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AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF Virginia Josette Pfaff for the Master of Science in Geology presented December 16, 1980.

Title: Geophysical and Geochemical Analyses of Selected Miocene Coastal Basalt Features, Clatsop County, Oregon.

APPROVED BY MEMBERS OF THE THESIS COMMITTEE:

Ansel G. Johnson, Chairman
Marvin H. Beeson

Gilbert T. Benson

The proximity of Miocene Columbia River basalt flows to "locally erupted" coastal Miocene basalts in northwestern Oregon, and the compelling similarities between the two groups, suggest that the coastal basalts, rather than being locally erupted, may be the westward extension of plateau basalts derived from eastern Oregon and Washington. Selected coastal basalts in Clatsop County, Oregon, were examined geochemically and geophysically; the data lend credence to a plateau origin for the coastal basalts.

Analysis by Instrumental Neutron Activation Analysis and fluxgate

magnetometer allowed classification of 36 coastal basalt samples into three chemical types correlative with only those Columbia River basalt plateau flows also found in western Oregon: reversed (R_2) and normal (N_2) low Mg Depoe Bay Basalt, high Mg Depoe Bay Basalt, and Cape Foulweather Basalt (coastal) correlate respectively with reversed (R2) and normal (N_2) low Mg Grande Ronde Basalt, high Mg Grande Ronde Basalt, and the Frenchman Springs Member of the Wanapum Basalt (plateau). Older Miocene coastal basalts (low Mg Depoe Bay) are found to occur furthest inland, separating the Eocene and plateau basalts to their east from the younger Miocene coastal basalts to their west. A seemingly regional series of low Mg Depoe Bay basalt dikes trending southwest from Nicolai Mountain is actually composed of both reversed and normal flows and can no longer be presumed to indicate a single long fissure. The high Mg Depoe Bay basalt breccia at Saddle Mountain overlies older low Mg basalt; adjacent dikes are also low Mg basalt and could not have served as feeders for the breccia peak. Although Cape Foulweather basalt outcrops along the South Fork of the Klaskanine River are abundantly phyric (Ginkgo unit), geochemically distinct Cape Foulweather basalt along Youngs River and west of the Lewis and Clark River is sparsely porphyritic (Sand Hollow unit). Distribution patterns based on isolated outcrops of basalt types lend themselves to varied interpretations but suggest topographic control by the Eocene highlands and stream valleys.

Gravity traverses conducted over coastal basalt features allow the formulation of models indicating the depth to which such features might extend. The linear, low Mg Depoe Bay basalt dikes underlying Fishhawk Falls (normally polarized) and Denver Point (reversed) extend only 107 m and 45 m, respectively, below the surface. The U-shaped Cape Foulweather basalt dike at Youngs River Falls may be modelled as a shallow (maximum depth .23 km below sea level) or deep (minimum depth .3 km below sea level) syncline. Alternatively, the basalt might encircle either a hill of somewhat denser sedimentary rock or a buried Eocene volcanic high, in which cases the basalt limbs independently extend 200-300 m below sea level. Arcuate segments of the low Mg Depoe Bay basalt "ring dike" on the Klaskanine River apparently are not connected at depth; the southwest crescent is 100 m deep, while the northeast crescent is an apophysis from a 150 m thick basalt mass. Abundantly phyric Cape Foulweather basalt outcrops consistently proved to be shallow (100 m or less below the surface). Vertical dikes extending to the Eocene volcanic basement are not suitable for any of the features investigated, while shallow, near surface basalt masses are either preferred or distinctly possible in all cases.

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GEOPHYSICAL AND GEOCHEMICAL ANALYSES OF SELECTED MIOCENE COASTAL BASALT FEATURES, CLATSOP COUNTY, OREGON

by

VIRGINIA JOSETTE PFAFF

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE in GEOLOGY

Portland State University

1981

TO THE OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH:

The members of the Committee approve the thesis of Virginia Josette Pfaff presented December 16, 1980.



Gilbert T. Benson



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INTRODUCTION

The proximity of Miocene Columbia River basalts to the "locallyerupted" coastal Miocene basalts in northwestern Oregon, and the compelling similarities between the two groups, suggest that the coastal basalts, rather than being locally erupted, may be the westward extension of plateau basalts derived from eastern Oregon and Washington.

The local-origin hypothesis is based largely on the interpretation of coastal dikes and sills as representing vent areas; however, a complex mechanism, as yet unsatisfactorily defined, would be required to cause the eruption of virtually identical magmas simultaneously from source areas 500 km apart.

This study, therefore, has investigated the coastal basalt intrusions both laterally and vertically. Geochemical and paleomagnetic analysis was used to determine the occurrence and distribution of basalt units; gravity surveys enabled an examination of the subsurface extensions of basalt intrusions in sedimentary rocks.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The Columbia River Basalt Group of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho is a series of tholeiitic flood basalts erupted between 16 and 6 my ago during the Miocene epoch, which lasted from 23.5 to 5.3 my bp (Holmgren, 1970; Watkins and Baksi, 1971; Niem and Cressy, 1973; McKee and others, 1977; Swanson and others, 1979). The basalts now cover an area 2×10^5 km² at an estimated volume of 2×10^5 km³ (Waters, 1961) (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Distribution of Columbia River Basalt Group in Oregon, Washington, and Idaho. (After Waters, 1961). (Modified from Beeson and Moran, 1979).

By far the most voluminous within this series is the Yakima Basalt Subgroup, which was erupted from north-northwest-trending fissures now represented by the Chief Joseph dike swarm (Waters, 1961; Taubeneck, 1970; Swanson and others, 1975) of northeastern Oregon, southeastern Washington, and western Idaho. These fluid Yakima "plateau" basalts spread out over the Columbia Plateau, attaining a maximum thickness of 1500 m in the Pasco Basin of Washington (Asaro, 1978 in Beeson and others, 1979b). Of these Yakima lavas, at least 26 flows with a composite stratigraphic thickness of 550 m flowed into western Oregon through a structural gap in the western Cascades located between the Columbia River Gorge and the Clackamas River drainage (Beeson and Moran, 1979). These Yakima basalts are of particular interest to this study as they are the only Columbia River basalt flows which thus far have been traced into western Oregon (Beeson and others, 1979a).

The basalt stratigraphy has been determined primarily by lithology, geochemistry, stratigraphic position, and magnetic polarity, and has been revised as investigations have increased and techniques have been refined. According to the revised stratigraphic nomenclature approved by the U.S. Geological Survey (Swanson and others, 1979), there are five formations within the Columbia River Basalt Group, of which the youngest three constitute the Yakima basalts (Figure 2). All three of these younger formations are represented by at least one flow in western Oregon; the older two formations, Imnaha and Picture Gorge basalts, are restricted to relatively small areas south and southeast of the Plateau province (Swanson and Wright, 1978).

The three Yakima basalt formations, in order of both decreasing age and decreasing numbers of western Oregon flows, are the Grande Ronde, Wanapum, and Saddle Mountains basalts (Swanson and others, 1979), equivalent respectively to the Lower, Middle, and Upper Yakima basalts of Wright and others (1973) and to the Yakima basalt and late-Yakima variant of Waters (1961) and Pomona flow of Schmincke (1964). These flood basalts which originated in eastern Oregon and Washington and flowed westward, covering and/or crossing the Columbia Plateau, are referred to here as "plateau basalts."

Additional outcrops of Miocene tholeiitic basalt have been mapped along the Pacific coast from Seal Rocks, Oregon, to Grays Harbor, Washington (Schlicker and others, 1972; Beaulieu, 1973; Snavely and others, 1973) (Figure 3). They constitute three formations consanguin-

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Figure 2. Columbia River Basalt Group stratigraphy. Bars indicate members occurring in western Oregon. (After Swanson, 1978). (From Beeson and Moran, 1979).



Figure 3. Areal distribution of plateau and coastal basalts in western Oregon and Washington. (Modified from Snavely and others, 1973). (From Beeson and others, 1979b).

eous with the three Yakima basalt formations and have been named, in order of decreasing age, the Depoe Bay Basalt, Cape Foulweather Basalt, and basalt of Pack Sack Lookout (Snavely and others, 1973). These "coastal basalts" correlate with the plateau basalts as follows:

Within each coastal-plateau basalt pair, the basalts are indistinguishable from each other on the bases of lithology and petrography, (Dodds, 1963; Kienle, 1971; Snavely and others, 1973), major element geochemistry (Snavely and others, 1973), minor/trace element geochemistry (Nathan and Fruchter, 1974; Hill, 1975), magnetic polarity (Kienle, 1971; Choiniere and Swanson, 1979), strontium isotope ratios (McDougall, 1976), uranium-lead isotope ratios (Tatsumoto and Snavely, 1969), stratigraphic succession (Snavely and others, 1973), and age (Niem and Cressy, 1973; Snavely and others, 1973). Furthermore, the mapped areas of occurrence of coastal and plateau basalts overlap in western Oregon (Figure 3). Notice that the southernmost extents of plateau and coastal basalts (Stayton and Seal Rocks, Oregon, respectively) lie along nearly the same line of latitude.

Based largely on the field evidence of the frequent occurrence of coastal basalts as dikes, sills, and other irregular intrusions of the same composition as the extrusive rocks, Snavely and others (1973) proposed a local origin for these basalts from coastal vents separated from the Chief Joseph dike swarm by 500 km. They suggested that the eruptive centers (e.g., Yaquina Head, Cape Foulweather, Cape Lookout, Cape Meares, Cape Falcon, Tillamook Head) overall form a north-trending belt which can be divided into three segments (Figure 4).

According to classical, traditional interpretation, volcanic dikes indicate nearby vents. However, Beeson and others (1979b), primarily on the basis of geochemical considerations, have suggested an alternative hypothesis for the origin of the coastal basalts, namely that the coastal basalts are the distal ends of the Columbia River basalt plateau flows that travelled through the topographic low in the ancestral Cascades into western Oregon. In this interpretation, the intrusions are assumed to be the result of interactions of hot, dense basaltic lava with less dense, unconsolidated, water-saturated sediment. It is important for this discussion, therefore, that terms such as "intrusion", "dike", and "sill" be considered purely descriptive terms of geometry and contact relations without genetic implications.

Models to explain the origin of consanguineous Miocene basalts erupted from vents 500 km apart require regional processes for magma generation and/or emplacement limited by several constraints: 1) the total volume of basalt (120,000 km³ on the plateau, 500 km³ at the coast) demands a very large magma source; 2) chemical and isotopic data necessitate three distinct parental magmas to produce the three basalt types; 3) considerable separation of vent areas erupting virtually identical basalts requires rapid rise of the magma without crustal contamination or fractional crystallization; 4) andesite and dacite must be contemporaneously erupted along the intervening western Cascade Range; 5) the oceanic crust, underlying the coastal basalts, must be distinguished from the continental crust, through which the plateau basalts probably erupted (Snavely and others, 1973). It is difficult to under-

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Figure 4. Distribution of coastal basalt features and vent areas. (Modified from Snavely and others, 1973).

stand how three magmas could maintain their compositional uniformities during migration to vents that are 500 km apart and erupt with the same stratigraphic sequence and during the same time intervals. Beeson and others (1979b) characterize the petrologic problem:

Thus we are confronted with some rather weighty problems of petrogenesis or subterranean magma transport. Could the upper mantle produce virtually identical sequences of magma in these widely separated and tectonically dissimilar regions and yield them for eruption at the same time? Or could a continuous, homogeneous magma chamber or conduit stretch from eastern Oregon and Washington to the coast, crossing the major northsouth structural zone of the Cascade Range, and erupt identical magmas only at the ends, while magmas of different composition (e.g. andesites in the Cascades and the Prineville chemical type of the Columbia River Basalt Group near Prineville, Oregon) were erupted in between? The inadequacies of these and similar <u>ad hoc</u> hypotheses have prevented a consensus regarding the origin of the coastal Miocene basalts.

No model has been proposed yet that conforms to all the constraints satisfactorily.

In turning to the alternative hypothesis of Beeson and others (1979b), regional petrogenetic problems are exchanged for local mechanical ones. Although instances of plateau basalt invading sediment (lava cross-cutting downward from the surface) are well-documented (Schmincke, 1964, 1967; Swanson and Wright, 1976), the mechanism generating the coherent dikes and sills up to hundreds of meters thick or long seen in the coastal region is not empirically understood; as Beeson and others (1979b) point out, there are no known modern examples to examine for uniformitarianism comparison.

Considerable thicknesses (550 m) of the Grande Ronde and Wanapum basalts have been followed through the Cascade Range (Beeson and Moran, 1979), into the Portland area (Beeson and others, 1976b), westward to within 25 km of Astoria, Oregon (Snavely and others, 1973), into the Willamette Valley in Oregon between the Cascade and Coast Ranges, and across the present site of the Coast Range in Washington (Snavely and others, 1973). A thickness of more than 400 m of plateau basalt is exposed along the Columbia River just 40 km east of the coast (Niem and Van Atta, 1973).

The coastal basalts are found in close proximity to the plateau basalts (Figure 4). Basalt of Pack Sack Lookout crops out within one kilometer of Grande Ronde Basalt east of Pack Sack Lookout, Washington, and elsewhere (e.g., Cathlamet and Stella, Washington) overlies sediments filling channels cut in Grande Ronde Basalt. "Because of the paucity of dikes of Pack Sack composition, a plateau source for some of the Pack Sack basalt cannot be disproved" (Snavely and others, 1973). Of particular note is Snavely and others' (1973) observation:

... dikes of Depoe Bay composition occur near some flow sequences that are composed largely of Yakima-type [Grande Ronde] basalt of plateau origin, such as at Nicolai Mountain, 30 km east of Astoria. Further work ... is needed in this area in order to differentiate basalts of local source from those that came from the plateau.

The location of some proposed coastal vents are within the known areal extent of plateau basalts. It would seem unreasonable, then, to place an arbitrary westward limit to these fluid plateau basalts which are known to have travelled at least 400 km from their source. Beeson and others (1979b) note:

It may well be assumed that lava that flowed through the Cascades and into the Portland area, and was able to flow 100 km south up the ancestral Willamette Valley could also have flowed approximately the same distance down-gradient to the ocean. ... The plateau basalts needed to flow only a short distance from the Willamette Valley across the then poorly developed Coast Range to reach the coast.

In Oregon particularly, this critical area lying between the coast

(mapped coastal basalts) and the Willamette Valley (mapped plateau basalts) has not been adequately investigated for basalt occurrences and types.

Erosion of broad and folded hills and the deposition of the detritus in nearby valleys (Tolson, 1976) created a gentle and subdued topography in the Miocene coastal region prior to the entrance of the Columbia River basalt. Late Oligocene to early Miocene deltas extended the shoreline of Oregon and Washington to at least the present westward extent (Snavely and Wagner, 1963). Water-saturated, low energy sediments abounded in this deltaic and estuarine coastal environment. The coastal basalt dikes and sills mapped within these extensive sedimentary units could have formed as the basalt sank into and rafted the lighter sediments, triggering settling and slumping, or by filling in tension fractures, or by being injected into sedimentary sections adjacent to thick, ponded basalt flow masses.

Thus an alternative solution to the problem of simultaneous extrusion of consanguineous coastal and plateau basalts is to argue that there are <u>only</u> plateau basalts, which flowed westward as far as the coast (Beeson and others, 1979b). The controversy seems to hinge on the coastal dikes and their genetic implications. The dikes may be invasive, similar to those described by Schmincke (1964, 1967) and Swanson and Wright (1976) in the northeast plateau, i.e., dense, subaerial flows that cross-cut downward from the surface into unconsolidated sediments, or the dikes may be the result of upward intrusions from local source areas. The purpose of this study was to examine the hypotheses about coastal basalt origin by investigating some of the coastal basalts both geochemically and geophysically. The geochemical analysis of basalt samples using Instrumental Neutron Activation Analysis (INAA) supplements previous data by establishing the chemical types of selected coastal basalts. The combination of chemical type and magnetic polarity, measured with a fluxgate magnetometer, suggests distribution patterns of the flows or groups of flows. Fingerprinting of tholeiitic basalt flows using trace element abundances has become an established technique for tracing individual flows and has been successfully applied to both the plateau and coastal basalts. Measurement of the paleomagnetic direction coupled with chemical or field identification and field relations of basalt flows has yielded a stratigraphic section (Beeson and Moran, 1979; Swanson and others, 1979) to which other incomplete sequences can be correlated.

Geophysical investigations of several isolated linear and circular dikes of coastal basalt detail their subsurface configurations. A Worden gravimeter was employed in traverses across these intrusions, and the models resulting from such geophysical investigations of coastal basalt dikes indicate the depth to which these features could extend. If shallow bottoms for dikes are indicated, origins other than roots-atdepth can be argued for these features. The density difference between the basalt (2.8 g/cc) and the sedimentary rock (2.4 g/cc) (Snavely and Wagner, 1964) provides a contrast adequate for gravimetric measurements. The results of this research should add considerably to the existing knowledge of the Miocene tholeiitic basalts in Oregon and Washington. Extension of the identification and distribution patterns of these basalt formations is critical to understanding their genesis. Small scale geophysical techniques have not previously been applied to these basalts, so these geophysical results are significant as they are used to indicate both the subterranean extent of the coastal basalt dikes and the applicability of the technique itself to solving the problem of coastal basalt genesis.

GEOGRAPHIC SETTING

The approximately 500 km² of northwestern Oregon studied extends from the northwestern flank of the Coast Range to the coast (Figure 5). The elevation of the rolling, hummocky hills that characterize this region generally decreases from approximately 375 m in the east to sea level at the coast. Relief is generally less than 300 m except where resistant thick accumulations of Tertiary basalts have withstood erosion, such as at Saddle Mountain and Humbug Mountain, 600 m and 400 m, respectively, higher than the surrounding sedimentary rocks. These less resistant Oligocene and Miocene sedimentary rocks are weathered and eroded to a subdued, rounded topography that is subject to extensive mass wasting. Rock units are dissected and exposed by the Lewis and Clark River, Youngs River, Klaskanine River, and numerous streams.

The study area lies within Clatsop County and is covered by the following U.S. Geological Survey 15' quadrangles: Astoria, Svensen, Cathlamet, Birkenfield, Saddle Mountain, and Cannon Beach.

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Figure 5. Geographic index map of the study area (outlined in red). (Base map from Wells and Peck, 1961; Schlicker and others, 1972; Beaulieu, 1973).

The climate of the area is generally cool in the summer and mild and wet in the winter. The average annual rainfall may exceed 200 cm, and morning fog is common in the lowlands; the ocean winds contribute significantly to this temperate and moist climate (Tolson, 1976).

While sedimentary rocks are deeply weathered in this humid region, forest growth thrives -- primarily Douglas fir, hemlock, spruce, cedar, and alder trees. The thick vegetation makes cross country traverses nearly impossible. Access is provided by U.S. Highway 26 (Sunset Highway) from Portland to Seaside, State Highway 202 (Nehalem Highway) from Jewell to Astoria, and U.S. Highway 101 (coast highway) from Seaside to Astoria. County roads and numerous logging roads and spurs provide both a network of routes to the interior and roadcut exposures.

PREVIOUS MAPPING

Regional reconnaissance mapping of northwestern Oregon was first accomplished by Warren and others (1945) for an investigation of oil and gas potential, for which they differentiated between the major Miocene volcanic units on the coast and the surrounding sedimentary rocks. Wells and Peck (1961) began to subdivide the sedimentary units in northwestern Oregon on their Geologic Map of Oregon West of the 121st Meridian, on which Columbia River basalt flows and intrusive units are mapped separately and distinguished from older basalts. Snavely and Wagner (1963), reconstructing the Tertiary geologic history of western Oregon, placed each major sedimentary and volcanic formation within a regional picture organized chronologically. In the following year, Bromery and Snavely published a geologic interpretation for northwestern Oregon based on geophysical data. Schlicker and others (1972) and Beaulieu (1973) mapped the coastal and inland regions, respectively, of Tillamook and Clatsop Counties with an environmental hazards perspective; Schlicker and others (1973) similarly covered Lincoln County in a separate bulletin. Maps produced by these latter investigations present increased detail due in part to coverage of smaller areas and to

improved access; however, these works are still essentially of a regional nature. Area-specific theses and studies provide the most comprehensive pictures. Lowry and Baldwin (1952) studied the lower Columbia River valley; Newton evaluated oil and gas potential for the lower Columbia and Willamette Valleys (1969) and upper Nehalem Valley (with Van Atta, 1976); Dodds (1963) mapped the west half of the Svensen quadrangle and studied the Astoria Formation; students under Dr. A.R. Niem, Oregon State University, have collectively mapped and studied a significant portion of northwest Oregon and of the area investigated in this report (including Tolson - Youngs River Falls area - 1976; Nelson -Astoria area - 1977; Penoyer - Saddle Mountain area - 1977). A field guide through the northwestern Coast Range to the coast was provided by Niem and Van Atta (1973).

Snavely and others (1973) named and described the three Miocene coastal basalt units distinguished on the basis of lithology and geochemistry in northwestern Oregon and southwestern Washington, and correlated these units to three Columbia River basalt plateau units. Their conclusions and speculations on the local origin of these basalts prompted Beeson and others (1979b) to propose as an alternative hypothesis that the basalts were actually the distal ends of Columbia River basalt flows originating east in the Columbia Plateau. These two papers, in their differing interpretations of the coastal basalts, form the basis for this study.

FIELD WORK

Reconnaissance field work was conducted during spring weekends in

1979. Geophysical field work spanned the three summer months of 1979; geochemical and magnetic sampling occupied most weekends in the spring of 1980. The summer, fall, winter, and spring of 1979-1980 were spent reducing and analyzing the geophysical data; the geochemical data were generated and analyzed in the summer of 1980. Investigative methods and equipment are discussed in the geochemistry and geophysics sections and in Appendix A.

WESTERN OREGON GEOLOGY

REGIONAL GEOLOGIC HISTORY OF WESTERN OREGON

The 7500 m of Cenozoic rocks in western Oregon (Snavely and Wagner, 1964) disclose alternating periods of marine sedimentation and volcanism that record the episodic interactions of the Pacific and North American plates (Figure 6). Oldest in this sequence are the early Eocene lower Tillamook volcanics, the basement rock in northwestern Oregon, equivalent to the Siletz River volcanics of the central Coast Range. This 3000-6100 m thick (Newton, 1969) sequence of tholeiitic basalt submarine pillow lavas and breccias is thought to be oceanic crust formed at a spreading ridge and "accreted onto the continental margin at the time when subduction jumped from east of the Coast Range to the present continental margin" (Snavely and others, 1980a). The westward jump may have been caused by the jamming of the former subduction zone by an aseismic ridge (Simpson and Cox, 1977). The oceanic basalts are overlain by seamounts and oceanic islands (Newton, 1969; Snavely and others, 1980a) differentiated along the Hawaiian trend (Simpson and Cox, 1977). A deep marginal fore arc basin, which formed east of this new subduction zone and atop the newly accreted Eccene crust, extended under the present site of the Cascades (Snavely and Wagner, 1963).

By mid-Eocene, the southern end of the marginal basin had been uplifted; the deep part of the basin remained in northern Oregon. While



erosion of the Klamath Mountains to the south filled the southern portion of the basin with considerable terrigenous detritus, volcanism continued further north in the Tillamook Highlands area (Snavely and Wagner, 1963).

A transform fault between the Pacific and North American plates, inferred for late middle to early late Eocene, resulted in 200 km of dextral slip. Subsequent underthrusting, perhaps a period of imbricate thrusting by the downbending oceanic plate, west of this fault boundary promoted regional uplift and erosion and a concomitant angular unconformity at the base of the upper Eocene (Kulm and Fowler, 1974; Snavely and others, 1980a,b). By late Eocene, local uplift and renewed volcanism had subdivided the regional basin into several separate shelf depositional basins; the sea withdrew to the northwest. In the northeast Coast Range area, the Goble volcanics were erupted into the structural downwarp near the present Columbia River (Newton, 1969), where they are interbedded with the marine sedimentary rocks of the Cowlitz Formation. Late Eocene may have been the beginning of the 50°-70° clockwise rotation of coastal Eocene rocks deduced by Simpson and Cox (1977) and postulated to be due to back arc spreading and/or changes in plate motion.

Pyroclastic volcanism to the east in the ancestral Cascade Range contributed considerable amounts of ash to the Oligocene marine deposits. Sedimentation continued around the Columbia River on the northeastern side of the Tillamook Highlands and throughout the northern Willamette Valley (Snavely and Wagner, 1963), producing the Keasey, Pittsburgh Bluff, and Scappoose Formations. By late Oligocene, the area from Portland to Astoria was a large marine embayment and the continent-

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al shelf (fore arc basin) extended from the Scappoose outcrops on the east 80 km to the west (Tolson, 1976). West-flowing streams began to drain through the present site of the Coast Range, forming westprograding deltas at their outlets, as the Pittsburgh Bluff, Scappoose, and Yaquina Formations suggest (Niem and Van Atta, 1973). Late Oligocene was characterized by broad uplift (Snavely and Wagner, 1963), westward recession of the Tertiary seas, westward shift of marine deposition (Kulm and Fowler, 1974), and minor deformation of rocks in the northern Coast Range (Newton and Van Atta, 1976).

During the early Miocene, deposition continued in those basins that had received late Oligocene sediments. The late early Miocene saw broad uplift likely due to shallow imbricate thrusting of the abyssal deposits on the Juan de Fuca plate as it moved under the American plate (Kulm and Fowler, 1974; Seely and others, 1974). By early mid-Miocene, the older Tertiary strata were folded and faulted along a northeast structural trend in Oregon; the northeast regime prevailed in western Oregon into late Miocene (Beeson and others, 1979a). Shallow marine bays transgressed eastward along structural downwarps such as the west-trending ancestral lower Columbia River (south of the present Columbia River)-upper Nehalem basin and Grays Harbor basin (Snavely and Wagner, 1963). Overturned folds and slump structures in the Miocene Astoria Formation, deformed during deposition, indicate that the deepest part of this depositional basin remained in northern Oregon and lay west of the present coastline (Snavely and Wagner, 1963), where it has since remained. Most of the Coast Range province had emerged above sea level by mid-Miocene (Newton and Van Atta, 1976).

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Large sandstone deltas existed just east of Seaside-Astoria and Yaquina and prograded seaward. The Astoria Formation, found only on the northwestern side of the Coast Range in a series of marine embayments, formed in a deltaic and shallow marine environment (Niem and Van Atta, 1973). The Astoria Formation filled the upper continental slope basin and appears to have had its main depositional locus in the Angora Peak-Neahkahnie Mountain area (Tolson, 1976).

The Astoria delta was undoubtedly the mouth of the Columbia River because boulders within the Astoria had their origins in the Cascades, eastern Oregon, Montana, etc. (Tolson, 1976) and required the volume and pathway of the Columbia for deliverance at the Pacific Ocean. The Astoria Formation shows a westerly paleoslope (Tolson, 1976). The ancestral river depositing the Yaquina delta probably came through the Cascades also, as the Yaquina Formation contains andesite and dacite clasts (Snavely and others, 1980a) and is 600 m thick (Schlicker and others, 1973).

In the mid-Miocene, the plateau flood basalts spilled down the lower Columbia River downwarp, spreading south in the Willamette Valley and north into the Grays Harbor basin. One might conjecture that the basalts also crossed a low pass and flowed down the valley of the river supplying the Yaquina delta. The flows sought the lowest areas: pillow lavas and breccia record where the basalts entered a wet environment; elsewhere, they onlapped Tertiary highs. They overlie older formations from the Goble to the Astoria with a slight angular unconformity (Newton, 1969), testifying to previous subaerial erosion and deformation at the contact and smoothing the topography with their upper surfaces. Each flow likely displaced a stream, so subsequent flows came down valleys marginal to earlier flows. In the lower Columbia River Valley, apparently the Columbia River itself reestablished its valley at the margin of the Columbia River basalt (Lowry and Baldwin, 1952). Due to fluctuations of the Miocene shoreline, subaerial flows interfingered with nearshore marine and nonmarine sands and siltstones just east of Astoria (Lowry and Baldwin, 1952; Snavely and Wagner, 1963; Newton, 1969). Nonmarine mid-Miocene to early Pliocene sedimentary rocks are found in the downwarped ancestral lower Columbia River area (Wells and Peck, 1961; Dodds, 1963; Snavely and Wagner, 1963; Schlicker and others, 1972; Niem and Van Atta, 1973).

Any local eruptions of coastal basalt would have had to occur during this same time. If so, the north-trending group of vents near the shoreline erupted thick accumulations of basalt which formed local small subaerial islands. Snavely and others (1980b) suggest that the magma rose along zones of tensional rifting, but that underthrusting may have occurred during long time intervals between tension-related igneous events.

Following the Miocene basalts (about 10 my ago), a major episode of underthrusting, regional uplift, and erosion resulted in an unconformity at the base of the upper Miocene. By Pliocene, the sea had retreated to approximately its present position; marine deposition in northwest Oregon for this time was very limited, and subaerial erosion predominated. Pliocene Troutdale Formation river gravels were deposited in restricted areas along the lower Columbia River as far west as the Astoria area (Niem and Van Atta, 1973). Episodic downwarping and sedimentation continued to the Pleistocene as the axes of the basin and of deformation shifted westward (Silver, 1972; Snavely and others, 1980a).

Present elevation of the Troutdale Formation gravels in Astoria indicates at least 75 m of uplift since Pliocene deposition (Schlicker and others, 1972). Pleistocene marine terrace gravels and sands also mark changes of sea level and record continuing uplift during the late Cenozoic (Newton, 1969). Alluvium and unconsolidated deposits occur on both the wave cut and river terraces (Niem and Van Atta, 1973). The Columbia River continues to contribute clastic debris to the coastal plains; an arcuate coastline extends from Seaside to the Columbia River mouth covered by up to 50 m of post-glacial sands carried by the Columbia and redistributed by the ocean currents over the shallow shelf.

The late Cenozoic, then, saw considerable continental accretion off Oregon, which was accelerated along the northern Oregon coast where the Astoria fan deposits are the thickest (Kulm and Fowler, 1974). Accretion is explained by repeated underthrusting of the Pacific plate under the North American plate. Such compressional thrusting results in regional uplift and compaction, while accretion results from such an operation over time (Seely and others, 1974). The structure of the outer continental shelf and upper slope is an imbricate set of landward (eastward)-dipping slices which together form a melange wedge (Snavely and others, 1980b).

DISTRIBUTION OF MIOCENE BASALT IN WESTERN OREGON

The Columbia River Basalt Group stratigraphy in western Oregon is presented in Figure 7. As the geographic extent of basalt units gener-


Figure 7. Stratigraphy of Columbia River Basalt Group in western Oregon. Informal units have limited areal extent. (From Beeson and Moran, 1979).

ally decreases upsection (Wright and others, 1973), the Grande Ronde Basalt is the most widespread, the most voluminous (150,000 km³) (Swanson and Wright, 1976), and the oldest of the Yakima basalts (Waters, 1961). It has been dated from 16.5-14.0 my old (Holmgren, 1970; Watkins and Baksi, 1973) and includes, in western Oregon, the younger three of its four known magnetostratigraphic intervals. Subdivision into two members is based on magnesium content -- the "high Mg" member (upper two flows in western Oregon) is younger than the "low Mg" member (11 flows in western Oregon) (Nathan and Fruchter, 1974). There are three distinct Grande Ronde flow units in western Oregon: the reversed polarized low Mg, the normally polarized low Mg, and the normally polarized high Mg. Both the high Mg and low Mg Grande Ronde basalt members are recognized in western Oregon as far south as Stayton in the Willamette Valley (Beeson and others, 1976b,c; Norman, 1980) and as far west as the Nicolai Mountain area on the lower Columbia River (Snavely and others, 1973) (Figure 4). Grande Ronde plateau basalt noted at Clatskanie and Alder Bluff, 50 and 60 km east of Astoria along the lower Columbia River, flowed subaerially as far as Big Creek, 25 km east of Astoria (Niem and Van Atta, 1973; Snavely and others, 1973).

Along the lower Columbia River, 30 km east of Astoria, dikes of Depoe Bay basalt occur near some plateau Grande Ronde flows (Nicolai Mountain). Although Snavely and others (1973) do not distinguish high and low Mg members of the Depoe Bay Basalt, their chemical data (for which paleomagnetic measurements are lacking) indicate that both are present within, north, and south of the study area.

The Depoe Bay Basalt, like its equivalent Grande Ronde Basalt, is the oldest, most voluminous, and most widespread of the coastal basalts (Snavely and others, 1980a) although, as Snavely and others (1973) point out, plateau basalts are more extensive in northwestern Oregon and southwestern Washington than are coastal basalts. The southernmost extent of the Depoe Bay Basalt is a submarine linear ridge extending five kilometers south of Whaleback and Gull Islands, where it crops out. Although 15 m of Depoe Bay Basalt is also found offshore 17.6 km west of Depoe Bay (in the Standard-Union Nautilus well), the lavas are probably restricted to near the present coastline (Snavely and others, 1973).

Depoe Bay basalt occurs along the coast as far north as Hoquiam, Washington; outcrops are also found extending inland northeast from Cape Falcon. Snavely and others (1973) consider this 200+ km long outcrop pattern of intrusions to mark the belt along which the Depoe Bay basalt was extruded. The basalt intrudes and/or unconformably overlies the Astoria Formation and late Oligocene to middle Miocene siltstones and sandstones. Prominent Depoe Bay headlands include Mt. Gauldy, Mt. Hebo, Cape Lookout, Cape Meares, Cape Falcon, and Tillamook Head (Snavely and others, 1980a).

The Depoe Bay and Grande Ronde flows all exhibit remarkable uniformity (Snavely and others, 1973) despite their considerable lateral extents, and cannot be distinguished from each other in the field. They can be distinguished from the other two chemical types in western Oregon by their higher content of SiO_2 , lower total iron, and lower total TiO₂.

The Wanapum Basalt, dated from 14.5-13.6 my old (Watkins and Baksi, 1971), is represented in western Oregon by two of its four recognized members: the Frenchman Springs and Priest Rapids. The 3-5,000 km³ Frenchman Springs Member is the more extensive (Swanson and Wright, 1976) and has been subdivided into three units, in order of decreasing age, the Ginkgo, Sand Hollow, and Sentinel Gap. These three normally polarized units can be recognized by both lithology and trace element concentrations. The Priest Rapids basalt has been found in only limited extent in western Oregon (Beeson and Moran, 1979). The Frenchman Springs Member has been located south in the Willamette Valley as far as Stayton (Beeson and others, 1976b; Norman, 1980) and west as far as Bradley State Park (Kienle, 1971) and Clatskanie (Snavely and others, 1973) (Figure 4). The Cape Foulweather Basalt is correlative with the Frenchman Springs member; they exhibit identical and relatively uniform chemical compositions (Snavely and others, 1973; McDougall, 1976). Cape Foulweather Basalt crops out from Seal Rocks, Oregon, not only the southernmost exposure of the coastal basalts but also of the Yaquina Formation (Snavely and others, 1980a), north to the Grays River area of Washington. It is found in the Yaquina and Astoria Formations north and east of Yaquina Head (considered a vent by Snavely and others (1973)), and cuts Miocene and Oligocene sedimentary rocks east of the coast between Cape Foulweather and Newport (Snavely and others, 1973, 1980a). A submerged subaerial Cape Foulweather flow extends south of Yaquina Head for 13 km; the Cape Foulweather Basalt does not reach the Standard-Union Nautilus well offshore. Cape Foulweather dikes reportedly cut Depoe Bay sills at Ecola State Park and to the east (Snavely and others, 1973; Tolson, 1976; Penoyer, 1977).

After extrusion of the Frenchman Springs basalt, either Cascade uplift, plateau subsidence, northeast-trending folding, or dwindling volumes of lava prevented most later flows from spreading out over large areas (Beeson and others, 1979a). Only the Pomona flow of the Saddle Mountains Basalt has been found west of the Cascades, although its route to the west has yet to be determined as the unit has not been found between the Plateau and Cathlamet, Washington. The Saddle Mountains Basalt, much less than one percent of the total volume of Columbia River basalt, was erupted between 13.5-6 my ago (Atlantic Richfield Hanford Co., 1976; McKee and others, 1977) and encompasses a period of waning volcanism, accelerated folding, canyon cutting, and development of thick but local sedimentary deposits between flows (Swanson and others, 1979). The chemically and lithologically distinct Pomona flow, described by Schmincke (1964) and dated at 12 my by McKee and others (1977), occurs commonly in structural basins and as intracanyon flows in western Oregon. Despite a volume of 700 km³, approximately 45 times that of a single Grande Ronde flow (Swanson and Wright, 1978), the Pomona flow is relatively homogeneous (Schmincke, 1964).

The basalt of Pack Sack Lookout is one flow (Snavely and others, 1973; Hill, 1975), correlative in every respect with the Pomona flow; Kienle (1971) found the coastal unit to be chemically, morphologically, petrographically, stratigraphically, and paleomagnetically identical to the plateau Pomona. Basalt of Pack Sack Lookout occurs atop a sequence of Miocene basalt flows near Stella and Cathlamet, Washington (Snavely and others, 1973), near which it is found in channels cut in the older Grande Ronde Basalt (Niem and Van Atta, 1973; Snavely and others, 1973) (Figure 4). In the Pack Sack Lookout area, the coastal basalt is separated from an underlying Grande Ronde flow by about 1500 m of sedimentary rock (Snavely and others, 1973). Pack Sack Lookout basalt crops out 15 km northeast of Raymond, Washington, and also about 60 km south of Pack Sack Lookout along the Washington side of the lower Columbia River (Snavely and others, 1973). Since no local sources and very few dikes are found for Pack Sack basalt, Kienle (1971) considers the isolated exposures of Pack Sack Lookout basalt to be remnants of a once continuous Pomona flow; Snavely and others (1973) consider the absence of outcrops in the Willamette Valley and Puget lowland to be significant, indicative of possible local origin for the coastal basalt.

Beeson and others (1979b) noted the close correspondence of coastal basalt and post-Eocene sedimentary rocks in western Oregon and Washington (Figure 8) as mapped by Schlicker and others (1972), Beaulieu (1973), and Snavely and others (1973). Everywhere except at Mt. Hebo, the coastal basalts seem to occur only in post-Eocene sedimentary rocks and around the perimeter of the Eocene volcanic highlands (e.g., the Tillamook Highlands). "Older or lithified sedimentary rocks are seldom associated with these [coastal basalt] intrusives, despite the extensive occurrence of Eocene formations" (Beeson and others, 1979b).

MODE OF OCCURRENCE OF MIOCENE BASALT IN WESTERN OREGON

Intrusions of surficial basalt flows downward into sediments are grouped by Schmincke (1964, 1967) according to their gross structures: 1) fragmental intrusions (breccias or peperites), in which the sediment is usually fine-grained and unconsolidated (e.g., diatomite mud or vitric ash), and 2) smooth, sill-like invasions along bedding planes or injections of lava as tongues or globular masses into sediment, usually a fluvial sandstone, which has better defined bedding and greater strength. For the first case, he described how the "light, uncompacted sediments offer little resistance to the heavy, fluid lava" which can spread downward, "unguided by well defined bedding planes" and fragment and/or intermix with the sediments (Schmincke, 1964):

The hydrostatic pressure of liquid lava and of the still mobile inter-mixture of lava and sediment was so high in places that the lava intruded upward through its thin cover of sediments, exploded into the sediments, and congealed as peperite "dikes".

Schmincke (1964) summarized:



Figure 8. Areal distribution of coastal basalts and post-Eocene sediments in western Washington and Oregon. (Modified from Snavely and others, 1973). (From Beeson and others, 1979b).

A basalt flow may advance over a sedimentary layer without much mechanical deformation, or it may form a peperite layer between the sediment and the bulk of the overlying lava. Basalt may invade downward into the sediments at various levels in a smooth sill-like fashion with remarkably little deformation of the sediments, or it may occur in irregular forms, in "dikes", lobes, or tongues of solid lava, as autobreccia, or peperite. Sediment layers may be gently lifted to the top of the basalt, or may be fragmented, bulldozed aside, and intermixed with the basalt. ... Many of these features indicate that the invading basalt lava must have been very fluid.

Dynamic basalt/sediment interactions on the Plateau have been described by other workers (Waters in Schmincke, 1964; Swanson, 1967; Swanson and Wright, 1976). Swanson and Wright (1976) "estimate that more than half of the observed contacts between basalt and sedimentary rocks on the Columbia Plateau are invasive":

How are such contacts interpreted? Do they signify "normal" intrusive relations, in which basaltic magma never reached the surface before solidifying as in classic dikes and sills, or are they formed as lava flows burrow into unconsolidated sediments accumulating on the ground surface (invasive flows of Byerly and Swanson, 1978)? Both processes produce similar results.

Byerly and Swanson (1978) found:

... many 5-120 m thick basalt bodies, some covering hundreds of km², occur in sill-like relation to interbedded sedimentary rocks ... Tops of these bodies have thick glass selvedges, generally are nearly planar, and contain few vesicles. Locally, thin dikes and sills spout from the top and intrude the host sedimentary rock. All sill-like bodies intrude 3-20 m thick sedimentary deposits; none cuts an older flow, nor have any feeder dikes been found. ... Exposures show lateral gradation over hundreds to thousands of meters from surface flows through pillow-hyaloclastite complexes and peperites into invasive flows. ... Invasive flows may be found in any basaltic province where flows enter areas in which fine-grained sediments are accumulating.

Swanson and Wright (1976) write that:

... the key to proper interpretation lies in the stratigraphy. If the basalt is at its proper stratigraphic position relative to overlying flows, it almost certainly was a flow that invaded sediments at the ground surface. This is because thin sedimentary deposits, generally less than 10 m thick on the plateau, are light and hence exert little confining pressure; vesiculating magma rising and encountering such sediments would certainly blast through rather than spreading laterally into them. ... These conclusions are significant, because they show that invasive contacts provide insufficient, in fact totally misleading, evidence for the former presence of magma beneath the area.

A pillow-palagonite complex at the base of a basalt flow indicates flowage into water. Schmincke (1964) describes how such sediments, in the absence of water,

may be baked as much as 10 feet (3 m) (generally about 1 m) below the flow. Baked clay-rich rocks are brittle, and many show shrinkage jointing characterized by small polygonal columns generally less than 2 cm in diameter. Some baked sediments are oxidized to brick red at the contact, but most are blue-gray.

Perfect columnar jointing in sedimentary layers adjacent to basalt flows and intrusions is also noted by Lefebvre (1970): "In all cases, the joints have been perpendicular to the contact."

Reconstructions of the Miocene coastal environment in the Astoria and Yaquina areas gleaned from the sedimentary record (Niem and Van Atta, 1973; Tolson, 1976; Murphy and Niem, 1980) have detailed deltaic environments, which would include networks of distributary channels and low energy areas (marshes, lagoons, etc.). Although the coastal basaltsediment interactions occurred on a much larger scale than those described by Schmincke (1964, 1967) from the plateau, the similarities between the types of occurrences from the plateau margins and the coastal regions suggest similar processes were operating (Beeson and others, 1979b):

The Columbia River basalt flows, upon encountering the sediment of the coastal region, could have interacted with the sediments in a variety of ways similar to those described by Schmincke (1964). ... Basaltic lava would have ponded in local topographic lows such as coastal marshes, inlets, and deeper channels, as may have happened at Neahkahnie Mountain. Accumulating ponded basalt would overload and displace the underlying sediments, with accompanying sediment deformation and sliding. Tensional zones associated with deformation and sliding of the sediments adjacent to ponded basalt would be injected locally with basaltic dikes. This injection process would be aided if slide masses carried the chilled basalt margins with them, thereby exposing liquid basalt to the tensional zones. Shrinkage joints in the chilled margins of ponded basalt would also be injected locally with liquid basalt from the interiors, as may have occurred at Saddle Mountain ... (Baldwin, 1952). The overloading of unconsolidated sediments with basaltic lava would also tend to liquefy water-saturated layers between less permeable, more cohesive layers, thereby producing clastic dikes, common in the sedimentary rocks of the area.

Both the Depoe Bay and Cape Foulweather basalts exhibit basalt breccia, breccia dikes, and peperites resulting from intrusion of magma into water-saturated sediments with consequent rapid quenching, steam explosions, and penecontemporaneous deformation. For example, Niem and Van Atta (1973) and Niem and Cressy (1973) find locally altered and brecciated basalt contacts "suggesting that the igneous intrusions displaced still plastic or semi-lithified water-saturated sediments, throwing them into huge folds and jumbled angular blocks of sediment in a sandstone matrix." Irregular brecciated apophyses associated with penecontemporaneously folded sediments are particularly evident at the upper portion of the Tillamook Head sill at Indian Beach in Ecola State Park, where K/Ar and foraminifera dating confirm that the intrusion took place soon after deposition of the sediments (Niem and Cressy, 1973). Many dikes, sills, and irregular intrusions could also record the passive basalt-sediment interactions where a flow invaded the underlying sediments without significant sediment deformation.

Contacts in the study area, where observed, tend to be irregular

but very sharp, and oxidized baking, if present, is usually minimal; well-indurated baked and bleached sedimentary zones seem more common. Adjacent sediments may be jointed parallel to the basalt contact, to which some jointing in the basalt is also parallel, suggesting that they were heated by the intrusion and cooled similarly to the intrusion itself (e.g., at VP-26 and VP-30, Figure 9). Disruption is usually more evident in the basalt than in the sediments; brecciated and/or highly weathered contacts most often involve only the basalt (e.g., at VP-6, VP-29, VP-21, VP-24, VP-32. VP-2, Figure 9). At the Youngs River Falls quarry, sheared (2-5 cm wide zone) and then brecciated (15-20 cm wide zone) basalt is adjacent to baked, intact, well-indurated sedimentary rock. No vesicular basalt was noted except in the breccia fragments on Saddle Mountain.

Coastal basalts do not conform strictly to descriptions of invasive flows in that Cape Foulweather dikes are observed to cut Depoe Bay sills (Niem and Van Atta, 1973; Snavely and others, 1973; Tolson, 1976; Penoyer, 1977), whereas on the plateau, invasive basalts do not intrude other basalt flows (Swanson and Wright, 1976). Swanson and Wright (1976) also stress the significance of stratigraphy. Stratigraphy of the coastal basalts is hampered by the infrequency with which they contact each other; outcrops tend to be isolated and a regional detailed sedimentary stratigraphy is still being worked out and correlated.

GEOCHEMISTRY

INTRODUCTION

The Columbia River basalt flows are a chemically coherent and distinct group within which variations of major and minor elements serve to distinguish individual flows. Hill (1975) could find "no other basalts ... in the literature with chemical compositions as similar to these Miocene plateau basalts as were the [Miocene] coastal basalts." The Columbia River basalt flows as a whole resemble each other more than they do other basalt units. Studies to examine variation of geochemistry and petrography laterally within flows found no significant variation with distance (Atlantic Richfield Hanford Co., 1976).

Geochemistry has been critical for identification and correlation of Columbia River basalt flows. After Waters (1961) first recognized two distinct chemical types based on petrography and stratigraphy, Wright and others (1973) defined 11 "chemical types" among the Columbia River basalt flows based on major elements and demonstrated an overall relationship between chemical type and stratigraphic position. Using chemical type, lithology, and stratigraphy, they were able to group like flows and to correlate flows across the plateau. Osawa and Goles (1970) proposed using trace element abundances to characterize individual flows and "demonstrated the applicability of Neutron Activation Analysis technology for identifying trace elements" (Atlantic Richfield Hanford Co., 1976). Nathan and Fruchter (1974) established that most of the flow units have a unique identifying "fingerprint" based on the individual abundances of major and trace elements. The application of trace elements to the study of basalts has gained widespread acceptance among workers in both the plateau (Atlantic Richfield Hanford Co., 1976; Beeson and others, 1976a,b,c; McDougall, 1976; Beeson and Moran, 1979) and coast (Hill, 1975). Kienle (1971) and Beeson and others (1976a) found major and trace elements, respectively, a feasible way of correlating western Oregon flows with those of the plateau.

Magnetic polarities are particularly useful in distinguishing different groups within a chemically coherent unit: "The only reliable means we have found for providing a regional stratigraphic breakdown of the Grande Ronde basalt is by field mapping of paleomagnetic polarities" (Swanson and others, 1979). Chemical composition and magnetic polarity not only separate out groups of flows of indistinguishable petrographic appearance (e.g., the Grande Ronde sequence), but they also provide a means of establishing the affinities of petrographically unlike flows (e.g., phyric and aphyric Frenchman Springs flows).

Because each basalt flow covered the existing topography, the thickness of any flow may vary from one locality to another. Similarly, the degree of crystallinity may vary with the local thickness of the cooling unit. Neither of these two variables is useful for characterizing basalt types. Thus the two main techniques used here for classifying isolated outcrops of coastal basalt are trace element geochemistry and magnetic polarity.

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PROCEDURES

This geochemical study of the coastal basalts was designed to serve a two-fold purpose: 1) to establish conclusively both the occurrence and identity of mapped basalts as individual Columbia River basalt chemical types, and, having established this, 2) to examine aerial distribution patterns of the basalt units. While previous workers sampling the whole extent of the coastal basalts have subjected samples to major oxide analysis (Snavely and others, 1973; Hill, 1975; Tolson, 1976; Penoyer, 1977), no trace element analyses including this study area, other than Hill (1975) have been conducted.

If these basalts are the distal ends of plateau flows, one would expect to find only those units that have also been identified in western Oregon. Occurrences of units not previously identified in western Oregon would suggest either a western passage not yet discovered or a nonplateau origin.

Distribution patterns are of significance to any hypothesis regarding basalt origin. Linear arrangements of the outcrops of a single flow unit might represent either a dike marking a former fissure or the erosional inverted valley of an intracanyon flow. Perhaps the oldest flows and/or the most voluminous flows spread out over a larger area while the younger flows were confined to a central (downwarped) area, as was the case in the western Cascades (Beeson and others, 1979a). Or perhaps each succeeding flow was able to build further out on the platform created by the older flows. Distribution patterns could allow flow routes to be suggested to local or distant vent areas and could reveal the Miocene topography or tectonic regime. Although plateau basalts have not been traced through the Coast Range, distribution patterns could suggest where such pathways might have been or if all the basalt came down the lower Columbia River.

Within the arbitrarily limited study area, sampling was guided by accessibility of outcrop, shape of the plan view, and field determinations made during previous outings. Features to be sampled were generally selected from the maps of Schlicker and others (1972) and Beaulieu (1973); no attempt was made to remap basalt occurrences although contacts and structures were noted. Continuation of units from one outcrop to the next was not accurate and thorough sampling of all outcrops was not possible, so the features highlighted in this study are but a few pieces of the puzzle. Sample locations are indicated on Figure 9 and listed in Appendix B.

Care was taken to obtain unweathered geochemical samples and to sample the center of the unit rather than the margins. At the same time, magnetic polarity was measured at the outcrop using a portable fluxgate magnetometer. Samples were oriented with a Brunton compass and readings had to be repeatable. Magnetic polarity samples were taken from the lower margin of the flow because the slower-cooling flow interior's larger grains may be influenced later by the changing field and because the upper margin can be reheated by a succeeding flow. Hooper and others (1979) point out that the margins are more oxidized and therefore more likely to provide stable signals because the higher oxidation states retain their original magnetic signature better. In general, the original magnetism of a rock can be masked by such things



Figure 9. Location map of geochemistry samples and basalt types. (Base map from Wells and Peck, 1961; Schlicker and others, 1972; Beaulieu, 1973).

as induced magnetism of the present field (in this case, a normal overprinting of a reversed flow), lightning strikes which can reverse the polarity in very localized areas, or alteration of magnetic minerals.

Measurement of the original magnetic orientation recorded in a rock can also be done in the laboratory with more sophisticated equipment. Although agreement between field and laboratory measurements is quite good (Choiniere and Swanson, 1979; Hooper and others, 1979; Swanson and others, 1979), laboratory techniques are able to both "erase" all the overprinting in order to determine the true paleomagnetic orientation, including transitional ones, and to determine more precisely the particular inclination and declination of the paleomagnetic pole recorded. Eight of the coastal features included in this study were also sampled by R. Simpson of the U.S. Geological Survey in September 1979 for laboratory determination of the paleomagnetic direction.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Identification and Distribution

A total of 38 samples were analyzed by Instrumental Neutron Activation Analysis (INAA) for the following 17 elements: La, Fe, Sc, Sm, Ba, Hf, K, Co, Na, Ce, Eu, Yb, Lu, Th, Ta, Cs, Cr. Experimental procedures are outlined in Appendix A; results are tabulated in Appendix C.

Identification was based primarily on the lithology, polarity, and the trace element geochemistry, specifically the concentrations of Fe, La, Sc, Sm, Th, Eu, and Cr, as these elements are both the most distinguishing for identification purposes and the best resolved by the INAA method. Basalt units thus distinguished include the low Mg and high Mg Depoe Bay and Cape Foulweather. Plots of Fe vs. La (Figure 10) serve to illustrate the distinct groupings of basalt types, as does La/Sm vs. Eu (Figure 11). The Cape Foulweather flows have higher (usually > 9 percent) Fe than either low or high Mg Depoe Bay basalts, which both have 7-9 percent Fe. Cape Foulweather basalt has higher Sm (> 7 ppm), Eu (> 2 ppm), and lower Th (< 4.25 ppm); high Mg basalt has higher Cr (> 25 ppm), lower Sm (\leq 6 ppm), and lower La (< 22-24 ppm); low Mg basalt has lower Sc (30-35 ppm) (Hill, 1975; Beeson and Moran, 1979). Hill (1975) plotted both his plateau and coastal basalt analyses to 1) distinguish the different chemical types, and 2) show the similarity of the plateau-coastal correlative units. Figures 12 and 13 show two of Hill's plots, Fe vs. Sc and Fe vs. Th, plus the analyses from this study. Basalts analyzed in this study fall within the limits previously determined for Miocene coastal basalt chemical types and thus also correlate with the plateau types.

Only one sample (VP-3) does not fall consistently within a single chemical type. VP-3 is mapped by Beaulieu (1973) on U.S. 26 just east of Elsie (Figure 9) as an Eocene intrusion within undifferentiated Eocene sedimentary rocks. Altered, grey, porphyritic (abundant plagioclase laths to 5 mm, occasional pyroxene crystals to 2 mm), it forms excellent columns 25-30 cm in diameter that plunge gently (25°) almost due north (350°-355°). The pyroxene phenocrysts and columns physically distinguish this unit. Chemically, it has higher Sm (8.6 ppm) and lower Co (29.42 ppm) than all the other samples; Eu is high (2.33 ppm) like Cape Foulweather basalt, but low Fe (8.7 percent) rules this identification out; Th is low (2.45 ppm) like high Mg Depoe Bay basalt. In most



Figure 10. Plot of Fe vs. La concentrations. Circle (\bullet) = low Mg Depoe Bay Basalt; diamond (\bullet) = high Mg Depoe Bay Basalt; square (\bullet) = Cape Foulweather Basalt; $_{3}x$ = sample VP-3.

other elements, but not in lithology, this rock resembles low Mg Depoe Bay Basalt. Although the Tillamook volcanics cover a range of chemical variations, VP-3 would seem to have a higher K and lower Co than the values reported by Hill (1975). Due to its having characteristics in common with all the Miocene chemical types plus the Eocene volcanics and the sure identity of none, VP-3 cannot be classified conclusively on the basis of this analysis.

One sample (VP-9) experienced technical difficulties in the electronics of the detector/analyzer, and it has been discarded. The remaining 36 samples fall into three distinct groupings.

Low Mg Depoe Bay. The low Mg Depoe Bay basalts include a reversed and a normal magnetic unit. Although there are a total of two reversed and two normal magnetic subdivisions within the low Mg chemical type,



Figure 11. Plot of La/Sm vs. Eu concentrations. Symbols are as in Figure 10.

the oldest (R_1) reversed is not found in western Oregon and the oldest (N_1) normal is found as a single flow in Multnomah Creek and the Clackamas River drainage (Anderson, 1978; Beeson and Moran, 1979). Therefore, all the reversed flows are assumed to be the same, younger (R_2) reversed unit and all the normal flows are assumed to be the same, younger (N_2) normal unit.

The oldest Columbia River basalt type found in the coastal area is the reversed (R_2) low Mg Depoe Bay. Locations of these seven samples (VP-2, 12, 13, 14, 26, 27, 34) are plotted in Figure 9. Nelson's (1977) major element analysis of Sunset quarry rock (VP-12, 13) identifies the rock as low Mg type; Snavely and others (1973), using major elements, analyzed an outcrop along the assumed northeast continuation of Denver



Figure 12. Plot of Fe vs. Sc concentrations. (Modified from Hill, 1975). Solid symbols are for analyses of this study; open symbols are for analyses of Hill (1975). Circle (\bigcirc) = low Mg Depoe Bay Basalt; diamond $(\diamond \blacklozenge)$ = high Mg Depoe Bay Basalt; square $(\square \blacksquare)$ = Cape Foulweather Basalt; triangle (\bigtriangledown) = Pomona flow; ${}^{3}x$ = sample VP-3. The regions for low Mg and high Mg Grande Ronde Basalt and Frenchman Springs basalt are designated by dotted, dashed, and solid lines, respectively.

Point (VP-26, 27) as low Mg. Neither of these two analyses included magnetic determinations.

Along Beneke Road which heads northeast immediately west of Jewell, a series of mapped outcrops seems to define a linear pattern parallel to the longer series underlying Denver Point to the west. VP-28 is a sample from the northeasternmost mapped unit, which is extensively brecciated. The small core of solid rock is aphanitic to very fine-grained, dark grey basalt with plagioclase microphenocrysts. The reversed polarity suggests low Mg basalt, yet in La (21.24 ppm) and Sm (4.99 ppm), the sample matches high Mg chemistry. Although Na is unusual (< 2 percent),



Figure 13. Plot of Fe vs. Th concentrations. (Modified from Hill, 1975). Symbols are as in Figure 12.

in other elements VP-28 most closely resembles low Mg basalt and has been classified as such. It lacks the very high Cr (100-106 ppm) and lithology for Pomona basalt; lacks the high (> 7 ppm) Sm, La (25-30 ppm) and Sc (35-40 ppm) to be Priest Rapids basalt; lacks the lithology and Ba (2000 ppm) and Eu (> 4 ppm) to be Prineville basalt.

Lithologically, the samples are all fine- to very fine-grained, grey, and equigranular with evidence of plagioclase, usually as laths

less than one millimeter long; two samples (VP-34 and VP-27) each contain one 4-7 mm long clear plagioclase lath. As no significant differences were observed among the samples, the four locations they represent are assumed to be all the same flow, although three different reversed (R_2) flows are identified in western Oregon (Beeson and Moran, 1979). Conceivably these samples could actually represent three different flows.

Polarities on both VP-12 and VP-14 were determined in the laboratory by R. Simpson (pers. comm., 1980) as reversed with overlapping (i.e., indistinguishable) confidence limits.

Reversed low Mg Depoe Bay flows are distinguishable from normal low Mg Depoe Bay basalt only by their magnetic polarity. As such magnetic determinations have not been routinely published for the coastal basalts in northwestern Oregon, hypotheses about the continuation of these reversed units beyond the study area is difficult. Within the study area, mapped outcrops of reversed low Mg basalt are generally rectangular (Figure 9). Linear patterns can be imagined extending southwest from the Nehalem basin (VP-28) through Denver Point (VP-26, 27) to VP-34; another line extends northwest along Highway 202, where intrusions are well exposed at Cooperage quarry (VP-14) and Sunset quarry (VP-12, 13). The reversed and normal low Mg basalts together separate the plateau and Eocene basalt flows on their east from the younger Miocene coastal basalt features on their west.

Sixteen samples determined to be low Mg normal (N_2) make up the second oldest coastal basalt unit (Figure 9). The rocks all tend to be grey, fine-grained, and equigranular, but fall into two tentative groups on the basis of a pervasive "mottling" or weathering characteristic: in

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half the samples (VP-1, 4, 5, 22, 30, 31, 33, 36) the interior rock becomes patchy while the exterior has a reddish to yellowish weathering coat. Plagioclase laths to 2 mm may be apparent (VP-1, 31). Samples from Barth Falls (VP-1) and Fishhawk Falls (VP-4, 5) as analyzed by R. Simpson (pers. comm., 1980) are normally polarized, indistinguishable from each other, and distinct from the other samples that he analyzed. The easily stained, mottled samples are spatially coherent, all found northwest of Jewell along Highway 202 at Fishhawk Falls (VP-4, 5), the "ring dike" on the South Fork of the Klaskanine River (VP-22, 30, 31, 33), at Barth Falls (VP-1), and just southeast of Barth Falls (VP-36).

The remaining eight samples appear more homogeneous (VP-15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 25, 32) and are found over a wide area: from the Coxcomb Hill sill in Astoria (VP-20) south to the dike on Highway 26 just west of Elsie (VP-16, 32); the dikes south (VP-17) and southwest (VP-25) of Humbug Mountain are low Mg basalt, similar to basalts exposed in quarries on Highway 26 just east of Tillamook Head (VP-18, 19) and at Ecola State Park (VP-15). Penoyer (1977) analyzed the large, non-porphyritic dike southwest of Humbug Mountain (VP-17), which is low Mg on the basis of major elements.

The peculiar weathering habit which superficially separates the normally magnetized low Mg Depoe Bay basalt unit into two groups may not be a significant or valid distinction; no other differences between the samples were observed.

Tolson (1976) mapped a large area of low Mg Depoe Bay flow, breccia, local peperites, and pillow basalts between the Lewis and Clark and Youngs Rivers and speculated that a large sill underlies much of that area. Penoyer (1977) carried that unit east toward Humbug Mountain and south in the direction of Neahkahnie Mountain, a thick low Mg basalt accumulation (Snavely and others, 1973). While the dikes south and east of Saddle and Humbug Mountains are low Mg Depoe Bay basalt and Penoyer (1977) analyzed a flow at the southeast base of Humbug Mountain as low Mg, the mass of Humbug Mountain breccia is very similar to the high Mg Depoe Bay basalt breccia of Saddle Mountain.

High Mg Depoe Bay. Only two samples were analyzed as high Mg Depoe Bay basalt chemical type: one (VP-37) is of fragments in the Saddle Mountain breccia; the other (VP-23) is from one of the northeasttrending dikes encountered along the Saddle Mountain trail to the top (Figure 9). Both are dark grey with abundant plagioclase microphenocrysts; the dike is coarser (very fine-grained) than the breccia clasts (aphanitic). Snavely and others (1973) analyzed a pillow from Saddle Mountain as Depoe Bay basalt, and its 4.7 percent MgO further identifies it as high Mg; the sample correlates with VP-37. Penoyer (1977) identified a "nonporphyritic dike on Saddle Mountain", which is VP-23, as high Mg chemical type using major elements. Penoyer analyzed one additional non-porphyritic high Mg sill about 2.5 km west of Humbug Mountain, as did Tolson (1976) 14 km to the north. These are the only known outcrops of high Mg basalt in the study area; Humbug Mountain, so similar to Saddle Mountain and only 3.5 km away, may be composed of high Mg breccia also, although Penoyer's (1977) analysis of a flow at its base is low Mg Isolated outcrops of low Mg and high Mg basalt cannot be basalt. readily distinguished in the field, so without laboratory analysis, the separate distribution of the two types is not certain.

High Mg Depoe Bay basalt is analyzed near Nicolai Mountain and at Cannon Beach (Snavely and others, 1973); Baldwin (1952) notes the similar breccias at Saddle Mountain, Humbug Mountain, Onion Peak and nearby peaks, and Wickiup Mountain; to this list Niem and Van Atta (1973) add Sugarloaf Mountain and Angora Peak, and Dodds (1970) adds Big Creek canyon. Layfield (1936) suggested that Saddle and Humbug Mountains were once connected and then eroded. Known and presumed high Mg basalt forms a broad band extending southwest from the Big Creek/Wickiup Mountain area through Saddle Mountain and Humbug Mountain and out of the study area to peaks such as Onion, Sugarloaf, and Angora.

Cape Foulweather. Cape Foulweather basalt, the youngest and perhaps most varied chemical type found in the study area, was assigned to 10 basalt samples on the bases of lithology and trace element geochemistry: VP-6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 21, 24, 29, 35, 38 (Figure 9). The basalt at Youngs River Falls (VP-6, 7, 29, 38) is aphanitic to medium-grained with rare plagioclase phenocrysts up to 5 mm long. Geochemically it is distinguished from the other Cape Foulweather samples by high Cr (> 45 ppm)(cf. Hill, 1975). Snavely and others (1973) identified basalt from the Youngs River Falls quarry (VP-6) as Cape Foulweather on the basis of major elements; the same basalt was analyzed by R. Simpson (pers. comm., 1980) as normally polarized. The high Cr, normal polarity, and rare plagioclase phenocrysts suggest that this Youngs River Falls basalt is correlative with the Sand Hollow flow of the Frenchman Springs member, noted for its high Cr (Atlantic Richfield Hanford Co., 1976; McDougall, 1976) and sparse plagioclase phenocrysts (Atlantic Richfield Hanford Co., 1976). Penoyer (1977) reported Cape Foulweather intrusives west of the

Lewis and Clark River (Figure 9) with sparse plagioclase phenocrysts and 2-5 percent olivine in the groundmass, which also distinguishes Sand Hollow (Atlantic Richfield Hanford Co., 1976). However, his extrusive Cape Foulweather breccia and pillow lavas, also with rare phenocrysts, have 0-4 percent olivine, which does not clearly match the Sand Hollow olivine content.

The smaller basalt feature (VP-10) 1.4 km southeast of the Youngs River Falls dike resembles closely the samples on the South Fork of the Klaskanine River (VP-21, 24) and along Highway 202 (VP-35). They are all fine- to medium-grained with abundant plagioclase phenocrysts 5-10 mm long; the outcrop near Youngs River Falls has occasional glomerocrysts more than 2 cm long. The basalt southeast of Youngs River Falls (VP-10) is normally polarized, but its confidence oval does not overlap the Youngs River Falls oval (R. Simpson, pers. comm., 1980). The low concentration of Cr in these abundantly phyric samples (VP-10, 21, 24, 35) suggests further that they are equivalent to a Frenchman Springs Ginkgo flow, noted for abundant plagioclase phenocrysts and glomerocrysts (Atlantic Richfield Hanford Co., 1976).

Seal Rocks and the Otter Crest "volcanic neck" (VP-8, 11) south of the study area are aphanitic to very fine-grained with abundant but generally smaller plagioclase phenocrysts (maximum observed length 7 mm; usual length less than 5 mm). Kienle (1971) identified a lower Ginkgo flow of reversed, transitional polarity at Oregon City, in the Dalles area, and at the Mosier syncline in the Columbia River Gorge. This unique paleomagnetic marker horizon, which he correlates with the basal Ginkgo flow at Vantage, Washington, is not found along the lower Columbia River valley (Kienle, 1971) or in the Clackamas River drainage (Anderson, 1978). Kienle (1971; pers. comm., 1980) reported a technically reversed Cape Foulweather Basalt at Seal Rocks (VP-11); Choiniere and Swanson (1979) determined that samples from the volcanic neck (VP-8) and Rocky Point are reversed and correlative with two distinct flows in southcentral Washington. Interlaboratory differences and varying corrections for dip notwithstanding, samples VP-8 and VP-11 and the flows of Oregon City and the Mosier syncline may be the same, highly unusual, reversed Frenchman Springs flow.

These tentative Cape Foulweather correlations to the Frenchman Springs stratigraphy would make the southern, reversed, lowest Ginkgo flows the oldest; the next oldest are the Ginkgo outcrops southeast of Youngs River Falls; and the Youngs River Falls Sand Hollow flow would then be the youngest Cape Foulweather unit. A transitional or excursional reversed flow exposed to a normal field could be overprinted as normal, concealing its reversed character from the fluxgate magnetometer. However, samples for each Cape Foulweather type were laboratory-analyzed and thus can be concluded to be truly distinct, especially as their lithology, geochemistry, and spatial locations indicate the same groups.

Tolson (1976) and Penoyer (1977) both reported a non-porphyritic basalt with Cape Foulweather chemistry west of the Lewis and Clark River (Figure 9) which they each mapped as Depoe Bay on the basis of lithology while noting (Tolson, 1976) that perhaps the presence or absence of phenocrysts was not a sufficient identification criterion. Such an aphyric Cape Foulweather flow was not identified in this study area. Penoyer (1977) mapped this aphyric unit, however, at the base of a 100 m thick non-porphyritic sill, the top of which is low Mg Depoe Bay basalt.

The Cape Foulweather Basalt is limited primarily to the western portion of the study area. The abundantly porphyritic basalt forms a west-northwest band along the South Fork of the Klaskanine River while the sparsely porphyritic flows and intrusions form a broad arcuate band generally extending along the Youngs River and west of the Lewis and Clark River.

Pattern

Patterns can be both expected by and explained by either hypothesis regarding coastal basalt origin. In examining the coastal basalt pattern as a whole (Figure 4), Snavely and others (1973) suggested:

The regional distribution of dikes and sills suggests that the basalt magma that fed the coastal Miocene basalts rose along a major north-trending deep crustal fracture zone that extended from Seal Rocks northward to Hoquiam and that this zone was offset by a major northeast-trending fracture zone that also controlled the emplacement of Miocene intrusive rocks.

The "northeast-trending fracture zone" includes the study area.

Faults, folds, and lineaments for northwestern Oregon have decidedly northeast or northwest trends; these structurally weaker zones along which rocks have moved could have provided ascension routes for underlying magma. Local vents controlled by tectonic forces would probably define linear zones. In the plateau, vents for single flows are confined to narrow linear systems along the trend of the dike swarm rather than scattered throughout the area covered by a flow (Swanson and others, 1975; Swanson and Wright, 1976).

In the plateau-origin hypothesis, basalt flows in western Oregon would be controlled by surficial structures such as stream valleys and resistant high masses. But topographic structures could also be created and controlled by the same stress regime called upon to allow linear vent systems to operate. Once a flow filled a stream valley, the stream would have to relocate, usually adjacent to the old stream valley. This progression would result in inverted topography and subparallel, possibly linear systems.

Non-linear dike patterns could be produced by lava following sinuous drainage systems (e.g., deltaic distributary channels, meandering streams) or being diverted into intersecting routes or around topographic highs or by curvature related to dip or local stress. On the plateau, Taubeneck (1970) found that trends of dikes are most consistent in competent host rock without planar structures. Such dikes tend to be vertical and straight. Bedding, schistosity, contacts, and faults commonly cause deviations in the trend. None of the coastal intrusions are found in competent host rock, and irregularity in dike form and trend is the rule. As Beeson and others (1979b) point out:

Non consistent orientations of dikes is evident, indicating the apparent lack of a regional stress pattern, such as was present in the Columbia Plateau. In most cases, in fact, the dikes can be described as irregular rather than tabular masses.

The dikes themselves are irregular rather than straight and vertical; they are not oriented in a consistent or parallel arrangement within a zone; they do not as flow groups define parallel linear zones.

A rough pattern can be described from the myriad of isolated coastal basalt outcrops in the study area (Figure 9). The reversed and normal low Mg basalts occurring from the Wickiup Ridge area northwest to Astoria and from Nicolai Mountain southwest to Elsie and Neahkahnie Mountain separate the Eocene and plateau basalts from the younger Miocene coastal basalts to the west. Exposures of the normal low Mg flows also occur from Elsie west to Tillamook Head and from Youngs River Falls south to Sugarloaf Mountain. The high Mg basalts, occurring in a northeast-southwest band from Wickiup Ridge/Nicolai Mountain to Angora Peak, are flanked by predominantly low Mg flows. Outcrops along the northwest-trending South Fork of the Klaskanine and parallel Youngs Rivers are Cape Foulweather Basalt, which also dominates an arcuate region between the Lewis and Clark River and the ocean.

The chemical analyses performed in this study must modify previous models for coastal basalt generation. The Depoe Bay Basalt linear system which seemed to extend from Nicolai Mountain southwest past Elsie is now known to be composed of at least two basalt types: on Highway 26 near Elsie the basalt is normal low Mg; on Highway 202 at Denver Point it is reversed. The Denver Point reversed dike is probably related to the reversed unit just east of Humbug Mountain and perhaps to the reversed unit northeast of Jewell on Beneke Road. The samples from Denver Point and east of Humbug Mountain are the two with the single large plagioclase laths (page 47). Northwest-trending reversed outcrops form a second trail, perhaps diverging from the first somewhere near Nicolai Mountain, where a reversed flow could have entered the coastal region.

Linear zones or sinuous patterns can be devised for the pervasive low Mg normal units. Perhaps the basalt at Fishhawk Falls swung around through the intrusions under Saddle Mountain and back north to the Klaskanine River oxbow and Barth Falls. Maybe the Klaskanine River outcrop is a ring dike and elsewhere the normal low Mg intrusions are remnants of vent systems subparallel to the older reversed ones. Both low Mg basalt types are almost exclusively intrusive in the east and north, joined by extrusive units in the region west of the high Mg basalt. Even this observation can be explained either as intrusions concentrated in narrow vent systems while flows occur (with intrusions) over an adjacent area (cf. the Columbia Plateau), or as flows confined to stream channels and then emptying into and invading marshy nearshore areas at the river outlets.

The high Mg Depoe Bay basalt outcrops form a band with a bend in it subparallel to the bend in the low Mg system as it heads west toward Humbug Mountain. This bend seems to reflect the Eocene Tillamook Highlands contact line. The high Mg flow(s) might have come down the lower Columbia downwarp to Nicolai Mountain and Wickiup Ridge and then southwest through Saddle and Humbug Mountains, turning along a path west toward Tillamook Head but eventually heading southwest through Sugarloaf Mountain to Angora Peak. Baldwin (1952) traced the Wickiup Mountain breccia east to plateau units at Bradley State Park. The high Mg path has low Mg intrusions on the landward side and both extrusive and intrusive units on the seaward side. The extrusive mass would be easier to erode and a stream settling in on the contact could provide a path for the high Mg basalt and water for extensive brecciation. Or maybe the high Mg lava was channeled by downwarping due to low Mg basalt accumulation and loading in the central area. Ponded water or wet unconsolidated mud could have resulted in the brecciation of the high Mg basalt (Layfield, 1936).

Assuming Humbug Mountain breccia to be high Mg Depoe Bay, as Saddle Mountain breccia is, and the intrusions south and east of both mountains to all be low Mg Depoe Bay, as the ones analyzed proved to be, the younger high Mg basalt conveniently overlies the older low Mg basalt. Baldwin (1952) reported a north-northwest dip of 10° for the Saddle Mountain breccias (rudely stratified), which neatly accounts for the exposures of older material, including Penoyer's (1977) low Mg flow, on the south and east sides of both Saddle Mountain and, by analogy, Humbug Mountain. The high Mg dikes within Saddle Mountain could be autointrusive from a still molten mass within the body of the mountain or a second flow filling the joints that formed parallel and perpendicular to the Saddle Mountain northwest-trending ridge.

Alternatively, the high Mg basalts erupted along a northeast fissure zone into water or water-saturated sediments. Feeder dikes would have to be hidden beneath the mountains and eroded away in between the mountains. Neither Layfield (1936) nor Baldwin (1952) considered the small dikes within Saddle Mountain to be feeders; there are no known dikes on Humbug Mountain. The dikes preserved between the mountains are not feeders, as Baldwin (1952) speculated, because they are not of high Mg chemistry.

The oldest of the Cape Foulweather Ginkgo flows (reversed) apparently came through the Mosier syncline and along a route to Oregon City, from whence it flowed through to the coast to form the Seal Rocks sill. Such a localized flow, not found in major basalt piles (e.g., Multnomah Creek, Clackamas River), indicates a probable intracanyon flow, which also gives the lava a pathway through the emerging Coast

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Range. A local origin for this magnetically distinct flow requires almost simultaneous eruption with its plateau equivalent in a very localized area.

The younger Ginkgo flow, normally polarized, forms a series of dikes and sills along the South Fork of the Klaskanine River, either a vent system or a localized flow, mostly confined to the Astoria Formation (Dodds, 1963). Access to this area for a flow could have been from Wickiup Ridge, the top 183 m of which are porphyritic flows (Dodds, 1963), and from there down the Klaskanine River, turning southwest near Youngs River Falls and into a mass of sediments overlying the Depoe Bay Basalts; Penoyer (1977) reported Cape Foulweather dikes, sills, and flows locally abundantly porphyritic east of Tillamook Head. Offshoots could have flowed to the immediate northeast of Saddle Mountain, where Penoyer (1977) recorded a one meter thick dike and rare float of Cape Foulweather Basalt. (This porphyritic dike has Depoe Bay chemisty; rare Grande Ronde flows are porphyritic and are found in western Oregon (M.H. Beeson, pers. comm., 1980).) Dodds (1963) reported porphyritic basalt dikes cutting Green Mountain (between the Youngs and Klaskanine Rivers, Figure 9). Green Mountain itself, however, is described as having only "occasional large feldspar phenocrysts" (Dodds, 1963), suggesting it is the younger Sand Hollow flow. Perhaps these porphyritic dikes are autointrusive Sand Hollow basalt type, or perhaps the abundantly porphyritic flow is not a Ginkgo flow but instead a younger flow.

The Sand Hollow flow is found at Youngs River Falls and at Green Mountain and Eels Ridge (aka Green Mountain Sister or Sister Green) as remnants of thick medium-grained sills; Tolson (1976) suggested that

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Green Mountain Sister, composed of intrusive and extrusive Cape Foulweather Basalt, may be a southern extension of the Youngs River Falls system. The "ring dike" at Youngs River Falls displaces gently dipping marine sedimentary rocks to near vertical orientation at the contact; the arcuate shape and disruptive nature of the basalt feature could be compatible with a local origin. Alternatively, this sinuous dike resembles an oxbow in plan (Beeson and others, 1979b), suggesting control by a stream parallel to but south of the abundantly porphyritic intrusions. Sparsely porphyritic sills follow Youngs River northwest to Youngs River Falls. Here the basalt pattern starts a hairpin turn which coincides with the oxbow and oxbow cutoff imaginable from Tolson's (1976) map. Rarely phyric Cape Foulweather Basalt forms a broad arcuate ridge of extrusive rock curving around seaward of the Lewis and Clark River, paralleling the Depoe Bay basalt/sediment contact, and thinning to the south to but tens of meters thick (Tolson, 1976; Penoyer, 1977). Perhaps here the ancestral Lewis and Clark River had nearly eroded the Depoe Bay Basalt in its path when the Cape Foulweather Basalt displaced it to the north. Other scenarios are certainly possible.

GEOPHYSICS

INTRODUCTION

To what depth the coastal basalt dikes extend is a critical test of the alternative hypotheses regarding their origin. Dikes marking former vents would likely be connected at depth with a magma source or conduit, i.e., these dikes would be "rooted" at depth. Invasive flows, on the other hand, would be "rootless." The coastal basalts occur in marine sediments, and these two rock types can be distinguished on the basis of their physical properties such as density, seismic velocity, and magnetic susceptibility. This makes subsurface investigation of the coastal basalts particularly amenable to geophysical methods. The principal geophysical technique employed in this study was gravity.

In 1964, Bromery and Snavely published gravity and magnetic traverses and constructed a regional geophysical picture of northwestern Oregon. In conjunction with this survey, Snavely and Wagner (1964) determined formation densities for the major rock types in the Coast Range area. Berg and Thiruvathukal (1967) made a gravity survey of the state of Oregon and produced the state Complete Bouguer Gravity Anomaly and Free Air Gravity Anomaly maps, and Thiruvathukal and others (1970) discussed the regional gravity of Oregon in terms of crustal depths and patterns. These studies are continued offshore by Dehlinger and others (1967) and north into Washington state and Washington offshore by Bonini and others (1974).
Three areas were chosen for detailed geophysical investigation (Figure 14) based on accessibility, basalt outcrop pattern, and basalt type: 1) Youngs River Falls, a U-shaped feature of Cape Foulweather chemistry, accessible via a network of Crown Zellerbach logging roads; 2) the South Fork of the Klaskanine River, a "ring dike-like" feature of low Mg Depoe Bay chemistry, accessible via Crown Zellerbach and Oregon State Forestry Department roads; 3) Fishhawk Falls and Denver Point near Jewell, two parallel linear dikes, both of low Mg Depoe Bay chemistry but one normally polarized and one reversed, intersected by State Highway 202. In all cases, the access road runs approximately perpendicular to the strike of the outcrop under study.

PROCEDURES

Seven gravity lines, four in this study, have been conducted over these coastal basalt dikes. At Youngs River Falls, two roughly perpendicular lines cross and parallel the axis of the U: 34 stations (A-B line) crossing the southeast limb were measured by A.G. Johnson, M. Moran, R. Perttu, and M.H. Beeson (pers. comm., 1978); 55 stations (P line) continue this line across the northwest limb; 26 stations (S-N line) and 13 stations ("80" line), together constituting a traverse along the U axis, were measured by the 1979 and 1980, respectively, Portland State University Field Geophysics classes (pers. comm., 1979, 1980).

The ring dike-like basalt outcrop on the South Fork of the Klaskanine River was traversed by two gravity lines, one over each of the crescent-shaped segments. Fifty-five stations (T line) across the



Figure 14. Location map of gravity traverses (marked in red) over coastal basalt features. (Base map from Wells and Peck, 1961; Schlicker and others, 1972; Beaulieu, 1973).

northeast dike are continued southwest of Highway 202 by 39 stations (M line) across the southwest dike.

The two parallel linear dikes approximately six kilometers northwest of Jewell are intersected by Highway 202, along which 76 stations (J line) were occupied.

Spacing between stations was controlled by distance to the outcrop.

In general, stations were 20 m apart directly over the basalt, increasing to about 50 m separation for 200 m on either side of the basalt; stations extending the lines to establish the background values were about 100 m apart.

Measurements were read with a Worden gravimeter kindly loaned by the School of Oceanography, Oregon State University. Stations on lines P, T, M, and J, established in this study, were first paced, read with the gravimeter, and marked with five-inch nails and flagging. Within a week, the stations were reoccupied during the transit survey to establish elevation and location. The J line across Fishhawk Falls and Denver Point was surveyed into a local U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey benchmark (Z 195) on Highway 202; for the other six lines, one station plotting on a contour line was assigned that contour's value and all other stations were measured relative to it. (All four lines at Youngs River Falls are tied to the same point.) This nails-and-flagging system worked admirably with one mysterious exception: upon returning to the M line, all traces of the station markers were gone. These station locations were approximately recovered by the previously recorded pacing between stations, and the elevations were estimated from a 1":1000' map contoured at 20' intervals provided by the Crown Zellerbach corporation.

Absolute gravity, established as 980641.35 mgals at Portland State University by Beeson and others (1976b), was read at the beginning and end of each field day. Local base stations in the field were reoccupied approximately every two hours and were tied to the Portland State University station. At least two acceptable readings were taken at every gravity station; readings had to be repeatable to .01 mgal (.1 dial division). Instrument temperature was read at every station, and all observed readings were multiplied by a temperature-correction factor published by Texas Instruments, Inc. (1963). To compensate for instrument drift and tidal forces, a drift curve for each field day was manually constructed, and all readings were corrected to it.

Terrain corrections were performed by hand using the Hammer method as outlined by Dobrin (1976). Zones D-I were calculated at station spacings not greater than 250 m; zone J was calculated approximately every 500 m; zones K-L were calculated at stations spaced approximately every 750 m; zone M was read at the end and midpoint stations for each line. Values for intermediate stations were linearly interpolated. Base topographic maps used were U.S. Geological Survey 7 1/2' quadrangles (available only for the Youngs River Falls area), 15' quadrangles, and 1:250,000 sheets.

All transit survey data were reduced to establish an elevation, latitude, and longitude for each station. A best fit straight line was approximated to each traverse perpendicular to the strike of the basalt feature, and all stations were projected onto it.

Computer program GRAVPLOT (Jones, 1977), when supplied with station elevation, terrain correction, latitude, and observed absolute gravity, calculated the theoretical gravity, Free Air Correction, Free Air Anomaly, Bouguer Correction, Simple Bouguer Anomaly, and Complete Bouguer Anomaly; these data are tabulated in Appendix D. The 1930 International Formula was used to compute theoretical gravity. Both the Bouguer and terrain corrections were based on the standard reduction density of 2.67 g/cc. The terrain correction, however, was later adjusted according to the variation of surface rock densities from this standard.

Errors in gravity are estimated as follows:

elevation	.03	mgal
latitude	.01	mga 1
instrument reading	.01	mga l
terrain correction	.05	mga 1
drift	.03	mga 1

Since the error sources are random, the total error can be estimated by $\sqrt{\Sigma e^2}$, where e is the error due to each source (A.G. Johnson, pers. comm., 1979). For this study, then, an error of .07 mgal may be associated with each gravity value.

Modelling was done on the Portland State University Honeywell computer using BOUGUERFIT and FREEAIRFIT, previously adapted from Oregon State University programs and described in Jones (1977). These programs consider only a two dimensional cross-section, the third dimension being assumed infinite and parallel to strike. Errors due to the two-dimensional assumption were not considered here. The subsurface is approximated by polygonal shapes of specified density, the gravity contribution of which are tabulated at locations along the surface. Both programs are equipped to subtract out three different regional gradients from the calculated gravity anomaly.

Regional gravity surveys conducted for Oregon onshore (Berg and Thiruvathukal, 1967a,b) and offshore (Dehlinger and others, 1967) and for Washington (Bonini and others, 1974) (Figures 15 and 16) were used to estimate the regional gradient along each traverse. A listing of individual station locations and values measured for northwestern Oregon was provided by the School of Oceanography, Oregon State University.



Figure 15. Regional Complete Bouguer Gravity Anomaly map of northwest Oregon. (From Berg and Thiruvathukal, 1967b). Lightly dashed line is revised (this study) +10 mgals contour.



Figure 16. Regional Free Air Gravity Anomaly map of northwestern Oregon. (From Berg and Thiruvathukal, 1967a). Lightly dashed line is revised (this study) +10 mgals contour.

In applying filters to the regional gravity data of Oregon, Thiruvathukal and others (1970) generated regional contour maps that emphasized anomalies originating at various depths. For both the Complete Bouquer Anomaly (CBA) and the Free Air Anomaly (FAA), the regional gravity due to mass distributions at or deeper than 63 km shows a steadily decreasing gradient from the coast to the Willamette Valley. But masses at depths of approximately 15 km (lower crust) on both the CBA and FAA show a steep increase eastward over the study area, presumably due to the Eocene Tillamook Highlands (Bromery and Snavely, 1964). These relatively shallow regional trends influence the local gravity traverses, and correction factors often are required to separate out and eliminate their effects. In this study, the regional gravity correction was a gradient applied as a function of distance and effectively was subtracted from the observed reading, although practically, the factor was simply read into the modelling programs and the correction added to all calculated points.

The gravity models were extended approximately 70-100 km on both sides of the study area to eliminate edge effects due to otherwise abrupt ends of model lines, and to allow for the gravity contributions of nearby features not specifically traversed. Effects of the lower crust and mantle are assumed to be incorporated into the regional correction; the model extends only five kilometers in depth (upper crust) because there are no geologic constraints for the deeper subsurface and because the near surface features dominate the local surveys. Regional models were checked against the regional maps to make sure that calculated regional gravity conformed to the published values. Geophysical units used in modelling were drawn from many sources (Snavely and Wagner, 1964; Schlicker and others, 1972; Niem and Van Atta, 1973; Beeson and others, 1976b; Newton and Van Atta, 1976; Tolson, 1976) and are listed in Appendix E. Although specific densities are assigned to each formation, the density contrast between formations is the fundamental concern for gravity work.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Fishhawk Falls-Denver Point

Northwest of Jewell, the J line runs N61W along a 3.75 km stretch of Oregon State Highway 202, which squarely intersects two approximately parallel linear dikes (Figure 17). Denver Point is underlain by a dike of low Mg (reversed) Depoe Bay chemistry which outcrops from station J59 to station J55. Nearly two kilometers northwest, between stations J24-J2, is the outcrop of Fishhawk Falls, a low Mg (normal) Depoe Bay dike. The surrounding sedimentary rock units are mapped as Oligocene to Miocene marine sedimentary rocks by Beaulieu (1973). The road follows Fishhawk Creek, which cuts both basalt bodies; tributaries to this creek intersect the gravity line at J75 and J37-1/2. Relief along the line is 85 m (elevation increasing from east to west), although it may be greater in directions normal to the stream valley in which the traverse Magnitude of the initial terrain correction ranged from .96 mgal lies. to 1.43 mgals; adjustments for outcropping rock types of varying densities ranged from -.01 mgal to .06 mgal.

A regional upper crust model along a N51W line of section, constructed for the J and Youngs River Falls lines, is 210 km long; km 0



Figure 17. J line gravity traverse over Fishhawk Falls and Denver Point. (Geologic base map from Beaulieu, 1973).

is in the Tualatin Valley, km 110 is the coastline, and km 210 is northwest offshore. Geologic constraints were provided by well logs and other cross-sections (Figure 18). Four offshore exploratory test wells (Snavely and others, 1977) on the continental shelf distinguished between basalt and sediment and provided the depths to which sediments were encountered: well P-075 bottomed out at 3.1 km depth in basalt,



Figure 18. Locations of wells used in regional upper crust models. (Modified from Snavely and others, 1977).

while wells P-072, P-0150, and P-0155 remained in sedimentary units throughout their total depths of 2.5 km, 4 km, and 3.4 km, respectively.

Onshore well logs recorded by Newton (1969) include the 2.4 km deep Barber well in Portland, the 2.8 km deep Cooper Mountain No. 1 well in the Tualatin Valley, and the 2.2 km deep Hoagland No. 1 well in the Astoria basin. The Tertiary formations distinguished in these records became the basis for the selection of geophysical units in the Cross-sections A-A' and B-B' drawn across northwestern Oregon model. (Bromery and Snavely, 1964; Snavely and Wagner, 1964) intersect the N51W crustal section inland, as does a cross-section constructed by Beeson and others (Newberry Road, 1976b) controlled by the Barber and Cooper Mountain wells; cross-section A-A' in the Nehalem basin (Newton and Van Atta, 1976) between the 2.6 km deep Clark and Wilson No. 1 and the 1.7 km deep Clatskanie No. 1 provides additional control in the Nehalem basin. Bathymetry was taken from the Juan de Fuca Relief map (Price, 1977).

The subsurface between these control points was initially interpolated by correlation with straight lines; configuration of the units (primarily the Tillamook volcanics) was then adjusted to produce the regional gradient on the published state CBA map. Ideas for these adjustments offshore were suggested by geophysical cross-sections constructed in Dehlinger and others (1967) (especially section B-B' from the Tufts Abyssal Plain across the Puget Sound, Washington) and in Couch and Braman (1979) (through Florence, Oregon).

In order to generate the gradient observed at the coast, a fault 12.5 km inland was required, here made vertical; the position of this fault was later refined by modelling of the Youngs River Falls lines. This fault is probably the major northeast-trending fault at approximately 12 km inland mapped by Wells and Peck (1961), Schlicker and others (1972), and Tolson (1976), and may be related to the presumed N2OE-trending fault along the east side of a sediment-filled trough just offshore in this area (Zietz and others, 1971).

As constrained by the well logs and the two-dimensional nature of the modelling program, this crustal section does not generate sufficient magnitude for the gravity high over the Tillamook Highlands. A model across the Tillamook Highlands (approximately parallel to the section constructed here) along Snavely and Wagner's (1964) X-X' cross-section adequately produced the required gravity high. The effect of this three-dimensional basalt mass was accounted for by gradients calculated from control points on the state maps: 1.973 mgals/km from J75 to J49 and 3.077 mgals/km from J49 to J21. The data collected along this traverse confirm the placement of the +20 mgals contour on the state map (Figure 15).

The absolute magnitude and gradient of the observed CBA was found to agree very closely with the control points and gradients provided by the state CBA map and calculated from the upper crustal model (Figure 19). The CBA is flat from J75 west to J49, and then decreases steadily to the west. Two positive anomalies, both approximately 100 m wide, of .4 and .8 mgal corresponding to outcrops of basalt at Denver Point and Fishhawk Falls, respectively, and lows corresponding to stream valleys interrupt the regional trend. At these places, the outcrop density was known to vary from 2.67 g/cc: outcrops of basalt (2.8 g/cc) and alluvium

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(2.0 g/cc).

A comparison of the observed CBA and the topography (Figure 19) suggests that the CBA overall has an inverse relationship to the topography, indicating that the reduction density of 2.67 g/cc was too high. This is quite likely, as the density attributed to the near-surface sediments is only 2.4-2.5 g/cc. The elevation of the area, averaging 220 m, provides a relatively thick infinite slab for the Bouguer correction, but the final analysis is independent of which density, 2.4 or 2.67 g/cc, is used because the basalt and alluvium densities are higher and lower than, respectively, either 2.4 or 2.67 g/cc. Presumably these anomalous rock masses above sea level were not adequately corrected for in the Bouguer correction.

The wavelengths of these residual CBA are on the order of 100 m, requiring a near-surface source. Figure 20 illustrates the effect of infinite vertical dikes on the CBA: both the wavelength and the amplitude of the resulting anomalies are considerably greater than the observed values. The correspondence of residual anomalies with known anomalous rock masses and the fact that such rock masses do outcrop further indicates that the source is above sea level. Therefore it is appropriate to study the FAA rather than the CBA.

The observed FAA is plotted in Figure 21. Notice that the residual anomalies of the CBA are reproduced on the FAA, supporting the nearsurface source for the anomalous masses. The FAA differs from the CBA in that it rather parallels the topography, being fairly level from J75 to J40 and then increasing to J21 on the west.

Topography for the FAA computer model was measured from the





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Observed FAA and preferred FAA model for the J line. Figure 21. Vancouver and Hoquiam 1/4 million sheets along a N51W line except for km 65-km 85; this 20 km of topography was measured along a N61W line on the Saddle Mountain 15' quadrangle and spliced into the N51W regional model to give a more accurate topographic model for the J line. Geology for the FAA model is after Wells and Peck (1961).

Because the modelling program considers only the two dimensions along the traverse, only the topography along the traverse can be modelled and its effect accounted for. This is particularly significant when the traverse is on a graded road in a stream valley with rugged topography on either side normal to the cross-section. To compensate for this, the terrain correction was calculated for all zones but using only those compartments not intersected by the J line. These terrain corrections, ranging from .71 to 1.14 mgals, were calculated using a 2.4 g/cc density to more nearly match the presumed surface densities and were also adjusted to account for surface densities known to vary from 2.4 g/cc. The values were used to correct the observed FAA rather than the calculated FAA as a convenience in the modelling procedure, although the calculated values are the ones theoretically being adjusted. Thiruvathukal and others (1970) found it necessary to correct their FAA for terrain to make the FAA more nearly independent of terrain effects.

Since the FAA model is a fine-tuning of the CBA model, the upper crustal model and its attendant gradients must form the basis of the FAA model. The initial regional FAA model constructed by adding topography and geology above sea level to the regional upper crustal model was adjusted to compensate for the two-dimensional nature of the model and the three-dimensional nature of the Tillamook Highlands by gradients of 1.679 mgals/km from J75 to J49 and 2.348 mgals/km from J49 to J21.

Figure 21 presents the preferred model for the J line. Unique solutions to observed gravity anomalies cannot be determined, but some subsurface geologic models can be ruled out. Models are designed to satisfy the observed gravity values while remaining as simple as possible within the bounds of geologic control.

Perhaps the most significant feature of this model is the shallow depths to which these dikes extend. The basalt at Fishhawk Falls (J24 to J2) appears to be a wedge-shaped dike 52 m wide at the surface and tapering to a point approximately 107 m below the surface at an elevation of 130 m. A variety of different geometrical shapes (rectangles, parallelograms, triangles, and combinations) were modelled, but this "tooth" is required to produce the width at the peak of the anomaly without increasing the values at the base, i.e., to give the anomaly roughly parallel sides. Although the wedge tip is centered under the outcrop so the wedge does not dip, the sides converge downward with a basalt/sediment contact dipping 76°. Only slight adjustments for dip (\leq 5°) produce calculated anomalies still within the error range of the observed values. Changing the depth by 10 m produces a .02 mgal change.

The Denver Point outcrop (J59-J55) is 55 m wide and extends to a depth of 45 m below the surface. In the field at the west end from J55 to J57, the basalt/sediment contact is nearly vertical and perpendicular to well-developed nearly horizontal columnar joints, and the observed residual anomaly seems to have a smaller superimposed anomaly from J57 to J55. A vertical basalt dike from J57-J55 extending 45 m down from the surface will approximately produce this smaller anomaly but will not produce sufficiently high values at J59. The observed gravity anomaly is best matched by a dike dipping roughly 37°W. The dip is required to produce the short levelling out on the residual anomaly at J59 and to raise the calculated values to match the observed just west of J55. To make the estimate of basalt volume maximum, the residual anomaly has been regarded as extending from J59 to J55. Changing the depth of this dike by 10 m produces a .05 mgal change. If the true residual anomaly is in fact only the small 30 m wide anomaly from J57-J55, the dike can be vertical and of less lateral extent and volume; perhaps the eastern part of the outcrop (J57-J59), which is more massive, is part of a large landslide from the north, or perhaps the more narrowly jointed dike is part of the large basalt mass, superimposed upon it as the smaller anomaly is upon the larger.

A block of low density material approximately 15 m deep (probably stream alluvium) is required from J32-J25 to produce the low observed just east of Fishhawk Falls. Modelling the basalt there as a vertical dike extending to sea level with the original CBA regional gradient will produce the observed FAA across Fishhawk Falls to J5, but at that point, the calculated values begin to drop to a final 1.2 mgals below the observed. Adding a subsurface basalt unit on the west end of the dike to raise the calculated values to those observed is not recommended as 1) no such subsurface anomalously dense masses are evident on the CBA while all evident anomalously dense masses do appear on the observed CBA, and 2) there is no geologic evidence for such a mass. Even then, this dike extends only to sea level in the model. Therefore, the possibility of a vertical dike is disregarded, and a block of lower density alluvium adjacent to a shallow wedge of basalt is preferred.

Low density material (stream alluvium) is also required on either side of Denver Point where tributaries to Fishhawk Creek meet the main creek. A tapering rectangle of 2.0 g/cc material 31.5 m east of Denver Point, 75 m wide by 30 m deep, is reminiscent of a wide shallow stream valley and is interesting in its proximity to the basalt dike.

State Highway 202 curves sharply south around both dikes, running parallel rather than perpendicular to the dikes and thereby extending the portion of traverse adjacent to the basalt -- readings at these stations on the curve were influenced by the outcropping basalt, but when projected onto the N61W line appear to be away from the basalt. This effect is difficult to evaluate and in this study has not been quantitatively taken into account.

Bulk density measurements made on a surface sample of Fishhawk Falls basalt yielded a density of 2.84 g/cc, .04 g/cc higher than the model's density of 2.8 g/cc. The higher density basalt would necessitate slightly less mass to produce the same magnitude anomaly; however, 2.8 g/cc was used to produce a conservative estimate of the amount of subsurface basalt.

The CBA rules out other anomalous subsurface basalt masses within the plane of the profile, and the dikes are assumed to extend perpendicular to the profile. However, the possibility of thin feeder dikes extending vertically beneath these major dikes cannot be ruled out. The effect was modelled for feeder dikes extending from 130 m elevation to sea level beneath Fishhawk Falls and having widths of 2, 12, and 22 m. Terminating the basalt wedge at 130 m elevation with a base width of 2 m (rather than a point, as previously) increases the calculated gravity over Fishhawk Falls by up to .03 mgal. A dike of this 2 m width extending to sea level increases the originally calculated gravity by .04 mgal. A 12 m wide feeder dike increases the calculated values by up to .13 mgal; a 22 m wide dike adds up to .21 mgal to the calculated values. Thus the gravitational effect of feeder dikes up to about 10 m width and extending to sea level (and presumably to the Tillamook volcanics) would be masked by that of the overlying mass of basalt; feeder dikes wider than approximately 10 m would have a definite effect on the observed gravity and thus can be ruled out. A smaller mass of surficial basalt underlain by a more substantial feeder dike would change the width of the anomaly.

The two positive residual anomalies on the J line are produced by two shallow basalt dikes 55 and 52 m wide and extending 45 and 107 m below the surface, respectively. Other lateral basalt masses along the line of section are ruled out by the CBA. The effect of feeder dikes less than 10 m wide extending vertically beneath the basalt is masked by the overlying mass of basalt.

Youngs River Falls

Three kilometers south of the junction of the Klaskanine and Youngs Rivers, the Youngs River tumbles over a Cape Foulweather intrusion which has an arcuate shape and has been called both a ring dike and a cutoff oxbow meander (Figure 22). Perhaps because of this intriguing outcrop plan, plus the excellent access via a network of Crown Zellerbach logging spurs and a "host rock" of geophysically contrasting Oligocene-Miocene



Figure 22. Youngs River Falls gravity traverses (lines P, A-B, S-N, 80), refraction surveys (lines Q, W, G), and magnetic profile. (Geologic base map from Schlicker and others, 1972).

sediment, the Youngs River Falls intrusion has been geophysically investigated more extensively than the other coastal basalt features in this study.

An entire (closed) "ring" has been mapped by Tolson (1976), although Schlicker and others (1972) show but a three-sided figure. The limbs of this U extend NE-SW while the middle section is NW-SE. Youngs River crosses both the SE limb and the middle section, as does the Crown Zellerbach Youngs River Mainline road. The Mainline road plus a series of logging spurs within the U interior provide access across both limbs perpendicular to the axis; the Mainline road itself crosses the basalt parallel to the U axis. Gravity surveys were conducted along these two perpendicular lines.

Along the Mainline road from the 400 line intersection southeast for 2.72 km, A.G. Johnson, M.H. Beeson, M. Moran, and R. Perttu measured the 34 stations of line A-B. Stations Al-B3 (176 m) cross a smaller feature of abundantly phyric (Ginkgo) Cape Foulweather basalt (VP-10); B19-B22 (236 m) cross the SE limb (VP-7) of the U, a rarely phyric (Sand Hollow) Cape Foulweather sill. Continuing the line across the U interior and NW limb, the P line (55 stations) runs for 3.21 km along spurs 400, 490-A, and Stavebolt Road. The basalt of the NW limb (VP-29) crops out for 20 m from P42-1/2 to P43. All reduced stations were projected onto a straight line (N51W) normal to the limbs. This total 5.9 km of gravity line was computer modelled.

For two years, the Portland State University Field Geophysics classes have run gravity lines over the Youngs River Falls basalt. The 1979 class constructed the S-N traverse along the Mainline road from the 400 line intersection northeast for 2.57 km; stations S2-S5-1/2 (26.2 m) cross the basalt middle section at the quarry (VP-6). The 1980 class extended the line one kilometer further with the "80" stations, making the total traverse parallel to the U axis 3.57 km long. Each of the "80" stations was read twice on successive days by various class members, and the two sets of data were here reconciled and averaged. The best fit line to the data points and normal to the basalt is N59E.

The elevation is highest within the U interior, which is roughly 100 m above the river valley. Relief along Youngs River is nearly 50 m, decreasing steadily to the north. The terrain correction ranged from 1.41 to 3.8 mgals on the A-B line, .71 to 1.98 mgals on the P line, and .94 to 2.08 mgals on the combined S-N-80 line; the magnitude of the correction for rock type varied from 0.0 to .34 mgal on the A-B line to 0.0 to .20 mgal on the P line to 0.0 to .03 mgal on the S-N-80 line.

All lines were tied to a common local gravity base station, and previously established stations were reread in later surveys to establish internal consistency. Data reduction was carried out independently by each group of workers.

No control points were available on the published state maps to guide the CBA and FAA contouring in the Youngs River Falls area. The +10 mgals contour on the state CBA map was made to reflect rather closely the toe of the Tillamook Highlands, as the +20 mgals line does (Figure 15). However, both the P line data and S-N line data, which match the state map absolutely, now provide control for this area. The +10 mgals line more nearly parallels the 0 mgal contour, and accordingly should be swung into a northwest arc (Figure 15). This configuration

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enhances the gravity saddle evident for northwestern Oregon in the Nehalem basin.

The combined A-B-P line and J line lie along the same northwest trend, and the regional upper crust used for the J line was devised for the A-B-P line also; the geologic controls for this upper crustal model were described in the previous section. Because the J line and the A-B-P line are underlain by the same model, the model-generated anomalies must be related to each other directly. The east end of the A-B-P line (A6) (13.71 mgals) nearly matches the west end of the J line (J21) (14.22 mgals) and its nearby control point (13.21 mgals); the models generating each line had to agree absolutely at this "common" flat bench of average 13.45 mgals.

The regional model required a fault to produce the steep dropoff in gravity at the coast; a fault at km 97.5 (P49-1/2) as mapped by Schlicker and others (1972) approximated the regional pattern adequately for use on the J line. However, the additional detail provided by the P line requires the fault to be relocated, as the fault at km 97.5 is not supported by geologic or topographic evidence, or by the observed P line CBA curvature. Creating a steep slope at the west end (P27-P46) and meeting the observed values to the east (across the U interior and SE limb to A6) was best accomplished by a fault near km 97.15. Tolson (1976) mapped a fault at km 97.154 (P45), a topographic break within the sedimentary rocks but underlain by Eocene volcanics, so the regional fault was place there. The fault is assumed vertical.

The CBA calculated from the revised regional upper crustal model is compared to the observed data in Figure 23. From the east (A6), the



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values decrease steadily, roughly 3 mgals over the first 4 km; over the final 2 km, the values decrease steeply, dropping nearly 9 mgals but seeming to begin levelling off by P54. A residual anomaly over the smaller basalt feature to the southeast measures 600 m by .5 mgal. A substantial anomaly over the SE limb of the U is roughly 1 km by 2 mgals. The anomaly over the NW limb is superimposed on the sharp western drop, but would appear to be 500 m by 1 mgal (?).

Deviations of the trend of the calculated values from the trend of the observed values were assumed to result from small defects in the model and were corrected with gradients rather than with juggling of subsurface blocks. The eastern 1.22 km was raised a total of .88 mgal, increasing to the east; the western 1.83 km was lowered a total of 2.79 mgals, decreasing to the west. The final calculated 400 m falls away from the observed, but this was ignored as it is a function of the gradient and does not affect the basalt. This solution for the fit of the model to the observed data creates a maximum basalt anomaly.

Figure 24 illustrates the effect of infinite, vertical dikes on the CBA. The smaller, southeast basalt feature is seen to be neither infinite nor vertical. Over the SE limb, the vertical dike produces the acceptable amplitude, but the calculated peak is offset from the observed peak, indicating that the feature is not vertical. Over the NW limb, the 20 m outcrop of basalt extended vertically does not produce a significant anomaly; more subsurface basalt is needed to produce the apparent CBA residual anomaly, or the residual anomaly will have to be reconsidered.

Figure 25 illustrates the observed FAA. Over the eastern 2.7 km, it resembles the CBA: generally decreasing, with a 400 m by .5 mgal





Figure 25. FAA model of shallow syncline for A-B-P line.

anomaly over the little feature and a 650 m by 1.8 mgals anomaly over the SE limb. Then, however, the values climb steeply (8.7 mgals) from the west side of the SE limb for nearly a kilometer; the topography rises steeply there also. Approximately 1.5 km further west, both FAA and topography begin to drop off sharply (13.6 mgals and 90 m over 500 m horizontally), levelling out somewhat over the final 700 m. Effects, if any, of the NW limb superimposed on this slope are not apparent.

In comparing the observed CBA and observed FAA: The little feature to the southeast has the same shape on both curves but has a larger amplitude on the FAA; it is not evident on the topography. The SE limb has the same shape on both and approximately the same amplitude on both; it is not evident on the topography. The NW limb appears more pronounced on the CBA while being elongated on the FAA to the point of seeming not to be there. As on the FAA, the NW limb is not evident on the topographic profile.

The lack of correspondence between either the CBA or the residual FAA and the topography suggests that the reduction density of 2.67 g/cc was not a bad overall estimate. Positive residual anomalies that show up on both the FAA and the CBA were not, however, sufficiently corrected for by the Bouguer correction at 2.67 g/cc. These outcropping basalt features were modelled for the FAA initially; the CBA upper crustal model was then modified as the FAA modelling dictated. The FAA regional model was constructed as described in the previous section for the J line; one regional model fit both traverses. The regional model produces the trend of the observed FAA using the same gradients and reasoning as used for the CBA. As before, the observed values were adjusted for terrain effects not along the line of survey and therefore not included in the model. The amount of terrain correction along the traverse ranged from .09 to .47 mgal for the P line, .11 to .37 mgal for the A-B line, and .08 to .60 mgal on the S-N-80 line; the FAA was corrected by 1.2 to 3.0 mgals on the A-B line, .70 to 1.38 mgals on the S-N-80 line, and .48 to 1.46 mgals on the P line.

The observed FAA data indicate, as did the CBA data, that adjustments of the state gravity contours are necessary (Figure 16). The +10 mgals contour should be swung further west to reflect the 0 mgal contour; the high FAA values between P8 to P45 are probably a local high over the U interior.

Since the elevation of the Youngs River Falls area is near sea level, the added effect of vertical dikes above sea level to the previously discussed effect of infinite vertical dikes below sea level is not significant. Thus the local residual FAA which can be isolated and modelled suggest: 1) the smaller feature is relatively shallow and limited in lateral extent; 2) the SE limb is dipping west and is underlain by a considerable mass of basalt; 3) the NW limb is inherently difficult to see because of the regional changes.

The basalt at Youngs River Falls is intriguing in the variety of subsurface configurations its map pattern suggests. One distinct possibility is the underground connection of the two limbs, for example, as part of a ring dike or as a plunging syncline. One such FAA model is shown in Figure 25.

The SE limb dips west, thickening with depth as the inner, north-

west contact dips more shallowly (22°) than the outer, southeast contact (37°) to sea level, below which the outer contact steepens to a 50° dip. The NW limb dips asymmetrically to the east; the inner, southeast contact dips 17° while the outer, northwest contact is somewhat arbitrarily made vertical to a depth below sea level of 130 m, below which it dips 68°E. The connecting basalt slab is 130 m thick between 100 m to 230 m below sea level.

The westward dip on the SE limb is required to shift the calculated anomaly peak west of the outcrop as observed. If the whole mass dips 45° west and is 90 m thick, not enough mass will be west of B22, so the anomaly peak will not be shifted far enough and the western side of the anomaly will drop off two times too fast. Similarly, if the southeastern contact is made vertical, as it may be in the field, the anomaly is not shifted far enough west. If the basalt all dips 22°W, not enough mass underlies the anomaly and no significant anomaly is generated. The residual anomaly is asymmetrical, rising more steeply on the east and gently on the west. This, too, is reflected in the correspondingly steeper eastern dip and shallower western dip. Thus asymmetrical dips satisfies both retaining the mass of basalt under the anomaly area while shifting the peak west.

If the connecting slab is to be shallow, it must not mask the observed separation (low) between the SE limb residual anomaly and the steep gradient rising from Pl with the topography. At the same time, slab thickness must be maintained to produce the observed high across the U interior where the model otherwise falls 1.8 mgals short of the observed values. The model presented is a minimum depth and minimum

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thickness estimate. Shallow slabs (50 m thick between .20-.25 km below sea level or .25-.30 km below sea level) fall at least 1.5 mgals short of the observed anomaly over the U interior. A 100 m thick slab between .2-.3 km below sea level falls only .4 mgal short, but has added too much basalt under the limb; 200 m of basalt between .1-.3 km below sea level produces too much anomaly at the U interior (.8 mgal high) and at the SE limb (.35 mgal too high) while also eliminating the separation between them. A 100 m thick slab between .1-.2 km below sea level retains the limb anomaly but is not massive enough (.4 mgal low) across the U interior. Thus to achieve the observed anomaly across the U interior, keep the slab shallow, and produce the distinctly separate residual anomaly across the SE limb, the connecting slab had to be 130 m thick between .1-.23 km below sea level. In addition, the basalt underlying the SE limb had to be undercut, i.e., the lower east corner had to be rounded to produce the observed anomaly. The calculated fit to the observed was also improved by "rounding" the upper and lower corners under the NW limb.

Locating the anomaly produced by the NW limb was a problem, as the gradient on the west slope of the U interior is very steep. Although the selected model reproduces this gradient, not as much confidence can be attached to it. Figure 25 illustrates the effect of removing the regional gradient originally added to compensate for defects in the model. This model without a gradient is also a possible solution, as it matches the observed at some points and further adjustments might be expected to produce an even better fit. Either with or without the western regional gradient, the model essentially depicts a fault on the western margin of the NW limb.

The small feature to the southeast can be modelled entirely above sea level. It, too, dips asymmetrically to the west, as does the residual FAA. The southeast contact dips 30° down to sea level; the northwest contact dips very gently (5°) for 325 m and then drops vertically to sea level. This rather thin (25-50 m) and wide (175-450 m) general shape was not adjusted further. Initial modelling attempts had determined that a 25 m thickness fell .1 mgal short of matching the observed anomaly and that the mass of basalt west of B3 is necessary to allow the anomaly to fall off gently. Eliminating the "tongue" of basalt west of B3 so that the western margin parallels the eastern from B3 to sea level means that the calculated values will be up to .2 mgal below the observed between B4 to B7.

The Youngs River Falls basalt was also modelled with the connecting slab at its maximum depth, limited by the Eocene volcanics at 500 m below sea level. A deeper slab of basalt will have to be thicker (200 m) to produce the same effect at the surface. Figure 26 illustrates the FAA produced by a preliminary model. The calculated curve matches the observed curve fairly well except over the SE limb; this excess mass could no doubt be eliminated by further manipulation of the subsurface block.

The fault originally placed at km 97.154 (P45) does not juxtapose geophysically contrasting units on the surface as originally modelled and is therefore of no local gravitational significance. Figure 27, however, shows the effect of a .1 g/cc density contrast across this fault, 2.4 g/cc on the east side as consistent with the rest of the surficial sediments and 2.3 g/cc on the west near the river alluvium. The






Figure 27.

regional gradient was eliminated for this and other surficially faulted models. The values west of the fault as calculated by this arrangement are up to .2 mgal lower than values calculated from simply having the original deep syncline without a gradient (Figure 26). No evidence is available to give preference to either model.

The anomaly calculated from the elevation data over a uniformly dense sedimentary terrain (assuming a linear regional gradient) does not produce a high enough anomaly over the sedimentary rocks within the U to match the observed (1.8 mgals higher), and a denser mass must be included under this area. The foregoing models of basalt slabs under the U (Figures 25 and 26) serve not only to model synclines but also to provide the extra gravitational attraction. However, one alternative for producing the gravitational high over the U interior without adding extra basalt would be to argue that the basalt-encircled hill of sediments itself is denser than the surrounding sediments. Tolson (1976) remarked that the sediments are locally well-indurated near the basalt intrusion, implying that the bulk of the sedimentary rocks within the U are not well-indurated. The fact that there is a hill of sedimentary rocks at all might argue that they must be more resistant to erosion and therefore perhaps denser, probably stewed by the surrounding basalt lava. The Oligocene to Miocene sedimentary unit of Schlicker and others (1972) is one of the least resistant to erosion and usually has subdued topographic expression unless held up by an igneous center (Schlicker and others, 1972).

A model of such a dense hill is shown in Figure 28. Each basalt limb extends 200 m below sea level, and all the sedimentary rock between



Effect of a topographic hill of somewhat denser sedimentary rock on the A-B-P line FAA. Figure 28. is of 2.5 g/cc density (.1 g/cc higher than usual). Denser sediments were necessary to 300 m below sea level to produce the residual FAA high, as denser sediments only to sea level fell 1 mgal short of the observed anomaly. These models assume that the fault at km 97.154 juxtaposes 2.5 g/cc on the east with 2.4 g/cc on the west.

A density of 2.8 g/cc was assumed for the basalt throughout the coastal area. However, density measurements made on surface samples of the Youngs River Falls quarry basalt were 2.96-2.97 g/cc (this study) and 2.95 g/cc (Schlicker and others, 1972). If this basalt is indeed significantly denser, it would require less mass to produce the same anomaly. The residual anomaly over the SE limb is roughly 2 mgals, and at a density contrast of .4 g/cc, the basalt mass should be approximately 300 m thick when the limb alone is considered. If the contrast then were .55 g/cc, only 215 m of basalt would be needed to produce a 2 mgal anomaly, which would lead to a slightly different subsurface and a lesser volume of basalt.

The Field Geophysics classes' S-N-80 line crosses the U at the quarry. Since the southwestern continuation of this N59E trend intersects the N51W line at station P16, stations P1 to P16 were projected onto the N59E line to extend it as far southwest as possible. Figure 29 illustrates the CBA and FAA observed along this traverse.

Hand calculations indicate that a semi-infinite slab approximates the CBA over the quarry. The estimated average residual CBA of 4.85 mgals requires a 365 m thick basalt slab at a .4 g/cc density difference; the slab terminates abruptly at its northeast contact (S2) (J. Oggerino and R. Rudnick, pers. comm., 1980).



Both the residual CBA and FAA over the SE limb were of the same width and magnitude over a topographically level area. The residual FAA over the quarry is considerably greater (by 2.15 mgals) than the residual CBA. However, the increasing gravity values from west to east across the quarry are accompanied by a 20 m increase in elevation, which probably accounts for the greater magnitude of the FAA. As the elevation over the quarry is so close to sea level (10-30 m), the residual FAA should be approximately equal to the residual CBA, and the 365 m thick basalt slab should be applicable to a FAA model as well. This estimate agrees with the 340 m thickness calculated for the SE limb alone.

The CBA and FAA values southwest of the quarry (S6 to P16) remain high rather than dropping back to the local base level observed on the northeast side of the quarry. The consistently lower values northeast of the quarry suggest that the basalt does not continue northeast of the U. The northwest end of the P line and the northeast end of the S-N-80 line are underlain by the same structure: both are superimposed on a rising regional gradient as they approach the U interior. This is reflected in the steep increases of the CBA and FAA of both lines. The arguments made for the A-B-P line are applicable to the S-N-80 line also: either a denser mass (basalt or sediments) or a regional gradient must be modelled to keep the gravity values elevated when in the U interior, away from the known outcrop of basalt.

A magnetic survey with a proton precession magnetometer was made across the smaller feature by the 1979 Field Geophysics class. The smoothed data (Figure 30), corrected for drift but not elevation, indicate a 350 gamma by 300 foot anomaly. Preliminary estimation of the



Figure 30. Magnetic profile over small basalt feature southeast of Youngs River Falls.

depth to the center of the magnetic source based on half-width considerations is 30-38 m, which is in general agreement with the gravity thickness of 54 m with a center 27 m deep.

Refraction lines were run by the 1979 Field Geophysics class on the U interior and the SE limb (Figure 22). The velocity of the basalt

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was measured as 15-16,000 feet per second (fps) using short reversed hammer shots on the quarry bench (this study) (Figure 31). An 1850 foot long line with 50 foot spacing entirely within the U (S8-S16) revealed an 11,700 fps layer at a 300 foot average depth dipping very gently $(2^{\circ}-3^{\circ})$ southwest (Figure 32). This velocity is considerably less than that of the basalt and is here interpreted as a denser interbed within the Astoria Formation or perhaps the underlying mudstones. In the gravity models for the U interior, basalt did not extend above 100 m below sea level, which is below this 300 foot interface with the high speed sedimentary rock. The southeast end of a second line, 2200 feet long, was anchored on the northwest edge of the SE limb, i.e., just inside the U. On short (10 foot) geophone spacings adjacent to the basalt outcrop, a high speed (14,200 fps) layer was encountered at a 16 foot depth on the southeast end, dipping 6°NW (Figure 33). This high speed layer could be the basalt (slightly weathered or fractured) or a wellindurated sedimentary layer adjacent to the basalt. Its northwest dip agrees with the dip direction for the basalt based on gravity data. The 50 foot spacing on this line did not encounter such a high speed layer but again found an 11,800 fps layer dipping 3°SE at an interface depth of roughly 300 feet (Figure 34). The residual FAA overlaps this refraction line, and a basalt dike dipping shallowly (22°) northwest should be encountered by a 50 foot-spaced refraction line adjacent to the outcrop.

Models for the Youngs River Falls A-B-P line were limited by the necessity of elevating the calculated values across the U interior. One underlying assumption was that the positive residual anomaly over the interior is superimposed on a linear gradient. An aeromagnetic survey







conducted by Snavely (unpublished, reproduced in Tolson, 1976) shows a local magnetic high roughly over the U along the line of the gravity survey (Figure 35); in profile, the data reveal a nearly symmetrical feature of approximately 215 gammas by 4.2 km (Figure 36). The halfwidth indicates a depth to the magnetic source approximately 1.5 km below the survey altitude of .61 km, or .89 km below sea level, which corresponds to Eocene basalt. Such data suggest a structural local high in the Eocene basalt, which could result in a structurally-controlled





Figure 33. Refraction line W, 10 foot spacing, anchored on SE limb.

gravity high over the U interior. If this is the case, neither denser sedimentary rocks nor a subsurface basalt layer would be necessary to model the residual anomaly over the U. One might then speculate that the Eocene structural high controlled the course of the lava flow around to the north, and thus, too, the gravity contours. The decreasing gradient on the northwest side of this magnetic anomaly steepens after a break in slope about 275 m northwest of the NW limb; the steep gradient suggests the previously mapped and modelled fault.

Ring structures observed on the Columbia Plateau have been interpreted as sag flow out structures (McKee and Stradling, 1970) and as the result of interaction of lava with water (Hodges, 1978). These ring dikes are of small scale (50-500 m diameter, 1-3 m thick); they dip outwardly (35°-75°) and may form topographic highs up to 15 m above the surroundings. Gravity surveys over three ring dikes (Parks and Banami, 1971) reveal the rings to be associated with negative anomalies of -1 mgal and half-widths of 120 m. Although all the scales are smaller for these plateau ring dikes, and the plateau rings occur in basalt whereas the Youngs River Falls ring occurs in sedimentary rock, perhaps the most significant difference between Youngs River Falls and plateau (or any









Figure 36. Magnetic profile A-A' from aeromagnetic anomaly map (Figure 35).

ring dikes) is that the plateau ring dikes dip outwardly whereas the Youngs River Falls dikes dip inwardly.

Geophysical surveys thus far have not resolved the Youngs River Falls basalt configuration. Assuming a linear regional gradient, the positive residual anomaly over the U interior must be accounted for by a local model. A slab of basalt underlying the area between the outcropping limbs is one solution, representing a plunging syncline or a ring dike (cone sheet) with a central magma body. The inward dip of all the outcropping dikes supports either hypothesis. The gravity allows either a shallow basalt feature separate from the underlying Tillamook volcanics or a deeper basalt feature adjacent to (and indistinguishable from) the Eocene volcanics. The concept of the central underlying magma body supports a local origin for the basalt whereas a synclinal sheet can be explained either by local origin or by invasion of a lava flow. A hill of denser sedimentary rock encircled by basalt is another solution. Such sediments could have been stewed by the hot lava until they became indurated, resistant to erosion and essentially denser. The assumption of a linear gradient may be challenged with aeromagnetic data, in which case the residual anomaly can be attributed to a high on the Eocene volcanics and need not be modelled at all, being no longer residual. The Eocene structural high could have deflected a lava flow around to the northwest along its perimeter. Either of these latter two solutions allows the basalt to be part of an intracanyon flow, possibly the case of an old oxbow and cutoff. Refraction lines anchored on the SE limb curiously did not encounter a high speed basalt layer at depth. A major fault mapped on the northwest side of the NW limb is confirmed by regional and local gravity considerations and by the aeromagnetic survey.

<u>Klaskanine River</u>

The northeast-southwest stretch of Highway 202 between Fishhawk Falls and Youngs River Falls crosses an "unnamed ring dike" (Schlicker and others, 1972) (Figure 37). The northeast portion of this ring (stations T26-T33) is cut perpendicularly by the California Barrel Road, along which the T line was conducted. An old railroad grade runs along the same trend as the California Barrel Road and approximately normal to the southwest part of the ring; the M line lies along this grade. Together, these two lines constitute a 4.74 km traverse across the ring dike feature. The basalt of both ring segments is low Mg (normal) Depoe Bay, and the two crescents appear to have the same lithology. About .5 km southwest of the southwest ring segment are two small outcrops of abundantly phyric (normal) Cape Foulweather Basalt (M25-M32).



Figure 37. Gravity traverses across dike on the South Fork of the Klaskanine River, T-M line. (Geologic base map from Schlicker and others, 1972).

The best fit projected straight line through the stations and perpendicular to the basalt outcrops is N80E. Although the M line follows the South Fork of the Klaskanine River, the T line does not intersect the River until its easternmost station, T4. Elevation generally decreases from northeast to southwest, and relief is usually greater in directions perpendicular to the traverse. The terrain correction varied on the M line from 1.16 to 1.76 mgals; the T line range was larger, .80 to 2.04 mgals. Adjustments for rock type were no greater than .03 mgal on any station. These terrain correction adjustments were estimated from those made for the J line as the basalt dikes are near each other and somewhat similar in extent and shape. Dodds (1963) mapped the basalts wholly within the Astoria Formation, shown as Oligocene-Miocene marine sedimentary rock on Schlicker and others' 1972 map.

Gravity measurements along the T section of the line were made independently of those at the M stations. The T line was surveyed with a transit, but the M line station intervals were reconstructed from previously recorded pacing and station elevations were interpolated from a 20 foot contour interval map. The error associated with the M line will then be slightly greater than that for the T line.

The regional upper crustal model for the T-M line runs N80E for 200 km with the coast at the midpoint; km 0 is to the northeast in Washington and km 200 is offshore. Geologic controls offshore are provided by two exploratory wells (Snavely and others, 1977) on the continental shelf, wells P-075 and P-072 (Figure 18). Onshore control is provided by the previously designed N51W upper crustal section, which intersects the N80E line on the P line at Youngs River Falls. In the Nehalem basin, the Clark and Wilson No. 1 and Clatskanie No. 1 (Newton and Van Atta, 1976) delineate the units used in the model. Bathymetry is approximated from the Juan de Fuca Relief map (Price, 1977).

The subsurface between control points was adjusted as for the J line. Again, the underlying Eocene basalt (Tillamook volcanics) had the most influence on the calculated model. The small saddle in CBA gradients immediately northeast of the T line on the state map (Figure 15) is attributed to an irregularity in the Eocene basalts which is sliced by the line of section, or perhaps to a gap at the Tillamook volcanics/ Goble volcanics contact (?).

The T-M line lies on the slope of a 13 mgals by 24 km Tillamook High extension; this published regional increase from T4 to M38 (northeast to southwest) is reflected in the observed CBA, which increases from T4 to M38 over the length of the line. The upper crustal model generates CBA values that match the observed CBA trend very closely except at the east end, where the calculated values decrease and the observed level off. As there are no control points available for this area, a gradient (3.09565 mgals/km) was chosen to level the calculated values on this easternmost .5 km of the gravity line.

Figure 38 presents the calculated vs. observed CBA gravity. The easternmost kilometer is level, but the gravity values increase steadily by a total of 3 mgals over the remaining 3.5 km. Notable are an 875 m by .8 mgal high from T21 to T48, a 350 m by -.8 mgal low centered on M16-M17, and a small .4 mgal by 100 m high at M28.

Despite the different methods of locating the M and T stations, and the lack of cross-checked readings between them, Figure 38 shows that the southwest end of the T line differs from the northeast end of the M line by only .1 mgal, indicating that estimations made for locating the M stations were good and that absolute gravity between lines was maintained. No regional relationship between CBA and topography is apparent.

The residual anomalies on the observed CBA also occur on the observed FAA, although the dimensions have changed (Figure 39). The FAA corresponds more closely with the topography, as both increase from southwest to T42 and then decline to T4 on the northeast end. The broad eastern gravity high on the CBA retains that 850 m width on the FAA, but





the magnitude of the anomaly has doubled to 1.6 mgals. The gravity low maintains approximately the same magnitude but is superimposed on a sloping gradient so it appears asymmetrical. Only the small western anomaly is reproduced from the CBA identically on the FAA. Its wavelength, magnitude, and correspondence with known outcrop of Cape Foulweather Basalt indicate that the source for this anomaly is above sea level and was not sufficiently corrected for by the Bouguer correction. The gravity low has no corresponding anomalous rock outcrop or lack of material at the surface, but the consistency of its magnitude and relatively short wavelength suggest a near surface source. The occurrence of the broad high on the CBA but halved from its magnitude on the FAA indicates that the Bouquer correction at 2.67 g/cc has only partially compensated for it. The sharp increase in both CBA and FAA values from T26 to T33 at the known outcrop of basalt suggest a surficial feature there; the wavelength and magnitude of the broad residual anomaly suggest a source on the order of 250 m below the surface.

Accordingly, focus was switched to the FAA: The regional FAA model was constructed upon the regional upper crustal model in the manner described for the N51W regional model. The range of adjustment for offline terrain was .88 to 1.46 mgals on the M line and .60 to 1.65 mgals on the T line. The absolute observed FAA matches the published state map values closely except at T4, where no state control points are available. The T line data suggest that the published +40 and +50 mgals contours should be slightly east of their present locations (Figure 16). Over the length of the gravity line, the FAA regional model, with the CBA gradient at the far east end adjusted for a 2.4 g/cc density, nearly produces the observed FAA. A gradient of .33 mgal/km is needed over the whole length of the modelled line to swing it into agreement with the observed; the westernmost 750 m of line required a slightly steeper gradient of .8123 mgal/km. These trends, which may be considered regional with respect to the gravity line, are attributed to the Eocene volcanic irregularity.

Figure 39 illustrates the effect of vertical dikes extending to infinity, here to the Eocene volcanic basement; this model does not fit the observed data.

The small positive residual anomaly on the far southwest, a minor interruption on the steady regional gradient, is an isolated feature associated with the Cape Foulweather basalt. It is most simply modelled as a thick-stemmed funnel (Figure 40). Only 36.77 m apart, the two lithologically and chemically identical outcrops produce one anomaly and are modelled as the same feature. From the 116 m outcrop width, the basalt narrows symmetrically to 30 m wide approximately 30 m below the surface; this width is maintained for an additional 70 m until the basalt terminates 50 m above sea level. The triangular near-surface configuration provides the basic shape of the anomaly while the extra depth provides necessary amplitude without expanding the anomaly width.

Both segments of the ring dike are associated on the FAA with steep gravity gradients. Stations T26-T33 are on the east edge of the broad gravity high rising to the west; M9-1/2-M16 are on the west side of a gravity high increasing to the east (or the east edge of the sharper gravity low decreasing to the west). These two gravity highs appear to be separate features as there is no residual anomaly between them from km 78 to km 79.



The residual low on the immediate west side of the southwest basalt outcrop has no obvious field manifestations. Its narrow width of roughly 207 m indicates a local source; an old stream valley filled with alluvium is a possibility. Since the positive basalt anomaly is actually superimposed on the east side of the low, modelling of either feature must take both into account. One solution is illustrated in Figure 40. The low, modelled as a 207 m wide block dipping 19°E on the west side and 10°E on the east side, widening to about 275 m along an irregular base roughly 40 m below the surface, is assigned a density of 2.0 g/cctypical for alluvium (Telford and others, 1976). Paralleling this low density block is a similar one of 2.8 q/cc density to simulate the basalt. This block crops out for 138.3 m and dips 10°E on the west side to 7°E on the east side, widening to approximately 300 m; the lower contact dips 1.5°E, reaching 100 m above sea level at its lowest point, 100 m below the surface. Producing the residual positive anomaly between km 79.0-79.4 from a basalt outcrop occurring between km 79.5-79.6 on a steep slope that decreases from km 79.4-79.75 seemed impossible without adjoining the two anomalous blocks. This allowed the effect of the low density alluvium to overcome that of the high density basalt to produce a sharp drop in values under the outcrop and to the west. The parallel arrangement of basalt and alluvium suggests an association of basalt and stream valleys or unconsolidated material.

The broad gravity high on the east end of the line corresponds in extent with a topographic high. The basalt outcrop occurs on the east slope of the high and appears to form a small .4-.6 mgal by 125 m anomaly upon the larger 1.6 mgals by 850 m high (Figure 40). The model reflects this: The main basalt mass underlying the hill ranges from 250 m wide at 50 m above sea level to 250 m wide at 200 m above sea level; its widest point is 600 m wide at an elevation of 150 m. The basalt outcrop is a dike dipping 20°-23°W to approximately 75 m below the surface at a constant width of 56 m. Its relation to the large basalt body, which must be assumed to be the same rock mass, thus would seem to be as an apophysis.

The two independent dikes model for the ring dike outcrops seems to best fit the FAA because no residual anomaly is observed between the two outcrops from km 78-79. However, 400 m (km 78.6-79.0) of this one kilometer is the gap between the lines where no readings were taken. Consequently, the FAA was also modelled for two basalt masses connected at depth. Such a connecting mass as shown in Figure 41 generally lessens in thickness from the T mass to the M mass, and is deepest near the middle (under the region of no residual anomaly). A connecting mass wholly above sea level nearly fits the observed data; a deeper and/or thinner slab would improve the match. A 30 m thick slab directly connecting the lower limits of the two previously (Figure 40) modelled dikes (rising from 50-80 m above sea level on the east to 100-130 m above sea level on the west) runs .5 mgal higher than the observed gravity in the km 77.7-79.1 region; a similar 20 m thick slab runs .2-.3 mgal high. Placing the connecting basalt mass at some depth helps mask its observable gravity effects.

The argument for a hill of denser, possible baked or stewed, sediments creating the broad gravity high that corresponds with the topographic hill is not as strong for this line as it was for the Youngs

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River Falls line. The calculated FAA with uniformly dense 2.4 g/cc sediments fits the observed FAA across the hill (including the kilometer between residual anomalies) except between km 77-78 where there is only 6.5 km of relief, i.e., it is not as dramatic a hill as the one at Youngs River Falls (over 100 m of relief), where the topography encourages some argument to be made for the resistance of the sediments. Residual positive anomalies and relief are found at the inner contact of both Klaskanine basalt crescents, and it is conceivable that the dikes baked the adjacent sediments to create gravity highs and minor hills. However, this possibility was not modelled or investigated further.

Magnetic data for the Youngs River Falls area suggests that the basalt there encircles a structural high on the underlying Eocene basalt and that this could account for the residual gravity high over the hill. On the basis of the information available for the Klaskanine ring dike, however, the necessity for a subsurface basalt mass such as the one modelled under the hill is difficult to dismiss and, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, a linear gradient must be assumed. The best fit to the observed data is independent dikes, although dikes connected at depth is possible if the added basalt layer is relatively thin and deep.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Hypotheses advocating local eruptive centers for the Miocene coastal basalts of Oregon and Washington differ fundamentally from those proposing that the basalts are the distal ends of Columbia River basalt plateau flows entering the coastal environment from vents 500 km to the east. In this study, these alternatives were examined using geochemical and geophysical techniques to investigate the lateral and vertical extents of selected coastal basalts in Clatsop County, Oregon.

Instrumental Neutron Activation Analysis and paleomagnetic measurements of 38 coastal basalt samples allowed their classification into three chemical types that correlate with Columbia River basalt plateau flows mapped in western Oregon: reversed (R_2) and normal (N_2) low Mg Depoe Bay, high Mg Depoe Bay, and Cape Foulweather coastal basalts correlate respectively with reversed (R_2) and normal (N_2) low Mg Grande Ronde, high Mg Grande Ronde, and Frenchman Springs plateau basalts. The oldest basalts, reversed and normal low Mg Depoe Bay, occurring from the Wickiup Ridge area northwest to Astoria and from Nicolai Mountain southwest to Elsie and Neahkahnie Mountain, separate the Eocene and plateau basalts to their east from the younger Miocene coastal basalts to their west. Low Mg normal Depoe Bay basalts are found additionally throughout the study area. Known and presumed high Mg Depoe Bay basalts form a broad northeast-southwest band of brecciated peaks extending from the Wickiup Mountain area through Saddle and Humbug Mountains and southwest beyond the study area to peaks such as Onion,

Sugarloaf, and Angora. They are flanked predominantly by low Mg Depoe Bay flows. Cape Foulweather Basalt is the youngest chemical type found in the study area and perhaps the most varied. At Seal Rocks, to the south of the area, abundantly porphyritic and distinctively reversed flows seem to correlate with the lowermost reversed (excursional) Ginkgo flow of the Frenchman Springs Member. Intrusions forming bands along the South Fork of the Klaskanine River and along Highway 202 are abundantly porphyritic, occasionally glomeroporphyritic, and normally polarized, probably equivalent to a younger Ginkgo flow. Normally polarized, sparsely porphyritic intrusions at Youngs River Falls and west of the Lewis and Clark River have high Cr content and suggest equivalency with the Sand Hollow flow unit of the Frenchman Springs Member.

The basalt units form an areal pattern that lends itself to varied interpretations. The basalt intrusions themselves tend to be irregular in shape, although dikes further inland are commonly more linear while those seaward are more globular. Intrusions are more common inland, joined by extrusive rocks to the west. Sinuous outcrop patterns suggest topographic control, but at one extreme can resemble either ring dikes or cutoff oxbow meanders. Concentrations of flow types in bands, such as brecciated high Mg basalt peaks or abundantly phyric Cape Foulweather Basalt, suggest either a vent system or a stream valley route in a downwarped area. Although patterns based on isolated outcrops offer inconclusive interpretations, they provide clues and inspirations for continuing work in the area; the identification of flows is a fundamental basis for any additional work and adds significantly to the existing

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basalt catalogue.

Gravity lines conducted over coastal basalt features allow tentative subsurface models to be formulated. Linear dikes of Depoe Bay Basalt at Fishhawk Falls (normally polarized) and Denver Point (reversed) are shallow (107 and 45 m deep, respectively). However, the existence of thin (< 10 m wide) feeder dikes underlying the near surface basalt masses cannot be disproved. Two normally polarized Depoe Bay Basalt crescentshaped dikes crop out along the South Fork of the Klaskanine River. Despite plan view resemblance to a ring dike, the two arcuate segments do not appear to be connected at depth. The southwest crescent dips gently $(7^{\circ}-10^{\circ})$ northeast and is 100 m deep. The northeast crescent appears to be an apophysis dipping 20°-23° west to approximately 75 m below the surface, where a 150 m thick basalt mass extends as deep as 50 m above sea level and as wide as 600 m. The U-shaped Sand Hollow Cape Foulweather Basalt dike at Youngs River Falls may be satisfactorily modelled as a shallow (maximum depth .23 km below sea level) or deep (minimum depth .3 km below sea level) syncline or ring dike. The basalt limbs dip toward each other. Alternatively, the basalt might encircle either a hill of somewhat denser sedimentary rock or a buried Tillamook volcanic high, in which cases the gravity data do not require the limbs of the U to be connected at depth by a basalt slab. Abundantly phyric Cape Foulweather Basalt outcrops encountered along two different gravity traverses are consistently shallow (100 m or less below the surface).

Although unique and incontrovertible solutions to gravity profiles do not exist, and various models are presented for each coastal basalt feature, some subsurface configurations can be eliminated. In regard to coastal basalt origin, perhaps the significance of the gravity data is that they do not eliminate the possibility of a plateau origin for the dikes. The near surface (500 m below sea level) Eocene volcanic basement partially limited the resolution expected for dense basaltic dikes within marine sedimentary rocks, and yet all the dikes can be modelled as shallow. Some, in fact, demand it.

In the mid-Miocene, the study area was a deltaic and estuarine environment of water-saturated sediments, Eocene volcanic topographic highs, and an ocean-continent boundary. Such incompetent host material and an active tectonic setting are well suited to hypotheses either for invasion by Columbia River basalt flows or for local eruption of lavas that result in brecciated, peperitic, and irregular intrusions. Although the accumulated evidence regarding the coastal basalts is available for either hypothesis, the results of this study would seem to lend credence to the plateau origin for the coastal basalts. All the basalt outcrops are correlative solely with established western Oregon plateau flows. Distribution patterns suggest topographic control by the Eocene highlands and stream valleys. The high Mg basalt breccia at Saddle Mountain overlies the older low Mg Depoe Bay Basalt. Seemingly regional and straight bands of low Mg Depoe Bay Basalt are found to be composed of both normal and reversed flows. Vertical dikes extending to the gravity basement are not suitable models for any of the features investigated, while shallow near surface basalt masses are either preferred or distinctly possible in all cases.

Future studies might do well to examine closely the basalt-sedimentary rock contacts and to look for (and map) possible basalt routes through the Coast Range. If the plateau basalts did invade the coastal area, discovery of their passageways could explain the westernmost basalt occurrences and help synthesize the patterns and accumulated data. It seems likely that a dynamic contact between physically dissimilar units could record directions of movement and indications of the circumstances of intrusion.

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENTAL NEUTRON ACTIVATION ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Instrumental Neutron Activation Analysis (INAA) is a quantitative technique for measuring the concentrations of elements in a sample by determining the frequency with which gamma rays are emitted from radioactive nuclides. The gamma ray energy plus the nuclide half life distinguish the nuclide in question; the frequency is related to the activity of the element and thus to the concentration.

Each representative rock sample was crushed, and 16 g of fresh, uncontaminated fragments were ground by hand into a coarse powder passing an 80 mesh sieve. From the 16 g, approximately one gram of sample was split out randomly and stored in a clean one dram plastic vial for irradiation in a thermal neutron reactor (Reed College TRIGA reactor). By absorption of a thermal neutron, the product nuclide becomes an isotope of the target element. This product nuclide is in an excited state and deexcites by emission of a gamma ray of a discrete energy level characteristic of the nuclide at a rate governed by the nuclide's particular half life. Because different nuclides have peaks of decay activity at different times, the activity of the samples was measured twice to account for both the long-lived (half lives of weeks to years) and short-lived (half lives of minutes to days) isotopes at time intervals appropriate to the half lives of the nuclides being studied.

The activity, or number of disintegrations per second as indicated by the rate of emission of gamma rays, was measured with a Lithiumdrifted Germanium crystal [Ge(Li)] detector and a Tracor Northern 1808 multichannel analyzer. This system is designed to determine concentrations based on an absolute counting method using the flux data for calibration rather than rock standards for comparison. A mixture of Iron-58, Iron-59, and Ruthenium was irradiated as a flux monitor. However, this technique requires that the detector efficiency be well known. As a check, standards were irradiated under the same conditions as the samples to provide very accurately known concentrations of elements for calibration and comparison. This experiment used both the U.S. Geological Survey-determined BCR-1, using elemental concentrations as listed in Flanagan (1973), and the Atlantic Richfield Archo-1, using concentrations listed in Additon and Seil (1979). Values measured for the standards in the experiment were approximately 1.5 times greater than the published values, and individual element correction factors were applied to all results. Most of the errors associated with INAA are statistical counting errors, and such errors were calculated for each element in each sample.

A total of 38 rock samples were analyzed by this method in a single experiment 7-B in June, 1980. Irradiation lasted one hour. starting at 10:00 am on June 20, 1980. Samples were counted first between June 25-27 and later between July 19-23, 1980, for 1000 and 2500 seconds, respectively.

APPENDIX 3

SAMPLE LOCATIONS

Sample Location

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VP-1	SE1/4 NW1/4 sec. 28, T, 7 N., R. 8 W.
VP-2	SE1/4 NW1/4 sec, 2, T, 6 N, R, 8 W,
VP-3	NW1/4 NW1/4 SE 1/4 sec. 11. T. 4 N., R. 7 W.
VP-4	SW1/4 NW1/4 sec. 32. T. 6 N., R. 7 W.
VP-5	NW1/4 SW1/4 sec. 32. T. 6 N., R. 7 W.
VP-6	SW1/4 SW1/4 sec. 22. T. 7 N., R. 9 W.
VP-7	SE1/4 SW1/4 sec. 27. T. 7 N., R. 9 W.
VP-8	SW1/4 sec. 29. T. 9 S., R. 11 W.
VP-10	SE1/4 SE1/4 sec. 34. T. 7 N., R. 9 W.
VP-11	SE1/4 sec. 25. T. 12 S., R. 12 W.
VP-12	NE1/4 NE1/4 sec. 13. T. 7 N., R. 9 W.
VP-13	NE1/4 NE1/4 sec. 13. T. 7 N., R. 9 W.
VP-14	NE1/4 NW1/4 sec. 7. T. 6 N., R. 7 W.
VP-15	SW1/4 SW1/4 sec. 7. T. 5 N., R. 10 W.
VP-16	SE1/4 NW1/4 sec. 25. T. 5 N. R. 8 W.
VP-17	NW1/4 SE1/4 sec. 17. T. 5 N. R. 8 W.
VP-18	SW1/4 SE1/4 sec. 33. T. 6 N. R. 10 W.
VP-19	NE1/4 NW1/4 sec. 4. T. 5 N., R. 10 W.
VP-20	NW1/4 NE1/4 sec. 17, T, 8 N., R. 9 W.
VP-21	SW1/4 SW1/4 sec. 34, T. 7 N., R. 8 W.
VP-22	SE1/4 SW1/4 sec. 34, T. 7 N., R. 8 W.
VP-23	NE1/4 NW1/4 sec. 33, T, 6 N., R. 8 W.
VP-24	SW1/4 SW1/4 sec. 34, T. 7 N., R. 8 W.
VP-25	NE1/4 SW1/4 sec. 18, T, 5 N,, R, 8 W,
VP-26	SW1/4 NW1/4 sec. 4, T. 5 N., R. 7 W,
VP-27	NW1/4 NW1/4 sec. 4, T. 5 N., R. 7 W.
VP-28	C W1/2 sec, 20, T. 6 N., R. 6 W.
VP-29	NE1/4 NW1/4 sec. 29, T. 7 N., R. 9 W.
VP-30	NE1/4 SE1/4 sec. 35, T. 7 N., R. 8 W.
VP-31	SW1/4 SW1/4 sec. 27, T. 7 N., R. 8 W.
VP-32	NW1/4 SW1/4 sec. 25, T, 5 N,, R. 8 W.
VP-33	SW1/4 SW1/4 sec. 35, T, 7 N., R. 8 W.
VP-34	SE1/4 NE1/4 sec. 22, T. 5 N., R. 8 W.
VP-35	SE1/4 SE1/4 sec. 2, T. 6 N., R. 8 W.
VP-36	NW1/4 SE1/4 sec. 28, T. 7 N., R. 8 W.
VP-37	C N1/2 sec. 33, T, 6 N., R. 8 W.
VP-38	SW1/4 SW1/4 sec, 22, T, 7 N., R. 9 W.

APPENDIX C

GEOCHEMICAL DATA

Sample	Pol.	La (ppm)	Sm (ppm)	K (X)	Na (%)	Ce (ppm)	(mqq) dY	Lu (ppm)
l-1/	z	28,22±0.76	6,59±0.05	1,16±0.24	2,49±0,01	52,54±5,72	3.96±0. 61	0.48±0.19
/P-2	~	29,93+0.92	7.17±0.05	1.66±0,24	2,48±0,01	61,04±5,94	4.14±0.74	0.58±0.20
(P-3	z	28.47±0.74	8,58±0.06	0,98±0,24	2,65±0,01	61.04±6,00	3,85±0,81	0.63±0.21
(P-4	z	29.04±0,63	7,04±0,05	1,43±0,25	2, 55±0,01	63,77±6,10	4.26±0,70	0.55±0.20
/P-5	z	28.91±0.79	6.78±0.05	1,23±0,24	2,58±0.01	52.97±5.61	3,70±0.70	0.51±0,19
/P-6	z	25.21±0.67	6.66±0.05	'n	2.13±0.01	56,68±4,77	3.70±0,22	0.86+0.07
1P-7	z	26.92±0,67	7,55±0.05	L L	2.21±0.01	55,59±5,33	3.77±0.26	0.75±0.09
/P-8	•	28.6310.63	7,94±0.06	1.10±0,24	2,40±0,01	58,86±5,34	4,07±0.69	0.5240.19
(P-10	z	28.43±0.58	8.19±0.06	1,19±0.24	2,28±0.01	60.50±5.43	3.74±0.26	0.81±0.23
11-d/	•	27.54±0.92	7,87±0.05	1.20±0,23	2.28±0.01	54.50±5.31	4.26±0.25	0.82±0.44
/P-12	~	27.33±0.75	6.46±0.06	JIL .	2.66±0.01	56.68±6,16	3.89±0.63	0.52±0.20
(P-13	e	25.69+0.47	6.05+0.05	1,30±0.25	2.50±0.01	48,83±5,10	3.53+0.42	0.32+0.15
(P-14	~	27,26±0.68	6.45±0.05	1.57±0,24	2.34±0.01	50,41±4.93	3.19±0.23	0.64±0.24
/P-15	z	26.85±0.39	6.53±0.05	٦Ľ	2.55 ± 0.01	61.04±5.28	3,70±0.68	0.52 ± 0.18
9i-d/	z	26.10±0.37	6.31±0.05	1.72±0.26	2.42±0.01	50.47±5.72	3.77±0.64	0.49+0.18
11-d/	z	27.06-0.79	6.4010.05	1.10±0.26	2.45±0.01	57.77±5.05	3.35.0.53	0,50:0.19
/P-18	z	25.41±0.64	6.03+0.04	1.32+0.23	2.25±0.01	53.68±4.92	3,24±0.22	0.7020.25
P-19	z	25.62±0.91	6.11.0.05	1.41±0.25	2.34±0.01	49.21±4.76	3.6510.67	0.52±0.17
1P-20	z	27.13-0.63	6.32+0.05	1.37+0.27	2.44+0.01	57.77.5.05	3,36+0.24	0.67+0.24
/P-2]	z	26.51.0.74	7.23±0.05	1.10±0,24	2.05±0.01	58.86±4,93	3.28±0.23	0.58±0.22
rP-22	z	28.29±0.62	6.59 ± 0.05	1.34±0.28	2.49 ± 0.01	56.68±4.95	3.74 ± 0.68	0.51:0.18
IP-23	z	18.84±0.56	5.24+0.05	'n	2.22±0.01	38.53±5.16	$3.17_{\pm 0.29}$	0.6910.66
1P-24	z	26.72±0.86	7.62±0.06	11	2.21±0.01	51.50±5.78	4.18±0.79	0.56±0.20
1P-25	z	25.82±0.75	5.94±0.05	JL L	2.16±0.01	47.14±5.31	3.43±0.70	0.52±0.18
1P-26	e :	27.06+0.34	6.46±0.06	1.37±0.34	2,38±0,01	51,99+4,88	3.23+0.66	0.49±0.17
19-27	~	24.80±0.69	6.06 ± 0.05	'nr	2.25±0.01	56.68±4.74	2.84±0.23	0.57±0.22
IP-28	~	21.24+0.5R	4.9910.04	1.20±0.26	1.92±0.01	43.06±3.83	2.49±0.20	0.56±0.42
1P-29	z	26.65±0.59	7.04±0.06	٦Ľ	2.05±0.01	55.59±5.19	3.68±0.25	0.83±0.30
/P-30	z	25.17±0.38	6.0910.05	ŗ	2,33±0.01	51.99±4.57	3.44±0.23	0.63±0.23
(P31	z	26.65±0.34	6.40 ± 0.06	1.50±0.35	2,52<u>≤</u>0,0 1	55,05±5,38	3,32±0,25	л,
(P-32	z	25,55±0.81	6.0910.05	٦r	2,23±0,01	53,19±4,39	3.22±0.41	0,70±0,07
(P-33	z	27.95±0.58	6.66±0.06	'n	2.36±0.01	58,32±4,89	3.25±0.26	0.80±0.49
1P-34	~	26.2410.69	6.29±0.05	1.47±0.34	2.23±0.01	57.77±4.71	3, 18±0, 25	0.67.0.67
/P-35	z	26.44±0.68	7.49±0.06	٦r	2.21±0.01	58,8614,75	3,81±0.24	0,85±0,08
/P-36	z	26.85±1.00	6.20+0.05	1.60±0.34	2,31±0.01	52,70±4,62	3,4 7±0,22	0.55±0.21
15-37	,	18.91±0.27	5.29±0.05	ŗ	$2,05\pm0.01$	45.62±4.45	3.22±0.59	0,43±0,15
iP-38	•	27.19±0.88	6.7 2±0.05	'n	1.69±0.01	58.32±5.11	4,07±0.53	0.41±0.15

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APPENDIX D

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GEOPHYSICAL DATA

Commonte te Rounnier	Anomaly (mgals)	10,623	006 01	11,311	11,249	11, 395	11.695	11.625	11.502	11.579	11.582	11.452	11.386	11.230	11.072	10.874	10.734	10,753	10,739	10.870	10.974	11,126	11.416	11.41/	11.48/	11.46/	11.423	000.11		11 866	11 623	11 600	11 503	260.11		11 361	006 11	11 116	11.265
Cimule Boundier	Anomaly (mgals)	9.463	9.1/6	10.151	10.019	10.105	10.385	10.295	10.152	10.209	10.172	10.002	9.886	9,690	9.492	9.244	9.104	9,023	8.959	9.100	9.214	9.376	9.666	9.6/7	9.767	9./4/	9.703	9.840	10.164	201 01	0 202	9.883	9.630	9.846	9.9.9	101.6	0 540	9,049	9.805
Free Air Anomaly	corrected)	29.76	29.99	30.28	29.91	29.76	29.89	29.69	29.45	29.40	29.27	29.08	28.96	28.75	28.55	28.30	28.14	28.05	21.93	28.00	28.03	28.10	28.27	28.09	28.04	26.12	27.83	16.12	62.62 16 06	20.34	51 03	20.12	19.12	27.09	55.12 55 55	27 52	06 10	CO 30	26.70
Theoretical Crevity	(mgals)	980723,452	980723,459	98,723,467	980723.462	980723.448	990723,442	980723.433	9:30723,426	980723.423	980723.420	980723.420	980723,420	980723.422	980723.420	980723.421	980723.422	980723.422	980723.416	980723.405	980723.392	980723,376	980723.365	980723.364	980723.362	990723.356	980723.359	980723.362	980723.366	980723.371	980/23.381	980723, 3 ^R 6	980723, 399	980723, 391	980723,396	980723.405	980723.412	980723.416	980723.424 930723.424
Terrain	(mgals)	1,16	1.16	1,16	1.23	1.29	1.31	1.33	1.35	1.37	1.41	1.45	1.50	1,54	1.58	1.62	1.66	1.70	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.74	1.72	1.72	1.72	1.73	1.73	1.73	1.14	1.74	1.75	1.75	1.76	1.76	1.66	1.56	1.51
Observed Graviter	(mgals)	980698,720	980699,220	9806nn.790	98070 J 190	9807491, 8n0	980701.360	980701.480	980701.530	980701,790	980701.970	980701.880	980701.830	980701.710	980701.570	980701.390	980701.330	980701.310	980701.410	980701.710	980701.980	980702.320	980702.830	980703.120	980705,380	980703.530	980703.570	980703.750	980704.060	980704.220	980/04.180	980703.970	990703,950	980703,980	980704.100	980704.000	980704.140	980704.270	980704,730 980705,600
El avetton	(meters)	173.74	172.82	171,87	169.14	166.41	164.95	163,85	162.83	161.78	160,66	160,26	159.92	159.54	159.24	158.90	158.50	158,19	157.33	156.46	155.60	154.62	153.45	152.02	151.15	150.25	149.85	149.67	149.53	149.38	149.00	148.86	148.71	148,63	148.54	148.13	147.20	146.30	143.//
	Long 1 tude	123.65394	123.65555	123.65708	123.65835	123.65951	123.66010	123.66069	123.66133	123.66186	123.66252	123.66277	123.66293	123,66315	123.66334	123.66353	123.66381	123.66403	123.66456	123.66506	123.66554	123.66613	123.66687	123.66802	123.66918	123.67046	123.67102	123.67121	123.67142	123.67167	123.6/211	123.67231	123.67252	123.67264	123.67276	123.67334	123.6/459	123.67582	123.6704
	Latitude	46,04292	46.04299	46.n4308	46.04303	46.04287	46.04280	46.04271	46.04263	46.04260	46.04256	46.04256	46.04256	46.04258	46.04256	46.04257	46.04258	46.04258	46.04252	46.04240	46.04225	46.04207	46.04195	46.04194	46.04192	46.04185	46.04189	46.04192	46.04196	46.04202	46.04213	46.04218	46.04222	46.04224	46.04230	46.04239	46.04247	46.04252	46.04256 46.04261
	Station	ł	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	MB	6W	MBS	MIO	LIM	M12	M13	M14	M15	M16	7 I M	M18	M19	M20	M21	M22	M23	M24	M25	M26	M27	MZH	M29	M30	M31	M32	M33	M34	M35	M36	M37 M38

Complete Bougue Anomaly (mgals)	8,667	8.532	8.31U 8.443	8.386	8,354	8,574	8,453	8,449	575 B	0'2'0 8 A36	8.351	8.512	8,538	8,659	8,598	8.610	8,560	8,449	016.8	166.8	8.621	600.8	8.833	8.93/	9,044	9,083	9.192 0 E2A	47C'6	0 361	9.584	9,907	9.962	10,263	10.574	10,727	10,803	10,009	10,600	10, 151	9,965	69.69	9,838	9,786	9,953	9.80/	9,929		10.231	10.581	10.742
Staple Bouguer Anomaly (mgals)	6.627	6.612	010.0	6.726	6.754	7.024	6,963	1.009	241.7	7 146		7.202	7.200	7.229	7,128	060.1	7.010	6.869	0.60	0.911	6.951	666.0 500 5	7.183	/61./	1.234	562.1	7 644	7 600	7 511	7.754	8.087	8.162	8.503	8.864	9.057	011.0	8 961	949	8.611	8,625	8.561	8.709	8.646	8.813	8./1/	6767g	0 360	9.431	9.741	9.872
Free Air Anomaly (mgals) (terrain corrected)	31.51	31.58	30,16	31.97	31.63	32.01	32.49	32.68	33,01 32,00	66 . 20 66 . FF	33.37	33.72	33.77	34.04	33.85	33.84	33.86	33.80	19.55	34.00	34,09	CI.PC	34,34		94.95	0.45 0.40	36.36	35, 18	35,02	35.24	35.55	35,59	36.06	30.52	26.05	76.00	36, 87	36.79	36.24	36.09	35.59	35.57	35.19	35.09	34.00	34.39	34.28	34.16	34.40	34.14
Theoretical Gravity (mgals)	980724.143	980/24.126 980724 117	980724.100	9RN724.043	980723.960	980/23,932	980723,973 080723 801	080723 876	980723.848	980723.820	980723.790	980723.741	980723.666	980723.725	980723,745	980/23,/54	98U/23,/09	00//22//00 00/72 701	00 2 2 0 0 C	210 227000 210 227000	00//23.01/	080773 038	080723 R53	000123.032	000723,003 000723,073	030723 BR2	980723.887	980723.884	980723.874	980723,850	980723.827	980723,821	980/23,801	900/23,703 000773 735	900/23./33 000773 653	080723 576	980723.515	980723.513	980723.564	980723.595	980723.597	980723.571	980723,599	930723.599	980723.586	960/23,595 000723 561	980/63.331 080723 525	980723.551	980723.553	980723.496
Terrain Correction (mgals)	2.04	1,92	1.73	1.66	1.60	1.55	1 49	82.1	1.33	1.29	1.24	1.31	1,38	1.43	1.47	29.1	50°-1	00.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	22.1	1 76		24.1	1.85	80	1.86	1.85	1,83	1.82	1,80	97.1	1.1	10.1		1.83	1.75	1.54	1.34	1.13	1.13	1.14	1.14	1.09	1.03	0.88	0.80	0.84	0.87
Observed Gravity (mgals)	980689.850	980689,490	990688.760	980683,630	980689.130	980689.110	980693 .050 080687 .680	080.687 380	930687.060	980686,830	980686.390	980686.000	980685.890	980685,640	980685.820	980685.850	000.080U88	000000,400		000605 350	000000,000	DRAGE AID	ORAGE ADD			DRUKRE 400	980685,670	980685.610	980685.520	980685.670	980685,930	980685,950	980686.110	000,000,000	0000000,010	000635 020	980686.040	980686.040	980685.800	980685.810	980686.180	980686.560	980687.040	980687,620	980688.100	980688,950	080600 160 080600 160	980690.520	980690,959	980691,690
Elevation (meters)	207.90	76, 602	213.66	214.10	211.28	212.61	210 50	121 122	222.71	224.25	226,15	228.34	228.55	230.23	228.90	09.822	47 677	10 020	200 64	220.04	CO UCC	221.22	66 116	13,122	10.162	222 36	233.01	233.12	233.03	233, 38	233.63	233,88	234./0	00°.007	10,022	715 07	235,93	235.86	235.62	235.80	233.60	232.29	229.67	227.58	224.58	221.33	213,00 ·	215.74	215.14	211.75
Long1tude	123.61817	123.61931 123.62041	123.62160	123,62169	123.62148	123.621/8	123.02209 123 62246	123 62458	123.62545	123.62600	123.62707	123.62702	123.62744	123.62808	123.62868	123.62930	105 62020	0/670.621	10009 661	122.52000	102 62015	102053 521	120.021		123 63055	123 63070	123.63095	123.63140	123.63167	123.63209	123.63248	123.63310	123.633/8	123.034//	14000.001	07969.631	123.63721	123.63849	123.63919	123.63994	123.64120	123.64245	123.64297	123.64393	123.64505	123.6464/	123 64796	123.64906	123.65006	123.65096
Latitude	46.05057	46.05039 46.05039	46.05010	46.04747	46.04355	46.04824	45.14369 A6 04770	A6 04761	46.04731	46.04700	46.04666	46.04612	46.04529	46.04594	46.04616	46.04626	40.U4043	00000 04000 04	10010.01	AG DAKOG	40.04090 A6 04706	01200.04	A6 04735		40.04/4/ A6 04758	A6 04768	46.04/74	46.04770	46.04759	46.04733	46.04707	46.04701	46.046/8	40.04030	40.04000	00000 90	46.04361	46.04359	46.04416	46.04450	46.04452	46.04423	46.04454	46.04455	46.04440	46.04450 A6 04450	46.04401	46.04401	46.04403	46.04340
Station	14	15	11	T8	19		11	113	114	115	116	117	118	611	021	121	122	123	125	125	127	128	120	130	131	122	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	241	Tid	145	146	147	T48	T49	150	151	152	153	281 281	13	12	F

Complete Bougue Anomaly (mgals)	20.714	20.537	20.968	21,142	21,041	21,043	21,001	21,012	20,961	20,782	20,784	618.02	21.034	511.12	C41.12	21,109 010,10	012.12	21.339 21 E2A	47C'17	201,12 205 10	NAC 10	1 270	21.263	21.211	21.135	21,055	21,108	20.766	20.679	20.421	20,491	20, 392	20, 343	20.190	20.034	2/8/61	100, 41	11, 367	18,881
Simple Bouguer Anomaly (mgals)	19.744	19.040 10 587	19.928	20,022	19,801	19.683	19.681	19,732	112.61	19.522	19.524	19,545	19./54	678,61	643.61	19.809 00 00	19,938	610.02	20,100	20.159 20.066	000 02	201010	20.013	19.97	19,905	19.835	19.898	19,566	19.489	19.251	19, 331	19,242	19.223	19,100	18.994	18,8/2	10.403	17 050	199./1
Free Air Anomaly (mgals) (terrain corrected)	40.58	40,91	41.90	41.60	41.16	41.48	41.63	41.76	41.80	41.60	41.60	41.65	41.89	41.98	6.5.1.5	42.01	42.U9	42.20	74.74	12.24	12.24	10.04	42.21	42.20	42.13	42.07	42.19	41.94	41.97	41.80	41.96	41.96	42.10	42.00	42.01	41,94	41.b9 A1 76	120	41.57
Theoretical Gravity (mgals)	980714.872	980/14.88/ 080714 901	980714.916	980714.934	980714.945	980714.957	980714.963	980714.977	980714.976	980714.980	980714.979	980714,977	980714.973	980714.968	930/14.962	980/14.958	10 112000	980/14.951	106.41/086	980/14.933	700 VILLOOD	900/14.90/ 00071/ 076	980714.984	980714.992	980715.002	980715,016	980715,038	980715,066	980715,088	960715,109	280715.128	980/15.148	980715.195	980/15.243	082, 21/086	980/15.341	980/15.401	264.CI/U86	980715.570
Terrain Correction (mgals)	0.97	0,96	1.04	1.12	1.24	1.36	1.32	1,28	1.25	1.26	1.26	1.27	1.28	1.29	1.30	1.30	5.1	1.32	15,1	1,30	67 .	97 I	1.25	1.24	1.23	1,22	1,21	1,20	1,19	1,17	1.16	1,15	1.12	1.09	1.04	00.1	6.1	5	1.15
Observed Gravity (mgals)	980699,240	980693.380	980697 . 490	980698.360	980698.780	980698.120	930697,840	980617.730	980697.580	980697,420	980697.420	980697,390	980697,550	980697,600	980697,630	980697,650	930697.690	980697.730	980697,860	980697,820	0/0./20/08	98009/ / 20 000607 620	080697.620	980697.510	980697.440	980697,350	980697,330	980696.870	980696.630	980696.310	980696.270	980696.040	980C95.740	980695.450	980695.210	080644.990	980694.430	980693.780	980692.780 980692.780
Elevation (meters)	179,74	183,68	189.79	185.93	182.74	185.55	186,99	187,88	188,53	188,40	188.41	188.66	188.89	188.97	138,89	188,88	189.01	189.20	189.54	189,68	189./4	2/ 681	19 01	100 20	190.36	190,53	191,07	191,86	192,80	193, 32	194,03	194,85	196.52	197.61	198,48	199,28	200.35	5/ · 202	205.52
Longitude	123.55002	123.55121	123 55385	123.55517	123.55637	123.55761	123,55810	123.55859	123.55922	123.55975	123.55995	123.56016	123,56036	123.56055	123,56077	123.56096	123.56118	123.56140	123.56162	123.56182	123,56203	12205.521	123,50635	123 56274	123.56290	123,56315	123, 56358	123,56394	123,56437	123.56480	123.56524	123.56568	123,56668	123.56770	123.56875	123.56996	123.57153	123.57.201	123.57513
Latitude	45.94783	45,94799	CI846.CP	45.94851	45.94864	45.94877	45.94884	45.94899	45.94898	45.94902	45.94901	45.94899	45,94895	45.94889	45.948/13	45.94878	45.94873	45.94870	45.94870	45.94873	45.948/9	45.94888	40.9409/	AE 04016	15.94927	45.94942	45.94967	45.94998	45,95022	45.95045	45.55767	45.95089	45.95141	45.95194	45.95235	45.95302	45.95369	45. 454 ZD	45.95556
Station	J75	J76	173	220	121	0/1	90P	J68	J67	J66	J65	J64	JEJ	J62	J61	J59	J58	J57	J56	J55	J54	153	260	100	641.	J48	140	J46	J45	J44	343	J:12	141	050	139	133	137	120	034 134

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18,677 18,497 18,119 17,831 17,550	17,283 17,080 17,080 17,471 17,560 17,560 17,399	17,1%6 16,0%9 16,0%9 16,0%9 16,0% 16,0% 16,114 16,114 15,8%9 15,6%9 15,8%9 15,007	15,488 15,300 15,009 14,617	13.70 13.75 13.75 13.86 13.85 15.85 15.85 15.85 15.85
17.397 17.147 16.521 16.521 16.521	15,883 15,706 15,664 15,171 16,171 16,207 16,229 16,229	16.106 15.106 15.635 15.655 15.555 15.317 15.048 15.757 14.756 14.756 14.756	14.368 14.090 13.590 13.440 13.407	11.831 11.897 11.894 11.984 11.599 11.633 11.599 11.633 11.597 11.597 11.597 11.601 11.517 11.374
41.77 41.77 41.84 42.07 42.09	42.37 42.64 42.68 43.46 43.46 43.68 43.69 43.76	43.55 43.23 43.33 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 43.43 44.444 44.44444444	43.35 43.85 44.03 44.07	20.24 20.24 19.19 19.19 19.55
980715.639 980715.687 980715.728 980715.728 980715.768	980715, R41 980715, B36 930715, B36 930715, B36 980715, B36 930715, B66 930715, B66 930715, B66 930715, B66	980715.867 980715.868 980715.875 980715.815 980715.911 980716.044 980716.079 980716.124 980716.124 980716.124 980716.133	980716.474 980716.474 980716.474 980716.651 980716.627 980716.627	980723.216 980723.270 980723.333 980723.455 980723.550 980723.655 980723.655 980723.793 980723.839 980723.845 980723.845 980723.845 980723.845 980723.845 980723.845
1.33	1.40 1.35 1.35 1.17 1.17		1.12 1.21 1.34 1.34 1.21	1.88 2.00 2.14 2.14 2.11 2.11 2.14 83 2.11 2.14 83 2.11 2.14 2.14 2.14 2.14 2.14 2.14 2.14
980692,110 980692,110 980690,280 980689,110 980689,110	980686.900 980686.900 980685.470 980685.630 980685.500 980685.150 980685.150 980685.150 980685.150	980684,900 980684,670 980684,670 980684,170 980683,700 980683,110 980683,110 980683,110 980682,640 980687,640 980681,140 980681,140 980681,140 980681,140	980600, 270 980679, 650 980679, 650 980677, 970 980677, 760	980722,860 980723,120 980723,530 980724,550 980724,550 980724,550 980725,000 980725,200 980725,200 980725,200 980725,190 980725,190
207.94 210.62 219.39 219.39	227.74 233.162 234.162 235.85 233.85 233.45 233.42 233.66	233,17 239,24 240,50 244,65 244,65 244,65 244,65 244,65 244,65 252,60 255,00 255,00 255,00 255,00 255,000 255,000 255,000 255,000 255,000 255,000 255,000 255,0000 255,0000000000	254,02 258,123 269,91 264,69 265,95	9, 92 53, 58 53, 58 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54
123.57578 123.57670 123.57769 123.57868 123.57868	123.56036 123.56036 123.58135 123.58133 123.58133 123.58230 123.58253 123.58257 123.58279 123.58279	122.58299 123.58318 123.58318 123.58384 123.58384 123.58384 123.58376 123.58399 123.58445 123.58445 123.58445 123.586550 123.58746	123.54876 123.58936 123.58935 123.58835 123.58877 123.58949 123.58949	23.77110 123.77200 123.77200 123.77200 123.7730 123.77430 123.77410 123.77400 123.77400 123.77560 123.77560 123.77560 123.77560 123.77560 123.77560
45.95633 45.95636 45.95731 45.95776 45.95839	45, 95857 45, 95857 45, 95905 45, 95906 45, 95808 45, 95808 45, 95488 45, 95478	65.95826 45.95837 45.95837 45.95837 45.95933 45.96000 45.96000 45.96010 45.96170 45.96215 45.96215 45.96215 45.96304	45.96324 45.96369 45.9648 45.96558 45.96554 45.96728 45.96805	46.04030 46.04160 46.04160 46.04160 46.04310 46.04310 46.04550 46.04570 46.04770 46.04770
550 550 150 950 950	225 225 223 223 223 223 223 223 223 223	20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2	J15 J16 J19 J20 J21	A5 A5 A3 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88
	J33 45.95633 123.57570 207.94 92.0692.110 1.28 980715.639 41.65 17.397 18.677 J37 45.95636 123.57670 210.62 98.0671.320 1.35 98.0715.639 41.77 17.147 18.677 J31 45.95636 123.57769 214.59 98.06690.280 1.33 98.0715.268 41.77 17.147 18.407 J30 45.95736 123.57769 214.59 98.06690.280 1.33 98.0715.758 41.64 16.789 18.119 J30 45.95776 123.57940 222.36 98.0689.110 1.31 98.0715.768 42.07 16.521 17.631 J29 45.95839 123.57940 222.36 98.0715.825 42.09 16.520 17.560	J33 45 95633 123.5757a 207.94 980715.639 41.65 17.37 18.677 J37 45 95731 123.5770 210.62 980715.639 41.77 17.147 18.477 J37 45 95731 123.57769 219.59 980689.110 1.35 980715.639 41.77 17.147 18.477 J30 45 95776 123.57769 219.39 980669.110 1.35 980715.728 41.77 17.147 18.477 J30 45 95776 123.57940 222.36 9806715.728 42.07 16.202 17.181 J27 45.95906 123.57940 222.36 980715.825 42.07 16.521 17.783 J26 45.95906 123.5873 227.40 980715.825 42.07 16.576 17.146 J26 45.95906 123.58712 273.583 42.68 42.44 15.766 17.016 J24 45.95906 123.58774 1.35.689 42.46	131 6. 9653 123.5757 207.4 990715, 637 11.77 17.797 18.677 131 6. 9653 123.5766 213.5766 214.50 900715, 637 11.77 17.797 18.677 131 6. 9650 123.5766 214.50 900715, 637 11.77 17.797 18.677 127 6. 9766 123.5766 214.50 900715, 637 11.77 17.717 11.417 127 123.5766 222.36 900715, 637 900715, 637 11.77 11.717 11.717 127 123.5766 223.27 900715, 637 41.26 11.77 11.717 128 65.9706 123.5766 273.75 900715, 637 41.77 11.77 11.77 128 65.9706 123.5767 273.75 900715, 637 41.27 11.77 11.77 128 65.9706 123.577 579.766 123.576 11.77 11.77 11.77 11.77 11.77 11.77 11.77 11.77 <td< th=""><th></th></td<>	

Complete Rouguer Anomaly (mgals)	12.78 12.67 12.72	12.62	12.21	12.71	13.03	13.10	14.03	14.92	14.63	14.25	13.90	13.70			13.30	13.04	13.06	13.00	12.89	12.67	12,61	12.36	12.41	12.08	11.79	11.33	11.54	11.14	11.25	11.00	11.22	10.63	10.64	10,39	6 .60
Simple Rouguer Anomaly (mgals)	11.239 11.055 11_023	10.832	10.261 10.180	10.251	0/0.01	9.878	105.01	11.435	11.634	11.482	11.359	665.11 11.637			11.317	11.244	11.165	11.05/	11.020	10.921	10.979	. 10.968	11.149	11.347	11.003	11.064	10.802	10.386	10.489	9.836	10.037	9, 394	9.092	8.966 P.P.A	8.409
Free Air Anomaly (mgals) (terrain corrected)	18.28 17.99 17.81	17.57	17.05	11.11	17.32	17.19	18.01	18.91	18.92	18.34	18.18	17.91			17.43	17.97	18.42	18.85	16.61	20.13	20.64 20.85	22.14	23.49	24.51	26.02	26.08	25.81	25.69	25.64	25.72	25.97	24.61	24.11	23.71	23.30
Theoretical Gravity (mgals)	980723,938 980724,010 930724,010	980724, 145 980724, 145	980724.263 990724.335	930724,407	960724,458	980724.515	980724.542	990724.578	980/24.514	980724.678	980724.678	980724, 741			980724.741 980724.804	980724.777	980724.759	980724.732 050724.705	980724.696	980724.696	980724.687 040724 660	980724.633	980724.614	980724.605	980724.560	980724.560	980724.587 980724.587	980724.651	980724.714	980724.822	990724.849	980724.867 080724 805	930724.876	980724.867	980724.849
Terrain Correction (mgals)	1.56 1.65	1.86	2.06	2.58	3.10	3.37	3.89	3.62	3.36 01 5	2.85	2.59	2.07			1,99	1.87	2.02	2.09	2,00	16.1	1.82	1.63	1.52	141	6.03	0,90	0.8/	0.82	0.80	1.14	1.31	1.26	1.58	1.47	1.23
Observed Gravity (mgals)	980725,030 980725,220 980725,500	980725.710 980725.470	980725,190 980725,630	980726.130	980726,050	980726,130	980726.560	980727.790	930/28,370	980728,000	980727,580	980/27.790 980728.190	• '		980727,870 980727,870	980726.470	980725.590	980724.540	980722.780	980721,670	980720.760	9807.7.710	930715.660	980713.010 030711 370	980710.020	980710,100	980709,820 980709,420	001.00709	980709.510	980/08,960 08070.4 170	980708.270	980708,830	980709.510	980709,750	980708.680
Elevation (meters)	51.55 50.02	47.08	47.42 45 14	43.33	43.21	41.98	41,94	41.78	40.64	41.46	42.96	41.60			41.60 AF 62	48.52	52,50	57.15	01.30	70,86	75,73	06.06	102.14	114.57	129.78	129,68	129.60	131.78	130.54	132.03	135.23	129.21	124.27	122.36	124.87
Long1 tude	123.78090 123.78120	123.78500	123.78340	123.78410	123.78500	123.78720	123.78950	123.79030	123.79150	123.79350	123.79460	123.79580		-	123.79670	123.79759	123, 79802	123.79841	123./89/30	123.79986	123.80042	123.801892	123.80290	123.80406	123.80587	123.60616	123.80739	123.80374	123.30388	123.80969	123.81179	123.81299	123.81461	123.81665	123.81/86
Latitude	46.04830	46.05060 46.05140	46.05190	46.05350	46.05490	46.05470	46.05480	46.05540	46.05580	46.05650	46.05650	46.05720			46.05720	40,05/90	46.05740	46.05710	46.05630 Ac 05670	46.05670	46.05660	46.05600	46.05580	46.05580	46.05520	46.05520	46.05500	46.05620	46.05690	46.05760	46.05840	46.05860	46.05870 46.05870	46.05860	46.05840 46.05840
Station	69 110	518	118	816	B17 B1x	619	820 821	022	823	B25	826	827 828			2	24	64	P5	P6	2 84	64	014	P12	F13	614	P15	P16	PIR	614	P20	P22	P23	P24	P26	P27 P28

Complete Rouguer Anomaly (mgals)	9.09 9.02 8.35 7.43	7.64 7.69 7.51	7.739	7,53 7,12 5,24	4.3] 3.7] 3.49	2,91	2,42 2,28 1,89	6 -	7,72 8,16	8.62 8.62 8.62	8.54	10,64	12.59	12.02	11.57	12.18	12,63 12,59	12.83	12.75
Simple Bouguer Anomaly (mgals)	8.025 7.709 7.321 7.032 6.349	6.416 6.350 6.030 6.072	5.862 6.249 6.249	5.912 5.417 3.454	2.768 2.436 2.312 2.051	1.962	1.602 1.440	<u>e</u>	5.923 6.172	6.734 7 235	6.806 1 820	1.030 8.584	9.647 10.438	9, 786 9, 866	9.299	9.937	10.245	000.11	11.074
Free Air Anomaly (mgals) (teriain corrected)	23.42 23.79 23.70 23.21	22.00 21.38 21.33 20.33	19.07 19.07	17.84 16.69 15.44 12.47	10.12 8.18 8.30	8.10 7.64 7.11	6.86 6.44 5.81	G. 6	8.16 8.52	8.83 9.32	10.03	13.53	14.77	15.42	14.77	15.36 15.31	15.94 16.05	16.63	16.90
Theoretical Gravity (mgals)	990724.849 980724.867 950724.894 950724.930 930724.930	980725.075 980725.147 930725.201	980725,237 980725,291 980725,318	980725, 390 980725, 463 980725, 517 980725, 571	580725,589 980725,625 980725,625	980725,607 980725,661 980725,706	980/25.760 980725.823 980725.878	9a0725.941	980726.175 980726.095	980/26.022 980725.959	960725.833 960725.833	980725,724	980725.679 980725.679	950725.706 980725.715	980725,679 980725,625	980725,590 900725,526	980725,463 980725,399	980725,327	980725,183
Terrain Correction (mgals)	1.08 1.36 1.40	1.53	1.92	1,93 1,91 1,89	1.47	1.25 1.03 0.80	0.85 0.85 0.80	0.74	1.90	1.97	2.01	2.65	2.45	2.38 2.41	2.44	2,09 2,39	2.58	16°.	67.1
Observed Gravity (mgals)	980703, 230 980705, 840 980705, 070 980705, 120 980704, 540	980705.700 980705.960 980705.960	980708,330 980708,380 980709,630 980711,250	980712.860 980714.350 980715.460	980717.440 980719.570 980718.850	980718.180 980718.810 980719.760	980719,190 980719,610 980719,740	980720,370	980730.640 980730.650	980730.310 980730.210	080.527.080	980728.070 980728.290	980729,500 980729,530	990723,700 980723,520	980728,150 980729,110	980729.450 980729.060	980729,200 980729,240	980729,240	980728.530
Elevation (meters)	130.29 135.84 137.92 136.38	131.04	121.83 115.61 111.32 104.39	95.46 86.50 78.62 68.46	55.47 43.14 46.17	48.16 44.78 40.43	41.52 38.89 36.84	34,28	7.41 8.17	12.62	23.16	28.14 30.56	30,62 31,69	34.10 35.88	34.69 33.32	32.43 32.53	33.06	36.47	39.26
l onat tude	123, 82381 123, 82152 123, 82268 123, 82381	123.82504 123.82504 123.82533 123.82519	123.82528 123.82546 123.82498 123.82498	123.82383 123.82392 123.82413	123.82628 123.82628 123.82733	123.82975 123.83052 123.83166	123.83273 123.83367 123.83448	123, 83469	123.7841 3 123.78474	123.78554	123, 78599	123.78683 123.78750	123, 74802 123, 74897	123, 79095	123, 79179 123, 79274	123, 79134 123, 79400	123.79454	123.79502	123.79566
l at t tude	46.05890 46.05860 46.05890 46.05930	46.06090 46.06170 46.06170 46.06230	46.06270 46.06310 46.06330 46.06330	46.06520 46.06520 46.06580	46.06700 46.06700 46.06700	46.06680 46.06740 46.06740	46.06850 46.06920 46.06920	46.07050	46.07310 46.07210	46.07140	46.0h930	46.06860 46.06810	46,06760 46,06760	46,00790 46,06800	46.06760 46.06700	46.06650 46.06599	46.06520	46.06370	46.06210
Station	P29 P30 P32	P34 P36 P36	P37 P38 P40	P41 P42	P44 P45 P46	P49 P49	154 154		AN Na	NI NI	BASE S2	5 5	S. S.	55	59 510	512	115	515	SII

Complete Bougue Anomaly (mgals)	12.61 12.83 13.15 13.29	13.25 13.32 13.50		8.856	7,848	7.621	7.252	7.433	9.295	7.190	8.443	7.912	0.140	8,856	7,784 8.038	7.741	7.350	7.562	9.285	8,819	8,500	5.252 1.252	8.216
Simple Bouguer Amomaly (mgals)	10,895 11,103 11.392 11.497	11.530 11,341 11.275		6.976	6.238	6.051	5.632	5.723	7.825	6.09.1	7.473	6.872	000.7	6.976	5.674	6.171	5.830	5,942	7.815	7.589	7.400	7.212	7.106
Free Air Anomaly (mgals) (terrain corrected)	16.61 16.90 17.40 17.42	17.39 17.59 17.61		6.99 11	8.77	9.07	10.0	8.48	10.82	9.35	10.66	9.70		6 .99	8.39 8.96	9.19	8.95	36.4	10.81	10.38	10.66	10.04	9.61
Theoretical Gravity (mgals)	980725.120 980725.066 980725.002 980724.948	980724.858 950724.768 980724.687		980725.833 980725.905	980725,986	980726,085 980726,184	980726,284	980726.383	980726.545	980726.636	980726.726	980/26./98 980726.861		980725,833	980725,905 980725,986	980726,085	980726.184	980726,284	980/26,383 000726 473	980726.545	980726.636	980726,726	980726.861
Terrain Correction (mgals)		1.73 1.99 2.23		1.85 2.08	1,58	1.54	1.59	1.68	1.20	1 07	0.94			1.85	2.08	1.54	1,49	1.59	1.68	1.20	1.07	0,94	1.08
Observed Gravity (mgals)	980728.430 980728.400 980728.200 980728.320	980728.210 980727.850 980727.710		980728.480 980728.920	980728.400	980727,640 980727,140	980727.170	980728,680	980729.990	980727.520	980728.930	980730.030		980728.480	980/28.920 980728.400	980727.640	980727.140	980727.170	980/28,680	980729,990	980727.520	980728.930 980729 140	980730,030
Elevation (meters)	38.54 39.47 41.64 41.29	41,55 41,96 41,93		16,91 12.24	14,35	17.76	19.03	12,33	16.08	21.37	21.69	14.57		16.91	12.24	36.71	17.91	19.03	12,33	61.01 16.08	21.37	21.69	14.57
Long1 tude	123.79616 123.79667 123.79684 123.79688	123.79677 123.79649 123.79578		123.78579 123.78553	123.78500	123.78444 123.78444	123.78415	123.78464	123.78448	123.78448	123.78395	123.78385		123.78579	123,78553	123.78444	123.78444	123,78415	123.78464	123.78448	123.78448	123.78395	123.78385
Latitude	46.06140 46.06030 46.06010 46.05950	46.05850 46.05750 46.05660		46.06930	46.07100	46.0/210 46.0/320	46.07430	46.07540	46.07720	46.07820	46.07920	46.08070		46.06930	46.07010	46.07210	46.0/320	46.07430	46.07540	46.07720	46.07020	46.07920	46.08070
Station	518 519 520 521	572 524 525		80-1 80-2	6-08	80-4 80-5	80-6	80-7	6-08	80-10	80-11 80	80-13		80-1	80-2	B0-4	80-5	BD-6	80-7	6-08	80-10	80-11 80-11	80-13

APPENDIX E

ROCK UNITS USED IN GRAVITY MODELS

<u>Tillamook Volcanics</u>: Eocene tholeiitic basaltic pillow lavas and flow and submarine breccias interbedded with minor tuffaceous siltstone and basaltic sandstone; unit thins away from its volcanic center (Tillamook Highlands), where it is up to 6100 m thick; equivalent to ocean floor basalt, forms basement rock of northwest Oregon; assigned a 2.8 g/cc density by Snavely and Wagner (1964).

<u>Upper Eocene Sedimentary Rock</u>: overlies Tillamook Volcanics with probable unconformity; in upper Nehalem basin, Cowlitz Formation is 300 m of deep marine tuffaceous mudstone and subordinate arkosic sandstone, laminated siltstone, and basaltic conglomerate which interfingers with the late Eocene Goble Volcanics, porphyritic submarine and subaerial basalt flows, breccias, and pillow lavas; Cowlitz Formation assigned a 2.5 g/cc density by Beeson and others (1976b); Goble Basalt assigned a 2.8 g/cc density.

<u>Oligocene-Miocene Sedimentary Rock</u>: Toms unit of Schlicker and others (1972) and Beaulieu (1973); Snavely and Wagner (1964) treat the late Eocene to mid Miocene marine sedimentary rocks as a single geophysical unit of 2.4 g/cc density, and they are treated as such both here and in Beeson and others (1976b); includes the following formations:

Keasey Formation: conformably (?) overlies Cowlitz; up to 600 m of stratified tuffaceous marine siltstone, mudstone, and shale with thin interbeds of glauconitic sandstone of late Eocene to early Oligocene age;

Pittsburgh Bluff and Scappoose Formations: mid-Oligocene to early Miocene, 260 m and 460 m thick, respectively; Pittsburgh Bluff includes minor tuffaceous sandy siltstone and mudstone layers in thick arkosic and glauconitic sandstone beds with occasional layers of volcanic ash; disconformably overlying the Pittsburgh Bluff, the Scappoose is composed of arkosic sandstone with subordinate tuffaceous mudstone and basaltic conglomerate and less volcanic ash; partly equivalent to the coastal Oswald West Mudstones (silty mudstones and tuffaceous siltstones);

Astoria Formation: overlies older units with angular unconformity; up to 600 m of semi-consolidated to indurated deltaic and shallow marine micaceous arkosic and lithic sandstone and siltstone with interbeds of turbidite sandstone and mudstone. <u>Columbia River Basalt Group and Miocene Coastal Basalts</u>: mid to late Miocene; up to 600 m of tholeiitic basalt flows, breccias, and pillow lavas and intrusions; assigned a 2.8 g/cc density by Snavely and Wagner (1964) and Beeson and others (1976b); bounded by angular unconformities.

Post Miocene Sedimentary Units:

Troutdale Formation: up to 275 m of poorly consolidated fluvial conglomerates and interbeds of sandstone and mudstone and siltstones; late Miocene to Pliocene; forms fill in structural basins (e.g., Tualatin Valley), where it may be greater than 300 m thick; assigned a 2.3 g/cc density by Beeson and others (1976b);

Holocene Alluvium: floodplain alluvium and terraces of bedded basaltic gravels and/or silty clays along stream drainages; dune and beach sands, tidal flat muds and silts; up to 90 m thick, usually unconsolidated; assigned a 2.0 g/cc density.