# New constraints on carbonate diagenesis from integrated Sr and S isotopic and rare earth element data, Jurassic Smackover Formation, U.S. Gulf Coast: a reply

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#### INTRODUCTION

WADE et al. (1992) raise two objections to our interpretation of diagenesis of the Jurassic Smackover Formation carbonates in southwest Arkansas: (1) timing and degree to which saline Louann or Buckner Formation brines were involved in the precipitation of equant calcite cements, and, (2) occurrence of, and controls on, thermochemical sulfate reduction within Smackover Formation reservoirs in southwest Arkansas. WADE et al. (1992) suggest that we have ignored stratigraphic relations and contend that our sample selection is biased. We welcome the opportunity to address their objections, to clarify our procedures and sampling philosophy, and to reiterate our original interpretation of the geochemical evolution of Smackover Formation carbonates. Our interpretations are based on the integration of systematic and significant geochemical trends among various trace element and isotope systems, and offer alternative mechanisms to explain trends not readily explained by models presented by Moore and Druckman (1981), Wagner and Matthews (1982), Moore (1985) and HUMPHREY et al. (1986). In addition, we were able to draw on the considerable interpretive insights made possible by our related investigation of regional variations in the geochemistry of Smackover Formation brines (MOLDOVANYI and WALTER, 1991).

# PRECIPITATION OF EQUANT CALCITE CEMENTS: TIMING AND WATER CHEMISTRY

A variably luminescent equant calcite cement fills interand intragranular pores, moldic pores, fractures, vugs and stylolitic seams. As with most calcite cements, genesis rarely is obvious from petrographic characteristics, because different diagenetic events can produce similar petrographic fabrics. Moldovanyi et al. (1990) confronted this situation while sampling the Smackover Formation carbonates across the southwest Arkansas shelf. We found that, despite the predictable regional diagenetic zonation (Moore and Druckman, 1981), generations of pore-filling equant cement could not be adequately categorized by petrography alone, and that certain generations of equant calcite commonly transcended the geographic diageneticzone boundaries.

Following the paragenetic sequence in Moore and Druckman (1981) and Moore (1985), Wade et al. (1992) adhere to the simple categorization scheme of "pre-" and "post-compaction" equant calcites. They state that these cements either occur mutually exclusive of one another or they are unrecognizably intermingled in cores of the "transitional" diagenetic zone. Furthermore, Wade et al. (1992) also claim that "pre-compaction" calcite is absent from the Smackover Formation in the "southern" zone. As Wade et al. (1992) must be aware, compaction in carbonates is in part controlled by depositional texture and stabilization history, which may vary considerably spatially, such that a particular generation of cement may be present in differentially compacted rocks.

For this reason, and because, as WADE et al. (1992) have acknowledged, pre- and post-compaction cements are often difficult to distinguish petrographically, we chose not to categorize cements in this manner. Instead, our hypothesis was that "early" and "late" generations of equant calcite might be better distinguished by integrating petrographic and cathodoluminescent properties with the more quantitative and unambiguous data on minor element and Sr, C and O isotope composition. WADE et al. (1992) suggest that we have not sampled "early" pre-compaction cements and imply that our characterization of these cements in cores from the southern zone is erroneous. In reality, our combined petrographic and geochemical

approach circumvents this problem and provides less ambiguous criteria with which to categorize cements across the *entire* study area. Although we did not sample calcites from the "northern" zone, the conclusions of our study are based on geochemical properties of those cements in the "transitional" and "southern" which we did sample.

Prior to our investigation, Sr isotope compositional data on the Smackover Formation from the Arkansas shelf were limited to analyses of "generic" calcite cements and framework grains by STUEBER et al. (1984). These data were integrated with existing, but unpaired, analyses of stable isotope and minor element data by Moore (1985), who suggested that the Sr isotope compositions of equant ("poikilitic") calcite cements are geochemically "tied" to present-day subsurface Smackover brines. To obtain better temporal resolution, we microsampled non-luminescent and brightly luminescent equant calcite and calcites with unequivocal genesis (such as, for example, fracture-filling cement). A full suite of geochemical analyses (O, C, Sr isotopes; minor, trace, and rare earth elements) was performed on each sample to characterize the geochemical and isotopic composition of these end-member components. Geochemistry of original marine components was defined by analyzing primary grains (e.g. ooids and rhodo-

Equant calcite cements exhibit a large range in C and O isotope composition, with values ranging from approximately -2% to -8%  $\delta^{18}$ O and +4% to +1.8%  $\delta^{13}$ C. The Sr content and  $^{87}$ Sr/ $^{86}$ Sr ratios of equant cements vary from 40 to 600 ppm, and 0.70679 to 0.70964, respectively. For reference, the <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr ratio for Jurassic seawater ranges from 0.7068 to 0.7072 (Burke et al., 1982), Correlation of these data and integration with petrographic and luminescent properties reveals systematic geochemical trends in all the cores analyzed (Figs 7-9 in Moldovanyi et al., 1990): heavier O isotope composition is characteristic of cements with less radiogenic 87\$r/86\$r ratios and lower \$r\$ content. These cements are also non-luminescent and occur in cores from the "transitional" (#1 Buchanan Heirs; #3 Nations) and "southern" (#1 Barnett Estates; #1 McMahen; Tract #22-3) diagenetic zones. In contrast, brightly luminescent calcite has  $\delta^{18}O$  and  $\delta^{13}C$  values as low as -8% and +1.4%, respectively, and has  $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$  ratios up to 0.70964. These luminescent calcite cements were identified in cores from the "transitional" (#3 Nations) and "southern" (#1 McMahen) diagenetic zones.

The wide range in Sr isotope and trace element composition of calcite cements requires that cementation occurred over a wide range of diagenetic conditions, a conclusion also reached by others investigating Smackover Formation diagenesis (e.g. Moore and Druckman, 1981; WAGNER and MATTHEWS, 1982; HUMPHREY et al., 1986). However, our more refined sampling of early generations of calcspar shows that a significant volume of cement was in place prior to the acquisition of radiogenic character in the fluids. Furthermore, our data document progressive geochemical evolution of primary grains, a process which results from the interaction with waters evolving chemically through progressive burial and water-rock interactions. This aspect of our model—the complex geochemical evolution of grains and cements—is at odds with existing models which suggest that many geochemical properties are inherited during early diagenesis and remain unchanged during subsequent stages of alteration.

As we suggested, the geochemistry of relatively "early" calcites (lower <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr ratios, LREE enrichment) may be interpreted in several ways. We were cautious to avoid firm conclusions about early diagenetic fluid chemistries. Two possibilities were discussed in Moldovany1 et al. (1990): meteoric diagenesis vs diagenesis related to evaporatively concentrated brines. Meteoric influx is quite likely, especially in the northern portion of the study area, and in select areas of the southern diagenetic zone (such as

the Walker Creek Field). Meteoric water invasion is also supported by geochemical trends in formation brines (Moldovanyi and Walter, 1990, 1991) but it is difficult to ascertain the timing of meteoric recharge relative to diagenesis

Stratigraphic considerations (i.e. relations to the overlying Buckner Evaporites and underlying Louann Salt), and the stable isotope composition and REE concentrations of "early" calcites suggest that mixing with evaporatively concentrated brines may have played a role in generating fluids involved in precipitation of nonluminescent calcite cements. The non-luminescent, nonradiogenic "early" equant calcite cements also are depleted in light rare earth elements (LREE) and have a lighter O isotope composition relative to primary grains and brightly luminescent, radiogenic calcites. Depletion in LREE cannot be easily explained by meteoric diagenesis or local rock-buffering of REE. However, evaporites are commonly enriched in LREE (Morgan and Wandless, 1980; Wright, 1985). Seawater concentrated to the point of evaporite mineral precipitation would be expected to be depleted in LREE; calcite cements precipitating from these waters would acquire this REE pattern. Precipitation from hypersaline waters could also be consistent with the trend toward lighter O isotope composition evident in these cements (Holser, 1979; Pierre et al., 1984; Knauth and Beeunas, 1986). Several fault systems, such as the South Arkansas Fault System and the Louisiana State Line Graben, were already in place at the time of Smackover and Buckner deposition (TROELL and ROBINSON, 1987; Bishop, 1973). Introduction of hypersaline brines would be facilitated by migration along these faults or by densitydriven flow from Buckner brines into relatively porous Smackover strata.

Contrary to the allegations of WADE et al. (1992), we do not imply that these brines were "responsible for the stabilization of unstable Smackover ooid sands shortly after deposition", but the data do suggest that "early" calcite cements could have precipitated from fluids which had interacted with hypersaline brines. Our model does not rule out a continued involvement of saline fluids during burial diagenesis; it does suggest that mixing could have occurred earlier than previously thought. We close this section by reiterating that the "lack of firm constraints on REE fractionation coupled to the ambiguity in O and Sr isotopic trends makes it difficult to model the chemistry of early diagenetic waters" (direct quote from MOLDOVANYI et al., 1990).

## THERMOCHEMICAL SULFATE REDUCTION

Wade et al. (1992) express concern over our evaluation of the S isotope geochemistry of diagenetic S species and our interpretations regarding source and distribution of H<sub>2</sub>S within reservoirs of the Upper Smackover Formation in southwest Arkansas. They base their objections on the premise that thermochemical sulfate reduction (TSR) will occur above "some minimum temperature" (providing sufficient SO<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, and hydrocarbons are available). They insist that the S data presented by Moldovanyi et al. (1990) indicate that thermochemical sulfate reduction has occurred in close proximity to shallow Smackover Formation reservoirs on the southwest Arkansas shelf.

Although H<sub>2</sub>S may be generated by high-temperature abiotic and/or low-temperature biological processes, large volumes of H<sub>2</sub>S gas in hydrocarbon reservoirs are often explained in terms of thermochemical sulfate reduction (e.g. Orr, 1974, 1977). Many of the criteria proposed by

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ORR (1974, 1977) for TSR are satisfied in Smackover Formation reservoirs: large volumes of H<sub>2</sub>S, abundant organic matter and S-rich source rocks, presence of native S, and burial temperatures in the 80–100°C range. Sassen (1988) and Claypool and Mancini (1989) invoke the TSR model of Orr (1974, 1977) to explain the occurrence of H<sub>2</sub>S in deeper Smackover Formation reservoirs in the Mississippi Salt Basin and in southwest Alabama, respectively. However, evidence supporting TSR in these instances did not include integrated data on S isotope systematics of oils, diagenetic minerals (sulfates and sulfides), and S-species in brines.

Despite possibly permissive physical conditions for TSR occurrence in Smackover Formation reservoirs in southwest Arkansas, our more detailed S isotope data reveal two important inconsistencies with the Orr (1974, 1977) model. Unlike the classic examples of TSR at Pine Point, Northwest Territories, Canada (Powell and Macqueen, 1984) and Big Horn Basin, Wyoming (ORR, 1974), the S isotope compositions of sulfide and sulfate minerals, S in oils, and dissolved H<sub>2</sub>S and SO<sub>4</sub> in brines of the Smackover Formation vary widely and do not converge toward the S isotope composition of coeval sulfate (Moldovanyi and Walter, 1988). Typically,  $\delta^{34}$ S of brine H<sub>2</sub>S averages +17.8\%, but may be as low as -5.2\%, while the  $\delta^{34}$ S of brine SO<sub>4</sub> averages +21% but may be up to 10% heavier than Jurassic seawater sulfate (16  $\pm$  1.5%; Claypool et al., 1980). Pyrite, galena, sphalerite and marcasite have a mean  $\delta^{34}$ S of -16.8%, +3.5%, -1.0%, and +6.9%, respectively. In contrast, native S, anhydrite, and celesite are enriched in <sup>34</sup>S and have a mean  $\delta^{34}$ S of +18.2%, +20.8%, and 27.8‰, respectively.

The S isotope composition of S in crude oils from southwest Arkansas is equally heterogeneous and ranges from -4.5 to +4.4% (Moldovanyi and Walter, 1988; Moldovanyi, 1990). The variability of  $\delta^{34}\mathrm{S}$  in these samples suggests that S of variable isotope composition may have been added from multiple external sources, and that there has not been equilibration among the various S reservoirs (e.g. minerals, oils and brine). Wade et al. (1992) claim that S isotope homogeneity is not a requisite in all cases of TSR. This may be so, but it has yet to be generally accepted. We know of no instance in the literature where such widely discordant isotope compositions among oils,  $H_2\mathrm{S}$ , and  $\mathrm{SO}_4$  were interpreted as evidence in favor of TSR.

A second, even more compelling, inconsistency with the ORR (1974) model pertains to the geographic distribution of  $H_2S$ -rich reservoirs along the narrow east-west trending belt within the study area and to the geochemical characteristics of  $H_2S$ -rich brines. Wade et al. (1992) attribute the distribution of  $H_2S$  to controls exerted by temperature and by availability of  $SO_4$ . They suggest that the southern boundary of the  $H_2S$ -rich belt is controlled by a change in facies from anhydrite to non-evaporitic shale in the overlying Buckner Formation. However, they fail to explain what controls the northern boundary, as well as to account for the distribution of  $H_2S$  in Smackover Formation brines.

The relation between H<sub>2</sub>S mole-% and depth depicted by Wade et al. (1992) (their fig. 1) is based on unpublished data from unidentified "representative Arkansas petroleum reservoirs". From these data, they attempt to establish upper and lower depth limits from 2.4 to 3 km for our sulfide data. Our samples, taken from H<sub>2</sub>S-rich reservoirs ranging in depth from 1.7 to 2.7 km, do not in fact exhibit these trends. In Fig. 1 we show that H<sub>2</sub>S-free Smackover Formation brines from reservoirs overlain by anhydritic Buckner facies occur over an overlapping depth range with H<sub>2</sub>S-rich reservoirs. Simple temperature and lithological controls, thus, are not sufficient to explain H<sub>2</sub>S content of brines shows any clear increase with depth; there is no relation among H<sub>2</sub>S or SO<sub>4</sub> concentrations and

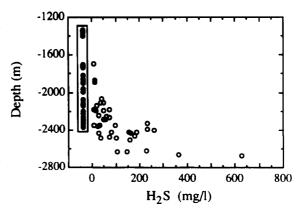


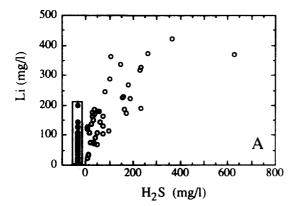
Fig. 1. Depth and dissolved H<sub>2</sub>S content of subsurface formation waters in H<sub>2</sub>S-rich (open circles) and H<sub>2</sub>S-free reservoirs (solid circles) in the Smackover Formation, southwest Arkansas (after Moldovanyi, 1990). The H<sub>2</sub>S-free samples plotted are restricted to reservoirs from the northern portion of the study area which are in contact with anhydritic facies of the overlying Buckner Formation. The H<sub>2</sub>S-free formation waters overlap in production depth with H<sub>2</sub>S-rich formation waters. The trend in H<sub>2</sub>S content of sour brines with increasing reservoir depth is not especially strong.

temperature in our formation water samples (Moldovanyi and Walter, 1991).

The distribution of H<sub>2</sub>S, however, does follow a regional east—west gradient in H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations unrelated to reservoir depth (Moldovanyi and Walter, 1988). Highest concentrations are found in the western and southwestern end of the study area, along the southern margin of the H<sub>2</sub>S-belt (at Dorcheat—Macedonia field) and near the trace of the South Arkansas Fault in Miller County (at Mars Hill and McKamie-Patton fields) (Moldovanyi, 1990; Carentere and Trout, 1978). In addition, brines with elevated concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S also have elevated levels of B, Li, K and radiogenic Sr (Moldovanyi and Walter, 1988). These trends in brine geochemistry cannot be explained by the facies patterns suggested by Wade *et al.* (1992).

In Fig. 2 we show data for Li and Rb contents of H<sub>2</sub>S-free formation water samples from reservoirs overlain by evaporitic Buckner facies and compare these to H<sub>2</sub>S-rich formation water samples. Clearly, increase in H<sub>2</sub>S content is associated with elements exotic to the calcitic reservoir mineralogy. Because the brines with most radiogenic Sr isotope composition typically have the isotopically heaviest H<sub>2</sub>S (Moldovanyi, 1990), it is likely that H<sub>2</sub>S was dominantly generated by TSR at higher temperatures, in contact with siliciclastics deeper in the sedimentary section. Taken together with the discordance in the S isotope systematics among Smackover Formation oils, brine H<sub>2</sub>S and SO<sub>4</sub>, and diagenetic sulfides, we cannot envision a local source for H<sub>2</sub>S. Thus, we reiterate our original conclusion that H<sub>2</sub>S was generated, likely by TSR, deeper in the basin and subsequently migrated into upper Smackover Formation reservoirs of the southwest Arkan-

We hope that our comments have addressed the issues raised by WADE et al. (1992) regarding the complex diagenetic history of the Smackover Formation and the controls on regional geochemistry of Smackover Formation waters. We feel we have demonstrated that integration of elemental and isotopic data on discrete diagenetic components as well as on present formation waters can provide important new constraints on progressive burial diagenesis



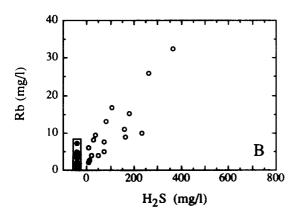


Fig. 2. Content of Li (A) and Rb (B) in Smackover Formation brines from the southwest Arkansas shelf (oolitic facies) (after Moldovanyi, 1990). Samples are identified as H<sub>2</sub>S-rich (open circles) and H<sub>2</sub>S-free (solid circles). As in Fig. 1, H<sub>2</sub>S-free samples are restricted to the northern portion of the shelf where Smackover Formation reservoirs are in contact with evaporitic facies of the overlying Buckner Formation. Lithium and Rb content of H<sub>2</sub>S-free brines is lower than most H<sub>2</sub>S-rich brines and there is a strong positive correlation between dissolved H<sub>2</sub>S and Li and Rb concentrations.

of Smackover Formation carbonates and on the importance of water-rock interactions external to the carbonate reservoir.

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