Introduction

The Tucumcari Basin is spread out over 5,000 mi² of east-central New Mexico (Fig. 1; Broadhead and King 1988; Broadhead et al. 2002). It stretches from San Ignacio, approximately 15 mi west of Santa Rosa, New Mexico, on the west to central Quay County, New Mexico, on the east and from Fort Sumner on the south to Trementina on the north. It is an Ancestral Rocky Mountain basin that developed structurally and existed as a depositional entity during the Pennsylvanian and Early Permian. The present-day topographic expression of the basin is deceptively simple, consisting of the high plains and rolling hills underlain by Triassic red beds, and mesas formed by erosional remnants of Jurassic and Cretaceous strata (Fig. 2). The subsurface geology of the region is extremely complex and consists of buried uplifts and mountain ranges that border the Tucumcari Basin as well as complex segmentation of the basin into deep elevator sub-basins and adjoining shelf areas (Fig. 3).

The Tucumcari Basin began to form during the Early to Middle Pennsylvanian Period when large basin-bounding faults began to move in a regional strike-slip setting. During this time, the Tucumcari Basin, its component elevator basins, and the bordering uplifts were formed primarily along regional shear zones activated during the Ouachita and Arbuckle orogenies (see Szabo and Wengerd 1975; Kluth and Conev 1981; Budnik 1986). As vertical offset along the basin-bounding faults increased, the Tucumcari Basin was divided into a number of discrete tectonic elements that influenced depositional facies from the Pennsylvanian into the Early Permian (Broadhead and King 1988; Broadhead et al. 2002). Chief among these tectonic elements are four elevator basins in the north and a wide shelf area to the south. The elevator basins were the sites of deposition of thick sections of organically rich shales that, when buried, were turned into thermally mature source rocks of oil and gas.

Elevator basins and petroleum source rocks

The Tucumcari Basin is bordered on the north by the Sierra Grande uplift and on the northeast by the Bravo Dome, which separates it from the Dalhart Basin. On the west the basin is bordered by the San Ignacio platform of Reynolds (1998) and Reynolds and Reynolds (2004 this issue), which separates it from the Vaughn Basin. On the east the Frio uplift separates the Tucumcari Basin from the Palo Duro Basin of the Texas panhandle. To the south, the Sin Nombre arch (Broadhead and Jones 2002) separates the Tucumcari Basin from the Permian Basin. The Tucumcari Basin and its adjoining uplifts and arches formed during the Pennsylvanian and Early Permian as tectonic elements of the Ancestral Rocky Mountains, primarily along regional shear zones activated during the Ouachita and Arbuckle orogenies (see Szabo and Wengerd 1975; Kluth and Conev 1981; Budnik 1986).

“Elevator basins” (Broadhead 1998; Broadhead and Chapin 1999; Broadhead 2001a,b) are defined as long, narrow, and structurally deep troughs bounded by high-angle faults. They are typically 20–50 mi long and 5–15 mi wide. Bounding faults have vertical offsets that can exceed 5,000 ft. The geometry of several elevator basins suggests that they were formed in a regional strike-slip setting and are generally similar to the pull-apart basins described by Dooley and McClay (1997). Although the bounding faults appear to have a significant strike-slip aspect, the amount of lateral displacement along the faults is not documented.

There are four elevator basins within the Tucumcari Basin: the Cuervo sub-basin, the Quay sub-basin, the Trementina sub-basin, and the Trigg Ranch sub-basin (Fig. 1). The Cuervo sub-basin (see Reynolds and Reynolds 2004 this issue) is elongated east-west and is parallel to the southern boundary of the Newkirk anticline and the Sierra Grande uplift. The Quay sub-basin is elongated northeast-southwest and is parallel to the southeastern margin of the Sierra Grande uplift. The Trementina sub-basin is elongated northwest-southeast and cuts into the southeastern flank of the Sierra Grande uplift. The Trigg Ranch sub-

FIGURE 1—Map of the Tucumcari Basin showing the location of the four elevator basins, the southern shelf, and the bordering uplifts.
basin also is elongated northwest-southeast, and it too cuts into the southeastern flank of the Sierra Grande uplift. The Pablo Montoya high, a southeastern projection of the Sierra Grande uplift, separates the Trigg Ranch sub-basin from the Trementina sub-basin. The Newkirk anticline separates the Cuervo sub-basin from the Trementina sub-basin. The Newkirk anticline is manifested at the surface as an anticline that folds Triassic strata along an east-west axis, but at depth it is a fault-bound block that is elongated east-west.

Although the elevator basins are structurally deep, paleobathymetric relief of the basins during the Pennsylvanian and Early Permian was much less than final structural relief because as the elevator basins formed they were partially or wholly infilled by sediments derived from erosion of the adjoining uplifts. As a result, the Pennsylvanian and Lower Permian strata within the elevator basins are thicker than age-equivalent strata on adjoining shelves and uplifts. The Pennsylvanian section exceeds 4,000 ft in deeper parts of the elevator basins but is generally less than 1,500 ft thick on the broad shelf that occupies the southern part of the Tucumcari Basin. Where present on adjoining uplifts, Pennsylvanian strata are thinner than on the shelf, but they are mostly absent altogether.

Depositional facies patterns were controlled by the locations of the elevator basins and adjoining uplifts. During the Pennsylvanian and Early Permian, the uplifts that adjoin the Tucumcari Basin were emergent erosional highlands whose Precambrian cores were the sources of the clastic sediments deposited within the Tucumcari Basin. Clastic wedges were shed off of the Sierra Grande and Pedernal uplifts, the Bravo dome, and to a lesser extent the Frio uplift from Atokan through Wolfcampian time. These clastic wedges consist of interbedded alluvial, fluvial, deltaic, and possibly shoreline sandstones and shales, and they intertongue with marine carbonates and shales deposited on the shelf areas of the Tucumcari Basin.

The elevator basins are located adjacent to the uplifts that bound the northern part of the Tucumcari Basin. Elevator basins are either parallel to the flanks of the uplifts or cut into the flanks of the uplifts. Source rock and reservoir characteristics of strata within the elevator basins are strongly influenced by this orientation (Broadhead 2001b). During times when depositional accretion exceeded subsidence rates, the elevator basins became completely filled with sediments and had little or no bathymetric expression; sands were transported across the basins and onto distant shelf areas. During times when subsidence exceeded depositional accretion, the basins acted as traps for the coarse clastics shed off the adjacent uplifts. Furthermore, they became bathymetrically low areas with restricted marine circulation; anaerobic conditions prevailed at depth in the water column, and thick sections of black, organically rich shales were deposited (Fig. 4). Pennsylvanian shales within the elevator basins are not only thicker than on adjoining shelf areas but typically have total organic carbon (TOC) contents between 2% and 10% (Fig. 5). TOC contents of dark-gray to black shales on the shelf areas are typically 1–2%. In addition, because the strata in the lower parts of the elevator basins were buried more deeply than the strata on the shallower adjoining shelf areas, the Pennsylvanian shales in the elevator basins are thermally mature (Fig. 6) and are within the oil window, whereas Pennsylvanian shales on the shelf areas are mostly immature to only moderately mature. In the deeper parts of the elevator basins, the shales may be within the gas condensate window. Kerogens within the shales are mixtures of oil- and gas-prone amorphous types, gas-prone woody types,
sandstones, widespread shales, and limestones. During times when sands were trapped within the bathymetrically deep elevator basins, deposition of carbonates was widespread on the shelf areas. These carbonate beds are correlation markers. Some are high-energy, shallow-water deposits (Broadhead and King 1988). Areas of thick limestone deposition on the southern rim of the Cuervo sub-basin (Broadhead and King 1988) may be areas of reef development (Reynolds and Reynolds 1998, 2004 this issue; Broadhead 2001a). Regional lithofacies maps indicate some of the carbonates on the southern rim of the Cuervo sub-basin have been dolomitized (Broadhead and King 1988).

**Productive analogs**

There are a number of oil and gas fields that produce from geologic settings similar to those encountered in the Tucumcari Basin. Two analogs from the southwestern United States, in particular, are in strikingly similar geologic settings and produce from strata similar in age and lithology to potential reservoirs in the Tucumcari Basin.

Stephens and Gunn (1995) and Brister et al. (2002) document gas fields in Pennsylvanian sandstones in the Broken Bone graben, an elevator basin of Pennsylvanian age developed along the Matador arch in north-central Texas. The gas fields in the Broken Bone graben produce from Bend (Lower Pennsylvanian) conglomerates at depths of 6,000–11,000 ft.

Two major accumulations of heavy oil and asphalt have been discovered in the shallow Santa Rosa Sandstone (Triassic): the Santa Rosa tar sands and the Newkirk oil field (Fig. 1). The Santa Rosa tar sands are a surface exposure of oil-impregnated sandstone with an estimated 90.0 million bbls of oil in place (Gorman and Robek 1946; Budding 1979, 1980; Budding and Broadhead 1987). The oil is heavy with an API gravity of 11.9°. The Santa Rosa tar sands were mined during the 1930s and 1940s and used as road-surfacing material. The Newkirk oil field of northeast Guadalupe County contains heavy oil at depths of 400–800 ft (Fig. 7; Martin 1983; McKallip 1984). Estimated resources are 62 million bbls of oil in place (Scott and Joy 1983). Attempts at commercial production have been unsuccessful because of the high viscosity of the oil, the limited permeability of the reservoir, and low reservoir pressures associated with shallow burial.

The basin saw a resurgence in exploration during the early 1980s. Deep exploratory wells drilled to Precambrian encountered two significant occurrences of gas in Pennsylvanian sandstones. These occurrences have been referred to as the T-4 Ranch field and the Latigo Ranch field.
Recent exploration and drilling

As a result of improved understanding of the Tucumcari Basin, a significant exploration play has emerged within the past several years (Shirley 2004). A number of companies acquired lease positions in the basin, and exploratory drilling followed. The most currently active companies are Yates Petroleum, Coulthurst Management, and Ceja Corp. Other active parties include Ace Petroleum, Roy Barton, Blanco Corp., Caza, CKG Energy, David Petroleum, DMT Energy, Ben Donegan, Ibis Petroleum, Inter-American Corp., Pitch Energy, Charles Reynolds, SDX Resources, Craig Settle, Strata View, Gene Wilson, and Xeric Corp., as well as local ranchers and land holders.

Exploratory drilling has followed the leasing of oil and gas rights. CKG Energy drilled several wells and reported promising occurrences of gas and light petroleum liquids. The wells were drilled to approximately 7,000 ft in lower Canyon (Upper Pennsylvanian) or upper Strawn (Middle Pennsylvanian) strata near the juncture of the Quay and Cuervo sub-basins in northwest Quay County. Coulthurst Management, in conjunction with Gene Wilson, drilled two exploratory wells in northwest Quay County and reported good shows and recovery of gas. Yates Petroleum also drilled two wells in northwest Quay County, but results have not been released. The wells drilled during the latest round of exploration confirm the geologic model of the basin as presented in Broadhead (2001 a,b,c).

The encouraging aspect of this round of exploratory activity is the large number of operators who have taken a position in the basin. During this exploratory phase, success is not dependent on a single operator to develop prospects and drill wells. All of these companies are pursuing their own ideas concerning reservoirs and traps. This increases the possibility of seeing several wells drilled based on a variety of exploration concepts. The documentation of source rocks, regional basin structure, and basin-wide facies tracts are only three components of the petroleum system. Reservoirs, traps, and seals are three other components of the petroleum system, and ideas about these components are currently being tested by the drill bit.

References


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