

**The BIG Idea**

Fossils, along with the relative ages and absolute ages of rocks, provide evidence of past life, climates, and environments on Earth.

**SECTION 1****Fossils**

**Main Idea** Fossils are used as evidence of past life on Earth.

**SECTION 2****Relative Ages of Rocks**

**Main Idea** Relative ages of rocks can be determined by examining their locations within a sequence of rock layers.

**SECTION 3****Absolute Ages of Rocks**

**Main Idea** Absolute ages of rocks can be determined by using properties of the atoms that make up materials.

# Clues to Earth's Past



## Reading the Past

The pages of Earth's history, much like the pages of human history, can be read if you look in the right place. Unlike the pages of a book, the pages of Earth's past are written in stone. In this chapter you will learn how to read the pages of Earth's history to understand what the planet was like in the distant past.





**Science Journal** List three fossils that you would expect to find a million years from now in the place you live today.



# Start-Up Activities



## Clues to Life's Past

Fossil formation begins when dead plants or animals are buried in sediment. In time, if conditions are right, the sediment hardens into sedimentary rock. Parts of the organism are preserved along with the impressions of parts that don't survive. Any evidence of once-living things contained in the rock record is a fossil.    

1. Fill a small jar (about 500 mL) one-third full of plaster of paris. Add water until the jar is half full.
2. Drop in a few small shells.
3. Cover the jar and shake it to model a swift, muddy stream.
4. Now model the stream flowing into a lake by uncovering the jar and pouring the contents into a paper or plastic bowl. Let the mixture sit for an hour.
5. Crack open the hardened plaster to locate the model fossils.
6. **Think Critically** Remove the shells from the plaster and study the impressions they made. In your Science Journal, list what the impressions would tell you if found in a rock.

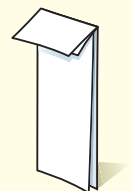
## FOLDABLES™ Study Organizer

**Age of Rocks** Make the following Foldable to help you understand how scientists determine the age of a rock.

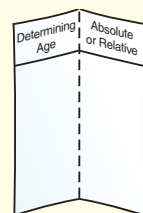
- STEP 1** Fold a sheet of paper in half lengthwise.



- STEP 2** Fold paper down 2.5 cm from the top. (Hint: From the tip of your index finger to your middle knuckle is about 2.5 cm.)



- STEP 3** Open and draw lines along the 2.5-cm fold. Label as shown.



**Summarize in a Table** As you read the chapter, in the left column, list four different ways in which one could determine the age of a rock. In the right column, note whether each method gives an absolute or a relative age.



Preview this chapter's content and activities at [blue.msscience.com](http://blue.msscience.com)

# Get Ready to Read

## Take Notes

**1 Learn It!** The best way for you to remember information is to write it down, or take notes. Good note-taking is useful for studying and research. When you are taking notes, it is helpful to

- phrase the information in your own words;
- restate ideas in short, memorable phrases;
- stay focused on main ideas and only the most important supporting details.

**2 Practice It!** Make note-taking easier by using a chart to help you organize information clearly. Write the main ideas in the left column. Then write at least three supporting details in the right column. Read the text from Section 1 of this chapter under the heading *Conditions Needed for Fossil Formation*, page 243. Then take notes using a chart, such as the one below.

Main Idea	Supporting Details
	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

**3 Apply It!** As you read this chapter, make a chart of the main ideas. Next to each main idea, list at least three supporting details.

## Reading Tip

Read one or two paragraphs first and take notes after you read. You are likely to take down too much information if you take notes as you read.

## Target Your Reading

Use this to focus on the main ideas as you read the chapter.

- 1 **Before you read** the chapter, respond to the statements below on your worksheet or on a numbered sheet of paper.
  - Write an **A** if you **agree** with the statement.
  - Write a **D** if you **disagree** with the statement.
- 2 **After you read** the chapter, look back to this page to see if you've changed your mind about any of the statements.
  - If any of your answers changed, explain why.
  - Change any false statements into true statements.
  - Use your revised statements as a study guide.

Before You Read A or D	Statement	After You Read A or D
	1 All fossils are made from the hard parts of animals.	
	2 Fossils can be used as evidence to show that past climates and environments have changed.	
	3 A trace fossil is the outline, or copy, of a fossil.	
	4 Sediment typically accumulates in horizontal beds, which can later form layers of sedimentary rock.	
	5 The relative age of a rock layer indicates whether the layer is older or younger when compared to other rock layers.	
	6 The principle of superposition refers to a high concentration of fossils within a small area.	
	7 Most sequences of rock layers are complete.	
	8 Geologists often can match up, or correlate, layers of rock over great distances.	
	9 The absolute age of a material refers to the actual age, in years, of the material.	

**Science online**  
Print out a worksheet of this page at [blue.msscience.com](http://blue.msscience.com)





# Fossils

## as you read

### What You'll Learn

- **List** the conditions necessary for fossils to form.
- **Describe** several processes of fossil formation.
- **Explain** how fossil correlation is used to determine rock ages.
- **Determine** how fossils can be used to explain changes in Earth's surface, life forms, and environments.

### Why It's Important

Fossils help scientists find oil and other sources of energy necessary for society.



### Review Vocabulary

**paleontologist:** a scientist who studies fossils

### New Vocabulary

- |                          |                |
|--------------------------|----------------|
| ● fossil                 | ● mold         |
| ● permineralized remains | ● cast         |
| ● carbon film            | ● index fossil |

## Traces of the Distant Past

A giant crocodile lurks in the shallow water of a river. A herd of *Triceratops* emerges from the edge of the forest and cautiously moves toward the river. The dinosaurs are thirsty, but danger waits for them in the water. A large bull *Triceratops* moves into the river. The others follow.

Does this scene sound familiar to you? It's likely that you've read about dinosaurs and other past inhabitants of Earth. But how do you know that they really existed or what they were like? What evidence do humans have of past life on Earth? The answer is fossils. Paleontologists, scientists who study fossils, can learn about extinct animals from their fossil remains, as shown in **Figure 1**.

**Figure 1** Scientists can learn how dinosaurs looked and moved using fossil remains. A skeleton can then be reassembled and displayed in a museum.





## Formation of Fossils

**Fossils** are the remains, imprints, or traces of prehistoric organisms. Fossils have helped scientists determine approximately when life first appeared, when plants and animals first lived on land, and when organisms became extinct. Fossils are evidence of not only when and where organisms once lived, but also how they lived.

For the most part, the remains of dead plants and animals disappear quickly. Scavengers eat and scatter the remains of dead organisms. Fungi and bacteria invade, causing the remains to rot and disappear. If you've ever left a banana on the counter too long, you've seen this process begin. In time, compounds within the banana cause it to break down chemically and soften. Microorganisms, such as bacteria, cause it to decay. What keeps some plants and animals from disappearing before they become fossils? Which organisms are more likely to become fossils?

**Conditions Needed for Fossil Formation** Whether or not a dead organism becomes a fossil depends upon how well it is protected from scavengers and agents of physical destruction, such as waves and currents. One way a dead organism can be protected is for sediment to bury the body quickly. If a fish dies and sinks to the bottom of a lake, sediment carried into the lake by a stream can cover the fish rapidly. As a result, no waves or scavengers can get to it and tear it apart. The body parts then might be fossilized and included in a sedimentary rock like shale. However, quick burial alone isn't always enough to make a fossil.

Organisms have a better chance of becoming fossils if they have hard parts such as bones, shells, or teeth. One reason is that scavengers are less likely to eat these hard parts. Hard parts also decay more slowly than soft parts do. Most fossils are the hard parts of organisms, such as the fossil teeth in **Figure 2**.

## Types of Preservation

Perhaps you've seen skeletal remains of *Tyrannosaurus rex* towering above you in a museum. You also have some idea of what this dinosaur looked like because you've seen illustrations. Artists who draw *Tyrannosaurus rex* and other dinosaurs base their illustrations on fossil bones. What preserves fossil bones?



**Figure 2** These fossil shark teeth are hard parts. Soft parts of animals do not become fossilized as easily.

### Mini LAB

#### Predicting Fossil Preservation

##### Procedure

1. Take a brief walk outside and observe your neighborhood.
2. Look around and notice what kinds of plants and animals live nearby.

##### Analysis

1. Predict what remains from your time might be preserved far into the future.
2. Explain what conditions would need to exist for these remains to be fossilized.

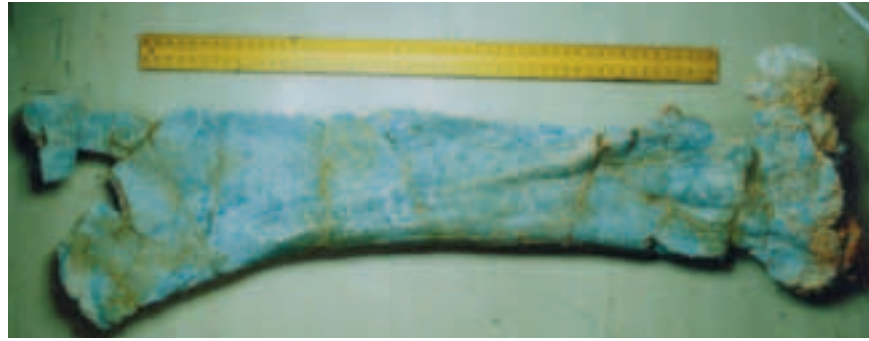






**Figure 3** Opal and various minerals have replaced original materials and filled the hollow spaces in this permineralized dinosaur bone.

**Explain** why this fossil retained the shape of the original bone.

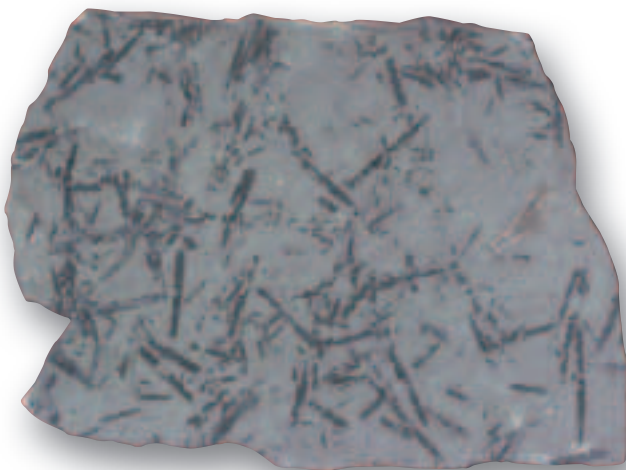


**Mineral Replacement** Most hard parts of organisms such as bones, teeth, and shells have tiny spaces within them. In life, these spaces can be filled with cells, blood vessels, nerves, or air. When the organism dies and the soft materials inside the hard parts decay, the tiny spaces become empty. If the hard part is buried, groundwater can seep in and deposit minerals in the spaces. **Permineralized remains** are fossils in which the spaces inside are filled with minerals from groundwater. In permineralized remains, some original material from the fossil organism's body might be preserved—encased within the minerals from groundwater. It is from these original materials that DNA, the chemical that contains an organism's genetic code, can sometimes be recovered.

Sometimes minerals replace the hard parts of fossil organisms. For example, a solution of water and dissolved silica (the compound  $\text{SiO}_2$ ) might flow into and through the shell of a dead organism. If the water dissolves the shell and leaves silica in its place, the original shell is replaced.

Often people learn about past forms of life from bones, wood, and other remains that became permineralized or replaced with minerals from groundwater, as shown in **Figure 3**, but many other types of fossils can be found.

**Figure 4** Graptolites lived hundreds of millions of years ago and drifted on currents in the oceans. These organisms often are preserved as carbon films.




**Carbon Films** The tissues of organisms are made of compounds that contain carbon. Sometimes fossils contain only carbon. Fossils usually form when sediments bury a dead organism. As sediment piles up, the organism's remains are subjected to pressure and heat. These conditions force gases and liquids from the body. A thin film of carbon residue is left, forming a silhouette of the original organism called a **carbon film**. **Figure 4** shows the carbonized remains of graptolites, which were small marine animals. Graptolites have been found in rocks as old as 500 million years.



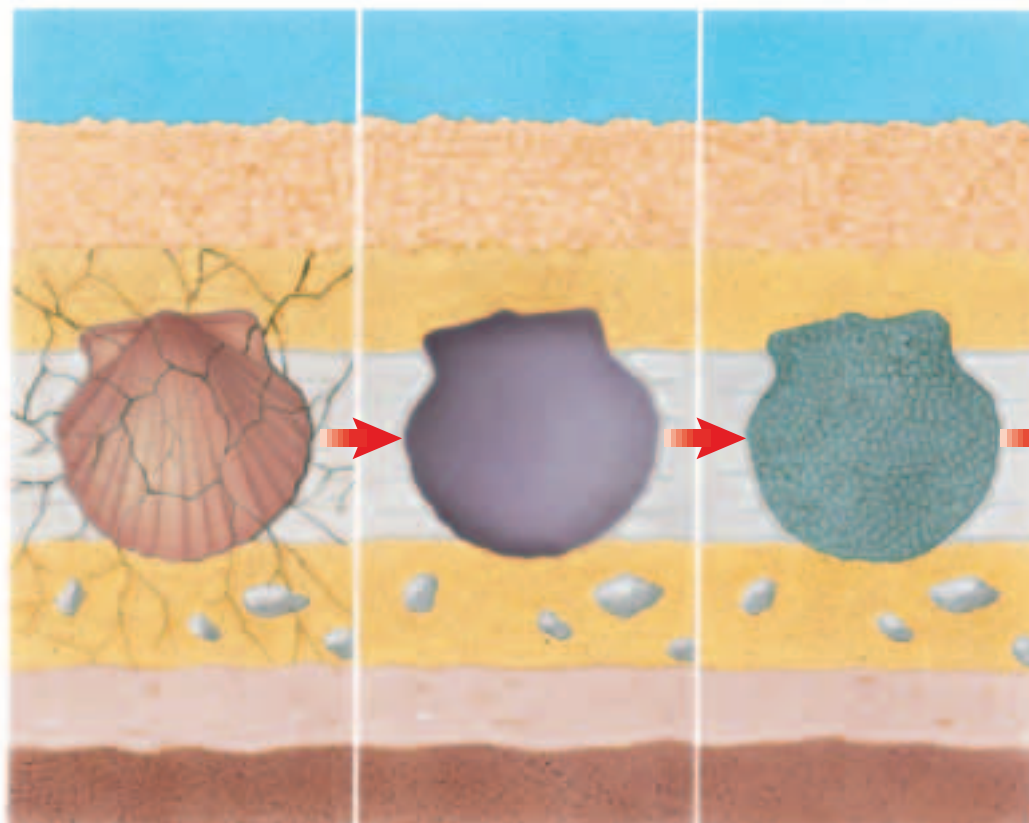
**Coal** In swampy regions, large volumes of plant matter accumulate. Over millions of years, these deposits become completely carbonized, forming coal. Coal is an important fuel source, but since the structure of the original plant is usually lost, it cannot reveal as much about the past as other kinds of fossils.

 **Reading Check** *In what sort of environment does coal form?*

**Molds and Casts** In nature, impressions form when seashells or other hard parts of organisms fall into a soft sediment such as mud. The object and sediment are then buried by more sediment. Compaction, together with cementation, which is the deposition of minerals from water into the pore spaces between sediment particles, turns the sediment into rock. Other open pores in the rock then let water and air reach the shell or hard part. The hard part might decay or dissolve, leaving behind a cavity in the rock called a **mold**. Later, mineral-rich water or other sediment might enter the cavity, form new rock, and produce a copy or **cast** of the original object, as shown in **Figure 5**.

 **INTEGRATE**  
Social Studies

**Coal Mining** Many of the first coal mines in the United States were located in eastern states like Pennsylvania and West Virginia. In your Science Journal, discuss how the environments of the past relate to people's lives today.



**Figure 5** A cast resembling the original organism forms when a mold fills with sediment or minerals from groundwater.

The fossil begins to dissolve as water moves through spaces in the rock layers.

The fossil has been dissolved away. The harder rock once surrounding it forms a mold.

Sediment washes into the mold and is deposited, or mineral crystals form.

A cast results.





**Figure 6** The original soft parts of this mosquito have been preserved in amber for millions of years.

**Figure 7** Tracks made in soft mud, and now preserved in solid rock, can provide information about animal size, speed, and behavior.

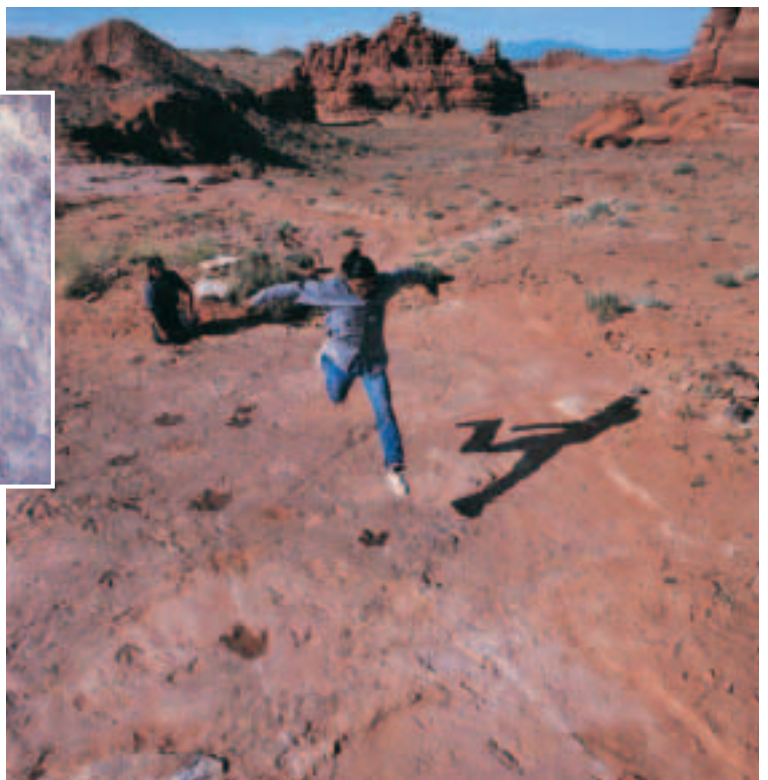
The dinosaur track below is from the Glen Rose Formation in north-central Texas.



The tracks to the right are located on a Navajo reservation in Arizona.

**Original Remains** Sometimes conditions allow original soft parts of organisms to be preserved for thousands or millions of years. For example, insects can be trapped in amber, a hardened form of sticky tree resin. The amber surrounds and protects the original material of the insect's exoskeleton from destruction, as shown in **Figure 6**. Some organisms, such as the mammoth, have been found preserved in frozen ground in Siberia. Original remains also have been found in natural tar deposits, such as the La Brea tar pits in California.

**Trace Fossils** Do you have a handprint in plaster that you made when you were in kindergarten? If so, it's a record that tells something about you. From it, others can guess your size and maybe your weight at that age. Animals walking on Earth long ago left similar tracks, such as those in **Figure 7**. Trace fossils are fossilized tracks and other evidence of the activity of organisms. In some cases, tracks can tell you more about how an organism lived than any other type of fossil. For example, from a set of tracks at Davenport Ranch, Texas, you might be able to learn something about the social life of sauropods, which were large, plant-eating dinosaurs. The largest tracks of the herd are on the outer edges and the smallest are on the inside. These tracks led some scientists to hypothesize that adult sauropods surrounded their young as they traveled—perhaps to protect them from predators. A nearby set of tracks might mean that another type of dinosaur, an allosaur, was stalking the herd.





**Trails and Burrows** Other trace fossils include trails and burrows made by worms and other animals. These, too, tell something about how these animals lived. For example, by examining fossil burrows you can sometimes tell how firm the sediment the animals lived in was. As you can see, fossils can tell a great deal about the organisms that have inhabited Earth.

**Reading Check** *How are trace fossils different from fossils that are the remains of an organism's body?*

## Index Fossils

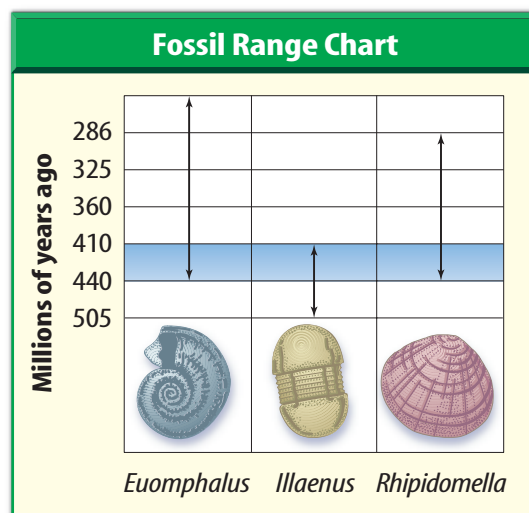
One thing you can learn by studying fossils is that species of organisms have changed over time. Some species of organisms inhabited Earth for long periods of time without changing. Other species changed a lot in comparatively short amounts of time. It is these organisms that scientists use as index fossils.

**Index fossils** are the remains of species that existed on Earth for relatively short periods of time, were abundant, and were widespread geographically. Because the organisms that became index fossils lived only during specific intervals of geologic time, geologists can estimate the ages of rock layers based on the particular index fossils they contain. However, not all rocks contain index fossils. Another way to approximate the age of a rock layer is to compare the spans of time, or ranges, over which more than one fossil appears. The estimated age is the time interval where fossil ranges overlap, as shown in **Figure 8**.



**Figure 8** The fossils in a sequence of sedimentary rock can be used to estimate the ages of each layer. The chart shows when each organism inhabited Earth.

**Explain** why it is possible to say that the middle layer of rock was deposited between 440 million and 410 million years ago.







### Ancient Ecology

Ecology is the study of how organisms interact with each other and with their environment. Some paleontologists study the ecology of ancient organisms. Discuss the kinds of information you could use to determine how ancient organisms interacted with their environment.

## Fossils and Ancient Environments

Scientists can use fossils to determine what the environment of an area was like long ago. Using fossils, you might be able to find out whether an area was land or whether it was covered by an ocean at a particular time. If the region was covered by ocean, it might even be possible to learn the depth of the water. What clues about the depth of water do you think fossils could provide?

Fossils also are used to determine the past climate of a region. For example, rocks in parts of the eastern United States contain fossils of tropical plants. The environment of this part of the United States today isn't tropical. However, because of the fossils, scientists know that it was tropical when these plants were living. **Figure 9** shows that North America was located near the equator when these fossils formed.

**Figure 9** The equator passed through North America 310 million years ago. At this time, warm, shallow seas and coal swamps covered much of the continent, and ferns like the *Neuropteris*, below, were common.





**Shallow Seas** How would you explain the presence of fossilized crinoids—animals that lived in shallow seas—in rocks found in what is today a desert? **Figure 10** shows a fossil crinoid and a living crinoid. When the fossil crinoids were alive, a shallow sea covered much of western and central North America. The crinoid hard parts were included in rocks that formed from the sediments at the bottom of this sea. Fossils provide information about past life on Earth and also about the history of the rock layers that contain them. Fossils can provide information about the ages of rocks and the climate and type of environment that existed when the rocks formed.

**Figure 10** The crinoid on the left lived in warm, shallow seas that once covered part of North America. Crinoids like the one on the right typically live in warm, shallow waters in the Pacific Ocean.

## section 1 review

### Summary

#### Formation of Fossils

- Fossils are the remains, imprints, or traces of past organisms.
- Fossilization is most likely if the organism had hard parts and was buried quickly.

#### Fossil Preservation

- Permineralized remains have open spaces filled with minerals from groundwater.
- Thin carbon films remain in the shapes of dead organisms.
- Hard parts dissolve to leave molds.
- Trace fossils are evidence of past activity.

#### Index Fossils

- Index fossils are from species that were abundant briefly, but over wide areas.
- Scientists can estimate the ages of rocks containing index fossils.

#### Fossils and Ancient Environments

- Fossils tell us about the environment in which the organisms lived.

### Self Check

1. **Describe** the typical conditions necessary for fossil formation.
2. **Explain** how a fossil mold is different from a fossil cast.
3. **Discuss** how the characteristics of an index fossil are useful to geologists.
4. **Describe** how carbon films form.
5. **Think Critically** What can you say about the ages of two widely separated layers of rock that contain the same type of fossil?

### Applying Skills

6. **Communicate** what you learn about fossils. Visit a museum that has fossils on display. Make an illustration of each fossil in your Science Journal. Write a brief description, noting key facts about each fossil and how each fossil might have formed.
7. **Compare and contrast** original remains with other kinds of fossils. What kinds of information would only be available from original remains? Are there any limitations to the use of original remains?





# Relative Ages of Rocks

## as you read

### What You'll Learn

- **Describe** methods used to assign relative ages to rock layers.
- **Interpret** gaps in the rock record.
- **Give** an example of how rock layers can be correlated with other rock layers.

### Why It's Important

Being able to determine the age of rock layers is important in trying to understand a history of Earth.



### Review Vocabulary

**sedimentary rock:** rock formed when sediments are cemented and compacted or when minerals are precipitated from solution

### New Vocabulary

- principle of superposition
- relative age
- unconformity

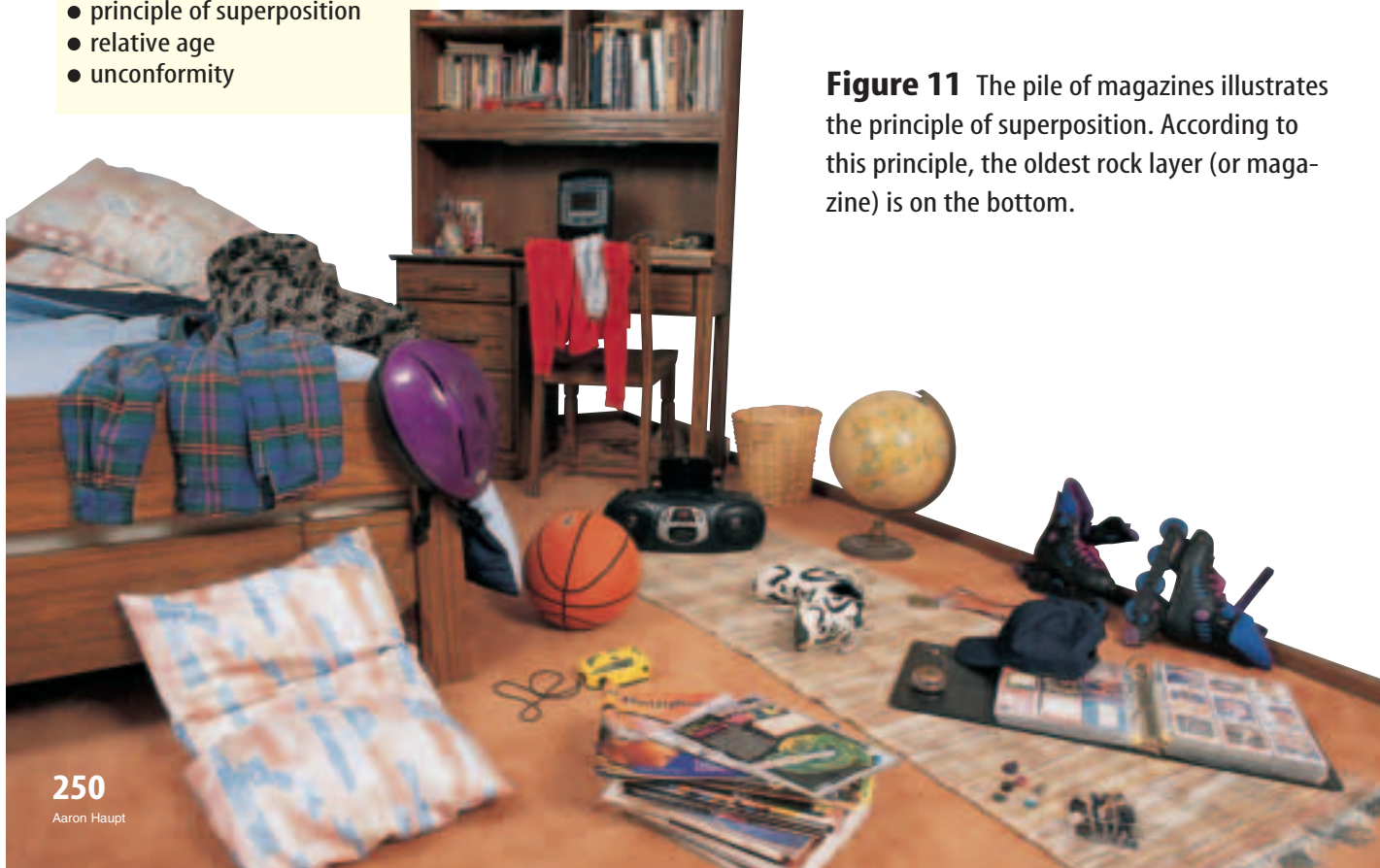
## Superposition

Imagine that you are walking to your favorite store and you happen to notice an interesting car go by. You're not sure what kind it is, but you remember that you read an article about it. You decide to look it up. At home you have a stack of magazines from the past year, as seen in **Figure 11**.

You know that the article you're thinking of came out in the January edition, so it must be near the bottom of the pile. As you dig downward, you find magazines from March, then February. January must be next. How did you know that the January issue of the magazine would be on the bottom? To find the older edition under newer ones, you applied the principle of superposition.

**Oldest Rocks on the Bottom** According to the **principle of superposition**, in undisturbed layers of rock, the oldest rocks are on the bottom and the rocks become progressively younger toward the top. Why is this the case?

**Figure 11** The pile of magazines illustrates the principle of superposition. According to this principle, the oldest rock layer (or magazine) is on the bottom.





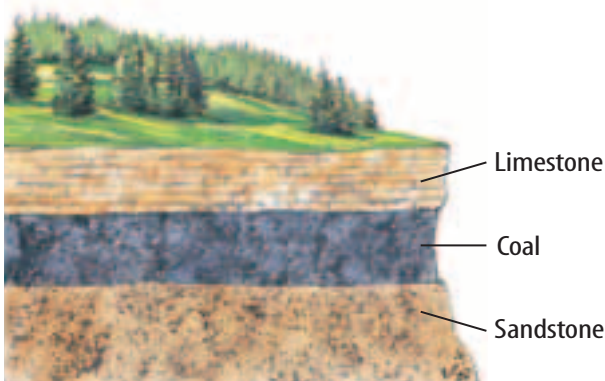
**Rock Layers** Sediment accumulates in horizontal beds, forming layers of sedimentary rock. The first layer to form is on the bottom. The next layer forms on top of the previous one. Because of this, the oldest rocks are at the bottom. However, forces generated by mountain formation sometimes can turn layers over. When layers have been turned upside down, it's necessary to use other clues in the rock layers to determine their original positions and relative ages.

## Relative Ages

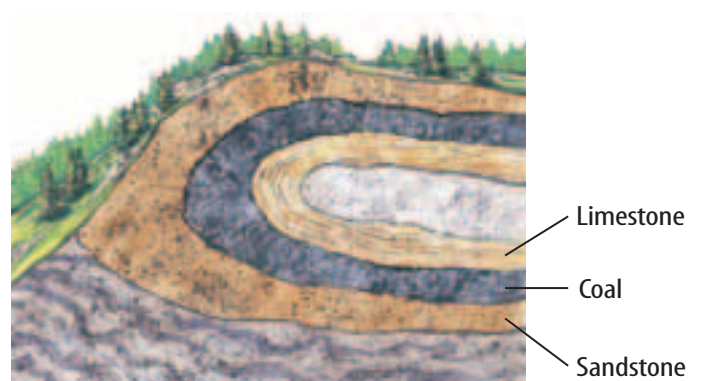
Now you want to look for another magazine. You're not sure how old it is, but you know it arrived after the January issue. You can find it in the stack by using the principle of relative age.

The **relative age** of something is its age in comparison to the ages of other things. Geologists determine the relative ages of rocks and other structures by examining their places in a sequence. For example, if layers of sedimentary rock are offset by a fault, which is a break in Earth's surface, you know that the layers had to be there before a fault could cut through them. The relative age of the rocks is older than the relative age of the fault. Relative age determination doesn't tell you anything about the age of rock layers in actual years. You don't know if a layer is 100 million or 10,000 years old. You only know that it's younger than the layers below it and older than the fault cutting through it.

**Other Clues Help** Determination of relative age is easy if the rocks haven't been faulted or turned upside down. For example, look at **Figure 12**. Which layer is the oldest? In cases where rock layers have been disturbed you might have to look for fossils and other clues to date the rocks. If you find a fossil in the top layer that's older than a fossil in a lower layer, you can hypothesize that layers have been turned upside down by folding during mountain building.



Undisturbed Layers



Folded Layers



### Topic: Relative Dating

Visit [blue.msscience.com](http://blue.msscience.com) for Web links to information about relative dating of rocks and other materials.

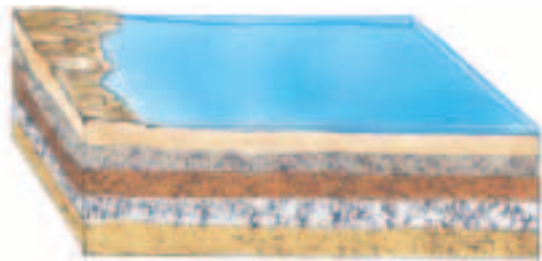
**Activity** Imagine yourself at an archaeological dig. You have found a rare artifact and want to know its age. Make a list of clues you might look for to provide a relative date and explain how each would allow you to approximate the artifact's age.

**Figure 12** In a stack of undisturbed sedimentary rocks, the oldest rocks are at the bottom. This stack of rocks can be folded by forces within Earth.

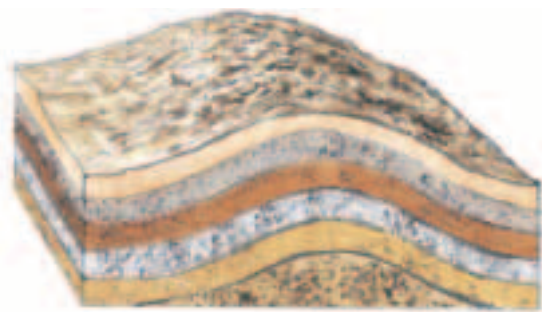
**Explain** how you can tell if an older rock is above a younger one.



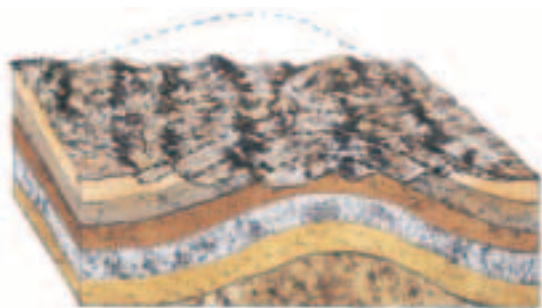
**Figure 13** An angular unconformity results when horizontal layers cover tilted, eroded layers.



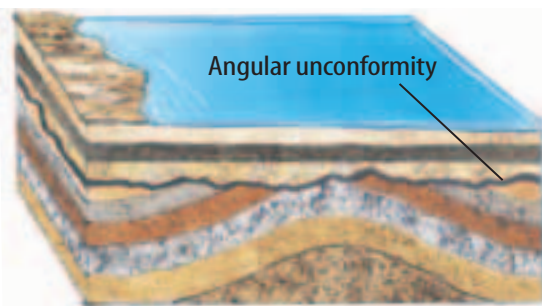
**A** Sedimentary rocks are deposited originally as horizontal layers.



**B** The horizontal rock layers are tilted as forces within Earth deform them.



**C** The tilted layers erode.



**D** An angular unconformity results when new layers form on the tilted layers as deposition resumes.

## Unconformities

A sequence of rock is a record of past events. But most rock sequences are incomplete—layers are missing. These gaps in rock sequences are called **unconformities** (un kun FOR muh teeZ). Unconformities develop when agents of erosion such as running water or glaciers remove rock layers by washing or scraping them away.



**Reading Check** How do unconformities form?

**Angular Unconformities** Horizontal layers of sedimentary rock often are tilted and uplifted. Erosion and weathering then wear down these tilted rock layers. Eventually, younger sediment layers are deposited horizontally on top of the tilted and eroded layers. Geologists call such an unconformity an angular unconformity. **Figure 13** shows how angular unconformities develop.

**Disconformity** Suppose you're looking at a stack of sedimentary rock layers. They look complete, but layers are missing. If you look closely, you might find an old surface of erosion. This records a time when the rocks were exposed and eroded. Later, younger rocks formed above the erosion surface when deposition of sediment began again. Even though all the layers are parallel, the rock record still has a gap. This type of unconformity is called a disconformity. A disconformity also forms when a period of time passes without any new deposition occurring to form new layers of rock.

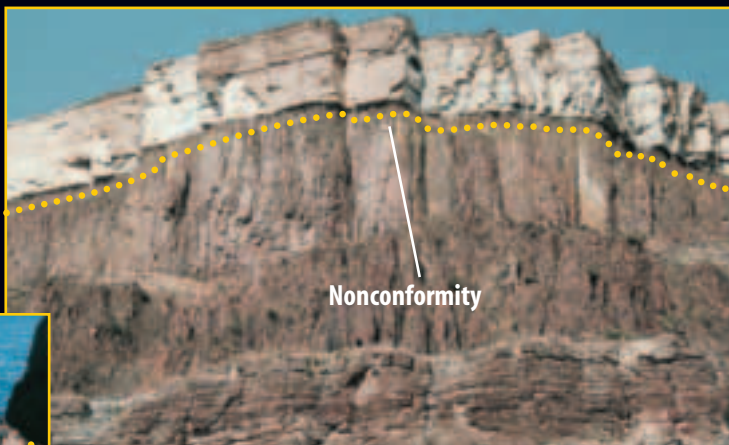
**Nonconformity** Another type of unconformity, called a nonconformity, occurs when metamorphic or igneous rocks are uplifted and eroded. Sedimentary rocks are then deposited on top of this erosion surface. The surface between the two rock types is a nonconformity. Sometimes rock fragments from below are incorporated into sediments deposited above the nonconformity. All types of unconformities are shown in **Figure 14**.



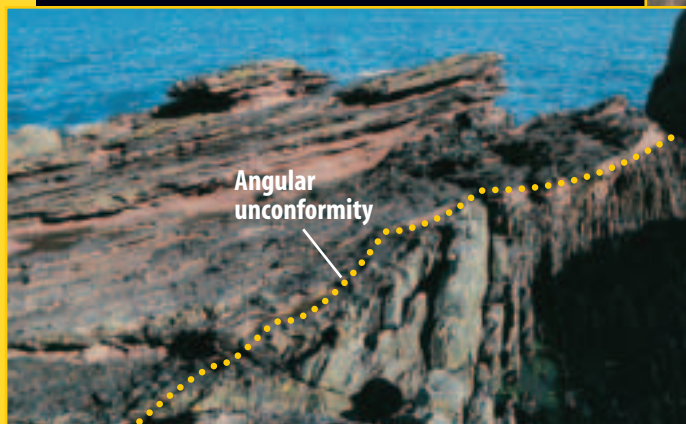


Figure 14

**A**n unconformity is a gap in the rock record caused by erosion or a pause in deposition. There are three major kinds of unconformities—nonconformity, angular unconformity, and disconformity.

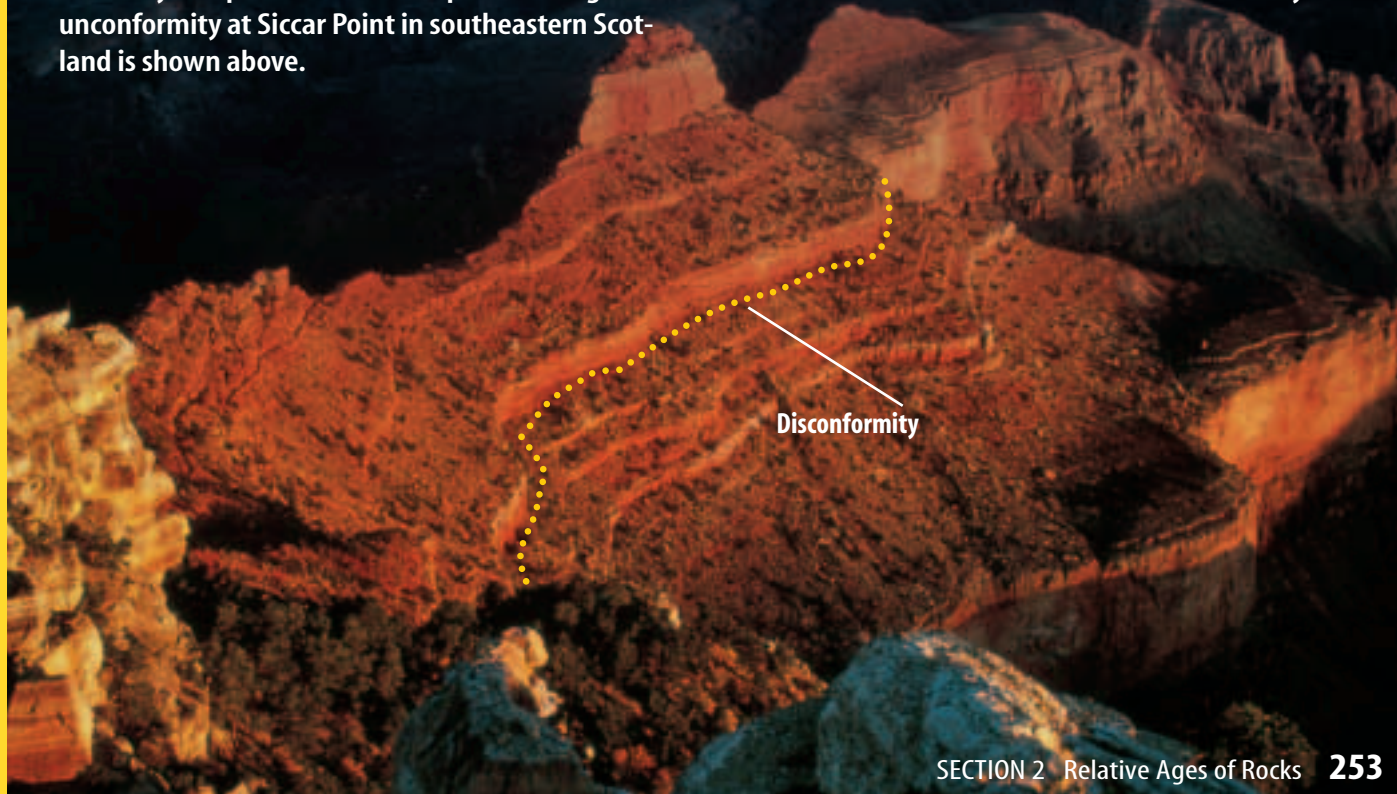


▲ In a nonconformity, horizontal layers of sedimentary rock overlie older igneous or metamorphic rocks. A nonconformity in Big Bend National Park, Texas, is shown above.



▲ An angular unconformity develops when new horizontal layers of sedimentary rock form on top of older sedimentary rock layers that have been folded by compression. An example of an angular unconformity at Siccar Point in southeastern Scotland is shown above.

▼ A disconformity develops when horizontal rock layers are exposed and eroded, and new horizontal layers of rock are deposited on the eroded surface. The disconformity shown below is in the Grand Canyon.





### Topic: Correlating with Index Fossils

Visit [blue.msscience.com](http://blue.msscience.com) for Web links to information about using index fossils to match up layers of rock.

**Activity** Make a chart that shows the rock layers of both the Grand Canyon and Capitol Reef National Park in Utah. For each layer that appears in both parks, list an index fossil you could find to correlate the layers.

**Figure 15** These rock layers, exposed at Hopi Point in Grand Canyon National Park, Arizona, can be correlated, or matched up, with rocks from across large areas of the western United States.

## Matching Up Rock Layers

Suppose you're studying a layer of sandstone in Bryce Canyon in Utah. Later, when you visit Canyonlands National Park, Utah, you notice that a layer of sandstone there looks just like the sandstone in Bryce Canyon, 250 km away. Above the sandstone in the Canyonlands is a layer of limestone and then another sandstone layer. You return to Bryce Canyon and find the same sequence—sandstone, limestone, and sandstone. What do you infer? It's likely that you're looking at the same layers of rocks in two different locations. **Figure 15** shows that these rocks are parts of huge deposits that covered this whole area of the western United States. Geologists often can match up, or correlate, layers of rocks over great distances.

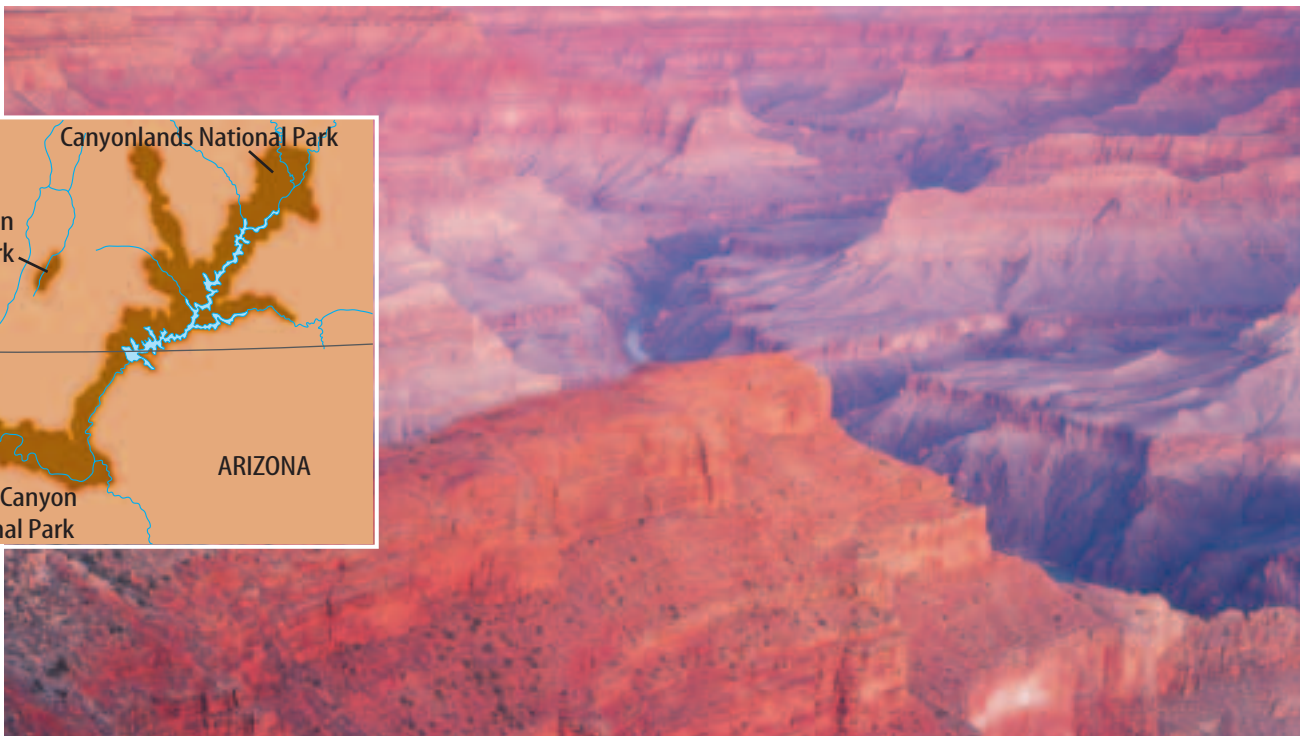
**Evidence Used for Correlation** It's not always easy to say that a rock layer exposed in one area is the same as a rock layer exposed in another area. Sometimes it's possible to walk along the layer for kilometers and prove that it's continuous. In other cases, such as at the Canyonlands area and Bryce Canyon as seen in **Figure 16**, the rock layers are exposed only where rivers have cut through overlying layers of rock and sediment. How can you show that the limestone sandwiched between the two layers of sandstone in Canyonlands is likely the same limestone as at Bryce Canyon? One way is to use fossil evidence. If the same types of fossils were found in the limestone layer in both places, it's a good indication that the limestone at each location is the same age, and, therefore, one continuous deposit.



### Reading Check

*How do fossils help show that rocks at different locations belong to the same rock layer?*

Jim Hughes/PhotoVenture/Visuals Unlimited



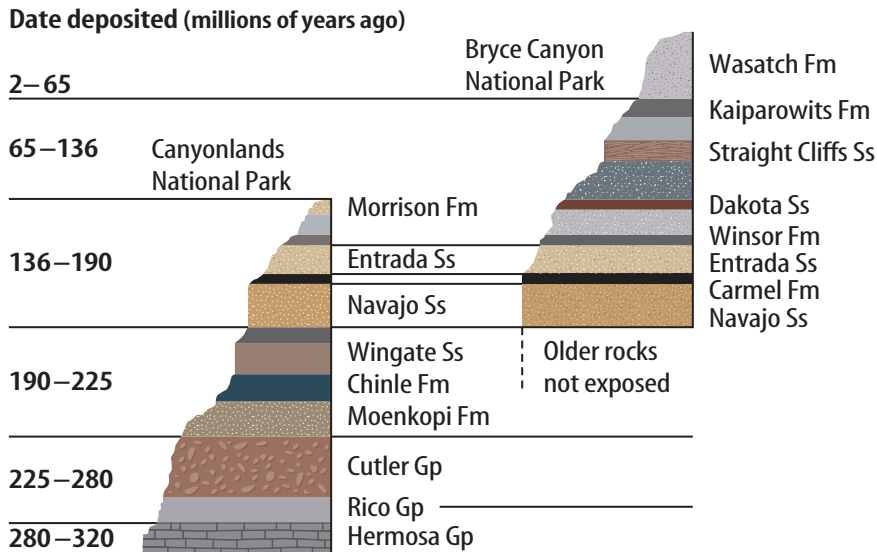




Canyonlands National Park



Bryce Canyon National Park



**Figure 16** Geologists have named the many rock layers, or formations, in Canyonlands and in Bryce Canyon, Utah. They also have correlated some formations between the two canyons. **List** the labeled layers present at both canyons.

Can layers of rock be correlated in other ways? Sometimes determining relative ages isn't enough and other dating methods must be used. In Section 3, you'll see how the numerical ages of rocks can be determined and how geologists have used this information to estimate the age of Earth.

## section 2 review

### Summary

#### Superposition

- Superposition states that in undisturbed rock, the oldest layers are on the bottom.

#### Relative Ages

- Rock layers can be ranked by relative age.

#### Unconformities

- Angular unconformities are new layers deposited over tilted and eroded rock layers.
- Disconformities are gaps in the rock record.
- Nonconformities divide uplifted igneous or metamorphic rock from new sedimentary rock.

#### Matching Up Rock Layers

- Rocks from different areas may be correlated if they are part of the same layer.

### Self Check

1. **Discuss** how to find the oldest paper in a stack of papers.
2. **Explain** the concept of relative age.
3. **Illustrate** a disconformity.
4. **Describe** one way to correlate similar rock layers.
5. **Think Critically** Explain the relationship between the concept of relative age and the principle of superposition.

### Applying Skills

6. **Interpret data** to determine the oldest rock bed. A sandstone contains a 400-million-year-old fossil. A shale has fossils that are over 500 million years old. A limestone, below the sandstone, contains fossils between 400 million and 500 million years old. Which rock bed is oldest? Explain.



## Relative Ages

Which of your two friends is older? To answer this question, you'd need to know their relative ages. You wouldn't need to know the exact age of either of your friends—just who was born first. The same is sometimes true for rock layers.

### Real-World Question

Can you determine the relative ages of rock layers?

#### Goals

- **Interpret** illustrations of rock layers and other geological structures and determine the relative order of events.

#### Materials

paper pencil

### Procedure

1. **Analyze** **Figures A and B.**
2. Make a sketch of **Figure A**. On it, identify the relative age of each rock layer, igneous intrusion, fault, and unconformity. For example, the shale layer is the oldest, so mark it with a 1. Mark the next-oldest feature with a 2, and so on.
3. Repeat step 2 for **Figure B**.

### Conclude and Apply

#### Figure A

1. **Identify** the type of unconformity shown. Is it possible that there were originally more layers of rock than are shown?
2. **Describe** how the rocks above the fault moved in relation to rocks below the fault.
3. **Hypothesize** how the hill on the left side of the figure formed.

**A**



**B**



	Granite		Limestone
	Sandstone		Shale

#### Figure B

4. Is it possible to conclude if the igneous intrusion on the left is older or younger than the unconformity nearest the surface?
5. **Describe** the relative ages of the two igneous intrusions. How did you know?
6. **Hypothesize** which two layers of rock might have been much thicker in the past.

### Communicating Your Data

**Compare** your results with other students' results. For more help, refer to the **Science Skill Handbook**.

# Absolute Ages of Rocks

## Absolute Ages

As you sort through your stack of magazines looking for that article about the car you saw, you decide that you need to restack them into a neat pile. By now, they're in a jumble and no longer in order of their relative age, as shown in **Figure 17**. How can you stack them so the oldest are on the bottom and the newest are on top? Fortunately, magazine dates are printed on the cover. Thus, stacking magazines in order is a simple process. Unfortunately, rocks don't have their ages stamped on them. Or do they? **Absolute age** is the age, in years, of a rock or other object. Geologists determine absolute ages by using properties of the atoms that make up materials.

## Radioactive Decay



Atoms consist of a dense central region called the nucleus, which is surrounded by a cloud of negatively charged particles called electrons. The nucleus is made up of protons, which have a positive charge, and neutrons, which have no electric charge. The number of protons determines the identity of the element, and the number of neutrons determines the form of the element, or isotope. For example, every atom with a single proton is a hydrogen atom. Hydrogen atoms can have no neutrons, a single neutron, or two neutrons. This means that there are three isotopes of hydrogen.



### Reading Check

*What particles make up an atom's nucleus?*

Some isotopes are unstable and break down into other isotopes and particles. Sometimes a lot of energy is given off during this process. The process of breaking down is called **radioactive decay**. In the case of hydrogen, atoms with one proton and two neutrons are unstable and tend to break down. Many other elements have stable and unstable isotopes.



### as you read

#### What You'll Learn

- **Identify** how absolute age differs from relative age.
- **Describe** how the half-lives of isotopes are used to determine a rock's age.

#### Why It's Important

Events in Earth's history can be better understood if their absolute ages are known.



#### Review Vocabulary

**isotopes:** atoms of the same element that have different numbers of neutrons

#### New Vocabulary

- absolute age
- radioactive decay
- half-life
- radiometric dating
- uniformitarianism

**Figure 17** The magazines that have been shuffled through no longer illustrate the principle of superposition.



## Mini LAB

### Modeling Carbon-14 Dating

#### Procedure

1. Count out 80 red jelly beans.
2. Remove half the red jelly beans and replace them with **green jelly beans**.
3. Continue replacing half the red jelly beans with green jelly beans until only 5 red jelly beans remain. Count the number of times you replace half the red jelly beans.

#### Analysis

1. How did this activity model the decay of carbon-14 atoms?
2. How many half lives of carbon-14 did you model during this activity?
3. If the atoms in a bone experienced the same number of half lives as your jelly beans, how old would the bone be?

**Figure 18** In beta decay, a neutron changes into a proton by giving off an electron. This electron has a lot of energy and is called a beta particle.

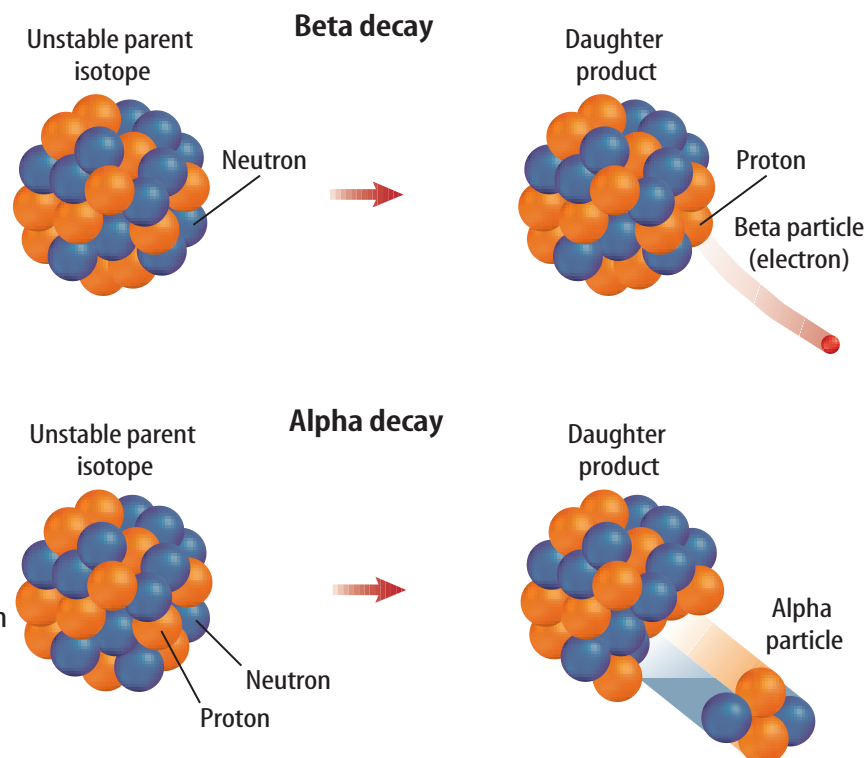


In the process of alpha decay, an unstable parent isotope nucleus gives off an alpha particle and changes into a new daughter product. Alpha particles contain two neutrons and two protons.



**Alpha and Beta Decay** In some isotopes, a neutron breaks down into a proton and an electron. This type of radioactive decay is called beta decay because the electron leaves the atom as a beta particle. The nucleus loses a neutron but gains a proton. When the number of protons in an atom is changed, a new element forms. Other isotopes give off two protons and two neutrons in the form of an alpha particle. Alpha and beta decay are shown in **Figure 18**.

**Half-Life** In radioactive decay reactions, the parent isotope undergoes radioactive decay. The daughter product is produced by radioactive decay. Each radioactive parent isotope decays to its daughter product at a certain rate. Based on this decay rate, it takes a certain period of time for one half of the parent isotope to decay to its daughter product. The **half-life** of an isotope is the time it takes for half of the atoms in the isotope to decay. For example, the half-life of carbon-14 is 5,730 years. So it will take 5,730 years for half of the carbon-14 atoms in an object to change into nitrogen-14 atoms. You might guess that in another 5,730 years, all of the remaining carbon-14 atoms will decay to nitrogen-14. However, this is not the case. Only half of the atoms of carbon-14 remaining after the first 5,730 years will decay during the second 5,730 years. So, after two half-lives, one fourth of the original carbon-14 atoms still remain. Half of them will decay during another 5,730 years. After three half-lives, one eighth of the original carbon-14 atoms still remain. After many half-lives, such a small amount of the parent isotope remains that it might not be measurable.



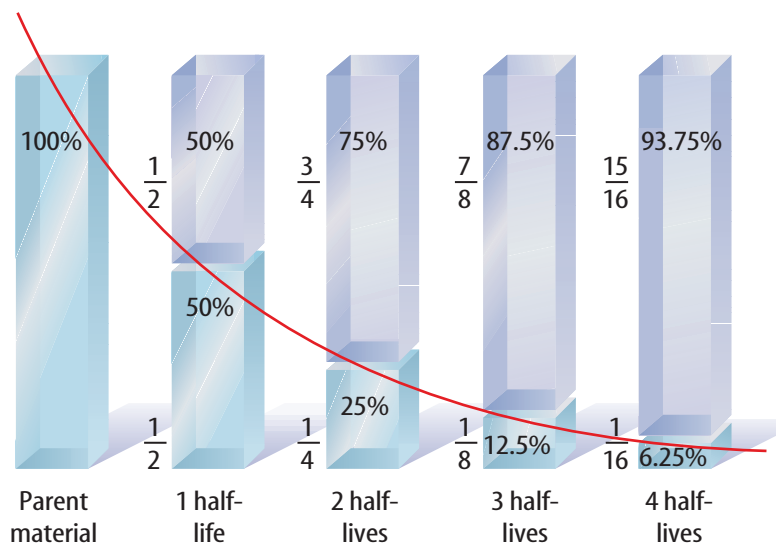


## Radiometric Ages

Decay of radioactive isotopes is like a clock keeping track of time that has passed since rocks have formed. As time passes, the amount of parent isotope in a rock decreases as the amount of daughter product increases, as in **Figure 19**. By measuring the ratio of parent isotope to daughter product in a mineral and by knowing the half-life of the parent, in many cases you can calculate the absolute age of a rock. This process is called **radiometric dating**.

A scientist must decide which parent isotope to use when measuring the age of a rock. If the object to be dated seems old, then the geologist will use an isotope with a long half-life. The half-life for the decay of potassium-40 to argon-40 is 1.25 billion years. As a result, this isotope can be used to date rocks that are many millions of years old. To avoid error, conditions must be met for the ratios to give a correct indication of age. For example, the rock being studied must still retain all of the argon-40 that was produced by the decay of potassium-40. Also, it cannot contain any contamination of daughter product from other sources. Potassium-argon dating is good for rocks containing potassium, but what about other things?

**Radiocarbon Dating** Carbon-14 is useful for dating bones, wood, and charcoal up to 75,000 years old. Living things take in carbon from the environment to build their bodies. Most of that carbon is carbon-12, but some is carbon-14, and the ratio of these two isotopes in the environment is always the same. After the organism dies, the carbon-14 slowly decays. By determining the amounts of the isotopes in a sample, scientists can evaluate how much the isotope ratio in the sample differs from that in the environment. For example, during much of human history, people built campfires. The wood from these fires often is preserved as charcoal. Scientists can determine the amount of carbon-14 remaining in a sample of charcoal by measuring the amount of radiation emitted by the carbon-14 isotope in labs like the one in **Figure 20**. Once they know the amount of carbon-14 in a charcoal sample, scientists can determine the age of the wood used to make the fire.



**Figure 19** During each half-life, one half of the parent material decays to the daughter product.

**Explain** how one uses both parent and daughter material to estimate age.

**Figure 20** Radiometric ages are determined in labs like this one.





### Topic: Isotopes in Ice Cores

Visit [blue.msscience.com](http://blue.msscience.com) for Web links to information about ice cores and how isotopes in ice are used to learn about Earth's past.

**Activity** Prepare a report that shows how isotopes in ice cores can tell us about past Earth environments. Include how these findings can help us understand today's climate.

**Age Determinations** Aside from carbon-14 dating, rocks that can be radiometrically dated are mostly igneous and metamorphic rocks. Most sedimentary rocks cannot be dated by this method. This is because many sedimentary rocks are made up of particles eroded from older rocks. Dating these pieces only gives the age of the preexisting rock from which it came.

**The Oldest Known Rocks** Radiometric dating has been used to date the oldest rocks on Earth. These rocks are about 3.96 billion years old. By determining the age of meteorites, and using other evidence, scientists have estimated the age of Earth to be about 4.5 billion years. Earth rocks greater than 3.96 billion years old probably were eroded or changed by heat and pressure.



### Reading Check

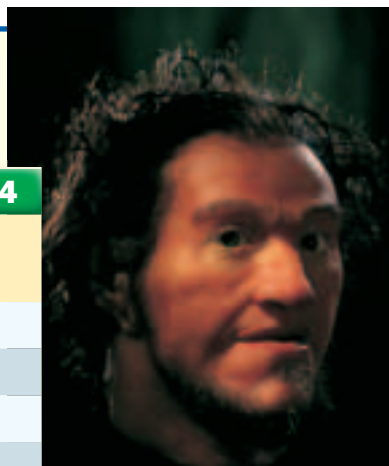
*Why can't most sedimentary rocks be dated radiometrically?*

## Applying Science

### When did the Iceman die?

**C**arbon-14 dating has been used to date charcoal, wood, bones, mummies from Egypt and Peru, the Dead Sea Scrolls, and the Italian Iceman. The Iceman was found in 1991 in the Italian Alps, near the Austrian border. Based on carbon-14 analysis, scientists determined that the Iceman is 5,300 years old. Determine approximately in what year the Iceman died.

Half-Life of Carbon-14	
Percent Carbon-14	Years Passed
100	0
50	5,730
25	11,460
12.5	17,190
6.25	22,920
3.125	



Reconstruction of Iceman

### Identifying the Problem

The half-life chart shows the decay of carbon-14 over time. Half-life is the time it takes for half of a sample to decay. Fill in the years passed when only 3.125 percent of carbon-14 remain. Is there a point at which no carbon-14 would be present? Explain.

### Solving the Problem

1. Estimate, using the data table, how much carbon-14 still was present in the Iceman's body that allowed scientists to determine his age.
2. If you had an artifact that originally contained 10.0 g of carbon-14, how many grams would remain after 17,190 years?



## Uniformitarianism

Can you imagine trying to determine the age of Earth without some of the information you know today? Before the discovery of radiometric dating, many people estimated that Earth is only a few thousand years old. But in the 1700s, Scottish scientist James Hutton estimated that Earth is much older. He used the principle of **uniformitarianism**. This principle states that Earth processes occurring today are similar to those that occurred in the past. Hutton's principle is often paraphrased as "the present is the key to the past."

Hutton observed that the processes that changed the landscape around him were slow, and he inferred that they were just as slow throughout Earth's history. Hutton hypothesized that it took much longer than a few thousand years to form the layers of rock around him and to erode mountains that once stood kilometers high. **Figure 21** shows Hutton's native Scotland, a region shaped by millions of years of geologic processes.

Today, scientists recognize that Earth has been shaped by two types of change: slow, everyday processes that take place over millions of years, and violent, unusual events such as the collision of a comet or asteroid about 65 million years ago that might have caused the extinction of the dinosaurs.



**Figure 21** The rugged highlands of Scotland were shaped by erosion and uplift.

### section 3 review

#### Summary

##### Absolute Ages

- The absolute age is the actual age of an object.

##### Radioactive Decay

- Some isotopes are unstable and decay into other isotopes and particles.
- Decay is measured in half-lives, the time it takes for half of a given isotope to decay.

##### Radiometric Ages

- By measuring the ratio of parent isotope to daughter product, one can determine the absolute age of a rock.
- Living organisms less than 75,000 years old can be dated using carbon-14.

##### Uniformitarianism

- Processes observable today are the same as the processes that took place in the past.

#### Self Check

1. **Evaluate** the age of rocks. You find three undisturbed rock layers. The middle layer is 120 million years old. What can you say about the ages of the layers above and below it?
2. **Determine** the age of a fossil if it had only one eighth of its original carbon-14 content remaining.
3. **Explain** the concept of uniformitarianism.
4. **Describe** how radioactive isotopes decay.
5. **Think Critically** Why can't scientists use carbon-14 to determine the age of an igneous rock?

#### Applying Math

6. **Make and use a table** that shows the amount of parent material of a radioactive element that is left after four half-lives if the original parent material had a mass of 100 g.



# Trace Fossils

## Goals

- **Construct** a model of trace fossils.
- **Describe** the information that you can learn from looking at your model.

## Possible Materials

construction paper  
wire  
plastic (a fairly rigid type)  
scissors  
plaster of paris  
toothpicks  
sturdy cardboard  
clay  
pipe cleaners  
glue

## Safety Precautions



## Real-World Question

Trace fossils can tell you a lot about the activities of organisms that left them. They can tell you how an organism fed or what kind of home it had. How can you model trace fossils that can provide information about the behavior of organisms? What materials can you use to model trace fossils? What types of behavior could you show with your trace fossil model?



## Make a Model

1. **Decide** how you are going to make your model. What materials will you need?
2. **Decide** what types of activities you will demonstrate with your model. Were the organisms feeding? Resting? Traveling? Were they predators? Prey? How will your model indicate the activities you chose?
3. What is the setting of your model? Are you modeling the organism's home? Feeding areas? Is your model on land or water? How can the setting affect the way you build your model?
4. Will you only show trace fossils from a single species or multiple species? If you include more than one species, how will you provide evidence of any interaction between the species?



## Check the Model Plans

1. Compare your plans with those of others in your class. Did other groups mention details that you had forgotten to think about? Are there any changes you would like to make to your plan before you continue?
2. Make sure your teacher approves your plan before you continue.

## Using Scientific Methods

### ▶ **Test Your Model**

1. Following your plan, construct your model of trace fossils.
2. Have you included evidence of all the behaviors you intended to model?

### ▶ **Analyze Your Data**

1. **Evaluate** Now that your model is complete, do you think that it adequately shows the behaviors you planned to demonstrate? Is there anything that you think you might want to do differently if you were going to make the model again?
2. **Describe** how using different kinds of materials might have affected your model. Can you think of other materials that would have allowed you to show more detail than you did?

### ▶ **Conclude and Apply**

1. **Compare and contrast** your model of trace fossils with trace fossils left by real organisms. Is one more easily interpreted than the other? Explain.
2. **List** behaviors that might not leave any trace fossils. Explain.

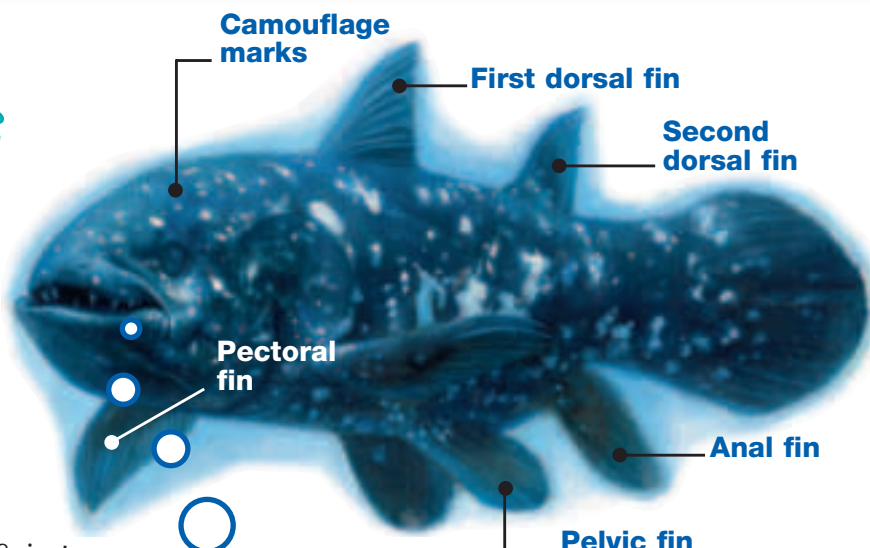
### **Communicating** **Your Data**

Ask other students in your class or another class to look at your model and describe what information they can learn from the trace fossils. Did their interpretations agree with what you intended to show?



## The World's Oldest Fish Story

*A catch-of-the-day  
set science on  
its ears*



**O**n a December day in 1938, just before Christmas, Marjorie Courtenay-Latimer went to say hello to her friends on board a fishing boat that had just returned to port in South Africa. Courtenay-Latimer, who worked at a museum, often went aboard her friends' ship to check out the catch. On this visit, she received a surprise Christmas present—an odd-looking fish. As soon as the woman spotted its strange blue fins among the piles of sharks and rays, she knew it was special.

Courtenay-Latimer took the fish back to her museum to study it. "It was the most beautiful fish I had ever seen, five feet long, and a pale mauve blue with iridescent silver markings," she later wrote. Courtenay-Latimer sketched it and sent the drawing to a friend of hers, J. L. B. Smith.

Smith was a chemistry teacher who was passionate about fish. After a time, he realized it was a coelacanth (SEE luh kanth). Fish experts knew that coelacanths had first appeared on Earth 400 million years ago. But the experts thought the fish were extinct. People had found fossils of coelacanths, but

**Some scientists call the coelacanth "Old Four Legs." It got its nickname because the fish has paired fins that look something like legs.**

no one had seen one alive. It was assumed that the last coelacanth species had died out 65 million years ago. They were wrong. The ship's crew had caught one by accident.

Smith figured there might be more living coelacanths. So he decided to offer a reward for anyone who could find a living specimen. After 14 years of silence, a report came in that a coelacanth had been caught off the east coast of Africa.

Today, scientists know that there are at least several hundred coelacanths living in the Indian Ocean, just east of central Africa. Many of these fish live near the Comoros Islands. The coelacanths live in underwater caves during the day but move out at night to feed. The rare fish are now a protected species. With any luck, they will survive for another hundred million years.

**Write** a short essay describing the discovery of the coelacanths and describe the reaction of scientists to this discovery.

**Science online**

For more information, visit  
[blue.msscience.com/oops](http://blue.msscience.com/oops)



### Reviewing Main Ideas

#### Section 1 Fossils

1. Fossils are more likely to form if hard parts of the dead organisms are buried quickly.
2. Some fossils form when original materials that made up the organisms are replaced with minerals. Other fossils form when remains are subjected to heat and pressure, leaving only a carbon film behind. Some fossils are the tracks or traces left by ancient organisms.

#### Section 2 Relative Ages of Rocks

1. The principle of superposition states that, in undisturbed layers, older rocks lie underneath younger rocks.

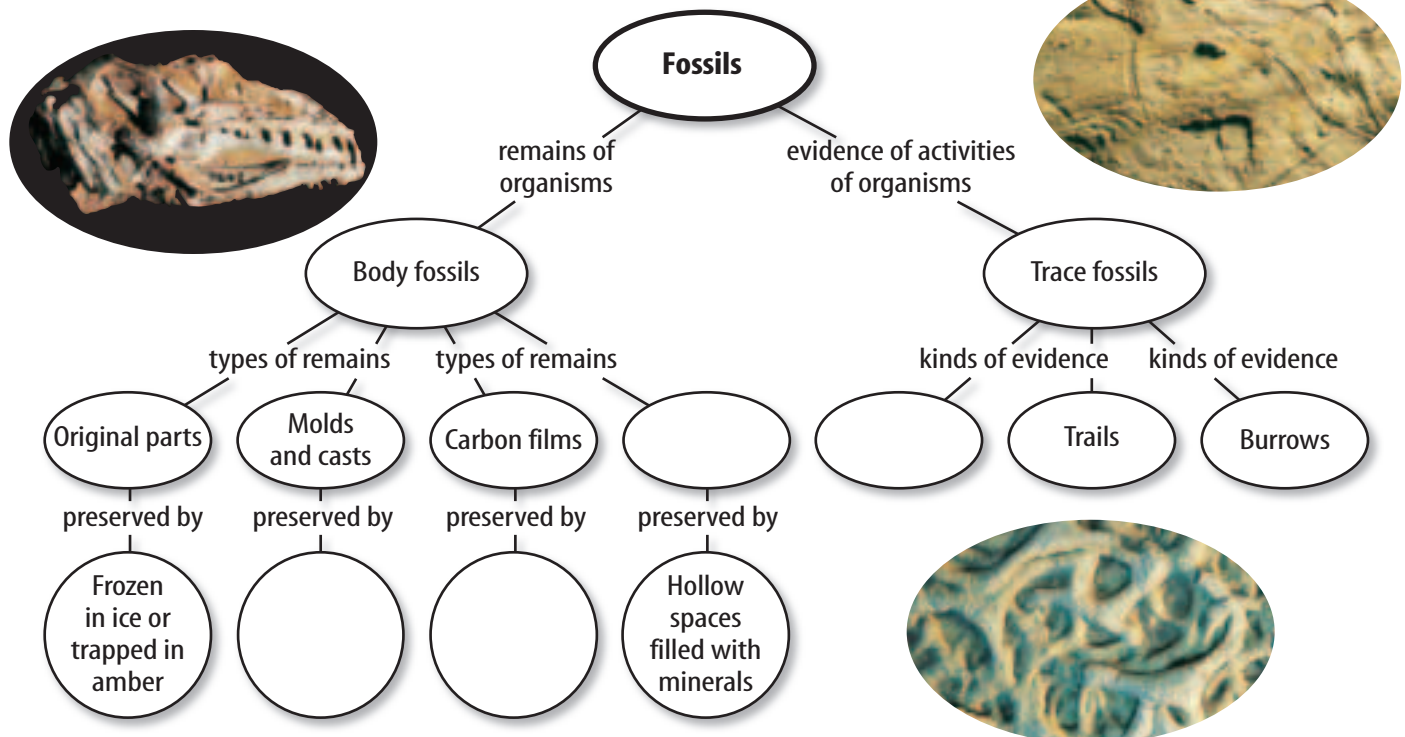
2. Unconformities, or gaps in the rock record, are due to erosion or periods of time during which no deposition occurred.
3. Rock layers can be correlated using rock types and fossils.

#### Section 3 Absolute Ages of Rocks

1. Absolute dating provides an age in years for the rocks.
2. The half-life of a radioactive isotope is the time it takes for half of the atoms of the isotope to decay into another isotope.

### Visualizing Main Ideas

Copy and complete the following concept map on fossils.



## Using Vocabulary

absolute age p. 257	principle of superposition p. 250
carbon film p. 244	radioactive decay p. 257
cast p. 245	radiometric dating p. 259
fossil p. 243	relative age p. 251
half-life p. 258	unconformity p. 252
index fossil p. 247	uniformitarianism p. 261
mold p. 245	
permineralized remains p. 244	

Write an original sentence using the vocabulary word to which each phrase refers.

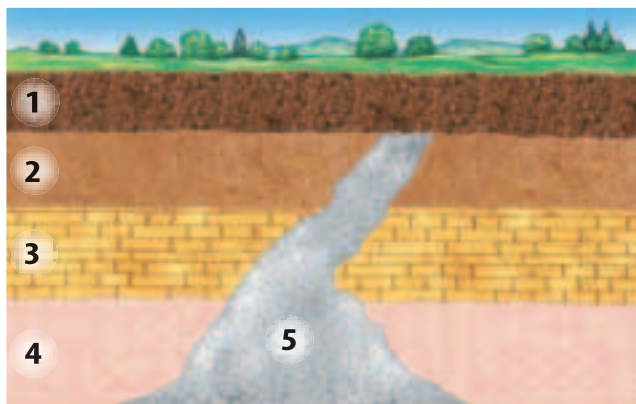
- thin film of carbon preserved as a fossil
- older rocks lie under younger rocks
- processes occur today as they did in the past
- gap in the rock record
- time needed for half the atoms to decay
- fossil organism that lived for a short time
- gives the age of rocks in years
- minerals fill spaces inside fossil
- a copy of a fossil produced by filling a mold with sediment or crystals

## Checking Concepts

Choose the word or phrase that best answers the question.

- What is any evidence of ancient life called?
  - half-life
  - fossil
  - unconformity
  - disconformity
- Which of the following conditions makes fossil formation more likely?
  - buried slowly
  - attacked by scavengers
  - made of hard parts
  - composed of soft parts
- What are cavities left in rocks when a shell or bone dissolves called?
  - casts
  - molds
  - original remains
  - carbon films
- To say “the present is the key to the past” is a way to describe which of the following principles?
  - superposition
  - succession
  - radioactivity
  - uniformitarianism
- A fault can be useful in determining which of the following for a group of rocks?
  - absolute age
  - index age
  - radiometric age
  - relative age
- Which of the following is an unconformity between parallel rock layers?
  - angular unconformity
  - fault
  - disconformity
  - nonconformity

Use the illustration below to answer question 16.



- Which of the following puts the layers in order from oldest to youngest?
  - 5-4-3-2-1
  - 1-2-3-4-5
  - 2-3-4-5-1
  - 4-3-2-5-1
- Which process forms new elements?
  - superposition
  - uniformitarianism
  - permineralization
  - radioactive decay

## Thinking Critically

18. **Explain** why the fossil record of life on Earth is incomplete. Give some reasons why.
19. **Infer** Suppose a lava flow was found between two sedimentary rock layers. How could you use the lava flow to learn about the ages of the sedimentary rock layers? (*Hint: Most lava contains radioactive isotopes.*)
20. **Infer** Suppose you're correlating rock layers in the western United States. You find a layer of volcanic ash deposits. How can this layer help you in your correlation over a large area?
21. **Recognize Cause and Effect** Explain how some woolly mammoths could have been preserved intact in frozen ground. What conditions must have persisted since the deaths of these animals?
22. **Classify** each of the following fossils in the correct category in the table below: *dinosaur footprint, worm burrow, dinosaur skull, insect in amber, fossil woodpecker hole, and fish tooth.*

Types of Fossils	
Trace Fossils	Body Fossils
Do not write in this book.	

23. **Compare and contrast** the three different kinds of unconformities. Draw sketches of each that illustrate the features that identify them.
24. **Describe** how relative and absolute ages differ. How might both be used to establish ages in a series of rock layers?

25. **Discuss** uniformitarianism in the following scenario. You find a shell on the beach, and a friend remembers seeing a similar fossil while hiking in the mountains. What does this suggest about the past environment of the mountain?

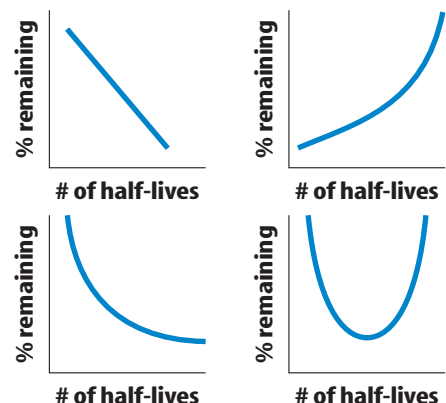
## Performance Activities

26. **Illustrate** Create a model that allows you to explain how to establish the relative ages of rock layers.
27. **Use a Classification System** Start your own fossil collection. Label each find as to type, approximate age, and the place where it was found. Most state geological surveys can provide you with reference materials on local fossils.

## Applying Math

28. **Calculate** how many half-lives have passed in a rock containing one-eighth the original radioactive material and seven-eighths of the daughter product.

Use the graphs below to answer question 29.



29. **Interpret Data** Which of the above curves best illustrates radioactive decay?



**Part 1 Multiple Choice**

Record your answers on the answer sheet provided by your teacher or on a sheet of paper.

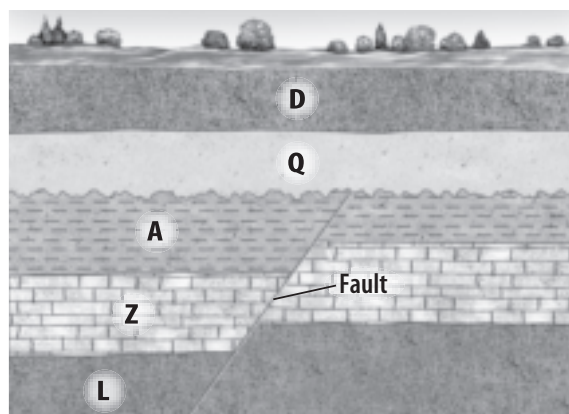
Use the photo below to answer question 1.



- Which type of fossil preservation is shown above?
  - trace fossil
  - original remains
  - carbon film
  - permineralized remains
- Which principle states that the oldest rock layer is found at the bottom in an undisturbed stack of rock layers?
  - half-life
  - absolute dating
  - superposition
  - uniformitarianism
- Which type of scientist studies fossils?
  - meteorologist
  - chemist
  - astronomer
  - paleontologist
- Which are the remains of species that existed on Earth for relatively short periods of time, were abundant, and were widespread geographically?
  - trace fossils
  - index fossils
  - carbon films
  - body fossils
- Which term means matching up rock layers in different places?
  - superposition
  - correlation
  - uniformitarianism
  - absolute dating
- Which of the following is least likely to be found as a fossil?
  - clam shell
  - shark tooth
  - snail shell
  - jellyfish imprint

- Which type of fossil preservation is a thin carbon silhouette of the original organism?
  - cast
  - carbon film
  - mold
  - permineralized remains
- Which isotope is useful for dating wood and charcoal that is less than about 75,000 years old?
  - carbon-14
  - potassium-40
  - uranium-238
  - argon-40

Use the diagram below to answer questions 9–11.



- Which sequence of letters describes the rock layers in the diagram from oldest to youngest?
  - D, Q, A, Z, L
  - L, Z, A, Q, D
  - Z, L, A, D, Q
  - Q, D, L, Z, A
- What does the wavy line between layers A and Q represent?
  - a disconformity
  - a fault
  - a nonconformity
  - an angular unconformity
- Which of the following correctly describes the relative age of the fault?
  - younger than A, but older than Q
  - younger than Z, but older than L
  - younger than Q, but older than A
  - younger than D, but older than Q

**Part 2 Short Response/Grid In**

Record your answers on the answer sheet provided by your teacher or on a sheet of paper.

12. What is a fossil?
13. How is a fossil cast different from a fossil mold?
14. Describe the principle of uniformitarianism.
15. Explain how the original remains of an insect can be preserved as a fossil in amber.
16. Why do scientists hypothesize that Earth is about 4.5 billion years old?
17. Describe the process of radioactive decay. Use the terms *isotope*, *nucleus*, and *half-life* in your answer.

Use the table below to answer questions 18–20.

Number of Half-lives	Parent Isotope Remaining (%)
1	100
2	X
3	25
4	12.5
5	Y

18. What value should replace the letter X in the table above?
19. What value should replace the letter Y in the table above?
20. Explain the relationship between the number of half-lives that have elapsed and the amount of parent isotope remaining.
21. Compare and contrast the three types of unconformities.
22. Why are index fossils useful for estimating the age of rock layers?

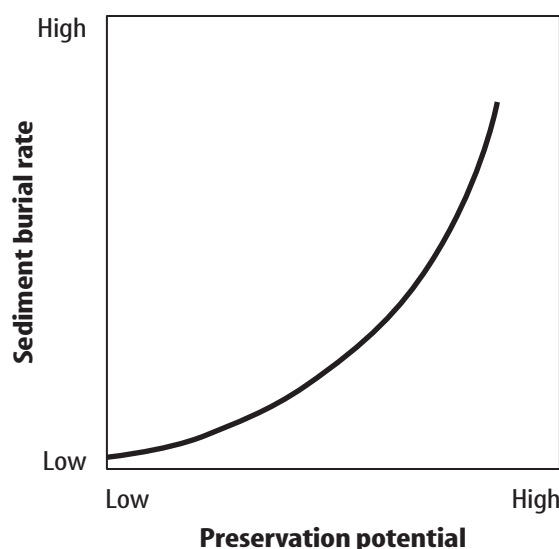
**Part 3 Open Ended**

Record your answers on a sheet of paper.

23. Why are fossils important? What information do they provide?
24. List three different types of trace fossils. Explain how each type forms.

Examine the graph below and answer questions 25–27.

**Relationship Between Sediment Burial Rate and Potential for Remains to Become Fossils**



25. How does the potential for remains to be preserved change as the rate of burial by sediment increases?
26. Why do you think this relationship exists?
27. What other factors affect the potential for the remains of organisms to become fossils?
28. How could a fossil of an organism that lived in ocean water millions of years ago be found in the middle of North America?

**Test-Taking Tip**

**Check It Again** Double check your answers before turning in the test.