

# Low volumes of quartz cement in deeply buried Fulmar Formation sandstones explained by a low effective stress burial history

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## Abstract

14 Upper Jurassic Fulmar Formation sandstones from the Fulmar Field in the Central North Sea  
15 are buried to 3.2 km and 128 °C but contain only  $3.7 \pm 1.7\%$  ( $1\sigma$ ) quartz cement, substantially  
16 less than volumes predicted by models based on temperature-related quartz precipitation  
17 kinetics. Oxygen isotope microanalysis of quartz overgrowths suggests that only limited  
18 cementation occurred at temperatures above 110°C. We suggest that the anomalously low  
19 volumes of quartz cement are most readily explained by the effective stress history of the  
20 Fulmar Formation. Regional pore pressure analysis strongly suggests that pore fluid pressures  
21 in the Fulmar Formation decreased substantially in the last  $< 0.5$  Ma as a result of lateral seal  
22 failure, increasing effective stress from *ca.* 10 MPa to the current 31 MPa. A recent increase in  
23 effective stress is supported by the common occurrence of grains that are both fractured and  
24 unhealed by quartz cement. Intergranular pressure dissolution can account for around one third  
25 of the observed quartz cement, with the remainder from deep burial feldspar dissolution. We  
26 argue that the continuous history of low effective stress, until the very recent geological past,  
27 limited the rate of silica supply by intergranular pressure dissolution, and thus the rate of quartz  
28 cementation. Effective stress histories should be incorporated into predictive models of quartz  
29 cementation of sandstones.

31 Keywords: Sandstone; Grain fracturing, Quartz cement; Effective stress; Intergranular pressure  
32 dissolution; Secondary ion mass spectrometry; Oxygen isotopes

33 **1 Introduction**

34 Sandstone reservoir quality (porosity and permeability) is one of the man criteria for assessing  
35 the likelihood of exploration, production and fluid injection success in a clastic setting.  
36 Understanding the processes that control porosity evolution in sandstones is thus important for  
37 the accurate prediction of pore to reservoir-scale quality related to the production, storage and  
38 injection of hydrocarbon and other fluids.

39 Quartz cement is the most important porosity reducing cement in sandstones (McBride, 1989;  
40 Worden et al., 2018). As sands undergo burial and transform to sandstone, vertical effective  
41 stress (VES, i.e. vertical stress minus pore pressure) drives porosity reduction by controlling  
42 the extent of mechanical compaction at shallow depth (<2500 m and temperature < 80 °C) and  
43 influencing the degree of chemical compaction/intergranular pressure dissolution of quartz  
44 (IPD; e.g. van Noort et al., 2008). Because vertical effective stress reduces as pore pressure  
45 increases at a given depth, changes in pore pressure affects the susceptibility of sediments to  
46 compaction, pressure dissolution, and cementation.

47 Under hydrostatic condition, vertical effective stress increases linearly with increasing burial.  
48 However, basin subsidence can be punctuated by intermittent episodes of pore pressure  
49 inflation and/or deflation events triggered by a range of mechanisms (Osborne and Swarbrick,  
50 1997; Swarbrick et al., 2005), thus complicating pore pressure and VES histories. Unlike  
51 temperature history where paleothermometers such as vitrinite reflectance can reveal historical  
52 thermal fluctuations, there are no similar palaeo-tools for assessing variations in stress  
53 evolution through time. Hence, it is often difficult to reconstruct accurate VES histories from  
54 basin models (Oye et al., 2020). This makes it difficult to accurately assess the impact of VES  
55 on IPD and quartz cementation in diagenetic studies. Previous research (Laubach, 1989;  
56 Makowitz and Milliken, 2003; Worden et al., 2018; Zeng, 2010) suggests that grain fractures  
57 (also known as microfractures) can be good indicators of palaeostress and can form in  
58 sandstones during early diagenesis and continue to the mesogenesis stage. Fracture cross-  
59 cutting relations, along with fluid inclusion and/or oxygen isotope data from fracture-filling  
60 cement are some of the tools that can be used to infer the relative timing of fracture formation  
61 (Zeng, 2010) and inflection points in stress and temperature histories.

62 One of the known causes of grain fracturing is increased vertical effective stress due to vertical  
63 loading from sediment overburden (Makowitz and Milliken, 2003; Worden et al., 2018).  
64 Framework grain fracturing can manifest in quartz-rich sandstone reservoirs in response to  
65 increased vertical effective stress following a rapid pore pressure reduction triggered by seal  
66 failure or anthropogenic activities like hydrocarbon or geothermal fluid production  
67 (DiGiovanni et al., 2007; Pijnenburg et al., 2019; Teufel et al., 1991; Verberne et al., 2021).  
68 This includes sandstones that are deeply buried but in which fluid pressures have remained  
69 high through the deeper part of their burial history, such that effective stress has remained low.  
70 As such, integration of grain fracture data from petrographic studies of sandstones with their  
71 stress history, should provide insights into the VES pathway through time, and a more accurate  
72 assessment of the role of VES on intergranular pressure dissolution and quartz cementation.

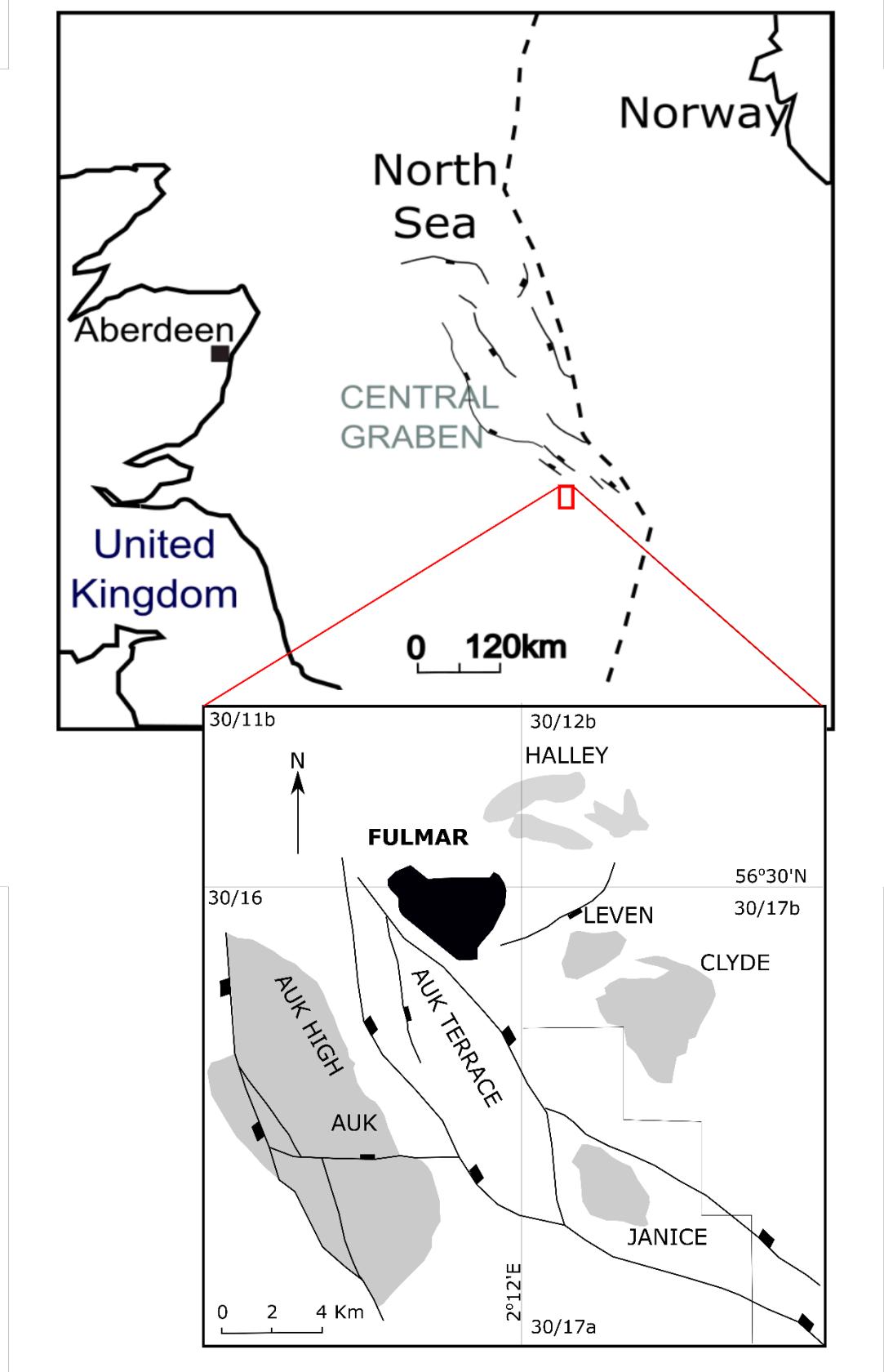
73 Here, we report a detailed study of the Fulmar Formation in the Fulmar Field, UK Central  
74 North Sea. Buried to 130 °C and with a present-day pore pressure that is only 7 MPa above  
75 hydrostatic, these sandstones have low volumes of quartz cement that, at first sight, cannot be  
76 readily explained either by stress-related IPD or by temperature-driven cementation models  
77 (Lander and Walderhaug, 1999; Walderhaug, 1994a, 1996). However, modelling of regional  
78 pore pressure data from the Fulmar, and proximal Clyde and Halley fields (Swarbrick et al.,  
79 2005) suggests a rapid deflation of pore pressure in the Fulmar Formation sands in this area  
80 over the last *ca.* 0.5 million years. This unusual pore pressure/VES history allows us to explore  
81 the role of VES history on IPD and quartz cementation. We integrate (a) detailed petrographic  
82 analysis, (b) basin modelling to understand the burial, temperature, and vertical effective stress  
83 histories, (c) high spatial resolution oxygen isotope analysis of quartz cement and (d) a kinetic  
84 model of quartz cementation to suggest that VES history plays a key role in quartz cementation  
85 of sandstones through its control on the rate of supply of silica through intergranular pressure  
86 dissolution.

## 87 **2 Geological setting**

88 This study is focussed on Upper Jurassic Fulmar Formation sands from the Fulmar Field,  
89 located in the United Kingdom sector of the Central North Sea in Blocks 30/16 and 30/11b  
90 (Fig. 1). The Fulmar structure is a product of halokinesis, basement fault reactivation and syn  
91 – post depositional fault movement (Kuhn et al., 2003), leading to the deposition of the  
92 sedimentary units outlined in Table 1. A simple stratigraphy of the Fulmar Field is shown on  
93 Fig. 2. The Late Jurassic, shallow marine Fulmar Formation is a thick (> 100m), laterally

94 continuous shoreface sandstone that occurs across the Fulmar-Clyde-Halley region. The  
95 formation, compartmentalized by faulting, comprises mainly fine-medium grained,  
96 moderately- to well-sorted, bioturbated arkosic sandstones with localised crossbedding and  
97 ripples (Kuhn et al., 2003).

98 At a subsea depth of 3200 m in the Fulmar Field, the Fulmar Formation reservoir has an average  
99 formation pressure of 39 MPa (7 MPa above hydrostatic), a vertical effective stress of 31 MPa  
100 and a temperature of  $\sim 130$  °C (Lee and Parsons, 2003; Mehenni and Roodenburg, 1990; Saigal  
101 et al., 1992). The overlying Kimmeridge Clay Formation is the main source rock, and also  
102 doubles as a seal lithology, jointly with the Upper Cretaceous Chalk in the Fulmar area (Kuhn  
103 et al., 2003).



105 Figure 1. Map of the study location showing the Fulmar Field and other adjacent fields  
106 (*adapted from Spaak et al., 1999*).

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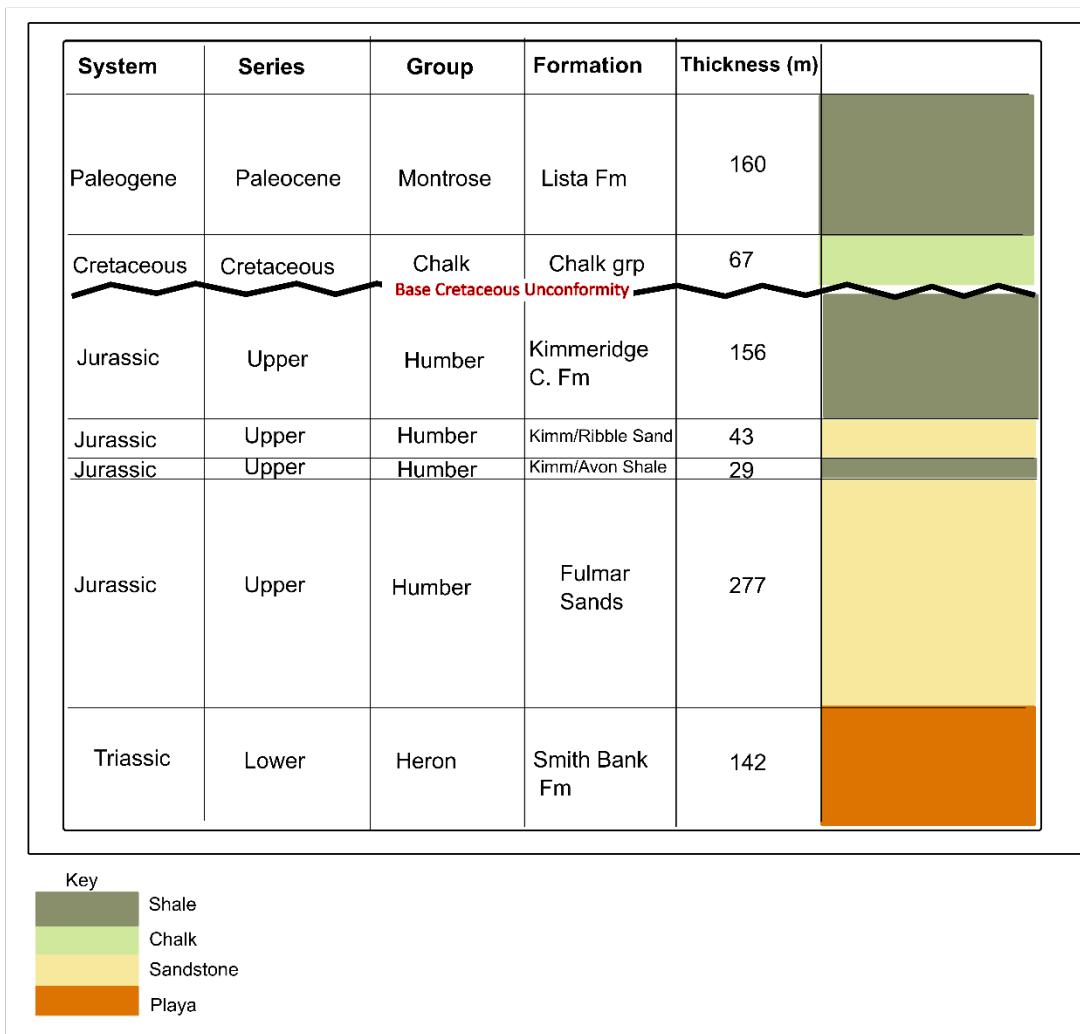
108 Table 1. Layer thicknesses and lithologies used for Fulmar Field burial history modelling  
109 (*from Oye, 2019*)

System	Series	Group	Formation	Age (Ma)	Lithology	Thickness (m)
Paleogene	Eocene - Miocene	Hordaland Group (undiff.)	Nord/Hord	54	Shale (typical)	2687
Paleogene	Eocene	Rogaland	Balder Fm	56	Shale (silty) 95% Tuff 5%	14
Paleogene	Paleocene	Montrose	Lista Fm	62.5	Shale 70% Silt 30%	160
Cretaceous		Chalk	Chalk Grp	91	Chalk 90% Marl 10%	67
Jurassic	Upper	Humber	Kimmeridge C. Fm.	150.7	Shale (8% TOC) 90% Silt 10%	156
Jurassic	Upper	Humber	Kimm/Ribble Sand	151.38	Sandstone (typical)	43
Jurassic	Upper	Humber	Kimm/Avon Shale	152.06	Shale 80% (8% TOC) Silt 20%	29
Jurassic	Upper	Humber	Fulmar Sands	158.4	Sandstone (arkose, quartz rich)	277
Triassic	Lower	Heron	Smith Bank Fm	248.2	Shale (organic lean, sandy)	142

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114 Figure 2. Stratigraphy of the Fulmar Field from Lista Formation to Smith Bank Formation.  
 115 Thicknesses are average values estimated from well 30/16-7. Smith Bank Formation is  
 116 dominated by shale, with isolated sands. Analysed samples were collected from the Fulmar  
 117 Formation.

118

### 119 **3 Samples and methods**

120 A total of 22 Fulmar Formation sandstone samples from Well 30/16-7 were collected at ~1 m  
 121 intervals between 3245–3277 m TVDSS; all samples were taken from below the oil-water  
 122 contact.

123 Optical and electron microscopy-based petrographic analyses were performed on thin sections  
 124 prepared from the 22 Fulmar Formation samples. During optical microscopy, modal analysis

125 of grain types, grain contacts, grain coats, matrix and cement was carried out by making at least  
126 300 point-counts on each thin section. The results were used to select 10 thin sections  
127 representing the full range of quartz cement volumes for further analysis using electron  
128 microscopy. Scanning electron microscope cathodoluminescence (SEM-CL) and energy  
129 dispersive X-ray (EDX) techniques were used to create both Si element and CL maps of a 9  
130 mm<sup>2</sup> area of each thin section. These were used to quantify detrital quartz, authigenic quartz  
131 and intergranular pressure dissolution (Oye, 2019).

132 Basin modelling (1D) was performed on PetroMod software (v. 2014.1) to determine the burial,  
133 temperature, and effective stress histories of the Fulmar Formation in the Fulmar Field.  
134 Stratigraphic layers and their thicknesses were extracted from composite logs (Table 1), and  
135 their ages from the Millennium Atlas (Evans et al., 2003). Other data were obtained from an  
136 unpublished Operator's report. Heat flow model input parameters were defined using Allen  
137 and Allen (2005), with an average of 58 mW/m<sup>2</sup> and peak heat flows in the Permo-Triassic  
138 (69.7 mW/m<sup>2</sup>) and Upper Jurassic (86.4 mW/m<sup>2</sup>) representing Central North Sea rifting events.  
139 The thermal model was calibrated using measured temperature and vitrinite reflectance (% R<sub>o</sub>)  
140 data (see Mehenni and Roodenburg, 1990). Field pore pressure data were used to constrain the  
141 VES model and routine core analysis porosity data were used to model compaction. For the  
142 modelled pore pressure to match Present-day formation pressures, permeability values of the  
143 Chalk Group, Kimmeridge Clay Formation and Heather Formation were modified in PetroMod  
144 until an optimum fit was attained (see Swarbrick et al., 2005). In addition, a second VES model  
145 was constructed referenced to the proposed timing of a substantial increase in VES inferred  
146 from (a) petrographic analysis of intragranular microfractures observed in the studied  
147 sandstones and (b) the suggestion by Swarbrick et al., (2005) that pore pressure in the Fulmar  
148 Formation sands in the Fulmar-Halley-Clyde region decreased substantially in the last ca. 0.5  
149 Ma due to lateral drainage, resulting in an equivalent increase in effective stress. We return to  
150 this important point later. Field pore pressure data were used to constrain the stress model and  
151 routine core analysis porosity data were used to model compaction.

152 A quartz precipitation model was constructed for the Fulmar Field sandstones using the  
153 Walderhaug (1996) approach. Model inputs include grain size, mineralogy, and available  
154 quartz surface area which was determined using the mineralogical fraction of detrital quartz  
155 and grain coat (clay and microquartz) coverage area estimated from petrographic analysis (Oye  
156 et al., 2018; Oye, 2019; Oye et al., 2020). Because the Fulmar sandstones from Fulmar Field

157 have an arkosic composition, only the mineralogical fraction of detrital quartz in the samples  
158 were considered in the model.

159 *In situ* oxygen isotope ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) analysis was performed on three distinct quartz overgrowths from  
160 one thin-section (sample depth is 3293.85 m) using high resolution secondary ion mass  
161 spectrometry (SIMS) at the WiscSIMS Lab in the University of Wisconsin. The selected quartz  
162 overgrowths range in thickness from 30–100  $\mu\text{m}$ , allowing multiple spots for SIMS data  
163 acquisition. Before the analysis, the sample was embedded in a polished epoxy mount together  
164 with University of Wisconsin quartz standard (UWQ-1) grains (Kita et al., 2009). Profiles of  
165  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  were measured across each overgrowth using a 3  $\mu\text{m}$  spot diameter. Detailed results of  
166 the SIMS analysis are reported in Table S2 of the supplementary material. A comprehensive  
167 description of the analytical procedures have been detailed elsewhere (Kelly et al., 2007; Kita  
168 et al., 2009; Oye et al., 2018; Oye, 2019; Oye et al., 2020; Valley et al., 2009).

## 169 4 Results

### 170 4.1 Burial, temperature, and effective stress histories

171 Burial, temperature, and vertical effective stress histories are shown in Fig. 3. Deposition of  
172 the sandstone in the Middle Jurassic was followed by approximately 1 km of burial in the Upper  
173 Jurassic. There was limited deposition throughout the Cretaceous, after which a second phase  
174 of burial continued to the Present-day, with an average burial rate of around 42 m/My.  
175 Temperatures were below 70 °C until 60 Ma, before increasing steadily to the present-day  
176 temperature of 127 °C (Fig. 3).

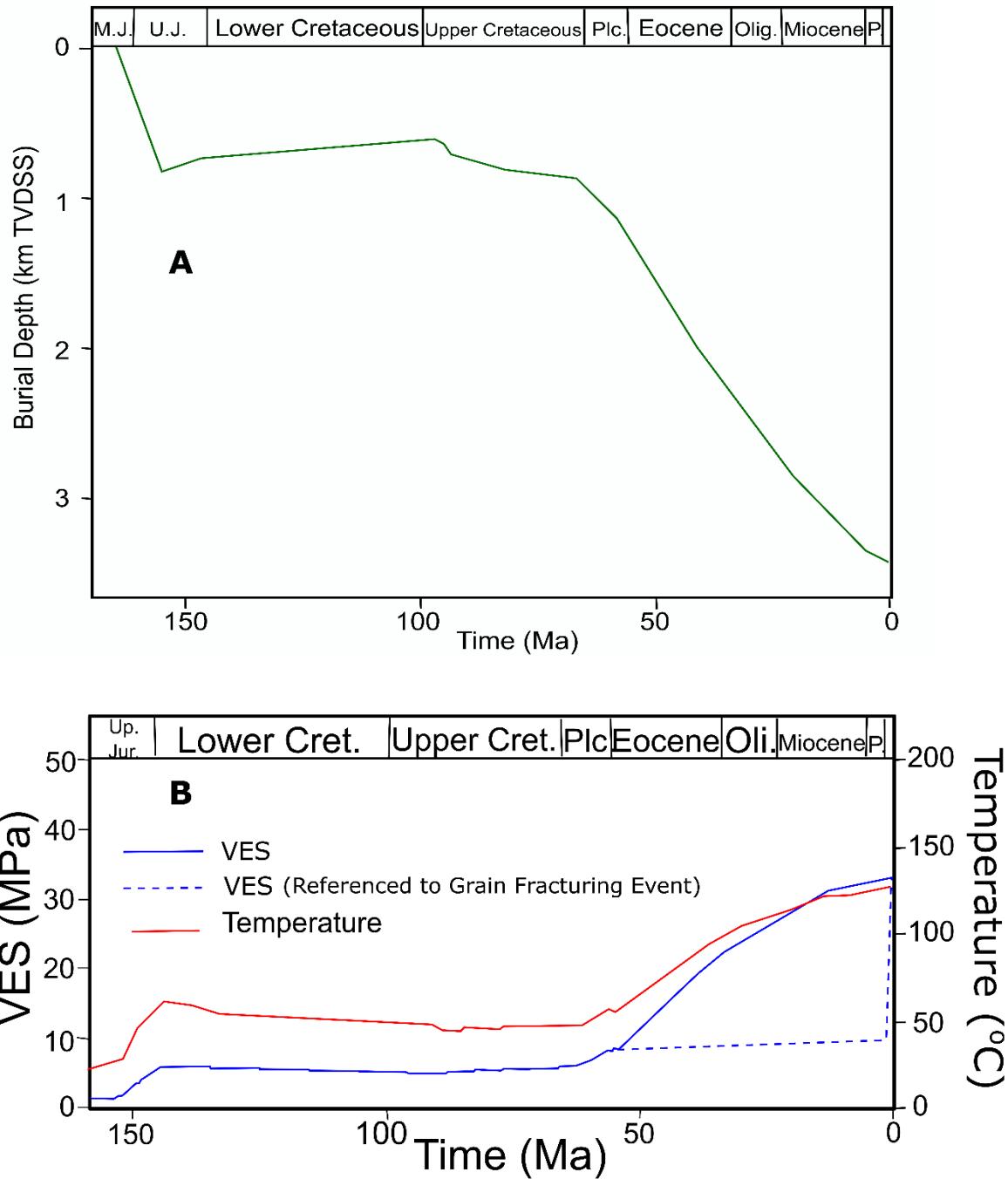
177 Using a 1D modelling approach, it is possible to match the present-day effective stress by  
178 manipulating the permeabilities of the chalk and overlying shale-rich units (Fig. 3; Table 1).  
179 Model results show a steady increase in effective stress during the main phase of burial from  
180 60 Ma, when the effective stress was around 5 MPa, arriving at the present-day effective stress  
181 of 31 MPa (Fig. 3B). However, a study of regional pore pressures in this area strongly suggests  
182 that the effective stress history of the Fulmar Formation sands was markedly different as a  
183 result of major lateral flow and related rapid pore pressure deflation in the last *ca.* 0.5 Ma  
184 (Swarbrick et al., 2005). Swarbrick et al., (2005) show that Fulmar Formation sandstones in  
185 the Fulmar-Clyde-Halley area have much lower overpressures, around 7 MPa, than sandstones  
186 in other pressure compartments buried to similar depths in the same region of the Central North  
187 Sea, where overpressures are between 21 and 41 MPa. They also show that channel sands

188 encased within underlying Triassic shales are much more highly overpressured than the Fulmar  
189 Formation sands, as are thin turbidite sands in the overlying Jurassic Kimmeridge Clay  
190 Formation, the Cretaceous chalk, and the Paleocene sands (Fig. 4). There is an overpressure  
191 difference of 18.6 MPa between the Kimmeridge Clay Formation sandstones and the Fulmar  
192 Formation sandstones, over a vertical separation of 50 metres. Explaining the low  
193 overpressures in the Fulmar Formation, combined with much higher overpressures above and  
194 below it, requires focussed lateral flow and drainage through the Fulmar Formation to a leak  
195 point to the west of the area (Swarbrick et al., 2005). The dewatering of the formations  
196 immediately above and beneath the Fulmar Formation is supported by the increased pore  
197 pressures observed in both overlying and underlying, isolated sands, with the rate of drainage  
198 related to the overall permeability structure of the mudstones which encase them.

199 The sharpness of the pore pressure changes both above and below the Fulmar Formation (Fig.  
200 4) suggests that depressurisation is a geologically recent phenomenon. Swarbrick et al., (2005)  
201 ran several 2D fluid flow models in which lateral leakage and pore pressure reduction was  
202 started at 15, 10, 5 and 0.5 Ma, with the best fit to the observed pore pressures occurring in the  
203 model in which depressurisation started at 0.5 Ma (Fig. 4; see Swarbrick et al., (2005) for the  
204 full results). The fit is not perfect, which may be expected given uncertainties in both 3D  
205 geology and large-scale permeability structures, but the strong implication is that  
206 depressurisation occurred very recently in the Fulmar Formation's 160 Ma burial history. The  
207 cause of the leakage is not known; Swarbrick et al., (2005) speculate that there was fault seal  
208 failure across the basin-bounding fault to the west, towards the North Sea High, perhaps  
209 because of repeated ice-loading and unloading.

210 A model using the same lithological inputs but in which lateral, regional fluid drainage from  
211 the Fulmar Formation sands was not allowed, gives a modelled fluid pressure in the Fulmar  
212 Formation sands of 60 MPa, compared to the observed 31 MPa (Fig. 4). This implies that prior  
213 to pore pressure deflation, the vertical effective stress was on the order of 10 MPa, compared  
214 to the actual 31 MPa. For context, in a hydrostatic pressure regime, an effective stress of 10  
215 MPa occurs at around 1 km burial depth.

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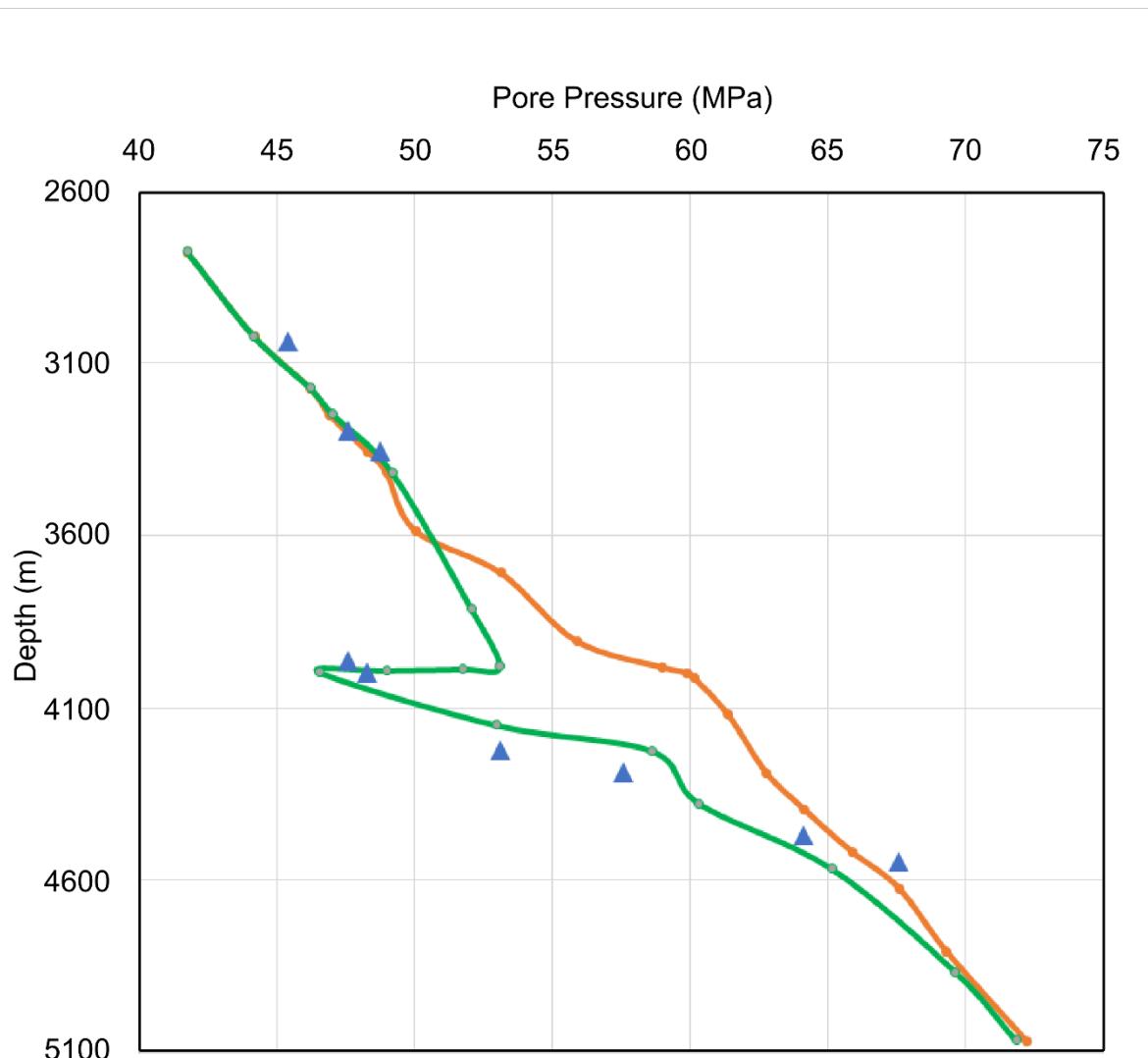


217

218 Figure 3 A) Burial history model for the Fulmar Formation sandstones from Fulmar Field. (M.J  
 219 – Middle Jurassic, U.J – Upper Jurassic, Plc – Paleocene, Olig. – Oligocene, P. – Pliocene,  
 220 TVDSS – True vertical depth subsea). B) Modelled temperature and vertical effective stress  
 221 histories for the Fulmar Formation in the Fulmar Field. Solid blue line is a model in which the  
 222 permeabilities of mudstones stratigraphically higher than the Fulmar Formation are adjusted to  
 223 match the present-day pore pressures and effective stress in the Fulmar Formation. Blue dashed  
 224 line shows the most likely effective stress evolution path based on the paragenesis of the  
 225 unhealed grain fractures observed in the Fulmar sandstones which validates the suggestion by

226 Swarbrick et al., (2005) that a major decrease in fluid pressure of the Fulmar Formation  
227 sandstones occurred in the last ca. 0.5 Ma, (see Fig. 4 and text for further detail).

228



229

230 Figure 4. Pore pressure-depth plot for Well 30/12b-4 in the Halley Field, which is close to the  
231 Fulmar Field. Blue triangles are Repeat Formation Test pressure measurements. Similar  
232 overpressures also occur in the Fulmar Formation in both the Clyde and Fulmar Fields. The  
233 pressure regression is centred on the Fulmar Formation (~ 4000 to 4300 m), with more highly  
234 overpressured fluids in the overlying Palaeocene and Cretaceous Chalk, and underlying Smith  
235 Bank Formation. Orange and green curves are modelled pore pressures from a 2D basin model  
236 (Swarbrick et al., 2005). The orange curve represents a scenario in which there is no  
237 geologically recent, lateral fluid flow through and out of the Fulmar Formation sands. The

238 green curve is a scenario in which regional depressurisation, centred on the laterally extensive  
239 and well-connected Fulmar Formation, started 0.5 Ma ago because of lateral leakage towards  
240 the west of the Halley-Clyde-Fulmar-Auk region, probably due to lateral seal failure. Pore  
241 pressures show that fluids are also draining into the Fulmar Formation from the underlying  
242 Smith Bank Formation, with the rate of drainage dictated by the low permeabilities of the  
243 mudstones that dominate that Formation. Figure redrawn from Swarbrick et al. (2005).

244

## 245 **4.2 Petrographic observations**

246 Fulmar Field sandstones are mainly quartzo-feldspathic with high feldspar content (30%),  
247 minor lithic fragments and low clay contents existing either as pore matrix or grain coats (Table  
248 2). These well-sorted, fine-grained sandstones (average size 0.2 mm) have sub-angular to sub-  
249 rounded grain shapes. The detrital feldspars are mainly orthoclase (K-feldspar) and minor  
250 plagioclase (Na- and Ca- feldspar; Table S1). Some of the feldspars are well preserved while  
251 others are degraded and bear intragranular pores due to dissolution. Feldspar overgrowths were  
252 also observed on some of the detrital feldspars. Minor authigenic illitic clay was also observed  
253 within intragranular pore spaces of partially dissolved feldspars, replacing the original grains  
254 (Fig. 5).

255 Estimated visible intragranular and intergranular porosities are 0.1 and 18.5% (Table 2).  
256 Oversized intergranular pore spaces (~ 2.8%), which are probably sites of dissolved grains, are  
257 also present (Fig. 6). This suggests that intragranular porosity from feldspar dissolution was  
258 perhaps underestimated. Helium porosity, taken from an unpublished, internal company report,  
259 is up to 30% in Fulmar Field sandstones. This is much more than total visible porosity and  
260 could be partly attributed to intragranular micropores that were not captured during modal  
261 analysis of petrographic data. Secondly, while quantitative petrographic analysis was  
262 performed using 2D data, helium porosity is measured in 3D. Carbonate is mainly present as  
263 pore-occluding cement (Fig. 5), but is scarce and localised within the samples, occurring as  
264 less than 1% volume (Table 2).

265

266

267 Table 2. Summary of petrographic data of the studied Fulmar Formation sandstones from the  
 268 Fulmar Field. Detailed data are provided in Tables S1 and S2 of the supplementary material.

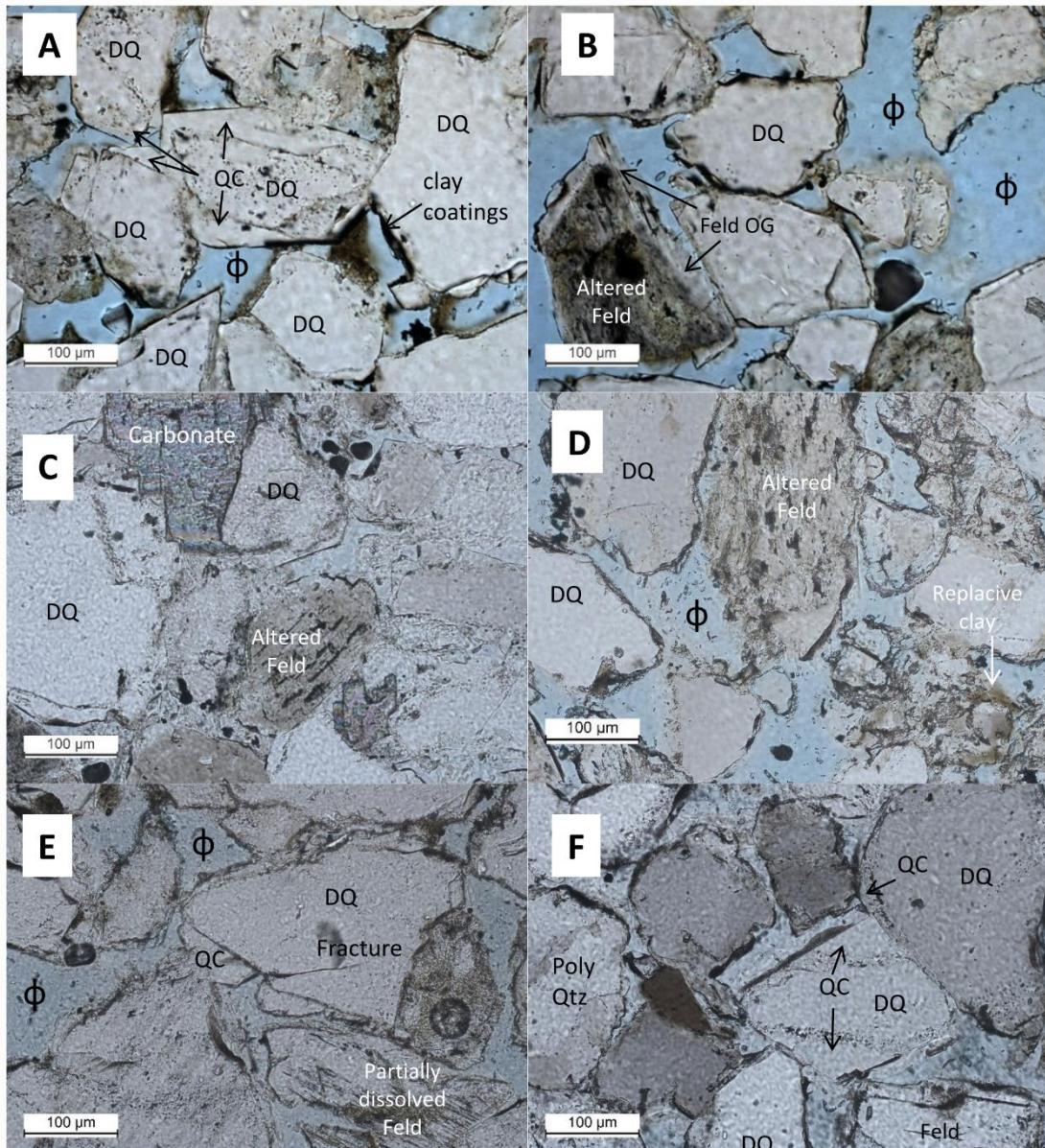
	No of samples	Mean	Stan. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Detrital grain size (mm)	10	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.5
Quartz (%)	22	40.5	3.2	34.7	46.7
Feldspar (%)	22	30	3.4	23.7	36.7
Lithic Fragments (%)	22	1.2	0.6	0	2.7
Quartz cement - standard petrography (%)	22	2.8	1.7	0	6.3
Quartz cement - CL petrography (%)	10	3.7	2.1	0.9	6.9
Intergranular Pressure Dissolution - CL Petrography (%)	10	1.3	0.6	0.4	2.4
Quartz cement normalised to detrital quartz	10	0.11	0.06	0.03	0.21
Intergranular Pressure Dissolution normalised to detrital quartz	10	0.04	0.02	0.01	0.07
Carbonate cement (%)	22	1	0.5	0	1.7
Intergranular porosity (%)	22	18.5	3.1	14.7	26.7
Intragranular porosity (%)	22	0.1	0.1	0	0.3
Total optical porosity (%)	22	18.6	3.2	13.3	26.7
Core Porosity (%)	23	30	2.7	25.8	35.3
Clay matrix (%)	22	1.4	0.9	0.3	4.3
Intergranular Volume (%)	22	26.1	3	21.7	33.3

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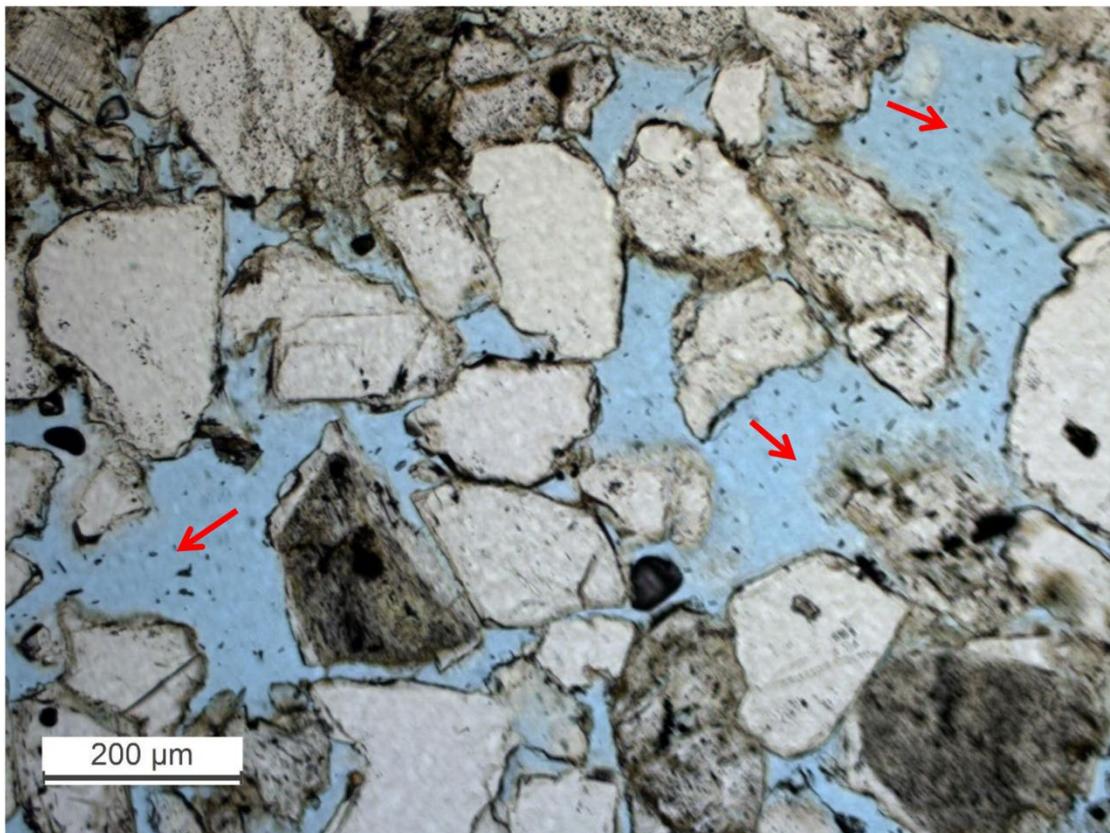


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274 Figure 5. Optical photomicrographs (plane polarized) of Fulmar Formation sandstones from  
 275 the Fulmar Field. A) Detrital quartz (DQ) grains with well-developed quartz cement (QC)  
 276 juxtaposed against those with poorly developed quartz cement due to partial coverage by clay  
 277 coatings;  $\phi$  is porosity. B) Feldspar grain at the early stage of alteration with a well-developed  
 278 overgrowth (Feld OG). C) Quartz grains with quartz cement. Slide also shows pore-occluding  
 279 carbonate cement and partially dissolved feldspar grain with intragranular microporosity. D)  
 280 Clay (illite?) replacing altered feldspars adjacent to detrital quartz grains with clay coatings. E)  
 281 Fractured detrital quartz grain with quartz cement and partially dissolved feldspar with  
 282 intragranular microporosity. The fracture predated significant quartz cement development. F)

283 Detrital quartz, including polycrystalline quartz grains. Quartz cement is more strongly  
284 developed on monocrystalline quartz grains.

285



286

287 Figure 6. Oversized pores (red arrows) that are interpreted as sites of completely dissolved  
288 feldspars.

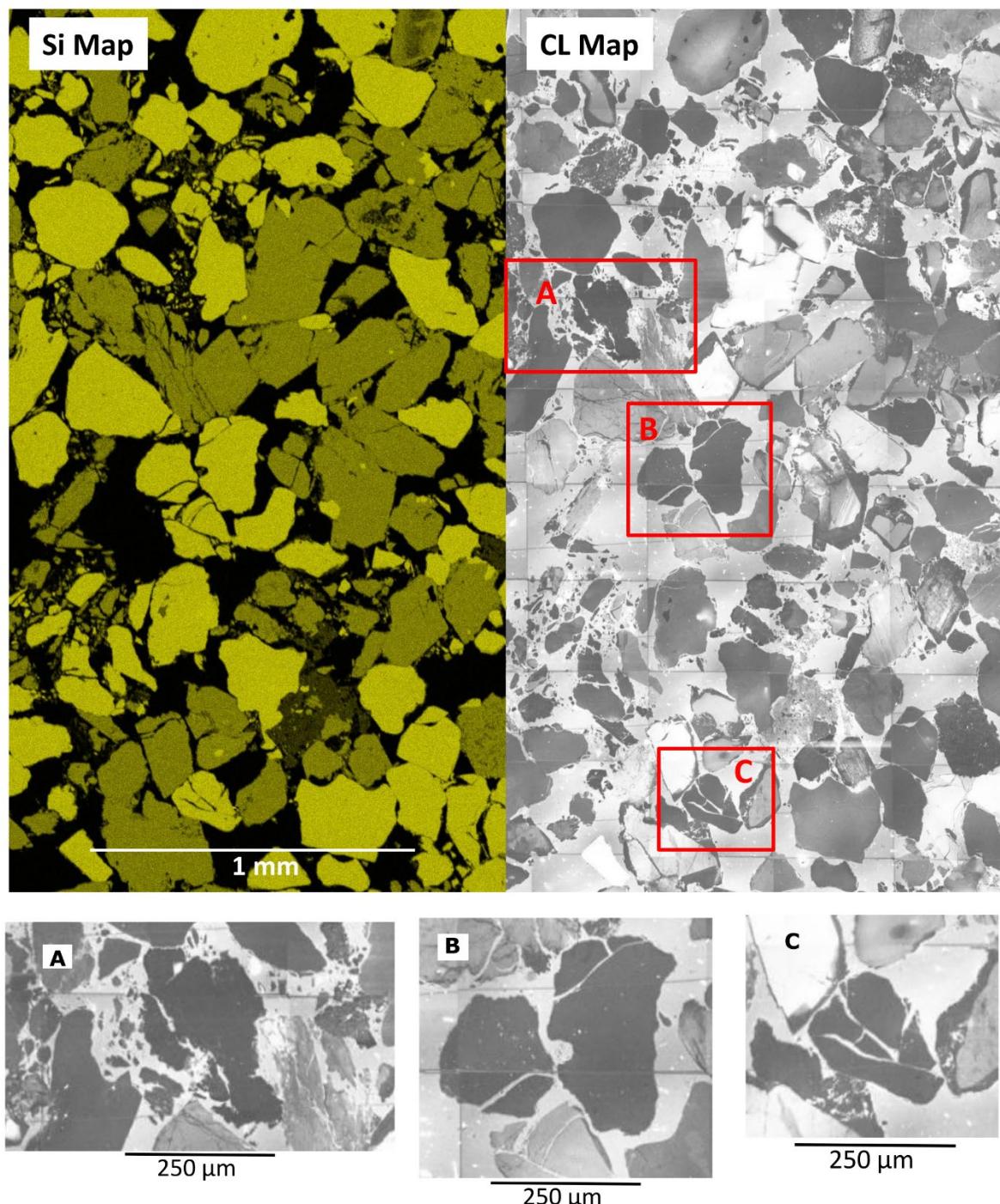
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#### 290 **4.2.1 Grain crushing and fracturing**

291 Qualitative petrographic analysis reveals the presence of microfractures within some of the  
292 framework grains (Fig. 7). Features such as corner fracturing, whole-body fracturing, and grain  
293 size reduction due to extreme crushing were observed in some of the samples. About 20% of  
294 the framework grains are either crushed or fractured. The extent of mineral grain deformation  
295 is likely related to their hardness as most crushed grains are feldspars and most fractured grains  
296 are quartz (Fig. 7). The susceptibility of the feldspars to crushing could also be because the  
297 grains have been weakened by dissolution. Feldspar dissolution as a product of mid–late  
298 diagenesis (Lasocki et al., 1999; Oye et al., 2018) would have initiated long before the recent  
299 deflation of pore pressure in the Fulmar Formation. The most striking observation is that the

300 fractures within the quartz grains have not been healed by cement. The occurrence of unhealed  
301 fractures on the quartz grains has important implications for the Fulmar Field's vertical  
302 effective stress history and will be discussed subsequently.

303



304

305 Figure 7. Silica (Si) map from EDX analysis (left) and montaged SEM-CL map (right) showing  
306 crushed and fractured framework grains. Fracturing was likely due to recent rapid depressuring  
307 of the Fulmar Formation in the last 0.5 Ma. On the silica map, bright yellow grains represent

308 quartz; feldspar is dull yellow-green. Slides A, B and C are zoomed copies of the insets on the  
309 CL montage. A) shows crushed framework grains (feldspars) and their finer products; B) shows  
310 corner fracturing of framework grains (quartz), and C) shows whole body fracturing of  
311 framework grains (quartz). Note that the fractures are unhealed (open).

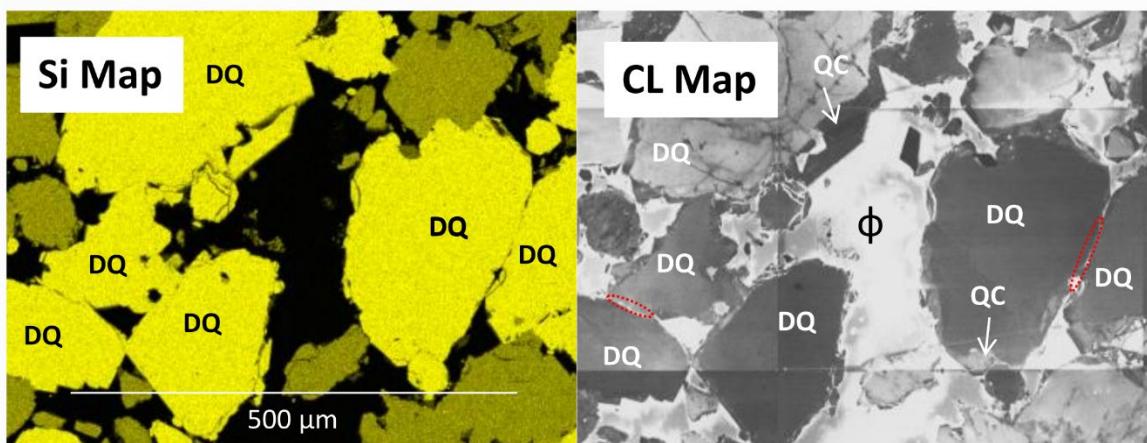
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### 313 **4.3 Quartz cementation and intergranular pressure dissolution**

314 Blocky macroquartz (commonly called quartz cement) and microcrystalline quartz  
315 overgrowths (microquartz) were observed on detrital quartz grains (Fig. 6, Figs. 8 and 9). The  
316 microcrystalline quartz overgrowths were observed covering and limiting the detrital quartz  
317 surface area available for precipitation within intervals between 3294.9 m and 3300.6 m. These  
318 intervals are known to host abundant *Rhaxella* sponge spicules (Gowland, 1996)

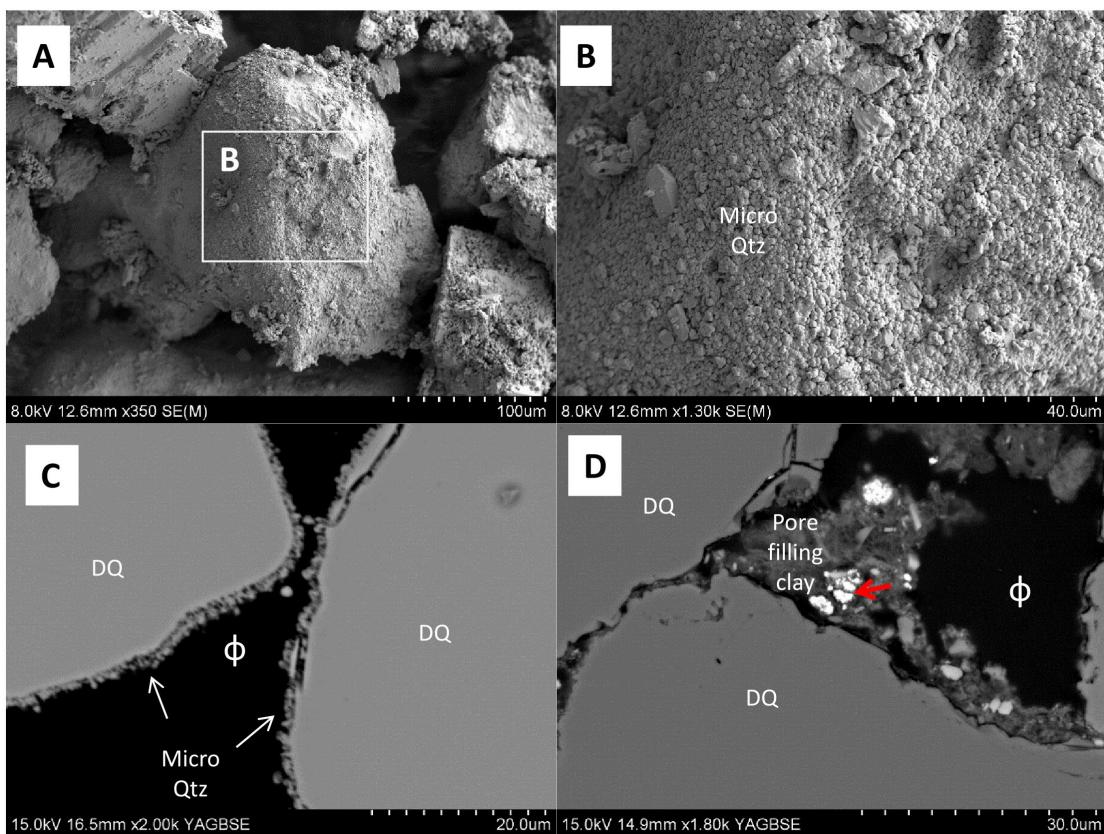
319 Optical petrography indicates low volumes of quartz cement (average 2.8%, range 0–6.3%) in  
320 the studied samples (Table 2). SEM-CL petrography readily discriminates detrital quartz grains  
321 and their overgrowths (Fig. 8), and quartz cement volumes range from 0.9 to 6.9%, with a mean  
322 value of 3.7%.

323



324

325 Figure 8. Silica map generated from EDX analysis (left) and equivalent montaged  
326 cathodoluminescence (CL) map (right) of Fulmar Formation sandstones showing detrital  
327 quartz (DQ), quartz cement (QC), and some projected grain boundaries representing chemical  
328 compaction features. Bright yellow grains on the silica map represent quartz; feldspar grains  
329 are dull yellow-green.  $\phi$  is porosity



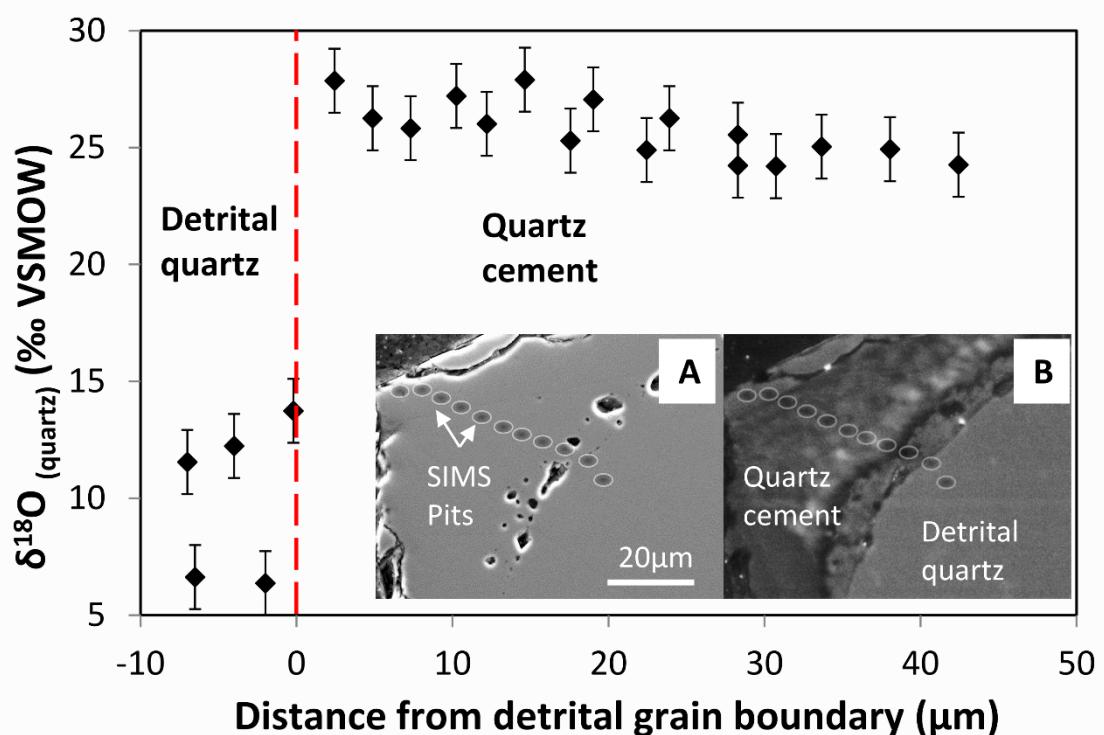
332 Figure 9. Electron micrographs of Fulmar Formation sandstones from Fulmar Field. A)  
 333 Secondary electron image of microquartz overgrowth nucleated on detrital quartz (DQ). B)  
 334 Higher magnification view equivalent to the box in panel A (image from Fig. 3.15 C in Oye  
 335 (2019); C) Backscattered electron (BSE) image showing microquartz overgrowth on detrital  
 336 quartz grain; D) BSE image showing pore-filling clay mixed with sparse pyrite (red arrow),  
 337 juxtaposed against detrital quartz.  $\phi$  is porosity.

338 To quantify intergranular pressure dissolution, intergranular boundaries were inspected and  
 339 projections made on areas with dissolution features in order to restore original grain shapes  
 340 (Fig. 8) and estimate, through manual point counting, the volume of material removed by IPD  
 341 (Oye et al., 2020). This approach is similar to the methods described by Sibley and Blatt (1976)  
 342 and Houseknecht (1991). The results show that intergranular pressure dissolution released an  
 343 average of 1.3 % average volume of silica (Table 2). This is a substantial part of the silica  
 344 needed to account for the observed volume of quartz cement, with additional silica supplied  
 345 from feldspar dissolution.

346 **4.4 Oxygen isotope composition**

347 In situ  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  measurements were made along linear profiles across individual macroquartz  
 348 overgrowths using high spatial resolution SIMS analysis. Thirty-seven  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  measurements  
 349 were made on three different overgrowths from one of the Fulmar sandstones. Values of  
 350  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{quartz cement})}$  are plotted as a function of the distance from their detrital grain boundary in  
 351 Fig. 10. The values show a 3.7‰ range, from +27.9 to +24.2‰. Analysis points that fell on  
 352 fluid inclusions, cracks or included a mix of detrital and authigenic quartz were discarded.  
 353 Values of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{quartz cement})}$  show a decreasing trend, with heavier values in the earliest-formed  
 354 cement at the detrital grain-cement boundary, to lighter values in latest-formed cement at the  
 355 outer edge of the overgrowths (Fig. 10).

356



357

358 Figure 10.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of quartz cement and detrital quartz plotted against lateral distance from detrital  
 359 grain boundary. Data are from three quartz overgrowths from the same thin section.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  line  
 360 profile across one of the analysed overgrowths, created using 3  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter sampling spots  
 361 (SIMS pits), is shown in Insets A and B (BSE and CL micrographs).

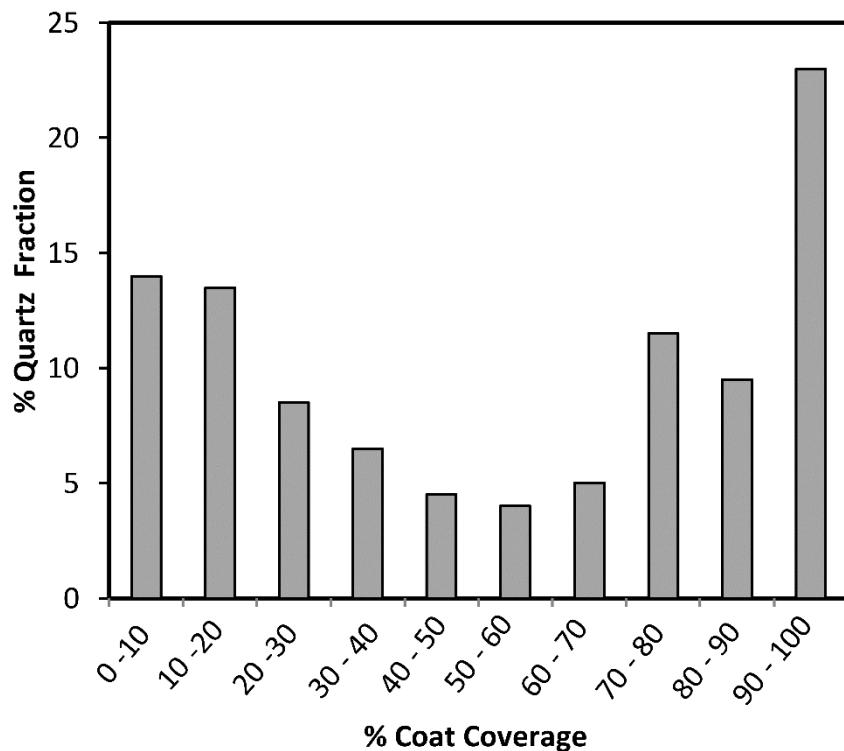
362

363

364 **4.5 Quartz cementation model**

365 Using the 50% grain-coatings coverage estimated from petrographic analyses (Figure 11), the  
366 quartz cementation model (Fig. 12) predicts 7.4% quartz cement volume for the Fulmar  
367 sandstones, which is twice the observed volume (3.7%). Half of the cement is predicted to form  
368 within the last 15 million years of burial, at temperatures above 120 °C (Fig. 3B).

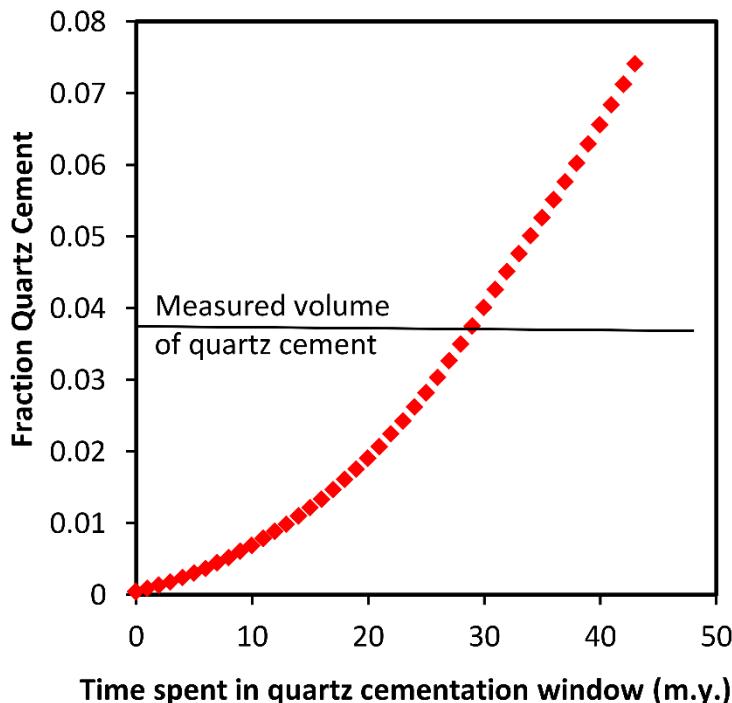
369



370

371 Figure 11. Histogram showing percentage grain coat coverage (clays and microquartz) of  
372 detrital quartz grains. The average grain coat coverage is approximately 50%, although the data  
373 are bimodal.

374



375  
376 Figure 12. Kinetic model of quartz cementation constructed for the Fulmar Formation from  
377 Fulmar Field based on the Walderhaug (1996) approach. A precipitation threshold temperature  
378 of 80 °C and an average grain coating (clays and microquartz) coverage of 50% were applied  
379 in the model.

380 **5 Pore pressure deflation and grain fracturing**

381 A key observation in this study is that unhealed, intragranular microfractures are common  
382 within framework grains, despite a burial temperature of about 130 °C. Here, we consider the  
383 implications of this observation for pore pressure and vertical effective stress histories in the  
384 Fulmar Formation sandstones.

385 Framework grain crushing and fracturing is observed in approximately 20% of grains in  
386 samples retrieved from certain intervals (e.g. 3,296–3,297 m MD), similar to those observed  
387 by Chuhan et al. (2003, 2002) in sands compacted experimentally to 20-30 MPa effective  
388 stress. With the caveat that experimental strain rates are many orders of magnitude higher than  
389 geological rates, Chuhan et al. (2003, 2002) indicated only minor grain fracturing below 10  
390 MPa effective stress, with increased fracturing with increasing stress. We propose that rapid  
391 pore pressure reduction led to a sharp rise in vertical effective stress, and that the geologically  
392 rapid stress increase led to the fracturing of the framework grains. Grain crushing and fracturing

393 occurred because the sandstones were (and are) poorly cemented, resulting in low compressive  
394 strength. Similar observations have been made in deeply-buried sandstones in the  
395 Haltenbanken area, in which quartz cementation was inhibited by extensive chlorite grain  
396 coatings (Chuhan et al., 2002). In that case, fractures within quartz grains had been healed by  
397 quartz cement, and it is well-known that newly created fracture surfaces provide kinetically  
398 favourable sites for quartz precipitation (e.g. Fisher et al., 1999). Since the kinetics of quartz  
399 cementation in fractures is suggested to be faster ( $> 2 \mu\text{m/m.y.}$ ) than that of the host rock  
400 (Lander and Laubach, 2015), the presence of quartz grains with unhealed fractures in the  
401 current study strongly indicate a geologically recent depressurisation and fracturing event.  
402 These results are consistent with the suggestion made by Swarbrick et al. (2005), based on  
403 trends observed in regional pressure data (Fig. 4), that the currently low pore pressure and high  
404 effective stress in the studied Fulmar Formation only developed in the last *ca.* 0.5 Ma.

405 These results suggest that vertical effective stress was below 10 MPa through almost the entire  
406 burial history of the Fulmar Formation in the Fulmar Field, only increasing to 31 MPa in the  
407 last 0.5 My (Fig. 3B). Whilst we still require a sufficiently accurate and robust model relating  
408 the rate of IPD to VES (see van Noort et al., 2008), the very limited IPD (1.3 volume %; )  
409 observed here is qualitatively consistent with a low VES history.

410

## 411 **5.1 Implications for quartz cementation**

412 Vertical effective stress (VES) is the primary control on the rate of intergranular pressure  
413 dissolution (IPD) along grain–grain contacts, with a secondary control by temperature (Elias  
414 and Hajash, 1992; Nenna and Aydin, 2011; Oye et al., 2018; Oye et al., 2020; Sheldon et al.,  
415 2003; van Noort et al., 2008). Should the supply of silica via IPD be the rate-limiting step for  
416 quartz cementation, one would expect to observe relationships between cement volumes and  
417 (a) volumes of quartz released by IPD and (b) effective stress histories. Relatively few datasets  
418 have tested these relationships because firstly, quantitative, statistically robust data for IPD are  
419 difficult to obtain using optical petrography and is time-consuming to acquire using SEM-CL;  
420 and secondly, accurate pore pressure and effective stress histories are much more difficult to  
421 determine than temperature histories, requiring robust models with detailed geological inputs  
422 and for which there is very little calibration except for the present-day pore pressure. As  
423 illustrated by the present study, present-day pore pressures and effective stresses are not  
424 necessarily accurate guides to past pore pressures, so that observations of low volumes of  
425 quartz cement in currently high effective stress sandstones does not prove that VES history is

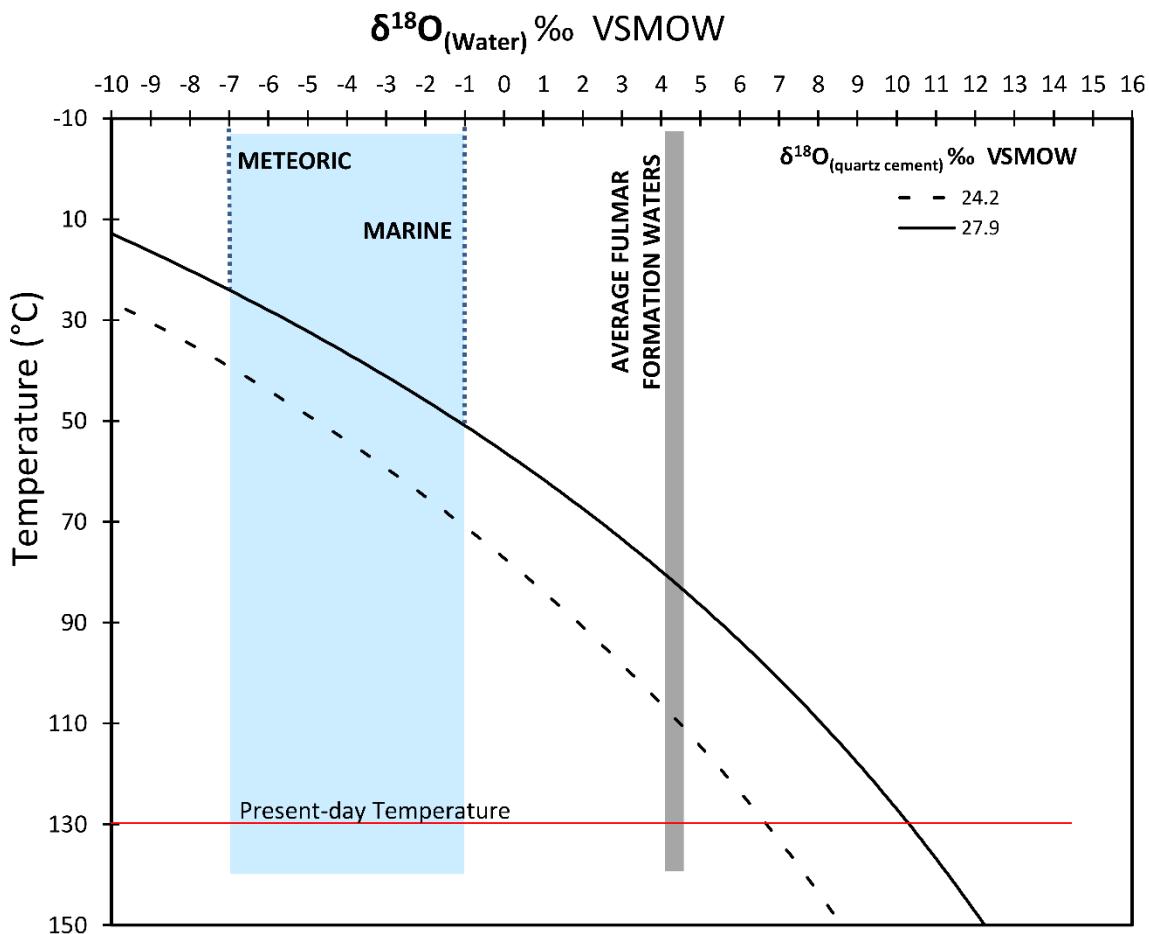
426 not a control on silica supply (IPD) and cementation rate (Bjorkum and Nadeau, 1998;  
427 Walderhaug, 1994a, 1994b).

428 In this study, the oxygen isotope data, quartz cement volume, and cementation history are  
429 consistent with a model in which the rate-limiting step in the cementation process is silica  
430 supply from intergranular pressure dissolution rather than temperature-related precipitation  
431 kinetics or transport of aqueous silica.

432 The interpretation framework for the oxygen isotopic composition of quartz cement in these  
433 Fulmar sandstones is shown in Fig. 13). The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value of the earliest-formed quartz cement  
434 is +27.9‰. If precipitation started in water with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{water})}$  of -1‰, similar to the Jurassic  
435 seawater in which the Fulmar Formation was deposited, this corresponds to a temperature of  
436 50 °C, which is below the commonly recognised 70-80 °C threshold for quartz cement  
437 (Walderhaug, 1996, 1994a). If cementation started at 80 °C, the water would have an isotopic  
438 composition of around 4 ‰, which is the same as the current water in the Fulmar Formation (+  
439 4.2 ‰; Macaulay et al., 1997). For the lowest  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{quartz cement})}$  of +24.2‰, precipitation from  
440 current Fulmar Formation water would then occur at 110 °C (Fig. 10), compared to the present-  
441 day temperature of 127 °C. Although we did not measure the isotopic composition of the  
442 outermost few microns of the cement, these results strongly suggest that very little cementation  
443 occurred above *ca.* 110 °C, and so over the last 25 Ma (Fig. 3B). This is contrary to the  
444 predictions of the temperature-controlled cementation model, in which 80% of the predicted  
445 7.4 % cement would have formed in the last 25 Ma, between 110 and 127 °C (Fig. 12). Quartz  
446 cement may have precipitated to maximum temperature, but the volumes of any late-formed  
447 quartz are small, suggesting a very low rate of precipitation.

448 Whilst low volumes of quartz cement partly reflect the reduction of available quartz surface  
449 area due to grain-coating microquartz and clay (Aase et al., 1996; French et al., 2021), this  
450 alone cannot explain the low cement volumes. The combined average grain-coat coverage of  
451 clay and microquartz in the studied samples is around 50% (Fig. 11) and is the value which we  
452 used in the temperature-based precipitation model to reduce the surface area available for  
453 quartz crystal growth. However, the volumes of quartz cement predicted from the temperature-  
454 controlled precipitation kinetic model (7.4%) are, on average, twice those observed  
455 petrographically (3.7%), including samples that contain limited or no microquartz. Model runs  
456 using different coating coverage show that a grain-coat coverage of 80% on individual detrital

457 grains is required to account for the average observed quartz cement value of 3.7%. Only 30%  
 458 of grains have > 80% coatings, with around half having less than 50% (Fig. 11).



459  
 460 Figure 13. Plot of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$  in equilibrium with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{quartz cement}}$  of +27.9‰ and +22.4‰, the  
 461 extreme values measured in this study, as a function of temperature for the Fulmar Formation  
 462 from Fulmar Field (fractionation factors from Matsuhisa et al. (1979)). Grey bar indicates the  
 463 current  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$  in the Fulmar Formation.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$  likely evolved from Jurassic marine water  
 464 to present-day formation water (4.2‰) in the Fulmar Formation.

465 In terms of transport, many previous studies support the idea that deep-burial sandstone  
 466 diagenesis can be considered as a rock-dominated, semi-closed system in which only diffusive  
 467 and/or local advective transport is required to account for the observed mineralogical and  
 468 chemical changes (Bjørlykke, 2014; Taylor et al., 2010); transport is not considered to be rate-  
 469 limiting, except perhaps in hydrocarbon reservoirs where the rate of diffusion or advection may  
 470 be slowed by the replacement of pore water with hydrocarbons (Taylor et al., 2010; Worden et  
 471 al., 2018). This, however, is not relevant here because the samples were taken from below the

472 oil-water contact in a well drilled on the flank of the structure, in a sandstone unit for which  
473 there is no strong evidence for the occurrence of a deeper palaeo-oil column (Saigal et al., 1992;  
474 Kuhn et al., 2003).

475 Since IPD only supplies one third of the silica observed as quartz cement, a second source is  
476 required, which we suggest is from the dissolution of potassium feldspars. Feldspar dissolution  
477 in Fulmar Formation sands is widespread (Wilkinson et al., 1997; Wilkinson and Haszeldine,  
478 1996), increasing with temperature, and is commonly observed in arkosic sandstones at  
479 temperatures in excess of 100 °C (Bjørlykke et al., 1995; Milliken et al., 1989; Yuan et al.,  
480 2015). In these samples feldspar dissolution is observed as grains that have been partly replaced  
481 by illitic clays and is also inferred from the occurrence of ~ 2.8% oversized pores which were  
482 once feldspar grains (Fig. 6). The occurrence of oversized pores implies that dissolution and  
483 alteration of feldspar grains occurred when already deeply buried, as early dissolution would  
484 have resulted in pore collapse by mechanical compaction. The reaction of potassium feldspar  
485 to give the more thermodynamically stable assemblage of illite and quartz is a common  
486 diagenetic reaction in both sandstones and mudstones (in which smectite is also involved) and  
487 can proceed without the requirement for external reactants, such as a source of acid (e.g. Giles  
488 and De Boer, 1990). The reactions are kinetically controlled and increase with temperature  
489 above *ca.* 100 °C (see Yuan et al., 2019 for a review). In Fulmar Formation sands from the  
490 Central North Sea, potassium feldspar is increasingly and extensively lost at depths between  
491 3000 m and 4500 m (Wilkinson and Haszeldine, 1996), so that the samples in this study are in  
492 the early part of that process.

493 A balanced reaction for the transformation of K feldspar to illite and quartz is:



495 Assuming that the oversized pores are the result of feldspar dissolution, then the combined  
496 volume of intragranular porosity and oversized pores (~ 2.9%) would also result in 4.8% quartz  
497 and 1% illite. The volume of illite estimated is close to the 1.4% quantified from petrographic  
498 analysis, suggesting that most of the illite in these high energy, shoreface sands are formed  
499 diagenetically from feldspar dissolution. Most importantly, it is reasonable to suggest that  
500 feldspar dissolution can supply the 2.4% silica required for the observed 3.7% quartz cement,  
501 above the 1.3% that can be supplied from IPD. The mass balance suggests that it is possible  
502 that silica has been exported from the frame of reference of this study, perhaps due to the

503 geologically recent fluid flow through the Fulmar Formation, indicated by the observed pore  
504 pressure distribution (Swarbrick et al., 2005).

505 Given the potential complexities of effective stress and pore pressure histories, simple  
506 relationships between current effective stress and quartz cement volumes are unlikely to occur.  
507 Key implications of this study are that (1) information from palaeo-stress indicators like grain  
508 fractures can help place tighter constraints on effective stress history models and (2) an accurate  
509 vertical effective stress history should be considered as part of any predictive model of quartz  
510 cementation in sandstones.

## 511 **6 Conclusions**

512 Upper Jurassic Fulmar Formation sandstones from the Fulmar Field in the Central North Sea  
513 contain very limited quartz cement, substantially less than would be predicted by commonly  
514 used models based on temperature-related quartz precipitation kinetics. Oxygen isotope  
515 microanalysis of three well-developed quartz overgrowths within the studied sandstones  
516 suggests that only limited cementation occurred at temperatures between *ca.* 110 °C and the  
517 present-day temperature of 128 °C. Intergranular pressure dissolution accounts for around one  
518 third of the observed quartz cement, with the remaining quartz cement accounted for by deep-  
519 burial feldspar dissolution. Hydrocarbon charge cannot account for the low quartz cement  
520 contents as the sandstones occur in non-hydrocarbon-bearing intervals.

521 Because the sands are at a high effective stress at the present-day, there is no obvious reason  
522 to support a view that the low volumes of quartz cement reflect a lack of supply of silica from  
523 stress-controlled intergranular pressure dissolution. However, we suggest that the anomalously  
524 low volumes of quartz cement *are* in fact most readily explained by the unusual pore pressure  
525 and effective stress histories of the Fulmar Formation in this region. Swarbrick et al.'s (2005)  
526 regional pore pressure analysis implies that the regional Fulmar Formation was depressurised  
527 in the last < 0.5 Ma, increasing effective stress from *ca.* 10 MPa to the current 31 MPa. A  
528 geologically recent increase in effective stress is supported by the common occurrence of  
529 fractured grains in detrital quartz grains, and the fact that the fractures remain unhealed by  
530 quartz. We argue that a continuous history of low effective stress, until the very recent  
531 geological past, limited the rate of intergranular pressure dissolution and silica supply, and by  
532 extension, the rate of quartz cementation.

533 These results also demonstrate how petrographic data can help to constrain effective stress  
534 histories and may provide information about inflection points in effective stress evolution.  
535 Future predictive models for reconstructing how reservoir sandstones become quartz cemented  
536 during burial diagenesis should incorporate well-constrained effective stress histories.

537

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