

# Recent cross-formational fluid flow and mixing in the shallow Michigan Basin

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## ABSTRACT

Ground water with total dissolved solids (TDS) ranging from 10 to >50 g/L exists at depths between 90 and 140 m in Devonian oil-bearing formations in the shallow Michigan Basin of southwestern Ontario. These formations comprise mainly limestone and dolomite, and the sources of the saline ground water have not been identified previously. Isotopic and major-ion data from ground water from Devonian oil-bearing formations in southwestern Ontario indicate that the highest-salinity fluids were emplaced locally from depths of several hundred meters. During the later stages of, or following, the Wisconsin glacialiation, saline water and petroleum were also emplaced into overlying Pleistocene clay-rich glacial deposits. Isostatic rebound leading to fracturing and enhanced formation permeability due to matrix expansion was probably the primary mechanism that enabled these saline fluids to migrate into discrete areas of the Devonian and Pleistocene formations. Variations in ground-water salinity from <10 to >50 g/L TDS over distances of a few hundred meters indicate that this cross-formational fluid flow from depth probably occurred along discrete fractures. Stable-isotope data coincident with the local meteoric water line indicate that leakage of moderately saline, recently recharged meteoric water has occurred since petroleum production began in the last century.

The geochemical data presented here support a model involving cross-formational fluid flow from depth occurring vertically on the scale of several hundred meters since glacialiation. The hydrogeologic

regime in this shallow basinal system must, therefore, be viewed as dynamic, rather than static, to depths of at least 500 m over a time frame of <10 000 yr.

## INTRODUCTION

Oil-bearing Devonian, carbonate-rich formations in the shallow eastern Michigan Basin host saline ground water at depths of <150 m. Clayton et al. (1966) and Dollar et al. (1991) showed that total dissolved solids (TDS) in ground water from these formations ranged up to 30 g/L and that the dominant ions were  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ . This composition contrasts with that of ground water in other shallow (<200 m depth), low-temperature (<25 °C) carbonate-rich environments. Ground-water samples from the Paha Limestone in South Dakota and Wyoming (Back et al., 1983) and Cambrian

and Ordovician carbonate rocks in western Pennsylvania (Langmuir, 1971) have TDS contents of ~0.5 g/L and are typically  $\text{Ca-HCO}_3$  or  $\text{Ca-Mg-HCO}_3$  waters. By contrast, ground water with TDS contents similar to, or greater than, those in the Devonian carbonate rocks of the eastern Michigan Basin is typical of deeper basinal systems. This research identifies possible sources of the saline fluids present in these oil-bearing formations and mechanisms by which these fluids could have been emplaced.

Proposed sources of salinity in ground water in sedimentary basins include original "marine" salinity or recharged evaporated sea water remaining in the system for long periods (Hitchon and Friedman, 1969; Carpenter and Trout, 1978; Connolly et al., 1990a, 1990b; Walter et al., 1990; Wilson and Long, 1993), mixing of ground water from sources with different salinities (Clay-

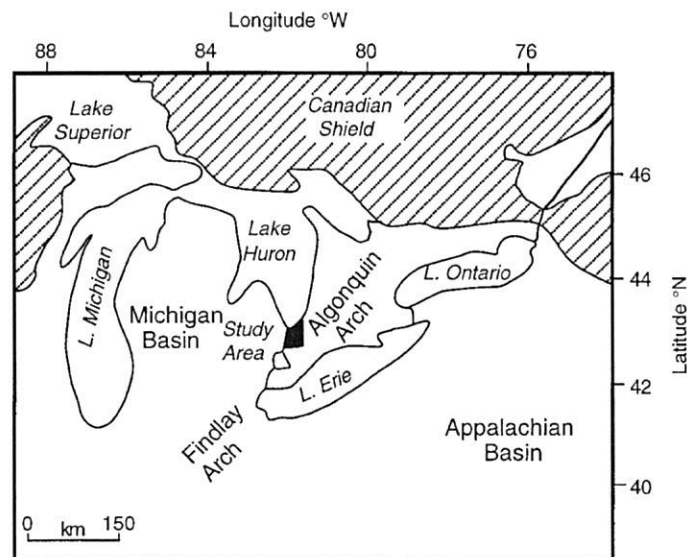


Figure 1. Location and structural setting of study area in southwestern Ontario, eastern Michigan Basin (after Ells, 1969).

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ton et al., 1966; Land and Prezbindowski, 1981; Hanor, 1988; Banner et al., 1989), and mineral dissolution. These mechanisms are discussed in this research.

The study area is in southern Ontario, where Devonian shale and carbonate rocks of the easternmost Michigan Basin underlie a thick glacial till sequence. Long et al.

(1988) described the presence of ground water with anomalously high salinities in shallow, unconsolidated sequences in the Saginaw Bay region of eastern Michigan and suggested that the salinity was derived by molecular diffusion from saline fluids in the underlying Devonian carbonate rocks of the Michigan Basin. Long et al. (1988), however, did not identify the origin or source of these deeper saline fluids. We present stable-isotope and major-ion data that have allowed identification of the processes controlling the sources of both water and its dissolved species in the oil-bearing Devonian formations in the study area. We also identify potential mechanisms and timing for these processes.

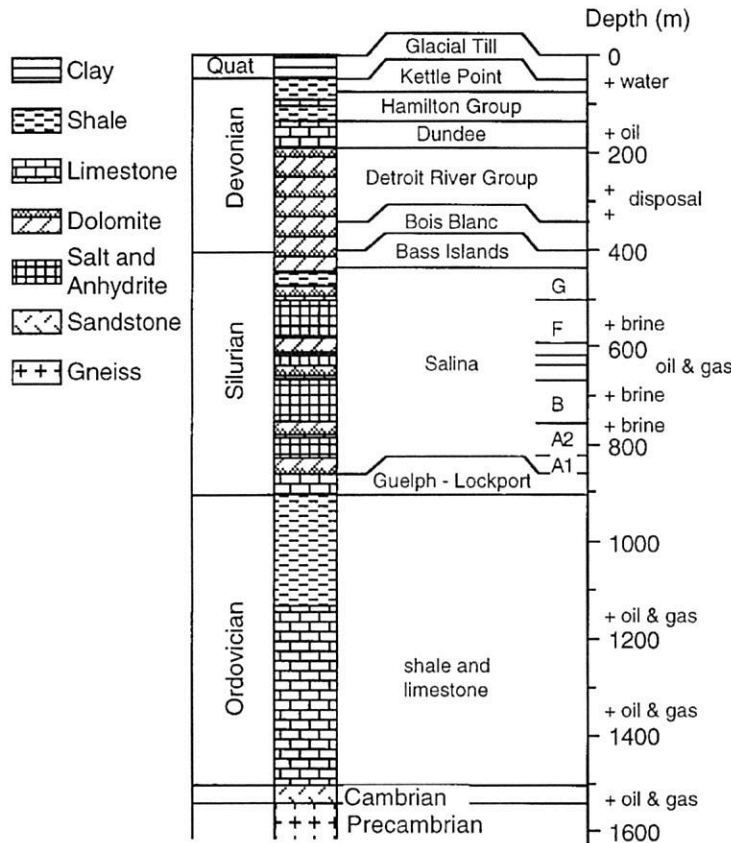


Figure 2A. Simplified stratigraphic section and major resource use of Paleozoic sequence and overlying glacial formations in southwestern Ontario (after O'Shea et al., 1988).

**GEOLOGIC SETTING AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND**

The study area is in southwestern Ontario on the easternmost flank of the Michigan Basin. The Findlay and Algonquin arches in the Precambrian basement to the east form the boundary between Paleozoic sedimentary rocks of the Appalachian and Michigan Basins (Fig. 1). The Devonian formations in this region are part of a thick, gently westward-dipping Paleozoic sequence that extends from the Precambrian basement and includes Cambrian sandstone, Ordovician shale and carbonate rocks, Silurian carbonate rocks and evaporites, and Devonian limestones, dolomites, and shales (Fig. 2A). Petroleum in the Devonian Dundee Formation and uppermost Detroit River Group is found in structural traps where the carbon-

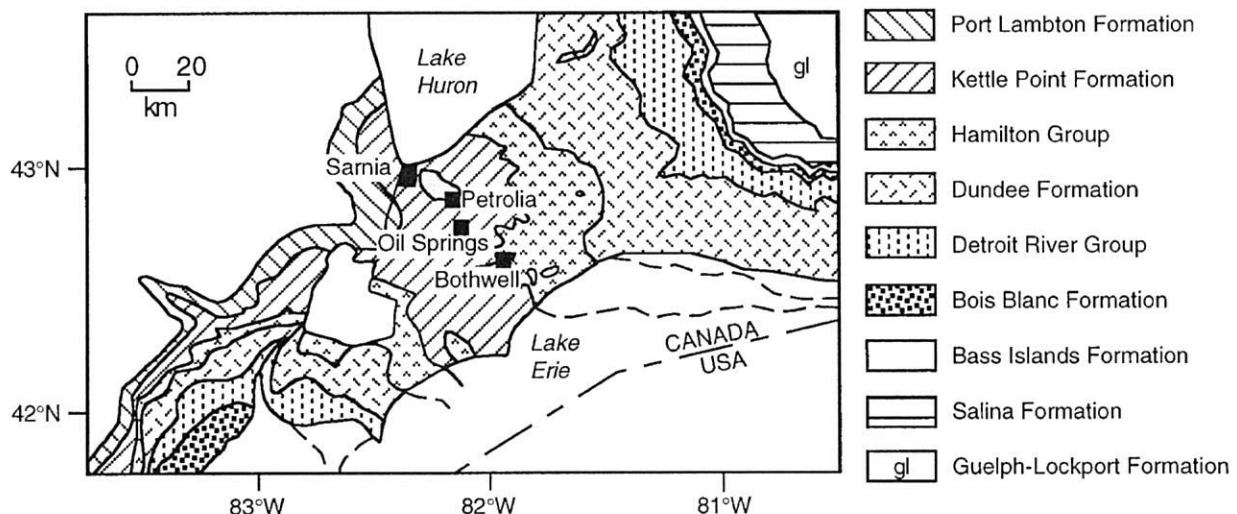


Figure 2B. Subcrop map and sampling locations in southwestern Ontario (after Brigham, 1971).

ate rocks have been fractured due to variable dissolution and karstic collapse of underlying Silurian evaporites (Brigham, 1971; Bailey Geochemical Services and Cochrane, 1985). Throughout the study area, the Dundee Formation is overlain by the Hamilton Group and Kettle Point Formation (Fig. 2B), a thick sequence of Devonian shale and shaly limestone dominated by low hydraulic conductivities of  $\sim 10^{-10}$ – $10^{-8}$  m/s (Raven et al., 1989; Weaver, 1994). The shale, in turn, is overlain by 15–40 m of glacial clay till that is characterized by hydraulic conductivities of  $10^{-10}$ – $10^{-9}$  m/s (Desaulniers et al., 1981; Weaver, 1994).

Karstic dissolution of Silurian evaporites and the presence of oil and gas throughout Cambrian-Devonian sequences indicate that several major episodes of fluid movement have occurred in the region during the geologic past. The extent of dissolution in the Silurian evaporites varies across the region and may be related to regional-scale lineaments or fractures that developed during the Paleozoic, and are oriented predominantly northeast-southwest and north-west-southeast (Fig. 3), cutting across the Paleozoic sequence (Sanford et al., 1985). Differential collapse of overlying Devonian formations occurred sporadically throughout the Late Devonian Period (Brigham, 1971; Bailey Geochemical Services and Cochrane, 1985), and the regional fractures could have provided pathways for the large volume of fluids required to dissolve sufficient amounts of halite and anhydrite from the Silurian formations to promote collapse. This fracture network may also have provided the pathways necessary for the migration of petroleum and associated fluids into the overlying structural traps in the Dundee Formation. The chemistry of the oil produced from these reservoirs indicates a common source for the petroleum (Powell et al., 1984); however, Powell et al. (1984) were unable to identify the source or to specify the time of emplacement of the oil. Major episodes of fluid movement involving the oil-bearing Dundee Formation and Detroit River Group occurred during the Middle-Late Devonian and during later petroleum migration. Additionally, large volumes of petroleum and saline fluids migrated through the Pleistocene clay-rich till overlying the Devonian sequence. Large-scale diffusion-dominated transport (Desaulniers et al., 1981, 1986; Weaver, 1994) and the limited occurrence of petroleum deposits in the till indicate that advective movement of petroleum and saline fluids in the till was proba-

bly limited to localized areas in the oil-producing regions.

### SAMPLING AND ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES

Ground-water samples were collected from 32 operating oil wells in Lambton County, southwestern Ontario, to determine the major-ion and isotopic composition of saline ground water in the shallow Devonian oil-bearing formations. These wells are open to the Dundee Formation and the uppermost Detroit River Group at depths of  $\sim 100$ – $120$  m, are completed with packers that isolate the oil-producing zone, and are cased through the till to the bottom of the Hamilton Group, cutting off overlying water-bearing zones. The integrity of the packers and casings is tested regularly. The sampled wells are located in eight separate oil fields in three carbonate-hosted Devonian oil-producing regions: Bothwell, Petrolia, and Oil Springs. These regions lie along a trend coincident with lineaments described by Sanford et al. (1985) (Fig. 3). Oil in the Petrolia, Oil Springs, and Bothwell regions was discovered in the glacial till and Devonian bedrock units in the 1860s and continues to be produced from the Dundee Formation and the uppermost Detroit River Group at depths of  $\sim 90$ – $140$  m (Fairbank, 1953; Bailey Geochemical Services and Cochrane, 1985).

Where possible, ground-water samples were collected at the well head; otherwise,

they were collected from individual lines where they entered collection and separation tanks. The aqueous component was separated from the oil using methods based on those described by Lico et al. (1982). Water samples were separated, filtered, and preserved as necessary, and pH, temperature, bicarbonate alkalinity, and specific conductivity were measured in the field.

Ground-water samples were analyzed for major ions in the Water Quality Laboratory at the University of Waterloo. Cations and silica were analyzed by atomic absorption, and chloride, sulfate, and bromide were analyzed by ion chromatography. Detection limits for major-ion analyses were 0.01 mg/L for  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Br}^-$ , and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , 7 mg/L for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (from alkalinity), 0.02 mg/L for  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$ , 0.05 mg/L for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , 0.10 mg/L for  $\text{Sr}^{2+}$ , 0.005 mg/L for  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , and 2 mg/L for  $\text{Si}^{4+}$ . Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was analyzed by the Organic Geochemistry Laboratory at the University of Waterloo. A comparison of DOC with alkalinity indicated that organic acids did not contribute significantly to alkalinity in these samples.

Samples for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  analyses were filtered and heated under paraffin wax prior to analysis to remove any remaining organic compounds from the aqueous phase.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  analyses were performed using methods for the analysis of saline fluids described by Fritz et al. (1986). Precision, based on internal standards, is better than  $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and better than  $\pm 2.0\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^2\text{H}$ .  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in sulfate were deter-

**Figure 3. Fracture and fault system across southwestern Ontario, proposed by Sanford et al. (1985). Fracture trend A–A' is parallel and close to trend along which the four oil-producing areas sampled in this study are located. Oil-producing regions sampled during this research are (1) Petrolia, (2) Oil Springs, and (3) Bothwell.**

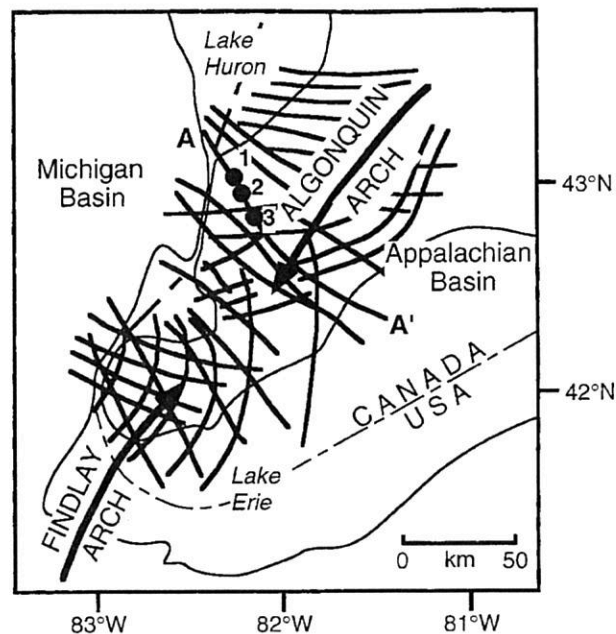


TABLE 1. MAJOR-ION AND STABLE-ISOTOPE GROUND-WATER CHEMISTRY OF DEVONIAN AND UPPER DETROIT RIVER GROUP OIL-BEARING FORMATIONS

Well name	Formation	Ca <sup>2+</sup> (mg/L)	Mg <sup>2+</sup> (mg/L)	Na <sup>+</sup> (mg/L)	K <sup>+</sup> (mg/L)	Sr <sup>2+</sup> (mg/L)	Si <sup>4+</sup> (mg/L)	Cl <sup>-</sup> (mg/L)	Br <sup>-</sup> (mg/L)	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> (mg/L)	HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> (mg/L)	TDS (mg/L)	% Error	pH	δ <sup>18</sup> O (‰ SMOW)*	δ <sup>2</sup> H (‰ SMOW)*	δ <sup>34</sup> S(SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ) (‰ CDT) <sup>†</sup>	δ <sup>18</sup> O(SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ) (‰ CDT) <sup>†</sup>	δ <sup>34</sup> S(H <sub>2</sub> S) (‰ CDT) <sup>†</sup>	<sup>3</sup> H (TU) <sup>‡</sup>
<b>Petrolia</b>																				
PD-COCH	Dundee	1180	715	3470	91	22.7	3.98	8650	57.7	1700	264	16200	-2.33	6.50	-7.47	-47.6	31.3	17.1	-11.0	
PD-NORTH	Dundee	1580	898	4830	115	29.1	4.63	12000	90.9	2200	325	22100	-3.21	6.40	-6.85	-41.4	29.4	17.5	-14.9	
PD-RAL	Dundee	1580	908	4390	117	30.0	4.58	10900	78.3	2000	158	20200	-0.64	6.50	-6.84	-42.5	29.8	17.7	-16.7	2.4
PD-WEST	Dundee	1400	793	3870	105	26.4	4.39	9920	82.4	1940	258	18400	-2.97	6.50	-7.11	-46.2	31.9	17.4	-15.9	
RA-N	Dundee	1140	675	3420	85	24.3	4.08	8870	62.0	1380	348	16000	-3.92	6.50	-7.58	-48.8	31.7	17.0	-7.3	7.1
RA-NE	Dundee	1410	808	4360	105	27.9	3.95	11300	73.6	1810	247	20100	-4.57	6.45	-6.83	-45.6	31.8	17.1	-11.7	
RA-SE	Dundee	1490	858	4530	111	27.9	4.20	11500	78.5	1920	320	20800	-3.51	6.35	-7.20	-44.7	31.5	17.4	-13.1	
RA-SW	Dundee	1320	758	3970	100	24.5	4.51	10100	66.9	1690	308	18300	-3.48	6.50	-7.32	-48.7	30.1	17.5	-13.3	
LAI-1	Dundee	1270	818	3670	103	25.4	3.42	9500	58.5	1790	589	17800	-3.63	6.35	-6.60	-36.4	29.6	16.7	-8.8	
LAI-2	Dundee	1300	803	3520	102	25.5	3.53	8980	53.8	2010	548	17300	-2.97	6.40	-6.54	-43.2	27.6	16.2	-13.3	
LAI-3	Dundee	1220	773	3430	107	22.9	4.30	8240	43.7	2110	651	16500	-1.63	6.35	-6.43	-37.2	28.5	15.7	-11.6	<0.8
WB-11	Dundee	736	450	2100	62	51.4	4.11	5700	43.3	751	572	10500	-5.22	6.70	-8.48	-55.2	29.0	16.4	-12.9	
WB-2	Dundee	918	593	2620	76	20.8	3.78	7190	20.5	787	599	12800	-4.15	6.55	-8.22	-48.8	30.5	17.9	-9.4	7.2
WB-7	Dundee	1100	688	3090	88	21.8	3.58	8450	60.1	1320	512	15300	-5.03	6.55	-7.57	-48.0	29.7	16.7	-11.4	
WB-8	Dundee	1240	843	3590	111	26.8	4.02	9750	56.5	1230	536	17400	-3.21	6.40	-6.94	-41.8	33.7	18.0	-15.7	
<b>N. Oil Springs</b>																				
LBO-2	U. DRG <sup>#</sup>	1530	940	4030	131	33.8	4.20	11300	99.1	448	40	18600	0.47	6.65	-7.46	-52.6			-7.9	
LBO-3	U. DRG	1640	920	3130	125	35.1	3.20	10400	69.4	630	113	17000	-1.90	7.05	-7.16	-54.0			-11.6	
CFN-14	U. DRG	1310	608	2390	85	29.0	3.66	7990	66.1	796	219	13500	-5.16	6.05	-9.47	-63.3	30.8	17.7	-10.8	
CFN-A	U. DRG	1570	830	3170	123	35.0	4.16	9460	85.9	916	171	16400	-0.23	6.30	-8.99	-59.7	29.9	16.9	-12.6	
CFN-B	U. DRG	1190	673	2590	98	27.1	3.91	7810	60.5	398	297	13100	-0.79	6.40	-9.13	-59.8	31.5	17.6	-2.7	37.7
<b>S. Oil Springs</b>																				
CFN-161	U. DRG	5990	2750	10900	445	99.9	3.34	31400	277	1240	328	53400	4.79	5.95	-6.31	-83.5	24.5	15.3	-14.7	1.1
CFN-C	U. DRG	3830	2430	8690	307	69.5	3.66	27400	200	7601	221	43900	-1.04	6.10	-6.34	-38.4	26.2	17.6	-10.2	<0.8
CFN-E	U. DRG	4020	2270	8090	288	67.1	4.00	26800	216	1220	328	43300	-2.69	5.95	-5.89	-56.0	36.6	15.4	-17.6	
CFS-A	U. DRG	4320	2330	9330	311	69.5	3.71	30300	294	1390	345	48700	-4.10	6.00	-6.01	-76.2	26.0	16.2	-16.7	
CFS-B	U. DRG	4240	2270	9700	325	66.6	2.71	25500	202	1350	148	43800	4.91	5.95	-6.26	-48.8	26.4	15.4	-18.7	<0.8
CFS-C	U. DRG	3800	2160	8910	309	66.6	3.57	26600	195	941	206	43200	-0.74	6.10	-6.37	-48.4	28.2	15.2	-17.5	
CFS-D	U. DRG	3500	2150	8320	299	66.6	3.54	25700	187	808	421	41500	-1.93	6.05	-6.26	-68.0	28.5	15.3	-13.3	
<b>Bothwell</b>																				
LBH-1	Dundee	1700	1170	4450	152	32.0	5.11	13200	47.0	1400	157	22300	-3.24	6.75	-8.66	-59.0	33.8	16.7	0.1	
LBH-2	Dundee	2000	1320	4950	156	33.5	3.49	14300	86.0	2340	5	25200	-2.81	6.90	-8.78	-62.0	31.9	16.1	-3.7	
LBH-3	Dundee	1940	1340	4900	169	35.7	4.14	14100	96.8	2140	5	24700	-2.10	6.65	-8.15	-58.6	32.8	15.9	-2.4	<0.8
LBH-4	Dundee	1760	1300	5150	171	36.1	4.08	15000	86.0	1220	112	24800	-3.14	6.75	-8.08	-57.3	29.8	18.4	1.4	
<b>Aquifer</b>																				
R-AQ1	Lower till	59.5	33.3	189	3.65	2.74	9.07	351	3.44	1.64	289	945	-1.90	6.00	-17.12	-120.9				<0.8

\*SMOW = standard mean ocean water.

<sup>†</sup>CDT = Canyon Diablo troilite.<sup>‡</sup>TU = tritium units.<sup>#</sup>U. DRG = upper Detroit River Group.

mined based on the method of Sakai and Krouse (1971). δ<sup>34</sup>S of aqueous sulfate was determined according to the method described by Yanagisawa and Sakai (1983). Reproduction of an internal BaSO<sub>4</sub> standard is better than ±0.3‰. δ<sup>34</sup>S values for δ<sup>34</sup>S in sulfide were determined by analysis of Ag<sub>2</sub>S after aqueous sulfide was fixed in the field by the addition of excess Cd-acetate. δ<sup>18</sup>O and δ<sup>2</sup>H values are expressed relative to Vienna-standard mean ocean water (V-SMOW), and δ<sup>34</sup>S values are expressed relative to Canyon Diablo troilite. Enriched-<sup>3</sup>H analyses were performed on ground-water samples from 10 wells according to methods described by Taylor (1977). All isotopic analyses were performed by the Environmental Isotope Laboratory at the University of Waterloo. Results of analyses of ground water sampled during this research are presented in Table 1.

Core samples from the upper Dundee Formation and the overlying Hamilton Group and Kettle Point Formation were used to estimate the interstitial salt content of the matrix of these units (Thurston,

1991). Samples were ground to clay size, sieved, divided into two 100 g batches, and leached in 50 mL of deionized water at 25 or 60 °C for 10 days (Thurston, 1991). The equivalent concentrations of "readily soluble" salts that would be present in interstitial fluid within each formation were estimated from the water:rock ratio, formation porosity, and bulk density.

#### MAJOR-ION AND STABLE-ISOTOPE GROUND-WATER CHEMISTRY

The major-ion and stable-isotope chemistry of ground water from the oil-bearing zones in the Petrolia, Bothwell, and northern Oil Springs regions is relatively uniform, with TDS ranging from 10–25 g/L (Table 1). Chloride is the dominant anion, which increases as TDS increases, and sodium is the dominant cation. δ<sup>18</sup>O and δ<sup>2</sup>H values of ground water from these regions range from -9.5‰ to -6.4‰ and -63‰ to -37‰, respectively (Table 1).

Ground-water samples from seven oil wells in southern Oil Springs, however, have

distinct solute and stable-isotope compositions (Table 1). Like the wells in the Petrolia, northern Oil Springs, and Bothwell regions, these wells are completed in the lower Dundee Formation and upper Detroit River Group. Ground water in this region is up to twice as saline as that in the rest of the area and, unlike ground water from the other producing regions, δ<sup>2</sup>H values decrease markedly with increasing TDS (Fig. 4).

To explain trends in the major-ion and stable-isotope data in the ground water from the Devonian oil-bearing formations, the following features of the data must be accounted for: (1) the spread of data along the meteoric water line from δ<sup>18</sup>O = -9‰ to -6‰ and the high TDS (~10–25 g/L) of these samples; (2) the depletion in <sup>2</sup>H in the southern Oil Springs samples with respect to both other ground-water samples from the local Paleozoic sequence and ground water from other basinal systems; and (3) the trend of decreasing δ<sup>2</sup>H values with increasing salinity in the southern Oil Springs samples.

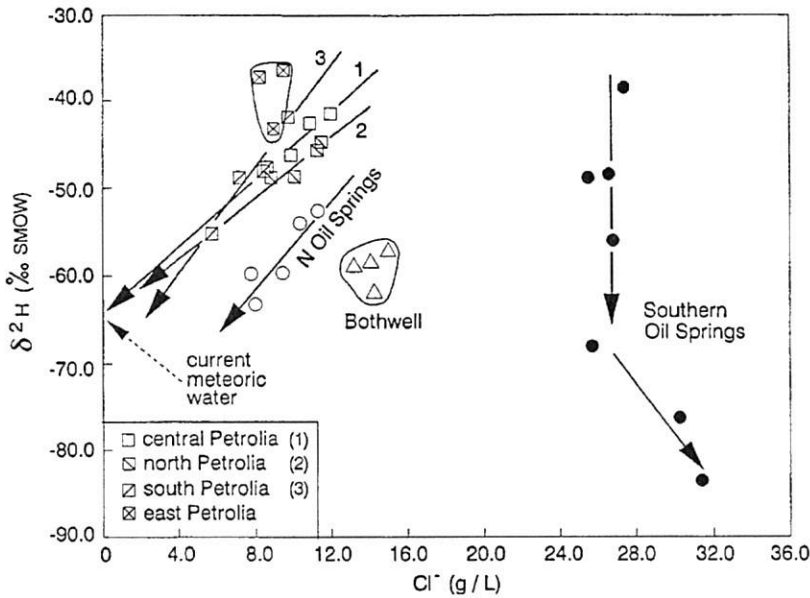


Figure 4.  $\text{Cl}^-$  (g/L) versus  $\delta^2\text{H}$  (‰ standard mean ocean water) for individual oil fields indicating dilution by meteoric water probably as a result of petroleum production practices, and distinct ground-water chemistry in southern Oil Springs.

**MODELS BASED ON STABLE ISOTOPES**

The influence of mechanisms such as water-rock interaction on brine development in several sedimentary basins has been evaluated using oxygen- and hydrogen-isotope data (Clayton et al., 1966; Hitchon and Friedman, 1969; Long et al., 1988; Banner et al., 1989; Connolly et al., 1990b; Stueber and Walter, 1991; Wilson and Long, 1993). Our study uses a similar approach to evaluate the degree to which mixing and water-rock interaction have affected ground-water chemistry in the oil-bearing Devonian formations of the shallow Michigan Basin in southwestern Ontario (Fig. 5).  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values act as conservative tracers of water in low-temperature environments, whereas major ions, other than  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Br}^-$ , are less likely to behave conservatively. Consequently, stable-isotope data were initially used to develop a model of mixing episodes and water-rock interaction. The extent to which the chemical compositions predicted using this model correlate with measured major-ion compositions was then assessed.

The isotopic signatures of ground water from southern Oil Springs plot significantly below the local meteoric water line described by Fritz et al. (1987) (Fig. 6). These samples have low  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values and relatively constant  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values, and  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentra-

tions tend to increase with decreasing  $\delta^2\text{H}$  (Fig. 4 and Table 1). In the Michigan, Illinois, and Alberta Basins,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  versus  $\delta^2\text{H}$  trends between the most and least saline

samples tend to have positive slopes (Clayton et al., 1966; Hitchon and Friedman, 1969; Frappe et al., 1989; Walter et al., 1990; Connolly et al., 1991b). In this study, however, the line between the most saline sample (region X; Fig. 6) and lower salinity ground water from the same oil field (region Y; Fig. 6) is approximately vertical, distinctly different from stable isotope versus salinity trends in ground water from other sedimentary basins.

A two-stage mixing model based on stable-isotope ratios in ground water could produce the trend in  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values and  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations observed in ground water from southern Oil Springs. The first stage involves mixing a saline and  $^2\text{H}$ - and  $^{18}\text{O}$ -enriched fluid initially with  $^2\text{H}$ - and  $^{18}\text{O}$ -depleted, low-salinity fluids (stage 1; Fig. 6). The isotopic signature of the most saline and  $^2\text{H}$ -depleted ground water sampled during this study was reproduced by mixing ground water with an isotopic signature similar to brine from the underlying Silurian A-2 salt (Dollar et al., 1991) (region S; Fig. 6) with ground water recharged under glacial conditions (region G; Fig. 6). Mixing these end members to produce the isotopic composition of ground-water X (Fig. 6) requires 45% A-2 brine (S) and 55% dilute, glacially recharged ground water (G).

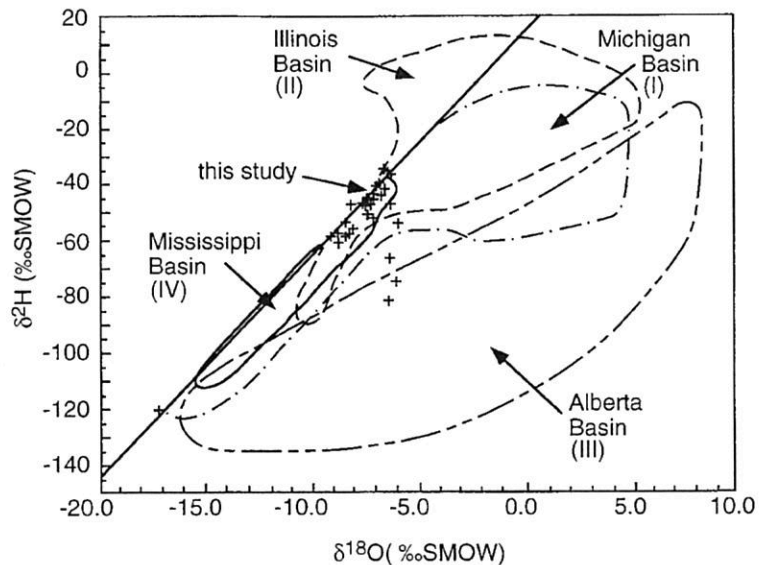
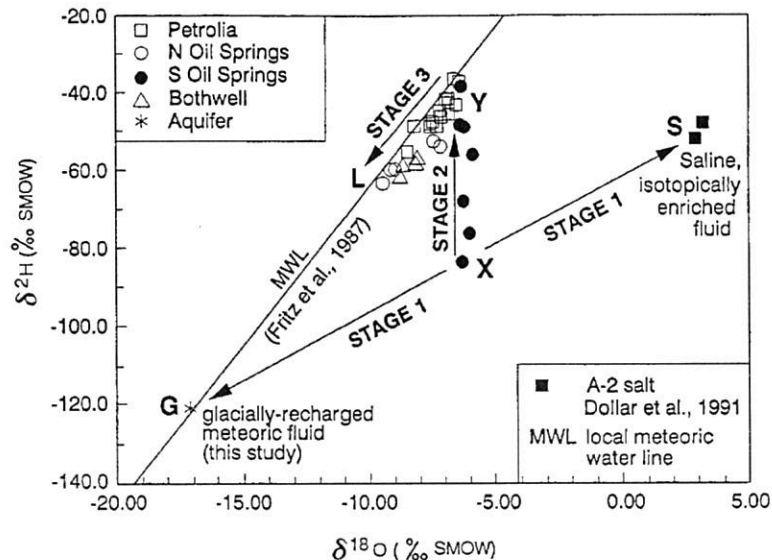


Figure 5. Stable-isotope compositions of basin brines, and ground water sampled during this research. Data, other than those collected during this study, are taken from Clayton et al. (1966) (I, II, III), Hitchon and Friedman (1969) (III), McNutt et al. (1987) (I), Stueber and Walter (1991) (II), Banner et al. (1989) (IV), Connolly et al. (1990b) (III), Dollar et al. (1991) (I), and Wilson and Long (1993) (I). The most saline ground-water samples analyzed during this research are deuterium depleted. In the other studies, salinity typically increases with increasing  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ .



**Figure 6. Multistage mixing model.** Deeper, more saline basinal fluids initially mixing with  $^2\text{H}$ -depleted, low-salinity fluids, and later mixing with local, recently recharged meteoric water. Isotopic composition of the most  $^2\text{H}$ -depleted sample from oil-bearing formations (X) (CFN-161, this study) may be reproduced by mixing fluid with an isotopic signature similar to that of brine from the A-2 salt (S) (Dollar et al., 1991) with ground water recharged during glacial conditions (G) (similar to sample R-AQ1, this study) along line in stage 1. This ground water then mixed with “formation” water in the oil-bearing formations (Y), producing a vertical mixing line (stage 2) between X and Y. Stage 3 represents dilution of ground water with water recharged under similar climatic conditions to the present (L). This could have resulted from petroleum production practices such as oil-field flooding, or from leakage through abandoned boreholes.

Other saline end members that could be involved in this mixing process include the Devonian Richfield Formation (Dollar et al., 1991; Wilson and Long, 1993) and the Detroit River Group (Wilson and Long, 1993) in central Michigan, which are at depths of  $>1.5$  km in the Michigan Basin. Although the isotopic signatures of brines from these units are similar to those of the A-2 salt, the Richfield Formation is absent from the study area. Isotopic values of brines from the Detroit River Group in the study area were not determined, because waste fluids were injected to this group in southwestern Ontario from the 1950s to the 1970s. It is unlikely that dense fluids from the central Michigan Basin were transported several hundred kilometers up dip into the study area, and it seems more feasible that locally derived fluids were involved in this mixing. Unless both a glacial component and a high- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , intermediate- $\delta^2\text{H}$  fluid are included in this model, the much lower  $^2\text{H}$  value of from well CFN-161 (region X; Fig. 6) cannot be duplicated by mixing fluids sampled from the shallow Michigan Basin in southwestern Ontario.

In the second stage of mixing (stage 2; Fig. 6), we consider that the fluid from stage 1 (X) mixes with fluid already present in the Dundee Formation. This stage involves the migration of saline-glacial fluid into the oil-bearing shallow Dundee Formation and Detroit River Group. Variations in the amount of mixing between the Dundee Formation water and the more saline, low- $\delta^2\text{H}$  water could result in the spread of isotopic data identified in samples from this area. Major-ion and stable-isotope data from this research and data from previous researchers (Clayton et al., 1966; Dollar et al., 1991) indicate that the fluid in the Dundee Formation prior to stage 2 mixing may be a diluted “formation” water (region Y; Fig. 6). The isotopic composition of ground water sampled from the Dundee Formation during this research falls within the field of Michigan Basin data (Fig. 5).

Most of the isotopic values of ground water sampled during this study plot on the local meteoric water line from  $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -6\text{‰}$  to  $-9\text{‰}$  (stage 3; Fig. 6). Current meteoric water in the region has an isotopic composition similar to that of region L

(Fig. 6) (Fritz et al., 1987). We attribute the spread of data along the meteoric water line (from  $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -6\text{‰}$  to  $-9\text{‰}$ ) to mixing with varying amounts of meteoric water recharged to the Devonian oil-bearing formations after petroleum production began during the 1860s. This mixing could have resulted from intentional oil-field flooding, from leakage between the surface or intermediate formations along fractures, or from leakage in poorly sealed or corroded wells. Stable-isotope and major-ion data for ground water from individual fields other than southern Oil Springs support the model of simple dilution by meteoric water (Fig. 4).

$^3\text{H}$  values above zero in several wells outside of northern Oil Springs (Table 1) indicate that some leakage of meteoric water to the oil-bearing formations has occurred in the past. If substantial leakage of meteoric water continued to the present, however,  $^3\text{H}$  values more similar to current meteoric water ( $\sim 50$  tritium units [TU]) would be expected. A  $^3\text{H}$  value of 37.7 TU in northern Oil Springs (from well CFN-14) indicates that leakage of meteoric water into the Dundee Formation has occurred in the vicinity of this well since the 1960s.

The trends in isotopic data from this study could also be produced by several other mechanisms, if a fluid similar to other Michigan Basin fluids (region Y; Fig. 6) had been diluted by local meteoric water and, in southern Oil Springs, is undergoing a process where increased mineral dissolution is accompanied by continued loss of  $^2\text{H}$  from the fluid. Processes such as the generation of hydrogen-bearing gases including methane or  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , however, would increase rather than decrease the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  value of the remaining fluid. If the original ground water present in the Dundee Formation were similar in composition to that sampled in southern Oil Springs (region X; Fig. 6), ground water sampled from other areas would have been derived from this water. It is unlikely that this fluid would remain only in a very local area of the formation. This fluid would also be isotopically distinct when compared with other Michigan Basin fluids (Clayton et al., 1966; Dollar et al., 1991; Wilson and Long, 1993) with an isotopic signature resembling fluids from the Alberta Basin. A model simultaneously incorporating all end-member fluid compositions in the multistage mixing model (glacially derived dilute water, isotopically enriched brine, and Devonian formation water) may also apply in this area; however, this would probably produce a

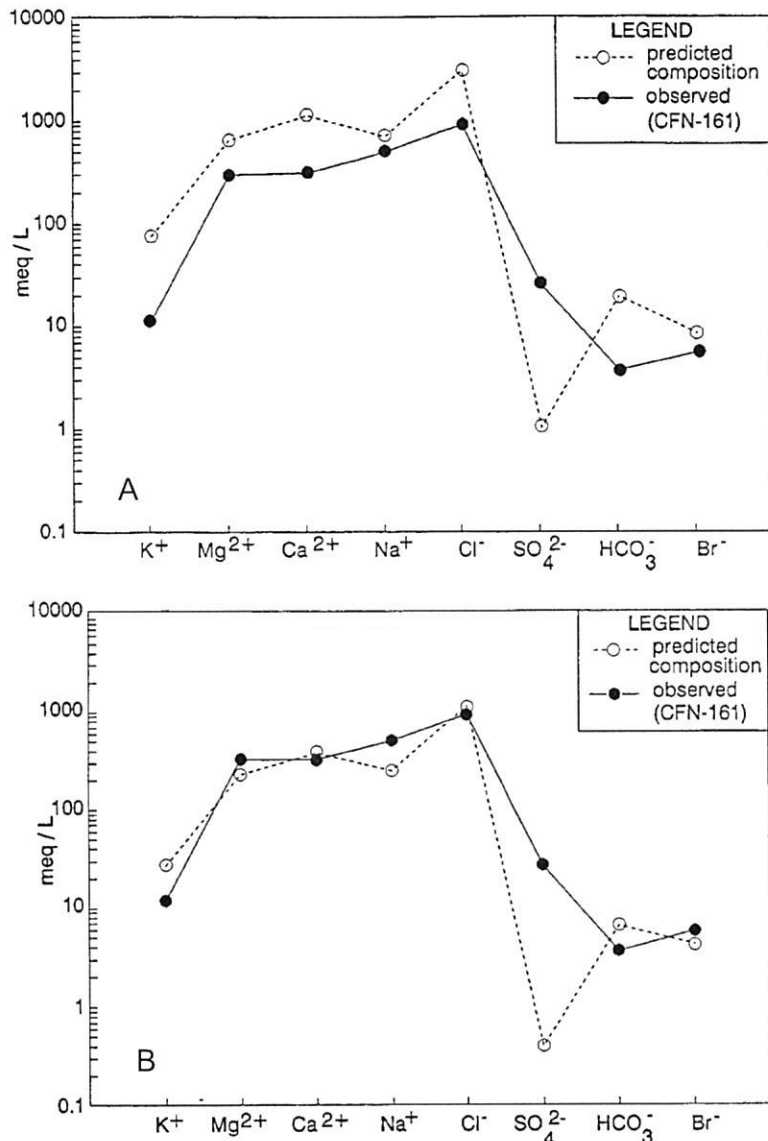


Figure 7. (A) Stage 1 mixing model with A-2 brine. Observed versus predicted ground-water composition. (B) Stage 1 mixing model with hypothetical fluid (diluted A-2 brine). Observed versus predicted ground-water composition.

more diverse range of stable-isotope signatures in the southern Oil Springs region than is indicated in this research.

#### Major-Ion Ground-Water Chemistry

The feasibility of the multistage mixing model determined from stable-isotope compositions was tested by comparing major-ion ground-water chemistry data from the area with results predicted from the mixing model. We focused on the more conservative components of ground water,  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Br}^-$ . The thermodynamically based model

PHRQPITZ (Plummer et al., 1988) was used to model mixing scenarios involving less conservative ions such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ .

**Glacial-Brine Mixing.** When low-salinity glacial fluid (e.g., sample R-AQ1) and a Silurian brine with a composition similar to the A-2 brine were mixed in the ratio indicated by the stable-isotope data, the resulting water was significantly more saline than sample CFN-161 (Fig. 7A; predicted  $\text{Cl}^- = 3 \text{ mol/kg}$  versus CFN-161  $\text{Cl}^- = 0.9 \text{ mol/kg}$ ). A less-saline fluid with a similar isotopic composition to the A-2 salt, Richfield For-

mation, or central-Michigan Detroit River Group could be present in the Silurian or deeper Devonian formations in the study area but may not have been sampled. Mixing a fluid with a similar isotopic composition to the Silurian A-2 brine and a similar but less-saline major-ion composition, with a glacially recharged low-salinity meteoric water (PHRQPITZ; Plummer et al., 1988) produced concentrations of  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  within 15% of the concentrations measured in sample CFN-161 (Fig. 7B).

Compared with samples from Petrolia, northern Oil Springs, and Bothwell, the  $\text{Br}^-$  versus  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  versus  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ratios of ground water from southern Oil Springs are offset from a simple dilution trend (Figs. 8A and 8B). Trajectories to ground water from both the A-2 and the F salts of the Salina Formation are shown in Figures 8A and 8B. The change in slope in the conservative ions  $\text{Br}^-$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  in ground water from southern Oil Springs result from mixing with a fluid with a major-ion composition similar to the A-2 salt. A break in slope between the same samples is also apparent in the  $\delta^2\text{H}/\text{Cl}^-$  ratios (Fig. 4). The change in slope occurs between different samples on the  $\text{Na}^+$  versus  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  plot, probably reflecting the less conservative behaviour of these ions. The major-ion geochemical modeling and trends in major-ion ratios further support a multistage mixing model which involves the migration of saline,  $\delta^2\text{H}$ -depleted fluids into shallow Devonian formations.

**Vertical Mixing with Deep Saline Brines.** Stable-isotope and major-ion data indicate that mixing occurred between saline, low- $\delta^2\text{H}$  water and significantly less saline, higher- $\delta^2\text{H}$  water already present in the Devonian oil-bearing formations. The mixing ratios required to reproduce the isotopic ratios measured in ground water from southern Oil Springs were determined from linear mixing between the most saline sample (CFN-161) and less saline fluids in that area. Unless a moderately saline fluid (TDS similar to CFN-C) is involved in this mixing model, the predicted solution chemistries are too dilute. We consider that water in the oil-bearing regions of the shallow Devonian formations was similar to CFN-C in composition before extensive dilution occurred as a result of petroleum production.

Stable isotopes of sulfates and sulfides also provide a comparison of fluid sources between the regions where water has entered the system from depth and regions where sulfate may have been derived from the host Devonian formations. Sulfur iso-

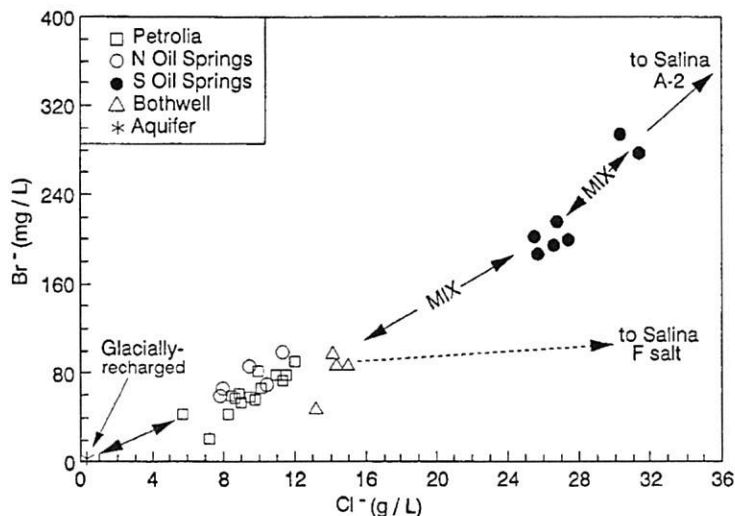


Figure 8A.  $\text{Br}^-$  (mg/L) versus  $\text{Cl}^-$  (g/L) indicating multistage mixing between less-saline ground water (Petrolia and northern Oil Springs) and saline ground water with a composition similar to that of A-2 brine (Dollar et al., 1991). Brine from the F-salt does not appear to contribute salinity to saline ground water in southern Oil Springs.

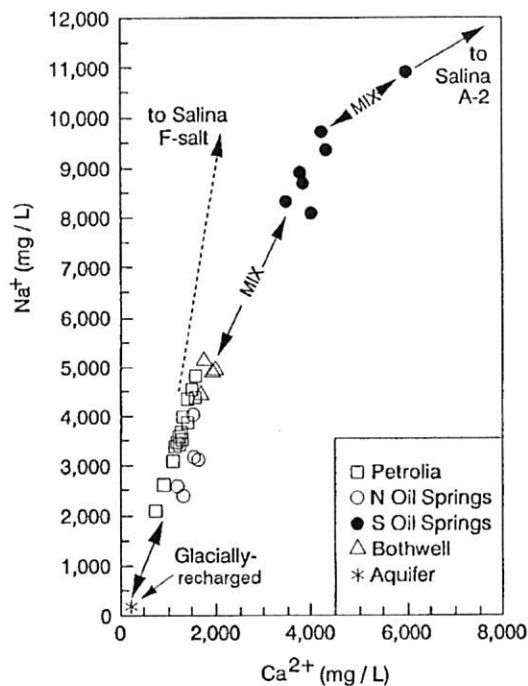


Figure 8B.  $\text{Na}^+$  (mg/L) versus  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (mg/L) indicating multistage mixing between less-saline ground water (Petrolia and northern Oil Springs) and saline ground water with a composition similar to that of A-2 brine (Dollar et al., 1991).

tops of sulfate in ground water from Petrolia, northern Oil Springs, and Bothwell are consistent with dissolution of gypsum from host Devonian formations (Fritz et al., 1988; Fritz et al., 1989) accompanied by bacterial sulfate reduction. Sulfate in ground water from southern Oil Springs tends to be depleted in  $^{34}\text{S}$  and  $^{18}\text{O}$  with

respect to ground water from Petrolia, northern Oil Springs, and Bothwell (average  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{(\text{SO}_4^{2-})} = 28.3\text{‰}$  [southern Oil Springs] versus  $31.1\text{‰}$  [other areas], and average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{SO}_4^{2-})} = 15.8\text{‰}$  [southern Oil Springs] versus  $17.1\text{‰}$  [other areas]; Table 1). If sulfate reduction has occurred in these fluids, these values would be within

the range expected for Silurian sulfates (Claypool et al., 1980); therefore, the stable-isotope ratios of sulfates in ground water from the southern Oil Springs region also indicate that both ground water and solutes have been emplaced into this area of the Dundee Formation from a different, probably Silurian formation.

**Dilution with Moderately Saline Meteoric Water.** The moderate salinity of samples along the meteoric water line, ranging from 10–25 g/L, and the  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations of 2–6 g/L inferred for water from northern Oil Springs and south Petrolia with a  $\delta^2\text{H}$  value similar to that of recent meteoric water (Fig. 4) indicate that the meteoric water that diluted these samples contained significant concentrations of solutes including  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Table 1). Possible sources for these solutes include mineral dissolution occurring along flow paths between the surface and the oil-bearing formations (e.g. Banner et al., 1989), diffusion of salts from the matrix of the Dundee Formation or the Hamilton Group into ground water in the oil-bearing formations, and dissolution of salts evaporated from oil-field water that was disposed of at surface in the oil-producing regions from 1860 to 1990. This water may have subsequently leaked into the Devonian oil-bearing formations.

Assuming a formation porosity ( $n$ ) of 0.1 and a bulk density of 2.0 for the Hamilton Group shale, leaching of ground Hamilton Group shale samples (Thurston, 1991) indicates that  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations in the interstitial fluids in these shales would be about 5–11 g/L. Lower interstitial fluid concentrations of 2–4 g/L were indicated from the results of the leached Dundee samples. These concentrations are only estimates; interstitial fluid concentrations would be expected to decrease in zones of higher flow and at the temperature of 11 °C in the shallow Devonian formation (compared with the laboratory temperature of 25 °C).

A two-dimensional, numerical solute-transport model representing flow in fractured and unfractured porous media (FRACSTRAN; Sudicky and McLaren, 1992) was used to evaluate the extent to which diffusion of salts from the rock matrix could contribute salinity to meteoric water leaking through fractures in the Hamilton Group shale units. The parameters used in this model were an effective  $\text{Cl}^-$  diffusion coefficient ( $D^*$ ) of  $5.9 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$  (Desaulniers et al., 1986); a matrix porosity ( $\phi$ ) of 0.1; a matrix hydraulic conductivity of  $1 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m/s}$  (Weaver, 1994); vertical hydraulic



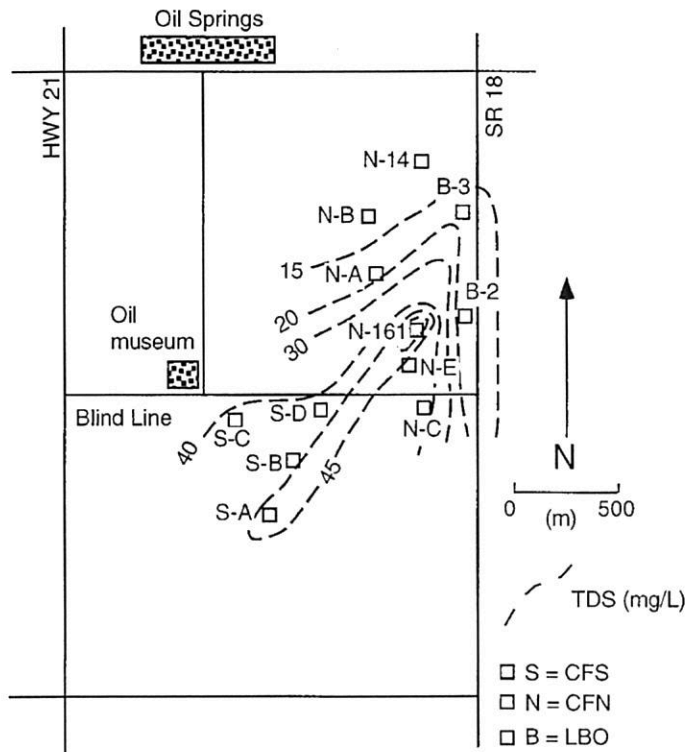


Figure 9. Contour map of total dissolved solids (TDS) (g/L) in southern Oil Springs.

gradients ranging from 0.5 to 0.7 (Raven et al., 1989; Weaver, 1994); an estimated fracture aperture ( $2b$ ) of  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  m; a fracture spacing of 20 m; a free-ion diffusion coefficient ( $D^0$ ) of  $17.1 \times 10^{-10}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s (Li and Gregory, 1974); and a dispersivity value ( $\alpha$ ) of 0.1 m in the fractures.

The model was run for a time ( $t$ ) of 100 yr, which represents the time since petroleum production started. Historical records indicate that wells that were initially gushers ceased to flow at the surface shortly after oil production began; therefore, the direction of hydraulic gradients probably reversed from upward to downward during the late 1800s (Weaver, 1994). When matrix diffusion was modeled with fresh water entering the vertical fracture network at the top of the Hamilton Group at  $t = 0$  and an assumed initial  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration in the matrix of 8 g/L (Hamilton Group shale units), the resulting  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations in meteoric water in the fractures and entering the Dundee Formation were on the order of 4–7 g/L. This is similar to the estimated range of  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations (2–6 g/L) in meteoric water recharging the system (Fig. 4).

#### MECHANISMS AND TIMING OF FLUID MIXING

The presence of petroleum and saline water in glacial till in the Petrolia and Oil Springs regions (Harkness, 1951; Fairbank, 1953) indicates that these fluids were emplaced during, or after, the Wisconsin glacial retreat at ca. 10 ka; therefore, upward hydraulic gradients between the oil-bearing Devonian formations and the surface would have existed at that time. Reports of newly drilled wells coming in as gushers during the 1860s at the start of the development of the petroleum industry (Harkness, 1951) indicate that, in the oil-producing regions, high fluid pressures and upward hydraulic gradients persisted in the shallow Devonian oil-bearing formations until petroleum production began. As drilling continued, upward hydraulic gradients dissipated, and downward, rather than upward, hydraulic gradients dominated the flow regime between the surface and the oil-bearing Devonian formations (Weaver, 1994).

In this research, stable and radiogenic isotopes, the major-ion composition of ground water, and historical information are used to constrain the mechanisms and timing of

fluid mixing and transport involving the Devonian oil-bearing formations. Geochemical data indicate that Silurian or Lower Devonian brines mixed with glacially recharged ground water and were then emplaced into the oil-bearing Devonian formations during or after deglaciation (Figs. 6, 8A, 8B). The limited occurrence of these low- $\delta^2\text{H}$ , high-TDS fluids (Fig. 9) implies that migration of the mixed brine/glacial fluid probably occurred along discrete fractures. Parallel studies by Coniglio et al. (1994) and Middleton et al. (1993) of the Ordovician strata of southwestern Ontario show that large-scale fluid flow in fractures and associated dolomitization dominated the area. Sanford et al. (1985) provide further evidence of a large-scale, predominantly vertical fracture network (Fig. 3) across the Paleozoic sequence.

Because glacially derived fluids were involved in mixing prior to their emplacement in the oil-bearing Devonian formations of the southern Oil Springs region, cross-formational movement of saline fluids into these formations must have occurred during, or after, the last glaciation. Lower  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  values, low  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values, high  $\text{Cl}^-$  contents, lower pH values, and more negative saturation indices (PHRQPITZ; Plummer et al., 1988) for ground water with respect to the host mineralogy in this area indicate that this localized influx of saline (possibly Silurian) fluids from depth may have continued since glaciation in this region. Mechanisms leading to mixing could have included diffusion due to chemical gradients (Long et al., 1988) or flow through fractures and higher-permeability porous media during periods of stress release such as deglaciation (Siegel and Mandel, 1984; Siegel, 1991; Raven et al., 1992). The localized occurrence of these anomalous fluids within the oil-bearing Devonian formations further indicates that saline fluid moved along fractures rather than by diffusion alone.

Isostatic rebound due to ice retreat at 10 ka occurred over  $\sim 8000$  yr (Fulton et al., 1984) and would have affected the formation pressures and consolidation states of the Paleozoic sequence and the overlying Quaternary deposits (e.g., Neuzil and Pollock, 1983; Neuzil, 1985) (Table 2). At the glacial maximum, the ice sheet covering the study area is assumed to have been 2–3.5 km thick (Paterson, 1972). Clark et al. (1990) indicate that, at 18 ka, the ground surface in the Port Huron area could have been depressed by as much as 450 m below its present surface elevation. Current vertical rebound rates are  $\sim 7$  cm/100 yr (Clark et al.,

TABLE 2. SUMMARY OF MECHANISMS DURING GLACIATION AND DEGLACIATION RESULTING IN CHANGES IN HYDRAULIC PARAMETERS AND FLOW RATES

Event and timing	Effect	Result	Hydraulic conductivity
Glacial loading (>10 ka)	Varying amounts of compaction. Increased compaction in shale, clay, and highly fractured formations.	Closed fractures. Decreased porosity. Fluid expulsion or increased fluid pressure.	Decreased bulk hydraulic conductivity ( $K_{bulk}$ ).
Deglaciation (10–8 ka)	Differential expansion on ice removal. Increased expansion in shale and clay.	Reactivated or new fractures formed. Increased porosity. Possible decrease in fluid pressure.	Increased bulk hydraulic conductivity ( $K_{bulk}$ ).

*Note:* Mechanisms such as gas generation which may contribute to overpressured conditions at depth are assumed to be consistent throughout glaciation and deglaciation.

1990; Tushingham, 1992). In addition to vertical rebound, James and Morgan (1990) suggested that horizontal rebound has occurred after deglaciation, and they calculated present-day horizontal rebound rates of  $\leq 2$  cm/100 yr in the Great Lakes region.

Upon deglaciation, bedrock and overburden sequences would have expanded at differential rates because of different formation compressibility values. In the lithified Paleozoic sequence, this expansion may have created new fractures or reactivated or enlarged existing fractures. In the unlithified

overburden, the expansion could have led to an increase in matrix porosity. In both cases, the bulk hydraulic conductivity of the previously ice-compressed formations would have increased, thereby resulting in increased ground-water flow rates within these formations. The changes in hydraulic parameters produced by deglaciation could have provided conditions under which cross-formational flow of saline fluids from depth could occur.

Meteoric water with low  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values could have entered the bedrock for-

mations where they subcropped under glacial deposits during glaciation or deglaciation and mixed with Silurian brines along fracture pathways. Reactivated fractures would have provided pathways for the glacial/saline fluid to enter the shallow oil-bearing Devonian formations (Fig. 10). Newly activated fracture pathways in the overlying Hamilton shales and increased permeability in localized areas of the glacial till could have enabled petroleum and saline fluids to migrate into these overlying units.

## SUMMARY

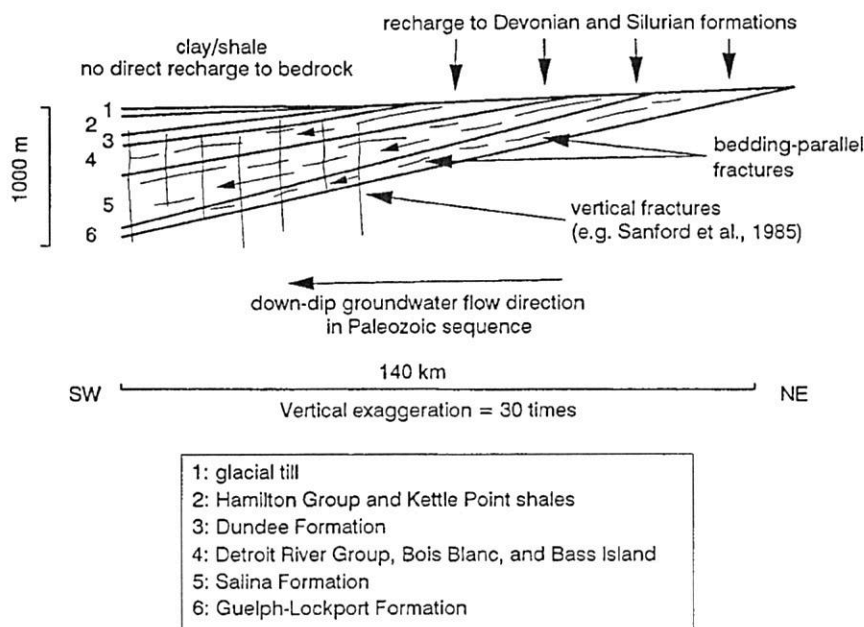
Major-ion and isotope data in ground water constrain the mechanisms and timing of the migration of saline fluids into Devonian oil-bearing formations in the shallow Michigan Basin. The earliest recognizable episode of fluid movement directly involving the Devonian sequence was the migration of petroleum into the region. Results of this research indicate that more recent cross-formational flow has occurred in the region. Saline, low- $\delta^2\text{H}$  fluids migrated vertically along fracture networks from depths of several hundreds of meters into the oil-bearing Devonian formations. This migration probably occurred during, or after, deglaciation. Consequently, the shallow Michigan Basin in this area should be viewed as a hydrogeologically active rather than static system.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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**Figure 10.** Conceptual model of fluid migration and mixing during and after glaciation. (1) Recharge of  $^2\text{H}$ -depleted ground water to permeable Devonian and Silurian formations during and after glaciation (e.g., Siegel and Mandle, 1984). Down-gradient migration of  $^2\text{H}$ -depleted ground water probably along bedding-parallel fractures. If transport occurred along fractures, this fluid would mix with fluid in formation matrix. (2) During deglaciation, horizontal and vertical fractures opened or were reactivated, allowing the vertical migration of fluid from depth. In the study area, a previously mixed glacial-brine fluid probably migrated from Silurian formations to the oil-bearing Devonian formations over vertical distances of about 400 m. (3) Continuing lateral migration of glacially recharged and more-recently recharged ground water down-gradient in Paleozoic units since glaciation.

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