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An Analysis of Fractures around the Sevier Fault Zone near Orderville, Utah

Charley H. Hankla The College of Wooster, chankla19@wooster.edu

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An Analysis of Fractures around the Sevier

Fault Zone near Orderville, Utah

by

Charley H. Hankla

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of Senior Independent Study at The College of Wooster

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Cover photo: 2018 Utah scenic shot DS05620. Photo credit: Ben Surpless.

Abstract

Structural discontinuities—such as opening mode joints, shear fractures, and faults— tend to occur in close geographic proximity to one another; however, the timing relationships between these structures is not always easy to discern in the field. In southwestern Utah, the Jurassic Navajo Sandstone is cut by large-scale normal faults associated with the Sevier Fault Zone, making it perfect for observing several fracture types. The aim of this study is to complete a dynamic and kinematic analyses of the fractures near a major fault and to determine the chronologic relationships between the fractures. Specifically, we observed a previously unnamed segment of the Sevier Fault Zone— herein referred to as the Mountain Lion Den Fault— previously interpreted as a west dipping normal fault striking 030. The primary field area is the Red Hollow Canyon/Elkheart Cliffs region, located southeast of Orderville, Utah.

For this study, orientations (dip and dip direction) of fracture data within the Navajo Sandstone were measured and tracked on eight different scanlines. Scanline fractures were plotted on stereonets and averages determined. GPS locations were taken on a Trimble G7X at ends of each scanline for GIS mapping. Schmidt Hammer (L-type) data were taken to compare rock strengths near the Mountain Lion Den Fault.

Fracture analyses show a general NNE strike similar to the Mountain Lion Den fault strike. Despite a few outliers, scanline averages typically strike within 10° of the 030 strike of the Mountain Lion Den fault. We interpret movement along the fault initiated around the same time some of the fractures formed. The fractures likely formed in front of the Mountain Lion Den fault at oblique angles to its strike as the fault propagated northward. These results suggest that an area of weakness formed in Red Hollow Canyon, allowing the fault to propagate easily at 030. This compares favorably to previous brittle fracture studies within

propagating fault zones. Outliers in the data could be associated with NW rotation of σ3, similar to joints in Zion NP. Schmidt Hammer data show that oxidized beds have greater maximum compressive strengths than bleached zones in the Navajo Sandstone.

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I would like to thank the Keck Utah Squad- Dr. Ben Surpless, Madison, Caroline, and Curtis- for an amazing field experience, my family for their constant support through the ups and downs of the IS journey, and my friends for being there for me for anything.

My IS is dedicated to my grandmother, Alice Clair Kimbler Hankla. She will never get to read this, but she has always been supportive of my scientific endeavors. Look, Grandmom, I made it!

Thank you for everything

Introduction

Importance

The study of fractures in the Navajo Sandstone is important for understanding and predicting fluid flow. The Navajo Sandstone is the most porous formation in the region and is covered by capping sediments. The vast majority of the sandstone is well sorted quartz grains from very fine to medium grained in size. Fractures affect the ease that fluids flow in rocks; they can either increase or decrease the permeability. If the fractures are deformation bands, fluid flow is majorly hindered. Other fractures, especially opening, can increase fluid flow. Understanding how fractures form can help geologists predict how fluid flow will be affected, as well as fault locations and types. Since the Navajo Sandstone is overlain by the Temple Cap and Twin Creek members that act as caps, fluid can be trapped in areas of the Navajo. Fractures are found to increase in abundance closer to faults, so faults that cut through reservoirs majorly affect the movement of fluids (Chidsey et al., 2007; Fossen and Bale, 2007; Fossen, 2010; Fossen et al., 2011).

Keck Geology Consortium

The Keck Geology Consortium is a group of 17 liberal arts colleges focused on enhancing students' education through high caliber Research Experiences for Undergraduates-known as REUs. Students participate in four to five week projects that consist of lab and field research. For advanced students, i.e. rising seniors, the research usually leads to a senior thesis and presentation at a professional conference. Macalester College currently runs the Keck Geology Consortium that is funded by the NSF (Keck Geology Consortium, 2018).

This study is based upon the data obtained on a research trip that was led by Dr. Ben Surpless of Trinity University. Caroline McKeighan, Curtis Segarra, Madison Woodley, and I accompanied him. Caroline and Curtis are both senior geology majors from Trinity, and Madison is a senior geology major from Mount Holyoke College. They are all also using the data collected in the field to complete a senior project at their respective institutions (Surpless, 2017, 2018).

Objectives

The aims of this study are to:

- Describe fracture morphologies and orientations (kinematic analysis)
- Map the spatial relationships between the fractures and the local normal faults
- Analyze fracture relationships to the nearby normal fault zone
- Determine the orientation of the regional stress regime (dynamic analysis)

Location

This study is focused on Red Hollow Canyon and Elkheart Cliffs in southwestern Utah because of the great exposures of the Navajo Sandstone around faulted areas. These locations are close to Orderville, UT, which is accessible from the north and south via Highway 89. Northerly tilting strata on a hill can be seen to the right as one drives into Orderville from the south and represents the relay ramp that marks the entrance to Red Hollow Canyon. Highway 89 runs along the western side of a large, eroded valley. Orderville is located at 37°15'44 N, 112°39'12" W and is on the eastern side of the transition

zone between the Colorado Plateau and the Basin and Range physiographic provinces (Eaton, 1982; Moores and Twiss, 1995; "Orderville, Utah," 2018).

Figure 1: Satellite imagery of study locations. Inset is a larger scale map of Utah ("Google Earth Pro v. 7.3.2, imagery 7/22/2015, 2019 Google").

Background

Tectonic Setting

In the western states of the US, there are multiple different areas of distinct geology called physiographic provinces. Starting in the east, the Colorado Plateau is a sprawling province that is defined by the fact that it has not undergone any massive deformation events. Therefore, the Plateau has very little topographic relief and the majority of the sediments are flat lying. Marked by changes in deformation, volcanism, topography, and crustal structure, the

Colorado Plateau gradually gives way to the Basin and Range physiographic province in the west (Jackson, 1990b, 1990a; Porter et al., 2017). This massive province extends about 3,700 km from Mexico to Canada and is the result of large scale extension that began in the Oligocene. Elongate valleys, north to north-northeast trending mountain ranges, and gently dipping strata are characteristic of the area. The extension produced a large, consistent series of horsts and grabens as well as a variety of other structures including fractures and relay ramps (Stewart, 1998). Changes from one province to another are not sudden, so between the two is the 150 km wide Transition Zone. It contains characteristics from both provinces and is thought to have started forming when the extension began, around 29 Ma. The modern topographies and plateaus visible in Utah are predicted to be younger than 14 Ma, indicating that the extension is likely ongoing (Eaton, 1982; Stewart, 1998).

Geologic Setting

Within the Basin and Range and Transition Zone provinces, there are many normal faults to accommodate the strain from the regional extension. Specifically, in southern Utah there are four main faults or fault zones: the Grand Wash Fault Zone, the Hurricane Fault, the Sevier Fault Zone, and the Paunsaugunt Fault. This study focuses on the Sevier Fault Zone, near Orderville, Utah. It is called a fault zone because there is not just one but many fault segments that contribute to accommodating the offset from regional extension. The segments in the Sevier Fault Zone are high angle normal faults with a total trace length of about 100 km and generally striking 030, dipping west. This zone started faulting around 15 to 12 Ma and has produced two recorded earthquakes, implying that it is still active (Eaton, 1982; Moores and Twiss, 1995; Davis, 1999).

Data collection for this study occurred along the Elkheart Cliffs Fault, Mountain Lion Den Fault, and a potential small fault segment crossing the canyon between the Mountain Lion Den and Elkheart Cliffs Faults (Doelling, 2008), which strikes at 025 and will be referred to as the Kimbler Fault. An additional area of major deformation is in the eastern portion of the canyon, likely just a heavily fractured zone because no offset was observed. West of Red Hollow Canyon is a fault that forms the Orderville Relay Ramp with the Elkheart Cliffs Fault and briefly follows Highway 89, to be referred to as the Highway 89 Fault. Major faults labelled in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Geologic map of the portion of the Sevier Fault Zone in which the study was conducted. Red Hollow Canyon emphasized with blue box (Modified from Doelling, 2008).

Stratigraphy

The Navajo Sandstone is a well exposed, Early Jurassic erg unit that extends from present day Arizona to Wyoming. It is the most porous sandstone in the region (Chidsey et al., 2007; Fossen, 2010; Fossen et al., 2011). The sand was deposited in eolian dunes, making structures like foresets and cross-bedding a common occurrence. Possible origins for the sand include exposed sandstones of Paleozoic to Triassic age found in Canada and sediments from as far east as the Appalachian area. These sediments mixed with others from local sources as they moved southwest before settling in the vast desert that makes up the Navajo. Sand grains within the sandstone are generally well sorted, very fine to medium grained, and subrounded to subangular. Quartz makes up 97% of the formation, with some chert nodules, K-feldspar, and lithics present (Peterson and Pipiringos, 1979; Chidsey et al., 2007; Doelling, 2008).

Structures

Fractures

Fractures are planar features that form to help accommodate stress. There are three main modes of fracturing; Mode 1 are opening fractures also called joints, Mode 2 is sliding, and Mode 3 is tearing. For dip-slip faults, Mode 2 tends to be on the top and bottom tips of fault planes and fractures on the lateral tips tend to be Mode 3, however, these can occur simultaneously to Mode 1, creating zones of mixed mode fracturing (McGrath and Davison, 1995). Indicators of fractures in the field include extremely flat faces along exposures, cracks in an outcrop, hackle plume structures, and arrest lines.

Transfer Zones

Transfer zones, also known as accommodation zones, are areas between faults that overlap in map view. The overstepping faults can either be dipping in the same or different directions. When normal overlapping faults are dipping in the same direction, they are called synthetic accommodation zones and relay ramps form, helping accommodate additional stress. In mature relay ramps, the ramp has been breached, or connected, by faults subperpendicular to the main faults, Figure 3c. When the overlapping faults are dipping in opposite directions, transfer zones are called antithetic accommodation zones. Antithetic transfer zones are home to a wide range of geometries, including anticlines and synclines (Faulds and Varga, 1998). Just to the west of the study area, there is a fantastically exposed relay ramp called the Orderville Relay Ramp that connects the Elkheart Cliffs and Highway 89 Faults (Schiefelbein, 2002; Doelling, 2008).

Figure 3: Block diagrams illustrating the formation of relay ramps. (a) fractures develop in the brittle layers; (b) extension continues, causing the onset of faulting along the fracture strikes as well as the beginning of a relay ramp between overstepping faults; (c) overstepping segments of the developing faults connect in the subsurface and breach the top and bottom of the relay ramp as more extension occurs (From Peacock, 2002, Figure 3).

Methods

Fracture Data

When determining if a fracture's attitude was to be recorded, its length and accessibility were considered. If the visible portion of the fracture extended less than 4 meters (12 feet), it was not measured. Fractures that were inaccessible in the field were also skipped, leaving gaps in some of the scanlines. On viable fractures, Brunton compasses were used to determine the dip and dip direction, by putting the back of the compass directly on the fracture plane. If the fracture plane did not have enough room for a compass, a map board was used to extend the fracture out so that a measurement could be recorded. Once leveled, the azimuthal orientation was taken for the dip direction and the dip angle was taken from the side of the compass. Fractures that were similar in their attitude to the first fracture on the scanline they were on are labeled as 'typical' fractures and those varying from the typical are called 'diamond' fractures. Disclaimer: fracture orientation data were collected by multiple students in the field, so there may be some inconsistencies. The worry with the dataset is the possibility that not all dip directions were recorded correctly, however, the data that we collected in the field will still be used for this study.

Scanlines

While moving through the canyons and taking fracture data, scanlines were also recorded. Scanlines, for the purposes of this study, are used to measure total distance travelled, approximately perpendicular to the exposure. To make the scanlines, measurements in meters were recorded using a large tape measure between each viable fracture. To keep a consistent orientation of the line, some fractures were visually extended out from the exposure to allow

the measuring tape to reach the next fracture. GPS locations were taken on a Trimble G7X whenever a day in the field began or ended, at any particularly interesting feature, at photo locations, at sample locations, every so often just in case, and where scanlines were started or stopped.

A scanline with fractures on it can be constructed using the distance measurements between fractures. Distance measurements were only taken between typical fractures. There are large gaps in some of the scanlines, indicating the absence of viable fractures or the lack of accessible outcrops. Several gaps, especially in scanline A, represent areas of debris and erosional sediment that prevented fractures from being seen. Eight scanlines were taken in total while in the field; five in Red Hollow Canyon and three in Elkheart Cliffs.

Schmidt Hammer Data

At every sturdy sample location, except for the coring locations, Schmidt Hammer data were taken with an L-type Hammer. This rebound value data was recorded as a proxy for compressive strength of the rock. On the rock the sample was taken from, the smoothest location possible was chosen, and 10 Sharpie dots were drawn on to plan for where the hammer would be used. Then, the hammer was oriented perpendicular to the rock surface and gently pushed against the rock until the spring bounced back and the hammer recorded a Q value. All 10 compressive strength proxies were recorded, as well as the mean and the standard deviation of each set, as provided by the hammer. According to Dr. Surpless, because of the frequency of anomalies in the rock surface, a more accurate way to measure the compressive strength of a rock is to take the maximum value instead of the average. So, the highest rebound value of each sample location will be used in this paper. Schmidt Hammer data was not obtained at BS18-C1, C2, and C3 locations because the coring was done at the same time that the hammer was being used on the other side of the canyon.

Compressive strength was not possible to record at the location for BS18-10 and 11 because the rock crumbled readily under too hard of a touch.

Petrographic Data

Hand samples from various locations in the canyon and stratigraphy were taken while in the field. The samples were made into thin sections by a third party. While examining the thin sections, Table 1 was used to gather observations. Microscopes with both plain polarized light (PPL) and cross polarized light (XPL) were used, as well as the photo tool called "Spot". When taking photos of the thin sections, three locations around the section were chosen. All photos in each section were taken with the stage at the same rotation so that all fractures identified in each photo could be compared to the other photos for the same section. Once a photo was taken, a scale bar was added within the same program. Microfractures in the sections were outlined to potentially observe a pattern in orientations.

Stereonets

At labs at Trinity and Wooster, Allmendinger's Stereonet software was used to visualize fracture orientations. Stereonets are used to represent 3D planar data in a simplified 2D way. Fracture data were organized and made into .csv files, brought into Stereonet, and plotted from there. The stereographic projections were analyzed to find patterns, aiding the analysis of the fracture orientations that were collected in the form of number tables, as seen in Appendix A. Strike and dip averages were calculated using excel, not taking dip direction into account when determining the dip averages due to the uncertainty of the validity of the recorded dip direction.

Results

Figures 4 and 5 show where the scanline data for this study were collected. Five scanlines are in Red Hollow Canyon and three are in the Elkheart Cliffs area. GPS coordinates were recorded at the beginning of each scanline, as seen in Table 2. Field notes for the scanlines can be found in Appendix A and simplified fracture data in Appendix B.

Beginning	GPS coordinates	Number		
οf scanline:	Meters N	Meters E	Elevation	οf fractures
A	4126006.46	355912.95	1746.32	102
B	4125832.42	356347.01	1765.92	81
C	4125799.80	355823.95	1756.05	47
D	4124350.55	355196.37	1734.55	31
E	4124262.84	355141.52	1707.54	18
F	4123877.73	355204.04	1752.03	39
G	4125496.03	356906.74	1961.89	24
н	4125459.90	357123.11	1966.10	33

Table 2: GPS coordinates recorded at the beginning of scanlines and the amount of fractures recorded in each.

Fracture Data: Red Hollow Canyon

Scanline A

Scanline A is the scanline with the most fractures. It is also the longest and begins the furthest north. The average strike for all 102 fractures in scanline A is 020. Determined purely numerically, the dips on this scanline average at 88°. Fractures 1 through 100 are on the west side of the Mountain Lion Den Fault that runs through Red Hollow Canyon, and 101 and 102 (Figure 6F) are on the east side. Fractures 101 and 102 have strikes very similar to the overall scanline A strike average (023, 65NW and 031, 65NW respectively) but their dips vary from the majority of the rest of the scanline. For the most part, the strikes range from 000 to 040, with a few outliers on either side, but the dips vary from 60° to 90° with an outlier at 48°.

Figure 6 A-F: Stereonets of scanline A and its divisions. (A) All typical fractures in the scanline; (B) furthest west fractures; (C) second fracture grouping; (D) middle grouping; (E) last fracture grouping on west side of MLD Fault; (F) fractures 101 and 102, east of MLD Fault.

Scanline B

Scanline B is the second scanline recorded in the field, started because of a noticeable change in fracture orientation after we crossed the Mountain Lion Den Fault. The average strike for all 66 typical fractures and an unnumbered fracture in scanline B is 054 and the average strike of the 14 diamond fractures is 027, with numerical dip averages of 88° and 81° respectively. As seen in Figure 7A, the fractures in scanline B differ in strike from the fractures in scanline A. The typical fracture strikes along scanline B range from 035 to 085, and the diamond fractures range from 010 to 050, with an outlier at 336. The dips of the typical fractures range from 68° to 90°, with 91% of the dips being greater than or equal to 75°. Dips for the diamond fractures are between 65° and 89°, with an outlier at 50°.

Figure 7 A-D: Stereonets of scanline B and its divisions. (A) All typical fractures in scanline B; (B) diamond fractures; (C) the western grouping; and (D) the eastern grouping.

Scanline C

Scanline C is on the southern side of the canyon and started the furthest west. Of the scanlines in the topographically lower portion of Red Hollow Canyon, this scanline is the shortest and has the least fractures. The average strike for the 30 typical fractures in scanline C is 030 with a numerical dip average of 84° and the average strike of the 17 diamond fractures is 025 with a numerical dip of 75°. The strikes of the typical fractures range from 021 to 045 with outliers at 065 and 359. The typical dips vary from 49° to 88°. Diamond fractures strikes range from 021 to 060 with outliers at 306, 325, 351, 355, and 085. The diamond fractures dip between 51° and 90°, with an outlier at 38°.

Figure 8 A-E: Stereonets of scanline C and its divisions. (A) All typical fractures in scanline C; (B) diamond fractures; (C) the western grouping; (D) the middle grouping; (E) the eastern grouping.

Scanline G

Scanline G is in the topographically higher, eastern portion of Red Hollow Canyon. The scanline was started just east of the cliff at a heavily fractured zone. The average strike for all 24 fractures on the scanline is 032 with a numerical dip of 79°. The strikes along scanline G range from 022 to 066, with two outliers with strikes of 290 and 325. The dips of fractures range from 65° to 89°, with an outlier with a dip of 54°. A little more than 80% of the dips in the scanline are greater than 75°.

Figure 9 A-C: Stereonets of scanline G and its divisions. (A) All fractures in scanline G; (B) the western grouping; (D) the eastern grouping.

Scanline H

Scanline H is the second recorded scanline in the eastern portion of Red Hollow Canyon, just east of scanline G. Scanline H is the furthest east of all the scanlines and likely the furthest away from a major fault. The average strike of the 31 typical fractures is 037, with a numerical dip average of 85°. The typical strikes along scanline H range from 018 to 054, the diamond fractures have orientations of 038, 67SE and 305, 60SW. Dips of the typical fractures range from 60° to 90°. About 90% of the dips in the scanline are greater than 75°.

Figure 10 A-E: Stereonets of scanline H and its divisions. (A) All typical fractures in scanline H; (B) both diamond fractures; (C) the western grouping; (D) the middle grouping; (E) the eastern grouping.

Fracture Data: Elkheart Cliffs

Scanline D

Scanline D was the first scanline recorded in Elkheart Cliffs and is just east of the Elkheart Cliffs Fault. The fracture attitudes were taken moving east to west. The average strike for the 31 fractures is 021 with a numerical dip average of 74°. Scanline D fracture strikes vary from 007 to 032 with an outlier at 047. About 25% of the strikes are between 000 and 015. The dip varies from 61° to 87° and roughly half of the dips are 75° or greater.

Figure 11 A-C: Stereonets of scanline D and its divisions. Data were taken east to west. (A) All fractures in scanline D; (B) the eastern grouping; (C) the western grouping.

Scanline E

Scanline E was the second scanline in Elkheart Cliffs to be recorded and likely runs parallel to the Elkheart Cliffs Fault. The 14 typical fractures have an average strike of 019 with a numerical dip average of 82°. Strikes of the typical fractures range from 008 to 026, with most of them between 020 and 026. The typical fracture dips vary from 65° to 90°, the 65° one being an outlier by 7°. An estimated 80% of the dips are greater than 75°. The 4 diamond fractures average a 348 strike; however, three of them strike within two degrees of each other , with an outlier at 001.

Figure 12 A and B: Stereonets of scanline E and its divisions. (A) All typical fractures in the scanline and (B) all diamond fractures.

Scanline F

Scanline F was the furthest south that data were collected, again moving from east to west. This scanline is east of the Elkheart Cliffs Fault and terminates against it. The average strike of the 39 fractures is 010 with a numerical dip average of 82°. The fractures vary from 353 to 029, with outliers at 042, 336, and 338. Dips range from 69° to 90°, and 87% of the dips are 75° or greater.

Figure 13 A-C: Stereonets of scanline F and its divisions. Data were taken east to west. (A) All fractures in the scanline; (B) the eastern grouping; (C) the western grouping.

Schmidt Hammer Data

Schmidt Hammer rebound value data in the form of rock compressive strengths were collected from the sites seen in Figure 14. In Red Hollow Canyon, both a lower, oxidized portion and an upper, bleached portion of the Navajo Sandstone were visible and mostly accessible. Two samples were collected from the oxidized zone and the rest were taken from the bleached zone, all from within Red Hollow Canyon. No data were obtained at the core locations or the heavily bleached part of the Navajo Sandstone. All Schmidt data collected could have been altered due to human error such as picking uneven surfaces for each location, subperpendicular angles of use, and different students collecting data at different locations.

Figure 14: Satellite imagery with sample localities in Red Hollow Canyon tested with the Schmidt Hammer labeled with green stars. Numbers are the maximum rebound values and the red lines represent the Mountain Lion Den and Kimbler Faults ("Google Earth Pro v. 7.3.2, imagery 7/22/2015, 2019 Google").

Schmidt Hammer Data						
Unit	Sample	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation		
Lower Oxidized	$J_{NO} - 1_L$	61	55.7	3.2		
Lower Bleached	J_{NB} -2 $_{\text{I}}$	39.5	37.2	2.5		
Lower Bleached	J_{NR} - 31	46.5	40.5	4.7		
Upper Oxidized	$JNO-4U$	51.5	47.3	2.1		
Upper Bleached	$J_{NB} - 5U$	49.5	34.8	8.2		
Middle Bleached	Јмв-бм	48	40.6	9.5		
Middle Bleached	J_{NB} - 9_M	36	31.8	3.8		

Table 3: Schmidt Hammer data (maximums, means, and standard deviations of rebound values) at sample locations in the Navajo Sandstone.

Table 4: Schmidt Hammer data and estimated sample distance to closest deformed area.

Petrographic Data

All thin sections contain 90% or more quartz, but they vary in both compositional and textural maturity. The grains mostly touch by planar or point contacts. Iron oxides are the common cement when applicable. Every sample shows evidence of stress in the form of microfractures. Grain size is medium to very fine sand and sorting varies widely between thin sections. No gravel or silt sized grains were observed. Thin sections in both PPL and XPL are shown in Appendix D along with the observation charts. No distinguishable pattern in microfractures was observed.

Discussion

Fault-related Fractures

Several trends are apparent in the scanline fracture data shown in Table 5. Numerically averaged dips for all fractures except those on $H\diamond$ are within 14 \circ of each other. Strike averages for scanlines A, B \diamond , C, C \diamond , D, E, and G only differ by 18°, ranging from 019 to 037. The Mountain Lion Den Fault strikes at 030, the Kimbler Fault at 025, and the Elkheart Cliffs Fault at 020 (Schiefelbein, 2002; Doelling, 2008), which are all very close to the above listed fracture strike averages. Fractures that form at tips of faults tend to be parallel or subparallel to the fault strike and form first, creating a weak zone for the fault to propagate through (McGrath and Davison, 1995; Kattenhorn et al., 2000). Strike averages from near the Mountain Lion Den Fault tend to be close to the fault strike and the same holds true for the Elkheart Cliffs region, supporting the hypothesis that the faults and fractures are related. The similarity between these faults and fractures implies a close chronological relationship, that the fractures around the Mountain Lion Den, Kimbler, and Elkheart Cliffs Faults formed shortly before the faults did, creating paths of least resistance in which the faults could form.

Table 5: Average strikes and numerical dip averages for typical and diamond fracture divisions.

Isolated Fractures

Not all the fracture data trend NNE; scanline divisions $E\diamond$ and $H\diamond$ have strike averages that trend NNW. Rogers et al. (2004) analyzed fractures in Zion National Park and found three main sets that trend NNE, NNW, and NW in chronological order from oldest to youngest. Since the park is geographically close to Red Hollow Canyon, there may be connections between the structures seen in both locations. My datasets show supporting strike orientations for the older two of Rogers et al.'s (2004) sets, however, mostly NNE trending fractures were seen in Red Hollow Canyon rather than their dominantly NNW fractures. Since Rogers et al. (2004) were able to find timing relations between their observed fracture sets, they concluded that the regional stress regime rotated from NNE to NW over time.

Figure 15: Stereonet showing all typical and diamond fracture division averages from all scanlines in green and the Mountain Lion Den Fault strike in red.

Figure 16 A-H◊: Stereonets of all typical and diamond fracture divisions with their averages in green.

Regional Stress Regime

The average of the fault strikes and the majority of the fracture strike averages is closest to the strike of the Kimbler Fault, so its strike of 025 will be used as a generalized strike for the region. For idealized Andersonian normal faults, σ1 is perpendicular to the surface of the earth and σ3 is in the direction of extension, seen in Figure 17. This means σ3 is ideally perpendicular to the fault strike (Peacock, 2002). As Kattenhorn et al. (2000) found, fractures of similar age to a nearby normal fault will be parallel to sub-parallel to the fault strike and perpendicular to σ1. So, if a fault strikes at 025, then the trend of σ3 would be at 295. Thus, a regional σ3 trending WNW was present when the faults and related fractures formed. Rogers et al. (2004) also found a WNW trending σ3 for a fracture set, that then over time changed to WSW and then to a SW trending σ3, indicating a rotation of the regional stress regime. Since we also see a difference in fracture strikes from NNE to NNW, this supports the σ3 regional rotation hypothesis from Rogers et al.'s (2004) study.

Figure 17: Block diagram showing the maximum (σ1) and minimum (σ3) stress orientations associated with normal faulting and fracturing (Figure 3a from Peacock, 2002).

Fault Propagation

The structural data presented here indicates that the factures in Red Hollow Canyon are close in age to the Mountain Lion Den Fault and associated nearby faults within the Sevier Fault Zone. For the Mountain Lion Den fault, the exact plane where the actual displacement occurred is difficult to define within the canyon due to erosion, landslides, and vegetation, seen in Figure 18. However, displacement of the above Temple Cap Formation is clearly visible on the hanging wall above the eroded area on the north side of the canyon, also seen in Figure 18. Looking south across the canyon, along the approximate fault strike, no offset can be seen. This and the oblique orientation of the fractures to the main fault plane indicate that the fault likely traveled north. Due to the absence of displacement of the Temple Cap Formation on the south side of the canyon, my results suggest that the Mountain Lion Den segment began in Red Hollow Canyon and propagated north.

Northward propagation of the Mountain Lion Den Fault is likely because the Elkheart Cliffs Fault ends just northwest of the canyon, where it has made a relay ramp connecting it to the Highway 89 Fault. The displacement of the Elkheart Cliffs Fault stopped and additional accommodation of offset was necessary, likely initiating the formation of the Mountain Lion Den Fault. However, because the Highway 89 Fault also starts around where the Elkheart Cliffs Fault stops, more research is needed to determine why the displacement was split between the Mountain Lion Den and Highway 89 segments.

Figure 18: Looking north at the approximate Mountain Lion Den Fault strike. Temple Cap Formation sunlit in the background. Left side of the photo is the hanging wall and the right is the footwall. Debris field marking estimated fault strike indicated by the oval (Modified photo BS16_6H. Photo credit: Ben Surpless).

Schmidt Hammer

Maximum rebound values collected in the oxidized zone of the Navajo, at locations of $J_{NO} - 1_L$ and $J_{NO} - 4_U$, are the highest. Analysis of rebound values and distances from the sample locations to the closest fault or heavily fractured zone shows no overall correlation, as seen in Table 4. However, the samples from the heavily bleached zone, J_N-10 and J_N-11 , located approximately on a fault, were too weak to even get a Schmidt Hammer reading.

Conclusion

In conclusion, I have determined that the Mountain Lion Den Fault originated in Red Hollow Canyon and propagated northward. The chronology of the faults and most fractures in the study area was found to be closely linked; the subparallel fractures likely formed just before the propagation of the fault, allowing for easy propagation.

From this data, we can conclude that:

- Most fractures in Red Hollow Canyon and Elkheart Cliffs are related to the Mountain Lion Den, Kimbler, and Elkheart Cliffs Faults.
- The fault-related fractures are close in age to the fault(s) with which they are associated.
- Data from this study supports Rogers et al.'s (2004) stress regime rotation theory.
- The Mountain Lion Den Fault began in Red Hollow Canyon and propagated north.
- Rebound values taken from the oxidized zone of the Navajo Sandstone are higher than those from the bleached zone.

Studies of additional complex normal faulting regions would help confirm or deny this study. To continue this research, more data could be collected along the Mountain Lion Den Fault, following it north. Also, collecting more fracture data along the Elkheart Cliffs Fault, Kimbler Fault, and the heavily fractured zone east of this study's location would provide valuable insight into how stress was accommodated in this complexly faulted region.

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Appendix A: Scanline Fracture Data

Table 6: Notes from the field on scanline A.

Table 7: Notes from the field on scanline B.

Table 8: Notes from the field on scanline C.

Table 9: Notes from the field on scanline D.

Table 10: Notes from the field on scanline E.

Table 11: Notes from the field on scanline F.

21	293	65	40.88	0.10	dip steepens up-dip
22	293	65	40.93	0.05	dip steepens up-dip
23	297	76	44.11	3.18	mm scale right steps
24	294	77	45.80	1.69	
25	N/A	N/A	51.59	5.79	begin complexly fractured area

Table 12: Notes from the field on scanline G.

Appendix B: Simplified Scanline Fracture Data

Table 14: Fracture numbers, strikes, and strikes converted to northern hemisphere azimuthal notation.

Appendix C: Schmidt Hammer Data

Table 15: All Schmidt Hammer rebound value data collected at sample locations in the Navajo Sandstone.

Appendix D: Petrographic Data

Table 16: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-01, made from BS18-J_{NO}-**1L.**

Figure 19: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-01. Magnification 4x, scale bar 10 mm.

Table 17: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-02, made from BS18-JNB-2L.

Figure 20: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-02. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 18: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-03, made from BS18-JNB-3L.

Figure 21: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-03. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 19: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-04, made from BS18-J_{NO}-**4U.**

Figure 22: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-04. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 20: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-05, made from BS18-J_{NB}-**5U.**

Figure 23: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-05. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 21: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-06, made from BS18-JNB-6M.

Figure 24: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-06. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 22: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-09, made from BS18-J_{NB}-**9M.**

Figure 25: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-09. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 23: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-10, made from BS18-JN-10.

Figure 26: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-10. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 24: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-11, made from BS18-JN-11.

Figure 27: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-11. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Figure 28: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-C1. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 26: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-C2, made from BS18-J_N-C₂.

Figure 29: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-C2. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.

Table 27: Data collected from thin section sample BS18-C3, made from BS18-JN-C3.

Figure 30: Photomicrograph of thin section BS18-C3. Magnification 4x, scale bar 1.0 mm.