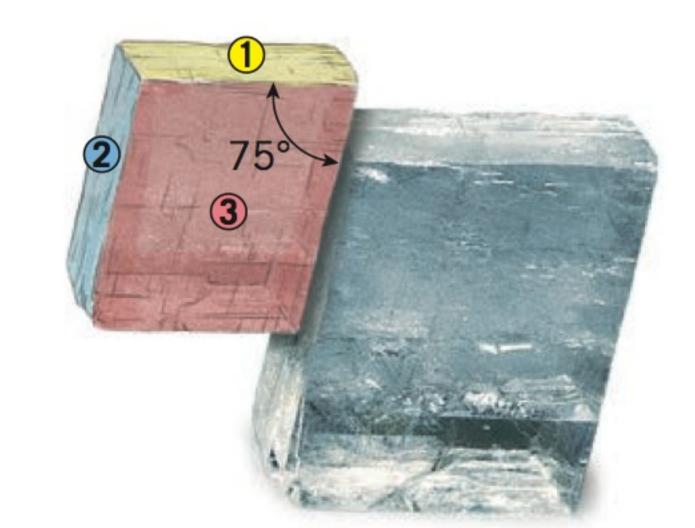




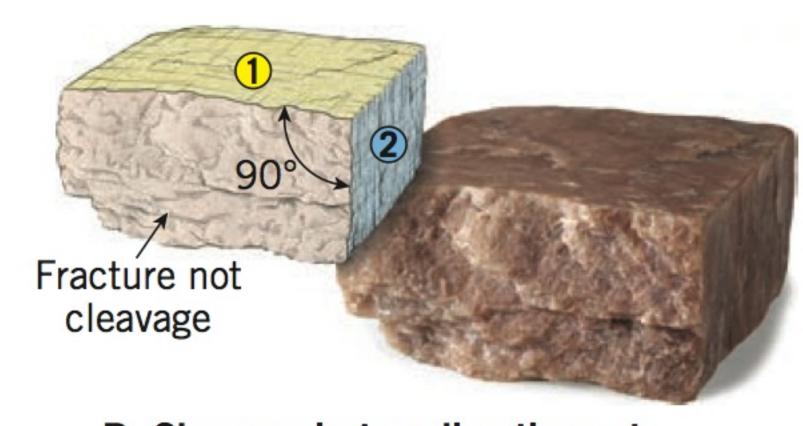
A. Cleavage in one direction. Example: Muscovite



C. Cleavage in two directions not at 90° angles. Example: Hornblende



E. Cleavage in three directions not at 90° angles. Example: Calcite



B. Cleavage in two directions at 90° angles. Example: Feldspar



D. Cleavage in three directions at 90° angles. Example: Halite

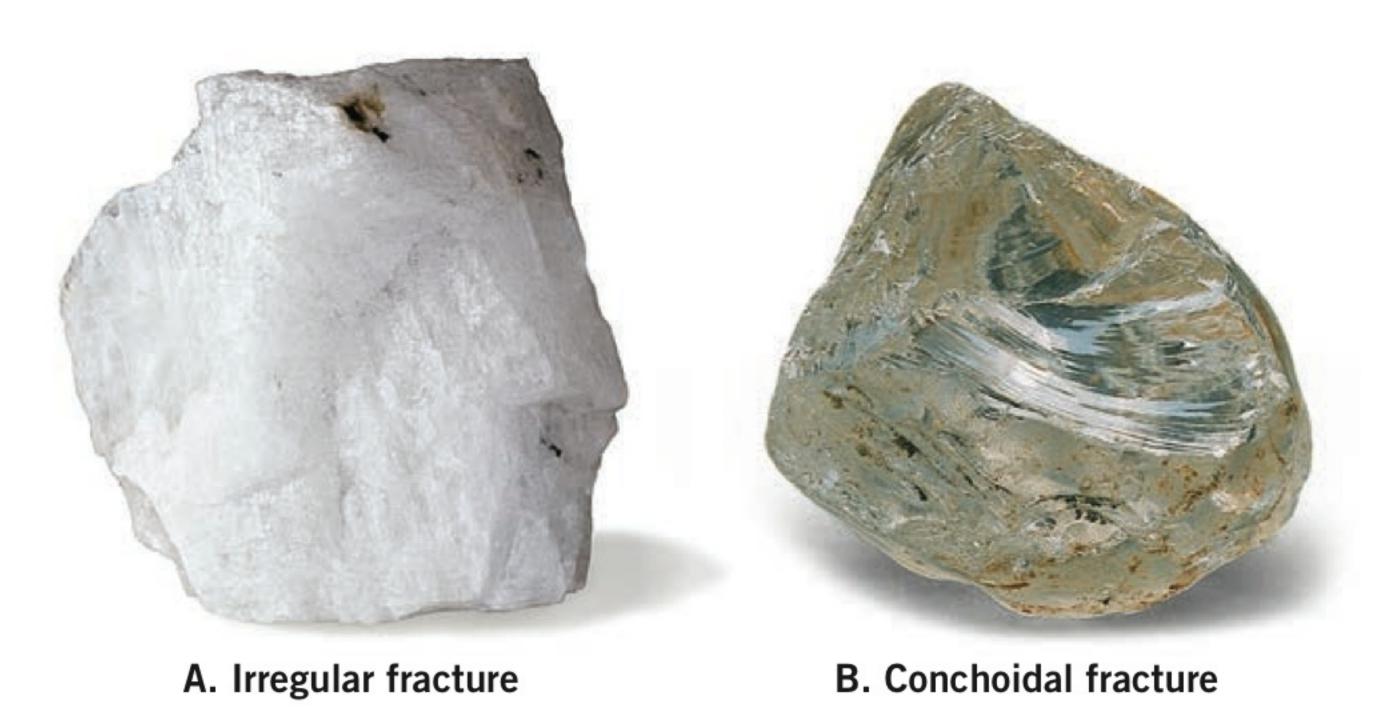


F. Cleavage in four directions. Example: Fluorite

A reliable way to determine whether a specimen exhibits cleavage is to rotate it in bright light and look for flat surfaces that reflect light.

Do not confuse cleavage with crystal shape. When a mineral exhibits cleavage, it will break into pieces that all have the same geometry. By contrast, the smooth-sided quartz crystals shown in Figure 1.10A illustrate crystal shape rather than cleavage. If broken, quartz crystals fracture into shapes that do not resemble one another or the original crystals.

Minerals that do not exhibit cleavage when broken are said to fracture (Figure 1.16). Fractures are described using terms such as irregular, splintery, and conchoidal (smooth, curved surfaces resembling broken glass). Some minerals may cleave in one or two directions but fracture in another.



▲ Figure 1.16 Minerals that do not exhibit cleavage are said to fracture.

	▲ SmartFigure 1.17 Identifying cleavage of muscovite.	ANIMATION https://goo.gl/3ocvZJ
efer to Figure 1.18 , which shows a mineral that h llowing: . How many <i>cleavage surfaces</i> are present on th		e surfaces, to complete the
. How many <i>directions of cleavage</i> are present o	n the specimen?	

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c. Do the cleavage directions meet at 90-degree angles or angles other than 90 degrees?



Figure 1.18 Identifying cleavage of calcite.

3. Select one mineral specimen supplied by your instructor that exhibits more than one direction of cleavage. How many directions of cleavage does it have? What are the angles of its cleavage?

Number of directions of cleavage:	
Cleavage angles:	degrees

177 Specific Gravity

■ Describe the physical properties commonly used to identify minerals.

You are probably familiar with the term *density*, which is defined as mass per unit volume and is expressed in grams per cubic centimeter (g/cm³). Mineralogists use a related measure called *specific gravity* to describe the density of minerals. **Specific gravity (SG)** is a number representing the ratio of a mineral's weight to the weight of an equal volume of water. Water has a specific gravity of 1.

Most common rock-forming minerals have a specific gravity between 2 and 3. For example, quartz has a specific gravity of 2.7. By contrast, some metallic minerals such as pyrite, native copper, and magnetite are more than twice as dense as quartz and thus are considered to have high specific gravity. Galena, an ore of lead, is even denser, with a specific gravity of about 7.5.

With a little practice, you can estimate the specific gravity of a mineral by hefting it in your hand. Ask yourself whether the mineral feels about as "heavy" as similar-sized rocks you have handled. If the answer is "yes," the specific gravity of the sample is likely between 2.5 and 3. (Note: Exercise 24, "The Metric System, Measurements, and Scientific Inquiry," contains a simple experiment involving determining the specific gravity of a solid.)

Specific Gravity

- 1. Heft each specimen supplied by your instructor. Using this technique, identify the minerals from this group that exhibit high specific gravity.
- 2. Of those with a high specific gravity, did most of them have a metallic luster or a nonmetallic luster?

18 Other Properties of Minerals

■ Describe the physical properties commonly used to identify minerals.

Magnetism is characteristic of minerals, such as magnetite, that have a high iron content and are attracted by a magnet. One variety of magnetite, called lodestone, is magnetic and will pick up small objects such as pins and paper clips (Figure 1.19).

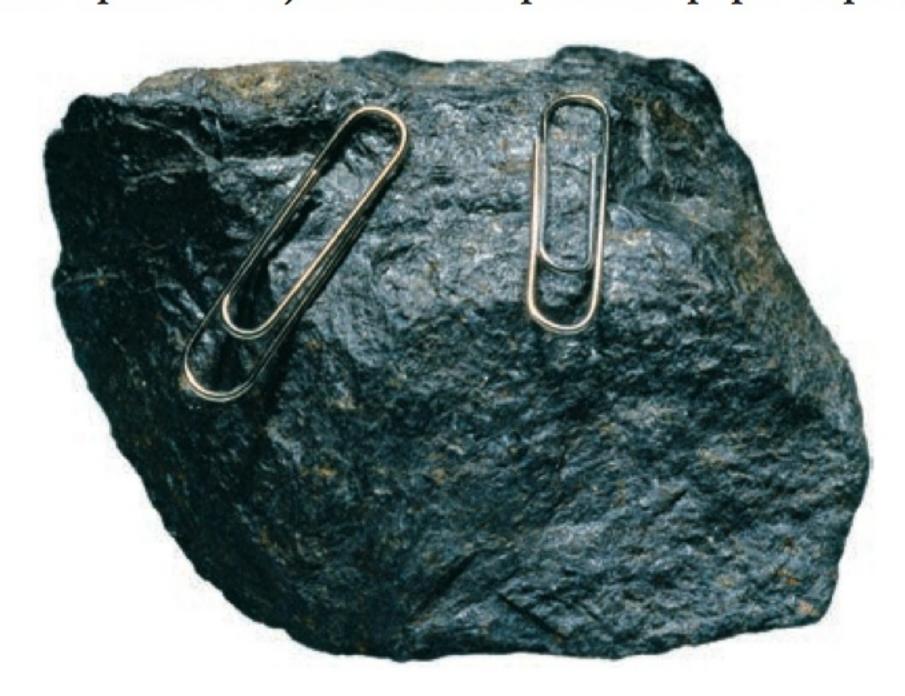


Figure 1.19 Lodestone, a variety of magnetite, is a weak magnet and will attract iron objects.

CAUTION Do not taste any minerals or any other materials unless you know it is absolutely

safe to do so.

The mineral halite has a "salty" taste and is used for table salt.

A few minerals have distinctive odors. For example, minerals that are compounds of sulfur smell like rotten eggs when rubbed vigorously on a streak plate.

The mineral talc often feels "soapy," and the mineral graphite has a "greasy" feel.

STRIATIONS Striations are closely spaced, fine lines on the crystal faces of some minerals. Certain plagioclase feldspar minerals exhibit striations on one cleavage surface (Figure 1.20).

CAUTION Hydrochloric acid can discolor, decompose, and disintegrate mineral and rock samples. Use the acid only after you have received specific instructions on its use from your instructor. Never taste minerals that have had acid placed on them.



▲ SmartFigure 1.21 Calcite reacting to dilute hydrochloric acid. (Photo by Chip Clark/Fundamental Photographs)

VIDEO https://goo.gl/UNQV3A





Figure 1.20 These parallel lines, called striations, are a distinguishing characteristic of the plagioclase feldspars. Some other minerals also exhibit this characteristic.

REACTION TO DILUTE HYDROCHLORIC ACID A very small drop of dilute hydrochloric acid, when placed on the surface of certain minerals, will cause them to "fizz" (effervesce) as carbon dioxide is released (Figure 1.21). The acid test is used to identify the carbonate minerals, especially the mineral calcite (CaCO₃), the most common carbonate mineral.

TENACITY The term tenacity describes a mineral's resistance to breaking or deforming. Some minerals, such as fluorite and halite, tend to be brittle and shatter into small pieces when struck. Other minerals, such as native copper, are *malleable*, or easily hammered into different shapes. Minerals, including gypsum and talc, that can be cut into thin shavings are described as sectile. Still others, notably the micas, are elastic and will bend and snap back to their original shape after the stress is released (Figure 1.22).

THE ABILITY TO TRANSMIT LIGHT Minerals are able to transmit light to different degrees. A mineral is described as opaque when no light is transmitted; translucent when light, but not an image, is transmitted; and transparent when both light and an image are visible through the sample (see Figure 1.22).



▲ Figure 1.22 Sheets of elastic minerals, like muscovite, can be bent but will snap back when the stress is released. Sheets of muscovite are transparent because they transmit both light and images. (Photo by Dennis Tasa)

e set supplied by
_

Identification of Minerals

Identify minerals using a mineral identification key.

Now that you are acquainted with the physical properties of minerals, you are ready to identify the minerals supplied by your instructor. To complete this activity, you need the mineral data sheet in **Figure 1.23** and the mineral identification key in **Figure 1.24**.

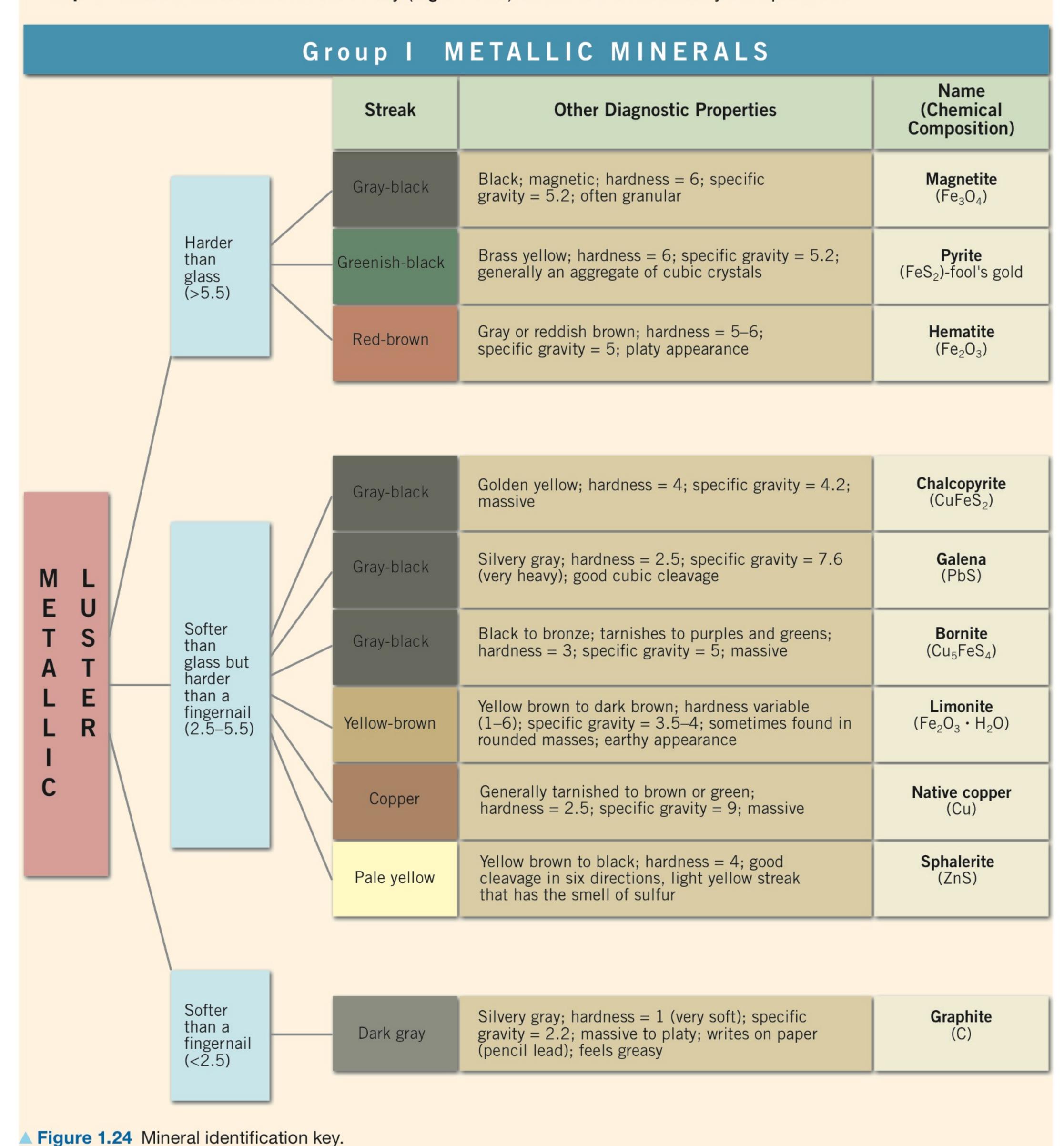
The mineral identification key divides minerals into three primary categories: (1) those with metallic luster, (2) those with nonmetallic luster that are dark colored, (3) and those with nonmetallic luster that are light colored. Hardness is used as a secondary identifying factor. As you complete the following activity, remember that the objective is to learn the procedure for identifying minerals through observation and data collection rather than simply to name the minerals.

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	Economic Use or Rock-forming		this part	าอเปนเดว ดา	. sdno.i	วมเงเเมษ์เร	uoiioes a	Keter to tn		
	Name		+x00 0 9 4 0					44 04 4040		
SHEET #2	Other Properties									
MINERAL DATA SH	Cleavage Fracture or (number of directions and angles)									
	Streak									
	Color									
	Hardness									
	Luster									
	Sample number									

Identification of Minerals

- 1. Identify the specimens supplied by your instructor, using the following steps:
- Step 1: Leaving enough space for each mineral, number a piece of paper up to the number of samples you've been assigned and place your specimens on the paper.
- Step 2: Select a specimen and determine its physical properties by using the tools provided (glass plate, streak plate, magnet, etc.).
- **Step 3:** List the properties of that specimen on the mineral data sheet (Figure 1.23).
- **Step 4:** Use the mineral identification key (Figure 1.24) as a resource to identify the specimen.



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▲ Figure 1.24 Mineral identification key. (continued)

Repeat Steps 2 through 4 until you have identified all samples.

2. Read the following section, which examines some common rock-forming minerals and selected economic minerals. This will provide you with the information you need to complete the last column of the mineral data sheet (Figure 1.23).

1.10 Mineral Groups

■ Identify the most common rock-forming minerals and list the uses of several economic minerals.

More than 4000 minerals have been named, and several new ones are identified each year. Fortunately for students who are beginning to study minerals, no more than a few dozen are abundant! Collectively, these few make up most of the rocks of Earth's crust and, as such, are referred to as the rock-forming minerals.

Although less abundant, many other minerals are used extensively in the manufacture of products; they are called economic minerals. However, rock-forming minerals and economic minerals are not mutually exclusive groups. When found in large deposits, some rock-forming minerals are economically significant. For example, the mineral calcite has many uses, including the production of concrete.

Important Rock-Forming Minerals

FELDSPAR GROUP Feldspar is the most abundant mineral group and is found in many igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic rocks (Figure 1.25). One group of feldspar minerals contains potassium ions in its crystalline structure and is referred to as potassium feldspar. The other group, called plagioclase feldspar, contains calcium and/ or sodium ions. All feldspar minerals have two directions of cleavage that meet at 90-degree angles and are relatively hard (6 on the Mohs scale). The only reliable way to physically distinguish the feldspars is to look for striations that are present on some cleavage surfaces of plagioclase feldspar (Figure 1.25D) but do not appear in potassium feldspar.

QUARTZ Quartz is a major constituent of many igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic rocks. Quartz is found in a wide variety of colors (caused by impurities), is

Potassium Feldspar



A. Potassium feldspar crystal (orthoclase)



B. Potassium feldspar showing cleavage (orthoclase)

Plagioclase Feldspar







D. Plagioclase feldspar showing striations (labradorite)

▲ Figure 1.25 Feldspar group. A. Characteristic crystal form of potassium feldspar. B. Like this sample, most pink feldspar belongs to the potassium feldspar subgroup. C. Most sodium-rich plagioclase feldspar is light colored and has a porcelain luster. D. Calcium-rich plagioclase feldspar tends to be gray, blue-gray, or black in color. Labradorite, the variety shown here, exhibits striations.

Figure 1.26 Quartz is one of the most common minerals and has many varieties. A. Smoky quartz is commonly found in coarse-grained igneous rocks.

B. Rose quartz owes its color to small amounts of titanium.

C. Milky quartz often occurs in veins that occasionally contain gold. D. Jasper is a variety of quartz composed of microscopically small crystals.



quite hard (7 on the Mohs scale), and often exhibits conchoidal fracture when broken (**Figure 1.26**). Pure quartz is clear, and if allowed to grow without interference, it will develop hexagonal crystals with pyramid-shaped ends (see Figure 1.10A).

MICA *Muscovite* and *biotite* are the two most abundant members of the mica family. Both have excellent cleavage in one direction and are relatively soft (2.5 to 3 on the Mohs scale) (Figure 1.27).

CLAY MINERALS Most clay minerals originate as products of chemical weathering and make up much of the surface material we call soil. Clay minerals also account for nearly half of the volume of sedimentary rocks (**Figure 1.28**).

Figure 1.27 Two common micas: A. muscovite and B. biotite.

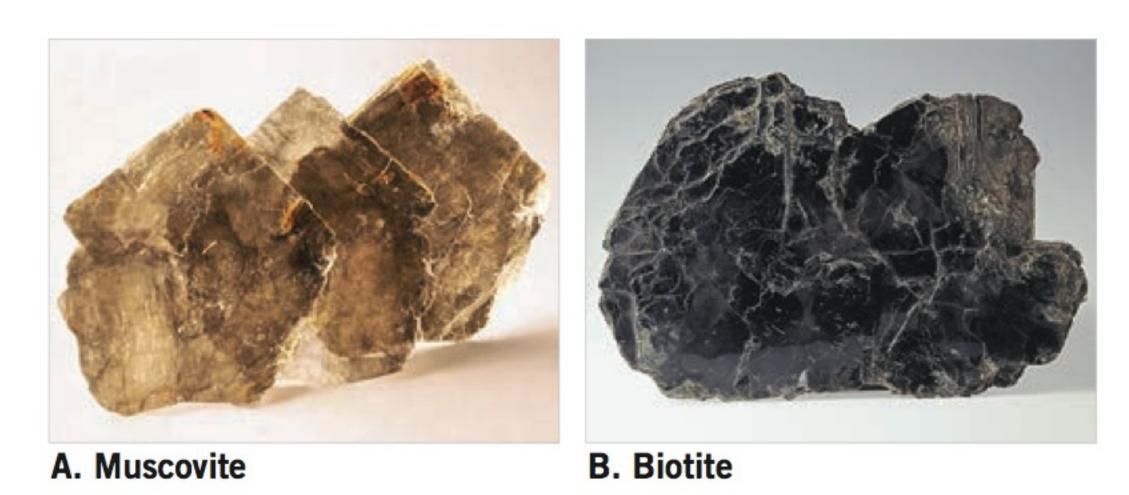


Figure 1.28 Kaolinite, a common clay mineral. (Photo by Dennis Tasa)



Kaolinite

OLIVINE Olivine is an important group of minerals that are major constituents of dark-colored igneous rocks and make up much of Earth's upper mantle. Olivine is black to olive green in color, has a glassy luster, and exhibits conchoidal fracture (Figure 1.29).

PYROXENE GROUP The pyroxenes are a group of silicate minerals that are important components of dark-colored igneous rocks. The most common member, augite, is a black or greenish, opaque mineral with two directions of cleavage that meet at nearly 90-degree angles (Figure 1.30A).

AMPHIBOLE GROUP Hornblende is the most common member of the amphibole group and is usually dark green to black in color (Figure 1.30B). Except for its cleavage angles, which are about 60 degrees and 120 degrees, it is very similar in appearance to augite. Found in igneous rocks, hornblende makes up the dark portion of otherwise light-colored rocks.

CALCITE Calcite, a very abundant mineral, is the primary constituent in the sedimentary rock limestone and the metamorphic rock marble. A relatively soft mineral (3 on the Mohs scale), calcite has three directions of cleavage that meet at 75-degree angles (see Figure 1.18).

Economic Minerals

Many of the minerals selected for this exercise are metallic minerals that are mined to support our modern society. In addition, nonmetallic minerals such as fluorite, halite, and gypsum have economic value. Table 1.2 provides a list of some economic minerals and their industrial and commercial uses.



Table 1.2 Economic Minerals					
MINERAL	INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL USES				
Calcite	Cement; soil conditioning				
Chalcopyrite	Major ore of copper				
Corundum	Gemstones; sandpaper				
Diamond	Gemstones; drill bits				
Fluorite	Used in steel manufacturing, toothpaste				
Galena	Major ore of lead				
Graphite	Pencil lead; lubricant				
Gypsum	Wallboard; plaster				
Halite	Table salt; road salt				
Hematite	Ore of iron; pigment				
Kaolinite	Ceramics; porcelain				
Magnetite	Ore of iron				
Muscovite	Insulator in electrical applications				
Quartz	Primary ingredient in glass				
Sphalerite	Major ore of zinc				
Sulfur	Sulfa drugs; sulfuric acid				
Sylvite	Potassium fertilizers				
Talc	Paint; cosmetics				





В.

▲ Figure 1.29 Olivine. A. Solitary olivine crystal. B. Numerous olivine crystals in the igneous rock dunite. (Photos by Dennis Tasa)



A. Augite



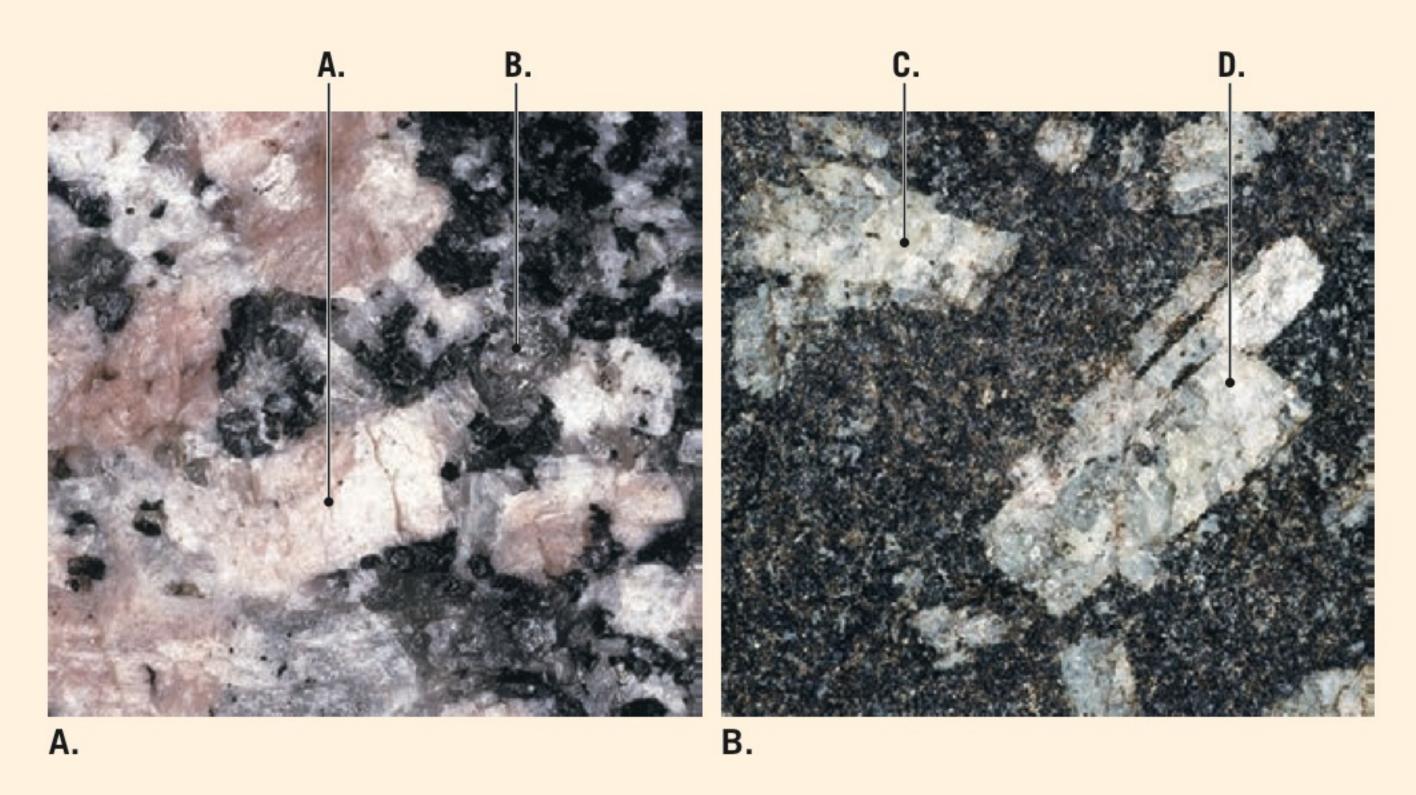
B. Hornblende

▲ Figure 1.30 These darkcolored silicate minerals are common constituents of igneous rocks: A. augite and **B.** hornblende. (Photos by Dennis Tasa)

Mineral Groups

1. When feldspar minerals are found in igneous rocks, they tend to occur as elongated, rectangular crystals. By contrast, quartz (most commonly the smoky and milky varieties) usually occurs as irregular or rounded grains that have a glassy appearance. Which of the crystals (A, B, C, or D) in the igneous rocks shown in Figure 1.31 are feldspar crystals, and which are quartz?

Feldspar: _____ Quartz: _____



▲ Figure 1.31 Identifying crystals of feldspar and quartz in coarse-grained igneous rocks.

2. Complete the last column in the mineral data sheet (see Figure 1.23) by indicating "rock forming" or by listing the economic use of the samples used in this exercise (see Table 1.2). Which, if any, of the minerals you identified are both rock forming and economic?

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PART 1 GEOLOGY

The Study of Minerals

Nar	ne
Dat	e l
1.	Name the physical property (hardness, color, streak, etc.) described by each of the following statements. DESCRIPTION PHYSICAL PROPERTY Breaks along smooth planes: Scratches glass: Shines like a metal: Scratching produces a red powder: Looks like broken glass:
2.	What term is used to describe the shape of a mineral that has three directions of cleavage that intersect at 90–degree angles?
3.	Describe the cleavage of the minerals listed below. Include the number of directions and degrees of cleavage angles (if appropriate). MINERAL CLEAVAGE Muscovite: Calcite: Halite: Feldspar:
4.	What physical feature most distinguishes biotite mica from muscovite mica?
5.	Name a mineral that exhibits the physical properties listed below. (Use the photos in this exercise, if needed.) PROPERTY MINERAL One direction of cleavage: Striations: Multiple colors: Cubic cleavage: Nonmetallic, vitreous luster:
	Fracture:

Course/Section ______
Due Date _____



▲ Figure 1.32 Comparing crystal shape and cleavage.

- 7. Refer to the photo in Figure 1.33 to complete the following.
 - a. Describe the crystal form (habit) of this specimen.
 - **b.** What term is applied to the lines on this sample?
 - **c.** Based on what you can determine from this photo, use the mineral identification key (see Figure 1.24) to identify this mineral.



▲ Figure 1.33 Visually identifying mineral properties. (Photo by Dennis Tasa)

Metallic luster: _____

6. Figure 1.32 illustrates the common crystal form of

the mineral fluorite and the characteristic shape of a

Crystal form of fluorite: _____

Cleavage specimen of fluorite: _____

cleaved sample of fluorite. Identify each specimen

(A or B) next to its appropriate description below.