

Economic Geology: Lecture Notes

Assembled by:

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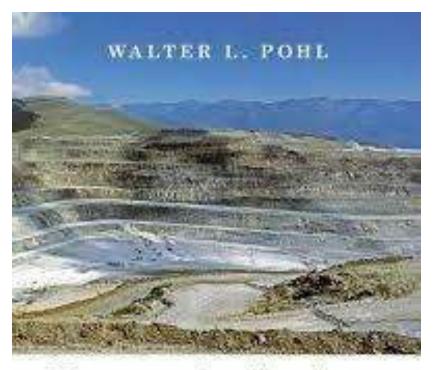
Applied Mineralogy and Building Materials Research Group

Ain Shams University

Geology of Economic Ores			
Course Code	G322	Credit hour system-Level 3	
Teaching Material	Economic Geology: Lecture Notes	Text book and PPT (available at Researchgate)	
Starting Date	Week begins 09/02/2019	Lecture Hall	
End Date	Week begins 02/05/2019	Lecture Hall	

Course Evaluation			
Evaluation mode	Evaluation Marks	Evaluation date	Evaluation Procedure
Semester Work	10	All over the course	Lecture discussionPractical discussionGroup workQuizzes
Oral Examination	5	Week begins 04/05/2019	Written Sheet
Practical Examination	25	Week begins 04/05/2019	Sample Identification
Final theoretical written exam	60	Week begins 25/05/2019	Written Paper Exam
Total	100		

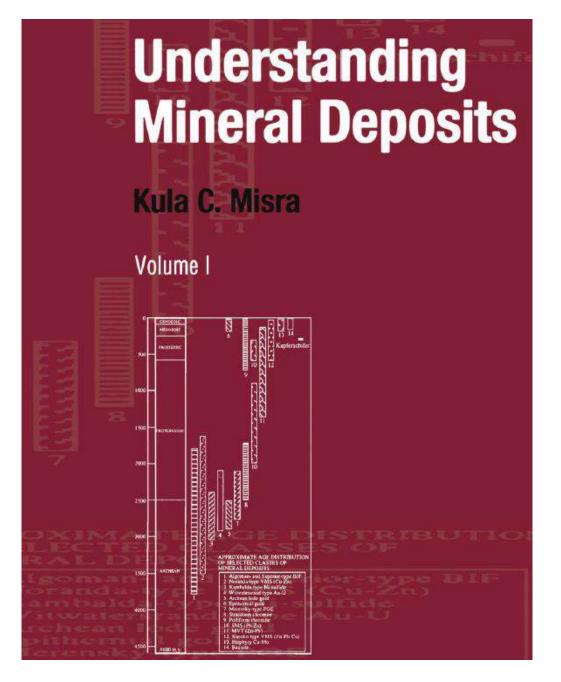
Additional Text Books



Economic Geology
Principles and Practice



Economic Geology Principles and Practice Metals, Minerals, Coal and Hydrocarbons – Introduction to Formation and Sustainable Exploitation of Mineral Deposits, Walter L. Pohl ©2011 Walter L. Pohl. Published 2011 by Blackwell Publishing Ltd.



Understanding Mineral Deposits, Kula C. Misra ©2000 by Springer.

Harald G. Dill (2010): The "chessboard" classification scheme of mineral deposits: Mineralogy and geology from aluminum to zirconium. Review Article Earth-Science Reviews, Volume 100, Issues 1–4, June 2010, Pages 1-420

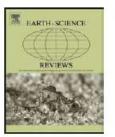
Earth-Science Reviews 100 (2010) 1-420



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

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journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/earscirev



The "chessboard" classification scheme of mineral deposits: Mineralogy and geology from aluminum to zirconium

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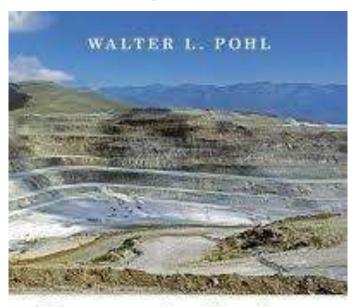
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Group work-1



Economic Geology

Principles and Practice

WILEY-BLACKWELL

2.1	The Iron and Steel Metals		149	
	2.1.1	Iron	149	
	2.1.2	Manganese	159	
	2.1.3	Chromium	163	
	2.1.4	Nickel	168	
	2.1.5	Cobalt	173	
	2.1.6	Molybdenum	175	
	2.1.7	Tungsten (Wolfram)	179	
	2.1.8	Vanadium	183	

Group work-2

Harald G. Dill (2010): <u>The "chessboard" classification scheme</u> of mineral deposits: <u>Mineralogy and geology from aluminum to zirconium</u>. Review Article *Earth-Science Reviews, Volume 100, Issues 1–4, June 2010, Pages 1-420*

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The "chessboard" classification scheme of mineral deposits: Mineralogy and geology from aluminum to zirconium

Harald G. Dill

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Geology of Economic Ores

Knowledge of the basic information on Economic minerals and under-standing the concept of ore formation processes and distribution of ores in time and space. Through achieving the followings:

Course Objective

- Understanding the ore forming processes.
- Recognizing the abundance and distribution of minerals deposits related to plate tectonics, the relationship between ore-forming processes and the ore distribution.
- Be aware of the behavior of ore-bearing metals during magmatic crystallization, weathering and metamorphism.

Our Course



Our Course



Lecture One: Basics

Lecture Contents

- I. What is the structure of the Earth?
- II. Plate tectonics
- **III. Types of Plate Boundary**
- IV. Plate Tectonics vs. Geological Processes
- V. Magma.



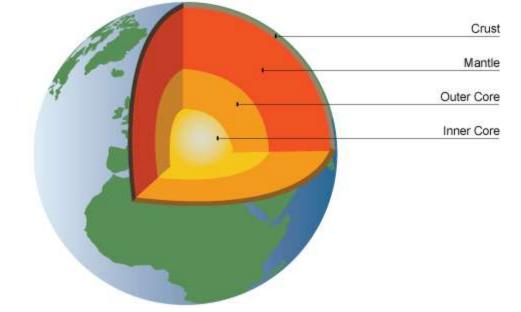
I. What is the structure of the Earth?

The Earth is an irregular sphere, with a radius that varies between 6,356 and 6,378 km. This solid sphere is chemically divided into layers that become less dense from the centre towards the surface.

The three main layers are:

- (i) the Core (which comprises an Inner Core and an Outer Core);
- (ii) the Mantle, and
- (iii) the Crust.

Each layer has a distinctive chemical composition, and a different density.



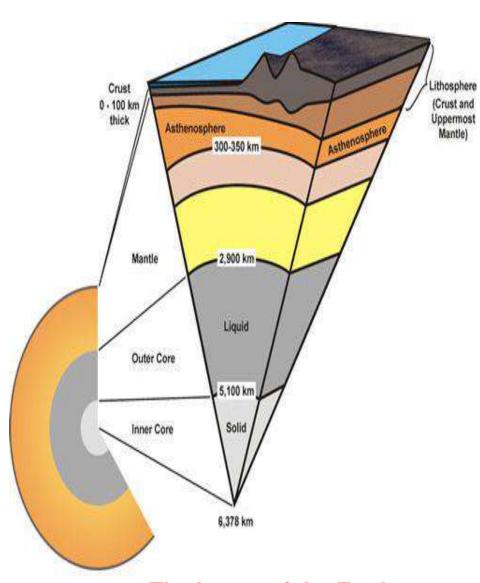


The core is primarily solid composed of the heavy elements iron and nickel. The outer core is made of molten iron, which produces the Earth's magnetic field.

The mantle is less-dense than the core. The mantle extends to a depth of about 2,900 km. The mantle is rich in iron- and magnesium-bearing silicate minerals.

The outer layer of the Earth is termed the crust, which is divided into oceanic crust and continental crust. Overall, continental crust is richer in the element silica, and is less dense, than oceanic crust.

- Oceanic crust (about 10 km thick) is composed of ron-, magnesium-, calcium- and aluminium-rich silicate minerals that typically form a dark colored, heavy rock called basalt.
- Continental crust (about 20 60 km thick) is composed of potassium-, sodium-, and aluminium-rich silicate minerals that form a diverse range of rock types such as granite.



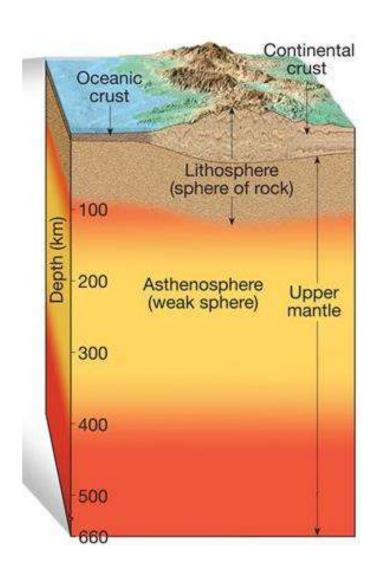
The layers of the Earth.

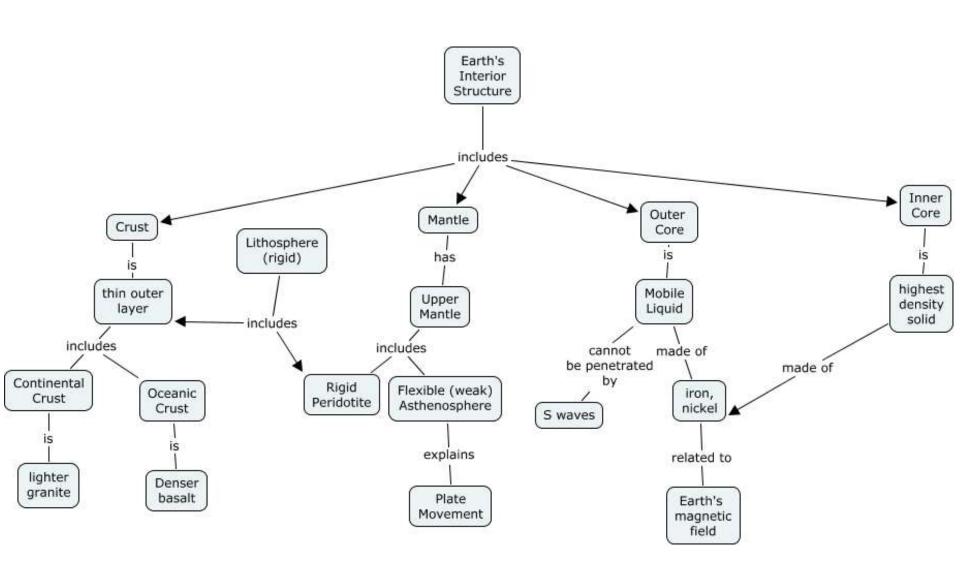
Oceanic Crust

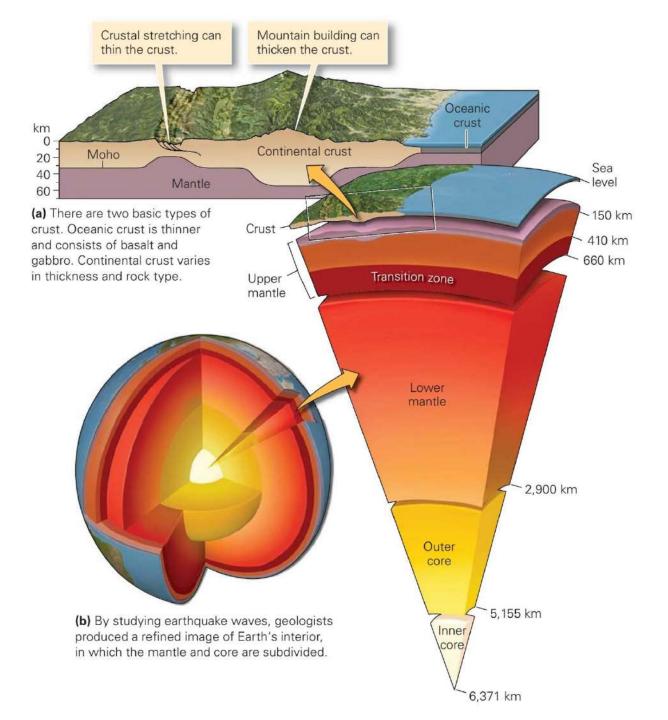
- primarily basalt
- 4-7 km thickness (thin relative to continental crust)
- denser (heavier) than continental crust

Continental Crust

- primarily granite
- 20-70 km thickness
- less dense (will not undergo subduction)







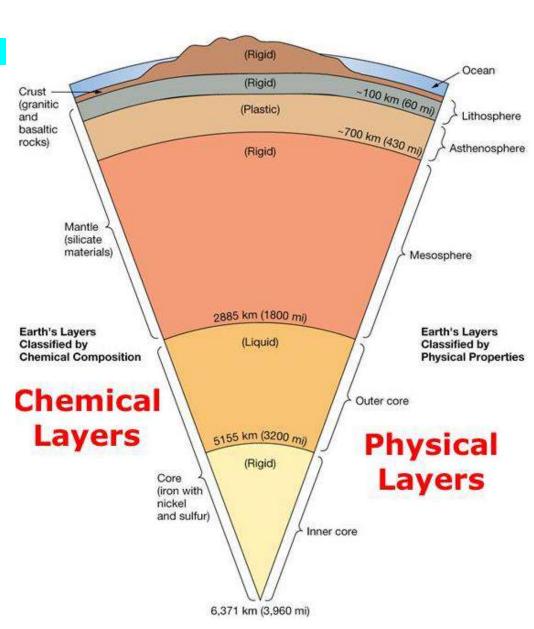
Dynamic Structure of the Earth

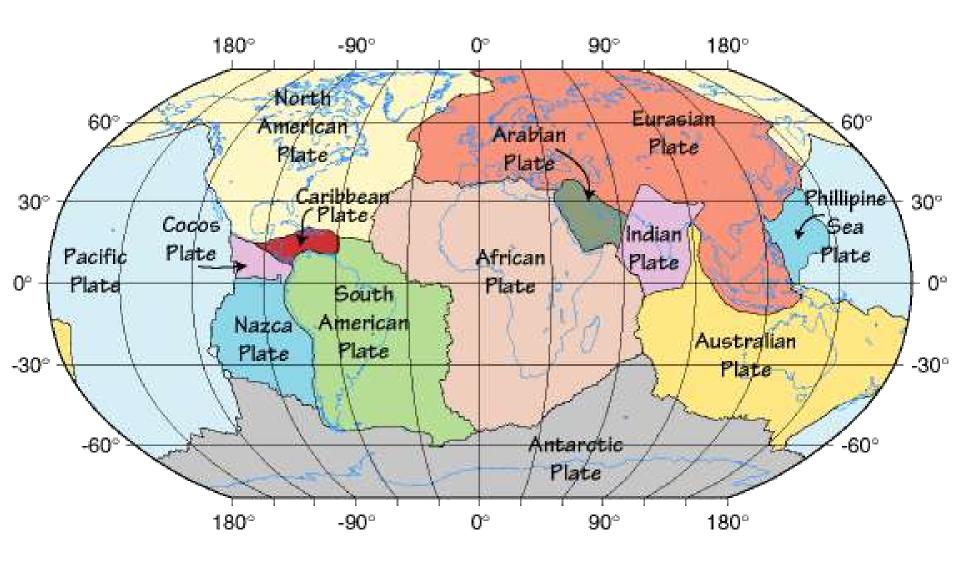
The Earth consists of series of concentric layers which differ in chemical and physical properties.

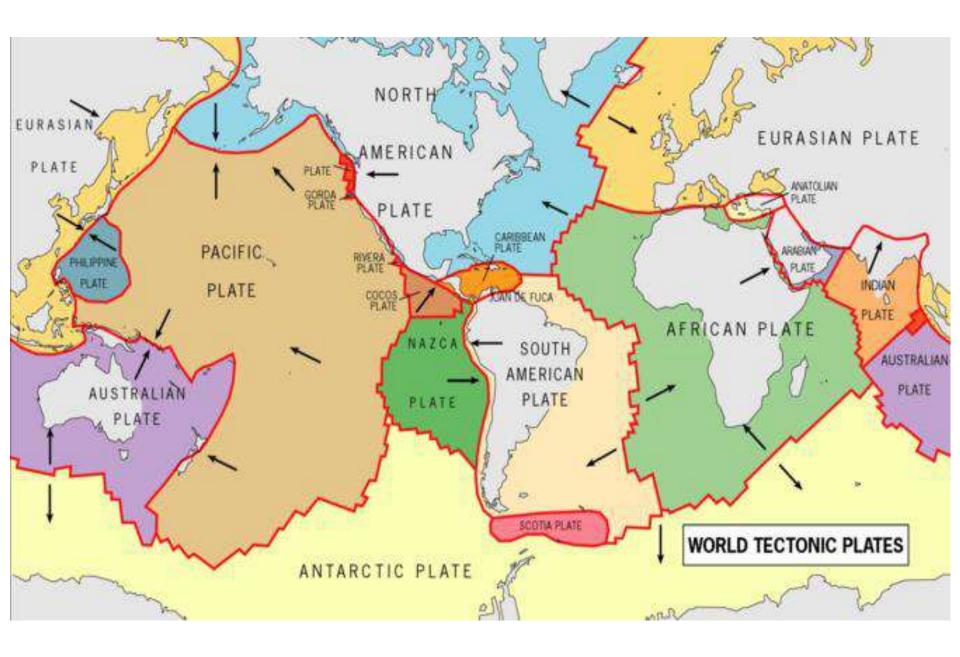
The crust and upper part of the mantle of the Earth is further subdivided into the lithosphere and the asthenosphere.

The lithosphere is a strong layer, extending to a depth of 100 to 150 km, that comprises the crust and part of the upper mantle (the upper rigid part). The lithosphere is separated into seven large plates, and several smaller plates.

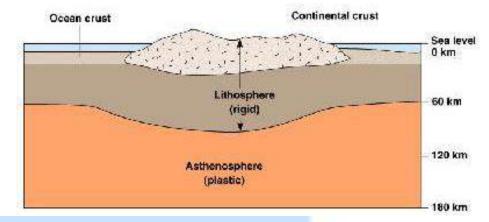
These plates, which terminate at different types of plate boundary, move over the underlying asthenosphere.

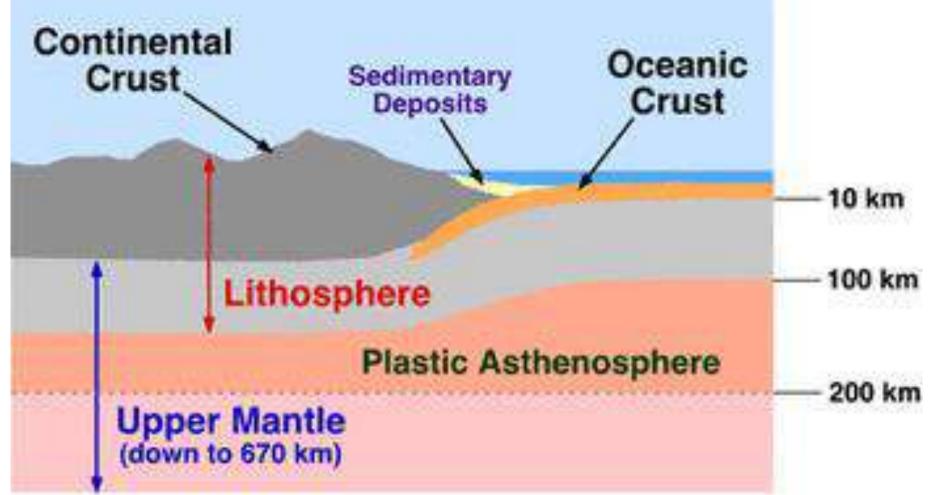




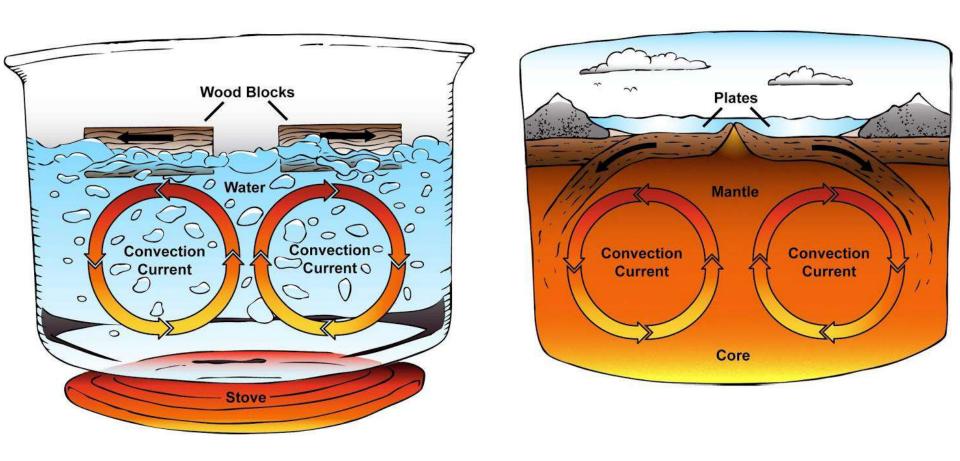


The asthenosphere (the middle part of the mantle - plastic, i.e., semi-liquid and ductile) is a weaker layer, upon which the lithospheric plates move, and from which magmas that form the oceanic crust are derived.





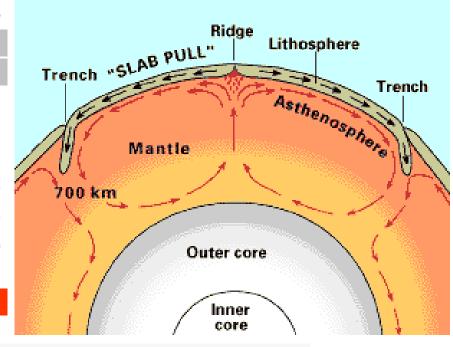
Heat from the Earth's core creates circulation patterns (i.e., convection currents) in the mantle drive the motions of the overlying plates. The slow movement of the lithospheric plates over the mobile asthenosphere is known as plate tectonics, a process that maintains the surface of the Earth in a dynamic and active state.

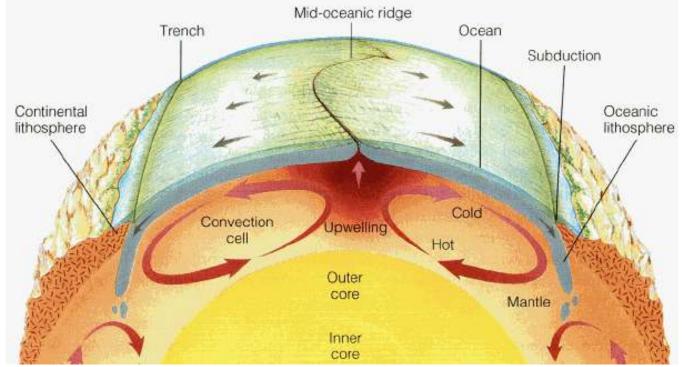


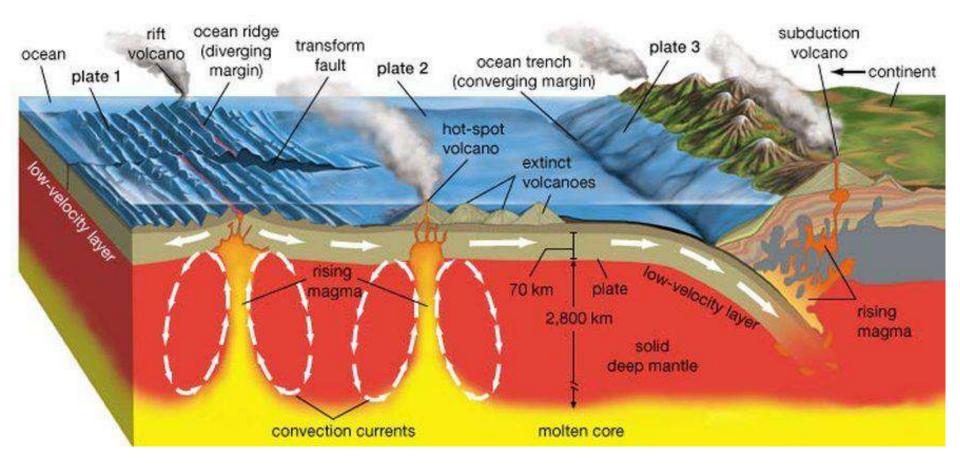
Convection: is the process in which energy is transferred through a material with any bulk motion of its particles. Convection is common in fluids.

Convection currents in the asthenosphere transfer heat to the surface, where plumes of less dense magma break apart the plates at the spreading centers, creating divergent plate boundaries.

As the plates move away from the spreading centers, they cool, and the higher density basalt rocks that make up ocean crust get consumed at the ocean trenches/subduction zones. The crust is recycled back into the asthenosphere.







Because ocean plates are denser than continental plates, when these two types of plates converge, the ocean plates are subducted beneath the continental plates. Subduction zones and trenches are convergent margins. The collision of plates is often accompanied by earthquakes and volcanoes.

INSIDE THE EARTH

II. Plate tectonics

<u>Plate tectonics</u> (previously known as continental drift) originated from the geographical observation that the coastal profiles of **South America and Africa seem to fit one another.**

First proposed by <u>Alfred Wegener</u> in the 1920s, the crust was imagined to be made up of continent-sized slabs that "float" on a liquid layer and thus "drift" around.

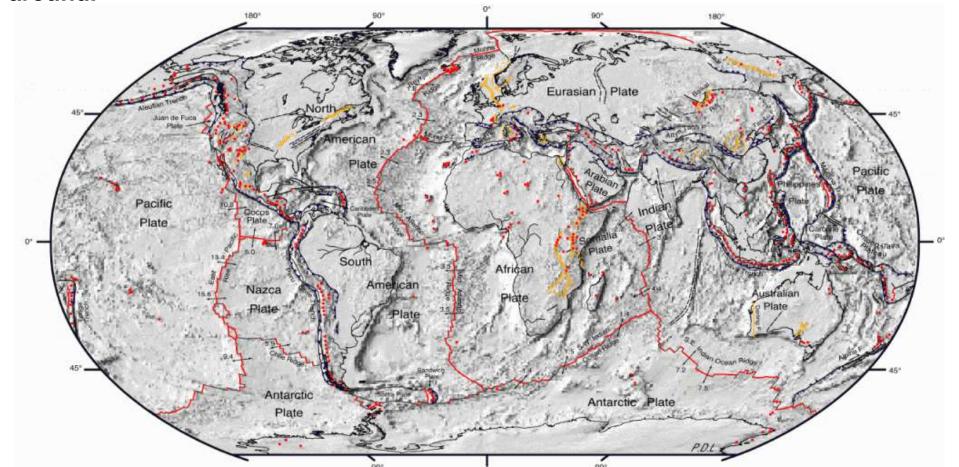
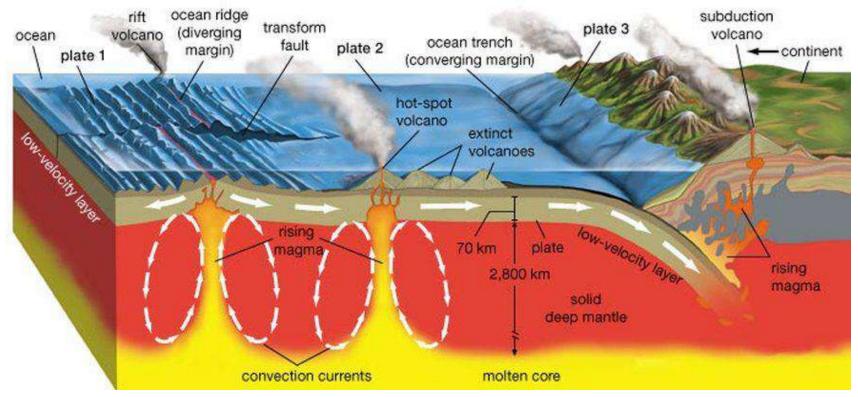
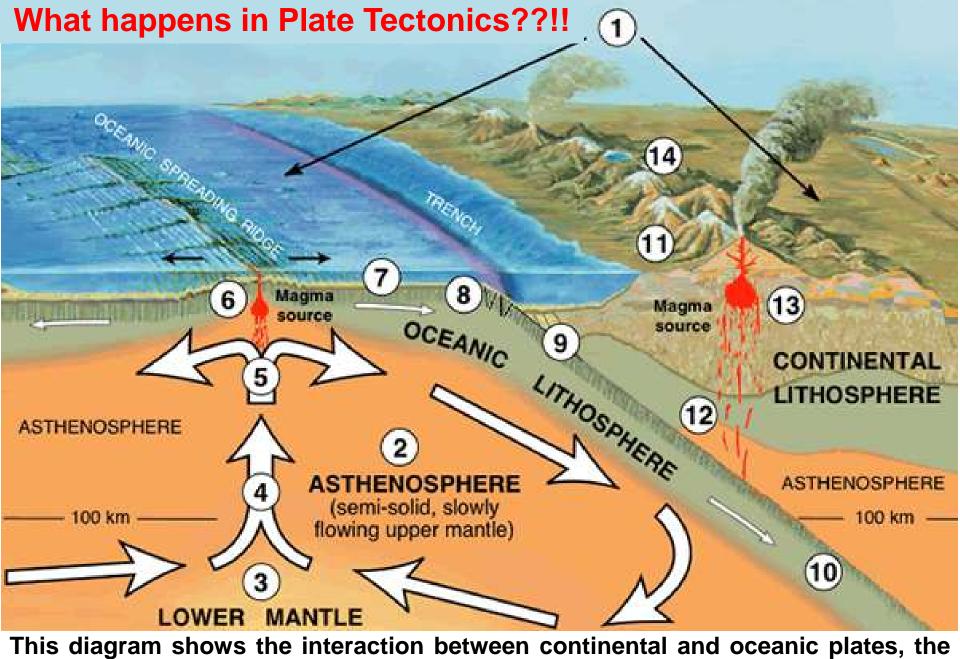


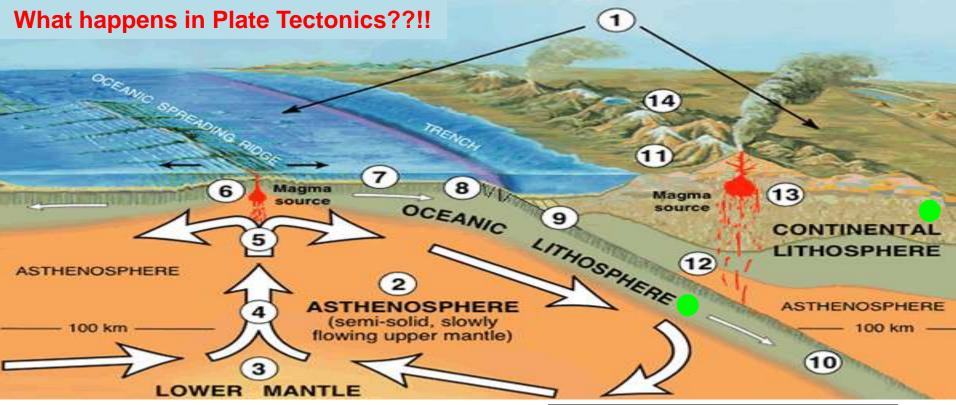
Plate tectonics, appeared in the 1960s when the mid-Atlantic ridge was discovered, along which injection rock material caused "spreading" and consequently leaving parallel north-south trending stripes of injected rock, the youngest of which was adjacent to the injection ridge and the oldest farthest from it.

The plate tectonics solution to the seafloor spreading dilemma was the proposition that new crustal mass created by injection must be compensated by "subduction", the diving of ocean crust (more dense) under opposing continental plates (less dense). Subduction zones and trenches are convergent margins. The collision of plates is often accompanied by earthquakes and volcanoes.

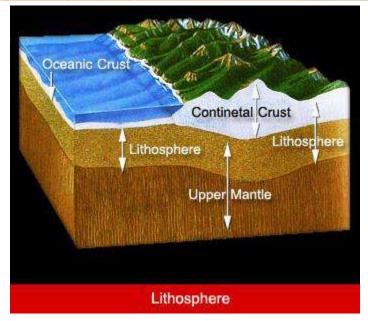


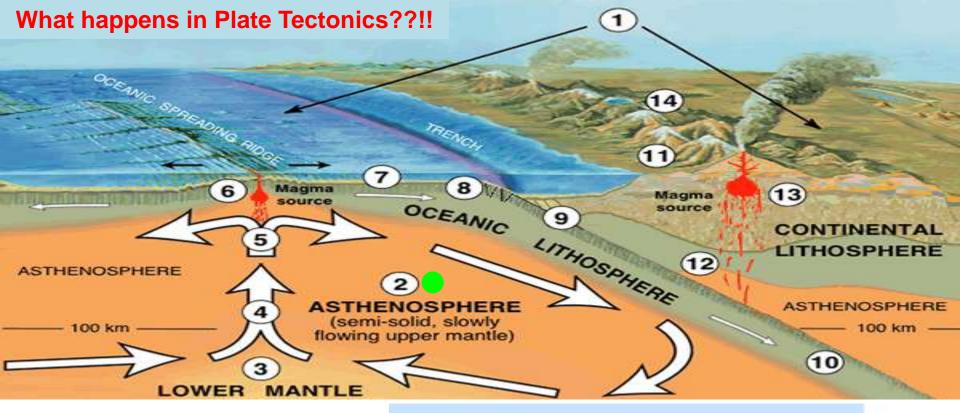


processes illustrated generally apply for the interaction between two oceanic plates.

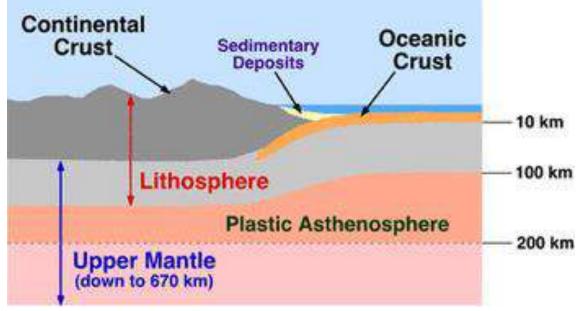


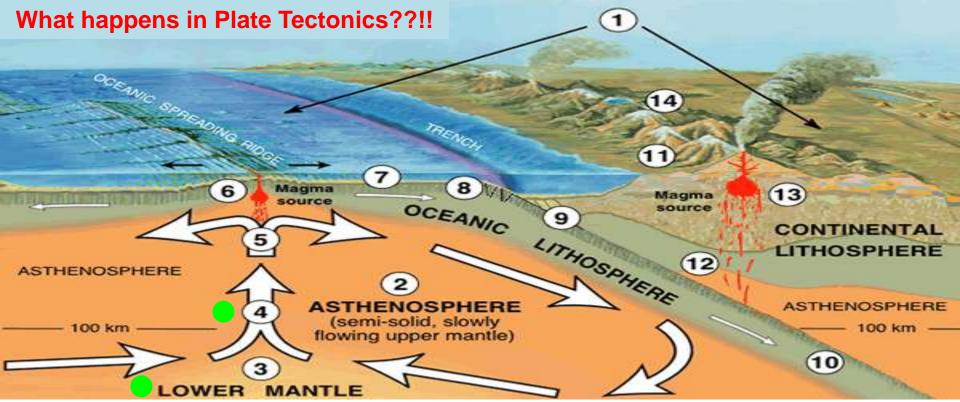
1. There are two basic types of LITHOSPHERE: CONTINENTAL lithosphere has a low density because it is made of relatively light-weight minerals. OCEANIC lithosphere is denser because it is composed of heavier minerals. A plate may be made up entirely of oceanic or continental lithosphere, but most are partly oceanic and partly continental.



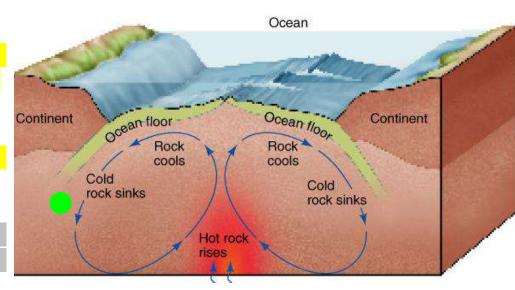


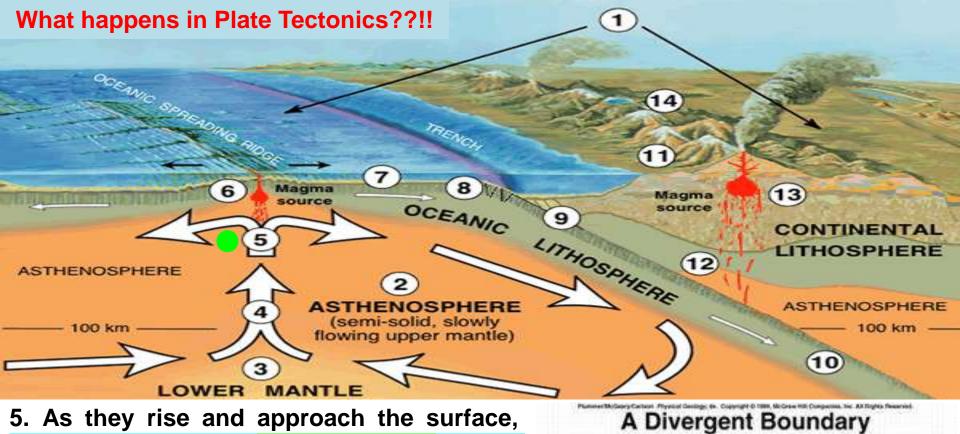
2. Beneath the lithospheric lies the plates ASTHENOSPHERE, a layer of mantle composed the rock semi-solid denser Because the plates are less dense than the asthenosphere them, beneath they are floating top on of the asthenosphere.





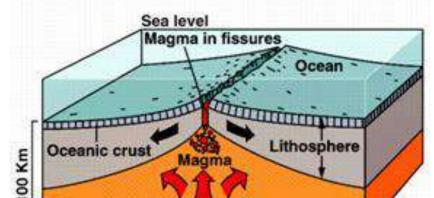
- 3. Deep within the asthenosphere the pressure and temperature are so high that the rock can soften and partly melt. The softened dense rock can flow very slowly. Because of the temperature instabilities near the core/mantle boundary, slowly moving convection currents are formed within the semi-solid asthenosphere.
- 4. Once formed, convection currents bring hot material from deeper within the mantle up toward the surface.





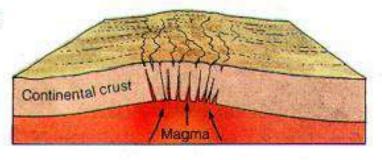
5. As they rise and approach the surface, convection currents diverge يفك عنه at the base of the lithosphere. The diverging currents exert a tension or "pull" on the solid plate above it.

Tension and high heat flow weakens the floating, solid plate, causing it to break apart. The two sides of the now-split plate then move away from each other, forming a DIVERGENT PLATE BOUNDARY.

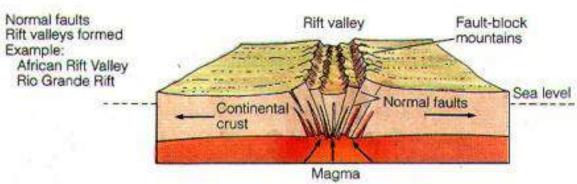


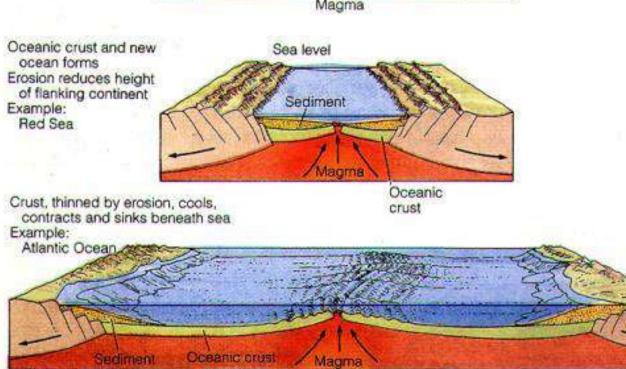
Asthenosphere

Uplift of a broad area Dikes introduced Crust heated and expanded Example: Colorado Plateau

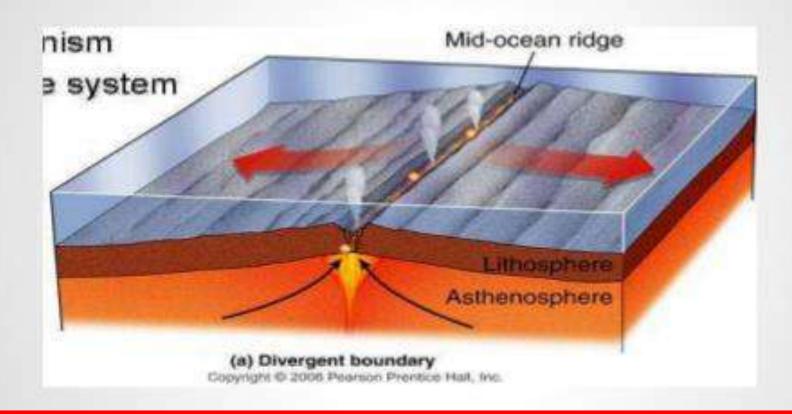


Continental divergent plate boundary leads to the formation of rift.

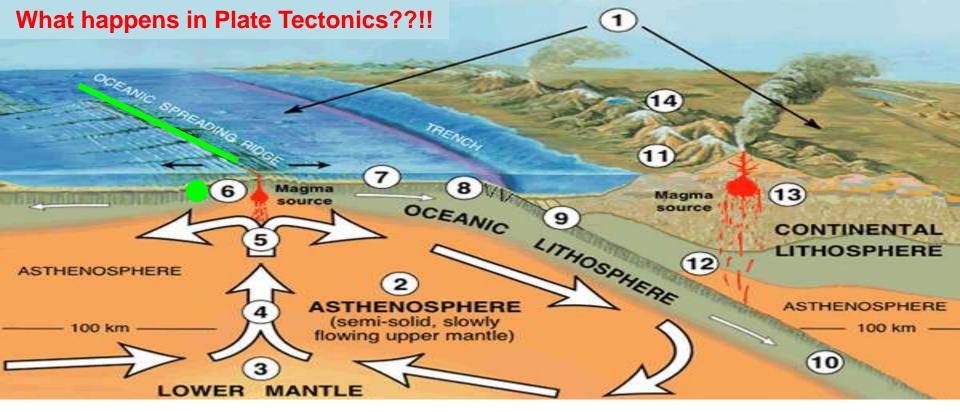




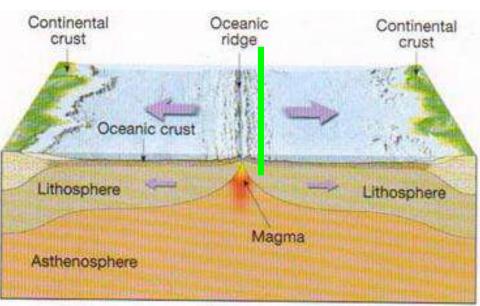
Oceanic - Oceanic

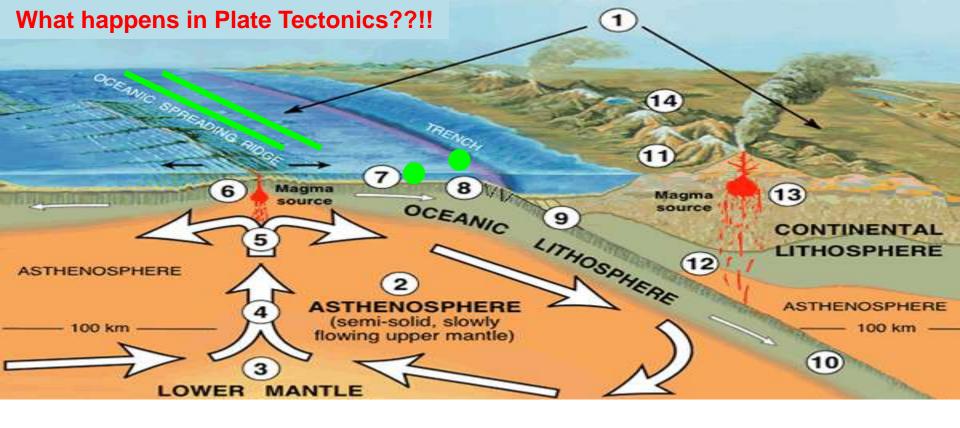


oceanic - oceanic divergent plate boundary form Mid ocean ridge

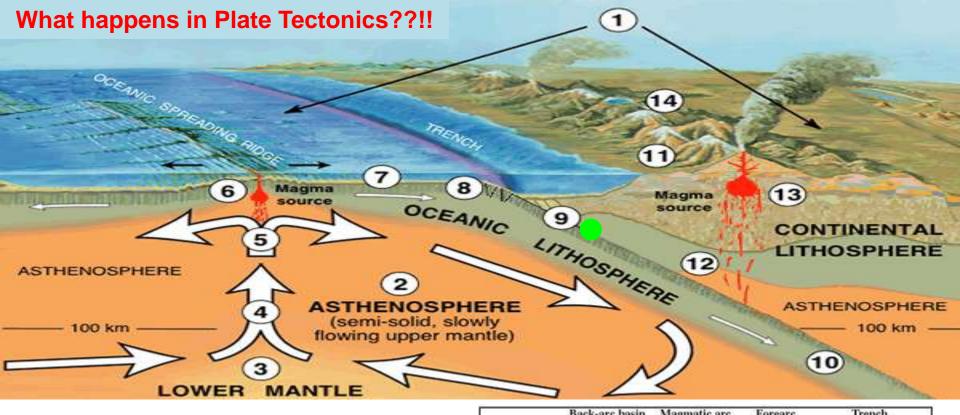


plates is filled with molten rocks (magma) from below. Contact with seawater cools the magma, which quickly solidifies, forming new oceanic lithosphere. This continuous process, operating over millions of years, builds a chain of submarine volcanoes and rift valleys called a MID-OCEAN RIDGE or an OCEANIC SPREADING RIDGE.

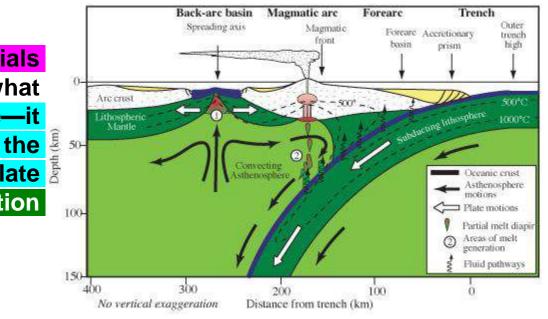


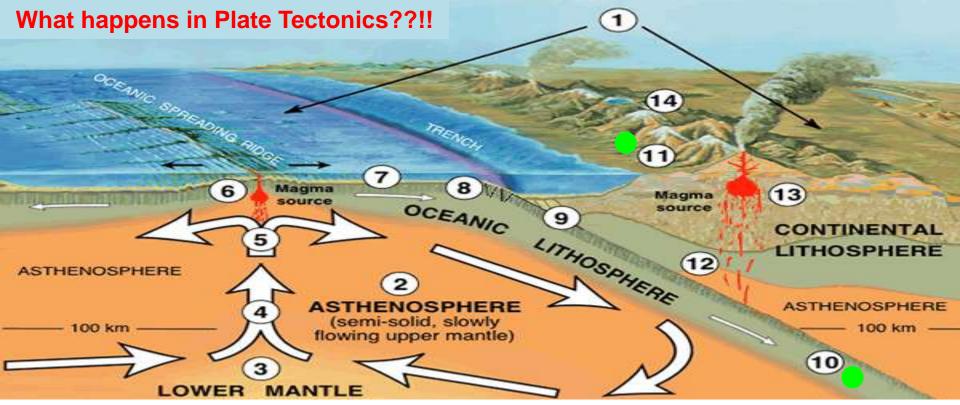


- 7. As new molten rock continues to be extruded at the mid-ocean ridge and added to the oceanic plate (6), the older (earlier formed) part of the plate moves away from the ridge.
- 8. As the oceanic plate moves farther and farther away from the active, hot spreading ridge, it gradually cools down. The colder the plate gets, the denser ("heavier") it becomes. Eventually, the edge of the plate that is farthest from the spreading ridges cools so much that it becomes denser than the asthenosphere beneath it.



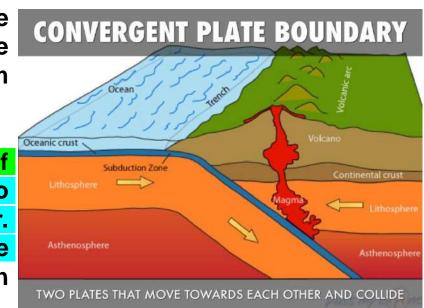
9. As it is known, denser materials sink, and that's exactly what happens to the oceanic plate—it starts to sink into the asthenosphere! Where one plate sinks beneath another a subduction zone forms.

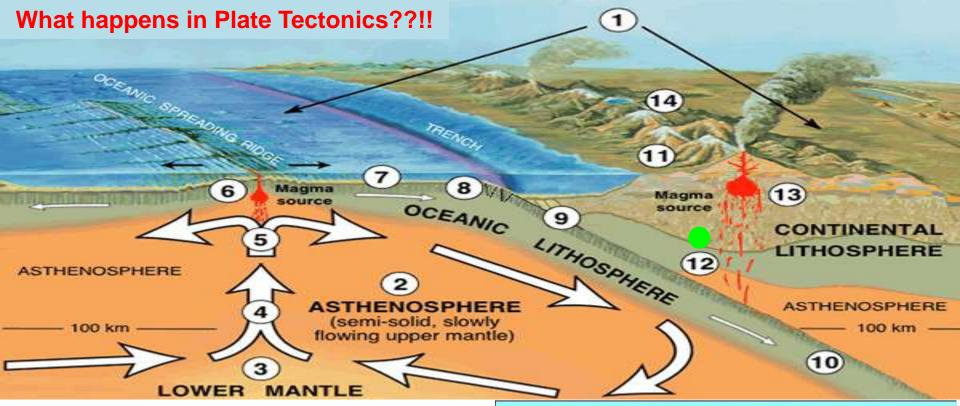




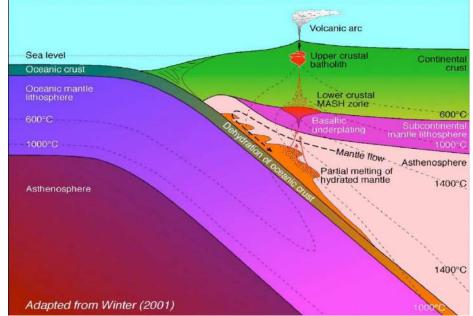
10. The sinking edge of the oceanic plate "pulls" the rest of the plate. The oceanic plate remains solid far beyond depths of 100 km beneath the Earth's surface.

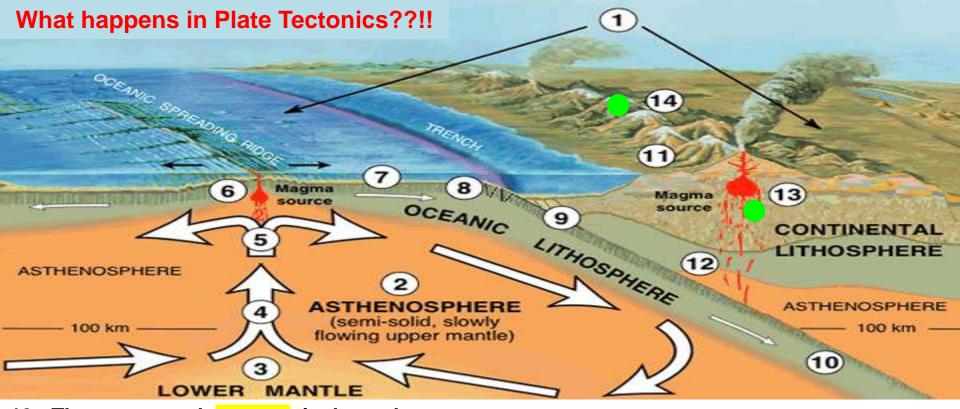
11. Subduction zones are one type of CONVERGENT PLATE BOUNDARY, where two plates are moving toward one another. Although the cool oceanic plate is sinking, the cool but less dense continental plate floats on top of the denser asthenosphere.





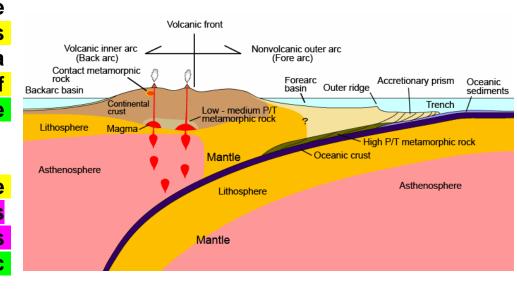
12. When the subducting oceanic plate sinks deep below the Earth's surface, the great temperature and pressure at depth cause the fluids to "sweat" from the sinking plate. The fluids sweated out percolate upward, helping to locally melt the overlying solid mantle above the subducting plate to form pockets of liquid rock (magma).

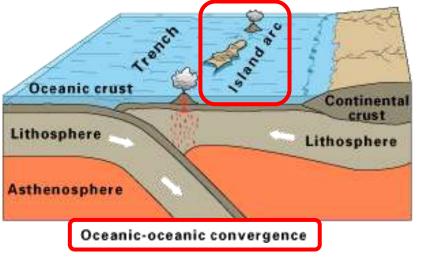




13. The generated magma is less dense than the surrounding rock, so it rises toward the surface. Most of the magma cools and solidifies as large bodies of plutonic (intrusive) rocks far below the Earth's surface.

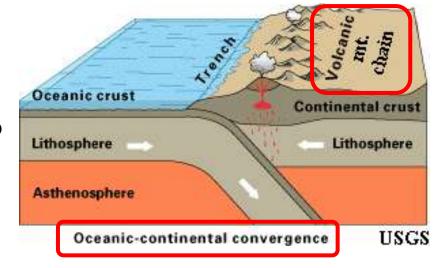
14. Some of the molten rock may reach the Earth's surface to erupt as the pent-up gas pressure غاز مكبوت in the magma is suddenly released, forming volcanic (extrusive) rocks.

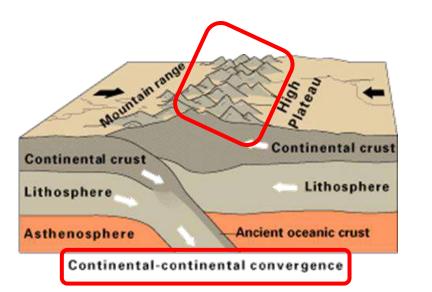




Oceanic-Oceanic convergence leads to the formation of Island arc.

Oceanic-Continetal convergence leads to the formation of Volcanic arc chain.



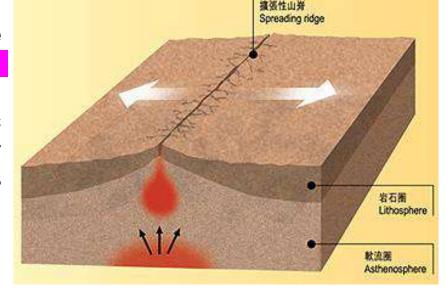


Continental-Continental convergence leads to the formation of Mountain range.

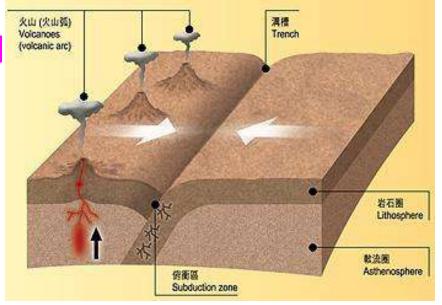
III. Types of Plate Boundary

There are three types of plate boundary: **convergent**, **divergent**, and **transform plate boundaries**.

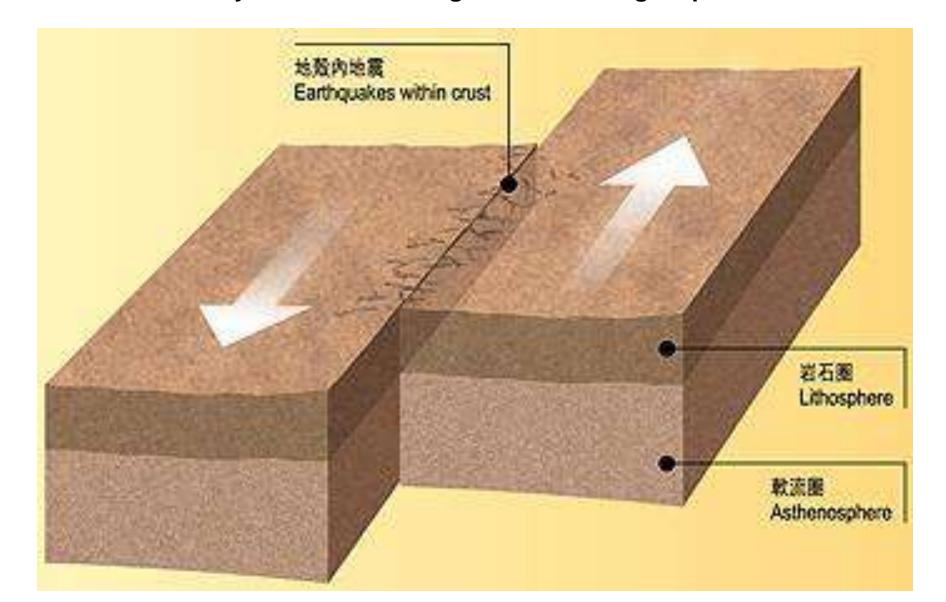
1. Divergent plate boundaries occur where two lithospheric plates move away from each other, driven by magma rising from deep within the mantle. Volcanic activity at a divergent plate boundary creates new lithosphere along what is known as a spreading ridge.



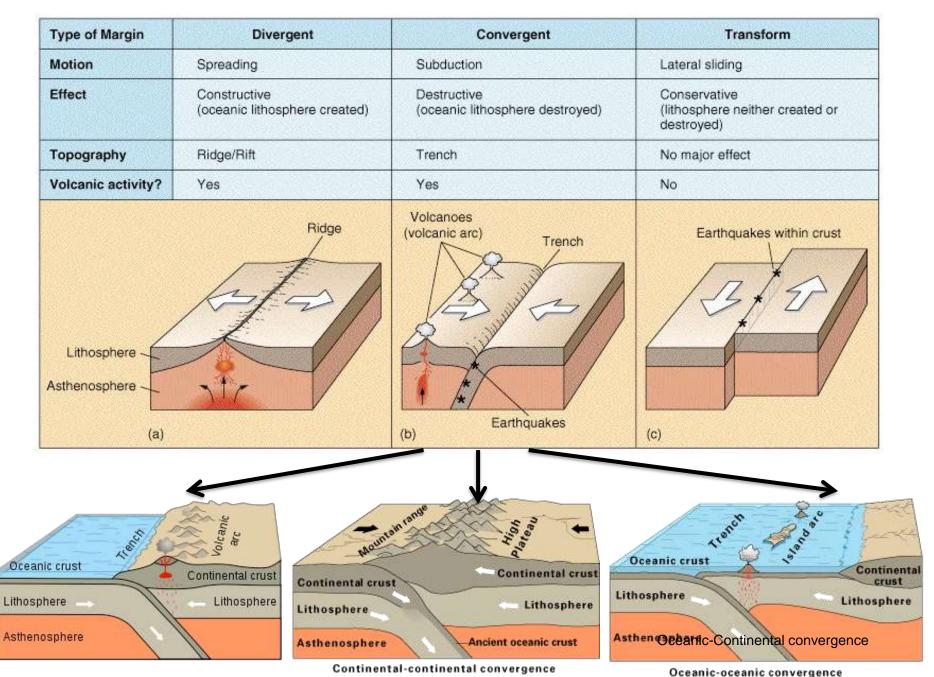
2. Convergent plate boundaries occur where two lithospheric plates move towards each other, with one plate overriding the other. The overridden plate (sinking plate) is driven back into the mantle, and is subsequently destroyed along what is known as a subduction zone. During this process, earthquakes and volcanic activity are generated in the overriding plate.

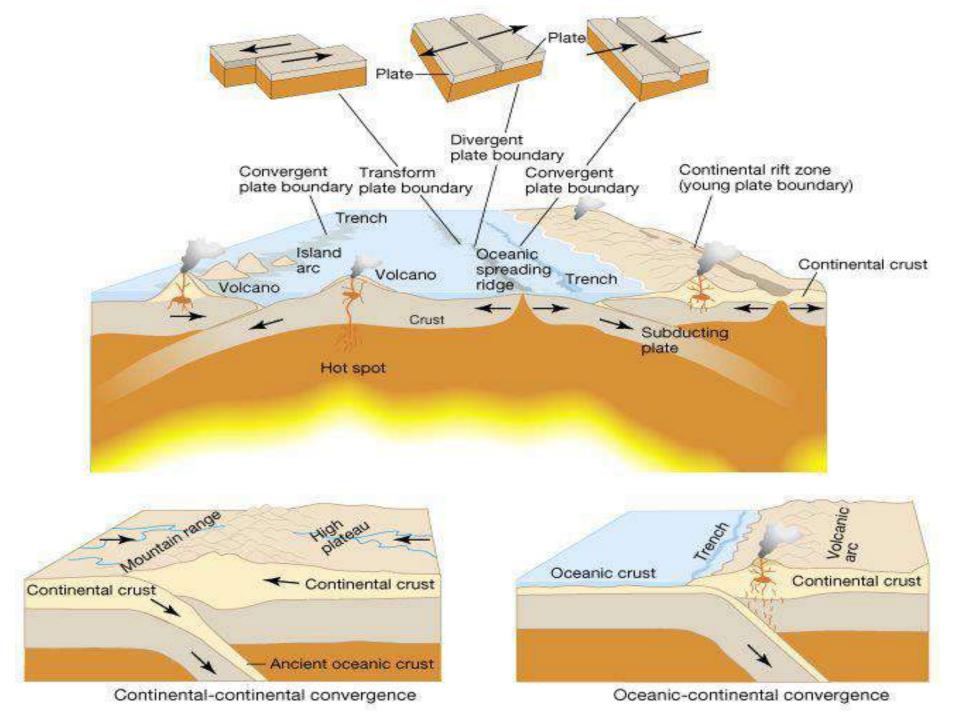


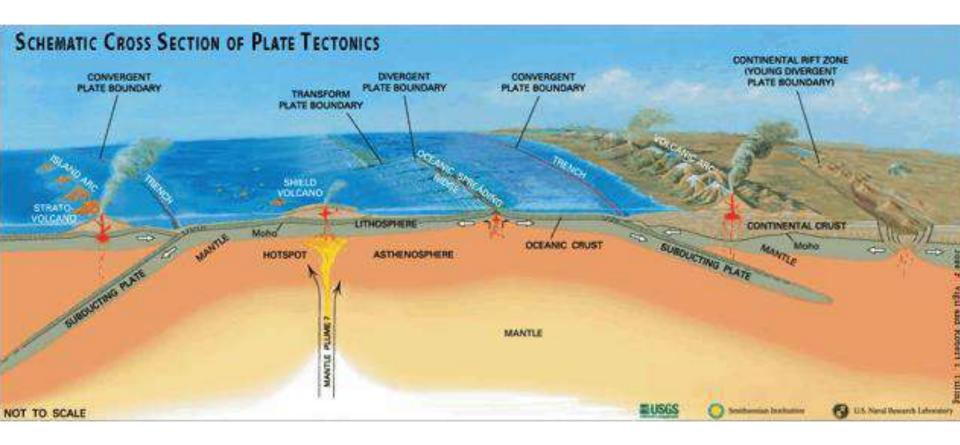
3. Transform plate boundaries occur where two lithospheric plates slide laterally past each other. Earthquakes are generated along this type of plate boundary. Importantly, lithosphere is preserved along transform boundaries, it is not created or destroyed as it is at divergent and convergent plate boundaries.

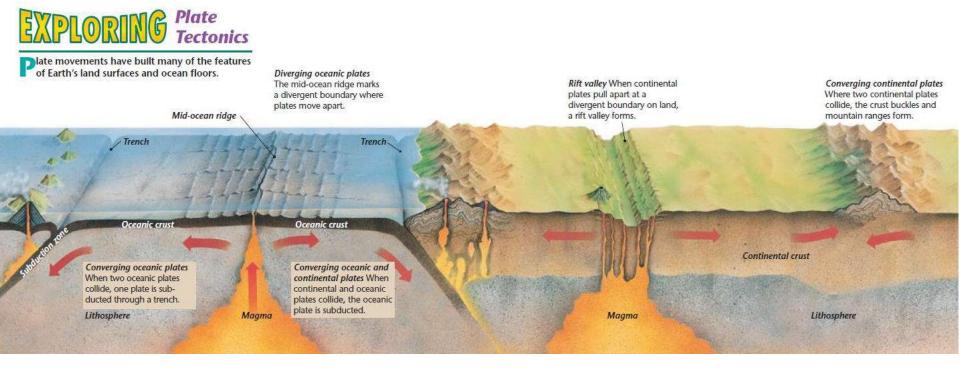


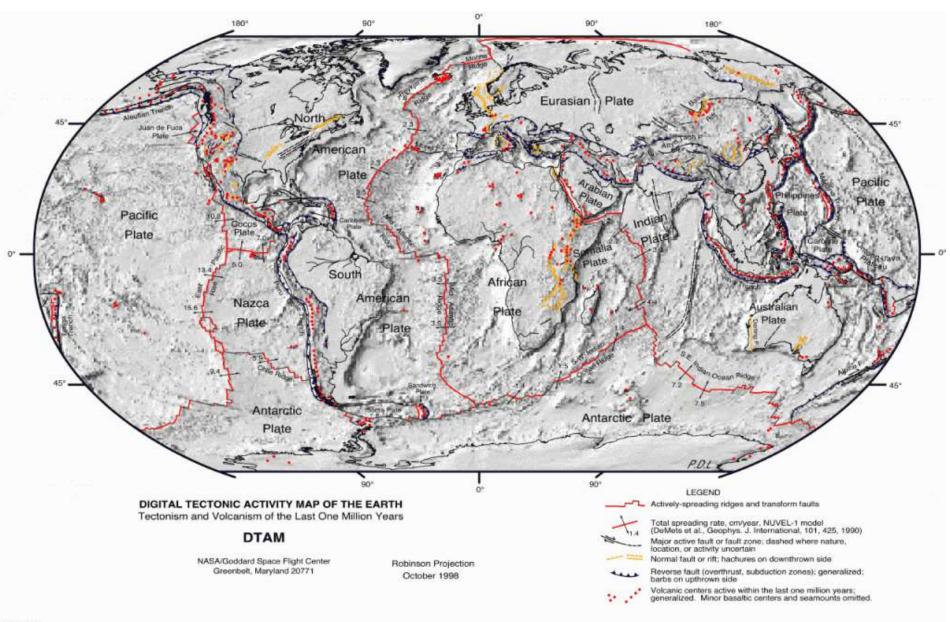
EARTHQUAKE CHARACTERISTICS: PLATE BOUNDARY TYPES



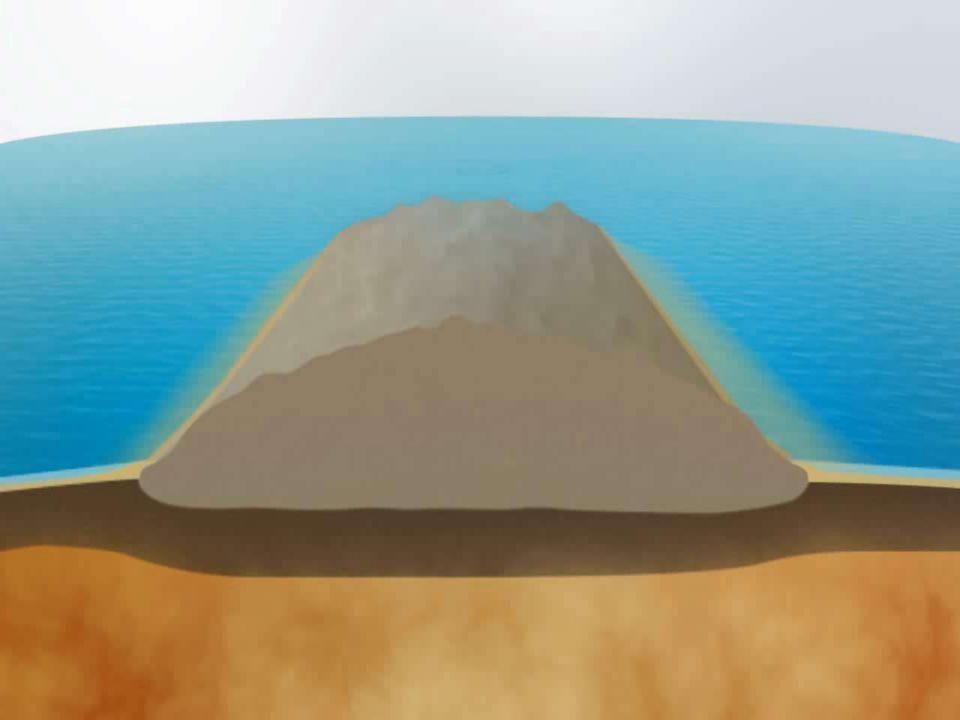








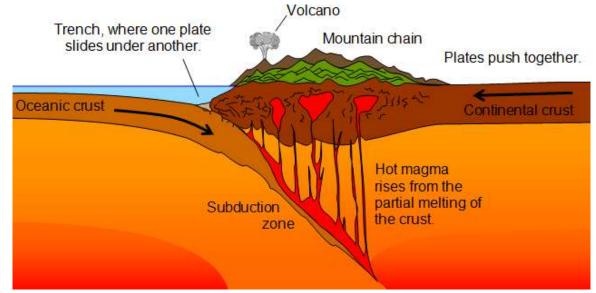


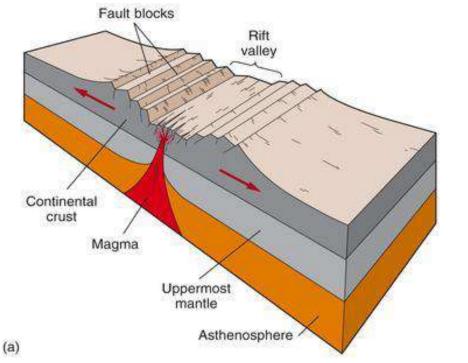


IV. Plate Tectonics vs. Geological Processes

Plate tectonics is the fundamental mechanism that drives geological processes in the geosphere. Plate tectonic theory is based on an understanding of the Earth's internal structure, the different types of tectonic plates and plate boundaries, and the driving forces of plate movements.

The occurrence of earthquakes and volcanoes, the distribution of different rock types, and the Rock Cycle, as well as the processes of mountain building, continental rifting and seafloor spreading, can be concisely explained by plate tectonic processes.





V. Magma

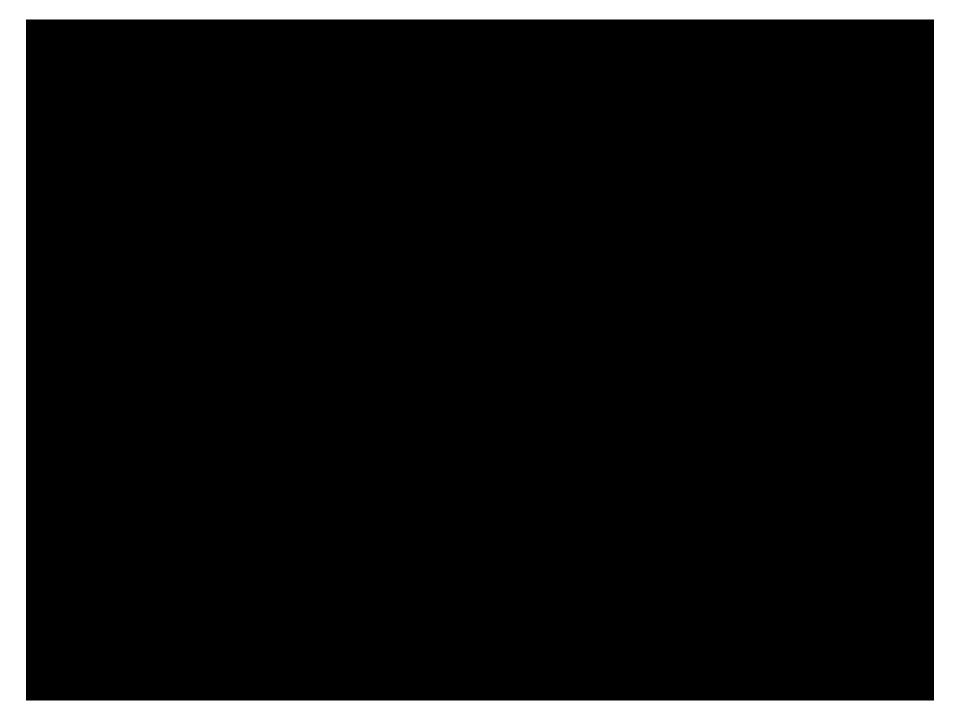
Magma is hot molten rock within the earth. It can well-up from deep to extrude from fractures as lava flows and/or pyroclastic ejecta.

The source for magma is not the earth's liquid outer core, a common misconception; instead, magma is generated at the relatively shallow depths of 100 to 300 km, through the partial melting of the earth's crust and mantle.

Magma is most often formed by decompression-melting of asthenosphere associated with divergent plate boundaries or mantle plumes, or by partial-melting of water-rich crust and/or asthenospheric material in association with subduction at convergent plate boundaries.





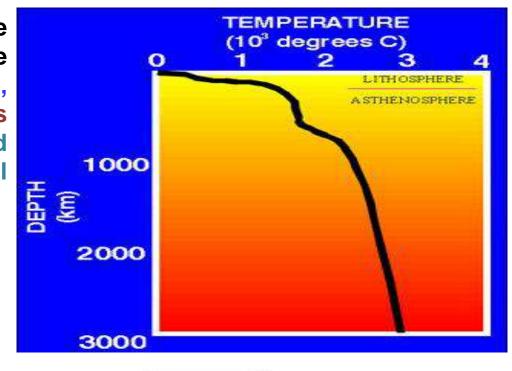


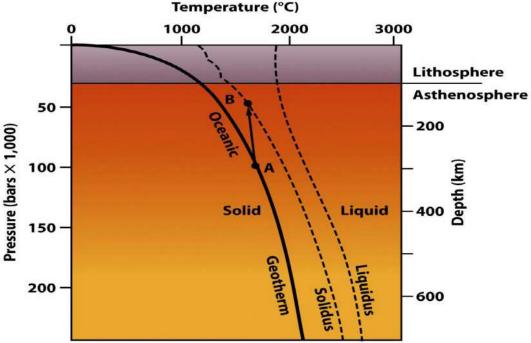


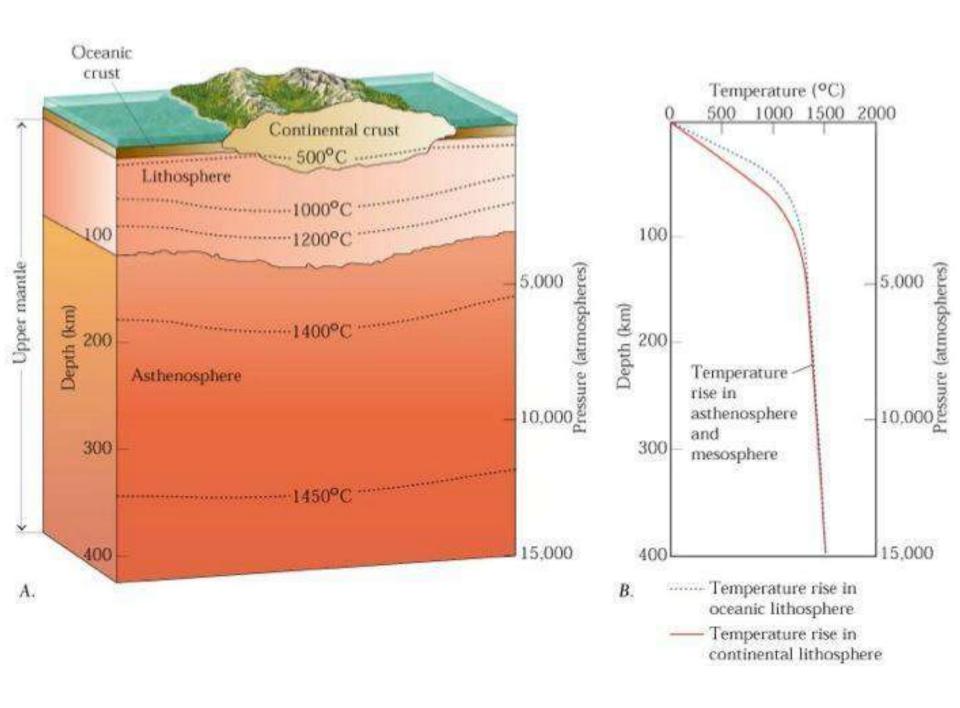
The ingredients necessary for the production of magma involve the interplay between heat, pressure, intra-granular fluids (present as gases within very hot rock or magma) and the composition of the material subject to melting.

1- Heating obviously brings solids closer to their melting points, the more heat, the more likely a solid will melt.

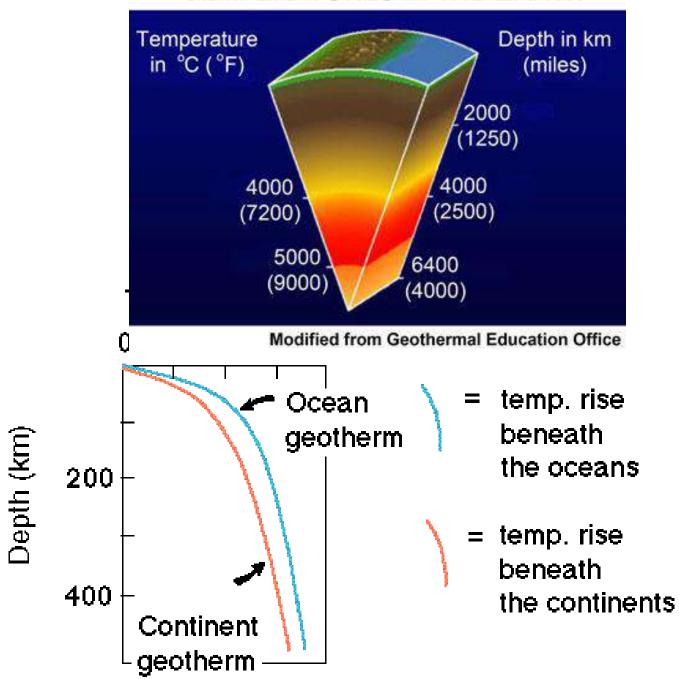
2- In general, higher pressures prevent melting because the constituent atoms of minerals in rocks are squeezed together and remain solids under high pressure. Consequently, lowering pressure on hot rock induces melting (as occurs in divergent plate boundaries).

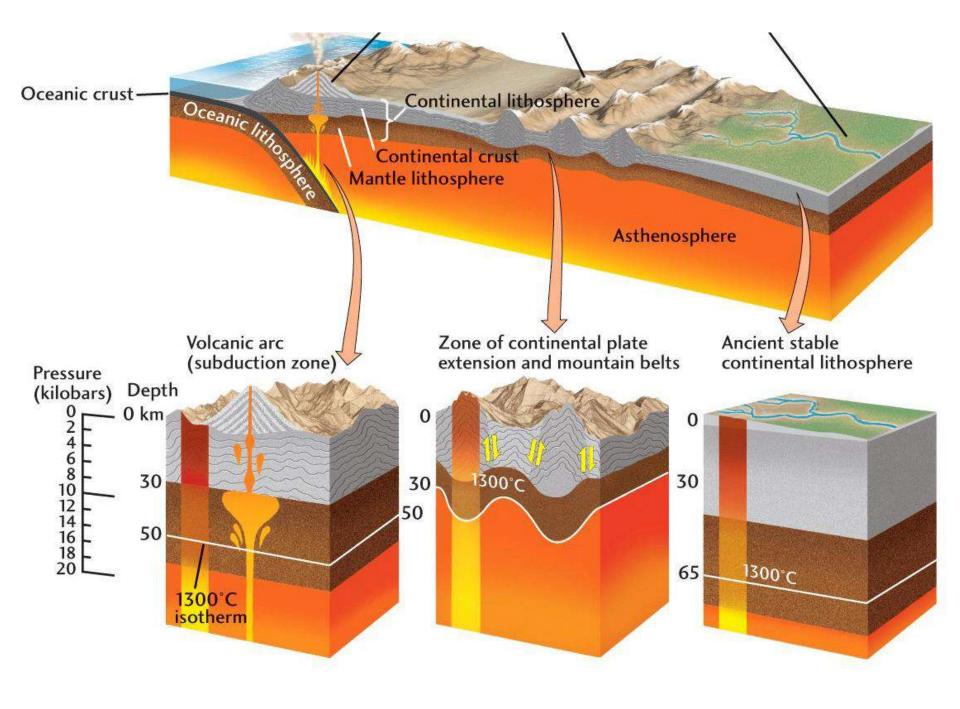




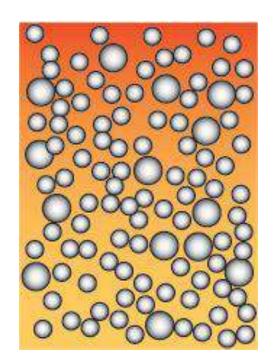


TEMPERATURES IN THE EARTH

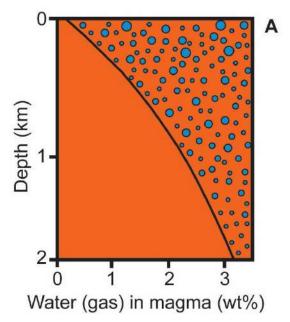


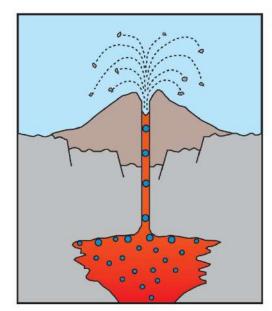


3- Intra-granular fluids (gases within hot very rock or magma) lower the melting <mark>solids</mark>, point of SO presence of fluids (gases), generally water, allows solid rock to melt at a lower temperature (or heat content) than it otherwise would.

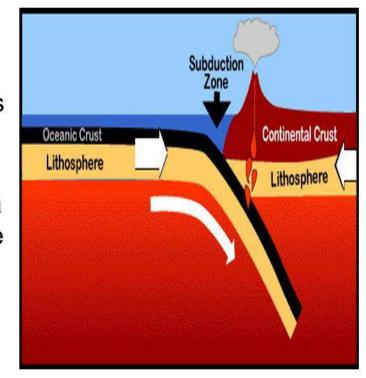


Bubbles are common in magmas erupted at the Earth's surface

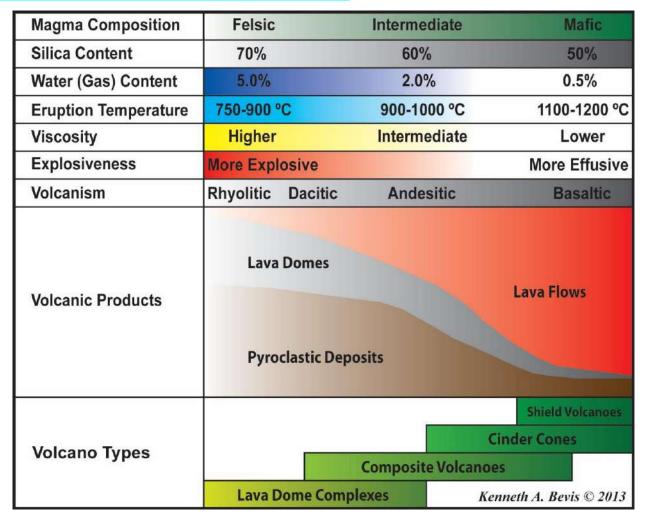




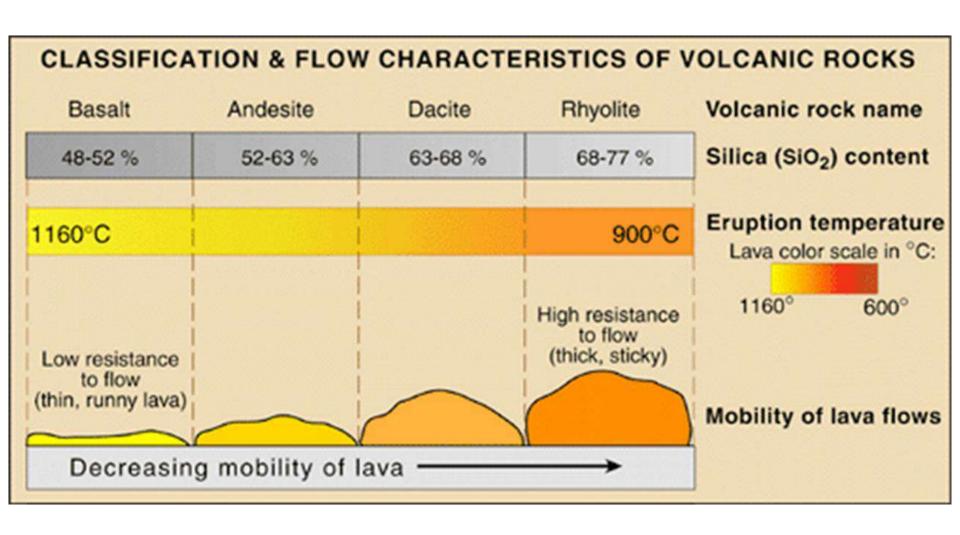
- Magma at some convergent plate boundaries contains water vapor
- The trapped water vapor in the magma can cause explosive eruptions.



4- Finally, there are two general trends to explore in relation to rock composition: rock that contains a relative abundance of silica (SiO₂) and aluminum (Al₂O₃) will melt at a lower temperature (heat content); while a rock containing a relative abundance of ferromagnesian (Fe, Mg, and Ca) ions will melt at higher temperatures (heat content).



Factors that control the composition and viscosity of a magma; which in turn play a determining role in the style of volcanic eruption, eruptive products, and the nature of the volcano formed.



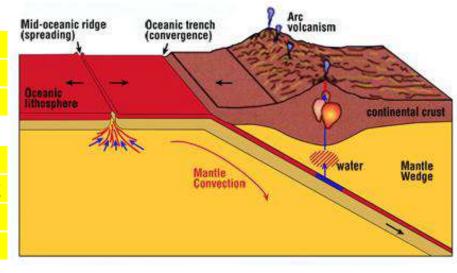
Summary Table							
Magma Type	Solidified Rock	Chemical Composition	Temperature	Viscosity	Gas Content		
Basaltic	Basalt	45-55 SiO ₂ %, high in Fe, Mg, Ca, low in K, Na	1000 - 1200 °C	10 - 10³ PaS	Low		
Andesitic	Andesite	55-65 SiO ₂ %, intermediate in Fe, Mg, Ca, Na, K	800 - 1000 °C	10³ - 10⁵ PaS	Intermediate		
Rhyolitic	Rhyolite	65-75 SiO ₂ %, low in Fe, Mg, Ca, high in K, Na.	650 - 800 °C	10 ⁵ - 10 ⁹ PaS	High		

The majority of magma erupted at the Earth's surface is produced by melting of mantle rock at depths of less than 50 km. Some magmas are produced by melting of crustal rocks at shallower levels (less than 30 km). The Earth's interior is very hot, but it is solid because of the high pressures.

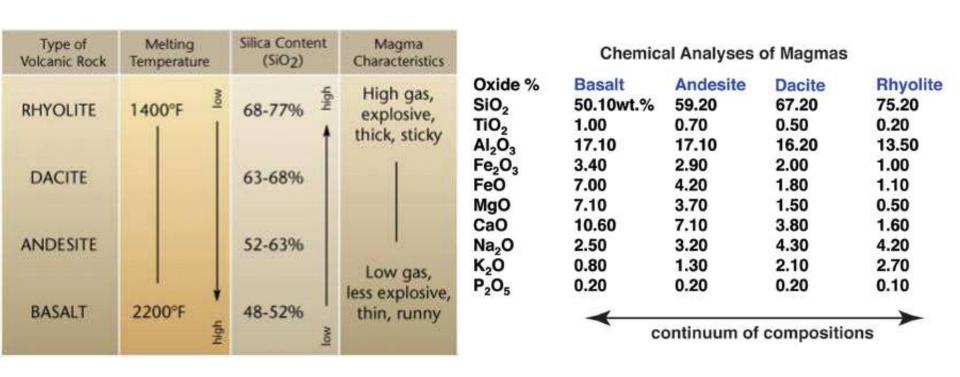
The melting occurs when mantle rock rises toward the surface, such as at mid-ocean ridges, and undergoes de-pressurization melting.



Magma can also be generated by melting due to the lowering of the mantle melting temperature because water and other volatile components have been introduced into the mantle. This occurs chiefly in subduction zones where oceanic lithosphere is descending back into the mantle. The oceanic lithosphere carries with it water in sediments and altered rocks.



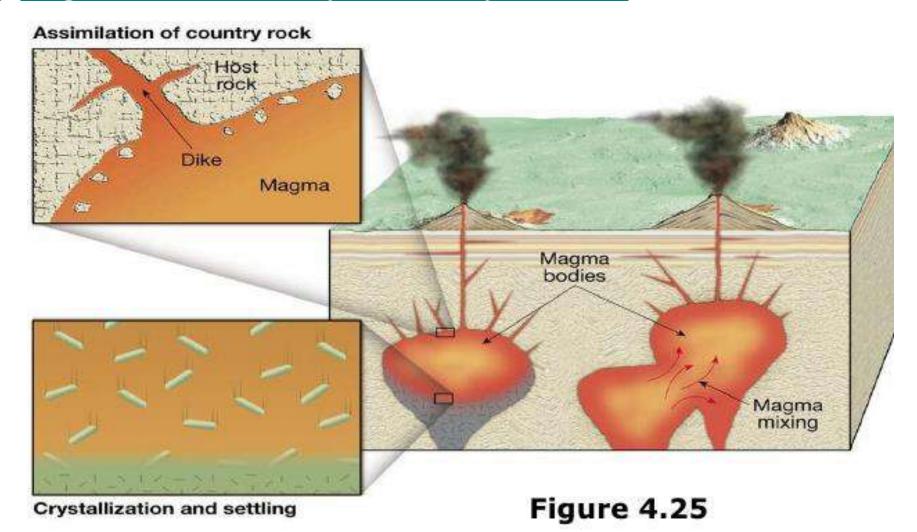
The melting of aluminum, while melting of mantle rock (asthenosphere) and oceanic crust forms ferromagnesian-rich, mafic magma. The earth's crust naturally contains a higher water content (because of its proximity to the hydrosphere) than the mantle, accounting for higher water (and thus gas) content in felsic to intermediate magmas. The relatively high content of silica and water in continental crust also correlates with the lower melting temperatures of felsic to intermediate magmas. Mantle material melts at greater depth and higher temperatures and pressures, not requiring as much "assistance" from silica and water in the melting process.



Magma composition

The **composition of magma** (and extruded lava) depends on three main factors:

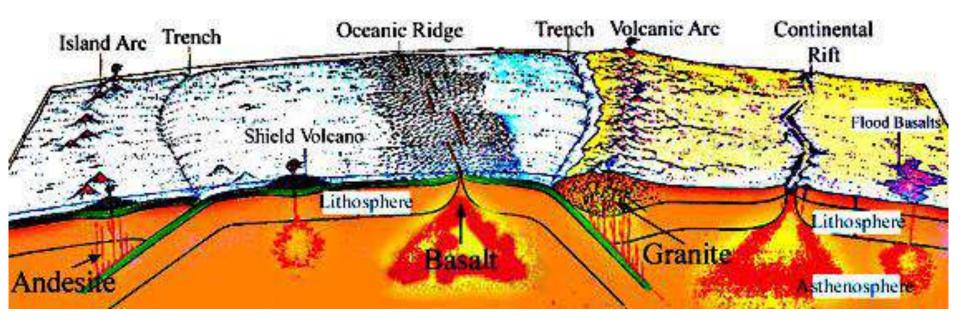
- 1) the degree of partial melting of the crust or mantle;
- 2) the degree of magma mixing;
- 3) magmatic differentiation by fractional crystallization.



Several types of basaltic lavas result from partial melting of mantle and oceanic crust at subduction zones and mantle plumes.

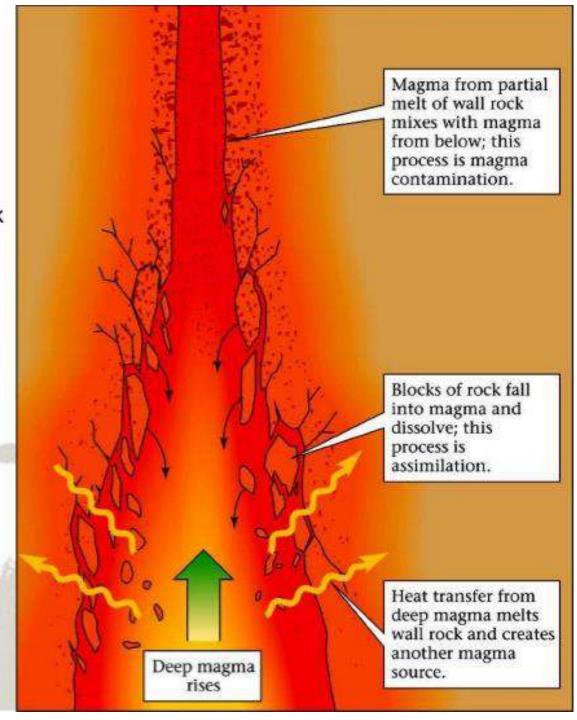
Emplacement of basaltic magma chambers within continental crust often raises the temperature of the surrounding silica- and water-rich country rock enough to cause the country rock significant melting. The country rock becomes assimilated into the basaltic magma to greater or lesser degree, contaminating it with felsic material.

If substantial mixing of the magmas occurs, usually requiring significant plate movement and/or magmatic convection, intermediate magma is born (ranging from andesitic to dacitic or rhyodacitic).

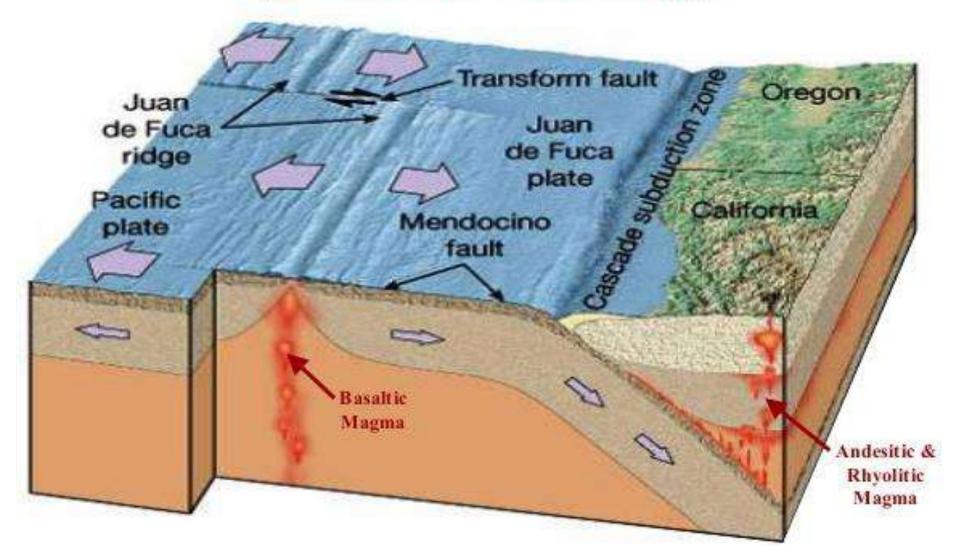


Assimilation

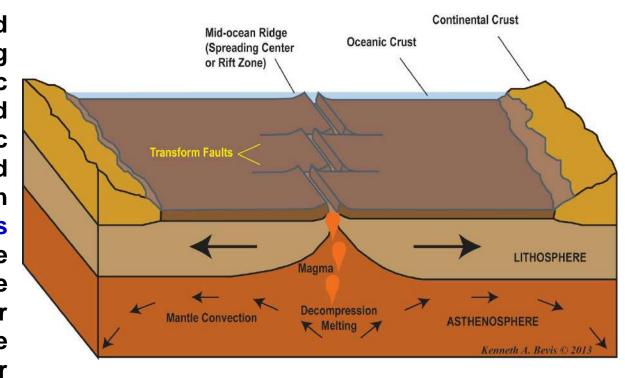
- As magma sits in its chamber, it may incorporate minerals from the surrounding wall rock
 - Called assimilation
- Occurs when wall rocks fall into the magma and melt (stoping) or when the magma partially melts minerals from the wall rock
- Degree of assimilation depends on composition of wall rock, temp of magma, amount of H₂0 present, amount fractures in and strength of the wall rock, and residence time

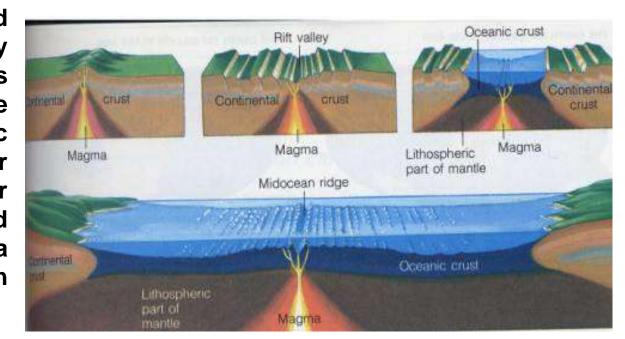


Magma Composition (tectonic setting)

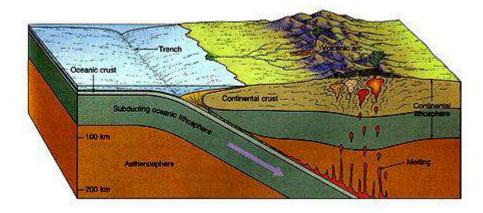


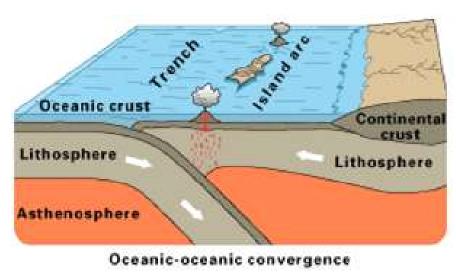
Mafic magmas are generated decompression-melting by highly of mafic asthenosphere and assimilation-melting of mafic oceanic lithosphere and crust in association with divergent plate boundaries and mantle some plumes. The magma source naturally low in water however, these content, magmas have a much easier time of it; greater heat and less silica allows it to readily the surface reach volcanic eruptions (despite its lack of gases). Mafic have lower magmas viscosities because of their greater heat content and lack of silica (they have a greater abundance of iron and magnesium ions).

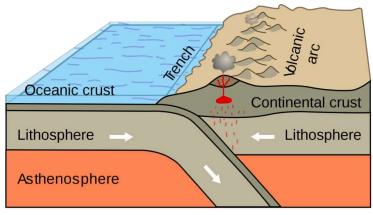


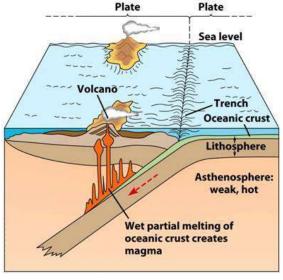


Felsic magmas have higher viscosities because of their lower heat content and enrichment with respect to silica. Felsic magmas are generated by the partial melting of the more siliceous upper portion of water-saturated oceanic crust (more siliceous because of the thick sedimentary cover it carries) where it is subducted at convergent plate boundaries and by assimilation-melting of siliceous, water-rich, continental crust into the magma derived from partial melting of mafic oceanic crust and asthenosphere as it rises toward the surface.



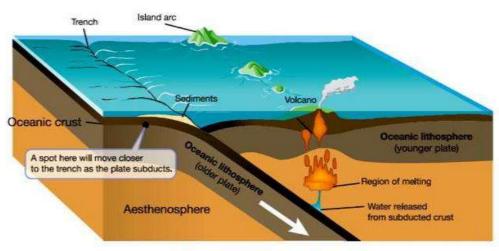




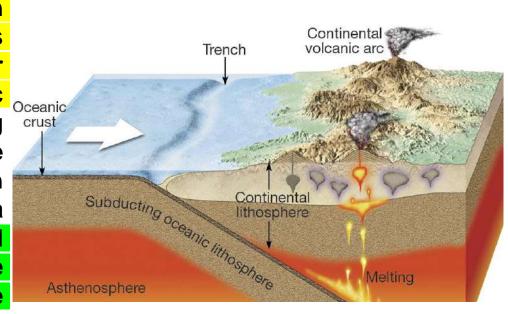


Intermediate magma:

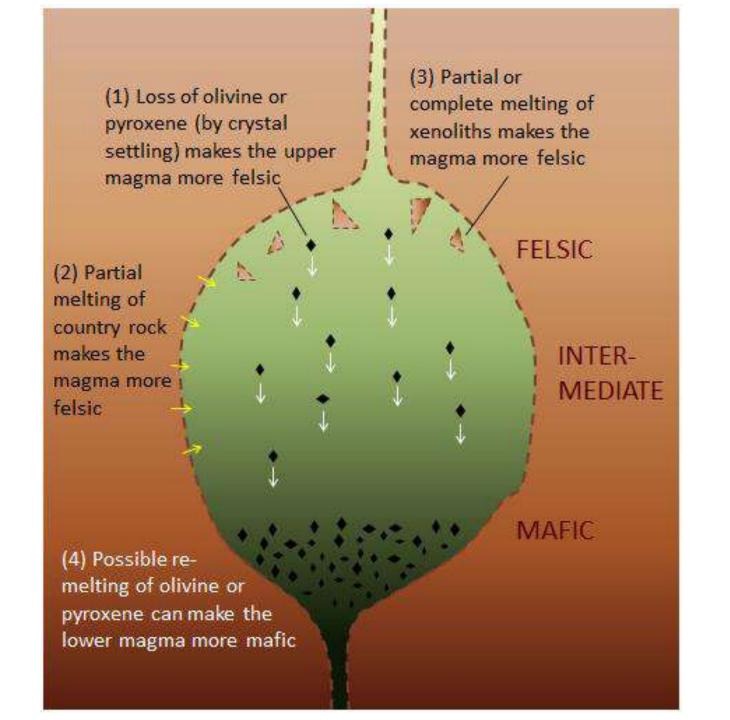
oceanic-oceanic During plate collisions, a basic magma rises through the overlying oceanic plate and is little changed by assimilationmelting (the original mafic magma simply assimilates more mafic material on its way upward); volcanic eruptions on the sea floor form island chains called island arcs. Volcanism is initially mafic in composition, but as time progresses and the volcanic arc and is subject to erosion ages (producing sediment that accumulates the subduction zone), newer magmas become increasingly silicic and become intermediate. Durina oceanic-continental collisions, generally mafic magma rises through felsic continental lithosphere to build a on volcanic the continental arc **Assimilation-melting of the** margin. overlying felsic continental plate produces intermediate magma.

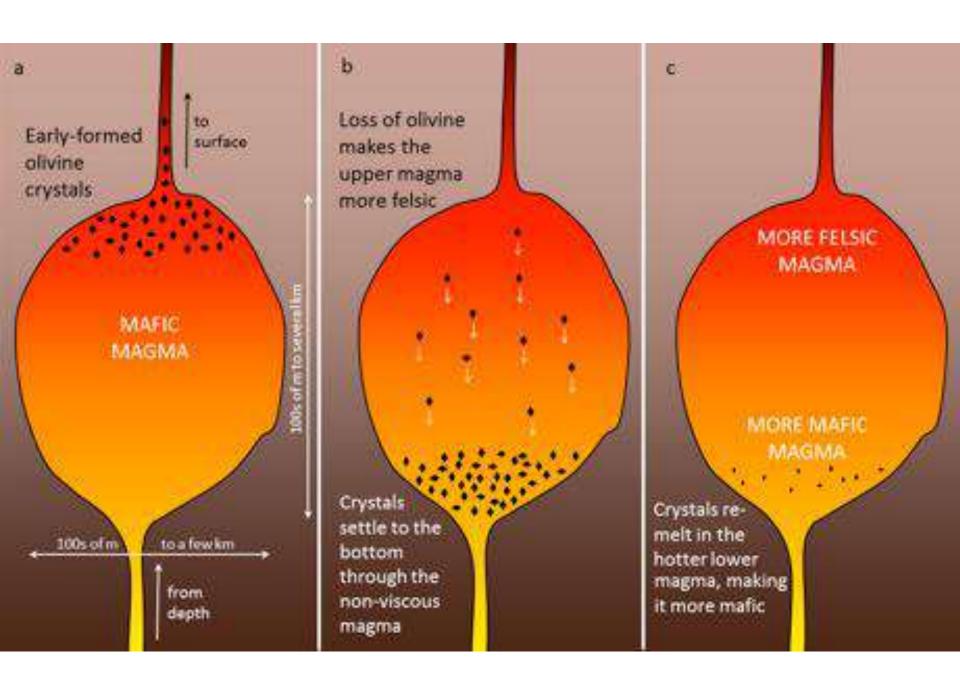


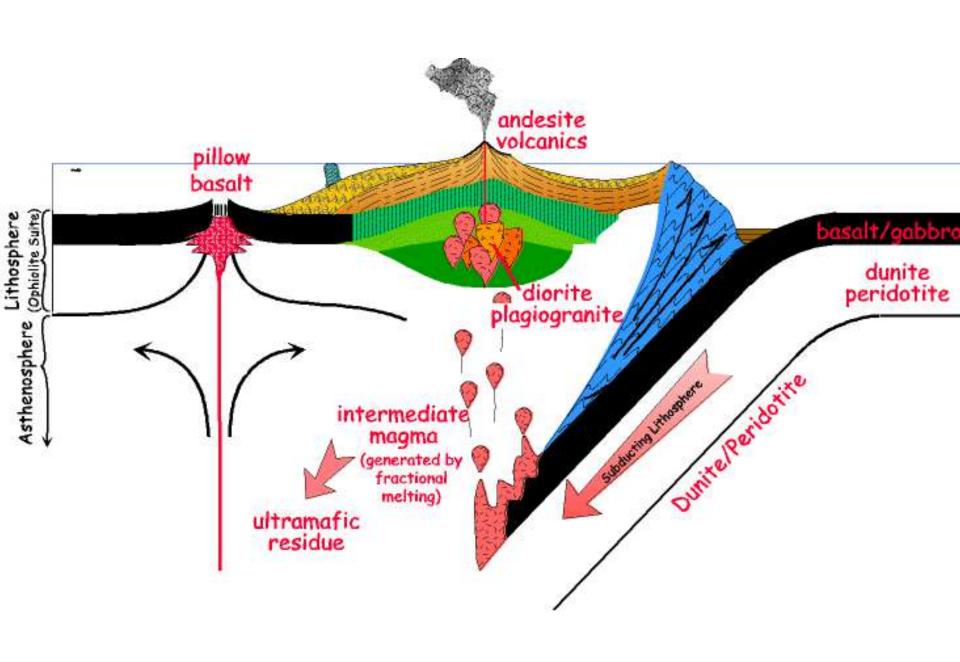
Ocean-ocean collision

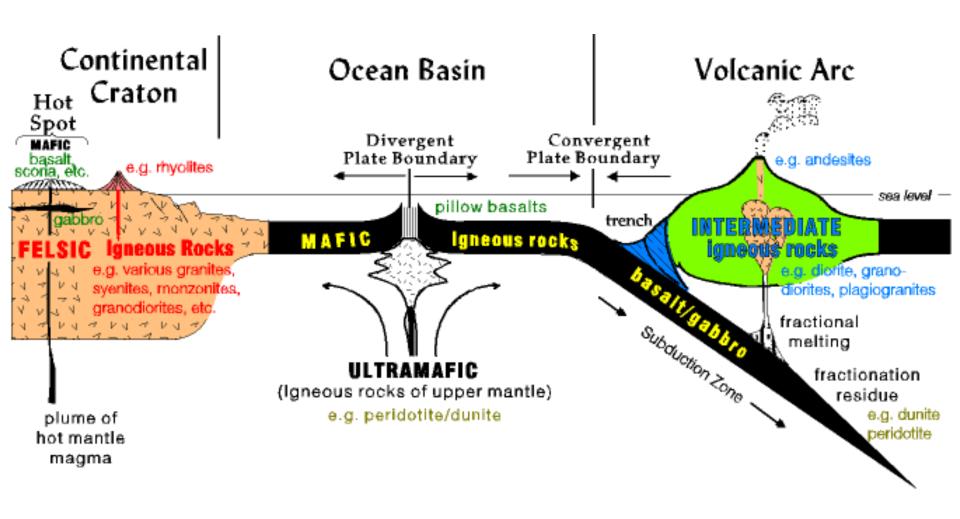


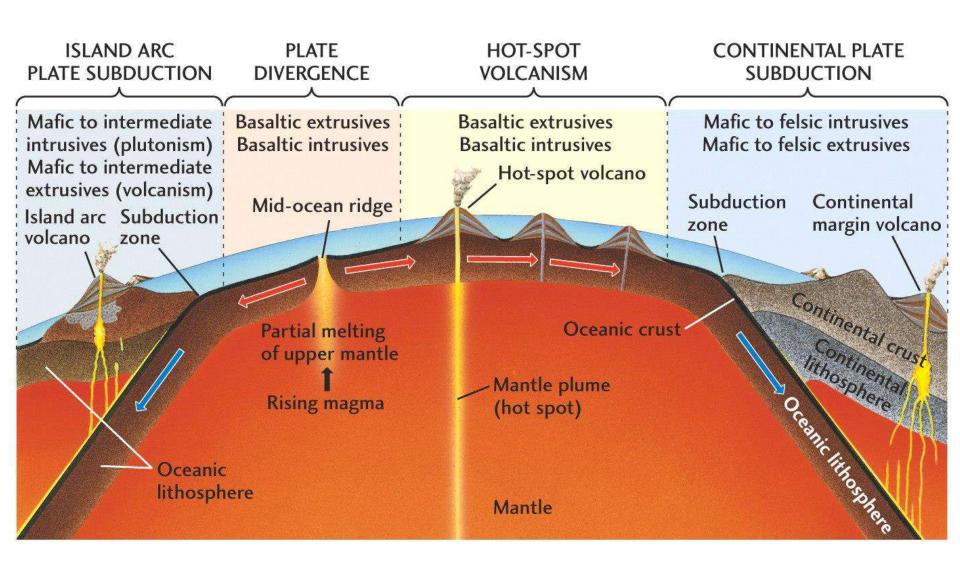
oceanic-continental collisions











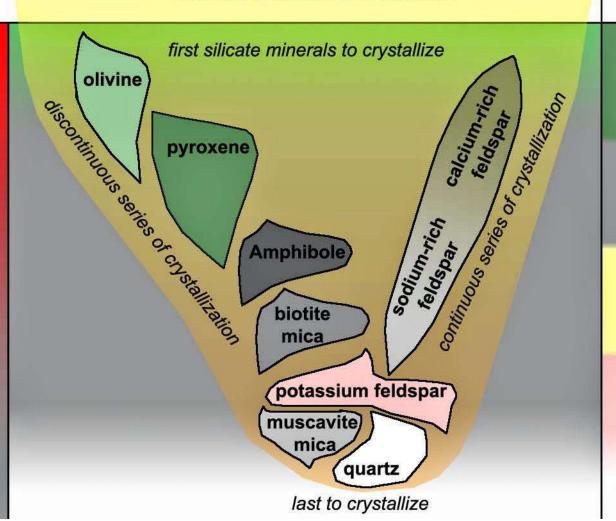
Bowen's Reaction Series

Compositon intrusive/extrusive rock types

High Temperature

cooling magma

Low temperature



Ultramafic

peridotite/komatite

Mafic

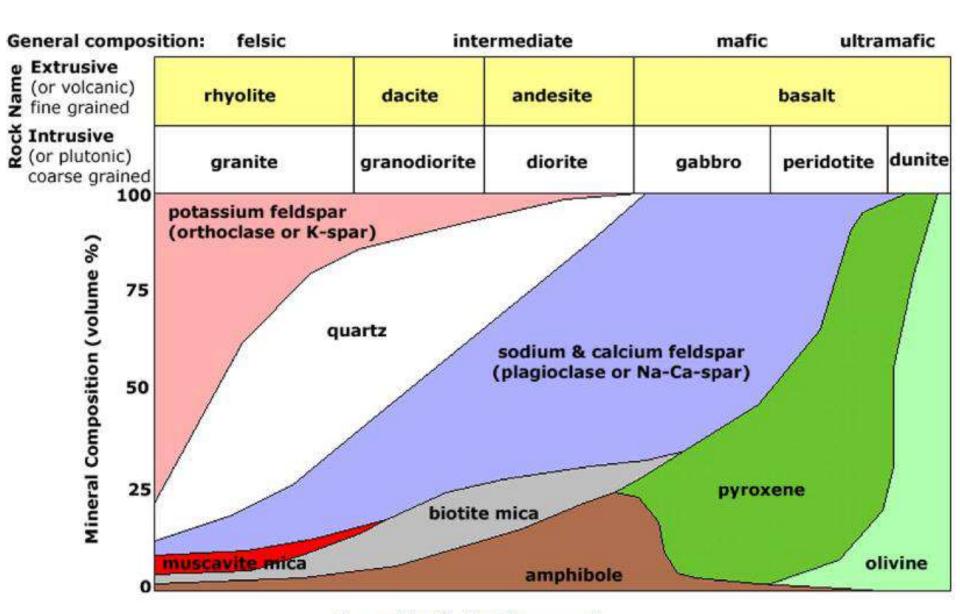
gabbro/basalt

Intermediate

diorite/andesite

Felsic

granite/rhyolite



A general classification of igneous rocks.

End of Lecture