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Review Article δ^{13} C of aromatic compounds in sediments, oils and atmospheric emissions: A review

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ABSTRACT

This review discusses major applications of stable carbon isotopic measurements of aromatic compounds, along with some specific technical aspects including purification of aromatic fractions for baseline separation. δ^{13} C measurements of organic matter (OM) in sediments and oils are routine in all fields of organic geochemistry, but they are predominantly done on saturated compounds. Aromatic compounds are important contributors to sedimentary organic matter, and provide indication of diagenetic processes, OM source, and thermal maturity. Studies have found evidence for a small ¹³C-enrichment during diagenetic aromatisation of approximately 1–2‰, but the formation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) from combustion and hydrothermal processes seems to produce no effect. Likewise, maturation and biodegradation also produce only small isotopic effects. An early application of δ^{13} C of aromatic compounds was in the classification of oil families by source. Bulk measurements have had some success in differentiating marine and terrigenous oils, but were not accurate in all settings.

Compound-specific analyses measure certain aromatics with strong links to source, therefore allowing more accurate source identification. δ^{13} C measurements of individual aromatic compounds also allow identification of higher plant input in ancient sediments, even after severe diagenetic alteration or combustion to PAHs. Perylene, a PAH with a historically contentious origin, was assigned a source from wood-degrading fungi on the basis of its isotopic composition. Stable carbon isotopic measurements are also important in the analysis of organic matter from Chlorobiaceae, which is an important indicator of photic zone euxinic conditions in ancient sediments. A large range of aromatic products are formed from the carotenoid pigments of Chlorobiaceae, with an enriched carbon isotopic composition characteristic of the reverse tricarboxylic acid photosynthetic pathway employed by this family of organisms. In future, site-specific isotope analysis using techniques such as nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometry and high-resolution isotope ratio mass spectrometry may reveal more information about isotopic effects associated with aromatisation processes and maturation.

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1. Introduction and technical aspects

Stable carbon isotopic measurements have historically been of great importance in the analysis of organic matter (OM) in oils and sediments. Early measurements of bulk isotopic composition were applied to petroleum exploration (Sofer, 1984) and palaeoenvironmental studies (Schidlowski, 1988). The development of compound-specific isotope analysis (CSIA) revealed that sedimentary OM contains a wide range of source inputs and isotopic compositions (Freeman et al., 1990; Grice and Brocks, 2011). Compound-specific δ^{13} C measurements are now routinely

employed in all aspects of organic geochemistry such as paleoand modern environmental studies (e.g. Grice et al., 1996b; Diefendorf and Freimuth, 2017), and petroleum exploration (Edwards and Zumberge, 2005; Pedentchouk and Turich, 2018). The majority of studies focus only on saturated compounds, likely due to their generally greater abundance in sediments and oils and their relative ease of sample preparation. Aromatic compounds however are also important constituents of sedimentary OM. They are not biosynthesised in significant quantities by organisms, but are formed from natural precursors by processes including diagenetic alteration, natural combustion processes and anthropogenic emissions (e.g. Wakeham et al., 1980a, b; Venkatesan and Dahl, 1989; Grice et al., 2007). Therefore, the carbon isotopic composition of aromatic compounds has the potential to reveal valuable





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information about these processes. Despite some analytical challenges, such as generally low abundance in sediments and difficulties achieving baseline separation of peaks, δ^{13} C measurements of aromatic compounds have been employed in oil family classifications and oil-source correlations, source assignment of modern and ancient OM, and palaeoenvironmental studies (see Table 1).

In this review, we summarise the range of applications for compound-specific carbon isotope measurements of aromatic compounds in sediments and oils. A review of the carbon isotope geochemistry of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in aquatic environments is included in Abrajano et al. (2014). For detailed discussion of the technical elements of δ^{13} C measurement, readers are directed to a number of comprehensive reviews, e.g. Sessions (2006), De Groot (2009) and Hoefs (2015), and references therein. Buczyńska et al. (2013) presents a review of analytical methodologies for CSIA of PAHs. Certain aspects related to aromatic compounds in general are discussed below.

1.1. Separation of aromatic compounds

Baseline separation of analyte peaks is a strict requirement of CSIA in order to achieve reliable isotope measurements (Ricci et al., 1994; Sessions, 2006). Separation of oils and source rock extracts into saturated and aromatic fractions by silica gel column chromatography (e.g. Bastow et al., 2007) is standard procedure before gas chromatography – mass spectrometry (GC–MS) and

Table 1

Summary of $\delta^{13}\mathrm{C}$ values of aromatic compounds from studies discussed in the text.

gas chromatography – isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-irMS) analysis, but significant co-elution often remains in aromatic fractions (e.g. Budzinski et al., 1995; van Aarssen et al., 1999; Cesar and Grice, 2017). In such cases additional separation steps are required to achieve baseline separation. Techniques to isolate specific sections of the chromatogram include thin-layer chromatography (van Kaam-Peters et al., 1995; Grice et al., 1998a, 2005a), preparative high-performance liquid chromatography (Killops and Readman, 1985) and preparative GC (Summons and Powell, 1987). In addition, alumina column chromatography has been employed to separate aromatic fractions by number of aromatic rings (Summons and Powell, 1987; Jiang et al., 2013).

1.2. Aromatic VOCs

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are ubiquitous in the atmosphere, and are produced by both natural and anthropogenic processes (Kansal, 2009). Due to the structural simplicity of these compounds, source attribution requires the use of stable isotope measurements. Vitzthum von Eckstaedt developed a method for δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H analysis of atmospheric VOCs based on adsorption on TenaxTA resin in sampling tubes, followed by thermal desorption of analyte gasses into the inlet of a GC-irMS system via a cold trap (Vitzthum von Eckstaedt et al., 2011a). Aromatic compounds that were analysed include benzene, toluene, xylenes, ethylbenzene, styrene and naphthalene. Cross plots of δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H

Compounds	Setting	δ^{13} C (‰ VPDB)	Reference
Petroleum Bulk aromatics Bulk aromatics Bulk aromatics Alkylated PAHs Alkylated PAHs	Waxy oils Non-waxy oils Phanerozoic oils West Australian crude oils West Australian crude oils	-31.2 to -21.8 -31.0 to -16.8 -28.59 to -26.30 -30.3 to -23.5 -33.3 to -21.3	Sofer (1984) Sofer (1984) Andrusevich et al. (1998) Maslen et al. (2011) Le Métayer et al. (2014)
PAHs Higher plant sources Aromatised gymnosperm and angiosperm markers Aromatised gymnosperm and angiosperm markers Aromatised gymnosperm and angiosperm markers Aromatised gymnosperm and angiosperm markers Combustion PAHs Combustion PAHs Combustion PAHs Retene	Carnarvon Basin source rocks Torbanites Central Arctic Ocean PETM sediments Eocene Messel Shale Tertiary brown coal C ₃ plants C ₄ plants Perth Basin Permian sediments Fluvial / deltaic Triassic-lurassic sediments	-31.2 to -23.1 -25.5 to -23.0 -33 to -25 -33.2 to -23.3 -29 -28.8 to -28.0 -17.1 to -15.8 -24.7 to -29.9 -26.9 to -24.9	Cesar and Grice (2017) Grice et al. (2001) Schouten et al. (2007) Freeman et al. (1994) Schoell et al. (1994) O'Malley et al. (1997) O'Malley et al. (1997) Grice et al. (2007) Grice et al. (2005a)
Cyanobacterial/algal sources Benzohopanes Diagenetic PAHs Benzohopanes Tricyclic aromatics <i>Fungal sources</i> Perylene Perylene Perylene Perylene	Torbanites Perth Basin Jurassic sediments Permian Kupferschiefer Tasmanite oil shale, Tasmania Saanich Inlet, British Columbia Quinpu trench, China Late Cretaceous to Paleogene terrigenous sediments	-30.6 to -27.9 -30.0 to -33.3 -30 to -29.6 -9 to -6 -27.7 to -23.6 -26.5 to -27.5 -24.5 to -21.1	Grice et al. (2001) Grice et al. (2007) Grice et al. (1996b) Revill et al. (1994) Silliman et al. (2000) Grice et al. (2009) Suzuki et al. (2010)
Chlorobiaceae Isorenieratane Isorenieratane Isorenieratane Isorenieratane Isorenieratane Aryl isoprenoids Aryl isoprenoids Aryl isoprenoids Isorenieratane derivatives Tetramethylbenzenes Alkylbenzenes C ₁₉ alkyl biphenyl methyl <i>n</i> -propyl and methyl <i>iso</i> butyl maleimides	Upper Devonian Duvernay Formation Permian Kupferschiefer Jianghan Basin, China Holocene Black Sea West African Lower Cretaceous source rocks Silurian and Devonian Canadian oils Upper Devonian Duvernay Formation Late Devonian Canning Basin Permian Kupferschiefer Ordovician to Miocene sediments Upper Devonian Duvernay Formation West African Lower Cretaceous source rocks Permian / Triassic Spitsbergen sediments Permian Kupferschiefer	$\begin{array}{c} -13.2 \ {\rm to} \ -5.7 \\ -16.4 \ {\rm to} \ -13.4 \\ -17.3 \ {\rm to} \ -16.1 \\ -17.4 \ {\rm to} \ -14.8 \\ -14.5 \\ -24.74 \ {\rm to} \ -21.61 \\ -17.7 \ {\rm to} \ -5.9 \\ -21 \ {\rm to} \ -17 \\ -20.4 \ {\rm to} \ -15.6 \\ -19.0 \ {\rm to} \ -16.3 \\ -19.4 \ {\rm to} \ -17.5 \\ -22.8 \ {\rm to} \ -19.3 \\ -17 \ {\rm to} \ -9 \\ -18.1 \ {\rm to} \ -16.7 \end{array}$	Hartgers et al. (1994b) Grice et al. (1996b, 1997) Grice et al. (1998b) Sinninghe Damsté et al. (1993) Pedentchouk et al. (2004) Summons and Powell (1986) Hartgers et al. (1994b) Tulipani et al. (2015) Grice et al. (1996b, 1997) Sinninghe Damsté et al. (1995a) Hartgers et al. (1994b) Pedentchouk et al. (2004) Nabbefeld et al. (2010b) Grice et al. (1996a)

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