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# PETROLOGY OF PASSIVE-MARGIN EPEIRIC SEA SEDIMENTS:

THE GARDEN CITY FORMATION, NORTH-CENTRAL UTAH

by

## Susan K. Morgan

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

of

# MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Geology

Approved:

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY Logan, Utah

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Sue Morgan

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#### ABSTRACT

Petrology of Passive Margin-Epeiric Sea Sediments: the Garden City Formation, North-central Utah

by

Susan K. Morgan, Master of Science Utah State University, 1988

Major Professor: Dr. Peter T. Kolesar, Jr. Department: Geology

The Lower Ordovician Garden City Formation is part of the thick sequence of Lower Paleozoic limestones, dolostones, and minor siliciclastic sedimentary rocks of the western United States. The carbonate rocks were formed predominantly by shallow water deposition in tropical, passive-margin epeiric seas.

The Garden City Formation is composed of nine lithotypes which represent the various environments. The formation is a storminfluenced transgressive sequence which may be divided into innershelf shallow subtidal and outer-shelf deep subtidal environments separated by a skeletal accumulation. The skeletal accumulation, formed by storm initiation, was a submerged topographic high, below normal wave base. The inner shelf includes the initial peritidal transgressive and shoreface material, which was extensively reworked by storm action, and a patchy distribution of shallow subtidal deposits. It is characterized by shoreward fossil banks and mud mounds, a restricted fauna, large amounts of terrigenous material and repeated occurrences of storm-created intraclastic layers within a

nodular limestone.

The outer shelf sediments have a diverse fauna, are extensively burrowed and bioturbated, and have significant amounts of chert. Uncommon intraformational conglomerate layers signify deposition below mean storm-wave base.

The Garden City Limestone facies were deposited in broad, energyrelated zones parallel to the ancient shoreline. These facies were compared to the model of epeiric sea deposition presented by Shaw (1964) and Irwin (1965). There was a lack of evidence within the Garden City sediments to support the existence of an extensive, shoreward, tideless low-energy zone as predicted by the model. The inner shallow subtidal environments remained near normal marine conditions, with water circulation provided by tidal action.

Early diagenetic features of the Garden City Formation include compaction, micritization, cementation and neomorphism. Chert formation preceded pressure solution and probably represents silicification of burrows.

Dolomitizing fluids moved along faults, unconformities, and bedding planes to selectively dolomitize the formation. Near-surface weathering resulted in dedolomitization and the oxidation of pyrite to hematite.

(168 pages)

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#### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

The Lower Ordovician Garden City Limestone is part of the thick sequence of Lower Paleozoic carbonate rocks of the western United States. The Paleozoic carbonate rocks were formed predominantly by shallow water deposition in tropical epeiric seas.

In Utah the Garden City Formation has long been recognized as a shallow water deposit, and it is unique in the large amounts of intraformational conglomerate and chert it contains. The fauna of the formation has been described in detail elsewhere, and many of the faunal zones have been correlated with other Ordovician limestones {Ross 1951). To date, however, there has not been a comprehensive study of the petrology of the formation, detailing the depositional environments and diagenetic changes recorded in the rocks.

The purpose of this paper is twofold. First, lithotypes are defined, depositional environments interpreted, and local paleogeography reconstructed. The sediments of the Garden City Formation were examined to provide a test of the broad applicability of epeiric sea deposition as defined by Shaw (1964) and Irwin (1965). The sediments were also analyzed to determine the importance of storm sedimentation on shallow water deposition. Second, the diagenetic events are outlined and a model of diagenesis for the Garden City Formation is proposed.

The information gained from this study will add to the general knowledge of epeiric sea deposition and the effects of storm sedimentation on passive continental margins.

### CHAPTER II

DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENTS OF A STORM-INFLUENCED PASSIVE MARGIN EPEIRIC SEA: THE LOWER ORDOVICIAN GARDEN CITY FORMATION, NORTH-CENTRAL UTAH

#### INTRODUCTION

The thick sequences of Lower Paleozoic carbonate rocks in the western United States represent predominantly shallow water deposition in tropical epeiric seas. In Utah the Lower Ordovician Garden City Formation was deposited as a transgressive sequence, following an upper Cambrian hiatus, when the sea flooded vast areas of the craton. The formation has large amounts of intraformational conglomerate and is unique as the first Paleozoic formation to contain considerable amounts of chert.

The purpose of this paper is to use the sediments of the Garden City Formation to test the model of epeiric sea deposition presented by Shaw (1964) and Irwin (1965). The Garden City limestone was chosen for study because its sediments were deposited in such a sea and to date no comprehensive study of the formation has been done.

Shaw's and Irwin's models describe three generalized energy zones within epeiric seas: a seaward, broad, low-energy zone; a middle narrow, high-energy zone; and a landward, broad, low-energy zone. They suggest that tide action was unlikely in the low-energy interior regions of epeiric seas. These interior regions should contain deposits characteristic of very-shallow restricted water

environments including evaporites, mudcracks, syngenetic dolomite, numerous pellets, and fine-grained carbonate mud. There was a conspicious lack of evidence within the Garden City sediments to support the existence of an extensive, shoreward, tideless low-energy zone. Instead, it was determined that tidal action was probable in the Ordovician sea, providing water circulation responsible for near normal marine conditions in the Garden City sediments.

The sediments were also analyzed to ascertain the importance of storm sedimentation on shallow water deposition. Storm sedimentation has a strong influence on the deposits of the Garden City Formation and was probably the primary source of the abundant intraformational conglomerates.

#### GEOLOGIC SETTING

The Garden City Formation is a Lower Ordovician limestone which crops out from north-central and western Utah to southeastern Idaho. Its equivalents, the House and Fillmore limestones of the Pogonip Group, crop out to the south and west in Utah and extend into eastern Nevada (Hintze 1951). The Garden City limestone terminates to the east at the western margin of the Green River Basin (Williams 1955). The termination is probably a result of non-deposition and signifies the location of the craton (Hintze 1951). In the study area of north-central Utah the formation lies disconformably on the Cambrian Saint Charles Formation (Taylor and Landing 1981) and has an abrupt upper contact with the Middle Ordovician Swan Peak Quartzite. It ranges in thickness from 322 meters in the east to 549 meters in in the west (Hanson 1949).

Sections of the Garden City Formation that were studied in detail are located in the Bear River Range and the Wellsville Mountains of north-central Utah (Fig. 1). This area lies on the western margin of the Idaho-Wyoming overthrust belt. The two mountain ranges trend north and are separated by the Cache Valley graben. They are made up of a thick sequence of Paleozoic miogeoclinal shallow-water limestones and dolostones with minor amounts of siliciclastic rocks. Strata of the Wellsville Mountains are folded in a northeast-dipping homocline, while those in the Bear River Range form the northeast-trending Logan Peak Syncline and Strawberry Valley Anticline. The mountains are part of the Cache allochthon (Crittenden 1972) which has been moved east 48 to 64 km by Cretaceous thrust faulting (Crittenden 1961).

### PREVIOUS WORK

Previous studies of the Garden City Formation have concentrated both on the paleontology of the formation (Clark 1935; Ross 1951; Berry 1962) and on its part in the stratigraphic and structural evolution of the eastern Great Basin (Richardson 1913; Mansfield 1927; Williams 1948; Hanson 1949; Rigby 1958; Schaeffer 1960; Miller 1984). Ross (1951) noted the presence of intraformational conglomerate, channel scour-and-fill, and ripple marks as strong evidence for shallow-water deposition. Stratigraphic descriptions have subdivided the Garden City Formation into two informal lithologic members: a lower intraformational conglomerate member and an upper cherty member (Hanson 1949; Ross 1951; Rigby 1958; Schaeffer 1960).



Fig. 1. Outcrop pattern of the Lower Ordovician Garden City Formation in north-central Utah. Circled numbers show locations of measured sections. Numbers in parentheses are thicknesses in meters (modified from Ross 1951).

The most recent work on the formation used paleomagnetism and conodont biostratigraphy to define the contact in north-central Utah between the Garden City Formation and the underlying Cambrian Saint Charles Formation (Taylor et al. 1981; Taylor, Landing, and Gillett 1981; Taylor and Landing 1981). The contact was found to be a diachronous disconformity, becoming younger towards the southeast.

#### **METHODS**

Five stratigraphic sections of the Garden City Formation (Fig. 1) were measured using a Brunton compass and Jacob-staff and described in detail. The sections ranged in thickness from 322 to 494 meters. Field information warranted the division of the sections into identifiable lithologic units. The units were then sampled at ten meter intervals using a stratified systematic sampling method (Krumbein and Graybill 1965). A total of 277 samples were collected. Polished slabs and acetate peels from all samples, plus 77 thin sections stained with alizarin red-Sand potassium ferricyanide to aid in recognition of dolomite, iron-rich calcite, and iron-rich dolomite, were analyzed with petrographic and binocular microscopes for lithotype and environmental information. The thin sections were point counted, with a minimum of 300 points per slide. Ten acetate peels were point counted using a 10 square per inch grid. The remainder of the peels were estimated using comparison charts from Flugel (1982). X-ray diffraction of insoluble residues of all samples and detailed field relationships provided additional data.

#### LITHOTYPES

Nine lithotypes are identified in the Garden City Formation and were named using the classification of Dunham (1962). The lithotypes consist of nodular wackestone/mudstone with packstone lenses, intraclastic packstone/grainstone, green shale, laminated packstone/ grainstone, cryptalgalaminite, fossiliferous packstone, boundstone, Calathium/sponge, and burrowed fossiliferous wackestone/packstone with chert. Variability exists within most lithotypes and is described where appropriate. The various lithotypes may have formed in more than one type of environment; therefore stratigraphic relationships were used in environmental interpretations.

# Nodular Wackestone/Mudstone with Packstone Lenses

The nodular wackestone/mudstone lithotype consists of very silty limestone, sedimentary boudinage and nodular limestone punctuated with lenses of planar-laminated, hummocky cross-stratified, and uncommon ripple-laminated limestone. Minor amounts of whole and fragmented fossils, chiefly trilobites, pelmatozoans, sponge spicules, and rare lingulid brachiopods, and peloids occur as packstone lag deposits. Few fossils except sponge spicules occur in the mudstones, whereas clotted fabrics are common, possibly resulting from compaction of peloids. The predominantly horizontal and infrequent vertical burrows in the mudstones and wackestones are filled with pellets. Stylolites concentrate non-carbonate material, resulting in many wavy silty partings.

These limestones have a wide range of visible nodularity which

depends on the amount of argillaceous material and burrowing/ bioturbation, and on the weathering aspect of the outcrop. They grade from very nodular (Fig. 2A) to sedimentary boudinage, alternating pinched layers of limestone and very silty limestone (Fig. 28). The average insoluble residue is 25%, with kaolinite being the dominant clay mineral. The clay minerals are concentrated in the very silty limestone layers.

Sedimentary structures include horizontal and vertical trace fossils, ripple marks, hummocky cross-stratification, planarlaminations, load structures, and possible mudcracks. The trace fossils have variable diameters up to 2 mm and consist of burrow casts and trails. The horizontal trace fossils and ripple marks are seen in associated float and on the infrequently-exposed bedding surfaces. Rippled, hummocky cross-stratified and planar-laminated limestones generally occur in lenses, 1 to 30 cm thick, within otherwise nodular or layered limestones. Some of the ripple marks are draped by argillaceous material. Possible mudcracks are observed only in polished slabs, but never on bedding surfaces. Load structures occur at the contacts of coarse- and fine-grained limestones, with the coarse material protruding down into the underlying finer-grained material (Fig. 28). The limestone lenses and sedimentary structures appear to be primary features unaffected by bioturbation (compare with Demicco 1983).

Nodular bedding has been interpreted by Wanless (1979) as a diagenetic imprint of pressure solution on bioturbated, originally layered argillaceous and calcareous material. There is much evidence for pressure solution in the nodular limestones. Stylolites are



Fig. 2. Range of nodularity in nodular wackestone/mudstone. A) Well-developed nodular bedding B) Sedimentary boudinage, alternating pinched layers of limestone and very silty limestone. Arrows point to load structures. Diameter of lens cap is 5 cm.

common and form stylolaminations and wispy stylonodular features in these limestones.

Nodular limestones are the predominant lithotype of the lower informal member of the Garden City Formation. This lithotype resulted from retention of primary depositional features with some diagenetic reshaping. The dark, yellow-orange argillaceous material imparts an overall yellowish-gray color to the member. Nodular layers generally weather more readily to form slopes and incompetent outcrops.

Intraformational conglomerate layers and lenses between 8 cm and 3 m thick recur throughout the nodular wackestone/mudstone lithotype. The layers and lenses have abrupt upper and lower contacts.

Environment of Deposition.--A shallow subtidal, low-energy depositional environment has been postulated for the formation of sedimentary boudinage and silty nodular wackestone/mudstone (Wilson 1969; Cook and Taylor 1977; Aigner 1985). The stratigraphic associations with shoal water lithotypes of fragmented fossiliferous packstone and mud mounds strengthen the shallow subtidal interpretation. There is no evidence to suggest subaerial exposure of the sediment by tidal action. Packstone lenses of shell-lag and planar-laminated material probably resulted from storm-related currents.

The intraformational conglomerate layers and lenses signify a drastic change in the hydrologic regime. The lenses and layers are predominantly single-event storm deposits composed of a couplet of intraformational conglomerate topped by laminated fine-grained

limestone. The pattern of the deposits and stratigraphic location, similar to those described by Bayer et al. (1985), suggest a distal environment which was affected by hurricane-velocity storms.

### Intraclastic Packstone/Grainstone

Intraclasts are the dominant allochems in the intraclast packstone/grainstone lithofacies. The intraclasts are in a fossiliferous packstone to grainstone matrix composed of brachiopod, pelmatozoan, gastropod, unidentified mollusc shells, and trilobite debris, and uncommon Nuia and peloids. Nuia is a problematical codiacean alga restricted in occurrence to lower Ordovician rocks (Wray 1977). Many of the bioclasts have micrite rims. Sparite is neomorphic, and is in most cases clear, suggesting recrystallization of original cement.

Intraclasts show two time periods of burrowing/boring. Burrows and borings restricted to intraclasts occurred prior to transport, whereas faunal activity after transport is indicated by burrowing of both matrix and intraclasts.

Most clasts have rounded, smooth boundaries with truncated fossils. The rounding, due to transport, plus surface borings suggest extensive lithification of the sediment to firmgrounds or hardgrounds.

The intraclasts have the following compositions: micrite, with or without sponge spicules; fossiliferous quartz-laminated packstones; fossiliferous packstone/wackestones; and peloid-laminated packstones. They are bladed to blocky, well-rounded to subangular.

Bladed clasts may reflect thin hardground or firmground formation or be a result of algal mat binding. Since there is a paucity of evidence for either algal activity or subaerial exposure, break-up of lithified sea floor was probably the most important source of intraclasts. 

Some of the smaller intraclasts are casts of fossils with little to no shell material retained, but with the fossil shape still recognizable. This may have been an important source of the small intraclasts. If the clasts were exhumed after the shell had been dissolved, they may have been reworked so any original organism shape is unrecognizable.

A small number of intraclasts, irrespective of composition, have synaeresis-type cracks (topside and bottomside) which are filled with clear sparite. The cracks do not extend past the clast boundary. Cracks may form from subaerial exposure. The cracks subsequently became filled by cementing material.

Environment of Deposition.--The intraclastic packstone/grainstone lithotype may have formed as: 1) storm sheet deposits, representing single events or an amalgamation of a series of events; 2) storm surge channel deposits; and/or 3) tidal channel deposits. Outcrop geometry of the intraformational conglomerate provides clues to its origin. The author used the criterion of consistent lateral extent over tens of meters to signify storm sheet deposits. Many of the conglomerate units contain erosion surfaces within, evidence of multiple storm deposits.

Conversely, channel deposits would probably pinch out laterally

in distances of ten meters or less to produce an overall lens shape. Storm-surge channel deposits, as opposed to tidal channel deposits, would more likely be burrowed, with organisms returning after the current subsided. Storm-surge channel deposits would also be more likely to have fining-upwards sequences. Many channel deposits were identified and attributed to storm activity because they contained burrowed, fining-upwards sequences. Actual tidal channels were difficult to identify, particularly due to the paucity of intertidal evidence in associated lithotypes.

Storm sheet deposits show evidence for waning currents, with stacked Bouma-type sequences of hummocky cross-stratified to planarlaminated material followed by settled, previously-suspended fine material (Selley 1976). Many of the laterally extensive intraformational conglomerate units are topped by planar-laminated wackestone/ mudstone material. Intraclasts, exhumed fossils, infiltration fabric, and conglomerate/wackestone couplets within the sheet deposits suggest a strong current followed by a waning current, typical of storms.

Some of the intraformational conglomerate beds had been lithified early on the sea floor as evidenced by erosional surfaces truncating clasts (Fig. 3). Osmond (1963) al so found erosional surfaces on some intraclast layers in the Garden City Formation in the Stanbury Mountains. Lithification resulting in firmgrounds or hardgrounds may be due to slow sedimentation rates and submarine cementation in shallow subtidal environments (Sepkoski 1982). These are the same processes that are forming lithified sediments off the Florida coast today (Multer 1977).



Fig. 3. Intraformational conglomerate with erosional surface (outlined in black) truncating clasts (arrows), evidence for early, sea-floor lithificati

#### Green Shale

Calcareous to clayey grayish olive-green shale is interbedded in layers from 1 to 30 cm thick within the nodular limestone lithotype in all locations. Kaolinite is the primary clay mineral in the shale facies. The shale increases in abundance to the south and southwest at sections four and five.

Environment of Deposition.--The presence of kaolinite indicates a terrigenous source and a near-coastal shallow-sea environment of deposition for the shale {Flugel 1982). The increase in abundance at sections four and five could have resulted from proximity to a fluvial source. The variability in the shale and silt content within sections and from section to section may have resulted from a shift in source area, seasonal changes in stream input, or storm pulses as noted by Ball (1983).

The shale has abrupt contacts with, and is frequently sandwiched between, intraformational conglomerate layers, an indication of a drastic change in water energy. Mount { 1984) noted that rare-event input of sediments will result in abrupt, not gradational, contacts between siliciclastic and carbonate rocks. Therefore, the shale may represent event deposition.

### Laminated Packstone/Grainstone

Well-sorted pelmatozoan fragments and peloids comprise the laminated packstone/grainstones. Variability in the amounts of these allochems creates a range in composition from primarily pelmatozoan fragments to a mixture of peloids and pelmatozoan fragments.

Scattered throughout are minor amounts of intraclasts and lingulid brachiopod and trilobite fragments. Many of the bioclasts have micrite rims. Some fossils are infilled with micritic material that is different than the surrounding matrix. This suggests exhumation and redeposition of the fossils (LaPorte 1967). The most likely source of currents strong enough to exhume fossils is storms (Kreisa 1981). Laminations result from increased quartz-silt and clay content and parallel alignment of the long axis of allochems.

The rocks are very-thin- to thin-bedded, planar-laminated to hummocky cross-stratified, and graded, and form either lenses within the nodular limestones or separate units which are found directly above nodular limestones or intraformational conglomerates (Fig. 4). Laminated limestones have been dolomitized in the lowermost 1 to 3 meters of the formation.

Environment of Deposition.--Sedimentary structures and laminations similar to those in the laminated packstone/grainstone have been related to deposition by waning storm currents by Kreisa (1981), Aigner (1985), and Duke (1985). The fine-grained material put in suspension by storm-wave turbulence is rapidly deposited during waning currents. The presence of the laminated packstone/grainstone units scattered within the nodular limestone and above some intraformational conglomerates argues for their intermittent-stormgenerated origins.



Fig. 4. Laminated packstone/grainstone (A) above nodular limestone (B). An intraformational conglomerate layer (C) was deposited directly on top. A small channel (outlined by white line) was eroded into the laminated packstone/grainstone

#### Cryptalgalaminite

Cryptalgalaminites are a rare lithotype recognized in only one of the measured sections, within the nodular limestones. They form successive cryptalgally laminated layers, 2.5 to 16 cm thick, which have been diagenetically altered to chert. The cryptalgalaminites are interbedded with unaltered intraformational conglomerate, having a combined total thickness of 76 cm. Possible tepee structures and a elastic dyke cross-cut the thin-laminated units. In one layer, small digitate stromatolites, with maximum amplitude of 13 mm, underlie the sheet-like algal mat. Both the algal mat and stromatolites are dissected by vertical burrows.

Environment of Deposition.--Cryptalgalaminites form by the sedimentbinding ability of algae and bacteria (Aitken 1967) and may have subtidal to intertidal origins (Scoffin 1987). Tepee structures in the algal mat and the mat's presence above digitate stromatolites indicate local shoaling to a tidally influenced environment. A patchy distribution of intertidal sequences defined by the rare cryptalgalaminites and possible mudcracks is interspersed in the nodular lithotype. However, the cryptalgalaminites and mudcracks are not found together nor is there an order to their occurrence from one section to another. They may have formed as intertidal shoals within the subtidal zone in response to localized hydrodynamic regimes and increased carbonate production.

### Fossiliferous Packstone

There are two major fossiliferous packstone deposits within the Garden City Limestone. In addition, lenses of fossiliferous packstone lag deposits are scattered throughout the lithotype. The biota of both types of fossiliferous packstones are similar, and include pelmatozoan, trilobite, the problematic alga Nuia, gastropod and other mollusc, brachiopod, rare lingulid brachiopod, and rare bryozoan fragments. Some bioclasts have micrite rims. Geopetal and infiltration fabrics are common. Many horizons of fossiliferous packstone are topped by fine material which probably represent a slackening of current.

Fragmented Fossiliferous Packstone.--These packstones are composed of fragmented skeletal material (fossil hash) and intraclasts and occur only in the lower part of the formation. The fragmented fossiliferous packstone outcrops are tinged orange-pink and are massive, with local planar laminations and hummocky crossstratification. They recur vertically as layers and lenses from 0.3 to 3.5 meters thick interspersed with nodular wackestone/mudstone layers and mud mounds.

Environment of Deposition.--Fragmented fossiliferous packstones form small skeletal banks within a shallow subtidal environment. These represent local agitated shoal conditions on the shelf. Fossil accumulations may result from storm action moving skeletal debris onshore with subsequent winnowing and reworking by bottom turbulence from normal wave action (Aigner 1985). The accumulations are irregular, both in thickness and in the frequency of occurrence from

section to section. The repeated occurrence signifies several shoaling or apparent regressive cycles.

Whole-fossil Fossiliferous Packstone.--Higher in the formation the packstones consist primarily of whole, unsorted fossils, uncommon intraclasts, some of which are shell molds, and peloids. The packstones form burrowed, thin-bedded outcrops. This lithotype is found in all sections and varies from 24 to 30 meters thick. Infrequent intraformational conglomerate lenses are scattered within the lithotype. There is a high concentration of brachiopods, pelmatozoan column fragments, and Nuia. Infiltration fabric and burrowing are common.

Environment of Oeposition.--The whole-fossil fossiliferous packstone is interpreted as a skeletal build-up which created a submerged topographic high, below normal wave-base but still affected by storm wave-base. The skeletal accumulation separates the inner and outer shelves. Waning storm currents allowed deposition of suspended sediments which caused infiltration fabrics. Whole fossils and the amount of micrite argue for a below-normal-wave-base, lessagitated environment. The accumulation may have been initiated and subsequently perpetuated by storm accretion. The open-marine seaward side of the skeletal build-up would be a natural habitat for pelmatozoans and brachiopods. The accumulations did not form a continuous front but were dissected by channels, shown by lenses of intraformational conglomerate. The channels allowed storm effects landward of the accumulations. There is no evidence to suggest that these accumulations ever built up to a shoal environment.

#### Bounds tone

Mud mounds and stromatolites make up the boundstones which recur vertically with varying thicknesses in each location. The mud mounds are domal to mushroom shaped, and are between 15 and 76 cm in diameter and between 13 and 71 cm high. Some mounds have coalesced to form sheets. Mud mounds generally are grouped along the same horizon. They are common in some sections while nearly absent in others.

The mounds are surrounded by two types of material. Nodular limestones pinch out against, and drape over, most of the mud mounds (Fig. SA). The mud mounds may grow from a nodular limestone or an intraclastic substrate. A small proportion of mud mounds are surrounded by, and in some cases propagated from, the fragmented fossiliferous packstone. A layer composed of light-colored sheetlike mounds dissected by channels filled with the darker-colored fragmented fossiliferous packstone is present in each location (Fig. SB). The channels have very sharp, but irregular boundaries with the mound rock indicating the mounds were somewhat consolidated prior to channel cutting (Toomey 1970). The channel cutting may have been initiated by shoaling.

Differential weathering in section three has exposed the threedimensional nature of the mounds. The mounds are tubular shaped and extend into the outcrop (Fig. 5C). Church (1974) also found uniformly aligned "sausage-shaped" mounds in the correlative House Limestone of the Ibex Mountains. Mud mounds result from current activity and preferential bottom stabilization by organisms (Toomey 1970; Church 1974; Pratt and James 1982). Since the mounds appear

Fig. 5. Features of mud mounds found in the Garden City Formation. A) Mud mound of the boundstone lithotype outlined by dark line. Note that the nodular limestone pinches out against the mound (arrow) and drapes over the mound. Diameter of lens cap is 5 cm. B) Lightcolored sheet-like mound horizon dissected by a channel (outlined by black lines) filled with darker-colored fragmented fossiliferous packstone. These represent an apparent regression into shoal conditions. C) Weathering reveals the three dimensional nature of mud mounds at section three. The mounds are tubular shaped and extend into the outcrop (arrow). Diameter of lens cap is 5 cm.



to parallel the shoreline in both section three and in the Ibex area studied by Church, the hydrodynamic processes must have been influenced by the ocean/land interface.

Float associated with the mud-mound zone contains rare, isolated stacked hemispheroidal stromatolites. The stromatolite morphology and the surrounding medium of fragmented fossiliferous packstone suggest that the stromatolites may have grown on top of the mounds and extended into shallower and more turbulent water. Stromatolites also occur at the base of the formation in section four and are associated with cryptalgalaminites in section three.

Internally the mud mounds reveal very few scattered fossils of Nuia, sponge spicules, and pelmatozoan fragments in a micrite matrix. A lower algal mat layer is evidenced by silt-floored, parallel fenestrae interspersed with quartz silt layers. This is similar to evidence used by Pratt (1982a) to determine algal mats. The algal mat is overlain by spongiform and clotted fabrics. This gives the appearance of a colonization sequence similar to that of equivalent Ordovician mounds elsewhere in Utah (Church 1974). However a more detailed analysis of the Garden City mud mounds is needed before such a sequence can be documented.

The mounds have a massive to rare, faintly-laminated fabric, but do not exhibit the mottled texture that characterizes thrombolites. According to Kennard and James's (1986) recent nomenclature, they are most accurately named spongiform microbial boundstones.

Environment of Deposition.--Mud mounds are associated with both the fragmented fossiliferous packstone banks and the nodular

wackestone/mudstone lithotypes. They grew in shoal conditions within the shallow subtidal zone. Several of the mounds have channels eroded into them with subsequent infilling of fossil debris. The eroded channels may indicate a relative drop in sea level. Modern mud mounds have proven to be storm-wave-resistant; therefore storm currents probably had little deleterious effect on ancient mounds {Ball et al. 1967). Mounds are well developed and exposed in only three sections; in addition, they do not display much lateral continuity. Therefore a patchy distribution of the mounds, dependent on local conditions, is postulated. Orientations of tabular mounds indicate they formed parallel to the shoreline.

# Calathium/Sponge

Calathium is a dasycladacean algae {Church 1974) and is associated with listhid sponges in the Garden City Formation. Calathium is rare, scattered randomly throughout the sections, and generally increases in abundance just below the chert zone in the upper part of the formation. At section three a prolific Calathium/ sponge assemblage forms a prominent unit, 3.3 meters thick.

Environment of Deposition.--Because the fossils are whole and wellpreserved in a wackestone/packstone {Fig. 6), and because these fossil types would probably not survive transport, this is interpreted as an autochthonous assemblage indicative of low energy in a deeper, below-normal-wave-base environment {Wray 1977). The unit's thickness and presence in all sections also indicates autochthonous origins. Stratigraphic location of the Calathium/sponge lithotype directly


Fig. 6. Calathium (arrows) forming a prominent unit at section three, just below the chert zone. Sponges are associated with the Calathium. Diameter of lens cap is 5 cm.

above the whole fossiliferous packstone skeletal accumulation suggests they may have enjoyed a position seaward of the skeletal accumulation.

Due to poor outcrop exposure the lateral extent and configuration were not determined. However, since the concentration is limited locally it may represent a patch reef community that developed in association with the skeletal bank.

# Burrowed Fossiliferous Wackestone/Packstone With Chert

This lithotype is characterized by whole and fragmented fossils, rare intraclasts, and peloids disseminated throughout a stylolitic wackestone by bioturbation and burrowing. Clotted fabric and synaeresis-type cracks filled with clear sparite are most prevalent in this lithotype, whereas very few intraformational conglomerate lenses or layers are present. The lithotype also contains fossiliferous packstone lag deposits. The fossil assemblage exhibits high variability but low abundance of types. Fossils include sponge spicules, trilobites, brachiopods, gastropods, unidentified molluscs, pelmatozoans, Nuia, conodonts, and ostracods. Ostracods are limited to this lithotype.

Sections two, four, and five exhibit a unique feature. The uppermost 33 to 45 meters of the three sections are dolostone and have recurring horizontal bands and irregular blebs of sparite (Fig. 7). These may be stromatactis structures (Bathurst 1980). Stromatactis form in subtidal environments but so far have only been described in association with bioherms (Ross et al. 1975; Bathurst 1980). However, dolomitization has obscurred most of the petro-



Fig. 7. Horizontal bands (possible stromatactis?) (arrows) in dolomitized burrowed fossiliferous wackestone/packstone.

graphic information.

This lithotype comprises all of the uppermost informal cherty member previously mentioned. Its most stunning aspect is the gradual increase in black, gray, and white chert to a maximum of 40 to 50% of the rock and then a similar gradual decline to no chert. The gradational changes are apparent at all locations, but the thickness of the chert unit between localities varies from 33 to 55 meters.

The chert's habit is nodular, banded, and anastomosing and appears to follow burrows or areas of bioturbation. The white color is probably a weathering rind since it extends 10 mm or less below the surface. Numerous relict sponge spicules are apparent within the chert. The limestone within the chert zone is similar to that above and below; however there is a marked increase in monaxon and rare triaxon sponge spicules in the limestone. This suggests a biogenic source for the chert.

Dolomite formation has been related to chert formation (Knauth 1979). Secondary dolostone is present in the chert zone. Dolostone also is prominent below the contact with the Swan Peak Formation. It has an irregular lateral contact with the limestone which suggests a diagenetic origin.

There is a dramatic increase in angular to subangular quartzsilt and fine sand content in the uppermost 1.5 meters of the facies.

Environment of Deposition--The peloids, prolific burrowing and bioturbation, variety of fossils, and lack of wave-generated sedimentary structures indicate a deeper subtidal environment, below

normal-wave and most storm-wave bases. The limited occurrences of intraformational conglomerate layers may represent rare megastorms or storm surge channels. Pockets of coarse fossiliferous material and erosional surfaces may reflect storm-induced oscillatory currents (Kreisa 1981). Insoluble residue and visual appearance indicate only minor amounts of silt and clay minerals were deposited in the open marine deep subtidal environment. Pyrite is found in slightly higher amounts indicating local reducing conditions.

# DISCUSSION

## Storm Sedimentation

Storm (event) sedimentation dominated the Garden City Formation, particularly the lower informal member (Table 1). Storms are responsible for onshore and some offshore movement of material (Fig. 8). Coastal water set-up, a result of wind, barometric effects, and wave action move material landward (Aigner 1985). This water returns offshore by bottom gradient currents, forming storm-surge channels which move material seaward. Offshore material is deposited as laminated, graded storm layers (Aigner 1985). Lag deposits and erosional surfaces are common. Mean wave-base is greatly increased during storms to a storm wave-base estimated at 40-80 meters deep (Flugel 1982). Kreisa (1981) noted oscillatory currents created by storm waves occurring at depths to 200 meters. Therefore much of an epeiric sea bottom would be influenced by storm sedimentation. Study of modern storm deposits indicates the rock record may be biased in favor of sporadic catastrophic depositional events overprinting



Table 1. Storm-generated features and their observed occurrences in the Garden City Formation (see Kreisia 1981 for references to most features).



Fig. 8. Onshore transport of material is a result of barometric and wind effects moving water shoreward. Offshore transport results from water returning in bottom gradient currents. Oscillatory bottom currents are from storm wave effects (modified from Aigner 1985).

normal deposition (Hayes 1967). Normal intermittent deposits are reworked by storms numerous times, with only the strongest event recognizable (Seilacher 1982).

# Depositional Environments

The deposits of the Garden City Formation can be divided into inner-shelf peritidal and outer-shelf subtidal environments. The inner-shelf peritidal deposits include reworked material and shallow subtidal nodular limestones interspersed with mud mounds and shoals of fossil banks and rare cryptalgalaminites. The outer shelf is a deeper subtidal environment composed of one basic lithotype, the fossiliferous wackestone/packstone. These two facies were separated by a submerged, muddy, predominantly whole-body skeletal accumulation. Figure 9 is a schematic diagram using lithotypes and facies relationships to reconstruct the Ordovician shelf environments. The environments were responses to bathymetric and associated water-energy positions in an epeiric sea which had minor bottom irregularities and small slope breaks.

The initial transgression, a shallow water encroachment on the craton, is represented by reworked material of the following variety of lithotypes: laminated packstone/grainstone, intraclastic packstone/grainstone and nodular wackestone/mudstone. In association with these lithotypes are dolomitized sediments and rare stromatolites. The lithotypes do not appear to have a specific sequence of relationships to each other nor are they developed extensively. The sequence of relationships may have resulted from reworking which is typical of nearshore transgressive deposits. Iden and Moore (1983)



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and Einsele (1985) noted that strandline deposits in transgressive sequences are reworked by wave and storm erosional events to produce fossil lag and amalgamated intraclast deposits with relict thinlaminated carbonate sands. A modern analogy, the Holocene transgression in Biscayne Bay, Florida, produced extensive eroded, reworked and redistributed material (Wanless 1969). Kreisa (1981) has also demonstrated that thick amalgamated storm layers are a product of shallow water.

The base of the Garden City Formation is characterized by numerous erosional surfaces within thick, large-bladed intraclastic layers and lenses. The intraclastic layers are interbedded with planar-laminated lenses and layers and rare stromatolites. Lingulid brachiopods are most common in this facies. The intermixed nodular limestones indicate that shallow subtidal conditions and/or quiet water lagoonal pockets were adjacent to the reworked intertidal material with the environments shifting in varying responses to storms and water depth changes.

On the leading edge of a transgression, in accordance with Walther's Law (Wilson 1975), one would expect coevolving supratidal, shoreline, and intertidal deposits. However, there is a conspicuous lack of evidence for these environments in the Garden City Formation. A relatively rapid transgression and reworking of material may have obliterated these characteristic deposits. A mud-flat shoreline with low amplitude tidal influence also could account for the lack of supratidal and intertidal deposits.

The epeiric sea depositional models of Irwin (1965) and Shaw (1964) call for low depositional slopes, < 0.3 meters per mile, which

dictate that facies be deposited in broad, energy-related zones parallel to the ancient shoreline (Irwin 1965). The stratigraphic evidence confirms that the Garden City facies were indeed deposited this way. Figure 10 represents a north-south cross section of the Garden City facies. It illustrates the broad, parallel deposition of the facies to the locally southern shoreline.

Shaw's and Irwin's model of epeiric sea deposition also requires that there was no tidal influence over extensive, landward, lowenergy deposits. With no tidal influence there would have been no means for promoting water circulation. Shaw (1964) has argued that storms, rivers, and precipitation could not provide sufficient input to maintain consistent normal-marine conditions; these could only be maintained by tidal action. The result of no tidal circulation would. have been restricted marine environments of high salinity and associated evaporite deposition (Shaw 1964). In the study area no such deposits developed. This may have been a function of a steeper depositional slope than required in the Shaw-Irwin model.

The inner shallow subtidal environment probably remained near normal-marine conditions. Evidence includes occurrences of trace fossils, brachiopods and crinoids within fossil banks, Nuia, and scattered whole Calathium fossils, essentially a normal-marine biota. Although faunal variability appears restricted, trilobites are ubiquitous. Ross (1951) has identified up to 17 species within one faunal zone of the facies. There is also a complete lack of direct or indirect evidence for any evaporite formation. If the subtidal was normal marine, then there must have been tidal effects. Many workers (see Klein and Ryer 1978) have also found evidence for tidal

Fig. 10. Generalized north-south cross-section of the Garden City Limestone in the study area. Sections one, two, and three were used.

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action within epeiric seas.

The shallow subtidal zone was influenced by tides, had lower faunal diversity and production, and had considerable terrigenous input of quartz silt- and clay-sized particles. The outer deeper subtidal zone had higher faunal diversity and production, with very little terrigenous material. The environmental differences are attributed to the terrigenous material and its damping effect on faunal grain production (La Porte 1969).

The rare intertidal deposits within the subtidal environment are interpreted as shoal islands formed by increased carbonate production, perhaps similar to, but not as well developed as, those described in the Ordovician St. George Group by Pratt and James (1986) and the Lower Devonian Manilus Formation described by LaPorte (1967). These irregular shoals may have been analogous to the anastomosing mud banks of Florida Bay (Multer 1977, p. 64).

The upper contact of the Garden City with the Swan Peak Formation throughout the study area is abrupt. This may represent a disconformity. A more detailed analysis of this contact, specifically noting the fossil content, would be helpful in answering questions about its nature.

#### PALEOGEOGRAPHY

Deposition of the Garden City Formation started in the Tremadocian Age and continued through the Arenigian Age of the Early Ordovician Period, a span of 27 million years. During that time North America was part of the Laurentia paleocontinent which rotated counterclockwise to the south (Scotese et al. 1979). The equator was

located within 10-150 of north-central Utah which produced a tropical, humid climate (Scotese et al. 1979; Taylor et al. 1981).

The Early Ordovician was a time of tectonic quiescence and cratonic subsidence, which resulted in widespread epeiric seas (Sloss 1964). The rocks of the Garden City Formation were deposited in the Cordilleran miogeocline (Stewart and Poole 1974) by an easterly transgression of a broad, shallow sea over the stable craton. The shelf/slope transition to deep water was in central Nevada (Cook and Taylor 1977). At maximum transgression, the shallow shelf extended into Utah (Fig. 11).

The Garden City Formation represents a long-term transgressive sequence of an open-marine shallow-shelf epeiric sea extending west as much as 500 km from the exposed craton at maximum transgression (Stewart and Poole 1974). The sedimentary environments are storminfluenced and are oriented parallel to the shoreline. The lower disconformable contact is marked by a thin, basal, very silty limestone layer above the massive, dolomitic upper Saint Charles Formation.

Utah was divided into two depositional basins by the emergent Tooele Arch, the Northern Utah Basin to the north and the Ibex Basin to the south (Hintze 1973). Figure 12 shows the thicknesses of the Garden City Formation and the equivalent Pogonip Group which define the paleotopographic high. The formation also thins to the north into Idaho; its deposition probably was influenced by the submerged Arco Arch (Oaks et al. 1977). In the study area the formation thins to the southeast. Such thinning suggests that the shoreline was to the south and east, in agreement with regional data.



Fig. 11. Position of the slope break between deep water and shallow water deposition. The shoreline is at maximum<br>transgression. A lower Ordovician paleolatitude and paleonorth are indicated (adapted from Eardly 1964; Hintze 1973; Scotese et al.  $1979$ ).



Fig. 12. Garden City-Pogonip Group thicknesses in 100's of meters. Utah is widened to pre-Cretaceous thrust faulting (modified from Hintze 1973).

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Although part of the Tooele Arch was emergent, the epeiric sea had no topographic barriers to restrict circulation. It was not a sea surrounded by land, but was instead a vast expanse of open shallow water. Depocenters were controlled by gradually subsiding basins and gently uplifting arches.

The exposed barren craton to the east and the Tooele Arch to the south were sources of the silt- and clay-sized terrigenous material. Since there was no soil-stabilizing vegetation in the Ordovician, any weathering products would be highly susceptible to erosion by water and wind. The ubiquitous nature and the silt and clay size of the terrigenous material in the Garden City Formation suggest it may have been transported to the west by prevailing easterly trade winds and deposited in the sea ( Dalrymple et al. 1985). Field observations show an increase in the amount of siliciclastic material in sections four and five, which implies a more localized origin and is possible evidence for placing a fluvial source nearby. The field observations are substantiated by insoluble residue data from samples of the silty nodular limestone. Sections one, two, and three had average insoluble residues of 13, 11 and 12% respectively while sections four and five had 22 and 16%. The averages were calculated using samples within the same lithologic boundaries. No chert was present in any of the samples. Current influence may have effectively prevented deposition of the terrigenous material in the other sections. However, the rocks may not have retained their original spatial relationships, since Oviatt (1985) has inferred a north-moving thrust fault under the Wellsville Mountains.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The Garden City Formation represents a storm-dominated transgressive sequence deposited in a broad epeiric sea. The formation is composed of nine lithotypes which represent various sedimentary environments. The transgression extended from the west covering the previously exposed and eroded Upper Cambrian Saint Charles Formation. The initial transgressive and shoreface material was extensively reworked by storm action and is characterized by erosional channels and thick intraformational conglomerate layers and lenses.

The shelf was subdivided into two distinct environments, a shallow-subtidal inner shelf and a deeper-subtidal outer shelf (Fig. 9). The shallow inner shelf was characterized by shoreward fossil banks and mud mounds, a restricted fauna, large amounts of terrigenous material, and repeated occurrences of intraformational conglomerate layers. Excessive sediment production resulted in the formation of irregularly distributed shoal islands.

The deeper outer-shelf sediments include a diverse fauna and are characterized by burrowing and bioturbation. They have a significant amount of black, white, and gray chert. The inner and outer shelf were separated by a submerged, storm-initiated skeletal accumulation.

The restricted fauna of the shallow inner shelf resulted from terrigenous input creating an unfavorable habitat. The Garden City sediments do not contain interior regions of extensive, tideless lowenergy deposits as predicted by Shaw's (1964) and Irwin's (1965) models. Instead tides were an important aspect of the hydrodynamic

regime of the Ordovician epeiric sea and provided water circulation to maintain near normal marine conditions.

Throughout the time of deposition of the Garden City Formation, Utah was located within 10-150 of the equator, which produced a humid, tropical climate. Deposition was controlled by the gradually subsiding Northern Utah Basin and Ibex Basin and the gently uplifting Tooele Arch. There were no topographic barriers to restrict circulation in the vast expanse of the Ordovician sea. The transition to deep water was in central Nevada (Fig. 11).

#### CHAPTER III

# DIAGENESIS OF THE LOWER ORDOVICIAN GARDEN CITY LIMESTONE: PETROGRAPHIC EVIDENCE

#### INTRODUCTION

The Lower Ordovician Garden City Formation, located in northcentral to western Utah and southeastern Idaho, is part of a thick sequence of Lower Paleozoic shallow-water carbonate rocks that crop out in the western United States. In the study area of north-central Utah (Fig. 13) the Garden City Formation lies in diachronous disconformity on the Cambrian Saint Charles Formation (Taylor and Landing 1981) and has an abrupt to gradational upper contact with the Middle Ordovician Swan Peak Quartzite. The formation thins to the south and east (322 m) and thickens to the north and west (549 m) (Hanson 1949). It is predominantly limestone with minor amounts of siliciclastic rocks; however, portions of the base and top are dolostone. Banded, nodular, and anastomosing chert dominate the upper portion.

Previous work by Ross (1951) on the paleontology of the formation also included comments, based on outcrop data, on the diagenetic formation of the dolomite and chert. The purpose of this paper is to re-evaluate and expound upon the diagenetic events, using petrographic analysis and cathodoluminescence, and to define a model of diagenesis for the Garden City Formation.



Fig. 13. Outcrop pattern of the Lower Ordovician Garden City Formation in north-central Utah. Circled numbers show locations of measured sections. Numbers in parentheses are thicknesses in meters (Modified from Ross 1951).

# LITHOTYPES AND ENVIRONMENTS

The Garden City Formation is a storm-dominated transgressive sequence deposited within an epeiric sea under humid tropical conditions. Nine lithotypes compose the peritidal through deeper subtidal deposits. Peritidal environments consist of reworked transgressive and shoreface material. Adjacent shallow subtidal deposits include fossil banks, mud mounds, thin shales, and nodular limestones with interbedded storm layers and lenses of intraclast packstone/grainstones. A skeletal accumulation of fossiliferous packstone formed seaward of the shallow subtidal deposits at a slope break within the shelf and separated the shallow subtidal from deeper, bioturbated subtidal material.

## **METHODS**

Samples from five stratigraphic sections (Fig. 13) which were used for lithotype and environment analyses were also used to determine diagenetic events. Acetate peels from 277 samples and 77 thin sections were analyzed with petrographic and binocular microscopes. The thin sections were stained with alizarin red-Sand potassium ferricyanide to aid in dolomite, iron-rich calcite, and iron-rich dolomite identification. Cathodoluminescence was used on selected thin sections.

## DIAGENETIC EVENTS

Diagenesis encompasses all changes, physical and chemical, that occur after sediment is deposited. These changes are affected by the original sediment and the pressure, temperature, and type of interstitial fluid to which the sediment is subjected. The effects in turn may be related to relative times of formation: early, intermediate, or late, and the specific depth of burial: surface, moderate, or deep. Diagenetic effects present in the Garden City Formation include compaction, neomorphism, cementation, micritization, the formation of minor amounts of pyrite and hematite, dolomitization, dedolomitization, the formation of chert, and fracture-fill.

# Compaction

Compaction includes all processes, mechanical and chemical, that reduce the bulk volume, and hence porosity, of rocks (Flugel 1982). These processes can be influenced by grain type, grain size, and amount and timing of cementation. Mechanical compaction generally occurs during early burial diagenesis while chemical compaction takes place in the later stages of the diagenetic process.

Mechanical compaction effects of dewatering, grain realignment, and grain breakage result from compressive stress exerted by the weight of the overlying sediment. Initial mechanical compaction can be overprinted by later pressure solution features (Shinn et al. 1977; Pratt 1982b; Demicco 1983). Mechanical compaction can account for one third to one half of porosity reduction in mud-supported sediments (Scholle and Halley 1985).

Evidence indicating that the Garden City sediment was mechanically compacted is abundant. Many of the long, thin, phosphatic lingulid brachiopod fragments are broken in situ (Fig. 14A), whereas more resistant brachiopod and trilobite fragments are rarely broken. Shinn et al. (1977) have shown that substantial amounts of compaction can occur and result in only minimal shell breakage. Additional evidence for compaction are the possible realignment of the long axis of skeletal fragments, lenticular squashed burrows, interpenetration of intraclasts, and clotted fabrics.

Burrow preservation with no appreciable deformation argues for early cementation of the burrows. In compaction experiments on modern carbonate sediments, Shinn and Robbin (1983) noted aligned grains, little shell breakage, and pellets and burrows that were obliterated or deformed. They suggested that only 100 meters of overburden are needed to produce these compaction features.

The degree of preservation of peloids may be linked to the extent of early lithification. Good preservation of peloids indicates resistance to compaction due to early cementation, whereas poor preservation, resulting in clotted fabrics, indicates little to no early cementation. Clotted fabrics are common in sediments deposited in the subtidal environments of the Garden City Formation.

The most obvious and pervasive evidence of compaction is the presence of solution features. These form in response to stress due to compaction or deformation and are a combination of pressuredissolution and shear fractures (Scoffin 1987). They can be of



Fig. 14. Photomicrographs of evidence for mechanical and chemical compaction in the Garden City Formation. A) Arrow points to broken in situ lingulid brachiopod fragment. Scale bar is 200 um. B) Inter-granular solution between intraclasts (arrow). Scale bar is 200 *um.* C) Stylolamination swarms (dark lines) in mudstone. Scale bar is 200 um. All photomicrographs are plane-polarized light.

early, but are generally of late, diagenetic origin. Solution features are classified by Scholle and Halley (1985) into three types: inter-granular solution, solution seams, and stylolites. Inter-granular solution occurs at contacts between grains where stress is concentrated. It is common in grainstones and forms early in the solution process. Solution seams form in fine-grained clayrich carbonate rocks and are associated with nodular limestones. The term "stylolite" is restricted to low- to high-amplitude sutured-seam solution features. The higher amplitude and larger stylolites generally form late in the solution process in wackestones to grainstones and at lithologic boundaries.

Inter-granular solution, seam solution, including stylolamination and wispy silt accumulations, and stylolites are common throughout the Garden City Formation. Stylolaminations and wispy silt accumulations dominate the wackestone/mudstone lithotype (Fig. 148) while inter-granular solution (Fig. 14C) and stylolites are most common in the grainstone/packstone lithotypes. The microstylolites in the clay-rich zones create stylonodular fabrics. Stylolites almost always form between abrupt changes in lithotypes, an effect noted by Buxton and Sibley (1981). Nearly all stylolites formed parallel to bedding. The few that are perpendicular to bedding are of late diagenetic origin and may represent stresses applied during Late Cretaceous and Tertiary faulting.

One of the most prominent facies of the formation is the nodular wackestone/mudstone which is interspersed with primary depositional layers and lenses of ripple-marked, planar-laminated and hummocky

cross-stratified limestone. The limestone nodules and lenses in the nodular wakestone/mudstone are nearly pure and are surrounded by, and in some cases draped by, quartz silt and clay minerals. The primary depositional features have been altered by some burrowing and diagenetic pressure dissolution (compare with Demicco 1983) which further enhances non-carbonate material concentrations (Wanless 1979).

Burial depths needed to produce pressure dissolution vary from over 300 meters to 4,000 meters (Scholle and Halley 1985). Deep burial appears to be the most important condition for pressure solution. Using the conodont alteration index (CAI) from conodonts found in the lower Garden City Formation, a minimum burial depth of 5700 meters can be calculated for the formation (Gillett and Taylor 1985). Such a significant burial depth could easily account for the pressure solution features.

Mechanical compaction thus played an important role in altering the finer-grained Garden City sediments, with later pressure solution affecting all the sediments.

## Neomorphism and Cementation

Neomorphism as defined by Folk (1965) encompasses all transformations between one mineral and itself or its polymorphs. The abundance of microspar and sparite suggests that much of the Garden City Formation has been affected by neomorphism. Size and shape (equigranular) of the grains were the criteria used to identify the neomorphic transformation of micrite  $(5 \text{ nm})$  to microspar  $(5-30)$ 

um) (Folk 1965). To recognize the neomorphic origin of coarse sparite material the criteria were expanded to include the presence of: 1) large crystal diameters, up to 100 um together with an irregular distribution of sizes; 2) floating patches of residual micrite in clear sparite; 3) embayments of sparite altering allochems; and (4) the low occurrence of enfacial junctions (Bathurst 1975).

Neomorphism is common in the packstone/grainstone lithotypes. In some cases clayey, non-carbonate material was "pushed'' in front of the aggrading sparite and appears squeezed between sparite crystals.

It is postulated that two different types of original material underwent neomorphism. Dirty sparite and squeezed clay indicate replacement of a fine-grained micrite/clayey matrix. In some cases, however, no dirty residue is present, but other neomorphic evidence remains. This indicates that neomorphism of original cement may have occurred.

Three stages of cementation have taken place, an early rim cement, a later blocky, pore-space-filling cement, and a still later fracture-filling cement. Evidence for cementation in the Garden City Formation includes: skeletal grains with equant to bladed rim cements, and altered shells with unaltered micrite rims (Fig. 15). This is similar evidence for cementation used by Bathurst 1975.

Some skeletal grains, particularly trilobite and mollusc fragments, have fringes of bladed to equant rim sparite as evidence for early cementation. Gillett (1983) noted the same feature in the equivalent Ordovician Goodwin Limestone in Nevada and attributed it



Fig. 15. Photomicrographs of evidence for cementation in the Garden City Formation. A) Fringes of bladed to equant early rim cement (arrow) on a skeletal fragment. Scale bar is 100 um. B) Arrow points to altered bioclast with unaltered micrite rim. Scale bar is 200 um. All photomicrographs are plane-polarized light.

to the recrystallization of acicular marine cements.

Syntaxial rims along with the preservation of uncompacted peloids and blocky sparite burrow infillings also may be the result of early cemention (Longman 1980). Syntaxial calcite rims are prevalent on pelmatozoan debris. They are less common on peloids and trilobite and mollusc fragments. The rims were formed as either early cement or neomorphic sparite and are most common in the coarsegrained packstone/grainstones. Pelmatozoan and other bioclast fragments found in the fine-grained wackestone/mudstones generally do not have syntaxial rims.

In the deep subtidal wackestone lithotype some of the bioclasts were totally altered to a sparry calcite mosaic within a micrite envelope. The shapes of the bioclasts indicate that they were originally molluscan shell fragments.

The early cementing material was provided by marine phreatic waters while the later cementing material was most likely provided by pressure solution as suggested by Scholle and Halley (1985).

# Micritization

Many bioclasts possess micrite rims as evidence for micritization, a process accomplished through the work of boring algae (Bathurst 1975}. Bathurst (1975) also noted that complete micritization of skeletal fragments was important in the origin of peloids in modern carbonate environments. The problematic codiacean alga Nuia commonly has been micritized in the Garden City Formation and may have been the source of some of the peloids (Fig. 16).



Fig. 16. Micritization of Nuia may have been the source of some of the peloids in the Garden City Formation. Photomicrograph of unaltered Nuia (a), partially altered Nuia (b), and Nuia completley altered to peloids (c). Scale bar is 200 um. Plane-polarized light

#### Dolomitization

The Garden City Formation contains minor amounts of dolostone in all sections, mainly in variable thicknesses within the uppermost 50 meters and also at the lower contact with the Saint Charles Formation. Additional scattered occurrences of dolostone are found throughout some sections. None of the dolostone appears to be facies controlled, as the contacts with limestone are irregular, irrespective of rock type. The major dolostone units are composed of xenotopic, fine- to medium-crystalline dolomite (Fig. 17). The original depositional textures, including intraclasts and bioclasts, and depositional structures are retained as ghost features.

A number of. hypotheses have been suggested for dolomite formation (see discussion in Hardie 1987). Some of the dolostone found in the Garden City Formation may be attributed to migration of dolomitizing fluids along faults. In stratigraphic sections two, three, and five, scattered fault-controlled dolostone is recognized by field relationships of the dolostone to faults. The dolomite formed in zones that parallel the faults regardless of lithotype. Faulting, however, does not explain the persistent occurrence from section to section of both the lowermost and the upper dolostones.

Dolostone occurs at the contact with the underlying dolomitized Saint Charles Formation. However Taylor and Landing (1981) attributed the dolomitization of the Saint Charles Formation to an unconformity and accompanying subaerial exposure of the Saint Charles before Garden City deposition. Thus a different mechanism, unrelated to the dolomitizing event of the Saint Charles Formation, must have



Fig. 17. Photomicrograph of the xenotopic texture of dolomite in the Garden City Formation. Scale bar is 200 um. Plane-polarized light

formed the dolomite in the lower part of the Garden City. In section two, the lowermost dolomite may be related to faulting as Landing (1981) identified a shear zone in the upper Saint Charles and lower Garden City.

Dunham and Olson (1980) surveyed the distribution of limestonedolostone in lower and middle Paleozoic rocks of the Cordilleran miogeocline in Nevada and western Utah and found that the deeper water carbonate rocks to the west are primarily limestone, whereas the shallow water sediments of the east are preferentially dolomitized. They suggested the dolostone formed from mixing of freshwater and seawater and that the freshwater lens and recharge to the system was controlled by paleogeography. In this way they accounted for shifts in the limestone-dolostone boundary with time.

It is possible that the dolostone of the Garden City Formation resulted in response to mixing of fresh and marine water. However, dolomite formed as a result of mixing of waters is predominantly clear and euhedral, with plane crystal faces (Folk and Land 1975). That is not the type of dolomite found in the Garden City.

It is postulated instead that the dolostone of the Garden City Formation may have formed from deep-burial dolomitization processes. The evidence for deep-burial dolomitization includes: 1) xenotopic texture; 2) scattered zoned dolomite rhombs with dirty cores and clear rims; 3) ghost textures of original depositional environments preserved in crystalline dolomite; and 4) no boundaries of crystals evident with cathodoluminescence. Similar evidence was used by Lee and Friedman (1987) to prove deep-burial dolomitization in the

Ordovician Ellenburger Group carbonates. Gregg and Sibley (1986), however, attribute the xenotopic character of most dolomite to epigenetic conditions with temperature above 50°C.

Hardie (1987) claimed that burial dolomite can potentially form from any heated groundwater; therefore water composition is not as significant as is the fluid's ability to move at depth. According to Hardie (1987), burial dolostone will form at temperatures of 100º C, with fluid migration concentrating dolomite formation at basin edges, at unconformities, and at basement highs. He further stated that at passive margins the dolomitizing fluid system can be driven updip via thermal anomolies.

The lower dolostone may be related to dolomitizing fluids driven along the unconformity with the Saint Charles Formation, whereas the upper dolostone may somehow be related to fluids moving along the contact with the lowermost shale member in the Swan Peak Formation.

Porphyrotopic dolomite also occurs as scattered euhedral rhombs in burrows, in clay-rich seams, and under some intraclasts (Fig. 18A-C). Under cathodoluminescence the rhombs luminesce a darker orange than the background material, which indicates different modes of formation for the rhombs and the massive crystalline dolomite. The rhombs are generally associated with the finer-fraction clayey material and solution seams. The clays may contribute to the dolomitization by acting as membranes which impede ion migration, or as centers for nucleation of crystals (Kahle 1965). Fluids may have been able to migrate through the finer grained materials because they were not initially cemented as readily as the coarser fractions.
Fig. 18. Photomicrographs of dolomite rhombs in the Garden City Formation. A) Scattered euhedral dolomite rhombs in burrows. Scale bar is 200  $\mu$ m. B) Clay-rich limestone with euhedral rhombs. Scale bar is 200  $\mu$ m. C) Rhombs (arrow) formed under an intraclast. Scale bar is 200um. D) Zoned dolomite rhombs, (a) iron-rich dolomite with limonite zones. and (b) non-iron-rich dolomite with limonite centers and rims. Scale bar is 200 um. All photomicrographs are planepolarized light.



Staining revealed that some of the dolomite rhombs are zoned ferroan-dolomite and dolomite (Fig. 18D). This indicates a change in fluid composition as the crystals formed. Many rhombs have limonite rims, whereas some are completely altered to limonite or are zoned with limonite centers. Limonite is an alteration product of ferroan-rich dolomite (Gillett 1983). Iron-rich fluids may originate from the alteration of associated clay minerals providing a source for the iron (Bathurst 1975; Flugel 1982). The cause of the fluid composition changes required for rhomb zonation is unclear.

Timing of the dolomitization derived from thin section information indicates that the dolomite formed after the chert and most stylolites. This implies a time of formation after pressure solution had begun. Euhedral dolomite rhombs, identified by cathodoluminescence, floating in xenotopic crystalline dolomite represent a second dolomitizing event. Since minor stylolites occur in the dolostone, some pressure solution of the already dolomitized material may have been the source of fluids for the later dolomite rhomb formation.

In several thin sections rhombohedral-shaped pores resulting from dissolution of dolomite rhombs are common. Some pores have remnant dolomite within; therefore dedolomitization replacement with calcite did not occur. The pores and remnant rhombs are limonitelined indicating that the original dolomite had an iron-rich composition. Dissolution of the dolomite could have been accomplished by migrating fluids which had been depleted with respect to magnesium.

#### Dedolomitization

Many thin sections have evidence of dedolomitization, the process of calcitization of dolomite. Evamy's (1967) description of the process requires that original dolomite rhombs be replaced by equicrystalline, high-magnesium calcite. Friedman and Sanders' (1967) evidence for dedolomitization includes: 1) dolomite remnants within calcite crystals; 2) pseudomorphs of calcite after dolomite; and 3) ghost dolomite rhombs in ferric oxide zones. The evidence for dedolomitization within the Garden City Formation is primarily restricted to calcite pseudomorphs of dolomite rhombs concentrated in ferric oxide zones. Figure 19 shows limonite-rimmed calcite pseudomorphs after dolomite. Limonite-rimmed calcite and dolomite rhombs occur within the same thin section in iron-rich zones under intraclasts. No dolomite remnants were observed nor did any of the replaced calcite appear to be equicrystalline. However, the presence of zoned rhombs composed of calcite and outlined with limonite was interpreted as a result of dedolomitization.

Friedman and Sanders (1967) noted that the dedolomitization process occurs in association with sulfate ions. Magnesium from dolomite combines with sulfate ions to form MgS04 and calcite. Sulfate ions can be supplied by the oxidation of pyrite (Evamy 1967; Friedman and Saunders 1967). There is ample evidence of the oxidation of pyrite to hematite in the Garden City Formation, which could provide a source for the sulfate ions.



Fig. 19. Evidence for dedolomitization, limonite-rimmed calcit pseudomorphs after dolomite (arrows). Pseudomorphs stain red with alizarin red-S. Calcite pseudomorphs and dolomite rhombs occur within the same thin section in iron-rich zones under intraclasts. Scale bar is 200 um. Plane-polarized light.

#### Pyrite and Hematite

Scattered throughout the formation are small blebs of hematite pseudomorphs after pyrite, and rare pyrite. These occur as singular or clustered euhedral crystals and are associated with burrows or bioclasts and in some cases micritic intraclasts. There is more pyrite and hematite in the fauna-rich deeper subtidal lithotypes. More organics probably accumulated in these sediments because the less agitated, deeper environment resulted in less oxidation of organics. Berner (1984) found that pyrite is an early diagenentic alteration of metastable iron monosulfides produced by bacterial action on organic matter. Hematite is a late diagenetic alteration of the pyrite. No pyrite was observed on surface exposures, however, some was revealed in cut samples.

#### Chert

Chert is scattered throughout most of the formation as stringers, blebs, and nodules, with a notable concentration in the upper part of the formation. This upper chert zone varies in thickness from section to section, but all share the characteristic of a gradual increase of banded, anastomosing, and nodular chert until chert comprises up to 50% of the rock. Above this increased chert zone there is a corresponding gradual decrease in chert until none is present.

The chert color is variable in shades of grey and pink, and black and white. Pink is limited to the bottom of the formation, and white is found in the upper chert zone in only one section.

Colors are probably associated with trace elements and organic matter. ' The white may be a weathering rind as it is less than 10 mm thick. The chert consists of megaquartz, microquartz, and rare length-fast chalcedony. The chalcedony has a brown hue, possibly from included organic matter. The chert selectively replaced bioclasts, especially pelmatozoan, trilobite, and brachiopod fragments.

The chert in sections outside the chert zone replaced original material, leaving relict structures of fossils and intraclasts and in some cases lenses of intraformational conglomerate. No sponge spicules were observed within this chert; however the ubiquitious presence of sponge spicules in the sediment suggests that they could have been the source. In the chert zone of the upper member, the chert has abundant relict sponge spicules (Fig. 20). The limestone associated with the chert usually has high amounts of calcitereplaced monaxon and uncommon triaxon sponge spicules and numerous peloids. The originally siliceous spicules probably provided a biogenic source for the silica. The anastomosing habit of some of the chert in the highly burrowed and bioturbated deeper subtidal facies suggests that fluid migration followed burrows. Such fluid migration is a result of the increased permeability and organic content of burrow-fill sediment (Eckdale and Bromley 1986). Banded cherts may be caused by clayey layers that stop or impede migration of fluids along bedding.

Chert formation has been linked by Knauth (1979) to the mixing model for dolomitization. There is some dolostone associated with



Fig. 20. Photomicrograph of abundant relict sponge spicules in chert in the upper chert-rich zone of the Garden City Formation. Scale bar is 200 um. Plane-polarized light

#### Fractures

Nearly vertical calcite-filled fractures are very common throughout the Garden City Formation but tend to increase in the chert zone. The fractures cut all other features and are a late diagenetic event, probably related to late Cretaceous and early Tertiary faulting. At least two events exist as evidenced by the cross-cutting relationships of the fractures.

#### DIAGENETIC MODEL

The Garden City Formation was deposited during a slow and steady transgression, with storm influence and sea level fluctuations adding complexity to diagenetic events. From the features observed the following generalized model of diagenetic events of the Garden City Formation can be postulated.

An early diagenetic feature formed at the sediment/water interface was the micritization of bioclasts by boring algae. A later diagenetic feature below the sediment/water interface, was the formation of pyrite. Reducing conditions, caused by abundant organic matter incorporated within the sediments, led to the pyrite formation.

The numerous intraclasts attest to the fact that early lithification of the sea floor was common. Equant to bladed rim cement was precipitated on bioclasts, and is still preserved on some trilobite and mulluscan shell fragments. Early cement filled some burrows and surrounded peloids, preventing their obliteration by contemporaneous compaction.

Neomorphism occurred after early cementation as both micrite and original cement were altered. A blocky pore-filling cement probably formed in the mid- to late-eogenetic system. The chert also formed at this time since it was in place before much pressure solution took place.

Continued addition of overburden initiated pressure solution which undoubtably continued from early- through late-stage mesogenetic diagenesis. If in fact there was burial dolomitization it would have occurred within the mesogenetic system.

Late Cretaceous thrust faulting and early Tertiary normal faulting probably caused the fractures in the Garden City Formation. These fractures are filled with a late-stage calcite cement. The faults were zones of weakness in the rock allowing migration of fluids that dolomitized the surrounding rock. Two stages of dolomitization occurred, the first replacing extensive portions of the rock and the second forming scattered euhedral rhombs within massive crystalline dolomite.

Oxidation of pyrite to hematite and the formation of limonite are the last of the diagenetic processes and occurred near the surface as a result of weathering.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The diagenetic events present in the Garden City Formation include compaction, neomorphism, cementation, micritization, dolomitization, dedolomitization, formation of chert, and fracturefill.

Mechanical compaction includes grain breakage, grain realignment, squashed burrows, interpenetration of intraclasts, and clotted fabrics, **all** of which are early diagenetic features. Pressure solution, pervasive evidence for chemical compaction, occurs later in the diagenetic history.

Three stages of cementation occurred: an early stage, a later blocky pore-filling cementation, and the last event, late fracture-fill cementation. Neomorphism affected micrite and the early stage cement, altering them to microspar and sparite respectively. Chert formation occurred before much pressure solution and was probably a late eogenetic process. Dolomitizing fluids moved along faults, unconformities, and bedding planes to selectively dolomitize the Garden City rocks. The dolostone in the formation does not appear to be facies controlled. Dedolomitization and the oxidation of pyrite to hematite were late diagenetic events resulting from near-surface weathering.

#### CHAPTER IV

#### **SUMMARY**

The Garden City Formation represents a storm-dominated transgressive sequence deposited in an epeiric sea. The formation is composed of nine lithotypes which represent various depositional environments. The lithotypes consist of nodular wackestone/mudstone with packstone lenses, intraclastic packstone/grainstone, green shale, laminated packstone/grainstone, cryptalgalaminite, fossiliferous packstone, boundstone, Calathium/sponge, and burrowed fossiliferous wackestone/packstone with chert. Storm action extensively reworked the initial transgressive and shoreface materials which are characterized by erosional channels and intraformational conglomerate layers and lenses.

The broad shelf of the epeiric sea may be subdivided into two distinct environments, a shallow subtidal inner shelf and a deeper subtidal outer shelf. The shallow inner shelf was characterized by shoreward fossil banks and mud mounds, a restricted fauna, large amounts of terrigenous material, and repeated occurrences of intraformational conglomerate layers. Irregularly distributed shoal islands were formed as a result of excessive sediment production.

The deeper outer shelf sediments include a diverse fauna and are characterized by bioturbation and burrowing. These sediments have a significant amount of banded and anastomosing black, white, and grey chert. A storm-initiated skeletal accumulation separated the inner and outer shelves.

Terrigenous input created an unfavorable habitat within the

shallow inner shelf which resulted in a restricted fauna. Tides provided water circulation to maintain near normal marine conditions in the shallow water, landward belt of the Ordovician epeiric sea.

The Garden City facies were compared to the model of epeiric sea deposition presented by Shaw (1964) and Irwin (1965). They describe three generalized energy zones and suggest that tide action was unlikely in the low-energy interior regions of epeiric seas. There was a lack of evidence within the Garden City sediments to support the existence of an extensive, tideless low-energy zone.

A tropical, humid climate prevailed throughout the time of deposition of the Garden City Formation. Deposition was influenced by the subsiding Northern Utah and Ibex Basins and the uplifting Tooele Arch. The transition to deeper water was in central Nevada.

The diagenetic events present in the Garden City Formation include compaction, neomorphism, cementation, micritization, dolomitization, dedolomitization, formation of chert, and fracturefill.

Early diagenetic features of mechanical compaction include grain breakage, grain realignment, squashed burrows, interpenetration of intraclasts, and clotted fabrics. Numerous stylolites, stylolaminations, and inter-granular solution are evidence for later chemical compaction.

Three stages of cementation occurred. Early rim cements were followed by blocky pore-filling cemehts and later fracture-fill cements. Neomorphism was common, affecting micrite and the early rim cement, altering them to microspar and sparite. Chert formation

occurred before much pressure solution and probably represents silicified burrow fillings.

Dolomite in the Garden City Formation does not appear to be facies controlled. Dolomitizing fluids moved along faults, unconformities, and bedding planes to selectively dolomitize the formation. Late diagenetic near-surface weathering resulted in dedolomitization and the oxidation of pyrite to hematite.

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APPENDICES

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Appendix *fl* 

Petrographic, Insoluble Residue, and X-ray Data

#### Explanation

Thin sections were made from all samples from the High Creek Section. Sample numbers followed by an asterisk(\*) were point counted with a minimum of 300 points. Petrologic data from samples in the remaining sections were estimated using acetate peels. The term bioclast refers to unidentified fossil fragments.

The column after the sample number indicates the location (given in feet and meters) within the section that the sample was taken. Zero is always the bottom of the section.

Insoluble residue compositions are listed in order of decreasing relative peak heights.



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## BLACKSMITH FORK SECTION 1





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# GREEN CANYON SECTION 2





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## HIGH CREEK SECTION 3





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## WELLSVILLE SECTION 5









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Appendix B Measured Stratigraphic Sections

## Explanation



~ Limestone



Nodular and sedimentary boudinage limestone<br>
with some shale interbeds<br>
with some shale interbeds



Dolostone



Covered Slope, float present



Mud mounds



Chert

@ Stromato 1 ite





ast of Hyrum<br>idge (Logan  $\frac{1}{2}$ ort<br>ing 101, n<br>st-fac n, Highway<br>n a southea<br>drangle).  $\frac{1}{2}$ Can<sub>i</sub><br>red<br>e a  $x \times 1$ ar<br>tea U...EE Blacksmith<br>City Park,<br>Peak 7 1/2  $\sin \theta$ Locat

Swan Peak Formation

Abrupt contact

Garden City Limestone





Disconformity

Saint Charles Formation




GREEN CANYON SECTION 2



Location: One mile from the mouth of Green Canyon, measured on a north-facing slope, NE 1/4, Sec 19, T. 12 N., R. 2 E. (Smithfield 7 1/2 minute quadrangle). ·

Swan Peak Formation

Abrupt contact

Garden City Formation







Disconformity

Saint Charles Formation





HIGH CREEK SECTION<sub>3</sub>



Location: Four miles up High Creek trail, southwest-facing slopes (Naomi composite section measured on Peak 7 1/2 minute quadrangle).

Swan Peak Formation

Abrupt contact

Garden City Formation







Disconformity

 $\overline{\phantom{a}}$  .

Saint Charles Formation





MANTUA SECTION 4



Location: Gold Mine Hill and the hill northwest of Gold mine Hill, composite section measured on southwest-facing slopes, Sec 10, T. 9 N., R. 1 W. {Mount Pisgah 7 1/2 minute quadrangle).

Swan Peak Formation

Abrupt contact

Garden City Formation

Thickness in feet and (meters)





Thickness in feet and (meters)

Coarse-crystalline dolostone with greyish pink banded chert, basal 8 cm layer of very silty l i me stone • • • • • • • • • • • • 5 ( 1. 5) Total 1406 (428.5)

Disconformity

Saint Charles Formation





WELLSVILLE SECTION 5



Location: Mouth of Cottonwood Canyon, east of Honeyville, Wellsville Mountain, composite section measured on southwest-facing slopes, NE 1/4, sec. 3, T. 10 N., R. 2 W. (Honeyville 7 1/2 minute quadrangle).

Swan Peak Formation

Abrupt contact

Garden City Formation



Thickness in feet and (meters) Thin-bedded, mixed, fine-grained and fossil-rich with small intraclast intraformational conglomerate limestone, silty blebs and partings, gradational to abrupt and erosional contacts, interbedded with thin lenses of coarse-grained, planar-laminated to hummocky cross-stratified limestone with some burrowing . . . . 215 (65.5) Intraformational conglomerate limestone layers and lenses, from 15 cm to 46 cm thick, with large bladed to small, irregular shaped intraclasts in a fossil background, interbedded with 15 cm to 3 m thick, nodular to coarse- to fine-grained, planar-laminated limestone, burrowed with varying amounts of silt, interbedded with olive green limy shale, from 30 cm to 1.2 m thick. Some gradational but mostly abrupt and erosional contacts, some hummocky cross-stratification and burrowing in conglomerate and fossiliferous layers. Increasing amounts of banded and nodular black chert near top ••••••••••.•••.•••••••. 348 (106.1) Thin- to thick-bedded beds of fossil hash with lenses of intraformational conglomerate, some burrowing and silty partings, abrupt to gradational contacts to nodular to planar-laminated, silty limestone, interbedded with massive, fine- to coarse-grained, burrowed limestone with wavy silty partings, mud mounds covered with fossil hash at 120.7, 87.8, and 68.9 meters, there are scattered rare nodules of black chert throughout. • • • • • • • • • 249 (75.9) Large intraclast, bladed, intraformational conglomerate limestone lenses and layers with numerous erosional surfaces, gradational to abrupt contacts, interbedded with massive, fine- to coarsegrained limestone, interbedded with nodular to planarlaminated, silty limestone, some burrowing, hummocky cross-stratification, graded bedding, some scattered banded to nodular grey chert  $\ldots$ , . . . . . . . . 153 (46.7) Coarse-crystalline dolostone with irregular contacts to limestone . . . . . . . . . Covered slope . . . . . . . . . . . . . Coarse-crystalline dolostone with pink chert nodules and silty partings . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 3 5 3 (0.9)  $(1.5)$ (0.9)

Large intraclast intraformational conglomerate lenses



Di sconformi ty

Saint Charles Formation





Appendix C Point Count Data

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## Explanation

Thin section numbers followed by an asterisk(\*) were point counted with a minimum of 300 points. All other thin sections were estimated using estimation charts from Flugel (1982). The data are listed as percentages. The term bioclast refers to unidentified fossil fragments.

ALLOCHEMS THIN SECTION



ALLOCHEMS THIN SECTION



## ALLOCHEMS

THIN SECTION



ALLOCHEMS THIN SECTION





THIN SECTION





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