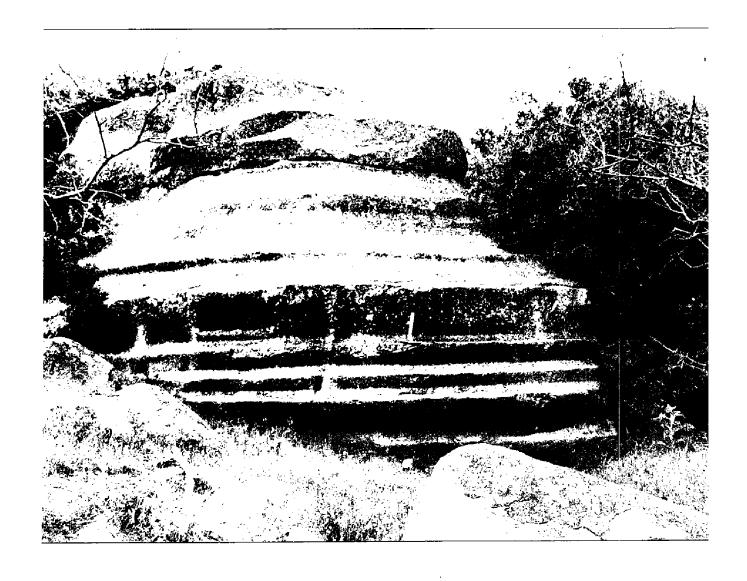
## OKLAHOMA GEOLOGY

Oklahoma Geological Survey Vol. 49, No. 6 December 1989



## Grooved Granites of the Western Wichita Mountains, Oklahoma

Horizontal grooves are developed at the bases of granitic hills, knobs, and boulders in the Lake Altus and Cooperton areas of the western Wichita Mountains, Oklahoma. The granite is Middle to Late Cambrian in age and belongs to the Wichita Granite Group. Lying with nonconformity on the granite surfaces are nearshore marine "red bed" shales and siltstones, with subordinate sandstones and conglomerates, of the Lower Permian Hennessey Formation.

The areal distribution of the grooved granites has been plotted by Merritt (1958) and Harrell and Twidale (in press). Most are found within a 15-km radius of Lake Altus: they are especially well developed on the north sides of Bird and King Mountains, and just east of Buzzard Roost Mountain (coverphoto). The grooves occur in vertical flights that together extend through an elevation range of 50 m. With the exception of Bird Mountain, where the grooved surface originally had a 30-m vertical range, 10 m is about the maximum range of grooves at any one locality. Most of the grooves are horizontally disposed, the only exceptions being boulders and blocks that have been displaced through undermining and slumping. Many of the grooves are concave in section, but they also take the form of narrow benches or breaks of slope in the granite surface. The concave grooves vary in width from 0.02 to 1.5 m, and have depths of up to one half their width. Individual grooves can seldom be followed laterally for more than 10-15 m, because of poor preservation or burial beneath talus deposits. When the granite surfaces are broken by joint-controlled clefts the grooves penetrate to the full depths of the openings. The grooves frequently encircle granite boulders and knobs, but in only one instance completely encircle a hill.

(continued on p. 246)

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OKLAHOMA GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

VOL. 49, NO. 6

DECEMBER 1989

# GEOCHEMISTRY OF NEAR-SURFACE GROUND WATER, GREAT SALT PLAINS, ALFALFA COUNTY, OKLAHOMA

C. B. Slaughter<sup>1</sup> and R. D. Cody<sup>2</sup>

#### **Abstract**

Shallow ground water of the delta sediments adjacent to the western edge of the Great Salt Plains Reservoir of Alfalfa County, Oklahoma, is highly mineralized and contains chloride, sulfate, sodium, and calcium ions at concentrations that approach or temporarily exceed saturation. Lower Permian salt- and anhydrite-bearing sediments in the subsurface are thought to be sources of dissolved ions which are brought upward by artesian groundwater flow. Capillary draw raises these shallow brines to the surface, where halite and selenite gypsum are precipitated within the upper 1 m of the delta sediments.

Water samples and selenite crystals were collected over the southern two-thirds of the Great Salt Plains during early August and late December. The brine surface was encountered between  $\sim\!0.5$  m and 1.2 m below the ground surface. Water chemistry was highly variable and dependent on location, yearly season, and other, less obvious factors. Maximum chlorinity was  $\sim\!190,000$  ppm, and sulfate concentration maximum was  $\sim\!6,000$  ppm. The controlling factors causing abundant gypsum precipitation in the southern area and relatively sparce precipitation in the central and northern areas of the Great Salt Plains seem to be higher calcium and sulfate concentrations in the south. Sodium- and chloride-ion concentrations might also have an important effect on gypsum precipitation. The reason for higher calcium sulfate and lower sodium chloride in the south is unclear; there may be different ground-water sources for the three Great Salt Plains areas.

#### Introduction

The near-surface ground water of the Great Salt Plains (GSP) is highly mineralized and contains chloride, sulfate, sodium, and calcium ions at concentrations that approach and temporarily exceed saturation. Halite is precipitated on the ground surface, and gypsum crystals are precipitated just below the surface of the plains. The selenite gypsum precipitating below the surface of the salt plains possesses an unusual crystal morphology that differs in a number of ways from normal selenite. The most obvious difference is shortening parallel to the crystallographic c axis of the GSP crystals, which results in a bladed or hemibipyramidal habit (Cody and Cody, 1988; Naff, 1977) rather than the more typical prismatic habit. Second, pronounced hourglass-shaped patterns of sand and clay inclusions are visible in the selenite when viewed along the c axis (Naff, 1977). Each year

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numerous mineral enthusiasts come to the GSP to collect these unusual selenite crystals. Equipped only with shovels, they dig shallow holes in a designated crystal-collecting area in their search for the crystals located approximately 2 cm to 60 cm below the surface (Fig. 1). During the winter, access to the GSP is limited because of wet and muddy conditions on the salt plains (Fig. 2). The objective of the present study was to gain a better understanding of the conditions leading to selenite crystallization in sediments of the Great Salt Plains, Alfalfa County, Oklahoma. This was accomplished by investigating the relationship between the occurrence of gypsum and the shallow ground-water chemistry within which the gypsum crystallizes.

#### **Previous Work**

Very little detailed work has been done on the relationship between ground-water chemistry and gypsum occurrence and morphology. Merritt (1935) was first to describe the crystallography of the GSP gypsum, but it was not until the late 1960s that the relationship between gypsum occurrence and near-surface ground-water chemistry was investigated. The first study was by Davis (1968), who conducted a study of environmental conditions affecting the occurrence of the bladed selenite crystals on the GSP. The near-surface ground water was sampled in June 1968; temperature, pH, salinity, and chlorinity were measured. Temperatures ranged from 30°C to 34°C, and pH (measured with Hydrion pH paper) was 5 for all samples. Salinities averaged 208,000 ppm where gypsum hourglass crystals were found.

In the early 1970s, concern over salt pollution in the Arkansas River and how salt control might affect selenite crystal growth prompted a study of the near-



Figure 1. Officially designated selenite-collecting area on the Great Salt Plains, August 1987. The surface is covered with white NaCl crust approximately 2-5 cm thick. The dark mounds result from holes dug by crystal-collectors.



Figure 2. The Great Salt Plains, December 1987. The light-colored areas are shallow-water pools with some unmelted snow. Salt crusts are absent over the plains during most of the winter months.

surface ground water of the GSP by Naff (1977). A grid of 16 test holes in the NE½ sec. 22, T. 26 N., R. 10 W., was laid out in September 1976 on the GSP. Chloride and sulfate averaged  $\sim$ 130,000 ppm and 5,900 ppm, respectively. The temperature of the water averaged  $\sim$ 22°C. Naff (1977) believed that selenite crystallization resulted from the interaction of strong sodium chloride brines and calcium-sulfate-rich surface waters.

### The Great Salt Plains

## Geology

Western Oklahoma and the eastern part of the Texas Panhandle encompass 51,800 km² within the Anadarko basin (Gould, 1924). The northern element of the Anadarko basin has been called the Northern Oklahoma shelf by Arbenz (1956); this is the area in which the GSP are located.

The study area is underlain by Permian and Quaternary sediments. Permian strata of the Anadarko basin comprise Lower Permian (Wolfcampian) through the middle Permian (Leonardian and Guadalupean) beds, and possibly Upper Permian (Ochoan) beds (Jordan and Vosburg, 1963). In western Oklahoma, subsurface Lower Permian beds do not contain evaporites, but rather marine carbonates and shales, whereas in central Oklahoma the rocks are red shales and sandstones. Pre-Quaternary strata in the vicinity of the GSP dip regionally to the southwest and south into the Anadarko basin at 2–4 m/km (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1981).

Three principal evaporite units overlie the Lower Permian beds (Jordan and Vosburg, 1963). The oldest evaporites are in the middle Permian Wellington Formation. The Wellington evaporites are overlain by the Cimarron and Beckham Formations, which both contain middle Permian evaporites. The Lower Cimarron Salt is the predominant evaporite below the surface in the vicinity of the GSP; the Lower Cimarron Salt occurs at depths ranging from 71 m to 244 m below the surface (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1981). The evaporite units consist primarly of halite and anhydrite, the anhydrite being associated with thin beds of dolomite (Jordan and Vosburg, 1963). Shales and siltstones separate the Permian evaporites in the Anadarko basin. The combined thickness of the Wellington, Cimarron, and Beckham evaporites is 760 m, within a Permian sequence that is 1,200 m thick (Jordan and Vosburg, 1963). The Permian rocks are overlain by a thin covering of Quaternary alluvium and terrace deposits (Jordan and Vosburg, 1963).

#### Hydrogeology

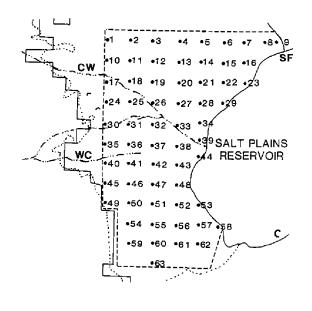
The GSP encompasses an area of ~5,700 hectares in T. 26,27 N., R. 9,10 W., south of the Salt Fork of the Arkansas River in Alfalfa County, Oklahoma (Fig. 3). The GSP are formed by Quaternary sediments resting upon the Permian (Fig. 4); the sediments are a delta of varied and intertonguing beds of clay, sand, and gravel having a maximum thickness of 7.5 m (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1981). East of the GSP is the Great Salt Plains Reservoir, which is impounded by a dam on the Salt Fork River in sec. 11, T. 26 N., R. 9 W. The surface of the salt plains slopes downward from west to east, with a gradient of 2–4 m/km (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1981).

Meteoric water seeps into the ground west of the GSP and travels downward and laterally through Permian strata. In the path of the ground water, the evaporite deposits, chiefly halite and anhydrite, are dissolved and carried to the surface at the GSP by artesian flow (Johnson, 1981). The most probable source of the salt brine is the Lower Cimarron Salt, because of its proximity to the GSP (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1981). The brine is discharged into the base of the Quaternary sediments under artesian conditions (Fig. 4).

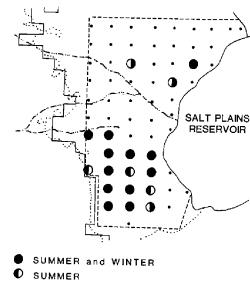
In Alfalfa County, the lower Cimarron Salt consists of red-brown to gray shale and siltstone. The salt occurs mainly in veins, nodules, and isolated crystals or masses within these clastic rocks. The amount of halite in the formation varies from 40% west of the GSP to 10% at the eastern limit of the GSP. West of the GSP the halite occurs as discrete beds of rock salt 0.5–2.5 thick (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1981).

#### Climate

Average annual precipitation is  $\sim$ 66 cm, most of which occurs between March and October. The mean annual temperature is 15°C. Winds generally are from a southerly or northerly direction in the region. Potential annual evaporation is  $\sim$ 239 cm. The greatest evaporation occurs between March and October, and the least amount of evaporation occurs during the winter months (Oklahoma Climatological Survey, 1988).



COLLECTION AREA and SAMPLE SITE NUMBER



WINTER

### SELENITE OCCURRENCE

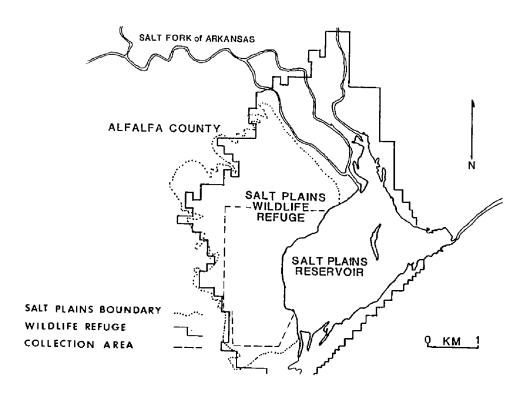


Figure 3. Index maps of the Great Salt Plains, showing the location of the Great Salt Plains, U.S. Department of the Interior Wildlife Refuge, sample-collection area with locations of numbered sample sites, and observed occurrences of gypsum crystals at each sample site. The general index map is modified from Davis (1968). On the collection-area/sample-site map, CW = Cottonwood Creek, WC = West Clay Creek.

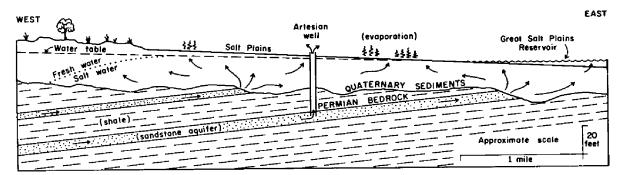


Figure 4. Schematic cross section of the Great Salt Plains area. Artesian water movement from the deeper subsurface is shown by arrows. From Johnson (1972).

#### **Methods**

#### **Field Methods**

Sampling of the near-surface ground water on the GSP was conducted first in early August and again in late December 1987. With the aid of a Brunton compass, a grid consisting of 63 sampling sites was laid out on the plains in August (Fig. 3). The sampling sites were marked with orange flagging to facilitate resampling of the grid in December. Streams crossing the salt plains, such as West Clay Creek and Cottonwood Creek, along with the Great Salt Plains Reservoir and Salt Fork of the Arkansas River, also were sampled during the summer and winter.

At each grid node, a hole was dug with a shovel until the water table was reached. Temperature, pH, and alkalinity were measured in situ. Alkalinity was determined volumetrically by titration, but only two analyses could be performed at the GSP because of adverse field conditions during the summer and winter. Water samples were collected in 250 ml plastic polyethylene bottles and stored under refrigeration to prevent post-collection changes in sulfate until later analysis at Iowa State University (ISU). Depth to the water table in the hole was measured after approximately 30 min to determine the water table surface of the ground water. Gypsum crystals encountered in the hole were collected and brought to ISU for further study. One potentially important factor not investigated in this study is the phosphorous concentration of the brines. Large numbers of bird guano mounds were seen in the water along the western edge of the GSP Reservoir in the winter, where they protruded above the water surface in water 3-4 cm deep. Similar mounds occur in other locations, but were not as noticeable. These mounds of phosphate-rich organic substances occur because large numbers of birds occupy the bird refuge at various times during the year.

Prior to field work in August, the GSP had received 72 cm of precipitation in 1987. Field work commenced on August 8 and continued through August 17. Trace amounts of rainfall occurred on August 10 and 13. Temperatures reached a high of 41°C; highs averaged 36°C during summer field work (Oklahoma Climatological Survey, 1988).

The winter resampling began on 30 December 1987 and continued through 4 January 1988. The GSP had received 114 cm of precipitation in 1987; no precipitation fell during the winter field work. Snow had fallen earlier in December; some snow cover was still present when winter field work commenced. The northern portion of the GSP was covered with 1–2 cm of water derived from snow melt upon our arrival on 29 December 1987. When field work commenced on 30 December, most of the water had disappeared, either by infiltration into the sediments or by surface runoff into the reservoir. Temperatures reached a low of  $-11^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; lows averaged  $-7^{\circ}\text{C}$  during the 6-day field period (Oklahoma Climatological Survey, 1988). The reservoir water level was slightly higher than during the August sampling period, so that 7 of the sites on the eastern edge of the summer grid were under water and could not be sampled.

#### **Laboratory Methods**

Hach Chemical analytical procedures were used in the laboratory to determine calcium, magnesium, sulfate, and chloride concentrations in the brine. Hach adapted these procedures from *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Waste Water* (Franson, 1980). The procedure used to determine sulfate concentration was a modification of the barium sulfate turbidimetric method. A mercuric nitrate method was used to analyze for chloride. Calcium and magnesium were determined with the EDTA Titrimetric method, and sodium was determined using a Perkins-Elmer Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer.

#### Results

#### General

Gypsum crystals occurred primarily in the southern portion of the field area (Fig. 3). The gypsum exhibited three morphologies. In the southern part of the GSP, gypsum occurred either as massive layers or bladed crystals. In the northern and central portions of the GSP, the gypsum was either bladed with hourglass inclusions, similar to that described by Merritt (1935), or lenticular, as described by Naff (1977) and Davis (1968). The gypsum was located primarily in clay beds 2 cm to 0.5 m below the surface of the GSP. The clay beds are above the water table.

## Surface-Water Chemistry

The composition of surface waters on the GSP was highly variable (Table 1). Cottonwood Creek, in the northern portion of the GSP, contained low concentrations of calcium, magnesium, sodium, and chloride but had high levels of sulfate in the summer and winter (1,025 ppm and 1,525 ppm, respectively). West Clay Creek contained chloride concentrations of 181,700 ppm in the summer and 73,900 ppm in the winter, similar to the ground water found on the GSP. Neither creek was sampled west of the GSP. The high ion concentrations of these creeks result from dissolution of surface salts on the GSP, and perhaps from inflow of shallow subsurface brines. The Great Salt Plains Reservoir during the summer con-

TABLE 1.—SURFACE-WATER ANALYSES: RIVER AND CREEK SAMPLES COLLECTED NEAR POINT OF ENTRY ONTO GREAT SALT PLAINS

Sample <sup>a</sup>	Temperature (°C)	рН	Alkalinity (ppm)	Chloride (ppm)	Sulfate (ppm)	Calcium (ppm)	Magnesium (ppm)	Sodium (ppm)
SF-S	28	8.60	*	700	437	152	29	450
SF-W	1	8.30	*	2,200	255	176	58	1,275
SPR-S	26	8.33	*	2,700	420	128	63	1,750
SPR-W	1	8.16	*	17,700	1,062	280	156	11,400
CW-S	33	8.68	*	2,400	1,025	114	68	1,800
CW-W	0	8.03	*	8,200	1,525	408	204	5,200
WC-S	32	7.00	*	181,700	1,400	1,168	841	118,000
WC-W	3	7.51	*	73,900	2,700	672	321	47,000

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ S = summer; W = winter; SF = Salt Fork of Arkansas River; SPR = Salt Plains Reservoir; CW = Cottonwood Creek; WC = West Clay Creek.

tained low concentrations of chloride, sulfate, calcium, magnesium, and sodium; in the winter, chloride, sodium, and sulfate concentrations were substantially higher. Ephemeral surface streams flowing onto the GSP are highly migratory due to large and variable discharges during flooding season; for this reason, the precise locations of surface streams depicted on the maps in this study vary seasonally and annually. Because precise locations of the ephemeral streams are not known, ion concentration maps (Figs. 5–7) ignore any influence that these streams might have on ground-water composition.

## Ground-Water Chemistry

Ground water was encountered 0.5 m to 1.2 m below the surface of the GSP. The piezometric surface slopes to the east (Fig. 6). Brine temperatures averaged 32°C during the summer and 5°C during the winter. During the summer, the pH of the brine ranged from 6.00 to 6.90, averaging 6.50. During the winter, brine pH varied between 6.25 and 7.54, averaging 6.80. Alkalinity was measured at 60 ppm during the summer and winter.

Analytical results are tabulated in Appendix 1; these data are shown in Figures 5–7 to depict lateral variation in ion concentrations over the GSP. The dominant ions in the ground water during both summer and winter are sodium and chloride (Fig. 5). Calcium, magnesium, and sulfate occur at comparatively lower concentrations in the GSP (Figs. 6, 7).

The GSP field area was divided into three parts to facilitate discussion of ion concentrations during the summer and winter. These areas are (1) north (sample sites 1–29); (2) central (sample site 30–44); and (3) south (sample sites 45–63). These areas were chosen because each is distinctly different in several features from the others.

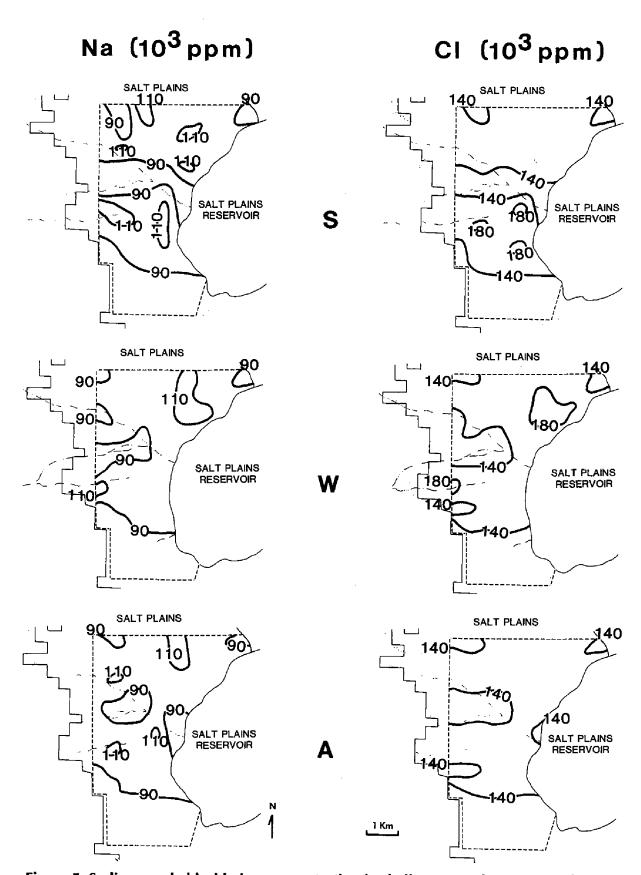


Figure 5. Sodium- and chloride-ion concentration in shallow ground water over the sample-collection area of the Great Salt Plains. The heavy solid lines represent equal ion concentrations. Concentrations in parts per million.

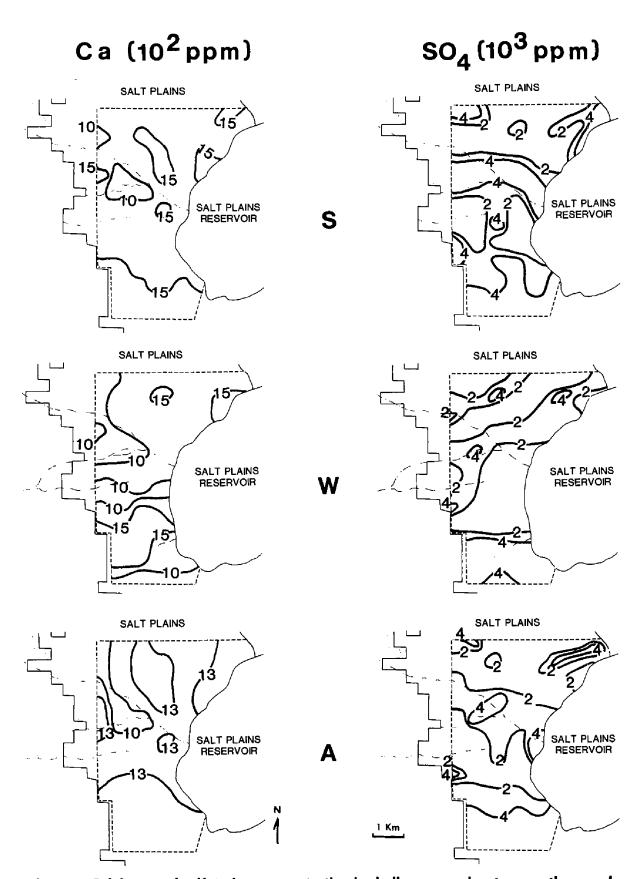


Figure 6. Calcium- and sulfate-ion concentration in shallow ground water over the sample-collection area of the Great Salt Plains. The heavy solid lines represent equal ion concentrations. Concentrations in parts per million.

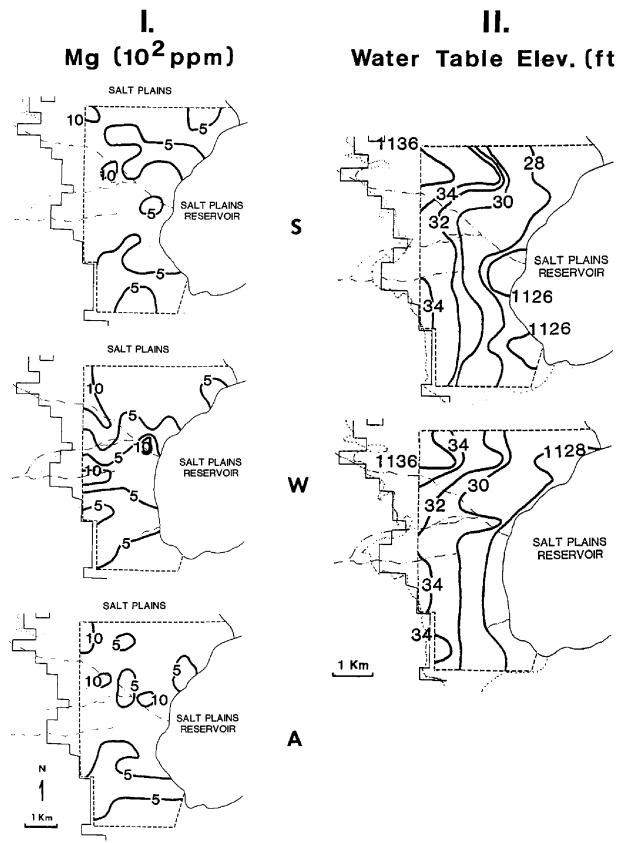


Figure 7. I—Magnesium-ion concentration in shallow ground water over the sample collection area of the Great Salt Plains. The heavy solid lines represent equal ion concentrations. Concentrations in parts per million. II—Elevation of the water table over the sample-collection area of the Great Salt Plains (in feet above sea level).

#### **Summer Geographic Distribution of Ions**

#### South Section

Gypsum was found at 13 of 19 sampling sites. Generally, low chloride concentrations were found in the south section. The average chloride concentration was 132,000 ppm, with a standard deviation (s.d.) of 23,500 ppm; the chloride concentration ranged from 185,000 ppm to 96,000 ppm. Sodium-ion concentrations were found to average 84,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 27,000 ppm; the sodium-ion concentrations ranged from 116,000 ppm to 62,000 ppm. Calcium concentrations were high in the south section. The average calcium concentration was 1,470 ppm, with a s.d. of 300 ppm; maximum and minimum calcium concentrations were 2,100 ppm and 1,040 ppm, respectively. Approximately 50% of the sites had magnesium concentrations of <450 ppm; the remainder had <750 ppm but >530 ppm. Magnesium averaged 520 ppm, with a s.d. of 160 ppm; the high magnesium concentration was 730 ppm, and the low was 240 ppm. Sulfate concentrations were high in the south section. Sulfates averaged 3,700 ppm, with a s.d. of 1,300 ppm; the sulfate concentrations ranged between a high of 6,200 ppm and a low of 1,300 ppm.

#### Central Section

Gypsum was found in 2 of 15 sampling sites. Chloride concentrations varied greatly, from a high of 182,000 ppm to a low of 61,000 ppm. The chloride concentrations averaged 142,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 35,000 ppm. Sodium concentrations averaged 93,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 23,000 ppm, ranging between 125,000 ppm and 39,000 ppm. Calcium concentrations showed little variation in the central section, with the exception of two isolated areas, one containing the section's low of 480 ppm and the other containing the section's high of 1,520 ppm. The mean concentration of calcium was 1,120 ppm, with a s.d. of 220 ppm. Magnesium concentrations ranged from a low of 440 ppm to a high of 920 ppm. The average magnesium concentration was 650 ppm, with a s.d. of 190 ppm. Sulfate concentrations varied greatly throughout the central region, ranging between 5,700 ppm and 1,200 ppm. The average sulfate concentration was 3,300 ppm, with a s.d. of 1,600 ppm.

#### North Section

Gypsum was found in 1 of 20 sampling sites. Chloride concentrations were high throughout the north section. The average chloride concentration was 155,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 32,000 ppm; chloride concentrations ranged from a high of 178,000 ppm to a low of 120,000 ppm. Sodium concentrations in this section averaged 98,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 11,000 ppm, ranging from a high of 117,000 ppm to a low of 75,000 ppm. Calcium concentrations ranged between 880 ppm and 1,920 ppm in the north region. The average calcium concentration was 1,300 ppm, with a s.d. of 240 ppm. Magnesium concentrations varied greatly throughout the north section. The average magnesium concentration was 660 ppm, with a s.d. of 260 ppm. Magnesium concentrations ranged between 1,360 ppm and 190 ppm. Sulfate concentrations were found to vary throughout the north section. The aver-

age sulfate concentration was 2,500 ppm, with a s.d. of 1,450 ppm, ranging between 5,500 ppm and 1,100 ppm.

#### Winter Geographic Distribution of Ions

South Section

Gypsum was found in 10 of 15 sampling sites. The chloride concentrations were low in the region. Chloride concentrations ranged between a high of 154,000 ppm and a low of 56,000 ppm. The average chloride concentration was 123,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 26,000 ppm. Sodium concentrations were low in the south section. The average sodium concentration was 78,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 13,000 ppm. The high and low sodium concentrations were 98,000 ppm and 56,000 ppm, respectively. Calcium concentrations were high in the region. The average concentration was 1,430 ppm, with a s.d. of 390 ppm, ranging between 1,920 ppm and 320 ppm. Approximately 50% of the sampling sites yielded magnesium concentrations <490 ppm; the remainder had >530 ppm but <830 ppm. The average magnesium concentration was 520 ppm, with a s.d. of 200 ppm, ranging between 880 ppm and 140 ppm. Average sulfate concentration was 3,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 1,700 ppm, ranging between a high of 5,200 ppm and a low of 1,100 ppm.

#### Central Section

Gypsum was found in 2 of 12 sampling sites. Chloride concentrations were found to have a high variability in this section. The average chloride concentration was 146,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 45,000 ppm; chloride concentrations ranged between a high of 180,000 ppm and a low of 133,000 ppm. Sodium concentrations had a high variability in the section. The average sodium concentration was 92,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 29,000 ppm; sodium concentrations ranged between 116,000 ppm and 21,000 ppm. The average calcium concentration was 1,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 240 ppm. Calcium concentrations ranged between a high of 1,400 ppm and a low of 400 ppm. Magnesium concentrations were found to vary greatly throughout this region. The average magnesium concentration was 730 ppm, with a s.d. of 290 ppm, ranging between 1,200 ppm and 200 ppm. Sulfate concentrations varied moderately in the region. The average sulfate concentration was 1,800 ppm, with a s.d. of 870 ppm; sulfate concentration ranged between a high of 4,400 ppm and a low of 1,100 ppm.

#### North Section

Gypsum was found in 3 of 28 sampling sites. Chloride concentrations were high and varied moderately throughout the region. The average chloride concentration was 160,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 18,000 ppm, ranging between a high of 187,000 ppm and a low of 114,000 ppm. Sodium concentrations were moderately variable in the region. The average sodium concentration was 99,000 ppm, with a s.d. of 10,000 ppm, ranging between 116,000 ppm and 76,000 ppm. Calcium concentrations showed little variation in the section. The average calcium concentration was 1,230 ppm, with a s.d. of 240 ppm, ranging between a high of 1,840 ppm and a low of 800 ppm. Magnesium concentrations varied moderately in the region.

The average magnesium concentration was 790 ppm, with a s.d. of 280 ppm, ranging between 1,460 ppm and 490 ppm. Sulfate concentration varied substantially in the region. The average sulfate concentration was 2,300 ppm, with a s.d. of 1,060 ppm, ranging between a high of 5,050 ppm and a low of 1,400 ppm.

#### Discussion

#### Geographic Distribution

Statistical analyses of the ground-water-chemistry data base (Appendix) were conducted to determine whether the ground-water compositions of the three sections of the GSP differ significantly. To determine this, a test for significance was run on the means given in Table 2; the F-statistics were used to test for differences. The program used, "Statistical Analysis Systems" (SAS, 1986), was compiled on a NAS 9000 computer at lowa State University.

The regional climate of extremely high evaporation and very low precipitation favors gypsum precipitation, but seasonal effects on gypsum precipitation are uncertain. In order to gain a better understanding of these effects, summer, winter, and annual analyses were compared by area. A summary of the statistical analysis is given in Tables 2 and 3; the results are discussed in the following sections.

#### Summer

Calcium concentrations differ significantly in each area during the summer. No other significant difference in ion concentrations exists between the central and north areas. Between the south and central areas, no significant differences occur for sulfate, sodium, chloride, or magnesium. Significant summer differences also exist between the south and north areas in sodium, chloride, sulfate, and magnesium concentrations, in addition to calcium.

#### Winter

During the winter, differences in the ground-water chemistry between the south and other areas of the GSP are far more pronounced than during the summer. Significant differences in the ground-water chemistry for all variables except pH and temperature occur between the south and central areas. Differences occur in sodium, chloride, and magnesium between the south and the north. There were no differences in sulfate, pH, and temperature between the south and north. No differences exist between the north and central areas during the winter, except for pH.

During both summer and winter, the south section contained the lowest mean chloride, sodium, and magnesium concentrations and the highest mean calcium and sulfate concentrations in the GSP. Chemical differences between the south and other areas are more evident during winter than during summer. The effects of the seasons on gypsum precipitation are unclear. It seems that both summer and winter might be important in precipitation and potential growth of gypsum below the GSP because differences in ground-water chemistry, in particularly calcium, are maintained throughout the year among the three areas.

TABLE 2.—SUMMARY OF GROUND-WATER ANALYSES

Gr	ound-water che	mi	stry
(ion	concentrations	in	ppm)

Na	Ca	Mg	CI	SO <sub>4</sub>	рН	Temp. (°C)
83,631	1,469	520	131,579	3.665	6.55	31
27,257	297					1.0
			,	.,	0.23	1.0
<i>77</i> ,600	1,434	522	122,767	3.046	6.85	5
13,388	391	202				1.6
			,	,		
80,970	1,454	521	127,691	3,392	6.68	19
14,511	254	124	23,947	1,243	0.25	0.8
93.400	1.120	648	142 373	3 326	6 61	32
						1.3
	~	.55	31,303	1,505	0.50	1.3
91,846	1.034	728	145.538	1 842	7.01	4
•	•		•			2.0
•			,	3, <u>2</u>	0.15	2.0
92,679	1,080	685	143.842	2.588	6.79	19
23,266	<sup>°</sup> 3 <b>1</b> 4	151	36,096	1,211	0.40	1.2
98.678	1.296	656	155.053	2 509	6.50	32
						1.4
,	200	233	32,111	1,407	0.14	1.4
99.148	1.232	793	157 574	2 297	6 77	5
						1.8
-,		0	10,270	1,005	0.22	1.0
98,909	1,265	723	156,290	2 400	6.63	19
	188	243	14,492	1,042		0.9
	83,631 27,257 77,600 13,388 80,970 14,511 93,400 23,303 91,846 28,557	83,631 1,469 27,257 297 77,600 1,434 13,388 391 80,970 1,454 14,511 254 93,400 2,120 23,303 222 91,846 1,034 28,557 241 92,679 1,080 23,266 314 98,678 1,296 10,860 239 99,148 1,232 10,204 241 98,909 1,265	83,631 1,469 520 27,257 297 156  77,600 1,434 522 13,388 391 202  80,970 1,454 521 124  93,400 1,120 648 23,303 222 193  91,846 1,034 728 28,557 241 285  92,679 1,080 685 23,266 314 151  98,678 1,296 656 10,860 239 259  99,148 1,232 793 10,204 241 278  98,909 1,265 723	83,631 1,469 520 131,579 27,257 297 156 23,459 77,600 1,434 522 122,767 13,388 391 202 25,975 80,970 1,454 521 127,691 14,511 254 124 23,947 93,400 1,120 648 142,373 23,303 222 193 34,903 91,846 1,034 728 145,538 28,557 241 285 45,431 92,679 1,080 685 143,842 23,266 314 151 36,096 98,678 1,296 656 155,053 10,860 239 259 32,444 99,148 1,232 793 157,574 10,204 241 278 18,278 98,909 1,265 723 156,290	83,631 1,469 520 131,579 3,665 27,257 297 156 23,459 1,312 77,600 1,434 522 122,767 3,046 13,388 391 202 25,975 1,653 80,970 1,454 521 127,691 3,392 14,511 254 124 23,947 1,243 93,400 1,120 648 142,373 3,4903 1,565 91,846 1,034 728 145,538 1,842 28,557 241 285 45,431 872 92,679 1,080 685 143,842 2,588 23,266 314 151 36,096 1,211 98,678 1,296 656 155,053 2,509 10,860 239 259 32,444 1,467 99,148 1,232 793 157,574 2,297 10,204 241 278 18,278 1,065 98,909 1,265 723 156,290 2,400	83,631 1,469 520 131,579 3,665 6.55 27,257 297 156 23,459 1,312 0.23 77,600 1,434 522 122,767 3,046 6.85 13,388 391 202 25,975 1,653 0.38 80,970 1,454 521 127,691 3,392 6.68 14,511 254 124 23,947 1,243 0.25 93,400 1,120 648 142,373 3,326 6.61 23,303 222 193 34,903 1,565 0.30 91,846 1,034 728 145,538 1,842 7.01 28,557 241 285 45,431 872 0.43 92,679 1,080 685 143,842 2,588 6.79 23,266 314 151 36,096 1,211 0.40 98,678 1,296 656 155,053 2,509 6.50 10,860 239 259 32,444 1,467 0.14 99,148 1,232 793 157,574 2,297 6.77 10,204 241 278 18,278 1,065 0.22 98,909 1,265 723 156,290 2,400 6.63

#### Annual

Ground-water composition in the three areas varies between summer and winter. However, gypsum crystals persist during the entire year, so that averaging summer and winter seasonal data might yield more information about gypsum precipitation in a given section. Annual means found indicate that the south section ground-water chemistry is different from that of both the north and central sections in all aspects, except for pH and temperature. The central and north areas differ only in calcium, chloride, and pH. Ground waters in the south are low in chloride, sodium, and magnesium and high in calcium and sulfate. The north and central areas contain high concentrations of sodium, chloride, and magnesium in conjunction with low levels of calcium and sulfate.

TABLE 3.—CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SEASONS AND GROUND-WATER CHEMISTRY

			Ground	l-water cl	nemistry		·
Geographic areas	Na	Ca	Mg	Cl	SO <sub>4</sub>	рН	Temp. (°C)
Annual							
South-central	**	**	**	**	**		
South-north	**	**	**	**	**		
Central-north		**		**		**	
Summer							
South-central		**					
South-north	**	**	**	**	**		
Central-north		**					
Winter							
South-central	**	**	**	**	**		
South-north	**	**	**	**			
Central-north						**	

<sup>\*\*</sup>Comparisons significant using F-statistics at the 0.05 level; confidence = 0.95.

#### **Ground-Water Variability**

The composition of the near-surface ground water at the GSP varies laterally throughout the salt plains (Figures 5–7). Heterogeneity of the ground water suggests that the geohydrology of the GSP is far more complex than previously thought. Because little is known about the GSP, highly tentative hypotheses will be proposed with the understanding that these hypotheses are based almost entirely on the ground-water-composition data gathered in this study.

Surface waters on the GSP might have an effect on the near-surface ground-water chemistry. Dilute surface water may enter the GSP sediments by flooding from the adjacent reservoir, by runoff from small creeks flowing from the south or west onto the GSP, and by rainfall and snowfall on the GSP surface. Even minor increases in the water level of the reservoir may flood large areas of the salt plains because of the subdued topography and minor elevation differences between the flats and normal reservoir water levels. Small creeks flowing onto the GSP will certainly affect more localized areas than reservoir flooding, but significant amounts of dilute water may reach large areas of the plains during times of heavy rainfall and snow melt. Water derived from snow and rain on the GSP will cover the largest areas, and should result in the least-localized dilution of the subsurface brines compared to the other sources of dilute water.

The effects of dilute surface waters on the near-surface ground-water concentrations will be influenced both by GSP topography and by sediment character, since the sediments are the conduit into the subsurface. Topographic lows will be loca-

tions where dilute waters tend to accumulate, so that infiltration will be most likely if the sediments are permeable.

The sediments of the GSP are complexly varied, intertonguing, and discontinuous beds of clay, sand, and gravel with varying permeability and porosity (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1981). Because the ionic strength of the surface waters at the GSP is substantially lower than that of the ground water, the surface waters should mainly serve to dilute ground water. However, only at a single sampling site (#32) on the GSP was dilution by surface streams evident from the analytical data. Thus, surface waters at the GSP do not seem to be a major influence on ground-water composition in the area.

In addition to surface-water infiltration and sediment character, another factor that may be important in controlling lateral variations of ground-water composition is mineral precipitation, which acts as an ion sink. Gypsum precipitation will remove calcium and sulfate; calcite or aragonite precipitation will remove calcium and carbonate; iron sulfide will remove sulfate (although reducing conditions are necessary); and halite precipitation will remove sodium and chloride from the ground water. No mineral studies on the sediments were performed; thus, mineral precipitation from ground water cannot be evaluated, although it may be important.

Variations in ground-water composition in the GSP also might result from multiple ground-water sources with different chemical signatures. Many samples—especially in the south section, but also at other locations—exhibit an inverse relationship between calcium sulfate and sodium chloride concentrations. Jordan and Vosburg (1963) found from data obtained by drilling that subsurface evaporite sequences vary laterally in their relative proportions of gypsum and halite. Artesian subsystems flowing through strata with different relative amount of gypsum and halite might produce the observed ion-concentration differences in the GSP brines if these subsystems are not completely mixed and homogenized in the very shallow Great Salt Plains ground-water environment.

#### Gypsum Occurrence

Based on the seasonal averages, it appears that gypsum precipitation occurs primarily in the south section and only sporadically in the central and north sections of the GSP, because of higher calcium and sulfate concentrations in the south. Sodium and chloride ions may also have an important effect on gypsum precipitation on the salt plains. Higher concentrations of sodium chloride could either prevent or enhance gypsum growth because of its effect on calcium- and sulfate-ion activity coefficients. As sodium chloride concentrations increase at low ionic strength, calcium- and sulfate-ion activity coefficients become >1, so that gypsum solubility increases. However, at very large sodium chloride concentrations the activity coefficients should become >1, so that gypsum solubility will decrease. Fluctuations of sodium and chloride ions would obviously have an effect on gypsum by lowering and raising solubility of gypsum. Even though calcium and sulfate ions might remain relatively constant throughout the year, variation in sodium- and chloride-ion concentrations might influence gypsum formation.

It has been proposed (Naff, 1977) that gypsum precipitation in the GSP results from the interaction of sodium chloride brines (ground water) and calcium-sulfate-

rich surface waters. Our results do not support this hypothesis. The primary source of calcium and sulfate ions in West Clay Creek is probably the ground water, not dissolution of surface gypsum to the west as proposed by Naff (1977). Naff (1977) did not sample surface streams flowing on the GSP; he obtained water samples at sites near West Clay Creek and Cottonwood Creek. Our analysis of water from West Clay Creek during the summer shows that the stream water contained a chloride concentration of 182,000 ppm. Near-surface ground water sampled within 10 m of the stream had a chloride concentration of 162,000 ppm. Ion concentrations of calcium, magnesium, and sulfate also were similar to each other in both the stream and ground water. Because of the similarity in ion concentrations between the ground water and the stream, and because both waters are similar in overall character to other ground waters in the GSP, it appears that ground water flows into West Clay Creek, rather than the reverse. Halite crystals were growing on the floor of this stream, submerged under  $\sim$ 2 cm of stream-water brine for a distance of ~30 m upstream and downstream from the sampling site. The high ion concentrations are not believed to be from outside the GSP because halite crystal growth was localized and not found farther than 30 m upstream of the sampling site. If the high concentrations were from outside the GSP, halite crystals likely would have precipitated farther than 30 m upstream.

Halite crystals on the surface of the GSP are another possible source which may be contributing sodium and chloride ions to the streams. Halite crystals precipitated on the surfaces of salt plains frequently are windblown. Falling into a stream, a halite crystal dissolves, contributing sodium and chloride ions to the stream. It is unlikely that windblown halite contributes sufficient sodium and chloride ions to account for the high concentrations seen in West Clay Creek. Such a close similarity would not be expected between West Clay Creek waters and the general ground-water composition at the GSP if windblown halite was the primary source of sodium chloride in West Clay Creek. Also, an explanation of why only 60 m of the stream channel contains high enough levels of sodium and chloride for halite precipitation would be required. In addition, the low sodium and chloride concentrations of other local creeks seem to contradict a general windblown source of sodium chloride for the surface streams.

Cottonwood Creek was found to contain low concentrations of chloride, sodium, calcium, and magnesium but sulfate concentrations of 1,025 ppm and 1,525 ppm in summer and winter, respectively. The origin of elevated sulfate-ion concentrations in Cottonwood Creek is uncertain. Ground water 10 m south of Cottonwood Creek has sulfate concentrations that are 455 ppm and 3,275 ppm higher than that of the stream during both summer and winter, respectively; thus, significant contamination from ground water can be ruled out. The high sulfate concentration in Cottonwood Creek may result from dissolution of surface gypsum crystals located west of the GSP, but this hypothesis requires an explanation for low calcium in the stream. Low calcium could result from calcite precipitation in the stream. Although calcite precipitation was not evident through visual inspection of the stream sediment, it cannot be ruled out, because no detailed mineral analysis was performed on these sediments.

Contrary to Naff's (1977) hypothesis, in the few documented instances where surface streams have mixed with the ground water, the mixing does not result in the formation of selenite crystals in the shallow subsurface environment. Gypsum oc-

curs primarily in the southern area of the salt plains where no surface streams are present. The cause of the unusual gypsum habit is not yet clear, because the ion concentrations determined in this study are not particularly different from these in other areas of more common gypsum habits (Cody, 1988).

#### **Conclusion**

Before this study was undertaken, the consensus of those familiar with the GSP was that gypsum crystals occurred only in the south. This study confirms that gypsum precipitation is more abundant and widespread in the south section, but demonstrates that gypsum precipitation also occurs in the central and north sections of the GSP; the controlling factors seem to be higher calcium and sulfate concentrations in the south. Sodium- and chloride-ion concentrations might also have an important effect on gypsum precipitation. The explanation for the higher calcium and sulfate and lower sodium and chloride concentrations in the south is uncertain; the differences may be due to different ground-water sources for the three GSP areas. Streams flowing eastward onto the GSP do not seem to be important in gypsum precipitation, because these streams are not calcium- or sulfate-rich, as suggested by Naff (1977). Causes of the unusual GSP gypsum habit are not yet clear, because the ion concentrations in the area are not much different from those of areas where more-common gypsum habits occur (Cody, 1988).

## **Acknowledgments**

We thank Brian Gedlinski and David Hamilton for invaluable assistance in the field. The work benefited from comments of Drs. Robert Stewart, Charles Oulman, and Steven Richardson, Iowa State University. We especially thank Dr. David Bohlen, Department of Chemistry, Northwest Oklahoma State University, for kindly providing use of laboratory facilities during summer field work. M. Dale Streigle, Ken McFadden, John Knightly, Keith Kutz, Sheryl Howe, and Xiaoyun Cau, graduate students at Iowa State University, provided helpful comments and assistance at various stages of the study. We thank the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, and Rod Krey, Refuge Manager at the Salt Plains National Wildlife Refuge, for the opportunity to conduct the study and for the use of a field vehicle during the summer work.

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		APPEN	NDIX: GREAT SALT PLAINS BRINE ANALYSES	AT SALT PI	LAINS BE	SINE AN	ALYSES		
SAMPLE	TEMPERATURE (degrees C)	Ψď	ALKALINITY (ppm)	CHLORIDE (ppm)	SULFATE (ppm)	CALCIUM (ppm)	MAGNESIUM (ppm)	MUI GOS	GYPSUM (yes/no)
1-5	32	6.50	*	141 000	000 7	1 120	1 021	000	
1-⊾	m	7.25	*	137,000	1,790	800	1,021	90,000	<u> </u>
5-S	31	6.51	*	134,000	4 550	1.00	575	000,48	Ş Ş
3-8	32	6.50	*	178,000	1,400	360	ין אר האינו	117,000	2 9
3-M	7	6.72	*	162,000	1,280	1,280	22	000,80	2 2
S- <b>7</b>	33	6.32	*	174,000	1,350	1,040	977	106,000	2 2
M-5	7	6.73	*	143,000	2,600	1,120	875	000,50	2 9
2-S	33	6.45	*	165,000	1,400	1,040	923	105,000	2 2
N-S	•9	6.74	*	178,000	1,900	1,040	226	116,000	2
M-9	9	6.50	*	159,000	1,500	1,200	826	105,000	2 5
S-2	34	•	*	164,000	1,330	1,520	340	107,000	2 2
٧-٢	2	•	<b>6</b> 5	157,000	1,290	1,120	681	95,000	2 2
8-S	31	6.50	*	132,000	4,150	1,440	729	80,000	2 5
.∓ œ	~	6.25	9	115,000	3,900	1,440	826	77,000	9
s-6	27	6.40	*	Τ,	4,600	1,520	729	84,000	2
SF-S	<b>58</b>	8.60	*	200	437	152	82		2
SF-II	-	8.30	*	2,200	255	176	58	1.275	2 2
10-s	35	•	3		1,100	960	972	93,000	2
	<b>9</b>	6.53	#	172,000	2,030	880	1,439	106,000	2
11-S	20	6.50	9	145,000	1,290	1,360	389	88,000	2
<b>7</b> -	<b>-</b> ;-	•	•	157,000	1,900	1,200	681	95,000	9
12-S	35	•	*	165,000	1,550	1,520	340	105,000	2
M-21	'n	•	*	-	4,100	1,280	632	95,000	2
13-S	32	•	*	_	2,290	1,200	681	106,000	2
	M į	6.80	*	•	1,590	1,600	778	107,000	2
S-7L	32	6.50	*	•	1,320	1,040	826	112,000	2
M-51	so j	•	+	187,000	1,450	1,200	826	116,000	9
15-S	31	•	*		3,000	1,280	729	107,000	2
•	<b>,</b>	6.50	*	158,000	5,050	1,200	729	98,000	2
16-S	32	•	*	155,000	1,220	1,200	729	101,000	Q

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340 63 156 778 1,070	204 535 729 340	681 487 924 292 535 729	525 583 583 1,361 1,410 438	681 681 729 486 194 632	535 729 632 195 923
1,840 128 280 1,280 880 114	408 1,360 1,040 1,200 1,520	1,360 1,280 1,040 1,920 1,360	1,760 1,320 1,360 960 1,200	1,360 1,440 1,120 1,120 1,120 1,360	480 720 960 400 1,120
1,400 420 1,062 1,480 4,800 1,025	1,525 1,680 1,350 1,520 1,600	1,500 1,310 2,195 1,570 2,180 4,400	2,700 4,40 4,600 6,600	2,500 2,500 1,340 2,180 2,180	4,400 3,800 1,770 4,400
178,500 2,700 17,700 157,000 136,500	8,200 176,000 175,500 173,000 161,000	156,000 147,000 186,000 163,000 181,000	139,000 138,000 141,000 150,000	144,000 161,000 173,000 154,000 158,000	60,700 60,000 75,000 33,000
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6.55 8.33 6.80 6.80 8.68	8.03 6.40 6.85 6.95 6.95	2.08 6.51 6.50 7.06 6.50	6.50 6.82 6.60 6.71	5.60 5.60 5.60 5.83 5.83 5.83	7.54 7.54 7.50 7.56
79 - X - E	. o &	~ % w £ % £	. 3 4 % W E t	* W & W & W & W & W & W & W & W & W & W	31 1 25 - 33 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3
16-W SPR-S 17-W 17-W	18 t 19 5	20-E 21-S 22-S 22-E			31-8 31-8 32-8 33-8

			API	APPENDIX: Continued	Continue	P			
SAMPLE	TEMPERATURE (degrees C)	퓹	ALKALINITY (ppm)	CHLORIDE (ppm)	SUL FATE (ppm)	CALCIUM (ppm)	MAGNESIUM (ppm)	MUI dos	GYPSUM (ves/po)
33-W	7	22.9	*	157 000					
34-8	32		*	128,000	7, 180	021,1	1,118	100,000	2
34-W	7	•	*	182,000	1,4	1,120	632	86,000	오
35-8	. 12		*	12,000	7,080	1,360	389	115,000	2
35-4	, ^	•	: #		1,510	1,040	632	116,000	S.
3.92	, <u>F</u>		: <b>4</b>	000,741	0[,,	1,120	535	90,000	9
36.0	۲ ۳		r <b>4</b>	000,001	1,450	1,200	729	109,000	O <sub>N</sub>
27.0	. 24 24	•	* +	162,500	2,050	1,120	<b>48</b> 6	105,000	9
27.12	<u>-</u> -	0.5 5.5	<b>R</b> (	159,000	3,800	1,120	427		9
# 10 P	٠ <u>۲</u>	•	<b>k</b> 4	152,000	1,600	1,360	778		2
0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 -	ત્ર `	•	#	182,000	1,390	1,520	437	118,000	9
M-02	۲ ٥	ž0.,	ķ.	165,000	1,280	1,120	954	103,000	2
0 · 6 ·	آ ۾ آ	0.40	<b>t</b> r	124,000	4,500	1,040	089	81,000	<u> </u>
s-0+	3¢'	6.70	*	162,000	1,200	1,200	8	103,000	S E Y
-0+ -0+	ا د د	9.79	*	180,000	1,540	880	1.196	116,000	ν Ε
S : 0	25 '	00°,	*	181,700	1,400	1,168	841	118,000	ָ ב ב
•	,	7.51	<b>4</b>	73,900	2,700	529	321	47,000	2 5
		6.65	*	182,000	1,270	1,120	632	125,000	YES
•	<b>~</b> ;	07.	*	168,000	2,290	096	1,031	106,000	YES
2.C7	- °	9.70	<b>3</b> 4 +	156,000	2,500	1,360	535	98,000	9 2
3-27	7 2	0.0 2.0	k 4	167,000	1,150	1,040	632	102,000	O <sub>N</sub>
7.57	; ~	7.0	: 4	169, uuu	1,450	1,120	583	110,000	Ş
3-77	r £	, O	. 4	154,500	1,200	096	875	94,000	2
0-77	, ,	00.4	: 4	125,700	2,700	1,040	729	82,000	Ş
S-57	- 22			•	2,800	1,280	583	106,000	Q
	<u>ئ</u> ۾	9.5	k +	•	7,500	1,040	534	82,000	Q.
	າເ	37.7	× 4	000,121	7,600	1,280	<b>98</b> 7	82,000	Q
, ל	7	0.0	<b>k</b> 4	•	1,290	1,040	682	000,66	YES
77.0	ָרָ בָּ	3 ?	<b>×</b> 1	•	1,210	1,920	145	94,000	YES
- 1	<b>3</b> -	•	k ·	•	1,350	1,200	437	98,000	YES
	n	•	<b>f</b> t	154,000	1,550	1,520	340	91,000	YES

NO N
74,000 74,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 77,000 78,000
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Notes:

Hach Chemical analytical procedures used in this study had the following standard deviations: chloride 2,332 ppm; sulfate 8 ppm; calcium 27 ppm; magnesium 14 ppm.

a 1,000 ppm solution of potassium chloride was used when analyzing samples with the Perkins-Elmer Absorption Spectrophotometer. Abbreviations in sample identifications are as follows: S, summer; W, winter; WC, West Clay Creek; SF, Salt Fork of Arkansas River; CW, Cottonwood The detection limit on the Perkins-Elmer Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer was 2,100 ppm for sodium. To prevent ionization of sodium, Creek; SPR, Great Salt Plains Reservoir.

## NEW UNDERGROUND COAL MINE OPENS IN OKMULGEE COUNTY

## LeRoy A. Hemish<sup>1</sup>

The Oklahoma/West Virginia Mining Co. began producing coal from a new underground mine in Oklahoma about September 1, 1989. It is the only underground mine currently producing coal in the state. The mine is a slope mine, named Pollyanna No. 4, and is located in sec. 13, T. 12 N., R. 12 E., Okmulgee County, ~5 mi north of the city of Henryetta (Fig. 1).

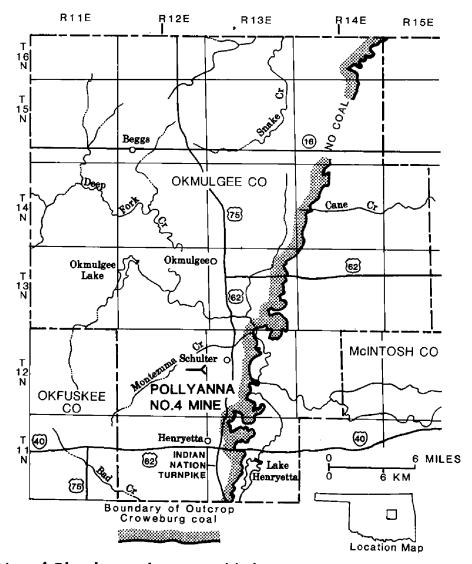


Figure 1. Map of Okmulgee and eastern Okfuskee County, showing the location of the Pollyanna No. 4 Mine and the outcrop boundary of the Croweburg coal. The inset map shows the location of the eastern Oklahoma coalfield and the positions of Okmulgee and eastern Okfuskee Counties.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Oklahoma Geological Survey.

The coal being mined is the Croweburg (Henryetta) bed, which averages  $\sim 38$  in. thick in the immediate area of mining. The bed dips gently to the west at  $\sim 1.5^{\circ}$ , which makes it particularly amenable to mining. The coal is underlain by  $\sim 6$  in. of underclay and overlain by several feet of competent, well-indurated, silty shale, which has a tested strength of  $6,000 \text{ lb/in.}^2$ . In places, a thin, coaly shale overlies the coal bed, which creates minor problems, owing to its tendency to fall after the coal has been removed. Another minor problem arises from water seepage through the underclay after it has been crushed by the heavy mining equipment. However, pumping quickly alleviates the problem, and mining is progressing normally. No methane gas has been encountered in the mine to date.

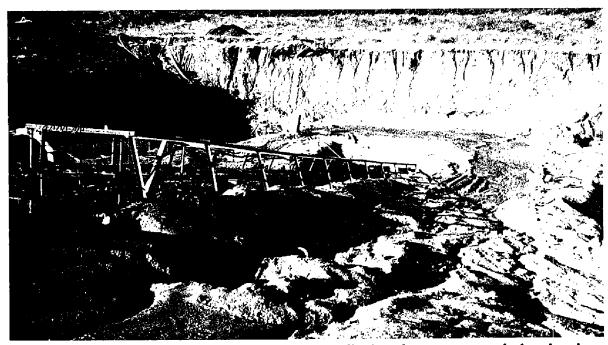


Figure 2. Highwall of the pit excavated prior to digging the entry tunnels for the slope mine. The conveyor system used to bring coal from the mine is shown emerging from the center entry.

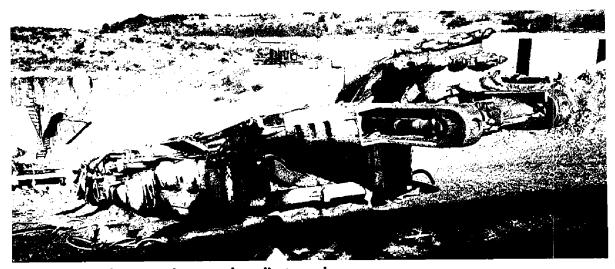


Figure 3. Continuous miner used to dig tunnels.

Before the mine came into production, a pit was dug through unconsolidated surficial material and weathered shale down to solid bedrock. The maximum depth at the highwall side of the pit is  $\sim 30$  ft (Fig. 2). Three 6.5-ft-high, 16-ft-wide entry tunnels were then dug, using a continuous miner (Fig. 3). The tunnels have a 25% slope and extend for  $\sim 920$  ft down to the coal bed. The coal was initially inter-



Figure 4. Diesel pickup entering the mine at the entry to the No. 1 tunnel.

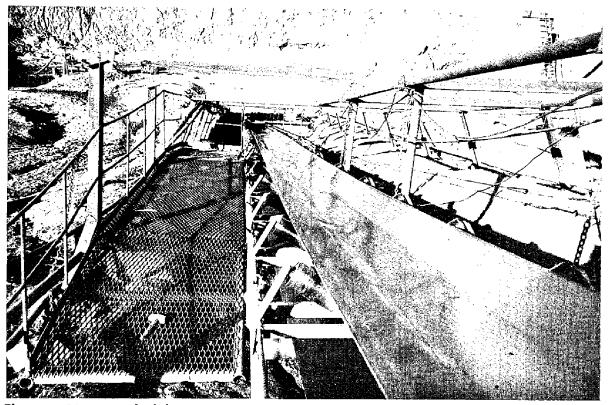


Figure 5. Upper end of the conveyor system used to transport coal from the working face underground.

sected at  $\sim$ 375 ft below surface. One entry tunnel serves as an intake for air for the circulation system; and it is also used to transport men and maintenance equipment into the mine via pickup (Fig. 4).

The center entry tunnel houses the conveyor system, and the third entry tunnel serves as an exhaust vent for the circulating air. Temperatures in the mine are variable, dependent to some degree on surface temperatures, but the average temperature is  $\sim 68^{\circ}$  F.

The room-and-pillar method of mining is used, and the working height at the face is governed by the thickness of the coal bed. Because the thickness of the coal is only  $\sim$ 3 ft, miners cannot work in an upright position. The coal is mined with a continuous miner, Model 14CM-4, and a continuous conveyor-belt system moves the coal to the surface (Figs. 2,5). The coal is washed at the mine mouth, using a flotation system (Fig. 6). During washing, many of the heavier impurities, such as pyrite and ash, are removed. The processed coal averages just below 2% sulfur, and it has a heat value of  $\sim$ 12,500 Btu/lb. The processed coal initially was hauled by truck to the power plant at Muskogee, Oklahoma, but in the future will be hauled to the new Applied Energy Services power plant at Shady Point, Oklahoma.

Thirty-five men are employed at the mine. Production from the mine averages  $\sim$ 25,000 tons/month. Reserves are plentiful, and coal is available for mining into the foreseeable future.

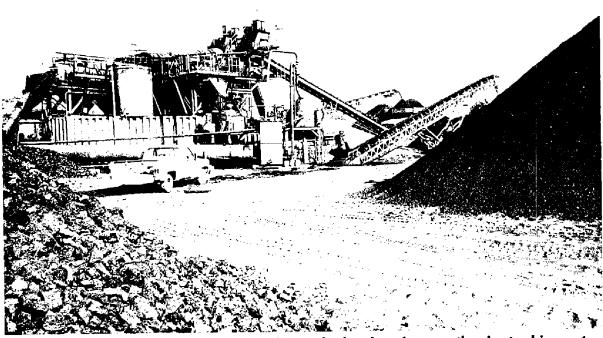


Figure 6. Preparation plant where the coal is washed at the mine mouth prior to shipment.

# GSA SOUTH-CENTRAL SECTION MEETING Stillwater, Oklahoma, March 4–6, 1990

Hosted by the School of Geology of Oklahoma State University, the 24th Annual Meeting of the GSA South-Central Section will be held jointly with the Midcontinent Section of the National Association of Geology Teachers, Pander Society, and South-Central Section of the Paleontological Society. The following meetings and field trips are planned.

### **Symposia**

Conodont Biofacies—Recent Advances

Tectonic Habitat and Structural Styles in the Midcontinent and Southern Oklahoma: Implications for Hydrocarbon Accumulations

Recent Advances in Middle Carboniferous Biostratigraphy, Paleontological Society Symposium

Petroleum Migration: From Organic Matter to the Reservoir

Applied Hydrogeology

Computer Applications in Geological Education, National Association of Geology Teachers Symposium

Southern Midcontinent-Texas Craton Transect, International Lithosphere Program

## **Field Trips**

Middle Carboniferous Lithofacies and Biostratigraphy of the Southern Ozarks Paleozoic Stratigraphy and Conodont Biostratigraphy of the Arbuckle Mountains, Oklahoma

For further information about the meeting, contact Scott M. Ritter, School of Geology, Oklahoma State University, 105 Noble Research Center, Stillwater, OK 74078-0451; (405) 744-6358. The pre-registration deadline is February 9.



## UPCOMING MEETINGS

American Association for the Advancement of Science, Annual Meeting, February 15–20, 1990, New Orleans, Louisiana. Information: AAAS Meetings Office, 1333 H St., N.W., Washington, DC 20005; (202) 326-6448.

Symposium on the Application of Geophysics to Engineering and Environmental Problems, March 12–15, 1990, Golden, Colorado. Information: SAGEEP '90, 133 S. Van Gordon, Suite 200, Lakewood, CO 80228; (303) 980-1648.

AAPG-SEPM-EMD, Annual Meeting, June 3–6, 1990, San Francisco, California. Information: Harry E. Cook III, U.S. Geological Survey, 345 Middlefield Road, MS 999, Menlo Park, CA 94025.

## NEW OGS PUBLICATIONS

SPECIAL PUBLICATION 89-2. Geology of the Southern Midcontinent, by Kenneth S. Johnson and others. 53 pages. Price: \$12.

SP89-2 is reprinted from one of the volumes prepared for the Decade of North American Geology (DNAG) Project that marks the Centennial of the Geological Society of America. Specifically, it is a reprint of chapter 12 in Sloss, L. L. (ed.), Sedimentary cover—North American craton; U.S.: Boulder, Colorado, Geological Society of America, The Geology of North America, v. D-2, p. 307–359.

The report discusses the regional geology of the southern Midcontinent, embracing all parts of Oklahoma except the Ouachita Mountains. Following a brief review of basement-rock geology for the region, each of the principal episodes of sedimentation and related epeirogenic movement from Cambrian through Mississippian time is discussed for the entire southern Midcontinent. This approach is practical inasmuch as pre-Pennsylvanian strata of the region are remarkably widespread and laterally persistent, reflecting the stability of this part of the craton and the importance of epeirogenic movements during early and middle Paleozoic time.

Pennsylvanian orogenic activity divided the region into a series of sharply uplifted crustal blocks and well-defined marine basins. Inasmuch as the geologic history during Pennsylvanian and Permian times was markedly different in the various tectonic provinces, discussion of this subject was dealt with basin-by-basin. And the final chapter discusses post-Permian rocks for the entire region, because their sedimentation was not influenced by the various tectonic provinces.

The report contains 34 text figures and two 4-color plates consisting of 25 maps (scale 1:5,000,000) showing geologic provinces, basement rocks, and thickness and dominant lithologies of sedimentary rocks in the southern Midcontinent.

Authors of the report are Kenneth S. Johnson (project coordinator and editor), Thomas W. Amsden, Rodger E. Denison, Shirley P. Dutton, Arthur G. Goldstein, Bailey Rascoe, Jr., Patrick K. Sutherland, and Diana Morton Thompson.

## GEOLOGIC MAP GM-28. Map of Oklahoma Oil and Gas

*Fields,* by Margaret R. Burchfield. 1 sheet, scale 1:500,000, with field supplement. Price: \$6.

The recently sold-out 1985 Map of Oklahoma Oil and Gas Fields has been reprinted, and a supplement was added to list the new fields, revised field locations, consolidated fields, and abandoned fields. The supplement, prepared by Michelle J. Summers, updates the data presented on the original map, which was prepared by Margaret R. Burchfield.

The map has been reprinted without change from the original version. It is a 63- by 40-in. colored map that delineates and gives the type of production for Oklahoma's 3,083 active fields and 35 abandoned fields, as of October 1, 1984. The supplement is an 18-page pamphlet that documents changes in delineation of new, old, and abandoned fields between October 1, 1984, and December 31, 1988.

Special Publication 89-2 and Geologic Map GM-28 can be obtained over the counter or postpaid from the Survey at 100 E. Boyd, Room N-131, Norman, OK 73109; phone (405) 325-3031.

# SOUTHERN MIDCONTINENT HYDROCARBONS WORKSHOP

Norman, Oklahoma, February 6-7, 1990

The Oklahoma Geological Survey is sponsoring a workshop on Source Rocks, Generation, and Migration of Hydrocarbons and Other Fluids in the Southern Midcontinent. The meeting will be held February 6–7, 1990, at the Oklahoma Center for Continuing Education (OCCE) of the University of Oklahoma in Norman.

The workshop will present current and ongoing research and studies dealing with the Woodford Shale, oil characterization, organic geochemistry, thermal maturation, and carbonates as source rocks.

Provisional titles and speakers are listed below:

## February 6

The Role of Source-Rock Studies in Petroleum Exploration, by William E. Harrison, Idaho National Engineering Laboratory, Idaho Falls, ID

Geologic Framework and Hydrocarbon Source Rocks in Oklahoma, by Kenneth S. Johnson and Brian J. Cardott, Oklahoma Geological Survey, Norman, OK Geology and Organic Geochemistry of the Woodford Shale in the Criner Hills and Western Arbuckle Mountains, by D. W. Kirkland, R. E. Denison, D. M. Summers, and J. R. Gormly, Mobil Research and Development Corp., Dallas, TX

- Organic Geochemistry, Diagenesis, and Depositional Setting of Upper Devonian Formations in Oklahoma and Western Arkansas, by John Comer, Indiana Geological Survey, Bloomington, IN
- Internal Stratigraphy and Biostratigraphy of the Chattanooga Shale in Kansas, by Michael W. Lambert, Kansas Geological Survey, Lawrence, KS; and Jed E. Day, Illinois State University, Normal, IL
- The Effects of Weathering and Maturity on the Geochemical Characteristics of the Woodford Shale, by R. P. Philp, J. Chen, A. Galvez-Sinibaldi, and H. Wang, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK
- Thermal Maturity of Atokan and Desmoinesian Strata in the Arkoma Basin, by Lori A. Hathon and David W. Houseknecht, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO
- Evidence for Expulsion of Hydrothermal Fluids and Hydrocarbons in the Midcontinent during the Pennsylvanian, by Raymond M. Coveney, Jr., University of Missouri, Kansas City, MO
- Diagenesis and Fluid Migration in Pennsylvanian Rocks of Southeastern Kansas, by Robert Goldstein, Anthony Walton, and Chris Wojcik, University of Kansas, Lawrence, KS
- Geochemistry of Oil-Field Waters and Associated Reservoir Rocks in the Morrowan Formation in Western Kansas, by Sam Chaudhuri and R. Robinson, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS; and N. Clauer, Centre de Sédimentologie et Géochimie de la Surface, Strasbourg, France

#### February 7

- The Source-Rock Potential of the Arbuckle Group: A New Approach to an Old Problem, by Stephen W. Brown, Core Labs, Houston, TX; Paul J. Swetland, Core Labs, Irving, TX; and Alan R. Daly, Chevron Overseas, San Ramon, CA
- Vitrinite Reflectance and Deep Arbuckle Maturation, Wilburton Field, Latimer County, Oklahoma, by Steven J. Hendrick, ARCO Oil and Gas Co., Midland, TX
- Organic-Rich Facies of Ordovician Viola Limestone and Bigfork Chert, Southern Oklahoma, by Robert L. Laury, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, TX; and Jackie D. Reed, ARCO Oil and Gas Co., Plano, TX
- Characterization of Oil Types Reservoired in the Arbuckle, Simpson, and Viola Groups, Southern Oklahoma Aulacogen, by David A. Wavrek, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, OK
- Panel Discussion: Can Carbonates be Source Rocks for Commerical Petroleum Deposits? Panelists are Lloyd E. Gatewood, Independent Geologist, Oklahoma City, OK; William E. Harrison, Idaho National Engineering Laboratory, Idaho Falls, ID; James G. Palacas, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO; and Jack A. Williams, Amoco Production Co. Retiree, Tulsa, OK
- Hydrocarbon-Induced Diagenetic Aureoles in Southwestern and Southern Oklahoma, by Zuhair Al-Shaieb, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK; Janet L. Cairns, Amoco Production Co., Tulsa, OK; and Anthony R. Lilburn, Union Oil of California, Oklahoma City, OK
- Geochemistry of Pennsylvanian Oils and Hydrocarbon Source Rocks, Greater Anadarko Basin, Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas, by Robert C. Burruss and Joseph R. Hatch, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO

- Oil in Permian Karst, Slick Hills, Southern Oklahoma, by R. Nowell Donovan, Texas Christian University, Fort Worth, TX
- Deep Pressure Compartments and Seals in the Anadarko Basin, by Zuhair Al-Shaieb, Vanessa Tigert, James O. Puckette, and Rick Ely, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK
- The Relationships between Primary and Secondary Liptinite Fluorescence and Hydrocarbon Generation and Migration in the Permian Basin, by Charles R. Landis, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX

#### Poster Session, February 6

- Numerical Simulation of Light Hydrocarbon Diffusion from Petroleum Reservoirs, by Ken Wohletz, Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM
- Structural Controls on Sediment Distribution and Thermal Maturation of the Woodford Shale, Anadarko Basin, Oklahoma, by Timothy C. Hester, James W. Schmoker, and Howard L. Sahl, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO
- New Organic Geochemical Data of the Bertha Rogers No. 1 as Related to Hydrocarbon Generation in the Anadarko Basin, by Leigh Price, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO
- Thermal Maturation of the Eastern Anadarko Basin, Oklahoma, by Mark Pawlewicz, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO
- A Reexamination of the Geochemical Characteristics of Solid Bitumens from the Ouachita Mountains, by T. Ruble and R. P. Philp, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK
- Laminated Black Shale-Chert Cyclicity in the Woodford Formation, Southern Oklahoma, by Charles T. Roberts, ARCO Oil and Gas Co., Plano, TX; and Richard M. Mitterer, U.S. Department of Energy, Washington, D.C.
- Investigation of the Pyrolysis Process from Pyrolyzing the Woodford Shale and the Excello Shale, by Longjiang Wang, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, OK
- Source-Rock Maturity and Geochemistry, Cherokee Group, Southeast Kansas, by Charles Barker, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO; Robert Goldstein and Anthony Walton, University of Kansas, Lawrence, KS
- Hydrodynamics of Deep Basin Flow: Constraints on Timing of Midcontinent MVT Deposits, by Lori H. Filipek, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO
- Rock Heterogeneity and Geostatistical Methods in Reservoirs and Source Rocks, by Ahmad Junaid Sultan and John P. Heller, New Mexico Petroleum Recovery Research Center, Socorro, NM
- Paleomagnetic Dating of Basinal Fluid Migration and Hydrocarbon Maturation in the Arbuckle Mountains, Oklahoma, by David J. Fruit, Donald S. Bagley, Douglas R. Elmore, M. H. Engel, David London, and K. Cates, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK
- Geochemical Fluid Inclusion and Petrographic Evidence for Regional Late-Diagenetic Alteration of Upper Cambrian Carbonates by Basinal Fluids, Southern Missouri, by J. M. Gregg, University of Missouri, Rolla, MO; Kevin L. Shelton and Rita M. Bauer, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

Advance registration (prior to January 15) is \$50, which includes two lunches and a copy of the proceedings. On-site registration will be \$60 per person. Lodging will be available on the OU campus or at local motels.

Contact Kenneth S. Johnson or Brian J. Cardott, General Co-Chairs, Oklahoma Geological Survey, University of Oklahoma, 100 E. Boyd, Room N-131, Norman, OK 73019, phone (405) 325-3031, for registration forms and/or more information.

# Major Geohydrologic Units in and Adjacent to the Ozark Plateaus Province, Missouri, Arkansas, Kansas, and Oklahoma; Basement Confining Unit

A brief description of the major structural features of the basement confining unit is presented with a map of the altitude of the top of the unit. J. L. Lines prepared this hydrologic investigations atlas at a scale of 1:750,000 (1 in. =  $\sim$ 12 mi). Latitude 34°30′ to 40°, longitude 89° to 96°. The sheet measures 35  $\times$  40 in. Although, regionally, the geohydrologic unit is confining, fracture systems in the basement confining unit in a small area within the St. Francois Mountains can yield water sufficient for domestic water supplies. Wells can yield up to 70 gal/min, but they seldom yield >10 gal/min.

Order HA 0711-B from: U.S. Geological Survey, Map Distribution, Federal Center, Box 25286, Denver, CO 80225. The price is \$2.40. (A \$1 postage and handling charge is applicable on orders of less than \$10.)

### Review of the Geology of the Southern Oklahoma Fold Belt Province as a Basis for Estimates of Undiscovered Hydrocarbon Resources

This 21-page USGS open-file report was written by M. E. Henry.

Order OF 87-0450-W from: U.S. Geological Survey, Books and Open-File Reports, Federal Center, Box 25425, Denver, CO 80225. The price is \$4 for microfiche and \$3.25 for a paper copy; add 25% to the price for shipment outside North America.

#### Bibliography of Oklahoma Hydrology—Reports Prepared by the U.S. Geological Survey and Principal Cooperating Agencies, 1901—88

Of the nearly 350 reports issued by the USGS from 1901 through 1988, about 200 have been concerned primarily with ground water; the remainder have dealt with some aspect of surface water, water quality, or geology. In addition to reports issued by the USGS, this open-file report lists selected journal articles and reports issued by the principal state cooperators, the Oklahoma Water Resources Board, and the Oklahoma Geological Survey. Compiled by John S. Havens, this 59-page bibliography first lists reports by publishing agency, then by type of report, and, last, by author and date of publication.

Order OF 89-33 from: U.S. Geological Survey, Water Resources Division, 215 Dean A. McGee Ave., Room 621, Oklahoma City, OK 73102; phone (405) 231-4256. A limited number of copies are available free of charge.

### OKLAHOMA ABSTRACTS

The Oklahoma Geological Survey thanks the American Association of Petroleum Geologists, the Geological Society of America, and the authors for permission to reprint the following abstracts of interest to Oklahoma geologists.

### Horizontal Grooves in Granite, Western Wichita Mountains, Oklahoma, U.S.A.

J. A. HARRELL, University of Toledo, Toledo, OH; and C. R. TWIDALE, Adelaide, SA

Horizontal grooves developed at the bases of granitic hills, blocks and boulders in the western Wichita Mountains, Oklahoma, have been ascribed by earlier workers to wave erosion in Permian times. In these terms they were buried by Permian marine sediments and then exhumed. Evidence and argument are adduced to suggest that the grooves were developed by groundwater weathering at the contact between granitic and sedimentary rocks, and that they are congeners of the flared slope and other forms of basal steepening described from other parts of the world.

Subsurface moisture attack in the vadose zone opposite water-bearing sandstone and conglomerate beds, and also perhaps at the level of the water table are responsible for the formation of the grooves. A middle to late Pleistocene, or Holocene age for the grooves is likely.

Reprinted as published in Zeitschrift für Geomorphologie, v. 33, no. 2, p. 165.

### Red Fork Sandstone of Oklahoma: Depositional History and Reservoir Distribution

JOHN W. SHELTON, ERICO Companies, Tulsa, OK; RICHARD D. FRITZ and CHRIS JOHNSON, MASERA Corp., Tulsa, OK

The Middle Pennsylvanian Red Fork sandstone formed as a result of progradation across eastern Kansas and most of Oklahoma. The Red Fork is one of several transgressive-regressive sequences (cyclothems) developed within the Desmoinesian "Cherokee" Group. Sea level changes, together with varying subsidence, were dominant factors controlling the general stratigraphic (correlative) characteristics of the Red Fork interval. Progradation was episodic, with sand deposition in the more active part of the basin during lower sea level stands and valley-fill deposition in the more stable areas during sea level rises.

A map of Red Fork sand trends reveals an alluvial-deltaic complex covering most of Oklahoma. The Red Fork consists primarily of alluvial-valley and plain (fluvial) bodies in the northernmost part of northeastern Oklahoma, alluvial-deltaic bodies

in most of the remaining parts of the shelf area, and off-shelf submarine-fan and slope basinal-floor complexes within the deeper part of the Anadarko basin.

Determination of reservoir trend and genesis requires integration of rock and log data. Logs need to be calibrated to cores in order to estimate depositional environments accurately and to make a reasonable assessment of diagenetic overprints.

Much of the oil and gas has been trapped in stratigraphic traps, and a significant amount of oil is in channel sandstones with trends at high angles to the structural grain. In some areas, secondary clay, in particular chloritic clay, has resulted in microporosity, high water saturation, and correspondingly low resistivities in oil reserves.

Reprinted as published in the American Association of Petroleum Geologist Bulletin, v. 73, p. 412.

## Thermal Maturation by Vitrinite Reflectance of Woodford Shale, Arbuckle Mountains, Oklahoma

BRIAN J. CARDOTT, Oklahoma Geological Survey, Norman, OK; WILLIAM J. METCALF III, Shell Offshore Inc., New Orleans, LA; and JUDSON L. AHERN, School of Geology and Geophysics, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK

Vitrinite reflectance was measured on 40 grab samples from outcrops of the Woodford Shale (Upper Devonian–Lower Mississippian) collected near the Washita Valley fault in the Arbuckle Mountains in south-central Oklahoma. Samples are widely distributed along 40 km. Sample localities range from 60 m to 7.63 km from the Washita Valley fault. Well-indurated shale samples were collected from below the outcrop surface to reduce the effect of weathering on vitrinite reflectance. Vitrinite reflectance values were measured from standard kerogen concentrate pellets.

Mean random (plane-polarized light, stationary stage) reflectance values from low-gray vitrinite are 0.35-0.77% R<sub>o</sub> with a weighted average of 0.54% R<sub>o</sub> based on 14 to 98 measurements per sample with an average of 46. Weathering effects on vitrinite (e.g., oxidation rim) were not observed during petrographic examination, suggesting relatively unweathered samples.

Variation in vitrinite reflectance values is attributed to geologic history (e.g., tectonics), organic variables (e.g., geochemical gelification or vitrinitization of huminite; bitumen and/or liptinite maceral impregnation of vitrinite maceral), and analytical error (e.g., kerogen concentration process; number of measurements).

Implications of the data specific to the Arbuckle Mountains include the Woodford Shale is immature to marginally mature with respect to the generation of liquid hydrocarbons; high heat flow associated with the rifting stage of the southern Oklahoma aulacogen was diminished by Late Devonian; the Woodford Shale was never deeply buried; and frictional heating from the Washita Valley fault did not affect the temperature field significantly.

Reprinted as published in the American Association of Petroleum Geologists Bulletin, v. 73, p. 1150.

Glacial-Eustatic Sea-Level Curve for Early Late Pennsylvanian Sequence in North-Central Texas and Biostratigraphic Correlation with Curve for Midcontinent North America

DARWIN R. BOARDMAN II, Dept. of Geosciences, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX 79409; and PHILIP H. HECKEL, Dept. of Geology, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA 52242

At least 30 transgressive-regressive cycles of deposition are recognized from the upper Desmoinesian East Mountain Shale to the mid-Virgilian Wayland Shale in north-central Texas. Maximum regressive deposits are typically paleosol mudstones and fluvial sandstones; maximum transgressive deposits are typically widespread, ammonoid-bearing, conodont-rich, dark phosphatic shales in more major cycles, and persistent fossiliferous shales or limestones overlying terrestrial deposits in more minor cycles. Delta complexes dominate the regressive sequences of many cycles.

Using biostratigraphic criteria of first, last, sole, or acme occurrence of ammonoid, conodont, and fusulinid taxa, we correlate 17 cycles in the Texas sequence directly with 17 glacial-eustatic cycles of similar magnitude in the northern midcontinent. This correlation suggests that glacial eustacy was the basic control over the cyclic sequence in Texas, that tectonic masking of the eustatic signal by nearby orogenic movement in Texas was negligible, and that delta shifting, though conspicuous, was only a secondary control over the cyclicity there. Minor cycles recognized between the correlated cycles also match well enough between Texas and the midcontinent to further discount potential tectonic or deltaic masking of glacial-eustatic cyclicity. This strengthens the likelihood of correlating glacial-eustatic events across larger parts of North America, and perhaps with other parts of the world.

Reprinted as published in Geology, v. 17, p. 802.

# Determination of Offset across the Northern Margin of the Wichita Uplift, Southwest Oklahoma

DAVID A. McCONNELL, Dept. of Geology, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506

The Wichita uplift represents a tectonic element within the Ancestral Rocky Mountains, a series of basement-involved uplifts and associated basins within the foreland of the Ouachita orogen. Contrasting tectonic models for the evolution of the Wichita uplift are evaluated by (i) analyzing the suite of structures within the Frontal fault zone, which separates the uplift from the adjoining Anadarko basin, and (ii) undertaking a palinspastic restoration of Hunton Group (Late Ordovician—Devonian) thickness trends between the basin and the Frontal fault zone to estimate the magnitude and sense of offset across the principal uplift-bounding faults.

Cross sections from uplift to basin show basment-involved thrusts and folds similar to those recognized within the Laramide (Late Cretaceous—Tertiary) foreland of the Rocky Mountains. Structural patterns in map view possess elements that have been previously interpreted as resulting from reverse slip and/or left slip on the uplift-bounding faults.

Palinspastic restoration of isopach patterns between the Frontal fault zone and Anadarko basin indicates that offset across the frontal faults may be explained by oblique slip (left reverse slip) on the uplift-bounding faults. The component of left slip is nearly an order of magnitude less than proposed in some previous models of Carboniferous tectonism within the foreland of the Ouachita orogen.

Reprinted as published in the Geological Society of America Bulletin, v. 101, p. 1317.

### Clay Mineralogy and Diagenetic Evolution of Deeply Buried Rocks of the Simpson Group (Middle Ordovician), Anadarko Basin, Oklahoma

RICHARD M. POLLASTRO, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO 80225

The mineral composition and petrography of sandstones, shales, and carbonates were determined from 120 core samples of the Middle Ordovician Simpson Group recovered from present depths of 15,900 to 17,200 ft. Although the bulk-rock mineral composition of these rocks is quite diverse, clay minerals are restricted to illite and chlorite due to deep burial conditions.

The main clay mineral in the Simpson Group at these depths is illite, though iron-rich chlorite is sometimes concentrated locally in sandstones. Illite, defined as both a discrete 10-angstrom phase and an apparent "mixed-layer" illite/smectite (R3) from X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) profiles, is of both detrital and diagenetic origin; it typically makes up >90 relative weight percent (wt%) of the clay minerals in sandstone and >95 wt% of those in shale and carbonate. SEM shows that much of the diagenetic illite occurs as tabular fibers in pores or as pseudomorphic intergrowths after smectite. Thin section microscopy also shows that much of the illite appears as sericite. Textural relationships also suggest that the conversion of smectite to illite at depth contributed, in part, to the formation of dolomite and ankerite cements. Much of the dolomite is found replacing detrital clay.

Iron-rich chlorite typically makes up <10 wt% of the clay minerals; however, chlorite sometimes composes >80 wt% of the clay minerals in sandstones. Most chlorite is authigenic and occurs as a pore-lining cement and as a pseudomorphic replacement after kaolinite. Such an assemblage is consistent with burial conditions wherein temperatures exceeded 150°C.

Shales are clay rich and quartz poor, averaging about 85 wt% clay minerals, 7 wt% quartz, and 3 wt% feldspar, as determined by XRD; carbonate minerals and pyrite are present in variable amounts. Such high clay/quartz ratios are not characteristic of shales and suggest that significant quantities of silica have been expelled by diagenetic processes during deep burial.

Reprinted as published in the Clay Minerals Society 25th Annual Meeting Program and Abstracts, p. 54.

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The generally accepted explanation for the origin of the grooves was popularized by Evans (1929), who suggested that they were "wave-cut notches" of Permian age that are now in the process of exhumation from beneath the Hennessey Formation. This interpretation has recently been challenged by Harrell and Twidale (in press), who demonstrate that the grooves are a subsurface weathering phenomenon of Quaternary age. They formed in the vadose zone where chemically active waters caused accelerated disintegration of granite opposite high-permeability layers in the well-stratified, flat-lying Hennessey sediments. The original slope of the granite surfaces determined whether the grooves developed as narrow benches or concavities.

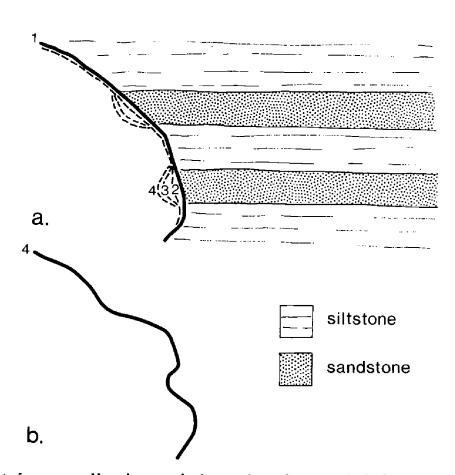
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James A. Harrell University of Toledo



Development of grooves and benches on a sloping granite surface opposite high-permeability strata.