OREGON GEOLOGY

published by the

Oregon Department of Geology and Mineral Industries

VOLUME 44, NUMBER 11 NOVEMBER 1982

OREGON GEOLOGY

(ISSN 0164-3304)

VOLUME 44, NUMBER 11 NOVEMBER 1982

Published monthly by the State of Oregon Department of Geology and Mineral Industries (Volumes 1 through 40 were entitled *The Ore Bin*).

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Subscription rates: 1 year, $6.00; 3 years, $15.00. Single issues, $.75 at counter, $1.00 mailed.
Available back issues of *The Ore Bin*: $.50 at counter, $1.00 mailed.

Address subscription orders, renewals, and changes of address to *Oregon Geology*, 1005 State Office Building, Portland, OR 97201.

Send news, notices, meeting announcements, articles for publication, and editorial correspondence to the editor, Portland office. The Department encourages author-initiated peer review for technical articles prior to submission. Any review should be noted in the acknowledgments.

Second class postage paid at Portland, Oregon.
Postmaster: Send address changes to *Oregon Geology*, 1005 State Office Building, Portland, OR 97201.

COVER PHOTO

View to the northeast of the caldera of Newberry Volcano. The paper beginning on next page discusses the geothermal potential of this Quaternary volcano. Features visible in this photo include Big Obsidian Flow in the foreground; Paulina Lake on the left; East Lake on the right; Little Crater, central pumice cone, and interlake obsidian flow in the middle; and north wall of the caldera behind. In the background are some of the 400 cinder cones and fissure vents that dot the flanks of Newberry.

OIL AND GAS NEWS

Columbia County

Reichhold Energy Corporation drilled Adams 34-28 to a total depth of 2,572 ft. The well, in sec. 28, T. 7 N., R. 5 W., was abandoned as a dry hole in September.

The company will soon spud Libel 12-14 in the Mist gas field. The proposed 2,900-ft well is to be located in sec. 14, T. 6 N., R. 5 W.. The location is half a mile from the recently completed redrill of Columbia County 4.

Clatsop County

Oregon Natural Gas Development Company's Patton 32-9 in sec. 9, T. 7 N., R. 5 W., is idle pending the decision whether to redrill.

Douglas County

Florida Exploration Company has abandoned the 1-4 well near Drain. It is not known whether the company will drill other locations.

Yamhill County

Nahama and Weagant Energy Company recently drilled Klohs 1 in sec. 6, T. 3 S., R. 2 W. The well was abandoned as a dry hole.

Recent permits

Permit no.	Operator and well name	Location	Status and depth TD = total depth (ft) RD = redrill (ft)
219	Reichhold Energy Corp.; Werner 14-21	SW¼ sec. 21 T. 5 S., R. 2 W. Marion County	Abandoned; dry hole; TD: 3,354.
220	Reichhold Energy Corp.; Crown Zellerbach 31-33	NE¼ sec. 33 T. 6 N., R. 4 W. Columbia County	Permit issued.
221	Reichhold Energy Corp.; Crown Zellerbach 44-23	SE¼ sec. 23 T. 5 N., R. 4 W. Columbia County	Permit issued.
222	Reichhold Energy Corp.; Siegenthaler 42-13	NE¼ sec. 13 T. 6 N., R. 5 W. Columbia County	Permit issued.
223	Reichhold Energy Corp.; Crown Zellerbach 14-36	SW¼ sec. 36 T. 7 N., R. 5 W. Columbia County	Permit issued.
224	Reichhold Energy Corp.; Libel 12-14	NW¼ sec. 14 T. 6 N., R. 5 W. Columbia County	Permit issued. □

CONTENTS

Newberry Volcano, Oregon, a Cascade Range geothermal prospect ... 123
Abstracts ... 132
Brightly colored digital map shows U.S. elevations at a glance ... 133
Diamond Craters Outstanding Natural Area dedicated ... 133
Department releases geological, geothermal, and geophysical data ... 134
GSOC luncheon meetings announced ... 134

Newberry Volcano, Oregon: A Cascade Range geothermal prospect *

by N.S. MacLeod, U.S. Geological Survey, Vancouver, Washington, and E.A. Sammel, U.S. Geological Survey, Menlo Park, California.

INTRODUCTION

Temperatures as high as 265° C in a 932-m-deep drill hole in the caldera of Newberry Volcano (Figure 1) marked the culmination of a series of geologic and geothermal studies in central Oregon undertaken by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) in its Geothermal Research Program. These temperatures, easily the highest recorded in the Pacific Northwest, as well as the large volume and wide areal distribution of young silicic volcanic rocks, suggest that a large heat source underlies the volcano and that it may have a potential for electric power generation.

Many of the electric-power-producing geothermal reservoirs in the world occur in or near young silicic volcanic fields. Magma chambers that feed rhyolitic volcanism are commonly large and located in the upper crust; if the rhyolitic bodies have not cooled substantially, they offer a heat source within the range of modern drilling technology (Smith and Shaw, 1975). Basalt fields fed by narrow dikes extending from great depth are less favorable geothermal targets, although in some places such as Iceland and Hawaii they form important geothermal systems.

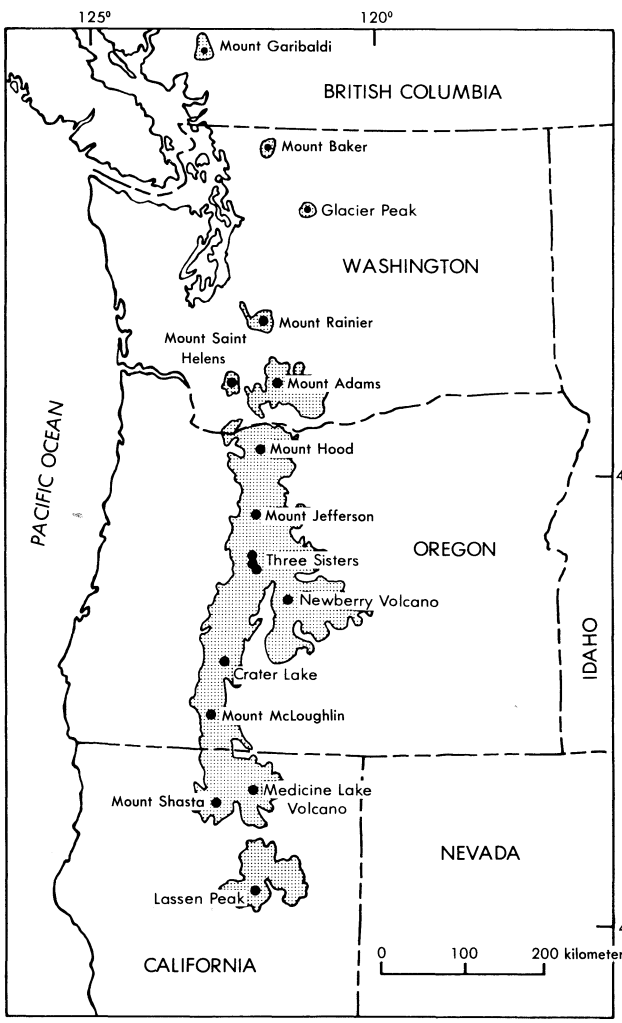

Figure 1. Major volcanic centers and areas of Quaternary volcanic rocks in the Cascade Range.

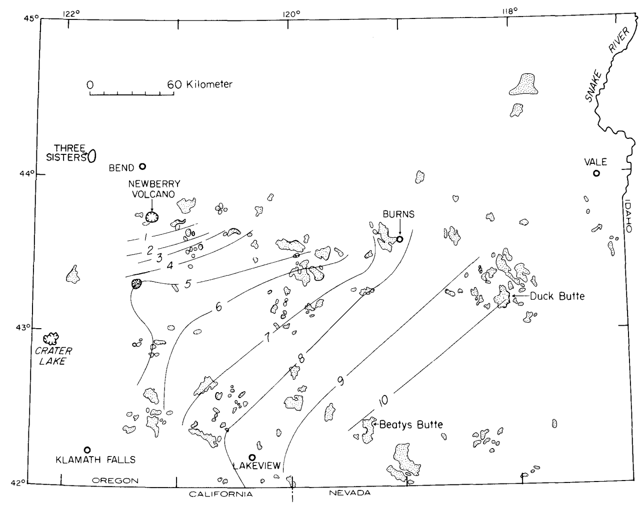

Figure 2. Age progression of silicic domal rocks (patterned) in southeast Oregon. Isochrons in increments of 1 million years. Modified from MacLeod and others (1976).

The USGS geothermal project in Oregon began with studies of young rhyolitic rocks that occur in a broad zone that extends about 320 km eastward from the Cascade Range (Figure 2). Field work by G.W. Walker suggested that the rhyolitic rocks were progressively younger toward the Cascade Range. Extensive potassium-argon (K-Ar) dating of the rhyolites by E.H. McKee confirmed this progression and showed that the rhyolites have a monotonic decrease in age from about 10 million years (m.y.) in southeastern Oregon to less than 1 m.y. near the Cascade Range in the vicinity of Newberry Volcano (Walker, 1974; MacLeod and others, 1976). This age progression suggested that geothermal resources related to young rhyolitic volcanism are most likely to occur at the west end of the rhyolite belt near Newberry. The occurrence of hot springs, fumaroles, and young obsidian flows and pumice deposits in the caldera at Newberry's summit further suggested it as a target for additional geologic and geophysical studies.

Williams (1935, 1957) and Higgins (1973) considered Newberry Volcano to be a basaltic shield with rhyolites mainly restricted to the caldera. Later mapping of the volcano, however, showed that rhyolitic domes and flows and andesitic to

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* Because of similarities between Newberry Volcano in Oregon and the Medicine Lake region in California, the editors of *California Geology* solicited this article from the authors and are publishing it in the November issue of their magazine. We are printing it in *Oregon Geology* because we believe it will provide useful and interesting information to our readers as well. —*Editor*

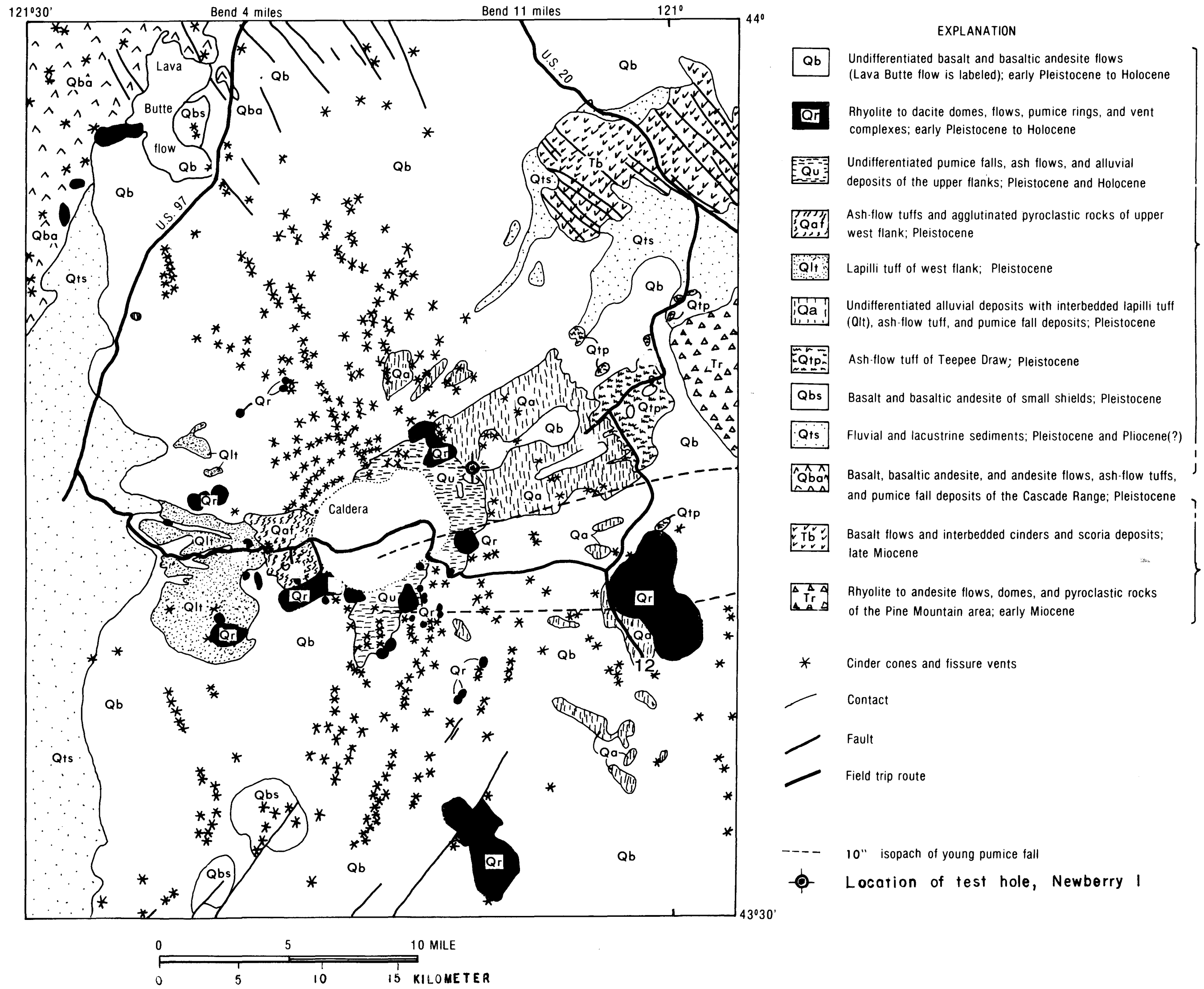

Figure 3. Geologic sketch map of Newberry Volcano. Geology of caldera is shown in Figure 4. Modified from MacLeod and others (1981).

rhyolitic ash-flow tuffs are widespread on the flanks and that the volcano has a long and complex history of volcanism that ranged from basaltic to rhyolitic (MacLeod, 1978). These encouraging indications of geothermal potential resulted in the focusing of geologic, geophysical, and water-resources investigations on the volcano and ultimately led to the drilling of two exploratory holes.

GEOLOGY

Newbery Volcano lies 60 km east of the crest of the Cascade Range in central Oregon (Figure 1) and is among the largest Quaternary volcanoes in the conterminous United States. It covers an area in excess of 1,200 km^2 and rises about 1,100 m above the surrounding terrain. The gently sloping flanks, studded with more than 400 cinder cones, consist of basalt and basaltic-andesite flows, andesitic to rhyolitic ash-flow and air-fall tuffs, dacite to rhyolite domes and flows, and alluvial sediments produced during periods of erosion of the volcano (MacLeod and others, 1981). The 6- to 8-km-wide caldera at Newberry's summit, which contains scenic Paulina and East Lakes, has been the site of numerous Holocene eruptions, the most recent of which occurred about 1,350 years ago.

Among the older rocks on the flanks of the volcano are ash-flow tuffs and associated pumice-fall tuffs, mudflows, and other pyroclastic deposits (Figure 3). They occur predominately on the east and west flanks of the volcano but probably extend completely around it and are buried by basaltic flows on the north and south flanks. Although many of the pyroclastic flows may be shoestring-type deposits that occur at only a few locations, at least four are major sheetlike deposits with considerable volume. The oldest ash-flow tuff is rhyolitic in composition and is at least 20 m thick even at places where the top is eroded and the base not exposed. Its original volume may have been more than 40 km^3. Successively younger major pyroclastic units range from rhyodacite to andesite and basaltic andesite and have estimated volumes of less than 1 km^3 to more than 40 km^3. Gravel deposits peripheral to the volcano commonly are largely composed of clasts derived from the deeply eroded pyroclastic rock sequence.

Basalt and basaltic-andesite flows and associated vents veneer the north and south flanks of the volcano. Individual flows are a few meters to 30 m thick and cover areas of less than 1 km^2 to many tens of square kilometers. The flows can be divided readily into two groups on the basis of their age relative to Mazama ash (carbon-14 age about 6,900 years) derived from Mount Mazama, 120 km to the southwest. The youngest flows, which overlie Mazama ash, have carbon-14 ages that range from 5,800 to 6,380 years. Indicated carbon-14 ages of this magnitude are generally about 800 years younger than actual ages. These youngest flows may have erupted during a much shorter period of time than the age spread indicates, inasmuch as the spread of replicate dates from individual flows is nearly as large as the spread of dates from all flows. Some of the flows that are covered by Mazama ash have surface features that suggest a rather young age, perhaps 7,000 to 10,000 years. Other flows are probably several tens or hundreds of thousands of years old. All flows sampled are normally polarized; thus none are probably older than 700,000 years.

More than 400 cinder cones and fissure vents have been identified on the flanks of Newberry; few other volcanoes contain so many. The cones and fissures are concentrated in three zones. The northwestern zone of vents is collinear with a zone of faults on the lowermost flank that extends to Green Ridge in the Cascade Range; a southwestern zone is collinear with the Walker Rim fault zone that extends south-southwest from the south flank of Newberry; and an eastern zone is a continuation of the High Lava Plains zone of basaltic vents and parallels the Brothers fault zone. Most fissures and aligned cinder cones parallel the belts in which they occur. Some aligned cinder cones and fissure vents near the summit caldera occur in arcuate zones parallel to the caldera rim and probably lie along ring fractures.

Rhyolitic domes, pumice rings, flows, and small protrusions also are common on the flanks. The larger domes are 30 to 180 m high and as much as 1,200 m across; the largest forms Paulina Peak, the highest point on the volcano, and extends 5 km southwestward from the caldera walls. Several of the larger domes have yielded K-Ar ages of 100,000 to 600,000 years. Some small protrusions on the upper southeast flank may be less than 10,000 years old.

Petrochemical and petrographic studies of the flank rhyolites have distinguished at least six groups of rhyolites on the basis of major- and minor-element compositions and proportions as well as compositions of phenocryst phases. Within each group, represented by two or more domes, compositions are virtually identical, although they occur at sites as much as 18 km apart. As it is likely that individual groups are products of extrusion at the same time from the same magma chamber, the chamber(s) at one time may have underlain large areas below the volcano.

The caldera at the summit of the volcano was formerly thought to result from drainage of the underlying magma reservoir by subterranean migration of magma or copious eruptions of basalt from flank fissures (Williams, 1957) or by tectonic volcanic collapse along fault zones that intersected at the summit (Higgins, 1973). Ash-flow tuffs and other tephra units, however, are now known to be common and voluminous on the flanks. Thus, the caldera seems much more likely to be the result of collapse following voluminous tephra eruptions of silicic to intermediate composition from one or more magma chambers below the summit. The several major tephra eruptions may be associated with several episodes of caldera collapse, each one involving areas smaller than that of the present caldera. Evidence for sequential collapse is also found in the configuration of the caldera walls which, rather than forming a single circular wall, consist of several walls, in places one inside the other, which in aggregate form an ellipse with an east-west axis. The oldest voluminous ash-flow tuff has a K-Ar age of 510,000 years, indicating a similar age for the earliest caldera. The youngest voluminous tephra unit has not yielded meaningful K-Ar dates, so the age of the most recent collapse is not known. This tephra deposit, however, is deeply eroded and may be many tens of thousands of years old.

The walls of the caldera are mostly covered by younger deposits (talus, pumice falls, etc.), and the wall rocks are only locally exposed. The caldera walls were described in detail by Williams (1935) and Higgins (1973) and consist mostly of platy rhyolite at the base overlain by basaltic-andesite flows, palagonite tuff, cinders, and agglutinated spatter deposits. In a few places the walls also contain welded tuff, pumice falls, obsidian flows, and domes.

The caldera floor (Figure 4) is formed mainly of rhyolitic rocks (domes, flows, ash flows, pumice falls, and explosion breccias). The few mafic rocks that occur in the caldera are older than Mazama ash, except for those along the East Lake fissure which cuts the north caldera wall and which may extend onto the floor beneath East Lake. The fissure has not been dated, but the summit basaltic-andesite flows on the same fissure 2 km to the north were determined to be about 6,090 years old by carbon-14 dating and almost certainly are the same age as the East Lake fissure. Rhyolitic rocks of pre-Mazama age include two domes along the south shore of Paulina Lake, a large obsidian flow in the northeast corner of the caldera, an obsidian dome and an associated buried obsidian flow that extends from the caldera wall northward to East Lake, and a poorly exposed dome(?) south of the central pumice cone. In addition, rhyolitic pumice falls and lacustrine, fluviatile, and landslide deposits locally underlie Mazama ash.

Rhyolitic deposits of post-Mazama age blanket the eastern two-thirds of the caldera (Figure 4). These deposits include obsidian flows, pumice rings and cones, ash flows, pumice falls, and other pumiceous tephra deposits. Isotopic (carbon-14) and hydration-rind dates indicate that they range in age from about 6,700 years to 1,350 years (Friedman, 1977).

The youngest period of volcanism within the caldera was associated with the vent for the Big Obsidian Flow (Figure 5). Initial eruptions produced a widespread pumice fall that covers the southern part of the caldera and eastern flank of the volcano (Sherrod and MacLeod, 1979). Isotopic ages of 1,720±60 (Higgins, 1969) and 1,550±120 years (S.W. Robinson, written communication, 1978) were obtained on carbon collected beneath the fall. The axis of the fall trends N. 80° E. away from the vent for the Big Obsidian Flow; at 9 km from the vent the fall is 4 m thick and at 60 km about 25 cm thick. The pumice fall was followed by eruptions that produced an ash flow that extends over a broad area between the Big Obsidian Flow and Paulina Lake. Three carbon-14 ages cluster at about 1,350 years, suggesting that about 200 years may have elapsed between the pumice fall and ash flow. The final event was the eruption of the Big Obsidian Flow which extends from the south caldera wall 2½ km northward toward Paulina Lake. The pumice fall, ash flow, and obsidian flow are indistinguishable in their trace- and major-element composition, and all are essentially aphyric.

The young rhyolites in the caldera and a few young, but possibly pre-Mazama, rhyolite protrusions on the upper southeast flank differ in chemical composition from older caldera rhyolites and from most older domes and flows on the flanks. Particularly obvious are marked differences in some trace elements such as rubidium (Rb) and strontium (Sr), but the silica content of the young rhyolites also is slightly higher (Figure 6). All of these young rhyolites may be derived from the same magma chamber inasmuch as they are chemically closely similar and all are aphyric or nearly so. If so, parts of the chamber must have been at or above the liquidus as recently as 1,350 years ago and thus are probably still hot.

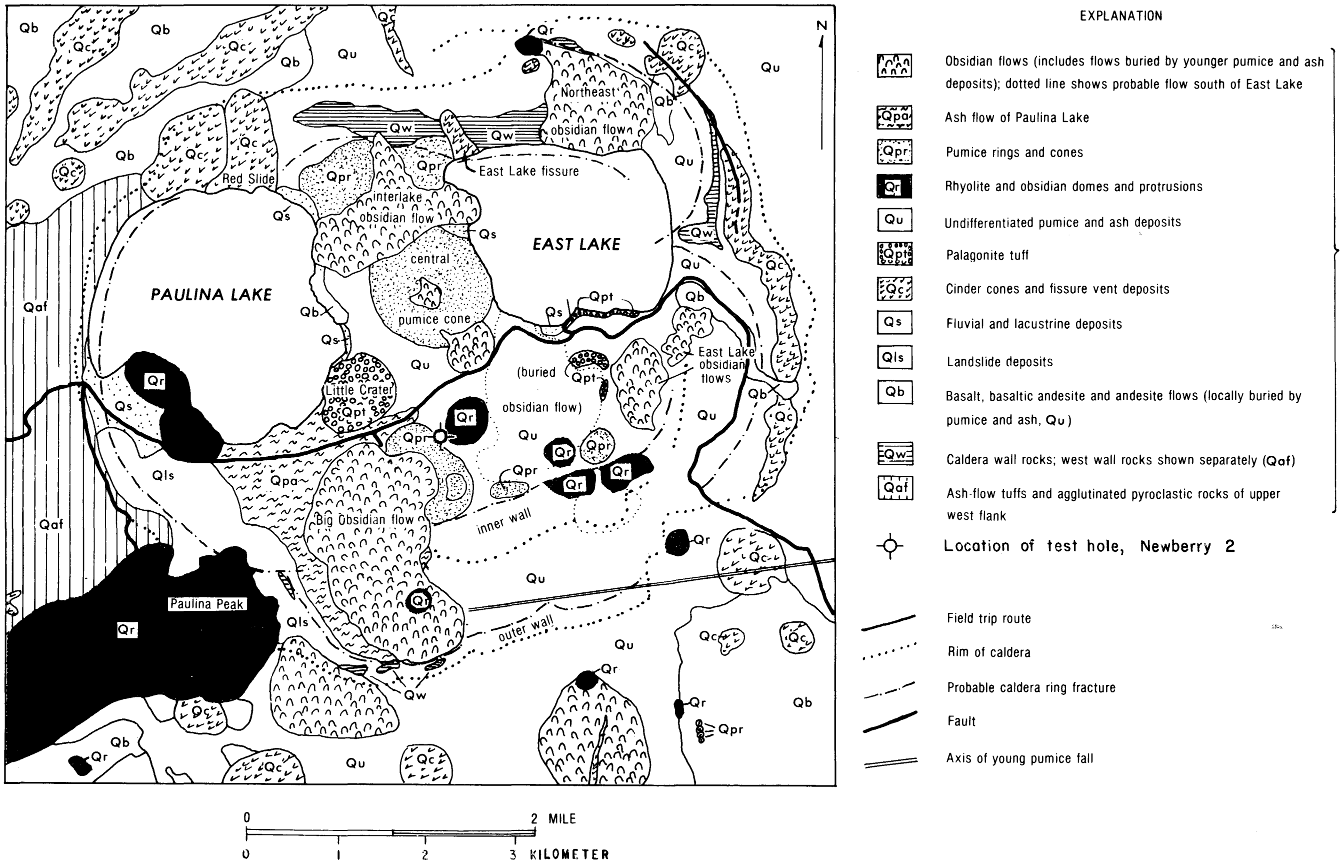

Figure 4. Geologic map of Newberry caldera. Modified from MacLeod and others (1981).

RESULTS OF DRILLING

General

Two exploratory holes were drilled on Newberry Volcano as part of the geothermal and volcanologic studies. Both were drilled by wireline methods so as to provide continuous cores of the rocks that constitute the volcano. The first hole, Newberry 1, was completed in September 1977 on the upper northeast flank of the volcano (Figure 3) to a depth of 386 m. Core recovery was excellent in massive rocks but poor in unconsolidated deposits. The second hole, Newberry 2, was drilled in the central part of the caldera near the locus of vents for rhyolitic rocks that are younger than 6,900 carbon-14 years (Figure 4). The caldera is a scenic recreation area with few roads; consequently, selection of the drill site was dictated partly by environmental and access considerations. In 1978, the first 312 m of the hole was drilled by the mud-rotary method in order to allow for maximum reductions in diameter during later core drilling. During the summers of 1979 and 1981, as funds became available, the hole was deepened by wireline core drilling to a final depth of 932 m in September 1981. In addition, an offset hole was drilled to provide core in parts of the upper section previously drilled by rotary drill. Core recovery ranged from as little as 40 percent in parts of the upper 300 m to more than 90 percent in most of the lower 600 m; only drill cuttings are available for the upper 98 m.

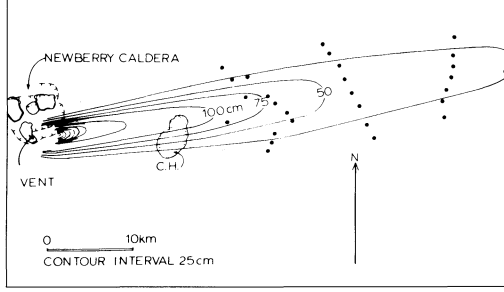

Figure 5. Isopach map of pumice fall from vent at Big Obsidian Flow. China Hat (C.H.) *lies at east base of Newberry Volcano.*

Lithology

Newberry 1 penetrated flows of basaltic to rhyolitic composition with interbedded cinders, breccia, volcaniclastic sand and gravel, pumice-fall deposits, and ash-flow tuff. The total thickness of tephra deposits and volcanic sediments at this site was unexpectedly large, comprising about 55 percent of the section. Flows are generally thin, with a median thickness of about 6 m. Only two flows exceeded 10 m in thickness: a 70-m-thick dacite flow encountered at a depth of 183 m and a 43-m-thick basaltic-andesite flow encountered at 337 m. Analyzed flows include basalt, basaltic andesite, andesite, dacite, and rhyodacite; no one rock type predominates, and the section is not bimodal (basalt-rhyolite) as is generally the case for surface rocks at Newberry.

Small amounts of perched water were found in Newberry 1, notably at 154 and 280 m, but the rocks appeared to be generally unsaturated. Drilling fluids were lost into the formations during most of the drilling.

Newberry 2, in the caldera, penetrated dominantly fragmental rocks to a depth of 500 m and flows and associated breccia below that depth (Figure 7). From 98 to 320 m the rocks are basaltic in composition; from 320 to 746 m they

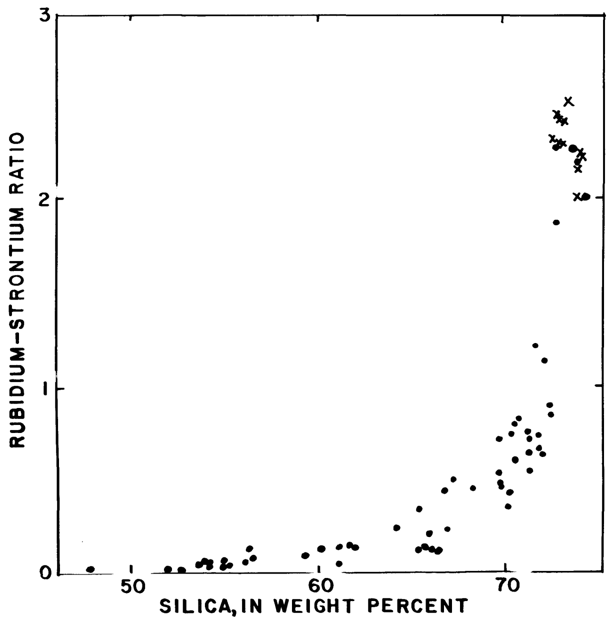

Figure 6. Relation of Rb-Sr ratio to SiO_2 for Newberry rocks. X = *young rhyolites.*

grade downward from rhyolitic to andesitic composition; below 758 m the section consists of basalt or basaltic andesite.

The basaltic tuff, tuff-breccia, and interbedded basaltic sand and gravel that occur between 98 and 290 m are dominantly formed of glassy fragments, suggesting that they may be of subaqueous origin. The underlying sediment in the interval from 301 to 320 m is lacustrine in origin. It consists of thin-bedded to finely laminated claystone to fine sandstone and shows graded bedding, flame structures, and zones of penecontemporaneous deformation. The fine grains that constitute the deposit are mostly hydrated basaltic glass; where cemented locally by carbonate, the glass is fresh. Well-bedded pumiceous ashy sand and gravel of either lacustrine or fluviatile origin occur between 320 and 360 m. They differ from sediments above in that they are coarser grained and dominantly formed of fragments with rhyolitic composition.

Pumice lapilli tuff occurs between 360 and 500 m. It consists of numerous units 3 to 12 m thick, is poorly sorted, and contains interbedded lithic breccia with ashy matrix. Individual units of the tuff range from massive to doubly graded with larger light pumice lapilli at the top and dense lithic fragments at the base. Some lithic breccias appear to grade upward into pumice lapilli tuff, whereas others form discrete units with sharp boundaries. Pumice lapilli show no flattening, but the lapilli tuffs are probably ash-flow tuffs on the basis of their poor sorting and grading. The lithic breccias are probably ash-flow lag breccias and explosion breccias. A rhyolite sill occurs in this section at 460 to 470 m, and a 1½-m-thick unit of perlitic glass (welded tuff?) occurs at 479 m.

Flows form most of the section from 500 m to the bottom of the hole. Most flows are massive or fractured; however, thick units of breccia also occur in the sequence, and most massive flows have brecciated tops and bottoms. The flow sequence appears to be divided into two units separated by a zone of tuffaceous pumiceous sand and silt and ash-flow tuff(?) that occurs between 746 and 758 m. Above these sediments the flows are rhyolitic to dacitic and andesitic in composition, whereas below that depth they are basaltic andesite and basalt.

Alteration in the core is highly variable but generally more intense lower in the hole. Fragmental rocks that initially were glassy are locally altered to clay minerals. Massive rocks commonly contain sulfides (marcasite, pyrrhotite, and pyrite), carbonates (calcite and siderite), and quartz along fractures. Many breccias in the lower part of the hole have a bleached appearance and are altered to clay minerals, quartz, carbonates, epidote, chlorite, and sulfides.

Some preliminary inferences and conclusions can be made, based on lithology of the cores, even though they have not yet been studied in detail. First, the lacustrine sediments that occur at a depth of about 300 m indicate that the caldera was once much deeper and may have been physiographically similar to the Crater Lake caldera. These sediments lie about 790 m below the present highest point on the caldera rim, a depth comparable to that from the rim above Crater Lake to its base. The fragmental rocks of sedimentary and pyroclastic origin that form the upper 300 m of the core appear to represent a discontinuous filling of a once much deeper caldera. Second, the 130 m of pumice lapilli tuff and associated breccia that occur below the lake sediments are probably ash flows and may relate to one or more periods of collapse of the caldera. It is not obvious from preliminary studies that these tuffs correlate with ash flows on the flanks; they are most like the oldest rhyolitic ash-flow tuff, but unlike it in that they are not welded. Third, the flows in the lower part of the hole are

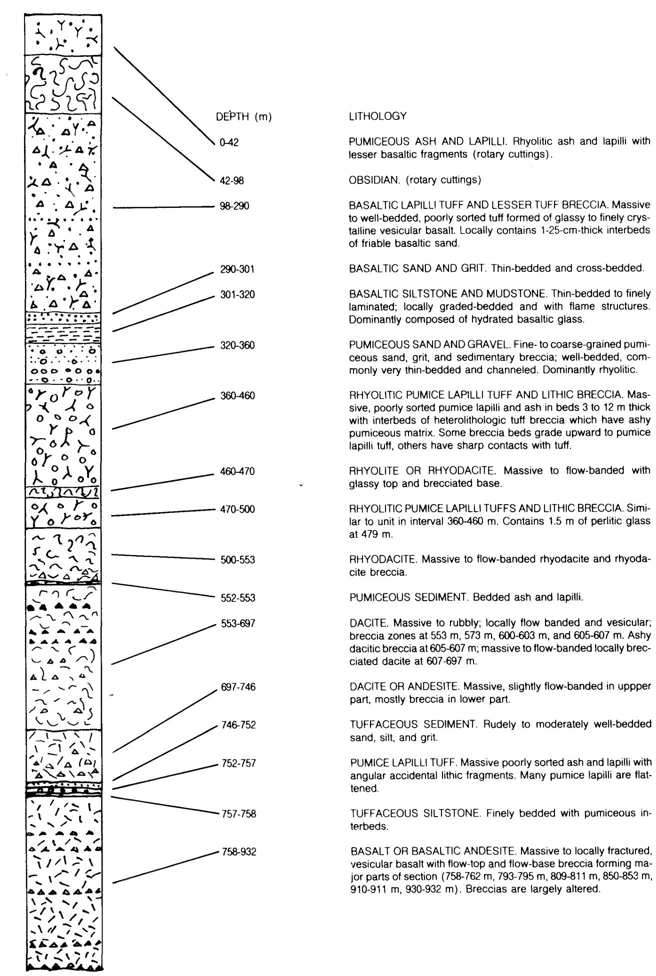

Figure 7. Preliminary generalized lithologic log of Newberry 2. Rock names are based on visual examinations and have not been confirmed by chemical analyses.

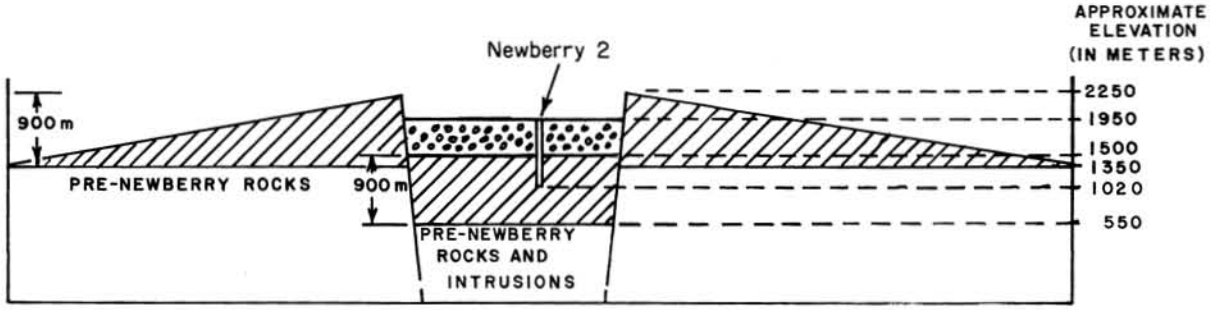

Figure 8. Schematic cross section of Newberry Volcano showing probable position of collapsed block.

similar to flows on the flanks of the volcano and may be the former upper part of the volcano that collapsed to form the caldera.

We do not know the shape of the old surface upon which Newberry Volcano is built or the original shape of the volcano before collapse. Thus, we can only crudely estimate the amount of collapse and the possible elevation of the base of the collapse block. The difference in elevation between the lowest flank flows and the caldera rim is about 900 m, and this difference may approximate the thickness of volcanic rock adjacent to the caldera. As the former summit was undoubtedly at a higher elevation than the present rim, this figure represents a minimum thickness of the collapse block. If the top of the section of flow rocks in the hole at an elevation of about 1,500 m represents the top of the collapsed block, then

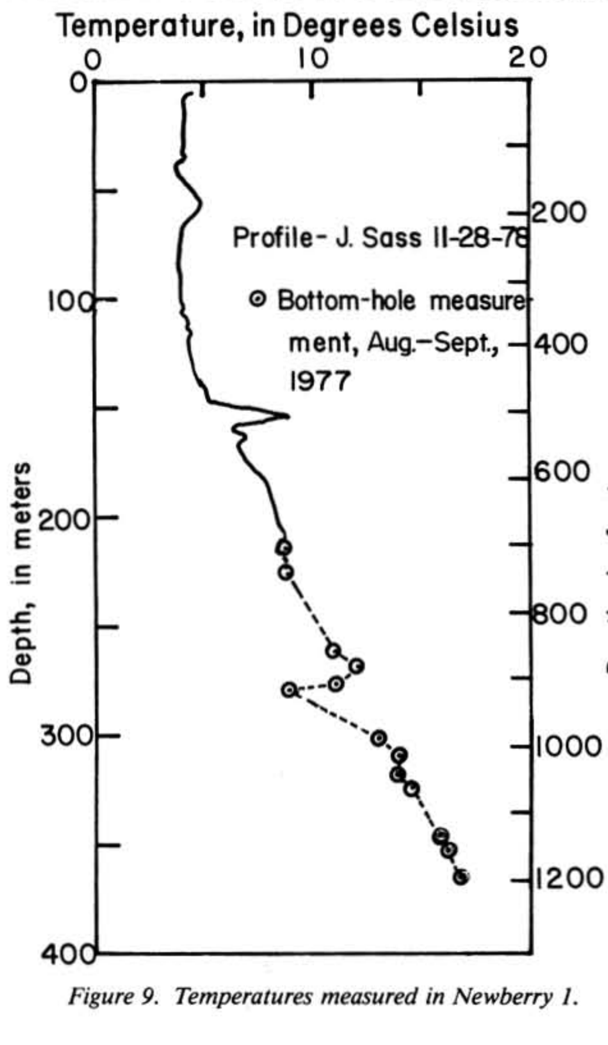

Figure 9. Temperatures measured in Newberry 1.

its base lies at about 550-m elevation. Thus the base of Newberry rocks in the caldera is roughly 800 m or more lower than the base of the volcano outside the caldera and is 500 m or more below the bottom of the hole. These crude estimates are shown diagrammatically in Figure 8, in which a single rather than multiple-collapse block is illustrated.

Temperature and heat flow

The temperature profile obtained in Newberry 1 (Figure 9) on the flank of the volcano indicates that heat flow is suppressed in the upper 90 m of rock, presumably by the vertical flow of cool water in the permeable sediments that predominate in this zone. Below 90 m, the thermal regime is predominately conductive, although perturbations in the profile indicate minor flows of both cooler and warmer water. For example, the peak in the profile at 155 m is probably due to the flow of warm water in a permeable zone at the scoriaceous base of a dacitic flow and the rubbly top of an andesitic flow; in the interval 270-280 m, ground-water flow of differing temperatures may occur in beds of cinders, grit, and scoria that overlie the rubbly top of an andesitic flow.

The smoothed thermal gradient in the lower 260 m of the hole is approximately 50° C/km, which is significantly lower than the mean gradient of 65° C/km estimated for the region (Blackwell and others, 1978). On the basis of measured values in rocks at Newberry 2, the mean thermal conductivity in the lower 260 m of Newberry 1 is estimated to be less than 1.3 $W°C^{-1}m^{-1}$. The conductive heat flux is estimated to be no greater than about 60 mW/m^2, or a little more than one-half the expected value for the High Cascade region (Blackwell and others, 1978; Couch and others, 1981). In the light of the high heat flux discovered later beneath the caldera, the low values found in Newberry 1 are believed to result from flow of cool water at depths below 386 m (the base of the hole) which depresses the thermal gradient and transfers heat radially away from the caldera.

Representative profiles and bottom-hole measurements obtained in Newberry 2 (Figure 10) show a quasi-linear conductive gradient in the lower 230 m of the hole and large convective anomalies in the upper 700 m. Repeated logging in the hole as drilling progressed demonstrated that, over periods of time on the order of a year, the profiles represent stable thermal regimes in the rocks at the drill site. It seems probable, however, that over longer periods of time the temperatures and heat flows would be observed to be in a transient state.

The major displacements in the temperature profile generally coincide with higher than average permeabilities in the core samples and flows of formation water observed in the borehole. For example, the temperature minimum at 280-m to 290-m depths is probably due to the flow of cool water observed in a cavernous zone within beds of basaltic sand and grit. A temperature maximum at depths between 350 m and 450 m is associated with permeable sand, gravel, and lithic

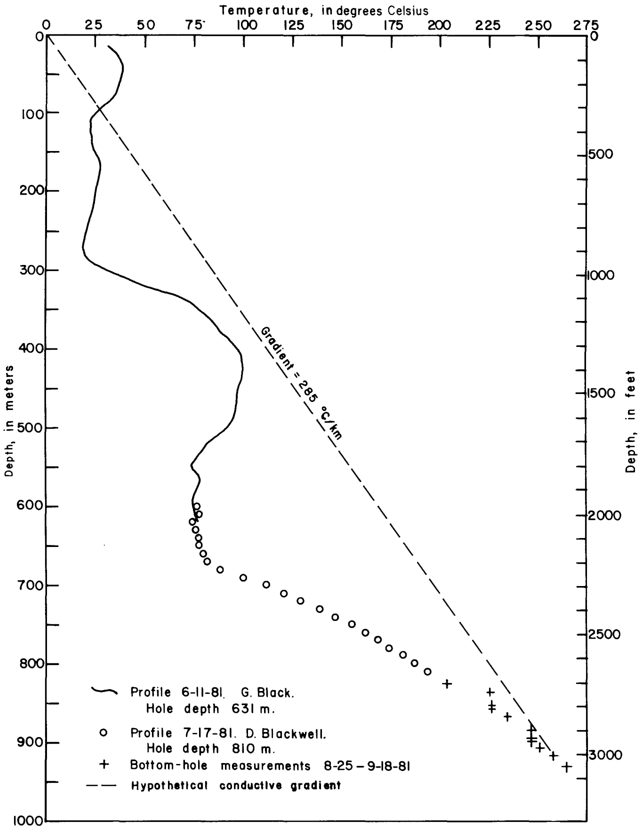

Figure 10. Temperatures measured in Newberry 2 and hypothetical conductive gradient projected from bottom of hole to land surface.

breccias in which flows of warmer water diluted the drilling mud. A significant water flow in brecciated dacite encountered between 555 m and 564 m probably accounts for much of the temperature minimum observed between 550 m and 610 m. The stronger flows produced up to one-half liter per second in the well bore, and many weaker flows probably went undetected. Mud circulation was completely lost in strata of rhyodacite, pumiceous sediment, and dacite in the interval from 515 to 610 m.

Below 758 m, permeable zones were few, and although gas was encountered in many hydrothermally altered strata, there was no evidence of water or steam. Fluid recovered from the bottom 2 m of the hole during a 20-hour flow test (Sammel, 1981) is now believed likely to have consisted largely of drilling fluids injected into the formation combined with dry gas already present in the formation.

Available evidence indicates, therefore, that vertical permeabilities are generally low in the caldera fill as well as in the collapsed caldera block. The vertical flow of both geothermal fluids and meteoric recharge water is probably restricted to faults, ring fractures, or brecciated intrusion conduits. Lateral flow may be confined to those permeable strata that have good hydraulic connections with water-bearing vertical fracture zones.

Surface expression of discharge from the hydrothermal system occurs at only three places in the caldera and is entirely absent on the flanks, so far as is known. Small springs of moderate temperature rise along the northeast margin of Paulina Lake and the southwest margin of East Lake. Several fumaroles occur along the northeast margin of the Big Obsidian Flow. The total heat flux from these sources is unknown but is thought to be small.

The vertical component of the heat flux in the lower 180 m of Newberry 2 can be estimated on the basis of the more reliable temperatures by calculating the mean thermal gradient (approximately 600° C/km) and estimating the mean thermal conductivity from four measured values (about 1.9 $W°C^{-1}m^{-1}$). The conductive heat flux calculated from these estimates is 1.1 W/m^2, which is more than 10 times the regional average. This large heat flux reflects in part the rate of convective heat transfer in the interval from 550 to 670 m. If heat were not being removed in this zone, temperatures in the rocks above the linear profile would presumably be higher than those observed, and both the gradient and the heat flux would be lower than those now observed.

Convective effects above a depth of 700 m cause the total heat flux at the drill site to be greater than the 1.1 W/m^2 calculated for the lower 170 m. Fluid flowing laterally in the intervals from 550 to 670 m and 100 to 280 m absorbs heat from warmer zones above and below and presumably transports this heat away from the site. Using linear approximations of temperature gradients above and below these intervals and estimating corresponding thermal conductivities, we obtained an estimate of 2.5 W/m^2 for the total heat flux into these intervals. Assuming a conductive heat flux in the top 20 m of dry caldera fill and a land-surface temperature equal to the mean annual air temperature of 0° C in the caldera, we estimate an additional flux of 0.5 W/m^2 conducted to the land surface. Thus, the total lateral and vertical heat flux at the drill site above a depth of 930 m may be at least 3 W/m^2.

This heat flux is considerably larger than the conductive flux of 0.3 W/m^2 that hypothetically would exist on the basis of a linear temperature gradient (285° C/km) between the measured temperature at the bottom of the hole and a land-surface temperature of 0° C (Figure 10) and a harmonic mean thermal conductivity for the entire section, based on 47 measured values, of 1.1 $W°C^{-1}m^{-1}$. This hypothetical conductive heat flux is itself anomalously large, possibly because of convective effects occurring below the bottom of the drill hole.

The high rate of heat flow in the vicinity of the drill site may not be typical of heat flow over the entire 30 km^2 of the caldera floor. Flows of cooler water, apparently interstratified with flows of warmer water, produce the anomalies in the temperature profile that have been described above. These anomalies suggest that lateral flows of water beneath the caldera floor have separate origins and complex flow paths. It is likely, therefore, that the distribution of thermal discharge in the caldera is highly variable, both spatially and temporally, in response to varying conditions in the hydrologic regime.

SOURCE OF GEOTHERMAL HEAT

The highest observed temperature (265° C), large heat flux, and recency of volcanism at Newberry strongly suggest that the heat source is of magmatic origin. The widespread occurrence of rhyolitic rocks of similar compositions that have been erupted during at least the last 7,000 years and as recently as 1,350 years ago suggests that the magma chamber may be several kilometers wide and that temperatures could still be partly in the magmatic range.

Geophysical studies by USGS workers and others have elucidated some of the large-scale characteristics of the crustal rocks beneath Newberry, but the studies do not conclusively indicate either the presence or absence of shallow crustal magma chambers. From their reduction of gravity data obtained by Andrew Griscom, Williams and Finn (1981) inferred the existence of a large, dense stock at a depth less than 2 km beneath the volcano. Although there are differing views among the geophysicists regarding the size and shape of the subvolcanic stock, there is general agreement that a stock exists. This interpretation is supported by teleseismic data that suggest that there is a large compressional-wave velocity contrast in the area, with higher velocities localized under the caldera (Mahadeva Iyer, oral communication, 1981). The teleseismic data fail to show evidence for a molten mass; the limit of lateral resolution for the data, however, may be about 3 km. Magnetotelluric soundings at Newberry (Stanley, 1981) are inconclusive but suggest that a body having low to intermediate resistivity may occur at a depth of about 1½ km.

Heat-flow data derived from the measurements at Newberry 2 do not provide a firm basis for limiting the size, depth, or temperature of a magmatic heat source. Preliminary analysis of the data suggests, however, that if the total heat flux estimated in Newberry 2 represents a widespread and long-lasting thermal regime beneath the caldera, a magmatic source would be likely to have a diameter of several kilometers and to have been continuously supplied with magma for a period of thousands of years prior to the most recent eruption. If the apparent heat flux at Newberry 2 represents only a local anomaly within the caldera, the source of heat could be significantly smaller.

The results of such analyses are sensitive to assumptions regarding the transient state of the temperature profile in Newberry 2 and the applicability of the estimated heat flux to other parts of the caldera. Calculations based on several conceptual models show, for example, that if the heat flux estimated in Newberry 2 represents the flux over the caldera during the 1,350 years since the last eruption and if there has been no new input, much of the magma in a 3-km-wide chamber could have solidified and the temperatures could have decreased below the solidus temperature.

A possible limiting case for temperatures below the drill hole can be derived on the basis of the assumption that heat flow in the basaltic-andesite flow rocks of the collapse block is predominately conductive. The following specific assumptions are used: (1) the nearly linear gradient observed between 860 and 930 m (505° C/km) represents a conductive regime in the basaltic and basaltic-andesite rocks near the base of the volcano; (2) this gradient continues in rocks of low vertical permeability to the base of the collapsed caldera block at a depth of 1.4 km beneath the caldera floor (Figure 8). The temperatures at the base under these conditions would be about 500° C. Below the base, possible effects of intrusive activity in the pre-Newberry rocks make the presence of hydrothermal convection seem more probable, and continued extrapolation of the temperature gradient is not justified.

CONCLUSIONS AND REGIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Evidence of a high potential for the development of geothermal energy at Newberry is compelling, but the nature and magnitude of the resource currently is poorly defined. The flow test conducted in Newberry 2 suggests that if a hot hydrothermal reservoir exists at Newberry, it is tightly confined by overlying rocks of low thermal and hydraulic conductivity. The paucity and small size of geothermal emanations in the caldera also attest to the probable low vertical permeability of the caldera rocks. Many strata in the upper 670 m of the hole appear to have moderately high permeabilities, but the stratification of the warm and cool zones in the rocks demonstrates that the horizontal permeability greatly exceeds the vertical at the drill site.

Because the more permeable rocks in the lower part of the hole are the brecciated tops and bottoms of flows, it is reasonable to suppose that similar breccia zones may occur at greater depths. Marked changes in permeability and porosity may occur below the base of the collapsed caldera block in pre-Newberry rocks that are fractured and faulted by magmatic intrusion. If late intrusions of magma have not penetrated the collapsed block, the largest reservoir of high-temperature fluids seems most likely to occur below the block in the pre-Newberry rocks. Careful testing by additional and probably deeper drill holes will be required in order to evaluate these possibilities and the magnitude of the geothermal resource at Newberry.

Geological and geophysical studies at Newberry have shown that this large composite volcano differs significantly from most other volcanoes in the Cascade Range. Unlike most of the well-known stratovolcanoes, but in common with Mount Mazama in Oregon and Medicine Lake Volcano in California, Newberry has a summit caldera and has experienced large eruptions from silicic magma chambers. Large volumes of mafic magma probably have resided for long periods of time in the crust at these three locations in order to have produced the voluminous silicic magmas (Hildreth, 1981; Bacon, 1981). Newberry appears to be unique, however, in its position at the end of a 10-million-year progression of silicic volcanism across the northern edge of the Basin and Range Province. There is at present no evidence that the progression continues into the High Cascades, where a possible extension might culminate in the vicinity of the Three Sisters.

The geological parallels between Newberry Volcano in Oregon and Medicine Lake Volcano in California permit some inferences concerning the geothermal potential at the latter site. The geology of the Medicine Lake area is currently being studied by Julie Donnelly-Nolan under the USGS Geothermal Research Program, and a number of geophysical studies have been made in the area (see Hill and others, 1981; Williams and Finn, 1981; Christopherson and Hoover, 1981; and Stanley, 1981). The results of these studies show that although surface indications of geothermal activity are sparse, large volumes of silicic rocks have been erupted at Medicine Lake during the last several thousand years and the caldera is underlain at shallow depths by dense rocks of high seismic velocity and low to moderate resistivity. The results of the Newberry drilling thus present an encouraging indication of the potential for geothermal resources at Medicine Lake.

Certain implications of the results at Newberry may have a wider regional significance. The probable existence of a magmatic heat source at Newberry suggests that other magmatic heat sources of significant magnitude may exist at fairly shallow depths within the Cascade region. Geothermal anomalies associated with these heat sources are likely to be masked by rocks of low vertical permeability and by the lateral flow of ground water in the same way that the anomaly is hidden at Newberry. Recharge to deep hydrothermal systems may be impeded by low vertical permeabilities as at Newberry, and the amounts of recharge may be significantly less than would be expected on the basis of local precipitation rates. On the other hand, deep regional ground-water flow systems may occur in older rocks beneath the Quaternary volcanics; where these rocks are fractured and faulted, as they may be in the vicinity of subvolcanic intrusions, permeable geothermal reservoirs may occur.

Crucial questions for exploration in the Cascade region are whether or not surface geophysical methods and shallow test drilling will be able to delineate areas underlain by shallow magma chambers or hot intrusive rocks and whether or not strata having moderately high permeability and significant lateral extent occur in the vicinity of such heat sources.

The numerous thermal springs that rise in the Cascade region may be of little help in locating magmatic sources because, with few exceptions, the springs are not closely related to the major Quaternary volcanic centers. Some of these springs may be the surface expression of lateral flow that originates in geothermal reservoirs at some distance from the surface outlet. Others may be the result of local deep circulation in faults and fracture zones at the boundary between rocks of the High Cascades and the older rocks of the Western Cascades. In either case, they may not reliably indicate the location of geothermal reservoirs associated with young intrusive rocks.

The development of geothermal energy in the Cascades will probably depend on the exploitation of hydrothermal convection systems that concentrate the heat from deeper sources and transport it to shallow depths where the energy can be economically extracted. Hydrothermal systems that function in this way also tend to accelerate the decay of temperatures in the heat sources and shorten the useful lives of the systems. Nevertheless, the positive indicators of geothermal potential in the Cascade region, high heat flows and shallow silicic intrusive rocks, encourage the belief that economical sources of geothermal energy may be found in the region. Deep drilling will probably be required in order to determine favorable locations and to ascertain the extent and nature of the geothermal reservoirs.

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(Required by 39 U.S.C. 3685)

1. TITLE OF PUBLICATION: OREGON GEOLOGY
A. PUBLICATION NO.: 6 0 0 0 4 0
2. DATE OF FILING: October 1, 1982
3. FREQUENCY OF ISSUE: MONTHLY
A. NO. OF ISSUES PUBLISHED ANNUALLY: 12
B. ANNUAL SUBSCRIPTION PRICE: $6.00
4. COMPLETE MAILING ADDRESS OF KNOWN OFFICE OF PUBLICATION *(Street, City, County, State and ZIP Code) (Not printers)*: 1005 State Office Building, Portland, OR 97201
5. COMPLETE MAILING ADDRESS OF THE HEADQUARTERS OR GENERAL BUSINESS OFFICES OF THE PUBLISHERS *(Not printers)*: 1005 State Office Building, Portland, OR 97201
6. FULL NAMES AND COMPLETE MAILING ADDRESS OF PUBLISHER, EDITOR, AND MANAGING EDITOR *(This item MUST NOT be blank)*
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EDITOR *(Name and Complete Mailing Address)*: Beverly F. Vogt, Oregon Department of Geology and Mineral Industries, address above
MANAGING EDITOR *(Name and Complete Mailing Address)*: NONE
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ABSTRACTS

The Department maintains a collection of theses and dissertations on Oregon geology. From time to time, we print abstracts of new acquisitions that we feel are of general interest to our readers.

SEDIMENTOLOGY AND TECTONICS OF UPPER CRETACEOUS ROCKS, SOUTHWEST OREGON, by Joanne Bourgeois (Ph.D., University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1980)

Southwest Oregon is a region of complex tectonostratigraphic terranes. Three Upper Cretaceous (Campanian-?Maestrichtian) formations occur there in fault-bounded slivers, in fault and depositional contact with the Upper Jurassic Otter Point Complex, a volcanic-arc assemblage. These four units occur only west of high-angle, NNW-trending faults, making up a terrane unlike anything to the east. Sedimentation patterns and tectonostratigraphic relationships of the Upper Cretaceous formations indicate that they were deposited in a tectonically active setting where vertical faulting played a significant role. In addition, clast compositions of conglomerates suggest the Klamath Mountains are an unlikely source terrane—apparently these Upper Cretaceous rocks are no longer near their source. I tentatively postulate that they were deposited in a borderland-type basin, with southern California as their sediment source, and that they were then transported north during latest Cretaceous to early Eocene time and accreted to the Oregon coast.

The oldest Upper Cretaceous rocks in southwest Oregon are the (tentatively named) Houstenaden Creek Formation (500+ m thick) and an apparently correlative sequence at Blacklock Point (400+ m thick). As is typical of Pacific Coast of North America stratigraphy, the Houstenaden and Blacklock sequences are geographically limited but provide good examples of the influence of tectonics on sedimentation. They are both thickening- and coarsening-upward sequences consisting principally of amalgamated turbiditic sandstones. Lithologic, sequential, and structural similarities support the proposal that the two sequences are equivalent, as suggested by fossil data. They could either represent two different lobes on a single submarine fan or be separate fans. I postulate that they record rapid suprafan-lobe progradation during the Late Cretaceous and that they were probably deposited in a strike-slip, rifted-margin setting, with a mixed magmatic-arc/uplifted-basement source terrane.

The Cape Sebastian Sandstone (Campanian) was deposited unconformably on Houstenaden Creek Formation and also on Otter Point Complex. It is a 200-m thick, fining-upward, transgressive sequence representing foreshore to offshore deposition; progressively increasing depth of deposition is indicated by both physical and biogenic sedimentary structures. Basal Cape Sebastian conglomerate is overlain by trough-cross-bedded and plane-laminated coarse sandstones. Most of the formation comprises hummocky-bedded and burrowed sandstone. The uppermost part consists of alternating laminated, very fine sandstone and progressively thicker, burrowed sandy siltstone. These sedimentary structures have been observed on modern continental shelves and also in progradational ("regressive") sequences in the Cretaceous of the Western Interior, where thick transgressive sequences are rare. Cape Sebastian deposition reflects rapid shelf sedimentation during sea-level rise.

The Hunters Cove Formation is a 300-m-thick, fining-upward sequence, conformably overlying Cape Sebastian Sandstone. Overall, the formation is fine-grained (sand:shale <1:3) and consists of T(a)bc(de) turbidites and silts and shales. The presence of slump deposits, channelized sandstones within fine-grained sequences, and irregular, coarse-grained layers suggests that the formation was deposited on a submarine slope or base of slope. The formation contains thick sandstones that exhibit varied sedimentary structure indicating rapid deposition, soft-sediment deformation, and fluid-escape processes. These sands were probably deposited at a break in slope where sedimentation was rapid. The formation also contains a thick slump and slump-breccia zone containing clasts of basal Cape Sebastian Sandstone, indicating that vertical faulting was contemporaneous with Hunters Cove deposition. The Hunters Cove Formation probably represents submarine-slope sedimentation in a fault-influenced basin concomitant with sea-level rise. It is part of a small but complex package of Upper Cretaceous rocks in southwest Oregon that illustrates many effects of tectonics and sea-level change on sedimentation.

GEOLOGY AND PETROLOGY OF THE YAMSAY MOUNTAIN COMPLEX, SOUTH-CENTRAL OREGON: A STUDY OF BIMODAL VOLCANISM, by Carl William Hering (Ph.D., University of Oregon, 1981)

The southern and central Cascades are bounded to the east by the Basin and Range province. Along this boundary a number of large shield complexes, noted for their bimodal associations, are located. I have examined the geology and petrology of a Pliocene center lying along this axis, the Yamsay Mountain complex of south-central Oregon. A thorough understanding of the bimodal association here furthers our knowledge of the volcanic and tectonic evolution of central Oregon. The Yamsay Mountain complex is a large shield approximately 27 km in diameter, rising over 700 m above the surrounding basalt plateau. A caldera at the summit of the shield, associated with venting of the Silver Creek Welded Tuff, has been filled by younger basaltic andesites and dacites. Several cycles of mafic and silicic volcanism are indicated, and the volume of silicic rocks increases with time.

Major-element analyses demonstrate the calc-alkaline character and bimodal distribution of lavas in the area. Detailed trace-element analyses facilitate evaluation of petrologic models concerning the origin of the bimodal association. Inter- and intra-vent compositional variations in the basaltic andesites suggest that they are related primarily by discrete partial melting events and have not undergone the extensive fractionation necessary to produce the silicic lavas. Modeling indicates that these rocks are formed by differentiation of dacitic parental magma. Crystallization along the walls of a chamber allows fractionated liquid to rise and separate from the crystal residuum, giving rise to compositional zonation within the chamber. Rhyolitic obsidians are an extreme example of this fractionation process, having large Eu anomalies and low Sr contents although being devoid of plagioclase phenocrysts. It is concluded that the parental magmas for the silicic rocks are formed by melting of crustal rocks of basaltic composition. Intense mafic volcanism and extensional tectonics facilitate melting, leading to the development of a bimodal association. This relationship explains mafic and silicic cycles of activity and the increasing volume of silicic rocks with time. Northwestward extension of Basin and Range structures may be responsible for late-stage divergent activity in the Cascades. □

Brightly colored digital map shows U.S. elevations at a glance

A brightly colored map, created from digital data and showing elevations in the United States at a glance, has just been published by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS).

The experimental digital terrain map of the United States uses 32 color shades, ranging from dark blue at sea level to bright red at the highest elevations, to depict the topography of the 48 states. Scanning the new USGS map, persons unfamiliar with topographic maps may readily see that mountainous areas are those colored in red; valleys and low-lying areas appear in blue, in-between areas in shades of yellow and green.

A metric altitude graph relates 32 color shadings with elevation differences and uses a different shading for each 100-m (328-ft) rise in elevation in all areas below 3,000 m in elevation. The darkest blue depicts areas from sea level to 100 m, while bright red denotes areas that are 3,500 m (approximately 11,500 ft) or more above sea level.

The experimental map represents the application of some of the newest technology in digital mapping, a process in which computerized information about the Earth's surface is transferred to maps by means of electro-mechanical or computer-driven plotters. To produce the new map, elevation data from 1:250,000-scale maps of the United States were converted to a rectangular grid, with each tiny grid square on the map representing 6 km^2 (2.3 square miles) on the ground.

No specific river courses are shown on the map, but some major rivers can be traced by following the fine green lines and trails of progressively deeper shades of greens and blues that distinguish lower elevations of river beds from the surrounding terrain as the rivers flow seaward.

Cultural features (cities and roads) also are not shown on the map, but state boundaries are clearly outlined in black. As for color variation, in relation to elevation differences, Florida and Delaware are the only two states that are entirely dark blue (less than 100 m above sea level). At first glance Louisiana appears to be all dark blue, but closer examination reveals a few tiny patches of the next lighter shade of blue, indicating areas with elevations between 100 and 200 m.

California, Washington, Oregon, and Arizona are the only states that include the full range of colors, from dark blue through the lighter blues to greens, yellows and red. Colorado, with the nation's greatest concentration of high mountains, has more red areas than any other state. White spaces on the map represent below-sea-level areas of the Salton Sea and Death Valley in California.

In addition to being a colorful, easily interpreted relief map for the general public, the new digital terrain map can be used by scientists to interpret linear and curvilinear broad-scale tectonic deformations in the earth's crust, especially those that have occurred in the recent past.

The new digital terrain map of the United States was generated from a USGS digital data base created from data obtained from the National Geodetic Survey (NGS). NGS received the data from the Department of Defense Electromagnetic Compatibility Analysis Center (ECAC), whose primary data source was the Defense Mapping Agency. Data for a few degree squares, especially around the coastline, were obtained by the ECAC from other sources.

The author of the map is Richard H. Godson, a USGS geophysicist in Denver, Colo. The map, *Digital Terrain Map of the United States*, was published as USGS Map I-1318 and can be purchased for $2.50 per copy from the Western Distribution Branch, U.S. Geological Survey, P.O. Box 25286, Federal Center, Denver, CO 80225; or the Eastern Distribution Branch, U.S. Geological Survey, 1200 South Eads St., Arlington, VA 22202. Orders must include the map number, I-1318, and checks or money orders payable to the U.S. Geological Survey. □

Diamond Craters Outstanding Natural Area dedicated

Diamond Craters, located 55 mi southeast of Burns in Harney County, southeastern Oregon, was dedicated as an Outstanding Natural Area (ONA) by the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) on September 18, 1982. The area has been described by geologists as having the best and most diverse basaltic volcanic features in the United States and all within a comparatively small and accessible place.

Joshua Warburton, Manager of the Burns District of the BLM, was Master of Ceremonies at the dedication. Guest speakers were Ellen Benedict (former Diamond Craters Coordinator) of Pacific University (Adjunct Professor of Biology); William G. Leavell, Oregon State Director of the BLM; Dale White, County Commissioner of Harney County; and Chad Bacon, Drewsey-Riley Resource Area Manager of the Burns District of the BLM.

Central vent complex, Diamond Craters.

The ONA designation of the 16,656 ares of public lands within Diamond Craters was published in the Federal Register during the week of April 5, 1982. Diamond Craters is now protected under several complementary designations and actions: (1) Area of Critical Environmental Concern (ACEC) – designated in December 1980 by the joint action of Chris Vosler (then Burns District Manager) and Bill Leavell. The ACEC designation means that Diamond Craters is given a high priority status in management decisions and is managed under an ACEC Plan Element written specifically for the area; (2) Protective withdrawal and designation as the Diamond Craters Geologic Area – signed by Under Secretary of Interior, Guy Martin, in January 1981; and (3) the ONA designation signed by Bill Leavell in April 1982 and approved by Secretary of the Interior James Watt. □

Department releases geological, geothermal, and geophysical data

The Oregon Department of Geology and Mineral Industries (DOGAMI) announces the release of the following publications and open-file reports:

Special Paper 14

Special Paper 14, *Geology and Geothermal Resources of the Mount Hood Area, Oregon*, is a comprehensive report of the geology of Mount Hood, with special emphasis on geothermal exploration. The 100-page report shows the results of investigations conducted over the last five years by industry, university, and DOGAMI staff researchers. Its publication was supported primarily by the U.S. Department of Energy and by the State of Oregon.

The contributions by fourteen different authors include a summary of all heat-flow and gradient data, extensive chemical and mineralogical analyses from two deep wells, heat-flow models, and new information on the volcanic stratigraphy and structural geology of the Mount Hood area. Purchase price of Special Paper 14 is $7.

GMS-20

A new map titled *Map Showing Geology and Geothermal Resources of the Southern Half of the Burns 15' Quadrangle, Oregon* is published as map GMS-20 in DOGAMI's Geological Map Series. The area covered by the multicolor map (scale 1:24,000) is the south half of the Burns 15-minute quadrangle in Harney County and extends approximately 10 mi to the west and 6 mi to the south of the city of Burns.

The map shows 22 different surficial and bedrock geologic units, the geologic structure, and a geologic cross section of the area. It also identifies thermal springs and wells and supplies temperature and heat-flow data for them. Cost of GMS-20 is $5.

GMS-26

A set of three one-color offset-printed geophysical maps showing the residual gravity of the Oregon Cascade Range has been released in the Geological Map Series as GMS-26, *Residual Gravity Maps of the Northern, Central, and Southern Cascade Range, Oregon, 121°00' to 122°30' W. by 42°00' to 45°45' N.*

The maps cover the north, center, and southern portions of a strip about 65 mi wide that extends from the northern to the southern borders of the state. The residual-gravity contours are printed on a topographic base at a scale of 1:250,000. These maps also show the locations of gravity stations used for these and previously published gravity maps (GMS-8, -15, and -16).

The mapping project was conducted by researchers of the Oregon State University Geophysics Group and supported by the U.S. Geological Survey and the U.S. Department of Energy. Purchase price of the set is $5.

Open-File Report 0-82-3

Another map, *Geologic Map of the Langlois Quadrangle, Oregon*, has been published as DOGAMI Open-File Report 0-82-3. The Langlois 15-minute quadrangle is located on the southern Oregon coast just east of Cape Blanco and extends from the southern edge of Coos County south to Port Orford. The blackline ozalid map (scale 1:31,250) identifies 22 surficial and bedrock geologic units and shows their structural relationships in the quadrangle.

The map was compiled by former DOGAMI staff member M.E. Brownfield and is based largely on field work performed for graduate degrees at the University of Oregon by Brownfield, R.L. Phillips, and R.L. Lent. Purchase price of Open-File Report 0-82-3 is $5.

Open-File Report 0-82-8

Open-File Report 0-82-8, *Gravity and Aeromagnetic Maps of the Powell Buttes Area, Crook, Deschutes, and Jefferson Counties, Oregon*, covers a wide region around the Bend-Redmond-Prineville triangle in central Oregon. Centered on an area of anomalously high geothermal gradients at Powell Buttes, the maps will aid the geothermal exploration efforts at Powell Buttes and in adjacent areas.

The four blackline ozalid maps, all at a scale of 1:62,500, show the results of studies by the Geophysics Group of Oregon State University and include data from a number of new gravity stations. The individual maps show (1) residual gravity, (2) free-air gravity anomalies, (3) complete Bouguer gravity anomalies, and (4) total-field aeromagnetic anomalies. Cost of the complete set of maps is $8.

Open-File Report 0-82-9

A geophysical study presenting and interpreting gravity data of the Cascade Range with a view toward geothermal and mineral exploration has been released as DOGAMI Open-File Report 0-82-9, *Gravity Anomalies in the Cascade Range in Oregon: Structural and Thermal Implications.* The 66-page report by the Geophysics Group of Oregon State University summarizes gravimetric measurements made in the Cascades and surrounding regions by many investigators since approximately 1965. It contains page-size reproductions of free-air, Bouguer, regional, and residual gravity maps of the Cascade Range, many of which have been published at larger scale in the Department's Geological Map Series. The report also includes crustal and subcrustal cross sections through the northern and southern parts of the Oregon Cascades.

In discussing the structural and geothermal implications of the observed gravity anomalies, the authors develop a model of the Cascades that is characterized by a fracture zone extending along and across the transition zone between the Western and High Cascades north of Crater Lake and continuing south through the Klamath basin and Klamath graben. They conclude that this zone presents likely targets for both geothermal and mineral-resource exploration. Cost of Open-File Report 0-82-9 is $5.

All of these publications and reports may be purchased from the Oregon Department of Geology and Mineral Industries, 1005 State Office Building, Portland, OR 97201. Orders under $50 require prepayment. □

GSOC luncheon meetings announced

The Geological Society of the Oregon Country (GSOC) holds noon meetings in the Standard Plaza Building, 1100 SW Sixth Avenue, Portland, in Room A adjacent to the third floor cafeteria. Topics of upcoming meetings and speakers include:

November 19—*Indonesia*, by Saleem Farooqui, geologist, Shannon and Wilson, Inc.

December 3—*Adventures in the Himalayas*, by Lute Jerstad, President, Lute Jerstad Adventures.

For additional information, contact Viola L. Oberson, Luncheon Program Chairwoman, phone (503) 282-3685. □

Available publications

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