

Common Minerals

OBJECTIVES

- To develop a logical and systematic approach to mineral identification
- To be able to recognize some of the common rock-forming minerals
- To become familiar with the classification system of minerals, particularly the silicate minerals
- To become familiar with some resource minerals

In this chapter, we will work with minerals to identify them, recognize them, classify them, and think about them as resources. By approaching mineral *identification* systematically and logically, even a beginner can distinguish a surprising number of minerals. Minerals generally have no “fingerprint,” or single property that sets them apart from others, but you can tell them apart by *combinations* of physical properties. The layout of identification tables (such as Tables 2.5 and 2.6, on pp. 24–28) lets you search through properties to find the name of a mineral.

In contrast to identification, for mineral *recognition* you must learn to connect a set of physical properties with the name of the mineral. This takes some practice, just as it takes a while to link names with faces in a new group of people.

More than 3000 different mineral species occur in rocks. The majority belong to the mineral classes or groups listed in ■ Table 2.1. Most of the 3000, however, are rare. Many of them are valuable resources. Silicates are the most abundant minerals. They include a large proportion of the rock-forming minerals, which make up the majority of rocks at the Earth’s surface. Recognizing common rock-forming minerals

is necessary to distinguish and interpret rocks correctly. You are only required to remember the most commonly occurring minerals, which will later aid in the identification of rocks, and perhaps a few common and easily recognized resource minerals (listed in ■ Tables 2.2 and 2.3). Your instructor may also ask you to identify a few minerals you have never seen before, to determine how well you have mastered the techniques of identification.

Table 2.1

Composition of Mineral Groups

Mineral Group	Chemical Makeup
Silicates	Contain silicon (Si) and oxygen (O) at least
Carbonates	CO ₃ plus metal(s)
Sulfates	SO ₄ plus metal(s)
Sulfides	S plus metal(s)
Oxides	O plus metal(s) without other nonmetals (no Si, C, P, S, V, or W)
Hydroxides	OH plus metal(s) without other nonmetals
Phosphates	PO ₄ plus metal(s)
Halides	F, Cl, Br, or I plus metal(s) without other nonmetals
Native elements	Occur in elemental form (one element only)

Table 2.2

Common Rock-Forming Minerals — Silicate Mineral Group

Mineral	Chemical Formula	Silicate Subclass
1. Olivine¹ Topaz	$(\text{Mg,Fe})_2\text{SiO}_4$ $\text{Al}_2\text{SiO}_5(\text{F,OH})_2$	<i>Nesosilicates</i> (isolated Si tetrahedra)
2. Garnet² Varieties: almandine, grossular	$(\text{Mg,Fe,Ca,Mn})_3(\text{Al,Fe,Cr})_2(\text{SiO}_4)_3$	
Tourmaline Beryl	$(\text{Na,Ca})(\text{Li,Mg,Al})_3(\text{Al,Fe,Mn})_6(\text{BO}_3)_3(\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{18})(\text{OH})_4$ $\text{Be}_3\text{Al}_2(\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{18})$	<i>Cyclosilicates</i> (ring silicates)
<i>Pyroxenes:</i>		<i>Inosilicates</i> (chain silicates)
3. Augite Diopside	$(\text{Ca,Na})(\text{Mg,Fe,Al})(\text{Si,Al})_2\text{O}_6$ $\text{CaMgSi}_2\text{O}_6$	<i>Single chain</i>
<i>Amphiboles:</i>		<i>Double chain</i>
4. Hornblende Actinolite	$(\text{Ca,Na})_{2-3}(\text{Mg,Fe,Al})_5\text{Si}_6(\text{Si,Al})_2\text{O}_{22}(\text{OH})_2$ $\text{Ca}_2(\text{Mg,Fe})_5\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{22}(\text{OH})_2$	
Talc	$\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$	<i>Phyllosilicates</i> (sheet silicates)
5. Kaolin Chlorite	$\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$ $(\text{Mg,Fe})_3(\text{Si,Al})_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot (\text{Mg,Fe})_3(\text{OH})_6$	
<i>Micas:</i>		
6. Biotite 7. Muscovite	$\text{K}(\text{Mg,Fe})_3(\text{AlSi}_3\text{O}_{10})(\text{OH})_2$ $\text{KAl}_2(\text{AlSi}_3\text{O}_{10})(\text{OH})_2$	
8. Feldspars: Alkali feldspars Plagioclase feldspars	$(\text{K,Na})\text{AlSi}_3\text{O}_8$ $(\text{Na,Ca})\text{Al}_{1-2}\text{Si}_{3-2}\text{O}_8$	<i>Tectosilicates</i> (framework silicates)
9. Quartz Varieties: amethyst, rock crystal, smoky quartz, milky quartz, rose quartz Microcrystalline and amorphous varieties: chert, flint, jasper, agate, chalcedony (Amorphous solids are not tectosilicates; in fact, they are not even minerals, and are called <i>mineraloids</i> instead. Recall that a mineral must be crystalline.)	SiO_2	

¹Important rock-forming minerals are numbered and shown in bold.

²Mineral-group names are shown in italics.

CLASSIFICATION OF MINERALS

Mineral species are primarily classified on the basis of their nonmetal elements (see Table 2.1). Exceptions include minerals made up of only one element; all such minerals belong to the mineral group called the native elements. In a chemical formula of a compound (not a native element), the first part usually lists the metals; the second part, the non-metals. Table 2.1 shows the chemical makeup for the primary mineral groups. Notice that all the mineral groups ending with *-ate* contain oxygen, and those ending with *-ide* do not contain oxygen unless *ox* is part of

the name. Table 2.2 has examples of silicates. We will study silicate classification in more detail in later exercises. Table 2.3 lists some minerals (with formulas) belonging to other groups. Many non-silicate minerals are important resources, which we will discuss in the last two exercises.

1. Look at the mineral formulas listed in ■ Table 2.4, and fill in the mineral group name based on the chemical formulas. Refer to Table 2.1. Your instructor may have samples of these minerals to show you.

Table 2.3

Nonsilicate Mineral Groups, Common Rock-Forming Minerals and Some Resource Minerals

Mineral	Chemical Formula	Mineral Group	
10. Dolomite	$\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$	Carbonates Basic unit: (CO_3)	
11. Calcite	CaCO_3		
Varieties: Iceland spar, onyx, calcite chalk, travertine			
Malachite	$\text{Cu}_2\text{CO}_3(\text{OH})_2$		
Azurite	$\text{Cu}_3(\text{CO}_3)_2(\text{OH})_2$		
12. Gypsum	$\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	Sulfates Basic unit: (SO_4)	
Varieties: alabaster, satin spar, selenite			
Galena	PbS	Sulfides S plus a metal(s)	
13. Pyrite	FeS_2		
Sphalerite	ZnS		
Corundum	Al_2O_3	Oxides O plus a metal(s)	
14. Magnetite	Fe_3O_4		
15. Hematite	Fe_2O_3		
Limonite	$\text{FeO} \cdot \text{OH} \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$	Hydroxides (OH) plus metal(s)	
Apatite	$\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3(\text{F,Cl,OH})$	Phosphates Basic unit: PO_4	
Fluorite	CaF_2	Halides Halogen ion present	
16. Halite	NaCl		
Metals:		Nonmetals:	
Silver	Ag	Diamond	C
Gold	Au	Graphite	C
Platinum	Pt	Sulfur	S
Copper	Cu		
Iron	Fe		
			Native elements Occur in elemental form

Table 2.4

Group Identification (Exercise 1)

Mineral Name	Formula	Mineral Group
Sylvite	KCl	
Chalcopyrite	CuFeS_2	
Sulfur	S	
Tremolite	$\text{Ca}_2(\text{Mg,Fe})_5\text{Si}_8\text{O}_{22}(\text{OH})_2$	
Rutile	TiO_2	
Anhydrite	CaSO_4	

STRATEGY FOR MINERAL IDENTIFICATION

Successful mineral identification requires systematic application of the skills in determining physical properties you learned in Lab 1. Properties such as hardness, luster, streak, and cleavage usually indicate the identity of a mineral. *Use of photographs*, such as those in Figures 1.9 and 1.10, *cannot replace close examination of a mineral's physical properties*. For example, examine the photographs of talc and milky quartz in Figure 1.9e and m, on pp. 12–14, respectively. The hardness (1 versus 7) and even the luster (pearly versus vitreous) do not come across in the photographs. Avoid relying on a property such as color. Color is highly variable in many minerals, and different minerals can come in the same color. Would you identify a particular car as a Porsche, say, just because it was painted red? In the lab don't try to

guess the mineral and then look up its properties. This would be like buying a red car, calling it a Porsche, and then being surprised when it wouldn't go 148 mph. In nature (and perhaps in your tests or quizzes) different specimens of the same mineral can display quite a wide variety of appearances, but many of their specific physical properties will always be the same.

A useful strategy is to use mineral tables methodically, as illustrated in the maze in ■ Figure 2.1. The mineral tables in this book are ■ Tables 2.5 and 2.6, on pp. 24 and 25–28.

- Determine the luster of the mineral first (the top of the maze, Figure 2.1) and then go to the appropriate set of tables.
- For metallic minerals, the streak can be quite useful, so test the streak next; then proceed to identify the mineral, using Table 2.5.
- For nonmetallic minerals, test the hardness with glass ($H = 5\frac{1}{2}$) and check for cleavage; then go to the appropriate section in Table 2.6.
- You can probably now identify the mineral from the remaining possible choices simply by checking color, and further refining hardness, luster, and cleavage.

If you use the maze in Figure 2.1, you will successfully follow the procedure just described. Identification then becomes a process of elimination.

2. Practice the systematic method of mineral identification on the five samples provided by following the maze in Figure 2.1. Write your answers directly in the maze. Each sample in this set should guide you to follow a different path. For the last step in the maze, determining the mineral group, first use the chemical formula or composition

information from the identification tables; then go to Tables 2.1 through 2.3 to determine the mineral group.

3. Finish the Mineral Identification Chart in Table 1.12, on p. 3 for a set of “unknown” minerals. Use the procedure in Exercise 2, following the maze in Figure 2.1, to recognize a mineral you may have already started mineral identification on in Lab 1. Now, by following the maze, you can finish the last two columns. Check your final identification by comparing your unknown sample with the properties listed in the Mineral Tables 2.5 and 2.6, and if available, with a mineral reference set of labeled samples provided by your instructor. The procedure will be slow at first, but it will go more quickly with practice.

USING THE MINERAL IDENTIFICATION TABLES (TABLES 2.5 AND 2.6)

Tables 2.5 and 2.6 on the following pages will help you identify unknown mineral specimens. The two main subdivisions are minerals with metallic lusters (Table 2.5) and minerals with nonmetallic luster (Table 2.6). Each section starts with the hardest mineral and ends with the softest. Follow the maze (Figure 2.1) for the first few specimens to learn the correct methodical approach. The abbreviations are CL = cleavage, P = parting, L = luster, S = streak, F = fracture, D = density (in g/cm^3) or specific gravity (no units).

Text continued on p. 29

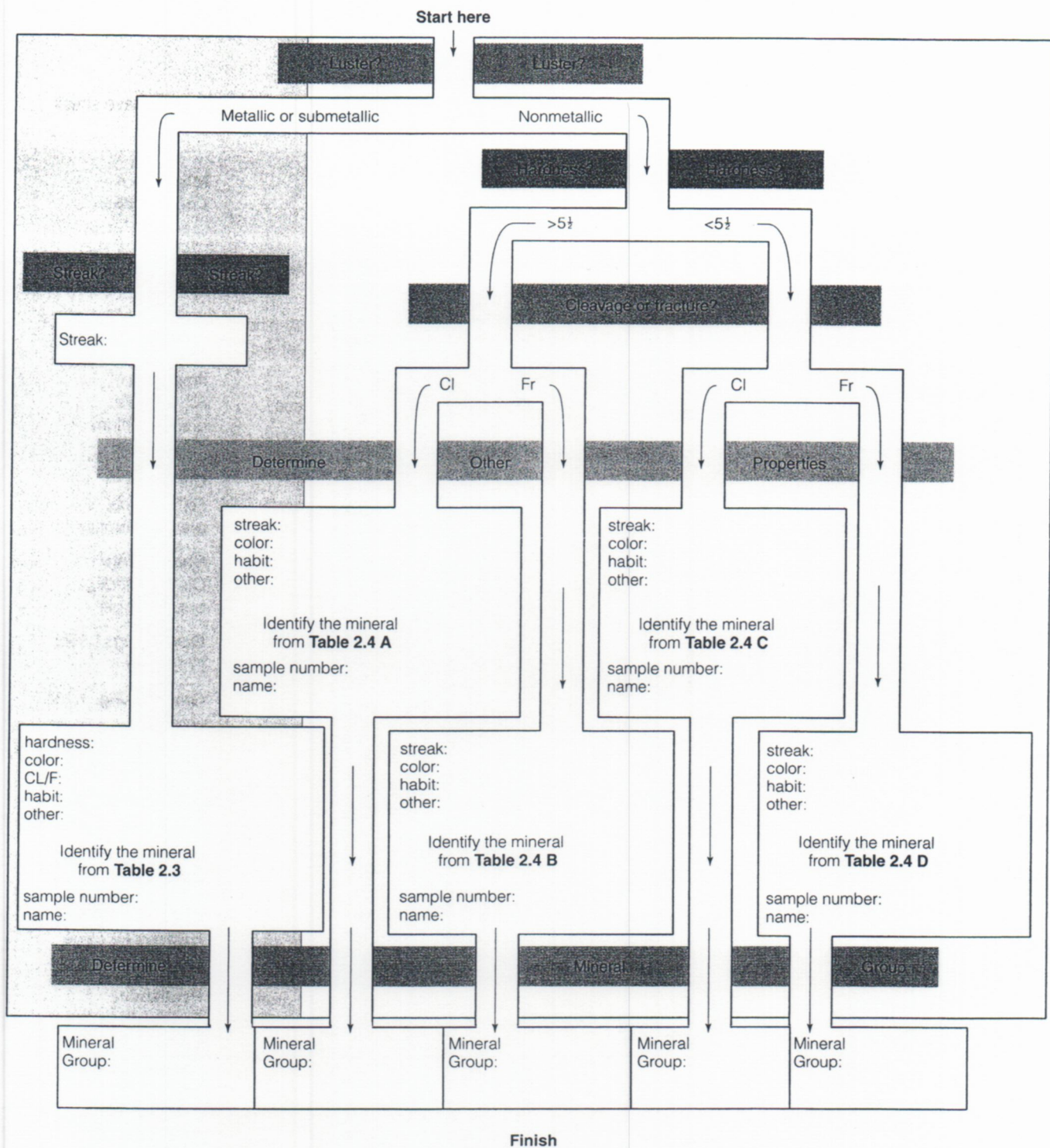


Figure 2.1

Maze for systematic mineral identification (and Exercise 2): Select a mineral sample and follow the maze with that sample in mind. At each shaded region, test the sample (or refer to the tests made in Lab 1 for that sample) and decide which path to follow based on the resulting mineral property.

Table 2.5

Minerals with Metallic and Submetallic Luster

Table 2.5 is divided into two subdivisions: dark streak and medium streak. Generally, minerals with metallic lusters have streak colors that are diagnostic. Especially diagnostic properties are shown in bold.

Streak	Color	Hardness	Comments	Mineral Composition
Dark streak: green-black to	Brass yellow	6–6½	“Fool’s gold”; S = green-black; D = 5.0; cubic or pyritohedral crystals; F = irregular	Pyrite (Fig. 1.10d) <i>Fe sulfide</i>
	Black	6	Strongly magnetic; D = 5.2; S = black to gray-black; F = irregular; octahedral crystals; L = submetallic	Magnetite (Fig. 1.10f) <i>Fe oxide, ore of iron</i>
	Iron-black	5½–6	S = black to brownish red; L = metallic to submetallic; D = 4.7; may be slightly magnetic; platy crystals, common accessory in sand, sandstone, and igneous rocks	Ilmenite <i>Fe, Ti oxide, ore of titanium</i>
dark brown to	Iron-black to brownish black	5½	S = dark brown; submetallic luster; granular aggregates; D = 4.6. Color and streak are diagnostic.	Chromite <i>Fe, Cr oxide, ore of chromium</i>
	Brass yellow	3½–4	Called “peacock ore” because of the iridescent purple tarnish; S = green-black; D = 4.1–4.3	Chalcopyrite <i>Cu, Fe sulfide, ore of copper</i>
gray-black	Gun metal gray	2½	CL = 3 at right angles (perfect cubic CL); S = lead gray; D = 7.6; very bright metallic luster	Galena (Fig. 1.10c) <i>Pb sulfide</i>
	Iron black/steel gray	1–2	Soils fingers; S = dark gray; D = 2.2; L = metallic to submetallic; greasy feel	Graphite (Fig. 1.10j) <i>Native C</i>
Medium streak: pale brown to red-brown to yellow-brown to	Brown to black	6–6½	S = pale brown; D = 4.2; prismatic crystals, sometimes in quartz (<i>rutilated quartz</i>); found in black sand	Rutile <i>Ti oxide, ore of titanium</i>
	Steel gray	5–6½ flakes	Specular variety is bright metallic and steel gray. S = red-brown to brown; D = 5.3; F = irregular; aggregate of tabular crystals (“micaceous” hematite)	Specular hematite (Fig. 1.10g) <i>Fe oxide ore of iron</i>
	Dark to brown to black	5–5½	S = yellow-brown; D = 3.3–5½; F = irregular. Luster may be obscured by hydration. “Limonite” is often used to name any hydrous iron oxide.	Limonite <i>Hydrous Fe oxide, ore of iron</i>
to	Yellowish-bronze	3½–4	S = light bronze brown; octahedral parting; granular aggregates; D = 4.6	Pentlandite <i>Fe Ni sulfide, ore of nickel</i>
yellow	Dark brown to yellow	3½–4	Variiegated appearance common; L = resinous, adamantine, or submetallic; S = yellow to brown and lighter than sample; D = 3.9–4.1; CL = 6 good planes	Sphalerite (Fig. 1.10 e) <i>Zn sulfide, ore of zinc</i>
to	Shades of yellow	2½–3	S = gold yellow — shiny; plates, flakes, or nuggets; D = 19.3 when pure; very malleable and ductile; color yellow, paler with increasing silver content	Gold <i>Native Au, ore of gold</i>
coppery red	Copper (red)	2½–3	Malleable and ductile; S = copper brown; D = 8.9; L = metallic, but surface is often tarnished and may be oxidized to blue; branching crystals	Copper <i>Native Cu, ore of copper</i>

Table 2.6

Minerals with Nonmetallic Luster

Table 2.6 consists of four sections, one page each, as follows:

Section A: Minerals harder than glass with cleavage or parting

Section B: Minerals harder than glass with fracture

Section C: Minerals softer than glass with cleavage

Section D: Minerals softer than glass with apparent fracture

Section A: Minerals that show cleavage or parting and $H \geq$ glass*

Streak	Color	Hardness	Comments	Mineral Composition
No streak	Colorless to pale yellow, color varies	10 — hardest known substance	CL = 4 directions perfect $\neq 90^\circ$, octahedral cleavage; crystals usually octahedrons; D = 3.5; L = adamantine to greasy; high brilliance due to high index of refraction. Color commonly pale yellow to colorless but may be pale shades of red, orange, green, blue, or brown. Hardness, luster, and cleavage are diagnostic.	Diamond <i>Native C</i>
	Brown to pink; almost any color	9 — test on a fresh surface	P = basal. Hardness is diagnostic; D = 3.9–4.1; L = vitreous to adamantine. Hexagonal prismatic crystals that narrow toward the ends. Gem varieties include ruby (red) and sapphire (blue).	Corundum <i>Al oxide</i>
	Colorless, yellow, white, pink, blue, green	8	CL = 1 direction, basal; D = 3.4–3.6; L = vitreous. Hardness is diagnostic.	Topaz <i>Al, F, OH silicate with single tetrahedra</i>
	Blue-green or yellow	7½–8	CL = 1 imperfect, uneven F is more apparent; D = 2.6–2.8. Some gem varieties are aquamarine, emerald (deep green), and rose beryl.	Beryl <i>Be, Al ring silicate</i>
	Pink reddish-brown, olive green	7½	CL = 2 directions near 90° ; nearly square prisms; D = 3.2; L = vitreous; dark cruciform cross in cross section.	Andalusite <i>Al silicate</i>
	Blue to gray	7 and 5 depending on direction	CL = 1 direction; bladed crystals; D = 3.6–3.7; L = vitreous to pearly; H = 7 perpendicular to blades and H = 5 parallel to blades; blue color and different hardness in different directions are diagnostic.	Kyanite <i>Al silicate</i>
	Colorless to brown or pale green	6–7	CL = 1 direction; fibrous to acicular; D = 3.2; L = vitreous.	Sillimanite <i>Al silicate</i>
	White, cream, gray, salmon to dark pink	6	CL = 2 good planes at 90° ; D = 2.5–2.6; L = vitreous. CL is diagnostic. A pink color often distinguishes K-rich feldspars. Amazonite is a rare blue-green variety of microcline.	Alkali Feldspars (Fig. 1.9i) <i>K, Na, Al Tectosilicate</i>
	White, gray, greenish or bluish gray	6	CL = 2 good planes at $\sim 90^\circ$; D = 2.6–2.8; L = vitreous. An iridescent play of colors may be seen in labradorite. Parallel, regular striations on a cleavage plane (twinning) are common in the plagioclase series. Albite (Na-rich) and anorthite (Ca-rich) are the end members.	Plagioclase Feldspars (Fig. 1.9j) <i>Na, Ca, Al tectosilicate</i>
	Greenish dark gray to black	5–6	CL = 2 at 90° (not perfectly planar); D = 3.2–3.3; S = pale green to gray if any; L = vitreous (slightly duller than hornblende). Stubby crystals.	Augite (pyroxene) (Fig. 1.9c) <i>Single-chain silicate</i>
	Black	5–6	CL = 2 at approx. 120° and 60° ; D = 3.0–3.3; S = pale gray if any; L = vitreous. Habit = prismatic with a diamond-shaped cross section.	Hornblende (amphibole) (Fig. 1.9d) <i>Double-chain silicate</i>
	Medium to dark green	5–6	CL = 2 at approx. 120° and 60° (may not be visible in fine acicular crystals); D = 3.1–3.3; S = light gray if any; L = vitreous. Color and acicular habit are diagnostic.	Actinolite (amphibole) <i>Double-chain silicate</i>

*See p. 22 for abbreviations and units. Properties that are especially diagnostic are shown in bold.

Table 2.6—cont'd

Section B: Minerals that fracture and $H \geq$ glass*

Streak	Color	Hardness	Comments	Mineral Composition
No streak	Red-brown to brownish black	7-7½	L = resinous to vitreous; D = 3.6-3.8; prismatic crystals — obtuse prisms, with common crossing twins.	Staurolite <i>Fe Al silicate</i>
	Dark brown to black common	7-7½	F = conchoidal; D = 3-3.3; L = resinous to vitreous. Most commonly black prismatic with triangular cross sections. Tourmaline may be transparent green, yellow, red, pink, or blue and of semiprecious gem quality (e.g., rubellite [red or pink]).	Tourmaline <i>Chemically complex ring silicate</i>
	Almandine is deep red to brown	6½-7½	F = hackly to conchoidal; D = 3.5-4.3; L = adamantine to vitreous to waxy on parting. Habit = equant well-formed dodecahedral crystals. Colors vary with composition. Grossular garnet is often tan, pale yellow, pink or green.	Garnet (Fig. 1.9b) <i>Mg, Fe, Mn, Al, with single-silicate tetrahedra</i>
	Highly variable	7	F = conchoidal; D = 2.65; L = vitreous to waxy in microcrystalline varieties. The conchoidal F and H are diagnostic. Hexagonal crystals show striations perpendicular to prism (Fig. 1.9k). Macrocrystalline (with visible crystals) quartz varieties: Rock crystal: transparent, colorless, distinct crystals (Fig. 1.9k, l) Milky quartz: translucent white (Fig. 1.9m) Smoky quartz: gray to almost black, smoky yellow to dark brown, transparent to translucent (Fig. 1.9n) Rose quartz: pink to rose colored, transparent to translucent (Fig. 1.9o) Amethyst: purple, often transparent and in crystals (Fig. 1.9p) Citrine: pale yellow, transparent/translucent Tiger eye: yellow, fibrous, and chatoyant Microcrystalline (microscopic crystals) quartz varieties: Chalcedony: translucent, has a waxy luster; light gray to brown Agate: thin concentric layers of varying colors (Fig. 4.31b) Onyx: straight parallel layers of colors Heliotrope or bloodstone: green with red patches of jasper (Fig. 4.31b) Flint: dark siliceous nodules of quartz often found in calcareous soils and rocks (Fig. 4.31b) Chert: like flint but lighter and more variable in color (Fig. 4.31a) Jasper: red, dull luster, and granular	Quartz (Fig. 1.9k-p) <i>pure silica tectosilicate</i>
	Light to dark olive green	6½-7	F = conchoidal; may appear irregular due to small grain size; D = 3.3-4.4; L = vitreous. Habit is commonly granular aggregates.	Olivine (Fig. 1.9a) <i>Mg, Fe with single-silicate tetrahedra</i>
White	Brown to black (rarely yellow or white)	6-7	Imperfect cleavage; D = 6.8-7.1; L = adamantine to submetallic to dull. High density for a nonmetallic mineral.	Cassiterite <i>Sn oxide, ore of tin</i>

*See p. 22 for abbreviations and units. Properties that are especially diagnostic are shown in **bold**.

Table 2.6 — cont'd

Section C: Minerals that show cleavage and $H < \text{glass}^*$

Streak	Color	Hardness	Comments	Mineral Composition
	Blue to gray	7 and 5 depending on direction	CL = 1 direction; bladed crystals; $D = 3.6\text{--}3.7$; L = vitreous to pearly; $H = 7$ perpendicular to blades and $H = 5$ parallel to blades; blue color and different hardness in different directions are diagnostic.	Kyanite <i>Al silicate</i>
	White, colorless to gray	5–5½	CL = 2 directions at 84°, splintery to hackly; prismatic to fibrous; L = vitreous to pearly; $D = 2.8\text{--}2.9$.	Wollastonite <i>Ca silicate</i>
White	Often white, yellow, violet, pale green	4	CL = 4, perfect, in shape of an octahedron ($\neq 90^\circ$); $D = 3.2$; L = vitreous to waxy. Often transparent, fluorite is known by its CL and H. May fluoresce under black light. Color is highly variable.	Fluorite (Fig. 1.10h) <i>Ca, F halide</i>
Yellow	Dark brown to yellow	3½–4	L = resinous to adamantine sub-metallic; CL = up to 6 good planes. Variegated appearance common; $D = 3.9\text{--}4.1$; ore of zinc.	Sphalerite (Fig. 1.10e) <i>Zn sulfide</i>
White	Yellowish white to pink	3½–4	CL = 3 perfect rhombohedral (may be obscure due to small crystal size); $D = 2.8$; L = vitreous. Effervesces in dilute HCl when powdered (Fig. 4.27 inset). Color varies with impurities.	Dolomite <i>Ca, Mg carbonate</i>
Intense sky blue	Bright azure blue	3½–4	Usually fine grained with earthy fracture; $D = 3.8$; L = vitreous to dull. Effervesces in HCl. Color is diagnostic and often mixed with the bright green of malachite.	Azurite <i>Cu, OH carbonate, ore of copper</i>
White	Highly variable, usually colorless to yellowish white to white to pink	3	CL = 3 perfect rhombohedral ($\neq 90^\circ$); $D = 2.7$; L = vitreous. Strongly effervesces with dilute HCl. Varieties include <i>Iceland spar</i> : transparent, shows double refraction (Fig. 1.8); <i>chalk</i> : soft, fine grained and earthy (Fig. 4.24); <i>onyx marble</i> , and <i>Mexican onyx</i> : banded marble; <i>travertine</i> : finely layered deposits (Fig. 4.25). (Note that the fine-grained varieties may not show cleavage, but all will effervesce freely with dilute HCl.)	Calcite (Fig. 1.10a) <i>Ca Carbonate</i>
Light brown	Dark reddish brown to black	2½–3	CL = 1 perfectly planar; $D = 2.8\text{--}3.2$; L = resinous to vitreous. Elastic and flexible in thin sheets. Transparent. May break apart when testing streak. Marked with fingernail by creasing sheets rather than scratching.	Biotite (mica) (Fig. 1.9g) <i>K, Al sheet silicates</i>
White	Colorless to white to light greenish brown	2–2½	CL = 1 perfectly planar; $D = 2.7\text{--}2.9$; L = resinous to vitreous to pearly. Elastic and flexible in thin sheets. Transparent. May break apart when testing streak.	Muscovite (mica) (Fig. 1.9h) <i>K, Al sheet silicates</i>
White	Colorless to white	2½	CL = 3 perfect at 90° (cubic); $D = 2.1\text{--}2.3$; L = waxy to vitreous. Salty taste. Transparent. Dissolves in water and on fingers. Tan to reddish with impurities.	Halite (Fig. 1.10i) <i>NaCl halide</i>
White to pale green	Medium to dark green	2–2½	CL = 1 perfect, but folia are small in relation to micas; $D = 2.6\text{--}3.3$; may disaggregate when testing streak; L = vitreous to pearly. Thin sheets are flexible but not elastic.	Chlorite <i>Mg, Fe, OH sheet silicate</i>
White	Colorless to white to pale blue	2	CL = 3 perfect at 90° (cubic); $D = 2.0$; L = waxy to vitreous. Bitter salty taste. Transparent. Dissolves in water and on fingers. Yellow or reddish with impurities. Much rarer than halite.	Sylvite <i>KCl halide</i>
White	Colorless to white	2	CL = 1 perfect (in sheets), and 2 more irregular; $D = 2.3$; L = vitreous to pearly. Flexible in thin sheets, sectile, transparent to translucent. Can scratch with fingernail.	Gypsum (selenite) (Fig. 1.10b) <i>Ca sulfate</i>

*See p. 22 for abbreviations and units. Especially diagnostic properties are shown in bold.

Table 2.6 — cont'd




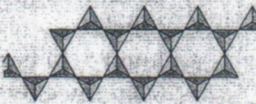
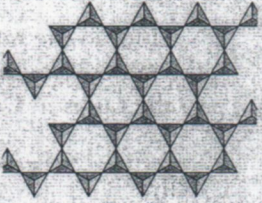
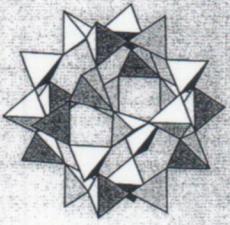
Section D: Minerals with apparent fracture and $H < \text{glass}^*$

Streak	Color	Hardness	Comments	Mineral Composition
White	Commonly green to red-brown	5	Variable color; F = conchoidal; poor basal cleavage. D = 3.1–3.2; L = vitreous. May occur in hexagonal prisms or granular aggregates.	Apatite Phosphate
White	Yellowish white to pink	3½–4	CL = 3 perfect rhombohedral (may be obscure due to small crystal size); D = 2.8; L = vitreous. Effervesces in dilute HCl when powdered (Fig. 4.27 inset). Color varies with impurities	Dolomite (Fig. 4.27) Ca, Mg carbonate
White	Light green to dark green	3–5	Massive; L = greasy to waxy; D = 2.5–2.6; color often variegated, light green to nearly black. May be fibrous = asbestos.	Serpentine (Fig. 5.9f) Mg OH sheet silicate
Pale green	Bright green	3½–4	L = adamantine to vitreous to earthy; commonly botryoidal or stalactitic; D = 3.9–4.0; recognized by its distinctive bright green color and effervescence in HCl.	Malachite Cu carbonate, ore of copper
Pale blue	Bright blue	3½–4	L = vitreous to earthy; D = 3.8; recognized by its distinctive intense azure blue color and effervescence in HCl.	Azurite Hydrous Cu carbonate, ore of copper
Yellow to brown	Yellow ocher to dark brown	2–5½	S = yellow-brown; D = 3.3–5.5 or less if porous; F = irregular. L = earthy. "Limonite" is often used to name any hydrous iron oxide.	Limonite Hydrous Fe oxide
Pale green	Apple green	2–3	L = greasy to waxy; D = 2.2–2.8; recognized by its distinctive apple green color.	Garnierite Ni Mg OH sheet silicate, ore of nickel
White	White to pink	2	Satin spar is the fibrous variety — white with L = silky and F = fibrous (cleavage is not apparent due to its fibrous habit). D = 2.3; sectile.	Gypsum (satin spar) (Fig. 1.10b) Ca sulfate
White	White to pink	2	Alabaster is compact and massive; L = vitreous to pearly and F = uneven (cleavage is not apparent due to its small crystals). D = 2.3; sectile.	Gypsum (alabaster) (Fig. 1.10b) Ca sulfate
Red-brown	Red brown	1–6	F = uneven; (Hardness is variable due to variations in grain size); D = 4.8–5.3; L = dull to earthy. Small (egg-shaped) ooids are usually seen; Streak and color are diagnostic.	Oolitic hematite (Fig. 1.10g) Fe oxide, ore of iron
Pale yellow	Yellow	1½–2½	F = uneven to conchoidal; D = 2.1; L = resinous to vitreous. Known by its bright yellow color (when pure) and its distinctive odor.	Sulfur Native S
Variable but commonly red-brown to yellow brown	Highly variable even in one sample white, gray, yellow-brown, red	1–5	L = dull to earthy; D = 2–2.6; recognized by its spherical concretionary grains (pisolites). Not really a mineral, but important as aluminum ore.	Bauxite Al oxides and hydroxides, ore of aluminum
White	White	1–2	F = uneven; D = 2.6; L = dull, earthy. Powdery and claylike, earthy smell. Microscopically has one perfect cleavage. No effervescence.	Kaolin (Fig. 1.9f) Al OH sheet silicate
White, flakes when powdered	White to gray-green	1	CL = 1 perfect (may be microscopic); D = 2.7–2.8; L = pearly to dull. Greasy feel. If compact and massive, the variety is soapstone. Talc is often associated with tremolite, an amphibole with H = 5–6, and therefore may appear harder.	Talc (Fig. 1.9e) Mg OH sheet silicate

*See p. 22 for abbreviations and units. Especially diagnostic properties are shown in bold.

Table 2.9

Tetrahedral Structures of Silicate Subclasses

Silicate Subclass	Structure
Nesosilicates (Isolated Si Tetrahedra)	
Cyclosilicates (Ring silicates)	
Inosilicates (Chain silicates)	
<i>Single Chain</i>	
<i>Double Chain</i>	
Phyllosilicates (Sheet silicates)	
Tectosilicates (Framework silicates.) Every tetrahedron in this structure is connected to four others; many are not shown.	

physical properties, as we shall see. First let's try to understand the structural types involved.

6. In the following activity each student will build a model of the smallest silicate unit, the tetrahedron. Then you will join your model with those of other students to make structures representing various silicate groups. If your instructor has also assigned Exercise 7, you should stop as you complete each silicate subclass and answer the questions related to that subclass in Exercise 7.
 - a. Using stale mini-marshmallows and half-toothpicks, make one silica

tetrahedron (like the one shown in Figure 2.2b), with the toothpicks outlining the edges of the tetrahedron and the marshmallows playing the role of oxygen atoms (Figure 2.2). These toothpicks do not represent chemical bonds. If available, place a smaller candy at the center of the tetrahedron to represent the silicon atom. What subclass of silicates would have this arrangement of silicon and oxygen?

Fill in answers for Exercise 7 related to this subclass.

- b. Next, join your tetrahedron to that of another student, either by removing one oxygen (marshmallow) or by building a third tetrahedron to join the two. Each tetrahedron should be connected to the next by sharing an oxygen. With your classmates, choose to build either a cyclosilicate structure or a single-chain silicate structure with six tetrahedra (Table 2.9). Continue joining tetrahedra until you have six connected. Notice that for single chains the shared oxygens all line up, and the tetrahedra are on alternating sides of the line. In the cyclosilicate, the shared oxygens are all on the inside of the ring. It may be easier to join two already-constructed parts by making additional tetrahedra to join them than to remove "oxygen" where tetrahedra will be joined. Which type of silicate did your group make?

Fill in answers for Exercise 7 related to this subclass. If other students built the other subclass, use their structure to answer the appropriate parts of Exercise 7.

- c. Connect your single chain or cyclosilicate together with others of like kinds made by other members of your class to make a double row of silicate tetrahedra. What subclass of silicates is this?
- d. If your class is smaller than about 20 students, make some additional tetrahedra. Join all of the tetrahedra for the whole class to make a planar arrangement of tetrahedra with 6-membered rings all joined together in almost a

honeycomb pattern (Table 2.9). What subclass of silicates is this?

What do the toothpicks represent in your model?

Fill in answers for Exercise 7 related to this subclass.

- e. In this configuration, some of the smaller candies at the center of tetrahedra would represent aluminum atoms. Look at the chemical formulas of the minerals in this subclass in Table 2.2. What additional atoms might be available to join separate sheets together into a three-dimensional structure?

7. Use the marshmallows and candies from Exercise 6 and complete Table 2.10, or construct ball-and-stick or ball-and-glue models of the silicon and oxygen atoms of each of the silicate subclasses listed in Column 1 in Table 2.10. Use small balls for silicon atoms and large ones for oxygen atoms. For Tectosilicates your instructor may only want you to construct five tetrahedra, with one in the center connected to the other four. The tetrahedra may not stand up well if you are using only slightly stale marshmallows. Fill in Table 2.10 with

the following information, using Table 2.9 to help you, and recalling that each tetrahedron represents four oxygens at the corners bonded to one silicon atom in the center:

Column 2: How many oxygen atoms in a tetrahedron are shared with other tetrahedra in each subclass?

Column 3: What is the silicon:oxygen ratio? Count the number of oxygens for one silicon atom by counting unshared oxygens as 1 and shared oxygens as $\frac{1}{2}$. For single chain, sheet, and tectosilicates, use silica tetrahedra that are on the inside (not the edges) of your structure.

Column 4: In the blank cells, name one mineral from Table 2.2 belonging to each subclass.

Column 5: What is the silicon:oxygen ratio from the chemical formula of the mineral named in Column 4?

How do the ratios of silicon to oxygen in the mineral formulas in Column 5 compare to the ratios in Column 3?

Why?

Table 2.10

Mineral Structures (Exercise 7)

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4	Column 5
Silicate Subclass	Number of Oxygen Atoms Shared	Silicon: Oxygen Ratio in Structure	Mineral Belonging to This Subclass	Silicon: Oxygen Ratio in Chemical Formula
Nesosilicates (single tetrahedra)		1:_____		
Cyclosilicates		1:_____		
Single-chain silicates		1:_____	Diopside	
Sheet silicates		2:_____	Talc	
Tectosilicates (3D framework or network)		1:_____	Quartz	

8. Of the models you constructed, which silicate subclass structures theoretically go on and on indefinitely?

Most silicon-oxygen structures have a negative charge, but complete crystals must have a neutral charge. A bunch of negative charges don't usually hang around by themselves.

9. What balances the negative charge and holds the tetrahedra together where they are not linked by shared oxygens?

(The formulas in Table 2.2 may give you a hint.)

10. The ratio of silicon to oxygen in silicates is related to the quantity of silica present in the mineral. Silicates with lots of oxygen in proportion to silicon are low in silica, and those with less oxygen compared to silicon are higher in silica. What mineral from Table 2.2 has the lowest silica content?

What mineral has the highest?

11. Now let's look at alkali feldspar in Table 2.2. It is a framework silicate, like quartz, yet its ratio of silicon to oxygen is _____. This does not match the ratio in Table 2.10, Column 3 for tectosilicates. Augite and chlorite also have low silicon:oxygen ratios for their subclass. Some of the tetrahedra in feldspar and these other minerals have aluminum (Al) instead of silicon. Add up the Al and Si in the formula for alkali feldspar. _____ What is the ratio of Al + Si to oxygen in feldspar? _____ Now, does this match the ratio in Column 3 for tectosilicates? _____
12. Let's see how different silicate structures influence a mineral's properties. What mineral has single chains?

What type of cleavage does it have?

What is an example of sheet silicate?

What type of cleavage does it have?

Notice that most silicates are found in Tables 2.6A and B. This is because the strong bonds in these silicates make them hard. However, sheet silicates occur in Tables 2.6C and D. How do you account for this?

Silicate minerals of various structures make up the most common rock-forming minerals, but with the exception of quartz, feldspar, and kaolin, they are not as commonly used as resources. On the other hand, non-silicates are important sources of many resources, especially carbonates and sulfates for building materials and oxides and sulfides for metals.

GEOLOGIC RESOURCES AND MINERALS

A geologic resource is a naturally occurring substance that comes from the Earth and is useful to people. For example, diamond is a naturally occurring mineral resource and an important industrial abrasive. Concrete, made of cement and aggregate, is a product manufactured from resources such as limestone, which is mostly calcite. Limestone and calcite are resources, while concrete and cement are products. So a geologic resource may be an element, a mineral, or a rock (or in some cases a natural liquid substance such as petroleum), but it is not a manufactured product. Resources from plants and animals are considered biological.

Minerals are the building blocks of most solid natural substances that make up the Earth. They provide us with many resources we need to produce the common objects we take for granted in our modern society. We will explore this topic more thoroughly in Lab 20.

13. Work together in a group of five or more. Discuss a simple object such as a doorknob or handle. What is the doorknob made of?

