**Figure 4.27**

Classification of mass movement processes.

(From M. A. Carson and M. Kirkby, *Hillslope Form and Process*, copyright 1972 Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.)

TABLE 4.5 Factors that Influence Stress and Resistance in Slope Materials

Factors that Increase Shear Stress

- Removal of lateral support
- Erosion (rivers, ice, waves)
- Human activity (e.g., quarries, road cuts)
- Addition of mass
 - Natural (e.g., rain, talus)
 - Human (e.g., fills, ore stockpiles, buildings)
- Earthquakes
- Regional tilting
- Removal of underlying support
 - Natural (e.g., undercutting, solution, weathering)
 - Human activity (mining)
- Lateral pressure
 - Natural (swelling, expansion by freezing, water addition)

Factors that Decrease Shear Strength

- Weathering and other physicochemical reactions
- Disintegration (lowers cohesion)
- Hydration (lowers cohesion)
- Base exchange
- Solution
- Drying
- Pore water
- Buoyancy
- Capillary tension
- Structural changes
- Remolding
- Fracturing

After Varnes (1958).

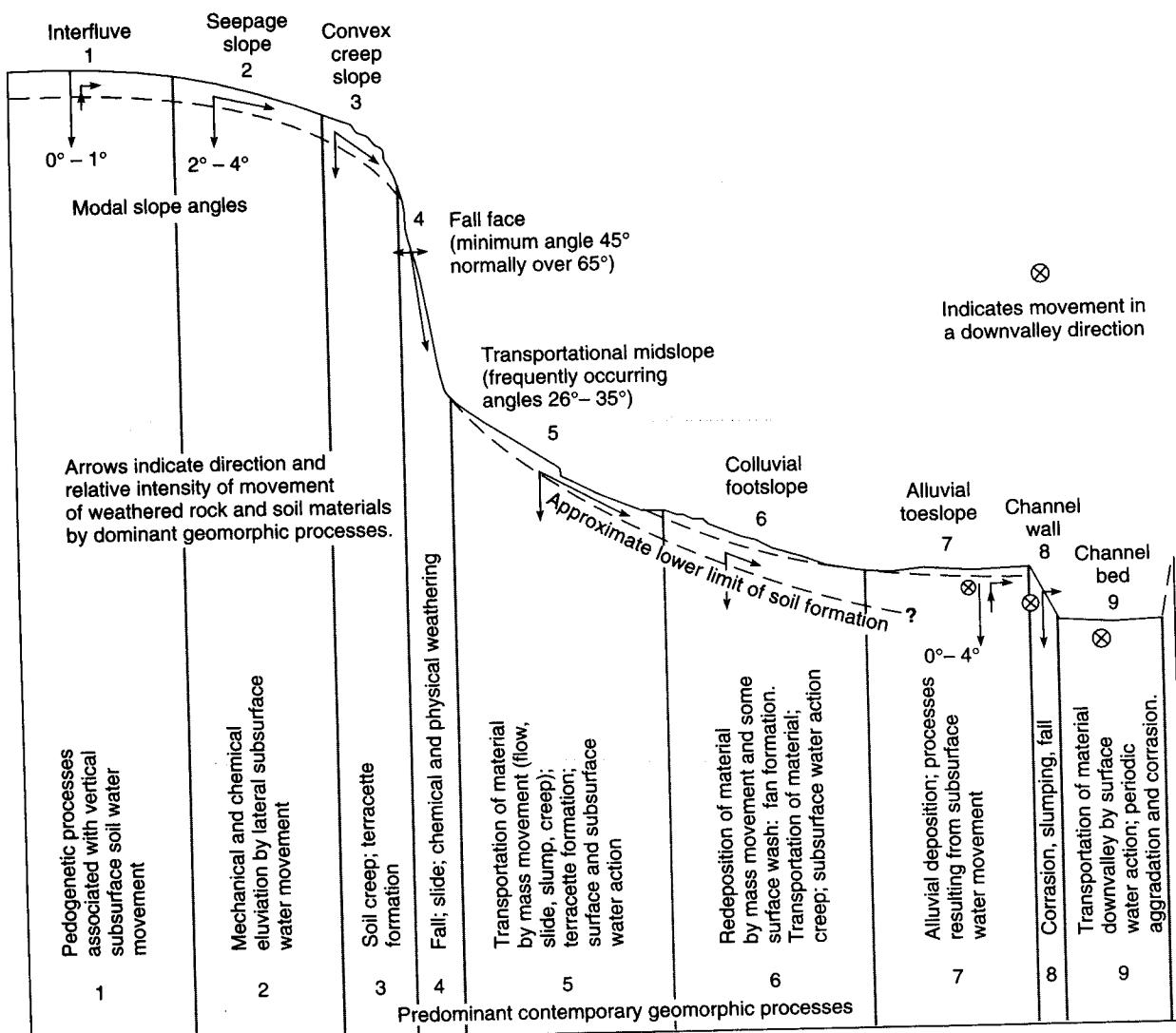
In most analyses the vertical height of the water table above the slide plane is expressed as a fraction of the soil thickness above the plane (m), where $m = 1.0$ if the water table is at the surface, and $m = 0$ if it is at or below the sliding plane. Thus, the pore pressure can be expressed as

$$\mu = \gamma_w m h \cos^2 \theta$$

and

$$F = \frac{c + (\gamma - m\gamma_w) h \cos^2 \theta \tan \phi}{\gamma h \sin \theta \cos \theta}$$

The following hypothetical example will show how to determine whether the slope is stable or close to failure. If laboratory tests tell us that $\phi = 10^\circ$, $c = 45 \text{ lb}/\text{ft}^2$,

**Figure 4.53**

Diagrammatic representation of the hypothetical nine-unit landsurface model.

(Redrawn from J. B. Dalrymple, et al., "A Hypothetical Nine-Unit Landsurface Model," *Zeitschrift für Geomorphologie* 12:60–76, 1968. Used by permission of Gebrüder Bornträger Verlagsbuchhandlung, Stuttgart.)

mountainous terrain where erosion is rapid, and are normally characterized by thin, weakly developed rocky soils. The rate of physical weathering tends to be at a maximum when the thickness of the residuum (the soil and colluvium) is minimal (fig. 4.54). Chemical weathering, which proceeds most efficiently under a significant cover of residuum, will be slowed, however, when the residuum becomes so thick that it interrupts the movement of water to the bedrock weathering front (an example of negative feedback). Numerous examples of weathering-limited slopes can be seen on slick-rock slopes developed in sandstones of the Colorado Plateau (Oberlander 1977; Howard and Kochel 1988). In contrast, **transport-limited slopes** are formed where the rate of weathering is more rapid than erosion. Slopes

produced under this regime normally develop on any unconsolidated parent material regardless of environment, but they are typically dominant in humid-temperate zones where vegetation cover is continuous. These profiles are less affected by parent rock and more dependent on the type and rate of slope processes.

Selby (1982) has made a cogent argument that weathering-limited slopes are directly dependent on the relative resistance of the underlying parent rocks. As evidence, he has demonstrated a high correlation between rock mass strength (see table 4.4) and the angle developed on various slope segments (fig. 4.55). A line drawn around the data points shown in figure 4.55 creates what Selby calls the *strength equilibrium envelope*, and the slopes represented by points within that envelope are

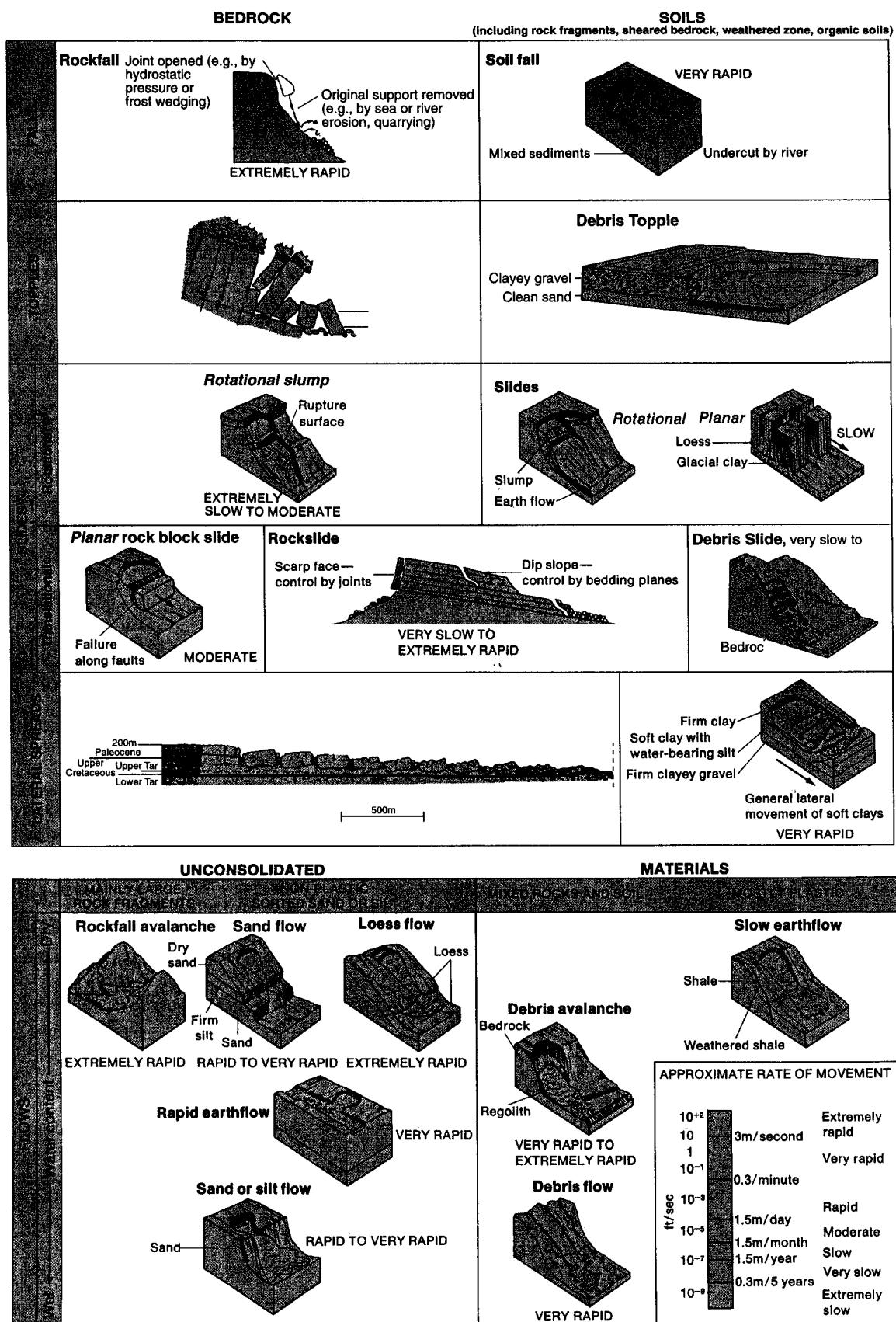


Figure 4.36

Classification of landslides.

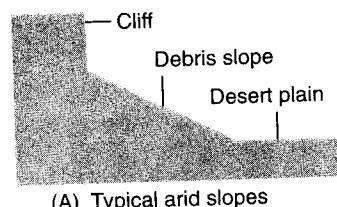
(From D. J. Varnes, 1978, "Landslides: Analysis and Control," TRB Special Report 176, Transportation Research Board, National Research Council, Washington, D.C. Used by permission.)

of a particular rock type but is a relative feature determined by how rapidly slopes developed on the rock retreat and whether the rock stands relatively high in the local topography (Young 1972). In other words, it is not so much the rock itself that determines resistance, but whether the slopes formed over the rock are controlled by processes of weathering or processes of removal. In weathering-controlled slopes, resistance is related to how rapidly the rock is weathered and is a direct function of the rock properties. In transport-limited slopes, the resistance is attributable to the rate at which regolith can be eroded, and the properties of the weathered mass and the type and magnitude of the erosional processes become important in slope development. The down-slope-grading of transport-limited slopes can be explained by the direct relationship between slope gradient and the rate of downslope material transport. For these reasons, the resistance of a particular rock type and its influence on slopes can be reversed if the rock is located in different climates. For example, the characteristics of slopes formed on limestones in humid climates contrast markedly with those developed in arid climates.

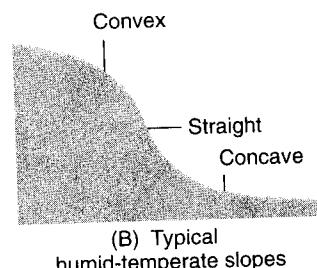
With regard to climatic influence, geomorphologists have long recognized that the most common slope profile in humid-temperate regions has a distinct convex upper slope and concave lower slope. Contrary to some beliefs, straight slope segments do occur in regions with humid-temperate climate, and some profiles do contain steep cliff faces. Most cliff faces, however, are ephemeral in the sense that as soon as undercutting ceases a talus slope forms and will extend upslope until it covers the original cliff wall (fig. 4.56). If the lithology of the rock sequence underlying the slope is not uniform, cliff faces may persist because resistant units are maintained as caprocks where the weaker underlying strata retreat faster, essentially undercutting the stronger rocks.

Convex upper slopes are usually attributed to soil creep; the lower concavity probably results from soil wash, although not all slopes have this segment, particularly when there is active erosion at the slope base (Strahler 1950). The convex-concave profile is most likely to be attained after mass movements have produced a long-term angular stability. At this stage, creep and wash become the dominant slope processes; the straight segment, representing stability of slope material, is gradually diminished in size. The processes of water erosion on slopes will be discussed in the next chapter. Recognize here, however, that water flowing over and through slope material combines with mass movement to mold slope profiles, and in some cases water erosion may be the dominant process involved.

Semiarid and arid climates tend to engender slope profiles that are more angular than those found in humid-temperate regions, even though the same convex, straight, and concave segments may be present (fig. 4.57). Steep cliffs usually are present above a



(A) Typical arid slopes



(B) Typical humid-temperate slopes

Figure 4.57

Typical slope profiles in (A) arid regions and (B) humid-temperate regions.

straight, debris-covered segment that normally stands at angles between 25° and 35°. At the base of the straight segment a pronounced change in slope occurs, and angles decrease over a short distance to less than 5°, a normal slope for most desert plains. The limited vegetal cover and low precipitation in arid zones assure that mass movements occur at higher angles and that creep is subordinated to wash. As a result, the upper slope convexity, so prominent in humid regions, is much less pronounced. However, convex bedrock slopes are common in selected semiarid regions where jointing characteristics of the rock promote development of extensive exfoliation (Bradley 1963).

Straight segments are maintained by the wash process, which is accelerated on the sparsely vegetated surfaces. Unlike similar segments in humid climates, these usually have only a thin veneer of rock debris. Thus they are not like slopes of accumulation, talus slopes, but probably represent true slopes of transportation, on which the amount of debris supplied to the straight segment from the cliff face or from weathering of the underlying rocks is removed in equal quantities to the desert plain. The angle of slope represents a balance between the processes that break debris down and the actual transporting mechanism (Schumm and Chorley 1966). Most geomorphologists feel that a general relationship between particle size and slope angle can be demonstrated. Our treatment of semiarid slopes has been greatly oversimplified. A lengthy overview of slope evolution in the Colorado Plateau by Howard and Kochel (1988) highlights the complex interactions between chemical and physical weathering processes, mass wasting, and groundwater-related processes as they work on sandstone.

Although other climatic regimes have characteristic slope forms, in most cases they are produced by the same mechanics that operate in the humid-temperate or arid zones. In the periglacial environment a special influence is exerted by magnified frost activity; a more extensive treatment of that environment is presented in chapter 11.

Very little research has focused on what aspects of hillslope profiles are most closely related to climate. A study by Toy (1977), however, utilized a rigorous statistical analysis to compare slope properties within two extended traverses in the United States (Kentucky to Nevada and Montana to New Mexico) along which considerable climatic variation occurs. The selection of sampling localities was stringent. Parent rock at each measuring site was restricted to shales dipping at less than 5° . Each slope analyzed was south-facing, within 5 miles of a weather station having records for the same 21-year period used as the climatic base, and had no effects of human activity. Toy found that climate could account for 59 percent of the variability in the upper convex segments and 43 percent of the variability in the slope of the straight segments. Arid slopes in this study were shorter, had steeper straight segments, and had shorter radii of curvatures developed at the convex crests than slopes in humid regions. In addition, of the climatic variables used in the study, those most closely associated with slope variations were spring and summer precipitation, potential evapotranspiration, and water availability (total precipitation minus total potential evapotranspiration during the 21-year period).

Toy's findings cannot be used to make sweeping generalizations about climatic effects on slope profiles because they apply only to one type of parent rock. However, the study demonstrates the type of research design needed to estimate the influence of one geomorphic factor by reducing or eliminating the effects of others.

Slope Evolution

In addition to geology and climate, the factor of time can also be considered as an independent variable. Its effect, however, is difficult to determine, especially when the time interval involved is very long. As we saw in chapter 1, some of the great debates in geomorphology revolve around the question of how slopes respond to continued erosion. Do slopes progressively flatten through time in steps or stages? Or do slopes reach an equilibrium between form and geomorphic factors that is maintained through time as slopes retreat in a parallel manner? These questions are not easily answered.

Three main types of slope evolution have been suggested: slope decline, slope replacement, and parallel retreat (fig. 4.58). In *slope decline*, the steep upper slope erodes more rapidly than the basal zone, causing a flattening of the overall angle. It is usually accompanied by

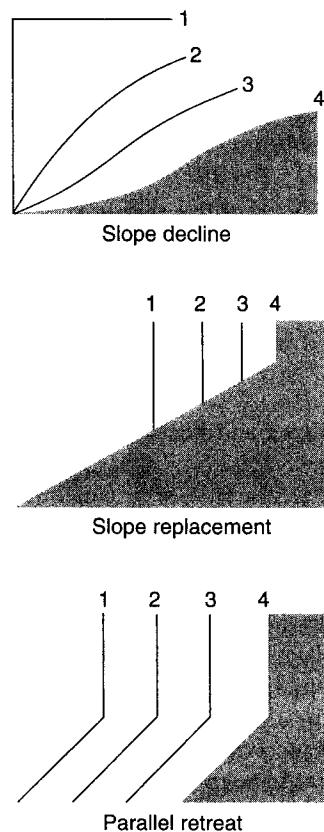


Figure 4.58

Three hypotheses of slope evolution. Higher numbers indicate increasing age of the slope.

(Adapted from A. Young, *Slopes*, fig. 14., 1972, Oliver and Boyd Publishers. Used by permission of A. Young.)

a developing convexity on the upper slope and concavity near the base. Slope decline alone cannot explain a concave profile on the lower slope unless some deposition occurs at the base. In *slope replacement*, the steepest angle is progressively replaced by the upward expansion of a gentler slope near the base. This process tends to enlarge the overall concavity of the profile, which may be in either a segmented or a smoothly curved form. Slopes evolving by *parallel retreat* are characterized by the maintenance of constant angles on the steepest part of the slope. Absolute lengths of slope parts do not change except in the concave zone, which gets longer with time.

Studies of hillslope evolution have also documented adjustments in the location of lateral convexities and concavities. Some of these studies highlight the concept of *gully gravure* (Bryan 1940), which describes how concave slope drainages (hollows) become armored with coarse colluvium shed off of neighboring convex slopes (noses), shifting drainage laterally in a manner such that the unarmored noses are preferentially eroded. In this manner, the former noses swap geomorphic roles with

SURFACE MAPPING METHODS OF

A. Type I Criteria: Age, Origin, Landform, Material.

1. Age of Surficial Material
H = Holocene (< 10,000 years old)
W = Wisconsin (ca. 89 to 10 ka)
I = Illinoian
P = Pleistocene Undifferentiated
EP = Early Pleistocene
MP = Middle Pleistocene
LP = Late Pleistocene
Q = Quaternary Undifferentiated
CZ = Cenozoic Undifferentiated

B. Type II Criteria: 2-D Surface Features

1. Karst
bv = blind valley
ca = cave (human entry)
Active cave passage
Abandoned cave passage
dv = dry valley
kw = karst window
sk = sinkhole (doline)
skst = sinking stream
ks = karst spring
2. Hillslope
hs = headscar
ds = debris-slide scar
ls = landslide scar undifferentiated
rs = rotational slide (slump) scar
ts = translational slide scar
rb = rock-block slide scar
tc = terracettes
3. Other
wf = water fall
w = water, lake, reservoir
vo
Spring
4. Material (Composition and Texture)
b = boulders (>256 mm; clast supported)
c = cobbles (64-256 mm; clast supported)
p = pebbles (4-64 mm; clast supported)
g = gravel (>2 mm; clast supported)
sg = mixed sand and gravel
s = sand (0.05-2.0 mm)
st = silt (0.002-0.05 mm)
cy = clay (<0.002 mm)
l = loam (mix of sand, silt, clay)
d = diamict undifferentiated
bbd = very bouldery diamict
bd = bouldery diamict
cd = cobbley diamict
pd = pebbly diamict
ds = sandy matrix diamict
dt = silty matrix diamict
dy = clayey-matrix diamict
rk = bedrock (modify with lithology)
rs = rotten stone, saprolite
tr = travertine
tu = tufa
ma = marl
og = organic-rich sediment
w = water
u = unknown

Table 5-2. Surficial Map Criteria for the Central Appalachians (after Kite, 1994).

B. Type II Criteria: 2-D Surface Features

1. Karst
bv = blind valley
ca = cave (human entry)
Active cave passage
Abandoned cave passage
dv = dry valley
kw = karst window
sk = sinkhole (doline)
skst = sinking stream
ks = karst spring
2. Hillslope
hs = headscar
ds = debris-slide scar
ls = landslide scar undifferentiated
rs = rotational slide (slump) scar
ts = translational slide scar
rb = rock-block slide scar
tc = terracettes
3. Other
wf = water fall
w = water, lake, reservoir
vo
Spring
4. Material (Composition and Texture)
b = boulders (>256 mm; clast supported)
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g = gravel (>2 mm; clast supported)
sg = mixed sand and gravel
s = sand (0.05-2.0 mm)
st = silt (0.002-0.05 mm)
cy = clay (<0.002 mm)
l = loam (mix of sand, silt, clay)
d = diamict undifferentiated
bbd = very bouldery diamict
bd = bouldery diamict
cd = cobbley diamict
pd = pebbly diamict
ds = sandy matrix diamict
dt = silty matrix diamict
dy = clayey-matrix diamict
rk = bedrock (modify with lithology)
rs = rotten stone, saprolite
tr = travertine
tu = tufa
ma = marl
og = organic-rich sediment
w = water
u = unknown

Hillslope Units after Hack and Goodlett (1960)

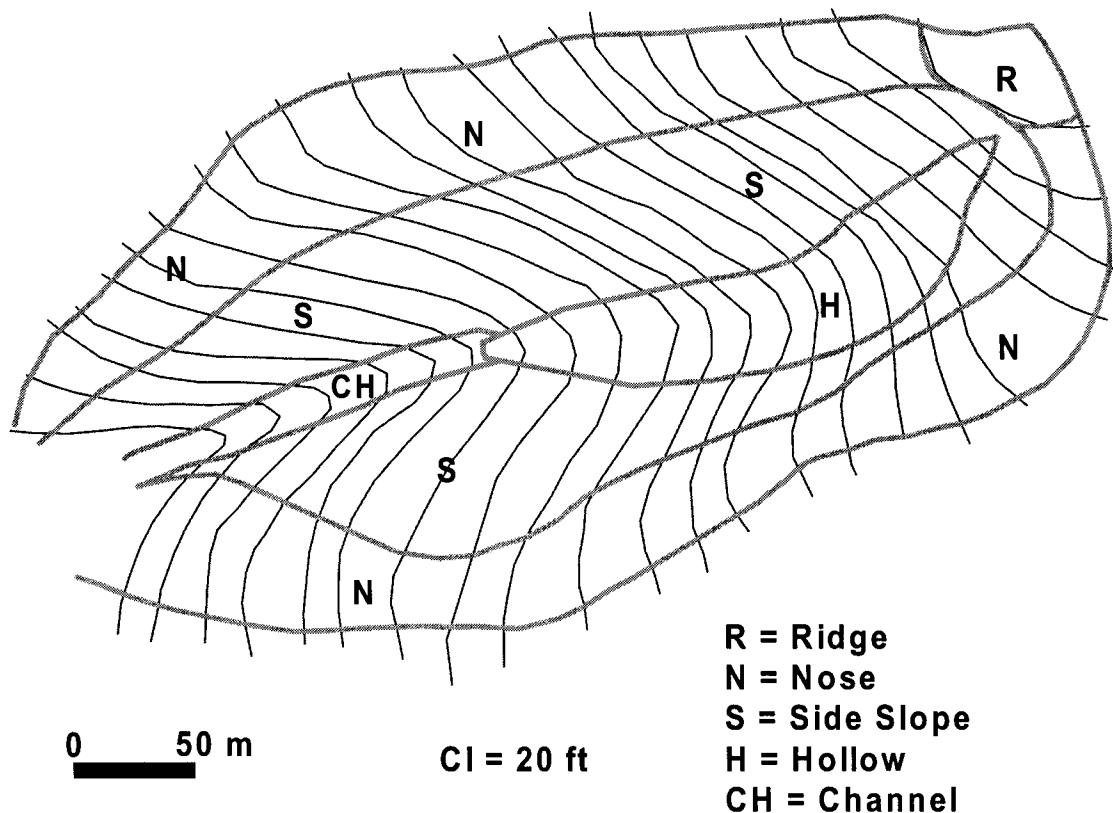


Figure 5-1. Hillslope landform elements after Hack and Goodlett (1960). Net transport flow paths are divergent on nose, convergent in hollows, and parallel on side slopes (Reneau and others, 1989). Noses represent drainage divides between zero- to first-order tributaries. Ridge crests serve as drainage divides between higher-order watersheds.

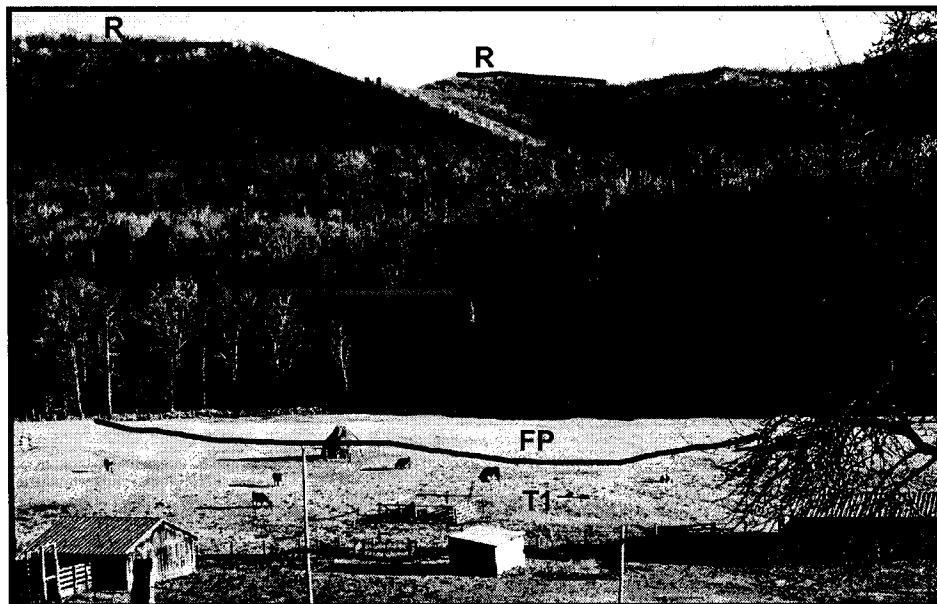


Figure 5-2. Principal landform elements recognized in the unglaciated, humid-mountainous landscape of the central Appalachians. Label identification is as follows: R = ridge, N = nose, S = side slope, H = hollow, CH = channel, FP = floodplain, T1 = low terrace, T2 = intermediate terrace, F-t = Fan terrace. Photograph is from the North Fork basin, Pocahontas County, West Virginia. See text for discussion.

Qr	Quaternary Residuum	Qt2	Quaternary Terrace Alluvium (2-4 m)
Qc1	Quaternary Colluvium - Side slopes/noses	Qt3	Quaternary Terrace Alluvium (4-6 m)
Qc2	Quaternary Colluvium - Hollows	Hf	Historic Fan Deposits (at present grade)
	Holocene Channel Alluvium	Qf2	Quaternary Fan-Terrace Deposits (4-6 m)
	Historic Debris Slide / Flow Scar	Qf3	Quaternary Fan-Terrace Deposits (6-8 m)
Hfp2	Holocene Floodplain Alluvium (1-2 m)	Qf4	Quaternary Fan-Terrace Deposits (8-10 m)
Qt1	Quaternary Terrace Alluvium (2 m)	Qap	Quaternary Apron Deposits

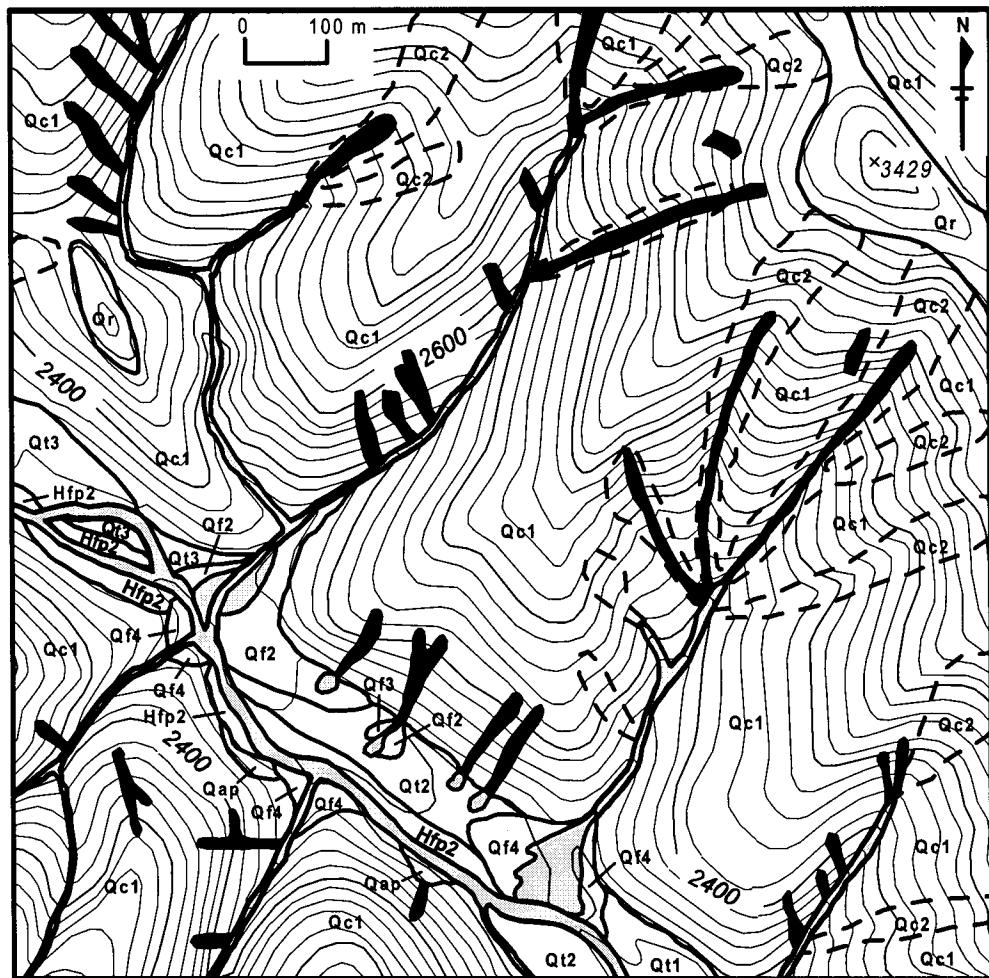


Figure 5-7. Portion of the surficial geology map for the Little River area, Augusta County, Virginia. Features were originally mapped at a scale of 1:9,600 (Taylor and Kite, 1998). Refer to Table 5-3 for an expanded explanation of map units. Contour interval = 40 ft.

Table 5-3. Example Application of Surficial Map Criteria at the Little River Basin, Augusta County, VA.

Map Unit Label	Map Unit Description	Age	Origin (Process)	Landform	Material (Texture)	Four-Fold Identifier	Comments
Qr	Quaternary Residuum	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Residuum	Ridge-Veneer	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix	(Q,r,r-v,c-bdt-l)	Predominantly associated with ridge crests supported by the Pocono Formation.
Qc1	Quaternary Colluvium (Side Slopes)	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Colluvium	Nose-Side Slope Veneer	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix	(Q,c1,n/s-v,c-bdt)	Predominantly associated with side slopes underlain by the Hampshire Formation. Includes the Hazleton and Hazleton-Lehew soils series (Hockman and others, 1979).
Qc2	Quaternary Colluvium (Hollows)	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Colluvium	Hollow Veneer	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix	(Q,c2,h-v,c-bdt-l)	Predominantly associated with zero- to first-order hollows underlain by the Hampshire Formation.
Qbf	Quaternary Boulder Field	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Colluvium (periglacial?)	Boulder Field	Cobbles and Boulders	(Q,c,bf,c-b)	Equant to irregularly shaped side slopes covered by greater than 80% cobbles and boulders. Commonly interpreted as the product of Pleistocene periglacial slope processes.
Qbs	Quaternary Boulder Stream	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Colluvium (periglacial?)	Boulder Stream	Cobbles and Boulders	(Q,c,bs,c-b)	Elongate valley-bottom areas covered by greater than 80% cobbles and boulders. Commonly interpreted as the product of Pleistocene periglacial slope processes.
Hch	Holocene Channel Alluvium	Holocene	Alluvium	Channel and Narrow Floodplain	Cobbles-Boulders and Pebby Loam (rounded to subrounded)	(H,a,ch,c-b-pl)	Fluvial channel deposits associated with first- to sixth-order streams. Unit includes channel alluvium and portions of adjacent floodplain too small to map at the given scale.
Hfp1	Holocene Floodplain Alluvium (0.5 to 1.0 m surface)	Holocene	Alluvium	Floodplain	Cobbles-Boulders and Pebby Loam (rounded to subrounded)	(H,a,fp1,c-b-pl)	Floodplain alluvium associated with second- to sixth-order streams. Unit includes low-lying surfaces 0.5 to 1.0 m above present channel grade with a flood recurrence interval of approximately 3 to 5 years.
Hfp2	Holocene Floodplain Alluvium (1.0 to 2.0 m surface)	Holocene	Alluvium	Floodplain	Cobbles-Boulders and Pebby Loam (rounded to subrounded)	(H,a,fp2,c-b-pl)	Floodplain alluvium associated with second- to sixth-order streams. Unit includes low-lying surfaces 1.0 to 2.0 m above present channel grade with a flood recurrence interval of approximately 3 to 5 years.
Hfp2A	Holocene Floodplain Alluvium (1.0 to 2.0 m surface)	Holocene	Alluvium	Floodplain	Sandy Loam	(H,a,fp2A,s-l)	Sandy slack-water deposits upstream from Heartstone Lake. Unit includes low-lying surfaces 1.0 to 2.0 m above present channel grade with a flood recurrence interval of approximately 3 to 5 years. Buried root flares common.

120

Table 5-3 (Cont.).

Map Unit Label	Map Unit Description	Age	Origin (Process)	Landform	Material (Texture)	Four-Fold Identifier	Comments
Hfp2B	Holocene Floodplain Alluvium (1.0 to 2.0 m surface)	Holocene	Alluvium	Floodplain	Clayey Loam	(H,a,fp2B,cy-l)	Clayey slack-water deposits immediately upstream from Hearthstone Lake. Unit includes low-lying surfaces 1.0-2.0 m above present channel grade with a flood recurrence interval of approximately 3 to 5 years. Mud cracks and buried root flares common.
Hd	Holocene (Historic) Delta Deposits	Holocene (Historic)	Lacustrine Delta	Delta	Sandy Loam	(H,d,d,s-l)	Historic lacustrine delta deposits associated with the flood-control reservoir at Hearthstone Lake.
Qt1	Quaternary Low-Terrace Alluvium (2.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Alluvium	Terrace (Floodplain?)	Cobbles-Boulders and Pebby Loam (rounded to subrounded)	(Q,a,t1,c-b-p)	Low-terrace deposits associated with second- to sixth-order streams. Unit includes low terrace surfaces 1.0 to 2.0 m above present channel grade with a flood recurrence interval greater than 5 years.
Qt2	Quaternary Terrace Alluvium (2.0 to 4.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Alluvium	Terrace	Cobbles-Boulders and Pebby Loam (rounded to subrounded)	(Q,a,t2,c-b-p)	Terrace deposits associated with third- to sixth-order streams. Unit includes terrace surfaces 2.0 to 4.0 m above present channel grade.
Qt3	Quaternary Terrace Alluvium (4.0 to 6.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Alluvium	Terrace	Cobbles-Boulders and Pebby Loam (rounded to subrounded)	(Q,a,t3,c-b-p)	Terrace deposits associated with third- to sixth-order streams. Unit includes terrace surfaces 4.0 to 6.0 m above present channel grade.
Qt4	Quaternary Terrace Alluvium (6.0 to 8.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Alluvium	Terrace	Cobbles-Boulders and Pebby Loam (rounded to subrounded)	(Q,a,t4,c-b-p)	Terrace deposits associated with third- to sixth-order streams. Unit includes terrace surfaces 4.0 to 6.0 m above present channel grade.
Hf	Holocene (Historic) Fan Deposits (undissected)	Holocene	Alluvium - Debris Flow(?)	Fan	Cobbles and Boulders, Gravel Diamicton	(H,a-df?,f,c-bdt-l)	Historic fan deposits commonly associated with first- to second-order hollows at stream-tributary junctions. Identified by fresh deposits, disturbed and buried vegetation. Primarily the result of June 1949 flood event.
Qf	Quaternary Fan Deposits (undissected)	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Alluvium - Debris Flow(?)	Fan	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix (subangular to rounded)	(Q,a-df?,f,c-bdt-l)	Fan deposits commonly associated with first-order hollows at stream-tributary junctions. Identified by older tree stands and lack of fresh appearance.
Qf1	Quaternary Fan-Terrace Deposits (2.0 to 4.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiffr.)	Alluvium - Debris Flow(?)	Fan	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix (subangular to rounded)	(Q,a-df?,f1,c-bdt-l)	Entrenched fan surfaces commonly located at stream tributary junctions. Diamicton may be crudely stratified with imbricated gravelly-loam facies.

Table 5-3 (Cont.).

Map Unit Label	Map Unit Description	Age	Origin (Process)	Landform	Material (Texture)	Four-Fold Identifier	Comments
Qf2	Quaternary Fan-Terrace Deposits (4.0 to 6.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiff.)	Alluvium - Debris Flow(?)	Fan	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix (subangular to rounded)	(Q,a-df?,f2,c-bdt-l)	Enriched tan surfaces commonly located at stream tributary junctions. Diamicton may be crudely stratified with imbricated gravelly-loam facies.
Qf3	Quaternary Fan-Terrace Deposits (6.0 to 8.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiff.)	Alluvium - Debris Flow(?)	Fan	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix (subangular to rounded)	(Q,a-df?,f3,c-bdt-l)	Enriched tan surfaces commonly located at stream tributary junctions. Diamicton may be crudely stratified with imbricated gravelly-loam facies.
Qf4	Quaternary Fan-Terrace Deposits (8.0 to 10.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiff.)	Alluvium - Debris Flow(?)	Fan	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix (subangular to rounded)	(Q,a-df?,f4,c-bdt-l)	Enriched tan surfaces commonly located at stream tributary junctions. Diamicton may be crudely stratified with imbricated gravelly-loam facies.
Qf5	Quaternary Fan-Terrace Deposits (>10.0 m surface)	Quaternary (Undiff.)	Alluvium - Debris Flow(?)	Fan	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix (subangular to rounded)	(Q,a-df?,f5,c-bdt-l)	Enriched tan surfaces commonly located at stream tributary junctions. Diamicton may be crudely stratified with imbricated gravelly-loam facies.
Qap	Quaternary Apron Deposits	Quaternary (Undiff.)	Colluvium	Apron	Cobble- to Boulder-Diamicton with Silty Loam Matrix	(Q,c,ap,c-bdt-l)	Footslope deposits > 2.0 m in thickness. Commonly located at break in gradient between steeper side slopes and valley-bottoms.
Hds	Holocene (Historic) Debris Slide / Flow Scar	Holocene (Historic)	Debris Slide / Debris Flow	Scar	Commonly Scoured to Bedrock	(H,ds/ds,sc,rk)	Slide scars associated with the June 1949 flood event. Debris slides transformed into debris flows with attendant erosion of surficial materials to bedrock. Identified by youthful and disturbed vegetation. Bedrock surfaces may be scratched and striated.

100

Reference TABLES

APPENDIX 7

Table for length conversion

Unit	mm	cm	m	km	in	ft	yd	mi
1 millimeter	1	0.1	0.001	10^{-6}	0.0397	0.00328	0.00109	6.21×10^{-7}
1 centimeter	10	1	0.01	0.0001	0.3937	0.0328	0.0109	6.21×10^{-6}
1 meter	1000	100	1	0.001	39.37	3.281	1.094	6.21×10^{-4}
1 kilometer	10^6	10^5	1000	1	39,370	3281	1093.6	0.621
1 inch	25.4	2.54	0.0254	2.54×10^{-5}	1	0.0833	0.0278	1.58×10^{-3}
1 foot	304.8	30.48	0.3048	3.05×10^{-4}	12	1	0.333	1.89×10^{-4}
1 yard	914.4	91.44	0.9144	9.14×10^{-4}	36	3	1	5.68×10^{-4}
1 mile	1.61×10^6	1.01×10^5	1.61×10^3	1.6093	63,360	5280	1760	1

APPENDIX 8

Table for area conversion

Unit	cm ²	m ²	km ²	ha	in ²	ft ²	yd ²	mi ²	ac
1 sq. centimeter	1	0.0001	10^{-10}	10^{-8}	0.155	1.08×10^{-3}	1.2×10^{-4}	3.86×10^{-11}	2.47×10^{-8}
1 sq. meter	10^4	1	10^{-6}	10^{-4}	1550	10.76	1.196	3.86×10^{-7}	2.47×10^{-4}
1 sq. kilometer	10^{10}	10^6	1	100	1.55×10^9	1.076×10^7	1.196×10^6	0.3861	247.1
1 hectare	10^4	10^4	0.01	1	1.55×10^7	1.076×10^5	1.196×10^4	3.861×10^{-3}	2.471
1 sq. inch	6.452	6.45×10^{-4}	6.45×10^{10}	6.45×10^{-8}	1	6.94×10^{-3}	7.7×10^{-4}	2.49×10^{-10}	1.574×10^7
1 sq. foot	929	0.0929	9.29×10^{-8}	9.29×10^{-6}	144	1	0.111	3.587×10^{-8}	2.3×10^{-5}
1 sq. yard	8361	0.8361	8.36×10^{-7}	8.36×10^{-5}	1296	9	1	3.23×10^{-7}	2.07×10^{-4}
1 sq. mile	2.59×10^{10}	2.59×10^6	2.59	259	4.01×10^9	2.79×10^7	3.098×10^6	1	640
1 acre	4.04×10^7	4047	4.047×10^{-3}	0.4047	6.27×10^6	43,560	4840	1.562×10^{-3}	1

APPENDIX 9

Table for volume conversion

Unit	mL	liters	m ³	in ³	ft ³	gal	ac-ft	million gal
1 milliliter	1	0.001	10^{-6}	0.06102	3.53×10^{-5}	2.64×10^4	8.1×10^{-10}	2.64×10^{-10}
1 liter	10^3	1	0.001	61.02	0.0353	0.264	8.1×10^{-7}	2.64×10^{-7}
1 cu. meter	10^6	1000	1	61,023	35.31	264.17	8.1×10^{-4}	2.64×10^{-4}
1 cu. inch	16.39	1.64×10^{-2}	1.64×10^{-5}	1	5.79×10^{-4}	4.33×10^{-3}	1.218×10^{-8}	4.329×10^{-9}
1 cu. foot	28,317	28.317	0.02832	1728	1	7.48	2.296×10^{-5}	7.48×10^6
1 U.S. gallon	3785.4	3.785	3.78×10^{-3}	231	0.134	1	3.069×10^{-6}	10^6
1 acre-foot	1.233×10^9	1.233×10^6	1233.5	75.27×10^6	43,560	3.26×10^5	1	0.3260
1 million gallons	3.785×10^9	3.785×10^6	3785	2.31×10^8	1.338×10^5	10^6	3.0684	1

APPENDIX 10

Table for time conversion

Unit	sec	min	hours	days	years
1 second	1				
1 minute	60	1			
1 hour	360	60	1		
1 day	8.64×10^4	1440	24	1	
1 year	3.15×10^7	5.256×10^5	8760	365	1

Appendix 9.A. Continued

APPENDIX 9.A.
Conversion Tables

Equivalent ^{1,2}				
Unit	feet per day	kilometers per hour	feet per second	miles per hour
feet per day	1	1.27×10^{-3}	1.157×10^{-5}	7.891×10^{-4}
kilometers per hour	7.874×10^4	1	0.9113	0.6214
feet per second				0.2778
miles per hour	8.64×10^4	1.097	1	0.6818
meters per second	2.835×10^5	3.6		0.3048
				0.447
				1

Length

Equivalent ^{1,2}				
Unit	millimeters	inches	feet	yards
millimeters	1	3.937×10^{-3}	3.281×10^{-3}	1×10^{-3}
inches	25.4	1	8.33×10^{-2}	2.54×10^{-1}
feet	304.8	12	1	3.048×10^{-1}
meters	1,000	39.37	3.281	1×10^{-3}
kilometers	1×10^6	3.937×10^4	3,281	1,000
miles	$1,609 \times 10^3$	6.336×10^4	5,280	1,609

Mass

Equivalent ^{1,2}				
Unit	cubic centimeters	grams	kilograms	short tons
ounce	1	6.23×10^{-1}	2.833×10^{-3}	2.79×10^{-3}
pound	16	1	0.4536	4.635×10^{-2}
talogram	3.128×10^3	1	0.102	5×10^{-4}
metric ton	345.3	21.62	0.907	6.432×10^{-2}
stone	514.7	32.17	1.459	1
short ton				9.807×10^{-3}
metric ton	3.2×10^3	2,000	907.2	6.216×10^{-2}
long ton	3.22×10^3	2,005	1,000	0.622
tonne	3.38×10^3	2,240	1,016	10.17×10^{-2}

Mass

Equivalent ^{1,2}				
Unit	cubic inches	ounces	pounds	short tons
cubic inches	1	1.943×10^{-3}	1.125×10^{-3}	2.335×10^{-3}
ounces	64	1	4.646×10^{-4}	4.536×10^{-4}
pounds	16	1	1.00×10^{-2}	5×10^{-4}
short tons	3.128×10^3	1	6.432×10^{-2}	1.02×10^{-3}
metric tons	345.3	21.62	0.907	9.807×10^{-3}
stones	514.7	32.17	1.459	1
metric tonnes				1.436×10^{-2}
long tons				1.436×10^{-2}
tonnes				0.907×10^{-2}
metric tonnes				0.942

Volume

Equivalent ^{1,2}				
Unit	cubic inches	ounces	pounds	short tons
cubic inches	1	1.639×10^{-3}	4.329×10^{-4}	7.877×10^{-4}
ounces	64	1	0.2642	0.531×10^{-2}
pounds	16	1	1.00×10^{-2}	0.1337×10^{-2}
short tons	3.128×10^3	1	7.68×10^{-3}	1.704×10^{-2}
metric tonnes	345.3	21.62	0.907	0.277
stones	514.7	32.17	1.459	0.209
tonnes				0.233×10^{-2}
metric tonnes				0.244
long tons				0.233×10^{-2}
tonnes				0.193×10^{-2}
metric tonnes				0.205

Force

Equivalent ^{1,2}				
Unit	dyne	newton	pound-force	kilogram-force
dynes	1	1×10^{-5}	2.248×10^{-6}	1.02×10^{-6}
newtons	1×10^5	1	0.2248	0.102
pound-force	4.448×10^3	4,448	1	0.4536
kilogram-force	9.807×10^3	9,807	2,205	1

Density

Equivalent ^{1,2}				
Unit	pounds per cubic inch	pounds per cubic foot	grams per cubic centimeter	grams per liter
pounds per cubic inch	1	1,728	231	2.768×10^3
pounds per cubic foot	5.787×10^{-1}	1	0.1337	1.6×10^{-2}
pounds per gallon	4.33×10^{-3}	7,481	1	0.1198
grams per cubic centimeter	3.61×10^{-1}	62.43	8,345	1
grams per liter	3.61×10^{-1}	6.24×10^{-1}	8.35×10^{-1}	0.001

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TABLE 4.1 English and SI Units

$$1 \text{ N} = 1 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/sec}^2$$

Parameter	English Unit	SI Unit	Conversion Factor	Dimensional Formula
Force	pound (lb)	newton (N)	1 lb = 4.448 N	ML/T^2
Mass	slug	kilogram (kg)	1 slug = 14.594 kg	M
Length	foot (ft)	meter (m)	1 ft = 0.3048 m	L
Time	second (s)	second	1 s = 1 s	T
Density	slug/ft ³	kg/m ³	1 slug/ft ³ = 515.4 kg/m ³	ML^3
Specific weight	lb/ft ³	N/m ³	1 lb/ft ³ = 157.1 N/m ³	ML^2T^2
Pressure	lb/ft ²	N/m ²	1 lb/ft ² = 47.88 N/m ²	ML/T^2
Dynamic viscosity	lb-s/ft ²	N·s/m ²	1 lb-s/ft ² = 47.88 N·s/m ²	ML/T
Bulk modulus	lb/ft ²	N/m ²	1 lb/ft ² = 47.88 N/m ²	ML/T^2

$$g = \text{acceleration due to gravity} = 9.8 \text{ m/sec}^2$$

Equations for areas and volumes

$$\text{Circumference of circle} = 3.1416 \times \text{dia} = 6.2832 \times \text{radius}$$

$$\text{Area of circle} = 0.7854 \times (\text{dia})^2 = 3.1416 \times (\text{radius})^2$$

$$\text{Area of sphere} = 3.1416 \times (\text{dia})^2$$

$$\text{Volume of sphere} = 0.5236 \times (\text{dia})^3$$

$$\text{Area of triangle} = 0.5 \times \text{base} \times \text{height}$$

$$\text{Area of trapezoid} = 0.5 \times \text{sum of the two parallel sides} \times \text{height}$$

$$\text{Area of square, rectangle, or parallelogram} = \text{base} \times \text{height}$$

$$\text{Volume of pyramid} = \text{area of base} \times 1/3 \text{ height}$$

$$\text{Volume of cone} = 0.2618 \times (\text{dia of base})^2 \times \text{height}$$

$$\text{Volume of cylinder} = 0.7854 \times \text{height} \times (\text{dia})^2$$

Pressure

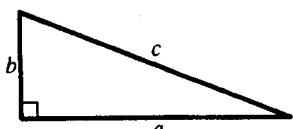
Unit	Equivalent ¹¹										
	pounds per square inch	pounds per square foot	atmospheres	kilograms per square centimeter	kilograms per square meter	inches of water (68°F)	feet of water (68°F)	inches of mercury (32°F)	millimeters of mercury (32°F)	bars	kilo Pascals
pounds per square inch	1	144	6.805×10^{-3}	7.031×10^{-3}	703.1	27.73	2.311	2.036	51.72	6.895×10^{-1}	6.895
pounds per square foot	6.945×10^{-3}	1	4.73×10^{-4}	4.88×10^{-4}	4.882	0.1926	1.605×10^{-2}	1.414×10^{-2}	0.3591	4.79×10^{-4}	4.79×10^{-2}
atmospheres	14.7	2,116	1	1.033	1.033×10^4	407.5	33.96	29.92	760	1.013	101.3
kilograms per square centimeter	14.22	2,048	0.9678	1	1×10^4	394.4	32.87	28.96	735.6	0.9807	98.07
kilograms per square meter	1.422×10^{-3}	0.2048	9.678×10^{-5}	0.001	1	3.944×10^{-2}	3.287×10^{-3}	2.896×10^{-3}	7.356×10^{-2}	9.807×10^{-3}	9.807×10^{-3}
inches of water (68°F)	3.609×10^{-2}	5.197	2.454×10^{-3}	2.53×10^{-3}	25.38	1	8.333×10^{-3}	7.343×10^{-3}	1.865	2.49×10^{-3}	0.249
feet of water (68°F)	0.4328	62.32	2.945×10^{-1}	3.043×10^{-1}	304.3	12	1	0.8812	22.38	2.984×10^{-1}	2.984
inches of mercury (32°F)	0.4912	70.73	3.342×10^{-1}	3.453×10^{-1}	345.3	13.62	1.135	1	25.4	3.386×10^{-1}	3.386
millimeters of mercury (32°F)	1.934×10^{-2}	2.785	1.316×10^{-1}	1.36×10^{-1}	13.6	0.5362	4.468×10^{-2}	3.937×10^{-2}	1	1.333×10^{-2}	0.1333
bars	14.5	2,089	0.9869	1.02	1.02×10^4	402.2	33.51	29.53	750.1	1	100
kilo Pascals	0.145	20.89	9.869×10^{-3}	1.02×10^{-3}	102	4.022	0.3351	0.2953	7.501	0.01	1

	44°	/	44°	/	44°	/	44°	/	
	Tang	Cordage	Tang	Cordage	Tang	Cordage	Tang	Cordage	
0	96569	60	20	97700	40	40	98843	101170	20
1	96625	69	21	97756	49	41	98901	101112	19
2	96681	58	22	97813	38	42	98958	101063	18
3	96738	57	23	97870	38	43	99015	100994	17
4	96794	56	24	97927	37	44	99073	100935	16
5	96850	55	25	97984	35	45	99131	100876	15
6	96907	54	26	98041	34	46	99189	100818	14
7	96963	53	27	98098	33	47	99247	100769	13
8	97020	52	28	98155	32	48	99304	100701	12
9	97076	51	29	98213	31	49	99362	100642	11
10	97133	50	30	98270	30	50	99420	100683	10
11	97189	49	31	98327	29	51	99478	100625	9
12	97246	48	32	98384	28	52	99536	100467	8
13	97302	47	33	98441	27	53	99594	100408	7
14	97359	46	34	98499	26	54	99652	100350	6
15	97416	45	35	98556	25	55	99710	100291	5
16	97472	44	36	98613	24	56	99768	100233	4
17	97529	43	37	98671	23	57	99826	100175	3
18	97586	42	38	98728	22	58	99884	100116	2
19	97643	41	39	98786	21	59	99942	100058	1
20	97700	40	40	98843	20	60	1.00000	1.00000	0
	Cordage	Tang	/	Cordage	Tang	/	Cordage	Tang	/
	45°	/	45°	/	45°	/	45°	/	45°

Underlined figures are exact; others are rounded off. Condensed from Letter Circular 1035 (Jan., 1960) of the U.S. Department of Commerce, National Bureau of Standards, Washington 25, D.C.

1 in. = 0.08333 ft; 0.02778 yd; 2.54 cm.
 1 ft = 12 in.; 0.6061 rods; 0.3048 mi; 0.0001894 mi
 1 yd = 3 ft; 0.9144 m; 0.1818 rods; 0.0005682 mi
 1 m = 1000 mm; 10 decimeters 100 centimeters; 0.01 hectometers
 1 km = 39.37 in.; 3.2808 ft; 1.0836 yd; 0.0006214 mi
 1 nautical mi = 6 fathoms = 6 ft; 1.8228 m
 1 sq in. = 6.4516 sq cm; 0.00094 sq ft
 1 sq in. = 144 sq in.; 0.1111 sq yd; 0.0029 sq m
 1 cu in. = 0.0005787 cu ft; 18.387 cu cm
 1 sq yd = 1296 sq in.; 9 sq ft; 0.8361 sq m
 1 sq m = 1551 sq in.; 10.76 sq ft; 1.186 sq yd
 1 acre = 43560 sq ft; 4840 sq yd; 0.405 hectares; 0.00156 sq mi
 1 sq mi = 640 acres; 259 hectares
 1 cu in. = 0.0010 cu in.; 0.000001 cu m
 1 cu cm = 0.0005787 cu ft; 18.387 cu cm
 1 cu ft = 1728 cu in.; 0.03704 cu yd; 0.0283 cu m
 1 cu yd = 46656 cu in.; 27 cu ft; 0.7645 cu m
 1 cu m = 35.315 cu ft; 1.3079 cu yd
 1 gal (U.S.) = 231 cu in.; 128 fl oz; 0.1387 cu ft; 3.785 liters
 1 liter = 61.025 cu in.; 0.2842 gal (U.S.); 0.0353 cu ft
 1 acre ft = 43560 cu ft; 325851 gal (U.S.); 1233.5 cu m
 1 oz (avoir.) = 437.5 grains; 28.350 grams; 0.0625 lbs (avoir.)
 1 gram = 15.432 grains; 0.03527 oz (avoir.); 0.002295 lbs (avoir.)
 1 short (net) ton = 2000 lbs; 0.9072 metric ton; 0.88929 long (gross) ton

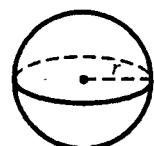
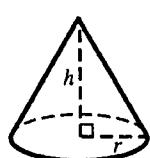
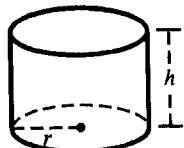
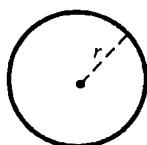
GEOMETRIC FORMULAS



Right Triangle



Any Triangle



● Triangles

Pythagorean Theorem $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$

Area

$$A = \frac{1}{2}bh$$

● Circles

Area

$$A = \pi r^2$$

Circumference

$$C = 2\pi r$$

● Cylinders

Surface Area

$$S = 2\pi r^2 + 2\pi rh$$

Volume

$$V = \pi r^2 h$$

● Cones

Surface Area

$$S = \pi r^2 + \pi r \sqrt{r^2 + h^2}$$

Volume

$$V = \frac{1}{3}\pi r^2 h$$

● Spheres

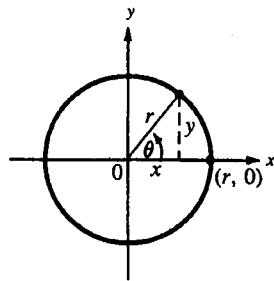
Surface Area

$$S = 4\pi r^2$$

Volume

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$$

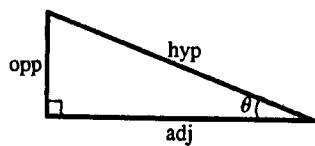
TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS AND LAWS



- Definitions Based on the Circle

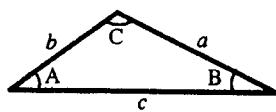
$$\begin{array}{ll} \cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} & \sec \theta = \frac{r}{x} \\ \sin \theta = \frac{y}{r} & \csc \theta = \frac{r}{y} \\ \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} & \cot \theta = \frac{x}{y} \end{array}$$

For the unit circle, $r = 1$



- Definitions Based on the Right Triangle

$$\begin{array}{ll} \cos \theta = \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{hyp}} & \sec \theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{adj}} \\ \sin \theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{hyp}} & \csc \theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{opp}} \\ \tan \theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{adj}} & \cot \theta = \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{opp}} \end{array}$$



- Law of Sines

$$\frac{\sin A}{a} = \frac{\sin B}{b} = \frac{\sin C}{c}$$

- Law of Cosines

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc \cos A$$

$$\cos A = \frac{b^2 + c^2 - a^2}{2bc}$$

ALGEBRAIC PROPERTIES AND FORMULAS

● Properties of Inequalities

If $a < b$, then $a + c < b + c$

If $a < b$ and $b < c$, then $a < c$

If $a < b$ and $c > 0$, then $ac < bc$

If $a < b$ and $c < 0$, then $ac > bc$

If $ab > 0$ and $a < b$, then $\frac{1}{a} > \frac{1}{b}$

● Properties of Polynomials

$$(x+y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2$$

$$(x-y)^2 = x^2 - 2xy + y^2$$

$$(x+y)^3 = x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3$$

$$(x-y)^3 = x^3 - 3x^2y + 3xy^2 - y^3$$

$$x^2 - y^2 = (x+y)(x-y)$$

$$x^3 + y^3 = (x+y)(x^2 - xy + y^2)$$

$$x^3 - y^3 = (x-y)(x^2 + xy + y^2)$$

● Properties of Absolute Value

$$|a| = a \text{ if } a \geq 0$$

$$|a| = -a \text{ if } a < 0$$

$$|-a| = |a|$$

$$|ab| = |a||b|$$

$$|a+b| \leq |a| + |b|$$

$$|a|^2 = a^2$$

● Properties of Logarithms

Suppose $a \neq 1$, $a > 0$, $x > 0$, and $w > 0$.

$$a^{\log_a x} = x$$

$$\log_a a^x = x$$

$$\log_a a = 1$$

$$\log_a 1 = 0$$

$$\log_a xw = \log_a x + \log_a w$$

$$\log_a x^r = r \log_a x$$

$$\log_a \frac{x}{w} = \log_a x - \log_a w$$

$$\log x = \log_{10} x$$

$$\ln x = \log_e x$$

● Properties of Exponents

$a \neq 0$ and m and n are integers

$$a^n = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot a \cdots a}_{n \text{ factors}}$$

n factors

$a^{1/n}$ = the n^{th} root of a

$$a^{-n} = \frac{1}{a^n}$$

$$a^{m/n} = (a^{1/n})^m$$

If p and q are positive rational numbers

$$(a^p)^q = a^{p \cdot q} = (a^{1/p})^q$$

$$a^{p/q} = (a^{1/q})^p$$

$$a^p a^q = a^{p+q}$$

$$\frac{a^p}{a^q} = a^{p-q}$$

$$(ab)^p = a^p b^p$$

$$\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^p = \frac{a^p}{b^p}$$

$$\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{(a/b)} = \frac{b}{a}$$

● The Quadratic Formula

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \text{ are the solutions to } ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

● The Binomial Formula

$$(x+y)^n = x^n + \binom{n}{1} x^{n-1} y + \binom{n}{2} x^{n-2} y^2 + \cdots + \binom{n}{j} x^{n-j} y^j + \cdots + \binom{n}{n-1} x y^{n-1} + y^n$$

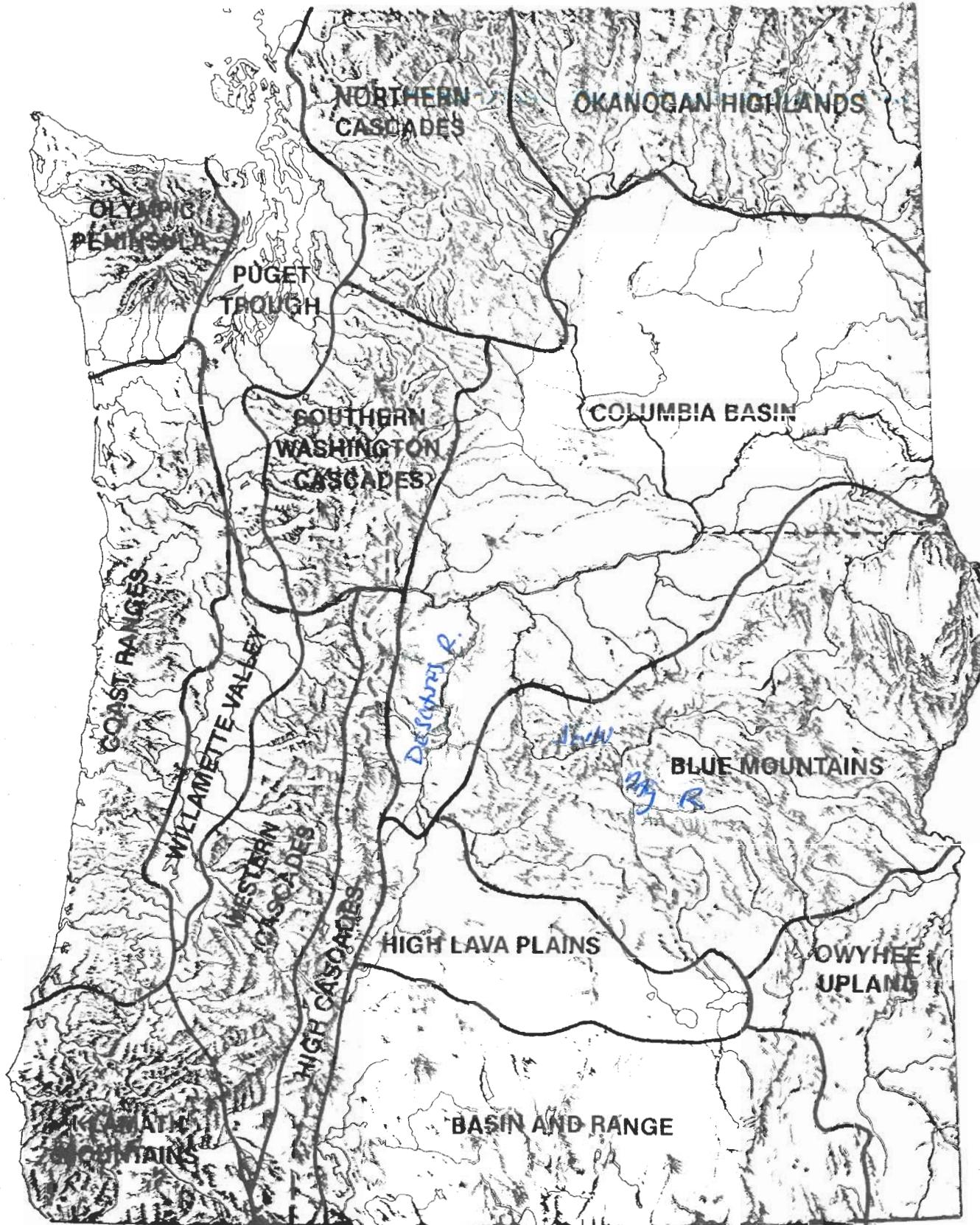
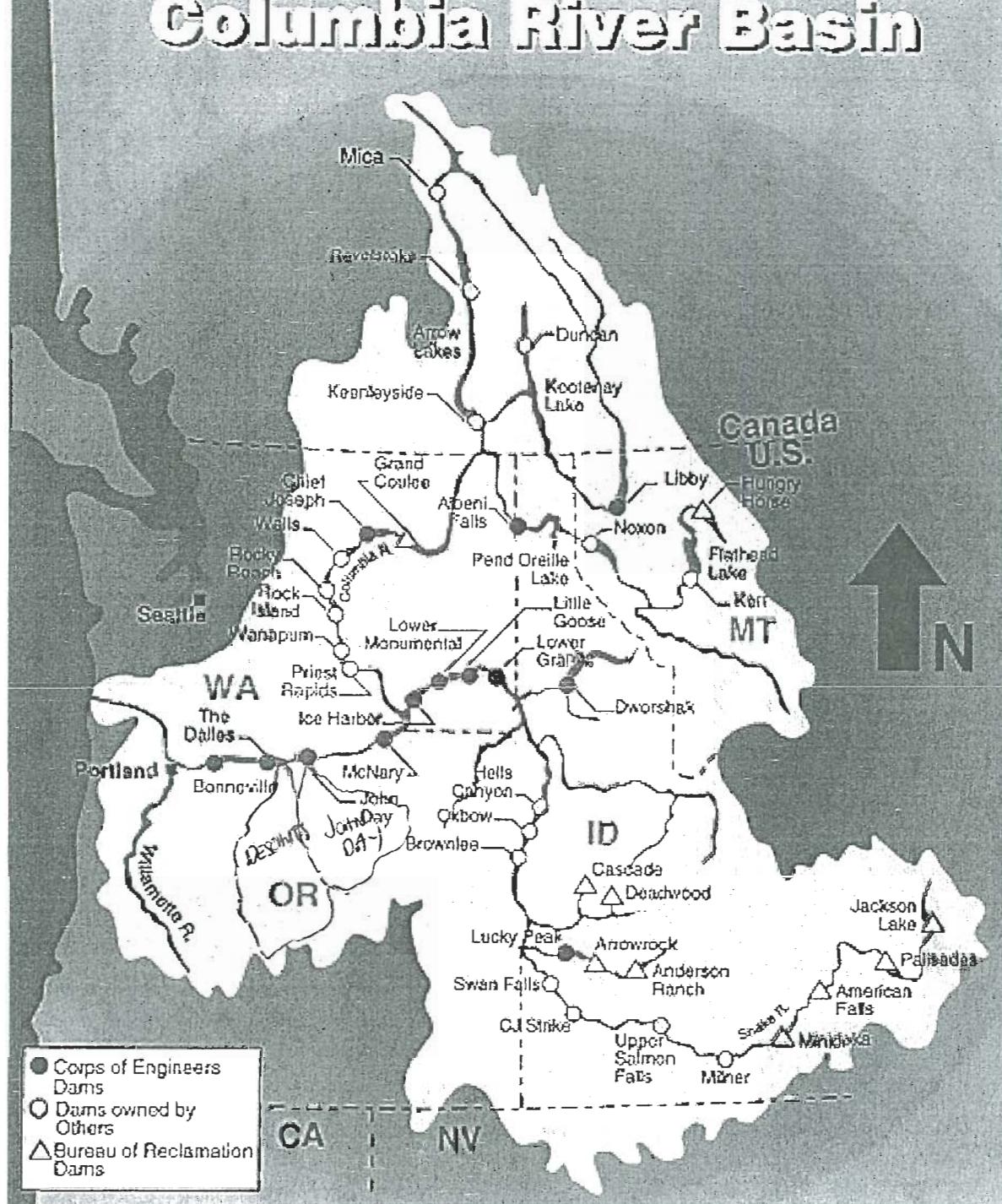


Figure 2. — Physiographic and geological provinces of Oregon and Washington.

Columbia River Basin



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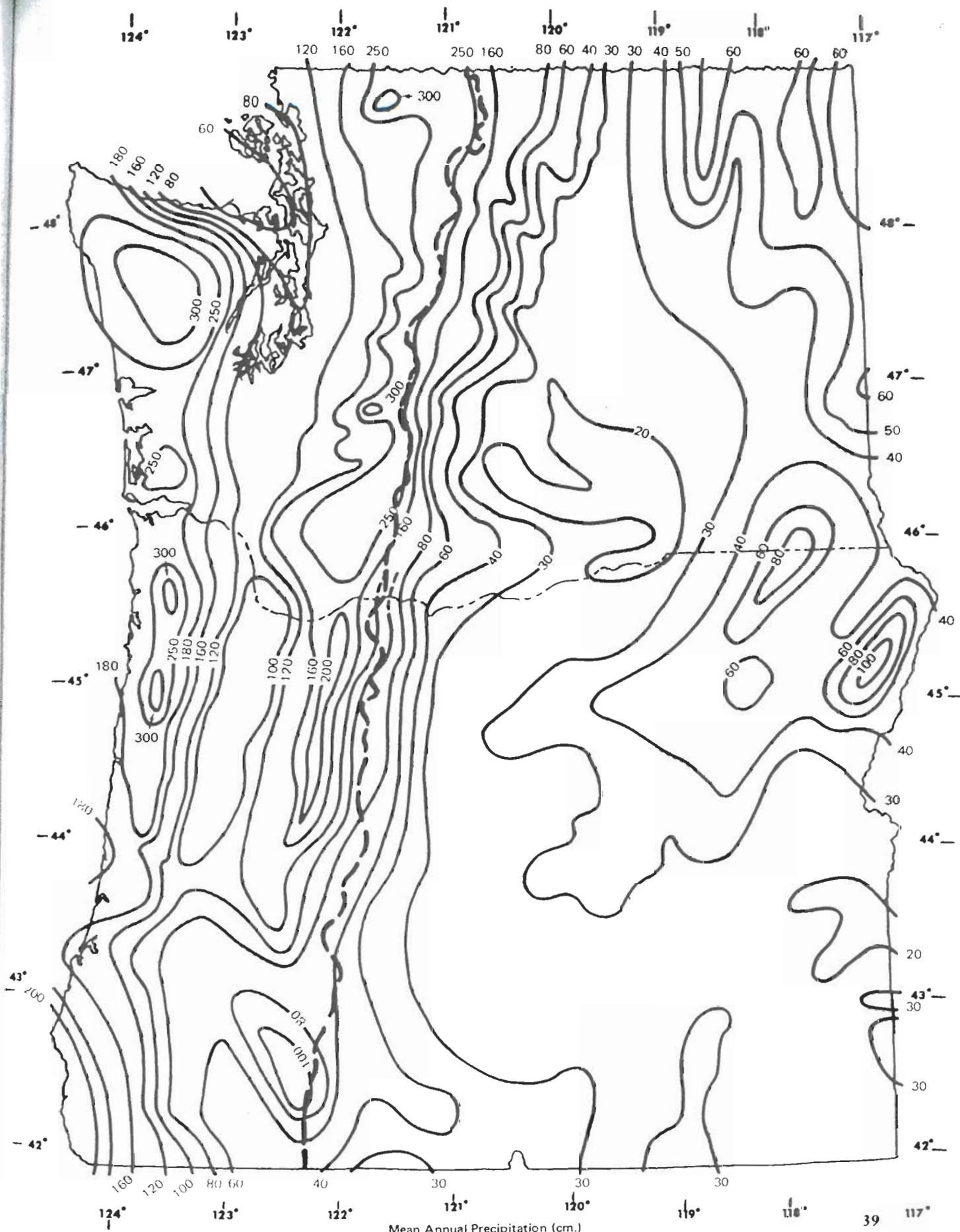


Figure 23. — Mean annual precipitation in Oregon and Washington (U.S. Weather Bureau 1960a, b).

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(after VII).
Province
neastern

the crest

oup; they



Figure 27. — Generalized vegetation map of Oregon and Washington (based partially on Hayes (1959), Küchler (1964), and Poulton (1962)).

124° 123° 122° 121° 120° 119° 118° 117°
(SEE NEXT PAGE FOR KEY) 132 A

CHAPTER III. MAJOR VEGETATIONAL AREAS

Vegetation—natural plant communities—can be organized in numerous ways. Unfortunately, no single system is completely satisfactory either in providing a logical “cell” for all community types or a structure suitable for all users of a volume of this type. It is much the same problem that exists in plant taxonomy, i.e., structuring a linear system when a multidimensional classification is really necessary.

We begin our classifications by recognizing four major groupings (fig. 27): (1) forests, (2) grasslands and shrub-grass communities (hereafter referred to as steppe and shrub-steppe, respectively), (3) interior valleys of western Oregon (Chapter V)¹ and (4) timberline (subalpine parklands) and alpine regions (Chapter X).² The two broad physiognomic divisions of forest and steppe can be further divided geographically. Distinctive forest regions are found in western Washington and northwestern Oregon (Chapter IV), interior southwestern Oregon (Chapter VI), and in eastern Washington and Oregon (Chapter VII). Steppe and shrub-steppe are separable into those found in the Columbia Basin Province (primarily in eastern Washington) (Chapter VIII) and in central and southeastern Oregon (Chapter IX).

¹ Here and throughout this book, western Washington or Oregon refers to the region west of the crest of the Cascade Range and eastern Washington or Oregon to the area east of the crest.

² Communities found on unique, specialized habitats or in geographic anomalies form a fifth group; they are considered in Chapter XI and will not be discussed further here.

Legend

FORESTED REGIONS

Picea sitchensis Zone



Tsuga heterophylla Zone



Puget Sound area



Mixed Conifer and Mixed Evergreen Zones



Pinus ponderosa Zone (broad sense)



Pumice region



Abies grandis and *Pseudotsuga menziesii* Zones



Subalpine forests (including *Abies amabilis*,
A. lasiocarpa, *A. magnifica shastensis*,
and *Tsuga mertensiana* Zones)



INTERIOR VALLEYS OF WESTERN OREGON

Willamette valley



Umpqua and Rogue valleys



STEPPE REGIONS

STEPPE (without *Artemesia tridentata*)



SHRUB-STEPPE (with *Artemesia tridentata*)



DESERT SHRUB



Juniperus occidentalis Zone



TIMBERLINE AND ALPINE REGIONS

towns with asterisk are keyed to map page 100.

Ada.....
Adair Village (554)
Adams (223)
Adel.....
Adrian (131)
Agness.....

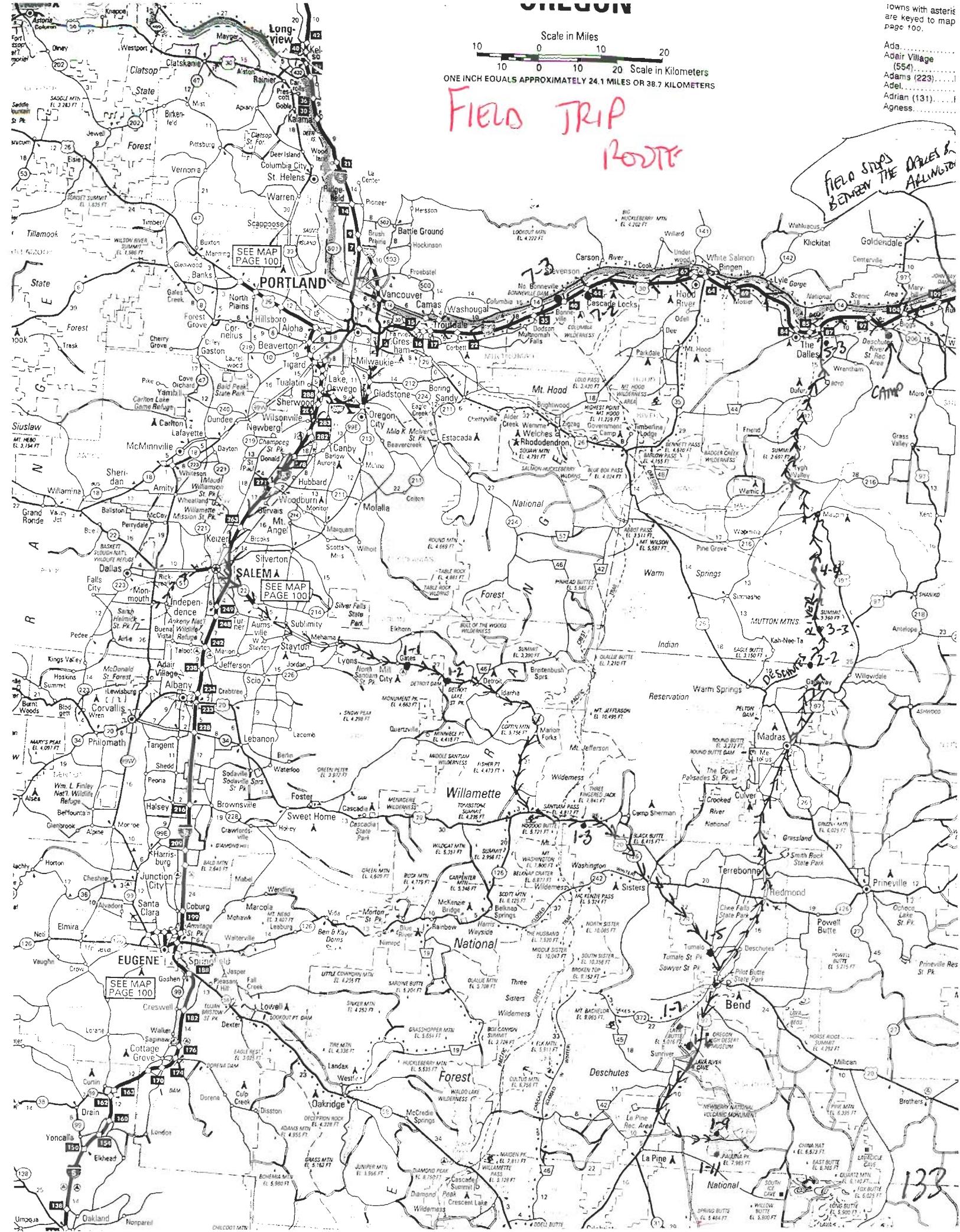
Scale in Miles

10 0 10 20 Scale in Kilometers

ONE INCH EQUALS APPROXIMATELY 24.1 MILES OR 38.7 KILOMETERS

FIELD TRIP ROUTE

field stops
BETWEEN THE DALLE &
ARLINGTON



ARE WE HAVING FUN YET??

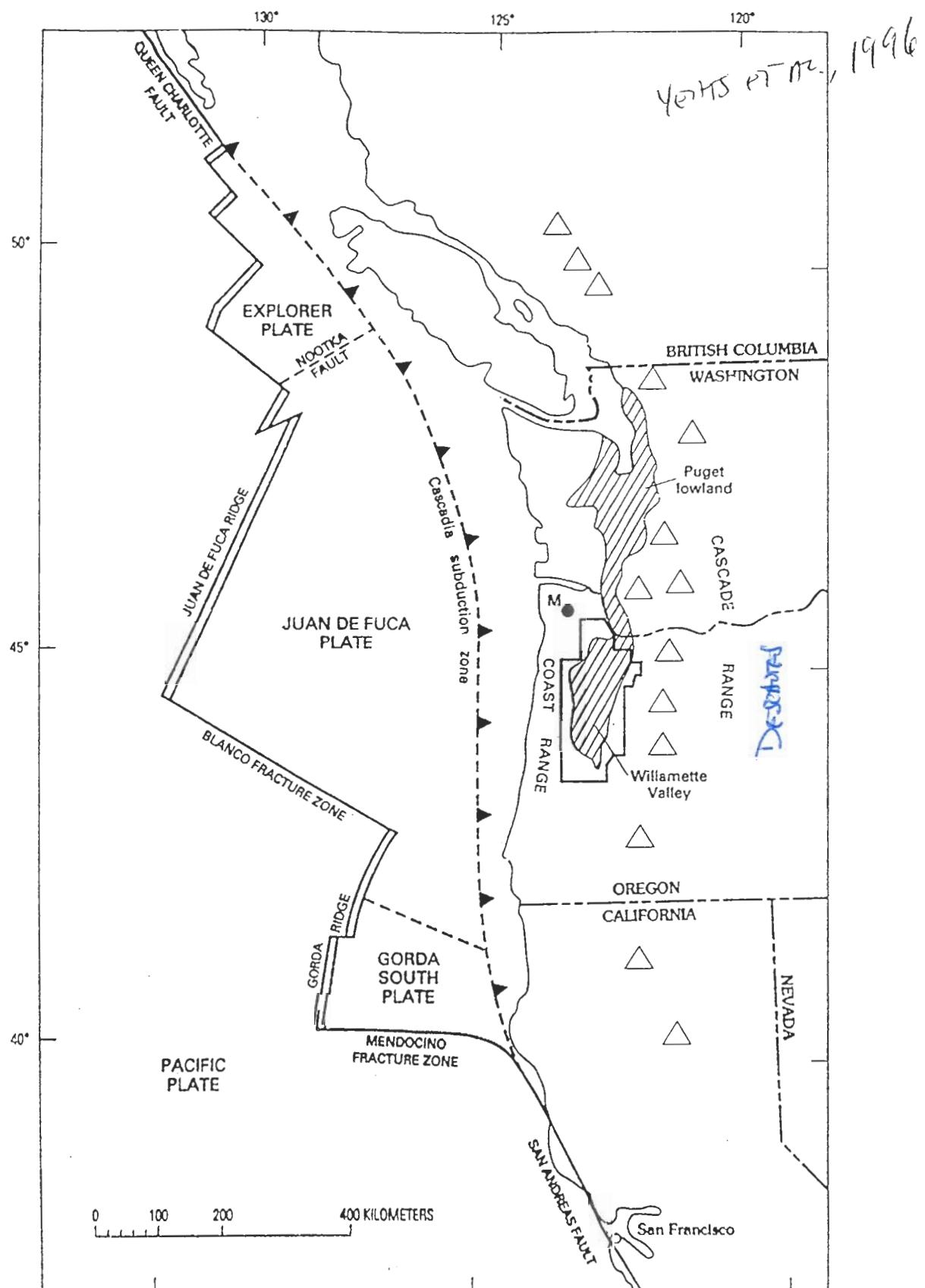
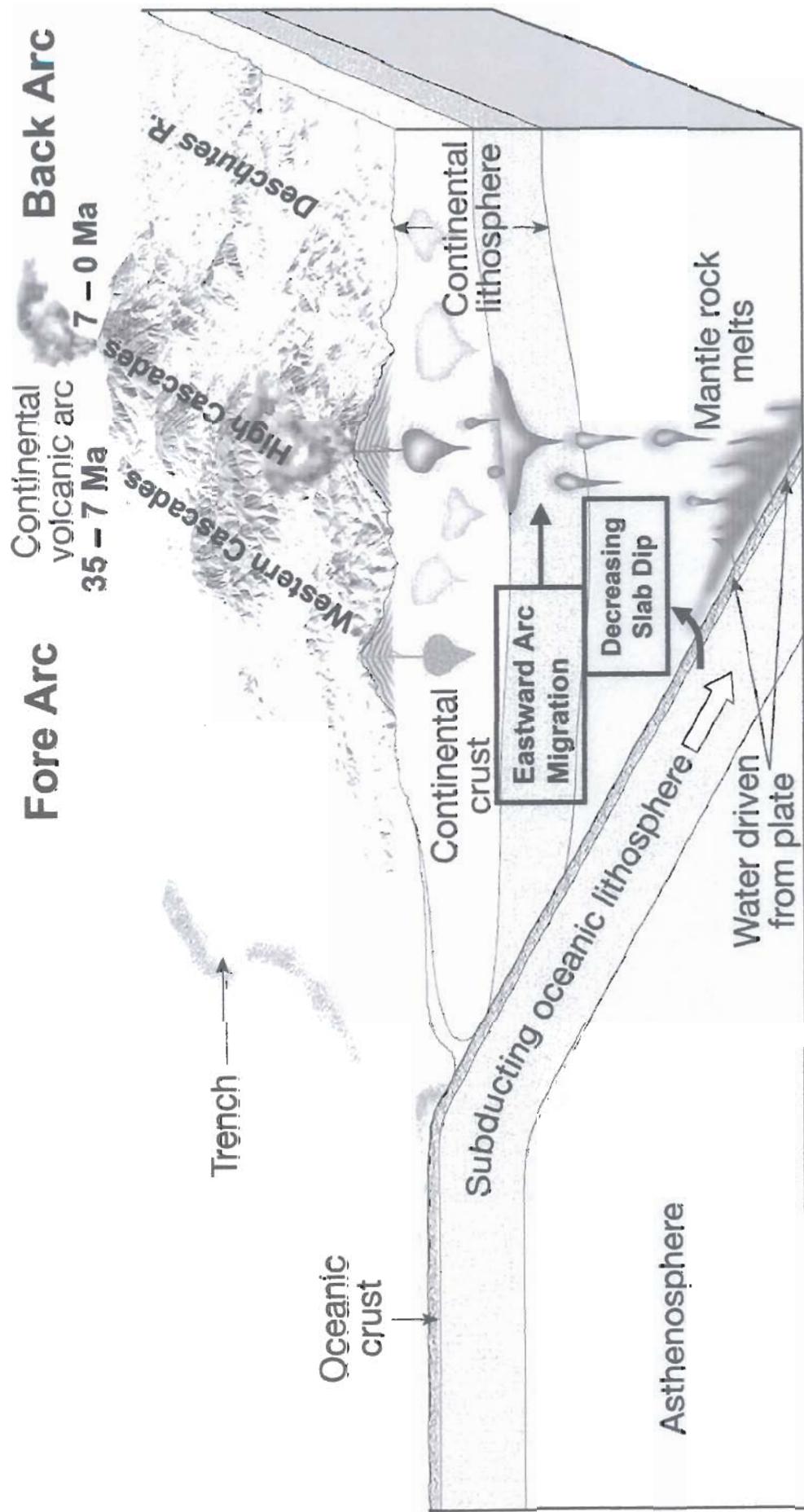


Figure 76. Plate boundaries of the Pacific Northwest showing locations of tectonic features and the Willamette Valley study area. Heavy line, study-area boundary; hatched area, Willamette Valley and Puget lowland; sawteeth denote upper plate of thrust fault. Major stratovolcanoes are shown by open triangles. Dot labeled "M" in northwestern Oregon is the Mist gas field.

133B

133B

Cascadia Subduction Zone



133B-1

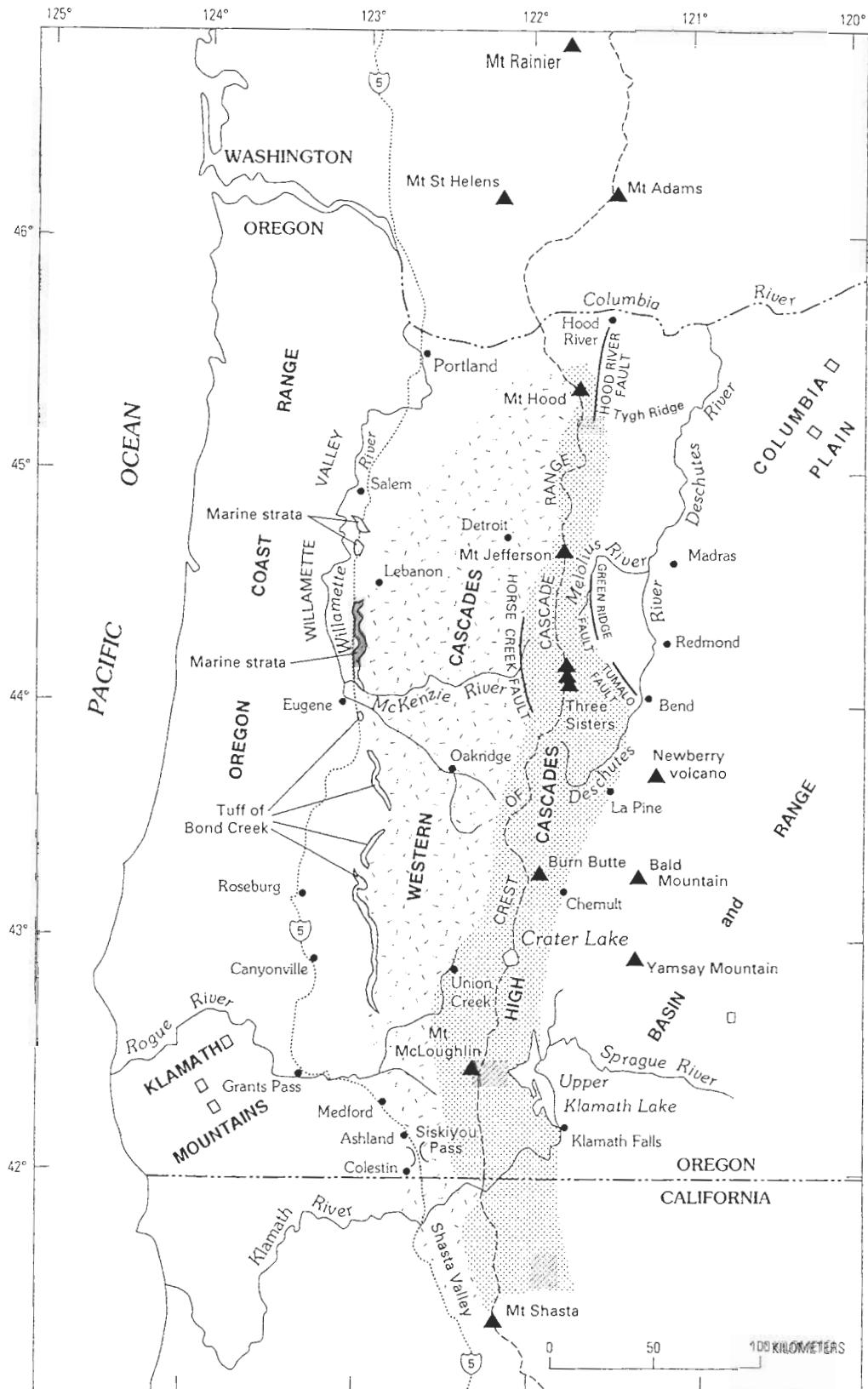


Figure 1. Index map showing geographic locations, physiographic provinces and subdivisions, and some faults and lithologic units mentioned in text. Approximate extent of Western and High Cascades (patterned areas) shown for Oregon and northern California. These two subprovince names are not used in Washington or south of Mount Shasta in California, where the Cascade Range lacks a continuous belt of upper Pliocene and Quaternary volcanic rocks.

(1) rhyolite, more than 70 percent SiO₂; (2) dacite, 62 to 70 percent SiO₂; (3) andesite, 57 to 62 percent SiO₂; (4) basalt and basaltic andesite (mafic andesite or olivine andesite of many workers), less than 57 percent SiO₂.

Ideally, it would be better to subdivide the last category into two separate groups, basalt and basaltic andesite. Maps of the major volcanoes now have such detail (see sources of mapping), and many parts of the Quaternary arc (for example, from Mount Jefferson to Columbia River) could be subdivided fairly realistically. In contrast, maps for other extensive areas (including our own early reconnaissance work) lack sufficient detail and supporting chemical analyses. Consequently the entire compositional range of basalt and basaltic andesite is shown as a single unit.

AGE

Age is another important criterion used to categorize Cascade volcanism. The choices of temporal subdivisions, while somewhat arbitrary, are based on a mixture of traditional chronostratigraphic units and the more or less instantaneous geologic events (such as magnetic reversals) that punctuate Earth's history.

Map-unit ages are based on more than 600 isotopic ages (Cascade Range in Oregon as of December, 1994). We stress, however, that this map shows geology as interpreted from field studies; lithostratigraphic relations take precedent over isotopic determinations. For example, in order to clearly depict lithologic relations with overlying and underlying units, an andesitic sequence (unit Ta₁) shown as 7 to 2 m.y. in age might include a few andesite flows whose ages are somewhat outside this interval.

The past 2 million years (defined as the Quaternary period according to Harland and others, 1982) is subdivided into shorter intervals than is the time period from 45 to 2 million years ago because of the important inverse relation between age and geothermal potential (Smith and Shaw, 1975). However, many Quaternary rocks lack isotopic age determinations. Therefore, thermal remanent magnetization and geomorphic features such as depth of erosion, topographic inversion of intracanyon lava flows, and the relative youthfulness of adjacent volcanoes were used to assign undated younger rocks to particular age divisions. Relative geomorphic youth was used effectively to date Quaternary volcanic rocks, because their volcanic landforms are locally well preserved and adjacent volcanoes of different ages may show sharp geomorphic contrasts.

The intervals chosen and reasons for selecting them are discussed below. The subscript used for each interval corresponds to the subscripts used in the Description of Map Units on map sheet 1.

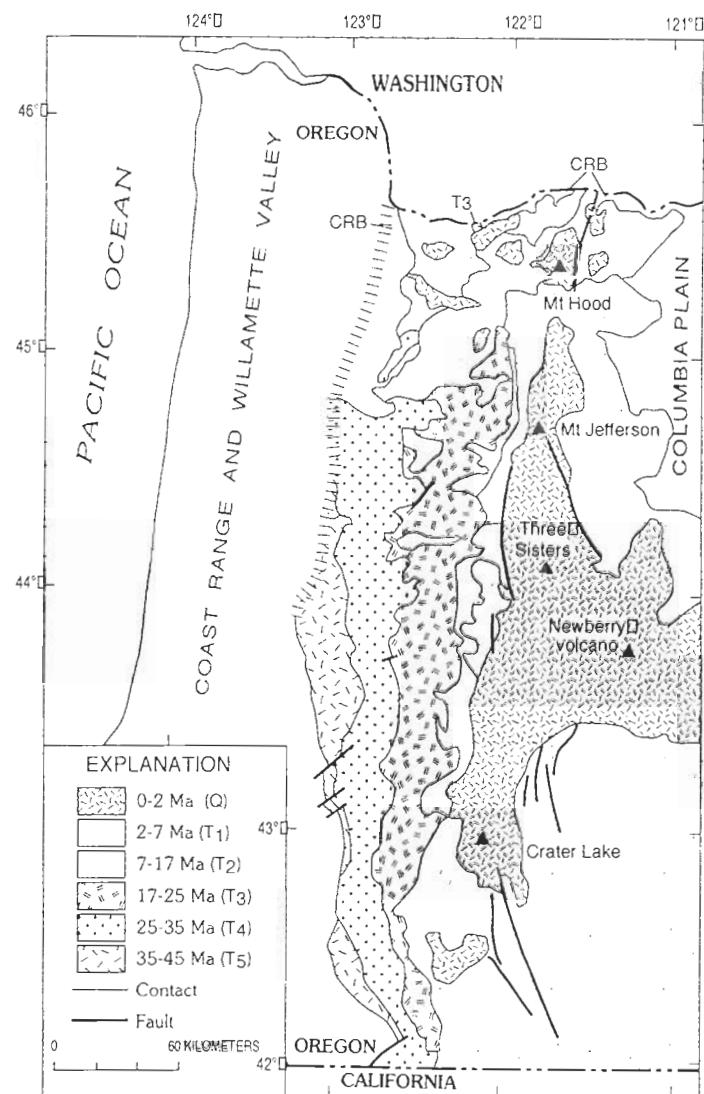


Figure 3. Generalized distribution by age of rock in Cascade Range of Oregon. Hachures on northwest side of patterned area shows limit of mapped area on map sheet 1. CRB, Columbia River Basalt Group; Ma million years before present. Symbology (Q, T₁, T₂, and so on) correspond to broad division of time as discussed in pamphlet.

Q₁, 0 to 12,000 years ago: This interval includes the entire Holocene and extends back into latest Pleistocene time to the end of the last major glaciation in the Cascade Range (Waitt and Thorson, 1983; Porter and others, 1983). Most Cascade researchers relate young volcanic deposits to glacial stratigraphic successions; thus, the 12,000-yr limit for this map unit is useful. Young volcanic deposits dated by the carbon-14 (¹⁴C) method are readily assigned to this unit.

Q₂, 12,000 to 25,000 years ago: This interval extends from the end of the last major glaciation in the Cascade Range backward to a time for which ¹⁴C ages are still fairly easily determined (although few radiometric ages in this interval

PRE-QUATERNARY STRATIGRAPHY OF THE CASCADE RANGE,
AND SURROUNDING REGION (From Sherrard and Smith, 1991)

Yonna Formation of former usage (2-7 Ma)		Ts ₁			
Troutdale Formation (2-7 Ma)		Ts ₁			
Deschutes Formation (2-7 Ma)	Tb ₁	Td ₁	Ts ₁		
Sandy River Formation (2-7 Ma)			Ts ₁		
Dalles Formation (7-17 Ma)	Ta ₂		Ts ₂		
Rhododendron Formation (7-17 Ma)	Ta ₂				
Sardine Formation (7-17 Ma)	Tb ₂	Ta ₂			
Columbia River Basalt Group	Tcu Tcl	(6-13.5 Ma) (14.5-17 Ma)			
Breitenbush Tuff (17-25 Ma)	Tb ₃	Ta ₃			
Colestin Formation (25-35 Ma)	Tb ₄	Td ₄	Ts ₄		
Little Butte Volcanics (17-25 Ma)	Tb ₃	Ta ₃	Td ₃	Tr ₃	Ts ₃
	Tb ₄	Ta ₄	Td ₄	Tr ₄	Ts ₄
John Day Formation (17-25 Ma)			Tr ₄	Ts ₃	
Eugene Formation (35-45 Ma)				Ts ₅	
Fisher Formation (35-45 Ma)	Tb ₅	Ta ₅		Ts ₅	
Spencer Formation (35-45 Ma)				Ts ₅	
Clarno Formation (35-45 Ma)		Ta ₅			

(SEE GEOLOGIC TIME SCALE
ON NEXT PAGE)



DECADE OF
NORTH AMERICAN GEOLGY
1989-1993

GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY
OF AMERICA

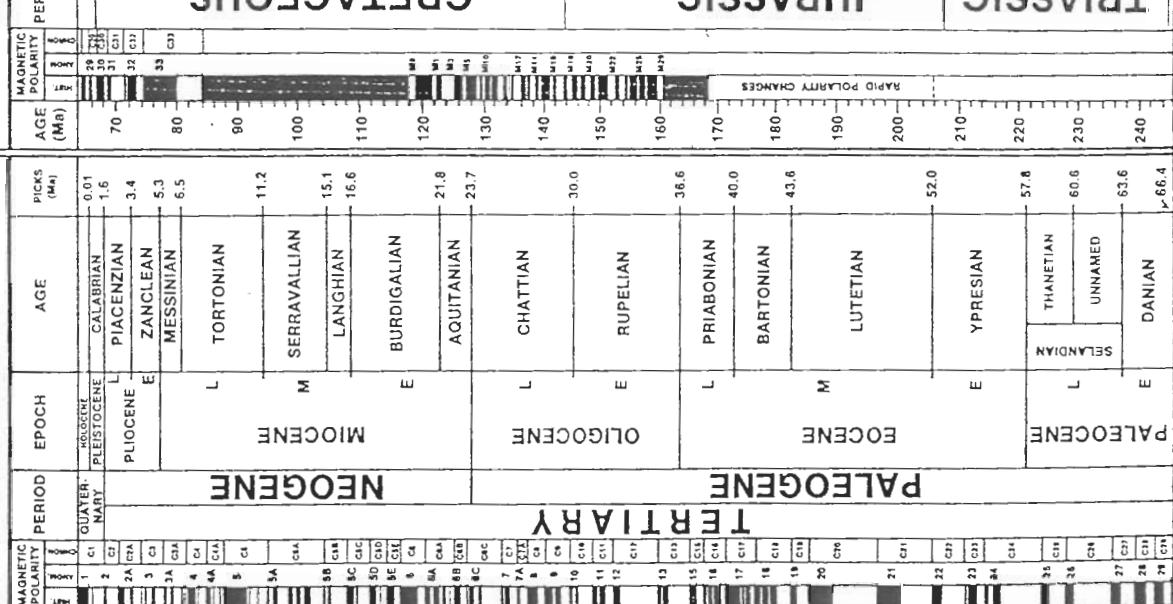
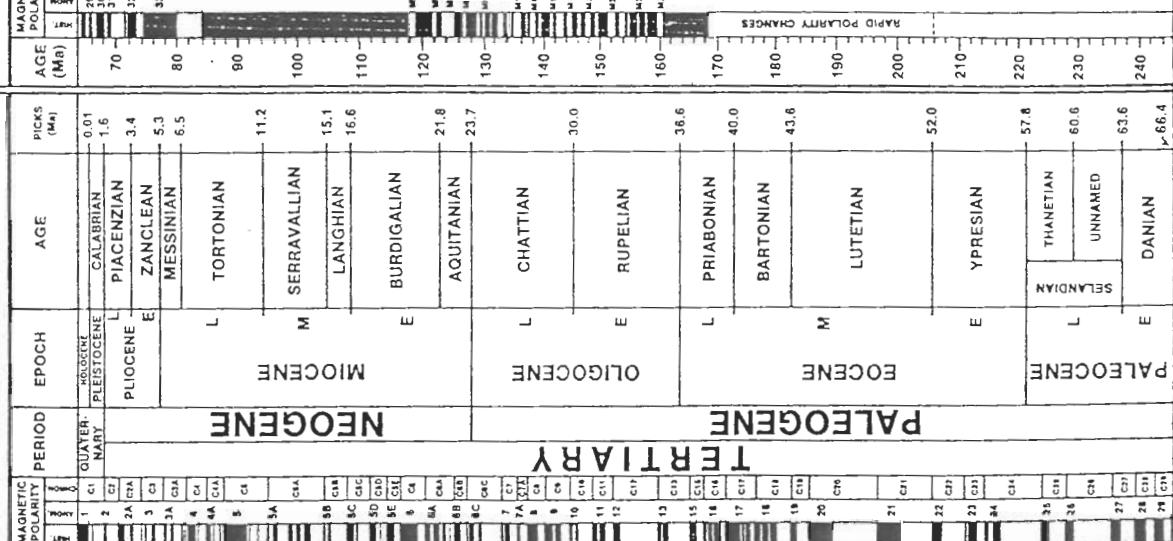
DECade of North American Geology GEOLOGIC TIME SCALE

CENOZOIC

MESOZOIC

PALEOZOIC

PRECAMBRIAN



133E

TABLE 2. DIVISIONS OF THE QUATERNARY AND THEIR BOUNDARY DATES
AS USED IN THIS VOLUME*

		Present
	Holocene (Oxygen-isotope stage 1)	
Late Pleistocene	Late Wisconsin (Oxygen-isotope stage 2)	10 to 12 ka
	Middle Wisconsin of Richmond and Fullerton (1986) (O-isotope stages 3 and 4)	~28 ka
	Late Sangamon (Early Wisconsin and Eowisconsin of Richmond and Fullerton, 1986; O-isotope stages 5a-5d)	~71 ka
	Sangamon of Richmond and Fullerton (1986) (O-isotope stage 5e)	~115 ka
Middle Pleistocene	Late-Middle Pleistocene (Illinoian of Richmond and Fullerton, 1986; O-isotope stages 6-8)	~128 ka†
	Middle-Middle Pleistocene of Richmond and Fullerton (1986) (O-isotope stages 9-15)	~300 ka
	Early-Middle Pleistocene (Richmond and Fullerton, 1986) (O-isotope stages 16-19)	~620 ka§
	(Matuyama-Brunhes Chronozone boundary)	750-775 ka**
Early Pleistocene		
<input type="checkbox"/> Upper boundary of Olduvai Subchron <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> or <input type="checkbox"/> Gauss-Matuyama Chron boundary		1.65 Ma 2.48 Ma
Pliocene		
5.0-5.5 Ma‡		
Miocene		

OCCULTAN

Ht =
1.68m

PAGE
36f+/15 steps

Length

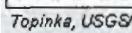
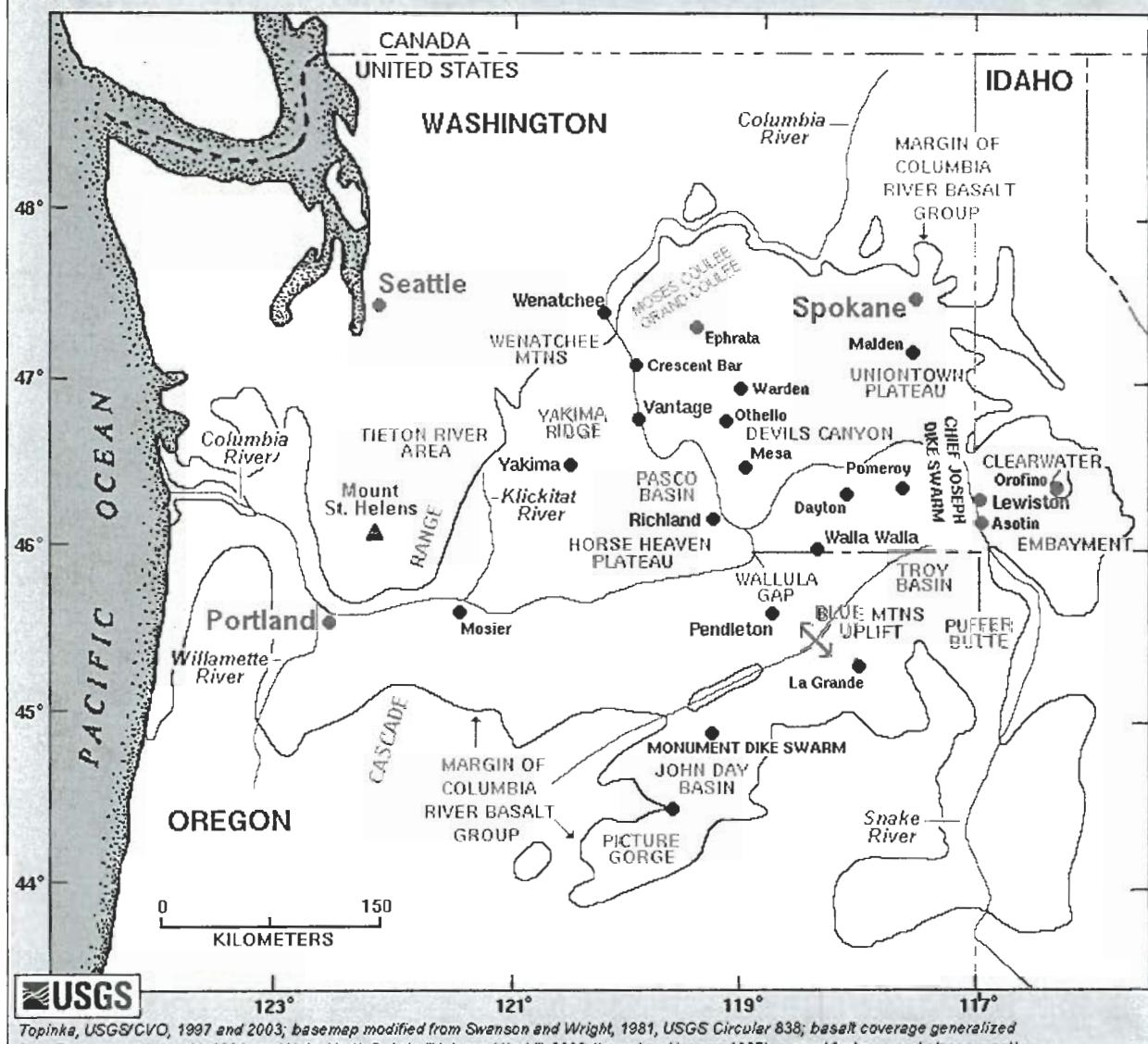
Unit	Equivalent ^{1,2}					
	millimeters	inches	feet	meters	kilometers	miles
millimeters	1	3.937×10^{-2}	3.281×10^{-3}	1×10^{-4}	1×10^{-6}	6.214×10^{-7}
inches	25.4	1	8.33×10^{-2}	2.54×10^{-2}	2.54×10^{-4}	1.578×10^{-5}
feet	304.8	12	1	0.3048	3.048×10^{-4}	1.894×10^{-5}
meters	1,000	39.37	3.281	1	1×10^{-3}	6.214×10^{-4}
kilometers	1×10^3	3.937×10^4	3,281	1,000	1	0.6214
miles	1.609×10^3	6.336×10^4	5,280	1,609	1.609	1

Area

Unit	Equivalent ^{1,2}						
	square inches	square feet	square meters	acres	hectares	square kilometers	square miles
square inches	1	6.944×10^{-3}	6.452×10^{-4}	1.394×10^{-8}	6.452×10^{-8}	6.452×10^{-10}	2.491×10^{-10}
square feet	144	1	9.29×10^{-2}	2.396×10^{-5}	9.29×10^{-5}	9.29×10^{-7}	3.587×10^{-7}
square meters	1.550	10.76	1	2.471×10^{-2}	1×10^{-4}	1×10^{-6}	3.861×10^{-7}
acres	6.273×10^6	4.356×10^4	4,047	1	0.4047	4.047×10^{-3}	1.563×10^{-3}
hectares	1.55×10^7	1.076×10^5	1×10^4	2,471	1	0.01	3.861×10^{-3}

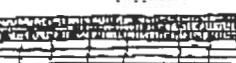
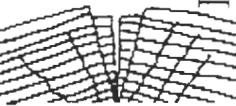
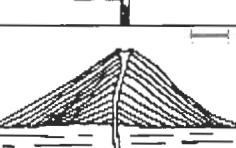
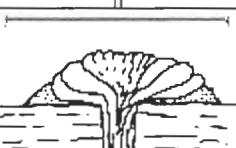
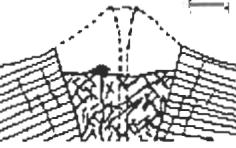
133F-1

Columbia Plateau Features



Topinka, USGS/CVO, 1997 and 2003; basemap modified from Swanson and Wright, 1981, USGS Circular 838; basalt coverage generalized from Swanson and Wright, 1981, and Univ. North Dakota "Volcano World", 2002 (based on Hooper, 1997); named features and places mostly from Swanson and Wright, 1981.

Types of Volcanoes

Increasing Violence Increasing Viscosity	Volcano Type	Characteristics	Examples	Simplified Diagram
	Flood or Plateau Basalt	Very liquid lava; flows very widespread; emitted from fractures	Columbia River Plateau	
	Shield Volcano	Liquid lava emitted from a central vent; large; sometimes has a collapse caldera	Larch Mountain, Mount Sylvania, Highland Butte, Hawaiian volcanoes	
	Cinder Cone	Explosive liquid lava; small; emitted from a central vent; if continued long enough, may build up a shield volcano	Mount Tabor, Mount Zion, Chamberlain Hill, Pilot Butte, Lava Butte, Craters of the Moon	
	Composite or Stratovolcano	More viscous lavas, much explosive (pyroclastic) debris; large, emitted from a central vent	Mount Baker, Mount Rainier, Mount St. Helens, Mount Hood, Mount Shasta	
	Volcanic Dome	Very viscous lava; relatively small; can be explosive; commonly occurs adjacent to craters of composite volcanoes	Novarupta, Mount St. Helens Lava Dome, Mount Lassen, Shastina, Mono Craters	
	Caldera	Very large composite volcano collapsed after an explosive period; frequently associated with plug domes	Crater Lake, Newberry, Kilauea, Long Valley, Medicine Lake, Yellowstone	



Topinka, USGS/CVO, 1997, Modified from: Allen, 1975, Volcanoes of the Portland Area, Oregon, Ore-Bin, v.37, no.9

Stratigraphic Subdivision of Columbia River Basalt Group (CRBG)

SERIES	GROUP	SUB-GROUP	FORMATION (Age, Volume, % of CRBG)	MEMBER	MAG*
Miocene	Columbia River Basalt Group	Yakima Basalt SubGroup	Saddle Mountain Basalt (14–6 Ma, 2,400 km ³ volume, 1.5% of CRBG)	Lower Monumental Member	N
				Ice Harbor Member	N,R
				Buford Member	R
				Elephant Mountain Member	R,T
				Pomona Member	R
				Esquatzel Member	N
				Weissenfels Ridge Member	N
				Asotin Member	N
				Wilbur Creek Member	N
				Umatilla Member	N
Wanapum Basalt		Priest Rapids Member	R3		
(15.5–14.5 Ma, 10,800 km ³ volume, 6.0% of CRBG)		Roza Member	T,R		
Grande Ronde Basalt		Frenchman Springs Member	N2		
(17–15.5 Ma, 151,700 km ³ , 87%)		Eckler Mountain Member	N2		
Picture Gorge Basalt			R2		
Imnaha Basalt			N1		
(17.5–17 Ma, 9,500 km ³ volume, 5.5% of CRBG)			R1		
			T		
			N0		
			R0		

* Magnetic Polarity:

N, normal; R, reversed; T, transitional; subscripts denote magnetostratigraphic units



Topinka, USGS/CVO, 1997, Modified from: Swanson, et.al., 1989, AGU Field Trip Guidebook F106