

Geologic Map of Gunnison Gorge National Conservation Area, Delta and Montrose Counties, Colorado

By Karl S. Kellogg, Wallace R. Hansen, Karen S. Tucker, and D. Paco VanSistine 2004

Introduction

The 57,725-acre Gunnison Gorge National Conservation Area (hereafter referred to as the NCA) was created by Congress in 1999 and is administered by the U.S. Bureau of Land Management (BLM). The NCA (fig. 1A and B) is the downstream continuation of Black Canyon of the Gunnison National Park. Unlike the almost inaccessible depths of the Gunnison River canyon within the National Park, several good hiking trails provide access to the canyon within the NCA. It is one of the most beautiful and accessible wild areas to be found in the United States. Every year the gorge attracts over 10,000 visitors, who explore its depths and the surrounding hills by foot, horseback, mountain bike, kayak, and raft. Towering cliffs, quiet river-side glens, cascading rapids, winding trails with spectacular canyon views—these are just a few of the features enjoyed by visitors to the NCA.

Much of the attraction of the NCA is due to the spectacular geological formations, which document a geological history that extends to more than a third of the age of the Earth itself. This map shows not only some of these geological features, but also highlights some of the most interesting ecological and human-interest aspects of the Gunnison River gorge.

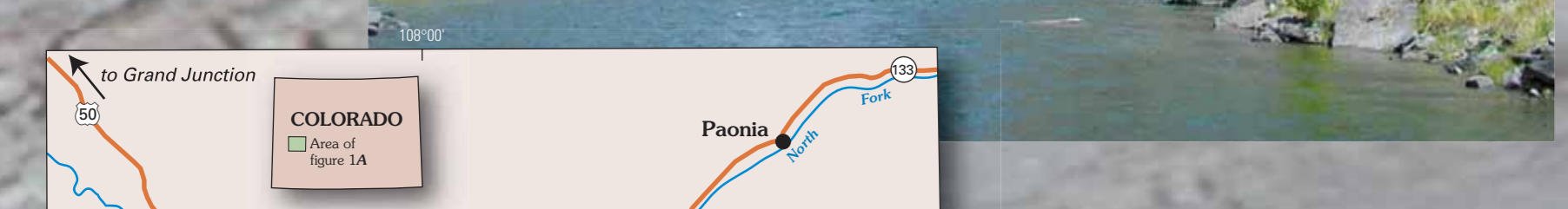
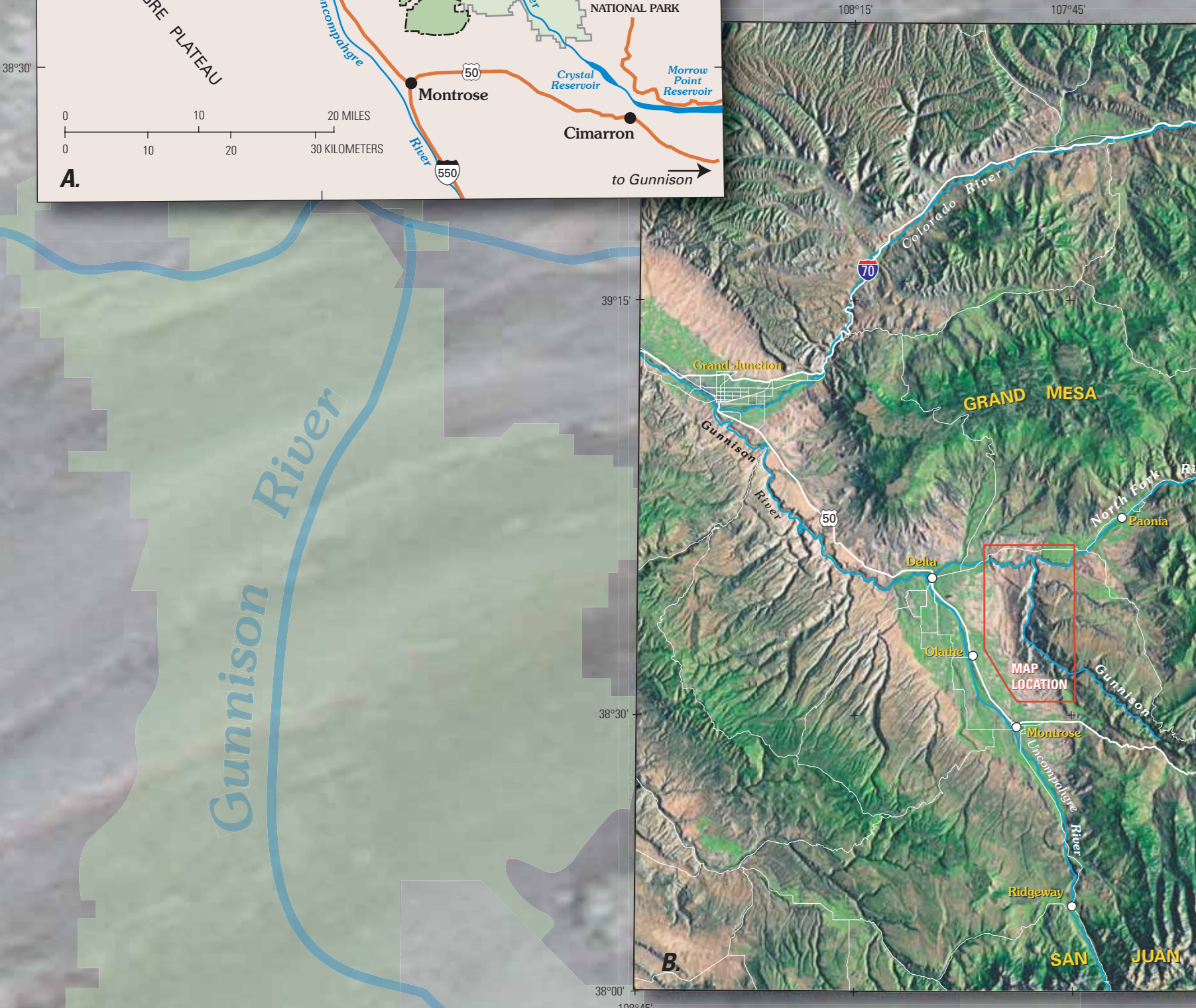


Figure 1. A (left) Index map showing location of the Gunnison Gorge National Conservation Area and Black Canyon of the Gunnison National Park. Major roads are shown in brown. B (below) Latest map showing the limits of the geologic map and surrounding areas.



The Gunnison River Paradox

Why does the Gunnison River cut through the center of the Gunnison uplift and not around it? Two interesting geologic relationships have been proposed to explain this paradox. First, the Gunnison uplift was mostly buried by enormous outpourings of ash-flow tuff and volcanic breccia during huge Oligocene and Miocene volcanic eruptions that originated from two nearby volcanic centers in the San Juan and West Elk Mountains. These eruptions, as well as a broad, late Tertiary downwarper syncline (Hansen, 1987), confined the Gunnison River to a course across the buried Gunnison uplift.

Second, rapid lowering of base level to which a stream can erode during Pliocene and Quaternary time (refer to Kellogg, in press, for how this occurred) caused the Gunnison River to cut rapidly into the thick accumulation of volcanic rocks (as well as the soft Mancos Shale), exhuming the buried Gunnison uplift. The Gunnison River was confined to the established channel within the volcanic rocks, so it continued to erode downward where it was—right into the hard rocks of the Gunnison uplift. This process, whereby a river crossing one type of rock descends over time by erosion into entirely different, commonly much harder rocks, is called stream superposition (that is, the stream is superimposed on the underlying harder rocks).



Geology

The fascinating geologic story of the Gunnison River gorge is too complicated to describe in detail on this map. However, this story is told in a separate, companion publication, "The Geologic Story of Gunnison Gorge National Conservation Area, Colorado" (Kellogg, in press). For the purposes of this map, the geology is briefly described here.

The Rocks of the Gorge Record Geologic History

The oldest rocks in the gorge are the ancient basement rocks that make up the moody, steep, dark-colored walls beneath horizontal layers of sedimentary rock. These basement rocks were formed by igneous and metamorphic processes deep in the Earth's crust during the Proterozoic Eon, approximately 1.7–1.4 billion years ago. Examples of metamorphic rocks in the gorge are quartzite, gneiss, mica schist, amphibolite, and migmatite (figs. 2, 3, and 4). Within the NCA, coarse-grained Pitts Meadow Granodiorite (figs. 3 and 5) intruded these ancient metamorphic rocks. In addition, many light-colored dikes and irregular masses of coarse-grained pegmatite form a conspicuous network of igneous intrusions throughout the canyon.

A tremendous period of time—over 1.5 billion years—transpired between the formation of the basement rocks and the deposition of the oldest sedimentary rocks that rest on them. We know that several periods of uplift and erosion took place during this long intervening period. A relatively good geologic record exists for the period of uplift that resulted in the ancestral Uncompahgre uplift, one of several mountainous areas in the Rocky Mountain region that rose about 300 million years ago. Erosion that followed the uplift denuded the region of the 500–300-million-year-old Paleozoic rocks that had been deposited before uplift. The oldest sedimentary rocks that remain on the ancient eroded basement surface are 190 million years old. A younger period of uplift and major mountain building, called the Laramide orogeny, occurred about 70–50 million years ago and formed the pattern of ranges of the present Rocky Mountains.

The oldest sedimentary rocks in the NCA form the Middle Jurassic Entrada Sandstone (fig. 6), which is composed of pink to yellowish-orange, cross-bedded sandstone that accumulated as ancient sand dunes. Overlying the Entrada are mudstone, sandstone, and gypsum of the Middle Jurassic Wanakah Formation, which were deposited in a closed, shallow inland sea. With time, the land was slowly uplifted and the sea retreated. The sea-floor sediments were then buried by sandy and muddy sediments deposited in coastal lakes and rivers, and these sediments now form the multicolored sandstone and shale beds of the Upper Jurassic Morrison Formation. The basal part of the Morrison Formation is called the Tidwell Member (O'Sullivan, 1992), which contains some gypsum beds, indicating that shallow, enclosed seas periodically covered the land during deposition of the Tidwell. The Tidwell Member closely resembles the underlying Wanakah Formation, and it was included with the Wanakah. The Tidwell Member of the Morrison Formation and the Wanakah Formation are combined on this geologic map because they are so similar in this area; however, they are differentiated in figure 7.

Overlying the Tidwell Member is the Salt Wash Member of the Morrison Formation, which contains cross-bedded, red-stained (from the overlying reddish shale), fluvial (deposited in rivers) sandstone beds and interbedded shale. Overlying the Salt Wash Member are colorful red, green, and gray shales and thin sandstone beds of the upper Brushy Basin Member of the Morrison, which are host to some world-famous dinosaur-bone localities outside the NCA.

A period of no deposition, or deposition followed by erosion, followed emplacement of the Morrison Formation. Such a break in the geologic record is called an unconformity. The rocks above the unconformity are fluvial deposits of the Lower Cretaceous Burro Canyon Formation, which form thick beds of cliff-forming, light-brown, quartz sandstone with interbedded shale and chert-pebble conglomerate. Above the Burro Canyon Formation, thin beds of quartz sandstone, shale, and coal in the Lower Upper Cretaceous Dakota Formation record a time when rivers and swamps deposited sand, mud, and decaying plant material along a tropical marine shoreline.

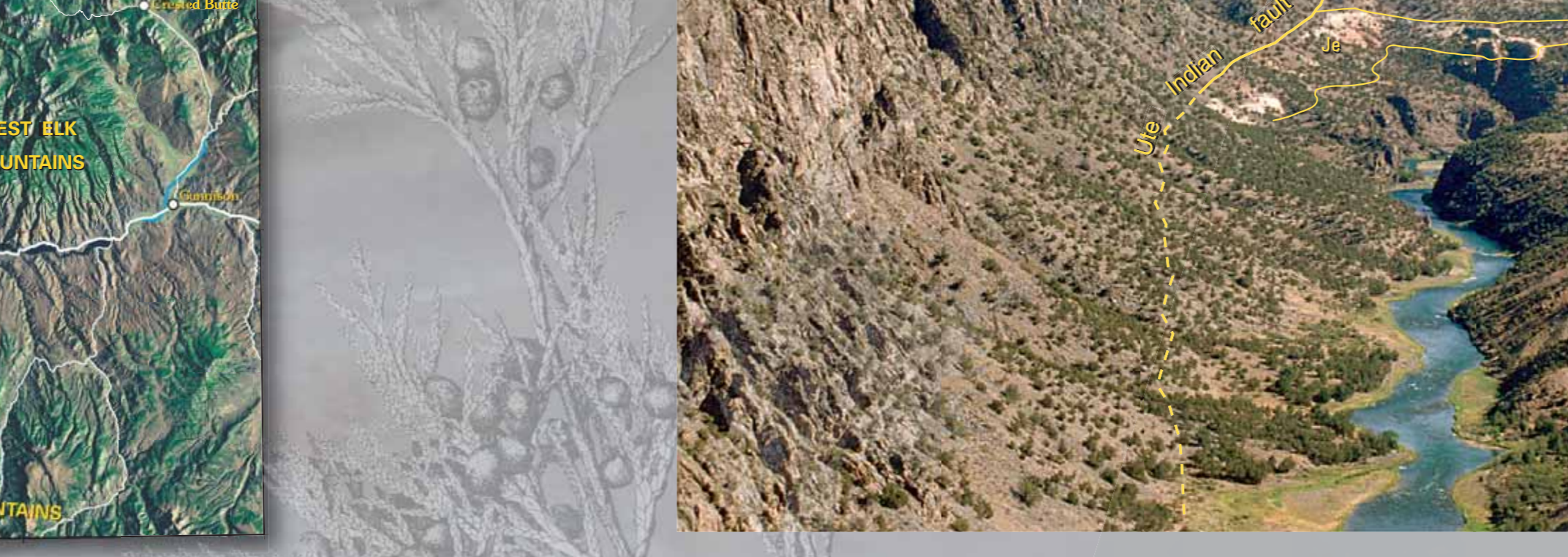
Once again, the sea gradually covered the land, and deposits of sand of the Dakota Formation were buried by thick deposits of marine mud of the Upper Cretaceous Mancos Shale, which now form a gray badlands landscape of weathered shale and mudstone in the southwestern and western parts of the NCA. The Mancos Shale is the youngest consolidated bedrock formation exposed in the NCA. Much younger, mostly unconsolidated Quaternary surface deposits, such as alluvium, terrace gravels, landslide deposits, and talus, cover large areas of the NCA.

Ute Indian fault: A Spectacular Laramide Feature

The Gunnison River gorge contains one of the most spectacularly exposed faults in Colorado—the Ute Indian fault. It is a north-trending, east-dipping thrust fault that dips (is inclined) about 40° to the west. During the Laramide orogeny, Proterozoic basement rocks were shoved up and to the east along the fault by as much as 1,150 feet (350 meters) vertically above Jurassic sedimentary rocks.

The fault is magnificently displayed along part of the gorge (figs. 6 and 7). The Ute Indian fault formed during a period of great mountain building called the Laramide orogeny, which began near the end of the Cretaceous Period (about 70 million years ago) and lasted about 20 million years into early Tertiary time. During the Laramide orogeny, the present Rocky Mountains formed, although the mountains have subsequently been greatly modified by erosion, volcanic activity, faulting, and additional uplift. The Gunnison River cuts through the middle of the Gunnison uplift, one of a number of highlands that rose during the Laramide orogeny.

The fault is clearly exposed in Chukar Canyon and generally follows the gorge northward, crossing the Gunnison River at several places. At both its south and north ends, displacement on the fault dies out. On the geologic map there is a gap in the trace of the fault, beginning about 1.5 miles (2.4 km) north of Chukar Canyon. There, displacement on the fault is dispersed into the easily deformed gypsum of the Wanakah Formation and the lower Morrison Formation, so the fault does not appear at the surface.



Ecology of the Canyon

The canyon has a variety of ecological environments. Riparian habitats along the river corridor are host to cottonwoods, box elder, willows, and patches of poison ivy and other plants. In addition to these native plants, tamarisk (salt cedar), an introduced water-loving species, is making inroads along the riverbank. The BLM has launched an aggressive tamarisk-control program to rid the NCA of this threat to native plant communities.

Farther back from the river, a semi-arid environment containing juniper, scrub oak, mountain mahogany, grasses, Mormon tea, occasional cactus, and other plants. Piñon-juniper forests and open sagebrush parks mark the higher regions of the NCA. The western and southern regions of the NCA are underlain by nutrient-poor Mancos Shale, which forms a barren landscape with sparse vegetation. Some of the plants found here, such as a clay-loving species of buckwheat (*Eriogonum peflowidum*), are endangered and are found only in Mancos Shale soils.

The NCA is the home of a wide variety of wildlife, including mule deer, elk, Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep (reintroduced in 1986), mountain lions, bobcats, black bears, coyotes, foxes (both red fox and the diminutive kit fox), river otters (also reintroduced in 1986), and a variety of snakes and lizards. Birds of prey include peregrine and prairie falcons, kestrels, golden eagles, osprey, red-tailed hawks, and occasional bald eagles. A small population of turkey vultures also inhabits the area. Many other bird species are either residents of the canyon or are seasonal visitors. The Gunnison River is considered a "gold-medal" trout stream and contains introduced eastern brook, German brown, and Cutthroat trout. Certain native warm-water species, such as the humpback chub, and pikeminnow, no longer inhabit the canyon. Not only do the native fish have to compete with the non-native fish for food and habitat, but the water temperature is considerably lower than it was before the early 1960s—when three upstream dams (Coyote, Morrow Point, and Blue Mesa) were built. Water from these dams is released from the deepest and coldest parts of these reservoirs and provides ideal habitat for the canyon's excellent trout fishery, but has proved deadly for most native warm-water species.

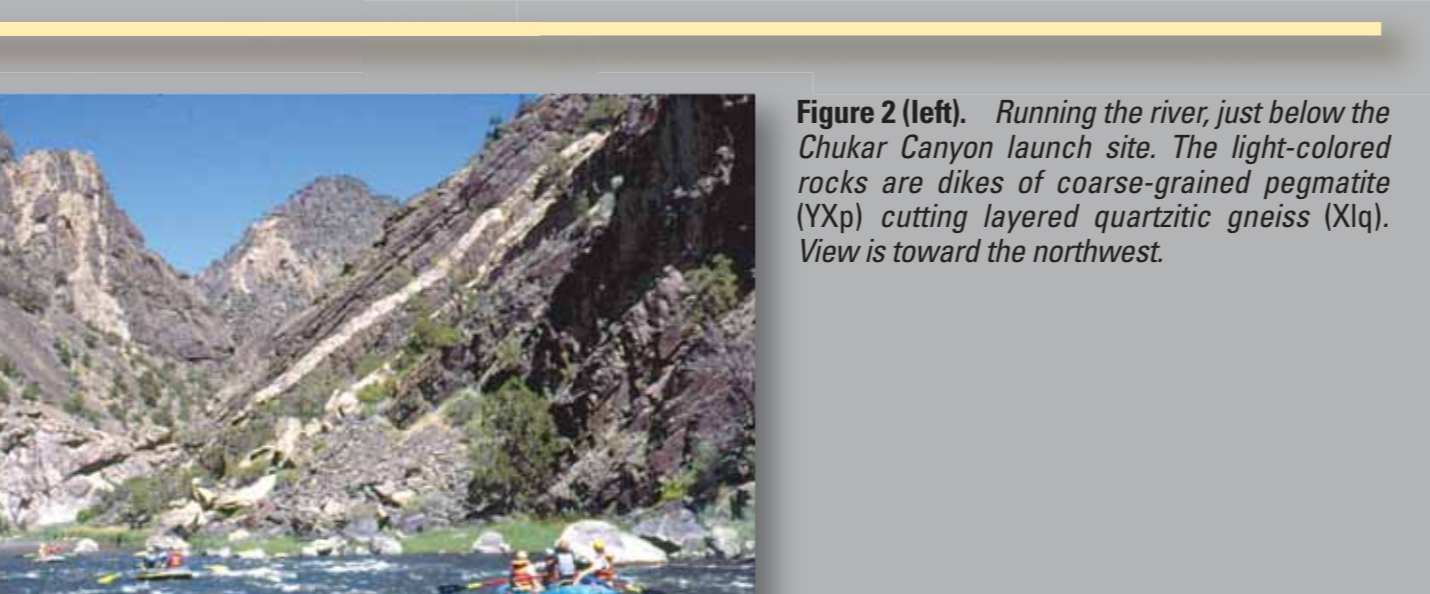
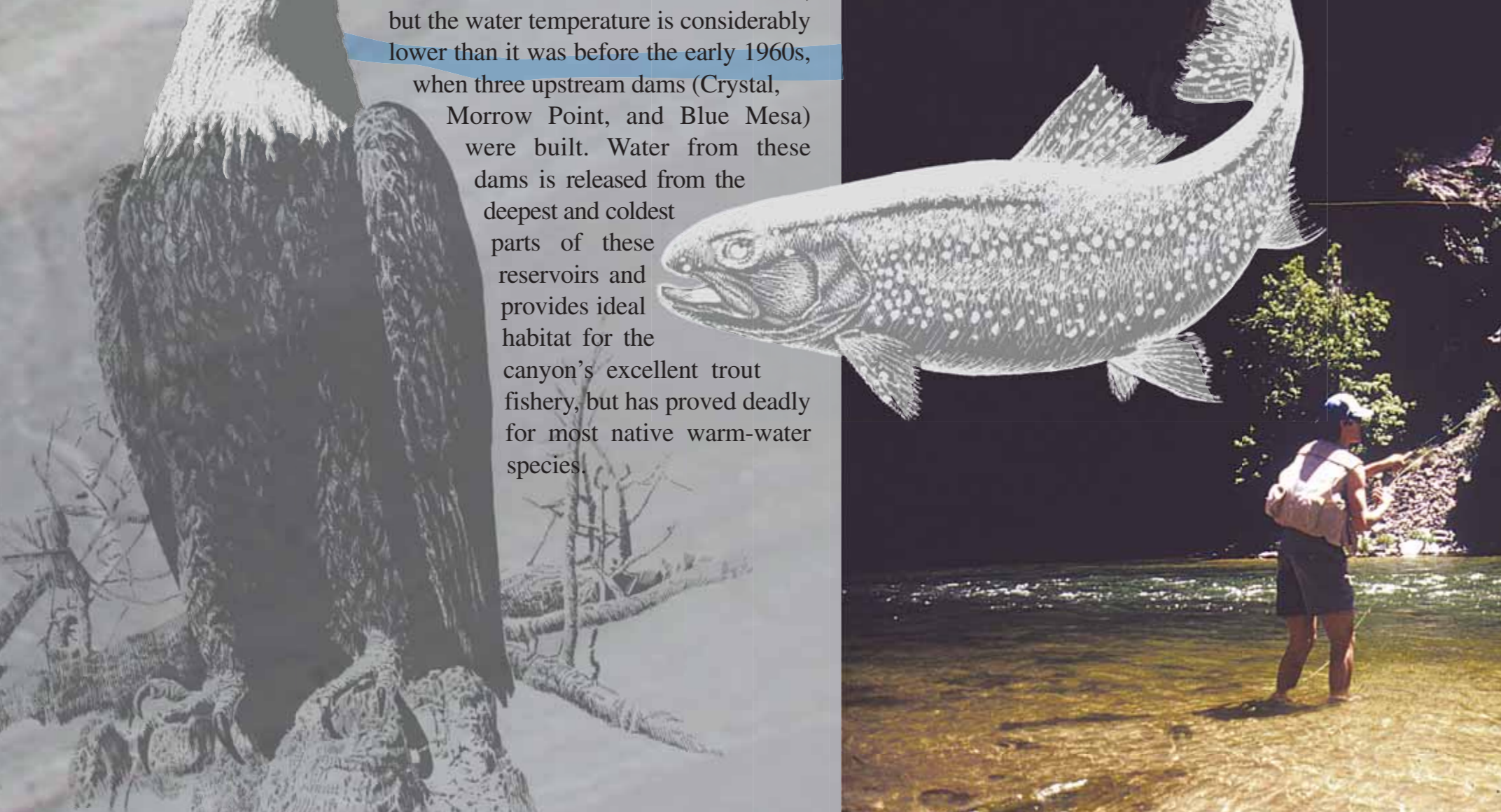


Figure 2 (left). Running the river, just below the Chukar Canyon launch site. The light-colored rocks are dikes of coarse-grained pegmatite (Pg) cutting layered quartzite gneiss (Qg). View is toward the northwest.



Figure 3 (below). Outcrop along the Gunnison River about 0.6 mile (1 km) upstream from Smith Fork, of dark, layered amphibolite (Aa), intruded by Pitts Meadow Granodiorite (Pg), in turn intruded by light-colored, coarse-grained pegmatite (Pg) and fine-grained mica (m) from these pegmatites on top. Note is about 2 inches (5 cm) long.



Figure 4. Two lizards sunning themselves on an outcrop of amphibolite (Aa) in the canyon of Smith Fork. The distance between the lizards is about one foot (30 cm).



Figure 5. The Boulder Gardens, a class III-IV rapid, contains large blocks of dark Pitts Meadow Granodiorite (Pg).

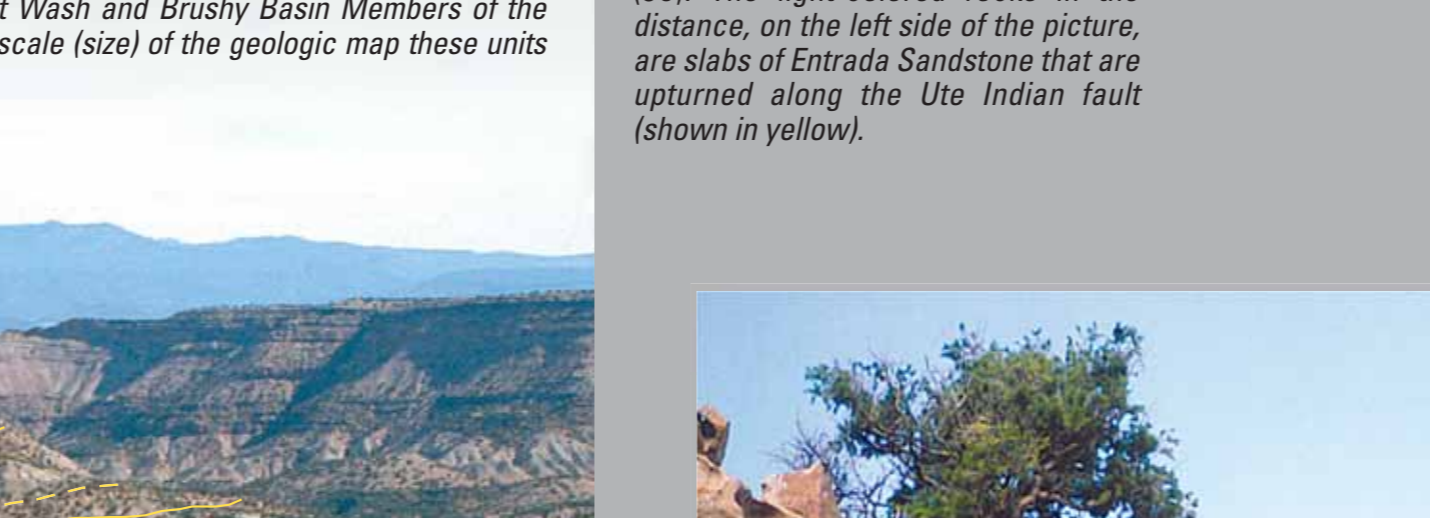
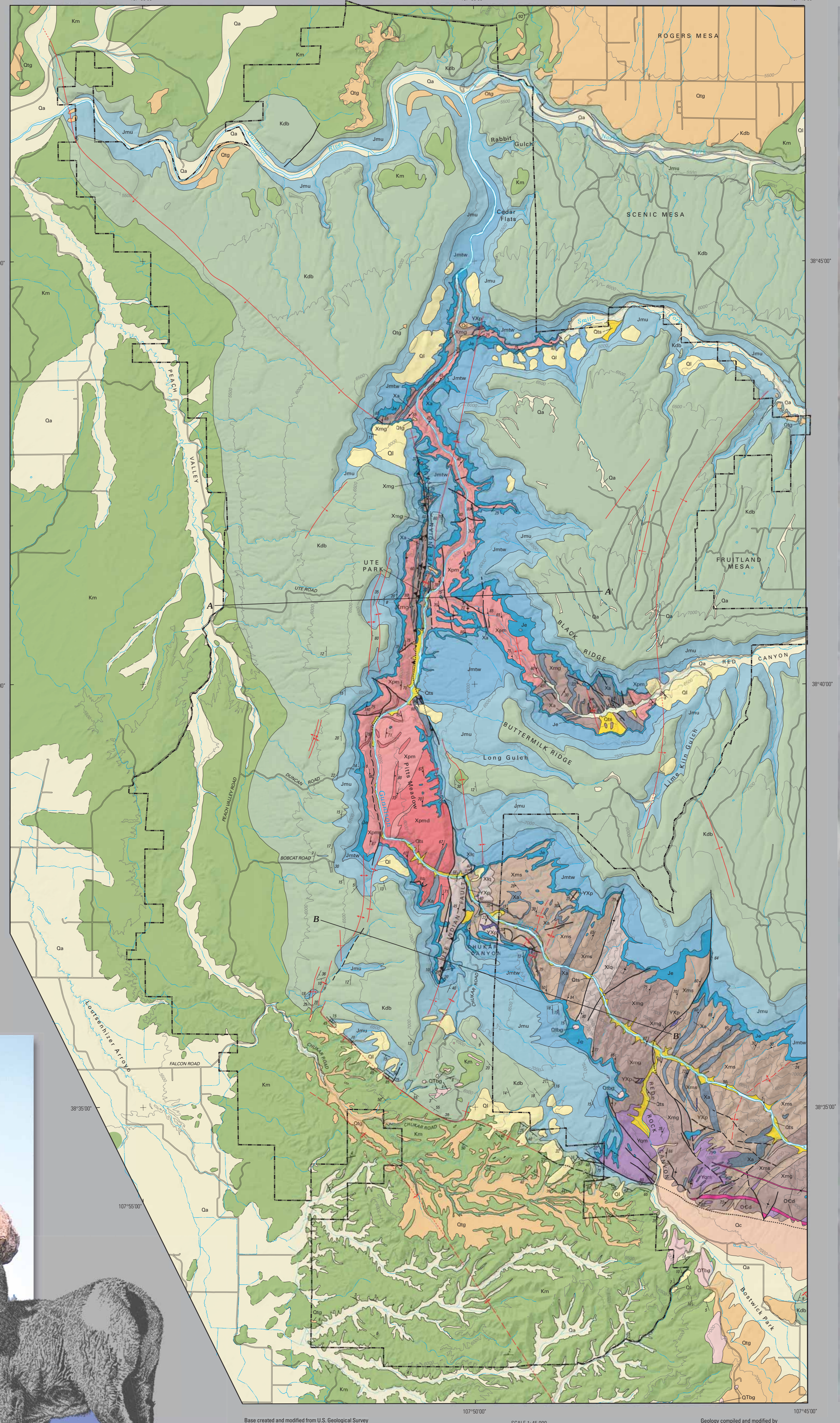


Figure 6 (above). View to the south showing the Ute Indian fault. The Burro Canyon Formation, the Salt Wash Member of the Morrison Formation, the Dakota Formation, and Burro Canyon Formation. Note how the down-to-the-east displacement across the fault dies out to the north, such that the Ute Indian fault is not broken by the faulted and tilted beds of the Burro Canyon Formation. The light-colored rocks in the distance, on the left side of the picture, are dikes of Entrada Sandstone that are displaced along the Ute Indian fault (shown in yellow).



Map prepared and modified by U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO 80225. Original map by Wallace R. Hansen, Karl S. Kellogg, and D. Paco VanSistine. Data, photos, and field notes by Kellogg, Hansen, and VanSistine. Map scale: 1:50,000. U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO 80225. This map is a derivative work of the U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO 80225. It is not to be reproduced without the written permission of the U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO 80225.

Humans and the Canyon

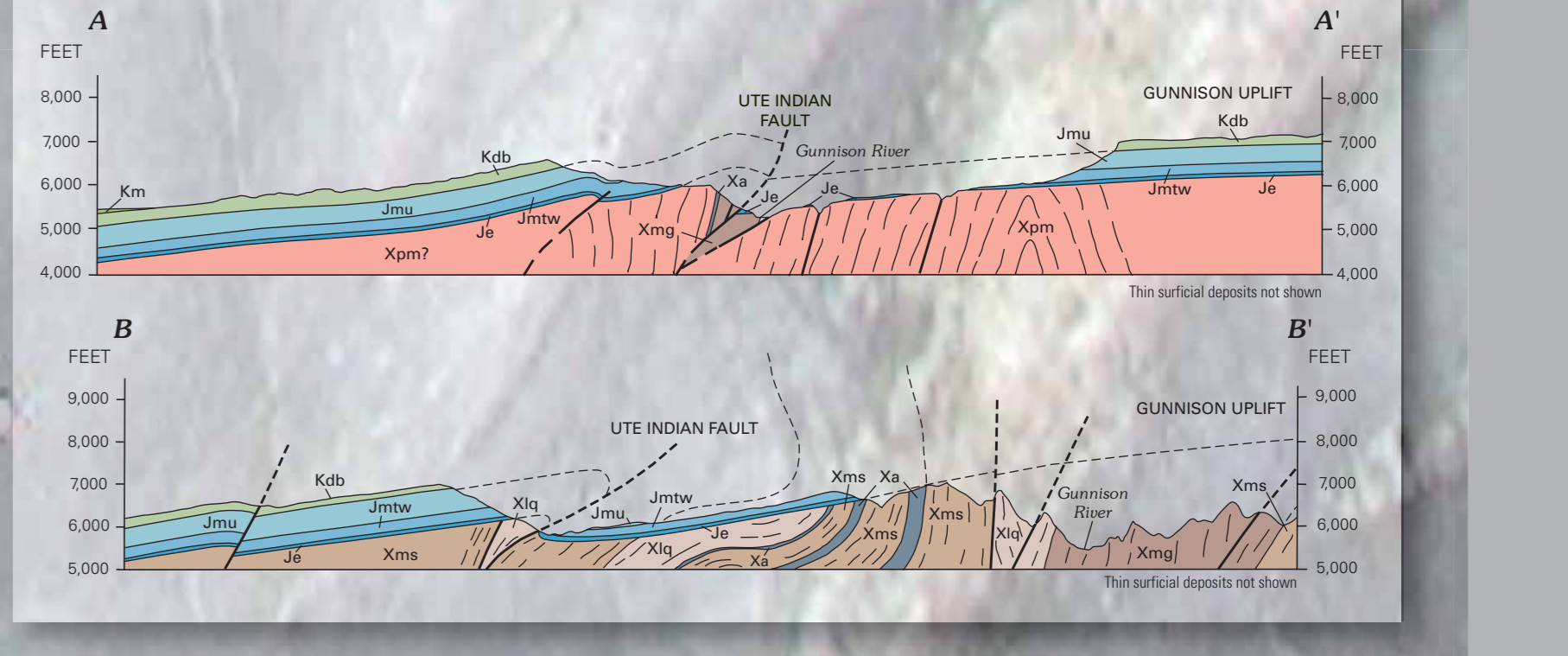
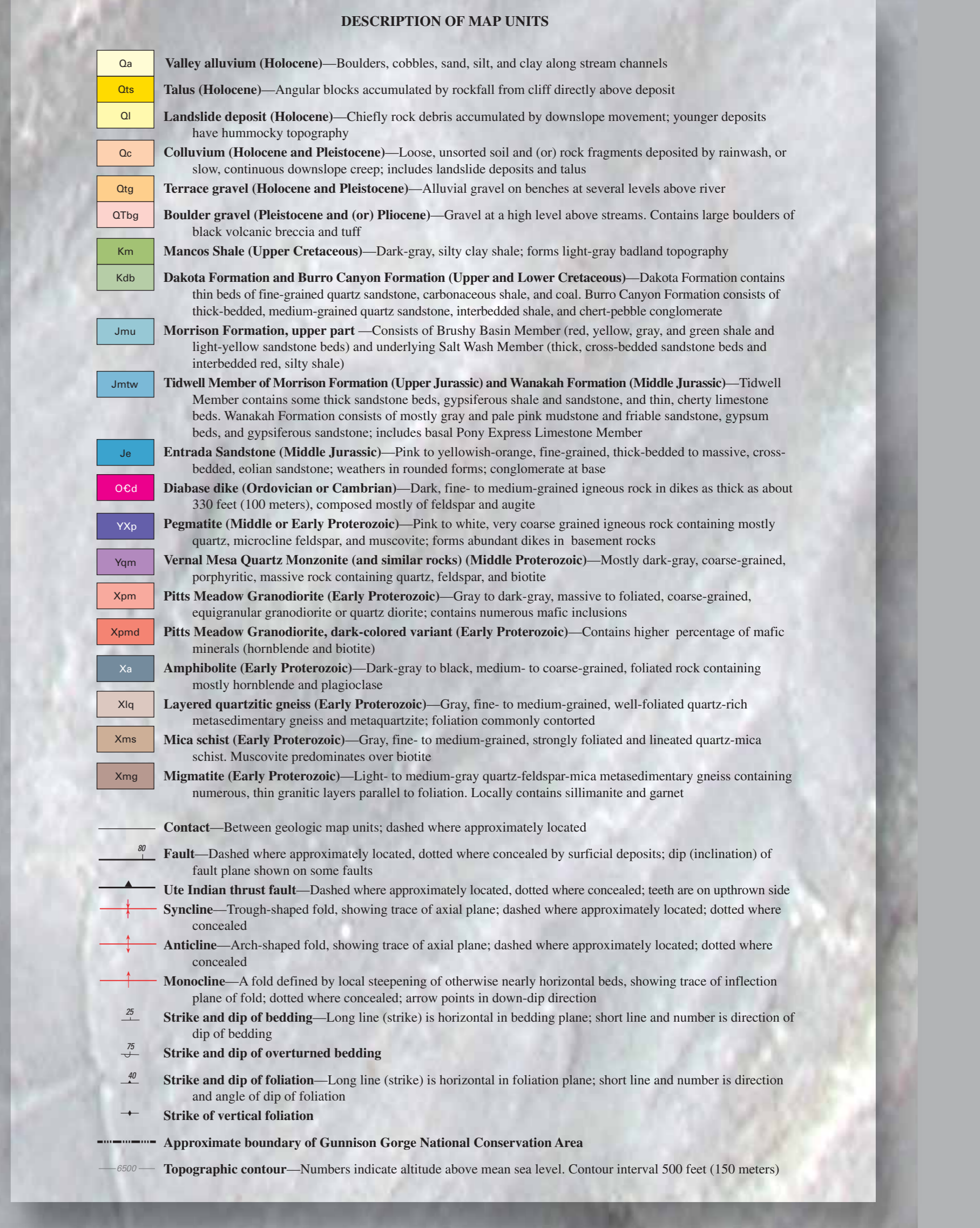
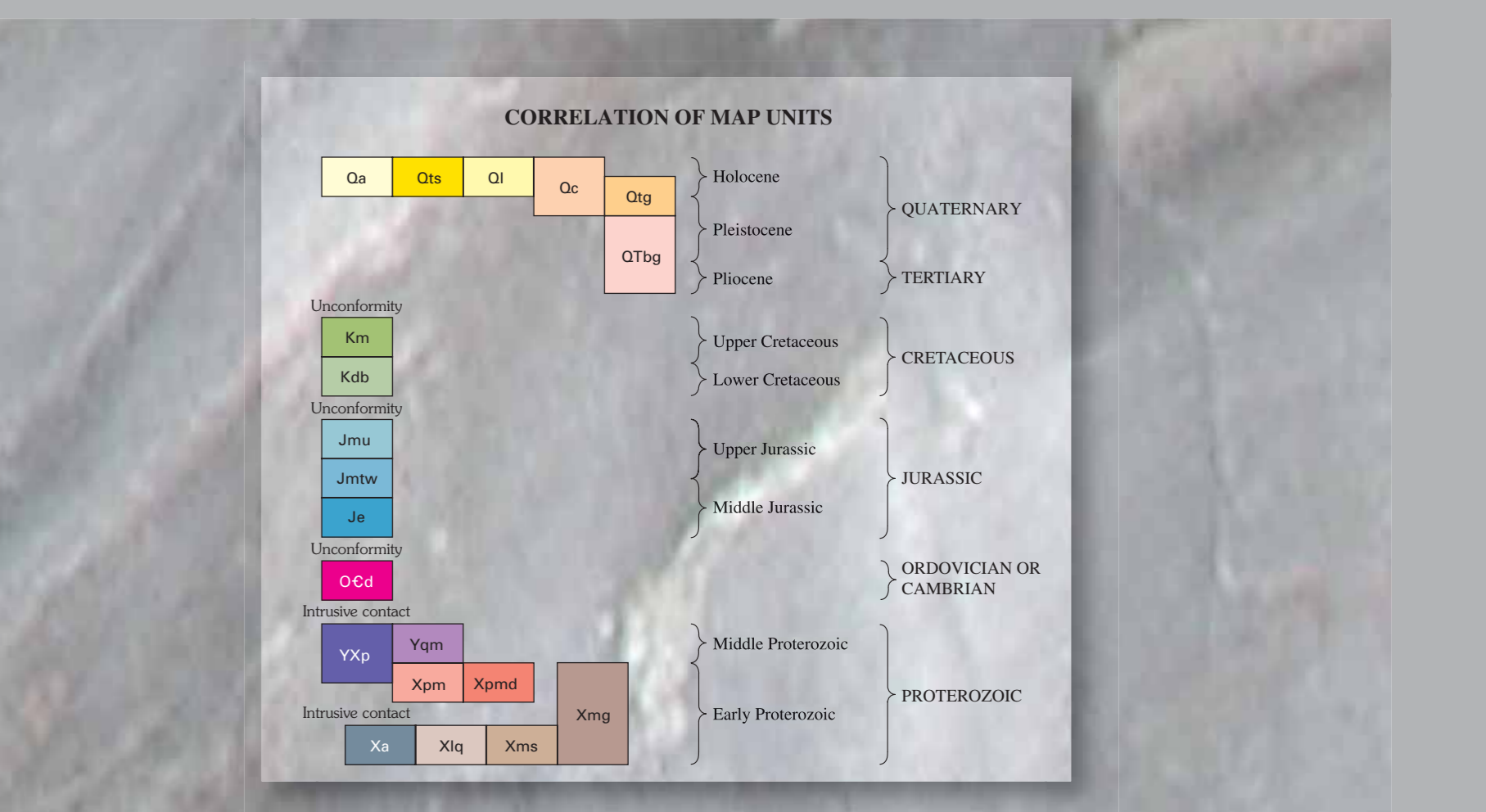
The earliest known inhabitants or visitors to the canyon were prehistoric Native Americans who camped and hunted in the area. Petroglyphs and rock structures that were constructed without mortar are scattered throughout the canyon; however, the exact origin of these relics remains unknown. Clovis and Folsom spear points have been found in the Uncompahgre River valley, indicating that the region has been inhabited for at least 10,000–11,000 years. More recently, until historic times, mountain-dwelling Utes traversed the canyon's depths.

The Gunnison River is named after John William Gunnison, who led an expedition through the region in 1854 to survey a railroad route from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean. The Black Canyon of the Gunnison understandably caused the expedition to make a large detour and led Gunnison to conclude that a railroad could be constructed through the region only "at an enormous expense."

Few people have lived permanently in the canyon. During the Depression years, John Howell from Olathe built several cabins at "Howell Village" (fig. 8) and eked out a living prospecting for gold and mining mica from pegmatite deposits in the Ute Park area. The Duncan brothers also prospected in the canyon at about the same time; the ruins of their stone cabin and a prospect tunnel are at the base of the Duncan Trail.



Figure 8. "Howell Village," the remains of John Howell's cabins built during the 1850s just north of the Park. Howell was a prospector who lived in the canyon during the Great Depression.



Geologic Time Chart	Age	Period	Epoch	Estimated age						
Quaternary	Quaternary	Quaternary	Quaternary	13,800 years						
				10,000 years						
				5,000 years						
				2,000 years						
				Cretaceous	Cretaceous	Cretaceous	100 million years			
							100 million years			
							100 million years			
							100 million years			
							Jurassic	Jurassic	Jurassic	200 million years
										200 million years
200 million years										
200 million years										
Triassic	Triassic	Triassic	250 million years							
			250 million years							
			250 million years							
			250 million years							
			Permian	Permian	Permian	300 million years				
						300 million years				
						300 million years				
						300 million years				
						Carboniferous	Carboniferous	Carboniferous	360 million years	
									360 million years	
360 million years										
360 million years										
Devonian	Devonian	Devonian							400 million years	
									400 million years	
			400 million years							
			400 million years							
			Silurian	Silurian	Silurian				440 million years	
									440 million years	
						440 million years				
						440 million years				
						Ordovician	Ordovician	Ordovician	480 million years	
									480 million years	
480 million years										
480 million years										
Cambrian	Cambrian	Cambrian							540 million years	
									540 million years	
			540 million years							
			540 million years							
			Precambrian	Precambrian	Precambrian				570 million years	
									570 million years	
						570 million years				
						570 million years				
						Proterozoic	Proterozoic	Proterozoic	2,500 million years	
									2,500 million years	
2,500 million years										
2,500 million years										
Archean	Archean	Archean							4,000 million years	
									4,000 million years	
			4,000 million years							
			4,000 million years							
			ADD UP THE EARTH	ADD UP THE EARTH	ADD UP THE EARTH				4,540 million years	
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