

31 between geological characteristics, the processes by which they formed and their
32 significance to the reservoir characterisation of sandstone intrusions.

33 Characterisation of sedimentary rocks using micro-CT (MCT) scanning gives
34 geologists the opportunity to make quantitative, non-destructive measurements of static
35 and dynamic physical parameters. Some of the measurements are complementary to
36 conventional laboratory measurements that estimate porosity and pore-size distribution
37 (Vergés *et al.* 2011) and facilitate modelling of a wide range of fluid-flow experiments
38 that are challenging and time-consuming using traditional laboratory methods (Zhang
39 *et al.* 2014; Berg & Held 2016; Yang *et al.* 2016). From a laboratory geophysics
40 perspective, MCT scanning is a hugely flexible method for conducting series of
41 numerical experiments on the same sample.

42 This study examines sandstone samples taken from the Panoche Giant Injection
43 Complex (Vigortio *et al.* 2008) specifically to examine granular and pore-structural
44 characteristics of a sandstone sill and to compare them with similar characteristics in
45 depositional sandstone. Because sandstone intrusions form during natural hydraulic
46 fracturing of low permeability, fine-grained strata and concomitant, upward sand
47 fluidisation, MCT data may provide insight into the preservation of evidence of vertical
48 fluidised, granular transport. The depositional sandstone is examined as reference
49 material in which sedimentary lamination occurs that is unrelated to sand fluidisation.
50 Typically the granular structure of sandstone is examined in 2D petrographic (thin)
51 sections, augmented by electron microscopy. Although 3D reconstructions of granular
52 structure are possible by combining the images of multiple thin sections (Bodla *et al.*
53 2014), MCT imaging gives the opportunity to examine granular and pore structure
54 directly in 3D. To the best of our knowledge, MCT data from sandstone intrusions is
55 not previously investigated.

56 **Geological setting**

57 Sandstone samples were taken from the Panoche Giant Injection Complex (PGIC) that
58 intrudes into deep-water mudstone-dominated strata of the Moreno Formation of Upper
59 Cretaceous and Lower Palaeocene (Danian) age (Vigorito *et al.* 2008). The locations
60 sampled are a depositional, turbiditic sandstone that is unaffected by sand fluidisation
61 and, a sandstone sill that is part of a >1.5 km diameter saucer-shaped sandstone
62 intrusion in Right Angle Canyon (Fig. 1). PGIC outcrop covers an area of ~350 km²

63 and is believed to be the largest known outcrop of a giant sand injection complex
64 (Vigorito & Hurst 2010). Exceptional exposure allows the spatial relationships between
65 sandstone intrusions, parent depositional units and sand extrusions onto a palaeo-
66 seafloor to be examined in detail.

67 Sand injection and fluidisation occurred during shallow burial (maximum ~1.5 km
68 burial) when mudstone and sandstone were poorly consolidated. Pore-fluid pressure (P_f)
69 exceeded both the fracture gradient and the hydrostatic gradient thereby creating a
70 system of natural hydraulic-fractures into which fluidised sand was injected (Vigorito
71 & Hurst 2010). Turbulent flow prevailed and locally eroded fracture geometry (Hurst
72 *et al.* 2011). Sandstone intrusions formed a pervasive architecture of hydraulic fractures
73 with the pore-fluid pressure (P_f) within them forming a lower dyke zone in which $P_f >$
74 $\sigma_h + T_h$, a sill zone in which $P_f > \sigma_v + T_v$ and, an upper dyke zone in which $P_f > \sigma_h + T_h$
75 where, σ_h is the horizontal stress, σ_v is the vertical stress (lithostatic overburden), T_v and
76 T_h are the vertical and horizontal tensile strength of the host strata.

77 **Methods**

78 *Experiments*

79 Three core plugs (Φ 25 mm \times 50 mm) were drilled, one vertical and one horizontal plug
80 from the depositional sandstone and a vertical plug from the sill. The core plugs were
81 analysed using a ZEISS VersaXRM-410 micro-CT instrument for which the minimum
82 spatial resolution was 0.9 μ m and the minimum voxel size was 0.1 μ m. The scanning
83 voltage and power were set to 140KV and 9.9W, respectively. Scans with resolution of
84 ~23.7 μ m/pixel (low resolution CT) and ~1.48 μ m/pixel (high resolution CT) were
85 acquired. Because the sandstone samples are poorly consolidated, inevitable damage to
86 the edges of the core plugs occurred during handling. To compensate for the possible
87 damage, the outer edges of images were removed from the low resolution CT images
88 to ensure that the images represent their undamaged state and to preclude analysis of
89 possible artefacts caused by sample damage. Following the low resolution CT scan, the
90 diameter of which is approximately 21.75 mm, a smaller cylindrical area (~ Φ 1.45 mm
91 \times 1.45 mm) was selected in the middle of each core plug for the high resolution CT
92 scan.

93 Porosity (ϕ) and permeability (K) are measured using nitrogen porosimetry and a
 94 helium permeameter, respectively. In the vertical plug from the depositional sandstone
 95 $\phi = 30.7\%$, $K_v = 98.4$ mD, in the horizontal plug from the depositional sandstone $\phi =$
 96 30.5% , $K_h = 204.6$ mD and, in the vertical plug from the sill $\phi = 27.0\%$, $K_v = 136.2$
 97 mD. Petrographic sections from both plugs were examined using an IS-ABT-55
 98 scanning electron microscope in back-scattered electron mode; images were acquired
 99 to enable comparison with MCT data. Chemical compositions of areas of interest were
 100 obtained using a Link Analytical AN10/55S ED X-ray analyser.

101 *Image processing and simulation*

102 To obtain porosity estimates MCT images were segmented using *ImageJ* and *Avizo 9.0*
 103 software. The volume fraction (porosity) of the MCT images is obtained directly using
 104 *Avizo*. Porosity measurements from nitrogen porosimetry were used to guide and
 105 validate the determination of the intensity threshold between pores and minerals during
 106 image segmentation.

107 Because the length-scale of fluid flow is very small in porous media, flow has a very
 108 low Reynolds number ($Re \ll 1$) and the convective acceleration terms in the Navier-
 109 Stokes equations are negligible. Fluid flow is considered as Stokes flow, also termed
 110 creeping flow (Schieber & Córdoba, 2013), and the incompressible Stokes equation as
 111 defined by Sciffer (1998) is:

$$112 \quad \begin{cases} \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} - \nabla p = 0 \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

113 where ∇ is the gradient operator, $\nabla \cdot$ is the divergence operator, ∇^2 is the Laplacian
 114 operator, \mathbf{u} is the velocity of fluid, $\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, μ is the dynamic viscosity of fluid, $\text{Pa} \cdot \text{s}$, and
 115 p is the pressure of fluid, Pa.

116 When solving equation (1) in pore cubes derived from micro-CT, the pressure
 117 difference between entrance and exit (ΔP) is assigned, the velocity of fluid (\mathbf{u}) is
 118 obtained from the solution, and flow rate of fluid (Q) can be derived from velocity of
 119 fluid (\mathbf{u}). Then Darcy's law can be applied to estimate the absolute permeability:

$$120 \quad k = \mu \frac{Q}{S \Delta P} \quad (2)$$

121 where K is the absolute permeability, m^2 , Q is the flow rate, $m^3 \cdot s^{-1}$, S is the cross section
122 of the pore cubic, m^2 , L is the length of the pore cubic (m), ΔP is the pressure difference
123 between entrance and exit of the pore cubic (Pa).

124 Equations (1) and (2) are solved using the *Absolute Permeability Experiment*
125 *Simulation* Module in the *Avizo 9.0* software.

126 ***Pore network***

127 Quantitative evaluation of the pore structure and pore network is done by extracting of
128 MCT data using the maximal ball (MB) method (Dong 2007). For a pore or throat,
129 shape factor G is defined by its cross-section area A and its perimeter P (Mason &
130 Morrow 1991):

$$131 \quad G = \frac{A}{P^2} \quad (3)$$

132 Coordination number Z , also termed the connection number, is the number of
133 independent throats linked to a single pore (Arns *et al.* 2004; Dong 2007).

134 **Results**

135 ***Porosity and pore structure***

136 Petrographic sections of the samples show lamination present in the depositional
137 sandstone (Fig. 2a) and no obvious lamination in the sill (Fig. 2b). To elucidate and
138 quantify the difference between the depositional and intrusive sandstone, the low
139 resolution MCT data were processed using the *Avizo analysis tool* to estimate the pore
140 volume fraction. The depositional sandstone is strongly heterogeneous with $\phi_{total} = 28.7\%$
141 but with ϕ in different laminae of 37.9% and 19.2% (Fig. 3c). In the sill $\phi_{total} = 24.5\%$
142 that when compared with ϕ from three randomly-selected areas of 24.5%, 26.6% and
143 25.5% reveals that is approximately homogenous (Fig. 3d). In order to demonstrate the
144 spatial porosity difference between depositional sandstone and the sill, 80 small sub-
145 volumes were extracted from both pore volumes of depositional sandstone and the sill
146 (Fig. 3). The sill has a more homogenous porosity distribution than the depositional
147 sandstone (Fig. 4).

148 Pore networks and pore structure parameters are calculated from the high resolution
149 MCT data: pore radius, pore-throat radius, pore shape factor and co-ordinate number.
150 For all parameters the sill has higher values than the depositional sandstone (Fig. 5)

151 although, ϕ_{total} is lower for the depositional sandstone. This may be because the pore
152 radii and throat data are correspondingly lower (Figs. 5c, d). However, this is not the
153 case as pore shape and coordinate number are independent of ϕ_{total} (Figs. 5e, f). Visual
154 inspection of the data shows that large pores (red spheres) in pore networks are more
155 homogeneously distributed in the sill (Fig. 5b) than in the depositional sandstone (Fig.
156 5a). In the sill the throat shape factor is higher than in the depositional sandstone (Fig.
157 5e), which implies that the pore throats in the sill are less narrow and the pores are
158 better connected. Larger pore coordination values in the sill are indicative of greater
159 numbers of connected pore throats than in the depositional sandstone.

160 *Permeability (K) anisotropy*

161 Depositional sandstone gas permeability values record significant anisotropy ($K_v = 98.4$
162 mD and $K_h = 204.6$ mD) that usually are attributed to the presence of sedimentary
163 laminae (Fig. 2a). Smaller-scale heterogeneity in both samples is investigated by
164 evaluating six arbitrary sub-volumes of data that were extracted from the high
165 resolution MCT data (Fig. 6a, b) and used to simulate $K_{absolute}$ by solving equations (1)
166 and (2). Results of the simulation show that in the depositional sandstone the vertical
167 permeability (Z direction, logarithmic mean value is 105.7 mD) is significantly lower
168 than horizontal permeability (X and Y directions, logarithmic mean values are 158.2
169 mD and 145.7 mD) (Fig. 6c). By contrast in the sill, the permeability values have no
170 specific relationship to orientation and the mean permeability in the Z direction
171 (logarithmic mean value is 204.7 mD) is similar to the mean permeability in X and Y
172 directions (logarithmic mean values are 193.6 mD and 219.4 mD) (Fig. 6d). In the
173 depositional sandstone the relationship between porosity and permeability, which is
174 typically used to predict permeability in the absence of direct measurement of
175 permeability, reveals a permeability range spread over almost two orders of magnitude
176 (Fig. 6e) whereas in the sill the range is less than one order of magnitude (Fig. 6f). Clear
177 linear trends between porosity and permeability in X, Y and Z orientation are not
178 apparent in either sample. At a granular (sub-mm) scale it is grain orientation that
179 determines permeability anisotropy and not the presence or absence of lamination.
180 Visual inspection of the depositional sandstone reveals that pores are better connected
181 in X and Y directions than in the Z direction (Fig. 6a). Fig.7 compares the length scales
182 of the methods used to characterise porous media in this study and the characteristics that
183 dominate the derived characteristics.

184 **Discussion**

185 *Sandstone intrusion reservoirs*

186 Sandstone intrusions are volumetrically significant reservoirs in the Palaeogene of the
187 North Sea (Hurst *et al.* 2005) and are increasingly identified as significant in a global
188 context (Huuse *et al.* 2010). They are exemplified by high-quality reservoirs, excellent
189 lateral and vertical connectivity and, excellent recovery (Briedis *et al.* 2007; Satur &
190 Hurst 2007; Schwab *et al.* 2015). Borehole-log motifs and sedimentological data often
191 record the presence of homogenous, fine- to medium-grained sandstone (Duranti *et al.*
192 2002) in which structureless sandstone units are interbedded with sandstone with
193 distinctive internal structures formed during sand fluidisation (Duranti & Hurst 2004;
194 Scott *et al.* 2009). Sandstone intrusions are unusual, primary drilling targets during
195 hydrocarbon exploration hence, they often constitute in-field or near-field targets
196 associated with super-giant fields in mature basins (e.g. Lonergan *et al.* 2007; Pyle *et*
197 *al.* 2011). In this context, the understanding of micro-scale reservoir characteristics of
198 sandstone intrusions, and its relevance to the optimisation of hydrocarbon recovery are
199 an integral part of prolonging field-life.

200 *Granular texture*

201 MCT data exhibit the presence of laminated internal structure in the depositional
202 sandstone and a structureless character in the sill (Figs. 3a, b) that are similar to
203 respective internal structure seen in the lower resolution petrographic sections (Fig. 2).
204 Distribution of heavy (density $>2.9 \text{ g.cm}^{-3}$) minerals is markedly different between the
205 samples with segregation present in the depositional and absent in the sandstone
206 intrusion. With the exception of the largest ($>1\text{mm}$ diameter) heavy minerals, we
207 believe that they are primarily detrital grains, which during deposition undergo
208 hydraulic segregation. Large heavy minerals (circled on Figs. 3a, b) are identified using
209 BSEM as diagenetic, pyrite-cemented, detrital-grain aggregates.

210 Two post-depositional processes are likely to create granular homogeneity in
211 sandstone: i) fluidisation where grains are entrained as part of a fluid flow or, ii)
212 percolation of fluid that re-organises granular structure (typically referred to as
213 liquefaction by geologists). Here, we know that the homogenous granular texture is
214 present in a sandstone sill (Fig. 1c) and that sand fluidisation is implicit (Hurst *et al.*

215 2011). One can thus with confidence, associate sand fluidisation with the lack of
216 granular organisation that forms sedimentary structures (Fig. 3b) and the homogeneity
217 is caused by a rapid cessation of flow during which deposition had insufficient time to
218 cause hydraulic segregation of grains. Absence of granular segregation is similarly
219 recorded by the uniform porosity distribution in the sill (Fig. 3d). Liquefaction of sand
220 forms elutriation structures such as dish structures, consolidation laminae and
221 associated pillars or pipes (Lowe & LoPiccolo 1974) that are produced by the
222 modification of pre-existing granular heterogeneity and inter-granular re-organisation
223 (Hurst & Cronin 2001). Absence of internal structures and granular homogeneity are
224 not diagnostic of sandstone intrusions (Scott *et al.* 2009; Hurst *et al.* 2011; Ravier *et al.*
225 2015) however, sand fluidisation and injection frequently create granular homogeneity
226 (Duranti & Hurst 2004).

227 Sandstone sills form in sub-horizontal fractures that are approximately parallel to
228 bedding but, the isotropic, homogeneous pore fabric records a significant direction of
229 fluidised sand flow that was normal to the fracture-margins. Grains oriented sub-
230 vertically rather than parallel to the lower fracture margin. Thus although sills prop
231 open fractures that formed approximately parallel to bedding, the homogeneity of the
232 granular fabric records a vertical component of fluidised flow. In the absence of
233 diagenetic cementation of the sill, mechanical compaction has preserved the grain and
234 pore isotropy.

235 *Porosity, pore networks and pore structure*

236 Large pores (red spheres in Figs. 5a, b) are more homogeneously distributed in the sill
237 than in the depositional sandstone. This correlates with the general homogeneity and
238 lack of internal structures visible in the MCT image and the lack of stratification that is
239 depicted by the heavy mineral distribution (Fig. 3b) and, reflects the presence of an
240 isotropic pore structure in which K_v is similar to K_h . As expected, in the depositional
241 sandstone lamination persists during compaction and the pore structure is strongly
242 controlled by the granular fabric formed during deposition (Figs. 3a, c and Fig. 5a), a
243 characteristic that is consistent with high-density probe permeameter data from
244 laminated sandstone (Halvorsen & Hurst 1990; Hurst & Rosvoll 1991). When
245 fluidisation stopped and pore-fluid pressure fell, rapid loss of fluid occurred, which
246 preserved the homogenous granular texture and eventually forming a present-day ϕ_{total}

247 = 24.54% (Figs. 3b, d and Fig. 4b). The granular volume of naturally fluidised sand is
248 not constrained however, laboratory experiments using glass spheres suspended in
249 silicon oil showed that during fluidisation no more than 50% granular volume was
250 possible and, a most likely range is ~17% to 50% (Gibilaro *et al.* 2007; Di Felice, 2010).

251 Although the precise history of porosity reduction is unconstrained it is unlikely that
252 the ~45% loss of pore volume was instantaneous. It seems likely that reduction of
253 porosity to its present-day value while preserving the original pore-structure was
254 enabled by continuous gradual mechanical compaction of grains without observable
255 evidence of intergranular shear. Independent mineralogical data from a nearby locality
256 estimate burial temperatures for these strata as <50°C (Hurst *et al.* 2017), well below
257 the temperature associated with the onset of chemical compaction (Nadeau 2011).

258 *Permeability estimation*

259 In the depositional sandstone, permeability estimates in X and Y orientations (K_h) are
260 generally higher than in the Z orientation (K_v) (Figs. 6a, c) and the permeability of all
261 estimates (40.9 mD to 483.5 mD) has a range greater than one order of magnitude. The
262 sub-horizontal orientation of grains (Fig. 3a) enhances horizontal pore connectivity and
263 K_h and, the heterogeneity caused mineralogical variability in sedimentary laminae (Fig.
264 2a), causes the >1 order of magnitude permeability range. By contrast, but consistent
265 with the pore structure data, permeability estimates in the sill have similar values
266 independent of orientation. Also the range of permeability present has a range of
267 approximately a half order of magnitude (107.0 mD to 678.2 mD), which reflects the
268 more homogenous grain fabric and pore isotropy present.

269 It is unusual for sandstone to have $K_h \approx K_v$ because depositional structures tend to be
270 sub-horizontal and when consolidated they create permeability baffles to vertical flow.
271 Thus sedimentary structures have a strong influence on cm-scale (0.01 to 0.1 m)
272 measurement of permeability (Weber 1982; Hurst & Rosvoll 1991). Our higher-
273 resolution data allow the examination of permeability at a finer scale and confirm the
274 importance of pore structure and the orientation of granular fabric on permeability
275 anisotropy. In the sandstone sill permeability is isotropic. It should not be inferred that
276 sandstone intrusions have higher permeability than associated depositional sandstone,
277 in fact all data from Palaeogene, subsurface sandstone-intrusions in the Norwegian and
278 UK continental shelves show that for similar porosity, permeability is consistently

279 lower than in spatially-associated depositional sandstone (Duranti *et al.* 2002; Hurst *et*
280 *al.* 2011).

281 **Conclusions**

282 MCT images differentiate sedimentary structures and structureless sand in the
283 depositional sandstone and a sandstone sill and provide a quantitative measure of pore
284 and granular structure and anisotropy. Lamination pervades in the depositional
285 sandstone and creates orders of magnitude difference in average porosity and enhances
286 horizontal permeability (K_h) relative to vertical permeability (K_v).

287 In the sill (sandstone intrusion) a homogenous granular texture is preserved in which
288 the pore structure is isotropic. Also the sill has lower throat-shape factors and larger
289 pore coordinate numbers than depositional sandstone. Large pores are more
290 homogeneously distributed in the sill; this is consistent with the greater textural
291 homogeneity in the sill.

292 At millimetre- to micrometre-scale in the depositional sandstone, K_v (Z direction) is
293 consistently lower than K_h (X and Y directions). In the sandstone sill K_v is similar to K_h
294 and at micrometre-scale is isotropic. This is caused by pore structure and grain
295 orientation rather than the sedimentary lamination.

296 Preservation of an isotropic pore and grain structure in the sandstone sill is indicative
297 of significant fluidised flow normal to the fracture margin during emplacement.

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398 **Figure captions**

399 **Fig. 1. (a)** Location of the Panoche Giant Injection Complex (PGIC). **(b)** The saucer-shaped
400 intrusion in Right Angle Canyon with lithostratigraphic units in the Moreno Formation (Upper
401 Cretaceous-Palaeocene) shown (after Vigorito and Hurst 2010). Units are as follows: red,
402 sandstone intrusions; yellow, depositional sandstone; grey, mudstone and siltstone; orange,
403 sand extrudites. Sample locations X, depositional sandstone (turbiditic channel) and Y
404 sandstone sill.

405 **Fig. 2.** Petrographic images in plane-polarised light. **(a)** Vertical section from the depositional
406 sandstone that is from a turbiditic channel-fill (X in Fig. 1) showing depositional lamination.
407 **(b)** Vertical section from the sandstone sill with no lamination nor gradation of grain size (Y in
408 Fig. 1).

409 **Fig. 3.** Density variations derived from low resolution MCT images of depositional sandstone
410 and a sandstone sill (note that the sampled volume is < 20 mm high): **(a)** Depositional sandstone
411 in which small variations in density correspond to depositional laminations, heavy (density >2.9
412 g.cm⁻³) minerals that form bright areas are highlighted in red; **(b)** Sandstone sill in which no
413 density segregation is observed. Heavy minerals are highlighted in blue, most heavy minerals
414 are detrital but the largest grains (an example is highlighted) are pyrite cement. **(c)** Pore
415 distribution in the depositional sandstone in which porosity between different laminae varies
416 from 19.2 to 37.9%, averaging 28.7%. **(d)** The sill in which porosity is approximately
417 homogeneous, 24.52 to 26.61%, averaging 24.5%. Pores are segmented from the low resolution
418 MCT images in **(a)** and **(b)**.

419 **Fig. 4.** Porosity ranges in the depositional sandstone and sandstone sill. 80 sub-volumes (each
420 one with the size of 3555µm × 3555µm × 3555µm) were extracted from the total pore volumes
421 in both samples (Fig. 3) and the volume fraction (porosity) of each sub-volume calculated. The
422 depositional sandstone has a wider range of porosity than sandstone sill.

423 **Fig. 5.** Pore network and pore structure parameters derived from MCT. Spheres represent the
424 pores, with red spheres representing the largest pores. Pore throats are represented as lines
425 between pores (spheres). **(a)** Pore network in the depositional sandstone. **(b)** Pore network in
426 the sandstone sill. **(c-f)** Frequency distributions from the sample volumes in **(a)** and **(b)**: **(c)** pore
427 radius, **(d)** pore throat radius, **(e)** pore shape factor and **(f)** pore coordinate number. All
428 parameters are greater in the sandstone sill.

429 **Fig. 6.** Permeability anisotropy derived from MCT data. Areas of the six sub-volumes were
430 extracted and used for the simulation of absolute permeability in each sample. **(a)** Schematic of
431 a sub-volume extracted from the segmented pore volume of the depositional sandstone. **(b)**
432 Schematic of sub-volumes extracted from the segmented pore volume of the sandstone sill. **(c)**
433 Comparison of permeability in the depositional sandstone in X, Y (both K_h) and Z (K_v)
434 orientations. In K_h (X and Y orientations) > K_v (Z orientation). **(d)** Comparison of permeability
435 in the sandstone sill in which X, Y and Z orientations have similar K_h and K_v values. **(e)** Cross-
436 plot of porosity and permeability for all sub-volume samples from the depositional sandstone.
437 **(f)** Cross-plot of porosity and permeability for all sub-volume samples from the sandstone sill.

438 **Fig. 7.** Comparison of the length scales of the methods used to characterise porous media in
439 this study and the characteristics that dominate the derived characteristics.