

DESCRIPTION OF THE PIKEVILLE SHEET.

GEOGRAPHY.

General relations.—The Pikeville atlas sheet comprises an area bounded by the parallels 35° 30' and 36° and the meridians 85° and 85° 30'. The region mapped embraces, therefore, a quarter of a square degree of the earth's surface. Its dimensions are 34.5 miles from north to south and 28 miles from east to west, and it contains nearly 980 square miles. The adjacent atlas sheets are Standing Stone on the north, Kingston on the east, Chattanooga on the south, and McMinnville on the west. The area lies wholly within the State of Tennessee and contains portions of White, Cumberland, Van Buren, Grundy, Sequatchie, Bledsoe, and Rhea counties.

In its geographic and geologic relations this area forms a part of the Appalachian province, which extends from the Atlantic coastal plain on the east to the Mississippi lowlands on the west and from central Alabama to southern New York. All parts of the region thus defined have a common history, recorded in its rocks, its geologic structure, and its topographic features. Only a part of this history can be read from an area so small as that covered by a single atlas sheet; hence it is necessary to consider the individual sheet in its relations to the entire province.

Subdivisions of the Appalachian province.—The Appalachian province may be subdivided into three well-marked physiographic divisions, throughout each of which certain forces have produced similar results in sedimentation, in geologic structure, and in topography. These divisions extend the entire length of the province, from northeast to southwest.

The central division is the Appalachian Valley. It is the best defined and most uniform of the three. In the southern part it coincides with the belt of folded rocks which forms the Coosa Valley of Georgia and Alabama and the Great Valley of East Tennessee and Virginia. Throughout the central and northern portions the eastern side only is marked by great valleys—such as the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia, the Cumberland Valley of Maryland and Pennsylvania, and the Lebanon Valley of northeastern Pennsylvania—the western side being a succession of ridges alternating with narrow valleys. This division varies in width from 40 to 125 miles. It is sharply outlined on the southeast by the Appalachian Mountains and on the northwest by the Cumberland Plateau and the Alleghany Mountains. Its rocks are almost wholly sedimentary and in large measure calcareous. The strata, which must originally have been nearly horizontal, now intersect the surface at various angles and in narrow belts. The surface differs with the outcrop of different kinds of rock, so that sharp ridges and narrow valleys of great length follow the narrow belts of hard and soft rock. Owing to the large amount of calcareous rock brought up on the steep folds of this district its surface is more readily worn down by streams and is lower and less broken than the divisions on either side.

The eastern division of the province embraces the Appalachian Mountains, a system which is made up of many minor ranges, and which, under various local names, extends from southern New York to central Alabama. Some of its prominent parts are the South Mountain of Pennsylvania, the Blue Ridge and Catoctin Mountain of Maryland and Virginia, the Great Smoky Mountains of Tennessee and North Carolina, and the Cohutta Mountains of Georgia. Many of the rocks of this division are more or less crystalline, being either sediments which have been changed to slates and schists by varying degrees of metamorphism, or igneous rocks, such as granite and diabase, which have solidified from a molten condition.

The western division of the Appalachian province embraces the Cumberland Plateau and the Alleghany Mountains, also extending from New York to Alabama, and the lowlands of Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio. Its northwestern boundary is indefinite, but may be regarded as a somewhat arbitrary line coinciding with the Tennessee River from the northeastern corner of Mississippi to its mouth, and thence crossing the States of Indiana and Ohio to western New York. Its eastern

boundary is sharply defined along the Appalachian Valley by the Alleghany front and the Cumberland escarpment. The rocks of this division are almost entirely of sedimentary origin and remain very nearly horizontal. The character of the surface, which is dependent on the character and attitude of the rocks, is that of a plateau more or less completely dissected, or, elsewhere, of a lowland. In the southern half of the province the surface of the plateau is sometimes extensive and perfectly flat, but oftener it is much cut by stream channels into large or small, flat-topped hills. In West Virginia and portions of Pennsylvania the plateau is sharply cut by its streams, leaving in relief irregularly rounded knobs and ridges which bear but little resemblance to the original surface. The western portion of the plateau has been completely removed by erosion, and the surface is now comparatively low and level, or rolling.

Altitude of the Appalachian province.—The Appalachian province as a whole is broadly dome-shaped, its surface rising from an altitude of about 500 feet along the eastern margin to the crest of the Appalachian Mountains, and thence descending westward to about the same altitude on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.

Each division of the province shows one or more culminating points. Thus the Appalachian Mountains rise gradually from less than 1,000 feet in Alabama to more than 6,600 feet in western North Carolina. From this culminating point they decrease to 4,000 or 3,000 feet in southern Virginia, rise to 4,000 feet in central Virginia, and descend to 2,000 or 1,500 feet on the Maryland-Pennsylvania line.

The Appalachian Valley shows a uniform increase in altitude from 500 feet or less in Alabama to 900 feet in the vicinity of Chattanooga, 2,000 feet at the Tennessee-Virginia line, and 2,600 or 2,700 feet at its culminating point, on the divide between the New and Tennessee rivers. From this point it descends to 2,200 feet in the valley of New River, 1,500 to 1,000 feet in the James River basin, and 1,000 to 500 feet in the Potomac basin, remaining about the same through Pennsylvania. These figures represent the average elevation of the valley surface, below which the stream channels are sunk from 50 to 250 feet, and above which the valley ridges rise from 500 to 2,000 feet.

The plateau, or western, division increases in altitude from 500 feet at the southern edge of the province to 1,500 feet in northern Alabama, 2,000 feet in central Tennessee, and 3,500 feet in southeastern Kentucky. It is between 3,000 and 4,000 feet in West Virginia, and decreases to about 2,000 feet in Pennsylvania. From its greatest altitude, along the eastern edge, the plateau slopes gradually westward, although it is generally separated from the interior lowlands by an abrupt escarpment.

Drainage of the Appalachian province.—The drainage of the province is in part eastward into the Atlantic, in part southward into the Gulf, and in part westward into the Mississippi. All of the western, or plateau, division of the province, except a small portion in Pennsylvania and another in Alabama, is drained by streams flowing westward to the Ohio. The northern portion of the eastern, or Appalachian Mountain, division is drained eastward to the Atlantic, while south of the New River all except the eastern slope is drained westward by tributaries of the Tennessee or southward by tributaries of the Coosa.

The position of the streams in the Appalachian Valley is dependent upon the geologic structure. In general they flow in courses which for long distances are parallel to the sides of the Great Valley, following the lesser valleys along the outcrops of the softer rocks. These longitudinal streams empty into a number of larger, transverse rivers, which cross one or the other of the barriers limiting the valley. In the northern portion of the province they form the Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, James, and Roanoke rivers, each of which passes through the Appalachian Mountains in a narrow gap and flows eastward to the sea. In the central portion of the province, in Kentucky and Virginia, these longitudinal streams form the New (or Kanawha) River, which flows

westward in a deep, narrow gorge through the Cumberland Plateau into the Ohio River. From New River southward to northern Georgia the Great Valley is drained by tributaries of the Tennessee River, which at Chattanooga leaves the broad valley and, entering a gorge through the plateau, runs westward to the Ohio. South of Chattanooga the streams flow directly to the Gulf of Mexico.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The country embraced by the atlas sheet lies almost wholly within the western division of the Appalachian province, as above defined. Its extreme southeastern portion lies in the great Appalachian Valley, here occupied by the Tennessee River, and the Sequatchie Valley also crosses its southeastern corner. The latter is located upon the westernmost of the sharp folds which characterize the central division, and might properly be regarded as its western limit, except that Walden Ridge, lying to the eastward, has all of the characteristics of the western or plateau division. The greater portion of the area of the sheet is occupied by the Cumberland Plateau and its outlier, Walden Ridge. The plateau here has an altitude varying from 1,700 to 1,900 feet. Above this general level rise small isolated hills or mesas from 100 to 500 feet higher. These appear as hills rising above a level plain. The western side of the plateau is extremely irregular. The streams that drain its surface have their sources within a short distance of the Sequatchie Valley, flow westward in shallow channels for several miles, and then plunge into deep, narrow canyons which they have carved within the plateau. Numerous remnants of the plateau, almost or quite isolated, fringe its western side.

Walden Ridge, as already stated, has most of the characteristics of the plateau west of Sequatchie Valley. It is somewhat higher, having an altitude between 1,900 and 2,000 feet. Its streams rise near the edge of the Sequatchie Valley and flow southeastward in shallow channels until near the eastern escarpment, where they plunge into narrow gorges.

The northwestern portion of the area of the sheet lies within the highland rim of middle Tennessee. The surface is somewhat rolling, but in general has an altitude of less than 1,000 feet. The slopes between this lower plain and the plateau are very abrupt, the upper portions being in many places vertical cliffs.

The Sequatchie Valley extends in a perfectly straight line across the area mapped. It is about 4 miles in breadth, and is bounded by escarpments a thousand feet high. Its position and form are directly dependent upon the geologic structure, which will be more fully explained later. On the area of the adjacent Kingston sheet a range of mountains falls directly in line with the Sequatchie Valley, and the manner in which the valley was formed is there admirably shown. The hard rocks forming the surface of the plateaus on either side formerly arched continuously across, so that a long, narrow ridge then occupied the position of the present valley. The hard rocks are underlain by limestones, which are easily removed by solution. When the agents of erosion had worn down the top and sides of this ridge through the covering of hard rocks, so that the waters had access to the underlying limestone, erosion was then more rapid upon the limestones than on the sandstones of the adjacent plateaus, and hence the surface was more rapidly lowered, and in time a valley was formed. This process is still going on in the Crab Orchard Mountains, toward the northeast. Here the protecting cap of sandstone is not entirely removed, but wherever it has been removed coves are formed in the underlying limestone. In some cases these are entirely surrounded by a rim of sandstone, beneath which their waters flow in subterranean channels.

The position and direction of the streams of this region were determined while a ridge still occupied the position of the Sequatchie Valley. This ridge formed a divide which turned the waters toward the northwest and southeast. As the ridge was removed and a valley eroded in its place, the streams retained their original posi-

tions, heading upon the immediate edge of the valley.

The foregoing description and an examination of the topographic map show that in this region there are two plains whose surfaces are nearly parallel and are separated by a vertical distance of about 1,000 feet. The lower plain is apparent in the level portions of the highland rim, in the Sequatchie Valley, and in the Tennessee Valley. The upper plain is the general surface of the plateau, below which the streams flow in more or less deeply cut channels and above which rise a few isolated hills or mesas.

Areas of these two plains have been recognized over nearly the entire Appalachian province, separated by a varying vertical distance, and their relations throw much light upon the history of the province during the later geologic ages. This region formerly stood much lower than now, so that the present plateau, the higher plain, was near sea-level. The land was worn down by streams flowing upon its surface till it was reduced to a nearly even plain, with only here and there a low hill remaining where the rocks were unusually hard or where they were protected from erosion by their position. Since the surface was not perfectly reduced this is called a *peneplain*, and since it was formed near the lowest possible level of erosion it is called a *baselevel peneplain*. After the surface of the land had become reduced nearly to sea-level this region was elevated about 1,000 feet and at the same time tilted southward. The streams, which had become sluggish, were at once stimulated to renewed activity and began rapidly to sink their channels into the peneplain. Erosion progressed most rapidly upon soft rocks, so that on the western part of this area, where the sandstone capping was thin, and in the Sequatchie anticline, where limestone formed the surface, the streams quickly sank their channels down nearly to the new baselevel of erosion, and then, by broadening their valleys, began the formation of a new peneplain. The old peneplain was preserved at the higher level where the hard rocks capped the plateau. After the formation of the second peneplain was well advanced upon areas of soft rocks, the region was again lifted and the streams began cutting their present channels within the last-formed peneplain.

GEOLOGY.

STRATIGRAPHY.

The sedimentary record.—All the rocks appearing at the surface within the limits of the Pikeville atlas sheet are of sedimentary origin; that is, they were deposited by water. They consist of sandstones, shales, and limestones, presenting great variety in composition and appearance. The materials of which they are composed were originally gravel, sand, and mud, derived from the waste of older rocks, or the remains of plants and animals which lived while the strata were being laid down. Thus some of the great beds of limestone were formed largely from the shells of various sea animals, and the beds of coal are the remains of a luxuriant vegetation which probably covered low, swampy shores.

The rocks of this portion of the Appalachian province afford a record of almost uninterrupted sedimentation from early Silurian to late Carboniferous time. Their composition and appearance indicate the nearness to shore and the depth of water in which they were deposited. Sandstones marked by ripples and cross-bedded by currents, and shales cracked by the sun on mud flats, indicate shallow water; while limestones, especially by the fossils they contain, indicate greater or less depth of water and absence of sediment. The character of the adjacent land is also shown by the character of the sediments derived from its waste. Coarse sandstones and conglomerates, such as are found in the Coal Measures, were derived from high land, on which stream grades were steep, or they may have resulted from wave action as the sea encroached upon a sinking coast. Red sandstones and shales, such as make up some of the Cambrian and Silurian formations a few miles to the east, result from the revival of erosion on a land surface long exposed to rock decay and oxidation, and hence covered by a deep residual soil. Limestones, on the other hand, if deposited

near the shore, indicate that the land was low and that its streams were too sluggish to carry off coarse sediment, the sea receiving only fine sediment and substances in solution.

The sea in which these sediments were laid down covered most of the Appalachian province and the Mississippi basin. The area of the Pikeville sheet was near its eastern margin, and the materials of which its rocks are composed were therefore derived largely from the land to the eastward. The exact position of the eastern shore-line of this ancient sea is not known, but it probably varied from time to time within rather wide limits.

SILURIAN ROCKS.

The oldest rocks exposed within the limits of the Pikeville sheet belong to the Silurian, or possibly the upper Cambrian, period. Probably the older Cambrian rocks, which are brought to the surface by the steep folds a few miles eastward, extend beneath the whole of this area and far beyond its western limit, but since they have never been brought to light by natural or artificial means nothing is definitely known as to their character.

Knox dolomite.—This formation consists of massively bedded and somewhat crystalline, gray, magnesian limestone. Its base is not exposed in this district, but the formation is probably over 3,000 feet thick. Its lower portion is probably of Cambrian age, but since it is almost entirely devoid of fossils and is homogeneous throughout, the line between the Cambrian and Silurian is very indefinite. This limestone, more properly called dolomite, contains a large amount of silica in the form of nodules or layers of chert or flint. That part of the rock which consists of the carbonates of lime and magnesia is dissolved upon weathering, leaving behind the chert, usually imbedded in red clay. This residual material covers the surface to great depths, and the dolomite itself is seldom seen except in the channels of the larger streams.

The Knox dolomite comes to the surface only in a belt about two miles wide through the center of Sequatchie Valley. Its outcrops, except near the rivers, are marked by the characteristic low, rounded, chert hills, which rise from 100 to 300 feet above the Tennessee River.

Chickamauga limestone.—The next higher formation, the Chickamauga limestone, occupies a narrow belt on each side of the Knox dolomite, the three belts together forming the greater part of the Sequatchie Valley. The formation is mainly a blue, thin-bedded, flaggy limestone, with some earthy, mottled beds and some which are slightly shaly. It is from 1,100 to 1,300 feet in thickness. The limestone contains many fossils, the most abundant being brachiopods and corals.

The formation takes its name from the valley of Chickamauga Creek, shown on the Chattanooga and Ringgold atlas sheets, where it is typically developed.

Rockwood formation.—The last-described formation passes without abrupt transition into this higher division of the Silurian strata. The base of the Rockwood consists of calcareous shales together with thin beds of hard, blue limestone. The upper portion is made up of green clay-shales, quite calcareous where they are unweathered, with a few beds of limestone. The formation is from 165 to 360 feet thick, and its outcrop forms a narrow band along the eastern side and about the head of Sequatchie Valley. The corresponding outcrop, which would normally occur along the western side of the valley, is absent by reason of the fault on that side of the Sequatchie anticline. The formation is of great economic importance on account of the red fossil iron ore which it usually contains. This will be described under the head of Mineral Resources. The formation is named from Rockwood, Tennessee, in the Kingston district.

DEVONIAN ROCKS.

Chattanooga black shale.—Overlying the Rockwood formation is a thin stratum of shale which appears to represent the whole of the deposition that took place in this region during the Devonian period. Typical exposures of this shale appear in the north end of Cameron Hill, within the city limits of Chattanooga, from which locality it takes its name.

The Chattanooga black shale has a remarkably

uniform character wherever seen within the limits of the atlas sheet and for a long distance on either side north and south. It varies in thickness from 12 to 25 feet. The upper portion of the shale, 3 or 4 feet thick, is usually dark-gray in color, and often carries a layer of round phosphatic concretions about an inch in diameter. The remainder of the formation is jet-black, from an abundance of carbonaceous matter, and when freshly broken it emits a strong odor like that of petroleum.

This shale, on account of its distinctive and striking appearance, has attracted much attention from miners, and has been prospected in many places for coal and various ores, especially silver and copper. Such exploitation, however, has always been attended by failure. Although it contains a large proportion of carbonaceous matter, which burns when it is placed in a hot fire, the amount is not sufficient to constitute a fuel, and no true coal is ever found associated with the shale. Small concretions of iron pyrites, which it often carries, have given rise to the commonly accepted but wholly erroneous belief that the shale contains valuable ores.

In some portions of middle Tennessee, southwest of Nashville, the Chattanooga black shale is of commercial importance, since valuable beds of phosphate there occur associated with it. The conditions favorable for the accumulation of this lime phosphate in thick beds appear to have been quite local, and although, as already stated, the formation generally carries phosphatic nodules, no bed of sufficient thickness to be commercially valuable is found in the area covered by this sheet.

CARBONIFEROUS ROCKS.

Fort Payne chert.—This formation consists of about 150 feet of very siliceous limestone. At the base, resting on the Chattanooga black shale, are usually heavy beds of chert with only a small amount of limestone or greenish shale. The proportion of lime increases toward the top of the formation and, gradually replacing the chert, it passes, without abrupt transition, into the Bangor limestone above. The chert of this formation is readily distinguished from that of the Knox dolomite by the great number of fossils which it contains. It is often made up of a mass of crinoid stems imbedded in a siliceous cement. On weathering the cement remains as a porous chert filled with fossil impressions. In some cases the fossils alone are silicified, so that they remain in the soil after the solution of the calcareous portion of the rock. The formation occurs in a narrow strip along the eastern side of Sequatchie Valley, and frequently forms, with the underlying Chattanooga and Rockwood formations, a narrow ridge or line of knobs parallel with the plateau escarpment. On the western side of Sequatchie Valley it appears north of Tollett Mill, and for a short distance between Cold Spring and Pikeville, but elsewhere it is concealed by the Sequatchie fault, as are also the underlying Chattanooga and Rockwood shales. The chert is also exposed in two narrow strips in the southeast corner of the district, parallel with the eastern escarpment of the Walden Plateau. The name of the formation is taken from Fort Payne, Alabama.

Bangor limestone.—The Bangor limestone consists of 850 or 900 feet of limestone which everywhere forms the lower slopes of the escarpment, the floors of all the coves, and the inner portion of the highland rim. In general it is a massive, blue, crinoidal limestone, although it presents many local variations from this type. Nodules of chert are more or less abundant throughout the formation, though not evenly distributed. Along the western escarpment beds of white, porous chert are somewhat abundant in the limestone, though they are usually found imbedded in deep, red clay. In some cases, particularly along the western side of the Sequatchie Valley south of Pikeville, the limestone contains a very large proportion of argillaceous matter, so that when the calcareous portion of the rock has been removed by solution it appears as a fine, clayey shale, usually gray or green, but sometimes red and purple. It seems that the conditions under which the limestone formed were not everywhere the same, and some localities were furnished with a larger supply of muddy sediment than others near by.

In the northern half of the tract a bed of hard, brown sandstone, 15 to 20 feet in thickness, occurs

in the limestone about 280 feet below its top. This sandstone bed is seen in the coves of Crab Orchard Mountains (in the upper part of the Sequatchie Valley) and along the western escarpment. It protects, in some measure, the underlying limestone, so that in many places it forms the surface of a terrace for a part of the way down the side of the escarpment. It also caps most of the outlying limestone hills west of the escarpment, which accounts for their level summits.

Lookout sandstone.—The calcareous shales at the top of the Bangor limestone indicate a change in the conditions of sedimentation, shoaling water, and an increase in quantity of sediment. During the deposition of the succeeding formation the sea bottom was lifted, so that the water became shallow over a wide area, while an abundant supply of mud and sand was washed in from the adjoining land. These conditions were unfavorable for the animals whose remains are so abundant in the preceding formation, and instead of limestone a great mass of shale and sandstone was deposited. The surface also stood above sea-level at various times, long enough at least for the growth of the luxuriant vegetation which formed the coal beds.

The Lookout sandstone includes from 90 to 650 feet of conglomerate, sandstone, sandy and clayey shale, and coal. Its upper limit, which is fixed somewhat arbitrarily, is taken at the top of a heavy bed of conglomerate usually forming the main cliff in the plateau of escarpments. Frequently a hard, cross-bedded sandstone below the conglomerate, and separated from it by an interval of sandy shale, makes a second cliff, in some places more prominent than that formed by the conglomerate. The formation increases in thickness from about 550 feet on the western side of the Walden Plateau to 650 feet in the Sequatchie Valley, and thence decreases westward to 90 feet at Clifty Creek, near the center of the district. At the latter point it consists of a single member.

The shales and sandstones which ordinarily underlie the conglomerate entirely disappear, and the coarse, pebbly conglomerate rests directly on the Bangor limestone. West of this point the underlying shales reappear, and at Bon Air, on the western side of the plateau, they are nearly 100 feet in thickness and contain two beds of coal. It is not definitely determined whether the lower portion of the formation was deposited continuously over the whole region and then removed by erosion before the conglomerate was laid down, or whether it was never deposited in some places. The latter, however, is more probable. It seems that the sediments which make up this formation were deposited upon a somewhat uneven sea bottom, in broad, shallow troughs extending in a northeast-southwest direction. Thus the limestone at Clifty Creek may have been lifted high enough to suffer erosion while the Lookout shale and coal were being deposited in estuaries and swamps on either side.

The Walden sandstone.—Above the Lookout conglomerate is another series of coal, shale, sandstone, and conglomerate similar to the one just described, but somewhat more uniform in its character and presenting less-abrupt changes. The formation is capable of subdivision in most places into four members. At the base are several hundred feet of shales, in some places approaching a fire-clay in appearance and in others passing through micaceous, sandy shale into thin-bedded sandstones. This member is the most important part of the formation, since it contains the principal coal seam of the region. It decreases in thickness toward the west and entirely disappears near the western escarpment, where the next member above it rests directly upon the Lookout conglomerate. Above the lower shale is a variable thickness of coarse, white or yellow sandstone, in some places containing a few conglomerate pebbles. This sandstone forms the surface of the plateau over a considerable portion of the area shown on the sheet. Above this middle sandstone are sandy shales, distinguished from those below by the large amount of iron which they contain, giving them usually a rusty, yellow surface. Finally, at the top of the Walden is a heavy, coarse sandstone, generally conglomeritic. The two upper members of the Walden occur chiefly along the eastern side of the Walden and Cumberland plateaus. They also form the broad, rounded hills which were described as rising above the general level of the plateau.

These two formations, the Lookout and Walden sandstones, constitute the productive coal measures of the region. The position and thickness of the various beds of coal will be described under the head of Mineral Resources.

At the close of the Carboniferous period this region was elevated permanently above sea-level, so that the constructive process of deposition was stopped and the destructive process of erosion was begun.

STRUCTURE.

Definition of terms.—As the materials forming the rocks of this region were deposited upon the sea bottom, they must originally have been in nearly horizontal layers. At present, however, the beds are not usually horizontal, but are inclined at various angles. When any particular bed is followed for a considerable distance, it is often found forming a series of arches and troughs. In describing these folded strata the term *syncline* is applied to the downward-bending troughs and *anticline* to the upward-bending arches.

A synclinal axis is a line running lengthwise of the synclinal trough, at every point occupying its lowest part, toward which the rocks dip on either side. An anticlinal axis is a line which occupies at every point the highest portion of the anticlinal arch, and away from which the rocks dip on either side. These axes may be horizontal or inclined. Their departure from the horizontal is called the *pitch* of the axis, and is usually but a few degrees. In addition to the folding, and as a result of the continued action of the same forces which produced it, the strata along certain lines have been fractured and the rocks have been thrust in different directions on opposite sides of the fracture; this is termed a *fault*. The rocks are also altered by production of new minerals from the old, or by *metamorphism*.

Structure of the Appalachian province.—These three method of change which the rocks of the province have suffered are grouped very distinctly along the three geographical divisions.

In the plateau region and westward the rocks are but little tilted from their original horizontal positions and are almost entirely unchanged; in the valley the rocks have been steeply tilted, bent into anticlines and synclines, broken by faults, and to some extent altered into slates; in the mountain district faults and folds are prominent, but the rocks have been changed to a greater extent by the minute breaks of cleavage and by the growth of new minerals.

In the valley the folds, and the faults developed from them, are parallel among themselves and to the old land body, extending in a northeast-southwest direction for great distances. Some faults have been traced for 300 miles, and some folds have even greater length. The crests of the anticlines are very uniform in height, so that for long distances they contain the same formations. They are also approximately equal to one another in height, so that many parallel folds bring to the surface the same formations. Most of the rocks dip at angles greater than 10°, and frequently the sides of the folds are compressed till they are parallel. The folding is greater in thin-bedded rocks, such as shale and shaly limestone, because the thin layers were most readily bent, and slipped along their bedding planes. Perhaps the most striking feature of the folds is the prevalence of southeastward dips. In some sections across the southern portion of the Appalachian Valley scarcely a bed can be found which dips toward the northwest.

Out of the close folds the faults were developed, and with extremely few exceptions the fault planes dip toward the southeast. The planes on which the rocks broke and moved are often parallel to the bedding planes, as the rocks slipped on the beds in folding. Along these planes of fracture the rocks moved to distances sometimes as great as 6 or 8 miles. There is a progressive increase in degree of deformation from northeast to southwest, resulting in different types in different places. In northern Pennsylvania, folds are inconspicuous. Passing through Pennsylvania toward Virginia, they rapidly become more numerous and dips grow steeper. In southern Virginia the folds are closely compressed and often closed, while occasional faults appear. Passing through Virginia and into Tennessee, the folds are more and more broken by faults, until, halfway through Tennessee, nearly every fold is broken and the strata form a series of narrow, overlap-

ping blocks, all dipping eastward. This condition holds nearly the same southward into Alabama, but the faults become fewer in number and their horizontal displacement much greater, while the folds are somewhat more open.

In the Appalachian Mountains the structure is the same as that which marks the Great Valley: there are the eastward dips, the close folds, the thrust faults, etc. But in addition to these changes of form, which took place mainly by motion on the bedding planes, there were developed a series of minute breaks across the strata, producing cleavage, or a tendency to split readily along these new planes. These planes dip to the east at from 20° to 90° , usually about 60° . This slaty cleavage was somewhat developed in the valley, but not to such an extent as in the mountains. As the breaks became more frequent and greater, they were accompanied by growth of new minerals out of the fragments of the old. These consisted chiefly of mica and quartz, and were crystallized parallel to the cleavage cracks. The final stage of the process resulted in the squeezing and stretching of hard minerals like quartz, and complete recrystallization of the softer rock particles. All rocks, both those of sedimentary origin and those which were originally crystalline, were subjected to this process, and the final products from the metamorphism of very different rocks are often indistinguishable from one another. Rocks containing the most feldspar were most thoroughly altered, and those with most quartz were least changed. Throughout the entire Appalachian province there is a regular increase of metamorphism toward the southeast, so that a bed quite unaltered at the border of the Great Valley can be traced through greater and greater changes until it has lost every original character.

The structures above described are manifestly due chiefly to horizontal compression, which acted in a northwest-southeast direction, at right angles to the trend of the folds and cleavage planes. The compression apparently began in early Paleozoic time, and probably continued at intervals up to its culmination, shortly after the close of the Carboniferous, when the greater portion of the folding was effected.

In addition to the horizontal force of compression, the province has been subjected to other forces, which have repeatedly elevated and depressed its surface. At least two periods of high land near the sea and two longer periods of low land are indicated by the character of the Paleozoic sediments. And in post-Paleozoic time there have been at least three, and probably more, periods of decided oscillation of the land due to the action of some vertical force. In every case the movements have resulted in warping the surface, and the greatest uplift has occurred nearly along the line of the Great Valley.

Structure sections.—The two sections on the structure sheet represent the strata as they would appear in the sides of a deep trench cut across the country. Their position with reference to the map is on the line at the upper edge of the blank strip. The vertical and horizontal scales are the same, so that the elevations represented in the profile are not exaggerated, but show the actual form and slope of the land. These sections represent the structure as it is inferred from the position of the strata observed at the surface. On the scale of the map they can not represent the minute details of structure; they are therefore somewhat generalized from the dips observed near the line of the section in a belt a few miles in width.

Faults are represented on the map by a heavy solid or broken line, and in the sections by a line whose inclination shows the probable dip of the fault plane, the arrows indicating the direction in which the strata have been moved on its opposite sides.

Structure of the Pikeville district.—The area embraced within the limits of this sheet shows but little diversity in geologic structure. There are no crystalline rocks and no traces of metamorphism. Over the greater portion of the district the strata are nearly horizontal, dipping but a few feet to the mile, so that their inclination can be detected only by determining the altitude of some particular bed at several widely separated points. The southeastern corner of the district belongs to the central division of the Appalachian province, which is characterized by steep, narrow folds.

The Sequatchie anticline is typical of the Appa-

lachian folds. In length it is somewhat greater than the Sequatchie valley, for at its ends the upper rocks have not been removed by erosion, but remain as a high arch. This arch forms the Crab Orchard Mountains, in the Kingston tract. On the southeastern side of the anticline the rocks dip at low angles, from 8° to 12° , while on the northwestern side they are much more steeply inclined, being in some places vertical or over-turned. Upon the northwestern side of the anticline the strata are broken by a fault, and older rocks are thrust across the broken edges of the younger. Thus near Pikeville the Bangor limestone west of the fault comes in contact with the Chickamauga limestone, the three intermediate formations which normally occur being entirely concealed.

The structure of the southeastern corner of the tract is somewhat complicated, and can be understood only in connection with the adjacent regions to the east and south. Cranmore Cove is formed on a point of the sharp anticline which separates the narrow Lone Mountain syncline from the broad Walden Plateau syncline. This anticline is complicated by a fault near the center of the cove. The abrupt termination of this anticline and the erosion which has been determined by it produce a sharp angle in the eastern escarpment of the Walden Plateau. To the north of the line of the section B-B the formations have been more closely compressed than to the south, so that for a short distance the beds strike northwest at right angles to the normal direction. This produces an offset in the course of the narrow formations in the valley corresponding to that in the escarpment of the plateau, but in the opposite direction. This offset is accompanied by several small faults, so that part of the formations do not occupy their normal positions with reference to the others. The Walden Plateau is a broad, shallow syncline. Along its eastern side the strata dip steeply westward. In some places they are almost vertical, but within distance of half a mile or less from the edge they become horizontal, and thence to the western side of the plateau they have a very gentle eastward dip. Thus the axis of the syncline, or the line coinciding with its deepest portion, lies very near its eastern side.

West of Sequatchie Valley and south of Bee Creek the strata are practically horizontal except along the edge of the valley, where they are sharply upturned. As in the Walden Plateau they have a gentle eastward dip, although much less in this case, averaging perhaps 25 or 30 feet to the mile. The structure of the plateau in the northern half of the district is much less simple. An anticlinal axis enters the district near its northeast corner and passes southwestward approximately parallel with the axis of the Sequatchie anticline. Unlike the latter, the steepest dips are upon the eastern side of the axis, and are as high as 15 or 20 degrees in the vicinity of Crossville. This anticline is well marked at Lantana and can be detected at Hale's mill. Although the rocks west of this anticline are in general nearly horizontal, they show a large number of minor folds, in which the shales, and in some cases the massive sandstone beds, have been crushed and highly contorted. This condition will interfere seriously with the economic development of the coal.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

Coal.—The productive coal-bearing formations, consisting of the Lookout and Walden sandstones, occupy the surface of the Cumberland and Walden plateaus. They have an area within the region of the atlas sheet of a little over 600 square miles. Not quite all of this, however, contains workable coal.

The accompanying vertical sections show the position and thickness of the various coal beds. These sections are not generalized, but each represents the actual measurements made at a single locality. It will be seen that the beds vary considerably in number, position, and thickness from one part of the field to another. The datum plane from which their position is measured up or down in the section is the top of the Lookout conglomerate. It is not always possible to determine this point exactly, so that some uncertainty is thus introduced into the correlation of coal beds in the different parts of the field.

The coal beneath the Lookout conglomerate

has been worked in a small way at various places in the district, especially at the head of Cranmore Cove and in the vicinity of Pikeville. It is worked on a large scale only at Bon Air, on the western side of the plateau. As already stated, the shales beneath the conglomerate which contain the coal beds are absent along the line passing nearly north and south through the mouth of Clifty Creek. Since the deposits on opposite sides of this line may have been laid down in separate basins, the coal beds which they contain may or may not be of the same age; hence it is unsafe to correlate the Bon Air coal with sub-conglomerate seams showing in the eastern part of the district. At Bon Air two seams are worked. They are separated by from 5 to 15 feet of fire-clay and sandy shale. The workings on the two seams are connected by cross-cuts, and the coal from both is taken out by the same entry. The lower seam rests almost directly upon the limestone, being separated by a few inches or feet of marly shale. The two seams are about the same thickness. They vary from 8 inches to 4 feet, but average about 3 feet. They are non-coking, block coal, excellent for steaming and for domestic fuel. The lower seam contains some sulphur and gives a white ash, while the upper seam is free from sulphur and gives a red ash. The extent of the Bon Air coal is not known, but its eastern limit will probably be found within 3 or 4 miles east of the present workings.

On account of their great variation in thickness it is not probable that the Lookout coals can be profitably worked on a large scale over the greater part of the district. At many points, however, it will continue to supply local demands for domestic fuel.

The most important coal in the region, by reason of its greater thickness and uniformity, is the Sewanee seam, which occurs a short distance above the Lookout conglomerate. Its area in the part made up of thin, evenly bedded sandstone, varying in color from light yellow to pink. This is easily quarried in large, regular slabs from two inches to a foot in thickness. It is excellently adapted for flagging or for the trimmings of brick buildings. A similar sandstone is quarried near Dayton, just beyond the southern edge of the area of the sheet.

The hard, blue Bangor and Chickamauga limestones furnish an abundant supply of macadam material, which would require but little transportation to make excellent roads in all the valley portion of the country shown on the sheet. The residual chert in the Fort Payne and Knox dolomite formations is an excellent road material and might be used to advantage in surfacing macadam roads. Unfortunately these abundant materials are as yet wholly utilized.

Clays.—The residual deposits resulting from the weathering of the Bangor and Chickamauga limestones are red or blue clays, generally well adapted for making brick. They are utilized for supplying local demands in the vicinity of the larger towns. At some points this clay is suitable for pottery and tiling. Several beds of fire-clay which are associated with the coal probably contain material well adapted for making fire-brick, but they are as yet wholly undeveloped.

SOILS.

Derivation and distribution.—Throughout the region covered by the Pikeville atlas sheet there is a very close relation between the character of the soils and that of the underlying geologic formations. Except in limited areas along the larger streams and on the steepest slopes, the soils are derived directly from the decay and disintegration of the rocks on which they lie. All sedimentary rocks such as occur in this region are changed by surface waters more or less rapidly, the rapidity depending on the character of the cement which holds their particles together. Siliceous cement is nearly insoluble, and rocks in which it is present, such as quartzite and some sandstones, are extremely durable and produce but a scanty soil. Calcareous cement, on the other hand, is readily dissolved by water containing carbonic acid, and the particles which it held together in the rock crumble down and form a deep soil. If the calcareous cement makes up but a small part of the rock, it is often leached out far below the surface, and the rock retains its form but becomes soft and porous; but if, as in limestone, the calcareous material forms the greater part of the rock, the insoluble portions collect on the surface as a mantle of soil, varying in thickness with the character of the limestone, being generally quite thin where the latter is pure, but often very thick where it contains much insoluble matter.

When derived in this way from the disintegration of the underlying rock, soils are called sedimentary. If the rock is a sandstone or sandy

shale the soil is sandy, and if it is a clay-shale or limestone the resulting soil is clay. As there are abrupt changes in the character of the rocks, sandstones and shales alternating with limestones, so there are abrupt transitions in the character of the soil, and soils differing widely in composition and agricultural qualities often occur side by side. Knowing the character of the soils derived from the various geological formations, their distribution may be approximately determined from the map showing the areal geology, which thus serves also as a soil map. The only considerable areas in which the boundaries between different varieties of soil do not coincide with the formation boundaries are in the river bottoms and upon the steep slopes, where soils derived from rocks higher up the slope have washed down and mingled with or covered the soil derived from those below. The latter are called overplaced soils, and a special map would be required to show their distribution.

Classification.—The soils of this region may conveniently be classed as (1) sandy soils, derived from the Walden and Lookout sandstones; (2) clay soils, derived from the Bangor and Chickamauga limestones and the Rockwood shale; (3) cherty soils, derived from the Fort Payne chert and the Knox dolomite; (4) alluvial soils, deposited by the larger streams on their flood-plains.

Sandy soils.—The Cumberland Plateau is formed of sandstones and sandy shales, and its soil is a sandy loam. At the surface it is gray, while the subsoil is generally light-yellow, but varies to deep-red. In some places it consists largely of sand, but in others it contains sufficient clay to give the subsoil considerable coherence, so that a cut bank will remain vertical for some years. The depth of soil on the plateau varies from a few inches to ten feet or more, diminishing in proximity to streams, where erosion is most active. A large part of the plateau retains its original forest growth, chiefly of oak, chestnut, and hickory, while pines clothe the steep sides of the stream channels. The practice of burning off the leaves each fall prevents the accumulation of vegetable mold and has delayed a just appreciation of the agricultural possibilities of this region. It has been found well adapted to fruit-raising, particularly for grapes and apples.

Since the sandstones of this region occupy the highest land, the overplaced soils, or those washed down to lower levels, are mostly sandy. They are especially abundant at the foot of the escarpment surrounding the plateaus, where the Bangor limestone and its clay soil are often wholly concealed. The delta deposits formed by streams emerging from gorges cut in the plateaus also give consider-

able areas of sandy soil, overlying rocks which would themselves produce clay or cherty soils.

Clay soils.—These are derived chiefly from the Bangor and Chickamauga limestones, and their distribution coincides with the outcrops of these formations, as shown on the geologic map. They sometimes have a deep-red color, but where the mantle of residual material covering the rock is thin it is often dark bluish-gray. The rocks generally weather more rapidly where they have a steep dip than where they are nearly horizontal. Hence the soil is deeper and more highly colored on the narrow belt of Chickamauga limestone on the western side of Sequatchie Valley than in the broader belt of the same rocks on the eastern side.

The soil in the many coves which penetrate the Cumberland Plateau is derived chiefly from the Bangor limestone. It is a bluish clay with a slight admixture of sand from the rocks capping the plateau, and is exceptionally fertile. It is especially adapted to clover and grain. Considerable areas of red-clay land occur on the highland rim between the foot of the plateau and the inner edge of the Barrens.

Cherty soils.—A considerable portion of the Sequatchie Valley is underlain by the Knox dolomite. The soil derived from this formation consists of clay in which chert is imbedded. The

proportion of chert to clay is variable; in some places only occasional fragments occur, while in others the residual material is made up almost wholly of chert. Where the clay predominates the soil is deep-red, but becomes lighter with the increase in amount of chert, and in extreme cases is light-gray or white. Even when the proportion of chert is very large this is a strong, productive soil, especially adapted to fruit-raising. The soil derived from the Fort Payne chert is similar to that from the Knox dolomite, but the areas of the Fort Payne are much smaller and are usually on steep slopes, so that its soil is relatively unimportant.

Alluvial soils.—The Sequatchie River is bordered by narrow strips of bottom-land covered with a rich alluvial soil derived from the limestones of the valley and the surrounding sandstones. All the other streams in the district are at present cutting their channels deeper, so that they have no flood-plains, and hence deposit no alluvial soils.

CHARLES WILLARD HAYES,
Geologist.

May, 1895.