

A Transgressive Depositional Setting for the Paleogene Shahejie Formation in the Qikou Depression, Eastern China: Inferences from the REE Geochemistry of Carbonates

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ABSTRACT: Rare earth element (REE) and Y concentrations, and $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios were analyzed in 33 carbonate samples from the Paleogene Shahejie Formation in the Qikou depression, eastern China, with the goal of determining depositional environments and post-depositional conditions of carbonates in the region. The REE and Y concentrations were normalized to the post-Archean Australian shale (PAAS) standard. The $\text{La}^*_{\text{PAAS}}/\text{Yb}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.35–1.52, where $^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ indicates values for the PAAS standard, show light REE enrichment and heavy REE depletion in most samples. Values of $\text{La}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ (0.775–1.284) and $\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ (0.822–1.224), coupled with a relatively flat REE distribution, indicate that the Shahejie carbonates were deposited in lacustrine environments. Values of Y anomalies (1.009–1.527) and Y/Ho ratios (28.43–45.00) in the Shahejie Formation are greater than those of lacustrine carbonates and closer to those of marine carbonates, indicating that diagenetic fluids were probably influenced by seawater. In the carbonates from Well Kou-42, Eu anomalies (1.171–1.604), $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (0.708 001–0.710 893), and high homogenization temperatures (104–151 °C) suggest that the carbonates were affected by hydrothermal fluids. The REEs and Sr isotope ratios show that the carbonates from the Shahejie Formation in the Qikou depression were deposited in lacustrine environments, and were influenced by seawater and hydrothermal fluids.

KEY WORDS: Paleogene, carbonate, REE, Qikou depression.

0 INTRODUCTION

Carbonate rock formations are important reservoirs of oil and gas, and the origins of diagenetic fluids and depositional environments of carbonates are topics of active research (Li et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2013; Ge et al., 2010; Bolhar and Van Kranendonk, 2007; Drummond et al., 1995; Curtis et al., 1986). Carbonates are precipitated from oceanic, continental, and marginal-basin waters, and when precipitated at thermodynamic equilibrium, they can serve as proxies for the geochemical records of elements and isotopes in the basin waters from which they originate. Rare earth element (REE) concentrations in chemical sediments have provided useful information on depositional environments of carbonates and the fluids from which these rocks originate (Frimmel, 2009; Wright et al., 1987). It is well known that geochemical signatures of REEs are powerful indicators of chemical processes occurring

in carbonate depositional environments (Haley et al., 2004), as the distribution of REEs is sensitive to water depth, salinity, and oxygen levels (Frimmel, 2009).

The distributions of REEs in carbonates are the result of interactions between diagenetic fluids and the carbonate substrate (Han et al., 2009). The REE patterns and anomalies with respect to Ce, Eu, and Y have been used to distinguish between oceanic, continental, and hydrothermal sediments. Reliably preserved REE signatures in ancient sedimentary provide clues to the evolution of paleoenvironmental conditions (Frimmel, 2009; Bolhar and Van Kranendonk, 2007; Li et al., 2007; Brenchley et al., 2003). While strontium isotope stratigraphy has been predominantly used for correlation and dating of marine sediments (McArthur, 1994; Veizer et al., 1989; Elderfield, 1986), strontium isotope signatures can also be used to distinguish between marine and freshwater environments (Schmitz et al., 1991) and to identify reworking in sediments (MacLeod and Huber, 1996).

The possibility of a Paleogene transgression in the Bohaiwan Basin, which has been discussed for more than 20 years, is still an unresolved issue. Evidence for transgression includes markers such as glauconite, apatite, sponge, calcareous nannofossils, ostracods, gastropods, marine trace fossils, and particular stable isotope, trace element, and organic signatures (Wu

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and Ren, 2004; Ren et al., 2000; Li et al., 1997; Yao et al., 1992; Li and Xiao, 1988; Zhao and Liu, 1988; Zhang and Wang, 1987; Chen et al., 1982; Yu, 1982). However, the geochemical evidence, which only reflects water salinities under certain conditions, is not useful for distinguishing between marine and freshwater environments (Yao et al., 1992). Moreover, no marine connection has been discovered (Tong, 1985), and the minerals and fossils in the Bohaiwan Basin show characteristics of circular distribution, which is indicative of a lake environment rather than a marine environment (Sun et al., 1997). The question remains as to whether the Shahejie carbonates present atypical characteristics of marine deposition. In this study, REE characteristics, strontium isotopes, and associated petrological characteristics of carbonates from two wells in the Shahejie carbonates in the Qikou depression were analyzed to investigate the possibility of a Paleogene transgression and to quantify the post-depositional processes affecting the carbonates.

1 GEOLOGICAL SETTING AND STRATIGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

The Huanghua depression, located in the central area of the Bohaiwan Basin, China, is a pull-apart structure within the North China Craton. The Huanghua depression is bounded by the Cangdong uplift in the west and the Bozhong depression in the east; the depression, which presently extends in an

ENE-WSW direction, represents a region of extensive crustal stretching in the Bohaiwan area. The largest negative structural unit in the Huanghua depression is the Qikou depression. The Qikou depression, with a total area of 3 800 km² and a terrestrial area of 1 100 km², is located in the central northern area of the Huanghua depression, and is the largest hydrocarbon source area in the Huanghua depression (Fig. 1). Within the context of the geological history of the Huanghua depression, the sedimentary evolution of the Qikou depression can be divided into four stages: (1) initial fault-controlled depression, (2) rapid rifting, (3) stable rifting, and (4) fault-controlled down-warping.

Most basement faults in the Qikou depression are normal faults that formed after the Indo-Chinese Epoch (257–205 Ma). According to structural associations, the basement faults can be classified into primary and secondary faults. Primary faults include the Yangerzhuang Fault and the Cangdong Fault, which played important roles in the development of the Huanghua depression and controlled the spatiotemporal distributions of sedimentary units. Secondary faults, which comprise the Gangdong, Nandagang, Yangbei, Koucun and Zhaobei faults, controlled the formation of oil and gas reservoirs (Fig. 1).

The Paleogene sedimentary sequence in the Qikou depression is of the order of 10⁴ m thick, and comprises, from the base upwards, the Kongdian Formation, Shahejie Formation, and

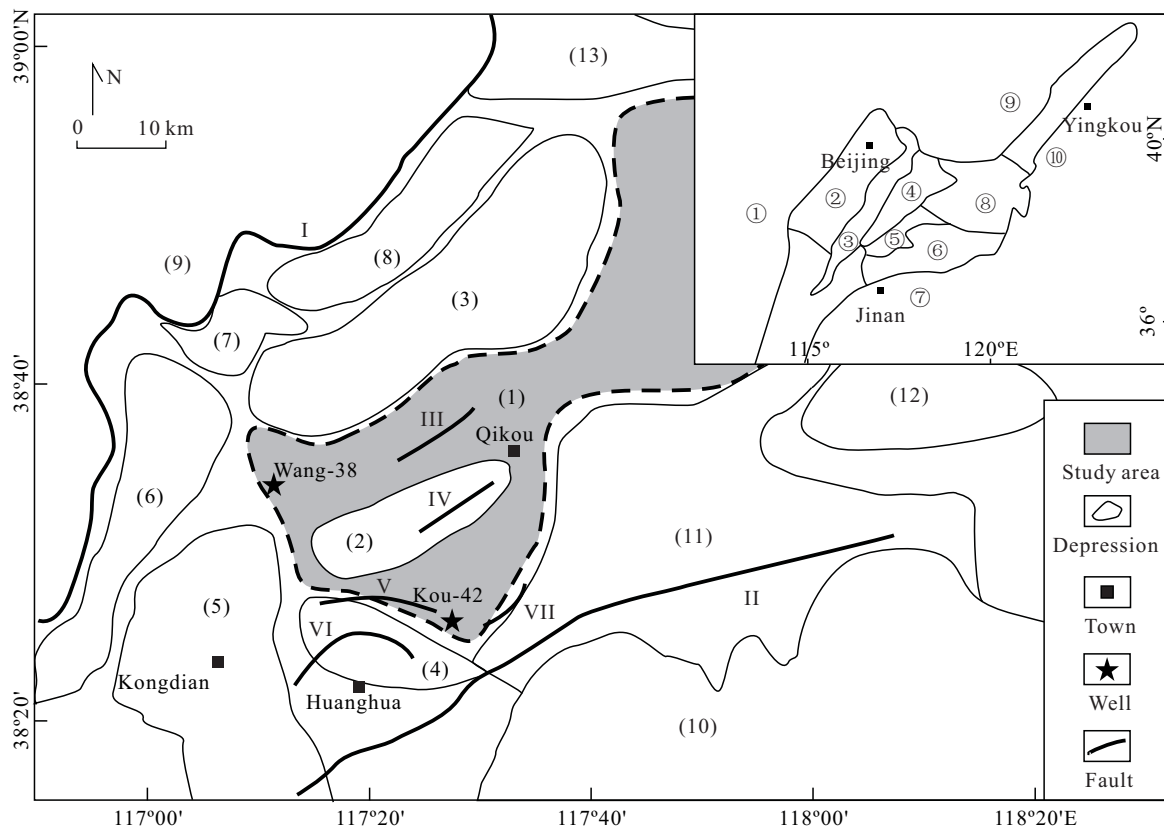


Figure 1. Well location in the Qikou depression, modified after Pu et al. (2011). (1) Qikou depression, (2) Nandagang buried hill, (3) Beidagang buried hill, (4) Yangsanmu uplift, (5) Kongdian uplift, (6) Cangdong depression, (7) Shengqingzhuang buried hill, (8) Banqiao depression, (9) Cangxian uplift, (10) Chengning uplift, (11) Chengbei fault step, (12) Shan'an depression, (13) Tangguxingang buried hill; ① Taihangshan uplift, ② Jizhong depression, ③ Cangxian uplift, ④ Huanghua depression, ⑤ Chengning uplift, ⑥ Jiyang depression, ⑦ Luxi uplift, ⑧ Bozhong depression, ⑨ Shanhaiguan uplift, ⑩ Jiaoliao uplift; I. Cangdong fault, II. Yangerzhuang fault, III. Gangdong fault, IV. Nandagang fault, V. Yangbei fault, VI. Koucun fault, VII. Zhaobei fault.

Dongying Formation. The Shahejie Formation is further divided (from the base upwards) into Shahejie III (E_{s3}), Shahejie II (E_{s2}), and Shahejie I (E_{s1}). The E_{s3} is composed of conglomerate, sandstone, pelitic siltstone, mudstone, and oil shale. The E_{s2} is composed mainly of argillaceous, pebbly sandstone, mudstone, and dolostone. The E_{s1} consists of mudstone, shale, bioclastic limestone, and dolostone (Li et al., 1991).

2 SAMPLES AND ANALYTICAL METHODS

Thirty-three samples were collected from wells Kou-42 and Wang-38 (Fig. 2). Calcite spar was removed from the samples

under a microscope using a dental drill. The carbonate surface was lightly etched with dilute 10% HCl to enable calcite to be distinguished from dolomite. Several grams of samples were pulverized to less than 200 mesh sizes for analysis. The present measurement is focused on the E_{s1} – E_{s2} transition that spans the Eocene and Oligocene, results are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Major element and REE compositions were determined using an ME-MS82 inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) housed at the Australian Laboratory Services (ALS) Laboratory, Guangzhou, China (an ISO/IEC 17025: 2005 accredited facility). Analytical results obtained for

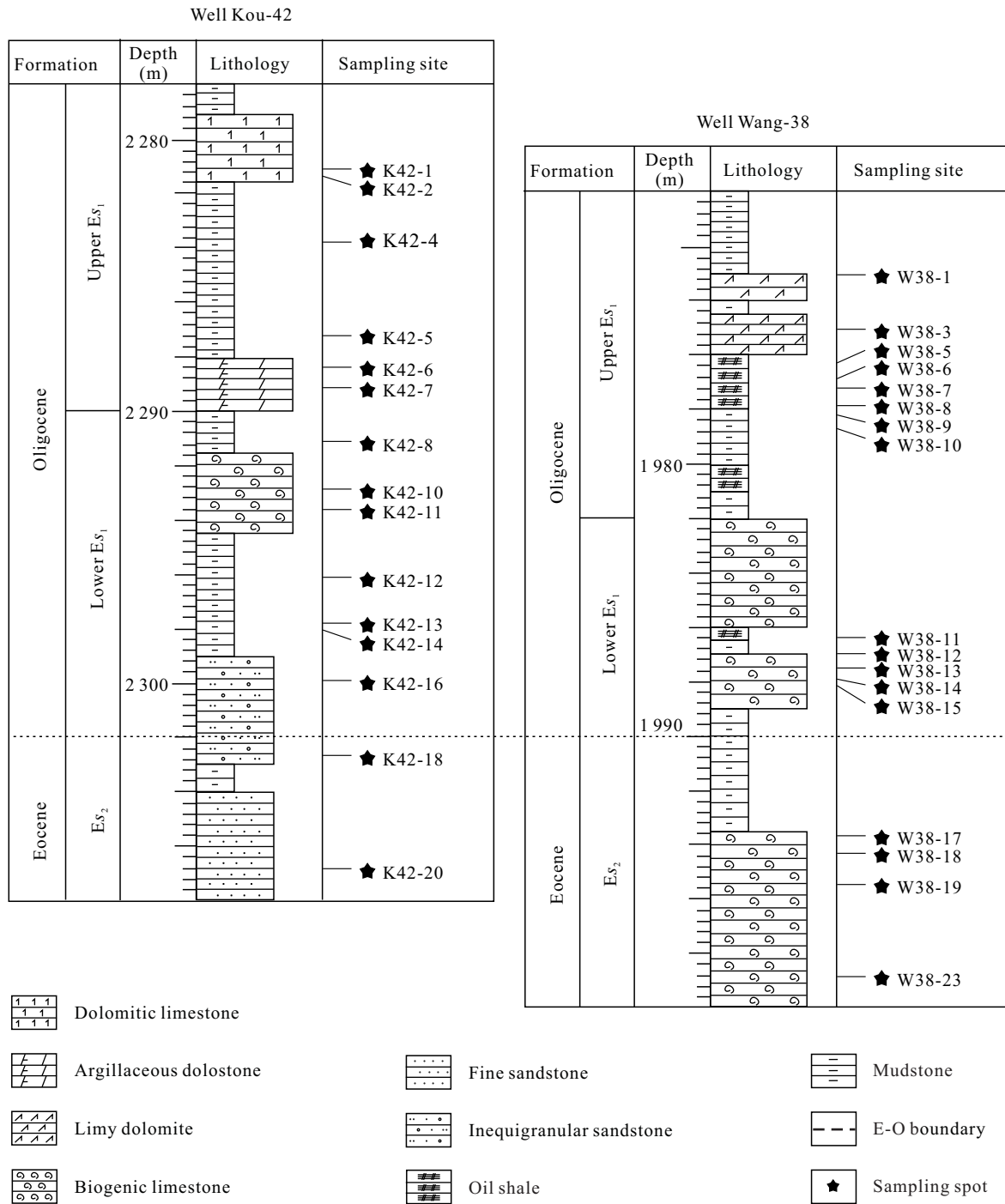


Figure 2. Stratigraphic sequences and locations of samples in wells Kou-42 and Wang-38.

Table 1 Continued

Sample No.	Depth (m)	Lithology	Formation	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Y	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
w38-14	1 987.90	Bioclast limestone	Lower	1.100	2.700	0.340	1.400	0.310	0.110	0.330	0.040	0.330	2.700	0.060	0.220	0.030	0.230	0.020
w38-15	1 988.09	Bioclast limestone	Es ₁	9.000	19.100	2.400	8.700	1.520	0.350	1.380	0.190	1.180	7.200	0.220	0.710	0.100	0.720	0.080
Average				6.200	13.260	1.656	6.260	1.212	0.338	1.156	0.166	1.046	6.980	0.202	0.636	0.086	0.604	0.074
w38-17	1 993.68	Limestone		18.200	37.700	4.790	17.800	3.430	0.840	3.280	0.490	2.850	16.800	0.590	1.720	0.240	1.620	0.220
w38-18	1 994.30	Bioclast limestone	Es ₂	16.000	33.700	4.270	16.200	3.270	0.780	3.140	0.480	2.800	17.000	0.560	1.620	0.230	1.510	0.200
w38-19	1 995.51	Bioclast limestone		15.100	32.300	4.210	15.600	3.190	0.740	2.990	0.460	2.710	16.200	0.550	1.590	0.230	1.510	0.210
w38-23	1 998.85	Dolomite		19.300	39.600	5.070	18.500	3.440	0.730	2.970	0.460	2.580	14.500	0.510	1.480	0.210	1.370	0.200
Average				17.150	35.825	4.585	17.025	3.333	0.773	3.095	0.473	2.735	16.125	0.553	1.603	0.228	1.503	0.208
Green River Formation				0.318	0.780	0.088	0.343	0.071	0.017	0.069	0.011	0.068	0.430	0.015	0.042	0.042	0.042	0.006

GSR-12 (dolostone) and GSR-13 (limestone) standards indicate that the precision for REE determinations was better than 5%.

Strontium separation was performed using a 50- μ L column and Sr-specific resin (Eichrom Technologies). Isotopic analysis of a solution containing 300 ng Sr was performed using a Nu multi-collector-inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) housed at the State Key Laboratory of Geological Processes and Mineral Resources, China University of Geosciences, Wuhan, China. Reagents and column blanks contained <10 ng Sr. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data were normalized to the NBS-987 standard ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}=0.710\ 24$); we obtained a mean $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of $0.710\ 20\pm 0.000\ 05$ (mean $\pm 2\sigma$; $n=50$) for repeated measurements of the standard.

Determinations of the temperatures of homogenous of fluid inclusions were performed at the Geologic Experiment Center, College of Earth Sciences, Jilin University, Changchun, China. Thirteen double-polished 1-cm² carbonate wafers were selected for microthermometric determinations, which were performed on a Linkam THMS-600 heating-freezing stage calibrated to the triple point of distilled water (0.0 °C) and pure CO₂-bearing fluid inclusions (-56.6 °C). The accuracy of the measurements was approximately ± 0.2 °C for both freezing and heating runs, results are showed in Table 3.

3 ANALYTICAL RESULTS

The REE and Y data for all carbonates are presented in shale-normalized diagrams (Figs. 3a, 3b), using the post-Archean Australian shale (PAAS) standard (Taylor and McLennan, 1985) for normalization. Equations used to calculate elemental anomalies are: $\text{La}/\text{La}^*_{\text{PAAS}}=\text{La}_{\text{PAAS}}/(3\text{Pr}_{\text{PAAS}}-2\text{Nd}_{\text{PAAS}})$, $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}=\text{Ce}_{\text{PAAS}}/(2\text{Pr}_{\text{PAAS}}-\text{Nd}_{\text{PAAS}})$, $\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*_{\text{PAAS}}=\text{Eu}_{\text{PAAS}}/(0.67\text{Sm}_{\text{PAAS}}+0.33\text{Tb}_{\text{PAAS}})$, $\text{Gd}/\text{Gd}^*_{\text{PAAS}}=\text{Gd}_{\text{PAAS}}/(2\text{Tb}_{\text{PAAS}}-\text{Dy}_{\text{PAAS}})$, and $\text{Y}/\text{Y}^*_{\text{PAAS}}=2\text{Y}_{\text{PAAS}}/(\text{Dy}_{\text{PAAS}}+\text{Ho}_{\text{PAAS}})$, where $^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ represents values for the PAAS standard.

3.1 Well Kou-42

Carbonates of Es₂ have low initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.708 979–0.709 191; they show flat REE+Y patterns, $(\text{La}/\text{Yb})_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.94–1.23, and are characterized by: (1) minor negative Ce anomalies, with $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.983–0.997; (2) positive Eu and Y anomalies, with $\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 1.195–1.206 and $\text{Y}/\text{Y}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 1.089–1.107; (3) variable Gd anomalies, with $\text{Gd}/\text{Gd}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.973–1.101; and (4) Y/Ho ratios of 29.38–30.00 (Tables 1, 2).

Carbonates of the lower Es₁ have low initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.708 001–0.710 359. Most samples are enriched in light REEs (LREEs) relative to heavy REEs (HREEs), with $\text{La}/\text{Yb}_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 1.02–1.67. The REE+Y patterns of lower Es₁ carbonates are characterized by: (1) variable Ce and Gd anomalies, with $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.983–1.224 and $\text{Gd}/\text{Gd}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.907–1.091; (2) positive La, Eu, and Y anomalies, with $\text{La}/\text{La}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 1.021–1.284, $\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 1.228 2–1.604, and $\text{Y}/\text{Y}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 1.088–1.239; and (3) Y/Ho ratios of 31.00–34.17 (Tables 1, 2).

Residues have high initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.710 072–0.710 893. The REE+Y patterns are flat, with $(\text{La}/\text{Yb})_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.87–1.41. The residues are characterized by: (1) variable Gd anomalies, with $\text{Gd}/\text{Gd}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.901–1.064; (2) positive

Table 2 The geochemical features of carbonates from the Shahejie Formation, Qikou depression

Sample No.	Depth (m)	Lithology	Formation	REE (ppm)	La/La*	Ce/Ce*	Gd/Gd*	Eu/Eu*	Y/Y*	La/Yb	Dy/Sm	La/Sm	Y/Ho	⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr	±2σ
k42-1	2 281.09	Dolomierite		32.77	1.136	1.156	1.064	1.445	1.237	0.97	1.02	0.95	33	0.708 053	5
k42-2	2 281.40	Dolomierite		63.41	1.201	1.178	0.955	1.313	1.120	0.87	1.21	1.10	30	0.710 893	4
k42-4	2 285.74	Argillaceous dolostone	Upper	121.08	1.172	1.054	0.963	1.171	1.068	1.41	0.89	1.04	30	0.710 283	4
k42-5	2 287.25	Dolomierite	Es ₁	141.16	1.163	1.057	0.954	1.177	1.077	1.12	0.94	0.96	30	0.710 095	4
k42-6	2 288.24	Dolomierite		39.03	1.179	1.157	0.934	1.371	1.095	1.22	0.92	0.97	31	0.710 072	5
k42-7	2 289.15	Dolomierite		39.96	1.286	1.227	0.901	1.330	1.081	1.25	0.93	1.02	30	0.710 496	4
Average					1.206	1.224	0.927	1.269	1.089	1.04	0.98	0.94	30	0.710 359	
k42-8	2 291.07	Dolomierite		72.28	1.206	1.224	0.927	1.269	1.089	1.04	0.98	0.94	30	0.710 359	4
k42-10	2 292.88	Dolomierite		77.87	1.284	1.204	0.907	1.274	1.163	0.83	1.09	0.96	31	0.709 773	4
k42-11	2 293.62	Dolomierite		22.94	1.261	1.135	1.069	1.471	1.241	1.15	1.00	1.05	34	0.710 195	3
k42-12	2 296.07	Argillaceous dolostone	Lower	110.52	1.060	1.131	1.003	1.228	1.150	1.09	0.91	0.92	31	0.710 07	5
k42-13	2 297.79	Bioclast limestone	Es ₁	27.22	1.110	1.028	0.970	1.524	1.147	1.02	1.00	0.82	32	0.709 507	4
k42-14	2 298.02	Bioclast limestone		54.09	1.021	0.988	1.029	1.480	1.106	1.38	0.79	0.92	31	0.709 429	4
k42-15	2 299.88	Bioclast limestone		71.14	1.081	0.983	1.031	1.279	1.171	1.29	0.83	1.23	31	0.709 046	4
k42-16	2 301.50	Bioclast limestone		29.67	1.165	1.053	1.091	1.604	1.095	1.67	0.68	1.11	31	0.708 001	5
Average					1.149	1.093	1.003	1.391	1.145	1.18	0.91	0.99	32	0.709 548	
k42-18	2 302.64	Bioclast limestone		102.90	1.069	0.997	1.001	1.206	1.090	1.23	0.81	1.03	29	0.708 979	5
k42-20	2 306.79	Bioclast limestone	Es ₂	56.24	0.998	0.983	0.973	1.195	1.107	0.94	1.07	1.02	30	0.709 191	4
Average					1.034	0.990	0.987	1.200	1.099	1.09	0.94	1.03	30	0.709 085	
w38-1	1 972.99	Argillaceous dolostone		207.34	1.052	1.041	1.100	1.094	1.072	1.32	0.75	1.02	30	0.710 383	5
w38-3	1 974.94	Dolomierite		128.04	1.032	1.150	1.036	1.145	1.075	1.18	0.91	1.04	30	0.710 724	5
w38-5	1 976.30	Dolomierite		66.70	1.044	1.118	1.065	1.173	1.176	0.81	1.12	0.86	32	0.710 377	6
w38-6	1 976.60	Dolomierite	Upper	69.41	1.187	1.203	0.986	1.247	1.188	0.87	1.07	0.91	32	0.710 337	7
w38-7	1 977.19	Argillaceous dolostone	Es ₁	154.70	1.119	1.076	1.080	1.119	1.095	1.37	0.85	1.00	31	0.710 638	5
w38-8	1 977.90	Dolomierite		142.90	1.100	1.066	1.073	1.147	1.125	1.48	0.87	1.10	31	0.710 265	4
w38-9	1 978.21	Dolomierite		180.82	1.049	1.012	1.080	1.111	1.027	1.47	0.82	1.14	29	0.710 415	3
w38-10	1 978.70	Dolomierite		125.69	0.792	0.775	1.082	1.135	1.010	1.26	0.82	0.81	29	0.710 523	6
Average					1.047	1.055	1.063	1.146	1.096	1.25	0.90	0.98	30	0.710 458	
w38-11	1 986.45	Bioclast limestone	Lower	19.51	0.856	0.859	1.234	2.592	1.338	0.53	1.25	0.67	38	0.710 282	5
w38-12	1 986.95	Bioclast limestone	Es ₁	59.60	0.876	0.916	1.091	1.203	1.174	0.82	1.00	0.72	33	0.710 348	4

Table 2 Continued

Sample No.	Depth (m)	Lithology	Formation	REE (ppm)	La/La*	Ce/Ce*	Gd/Gd*	Eu/Eu*	Y/Y*	La/Yb	Dy/Sm	La/Sm	Y/Ho	⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr	±2σ
w38-13	1 987.50	Bioclast limestone	Lower	32.50	0.855	0.855	1.240	1.289	1.176	0.80	0.99	0.74	34	0.710 585	3
w38-14	1 987.90	Bioclast limestone		7.22	0.875	0.950	2.156	1.870	1.527	0.35	1.26	0.52	45	0.710 5	4
w38-15	1 988.09	Bioclast limestone	Es ₁	45.65	0.780	0.836	1.240	1.225	1.126	0.92	0.92	0.86	33	0.710 498	6
Average					0.848	0.883	1.392	1.636	1.268	0.68	1.08	0.70	36	0.710 443	
w38-17	1 993.68	Limestone		93.77	0.825	0.846	1.071	1.248	1.034	0.83	0.99	0.77	28	0.710 348	4
w38-18	1 994.30	Bioclast limestone	Es ₂	84.76	0.846	0.865	1.050	1.205	1.083	0.78	1.02	0.71	30	0.710 259	4
w38-19	1 995.51	Bioclast limestone		81.39	0.775	0.822	1.053	1.179	1.059	0.74	1.01	0.69	29	0.710 285	5
w38-23	1 998.85	Dolomierite		96.42	0.801	0.826	1.000	1.106	1.009	1.04	0.89	0.82	28	0.710 542	4
Average				89.085	0.812	0.840	1.043	1.184	1.046	0.85	0.97	0.75	29	0.710 359	
Green River Formation					0.862	0.998	1.066	1.187	1.075				29		

La/Yb, Dy/Sm, La/Sm, La/La*, Ce/Ce*, Gd/Gd*, Eu/Eu* and Y/Y* ratios are calculated by the PAAS-normalization.

La, Ce, Eu, and Y anomalies, with La/La*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.136–1.286, Ce/Ce*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.054–1.227, Eu/Eu*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.171–1.445, and Y/Y*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.067–1.236; and (3) Y/Ho ratios of 29.50–33.16 (Tables 1, 2).

3.2 Well Wang-38

Carbonates of Es₂ have high initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios of 0.710 259–0.710 542, consistently flat REE+Y patterns, and (La/Yb)_{PAAS} ratios of 0.78–1.04. The Es₂ carbonates are characterized by: (1) negative La and Ce anomalies, with La/La*_{PAAS} ratios of 0.775–0.846 and Ce/Ce*_{PAAS} ratios of 0.822–0.865; (2) positive Gd, Eu, and Y anomalies, with Gd/Gd*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.000–1.071, Eu/Eu*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.106–1.248, and Y/Y*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.148–1.233; and (3) Y/Ho ratios of 28.43–30.36 (Tables 1, 2).

Carbonates of lower Es₁ have high initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios of 0.710 348–0.710 585 and are enriched in HREEs, with La/Yb_{PAAS} ratios of 0.35–0.92. The lower Es₁ carbonates are characterized by: (1) negative La and Ce anomalies, with La/La*_{PAAS} ratios of 0.780–0.876 and Ce/Ce*_{PAAS} ratios of 0.836–0.950; (2) positive Gd, Eu, and Y anomalies, with Gd/Gd*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.091–2.156, Eu/Eu*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.203–2.592, and Y/Y*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.285–1.745; and (3) Y/Ho ratios of 32.73–34.21 (Tables 1, 2).

Residues have high initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios of 0.710 383–0.710 727 and show flat REE+Y patterns, with (La/Yb)_{PAAS} ratios of 0.81–1.52. They are characterized by: (1) variable La, Ce, and Gd anomalies, with La/La*_{PAAS} ratios of 0.792–1.187, Ce/Ce*_{PAAS} ratios of 0.775–1.203, and Gd/Gd*_{PAAS} ratios of 0.986–1.082; (2) positive Eu and Y anomalies, with Eu/Eu*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.094–1.247 and Y/Y*_{PAAS} ratios of 1.009–1.187; and (3) Y/Ho ratios of 28.71–30.55 (Tables 1, 2).

4 DISCUSSION

4.1 Non-Carbonate Contamination and Primitive REE Compositions

Carbonate REE+Y concentrations can be influenced by contamination of non-carbonate materials, such as silicates, Fe-Mn oxides, phosphates, and sulfides during chemical leaching. Thus, the REE+Y concentrations of sedimentary carbonates can only be reliably used to infer ancient water chemistry and the characteristics of depositional environments if complications related to contamination can be ruled out. In our study, we took several approaches to minimize non-carbonate contamination, including: (1) collection of individual samples at fresh outcrops to avoid contamination by materials associated with shale beds; (2) use of samples that consist mainly of microcrystalline calcite and dolomite, and which show no evidence of recrystallization or metamorphism when viewed under the microscope; and (3) after crushing, careful handpicking of only the material that was free of non-carbonates.

During their formation, carbonates incorporate Sr isotope compositions (Stille et al., 1996, 1994; Stille, 1992; Grandjean et al., 1987; Shaw and Wasserburg, 1985) and REE patterns similar to those of the diagenetic fluids in which they precipitated (Sholkovitz and Shen, 1995; Grandjean et al., 1987; Wright et al., 1987; Palmer and Elderfield, 1986). The REE patterns may be subsequently altered by post-depositional

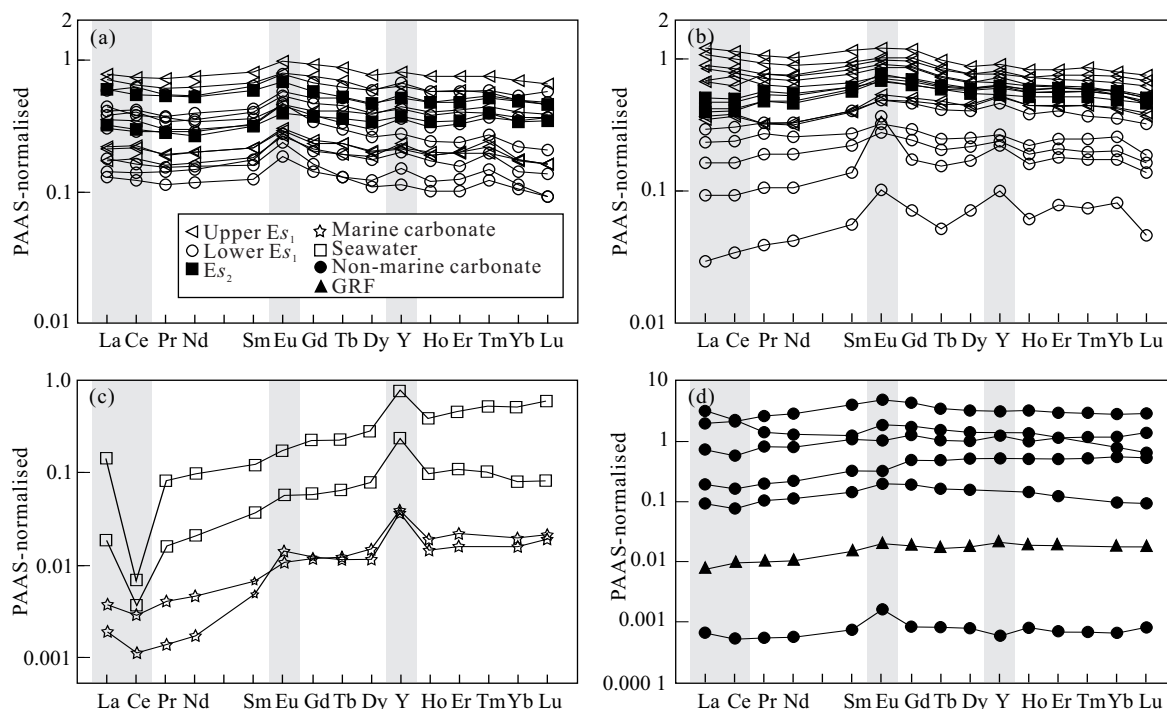


Figure 3. Plots of PAAS-normalized REE and Y concentrations of carbonates from the Shahejie Formation, Qikou depression. Data sources: Bolhar and Van Kranendonk (2007); Alibo and Nozaki (2004); Van Kranendonk et al. (2003); Webb and Kamber (2000); Zhang and Nozaki (1996).

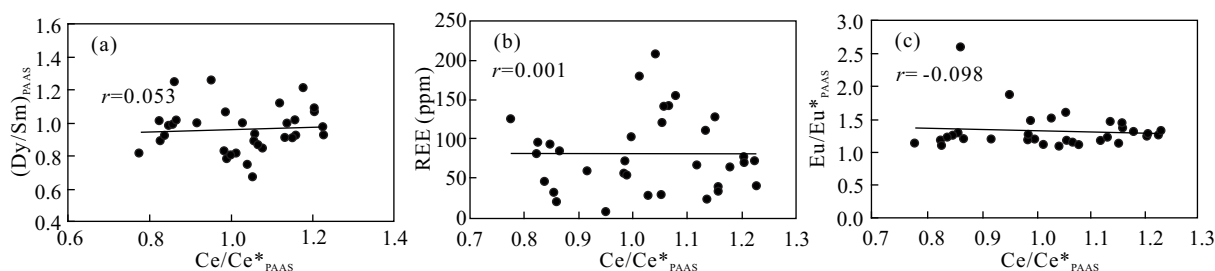


Figure 4. Correlations between Ce/Ce^*_{PAAS} ratios and Dy_{PAAS}/Sm_{PAAS} ratios (a), Ce/Ce^*_{PAAS} and Eu/Eu^*_{PAAS} (b), and Ce/Ce^*_{PAAS} and $w(REE)$ (c) of carbonates from the Shahejie Formation, Qikou depression.

Table 3 Homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions from carbonates in wells Kou-42 and Wang-38

Sample No.	Depth (m)	Lithology	Formation	Homogenization temperatures (°C)
k42-13	2 297.79	Bioclast limestone	Lower Es ₁	104, 108, 118, 124
k42-14	2 298.02	Bioclast limestone	Lower Es ₁	119, 124, 131, 137, 138
k42-15	2 299.88	Bioclast limestone	Lower Es ₁	119, 123, 125, 125, 128
k42-16	2 301.50	Bioclast limestone	Lower Es ₁	136, 140, 142, 145, 146, 148, 151
k42-17	2 306.79	Bioclast limestone	Lower Es ₁	132, 138, 138, 145, 146
k42-18	2 302.64	Bioclast limestone	Es ₂	124, 127, 131, 136, 138
w38-12	1 986.95	Bioclast limestone	Lower Es ₁	83, 85, 94, 95, 100
w38-13	1 987.50	Bioclast limestone	Lower Es ₁	98, 109, 118, 113, 123
w38-14	1 987.90	Bioclast limestone	Lower Es ₁	94, 96, 101, 101, 103
w38-16	1 993.19	Bioclast limestone	Es ₂	99, 101, 101, 109, 112
w38-17	1 993.68	Limestone	Es ₂	96, 98, 106, 118, 125
w38-19	1 995.51	Bioclast limestone	Es ₂	90, 96, 98, 101
w38-22	1 997.93	Bioclast dolostone	Es ₂	86, 89, 93, 101

diagenetic exchange (German and Elderfield, 1990) and surface weathering processes (Bonnot-Courtois and Flicoteaux, 1989; McArthur and Walsh, 1984). However, the concentrations of REEs in most geological fluids are low, reaching levels of 0.01 ppm only in hydrothermal fluids (McLennan, 1989). Therefore, the characteristics of the REE compositions in the original rock are generally well preserved.

A study by Shields and Stille (2001) showed a strong negative correlation between the $(\text{Dy}/\text{Sm})_{\text{PAAS}}$ and $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of basal Cambrian phosphorites in South China, which implies that Ce values have been significantly affected by medium REE (MREE) enrichment. The positive correlation between $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios and REE concentrations indicates that this Ce alteration was the result of progressive post-depositional REE scavenging. The strong negative correlation between $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ and $\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios further confirms that diagenetic processes have altered the $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of most samples. In the present study, we observed no correlation between $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ and $(\text{Dy}/\text{Sm})_{\text{PAAS}}$, $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ and $\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$, or $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ and REE (Fig. 4), which indicates that the carbonates in the study area were not altered during diagenesis.

4.2 Implications For Sedimentary Environment

Small but systematic differences in the chemical properties of REE+Y components provide important insights into processes and sources of REEs in the hydrosphere and lithosphere (Hofmann and Bolhar, 2007; Bolhar et al., 2004, 2002; Shields and Webb, 2004; Van Kranendonk et al., 2003; Webb and Kamber, 2000; Bau and Möller, 1993). In contrast to REE+Y patterns in the vast majority of geological samples, the dissolved REEs+Y in oceanic, estuarine, and river waters do not display smooth abundance patterns as a function of ionic radius when normalized to PAAS; instead, significant abundance peaks are usually present for elements such as La, Ce, Eu, and Gd (Bolhar et al., 2004; Kamber et al., 2004; Van Kranendonk et al., 2003; Kamber and Webb, 2001; Webb and Kamber, 2000). Water La, Ce, Eu, Gd, and Y anomalies, as well as REE+Y patterns, reflect various complexation phenomena that are unique to the hydrosphere (Bolhar and Van Kranendonk, 2007). Hence, reliable uncontaminated intact proxies for different water chemistries can be recognized on the basis of REE+Y characteristics.

4.2.1 Lacustrine depositional environment

The REE distributions in seawater and marine carbonates are primarily controlled by the balance between marine hydrothermal and terrestrial weathering inputs, as modified by scavenging in estuarine and deep marine environments (Elderfield, 1986). Generally, normal marine carbonates in oxygenated seawater are characterized by: (1) uniform LREE depletion, (2) positive La anomalies, (3) positive Gd anomalies, and (4) negative Ce anomalies (Bolhar et al., 2004; Shields and Webb, 2004; Van Kranendonk et al., 2003; Webb and Kamber, 2000) (Fig. 3c). The REE+Y compositions of a lacustrine stromatolite from the Phanerozoic Green River Formation are presented in Table 1 for comparison. The Green River Formation is conspicuous in having a virtually flat REE+Y pattern and no anomalous elemental concentrations (Fig. 3d). The difference between the

REE distributions of marine and lacustrine carbonates can be used to distinguish depositional paleoenvironments.

Positive La anomalies in chemical sedimentary rocks, calculated from PAAS-normalized REE+Y abundances, can be considered as reliable indicators of water chemistry (Kamber et al., 2004; Shields and Webb, 2004; Kamber and Webb, 2001; Bau, 1996). The La anomaly of freshwater (the average $\text{La}/\text{La}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratio is 2.62, depending on pH) is small in comparison with that of seawater (Lawrence et al., 2006). Carbonates of the Shahejie Formation have variable La anomalies, with $\text{La}/\text{La}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.775 to 1.286 (Table 2); these ratios are lower than the average value of 2.62 for marine carbonates (Shields and Webb, 2004; Van Kranendonk et al., 2003; Webb and Kamber, 2000), but are similar to those of Green River Formation carbonates that were deposited in lacustrine settings (Bolhar et al., 2004).

The anomalous abundance spike of Ce can be explained by the redox behavior of Ce. Cerium can undergo oxidation in water from soluble Ce^{3+} to highly insoluble Ce^{4+} , a process that sets Ce apart from other REEs. Thus, the concentration of Ce relative to that of neighboring REEs has been used to deduce redox conditions in the water column at the time of REE uptake. In particular, the extent of Ce depletion reflects the oxygenation state of seawater (Frimmel, 2009). For example, $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios in typical seawater vary in the range of 0.1–0.4 (Piepgras and Jacobsen, 1992). Negative Ce anomalies (0.14) have been recorded in a Jurassic reef limestone from the southeast Pacific (DSDP Site 598; Olivarez and Owen, 1991), and $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.45 and 0.752 have been recorded in Cretaceous limestones of northern Italy and in Holocene reefal microbialites of the southern Great Barrier Reef, respectively (Webb and Kamber, 2000; Bellanca et al., 1997). The Shahejie carbonates have variable Ce anomalies, with $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of 0.822–1.227 (Table 2), indicating that these carbonates were deposited under somewhat reducing lacustrine conditions.

Because the abundances of Eu in the Shahejie carbonates are variable, Gd contents are expressed relative to Tb and Dy, rather than Eu (Table 2). Depending on the method of calculation, the Shahejie carbonates show variable $\text{Gd}/\text{Gd}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios fluctuating around a value of 1 (Table 2). A positive Gd anomaly is considered a proxy for Archean marine seawater (Kamber et al., 2004). However, positive Gd anomalies are also prevalent in freshwater environments (Lawrence et al., 2006). Hence, the presence of subtle positive Gd anomalies may not allow differentiation between lacustrine and marine environments of deposition (Bolhar and Van Kranendonk, 2007).

4.2.2 Transgressive depositional conditions

The REE+Y patterns of the Shahejie carbonates are analogous to those of the Green River Formation, indicating a lacustrine origin for both sediments; however, there are some differences in the elemental anomalies in the two formations. The La and Ce anomalies in the Shahejie carbonates are variable, while in the Green River Formation, the $\text{La}/\text{La}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios show a negative anomaly and the $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios show a minor negative anomaly. Despite the fact that the $\text{Y}/\text{Y}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of the Shahejie carbonates and the Green River Formation are both positive, most $\text{Y}/\text{Y}^*_{\text{PAAS}}$ ratios of the Shahejie carbonates are

considerably higher than those of the Green River Formation, and are close to values for marine carbonates (Figs. 3c, 3d). In addition, some of the Shahejie carbonates display obvious LREE depletion (Fig. 3b), which is in accord the LREE compositions of seawater and marine carbonates (Fig. 3d). Thus, the Shahejie carbonates have the characteristics of lacustrine carbonates; however, they are affected by marine conditions.

The Y/Ho ratios of marine carbonates are higher than those of freshwater carbonates (Bolhar et al., 2004; Shields and Webb, 2004; Van Kranendonk et al., 2003; Webb and Kamber, 2000). In aqueous environments, elevated concentrations of Y relative to Ho reflect differences in the complexation behavior of these elements, which have identical charge and near-identical effective ionic radii (Nozaki et al., 2000; Bau and Dulski, 1999). The Y/Ho ratios of modern seawater are substantially higher than those of river and estuarine waters (Lawrence et al., 2006; Nozaki et al., 2000, 1997). The Y/Ho ratios of carbonates in Archean and post-Archean microbialites deposited in marine settings are generally >40 (Bolhar and Van Kranendonk, 2007; Kamber et al., 2004; Van Kranendonk et al., 2003; Kamber and Webb, 2001). The Y/Ho ratios for the Shahejie carbonates are in the range of 28–45 (Table 2), and nearly all of the Shahejie Y/Ho ratios are greater than those of freshwater carbonates of the Green River Formation (Bolhar and Van Kranendonk, 2007), and are slightly less than the values of marine carbonates. Thus, the depositional environment of the Shahejie carbonates was characterized by significant influxes of seawater into a lacustrine environment.

4.2.3 Post-depositional processes

Previous studies have shown that Cenozoic volcanic rocks are widely distributed in the Shahejie, Dongying, and Guantao formations in the Qikou depression. Diabase and basalt were found in wells Zhuang-24, Kou-14, Kou-34, Kou-42 (the wells sampled in the present study), Kou-43, Zhang-16, and Gangshen-7 (Xue and Gao, 2011; Li et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2008, 2007; Wang and Zhang, 2001; Gao, 1986). The widespread volcanic activity in the Cenozoic, and potentially contemporaneous faulting, exposed the Shahejie carbonates to hydrothermal fluids. Ding et al. (2007) considered that the maturity levels of alkanes in carbonate inclusions are related to geothermal activity. Yu (2010) presented evidence for hydrothermal fluids in the Shahejie clastic rocks, based on petrological features, vitrinite reflectance data, pyrolysis temperatures, and clay mineral analyses.

Europium is believed to be the only REE that changes its valency in near-surface environments (Brookins, 1989): Eu^{3+} reduces to Eu^{2+} under extremely reducing conditions. Temperatures above 200 °C are normally required to stabilize Eu^{2+} (Bau, 1996), and the $\text{Eu}^{3+}/\text{Eu}^{2+}$ ratio, a measure of redox potential, is considerably less at elevated temperatures (Sverjensky, 1984). The ratio is less sensitive to changes in pH and pressure than in temperature. Therefore, highly reducing hydrothermal fluids are enriched in Eu (Olivarez and Owen, 1991; Michard and Albarède, 1986). The REE patterns of various hydrothermal fluids are similar, showing LREE enrichment and positive Eu anomalies. Recent studies have shown that hydrothermal fluids at mid-oceanic ridges are characterized by significant enrichments in LREEs and Eu

(James and Elderfield, 1996; Mills and Elderfield, 1995). The REE patterns of samples from Well Kou-42 are similar to those of Oligocene–Miocene hydrothermal carbonates of the Qinghai–Tibet Plateau (Yi et al., 2008) and Early Paleozoic hydrothermal dolomites of the Tarim Basin (Han et al., 2009) (Fig. 5). Some marine carbonates influenced by hydrothermal fluids not only exhibit characteristic HREE enrichment, but also show conspicuous positive Eu anomalies (Kamber and Webb, 2001) (Fig. 5), as in two of the samples from Well Wang-38 (Fig. 3b).

Because seawater $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios are regulated mainly by riverine inputs of Sr via hydrothermal and tectonic processes, seawater strontium isotope concentrations are a geochemical proxy for such processes (Shields, 2007; Veizer et al., 1999). Enhanced continental weathering, especially the weathering of silicate minerals after glaciation, acts to increase seawater $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (Anderson et al., 2000; Blum et al., 1998). Initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for Eocene–Oligocene seawater are in the range 0.707 7–0.708 3 (McArthur et al., 2001), while the average $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio for rivers is 0.711 9 (Palmer and Edmond, 1989). Basic rocks, which form by the melting of mantle, usually show low $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (mean value, 0.704 4) (Zhang et al., 2000). In addition, the almost consistently low $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (0.708 001–0.710 893) for the carbonates in Well Kou-42 (Table 2, Fig. 6) suggest that their deposition was accompanied by significant inputs from seawater. However, the lower E_1 carbonates from Well Wang-38, which are more strongly influenced by seawater, show higher $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (0.710 282–0.710 585) than those of Well Kou-42 (Fig. 6), indicating that the low $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from Well Kou-42 are the result of magmatic hydrothermal activity.

The formation temperatures of carbonates are determined by the homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions, which

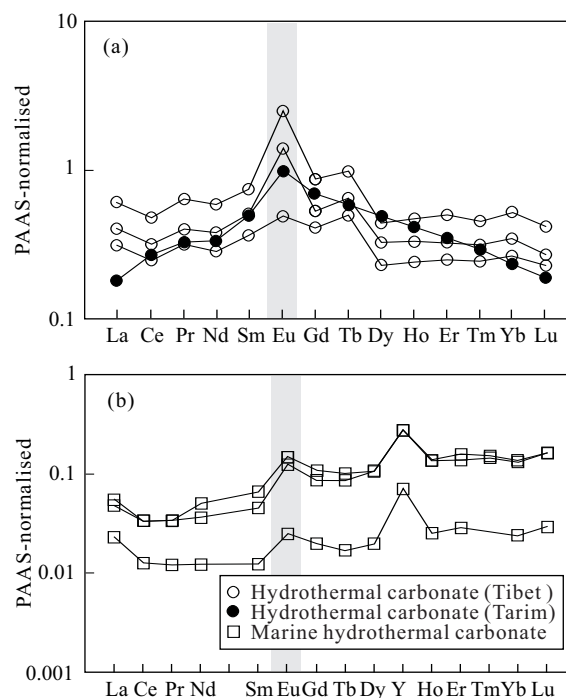


Figure 5. REE patterns of hydrothermal carbonates. Data sources: Han et al. (2009); Yi et al. (2008); Bolhar and Van Kranendonk (2007).

can then be compared with burial temperatures; in this way, we can generalize about the extent to which carbonates were influenced by hot fluids.

Paleogeotemperatures during deposition of Shahejie Paleogene sediments can be assessed using the following equation

$$H=(T_H-T_0)/G$$

where the burial depth H was 1 972.99–2 306.79 m (Table 1), the surface temperature T_0 was 15 °C (Gao et al., 2003), the average geothermal gradient G in the Qikou depression was 0.034 °C/m (Yang et al., 2014), and the burial paleogeotemperature T_H , which was determined using the above equation, was 82–93 °C. Most homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions from rocks in Well Kou-42 are in the range of 120–150 °C, which is greater than the homogenization temperatures in Well Wang-38 (~100 °C) (Table 3, Fig. 7) and bur-

ial paleogeotemperatures (82–93 °C) in the Qikou depression. This indicates carbonates in Well Kon-42 have been influenced by diagenetic activity during diagenesis.

5 GLOBAL SEA-LEVEL FLUCTUATIONS

Although lake-level curves across the Eocene–Oligocene boundary in the Qikou depression are concordant with sea-level curves (Fig. 8), it has been suggested that a large-scale transgression occurred in eastern China during this time (Qiu et al., 1994). Global sea level rose rapidly during Es_3 times, then decreased across the Eocene–Oligocene boundary (Fig. 8). As a result, carbonates from Es_2 strata were largely unaffected by seawater, and show characteristics of freshwater sedimentary environments. During Es_1 time, a short period of transgression occurred (Fig. 8), which strongly influenced carbonate compositions: the REE patterns of two Es_1 samples from Well Wang-38 correspond

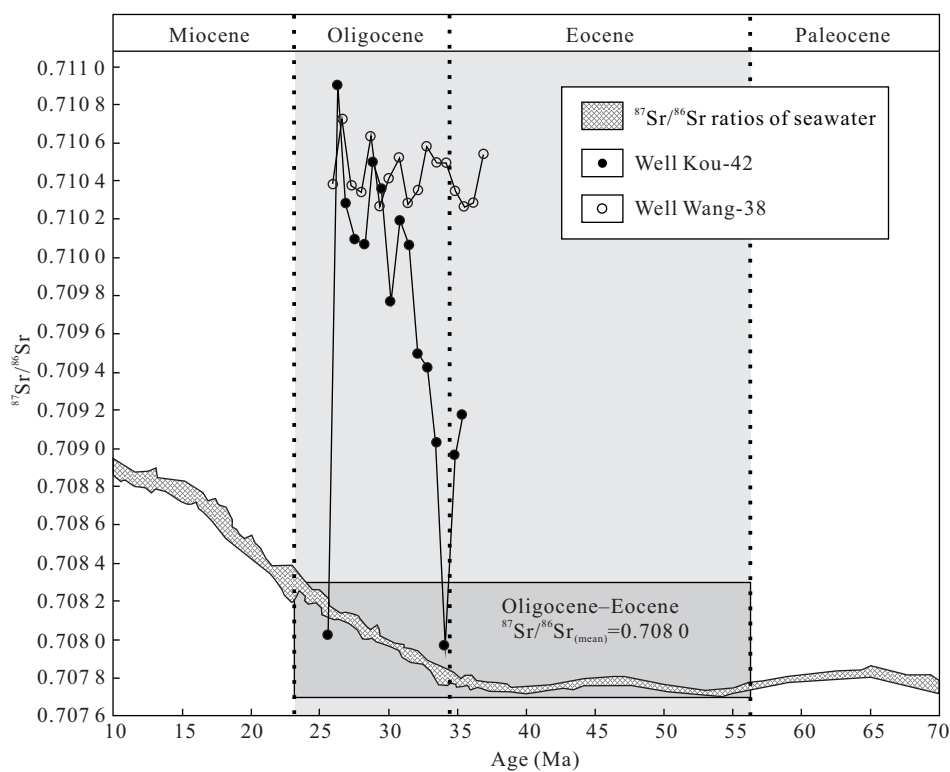


Figure 6. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of seawater for the period 10–70 Ma (McArthur et al., 2001) and of the carbonates from the Shahejie Formation, Qikou depression.

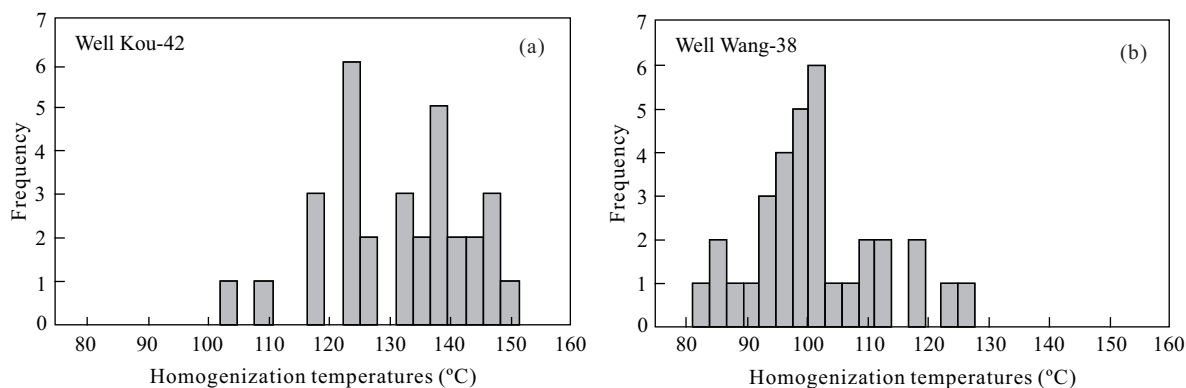


Figure 7. Histograms of homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions in carbonates from the Shahejie Formation, Qikou depression.

exactly with those of marine carbonates (Fig. 3b).

Several studies have demonstrated that transgressions occurred worldwide in the Early Oligocene. During the EOT, two transgressive system tracts were deposited in the Jiangnan Basin. In the basin, a deep-water lagoon formed in a deepening environment, as recorded by widely distributed halite interbedded with dark clastic (Qiu et al., 1994). The Iwaki Formation, which is the lowermost part of the Eocene–Oligocene Shiramizu Group, Northeast Japan, consists of conglomeratic braided river sedi-

ments. This formation, along with two overlying formations in the group, exhibits a fining-upward succession that is interpreted as an overall transgressive sequence (Komatsubara, 2004). The Kachchh Basin, located along the western margin of India during Indo-Gondwana rifting, evolved as a peri-cratonic basin during the Mesozoic–Cenozoic. Oligocene deposits, approximately 100 m thick, consist of limestone/claystone/shale alternations representing a generally shallow marine environment (Biswas, 1982). The sea-level curves suggest that a short Early Oligocene

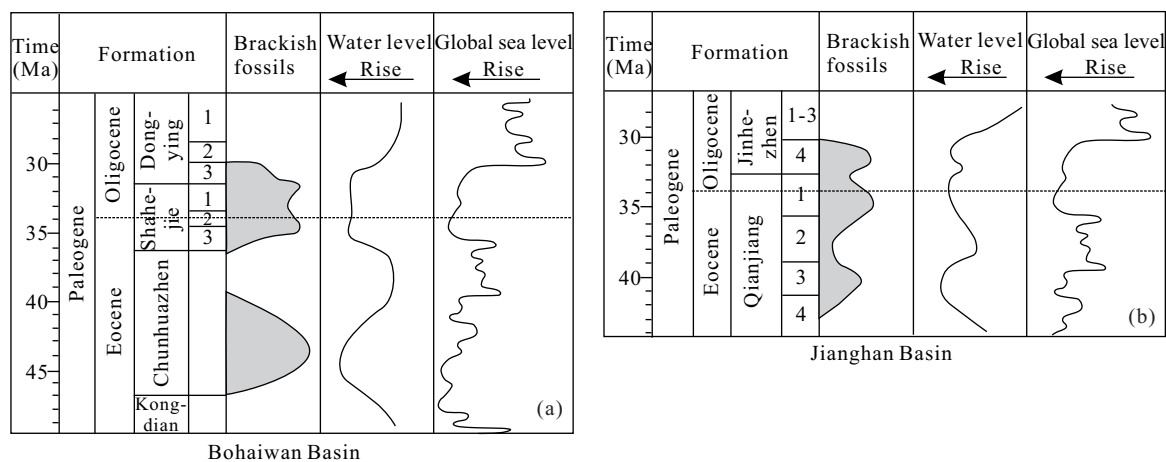


Figure 8. Occurrences of brackish-water fossils and curves for water level and global sea-level for the Bohaiwan Basin (upper panel) and the Jiangnan Basin (lower panel) at the Eocene–Oligocene boundary, modified after Qiu et al. (1994).

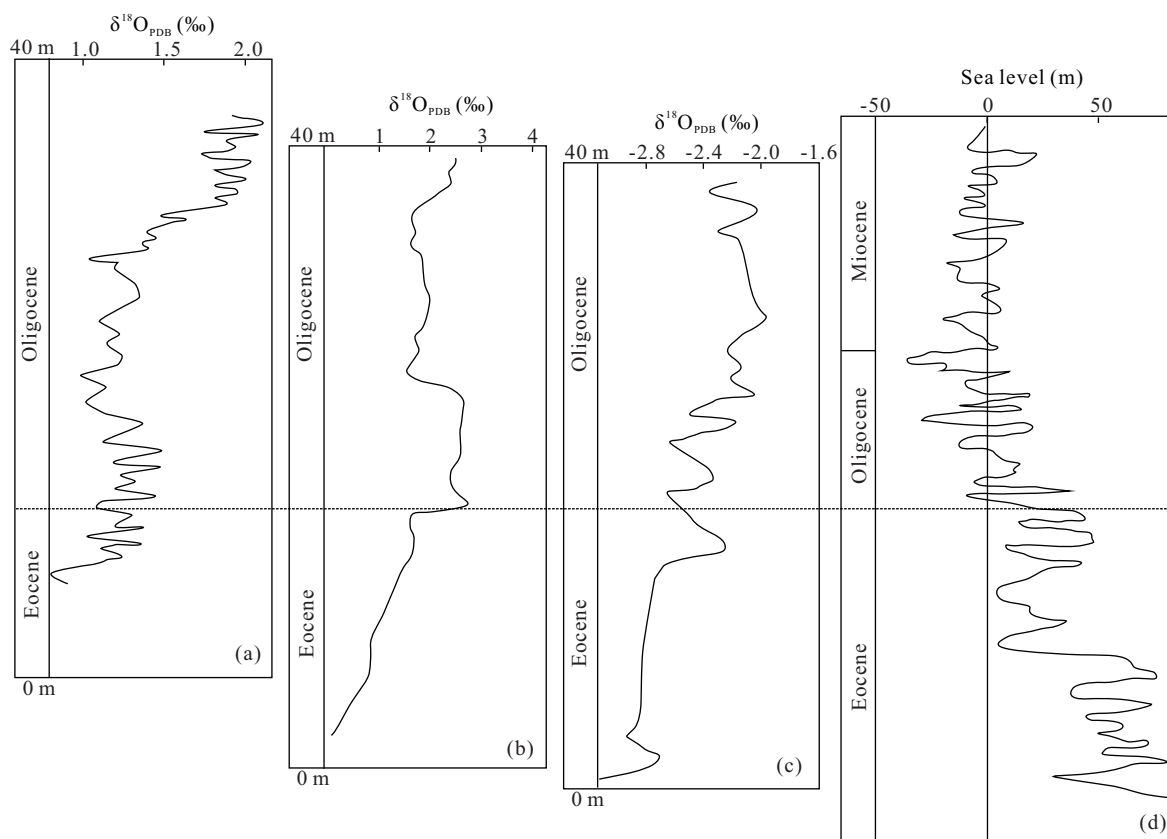


Figure 9. Oxygen isotope stratigraphy and sea-level fluctuations at the Eocene-Oligocene boundary. (a) Deep sea oxygen $\delta^{18}O$ record from ODP Site 1218 (after Coxall et al., 2005); (b) deep-sea benthic oxygen isotope curve (after Zachos et al., 1996); (c) the oxygen isotope record, biozonations and planktonic events identified in Tanzanian record (after Cotton and Pearson, 2011); (d) global sea level (blue) (after Miller et al., 2005).

transgression was followed by a major drop in sea level in Mid-Oligocene times (Pandey et al., 2010). The Early Oligocene transgression may have been caused by a brief temperature rise. Based on the work of Coxall et al. (2005), Zachos et al. (1996), and Miller et al. (2005), we have developed $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curves (Fig. 9) for the Eocene–Oligocene boundary. Overall, the sea level fell during the EOT, but rose rapidly in the early Oligocene due to increased temperatures.

6 CONCLUSION

We measured the REE concentrations and $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios in carbonates of the Shahejie Formation to assess depositional conditions and post-depositional processes in the Qikou depression (Bohaiwan Basin, eastern China) at the Eocene–Oligocene boundary. $\text{La}_{\text{PAAS}}/\text{Yb}_{\text{PAAS}}$ is variable, and most of the samples have similar REE patterns with LREE enrichment and HREE depletion. The relatively flat REE patterns with variable La and Ce anomalies indicate that the Shahejie carbonates were deposited in a lacustrine environment rather than a marine environment. The positive Y anomaly and Y/Ho ratios are higher than those of lacustrine carbonates and are similar to those of marine carbonates, suggesting that diagenetic fluids in the carbonates were influenced by seawater. Carbonates from Well Kou-42 show a positive Eu anomaly, low $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios, and high homogenization temperatures, implying that these carbonates were affected by hydrothermal fluids. During the Eocene–Oligocene transition, global sea level was generally falling; however, a brief period of worldwide temperature increase in the Early Oligocene caused a rapid sea-level rise.

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