

AN EOLIAN DUST ORIGIN FOR CLASTIC FINES OF DEVONO-MISSISSIPPIAN MUDROCKS OF THE
GREATER NORTH AMERICAN MIDCONTINENT—DISCUSSION

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1

2 **The following is our critique of the paper by McGlannan et al. 2022, on supposed eolian**
3 **contributions to Late Devonian black shales of North America:**

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5 MCGLANNAN, A.J., BONAR, A., PFEIFER, L., STEINIG, S., VALDES, P., ADAMS, S., DUARTE, D.,
6 MILAD, B., CULLEN, A., SOREGHAN, G.S., 2022, An eolian dust origin for clastic fines of
7 Devonio-Mississippian mudrocks of the greater North American midcontinent. Journal of
8 Sedimentary Research, v. 92, p. 1186–1206.

9

10 **We post here our original submission to JSR, with additional commentary for clarification.**

11 *Added commentary in red type.*

12

Our Original Title

13 **Eolian Input was not a Critical Factor for the Formation of Devonian Black Shales in**
14 **North America. Critique of Paper by McGlannan et al.**

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22 In a recently published paper, McGlannan et al. (2022) posit that the detrital silt
23 component of Upper Devonian and Lower to Middle Mississippian shales of the North American
24 Midcontinent region is of eolian origin and provided essential nutrients that stimulated the
25 organic productivity that is recorded by these shales. Our initial concern with their study was the
26 fact that McGlannan et al. (2022) studied a stratigraphic interval that spans approximately 20
27 million years (Late Devonian to Early Mississippian), and applied conclusions reached for the
28 Mississippian part of the succession to the underlying Devonian black shales. This was
29 surprising because it is well known that a drastic sea-level fall occurred at the end of the
30 Devonian and resulted in an unconformity over much of the North American craton (Frazier and
31 Schwimmer, 1987; Over, 2021). As far as we understand from geologic literature, extrapolating
32 the inferred sedimentary dynamics of one stratigraphic interval (Early Mississippian) across a
33 sequence boundary to rocks that were deposited multiple millions of years earlier (Late
34 Devonian) is neither recommended nor considered good practice.

35 McGlannan et al. find the preceding sentence “odd”, but we maintain that the way they
36 applied (in their 2022 paper) textural observations made in overlying Mississippian shales
37 (“no to minimal instances of quartz overgrowths”) to justify interpretations of Late
38 Devonian black shales (across an unconformity) is poor science nonetheless. In particular,
39 because the reader was given the impression that these textural features were shared by the
40 substantially older Devonian black shales. Data and observations collected from the
41 Mississippian should not be extrapolated to the underlying Late Devonian black shales as a
42 major unconformity developed across Laurentia marks a significant drawdown of eustatic
43 sea-level as a result of glaciation, representing vastly different depositional conditions.
44

45 The aim of this discussion is not to disqualify eolian systems in general as a potential
46 source of fines in shale successions. It is not implausible that there were times and places in the
47 geologic past when they may have contributed to marine or lacustrine shale/mudstone
48 successions. We are, however, firmly convinced that in the case of the Late Devonian of North

49 America, no compelling case can be made for a significant eolian clastic component to its widely
50 distributed black-shale successions.

51 Whereas we disagree with the validity of the McClannan et al. (2022) study at several
52 levels, three principal lines of reasoning stand out to demonstrate that their conclusions are
53 flawed and inapplicable to the Late Devonian black shales of North America.

54 First, petrographic examination of the rocks in question, collected from the same location
55 as samples used by the authors (Woodford samples from McAlister Quarry), as well as samples
56 from the Woodford of the Central Basin Platform (Permian Basin, Texas, samples courtesy of
57 Kitty Milliken) does not support their assumptions about these rocks. SEM analysis shows these
58 samples to be strongly dominated by microcrystalline quartz (Fig. 1) and indicates that it is
59 highly unlikely that the authors could have succeeded to extract detrital quartz grains from these
60 rocks with the method described (McClannan et al. 2022), much less using them for grain-size
61 analysis. The abundant early diagenetic silica cementation that fed on dissolution of radiolarian
62 tests is so ubiquitous in these shales, generating silt- and even sand- size quartz particles (Blatt,
63 1987; Schieber, 1996; Schieber et al, 2000) that upon crushing/processing it would inevitably
64 have generated silt- and sand-sized quartz particles (Fig. 2). Petrographic constraints (Fig. 1),
65 however, should readily disabuse a discerning observer from the notion that these particles are in
66 any kind or form detrital in nature.

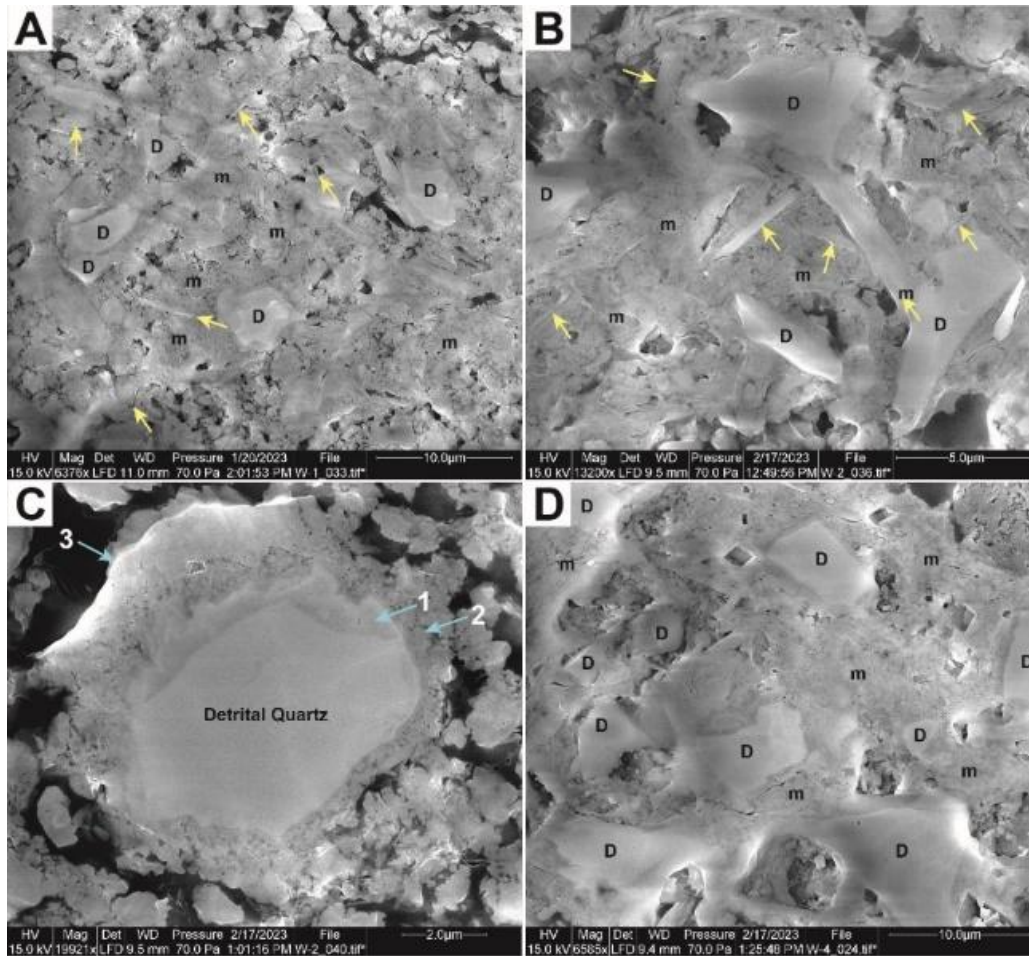
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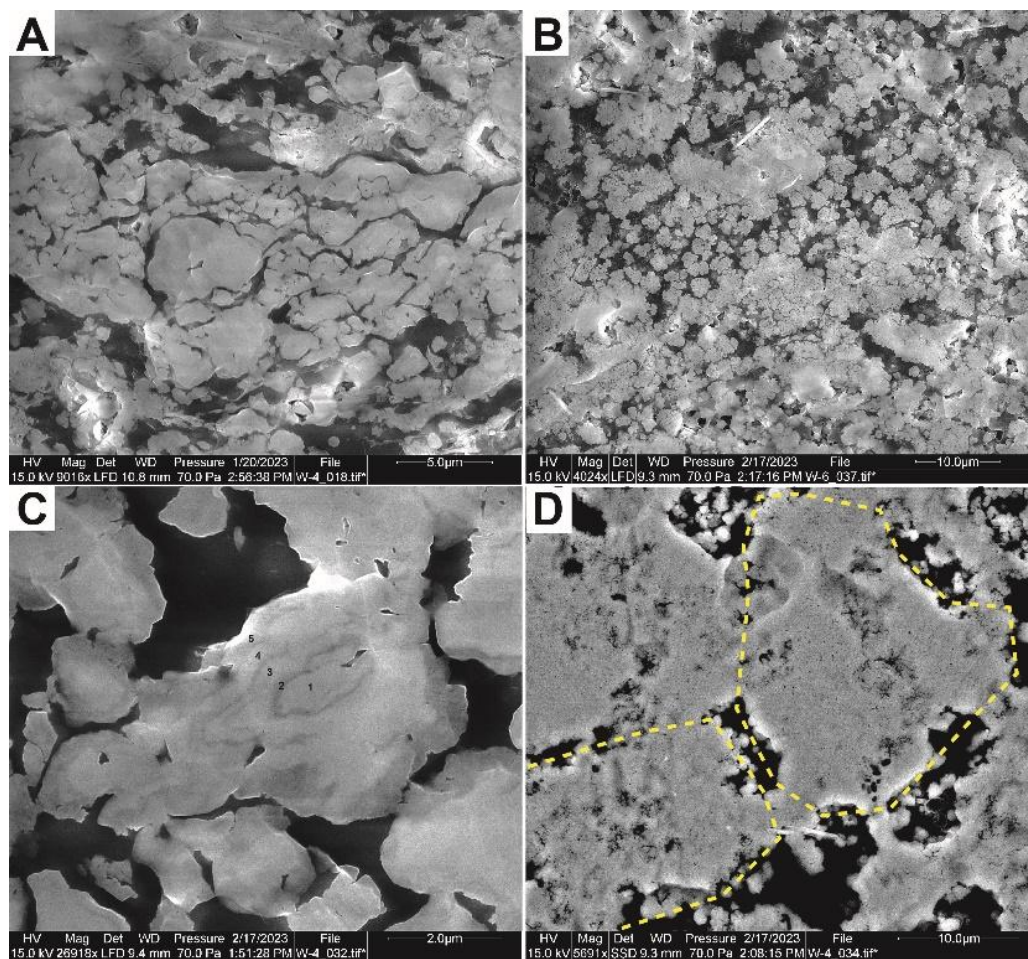
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73 **Figure 1:** Examples of diagenetic quartz cementation in the Woodford Shale of the Arbuckle
 74 Mountains of Oklahoma (secondary electron images). Only examples of fabric categories are
 75 marked, the gray-scale contrast between particles and matrix is due to charge contrast because
 76 the images were taken in low-vacuum mode. A) Typical appearance of silica cemented shale, a
 77 mixture of detrital quartz (D), phyllosilicate flakes (yellow arrows), and fine crystalline matrix
 78 (m). B) Comparable fabric in a different sample at higher magnification. Note that in both
 79 parts, A and B, the mica and clay flakes show random orientation. C) Close-up view of a single
 80 detrital quartz grain with three generations of silica overgrowth (numbered blue arrows). The
 81 dark matter is kerogen. This image also shows the clumpy nature of the diagenetic silica,
 82 comparable to what Milliken and Olsen (2017) and Longman et al. (2019) described as opal-CT
 83 lepispheres that subsequently recrystallized to microquartz. D) Another example of the intimate
 84 association of detrital quartz grains (D) and fine-grained siliceous matrix (m) containing

85 randomly oriented mica and clay flakes (not marked). Holes seen in these images are due to
 86 oxidation of organic matter and dissolution of diagenetic pyrite and dolomite.



87
 88 **Figure 2:** Clustering and clumping of early-diagenetic silica in the Woodford Shale, and
 89 potential disaggregation sub-units (SEM images). A) Low-porosity quartz aggregates that range
 90 in size from 1 to 8 microns, and are separated by kerogen (black). B) More porous aggregates
 91 that range in size from 1 to 20 microns and are separated by kerogen (black). If such rock is
 92 crushed, or if the organic matrix is digested chemically, quartz particles in the 1 to 20 micron
 93 size range can be expected in the residue. C) Detail of low porosity aggregates that show well
 94 developed cement zonation (1 through 5). D) Better cemented and partially fused aggregates of
 95 the type shown in Part B. If crushed mechanically, fragments outlined by yellow dashed lines,
 96 several ten microns in size, are likely to form.

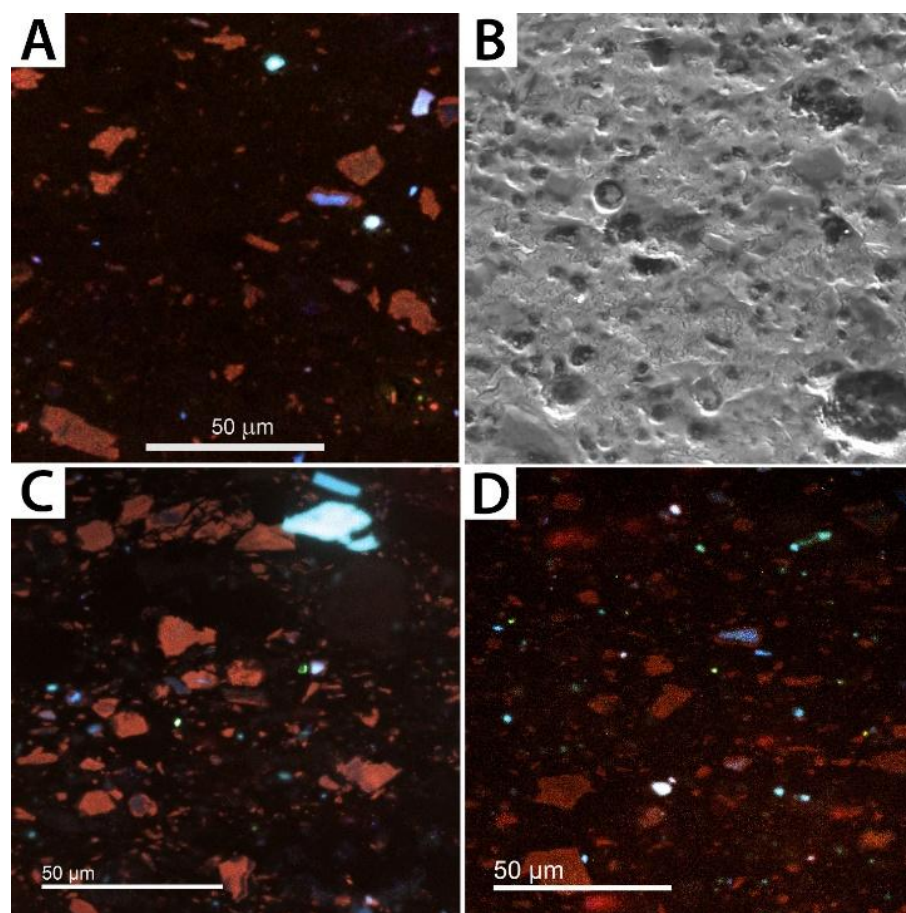
97 **Note that the quartz cement in Fig. 2 is not contiguous as it would be in a chert. It forms**
 98 **subunits in the micron to tens of microns size range, separated by organic matter. That is the**
 99 **reason why this material weathers recessive, and it is these recessive intervals of the**

100 Woodford that were sampled by McGlannan et al. 2022 and subsequently by us to make
101 sure we don't engage into an "apples" vs "oranges" discussion.

102 In their reply, McGlannan et al. (2024) try to invalidate this point by stating that they
103 "preferentially avoided silica-rich facies and predominantly sampled laminated shale
104 facies", implying that we had not done so and that our observations regarding petrography in
105 some way "missed the mark". We take exception to that, because we were very much
106 cognizant of this issue and that is exactly why we went to the very outcrops that were
107 sampled by McGlannan et al. (2022) and did indeed sample the softer intervals between
108 chert ledges of the Woodford Shale. Although these recessive interbeds are softer than the
109 chert beds, abundant diagenetic silica still dominates the fabric and detrital quartz grains
110 invariably are overgrown by secondary quartz.

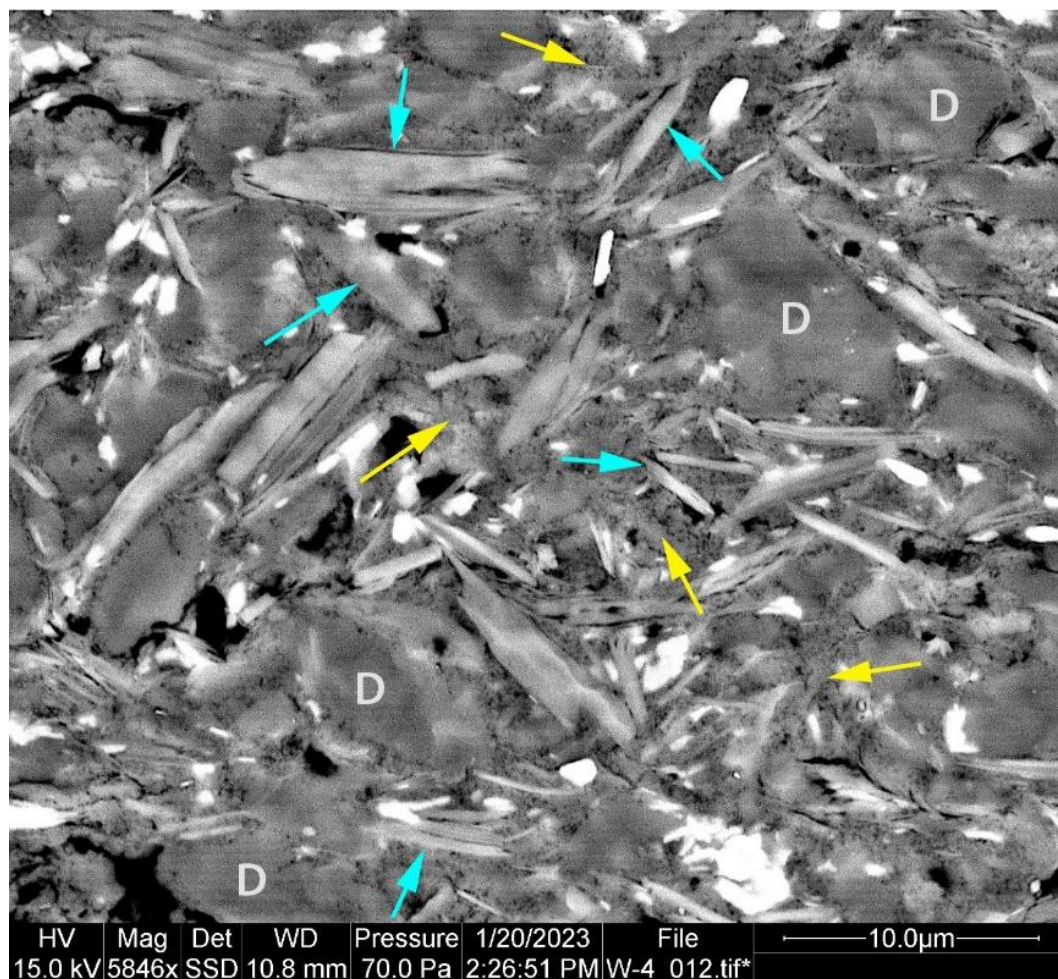
111
112 In our extensive experience with mudstone petrography, the detrital vs. authigenic nature
113 of silt-size quartz grains cannot be determined (as the authors did) via inspection of "smear slides
114 of residues" with a petrographic microscope. To make that determination requires the resolution
115 offered by scanning electron microscopes (SEM). Fig. 3 shows our Woodford samples from the
116 perspective of scanned cathodoluminescence, illustrating the type and size range of detrital
117 quartz. The dominant reddish-orange colors of quartz grains suggest derivation from the same
118 low-grade metamorphic source, the Acadian orogeny, presumed for Late Devonian black shales
119 farther east (Schieber, 2016). The general abundance and size range of detrital quartz from the
120 Woodford is in essence the same as that observed in Upper Devonian black shales of the Illinois
121 Basin ca. 500 km to the east, and in the Williston Basin ca. 900 km to the north (Fig. 3),
122 plausibly suggesting that all three locales received clastics from the Acadian orogen in the east
123 (Schieber, 2016). The lacking differences in size range and source characteristics of detrital
124 quartz (Fig. 3) between samples from Oklahoma and those of time-equivalent Devonian black
125 shales from the Illinois and Williston basins (both far offshore the Acadian source region)
126 supports strong dilution of clastics by early diagenetic silica in the case of the Woodford
127 samples. No principal difference is observed between these locales. The randomly oriented
128 phyllosilicate platelets (cardhouse fabric) observed in these rocks (Figs. 1 and 4), shielded from

129 compaction by early diagenetic silica cements (Figs. 1 and 2), strongly suggests that the detrital
 130 component of these shales arrived via bedload transport of flocculated muds, and is quite similar
 131 to uncompacted fabrics seen in flume experiments that simulated accumulation of muds from
 132 bottom current transported floccules (Schieber et al., 2007; Schieber, 2011). Settling of airborne
 133 dust through the water column should produce an entirely different fabric with largely bedding-
 134 aligned phyllosilicates (O'Brien and Slatt, 1990).



135
 136 **Figure 3:** Scanned CL-appearance and size range of detrital quartz in the Woodford compared
 137 with other Devonian black shales across the United States. A) Scanned cathodoluminescence
 138 image where detrital quartz shows as reddish and reddish-blue particles (bright bluish-green
 139 particles are K-feldspar), whereas the diagenetic matrix silica is largely non-luminescent. B)
 140 The same field of view (secondary electron image), detrital quartz grains appear as medium-
 141 gray objects, whereas the fine crystalline matrix quartz appears light gray and has a fine

142 granular texture. C) CL images of the New Albany Shale in the Illinois Basin, and D) of the
 143 Bakken Shale of the Williston Basin for comparison. There is no significant difference in type
 144 and size range of detrital quartz grains between the Woodford, New Albany, and Bakken. The
 145 main difference is that the Woodford shows substantially more dilution by diagenetic silica. The
 146 Cl images were acquired several years apart with somewhat different instrument settings and
 147 image resolution, but they are displayed at the same magnification. The image in Part C was
 148 collected with substantially higher beam dwell time than images in Parts A and D, resulting in a
 149 “crisper” looking image.



150
 151 **Figure 4:** Shale fabric with randomly oriented clay and mica flakes (blue arrows), scattered
 152 small detrital quartz grains (marked D), and a fine crystalline matrix of early diagenetic silica
 153 (yellow arrows).

154 Second, when examined in detail, stratigraphic relationships in Devonian organic-rich
155 mudstone successions show rapid shifts of depocenters in response to basin–dynamics (e.g.,
156 basement fault reactivation; Jacobi and Fountain, 2002; Wilson et al., 2022) as well as
157 accommodation change due to subsidence (tectonic) and sea-level fluctuations. In the Late
158 Devonian, regional unconformities (sequence boundaries) and their correlative conformities have
159 been recognized and correlated across the United States by various authors (Brett et al., 2011;
160 Lazar and Schieber, 2022; Wilson et al., 2022). Yet, these erosional contacts (and implicit
161 hiatuses) are absent from Fig. 2 of McGlannan et al. (2022), greatly oversimplifying the existing
162 stratigraphic complexities. Stratigraphic analysis shows that in the Appalachian Basin (Smith et
163 al., 2019; Wilson et al., 2022), the Illinois Basin (Lazar and Schieber, 2022), and in central
164 Oklahoma (Infante Paez et al., 2017), Devonian black shale successions invariably onlap onto
165 structural highs (Cincinnati Arch, Nemaha Ridge). Such distal responses to shoreline
166 progradation and retrogradation imply lateral sediment supply (for example by wind-driven
167 bottom current systems) from a distal source and require shoreline-attached sediment dispersal
168 systems. Had eolian sediment dispersal indeed been the key control in the distal realm, stratal
169 units should be expected to drape across positive elements, rather than terminate against them.

170 McGlannan’s reply is very supportive and aligned with a dynamic hydrodynamic system
171 proposed by numerous authors cited in our text, however, this (now stated) sentiment is **not**
172 **aligned with the original McGlannan article** wherein it is stated “we propose that eolian
173 delivery is an additional and simpler explanation that avoids the need to call upon unknown
174 and unusually powerful storms or tides, as well as flocculation, which is inconsistent with
175 the minimal clay-mineral content of the study units.” As demonstrated in our discussion,
176 sedimentary structures (including evidence for flocculation) that suggest significant lateral
177 transport via bottom currents are abundantly observed in the Woodford.
178

179 The most pervasive chert deposits associated with Late Devonian black shales occur in
180 southern Laurentia, where a proximity to deep ocean waters and a combination of SE tradewinds
181 with the Ekman spiral provide ideal conditions for upwelling of nutrient-rich waters onto the

182 flooded North American craton (e.g., Parrish, 1982; Schopf, 1983; Parrish and Barron, 1986;
183 Comer, 1991). Whereas the influence of this nutrient source likely diminishes away from the
184 cratonic edge (Murphy et al., 2000a, 2000b), it is a highly plausible scenario for driving marine
185 productivity in the Anadarko–Arkoma and Permian Basins and the Woodford Shale sections
186 sampled by McGlannan et al. (2022).

187 Third, due to the Devonian-age colonization of land masses by trees and other land
188 plants, nutrient supply to shelf and epicontinental seas increased so dramatically (Algeo et al.,
189 1995; Algeo and Scheckler, 1998) that eolian sourced nutrients, had they existed, would not have
190 made any difference with regard to the available nutrient supply. Also, as mentioned above, the
191 very likely existence of upwelling of nutrient-rich deep-sea waters along the southern margin of
192 the Late Devonian inland sea is a much more plausible nutrient source (rather than eolian input)
193 for that part of the Late Devonian black-shale system. Fundamentally, there is no need, nor any
194 justification, to call upon input of eolian clastics as a critical factor for the formation of any of
195 the Late Devonian black-shale successions in North America. Several studies of geochemical
196 proxies and organic petrography have shown marine-terrestrial co-dependencies linking rapid
197 expansion of land plants, enhanced continental weathering, terrestrial runoff, and nutrient supply
198 from the Acadian borderlands to enhanced primary productivity in the Devonian inland sea
199 (Maynard, 1981; Algeo et al., 1995; Algeo and Scheckler, 1998; Berner, 2005; Wilson and
200 Schieber, 2017; Song et al. 2021). Collectively these studies evoke a mental image of coastal
201 plains with thriving forests, unlikely to have facilitated widespread deflation and lofting of
202 siliciclastic fines as postulated by McGlannan et al. (2022). Furthermore, generating copious
203 quantities of dust to fertilize the Devonian inland sea for several millions of years by way of
204 deflation implies a commensurate concentration of sand and formation of eolian dunes (Kocurek,

205 1996). Yet, in spite of a long history of research into Devonian nearshore and onshore deposits
206 of the Appalachian Basin (e.g., Bridge and Willis, 1991; 1994; Walker and Harms, 1975;
207 Slingerland and Loule, 1988) no eolian deposits have ever been documented.

208 McGlannan et al., 2024, disagree with our argument on the requirement for “a
209 commensurate concentration of sand and formation of eolian dunes” to generate “copious
210 quantities of dust.” Yet, in our critique we do not assume (as McGlannan et al., 2024 imply)
211 that dust is generated by “grinding down” sand grains. We operate from an understanding
212 that fines (mud, silt) are the most abundant product of weathering, and that in order to
213 generate large quantities of dust, a substantial pile of sand is being “left behind”. And it is
214 that sand that concerns us, because we don’t see it in the Devonian rock record. The Copper
215 River deltaic system is called upon as an analog by McGlannan et al., 2022, and it so
216 happens that the Copper River delta shows abundant eolian sand dunes (longitudinal ridges
217 as much as 150 feet high) nourished by sustained, unidirectional, high-velocity winds that
218 blow down the Copper River Canyon. If we accept the Copper River Delta as an analog for
219 dust sourcing to the Late Devonian mudstone-dominated depositional system of the North
220 American craton, spanning 10’s of millions of years of (supposedly) eolian dust generation,
221 we would expect to see ample evidence of eolian dunes (the sand that was left behind)
222 forming in coastal areas of this supposed source region of eolian dust, especially given the
223 vast expanse of Late Devonian shales across Laurentia and the high volume of dust that
224 would be required to form them.
225

226 In summary, the confluence of petrographic constraints, stratigraphic relationships, and
227 global controls thoroughly invalidates the premise of McGlannan et al. (2022). The considered
228 evidence shows a striking mismatch between well documented geologic realities and the “eolian
229 supply” vision proposed by McGlannan et al. (2022).

230

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234 discussion points and providing samples of the Woodford from the Permian Basin. Helpful
235 guidance and reviews provided by Peter Burgess and Kathie Marsaglia greatly improved the
236 manuscript, as well as editorial comments provided by John Southard.

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