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Brock Inlier, Northwest Territories**

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Brock Inlier, Northwest Territories**

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This report is dedicated to the memory of Frances Wolki

1.0 Introduction

The Brock Inlier Project, Northwest Territories, is part of the second phase of Natural Resources Canada's Geo-mapping for Energy and Minerals (GEM) program. It involves stratigraphic analysis and geological mapping of uplifted mostly late Mesoproterozoic to early Neoproterozoic sedimentary units and surrounding Paleozoic and Mesozoic sedimentary rocks (Rainbird et al., 2015a,b). The Brock Inlier overlaps the eastern edge of the largest gravity and magnetic anomaly in North America, the Darnley Bay anomaly. It has been suggested that the anomaly is a result of a deeply buried Ni-Cu-PGE magmatic sulphide deposit similar to that of Noril'sk in Russia (Jones et al., 1992, Jefferson et al., 1994). Magnetotelluric (MT) data have been acquired along an east-west transect to trace sedimentary rocks layers westward from the Brock Inlier into the subsurface and to improve our understanding of the nature, size and depth of the Darnley Bay anomaly.

Co-located audio- (AMT) and broadband (BBMT) magnetotelluric sites were collected at 17 locations during the 2015 summer field (Figure 1a). The transect crosses Mesozoic rocks along the southern margin of the Darnley Bay anomaly then crosses over onto Proterozoic rocks of the Brock Inlier along the eastern margin of the anomaly. The Darnley Bay MT data have been processed using modern, robust methods and have been analyzed for non-uniform source fields, dimensionality, effects of distortion, geo-electric strike angles and ocean sea water effects. Electrical resistivity profiles derived from rigorous 2D inversions of the MT impedance tensor highlight areas of low resistivity. These low resistivities are commonly associated with rock types containing conductive mineral assemblages or may represent a proxy for zones of deformation, fault zones, and fossil fluid pathways. Here we present and discuss two-dimensional resistivity models along the MT transect.

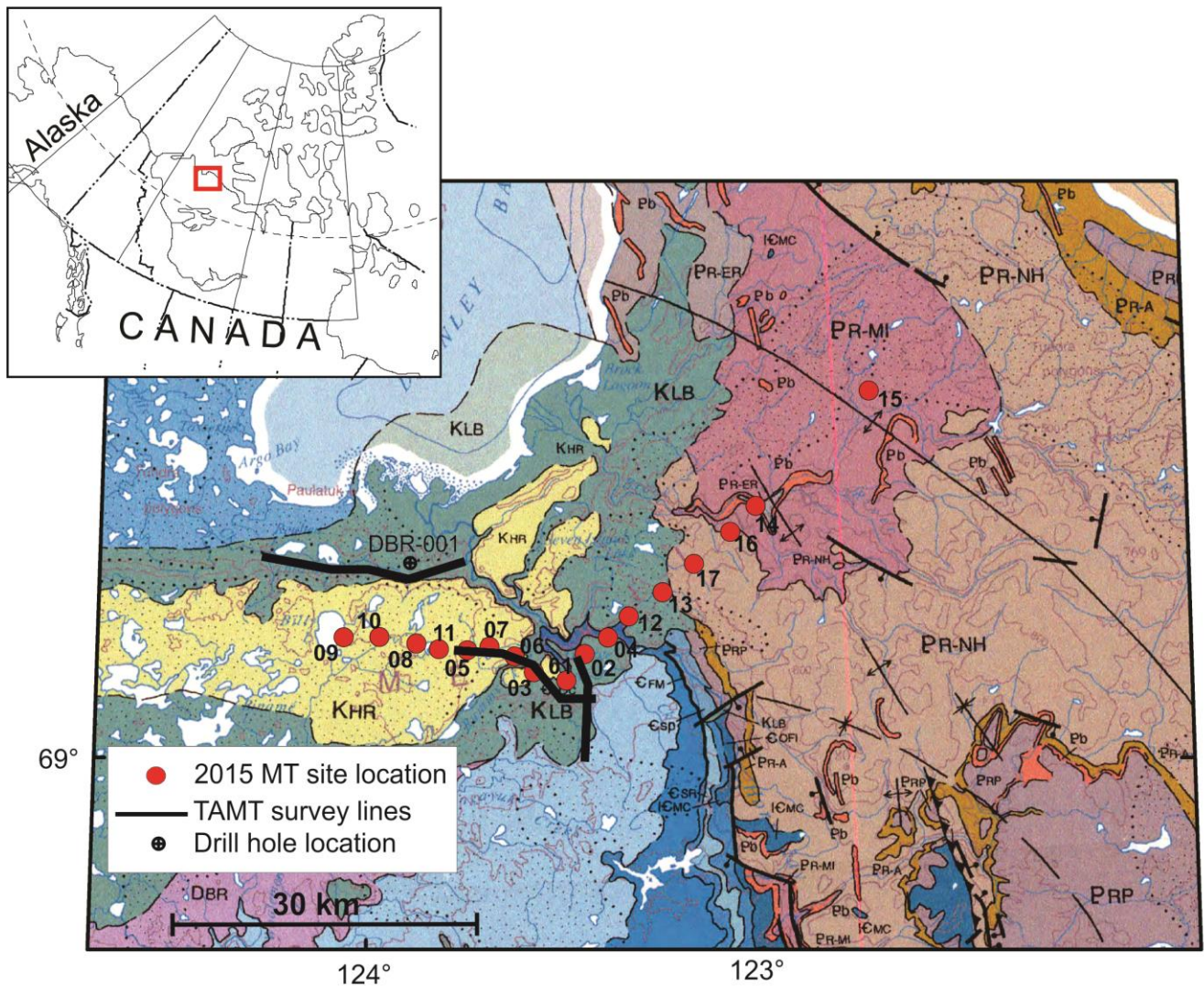


Figure 1 Locations of MT stations (red circles) overlain on regional geological map of the Brock Inlier. Modified from Okulich (2000). K, D, S, O, €, P = Cretaceous, Devonian, Silurian, Ordovician, Cambrian, and Proterozoic units respectively.

2.0 Geological and Geophysical Background

The Brock Inlier and Darnley Bay region is largely obscured by up to 1 km of Phanerozoic sediments that consist primarily of unconsolidated Pleistocene glacial sediments overlying mostly silicified carbonates of the Cambrian Ronning Group and/or the Franklin Mountain Formation (Jones et al., 1992). These are underlain by the early Neoproterozoic Reynolds Point and Rae groups of the Shaler Supergroup, including sandstone, mudrock and dolostone that are up to 1.5 km thick (Figure 1)(Rainbird et al., 1994; Rainbird et al.,1996; Reford, 2012). The Shaler Supergroup is intruded by 718-723 Ma mafic dykes and sills of the Franklin large igneous province (Heaman et al., 1992). Below the Shaler Supergroup lies flood basalt and sandstone of the Coppermine River Group (Baragar and Donaldson, 1973), carbonates of the Dismal Lakes Group and sandstones of the Hornby Bay Group estimated to be 3-4km in thickness (MacLean and Cook, 1992; Cook and MacLean 2004). Aspler et at.

(2003) show that the basement beneath the Brock Inlier and Darnley Bay anomaly is part of the Slave craton, but recent work by Schaeffer and Lebedev (2014) place it within the Mackenzie craton.

Just west of the exposed Brock Inlier lies the Darnley Bay anomaly, a positive 130 mgal Bouguer gravity and coincident 750 nT positive magnetic anomaly (Figure 2 and Figure 3). It has been suggested (e.g. Jefferson et al., 1994) that the source of both the gravity and magnetic field anomalies is due to a large body of ultramafic to mafic rock that intrudes crystalline rocks of the Slave Province as well as some of the Proterozoic supracrustal rocks described above. Interpretation of the gravity and magnetic data show that the top of the intrusion lies at 1 – 5.5 km depth and extends as a truncated cone which widens with depth (Stacey, 1971). However, Jefferson et al. (1994) interpret the gravity data to represent steep sides to depths of 7 km. Seismic data acquired along the western margin of the Darnley Bay anomaly revealed east dipping reflectors that were first interpreted as the top of the intrusive body at depths of ~3048 – 3354 m, where an offset in the reflectors coincides with the western margin of the anomaly (Vye, 1972). The depth, size and internal structure of the Darnley Bay anomaly remains largely uncertain in that a unified model to explain all features remains elusive.

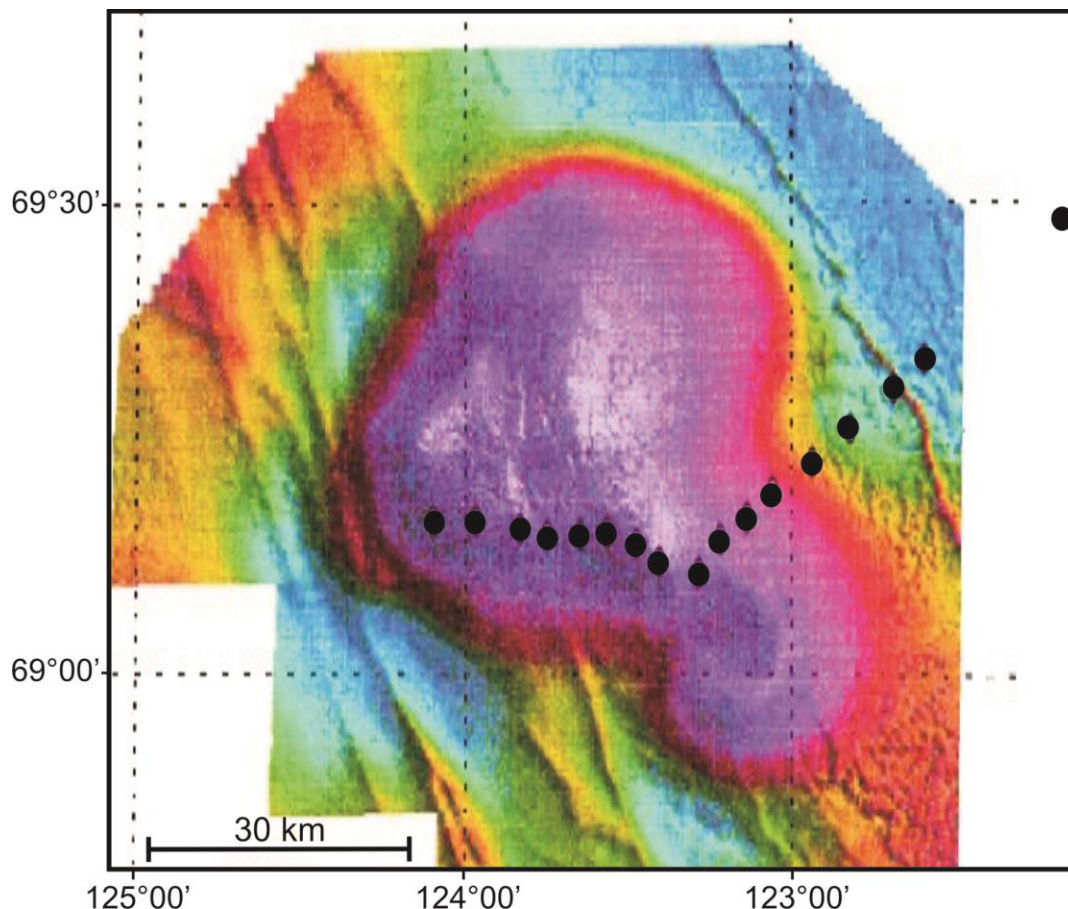


Figure 2 High resolution total magnetic field aeromagnetic map of Darnley Bay anomaly. The black circles represent the MT site locations. The northwestward trending linear features are interpreted as diabase Franklin dykes that postdate the main body. Modified after Cook and Maclean (2004).

A drill hole located within the Darnley Bay anomaly (Drill-hole DBR-001 on Figure 1a) reached a depth of 1812 m without intersecting the intrusive body (Reford, 2012). The core reveal Phanerozoic cover sediments to 377 m that overlie Cambrian sandstones to 1167 m. These are underlain by mudrocks interpreted to be representative of the Escape Rapids Formation the (early Neoproterozoic Shaler Supergroup, Rainbird et al., 1994, 2015b).

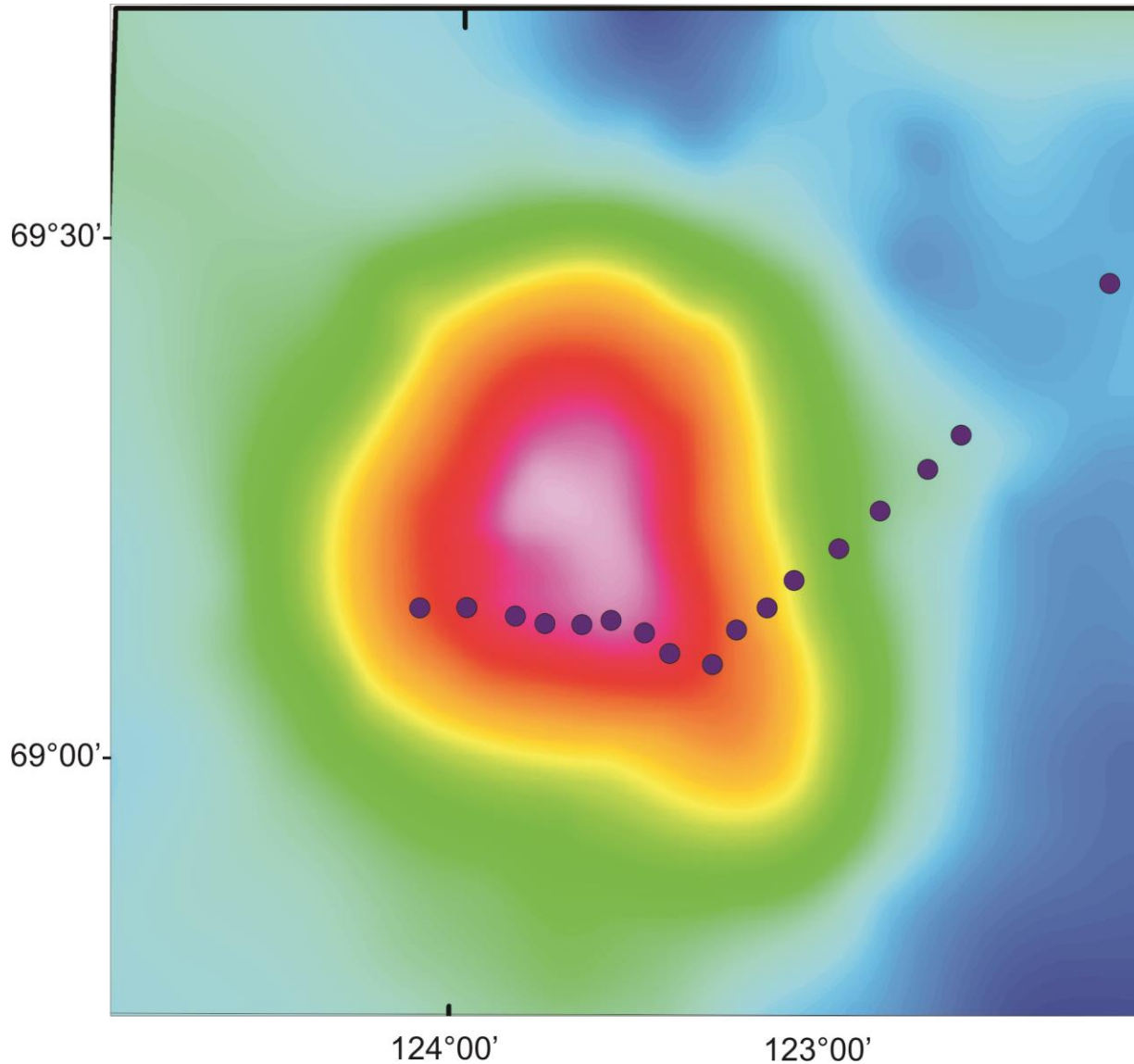


Figure 3 Map of the MT survey area showing the bouguer gravity data. Black circles shows MT site location.

Transient AMT data was collected at a 500 m station intervals by Empulse Geophysics LTD along three transects: (1) as east-west profile across the western margin of the anomaly, (2) and east-west profile across the eastern margin of the anomaly, and (2) a north-south profile east of the eastern margin of the anomaly (Figure 1; Goldak, 2014). The resistivity model along Profile 1 shows a near surface, moderately resistive layer (~500 ohm·m) that thickens from 50 m to ~200 m from west to east which is interpreted as Pleistocene glacial sediments (Goldak and Olsen, 2015). This is underlain by a

1 km thick resistive layer (>1000 ohm·m) that is suggested to result from the silicified carbonates of the Ronning Group and/or the Franklin Mountain formation. Beneath the resistive layer is a moderately conductive layer, with values of $\sim 10 - 100$ ohm·m, that coincides with the characteristics and thickness estimates of the Escape Rapids Formation. Resistivities then increase to ~ 700 ohm·m at 2.5 km depth in the west down to ~ 3 km in the east. This increase in resistivity is consistent with values estimated for both the intrusive body and the Dismal Lake Group, however the increase is coincident with east dipping seismic reflectors interpreted to represent the top of the intrusive body. Slightly decreased resistivities at these depths are observed near the western margin of the anomaly, where there is an offset in the seismic reflectors, and are interpreted as a bounding fault structure by Goldak and Olsen (2015).

3.0 Data Acquisition and processing

Audio magnetotelluric (AMT) and broadband (BBMT) data were collected at a total of 16 and 17 sites locations respectively using Phoenix Geophysics recording instruments and sensors along a ~ 90 km long NNE – SSW profile at a site spacing of roughly 5 km (Figure 1a). The electric fields were measured in the 2 horizontal perpendicular directions using lead-lead chloride porous pots, and the magnetic fields were recorded in the 2 horizontal and, where possible, the vertical directions. Generally 4 sites were acquired each day. Electric field data was recorded in the AMT and BBMT ranges at each site, with the exception of DBR06 where only BBMT data was acquired. For each day of recording, the horizontal AMT magnetic field data was recorded at one or two sites using Phoenix AMTC-30 coils and the BBMT magnetic field at another site using Phoenix MTC-50 coils. Where coils were not installed, the data were processed using the horizontal magnetic field components from neighboring sites (see Table 1). The vertical magnetic field data was acquired using Phoenix MTC-80 coils.

The time-series data were processed using robust remote-reference algorithms supplied by Phoenix Limited and based on the coherence-sorted cascade decimation method of Wight and Bostick (1981) and the heuristic robust approach of Jones and Jödicke (1984). Results yielded apparent resistivity and phase response curves in the period range of 0.0001 s up to 1,000 s for most sites along the profile (Figure 4). In general, the data quality is poor at periods below 0.001 s, particularly within the 0.0002 – 0.001 s AMT deadband (Figure 4a and b). The data quality is excellent at periods between 0.001 - 300 s, and up to 1000 s at some sites (Appendix A).

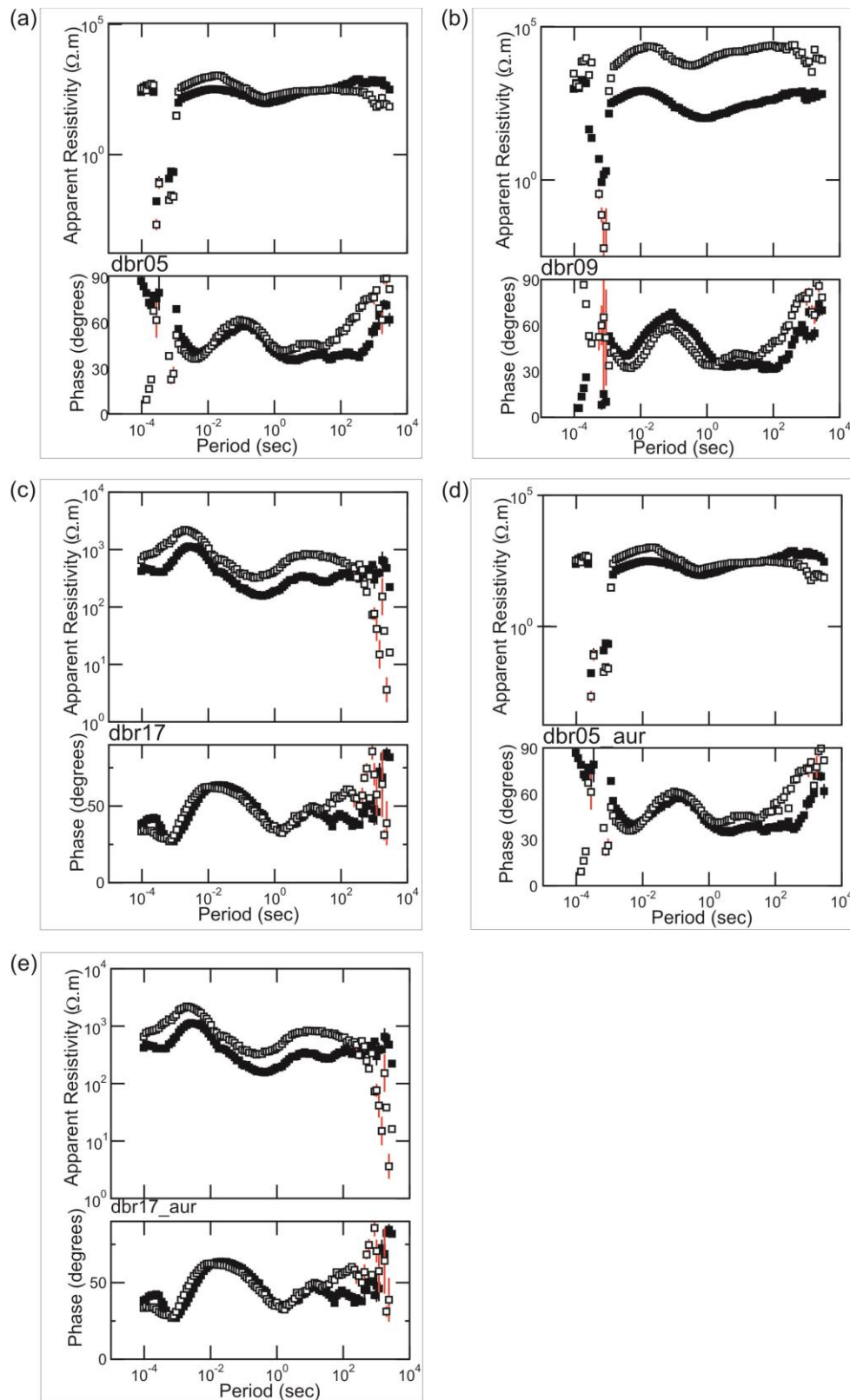


Figure 4 Example of MT soundings from three stations. The open squares show data measured in the north-south direction (XY response) and the closed squares show data measured in the east-west direction (the YX response). (a) shows an example of poor data quality at the long periods at site dbr05, (b) shows an example of anisotropy effects at site dbr09, (c) shows an example of excellent quality at short periods within the AMT deadband at site dbr17, (d) shows site dbr05 with non-planar suspect data removed and (e) shows site dbr17 with non-planar suspect data removed.

4.0 Data analysis

4.1 Non-uniform source fields

Non-uniform source field effects, due to the auroral electrojet, often cause distortion on MT data collected at high latitudes (Mareschal, 1986). The distortion is typically seen as reduced apparent resistivity values, and increased phase values at long periods, and can cause the depth to asthenosphere to be underestimated by nearly 50 km (Jones and Spratt, 2002). Analysis of non-uniform source fields was applied by identifying odd hours of anomalously high source fields and removing cross-power estimates calculated from data acquired during these times, at periods greater than 120 s. The odd hours were determined based on anomalously high source fields recorded by Space Weather Canada near Cambridge Bay, Nunavut (see Appendix B). Two such suspect hours were identified during data acquisition and were defined by time segments where the hourly range of X and Z were > 200 and the maximum rate of change of X and Z were > 40 . These hours occurred during the acquisition of sites dbr05, dbr07, dbr09 (hour 1), and dbr14, dbr15, dbr16, and dbr17 (hour 2). The response curves derived after removing the cross-powers calculated during these hours at periods greater than 120 s showed no significant difference at the long periods, indicating that non-uniform source field effects are negligible for these data (Figure 4d and e).

4.2 Strike and Dimensionality Analysis

Most MT modeling algorithms assume the area of interest to be geoelectrically 1-D or 2-D. A 3D, i.e. varying in 3 directions, electrical structure requires greater computational power to model the data and the earth models must be comparatively simple. In a 2-D modeling scenario, the direction of geoelectric strike is assumed to be consistent, i.e. there must not be any localized or off-profile geoelectrical property variations, and the strike direction must be known. Groom-Bailey decompositions, frequency dependent pseudosections, induction vectors and phase tensors have been analyzed to determine the dimensionality and geoelectric strike direction of the data. Sections of the data that are 1-D (independent of strike) are identified as well as sections that are influenced by 3-dimensionality and cannot be represented with a 2-D model.

Groom and Bailey (GB) decompositions provide a method to describe and separate the local parameters caused by galvanic distortions in the regional observed impedance tensor (Groom and

Bailey, 1989). This distortion modelling assumes that the regional structure is two-dimensional, but

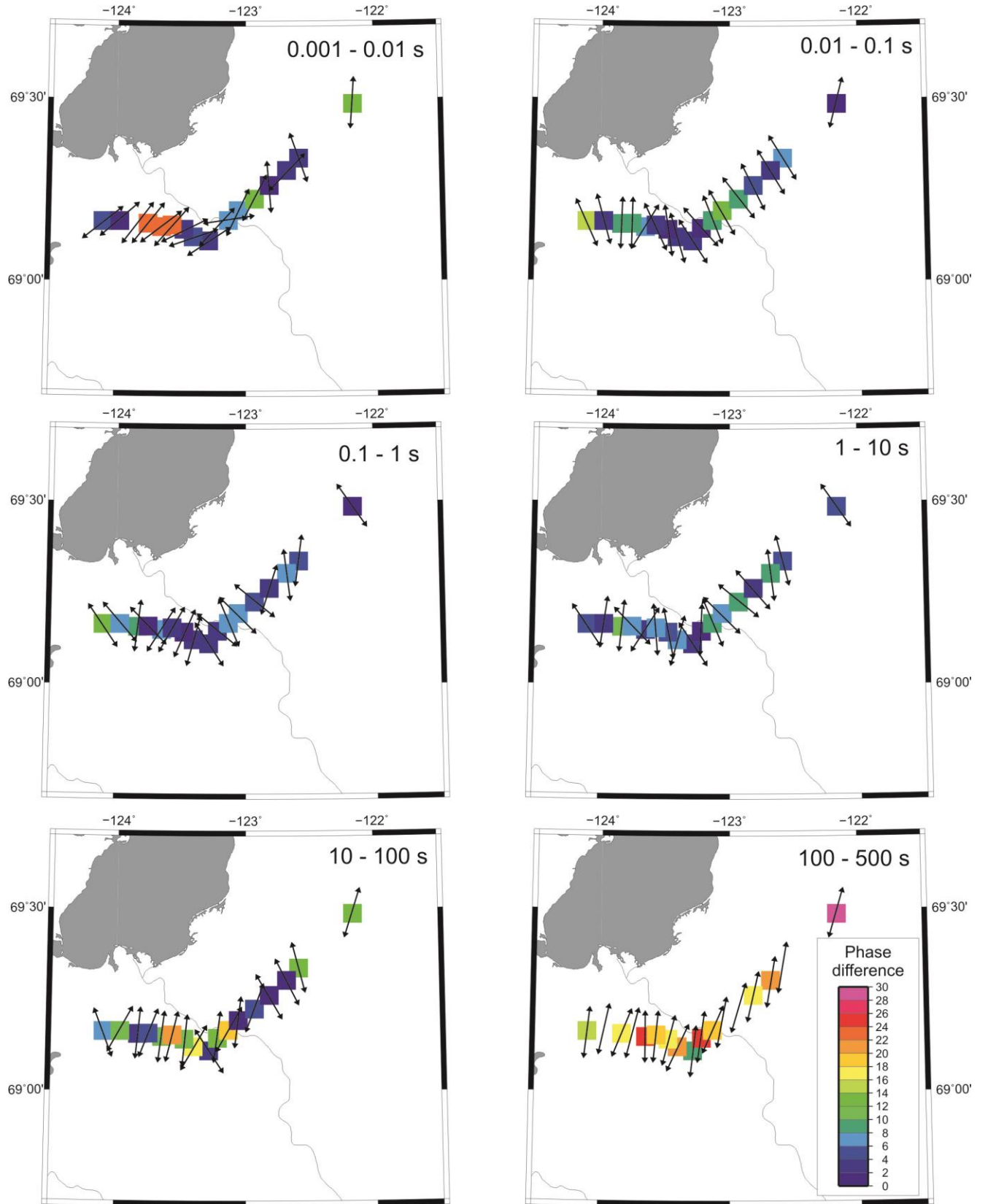


Figure 5 Maps showing the preferred geo-electric strike direction at each site for 6 decade period bands. The color scale illustrates the maximum difference between the TM- and TE-mode phases.

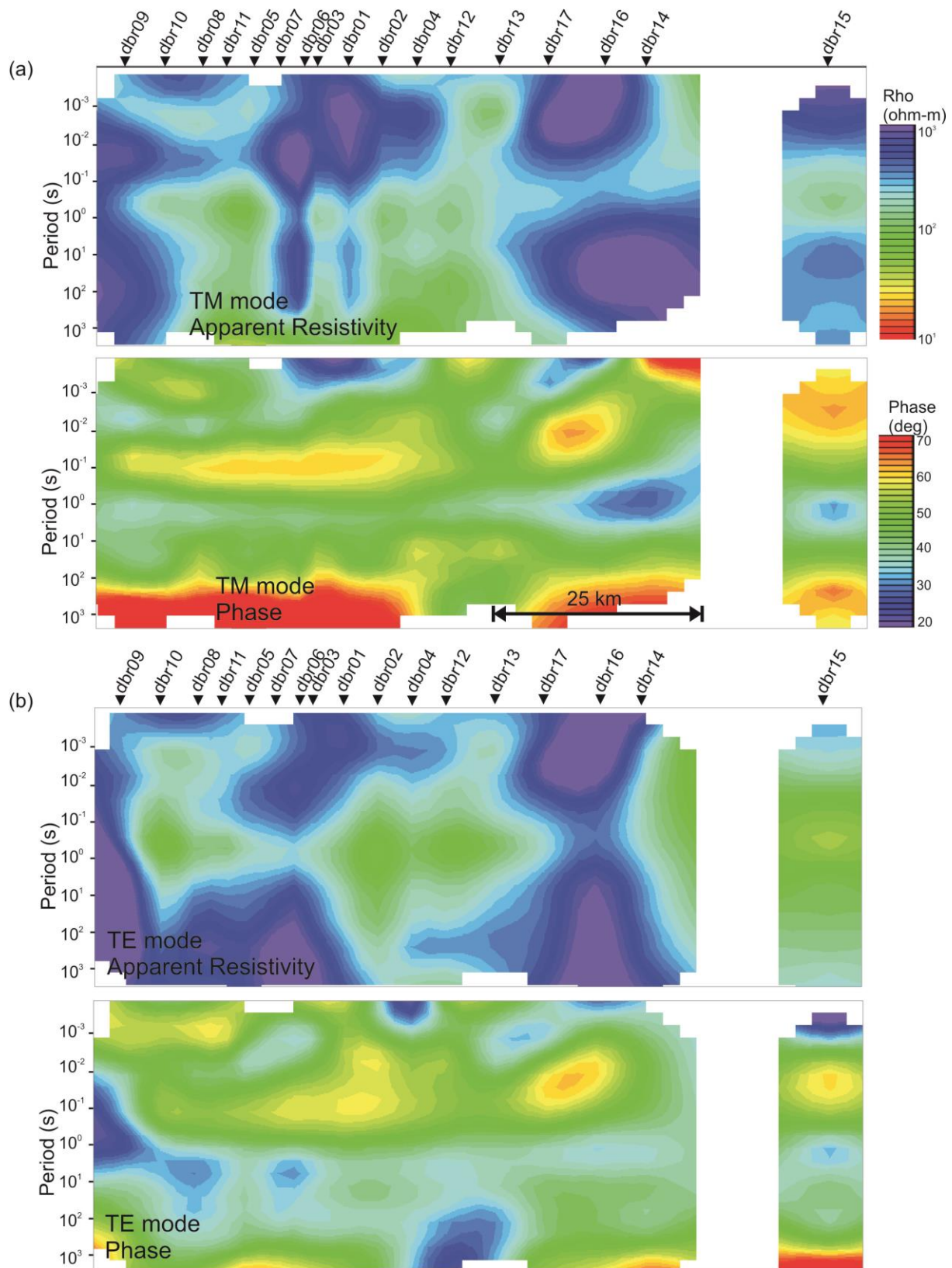


Figure 6 Pseudosections of apparent resistivity and phase along the profile comprising data considered to have an acceptable signal to noise level for data in the (a) TM-mode and (b) TE-mode.

that the electric field data are galvanically distorted by local, near-surface features. Single site decompositions were applied to each of the sites using an error floor set to 3.5%, equivalent to 2° phase, as described in McNeice and Jones (2001). The resulting preferred strike azimuth, with a 90° ambiguity, and the average phase difference between the conductive and resistive directions for one-decade period bandwidth are shown in Figure 5 for periods between 0.001 – 500 s. Where the phase difference between the TE- and TM-modes is minimal ($<10^\circ$) the data can be considered 1-dimensional, or independent of the geo-electric strike angle. Where the phase difference is larger, the data are more dependent on the strike angle, and 2-D models need to be generated at the appropriate geo-electric strike angle in order to accurately represent the subsurface resistivity structure. In general, at periods between 0.01 – 10 s most of the sites show low phase differences ($< 10^\circ$), suggesting that the data are approximately 1-D. At shorter periods the phase difference is high at a few sites at the west end of the profile, with a strike angle of $\sim 65^\circ$ likely resulting for localized near-surface structure. At periods between 0.01 – 0.1 s, although phase differences are small (<15), there is a consistent preferred strike angle of $318 - 342^\circ$ (with an average of 331°) at all but 3 sites. This angle roughly corresponds to the strike direction of the Franklin dykes, suggesting that the TE-mode runs parallel to -29° . Recalling the ambiguity in strikes of $\pm 90^\circ$, at periods between 10 – 100 s there is a weak preference for an angle of $\sim 45^\circ$. However at periods greater than 100 s there is a fairly consistent preferred strike angle of $\sim 10 - 20^\circ$ for most of the sites, and which is particularly evident at periods greater than 100 s.

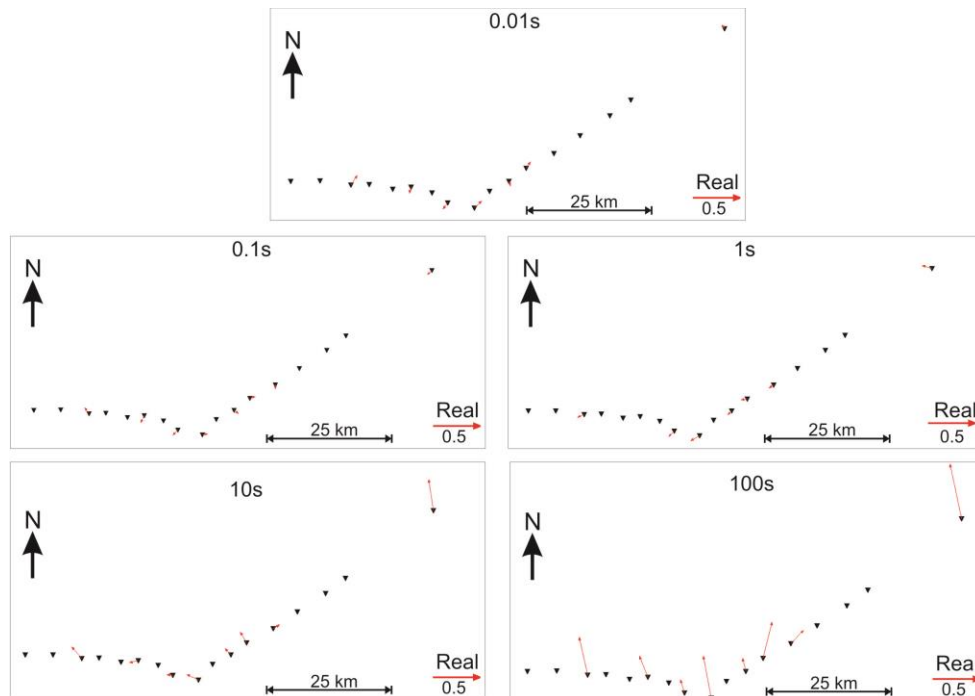


Figure 7 Map view of induction arrows using the Parkinson convention at 5 different periods for all MT sites acquired.

Pseudosections of the phase and apparent resistivity responses for each of the sites along the profile were generated for both the TE- and TM-modes (Figure 6). As apparent resistivities may be affected by static shift, the phase pseudosections are typically observed to determine areas that are 1-D. The phases of the TE and TM-modes shows similar layered structure along the profile to periods of at least 10 s, an indication that the data are largely 1-D.

Where lateral conductivity gradients exist along a profile within the Earth, vertical magnetic fields are created (in a 1-D Earth vertical magnetic fields are non-existent). Induction arrows are the vector representations of the complex ratios of the vertical to horizontal magnetic fields. The Parkinson convention, where real arrows point towards regions of low resistivity, has been used to plot induction vectors at various periods (Figure 7). Induction vectors show very low magnitudes at periods below 10 s, another indication that the data are 1-D. At longer periods, the induction vectors generally point towards the coastline, suggesting that the data are influenced by ocean sea water effects.

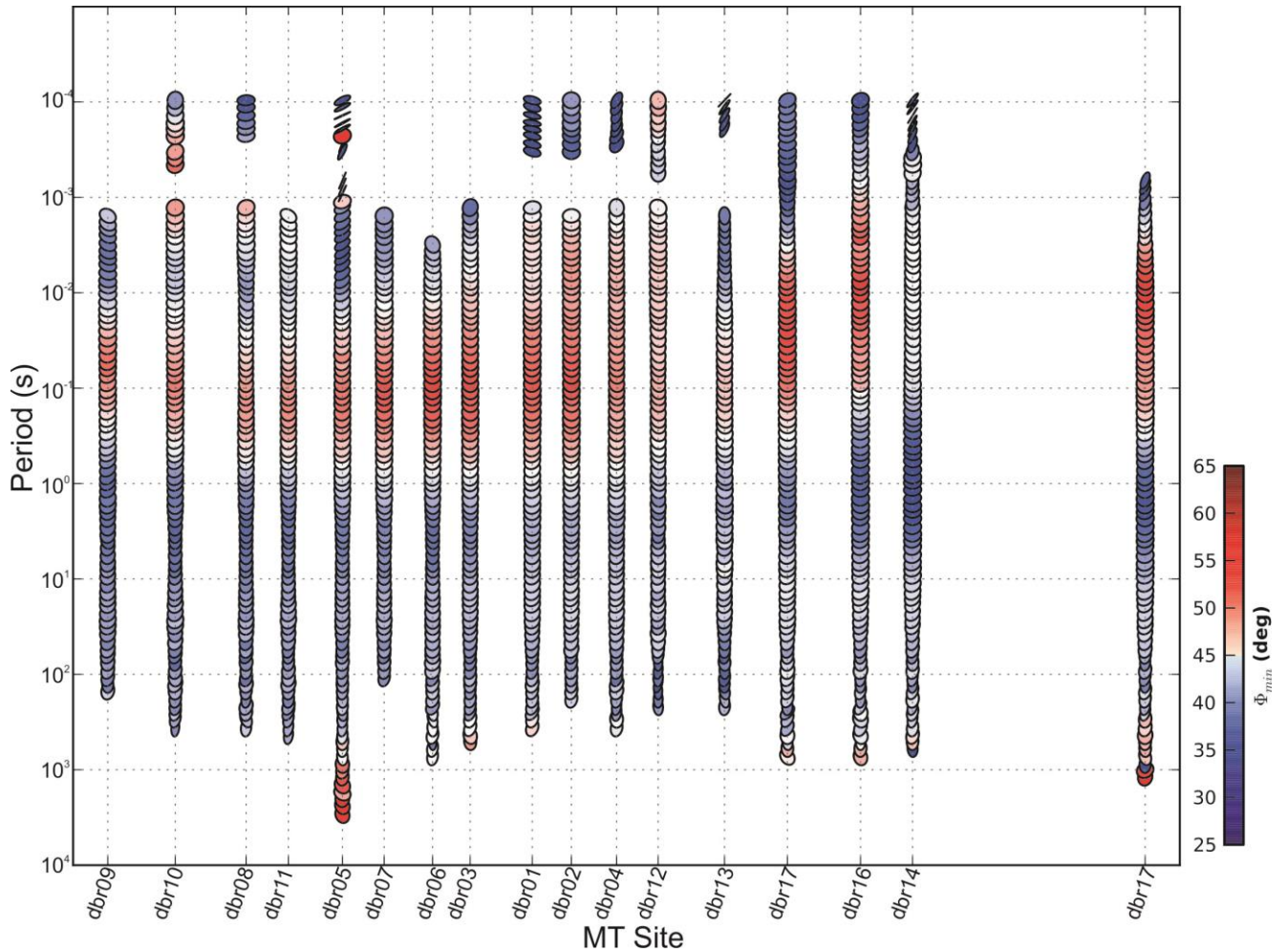


Figure 8 Pseudosection display of MT phase ellipses and phase minima along the profile. The blue colors represent phase minima below 45° and the red colors represent phase minima above 45° .

The dimensionality of the MT data was further assessed using the phase-tensor method of Caldwell et al. (2004). Unlike many other dimensionality estimation methods, this method analyzes

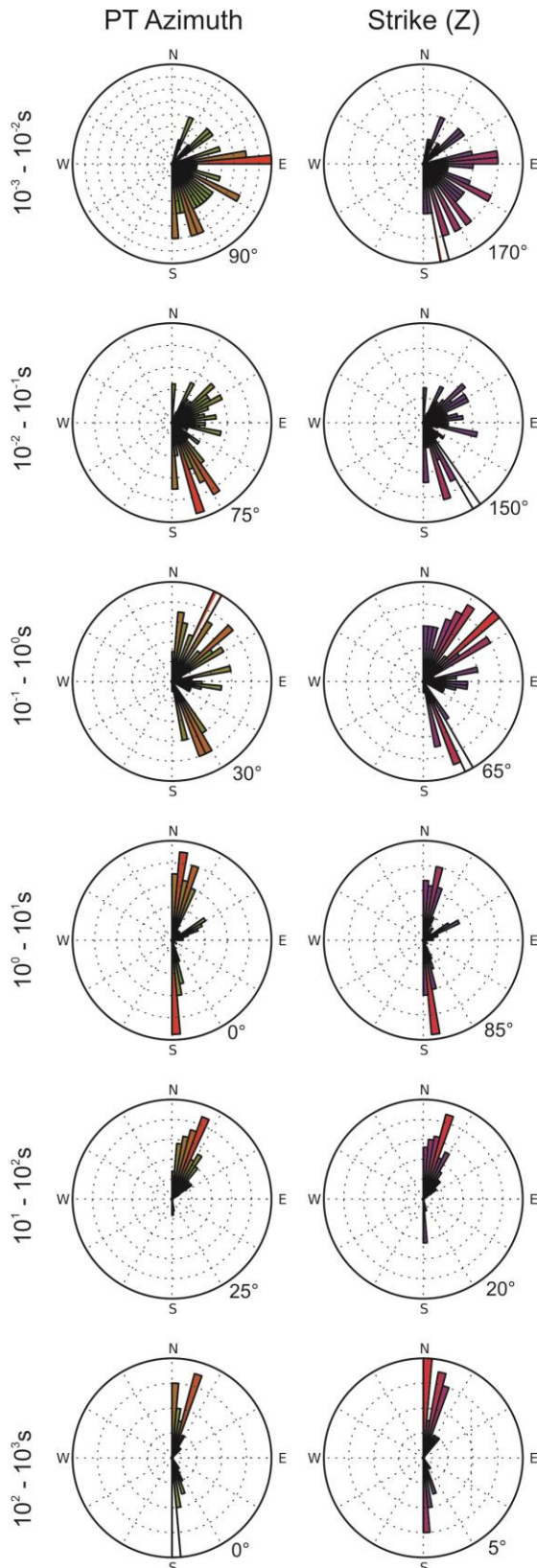


Figure 9 Rose diagrams of phase tensor ellipses and z-strike orientations at 6 decade period bands for all MT sites along the profile.

only the phase variations because these are unaffected by galvanic distortion associated with near-surface changes in electrical conductivity and the method does not rely upon assumptions that the regional electrical structure is 1D or 2D. Three parameters are used to characterize the phase tensor: the maximum (Φ_{\max}) and minimum (Φ_{\min}) phase values, and the skew angle (β). The phase tensor is commonly represented as an ellipse, with the long and short axes of the ellipse representing the maximum and minimum phase values respectively (the TE- and TM-modes) and the orientation of the major axis representing the direction of maximum current flow, or geoelectric strike angle. At periods where the phase difference between the TE- and TM-modes is minimal ($<10^\circ$) the data are deemed one-dimensional (1-D), i.e. independent of geoelectric strike angle and the phase ellipse is a pseudo circle. With the influence of two-dimensionality, the ellipticity increases. Phase tensor ellipses have been plotted in pseudosections for each station along the profile, where the red colours represent phase minimums above 45° , generally indicating a change from resistive to more conductive rocks, and the blue colours below 45° , a change from conductive to resistive units with depth (Figure 8). The phase tensor ellipses are shown as open circles to periods of at least 1 s, and 10 s for most of the eastern sites. At longer periods the ellipses are oriented roughly north-south to NNE. Rose plots of the strike angle for each period band have been generated from the phase tensor ellipses (Figure 9). Rose plots show a large degree of scatter at periods below 1 s, further indicating

that the data are 1-D. For periods between 1 – 10 s and 100 – 1000 s, there is a preferred strike of 000°, and from 10 – 100 s the preferred strike is 025°.

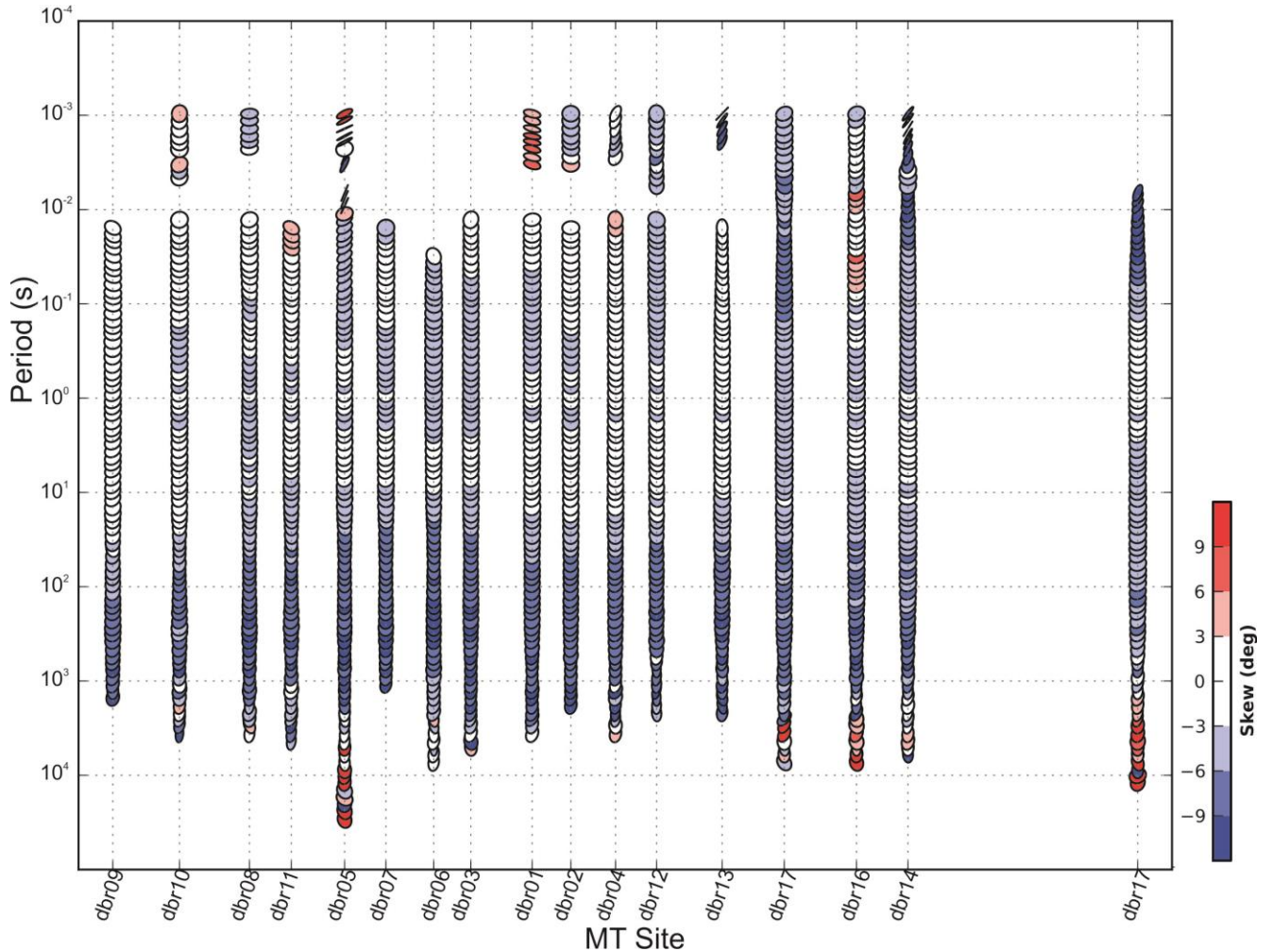


Figure 10 Pseudosection display of MT phase ellipses and skew (β) along the profile. The dark blue color represents a skew value below -5 and the dark red color represent skew value above +5.

A 3D subsurface results in a skewed ellipse with the main axis deflected by an angle β from the symmetry axis. Phase tensor ellipses are plotted in pseudo section with the colour represents the skew value (Figure 10). Blue colours indicates a skew of <-5 and red indicates $>+5$. Empirically, $-5 < \beta < 5^\circ$ means the data should be predominantly 2D. A skew outside this range is likely affected by 3-D characteristics. Along the MT profile, skew values above and below ± 6 are observed at periods greater than 20 - 100 s, an indication of 3D effects in the deep structure.

The data have been recalculated at strike angles of 14° , 45° , and 61° based on the decomposition analysis and 0° and 25° based on the phase tensor analysis. Plots of RMS value over the period range for each site and each strike angle are shown in Figure 11. Where the misfit value is < 2 , a 2-D model can be generated to adequately represent the data. The geo-electric strike angles that best fit most of the sites over most of the period ranges are 0° and 14° ; however, several of the sites at

particular frequencies do not fit the data regardless of the strike angle selected. This is particularly true for the periods shorter than 0.01s, likely a result of the poor data quality in the response curves. Two-dimensional models have been generated along the MT profile with the data recalculated at strikes of -29° , 0° , and 14° to observe how the model resistivity structure varies with azimuth. Periods greater than 10s, typically corresponding to depths in the mid- to lower crust, are too deep to discern easily the 90° ambiguity in the geo-electric strike analysis; however, analysis of skew suggests that these data are influenced by 3D distortion and should not be included in 2D modelling.

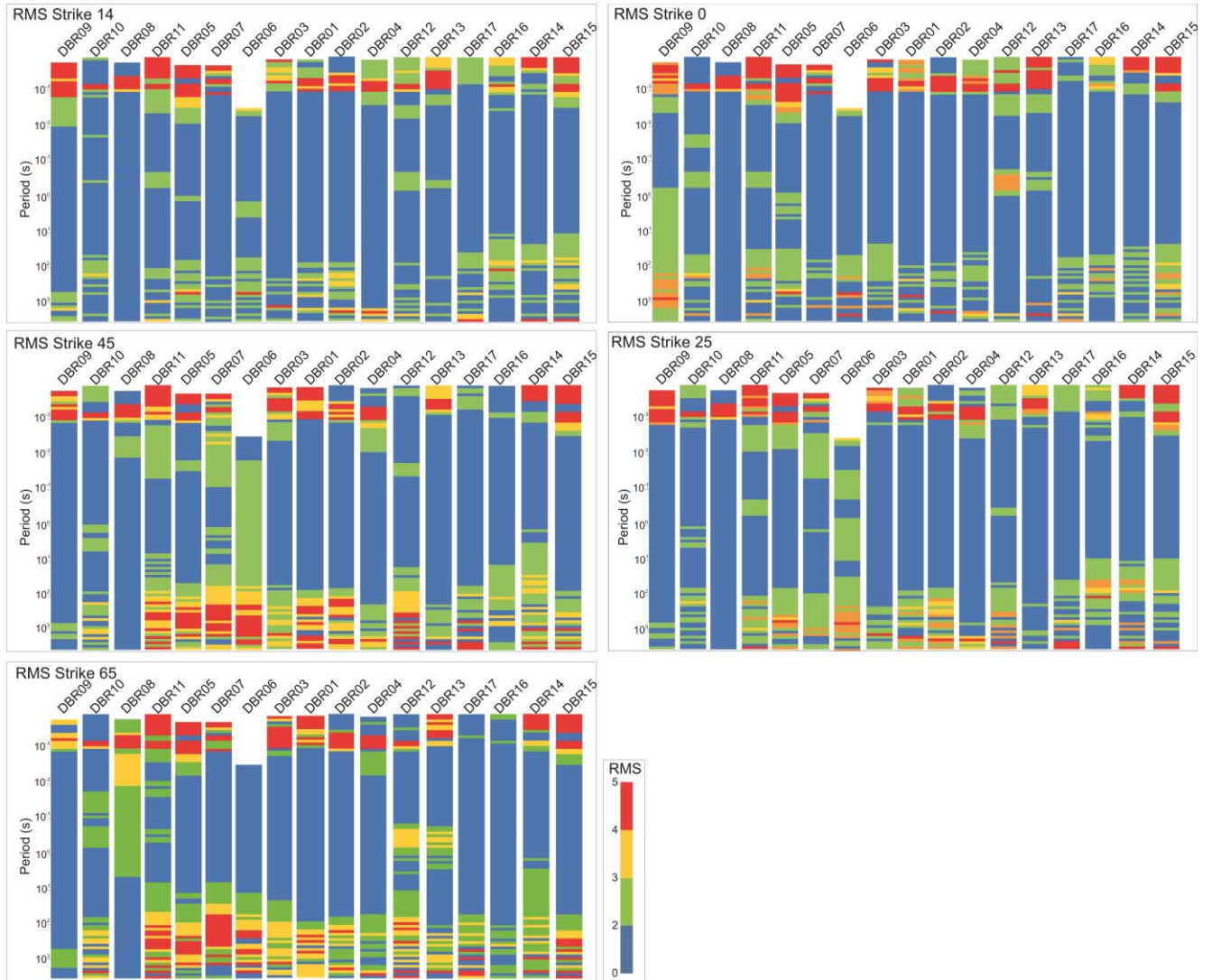


Figure 11 Data misfit values at each site over the whole recorded period range for data along the profile, recalculated at a geo-electric strike direction of 14° (a), 45° (b), 65° (c), 0° (d) and 25° (e).

4.3 Depth estimates

Rough estimates of penetration depths were determined using Schmucker's c-function analysis, which calculates the depth of maximum eddy current flow (Schmucker, 1970). These show that the

data penetration at 300 s is > 100 km for all sites and >300 km for most sites in the xy direction (Figure 12a and b). At 20 s, above which the data are largely 3D, penetration estimates generally greater than 30 km in both the xy and yx directions (Figure 12c and d). Groom-Bailey decompositions identified a weak strike direction of $\sim 61^\circ$ at periods of 0.01 – 0.1 s. Depth estimates are between 2 – 5 km in both the xy and yx directions at 0.1 s.

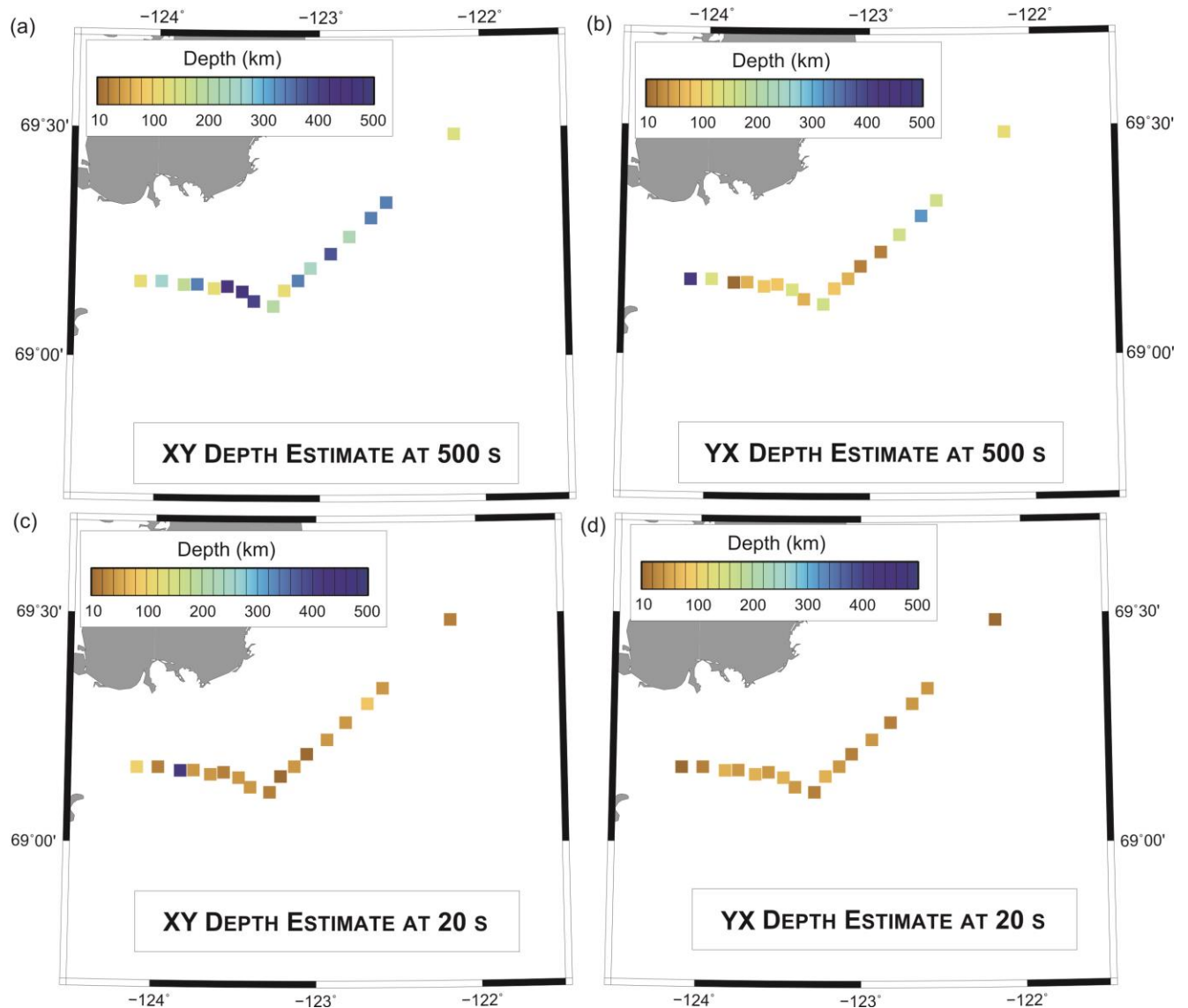


Figure 12 Estimates for maximum penetration depths at periods of 500 s at each site in the measured (a) north-south and (b) east-west directions and at periods of 20 s in the (c) north-south and (d) east-west directions.

4.4 Ocean effects

It is known that the presence of sea water, a near-surface 3-dimensional conductive body, can have significant effects on MT data due to the sharp contrast in resistivity between the land and the ocean (Schmucker, 1970, Menville et al., 1982). The coastal effects is typically observed in the long period data and the severity of these effects is dependent on the salinity of the sea water, the

conductivity structure of the subsurface, the depth of the ocean, and the proximity of the MT site to the coast (eg. Santos et al., 2001, Pous et al., 2002). In order to assess the coastal effects on this data set, a coarse 3-D mesh was created with ocean resistivity values of 0.3 ohm·m extending to depths of 400m, (approximated from the International Bathymetric Chart of the Arctic Ocean :

<http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/bathymetry/arctic/arctic.html>), and a uniform land resistivity value of 500 ohm·m (Figure 13). A forward model then generated synthetic response curves at the recorded site locations. This method of determining coastal effects is an approximation, as the coast line is not exact, the depth and resistivity of the ocean is estimated, and a uniformly resistive earth was used rather than a layered or structured earth. It is therefore only used to illustrate caution in interpreting 2-dimensional models that include long period data near the coast.

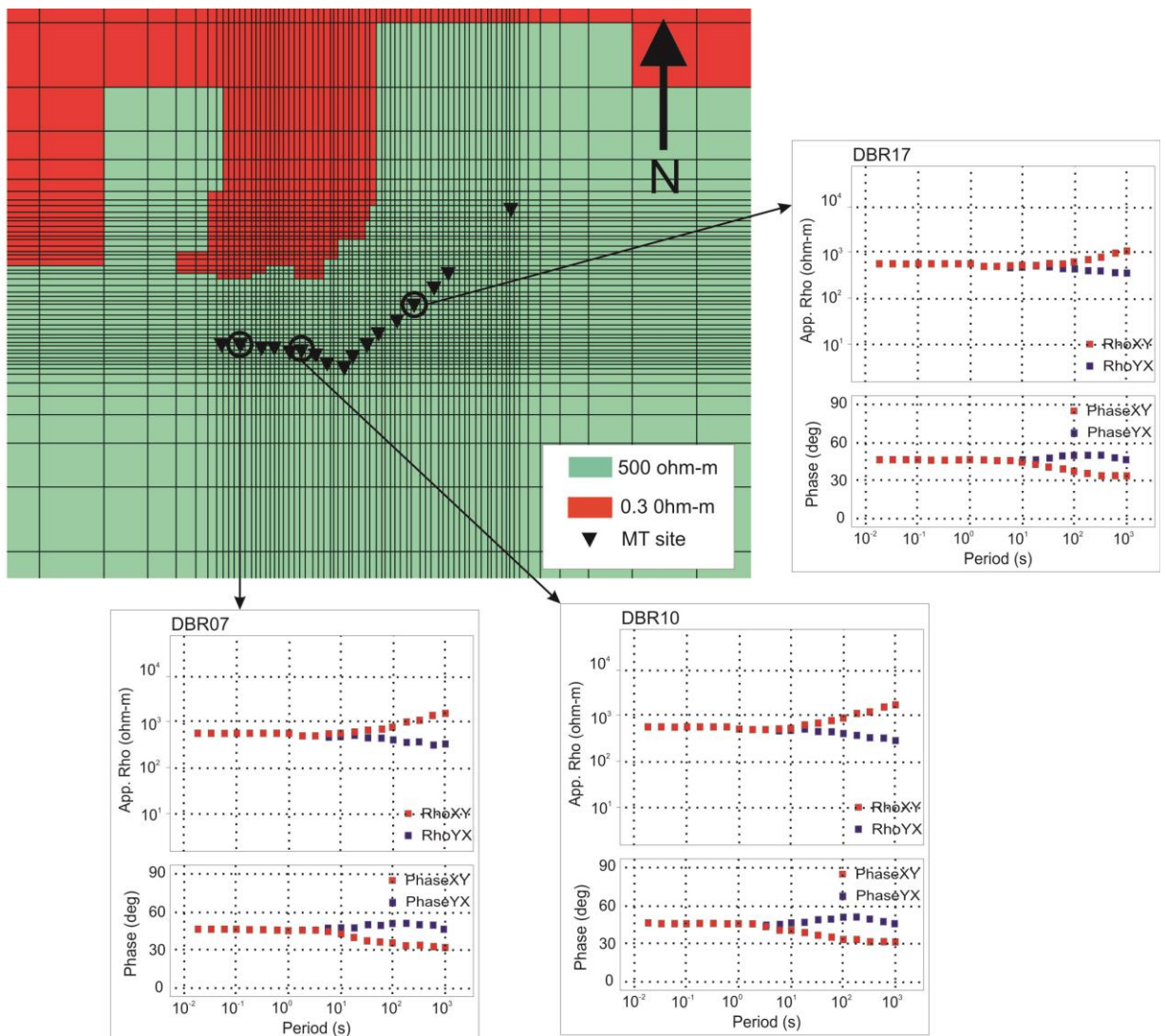


Figure 13 The 3-D mesh of the MT survey area showing the land versus ocean conductivity contrast. Examples of the forward calculated response curves are shown for sites DBR10, DBR07, and DBR17.

The calculated forward response curves show that there could be significant coastal effects at most sites along the profile for periods greater than 20s. This is consistent with induction vectors that point towards the coast and with high skew values. Models have been generated using all data, and omitting data at periods greater than 20 s.

Stitched 1-D Models

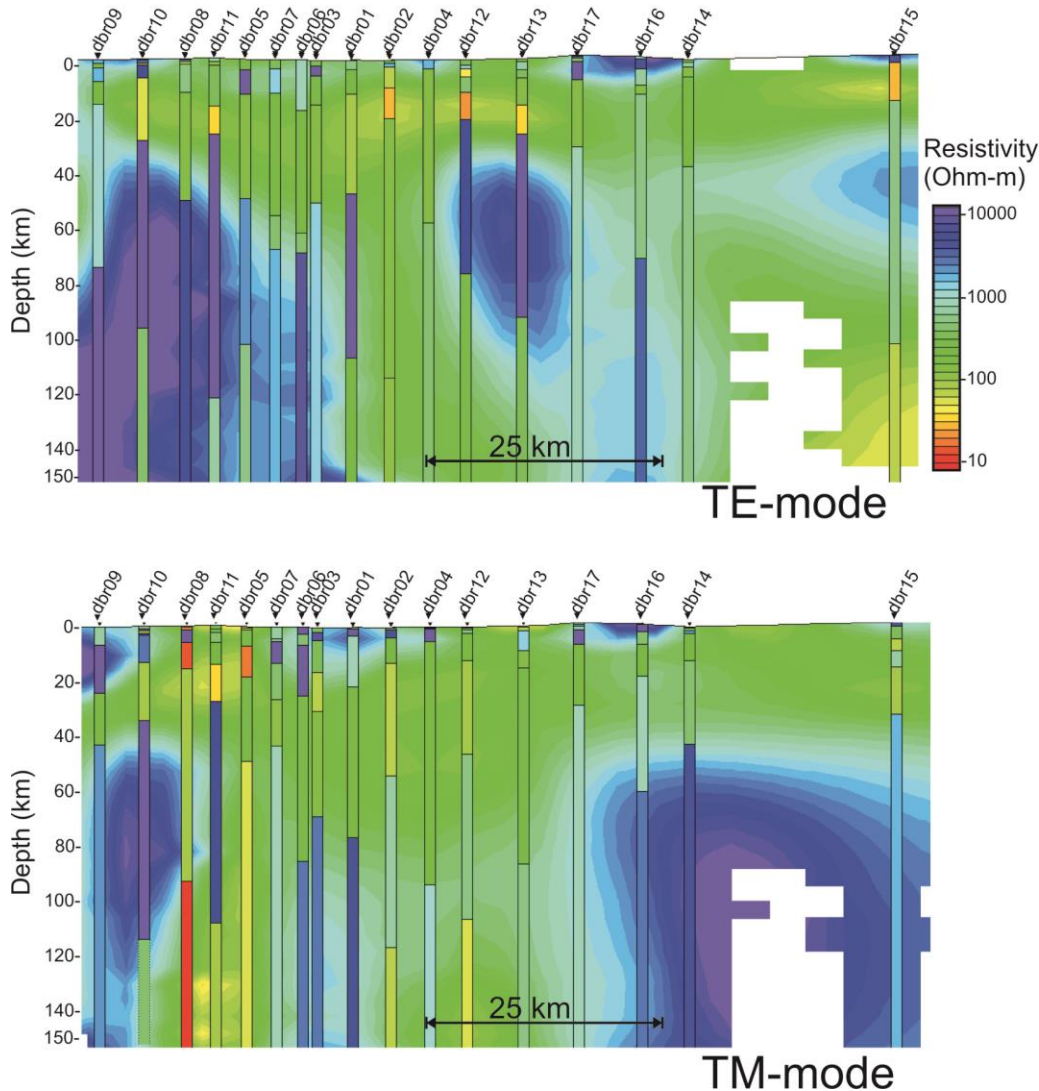


Figure 14 Cross-sections along the profile illustrating the results of 1-dimensional Occam inversions in the TE- (top) and TM- (bottom) modes.

5.0 Data Modeling

The distortion-corrected, regional 2-D responses from sites along the main northwest to southeast profile have been imported into the WinGlink MT interpretation software package at a geoelectric strike angle of -29° , 0° , and 14° . Each site has been manually edited to remove data points with either large error bars or large scatter, as well as phases above 90° or below 0° . Although the

degree of static shift effects on the data cannot be numerically determined, static shift effects arise from a charge build up at the base of near surface conductors and the effect is to raise the apparent resistivity values of the entire response curve. Where one apparent resistivity curve was much higher than another, the curve was dropped to match that of the other curve at the shortest period. This helps to reduce the effect of anisotropic shift, but does not account for the static shift cases where both curves are affected (example of anisotropic data is shown in Figure 4b). Plots of pseudosections of the data (Figure 6) do not show large lateral variations in the apparent resistivities, indicating that static shift effects are minimal.

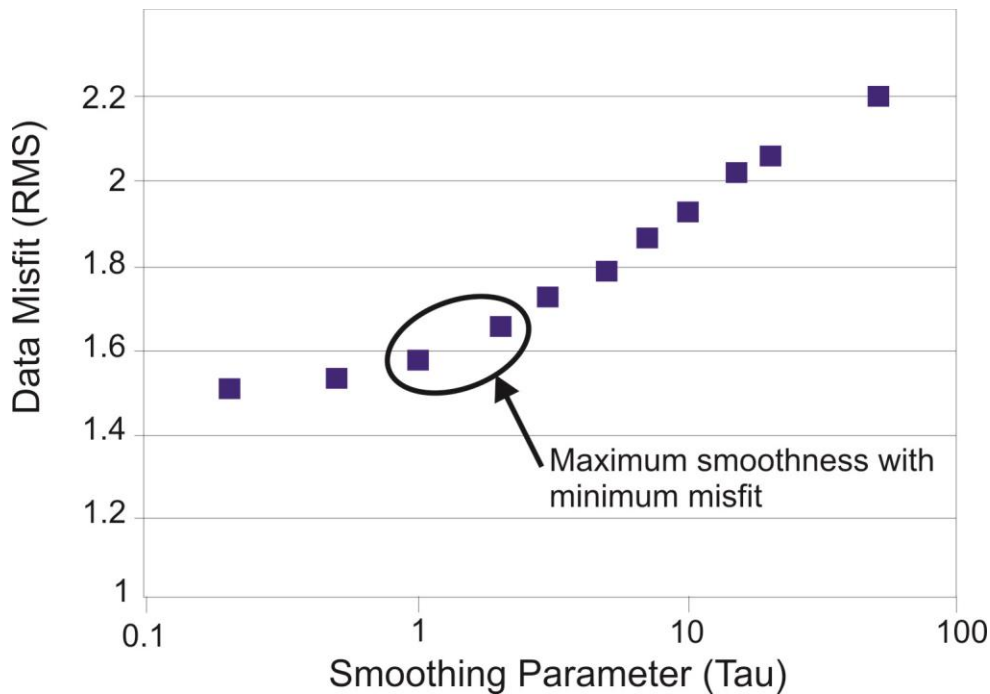


Figure 15 Plots of the trade off between the RMS misfit of the model to the data and the tau value of the inversion after 100 iterations. The black ellipse marks the optimal tau value.

5.1 1-D Models

One-dimensional layered Earth models were generated for each site using Occam's inversion codes as implemented by the WinGlink MT interpretation software package and stitched together to create cross-sections along the MT profiles (Figure 14).

5.2 2-D Models

As is common with many regularized inversion codes, this 2-D code searches iteratively for the smoothest model that best fits the data by attempting to trade off the fit to the observed data (data misfit) with the squared Laplacian (smoothing term) of the horizontal and vertical resistivity gradients. The inversion program searches for the smoothest, best-fit model with the least deviation from the

starting model, which is usually a half space (Mackie and Madden, 1993). This means that the models found represent the minimum structure required to fit the data with an acceptable misfit.

Many different models need to be generated using various combinations of modes and parameters in order to observe the effects of these changes on the model structure and to derive the most robust final model with an appropriate misfit value. Models were initially generated using the entire period range of 0.0001 – 1000 s for the TM and TE-modes. For each model the smoothness parameter, tau, was changed after 100 iterations in order to determine the most appropriate tau value for the data set. Figure 15 illustrates the trade-off between the roughness of the model, defined by the tau parameter, and the fit of the model to the data, RMS. This shows that a tau value of 1 - 3 would result in the smoothest model with the best fit to the data.

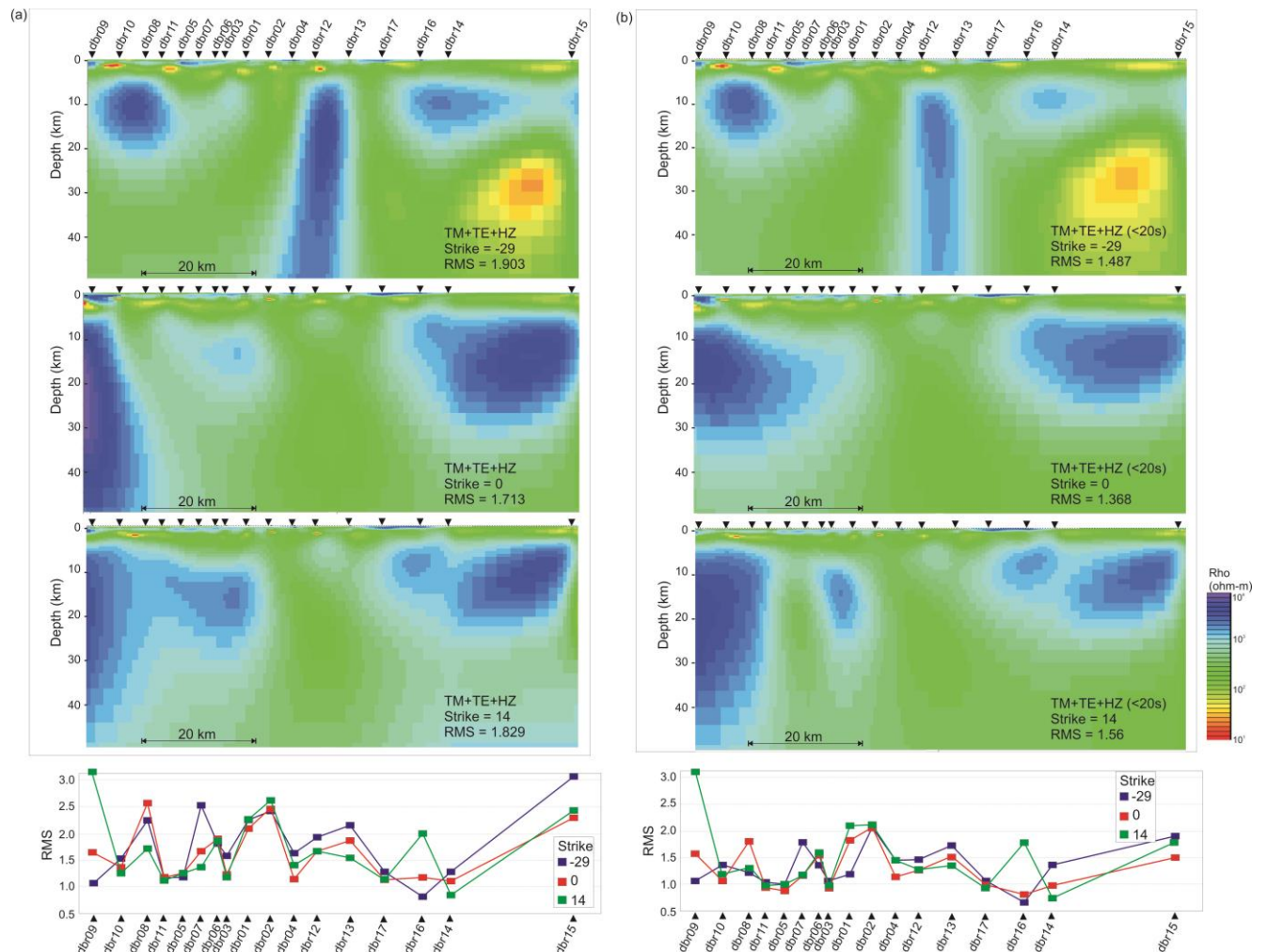


Figure 16 Results of 2D inversion with TE-mode oriented parallel to -29° , 0° , and 14° using (a) data up to 1000 s and (b) data deemed unaffected by ocean sea water, periods up to 20 s. The blue colours represent high resistivity values and the warm colours represent areas of low resistivity.

Models were then generated from the TM- and TE-modes as well as the vertical field data (HZ) at geo-electric strike angles of -29° , 0° , and 14° (Figure 16). Inversions applied a tau value of 3

and included data from the entire period range of 0.0001 – 1000 s as well as the period range estimated to be unaffected by sea water (periods < 20 s). The error floor was set to 20% for the apparent resistivity to account for possible static shift effects, and 7% for the phase. Results show that

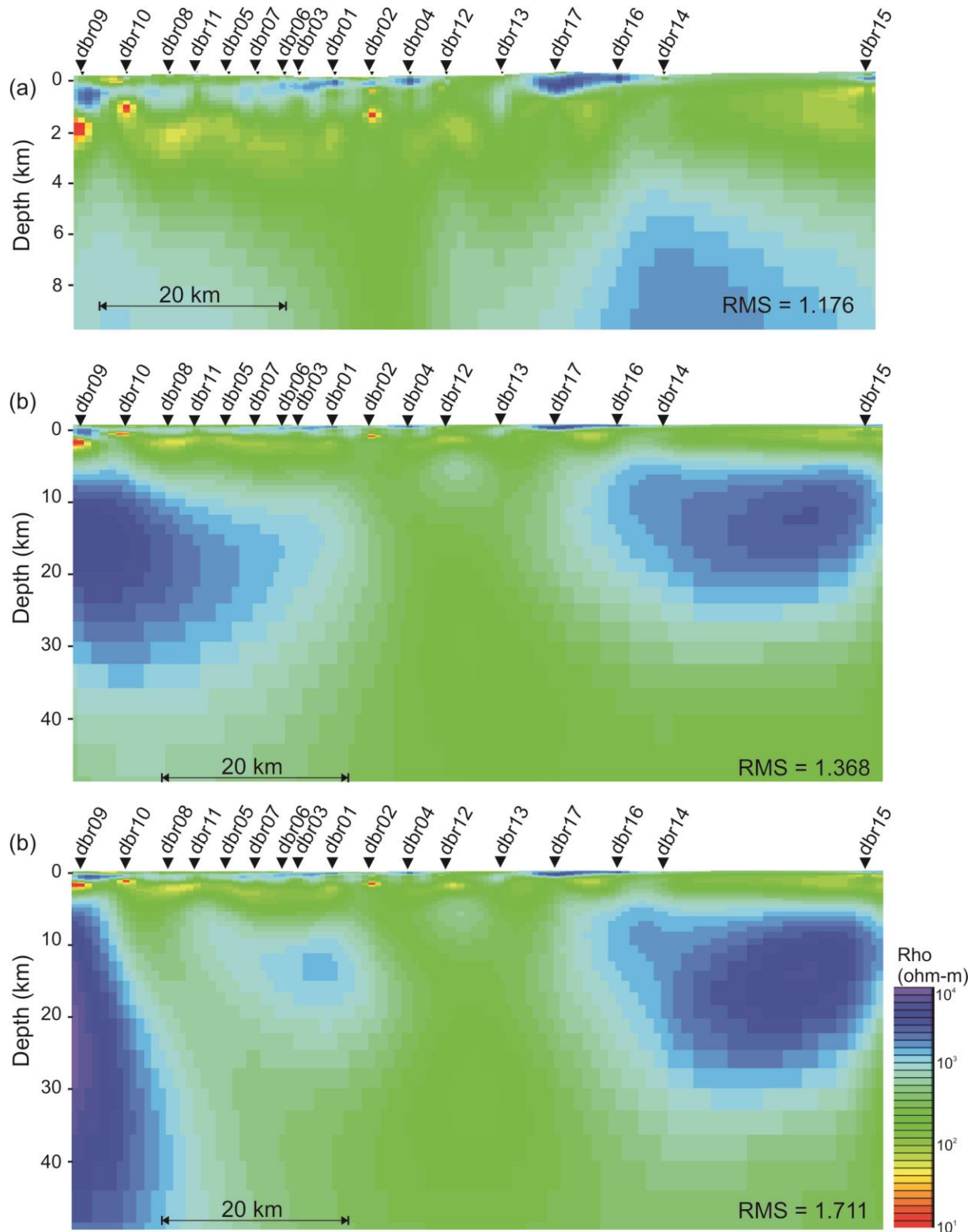


Figure 17 Final resistivity models generated from the MT impedance tensor and vertical field data using periods up to (a) 1s, (b) 20 s, and (c) 1000 s.

regardless of strike direction, the resistivity structure is similar between models to depths of at least 5 km along the entire profile. Large differences in the resistivity structure are observed at depths below 5 km, beneath sites dbr12 and dbr13 in the model generated at -29° . Note that at 65° (-25°) decomposition models showed a poor fit to the data at periods greater than 0.1 s for site dbr12 and at periods of 0.1 – 3 s for site dbr13 (Figure 11). The RMS values after 2D inversion at these sites is highest at a strike angle of -29° and lowest at a strike of 14° . The deep resistivity structure is quite similar between models generated at 0° and 14° , with the lowest overall RMS value of 1.713 using all data and 1.368 using data < 20 s at a geoelectric strike angle of 0° . Preferred models are generated with decomposed data recalculated at a strike angle of 0° .

5.3 Preferred 2D Models

Inversions were initiated with a homogeneous half space of $500 \text{ ohm}\cdot\text{m}$, a mesh consisting of 77 rows and 135 columns, and a smoothing parameter (τ) of 3. Preferred models were generated at a geoelectric strike angle of 0° using data from the TE-mode, TM-mode, and vertical field transfer function (HZ). Separate models were generated that include periods up to 1 s (Figure 17a) in the attempt to resolve detail in the shallow resistivity structure, periods up to 20 s (Figure 17b) those deemed unaffected by coastal sea water effects, and periods up to 1000 s (Figure 17c). Error floors were set to 20% for the apparent resistivities, 7% for phases and 0.03 for tipper (HZ). Models include topographic information, therefore depths shown are depths below sea level.

Our preferred models have been selected for feature testing and interpretation (Figure 17a and 17 b). In the upper 5 km, the preferred resistivity models reveal a thin low resistivity layer ($\sim 200 \text{ ohm}\cdot\text{m}$) near the surface along the western half of the profile that thickens towards the west up to 350 m beneath the western most extent of the profile. This is underlain by a more resistive layer ($1000 - 2000 \text{ ohm}\cdot\text{m}$) that is roughly 1 km thick and dips slightly towards the west. Beneath the resistive layer, there is a prominent low resistivity layer ($\sim 10 - 200 \text{ ohm}\cdot\text{m}$) along the entire length of the profile that extends from the surface beneath sites dbr012 and dbr013 and dips westward beneath the resistive layer. This low resistivity layer varies in thickness from 1 – 3 km along the profile. These results are consistent with those observed along the TAMT profiles.

The deeper structure, in general, shows high resistivities of ($>1500 \text{ ohm}\cdot\text{m}$) at depths between 5 – 30 km in the eastern half of the profile and up to 40 km in the western half below which resistivities decrease to $< 500 \text{ ohm}\cdot\text{m}$. The area of exception lies beneath sites dbr002 – dbr013 where

an anomalous near vertical zone of low resistivities ($\sim 200 \text{ ohm}\cdot\text{m}$) is observed between 5 – 30 km depth. This zone coincides with the eastern extent of the Darnley Bay anomaly.

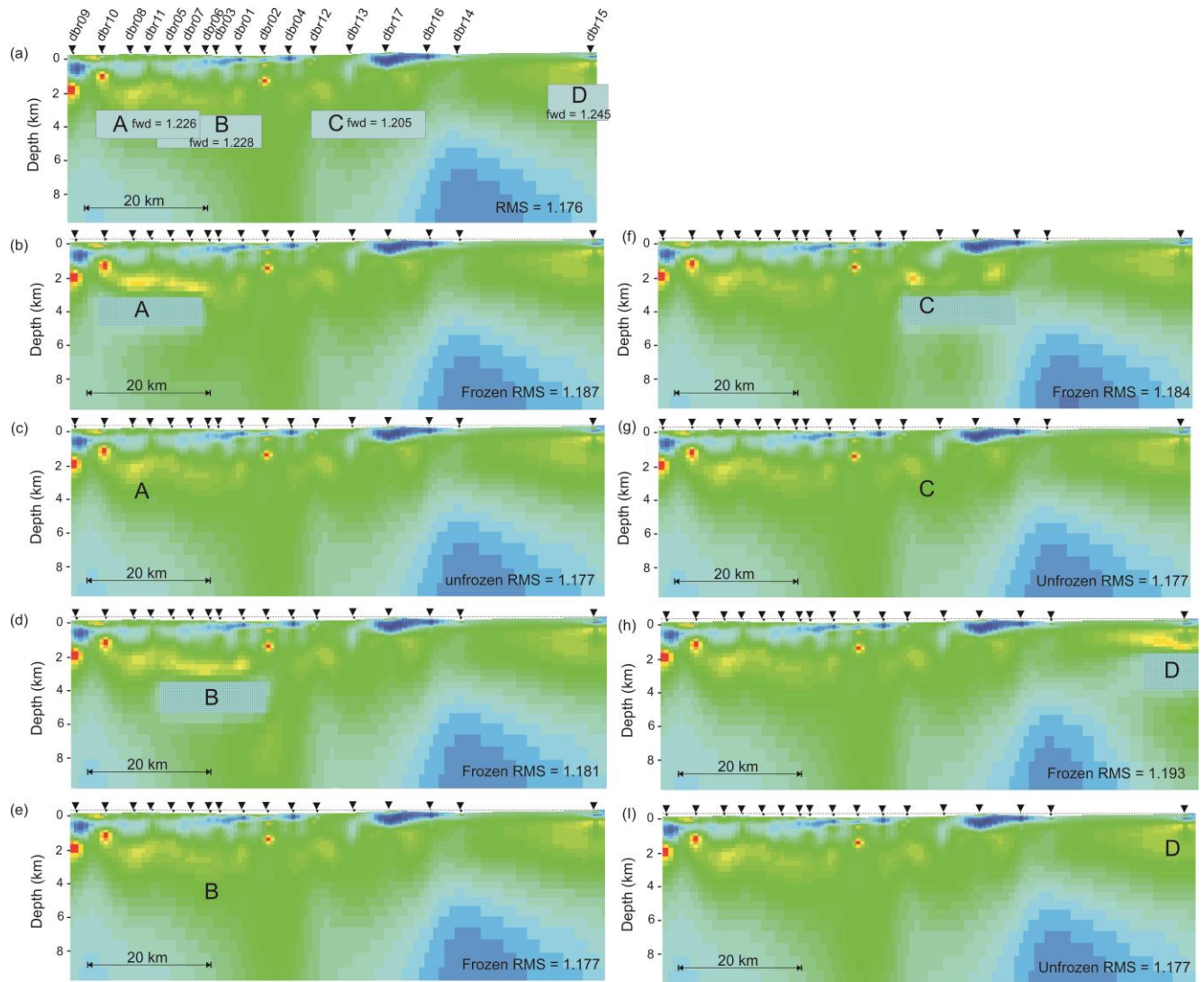


Figure 18 Results of feature testing within the upper 5 km of the resistivity model. (a) shows the lettered features that were altered and the resulting RMS values after forward inversion; (b) new model and RMS value with feature A frozen; (c) new model with feature A unfrozen; (d) new model with feature B frozen; (e) new model with feature B unfrozen; (f) new model with feature C frozen; (g) new model with feature C unfrozen; (h) new model with feature D frozen; and (i) new model with feature D unfrozen.

5.4 Feature testing

To test the reliability of the preferred resistivity models produced by the inversion, ‘feature testing’ was undertaken on various distinct conductive and resistive zones. This method involves removing and replacing resistivity values of a group of cells with those of the adjacent area. A forward calculation is first performed on the data to assess the change in RMS value, then the resistivity of the altered area is ‘frozen’ and the inversion process re-started. This means the inversion algorithm is forced to try and match the observations using conductivity variations outside this area. This form of

test is designed to see whether conductivity variations in another part of the model can be used to fit the data, i.e. does there need to be a zone of anomalous conductivity in the area being tested. The second type of feature test allows the modeling algorithm to modify values within the test zone ('unfrozen') to see if the anomalous zone reappears and if so how its geometry is affected. This test is less rigorous than the first in terms of the presence or absence of a feature but allows the reliability of the feature's geometry to be assessed, i.e. does it re-appear in the same form as in the original model.

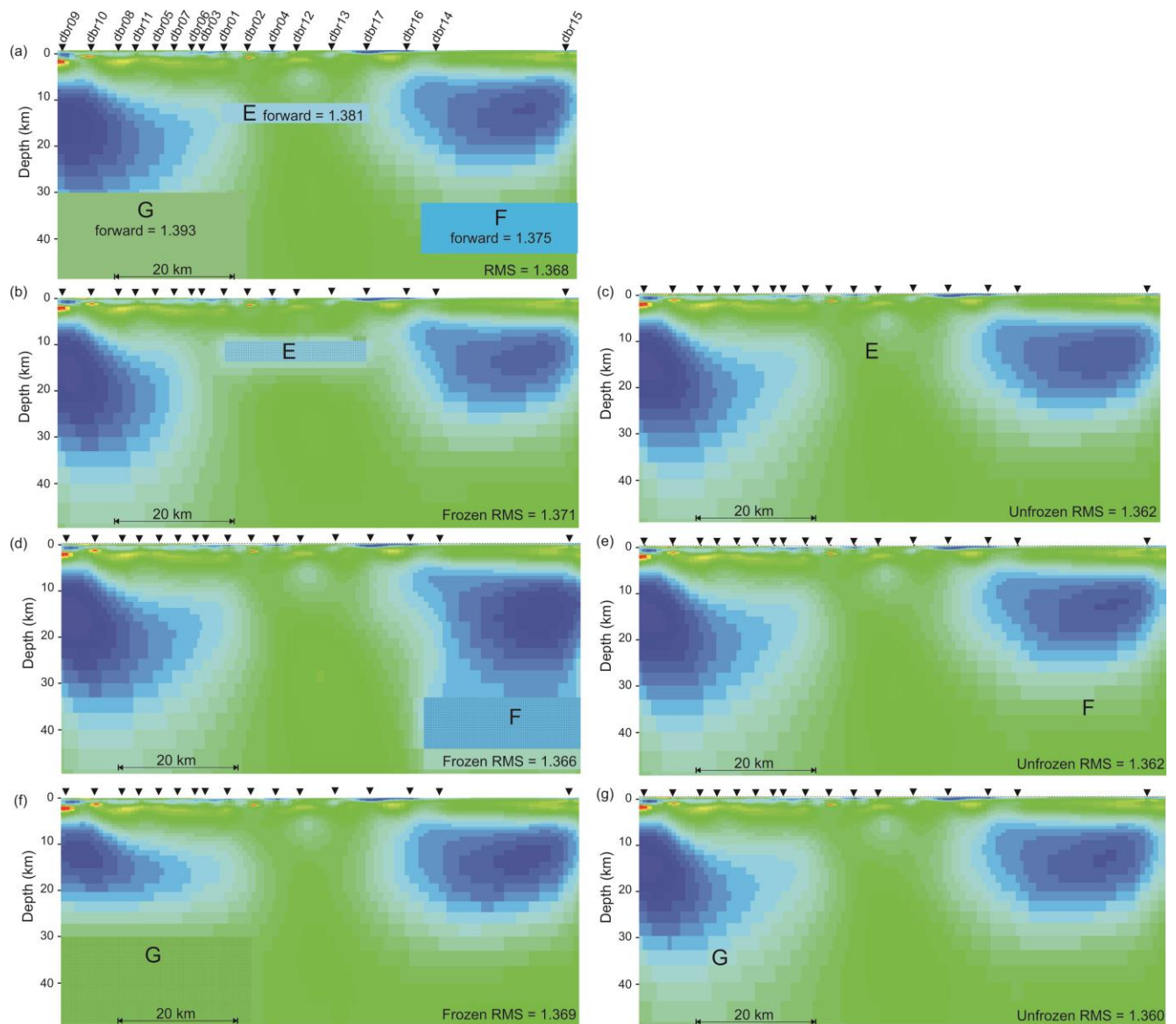


Figure 19 Results of feature testing in the deep structure of the resistivity model. (a) shows the lettered features that were altered and the resulting RMS values after forward inversion; (b) new model and RMS value with feature E frozen; (c) new model with feature E unfrozen; (d) new model with feature F frozen; (e) new model with feature F unfrozen; (f) new model with feature G frozen; (g) new model with feature G unfrozen.

Feature testing was applied to several areas of the preferred resistivity models, both within the shallow resistivity structure and the deeper image. MT imaging is typically good at resolving the top of a low resistivity layer, but poor at resolving the transition from low resistivity to high resistivity

with depth. The resolution of the lower limit of the low resistivity layer imaged was tested by altering the original preferred model and inserting four resistive blocks along the profile, labeled from west to east as features A, B, C, and D (Figure 18). In each case, a forward calculation of the altered model yielded a higher overall RMS value with increases of 2.4 – 5.8%. This is an indication that the data are sensitive to the structure at these depths. With the areas frozen, the inversions were not able to generate a model with the RMS value as low as the original model, however features B and C had RMS values that were incrementally increased by 0.3 % and 0.7 % respectively (Figure 18d, and f). Unfrozen, in every case, the models reverted back to the original resistivity structure and original RMS value (Figure 18c, e, g, and i). This testing indicates that the base of the low resistivity layer is fairly well resolved in the preferred MT model.

At greater depths, the near vertical low resistivity zone was tested by inserting a resistive block, feature E, connecting the east and west mid-crustal resistive sections (Figure 19a, b, and c). A forward inversion yielded an increase in RMS of 0.9%. With the area frozen, the inversion was able to reduce the RMS to that of the original model by lowering the resistivities of the cells both east and west of the frozen area. Unfrozen, the model returned to the original resistivity structure. These tests indicate that a low resistivity zone is required by the data, but that the position and resistivity value are largely unresolved.

Finally, the sensitivity of the data to the deep structure was tested by inserting a resistive block between 25 – 33 km, consistent with values observed at shallower depths, beneath the eastern end of the profile a lower resistivity block consistent with values observed at greater depths, between 32 - 42 km depth beneath the western end of the profile labeled as features F and G respectively (Figure 19). A forward inversion of the altered models resulted in an increase in RMS value of 0.4% for feature F, and 1.7% for feature G. In both cases, with the areas frozen, the RMS values were reduced to values equal to the original model with little change to the surrounding cells (Figure 19b, d, and f). With the areas unfrozen, the models reverted to the original resistivity structure with an improved RMS value (Figure 19c, e, and g). These results indicate that there is minimal sensitivity of the MT data to the resistivity at structure $> \sim 30$ km.

6.0 Interpretation and Discussion

Interpretations of the resistivity structure revealed by the MT data are illustrated for the upper 8 km (Figure 20a) and for the deeper structure beneath the profile (Figure 20b). The near surface low

resistivity layer in the western half of the profile is interpreted to represent the Pleistocene glacial cover. Thicknesses of up to 350 m are consistent with information from drill hole DBR001. With a resistivity value of ~ 200 ohm·m, estimated for the Pleistocene glacial cover, the minimum depth that can be resolved at periods of 0.0001s is ~ 70 m. This means that the data are not sensitive to structure above 70 m depth, and may not image thin near surface layers. The cover rocks may extend further to the east as shown in the geologic map, but are too thin to be detected. The westward dipping resistive layer likely represents the silicified carbonates of the Cambrian Ronning Group and/or Franklin Mountain Formation, noted between 377 – 1167 m in drill hole DBR001. Consistent with shales, mudstones, and sandstone, values of 10 – 200 ohm·m observed across the entire profile in the low resistivity layer are interpreted to represent sedimentary rocks of the Shaler Supergroup. These interpretations for the upper 5 km are consistent with the results and interpretations of the TAMT northern line (Goldak and Olsen, 2015). Two small zones of high resistivity are noted beneath sites dbr017 and dbr016, and beneath site dbr015. Cambrian carbonates are not exposed in these areas and the cause of these resistive units remains uncertain.

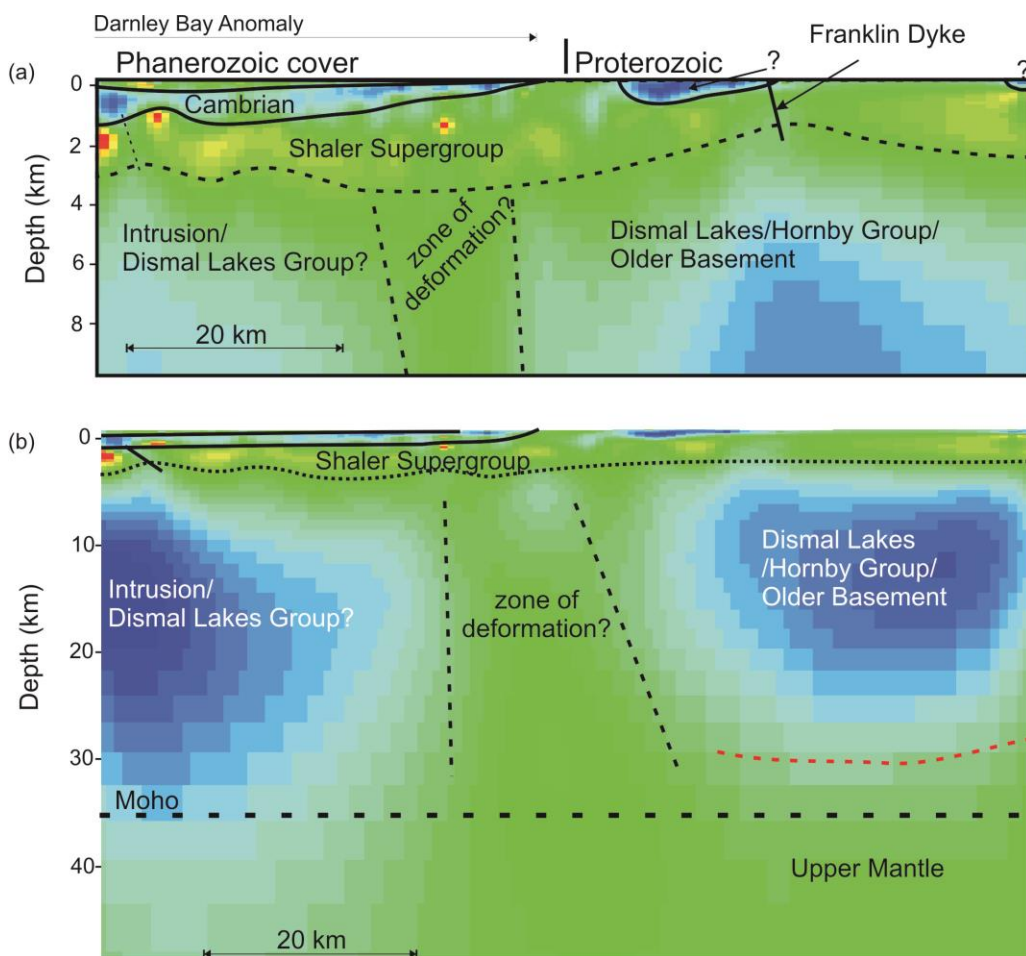


Figure 20 Geologic interpretation of resistivity structure derived from modelling the MT data, Mopho depth fo 36 km is from Snyder (pers. comm.).

At mid-crustal depths the vertical low resistivity zone has values of ~ 200 ohm·m (Figure 17b and Figure 20b). These values are too high to be caused by fluids, metallic mineralization, or graphitic films each typically < 10 ohm·m. This area may represent a zone of deformation related to faulting along the western margin of the Brock Inlier, which coincides with the eastern margin of the Darnley Bay anomaly. NW-trending faults were mapped along the Hornaday River by Cook and Aitken (1969). The zone is imaged as being over 15 km wide, possibly due to the oblique orientation of the profile with respect to the plane of the fault zone. This is the only feature that varied significantly with differing model parameters. Model testing has shown that a vertical low resistivity zone is required by the data; however, the specific location and resistivity value within the zone may not be well resolved.

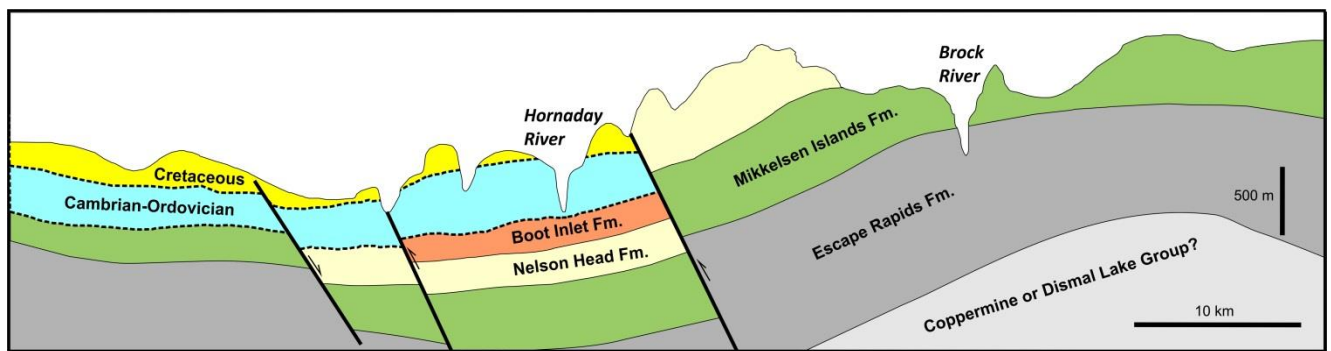


Figure 21 Geological cross section along MT transect between DBR08 and DBR17, based on regional geology (compiled by Okulitch, 2000) and spot observations made during recent regional reconnaissance mapping (Rainbird et al., 2015b). Thin solid lines are depositional contacts and dashed lines are unconformities. The thick solid lines are faults, with latest stage of displacement indicated by arrows. Vertical exaggeration approximately 20x.

The MT data are not able to distinguish the Dismal Lakes and Hornby Bay groups from the older Archean basement rocks. This is somewhat surprising as basement rocks have been shown to have resistivity values $> 10,000$ ohm·m, not observed along this profile (e.g. Spratt et al., 2009). Additionally, the similar resistivity values east and west of the low resistivity zone suggest that the MT data are not able to distinguish the Dismal Lakes and Hornby Bay Groups from the Darnley Bay anomaly. The depth and thickness of the Shaler Supergroup low resistivity layer is fairly constant along the entire length of the profile, indicating that the top of the Darnley Bay anomaly lies at greater depths and does not intrude these sedimentary sequences. This suggests that, if the Darnley Bay anomaly is related to a dense mafic magmatic intrusion, it is not the Franklin large igneous province, which does intrude the Shaler Supergroup (Jefferson et al., 1994). We note also that dykes imaged on the total magnetic field aeromagnetic map (Figure 2) and along strike with dykes mapped elsewhere as Franklin (e.g. Cook and Aitken 1969), appear to cut across the anomaly and are therefore younger than it. There is a better possibility that the anomaly is related to the 1270 Ma Mackenzie large igneous province (LeCheminant and Heaman, 1989), including the Coppermine flood basalts, which underlie

much of the region to the east of Brock Inlier. Although the sensitivity of the data has shown to be poor at depths greater than ~30 km, a decrease in resistivities from high to moderate values at ~32 km depth is consistent with estimates for the crust mantle boundary beneath the Slave craton (Spratt et al., 2009, Snyder pers. comm.). For preliminary comparative purposes, a geological cross-section (Figure 21) has been generated for the region. Of note are interpreted faults that coincide with the zone of deformation identified in the resistivity structure derived from modelling the MT data. These faults and the multiple stages of movement/reactivation implied by the stratigraphy of the faulted panels are inferred from geological relationships observed mainly along the Hornaday and Brock rivers and mapping by Cook and Aitken (1969). A reverse fault with several hundred metres displacement and lying on strike with the one shown in the middle of the cross section is exposed in the valley of a west-flowing tributary of the Hornaday, south of the transect (see Figure 1).

7.0 Conclusions

The 2015 AMT and broadband MT data have imaged the 2D resistivity structure of the crust beneath the Darnley Bay anomaly and Brock Inlier within the Northwest Territories. Strike and dimensionality analysis reveal that the data are largely 1-dimensional to periods of at least 0.1 s, with a preferred geo-electric strike angle of 0° for the deeper structure. It is shown that distortion effects due to the presence of coastal sea water affect the data at periods greater than 20 s.

The models reveal a thin near-surface low resistivity layer along the western half of the profile, interpreted as Mesozoic and Cenozoic cover sediments that thicken up to 350 m beneath the western most MT site. These are underlain by a resistive layer that is ~1 km thick and interpreted as Paleozoic silicified carbonates that have a slight westward dip. The siliclastic and carbonate sedimentary rocks of the early Neoproterozoic Shaler Supergroup are imaged 1 – 3 km thick low resistivity layer along the entire length of the profile.

At mid-crustal depths, resistivities generally are high with values of ~1000 ohm·m. The MT models do show a resistivity contrast between the Dismal Lakes-and Hornby Bay sedimentary rocks, older basement rocks, or the suspected Darnley Bay mafic intrusion. The intrusion is imaged beneath the Shaler Supergroup and its magnetic expression is cut by dykes of Franklin age so it is older than 1.0 Ga. A low resistivity zone marks the eastern extent of the Darnley Bay anomaly and is interpreted as a deformation zone that extends to at least 20 km depth. The exact nature of these discontinuities is the subject of ongoing 3-D modelling of the data to account for the variability of the electrical strike and effects of the ocean.

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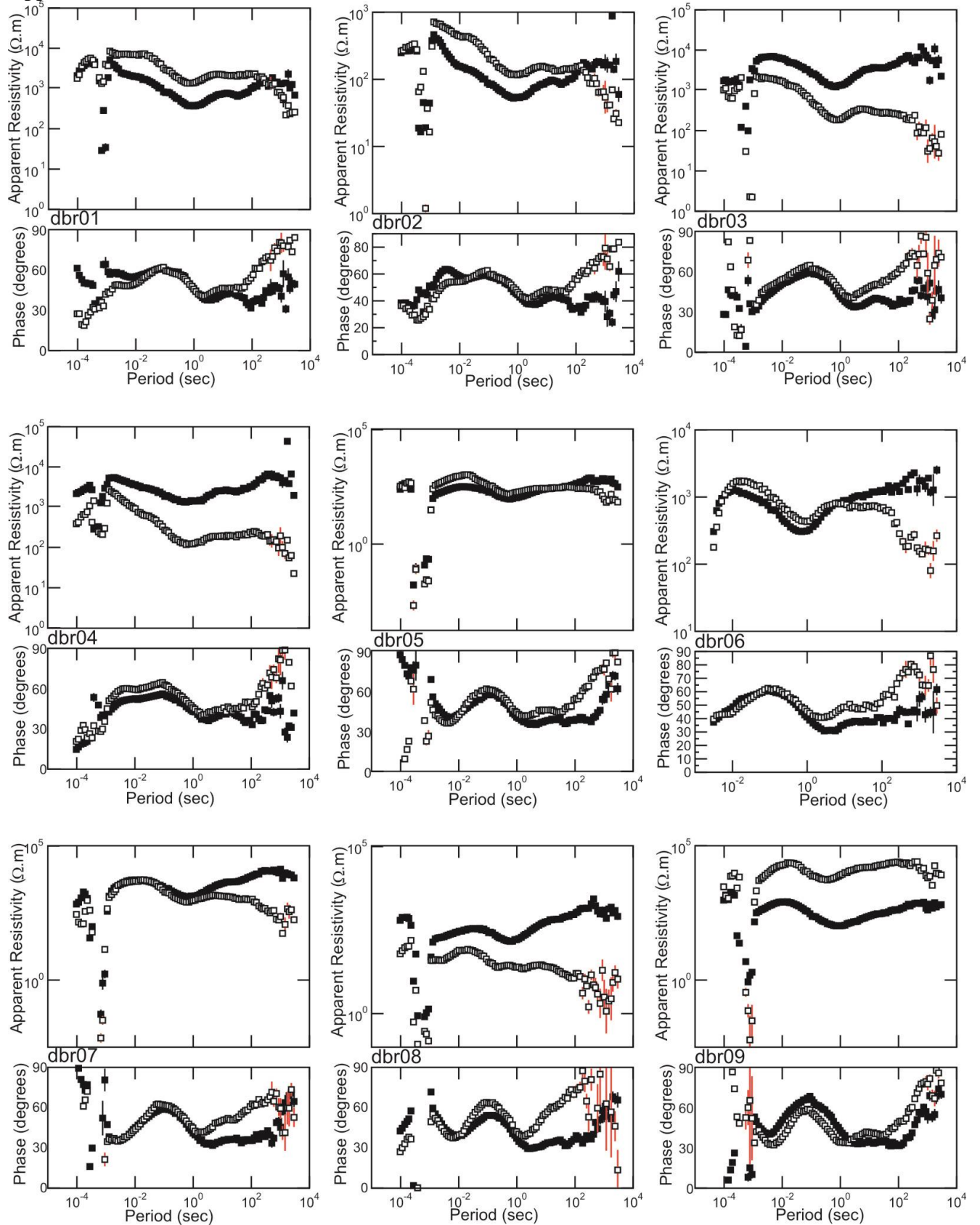
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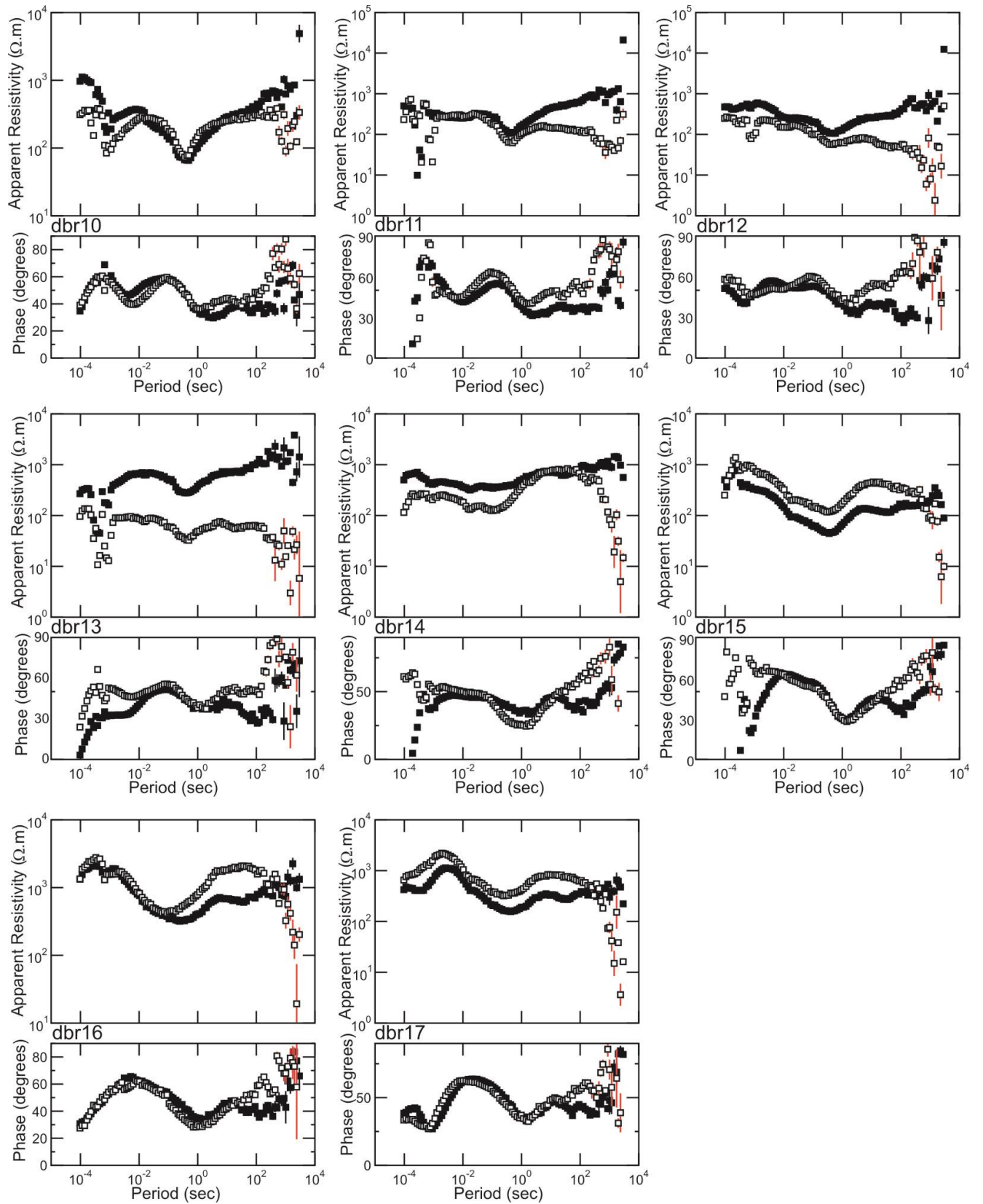
Table 1 MT site locations, electric line lengths, and magnetic field information used for data processing.

Site Name	Data Range	Latitude	Longitude	MTU#	Ex length (m)	Ey length (m)	Hx Coil	Hy Coil	Hz Coil
DBR01b	AMT	69.111590	-	1494	43.1	45.1	DBR02	DBR02	MT8H7059
DBR01b	BBMT	69.111590	-	1494	43.1	45.1	COIL1289	COIL1294	MT8H7059
DBR02b	AMT	69.146160	-	1492	51.7	44.5	AMTC1170	AMTC1173	-
DBR02b	BBMT	69.146160	-	1492	51.7	44.5	DBR01	DBR01	-
DBR03a	AMT	69.122250	-	1496	50.8	47.7	DBR02	DBR02	MT8H7319
DBR03a	BBMT	69.122250	-	1496	50.8	47.7	DBR01	DBR01	MT8H7319
DBR04a	AMT	69.167780	-	1495	47.1	44.1	DBR02	DBR02	MT8H7322
DBR04a	BBMT	69.167780	-	1495	47.1	44.1	DBR01	DBR01	MT8H7322
DBR05a	AMT	69.150100	-	1494	52.0	53.6	DBR08	DBR08	-
DBR05a	BBMT	69.150100	-	1494	52.0	53.6	COIL1289	COIL1294	-
DBR06a	BBMT	69.142590	-	1495	52.5	48.9	DBR05	DBR05	-
DBR07a	AMT	69.154690	-	1496	51.6	51.8	DBR08	DBR08	MT8H7509
DBR07b	BBMT	69.154690	-	1496	51.6	51.8	DBR05	DBR05	MT8H7509
DBR08a	AMT	69.157890	-	1497	49.3	43.8	AMTC1170	AMTC1173	MT8H7322
DBR08b	BBMT	69.157890	-	1497	49.3	43.8	DBR05	DBR05	MT8H7322
DBR09a	AMT	69.164590	-	1495	50.0	40.6	DBR08	DBR08	-
DBR09b	BBMT	69.164590	-	1495	50.0	40.6	DBR05	DBR05	-
DBR10a	AMT	69.165560	-	1497	50.9	53.6	AMTC1170	AMTC1173	-
DBR10a	BBMT	69.165560	-	1497	50.9	53.6	DBR11	DBR11	-
DBR11a	AMT	69.150910	-	1494	47.5	50.8	DBR12	DBR12	-
DBR11a	BBMT	69.150910	-	1494	47.5	50.8	COIL1289	COIL1294	-
DBR12a	AMT	69.195120	-	1496	48.6	53.0	AMTC1172	AMTC1172	MT8H7509
DBR12a	BBMT	69.195120	-	1496	48.6	53.0	DBR11	DBR11	MT8H7509
DBR13a	AMT	69.226540	-	1495	52.2	51.2	DBR12	DBR12	MT8H7322
DBR13a	BBMT	69.226540	-	1495	52.2	51.2	DBR11	DBR11	MT8H7322
DBR14a	AMT	69.338520	-	1497	50.3	52.1	DBR16/17	DBR16/17	-

			122.588910						
DBR14a	BBMT	69.338520	- 122.588910	1497	50.3	52.1	DBR15	DBR15	-
DBR15a	AMT	69.486950	- 122.166250	1494	48.6	48.8	DBR16/17	DBR16/17	MT8H7319
DBR15a	BBMT	69.486950	- 122.166250	1494	48.6	48.8	COIL1289	COIL1294	MT8H7319
DBR16a	AMT	69.304790	- 122.682980	1496	51.5	54.2	AMTC1170	AMTC1173	-
DBR16a	BBMT	69.304790	- 122.682980	1496	51.5	54.2	DBR15	DBR15	-
DBR17a	AMT	69.263610	- 122.817360	1495	51.2	54.5	AMTC1172	AMTC1171	-
DBR17a	BBMT	69.263610	- 122.817360	1495	51.2	54.5	DBR15	DBR15	

Appendix A.





Appendix B - Magnetic field values (nT) recorded by Space Weather Canada near Cambridge Bay, Nunavut.

Orange cells highlight the times where Hourly Range X, or Z are ≥ 200 or the maximum rate of change of X or Z are ≥ 40 .

Blue rows highlight suspect hours where all above conditions are met.

Date	Hour	Hourly ranges			Hourly mean			Maximum rate of change			Standard deviation		
		X	Y	Z	X	Y	Z	X	Y	Z	X	Y	Z
8-1-2015	1	32	111	46	4629	378	58343	6	11	7	6	37	13
8-1-2015	2	130	111	63	4657	334	58350	14	13	13	34	35	17
8-1-2015	3	34	81	101	4721	432	58357	6	9	9	7	17	32
8-1-2015	4	41	34	25	4743	433	58391	7	5	4	11	8	8
8-1-2015	5	220	228	175	4660	352	58425	68	59	52	59	59	40
8-1-2015	6	100	143	101	4731	377	58385	18	11	14	22	45	31
8-1-2015	7	36	57	56	4737	452	58392	5	9	10	8	13	13
8-1-2015	8	19	38	19	4750	457	58418	4	5	3	5	10	5
8-1-2015	9	25	40	21	4747	459	58428	4	6	7	7	11	4
8-1-2015	10	24	47	65	4734	440	58457	5	5	7	6	14	13
8-1-2015	11	19	45	34	4753	484	58463	9	7	2	5	13	10
8-1-2015	12	53	28	34	4763	481	58448	7	4	5	13	8	8
8-1-2015	13	41	54	42	4736	502	58457	7	11	5	8	17	12
8-1-2015	14	63	52	83	4734	535	58473	10	8	9	13	15	21
8-1-2015	15	96	37	90	4673	528	58520	13	9	12	29	8	29
8-1-2015	16	222	80	107	4665	537	58502	21	7	25	70	24	28
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8-2-2015	10	47	50	94	4748	463	58488	7	8	9	13	16	22
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