# **UC Santa Barbara**

**UC Santa Barbara Electronic Theses and Dissertations**

## **Title**

Tectonic Significance of the Chambers Well Dike Swarm

## **Permalink**

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/8z33v0f8>

### **Author** Gentry, Beau James

**Publication Date** 2015

Peer reviewed|Thesis/dissertation

### UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

### Santa Barbara

Tectonic Significance of the Chambers Well Dike Swarm Whipple Mountains Metamorphic Core Complex, CA

A Thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree Master of Science in Geological Sciences

by

Beau James Gentry

Committee in charge: Professor Phillip B. Gans, Chair Professor John M. Cottle Professor Bradley R. Hacker

September 2015

The thesis of Beau James Gentry is approved.

\_

\_

John M. Cottle

Bradley R. Hacker

Phillip B. Gans, Committee Chair

July 2015

Tectonic Significance of the Chambers Well Dike Swarm

Copyright © 2015

### By

# Beau James Gentry

#### ABSTRACT

#### Tectonic Significance of the Chambers Well Dike Swarm

by

#### Beau James Gentry

A suite of Miocene dikes, collectively termed the Chambers Well dike swarm are exposed the southwestern footwall of the Whipple Detachment fault (WDF) and provide key insight into the evolution of the Whipple Mountains metamorphic core complex. New geologic mapping, U-Pb zircon geochronology, and whole-rock geochemistry allow for the assessment of: 1.) The ages, compositions, and volume of the dikes in the context of the local volcanic and extensional history 2.) The magnitude and timing of footwall rotation. 3.) The amount of slip on the southwestern WDF. The dikes intruded an approximately 40 km<sup>2</sup> portion of the footwall of the WDF, comprised of an assemblage of Proterozoic gneisses and amphibolite bodies. Dikes can be broadly divided into two distinct groups; an andesite-rhyolite series (61-78 wt. %  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$ ) ranging in age from 18.75 to 20.1 Ma, and a subordinate group of younger diabase dikes (55 wt.  $\%$  SiO<sub>2</sub>). In the central portion of the dike swarm, dike-to-wall rock ratios range from 0.93 to 2.60 and imply ~100 to 250% WNW-ESE extension that was accommodated by intrusive dilation. Dike dips vary systematically from subvertical in the eastern portion of the swarm to gently east-dipping  $(\sim 20-30^{\circ})$  in the west, and take the form an inward-dipping fan. The combined field observations, geochronology, and geochemistry from the Chambers Well dikes and lava flows in the hanging wall of the WDF indicate that the western Whipple Mountains was a major Miocene eruptive center with local magmatic activity that

began ~20 Ma. Early stages of extension (20.2 and 18.75 Ma) were dominated by intrusive dilation, but transitioned to large scale extensional faulting and tilting at 19.0-18.5 Ma, and may have been the result of thermal weakening of the crust. The asymmetric, fan-shaped geometry of the Chambers Well dike swarm can be explained by the combination of emplacement from an elongate, compositionallyzoned pluton at depth followed by  $\sim 40^\circ$  of SW rotation about a horizontal axis, parallel to strike of upper plate strata (310˚). Restoring this rotation brings the mean dike orientations to sub-vertical, with strikes ranging from 310° to 002°, and suggests an extension direction between 040° and 090°. This interpretation also implies that the WDF initiated with a much steeper dip  $(\sim 40-50^{\circ})$ , in agreement with classical Andersonian fault mechanics. Similarities in compositions and ages between the Chambers Well dikes and upper plate lava flows suggest that the dikes are the feeders to the thick volcanic sequence exposed in the western Whipple Mountains and Mopah Range. This correlation implies that there has been little-to-no NW-directed slip on the southwestern potion of the WDF since  $\sim$ 20 Ma.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Metamorphic core complexes (MCC's) are characteristic of highly extended terranes and occur ubiquitously throughout the North American Cordillera. These "core complexes" share a common architecture; a gently-dipping detachment fault separates faulted and tilted upper-crustal rocks from structurally deeper, autochthonous rocks which are locally mylonitic and show a markedly different deformational style and degree of metamorphism. The detachment faults that are hosted in MCC's are thought to be regional slip surfaces which have accommodated tens of kilometers of displacement. These faults commonly have a dome-like geometry, which is interpreted to be the result of the isostatic rebound of the lower plate.

While MCC's and their characteristic low-angle detachment faults are well documented, factors which affect how they form and evolve remain a topic of debate. Many core complexes provide clear evidence for synextensional magmatism, however, this is not true of all MCC's and the causal relationship between extension and magmatism remains ambiguous (Leeman and Harry, 1993; Spencer *et al*., 1995; Coney and Harms, 1984; Wernicke *et al*. 1987).

Additionally, Anderson's model for faulting, which has been supported by innumerable experiments and seismic data from active normal faults, fails to predict the formation of gentlydipping normal faults and points to a clear lack of understanding of these structures (Anderson, 1905; Jackson, 1987; Jackson and McKenzie 1983; Jackson and White, 1989; Abers et al., 1997).

The Whipple Mountains, CA, which host the Whipple detachment fault (WDF), are generally viewed as an archetypical example of a cordilleran MCC. This study characterizes a suite of dikes, termed the Chambers Well dike swarm, which lies in the footwall of the WDF, in order to shed light on the formation and evolution of the Whipple Mountains MCC. Field relationships, geochronology, and whole-rock chemistry presented here help to establish relationships between the Chambers Well dike swarm and the evolution of the WDF.

#### **GEOLOGY OF THE WHIPPLE MOUNTAINS**

The Whipple Mountains MCC lies in southeastern California, in a region termed the Colorado River Extensional Corridor (CREC) (Howard and John, 1987) (Fig. 1). The CREC is part of a larger belt of metamorphic core complexes stretching from Canada to Mexico (Coney, 1980) (Fig. 2), and has undergone more than 100% northeast-directed, Miocene crustal extension in the vicinity of the Whipple Mountains (Davis et al., 1980; Howard and John 1987; Reynolds and Spencer, 1985; Nielson and Beratan, 1990).

The gently northeast-dipping Whipple Detachment Fault crops out in the Whipple Mountains MCC and separates an "upper plate" of internally faulted and tilted section of Miocene volcanic and sedimentary rocks and their underlying basement, from a lower plate pf Proterozoic gneisses and amphibolites and a suite of younger (Mesozoic-Miocene) intrusions (Davis et al. 1980). Rocks in the lower plate of the WDF are exposed in the core of the range, and are bounded by exposures of the WDF and upper plate rocks (Fig. 3). The assemblage of crystalline rocks in the footwall of the WDF locally contains a penetrative Miocene (?), mylonitic foliation and lineation which overprints older fabrics in the Proterozoic gneisses, and generally suggests a top-to-the-northeast sense of shear (Davis et al. 1986). Mylonitic fabrics are restricted to the eastern half of the footwall, and end abruptly at a west-dipping "mylonitic front", which is thought to be the upper limit of footwall mylonitization.

In the non-mylonitic, western portion of the lower plate, an extensive swarm of mafic to silicic dikes, termed the Chambers Well dike swarm, intruded the crystalline basement (Davis et al. 1982). The dikes are exposed in a window into the lower plate of the WDF, and upper plate rocks crop out to the south and west of the dike swarm. The WDF projects into the air above the Chambers Well dike swarm, but likely lies within several hundred meters of the present day ground surface (Fig. 4). The dikes were originally interpreted to have been emplaced late-to-post tectonic, with respect to mylonitization and detachment faulting, and were thought to be the youngest magmatic activity in the footwall of the WDF (Davis *et al.*, 1982).

While some reconnaissance work has been done on the Chambers Well dike swarm (Davis et al. 1982, DeWitt et al., 1982, Anderson and Cullers, 1990), the ages of dikes, their compositions,



**Figure 1.** Simplified geologic map of the lower Colorado River extensional corridor (LCREC), highlighting the location of several metamorphic core complexes. (Gans, unpublished).



**Figure 2.** Map showing the location of metamorphic core complexes (black shapes) throughout the basin and range province, western US. (Gans and Bohrson, 1998)



**Figure 3.** Satellite image of the Whipple Mountains, CA. Dark brown rocks, flanking the range, lie in the hanging wall of the WDF, while light gray-green rocks, in the core of the range, lie in the footwall (modified from Google Earth).



**Figure 4.** Simplified geologic map of the Whipple Mounatins MCC. Key features inlcude the WDF, mylonite front, and Chambers Well dike swarm (modified from Anderson and Cullers, 1990).

orientations, and distributions have not been well documented. Furthermore, the relationship between the dikes and slip on the WDF and upper plate faulting, and correlations between distinct suites of dikes and hanging wall volcanic rocks have not been examined.

#### **METHODS**

#### **Geologic Mapping and Structural Data Collection**

Geologic mapping of an approximately  $15 \text{km}^2$  area of the dike swarm was conducted at a scale of 1:5,000 and compiled at 1:10,000. Dikes were divided into eight lithologic units based on color and mineralogy, with particular attention given to the composition and modal percentages of phenocrysts.

Dike orientations and basement foliations were measured across the map area, and are crucial for documenting the geometry of the dike swarm and assessing the amount of rotation that has affected this portion of the footwall of the WDF. The exposed quenched margins of dikes were measured directly, however, dike margins are often concealed by talus from more resistant, ridgeforming dikes. In these cases, the internal flow banding, and partings that paralleled flow banding, were collected as the dike orientation. Sighting the strike and dip of well exposed dikes crossing large gullies with sufficient topographic relief was used to confirm the average orientation.

Five, 100 m long transects were measured, perpendicular to the strike of dikes in order to quantify the relative proportions of dike-to-host rock. Transects were conducted in areas with subdued topography, where the bedrock was entirely exposed, and where dikes had similar orientations. A 100 m tape was laid out, and the widths of country rock versus dike rock were recorded. In areas where there was a significant incline  $(> 5^{\circ})$ , the slope angle was measured and the horizontal thicknesses of dikes were calculated.

#### **Whole-Rock Geochemical Analyses**

Samples were collected from a suite of dike compositions for geochemistry (Table 1). Major elements were measured by x-ray fluorescence (XRF) at Pomona College. Data was collected using a PanAlytical Axios wavelength-dispersive system equipped with a standard set of crystals and a duplex detector for increased accuracy and precision of the transition metals. Instrument calibration and sample preparation methods are the same as those used by Johnson et al. (1999).

Whole-rock trace and rare earth elements were measured by laser-ablation quadrupole ICP-MS at UCSB. The system consists of a Photon Machines 193 nm wavelength ArF excimer laser attached to an Agilent 7700S quadrupole ICP-MS. Samples were ablated using a 50 µm beam along a 250 µm long transect, at a rate of 4 µm/sec. Three line scans were performed on each sample. USGS whole-rock reference materials Atho-G, BHVO-2, AGV-2, ML3B, StHs 6/80, BCR-2, GOR132, and T-1 were measured at the beginning and end of the analytical session, with Atho-G and AGV-2 measured between every 9 unknowns. Atho-G was used as the primary reference material and AGV-2 as the secondary reference material to assess precision and accuracy of the measurements of each element. All Data were processed using Igor Pro, the plugin Iolite v. 2.1.3 (Paton et al., 2011), and Ca, measured by XRF, was used as an internal standard.

#### **Geochronology**

Twelve samples for zircon geochronology were collected from the coarse-grained interiors of dikes across the southwestern footwall (Table 2). Additionally, two samples were collected from dikes which intrude a package of Proterozoic gneisses which may lie in the hanging wall of the WDF, to the west of the map area (Fig. 5). Samples were crushed and sieved to 90-250  $\mu$ m, and then panned to concentrate "heavy" minerals. This concentrate was repeatedly passed through a Frantz magnetic separator, until a non-magetic (< 55V) separate was achieved. The non-magnetic fraction was stirred into methylene iodine ( $\rho = 3.3$ ), and minerals which sank ( $\rho > 3.3$ ) were recovered. Zircons were hand-picked from this high-purity separate, and mounted in epoxy pucks. Generally, zircons that were euhedral, 50-100µm long, and free of inclusions were targeted, however, a number of

Sample ID	<b>Map Unit</b>	<b>Rock Type</b>	<b>Sample Location (UTM)</b>			
$CW-11$	Tkfr	K-Feldspar rhyolite	11S	730419	3797680	
$CW-12$	Tqchr	Quartz-rich chlortized hornblence rhyolite	11 S	729712	3798011	
$CW-13$	N/A	K-altered rhyolite	11 S	731061	3797488	
$CW-14$	Tar	Aphryic rhyolite	11S	731580	3795037	
$CW-15$	Tfbr	Fresh biotite rhyolite	11S	731314	3795580	
$CW-16$	Tchr	cholitized hornblende rhyolite	11S	731150	3795647	
$CW-17$	Tpa	Plag-phyric andesite	11S	731058	3796776	
$CW-18$	Tmd	Diabase/Microdiorite	11 S	731576	3797115	

**Table 1.** Descriptions of samples collected for whole-rock geochemistry.



**Table 2.** Descriptions of samples collected for U-Pb zircon Geochronology.



**Figure 5.** Satellite image of the SW Whipple Mountains, showing the locations of samples collected for U-Pb zircon geochronology. Location of Savahia Peak and the approximate trace of the WDF are shown for reference (modified from Google Earth).

larger, rounded zircons were also sampled when present (Fig. 6). Zircon yield varied by rock type; felsic samples generally yielded ~100-200, dominantly euhedral grains, and several samples had well over 500 grains. Mafic samples had fewer zircons (0-30 grains), and were dominated by larger, rounded grains.

U-Pb data were collected using the LA-ICP-MS facility at UCSB (Cottle *et al.*, 2012, 2013). Instrumentation consisted of a Photon Machines 4-ns-pulse duration, 193-nm-wavelength ArF excimer laser attached to a Nu Plasma HR multicollector (MC) ICPMS set up to measure U, Th, and Pb isotope ratios. Analytical conditions used are as follows: Spot diameter of 24 µm, laser energy of 3–4 mJ, firing frequency of 4 Hz, and 75–100 shots per analysis. Data reduction, including corrections for baseline, instrumental drift, mass bias, and down-hole fractionation was carried out using Igor Pro and the plugin Iolite v. 2.1.3 (Paton et al., 2010). The primary reference material used was zircon "91500" (Wiedenbeck *et al*., 1995). This reference material was used to monitor and correct for instrumental drift, mass bias, and down-hole interelement fractionation.

Secondary zircon reference materials, "GJ-1" (Jackson *et al.*, 2004), "Plešovice" (Sláma *et al*., 2008), and "Peixe" (Dickinson and Gehrels, 2003) were analyzed at the beginning and end of each run and treated as unknowns to assess accuracy and precision within each analytical session. For "unknown" zircons, spots locations were chosen to avoid large cracks, and cathodoluminescence (CL) images were used to place spots within single CL-domains. Multiple spots were placed on zircons which contained a visible core and rim, sampling each domain (Fig. 7).

All uncertainties are quoted at  $2\sigma$  and include contributions from the reproducibility of the reference materials for 207Pb/206Pb, 206Pb/238U, and 207Pb/235U. A 207Pb/206Pb intercept of 0.837 (Stacey and Kramers, 1975) was used to calculate 207Pb-corrected intercept ages for analyses containing excess 'common lead'. All U-Pb data were plotted using the Isoplot Excel plugin, version 3.75 (Ludwig, 2012).

#### **RESULTS**



Figure 6. Cathodoluminescence (CL) images showing contrasts in zircon morphology that were observed within samples. A.) Euhedral zircons with well defined crystal faces and B.) rounded, irregular-shaped zircons. Effort was made to sample fresh, euhedral zircons that were free of cracks, however, many samples yielded abundant, large, rounded zircons.



Figure 7. CL images showing several examples of zircons which contained a clear core and rim. Laser spot locations were chosen to sample zircon cores and rims separately.

#### **Field Relationships**

#### *Geologic Mapping*

While it is recognized that dikes occur throughout much of the SW footwall, this study focuses on the portion of the dike swarm between Chambers Well Rd. and Savahia Peak, where the dikes are best exposed and the spatial distribution, range of compositions, and relative ages of dikes can be assessed. Here we present a 1:10,000-scale geologic map and structural data from this representative portion of the dike swarm (Fig. 8).

Exposures in this area consist of Proterozoic basement composed of quartzo-feldspathic banded gneisses, irregular pods of leucogranite, and amphibolite bodies, which are cut by a dense swarm of generally NNW striking Miocene dikes. Dikes here can be broadly divided into a suite of rhyolite dikes and a subordinate group of younger diabase dikes. The eastern portion of the map area, near Chambers Well Road, has generally subdued topographic relief and dikes here form a series of resistant N-S trending ridges. To the west, the dikes have less of a topographic expression and are exposed in the walls of steep-sided hills and washes. Dike density is highest in the eastern portion of the map area, and the dikes span the widest compositional range in this area. In the western half of the map area, just east of Savahia Peak, dikes are less abundant and are less compositionally diverse.

Dikes range from 0.5 to 10 m in thickness, and some individual dikes can be traced out for more than a kilometer along strike. Although mapped at a detailed scale, many thin and discontinuous dikes are not represented on the map. Thus, the map grossly underrepresents the total number of dikes and fails to capture the proportions of dikes to wall rock. For this reason, geologic mapping was supplemented with a series of 100 m long transects, measured perpendicular to dike margins, to document the relative proportions of dike and wall rock across the map area.

#### *Map Units*



114° 30'

Figure 8. Geologic map of a portion of the Chambers Well dike swarm, between Savahia peak and Chambers Well Rd. **Figure 8.** Geologic map of a portion of the Chambers Well dike swarm, between Savahia peak and Chambers Well Rd..

Most dikes can be easily be classified as belonging to one of the distinct map units, as there are clear contrasts in phenocryst assemblages and groundmass color between dikes. However, dikes with compositions that are transitional between groups were also observed. Additionally, two groups of more mafic dikes were identified; plag-phyric, sulfide-rich andesite and plg-hbl-cpx diabase. While these dikes are distinguishable in the coarse interiors of thicker dikes (>2m), thin, quenched, aphyric mafic dikes are common, and are difficult to confidently assign to either of the two groups (Fig. 9).

The host rock to the Chamber's Well dike swarm is dominantly comprised of Proterozoic, Quartzo-feldsoathic gneisses and numerous irregular amphibolite and leucogranite bodies. Because the focus of this study was the dike swarm itself, the basement rocks were left undifferentiated. The orientations of foliations within the Proterozoic basement were, however, recorded across the map area.

#### *Miocene Dikes:*

*Diabase/Microdiorite (Tmd):* Diabase dikes are generally thin (< 2m), dark weathering, and recessive, and ubiquitously cross-cut dikes of all other compositions within the map area. These dikes have more irregular geometries and are commonly exposed along the margins of dikes of other compositions. Tmd dikes range from nearly aphyric on the chilled margins to phaneritic in the coarsegrained centers of thicker dikes  $(> 1m)$ ; they contain phenocrysts of randomly oriented, milky white, euhedral plagioclase laths (30%) within a matrix of dark green/black anhedral, blocky hornblende  $(70\%)$ .

*Aphyric Rhyolite (Tar):* Tar dikes typically range from 2-4m thick, are light tan to white in color, and weather a deep red-brown. The dikes commonly show contorted, penetrative flow banding, and are nearly aphyric. Tar dike are generally sparse in the dike swarm, and crop out dominantly in the southeastern portion of the map area. There is an excellent exposure of a Tar dike cutting an older

rhyolite dike on the east side of southern Chambers Well Road. Both dikes in this outcrop are, in turn, cut by a Tmd dike. Tar dikes have a holocrystalline groundmass (98%) that is composed of very fine grained quartz and plagioclase, with ubiquitous secondary sericite oriented parallel to flow banding. Plagioclase is the only phenocryst (2%), and the sparse grains, which are 3-4mm in diameter, are highly sericitized.

*Quartz-Hornblende Rhyolite (Tqhr)*: T<sub>qhr</sub> dikes are commonly 2-4m thick, light gray to white, and form resistant ridges in the map area.  $T_{\text{qhr}}$  dikes are generally less abundant than dikes of other compositions.  $T_{\text{ghr}}$  dikes have phenocrysts of blocky, milky white plagioclase (27%) which are 2-3mm in diameter; 4-5mm rounded, clear quartz grains (9%); and 1-2mm, acicular to blocky, dark green, chloritized hornblende (4%). Phenocrysts are supported in a white to light tan, holocrystalline groundmass (60%) of plagioclase and quartz. Tqhr dikes look texturally and mineralogically similar to a suite of Plg-Hbl-Bt dacite dikes (Tchr) that are abundant throughout the map area, however,  $T_{\text{thr}}$ contain abundant, rounded quartz phenocrysts.

*K-Feldspar Rhyolite (Tkfr):* T<sub>kfr</sub> dikes are more resistant than most other dike compositions, and form several continuous, N-S trending ridges. The dikes are light gray to tan weathering and commonly 4- 6m thick. These dikes have phenocrysts, approximately 2-3mm in diameter, of milky white, blocky plagioclase (14%); blocky grains of pink sanidine which are surrounded by rims of milky white plagioclase (9%); fresh, platy, black biotite (4%); and black acicular to blocky hornblende (3%), all set in a dark gray, cryptocrystalline groundmass  $(70\%)$ . Tk $f_r$  dikes look very similar to biotitehornblende rhyolite dikes  $(Tfb<sub>r</sub>)$  which are widespread throughout the dike swarm. The presence of pink sanidine phenocrysts was used as a distinguishing feature of Tkfr dikes.

*Chloritized Hornblende Rhyolite (Tchr)*: A suite of light tan to white, resistant, ridge-forming, rhyolite dikes are ubiquitous throughout the Chambers Well dike swarm. These dikes have

phenocryst assemblages of 3-4mm, milky white, blocky plagioclase (33%); 1-3mm, platy, dark green, shreds of chloritized biotite (7%); 2-4mm, acicular to prismatic, dark green, chloritized hornblende (4%), and minor, 1-3mm, rounded, clear quartz (0.5%). Opaque minerals (Fe and Ti oxides) account for 2% of the rock volume, and the white to light gray, holocrystalline groundmass constitutes 53%. Tchr dikes commonly contain fine-grained andesite enclaves, and therefore provide clear evidence for magma mingling.

*Fresh Biotite Rhyolite (Tfbr)*: Dark to light gray, red-brown weathering, resistant, ridge-forming dacite dikes are one of the most abundant dike composition in the swarm and crop out throughout the entire map area. The dikes contain phenocrysts of milky-white, blocky, zoned plagioclase (23%); fresh, black euhedral biotite tabs (4%); and dark gray-green, acicular to blocky hornblende (3%). The dikes have a groundmass (70%) consisting of fine grained plagioclase laths and biotite shreds, which ranges from holocrystalline in the interior of dikes to cryptocrystalline/glassy on the chilled margins of dikes.

*Plag-phyric Andesite (Tpa):* Dark gray to black andesite dikes, 2-4m-thick, are commonly exposed along the margins of other dikes, dominantly in the eastern half of the map area. The coarse-grained interiors of  $T_{pa}$  dikes are composed of 0.25-3mm, fresh, translucent white, plagioclase (64%); 0.1-2mm, blocky, dark green to black, hornblende (19%); and abundant, 0.1mm, shreds of dark brown biotite (12%). In thin section, hornblende has partially replaced clinopyroxene. Thin Tpa dikes are commonly quenched throughout and aphanitic, and are difficult to distinguish from similarly quenched Tmd dikes. Sulfides, however, 1-4mm in diameter, are common in Tpa dikes and were used as a diagnostic feature.

*Porphyritic Plag Dacite (Tppd):* Tppd dikes are restricted to the western portion of the map area and are generally exposed in washes within areas of low relief. Tppd dikes range in color from dark gray

to a weathered red brown and contain large (5mm), blocky, milky white plagioclase phenocrysts which gives this rock its distinctive porphyritic texture. Mafic phases in Tppd dikes include biotite and hornblende, but vary in modal abundances. Tppd dikes commonly contain black, nearly aphyric andesitic enclaves with crenulate margins. When these enclaves are present, the groundmass of Tppd dikes is generally darker gray, and the dikes contain abundant fresh, black biotite. Locally these dikes also contain sanidine which occurs replacing plagioclase.

#### *Proterozoic Basement:*

*Proterozoic basement and younger intrusions (undifferentiated) (pЄ):* Proterozoic quartzo-feldspathic gneisses, discontinuous amphibolite bodies, and several younger leucocratic intrusions compose the country rock to the Chambers Well dikes. The light to dark grey and green weathering quartzofeldspathic gneisses have a steeply NE-dipping foliation that is locally mylonitic and defined by aligned biotite that is commonly replaced by chlorite. These relatively high temperature fabrics, evidenced by polygonal quartz grain boundaries, are interpreted to be Proterozoic in age and not a product of Miocene extension and detachment faulting. Dark gray to black weathering, discontinuous amphibolite bodies generally do not have a penetrative fabric, which is likely due to the lack of micas or other platy minerals.

#### *Relative Ages of Dikes*

The dikes in the Chambers Well Swarm share a common NNE-SSW strike, and examples where one dike clearly cuts across another are not common. Even so, there are a number of outcrops where clear cross-cutting relationships can be observed. The most prevalent and consistent examples of such are Tmd dikes which ubiquitously crosscut dikes of all other compositions. The thin diabase dikes are commonly exposed along the margins of other dikes, where both dikes appear mutually quenched against one another. However, in many locations Tmd dikes cut across older rhyolite dikes,

and give an unambiguous relative age relationship (Fig. 10). This relationship was observed consistently throughout the map area, and a rhyolite dike was never observed cutting a Tmd dike.

An aphyric rhyolite (Tar) dike was observed cutting across a fresh biotite rhyolite (Tfbr) in an outcrop along the southern portion of Chambers Well Rd. Both dikes in this outcrop are in turn cut by a Tmd dike. In multiple locations, chloritized hornblende dacite dikes (Tchr) cut across Tfbr dikes. Plag-phyric andesite dikes (Tpa) were commonly observed with irregular, discontinuous map traces, as they were cut by numerous other dikes. In unambiguous cases, where the relative ages of dikes could be confidently assessed, Tmd dikes were always the youngest, followed by Tar, Tchr, Tfbr, and then Tpa. There were many instances, however, where these age relationships were called into question but the limited exposure prevented an adequate assessment of their relative ages. Additionally, age relationships between other dike compositions (Tkfs, Tqchr, and Tppd) were unable to be confidently established by field relationships.

#### *Structural Data*

Across the SW footwall of the WDF, dikes consistently strike NNW-SSE and dips range from 20°-90°, with a mean dike orientation of 343/53 (Fig. 11). There is no clear difference in the orientation of dikes by composition, instead dike dips vary by E-W position in the dike swarm (Fig. 12). Just east of CW road, dikes are generally near vertical and progressively grade to more gentle dips toward the west (Fig. 13). Outside of the map area, west of Savahia Peak, dikes have much less consistent orientations and, in general are gently dipping (Fig. 14). To the east of the map area, exposure is generally poor, however, from the limited data collected in this area, it appears that dikes dip steeply to the WSW.

Dike margins are generally poorly exposed throughout the entire map area, and their dips often vary 10-20˚ along an individual dike. It should be noted that while the dikes are relatively planar, measurements reflect only their local orientations. Additionally, steeply dipping, ridge forming dikes are preferentially exposed throughout the map area, as the margins of more gently



**Figure 9.** Photomicrographs of a range of textures obserevd in thin section. A.) Plane polarized light (PPL) photomicrograph of a Tfbr dike with distinctive "fresh" biotite and blocky plag phenocrysts. B.) Tmd dike with characteristic, randomly oriented plag laths and interstitial hornblende (PPL). C.) A cross-polarized light (XPL) image of a Tkfr dike with large phenocrysts of plag and K-feldspar set in a very fine grained groundmass. D.) Tar dike with a single, highly sericitized plag phenocryst (PPL). Abbreviations: Plg- Plagioclase, Bio- Biotite, Hbl- Hornblende, Ksp- K-feldpsar



**Figure 10.** Field photograph showing a Tmd dike unambiguously cutting across a Tchr dike. The margins of the Tmd dike are quenched up against the coarse grained interior of the Tchr dike.



**Figure 12.** Lower hemisphere stereonet projection showing poles to dikes, separated by composition. There is no statistical difference between the mean orientation of dikes from each map unit.



Figure 13. Cross section A-A' showing the distribution of dike compositions and range of orientations across the Chambers Well dike swarm. The<br>Iocation of Chambers Well Road is shown for reference. location of Chambers Well Road is shown for reference. **Figure 13.** Cross section A-A' showing the distribution of dike compositions and range of orientations across the Chambers Well dike swarm. The

dipping dikes are commonly concealed by talus. This likely resulted in a bias toward more steeply dipping dikes that were measured.

Foliation attitudes in the Proterozoic basement vary locally, however, generally strike to the northeast and dip steeply to the southeast (Fig. 15). Dikes clearly cut sharply across the basement foliation throughout the map area.

Minor attention was given to dikes below the mylonitic front, which lies  $\sim$ 2 km east of the map area. Several dikes in this area contain a penetrative mylonitic fabric and have contacts which are concordant with the steeply west-dipping mylonitic foliation of the surrounding wall rock. While compositionally similar to the Chambers Well dikes, U-Pb zircon ages from these deformed intrusions were distinctly older than the rest of the dike swarm (75 Ma -1800 Ma), and therefore, their orientations are not addressed here.

#### *Across-Strike Transects*

Five, detailed, 100 m-long, across-strike transects were measured within the map area; results are summarized in figure 16. The transects show an impressive density of dikes, with dike-to-wall rock ratios ranging from 0.93 to 2.60, and account for many thin and discontinuous dikes which are unable to be represented on the 1:10,000-scale map. Assuming that the dikes were emplaced by the dilation of extensional fractures, this would imply an approximately 100-250% extension across the map area ( $\beta$ = 2-3.5). Tpba dikes represent the most abundant dike composition (39%), followed by Tfbd (30%), Tchd (18%), and Tmd (10%). Measured proportions of dike compositions in 100 m transects are consistent with the estimated relative abundances of dike composition based on field observations.

#### **Geochemistry**

In addition to classification of the dikes based on their phenocryst assemblages, major and trace elements were measured from each representative map unit, excluding Tppd. While there is



Figure 14. Plot of dip angle vs. E-W position in the dike swarm for A.) dike orientations collected across the entire footwall (n= 502) and B.) data collected within the map area (n= 315). Dikes which crop out between Savahia Peak and Chambers Well Rd. show a linear decrease in dip angle from east to west, while dikes west of Savahia Peak have more irregular orientations.



**Figure 15.** Lower hemisphere stereonet projection showing contoured poles to foliations in proterozoic basement rocks (C.I.= 2 σ, n= 169). Foliations are locally variable throughout the map area, but dominantly dip to the ENE. While the mean foliation orientation is similar to the mean dike orinetation, dikes clearly cut across foliations in the proterozoic host rock.



**Figure 16.** Schematic representation of five across-strike transects that were measured within the map area, perpendicular to dike margins.<br>Bright colors represent various dike compositions, while proterozoic host rock is each transect, range from 0.93 to 2.60 and imply between ~200-350% extension that was accomodated by the emplacement of the dike swarm. Bright colors represent various dike compositions, while proterozoic host rock is shown in white. Dike-to-host rock ratios, shown to the right of **Figure 16.** Schematic representation of five across-strike transects that were measured within the map area, perpendicular to dike margins.

clear evidence of secondary k-feldpsar, sericite, chlorite, and epidote, whole rock compositions appear reasonable for the observed phenocryst assemblages and are taken to represent magmatic compositions.

The dikes have silica contents ranging from  $54-77\%$ , with most samples containing  $>70\%$ SiO2. Major oxides (Al2O3, CaO, P2O5, MgO, K2O, and Na2O) generally show linear correlations with silica content, and are broadly compatible with a petrogenesis involving significant mixing between a mafic (basaltic) and silicic (crustal?) end member (Fig. 17). On a total alkali vs. silica (TAS) plot, samples generally cluster near the dacite rhyolite boundary with the exception of Tpa and Tmd, which fall in the andesite and basaltic andesite fields, respectively (Fig. 18). The two mafic samples are distinctly separate from rhyolite samples, and there is a lack of samples that are transitional between the two groups.

Samples are generally enriched in the strongly incompatible, large-ion lithophile (LIL) elements by  $\sim$ 10-120x, relative to MORB (Pearce and Parkinson, 1993), and show less enrichment in the more compatible, high field strength (HFS) elements (Fig. 19). All samples have negative phosphorus and titanium anomalies, but are more pronounced in high-silica samples.

Samples are generally enriched in rare earth elements (REE) relative to chondritic values (McDonough and Sun, 1995), with light rare earth elements (LREE) enriched by  $\sim$  50-200x, while light rare earths (HREE) are enriched by 5-12x. REE abundances generally decrease with increasing SiO2 content. REE patterns are characterized by a negative slope, with La/Yb ranging from 5 to 32, and a pronounced europium anomaly (Fig. 20). Enrichment factors and slopes of REE patterns are consistent with those reported by Anderson and Cullers (1990) for the Chambers Well dikes, however, we observe a clear europium anomaly that was not noted by previous studies.

#### **Geochronology**

Samples commonly contain a small proportion of zircons that are Mesozoic though Proterozoic in age, which are interpreted to be inherited from the surrounding wall rock. The dikes



Figure 17. Harker diagrams of weight percent of six major oxides vs. SiO2 in a suite of samples from the Chambers Well dike swarm. Samples generally form linear trends, compatible with a cogenetic history. No correlation exists between wt. % Na2O and SiO2 which may be the result of Na mobility during secondary hydrothermal alteration. The graph of Al2O3 contains an inflection at an SiO2 content of approximately 70%, and likely reflects crystallization of biotite.



**Figure 18.** Graph of wt. % total alkalis (K2O + Na2O) vs. wt .% SiO2 for a suite of representative samples, showing the range of compositions in the Chambers Well dike swarm. Dikes primarily plot in the rhyolite field with SiO2 >70%, however, two more mafic dikes that were sampled fall in the andesite and basaltic andesite fields.



**Figure 19.** MORB-normalized plot of a series of trace elements, arranged by decreasing incompatibility. All samples are enriched in the highly incompatible elements, and show a decreased enrichment to slight depletion in the more compatible elements (normalized to Pearce and Parkinson, 1993).

contain mainly Miocene zircons, however, within a single sample, these younger zircons commonly do not form a coherent population (Fig. 21). There is no correlation between apparent age and uranium content in the youngest (Miocene) zircons within a single sample, suggesting that the range in zircon ages is not the result of lead loss (Fig. 22). It is apparent, however, that based on crosscutting relationships established in the field, relatively younger dikes show an increased spread of Miocene-aged zircons (Fig. 23). This is interpreted to represent the combined effects of recycling of zircons from earlier dike/magmatic events and the crystallization of younger zircons with each period of dike formation. Reported dike ages were calculated by omitting slightly older, inherited zircons, and only using the youngest coherent population of zircons from each sample. There is an inherent uncertainty in this method of age calculation, particularly in zirconium-poor rocks, because it relies on the youngest, primary zircons being sampled. This error is amplified by a large statistical uncertainty on the age which is calculated from generally few data points (Fig. 24).

Samples range in age from 18.75-20.1 Ma, and there is no spatial trend in dike ages. The youngest sample from which an age was calculated, also has the highest SiO<sub>2</sub> content, however, at the current resolution there is no clear correlation between age and silica content. Dikes of similar composition and that were assigned to the same map unit, were sampled in various portions of the map area, but yielded ages outside of analytical error of on another. This suggests that dike composition may not be a proxy for age, and instead, dikes of varying compositions were emplaced continuously from 20.12 to 18.75 Ma (Fig. 25). This would imply that there are not consistent relative age relationships between dikes of different compositions, or at least that can be resolved at the current sampling resolution.

Repeated attempts to date diabase dikes (Tmd) were unsuccessful, as samples did not yield any Miocene zircons. Samples were collected from diabase dikes that clearly cross-cut aphyric rhyolite dikes, and therefore must be younger than  $\sim$ 18.75 Ma. The exact age of this younger suite of dikes is unknown.



**Figure 20.** Whole-rock, chondrite normalized, rare earth element (REE) spiderdiagram for six dikes. All samples show a similar REE pattern with a negative slope (La/Yb= 5 to 32) and pronounced Eu anomoly (Normalized to McDonough and Sun, 1995).



**Figure 21.** U-Pb concordia diagram showing the range of zircon ages within a single representative rhyolite dike. Most samples contain numerous Proterozoic and Mesozoic zircons, interpreted to have been inherited from the basement rocks that host the dike swarm, and a group of younger Miocence zircons (shown in inset) which record crystallization of the dikes. Ages along concordia are shown in Ma.



**Figure 22.** Tera-Wasserburg diagram showing zircon analyses from a representative rhyolite dike. Elipses represent analyses of individual zircons, including a 2σ error, and are colored by approximate uranium content. Zircons do not form a coherent population and the range in apparent ages cannot be explained by lead loss (high uranium content in younger zircons).



**Figure 23.** Apparent zircon ages in four samples, for which relative ages are known based on cross cutting relationships. Each bar represents a corrected age from a single analysis  $\pm 2\sigma$ . Analyses are grouped and colored by sample, and samples are aranged by relative age. Younger samples show an increased spread in zircon ages. The oldest and youngest zircons within a sample lie outside of analytical error of one another, and cannot represent a single population. The wide range in zircon ages in young samples is attributed to recycling of zircons from older dikes, and therefore, the youngest zircons within a sample record crystallization.



**Figure 24.** Tera-Wasserburg diagram showing the youngest coherent population of zircons within a sample from a rhyolite dike. The oldest analyses were omitted (light gray ellipses) until a permissible MSWD ( $\approx$  1) was achieved. This method only leaves 14 analyses (filled blue ellipses), from an original 43, that are used in an age calculation, resulting in a large internal uncertainty.



**Figure 25.** 207Pb Corrected ages of all samples from the Chambers Well dikes. Samples are colored by map unit and arranged schematically by sample location (E-W). Error bars include contributions from internal standard error and external, long-term reproducibility. At the current resolution, dike ages do not vary spatially, and instead span the entire interval from 18.75 to 20.12 Ma. Dikes which were assigned to the same map unit yield varying ages that lie outside of analytical error of one another, suggesting that there were multiple periods of emplacement of dikes with similar compositions.

Additionally, the two 'upper plate' dikes that were sampled west of the map area yielded ages that fall within the same age distribution as the Chambers Well dikes (Table 3).

#### **DISCUSSION**

#### **Amount of Intrusive Dilation**

The dikes in the Chamber Well swarm have sharp, quenched, planar margins and lack any wall rock xenoliths which suggests that they were emplaced primarily through the dilation of extensional fractures and not by wall rock assimilation (Rubin, 1995). The dikes are exceptionally abundant in the portion of the swarm near Chambers Well Rd., and the amount of dike rock far exceeds the amount of wall rock in many locations. Many dikes were intruded along the contacts of other dikes, similar to sheeted dike complexes at mid ocean ridges. Furthermore, many rhyolite dikes contain abundant andesite enclaves, and numerous "hybrid" dikes were observed which were transitional to the designated lithologic map units. Together these observations argue for a large composite magma system that was active in the western Whipple Mountains from approximately 20.12-18.75 Ma. This magma system sourced the Chambers Well dikes, which cumulatively account for roughly 5-7 km of extension that was accommodated through the intrusive dilation of extensional fractures.

An approximately 1 km-thick package of intermediate to felsic lavas is exposed in the western Whipple Mountains and Mopah Range, in the upper plate of the WDF. This volcanic section dips uniformly  $~60^\circ$  to the north east, and is unconformably overlain by the gently-dipping Peach Springs Tuff (18.5 Ma) and younger units (Fig. 26) (Gans and Fidler, personal communication). This angular unconformity closely brackets the timing of extensional faulting and tilting within the upper plate of the WDF to between 19.0 and 18.5 Ma. These relationships suggest that from 20.2 to 19.0 Ma, magmatic extension was the primary mechanism by which extension was accommodated, but quickly transitioned to tectonic extension dominated by upper crustal normal faulting and block rotation between 19.0 and 18.5 Ma. The pervasive magmatism from 20.1 to 18.75 Ma may have

<b>Sample ID</b>	<b>Map Unit</b>	$Age \pm 2\sigma$	<b>MSWD</b>	<b>Sample Location (UTM)</b>			
$CW-01$	Tfbr	$19.72 \pm 0.40$	1.6	Chambers Well map area	11S	731571	3795029
$CW-02$	Tpa	$19.15 \pm 0.40$	2.2	Chambers Well map area	11 S	731571	3795029
$CW-04$	Tar	$18.75 \pm 0.38$	1.03	Chambers Well map area	11S	731571	3795029
$CW-05$	Tchr	$18.93 \pm 0.39$	1.3	Chambers Well map area	11 S	731530	3796092
$CW-07$	Tkfr	$19.51 \pm 0.39$	1.9	Chambers Well map area	11S	730971	3796729
$CW-21$	Tchr	$20.12 \pm 0.40$	2.7	Chambers Well map area	11S	729728	3793948
$KFC-02$	Tppd	$19.76 \pm 0.40$	1.3	Chambers Well map area	11 S	730528	3795111
$KFC-03$	Tfbr	$19.85 \pm 0.40$	1.2	Chambers Well map area	11S	730613	3795071
$KFC-05$	Tfbr	$19.92 \pm 0.40$	1.12	Chambers Well map area	11 S	730748	3795092
$KFC-06$	Tpa	$19.47 \pm 0.40$	1.8	Chambers Well map area	11S	730814	3795072
$KFC-07$	Tpa	$19.87 \pm 0.42$	1.9	Chambers Well map area	11S	730960	3795003
$WFW-03$	Tchr	$19.23 \pm 0.39$	1.2	"Upper plate" dike	11S	718855	3799199
<b>WFW-04</b>	Tchr	$19.45 \pm 0.40$	0.99	"Upper plate" dike	11S	718342	3799194
<b>WFW-06</b>	Tchr	$19.55 \pm 0.40$	1.7	Western footwall	11 S	725686	3797100

**Table 3.** Summary of U-Pb zircon geochronology. Reported erros include contributions from both the internal standard error and an additional 2% uncertainty to account for the long-term reproducibility of secondary standards at the UCSB LA-ICP-MS facility.



**Figure 26.** Schematic cross section of the upper plate volcanic stratigraphy of the Western Whipple Mountains and Mopah range. The Chambers Well dikes closely match the ages and compositional ranges of the steeply-dipping "pre-extensional" volcanics, which are unconformably overlain by the gently-dipping Peach Springs Tuff (PST) and a younger, syn/post-extensional mafic "capping sequence" (Fidler, unpublished).

triggered this abrupt transition by thermally weakening the crust. Alternatively, it might instead reflect an abrupt increase in the regional strain rate, such that magmatic inflation could no longer keep pace.

#### **Correlation with Upper Plate Units**

 We propose that the Chambers Well dikes are the feeders to the thick volcanic section exposed in the adjacent "upper plate" portions of the southwest Whipple Mountains and nearby Mopah Range, roughly 10 km to the west of the Chambers Well map area (Fig. 27). The kilometerthick accumulation of andesite to rhyolite lava flows and domes is the only volcanic section of similar age in the region that is dominated by felsic lavas, and represents a clear candidate for the eruptive counterparts of the rhyolite-dominated Chambers Well dike swarm. Geochemical analyses of the dikes and representative lava flows demonstrates that they span identical compositional ranges (Fig. 28).

Furthermore, an approximately  $8 \text{ km}^2$  exposure of Proterozoic gneisses and amphibolites, similar to the basement rocks in the Chambers Well area was identified in the upper plate of the WDF, ~10km northwest of the map area. The basement rocks are intruded by a number of felsic dikes, which resemble Tchr dikes in the Chambers Well swarm. Mean weighted zircon ages from these dikes are  $19.23 \pm 0.39$  and  $19.45 \pm 0.40$  (MSWD = 1.2 and 0.99, respectively), suggesting that these dikes are in fact members of the Chambers Well dike swarm.

These correlations suggest that the upper plate of the WDF that is exposed in the SW Whipple Mountains and Mopah Range, could not have been transported large distances. While other have proposed that the WDF in the eastern portion of the range has accommodated approximately 40 km of NE-directed slip, our interpretation argues that the western portion of the WDF has not accommodated large amounts, if any, northeast-directed displacement since approximately 20.2 Ma. For this reason, we also question whether the gently-dipping fault separating the Miocene volcanic



Figure 27. Satellite image of the Whipple Mountains MCC and surrounding ranges, highlighting the locations of the Chambers Well dike<br>swarm and upper plate lava flows which have similar ages and compositions to the dikes. from Google Earth). from Google Earth). this volcanic section, it would imply that there has been very little, if any, NW-directed slip on the western WDF since ~20 Ma (Modified swarm and upper plate lava flows which have similar ages and compositions to the dikes. If the Chambers Well dikes were the feeders to **Figure 27.** Satellite image of the Whipple Mountains MCC and surrounding ranges, highlighting the locations of the Chambers Well dike



**Figure 28.** TAS diagram showing the compositional similarities between the Chambers Well dikes and lava flows of similar age in the Mopah Range and Western Whipple Mountains. All of the upper plate samples plot in the high-alkali portions of the andesite, dacite, and rhyolite fields, with the majority of samples clustered near the rhyolite-dacite boundary. Similar to the Chambers Well dikes, andesite lavas form a discrete cluster, separate from the dacites and rhyolites. Three samples from the upper plate volcanic sequence plot in the trachyandesite field, above the other andesite samples, but contain similar SiO2 contents (56-60%). These samples have clear signs of secondary potassic alteration, thus, their magmatic compositions are likely similar to other andesite samples (upper plate data from Gans and Fidler, unpublished).

section in the SW Whipple and Mopah Range from exposures of the "footwall" near the Chambers Well study area is the same structure as the WDF mapped in the eastern portion of the range.

#### **Constraints on the Magnitude and Timing of Footwall Rotation**

The fan-shaped geometry of the Chambers Well dike swarm was first noted by Davis *et al.*  (1982). They recognized that the dikes dip inward about an axis of sub-vertical dikes, near Chambers Well Road, and speculated that the swarm's geometry may be the result of a N-S trending, linear pluton at depth. In this model, the dikes were emplaced analogously to inward-dipping cone sheets of Anderson (1937). In the Chambers Well dike swarm, however, the fan's axis of symmetry is inclined approximately 53˚ to the SW, as opposed to vertical as in Anderson's model. If the dikes were emplaced radiating from an elongate, compositionally zoned magma body, the asymmetry of the present-day fan suggests that the swarm may have been rotated to the southwest after emplacement of the dikes (Fig. 29).The axis of this fan is oriented approximately 343/53, and is not parallel to the rotation axis suggested by upper plate tilt axes (310˚) and the regional extension direction (040˚) (Gans, personal communication). Therefore, the dip angles of dikes do not account for the total tectonic tilting. Dikes which strike NW, perpendicular to the axis of rotation, are more highly rotated while dikes which strike N-S show less tilting. Assuming that the dikes were emplaced symmetrically about an axis of vertical dikes and that rotation occurred about a horizontal axis, parallel to the strike of upper plate strata and the WDF, ~40˚ of SW rotation is required to restore the axis of symmetry of the dike swarm to vertical. This implies that the WDF initially dipped more steeply to the NE  $(\sim40-$ 50˚) and was rotated to its gently-dipping orientation, in agreement with Anderson's theory of faulting (Anderson, 1905).

The dips of hanging wall strata constrain any major tilting to between 18.5 and 19.0 Ma, an interval which also corresponds to the final stages of intrusion in the Chambers Well swarm, with the emplacement of aphyric rhyolite dikes  $\left(\sim 18.75 \text{ Ma}\right)$  and a suite of younger diabase dikes  $\left(\sim 18.75 \text{ Ma}\right)$ Ma). Nine, steeply-dipping, aphyric rhyolite dikes were mapped in the eastern portion of the dike



Figure 29. Schematic NE-SW cross section from Savahia Peak to the mylonite front, showing the inward-dipping fan geometry of the dike swarm.<br>The axis of symmetry of the fan of dikes is inclined ~30° to the SW. Assuming tha sub-vertical dikes, similar to the inward-dipping cone sheets of Anderson (1937), this would imply that the dike swarm has been rotated to the SW. The axis of symmetrically and action is inclined associated for the SW. Assuming that the SW. Assuming the SW. Assummetrically about an axis of a series is interfaced symmetrically about and  $\sim$ **Figure 29.** Schematic NE-SW cross section from Savahia Peak to the mylonite front, showing the inward-dipping fan geometry of the dike swarm.

swarm and may document only the final stages of tilting. Diabase dikes, however, must have been emplaced after any major tilting but were intruded along the contacts of pre-existing dikes, leading to a range of orientations (Fig. 30). This explanation for the range of dike orientations in the Chambers Well swarm argues for 40° of CCW rotation of the southwestern footwall of the WDF, about a horizontal axis trending 310°, between 19.0 and 18.5 Ma. Removing this rotation restores the subhorizontal, western segment of the WDF to an approximately 40<sup>°</sup> dip, in agreement with Andersonian fault mechanics. Additionally, the steeply west-dipping mylonite front is restored to gently dipping  $(\sim 15^{\circ})$  (Fig. 31).

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

The Chambers Well dike swarm is an impressive suite of basaltic andesite through rhyolite dikes which intruded the lower plate of the Whipple Detachment fault between 20.1 and 18.75 Ma. In the portion of the dike swarm near Chambers Well Road, the amount of dike rock exceeds the amount of wall rock, implying that >100% extension was accommodated by intrusion of the dikes. Applied across the 4km wide map area, the dikes account for >2km of WNW-ESE extension. The Chambers Well dikes closely match the ages and compositional ranges of lava flows exposed locally in SW Whipple Mountains and Mopah Range, and are likely the feeders to this thick volcanic succession. This relationship implies that there has been minimal, if any, northwest-directed slip on the southwestern portion of the WDF since  $\sim$  20Ma. The hundreds of dikes and kilometer-thick volcanic section are evidence of short-lived, but intense magmatism in the SW Whipple Mountains from 20.1 to 18.75 Ma, immediately prior to extensional faulting and tilting of upper plate strata. This voluminous magmatism may have played an active role in the early stages of extension through the thermal weakening of the crust, and was closely followed by extensional faulting and tilting of upper plate strata. Finally, the asymmetric fan-shaped geometry of the Chambers Well dike swarm suggests that the southwestern footwall of the WDF may have been tilted  $\sim 40^\circ$  to the SW between 19.0 and 18.5 Ma, implying that the WDF initiated with a much steeper dip (~40-50˚).



**Figure 30.** Lower hemisphere stereonet projection of poles to A.) all dikes in the Chambers Well swarm, excluding Tmd dikes (n=225, C.I.= 3σ, signif. level= 3σ) and B.) Tmd dikes (n= 90, C.I. = 2σ, signif. level=  $3\sigma$ ). Tmd dikes are commonly exposed along the margins of other dikes, and their orientations during emplacement were likely controlled by pre-existing dikes. Thus, their orientations generally match those of the rest of the Chambers Well dikes. Tmd dikes, however, also show more variation in orientations, and is likely the result of the dikes intruding locally along other pre-existing weaknesses (foliations, fractures, etc.).



**Figure 31.** Lower hemisphere stereonet projection showing the restored orientations of the WDF, mean dike orientation, and mylonite front after 40° of clockwise rotation about a horizontal axis, parallel to strike of the WDF (310°). The mean dike orientation is restored to sub vertical, the WDF to steeply NE-dipping, and the mylonite front to sub-horizontal. The restored orientations of the dikes and WDF more closely match the orientations predicted by classical Andersonian rock mechanics, and argues for a sub-horizontal boundary for the upper limit of mylonitization.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Abers, G.A., Mutter, C.Z., and Fang, J., 1997, Shallow dips of normal faults during rapid extension: Earthquakes in the Woodlark-D'Entrecasteaux rift system, Papua New Guinea. Journal of Geophysical Research v. 102, p. 15,301-15,317.
- Anderson, E.M., 1937, The dynamics of the formation of cone-sheets, ring-dykes, and caldronsubsidences. Proceedings of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, v. 56, p. 128-157.
- Anderson, E. M., 1905, The dynamics of faulting. Transactions of the Edinburgh Geological Society, v. 8(3), p. 387-402.
- Anderson, J.L., and Cullers, R.L., 1990, Middle to upper crustal plutonic construction of a magmatic arc; An example from the Whipple Mountains metamorphic core complex. Geological Society of America Memoir v. 174, p. 47-70.
- Coney, P. F., 1980, Cordilleran metamorphic core complexes: An overview, in Crittenden, M. D., Jr.,
- Coney, P. F., and Davis, G. H., eds., 1980, Cordilleran metamorphic core complexes. Geological Society of America Memoir v. 153, p. 7–31.
- Coney, P.J., and Harms, T.A., 1984, Cordilleran metamorphic core complexes: Cenozoic extensional relics of Mesozoic compression. Geology v. 12, p. 550-554.
- Cottle, J.M., Burrows, A.J., Kylander-Clark, A.R.C., Freedman, P.A., and Cohen, R., 2013, Enhanced sensitivity in laser ablation multi-collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry: Journal of Analytical Atomic Spectrometry, v. 28, p. 1700–1706.
- Cottle, J.M., Kylander-Clar, A.R.C., and Vrijmoed, J.C., 2012, U-Th/Pb geochronology of detrital zircon and monazite by single shot laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (SS-LA- ICPMS): Chemical Geology, v. 332–333, p. 136–147.
- Davis, G.A. and Lister, G.S., 1988, Detachment faulting in continental extension; perspectives from the southwestern U.S. Cordillera: in Clark, S.P., Jr., et al., eds., Processes in continental lithosphere deformation: Geological Society of America Special Paper 218, p. 133-159
- Davis, G.A., Anderson, J.L., Marin, D.L., Krummenacher, D., Frost, E. G., and Armstrong R.L., 1982, Geologic and geochronologic relations in the lower plate of the Whipple detachment fault, Whipple Mountains, southeastern California: a progress report: Mesozoic-Cenozoic tectonic evolution of the Colorado River region, California, Arizona, and Nevada, April 1982, p. 409-412.
- Davis, G. A., Anderson, J. L., Frost, E. G., and Shackelford, T. J., 1980, Mylonitization and detachment faulting in the Whipple-Buckskin-Rawhide Mountains terrane, southeastern California and western Arizona, in Crittenden, M. D., Coney, P. J., and Davis, G. H., eds., Cordilleran metamorphic core complexes: Geological Society of America Memoir v. 153, p. 79–129.
- DeWitt, E.; Sutter, J.F.; Davis, G.A.; Anderson, J.L., 1986, 40Ar/ 39Ar age-spectrum dating of Miocene mylonitic rocks, Whipple Mountains, southeastern California: Abstracts with Programs, Geological Society of America v.18.6, p. 584.
- Dickinson, W.R., Gehrels, G.E., 2003. U–Pb ages of detrital zircons from Permian and Jurassic eolian sandstones of the Colorado Plateau, USA; paleogeographic implications. Sedimentary Geology v. 163 (1–2), p. 29–66.
- Howard, K.A, Nielson, J.E., Wilshire, H.G, Nakata, J.K., Goodge, J.W., Reneau, S.L., John, B.E., and Hansen, V.L., 1999, Geologic map of the Mohave Mountains area, Mohave County, western Arizona. US Geological Survey, Miscellaneous Investigations Series, Map I-2308.
- Howard, K. A., and John, B. E., 1987, Crustal extension along a rooted system of imbricate low-angle faults; Colorado River extensional corridor, California and Arizona. Geological Society Special Publications v. 28, p. 299-311.
- Howard, K.A., Goodge, J.W., and John, B.E., 1982a, Detached crystalline rocks of the Mohave, Buck, and Bill Williams Mountains, western Arizona, in Frost, E.G., and Martin, D.L., eds., Mesozoic-Cenozoic Tectonic Evolution of the Colorado River Region, California, Arizona, and Nevada: San Diego, Calif., Cordilleran Publishers p. 377–390.
- Jackson, J. A., and White, N. J., 1989, Normal faulting in the upper continental crust: Journal of Structural Geology v. 11, p. 15-36.
- Jackson, J. A., 1987, Active normal faulting and crustal extension, in Coward, M. P., Dewey, J. F., and Hancock, P. L., eds., Continental extensional tectonics: Geological Society of London Special Publication v. 28, p. 3-17.
- Jackson, J. A., and McKenzie, D., 1983, The geometrical evolution of normal fault systems: Journal of Structural Geology v. 5, p. 471-482.
- Jackson, S.E., Pearson, N.J., Griffen, W.L., and Belousova, E.A., 2004. The application of laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry to in situ U-Pb zircon geochronology. Chemical Geology v. 211, p. 47–69.
- Johnson, D.M., Hooper, P.R., and Conrey, R.M., 1999, XRF analysis of rocks and minerals for Major and Trace elements on a single low dilution Li-tetraborate fused bead. JCPDS-International Centre for Diffraction Data.
- Leeman, W.P. and Harry, D.L., 1993. A binary source model for extension-related magmatism in the Great Basin, Western North America. Science v. 262, p. 1550-1554.
- Ludwig, K.R., 2012, Isoplot/Ex, v.3.75. Berkeley Geochronology Center Special Publication, no. 5.
- Nakata, J.K., 1982, Preliminary report on diking events in the Mohave Mountains, Arizona in Frost, E.G. and Martin, D.L., eds., Mesozoic–Cenozoic Tectonic Evolution of the Colorado River Region, California, Arizona, and Nevada: San Diego, Calif., Cordilleran Publishers p. 85–90.
- Nielson, J. E., and Beratan, K. K., 1990, Tertiary basin development and tectonic implications, Whipple detachment system, Colorado River extensional corridor, California and Arizona. Journal of Geophysical Research v. 95, p. 599-614.
- Paton, C., Hellstom, J., Paul, B., Woodhead, J., and Hergt, J., 2011, Iolite: Freeware for the visualization and processing of mass spectrometric data. Journal of Analytical Atomic Spectrometry v. 26, p. 2508-2518.
- Pearce, J.A., Parkinson, I.J, 1993, Trace element models for mantle melting: application to volcanic arc petrogenesis. Geological Society, London Special Publications v. 76, p. 373-403.
- Reynolds, S. J., and Spencer, J. E., 1985, Evidence for large-scale transport on the Bullard detachment fault, west-central Arizona. Geology 13(5), p. 353-356.
- Rubin, A.M., 1995, Propagation of Magma-Filled Cracks: Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences, v. 23, p. 287-336.
- Slama, J., Kosler, J., Condon, D.J., Crowley, J.L., Gerdes, A., Hanchar, J.M., Horstwood, M.S.A. Morris, G.A., Nasdala, L., Norberg, N., Schaltegger, U., Schoene, B., Tubrett, M.N., and Whitehouse, M.J., 2008, Plešovice zircon- A new natural reference material for U-Pb and Hf isotopic microanalysis. Chemical Geology v. 249, p. 1-35.
- Spencer, J.E.; Richard, S.M.; Reynolds, S.J.; Miller, R.J.; Shafiqullah, M.; Gilbert, W.G.; and Grubensky, M.J, 1995, Spatial and temporal relationships between mid-Tertiary magmatism and extension in southwestern Arizona. Journal of Geophysical Research v. 100, p. 10321- 10351.
- Stacey, J.S., and Kramers, J.D., 1975, Approximation of terrestrial lead isotope evolution by a twostage model: Earth and Planetary Science Letters, v. 26, p. 207-221.
- Wernicke, B. P., Christiansen, R. L., England, P. C., and Sonder, L. J., 1987, Tectonomagmatic evolution of Cenozoic extension in the North American cordillera. Geological Society Special Publications, v. 28, p. 203-221
- Wiedenbeck, M., Allé, P., Corfu, F., Griffin, W.L., Meier, M., Oberli, F., von Quadt, A., Roddick, J.C. and Spiegel, W., 1995, Three natural zircon standards for U-Th-Pb, Lu-Hf, trace element and REE analyses. Geostandards Newsletter, v. 19, p. 1-23.



# **Appendix A: Whole-Rock Geochemistry**







**MEASURED ISOTOPIC RATIOS**

MEASURED ISOTOPIC RATIOS





















**MEASURED ISOTOPIC RATIOS**

MEASURED ISOTOPIC RATIOS

**APPARENT AGE**







