



Verdon, J. P., Kendall, J-M., Horleston, A. C., & Stork, A. L. (2016).  
Subsurface fluid injection and induced seismicity in southeast Saskatchewan.  
International Journal of Greenhouse Gas Control, 54(2), 429-440. DOI:  
10.1016/j.ijggc.2016.04.007

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[10.1016/j.ijggc.2016.04.007](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijggc.2016.04.007)

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1 **Subsurface Fluid Injection and Induced Seismicity in**  
2 **Southeast Saskatchewan**

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11 **Keywords:** CCS, Induced Seismicity, Geomechanics, Saskatchewan

12 **Highlights:**

- 13 • We assess recent seismicity in southeast Saskatchewan  
14 • We catalogue oilfield activity in the same region  
15 • We find no evidence for injection-induced seismicity in the area  
16  
17  
18  
19

**ABSTRACT**

21 *In order to mitigate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions while continuing to use fossil fuels as an energy source, CO<sub>2</sub>*  
22 *emissions from large point sources such as power stations can be captured and stored in suitable*  
23 *subsurface sedimentary formations. However, concerns have been raised that the injection of*  
24 *pressurized CO<sub>2</sub> may alter the subsurface stress state, leading to the re-activation of faults and*  
25 *generating induced seismic activity. Southeast Saskatchewan has seen extensive oil and gas activity*  
26 *since the 1950s. This activity includes, in recent years, a boom in shale oil production entailing*  
27 *hydraulic fracturing. It is also home to two world-leading CCS projects, the Weyburn-Midale CO<sub>2</sub>*  
28 *Monitoring and Storage Project, and the Boundary Dam/Aquistore Project. The aim of this paper is to*  
29 *assess whether any of the conventional oilfield operations, shale oil activity or CCS has caused*  
30 *induced seismicity in southeast Saskatchewan. We find that the region has a very low rate of natural*  
31 *seismicity, and that there is no evidence to suggest that any kind of oilfield activity has caused induced*  
32 *events. However, seismicity has been associated with potash mining activities in the region. It is not*  
33 *clear whether the potash mining-induced events are triggered by subsidence above the mined zones, or*  
34 *by re-injection of waste brines. It is of interest to compare the situation in southeast Saskatchewan with*  
35 *other areas that have seen substantial increases in the amount of injection-induced seismic activity. It*  
36 *is notable that in many areas that have seen injection-induced seismicity, fluid injection is into basal*  
37 *aquifers that are hydraulically connected to the crystalline Precambrian basement. In contrast, most*  
38 *oilfield activities in southeast Saskatchewan are in Carboniferous formations, while the only units to*  
39 *have experienced a net volume increase are of Cretaceous age. It is tentatively suggested that the lack*  
40 *of induced seismic activity is due to the fact that injection is hydraulically isolated from the basement*  
41 *rocks, although it is also possible that stress conditions in the region are less conducive to induced*  
42 *seismicity.*

44 **1. INTRODUCTION**

45 It has been conclusively demonstrated that injecting fluids into the subsurface can trigger  
46 seismic activity (e.g., Raleigh et al., 1976). However, early research on Carbon Capture and  
47 Storage (CCS) was focussed on the danger that the buoyant CO<sub>2</sub> plume will migrate through  
48 the caprock and leak back to the surface. The potential hazard posed by injection-induced  
49 seismicity was generally downplayed (e.g. Damen et al., 2006) or not considered (e.g. Bickle,  
50 2009). Even where microseismicity was observed at CCS sites, such observations were  
51 generally considered in terms of potential leakage through the caprock because of fracturing,  
52 rather than the hazard posed by injection-induced seismicity (e.g., Verdon et al., 2011).

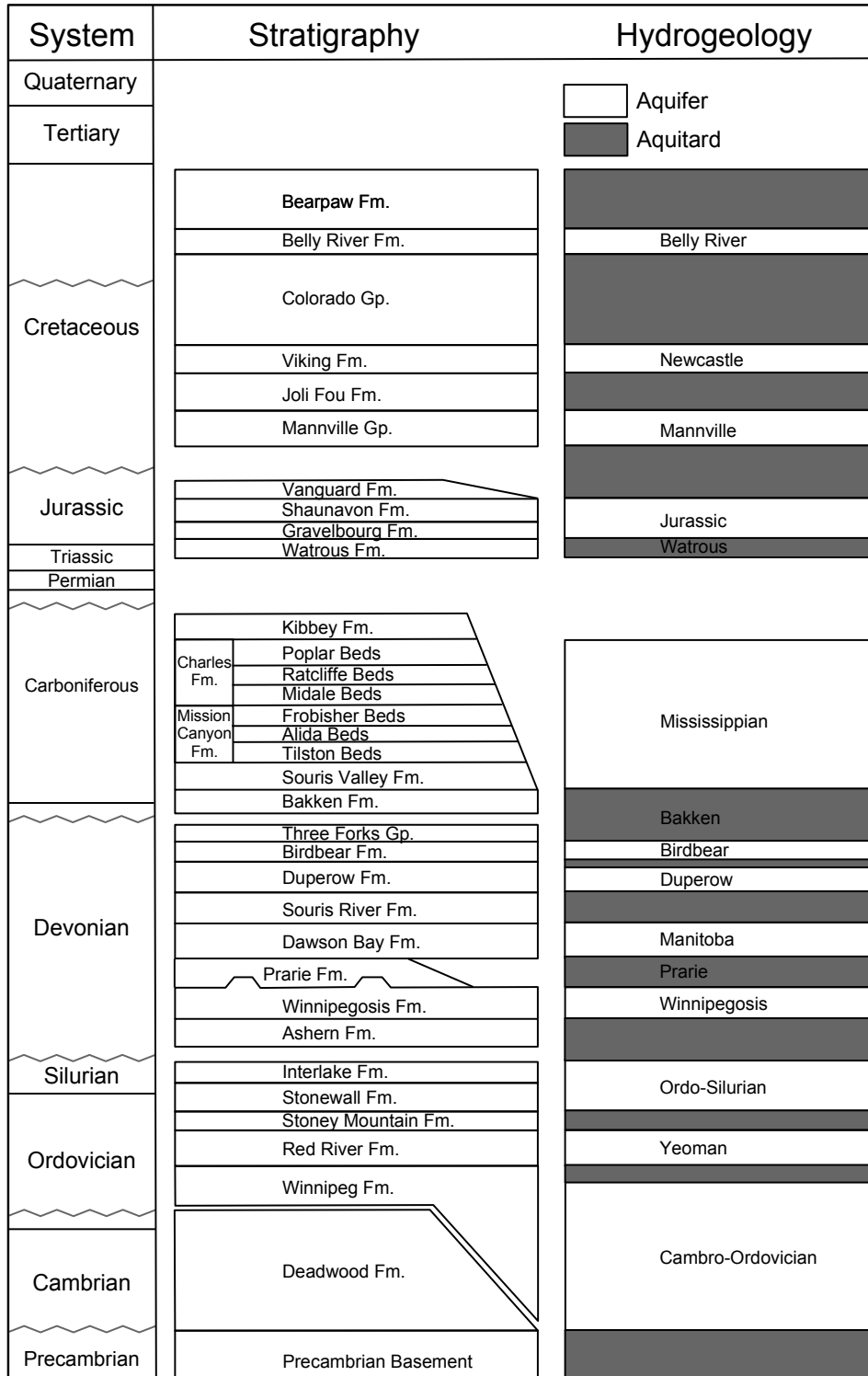
53 However, these assessments were made prior to recent events in the mid-continental USA,  
54 where sharp increases in wastewater disposal volumes have lead to a dramatic increase in the  
55 number of recorded earthquakes (Ellsworth, 2013). Given that, on a well-by-well basis,  
56 injection volumes proposed for future CCS sites match or even exceed current wastewater  
57 injection volumes (e.g. Verdon, 2014), these observations have lead to a re-appraisal of the  
58 hazard posed by injection-induced seismicity at CCS sites (e.g. Zoback and Gorelick, 2012).

59 The Williston Basin underlies parts of Saskatchewan, North and South Dakota, Montana and  
60 Manitoba. It is a large (500,000km<sup>2</sup>) intra-cratonic basin of roughly oval shape, the origin of  
61 which is speculative. The Precambrian Trans-Hudson Orogen trends in a NE-SW direction  
62 beneath the basin, sandwiched between the Archaean Wyoming and Superior Cratons. The  
63 oldest formation to be deposited on top of Precambrian crystalline basement is the Deadwood  
64 Formation, which is of late Cambrian/early Ordovician age. At its deepest, the thickness of  
65 sediments above the Precambrian basement is about 5km. Most of the sediments are of  
66 Paleozoic age, although sedimentation continued through the Mesozoic. In Figure 1 we show  
67 a stratigraphic column and schematic cross section of the area.

68 Oil and gas has been extracted from fields in southeast Saskatchewan since the 1950s, and  
69 production continues today. Substantial volumes of produced water are also generated by this  
70 extraction. Some of this water is re-injected for secondary recovery, while some is disposed  
71 of into saline aquifers. Additionally, the Bakken Shale underlies the conventional fields in  
72 southeast Saskatchewan. Within the past decade, this resource has been targeted for shale oil  
73 extraction using hydraulic fracturing.

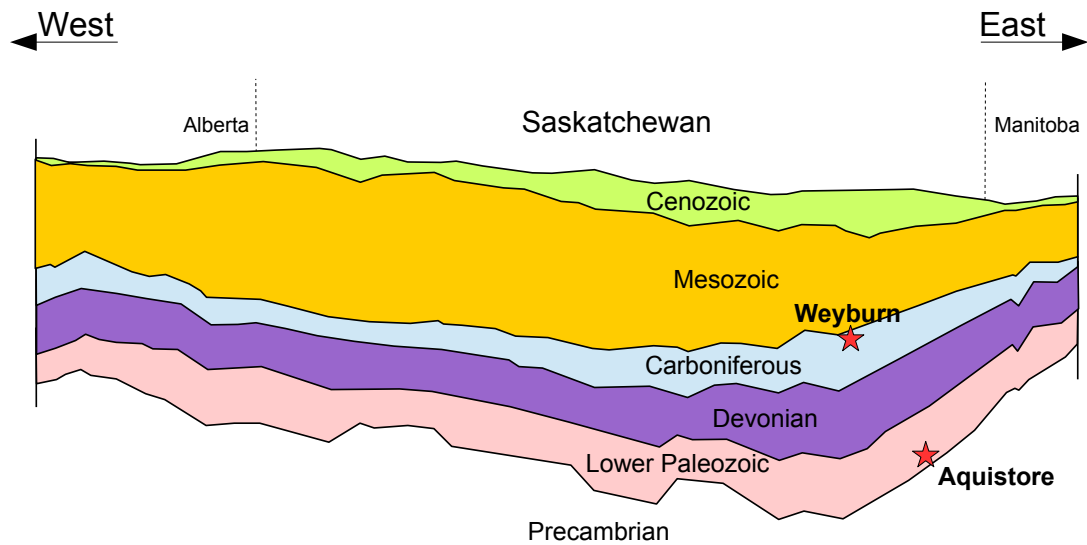
74 CO<sub>2</sub> injection for the combined purposes of Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR) and Carbon  
75 Capture and Storage (CCS) has been conducted at the Weyburn oilfield, in southeast  
76 Saskatchewan, since 2000. In 2015, CO<sub>2</sub> injection for CCS began at the Boundary  
77 Dam/Aquistore site, near to Estevan (approximately 85km southeast of Weyburn). Southeast  
78 Saskatchewan is therefore home to two world-leading CCS projects, which provide an

79 excellent opportunity to study the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> injection into the subsurface. At Weyburn,  
 80 oil production is from, and CO<sub>2</sub> injection is into, Carboniferous rocks at a depth of  
 81 approximately 1.5km, while at Aquistore, CO<sub>2</sub> is injected into the Deadwood Formation,  
 82 which sits on top of the Precambrian basement at a depth of approximately 3.5km.



83  
84

(a)



85  
86

(b)

87 *Figure 1: In (a) we show a stratigraphic column showing the key lithologies in our study area. Each*  
 88 *stratigraphic unit is categorised as being either an aquifer, through which fluids can flow relatively*  
 89 *easily, or an aquitard, through which fluid flow is difficult or impossible, owing to the unit's low*  
 90 *permeability. In (b) we show a schematic cross section running from west to east through southern*  
 91 *Saskatchewan. The approximate positions and target depths of the Weyburn oilfield and Aquistore CCS*  
 92 *project are both marked. Both figures are modified from Rostron et al. (2012).*

93 Therefore, there are and have been a range of oilfield activities conducted in southeast  
 94 Saskatchewan that have the potential to induce seismic activity. The aim of this paper is to  
 95 evaluate recorded seismicity in southeast Saskatchewan and to compare this activity with  
 96 industrial activities in the area, thereby establishing whether oilfield activities have induced  
 97 seismic activity. By doing so, we hope to better understand the tectonic setting in which these  
 98 CCS sites are being developed, and thereby to assess the likelihood that they will lead to  
 99 injection-induced seismicity as larger volumes of CO<sub>2</sub> are injected. Our principal study area  
 100 extends northwards from the USA-Canada border approximately 1° of latitude (49° – 50°N)  
 101 and westward from the Saskatchewan-Manitoba border approximately 3.5° of longitude  
 102 (101.4° – 105°W). However, we also consider seismic activity across the broader southeast  
 103 Saskatchewan-Montana-North Dakota region, which covers much of the Williston Basin.

## 104 **2. SEISMICITY RECORDED IN SOUTHEAST SASKATCHEWAN**

### 105 **2.1. Monitoring Networks**

106 We begin by curating a catalogue of seismic events recorded in the southeast Saskatchewan-  
 107 Montana-North Dakota region. Broadly speaking, seismicity in this region is rare, and of low  
 108 to moderate magnitude. However, for long periods, seismometer coverage has been equally

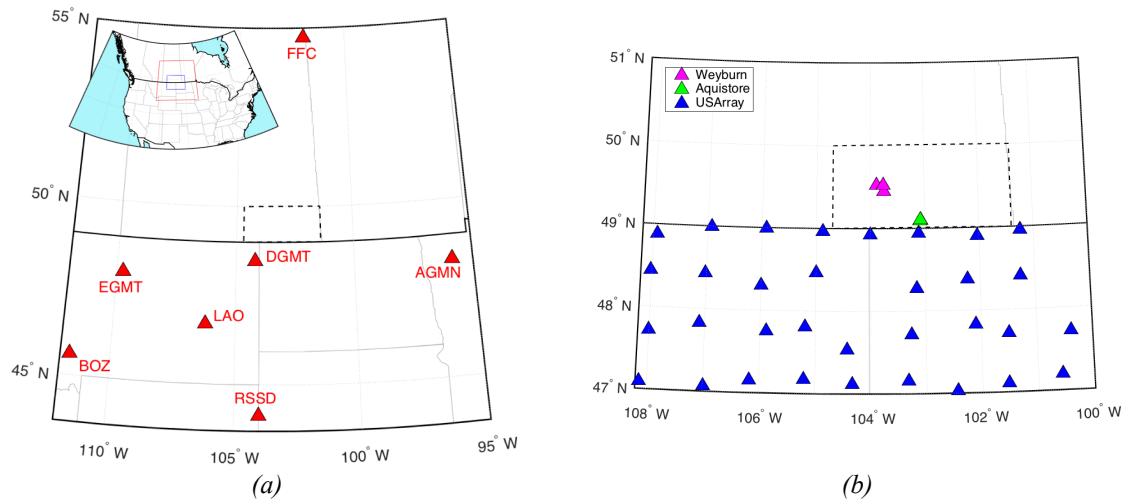
109 sparse. Horner and Hasegawa (1978) describe the historical seismometer coverage in this  
110 area, and estimate detection thresholds of magnitude 6 prior to the 1950s, and of magnitude 5  
111 until the mid-1960s. From this time onwards, detection thresholds are estimated to be  
112 magnitude 3, although the Large Aperture Seismic Array (LASA), which was deployed in  
113 Montana in 1966-67, provided a brief period of improved detection (Reinbold and Gillespie,  
114 1974).

115 At present, several permanent stations of the USGS Advanced National Seismic System  
116 (ANSS) and Global Seismographic Network (GSN) provide the nearest real-time coverage.  
117 The nearest such station is at Dagmar, Montana (DGMT) which is approximately 130km  
118 from the area of interest (Figure 2a).

119 However, several studies have shown that such regional networks may not be able to detect  
120 small injection-induced events (e.g., Frohlich, 2012; Friberg et al., 2014; Frohlich et al.,  
121 2015). Therefore, in addition to events listed in National Earthquake Information Centre  
122 (NEIC) and National Earthquake Database of Canada (NEDC) catalogues, we also identified  
123 additional seismometer networks with which to search for small events. These additional  
124 stations are shown in Figure 2b, and included:

- 125 • Stations of the Earthscope USArray Transportable Array that swept through Montana  
126 and North Dakota between from 2008 – 2011.
- 127 • In 2013, a network of 3 broadband seismometers were installed to monitor CO<sub>2</sub>  
128 injection at the Aquistore project.
- 129 • Between August 2014 – August 2015, we installed an additional network of 3  
130 seismometers to monitor the Weyburn CCS-EOR project.

131 With each of the above networks, we used an automated picking algorithm (Lomax et al.,  
132 2012) to search for potential events. Potential events were identified when at least 4 stations  
133 of the USArray, or all 3 stations of the Aquistore and Weyburn arrays, recorded co-incident  
134 triggers.



135 *Figure 2: Monitoring stations used in this study. In (a), we show ANSS and GSN seismometers in the*  
 136 *southeast Saskatchewan-Montana-North Dakota region. The inset shows the areas plotted in (a) (red*  
 137 *rectangle) and (b) (blue rectangle). In (b), we show USArray stations that passed through Montana*  
 138 *and North Dakota from 2008 – 2011 (blue), the 3 seismometers installed to monitor the Aquistore CCS*  
 139 *project in 2013 (green) and the 3 seismometers installed to monitor the Weyburn oilfield (magenta). In*  
 140 *both plots the dashed rectangle shows our specific area of interest, where CCS projects are active in*  
 141 *southeast Saskatchewan.*

142 These potential events were then examined manually. Triggers that did not have the  
 143 characteristics of a local earthquake (near-vertical P-wave arrival, followed by S-wave arrival  
 144 on horizontal components, and consistent move-out of arrival times across the array) were  
 145 discarded. P- and S-wave arrival times were re-picked manually, and inverted for event  
 146 hypocentres using the NonLinLoc package (Lomax et al., 2009), and a flat layered velocity  
 147 model based on refraction surveys conducted by Morel-à-l’Huissier et al. (1987) and Hajnal  
 148 et al. (1997). We note that many apparent “events” were located in close proximity to known  
 149 quarries and opencast coalmines. These events were assumed to represent quarrying blasts,  
 150 and were discarded from further analysis. Local magnitudes were computed using the scale  
 151 defined by Nuttli (1973).

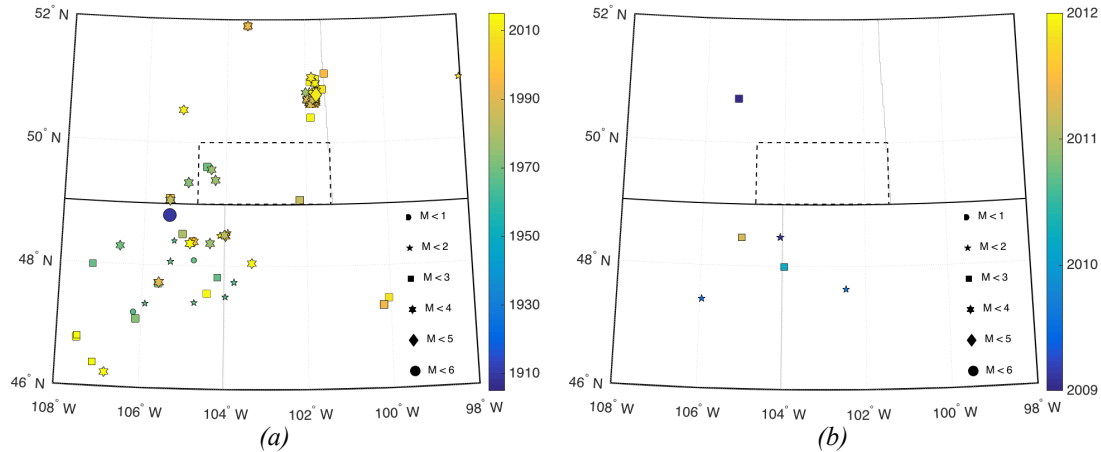
## 152 **2.2. Detected Events**

153 Within the southeast Saskatchewan-Montana-North Dakota region, a total of 65 events were  
 154 listed on NEIC and NEDC catalogues. In addition, a further 28 events, not listed in  
 155 NEIC/NEDC catalogues, were extracted from Bakun et al. (2011). Our analysis of additional  
 156 stations revealed a further 6 events that had not been detected by NEIC/NEDC networks – all  
 157 of these events were detected using the USArray stations, and no additional events were  
 158 detected using the Aquistore and Weyburn arrays.

159 Figure 3a shows all events listed in the NEIC/NEDC catalogues and by Bakun et al. (2011).  
 160 Figure 3b shows the additional events detected using USArray stations. Of these 6 events, we

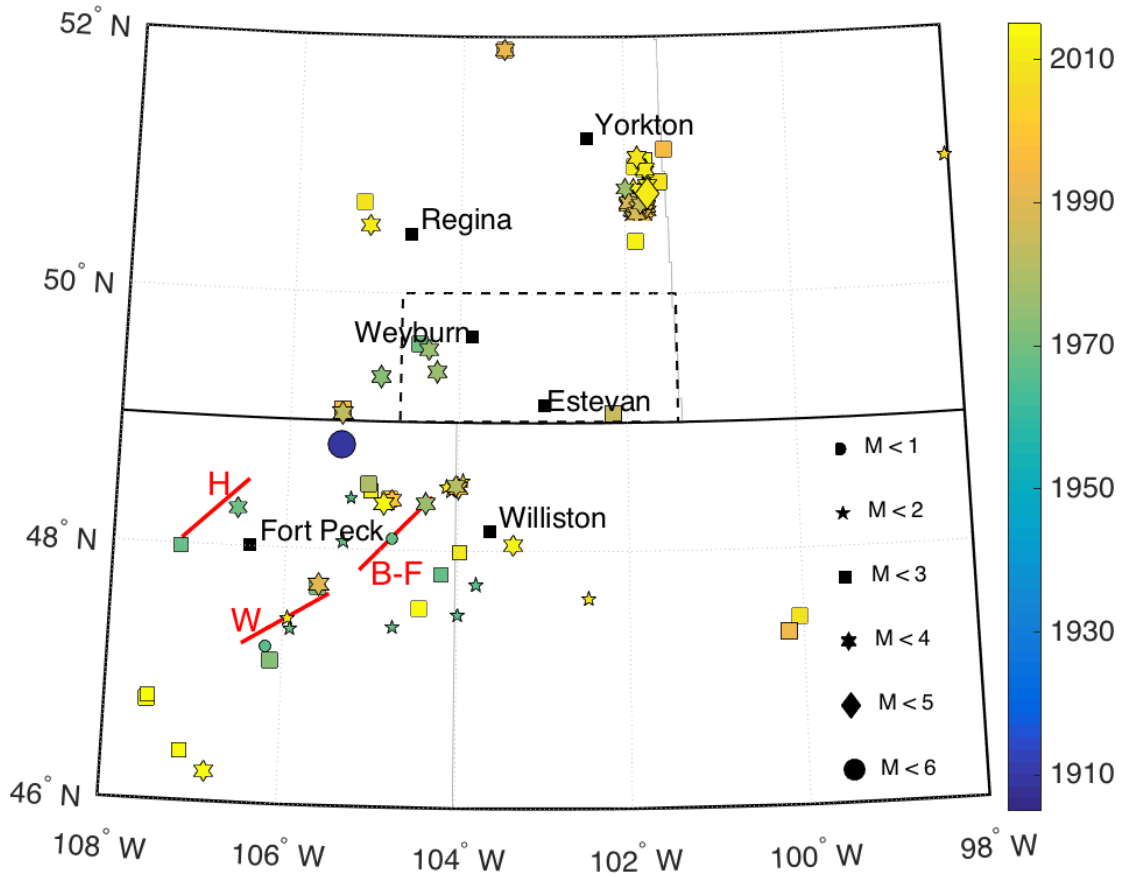


161 note that Frohlich et al. (2015) also detected 4 of these events (2009-07-16, 2009-08-31,  
 162 2010-03-21, and 2010-06-11). Frohlich et al. (2015) detected a further 5 events that were not  
 163 detected during our analysis. This is because Frohlich et al. (2015) had a different area of  
 164 interest (Bakken Shale activities in Montana and North Dakota) and so included USArray  
 165 stations further to the south in their analysis that we did not use. Our overall compiled  
 166 catalogue is shown in Figure 4.



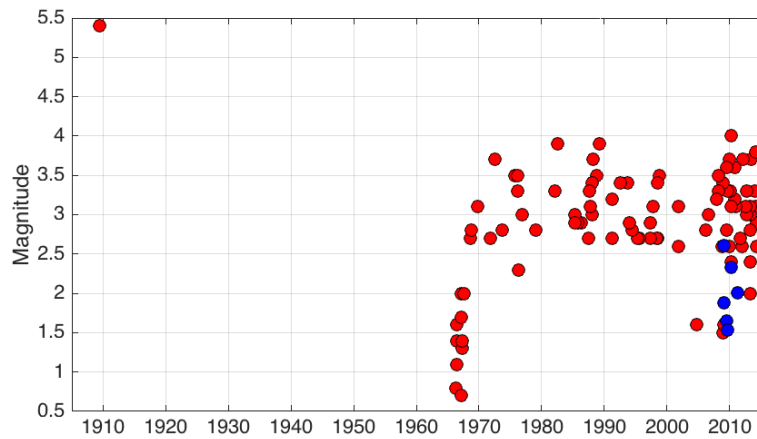
167 *Figure 3: In (a) we show earthquakes listed in NEDC and NEIC catalogues, and in Bakun et al.*  
 168 *(2011). In (b) we show additional events detected using USArray stations. Event symbols indicate*  
 169 *magnitudes, and colours indicate the time of occurrence.*

170 Figure 5 shows event magnitudes through time. The largest event in the region occurred in  
 171 1909, and is known as the Northern Great Plains Earthquake. Bakun et al. (2011) estimate a  
 172 magnitude of 5.3 for this event, though for obvious reasons, both the hypocentre and the  
 173 magnitude of this event are not well constrained. This event serves as an indication that, while  
 174 events in this region are generally small, there must be faults present that are capable of  
 175 generating larger events, and that this should be kept in mind when assessing the risks of  
 176 injection-induced seismicity. However, since this event, no earthquake larger than magnitude  
 177 4.0 has been detected in the region.



178

179 *Figure 4: Compilation of all earthquakes recorded in the southeast Saskatchewan-Montana-North*  
 180 *Dakota region. Event symbols indicate magnitudes, and colours indicate the time of occurrence. The*  
 181 *mapped Hinton (H), Weldon (W) and Brockton-Froid (B-F) fault traces are marked (based on Bakun et*  
 182 *al., 2011).*



183

184 *Figure 5: Event magnitude and occurrence times of all earthquakes in the southeast Saskatchewan-*  
 185 *Montana-North Dakota region. Red = catalogue events, blue = additional USArray events. The low-*  
 186 *magnitude events recorded in the late 1960s were detected using the LASA array.*

187 We note a number of features in the overall event catalogue (Figures 4 and 5):

- 188       • The large cluster of events to the southeast of Yorkton is associated with potash  
189       mining at the Mosaic Company (International Minerals and Chemical Corp as was)  
190       mine. Seismicity might be caused by either subsidence in the rocks overlying the  
191       mined zone, or by re-injection of waste brines into underlying rocks. Hasegawa et al.  
192       (1989) and Gendzwill and Unrau (1996) attribute the seismicity to subsidence above  
193       the mined zone.
- 194       • A further 2 events, to the NW of Regina are also located near to the Belle Plaine  
195       potash mine, and again are assumed to be caused by mining activities. These  
196       examples indicate that industrial activities, even if not oil and gas activities, are  
197       clearly capable of creating induced seismicity in the region.
- 198       • Most of the remaining events fall along a NE-SW trend extending from Montana into  
199       North Dakota and Saskatchewan. This trend matches the trend of 3 mapped fault-  
200       zones, the Brockton-Froid, Hinsdale and Weldon (Figure 3 of Bakun et al., 2011).  
201       This trend also follows the strike of the Trans-Hudson Orogen through the region.

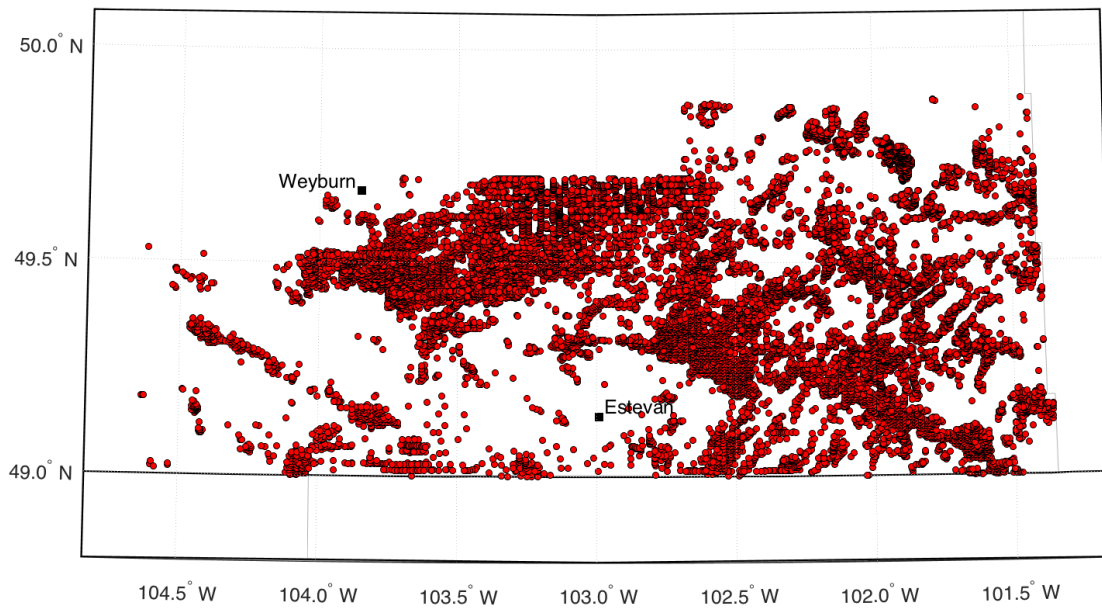
202       Horner and Hasegawa (1978) link naturally occurring seismicity in the region to both  
203       basement structures and to natural dissolution of the Paleozoic Prairie Evaporite deposits. The  
204       Prairie Evaporite deposit, of Middle Devonian age, is found in the sedimentary sequence  
205       across much of the region. It is more than 200m thick in places, and lies at depths of between  
206       400m – 3000m (Hasegawa et al., 1989). Wilson et al. (1963) suggest that basement  
207       lineaments lead to the localisation of upward fluid migration, which in turn results in the  
208       dissolution of the evaporites. Horner and Hasegawa (1978) argue that the salt dissolution  
209       produces stress changes that cause seismicity, pointing out that some of the recorded  
210       seismicity correlates with the edges of the Prairie Evaporite deposits, and with major salt  
211       dissolution structures.

212       Several events are located within the area that has seen a recent boom of activity in the  
213       Bakken Shale. Within this region, hydraulic fracturing is used to extract shale oil from the  
214       Bakken and Three Forks Formations, while produced water and wastewater from the  
215       hydraulic fracturing process are re-injected into saline aquifers (Gaswirth et al., 2013). Both  
216       processes have the potential to generate seismic activity. Frohlich et al. (2015) investigated  
217       these earthquakes, but were only able to tentatively link one event to injection and/or  
218       production activities. This was the  $M_L = 2.3$  event on 2010-03-21, where both production and  
219       injection wells were active within 5km of the epicentre, and no prior events had been  
220       recorded in this vicinity. The remaining events do not occur in close proximity to active  
221       wells. Instead, these events occur in the same vicinity as previous earthquakes that have been  
222       associated with the Brockton-Froid fault zone (Figure 4) that occurred prior to the current  
223       boom in Bakken Shale activity.

224 Finally, we note that, within the specific area of interest of our investigation, 4 events have  
 225 been recorded, occurring in 1968, 1976, 1976, and 1985. Despite the extensive oilfield  
 226 activity that has since been conducted in the area, no further events have been identified.

### 227 3. OIL PRODUCTION AND WATER/CO<sub>2</sub> INJECTION IN SOUTHEAST 228 SASKATCHEWAN

229 Volumes of fluids produced and injected in Saskatchewan are reported to the Saskatchewan  
 230 Ministry of the Economy, who provided the data used in this study. Data were provided on a  
 231 well-by-well basis for over 25,000 wells, shown in Figure 6, for a period covering 2000-01 to  
 232 2014-12. Monthly volumes of oil and gas production, water production, water (re-)injection,  
 233 and CO<sub>2</sub> injection, were listed. Total injection and production volumes for the period 2000 –  
 234 2014 are listed in Table 1. Overall, the volume of fluids produced slightly exceeds the  
 235 volumes injected. However, we note that the volume of water produced far exceeds the  
 236 volume of oil produced, and that this water is almost entirely re-injected. In Figure 7 we plot  
 237 the cumulative fluid volumes through time.

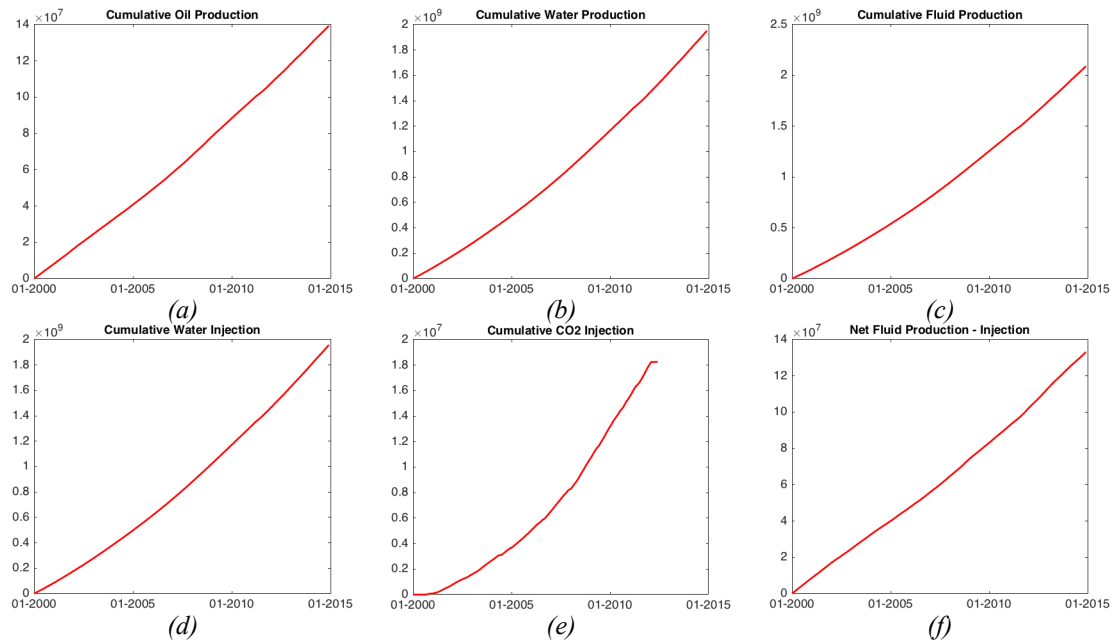


238  
 239 *Figure 6: Locations of all production and injection wells provided by Saskatchewan Ministry of the*  
 240 *Economy and used in this study.*

<i>Fluid</i>	<i>Volume (m<sup>3</sup>)</i>
Oil Produced	1.39x10 <sup>8</sup>
Water Produced	1.95x10 <sup>9</sup>
All Fluids Produced	2.09x10 <sup>9</sup>
Water Injected	1.96x10 <sup>9</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub> Injected	4.70x10 <sup>4</sup>
Net Fluid Produced – Injected	1.33x10 <sup>8</sup>

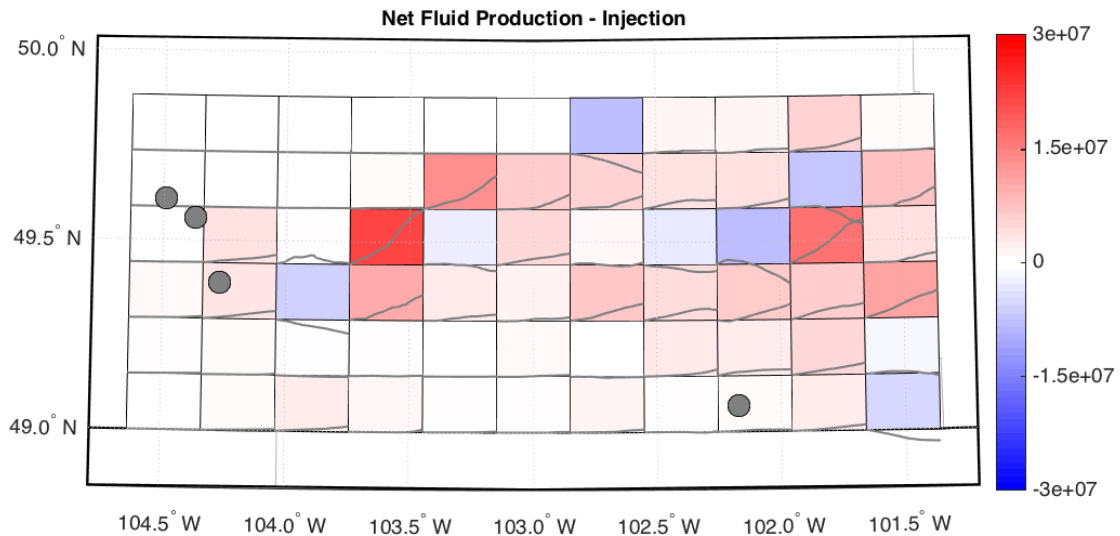
241 *Table 1: Total volumes of fluids produced from and injected into oilfields in southeast Saskatchewan.*  
 242 *Note that CO<sub>2</sub> injection volumes are listed by the Saskatchewan Ministry of the Economy are in units of*

243 standard  $m^3$ . We assume a density of  $700\text{kg}/m^3$  to convert  $CO_2$  volumes at standard conditions into  
 244 volumes at reservoir conditions, which is an approximation for  $CO_2$  density at the pressure and  
 245 temperature conditions of the Weyburn oilfield.



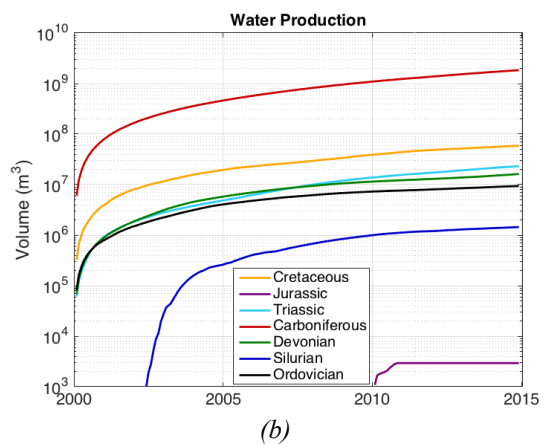
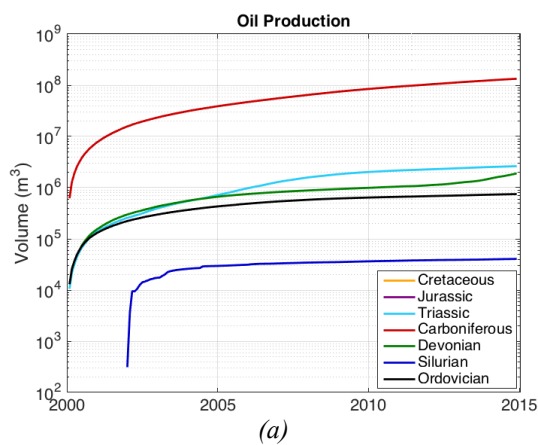
246 Figure 7: Cumulative fluid production and injection volumes (in  $m^3$ , excepting  $CO_2$  volumes, which are  
 247 standard  $m^3$ ) from 2010 to 2015.

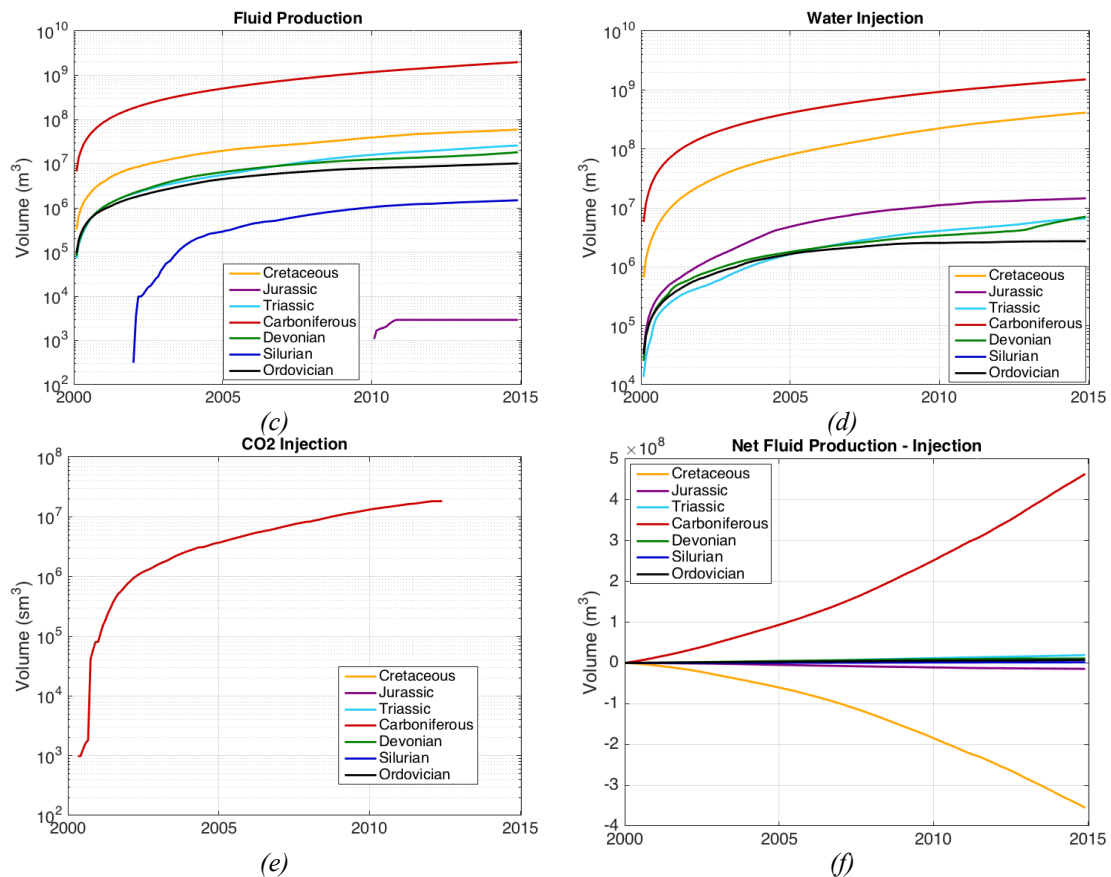
248 Although the net volume change is negative (i.e., more fluid is produced than is injected),  
 249 there may be areas and/or units where injection volumes exceed production, and which would  
 250 therefore potentially be more prone to seismicity. Therefore, in Figure 8 we divide the study  
 251 area into blocks, and consider injection and production volumes within these blocks. We note  
 252 that in most blocks, production exceeds injection. However, there are areas where injection  
 253 volumes do exceed production volumes. Seismicity associated with oilfield activities can be  
 254 induced by both fluid injection and production (e.g. Frohlich and Brunt, 2013). However, it is  
 255 generally accepted that increases in pore fluid volumes (and therefore pore pressures)  
 256 associated with fluid injection are the more common cause of induced seismicity. Therefore  
 257 we expect areas and/or units experiencing a net volume increase to be most prone to induced  
 258 seismicity.



259  
 260 *Figure 8: Spatial variations in net fluid produced – fluid injected across the area of interest. Each*  
 261 *block is coloured by net fluid produced – injected (in m<sup>3</sup>). Blue values indicate produced – injected is*  
 262 *negative (i.e. more fluid is injected than produced). The grey lines indicate relative rates through time,*  
 263 *where the left edge of each block is 2000, and the right hand edge is 2015. The 4 earthquakes within*  
 264 *the study area are also shown as grey dots.*

265 Fluids are produced from and injected into different geological units within this area. The  
 266 geological ages of formations targeted by injection and production wells are listed in the well  
 267 data provided by Saskatchewan Ministry of the Economy. In Figure 9 we plot fluid volumes  
 268 by the age of the geological formation. The majority of oil production and water injection  
 269 occurs in Carboniferous units. However, significant volumes of water are also re-injected into  
 270 shallower Cretaceous units.





271 *Figure 9: Cumulative fluid production and injection volumes from 2010 to 2015, as a function of the*  
 272 *geological age of the unit from/into which fluid is produced/injected. The y-axes of panels (a) – (e) are*  
 273 *logarithmic to allow the differing volumes to be viewed clearly. Where no production/injection has*  
 274 *taken place from/into a unit, no line is plotted.*

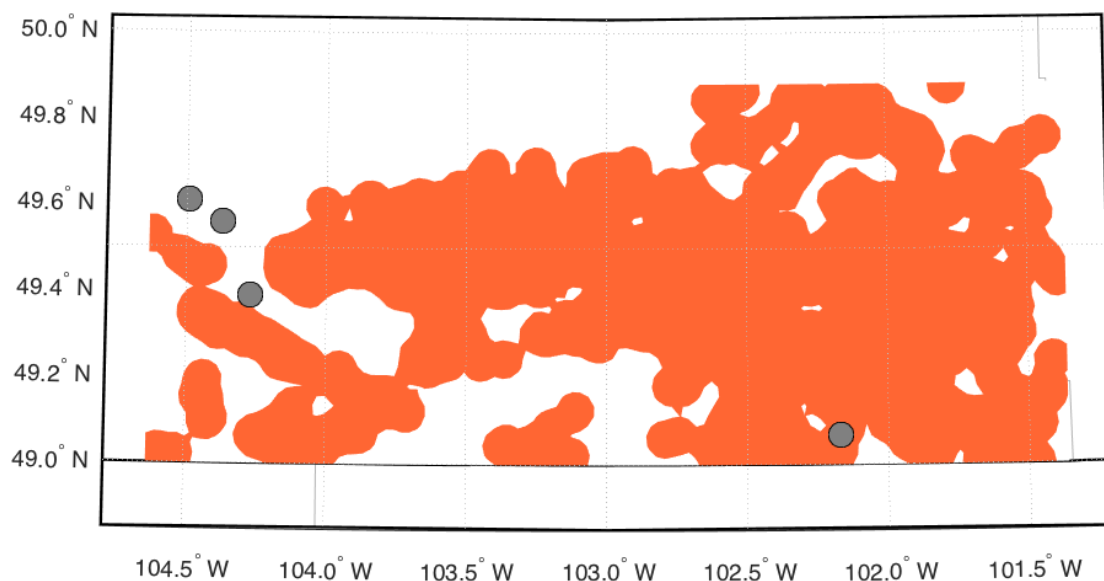
275 Verdon (2014) noted that in many (though not all) cases, injection-induced seismicity occurs  
 276 when fluids are injected into layers near to the crystalline basement. This suggests that  
 277 injection in basal layers may be of greater concern than in shallower layers that are  
 278 hydraulically isolated from basement rocks. For example, much of the wastewater disposal  
 279 being conducted in Oklahoma, which has seen a substantial increase in injection-induced  
 280 seismicity, is injected into the Arbuckle Formation, which overlies crystalline basement rocks  
 281 (Keranen et al., 2013; 2014). Three cases of injection-induced seismicity in Ohio, at Perry  
 282 (Nicholson et al., 1988), at Ashtabula (Seeber et al., 2004) and Youngstown (Kim, 2013) all  
 283 involved injection into the Mt Simon Formation, which again overlies crystalline basement  
 284 rocks. Similarly, injection wells that triggered seismicity in Arkansas were injecting into the  
 285 Ozark aquifer, which in that location has a direct hydraulic connection to underlying  
 286 basement rocks (Horton, 2012).

287 In contrast, in southeast Saskatchewan, volume changes in deep basal layers are small, with  
 288 most oilfield activity focussed in Carboniferous and Mesozoic layers. The only units  
 289 experiencing a substantial net volume increase are of Cretaceous age, which are unlikely to

290 have any hydraulic connection to the basement rocks. It is possible that the absence of a  
291 hydraulic connection between layers in the basement and the layers with net volume increases  
292 is the reason for the lack of induced seismicity in this area.

#### 293 **4. CORRELATION BETWEEN OILFIELD ACTIVITIES AND SEISMICITY?**

294 Figure 8 shows the epicentres of the 4 events that have occurred within our study area,  
295 overlain on a map showing areal variations of net fluid injection volumes. Figure 8 should not  
296 be used as a direct comparison between seismicity and injection, because the injection data is  
297 from 2000 onwards, a long time after these events occurred. However, assuming that injection  
298 and production activities have not changed location substantially, there is no obvious  
299 correlation between event locations and areas with larger volume changes (either positive or  
300 negative). Events are often deemed to be associated with a well if they occur within 5km  
301 (Davis and Frohlich, 1993). In Figure 10 we overlay the event epicentres on a plot showing  
302 the distance to the nearest well (considering only wells that were drilled before 1985, when  
303 the last of these 4 events occurred).



304  
305 *Figure 10: Epicentres of the 4 events located within the study area (grey dots), overlain on a map*  
306 *showing localities – shaded areas – that are within 5km of a well (either injection or production) active*  
307 *in 1985 (the date of the last event to occur in the area). Much of the study area is within 5km of at least*  
308 *one well. Nevertheless, 3 of the 4 events are located more than 5km from any well.*

309 In order to assess the possibility that events have been induced by industrial activities, we  
310 consider them within the framework for induced seismicity outlined by Davis and Frohlich  
311 (1993). A series of questions are posed, where predominately “yes” answers indicate that an  
312 event may have been induced by industrial activities. The questions, and their answers in this  
313 particular case, are:



314 *1. Are the events the first known earthquakes of this character in the region?*

315 Hydrocarbon production in this area commenced in the 1950s. However, adequate  
316 seismometer coverage was only achieved in the 1960s. Therefore, we have no assessment of  
317 seismicity rates prior to oilfield activities with which we can answer this question robustly.  
318 However, the rate, magnitudes and positions of these events suggest that they are a  
319 continuation of the trend of seismicity running NE from Montana. This overall trend in  
320 seismicity is seen in producing and non-producing areas alike, suggesting that these events  
321 represent a natural trend.

322 *2. Is there clear temporal correlation between injection and seismicity?*

323 Injection and production has continued apace for nearly 30 years since the last event within  
324 the study area. There does not therefore appear to be any temporal correlation between  
325 injection and seismicity

326 *3. Are epicentres near to wells (within 5km)?*

327 When considering only wells that were active when these events happened, only one event is  
328 (just) within 5km. However, there is no spatial correlation between seismicity and injection  
329 and/or production volumes.

330 *4. Do some events occur at or near to injection depths?*

331 Because of the lack of monitoring stations in the area, event depths are unconstrained. It is  
332 therefore not possible to answer this question.

333 *5. Are changes in fluid pressure sufficient to encourage seismicity?*

334 It is difficult to answer this question, since to model the pressure changes induced at each  
335 injection well is beyond the scope of this study. However, we can consider the case of  
336 Weyburn (as described in Verdon et al., 2011), one of the largest oilfields in the region, as a  
337 representative case. Oil has been produced at Weyburn from Carboniferous age formations  
338 since the 1950s, with water re-injection for secondary recovery. Tertiary recovery was  
339 initiated in 2000 with the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> with the combined purpose of CO<sub>2</sub> storage and  
340 EOR.

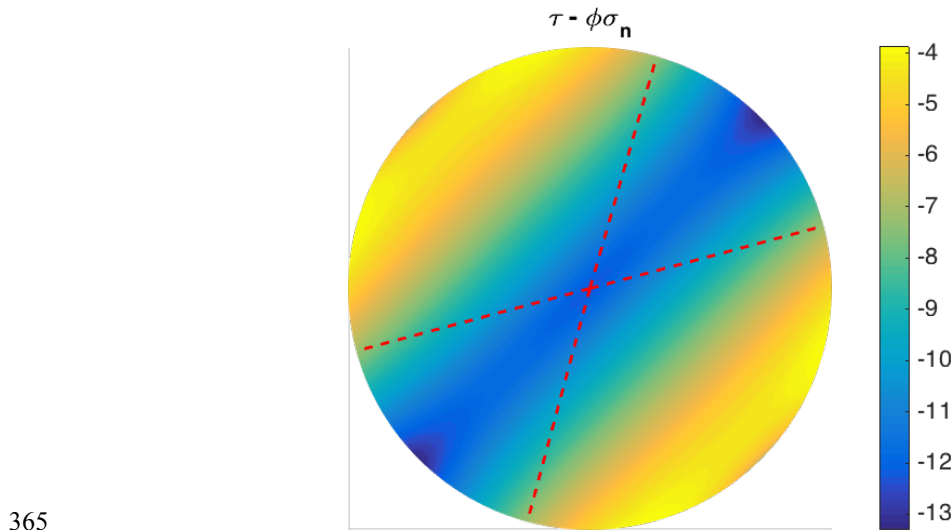
341 Jimenez Gomez (2006) conducted an extensive study of the geomechanical conditions at  
342 Weyburn. Based on prior studies of borehole breakouts, natural fractures and inelastic strain  
343 recovery tests (McLennan et al., 1986; McLellan et al., 1992), Jimenez Gomez (2006) reports  
344 a maximum horizontal stress azimuth of 40-50°, a vertical stress gradient of 24kPa/m and a  
345 minimum horizontal stress gradient of 18kPa/m. Jimenez Gomez reports a maximum  
346 horizontal stress gradient of 28kPa/m, although this is not well constrained, and he suggests a

347 more realistic value to be 26kPa/m. Stress orientations can also be determined from  
 348 measurements of seismic anisotropy, where the fast shear wave polarisation is typically found  
 349 to be parallel to the  $S_H$  direction (Boness and Zoback, 2006). Using both shear wave splitting  
 350 measurements made on microseismic data (Verdon et al., 2011) and controlled source AVOA  
 351 observations (Duxbury et al., 2012), the anisotropic fast axis at Weyburn appears to be  
 352 oriented at an azimuth of  $45^\circ$ , which is in agreement with the orientation reported by Jimenez  
 353 Gomez (2006).

354 Based on the above, we take the initial stress conditions at Weyburn, which is at a depth of  
 355 approximately 1,450m, to be:  $S_H = 37\text{MPa}$ ,  $S_h = 26\text{MPa}$ ,  $S_v = 35\text{MPa}$ , with a principal  
 356 horizontal stress azimuth of  $45^\circ$ . Hydrostatic pore pressure at these depths is 14.5MPa. We  
 357 can resolve this stress tensor onto fault planes of arbitrary angle, computing normal stress,  $\sigma_n$ ,  
 358 and shear stress,  $\tau$ , for all possible fault planes. Mohr-Coulomb theory states that a fault plane  
 359 will reactivate if

$$360 \quad \tau - \phi\sigma_n - C > 0, \quad (1)$$

361 where  $\phi$  is the friction coefficient, and  $C$  is the cohesion. Faults are therefore most likely to be  
 362 reactivated if they have strike and dip such that  $\tau - \phi\sigma_n$  is maximized. In Figure 11 we plot  $\tau - \phi\sigma_n$   
 363 as a function of fault-normal azimuth and inclination, noting that this analysis suggests  
 364 that faults striking ENE-WSW and NNE-SSW are most likely to be re-activated.



365  
 366 *Figure 11: Stereoplots showing the Mohr-Coulomb criteria  $\tau - \phi\sigma_n$  as a function of fault-normal (i.e.  
 367 the line drawn perpendicular to the fault plane) azimuth and inclination. Faults will be prone to failure  
 368 when  $\tau - \phi\sigma_n$  is maximized. In this case, vertical faults striking NNE and ENE (marked by dashed red  
 369 lines) will be most prone to failure. Vertical faults striking SE-NW will be least prone to failure.*

370 A pore pressure increase will reduce the effective normal stresses, increasing the probability  
371 of slip on a well-oriented fault. The effective stress,  $\sigma'_{ij}$ , is determined as a function of the  
372 stress tensor applied to the rock,  $\sigma_{ij}$ , and the pore pressure,  $P$ :

$$373 \quad \sigma'_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} - \beta_w I_{ij} P, \quad (2)$$

374 where  $I_{ij}$  is a 3×3 identity matrix, and  $\beta_w$  is the Biot-Willis parameter (e.g., Mavko et al.,  
375 1992), typically assumed to be 1. However, as well as influencing the effective stress via the  
376 'P' term in the above equation, pore pressure changes also affect the effective stress by  
377 causing a change in the applied stress. For an isotropic, porous elastic reservoir that is thin but  
378 laterally extensive, the change in horizontal applied stress as a function of a change in pore  
379 fluid pressure is

$$380 \quad \gamma_H = 1 - 2\nu/1 - \nu, \quad (3)$$

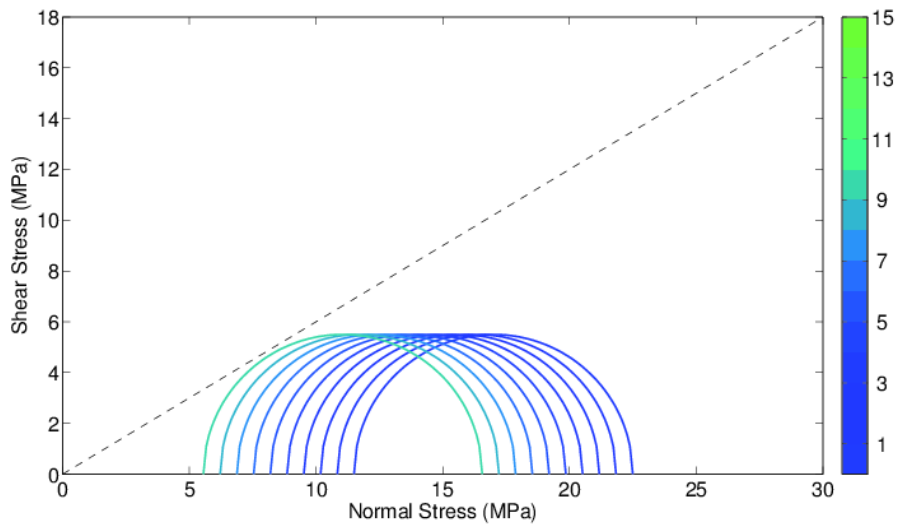
381 where  $\nu$  is the Poisson's ratio, and  $\gamma_H$  describes how much horizontal stress change  $\Delta\sigma_H$  is  
382 caused by a pore pressure change  $\Delta P$ :

$$383 \quad \gamma_H = \Delta\sigma_H / \Delta P. \quad (4)$$

384 Assuming a typical value of  $\nu = 0.25$ , Figure 12 shows how the Mohr circle, representing the  
385 stress conditions, moves as pore pressure increases. Also shown is a typical M-C failure  
386 envelope with a friction coefficient of 0.6. Slip can occur when the Mohr circle exceeds the  
387 failure limit. We find that a pore pressure increase of approximately 10MPa is sufficient to  
388 move the stress conditions from their current stable conditions and into a state where faults  
389 may be able to slip. This value matches the value found for the same conditions by Jimenez  
390 Gomez (2006), though we note that his thesis explored a much greater range of scenarios.

391 Various reservoir models have been created to simulate the change in pore fluid pressure  
392 during the various stages of production at Weyburn (e.g., Jimenez Gomez, 2006; Verdon et  
393 al., 2013). In the model used by Verdon et al. (2013), at no point does the pore pressure  
394 exceed 10MPa above hydrostatic. In the model used by Jimenez Gomez (2006), pressures do  
395 occasionally exceed 10MPa above hydrostatic, but only rarely and in isolated model cells,  
396 rather than systematically across the reservoir (Figures 8-6, 8-14 and B-19 – B-24 of Jimenez  
397 Gomez, 2006). In summary, while we cannot account for every injection well in the area of  
398 study, injection pressures within the one of the largest oilfields in the area have not reached  
399 the levels necessary to move faults in the present-day ambient stress field beyond the Mohr-  
400 Coulomb stability envelope. However, future plans for the Weyburn field include its  
401 conversion into a purely CCS site, once oil production is exhausted. This would entail  
402 continued CO<sub>2</sub> injection without any fluid removal (Sun et al., this issue). In such a scenario,  
403 fluid pressures quickly increase to levels that are capable of moving faults beyond the Mohr-

404 Coulomb stability envelope. We therefore recommend that if such plans are realized,  
405 extensive geomechanical and microseismic monitoring should be deployed to ensure that the  
406 risks entailed by deformation and fault re-activation can be mitigated (as described by Verdon  
407 et al., 2015).



408

409 *Figure 12: Mohr circles for Weyburn stress conditions as a function of pore pressure increase. Each*  
410 *Mohr circle represents the effective stress conditions for a given pore pressure increase from*  
411 *hydrostatic, denoted by the color. Each circle represents a 1MPa increase in pore pressure. Also*  
412 *shown is a typical M-C failure envelope with a friction coefficient of 0.6: slip is likely if the Mohr*  
413 *circles exceed this envelope. A pore pressure increase of ~10MPa is sufficient to move the Mohr circle*  
414 *from its initial conditions to reach the failure envelope.*

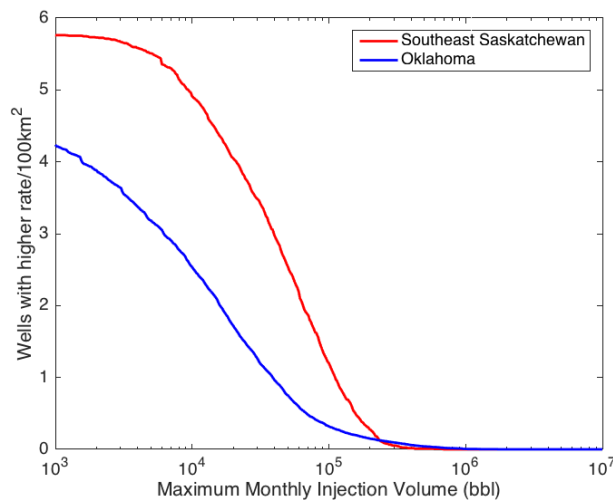
## 415 **5. DISCUSSION**

416 Based on our observations and the questions discussed in the previous section, we conclude  
417 that there is no evidence to suggest that oilfield activities in southeast Saskatchewan have  
418 induced seismic activity. Broadly speaking, this conclusion applies across the Western  
419 Canadian Sedimentary Basin in general (Ferguson, 2015). However, it is worth comparing  
420 our study area with others that have experienced much higher levels of induced seismicity  
421 from similar levels of oilfield activity. By making this comparison, it may be possible to  
422 identify why seismicity occurs in some cases and not others, and thereby take steps towards  
423 mitigating the issue.

424 Frohlich (2012) and Keranen et al. (2014) both link induced seismicity in the mid-continental  
425 USA to the presence of high-volume wastewater disposal wells with monthly volumes in  
426 excess of 150,000 – 400,000 barrels per month (bbls/m). In Figure 13 we compare the

427 maximum monthly injection rates in 2014 for wells in southeast Saskatchewan with data from  
428 Oklahoma<sup>1</sup>.

429 In Figure 13 we normalize the number of wells with a given injection volume by the size of  
430 the study area, such that we plot the number of wells with a given maximum injection rate per  
431 100km<sup>2</sup>. For Oklahoma, the area we use for this normalization is the area of the state.  
432 However, injection wells in Oklahoma are not evenly distributed, so it is likely that there are  
433 areas where the number of injection wells per unit area is larger than that plotted in Figure 13.  
434 Nevertheless, from Figure 13 it is apparent that there are similar numbers of injection wells  
435 with large monthly rates in both Oklahoma and southeast Saskatchewan. Therefore  
436 differences in injection volume alone cannot account for the differences in injection-induced  
437 seismicity.



438

439 *Figure 13: Cumulative distribution of the highest monthly injection rates for wells in southeast*  
440 *Saskatchewan (red), compared with wells in Oklahoma (blue), normalized by the sizes of the areas*  
441 *under consideration.*

442 It is possible that the stress conditions in southeast Saskatchewan are such that faults are less  
443 likely to rupture. Williams-Stroud and Billingsley (2010) report a low level of stress  
444 anisotropy during hydraulic fracturing in the Bakken Shale, for example. This is consistent  
445 with the generally low levels of natural seismicity in the area. However, potash mining in  
446 southeast Saskatchewan has induced a substantial number of earthquakes, indicating that the  
447 stress conditions are such that seismicity can be triggered in this region, if the necessary  
448 forcing is applied.

449 Because they have not been well studied, it is not known whether these events are caused by  
450 subsidence of rocks overlying the mined zone, or by wastewater disposal in deeper layers.

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<sup>1</sup> Injection well data for Oklahoma is available from: <http://www.occeweb.com/og/ogdatafiles2.htm>

451 Further analysis of these events is needed to establish why potash mining in the region is able  
452 to induce seismicity, while oilfield activities have not.

453 A significant difference between the two regions is the injection depth. Wastewater disposal  
454 wells in Oklahoma, Ohio, and Arkansas, which have induced seismicity, inject into basal  
455 aquifers that are hydraulically connected to underlying crystalline basement rocks. In  
456 contrast, the only geological units to have experienced a net volume increase in southeast  
457 Saskatchewan are Cretaceous in age, and so are unlikely to have any hydraulic connection to  
458 the crystalline basement. Basement rocks generally have higher shear moduli and shear  
459 strength. This allows them to store higher shear stresses, and when ruptures occur, they will  
460 be more energetic (e.g., Vilarrasa and Carrera, 2015). Additionally, faults in basement layers  
461 cannot be easily mapped with reflection seismic surveys (and they are rarely the target for  
462 such surveys anyway, since they do not contain hydrocarbons). As such, basement faults may  
463 be present near to injection wells that are not detected. It might therefore be expected that  
464 injection into basal layers, with the result that pore pressures also increase in the crystalline  
465 basement, is more likely to lead to injection-induced seismicity.

466 Taking the above into account, we note that injection into basal layers is not a necessary  
467 condition for induced seismicity (e.g., Zoback and Gorelick, 2015). For example, injection  
468 wells in the Raton Basin that are 2 – 3km above the basement have induced seismic activity  
469 (Rubinstein et al., 2014). Similarly, some injection wells in East Texas that are a substantial  
470 distance above the basement have also induced seismic activity (e.g., Justinic et al., 2013),  
471 while CO<sub>2</sub> injection at In Salah, which is also well above the basement, has also produced  
472 seismicity (Stork et al., 2015).

473 To date, few wells have targeted the basal formations in southeast Saskatchewan. However,  
474 the Aquistore CCS pilot project has begun to inject CO<sub>2</sub> into the basal Deadwood Formation.  
475 At present, only a small volume of CO<sub>2</sub> has been injected, and no seismicity has been  
476 recorded. It will be of interest to see whether continued injection into this layer begins to  
477 trigger seismicity, as CO<sub>2</sub> injection into the basal Mt Simon Formation has done at the  
478 Decatur CCS pilot project, Illinois (Kaven et al., 2015). The operators of the Aquistore  
479 project have installed an extensive passive seismic monitoring system (Worth et al., 2014).  
480 Whether or not seismicity is triggered may indicate whether injection into basal layers is a  
481 particular risk factor for injection-induced seismicity.

## 482 **Acknowledgements**

483 We would like to thank the US Department of Energy, and the Petroleum Technology  
484 Research Centre of Canada, for funding this research. We also thank Gavin Jensen from the  
485 Saskatchewan Ministry of the Economy for providing the fluid volumes for southeast

486 Saskatchewan. Michael Kendall's Professorship and James Verdon's Research Fellowship at  
487 the University of Bristol are supported by the British Geological Survey.

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