to lacustrine sequence, which may be as thick as 16,000 ft (5 km) on the east side, thinning to a few thousand feet or to zero on the west where fault bounded. The Kishenehn formation contains lignite and oil shale beds which may be buried deep enough in parts of the basin to generate hydrocarbons; recent drilling discovered oil and gas shows at less than 200 ft (61 m).

The presence of oil and gas shows in many formation as well as the presence of major structures containing porous host beds indicates that this area has an excellent potential for the discovery of hydrocarbons.

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Dissolution of Plagioclase as Hydrocarbon Reservoirs

Plagioclase feldspar is an important contributor to reservoir porosity as indicated by studies of first-cycle Miocene basins of south Texas (Frio Formation) and southern California (Stevens Formation). In the former case study, volcanic plagioclase (An_{32}) exhibits secondary porosity with associated partial albitization. In the latter case, plutonic plagioclase (An_{30}) exhibits secondary porosity without albitization, although petrographically albite was stable with respect to the leach fluids. In both examples, dissolution was highly selective proceeding 2 to 3 times faster along cleavage planes than normal to them.

The dissolution by-product is chiefly kaolinite such that the overall reaction is $2H^+ + H_2O + CaAl_2Si_2O_8 = Al_2Si_2O_8(OH)_4 + Ca^{++}$. Formation water compositions indicate the leach reactions are occurring today at about $100^{\circ}C$ ($212^{\circ}F$).

Petrographic, microprobe, and mass balance calculations indicate that alumina is conserved on the scale of a thin section. Calcium is particularly mobile on a scale of tens of meters.

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Thermal-Mechanical Modeling of Early Paleozoic Miogeoclinal Sequences in Southern Canadian Rockies

We have applied 2-dimensional thermal-mechanical stretching models to palinspastically restored sections of the early Paleozoic miogeocline in the southern Canadian Rocky Mountains. Results of modeling suggest that the miogeocline consists of an inner easterly tapering wedge of mainly carbonate rocks over 200 km (124 mi) wide in which early Paleozoic tectonic subsidence was controlled mainly by thermal contraction as predicted by the passive margin model for the miogeocline. To the west lies a complex and much wider belt of uplifted, carbonate platforms and downfaulted shale-filled basins in which subsidence was episodic and probably controlled by recurrent movement along high angle or listric normal faults. The boundary between the two belts is the Kicking Horse Rim, a narrow northwest-trending reeflike tract of stacked algal complexes. Preliminary analyses of early Paleozoic miogeoclinal strata north and south of the southern Canadian Rockies suggest that these belts can be traced through most of the Cordilleran miogeocline.

We have analyzed stratigraphic relations within the inner carbonate belt east of the Kicking Horse Rim using one- and two-layer stretching models that include lateral heat flow and time-space dependent flexure. Each model was applied to three palinspastically restored cross sections of Upper Cambrian to Upper Ordovician strata restored to their original thicknesses and densities through time using delithification procedures we have developed for fully compacted lithologies in ancient basins.

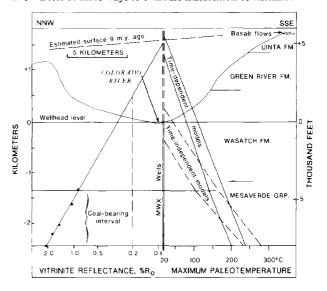
Both models (1) produce the overall shape of the carbonate wedge, (2) imply that thermal subsidence could not have begun earlier than about 550 to 600 m.y. ago, and (3) suggest an eustatic rise and fall occurred between Middle Cambrian and Middle Ordovician time. However, the widespread sub-Cambrian unconformity and the rapid eastward pinch-out of Early Cambrian strata within the carbonate wedge can be produced only by the two-layer model. In addition, lateral heat flow predicted by the two models at the outer edge of the carbonate wedge causes a small uplift whose position and timing could account for the sub-Middle Cambrian unconformity beneath the Kicking Horse Rim and shoaling required for growth of the algal complexes of the rim itself.

Both models imply that a hinge zone (zone separating crust thinned by stretching from crust of normal thickness) trended northward and lay close to the restored position of the McConnell thrust at about 52° lat. To the south at about 51° the hinge zone bends westward and at about 50° it lies along the westtrending St. Marys-Dibble Creek fault zone. We suggest that west-trending middle Precambrian high angle faults recognized along the St. Marys-Dibble Creek Zone controlled the position of a west-trending reentrant in the early Paleozoic margin. Between 52° and 51° the position of the hinge zone on a palinspastically restored base coincides closely with a distinct step in the depth to Moho indicated by refraction data. This relation may indicate that fundamental crustal structures of rifted margins such as hinge zones can be preserved in Moho topography over geologically long periods of time even where subsequent compressional events have occurred.

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Vitrinite Reflectance and Temperature Gradient Models Applied at a Site in Piceance Basin, Colorado

Two adjacent DOE multiwell experiment (MWX) boreholes were drilled to a depth of 2,520 m (8,268 ft) below the valley of the Colorado River near Rifle, Colorado. High quality vitrinite reflectance data ranging from 0.88 to 2.07% were obtained from cores from the Upper Cretaceous coaly interval (1,340 to 2,423 m; 4,396 to 7,949 ft). Remnants of basalt flows that cap highlands above the valley are 9 m.y. old, and 1,500 m (4,921 ft) of Eocene and Pliocene sediments have apparently been eroded from above the site by the Colorado River since the basalt was extruded. The excellent reflectance data and the geologic setting allow a test of three ways to evaluate maturation of vitrinite.



Logarithms of the reflectance values form a linear trend with depth. Extrapolation of this trend to 0.20% $R_{\rm o}$, a value thought by some to mark the normal surface intercept, reaches only 460 m (1,509 ft) above present ground, instead of the 1,500 m (4,921 ft) predicted on the basis of postulated erosion. Such a deep intercept would indicate that maximum temperatures were attained much more recently than the volcanism (and subsequent to removal of 1,040 m [3,412 ft] of sediment). If the plot is extended up to the $\pm 1,500$ m ($\pm 4,921$ ft) pre-erosion level, the intercept is only 0.08% $R_{\rm o}$, leading to an unlikely paleotemperature situation.

Time-independent models of the general dependence of reflectance on temperature yield a paleotemperature gradient of about 115° C/km and surface intercepts (20° C) of -350 to +250 m (-1,148 to +820 ft) relative to the present ground level. These models require that a strong heating occurred at the site at nearly the present time, and are not in accord with available facts.

Time-dependent models give a paleotemperature gradient of 50° to 65° C/km in the sampled interval (41 to 54° C/km in the overlying non-coaly section). Intercepts of 20° C are +1,300 to +1,700 m (+4,265 to +5,577 ft) above the present ground. These models agree logically with the present 46° C/km gradient across the sampled interval and the removal of 1,500 m (4,921 ft) of overburden, with maximum temperature just a bit after maximum burial. Of the three approaches tried, the time-dependent model is the only one which works in this situation.

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Hummocks—Do They Grow?

Now that hummocky cross-stratification is being more widely recognized in the stratigraphic record, investigators are speculating on the hydraulic conditions under which it forms. An accurate knowledge of the geometry of hummocky lamination is necessary if we are going to determine how it is produced.

I maintain that most if not all hummocky lamination is produced where sediment is draped over a scoured hummock-and-swale surface. As pointed out by several early workers, laminae thicken into the swales so that as sediment accumulates, hummocky laminae flatten out within a liminaset. Laminae tend to be parallel to the basal scoured surface. Although very low-angle tangential laminae are not uncommon, their relationship to the lower bounding surface is typically one of onlap. Several well-exposed hummocks in the Cape Sebastian Sandstone and Coaledo Formation, southwest Oregon, will be used to document my case.

It is imperative to recognize that hummocky bedsets consist of several to innumerable laminasets bounded by low-angle truncations. In some places the lower bounding surface of a hummocky bedset is essentially flat (but scoured), and the basal laminae are nearly horizontal. Laminasets above this basal set may show more curvature, but I maintain that they are bounded by scoured surfaces and that the apparent progression upward from flat to hummocky lamination does not reflect growth of hummocks. Hamblin and Walker in 1979 suggested that basal flat lamination was produced by a density-flow mechanism before storm waves resculpted the sea floor. An alternative explanation may be that the scouring ability of a single storm (or several storms in succession) may have varied with time, in some places beginning with conditions that produced a relatively flat sea floor.

Is there any convincing evidence that hummocks grow, i.e., that they develop by thickening of laminae beneath the crest? Thus far, only Hunter and Clifton in 1982 have convincingly illustrated, with a photograph, an example of laminae that thicken to form a hummock. Is this example a fluke? Can we

find more? Until there is further documentation of "growing" hummocks, I suggest that we avoid theorizing about how hummocks grow.

If, as I maintain, hummocky cross-stratification is essentially a scour-and-drape phenomenon, can we define its hydraulic significance? In the case of (smaller-scale) vertically climbing, current-ripple lamination, most workers believe that laminae form by fallout from suspension without traction. In the example of hummocky stratification, some authors have observed parting lineation separating hummocky laminae, which would argue *for* traction; others have noted the absence of parting lineation.

Can we explain the geometry of a hummocky scoured surface by the nature of the waves about it, i.e., are there predictable hydraulic conditions under which hummocky cross-stratification forms? Can we treat hummocks as bed forms that grow and/or migrate? Do observations concerning vertically climbing ripples in an unidirectional flow apply to conditions beneath a storm-wave surface? How important is unidirectional flow during formation of hummocky cross-stratification? Careful observation and documentation of the geometry of hummocky cross-stratification are necessary in our search for the answer to these questions.

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An Incipiently Drowned Platform Deposit in Cyclic Ordovician Shelf Sequence: Lower Ordovician Chepultepec Formation, Virginia

The Chepultepec interval, 145 to 260 m (476 to 853 ft) thick, in Virginia contains the Lower Member up to 150 m (492 ft) thick, and the Upper Member, up to 85 m (279 ft) thick, of peritidal cyclic limestone and dolomite, and a Middle Member, up to 110 m (360 ft) thick, of subtidal limestone and bioherms, passing northwestward into cyclic facies. Calculated long term subsidence rates were 4 to 5 cm/1,000 yr (mature passive margin rates), shelf gradients were 6 cm/km, and average duration of cycles was 140,00 years.

Peritidal cyclic sequences are upward shallowing sequences of pellet-skeletal limestone, thrombolites, rippled calcisilities and intraclast grainstone, and laminite caps. They formed by rapid transgression with apparent submergence increments averaging approximately 2 m (6.5 ft) in Lower Member and 3.5 m (11.4 ft), Upper Member. These submergence increments may have resulted from small (about 1 m; 3.2 ft) relative sea level rise, coupled with subsidence due to loading by water and accumulating sediment. Progradation of tidal flat facies did not occur until subsidence had ceased. Tidal flats were shifted westward from 70 to 380 km (43 to 236 mi) after each submergence event, but in peritidal sequences, had sufficient time to prograde back into the shelf.

Deposition during Middle Member time was dominated by skeletal limestone-mudstone, calcisiltite with storm generated fining-upward sequences, and burrow-mixed units that were formed near fair-weather wave base, along with thrombolite bioherms (subwave base to wave agitated shallow water settings). Locally, there are upward shallowing sequences, (subtidal cycles) of basal wackestone/mudstone to calcisiltite to bioherm complexes (locally with erosional scalloped tops). Apparent submergence increments during Middle Member deposition averaged 7.0 m (23 ft), ranging up to 23 m (75 ft) in southeastern belts. Following each submergence, carbonate sedimentation was able to build to sea level prior to renewed submergence. Large submer-