Christopher L. Bergren. Petrology and depositional environment of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones (Mississippian) in Washington County, Virginia. (Under the direction of Dr. Donald W. Neal) Department of Geology, April 1985.

The Upper Mississippian (Chesterian) carbonate sequence in the Greendale Syncline of Washington County, Virginia, is a thick (580m) accumulation of shallow water mixed siliciclastic-carbonate sediments characterized by the cyclic deposition of four facies. Point-count data and cluster analysis were used to identify these four facies based upon 21 carbonate and non-carbonate components. The facies include 1) calcareous mudrocks, 2) calcareous sandstones, 3) oosparites, and 4) biomicrites.

The data suggest deposition of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones on a homoclinal ramp on which subtidal, low-energy biomicrites grade up slope into oolitic sediments characteristic of a shallow, highly agitated shoal. The nearshore calcareous mudrocks represent intertidal to tidal-flat environments. Calcareous sandstones were deposited in a high energy nearshore environment, possibly tidal channels or strandline accumulations.

Diagenetic processes began shortly after deposition in the marine environment and include micritization, compaction, pyrite formation and isopachous cementation. As burial continued, syntaxial, drusy and blocky cementation occurred as well as dolomitization and pressure solution. Microspar formation and silicification are also present in Girkin and Cove Creek sediments.

Cyclic depositional patterns formed in response to changing environmental parameters. Periodic uplift of a southeast highland, episodes of basin subsidence, and fluctuations in eustatic sea-level contributed to the environmental changes recorded in this sequence.

PETROLOGY AND DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE COVE CREEK AND GIRKIN LIMESTONES(MISSISSIPPIAN) IN WASHINGTON COUNTY, VIRGINIA

A Thesis

Presented to The Faculty of the Department of Geology East Carolina University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree Master of Science in Geology

by

Christopher L. Bergren

April, 1985

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PETROLOGY AND DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE COVE CREEK AND GIRKIN LIMESTONES(MISSISSIPPIAN) IN WASHINGTON COUNTY, VIRGINIA

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INTRODUCTION

Sedimentary petrology is traditionally divided into two separate fields of study: siliciclastic and carbonate petrology. As such, most petrologic work is concentrated on the "pure" sediment end members, commonly ignoring the vast spectrum of mixed sediments that lie between. Likewise, most sedimentary petrology texts are divided into sections dealing with clastics and carbonates, ignoring the rocks of mixed composition and the problems inherent in their study. Investigation of these hybrid sediments is further complicated by the lack of a refined nomenclature for mixed siliciclastic-carbonate sediments. In spite of the complications, these sediments recently have generated much interest (Colacicchi et al. 1982; Hubbard, 1982; Ball, 1983; Ginsburg et al. 1983; Mount, 1984). Continued interest in the sedimentology of these mixed composition rocks eventually may result in a more complete understanding of the dynamics and interactions of facies, organisms and the tectonic history of depositional basins. This will come, however, only after we understand the sedimentology of numerous small areas, both modern and ancient.

The Upper Mississippian (Chesterian) Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones of the Central Appalachians represent one such mixed siliciclastic-carbonate interval. These units are located within the Greendale Syncline of southwest Virginia and northeast Tennessee and represent the thickest and possibly best exposed sections of Chesterian strata within the Central Appalachians. Detailed studies of the sedimentary and mineralogic characteristics of the units are lacking.

OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study are: 1) to characterize the texture and composition of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones; 2) to characterize diagenetic features within these mixed siliclastic-carbonate units; 3) on the basis of these descriptions, to interpret the depositional environments; and 4) to evaluate changes in textures and diagenetic effects relative to depositional environment and tectonic history.

GEOGRAPHIC AND GEOLOGIC SETTING

The Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones outcrop in a northeast-southwest trending outcrop belt in Washington County, Virginia. Two locations in this belt were chosen for this investigation (Fig. 1). The Holston sampling location is located along U. S. 58A in the Brumley Quadrangle, approximately 3.9 miles northwest of Abingdon. The Hayters Gap sampling location is situated along Virginia State Route 80, approximately 4.3 miles northeast of Abingdon in the Hayters Gap Quadrangle.

The major structural features in the Washington County, Virginia, area consist of portions of the Greendale and Beaver Creek Synclines and of the Saltville, Pulaski-Staunton, Spurgeon, and Bristol Fault Blocks





A--Holston sampling location. B--Hayters Gap sampling location.

(Bartlett and Webb, 1971). Outcrop belts and major fault traces are aligned northeast-southwest, maintaining a southeasterly dip.

The stratigraphic units in the study area (Fig. 2) include the Lower Mississippian Big Stone Gap Shale, Price Formation, Maccrady Shale, Little Valley Limestone, Hillsdale Limestone, and the Ste. Genevieve Limestone. The Upper Mississippian (Chesterian) units include the Girkin Limestone, Fido Sandstone, Cove Creek Limestone and Pennington Formation.

The contact of the Ste. Genevieve with the Girkin is at the top of a distinctive 4.5-6m thick bed of maroon, crinoidal carbonate with varying amounts of ooliths. This bed has been previously used for locating the Ste. Genevieve-Girkin boundary in the Greendale Syncline (Butts, 1940; Averitt, 1941; Bartlett and Webb, 1971). The Fido Sandstone (Butts, 1927) is a thin (9-15m) dark-maroon sandstone which subdivides the Girkin (303.3m) and Cove Creek Limestones (272.8m). This lithologically distinct bed is important as a marker so that its recognition and description as an independent unit is justified (Butts, 1927).

The Girkin Limestone (Butts, 1917) is described as having two facies (Butts, 1940). The first is a pure limestone found along the northwestern portion of the Valley and Ridge Province, and the second, a predominantly argillaceous limestone and shale, is found in the Greendale Syncline. In eastern West Virginia and Virginia, the Girkin is correlated, in part, to Greenbrier strata (de Witt and NcGrew, 1979).

The Cove Creek Limestone was named by Butts (1927) for exposures of argillaceous limestone along Cove Creek in Washington County, Virginia.

		PENNINGTON FORMATION
	CHESTERIAN	COVE CREEK BIRESIONE
<		FIDO SANDSTONE
I d		GIRKIN LIMESTONE ∝
٩.	MERAMECIAN	ω
I		
S		шас HILLSDALE шо LIMESTONE
I S		OLITTLE VALLEY LIMESTONE
s		MACCRADY SHALE
s		
I	OSAGEAN	
Σ		PRICE FORMATION
	KINDERHOOKIAN	BIG STONE GAP SHALE

Figure 2. Mississippian stratigraphy of the Greendale Syncline.

he described the Cove Creek, the Glen Dean of Eastern Kentucky and the Bluefield Formation of the western Valley and Ridge as three different facies of what is believed to be the same stratigraphic unit. In the western Valley and Ridge, the Cove Creek equivalent is underlain by the Girkin and overlain by the Stony Gap Sandstone, the basal member of the Pennington Formation. In the Greendale Syncline, the Cove Creek overlies the Fido Sandstone and is bounded above by the shales and siltstones of the Pennington Formation. Butts (1940) described the Cove Creek as occurring only in a single belt in the Greendale Syncline, extending from the Virginia-Tennessee state line in Scott County, northeast to the Saltville Thrust Fault just north of Lindell, Washington County. Wilpolt and Marden (1959) suggested abandoning the name "Cove Creek" in favor of "Bluefield". Due to the imprecise correlation of the units, the Cove Creek nomenclature is retained and used in this study.

PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS

The Girkin Limestone was originally referred to as the Gasper Limestone (Butts, 1917) for its similarity to the partly oolitic limestones exposed along the Gasper River in Warren County, Kentucky. Sutton and Weller (1932) considered the Gasper Limestone to be inadequately defined. Butts (1940), however, continued to use the name Gasper for rocks in southwest Virginia considered equivalent to those

found in Kentucky. The name Gasper persisted until 1963 when Rainey redefined the formation in its type area and named the unit the Girkin Limestone. The change in nomenclature is followed in this investigation.

Butts (1927) named the Cove Creek Limestone for exposures of argillaceous limestone along Cove Creek in Washington County, Virginia. Detailed investigations of this unit are lacking.

Although correlative units in Kentucky and West Virginia have been studied in some detail, Upper Mississippian carbonates exposed within the Greendale Syncline have not. Reconnaissance and field mapping studies by Butts (1917, 1927, 1940), Averitt (1941), Bartlett and Webb (1971), Bartlett and Biggs (1980) and Bartlett (1981), provide only very general descriptions of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones.

METHODS

Sampling

Two partial sections of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones were sampled at approximately 6m intervals (more frequently in heterogeneous lithologies). The samples were labled "E" (for Girkin along U. S. 58A, near Holston), "A" (for Cove Creek along U. S. 58A), "C" (for Girkin along State Route 80, in Hayters Gap) and "D" (for Cove Creek along State Route 80) followed by numerals identifying the sample. Sections were measured and described with the results in Appendix A.

Mineral Identification

One hundred and sixty three thin-sections were prepared and stained with a solution of Alizarin Red S and potassium ferricyanide in dilute hydrochloric acid (Evamy, 1963; Katz and Friedman, 1965; Friedman, 1971). With these stains calcite stains red, ferroan calcite stains purple, dolomite does not stain and ferroan dolomite stains light blue. In addition, X-ray diffractometry was employed to aid in determination of mineralogy. All 163 thin-sections were examined and point counted using 300 points per slide. Point count data is presented in Appendix B. Cement filled voids within allochems were counted as allochemical constituents (Dunham, 1962). The petrologic data was analyzed by multivariate statistical tests (cluster analysis) to aid in microfacies determination and the interpretation of depositional environments.

Each of the 163 samples was subjected to acid treatment to isolate non-carbonate material. Samples of approximately 15g to 25g were crushed and added to diluted hydrochloric acid. After allowing sufficient time for dissolution, the excess acid was decanted, the sample was washed in distilled water, filtered, dried in an oven at 75°C for 3 hours and weighed. Calculated percentages are listed in Appendix B.

Statistical Analysis

Cluster analysis is a statistical method used to place objects into groups or clusters suggested by the data, where no "a priori" knowledge exists. If the nature of the measurable distinguishing parameters are properly selected, objects in a given cluster tend to be similar to each other in some sense, and objects in differing clusters will tend to be dissimilar (SAS Institute, 1982).

CONSTITUENTS

INTRODUCTION

Compositional elements recognized from samples taken from the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones are catagorized into two groups, carbonate and non-carbonate constituents. Carbonate constituents are further subdivided into the various allochemical components. Figures 3 and 4 illustrate Girkin and Cove Creek lithologies and constituents.

CARBONATE CONSTITUENTS

Fossils

Algae

Sedimentary fabrics which include cryptalgal laminations (Fig. 11), microborings of bioclastics and dark brown patches of micrite with faint structure, suggest the presence of algae in the Girkin and Cove Creek sediment. Although no algal remains were observed, several authors have indicated the presence of calcareous algae in Upper Mississippian sediments in West Virginia (Leonard, 1968; Blancher, 1974; Wray, 1977; Gray, 1985).

not in ref. list



Figure 3. Girkin and Cove Creek lithologies and constituents from the Holston sampling location.





Arthropods

Arthropod bioclasts in the Girkin and Cove Creek are represented by trilobites and ostracodes. Trilobite fragments exhibit a fine, prismatic microstructure with extinction bands that sweep across the fragment as the stage is rotated. Tangential sections reveal the characteristic "Shepard's Crook" shape. Ostracodes are recognized by their typical morphology, small size, and thin, homogenous prismatic wall structure. Valves are generally less than 0.5mm in length.

Brachiopods

Brachiopods (Fig. 5) occur in minor amounts in both the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones and are easily recognized in thin section by their laminated wall structure. The parallel laminated wall structure often contains small plications (punctate or pseudopunctate) which are oriented perpendicular to laminated wall structure through the shell. Brachiopod spines are identified by the presence of concentric parallel laminated inner, and radial-laminated outer wall layers as well as a hollow central canal. Both articulate and inarticulate forms are present.

Bryozoans

Bryozoans are the most abundant fossil group recognized within the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones. They consist primarily of fenestrate



Figure 5. Brachiopod and Echinoderms.



Figure 6. Endothyrid-type Foraminifera

forms, although ramose and encrusting varieties are apparent. In thin section, fronds are frequently micritized, suggestive of algal encrustations.

Echinoderms

The echinoderms, which approach bryozoans in abundance, are recognized in thin section by their characteristic unit extinction (Fig. 5). Blastoids, echinoids and crinoids are all composed of plates and columnals, making identification difficult. Therefore, they were identified as echinoderms. Echinoiderms are occasionally micritized, suggestive of algal activity.

Foraminifers

The foraminifers occur in minor amounts in the Girkin and Cove Creek and are primarily of endothyrid types (Fig. 6). <u>Climacamina</u> sp. has also been identified. Their distinctive chambered tests are filled with micrite or spar, while outer walls are commonly micritized.

Mollusks

Fragments of bivalves, and low spired gastropods (Fig. 7) are sparsely distributed in micritic sediments. In thin section, fragments are commonly recrystallized, making identification difficult.



Figure 7. Gastropod.



Figure 8. Isopachous Cement and Syntaxial Cement.

Intraclasts

Intraclasts are penecontemporaneous reworked fragments of locally accumulating sediments. Although rare, in the Girkin and Cove Creek, they are generally rounded, range in size of 0.5-4mm in diameter, and often contain inclusions of skeletal remains.

Pellets

Pellets are very rare in the Girkin and Cove Creek sediments. They are spherical, micritic aggregates lacking any obvious structure, and are less than 0.5mm in diameter. Pellets may represent fossilized fecal matter of burrowing organisms or they may have resulted from abrasion of lithified micrite, i.e. small intraclasts.

Ooliths

Normal ooliths are spherical accretionary grains built of several layers of concentric carbonate laminae around a central core. Individual laminae are indistinct; radial texture, however, is well developed, forming "Maltese crosses" under crossed nichols except in cases where micritzation has obliterated all structures. Ooliths in the Girkin and Cove Creek range in size from 0.8 to 3.5mm with a mean diameter of 1.5mm. Nuclei occur as subrounded to subangular fragments of bryozoans, echinoderms, rock fragments, quartz and brachiopods.

Superficial ooliths (Carozzi,1960; Bathurst, 1967; Flugel, 1982) are generally smaller than normal ooliths with very few (1-3) laminae. In the Girkin and Cove Creek, superficial ooids range from 0.2 to 1.3mm in diameter (averaging 0.4mm) and are recognized by a thin film of iron oxide coating subrounded quartz, rock fragments, echinoderms and feldspars.

NON-CARBONATE CONSTITUENTS

Quartz

Detrital quartz occurs as subangular to subrounded grains ranging in size from fine silt to fine sand. Most quartz grains exhibit straight to slightly undulose extinction and are relatively free of inclusions. Rarer polycrystalline forms are present.

Feldspars

Feldspars form only a small percentage of the detrital grains, either within the calcareous mudrocks or calcareous sandstones. Orthoclase, plagioclase (approximately An40 to An60), and microcline can be distinguished in thin section.

Micas

Muscovite is a common accessory mineral of many argillaceous samples. The mica flakes tend to be oriented parallel to depositional surfaces. For purposes of point-count analyses, micaceous grains less than 0.06mm were classified as matrix.

Clay Minerals

Terrigenous clays are very common in Girkin and Cove Creek sediments, and are classified as matrix in point-count data (Appendix B). X-ray data suggest chlorite and illite are the predominant forms. Due to the small crystal sizes of both clays and carbonate mud, insoluble residue calculations proved useful in distinguishing between the two. Clays also occur in trace amounts as thin, platy flakes replacing feldspars along cleavage planes.

Pyrite

Pyrite is common in many samples as small, opaque grains generally less than 0.2mm in size. Pyrite is found in the matrix, in pressure solution seams and in wall linings of skeletal fragments. Framboidal forms are also present.

DIAGENESIS

INTRODUCTION

All the chemical, physical and biologic changes a sediment undergoes after its deposition, exclusive of metamorphism, is considered diagenesis. It embraces processes such as compaction, cementation, replacement, crystallization, authigenesis and bacterial action which occur under conditions of pressure (up to 1kb) and temperature (maximum range of 100° C to 300° C) which are normal to the Earth's crust.

The following discussion focuses on post-depositional changes which have effected mixed siliciclastic-carbonate sediments in the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones. Where applicable, the timing of diagenetic events is given.

MICRITIZATION

Micritization is an early diagenetic process and entails the replacement of original carbonate grains by microcrystalline carbonate at the sediment-water interface (Kobluk and Risk, 1977) from the intertidal zone to depths of at least 780m (Perkins and Halsey, 1971).

Two processes are recognized. Degrading micritization is the result of algal, fungal or bacterial borings into carbonate particles whereby the skeletal grain is bored, the boring organism dies and decays, and the vacated tubes are filled with micrite (Bathurst, 1966; Klement et al., 1967). Aggrading micrite envelopes form from the growth of micro-organisms on the surface of carbonate particles which subsequently protect the grains from being destroyed (Kobluk and Risk, 1977).

Allochems within the Girkin and Cove Creek are affected by degrading micritization and exhibit a wide range of alteration from thin micritic envelopes to completely micritized grains. Echinoderms and bryozoans appear to be the most affected by micritization in which a thin, micritic envelope develops. Total micritization affects foraminifers and some ooliths where original structures are obliterated.

ISOPACHOUS RIM CEMENT

A finely crystalline, isopachous, sparry calcite crust is formed around many allochems in the oosparite microfacies. Isopachous fibrous to bladed crystals grow normal to the surfaces of grains into available pore space. The small, isopachous fibrous or prismatic crystals are generally 0.01 to 0.1mm in length, whereas the larger bladed crystals are approximately 0.4 to 0.8mm. This rim cement is equivalent to cement A of Graf and Lamar (1950). Cement A is common in shallow marine environments and appears in beachrocks and in deeper marine environments with restricted sedimentation (Flugel, 1982).

Isopachous rim cements form under marine phreatic conditions (Longman, 1980). In the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones isopachous cement preceeds syntaxial and drusy cementation (Fig. 8).

SYNTAXIAL CALCITE CEMENT

Syntaxial cement, sparry calcite formed in optical continuity with a host grain, precipitated into pore spaces and commonly form overgrowths on echinoderm fragments (Fig. 8). Syntaxial overgrowths within Girkin and Cove Creek sediments developed after the formation of a micrite rim. It has been noted, however, that no overgrowths are present on echinoiderm ossicles where such rims are thick. Syntaxial cements also formed after the precipitation of isopachous rim cements. Evamy and Shearman (1965), Land (1970) and Longman (1980) have interpreted syntaxial cements as being an early diagenetic event which occurs in a meteoric phreatic zone.

PORE FILLING CEMENTS

Sparry calcite commonly fills the pore spaces between carbonate and non-carbonate grains in the calcareous sandstones of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones. This cement is blocky or granular and commonly forms a poikilotopic texture surrounding terrigenous grains. Crystals are equant, anhedral to subhedral, generally 20 to 50um in size.

Drusy cement is an early diagenetic texture with anhedral to subhedral calcite crystals increasing in size outward from pore walls. This cement is common within the Girkin and Cove Creek oosparites and forms after isopachous cementation and possibly synchronous with syntaxial cement development. Longman (1980) has interpreted drusy cementation as a product of freshwater cementation.

DOLOMITE

Dolomite formation within the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones is a secondary process, forming as a replacement of earlier blocky calcite cement in calcareous sandstones, as silt-sized rhombs scattered throughout the matrix of calcareous mudrocks and rarely as rhombs in bryozoan zoecia.

Models of dolomitization are numerous. In the Girkin and Cove Creek sediments it is difficult to postulate if any one model was responsible for dolomitization. The most likely model, however, is that proposed by Badiozamani (1973) in which a mixing environment of freshwater and seawater occurs. It is evident that freshwater conditions did occur in the Girkin and Cove Creek, recognized by characteristic meteoric cements.

MICKOSPAR

Folk (1959, 1965, 1974) characterized microspar as equant, euhedral to subhedral crystals generally 5-10um in diameter. A size range of 4-30um corresponds to the micrite II of Bosselini (1964). The wider range is used for the size range of microspar. In Girkin and Cove Creek sediments microspar takes the form of scattered, variable sized crystals within mudrocks and biomicrites.

Two methods of microspar formation have been proposed. The first is an aggrading process whereby available Mg++ forms a "cage" around microcrystalline calcite crystals, preventing a growth larger than 2-3 microns. The removal of Mg++, initiated in a brackish water or freshwater environment, allows for the growth of calcite crystals to

microsparite (Folk, 1974). Lasemi and Sandberg (1984), however, suggest a one step origin in the formation of microspar from an aragonitic mud. They do not envision the mud first calcitizing to micrite and then altering to microspar by aggrading neomorphism.

SILICIFICATION

Silicification is the introduction of, or the replacement by silica, resulting in the formation of fine-grained quartz, chalcedony or opal. Silicification within the Girkin and Cove Creek affects echinoderms, brachiopods, mollusks and bryozoans whereby replacement is characterized by chalcedony and, in rarer cases, microquartz. Possible sources for silica include 1) biogenic material, 2) dissolution of feldspars and volcanic fragments, 3) pressure solution, and 4) alteration of clays.

One of the most important sources of silica is biogenic material. Two ways in which this may occur are 1) from siliceous organisms such as sponges, diatoms and radiolarians and 2) as varying proportions of silica within calcareous organisms. This is especially true of the echinoderms, in which ancient forms contain as much as 29% silica (Clarke and Wheeler, 1922).

Dissolution of volcanics (Berner,1971) and feldspars (Fuchtbauer, 1979) can be an important source of silica. Volcanic rock fragments have been identified within the intervening Fido Sandstone (Neal, 1984), however, volcanics are not recognized in the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones. Therefore, volcanic material is not thought to be a primary producer of silica. Since feldspars account for less than one percent of total rock volume they are considered insignificant as a contributor.

Investigations by Heald (1959), Sibley and Blatt (1976) and Fuchtbauer (1979) indicate that pressure solution may contribute to silicification. Authigenic overgrowths are lacking in the Girkin and Cove Creek and it is uncertain if pressure solution provided silica.

Some investigations indicate the alteration of clays may produce silica. The smectite to illite transformation in shales (Fuchtbauer, 1979) and the alteration of illite to muscovite (Towe, 1962) can contribute to silica production.

COMPACTION

Compaction refers to any process that decreases the bulk volume of sediments. Compaction is generally considered an early diagenetic change. Some carbonate sediments, however, are only affected by compaction in a deep burial stage (Flugel, 1982). Compaction features in the Girkin and Cove Creek include ooid deformation and pressure solution. Prior to isopachous cementation, some of the ooid lamellae were spalled (Fig. 9), perhaps by overburden pressures.

Pressure solution is the preferential dissolution of mineral material at points of stress. Two styles of pressure solution (Wanless, 1979) are observed in the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones. Sutured seam solutions occur in the oosparites which lack significant amounts of matrix. Stylolites and grain-to-grain contact sutures form irregular interpenetrating surfaces, shortening parallel to the direction of maximum stress. Grain-to-grain contacts are easily recognized where loss of material at point contacts is evident (Fig. 10). These contacts



Figure 9. Ooid Deformation.



Figure 10. Grain-to-Grain Pressure Solution.

are both planar and sutured. Bathurst (1971) indicated the timing of grain-to-grain sutures as prior to the emplacement of a second generation cement.

Non-sutured seam solution occurs where significant portions of clay or platy silt are present. This solution feature is common in the calcareous mudrocks, where pressure solution produces fine clay seams. These seams have been described as clay seams (Barrett, 1964), horsetails (Roehl, 1967), wispy laminae (Lucia, 1972), wavy laminae (Reinhardt and Hardie, 1976), pseudo-stylolites (Shinn et al., 1977) and microstylolites (Wanless, 1979).

Depth of burial and pressures capable of producing pressure solutions are variable. Dunnington (1967) reported in many instances that overburdens of 500-800m were required for pressure solution, however, Schlanger (1964) reported formation of clay seams at depths of 82m or less.

PYRITE AND HEMATITE

Pyrite in the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones is a widely distributed, isometric, opaque mineral. It commonly oxidizes to hematite and iron hydroxides which often form pseudomorphs after the common pyrite forms. Pyrite forms under a large range of geologic conditions. It is most commonly formed early during diagenesis, under reducing conditions. In these units, localized pyrite probably formed in a stagnant marine environment, possibly influenced by the action of microorganisms. The diagenetic sequence interpreted for Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones is summarized in Table 1. Diagenesis within these mixed siliciclastic-carbonate sediments began shortly after deposition in the marine environment with micritization of carbonate grains and the formation of pyrite. Mechanical compaction and initial cementation began soon after deposition with the formation of isopachous rim cements that loosely bound the sediments. With subsequent burial, several diagenetic processes were active including pressure solution and the precipitation of syntaxial, drusy and blocky cements. These cements may have been related to continued development of the Upper Mississippian-Pennsylvanian clastic wedge and an associated freshwater lens. As burial continued, dolomitization, pressure solution and fracturing developed. Microspar formation and silicification may occur under various conditions, where precise timing is uncertain.



Table 1. Diagenetic sequence in the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones.

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FACIES

INTRODUCTION

Four facies are recognized within the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones. They are 1) calcareous mudrocks, 2) calcareous sandstones, 3) oosparites, and 4) biomicrites. These facies are divisible on the basis of point-count and insoluble residue data. The data were also analyzed by cluster analysis as a suppliment to petrographic subdivision. Criteria for subdivision include, for calcareous mudrocks, the high percentage of matrix; for calcareous sandstones, the high percentage of terrigenous minerals; for oosparites, the high percentage of ooliths; and, for biomicrites, the high percentage of fossils and carbonate matrix. A graphic comparison of constituents for each facies is given in Table 2.

CALCAREOUS MUDROCKS

The calcareous mudrocks are the most abundant facies present within the Girkin and Cove Creek. Field descriptions of this facies are varied. Generally, these rocks are medium-light to medium-dark gray, often weathering to a shaly appearance. Most samples exhibit horizontal, planar to wavy laminations averaging 0.3mm in thickness. Sedimentary features include cryptalgal laminations (Fig. 11), flaser and cross stratification, and wisps. Evidence of bioturbation is common

	CALCAREOUS MUDROCK	CALCAREOUS SANDSTONE	OOSPARITE	BIOMICRITE
	(n=128)	(n=4)	(n=4)	(n=27)
Quartz	8.8	33.3	5.2	3.9
Feldspar	0.2	3.2	0.7	0.2
Rock Frags.	0.6	11.6	2.1	0.5
Matrix	83.2	14.7	10.2	59.5
Intraclasts	0.2	0.0	1.7	4.3
Echinoderms	0.3	0.6	3.2	7.3
Brachiopods	0.1	0.07	0.5	1.8
Bryozoans	1.1	0.07	7.1	18.4
Ostracodes	0.004	0.0	0.0	0.1
Foraminifers	0.02	0.0	0.0	0.2
Mollusks	0.006	0.0	0.0	0.06
Trilobites	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.04
Ooliths	0.0	0.25	55.6	0.3
Spar	4.1	26.87	13.3	2.2
Microspar	0.01	0.0	0.3	0.0
Dolomite	0.4	6.75	0.0	0.1
Pyrite	0.7	0.43	0.0	0.5
Hematite	0.2	2.97	0.1	0.3
Unknown	0.06	0.0	0.0	0.3
Insolubles	55.3	68.2	18.8	36.4
Carbonate	44.7	31.75	81.2	63.6

TABLE 2. Mean values(percentages) of constituents of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestone facies.

in many samples. Interbedded within the mudrocks, are thin beds (less than 1.5m thick) of shale and siltstone reflecting variations in energy and terrigenenous input. Allochems are represented by bioclastic fragments of bryozoans (1.1%), echinoderms (0.3%) and brachiopods (0.1%) generally 0.5mm in length. Rarer forms include foraminifers (0.02%), ostracodes (0.004%), and mollusks (0.006%).

Non-carbonate grains include subangular to subrounded silt- and sand-sized quartz, feldspar and rock fragments. Feldspars include untwinned potassium feldspar, microcline and plagioclase. The plagioclase feldspars range in composition from approximately An40 to An60 as determined by the Michel-Levy method (Phillips and Griffin, 1981).

For the purpose of point-counting, materials less than approximately 0.005mm were classified as matrix. Terrigenous clays and microcrystalline calcite are the dominant matrix constituents. X-ray data suggest chlorite and illite are predominant clays. Due to the small crystal sizes of both clays and carbonate mud, insoluble residue calculations proved useful in distinguishing between the two (Table 2). Pyrite and hematite are found in most samples in the form of framboids, as small opaque grains disseminated throughout the matrix, along pressure seams, and in wall linings of skeletal fragments.

The calcareous mudstones have undergone a variety of diagenetic alteration. Micritization, a syn-depositional process which commonly forms micrite envelopes, is perhaps the most evident form of diagenesis in these rocks. Other diagenetic processes include the precipitation of sparry calcite, (both poikilotopic and syntaxial forms), microspar formation, silicification and dolomitization. The calcareous mudstones are fine-grained, argillaceous rocks with less than 2% bioclastic material. The paucity of bioclastics may suggest conditions were unsuitable for many organisms. Restrictive currents may have failed to supply the nutrients required for survival. Abnormal salinities and/or the excellerated input of terrigenous material also may have prohibited organic activity. The presence of bioturbation features indicate, however, that some organisms survived under such conditions.

Cryptalgal laminations are present (Fig. 11), and are an important environmental indicator. Modern algal-laminated sediments are formed by the sediment trapping and binding action of blue-green algal mats, as commonly found in the intertidal and supratidal zones of Shark Bay (Davies, 1970), the Persian Gulf (Purser, 1973) and the Bahamas (Shinn et al., 1969). Algal-laminated sediments are affected by burrowing and browsing organisms. Only under specific environmental conditions are these laminae preserved. Algal-laminated deposits of the intertidal zone of Shark Bay are preserved in hypersaline areas (greater than 56% salinity), where burrowing and browsing organisms are limited by high salinities. The rare occurrences of algal-laminated sediments of the calcareous mudstones may indicate local areas of higher salinity or some other factor limiting burrowing and browsing.

The mudstones could be of subtidal origin or could represent sediments of shallower, perhaps intertidal muds. A shallow water genesis is supported by cryptalgal features and lack of bioclastic material. The absence of mud cracks (Shinn, 1964) and well developed stromatolitic features such as found in modern laminated muds (Laporte, 1967; Illing et al., 1965) would seem to argue against a supratidal



Figure 11. Cryptalgal Lamination.



Figure 12. Clotted Texture.

origin. Ginsburg et al. (1957), attribute the absence of these features to extended periods of emergence. However, Simonson and Walker (1984) note that mixed carbonate-siliciclastic sediments may lack characteristic tidal-flat features due to an abundance of clay material. Therefore, the mixed carbonate-siliciclastic tidal-flat behaves as a soft sediment, having high water content far longer than pure carbonates. Whatever their mode of origin, continued subsidence was necessary to account for the thick accumulation of the calcareous mudrocks.

CALCAREOUS SANDSTONES

The calcareous sandstones contain varied amounts of terrigenous and matrix material Table 2. Matrix ranges from 5% in clean, moderately sorted sands to as much as 15% in gradational calcareous sandstones-mudrocks. Residue bulk consists of clear, inclusion free, subangular to subrounded quartz. The quartz grains exhibit straight to slightly undulose extinction and lack evidence of secondary overgrowths. The skeletal-carbonate components (less than 2%) include fragmented fossil debris which is commonly micritized.

Distribution and degree of dolomitization (0-26%) is variable from sample to sample. Stylolites and microstylolites are pervasive throughout the calcareous sandstones. Pyrite and hematite are common.

The calcareous sandstones accumulated by major influxes of terrigenous material at the expense of carbonate deposition. Tidal currents appear to have prevented carbonate muds from settling so that later sparry calcite cement precipitated in interstitial pores. This facies interfingers with calcareous mudstones and appears to have been deposited above wave base in a rather moderate to high energy environment.

OOSPARITES

Oosparites are composed of approximately 67% allochems consisting of 11% fossils, 11% normal ooids and 45% superficial ooids. Macroscopically, the oosparites are dark-red-brown, moderately sorted and medium- to thick-bedded.

Pore filling cements include isopachous radial rim, drusy and syntaxial cements. The results of compaction are pronounced, and include the spalling of ooid corticies (Fig. 9). Pressure solution features in the form of microstylolites and stylolites, are common (Fig. 10).

The oosparites interfinger with the calcareous mudstones and biomicrites. High-energy, shallow subtidal conditions of deposition are indicated by the grain-supported framework, the lack of carbonate mud, and the abundance of ooids.

Modern marine ooids form in shallow, well agitated environments where water depths are generally less than 2 meters (Newell et al, 1960). Conditions for growth include warm water, calcium carbonate supersaturation and normal to high salinity (Flugel, 1982). Ooid accumulations occur in a variety of geometries and most often form at a break in slope. The presence of ooid micritization also indicates shallow water deposition. The commonly recognized formational processes are limited to the photic zone, specifically in shallow current swept areas.

The oosparites of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones developed on a shallow carbonate shoal over which ocean waters flowed turbulently. Environmental stresses, including high-energy conditions, quartz sand influx and a shifting substrate, were the primary causes for the absence of organisms. The abundance of superficial ooids suggests that currents were not capable of keeping the substrate mobile. The fact that micritization is present attests that grains were exposed on the seafloor for periods of time sufficient to allow grain degradation.

BIOMICRITES

The second most abundant facies in the Girkin and Cove Creek is the biomicrites. Fossil content averages 28%, including whole and fragmented bryozoans (18.4%), echinoderms (7.3%), brachiopods (1.8%) mollusks (0.06%), trilobites (0.04%) foraminifers (0.2%) and ostracodes (0.1%). Other allochemical constituents include intraclasts (4%) and ooliths (0.5%). Sediments are poorly to moderately sorted with varying proportions of clay and quartz silt.

In outcrop, the biomicrites are thick-bedded, medium to medium-light gray, and weather to light-olive gray. In hand sample, bryozoans and pelmatozoans are easily recognized.

Micrite is the pervasive interstitial matrix in the biomicrites. Some samples exhibit a "clotted" texture which designates structureless micritic lumps. These "clots" are 50 to 125 microns in size, exhibit indistinct boundaries and have the appearance of being fused (Fig. 12). At present, there are two theories proposed for this texture. First, the micrite matrix recrystallizes (Schwarzacher, 1961) and secondly, the mud particles disintegrate early and fuse during compaction. The latter theory is commonly preferred (Illing, 1954; Bachmann, 1973; Flugel, 1982). It has been postulated that boring organisms and detritus-feeders may contribute significantly to the origin of the clotted structure (Flugel, 1982).

Micritization is an early diagenetic condition which affects most skeletal material. A wide range of alteration occurs, from thin micritic envelopes to completely micritized grains. Other diagenetic processes include patchy spar cementation and recrystallization, silicification, stylolitization and microspar formation.

The biomicrites are characterized by a high faunal content, abundant lime mud and micritization of allochems. The skeletal fauna characteristically inhabit a low-energy, well-oxygenated, normal salinity environment. Based on the preserved fauna, the environment was conducive to attached organisms. The abundance of lime mud also suggests that the biomicrites probably accumulated under low-energy subtidal conditions below wave base.

Recent investigations include several different interpretations for the accumulation of lime mud. Modern lime muds are accumulating below wave base in low-energy environments of Shark Bay (Davies, 1970), the Persian Gulf (Purser, 1973), the Bahamas (Shinn et al., 1969; Cloud, 1962) and British Honduras (Matthews, 1966). These modern muds are commonly derived from the breakdown of skeletal material (Cloud, 1962; Matthews, 1966; Stockman et al., 1967; Davies, 1970). Stockman et al. (1967) discussed the importance of micrite production by algae in the Florida Bay. In addition to algal influences, other organic processes

are thought to exist. Biological abrasion, such as rasping by gastropods and the intestinal grinding of sediment-injesting organisms might produce significant amounts of fine material (Stieglitz, 1973; Flugel, 1982). Two principle bacterial processes, sulfate reduction and ammonia formation, can result in the formation of excess HCO3 aq in sediment pore waters from the reaction of sulfide and ammonia with bacteriogenic CO2. This excess bicarbonate may cause the precipitation of CaCO3 (Berner, 1971).

Davies (1970) noted that sea grasses in Shark Bay influence the depositional environment by: 1) accumulating skeletal carbonate material from the seagrass community, 2) reducing current movement near the bottom forming a layer of still water in which clay- and silt-sized particles can accumulate and, 3) the binding of sediments by seagrass root systems. It may be possible that dense stands of fenestellid bryozoan communities in the Girkin and Cove Creek could have served as limited baffles which may have contributed to lime mud accumulation.

DEPOSITIONAL MODEL

Four facies, representing distinct environmental conditions, have been identified in the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones of Washington County, Virginia. It is suggested that these Upper Mississippian carbonate-siliciclastic sediments were deposited on a homoclinal carbonate ramp.

In general, a ramp (Fig. 13) is a gently sloping platform (generally less than 1°) that extends basinward without a pronounced break in slope (Ahr, 1973). Shallow, wave-agitated facies of the nearshore zone pass downslope into deeper water, low energy deposits (Ahr, 1973; Read, 1982). They differ from rimmed shelves in that continuous reef trends are absent and buildups are separated and discrete. Ramps generally develop at times of tectonic or climatic crises in which reef formers are poorly represented (James, 1979).

Homoclinal ramps are characterized by uniform slopes dipping into the basin. They generally lack significant gravity flow deposits and slumps in deeper-water facies as compared to periplatform deposits (Read, 1982). Homoclinal ramps are located well landward of the continental-ocean crust boundary on continental margins, on underthrusting continental crusts in foreland basins, or in continental interiors (Read, 1985).

The calcareous mudrocks of the Girkin and Cove Creek are composed of various mixtures of carbonate and siliciclastic materials. These sediments are interpreted as shallow, nearshore, low-energy deposits

Wave Base	
	Calcareous Mudrocks
	Oosparites

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Figure 13. Homoclinal ramp model.

where coastal systems acted as a transport mechanism, mixing carbonates and siliciclastics. These sediments are similar to tidal-flat deposits, however, typical tidal-flat sedimentary and diagenetic features are lacking. It is possible that the argillaceous mud retarded early cementation, dolomitization, and extensive algal mat development. Simonson and Walker (1984) indicate mixed carbonate-siliciclastic tidal-flat complexes exhibit soft sediment deformation and diffuse burrows. These sediments had high water content far longer than would be expected of pure carbonates.

Oosparites were deposited seaward of the calcareous mudrocks in a shallow, highly agitated area of the carbonate ramp. They may have formed as discontinuous bars or shoals at or near wave base.

The biomicrites contain the most abundant remains of diverse, open marine organisms of all the other facies. The organisms served as sediment producers and, perhaps, as sediment bafflers and binders. The biomicrites formed below wave base, basinward of the oosparites and calcareous mudrocks. Micritic intraclasts may have formed when storms passed over the ramp.

Calcareous sandstones are cross-bedded quartz sediments containing a paucity of fossil material. They are indicative of a high-energy, nearshore environment and represent significant clastic input during Late Mississippian time. Due to the lack of characteristic sedimentological evidence, a definitive depositional environment is not proposed. However, they may represent tidal channel deposits or strandline accumulations.

GEOLOGIC HISTORY

The Vertical distribution of facies (Fig. 14) reflects the cyclic nature of these Upper Mississippian sediments. The cyclic pattern is the result of changing environmental parameters. The lithologic sections also illustrate the complicated lateral variations in the two sections, making correlation difficult. This complexity suggests local variation in the coastal environment rather than regional changes resulting from periodic uplift of a southeastern highland, episodes of basin subsidence, and fluctuations in eustatic sea level. The general trend of a shallowing upward sequence as demonstrated by the Girkin and Cove Creek is, perhaps, more related to these factors.

The majority of terrigenous clastics in Girkin and Cove Creek sediments was derived from the erosion of metamorphic and sedimentary highlands to the east and southeast (Cooper, 1964). As these highlands were eroded, streams swept large amounts of detritus to the west and northwest where the sediments were winnowed and sorted by waves and currents. During Girkin and Cove Creek time, broad tidal flats of mixed siliciclastic-carbonate sediments formed as terrigenous sediment from the eastern highland source mixed with basin carbonates. Minor variations in terrigenous influx could account for local coastal displacement.

As sediments were accumulating within the Appalachian basin, local areas of downwarping occurred. Isopach maps of the Greendale Syncline indicate Chester age rocks were thicker in the syncline than in adjacent



areas (Cooper, 1964). This suggests that local folding occurred during the deposition of the Girkin and Cove Creek strata and as the syncline increased in size, it acted as a trap for detritus eroded from the adjacent boarderlands. Fluctuations in the rate of subsidence, as well as the rate of clastic influx, may have resulted in the lateral migration of facies, thus, acting as a mechanism responsible for cyclic variations.

Regionally, it is evident that the source areas were uplifted and large amounts of material accumulated to form a large coalescing delta complex (Pennington Formation). These clastics were confined to the eastern portion of the basin during early Chester time (deWitt and McGrew, 1979). By late mid-Chester time a delta-alluvial plain was formed and the westward expanding wedge of detritus had displaced the Chester sea to the west. During late Chester time, the seas continued to retreat to the west and southwest as a result of the ever expanding delta. By the end of Chester time, the sea had withdrawn from all but the extreme western part of the basin (deWitt and McGrew, 1979).

Vail et al. (1977), devised a sea level curve which reflects global cycles of relative changes in coastal onlap through geologic time. During Late Mississippian time a second order regressive cycle is recognized. This is consistent with the present data which illustrate a prograding deltaic wedge which displaced a late Chesterian sea to the west.

Lithologic evaluation suggests that argillaceous sediments of the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones formed in response to continued development of a delta sequence to the east. As fluvial transport systems matured, the accumulation of mixed siliciclastic-carbonate rocks

resulted. Since clastics of the Pennington sequence overlie Girkin and Cove Creek sediments it is plausible to suggest these two formations represent a transition between carbonate and clastic sequences in both environment and lithology. Cyclic successions within the Girkin and Cove Creek are oscillations that represent local transgressive-regressive sequences superimposed on a broad offlapping succession.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

1) Sediments were deposited on a homoclinal ramp on which subtidal, low-energy biomicrites grade up slope into oolitic sediments characteristic of a shallow, highly agitated shoal. The nearshore calcareous mudrocks are indicative of intertidal to tidal-flat sediments. Calcareous sandstones are indicative of a high energy, nearshore environment, possibly tidal channels or strandline accumulations.

2) Cyclic depositional patterns formed in response to changing environmental parameters. Periodic uplift of a southeast highland, episodes of basin subsidence, and fluctuations in eustatic sea level contributed to the environmental changes recorded in this sequence.

3) Diagenesis within the Girkin and Cove Creek Limestones began shortly after deposition in the marine environment with micritization of carbonate grains and the formation of pyrite. Mechanical compaction and initial cementation by isopachous rim cements began soon after deposition. With subsequent burial, several diagenetic processes were active including pressure solution and the precipitation of syntaxial, blocky and drusy cements. These cements may have been associated with freshwater lenses in connection with the development of the Upper Mississippian-Pennsylvanian clastic wedge. Dolomitization, pressure solution and fracturing occurred with continued burial. Microspar formation and silicification are also present in Girkin and Cove Creek sediments.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Measured Sections

Holston Section

Unit		Cumulative Thickness(meters)	Interval Thickness(meters)
Cove	Creek Limestone (272.8m)		
1.	Light gray calcareous		
	mudrock.	0-8.2	8.2
2.	Light gray calcareous		
	sandstone.	8.2-11.3	3.1
3.	Light gray calcareous		
	mudrock, bioturbated.	11.3-17.7	6.4
4.	Light gray calcareous		
_	sandstone	17.7-19.8	2.1
5.	Dark-Red-Brown oosparite,		
	medium-to thick-bedded,	10 0 00 0	
	tossiliterous.	19.8-22.9	3.1
6.	Brownish gray Biomicrite,		
	thick-bedded, abundant	00 0 05 (0 7
7	bryozoans and echinoderms	. 22.9-25.6	2.1
/.	Medium-light gray		2 1
0	calcareous sandstone	23.6-28.7	3.1
٥.	Light gray-medium-light		
	gray calcareous mudrock,	<i>i</i> 1 <i>c</i>	
	medium-bedded, trace loss	11S, 29 7 / 2 0	1/. 2
0	Dioturbated.	20.7-43.0	14.3
9.	andatono	1.2 0 1.1. 8	1 9
10	Madium-light gray Rigmier	43.0-44.0	1.0
10.	thick-boddod abundant	ILE,	
	bryozoons and achinodorms	44 8-61 0	16.2
11	Medium gray calcareous	. 44.0-01.0	10.2
	mudrock laminated		
	hioturbated	61.0-87.5	26.5
12.	Medium-light grav	01.0 07.9	20.5
	calcareous sandstone.		
	medium-to thick-bedded.	87.5-90.8	3.3
13.	Medium-light gray calcare	ous	
	mudrock, laminated, trace		
	fossils, N65E 25SE.	90.8-95.1	4.3
14.	Medium-light gray, calcare	ous	
	sandstone, minor		
	dolomitization, moderatel	y-	
	poorly sorted.	95.1-99.7	4.6
15.	Light olive gray calcareo	us	
	mudrock, cryptalgal		
	laminations, trace		
	bryozoans.	99.7-117.9	18.2

		Cumulative	Interval
Unit		Thickness(meters)	Thickness(meters)
16	Medium-light grav		
10.	calcareous sandstone	117.9-120.4	2.5
17.	Medium-light grav	11,00 1200	210
	calcareous mudrock, thin.		
	wavy, laminations,	, ,	
	flaggey.	120.4-159.1	2.5
18.	Black, fissile shale with		
	slickensides.	159.1-160.6	1.5
19.	Medium-light gray		
	calcareous mudrock, trace	2	
	bryozoans and echinoderms	s.160.6-166.1	5.5
20.	Medium-gray Biomicrite,		
	thick-bedded, abundant		
	Bryozoans and echinoderms	5,	
	trilobites brachiopode		
	ostracodes and mollusks.	166.1-172.2	6.1
21.	Medium grav calcareous	100.1 1/2.2	0.1
	murdock, wispy laminae.	172.2-189.9	17.7
22.	Medium gray biomicrite,		
	thick-bedded, abundant		
	bryozoans and echinoderms	5,	
	trace brachiopods, mollus	sks	
	and ostracodes.	189.9-196.0	6.1
23.	light gray calcareous	,	
	mudrock, tinely laminated	1,	7.2 7
2/	bloturbated.	196.0-269.7	/3./
24.	anlaarooug sandstono		
	moderately-poorly sorted		
	medium-to thick-bedded.	269.7-272.8	3.1
	medium co enier beddeet		0.11
Fido	Sandstone (15.2m)		
25.	Dark-red-Brown sandstone	0-15.2	15.2
Girki	n Limestone (231.6m)		
26.	Medium gray biomicrite,		
	bryozoans and echinodermy	3	
	trace for aminifers and	,	
	brachiopods.	0-62.2	62.2
27.	Dark-red-brown oosparite		
	medium-to thick-bedded,	,	
	moderately sorted.	62.2-71.0	8.8
28.	Covered.	71.0-128.0	57.0
29.	Medium-light gray		
	calcareous mudrock, fine	ly	
	laminated, bioturbated,		
	trace echinoderms and		
	bryozoans, N70E, 24SE.	128.0-231.6	103.6

Hayters Gap Section

	Cumulative	Interval
Unit	Thickness(meters)	Thickness(meters)
Cove Creek Limestone (82.3m)		
30. Light gray calcareous		
mudrock, finely laminat	ed,	
flaggey.	0-2.1	2.1
31. Light gray calcareous		
sandstone, minor dolomi	te,	
moderately sorted.	2.1-7.9	5.8
32. Light gray calcareous		
mudrock, finely laminat	ed,	
N55E, 72SE.	7.9-14.6	6.7
33. Light gray calcareous		
sandstone, medium-bedde	d 14.6-19.8	5.2
34. Medium-light gray		
calcareous mudrock,		
finely laminated.	19.8-67.7	47.9
35. Medium-brownish-gray		
calcareous sandstone,		
trace dolomite.	67.7-82.3	14.6
Fido Sandstone (15.2m)		
36. Dark-red-Brown sandston	e 0-15.2	15.2
Girkin Limestone (303.3m)		
37. Medium grav calcareous		
mudrock, silty, medium-		
bedded.	0-35.0	35.0
38. Medium-light grav		
biomicrite, abundant		
Bryozoans and echinoder	ms. 35.0-41.8	6.8
39. Light gray calcareous		
mudrock, trace intracla	sts 41.8-59.1	17.3
40. Medium grav biomicrite.		
abundant bryozoans and		
echinoderms.	59.1-84.1	25.0
41. Medium grav calcareous		
mudrock, trace intracla	sts.	
medium-bedded.	84.1-96.0	11.9
42. Medium grav biomicrite.		
abundant bryozoans and		
echipoderms trace		
brachiopode forame		
ostracodes	96.0-137.2	41.2
43. medium grav calcareous	2010 1011	
mudrock, finely laminat	ed. 137. 2-148.4	11.2
manual cont, renory ranting		

Unit		Cumulative Thickness(meters)	Interval Thickness(meters)
44. 45.	Covered Light gray calcareous mucrock, cryptalgal	148.4-162.5	14.1
1.6	laminations, bioturbated N59E,29SE	162.5-224.0	61.5
40.	abundant bryozoans and echinoderms.	224.0-229.2	5.2
47.	Medium gray calcareous mudrock, trace	229 2-239 9	10.7
48.	Medium gray biomicrite, abundant bryozoans and echinoderms, trace	223.2 233.3	10.7
49.	brachiopods and foraminifers. Light gray calcareous	239.9-244.1	4.2
	mudrock, medium bedded, trace byrozoans and echinoderms, medium-		
	bedded.	244.1-303.3	59.2

APPENDIX B

KEY TO APPENDIX B

SPAR	SPAR CEMENT
MICSPAR	MICROSPAR
DOL	DOLOMITE
OOID	OOLITHS
PEL	PELLETS
INT	INTRACLASTS
ECH	ECHINODERMS
BRACH	BRACHIOPODS
BRYOZ	BRYOZOANS
OST	OSTRACODES
FORAM	FORAMINIFERS
MOLL	MOLLUSKS
GAST	GASTROPODS
TRILO	TRILOBITES
QTZ	QUARTZ
FSP	FELDSPAR
PYR	PYRITE
HEM	HEMATITE
CHERT	CHERT
RF	ROCK FRAGMENTS
MATRIX	MATRIX
OTHER	OTHER
CARB	CARBONATE(CALCULATED)
INSOL	INSOLUBLE RESIDUES

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