THERMAL HISTORY OF LOWER PALEOZOIC ROCKS ON THE PERI-TORNQUIST MARGIN OF THE EAST EUROPEAN CRATON (PODOLIA, UKRAINE) INFERRED FROM COMBINED XRD, K-Ar, AND AFT DATA

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Abstract—The Upper Silurian-Lower Devonian section of the Dniester gorge in Podolia and samples from boreholes located S and N of this area were studied in order to reconstruct the thermal history of Lower Paleozoic sedimentary rocks in the Dniester segment of the Peri-Tornquist margin of the East European Craton which is the most eastern part of a major shale-gas target in Europe. X-ray diffraction data for illite-smectite from shales and carbonates indicate very advanced diagenesis and maximum paleotemperatures of ~200ºC, higher than interpreted from the 'conodont alteration index' (CAI) data. Diagenesis of the Devonian section is slightly less advanced than that of the underlying Silurian section, indicating that it is a regional feature and the result of burial. The regional distribution of the diagenetic grade based on illite matches well with the pattern established from the CAI data. K-Ar dating of illitesmectite from Silurian bentonites and shales gave a consistent set of dates ranging from 390 to 312 Ma. To explain such advanced levels of diagenesis and such K-Ar dates, the extension of the Carboniferous foreland basin (which today is only preserved to the NW of L'viv) toward the SE on the craton margin has to be assumed. The diagenetic zonation pattern of the Carboniferous coals supports this hypothesis. The Carboniferous cover may have been either sedimentary or partially tectonic (Variscan intracratonic duplexes) in origin and the thickness, necessary for the observed level of diagenesis, may have been reduced by an elevated heat flow along the major tectonic zone at the edge of the craton (TESZ). The presence of such cover is confirmed by completely reset Cretaceous apatite fission track (AFT) ages of the Silurian bentonites. The AFT dates also imply a Tertiary heating event in the area.

The 10 Å clay mineral present in the dolomitic part of the profile (Silurian), both in bentonites and in other rocks, is aluminoceladonite or intermediate between illite and aluminoceladonite, while in the Devonian shale section only illite was documented. Chlorite is also common in the studied rocks and is at least partially authigenic. It is non-expandable in the samples from boreholes, while often expandable to variable extents in the samples from outcrops, which also contain goethite. Such variation in chlorite is attributed to contemporary weathering.

Key Words—AFT, Aluminoceladonite, Chlorite Weathering, Illite, K-Ar, Peri-Tornquist Margin, Podolia, Shale Gas, Silurian, Thermal History, Ukraine.

INTRODUCTION

The East European Craton (thereafter EEC), also called Baltica, is a fragment of Archean–Mid-Proterozoic crystalline continental crust, ~2500 km across, acting as a separate block of the lithosphere for \sim 750 Ma, *i.e.* since break-up of the Rodinia megacontinent (cf. Nawrocki and Poprawa, 2006), with the sedimentary cover starting in the Riphean and preserved to different degrees mostly in intracratonic and marginal basins (Nikishin et al., 1996). The 2000 km long SW margin of the craton (called the Peri-Tornquist margin) faces the Teisseyre-Tornquist Zone (TTZ), also known as the Trans-European Suture Zone (TESZ: e.g. Skompski et al., 2008; Drygant, 2011), which is the

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major tectonic line dividing the European crust of Precambrian age from that of younger consolidation (Nawrocki and Poprawa, 2006). The Peri-Tornquist margin encompasses four major sedimentary basins (Figure 1): the Baltic basin in the NW, the Podlasie basin, the Dniester slope, and the Moldova platform in the SE (Vishnyakov et al., 1981).

Sedimentation on the Peri-Tornquist margin started in the Riphean and was renewed in the Ediacaran (Vendian) or in the Cambrian (only in the Baltic basin). The Ediacaran continental clastics and flood basalts are interpreted as products of a Neoproterozoic rifting phase, preceding the opening of the Tornquist ocean. Lower Paleozoic sedimentation followed a similar pattern in all basins, interpreted as passive margin types (low sedimentation rate) in Cambrian and Ordovician (sandstones, shales, and carbonates). A rapid increase in sedimentation rate followed in the Silurian (shales and carbonates) due to flexural bending of the craton margin (Nikishin et al., 1996; Nawrocki and

Figure 1. Location of the Dniester slope on the Peri-Tornquist margin of the East European Craton. Map of SW part of the craton (without late Paleozoic and younger cover) adapted from Sliaupa *et al.* (2006). TESZ – Trans European Suture Zone.

Poprawa, 2006; Sliaupa et al., 2006). The carbonatedominated sedimentation continued in the Silurian in the shallowest NE zone of the craton margin (Garetsky et al., 1981; figure 8 of Sliaupa et al., 2006; Drygant, 2011).

The Lower Paleozoic shales of the Peri-Tornquist margin are currently the major shale-gas target in Europe (Poprawa, 2010), which has led to an increased interest in their diagenetic history. A synthetic study based on the CAI and vitrinite reflectance $(R_0;$ Nehring-Lefeld *et* al., 1997) revealed a systematic zonation in the degree of diagenesis along the entire margin, including its Ukrainian part (CAI data from Drygant, 1993). The interior of the craton has yielded CAI values of $1-1.5$ (for Ordovician-Devonian), indicative of paleotemperatures between 50 and 90ºC, according to the CAI calibration of Epstein et al. (1977). Toward the SW the CAI values (for the Ordovician) gradually increase and reach 5 (300-480ºC) in the TESZ. This picture is consistent with the parallel increase in R_0 from 0.5 to 4.6. In addition, in the Baltic basin sector of the margin, analogous zonation was established from the X-ray diffraction (XRD) evaluation of the composition of illite-smectite (percent smectite layers: %S) in shales $(Srodo\'n et al., 2009a).$

The Silurian and Ordovician rocks of the margin contain numerous bentonite horizons with pure diagenetic illite-smectite, which offer an opportunity for K-Ar dating of the maximum paleotemperatures (Srodon^{et al.,} 2002), i.e. dating the main episode of hydrocarbon generation. In the Baltic basin the K-Ar ages of illitesmectite from bentonites range from 404 to 294 Ma and

on the craton margin they are interpreted as indicative of a deep burial under the Devonian and Carboniferous sedimentary cover (Srodon^{et al., 2009a)}, which is consistent with the geological data (Ulmishek, 1990). Farther to the SE such data are lacking.

A unique opportunity for such a geochronological study on the Dniester slope (Figures 1, 2a) is offered by the ~250 m thick carbonate section of the Upper Silurian (Ludlow and Pridoli), exposed in the banks of Dniester gorge in the Kamyanets Podilsky area (Figure 2b), where numerous bentonite beds can be sampled (Tsegelnjuk, 1980a, 1980b). The beds contain a typical bentonitic mineral assemblage: highly illitic illite-smectite, sometimes of a 1M polytype, K-feldspar, quartz, biotite, apatite, and zircon (Huff et al., 2000; Kipli et al., 2000). In this study these bentonite beds are used for K-Ar dating of illite-smectite, and for AFT dating, while the accompanying shales and overlying Lower Devonian massive shales are used to evaluate the maximum paleotemperatures based on $\%S$ (Srodon, 2007).

The combination of XRD, K-Ar, and AFT is a powerful set of methods for basin history studies. The maximum paleotemperatures estimated from XRD and their ages measured by K-Ar have to be consistent with the age and paleotemperature estimations from AFT. The apatite fission tracks anneal completely above 120ºC (Naeser, 1981). Thus, the AFT measurement indicates whether the sample has been buried to temperatures >120ºC (total reset of the original age of the apatite crystal) and when it passed the 120ºC isotherm for the last time on its way to the surface. Such an approach has produced very consistent results

Figure 2. Sample location on the geological map without post-Paleozoic cover (a), compiled from Pozaryski and Dembowski (1983) and Buła and Habryn (2011), and on detailed map of the Dniester gorge and its tributaries (b).

for the Baltic basin (Srodon´ et al., 2009a) and for the same approach was applied to evaluate the maximum Miocene Podhale basin (Środoń et al., 2006a; Anczkiewicz et al., 2005). In the present study the

burial temperatures of the Lower Paleozoic rocks of the Dniester slope and to date this thermal event.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Samples of the Upper Silurian bentonites, carbonates, soft mudstones, and shales were collected from eight locations in the Dniester gorge and from one location in its tributary Zbrutch gorge (Figure 2b; GPS locations and stratigraphic position given in Table 1). Seven additional samples from six locations nearby were provided by S. Skompski. Fifty seven samples were first investigated as random powders of the bulk rock by XRD in order to identify and quantify their mineral composition and to select samples for clay-fraction separation. The technique of Srodon^{et al. (2001) and the} QUANTA computer program (Mystkowski et al., 2002) were used for the quantification.

Twenty one of the purest bentonite samples and 26 other rocks were selected for clay-fraction separation. The full Jackson (1975) procedure was applied and the $<$ 0.2 μ m fractions were separated by centrifugation. The < 0.2 µm fractions of six bentonite samples underwent further separation into 0.2-0.05, 0.05-0.02, and < 0.02 µm fractions by flow-through ultracentrifugation (details in Srodon^{et al., 2006b). Both the <0.2 μ m and} finer fractions, all in Na form, were subjected to K-Ar dating, following the standard procedure (Srodon $'$ et al., 2006b). Na-exchanged and not natural samples were used for dating in order to avoid any exchangeable K, which could potentially reduce the measured ages. %S was measured by several peak-positions techniques (Srodon, 1984; Dudek and Srodon, 1996; Srodon et al., 2009b) from the XRD patterns of the random bulk-rock air-dry preparations and from the glycolated oriented preparations of the ≤ 0.2 µm fractions, recorded with $MoS₂$ as the internal standard:

(1) Two-peak technique (Dudek and Srodon, 1996, figure 5), which uses peaks of the glycolated $\leq 0.2 \mu m$ fractions at $15.3 - 17.9$ and $25.9 - 26.9^{\circ}2\theta$ (CuK α).

(2) Experimental regressions of $\%S$ *vs.* peak position, established from the data of Srodon^{et} *et al.* (2009b, table 6). The %S from the Δ 2 technique is considered the most accurate and is used as the 'true value' in the regressions. Such regressions are applied to several reflections of the glycolated ≤ 0.2 µm fractions and also to the low-angle reflection of the air-dry illite-smectite, measured from the XRD patterns of the bulk rocks, under the assumption that Ca is the dominant natural exchange cation in these rocks with abundant carbonates.

Ten shale samples were collected from the overlying Lower Devonian (Lochkovian) shale and shale-carbonate section, ~530 m thick (Drygant, 2010, figure 1.10), exposed in the Dniester gorge between Dnistrove and Zalishchyky (Figure 2b). They were processed in the same way as the Silurian shales and their ≤ 0.2 µm fractions were investigated by XRD, in order to evaluate the degree of diagenesis (%S). Additionally, the same technique was applied to one sample of a Silurian shale from the deeper, shale zone in the TESZ (borehole Lishchyns'ka-1), one Lower Devonian shale from the area north of the Dniester gorge (Chortkiv outcrop), and five Lower Devonian plus one Silurian shale samples from borehole 6618, located in the northernmost part of the Dniester slope (Figure 2a).

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to study the morphology and composition of adularia identified by XRD in bentonites, to discriminate between Ca-dolomite and ankerite, and to observe the texture of soft mudstones.

Coarse, clay-free fractions of six bentonites were separated for the adularia study. The other samples were investigated by SEM as bulk rocks.

Apatites were separated for AFT dating from five bentonite samples, using standard crushing, sieving, magnetic, and heavy-liquid (tetrabromoethane and diiodomethane) separation techniques. Polished grain mounts were etched for 20 s in 5 N HNO₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C. The standard glass CN5 was used as a dosimeter to monitor the neutron flux. Thin flakes of low-U muscovite were used as external detectors. Samples together with age standards (Fish Canyon, Durango, and Mount Dromedary apatite) and Corning glass CN5 dosimeters were irradiated with a thermal neutron nominal flux of 9×10^{15} n/cm² at the Oregon State University TRIGA reactor (USA). After irradiation, muscovite external detectors were etched for \sim 45 min in 40% HF in order to reveal the induced tracks. Spontaneous and induced tracks were counted by optical microscopy at $1250 \times$ magnification using a NIKON Eclipse E-600, equipped with motorized stage, digitizing tablet, and drawing tube (used for measuring the track length) controlled by the program FTStage 3.12 (Dumitru, 1993). Data analyses and age calculations based on a ζ value for CN5 (ζ _{CN5}) of 344 \pm 5 were calculated using the program Trackkey (Dunkl, 2002).

All quoted AFT ages are 'central ages' (weighted mean ages) in the sense of Gailbraith and Laslett (1993) $\pm 1\sigma$, and the variation of single-grain ages was assessed using the chi-square test (Galbraith, 1981; Green, 1981). The AFT dating followed the procedure described in detail by Anczkiewicz (2005).

RESULTS

Mineral composition of the bulk rocks

The bulk-rock data were grouped by the type of rock (Table 2). For each rock type the samples are arranged by stratigraphic position, starting from the oldest. The Silurian and Devonian shales are presented separately. In the Silurian rocks, the component listed as dolomite is either true dolomite or Ca-dolomite, as identified by XRD and confirmed by energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS). A full compositional range of Ca-dolomites is present (104 reflection from 2.884 to 2.903 Å: cf. McCarty et al., 2006).

Silurian bentonites. 1*M* or 1*Md* illite-smectite dominates the composition: 64-99%. Calcite ranges from 0 to 24%, adularia from 0 to 14%, and quartz from 1 to 7%. Other minerals are traces, except for elevated chlorite and $2M_1$ mica content in At-16. No mineral compositional trend was observed with respect to the stratigraphic position.

Silurian shales. In the Dniester gorge samples, 1Md illite is the dominant component: 30-58%, but accompanied by $6-14\%$ of $2M_1$ mica and $4-10\%$ of chlorite. Quartz

and K-feldspar increase down the section, $11-19\%$ and 2-22%, respectively. Calcite and dolomite show opposite trends: $0-3\%$ and $34-1\%$, respectively, down the section. Albite and pyrite are present, but as minor components. Goethite was identified in only one sample. The Silurian shale from the CAI = 5 zone (Lish-1) differs from the Dniester samples in terms of elevated chlorite and albite contents.

Devonian shales. 1Md illite is slightly less abundant than in the Silurian section: 22-47%, accompanied by more $2M_1$ mica and chlorite: $5-19\%$ and $4-13\%$, respectively. Quartz is clearly more abundant: 11-26%, but K-feldspar is low, only reaching the minimum levels of the Silurian section at the base. Calcite and dolomite both increase down the section, but, unlike the Silurian shales, calcite is more abundant: $1-55\%$ and $0-8\%$, respectively. Albite and pyrite are present as minor components as in the Silurian shales. Goethite is absent, but hematite is present in the uppermost sample, representing the Old Red facies (Dniester series).

Silurian carbonates. Calcite or dolomite are the dominant minerals: 89-63% and 67-45%, respectively. Admixtures of dolomite in limestone and calcite in dolomite are very minor. Other major components are 2:1 clays $(1Md$ illite $+2M_1$ mica: $4-28\%$) and quartz (2-23%). K-feldspar is more abundant than albite, and goethite is absent. The only apparent correlation is that of more chlorite in dolomites than in limestones.

Silurian soft mudstones. The mineral composition of these rocks is intermediate between carbonates and shales. Often both calcite and dolomite are present in significant quantities. Quartz and K-feldspar increase down the section, just as in the shales. Goethite is often observed. As in the carbonates, a positive correlation of chlorite and dolomite content is observed.

Mineral composition of the ≤ 0.2 µm fraction of bentonites

The < 0.2 µm fractions of all 21 bentonite samples are essentially mono-mineral illite-smectite, without even traces of other clays. The XRD patterns of all Malinovtsy plus Ataki 12 and 12a samples contain a trace of a 3.07 Å peak (Figure 3, jarosite?). Glycolated patterns provide evidence of highly illitic ordered illitesmectite, of ~1–15%S (Figure 3). The greatest degree of illitization was recorded in the center of the thickest bentonite bed (Malinovtsy).

The results for air-dry and glycolated samples are well correlated, but not identical (Table 3). The air-dry values are systematically higher. Differences between values based on the reflections from glycolated patterns are substantial for the most illite-rich compositions. The regression based on the $15.3 - 17.9^{\circ}2\theta$ reflection gives negative values for the most illitic samples, which were

Figure 3. Oriented XRD patterns of glycolated <0.2 μ m fractions of the Silurian bentonites, representing the range of expandability of illite-smectite (%S) encountered in this study. Synthetic MoS₂ was added as an internal standard for correcting peak positions.

not accounted for when calculating the mean. These negative values indicate that the measured 2θ values of this reflection are greater than expected for pure K-illite, indicating a smaller thickness of the unit cell of this illite. Indeed, 9.888 Å was measured from 005 for the almost non-expandable illite sample (Mal-6 in Figure 4). Such a small value may imply a significant contribution from fixed Na⁺ (the d_{001} value of paragonite is 9.6 Å), but %Na2O determinations (Tables 3 and 4) did not reveal elevated Na. The sample was, thus, identified as close to the end-member aluminoceladonite (9.885–9.887 Å: Seifert, 1968; Drits et al., 2010).

Such identification has been confirmed by Fouriertransform infrared spectra (M. Szczerba, pers. comm.).

In the thick Malinovtsy bed a clear tri-dimensional zonation, perfectly correlated with %S was observed (Figure 4). The polytype evolves from well ordered $1Mtv$ (trans-vacant octahedral sheet) in the lower part of the bed (Mal-6) changing gradually to more disordered structures toward the top of the bed (Mal-1) and abruptly toward the bottom. The tri-dimensional organization of illite-smectite from all thin bentonite beds is of the 1Md type, without clear differences in terms of %S. A significant displacement of the 112 peak toward lower

Figure 4. Random XRD patterns of air-dry <0.2 µm fractions of the Silurian bentonites and a shale, representing the detected range of tri-dimensional organization of illite-smectite: from $1M$ to $1Md$ in bentonites, and $1Md + 2M_1$ in shales and other rocks. An $$ anatase.

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Illite-smectite 30.4 26.2 24.2 28.2 42.1 47.4 47.4 36.1 41 36.3

Bold indicates the most important values, i.e. those discussed in the text.

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Table 3. XRD data for illite-smectite: 00l reflections from air-dried bulk rock and glycolated <0.2 µm fractions of Silurian bentonites: peak positions (°20) and percent smectite

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angles with respect to the tv peak position, a greater relative intensity of $\overline{1}13$, and the appearance of a 111 peak (At-4 in Figure 4) indicate \sim 50% of the cv component (cis-vacant octahedral sheet: Moore and Reynolds, 1997, figure 10.18). The $34-38°2\theta$ region indicates clear domination of $n \cdot 120^\circ$ rotations (Moore and Reynolds, 1997, figure 10.14). The d_{006} value (2 θ value normalized to a ZnO internal standard) evolves systematically from 1.499 Å for most random samples to 1.501 A for the most ordered structures.

Mineral composition of the ≤ 0.2 µm fraction of other rocks

Silurian of the Dniester gorge. Twenty-two samples of the Silurian shales, carbonates, and soft mudstones collected close to the bentonite beds were investigated for their clay mineral composition. All ≤ 0.2 µm fractions contain dominant illite and variable amounts of chlorite. In a few carbonate and soft mudstone samples a smectitic component was also detected.

The XRD characteristics of illite in all samples except two (Us-2 and Sok-6) are very similar. Only a trace amount (<<5%) of swelling layers can be detected by comparing air-dry and glycolated patterns normalized to the $MoS₂$ internal standard (Table 4, Tr-8 in Figure 5). The position of the 001 peak of the air-dry illite moves by Δ gly-air = 0.02-0.18°20 toward higher angles after glycolation and its intensity decreases slightly. The 002 and 005 peaks change very slightly

and the 003 increases in intensity and moves slightly toward lower angles. The Ir index based on these changes (Srodon['], 1984) varies from 1.64 to 1.06 , which are values characteristic of almost non-expandable illites. The Kübler index (KI; Kübler, 1964), measured for $< 0.2 \mu m$ air-dry Na-samples, ranges from 0.98 to 0.55°2 θ . The d_{001} value of these illites can be evaluated from the 005 reflection as $9.91-9.95 \text{ Å}$, *i.e.* much lower than the standard K-illite value of 9.98 Å (Lindgreen et al., 2000), but higher than the measured bentonite value of 9.888 Å, thus indicating an intermediate illite-aluminoceladonite composition (Drits et al., 2010).

Sample Us-2 contains illite, which is perfectly nonexpandable (no shift in peak positions after glycolation), has thicker crystals (KI = 0.38), and d_{001} = 9.964 Å (Table 4, Figure 5). Sample Sok-6 is clearly heterogeneous, with both illitic (9.96 Å) and aluminoceladonitic (9.91 Å) components (Table 4, Figure 5).

The d_{006} values of illites in non-bentonitic samples are \sim 1.502 Å (Figure 4). Random XRD patterns of all samples in the $20-38°2\theta$ range are very similar to sample Ok-1 (Figure 4) and are indicative of the mixture of dominant $1Md$ with minor $2M_1$ polytype, with more $n.60^\circ$ rotations than the bentonitic samples (single peak at 35 and increased intensity at $37.2^{\circ}2\theta$: Moore and Reynolds, 1997; figure 10.14). The sample Us-2 contains more $2M_1$ in the <0.2 µm fraction than other samples and does not contain an increased number of $n.60^\circ$ rotations.

Figure 5. Oriented XRD patterns of air-dry (gray) and glycolated (black) <0.2 µm fractions of the Silurian non-bentonitic rocks, representing the range of illite and chlorite crystal size and swelling encountered. $KI - K\ddot{u}$ bler index.

Chlorites are found in quite variable amounts (Table 4, Figure 5). In some samples chlorites are perfectly nonexpandable: their d_{001} value is close to 14.1–14.3 Å and does not shift after glycolation. The intensity of the 001 and 002 reflections are very close, indicating Mg-chlorite (Moore and Reynolds, 1997). Chlorite from sample Us-2 is exceptional: more Fe-rich (002 stronger than 001) and coarser (narrower reflections: Figure 5). Broadening of the 002 chlorite reflection, measured in the air-dry state (FWHM002ch in Table 4), is substantially smaller than that of 001 illite (KI).

Most samples contain chlorite, which is slightly expandable. Expandability is shown by a variable shift of 001 (to 15.1 \AA in the extreme case: Table 4), by a similar shift of 002, and by the shift of 004 in the opposite direction (Sok-6 in Figure 5), which are consistent (Mering rule) with interlayering of a minor \sim 17 Å (smectitic) swelling component.

The d_{006} values of most chlorites vary in the 1.535 -1.530 Å range (Mg-chlorites), except for sample Us-2 (1.542 Å) , which is consistent with more Fe (Wiewióra and Wilamowski, 1996).

In four samples a phase with a dominant smectitic swelling component occurs along with a separate chloritic phase, both contributing to the 14 Å reflection in the airdry state (Tr-8 in Figure 5). The presence of both minerals becomes clearly visible after glycolation. The smectitic phase is identified by its broad \sim 17.4 A peak (Tr-2 and 8, Ok-3) or a diffuse band >14 \AA (SP-4) and raised intensity after glycolation in the $9.5-11$, $15-17$, and $25.5-26.5°20$ range. The heterogeneous nature of these minerals is supported by their poorly defined peaks. For sample Tr-2 with the best-defined peaks, the $15-17^{\circ}2\theta$ band starts clearly from 5.67 Å , which is less than the 003 peak from 17.4 A, indicating that even in this sample some degree of mixed layering is present. Mixed layering of the expandable layers with chlorite layers was also shown by a 300ºC heating test. The low-angle peaks disappeared, but the intensity increased (a raised 'saddle') between the chlorite and illite 001 reflections.

Sample Tr-2 looks to be entirely dioctahedral, based on the d_{006} region. In the other samples, weak trioctahedral reflections between 1.534 and 1.525 A are visible.

Lower Devonian shales of the Dniester gorge. The XRD characteristics of Lower Devonian shales are very similar to the Silurian shales with non-expandable chlorite. Illite is also almost non-expandable $(\leq 5\%S)$, but all characteristics indicate slightly more expandability than in the Silurian shales: Δ gly-air from 0.06 to 0.24, Ir from 1.12 to 1.68, and KI from 0.71 to 1.15 (Table 4). The d_{001} value of these minerals ranges from 9.94 to 9.95 A, indicating a pure illitic composition. The chlorites are non-expandable and Mg-rich. Sample Myk-1 is exceptional, with more chlorite, which is more coarse-grained and Fe-rich.

Borehole samples. The XRD characteristics of samples from borehole 6618 indicate greater illite expandability than the Lower Devonian shales of the Dniester gorge: Δ gly-air from 0.04 to 0.40, Ir from 1.36 to 2.56, and KI from 0.98 to 1.49 (Table 4). For the three uppermost samples, the diagnostic IS reflections were measurable, allowing the estimation of %S from 14 to 29 (Table 4). In two uppermost samples, kaolinite was identified. In the remaining samples non-expandable chlorite is present.

The single sample from borehole Lishchyns'ka-1 contains end-member non-expandable illite (Δ gly-air = 0, Ir = 1.01, d_{001} = 9.95 Å) with KI = 0.29 (Table 4) and very abundant, extremely coarse-grained Fe-chlorite (Figure 5).

K-Ar dating of illite

Twelve Silurian bentonite samples were dated: six as 0.2-0.05, 0.05-0.02, and <0.02 mm sub-fractions, and six as ≤ 0.2 fractions (Table 5). The dates from the subfractions range from 340 to 390 Ma and the dates of the ≤ 0.2 µm fractions also fall within this range. The oldest date was recorded for the finest fraction (Mal-5), thus the whole range can be considered as representing pure diagenetic ages (Srodon^{$et al., 2002$)}. No systematic geographic variation of ages can be observed.

K-Ar dating was also performed for clay fractions of six Silurian samples representing other lithologies: limestones, a calcite concretion, and soft mudstones. The ≤ 0.2 and $2-0.2$ µm fractions were used for dating (Table 5). All the dates are close to the bentonite ages with most close to the highest value but three even lower than the youngest bentonite age (312, 325, and 334 Ma). The samples with the most coarse-grained illite (sharpest XRD peaks: Us-2 and Sok-6) gave the oldest dates (378 and 397 Ma), but even those are much younger than the stratigraphic age (417-423 Ma).

AFT dating

Five Silurian bentonite samples were examined by AFT. The AFT data are listed (Table 6) and presented as radial plots (Galbraith, 1990) (Figure 6). All analyzed samples yielded Upper Cretaceous pooled ages (63-107 Ma), significantly younger than the estimated stratigraphic age (417-423 Ma). The dispersion of ages between individual apatite crystals is large, as indicated by small $P(\chi^2)$ values (Table 6). The measured ranges (Figure 6) are quite similar $(\sim 210-40$ Ma) for all samples except for SM-1 (350-50 Ma). These measured ages are younger than the stratigraphic age and younger than the K-Ar ages of the maximum temperatures.

All of the samples examined provided small numbers of confined tracks (Table 6, Figure 7). The mean length of confined tracks per sample ranges from 9.50 to $13.48 \mu m$. The track-length distributions are either symmetric (Mal-1 and Zab-1) or skewed toward small track length (Sok-1 and SM-1). The Pu-1 distribution is

Sample no.	Fraction (μm)	Weight (mg)	% K_2O	$\%$ ⁴⁰ Ar*	$^{40}Ar*$ (pmol/g)	Age (Ma)	Error (Ma)
Silurian bentonites							
$Pu-1$	$0.2 - 0.05$	39.75	7.35	89.41	4087.7	350	\overline{c}
$Pu-1$	$0.05 - 0.02$	71.35	7.18	86.08	3881.8	341	\overline{c}
$Pu-1$	< 0.02	38.60	7.13	88.31	4012.6	354	\overline{c}
$SM-1$	< 0.2	24.38	6.73				
$SM-1$	$0.2 - 0.05$	62.50	6.87	92.26	4125.6	375	\overline{c}
$SM-1$	$0.05 - 0.02$	29.75	6.71	93.05	4113.5	382	\overline{c}
$SM-1$	< 0.02	22.15	6.62	83.55	3581.9	341	\overline{c}
$Us-1$	< 0.2	20.1	6.53	85.16	3560.5	344	\overline{c}
Sok-1	< 0.2	19.15	6.44	79.17	3558.4	348	\overline{c}
Sok-1	< 0.2	20.9	6.44	78.53	3555.3	348	\overline{c}
Mal-5	< 0.2	30.01	7.56				
Mal-5	$0.2 - 0.05$	57.40	7.83	91.90	4273.5	344	\overline{c}
Mal-5	$0.05 - 0.02$	14.85	7.52	87.04	4547.9	378	\overline{c}
Mal-5	< 0.02	47.40	7.31	90.97	4581.0	390	\overline{c}
Mal-7	$0.2 - 0.05$	37.25	7.17	89.50	4098.5	359	\overline{c}
Mal-7	$0.05 - 0.02$	19.60	6.29	80.88	3383.2	340	\overline{c}
Mal-7	< 0.02	31.45	6.94	90.91	3738.4	340	\overline{c}
$At-12$	$0.2 - 0.05$	32.60	7.20	89.76	3936.3	345	\overline{c}
$At-12$	$0.05 - 0.02$	21.8	6.88	90.11	3902.6	356	\overline{c}
$At-12$	< 0.02	34.1	6.89	87.62	3711.8	340	\overline{c}
$At-4$	< 0.2	24.95	6.42	86.03	3506.6	344	\overline{c}
$Ok-2A$	$0.2 - 0.05$	36.25	6.91	89.69	3704.6	339	\overline{c}
$Ok-2A$	$0.05 - 0.02$	22.70	6.89	91.19	4017.3	339	\overline{c}
$Ok-2A$	< 0.02	32.20	6.85	92.18	3721.2	339	\overline{c}
$Tr-9$	< 0.2	29.75	7.08	91.48	3795.6	339	\overline{c}
Other Silurian rocks							
$Us-2$	$2 - 0.2$	42.65	5.5	89.93	3327.5	378	\overline{c}
Sok-6	< 0.2	24.4	5.6	78.44	3415.8	381	\overline{c}
Sok-6	$2 - 0.2$	36.35	6.17	90.68	3942.9	397	\overline{c}
Mal-8	< 0.2	9.04	5.87	80.39	3013.6	325	$\overline{\mathcal{L}}$
Mal-8	$2 - 0.2$	27	3.37	67.95	1651.6	312	3
$Mal-10$	< 0.2	31.45	6.90	90.09	3388.9	313	$\frac{2}{3}$
$Tr-2$	< 0.2	15.65	6.14	78.38	3243.5	334	
$SP-4$	< 0.2	13.35	6.13	80.92	3697.8	377	3
Standard							
GLO	bulk	100.70	7.90	26.60	1104.8	95	$\mathbf{1}$
GLO	bulk	127.35	7.90	79.15	1132.1	97	$\mathbf{1}$
GLO	bulk	60.05	7.90	87.59	1128.3	97	$\mathbf{1}$

Table 5. K-Ar dates of fine fractions of bentonites and other Silurian rocks.

not reliable because too small a number of tracks was available for the measurement.

SEM observations and EDS analyses

In all six bentonite samples (Mal-2, 4, 6, Ok-2B, Sok-1, Us-1), the separated coarse fraction is dominated by adularia, with minor amounts of pyroclastic quartz, biotite, apatite, and zircon. The adularia crystals are isometric and range from 50 to 100 μ m in diameter. Growth features are common (Figure 8), but in the Malynivtsi samples are less abundant, which gives these crystals a more regular appearance.

Numerous EDS analyses performed for samples SP-3 and Tr-5 revealed that the carbonate mineral identified by XRD is Ca-dolomite and not ankerite. The texture of soft mudstone was observed in three samples (At-14, SP-4, and Tr-5). The samples are very porous due to partial dissolution of carbonate rhombohedra (Figure 8).

INTERPRETATION

Weathering overprint

Most of the samples studied come from natural outcrops, thus some weathering features can be \sim

expected. The dissolution of carbonate rhombohedra detected by SEM, the presence of goethite and jarosite, the swelling of some chlorites, and the mixed-layer smectite-chlorite (Figure 5) are interpreted as products of contemporary weathering. The association of smectite-chlorite with chlorite, and the presence of swelling chlorite in numerous samples indicate that the smectitechlorite is a chlorite weathering product. Based on the d_{006} value, these minerals seem to have evolved toward a dioctahedral composition.

Such interpretation is supported by peak broadening of the 002 chlorite reflection (Figure 9) plotted vs. KI, which is widely regarded as a key indicator of the degree of deep diagenesis and anchimetamorphism. For a given KI, the chlorites from boreholes have the narrowest peaks. Next are the Devonian chlorites from outcrops and the broadest are the Silurian chlorites from outcrops. This sequence probably reflects the length of exposure to weathering: none in the boreholes, and much shorter on the Devonian shale slopes of Dniester than on the Silurian carbonate vertical walls, which are expected to be much more resistant to erosion (Figure 10). The distribution of goethite (Table 2: common in the Silurian most porous rocks, of mineral composition intermediate between carbonates and shales, and as such the most prone to weathering) supports this interpretation. Thus, chlorite from outcrops should be excluded as an indicator of the diagenetic grade, being non-resistant to weathering.

The swelling minerals detected by Huff et al. (2000, figure 6) in the outcrops of the same Silurian section are also probably chlorite weathering products. On the other hand, the core samples from the same stratigraphic interval, farther NW on the Peri-Tornquist margin (Baltic basin), and representing similar diagenetic grade, contain only non-expandable chlorite (Srodon´ and Clauer, 2001), like the borehole chlorites from this study.

Provenance

The K-Ar dates of clay fractions from the Silurian rocks other than bentonites are predominantly within the values measured for bentonites (Table 5). This is not a common situation: most often the detrital component of epiclastic rocks results in dates significantly older than the dates obtained from the clay fractions of pyroclastics (e.g. Clauer et al., 1997). Such young ages imply a combination of two factors: the detrital material on the Silurian carbonate platform was predominantly pyroclastic, while the epiclastic component was minor and young (Caledonian). Very similar results were obtained for the Baltic basin segment of the Peri-Tornquist margin (Srodon^o and Clauer, 2001), both indicating the alimentation of these basins from outside the East European Craton.

Diagenetic phenomena

The high Mg content of the Silurian section is manifested by abundant dolomite/Ca-dolomite in carbo-

Figure 6. The distributions of AFT ages of individual apatite crystals and central ages of samples (weighted means) presented on the radial plots of Galbraith (1990). The age of each crystal may be determined by extrapolating a line from 0 on the vertical scale of standard deviation (σ) for the sample through the crystal position on the plot (small rectangle) to the radial age scale. Central ages of samples are defined by the dashed lines. The horizontal scale presents the relative error of age estimation for individual crystals, related to the number of measured tracks.

Figure 7. Track-length distributions and models of thermal history obtained using AFTSolve (Ketcham et al., 2000). In order to explain the observed AFT length distributions, a post-Albian thermal episode has to be assumed.

Figure 8. SEM images of growth features at the surfaces of feldspars from bentonites $(a-c)$ and of porosity in soft mudstones, created by the dissolution of carbonate crystals (d).

nates, soft mudstones, and shales; by the Mg-rich composition of the 10 Å mineral (intermediate illitealuminoceladonite composition) in these rocks; and by a positive correlation of dolomite and Mg-chlorite in carbonates, shales, and soft mudstones (Table 2). In bentonites, both dolomite and chlorite are absent but the

Figure 9. Peak broadening of chlorite 002 reflection (FWHM002chlorite) in non-bentonitic samples (with Silurian carbonates indicated separately), plotted vs the Kübler index (KI), regarded as an indicator of the diagenetic grade. For the given KI, FWHM002chlorite is greatest for the most weathered samples.

Figure 10. Photos illustrating more stable Silurian carbonate slopes (a: near Ustya) and the Devonian shale slopes (b: near Kolodribka) of the Dniester gorge.

illite-smectite is Mg rich and evolves toward pure aluminoceladonite. In the Devonian shales, calcite is abundant, dolomite scarce, and the 10 Å mineral has strictly illitic composition. The bulk-rock composition control over the diagenetic products is, thus, clearly evident.

Diagenetic zonation observed in a thick bentonite bed (Malynivtsi) is the opposite of earlier reports of a lower degree of illitization in the center of bentonite beds (Srodon, 1976; Altaner et al., 1984). It resembles the zonation in a sandstone bed (Whitney and Northop, 1987), interpreted as a result of fluid flow through the bed; an explanation difficult to accept for an impermeable bentonite bed, unless it became a shear zone as the least competent layer in this carbonate section, and this zone became a conduit for migrating hot fluids.

Maximum burial temperatures

The %S in illite-smectite of the studied Silurian section preserves the pattern typical of sedimentary basins with the %S in bentonite beds greater than in shales (cf. e.g. Sucha et al., 1993). Only the most illitized samples of the thick bentonite bed (Malynivtsi) reach the level of illitization typical of shales and other non-bentonitic rocks from this section. Based on the shale values of $\%S \ll 5$ the maximum paleotemperatures

can be evaluated as 200ºC or even slightly higher (Srodoń, 2007). K-Ar dates and aluminoceladonitic composition, restricted to the dolomite-dominated (cf. Table 2) Silurian sequence, clearly prove that the shale illitic material is predominantly diagenetic and not detrital, and thus suitable for the paleotemperature estimation.

To verify whether the illite-smectite paleotemperature curve, calibrated for regular illite from shale sequences (Srodon, 2007), can also be applied to aluminoceladonite from carbonate sequences, the overlying Lower Devonian shale sequence was studied. The data form trends consistent with the stratigraphic position (more advanced diagenesis of the Silurian rocks: Figure 11a,b), which are bracketed by the Lish-1 anchimetamorphic sample (>250ºC, based on KI = 0.29) and the 24%S sample from borehole 6618, corresponding to 125° C (Srodon, 2007). Deep burial of both Silurian and Lower Devonian sections of the Dniester gorge to the maximum temperatures of ~200ºC has been confirmed by these data.

The alternative data for the maximum paleotemperature estimation, available from the study area (cf. Sachsenhofer and Koltun, 2012), are the CAI measurements of Drygant (1993, and ten additional unpublished measurements from this study area, which modify

Figure 11. Diagenetic trends in the non-bentonitic samples studied, illustrated by plots of Ir index (Srodon´, 1984) and Kübler index (KI) vs. difference in XRD 001 peak positions between glycolated and air-dried samples (Δ gly-air).

slightly the original map: Figure 2a). The Dniester section studied gave $CAI = 2-3$, which, according to Drygant (1993), indicates paleotemperatures up to 200ºC. Nehring-Lefeld et al. (1997), who compiled CAI data for the entire Peri-Tornquist margin, interpreted the $CAI = 2-3$ zone as corresponding to the maximum paleotemperatures of 110-140ºC. According to the authors of the CAI method (Epstein et al., 1977), the color of conodonts depends heavily on the heating time, thus the length of the heating period has to be assumed. The K-Ar data indicate 10s of Ma, putting the maximum CAI = 3 paleotemperature well below 150 $^{\circ}$ C. An analogous discrepancy between %S and CAI estimates of the maximum paleotemperatures has been observed for the Baltic basin (compare figure 4 of Srodon^{i} et al., 2009a and figure 7 of Bergstrom, 1980).

In Pomerania (Baltic basin), where both CAI and vitrinite reflectance (R_0) data are available (Nehring-Lefeld *et al.*, 1997), the CAI = $2-3$ zone corresponds to $R_o = 1-2$, which indicates $140-200$ °C maximum paleotemperatures according to Suggate (1998) and 150-250ºC according to Barker and Pawlewicz (1986). In the hot Miocene East Slovak Basin, used for the %Sbased paleothermometry (Srodon, 2007), \sim 5%S and R_o= 2 have been measured in shales currently at 200ºC, at a depth of 4 km (Francu^u et al., 1990).

The AFT ages, which are completely reset (Table 6), suggest that the maximum post-depositional paleotemperatures were >100±20°C (Naeser, 1981), which is consistent with both the clay and organic-based estimates.

Clay data tend to indicate that the maximum paleotemperatures were slightly higher than the CAIbased values, but the general regional pattern of paleotemperatures recorded by CAI (Figure 2a) is confirmed by the clay data. The Lish-1 anchimetamorphic illite comes from CAI zone 4-5, the samples in the Dniester gorge section with <<5%S in IS correspond to $CAI = 2-3$, and the samples from the top of 6618 borehole, with $24-29\%$ S in IS, correspond to CAI = 1.5.

A Vendian Al-glauconite from Kytayhorod in the Dniester gorge (15 km E and <200 m below the Silurian in the section) was dated at 360-404 Ma (Gorokhov et al., 1997). Those authors interpreted these dates, following Morton and Long (1984), as indicative of resetting due to oxidation during uplift and contact with meteoric waters. These dates are coincident with the illite-smectite diagenetic ages reported here, which probably indicate total or almost total reset of the stratigraphic ages during the deep burial event, suggesting burial conditions close to 250ºC (reset temperature for illite: Hunzicker et al., 1986) for the Cambrian-Vendian part of the profile in the Dniester gorge.

Burial and thermal history

Bentonite K-Ar data constrain the age of maximum paleotemperatures at 390-340 Ma (Middle Devonian-Lower Carboniferous). The K-Ar data of clay fractions

from shale and limestone from the vicinity of a thick bentonite bed (Malynivtsi) extend the lower limit to 310 Ma (Upper Carboniferous). Together they represent the range of ages very close to those measured for bentonites from Pomerania, i.e. another segment of the Peri-Tornquist margin (294–382 Ma: Środoń et al., 2009a).

In Pomerania these K-Ar ages are interpreted as representing the maximum burial followed by a longlasting uplift, based on the regional geology and confirmed by basin modeling (Poprawa et al., 2010). The data collected for the Lower Devonian shales from the Dniester gorge verify a deep burial of the section, leading to an analogous conclusion of a long-lasting uplift of the Podolia area, which is corroborated by the available geological data. During the Permian and Mesozoic the entire study area, along with the rest of the Dniester slope, were parts of a much larger landmass, undergoing uplift and erosion. During the late Albian/ early Cenomanian (~100 Ma ago) a few tens of meters of shallow marine sediments were deposited in Podolia, and are preserved in the area, though partially eroded (Swidrowska et al., 2008). These data imply that the Silurian rocks under study were uplifted from a depth corresponding to 200° C (5–10 km assuming a feasible range of geothermal gradients from 40 to 20ºC/km) to the surface between 300 and 100 Ma ago. These estimates give the mean rates of uplift of the Dniester gorge area in this period from 25 to 50 m/Ma.

Deep burial conditions during the Carboniferous and Permian are consistent with the paleomagnetic measurements from the Silurian of Podolia, performed on finegrained diagenetic magnetite, which indicate pervasive remagnetization of this age (Jeleńska et al., 2005). On the other hand, the existing geological evidence does not provide an explicit identification of the missing 5-10 km column of the eroded overburden. According to the paleogeographic maps compiled by Nikishin et al. (1996) the study area experienced only some coastal zone sedimentation (alluvial-deltaic and shallow-marine sands and shales) during the Early Devonian but became land (no deposition) starting from the Middle Devonian. This reconstruction would be consistent with the K-Ar evidence only if 5-10 km of the Early Devonian cover were originally deposited in this area. The preserved sedimentary record makes such an assumption unlikely. It consists of 530 m of Lochkovian marine shales, siltstones, and limestones (Tyver Superhorizon) and 0-1194 m of Old Red Pragian-Emsian fluvial-estuarine siliciclastics (Dniester Series) with an erosional upper surface (Małkowski et al., 2009; Drygant, 2010).

Tectonic burial under Caledonian nappes thrust onto the craton margin from the SW similar to the sequence of events recorded in the Polish sector of the Peri-Tornquist slope (Znosko, 1970) can be excluded, based on the cross-sections of the craton margin constructed for the area (Drygant, 2010). A feasible scenario has to assume that the Nikishin *et al.* (1996) reconstruction is not correct and that the entire area of the Dniester slope became a part of the Variscan foreland basin and was covered by a thick Upper Devonian–Upper Carboniferous (+Permian?) cover, the bottom part of which is preserved today as an erosional remnant in the Lublin–L'viv coal basin and farther NW on the Peri-Tornquist slope (Figure 2a). The zonation of Carboniferous coal grade corresponds perfectly to the diagenetic zonation of the underlying Lower Paleozoic strata, as it increases to the SW (Karnkowski 2003; Shulga et al., 2007). Also, the thickness of subsequent Carboniferous formations increases to the SW toward the Rava Rus'ka Fault (Shulga et al., 2007, figure 34). The SE border of the Lublin-L'viv Basin is erosional, with younger strata intersecting the present-day surface successively toward the NW (Figure 2a). Coals of the Lublin-L'viv Basin are characterized by $R_0 = 0.55 - 1.0$ (Majorowicz et al., 1984), indicative of substantial burial (1.5-3.0 km according to figure 5 of Suggate, 1998). The missing overburden probably included Permian, as indicated by the Permian K-Ar ages of illite-smectite from the Carboniferous sandstones of the Lublin basin (Kozłowska, 2011). 120ºC or occasionally even higher diagenetic temperatures in the Carboniferous rocks were estimated from fluid inclusions in sandstone cements (Kozłowska, 2002; Poprawa and Żywiecki, 2005). Detrital micas, as well as monazite and zircon from the Carboniferous sandstones of the Lublin-L'viv coal basin, give distinctive Carboniferous age cluster, documenting the Variscan source area (Paszkowski and Kusiak, 2005). All these features are consistent with the hypothesis of an asymmetric Upper Paleozoic basin fill, thickest in the SW, extending originally on the Dniester slope toward the SE, at least as far as the Dniester gorge area. This was responsible for the diagenesis of the underlying Lower Paleozoic rocks, and was removed by erosion during the Mesozoic uplift of the area.

Part of this Carboniferous basin, now destroyed by erosion, was probably located in the present-day Rava Rus'ka tectonic zone, bordering the Lublin-L'viv basin from the SW (Figure 2a). Such an hypothesis is supported by the Silurian bentonite K-Ar dating from the Wola Obszańska borehole (Kowalska, 2008), located in this zone just W of the Polish-Ukrainian border (Figure 2a). Four bentonite samples from this profile gave 12-14%S, thus a similar level of burial as the Dniester gorge area, and also a similar illite-smectite K-Ar age range of 285-364 Ma. The %S determinations in Silurian shales from several boreholes in this zone (Kowalska, 2008) indicate a level of diagenesis similar to well 6618, located on the NE edge of the Lublin-L'viv basin (Figure 2a). These data allow speculation that the depocenter of the Carboniferous basin ran NW-SE more or less along the Rava Rus'ka fault, as recorded by the highest CAI values of 5 (Figure 2a). Originally, the axis

of this basin may have deepened toward the SE, allowing for thicker Upper Paleozoic overburden than known from the NW (Warsaw-Lublin area), and the tectonic inversion of this basin was stronger in the SE, resulting in deeper exhumation. Such a sequence of events is typical of basins controlled by major faults (e.g. Podhale basin: Srodon^{*et al.*, 2006a).}

Such narrow depocenters, localized over major faults (Figure 12a) filled with siliciclastics with very high sedimentation rates and high thermal maturity, are known from several parts of Larussia in front of the Variscan orogen (Clare basin in Ireland: Croker, 1995; Culm basin in Cornwall: Warr and Hecht, 1993; Reugen basin in NE Germany: Kornpihl, 2005; Donbas basin in the Ukraine: Reznikov, 1978).

An alternative feasible mechanism, which could have produced excessive burial along the Rava Rus'ka fault is a Variscan intracratonic duplex thrusting event. Such structures have been recognized farther to the NW in Poland along the Ursynów-Kazimierz fault, which is a NW continuation of the Rava Rus'ka fault (Antonowicz et al., 2003; Krzywiec, 2009). Similar transpressional thrust duplexes form a newly described class of orogens known as intracontinental transpressional thrust/fault belts (Cunningham, 2005; Cunningham and Mann, 2007). The duplex overburden may have been removed entirely by erosion, due to deeper exhumation of this area (Figure 12b).

Theoretically, such differences in the level of diagenesis could also be attributed to the variation in paleo-heat flow between the platform and TESZ. The thickness distribution of the Carboniferous formations in the Lublin-L'viv Basin, correlating positively with the coal grade, testifies against the heat flow variation as the major factor. Analyses of contemporary heat-flow patterns in Poland did not detect major differences between TESZ and the craton (Majorowicz et al., 2003). However, the analysis of vitrinite reflectance profiles from the Lublin basin reveals a systematic increase of the paleogeothermal gradient along the Peri-Tornquist slope (Majorowicz et al., 1984, figure 7) from the region near Warsaw (27ºC/km, similar to a contemporary gradient) to the Polish–Ukrainian border (50º/km, twice the contemporary gradient: estimates based on Suggate, 1998, in agreement with the estimates of Majorowicz et al., 1984). Botor et al. (2002) detected a similar trend in the area. If this trend in the paleogeothermal gradient continued farther to the SE, as implied by the modeling (Karnkowski, 2003), then the estimates of the Carboniferous burial of the L'viv slope presented above could be reduced significantly.

An elevated and variable heat flow along TESZ in the Carboniferous was also proposed by Poprawa and Z ywiecki (2005), who explained it by advection in the transpressional stress field. This hypothesis is consistent with the Tournisian bimodal magmatic activity in the Lublin basin (5000 km^2 of basalt and trachyte cover, up

Figure 12. Models (cross-sections along A–A' trend in Figure 2a) of burial/thermal history of the study area, explaining possible mechanisms of elevated degree of diagenesis along the Rava Rus'ka Fault. Fault-controlled local depocenter formed in transtensional(?) regime, with subsequent inversion and erosional removal of entire anomalously-thick basin fill (a), and intracratonic transpressive(?) duplexing over undeformed basement and subsequent exhumation and erosional removal of entire duplex.

to 230 m thick: Grocholski and Ryka, 1995), and farther to the NW (Jaworowski, 2002; Muszyński et al., 1996).

The data presented do not allow for selection of the most feasible scenario or their combination, but they confirm the diagenetic CAI-based zonation (Drygant, 1993) and date the advanced diagenesis on the Dniester slope as Devonian–Carboniferous, thus related to the Variscan orogeny, and induced by the Upper Devonian– Carboniferous overburden and, possibly, tectonothermal events.

The AFT dates confirm a complete post-depositional reset and slow exhumation (distributions skewed to small track length and shortened tracks: Gallagher et al., 1998). Such AFT ages do not represent the age of the crossing 100 ± 20 °C isotherm but are significantly younger (e.g. Gallagher et al., 1998, figure 4b; Green et al., 1989, figure 1). However, the AFT ages measured are much too young to be reconciled with any feasible scenario of the exhumation to surface in the Albian (Swidrowska et al., 2008), and then residing in nearsurface temperatures, as would be expected from the very thin Cenozoic cover (up to 200 m of Miocene marine sediments: Nowak, 1938). This conclusion was confirmed by the modeling with AFTSolve (Ketcham et al., 2000), a computer program for deriving thermal history information from the apatite fission-track data. AFTSolve generates possible time-temperature paths (Figure 7), using the Monte Carlo algorithm, by fitting the experimental fission-track length distributions with distributions calculated according to the Laslett et al. (1987) annealing model. The dark gray areas in Figure 7 mark fields with goodness-of-fit $[GOF] \ge 0.5$, and thick lines correspond to the thermal history with maximum GOF. The light gray fields show imperfect but acceptable models of thermal histories. The original constraints used in modeling were as follows: (1) the stratigraphic ages of samples (~400 Ma); (2) the age of maximum paleotemperatures (from K-Ar dating: \sim 300 Ma); (3) the age of unroofing to the surface (~100 Ma - the stratigraphic age of overlying Cretaceous sediments); and (4) present-day mean surface temperature.

In order to explain the measured ages and tracklength distributions, a post-Albian heating event to $~100^{\circ}$ C must be assumed (Figure 7). Feasible models can be constructed both assuming relatively old and young post-Albian heating events. No independent evidence, supporting such thermal events in the Dniester area, was found in the literature, however.

The burial history inferred here for the Dniester slope bears some close similarities to the history of the Carboniferous fill of Donbas, located 500 km to the east within the Sarmatian Shield (Figure 1). Also, in Donbas, the post-Carboniferous erosion is estimated to have reached 10 km, numerous Cretaceous AFT coolingages were measured (Danisik et al., 2010) and the maximum level of alteration reached the anchimetamorphic stage in the axial zone of the basin (Srodon['] and Paszkowski, 2011).

CONCLUSIONS

(1) The Silurian and Lower Devonian rocks in Podolia underwent deep burial diagenesis, with maximum temperatures reaching 200ºC.

(2) This diagenetic event lasted from the Upper Devonian to the end of the Carboniferous, based on K-Ar dating of illite-smectite from bentonites and shales. This result implies that the spatial distribution of shale gas vs. shale oil rocks in the area is controlled by the Dniester slope evolution during the Upper Paleozoic, which constrains the basin history models for the area.

(3) The spatial pattern of diagenesis detected using illite-smectite corresponds to the CAI data, and implies that the highest diagenetic temperatures occurred along the Rava Rus'ka Fault.

(4) To explain this pattern, the extension of the Carboniferous Lublin-L'viv basin to the SE has to be imagined, possibly with a narrow, fault-controlled depocenter or a transpressional Variscan intracratonic duplex thrust over the Rava Rus'ka Fault zone, which produced anchimetamorphic temperatures. Elevated heat flow may have also played a role.

(5) The long-lasting uplift of the Sarmatian Shield destroyed this thick sedimentary cover in Podolia, as proven by the Cretaceous AFT ages. An additional, much weaker, post-Albian heating period has to be assumed to explain the AFT data fully.

(6) At such a deep level of diagenesis, the bulk-rock composition (carbonate vs. shale) does not measurably affect the degree of smectite illitization, but a lower degree in bentonites is still measurable. The bulk-rock chemistry (elevated Mg) resulted in elevated contents of chlorite and affected illite chemical composition, producing aluminoceladonite in the Silurian dolomitic section.

(7) The comparison of core and outcrop samples indicates that chlorite is partially opened during contemporary outcrop weathering and for this reason it is unsuitable as an indicator of diagenetic degree.

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