STATE OF OREGON
DEPARTMENT OF GEOLOGY AND MINERAL INDUSTRIES
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Text to Accompany the Geologic Map of the Adams 7.5′ Quadrangle, Umatilla County, Oregon

2026

GMS-134

Geologic Map of the Adams 7.5′ Quadrangle, Umatilla County, Oregon

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PLATE 2

INTRODUCTION

The Adams 7.5′ quadrangle in Umatilla County of northeast Oregon includes an area of 134 square kilometers (km²) at the eastern edge of the Columbia Plateau, a broad depression forming the northwestern flank of the Blue Mountains (Figure 1). The oldest rocks in the map area are part of the ~17- to 6-million-year-old Columbia River Basalt Group (CRBG), a succession of tholeiitic basalt and basaltic andesite lava flows cropping out over more than 210,000 km² in parts of Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Nevada (Reidel and others, 2013a; Figures 1, 2; Plate 1). The CRBG is largely overlain by Pleistocene to Holocene loess across the map area and Pleistocene and Holocene alluvial units on valley floors (Plate 1). Three major fault zones converge in this part of the Columbia Plateau, including the WNW-striking Wallula Fault Zone, WNW-striking Hite Fault Zone, NNW-striking Milton-Freewater Fault Zone, and the NNE-striking Hite Fault Zone (Hooper and Conrey, 1989; Kuehn, 1995; Hutter, 1997; Reidel and others, 2013b; Reidel and others, 2021; McClaughry and Azzopardi, 2023; Madin and others, 2023; Figure 1, 3). The Wallula Fault Zone is a set of locally active, WNW-striking right-lateral strike-slip faults and N-S-striking reverse faults that part of the Columbia Plateau, including the WNW-striking Wallula Fault Zone, NNW-striking Milton-Freewater Fault Zone, Olympic-Wallowa Lineament (Oberrend and others, 2019; Reidel and others, 2021; Reidel, 2022), and is an integral part of the Olympic-Wallowa Lineament, an ~500-km-long collection of WNW-trending seismically active structural and physiographic features delineated between the Olympic Peninsula and Wallowa Mountains in the Blue Mountains of northeast Oregon (Raisz, 1945; Reidel and others, 2021). West and northwest of the Wallula Fault Zone in eastern Washington, strain is accommodated along approximately east-west-trending folds in the Yakima Fold Belt (Stanich and others, 2022; Figure 1). East of Wallula Gap (Washington), the Wallula Fault Zone transfers strain to the Hite Fault Zone across the intervening Milton-Freewater Fault Zone (Blakely and others, 2014; McClaughry and Azzopardi, 2023; Madin and others, 2023). This transition area marks the northern end of the Milton-Freewater Fault Zone and the 1936 Hite (Blakely and others, 2014; Brocher and Sherrod, 2018). The Milton-Freewater Fault Zone is a complex zone of NW-striking reverse right-slip (~N23°W) faults (or structures) with a locally curvilinear, vertical to subvertical, normal and/or right-lateral oblique-slip faults linking the Wallula Fault Zone on the north with the Hite Fault Zone on the southeast. Geologic mapping and review of high-resolution aeromagnetic data indicate this zone occupies an ~8- to 10-km-wide area between Wallula Gap on the west and Milton-Freewater on the east. The fault position and orientation in the map area are characterized by Riedel shears at acute angles to the NNW-striking, right-lateral strike-slip faults bracketing the Wallula Fault Zone. Normal- to right-lateral oblique-slip deformation is distributed across this structural zone. Across the ~N30°W-trending Watts Canyon anticline, CRBG lava flows exhibit opposing structural vergence, stepping down to the west on the western limb and down to the east on the eastern limb of the fold axis (Azzopardi and others, 2023; Madin and others, 2023; Figure 3a). The Hite Fault Zone consists of a ~N10°W-trending, 25-km-wide set of NNE-striking faults (average strike is N20°E), dominantly down-on-the-west, left-lateral oblique-slip faults, mapped for ~140 km between Walla Walla (WA) and Pilot Rock (OR) (Reidel and others, 1976; Kendall, 1981; Personius and others, 1995; Figure 3a). This zone of faulting is divided into four sections by Personius and others (1995) from northwest to southeast, including: 1) the Hite section; 2) the Kooskooskie section; 3) the Thorn Hollow section (McClaughry and Azzopardi, 2023); and 4) the Agency section. Fault strands in the Hite fault zone are spatially (wide, and west) and subparallel to the northwest-trending Klamath–Blue Mountain gravity-anomaly lineament, a major geophysical crustal feature recognized along the northwest slopes of the Blue Mountains (Riddihough and others, 1986; Wetzel and others, 2018; Figure 1, 3a,b).

Mapped faults in the Adams 7.5′ quadrangle all cut the middle Miocene (~14 Ma) Umatilla Member (**Tmu**) of the CRBG (Figures 2, 3a; Plate 1, cross sections). Pleistocene or possibly younger fault activity is indicated along the parallel NNW-striking Sand Hollow, Gerking Flat, and Wildhorse Creek faults, and the WNW-striking Gerking Creek quarry fault based on structural juxtaposition of loess (**Qdl**) and basalt (**Tmu**), topographic lineaments cutting across loess hills, and deflected stream channels. Linear geomorphic features delineating multiple strands of the Weston fault across **Qpc** mantled uplands in 1-m lidar DEMs also exhibit evidence of probable Quaternary displacement.

Milton Freewater Fault Zone

The Adams 7.5′ quadrangle includes the western part of the Milton-Freewater Fault Zone (Figure 3a) along the west limb of the Waterman anticline and includes the faults described in the section below.

Sand Hollow Fault–The Sand Hollow Fault is an entirely concealed N20°W-N30°W-striking fault paralleled by Sand Hollow in the northwest part of the map area (Plate 1, cross section A–A′). Evidence for a concealed fault includes mapped apparent normal down-on-the-southwest offset of the middle Miocene Umatilla Member (**Tmu**) and Pleistocene to Holocene loess (**Qdc**) and parallel linear NNW-trending topographic lows in the northern part of the map area paired with corresponding NNW-trending aeromagnetic lineaments (Blakely and others, 2020a,b; Figure 3b, Plate 1). The concealed fault is mapped for ~3.5 km between the Adams–Athena School and the **Tmu** outcrop on Piper Road is at an elevation of 546 m. Directly east of and adjacent to the fault on Piper Road, the ReMAD@8 2D velocity profile indicates the top of **Tmu** is at an elevation of ~538 m in the subsurface (Figure 4a).

Tmu does not crop out west of the fault, where the top of basalt is at a comparatively lower elevation. Directly west of the fault, the ReMAD@8 2D velocity profile indicates ~18 m of **Qdc** overlies **Tmu** from a land surface elevation of 542 m down to a subsurface elevation of ~524 m (Figure 4a). An additional ~16 m of loess caps the ridge above this location, forming a cumulative **Qdc** thickness here of ~34 m. A similar thickness of **Qls** is recognized ~1 km west of the intersection of Piper and Sand Hollow Roads. At this location, ~10 m of clay (**Qls**) overlays basalt (**Tmu**), as revealed by water well UMAT 3039, drilled in the base of a drainage with a well-head elevation of 555 m. An additional ~25 m of **Qls** forms the ridge above the well head, along Piper Road up to an elevation of 580 m. The vertical structure section of middle Miocene **Tmu** and Pleistocene to Holocene **Qdc** indicates a Pleistocene or Holocene age for the latest fault offset on the Sand Hollow Fault. The ReMAD@8 2D velocity profile also indicates a down-to-the-west vertical normal offset of the upper surface of **Tmu** across the fault (Figure 4a, Plate 1, cross section A–A′).

The Sand Hollow Fault, south of Piper Road, is also associated with steeply east-dipping **Qlo** along the western valley margin, with intercalated ~7700 cal. yr B.P. Mazama tephra (Plate 1). Steep slopes of the western valley margin appear to be systematically crosscut by several inferred N45°E-striking subsidiary faults offsetting the western **Qls**-mantled ridgeline in a left-lateral sense from north to south (Plate 1). If the steep slopes and left-lateral displaced ridge-crests are fault-related, then the latest offset along this segment of the Sand Hollow postdates deposition of the Mazama tephra and is of Holocene age.

Gerking Flat Fault–The Gerking Flat Fault is an entirely concealed N20°W-striking normal fault paralleled by Gerking Creek (Plate 1, cross section A–A′). Evidence for a concealed fault includes mapped apparent down-on-the-southwest offset of the middle Miocene Umatilla Member (**Tmu**) and Pleistocene to Holocene loess (**Qdc**) and parallel linear NNW-trending topographic lows in the northern part of the map area paired with corresponding NNW-trending aeromagnetic lineaments (Blakely and others, 2020a,b; Figure 3, Plate 1). More details about the concealed fault emerge from an EW-trending ReMiDA@8 2D velocity profile along and parallel to Piper Road where it crosses Gerking Creek (Figure 4b). At this location, the profile imaged a distinct vertical discontinuity, interpreted as a normal fault with ~5 m of down-to-the-west vertical offset of the bedrock surface. Bedrock here is overlain by 15–20 m of **Qls** and **Qa**. Two crops out below several meters of **Qlo** in one location east of the Gerking Creek Fault along Gerking Flat Road (see map no. G40). It does not crop out west of the fault, where overlying loess is ~30 m thick based on the ReMiDA@8 2D velocity profile on Piper Road. The structural juxtaposition of **Tmu** and **Qlo** indicates a Late Pleistocene age for the latest fault offset on the Gerking Flat Fault.

METHODS

Fieldwork for this study included collecting data along roads and conducting traverses across private lands to map lithologic contacts and faults. Geologic mapping data in the Adams 7.5′ quadrangle were collected digitally using a GPS-enabled tablet computer and ESRI's ArcGIS Field Maps software application. Prior DOGAMI geodatabases outlined in Duda and others (2018, 2019). We used 1-meter (m) lidar digital elevation models (DEMs; 0 pts/m²), USGS 10-m DEMs, USGS digital raster graphics of traditional topographic maps, and digital ESRI ArcGIS™ imagery as base maps. Additionally, we recorded textural observations according to the criteria below and collected samples from different outcrops for later laboratory analysis. Fieldwork was conducted at a 1:12,000 scale. The geographic coordinate system and datum for all geospatial data in the geodatabase are reported on Plate 1 at a scale of 1:24,000. Plate 1 includes a detailed geologic map showing both bedrock and surficial units, including concealed bedrock contacts and faults. The geologic map also includes a cross section showing the distribution of contrasting bedrock lithologies and critical structural relationships. This plate (Plate 2) includes figures highlighting statewide, regional, and local structure and geologic features, tables listing major oxide geochemical analysis, and geologic unit descriptions: map

Because many CRBG lava flows are so fine-grained and glassy, mineralogical criteria alone are insufficient to characterize these texturally similar but chemically different lava flows. As a result, whole-rock X-ray fluorescence (XRF) geochemical analyses were used to distinguish and correlate lava flows within CRBG lava flows. Whole-rock geochemical samples were prepared and analyzed by XRF at the Washington State University GeoAnalytical Lab in Pullman, Washington according to lithium metaborate fusion (Johnson and others, 1999). Major element determinations are normalized to a 100 percent total on a volatile-free basis and recalculated with total iron expressed as FeOTotal (Table 1).

Chemical compositions of glass shards from tephra samples were obtained using a JEOL JEOL JSM-6610LV scanning electron microprobe at the Washington State University GeoAnalytical Lab (Table 2). Analytical results from our glass shard populations were statistically compared to a searchable reference database of western U.S. tephra compositions and ages.

To assess stream drainage morphology of secondary tributaries in the map area, we reviewed and analyzed 1-m lidar DEMs. We generated length profiles of streams from line segments with points taken every 33 m. We also generated cross-sectional profiles every 33 m from the headwaters to the intersection with the main trunk stream drainages, with generation of points along each of these cross-sections every 33 m. These profiles were 305 m in length, centered on the stream channel. Finally, we evaluated cross-sectional, longitudinal profiles for all line and point features by extracting their respective elevations.

To delineate subsurface geology and to determine concealed faults in the map area, we conducted surface-outcrop mapping, analyzed water-well logs, and interpreted high-resolution aeromagnetic data (Blakely and others, 2020a,b). Subsurface geology shown in cross section A–A′ (Plate 1) incorporates lithologic interpretations from water-well drill records located by the Oregon Water Resources Department (OWRD) GRID system (https://apps.wrd.state.or.us/apps/gw/well_log/Default.aspx; Figure 1). We assigned lithologic units to water-well logs with interpreted subsurface geologic units. Cross section A–A′ anchors on geochemical analysis of cuttings obtained from water well in the city of Athena (map no. G, UMAT 5771) and the city of Helix (map no. UMAT 5315). Cross section B–B′ anchors on geochemical analysis of cuttings obtained from water wells in the city Athena (e.g., UMAT 5771) and the city of Pilot Rock (UMAT 5315).

To determine depth to bedrock and establish fault locations, we used 24-channel digital ReMiDA@8 seismograph-refraction seismic imaging with a sampling rate of 0.25 milliseconds over 30-second intervals in Sand Hollow, Gerking Flat, and along Waterman Road. These surveys recorded active and ambient (passive) seismic sources. The seismic recording array consisted of 24 4.5 Hz geophones at 3.3 m spacing for a total spread length of 70 m. Active noise was generated using hammer hits during data acquisition, while ambient noise to the seismograph included nearby traffic and windstorms. The recorded data were processed using Tenkara's Vibrof ReMiD seismic software.

We compiled water-well logging with published and unpublished data by converting it into a digital format using Esri ArcGIS™ ArcMAP™ GIS software. We used the on-screen map through heads-up digitizing using a georeferenced 1-m lidar mosaic, a 7.5′ 24,000-scale USGS digital raster graphic (DRG) topographic quadrangle, and the Oregon Water Resources Department (WRD) digital orthophoto for Umatilla County. The geologic time scale used in this report is from Cohen and others (2013; updated). Stratigraphic nomenclature for Columbia River Basalt Group (https://pubs.usgs.gov/sir/2006/5227/sir2006-5227_text.pdf) was revised from Gladden and others (2004), Ogg and others (2008), and Gobets and others (2013). Colors given for geologic units on the geologic map are from the Geological Society of America Rock-Color Chart (Munsell, 1991).

We used a stippled overlay on Plate 1 to show areas where sand-sized Mazama tephra is concentrated in the surface and subsurface subsoils. These areas were identified using **Qdl**-mantled ridgetops, sample data, geochemical analyses, and interpretations of 1-m lidar topography and bitmap hillshades.

Numerical ages assigned to dated units are described in this report using standard conventions for providing ages, i.e., in terms of millions of years ago (mega-annum [Ma]) for units > 1 million years old, thousands of years ago (kilo-annum [ka]) for units < 1 million years old, and calendar years before present (B.P.) for units with reported radiocarbon ages.

STRUCTURE

Geologic structure in the Adams 7.5′ quadrangle consists of a thick section of horizontal to shallowly dipping (<1°) conformable lower to middle Miocene CRBG lava flows that are broadly folded with a wavelength of 20–23 kilometers (km). CRBG lava flows in the map area are overlain by 1–35 m of Pleistocene and Holocene loess, a network of intersecting faults crosscuts both the basalt and loess, and, locally, loess in the subsurface (Figure 3, Plate 1, cross section). The axis of the broad W-trending Agency syncline is present in the southern part of the quadrangle, where it is followed by Wildhorse Creek. The NNW-trending Waterman anticline extends from the northeast corner of the map area and continues to the southwest ~5 km beyond the southern edge of the quadrangle.

Three major fault zones regionally converge in this part of the Columbia Plateau, including the WNW-striking Wallula Fault Zone, WNW-striking Milton-Freewater Fault Zone, and the NNE-striking Hite Fault Zone (Hooper and Conrey, 1989; Kuehn, 1995; Hutter, 1997; Reidel and others, 2013b; Reidel and others, 2021; McClaughry and Azzopardi, 2023; Madin and others, 2023; Figure 1, 3). The Wallula Fault Zone is a set of locally active, WNW-striking right-lateral strike-slip faults and N-S-striking reverse faults that part of the Columbia Plateau, including the WNW-striking Wallula Fault Zone, NNW-striking Milton-Freewater Fault Zone, and the NNE-striking Hite Fault Zone (Hooper and Conrey, 1989; Kuehn, 1995; Hutter, 1997; Reidel and others, 2013b; Reidel and others, 2021; McClaughry and Azzopardi, 2023; Madin and others, 2023; Figure 1, 3). The Wallula Fault Zone is a complex zone of NW-striking reverse right-slip (~N23°W) faults (or structures) with a locally curvilinear, vertical to subvertical, normal and/or right-lateral oblique-slip faults linking the Wallula Fault Zone on the north with the Hite Fault Zone on the southeast. Geologic mapping and review of high-resolution aeromagnetic data indicate this zone occupies an ~8- to 10-km-wide area between Wallula Gap on the west and Milton-Freewater on the east. The fault position and orientation in the map area are characterized by Riedel shears at acute angles to the NNW-striking, right-lateral strike-slip faults bracketing the Wallula Fault Zone. Normal- to right-lateral oblique-slip deformation is distributed across this structural zone. Across the ~N30°W-trending Watts Canyon anticline, CRBG lava flows exhibit opposing structural vergence, stepping down to the west on the western limb and down to the east on the eastern limb of the fold axis (Azzopardi and others, 2023; Madin and others, 2023; Figure 3a). The Hite Fault Zone consists of a ~N10°W-trending, 25-km-wide set of NNE-striking faults (average strike is N20°E), dominantly down-on-the-west, left-lateral oblique-slip faults, mapped for ~140 km between Walla Walla (WA) and Pilot Rock (OR) (Reidel and others, 1976; Kendall, 1981; Personius and others, 1995; Figure 3a). This zone of faulting is divided into four sections by Personius and others (1995) from northwest to southeast, including: 1) the Hite section; 2) the Kooskooskie section; 3) the Thorn Hollow section (McClaughry and Azzopardi, 2023); and 4) the Agency section. Fault strands in the Hite fault zone are spatially (wide, and west) and subparallel to the northwest-trending Klamath–Blue Mountain gravity-anomaly lineament, a major geophysical crustal feature recognized along the northwest slopes of the Blue Mountains (Riddihough and others, 1986; Wetzel and others, 2018; Figure 1, 3a,b).

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DISCUSSION

The geology and geomorphology of the Milton-Freewater Fault Zone differ notably from the surrounding region with strong evidence for a causal relationship between neotectonic activity in the area and the observed geomorphology (Figure 5). We interpret the geomorphology of the Milton-Freewater Fault Zone as the intervening area between bedrock and surficial units and analyzing drainage patterns on **Qls**-mantled ridges within the Adams and surrounding Waterman, Athena, and Smeltz 7.5′ quadrangles.

Within the Milton-Freewater Fault Zone, the N20°W-N40°W-trending primary valleys and intervening **Qls**-mantled ridges exhibit two differential patterns in parallel drainages on western flanks and dendritic drainages on eastern flanks. This configuration differs markedly from other nearby drainage patterns, including the plateaus of **Qlo** south of the Gerking Creek Fault, the mountainous terrain of the Blue Mountains ridging hills in the area southwest of Greenwood Creek and the Spring Hollow fault (Helix 7.5′ quadrangle), and the linear ridge morphology of the southwestern Palouse between Helix and the Columbia River (Lewis, 1960).

The down-on-the-west quaternary normal faults hidden beneath the main valleys of the Milton-Freewater Fault Zone align with the N20°W-N40°W-striking linear divides that separate parallel drainage on western flanks and dendritic drainage on eastern slopes (Figure 5, Plate 3). This alignment indicates that two primary controls are responsible for the drainage pattern. The first control is the primary valleys that occupy the ridges. First, regional folding and Quaternary faulting beneath the primary valleys helped establish the overall ridge valley structure and catchment orientations. Second, **Qls** accumulated preferentially on the east-facing, leeward sides of these inherent trending ridges, where prevailing southwesterly winds deposited thicker loess on the downwind sides of the concealed faults (Figure 5, Plate 3). The second control is the dendritic drainages on the eastern flanks of the primary valleys, which are shaped by shallow (~5 m) subsurface bedrock contacts. These contacts are based on drainage-pattern analysis and where thick accumulations of **Qlo** built up on the downthrown sides of the faults hidden beneath the main valleys.

Significant structural unconformities formed within **Qlo** on the eastern ridge flanks during the Late Pleistocene and early Holocene (Figure 6)—. Holocene Mazama tephra accumulated to a mappable thickness where deeply incised, dendritic drainage developed within the Milton-Freewater Fault Zone (Figure 5). This thick and widespread accumulation of Mazama tephra contrasts markedly with the **Qls**-mantled, minimally-dissected rolling hills southwest of Greenwood Creek and the Spring Hollow Fault in the Helix 7.5′ quadrangle where similar Mazama tephra deposits are uncommon.

The Greenwood Creek lineament is similar to that observed in the study area has been mapped along the Wallula Fault Zone in the adjacent Waterman 7.5′ quadrangle to the north (Guerrero and others, in press). This segment of the Wallula Fault Zone is also characterized by NNW-striking, down-to-the-west, left-lateral oblique-slip faults and the largest historic earthquake recorded in the region (Blakely and others, 2014; Brocher and Sherrod, 2018).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Geologic mapping in the Adams 7.5′ quadrangle was supported through the STATEMAP component of the U.S. Geological Survey National Cooperative Geologic Mapping Program under cooperative agreement G22AC00304. Additional funding was provided by the State of Oregon through DOGAMI. Dr. Ashley Streiner and Dr. Scott Boroughs at the GeoAnalytical lab at Washington State University, respectively prepared and analyzed geochemical samples by XRF and trader unsuitably by Electron Microprobe. Jon Franczyk (DOGAMI) constructed the water well feature class. Cartography for the map plates was done by Jon Franczyk (DOGAMI). Kelliam Taylor-Jones (DOGAMI) provided editing. Formatted the final publication, and developed the webpage. Critical and insightful reviews by Mark Ferns (DOGAMI-retired), Jen Woody (OWRD), Ian Yuh (USGS), and Reed Burgette (DOGAMI) greatly enriched the final publication.

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