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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A STATISTICAL STUDY OF BREAKOUTS IN OIL-WELLS IN ALBERTA

by

CHRISTIAN KWAKU FORDJOR

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH  
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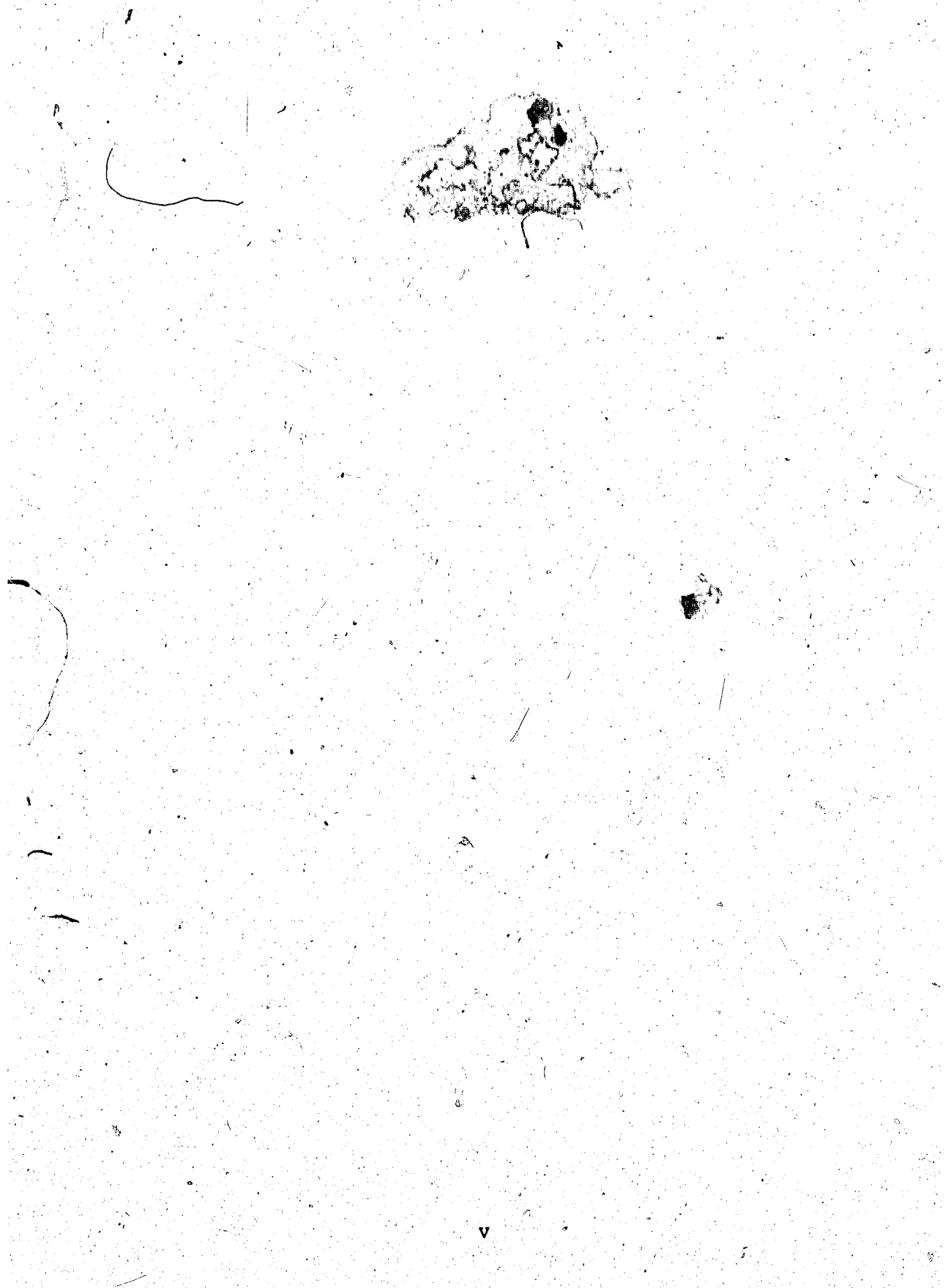
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## ABSTRACT

Breakouts or preferred directional spalling along the walls of boreholes have been observed in many wells throughout the sedimentary basin in most parts of Alberta. Many studies have been carried out into the possible cause of this phenomenon. In this study, data focussing on the relationship of breakouts with depth, rock types and age of the rocks have been investigated in 50 wells scattered through most parts of Alberta plus one well in British Columbia. A regression of breakout azimuths on depths shows regression coefficients not significantly different from zero. Furthermore, it has been noted that breakouts have no relation with the rock types and the age of the rocks. The breakout azimuths in a well are tightly grouped around a mean direction which, in most cases, is NW-SE.

These observations and other evidences lead to the conclusion that breakout formations are better explained by the stress concentration at the walls of the boreholes, rather than the result of the drill encountering pre-existing fractures or zones of weaknesses. From this conclusion, the orientation of the smaller horizontal principal stress is NW-SE and the larger horizontal principal stress is NE-SW. The consistency of the breakout azimuths with depth, wherever these phenomena are observed, may imply that such large horizontal principal stresses are not necessarily limited to the top crustal sedimentary rocks but may be continued down into the deep and older

Precambrian igneous rocks of the Earth's crust.



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C. K. Fordjor

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## 1. THE PHENOMENON OF ALIGNED BREAKOUTS AND ITS MEANING

The primary purpose of borehole dipmeter surveys is to determine magnitudes and azimuths of dips of bedding planes from observations in a single hole. Prior to such surveys, the subsurface structural picture was determined primarily from seismic sections and correlation of marker horizons between three or more wells not drilled on a straight line. Unfortunately, geophysical surveys normally cover large areas and are good for determination of average regional dips but give poor resolution of local dip variations. In a like manner dip determination of marker horizons from correlation is valid only if the bed used is truly a plane surface and continuous between wells.

About 1970 the Four Arm Dipmeter (also known as The High Resolution Dipmeter, HDT) began to supersede the three arm type of tool. This thesis is largely concerned with oil-wells of non-circular section. Figure 1 reveals that the HDT is capable of determining two different diameters of a non-circular hole and their azimuths, whereas the three arm instrument cannot do this.

In the four arm dipmeter shown in Figure 2, the four arms are azimuthally spaced  $90^\circ$  apart. Each spring loaded arm carries a pad of electrodes which enables the electrical resistivity of the rock near the electrodes to be recorded. The four correlation curves in Figure 3 show typical resistivity variations which enable beds to be recognised and correlated. A plane can be fitted to the four depth

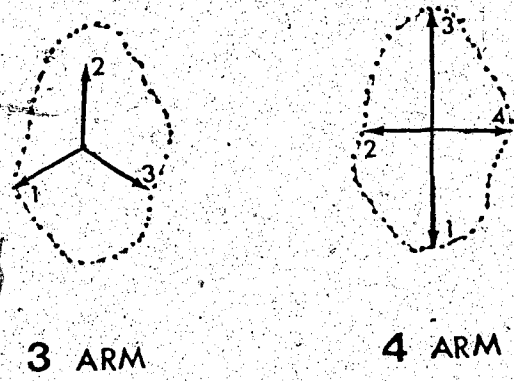


Figure 1.... Possible positions assumed by 3-arm caliper and 4-arm dual calipers in the same elongated hole. (schematic)

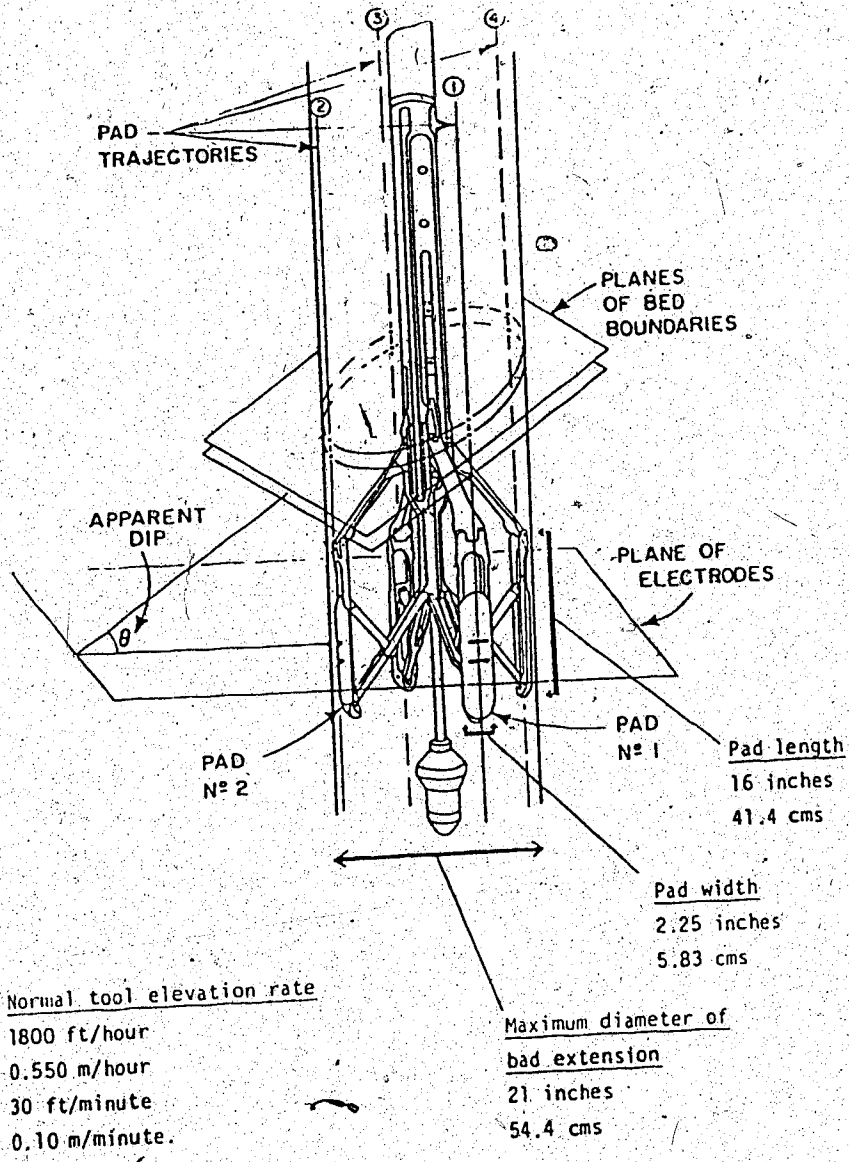


Figure 2.... Schlumberger 4-arm dipmeter tool. (courtesy of J. Cox)

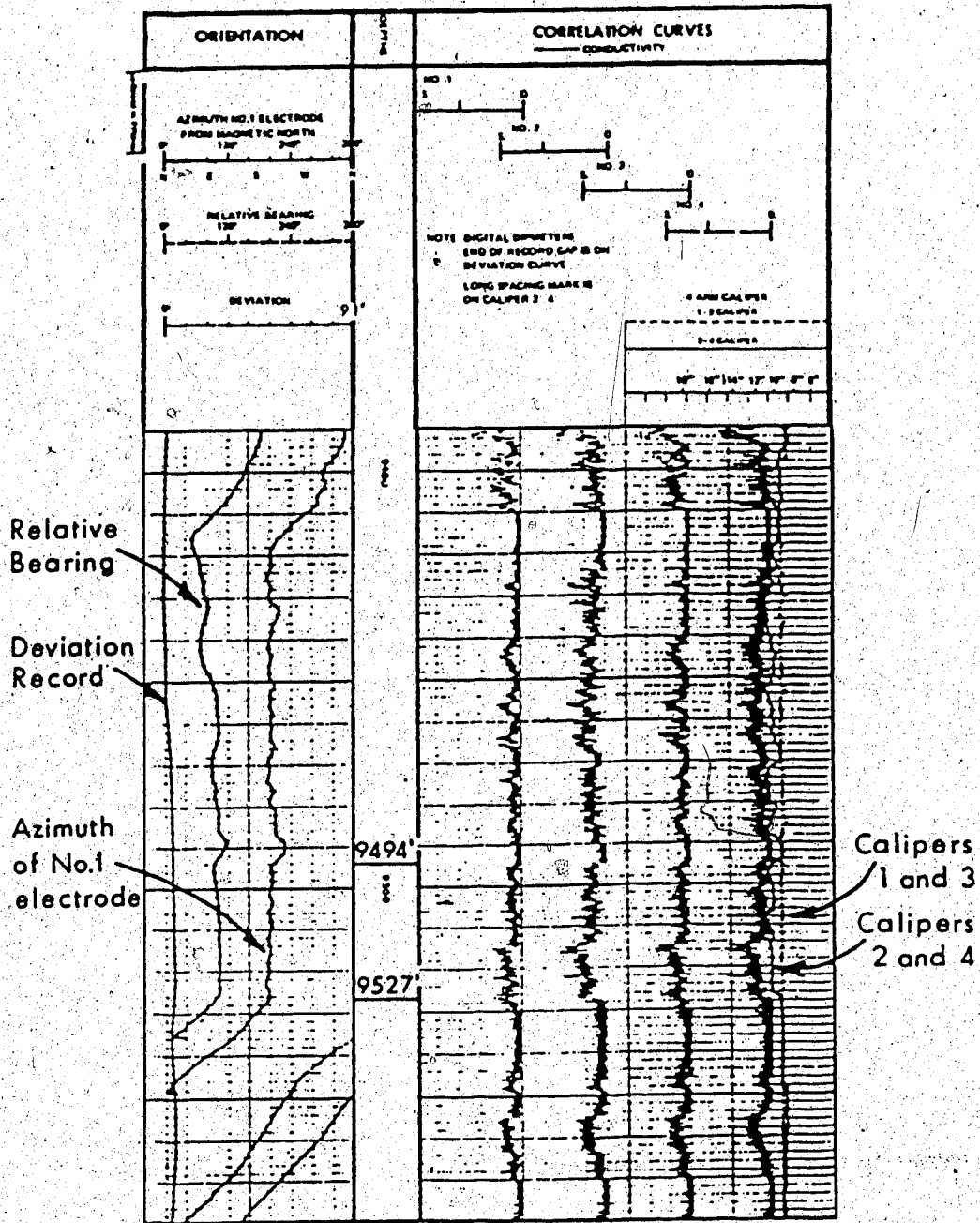


Figure 3.... Typical 4-arm dipmeter log record

values for a bed to give its dip in magnitude and direction. Resistivity changes on only one or two electrode pads may assist in identifying fractures as is illustrated schematically in figure 4.

Traces not yet discussed in figure 3 are of principal interest in this study. On the far right the two orthogonal diameters indicated by opposed pairs of calipers are recorded. These provide information concerning the shape of the borehole. On the left we require the trace which shows the azimuth of No.1 electrode, relative to a magnetic compass housed in the tool. Other traces on the left are;

1. The nearly vertical line which shows the deviation from verticality on a common scale from  $0^{\circ}$  to  $9^{\circ}$ .
2. A dashed line which runs diagonally or rotates as the tool is drawn up in the circular portions of the hole. This line ceases to rotate on encountering an elliptical zone and gives the relative bearing of the tool on a scale of 0 to 360 degrees with respect to azimuth of No.1 electrode. From this the bearing of the hole drift can be calculated.

The tool normally rotates as it is drawn up the well and in many depth ranges the calipers will indicate essentially equal diameters equal to the drill-bit diameter. This can be seen in the bottom and top sections of figure 3. It is observed, however, in other depth ranges that the tool ceases to rotate and the calipers indicate different diameters. This is the result of extensive fracturing

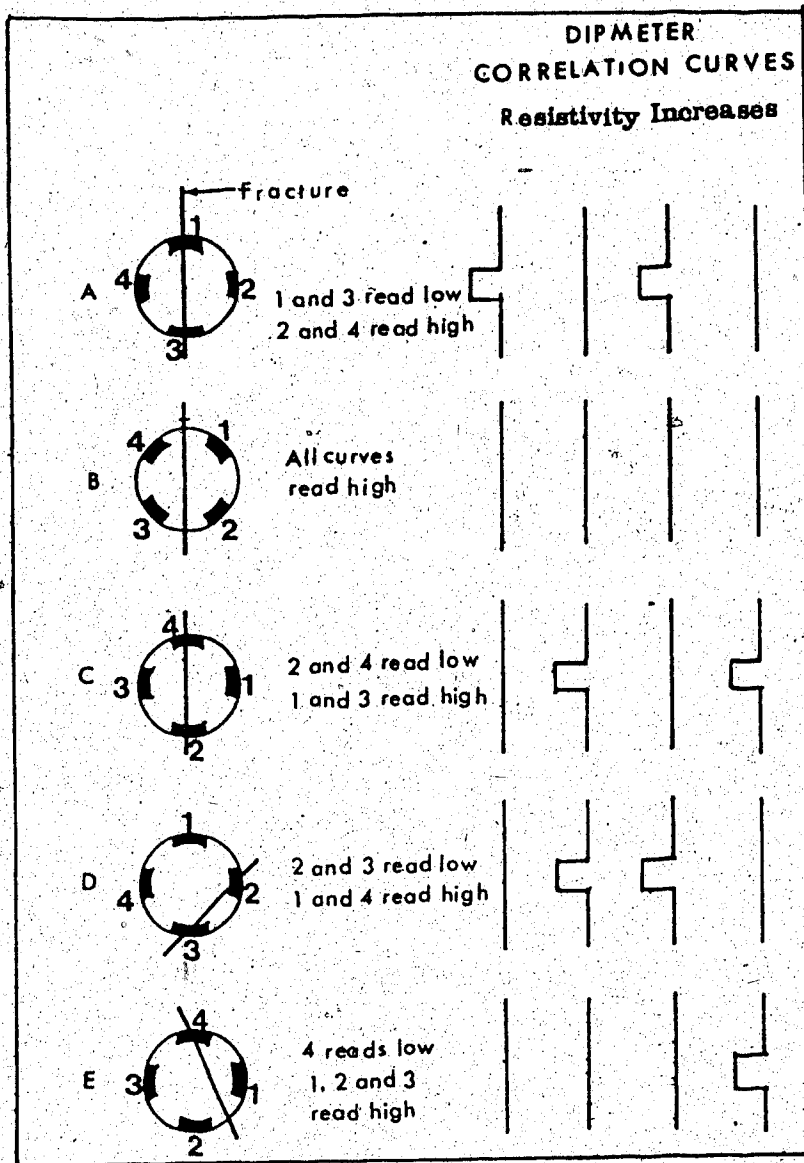


Figure 4.... Responses of HDT correlation curves to vertical fractures. (schematic)

causing the borehole to spall and wash out on opposite sides, thus becoming elliptical. Usually the smaller diameter is equal to the drill bit. This condition has been named by Babcock (1978) a **BREAKOUT**, and is illustrated in figure 5 D. Other situations encountered in a borehole are also shown in figures 5 A to C. In Figure 5 D one pair of calipers has become trapped in a locally elongated section of the hole. The orientation of the breakout can be estimated from the azimuth of the trapped caliper pads. In Figure 3, a breakout is shown between depths 9418 and 9527 feet. Calipers 2 and 4 (solid diameter line) indicate the greater diameter and the stationary azimuth trace shows No.1 electrode near  $200^\circ$ . The azimuth of the long axis of this breakout is near  $200 - 90 = 110^\circ$  relative to the magnetic north. The final orientation is  $110^\circ$  plus the magnetic declination.

The success of the HDT in determining sedimentary bedding planes has led to an extensive use of this tool in many areas, starting from the West Texas Ellenberger play in 1969, the cretaceous of North Louisiana and Mississippi and also in the limestone of the Mooringsport of the Waveland field of Mississippi.

During the interpretation of Schlumberger 4-arm dipmeter logs wells in Alberta, Cox (1970) observed that through the Wapiabi shale (a predominantly dark gray shale of both Colorado and post Colorado age in the upper cretaceous period) interval of the Strachen-Ricinus area (see Fig. 16 shaded portion) of West Central Alberta



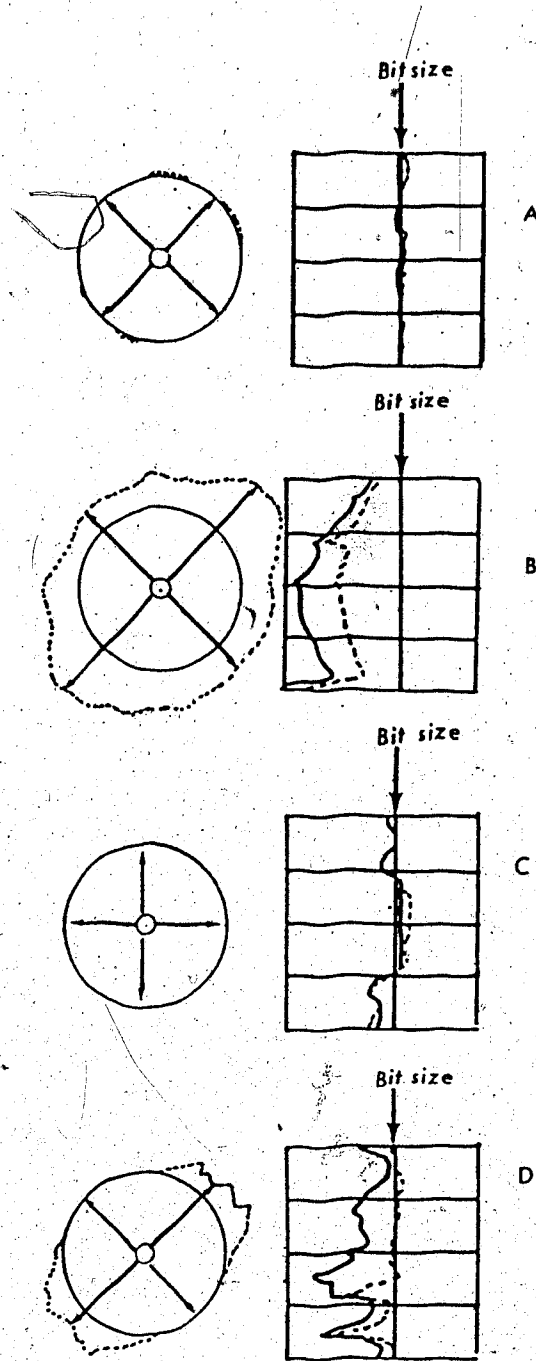


Figure 5.... Dual-caliper response to possible conditions of borehole shape.

adjacent to the Rocky Mountain foothills, where the borehole was not at bit size it was always elongated in the northwest-southeast direction. Structural dips were usually northeast or southwest. Nevertheless, several wells in this area in which structural dips were differently oriented showed the same northwest-southeast elongation. This observation led Cox to make a broader statistical study of 4-arm dipmeter logs in 31 zones from 17 wells scattered about Alberta and the North West Territories.

This new study ranged from Cretaceous shales to Devonian carbonates, in which dip values ranged from  $0^{\circ}$  to  $30^{\circ}$ . The orientation of the long axes of the holes had an average direction of  $N47^{\circ}W$  to  $S47^{\circ}E$ . A few elongations formed another group perpendicular to this major trend (Fig. 6 A). That the dip direction is not a controlling factor for the hole elongation is shown in figure 6 B.

An interesting feature of these elongations observed by Cox (1970) was that they were confined to discrete depth intervals within a hole and separated by uncaved beds. This observation led Babcock (1978) to suggest that the elongation might be caused by the drill encountering zones of steeply dipping fractures. Babcock later undertook a study of the phenomenon of hole elongation using the caliper portion of the 4-arm dipmeter logs, and extending his investigation to 23 wells in various sedimentary rocks widely distributed through Alberta.

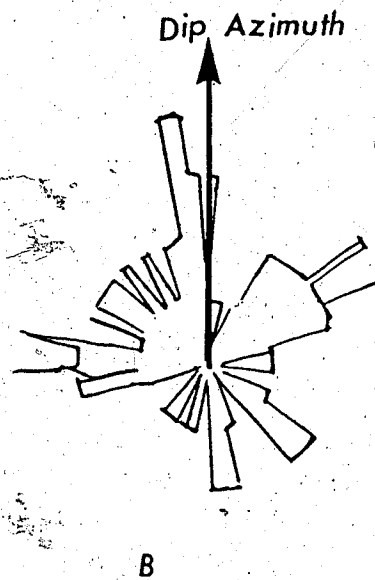
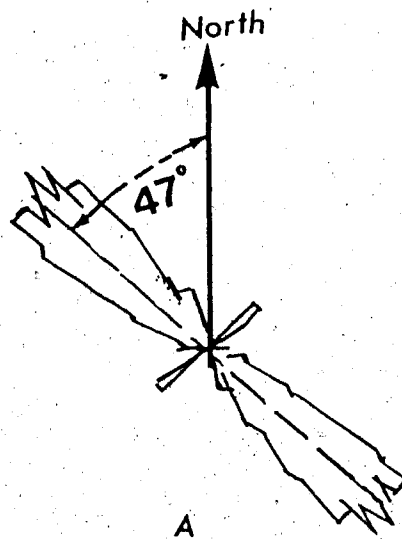


Figure 6.... Orientation of breakout long axis with respect to (A) North and (B) Dip azimuth. (J. Cox, 1970)

He noted the following properties of breakouts

1. The breakout zones may be short discrete events, or may persist over depth intervals of several tens or hundreds of feet.
2. A breakout of 2 to 4 feet commonly slows down the tool rotation or may have no noticeable effect on rotation; whereas a longer breakout is commonly associated with a cessation in the rotation of the tool.

To explain his observations, which were consistent with Cox's (1970) observations, Babcock turned to his study of the regional jointing in exposed bedrock of the Alberta plains and in the Fort McMurray area of northeast Alberta (Babcock, 1973, 1974, 1975). Within this area two orthogonal joint systems made up of vertically dipping extensional fractures are present. System 1 has sets striking northeast and northwest roughly normal to and parallel with the Rocky Mountain Belt. The northeast striking set is dominant in the sense that it is most commonly developed in that joints of this set usually cut across joints of other sets, which terminate against them. A second joint system (System 2, Babcock, 1973) having sets striking roughly North-South and East-West was also observed. This system was common in the Fort McMurray area and in the southernmost part of Alberta and occurred elsewhere in the province. These two joint systems were reported (Babcock, 1973) in nearly flat-lying sedimentary rocks ranging from late Devonian to Paleocene in age, in outcrops of shales, siltstone, sandstone, limestone

dolomite and coal distributed through many thousands of square kilometers and several thousands of meters of the stratigraphic column. Out of a total of 1,236 nearly vertically dipping joints measured, Babcock observed that although joint sets were well defined at most stations, set directions between stations varied considerably. Nevertheless, the sets striking northeast and northwest were most developed.

Regions covered by Babcock in his study of breakouts included the Claresholm district. Here he compared the joint azimuths measured at 10 outcrops and the azimuths of elongations from five wells. The mean directions of the elongations he observed showed a variation in strike ranging from  $129^{\circ}$  to  $155.5^{\circ}$ , thus corresponding closely to the northwest-southeast striking joint set. However, the elongations showed much less variability than do the strikes of individual joints of the northwest striking set in the area. A comparison of all azimuths of elongation (41 in all) with that of all joint strikes (1,236) in the area is shown in Figure 7. Clearly there is no close correspondence as a result of the predominance of one joint set striking at approximately  $175^{\circ}$  (North-South), which falls under Babcock's System 2.

Similar comparisons were made by Babcock in his Red Deer study between 400 azimuths of joints in bedrocks and 67 breakout elongations in nearby oil wells. Here, however, joint sets belong to the System 1 and the dominant direction

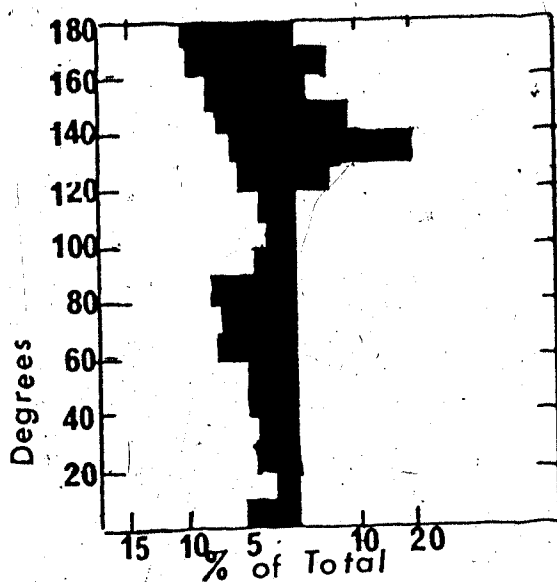


Figure 7.... Histogram comparing (left) strikes of 1,236 joints measured at 10 outcrops in Claresholm region, southwest Alberta, with (right) azimuths of 41 elongated breakouts from five wells. (Babcock, 1978)

of hole elongation was northwest-southeast at about 140°.

Babcock's study of 23 wells scattered throughout Alberta led him to draw the following conclusions, some of which had been made by Cox (1970):

1. In most of the 23 wells studied, the breakouts are in the northwesterly direction. However, in some wells a small number of breakouts may follow a northeast trend.
2. The azimuths of elongation are parallel to well developed sets of regional joints which are present wherever joint directions have been studied.
3. Hole deviations from verticality, changes in the magnitudes and directions of bedding dips, and lithology are unrelated to breakouts.
4. The preferred orientation of breakouts could not be the result of the drill encountering vugs because this would lead to hole elongations with no preferred orientation.
5. Babcock further stated that through his informal discussion with engineers involved with hydraulic fracturing and from consideration of the tectonic setting, the inferred direction of intermediate stress in rocks of the Alberta plains is normal to the trend of the Rocky Mountain Belt or roughly Northeast Southwest and the maximum stress is vertical, with the minimum stress direction inferred to be Northwest Southeast parallel with the dominant azimuth of hole elongation.

From these general conclusions Babcock finally concluded that the breakouts occur as a result of the drill

encountering steeply dipping fractures or zones of steeply dipping fractures, which may or may not be open. The oversize holes in carbonate rocks he related to solution-widened joints.

Bell and Gough (1979) found Babcock's hypothesis for the cause of breakouts very difficult to accept. Their most serious objection was the fact that the azimuthal distribution of breakouts is very unlike that of joint sets at the surface. They argued that given four concentrations of joint directions on the surface (Babcock 1973) NW, NE, N, and E, they would expect concentrations of breakout azimuths in all the four directions on Babcock's hypothesis, rather than only one significant concentration of subsurface breakout direction (NW).

Secondly, Bell and Gough wondered if such surface joint directions would necessarily be parallel to those at depths extending beyond 2 km at which breakouts have been observed. In this connection they remarked that sediments involved in the study in the Alberta Plains were laid down in varying tectonic settings between Devonian and Cretaceous times; and furthermore joints may arise in several ways after deposition of sedimentary rocks.

In an attempt to find an interpretation that would account for both the breakouts in the wells and the surface joints, System 1 of Babcock, Bell and Gough (1979) proposed that both features result from a general stress field acting throughout the Alberta Plains and oriented with the larger



principal horizontal stress NE-SW and the smaller of the two horizontal stresses parallel to the Rocky Mountain fold axes. Using the Kirsch equations for the stress near a circular hole, in a medium under biaxial stress, they argued that with large enough, unequal horizontal stresses oriented as above, the holes themselves could concentrate the stresses so as to produce subsurface breakouts with long axes in the NW-SE direction. Such concentrations of stress are believed to arise at the time of drilling.

If the breakouts in Alberta are shear fractures caused by the concentration of stress at the walls of the borehole as proposed by Bell and Gough (1979), the larger horizontal compression is orthogonal to the azimuth of the breakouts and hence nearly Northeast-Southwest in Alberta. Their hypothesis provides no indication of the magnitudes of the principal stresses other than the fact that the horizontal principal stresses are large and unequal. Gough and Bell (1982) have recently made a quantitative study of shear fracturing near a borehole, and have shown that such fractures can form breakouts with the observed properties.

Stress measurements in mines in several continents reveal that the vertical principal stress approximates (within 20% or less in most cases) the overburden pressure (McGarr and Gay, 1978). Furthermore, the proximity of the thrust faults of the Rockies to areas covered in the studies by Cox (1970) and Babcock (1978) coupled with the fact that the Rockies are fold mountains led Bell and Gough (1979) to

suggest that a situation with  $S_1$  (the maximum principal stress) vertical (a normal-fault stress field) is most unlikely in Alberta.

This fact is further strengthened by the occurrence of breakouts at depths of 500 meters or less. Laboratory experiments by Gay (1973) indicate that the threshold pressure for spalling in a circular hole under equal orthogonal pressures is about 100 MPa. With unequal pressures, however, spalling would be expected with the larger compression around 30 MPa. But at a depth of 500 m the overburden pressure will be about 12 MPa. If  $S_1$  is vertical then both  $S_2$  and  $S_3$ , which are horizontal, will be smaller than this value (12 MPa) and may be too small to produce shear fractures. This now leaves us with either a thrust fault or a strike-slip (wrench) fault stress field. Bell and Gough's hypothesis fits either of these two stress fields and the breakouts are consistent with either case. It is worth noting that the breakouts alone cannot reveal which of the two stress situations prevails in Alberta.

In a later paper, Gough and Bell (1981) added additional wells in Alberta to their study of breakouts. They also extended the area covered into northeastern British Columbia. In addition results from hydraulic fracturing in an oil field in West-Central Alberta were discussed. They suggested that some local anomalies in breakout orientations might represent local variations in the stress field.

Lo and Morton (1976) attributed failures of tunnel roofs in Ontario to interaction of the tunnel with large horizontal compressive stresses transverse to the tunnel. Dusseault (1977) suggested that unequal horizontal compressive stresses prevail in several areas in Alberta, to account for the propagation of vertical fractures during hydraulic fracturing in Northeast-Southwest vertical planes. Such fractures imply a horizontal least principal stress ( $S_1$ ) directed Northwest-Southeast. The formation of tensile fractures normal to  $S_1$  during hydraulic fracturing was first proposed by Hubbert and Willis (1957). This leads to the expectation that in a thrust stress field ( $S_1$  vertical) hydraulically formed fractures will be horizontal (Kehle, 1964). This is difficult to verify in many cases, because horizontal fractures are hard to detect. Zoback et al (1977) argue that the inflatable packers inhibit such horizontal fractures, and that horizontal fractures form only if fluid penetrates pre-existing planes of weakness. This contention is supported by laboratory experiments by Haimson and Fairhurst (1970). Haimson (1976b) suggested that if  $S_v = S_1$ , then the induced fractures initiate in a vertical plane and then become horizontal as they propagate based on the fact that energy propagates along the path of least resistance. This can be observed in the pressure-time history where the asymptotic shut-in pressure is smaller than the instantaneous shut-in pressure. In such a situation the instantaneous shut-in pressure is not equal to the least

principal stress but rather the smaller horizontal principal stress with the asymptotic shut-in pressure being equal to the least principal stress  $S_3$ .

In the J Lease of the Pembina Oilfield, Macleod (1977) noted during secondary oil recovery from Cardium Formation sandstone that permeability was greatest in the Northeast-Southwest direction. This observation implied either a fracture system or else a permeability trend oriented Northeast-Southwest. But Neilson (1957) showed the isopach axes in this formation and area to be trending Northwest-Southeast. Thus one would expect a permeability trend related to the process of deposition to run NW-SE. Gough and Bell (1981) therefore concluded that Macleod's observation could be better explained in terms of vertical fractures oriented NE-SW, which would imply a NW-SE orientation of  $S_3$ . Six wells logged with the HDT in this area were identified and studied by Gough and Bell. The breakouts occur in rocks of Paleozoic ages over depths from 2500 to 4500 meters. Azimuths of hole elongation were tightly grouped with mean values ranging between  $132^\circ$  and  $141^\circ$ , with variations over approximately  $20^\circ$  in individual wells.

Imperial Oil in 1978 published information on their Cold Lake projects in far eastern Alberta. Induced vertical fracture orientations varied from  $N 30^\circ E$  to  $N 45^\circ E$  implying that the minimum principal stress was horizontal in this region and oriented between  $120^\circ$  and  $135^\circ$ . The larger

horizontal stress would then lie between  $30^\circ$  and  $45^\circ$ . Imperial Oil ran no HDT logs in wells in the Cold Lake region (J.S.Bell, personal communication with the Company). However, Gough and Bell (1981) located one well in this region logged by the HDT. The azimuth of a single breakout, at depth 477 to 479 m in the Clearwater Formation, was  $131^\circ$  suggesting the major horizontal stress direction of  $41^\circ$ . Recently, Gough and Bell (1982) have reported comparisons of breakout azimuths in Colorado, in East Texas and in northwestern Canada with other indications of stress orientations in those regions. In every case the observations support their explanation of breakouts as a consequence of stress concentration by the borehole in an anisotropic stress field. The hydraulically induced fractures at West Pembina and at Cold Lake indicate a strike-slip type stress field ( $S_1$  and  $S_2$  horizontal,  $S_3$  vertical) is most likely present in most parts of Alberta.

This thesis reports a study of the statistics of the azimuthal distribution of breakouts in oil-wells in Alberta in relation to depth, lithology, formation and age of rocks, together with the geophysical implications of breakouts.

## II. STRESS AND FRACTURE IN THE EARTH'S CRUST

### STRESS

If one considers a simple prism of cross-sectional area  $a$  subjected to a force  $F$ , as shown in Fig. 8, the stress  $S_z$  acting on the end surface ABCD is given by

$$S_z = F/a \text{ -----2-1}$$

It can be seen that the force  $F$  has no component acting parallel to the ABCD surface. This means it exerts no shear stress on this surface. By definition, any stress acting perpendicular to a surface along which the shear stress is zero is a principal stress. Thus in this case  $S_z$  is a principal stress. Here, the suffix indicates the direction in which the stress acts. Other principal stresses may be orientated parallel to the X- and Y- axes, and would be designated  $S_x$  and  $S_y$  respectively. If the relative intensities of the principal stresses are known, they may be termed the maximum (or greatest), intermediate and minimum (or least) principal stresses (i.e.  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ ,  $S_3$  respectively).

If one considers the action of the force  $F$  on a surface GHIJ inclined at an angle  $\theta$  as shown in the Figure 8, the component of  $F$  acting normal to GHIJ is given by,

$$F_n = F \cdot \sin \theta.$$

However, it will be seen that the area  $a'$  of GHIJ is greater than the area  $a$  of ABCD, and that

$$a' = a / \sin \theta.$$

Therefore, the normal stress  $S_n$  acting on the inclined

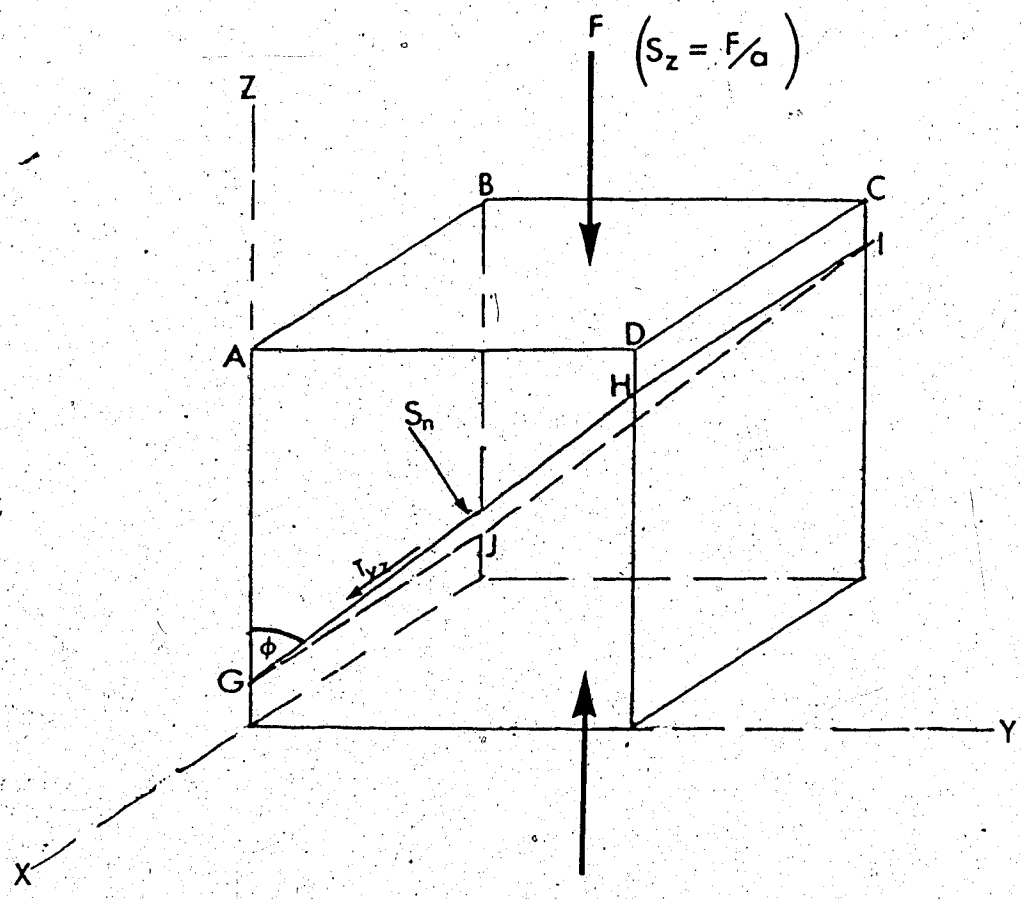


Figure 8.... Normal and Shear stresses acting on external and internal surfaces of a unit cube subjected to a force

surface is

$$F_n / a' = F \cdot \sin \phi / a' = (F/a) \cdot \sin^2 \phi$$

so that

$$S_n = S_z \cdot \sin^2 \phi \quad \text{-----2-2}$$

Similarly the component of  $F$  tangential to the inclined plane is given by

$$F_t = F \cdot \cos \phi$$

Consequently the shear stress ( $T$ ) acting along the plane equals

$$F_t / a' = F \cdot \cos \phi / a' = (F/a) \cdot \cos \phi \cdot \sin \phi$$

that is

$$T = S_z \cdot \cos \phi \cdot \sin \phi \quad \text{-----2-3}$$

Shear stresses as well as other stresses may be related to co-ordinate axes. We denote by  $T_{xy}$  the shear stress on  $yz$ -planes acting parallel to the  $y$ -axis. Similarly  $T_{zx}$  denotes a shear stress acting in the  $zx$ -planes parallel to the  $x$ -axis. The stress across a plane whose normal is in the  $y$ -direction will have components  $T_{yx}$ ,  $S_y$ ,  $T_{yz}$  and that across a plane whose normal is in the  $x$ -direction will have components  $S_x$ ,  $T_{xy}$ ,  $T_{xz}$ . The nine quantities below

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S_x & T_{xy} & T_{xz} \\ T_{yx} & S_y & T_{yz} \\ T_{zx} & T_{zy} & S_z \end{array} \quad \text{-----2-4}$$

are called the stress components and give a complete specification of the stress at a point. It can be shown that  $T_{yx} = T_{xy}$ ,  $T_{yz} = T_{zy}$  and  $T_{zx} = T_{xz}$ , so that only six quantities out of the nine are needed to specify the stress at a point.



The stress components in Eqn.(2-4) are in fact the components of a mathematical entity called a tensor, (and tensor analysis is much used in developing the higher parts of the theory of elasticity where  $x, y, z$ , are replaced by  $1, 2, 3$ , respectively). A tensor in which  $T_{xy} = T_{yx}$ ,  $T_{yz} = T_{zy}$ ,  $T_{xz} = T_{zx}$  is said to be symmetric.

In a biaxial stress field it can be inferred from Eqn. (2-2) and Eqn. (2-3) that the stresses acting normally and tangentially to a plane inclined at  $\phi$  to  $S_1$  and hence  $(90+\phi)$  to  $S_3$ , will be represented (on superposition) by

$$S_n = S_1 \sin^2 \phi + S_3 \cos^2 \phi$$

and

$$T = (S_1 - S_3) \sin \phi \cos \phi \text{-----2-5}$$

which can be written in terms of the double angle  $2\phi$  as

$$S_n = (S_1 + S_3)/2 - ((S_1 - S_3) \cos 2\phi)/2 \text{ and}$$

$$T = ((S_1 - S_3) \sin 2\phi)/2 \text{-----2-6}$$

Equation 2-6 may be represented graphically by means of Mohr's stress circle, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Subsurface rocks are normally in a state of compressive stress except very near the surface because of the weight of overlying rocks. This overburden weight creates stresses in both the vertical and horizontal directions. The stress field at a point can be represented by  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ ,  $S_3$  as already defined. Over long periods of geologic time the earth has exhibited an appreciable degree of mobility during which rocks have been repeatedly stressed to the limit of failure

to produce faulting and folding. The problem of rock squeeze (i.e. continuous deformation of the rock) has been recognised in parts of the crust. In Southern Ontario structures built in rocks have exhibited distress in various degrees during or subsequent to construction (Lo, 1978). Geological processes such as faulting, folding, and pop-ups or buckling of the surface rock strata, without any apparent change of external loading, may be interpreted as evidence of existence of high horizontal stresses. In a study of geological features and movements of structures in rock in New York State, Rose (1951) associated the rock squeeze with the possible existence of high horizontal in-situ stress in the rock formations. Such phenomena require that substantial differences must exist between the principal stresses. Sbar and Sykes (1973) have used information from postglacial geologic features such as east-west rock squeeze in western New York and Niagara, and bridge abutments moving together to infer that the maximum compressive stress in this area has an easterly trend. Postglacial buckles or pop-ups near Chippewa Bay, New York have also been ascribed by Sbar and Sykes as not due to any environmental factors other than large horizontal compressive stresses. Pop-ups have also been encountered elsewhere in western New York where the lithostatic load has been reduced by quarrying (Sbar and Sykes personal commun. with J. Davies, 1972). Deformation indicative of a high horizontal compressive stress was also observed in various parts of Ontario (Coates, 1964), where a

pop-up about two and one half meters high, striking northwest, occurred overnight in a quarry after it had been excavated to a depth of 15 meters. Finally the results obtained from geologic features, in-situ stress measurements and earthquake distributions in eastern and central North America may be related to the presence of high stress.

The orientation of the trajectories of the principal stresses in space is largely determined by the condition which they must satisfy at the earth's surface. This is a free surface, on which normal and shear stresses vanish. Since the only planes on which the shear stresses are zero are those perpendicular to the principal stresses, it follows that one of the three trajectories of principal stress must end perpendicular to the surface of the ground, and the other two must be parallel to this surface. Therefore, in regions of gentle topography with simple geologic structures the principal stresses should be nearly horizontal and vertical, with the vertical stress approximately equal to the pressure of overlying material. Measurements of stress in mines in several continents show that in many cases the vertical normal stress is, within about 20%, equal to the overburden pressure  $S_v = \rho \cdot g \cdot h$ , where  $\rho$  is the density of the material,  $g$  is gravity and  $h$  is the depth. If the lateral stress were due solely to elastic response of the rock  $S_v$ , the horizontal principal stresses would be  $S = s = \nu / (1 - \nu) \cdot S_v = S_v / 3$  where  $\nu$  is Poisson's ratio. Such a stress field would produce normal

faults at any depth at which the stress difference exceeded the strength of the rock. However, observations in underground structures, quarries and hydraulic fracturing in boreholes indicate that the horizontal stresses  $S$  and  $s$   $S > s$  are not generally equal and do not vanish close to the surface, a necessary consequence if the horizontal stresses were due simply to elastic response of the rock to overburden pressure.

Measurements in several continents of in-situ stress in rocks show that in many cases the horizontal stresses are much higher than the vertical stress calculated from the overlying weight of the rock (McGarr and Gay, 1978 ; Hast, 1973; Herget, 1974). Frequently the horizontal stresses  $S$  and  $s$  increase linearly with depth. It is thus evident that large and unequal horizontal principal stresses are widespread in the continental crust of the earth.

#### Relationships Between Principal Stresses at Failure

Most substances behave elastically at low stresses. As the stress is increased the body will begin to yield at some point if it is ductile, while if the body is brittle it will fracture at some point without appreciable yielding. The term fracture implies the appearance of distinct surfaces of separation in the body and yield is used for the onset of plastic deformation. Flow is used for unrestricted plastic deformation. Both flow and fracture (also known as failure) are observed on large and small scales in geologic material so that the criteria for them are vital for the

interpretation of geologic phenomena.

For brittle materials in tension, *tensile or cleavage* fracture takes place across a surface perpendicular to the direction of tension (Fig. 9 A). For brittle materials in compression, shear fracture takes place along a pair of planes or a cone approximately in the direction of the greatest shear stress but always between this direction and the direction of the largest compressive stress ( Fig. 9 B). The maximum shear stress theory, which dates back to Coulomb (1773), states that failure occurs at a point when the maximum shear stress is equal to the shear strength of the material. If  $S_1 \geq S_2 \geq S_3$  are the principal stresses at a point, taking compressive stress positive, the maximum shear stress has magnitude  $(S_1 - S_3)/2$ , and occurs across a plane containing the direction of  $S_2$  and whose normal bisects the angle between the greatest and least principal stresses. The theory implies that if  $C_c$  is the compressive strength of the material in an unconfined compression test in which  $S_1 = S_2 = 0$ ,  $S_3 = C_c$ , the material will fail across any plane inclined at  $45^\circ$  to the direction of compression for a frictionless material. For real materials the angle is less than  $45^\circ$ . The theory also implies that the tensile and compressive strengths are equal. The theory has been modified by Navier to fit qualitatively most of the observed facts, and is used by Anderson in a discussion of the types of geological faulting. In this modification, instead of assuming that fracture takes place across the plane over which the shear

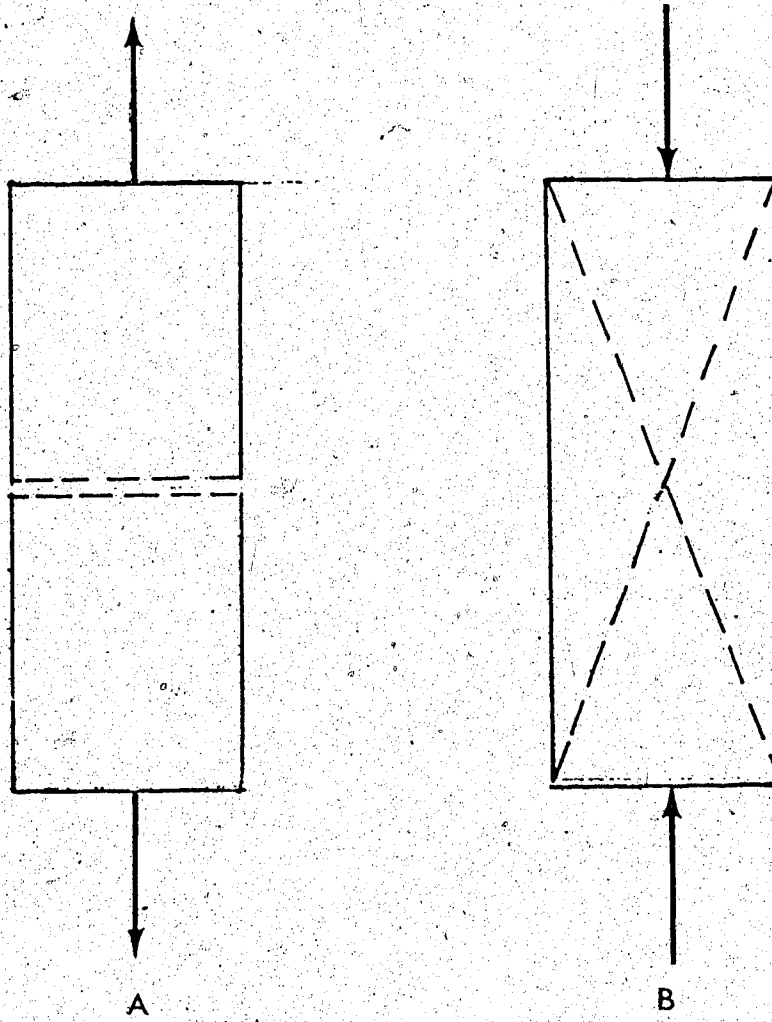


Figure 9.... Failure of a brittle material. (A) Tensile fracture and (B) Shear fracture

stress first becomes equal to the shear strength  $S_0$  of the medium, it assumes that this shear strength is increased by a constant  $u$  times the normal pressure across the plane. Because of the analogy to ordinary friction in which the tangential force is  $u$  times the normal reaction,  $u$  is known as the coefficient of internal friction. Thus, if  $S_n$  and  $T$  are the normal and shear stresses across a plane, fracture takes place on the plane at which the magnitude of  $T$  first becomes equal to  $S_0 + u.S_n$ . Therefore,

$$|T| = S_0 + u.S_n \text{ -----2-7}$$

This is the Navier-Coulomb criterion for shear failure. Let us discuss the case of two dimensions first. If  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are the principal stresses, we can then write Eqn. (2-6) as

$$S_n = (S_1 + S_2)/2 + (S_1 - S_2)\cos 2\phi/2$$

$$T = (S_1 - S_2)\sin 2\phi/2 \text{ -----2-8}$$

Only values of  $\phi$  between 0 and 90° need be considered, since only the magnitude of  $T$  occurs in Eqn. (2-7), so that changing the sign of  $\phi$  only changes the sign of  $\sin 2\phi$  and does not affect the magnitude of  $S_n$  or  $T$ . The shear stress at failure is thus symmetrical about  $\phi=0$ . It can be shown that failure takes place across a plane whose normal makes  $\phi$  with  $S_1$  where  $\tan 2\phi = 1/u$ . If  $u=0$ , then  $\phi=45^\circ$ ; if  $u=1$ ,  $2\phi=135^\circ$  and  $\phi=67.5^\circ$ ; if  $u \rightarrow \text{infinity}$ ,  $\phi \rightarrow 90^\circ$  that is as  $u$  increases the plane of fracture moves towards the direction of maximum stress. Values of  $u$  of the order of 1 are inferred from the directions of fracture of rocks in testing machines, and also from geological faulting (Jaeger, 1956;

Price, 1973). It should be remembered that, because of the symmetry in  $\phi$  mentioned earlier, the theory leads to two possible planes of fracture equally inclined to the principal stresses and gives no reason for preferring either. For failure under combined stress in terms of the compressive and tensile strengths,  $C_0$  and  $T_0$  of the material, the relation

$$C_0/T_0 = (\sqrt{u^2+1} + u)/(\sqrt{u^2+1} - u)$$

holds. The theory predicts that the compressive strength of a material is always greater than its tensile strength but the ratio is rather smaller than that found in practice. The theory also predicts that under any conditions the normal to the plane of fracture makes the same angle  $\arctan(1/u)/2$ , with the direction of greatest principal stress. Although this is approximately true for compressive stresses, it is very far from the truth in the case of pure tension when the failure is usually by brittle fracture with the plane of fracture normal to the direction of tension. The reason may be that  $T_0$  should not be the actual tensile strength but the value at which shear failure in tension would take place if tensile fracture did not occur in practice before this value is reached. Nevertheless, the theory gives a reasonably accurate account of the behaviour of rocks under combined compressive stresses.

Mohr's representation of stress and failure is useful (Fig. 10). Mohr's theory assumes that at failure across a plane the normal and shear stresses across the plane,  $S_n$  and



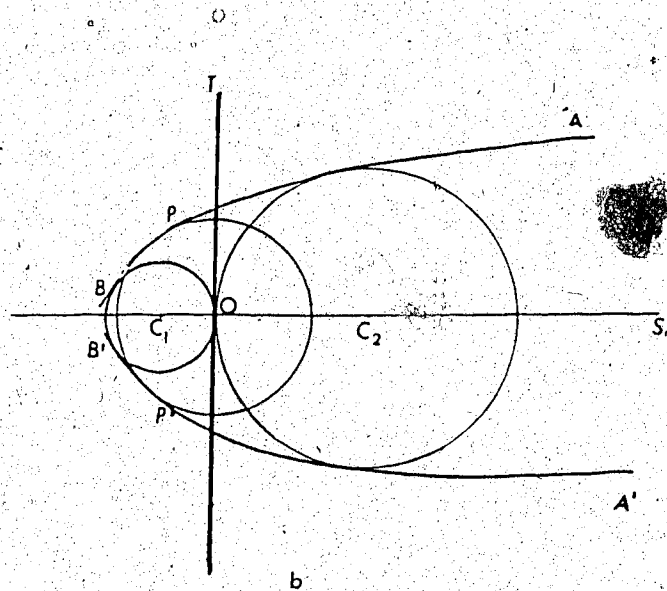
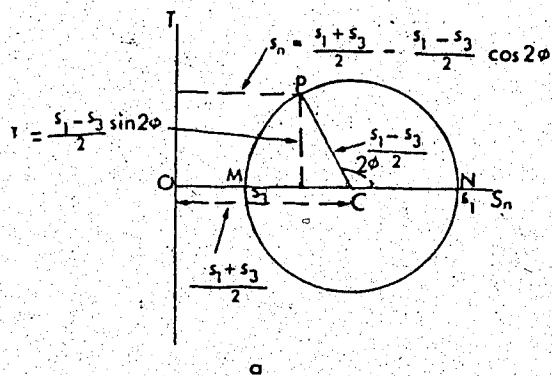


Figure 10.... Representation of stresses on any plane in a two-dimensional stress system by means of Mohr's stress circle.

$T$ , are connected by some relation  $T = f(S_n)$ . This relation may be plotted on a  $(S_n, T)$  plane and since changing the sign of  $T$  simply changes the direction of failure but not the condition for it, the curve is symmetrical about the  $S_n$ -axis. Any state of stress can be represented by a Mohr circle on the  $(S_n, T)$  plane. In representing the normal and shear stress across a plane in a biaxial stress field on the Mohr's Stress circle, the normal stress  $S_n$  and shear stress ( $T$ ) are chosen as co-ordinate axes. Here the greatest principal stress  $S_1$  and the least principal stress  $S_3$  are represented by  $ON$  and  $OM$  respectively on the  $S_n$ -axis. The quantity  $(S_1 + S_3)/2$  of Eqn. (2-6) represents the mid-point  $C$  on the  $S_n$  axis between  $M$  and  $N$ , while  $(S_1 - S_3)/2$  represents half the distance between  $M$  and  $N$ . If a circle is drawn with centre  $C$  and radius  $(S_1 - S_3)/2$ , then for any specific values of  $S_1$  and  $S_3$ , this circle represents the conditions of Equation 2-6 where  $2\phi$  is measured as indicated in Fig. 10 a. This construction as we shall see is used in representing the values of shear and normal stresses at failure. If this circle lies wholly within the failure envelope  $ABA'B'$  in Fig. 10 b, the stresses involved nowhere attain the critical values. If any portion lies outside it the material could not withstand the stresses. Obviously, the limiting case is that of a circle such as those of centres  $C_1$ ,  $O$  and  $C_2$  which just touch the curves  $AB$  and  $A'B'$ . In this case failure will take place under stress conditions corresponding to the points  $PP'$ , that is, over planes whose normals are inclined

at angles of half the angle PCN (Fig. 10a) to the direction of the greatest principal stress. The curve AB will be the envelope of all the circles corresponding to all conditions at which fracture takes place and for this reason is known as the *Mohr envelope*.

In principle, three circles which touch the envelope can be found from simple experiments. These are those of centres  $C_1$ ,  $Q$  and  $C_2$  (Fig. 10 b), corresponding to tension, simple shear, and compression. But in practice it is difficult to perform shear or tensile tests on rock materials. An approximation to the Mohr envelope for many rocks, from results of triaxial tests, is the pair of straight lines

$$|\tau| = T_0 + u.S_n$$

corresponding to the Coulomb-Navier criterion for fracture under shear stress, where  $T_0$  is the shear strength. In this case the normal to the plane of fracture makes an angle (in the second quadrant)  $\arctan(1/u)/2$  with the direction of the greatest principal stress. When applied to triaxial stress, the Mohr theory leads to the result that only the Mohr circles for the plane containing the greatest and least principal stresses need be considered and that fracture always takes place in planes containing the direction of the intermediate principal stress. This is not altogether consistent with the experimental results.

One important application of these results is the study of faults which are fractures of the rocks of the earth's

crust (Fig. 11). Geologists distinguish three major types of faults and Anderson (1951) has shown that these are determined by the relative magnitudes of the principal stresses. One principal stress will always be vertical, and three cases arise according as this is the greatest, intermediate, or least principal stress. In the case where the vertical principal stress is the least in magnitude and the other two principal stresses are compressive (Fig. 11 A), the fault is known as a *thrust* fault. The planes of fracture pass through the direction of the intermediate principal stress and makes angles of less than  $45^\circ$  with the direction of the greatest compressive stress which is horizontal, (Fig. 11 B). This applies in regions of active tectonic compression or erosion or vertical unloading. When the intermediate principal stress is vertical, we have Figure 11 C. The failure can take place on either of two vertical planes (Fig. 11 D), which are equally inclined at angles of less than  $45^\circ$  to the direction of the greatest compressive stress. This type of fault is called a *transcurrent, wrench or strike-slip fault*. When the vertical principal stress is greatest as may often be the case at considerable depths, and in rift structures near the surface, the type of failure is called *normal faulting*. Here the faults make angles less than  $45^\circ$  with the vertical (Fig. 11 E).

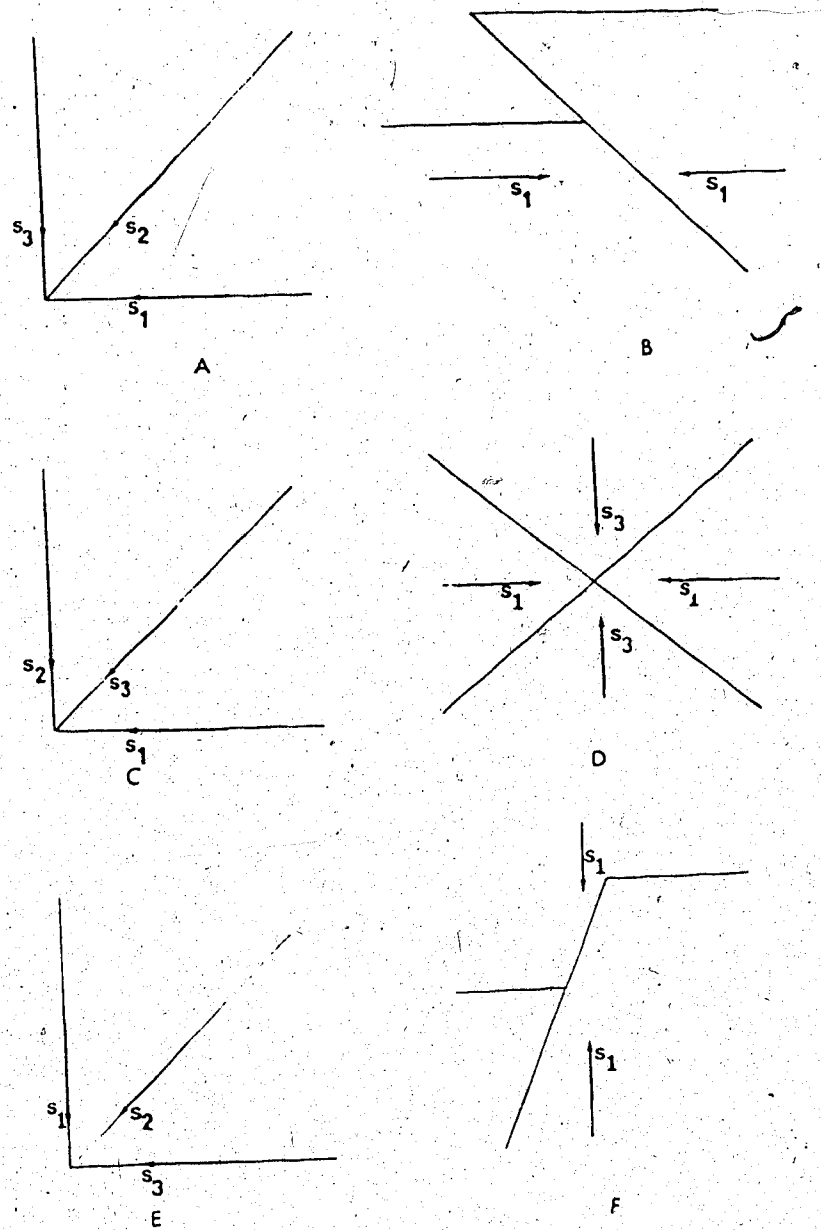


Figure 11.... Types of faulting in relation to the principal stresses; A and B, Thrust fault, C and D, Wrench fault, E and F, Normal fault.

### Stress Concentration Caused by the Borehole

The presence of a borehole distorts the pre-existing stress field, because as discontinuities in the earth's crust, boreholes cause redistribution of stresses in the nearby rock. An approximate calculation of this distortion is made by assuming that the rock is elastic, the borehole smooth and cylindrical and the borehole axis vertical and parallel to one of the regional principal stresses. Kirsch (1898) found an analytic solution of the problem of the stress field near a small hole of radius  $a$  in a large plate under uniaxial compression  $S$ . The solution as given by Timoshenko and Goodier (1951) is given below.

Let Figure 12 represent a plate subjected to a uniform compression of magnitude  $S$  in the  $x$ -direction. If a small circular hole is made in the middle of the plate, the stress distribution in the immediate vicinity of the hole will be changed. However, by Saint-Venant's principle we know that the change will be negligible at distances which are large compared with  $a$ , the radius of the hole. Let us consider the portion of the plate within a concentric circle of radius  $b$ , large in comparison with  $a$ . The stresses at the radius  $b$  are effectively the same as in the plate without the hole and are therefore given from Equations (2-2) and (2-3) by

$$(S_r)_{r=b} = S \cdot \cos^2 \phi = S/2 \cdot (1 + \cos 2\phi)$$

$$(T_{r\phi})_{r=b} = -1/2 S \cdot \sin 2\phi \text{-----2-9}$$

For stresses disposed symmetrically about a point of weakness in the earth's crust the direction of the principal

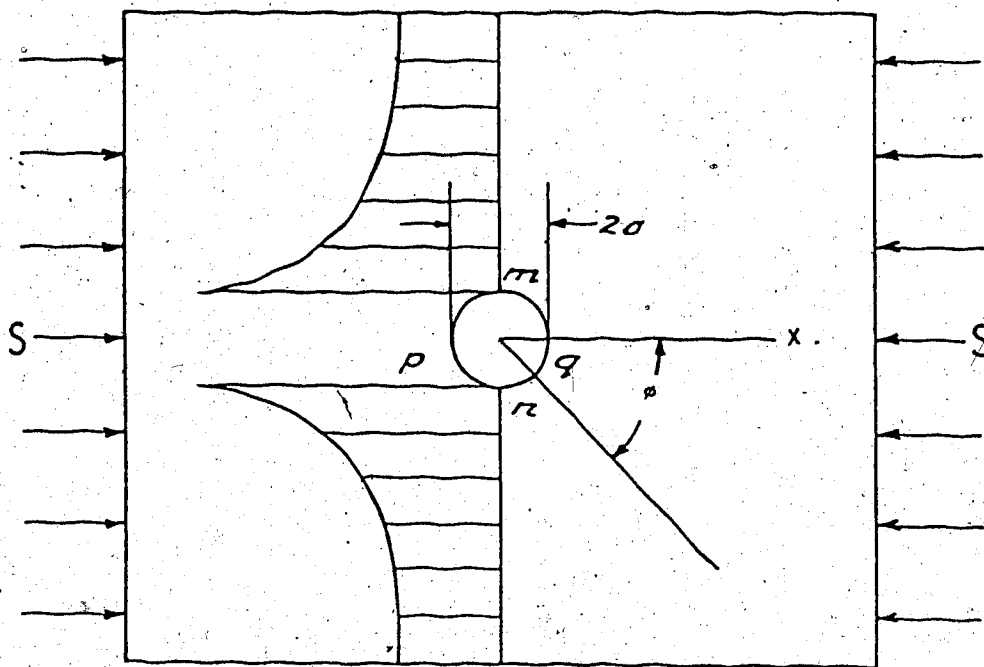


Figure 12.... A plate submitted to a uniform compression of magnitude  $S$  in the  $X$ -direction with a small hole in it

stresses will be vertical, radial, and tangential. The forces acting around the outside of the ring in Equation 2-9, having the inner and outer radii  $r=a$  and  $r=b$  give a stress distribution within the ring which can be considered as consisting of two parts. (a) The first is due to the constant  $1/2 S$  of the normal forces. (b) The remaining part consists of the normal forces  $1/2 S \cdot \cos 2\phi$  together with the shearing forces  $-1/2 S \cdot \sin 2\phi$ . The stresses produced by this second part may be derived from a stress function of the form

$$\Phi = f(r) \cdot \cos 2\phi \text{-----2-10}$$

This stress function can be substituted into the compatibility equation

$$\left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \right) \left( \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial \phi^2} \right) = 0$$

to yield an ordinary differential equation from which  $f(r)$  can be determined.

$$(d^2/dr^2 + d/rdr - 4/r^2)(d^2f/dr^2 + df/rdr - 4f/r^2) = 0$$

The general solution is

$$f(r) = A \cdot r^2 + B \cdot r^{-4} + C/r^2 + D$$

Equation 2-10 then becomes

$$\Phi = (A \cdot r^2 + B \cdot r^{-4} + C/r^2 + D) \cdot \cos 2\phi \text{-----2-11}$$

The stress components are;

$$S_r = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial \phi^2} = - \left( 2A + \frac{6C}{r^4} + \frac{4D}{r^2} \right) \cos 2\phi$$

$$S_\phi = \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial r^2} = \left( 2A + 12B r^2 + \frac{6C}{r^4} \right) \cos 2\phi \text{-----2-12}$$

$$T_{r\phi} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \phi} \right) = \left( 2A + 6B r^2 - \frac{6C}{r^4} - \frac{2D}{r^2} \right) \sin 2\phi$$



The constants of integration A, B, C, D are determined from the conditions of Eqn. 2-9 for the outer boundary and from the condition that the wall of the hole is free from external forces. These conditions give

$$2A + 6C/b^4 + 4D/b^2 = -S/2$$

$$2A + 6C/a^4 + 4D/a^2 = 0$$

$$2A + 6Bb^2 - 6C/b^4 - 2D/b^2 = S/2$$

$$2A + 6Ba^2 - 6C/a^4 - 2D/a^2 = 0$$

For an infinitely large plate  $a/b = 0$ . These four equations can then be solved to yield  $A = -S/4$ ,  $B = 0$ ,  $C = -a^4 \cdot S/4$ ,  $D = a^2 \cdot S/2$ . These constants can now be substituted into equation 2-12, and by adding the stresses produced by the uniform compression  $S/2$  on the outer boundary we obtain

$$S_r = S/2 \cdot (1 - a^2/r^2) + S/2 \cdot (1 + 3a^4/r^4 - 4a^2/r^2) \cdot \cos 2\phi$$

as radial stress

$$S_\phi = S/2 \cdot (1 + a^2/r^2) - S/2 \cdot (1 + 3 \cdot a^4/r^4) \cdot \cos 2\phi \text{ ----- 2-13}$$

as the tangential stress and

$$T_{r\phi} = -S/2 \cdot (1 - 3a^4/r^4 + 2a^2/r^2) \cdot \sin 2\phi$$

as the shearing stress, where the stresses are expressed in polar co-ordinates with the centre of the hole as the origin and the plane stress components are at a point  $(\phi, r)$  exterior to the hole of radius  $a$  in a plate under uniform uniaxial stress, with  $\phi$  measured from the axis of the compressive stress  $S$ .

If  $r \gg a$ ,  $S_r$  and  $T_{r\phi}$  approach the values given in equation 2-9. At the edge of the hole  $r = a$  we find

$$S_r = T_{r\phi} = 0 ; S_\phi = S - 2S \cdot \cos 2\phi \text{ ----- 2-14}$$

It can be seen from (2-14) that  $S_\phi$  is greatest when  $\phi = \pi/2$  or  $3\pi/2$  (i.e. when  $\cos 2\phi = -1$ ) that is at the ends m and n of the diameter perpendicular to the direction of the compression. At these points  $(S_\phi)_{\max} = 3S$  which is the maximum compressive stress and is three times the uniform stress  $S$  applied at the end of the plate. At the points p and q,  $\phi$  is equal to  $\pi$  and  $0$  and we find  $S_\phi = -S$ . So there is a tensional stress, resulting from the applied compression, in the tangential direction at these points. For the cross section of the plate through the centre of the hole and perpendicular to the x-axis,  $\phi = \pi/2$  and from Equation 2-13

$$T_{r\phi} = 0 ; S_\phi = S/2 \cdot (2 + a^2/r^2 + 3a^4/r^4) \text{ -----2-15}$$

It is clear that the effect of the hole is of a very localised character, and as  $r$  increases the stress approaches the value  $S$  very rapidly, within a few hole diameters. The distribution of this stress  $S_\phi$  as a function of  $r$  is shown in the Fig. 12 by the shaded area, regardless of the relative isotropy of a material. Having the solution equation 2-13 for compression or tension in one direction, the solution for compression or tension in two perpendicular directions can be easily obtained by superposition, of stresses given by (2-13) with  $(\phi+90)$  for the angular co-ordinate.

A closer approximation to the geological situation is shown in Fig. 13 where unequal compressions  $S$  and  $s$ ,  $S > s$ , are applied orthogonally to a plate with a small hole in it.

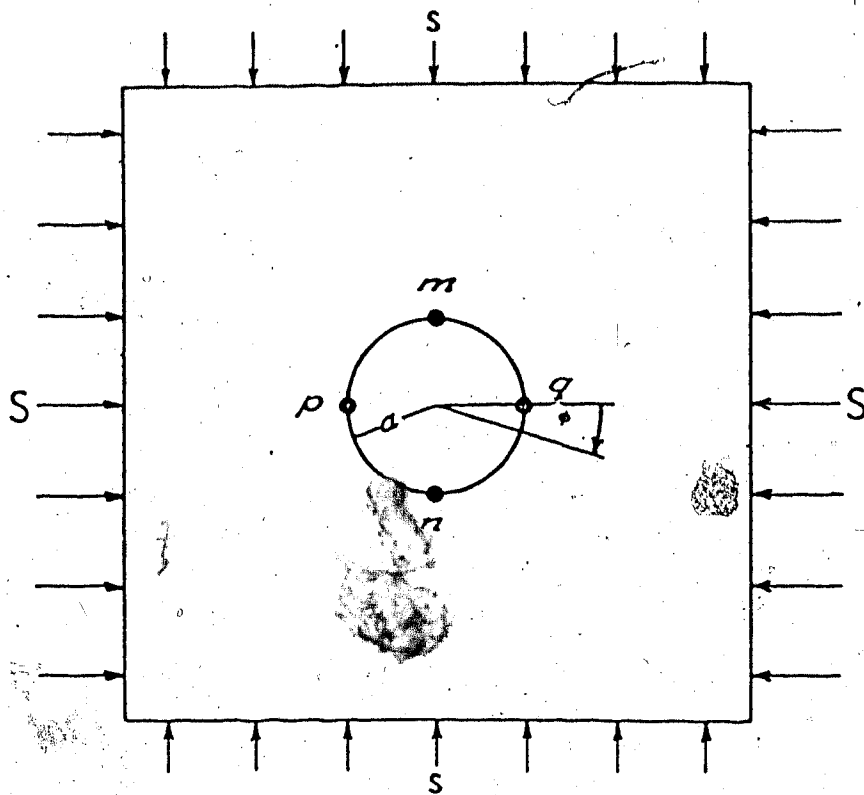


Figure 13.... A plate submitted to two compressions  $S$  and  $s$  with a small circular hole in it

At the hole boundary  $r=a$ , it follows from the superposition that

$S_r = T_{r\phi} = 0 ; S_{\phi} = S+s-2(S-s)\cos 2\phi$ -----2-16

and  $S_{\phi}$  is maximum, when  $\cos 2\phi = -1$  with value  $(3S-s)$  when  $\phi = \pi/2, 3\pi/2$  (at m, n), and minimum when  $\cos 2\phi = 1$ , with value  $(3s-S)$  when  $\phi = 0, \pi$  (at p, q).

Where measurements have been made, horizontal principal stresses in the upper crust range from equality  $S=s$  to about  $S=4s$  or more (McGarr and Gay, 1978). The values of the horizontal stresses across the principal planes in the neighbourhood of the borehole have been calculated by Gough and Bell (1982) for various relative values of the  $S/s$  ratio and are shown in Figures 14 and 15. Figures 14 A and B show the individual stress distributions. The principle of the superposition of the two parts of the stress field is illustrated in Fig. 14 C for the case in which  $S/s = 1.0$ . For  $S$  alone the tangential stress at the walls of the hole varies from a minimum value of  $-S$  (tensile) across the plane parallel to the  $S$ -axis to a maximum of  $+3S$ , across the plane normal to the  $S$ -axis. With the superposition, the stress field has radial symmetry and the tangential stress at the wall of the hole is  $+2S$  as can also be deduced from the equation 2-16. From equation 2-16 when  $S_{\phi} = 2S = 2s$ , it is independent of  $\phi$  and so failure may occur but without a preferred azimuth. As the ratio of  $S$  to  $s$  approaches one, the determination of the magnitudes and directions of  $S$  and  $s$  becomes less reliable because of the lack of resolution.

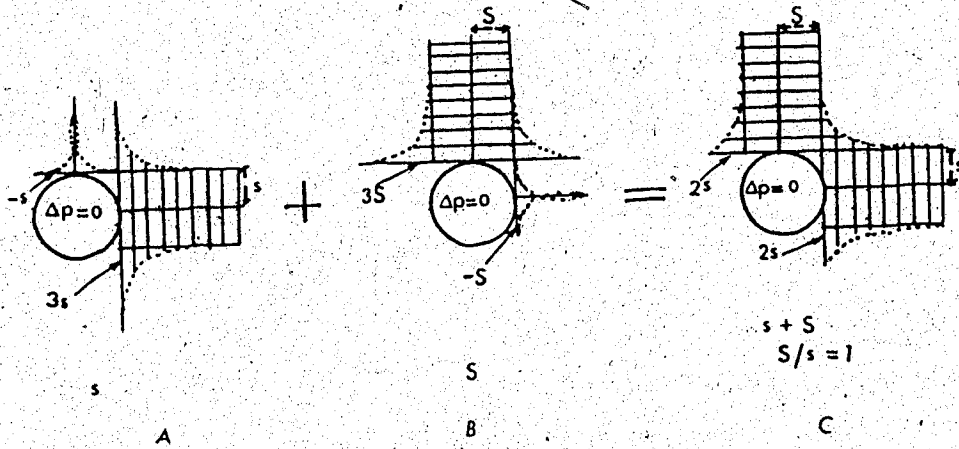


Figure 14.... Superposition of stress states about a borehole due to two horizontal principal stresses of equal magnitude.

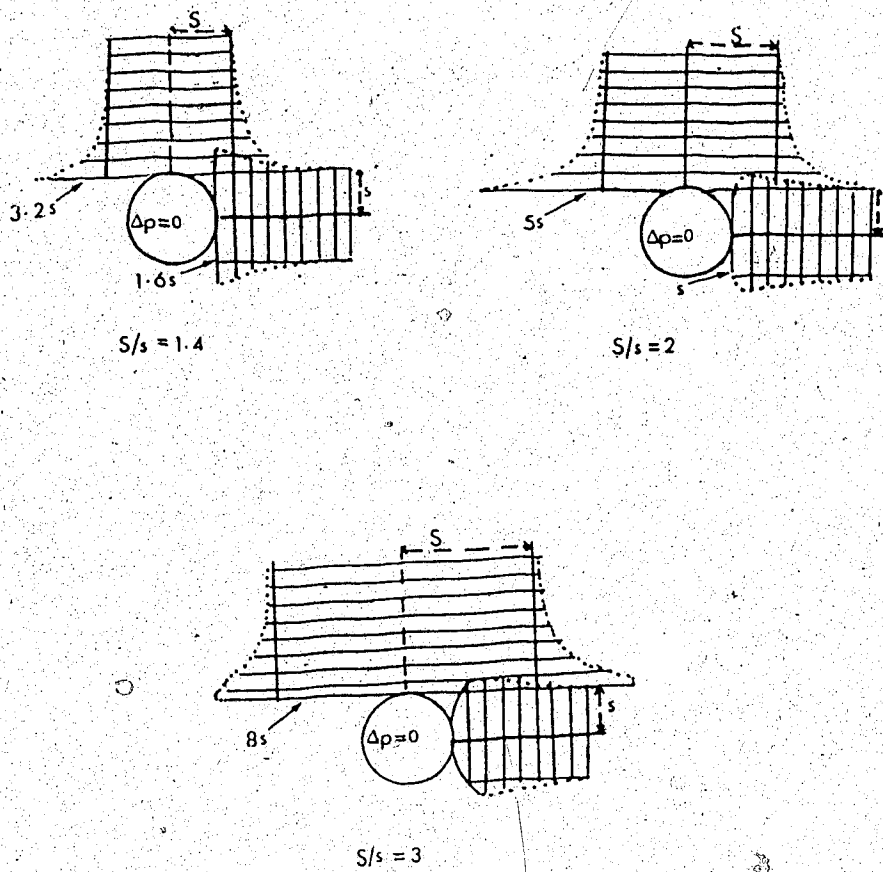


Figure 15.... Stress states about a borehole for regional stress-ratios  $S/s$  of 1.4, 2.0, and 3.0.

The resultant stress fields for other ratios of  $S/s$  are shown in figure 15. For the case when  $S/s = 3.0$  the tangential stress at the walls of the hole varies from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of  $+8s$  (see Eqn. 2-16).

### III. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Data have been secured from wells distributed widely in the sedimentary basin of Alberta as shown in Figure 16. In analysing the records it was observed that in depth ranges characterised by oversized holes, the tool tended to rotate in some parts and ceased to rotate in other parts. On the other hand, the tool ceased to rotate in certain ranges in which the two orthogonal diameters were equal indicating a circular cross-section. Such observations led to the adoption of three criteria to be used in identifying breakouts. These are:

1. The tool ceases to rotate, with the azimuth of the No. 1 electrode approximately constant.
2. The two orthogonal diameters are definitely unequal with the smaller diameter at bit size.
3. The tool was rotating both below and above the breakout zone. This ensures that the rotation was stopped by the breakout and not by some other cause.

The application of these three criteria causes the rejection of many elongated zones, but ensures that only definitely identified breakouts are used in the study. Table 3.1 lists the breakouts identified by means of these three criteria, from the available log records.

#### Representation and Statistics of Angular Data

We wish now to combine the various mean azimuths of the breakouts in order to obtain a representative breakout azimuth for each well. We may regard an angular observation



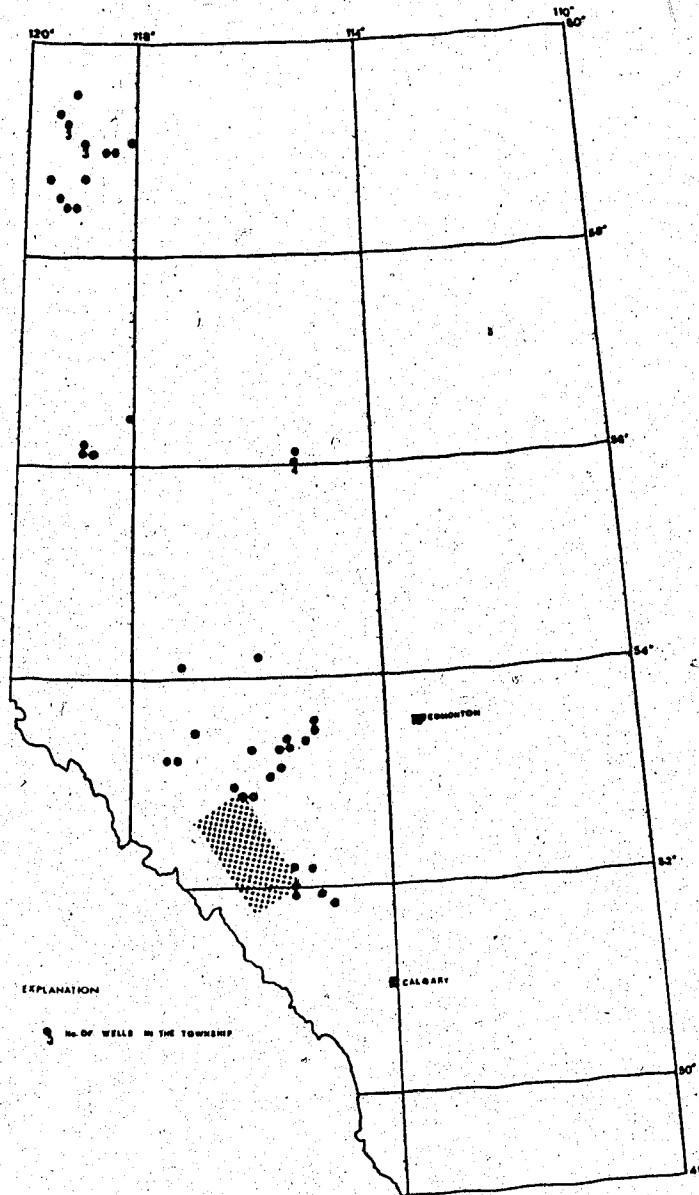


Figure 16.... Map of Alberta showing locations of wells analysed in this study

as a point on a circle of unit radius. A single observation  $\theta$  ( $0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 360^\circ$ ) measured in degrees is then a unit vector and the data can be described as circular data. If the vector is not directed, i.e. if the angles  $\theta$  ( $0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 180^\circ$ ) and  $180^\circ + \theta$  are not distinguished, the data can be described as *axial or non-polar* data. Ungrouped angular data can be represented in two ways; (a) by points on the circumference of a unit circle, the same weight being assigned to each observation, or (b) by drawing the radii of a unit circle obtained by joining the origin to the observed points on the circumference, (figure 17).

Alternatively, angular data can be grouped by dividing the range 0 to 360 degrees into a certain number of class intervals. The frequency is then the number of observations within each class. The data can then be represented on a histogram similar to that used on a line, by constructing a block whose area is proportional to the frequency in that interval on the circumference of a unit circle. This diagram is called a *circular histogram*. This histogram can also be unrolled so that it sits on a straight line divided into the class intervals. The point of cut for unrolling the unit circle needs careful selection. For data that have a mode (a preferred direction) it is reasonable to use a cut such that the centre of the linear histogram approximately corresponds to this mode to avoid division of the modal peak between the ends of the histogram. This linear histogram is preferred to the circular histogram mainly because it is easier to

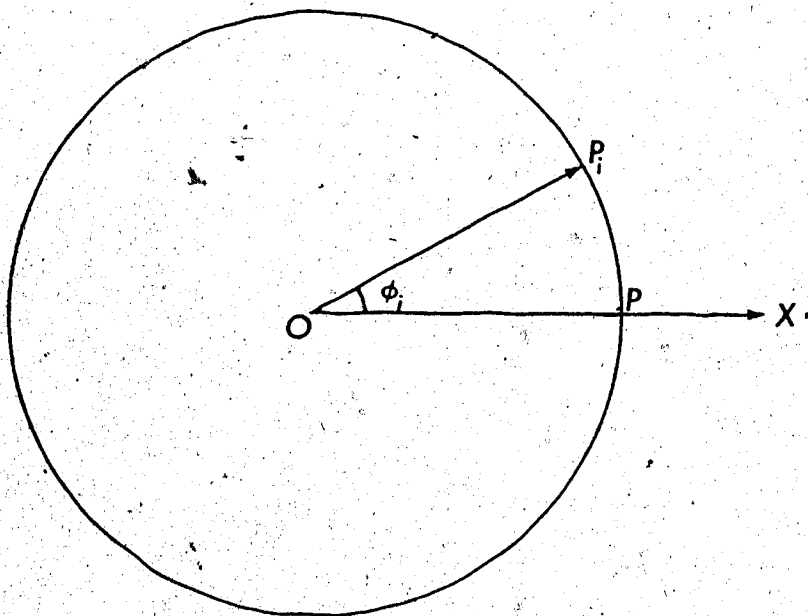


Figure 17.... Representations of the  $i$ th sample point  $\phi_i$   
 $OP=1$

evaluate.

Another natural representation of angular data is a Rose diagram. In this approach we construct a sector, corresponding to each class interval, with apex at the origin and radius proportional to the class frequency (and arc subtending the class interval). A disadvantage of this representation is that the area of each sector is proportional to  $N^2$ , where  $N$  is the frequency, so that the data appear much better grouped than they really are. However, the Rose diagram is widely used in geology.

#### A Measure of Location

In the first instance it is tempting to use the conventional measures on the line for a circular distribution. Let us consider a case where we have a sample of size 2 and the observed angles are  $1^\circ$  and  $359^\circ$ . The arithmetic mean and the sample variance give unreasonable results. Intuitively, however, we infer the mean direction and the deviation about the mean to be in some sense  $0^\circ$  and  $1^\circ$  respectively. A sensible answer, however, results if we select the zero direction as the  $y$ -axis in place of the  $x$ -axis. This will then reduce the data to  $269^\circ$  and  $271^\circ$ . Hence, the usual linear measures depend heavily on the choice of the zero direction and will not be appropriate for circular distributions. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be  $n$  observations on the line and let  $X_1', \dots, X_n'$  represent the same observations when the distances are measured from  $O'$  instead of the origin  $O$  along the  $x$ -axis. Let  $OO' = a$ . If  $L$  is a

suitable measure of location on the line we should have

$$L(X_1', \dots, X_n') = L(X_1, \dots, X_n) - \alpha \text{-----} 3-1$$

which implies that the position of the point whose x-coordinate is  $L(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  remains invariant under the choice of origin. Similarly it is desirable that the measure of circular location should not depend upon the choice of the zero direction.

Let  $\phi_1', \dots, \phi_n'$  be the angles obtained from  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n$  with respect to a new zero direction OA. If angle XOA =  $\alpha$ , then we have

$$L(\phi_1', \dots, \phi_n') = (L(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n) - \alpha) \text{ mod } 2\pi \text{-----} 3-2$$

The contrast between Equations 3-1 and 3-2 indicates the different natures of the problems on the line and on the circle.

### The Mean Direction

Suppose  $P_i$  is the point on the circumference of a unit circle corresponding to the angle  $\phi_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Then the mean direction  $\bar{\phi}$  of  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n$  is defined as the direction of the resultant of the unit vectors  $\overline{OP}_1, \dots, \overline{OP}_n$ . The cartesian coordinates of  $P_i$  are  $(\cos\phi_i, \sin\phi_i)$  so that the centre of gravity of these points is  $(\bar{C}, \bar{S})$  such that

$$\bar{C} = 1/n \cdot \sum \cos\phi_i ; \bar{S} = 1/n \cdot \sum \sin\phi_i \text{-----} 3-3$$

$$\text{If } \bar{R} = \sqrt{(\bar{C}^2 + \bar{S}^2)} \text{-----} 3-4$$

then  $R = n\bar{R}$  is the length of the resultant and  $\bar{\phi}$  is the solution of the equations

$$\bar{C} = \bar{R} \cdot \cos\bar{\phi} ; \bar{S} = \bar{R} \cdot \sin\bar{\phi} \text{-----} 3-5$$

It can be shown that  $\bar{\phi}$  has some desirable properties as a

measure of location. (see Appendix A)

### The Circular Variance

Let  $P_i$  be the point corresponding to  $\phi_i$  on a unit circle and  $\alpha$  be a fixed direction. If we assume initially that  $\alpha=0$  and suppose that  $P$  is the corresponding point on the circle then a measure of the circular dispersion between  $P$  and  $P_i$  is the smaller of the two angles that  $OP_i$  makes with  $OP$ , say  $\beta_i$  (see Fig. 17). We have

$$\beta_i = \min(\phi_i, 2\pi - \phi_i) = \pi - |\pi - \phi_i| \quad \text{-----3-6}$$

$1 - \cos\beta_i$  is an increasing function of  $\beta_i$ . Let

$$D = 1/n \cdot \sum (1 - \cos\beta_i) \quad , \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad \text{-----3-7}$$

be a measure of the dispersion of the points  $P_i$ . After shifting the zero direction to  $\alpha$  using

$$\phi_i' = (\phi_i - \alpha) \bmod 2\pi \quad ,$$

we can write

$$D = 1/n \cdot \sum (1 - \cos(\phi_i' - \alpha)) \quad \text{-----3-8}$$

The dispersion  $D$  is minimised at  $\alpha = \bar{\phi}$ . If we equate the derivative of (3-8) with respect to  $\alpha$  to zero we have

$\sum \sin(\phi_i' - \alpha) = 0$ , so that the dispersion is smallest about  $\bar{\phi}$  (see Appendix A Equations A-1 and A-6.). This is similar to the expression for the ordinary sample variance.  $D$  can be written about  $\bar{\phi}$  as  $S_0$  where

$$S_0 = 1 - 1/n \cdot \sum \cos(\phi_i' - \bar{\phi}) \quad \text{-----3-9}$$

which can be simplified to

$$S_0 = 1 - \bar{R} \quad \text{-----3-10}$$

$S_0$  is called the circular variance and  $\bar{R}$  is the mean resultant vector magnitude. From (A-5), it can be seen that

$S_0$  is invariant under a change of the zero direction. Let  $R$  be the length of the resultant of the vectors  $OP_i$  i.e.  $R = n \cdot \bar{R}$  so that

$$S_0 = 1 - R/n \text{-----3-11}$$

Thus we see immediately that

$$0 \leq S_0 \leq 1.0 \text{-----3-12}$$

Since  $R$  tends to  $n$  for tightly grouped unit vectors, clearly  $S_0$  tends to 0 for tight distributions and  $S_0$  tends to 1.0 for random distributions. From (3-12)  $S_0$  takes values in  $(0, 1)$  unlike  $\sigma^2$  for linear data whose range is  $(0, \text{infinity})$ . An appropriate transformation (first suggested by Von Mises in 1918) of  $S_0$  to the range  $(0, \text{infinity})$  is given by

$$\sigma = \sqrt{-2 \cdot \log_e (1 - S_0)} \text{-----3-13}$$

In (3-13) it has been assumed that the range of  $\phi$  is  $(0, 2\pi)$ . If the range of  $\phi$  is  $(0, 2\pi/L)$  then we define

$$\sigma = (-2 \log_e (1 - S_0))^{1/2} / L.$$

For grouped data we have

$$\bar{C} = 1/n \cdot \sum f_i \cdot \cos \phi_i; \quad \bar{S} = 1/n \cdot \sum f_i \cdot \sin \phi_i, \quad \text{and } \bar{R} = (\bar{C}^2 + \bar{S}^2)^{1/2}.$$

$$\text{Then } \cos \bar{\phi} = \bar{C} / \bar{R}; \quad \sin \bar{\phi} = \bar{S} / \bar{R}, \quad S_0 = 1 - \bar{R}.$$

To obtain  $\bar{\phi}$  it is convenient to use

$$\bar{\phi} = \bar{\phi}' \quad \text{if } \bar{S} > 0, \bar{C} > 0 \text{ (1st quadrant)}$$

$$\bar{\phi} = \bar{\phi}' + \pi \quad \text{if } \bar{C} < 0, \bar{S} > 0 \text{ (2nd quadrant)}$$

$$\bar{\phi} = \bar{\phi}' + \pi \quad \text{if } \bar{C} < 0, \bar{S} < 0 \text{ (3rd quadrant)}$$

$$\bar{\phi} = \bar{\phi}' + 2\pi \quad \text{if } \bar{S} < 0, \bar{C} > 0 \text{ (4th quadrant)}$$

where  $\bar{\phi}' = \arctan(\bar{S} / \bar{C})$ , and  $-\pi/2 < \bar{\phi}' < \pi/2$ . For axial (non-polar) data, in the range  $(0^\circ - 180^\circ)$ , we first double

the angles to maintain the periodicity. Thus we have  $\phi_i' = 2\phi_i$  and carry out the calculations using the equations already listed, and the frequencies  $f_i$  corresponding to the mid-points  $\phi_i'$ . Suppose  $\bar{C}'$ ,  $\bar{S}'$ ,  $\bar{\phi}'$  etc. are the quantities for  $\phi_i'$  corresponding to  $\bar{C}$ ,  $\bar{S}$ ,  $\bar{\phi}$  etc. then an appropriate measure of the circular mean  $\bar{\phi}$  for the  $\phi_i$  can be taken as  $\bar{\phi} = \bar{\phi}'/2$  and an appropriate measure of the circular variance  $S_0$  for  $\phi_i$  is  $S_0 = 1 - (1 - S_0')^{1/4}$ . In general if the range of  $\phi$  is  $(0, 2\pi/L)$  we have

$$S_0 = 1 - (1 - S_0')^{1/2}$$

The result of applying these statistics to the raw azimuth data measured at every two feet depth interval within an identified breakout is shown in the column headed MEAN in Table 3.1 and also in columns 8 and 9 of Table 3.2. Table 3.2 shows the mean orientation of the various breakout zones in a well.

#### Statistical Decision

We are now near a position to make inferences on our data. Before making any inferences, however, we wish to look at the problem of the *regression* of one variable, in our case the azimuth, on another variable (independent variable), which is the depth in our situation. We shall then look at the correlation or the degree of relationship between the variables. We first consider the problem of how well a straight line explains the relationship between two variables. This requires the equation for the Least Square Regression Line. The least square regression line of Y on X



TABLE 3.1

Breakout azimuths in relation to rock types and age of rocks. (All lengths are in feet, except where indicated).  
 \* attached to a breakout depth range indicates that a section of the mgs shown does not satisfy the three criteria. N is number of observations.

WELL 6-30-48-17WS 80 ELOCATIONS 51 BREAKOUTS

ELOCATED INTERVALS			BREAKOUT INTERVALS		STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION						FORMATION	LITHOLOGY
DEPTH RANGE	LENGTH	DEPTH RANGE	LENGTH	N	MEAN AZIMUTH(DEC)	PERIOD	FM	TOP				
3228-3541	312	3254-35210	174	28	138.0							
3718-3750	31	3722-3722	10	3	134.3							
3750-3782	38	3750-3780	30	6	51.2							
3816-4058	253	3828-4050	178	32	137.3							
4078-4145	69	4105-4120	14	4	74.5							
4158-4526	340	4212-4486	244	35	111.6							
4584-4846	82	4684-4830	22	10	141.6							
4888-4728	68	4662-4724	62	8	149.8							
4750-4782	32	30-40-55-62	15	8	182.9							
4881-5144	283	4882-5128	174	30	133.7							
5147-5178	28	5150-5188	18	10	39.2							
5228-5338	108	5245-5320	78	40	144.8							
5340-5370	30	5352-5388	160	10	142.2							
5528-5820	284	5846-58128	12	3	34.3							
5828-5835	23	5821-5881	12	3	34.3							
5982-6002	20	6004-6028	24	7	184.1							
6084-6083	17	6084-6072	14	4	35.0							
6088-6248	240	6186-6200	84	26	162.8							
6301-6482	78	6384-6480	28	8	78.0							
6504-6526	22	6514-6522	8	3	150.3							
6548-6576	30	6548-6570	22	4	75.5							
6607-6741	174	6810-6748	82	18	140.5							
6745-6804	18	6745-6788	10	3	152.3							
6814-7078	282	6920-7028	46	12	187.4							
7118-7182	74	7130-72-84	24	6	188.8							
7208-7243	35	7215-7230	14	3	135.7							
7350-7448	98	7480-7412-26	26	8	138.6							
7480-7858	108	7494-7504	10	5	162.0							
7615-8006	381	7710-7858	182	36	125.4							
8038-8385	351	8036-8378	280	48	151.7							
8428-8840	414	8430-8838	400	48	174.1							
8848-8874	26	8864-8868	12	24	134.3							
8878-9210	326	8978-9128	150	24	141.5							
9228-9284	58	9248-9274	30	4	142.0							
9348-9354	6	9350-9350	6	3	141.0							
9430-9425	8	9430-9430	6	3	141.0							
9438-9425	8	9438-9412	14	3	54.7							
9478-9478	8	9478-9478	10	3	81.2							
9488-9872	8	9568-9872	8	3	129.0							
9701-9898	294	9718-9878	128	27	131.5							
10008-10318	313	10008-10320	68	15	133.4							
10388-10738	400	10388-10758	184	29	118.8							
10800-10844	44	10804-10808	4	2	169.0							
11000-11050	50	11008-11020	12	5	28.2							
11411-11424	13	11414-11418	4	2	141.0							
11810-11828	18	11812-11820	8	4	144.5							
11834-11848	18	11834-11842	8	4	133.5							
11888-11906	8	11888-11894	6	3	149.7							
11928-11955	30	11944-11948	4	2	148.0							
11970-11980	10	11970-11976	6	3	129.3							
ELONGATION ENDS 12010, LO FERNIE : TOTAL DEPTH 18520 CAMBRIAN PROD. ZONE LO BLAIR.												

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STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION

WELL 12-19-53-BWS 11 ELONGATIONS 10 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	15 ELONGATIONS	10 BREAKOUTS
5489-5550	51	4904-5540	72
5505-5536	30	5605-5536	10
5705-5736	30	5712-5736	24
5854-5882	28	5854-5882	14
5910-5950	40	5910-5950	14
6010-6050	40	6010-6050	14
6110-6150	40	6110-6150	14
6210-6250	40	6210-6250	14
6310-6350	40	6310-6350	14
6410-6450	40	6410-6450	14
6510-6550	40	6510-6550	14
6610-6650	40	6610-6650	14
6710-6750	40	6710-6750	14
6810-6850	40	6810-6850	14
6910-6950	40	6910-6950	14
7010-7050	40	7010-7050	14
7110-7150	40	7110-7150	14
7210-7250	40	7210-7250	14
7310-7350	40	7310-7350	14
7410-7450	40	7410-7450	14
7510-7550	40	7510-7550	14
7610-7650	40	7610-7650	14
7710-7750	40	7710-7750	14
7810-7850	40	7810-7850	14
7910-7950	40	7910-7950	14
8010-8050	40	8010-8050	14
8110-8150	40	8110-8150	14
8210-8250	40	8210-8250	14
8310-8350	40	8310-8350	14
8410-8450	40	8410-8450	14
8510-8550	40	8510-8550	14
8610-8650	40	8610-8650	14
8710-8750	40	8710-8750	14
8810-8850	40	8810-8850	14
8910-8950	40	8910-8950	14
9010-9050	40	9010-9050	14
9110-9150	40	9110-9150	14
9210-9250	40	9210-9250	14
9310-9350	40	9310-9350	14
9410-9450	40	9410-9450	14
9510-9550	40	9510-9550	14
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9810-9850	40	9810-9850	14
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10110-10150	40	10110-10150	14
10210-10250	40	10210-10250	14
10310-10350	40	10310-10350	14
10410-10450	40	10410-10450	14
10510-10550	40	10510-10550	14
10610-10650	40	10610-10650	14
10710-10750	40	10710-10750	14
10810-10850	40	10810-10850	14
10910-10950	40	10910-10950	14
11010-11050	40	11010-11050	14
11110-11150	40	11110-11150	14
11210-11250	40	11210-11250	14
11310-11350	40	11310-11350	14
11410-11450	40	11410-11450	14
11510-11550	40	11510-11550	14
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11810-11850	40	11810-11850	14
11910-11950	40	11910-11950	14
12010-12050	40	12010-12050	14
12110-12150	40	12110-12150	14
12210-12250	40	12210-12250	14
12310-12350	40	12310-12350	14
12410-12450	40	12410-12450	14
12510-12550	40	12510-12550	14
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12710-12750	40	12710-12750	14
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12910-12950	40	12910-12950	14
13010-13050	40	13010-13050	14
13110-13150	40	13110-13150	14
13210-13250	40	13210-13250	14
13310-13350	40	13310-13350	14
13410-13450	40	13410-13450	14
13510-13550	40	13510-13550	14
13610-13650	40	13610-13650	14
13710-13750	40	13710-13750	14
13810-13850	40	13810-13850	14
13910-13950	40	13910-13950	14
14010-14050	40	14010-14050	14
14110-14150	40	14110-14150	14
14210-14250	40	14210-14250	14
14310-14350	40	14310-14350	14
14410-14450	40	14410-14450	14
14510-14550	40	14510-14550	14
14610-14650	40	14610-14650	14
14710-14750	40	14710-14750	14
14810-14850	40	14810-14850	14
14910-14950	40	14910-14950	14
15010-15050	40	15010-15050	14
15110-15150	40	15110-15150	14
15210-15250	40	15210-15250	14
15310-15350	40	15310-15350	14
15410-15450	40	15410-15450	14
15510-15550	40	15510-15550	14
15610-15650	40	15610-15650	14
15710-15750	40	15710-15750	14
15810-15850	40	15810-15850	14
15910-15950	40	15910-15950	14
16010-16050	40	16010-16050	14
16110-16150	40	16110-16150	14
16210-16250	40	16210-16250	14
16310-16350	40	16310-16350	14
16410-16450	40	16410-16450	14
16510-16550	40	16510-16550	14
16610-16650	40	16610-16650	14
16710-16750	40	16710-16750	14
16810-16850	40	16810-16850	14
16910-16950	40	16910-16950	14
17010-17050	40	17010-17050	14
17110-17150	40	17110-17150	14
17210-17250	40	17210-17250	14
17310-17350	40	17310-17350	14
17410-17450	40	17410-17450	14
17510-17550	40	17510-17550	14
17610-17650	40	17610-17650	14
17710-17750	40	17710-17750	14
17810-17850	40	17810-17850	14
17910-17950	40	17910-17950	14
18010-18050	40	18010-18050	14
18110-18150	40	18110-18150	14
18210-18250	40	18210-18250	14
18310-18350	40	18310-18350	14
18410-18450	40	18410-18450	14
18510-18550	40	18510-18550	14
18610-18650	40	18610-18650	14
18710-18750	40	18710-18750	14
18810-18850	40	18810-18850	14
18910-18950	40	18910-18950	14
19010-19050	40	19010-19050	14
19110-19150	40	19110-19150	14
19210-19250	40	19210-19250	14
19310-19350	40	19310-19350	14
19410-19450	40	19410-19450	14
19510-19550	40	19510-19550	14
19610-19650	40	19610-19650	14
19710-19750	40	19710-19750	14
19810-19850	40	19810-19850	14
19910-19950	40	19910-19950	14
20010-20050	40	20010-20050	14
20110-20150	40	20110-20150	14
20210-20250	40	20210-20250	14
20310-20350	40	20310-20350	14
20410-20450	40	20410-20450	14
20510-20550	40	20510-20550	14
20610-20650	40	20610-20650	14
20710-20750	40	20710-20750	14
20810-20850	40	20810-20850	14
20910-20950	40	20910-20950	14
21010-21050	40	21010-21050	14
21110-21150	40	21110-21150	14
21210-21250	40	21210-21250	14
21310-21350	40	21310-21350	14
21410-21450	40	21410-21450	14
21510-21550	40	21510-21550	14
21610-21650	40	21610-21650	14
21710-21750	40	21710-21750	14
21810-21850	40	21810-21850	14
21910-21950	40	21910-21950	14
22010-22050	40	22010-22050	14
22110-22150	40	22110-22150	14
22210-22250	40	22210-22250	14
22310-22350	40	22310-22350	14
22410-22450	40	22410-22450	14
22510-22550	40	22510-22550	14
22610-22650	40	22610-22650	14
22710-22750	40	22710-22750	14
22810-22850	40	22810-22850	14
22910-22950	40	22910-22950	14
23010-23050	40	23010-23050	14
23110-23150	40	23110-23150	14
23210-23250	40	23210-23250	14
23310-23350	40	23310-23350	14
23410-23450	40	23410-23450	14
23510-23550	40	23510-23550	14
23610-23650	40	23610-23650	14
23710-23750	40	23710-23750	14
23810-23850	40	23810-23850	14
23910-23950	40	23910-23950	14
24010-24050	40	24010-24050	14
24110-24150	40	24110-24150	14
24210-24250	40	24210-24250	14
24310-24350	40	24310-24350	14
24410-24450	40	24410-24450	14
24510-24550	40	24510-24550	14
24610-24650	40	24610-24650	14
24710-24750	40	24710-24750	14
24810-24850	40	24810-24850	14
24910-24950	40	24910-24950	14
25010-25050	40	25010-25050	14

WELL 14-20-60-12WS 28 ELONGATIONS 24 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	28 ELONGATIONS	24 BREAKOUTS
7425-7429	3	7425-7429	4
7433-7438	5	7433-7438	2
7443-7447	4	7443-7447	1
7453-7457	4	7453-7457	1
7463-7467	4	7463-7467	1
7473-7477	4	7473-7477	1
7483-7487	4	7483-7487	1
7493-7497	4	7493-7497	1
7503-7507	4	7503-7507	1
7513-7517	4	7513-7517	1
7523-7527	4	7523-7527	1
7533-7537	4	7533-7537	1
7543-7547	4	7543-7547	1
7553-7557	4	7553-7557	1
7563-7567	4	7563-7567	1
7573-7577	4	7573-7577	1
7583-7587	4	7583-7587	1
7593-7597	4	7593-7597	1
7603-7607	4	7603-7607	1
7613-7617	4	7613-7617	1
7623-7627	4	7623-7627	1
7633-7637	4	7633-7637	1
7643-7647	4	7643-7647	1
7653-7657	4	7653-7657	1
7663-7667	4	7663-7667	1
7673-7677	4	7673-7677	1
7683-7687	4	7683-7687	1
7693-7697	4	7693-7697	1
7703-7707	4	7703-7707	1
7713-7717	4	7713-7717	1
7723-7727	4	7723-7727	1
7733-7737	4	7733-7737	1
7743-7747	4	7743-7747	1
7753-7757	4	7753-7757	1
7763-7767	4	7763-7767	1
7773-7777	4	7773-7777	1
7783-7787	4	7783-7787	1
7793-7797	4	7793-7797	1
7803-7807	4	7803-7807	1
7813-7817	4	7813-7817	1
7823-7827	4	7823-7827	1
7833-7837	4	7833-7837	1
7843-7847	4	7843-7847	1
7853-7857	4	7853-7857	1
7863-7867	4	7863-7867	1
7873-7877	4	7873-7877	1
7883-7887	4	7883-7887	1
7893-7897	4	7893-7897	1
7903-7907	4	7903-7907	1
7913-7917	4	7913-7917	1

WELL 3-32-67-13WS 26 ELONGATIONS 23 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	26 ELONGATIONS	23 BREAKOUTS	STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION
8578-8588	8578-8587	20	8	106.4 MISSISSIPPIAN 8522
8589-8723	8519-8733	114	58	PEKISKO / SANFF
8724-8833	8735-8745	14	8	125.0 MISS / SANFF
8834-8871	8803-8827	36	22	119.3 MISS / SANFF
8872-8889	8849-8867	24	10	124.8 MISS / WABAMUN
8890-8926	8845-8904	22	18	125.0 U. DEVONIAN 10180
8927-9031	10181-10283	82	78	131.0 U. DEV.
9032-9078	10284-10293	12	3	142.4 U. DEV.
9079-9219	10381-10388	12	8	141.2 U. DEV.
9220-9311	10501-10527	50	26	151.3 U. DEV.
9312-9481	10557-10586	58	78	157.8 U. DEV.
9482-9572	10668-10683	28	14	139.0 U. DEV.
9573-9629	10715-10725	14	6	128.3 U. DEV.
9630-9771	10747-10781	6	4	128.3 U. DEV.
9772-9883	10787-10797	10	2	153.0 U. DEV.
9884-10001	10791-10795	10	2	128.3 U. DEV.
10002-10078	10801-10813	10	2	128.3 U. DEV.
10079-10155	10851-10853	10	2	128.3 U. DEV.
10156-10191	10855-10863	35	25	122.4 U. DEV.
10192-10227	10973-11011	38	20	122.3 U. DEV.
10228-10263	11135-11138	22	11	140.2 U. DEV.
10264-10351	11171-11185	4	2	143.0 U. DEV.
10352-10387	11211-11225	4	2	138.0 U. DEV.
10388-10473	11493-11493	13	13	PROD. ZONE NISKU
10474-10519		4	2	132.3 U. DEVONIAN 9388
10520-10565		4	2	134.0 U. DEV.
10566-10611		170	50	125.7 U. DEV.
10612-10657		14	3	127.4 U. DEV.
10658-10703		22	8	132.0 U. DEV.
10704-10749		14	6	141.0 U. DEV.
10750-10795		14	6	142.0 U. DEV.
10796-10841		18	14	123.1 U. DEV.
10842-10887		16	6	123.3 U. DEV.
10888-10933		18	10	123.3 U. DEV.
10934-10979		18	10	137.1 U. DEV.
10980-10981		8	2	151.0 U. DEV.
10982-10983		8	2	144.6 U. DEV.
10984-10985		10	3	PROD. ZONE SHUNDA#8888 (MISS.)
10986-10987		10	3	152.4 U. DEV.

WELL 6-30-43-12WS 13 ELONGATIONS 12 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATION ENDS	13 ELONGATIONS	12 BREAKOUTS	STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION
10083-10087	10055-10061	6	WABAMUN
10088-10092	10095-10099	4	BLUERIDGE
10093-10097	10128-10131	3	BLUERIDGE/NISKU
10098-10102	10245-10253	10	NISKU
10103-10107	10275-10283	10	NISKU
10108-10112	10285-10293	8	IRETON
10113-10117	10317-10325	16	IRETON
10118-10122	10347-10377	3	IRETON
10123-10127	10381-10389	9	IRETON
10128-10132	10395-10399	5	IRETON
10133-10137	10405-10409	5	IRETON
10138-10142	10417-10425	8	IRETON
10143-10147	10431-10439	9	IRETON
10148-10152	10445-10453	9	IRETON
10153-10157	10469-10477	9	IRETON
10158-10162	10481-10489	9	IRETON
10163-10167	10495-10503	9	IRETON
10168-10172	10517-10525	8	IRETON
10173-10177	10531-10539	9	IRETON
10178-10182	10553-10561	9	IRETON
10183-10187	10575-10583	9	IRETON
10188-10192	10597-10605	9	IRETON
10193-10197	10619-10627	9	IRETON
10198-10202	10641-10649	9	IRETON
10203-10207	10655-10663	9	IRETON
10208-10212	10679-10687	9	IRETON
10213-10217	10693-10701	9	IRETON
10218-10222	10717-10725	9	IRETON
10223-10227	10731-10739	9	IRETON
10228-10232	10753-10761	9	IRETON
10233-10237	10767-10775	9	IRETON
10238-10242	10781-10789	9	IRETON
10243-10247	10795-10803	9	IRETON
10248-10252	10819-10827	9	IRETON
10253-10257	10841-10849	9	IRETON
10258-10262	10855-10863	9	IRETON
10263-10267	10879-10887	9	IRETON
10268-10272	10903-10911	9	IRETON
10273-10277	10917-10925	9	IRETON
10278-10282	10931-10939	9	IRETON
10283-10287	10945-10953	9	IRETON
10288-10292	10959-10967	9	IRETON
10293-10297	10973-10981	9	IRETON
10298-10302	10987-10995	9	IRETON
10303-10307	10999-10007	9	IRETON
10308-10312	11013-11021	9	IRETON
10313-10317	11025-11033	9	IRETON
10318-10322	11037-11045	9	IRETON
10323-10327	11051-11059	9	IRETON
10328-10332	11065-11073	9	IRETON
10333-10337	11077-11085	9	IRETON
10338-10342	11089-11097	9	IRETON
10343-10347	11101-11109	9	IRETON
10348-10352	11113-11121	9	IRETON
10353-10357	11125-11133	9	IRETON
10358-10362	11137-11145	9	IRETON
10363-10367	11149-11157	9	IRETON
10368-10372	11161-11169	9	IRETON
10373-10377	11173-11181	9	IRETON
10378-10382	11185-11193	9	IRETON
10383-10387	11197-11205	9	IRETON
10388-10392	11209-11217	9	IRETON
10393-10397	11221-11229	9	IRETON
10398-10402	11233-11241	9	IRETON
10403-10407	11245-11253	9	IRETON
10408-10412	11257-11265	9	IRETON
10413-10417	11269-11277	9	IRETON
10418-10422	11281-11289	9	IRETON
10423-10427	11293-11301	9	IRETON
10428-10432	11305-11313	9	IRETON
10433-10437	11317-11325	9	IRETON
10438-10442	11329-11337	9	IRETON
10443-10447	11341-11349	9	IRETON
10448-10452	11353-11361	9	IRETON
10453-10457	11365-11373	9	IRETON
10458-10462	11377-11385	9	IRETON
10463-10467	11389-11397	9	IRETON
10468-10472	11393-11401	9	IRETON
10473-10477	11405-11413	9	IRETON
10478-10482	11417-11425	9	IRETON
10483-10487	11429-11437	9	IRETON
10488-10492	11441-11449	9	IRETON
10493-10497	11453-11461	9	IRETON
10498-10502	11465-11473	9	IRETON
10503-10507	11477-11485	9	IRETON
10508-10512	11489-11497	9	IRETON
10513-10517	11493-11501	9	IRETON
10518-10522	11505-11513	9	IRETON
10523-10527	11517-11525	9	IRETON
10528-10532	11529-11537	9	IRETON
10533-10537	11541-11549	9	IRETON
10538-10542	11553-11561	9	IRETON
10543-10547	11565-11573	9	IRETON
10548-10552	11577-11585	9	IRETON
10553-10557	11589-11597	9	IRETON
10558-10562	11593-11601	9	IRETON
10563-10567	11605-11613	9	IRETON
10568-10572	11617-11625	9	IRETON
10573-10577	11629-11637	9	IRETON
10578-10582	11641-11649	9	IRETON
10583-10587	11653-11661	9	IRETON
10588-10592	11665-11673	9	IRETON
10593-10597	11677-11685	9	IRETON
10598-10602	11689-11697	9	IRETON
10603-10607	11693-11701	9	IRETON
10608-10612	11705-11713	9	IRETON
10613-10617	11717-11725	9	IRETON
10618-10622	11729-11737	9	IRETON
10623-10627	11741-11749	9	IRETON
10628-10632	11753-11761	9	IRETON
10633-10637	11765-11773	9	IRETON
10638-10642	11777-11785	9	IRETON
10643-10647	11789-11797	9	IRETON
10648-10652	11793-11801	9	IRETON
10653-10657	11805-11813	9	IRETON
10658-10662	11817-11825	9	IRETON
10663-10667	11829-11837	9	IRETON
10668-10672	11841-11849	9	IRETON
10673-10677	11853-11861	9	IRETON
10678-10682	11865-11873	9	IRETON
10683-10687	11877-11885	9	IRETON
10688-10692	11889-11897	9	IRETON
10693-10697	11893-11901	9	IRETON
10698-10702	11905-11913	9	IRETON
10703-10707	11917-11925	9	IRETON
10708-10712	11929-11937	9	IRETON
10713-10717	11941-11949	9	IRETON
10718-10722	11953-11961	9	IRETON
10723-10727	11965-11973	9	IRETON
10728-10732	11977-11985	9	IRETON
10733-10737	11989-11997	9	IRETON
10738-10742	11993-12001	9	IRETON
10743-10747	12005-12013	9	IRETON
10748-10752	12017-12025	9	IRETON
10753-10757	12029-12037	9	IRETON
10758-10762	12041-12049	9	IRETON
10763-10767	12053-12061	9	IRETON
10768-10772	12065-12073	9	IRETON
10773-10777	12077-12085	9	IRETON
10778-10782	12089-12097	9	IRETON
10783-10787	12101-12109	9	IRETON
10788-10792	12113-12121	9	IRETON
10793-10797	12125-12133	9	IRETON
10798-10802	12137-12145	9	IRETON
10803-10807	12149-12157	9	IRETON
10808-10812	12161-12169	9	IRETON
10813-10817	12173-12181	9	IRETON
10818-10822	12185-12193	9	IRETON
10823-10827	12197-12205	9	IRETON
10828-10832	12209-12217	9	IRETON
10833-10837	12221-12229	9	IRETON
10838-10842	12233-12241	9	IRETON
10843-10847	12245-12253	9	IRETON
10848-10852	12257-12265	9	IRETON
10853-10857	12269-12277	9	IRETON
10858-10862	12281-12289	9	IRETON
10863-10867	12293-12301	9	IRETON
10868-10872	12305-12313	9	IRETON
10873-10877	12317-12325	9	IRETON
10878-10882	12329-12337	9	IRETON
10883-10887	12341-12349	9	IRETON
10888-10892	12353-12361	9	IRETON
10893-10897	12365-12373	9	IRETON
10898-10902	12377-12385	9	IRETON
10903-10907	12389-12397	9	IRETON
10908-10912	12393-12401	9	IRETON
10913-10917	12405-12413	9	IRETON
10918-10922	12417-12425	9	IRETON
10923-10927	12429-12437		

WELL 10-27-45-19WS				20 ELONGATIONS				14 BREAKOUTS				STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION					
ELONGATED INTERVALS		BREAKOUT INTERVALS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS		STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION	
12918-13203	354	12923-12986	106	57	141	1 MISSISSIPPI	12109	PEKISKO	12109	57	141	1 MISSISSIPPI	12109	PEKISKO	12109	57	141
13203-13266	138	12986-12611	45	24	150	2 MISSISSIPPI	12270	BANFF	12270	24	150	2 MISSISSIPPI	12270	BANFF	12270	24	150
13266-13300	71	12789-13489	314	157	137	0 MISS/U DEV	12777/12787	BANFF/EKSHAW/WASAMUN	12777/12787	157	137	0 MISS/U DEV	12777/12787	BANFF/EKSHAW/WASAMUN	12777/12787	157	137
13300-13368	364	13501-13816	354	106	131	0 DEVONIAN	13502	MISKU	13502	106	131	0 DEVONIAN	13502	MISKU	13502	106	131
13368-14131	218	13885-14095	210	71	132	8 U DEV	14008	MISKU/IRETON	14008	71	132	8 U DEV	14008	MISKU/IRETON	14008	71	132
14131-14151	22	14151-14145	14	47	130	4 U DEV		IRETON		47	130	4 U DEV		IRETON		47	130
14151-14247	94	14153-14247	94	10	132	4 U DEV		IRETON		10	132	4 U DEV		IRETON		10	132
14247-14285	37	14375-14295	20	10	135	0 U DEV		IRETON		10	135	0 U DEV		IRETON		10	135
14301-14341	39	14313-14335	28	13	135	0 U DEV		IRETON		13	135	0 U DEV		IRETON		13	135
14350-14431	32	14389-14423	24	14	151	7 U DEV		DUVERNAY		14	151	7 U DEV		DUVERNAY		14	151
14555-14658	10	14658-14858	10	5	143	0 U DEV		14655		5	143	0 U DEV		14655		5	143
14725-14841	112	14737-14835	60	33	133	2 U DEV		14858/14708	DUV./B H L	33	133	2 U DEV		14858/14708	DUV./B H L	33	133
14858-14901	42	14867-14889	4	44	143	0 U DEV		14785	BEAVERHILL LAKE	44	143	0 U DEV		14785	BEAVERHILL LAKE	44	143
15101-15407	306	15107-15399	88	44	138	8 U DEV		15162	B H L / SWAN HILLS	44	138	8 U DEV		15162	B H L / SWAN HILLS	44	138
ELONGATION ENDS 15407;CAMBRIAN; TOTAL DEPTH 15448;CAMBRIAN=15245				20 BREAKOUTS				14 BREAKOUTS				STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION					

WELL 13-9-52-SWS				36 ELONGATIONS				20 BREAKOUTS			
ELONGATED INTERVALS		BREAKOUT INTERVALS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS	
1526-1594	68	1540-1584	24	14	139	2	14	139	2	14	
1612-1820	8	1612-1820	8	3	184	7	3	184	7	3	
1828-2294	68	1628-2294	432	104	145	9	104	145	9	104	
2398-2435	37	2458-2424	3	1	129	3	1	129	3	1	
2440-2482	22	2458-2452	3	1	132	3	1	132	3	1	
2482-2520	35	2454-2456	12	1	132	2	1	132	2	1	
2524-2900	145	2770-2900	122	25	138	2	25	138	2	25	
2900-2982	145	2900-2970	12	25	128	2	25	128	2	25	
2982-3120	180	2982-3084	44	22	128	2	22	128	2	22	
3142-3200	180	3412-3484	23	27	45	1	27	45	1	27	
3200-3498	202	3412-3484	70	24	175	7	24	175	7	24	
3568-3641	72	3816-3832	16	16	134	1	16	134	1	16	
3700-4376	676	3730-4342	484	110	135	5	110	135	5	110	
4376-4564	192	4376-4564	90	24	130	6	24	130	6	24	
4562-4876	24	4860-4872	12	6	130	7	6	130	7	6	
4880-5012	32	4888-4884	6	3	130	7	3	130	7	3	
5015-7042	227	7030-7042	12	4	128	8	4	128	8	4	
7082-7122	50	7088-7130	38	13	124	6	13	124	6	13	
7138-7194	58	7154-7194	40	10	135	6	10	135	6	10	
ELONGATION ENDS 7194; D-1; TOTAL DEPTH 8100; IRETON=7998; (U DEV)				8 BREAKOUTS				11 ELONGATIONS			

WELL 8-28-51-SWS W				11 ELONGATIONS				8 BREAKOUTS			
ELONGATED INTERVALS		BREAKOUT INTERVALS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS	
2242-2255	13	2247-2248	2	2	145	0	2	145	0	2	
2256-2259	3	2256-2258	2	2	139	0	2	139	0	2	
2257-2280	3	2287-2289	2	2	131	0	2	131	0	2	
2285-2303	7	2398-2300	4	4	127	0	4	127	0	4	
2303-2350	7	2348-2348	5	5	128	0	5	128	0	5	
2431-2440	9	2431-2438	8	8	140	0	8	140	0	8	
2442-2448	3	2442-2444	2	2	118	0	2	118	0	2	
2448-2452	8	2448-2448	8	2	140	8	2	140	8	2	
ELONGATION ENDS 2451; S. BLUERIDGE; TOTAL DEPTH 2654M; IRETON=2584M				8 BREAKOUTS				11 ELONGATIONS			

WELL 8-20-50-18WS				46 ELONGATIONS				41 BREAKOUTS			
ELONGATED INTERVALS		BREAKOUT INTERVALS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS		ELONGATIONS		BREAKOUTS	
9149-9181	12	9151-9158	8	4	143	0	4	143	0	4	
9187-9191	4	9189-9191	2	1	134	8	1	134	8	1	
9192-9194	6	9192-9194	4	3	143	0	3	143	0	3	
9196-9198	4	9196-9198	4	5	140	3	4	140	3	4	
9201-9205	4	9201-9205	4	3	137	0	3	137	0	3	
9208-9233	4	9229-9233	4	4	120	8	4	120	8	4	
9237-9253	16	9257-9253	16	8	120	9	8	120	9	8	
9257-9281	24	9287-9281	24	12	120	0	12	120	0	12	
9287-9381	44	9287-9381	84	43	124	0	43	124	0	43	
9411-9417	6	9411-9413	2	1	124	0	1	124	0	1	
ELONGATION ENDS 9417				41 BREAKOUTS				11 ELONGATIONS			

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ELONGATED INTERVALS		BREAKOUT		INTERVALS		STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION	
8520-8730	110	8575-8585	10	5	172.5	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SS
8520-8730	0	8585-8585	10	5	82.8	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SS
8741-8825	84	8745-8845	38	20	151.7	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
8825-8950	25	8825-8845	6	3	157.6	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SILT/SS
8950-8950	16	8951-8951	6	3	142.6	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
8951-8975	24	8951-8951	6	3	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
8975-9011	36	9001-7009	8	5	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9011-9128	170	7045-7187	52	31	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9128-9188	63	7238-7278	34	19	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9188-9240	53	7318-7658	126	63	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9240-9312	281	7703-7707	4	30	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9312-9445	132	7717-7808	56	30	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9445-9475	38	7847-7875	24	15	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9475-9502	28	7883-7888	5	4	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	64	7938-7978	40	21	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	40	8011-8031	12	8	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	82	8128-8138	10	6	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	354	8151-8511	114	52	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	204	8723-8753	30	15	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	248	8773-8783	10	5	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	78	8833-8933	18	9	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	12	8951-8951	2	1	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	61	8951-8951	22	12	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	200	9011-1051	54	24	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	277	10288-10488	48	23	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	208	10581-1087	6	4	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	0	10858-10858	16	8	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	0	11048-11058	10	5	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	47	11423-11135	12	7	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	341	12058-12023	16	7	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	287	12513-12783	126	58	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	55	12808-12823	16	8	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	286	13119-13423	102	54	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	46	13475-13488	4	4	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	23	13725-13729	4	2	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	8	13841-13845	4	2	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	13	13877-13878	5	3	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	72	14093-14101	8	4	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	1238	14155-14233	32	17	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	20	14528-14539	59	28	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	13	15523-15523	4	2	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	13	15523-15523	4	2	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	318	15828-15835	6	2	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	149	16851-17097	72	37	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	7	17262-17262	30	12	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	67	17375-17382	16	8	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	13	17422-17422	4	2	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	164	17472-17485	20	10	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	39	17861-17861	36	18	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	800	17861-17893	316	113	144.2	U. CRETACEOUS 7140	SM/SILT/SS
9502-9502	482	7589-7806	124	55	153.4	PROD. ZONE MISKU=8148	SS
9502-9502	118	TOTAL DEPTH 5643	5643	2821	153.4	PROD. ZONE MISKU=8148	SS
9502-9502	118	5216-5332	110	55	57.5	PROD. ZONE MISKU=8148	SS
9502-9502	51	5354-5382	30	15	174.3	PROD. ZONE MISKU=8148	SS
9502-9502	30	5546-5564	20	10	121.6	PROD. ZONE MISKU=8148	SS

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STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION

WELL 7-15RM-109-7WS 12 ELONGATIONS 9 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	12 ELONGATIONS	9 BREAKOUTS
4912-4922	4912-4920	10	18.5
5040-5074	5044-5072	30	172.0
5018-5062	5022-5052	40	20
5604-5614	5604-5612	10	12.6
5628-5638	5628-5638	10	11.2
5740-5750	5740-5748	10	27.8
5780-5790	5780-5788	10	13.4
5800-5810	5800-5808	10	28.7
5850-5866	5854-5872	10	35.4

WELL 10-17RM-110-8WS 11 ELONGATIONS 5 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	11 ELONGATIONS	5 BREAKOUTS
4140-4288	4142-4280	140	41.7
4290-4358	4298-4358	50	88.0
4368-4410	4378-4402	100	58.0
4422-4484	4428-4484	30	184.0

WELL 2-20-81-9WS 7 ELONGATIONS 5 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	7 ELONGATIONS	5 BREAKOUTS
4084-4210	4084-4182	110	55
4224-4288	4224-4252	40	118.8
4298-4374	4298-4374	110	35
4414-4584	4484-4582	80	30

WELL 4-15-81-9WS 7 ELONGATIONS 3 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	7 ELONGATIONS	3 BREAKOUTS
4108-4882	4812-4870	20	10
5054-5098	5058-5074	20	10
5122-5208	5140-5168	30	15

WELL 5-3-81-9WS 20 ELONGATIONS 5 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	20 ELONGATIONS	5 BREAKOUTS
3318-3348	3320-3338	20	10
4082-4172	4082-4150	30	42
4208-4218	4208-4218	100	18.0
4260-4318	4260-4318	40	88.4
5278-5472	5278-5456	40	87.5
5478-5510	5448-5486	10	34.1
5530-5800	5530-5878	50	92.8
5828-5884	5828-5848	20	82.7

WELL 4-20-81-9WS 28 ELONGATIONS 17 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	28 ELONGATIONS	17 BREAKOUTS
884-1022	788-884	200	100
1094-1116	1094-1112	20	142.8
1128-1150	1128-1144	20	18.5
1232-1242	1244-1242	40	132.0
1310-1628	1350-1602	280	121.8
1822-1834	1822-1820	10	118.0
4144-4184	4144-4182	10	114.2
4188-4188	4188-4184	10	120.7
4270-4298	4270-4278	20	114.7
4308-4350	4308-4338	130	102.7
4468-4508	4448-4504	20	117.8
4738-4758	4738-4758	20	128.0
4878-4882	4878-4882	10	70.8
5822-5808	5822-5800	120	121.4
5808-5808	5808-5808	20	148.4
		30	182.7

WELL 16-9-118-8WS 27 ELONGATIONS 4 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	27 ELONGATIONS	4 BREAKOUTS
842-1044	884-1042	50	25
1124-1450	1408-1454	40	20
2250-2288	2280-2278	20	10
2588-2608	2572-2608	30	15

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STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION

WELL 2-36-116-SWS 10 ELONGATIONS 4 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS BREAKOUT INTERVALS

4884-4894	50	4884-4892	40	20	142.3
4894-4904	50	4894-4892	10	5	60.1
4904-4914	70	4914-4912	50	25	148.4
4914-4924	72	4922-4924	40	20	188.1

WELL 9-16-116-SWS 4 ELONGATIONS 3 BREAKOUTS

5164-5228	122	5178-5220	90	45	128.2
5228-5311	30	5311-5374	20	10	133.0
5311-5448	22	5448-5468	20	10	128.2

WELL 10-9-81-SWS 11 ELONGATIONS 1 BREAKOUT

5540-5608	43	5550-5598	40	20	123.4
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WELL 3-21-112-SWS 6 ELONGATIONS 2 BREAKOUTS

4384-4414	20	4388-4412	20	15	150.0
4414-4464	14	4468-4882	10	5	159.0

WELL 14-21-81-SWS 14 ELONGATIONS 1 BREAKOUT

5680-5820	140	5680-5782	80	40	120.8
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WELL 3-1-118-SWS 18 ELONGATIONS 4 BREAKOUTS

824-1300	876	1540-1578	40	20	155.0
4700-4782	82	4700-4768	70	38	132.1
5188-5280	124	5188-5214	30	15	54.7
5728-5782	24	5728-5746	20	10	148.7

WELL 13-35-112-10WS 22 ELONGATIONS 13 BREAKOUTS

4400-4840	240	4522-4550	40	20	85.0
4858-4868	10	4858-4866	10	5	144.9
4844-4884	40	4844-4872	30	15	154.7
4880-5036	54	5018-5034	20	10	117.7
5088-5148	56	5088-5136	50	25	164.2
5190-5300	110	5208-5264	50	30	130.6
5318-5384	48	5318-5358	40	20	184.4
5372-5384	14	5372-5380	10	5	188.8
5322-5342	18	5322-5340	10	5	155.5
5890-5900	10	5890-5900	10	5	178.5
5980-5722	42	5980-5712	40	20	182.0
5780-5774	24	5750-5766	20	10	128.2
5888-5912	26	5888-5904	20	10	145.2

WELL 12-33-116-SWS 38 ELONGATIONS 5 BREAKOUTS

790-984	164	802-850	50	25	139.2
4284-4288	22	4288-4278	10	5	44.4
4374-4384	14	4374-4368	10	5	121.7
4500-4820	20	4500-4518	20	10	139.3
4820-4830	10	4820-4824	10	5	18.5
4728-4788	58	4780-4784	40	20	56.0
4858-4884	12	4858-4884	10	5	148.8
3950-5020	70	4950-4978	30	15	144.3

WELL 12-33-114-SWS 1 ELONGATIONS 1 BREAKOUT

4770-4870	140	4770-4805	120	60	119.8
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DOL/LST

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WELL 14-26-115-6W6			3 BREAKOUTS			STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION		
ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS							
4408-4418	10	4408-4416	10	5	96.3			
4750-4770	20	4750-4758	10	8	81.5			
4788-4882	94	4788-4854	66	30	28.0			
WELL 3-11-121-7W6			2 BREAKOUTS					
4850-4872	12	4850-4858	10	5	161.2			
5304-5350	46	5304-5322	20	10	158.0			
WELL 12-24-82-6W6			10 BREAKOUTS					
4864-4908	44	4864-4882	20	10	60.1	MISSISSIPPI	4812	DEBOLT
4912-5024	112	4918-5026	110	48	78.4	MISS		DEBOLT
5038-5150	112	5048-5134	40	20	118.5	MISS		DEBOLT
5268-5286	40	5288-5294	20	10	114.0	MISS		DEBOLT
5312-5342	30	5318-5324	20	10	178.5	MISS		DEBOLT/ELKTON
5382-5370	208	5378-5384	100	50	114.8	MISS	/5518	SHUNDA
5670-5700	30	5676-7682	30	15	102.6	MISS	5643	SHUNDA
5700-5734	34	5706-5728	30	15	100.0	MISS	/5174	SHUNDA
5788-5830	42	5780-5812	30	15	110.2	MISS	/5174	SHUNDA
5830-5846	16	5838-5846	80	45	108.5	MISS	58174	SHUNDA
ELONGATION ENDS 6888, WABAMUM (DEVONIAN)=5838, TOTAL DEPTH 7085, PRECAMBRIAN=8888 DEB.								
WELL 11-29-82-5W6			18 BREAKOUTS					
4300-4320	20	4300-4308	20	10	86.5	TRIASSIC	3830	TOAD GRAYLING
4334-4374	40	4350-4368	10	10	107.3	TRI/PENSIAN	4367	TOAD GRAYLING/BELLOY
4448-4458	10	4448-4454	10	5	104.5	PERMIAN	4367	BELLOY
4822-4842	14	4822-4836	10	10	104.5	PERMIAN	4367	BELLOY
4880-4904	24	4880-4888	20	10	83.8	MISSISSIPPI	4774	DEBOLT
5002-5056	54	5002-5050	50	25	78.8	MISS		DEBOLT
5082-5110	50	5082-5110	20	10	114.7	MISS		DEBOLT
5400-5448	48	5408-5438	30	15	114.7	MISS	/5488	DEBOLT/ELKTON
5482-5528	46	5482-5520	40	20	120.0	MISS	5517	SHUNDA
5724-5758	34	5724-5752	30	15	117.3	MISS	5940	SHUNDA
5888-5930	42	5888-5928	20	10	126.8	MISS		PEKISKO
6010-6040	30	6010-6028	20	10	101.4	MISS	/6181	PEKISKO
6042-6082	40	6042-6078	40	20	128.0	MISS	6181	PEKISKO
6160-6212	52	6160-6204	50	20	106.3	MISS		PEKISKO
6248-6310	62	6248-6308	30	15	116.8	MISS		PEKISKO
6388-6410	22	6390-6430	10	5	106.0	MISS		PEKISKO
6412-6484	72	6458-6546	80	40	106.0	MISS		PEKISKO
6558-6584	26							PEKISKO
ELONGATION ENDS 7088 WABAMUM (DEVONIAN)=6880, TOTAL DEPTH 7315, PRECAMBRIAN=7283, PRDD. ZONE WABAMUM/BANFF/DEBOLT.								
WELL 15-29-115-3W6			12 BREAKOUTS					
1890-1848	54	1894-1822	20	10	121.0			
1922-1970	54	1920-1818	40	20	157.0			
1972-1990	54	1972-1880	50	25	186.3			
1992-2082	36	1992-1950	30	15	178.2			
2084-2084	36	1990-2058	40	20	178.2			
2080-2138	114	2080-2178	90	45	5.3			
2240-2384	114	2242-2330	50	25	4.0			
3310-3800	190	3310-3498	130	65	14.8			
3800-3800	100	3800-3888	100	50	117.6			
3882-3716	24	3888-3714	20	10	120.8			
3810-3840	30	3814-3822	10	5	157.5			
4214-4230	16	4218-4226	10	5				
WELL 8-28-115-4W6			3 BREAKOUTS					
4420-4472	52	4420-4462	30	15	157.5	DEVONIAN	4282	MUSKEG
4508-4534	26	4510-4518	10	5	162.5	DEVONIAN		MUSKEG
4822-4884	28	4824-4862	20	10	144.5	DEVONIAN		MUSKEG
ELONGATION ENDS 4778, MUSKEG RIVER (DEVONIAN)=5164, TOTAL DEPTH 5210								
LOWER ELK POINT (DEVONIAN)=5164								

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WELL 5-5-35-11WS  
33 ELONGATIONS  
12 BREAKOUTS  
STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	33 ELONGATIONS	12 BREAKOUTS	STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION	
14835-14854	18	14841-14849	10	5	47.2
14852-14874	12	14872-14871	10	5	31.3
14874-14888	20	14877-14885	10	5	24.9
14844-14876	20	14888-14888	10	5	122.5
14702-14784	25	14703-14778	60	30	187.3
14850-14884	17	14853-14881	110	55	145.1
14824-15004	20	14832-15001	10	5	80.4
15086-15108	22	15088-15097	10	5	122.7
15240-15260	15	15241-15258	150	75	178.5
15280-15300	504	15281-15283	440	220	178.8
15306-15328	148	15307-15311	100	50	187.5
15328-15348	86	15329-15333	20	10	187.5

WELL 7-7-86-1WS

30 ELONGATIONS	4 BREAKOUTS	STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION
5578-5590	20	MISSISSIPPI 4866
5608-5617	20	MISSISSIPPI 4866
5608-5617	20	MISSISSIPPI 4866
5608-5617	20	MISSISSIPPI 4866
5608-5617	20	MISSISSIPPI 4866
5608-5617	20	MISSISSIPPI 4866

Elongation ends 6824 IRETION; TOTAL DEPTH 7214 PRECAMBRIAN\*7183.0&A

WELL 9-18-83-6WS

12 ELONGATIONS	10 BREAKOUTS	STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION
5128-5138	10	125.8 MISSISSIPPI 4866
5146-5134	10	142.3 MISSISSIPPI 4866
5146-5134	10	103.1 MISSISSIPPI 4866
5146-5134	10	103.1 MISSISSIPPI 4866
5146-5134	10	103.1 MISSISSIPPI 4866
5146-5134	10	103.1 MISSISSIPPI 4866

WELL 14-21-37-11WS

35 ELONGATIONS	30 BREAKOUTS	STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION			
7280-7700	440	7280-7386	370	155	148.1 U. CRE. 5708/7318
7280-7700	362	7802-8160	380	180	142.7 U. CRE. 7588
8320-8180	50	8422-8490	50	25	163.2 U. CRE.
8564-8622	58	8570-8518	100	50	156.4 U. CRE.
8754-8854	100	8784-8852	100	50	83.5 U. CRE.
8978-8980	14	8978-8936	10	5	158.6 U. CRE.
8980-8038	48	9024-9132	50	25	158.0 U. CRE.
9078-9142	64	9084-85300	160	80	152.8 U. CRE.
9208-8834	328	9232-10180	550	280	155.4 U. CRE.
9584-10182	48	10194-10212	20	10	100.3 U. CRE.
10184-10240	56	10244-10312	30	15	117.3 U. CRE.
10248-10318	50	10330-10768	440	220	153.0 U. CRE. 10825
10318-10828	58	10844-10882	20	10	154.0 U. CRE.
10836-10994	33	10840-10948	20	10	157.7 U. CRE.
10922-10974	100	10860-11274	320	160	147.8 U. CRE.
10986-11440	94	11248-11474	30	15	159.5 U. CRE.
11282-11580	100	11480-11488	30	15	184.0 U. CRE.
11560-11580	80	11582-11630	40	20	182.0 U. CRE.
11600-11700	188	11688-11698	40	20	181.7 U. CRE.
11700-11828	132	11700-11828	140	70	157.2 U. CRE.
11884-12030	156	11808-12012	30	15	173.0 JURASSIC /11994
13128-13200	308	13170-13208	270	135	148.5 U. DEVMIAN 15575
15636-16210	46	16800-16278	60	30	149.3 U. DEV. 16148/16282
16214-16240	134	16358-16404	120	60	148.0 U. DEV. 16252
16460-16584	82	16482-16580	20	10	149.0 U. DEV.
16536-16582	28	16538-16572	70	35	147.5 U. DEV.
16748-16822	50	16748-16822	50	25	141.5 U. DEV. /18748
16822-16902	80	16848-16894	50	25	141.5 U. DEV. /18748

Elongation ends 18802, slave point; total depth 16880, 2nd M (mid. dev.)

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WELL 2-29-89-22WS		72 ELDONATIONS		41 BREAKOUTS		STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION	
ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS
7700-7800	104	7702-7785	80	40	108.5	L. CRETACEOUS 7674/7725/7752	VIKING/JOLI F/MANNVILLE
7806-7820	14	7810-7818	10	5	86.4	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
7821-7830	14	7822-8000	160	70	164.3	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8130-8175	44	8132-8170	40	20	124.0	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8185-8240	54	8190-8228	140	70	124.3	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8355-8485	130	8370-8478	110	55	142.7	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8542-8584	42	8545-8574	30	10	142.7	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8600-8634	34	8600-8618	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	LOWER/MANNVILLE
8672-8684	16	8672-8680	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8714-8730	16	8718-8725	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8768-8816	48	8764-8772	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8828-8838	10	8788-8804	16	8	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
8912-8972	60	8828-8970	40	20	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
9038-9458	420	8912-8970	60	30	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
9488-9518	30	9424-9484	60	30	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
9550-9518	28	9500-9508	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
9582-9538	22	9522-9530	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
9688-9708	20	9658-9704	40	20	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10012-10024	12	10012-10020	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10050-10078	28	10012-10032	40	20	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10124-10154	30	10128-10146	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10182-10230	48	10152-10170	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10270-10382	112	10184-10218	30	15	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10380-10404	24	10272-10280	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10480-10572	92	10340-10378	40	20	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10640-10772	132	10582-10600	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
10844-11214	370	10648-10666	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
11218-11404	186	10848-11204	220	110	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
11444-11482	38	11228-11378	150	75	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
11490-11516	26	11444-11472	30	15	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
11522-11542	20	11494-11512	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
11552-11572	20	11522-11540	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
11888-11900	12	11552-11570	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
12800-12812	12	11890-11898	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
12784-12786	2	12800-12808	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
12784-12818	34	12558-12736	20	10	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
12828-12850	22	12788-12824	30	15	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
12854-12864	10	12828-12846	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE
12864-12880	16	12854-12862	10	5	153.2	L. CRE	MANNVILLE

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STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION

WELL 3-32-34-SWS 15 ELONGATIONS 9 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS		
4558-5112	554	4550-4814	58
4558-5112	0	4640-4858	218
4558-5112	0	4860-4918	58
4558-5112	0	4920-5078	158
4558-5112	0	5080-5112	32
4558-5112	444	5078-5518	440
4558-5112	152	5628-6708	72
4558-5112	152	6720-6780	30
4558-5112	0	6780-6788	14
4558-5112	144	6788-6940	144
4558-5112	100	7100-7148	48
4558-5112	238	7180-7388	178
4558-5112	408	7488-7808	40
4558-5112	780	8078-8120	42
4558-5112	0	8122-8160	180
4558-5112	0	8282-8316	18
4558-5112	112	8302-8306	208
4558-5112	0		103
4558-5112	0		130.0
4558-5112	0		127.0

WELL 8-17-37-SWS 41 ELONGATIONS 39 BREAKOUTS

ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS		
7106-7126	32	7106-7138	22
7134-7180	26	7158-7176	20
7220-7218	38	7230-7316	36
7238-7228	10	7326-7336	16
7238-7228	10	7346-7352	6
7238-7228	32	7384-7384	30
7238-7228	20	7444-7520	78
7238-7228	40	7830-7856	36
7238-7228	14	7878-7890	14
7238-7228	68	7802-7858	56
7238-7228	20	7894-7714	20
7238-7228	10	7732-7744	11
7238-7228	38	7766-7774	36
7238-7228	114	7804-7842	114
7238-7228	8	8080-8086	6
7238-7228	28	8138-8164	26
7238-7228	28	8188-8216	28
7238-7228	20	8260-8270	20
7238-7228	20	8310-8324	14
7238-7228	14	8414-8424	10
7238-7228	16	8442-8474	32
7238-7228	16	8540-8550	10
7238-7228	24	8526-8560	24
7238-7228	18	8786-8776	12
7238-7228	30	8846-8856	26
7238-7228	18	8884-8884	16
7238-7228	18	8990-9006	16
7238-7228	18	9028-9032	6
7238-7228	178	9034-9212	178
7238-7228	140	9260-9398	138
7238-7228	24	9502-9526	62
7238-7228	82	9560-9822	202
7238-7228	208	9878-9878	274
7238-7228	132	9920-10068	140
7238-7228	108	10100-10140	34
7238-7228	0	10180-10184	0
7238-7228	48	10214-10230	36

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WELL A2-13-24-11WS - 8 ELONGATIONS - 7 BREAKOUTS				STRATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION			
ELONGATED INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	BREAKOUT INTERVALS	ELONGATIONS	BREAKOUTS	STRAATIGRAPHIC INFORMATION	FORMATION	
12840-12854	18	12840-12852	12	6	140.0	MISSISSIPPI 12771	BELLOY
12854-13010	48	12854-12910	42	21	135.0	MISS.	BELLOY
13000-13240	40	13202-13236	34	17	130.0	MISS.	BELLOY
13660-13682	22	13674-13682	2	4	188.0	MISS.	PEKISKO
13860-13882	8	13874-13882	2	4	136.0	MISS.	PEKISKO
13700-13740	20	13714-13740	14	7	172.0	MISS.	PEKISKO
13826-13842	8	13836-13840	4	2	122.0	MISS.	PEKISKO
18348-18358	10	18350-18358	6	3	136.0	U. DEVONIAN 18343	CALMAR

ELONGATION ENDS 18358, CALMAR, TOTAL DEPTH 18197						
ELONGATIONS	BREAKOUTS	ELONGATIONS	BREAKOUTS	ELONGATIONS	BREAKOUTS	ELONGATIONS
1810-1706	88	1810-1706	88	48	80.0	80.0
1788-1850	52	1788-1850	52	28	128.0	128.0
2120-2144	74	2120-2144	74	37	148.0	148.0
2320-2320	0	2320-2320	0	0	82.0	82.0
2628-2888	30	2628-2888	30	18	122.0	122.0
2700-2808	108	2702-2808	108	52	88.0	88.0
2814-2850	36	2814-2846	32	16	14.0	14.0
2850-2880	30	2858-2878	20	10	172.0	172.0
2880-3320	440	2880-3306	28	54	124.0	124.0
2890-3320	0	2892-3000	88	20	188.0	188.0
2880-3220	0	2902-3082	80	48	128.0	128.0
3320-3866	646	3220-3810	160	30	157.0	157.0
3320-3866	0	3440-3500	128	83	28.0	28.0
3320-3866	0	3540-3888	78	13	180.0	180.0
4770-5028	288	4822-5028	108	53	148.0	148.0
5310-5430	120	5378-5430	44	22	130.0	130.0
5438-6112	670	5480-5632	178	88	140.0	140.0
5438-6112	0	5684-5704	50	25	4.0	4.0
5438-6112	0	5718-5768	42	21	148.0	148.0
6150-5848	238	5802-6108	208	102	114.0	114.0
6150-5848	0	6182-6192	40	20	142.0	142.0
6824-7250	328	6228-6382	134	77	122.0	122.0
6824-7250	0	6840-7000	80	20	132.0	132.0
6824-7250	0	7002-7042	28	13	141.0	141.0
6824-7250	0	7044-7070	28	13	188.0	188.0
7310-7510	200	7072-7128	64	22	147.0	147.0
7310-7510	300	7200-7240	174	87	142.0	142.0
7740-7770	18	7310-7564	258	133	143.0	143.0
8064-8070	18	8064-8082	8	4	137.0	137.0

BIMODAL WELLS			
WELL	ELONGATIONS	BREAKOUTS	ELONGATIONS
WELL 15-9-118-8WS	2 ELONGATIONS	2 BREAKOUTS	
4316-4328	12	4316-4328	10
4408-4472	86	4408-4428	30
4522-4974	12	4882-4972	10
5122-5142	20	5128-5138	10
WELL 3-1-116-1WS	2 ELONGATIONS	2 BREAKOUTS	
146.4	10	146.4	
63.2	10	63.2	

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TABLE 3.2

Statistics of Breakout Azimuths for wells listed in Table 3.1  
(All lengths are in feet except where indicated)

WELL	LOGGED ELEVATIONS	LENGTH	BREAKOUTS	LENGTH	N	MEAN AZIMUTH(DEG)	S.D.(DEG)	S.E.(DEG)	
6-20-48-17WS	2224-12108	80	7148	61	3080	1940	148.9	10.8	0.3
7-9-48-24WS	1418-13928	144	8387	71	2700	1188	186.7	21.2	0.8
12-18-53-8WS	8360-7827	11	420	10	262	131	123.6	3.4	0.2
D-45-A-94-P-14	8660-8088	13	103	8	32	16	80.9	17.1	4.8
6-12-80-11WS M	481-2674.5M	18	248	12	87	46	128.3	2.8	0.4
14-20-80-12WS	1220-9568	28	831	24	418	209	122.4	4.7	0.3
4-26-81-11WS	8484-8128	2	56	2	52	26	118.8	3.3	0.7
3-22-47-13WS	9668-11484	28	768	23	828	283	121.3	7.8	0.8
6-20-48-12WS	10011-11830	13	318	12	242	121	123.9	4.1	0.4
10-28-48-18WS	10480-11338	13	288	11	204	102	148.3	3.8	0.4
18-18-82-21WS	9000-13482	18	514	13	292	146	124.8	4.8	0.4
10-27-48-18WS	13500-18407	20	2624	14	1342	671	128.3	2.3	0.1
13-9-82-8WS	1828-7420	38	3088	20	1482	720	127.4	7.5	0.3
8-8N-81-8WS M	2200-2481.5M	11	78	8	30	16	124.7	3.8	1.0
6-20-80-15WS	-----	46	1320	41	978	481	122.5	9.1	0.4
3-26-48-23WS	1807-18002	142	14818	84	3344	1872	181.2	10.8	0.3
6-8-81-8WS	8860-8024	4	2488	2	340	170	147.8	2.1	0.2
10-7-80-14WS	7800-8738	18	480	11	340	170	184.3	8.8	0.7
2-28-88-22WS	7700-12884	72	2717	41	1880	940	128.0	10.4	0.3
14-21-37-11WS	8084-12040	37	8018	30	3080	1830	181.0	4.7	0.1
7-7-86-1WS	788-7213	30	2483	4	190	95	114.3	3.4	0.4
9-18-83-8WS	8800-7878	12	878	10	710	355	118.4	4.8	0.2
8-8-38-11WS	14208-18000	33	1880	12	840	470	170.7	8.5	0.4
18-28-118-2WS	3800-4844	28	2218	12	880	348	0.8	10.2	0.8
6-28-118-4WS	4288-8208	8	188	3	80	30	183.3	8.8	0.7
12-24-82-8WS	4100-7878	18	1882	10	810	488	108.8	10.8	0.3
11-28-82-8WS	4100-7311	31	1182	18	870	288	104.4	10.8	0.8
3-21-112-8WS	4180-4802	8	148	2	40	20	188.0	0.8	0.8
13-28-112-10WS	4400-8200	22	848	13	380	180	180.8	11.4	0.8
3-1-118-8WS	4880-8774	18	2442	4	180	80	140.4	18.2	1.7
3-11-121-7WS	4800-8824	4	80	2	30	18	180.0	0.0	0.0
12-33-118-8WS	4280-8078	38	2388	8	180	80	140.7	20.8	2.2
14-38-118-8WS	4200-8300	4	148	3	80	40	37.1	13.0	2.1
14-9-118-8WS	848-8081	27	2238	4	140	70	141.3	11.8	1.4
8-18-118-8WS	8048-8182	8	288	3	130	68	128.7	0.8	0.1
2-28-118-8WS	4808-8138	10	828	8	140	70	183.0	8.8	1.2
8-32-108-8WS	892-8024	8	238	3	180	80	103.4	14.1	1.8
7-12RN-108-7WS	4800-8888	12	188	8	140	70	13.0	8.4	0.8
10-12RN-110-8WS	8400-8812	11	1380	8	380	180	47.3	11.8	0.8
2-20-81-8WS	8000-8888	7	820	8	330	188	118.3	0.8	0.1
4-20-81-8WS	822-8888	26	1730	17	880	488	123.1	8.7	0.4
8-1-81-8WS	3280-8871	20	1610	8	820	310	87.8	4.8	0.3
4-18-81-8WS	4800-8927	7	448	3	70	38	118.8	2.8	0.4
A8-8-82-8WS	8100-8880	4	88	3	40	20	87.1	8.0	1.2
3-32-34-8WS	8000-8430	18	3034	8	2020	1010	138.3	7.2	0.2
8-17-37-8WS	7100-10283	41	1888	38	1730	888	121.8	2.8	0.1
A2-13-34-11WS	UNSPECIFIED	8	182	7	128	84	138.3	8.8	0.7
7-17-33-7WS	784-8200	31	3480	17	2204	1102	128.3	12.1	0.4

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is given as

$$Y = a_0 + a_1 X \text{ ----- 3-14}$$

where  $a_0$  and  $a_1$  are obtained from the normal equations

$$\Sigma Y = a_0 \cdot N + a_1 \cdot \Sigma X$$

$$\Sigma XY = a_0 \cdot \Sigma X + a_1 \cdot \Sigma X^2 \text{ ----- 3-15}$$

which yield

$$a_0 = \frac{(\Sigma Y)(\Sigma X^2) - (\Sigma X)(\Sigma XY)}{N \Sigma X^2 - (\Sigma X)^2}$$

$$a_1 = \frac{N \Sigma XY - (\Sigma X)(\Sigma Y)}{N \Sigma X^2 - (\Sigma X)^2} \text{ ----- 3-16}$$

$a_1$  is known as the regression coefficient of Y on X. In our case Y represents the azimuth of a breakout and X the depth. To evaluate the significance of a regression coefficient one must consider the scatter or spread of points about the regression line of Y on X. This is given by the statistic *Standard Error Of Estimate of Y on X*, ( $S_{y,x}$ ). Suppose we let  $Y_{est}$  represent the values of Y for given values of X as estimated from (3.14), then

$$S_{y,x} = \sqrt{\{\Sigma(Y - Y_{est})^2 / n\}} \text{ ----- 3-17}$$

Equation 3-17 can be written as

$$S^2_{y,x} = 1/n \cdot (\Sigma Y^2 - a_0 \cdot \Sigma Y - a_1 \cdot \Sigma XY) \text{ ----- 3-18}$$

This standard error of estimate has properties analogous to those of the standard deviation in the sense that if lines are constructed parallel to the regression line of Y on X at respective vertical distances  $S_{y,x}$ ,  $2S_{y,x}$ , and  $3S_{y,x}$  from it, it is found (if n is large enough) that there would be



included between these lines about 68% , 95% , and 99.7% of the sample points respectively. Now that a least square regression line has been fitted to the points, we would like to know how well a straight line fits the points or describes the relationship between the variables. In other words we want to determine the goodness of fit of the line fitted to the data. The quantity which does this is the coefficient of correlation ( $r$ ).  $r$  is a dimensionless quantity which varies between  $-1$  and  $+1$ . If  $Y$  tends to increase as  $X$  increases we have a positive or direct correlation. If  $Y$  tends to decrease as  $X$  increases we have negative or inverse correlation. If  $r$  is near zero it means there is almost no linear correlation between the variables.  $r$  can be expressed in several ways but for computational purposes we write

$$r = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{\{N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2\} \{N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2\}}} \quad 3-19$$

It is worth noting that a high correlation coefficient (i.e. near  $1$  or  $-1$ ) does not necessarily indicate a direct dependence of the variables.

#### Tests of Hypothesis and Significance

In order for any test of hypothesis or rules of decision to be good they must be designed so as to minimise errors of decision. Obviously this is not simple at all since, for a given sample an attempt to decrease one type of

error is accompanied by an increase in other types of error. However, one type of error may be more serious than another which may call for a compromise in favour of a limitation of the more serious error. The only way to reduce all types of errors is to increase the sample size which may or may not be possible.

### Level of Significance

Rejection of a hypothesis when it should be accepted is defined as a *Type I error*. Acceptance of a hypothesis which should be rejected is defined as a *Type II error*. In testing a given hypothesis, the maximum probability with which we wish to risk a Type I error is called the *Level of Significance* of the test. It represents the probability of our being wrong in rejecting the hypothesis.

The regression equation  $Y = a_0 + a_1 X$  was obtained on the basis of sample data. We are often interested in the corresponding regression equation for the population from which the sample was drawn.

$$Y_{\text{pop}} = A_0 + A_1 X_{\text{pop}}$$

If we wish to test the hypothesis that the regression coefficient of the population  $A_1$  is zero at some chosen significance, we use the fact that the statistic  $t$  has Student's distribution, with  $(n-2)$  degrees of freedom, where

$$t = \frac{(a_1 - A_1) S_x}{S_{y,x}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{(n-2)}{1-r^2}}$$

Here  $S_{y,x}$  is the standard error of estimate of  $Y$  on  $X$ ,  $S_x$  is the standard deviation of  $X$ , and  $r$  is the correlation coefficient. This fact can be used to find the confidence

intervals for population regression coefficients from sample values.

In applying Equations 3-14 through and including Equation 3-20 to our data we can then compare our  $t$  values to the Student's  $t$ -distribution table (given in many statistical text books), with the correct number of degrees of freedom, and find at what level of significance the hypothesis is to be accepted or rejected.

Table 3.3 presents regression results for 21 wells in which breakouts were measured over a depth range greater than 2000 feet. Column 3 shows values for the regression coefficient,  $a$ , for the sample and column 4 gives the standard error of estimate of the azimuths on depths. Column 6 shows the various  $t$ -distribution values and column 7 shows the degrees of freedom which can be used to find the level of significance at which the test can be accepted by reading the appropriate  $t$ -value and degree of freedom from tables in text books. In column 5 we have the values of the correlation coefficient.

### Results

It is clear that the regression coefficient  $a$ , is in all wells small enough to have arisen with more than 5 percent probability, in a population having  $a=0$ . Of the 21 wells listed in Table 3.3, 10 have  $a > 0$  and 11 have  $a < 0$ . We cannot reject the hypothesis that the azimuths of the breakouts are unrelated to depth and the variation observed with depth is only by chance.

TABLE 3.3

Regression of breakout azimuths on depths showing the regression coefficients  $a_1$  (deg/ft), the correlation coefficient  $r$ , the standard error of estimate  $S_{y,x}$ (deg), the  $t$ -distribution, and the degrees of freedom  $df$ . (Only wells with the entire breakout intervals extending through 2000 feet depth intervals are listed here).

Well	$a_0$ (deg)	$a_1$ (d/ft)	$S_{y,x}$ (deg)	$r$	$t$	$df$
6-30-46-17W5	155.57	-0.00232	28.3	-0.183	-0.059	619
7-9-49-24W5	116.95	0.00112	45.7	0.087	0.038	1121
14-20-50-12W5	129.78	-0.00080	10.8	-0.052	-0.011	199
10-27-45-16W5	175.12	-0.00290	4.1	-0.460	-0.085	680
13-9-52-8W5	143.37	-0.00242	19.3	-0.203	-0.050	405
6-20-50-15W5	281.75	-0.01416	18.1	-0.475	-0.345	459
3-36-49-23W5	143.06	0.00042	28.7	0.062	0.018	1757
5-3-81-9W5	95.82	0.00046	10.5	0.024	0.008	308
4-20-81-9W5	122.32	0.00055	18.9	0.050	0.012	493
3-1-119-9W6	172.69	-0.01128	30.8	-0.489	-0.114	78
12-33-116-6W6	144.05	-0.00677	41.2	-0.269	-0.066	88
11-29-82-5W6	35.66	0.01150	20.2	0.356	0.200	263
15-29-115-3W6	153.81	0.00856	20.3	0.304	0.166	343
5-5-35-11W5	289.62	0.02845	19.1	0.716	0.881	468
9-18-83-6W6	164.52	-0.00786	10.6	-0.306	-0.154	348
14-21-37-11W5	151.93	-0.00011	8.1	-0.037	-0.005	1838
2-29-59-22W5	113.99	0.00178	22.9	0.115	0.055	938
3-32-34-8W5	167.45	-0.00442	11.9	-0.446	-0.158	1022
6-17-37-9W5	130.71	-0.00105	5.5	-0.176	-0.031	863
A2-13-34-11W5	65.50	0.00553	14.5	0.194	0.044	62
7-17-33-7W5	72.14	0.01084	31.9	0.533	0.420	1073

#### IV. BREAKOUTS AND STRESS ORIENTATIONS IN THE WESTERN CANADIAN SEDIMENTARY BASIN

##### Relation of Breakouts to Location and Lithology

In Chapter III the statistical distribution of breakout azimuths has been set out. In most holes, azimuths are closely grouped together, as shown by the mean orientations of the various breakout zones within each hole (Table 3.1), and the standard deviations listed in Table 3.2. In the holes logged through a sufficient range of depth to allow investigation of regression of azimuth on depth, such regression is not significantly different from zero (see Table 3.3.). Figure 6 is a map showing how the azimuths change with location. The azimuth referred to is the representative azimuth of breakout for the well as a whole obtained by combining the various breakout azimuths in the well given in Table 3.2. The central dot shows the position of the hole and the mean orientation of the breakout is shown by the line through it. The number attached to the line is the mean orientation of the various sections in the well.

We now consider the relation of the breakout azimuth to the geological age (i.e. period), formation and lithology. These data are shown in Table 3.1 under the columns Formation (Fm), Lithology (Lith), and Period (Age), and have been obtained from the sample descriptions for the wells. Sections under these columns which are blank indicate that the information was not available for those wells. It

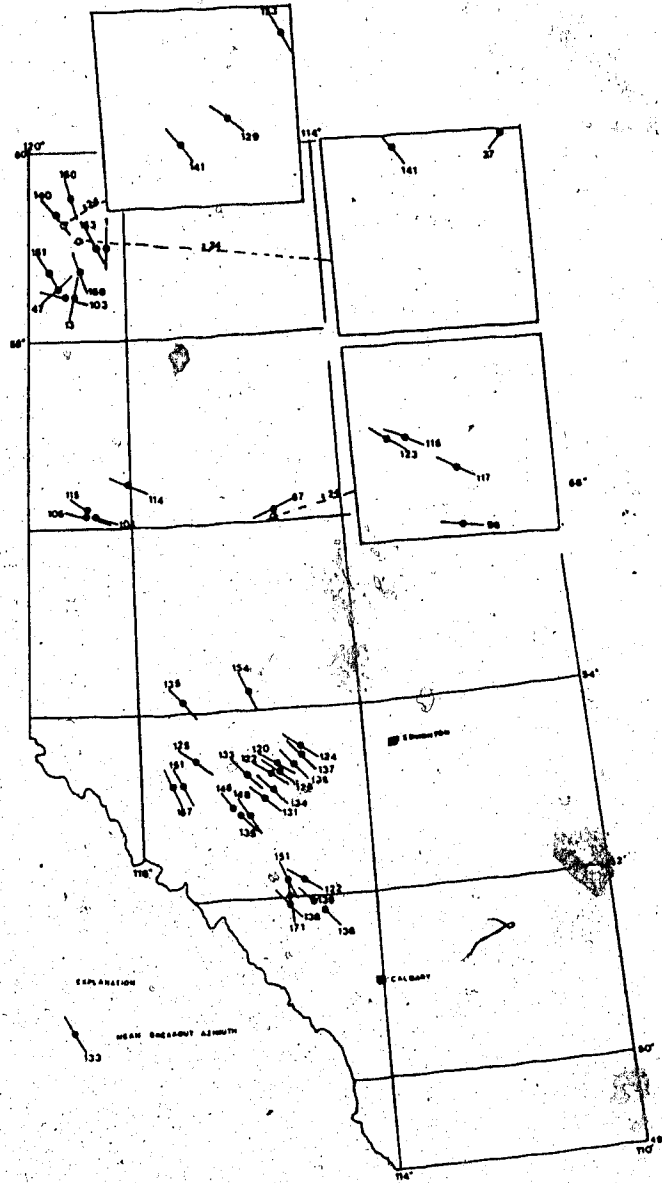


Figure 18.... Map of Alberta showing well locations and breakout azimuths

is evident, however, from these columns that breakouts have occurred throughout the sedimentary basins in rocks ranging from Devonian to Cretaceous in age. In some cases breakouts have been observed at different depth intervals running through the entire depth of the hole.

A look at the columns headed formation and lithology reveals many interesting points. Breakouts have occurred in formations like Elk Point, Wabamun etc. in the Devonian right to Belly River and Bearpaw formations in the Upper Cretaceous period. Within a given formation some sections show breakouts but other sections do not, for reasons which are obscure. Breakouts may occur in any position such as the top, middle or bottom sections of the formation. The pattern does not appear to be regulated by the type of the lithology. A word of caution must be sounded here. The sample descriptions from which our stratigraphic information was obtained merely stated the predominant lithologies found and only stated the traces present but not the percentages of these traces. A knowledge of the percentages of such traces would be useful in view of the fact that there are several diagenetic processes involved in the transformation of unconsolidated sediments to consolidated sedimentary rocks. However, there are formations in which only one kind of lithology, without any traces, runs through the entire depth range in which breakouts occur in certain depth intervals separated by uncaved intervals.

Although the elongated sections which did not satisfy our three criteria for selecting a breakout are not included in Table 3.1, a careful study of the ages, formations, and lithologies of these zones was carried out. The entire study shows that breakouts are not lithologically controlled. They have occurred through most parts of the Western Canadian sedimentary basin cutting through limestone, dolomite, shale, sandstone, anhydrites, cherty shales, siltstone, and varying combinations of these sedimentary rocks. At the same time, the intervening zones without breakouts have exactly the same types of lithology as already listed. It can therefore be safely concluded that the breakouts and/or elongated zones are not significantly related to the lithology and age of formation. There is no evidence of any significant relation between breakout azimuths and the properties of the rock.

This agrees with the observation of Babcock (1978) on a smaller sample of breakout data. The logs used in this study give no indication of the dip angles of the various strata. This study therefore cannot add to the evidence given by Cox (1970) and Babcock (1978) that the breakouts and their azimuths are unrelated to the dip.

There are two wells included in this study in which the two breakout zones selected using the three criteria have azimuths approximately orthogonal to each other. These wells are included in Table 3.1. Some other wells have one or two intervals with breakout azimuths differing by as much as  $90^\circ$



from the dominant azimuths. Such wells have not been referred to as bimodal wells. This study has shown that whatever their cause, a predominant direction of breakout is almost always present. Variations in this direction with position may represent local variations in the orientation of the horizontal stresses.

Pore water pressure  $P_w$  and the pressure  $P_m$  in the drilling mud which fills the hole were also disregarded in the discussion in Chapter II. These have no effect on the orientations of the fractures (Gough and Bell, 1982) nevertheless, they modify the magnitude of the stress differences. At points P and Q (p, q) of figures 12 and 13

$S_r = P_m - P_w$  and the tangential stress is

$S_\phi = 3S - s - P_w$  and  $T_{r\phi} = 0$ .

Thus the stress difference becomes

$S_\phi - S_r = 3S - s - P_m$ .

The Mohr circle Fig. 10 contracts in diameter by  $P_m$  and moves to the left by  $P_w$ .  $P_w$  is often lithostatic and cannot be less than hydrostatic, so that  $P_m$  may often be comparable to  $P_w$ . The shear strength  $T_0$  required to resist failure will be reduced somewhat as a result of the shift of the Mohr's circle to the left and the nature of the envelope. The shift of the circle to the left implies a reduction of the stresses, in a biaxial stress field, needed to cause failure.

## Hydraulic Fracturing

In-situ measurement of stress by hydraulic fracturing can both provide the orientation and magnitude of the principal components of stress, if  $S_1$  is not vertical (Kehle, 1964 ; Fairhurst, 1964), provided the fracture pressure, the instantaneous shut-in pressure (ISIP), the pore pressure and the tensile strength of the rock are measured. Hydraulic fracturing is a petroleum engineering technique carried out at depths of several thousand feet to stimulate production of oil bearing horizons. An understanding of the basic principles which govern the development of the fractures is a prerequisite to its successful application. It is assumed that the hole is drilled parallel to one regional principal stress usually the vertical stress  $S_v$ , which is assumed to be equal to the lithostatic load  $\rho \cdot g \cdot h$ . The stresses  $S$  and  $s$  normal to the hole axis are then the other two principal stresses and are horizontal. The pre-existing regional stresses produce stress concentration close to the borehole with the maximum value of  $(3S-s)$  and a minimum of  $(3s-S)$  in the tangential direction. The smallest tangential stress of  $(3s-S)$  at the ends of the diameter parallel to  $S$  may be greater than, or equal to, or less than zero depending on the  $S/s$ -ratio. If a section of the hole is sealed and pressurized to a pressure  $p$ , a second stress system will be superimposed on that just described. In the region close to the packers, Kehle (1964) assumed that the packers are held in place by a band of

uniform shear stresses and made an analysis to determine these stresses. His results indicate that high tensile vertical stress of the order of the applied pressure ( $-p$ ) is induced in the immediate vicinity of the packers, and in about 80% of the central region of the interval a tangential tensile stress is generated. If however inflatable packers are used to seal the hole a normal pressure will be exerted resulting in a considerable reduction of the axial tension and will require a much higher pressure for the initiation of horizontal fractures. Before such high pressures are reached a fracture will be initiated vertically (Zoback et al, 1977). As the pressure in the hole is increased a fracture will be initiated at the wall of the borehole when the tension generated by the fluid is sufficient to overcome the combined effect of the regional compression ( $3s-S$ ) and the rock strength. The plane along which a fracture will commence will be that across which the resultant of the effective compressive and tensile strengths are first reduced to zero. In the case of a smooth cylindrical wellbore this plane must be vertical and perpendicular to the least principal regional stress. If the vertical stress is the minimum principal stress a horizontal tensile fracture might be expected to form (Kehle, 1964; Hubbert and Willis, 1957) However, Zoback et al (1977) have argued against this. This contention of Zoback et al is supported by laboratory experiments reported by Haimson and Fairhurst (1970). Haimson (1976b) suggested that if  $S_v = S_1$ , the

induced fractures initiate in a vertical plane and then become horizontal as they propagate a few hole radii from the wall into the undisturbed regional stress field.

The breakdown pressure  $P_b$  is recorded. If the pump is shut off immediately and the hydraulic circuit is kept closed an instantaneous shut-in pressure, a pressure that is just sufficient to hold the fracture open, is recorded. The theory derived by Hubbert and Willis (1957) and Kehle (1964) for fracture around a pressurized borehole is used to relate  $P_b$ , the breakdown pressure, the instantaneous shut-in pressure ISIP, to the in-situ principal stresses and the tensile strength,  $T$ , of the rock. For a vertical borehole, the tensile fracture should be oriented in a direction perpendicular to  $s$ , the least horizontal principal stress, at least within the immediate vicinity of the borehole, and the magnitude of  $s$  is equal to ISIP.  $S$ , the maximum horizontal principal stress, is determined from the equation

$$P_b = 3s - S - p + T \text{ -----4-1}$$

where  $p$  is the static pore pressure in the rock surrounding the borehole.  $T$  can be measured in the laboratory and  $p$  in the field. From the discussion so far it is clear that the hydraulic fracture will generally take place parallel to the maximum horizontal principal stress. Breakouts on the other hand occur parallel to the lesser horizontal principal stress or perpendicular to the larger horizontal principal stress. It is therefore, not surprising that fractures detected by the 4-arm dipmeter tool may occasionally show

two trends one being a major one, if mud pressure has occasionally produced inadvertent hydraulic fracturing.

The question to be asked will therefore be, how the hydraulic fracturing comes into play? Prior to the deliberate application of hydraulic fracturing by man, its occurrence has been detected during water flooding and squeeze cementation processes. Rocks have been accidentally fractured during grouting treatments and when high specific gravity muds have been used in drilling wells. Furthermore, it has been observed (Von Schonfeldt and Fairhurst, 1969) that formations without any measurable permeability under natural conditions have a noticeable effect of rate of loading. At a low rate of application of pressure, the formation breakdown is lower than at a higher loading rate. Such a loading rate may be likened to the varying rate at which drilling is done depending on the commercial importance of the zone being drilled. Accidental hydraulic fracturing during the drilling stage with high specific gravity mud can therefore not be ruled out. It is worth mentioning also that although the vertical stress approximates the overburden, thus implying a reduced effect of accidental hydraulic fracturing, we should not lose sight of the fact that the oil wells are restricted to sedimentary layers. Sediments are sheet-like deposits of various competency stacked one upon another. Layered sequences of unlike materials transfer stress much differently than homogeneous and isotropic materials, a phenomenon known as

arching. Arching may also involve the reaction with time between beds of different competency and hence disrupts the uniform stress distribution with depth which is assumed under homogeneous and isotropic conditions. Such an effect creates regions of both high and low stress concentrations. As a result of the alteration of the stress distribution by arching we can expect that in the same oil field, for a given horizon, breakdown pressure can vary significantly as evidenced by the results obtained in the Gulf Coast area where vertical fractures have occurred at injection pressures far less than the total overburden pressure (Scotts, Bearden, and Howard, 1953).

Another point which may need examination is the assumption that one principal stress is vertical and that the borehole is drilled parallel to this regional principal stress. The assumption that the hydraulic fracture propagates perpendicular to the least principal stress (Hubbert and Willis, 1957) has been supported by agreement between hydraulic fracturing, geological and seismologically determined stress field indicators (Zoback and Zoback, 1980). However, McGarr and Gay (1978) found that in South Africa the directions of the most nearly vertical principal stress fall within a circle of  $30^\circ$  about the vertical. They also mentioned that stress measurements in deep mines in Canada, the United States and in Australia support significant departures from the assumption that one of the principal stress directions is vertical. This implies

that the two initially assumed horizontal stresses are not truly horizontal. Recognition of such a fact will also help in accounting for the irregular nature of fractures.

#### **Breakout and Stress Orientations in Western Canada**

Figure 19 shows the directions of the long axes of breakouts (or the direction of the least principal horizontal stress) and figure 20 indicates the inferred orientations of the maximum horizontal principal stresses for the results presented by Babcock (1978), by Gough and Bell (1981) and in this study, for the West Canadian Sedimentary Basin. It can be seen from this map that breakouts can serve as a useful method for mapping the various tectonic stress zones based on the stress trajectories in any given locality where directional spalling of the walls of a well are observed. The absence of significant variation of azimuths with depth, wherever these phenomena are observed, may imply that such large horizontal principal stresses are not necessarily limited to the top crustal sedimentary rocks but may be continued down into the deep and older Precambrian igneous rocks of the earth's crust.

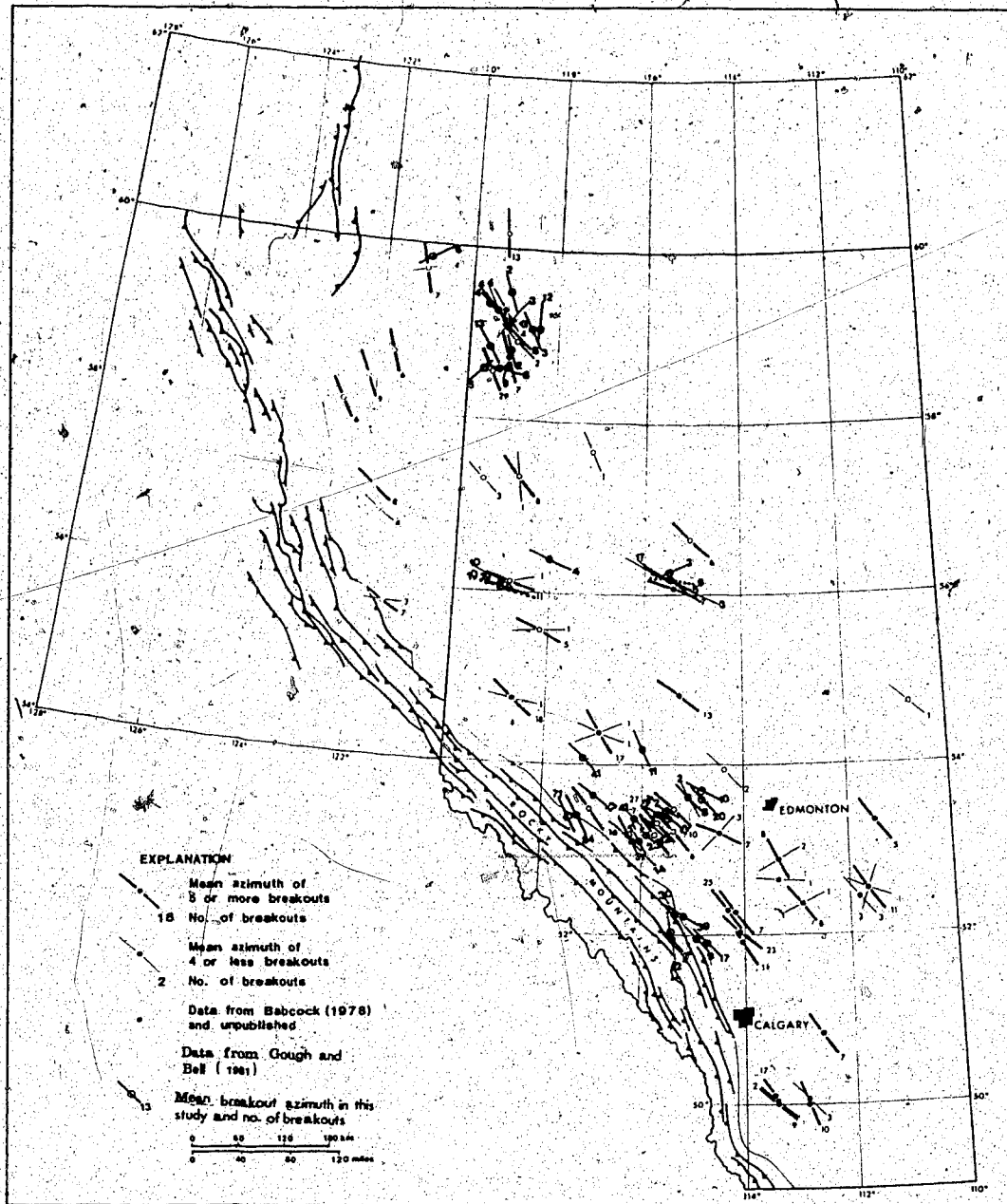


Figure 19.... Map of Alberta showing the orientations of the smaller principal horizontal stresses as inferred from the breakouts

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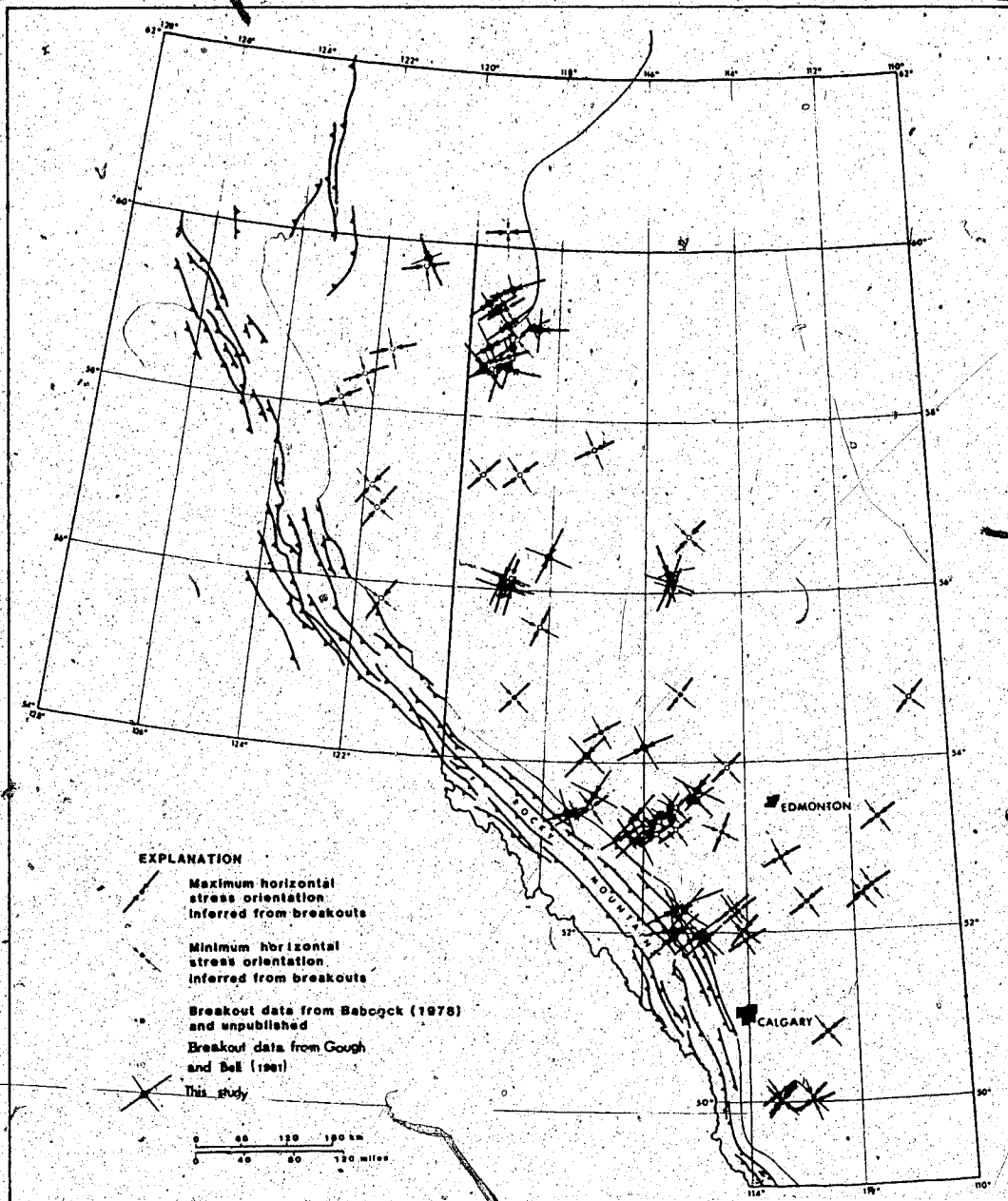


Figure 20... Inferred directions of the larger horizontal principal stresses for the results presented by Babcock (1978), Gough and Bell (1981) and in this study

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## V. DISCUSSION

### The Physical Significance of the Breakouts

Babcock (1978) concluded on the basis of his joint-sets study in Alberta (1973) that breakouts are a result of the drill encountering steeply dipping zones of pre-existing faults or joint-sets, which may or may not be open. Preferential breakage, in his view, is then controlled by a near-vertical joint which intersects the well and which in carbonate rocks may be solution-widened. In his view, the parallelism between azimuths of elongation and regional joint sets in Alberta and the consistency of the azimuths of elongation within, and between wells in varying lithologies all indicate an origin caused by the drill encountering a fracture or zone of fracture.

However, his study of joint-sets revealed four concentrations of joint directions on the surface, (NW, NE, N, and E). On a non-polar or axial data basis these four joint-sets directions may be represented as NW-SE, NE-SW, N-S, and E-W. Babcock's study of breakouts showed only one significant concentration of subsurface breakout direction that is NW or NW-SE. Bell and Gough (1979) argued that on Babcock's hypothesis the other joint directions would be expected to be represented in the breakout azimuths, but they are not. In addition Bell and Gough doubted that the joint directions at the present surface would necessarily be parallel to those at depths in excess of 2 km at which breakouts occurred, in view of the fact that sediments

involved in his study might have been laid down in varying tectonic settings between Devonian and Cretaceous times and that joints in general arise in several ways; such as soon after deposition of a sedimentary rock, or during later deformation, or as it undergoes erosion. These facts led Bell and Gough to put forward an alternative hypothesis to better explain the cause of breakouts and, perhaps, also the cause of surface joints of Babcock's System 1 (NE and NW strikes). They therefore proposed that in a general stress field, with large and unequal horizontal stresses, the holes themselves concentrate the stresses so as to produce subsurface breakouts with the breakout azimuth parallel to the smaller horizontal stress and normal to the larger horizontal stress. The analysis of such stress concentration by a circular hole was first found by Kirsch and has been discussed in chapter II.

From the present study, it is observed that the significant breakout azimuth or the preferred breakout orientation is SE, that is NW-SE when expressed axially. Thus only one of the four surface joint directions is significant, although a few breakout zones tend to show the NE or NE-SW strike. In short only the NW-SE set of Babcock's System 1 of surface joints is observed as breakouts. On Bell and Gough's hypothesis that breakouts are stress controlled, the observed irregularities have been fully accounted for. Babcock's hypothesis fails to explain why breakout azimuths do not exhibit the other surface joint directions. Babcock's

study also revealed that breakouts are unrelated to depth, lithology and the age of the formation. It is further observed by Babcock and in this study that breakouts are discrete, beginning and ending sharply, independently of depth, lithology and age of formation. It is very difficult to understand how breakouts can begin and end sharply, within and between formations, separated by similar lithologies with no regard to depth. In view of the various diagenetic processes involved in the transformation of the deposited sediments to consolidated sedimentary rocks from the Devonian to the Cretaceous age, which is more than 10<sup>8</sup> years, one wonders how surface joints can be a reflection of subsurface joints. In fact factors like cementation, compaction, recrystallisation, and many other processes involved in diagenesis coupled with the high temperatures and duration of the tectonic stresses will modify the response of the rock to stress, while any failure remains brittle. Such variables may lead to failure in some intervals in the sedimentary column, whereas the same material in adjoining area may not fail under the existing stress field. Consequently Bell and Gough's hypothesis can account for this discrete nature of breakout occurrence in wells. The presence of pre-existing fractures would also result in enormous circulation loss, which is however very small in this region. It is known that extensive circulation loss often leads to formation damage. Such damage often requires that hydraulic fracturing be carried out, this time

not just as a means of providing an increased permeability path into the otherwise tight formation, but as a means of creating a conducting channel through the damaged zones into the virgin formation. The absence of such effects as high circulation loss, damaged formation resulting from the drilling fluid escaping into the formation, and the complete absence of massive hydraulic fracturing processes in Alberta only go to support the point that pre-existing fractures of size as implied by Babcock are unlikely in the subsurface of Alberta. The only hydraulic fracturing process reported is the one at West Pembina (MacLeod, 1977). The fracturing direction is in agreement with the known theory on hydraulic fracturing and thus lends support to Bell and Gough's hypothesis (Gough & Bell, 1981). It is therefore, the present author's opinion that in the absence of positive extrapolation of surface joints to subsurface ones, Babcock's hypothesis does not account for the azimuthal alignment of breakouts. It is therefore concluded, subject to comparison with other stress measurement techniques in future, that breakouts are a result of the stress concentration by the borehole, in a general stress field having large and unequal horizontal stresses, at the walls of the hole resulting in the failure of some of the rocks. This is the hypothesis postulated by Bell and Gough.

Based on the Bell-Gough hypothesis, we find that the greatest horizontal principal stress trends N 25° E to N 60° E, with the majority occurring around N 42° E, and that the

least principal horizontal stress is directed N 30° W to N 65° W, with the majority around N 48° W throughout most parts of Alberta. Sbar and Sykes (1973) have reported the greatest principal horizontal compressive stress to be trending East to Northeast in Eastern North America and in the intermountain seismic belt in Montana, Idaho and Utah the minimum compressive stress trends East to Southeast. Our result thus fits closely to the general pattern of principal stress orientations reported in the older craton of the North American continent.

#### Implications of the Study

Measurement of stress by in-situ techniques can provide both the orientations and magnitudes of the principal components of stress. Such measurement of the stress field within the crust can provide, perhaps, the most useful information concerning the forces responsible for various tectonic processes, such as earthquakes. For example Sykes et al (1972) reported the occurrence of a series of small earthquakes generated in 1971 by the high pressure injection of fluids in a salt recovery well near Dale, about 10km east of Attica in Western New York State. When the high pressure injection ceased seismic activity dropped in three days from a rate of about 100 events per day to a rate of a few events per month. The triggering of the earthquakes was attributed to the increase of fluid pressure in the rocks under high tectonic stress. Healy et al (1968) also reported the Denver earthquakes. The Rocky Mountain Arsenal disposal well, which

was drilled through 3761 metres of sedimentary rocks of the Denver Basin near the city of Denver, Colorado, was intended for the disposal of waste fluids. The injection of fluid which was started from March 1962 to September 1963 was at a rate of about  $2.1 \times 10^7$  litres per month. Fluid injection ceased from October 1963 to August 1964, but was resumed under gravity from September 1964 until March 1965 at a rate of about  $7.5 \times 10^6$  litres per month. The rate was then increased to about  $1.7 \times 10^7$  litres per month until February 1966 when the exercise was terminated because of growing evidence of its connection with local earthquakes. Evans (1966) used the epicentral locations by Wang (1965) of earthquakes near the well and showed a correlation between rate of fluid injection and the earthquake frequency, with a lag of the earthquakes in the order of a few weeks behind the injection. The events which initially had epicentres less than 6 km from the well, were observed to continue with migration of the foci to the northwest. Healy et al examined the probability of a chance association, in both time and place, between the fluid injection and the earthquake swarm on the basis of the seismicity of the region and estimated this probability to be about 1 in 2.5 million. Healy et al (1968) therefore explained both the occurrence of the northward migration and the occurrence of the three large earthquakes, among a series of earthquakes, of magnitude  $\geq 5.0$  to the outward diffusion from the well of a pressure front in the pore water. This diffusion would imply that the

volume of rock affected by the increased water pressure likewise grows and this increased volume is thus associated with the the large earthquakes in a large volume of major strain. But it is well known that the increase of the pressure of the water in pores and cracks produces no shear stress and therefore cannot cause an earthquake. The induction process of the observed earthquakes was attributed to the presence of a nearly critical initial stress which could eventually cause failure of rock by triggering through by increase of pore water pressure as the Mohr circle is shifted to the left. This explanation is based on the Mohr-Coulomb failure theory, and the Hubbert and Rubey hypothesis of effective stress (1959) ( Healy et al, 1968; Gough and Gough, 1976; Gough, 1978).

The Rangely Experiment carried out by the United States Geological Survey at the Rangely Oilfield in Northwestern Colorado (Raleigh et al, 1972, 1976) was designed to verify quantitatively the explanation of the induced seismicity at Denver. There was an excellent agreement with the hypothesis. Raleigh et al (1976) also pointed out that this verification might have implications for the control of natural earthquakes at least in cases where it might be possible to pump water in and out of an active fault. This could possibly relieve the stress by first reducing the water pressure in wells at two points to strengthen the fault at those points, and then finally triggering an earthquake between the two points by injecting water there.



Knowledge of the state of stress is also critical to the design of underground excavations for mining and for nuclear waste disposal ( Jaeger and Cook, 1969; Gough, 1978). The massive hydraulic fracturing of formations in oil and gas fields to stimulate production is another field for which knowledge of the stress field at depth is very important. Application of stress measurements to the solution of problems in tectonics is not as straightforward as in engineering problems. The engineer is concerned with the stress field affecting the rock, whereas the geophysicist or geologist attempts to deduce the processes that might have caused the stresses. Thus the importance of the knowledge of principal stress orientations cannot be overemphasized. The use of breakouts to add principal stress orientations to the existing information on seismicity and tectonics will significantly increase the data base relevant to intra-plate earthquakes. Maps such as that shown in Figure 20 of the orientation of the horizontal principal stresses, will be of great value to engineering purposes and in addition will have important implications for the geophysics and structural geology of the area.

It must be emphasized that any attempt to relate the stress field to tectonic processes, must be based on a correct interpretation of the stress field. A variety of postglacial geologic features such as folds, faults, pop-ups, and other rock squeeze indicators may show high compressive stress in a region. Residual stresses may exist

in a rock according to its history of processes such as burial, lithification, denudation, heating, cooling, and past tectonic events and may persist to some extent after the rock is freed of boundary loads (Friedman, 1972). Such residual stresses may complicate the interpretation of stress observations. However, it would be difficult to attribute a consistently oriented stress field over a large area, as in the entire Western Canadian sedimentary basin, to residual stresses. The observed stress field almost certainly reflects tractions now acting on this part of the North American plate. The recent review by Zoback and Zoback (1980) shows that northeast-southwest horizontal larger compressions dominate the older craton of North America, as in the Northeastern United States (Sbar and Sykes, 1973) and the Western Canadian data fit well in this overall picture.

A knowledge of the orientation of the horizontal stresses is of great importance in the planning of a hydraulic fracture program. Near-surface ore bodies can be economically mined by open pit methods. Below the practical depth of open pit mining, new mining methods must be sought and developed to make deep ore bodies available to economic extraction. Solution mining has become a major method of extracting subsurface evaporite minerals because it is both economical and efficient. Hydraulic fracturing, apart from the fact that it is the only method currently in use that enables measurement of stress to be made at large distances

from a free surface, is used to develop permeable surface areas exposed to solvent for solution mining. Thus cross-connection of salt wells (and perhaps oil wells in future) by means of extending a hydrofracture from one well to the other has become a boon to the salt industry (Pullen Jr., 1958). The two wells so connected may be referred to as source and target wells, with the pressurized well from which the hydrofracture originates as a source. The target well acts in one of two ways. Ideally the target well should act like a sink so that the propagating fracture will want to intersect it. In some cases however, with the high stress concentrations around it, it may act as a barrier to the approaching fracture and most target wells act like minor sources, and thereby deflect the propagating fracture around themselves. To overcome this secondary role of the target well several techniques proposed have had promising effect. It will always be good practice to produce hydraulic fractures from the target well either before or during the major fracture attempt from the source, (Bays et al, 1960). Back fracturing has proved to be successful in several cases where a fracture connection was not successful in the original direction. It is also thought that much of the stress concentration around the target well might be reduced, if the target well were pressured up and held during the fracture operation of the source well, at a pressure less than the breakdown pressure. Crawford and Collins (1954) point out the adverse effects on the

efficiency of a fluid injection project when injection and production wells are not oriented with the natural and induced fractures. If wells are properly oriented and fractures of adequate length are induced, radial flow is reduced and areal-sweep problems are minimised.

We now consider the attempt to look critically at the lithologies in this study. The phenomenon of stress redistribution at depth in layered sequences of unlike rocks, known as arching, has been mentioned earlier. Arching may also be visualised in terms of massive competent beds acting as beams to carry the load imposed by crustal stress field and thereby reduce the stress on the less competent beds. Such an effect is important to the design of any subsurface opening. Perhaps the greatest importance of arching is its influence through the stress distribution on the breakdown pressure. The object of a multiple fracturing process (multifrac) is to obtain greater fracture area through closer fracture spacing, than could be obtained from the same number of wells with single vertical fractures. This method requires substantial deviation of the wells from the vertical and, therefore both the measured well length and drilling cost per unit length are increased when compared with a vertical well. Theory predicts a vertical hydraulically induced fracture in a strike-slip stress field, and such observations as are available confirm that in the Alberta sedimentary basin hydraulic fractures are generally vertical (Macleod, 1977 ). Thus it should be

possible to generate several fractures from a suitably deviated hole. Hydraulic fracturing theory predicts that fractures will propagate in a direction normal to the least principal in-situ stress or parallel to the maximum principal stress. Some experiments with non penetrating fluid indicate fractures may at least initiate parallel to the axis of the wellbore. A fracture initiated from an inclined open-hole wellbore might then result in a configuration unsuitable for the development of multiple vertical fractures. However, by casing the wellbore and perforating the casing over a small depth range, fracture initiation can be made to occur from a point or a small spherical cavity (Strubhar et al, 1975). The orientation should then be governed by the in-situ stress condition. Strubhar et al have shown experimentally that if the fractures are indeed oriented as dictated by in-situ stresses, the fractures will be sufficiently parallel and therefore be effective. The productivity index they found was two and three times that of a conventionally fractured well in the field.

### Conclusions

It has been argued earlier in this chapter and elsewhere that the consistency of the breakout azimuths irrespective of depth, lithology and age of the formation in almost all the wells, and the fact that the breakout azimuths reflect only one out of the two joint systems of Babcock, lead to a safe conclusion that the breakouts are

stress controlled or possibly both.

It is probable that some of the deviations from the generally northwest-southeast orientation of the breakouts can be attributed to local stress anomalies and some also to accidental hydraulic tensile fracturing during drilling with high-density mud. Zoback and Pollard (1978) noted that although high viscosity fluid reduces fluid penetration into pre-existing fractures or into permeable rocks, it has the disadvantage that such fluid may lead to hydraulic fractures significantly in advance of the observed breakdown in the pressure-time history.

On the hypothesis that breakouts are stress controlled, the following conclusions can be made.

1. The state of stress in the earth's crust is not in general lithostatic. There are high horizontal stresses relative to the vertical stress irrespective of depth. Tectonic conditions and the various sedimentary layers may, however, influence this state of stress.
2. Perhaps, some horizontal fractures were wrongly taken for vertical ones. Such horizontal fractures are believed to result from local inhomogeneities like bedding planes, joint-sets and the phenomenon of arching.
3. Although breakouts tend to occur in preferential directions dictated by the orientation of the regional stresses, induced vertical fractures may also be expected to have a preferential direction. In most cases

this direction is not identical to that of breakouts, but at right angles to them.

#### Concluding remarks

The consistency of the data in this region of North America and elsewhere on the continent strongly suggests that this measurement does not merely reflect local stresses but does, in fact, reflect a regional pattern. The existence of high stresses is not confined to any member of the rock formations, nor to any particular age of the formations. The phenomena of high stresses exist elsewhere in the North American continent and the world (Sbar and Sykes, 1973; Hast, 1973, 1974; Lo, 1978; McGarr and Gay, 1978; Gough, 1978; Zoback and Zoback, 1980) as evidenced by features like breakouts, folds, postglacial faults, and pop-ups. These stresses are probably related to the current tractions on the North American plate in the overall context of plate tectonics.

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## APPENDIX A

### A. Properties Of $\bar{\vartheta}$

Let  $\vartheta_1', \dots, \vartheta_n'$  be the angles obtained from  $\vartheta_1, \dots, \vartheta_n$  when the new zero direction is  $\alpha$ . Let

$$\bar{C}' = 1/n \cdot \sum \cos \vartheta_i' ; \bar{S}' = 1/n \cdot \sum \sin \vartheta_i' \text{-----A-1}$$

We have  $\vartheta_i' = (\vartheta_i - \alpha) \bmod 2\pi$ . So that

$$\bar{C}' = \bar{R} \cdot \cos(\bar{\vartheta} - \alpha) ; \bar{S}' = \bar{R} \cdot \sin(\bar{\vartheta} - \alpha) \text{-----A-2.}$$

If we write (A-2) as

$$\bar{C}' = \bar{R}' \cdot \cos \bar{\vartheta}' ; \bar{S}' = \bar{R}' \cdot \sin \bar{\vartheta}' \text{-----A-3}$$

then we have

$$\bar{\vartheta}' = (\bar{\vartheta} - \alpha) \bmod 2\pi ; \bar{R}' = \bar{R} \text{-----A-4.}$$

Hence Equation 3-2 is satisfied. Also from (3-4) and (3-5) we have

$$\sum \sin(\vartheta_i - \bar{\vartheta}) = 0 \text{-----A-5}$$

which corresponds to the equation in the linear case  $\sum(X_i - \bar{X}) = 0$ , i.e. the sum of deviation about the mean vanishes.

### Circular Standard Deviation

We have seen that  $S_c$  lies in the range (0, 1). To relate  $S_c$  to the standard deviation on the line, it is natural to use the following result for the wrapped normal distribution.

$1 - S_c = e^{-\sigma^2/2}$ . We can then define the circular standard deviation as

$$\sigma = \sqrt{-2 \cdot \log_e(1 - S_c)} \text{-----A-6}$$

The range of  $\sigma$  is of course (0,  $\infty$ ). For small  $S_c$ , Equation A-6 reduces to  $\sigma = (2 \cdot S_c)^{1/2}$ , a transformation first suggested



by Von Mises, 1918).