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GEOLOGIC ATLAS

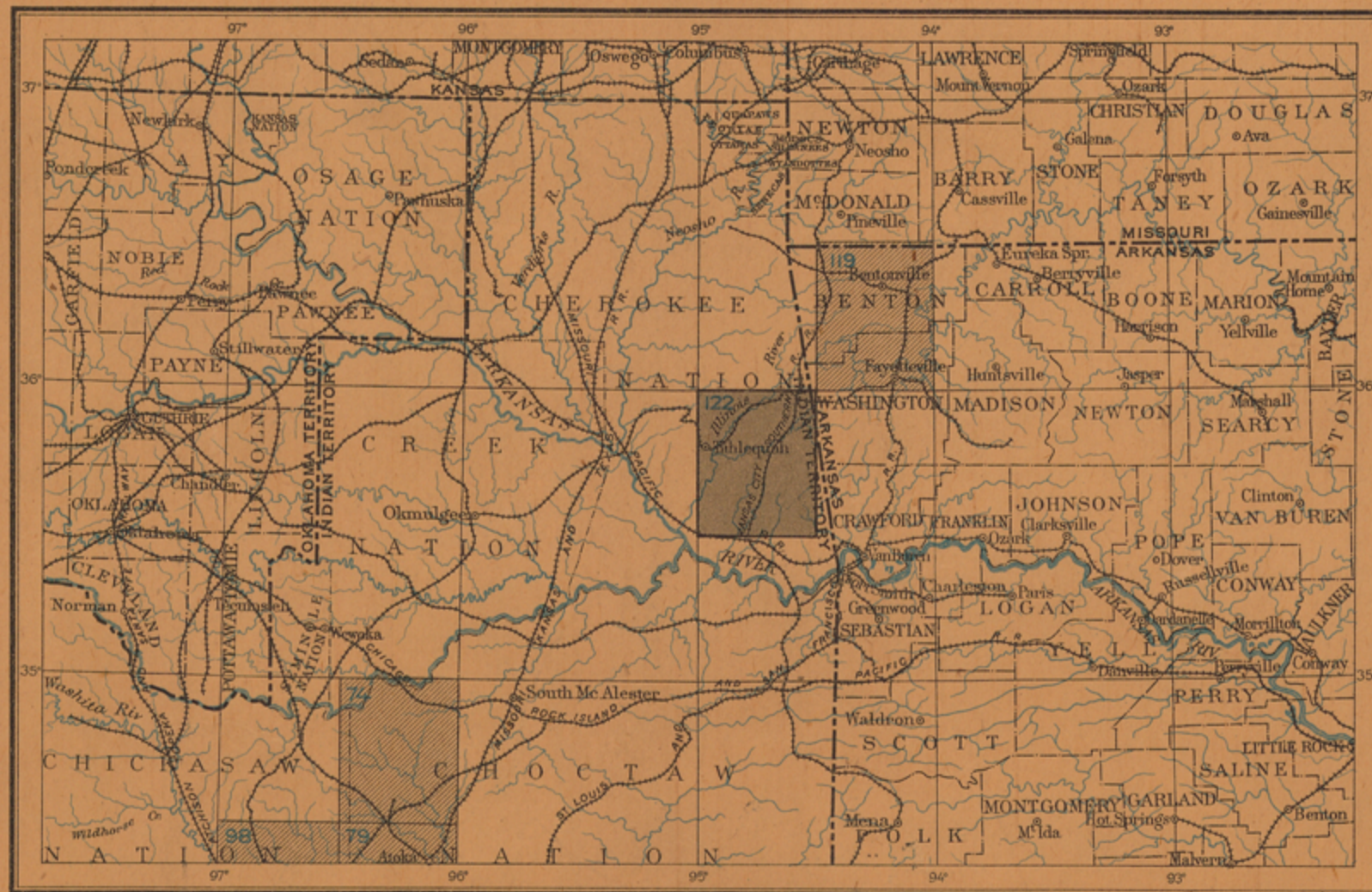
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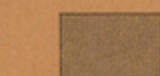
TAHLEQUAH FOLIO

INDIAN TERRITORY-ARKANSAS

INDEX MAP



SCALE: 40 MILES=1 INCH



TAHLEQUAH FOLIO



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TAHLEQUAH FOLIO
NO. 122

WASHINGTON, D. C.

ENGRAVED AND PRINTED BY THE U.S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

GEORGE W. STOSE, EDITOR OF GEOLOGIC MAPS S. J. KUBEL, CHIEF ENGRAVER

1905

GEOLOGIC AND TOPOGRAPHIC ATLAS OF UNITED STATES.

The Geological Survey is making a geologic map of the United States, which is being issued in parts, called folios. Each folio includes a topographic map and geologic maps of a small area of country, together with explanatory and descriptive texts.

THE TOPOGRAPHIC MAP.

The features represented on the topographic map are of three distinct kinds: (1) inequalities of surface, called *relief*, as plains, plateaus, valleys, hills, and mountains; (2) distribution of water, called *drainage*, as streams, lakes, and swamps; (3) the works of man, called *culture*, as roads, railroads, boundaries, villages, and cities.

Relief.—All elevations are measured from mean sea level. The heights of many points are accurately determined, and those which are most important are given on the map in figures. It is desirable, however, to give the elevation of all parts of the area mapped, to delineate the outline or form of all slopes, and to indicate their grade or steepness. This is done by lines each of which is drawn through points of equal elevation above mean sea level, the altitudinal interval represented by the space between lines being the same throughout each map. These lines are called *contours*, and the uniform altitudinal space between each two contours is called the *contour interval*. Contours and elevations are printed in brown.

The manner in which contours express elevation, form, and grade is shown in the following sketch and corresponding contour map (fig. 1).

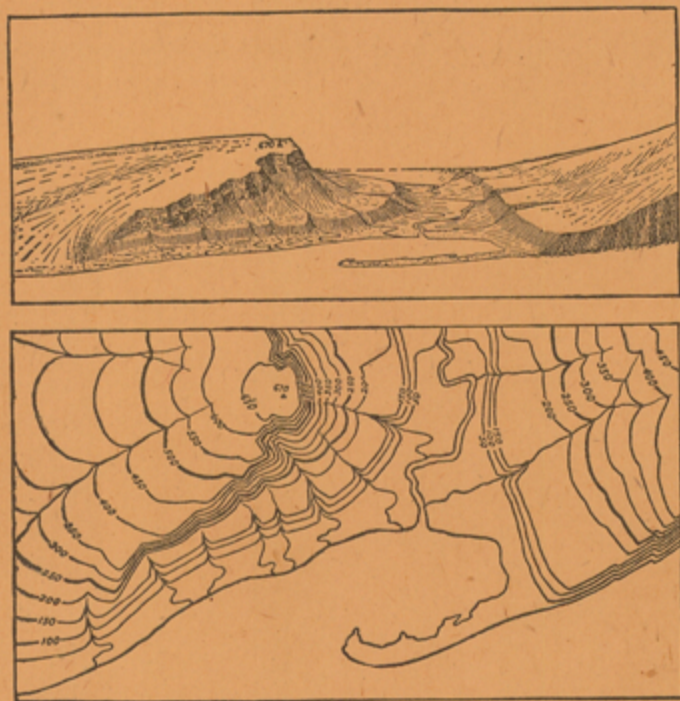


FIG. 1.—Ideal view and corresponding contour map.

The sketch represents a river valley between two hills. In the foreground is the sea, with a bay which is partly closed by a hooked sand bar. On each side of the valley is a terrace. From the terrace on the right a hill rises gradually, while from that on the left the ground ascends steeply, forming a precipice. Contrasted with this precipice is the gentle slope from its top toward the left. In the map each of these features is indicated, directly beneath its position in the sketch, by contours. The following explanation may make clearer the manner in which contours delineate elevation, form, and grade:

1. A contour indicates a certain height above sea level. In this illustration the contour interval is 50 feet; therefore the contours are drawn at 50, 100, 150, and 200 feet, and so on, above mean sea level. Along the contour at 250 feet lie all points of the surface that are 250 feet above sea; along the contour at 200 feet, all points that are 200 feet above sea; and so on. In the space between any two contours are found elevations above the lower and below the higher contour. Thus the contour at 150 feet falls just below the edge of the terrace, while that at 200 feet lies above the terrace; therefore all points on the terrace are shown to be more than 150 but less than 200 feet above sea. The summit of the higher hill is stated to be 670 feet above sea; accordingly the contour at 650 feet surrounds it. In this illustration all the contours are numbered, and those for 250 and 500 feet are accentuated by being made heavier. Usually it is not desirable to number all the contours, and then the accentuating and numbering of certain of them—say every fifth one—suffice, for the heights of others may be ascertained by counting up or down from a numbered contour.

2. Contours define the forms of slopes. Since contours are continuous horizontal lines, they wind smoothly about smooth surfaces, recede into all reentrant angles of ravines, and project in passing about prominences. These relations of contour curves and angles to forms of the landscape can be traced in the map and sketch.

3. Contours show the approximate grade of any slope. The altitudinal space between two contours is the same, whether they lie along a cliff or on a gentle slope; but to rise a given height on a gentle slope one must go farther than on a steep slope, and therefore contours are far apart on gentle slopes and near together on steep ones.

For a flat or gently undulating country a small contour interval is used; for a steep or mountainous country a large interval is necessary. The smallest interval used on the atlas sheets of the Geological Survey is 5 feet. This is serviceable for regions like the Mississippi delta and the Dismal Swamp. In mapping great mountain masses, like those in Colorado, the interval may be 250 feet. For intermediate relief contour intervals of 10, 20, 25, 50, and 100 feet are used.

Drainage.—Watercourses are indicated by blue lines. If a stream flows the entire year the line is drawn unbroken, but if the channel is dry a part of the year the line is broken or dotted. Where a stream sinks and reappears at the surface, the supposed underground course is shown by a broken blue line. Lakes, marshes, and other bodies of water are also shown in blue, by appropriate conventional signs.

Culture.—The works of man, such as roads, railroads, and towns, together with boundaries of townships, counties, and States, are printed in black.

Scales.—The area of the United States (excluding Alaska and island possessions) is about 3,025,000 square miles. A map representing this area, drawn to the scale of 1 mile to the inch, would cover 3,025,000 square inches of paper, and to accommodate the map the paper would need to measure about 240 by 180 feet. Each square mile of ground surface would be represented by a square inch of map surface, and one linear mile on the ground would be represented by a linear inch on the map. This relation between distance in nature and corresponding distance on the map is called the *scale* of the map. In this case it is "1 mile to an inch." The scale may be expressed also by a fraction, of which the numerator is a length on the map and the denominator the corresponding length in nature expressed in the same unit. Thus, as there are 63,360 inches in a mile, the scale "1 mile to an inch" is expressed by $\frac{1}{63,360}$.

Three scales are used on the atlas sheets of the Geological Survey; the smallest is $\frac{1}{250,000}$, the intermediate $\frac{1}{125,000}$, and the largest $\frac{1}{62,500}$. These correspond approximately to 4 miles, 2 miles, and 1 mile on the ground to an inch on the map. On the scale $\frac{1}{62,500}$ a square inch of map surface represents about 1 square mile of earth surface; on the scale $\frac{1}{125,000}$, about 4 square miles; and on the scale $\frac{1}{250,000}$, about 16 square miles. At the bottom of each atlas sheet the scale is expressed in three ways—by a graduated line representing miles and parts of miles in English inches, by a similar line indicating distance in the metric system, and by a fraction.

Atlas sheets and quadrangles.—The map is being published in atlas sheets of convenient size, which represent areas bounded by parallels and meridians. These areas are called *quadrangles*. Each sheet on the scale of $\frac{1}{250,000}$ contains one square degree—i. e., a degree of latitude by a degree of longitude; each sheet on the scale of $\frac{1}{125,000}$ contains one-fourth of a square degree; each sheet on the scale of $\frac{1}{62,500}$ contains one-sixteenth of a square degree. The areas of the corresponding quadrangles are about 4000, 1000, and 250 square miles.

The atlas sheets, being only parts of one map of the United States, disregard political boundary lines, such as those of States, counties, and townships. To each sheet, and to the quadrangle it represents, is given the name of some well-known town or natural feature within its limits, and at the sides and corners of each sheet the names of adjacent sheets, if published, are printed.

Uses of the topographic map.—On the topographic map are delineated the relief, drainage, and culture of the quadrangle represented. It should portray

to the observer every characteristic feature of the landscape. It should guide the traveler; serve the investor or owner who desires to ascertain the position and surroundings of property; save the engineer preliminary surveys in locating roads, railways, and irrigation reservoirs and ditches; provide educational material for schools and homes; and be useful as a map for local reference.

THE GEOLOGIC MAPS.

The maps representing the geology show, by colors and conventional signs printed on the topographic base map, the distribution of rock masses on the surface of the land, and the structure sections show their underground relations, as far as known and in such detail as the scale permits.

KINDS OF ROCKS.

Rocks are of many kinds. On the geologic map they are distinguished as igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic.

Igneous rocks.—These are rocks which have cooled and consolidated from a state of fusion. Through rocks of all ages molten material has from time to time been forced upward in fissures or channels of various shapes and sizes, to or nearly to the surface. Rocks formed by the consolidation of the molten mass within these channels—that is, below the surface—are called *intrusive*. When the rock occupies a fissure with approximately parallel walls the mass is called a *dike*; when it fills a large and irregular conduit the mass is termed a *stock*. When the conduits for molten magmas traverse stratified rocks they often send off branches parallel to the bedding planes; the rock masses filling such fissures are called *sills* or *sheets* when comparatively thin, and *laccoliths* when occupying larger chambers produced by the force propelling the magmas upward. Within rock inclosures molten material cools slowly, with the result that intrusive rocks are generally of crystalline texture. When the channels reach the surface the molten material poured out through them is called *lava*, and lavas often build up volcanic mountains. Igneous rocks thus formed upon the surface are called *extrusive*. Lavas cool rapidly in the air, and acquire a glassy or, more often, a partially crystalline condition in their outer parts, but are more fully crystalline in their inner portions. The outer parts of lava flows are usually more or less porous. Explosive action often accompanies volcanic eruptions, causing ejections of dust, ash, and larger fragments. These materials, when consolidated, constitute breccias, agglomerates, and tuffs. Volcanic ejecta may fall in bodies of water or may be carried into lakes or seas and form sedimentary rocks.

Sedimentary rocks.—These rocks are composed of the materials of older rocks which have been broken up and the fragments of which have been carried to a different place and deposited.

The chief agent of transportation of rock debris is water in motion, including rain, streams, and the water of lakes and of the sea. The materials are in large part carried as solid particles, and the deposits are then said to be mechanical. Such are gravel, sand, and clay, which are later consolidated into conglomerate, sandstone, and shale. In smaller portion the materials are carried in solution, and the deposits are then called organic if formed with the aid of life, or chemical if formed without the aid of life. The more important rocks of chemical and organic origin are limestone, chert, gypsum, salt, iron ore, peat, lignite, and coal. Any one of the deposits may be separately formed, or the different materials may be intermingled in many ways, producing a great variety of rocks.

Another transporting agent is air in motion, or wind; and a third is ice in motion, or glaciers. The most characteristic of the wind-borne or eolian deposits is loess, a fine-grained earth; the most characteristic of glacial deposits is till, a heterogeneous mixture of boulders and pebbles with clay or sand.

Sedimentary rocks are usually made up of layers or beds which can be easily separated. These layers are called *strata*. Rocks deposited in layers are said to be stratified.

The surface of the earth is not fixed, as it seems to be; it very slowly rises or sinks, with reference to the sea, over wide expanses; and as it rises or

subsides the shore lines of the ocean are changed. As a result of the rising of the surface, marine sedimentary rocks may become part of the land, and extensive land areas are in fact occupied by such rocks.

Rocks exposed at the surface of the land are acted upon by air, water, ice, animals, and plants. They are gradually broken into fragments, and the more soluble parts are leached out, leaving the less soluble as a *residual* layer. Water washes residual material down the slopes, and it is eventually carried by rivers to the ocean or other bodies of standing water. Usually its journey is not continuous, but it is temporarily built into river bars and flood plains, where it is called *alluvium*. Alluvial deposits, glacial deposits (collectively known as *drift*), and eolian deposits belong to the *surficial* class, and the residual layer is commonly included with them. Their upper parts, occupied by the roots of plants, constitute soils and subsoils, the soils being usually distinguished by a notable admixture of organic matter.

Metamorphic rocks.—In the course of time, and by a variety of processes, rocks may become greatly changed in composition and in texture. When the newly acquired characteristics are more pronounced than the old ones such rocks are called *metamorphic*. In the process of metamorphism the substances of which a rock is composed may enter into new combinations, certain substances may be lost, or new substances may be added. There is often a complete gradation from the primary to the metamorphic form within a single rock mass. Such changes transform sandstone into quartzite, limestone into marble, and modify other rocks in various ways.

From time to time in geologic history igneous and sedimentary rocks have been deeply buried and later have been raised to the surface. In this process, through the agencies of pressure, movement, and chemical action, their original structure may be entirely lost and new structures appear. Often there is developed a system of division planes along which the rocks split easily, and these planes may cross the strata at any angle. This structure is called *cleavage*. Sometimes crystals of mica or other foliaceous minerals are developed with their laminae approximately parallel; in such cases the structure is said to be schistose, or characterized by *schistosity*.

As a rule, the oldest rocks are most altered and the younger formations have escaped metamorphism, but to this rule there are important exceptions.

FORMATIONS.

For purposes of geologic mapping rocks of all the kinds above described are divided into *formations*. A sedimentary formation contains between its upper and lower limits either rocks of uniform character or rocks more or less uniformly varied in character, as, for example, a rapid alternation of shale and limestone. When the passage from one kind of rocks to another is gradual it is sometimes necessary to separate two contiguous formations by an arbitrary line, and in some cases the distinction depends almost entirely on the contained fossils. An igneous formation is constituted of one or more bodies either containing the same kind of igneous rock or having the same mode of occurrence. A metamorphic formation may consist of rock of uniform character or of several rocks having common characteristics.

When for scientific or economic reasons it is desirable to recognize and map one or more specially developed parts of a varied formation, such parts are called *members*, or by some other appropriate term, as *lentils*.

AGES OF ROCKS.

Geologic time.—The time during which the rocks were made is divided into several *periods*. Smaller time divisions are called *epochs*, and still smaller ones *stages*. The age of a rock is expressed by naming the time interval in which it was formed, when known.

The sedimentary formations deposited during a period are grouped together into a *system*. The principal divisions of a system are called *series*. Any aggregate of formations less than a series is called a *group*.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TAHLEQUAH QUADRANGLE.

By Joseph A. Taff.

GEOGRAPHY.

Location and area.—The Tahlequah quadrangle is bounded by parallels of latitude 35° 30' and 36° and meridians of longitude 94° 30' and 95°, and contains 969 square miles. It is in the Cherokee Nation, Indian Territory, except a narrow, triangular tract in the northeastern part, which is in Washington County, Ark. Its name is taken from the capital town of the Cherokee Nation, which is located in the northwestern part of the quadrangle.

PHYSIOGRAPHIC RELATIONS.

The Tahlequah quadrangle is situated in the extreme southwestern part of the Ozark region. Its southern end includes a small area of the Arkansas Valley region, which bounds the Ozark region on the south. Fifteen miles west of the Tahlequah quadrangle the Ozark region merges into the Prairie Plains. A brief consideration of the salient topographic features of the Ozark and Arkansas Valley regions will assist the reader in understanding the topography of the Tahlequah quadrangle.

Ozark region.—The Ozark region is a broad and relatively flat dome-shaped dissected plateau. In parts, notably the southern and eastern, the greater elevations attain the prominence of mountains and are widely known as the Boston Mountains and the St. Francis Mountains. Elsewhere there are numerous lower elevations, remnants of dissected subordinate plateaus, to which names have been given and which are locally called mountains, although not generally deserving recognition as such. In general the region is known as the Ozark Mountains, but the name has not been applied to any mountain or definite group of mountains in the province. The sketch map below, fig. 1, shows the main physical features of the region and the location of the Tahlequah quadrangle.

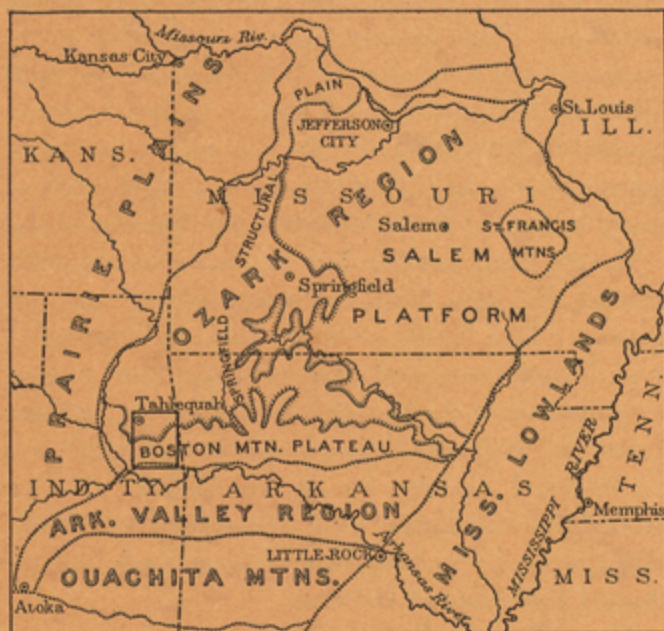


FIG. 1.—Diagram showing relations of Ozark region to surrounding physiographic provinces; also principal divisions of the Ozark region.

Physiographically the Ozark region is bounded as follows: On the north and west the gently sloping upland grades almost imperceptibly into the Prairie Plains. On the east it is sharply outlined by the Mississippi lowland along the line of the St. Louis, Iron Mountain, and Southern Railway. On the south it extends to the southern border of the Boston Mountains. In outline the Ozark region has rudely the form of a quadrilateral whose sides are nearly 225 miles in length.

On the north, east, and south sides the Ozark region is limited approximately by Missouri, Mississippi, and Arkansas rivers, respectively. On the west it is followed closely by Neosho (or Grand) River in Indian Territory and in part by Spring and Osage rivers in Missouri. White, Black, St. Francis, Meramec, and Gasconade rivers have their sources in the plateau near the main watershed and flow out through narrow, sinuous valleys.

Considered in a broad sense the Ozark region is made up of three dissected plateaus, the general

character and the topographic details of which are dependent upon the character and attitudes of the rocks. These plateaus succeed one another concentrically westward from the St. Francis Mountains as a center. They cross the axis of the main uplift and main watershed, giving an effect of deformed plains. The physiography of the Ozark Plateau in Missouri has been clearly set forth by C. F. Marbut (Missouri Geol. Survey, vol. 10, 1896). Geologic mapping by the Arkansas Survey shows the same features in the southern extension of these plateaus in Arkansas (Arkansas Geol. Survey, vol. 4, 1890).

The first of these plateaus has been termed by the Missouri Survey the Salem platform. It occupies southeastern Missouri and a large part of northeastern Arkansas. The magnesian limestones, cherts, and saccharoidal sandstones of the Cambrian and Ordovician periods occur in this plateau, and are inclined at low grades away from the St. Francis Mountains. The edges of the lower of these deposits face the lowlands surrounding the St. Francis Mountains in distinct escarpments. Higher formations of limestone and chert outcrop in succession farther away, making subordinate platforms and escarpments. The intervening softer saccharoidal sandstone beds occur in the lower back slopes of benches and in the bases of the escarpments. The Salem platform is generally deeply cut by stream erosion, and the tops of the higher ridges and hills of the dissected escarpments fall in the same general level. Thus the Salem platform has been developed on the truncated edges of a number of formations.

Surrounding the Salem platform on the north, west, and south is an even structural plain which has been developed on the surface of the Boone formation of chert and limestone. This plain or plateau has been named by Marbut the Springfield structural plain. Its inner border south of Osage River is marked by a strong escarpment, the exposed edge of the Boone formation, which overlooks the Salem platform. The Springfield plain inclines at low angles toward the west in Missouri and south and west in northern Arkansas, in the direction of the dip of the formation. In Missouri Pennsylvanian shales succeed the Boone formation, forming lowland. In northeastern Indian Territory and Arkansas limestone, shale, and sandstone occur successively above the Boone formation, making numerous low terraced hills and mountains standing as remnants of the Boston Mountains on the Springfield structural plain. Such features of this plain are typically seen in the northern half of the Tahlequah quadrangle. The Springfield plain is also deeply dissected by the larger streams which flow through it in narrow, crooked valleys. Between the larger drainage lines are large tracts of land from which younger formations have been removed, leaving broad, flat surfaces of deeply weathered chert. Near the inner border of the Springfield plain the Boone formation is deeply dissected on the divides between the streams, giving the escarpment a very irregular outline. Hills and buttes, cut off from the escarpments, stand out above the Salem platform, their crests indicating the former extension of the Springfield plain.

A third plateau—that of the Boston Mountains—rises back of and above the Springfield plain. The rocks capping the Boston Mountains and extending down the southern slope are made up of thick deposits of sandstone and shale of the Winslow formation. The sandstones, being more resistant to erosion, govern the physical features of the mountains. Structurally the mountains make a deformed monocline in which the southward dip of the rocks is slightly greater than the general southward slope of the surface. The Boston Mountain plateau, like the other plateaus of the Ozark region, is deeply dissected by streams which flow down its

southern slopes and by drainage which has eaten by headwater erosion into its northern border. The crests of the ridges which slope southward from the main divide to the border of the Arkansas Valley may be said to define approximately a structural plain. Viewed from eminences on the Springfield plateau, the Boston Mountains have the appearance of a bold, even escarpment with a level crest. Instead, however, of presenting an even northward front the escarpment sends out finger-like ridges and foothills, descending by steps as successively lower hard rocks come to the surface. Toward the northern ends many of these foothills are intersected, becoming flat-topped outliers on the Springfield plain. Toward the east end of the Boston Mountains, where the capping sandstone formations are thicker and lie more nearly horizontal, and where White River in its deep valley approaches its northern front, the escarpment attains its greatest height. Here high, flat-topped, precipitous ridges 1000 to 1500 feet high project northward on a level with the mountain top, making a high and rugged escarpment. In the western part of the Boston Mountains, toward the Arkansas-Indian Territory line, the Winslow formation, especially its sandstone beds, thins out or becomes shaly. In proportion as these rocks change in thickness and nature the Boston plateau decreases in elevation and in distinctness of topographic form. The change in the character of the rocks and in the topography northward from the west end of the Boston Mountains is pronounced. In the Tahlequah quadrangle the hard rocks of the Winslow formation are approximately 1000 feet thick, and the northern edge of the beveled Boston plateau rises but 500 feet above the Springfield plain. Farther north, on the east side of Neosho River, the sandstones of the Winslow formation gradually decrease in thickness until they lose their identity in the northeast corner of Indian Territory. Correspondingly, the topographic forms change from the low, westward-sloping, dissected plateau to the lowland plain bordering the Springfield plateau in the southeastern part of Kansas.

Arkansas Valley.—There is a small area of the Arkansas Valley topography near the southern border of the quadrangle. As already stated, on the north the Arkansas Valley region is bounded by the Boston Mountains. On the south it is limited by the Ouachita Mountains. In the Arkansas Valley is a great thickness of sandstone and shale of the Pennsylvanian series. These beds have been thrown into many imbricated or lapping folds, which together make a deep structural trough, corresponding with the Arkansas Valley, from eastern Indian Territory to the Mississippi embayment opposite Little Rock in Arkansas. These folded rocks have been beveled off by erosion until their edges form a peneplain now standing approximately 800 feet above sea level. A few exceptions to this general statement may be noted in some of the broader synclinal folds in the south side of the valley. Protected by massive sandstone strata and aided by their attitude in the broad, basin-like folds, the rocks remain as conical mountains with crests 1000 to 2000 feet above the general level of the valley. Such are Sansbois, Cavanal, Sugarloaf, and Magazine mountains, and their crests give some idea of the former high level of the whole region. Since the formation of the Arkansas Valley peneplain erosion has cut more rapidly into the shaly beds, and the sandstones have been left as low, narrow, and sharp-crested but generally level ridges. In many of the smaller synclinal folds remnants of sandstone beds cap low buttes and hills in the general level of the peneplain. The small plain in the vicinity of Akins, near the southern border of the Tahlequah quadrangle, is developed on soft Pennsylvanian shales in the Sallisaw syncline, and its southern border

in the adjoining quadrangle is marked by sharp-crested, level-topped ridges.

TOPOGRAPHY OF THE QUADRANGLE.

The Springfield structural plain and the Boston Mountain plateau have nearly equal areas in the Tahlequah quadrangle, the former occupying approximately the northern half.

SPRINGFIELD STRUCTURAL PLAIN.

In the Tahlequah quadrangle, as elsewhere in the western part of the Ozark dome, the Springfield plain is developed principally on the Boone formation. In this part of the region the Boone formation consists almost entirely of beds of cherty limestone and flint. On weathering, a surface mantle of disintegrated porous chert is formed, which is exceedingly durable. Waters falling upon it readily pass downward and reach the valleys gradually beneath the weathered mantle or issue in springs through subterranean solution channels. Thus only the valleys of considerable size afford streams of sufficient power to corrade the fresh rock or even to remove the fragmentary chert. The general result of these conditions is that broad, level tracts are developed on the durable surface of the Boone formation between the principal drainage lines. From these level tracts flat-topped ridges extend out in the level of the plain between the subordinate drainage channels to the narrow, steep-sided valleys of the rivers and larger creeks.

The valleys of the Springfield plain are of two kinds and have been developed by two distinct processes, solution and corrosion. They may be characterized as trough and canyon valleys. In the trough valley the two processes are combined only in parts of the valley's course, and in no instance does corrosion predominate. In the canyon valley, while solution plays a large part in cutting the valley, it is subordinate to corrosion. The canyon type of valley has been produced by the rivers and their larger tributary perennial streams. In those parts of the solution valleys where the grade is steep and the basins are sufficiently large to collect a large volume of water, the disintegrated chert is removed from the beds of the streams, but the general trough form remains unchanged. Where the two types of valley occur in the course of a single stream the change is gradual from one to the other.

Trough valleys.—The upper parts of those valleys which have their beginnings in the plain farthest removed from the canyons are generally wide and flat, and the entire slopes are covered by weathered chert. In the lower courses of the valleys, where the grade is steep and where large volumes of water accumulate during heavy rains, the disintegrated chert is removed from the stream channel. Lower in the course, where the grade becomes lower, usually near the junction with the larger valleys, the load of chert carried down is so great in many instances as to choke the channel. In occurrences of this nature the valley floor is almost a plain. In the middle and lower courses of these valleys the slopes of the sides increase gradually from the flat bottoms outward until the maximum grade of rest for talus accumulations is reached near the tops of the hills.

There is another phase of trough valley of common occurrence in the Springfield plain. Valleys of this nature have been formed in the sides of the larger trough and canyon valleys. They are short and their grades are steep. A deep covering of angular chert forms the sides and heads of the valleys and descends in steep slopes down to their bases. No streams of water are in view and no fresh exposures of rock can be found. The disintegrated chert descends from the head and sides of such valleys down to their bases by the aid of gravity with the assistance of percolating waters, frost, and changes of temperature. These accumulations continue to move in this manner until a larger valley is entered or a point is reached where

water, accumulates during heavy rains in sufficient volume to transport the talus. Valleys of this type are produced entirely by solution of lime from the beds of chert.

Canyon valleys.—Both the Barren Fork and Illinois River have narrow, steep-sided, canyon-like valleys. These valleys are of even, low grade, essentially parallel to the surface of the Springfield plain. Their bottoms are flat, the bed-rock floor being covered with chert which has been brought in by tributary streams. The rivers meander from side to side, touching the valley walls, but rarely reaching bed rock in their floors. The steep valley walls are nearly 250 feet in height and are covered with weathered chert except in an occasional cliff where the rivers in the recent cutting have exposed the fresh rock. In the larger creeks, such as Caney and Sallisaw, there is a gradation from the trough to the canyon phase through their middle and lower courses.

BOSTON MOUNTAIN PLATEAU.

The Boston Mountains, which form the southern and most elevated plateau of the Ozark region, become gradually lower toward the west and finally end in low hills and ridges near the mouth of Neosho River. This declining western part of the mountains forms practically the southern half of the Tahlequah quadrangle. The crest of the Boston Mountain plateau slopes westward from an elevation of 2000 feet near the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad in Arkansas to 1600 feet near the Arkansas-Indian Territory line and 900 feet in the southwest corner of the Tahlequah quadrangle. In this quadrangle the plateau is marked by the tops of the ridges and hills of the mountainous district, which slopes southward at an average grade of 100 feet to the mile. Throughout the Boston plateau in Arkansas the north-facing escarpment is dissected by streams which flow northward. In the Tahlequah quadrangle the entire plateau district is dissected by streams which flow southward across it from the Springfield plain. These streams are Little Lee, Sallisaw, and Vian creeks, and their sources are among the detached hills near the northern edge of the Boston Mountain plateau. They have eroded their valleys to a depth of 300 to 800 feet in the plateau. Between them the country is intricately dissected, and the tributary streams which flow only during abundant rainfall descend in steep, sharp valleys.

It has been stated that the Boston Mountains are made up of the Winslow formation, which consists of many beds of sandstone and shale alternately stratified. In the upper third of the formation there are some thick, hard sandstone beds which now cap the higher ridges of the plateau. Where these beds have come to the surface there are small tracts of table-land or flat benches such as may be found in the top and southern spurs of Brushy Mountain and in some of the high, flat-topped ridges east of Little Lee Creek. Similar phases of topography occur where certain hard sandstone beds at the base of the Winslow formation cap the northern foothills of the Boston plateau and detached mesas in the central and western parts of the quadrangle.

The Morrow, Pitkin, and Fayetteville formations, composed of resistant beds of limestone and sandstone alternating with soft shale, are exposed on the lower northern slopes of the Boston plateau and on the outlying hills on the Springfield plain. They produce distinct bench and terrace forms of topography. The crests of the hills and ridges are usually flat, being protected by the harder beds of rock.

GEOLOGY.

STRATIGRAPHY.

The rocks of the Tahlequah quadrangle are all stratified deposits and were formed in Ordovician, Silurian, Devonian, and Carboniferous times. The sequence of the formations is represented on the columnar section sheet, and their correlations with the formations in other parts of the Ozark region are shown in the correlation table. Almost nothing is known of the geologic history of the quadrangle during parts of the Ordovician, Silurian, and Devonian periods. The stratigraphic relations between the formations present, however, and the occurrence in the contiguous region in northern

Arkansas of certain deposits which were laid down during other parts of the Silurian and Devonian periods afford some idea of the geologic history of these times. These ideas are expressed under the heading "History of sedimentation," on page 5.

Ordovician System.

BURGEN SANDSTONE.

The Burgen sandstone is a massive, moderately fine-grained, light-brown rock. The beds are thick and planes of stratification are usually indistinct. The rock consists of a nearly pure siliceous sand of rounded grains, with a matrix scarcely sufficient to cement them together.

In natural exposures the rock breaks readily under the stroke of the hammer, crumbling into loose sand. The formation varies in thickness from a thin stratum to beds aggregating more than 100 feet. It is exposed in the Tahlequah quadrangle in but a single area, on Illinois River northeast of Tahlequah, where it rises in bluffs to a height of nearly 100 feet, and the base is not

tion. For 75 to 80 feet above the base the formation consists of greenish and relatively soft, fissile clay shale with a few beds of brown and yellow, fine-grained sandstone. These interbedded sandstones are usually less than 3 feet in thickness. At the top of the shale there is generally a bed consisting of sandstone in the lower part with calcareous sandstone or siliceous cherty limestone above. This bed is lithologically variable along its outcrop, a sandstone occurring in places above the cherty layer. It varies in thickness also below an extreme of 8 feet 10 inches, and is believed to be absent in places. A bluish limestone succeeds the cherty layers and continues to the base of the Devonian black shale, its thickness ranging from a thin layer to massive beds aggregating 20 feet. These descriptions apply to the district of the Illinois Valley northeast of Tahlequah. In this district fossils have been found in the cherty limestone and associated calcareous sandstone. Some fossils of common occurrence in these beds are listed below. The determinations of fossils and the dis-

stones at the top of the formation on Illinois River. Some fossils collected from thin, sandy beds in this locality are listed below.

Psilooncha inornata Ulrich.
Psilooncha sinuata Ulrich.
Psilooncha cf. subovalis Ulrich.
Rhytimya sp. undet.
Whiteavesia sp. undet.

These fossils appear to be of Lorraine age, and therefore are considerably higher in the Ordovician than the fauna from the limestone.

The variability in the thickness and the absence of the upper beds of the formation in places are due to erosion preceding the deposition of the overlying Chattanooga shales.

The Tyner formation occurs in but three places in the Tahlequah quadrangle, and these are near the northern border, in the Illinois and Barren Fork valleys and in Baumgartner Hollow. This is the first description of the formation, and its name is that of a small creek along which it is exposed near the northern border of the quadrangle.

Silurian System.

ST. CLAIR MARBLE.

This rock is a pinkish white and, in most parts, coarsely crystalline marble. Only the upper part is exposed and the beds are thick and massive. The marble is even textured, but in parts it contains small, irregular cavities about which the rock is more coarsely crystalline. This characteristic renders the rock locally weak and, in such parts, unfit for the finer uses to which marbles are adapted.

The St. Clair marble is found in the bottoms and lower slopes of several small valleys in the south-central part of the quadrangle. The streams in these valleys have worn down through the overlying strata into the marble, but have not cut through it. As it occurs in the bottoms of the valleys, subject to the direct wear of the streams, fresh exposures are common. At four of the localities the marble is cut off by faults and the part on the southeast side is thrown down to a depth of more than 100 feet below the surface. The exposures showing the thickest beds of the marble are in the large area opposite the station of Marble on the Kansas City Southern Railroad. Here a small tributary of Sallisaw Creek has cut a deep gorge, exposing about 100 feet of the marble, and prospect drills have penetrated nearly an additional 100 feet without reaching the base of the formation. The outcrop extends from this gorge northeastward a distance of 3 miles along the fault bordering Sallisaw Creek Valley. A small area is exposed in Illinois River a few feet above low water opposite Cookson. Here the rock is light gray or nearly white and the beds are thinner than elsewhere.

The St. Clair marble has yielded a considerable number of fossils from the upper part of the formation. The fossils indicate that the formation is of Niagara age and that its upper part at least is equivalent to the St. Clair limestone of northern Arkansas, with which the marble is correlated. It is correlated also by Dr. E. O. Ulrich, who has studied the formation and determined its fossils, with the Lockport limestone of New York and the Osgood limestone of Indiana.

The following list of fossils occurring in the upper part of the marble indicates the Niagara age of the rocks:

Caryocrinites sp. nov.
Callierinus corrugatus Weller.
Pisocrinus gemmiformis Miller.
Stephanocrinus osgoodensis Miller.
Dalmanella elegantula (Dalman).
Plectambonites cf. transversalis (Wahlenberg).
Strophonella striata Hall.
Atrypa nodostriata Hall.
Cypricardina arata Hall.
Orthoceras cf. medullare Hall.
Gyroceras ? elrodi White.

Devonian System.

Devonian rocks in the Tahlequah quadrangle are represented by a single formation of black shale with rather pure siliceous sandstone or local bituminous phosphatic conglomerate at the base. These deposits in the Tahlequah quadrangle are the extreme southwestern occurrence of like deposits that are exposed at intervals eastward from Indian Territory to the Mississippi embayment in northeastern Arkansas. In northern Arkansas the two parts of the formation have been recognized by geologists of the Arkansas Geological Survey and described as separate for-

Correlation table of formations in the Tahlequah quadrangle and northwestern Arkansas.

TIME SCALE.	FORMATIONS MAPPED IN TAHLEQUAH QUADRANGLE, INDIAN TERRITORY.	FORMATIONS MAPPED BY G. I. ADAMS AND E. F. BURCHARD IN FAYETTEVILLE QUADRANGLE, ARKANSAS.	FORMATIONS IN NORTH ARKANSAS AS PUBLISHED IN REPORTS OF THE ARKANSAS GEOLOGICAL SURVEY.	
CARBONIFEROUS	(Akins shale member.) Winslow formation.	Winslow formation.	PENN. Millstone grit.	
	Morrow formation.	(Kessler limestone lentil.) Morrow formation. (Brentwood limestone lentil.)	Boston group Kessler limestone. Coal-bearing shale. Pentremital limestone.	
	(Hale sandstone lentil.)		Washington sandstone.	
	Pitkin limestone.	Pitkin limestone.	Archimedes limestone. Marshall shale.	
	(Wedington sandstone member.) Fayetteville formation.	(Wedington sandstone member.) Fayetteville formation. Batesville sandstone.	MISSISSIPPIAN Batesville sandstone. ¹ Fayetteville shale. Wyman sandstone.	
	Boone formation.	Boone formation. (St. Joe limestone member.)	Boone chert and limestone. Eureka shale (typical).	
	DEVIAN	Chattanooga formation. (Sylamore sandstone member.)	Chattanooga formation. (Sylamore sandstone member.)	Eureka shale (in part) Sylamore sandstone.
	SILURIAN	St. Clair marble.		SILURIAN St. Clair limestone (restricted sense). Cason shale.
	ORDOVICIAN	Tyner formation.		Polk Bayou limestone. Izard limestone.
		Burgen sandstone.	Yellville formation.	Saccharoidal sandstone. Magnesian limestone. Sandstones and cherts.

¹In the vicinity of Fayetteville, Ark., the Wedington sandstone member of the Fayetteville formation was erroneously correlated with the Batesville sandstone.

exposed. The full thickness, therefore, is certainly not less than 100 feet.

The formation takes its name from a small valley opening into Illinois River northeast of Tahlequah.

No fossils have been found in the Burgen sandstone. Its age can be inferred only from its stratigraphic position. The sandstone underlies and is seemingly stratigraphically conformable with the Tyner formation, which is high in the Ordovician section. A formation of magnesian limestone and dolomite, known as the Yellville limestone, occurs in the northwestern part of the Fayetteville quadrangle, which joins the Tahlequah on the northeast. It contains an Ordovician fauna considerably older than that of the Tyner, and in the region of Yellville in Arkansas is succeeded by a sandstone in all respects the same as the Burgen.

TYNER FORMATION.

Greenish or bluish shale, brown sandstone, calcareous, cherty sandstone, and limestone, abundant in the order named, constitute the Tyner forma-

tions of age, classification, and correlations of the formations based upon them are by Dr. E. O. Ulrich.

Camaroeladia rugosa Ulrich.
Orthis tricenaria Conrad.
Liospira americana Billings.
Lophospira sp. of the type of *perangulata*.
Hormotoma gracilis var.
Leperditia, near *L. fabulites* Conrad.
Leperditia n. sp. (about 5 mm. in length).
Ceraurus pleurexanthemus Greene.

This association of species indicates lower Trenton or Black River age.

In Baumgartner Hollow and along the banks of the Barren Fork Valley only the upper part of the formation is exposed and its thickness does not exceed 20 feet. In these exposures the upper part of the formation consists of interbedded brown sandstone, calcareous sandstone, and bluish or greenish shale. The thin sandstone and shale exposed on Barren Fork and Tyner Creek and probably in Baumgartner Hollow are believed, both from the character of the rocks and from the fossils, to be stratigraphically above the lime-

mations. In the eastern part of the Mississippi Valley, in the southern Appalachian region, the Devonian black shale occurs widely in the same stratigraphic position as that in Arkansas and Indian Territory and carries locally a phosphatic sandstone at its base. In Tennessee River Valley in East Tennessee and elsewhere in the southern Appalachians the same formation has been described as the Chattanooga shale.

Fossils in this black shale are few and for the most part without very definite diagnostic characteristics. No fossils were found in the black shale in Indian Territory, and only fragments of large fish bones were noted in the sand at the base. The occurrence of the bones, however, together with the stratigraphic identity and striking lithologic similarity between these deposits and those in northern Arkansas and east of Mississippi River, would place them without reasonable doubt in the Devonian and permit the use of Chattanooga as the formation name.

CHATTANOOGA FORMATION.

This formation consists of a black bituminous shale of uniform lithologic character, with a local or lenticular deposit of conglomerate or sandstone, known as the Sylamore sandstone member, at its base. In fresh cuts the black shale is massive at the surface, but in slightly weathered exposures it breaks usually into flat blocks of rudely rectangular form, due to cross jointing. These surface blocks of shale, on more complete weathering, disintegrate into thin, paper-like sheets. For some time after the separation of the shale into fissile laminae its original hardness is generally maintained, and in roads and other places where the soil has been removed it forms a compact surface.

The black shale of the Chattanooga formation is variable in thickness and occurs unconformably on the Tyner formation and the St. Clair marble in different parts of the quadrangle. Northeast of Tahlequah, in Illinois and Barren Fork valleys and in Baumgartner Hollow, it is approximately 40 feet thick and lies on the Tyner formation. In Illinois Valley opposite Cookson it is 40 feet thick and occurs on the Sallisaw marble. In the vicinity of Marble, west of the fault, the black shale is approximately 20 feet thick. Here the Sylamore sandstone member, 20 to 30 feet thick, occurs between the black shale and the St. Clair marble. In Walkingstick Hollow, near the southwest corner of sec. 36, T. 14 N., R. 23 E., there are excellent exposures of the shale and underlying sandstone member. The surface of the sandstone here is uneven, appearing as if worn in shallow, oval, pothole-like depressions and irregular elevations, in and over which black shale has been deposited. A peculiar feature of the contact phenomena here is that no detrital sandstone material related to the underlying beds is found in the base of the black shale. The Chattanooga shale crops out at two localities in Barren Fork Valley near the northeast corner of the quadrangle, in a small stream 1 mile south of Elm Springs Mission, and at places near the sources of Caney and Terrapin creeks. At all of these localities the streams have cut into the black shale without penetrating it. At two localities, 1½ miles north and 4 miles northwest of Bunch, erosion has penetrated to the Sallisaw marble, and has shown that both the shale and the Sylamore sandstone members are in these places absent.

Sylamore sandstone member.—The Sylamore member of the Chattanooga formation consists of rather coarse, rounded, limpid quartz sand in which pebbles and grains of dark-brown or black, hard phosphatic rock are scattered at random. More rarely small fish teeth, fragments of large fish bones, and particles or fragments of rock similar to the subjacent contact beds are found. The sand grains are almost identical in composition, size, and form with the particles making the Burgen sandstone, of Ordovician age, occurring beneath, but nowhere in this district found in contact with, the Chattanooga formation.

The Sylamore sandstone has been found in four localities in the Tahlequah quadrangle, one on the east side of Illinois River near the northern boundary of the quadrangle, and the other three close together in the west side of Sallisaw Creek Valley northwest and north of Marble.

The rock at the locality first named consists of Tahlequah.

dark ferruginous quartz sand with many pebble-like lumps of hard, ferruginous, and probably phosphatic rock, which give the mass a conglomeratic appearance. Occasional bluish shaly fragments similar to certain shaly beds in the underlying Tyner formation are also included. This deposit is thin and was seen only in a small area near the head of a small gulch. At the other localities near Marble the Sylamore sandstone is 20 to 30 feet thick and massive, has a generally even texture, and is whitish to light brown in color. The phosphatic pebbles are small and few in number. Fragments of fish bone were occasionally observed in the sand. The sand is calcareous near the base, and in places seems to blend with the top of the St. Clair marble, though no inclusions of marble were seen. The sand terminates abruptly at the top in Walkingstick Hollow, where the contact is clearly exposed. At one locality noted in this valley, where the erosion of the stream had just reached the top of the sand, the surface is uneven, the black shales filling irregular depressions a foot and less in depth and 2 to 3 feet in width. The contact between the shale and the sand is clean, no sand being included in the shale, even in the basin-like depressions.

The only fossils from this member of the Chattanooga formation seen are more or less macerated fragments of large fish bones, apparently of the genus *Dinichthys*. This "terrible fish" swarmed in the late Devonian seas, and its bones are perhaps the most characteristic fossil of the upper Devonian Ohio black shale in Ohio and other States east of the Mississippi.

Carboniferous System.

MISSISSIPPIAN SERIES.

BOONE FORMATION.

The rocks of the Boone formation consist of interstratified chert and cherty limestone. At the base there are in places thin limestones free from chert, while at other localities the chert rests on the Chattanooga shale without intervening limestone beds. The limestone beds at the bottom, being distinct in lithologic character from the body of the formation and variable in thickness, are properly characterized as a member of the formation.

The base of the Boone formation is exposed in twelve localities, and in four of these limestone was found beneath the chert. Of the known occurrences of limestone beneath the chert two were found bordering the small areas of the Chattanooga shale in Barren Fork Valley south of Westville. In the smaller area in the west side of sec. 34, T. 17 N., R. 26 E., the limestone is about 5 feet thick. At the other locality, 3 miles down the stream, it is 10 to 15 feet thick. At these places it consists of fine-textured and dense, white to pinkish, even-bedded limestone. Light-colored crinoidal limestone beds 10 to 15 feet thick occur at the base of the Boone formation in the south bank of Barren Fork at the road crossing in the NW. ¼ sec. 13, T. 17 N., R. 23 E. No fossils were collected from this limestone at the three localities named, but its position in the formation and its lithologic character strongly indicate that it should be correlated with the basal St. Joe member of the Boone formation exposed in the northern part of the Fayetteville quadrangle and farther east in northern Arkansas.

A fourth locality of the basal limestone member of the Boone formation is in a small valley leading into Illinois River in sec. 36, T. 18 N., R. 22 E., very near the north border of the quadrangle. Here the beds consist of dull blue and earthy fossiliferous limestone in the lower part, followed above by thicker and harder limestone beds, the thickness of the whole being 6 feet. These beds belong stratigraphically below the lighter-colored crinoidal limestones, both being locally developed. They contain the following fossils, together with a number of undetermined and mostly undescribed species, all indicating Kinderhook age:

Leptana rhomboidalis Wilkens.
Productella concentrica Hall.
Spirifer cf. peculiaris Shumard.

The lighter-colored, often pink, and generally crystalline crinoidal limestone, together with the lower part of the cherty limestone overlying it, contains a Burlington fauna. The common fossils in this division include the following species:

Schizoblastus sayi Shumard.
Platyerinus and fragments of other crinoids.
Spirifer grimesi Hall.
Syringothyris sp.
Productus cf. semireticulatus.

The middle member constitutes almost the whole of the Boone formation as exposed in this quadrangle, and is made up essentially of calcareous chert or flint with variable bands or beds of limestone.

Fresh exposures occur in but few places and these are in steep bluffs and cliffs where the larger streams meander against the sides of their valleys, or more rarely in the beds of the smaller streams in their middle or lower courses where the grades are sufficiently steep and the volume of water great enough to induce active erosion. The chert element predominates so greatly over the limestone in abundance, and is so resistant to the effects of erosion, that almost the entire surface rock consists of angular chert boulders and fragments.

The cherts in the upper part of the formation are locally very fossiliferous. The following list includes the species most commonly found, and their association is decidedly indicative of Keokuk age:

Amplexus fragilis White and St. John.
Glyptopora keyserlingi Prout.
Fenestella multispinosa Ulrich.
Polypora maceoyana Ulrich.
Hemitrypa proutana Ulrich.
Pinnatopora striata Ulrich.
Spirifer logani Hall.
Reticularia pseudolineata Hall.
Productus setigerus Hall.
Orthotetes keokuk Hall.
Capulus equilaterus Hall.

The limestone overlying the chert was believed to be a part of the Boone formation at the time the Tahlequah quadrangle was surveyed and is included with it in the mapping. Later studies of this limestone made in connection with the survey of the Muscogee and Winslow quadrangles, west and east of the Tahlequah, have shown that locally, at least, a thin bed of black shale occurs between this limestone and the Boone chert. An abundant fauna, also, which has been collected from it, shows that it is higher geologically than the Boone and should be classed with the Fayetteville formation.

The thickness of the Boone formation is variable. It ranges from a minimum of 100 feet to a maximum approximating 300 feet. Except in a few localities the top and base are separated in outcrop by several miles, and the rocks are so concealed by surface chert debris that the determinations of thickness are at best only approximate.

The Boone formation outcrops over nearly one-half of the quadrangle and extends eastward into northwestern Arkansas, where, in Boone County, it was described and named by the State geologist of Arkansas. It also occupies a large area in southwest Missouri, including the zinc belt of the Joplin region.

FAYETTEVILLE FORMATION.

This formation consists of shales, black to blue in color, thin limestone, and shaly sandstone. The larger part of the formation consists of shale, and the limestone beds are inclosed in it as thin lentils or local beds near the base and top, while the sandstone is found above the middle of the formation inclosed in shale. The sandstone being locally thick enough in the northeastern part of the Tahlequah and in the adjoining Fayetteville quadrangle to be regarded as a member, separates the shale locally into two parts. The sandstone attains its greatest thickness in Wedington Mountain, in the southwestern part of the Fayetteville quadrangle, and is known as the Wedington sandstone member of the Fayetteville formation. Thus the formation consists of three parts or members—an upper and lower of shale, and a middle member, the Wedington, of sandstone.

Lower shale member.—The lower shale member of the Fayetteville formation consists of black to blue laminated clay shale, with beds of dark-blue to black fossiliferous limestone near the base. It grades upward into the Wedington sandstone member through sandy shales. The shale in the lower part of this member is invariably blacker, harder, and more distinctly fissile than in the upper part, which has shades of dark to light blue on fresh exposure. The upper part contains numerous thin and small clay-ironstone concretions.

The thickness of the shale is variable, decreasing from approximately 110 feet in the northeastern to about 20 feet in the southwestern portion of

the quadrangle. The limestone in the lower part has a great influence on the variation of thickness of the member, as it likewise becomes thinner toward the west. As the shale thins, its upper part gradually becomes darker, until in the western portion of the quadrangle all of it is dark blue or black.

Aside from the small goniatites and other cephalopods found in the few limy concretions that occur in the black shale, the fauna of the lower member is confined to the limestone near its base.

The principal fossils of this limestone are the following:

1. A large undescribed crinoid, related to *Eupachyerinus*, but with uniserial arms. The plates of the calyx, being thick and bulbous, are striking fossils.
2. *Archimedes cf. communis* Ulrich.
3. *Orthotetes kaskaskiensis* McChesney.
4. *Chonetes n. sp.*, of the type of *C. geinitzianus* Waagen (rare).
5. *Productus cf. cora* and *tenuicostus*.
6. *Productus cestrionensis* Worthen.
7. *Productus* of the type of *P. splendens*.
8. *Productus* sp. undet.
9. *Seminula subquadrata* Hall.
10. *Cleiothyris sublamellosa* Hall.
11. *Spirifer increbescens* Hall.
12. *Spirifer* of the type of *S. pinguis*; cf. *S. scobina* Meek.
13. *Spiriferina transversa* McChesney.
14. *Camarotochia* sp. undet.
15. *Dielasma cf. formosum* Hall.

Of the above list Nos. 1, 7, and 14 are very abundant and characteristic.

Wedington sandstone member.—The Wedington sandstone member in the Tahlequah quadrangle consists of thin-bedded and shaly brown sandstone which grades downward gradually into the lighter blue shales at the top of the lower shale member of the Fayetteville formation. It has the form of a lens or wedge, its thickness near the northeast corner of the quadrangle, in Alberty and West mountains, being about 40 feet. It thins toward the south and west, the shaly sandstone in the lower part increasing in the relative amounts of clay, and the sandstone becoming thinner and more shaly. In the lithologic change the lower part becomes indistinguishable from the upper part of the lower shale member. To the south, in the north slopes of Muskrat Mountain, and to the west, in Walkingstick Mountain, the lithologic character of the Wedington sandstone member is lost to view. Toward the northeast the Wedington sandstone increases rapidly in thickness, reaching a maximum more than 150 feet in Wedington Mountain, 2 to 6 miles northeast of the Tahlequah quadrangle.

Upper shale member.—The upper shale member of the Fayetteville formation is composed of bluish clay shales with ferruginous limy clay segregations and local thin layers of fossiliferous limestone. In the northeastern part of the quadrangle this member is so obscured by the debris from the Hale sandstone lentil of the overlying Morrow formation that its character is not easily determined. The interval between the Wedington sandstone and the succeeding Pitkin limestone, however, indicates that the shale does not exceed 30 feet in thickness. As this shale is thin and occurs in bluffs or steep slopes, it is included on the map within the area of the Wedington member. West and south of the occurrence of the Wedington sandstone the upper shale member is not distinguishable from the blue shales in the upper part of the lower shale member. The upper shale member, together with the whole formation, thins westward, until in the western part of the quadrangle the whole is found to be a black fissile shale except the limestone bed that occurs near the base and locally near the top.

The fauna of the upper shale member is distinguished from the other fossiliferous horizons of the formation by the much greater abundance and variety of its Bryozoa; also by the presence of a pentremite. These, in conjunction with the absence of the fossils that are most abundant and characteristic of the other two horizons, impart a very different aspect to its fauna. The species most commonly found are the following:

Pentremites sp. undet. (a large form between *P. godoni* and *P. conoidens*.)
Septopora cestrionensis Prout.
Fenestella sp. nov. (a common Chester form).
Archimedes compactus Ulrich.
Archimedes communis Ulrich.
Archimedes intermedius Ulrich.
Archimedes swallowanus Hall.
Polypora corticosa Ulrich.
Productus cestrionensis Worthen.

Productus sp. of the type of *P. cora*.
Productus sp. of the type of *P. punctatus*.
Seminula subquadrata Hall.
Reticularia setigera Hall.
Spiriferina spinosa N. & P.

The Fayetteville formation occurs in bases of escarpments or hills bordering the plain developed by the erosion upon the Boone formation, or in benches between the more elevated hilly country made by the Morrow formation and overlying sandstones above and the hard limestones and chert of the Boone below. In most instances the bed of shale outcrops on the watersheds and drainage divides at the sources of the streams. This is invariably its position where the Fayetteville shale bounds isolated areas of higher rocks. The outcrops of the shale are usually soil covered or concealed by debris from the overlying rocks.

The Fayetteville formation is widespread. It is exposed westward in the Muscogee quadrangle to the valley of Neosho River. It occurs eastward throughout a large part of northwestern Arkansas, and is typically developed in the vicinity of Fayetteville, where it was first described and named in vol. 4 of the report of the Arkansas Geological Survey for 1888.

PITKIN LIMESTONE.

The Pitkin limestone varies from rusty-brown, granular, earthy, and shaly strata at one extreme to fine-textured, massive, bluish beds at the other. The characteristics first named are usually found where the formation is thinnest and in the upper and lower beds elsewhere. Blue clay shale locally occurs interbedded with the limestone.

In thickness the Pitkin limestone varies from a thin shaly layer to massive beds aggregating 70 feet. The changes in thickness are irregular, though there is a general increase toward the southwest. As illustrations of this variability the following instances are cited. In Walkingstick Mountain the formation consists of a thin bed of brownish earthy limestone, while in the small mountain 3 miles west the strata are massive and make a section 40 feet thick. This limestone in the mountain east of Stilwell is 20 feet, while in the western and southwestern parts of the same township it is 40 to 60 feet thick. In T. 15 N., R. 24 E., the formation varies between 20 and 30 feet. The same is true for the northeastern part of the adjoining township (T. 15 N., R. 23 E.), but in the western and southwestern parts and in T. 15 N., R. 22 E., the thickness increases to more than 60 feet. In the vicinity of Bunch and elsewhere in T. 14 N., R. 24 E., the formation is usually about 20 feet thick, while farther west, toward the border of the quadrangle, there is a general increase of the section, the thickness ranging from 40 to 60 feet.

The Pitkin limestone outcrops generally at the bases of hills and in steep slopes, bluffs, and escarpments, usually beneath sandstones. The talus from these overlying sandstone beds frequently conceals the edges of the Pitkin formation, so that a complete section can rarely be found. While the Pitkin limestone varies in thickness and locally becomes thin, it has been found at every place where its horizon reaches the surface. Toward the east, beyond the Tahlequah quadrangle, the Pitkin limestone occurs in isolated areas and outcrops along the northern foothills of the Boston Mountains in northwestern Arkansas. Typical exposures occur in the north slopes of the Boston Mountains on the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad, near Pitkin, from which place the limestone receives its name.

The Pitkin limestone is considered to be the top of the Mississippian series of the Carboniferous. The reasons supporting this determination are given in the discussion of the correlation of formations, on page 2.

The fossils of this limestone are with few exceptions the same as those found in the limestone near the top of the Fayetteville formation.

PENNSYLVANIAN SERIES.

MORROW FORMATION.

The Morrow formation consists of three distinct classes of rocks, which have considerable range in thickness and occurrence and are variable in character. These rocks are sandstones, limestones, and shales; they can be segregated more or less distinctly in the order as named from the base

upward, and are properly classed as members. The limits of these members have been traced from Neosho River in eastern Cherokee Nation eastward through a considerable part of northwestern Arkansas north of the Boston Mountains. These members vary in both composition and thickness from northeast to southwest. Toward the southwest the quantity of lime increases to such an extent that at the west side of the Tahlequah quadrangle and in the Muscogee quadrangle the formation consists of limestone with scarcely any deposits of sand and clay. In the opposite direction the amount of limestone grows less, until in parts of the Fayetteville and adjoining quadrangles the formation consists locally almost entirely of shale and sandstone. Still farther east, in the vicinity of St. Joe, it is reported by Dr. Ulrich that the limestone is entirely absent from the lower part of the formation, this absence being accounted for by overlap.

The lowest member or lentil of the formation is sufficiently distinct lithologically to be mapped and has received the name Hale sandstone, because of its strong development in Hale Mountain, in the Winslow quadrangle near the northeast corner of the Tahlequah quadrangle. The middle member consists of limestone with minor deposits of clay shale, which usually grades into the upper member, consisting of shale with occasional strata of limestone and thin sandstone interbedded. The middle member grades into the upper, and the boundary between them is not usually distinguishable. For these reasons they are not mapped or distinguished by names, but will be separately described.

The formation is named for the village of Morrow, near which a typical section of the rock is exposed, in Washington County, Ark., 4 miles east of the Tahlequah quadrangle.

Hale sandstone lentil.—The Hale sandstone in its typical development consists of thick-bedded, massive, calcareous sandstone in the upper part and where it is thickest. In such instances the beds are nearly pure quartz sand of even and moderately fine grain. This member varies in composition locally. In places parts of the member (usually the lower and middle) become so calcareous as to be classed as siliceous limestones. Again it is shaly, consisting of clay and sandy shale with strata of sandstone, especially where the member becomes thin.

The Hale sandstone decreases in thickness westward, but the change is irregular. The thickest section is exposed in the slopes of the valley east of Muskrat Mountain, where the member is 110 feet thick. The lower 40 feet are calcareous sandstone. In the central part are 25 feet of thin-bedded siliceous limestone. The upper 40 feet consist of massive brown and nearly pure siliceous sand. In the low mountain in T. 16 N., R. 26 E., the sandstone becomes thinner in an irregular manner and varies between 10 and 50 feet. In T. 15 N., R. 24 E., it becomes coarser and more massive, especially in sec. 21, where it reaches a thickness of 70 feet. Farther west the sandstone decreases in thickness, becoming at the border of the quadrangle too thin to be mapped. In the adjoining Muscogee quadrangle it has not been recognized in mappable thickness. In the valley of Vian Creek, near the southwest corner of the quadrangle, the upper beds of this member are exposed and the sand is so coarse as to be classed as a grit or fine conglomerate.

This member was originally described as a formation. In the Arkansas Survey reports treating of the geology of Washington County, it was named the Washington sandstone, for Washington Mountain, where it is typically exposed. Washington being preoccupied as a formation name, Hale, the name of a mountain near which it is well exposed, is adopted instead.

The Hale sandstone contains locally siliceous limestone beds that are fossiliferous. The fauna has been only partially worked up. The most prominent species is a *Spirifer* apparently not distinguishable from the lower Pennsylvanian *S. boonensis* Swallow. Some of these calcareous layers contain numerous fenestellid Bryozoa and fewer Brachiopoda. Some at least of these fossils belong to species found abundantly in the overlying limestone, but others appear to be confined

to the Hale sandstone. So far as studied the fossils from this member contain nothing that casts doubt on the view that the whole of the Morrow group is younger than Mississippian.

Limestone of the Morrow formation.—The middle portion of the Morrow formation consists of relatively hard, blue, fine-textured limestone with a deposit of blue clay shale, usually in the middle part. Locally there are thin sandstone and limestone beds interstratified with this shale. Shale also occurs near the top of the member interbedded with the limestone in places. In such instances there is a gradation from limestone to shale from the middle to the upper member. Again, there is an abrupt change from limestone to shale where the two members are quite distinct. There is a gradual change in the lithologic character of the middle member of the Morrow formation toward the west by increase of limestone and decrease of clay. Near the eastern border of the quadrangle the limits of this member are not well defined and it consists in large part of shale interbedded with limestone, while near the western border and beyond, in the Muscogee quadrangle, it is composed almost entirely of limestone. The thickness also is variable, in an irregular way, ranging from 50 to 200 feet. This variation may be due, however, to the erosion of some of the upper beds prior to the deposition of the succeeding formation.

Some layers of this important limestone member are full of small gasteropods and pelecypods, of species mainly undescribed. Other layers are charged with many kinds of Bryozoa. These, also, are nearly all new to science, but when compared with known species their alliances are in nearly every case nearer Pennsylvanian than Mississippian types. A subramose *Michelinia* (near *eugenea* White) is abundant; also another coral comparing rather closely with *Trachypora austini* Worthen. Both of these corals are of service in distinguishing the horizon from the lithologically similar Pitkin limestone. Among the brachiopods, which class is represented by a number of undetermined species, a *Hustedia* cf. *mormoni* Marcou affords perhaps the most reliable evidence of the Pennsylvanian rather than Mississippian age of the Morrow formation. Several very fine species of crinoids occur in the lower limestone, but as they are all new they throw little light upon the age of the bed. The generic types represented occur in late Mississippian rocks and, in part at least, in much later Pennsylvanian deposits. However, so few crinoids are known from the latter series of rocks that it is as yet impossible to properly estimate the evidence of the crinoids. *Pentremites rusticus* Hambach is one of the common fossils. The old name of the member—Pentremital limestone—was derived from it.

Shale in the Morrow formation.—The uppermost part of the Morrow formation consists of blue and black clay shale with few local beds of limestone and more rarely thin layers of sandstone and sandy shale near the top. The character of the limestone is practically the same as that of the beds making the upper part of the limestone below. The shale also resembles that interbedded with the limestone of the middle member, except that it is usually more arenaceous and more distinctly laminated. In the hills 2 miles west of Stilwell this member culminates in shaly calcareous sandstone, thin sandstone, and limestone interstratified. In such places the top of the Morrow formation can not be clearly defined, since the succeeding formation consists of sandstone and shale. The limestone layers of this member are not numerous and occur in various positions in the shale, chiefly in the upper part. In many places limestone beds can not be found, and there is no assurance that they are everywhere present.

This member varies in thickness, reaching a maximum of about 100 feet. The changes in thickness occur in various parts of the quadrangle, but there is a general decrease toward the west. These changes are undoubtedly due, in part at least, to local erosion prior to the deposition of the succeeding Winslow sandstone, which occurs unconformably on the Morrow formation.

The limestone beds of this member are locally very fossiliferous, but the fauna consists of rather few species. All of the forms observed by the writer occur also, and in better condition, in the

underlying limestone. The fauna consists principally of brachiopods and bryozoans. Mollusks are notably few or absent. The mollusks, however, especially gasteropods, occur in some of the thin sandstones and shales above the limestone.

The shale between the main limestone and the thinner beds of limestone near the top of the formation contains a thin bed of coal at one locality in the Muscogee quadrangle and at a number of places in northwestern Arkansas, some of which are in the Fayetteville quadrangle. Associated with the coal in the Fayetteville quadrangle are black shales containing fossil plants. Collections of these fossil plants were determined by David White and correlated with certain plant remains from the Sewell formation of the Pottsville stage in the southern Appalachian region. This correlation, published in 1895 and again in 1900 (Bull. Geol. Soc. America, vol. 6, 1895, p. 316; Twentieth Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Surv., pt. 2, 1900, p. 817), showed that the rocks above the main limestone (Pentremital limestones of the Arkansas Survey), at least, belong to the Pennsylvanian series. Studies made recently by Messrs. Ulrich and Girty show that the limestones both above and below the plant-bearing shale contain a united fauna and that the whole Morrow formation should be classed as Pennsylvanian.

WINSLOW FORMATION.

The Winslow formation consists of bluish and blackish clay shale, sandy shale, and brown sandstone, with rarely small accumulations of conglomerate near the base. For convenience of discussion the formation may be separated into three members, which are distinguishable by the increase of sandstone near the middle of the formation. Generally speaking the sandstones are thin bedded and variably shaly. This is especially the case in the lower member of the formation, where also clay shale is more abundant than in the middle member. The change in abundance of sand in the sediments from the lower to the upper member is gradual and the boundary between the two can not be continuously traced. The stratigraphic relation between the middle and upper members, however, is different. The change from the middle member, which is chiefly sandstone, to the upper member, which is composed for the most part of shale, is more abrupt than the transition from the lower to the middle member. The parting between the two members is sufficiently distinct in the Tahlequah quadrangle to be mapped and to be distinguished by name. It is named the Akins shale member, from the village located on it near the southern boundary of the quadrangle. Westward, however, across the Muscogee quadrangle, the sandstones of the middle member become thinner and more shaly and the base of the Akins shale member can not be mapped. Otherwise the Akins shale deserves to be distinguished as a formation.

In the lower member, from the base upward about 450 feet, to approximately the middle of the formation, the two classes of sediments occur in many beds alternately deposited. The sandstones are generally shaly or thinly stratified. Locally near the base the sandstones are massive and thick, and in such places are often coarse, consisting of small quartz pebbles embedded in a brown sand matrix. In a few places these pebbles are sufficiently coarse to justify the classification of the rocks as conglomerates.

Above these sandstones and shales there is a nearly equal thickness of rocks composed principally of brown sandstone, which constitutes the middle member. A part of this member is composed of thinly stratified or shaly sandstone, and minor beds of shale occur interstratified with them. As a whole these beds become thicker and more massive upward, and they increase in thickness eastward. Certain beds in the upper part are also harder than the sandstone in the lower part, and their effect is strong in controlling the topography of the southeastern part of the quadrangle. Above the thick sandstone beds are deposits of blue and black shales with a few beds of sandstone, which culminate in sandstone and shaly beds, aggregating about 50 feet.

The hard beds of the Winslow formation occur in the southeastern part, making the most rugged topography of the quadrangle. The lower beds cap many hills and low mountains in the central

and western parts of the quadrangle. Except the hard sandstone beds near the middle of the formation and certain more resistant sandstones and conglomerates at the base, the rocks of the Winslow formation are generally concealed by sandstone talus. As a result few even of the sandstone beds can be traced for any considerable distance.

Akins shale member.—Only the lower part of the Akins shale occurs in the Tahlequah quadrangle. It consists of blue and black clay shales and shaly sandstone with a few thin sandstone beds. A thin bed of coal occurs near the base of this member in the northwestern part of the adjoining Sallisaw quadrangle. It has been prospected and worked for local use in the Sallisaw Creek Valley a few miles south of the Tahlequah quadrangle.

In this quadrangle coal should outcrop near Sallisaw Creek and in the vicinity of Akins, but it has not been found at these places. The lower part of the shale, and probably that part including the horizon of the coal, is concealed by faulting along the north side of the Akins shale exposure in the Tahlequah quadrangle.

The Akins shale outcrops in a narrow, elongated area that extends from the Tahlequah quadrangle southwestward to the Arkansas River Valley. It occurs here in an elliptical basin which is known as the Sallisaw syncline. The thickness of the shale in this basin is estimated to be 600 to 700 feet, and the lower 150 to 200 feet are exposed in the Tahlequah quadrangle.

It has been determined by areal geologic mapping in the Sallisaw quadrangle, which joins the Tahlequah on the south, that the Akins shale member represents the upper part, approximately the upper third, of the McAlester formation, the lower limits of which are not determinable in the Tahlequah quadrangle or elsewhere north of Arkansas River.

The average thickness of the lower and middle members of the Winslow formation is estimated to be approximately 900 feet, which, with the exposed part of the upper or Akins shale member, will aggregate 1050 to 1100 feet in the quadrangle.

Correlation of Formations.

The determinations of the age, the classification, and the correlation of the rocks occurring in the Tahlequah quadrangle are based on direct stratigraphic connection between the formations in this quadrangle and those mapped in Arkansas to the northeast and Indian Territory to the south and on paleontologic determinations by Messrs. G. H. Girty and E. O. Ulrich, paleontologists of the United States Geological Survey, from observations and collections made in the field seasons of 1901, 1902, and 1904. The most abundant collections were obtained from the Carboniferous section, where the more important age distinctions and revisions of former classifications were made. Especially valuable is the more definite knowledge gained concerning the boundary between the rocks of Mississippian and Pennsylvanian age.

The Burgen sandstone is much like the saccharoidal sandstone of northern Arkansas and southern Missouri, and its stratigraphic position above the Yellville limestone, the uppermost group of the "Magnesian series," strongly favors its correlation with the saccharoidal sandstone recognized by the Arkansas Geological Survey. It is not known to contain fossils.

The Tyner formation contains a considerable fauna in the limy layers and in some sandy beds above and near the top, which indicates that the rocks range from Trenton to Lorraine in age.

The St. Clair marble, at least the upper exposed part, contains a Niagara fauna. Both the fossils and the rock characteristics show it to be a westward continuation of the St. Clair marble of northern Arkansas.

The correlation of the Devonian black shale and sandstone of this area with the Chattanooga shale of the southern Appalachian region is based upon stratigraphic relations to older and younger rocks, identical lithologic character, and the occurrence of similar fish remains in the phosphatic sands in the lower parts of the two beds.

The Boone formation is widespread in occurrence and has been traced by areal mapping from the Tahlequah quadrangle to localities first described in northern Arkansas.

The Fayetteville formation at its type locality about Fayetteville, Ark., as well as at many places

Tahlequah.

in Indian Territory, contains a well-preserved and abundant fauna. It has been mapped from Fayetteville westward through the Tahlequah and Muscogee quadrangles. Special studies by Dr. Ulrich in the region of Batesville, Ark., show that in that locality the Marshall shale (so named by the Arkansas geologists) is rich in fossil shells and contains a fauna correlative with that of the Fayetteville shale. Thus the Batesville sandstone, which, at Batesville, its type locality, occurs beneath the Marshall shale, belongs beneath instead of above the Fayetteville shale and is to be classed with the Wyman sandstone which is found near Wyman and in the Fayetteville quadrangle.

The sandstone overlying the Fayetteville shale and mapped as the Batesville sandstone by the Arkansas Survey (Geology of Washington County, vol. 4, 1888) is now known as the Wedington member of the Fayetteville formation. The formation described as the Marshall shale in the Washington County report, which is separated but locally by the Wedington sandstone from the shale beneath, necessitated the combination of the two with the included sandstone into the Fayetteville formation.

The Pitkin limestone (Archimedes limestone of the Arkansas Survey) marks the upper limit of the Mississippian series of the Carboniferous in northwestern Arkansas and northeastern Indian Territory. Field studies and office investigations of the fauna of the Pitkin and Morrow formations by Dr. Girty and Dr. Ulrich have developed conclusive evidence of this classification. Dr. Girty reports the following: "There is a rather marked faunal change at the stratigraphic plane between the Morrow and Pitkin formations or between the 'Archimedes' and 'Pentremital' limestones of the Arkansas Survey classification. The Pitkin fauna is related to that of the Mississippian epoch. The faunas of the different limestone beds in the Morrow formation are closely allied to one another. They both exclude many of the Mississippian types found in the Pitkin limestone and include many which are foreign to it, and some which are distinctly Pennsylvanian. For example, *Squamularia* is substituted for *Reticularia*, and *Hustedia* for *Eumetria*. The flora of the 'Coal-bearing' shale which occurs between the limestones of the Morrow formation is that of the Pottsville, a division of the Pennsylvanian series in the Appalachian province."

Formations of Pennsylvanian age in the Tahlequah quadrangle can not be correlated definitely with rocks of related age on the south side of the Arkansas Valley. In both localities fossiliferous limestones occur at the base. In the area lying on the south side of the valley and extending westward to the Arbuckle Mountains the formation is known as the Wapanucka limestone, and is described in the Coalgate and Atoka folios. It is probably the equivalent, in part at least, of the Morrow formation. Above the Wapanucka there is a shale and sandstone formation having a thickness of 6000 to 7000 feet. It thins toward the west, decreasing to 3000 feet in the Atoka and Coalgate quadrangles, where it has been named the Atoka formation. The Atoka formation is the stratigraphic equivalent of probably the lower 600 to 800 feet of the Winslow formation in the Tahlequah quadrangle. Neither formation has been found to contain sufficient fossils for paleontologic correlation. The limestones at the base of each are probably equivalent, as stated, and it has been determined by areal mapping that the Hartshorne sandstone, which overlies the Atoka formation on the south side of the Arkansas Valley, has a stratigraphic equivalent in the upper part of the Winslow formation in the Tahlequah quadrangle.

HISTORY OF SEDIMENTATION.

All the rocks in the Tahlequah quadrangle were deposited in water and are composed of the waste of neighboring lands and of the remains of animals and plants which lived in or near the borders of the seas when the sediments were being laid down. These rocks, as described above, are limestones, shales, sandstones, and conglomerates, and when they were deposited consisted of limy ooze, mud, sand, and gravel, respectively. The characters of these rocks, when traced and studied over a wide field, tell the story, though not complete, of the manner of their formation. As ages passed and formations were successively deposited the generations of animal life changed or migrated and were

succeeded by other forms. At certain stages in the sedimentation gaps occur in the life record, accompanied by discordance in the character and structure of the rocks, showing oscillations of the land and sea. The variations in the coarseness, composition, and thickness of the formations record evidence of the depth of the water in which they were deposited and give some idea of the extent of the submergence and the nature of the contiguous lands. The fossil remains not only show the relative ages of the successive strata, but aid in identifying and correlating the formations which came to the surface in separated localities.

Stratigraphically below the lowest rocks at the surface in the Tahlequah quadrangle lie magnesian limestones, conglomerates, sandstones, cherts, etc., of Cambrian and Ordovician ages, which come up around the older igneous rocks of the St. Francis Mountains in southeastern Missouri and also in northern Arkansas. They reveal a record of sedimentation which is not essential to the geologic history of the Tahlequah quadrangle. It is sufficient here to say that the older formations which approach the crystalline rocks of the St. Francis Mountains overlap against them, thus recording the fact that they were remnants of the land mass which probably persisted during their deposition. That a large part of the region underwent numerous oscillations of level above and below the sea is recorded by the rapid alternation of saccharoidal sandstone and magnesian limestone and the occurrence of conglomerate.

One of these saccharoidal sandstones, probably the uppermost, is represented by the Burgen sandstone.

During its deposition the sea bottom was raised and the beach bordering the lowland advanced and receded back and forth across the district, leaving a thick deposit of homogeneous clean sand. Such deposits are known to be formed only in shallows near wave-washed shores. After the Burgen deposition, an erosion period possibly intervening, the shores retreated, the retreat being accompanied by a subsidence of the sea bottom, so that fine waste from the land was laid down as mud in thin laminae corresponding to successive floods on the land or rhythmical variations of the currents of the sea. At certain stages of the deposition thin sheets of fine sand were deposited over the bottom, and finally, near the close of the Tyner epoch, muddy sediments did not reach this area and limestones were formed.

Above these sandy and shaly sediments was deposited the material which now makes the St. Clair marble. The marble is surrounded and concealed in the Tahlequah quadrangle, outside of a few exposures, by younger rocks which rest unconformably on it. Massive white crystalline limestone 200 feet or more in thickness, such as the St. Clair marble, indicates deposition in clear water, which may have been either some distance from land or at considerable depths in the vicinity of very low land.

After the deposition of the St. Clair marble there is a break in the record, corresponding to the closing portion of Silurian and early Devonian times. In this long interval the rocks were folded in low undulations and uplifted into land. Probably while the folding was in progress, and certainly after it had taken place, the land was reduced by erosion to a low and nearly level surface. This land was submerged in late Devonian times. These conditions prevailed not only in the vicinity of the Tahlequah quadrangle, but extended over a large part of the Ozark uplift. The record of this submergence is found in the Chattanooga shale, which was deposited over a very broad extent of country. This shale, which is such as would be formed in a broad, shallow sea, was deposited on the eroded surface of several formations, consisting of various kinds of sandstones, shales, limestones, and dolomites. In the small areas exposed in the Tahlequah quadrangle the Chattanooga shale occurs on all three of the older formations, and though the Tyner shale and Burgen sandstones are friable rocks, material from them does not enter appreciably into the composition of the shale. After the deposition of the Chattanooga shale submergence of the region continued well into Mississippian time, until the formation of the Boone limestone and chert was completed. The broad extent of this submergence is shown by the fact that patches of the Boone formation occur almost up to the crest of the Ozark dome. In later Mississippian time there

was an elevation of the sea bottom and at least a part of the Ozark region became land. Oscillations of land and sea, however, occurred until the entire Mississippian series was deposited, as shown by the locally variable formation of sand, clay, and limestone.

In mid-Carboniferous time the sea withdrew, leaving the Ozark region as land beyond the boundary marked by the exposed top of the Mississippian sediments. The evidence of the broad land at this time is shown in the erosion of the highest Mississippian formation where the Pennsylvanian rocks come in contact with them. In the south and southwest sides of the uplift, notably in the Tahlequah quadrangle, the unconformity is not great, but farther up, toward the crest of the dome, higher rocks of the Pennsylvanian series come in contact with successively lower beds of the Mississippian. In southwestern Missouri and toward the center of the uplift the Boone formation shows evidence of mid-Carboniferous erosion, and the depressions in its surface yet contain remnants of Coal Measures conglomerates and shales. Thus it is seen that after the elevation of the Ozark region in mid-Carboniferous time it was again submerged, but to what extent is not known, since so large a part of the formations of Pennsylvanian age in the Tahlequah quadrangle and elsewhere in the region record a history differing from that of previous sediments. The waters in which they were deposited were shallow, the bottoms of the seas frequently reached the surface, and the lands were low, as attested by the alternating shale, sand, and conglomerate and the irregularity of their bedding. The lands were more extensive than the confines of the Ozark uplift. The Pennsylvanian sediments increase greatly in quantity of coarse material and in thickness toward the south and east, indicating the direction of the land from which the great abundance of sand especially was derived. Additional evidence of this is the fact that the later beds of the Pennsylvanian deposits which overlap the rocks of the Ozark dome decrease in thickness northward and contain little coarse sediment.

After the close of the Carboniferous the whole region was raised above the sea, and there is no record of sedimentation to indicate that it has since been submerged. The features of the Ozark region and the occurrence of later rocks on its eastern border show that the surface has oscillated and that the rocks have been locally deformed, but these are records of physiographic and structural history, and are described elsewhere.

STRUCTURE.

GENERAL STATEMENT.

All stratified rocks are originally deposited in nearly flat positions. This may be said to be universally true of the finely divided sediments, such as fine sand, clay, and limestone, and of practically all deposits having broad extent. All the rocks of the Tahlequah quadrangle are included in this classification of stratified rocks.

In the discussion of the history of sedimentation it was pointed out that the rocks of the Ozark region, of which the Tahlequah quadrangle formed a part, oscillated from sea bottom to land and from land to sea bottom at various times between the Cambrian period and late Carboniferous time, and that these oscillations were accompanied by slight and variable folding of the strata. Since rocks lower than the Carboniferous crop out in but few and small areas in the Tahlequah quadrangle, but little can be said of their structure apart from that involved in the Carboniferous rocks. At some time after the Carboniferous period the region was uplifted and the flat strata were bent into a broad dome. A better understanding may be had of the structure of the Tahlequah quadrangle after a brief description of the Ozark uplift and the Arkansas Valley, of which it forms parts.

OZARK UPLIFT.

The Ozark uplift comprises southern Missouri, that part of Arkansas included in and lying north of the Boston Mountains and west of the Mississippi lowlands, northeastern Indian Territory east of Neosho River, and the southeast corner of Kansas. Its approximate outline will be seen in fig. 1, which shows the physiographic divisions of the Ozark province. The boundaries can not be clearly

defined because the uplift merges into the bordering provinces of the Prairie Plains and the Arkansas Valley. On the north and west the inclination of the strata continues downward at a gradually increasing grade beneath the Prairie Plains. The limits are more distinct on the south as a result of the more abrupt change from the monocline of the Boston Mountains to the folded rocks of the Arkansas Valley. On the eastern border of the dome the structure is concealed for the most part by the northern extension of the Tertiary and Quaternary flat sediments of the Mississippi lowlands. The exposed limit, however, is sharply marked here by the western border of these flat-lying sediments, along which the St. Louis, Iron Mountain and Southern Railroad has been built. The eastern boundary crosses Mississippi River near the mouth of the Ohio, curves northward and then westward, and includes a small area in southern Illinois.

The Ozark uplift has the form of an elongated dome, the axial part trending approximately S. 70° W., through the St. Francis Mountains in eastern Missouri to the vicinity of Tahlequah in northeastern Indian Territory. Thus the Tahlequah quadrangle lies on the southwest end of this structural dome. The axis of this uplift is not marked by a definite crest, such as is usual in distinct smaller upward folds. For long distances across the axial part the strata are flat or but slightly undulating and are locally broken by normal faults. As already explained, the formations incline at low angles from the northwest side of the broad dome. Likewise, the strata pitch at a low degree along the axis toward the southwest. Between the axial part of the uplift and the Boston Mountains the structure is undulating and the rocks are locally faulted, resulting in a low slope toward the southeast. In the southern slopes of the Boston Mountains the tilting is increased by a succession of strong southward-dipping monoclines accompanied by local faulting.

ARKANSAS VALLEY TROUGH.

The Arkansas Valley structural province lies between the Ozark Mountains and the Ouachita Mountains and corresponds very closely with the physiographic province. It is a wide and deep but unsymmetrical trough composed of many relatively short lapping folds. There is a gradual transition from the strong and close folding of the Ouachita uplift northward into the Arkansas Valley. The depth of the folds decreases northward from the Ouachita Mountains to the Boston Mountains. North of Arkansas River the folds are shallow and relatively broad. From the Mississippi lowland at Little Rock to eastern Indian Territory the trough is of even width and bears almost due west. Opposite the west end of the Boston Mountains the Arkansas Valley structure curves southwestward and comes to an end between the Ouachita Mountains and the Arbuckle Mountains in southwest Choctaw Nation. Near the Arkansas-Indian Territory line, where the Arkansas Valley folds change their bearing from west to southwest, they approach the Boston Mountain monocline at angles of 30° to 45°. A fold of this class is the Sallisaw syncline, which enters the south end of the Tahlequah quadrangle.

STRUCTURE OF THE QUADRANGLE.

GENERAL STATEMENT.

The Tahlequah quadrangle lies on the southern slopes of the Ozark dome, near its southwest end, and extends from near the axis to the edge of the trough of the Arkansas Valley. In a general view of the structure of the quadrangle (see fig. 2) it may be seen that the form of the north half is almost flat. The undulations in an east-west direction are very slight, with the exception of a small basin southwest of Westville. Toward the southwest the inclination is increased, and the beds descend 600 feet from the northeast corner to the southwest corner of the quadrangle. The deformation increases in a southeasterly direction across the general trend of the uplift. In the northern part of the quadrangle the tilting toward the southeast is very slight. Southward the inclination of the strata increases by a succession of tilted and faulted synclinal folds. The southern half of the quadrangle includes the southwest end of the Boston Mountains, where the rocks are tilted southeastward in monoclines, locally increased by faulting.

STRUCTURE SECTIONS AND MAPS.

To aid in understanding the structure of the quadrangle two illustrations are introduced. One of these is a sheet showing the geology with two sections drawn across the strike of the rocks, and is known as a structure-section sheet. These structure sections show the approximate attitude of the formations beneath the surface, as if the rocks were sliced vertically and their cut surfaces exposed to view. The scale to which these sections are necessarily drawn is too small to show the minor undulations and details of folding; and of course the sections show the structure only near the line along which they have been drawn.

In order to represent more adequately the structure of the rocks in the Tahlequah quadrangle a model showing the deformed surface of the Boone formation, the one most widely exposed, has been constructed. In the model the vertical dimension is exaggerated three times as compared with the horizontal. Fig. 2 shows this model with the light falling on it at a low angle from the left.



FIG. 2.—Model of the deformed surface of the Boone formation in the Tahlequah quadrangle.

The vertical scale is exaggerated to approximately three times the horizontal in order to bring out the smaller undulations. Contour interval is 50 feet. To give the proper impression of the structure the light is made to fall on the surface from the upper left-hand corner.

The contour lines on this figure represent vertical intervals of 50 feet, and the numbers on them show elevations above sea. The relief of the deformed surface in any part of the quadrangle is shown by the contours.

FOLDS AND FAULTS.

The rocks of the Tahlequah quadrangle, besides being tilted southward in a broad monocline, have been thrown into moderate basin-like folds bearing northeast and southwest parallel to the general trend of the Ozark uplift. Associated with each of these basins on either one side or the other, or, in one instance, on both sides, are normal faults. With one exception these faulted folds occur in the central and western parts of the quadrangle. From the central part northwestward there are five such faults, which are downthrows toward the northwest, and are separated by basin-shaped faulted blocks inclined southward. The deepest parts of the basins are coincident with the greatest down-

ward displacement, suggesting a close relation between the faulting and the folding, to be pointed out more fully below. All of these faults pass beyond the boundary of the quadrangle, but, with the exception of one immediately south of Tahlequah, which extends to the middle of the adjoining Muscogee quadrangle, die out within a few miles. At Cookson a small fault displaces the rocks downward toward the southeast, producing the effect of an elevated, narrow faulted block in the north side of the larger, down-thrown block.

In the northeastern part of the quadrangle there are two small faults associated with minor folds. The one near Barren station, on the Kansas City, Pittsburg and Gulf Railroad, strikes in a northerly direction and is nearly coincident with the axis of a small structural basin. In this instance the down-thrown rocks are on the west side. The other small fault is east of Stilwell and strikes in an easterly direction, with downthrow toward the south, apparently across the axis of a poorly

minor undulations almost to the southern border of the quadrangle.

A small dome-like anticline occurs nearly midway in the Boston Mountain monocline, trending northwest and southeast. On the map it is located at the head of Salt Creek, opposite the east end of Brushy Mountain. The fold probably does not exceed 3 miles in extent and the rocks in its center are bulged upward probably a thousand feet above their normal position in the monocline.

Near the south side of the quadrangle occurs a narrow, steep monocline bearing nearly east and west. It marks approximately the boundary between the structure of the Ozark uplift and the folded trough of the Arkansas Valley in the Tahlequah quadrangle. A synclinal fold of the Arkansas Valley province enters the center of the south side of the quadrangle, trending northeast, and the above-mentioned monocline is a prominent feature of its northeast end. The steeply dipping rocks on the northwest side of the syncline continue southwestward beyond the quadrangle. Toward the northeast there is an abrupt change in the steepness of dip and direction of strike along the well-defined line of the monocline. From the vicinity of Akins westward to Sallisaw Creek and probably a mile or two beyond, the rocks are faulted along the south side of the monocline. The rock south of the fault is shale and is not sufficiently exposed to show structural details. On the opposite side, however, certain sandstone beds of the Winslow formation are terminated along the southern edge of the monocline.

RELATIONS OF FAULTS TO FOLDS.

It may be noted by reference to the structure map and fig. 2 that in the rocks north of the Boston monocline the faults are all associated with and, except possibly in one instance, already referred to, are parallel to and in most instances occur near the axes of the synclinal folds. In the four instances of faulting from the vicinity of Tahlequah southward it may be noted that the folding is confined to the down-thrown sides of the faults and that the deepest parts of the folds are coincident with the greatest displacement. Such relations between the folds and faults point strongly to the probability that the same forces produced the two types of structure and that their occurrences were closely related in time.

ECONOMIC GEOLOGY.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

The Tahlequah quadrangle has not been found to contain any of the ores of metals or nonmetallic products of economic value other than building stone, limestone, clay, and soil. To these products may be added water, which is a resource of considerable value.

The surface rocks in the northern part of the Tahlequah quadrangle are the same as those of the zinc region in southwestern Missouri and parts of northern Arkansas, and the structural conditions are very similar; that is, the rocks are essentially horizontal and are broken by normal faults, but no zinc ores are known to occur in appreciable amount.

BUILDING STONE.

Stone suitable for building construction may be found in the St. Clair marble, in certain beds occurring locally at the base and top of the Boone formation, in parts of the Morrow formation, and in certain beds of the Winslow formation.

The St. Clair marble is a massive, thick bed of white to cream-colored and moderately hard crystalline limestone. It is believed to be too coarse in texture to produce a stone of high grade for ornamental or decorative purposes. It is sufficiently strong, however, to be suitable as a building stone and its color is pleasing and durable. Four of the six localities of its exposure are in the Sallisaw Creek Valley and near the Kansas City Southern Railroad. All of the localities are in the bottoms of valleys or lower slopes of hills, and it is considered that except in the two largest areas, located near Bunch and Marble, the rock is not accessible for successful quarrying.

Certain marble-like limestone beds occur at the base of the Boone formation. These have been found at only two localities, both on Barren Fork east of the Kansas City Southern Railroad, sur-

rounding small areas of Chattanooga shale. This limestone occurs in even and moderately thin beds and its texture is fine. Its situation near the river level, however, will prevent its successful quarrying on a large scale. Certain limestone beds on the top of the Boone formation are adapted to use as ordinary building stone. The beds occur in moderately thin strata. The rock is light blue and hard. This limestone occurs above the chert beds and as a whole varies in thickness between 0 and 30 feet. It is included in the basal part of the Fayetteville shale and crops out in belts surrounding the localities of this formation in the northern half of the quadrangle.

The Pitkin and Morrow formations contain deposits of limestone very similar in bedding, color, and hardness to that overlying the Boone formation. These limestones vary to a small extent in quality in different parts of the formations. There are also changes in thickness and character from place to place across the quadrangle, which are discussed in the geological description of the formations. The occurrences of these limestones are shown on the geologic map.

The Winslow formation contains some sandstone beds which may be utilized for foundations and ordinary farm improvements. The sandstones are brown, of generally fine texture, and moderately hard. Certain beds in the upper part of the formation, exposed near the southern border of the quadrangle, are even bedded and will cleave in suitable dimensions for building purposes. Good exposures of such stone occur along the Kansas City Southern Railroad 1 to 2 miles from the southern border of the quadrangle.

LIMESTONE.

Certain of the beds of limestone in the formations referred to as containing building stone may be used in the manufacture of lime. It is believed that the St. Clair marble is the best adapted for this purpose. The limestone at the base of the Boone formation exposed on Barren Fork east of the Kansas City Southern Railroad is of similar grade. The limestone at the top of the Boone and in the Pitkin and Morrow formations is variable in quality and of generally lower grade, but certain layers may be of sufficient purity to produce lime.

Tahlequah.

CLAY.

Clay shales occur in abundance in the Tyner, Chattanooga, Fayetteville, Morrow, and Winslow formations. All of these clay-shale deposits vary in their different parts in percentages of lime, sand, and iron, but none were found of sufficient purity to produce a clay of high grade. A large part of the Tyner formation consists of greenish or bluish clay shale. There are thick beds of moderately soft, even-textured shale of this formation exposed in the valleys of Illinois River and Barren Fork northeast of Tahlequah.

The Chattanooga shale is invariably an even, hard, laminated, siliceous clay shale containing an intimate mixture of finely divided bituminous matter. On burning or long weathering it changes to whitish hues. The Fayetteville shale is similar in character to the Chattanooga, but less homogeneous and softer. It contains less bituminous matter in the upper part, but more iron, which occurs in the form of ocherous concretions.

The shales of the Morrow formation occur in the middle and upper parts. Those in the middle lie between beds of limestone and probably contain a large percentage of lime. The shales of the upper part are thicker, but more variable in constituents of lime and siliceous sand, being interstratified with both limestone and shaly sandstone beds. There are beds of even-textured shale, however, which may produce a brick clay.

It is estimated that one-half of the Winslow formation consists of shales, which occur chiefly in the lower and upper parts. They range from very sandy deposits to clay shales which may be utilized in the production of bricks. Clay shales of the better quality outcrop in Skin Bayou Valley. They invariably contain a percentage of disseminated iron, but are believed to be almost free from lime. That part of the Akins member of the Winslow which is exposed in the Tahlequah quadrangle consists almost entirely of shales, a large part of which are similar to the better grades found in the upper part of the Winslow formation. These shales disintegrate readily, forming clay soils, and are not usually exposed.

SOIL.

The soils of the Tahlequah quadrangle, with the exception of very limited tracts of bottom

land of transported soil distributed along the larger valleys, are formed in place by the weathering of the rocks beneath them. The geologic map, therefore, may be considered as a soil map also.

The St. Clair, Tyner, Burgen, and Chattanooga formations come to the surface in small tracts in narrow valleys or steep slopes where soils of any importance are not permitted to form.

The Boone formation produces two kinds of soil. The first and more fertile of these is formed by the limestone at the top of the formation. Considerable level fertile areas of this soil occur about Westville and Stilwell, and smaller tracts are found in many places on the level upland and near the edge of the Fayetteville shales. Elsewhere, and over the larger part of the quadrangle, the Boone formation produces a cherty soil. On weathering the chert breaks into angular blocks and fragments and, because of its great durability, forms a surface layer. The little soil it produces is fertile, but is carried downward and away by the rains or forms a substratum toward the base of the weathered chert zone. Thus over a large part of the Boone formation, especially in the more hilly districts, the soil is at too great a depth to be accessible to agricultural processes. The soil under these conditions can be of service only to the forest, which thrives seemingly in accumulations of loose stone. In certain areas that have remained flat for a long time the soil is at the surface or sufficiently near it to be cultivated. This is the case about Tahlequah and Parkhill and in other smaller tracts on the level divides in the northern part of the quadrangle.

The Fayetteville shale forms a thin and poor soil and its area is not sufficient to require further consideration.

The Morrow formation produces the most fertile soil in the region, even on steep slopes, where much of the rock is exposed. Its fertility is attested by the luxuriance of the forest and the occurrence of walnut, locust, and other trees that are found naturally only on fertile soils. The topographic features of the Morrow formation, however, are not favorable for the utilization of its soils, being confined almost entirely to hilly tracts. The Hale sandstone member of the Morrow formation produces a fertile sandy loam that is especially well adapted to fruit culture.

The Winslow formation contains but little soil

of agricultural value except in the few level tracts in the tops of the ridges near the eastern border of the quadrangle, in the table-land of Brushy Mountain, and in the district south of Blackgum post-office between Vian Creek and Illinois River. In these tracts the soil is a light sandy loam and is best adapted to the cultivation of vegetables and fruits. Elsewhere the formation is too hilly and the surface too stony and steep to serve any valuable purpose except to support a forest.

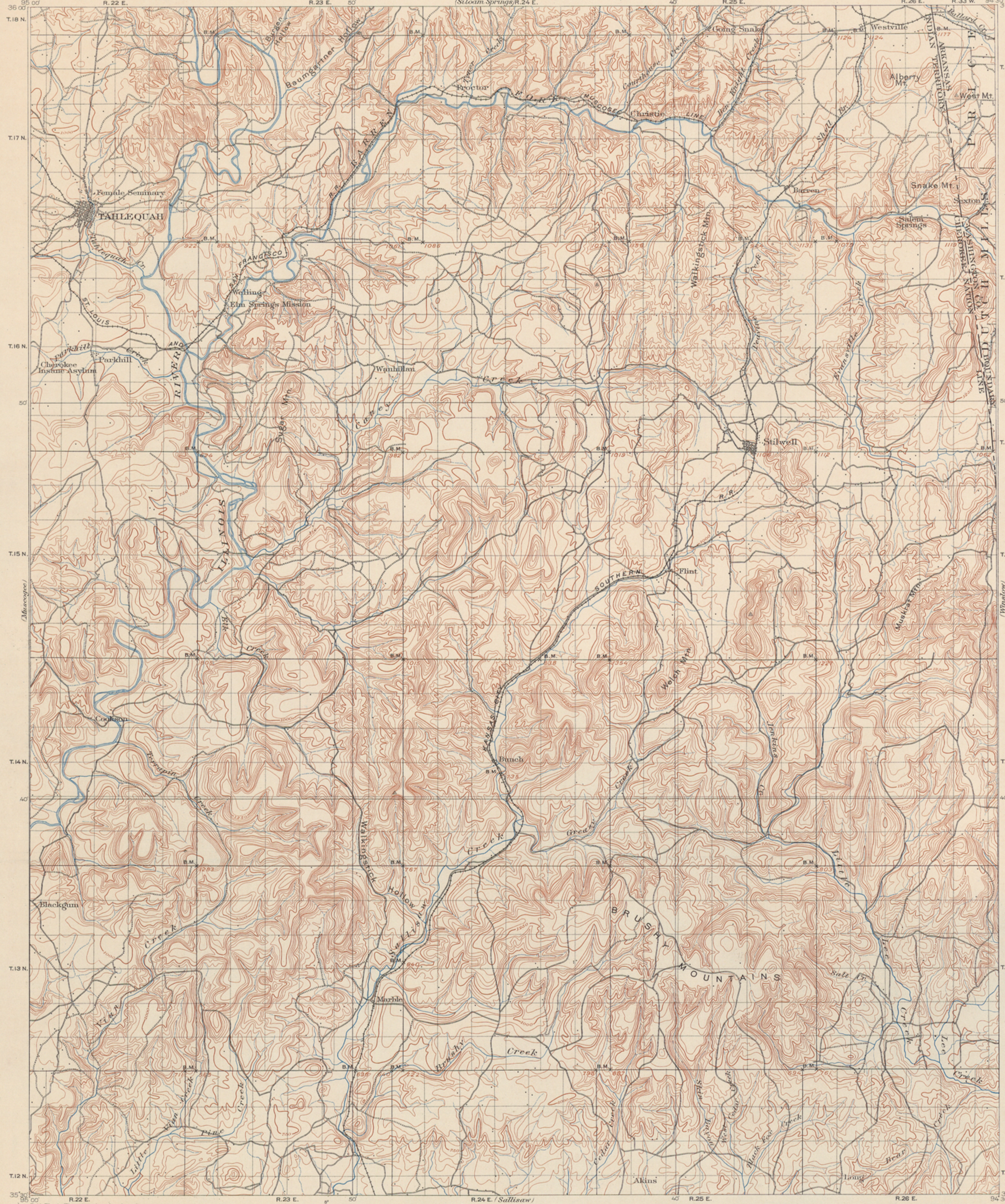
WATER.

The ground-water supply of the Tahlequah quadrangle is limited almost entirely to the area of the Boone formation. The rocks above the Boone formation, which consists chiefly of sandstone and shales, are practically impervious to water and afford no springs.

The Boone formation, on the contrary, while originally an impervious deposit of siliceous limestone, is intersected by underground solution channels that extend both across and along the bedding of the rocks. The water from many of these underground channels comes to the surface in the valleys and issues as springs, while that of others rises, probably in joint fissures or faults in the rocks. The group of large springs at Tahlequah and one on the fault 2 miles south afford a large volume of water. Large springs occur also at Parkhill, Wauhatchie, Stilwell, Bunch, and many other localities, affording an abundance of fresh water. A group of saline springs occurs at the outcrop of the Boone formation near the head of Salt Creek, opposite the east end of Brushy Mountain. The rocks here are steeply upturned and the springs appear to issue from the bedding planes of the chert and limestone of the Boone and Morrow formations. These springs have a small but unfailing flow of saline and sulphur waters, the quantity of common salt (sodium chloride) being of greatest abundance, varying in the different springs from a small percentage to a quantity sufficient to produce strong brine. Apparently the sulphur issues entirely as a hydrogen sulphide gas. The water of one of the springs issuing from the Morrow formation throws down a crimson precipitate which becomes black on long standing. This water has a bitter as well as a common saline taste.

March, 1904.

TOPOGRAPHY



LEGEND

- RELIEF
(printed in brown)
- Figures
(showing heights above mean sea level instrumentally determined)
- Contours
(showing height above sea horizontal form, and steepness of slope of the surface)
- DRAINAGE
(printed in blue)
- Streams
- Intermittent streams
- CULTURE
(printed in black)
- Roads and buildings
- Private and secondary roads
- Railroads
- State lines
- U.S. township and section lines
- Triangulation stations
- B.M. x
Bench marks

C.H. Fitch, Topographer in charge.
 Van H. Manning, Topographer Assistant in charge.
 Triangulation by C.F. Urquhart.
 Topography by R.H. Mc Kee, J. Ahern, C.W. Goodlove and H.B. Blair.
 Surveyed in 1896-97-98.

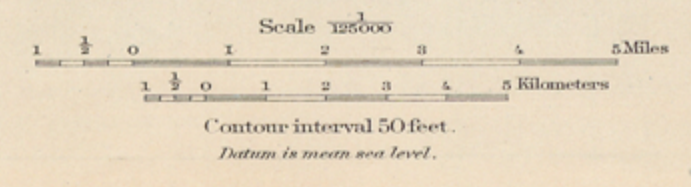
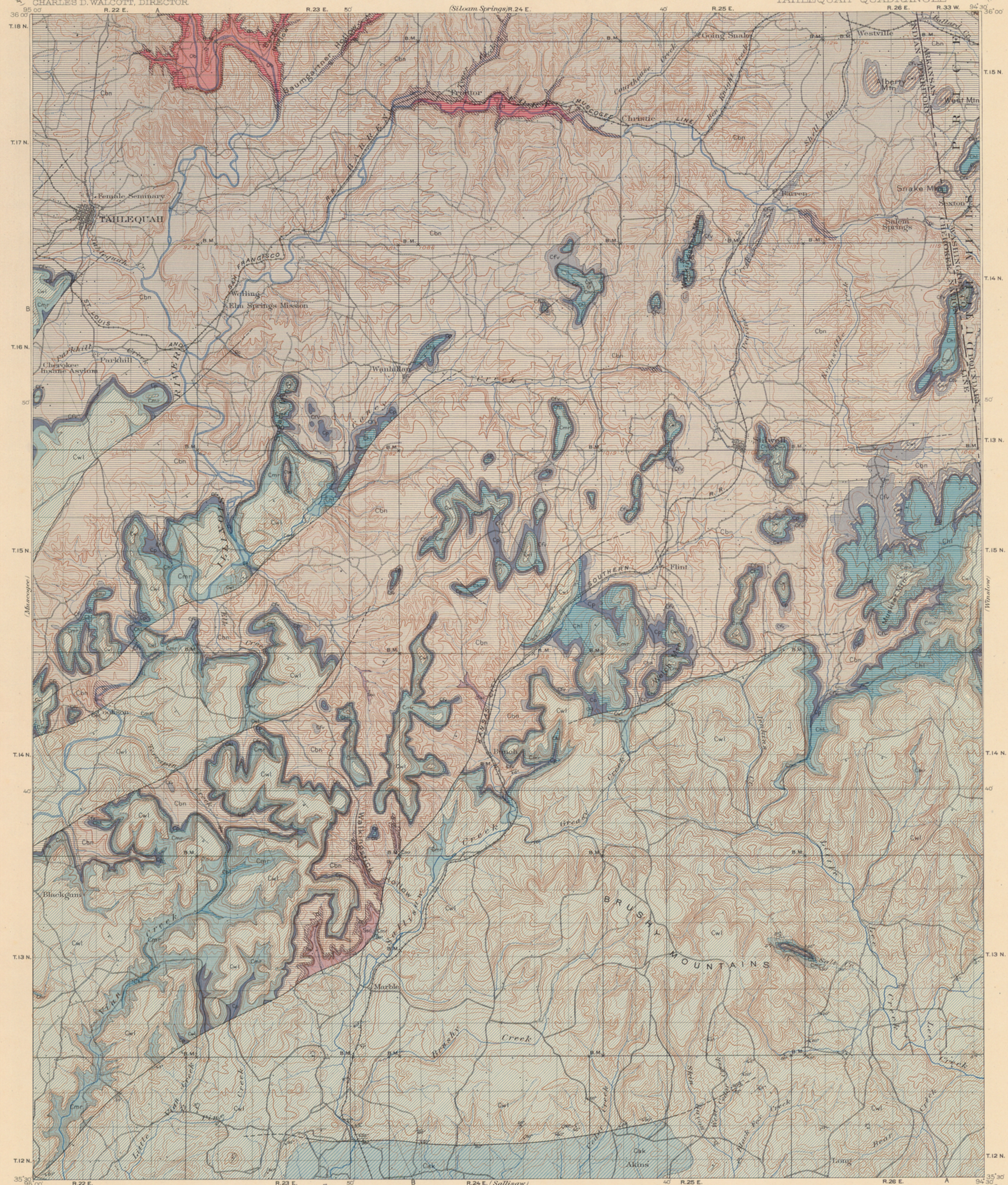


DIAGRAM OF TOWNSHIP

1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35
36	37	38	39	40

Edition of Dec. 1904



LEGEND

- SEDIMENTARY ROCKS**
(Areas of subhorizontal deposits are shown by patterns of parallel lines)
- Permian**
 - Cak**
Cwl
Winslow formation and Akins shale member
(shaly to thin-bedded sandstone and shale with quartz conglomerate locally at the base and coal-bearing shale member at the top)
 - UNCONFORMITY**
 - Cmr**
Chi
Morrow formation and Hale sandstone lentil
(light blue limestone and blue shale near the base and brown calcareous sandstone lentil at the base)
 - Mississippian**
 - Cp**
Pitkin limestone
(reddish brown shaly limestone grading into massive bluish limestone)
 - Cvl**
Cfv
Fayetteville formation and Widington sandstone member
(black to blue clay shale and sandy shale with limestone beds near the base and shaly sandstone member in upper part)
 - Cbn**
Boone formation
(cherty and cherty limestone with local light blue limestone at base)
 - UNCONFORMITY**
 - Dev**
Dev
Chattanooga formation and Sylamore sandstone member
(fossiliferous black shale with massive brown sandstone and shaly sandstone conglomerate at base, locally variable thickness)
 - UNCONFORMITY**
 - Sil**
Ssc
St. Clair marble
(pinkish white, coarsely crystalline marble)
 - Ordovician**
 - Of**
Tyner formation
(greenish blue shale, thin brown and black sandstone, and bluish limestone)
 - Ob**
Burgess sandstone
(thick bedded and massive brown to white sandstone)
- Faults**

↗↘ Strike and dip of stratified rocks



C.H. Fitch, Topographer in charge.
Van H. Manning, Topographer, Assistant in charge.
Triangulation by C.F. Urquhart.
Topography by R.H. Mc Kee, J.A. Ahern, C.W. Goodlove, and H.B. Blair.
Surveyed in 1896-97-98.

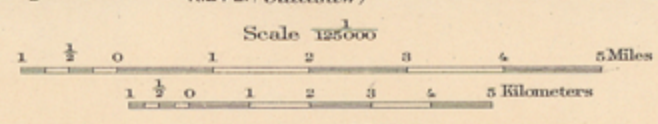
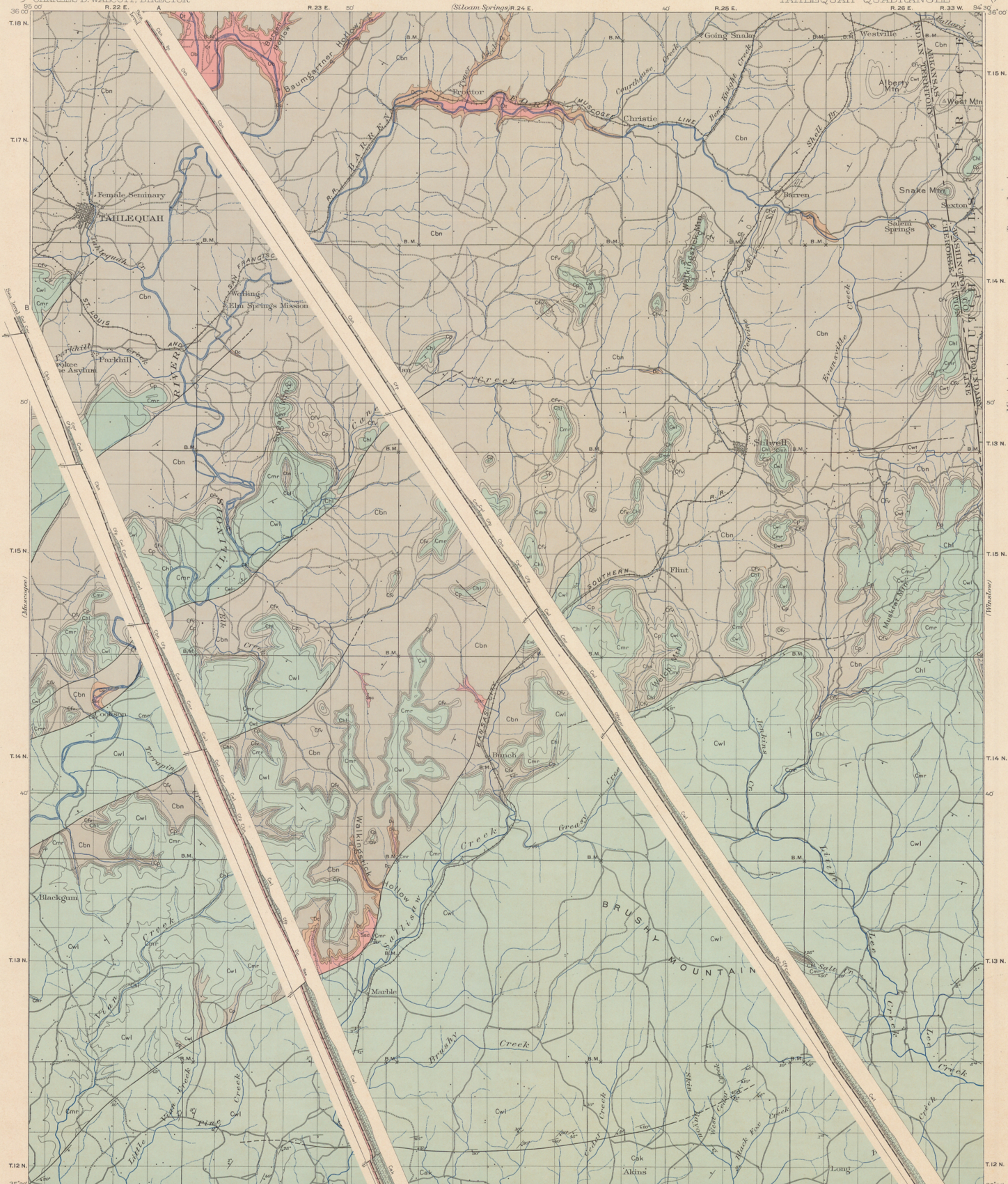


DIAGRAM OF TOWNSHIP

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36

Geology by Joseph A. Taff,
assisted by G. I. Adams and C. N. Gould.
Surveyed in 1901.

STRUCTURE SECTIONS



LEGEND

SEDIMENTARY ROCKS

SHEET SYMBOL	SECTION SYMBOL
Cak	Cak
Cwl	Cwl

Winslow formation and Atkins shale member
(shaly to thin bedded sandstone and shale with quartz conglomerate locally at the base and coal bearing shale member at the top)

UNCONFORMITY

Cmr	Cmr
Chl	Cmr

Morrow formation and Hill sandstone lentil
(light blue limestone and blue shale with brown calcareous sandstone lentil at the base)

Combined Fayetteville formation on sections

Pittkin limestone
(reddish brown shaly limestone grading into massive bluish limestone)

Cwt	Cfp
Cfv	Cfp

Fayetteville formation and Wedington sandstone member
(black to blue clay shale with limestone beds near the base and shaly sandstone member in upper part)

Cbn	Cbn
-----	-----

Boone formation
(dark and shaly limestone with local light blue limestone at base)

UNCONFORMITY

Dc	Dc
----	----

Chattanooga formation and Sylamore sandstone member
(fossiliferous shale with massive brown sandstone and phosphatic conglomeration at base, locally variable in thickness)

UNCONFORMITY

Ssc	Ssc
-----	-----

St. Clair marble
(pinkish white, coarsely crystalline marble)

Tyner formation
(greenish blue shale, thin brown and black sandstone, and bluish limestone)

Combined Tyner formation on sections

Burgen sandstone
(thick bedded and massive, brown to white sandstone)

Ot	Otb
Ob	Otb

Faults

For strike and dip of stratified rocks

Pennsylvanian

Mississippian

Devonian

Silurian

Ordovician

C.H. Fitch, Topographer in charge.
Van H. Manning, Topographer, Assistant in charge.
Triangulation by C.F. Urquhart.
Topography by R.H. Mc Kee, J. Ahern, C.W. Goodlove, and H.B. Blair.
Surveyed in 1896-97-98.

APPROXIMATE MEAN DECLINATION 1902.

Edition of April 1905

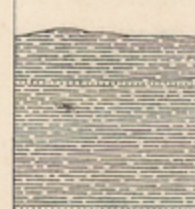


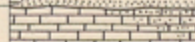






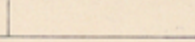
Scale 1:25000
1 2 3 4 5 Miles
1 2 3 4 5 Kilometers



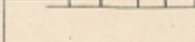
DIAGRAM OF TOWNSHIPS

4 5 6 7 8 9 10
11 12 13 14 15 16 17
18 19 20 21 22 23 24
25 26 27 28 29 30 31
32 33 34 35 36

Geology by Joseph A. Tapp, assisted by G. I. Adams and C. N. Gould. Surveyed in 1901.

COLUMNAR SECTIONS

GENERALIZED SECTION FOR NORTHERN HALF OF THE TAHLEQUAH QUADRANGLE.								
SCALE: 1 INCH = 200 FEET.								
SYSTEM	SERIES	FORMATION NAME.	SYMBOL.	COLUMNAR SECTION.	THICKNESS IN FEET.	CHARACTER OF ROCKS.	CHARACTER OF TOPOGRAPHY AND SOILS.	
CARBONIFEROUS	PENNSYLVANIAN	(Atkins shale member.)	(Cak)		(175+)	Chiefly shale, with thin sandstone.	Gently undulating plain. Clay soil.	
		Winslow formation.	Cwl		900±	Gray and brown sandstone, usually thin bedded, shaly sandstone, and bluish shale. Quartz conglomerate locally in sandstone at the base.	Local table-lands and hilly country. Light sandy loam on table-lands; stony soil on hill slopes.	
		UNCONFORMITY						
		Morrow formation.	Cmr		80-210	Blue to white limestone and light-blue to greenish clay shales with occasional thin sandstone.	Generally steep hill slopes and cliffs. Soil sandy with some clay.	
		(Hale sandstone lentil.)	(Chl)			Calcareous brown sandstone grading into limestone.	Valleys and lower slopes of hills. Stony, sandy loam.	
		Pitkin limestone.	Cp		3-80	Blue and brown limestone, locally siliceous and ferruginous.	Generally steep hill slopes and bluffs. Contributes lime to soils lower on slopes.	
		(Wedington sandstone member.)	(Cwt)		(0-100+)	Brown and usually thin-bedded sandstone, represented in part by bluish shale with clay-iron concretions.	Moderately steep slopes of hills. Sandy soil.	
		Fayetteville formation.	Cfv		20-160	Dark-blue to black fissile clay shale, locally containing argillaceous limestone segregations, and light-blue limestone in lower part.	Usually narrow and low-graded slopes. Thin, poor soil.	
		UNCONFORMITY						
			MISSISSIPPIAN	Boone formation.	Cbn		100-375	Chert and cherty limestone. Light-blue crinoidal limestone present locally at the base.
UNCONFORMITY								
DEV.		Chattanooga formation. (Sylamore sandstone member.)	Dc (Ds)		0-40	Black fissile shale, with massive brown sandstone and phosphatic conglomerate at the base.	Bases of bluffs and valley bottoms. Thin, poor soil.	
UNCONFORMITY								
ORDOVICIAN		Tyner formation.	Ot		60-100	Brown sandstone and thin siliceous limestone and chert above; brown, thin-bedded and flaggy sandstone and greenish shale below.	Steep slopes of valleys and bottom lands. Stony, poor soil.	
		Burgen sandstone.	Ob		5-100	Massive brown sandstone.	Lower slopes of bluffs and bottoms of valleys. Sandy soil.	

GENERALIZED SECTION OF THE LOWER ROCKS FOR SOUTH-CENTRAL PART OF TAHLEQUAH QUADRANGLE.							
SCALE: 1 INCH = 200 FEET.							
SYSTEM	SERIES	FORMATION NAME.	SYMBOL.	COLUMNAR SECTION.	THICKNESS IN FEET.	CHARACTER OF ROCKS.	CHARACTER OF TOPOGRAPHY AND SOILS.
CARBONIFEROUS	MISSISSIPPIAN	Boone formation.	Cbn		100-375	Chert and cherty limestone. Light-blue crinoidal limestone present locally at the base.	Table-lands and steep hills and valley slopes. Good limestone soil, but often cherty.
		UNCONFORMITY					
DEV.		Chattanooga formation. (Sylamore sandstone member.)	Dc (Ds)		0-40	Black fissile shale, with massive brown sandstone and phosphatic conglomerate at the base.	Bases of bluffs and valley bottoms. Thin, poor soil.
SILURIAN		St. Clair marble.	Ssc		100+	Pinkish-white, coarsely crystalline marble.	Lower slopes and valley bottoms. Soil thin and stony.

J. A. TAFF,
Geologist.

As sedimentary deposits or strata accumulate the younger rest on those that are older, and the relative ages of the deposits may be determined by observing their positions. This relationship holds except in regions of intense disturbance; in such regions sometimes the beds have been reversed, and it is often difficult to determine their relative ages from their positions; then *fossils*, or the remains and imprints of plants and animals, indicate which of two or more formations is the oldest.

Stratified rocks often contain the remains or imprints of plants and animals which, at the time the strata were deposited, lived in the sea or were washed from the land into lakes or seas, or were buried in surficial deposits on the land. Such rocks are called *fossiliferous*. By studying fossils it has been found that the life of each period of the earth's history was to a great extent different from that of other periods. Only the simpler kinds of marine life existed when the oldest fossiliferous rocks were deposited. From time to time more complex kinds developed, and as the simpler ones lived on in modified forms life became more varied. But during each period there lived peculiar forms, which did not exist in earlier times and have not existed since; these are *characteristic types*, and they define the age of any bed of rock in which they are found. Other types passed on from period to period, and thus linked the systems together, forming a chain of life from the time of the oldest fossiliferous rocks to the present. When two sedimentary formations are remote from each other and it is impossible to observe their relative positions, the characteristic fossil types found in them may determine which was deposited first. Fossil remains found in the strata of different areas, provinces, and continents afford the most important means for combining local histories into a general earth history.

It is often difficult or impossible to determine the age of an igneous formation, but the relative age of such a formation can sometimes be ascertained by observing whether an associated sedimentary formation of known age is cut by the igneous mass or is deposited upon it.

Similarly, the time at which metamorphic rocks were formed from the original masses is sometimes shown by their relations to adjacent formations of known age; but the age recorded on the map is that of the original masses and not of their metamorphism.

Colors and patterns.—Each formation is shown on the map by a distinctive combination of color and pattern, and is labeled by a special letter symbol.

Symbols and colors assigned to the rock systems.

System.	Series.	Symbol.	Color for sedimentary rocks.
Cenozoic	Quaternary	Recent	Q Brownish-yellow.
		Pleistocene	
	Tertiary	Pliocene	T Yellow ocher.
		Miocene	
		Oligocene Eocene	
Mesozoic	Cretaceous	K Olive-green.	
	Jurassic	J Blue-green.	
	Triassic	T _r Peacock-blue.	
Paleozoic	Carboniferous	Permian	C Blue.
		Pennsylvanian Mississippian	
	Devonian	D Blue-gray.	
	Silurian	S Blue-purple.	
	Ordovician	O Red-purple.	
	Cambrian	Saratogan	C Brick-red.
		Acadian Georgian	
	Algonkian	A Brownish-red.	
Archean	R Gray-brown.		

Patterns composed of parallel straight lines are used to represent sedimentary formations deposited in the sea or in lakes. Patterns of dots and circles represent alluvial, glacial, and eolian formations. Patterns of triangles and rhombs are used for igneous formations. Metamorphic rocks of unknown origin are represented by short dashes irregularly placed; if the rock is schist the dashes may be arranged in wavy lines parallel to the structure

planes. Suitable combination patterns are used for metamorphic formations known to be of sedimentary or of igneous origin.

The patterns of each class are printed in various colors. With the patterns of parallel lines, colors are used to indicate age, a particular color being assigned to each system. The symbols by which formations are labeled consist each of two or more letters. If the age of a formation is known the symbol includes the system symbol, which is a capital letter or monogram; otherwise the symbols are composed of small letters. The names of the systems and recognized series, in proper order (from new to old), with the color and symbol assigned to each system, are given in the preceding table.

SURFACE FORMS.

Hills and valleys and all other surface forms have been produced by geologic processes. For example, most valleys are the result of erosion by the streams that flow through them (see fig. 1), and the alluvial plains bordering many streams were built up by the streams; sea cliffs are made by the eroding action of waves, and sand spits are built up by waves. Topographic forms thus constitute part of the record of the history of the earth.

Some forms are produced in the making of deposits and are inseparably connected with them. The hooked spit, shown in fig. 1, is an illustration. To this class belong beaches, alluvial plains, lava streams, drumlins (smooth oval hills composed of till), and moraines (ridges of drift made at the edges of glaciers). Other forms are produced by erosion, and these are, in origin, independent of the associated material. The sea cliff is an illustration; it may be carved from any rock. To this class belong abandoned river channels, glacial furrows, and penneplains. In the making of a stream terrace an alluvial plain is first built and afterwards partly eroded away. The shaping of a marine or lacustrine plain is usually a double process, hills being worn away (*degraded*) and valleys being filled up (*aggraded*).

All parts of the land surface are subject to the action of air, water, and ice, which slowly wear them down, and streams carry the waste material to the sea. As the process depends on the flow of water to the sea, it can not be carried below sea level, and the sea is therefore called the *base-level* of erosion. When a large tract is for a long time undisturbed by uplift or subsidence it is degraded nearly to base-level, and the even surface thus produced is called a *penneplain*. If the tract is afterwards uplifted the penneplain at the top is a record of the former relation of the tract to sea level.

THE VARIOUS GEOLOGIC SHEETS.

Areal geology map.—This map shows the areas occupied by the various formations. On the margin is a *legend*, which is the key to the map. To ascertain the meaning of any colored pattern and its letter symbol the reader should look for that color, pattern, and symbol in the legend, where he will find the name and description of the formation. If it is desired to find any given formation, its name should be sought in the legend and its color and pattern noted, when the areas on the map corresponding in color and pattern may be traced out.

The legend is also a partial statement of the geologic history. In it the formations are arranged in columnar form, grouped primarily according to origin—sedimentary, igneous, and crystalline of unknown origin—and within each group they are placed in the order of age, so far as known, the youngest at the top.

Economic geology map.—This map represents the distribution of useful minerals and rocks, showing their relations to the topographic features and to the geologic formations. The formations which appear on the areal geology map are usually shown on this map by fainter color patterns. The areal geology, thus printed, affords a subdued background upon which the areas of productive formations may be emphasized by strong colors. A mine symbol is printed at each mine or quarry, accompanied by the name of the principal mineral mined or stone quarried. For regions where there are important mining industries or where artesian basins exist special maps are prepared, to show these additional economic features.

Structure-section sheet.—This sheet exhibits the relations of the formations beneath the surface. In cliffs, canyons, shafts, and other natural and artificial cuttings, the relations of different beds to one another may be seen. Any cutting which exhibits those relations is called a *section*, and the same term is applied to a diagram representing the relations. The arrangement of rocks in the earth is the earth's *structure*, and a section exhibiting this arrangement is called a *structure section*.

The geologist is not limited, however, to the natural and artificial cuttings for his information concerning the earth's structure. Knowing the manner of formation of rocks, and having traced out the relations among the beds on the surface, he can infer their relative positions after they pass beneath the surface, and can draw sections representing the structure of the earth to a considerable depth. Such a section exhibits what would be seen in the side of a cutting many miles long and several thousand feet deep. This is illustrated in the following figure:

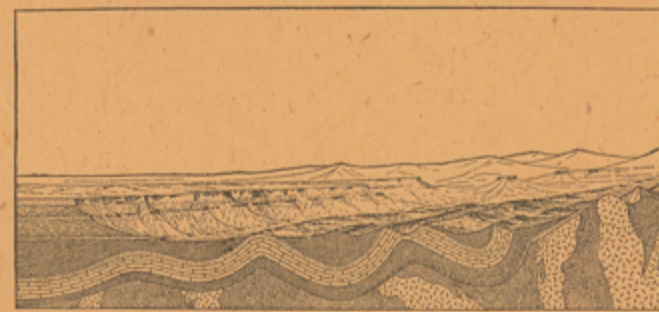


Fig. 2.—Sketch showing a vertical section at the front and a landscape beyond.

The figure represents a landscape which is cut off sharply in the foreground on a vertical plane, so as to show the underground relations of the rocks. The kinds of rock are indicated by appropriate symbols of lines, dots, and dashes. These symbols admit of much variation, but the following are generally used in sections to represent the commoner kinds of rock:

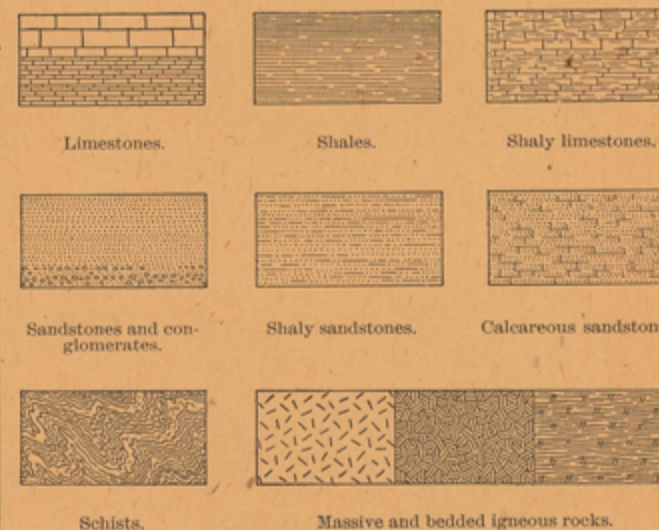


Fig. 3.—Symbols used in sections to represent different kinds of rocks.

The plateau in fig. 2 presents toward the lower land an escarpment, or front, which is made up of sandstones, forming the cliffs, and shales, constituting the slopes, as shown at the extreme left of the section. The broad belt of lower land is traversed by several ridges, which are seen in the section to correspond to the outcrops of a bed of sandstone that rises to the surface. The upturned edges of this bed form the ridges, and the intermediate valleys follow the outcrops of limestone and calcareous shale.

Where the edges of the strata appear at the surface their thickness can be measured and the angles at which they dip below the surface can be observed. Thus their positions underground can be inferred. The direction that the intersection of a bed with a horizontal plane will take is called the *strike*. The inclination of the bed to the horizontal plane, measured at right angles to the strike, is called the *dip*.

Strata are frequently curved in troughs and arches, such as are seen in fig. 2. The arches are called *anticlines* and the troughs *synclines*. But the sandstones, shales, and limestones were deposited beneath the sea in nearly flat sheets; that they are now bent and folded is proof that forces have from time to time caused the earth's surface to wrinkle along certain zones. In places the strata are broken across and the parts have slipped past each other. Such breaks are termed *faults*. Two kinds of faults are shown in fig. 4.

On the right of the sketch, fig. 2, the section is composed of schists which are traversed by masses of igneous rock. The schists are much contorted and their arrangement underground can not be

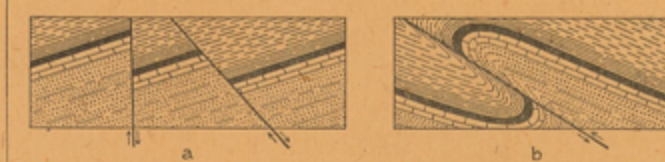


Fig. 4.—Ideal sections of strata, showing (a) normal faults and (b) a thrust fault.

inferred. Hence that portion of the section delineates what is probably true but is not known by observation or well-founded inference.

The section in fig. 2 shows three sets of formations, distinguished by their underground relations. The uppermost of these, seen at the left of the section, is a set of sandstones and shales, which lie in a horizontal position. These sedimentary strata are now high above the sea, forming a plateau, and their change of elevation shows that a portion of the earth's mass has been raised from a lower to a higher level. The strata of this set are parallel, a relation which is called *conformable*.

The second set of formations consists of strata which form arches and troughs. These strata were once continuous, but the crests of the arches have been removed by degradation. The beds, like those of the first set, are conformable.

The horizontal strata of the plateau rest upon the upturned, eroded edges of the beds of the second set at the left of the section. The overlying deposits are, from their positions, evidently younger than the underlying formations, and the bending and degradation of the older strata must have occurred between the deposition of the older beds and the accumulation of the younger. When younger rocks thus rest upon an eroded surface of older rocks the relation between the two is an *unconformable* one, and their surface of contact is an *unconformity*.

The third set of formations consists of crystalline schists and igneous rocks. At some period of their history the schists were plicated by pressure and traversed by eruptions of molten rock. But the pressure and intrusion of igneous rocks have not affected the overlying strata of the second set. Thus it is evident that a considerable interval elapsed between the formation of the schists and the beginning of deposition of the strata of the second set. During this interval the schists suffered metamorphism; they were the scene of eruptive activity; and they were deeply eroded. The contact between the second and third sets is another unconformity; it marks a time interval between two periods of rock formation.

The section and landscape in fig. 2 are ideal, but they illustrate relations which actually occur. The sections on the structure-section sheet are related to the maps as the section in the figure is related to the landscape. The profile of the surface in the section corresponds to the actual slopes of the ground along the section line, and the depth from the surface of any mineral-producing or water-bearing stratum which appears in the section may be measured by using the scale of the map.

Columnar section sheet.—This sheet contains a concise description of the sedimentary formations which occur in the quadrangle. It presents a summary of the facts relating to the character of the rocks, the thickness of the formations, and the order of accumulation of successive deposits.

The rocks are briefly described, and their characters are indicated in the columnar diagram. The thicknesses of formations are given in figures which state the least and greatest measurements, and the average thickness of each is shown in the column, which is drawn to a scale—usually 1000 feet to 1 inch. The order of accumulation of the sediments is shown in the columnar arrangement—the oldest formation at the bottom, the youngest at the top.

The intervals of time which correspond to events of uplift and degradation and constitute interruptions of deposition are indicated graphically and by the word "unconformity."

CHARLES D. WALCOTT,

Director.

Revised January, 1904.

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