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Deforming bed conditions associated with a major ice stream of the last British ice sheet. Progress in Physical Geography. Sedimentary evidence for deforming bed conditions associated with a grounded Irish Sea glacier, southern Ireland. Journal of Quaternary Science. Authored book Evans, D. Till - A glacial process sedimentology. Classic Landforms of the Loch Lomond Area. Chapter in book England, J. Holocene history of Arctic ice shelves. Arctic Ice Shelves and Ice Islands. Geomorphology and Retreating Glaciers. The Late Quaternary glaciation of northern Canada. An alternative interpretation of Craig-y-Fro based on mass balance and radiation modelling. Quaternary of the Brecon Beacons, Field Guide. Quaternary Research Association; Glacial erratics and till dispersal indicators. Encyclopedia of Quaternary Science. Glacier reconstruction and energy balance modelling of scarp-foot landforms at the Mynydd Du Black Mountain. Glacitectonic structures and landforms. Moraine forms and genesis. Bread and Cheese Cove. The Isles of Scilly, Field Guide. Glacier Science and Environmental Change. Palaeoglaciology of the last British-Irish ice sheet: Pleistocene stratigraphy, geomorphology and chronology. The Glacier-marginal landsystems of Iceland. Iceland - Modern Processes and Past Environments. Encyclopedia of the Arctic. Facies description and the logging of sedimentary exposures. The research project - a case study of Quaternary glacial sediments. Bedrock geology and physiography of the Western Highland Boundary. Glacial geomorphology of the Western Highland Boundary.

2: Formats and Editions of Geomorphology : critical concepts in geography [www.enganchecubano.com]

Geomorphology concerns the forms of the land's surface and the processes that create them. It is an integral part of studies in physical geography and also has significant bearing on geology and engineering. Since the nineteenth century, many systems of classifying landforms have been devised and.

Cirque glaciers form on the crests and slopes of mountains. A glacier that fills a valley is called a valley glacier, or alternatively an alpine glacier or mountain glacier. Only nunataks protrude from their surfaces. The only extant ice sheets are the two that cover most of Antarctica and Greenland. Some drain directly into the sea, often with an ice tongue, like Mertz Glacier. As the ice reaches the sea, pieces break off, or calve, forming icebergs. Most tidewater glaciers calve above sea level, which often results in a tremendous impact as the iceberg strikes the water. Tidewater glaciers undergo centuries-long cycles of advance and retreat that are much less affected by the climate change than those of other glaciers. The ice of a polar glacier is always below the freezing point from the surface to its base, although the surface snowpack may experience seasonal melting. A sub-polar glacier includes both temperate and polar ice, depending on depth beneath the surface and position along the length of the glacier. In a similar way, the thermal regime of a glacier is often described by its basal temperature. A cold-based glacier is below freezing at the ice-ground interface, and is thus frozen to the underlying substrate. A warm-based glacier is above or at freezing at the interface, and is able to slide at this contact. Further crushing of the individual snowflakes and squeezing the air from the snow turns it into "glacial ice". This glacial ice will fill the cirque until it "overflows" through a geological weakness or vacancy, such as the gap between two mountains. When the mass of snow and ice is sufficiently thick, it begins to move due to a combination of surface slope, gravity and pressure. A packrafter passes a wall of freshly exposed blue ice on Spencer Glacier, in Alaska. Glacial ice acts like a filter on light, and the more time light can spend traveling through ice, the bluer it becomes. In temperate glaciers, snow repeatedly freezes and thaws, changing into granular ice called firn. Under the pressure of the layers of ice and snow above it, this granular ice fuses into denser and denser firn. Over a period of years, layers of firn undergo further compaction and become glacial ice. Glacier ice is slightly less dense than ice formed from frozen water because it contains tiny trapped air bubbles. Glacial ice has a distinctive blue tint because it absorbs some red light due to an overtone of the infrared OH stretching mode of the water molecule. Liquid water is blue for the same reason. The blue of glacier ice is sometimes misattributed to Rayleigh scattering due to bubbles in the ice. Glaciers are broken into zones based on surface snowpack and melt conditions. The equilibrium line separates the ablation zone and the accumulation zone; it is the altitude where the amount of new snow gained by accumulation is equal to the amount of ice lost through ablation. The upper part of a glacier, where accumulation exceeds ablation, is called the accumulation zone. Ice in the accumulation zone is deep enough to exert a downward force that erodes underlying rock. After a glacier melts, it often leaves behind a bowl- or amphitheater-shaped depression that ranges in size from large basins like the Great Lakes to smaller mountain depressions known as cirques. The accumulation zone can be subdivided based on its melt conditions. The dry snow zone is a region where no melt occurs, even in the summer, and the snowpack remains dry. The percolation zone is an area with some surface melt, causing meltwater to percolate into the snowpack. This zone is often marked by refrozen ice lenses, glands, and layers. The snowpack also never reaches melting point. Near the equilibrium line on some glaciers, a superimposed ice zone develops. This zone is where meltwater refreezes as a cold layer in the glacier, forming a continuous mass of ice. The health of a glacier is usually assessed by determining the glacier mass balance or observing terminus behavior. A slight cooling led to the advance of many alpine glaciers between and , but since glacier retreat and mass loss has become larger and increasingly ubiquitous. In this case, the impediment appears to be some distance from the near margin of the glacier. Ice-sheet dynamics Glaciers move, or flow, downhill due to gravity and the internal deformation of ice. At the molecular level, ice consists of stacked layers of molecules with relatively weak bonds between layers. When the stress on the layer above exceeds the inter-layer binding strength, it moves faster than the layer below. In this process, a glacier slides over the terrain on which it sits, lubricated by the presence of liquid water. The

water is created from ice that melts under high pressure from frictional heating. Basal sliding is dominant in temperate, or warm-based glaciers. Although evidence in favour of glacial flow was known by the early 19th century, other theories of glacial motion were advanced, such as the idea that melt water, refreezing inside glaciers, caused the glacier to dilate and extend its length. As it became clear that glaciers behaved to some degree as if the ice were a viscous fluid, it was argued that "regelation", or the melting and refreezing of ice at a temperature lowered by the pressure on the ice inside the glacier, was what allowed the ice to deform and flow. James Forbes came up with the essentially correct explanation in the 1840s, although it was several decades before it was fully accepted. This upper section is known as the fracture zone and moves mostly as a single unit over the plastically flowing lower section. When a glacier moves through irregular terrain, cracks called crevasses develop in the fracture zone. Crevasses form due to differences in glacier velocity. If two rigid sections of a glacier move at different speeds and directions, shear forces cause them to break apart, opening a crevasse. Beneath this point, the plasticity of the ice is too great for cracks to form. Intersecting crevasses can create isolated peaks in the ice, called seracs. Crevasses can form in several different ways. Transverse crevasses are transverse to flow and form where steeper slopes cause a glacier to accelerate. Longitudinal crevasses form semi-parallel to flow where a glacier expands laterally. Marginal crevasses form from the edge of the glacier, due to the reduction in speed caused by friction of the valley walls. Marginal crevasses are usually largely transverse to flow. Moving glacier ice can sometimes separate from stagnant ice above, forming a bergschrund. Crevasses make travel over glaciers hazardous, especially when they are hidden by fragile snow bridges. Crossing a crevasse on the Easton Glacier, Mount Baker, in the North Cascades, United States Below the equilibrium line, glacial meltwater is concentrated in stream channels. Meltwater can pool in proglacial lakes on top of a glacier or descend into the depths of a glacier via moulins. Streams within or beneath a glacier flow in englacial or sub-glacial tunnels. Friction makes the ice at the bottom of the glacier move more slowly than ice at the top. Velocity increases with increasing slope, increasing thickness, increasing snowfall, increasing longitudinal confinement, increasing basal temperature, increasing meltwater production and reduced bed hardness. A few glaciers have periods of very rapid advancement called surges. These glaciers exhibit normal movement until suddenly they accelerate, then return to their previous state. During these surges, the glacier may reach velocities far greater than normal speed. In glaciated areas where the glacier moves faster than one km per year, glacial earthquakes occur. These are large scale earthquakes that have seismic magnitudes as high as 6. In a study using data from January through October, more events were detected every year since 1992, and twice as many events were recorded in 1993 as there were in any other year. They are linked to seasonal motion of glaciers; the width of one dark and one light band generally equals the annual movement of the glacier. Ogives are formed when ice from an icefall is severely broken up, increasing ablation surface area during summer. This creates a swale and space for snow accumulation in the winter, which in turn creates a ridge. List of glaciers and Retreat of glaciers since Black ice glacier near Aconcagua, Argentina

Glaciers are present on every continent and approximately fifty countries, excluding those Australia, South Africa that have glaciers only on distant subantarctic island territories. Mountain glaciers are widespread, especially in the Andes, the Himalayas, the Rocky Mountains, the Caucasus, Scandinavian mountains and the Alps. Mainland Australia currently contains no glaciers, although a small glacier on Mount Kosciuszko was present in the last glacial period. During glacial periods of the Quaternary, Taiwan, Hawaii on Mauna Kea [36] and Tenerife also had large alpine glaciers, while the Faroe and Crozet Islands [37] were completely glaciated. The permanent snow cover necessary for glacier formation is affected by factors such as the degree of slope on the land, amount of snowfall and the winds. Even at high latitudes, glacier formation is not inevitable. Areas of the Arctic, such as Banks Island, and the McMurdo Dry Valleys in Antarctica are considered polar deserts where glaciers cannot form because they receive little snowfall despite the bitter cold. Cold air, unlike warm air, is unable to transport much water vapor. Even during glacial periods of the Quaternary, Manchuria, lowland Siberia, [38] and central and northern Alaska, [39] though extraordinarily cold, had such light snowfall that glaciers could not form. This is because these peaks are located near or in the hyperarid Atacama Desert. As glaciers flow over bedrock, they soften and lift blocks of rock into the ice. This process, called plucking, is caused by subglacial water that penetrates fractures in the bedrock and

subsequently freezes and expands. This expansion causes the ice to act as a lever that loosens the rock by lifting it. If a retreating glacier gains enough debris, it may become a rock glacier, like the Timpanogos Glacier in Utah. Abrasion occurs when the ice and its load of rock fragments slide over bedrock and function as sandpaper, smoothing and polishing the bedrock below. The pulverized rock this process produces is called rock flour and is made up of rock grains between 0. Abrasion leads to steeper valley walls and mountain slopes in alpine settings, which can cause avalanches and rock slides, which add even more material to the glacier. Glacial abrasion is commonly characterized by glacial striations. Glaciers produce these when they contain large boulders that carve long scratches in the bedrock. Similar to striations are chatter marks, lines of crescent-shape depressions in the rock underlying a glacier. They are formed by abrasion when boulders in the glacier are repeatedly caught and released as they are dragged along the bedrock. The rate of glacier erosion varies. Six factors control erosion rate:

3: Formats and Editions of Geomorphology / Periglacial geomorphology. [www.enganchecubano.com]

David J.A. Evans is the author of *Periglacial Geomorphology* (avg rating, 1 rating, 0 reviews, published), *A Practical Guide to the Study of Gla You can Read Periglacial Geomorphology (Critical Concepts In Geography, Vol. 6)* or *Read Online*.

4: Surge (glacier) - Wikipedia

3. *Geomorphology. vol. 3: critical concepts in geography: Coastal geomorphology* 3. 6. *Geomorphology: critical concepts in geography / 1, Fluvial geomorphology [Texte imprimÃ©] / edited by Olav Slaymaker.* 6. *Geomorphology: critical concepts in geography. Volume 2, Hillslope geomorphology*

5: Geomorphology: Critical Concepts in Geography, 1st Edition (Hardback) - Routledge

The Quaternary landscape history of Teesdale and the North Pennines. Field Guide. Edited by David J. A. Evans.

6: Glacier Science and Environmental Change: Edited By: Peter Knight | NHBS Book Shop

The papers have been chosen by specialist editors working with the general editor, David J. A. Evans, and include introductions to each volume to set the selection in its intellectual and historical context.

7: Glacier - Wikipedia

6. *Geomorphology: critical concepts in geography / 1, Fluvial geomorphology [Texte imprimÃ©] / edited by Olav Slaymaker.* 6.

8: Geomorphology : critical concepts in geography - Brigham Young University

David J. A. Evans, Department of Geography, Durham University, Durham, UK The geomorphology of the south-western and central Lake District, England is used to.

9: Professor D.J.A. Evans - Durham University

Contact Professor David J.A. Evans (email at www.enganchecubano.com@www.enganchecubano.com). Biography. My research on the landforms and sediments of modern and ancient glaciated basins has been the catalyst for the compilation of glacial landsystems models and the reconstruction of palaeo-glacier dynamics.

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