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Revisiting Paleogene to Quaternary Sea-Level Variations

A Major Update to the Eustatic History of the Cenozoic

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A view of the stratigraphic section at Punta di Malata, southern Sicily, Italy, which is a reference section for the Zanclean Stage (early Pliocene). Such sections studied for their sequenceand cyclo-stratigraphies provide a framework for the history of sea-level changes of the past. See related article on pages 4–11.

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SCIENCE

Retraversing the Highs and Lows of Cenozoic Sea Levels

Bilal U. Haq^{*, 1} and James G. Ogg²

ABSTRACT

We present a sequence-stratigraphically based reappraisal of sea-level variations for the Paleogene, Neogene, and early Quaternary Periods (66.0-1.5 Ma) that is biochronostratigraphically controlled and then fine-tuned through oxygen-isotopic (δ^{18} O) calibrations, with a higher-frequency, mostly isotopically calibrated curve for the last 1.5 m.y. of the Quaternary Period. Depositional sequences that form the basis of sea-level curves are largely third-order cycles ($\sim 0.5-2.5$ m.y. in duration) for the Paleogene–Neogene interval and fourth- and fifth-order cycles ($\sim 400-100$ k.y.) for the Quaternary. The availability of better-resolved, astronomically tuned Cenozoic chronostratigraphy and new sequence-stratigraphic studies in the past three decades makes this update timely. In this major revision, the ages of the depositional surfaces (i.e., sequence boundaries and maximum flooding surfaces, which form the basis of the sea-level curves) have been calibrated to marine benthic foraminiferal oxygen-isotopic data, thereby improving their chronologic precision. The amplitudes of sea-level highs and lows have been reevaluated based on global averaging of stratigraphic estimates, aided by isotopic data, where we also discuss the many inherent issues that reduce the efficacy of both methodologies. The global-mean data suggest that the shorter-term highs and lows are extremely variable during the Cenozoic Era, ranging from ~150 to a few tens of meters of change. Refined ages of the sequence boundaries and the resultant durations of third-order sequences imply their strong linkage to the long-period modulations of the obliquity and eccentricity cycles and, thus, to climatic variations.

INTRODUCTION

Knowledge of sea-level (SL) variations through time is integral to the study of basin-wide geodynamics and for deciphering past climatic, oceanographic, and environmental conditions, and through the latter, the understanding of the potential drivers of biotic macro-evolutionary trends controlled directly or indirectly by SL change (e.g., Cloetingh and Haq, 2015; Boulila at al., 2023). Such knowledge of past SL variations has been garnered through local, regional, and global stratigraphic and paleogeographic reconstructions and through isotopic analyses. Any measure of SL change deciphered from stratigraphic data at any location is local or regional by definition (i.e., eurybatic), caused partially or wholly by local factors such as seafloor subsidence, isostatic rebound, or changes in the rate of sediment input, even when there is a strong global signal in the background. Thus, no singular location represents the broader history of SL variations that can be considered a global standard. Instead, paleoceanographers use widely distributed stratigraphic records from multiple, noncontiguous sections that show similarities in trends, and in timing of SL falls, to provide a quasi-quantitative trajectory of the underlying global (eustatic) signal. Nevertheless, while we are able to reconstruct temporal variations displaying eustatic trends, the amplitude of highs and lows will remain variable from one location to the other due to variable local factors. That is one reason why the shorterterm variations (third order: $\sim 0.5-2.5$ m.y.; fourth or fifth order: averaging 400–100 k.y.) are often tied to a longer-term envelope (representing second-order trends) that is deciphered independently from a different set of data and measures that have global causality (see discussion in Haq, 2014).

Our previous study of global mean SL curves for the Cenozoic interval was published several decades ago (Haq et al., 1987, 1988), where a key feature was the incorporation of data from the accessible stratotypes/neostratotypes of the European Stages, allowing more accurate placement of the sequence boundaries against the extant "standard" biochronostratigraphic time scales. Several updates of Cenozoic eustasy have since been published, along with revisions of the numerical time scales, and independent proxies have been deployed (such as the combined use of δ^{18} O of seawater and Mg/Ca ratios in benthic foraminifera), which have greatly advanced our knowledge of the uncertainties, the timing, and the nature of eustatic variations (e.g., Hardenbol et al., 1998; Miller et al., 1998, 2020; DeConto and Pollard, 2003; Haq and Al-Qahtani, 2005; Kominz et al., 2008, 2016; Cramer et al., 2009; Raymo et al., 2018, among others).

The eustatic histories of the three Mesozoic Periods have recently been reappraised (Cretaceous: Haq, 2014; Jurassic: Haq, 2018a; and Triassic: Haq, 2018b), incorporating wider stratigraphic data and linking updated time scales. Here we present a revision for the Cenozoic, which also incorporates

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widely distributed sequence-stratigraphic and isotopic data, calibrated to the most recent version of the Cenozoic time scales (Gradstein et al., 2020), as well as the astronomically tuned, smoothed oxygen-isotopic data of Westerhold et al. (2020).

CURRENT STATUS OF THE CENOZOIC TIME SCALE

Many of the recent refinements to the Cenozoic biochronological time scale have come from high-resolution cyclostratigraphic analyses (using X-ray fluorescence scanning or other proxies) that tie relatively continuous sections to Milankovitch orbital cycles (or their long-period modulations), where both the magnetic-polarity reversal scale and the biostratigraphic zonal schemes have been astronomically tuned. Additional refinements come from the use of oxygen-isotopic calibrations where prominent positive or negative excursions provide more precise and globally valid stratigraphic constraints that are useful for both refining the biochronologic time scale and in fine-tuning the timing of sequence boundaries. For individual updates of the Paleogene, Neogene, and Quaternary, more detailed discussions, and cross correlations among various fossil groups, see Speijer et al. (2020), Raffi et al. (2020), and Gibbard and Head (2020), respectively.

FINE-TUNING OF TIMING OF CYCLE BOUNDARIES

In a sedimentary edifice, our ability to detect depositional sequences that form the basis of the short-term SL curves (third- and higher-order cycles) depends on the local rate of sediment accumulation, which affects our resolving capability. On continental margins (and interior basins) where seismic profiling is the major investigative tool and sedimentation rates are moderate or low, the resolving capability is generally limited to the third-order cycles. However, as we move closer to higher-sedimentation-rate areas (e.g., deltaic regions), the expanded sections allow us to discriminate higher-frequency (fourth- and higher-order) cycles as well. This is also true of the outcrop sections on land, where higher-frequency cycles can be studied with greater facility and more detail.

A marine sequence boundary (SB), the end of a depositional cycle, is traditionally positioned at the inflection point of the falling limb and not when it is at its lowest. The rationale for doing so is that because such a boundary represents an erosional episode that accompanies the withdrawing sea, the place to draw the limit of the cycle within the missing section ought to be where the rate of change was maximum (i.e., the inflection point). Past this point in time, at least a part of the depositional system may already begin to backfill with reworked sediments (e.g., in incised valleys on the distal shelf).

SBs of the third-order cycles are normally dated through their biostratigraphic associations—for example, in the Cenozoic they are commonly based on planktonic foraminiferal and nannofossil zones. However, SBs can often fall within long-ranging biozones that can range from >0.2 my. to as much as 3.0 m.y. in duration. This can imply high uncertainty as to the precise age of the boundary. Such uncertainties can be reduced by the use of overlapping zonal schemes of multiple fossil groups, which requires several specialists working together on the same sample sets (see, e.g., Haq et al., 1988, where multiple fossil groups were used to narrow the age picks of the SBs). In practice, however, this is not always possible, and the position of the SBs within long-ranging biozones is simply placed at the mid-point of the zonal range for consistency.

The age assignments for the maximum flooding surfaces (MFSs) have even greater uncertainties associated with them. Conceptually, the timing of when a surface representing maximum flooding of the shelf or an interior basin is reached is a function of the rate of SL rise competing with the rate of sediment supply to determine when the transgressive trend will switch to a largely regressive one. A high-sediment input can overwhelm a transgressing sea and can force a regression earlier than in a low-sediment supply region. Thus, the timing of the change from marine (retrograding to aggrading) facies to predominantly nonmarine (prograding) facies will vary from one location to the other (even along the same margin), making the age of the MFS time-variable. Again, in the absence of independent refining criteria, MFSs are often dated simply at the mid-point of the sequence cycle.

This is where oxygen-isotopic ($\delta^{18}O$) data can aid us in refining the age assignments of SBs and MFSs. Because the oxygen-isotopic trends represent a largely global signal, isotopically aided refinements can bring us closer to globally useable age picks for these events. Researchers have known since the 1970s that bottom-water temperatures have varied by >10 °C through the Cenozoic and that the oxygen-isotopic record of calcitic benthic foraminiferal tests incorporates two dominant ambient signals: the δ^{18} O composition of seawater and the bottom-water temperature. During those intervals when glaciation is extant, the $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ also contains a strong continental ice-volume component due to preferred sequestration of the lighter isotope of oxygen (¹⁶O) in ice sheets on land in the higher latitudes (where the cold-bottom water originates), and thus a signal of the waxing and waning of continental ice cover (see, Pearson, 2012, for a review).

Substantial accumulation of ice on Antarctica is deemed to have begun in the late middle Eocene, although some ephemeral ice is suspected as far back as late Cretaceous (Miller at al., 2008; Haq, 2014). Paleoceanographers, however, now concur that the Paleocene to Early Eocene Earth was an almost ice-free interval, while the oceanic bottomwater temperatures were at their peak-modeled as 10-14 °C in the Early Eocene, compared to present-day 2-3 °C (Valdes et al., 2021). Things began to change during the middle Eocene. Dawber and Tripati (2011) argue for at least three major glacial-deglacial pulses as far back as the Lutetian and Bartonian, based on benthic oxygen-isotopic data from the Shatsky Rise. This means that the oxygen-isotopic trends can be utilized to refine the ages of both SBs and MFSs for much of the Cenozoic. Even prior to mid-Eocene, isotopic data that reflect major climatic shifts can aid us in refining the timing of key depositional surfaces.

In this update of the Cenozoic eustasy, we have used the synthesis of Westerhold et al. (2020) for such chronological refinements of depositional boundaries that represent SL highs and lows. Our use of the Westerhold et al. δ^{18} O-stack is predicated on the fact that in this synthesis much of the existing and new Cenozoic isotopic data were incorporated to produce a composite that is highly resolved, astronomically

tweaked, and statistically polished to provide internally consistent comparisons. These authors convincingly argue for latitudinally specific climate processes driven by astronomical forcing and ice-sheet dynamics. We have used the relatively prominent trends in enrichment of δ^{18} O versus its depletion as partial indicators of waxing versus waning of ice sheets since the Lutetian. The beginning of the cooling trends, when they occur close to the biostratigraphically dated SBs, help us refine the ages of the SBs, while the warming trends aid in ascertaining the ages of MFSs. In the background of this isotopically refined sequence chronology for the pre-Ouaternary interval, however, there still persists the mostly third-order sequence-stratigraphic framework and its relationship to the "standard" Cenozoic stratigraphy, the basic units being the European Stages (see Supplemental Material¹ for more detailed discussion). The framework of the higherfrequency Quaternary depositional cycles is, however, mostly based on isotopic data and would be largely applicable in high-sediment-input areas where shorter-duration depositional cycles can be resolved.

APPROXIMATING THE AMPLITUDE OF SEA-LEVEL VARIATIONS

Stratigraphic Measures

The sense of the amplitude of SL rises and falls on a continental margin or inland basin can be gauged stratigraphically from the overall architecture of sedimentary edifice, the bio- and lithofacies of the sediments that represent changes in depth habitats, the surfaces of erosion and reworking, and thus, the movements of the shoreline landward or basinward. In practice, however, postdepositional changes to the sediments complicate these inferences and may require corrections for local factors such as loading, compaction, and subsidence effects. Complications may also occur due to such factors as intraplate deformation on a regional stressprovince scale (e.g., Cloetingh et al., 1985) and far-field dynamic topographic changes whose impact can often go undetected in local studies, leading to under- or overestimation of subsidence and erroneous conclusions (e.g., Müller et al., 2008). Dynamic topography (DT) is the surface expression of the relatively slow (multiple m.y.) mantle flow that originates from the upper thermal boundary of mantle convection (Müller et al., 2018; Davies et al., 2023). The inherited measure of DT on the surface topography is what is left over once the shorter-term local effects of isostatic rebound due to loading/unloading of ice, water, sediment, and crust have been corrected for local effects. If the DT effects go undetected, stratigraphic measures of SL change are likely to be off the mark. The New Jersey margin estimates of SL changes along the East Coast of the United States are a good example of the low estimates of SL change made on this margin before DT influences were known (Miller et al., 1998). Once this margin had been modeled for the long-wavelength dynamic topographic effects, it implicated the previously

unsuspected additional subsidence that revised the amplitude estimates upward considerably (Moucha et al., 2008; Müller et al., 2008; Spasojević et al., 2008; Rowley et al., 2013). More recently, the New Jersey researchers have modeled their own earlier back-stripped results for dynamic topographic effects and also found an undetected ~40 m of subsidence over the past 55 m.y. on this margin (Schmelz et al., 2021). These studies convincingly explain the reasons for the discrepancies between the low New Jersey initial estimates and the higher global mean estimates of Haq et al. (1988; also see discussion in Haq, 2014). Rowley et al. (2013) also introduced a cautionary note about the uncertainties inherent in the parameters used in dynamic topographic modeling and the resultant estimates, as well as the difficulties in teasing out guesstimates for the size of Antarctic ice sheets from local data such as the New Jersey margin (e.g., Miller et al., 2008).

Isotopic Measures

While the oxygen-isotopic trends can aid us in better definition of the ages of the SBs within long-ranging biozones, their utility as accurate ice-volume (and thus SL amplitude) determinants have several serious issues that reduce their efficacy. When Earth transitions to icehouse conditions, the predominant signal of bottom-water temperature variations contained in the benthic $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ record switches to a combination of bottom temperature and ice volume of the accumulated ice sheets. Thus, the argument goes that if we can tease out the temperature component from this record (through an independent proxy, such as Mg/Ca ratios), the residual will then represent a measure of ice volume that can be converted to a global measure of ~0.08-0.11‰ of residual δ^{18} O value representing ~10 m of SL height (e.g., Adkins et al., 2002; Elderfield et al., 2012). Nonetheless, this conversion recipe does not work well in deep time (>1 Ma), as the benthic oxygen-isotopic record is fraught with inherent as well as external uncertainties that become progressively more challenging farther back in time. Some of these complications include intra-specimen variability of up to 2‰ within the same species (which would be otherwise interpreted as ~200 m of SL change); diagenetic alterations through postdepositional dissolution; precipitation of calcite cements from pore waters (including micro-recrystallization in carbonate tests); and exposure of samples to oxygen during storage. These factors alter the original oxygenisotopic values in both planktonic and benthic foraminiferal tests (see Pearson, 2012, for details).

The use of Mg/Ca ratios has its own limitations. Cramer at al. (2009) caution that determining paleotemperatures from Mg/Ca values depends on the assumptions we make about the parameters we use for such conversions, and that these are open to variable interpretations (see also Dawber and Tripati, 2011). These authors contend that the uncertainty related to varying pH and ocean's crustal recycling effects on $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ allows for widely differing results. In addition, Mg/Ca

¹Supplemental Material. Supplemental Text S1. Further discussion of topics in main paper, rationale for refining ages of depositional surfaces, and additional documentation sources. Figure S1. Composite Cenozoic depositional sequences and eustatic sea-level variations. Please visit https://doi.org/10.1130/GSAT.S.25587480 to access the supplemental material, and contact editing@geosociety.org with any questions.

composition of seawater has itself varied considerably (up to 60%) over the span of the Cenozoic (Horita et al., 2002). Also, Mg/Ca ratios do not always express the prevailing benthic paleotemperatures if the sites are below the calcite compensation depth, an anomaly ascribed to the saturation-state effect on benthic foraminifera at deep-water sites (Lear et al., 2008). Such uncertainties can be significant sources of error in teasing out an accurate temperature component from the overall $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ signal.

As discussed before by Haq (2014), an additional, perhaps invasive but little realized, source of error is the issue of the progressive depletion of developing ice sheets with respect to ¹⁸O (as more ¹⁶O isotope is preferentially sequestered in the ice sheet) with increasing elevation and decreasing temperature. This implies that in the early growth phases the mean δ^{18} O values of ice sheets are higher than later on, and when ice sheets wane without melting completely, the next growth phase (or phases) will make the mean values challenging to unravel. In fact, the data seem to suggest that complete meltings of land-based ice sheets during interglacials were relatively uncommon. These issues indicate that the use of benthic oxygen-isotopic data alone to decipher supposedly accurate quantitative estimates of SL amplitudes of the deep past is not always reliable (see further discussion in the Supplemental Material).

Amplitude Depiction on the Revised Cenozoic Cycle Charts

Because neither direct stratigraphic gauging nor those deciphered from benthic oxygen-isotopic plus Mg/Ca data alone can provide us with an accurate meter of amplitudes of global SL changes, we conclude that it is more meaningful to combine the two methodologies, where possible, to get a sense of the magnitude of variations within each cycle, which will always remain a guesstimate. Oxygen-isotopic data have one advantage over the stratigraphic data-while stratigraphic estimates are mostly eurybatic, the prominent isotopic trends that are replicated in different basins can be interpreted as being global. Thus, we have adopted the approach to use the latter, though not precise, as it provides us with a sense of the relative magnitude of eustatic variations that can constrain those averaged from widely distributed stratigraphic deciphers. We have employed the same quasi-quantitative scheme that we used for the Paleozoic (Hag and Schutter, 2008) and later for the revisions of the Mesozoic Period (Haq, 2014, 2018a, 2018b), to represent the amplitude variations. We classify the amplitude (amount of SL fall from the previous highstand) along a relative scale of ranges rather than as singular values: Minor (<25 m), Medium (25-75 m), and Major (>75 m; see Supplemental Material for more details).

In the summary results shown here, the Cenozoic eustatic framework is presented in two cycle charts (Figs. 1 and 2). A total of 64 SBs have been identified in the Cenozoic. Of these, 55 are interpreted to be of third-order duration (\sim 0.5–2.5 m.y.). In the Paleogene, 34 widely occurring SBs (all third order, except one) have been recorded (Fig. 1), and in the Neogene, 17 SBs are listed (Fig. 2), also all third order, except one. Twelve SBs listed in the Quaternary (Fig. 2) are mostly isotopically calibrated higher-frequency cycles (\sim 400–100

k.y.) that are likely to be identified stratigraphically more readily only in areas of high sedimentation input.

CONCLUSIONS

The Cenozoic eustatic framework presented here reconciles more recent sequence-stratigraphic documentation and ties the SL curves to the latest versions of the biochronologic time scale. We have discussed our rationale for refining the ages of the third order as well as higher-frequency sequence boundaries and MFSs through δ^{18} O calibrations. We have also discussed our reasons for not professing purely quantitative estimates of the amplitude of SL changes, as both the stratigraphic and isotopic estimates incorporate numerous critical sources of uncertainty in calculating these values. In a best-case scenario, benthic $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ aided by Mg/ Ca ratios could yield such desirable quantitative measures, at least since the onset of major ice sheets on land. Nevertheless, in practice the realty is different; studies that have relied on isotopic data alone to produce amplitude estimates, where there are many uncertainties, are no more accurate than those relying on stratigraphic data alone, where local factors can bias our calculations. In the current revision, for the pre-Quaternary, we continue to rely of the global averaging approach, aided by isotopic data where possible, to get an improved sense of the global mean from several noncontiguous locations. We have to face the fact that meaningful precision with respect to amplitude is not attainable with the methodologies available and we can only guesstimate the eustatic ups and downs using multiple criteria.

Finally, because most Cenozoic fine-tuned, third-order sequence durations fall within the range of long-period modulations of the obliquity (1.2 m.y.) and eccentricity (2.4 m.y.), it is reasonable to affirm that third-order depositional cycles have a close link to major climatic variations, with deviations caused by the tectonic overprint (see further discussion in the Supplemental Material).

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SCIENCE

Time in Ma	SYSTEM	SERIES	STAGES	MAGNETIC POLARITY	MAGNETIC CHRONS	PLANKTON FORAMINIF ZONES Sub-Tropical	NIC ERS P	CALCA NAN FOS ZON	REOUS NO- SILS IES	SEA-LEVEL EVENTS (Sequence Boundaries) Movement of Shoreline	TRANSGRE- SSIVE- REGRESSIVE TRENDS	LONG-TERM AND SHORT-TERM SEA-LEVEL- CURVES	Time in Ma
					000	Zones	N/4	CNM1/	NN1	LANDWARD BASINWARD	(Maximum Flooding)	250 150 50 0 -50 m	-
24- 25- 26-		ш	CHATTIAN		C6C C7 C7A	07	P22	CNO6	NP25		-23.8 -24.8-PCh2-	Long- term	-24 -25
					C8	O6	06	CNO5			-25.5		-26
27-		Ш			C9	05			[NP24]		-27.1-PCh1-	RI	-27
28- 29-		BOC			C10	04	P21	CNO4			-27.9-PRu4- -28.6	RI	-28
30-		DLIG			C11	O3	P20		NP23		-29.3-PRu3- -30.0	Short- term	-30
31- 32-			ROPELIAN		C12	O2	P19	CNO3			-31.7-PRu2	curve	-31
33-						01	P18	CNO2	NP22		-32.3		-33
34-					C13	F16	D40 /	CNE21	NP21		-33.8—PRu1		-34
35-					C15	E15	P167 P17	CNE20 CNE19	NP19-		-35.1—PPr3		-35
36- 37-			TRADORIAN		C16	E14	P15	CNE18	20 (NP18)	2	-36.7 — PPr2		-36
38-					C17			CNE17			-37.7—PPr1		-38
39-						E13	D14				-39.0-PBa1-		-39
40-			BARTONIAN		C18	E12	P14	CNE15	[-40
41-							F 13				-40.4		-41
42-					C19	E11	P12	CNE 14	NP16		-41.5—PLu4	P	-42
43-	z		LUTETIAN	C20		E10		CNE13			-42.2		-43
44-	ш	빌			C 20	E9	P11	CNE12			-43.5-PLu3-		-44
45-	ധ	Ē			C20		P10	ONLIT	ND15		-44.5		-45
46-	~	0				Eð		CNE10			48.4 DI 1/2		-46
47-	0	ш						CNE9			-40.1 PLU2		-47
48-	ш				C21		P9	CNE8	NP14		-47.8—PLu1		-48
49-						E7		CNE6	1		-48.2-		-49
50-	A				C22			CNE5	NP13		-50.0		-50
51-	0					E6	P8			2	=50:2 =58:8	R I	-51
52-					C23	E5	P7	CNE4	NP12	2	-51:2-PYp6	B	-52
53-			TIREORAN								-52.4-PYp4		53
54						E4	P6b	CNE3	NP11		_53.6PYp3		54
55					C24	E3	P6a	CNE2			-54.2-PYp2		55
50-						E2	1 000	CNF1	NP10		-55.1 -55.6-PYp1		50
50-	56- 57- 58- 59-		THANETIAN			P5	P5	CNP11	NP9		=56:2-PTh5		- 50
5/-				-	005			CNP10	NP8	7	57.0 PTh4	5	-57
58-					C25			CNP9	NP7	E.	58.2 PTh2		-58
59-		Z		C26		P4	F4	4 CNP8	NP6		-59.0—PTh1		-59
60-		CE	SELANDIAN		C26			CNP7	NP5		-59.9		-60
61-		PALEO				P3 P3			5	PSe2 61.2PSe1	E	-61	
62-			DANIAN			P2	<u>P2</u>	CNP6	NP4		-61.8-PDa4-		-62
63-	i3-			C27 C28	C27			CNP4			-63.5-PDa3-		-63
64-					C28	P1 P1	P1	CNP3	NP3		-64.1	K	-64
65-					C20	Pa		CNP2	NP2		-64.8-PDa2	K	-65
66-					023	Plummerita	Pa P0	CNP1	NP1		-65.8-PDa1-		-66
67-	ET	TE	MAASTRI-		C30	Pseudoguembelina hariaensis		CC26			-66.8—KMa5	2	-67
68-	CE	Ч	CHTIAN		024	Abathomphalus		CC25			-67.8	250 150 50 0 50	-68
					031	mayaroensis					-68.7-KMa4	2.50 11.50 50 0-50 m	

— Major Sequence Boundary — Medium to Minor cycle Sequence Boundary

Figure 1. Paleogene depositional sequences and eustatic sea-level variations. Numerical time scale, magnetostratigraphy, and biostratigraphic zones after various authors (in Gradstein et al., 2020). Sequence boundaries are labeled with unique alphanumeric designations (third column from right), where first letter "P" is for Paleogene, followed by two first letters of the Stage name and a number to identify the oldest to youngest events in that Stage. Also listed in this column are the ages of the sequence boundaries and maximum flooding surfaces that have been calibrated to δ^{18} O data (after Westerhold et al., 2020).



Figure 2. Neogene and Quaternary depositional sequences and eustatic sea-level variations. Numerical time scale, magnetostratigraphy, and biostratigraphic zones after various authors (in Gradstein et al., 2020). Sequence boundaries are labeled with unique alphanumeric designations (third column from right), where first letter "N" and "Q" stand for Neogene and Quaternary, respectively, followed by two first letters of the Stage name and a number to identify the oldest to youngest events in that Stage. Also listed in this column, the ages of sequence boundaries (SB) and maximum flooding surfaces that have been fine-tuned by calibrations with oxygen-isotopic data. For the Quaternary sequences 1.5 Ma and younger, Marine Isotope Stage numbers (e.g., MIS22) in which the SB occurs are also added. The youngest SB that was caused by the withdrawal of the sea during the Last Glacial Maximum is designated as QLGM. [Note: the scale changes at 3.6 and 1.8 Ma in the numerical time scale columns.]

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Joel B. Sankey, U.S. Geological Survey Southwest Biological Science Center, Flagstaff, Arizona

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Jeffrey A. Coe, U.S. Geological Survey Landslide Hazards Program, Golden, Colorado

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O Sol. Engineering Geological Investigations for Pumped Storage Hydro Projects. Fri., 13 Sept., 8 a.m.–noon PDT. US\$40. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.4. Instructors: Imran Sayeed, Aquagreen Engineering Management Ltd.; Sabiha Imran, Manav Rachna International Institute of Research and Studies.

(5) (2) 502. Finding and Telling Your Science Story with Data Visualization in Tableau. Fri., 13 Sept., 8 a.m.–noon PDT. US\$40. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.4. Instructors: Lisa Stright, Colorado State University; Dana Stright, Skye Analytics.

FRIDAY COURSES (IN-PERSON)

(\$) (2) (3) 503. Forensic Geochemistry: Integrating Lead and Strontium Isotopes into Environmental Investigations of Contaminant Releases into Soil and Groundwater Systems. Fri., 20 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$95. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.8. Instructor: Richard Hurst.

(\$) 504. Methods and Geological Applications in Geo-Thermo-Petrochronology I. Fri., 20 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$30. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.8. Instructors: Mauricio Ibanez-Mejia, University of Arizona; George Gehrels, University of Arizona; Michelle Foley, University of Arizona; Clay Campbell, University of Arizona; Martin Senger, University of Arizona. Part II of this course takes place on Saturday (510).



FRIDAY-SATURDAY COURSES (IN-PERSON)

(\$) (>) 505. Innovations in 3-D Geology. Fri.–Sat., 20–21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT both days. US\$70. Limit: 40. CEU: 1.6. Instructors: Richard Berg, Illinois State Geological Survey; Harvey Thorleifson, University of Minnesota; Kelsey MacCormack, Alberta Geological Survey. Course Endorser: Association of American State Geologists.

506. Modeling Magmatic and Mantle Processes along Active Plate Margins with alphaMELTS. Fri., 20 Sept., 1–5 p.m. PDT and Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$95. Limit: 40. CEU: 1.2. Instructors: Paula Antoshechkina, California Institute of Technology; Paul Asimow, California Institute of Technology; Matthew Gleeson, University of California, Berkeley; Penny Wieser, University of California, Berkeley. Course Endorser: National Science Foundation.

SATURDAY COURSES (IN-PERSON)

507. How to Design a Good Survey: Developing and Validating Instruments for Geoscience Educators and Researchers: Human Subject Research Insights for Using Surveys and Interviews. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$90. Limit: 50. CEU: 0.8. Instructors: Pierre Lu, University of Texas Rio Grande Valley; Leilani Arthurs, University of Colorado, Boulder.

(\$) (2) (3) 508. Introduction to Drones (sUAS) in the Geosciences. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$95.

INDUSTRY TRACKS

GSA's short courses offer sessions relevant to applied geoscientists. Look for these icons, which identify sessions in the following areas:









Hydrogeology and Environmental Geology Limit: 40. CEU: 0.8. **Instructor:** Gregory Baker, Colorado Mesa University. **Course Endorsers:** GSA Hydrogeology Division; GSA Geoarchaeology Division; GSA Quaternary Geology and Geomorphology Division.

509. Unraveling the Thermal Signature of Mountain Building. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$95. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.8. Instructors: Kevin Furlong, Pennsylvania State University; Matthew Herman, California State University, Bakersfield; Kirsty McKenzie, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. Course Endorsers: GSA Geochronology Division; GSA Geophysics and Geodynamics Division; GSA Quaternary Geology and Geomorphology Division; GSA Structural Geology and Tectonics Division.

(5) 510. Methods and Geological Applications in Geo-Thermo-Petrochronology II. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$30. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.8. Instructors: Mauricio Ibanez-Mejia, University of Arizona; Kendra Murray, Idaho State University; Allen Schaen, University of Arizona. *Part I* of this short course takes place on Friday (504).

(5) (1) 511. Talking Science: A Communicating Science Workshop. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$15. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.8. Instructors: Steven Jaret, Kingsborough Community College; William Holt, Stony Brook University. Course Endorser: Planetary Geology.

512. Geological Models—and Why They Are Indispensable. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$95. Limit: 15. CEU: 0.8. Instructor: Tom Martlev Pallesen, I-GIS, Denmark.

513. Introduction to ArcGIS Pro for Planetary Geology.
 Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$40. Limit: 40. CEU:
 0.8. Instructor: Zoe Learner Ponterio, Cornell University.
 Course Endorser: Planetary Data Training Workshops.

514. Quantitative Analysis, Visualization, and Modeling of Detrital Geochronology Data. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$95 professionals; US\$50 students. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.8. Instructors: Joel Saylor, University of British Columbia; Kurt Sundell, Idaho State University; Glenn Sharman, University of Arkansas; Gabriel Bertolini, University of British Columbia.

(5) (2) (3) 515. Geochemical Modeling through the Water-Organic-Rock-Microbe Portal. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.-5 p.m. PDT. US\$95. Limit: 15. CEU: 0.8. Instructors: Everett Shock, Arizona State University; Grayson Boyer, Arizona State University.

Most professional development courses and workshops offer Continuing Education Units (CEUs). One CEU equals 10 hours of participation in an organized continuing education experience under responsible sponsorship, capable direction, and qualified instruction. 516. Decoding the Past: Deep Learning for Macroevolutionary Analysis. Sat., 21 Sept., 9 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$95. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.7. Instructors: Rebecca Cooper, University of Fribourg; Fernando Blanco, University of Gothenburg; Juan Cantalapiedra, Museo Nacional de Ciencias Naturales (CSIC); Torsten Hauffe, University of Fribourg; Kateryn Pino, Universidad de Concepción; Daniele Silvestro, University of Fribourg.

(\$) (>) (>) (>) 517. Introduction to High-Resolution Topography and OpenTopography. Sat., 21 Sept., 9 a.m.– 5 p.m. PDT. US\$50. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.7. Instructors: Christopher Crosby, Earthscope Consortium; Ramon Arrowsmith, Arizona State University. Course Endorser: OpenTopography.

(\$) 518. OneStratigraphy Database and Its Applications in Stratigraphy and Paleobiology. Sat., 21 Sept., 9 a.m.–5 p.m. PDT. US\$25. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.7. Instructors: Junxuan Fan, Nanjing University; Jiao Yang, Nanjing University; Zhengbo Lu, Nanjing University; Tianyi Chu, Nanjing University. Those who complete the course will receive two free GSA ebooks of their choice (\$25 value).

519. **Designing Field Safety Resources within an Intersectional Framework Lens.** Sat., 21 Sept., 9 a.m.– 5 p.m. PDT. US\$90. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.7. **Instructor:** Blair Schneider, University of Kansas. **Course Endorser:** *ADVANCEGeo Partnership.*

520. Food-Energy-Water-Nexus-Based Education: Promising Practices and New Directions for Geoscience Education and Education Research. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.– noon PDT. US\$20. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.4. Instructors: Hannah Scherer, Virginia TechAg, Leadership, & Community Education; Bradlee Wahid Cotton, Auburn University; Jerry Burgess, Johns Hopkins University; Katherine McCarville, University of Iowa. Course Endorsers: GSA Geoscience Education Division; National Association of Geoscience Teachers (NAGT); NAGT Geoscience Education Research Division. Those who complete the course will receive two free GSA ebooks of their choice (\$20 value).

521. Tectonochronology: New Methods, Theories, and Some Cases. Sat., 21 Sept., 8 a.m.–noon PDT. US\$25. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.4. Instructor: Yu Wang, China University of Geosciences, Beijing.

522. **Preparing Your Students for the Jobs They Want.** Sat., 21 Sept., 1–5 p.m. PDT. US\$95. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.4. **Instructors:** Anne Egger, Central Washington University; Karen Viskupic, Boise State University. **Course Endorser:** *National Association of Geoscience Teachers (NAGT).*

523. Quality Management Systems and Their Application in Geoscience Laboratories. Sat., 21 Sept., 1–5 p.m. PDT. US\$55. Limit: 40. CEU: 0.4. Instructor: Michele Wolf, U.S. Geological Survey.

GEOHERITAGE



The Drakensberg Mountains: Southern Africa's Barrier of Spears

Lon Abbott^{1,*} and Terri Cook²

When the Zulu and the Sotho, two Bantu-speaking peoples, migrated into southern Africa from the north around 500 C.E. (Ehret, 1998), they marveled at the precipitous, 1,500-m-high escarpment that marks the southern and eastern edges of the highlands along today's Lesotho– South African border (Fig. 1). Both groups drew on their martial traditions when naming this seemingly impenetrable feature, calling it the "barrier of spears" in their respective languages. To the Dutch-speaking Boer who encountered the escarpment over a millennium later, it resembled a dragon's back, hence the name Drakensberg in Afrikaans. All these immigrant groups both mixed and clashed with the local, click language–speaking San people, the traditional inhabitants, who have left a 3,000-year legacy of evocative paintings in the natural rock shelters formed by overhangs in the range's Clarens Sandstone (Fig. 2; Witelson et al., 2021).

The Drakensberg Escarpment's magnificent scenery continues to fuel popular imagination today. South Africans are fond of claiming that the Drakensberg were the inspiration for J.R.R. Tolkien's Misty Mountains, which feature in *The Hobbit* and the *Lord of the Rings* trilogy. Although the comparison is apt, the author, who was born in Bloemfontein, South Africa, emigrated at the age of three and said he had few memories of the continent. The Drakensberg did, however, inspire a

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twenty-first-century cultural icon: Wakanda, the mythical country featured in director Ryan Coogler's 2018 Academy Award–nominated film *Black Panther*, which he based on the geography and history of Lesotho (Jones, 2018).

HOW DO GREAT ESCARPMENTS EVOLVE? THE DRAKENSBERG AS A TESTING GROUND

The Drakensberg constitute the most dramatic section of the much longer Great Escarpment, whose ramparts form a ring paralleling southern Africa's coastline and separate the inland Karoo/ Kalahari plateau from the coastal lowlands (Fig. 3). Such inland plateaus flanked by escarpments are common features of the passive continental margins surrounding the Atlantic, Indian, and other ocean basins that formed during breakup of the supercontinent Pangaea. These features are called elevated passive continental margins (EPCM), and most geologists consider them an enduring legacy of continental rifting (e.g., Blenkinsop and Moore, 2013).

Ever since the classic work of Lester King (1947), the Drakensberg Escarpment has played a prominent role in scientists' attempts to decipher how EPCMs evolve. The Drakensberg Escarpment currently lies 200 km from the coast, and it isn't associated with major faults. But King, an early supporter of continental drift, concluded that the escarpment originated along Mesozoic coastal faults when Gondwana split apart. He argued that the escarpment retreated landward, a process called backwearing. That was a departure from William Morris Davis's (1909) then-preeminent downwearing model, which emphasized vertical erosion. Despite their disagreement on mechanism, both Davis and King believed that today's landscapes were produced by multiple cycles of uplift and subsequent erosion. The end result of each cycle was a nearly flat plain, which Davis called a peneplain and King called a pediplain. The number of low-relief surfaces preserved in a landscape equals the number of cycles of uplift that landscape has experienced.

Subsequent researchers have built on King's (1953) ideas, producing the "classical" cyclic model of southern African landscape development. It calls for three cycles, including major uplift at 2.5 Ma and retreat of the Drakensberg Escarpment at an average rate >1 km/ m.y. since the Mesozoic (Partridge and Maud, 1987).

Work in the Drakensberg using cosmogenic radionuclide dating (CRN) and low-temperature thermochronology has been central to a comparatively recent reassessment of the classical model and the tenet that EPCM escarpments retreat inland from the coast. Using CRN dating, Fleming et al. (1999) measured the current escarpment retreat rate at a mere 50-95 m/m.y., an order of magnitude slower than the classical model predicts. Two lowtemperature thermochronology studies bolstered the case that the Drakensberg Escarpment did not originate on the coast (Brown et al., 2002; Flowers and Schoene, 2010), and a numerical model (van der Beek et al., 2002) indicated that fluvial erosion quickly erases the rift-generated coastal escarpment. Downwearing then produces a new

escarpment (the modern one) along the post-breakup drainage divide.

These results placed downwearing, minus Davis's or King's erosion cycles, back at the forefront of scientific thinking about EPCM evolution. But not everyone agrees that the Drakensberg Escarpment is the result of downwearing (Blenkinsop and Moore, 2006; Roberts and White, 2010). How and when EPCM escarpments form remains an open question; given that the Drakensberg is the type example of this landform, it's a good bet that it will figure prominently in future research striving for an answer.

ROCKS OF THE DRAKENSBERG: THE KAROO SUPERGROUP

All rocks exposed in the Drakensberg belong to the Karoo Supergroup, a world-class sequence of sedimentary and volcanic rocks that accumulated in the Karoo Basin, which formed in the Carboniferous in response to flexural loading by the Cape Fold Belt Mountains

THE RANGE'S GEOLOGIC AND GEOMORPHOLOGIC ATTRIBUTES MAKE IT A TESTING GROUND IN THE CONTINUING QUEST TO ANSWER FIRST-ORDER SCIENTIFIC QUESTIONS.



Figure 2. Gudu Falls tumbles over a cliff in the Clarens Sandstone, the uppermost formation in the Stormberg Group. Photo credit: Lon Abbott and Terri Cook.



Figure 3. Map of southern Africa showing the high Central Plateau (Karoo/Kalahari Plateau) flanked by the Great Escarpment, shown by the hatched line. The red hatched line delineates the Drakensberg portion of the escarpment. The country of Lesotho is outlined by the dashed black line and the segment of the red hatched line it touches. That is the High Drakensberg. Credit: Oggmus via Wikimedia Commons (https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_Escarpment_and_the_Drakensberg.jpg).

(Catuneanu et al., 2005). The Supergroup consists of a >6-km-thick stack of fossiliferous sedimentary rocks that accumulated between ~300-183 Ma and that preserve excellent records of both the Permian-Triassic and Triassic-Jurassic mass extinction events, two of the "Big Five" extinctions. These are overlain by 1.6 km of Jurassic basalt that erupted from the Karoo Large Igneous Province (LIP); LIPs are Earth's biggest volcanic centers. The Karoo Basin stretches across most of South Africa, and only the two stratigraphically highest of the Supergroup's five groups, the Stormberg and Drakensberg groups, are exposed in the high Drakensberg Mountains.

The 1.5-km-thick Stormberg Group, which is exposed on the lower flanks of the Drakensberg, consists of Triassic to Early Jurassic fluvial and aeolian sediments deposited in an increasingly arid climate. Deposition of the Elliot Formation spanned the Triassic–Jurassic boundary, and it contains an abundant and diverse vertebrate fossil record. That makes it a global standard for study of Mesozoic vertebrate evolution and the Triassic–Jurassic mass extinction event (Bordy et al., 2020). This formation is overlain by the cliff-forming, aeolian Clarens Sandstone (Fig. 2). Erosion of the Clarens produces abundant overhangs, beneath which the San left thousands of evocative paintings, typically in locations where the rock face is irregular. That technique causes the figures to appear as if they are either emerging from the rock or receding into the background. Archaeologists conclude that the San used the rock face as a "veil" that obscures other spiritual worlds from our own; the paintings depict a shaman's out-of-body experiences while visiting other worlds during their spiritual work (Lewis-Williams and Dowson, 1990).

THAT TECHNIQUE CAUSES THE FIGURES TO APPEAR AS IF THEY ARE EITHER EMERGING FROM THE ROCK OR RECEDING INTO THE BACKGROUND.

Clarens deposition ended with the onset of rapid and massive basaltic volcanism in the Karoo LIP (Fig. 1; Catuneanu et al., 2005). Although most of the Clarens Formation was deposited in a sand dune-dominated desert, just before the eruptions began the area became moist enough to support a diverse biota, including gymnosperm trees. Some of the earliest lava flows spilled into streams and lakes, producing pillow basalts. The lava flows carried logs with them, as evidenced by the petrified wood that is preserved among the pillow lavas (Bordy et al., 2021).

DO FLOOD BASALTS TRIGGER MASS EXTINCTIONS?

Multiple researchers have noted the striking age correlation between the emplacement of LIPs, various indicators of environmental perturbations such as carbon isotope excursions and oceanic anoxic events, and mass extinctions. This temporal correlation has led to the hypothesis that injection of massive quantities of CO₂ and SO₂ into Earth's atmosphere during LIP eruptions produces massive environmental change that in turn triggers mass extinction (e.g., Courtillot and Renne, 2003). The Karoo LIP is an excellent example of that correlation (e.g., Pálfy and Smith, 2000; Moulin et al., 2011; Sell et al., 2014).

The Drakensberg flood basalts are big, covering 3 million km², but they are merely the biggest surviving remnant of what was once a much larger basalt plain. The 183 Ma basalt over which Victoria Falls plunges along the Zimbabwe-Zambia border is another remnant, and the contemporaneous dolerite dikes and sills that are abundant throughout southern Africa record a vast area where these lavas were once continuous but subsequently eroded (Marsh et al., 1997). The Karoo LIP erupted immediately before Gondwana broke up, and it also covered portions of Antarctica and Australia in what is called the Ferrar LIP. Together, the estimated volume of the Karoo-Ferrar LIP is a massive 2.5 million km³. The ascending magmas not only carried large quantities of volcanically derived CO₂ and SO₂ but also oxidized the abundant carbon- and sulfurrich Karoo Supergroup rocks, generating yet more of these temperature-altering gases (Svensen et al., 2007). Moulin et al. (2011) estimated that Karoo LIP eruption liberated >60,000 gigatons of CO₂, enough to affect global climate.

But directly ascribing environmental changes to outgassing from the Karoo or any LIP is tricky and requires ultraprecise dating of both the LIP and the environmental changes. For the Karoo LIP, the combination of stratigraphic observations and magnetostratigraphy with high-precision Ar/Ar and U/Pb dating has enabled geoscientists to approach the necessary resolution (Moulin et al., 2011; Sell et al., 2014; Antoine et al., 2022). Evidence indicates that the Karoo LIP experienced multiple eruptive phases, with the vast majority of the volcanic pile erupted in as little as 250,000 years at ~183 Ma. The first pulse seems to correspond with global cooling and marine regression at the Pliensbachian-Toarcian stage boundary, while the main eruptive event coincides with global warming and oceanic anoxia in the early Toarcian. Sharp carbon isotope excursions testify to the profound ecological disruptions that accompanied both pulses and correspond to the two phases of a secondorder mass extinction event (Pálfy and Smith, 2000; Moulin et al., 2011). The ever-higher precision age constraints on the Karoo LIP and contemporaneous environmental effects have made it a prominent test case for the idea that LIP eruptions have triggered most of the planet's profound environmental and biotic crises.

AN OUTSTANDING EXAMPLE OF AFRICA'S GEOHERITAGE

The Drakensberg possess grand scenerv that has nurtured the spiritual life of its inhabitants for millennia and continues to inspire the popular imagination. The range's geologic and geomorphologic attributes make it a testing ground in the continuing quest to answer first-order scientific questions. These characteristics are the very essence of the concept of geoheritage, which the Geological Society of America (GSA) defines as "sites or areas of geologic features with significant scientific, educational, cultural, and/or aesthetic value" (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2021; GSA, 2022).

Protection of landscapes that possess such international geological significance is the goal of UNESCO Global Geoparks, as is ensuring that their protection goes hand in hand with sustainable development that benefits the geopark's inhabitants (UNESCO, 2023). Yet despite Africa's rich geoheritage, only two of the 177 UNESCO Global Geoparks are on the continent, in Morocco and Tanzania. In December 2022, UNESCO conducted a capacity-building workshop on African geoheritage in Kenya. It focused on devising ways to connect Africa's rich geological and cultural heritage to mechanisms that promote regional sustainable development (UNESCO, 2023). We hope this workshop catalyzes the establishment of more UNESCO Global Geoparks in Africa, and we think that portions of the Drakensberg are worth considering as additions to that illustrious list.

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—Molly Niekmap, 2022 Natural Resource Management Assistant at Fort Matanzas National Monument, Florida

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Molly Niekamp next to a sea turtle nest egg cavity during a nest site evaluation at Fort Matanzas National Monument, Florida (NPS photo).







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Five Tips to Help Get You Hired

- 1. Get ready by studying the job, the company, and your own résumé. Think about the questions they might ask.
- 2. Ask questions during the interview to see if the job is right for you.
- 3. Keep your papers and notes handy during the interview so you don't forget anything important.
- 4. Before the interview, find out what to expect in terms of time and who will be there.
- 5. Be specific in your answers to questions. Provide concrete examples where possible.

Find more career resources at **www.geosociety.org/careers.**



Nominate for GSA Scientific Division Awards

ENERGY GEOLOGY DIVISION

CURTIS-HEDBERG AWARD

Nominations due **31 July**

Submit nominations to the Curtis-Hedberg Award chair: Denise J Hills, denise.j.hills@gmail.com

The Curtis-Hedberg Award will be considered annually in accordance with the bylaws of the Society. The award will be made for outstanding contributions in the field of petroleum geology. **community.geosociety.org/energydivision/ awards/curtishedberg**

GEOARCHAEOLOGY DIVISION

RICHARD HAY STUDENT PAPER/POSTER AWARD Nominations due **31 August**

Nominations due **31 August** Submit nominations to gsa.agd@gmail.com. At the 2006 Annual Meeting in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA, the Division's management board elected to rename the student travel award for a distinguished scientist in archaeological geology. After consulting with his family, the award was officially named the Richard Hay Student Paper/Poster Award. Hay was a longstanding member of the Division and had a long and distinguished career in sedimentary geology, mineralogy, and archaeological geology. He is particularly well known for his work on the Olduvai Gorge and Laetoli hominid-bearing sites and was awarded the Division's Rip Rapp Award in 2000. The Division is proud to have our student travel award bear his name.

The award is a travel grant for a student (undergraduate or graduate) presenting a paper or poster at GSA Connects. The grant is competitive and will be awarded based on evaluation of the scientific merit of the research topic and the clarity of an expanded abstract for the paper or poster prepared by a student for presentation in the Division's technical session at the meeting. **community.geosociety.org/ geoarchdivision/awards/student/hay**

GEOLOGY AND SOCIETY DIVISION

E-AN ZEN FUND FOR GEOSCIENCE OUTREACH GRANT Nominations due **30 June**

Submit nominations to the Division past chair: Lily Jackson, Lily.Jackson@uwyo.edu

This is a grant opportunity for Geology and Society Division members interested in developing innovative methods to bring geoscience knowledge to public audiences. Two grants of US\$1,500 each will be awarded to fund projects designed by the applicants to communicate geoscience information to a lay audience with the goal of increasing the understanding of geoscience and its impact on society among non-geoscientists and decision-makers. Applicants may apply as individuals or as groups, depending on the best fit for their project design. While the grant application requirements are intentionally broad to encourage creative thinking and innovation, review of applications will emphasize the potential for impacting communities that traditionally have not had significant exposure to the geosciences. **community.geosociety.org/gsocdivision/ news/zenfund**

HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF GEOLOGY DIVISION

HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF GEOLOGY STUDENT AWARD

Nominations due **15 June**

Submit nominations to the Division secretary/treasurer: Christopher Hill, chill2@boisestate.edu

The History and Philosophy of Geology Division provides a student award in the amount of US\$1,000 for a paper to be given at GSA Connects. Awards may also be given for second place. Oral presentations are preferred. Faculty advisors may be listed as second author, but not as the lead author of the paper. The proposed paper may be (1) a paper in the history or philosophy of geology; (2) a literature review of ideas for a technical work or thesis/dissertation; or (3) some imaginative aspect of the history or philosophy of geology we have not thought of before. Students should submit an abstract of their proposed talk and a 1,500-2,000-word prospectus for consideration. Currently enrolled undergraduates and graduate students are eligible, as are students who received their degrees at the end of the fall or spring term immediately preceding GSA Connects. The award is open to all students regardless of discipline, provided the proposed paper is related to the history or philosophy of a geological idea/ person. The award is made possible by a bequest from the estate of Mary C. Rabbitt. Monies for the award are administered by the GSA Foundation. community.geosociety.org/ histphildiv/awards/student

PLANETARY GEOLOGY DIVISION

EUGENE M. SHOEMAKER IMPACT CRATERING AWARD Nominations due 15 August

Submit nominations here: https://www.lpi.usra.edu/ Awards/shoemaker/ The Eugene M. Shoemaker Impact Cratering Award is for undergraduate or graduate students, of any nationality, working in any country, in the disciplines of geology, geophysics, geochemistry, astronomy, or biology. The award, which will include US\$2500, is to be applied to the study of impact craters, either on Earth or on the other solid bodies in the solar system. Areas of study may include but shall not necessarily be limited to impact cratering processes; the bodies (asteroidal or cometary) that make the impacts; or the geological, chemical, or biological results of impact cratering. **community.geosociety.org/pgd/awards/shoemaker**

SOILS AND SOIL PROCESSES DIVISION

STUDENT RESEARCH AWARDS

Nominations due 1 June

Submit nominations to the Division awards committee chair: Steven Driese, Steven_Driese@baylor.edu

The Soils and Soil Processes Division of GSA is pleased to announce the availability of three student awards: two for graduate research (US\$1,000) and one for undergraduate research (US\$500). The proposed research must emphasize soil or paleosol research for it to be considered for an award. Awards will be announced by 15 June 2024. Funds may be used for field or laboratory research. Applicants are encouraged to become members of the Division, but it is not a requirement for proposal consideration.

Proposal materials should include the following, in a single file (PDF or Word only):

- 1. Student's full legal name, affiliation, contact information, current degree program, and expected graduation date.
- 2. Proposal narrative (1–2 pages): this will include the purpose and significance of the proposal research and the methods employed to complete the research.
- 3. Itemized budget. Please include information on all additional sources of funding for the project, including previous and pending sources of funding.
- 4. Project supervisor's name and contact information. Your supervisor may be contacted for a recommendation if your proposal is considered for funding.

Make an Impact in Your Society— Serve on a Committee

As a member-led organization, your committee involvement is essential to furthering GSA's mission. Apply your expertise, help strengthen GSA, and gain experience to enhance your career. Self-nominations are encouraged! The following committees have openings:

- Academic and Applied Geoscience Relations Committee
- Annual Program Committee
- Arthur L. Day Medal Award Committee
- Council Officers
- Diversity in the Geosciences Committee
- Doris M. Curtis Outstanding Woman in Science Award
 Committee
- Education Committee
- Geology and Public Policy Committee
- GSA International Committee
- Membership and Fellowship Committee
- Nominations Committee
- North American Commission on Stratigraphic Nomenclature
- Penrose Conferences & Thompson Field Forums Committee
- Penrose Medal Award Committee
- Professional Development Committee
- Publications Committee
- Research Grants Committee
- Young Scientist Award (Donath Medal) Committee



Terms begin 1 July 2025. North American Commission on Stratigraphic Nomenclature committee term begins 1 November 2025.

Nominate or view position details: www.geosociety.org/committees

Nomination deadline: 15 June

Geosciences Congressional Visits Day 2024

Looking for a way to engage with policy makers and share the importance of the geosciences? **Geoscience Congressional Visits Day (GEO-CVD)** will take place in **Washington, D.C.**,

on **11–12 September 2024.** GEO-CVD is an annual event sponsored by the Geological Society of America in conjunction with other earth science societies to increase the visibility of and support for the geosciences in Congress.

GEO-CVD participants will take part in a workshop that will offer a foundational introduction to science policy through a series of brief seminars and panels; networking opportunities; and resources for participants to develop messaging and materials for successful congressional visits. Participants in GEO-CVD have an opportunity to meet with members of Congress and staff from key congressional offices and committees.

POLICY

If you are interested in attending, visit **https://bit.ly/4ddIjqE.** Deadline: 2 August 2024

Contribute to the Conversation

Join GSA's Geology and Society

Division to be part of a group that brings together multiple fields of geoscience to address important societal issues. Head to the updated Community site to share new research related to science policy, ask questions about upcoming science legislation, and contribute to meaningful discussions at the intersection of geology and society. We'd love to hear from you! To join, go to:



PUBLICATIONS

Extend Your Impact: Publish Your Section Meeting Research in a GSA Journal or Book!

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https://tinyurl.com/

ycpuwpp4.

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GEOLOGY THROUGH THE LENS

Mirror Lake's Tranquil Reflections

Eagle Cap (in image center) is part of the composite Wallowa batholith in the Wallowa Mountains and Wallowa terrane of Northeast Oregon, USA. Ages and compositions of its four units (140.2 to 125.6 Ma) correlate with the amalgamation of the Wallowa and Olds Ferry terranes at 140 Ma and collision of the combined terranes with North America at 128 Ma (Schwartz et al., 2011).

Photo credit: Ellen Morris Bishop is a geologist, photographer, and writer whose life's work has been making science more enjoyable and understandable to non-scientists. Learn more at www.ellenmorrisbishop.com.

Schwartz, J.J., Snoke, A.W., Cordey, F., Johnson, K., Frost, C.D., Barnes, C.G., LaMaskin, T.A., and Wooden, J.L., 2011, Late Jurassic magmatism, metamorphism, and deformation in the Blue Mountains Province, northeast Oregon: GSA Bulletin, v. 123, no. 9–10, https://doi.org/10.1130/B30327.1.

FIELD GUIDE 62

From Terranes to Terrains: Geologic Field Guides on the **Construction and Destruction of the Pacific Northwest**

Edited by Adam M. Booth and Anita L. Grunder

The eight field trips in this volume, associated with GSA Connects 2021 held in Portland, Oregon, USA, reflect the rich and varied geological legacy of the Pacific Northwest. The western margin of North America has had a complex subduction and transform history throughout the Phanerozoic, building a collage of terranes. The terrain has been modified by Cenozoic sedimentation, magmatism, and faulting related to Cascadia subduction, passage of the Yellowstone hot spot, and north and westward propagation of the Basin and Range province. The youngest flood basalt province on Earth also inundated the landscape, while the mighty Columbia watershed kept pace with arc construction and funneled epic ice-age floods from the craton to the coast. Additional erosive processes such as landslides continue to shape this dynamic geological wonderland.

FLD062, 352 p., ISBN 9780813700625

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