



INTRODUCTION

One aspect of the physical environment critical to sound land-use planning is the nature and distribution of surficial deposits. Because surficial deposits are common of earth materials—unconsolidated soft sediments or surficial deposits will move down slope easier than consolidated hard bedrock; (2) structural properties of earth materials— the orientation of the layering of some rocks and sediments relative to slope directions, the orientation of the layering of some rocks and sediments relative to slope directions, as well as the extent and type of fracturing and cross-bedding of the materials—will affect landslide potential; (3) steepness of slopes—landslides occur more readily on steeper slopes; (4) water—landsliding is generally more frequent in areas of seasonally high rainfall, because the addition of water to earth materials commonly decreases their resistance to sliding; water decreases internal friction between particles, decreases cohesive forces that bind clay minerals together, lubricates surfaces along which slips may occur, adds weight to surficial deposits and bedrock, reacts with some clay minerals, causing volume changes in the material, and mixes with fine-grained unconsolidated materials to produce wet, unstable slurries; (5) ground shaking—strong shaking during earthquakes can jar and loosen bedrock and surficial materials, making them less stable; (6) type of vegetation—dense deep penetrating root land to hold bedrock and surficial deposits together, thereby increasing ground stability; (7) proximity to areas undergoing active erosion—rapid undercutting and downcutting along stream courses makes slopes in these areas particularly susceptible to landsliding.

The representation of surficial deposits on this map reflects the way in which a geologist, working exclusively with aerial photographs, interpreted the origin of various elements of the present-day landscape. The deposits shown here have not been examined in the field. By viewing overlapping vertical aerial photographs through a stereoscope, the geologist uses a three-dimensional relief model of the ground surface and can readily study and interpret the origins of landforms. In fact, for mapping surficial deposits, particularly in reconnaissance-type studies, the use of aerial photographs has advantages over both ground observations and laboratory studies of surficial materials. Of course, better information can be provided when all aspects of the study are integrated. Preliminary photointerpretation maps such as this provide land-use planners with immediately useful information about the distribution of landslide and other surficial deposits.

Man's activities can alter natural physical processes in many ways. Simple acts such as oversteening a lawn or placing a septic tank drainfield in ground that is marginally stable may weaken the bedrock and surficial materials enough to induce landsliding. Relatively stable areas may be made unstable by construction activities that involve cutting or oversteening of natural slopes. For engineers, builders, conservationists, and others concerned with land use who evaluate the potential effects of all types of development, maps showing the nature and distribution of surficial deposits are especially useful.

This map, then, shows the cumulative effects of various processes that have yielded surficial deposits to the time the photographs used for photointerpretation were taken. It does not directly indicate areas where processes will be most active, nor does it show the rate at which they will operate. Knowledge of the history of geologic events is a key to understanding and predicting the evolution of an area, even where man's activities significantly change the character of the land. Almost all new landslides, for example, occur in areas with a history of activity.

The landslides shown on this map are concentrated in a northwest-southeast-trending belt approximately defined by the subparallel ridge lines above the valley of Cold Creek. The rocks underlying the map area are granitic, andesitic, and serpentine of the Franciscan assemblage of Jurassic and Cretaceous age. Franciscan rocks are greatly sheared, folded and faulted throughout the California Coast Ranges. Landslides are commonly localized where the more highly sheared or mudstone-rich Franciscan rocks are exposed. The fundamental geologic framework of the area mapped strongly determined the more recent geologic processes and their results. In particular, Pleistocene and Holocene climatic changes (Pleistocene, 1973) and tectonic events (Sims and Rymer, 1974) have been largely responsible for the geomorphic responses in the Clear Lake region.

Factors relating to major episodes in the history of Clear Lake are discussed by Davis (1933, 1948), Anderson (1950), Brice (1953), Hodges (1966) and Hopkins (1973). Central to Davis' argument is the occurrence of a large landslide "several centuries ago" that blocked Cold Creek and completed the formation of Clear Lake. Anderson (1950) and Brice (1953) favored an hypothesis based on evidence that Clear Lake is contained in a fault-bounded basin. Hodges (1966) and Hopkins (1973) strongly favor the hypothesis of Anderson and Brice modified slightly to make use of the evidence of Davis. To our knowledge, no one has carefully examined Davis' evidence and its implications on the geologic history of the Clear Lake region. The purpose of this map is to delineate landslides in the Cow Mountain 7 1/2 minute quadrangle that bear on the geologic history of Clear Lake approximately 16 km to the southeast of upper Blue Lake.

General background

The physical properties and engineering characteristics of the mapped surficial deposits can be inferred from knowledge of the geologic processes that formed them. Thus, with the information provided by this map, preliminary evaluation of the significance of the materials and processes with regard to land-use decisions can be made.

Landslide deposits

Landslide deposit approximately 200 feet in longest dimension. Querted where identification uncertain. Arrows indicate direction of downslope movement and is positioned over location of deposit.

Debris composed of fresh and weathered rock fragments, sediments, colluvial material, and artificial fill, or any combinations thereof, that has been transported downslope by falling, sliding, rotational slumping, or flowing. Landslide deposits smaller than approximately 200 feet in longest dimension are not shown on the map. Complex landslide deposits resulting from combination of different types of downslope movement, are perhaps the most common type of landslide deposit in the Clear Lake region. In particular, materials near the head of landslide deposits typically move in a different manner than materials at the toe. The landslides deposits shown on this map have not been classified according to type of movement or type of material. The deposits vary in appearance from clearly discernible, largely unweathered and unsorted topographic features to indistinct, highly weathered and eroded features recognizable only by their characteristic topographic configurations. The time of formation of the mapped landslide deposits ranges from possibly a few hundred thousand years ago to 1936. No landslide deposits that formed since 1936 are shown. The thickness of the landslide deposits may vary from about 10 feet to several hundred feet. The larger deposits are generally thickest; many small deposits may be very thin and may involve only surficial materials.

Landslide deposits

Landslides occur when the pull of gravity on earth materials overcomes their frictional resistance to downslope movement. Slope stability is a function of (1) type of earth materials—unconsolidated soft sediments or surficial deposits will move down slope easier than consolidated hard bedrock; (2) structural properties of earth materials—the orientation of the layering of some rocks and sediments relative to slope directions, as well as the extent and type of fracturing and cross-bedding of the materials—will affect landslide potential; (3) steepness of slopes—landslides occur more readily on steeper slopes; (4) water—landsliding is generally more frequent in areas of seasonally high rainfall, because the addition of water to earth materials commonly decreases their resistance to sliding; water decreases internal friction between particles, decreases cohesive forces that bind clay minerals together, lubricates surfaces along which slips may occur, adds weight to surficial deposits and bedrock, reacts with some clay minerals, causing volume changes in the material, and mixes with fine-grained unconsolidated materials to produce wet, unstable slurries; (5) ground shaking—strong shaking during earthquakes can jar and loosen bedrock and surficial materials, making them less stable; (6) type of vegetation—dense deep penetrating root land to hold bedrock and surficial deposits together, thereby increasing ground stability; (7) proximity to areas undergoing active erosion—rapid undercutting and downcutting along stream courses makes slopes in these areas particularly susceptible to landsliding.

All the natural factors that promote landsliding are present in the Clear Lake region. Man has at times decreased the potential for slope failure by leveling slopes, building retaining walls at the base of slopes, planting trees or seeding forests, as well as practicing soil conservation. Other of his activities, however, have increased the potential for slope failures; increasing slope angle for road or building construction; adding water to marginally stable slopes by watering lawns, improperly handling rain-water runoff, and choosing poor sites for septic foundations; and removing natural vegetation. Thus slope failure, a natural phenomenon throughout the Clear Lake region in the past, may be aggravated by improper land use.

The landslide deposits shown on the map may or may not be continuously or intermittently moving at the present time. The potential for continued movement varies greatly and depends on many factors, including the age of the deposits and the history of their activity. Some deposits may pose no problem for many types of development; others, serious problems. Most landsliding takes place in areas where landsliding has occurred before, and old landslide deposits may be so broken up and disturbed that landsliding may easily recur, especially where slope angle or moisture content are changed. Landslide deposits are characterized by (1) small isolated ponds, lakes, and other closed depressions; (2) abundant natural springs; (3) abrupt and irregular change in slope and drainage patterns; (4) hummocky irregular surfaces; (5) smaller landslide deposits, commonly younger, within older and larger landslide deposits; (6) steep, arcuate scarps at the upper edges; (7) irregular soil and vegetation patterns; (8) disturbed vegetation; and (9) numerous flat areas that might appear suitable for construction sites. In general, few of these characteristics are evident in the small deposits. Detailed ground studies are required for predicting the future behavior of landslide deposits under changing conditions.

Alluvial deposits

The surfaces of alluvial deposits generally are relatively flat with fine-grained sediments deposited on flood plains surrounding the active stream channels. Facilitated soils suitable for diverse agricultural activities are found on many older flood plains. These deposits may be water-bearing, are commonly porous and permeable, and may compact slightly upon loading. In larger drainage basins, they may be excellent shallow sources of water and of construction aggregate. They probably are easy to excavate, as pebbles and cobble-rich layers are locally common. The surface may be subject to flooding seasonally or less frequently; the active stream channel may alter its course gradually over a long period of time or rapidly during flooding. Migration of the channel can result in erosion, undercutting, and failure of the stream banks if the bank edges slump or fall off into the stream channel.

Colluvial deposits and small alluvial fan deposits

Colluvial deposits generally are easily eroded and excavated; they will probably compact under loading and may continue to move slowly downslope, particularly the steeper parts. They may be water-bearing, with small springs associated with some. Grading (for road and building or other construction), particularly when it results in steeper slopes, may accelerate the rate of downslope movement and produce landslide deposits.

Small alluvial fan deposits range in character from sands and gravels deposited by streams to finer grained clay-rich accumulations deposited by mudflows. Some fans include abundant colluvial material, whereas others contain only alluvial sediments. As a result, porous and permeable gravel-rich layers may alternate with impermeable clay-rich layers making the deposits a good shallow source of water. Fan deposits are generally easy to excavate and not very resistant to erosion. Floods and considerable erosion of the fans can be expected during periods of heavy rainfall. Natural slopes are normally stable, although stream undercutting can produce streambank failure, and some compaction or local subsidence of the fan surface may take place.

Problems in interpretation

Mapping of surficial deposits by photointerpretation alone presents a number of difficult problems, some of which can be resolved only through field checking. Problems that are especially difficult include: (1) distinguishing terrace-shoulder-type landslide deposits from alluvial terrace deposits where both are found adjacent to stream courses; (2) recognizing bedrock cropping out beneath surficial deposits, especially where a creek or stream has cut down through the overlying surficial deposits to expose bedrock along the streambed; (3) determining boundaries between adjacent surficial deposits that laterally grade into or interfinger with one another without leaving any easily discernible topographic boundaries, the downstream gradient of alluvial terrace deposits into alluvial deposits; (4) recognizing landslide deposits boundaries—whereas the uplope boundary is commonly defined by an easily recognized scarp, the toe or downslope boundary is seldom well defined and is difficult to locate exactly; (5) recognizing stable masses of bedrock within landslide deposits, especially where the bedrock may appear as a large block within the surrounding landslide deposits; (6) distinguishing between irregular or hummocky topography caused either by variations in the areal resistance of bedrock or by the erosion of landslide deposits; and (7) recognizing any surficial deposit in areas of dense vegetation, as the southwest corner of the mapped area.

SOURCE MATERIALS

The following series of photographs were used: series GS-WY taken in 1957 with an approximate scale of 1:53,000 including photograph numbers 2-46, to 48 and 2-77 to 78; and series GS-CW taken in 1950 with an approximate scale of 1:21,000 including photograph numbers 3V-103 to 109, 5V-116 to 118, 10V-131 to 136, and 10V-213 to 215.

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For sale by U. S. Geological Survey, price \$5.00

PRELIMINARY PHOTOINTERPRETATION MAP OF LANDSLIDES AND OTHER SURFICIAL DEPOSITS IN THE COW MOUNTAIN 7 1/2-MINUTE QUADRANGLE, LAKE AND MENDOCINO COUNTIES, CALIFORNIA

BY

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SCALE 1:24,000

0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 6000 7000 FEET

0 1 2 3 4 5 KILOMETER

CONTOUR INTERVAL 40 FEET

DATUM IS MEAN SEA LEVEL

APPROXIMATE LOCATION

QUADRANGLE LOCATION