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Full Name of Author Nom complet de l'auteur

BRIAN DARRYL HEALD

Date of Birth Date de naissance

SEPT 17, 1956

Country of Birth Lieu de naissance

CANADA

Permanent Address Résidence fixe

44 Aleutian Road
Nepean, Ontario
K2H 7C8

Title of Thesis Titre de la thèse

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Name of Supervisor — Nom du directeur de thèse

DR. D.M. CRUDEN

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
A Geotechnical Investigation of the
Devonian Waterways Formation
at the SANDALTA Lease

by

Brian Darrel Heald

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
and Research in Partial Fulfilment of
the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science
in Civil Engineering

Department of Civil Engineering

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BRIAN DARREL HEALD

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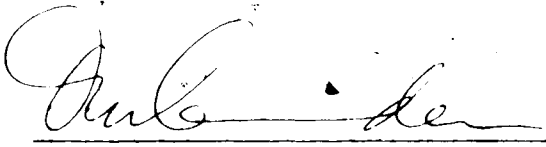
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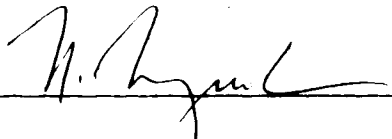
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Dr. D. M. Cruden

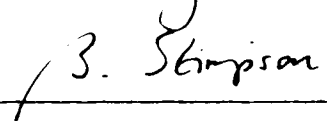


Supervisor :

Dr. N. R. Morgenstern



Dr. B. Stimpson



Date: May 20, 1983

ABSTRACT

This thesis documents the geological and geotechnical features of the Upper Devonian Waterways Formation with respect to future mining ventures in the Athabasca oilsands.

Detailed descriptions of limestone core retrieved from the SANDALTA lease were employed in assessing the extent of solution, erosion and weathering upon the upper stratigraphic members. Structural interpretations and facies analyses were also completed.

Geotechnical investigations included a summary of the overall rock mass quality and establishment of an empirical rock mass failure envelope. The impact of the observed geological features upon open pit and mine assisted in-situ projects is assessed and preliminary design guidelines are provided. The influence of paleotopography, hydrogeology and solution structures are emphasized.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 General

Commercial production of synthetic crude oil from the Athabasca oilsands commenced in 1967 and has since accounted for less than 5% of the estimated total reserves of 114 billion m³ of in-place bitumen (AOSTRA, 1980). Greater than 95% of the reserves are buried at depth and cannot be economically recovered by present surface mining techniques. Alternative in-situ and mine-assisted recovery methods have been proposed and are currently being evaluated by laboratory and pilot project studies.

Throughout the Athabasca region, approximately 70% of the oil bearing McMurray Formation is underlain by the Devonian Waterways Formation. Both in-situ and surface mining ventures interact with the Waterways and thus require a complete understanding of its geotechnical character and behaviour.

This study emerged from a recent proposal by the SANDALTA consortium to develop an open pit mine on the east bank of the Athabasca River (Figure 1.1). Reconnaissance drilling at this location generated increased concern about the geological features and engineering complexities of the Waterways Formation. This concern prompted a detailed

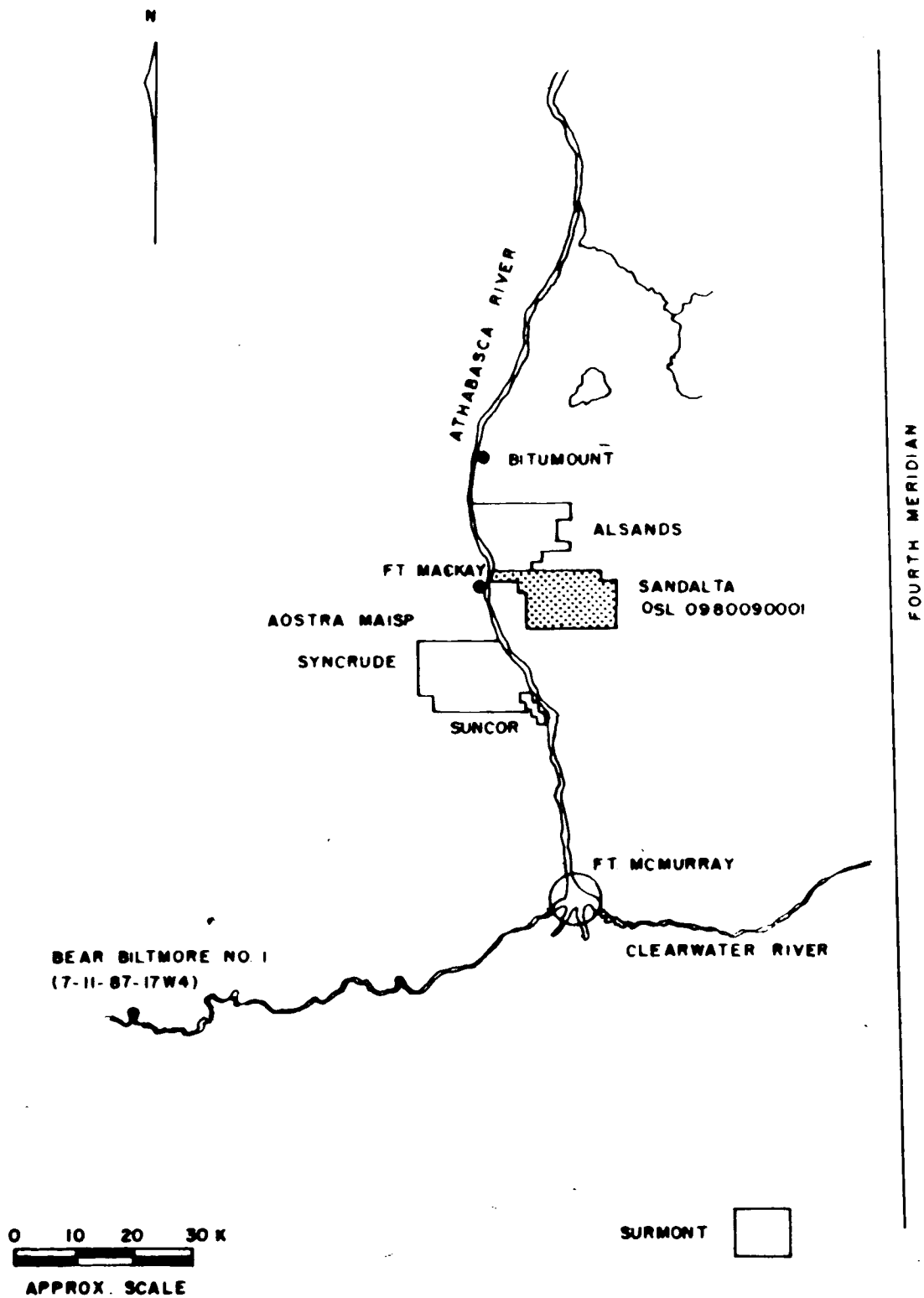


FIGURE 1.1: SITE LOCATION MAP - OSL 0980090001

in-house study whereupon the author was retained by Gulf Canada Resources Inc. (GCRI) in June, 1981. A preliminary report summarizing laboratory investigations was completed in December, 1981 and formed the basis for more recent research conducted independently at the University of Alberta.

1.2 Course of Study

The data base for this study consisted of approximately 2300 metres of 6 cm diameter core retrieved from 123 coreholes located throughout the SANDALTA lease (Figure 1.2). Approximately 18 metres of core was recovered from each borehole by diamond bit rotary coring techniques. All core was frozen on-site, then transported to GCRI's Calgary facilities where it was split in half, photographed and logged by staff geologists. Geophysical logs were completed in each borehole immediately following coring. All core was stored in an uncontrolled climate warehouse until review by the author, four to sixteen months later. At the time of review, all core displayed a high degree of subhorizontal fracturing. This phenomenon was particularly pronounced in the fissile calcareous shales and was thought to be due to a combination of dessication, handling and possibly core diskings.

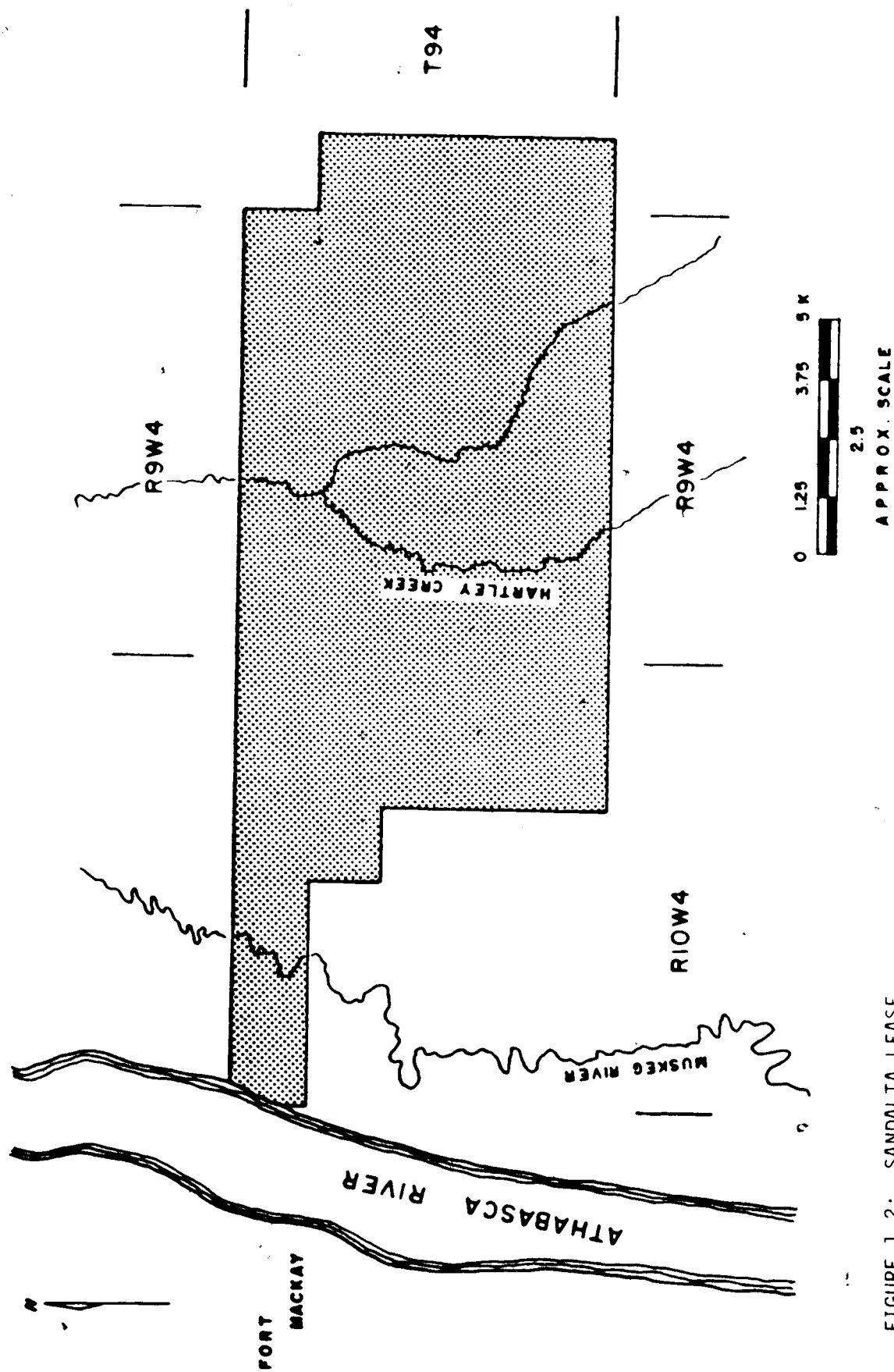


FIGURE 1.2: SANDALTA LEASE

Mean core recovery exceeded 95%, thereby facilitating rapid correlation with geophysical logs. Although drilling records did not report rapid ground losses, missing core sections may represent eroded soft materials or subsurface voids.

Following completion of the descriptive logging, carbonate facies models and geophysical cross plots were employed in distinguishing the various core lithologies. Vertical cross-sections were created to establish stratigraphic correlations and facies boundaries. Subsequent studies emphasized erosional, weathering and solution features and the geotechnical impact of these features upon expected recovery projects. √

1.3 Aim and Scope of the Study


This thesis reviews current knowledge of the Waterways Formation and discusses Upper Devonian structural features underlying the SANDALTA lease. The study also assesses the effect of geological features upon open pit and mine-assisted recovery projects. Generalized recommendations for mine development are included.

Some of the questions to be addressed include the following:

1. What are the characteristics of solution features

on the Devonian surface and at depth?

2. What are the features of deep-seated collapse structures and are they potentially unstable?
3. Is solution presently occurring and if so, where, and how aggressively?
4. What other structural features characterize the Waterways and what effect will they have upon mine development?
5. What are the characteristics of early Cretaceous erosional channels and their infillings?
6. How well developed and widespread are weathering features such as paleosols?
7. Is the rock mass generally suitable for tunnel and shaft construction?
8. What are the hydrogeologic properties of the rock mass?
9. What is the in-situ state of stress?
10. How will the rock mass respond to changes in the stress field due to mine development and thermal stimulation?
11. Is deep-seated highwall stability a concern?
12. Are mine floor collapse structures unstable?



It is emphasized that the study does not provide detailed paleontologic or biostratigraphical analyses. Moreover, the findings are subject to inherent limitations

including the following:

1. The observed core represents two of the six Waterways members. The remaining four members and Middle and Lower Devonian units remain unexamined. Regional structural conclusions are necessarily based upon inference from shallow core. .
2. Structural observations such as fracture type and density are inherently biased as they were derived exclusively from vertical core.
3. Regional corehole data with which to compare detailed site findings was not readily available.
4. Stratigraphic control was difficult to establish due to high vertical and lateral variability in lithology.
5. Core and outcrop findings could not be confirmed in underground excavations.
6. The present level of geotechnical data is insufficient for design purposes.

Despite these limitations, it is hoped the findings of this study will prove useful for future Waterways investigations. Many areas of geotechnical interest remain unexplored.

2. CURRENT KNOWLEDGE OF THE WATERWAYS FORMATION

2.1 Lithology and Stratigraphy

2.1.1 General

Many authors have documented the lithology and regional stratigraphy of the Waterways Formation. In particular, studies by McDonald (1947), Belyea (1952), Crickmay (1957), Carrigy (1959), Norris (1963, 1973) and Norris and Uyeno (1981) are the most descriptive.

Richardson (1851) first reported limestones in outcrop along the Clearwater and Athabasca Rivers, but it was Warren (1933) who applied the Waterways name to the rock mass overlying the Middle Devonian Evaporite Formation. McDonald (1947) later described the upper Devonian lithologies, however Crickmay (1957) originally subdivided the formation into five members based upon the 214 metre type section at the Bear Biltmore well (7-11-87-17W4) located 80 kilometres west-southwest of Ft. McMurray (Figure 1.1). The five members were the Mildred, Moberly, Christina, Calumet and Firebag members in descending order (Figure 2.1). Fong (1959, 1960) later defined the Swan Hills Member, a reefal carbonate named after its type location.

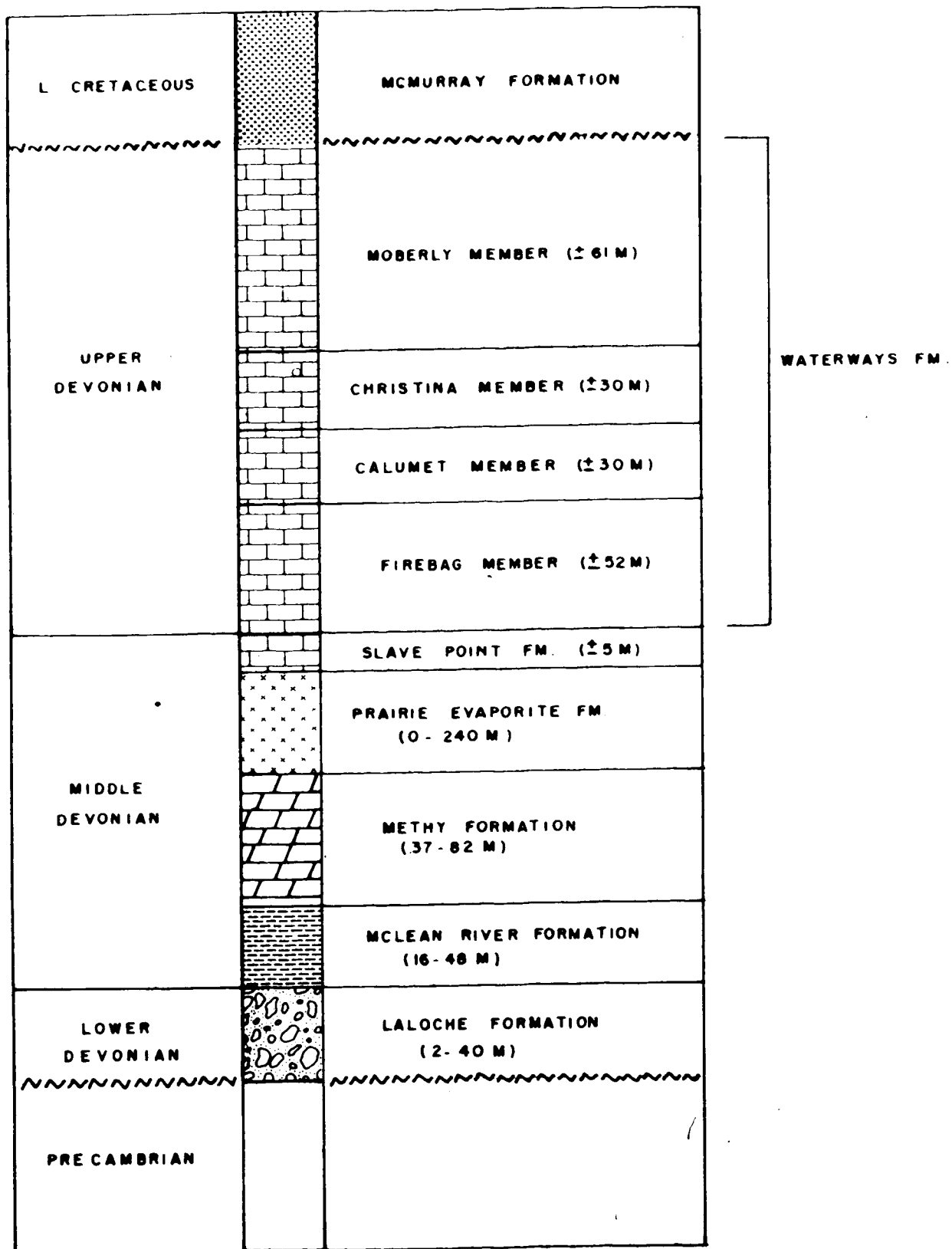


FIGURE 2.1: LOCAL STRATIGRAPHIC COLUMN

In the Bear Biltmore type section, the Waterways lies between the Middle Devonian (Givetian) Slave Point Formation and the Upper Devonian (Middle Frasnian) Cooking Lake Formation. It is thus early Frasnian in age. Both upper and lower contacts are conformable.

In the Ft. McMurray area, the Waterways is unconformably overlain by the Lower Cretaceous McMurray Formation. The Upper Devonian Cooking Lake, Ireton and Grosmont Formations were removed prior to Lower Cretaceous deposition. The Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity represents combined Carboniferous, Permian, Triassic and Jurassic time, a total of approximately 250-300 million years.

At the SANDALTA lease, the Waterways comprises a southwesterly dipping regional monocline with a dip of less than 10° . Total documented thickness ranges from 214 to 274 metres (Norris, 1963, 1973) in a wedge-shaped unit which thickens toward the southwest (Figure 2.2). Deposition occurred within the Western Canadian sedimentary basin during Upper Devonian (Frasnian) time.

Warren (1951) discussed the transgression and regression of the Middle Devonian Boreal Sea. It was considered to have been a shallow epeiric sea extending from the present Arctic to the southern United States and from the Selkirk Mountains to the Canadian Shield in Manitoba. Withdrawal of this sea resulted in evaporite formation which was in turn followed by transgression of a more widespread,

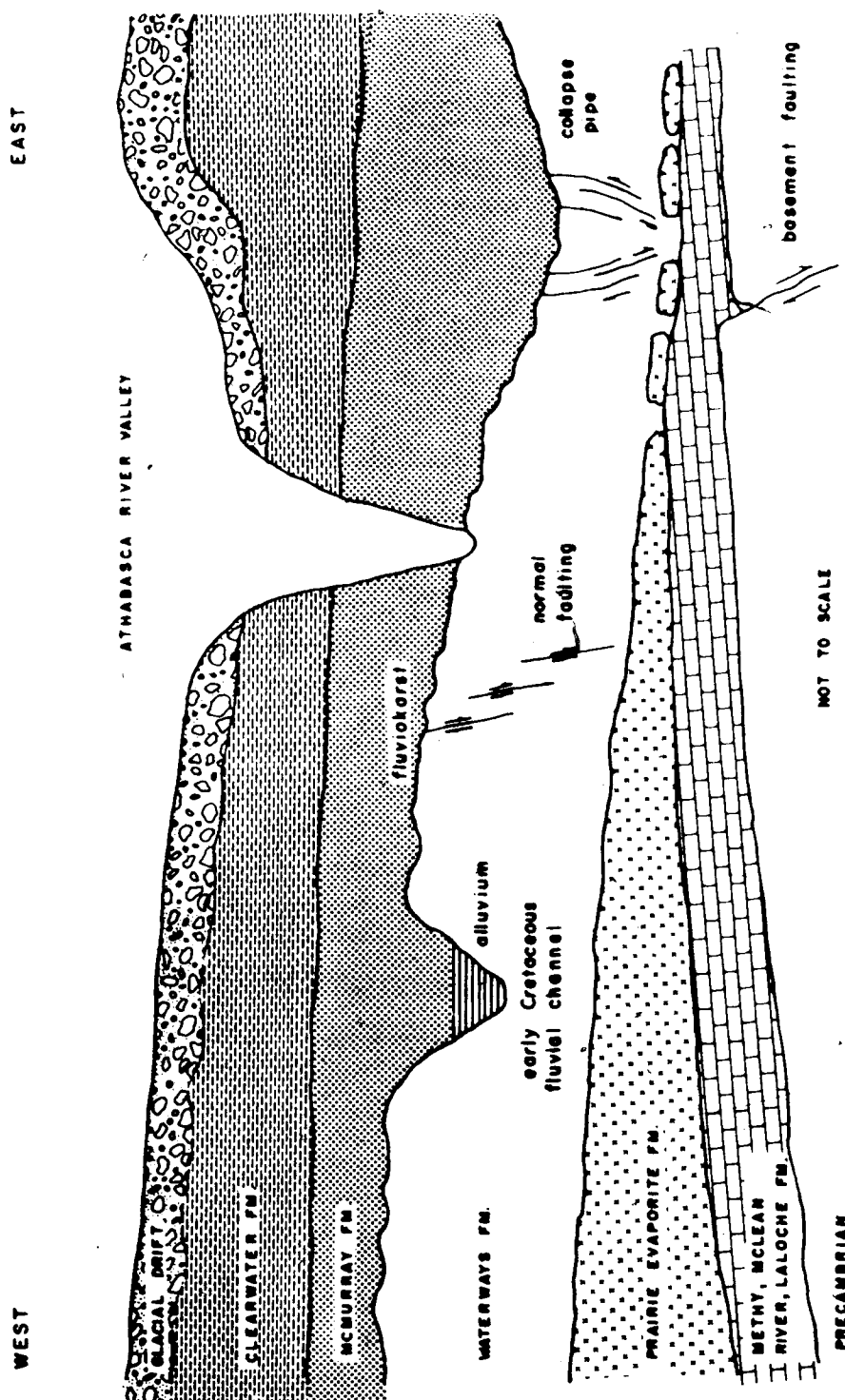


FIGURE 2.2: IDEALIZED REGIONAL CROSS SECTION

Upper Devonian epeiric sea. This sea was characterized by three primary cycles of transgression and regression. The first transgression is considered to have deposited the argillaceous carbonates of the Waterways Formation. Thus the bottom of the Waterways defines the commencement of Upper Devonian deposition. The Middle Devonian Slave Point Formation is also recognized as a transgressive unit. Their mutual contact is believed to be conformable (Norris 1973).

Underlying the Slave Point Formation are the Middle Devonian, Prairie Evaporite Formation (0-240 m), Methy Formation (37-82 m) and McLean River Formation (16-48 m) (Figure 2.1). Immediately underlying these units is the Lower Devonian LaLoche Formation (2-40 m) which unconformably overlies the Precambrian basement in the study locale.

Overlying the Waterways is the unconformable Lower Cretaceous McMurray Formation. As mentioned, the Upper Devonian Cooking Lake, Ireton and Groumont Formations were removed prior to Lower Cretaceous deposition. These units are present to the southwest in Crickmay's (1957) type section. They were found to be conformable with the Waterways at that location. The Upper Devonian erosional surface dips gently to the southwest and exposes progressively younger units westward.

Belyea (1952) correlated the Waterways of the Athabasca region with the Beaverhill Lake Formation of

Central Alberta. In addition, Belyea and McLaren (1957) described an approximate Waterways equivalent to the northwest, the lower half of the Hay River Formation. Bassett (1952) described Waterways fauna and correlated the formation with stratigraphic equivalents throughout the central United States.

2.1.2 Precambrian

Carrigy (1959), Ellis (1932) and Sproule (1951), each described local "bosses" of Precambrian quartzite in Township 94, Range 10, immediately west of the SANDALTA lease. These metasediments are thought to represent the Churchill Province of the Canadian Shield. They are Archean in age and reportedly intruded by granites and granitic gneisses which were in turn crosscut by pegmatitic and aplitic veins and diabase dykes (Carrigy, 1959).

2.1.3 Lower Devonian

The LaLoche Formation was named by Norris (1963) to represent the early Devonian granite washes, arkosic sandstones and claystones that nonconformably overlie the Precambrian basement. The type section occurs along the Clearwater River southeast of Ft. McMurray. Norris (1973) indicated that these units often appear only in Precambrian

depressions and that considerable thinning occurs over Precambrian highs.

At the type section, the LaLoche Formation is less than 2 m thick, however it thickens towards the north to 40 metres (Norris 1973). The upper contact is conformable with the Middle Devonian McLean River Formation and thus it is considered to be Early Devonian. Outcrop lithology consists predominantly of light brown, fine to medium grained, thinly bedded, feldspathic sandstones. Iron oxide staining suggests intermittent subaerial exposure. Secondary lithologies include sandy dolomites, mudstones, shales and minor beds of anhydrite and gypsum (Norris, 1973). Basal deposits consist of weathered igneous and metasedimentary rocks or "granite wash".

2.1.4 Middle Devonian

The early Middle Devonian McLean River Formation was also named by Norris (1963) to represent the sandy dolomites, shales and siltstones that immediately overlie the Lower Devonian LaLoche Formation. Again, the type section is on the Clearwater River, southeast of Ft. McMurray. Both upper and lower contacts are conformable and well defined. The upper contact is distinguished by a gross lithologic change from fine grained clastics to the marine carbonates of the Methy Formation.

The thickness of the McLean River at the type section is 18.6 metres. Its maximum thickness to the north is 344 metres (Norris, 1973). Outcrop lithologies consist of light grey, fine grained, medium to thick bedded sandy dolomites with interbedded olive, calcareous sandy shales and mudstones. Occasional dolomitic siltstones, sandy shales, mudstones and interbedded anhydrite and gypsum have been observed west of the type section (Norris, 1973). On the basis of fossil content and stratigraphic position, the McLean River Formation is early Middle Devonian (Eifelian) in age.

The Middle Devonian Methy Formation was first referenced by Nauss (1950), however it was Greiner (1956) who defined the type section at location 9-36-88-8W4. Subsequent work by Carrigy (1959) and Norris (1963) provided more lithologic detail. The Methy Formation conformably separates the overlying Prairie Evaporite Formation from the McLean River dolomites and shales.

Greiner (1956) defined three lithologic subdivisions. First, a relatively thin bedded, grey, basal silty dolomite and evaporite unit with thin interbeds of anhydrite and shale. Total thickness varies from 1-11 metres. The second unit consists of brown to grey, poorly to well bedded dolomite, often flow layered and brecciated. Reefal and interreefal beds are also common. Thickness varies from 40-61 metres. The third, upper unit

consists of well bedded dolomites and evaporites which are often argillaceous. Thin beds of anhydrite are characteristic. Thickness varies from 1-17 metres.

Based on stratigraphic equivalence and paleontologic content, the Methy Formation is considered to be late Eifelian to late Givetian in age (Norris, 1973). Total thickness varies from 37 to 82 metres.

Conformably overlying the Methy are the anhydrite beds of the Prairie Evaporite Formation. The Prairie Evaporite was named by Baillie (1953), and although the formation does not outcrop along the Athabasca or Clearwater Rivers, it is present west of the Athabasca. In the Bear Biltmore No. 1 well, Carrigy (1959) subdivided the formation into two units. The lower unit consists of grey halite with brownish grey anhydrite beds throughout. Its thickness in the type section is 212.5 metres. Finely interbedded siltstones are also common. The upper unit consist of silty shales, dolomitic shales and mottled silty anhydrite with some dolomite and limestone. Its thickness in the type section is 25 metres. Total formation thickness varies from zero at SANDALTA (GCRI, 1981) to 237.5 m in the Bear Biltmore No. 1 well. The age of the Prairie Evaporite is based on stratigraphic position and is late Middle Devonian (Givetian) (Norris, 1973).

Disconformably overlying the Prairie Evaporite is a thin series of carbonate rocks, named the Slave Point

Formation by Cameron (1918). Eastward near the Alberta-Saskatchewan border, the Slave Point overlaps both the erosional and depositional edge of the Prairie Evaporite and thus rests directly on the Methy Formation. The upper contact is defined by a change in both fauna and lithology and is paraconformable with the Waterways Firebag Member.

The Slave Point Formation does not outcrop in the study area, however borehole lithologies include argillaceous limestones, siltstones and dolomitic limestones. The carbonates are often brecciated and there is a lack of macrofossils. Thickness ranges from 1.7 metres in the Bear Biltmore No. 1 well to approximately 5 metres in the SANDALTA locale (Norris, 1973). The Slave Point thickens considerably to the west and northwest. The age of the Slave Point Formation is late Middle Devonian (Norris 1973).

2.1.5 Upper Devonian

Several authors have compiled lithologic descriptions of the various Waterways Members. Although Warren (1933) first named the formation, Crickmay (1957) defined the five members currently recognized. The Upper Devonian Grosmont, Ireton and Cooking Lake Formations were removed during the net erosional period separating Upper Devonian and Lower Cretaceous time. This hiatus represents

250-300 million years.

The basal Firebag Member consists of olive calcareous shale with thin, interbedded argillaceous limestones and non-calcareous shales. A fragmental limestone is common at the base (Norris, 1973) and may be accompanied by halite. Thickness in the type section is 52 metres, however this increases northeasterly to approximately 59 metres at SANDALTA (GCRI, 1981). A subtle northwesterly dip of less than 5° is evident throughout the study region.

Norris (1963) reported that the Firebag contained very few species of brachiopods, however Crickmay (1966) recognized two distinct fossil zones which have been used to correlate the Firebag with similar members throughout western Canada and the northwestern United States.

The Calumet Member conformably overlies the Firebag Member and consists of grey to buff, clastic and microcrystalline argillaceous limestones with interbedded, olive calcareous shales and minor non-calcareous shale. Norris (1963) described four lithologies in detail from outcrop located along the Clearwater River.

Immediately south of Ft. McMurray, at Township 83, the Calumet limestone has less than 10% argillaceous content at the top and becomes increasingly argillaceous toward the bottom where the clay content may be 20% - 30% (GCRI, 1981). The Calumet also displays a much higher faunal

content than either of the adjacent Firebag or Christina Members. It is characterized by a high bioclastic debris content and is commonly classified as a wackestone. The thickness of the Calumet is constant over a large area. It is 31 metres thick in the type section. Both upper and lower contacts are conformable and marked by distinct lithologic changes. Again, a northwesterly dip of less than 5° is observed.

The next member in ascending order is the Christina Member. The Christina consists primarily of olive grey calcareous shales which grade vertically into a thin grey argillaceous limestone. Norris (1973) also reported minor light brown aphanitic and fragmental limestones. At Township 83, Range 6, the Christina possesses two repeating limestone-shale cycles and a northwesterly regional dip of 1° (GCRI, 1981). Clay content may reach 15% and the calcareous shales are commonly 40% - 50% carbonate (GCRI, 1981). Fossils are not common in the Christina, however several bryozoan species may be observed (Norris, 1973). Submarine hardgrounds are a common occurrence. Thickness varies from 23 to 37 metres (Norris, 1973).

Conformably overlying the Christina is the thick Moberly Member. The Moberly comprises an alternating sequence of olive, finely interbedded to rubbly argillaceous limestones and calcareous shales with light brown, hard fragmental limestones. Argillaceous content increases

toward the top of the member and in a northerly direction. Immediately south of Ft. McMurray, the basal 3-4 metres is a grey calcareous shale similar to those present in the Christina (GCRI, 1981). Light brown, micritic, nodular textures have also been observed at this location (Township 83, Range 6).

Norris (1973) noted that throughout the McMurray area, the Moberly Member subcrops on the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity. Total recorded thickness varies to 61 metres in the type section. Fossils are abundant and include brachiopods, crinoids, and stromatoporoids. Norris (1963) provided a complete list of species.

The uppermost member of the Waterways Formation is the Mildred Member. Although the Mildred does not outcrop in the immediate Ft. McMurray area, its lithology is known from regional boreholes. Olive-grey calcareous shales, argillaceous limestones and light brown clastic limestones are characteristic. Both upper and lower contacts are conformable. The Mildred is 43 metres thick in the type section, but has been completely eroded at SANDALTA.

Additional geologic information pertaining to all Waterways Members includes mineralogic, petrologic and structural features. In general, all Waterways carbonates are lime mud-supported with few grain-supported lithologies. The supporting carbonate mud or micrite is predominantly microcrystalline calcite with scattered rhombs of dolomite

or ankerite. Small percentages of the clay minerals illite, kaolinite and chlorite have also been distinguished (GCRI, 1981). Moberly and Christina shales commonly contain 50% - 60% calcite as cement or matrix and may therefore be considered to be carbonate muds or micrites. They continue to be classified as shales due to their textural uniqueness. Bulk mineral analyses reveal the presence of minor ferroan dolomite and quartz. Minor siderite and halite have also been recorded (GCRI, 1981).

Both primary porosity and permeability in the Moberly and Christina are expected to be low. Secondary jointing, weathering and solution exercise the greatest influence upon both parameters. In-situ measurements have not been made.

McDonald (1947) discussed the high density of the Waterways and suggested there was no primary gypsum. All gypsum was proposed to be rehydrated anhydrite. McDonald (1947) further reported that epithermal calcite and marcasite veining was common. Marcasite was commonly found as a fossil replacement in veins in shales, as coatings on nodules and as disseminated grains. McDonald (1947) suggested that the iron sulphides were not detrital, but rather, secondary in origin. Calcite veining suggests a similar hydrothermal origin.

McDonald (1947) also attributed the high calcareous content of the "shales" to a more epicontinental

depositional environment. Their characteristic olive color was not attributed to the presence of glauconite but rather to the presence of ferrous iron compounds. He suggested that the formation of carbonate nodules was contemporaneous with deposition and that the common mottled texture may be due to processes such as organic decay, bioturbation, calcite replacement and cyclic carbonate - micrite deposition. Belyea (1952) suggested that the finely interbedded character may be attributed to an unstable shelf environment where continual shallowing was dominant.

In summary, the Waterways members consist primarily of interbedded argillaceous limestones and calcareous shales. The suggested marine environment is a shallow, epicontinental slope or platform.

2.2 Structural Geology

Mesoscopic structural features such as laminations, banding, brecciation and bioturbation are described in detail in Sections 3.6.1 and 3.6.2. The larger regional features dominate the structural geology and are presently considered.

The Paleozoic section overlying the westerly sloping Precambrian basement forms a southwesterly dipping regional monocline that exhibits numerous local basins and faults. The monocline strikes north-northwest and thickens

toward the west (Figure 2.2). Erosional hiatuses exist at both the upper and lower contacts.

Hume (1947) first reported Waterways flexures with amplitudes of 15-30 metres and wavelengths of several hundred metres to a kilometre. These basins were thought to be circular in plan and thus without a predominant strike direction. The absence of a regional fold trend suggests they were not formed by tectonic compression. Hume (1947) considered anhydrite-gypsum volume changes to be the most likely source of surface undulations. Further discussion by Allan (1947) indicated that there was insufficient gypsum to have caused widespread deformation. Other potential mechanisms include differential solution and subsidence or salt diapirism. Williams (1980) thought that a regional south-southwest fold trend could be distinguished. Carrigy (1959) attributed surface flexures to the solution process and further suggested that solution was structurally controlled by a northwest striking fault (Figure 2.3).

Several authors have suggested the presence of regional faulting. Sproule (1932) proposed a northwest striking fault along the Clearwater River with the downthrown side to the west. Kidd (1951) suggested this movement took place in Lower Cretaceous time, thus affecting both the Waterways and McMurray Formations. Stewart (1963) related the distribution of McMurray sands to structural features such as the Nisku-Grosmont topographic high, Elk

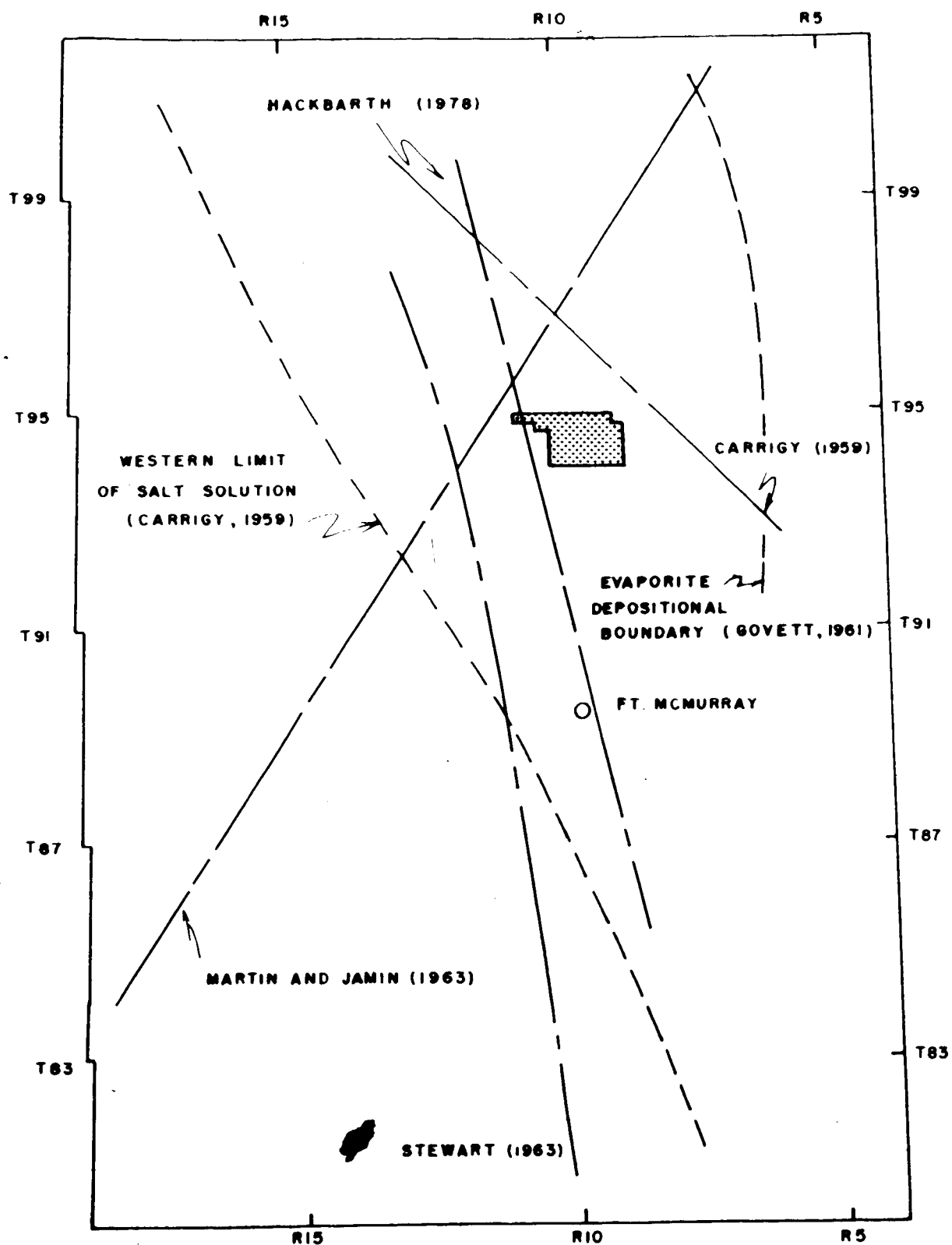


FIGURE 2.3: REGIONAL FAULT TRENDS

Point Evaporite leaching, Pre-Cretaceous erosion and deep-seated Precambrian faulting. This faulting was related to erosional ridges on the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity.

Norris (1963) compiled detailed lithologic and biostratigraphic information on each Waterways Member and identified a south-southwest structural trend. This trend was incompatible with the regional southwesterly dip and thus minor flexures were considered unrelated to the monocline. Norris (1963) also identified regional southwesterly post-Cretaceous tilting and faulting.

Martin and Jamin (1963) identified various erosion resistant scarps or cuernas which were thought to be crosscut by a major deep-seated northeast fault pattern. The movement of the northern block was considered to have been northeasterly relative to the south block (Figure 2.3). The scarps were attributed to both surface erosion and warping over successive steps of the collapsed Elk Point Evaporites. All cuernas trend north-northwesterly. Martin and Jamin (1963) also suggested local valley trends were fault-controlled, however, they did not account for the origin of the faulting.

Hackbarth (1978) and Hackbarth and Nastasa (1979) also proposed faulting throughout the Athabasca region. They named the Sewetakun fault which strikes subparallel to the Athabasca River, southeasterly from Ft. MacKay to Ft. McMurray (Figure 2.3). Hackbarth (1978) cited the presence

of 83 metres of offset between adjacent wells in the Precambrian in addition to gravity map trends, low hydraulic heads, coincidence of the salt solution edge and intense structural deformation of rock units along the trend, as evidence. Hackbarth and Nastasa (1979) proposed a second west-northwest trending fault and a western downthrow for the Sewetakun fault. Regional paleodrainage was further attributed to pre-existing fault trends.

Jointing is another large scale regional structural feature. Babcock (1975) conducted joint surveys along the Athabasca River and reported two dominant joint systems (four sets) in the Moberly Member. Although both systems were reportedly well developed, Babcock (1975) emphasized that both may not appear in every outcrop. A north-south-east-west system was found to dominate the less obvious north-northwest/east-northeast system. Numerous random fractures were also observed.

Babcock (1975) also noted that the secondary system paralleled the Cordillera and attributed its development to tectonic stressing associated with the Tertiary Laramide orogeny. He also stated that both systems displayed parallelism with Precambrian basement structures. The overall continuity of joints was considered to represent a widespread, uniform stress system. Sinha (1976) also provided local structural information, however it was not consistent with the findings of Babcock (1975).

Babcock and Sheldon (1976) correlated earlier joint surveys with aerial photographs. They observed that sinkholes north of the study area were aligned with the solution edge of the Prairie Evaporite. They also inferred that Paleozoic drainage, salt solution and structural flexing are processes that are directly related.

Williams, Stimpson, Patching and Jeremic (1980) also reported on Waterways joints. They concurred with Babcock's (1975) findings and added roughness, waviness and planarity data. They found roughness indices did not correlate well with any other geological or engineering parameter and that roughness was difficult to characterize due to local textural variations. Williams et al (1980) noted joints were predominantly vertical and rarely extended across two adjacent lithologies. They did not report any occurrences of joint displacement or shear. Mathews, Rawlings and Bharti (1980) added that regional faulting may be difficult to distinguish from subsidence effects.

Finally, the nature of the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity and its associated paleotopography is considered. Gorrel (1974) recognized two influences on Devonian relief, that of Pre-Cretaceous channel scouring and Prairie Evaporite solution subsidence. Carrigy (1959) also recognized several episodes of subaerial exposure and suggested the resultant topography was structurally controlled by Prairie Evaporite removal. Norris (1973)

reported regional westward tilting of approximately 2.8 metres per kilometre during the Devonian-Cretaceous hiatus. Martin and Jamin (1963) also suggested tilting of less than 3 metres per kilometre.

In general, Waterways paleotopography is complex and highly sculpted (Figure 2.4). Norris (1973) illustrated slopes as great as 76 metres per kilometre with relief up to 152 metres. The regional northwesterly trend represents the erosion-resistant edges of various subcropping members.

Martin and Jamin (1963) identified three primary influences upon paleotopography:

1. regional Pre-Cretaceous tilting to the southwest of approximately 3 metres per kilometre.
2. localized warping forming basins with no traditional strike direction. Flank dips of 1° - 20° and amplitudes up to 76 metres were measured. All deformations were attributed to solution removal of the Elk Point Evaporites.
3. Precambrian and Paleozoic faults striking northeasterly and thought to be due to regional tectonic activity.

They also depicted two principal paleodrainage basins. The basins were separated by an erosion-resistant ridge south of

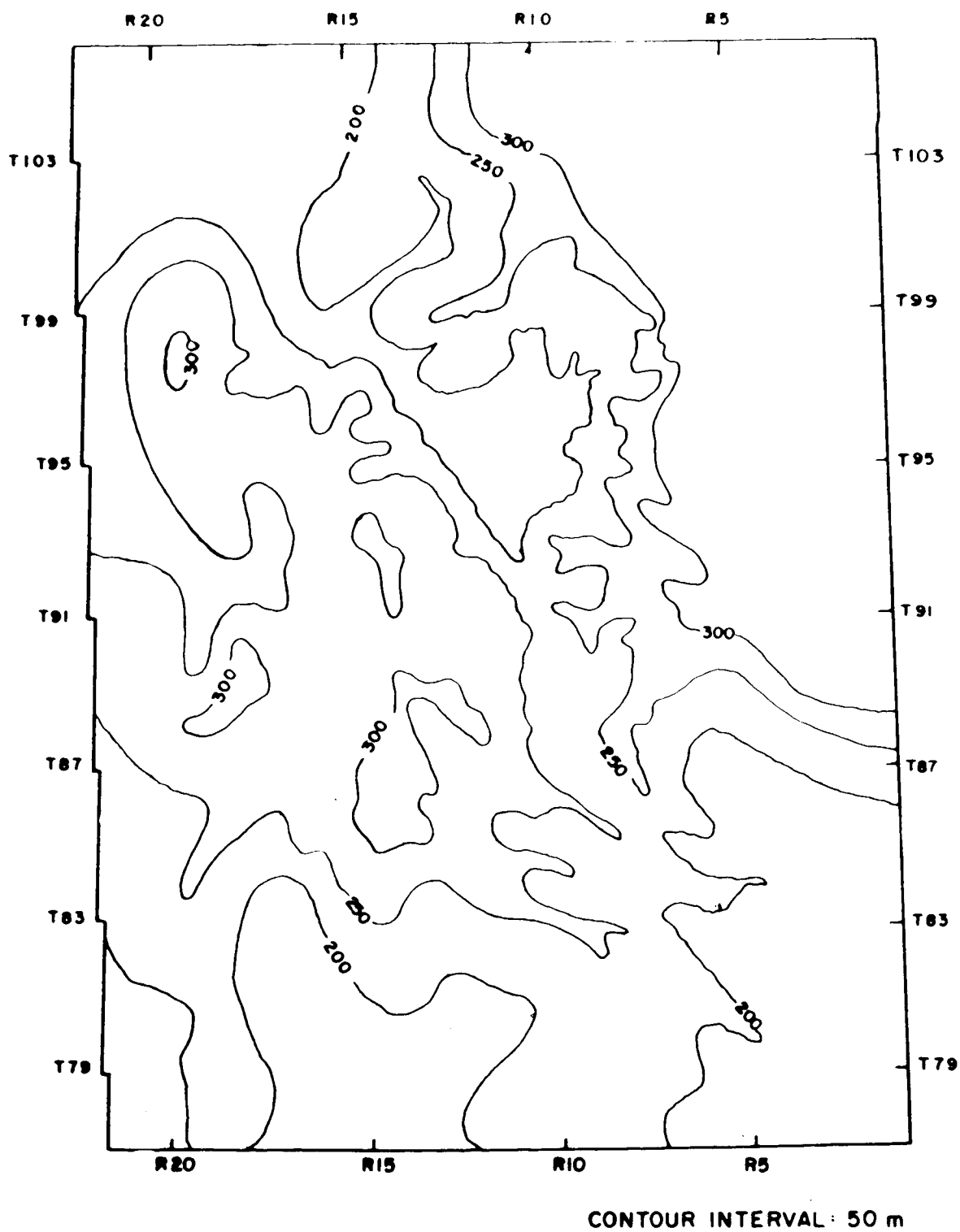


FIGURE 2.4: REGIONAL PALEOZOIC STRUCTURE (after Martin and Jamin, 1963)

SANDALTA which effected northerly paleodrainage at the SANDALTA locale. These channels were considered by Stewart (1963) to exercise a major influence upon Cretaceous sand deposition.

In summary, the structural history of the Waterways includes episodes of regional jointing, faulting and subsidence. Tectonic folding is not generally recognized. The upper surface displays a deeply incised, complex paleotopography which has been affected by major erosional and subsidence occurrences in addition to surface solution. The character and degree of development of the karst is poorly documented.

2.3 Hydrogeology

Hydrogeologic studies completed by Gorrel (1974), Hackbarth (1977, 1978, 1980), Hackbarth and Nastasa (1979) and Ozoray, Hackbarth and Lytviak (1980) have contributed to a preliminary understanding of the Athabasca hydrogeology. Site specific studies may have been conducted throughout the mined areas, however the results of such studies are not generally available.

In their 1974 regional hydrogeologic study, the Oilsands Environmental Study Group established that Devonian depressions in the Bitumount area acted as either subsurface drainage basins or as vertical hydraulic conduits. Numerous

sinkholes were identified and a prominent collapse structure was defined at the boundary between Townships 94 and 95, Range 9 (the northern boundary of the SANDALTA lease). An upward regional hydraulic gradient through the Middle and Upper Devonian was identified and both basal and post-Devonian aquifers were established. A well defined karst topography and fluviodrainage pattern were also recognized.

Hackbarth (1977) provided a more detailed regional hydrogeologic overview. He defined three regional flow systems employing the Precambrian crystalline rocks as the hydrogeologic basement. The three systems included:

1. Cretaceous - Tertiary system
2. Upper Devonian system
3. Middle and Lower Devonian system

Hackbarth (1977, 1978) further indicated that groundwater flow in the Cretaceous system is structurally controlled. Recharge apparently occurs in surficial muskeg-filled low lying areas and discharge by major streams and rivers. Hydraulic heads were everywhere less than hydrostatic due to a proposed horizontal flow regime.

Upper Devonian flow regimes are controlled by two dominant factors according to Gorrel (1974), Hackbarth (1978) and Hackbarth and Nastasa (1979):

1. An inverse hydraulic gradient between the

Lower Devonian and Lower Cretaceous systems. That is, higher hydraulic heads are encountered in the Methy Formation than in the McMurray Formation. An upward flow direction is thus imposed across the Waterways Formation.

2. A major Pre-Cretaceous fault, named the Sewetakun fault, subparallel to the Athabasca River. The fault supposedly provides hydraulic communication between the three groundwater systems and permits vertical flow or drainage in the immediate fault vicinity.

Vertical flow is supported by surface saline springs originating in the Methy Formation and the potential for a vertical permeability anisotropy identified in Section 3.6.4. Ozoray, Hackbarth and Lytviak (1980) identified various saline springs and commented on the hydrogen sulphide odour and groundwater chemistry of each. They suggested that permeability within the Upper Devonian may be structurally controlled and noted that collapse ponds near McClelland Lake are roughly orthogonal. This feature suggests preferential corrosion or kluftkarren may have developed (see Section 4.1.2).

Waterways permeability was not measured by Williams (1980) in his testing program, however the very low

porosities reported suggest that primary permeabilities are negligible. Instead, secondary fracture permeability is expected to characterize the rock mass. GCRI (1981) reported intact permeabilities less than 10^{-13} m².

It is emphasized that rock mass permeability is stress-dependent and cannot be meaningfully measured in unconfined core. Moreover, the in-situ permeability will be influenced by regional stress state fluctuations such that changes in the stress field will affect the secondary permeability of fractures, solution pipes or other karst features.

Hackbarth and Nastasa (1979) reported Waterways conductivities in the range of 10^{-5} to 10^{-8} cm/sec. They considered the formation to act as an aquitard, thereby inducing high hydraulic heads in the basal McMurray water sands. Hackbarth and Nastasa (1979) further established a solution leach edge extending from Township 92, Range 14 to Township 103, Range 21. They stated evaporite solution had been most intense east of this edge and had caused a general subsidence of roughly 100 metres. The evaporite sequence thins to zero eastward. The resulting subsidence was considered to contribute to increased secondary permeability.

2.4 Geotechnical Properties

Few studies have assessed Waterways geotechnical properties and behaviour. Various consultants reports have included basic rock mechanics evaluations, however in general, Williams (1980) was the first to undertake a comprehensive Waterways testing program.

Williams' (1980) test program was conducted upon block samples obtained from outcrop and core samples retrieved during drilling. No in-situ testing was conducted. Williams (1980) conducted standard index property tests and completed the following strength and deformability evaluations on both intact rock and rock mass discontinuities:

1. unconfined uniaxial compression
2. direct pull tension
3. four point bending tension
4. Brazilian tension
5. triaxial compression
6. double shear
7. rock deformability
8. ultrasonic P-wave velocity
9. impact toughness
10. point load
11. slake durability
12. swelling

Three dominant lithologies were tested; massive crystalline limestone, nodular limestone and shaly limestone. Four sublithologies of both the massive and shaly limestones were identified and the nodular limestone was assigned two sublithologies. No attempt has been made to align present lithologic descriptions with those of Williams (1980). Williams (1980) concluded that rock lithology exercised a major influence upon engineering behaviour. His most significant findings included the following:

1. Intact uniaxial compressive strength decreases with increasing argillaceous content. The presence of clay was considered proportional to the absence of cement.
2. Tensile strength is anisotropic in the interbedded and nodular lithologies. Tensile strength parallel to bedding is greater than that perpendicular to bedding. Water saturation effects a measurable loss of tensile strength.
3. Intact triaxial compressive strength was greatest in the massive crystalline limestones at all stress levels.
4. Concave Mohr envelopes indicate the propensity of various lithologies for plastic behaviour at high confining stresses.

5. Cohesive strength is anisotropic and low for all lithologies.
6. Deformabilities are moderately stiff to very stiff for all lithologies.
7. Time-dependent deformation is negligible at low confining stress.
8. Argillaceous lithologies are readily weathered.
9. All lithologies are resistant to slaking.
10. Unconfined axial swell of up to 9% may occur in the argillaceous lithologies.
11. Weathering originates in formation joints and progresses inward through the intact rock. Bitumen coatings inhibit joint weathering.
12. Primary limestone porosities are negligible.
13. Sonic wave velocity correlates well with sample density.

Specific engineering properties are summarized in Figure 5.1.

3. GEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION

3.1 General

The geological component of the study involved detailed descriptive logging of 123 core sections retrieved from the SANDALTA lease during winter drilling of 1980 and 1981. All laboratory work was performed in GCRI's Calgary warehouse during the period June to October, 1981. All conclusions have been based upon features observed at SANDALTA.

3.2 Local Stratigraphy

In the study area, over 200 coreholes have penetrated the McMurray formation and cored the Devonian rock mass. Approximately 3000 metres of Devonian core was retrieved from minimum well spacings of approximately 400 metres. Although the maximum depth of Paleozoic penetration at any particular well is far less than the thickness of any one Waterways Member, relief on the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity has permitted mapping of 100 metres of stratigraphic section. On the basis of this section, the Devonian rock mass subcropping at SANDALTA is thought to represent the Moberly Member. In addition, much of the deeper core is believed to represent the Christina

Members. The uppermost Mildred Member is thought to have been completely eroded. Norris (1981) concurred with this interpretation and added that outcrops of the lower Calumet and Firebag Members have been observed along the Athabasca River downstream of SANDALTA. Subcrop maps (Figure 3.1) illustrate the expected stratigraphy in the Ft. McMurray region.

3.3 Core Lithologies

3.3.1 General

Gross lithologic distinctions have been made primarily on the basis of texture, colour, clay content, grain size and mineralogy. Additional observations were made concerning inclusions, weathering, solution, bitumen stain, fossil content, induration, porosity and fracture characteristics. A summarized descriptive log of each core section is included in Appendix A.

Four marine and two non-marine lithologies were distinguished in the Moberly-Christina core. Several sublithologies were also identified and are presently described.

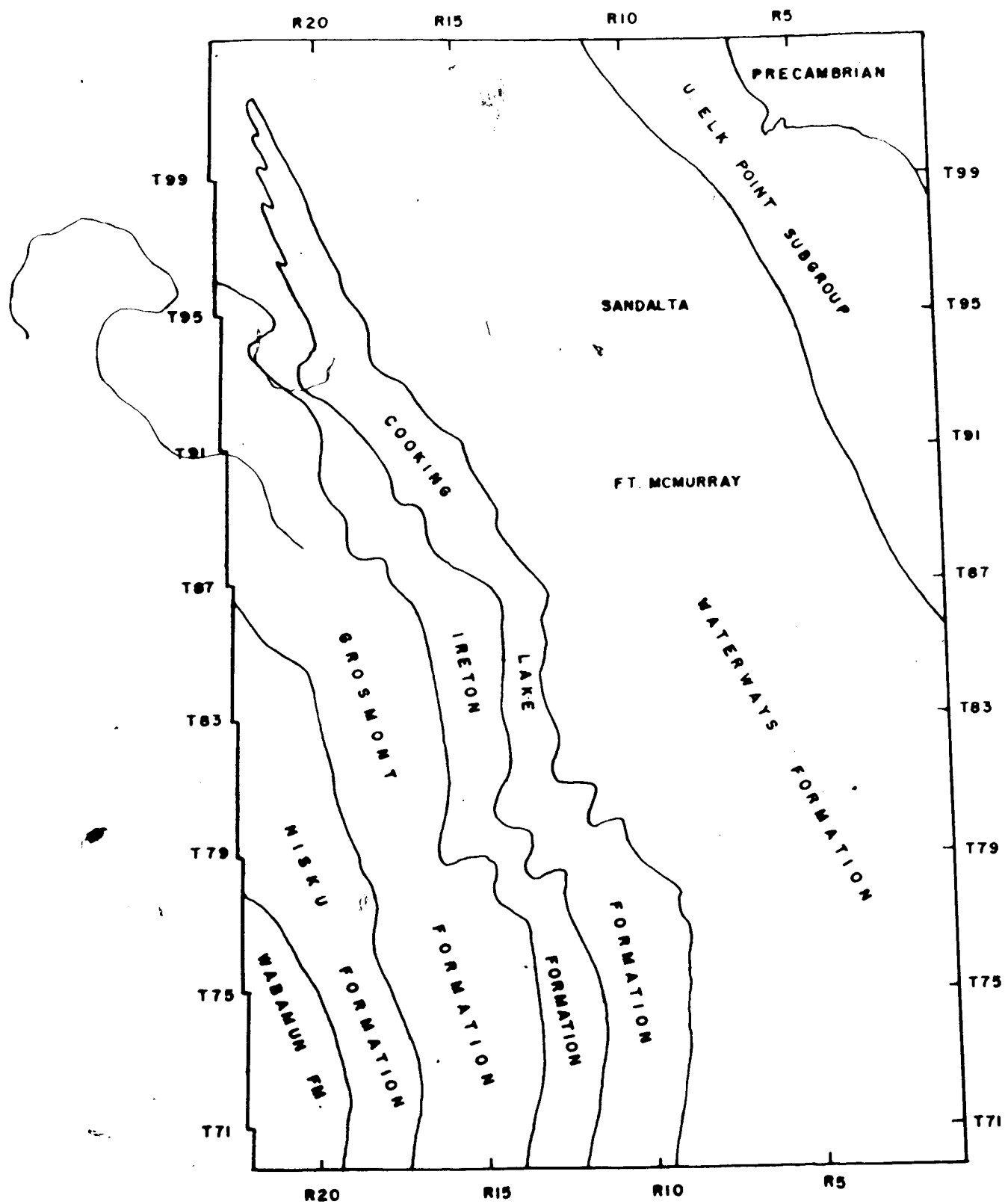


FIGURE 3.1: REGIONAL PALEOZOIC SUBCROP (after Stewart, 1963)

3.3.2 Rock Type A - Argillaceous Limestones

Three argillaceous limestone sublithologies were identified during the core study. Collectively, they comprised 60% - 70% of the total observed footage. Each sublithology represents a unique depositional environment within the regional marine platform. It is emphasized however that although each sublithology is texturally unique, it is expected a number of intermediate lithologies exist between the extreme cases. This arises from the transitional nature of the marine environment. More specifically, one may consider the transition from sublithology I to III to be a consequence of continuous deepening in water.

The three sublithologies are:

- I - massive, crystalline to marbly or mottled argillaceous limestone
- II - nodular argillaceous limestone
- III - finely interbedded limestone and micrite

Sublithology I (massive crystalline to marbly argillaceous limestone) was the most common rock type observed. It is characterized by an overall low clay content, generally less than 30%, and a mottled or marbly texture (Plate 3.1). This texture is considered to represent poorly defined bedding. Post-depositional processes such as differential compaction, consolidation and

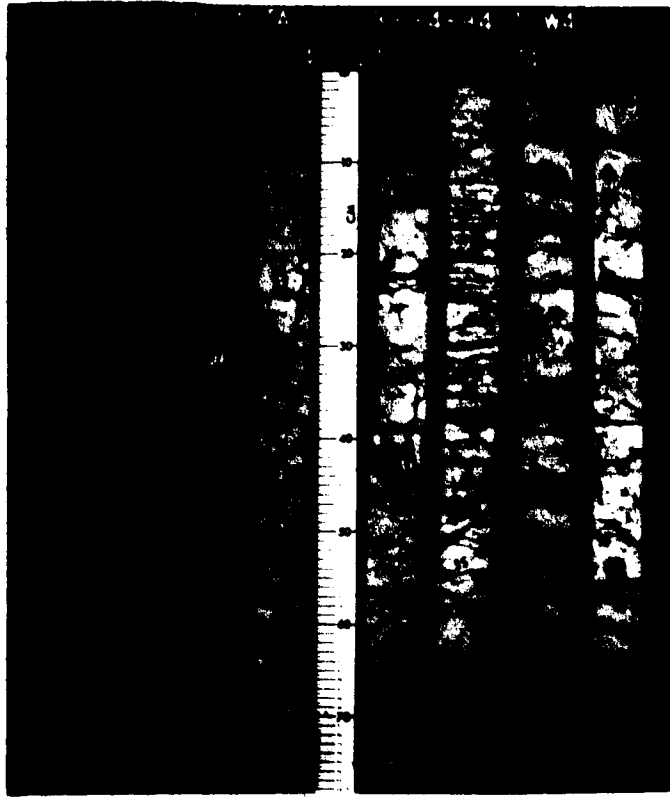


Plate 3.1: Rock Type A-Massive Crystalline/Marbled Argillaceous Limestone (CH.174).

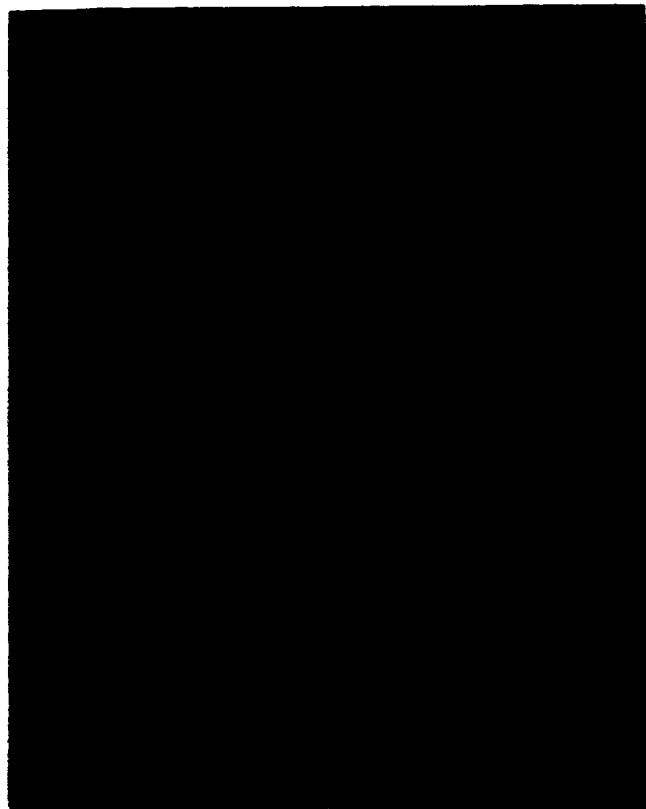


Plate 3.2: Pyrite nodules (CH.88)

bioturbation are also believed to have contributed to the mottled texture.

Colour varies from grey or white in the massive microcrystalline variety to buff in the upper weathered zone. Interbedded micrite is commonly olive to grey in colour. Reworked lime muds infilling solution voids are characteristically light green.

The massive to mottled limestones are generally hard and well indurated. Fresh core sections display a dense, brittle character. The carbonate component is microcrystalline whereas the argillaceous component is predominantly fine grained carbonate mud or micrite. The argillaceous component does not represent transported continental detritus, but rather suspended particles from within the marine environment.

Despite their mottled texture, these limestones display a well defined subhorizontal bedding attitude (Plate 3.1). Apparent dips rarely exceed 10° to the normal to the core axis, although steeply dipping beds were occasionally observed. These features are discussed individually in Section 3.6.4. Secondary structures include subvertical joints and rare flame structures.

Mineralogic studies by McDonald (1947) indicated that a common iron sulphide is marcasite (FeS_2), a polymorph of pyrite. Marcasite and pyrite are dimorphous and distinguishable only on the basis of crystal form. They are

not easily differentiated in hand samples, thus all descriptive logs refer to this sulphide as pyrite. According to Berry and Mason (1959), marcasite is found most often in supergene locations where it has formed at low temperatures from acidic solution. It is usually found in sedimentary rocks such as limestone and commonly as concretions or fossil replacements. Pyrite, which is more stable, apparently forms under higher temperature and lower acidity conditions. In the present study, marcasite was commonly found as a replacement lining small solution pipes, joint fractures and on submarine hardground surfaces. Random disseminated grains were also observed, however these were quantitatively insignificant. Small nodules (Plate 3.2) were also commonly observed.

Another common mineral occurrence was siderite. Siderite is an iron carbonate (FeCO_3), commonly yellowish brown to reddish brown, found in sedimentary rocks as a concretion or hydrothermal deposit. Its presence in conjunction with marcasite suggests it may have originated during hydrothermal replacement of the host limestone by an iron-rich solution. The occurrence of siderite was commonly in the form of small (mm) spheres or sphaerosiderites (Plate 3.3). This form supports a concretionary origin. The origin of marcasite and siderite are further discussed in Section 3.4.

GCRI (1981) conducted clay mineralogy tests that



Plate 3.3: Sphaerosiderites (CH. 135)



Plate 3.4: Bitumen Stained Subvertical Fracture
(CH. 163)

revealed an illitic dominance of 60%-70% in the clays and micrites of the argillaceous limestones. Variable amounts of kaolinite (20% - 40%), chlorite (5% - 15%) and mixed layer clays were also recorded. X-ray diffraction tests conducted during this study (Appendix C) agree with GCRI's information and help distinguish the origin of the various clay components (see Section 4.3.3). The absence of smectite clays such as montmorillonite is presently noted.

Fossils are abundant throughout rock type A, however less so in the argillaceous units. Dominant species include brachiopods, gastropods, cephalopods, pelecypods and domed or branching stromatoporoids. Brachiopods were observed in distinct subhorizontal beds as opposed to a random distribution. These beds are believed to have represented stable submarine surfaces upon which organisms could thrive. One may relate the cessation of indigenous carbonate production to the concurrent emergence of various benthonic fauna. Moreover, the occurrence of marine hardground surfaces is a common feature of the argillaceous limestones. Stoakes (1980) referred to hardground surfaces as "intraformational synsedimentary lithification surfaces formed in a submarine setting". They are thought to develop during sustained periods of non-deposition or diastems, where a well defined submarine floor was permitted to develop. No erosional processes were active and the resulting surface is very dense, well cemented and commonly

fossiliferous. In section, hardgrounds are readily identified on the basis of their dark colour, sparitic matrix and hard, dense texture. Microscopic examination may also reveal the presence of characteristic worm borings, crinoid fragments or algal coated grains (Dolph, 1981). Hardgrounds are useful stratigraphic time lines.

Porosity in the argillaceous limestone is limited to secondary fracture and solution voids. Primary intergranular porosity is negligible. GCR1 (1981) reported primary porosity values less than 0.5%. These are likely due to random vuggy or fenestral voids. More commonly, fossil replacements or fracture and solution openings provide secondary porosity. Due to the stress level dependence of fracture and solution void gape, accurate porosity measurements cannot be conducted on unconfined core.

Rock mass permeability is also stress level dependent and cannot be meaningfully measured in unconfined core. It is apparent that the permeability of the argillaceous carbonates is structurally controlled by fractures and solution pipes. Moreover, it is believed that the influence of stress on permeability has led to a significant vertical anisotropy. The opening of formation fractures at in-situ stress levels may contribute to vertical permeabilities that are several orders of magnitude greater than horizontal (see Section 3.6.4).

The presence of bitumen stain throughout fracture porosity is common in rock type A. The staining is primarily restricted to vertical or inclined fractures (Plate 3.4), which supports a vertical permeability anisotropy and a normal principal stress field (see Section 5.4.2). The stain is also useful in establishing the stress history relative to the time of bitumen infiltration (see Section 4.3.2).

Weathering effects were usually observed in the upper 1-2 metres of the Devonian profile immediately below one of several intraformational unconformities. Discoloration due to oxidation, softening, and a loss of texture characterize the weathering effects. Widespread paleosols were not encountered, however non-marine basal McMurray alluvium was abundant. The alluvium occurs in a sporadic distribution of Devonian lows and north-south fluvial channels (see Section 4.2.1). Most often, a well defined weathering profile did not exist and the Paleozoic surface was highly scoured (Plate 3.5).

Sublithology II (nodular argillaceous limestone) is very similar to sublithology I in mineralogy and most physical properties. The texture is however, substantially different. Sublithology II represents a transitional facies

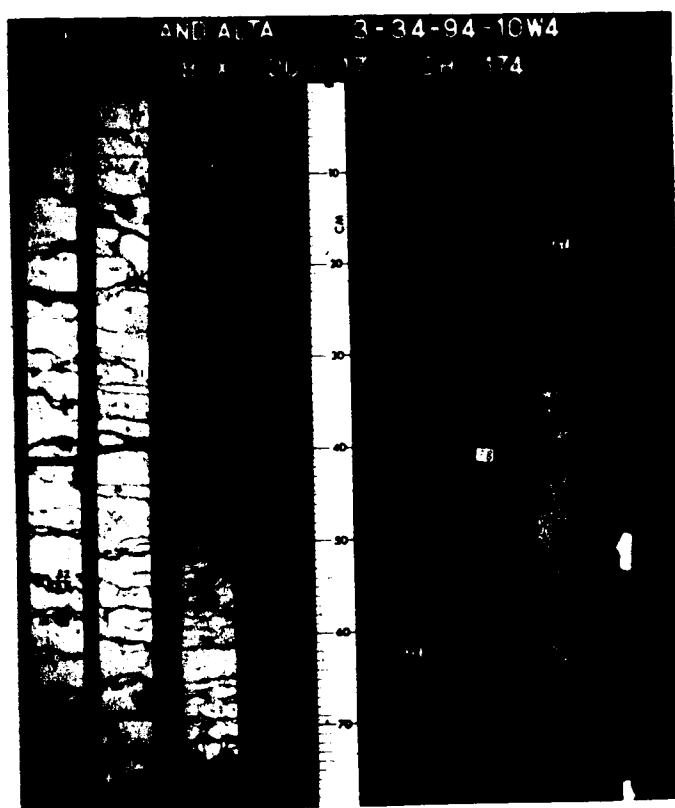


Plate 3.5: Scoured Devonian-Cretaceous Contact
(CH.174)

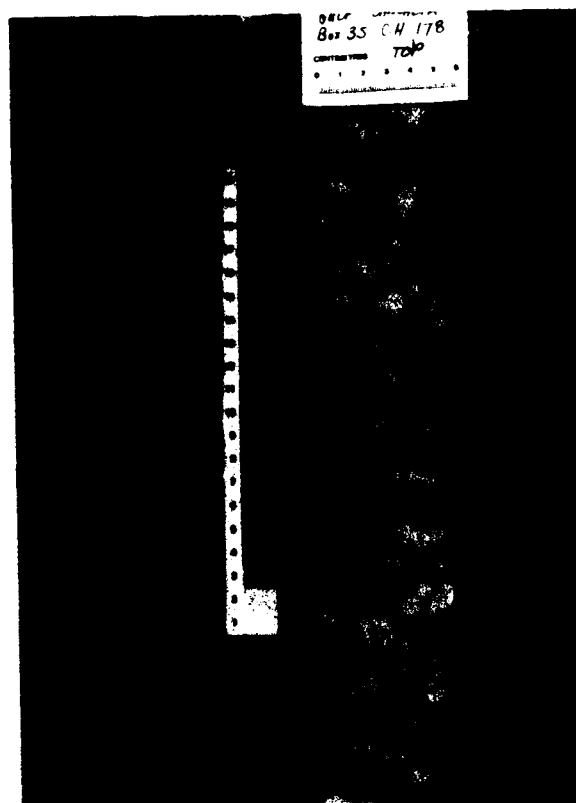


Plate 3.6: Rock Type A - Nodular Argillaceous
Limestone (CH.178)

between the well defined interbedded units and the previous microcrystalline textures. It is thought that carbonate nodules form soon after deposition as a product of concretionary action and differential compaction. The nodules often grade into the surrounding groundmass and display an irregular shape and size. They are commonly elongated in the subhorizontal direction and typically 2-8 cm in length (Plate 3.6). This elongation supports overburden compression prior to complete lithification. These nodules are distinguished from the erosional intraclasts of rock type C. Williams (1980) suggested the nodular textures were due to fragmentation, transportation and redeposition during submarine slumping. No evidence of slumping or disturbance was noted during the present study and these textures are considered to be syngenetic.

The nodular lithologies are generally well-indurated. A hard, brittle nature is characteristic, however in outcrop, differential weathering creates a rubbly appearance. All carbonate is microcrystalline whereas the argillaceous content is carbonate mud or micrite. Argillaceous content rarely exceeds 50% (GCRI, 1981). Colour varies from grey to white for the massive nodular variety to buff in the weathered horizons. Secondary structures are limited to subvertical joints.

The presence of siderite and marcasite are noted as in the marbly argillaceous limestones of sublithology I.

Clay mineralogies are also consistent with those of sublithology I, displaying a strong illitic dominance with minor kaolinite, chlorite and mixed-layer clays.

A lack of stable hardground surfaces and a high argillaceous content are thought to be responsible for the absence of fossils in the nodular limestones.

Primary porosity is again very low as secondary porosity predominates. Permeability is structurally controlled as in sublithology I and is also expected to be vertically anisotropic.

The well defined bedding of sublithology III (finely interbedded limestone-micrite) provides the most information about the marine environment. It suggests a short term cyclic pattern of carbonate-micrite production resulting in rhythmic limestone-clay sequences (Plate 3.7). The period of depositional cycles is estimated to be seasonal or yearly.

Color alternates from the grey-white carbonate to the darker grey or olive micritic interbeds. Overall clay content commonly exceeds 50%.

Secondary structures again include subvertical joints. Solution and weathering features are discussed in Chapter 4. One additional feature of this sublithology is small scale (cm) boudinage. This phenomenon is discussed in Section 3.6.1.

Sublithology III maintains the same bulk and clay

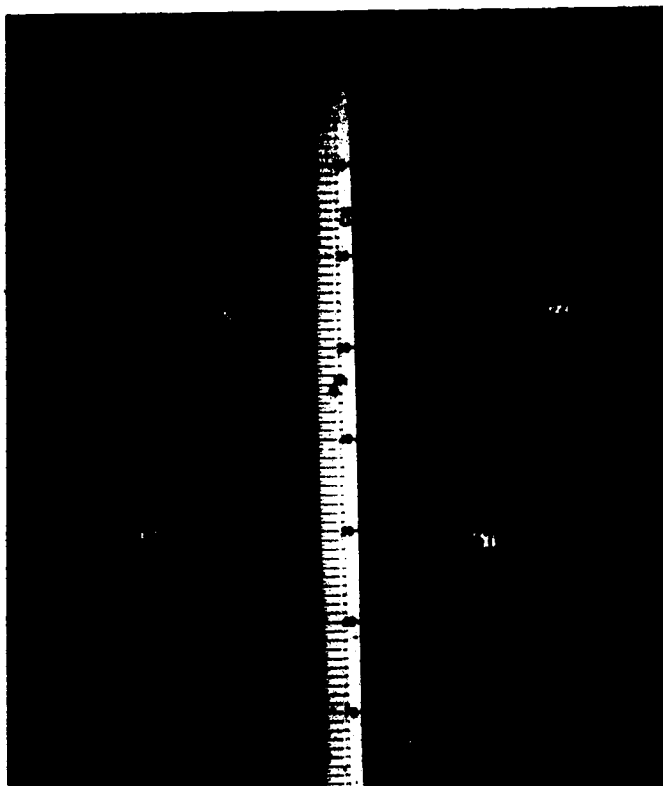


Plate 3.7: Rock Type A - Finely Interbedded Limestone-Micrite (CH.194)

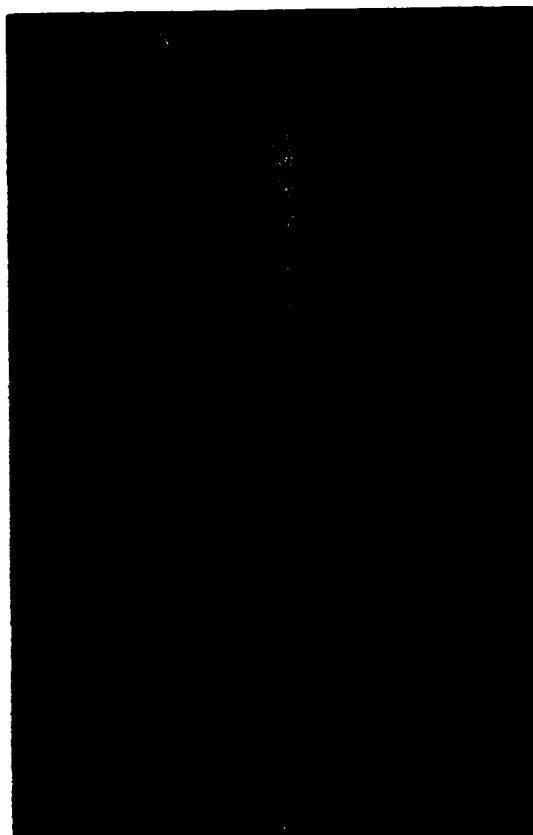


Plate 3.8: Rock Type B - Calcareous Shale (CH.131)

mineralogies reported for the two previous sublithologies. Moreover, the three sublithologies are thought to differ only in texture and clay content. Other bulk properties are considered to be common.

3.3.3 Rock Type B - Calcareous Shale

Calcareous clay shale units comprised approximately 20% - 25% of the observed core and dominated the lithology below 240 masl which is thought to be the Christina Member. The shales do not correlate well in section due to their lack of lithologic distinctiveness. They grade both laterally and vertically into the argillaceous limestones of rock type A, however they do represent a distinct change in depositional environment. Some shale-carbonate contacts were very abrupt and are thought to represent a more rapid change in environment (Plate 3.8).

The thickness of the shale units varied considerably and the author arbitrarily imposed a 0.5 m minimum thickness. Beds less than 0.5 m were considered interbeds of the argillaceous limestone. Only beds greater than 0.5 m are identified on the study logs.

The calcareous shales are generally massive, fissile and well cemented. Distinguishable bedding planes were rarely identified, however a subhorizontal fissile character is discerned. Occasional interbedded carbonate

lenses may also be observed. Although much of the fissility is due to dessication and handling, the undisturbed marine floor environment is considered to be primarily responsible for the laminar character.

Authigenic calcareous cementation is thought to have occurred during consolidation. Rare non-calcareous shales were observed, however none were found at depth in the section and they were associated with non-marine sources. It is thought that all marine shales exhibit authigenic calcareous cementation.

Mineralogically, the calcareous shales are predominantly illitic. This is contrasted to the illite-kaolinite mineralogy of the basal McMurray clays in Section 4.3.3. In addition to the clay mineralogy, marcasite was also observed. Again, marcasite most commonly occurs as fossil casts, hydrothermal replacements and disseminated grains. It is not detrital in origin.

Fossils are rare in the shales. A highly micritic or turbid environment "chokes" many marine organisms thereby preventing continuous production. Brachiopods are among the hardiest and are found scattered throughout the shales.

The development of hardground surfaces is not as extensive as in the argillaceous limestones of rock type A. This is believed to be related to the higher sedimentation rate of micrite relative to calcium carbonate.

In-situ shale porosity is expected to compare with

the dense argillaceous limestones. All voids are secondary in origin. There is no solution or vugular porosity in this rock type. Again the stress level dependence of porosity and permeability demand in-situ measurement. Permeabilities are expected to display significant structural anisotropy. Hydraulic communication is achieved through the regional joint system and is not generally affected by bedding features.

The marine shales weather readily when exposed. Their susceptibility lies in the dissolution potential of the calcareous content. Discoloration and general softening are the characteristic features of weathered shale.

Bitumen staining may also be observed where subvertical fracture permeability exists.

3.3.4 Rock Type C - Limestone Intraclast Breccia

This unit comprised less than 10% of the observed core footage and is genetically related to the biohermal limestones of rock type D. It is readily identified by its characteristic disturbed appearance and distinct brecciated texture (Plate 3.9). The subrounded to angular limestone clasts of the framework (20-30%) are supported by a grey argillaceous matrix (70-80%). Cement is calcareous. The fresh, angular nature of the clasts suggest that minimal transportation and reworking has occurred. Furthermore, the

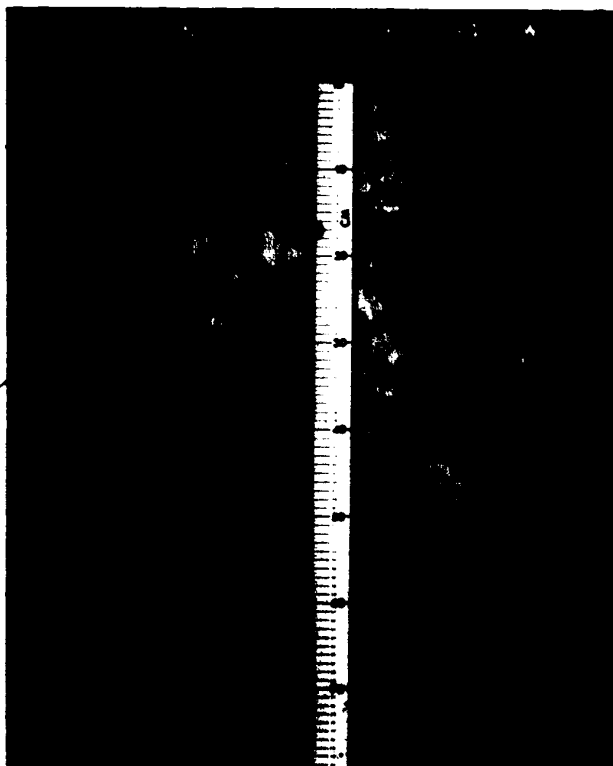


Plate 3.9: Rock Type C - Limestone Intraclast Breccia
(CH.88)

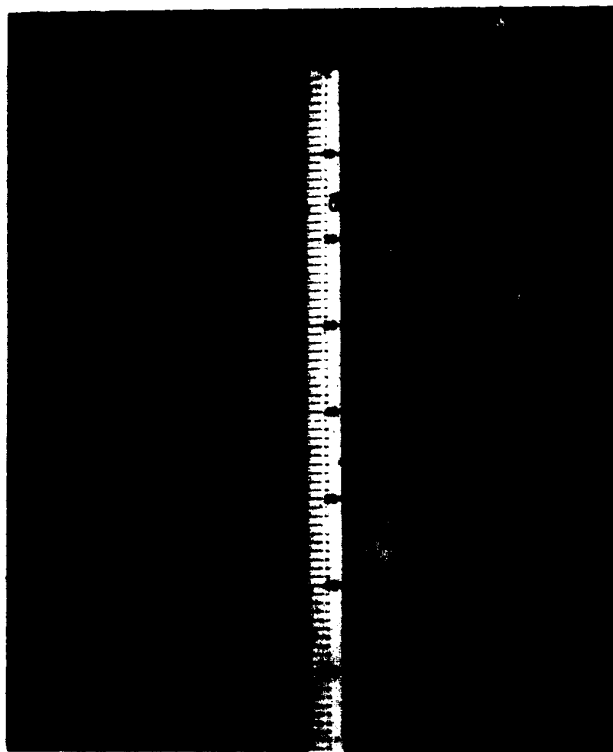


Plate 3.10: Post-Depositional Collapse Breccia
(CH.88)

constant intraclast mineralogy supports a locally derived source rock. In Section 3.4.2, the intraclast texture is related to subaerial wave processes acting upon small patch reefs within the depositional basin. It is emphasized that the breccias of rock type C are not post-depositional collapse or solution features. Rather, they are the product of unique syndepositional mechanisms which are related to wave-produced fragmentation of lithified rock (see Section 3.4.2). One must clearly distinguish between the post-depositional collapse structures illustrated on Plate 3.10 and the syndepositional fragmentation breccias described herein (Plate 3.9).

The limestone intraclast breccias are commonly less than 2 metres thick and immediately overlie the biohermal limestones of rock type D. They are generally well cemented, but are expected to weather readily upon exposure. Clay content is high and thought to exceed 50%.

The colour of the intraclasts is commonly white to grey whereas the matrix is grey to olive. Occasional black bitumen stains were observed. The bitumen is thought to be locally derived (see Section 4.3.2).

Bulk mineralogy is dominated by the carbonate and clay species of the framework and matrix. Minor quantities of siderite and marcasite were observed. Clay mineralogy was again predominantly illitic with minor kaolinite, chlorite and mixed-layer clays (GCRI, 1981). Fossils are

non-existent due to the high energy depositional environment.

Secondary structural features are limited to random fractures. A well defined fracture pattern was not observed. Some apparent shrinkage textures were observed, suggesting that the deposit may have existed in a semi-plastic state prior to coring.

Minimal interparticle porosity is thought to exist, however no test measurements are available. Secondary porosity exists in the form of fractures and minor solution voids. Permeability is also unmeasured however thought to be structurally controlled by fractures. Due to the random nature of the fracture pattern, rock type C is not expected to display the permeability anisotropy found in rock types A and B.

3.3.5 Rock Type D - Biohermal Limestone

Approximately 10% - 15% of the observed core footage was biohermal limestone. It is readily distinguished from all other units on the basis of its porous, biolithic texture and heavy bitumen stain (Plate 3.11).

According to Harrison (1982), the term bioherm suggests a genetic development of organic carbonates as opposed to the stratigraphic definition of a biostromal

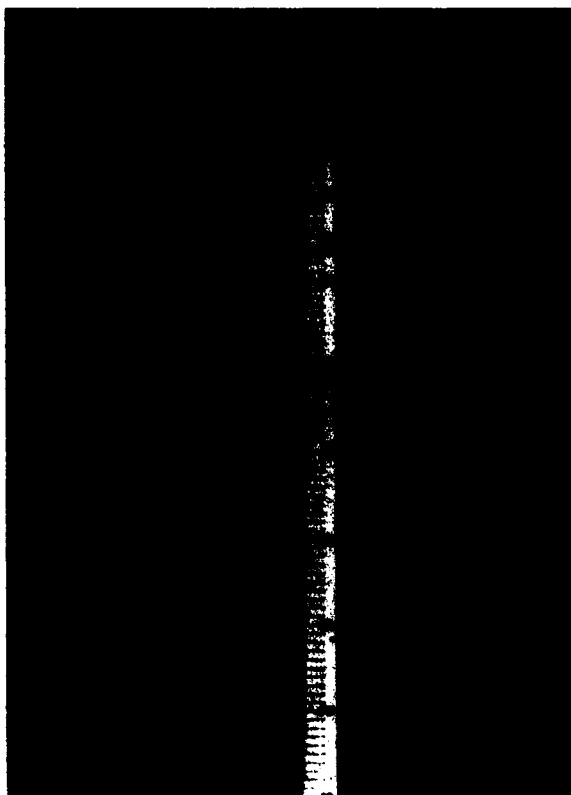


Plate 3.11: Rock Type D - Biohermal Limestone (CH.13)



Plate 3.12: Rock Type E - Uncemented Quartz Sands (CH.93)

buildup. Biohermal buildups possess a solid organic framework built by organisms capable of producing a wave resistant structure. Biostromal buildups may or may not form a rigid framework and are most commonly topographic accumulations of organic skeletal debris. The rigid biolithitic framework of rock type D clearly defines a genetic biohermal deposit. There is no evidence of post-lithification disturbance or debris cementation. All structure is thought to be syndepositional.

The biohermal units are generally less than 2-3 metres thick. They are consistently located above 240 masl and thus are thought to be restricted to the Moberly Member.

The pelletal mounded fabric is relatively well developed and displays a strong subhorizontal attitude. Tabular or branching stromatoporoids and thamnoporoid corals comprise the skeletal framework and are partially supported by a micritic matrix. Cement is calcareous.

The biohermal limestones are generally well indurated. Colour is grey to white with a heavy black bitumen stain in the biomoldic porosity. Occasional light green clays were located in solution pipes or channels.

Minor quantities of siderite and marcasite were also observed and related to intraformational erosional surfaces. Clay mineralogy is not expected to differ greatly from that of rock types A and B.

Minor calcite recrystallization was observed in some of the vuggy porosity. It is thought to be due to hydrothermal replacement from percolating groundwaters. There is no evidence of massive recrystallization or dolomitization.

Apart from the fossil framework, very few faunal species were observed. Some fossil debris was incorporated in various algal mats, however these are thought to represent abraded, transported and redeposited fragments.

Primary biomoldic porosity is very high and not believed to have been affected by overburden compaction. Some secondary solution, vugular or fracture porosity was also observed, however this is quantitatively insignificant. Despite the high primary porosity, it is not thought that the degree of hydraulic communication is also necessarily high. Moreover, heavy bitumen saturation is believed to reduce in-situ permeability significantly. A measureable permeability anisotropy is not expected to exist.

3.3.6 Rock Type E - Uncemented Quartz Sand

Uncemented quartz sands are non-marine terrigenous deposits which are incompatible with the low energy shallow marine environment of the surrounding carbonates. They comprised less than 5% of the observed footage but represent

significant solution features in proximity to the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity.

Thickness is generally less than one metre and the sands are clean, uncemented, and medium to fine grained. They are mineralogically quartz-rich and display a very high degree of sorting. Individual particles are subangular to rounded, displaying both physical and chemical maturity. Traces of bedding may be observed, however a general lack of macrostructure characterizes the deposits. Incomplete bitumen staining adds to an apparent bedded appearance (Plate 3.12).

The sands are buff in colour with random black bitumen stains. Trace amounts of a silt or clay sized matrix were also observed. No carbonate minerals were detected.

There is no evidence of structural fracturing or weathering. Intergranular porosity is expectantly high. Permeability is also thought to be quantitatively significant and homogeneous.

The contacts of the sands with the surrounding carbonates was consistently abrupt and well defined. This character suggests post-depositional solution and subsequent infilling. Similar sand filled pipes and cavities were observed in field outcrop (Appendix D).

3.3.7 Rock Type F - Other Unconsolidated Sediments

Other unconsolidated sediments are similar to the quartz sands in that they represent early Cretaceous non-marine deposits. They commonly infill Devonian lows and are thought to be fluvial in origin.

The sediments are brown to grey, clayey silts and sands (Plate 3.13). They are poorly cemented which is thought to be a direct result of the relative youth of the sediments and a substantially reduced loading history. In the study core, the sediments were generally unstructured, however some bedding planes were observed. Occasional lignite particles were encountered which further supports a non-marine depositional environment. No other major macrostructures were observed, however there were rare instances of plastic deformation of the more clayey sediments. No algal growth or fauna inhabitation was observed.

The clay mineralogy of these sediments was considered in detail by Dusseault and Scafe (1979). Who dated them as early Middle Albian (Lower Cretaceous). One may thus relate their presence to the cessation of net erosion and the commencement of Cretaceous fluvial deposition. Current x-ray diffraction tests agreed with Dusseault and Scafe's findings which defined a kaolinitic-illitic dominance (see Section 4.3.3). Dusseault and Scafe

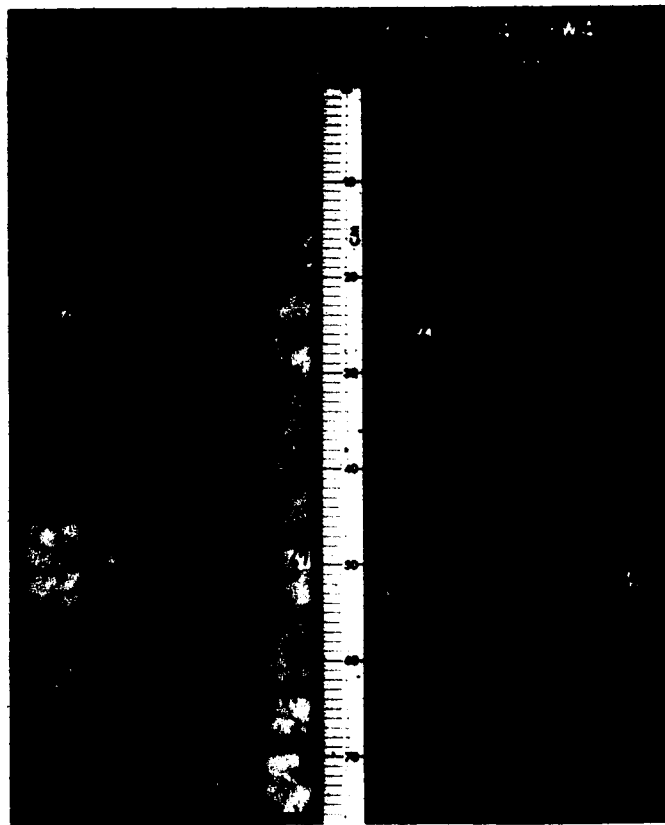


Plate 3.13: Rock Type F - Unconsolidated
Cretaceous Alluvium (CH.118)

(1979) also reported significant mixed-layer clays and the presence of vermiculite, a distinct weathering or alteration product of phlogopite or biotite. The absence of chlorite and smectite is noted and of significance in reconstructing the geological origin of the deposits. Dusseault and Scafe (1979) further reported that the basal clays are non-calcareous, exhibit some primary bedding and contain minor amounts of lignite, siderite and pyrite. Observations made during the present study agree with these findings.

3.4 Depositional Environment

3.4.1 Generalized Carbonate Sedimentology

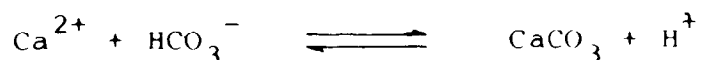
Carbonate sedimentation results from chemical or biochemical processes occurring in clear, warm, shallow marine environments. The process is autochthonous, suggesting that the sedimentary material is derived from within the depositional basin. No external terrigenous sources are considered.

The carbonate environment represents a sensitive chemical system which may be drastically affected by subtle changes in any one or a combination of the following parameters:

1. oxidation - reduction potential or Eh
2. hydrogen ion concentration or pH

3. climate
4. input and mixing of deep marine or terrestrial waters.
5. organic processes such as photosynthesis, bacterial decay and reproduction
6. tectonic processes such as subsidence, subduction and crustal movements.

Theoretically, the precipitation of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) occurs upon a decrease in the concentration of dissolved carbon dioxide. The required decrease may be a result of temperature changes, evaporation, influx of saturated marine waters or organic processes. The chemical equilibria is given by:



Other factors affecting carbonate production include the depth and turbidity of the seawater, agitation and solar radiation fluctuations.

Berner (1971) stated that seawater is not in equilibrium with calcium carbonate due to biological production and utilization of carbon dioxide. Ideally, there exists a "compensation depth" beyond which, calcium carbonate is dissolved as fast as it is produced. At depths shallower than the compensation depth, one expects supersaturated waters and continuous inorganic

precipitation. In reality, the amount of direct carbonate precipitation is quantitatively insignificant relative to that which is produced organically. Berner (1971) concluded that widespread homogeneous precipitation of calcium carbonate is most unlikely.

The production of micrite or carbonate mud is also related to organic processes. Wilson (1975) identified four primary sources:

1. death and decay of benthonic organisms
2. detritus abraded from larger carbonate particles
3. accumulation of planktonic biota
4. direct seawater precipitation

In general, the presence of significant amounts of micrite discourages organic proliferation. Seawater turbidity reduces the amount of incoming solar radiation and "chokes" various benthonic invertebrates. Thus, most marine limestones are relatively pure carbonate. Alternatively, the Waterways Members are abnormally argillaceous, suggesting a very turbid or unstable environment. Wilson (1975) estimated current accumulation rates near Florida of 3 metres in 1000 years. The production of carbonate may start or stop rapidly and commonly occurs in a cyclic manner. Overall production may readily keep up with any amount of tectonic or eustatic sea level change (Wilson, 1975).

3.4.2 Depositional Model

Wilson's (1975) classical carbonate system is believed to represent a comprehensive and modern environmental model. It involves nine subenvironments of which only one or two are believed to be represented in the SANDALTA core. In general, Wilson's (1975) model involves a basin-slope-reef-platform system that predicts lower energy deposits seaward and higher energy, organic and wave-affected deposits shoreward. Figure 3.2 depicts the ideal series of subenvironments as presented by Wilson (1975).

Of the nine subenvironments listed by Wilson (1975), only the open marine and restricted marine platform facies are believed to be represented in the Waterways core. The open marine platform represents the zone immediately shoreward of the outer platform edge. Depth is generally less than 10 metres in straits, lagoons and bays. Salinity varies greatly due to moderate circulation. Argillaceous limestones, calcareous shales and undisturbed carbonate sands are typical deposits.

The restricted marine platform differs from the open facies in that virtually no circulation is envisaged. Static cut-off ponds and lagoons characterize the restricted platform and deposit fine grained carbonates, micrites and evaporites. The higher energy

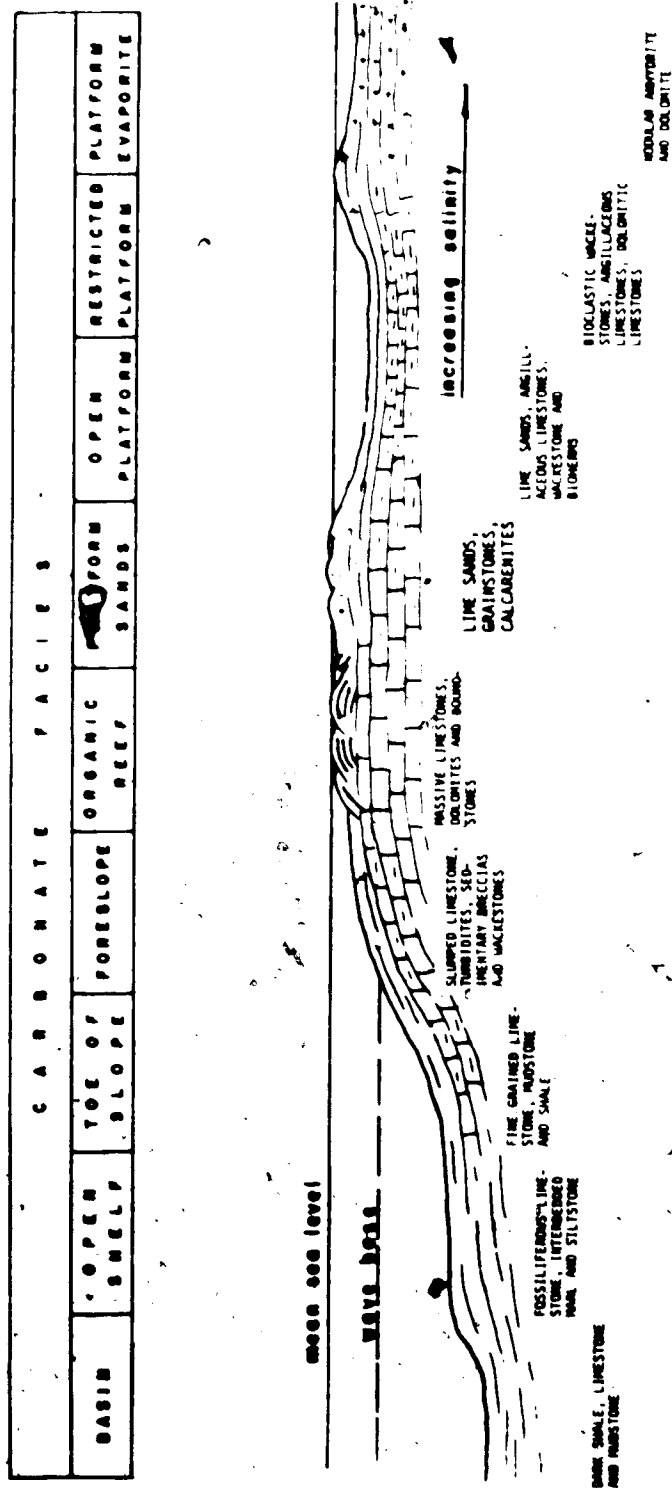


FIGURE 3.2: IDEALIZED MARINE CARBONATE SUBENVIRONMENTS (after Wilson, 1975)

tidal channel, tidal flat and beach deposits are also included in this facies.

In general, the platform subenvironment is considered to represent marine transgression. Although transgressive sequences are commonly erosional, the intrabasinal sediment source and high biogenetic content of the Waterways, suggests a regressive environment is unlikely. Moreover, the observed Waterways sequence is

believed to be progradational. That is, shallower water carbonates overlie the more seaward argillaceous lithologies. Prograding sequences are characterized by high rates of sedimentation and have high preservation potential. These factors are controlled by the change in ambient sea level which is in turn affected by tectonism, isostatic crustal changes, climate and sedimentary compaction. In particular, shallow marine environments are especially sensitive to climatic changes. This sensitivity promotes cyclicity in the depositional process, a feature which is very prominent in the Waterways. More specifically, seasonal fluctuations in temperature, solar influx and winds are considered to exercise the greatest influence. The more restricted the environment, the greater the seasonal climatic influence. Such influence defines a high stress environment which is characterized by a low degree of diversity in organic species. Tectonic tilting, isostatic depression or rebound and changes in

ocean volume are less likely sources of bedding cyclicity.

James (1979) further defined the shallow intertidal platform stating that it is devoid of active wave influences but still affected by tides and intermittent storms. He added that the lower intertidal zone is characteristically well burrowed and bioturbated with greater algal mat development than in the middle or upper intertidal zones (Figure 3.2).

3.4.3 Facies Interpretation

By definition (Gressly, 1838), the term "facies" applies to units of rock which are characterized by similar lithological and paleontological criteria. The present study is concerned only with lithofacies which are units of rock characterized by variations in lithologic aspect. Each lithofacies is directly related to the immediate marine environment, however factors such as climate or tectonics may also affect the final rock lithology.

Reineck and Singh (1980) described two basic approaches in reconstructing sedimentary environments; that of lateral or vertical facies. The technique employed in this study is the former. Although all rock types were identified in vertical core, it is apparent that the distribution of each lithology is primarily

controlled by the lateral variation of depositional environment.

The scale of Wilson's (1975) depositional model is limited only by the confines of ancient depositional basins. Regional correlations suggest that the Waterways represents only one small component of the Western Canadian sedimentary basin. One should therefore not expect to view all nine subenvironments within an area such as SANDALTA. The scale of the Devonian basin in Western Canada is very large, extending across several provinces and southerly into the northwestern United States. Within this framework, it is apparent that the lithologies of the Waterways Formation correspond to the open or restricted lagoonal or intertidal flats of the shallow marine platform. This subenvironment may, in turn, be subdivided into three depositional zones recognized by the author. They are the shale, biohermal and carbonate zones, which are collectively responsible for the six lithologies described in Section 3.3. Each depositional zone and its corresponding lithofacies are presented diagrammatically in Figure 3.3. Again, each depositional zone defines a unique local environment within the widespread marine platform subenvironment.

The seaward shale zone represents deeper, quieter water than the biohermal or carbonate zones. Carbonate production is less significant than micritic input due to

the abrasion of skeletal material and the settling of suspended load from the back reef lower intertidal zone.

Organism development is restricted due to high turbidity, however hardy brachiopod species may survive. A significant detrital fossil component may be present. The characteristic lithology is a well cemented, fissile calcareous shale. The shales are illitic and may contain iron sulphides such as marcasite. They are generally massive and undisturbed. There is little or no evidence of bioturbation. Consolidation is thought to occur uniformly leading to a homogeneous and well indurated rock texture. Occasional limestone interbeds may develop upon shallowing, however the sequence is predominantly argillaceous. This environment is not as sensitive to climatic changes as the restricted carbonate zone. The calcareous shales of rock type B are considered to be of the lower to middle intertidal platform shale facies.

Adjacent to the shale zone is the intertidal patch reef or biohermal zone. In Figure 3.3 this zone does not separate the shale and carbonate zones, however it does appear to do so at SANDALTA. Two distinct lithofacies are associated with the zone; the biohermal limestone of rock type D and the seaward intraclast breccia of rock type C.

The intertidal biohermal zone is characterized by shallow water organic buildups or patch reefs. These

MARINE PLATFORM SUBENVIRONMENT		
BIOHERMAL	SHALE	CARBONATE

← increasing argillaceous content

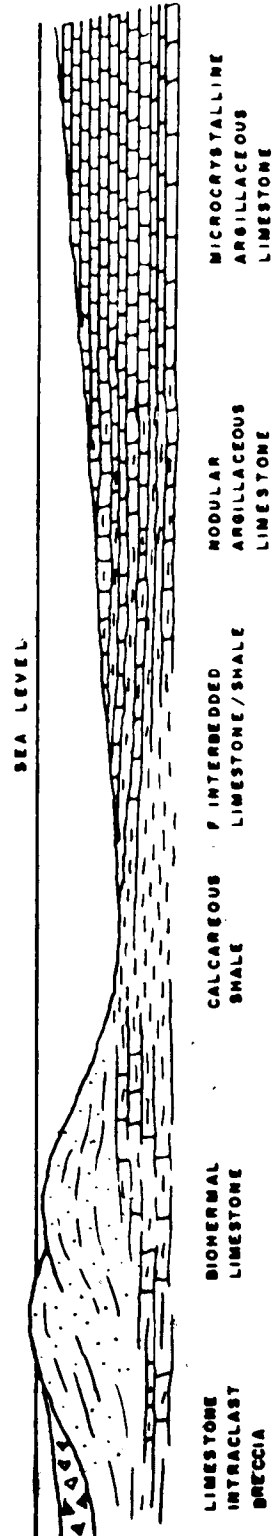


FIGURE 3. IDEALIZED MARINE PLATFORM SUBENVIRONMENT AND LITHOFACIES

buildups do not represent the coral reef barrier where very deep water and high energy wave activity is found. Instead, the bioherms are sporadically distributed and generally less than 2-3 metres in thickness. Lithologically, they are frame-supported algal structures with a heavy bitumen stain infilling the high biomoldic porosity. They are generally wave-resistant and easily identified on the basis of their well indurated, mounded biolithic texture. The bioherms were thought to be mildly wave-affected and subject to intermittent subaerial exposure. This influence is believed to be responsible for the development of the adjacent seaward facies, the intraclast breccia.

The intraclast breccias represent wave eroded biohermal or carbonate deposits which have fallen to the seaward toe of the bioherm. The resulting texture consists of angular intrabasinal carbonate clasts cemented in an argillaceous groundmass. Other sedimentary features are rare.

Shoreward of the biohermal and shale zones is the shallow carbonate zone. This zone is thought to be widespread but with restricted circulation and input. Indigenous carbonate production is the dominant sedimentary process, however a substantial micritic component may also result from the high benthonic population. Again, the argillaceous material is

intrabasinal; a consequence of the abrasion and disintegration of green algae and calcareous skeletal material. Some direct precipitation of aragonitic muds is also expected as a by-product of local organic activity.

The depth of water in the platform carbonate zone is not considered to exceed 3 metres. No circulation is envisaged, however some wind-generated wave activity may be present. Shallow wave ripple marks may have developed near the shore during periods of non-deposition. Nodular or concretionary activity is also envisaged.

The shallow nature of the carbonate zone is primarily responsible for the extreme sensitivity of carbonate production to climate. This sensitivity is manifested in the finely interbedded lithologies that characterize the Waterways.

The development of intrabasinal hardgrounds is also thought to be due to changes in climate. Diastems or periods of non-production are initiated by temperature or solar fluctuations which result in the crystallization of the submarine floor. In section, these dense sparitic surfaces act as convenient timelines. Although they do not represent erosional features, intermittent periods of uplift resulting in subaerial exposure are also believed to have occurred. Low energy reworking and oxidation of surficial sediments is thought to have led to the development of the distinctive light green plastic clays

which infill small intraformational solution pipes (see Section 4.3.3). Short-lived hiatuses are also supported by the existence of intraformational solution features which do not extend to the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity.

Other features of the carbonate zone include a high benthonic population and occasional supratidal coquina deposits. The development of local algae mats or algal balls is also common. Bioturbation may be expected due to the high organism content, however this was not widely recognized in the Waterways.

Three lithofacies were identified within the carbonate zone. They are the massive to marbly crystalline limestone, nodular argillaceous limestone and finely interbedded limestone-shale facies. Each facies is gradational, changing laterally into one another. Furthermore, the exact conditions of their development are not drastically dissimilar. The primary factor distinguishing the three facies is depth of water. In general, deeper water displays reduced sensitivity to climatic effects. Thus, the deposits may reflect less variation in lithology, mineralogy or depositional structure.

In contrast, the shallower shoreward waters are very sensitive to seasonal effects. A textural cyclicity is thus imparted. Alternating carbonate-micrite

production is a direct consequence of the changes in temperature, solar input and winds associated with a change in season. This cyclicity is poorly defined in the mottled or nodular facies but is well defined in the finely interbedded facies. The shallower shoreward waters are also expected to display a greater diversity in faunal content and sedimentary structure.

In summary, three distinct depositional zones have been defined within the marine platform subenvironment. Six lithofacies have been related to those zones and are distinguished on the basis of textural character. Depth of water and climate are considered to be the two factors exercising the greatest influence upon textural character. Each lithofacies is illustrated in Figure 3.3. All stratigraphic sections in Appendix B employ the preceding model.

3.5 Geophysical Measurements

3.5.1 General

The presence of dense, sparitic hardground surfaces was initially expected to provide well defined kicks in borehole neutron and density logs. Ideally such surfaces could be correlated in section. Unfortunately these surfaces were generally less than 10 cm thick and

could not be readily identified on the oilfield geophysical tools employed at SANDALTA. This method of study was discontinued.

A second approach involved correlating rock mass lithology to bulk density, neutron density and gamma ray log responses. Geophysical cross plots were created which may be employed to distinguish gross borehole lithology and geotechnical suitability.

3.5.2 Bulk Density, Neutron Density and Gamma Ray Logs

A common suite of oilfield geophysical logs includes gamma ray, neutron density, bulk density and caliper logs.

Caliper logs provide a continuous mechanical record of the borehole sidewall conditions at the time of logging. It is useful in identifying unconsolidated or washed-out zones. The borehole integrity may often provide information about lithology, hydrogeology or structural geology.

Bulk density logs are achieved by employing a radioactive source in the measuring instrument. The separation of a transmitter and receiver will determine the depth of penetration of the gamma ray radiation. Theoretically, the amount of radiation recorded at the

receiver is directly proportional to the electron density of the rock mass. Electron density may then be related to the true bulk density which itself is dependent upon mineralogy, porosity and formation fluid.

Neutron density logs also employ a radioactive source, however in this instance, high energy neutrons are emitted. The collision of the neutrons with hydrogen ions in the formation causes a significant loss of energy. A receiver or counter then detects what proportion of the emitted neutrons were not affected by hydrogen ion collisions. The resulting response provides a measure of the concentration of hydrogen ions in the rock mass. Since hydrogen occurs in both water and hydrocarbons, the neutron log is used primarily in determining liquid-filled porosity.

Gamma ray logs are a third nuclear log providing information on the natural radioactivity of the rock mass. In sedimentary rocks, the common radioactive elements are concentrated in the various clay minerals. Thus, gamma ray responses are normally used to determine shale content. High energy electromagnetic waves emitted by the source experience Compton scattering collisions with the formation atoms. After losing a significant amount of energy, gamma rays are adsorbed by formation atoms by the photoelectric effect. The subsequent ejection of electrons from the host material is measured

by the geophysical receiver. These emissions are quantitatively related to the amount of radioactive potassium, uranium and thorium isotopes in the formation. Since the concentration of uranium and thorium isotopes in sedimentary rocks is commonly insignificant, the measure of emitted radiation is directly related to the potassium content in the clay minerals. This in turn is interpreted as a bulk representation of the overall shale content of the formation.

3.5.3 Facies Cross Plots

Six geophysical cross plots have been prepared illustrating four distinct carbonate lithologies. Three types of cross plots have been employed, including the following:

1. gamma ray vs. bulk density
(Figures 3.4, 3.5)
2. gamma ray vs. neutron-neutron
(Figures 3.6, 3.7)
3. bulk density vs. neutron-neutron
(Figures 3.8, 3.9)

Each cross-plot was established by matching observed borehole lithologies with the corresponding geophysical response. An inventory of study core sections was completed and all data plotted by rock type.

Theoretically, geophysical tools should respond only to changes in the physical properties of the formation. In practice, each instrument is also sensitive to drilling fluid and borehole conditions. The author has attempted to minimize these influences by plotting average geophysical response. Minor fluctuations have been ignored.

Figures 3.4-3.9 represent cross plots completed for the SANDALTA lease. The following conclusions may be drawn:

1. Gross lithologic character may be readily distinguished on the basis of geophysical response. Subtle facies differences are less well defined. Differentiation of individual limestone facies could not be established without overlap.
2. Gamma-ray-neutron-neutron and gamma ray-bulk density plots were found to be the most useful in distinguishing lithologies. High gamma ray responses coupled with low bulk or neutron densities were found to be characteristic of the more argillaceous lithologies. Alternatively, high neutron density and low gamma ray responses were characteristic of the porous biohermal limestones and less argillaceous, finely interbedded facies. Massive crystalline

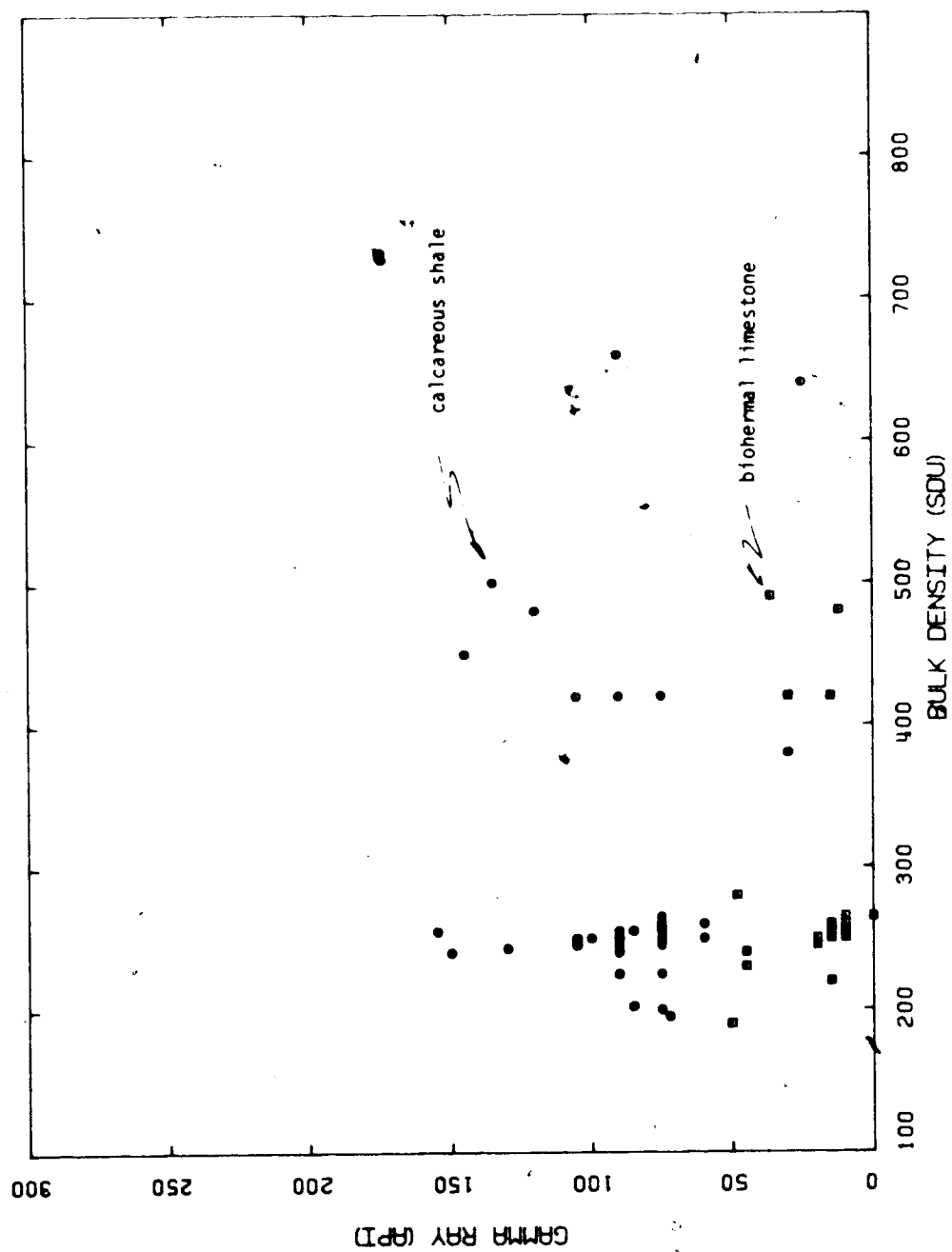
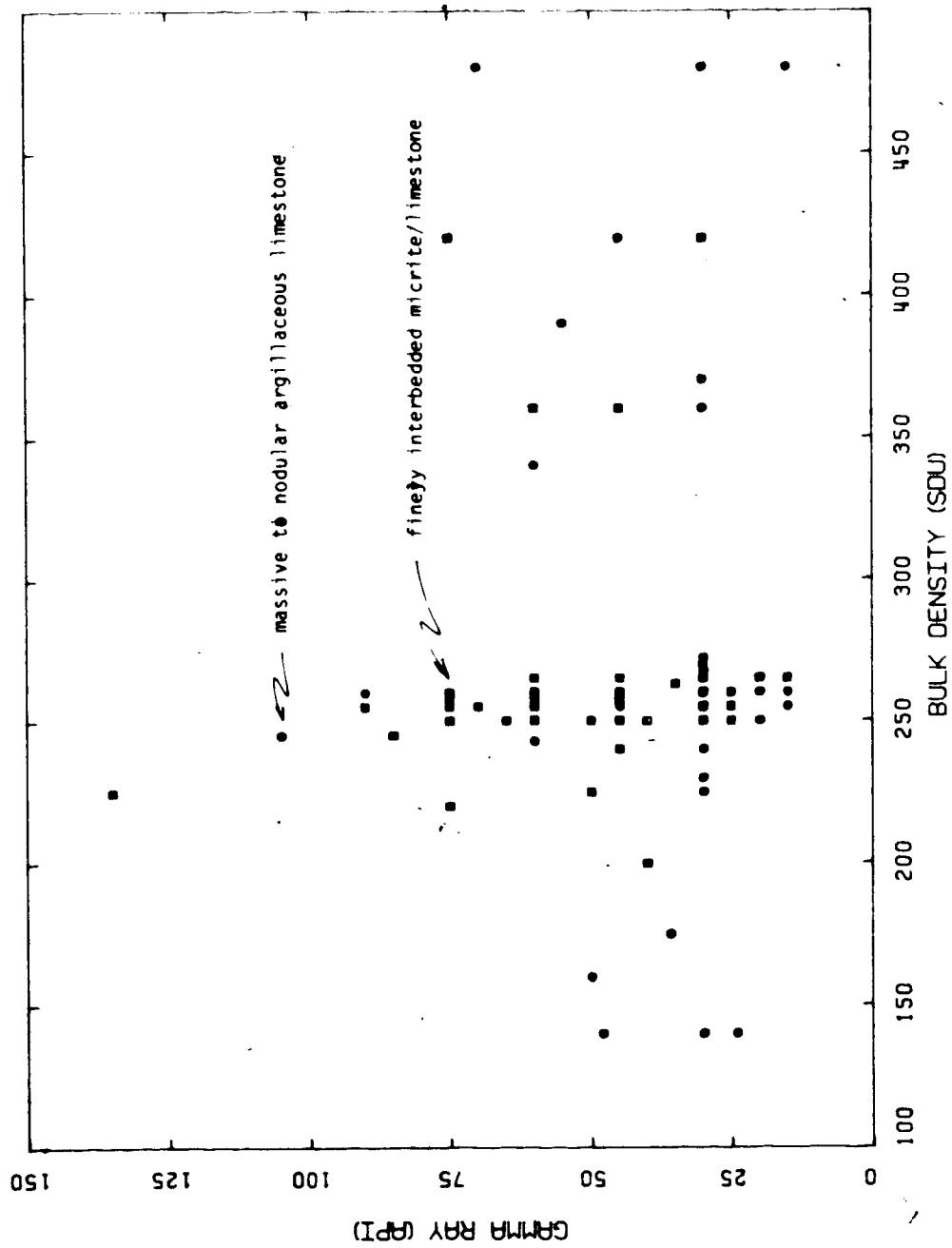


FIGURE 3.4: GAMMA RAY-BULK DENSITY GEOPHYSICAL CROSS PLOT



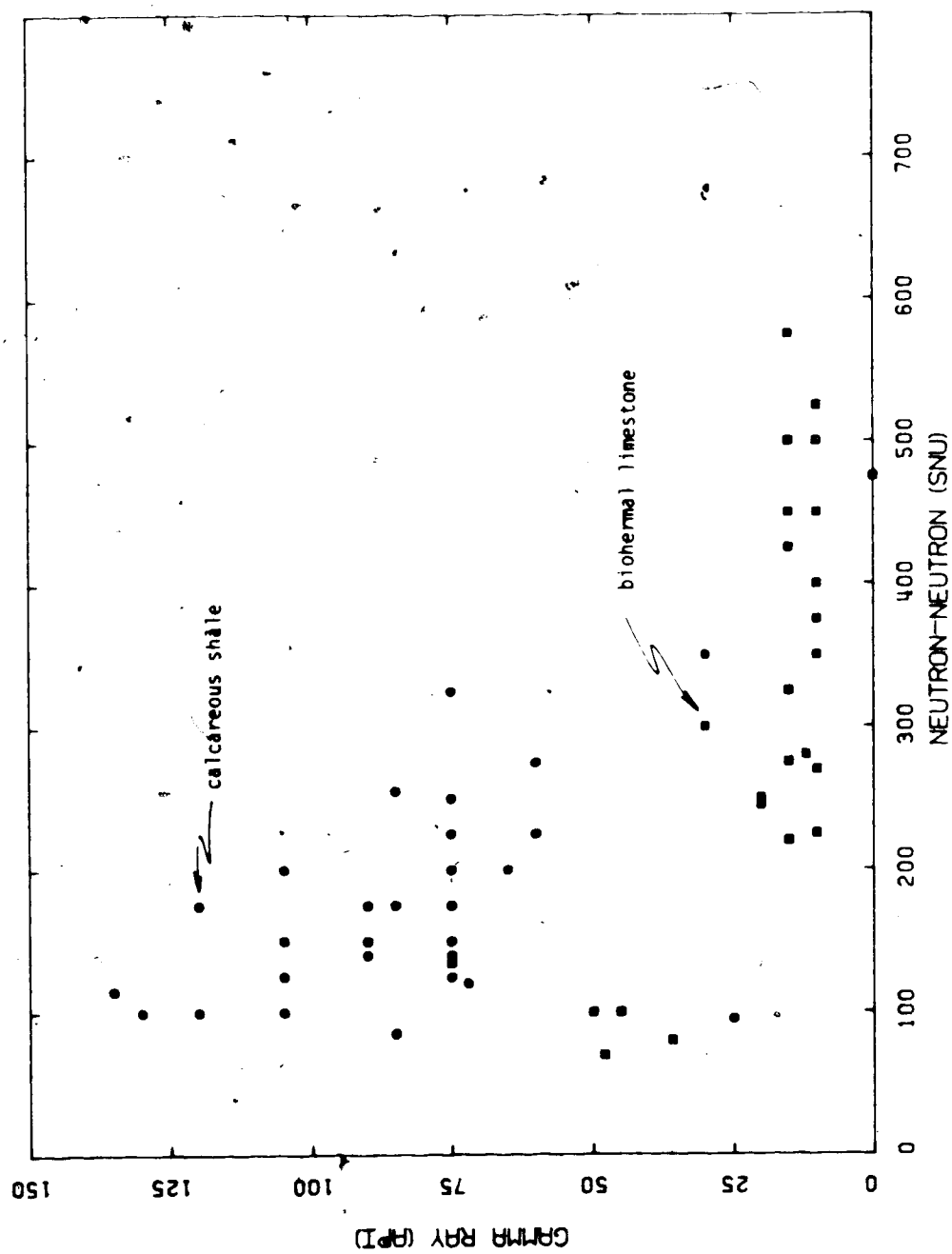


FIGURE 3.6: GAMMA RAY-NEUTRON GEOPHYSICAL CROSS PLOT

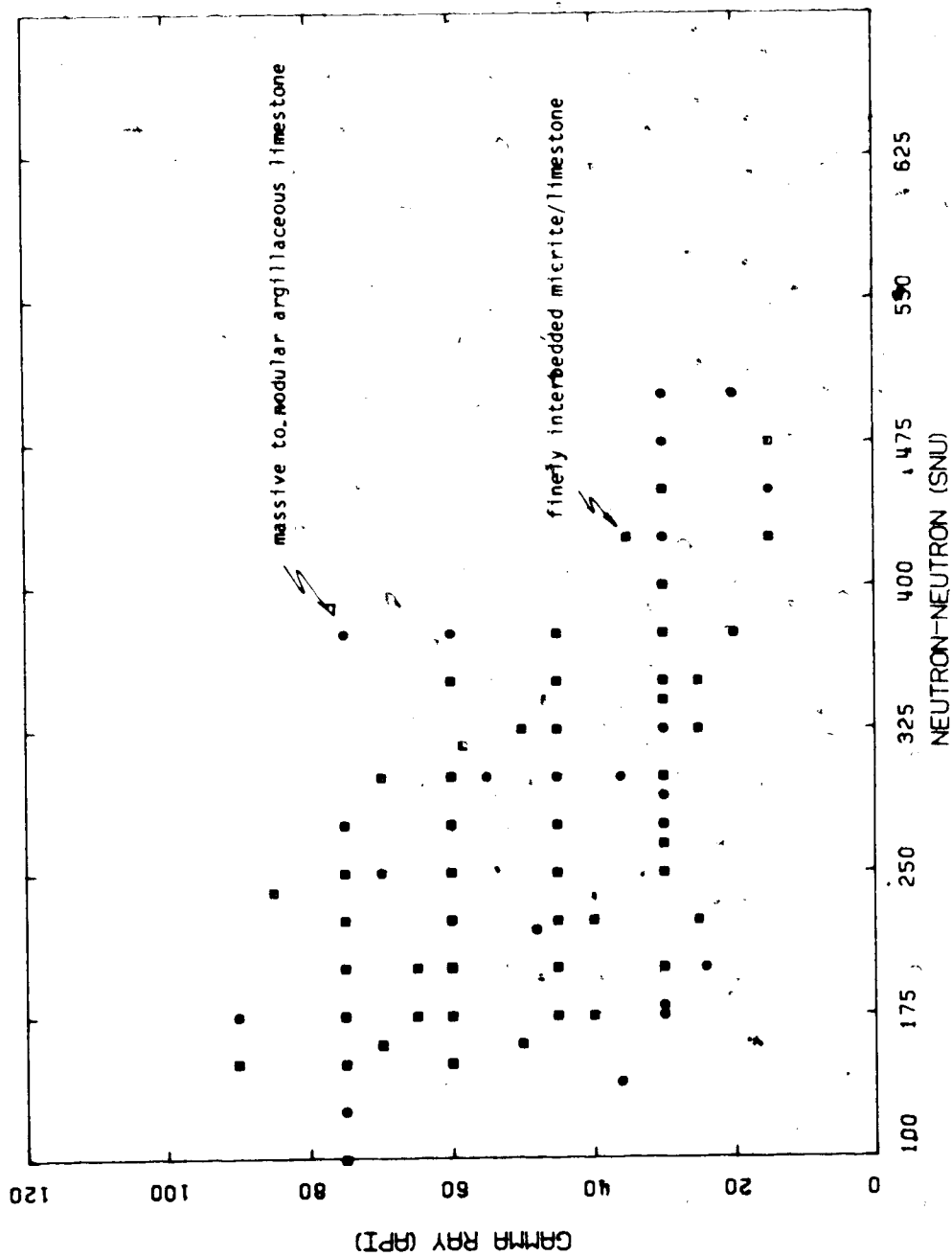


FIGURE 3.7: GAMMA RAY-NEUTRON GEOPHYSICAL CROSS PLOT

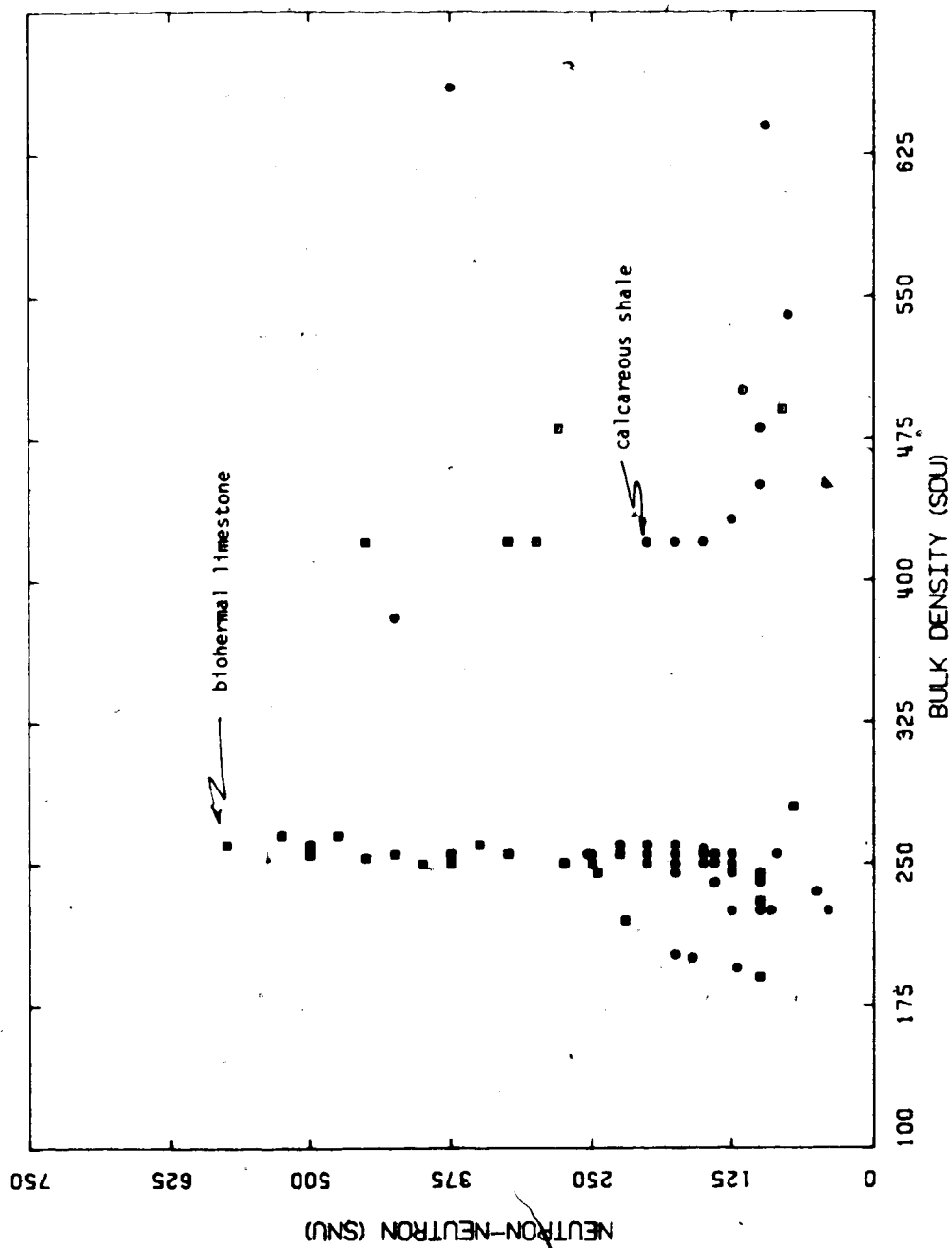


FIGURE 3.8: NEUTRON-BULK DENSITY GEOPHYSICAL CROSS PLOT

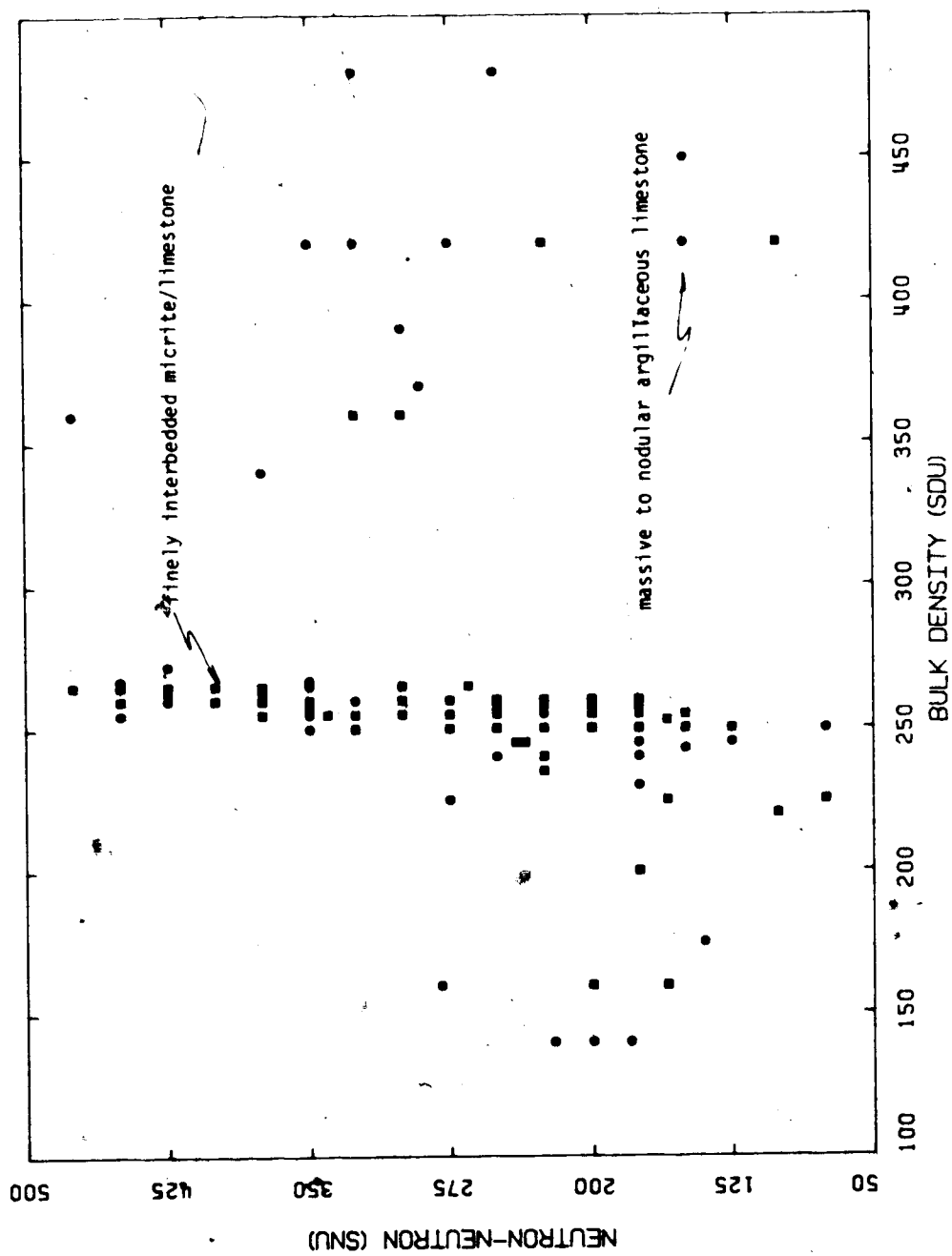


FIGURE 3.9: NEUTRON-BULK DENSITY GEOPHYSICAL CROSS PLOT

limestones displayed both low gamma ray and neutron-bulk density responses.

3. General geotechnical information on rock mass quality may be acquired from geophysical cross plots. In particular, undesirable argillaceous rocks may be identified on gamma ray plots and porous, permeable units may be distinguished by the neutron density response. Overall rock mass densities may be assessed on bulk density plots and may provide preliminary information on the degree of consolidation, compaction, or cementation of a particular lithologic unit. Finally, liquid-filled aquifers may be identified and the nature of the aquifer fluid may be established.

3.6 Structural Geology

3.6.1 Small Scale Primary Structure

The development of syndepositional textures and structures dominates the lithology of the Moberly and Christina members. Features such as laminations, ripple marks, carbonate nodules or concretions, algal mats, fossil beds and intraformational hardground surfaces are common.

Well defined bedding planes are most pronounced in the finely interbedded limestone-shale facies of rock type A. Most bedding occurs on a centimetre scale and is generally planar to wavy with a subtle subhorizontal dip (Plate 3.7). Interbedding is highly regular and thought to be due to the cyclic influence of seasonal climatic variations. Millimetre scale laminations were also observed. They were most prominent in the calcareous shales of rock type B.

Both strength and permeability anisotropies may be affected by bedding. Bulk deformation moduli may also be affected.

Syn depositional ripple marks are another primary structural feature observed in outcrop (Appendix D). They are thought to have formed in the wind-influenced shoreward zone and were most commonly observed in the argillaceous or interbedded facies of rock type A. They are not expected to be of any engineering significance.

Concretionary features are less significant primary structures, but may affect localized engineering behaviour as heterogeneous, stiff inclusions. Concretionary nodules up to 20 cm in diameter were observed in outcrop (Appendix D). They are thought to have formed syndepositionally and may have been exaggerated by post depositional differential compaction. The nodules are tabular or elongated and aligned perpendicular to the expected paleocurrent

direction.

Algal mats and balls were not observed in the core but were revealed in weathered outcrops along the MacKay and Muskeg Rivers (Appendix D). Finely laminated wavy mats signify a temporary stoppage in carbonate production and establishment of a stable marine substrate. Mats were not found to exceed 10 cm in thickness and are thought to have formed in the shallow shoreward environment. They are of little engineering significance.

The development of intraformational hardground surfaces was previously discussed in Section 3.3. These surfaces were found to be largely indistinguishable on geophysical logs and of limited engineering significance, however they do represent dense, impermeable horizons.

The primary clastic texture of the limestone intraclast breccias was distinguished from the post-depositional collapse breccias in Section 3.3. The intraclast breccia is composed of local limestone clasts in a dark brown, argillaceous matrix. The clasts are slightly rounded and display a random, disoriented character. This texture suggests a moderate degree of transportation and reworking. The breccia may also be bitumen stained. In contrast, in-place collapse breccias are composed of angular, massive or interbedded limestone clasts with little or no argillaceous matrix. In some instances, collapse has involved only a few centimetres of

displacement. Former bedding planes may be occasionally established. These breccias are interpreted to be post-depositional, solution collapse structures, distinct from the primary depositional texture of the biohermal intraclast breccias.

The non-homogeneous texture of both brecciated lithologies is expected to influence non-homogeneous engineering behaviour. Moreover, the disturbed character is thought to affect reduced compressive and tensile strengths relative to the undisturbed carbonates. Both breccias may also display significant compressibility and lower deformation moduli than the more massive limestone lithologies. In general, these units are thought to represent very poor geotechnical materials.

Finally, the development of pinch and swell structures is considered. These were observed throughout the study core on a centimetre scale (Plate 3.14) and on a decimetre scale in field outcrop (Appendix D). Boudinage refers to angular or barrel-shaped bodies of brittle rock, sandwiched between adjacent layers of deformable or plastic sediments. It is generally accepted that boudinage forms upon compression normal to the bedding plane (Ramberg, 1955; Ramsey, 1967). Boundary contact forces are produced causing the brittle unit to fracture in tension (Figure 3.10).

Boudinage is well preserved in the study core and river outcrops of the Moberly member. Cyclic deposition



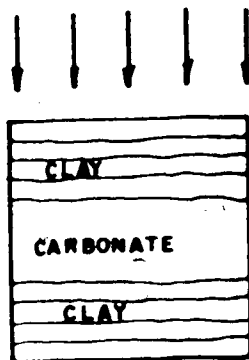
Plate 3.14: Boudinage (CH.137)

of micrite and carbonate has led to regular interbedding. Subsequent burial is considered to have compressed the plastic sediment, thereby effecting consolidation of the clay layers and lithification of the interbedded carbonates. Further overburden compression is thought to have developed boundary frictional stresses leading to tensile fracturing of the stiff carbonate layers and plastic deformation of the clay interbeds. Numerous boudins are created without erosional or tectonic influence.

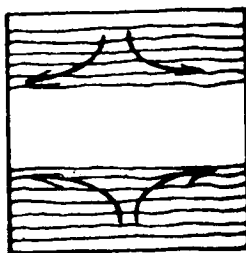
The presence of boudinage implies a subvertical major principal stress prior to lithification. Once lithified however, the rock mass is perceived to have the structural rigidity to undergo loading resulting in an elastic response. Brittle fracturing would then be the anticipated failure mode.

The engineering significance of boudinage lies in the creation of secondary fracture porosity and accompanying vertical permeability. Rock mass shear strength and deformability may also be reduced.

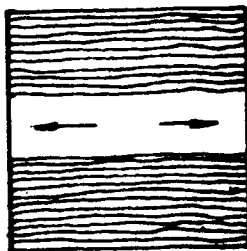
In summary, small scale primary structures are abundant and include laminations, ripple marks, concretions, algal mats and balls and intraformational hardground surfaces. Both syndepositional and post depositional breccias have been identified and small scale boudinage was commonly observed.



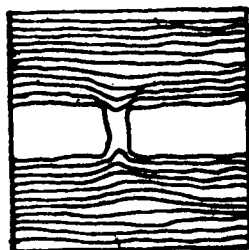
- HYDROSTATIC LOADING ON THE MARINE FLOOR
- CONSOLIDATION OF CLAY LAYERS, CEMENTATION OF THE CARBONATE



- CONTACT (DRAG) FORCES CREATED AT CLAY/CARBONATE BOUNDARY
- MILD TENSION CREATED IN STIFF CARBONATE



- EVENTUAL TENSILE FAILURE OF CARBONATE LAYER



- PLASTIC DEFORMATION OF CLAY LAYERS ABOUT BOUDIN
- SECONDARY POROSITY AND PERMEABILITY CREATED BETWEEN BOUDINS

FIGURE 3.10: BOUDINAGE MECHANISM

3.6.2 Small Scale Secondary Structure

The development of small scale secondary structure is limited in the Waterways. The majority of secondary features are regional in scale, however mild diagenesis, weathering and bitumen staining shall be presently considered.

Low grade hydrothermal alteration or diagenesis are short-lived processes thought to have affected Waterways sediments immediately following deposition. The presence of the iron minerals siderite and marcasite support this hypothesis.

Berner (1971) suggested that iron carbonates such as siderite and iron sulphides such as marcasite form only during diagenesis in sedimentary rocks. Their chemical stability is a function of the oxidation-reduction potential of the host environment and the amount of free iron and sulphur available. Both minerals are unstable in high Eh or aerobic environments. Thus, although high sulphur, iron and carbon dioxide concentrations characterize low Eh environments, these conditions are not expected in the shallow marine environment.

Low Eh values may result from anaerobic bacterial decomposition or as a result of the exposure of fresh sediments to non-marine anaerobic groundwaters. For concretionary siderite to be stable, the concentration of dissolved ferrous iron must be greater than that of

calcium. The remains of various benthonic fauna and bacterial sulfate reduction are two processes thought to create the necessary iron-sulphur concentrations. Neither mineral will form or remain stable in an acidic, aerobic environment. Thus, the development of siderite and marcasite is viewed as an indication of low grade, early post-depositional diagenetic, replacement or concretionary mechanisms within the ancient submarine floor. Later hydrothermal replacements are also expected, however there is no evidence to support the widespread development of metasomatism or dolomitization. Minor calcite recrystallization is attributed to local groundwater effects.

Although these diagenetic processes are of little engineering significance, the presence of unstable marcasite is noted. The oxidation of marcasite near joint walls and intraformational unconformities may result in significant volume changes. As a result, adjacent structures may experience significant point loading. The temperature increase associated with in-situ recovery methods is considered to catalyze the oxidation reaction.

Bitumen staining is another secondary feature observed throughout core samples and river exposures (Plate 3.4). Two potential bitumen sources are defined. Firstly, shell beds observed in outcrop (see Appendix D) displayed a distinct heavy, black bituminous stain. This bitumen is considered to have formed in-place as no see

page channels were observed and the stain is limited to the porous organic lenses. It is believed to be the result of decomposition of faunal remains contained within various coquina deposits. The bitumen stain that characterizes the biohermal facies is also believed to be local in origin, however the majority of these units do exhibit hydraulic communication with the overlying Cretaceous sediments.

The second source of bitumen is believed to be the overlying Cretaceous McMurray Formation. Structural communication by subvertical joints is thought to have permitted gravitational infiltration of lighter hydrocarbons. Although some authors (Link, 1951) have proposed a Paleozoic source for the bitumen, the present author believes that Waterways infiltration occurred concurrently with infiltration into the McMurray Formation. This is supported by the occurrence of bitumen in post-depositional fractures and an apparent loss of stain with depth. Furthermore, there is no evidence of a major Upper Devonian source rock. These features suggest that bitumen infiltration into the Waterways was gravitational. Additional support is found in the nature of solution infillings observed along the MacKay River. The implications of bitumen infiltration are discussed in Section 4.3.2.

The time of bitumen infiltration is believed to have been Late Cretaceous. It would therefore have been

preceded by Paleozoic jointing and Mesozoic erosional and depositional occurrences. Mossop (1980) indicated that the Lower Cretaceous Mannville Formation was the likely source of McMurray hydrocarbon.

Weathering profiles may also be considered a secondary feature. In general, weathered Devonian surfaces were discoloured, but essentially undisturbed. Some loss of texture was observed at the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity, however widespread residual soil development was not encountered. The author subsequently distinguishes between non-marine basal McMurray alluvium and weathered Paleozoic materials. Basal McMurray deposits are discussed in detail in Section 4.2.2.

It is proposed that light green, plastic, non-calcareous clays are the sole weathering product of the argillaceous Waterways limestones. Mineralogically, they correspond to sources within the Waterways (see Section 4.3.3) and do not appear to be related to Cretaceous deposits overlying the unconformity. More commonly, these clays infill solution pipes in the karst horizon and occupy topographic lows. They do not appear in significant thicknesses in any core sections and commonly form a thin (10-30 cm) mantle atop intact limestone. This suggests that weathering processes may have been relatively short-lived. Moreover, these clays are thought to represent reworked surficial slimes as opposed to in-place residual soils. An idealized weathering profile is

presented in Figure 3.11. Plate 3.16 depicts a typical weathering feature.

The engineering significance of the plastic clays is potentially unique. Although they may not be spatially widespread, they are believed to characterize the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity which represents a major engineering horizon. Due to their high plasticity and expected low shear strength, these materials are considered to be geotechnically undesirable. They may accentuate trafficability, bearing capacity or highwall stability concerns. These problems are discussed in Section 5.3.

Another secondary weathering feature is that of weathered rims surrounding joint fractures and solution cavities. Although joint walls may be slightly discoloured due to oxidation, a significant loss of rock mass strength is not expected. Minor softening may be experienced in extreme cases. Sporadic calcite recrystallization was observed, however widespread joint recrystallization is not envisaged.

In summary, mild hydrothermal alteration, bitumen staining and weathering have been identified. Regional recrystallization was not observed. Weathering features are treated in Section 4.3.

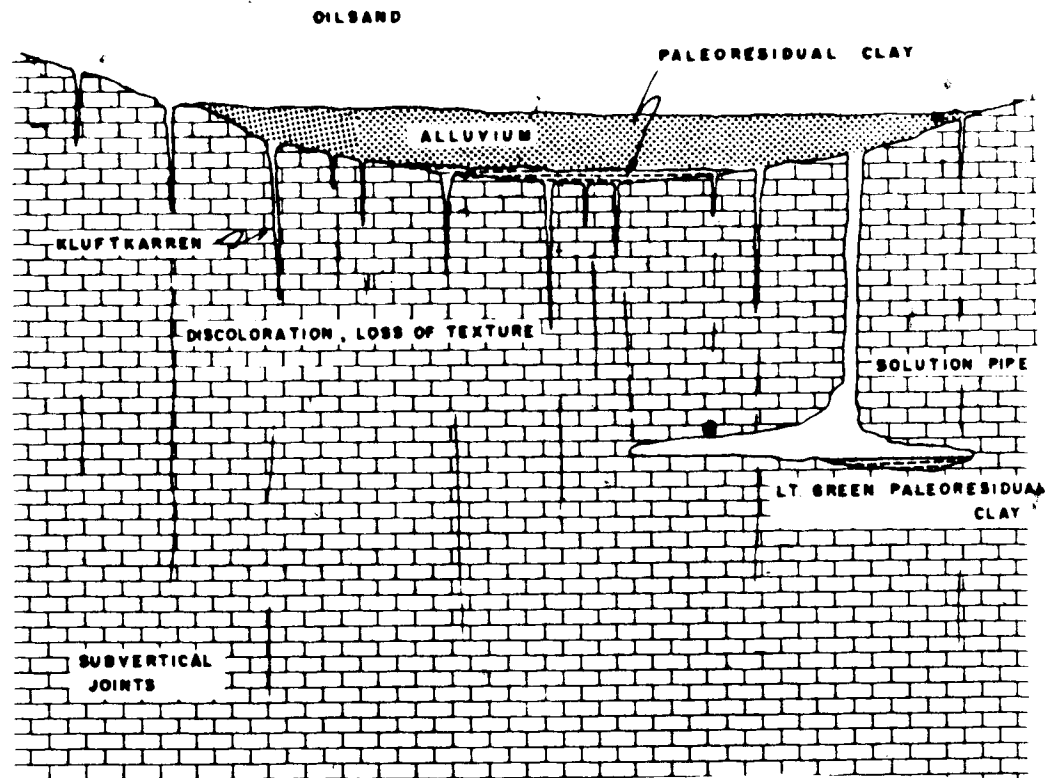


FIGURE 3.11: IDEALIZED WEATHERING AND SURFACE SOLUTION FEATURES

3.6.3 Large Scale Primary Structure

Large scale primary structures are limited to the distribution of the various lithofacies and the development of numerous intraformational hiatuses. The most significant structural features are post-depositional in origin.

The distribution of depositional lithofacies was discussed in Section 3.4 where a marine platform model was developed. The structural significance of the distribution of each facies lies in their individual propensities to compact differentially. The carbonate facies lithify faster than the argillaceous facies and would subsequently experience much less compaction settlement. Although differential compaction is thought to have emphasized relief upon former stratigraphic surfaces, it is not considered to have been a predominant structural influence. Of greater significance is the presence of intraformational unconformities.

Two distinct types of intraformational hiatuses were observed throughout the core study. Firstly, periods of non-deposition or diastems are thought to have developed dense, sparitic hardground surfaces. These surfaces have been previously discussed and may be employed as stratigraphic time lines in facies correlations. They do not represent erosional hiatuses and are described at length by Stoakes (1980). Their

engineering significance is limited to the establishment of occasional impermeable, brittle horizons. Alternatively, two major intraformational erosional surfaces were identified in the SANDALTA section. Several minor erosional surfaces were also identified, however their correlative value is limited due to restricted regional extent.

Intraformational erosional surfaces were identified on the basis of their small scale solution features and well defined weathering profile. Light green plastic clays characterized the contact and oxidation staining was often apparent. A subtle loss of texture may have been observed and sparitic surfaces with pyritic rims or nodules were occasionally identified (Plate 3.17). Rudaceous deposits such as sands and gravels were not observed, which suggests a high energy erosional environment did not exist. Rather, the presence of overlying shales and carbonates indicates that a period of low energy subaerial exposure was followed by continued carbonate production. A significant change in depositional environment is not envisaged. The three major erosional surfaces include the following:

1. Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity
2. Biohermal unconformity - located at the immediate base of the biohermal lithofacies

between elevations 240 and 270 masl.

3. Sub-biohermal unconformity - located 3-8 metres below the immediate base of the biohermal lithofacies between elevations 230 and 260 masl.

Additional minor unconformities were identified immediately above and below the intraclast breccia facies (see Appendix B), however these are thought to correspond to intermittent periods of substrate exposure common to the facies subenvironment. They were not found to be laterally continuous and may not represent periods of regional exposure.

In summary, large scale primary features are limited to differential compaction and intraformational unconformities. Differential compaction has not been studied, however two types of intraformational hiatuses have been recognized. Diastems are periods of non-deposition resulting in hardground development whereas unconformities represent periods of uplift* and subaerial exposure resulting in solution and surface weathering.

3.6.4 Large Scale Secondary Structure

Large scale secondary structures dominate the Waterways geology and include features related to subsidence, uplift, faulting, collapse and erosion. Many

of these features are considered in detail in Chapter 4, however they are introduced and described presently. Structural events are considered in chronological order.

Following deposition and lithification of the interstratified carbonate and shale facies, the first structural event affecting the Waterways was likely that of regional subsidence. Prairie Evaporite solution is believed to have been an early consequence of deep hydraulic activity which in turn led to the development of collapse pipes and overall regional subsidence. This subsidence is considered to have formed the rolling basin structures observed in local Waterways outcrops. These flexures have amplitudes of 20-30 metres and wavelengths of several hundred metres (Norris 1973). Alternatively, Hume (1947) suggested the domes and basins were due to volume changes accompanying an anhydrite-gypsum transformation in the Prairie Evaporite. Regardless which of these mechanisms is responsible, flexures in the Waterways should not be considered to represent regional compressional folding. The flexures appear to be without a dominant regional trend and do not display compressional characteristics. Subsidence is considered to have been the predominant formational mechanism.

Concurrent with the creation of flexural basins was the brittle fracturing of beds at the perimeter of the basins. Outcrops along the MacKay and Muskeg Rivers (see Appendix D) display breaking features which are not

considered to be due to regional compression. Bedding offsets could not be established and no shear characteristics were observed. These features are thought to represent local overstepping due to subsidence and are not related to regional tectonic faulting. Regional subsidence due to evaporite removal is considered to have continued throughout late Paleozoic and Mesozoic time. Solution may presently be occurring, however Prairie Evaporite removal at SANDALTA is believed to be complete (see Section 4.1.3).

Another early occurrence related to Prairie Evaporite solution was that of deep-seated collapse pipes. The initial stages of solution are considered to have occurred preferentially, thus creating numerous voids or caverns in the Prairie Evaporite and affecting a loss of support for overburden units. Local overstepping may have resulted in the formation of steep-walled collapse pipes which originate in the Prairie Evaporite and translate upward (see Section 4.1.3). The resultant rock structures observed in the Upper Devonian include slumped and brecciated examples of previously undisturbed sediments. These structures are post-depositional and typically appear as on plate 3.10. In this instance, previous bedding planes may be established and an overall gravitational collapse character is evident. There is no evidence of shearing or syndepositional slumping. Reworking and transportation are not evident. In Section

4.1.3, the observed collapse structures are distinguished from karst dolines which develop from the surface and may subsequently become infilled with unsorted detritus.

Regional jointing is another structural occurrence, believed however to be related to periods of uplift, not subsidence. Joints are vertically discontinuous and display no measurable lateral or vertical displacement. The joint faces are rough and fresh and display no slickensides, striae or stylolites. Spacings vary according to the stiffness and thickness of the particular lithology. All of these characteristics suggest that jointing in the Waterways was due to tensile stressing upon uplift. Compression is not suggested because inclined shear surfaces would be the expected mode of deformation. These features discount Cordilleran orogenic compression as suggested by Babcock (1975).

Periods of regional uplift are also considered to have occurred intraformationally. This is supported by the occurrence of intra-Devonian karst and weathered horizons. Karst on intraformational unconformities is poorly developed relative to the Devonian-Cretaceous surface. The unconformities are mildly undulating and may have been influenced by pre-existing topography or deep solution subsidence.

Uplift resulting in joint formation and intraformational erosion also induced significant secondary permeability. Despite dominant subhorizontal

bedding, the development of subvertical joints, boudinage and solution and collapse pipes has likely contributed to a significant vertical hydraulic conductivity. Moreover, this is likely to have affected a significant permeability anisotropy throughout the Waterways. The stress dependence and implications of formation permeability are discussed in Section 5.4.2.

The establishment of secondary permeability is considered to have had an accelerative effect upon formation karstification. Structurally controlled solution pipes are known as kluftkarren (see Section 4.1.2) and are believed to characterize the Devonian-Cretaceous karst. Intraformational karsts are not considered to be structurally controlled. Typical solution pipes were less than 10 cm in diameter and possessed smooth walls with light green clay infillings. Larger pipes (up to 30 cm) and subhorizontal cavities were observed in the field (see Appendix D) and were commonly infilled with bituminous sands or brecciated limestone fragments. All kluftkarren pipes and cavities were widely confined to a apparent "active zone" within 1-2 metres of the various unconformities. These features are believed to have developed at the time of exposure and were subsequently terminated upon infilling with residual clays. The development of large (>3m) subsurface caverns is not generally supported by core features, however one section (CH.150) did illustrate approximately 10 metres of

non-marine alluvium at depth.

Faulting within the Devonian is a phenomenon discussed by several authors as reviewed in Section 2.2. The present study provided no new evidence to support regional faulting and suggests structural continuity exists across SANDALTA. Normal faulting due to Prairie Evaporite removal is envisaged however cannot be supported by direct core evidence. No obvious stratigraphic offsets were detected and no examples of sheared surfaces were observed in the core. This does not preclude regional faulting but does suggest the SANDALTA locale is structurally intact. A detailed discussion of potential stress fields is found in Section 5.4.2.

The most recent structural events may be considered to be unloading due to erosion of upper Devonian sediments and reloading upon Cretaceous deposition. Mild isostatic rebound is likely to have occurred upon unloading, however no accompanying strains were distinguished. Early Cretaceous drainage carved deep fluvial channels which were subsequently infilled with uncemented detritus. These features are discussed in Section 4.2.1.

In summary, several episodes of uplift, karstification and subsidence are considered to have affected large scale structures within the Waterways. Prairie Evaporite solution is believed to have caused vertical collapse pipes and overall regional subsidence.

This may have been accompanied by steep angle brittle faulting, however there is no current evidence to support this mechanism.

There is no compressional folding in the Waterways, however evaporite removal has created local warping and basin structures. Jointing is common and a result of tensile overstepping upon uplift. Karst features are concentrated about intraformational unconformities and are largely joint controlled. Significant vertical permeability is created by joints and pipes and may be several orders of magnitude greater than horizontal.

3.6.5 Structural and Stratigraphic Correlations

The following general conclusions were drawn from a review of vertical cross sections reproduced in Appendix B.

1. The Moberly and Christina members display a high degree of lateral variation in lithologic character. Vertical textural variability is less pronounced. Lateral facies continuity was established across SANDALTA and may be predicted by employing the marine carbonate model discussed in Section 3.4. Such continuity suggests the immediate Waterways members are part of a

widespread carbonate system that affected the entire Western Canadian sedimentary basin. Local textural variations have been related to minor climatic fluctuations.

Limestone facies occur throughout the section whereas the shale facies predominate below 240 masl in the Christina Member. The biohermal facies occur only in the Moberly Member above 240 masl.

2. Several intraformational unconformities have been identified which suggests that structural continuity exists across the lease. These surfaces have been identified throughout the sequence and correlate over substantial distances in section. Each unconformity represents a period in Paleozoic time that was characterized by uplift and localized surface karstification.
3. Devonian-Cretaceous paleotopography is complex with a large amount of relief. Maximum relief at the SANDALTA lease is approximately 100 metres. Early Cretaceous fluvial erosion is considered to contribute up to 90 metres of this relief. Numerous wide, deep drainage channels were identified and often infilled with unsorted, alluvial materials such as sands, silts and clays.

Surface karstification and Prairie Evaporite subsidence are two additional mechanisms believed to have contributed up to 20 metres of paleotopographic relief. The overall paleotopographic character is envisaged as a rolling, undulating karst surface with numerous deeply incised drainage channels. Extensive subsurface caverns or voids were not generally supported.

4. Intraformational hardground surfaces were not regionally extensive and could only be employed in local stratigraphic correlations.
5. No compressional folding or brittle faulting is apparent at SANDALTA. Stratigraphic continuity discounts large vertical offsets, however strike-slip movements would not be readily detected in section. Normal or thrust dip-slip faulting at a scale greater than the SANDALTA lease would also not be detected.
6. Local collapse pipes are sporadically located and do not appear to be related to early Cretaceous drainage channels. That is, early Cretaceous drainage, although likely influenced by paleotopography, does not appear to be related to Prairie

Evaporite subsidence. There is no evidence to suggest that a hydrogeologic or structural relationship exists between the collapse pipes and early Cretaceous fluvial drainage. Collapse pipes are randomly located and thought to be a function of early preferential solution of the Prairie Evaporite.

4. KARST, EROSION AND WEATHERING FEATURES

4.1 Dissolution Features and Distribution

4.1.1 Aqueous Corrosion

Karst refers to an irregular limestone topography characterized by sinkholes and caverns, occurring as a result of carbonate dissolution by chemically active surface waters (Sweeting, 1972; Jakucs, 1977). The dissolution process is not a physical process. Physical erosion and weathering are discussed in Sections 4.2 and 4.3 respectively. Aqueous corrosion or solid dissolution involves the molecular removal of calcite by one of three reactions (Jakucs, 1977):

1. carbonate dissolution in pure water
2. hydrocarbonate dissolution in carbon dioxide enriched waters.
3. carbonate dissolution in other chemical reagents such as soil acids.

Carbonate dissolution is based on the balanced reaction:



Dissociation of calcite into the constituent calcium and carbonate ions depends primarily upon pore fluid chemistry. The reaction occurs only in pure solutions. Since pure meteoric waters are volumetrically insignificant, the carbonate dissolution mechanism is not a dominant corrosional force. Moreover, the reaction occurs much more slowly in pure waters than in acidic solutions where the reaction is catalyzed (Jakucs, 1977).

Conversely, hydrocarbonate dissolution is predominant and widespread. This process is governed by the equilibria of dissolved carbon dioxide or the acidity of the pore fluid. Numerically, the maximum CO_2 concentration was given by Mason (1966):

$$[\text{CO}_2] = (1.9634) L p$$

where $[\text{CO}_2]$ = concentration of CO_2

p = partial pressure of CO_2

L = temperature dependent solubility of CO_2

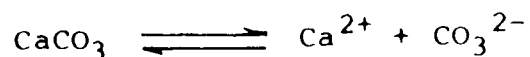
The temperature and pressure dependence of the reaction is thus apparent, noting that CO_2 solubility increases with decreasing temperature. The concentration also increases with increasing partial pressure in accordance with Henry's and Boyle's Laws. CO_2 concentration is also affected by equilibrium reaction

time, gas-fluid interface effects, gas turbulence, fluid agitation and other unquantified parameters.

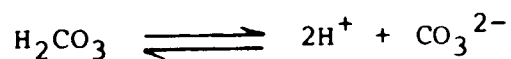
Hydrocarbonate dissolution occurs in four distinguishable stages following the creation of carbonic acid from dissolved CO_2 (Jakucs, 1977).



The first reaction involves simple calcium carbonate dissolution:



This reaction is accompanied by the association of carbonate ions (CO_3^{2-}) with dissociated hydrogen ions (H^+) from the carbonic acid. These two reactions occur instantaneously.



The third phase requires minutes to complete and involves the depletion of local CO_2 . The final phase, which involves the adsorption of free CO_2 from the atmosphere, generally requires hours or days to complete. Thus, the corrosive potential of hydrocarbonate dissolution is dictated by the "aggressivity" of the

infiltrating solvent. This in turn is a function of its excess dissolved CO_2 . The solubility of calcium carbonate therefore increases with increasing acidity or decreasing pH. At pH values greater than 9.5, the formation fluids are basic and carbonate dissolution predominates (Jakucs, 1977). In general, groundwaters possess a significantly higher CO_2 content and thus greater aggressivity than surface meteoric waters. This is due to the higher partial pressure of CO_2 , higher temperature and organic acid content.

The third solution mechanism that may have affected the Waterways is that of dissolution in other chemical reagents. Soil acids such as humic, formic, acetic, fulvic and oxalic acid are produced by the aerobic or anaerobic decay of floral and faunal remains. They interact with the solid phase carbonates by direct chemical exchange which is again controlled by solvent pH. Some decay processes also contribute to an increased CO_2 concentration in the solvent. Inorganic acids such as nitric, sulphuric and carbonic acid may also be produced by the weathering of sulphate minerals or other compounds.

Secondary controls on the dissolution process include lithologic character, local rock mass structure, regional hydrological and hydrogeological effects and the in-situ state of stress. In particular, a high clay content may serve to retard karst development by filling

fractures and thus reducing formation permeability. Similarly, regional structural features such as faults may retard or accelerate the dissolution mechanism by affecting permeability. Formation joints commonly lead to preferential solution and the development of kluftkarren (see Section 4.1.2). Likewise, regional hydrogeologic gradients may influence preferential solution in the direction of flow. Any one of these factors may be additionally influenced by a change in the local stress field due to tectonic or other structural occurrences.

4.1.2 Core-Sized Features

Core-sized solution features include subvertical pipes or karren and occasional inclined or subhorizontal cavities (Plate 4.1). These features are concentrated below erosional unconformities and may be characterized in terms of their degree of solution or maturity. In particular, it is proposed that solution features developed about intraformational unconformities are relatively immature. These unconformities represent short erosional periods whereupon uplift, surface exposure and mild dissolution occurred. The current joint system had likely not developed and surface dissolution is believed to have been topographically and lithologically controlled. That is, surface relief, clay content and



Plate 4.1: Typical Solution Pipe or Kluftkarren
(CH.135)



Plate 4.2: Paleoresidual Clays with Limestone
Fragments and Sphaerosiderites
(CH.191)

texture are thought to have had a greater influence upon karst development than structural influences such as joints. This effect is especially pronounced in the biohermal limestones of rock type D where high primary permeability is considered to have accelerated the dissolution process.

Surface pipes may have developed in random formation fractures, however no predominant joint system is believed to have yet formed. These immature pipes and cavities commonly define an apparent "active zone" within a few metres of the intraformational unconformity. They were usually infilled with light green residual clays. These clays were highly plastic and often contained small (<1 cm) chips of microcrystalline limestone and sphaerosiderites (Plate 4.2). They are believed to be residual paleosols that originated on the erosional surface and were subsequently swept into nearby solution cavities (see Section 4.3.3). Infilling may have served to further retard karst development. No sand infillings were observed adjacent to intraformational unconformities.

In contrast, solution features developed at the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity are relatively well developed. The "active zone" extends to many metres below the contact and a moderately well developed weathering profile was observed (Plate 4.3). Karst features are thought to have been structurally controlled which led to

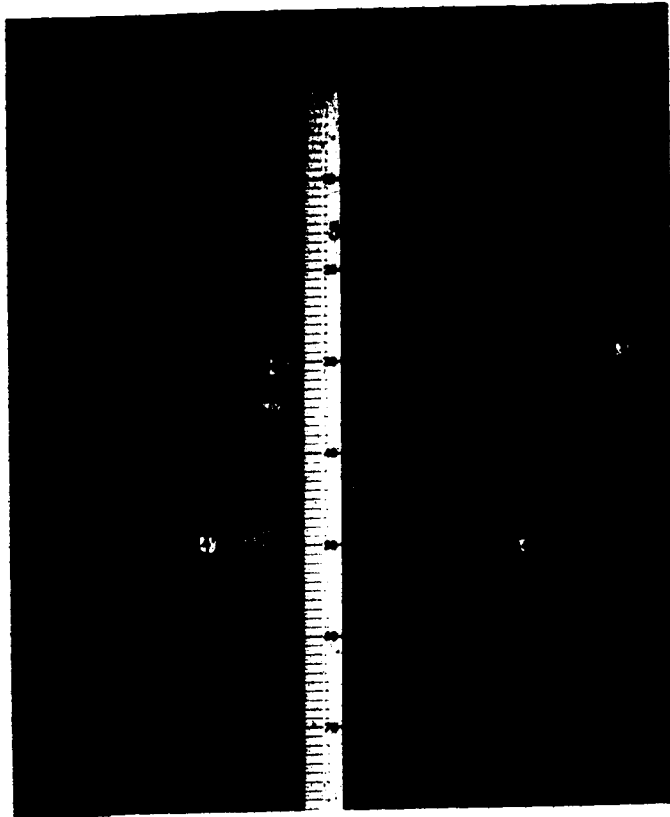


Plate 4.3: Typical Weathering Profile (CH.163)

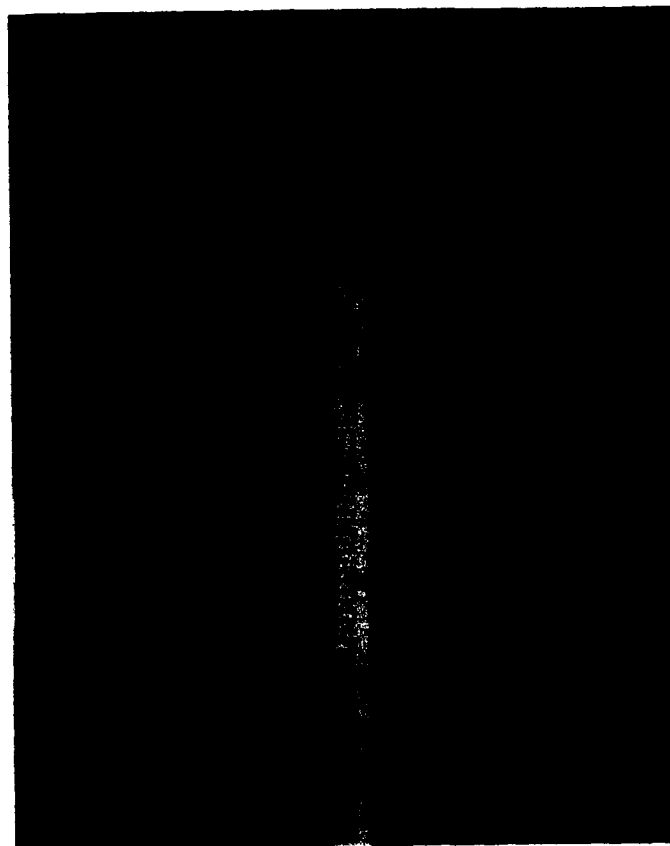


Plate 4.4: Sand Filled Solution Pipe (CH.143)

the development of kluftkarren (Sweeting, 1972). Kluftkarren are formed by the preferential corrosion of limestone along fractures. Since Waterways joints are predominantly subvertical, the resulting kluftkarren are also considered to be characteristically subvertical (Plate 4.1). This is supported by both core and field observations. Subhorizontal features are less significant due to the proposed structural control, however outcrop exposures revealed some bedding controlled cavities (see Appendix D). In addition, corehole 150 displayed a thick (approx. 10 m) section of non-marine alluvium at depth, which may be interpreted to represent a large infilled subhorizontal cavern.

Pipes near the Devonian-Cretaceous surface also revealed a high proportion of sand fillings. Again, these sands were observed both in core and the field where they were underlain by older, light green residual clays. The sands are believed to be Cretaceous deposits which were subsequently infiltrated with bitumen (Plate 4.4).

In summary, although the Devonian-Cretaceous karst is considered to be more highly developed than any of the intra-Devonian surfaces, all Waterways solution features are considered to be relatively immature.

Core-sized features were found to be limited to a shallow active zone less than 5 metres below the unconformity. Contacts were commonly highly scoured with

little or no paleosol. This character reflects a relatively short-lived, high energy erosional environment where there was little opportunity for holokarst development. In Section 4.1.4, the establishment of early Cretaceous fluvial drainage is considered in relation to karst development.

4.1.3 Deep-Seated Regional Features

Despite an overall lack of structural information below 200 masl, several general conclusions may be drawn from overlying core features.

Firstly, large scale (>10 m diameter) solution features appear to be dominated by the removal of the Middle Devonian Prairie Evaporite Formation. There is no core evidence to suggest that solution pipes larger than 10 metres exist within the Waterways. Instead, numerous collapse breccias were observed (Figure 4.1) and are considered to represent vertical collapse pipes or sinkholes resulting from a loss of Prairie Evaporite support. They are not thought to represent dolines which were initiated at the surface and were subsequently infilled with collapsed sidewall material (Figure 4.1). All large scale aqueous corrosion is therefore perceived to have occurred within the Prairie Evaporite. Little dissolution is thought to have occurred within the

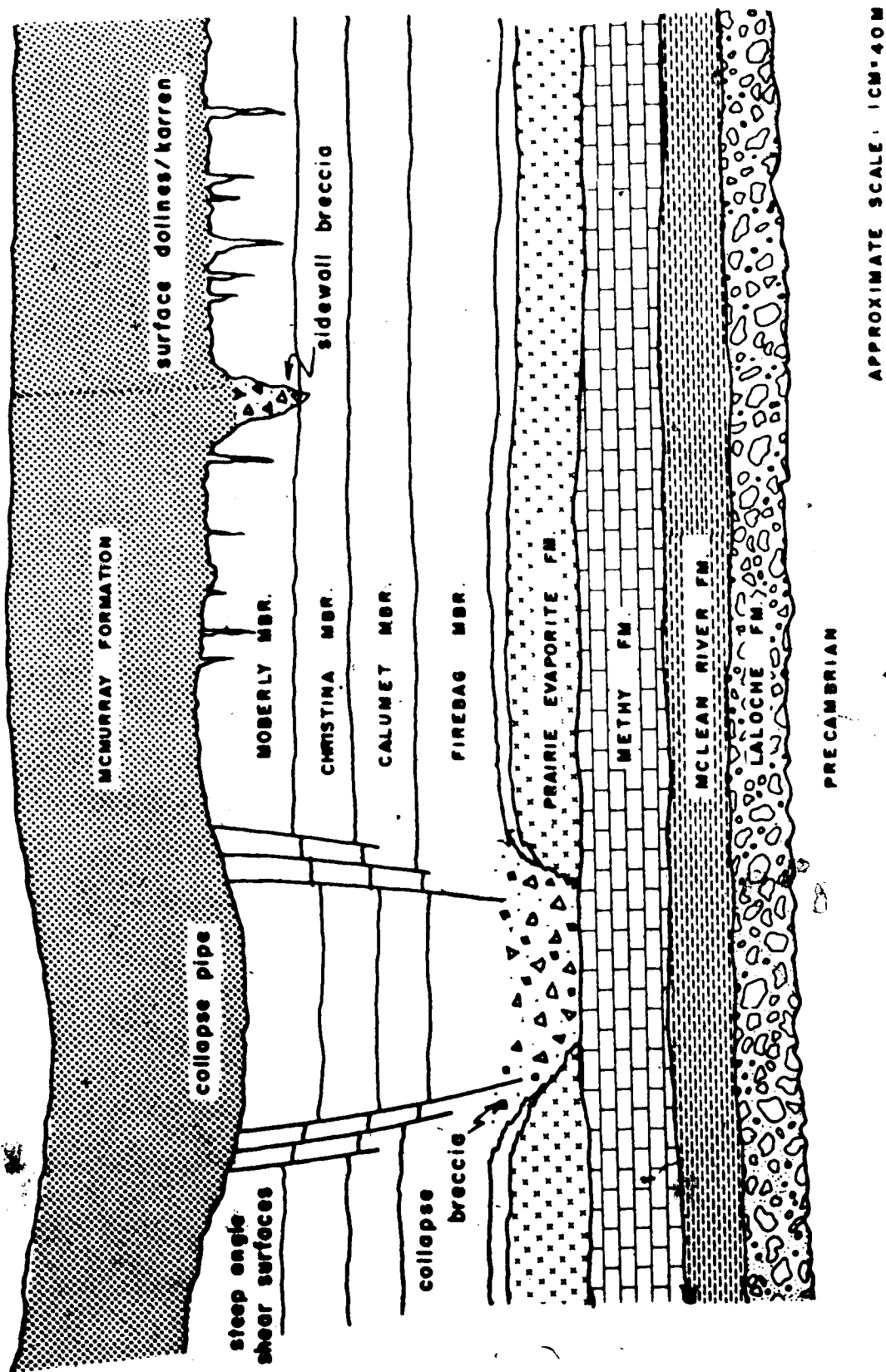


FIGURE 4.1: IDEALIZED REPRESENTATION OF COLLAPSE PIPES AND SOLUTION DOLINES

Waterways except at the time of intra-Devonian exposure and immediately preceding McMurray deposition. The relative immaturity of surface karst as described in Section 4.1.4 is compatible with the concept of deep-seated collapse pipes.

In general, deep-seated collapse features are mechanically feasible only if the Prairie Evaporite cavities are larger than a critical span which is expected to be a function of the stress state, material features and depth of overburden. Coates (1981) stated that no predictive capabilities have been developed to account for vertical "chimneying" of block caving, however Dunn (1982) has characterized Prairie Evaporite cavities in Saskatchewan on a scale of 45 metres. This perception of collapse cavities is incompatible with the large (<400 metre) diameter structures proposed in Section 3.6.4. Dunn (1982) envisaged subsidence of the Middle Devonian Dawson Bay Formation resulting in steeply dipping beds up to 65°, but not overturned, abundant steep-angle fractures and vertical strain features. Tectonism was not considered responsible for these deformations. The solution of large cavities was addressed by Dunn (1982) and attributed to continual flushing of the formation. Stress arching is expected to have preceded overstressing and collapse.

Further support for the proposed collapse

mechanism may be extracted from the nature of the observed collapse breccias. They consistently display a lack of apparent transportation or reworking. Former bedding planes may be established and the characteristic light green, surface residual clays are absent (Plate 3.10). These breccias are again distinct from the syndepositional intraclast breccias of rock type C. The distribution of disturbed borehole structures is presented in Figure 4.2. Not all breccias are expected to represent deep-seated collapse pipes.

Finally, the presence of small circular lakes as described by Ozoray (1977) suggests deep-seated influence. Ozoray (1977) found lakes in the Bitumount area to be deep, circular features with diameters up to 150 metres. They were also arranged along gently curved lineaments which Ozoray (1977) suggested were influenced by the regional morphotectonic pattern. Hackbarth (1978) also noted the regional alignment of collapse pipes in an arcuate band extending across northeastern Alberta. This trend was considered to coincide with the western extent of Prairie Evaporite solution. Benthin (1973) represented three episodes of collapse; the pre-tar, post-tar and modern periods, of which SANDALTA may have been affected by the latter two only (Figure 4.3). Benthin's (1973) model is incompatible with the early post-depositional solution proposed herein.

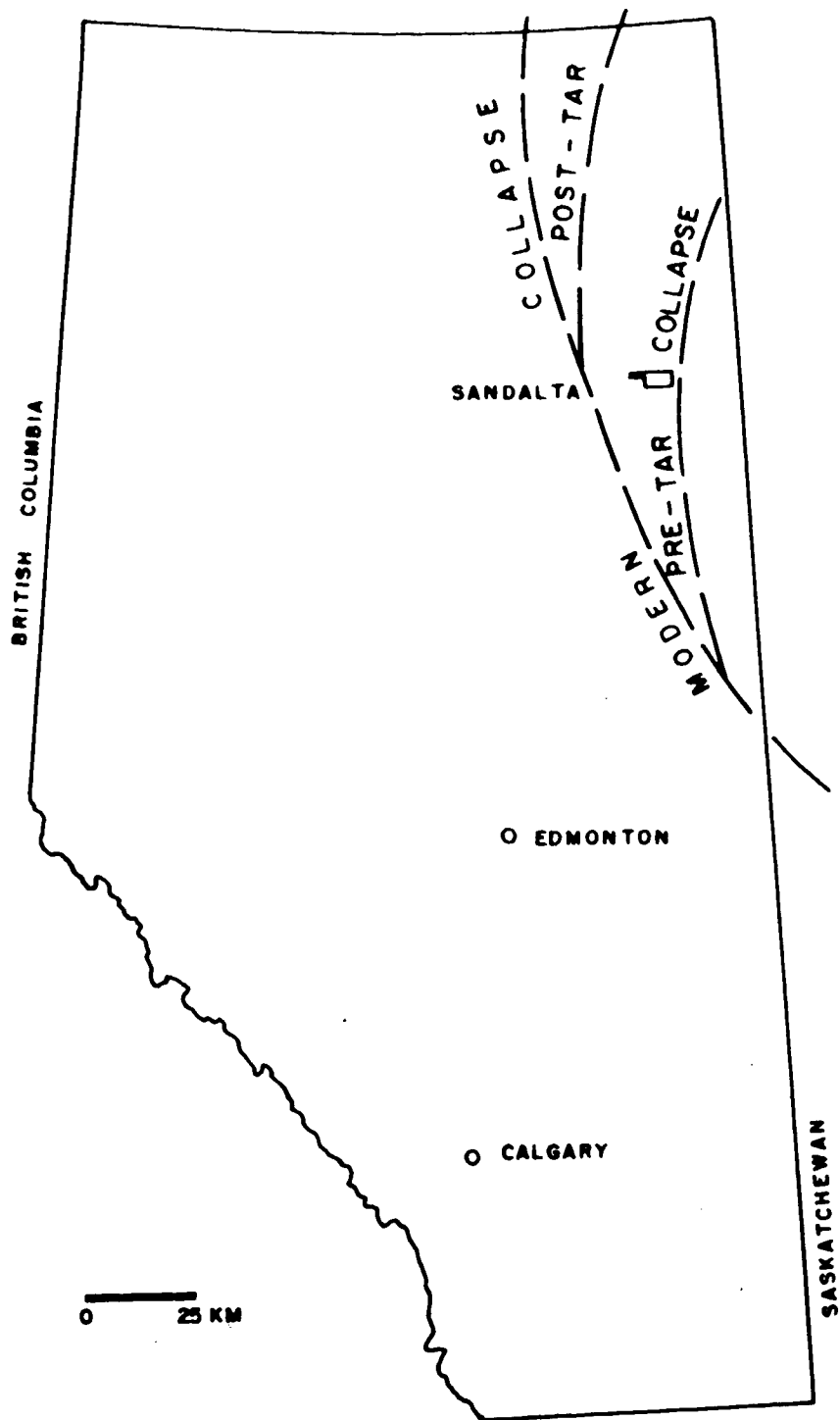


FIGURE 4.3: EPISODES OF SALT COLLAPSE (after Benthin, 1973)

GCRI (1981) have confirmed that Prairie Evaporite thickness in Township 95, Range 10 is zero in at least one location. This suggests that evaporite solution and subsidence may be complete. Although no boreholes investigated the Prairie Evaporite at SANDALTA, if solution is complete, then no further collapse is expected.

The second potential deep-seated structural feature related to Prairie Evaporite solution is that of regional faulting. There is presently no corehole or stratigraphic evidence to either support or refute this mechanism, however the subsidence of Upper Devonian materials over a retreating solution edge is expected to involve considerable brittle deformation. Figure 4.4 depicts two potential faulting mechanisms; that of regional normal faulting and graben faulting. The potential for Precambrian faulting is also recognized, however it is not a consequence of Prairie Evaporite solution.

Graben structures have been proposed primarily on the basis of trough-like depressions oriented north-south across the SANDALTA lease. Sections A-A' to C-C' in Appendix B suggest that this structure is an early Cretaceous fluvial channel and not a massive block fault. This explanation is supported by the lack of disturbed structures below the proposed fault zone and an

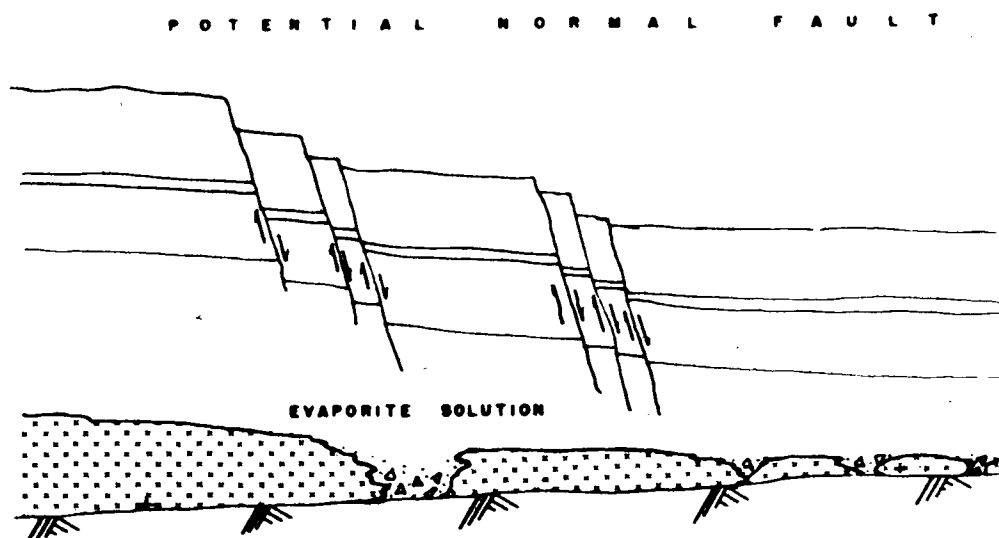
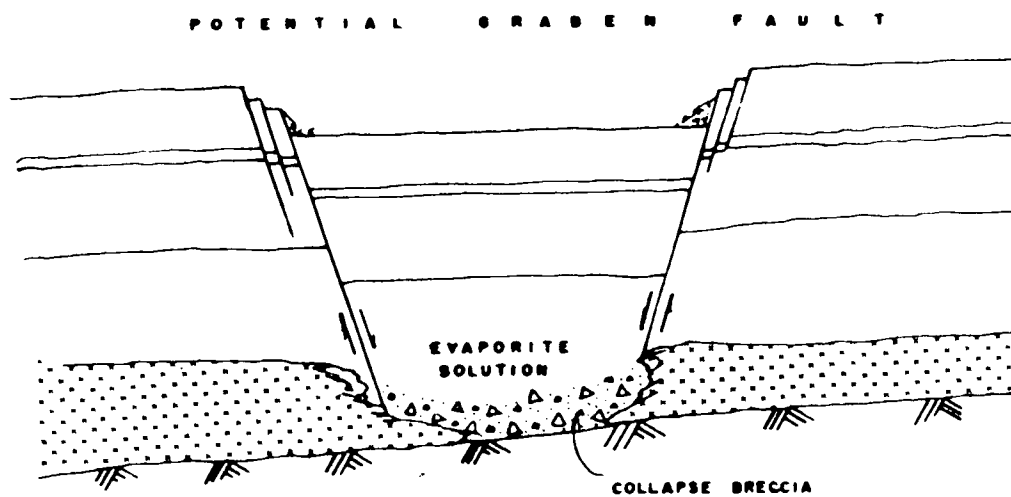


FIGURE 4.4: IDEALIZED BRITTLE DEFORMATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH PRAIRIE EVAPORITE SOLUTION

absence of obvious stratigraphic offsets. Furthermore, the channel correlates well with previously published drainage patterns, (Stewart, 1963) and exhibits Cretaceous infill materials that are fluvial in origin. Despite these features however, the potential for regional graben faulting cannot be dismissed.

Thus, it is believed that major topographic depressions are a function of early Cretaceous fluvial erosion and not deep-seated faulting. Regionally, Prairie Evaporite solution is considered to be responsible for substantial subsidence, however there is no evidence to suggest that the Prairie Evaporite may have been 100 metres thick at the SANDALTA lease. Subsequently, normal faulting is the favoured brittle deformation mechanism.

In summary, deep-seated regional structures are predominated by the solution of the Prairie Evaporite Formation. Vertical collapse pipes are considered to have been early manifestations of preferential solution and are thought to have been mechanically feasible only if solution cavities were sufficiently large.

Collapse breccias were distinguished from syndepositional intraclast breccias and shallow collapse dolines. There is no core evidence to support the existence of very large (>10 m) subhorizontal caverns or liquid-filled cavities.

Regional graben faulting is also considered,

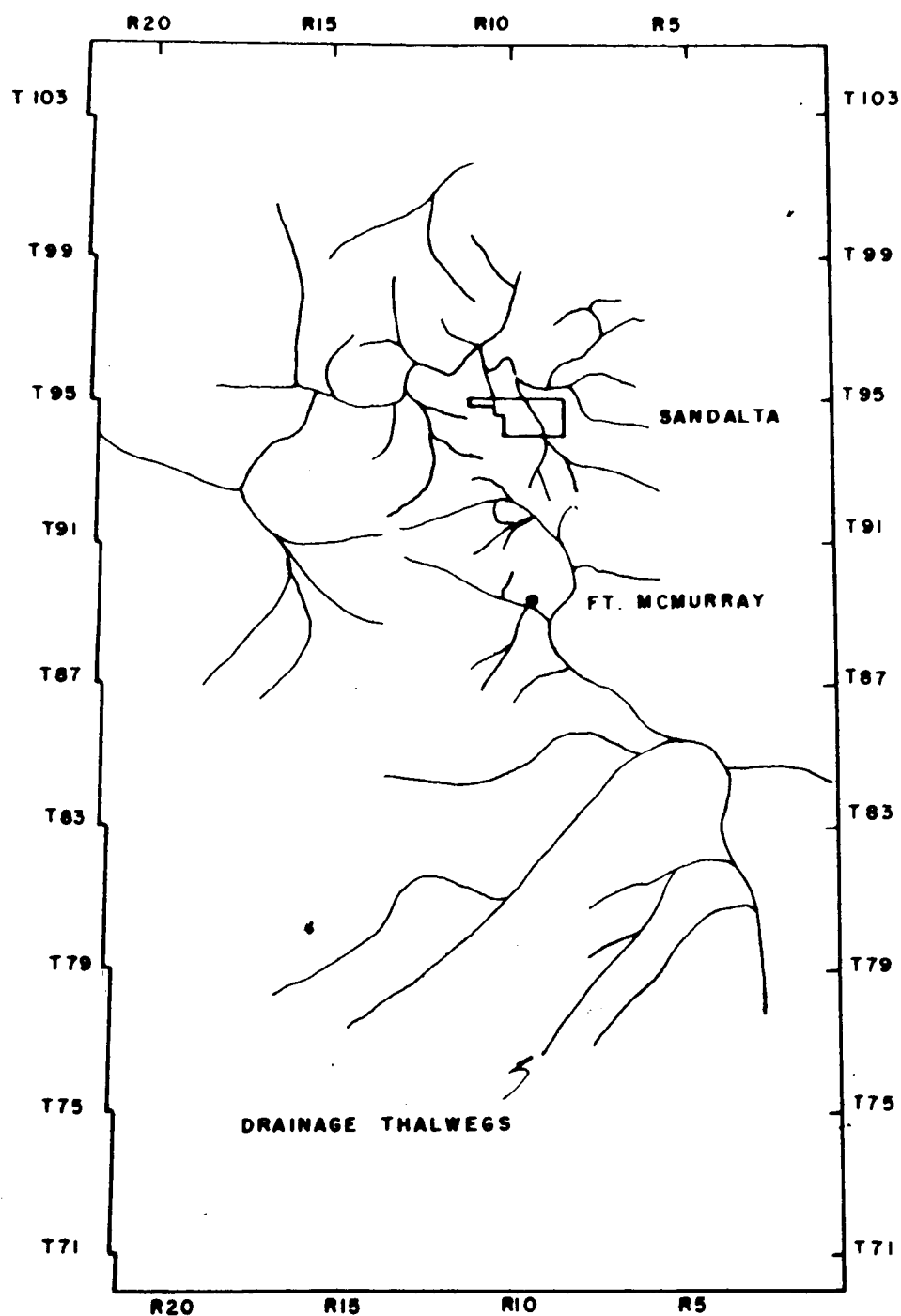


FIGURE 4.5: REGIONAL EARLY CRETACEOUS DRAINAGE PATTERN (after Stewart, 1963)

however normal faulting is thought to have been more likely. There is no stratigraphic or structural evidence in the shallow core at SANDALTA to confirm either of these brittle faulting mechanisms.

4.1.4 Karst Morphogenetics

Jakucs (1977) defined karst morphogenetics as the science of the origin of karst forms. Such forms were considered to be a function of eight primary influences:

1. lithologic variance
2. climatic variance
3. hydrogeologic variance
4. tectonic variance
5. topographic variance
6. biological variance
7. chemical variance
8. time

Although each of these controls affected karst development at SANDALTA, lithologic, climatic and hydrogeologic variances are considered to have had the greatest influence.

Sweeting (1972) stated that the essence of the karst process is the sinking and circulation of surface water underground. The absence of surface water is

diagnostic and, in the strictest sense, no soils or drainage streams may exist. No traditional erosional mechanisms are recognized. The purest form of karst is holokarst. The development of holokarst requires a clean, massive limestone with vertical hydraulic conductivity (usually joints) and the existence of a regional climate with adequate precipitation. Under such conditions, karstification is slow and imperceptible, but leads to the development of characteristic solution features such as dolines and karren.

Dolines are closed hollows or depressions that comprise the fundamental unit of a karst terrain. They may be bowl-shaped, funnel-shaped or well-shaped, but generally develop in surface lows where precipitation runoff collects. Collapse dolines are also defined and are characterized by steep, cliff-like walls and a high depth to diameter ratio (Sweeting, 1972).

Karren are small scale features. Kluftkarren are joint controlled pipes at a scale of a few centimetres to 4 metres. They commonly develop into deep, cleft-like ruts that are oriented parallel to the dominant joint system.

Williams (1980) characterized karsting in the Waterways in terms of three features:

1. regular subsidence
2. massive collapse

3. cone karst (fossil buried karst)

Williams' (1980) regular subsidence referred to Prairie Evaporite solution and subsequent regional settlement. Massive collapse referred to the development of collapse holes or pipes as they are referred to in the present study. Williams (1980) envisaged these holes to be as large as 15 km in diameter. The present author considers them to be characteristically less than 400 m in diameter (Figure 4.1).

Williams' (1980) buried cone karst referred to the development of dolines and karren on the ancient erosional surface. He noted that the extent of this karst was unknown but that isolated outcrop examples revealed small scale solution features. Williams (1980) speculated that the absence of other karst features, such as caves, may be related to the origin of the karst which was considered to be a tropical karst.

Based on the six karst categories defined by Sweeting (1972), the present author considers the Devonian-Cretaceous karst to have been a fluviokarst. Intraformational karst appears to have been holokarstic while the solution of the Prairie Evaporite Formation is strictly a buried karst.

Sweeting (1972) described fluviokarst as a karst region cut by allogenic rivers where there was less opportunity for the development of deep circulation.

Under such circumstances, surface drainage predominates and springs, river valleys and gorges are common. Caving may occur at the junction of limestone with impermeable beds. Solution is usually most intense near the valleys due to increased runoff. The area between valleys is unhindered and characteristically holokarstic. All of these features characterize the Waterways with the exception of caves. Moreover, the apparent low degree of Devonian-Cretaceous karst development is compatible with a fluviokarst environment where there was less opportunity for extensive corrosion.

In contrast, intraformational surfaces were not likely fluviokarstic but rather holokarstic. Holokarst is pure karst that is not influenced by surface drainage channels. The short-lived intraformational erosional periods are not considered to have included significant deviations from the shallow marine subenvironment. Surface karstification was likely controlled by local topography. Both intraformational holokarst and Devonian-Cretaceous fluviokarst are considered currently inactive. Alternatively, the buried karst of the Prairie Evaporite Formation is likely active. Local saline springs originating in the Middle Devonian have been documented by Ozoray, Hackbarth and Lytviak (1980). The hydrogeologic regimes of all three karst systems are distinct and independent (see Hackbarth, 1978).

In summary, three distinct karst classes may be recognized in the Middle and Upper Devonian sequence. Prairie Evaporite solution is unquestionably a buried karst whereas intraformational and Devonian-Cretaceous karsts are holokarstic and fluviokarstic respectively.

4.2 Erosional Features and Distribution

4.2.1 Cretaceous Drainage Channels

Mossop (1978) stated that the present Devonian surface was "characterized by considerable topographic differentiation". This was attributed to three factors:

1. normal physiographic sculpting; responsible for approximately 30 metres of relief
2. warping of the Devonian strata in response to differential evaporite solution; responsible for up to 20 metres of relief
3. local karst development; sinkholes may be tens of metres deep

The present study confirms these three mechanisms but adds that relief due to "normal physiographic sculpting" is at least 90 metres in the SANDALTA locale. In addition, local karst development is distinguished from deep-seated collapse pipes or sinkholes as described in

Section 4.1.3. Relief due to local karst development is considered negligible relative to collapse subsidence and erosion. Warping is a more regional consequence of evaporite solution. Mossop (1978) concluded that the irregular topography of the Devonian surface may render construction at the base of the McMurray very difficult. High resolution resistivity mapping was considered more promising than seismic methods in delineating surface detail.

According to Rudkin (1964), early Cretaceous time was characterized by an overall subsidence of the interior plains of North America. In the Athabasca region, this permitted transgression of the northern Boreal Sea. The resulting transient fluviodeltaic environment was thought to have been a relatively high energy system. This system was ultimately responsible for the deposition of the mature quartz sands of the McMurray Formation. Preceding this event however, was an extensive net erosional hiatus of approximately 250-300 million years. Late Paleozoic and early Mesozoic sediments were deposited, however were ultimately eroded prior to Early Cretaceous time (Mossop, 1980).

It is generally accepted (Stelck, 1975) that Precambrian tectonic divisions exercise geographic control on the distribution of Cretaceous sands throughout Western Canada. Stewart (1963) attributed ridges on the Devonian

unconformity to block faulting in the Precambrian basement, however no direct evidence was provided. A northwesterly draining dendritic pattern was mapped (Figure 4.5) and reflected the structural ridge control of early Cretaceous drainage.

Martin and Jamin (1963) also considered paleodrainage and emphasized a highly dissected topography throughout the McMurray region. They quoted slopes as high as 360 feet per mile (68 m/km) and identified two major strike ridges. These ridges were thought to be erosion-resistant lithologies which were crosscut and offset by a major north-northeasterly striking fault (Figure 2.3). Two major drainage systems were thus defined, draining northward and southward of a central cuesta bridge in Townships 89 to 91. Drainage direction at the SANDALTA lease was therefore northerly. Secondary fault or fracture control was also identified and gave rise to the development of accompanying obsequent and resequent streams. Martin and Jamin (1963) further characterized these streams as narrow, closely spaced (ave. 13 km) and wide, widely spaced (ave. 47 km) streams respectively.

Although little is known of the character of the Devonian surface immediately preceding early Cretaceous erosion, the predominance of fluvial scouring at SANDALTA is readily identified in Sections A-A' to C-C', Appendix

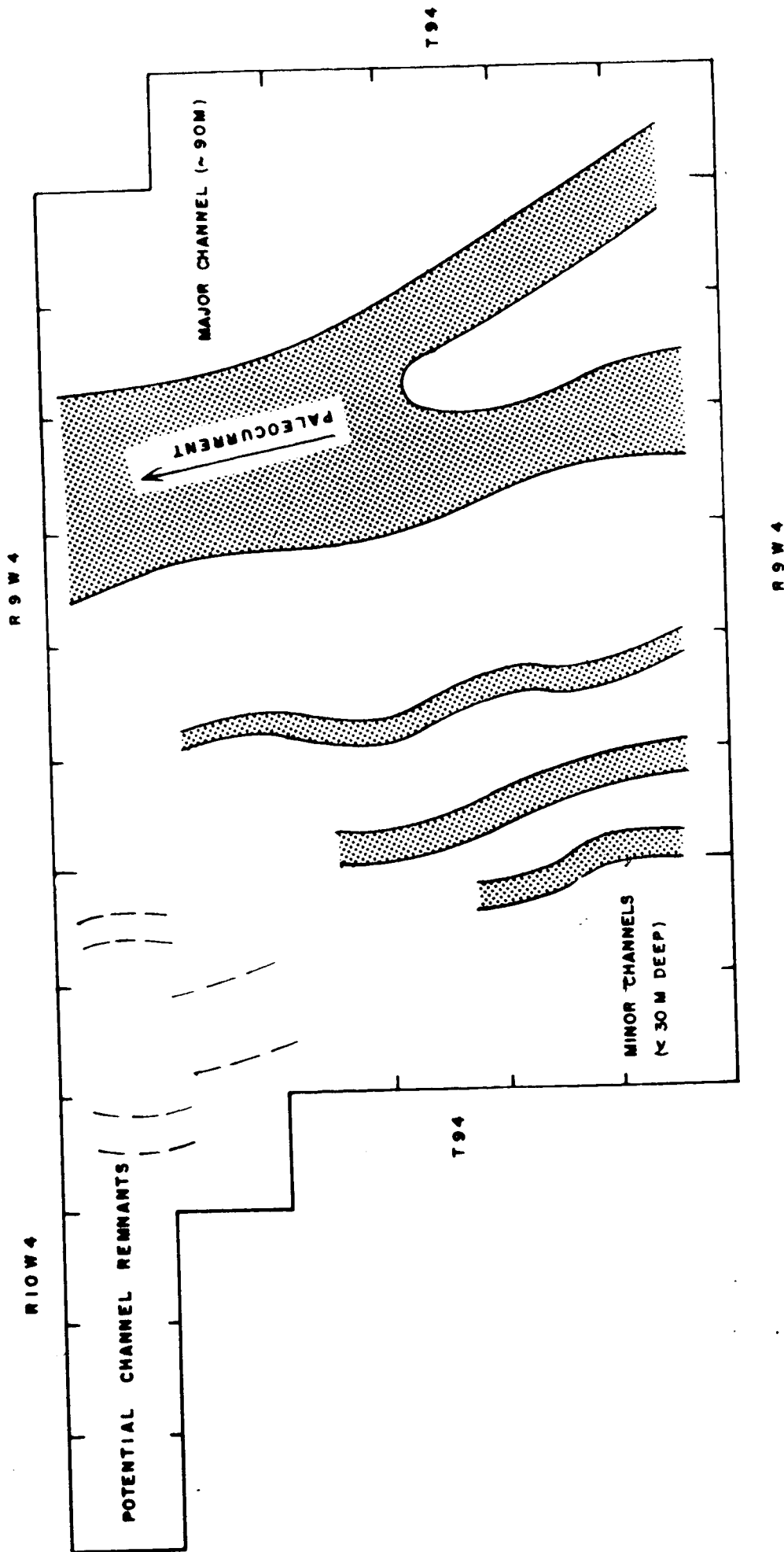


FIGURE 4.6: LOCAL EARLY CRETACEOUS DRAINAGE CHANNELS

B. These sections display scour channels up to 90 metres deep which are not underlain by disturbed or slumped materials. Moreover, these depressions are continuous in plan and are commonly infilled with unsorted alluvium. They are not considered to represent solution collapse features, local warping or graben structures.

Figure 4.6 also illustrates that at SANDALTA, all channels align north-south, and do not meander significantly. One deep continuous channel occupies the eastern half of the lease and appears to separate into two distinct subchannels in the southeastern corner. This tributary pattern suggests a northward paleocurrent direction. The primary channel is up to 90 metres deep and 3-4 kilometres wide. This does not imply that the occupying river was of equivalent dimensions. The non-meandering or youthful state of the channel is consistent with its proposed high energy character. There is no evidence of valley rebound strains due to unloading.

Three additional minor channels were located in the western half of the lease. Again, these channels are oriented north-south with a northerly paleocurrent direction. Their depth does not exceed 30 metres and they are approximately 1500 metres wide. Several potential channel remnants were located at other locations however they did not correlate well in plan and thus may only represent discontinuous pre-Cretaceous lows.

4.2.2 Alluvial Materials

Mossop (1978) also categorized the nature of basal McMurray materials and defined two basic lithologies:

1. poorly sorted coarse grained sands and gravels
2. fine grained organic shales, silts and lignite coals



These materials had previously been described by Carrigy (1963, 1966, 1973), James and Oliver (1978) and Dusseault and Morgenstern (1978). Mossop (1978) emphasized that these materials were not present in most locations and that the bitumen saturated McMurray sands commonly lay directly on the scoured limestone surface.

In general, only the fine-grained alluvium was observed during the present study. These materials were characteristically dark brown to black, fine-grained sands, silts and clays with a high organic content (Plate 3.14). They are readily distinguished from the light green, plastic silty clays that characterize the immediate Paleozoic surface and solution pipe infillings. These latter materials are considered to be reworked Devonian micrites or paleosols (Plate 4.2). The basal McMurray

alluvium varied in thickness up to 15 m and commonly infilled Devonian topographic lows or fluvial channel flanks. Minor bedding was occasionally observed. Dusseault and Morgenstern (1978) described the engineering properties and behaviour of these materials in detail. They are distinguished from paleoresidual materials on the basis of clay mineralogy in Section 4.3.3.

Although coarse grained sands and gravels were not observed in the study core, they are believed to exist and may form thin, sinuous deposits at the base of various early Cretaceous channels. Regional transgression following downcutting is considered to have resulted in low energy flooding thereby favouring fine-grained deposition.

4.3 Weathering Features and Distribution

4.3.1 General

Williams (1980) observed a wide range in the degree of weathering throughout the Waterways; from faintly to extremely weathered. He noted that in outcrop, weathering commenced along bedding and joint discontinuities and progressed inward toward intact rock.

During the present core study, the majority of weathering features were observed about the various

intraformational unconformities. Discoloration and a mild loss of texture were observed (Plate 4.3) however this rarely extended beyond 1 metre below the unconformity. Such features represent short-lived periods of exposure during Devonian time and should be distinguished from the post-Devonian features observed in outcrop and at the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity.

In general then, paleoweathering is relatively poorly developed. No core examples of extremely weathered fractures were observed and the development of residual paleosols is not ubiquitous. In contrast, outcrop exposures displayed a moderate to highly weathered character. Differential weathering was the most obvious feature and was pronounced in the marbly argillaceous lithologies where it led to a distinct nodular texture and rubbly talus. This texture is a consequence of the difference in degradation rates of the micritic and calcitic components of the rock mass. Field examination revealed that the argillaceous or micritic component was more susceptible and that the nodules are composed of hard, microcrystalline calcium carbonate with little or no micrite. This observation suggests that chemical degradation of the micritic component dominates Waterways weathering. The calcareous cement that binds individual particles is chemically unstable in the low pH and high Eh conditions of the terrestrial atmosphere. Bonds are

dissolved resulting in an overall loss of strength and rigidity. This reduction is expected to be greatest in the more argillaceous lithologies. An accompanying reduction in the elastic modulus and an increased susceptibility to physical weathering are also expected. Physical processes such as rain, wind and freeze-thaw cycles are of secondary importance.

In summary, a low degree of weathering characterizes the Waterways at depth. Solution and erosional properties were the predominant post-depositional occurrences. In general, paleoweathering was limited to slight discoloration and loss of texture about fractures. It is concentrated immediately below intraformational unconformities. Differential weathering is well developed in surface outcrop primarily due to the susceptibility of the calcareous argillaceous matrix. Weathering is expected to contribute to an overall decrease in rock mass rigidity and strength.

4.3.2 Bitumen Infiltration

Williams (1980) thought that bitumen occurred in the Waterways as a coating or rock wall stain in joints. This observation was made however, on outcrop samples that had been influenced by stress relief, drainage and water

washing. The present study reveals that at depth, bitumen occurs more commonly as a fracture infilling or pore fluid than as a residue or coating.

The maximum depth of infiltration observed was approximately 60 metres below the Devonian-Cretaceous unconformity. Below this depth, an increase in both confining stress and argillaceous content are thought to have restricted infiltration. Virtually all staining or infilling was observed in subvertical joint and boudinage fractures with the exception of occasional sandy solution pipe infillings. This feature has direct implications for the state of stress as discussed in Section 5.4.2. Although these fractures do contain small volumetric quantities of bitumen, the author considers the Waterways to be an unlikely source for the McMurray bitumen. Link (1951) and others have proposed a Devonian source, however the present author finds no support for such a hypothesis. Infiltration is apparently absent 60 m beyond the unconformity and there is no evidence of a major source rock. Biohermal units are generally small localized structures restricted to the Upper Moberly member.

The infilling of formation joints with bitumen has at least four influences as suggested by Williams (1980):

1. lubrication of joints and fractures

2. protective cushioning of asperities during shear
3. retardation of the weathering and solution processes
4. reduction of effective normal stress

Of these four effects, the latter two are considered to be of greatest overall consequence. The presence of bitumen in formation fractures has undoubtedly caused a substantial decrease in vertical permeability since infiltration. This in turn, is likely to have retarded the development of buried karst from percolating groundwaters. This influence may be mitigated if enhanced recovery injections mobilizes the bitumen. Intraformational karst features are not thought to have been affected by bitumen infiltration because they formed prior to Middle Cretaceous time. Mossop (1980) considered this to be the time of bitumen migration into the McMurray Formation. Surface weathering may also have been retarded by bitumen staining in formation fractures.

The reduction of effective normal stresses, although not a weathering concern, is a consequence of bitumen infiltration. In an undrained state, MAISP fluid injections may induce substantial pore fluid pressures which in turn reduce normal effective stresses. The effect of this occurrence is a destabilization of the rock

mass as the overall shearing resistance along fractures is decreased. The lubrication of joints and the cushioning of asperities as described by Williams (1980) are considered to be minor effects. They do not contribute to a state of instability but may influence deformations once yielding has commenced.

Other fracture infillings were observed but were limited to recrystallized calcite and minor weathered clays. No rock flour or gouge materials were observed, but may be present in steep angle shear zones associated with collapse pipes or regional faults.

4.3.3 Paleosols

Dusseault (1977) completed x-ray diffraction tests on basal McMurray materials and revealed a strong illitic and kaolinitic predominance in the clay mineralogy with minor vermiculite and mixed layer clays. The absence of smectitic or chloritic species was interpreted to be a function of the non-diagenetic provenance of the basal materials. Dusseault (1977) also suggested that the illite-kaolinite predominance was due to weathering of paleosurficial materials prior to Lower Cretaceous transgression. Expected residual strength values of $\phi = 8^{\circ}$ - 14° were also reported based upon index tests such as Atterberg limits and activity.

Dusseault and Scafe (1979) later dated the basal materials as early Middle Albian (Cretaceous) and noted the presence of weathered paleosols on local Devonian highs. Although these authors alluded to the mutual exclusivity of the reworked paleosols and basal Cretaceous clays, the two materials were not differentiated on the basis of any test properties or measureable characteristics.

The present study proposes that the two deposits are genetically unrelated and attempts to provide this distinction on the basis of clay mineralogy. In particular, the light green plastic clays found on the Devonian surface are thought to be the result of paleogeomorphological controls which were independent of early Cretaceous influences. Those materials examined by Dusseault (1977) were of Cretaceous age and thought to be unsorted fluvial drainage deposits. They are not residual Devonian paleosols. In order to establish this distinction, x-ray diffraction tests of 14 samples were conducted (see Appendix C). Although the results of this small number of samples were not conclusive, the following observations were made:

1. light green residual clays retrieved from the Cretaceous-Devonian contact were 80%-90% illite, 10%-15% kaolinite and less than 5% chlorite. No smectites were identified,

however one sample displayed trace quantities of mixed layer clays or vermiculite (see Figure 4.7).

2. black or dark brown basal Cretaceous clays were 35%-80% illite, 20%-60% kaolinite and less than 5% chlorite. Again, one sample displayed trace quantities of mixed layer smectites or vermiculite.
3. grey, calcareous micrite retrieved from the argillaceous limestones of the Moberly member were 70%-80% illite, 15%-25% kaolinite and approx. 5% chlorite. No smectites or mixed layer clays were identified.
4. olive, marine shales retrieved from depth within the Christina member were also 70%-80% illite, 15%-25% kaolinite and less than 5% chlorite. No smectites or mixed layer clays were identified.

Based on these observations (see Figure 4.7), the following conclusions have been drawn:

1. As expected, the grey limestone micrites and olive calcareous shales possess similar clay mineralogies. This finding suggests they share a common sediment source and provides

Corehole No.	Elevation (masl)	Genetic Origin	Illite (%)	Koalinite (%)	Chlorite (%)	Smectite (%)	Mixed Layer	Quartz Feldspar
127	±116.9 ±122.8 ±124.2 ±128.9 ±135.5	alluvium micrite micrite paleosol shale	34 72 79 84 78	61 25 16 14 16	? 3 5 2 5	? 	5	trace trace trace 1
164	±52.0 ±55.7 ±67.0 ±88.0 ±89.9	alluvium alluvium bx. clay micrite micrite	79 83 79 77 78	19 13 16 19 18	2 4 5 5 4	 		trace trace trace trace trace
191	±79.9 ±84.8 ±86.5 ±94.0	alluvium shale paleosol micrite	72 83 88 73	25 13 8 24	3 4 ? 3	 ? 	4	trace trace trace trace

Figure 4.7: Summary of X-Ray Diffraction Tests


baseline data upon which comparisons may be made with the residual and basal Cretaceous deposits. The illitic predominance of these marine deposits was predicted by Mason (1966) who stated that the high potassium and magnesium contents of seawater promotes the alteration of montmorillonite to illite or chlorite. Furthermore, diagenesis promotes the formation of illite and chlorite and the disappearance of kaolinite and montmorillonite. The relatively high kaolinite concentrations found in test samples may subsequently be interpreted to represent relative sediment immaturity and an absence of diagenetic processes. This is consistent with the lack of other diagenetic or metasomatic features throughout the Moberly and Christina members.

2. The light green residual clays are similar in mineralogy to both the limestone micrites and calcareous shales. They appear to possess slightly higher illite and lower kaolinite contents, however the number of samples chosen for testing was insufficient to prepare a statistical analysis. The similarity in mineralogy does however

support their proposed reworked Devonian origin.

3. Basal Cretaceous alluvium displayed slightly higher kaolinite contents than any of the Devonian age materials. Again statistical analyses were not appropriate, however one sample did display approximately 60% kaolinite content. This anomalous result supports a continental weathered origin as opposed to the marine genesis of the micrites and calcareous shales. Additional vermiculite or mixed-layer clays were also identified which were not observed in the calcareous shales or limestone micrites.
4. The absence of significant amounts of chloritic or smectitic species confirms the lack of diagenetic processes since deposition.

Thus, although these results may only be considered preliminary, the presence of anomalous clay mineralogies in the basal McMurray materials suggests that Cretaceous age alluvium may be differentiated from reworked Devonian residuals. Clay mineralogy is considered to be an effective criterion by which these



materials may be distinguished and further statistical studies are warranted. In conjunction with other geological features such as lignite content, bedding and heavy mineral content, these materials should be readily distinguished.

In summary, paleosols are reworked Devonian micrites or silty clays that display a homogeneous, plastic character. They are commonly sideritic and possess a unique light green ferrous colour. The paleosols are highly illitic and commonly infill surface karren or solution pipes. They form a thin mantle atop the immediate limestone surface and are usually overlain by unsorted Cretaceous alluvial clays, silts and sands.

5. GEOTECHNICAL CONCERNS

5.1 General

Geotechnical interest in the Waterways Formation is primarily concerned with the response of rock mass strength, deformability and permeability to imposed changes in the in-situ stress field. Such changes may be due to open pit mine excavation, tunnelling or thermal alteration of the limestone due to steam injection. This chapter reviews rock mass properties and assesses the influence of the preceding geological features upon open pit and mine assisted in-situ recovery projects.

5.2 Rock Quality Assessment

5.2.1 Intact Rock Properties

Williams (1980) completed extensive property and behavioural tests on both intact rock and rock mass discontinuities and concluded that discontinuities become the overriding concern for the strong intact rocks. Both discontinuities and intact strength were considered important for the argillaceous lithologies. Index properties such as specific gravity, mineralogy and clay-carbonate content were evaluated and supplemented with

geotechnical test data including uniaxial compressive strength, uniaxial tensile strength, triaxial compressive strength, deformability and various toughness, hardness and durability indices. Mechanical properties of the intact rock are summarized in Figure 5.1. The salient observations are reproduced below:

1. Measured clay contents substantiated visual estimates. Test values ranged from less than 5% in the massive crystalline limestones to greater than 50% in the nodular and finely interbedded lithologies.
2. Measured porosity values were very low (<1%) and specific gravity for all lithologies averaged 2.5-2.6.
3. Ultrasonic P-wave velocities were significantly lower in the more argillaceous lithofacies. Recorded values ranged from 2970 to 5600 m/sec indicating a moderately well cemented, continuous rock mass.
4. Unconfined uniaxial compression tests revealed a general decrease in strength with increasing clay content. Thus, the massive crystalline limestones displayed the greatest uniaxial compressive strength while the nodular and interbedded lithologies were generally weaker.

Laboratory Test	Massive Crystalline Limestone		Nodular Limestone		Shaly Limestone	
	Biolithic	Aphanitic	High Clay	Low Clay	Disseminated Micrite	Banded Shale Limestone
Clay Content (%)	3%		18%	3.9%	25%	61%
Specific Gravity (Average Value)	2.562	2.521	2.560		2.535	
Porosity (%)	0.33-1.1%	0.5%		0.71-0.97%	1.1%	
Sonic Velocity (m/sec x 10 ⁶)	4730	5340		3500	2970	
Vicker's Hardness No.	141	1	(1-2) nodules (3-4) matrix		106.5	2-5
Uniaxial Compressive Strength (Average - Mpa)	59.5 ± (dry) 89.6 ± (sat) 135 ± (sat)	131.7 ± (dry) 140.0 ± (dry) 106.0 ± (sat)	39.8 ± (dry) 44.1 ± (dry)		75.6 ± (dry)	65.1 ± (dry) 45.2 ± (dry)
Triaxial Cohesion (Mpa)	21 (dry)	13.8 (sat)	10 (dry)		11.7 (dry)	
Double Shear Cohesion (Mpa)		10.6-17.6 ± (along bedding)	8.8 - 15.2 ± (along bedding)			
Young's Modulus (E) (Mpa)	53740 ±	38050±	23650±		11410±	
Poisson's Ratio	0.29		0.13		0.205	
Tensile Strength						
Direct Pull (Mpa)	5.75-6.8±	3.55-5.22±				
Brazilian (Mpa)	3.78-5.97±	3.35	3.48-3.65±		2.85-4.31±	
Swelling Test (%)						1.24-9.0

FIGURE 5.1: SUMMARY OF GEOTECHNICAL TEST DATA ON INTACT ROCK (after Williams, 1980)

5. Tensile strength parallel to bedding exceeded that perpendicular to bedding. In addition, fully saturated samples displayed a significantly lower tensile strength than dry samples.
6. Mohr envelopes derived from triaxial compression tests revealed that massive crystalline limestone had the highest strength of all lithologies at all stress levels. Biolithic limestone displayed a higher strength than aphanitic limestone at low stress levels, however both were characterized by concave downward envelopes which suggest strain weakening. Maximum axial strain at failure for the biolithic and aphanitic lithologies was less than 1%. Cohesion intercepts of 10-20 Mpa were also recorded. Due to their heterogeneous textural character, the nodular limestones yielded highly variable test results and poorly defined Mohr envelopes.
7. Double shear tests yielded cohesive intercepts similar to those determined from triaxial testing. Again, cohesion parallel to bedding exceeded that perpendicular to bedding. Absolute values ranged from 8 to

17 Mpa.

8. Young's modulus (E) and Poisson's ratio (ν) were calculated from unconfined uniaxial compression tests at low stress levels. Disseminated argillaceous limestone displayed Young's moduli in the 11,000 Mpa range and Poisson's ratios of approximately 0.06 at low axial stress and 0.15 at 50% of the ultimate uniaxial load. Williams (1980) attributed the low Poisson's ratios to clay content which permits axial compression without significant lateral expansion. Biolithic limestones exhibited greater stiffness and Poisson's ratios. Test values were 45,000 Mpa and 0.24 respectively. The deformability of nodular limestone was determined at 50% of ultimate. A Young's modulus of 23,650 Mpa and a Poisson's ratio of 0.13 were recorded. Williams (1980) emphasized that the nodular limestones displayed inhomogeneous strains and that measured deformation moduli may therefore be unrepresentative.
9. Creep testing on aphanitic limestone revealed insignificant time-dependent behaviour.

10. The results of point load and impact toughness tests agreed with other analyses. The massive crystalline limestones displayed the greatest hardness and toughness, whereas the argillaceous lithologies were comparatively weak and susceptible to weathering.
11. Slake durability of the aphanitic limestones is medium high (85%). Nodular lithologies displayed slake durabilities in excess of 90%. Calcareous shales and weathered limestones exhibited substantially lower slake durabilities.
12. Free swelling tests revealed axial swell of less than 2% in the argillaceous limestones. Shale swell tests measured axial swell to 9%. Confined swelling tests on shale generated swelling pressures less than 10 kpa.

In summary, most intact Waterways lithologies are stiff and strong. They are characterized by low primary porosities and variable clay contents. Both tensile and compressive strengths are anisotropic and dependent upon clay content. Stiffness and toughness are also a function

of clay content, decreasing with increasing argillaceous content.

5.2.2 Structural Discontinuities

Although intact rock properties yield significant behavioural information, secondary structural discontinuities are expected to dominate overall rock mass behaviour. Williams (1980) determined shear strength on both bedding discontinuities and formation fractures. Dry and drained direct shear tests on bedding planes yielded peak friction angles of 54° - 65° for argillaceous and massive crystalline limestones. The argillaceous lithologies displayed the lower resistance. Post-peak angles ranged from 36° to 52° . Drained tests revealed substantial reductions in the friction angle. Peak drained values ranged from 34° to 52° . Normal loads for all tests ranged from 17-600 Kpa.

Similar direct shear tests were conducted on joint discontinuities perpendicular to the bedding plane. These surfaces had not been presheared. Williams (1980) reported drained peak friction angles from 61° - 75° for the argillaceous and massive crystalline limestones. Post-peak angles of 25° - 54° were also reported. Normal stresses ranged from 20-900 Kpa (Figure 5.1). Williams (1980) also suggested that the presence of bitumen

coatings on joint surfaces contributed to a very low apparent cohesion. See Section 4.3.2 regarding bitumen infiltration. Williams (1980) also recorded moderate to extreme joint roughness indices, however was unable to correlate them to effective shearing angle. These observations were made from surface outcrop and contrast the planar to wavy character noted during the present study. It is expected that waterwashing of surface fractures has exaggerated observed joint asperities. Lower roughness indices may be expected at depth.

Joint orientation in the Waterways is thought to be independent of lithologic character or stratigraphy. Jointing is a consequence of tensile overstepping due to regional uplift and thus the predominant sets are parallel and perpendicular to the strike direction of the uplift. Babcock (1975) identified a poorly defined NE-SW/NW-SE secondary system, however Williams (1980) concluded: "there is no certainty that these features represent a joint set". The present author observed only random fractures in addition to the dominant joint sets in local outcrop (Appendix D). These random fractures are believed to be due to stress relief or surface weathering. They are not thought to represent a major structural occurrence and are not considered to comprise a readily identifiable secondary joint system.

Joints of the predominant system are orthogonal

and subvertical. They rarely cross two distinct lithologies and are spaced according to the thickness and stiffness of the various lithologic units. Williams (1980) reported the highest joint density of 0.65-4 m in the massive crystalline limestone. Spacings up to several metres were recorded in thicker units.

In summary, the author distinguishes between joint features observed at the surface and those encountered at depth. Surface joints are rough, discontinuous and closely spaced. Buried joints are likely to be less rough, more widely spaced and bitumen-filled. These differences are attributed to the stress relief and weathering of surface outcrop.

5.2.3 Empirical Classification

Among widely accepted empirical rock mass classification systems are those proposed by Terzaghi (1946), Deere (1964), Lauffer (1958), Wickham, Tiedemann and Skinner (1972), Bieniawski (1974, 1976) and Barton, Lien and Lunde (1974). Two of these systems have been selected to assess the Waterways Formation. Detailed information on the CSIR Rock Mass Rating (RMR) system and the Norwegian Geotechnical Institute (NGI) Q system can be obtained from Bieniawski (1974, 1976) and Barton et al. (1974) respectively. Although both of these systems have

limitations, they are believed to be the most modern and comprehensive classifications available.

Both systems rely heavily upon an accurate assessment of geological structure and require a significant amount of qualitative judgement. Neither system accounts for excavation shape or the localized disturbance caused by construction blasting. Although both systems incorporate groundwater inflow terms, neither accounts for hydraulic head or pore pressure. Inflow volumes per unit length are employed and do not represent a measure of hydraulic pressure. The NGI-Q system is however, more sensitive to groundwater inflow than the CSIR-RMR.

The CSIR-RMR parameter is not directly sensitive to stress conditions, however both rock mass strength and the groundwater inflow terms are stress level dependent. Discontinuity infillings and roughness may be affected at high stress levels, however neither is a direct measure of a change in the stress field. The RMR is also insensitive to excavation dimension.

The NGI-Q parameter is directly sensitive to stress conditions via the stress reduction factor (SRF). Similarly, the joint set number, joint alteration and roughness numbers and water reduction factor may all be indirectly affected by stress level.

In summary, the CSIR-RMR system emphasizes

structural considerations and orientation. It does not account for stress state, excavation dimension or shape. The NGI-O system does account for the stress field, but neglects joint orientation. Both systems adequately assess discontinuity properties but neither accounts for pore fluid pressures.

Figure 5.2 summarizes the classifications completed for five Waterways lithologies. It is recognized that rock quality (RQD) parameters recorded during the core study may be unrepresentative. High fracture densities were characteristic and thought to be partially due to drilling and handling procedures. Moreover, vertical discontinuities could not be assessed from vertically oriented core. The author therefore estimated RQD values to be employed in the empirical classifications. Groundwater effects and stress conditions were also estimated. Favourable joint orientations were assumed for calculation purposes and all joint roughness, spacing and alteration data were derived from core or outcrop observations. Both the most undesirable and most desirable conditions were assumed for each lithology to provide realistic upper and lower bounds to rock mass quality. A review of Figure 5.2 reveals the following general observations.

Firstly, the CSIR RMR-system consistently rated all rock types slightly higher in quality than the NGI

Lithology	ROP(1) -% (%)	Deere (1964)	NGI Q - System					CSIR RMR-System				Rock Mass Rating				
			J _n	J _r	J _a	J _w	SRF	Q	ρ _c (2)	Spacing	Condition	G/Water	ROD	Corrected Q	RMR	
Massive Crystalline Limestone	80 (min)	good	4	1.5	2.0	0.33	5	0.99	7	20	20	4	17	66	v. poor	II (good)
	95 (max)	excellent	4	2.0	0.75	0.7	2.5	17.73	10	28	25	8	20	89	good	I (v. good)
	60 (min)	fair	6	1.5	2.5	0.33	5.0	0.40	4	20	20	4	13	49	v. poor	III (fair)
Modulated (Marbly) Argillaceous Limestone	85 (max)	good	6	3.0	1.0	0.66	2.5	11.22	7	25	25	8	17	80	good	II (good)
	40 (min)	poor	6	1.5	2.5	0.33	5.0	0.28	4	20	15	4	8	40	v. poor	III (fair)
Finely Interbedded Micrite and Limestone	75 (max)	fair	6	3.0	1.0	0.66	2.5	9.90	7	25	25	8	13	66	fair	II (good)
	40 (min)	poor	6	1.0	2.0	0.33	50.0	0.23	4	15	12	4	8	31	v. poor	IV (poor)
Calcareous Marine Shale	75 (max)	fair	6	1.5	1.0	0.66	2.5	4.95	7	25	20	8	13	71	poor	II (good)
	50 (min)	poor	5	1.5	2.0	0.33	5.0	0.53	6	20	20	4	10	50	v. poor	III (fair)
Biohermal Limestone	80 (max)	good	5	3.0	1.0	0.66	2.5	12.67	10	25	25	8	16	72	good	II (good)

NOTES: (1) Minimum and maximum ROP values represent the worst and best rock conditions envisaged for each lithology.

(2) Uniaxial compressive strengths were derived from Williams (1980)

(3) Corrected RMR values are less two to account for the assumed favourable joint orientation.

Figure 5.2: Empirical Rock Mass Classifications

Q-system. Although both systems rate the various lithologies from very poor to good, the RMR rock quality classes range only from poor to good. Clearly, the Q-system is very sensitive to the stress reduction factor (SRF) which attempts to account for the state of stress and tunnelling conditions. All "very poor" ratings were obtained by employing high SRF factors appropriate for heavily jointed rock. More modest SRF values yield higher Q values and thus more favourable quality classifications.

Secondly, both systems emphasize the reduction in rock mass quality associated with higher fracture densities. Fracture characteristics and orientation exercise less influence than the spacing of joints because spacings are actually incorporated twice by virtue of RQD values. As previously discussed, the SRF factors and thus Q, are highly sensitive to joint density. Groundwater factors are also influenced by joint spacings.

Thirdly, neither system is capable of accounting for random solution features or sinkholes. Such structures represent disturbed materials that may exhibit post-peak strength behaviour or local instability. Neither the Q nor RMR system accounts for such random occurrences. Both are ineffective in providing appropriate design recommendations. The occurrence of collapse breccias underground should be avoided by employing detailed site investigations, however if such

conditions are encountered unexpectedly, the construction program must have the flexibility to undertake additional support or stabilization requirements.

In summary, both the CSIR and NGI rock mass classifications affix poor to good quality ratings on the Christina and Moberly Members. The ratings were based upon the author's interpretation of in-situ conditions and may be updated as further data is acquired from underground excavations. Neither system adequately accounts for regional solution or erosional features, but both display the overall sensitivity of rock quality rating to joint fracture density. The CSIR-RMR system provides a more favourable rating for all lithologies but does not account for stress conditions as in the NGI stress reduction factor. The selection of SRF is largely subjective and requires considerable engineering experience. Support recommendations were not compared.

5.2.4 Empirical Failure Criterion

Hoek and Brown (1980) recently proposed an empirical failure criterion for rock that relates the principal stresses at failure by the following equation:

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 + \sqrt{m\sigma_C\sigma_3 + S\sigma_C^2}$$

where σ_1 = major principal stress

σ_3 = minor principal stress

σ_C = uniaxial compressive strength of the intact
rock

m, s = empirical constants which depend upon the rock
properties and degree of breakage

The parameters m and s are dimensionless strength parameters. m varies with rock type, the angle of interparticle friction and the degree of particle interlocking within the rock mass. m decreases as the degree of prior fracturing increases and is generally obtained by curve-fitting triaxial test data. The s parameter depends on the interparticle tensile strength and the degree of particle interlocking. For intact rock, $s=1$ and m is given by Equation 5.1.

$$m = \frac{1}{\sigma_C} \frac{\frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{\sum x_i \sum y_i}{n}}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}}}{\quad} \quad (5.1)$$

where σ_C = uniaxial compressive strength

x_i, y_i = successive triaxial test data pairs

n = number of (x_i, y_i) data pairs

For broken or heavily jointed rock, m may be determined as in Equation 5.1 and the S parameter is given by Equation 5.2.

$$S = \frac{1}{2\sigma_C} \left[\frac{\sum y_i}{n} - m\sigma_C \frac{\sum x_i}{n} \right] \quad (5.2)$$

For highly broken or brecciated rock, S may be assumed to be zero.

The normal and shear stresses acting on a plane inclined at β degrees to the major principal stress direction may also be expressed in terms of the principal stresses.

$$\tau = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) \sin 2\beta \quad (5.3)$$

$$\sigma_n = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_1 + \sigma_3) - \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) \cos 2\beta \quad (5.4)$$

In general, this criterion is applicable only in the "brittle zone" as defined by Mogi (1972) where $\sigma_1 > 4.1 \sigma_3$ (Figure 5.3). Within this zone, a Mohr envelope may be empirically determined that governs the expected rock mass behaviour (Figure 5.4). As expected, these rock mass envelopes are smaller than those prepared by Williams

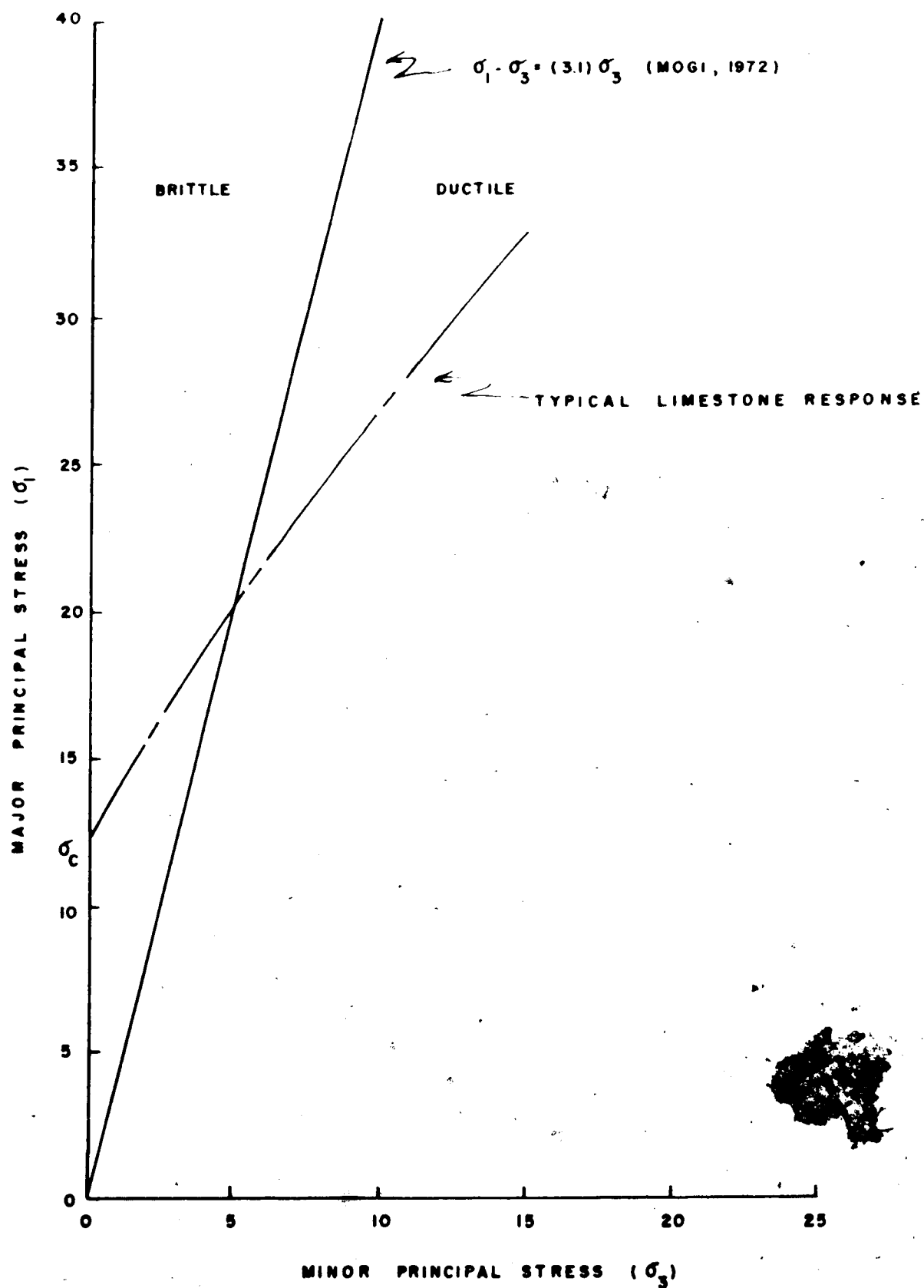


FIGURE 5.3: BRITTLE - DUCTILE TRANSITION (after Mogi, 1972)

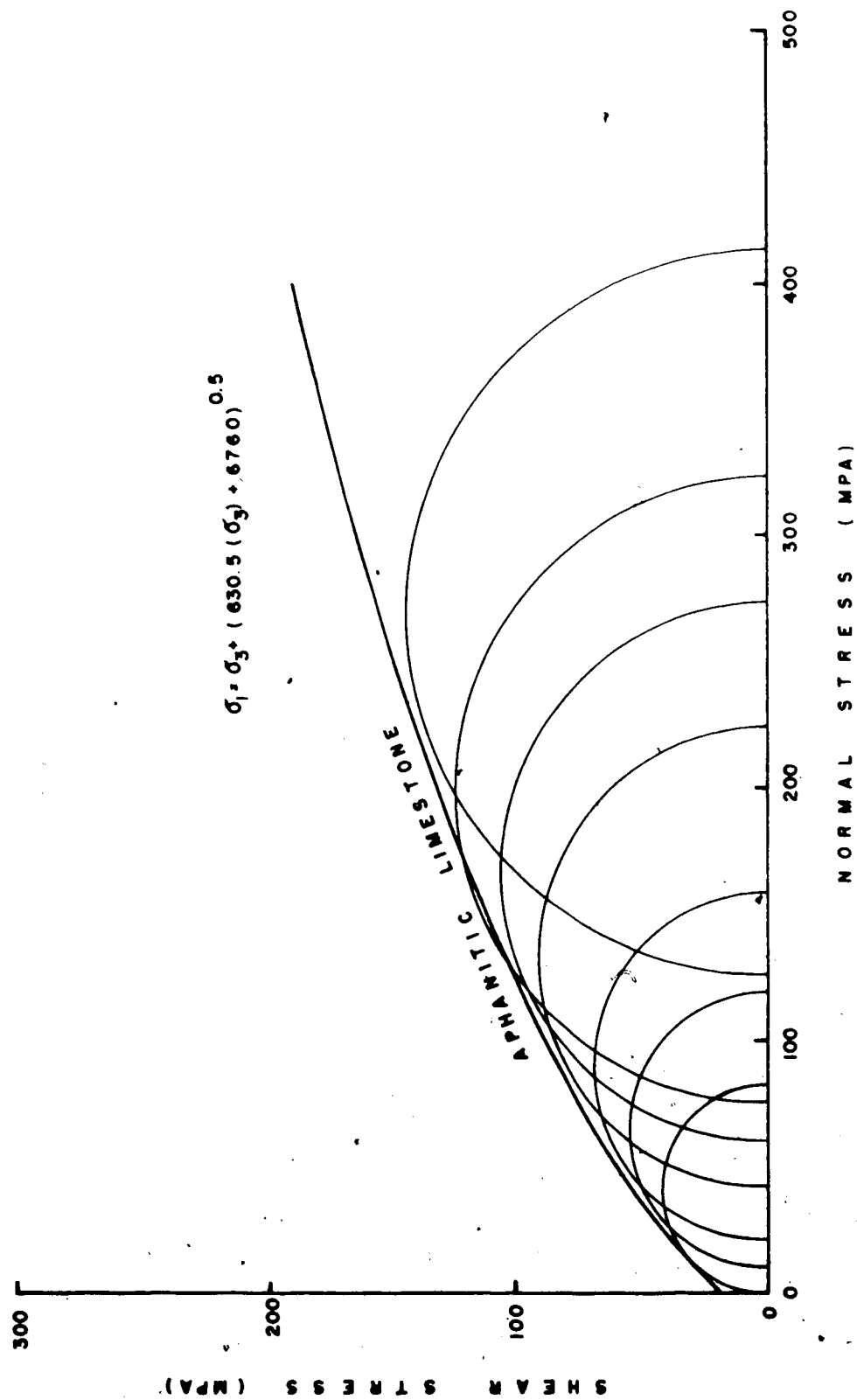


FIGURE 5.4: ROCK MASS FAILURE ENVELOPE DERIVED EMPIRICALLY FROM HOEK AND BROWN'S (1980) CRITERIA

(Intact Rock)
Triaxial Test Data

(Rock Mass)
Empirical Failure Criterion

σ_1 (Mpa)	$x_i = \sigma_3$ (Mpa)		σ_1 (Mpa)	σ_3 (Mpa)
99.2	3.5	$n = 8$	82.22	0
102.2	7.7	$\Sigma x_i = 111$	115.30	10
115.7	8.8	$\Sigma y_i = 123472.49$	159.18	20
125.5	10.5	$\Sigma x_i^2 = 1971.28$	218.83	40
148.6	14.8	$(\Sigma x_i)^2 = 12321.0$	271.16	60
155.5	17.4	$\Sigma x_i y_i = 1984903.53$	319.17	80
171.1	27.6	$\sigma_c = 130$ Mps (intact)	407.1	120
172.9	20.7			
$\Sigma x_i = 111$		$\therefore M = 4.85, S = 0.40$		

Hoek & Brown failure criteria (rock mass)

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 + (630.5 (\sigma_3) + 6760)^{1/2}$$

NOTE: All triaxial data derived from Williams (1980) for saturated aphanitic limestone. σ_1 oriented perpendicular to bedding. All samples loaded at 0.102 mm/min strain rate and all failed at less than 0.5% axial strain

Figure 5.5: Hoek and Brown (1980) Empirical Failure Criteria

(1980) for the intact rock.

The m and s parameters derived in Figure 5.5 are based upon Williams (1980) triaxial test data and are slightly higher than the generalized parameters proposed by Hoek and Brown (1980). This indicates a better quality rock mass than the predicted norm. The calculated parameters also compare favourably with the Q and RMR rock mass classifications as suggested by Hoek and Brown (1980) and prepared in Section 5.2.3.

5.3 Surface Mining Projects

5.3.1 General Concerns

Considerable experience in open pit mining of oilsand has been gained through two decades of commercial production at the SUNCOR and SYNCRUDE sites. As a result, there is a substantial body of knowledge concerning the geotechnical problems associated with mine development. In particular, all major geotechnical problems associated with mine development may be related to one of the following general areas of study:

1. ore body properties and behaviour
2. by-product properties and behaviour
3. hydrogeology
4. mine floor trafficability and general

bearing capacity

5. open pit highwall stability.

Although each of these areas is of great geotechnical concern, clearly only the latter three are influenced by Devonian features or behaviour.

Hydrogeological concerns are concentrated about the presence of an upward hydraulic gradient throughout the Devonian and the existence of pressurized basal McMurray alluvium (Ozoraý, Hackbarth and Lytviak, 1980). The alluvium is primarily fine-grained sand and silt and is particularly subject to piping. It is uncemented and will experience a loss of strength upon saturation and unloading. These conditions are unfavourable for both bearing capacity and slope stability scenarios.

In addition to these stability concerns, significant groundwater inflows may be experienced. This condition may be aggravated by unloading due to excavation and the anisotropic permeability of the limestone. Solution pipes and collapse sinkholes are also expected to act as vertical hydraulic conduits. The stability of these structures is discussed in Section 5.3.3. In general mines adjacent to the Athabasca River should be well drained due to the river's local discharging influence.

Mine floor trafficability and bearing capacity

are inherently related to hydrogeological concerns, however they also depend largely upon paleotopography and the properties of the basal McMurray sediments. In general, the limestone lithologies provide a secure, competent basement upon which mine floor workings may be conducted. In certain orientations however, the limestone surface is too deeply buried to serve as the mine floor. Under these conditions, the mine floor will be either McMurray sands or unconsolidated Cretaceous alluvium. The latter materials are considered to be weak, uncemented, and deleterious. Mapping of the basal Cretaceous alluvium or bulk removal may be required under extreme conditions. Paleotopographic highs or pinnacles may also be encountered and should be removed as required by blasting.

In summary, open pit mining ventures are relatively insensitive to Devonian structural features. Of greatest potential concern are the dewatering, bearing capacity and slope stability problems generated by Waterways permeability and collapse structures. Grouting may be required to mitigate these problems. Alluvial materials are generally weak and deleterious and may be of concern in certain unfavourable orientations.

5.3.2 Highwall Stability

Dusseault (1977) studied the geotechnical

behaviour of Athabasca oilsand in detail and considered the stability of both natural slopes and open pit highwalls. Natural slopes were both high and steep and were characterized by exfoliation ravelling. Their deep-seated stability was primarily attributed to the high natural strength of the oilsand, however stream erosion, bitumen saturation, grain size, bedding, cementation and exposure angle also influenced stability. Potential deep-seated instabilities were thought to be wedge-shaped and influenced by basal McMurray clays. Dusseault (1977) characterized these clays as presheared materials with low residual angles of shearing resistance. The strain incompatibility of the clays with adjacent oilsand or limestone was not addressed. The absence of swelling clays was noted.

Dusseault and Morgenstern (1978) summarized Dusseault's (1977) findings and stated that "no significant deep-seated rotational or slump failure of any oilsands slope" had recently occurred. They also stated that the "high strength of limestone and its resistance to erosion result in steep limestone ledges at the base of slopes". This feature was considered to prevent toe erosion, but no strength or durability indices for the limestone were quoted.

More recently, Brooker and Khan (1980) reviewed the design and performance of oilsand slopes in surface

mining projects. They confirmed the occurrence of raveling failures and identified four primary slope stability concerns:

1. stability of the ore body
2. stability of the overburden Clearwater Formation
3. stability of the ore reclaim pile
4. stability of in-pit overburden and reject pile materials

Deep-seated (Devonian) stability concerns were not identified, however Brooker, and Khan (1980) noted the importance of basal McMurray materials. They considered these materials to be granular deposits, predominantly sands with interstratified silts and clays, which were under artesian hydraulic pressure. These aquifers were thought to be stratigraphically discontinuous and not readily depressurized by single well relief measures. Measured shear strengths varied from residual values of 7° to peak values of 23° with mild cohesion.

Finally, Khan, Fair and Cuddy (1982) documented the character of basal stability problems experienced at SYNCRUDE. They noted that in SYNCRUDE'S 1973 trial test pit, significant groundwater inflows were encountered and substantial depressurization was required to complete the excavation. Considerable pit floor heave was experienced

after abandonment and attributed to artesian groundwater conditions.

In general, the Devonian limestone was considered to be a "passive hydrogeologic system" characterized by a low permeability. The authors suggested the limestone acted as a hydrogeologic barrier separating basal McMurray deposits from the Lower Devonian and cited the lack of groundwater inflow at SUNCOR to support their contention. They were unable to account for the variable salinity of basal sand groundwaters but suggested that such groundwaters were connate. Pore pressure recovery around the test pit indicated that Devonian recharge was unlikely. Instead, recharge appeared to occur from adjacent outlying basal deposits.

Khan, Fair and Cuddy (1982) also assessed highwall stability mechanics and reported on the nature of basal instabilities at SYNCRUDE. Such instabilities were attributed to the combined effects of low shear strength and high pore pressures in the basal deposits. Stress redistribution due to excavation was also considered to contribute to overstressing of the toe which may be further aggravated by unfavourable strata dipping toward the excavation or too rapid excavation of the mine. Piping, buckling or mine floor heave were considered to be due to excess basal head conditions which could lead to multi-block progressive slope failure. Remedial measures

included local aquifer depressurization, slope angle modification and toe berming or buttressing.

These studies collectively suggest that deep-seated Devonian instabilities are of little concern in mine highwall design. In general, the Waterways limestone provides a strong, stable basement which poses no serious stability threat. There are however, certain unfavourable orientations that are considered worthy of further discussion. In particular, placement of the pit highwall subparallel to a major pre-Cretaceous drainage channel is considered an unfavourable orientation (Figure 5.6). Alluvial infillings are weak, deformable materials that are unsuitable in the toe region. Although massive highwall failure may not result, significant heave or buckling may occur in the mine floor.

Failures through intact limestone are considered unlikely events due to the high cohesive strength of the rock. Vertical fractures may however, act as failure planes, particularly if frictional resistance is reduced by high pore fluid pressures. In addition, unloading due to mine advancement results in an overall reduction of confining stresses and thus a reduction of the shearing resistance along joints.

A second unfavourable slope orientation, as suggested by Khan, Fair and Cuddy (1982) is that where paleotopography dips toward the excavation (Figure 5.7).

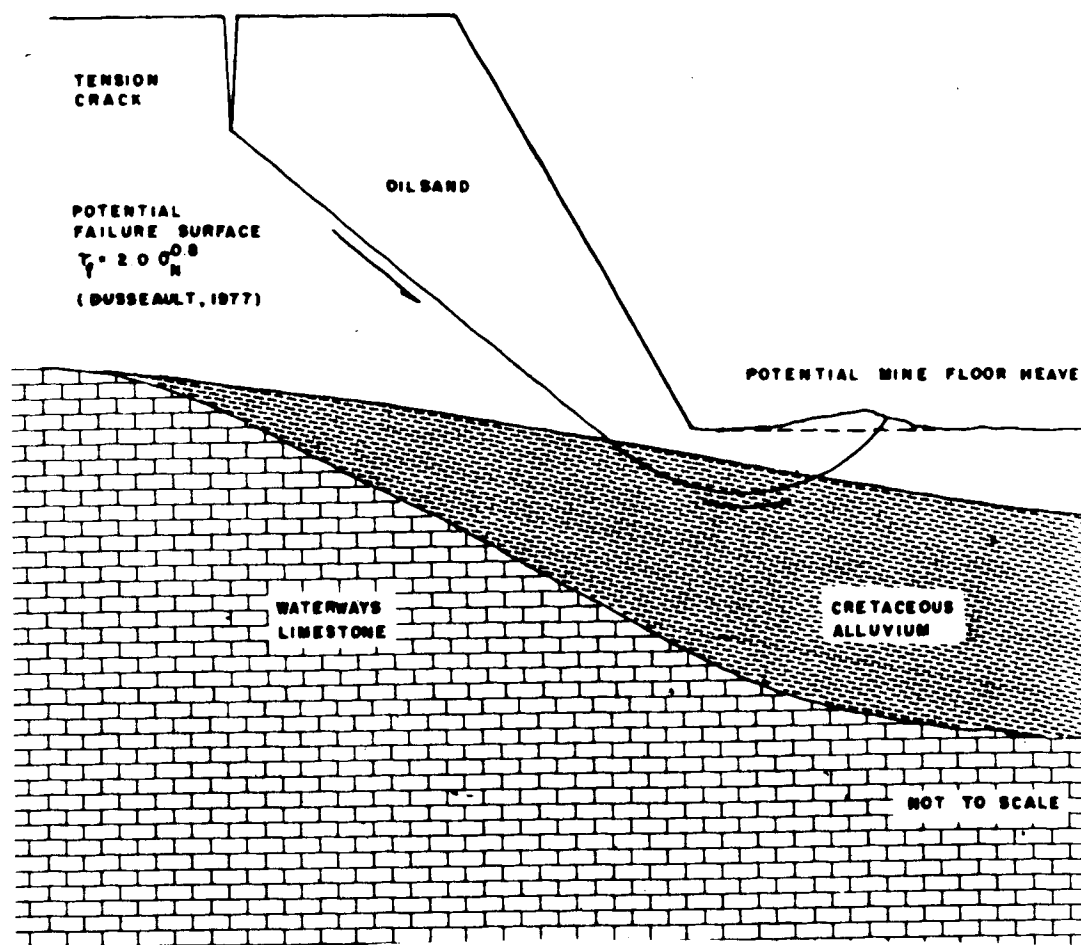


FIGURE 5.6: POTENTIAL HIGHWALL INSTABILITY AND MINE FLOOR HEAVE IN BASAL McMURRAY ALLUVIUM

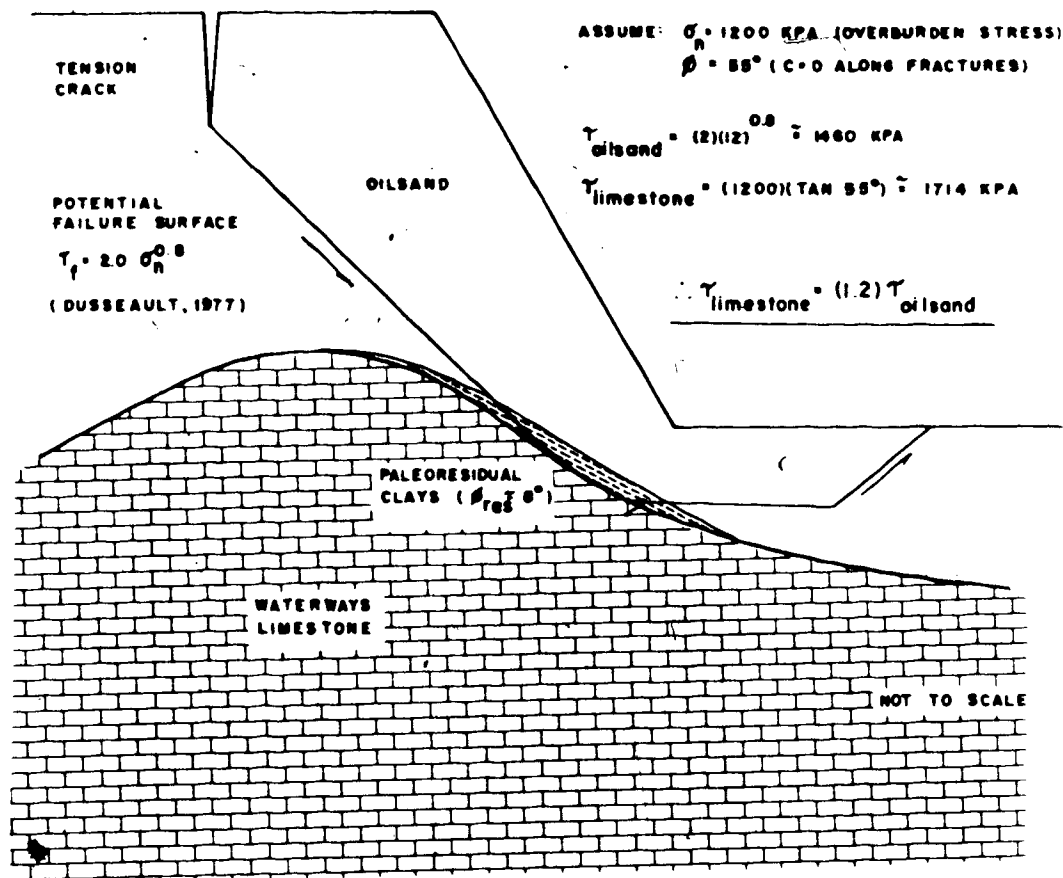


FIGURE 5.7: POTENTIAL HIGHWALL INSTABILITY ON DIPPING DEVONIAN SURFACE WITH WEAK PALEORESIDUAL CLAYS

This condition may be aggravated by paleoresidual clays along the Devonian-Cretaceous contact which may exhibit residual strengths of less than 10° .

It is interesting to note (see Figure 5.7) that at a confining stress of 1200 kpa, the shear strength of a limestone fracture (assuming Mohr-Coulomb criterion) is only 20% greater than that of oilsand at the same confining stress (assuming Dusseault's (1977) power law criterion). Surface weathering, solution and stress relief may serve to decrease this strength further.

In summary, neither natural slopes nor man-made open pit highwalls have, to date, experienced Devonian instability problems. This is generally attributed to the high cohesive and frictional resistance of both the intact rock and its discontinuities. Unfortunately however, the presence of basal Cretaceous alluvium and upper Devonian paleosols creates a considerable instability concern for large wedge-shaped blocks. These materials are unconsolidated and deformable and form an inherent zone of weakness at the toe of many potential oilsand slopes. In some unfavourable orientations, basal block instability may become a serious threat to overall mine servcability or safety. The potential complexity of erosional, solutional and weathering features may serve to compound this threat.

5.3.3 Collapse Structures

The potential for catastrophic ground losses due to solution pipe collapse is of great concern in open-pit mine development. Episodes of unloading and subsequent reloading are a consequence of the mining procedure and are considered to effect changes in the stress field that may jeopardize the stability of known collapse pipes.

In general, collapse pipes are considered to be gravitational slump structures that have translated downward due to a loss of support at the Prairie Evaporite horizon. These collapse episodes are thought to have occurred throughout late Paleozoic and Mesozoic time when overburden stresses may have been greater than at present. If the stability of existing pipes or the creation of new pipes is a primary function of the stress field, then unloading is considered to favour stability. Alternatively, loading such structures may induce further collapse. Despite the influence of stress state upon pipe stability, it is expected that solution of the Prairie Evaporite is the dominant controlling factor. Continued solution is thought to have a greater impact upon overall pipe stability than minor stress field changes. In particular, it is understood that the Prairie Evaporite is not present in several deep wells drilled at the adjacent ALSANDS lease (GCRI, 1981). If this condition also exists below SANDALTA, then local

subsidence and collapse may be considered to be complete. Since no further solution or collapse can be accommodated, collapse pipe stability is favoured regardless of changes in the stress field.

In order to assess these potential instabilities, more detailed drilling and a measure of the in-situ state of stress are required.. If mapping suggests that collapse pipes occur in unfavourable orientations, grouting may be required to increase their shear resistance prior to excavation.

In summary, although catastrophic ground losses due to collapse reactivation are thought to be unlikely, they should be treated as potential mine instabilities. Stress relief and reloading due to mining may invoke changes in the state of equilibrium of the pipes. Detailed mapping and grouting may be required to mitigate this effect.

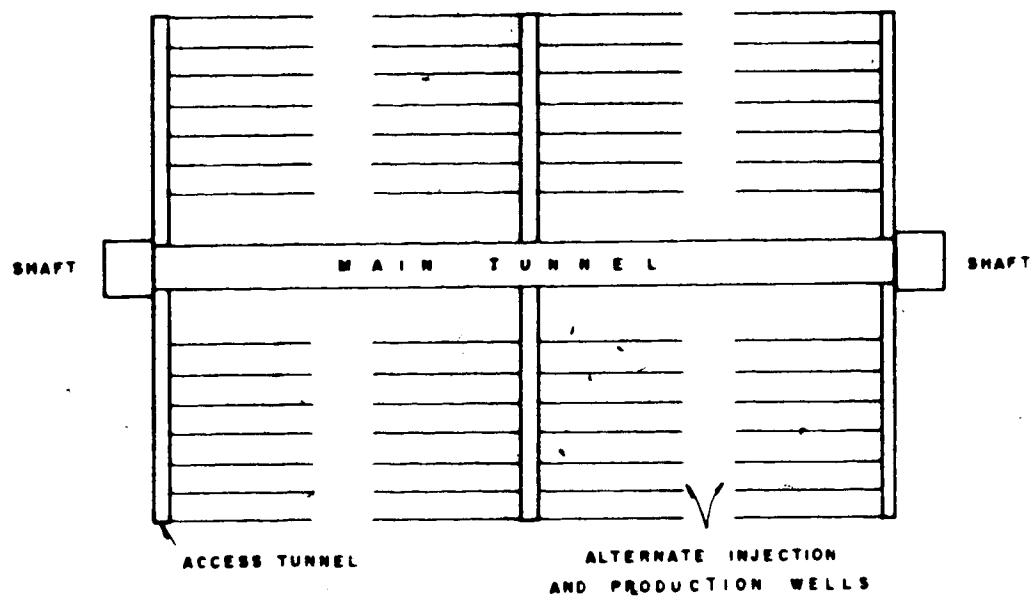
5.4 Mine Assisted In-Situ Projects

5.4.1 MAISP Concept

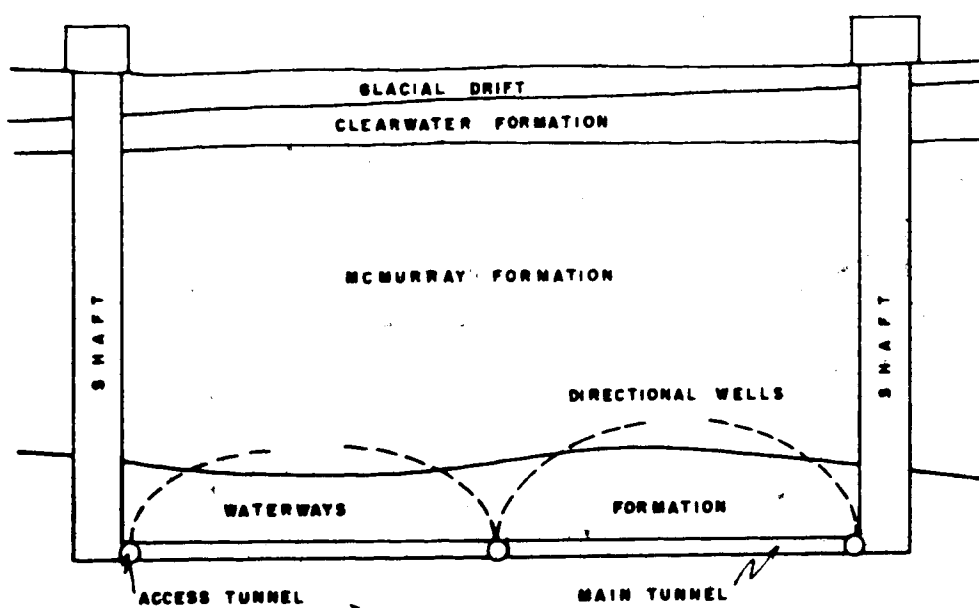
Haston (1978) described the Soviet concept of accessing a hydrocarbon reservoir by drilling thermal stimulation wells from an overlying tunnel. This concept has the particular benefits of efficient steam transmission to the reservoir and a more favourable use of horizontal

production wells. Haston (1978) considered the concept to be viable in the Athabasca oilsands at depths between 60 and 250 metres where surface mining methods are not feasible. Stephenson (1978) found the in-situ concept to be more economic than the underground block and cave techniques described by Patching, Jeremic and Stimpson (1978).

Mathews (1980) stated that the MAISP concept involves "thermal stimulation where production would be achieved by heat soaking the formation to provide communication between adjacent well holes and then sweeping with a steam drive". Candidate sites would have a recommended depth of cover of 150-220 metres and both injection and production wells would be drilled from subsurface mine workings (Figure 5.8). Several authors (Roesner and Poppen, 1978; Brooker, Devenny and MacRae, 1978) have examined the feasibility of driving the mine workings within the McMurray or overlying Clearwater Formations. Haston (1978) noted however, that mining concerns favour the underlying limestones and that the economy of the MAISP concept is insensitive to the depth of operation. Haston (1978) also outlined some of the problems inherent in a limestone based MAISP project; primarily directional well control and pressurized basal McMurray aquifers. Mossop (1978) also recognized the potential difficulties of mining at the base of the McMurray in light of the complex nature of the Devonian surface. Stephenson



PLAN VIEW



CROSS SECTION

FIGURE 5.8: MINE ASSISTED IN-SITU PRODUCTION (MAISP) CONCEPT

(1978) added that little was known of the limestones and that greater emphasis should be given to determining the areal extent and dimensions of solution features. Mathews (1980) listed the following factors believed to have a major impact upon economic feasibility:

1. steam/oil recovery ratio
2. recovery percentage and rate
3. maximum well density efficiency
4. pay zone thickness

Recent efforts near Mt. McMurray (Figure 1.1) have been directed toward the development of a MAISP pilot in the Waterways Formation. Detailed geological and geotechnical studies have been completed, however underground construction has not commenced. The ultimate commercial viability of the MAISP concept will be judged largely upon experience gained from such pilot projects.

5.4.2 Current In-Situ State of Stress

Various authors have considered the presence of high horizontal stresses within the McMurray Formation. In particular, recent publications by Brooker (1975), Dusseault (1977), Settari and Raisbeck (1978) and Holzhausen, Wood, Raisbeck and Card (1980) have dealt with this issue. Few studies have however completed an evaluation of the virgin

stress state within the Waterways. Williams (1980) expected the principal stresses to be oriented vertically and horizontally, but made no in-situ measurements of the stress tensor. He equated the vertical principal stress with the overburden stress and estimated horizontal stresses would be 43% to 67% of the vertical stress ($K_0 = 0.43-0.67$). Although Williams (1980) recognized the potential for high horizontal stresses, he discounted K_0 values in excess of unity by citing time relaxation, dissipation and the lack of circumstantial evidence such as heaving in the SUNCOR pit floor. Overburden removal, glacial loading and Laramide tectonic compression were recognized as potential sources of high horizontal stresses.

Other regional studies throughout Western Canada and the northern United States have revealed high horizontal stresses in shallow rock formations. Franklin and Hungr (1978) stated that throughout much of Central Canada, horizontal stresses in the 5-15 mpa range commonly exist at depths up to 100 metres. Such stresses commonly exceed overburden stresses and are typically aligned northeasterly to easterly.

McGarr and Gay (1978) concurred with this finding and emphasized the ubiquity of high horizontal stresses at shallow depths. They added that the effects of gravity, uplift, erosion or temperature change are all unlikely sources of this stress condition.

More recently, Bell and Gough (1979) and Gough and Bell (1981) have examined oil well breakouts throughout Central and Southern Alberta. They noted that well breakouts tended to elongate boreholes in the northwest-southeast direction and attributed this to a northeast-southwest major principal stress. Gough and Bell (1981) emphasized that this orientation is consistent throughout much of the Western Canadian sedimentary basin. They also favoured a strike-slip compressional stress field (σ_1 = NE-SW, σ_2 = vertical, σ_3 = NW-SE) over a thrust stress field (σ_1 = NE-SW, σ_2 = NW-SE, σ_3 = vertical). A normal fault stress field (σ_1 = vertical) was considered unlikely. Additional support for the proposed orientation was provided by steam injection wells at the nearby Cold Lake Project. Residual stress due to Laramide orogenic compression and traction of the North American crustal plate were quoted as the most likely sources of horizontal stress.

During the present study, many unique core features were observed that provide indirect information about the in-situ state of stress. Although none of these features are individually conclusive, collectively they provide considerable circumstantial evidence to support modest K_0 values.

The development of boudinage provides no information on the current state of stress, however it does confirm the existence of a vertical major principal stress

up to and including the time of lithification. This is compatible with the expected state of stress in unconsolidated marine floor sediments where the total vertical stress is coincident with the overburden stress. A greater consequence of boudinage formation is the development of significant formation porosity and vertical permeability. This permeability may later have been supplemented by vertical formation joints, but suggests that at the time of bitumen infiltration, the major principal stress was not likely horizontal. In order for infiltration to occur, vertical fractures must have been open. High horizontal stresses would have discouraged this opening in at least one orientation (Figure 5.9). This holds no implication for fractures that may have been opened parallel to σ_1 . One may therefore expect to find preferential infiltration of joints that were in this orientation. No core evidence of this feature was identified, however oriented core was not available. The present existence of vertical formation permeability is supported by the upward migration of saline groundwaters as reported by Ozoray, Hackbarth and Lytviak (1980).

The nature of joints themselves provide circumstantial stress state evidence. Such fractures are subvertical tension features which are thought to have formed during a period of regional uplift. Their tensile character suggests an absence of horizontal compression upon

creation. Moreover, there is a total lack of either stylolite or slickenside structures.

Stylolites are recrystallized calcite "sutures" found in limestone as a result of pressure solution. They are thought to result from rock mass compression, however no displacement is involved. Slickensides are fracture face striae that result from shear displacement along formation joints. They also represent former compressional episodes. Although the lack of these features does not preclude high lateral stresses, their absence is suggestive of a subdued stress field.

Warping also provides indirect stress state information. Although it has little implication for the current state of stress, it is important to recognize that if present stresses are to be considered residual stresses, there is a noticeable lack of preceding fold structures. Undoubtedly, if previous horizontal stresses had been of sufficient magnitude to induce plastic deformation, one may expect to observe conventional strike-oriented folds subparallel to the proposed σ_3 direction. Instead, the Waterways is characterized by non-oriented basins and intervening highs which are attributed to regional solution subsidence and warping. No evidence of regional compressional folding was found in either outcrop or core. Again, this does not preclude high horizontal stresses, but suggests they were of insufficient magnitude to affect

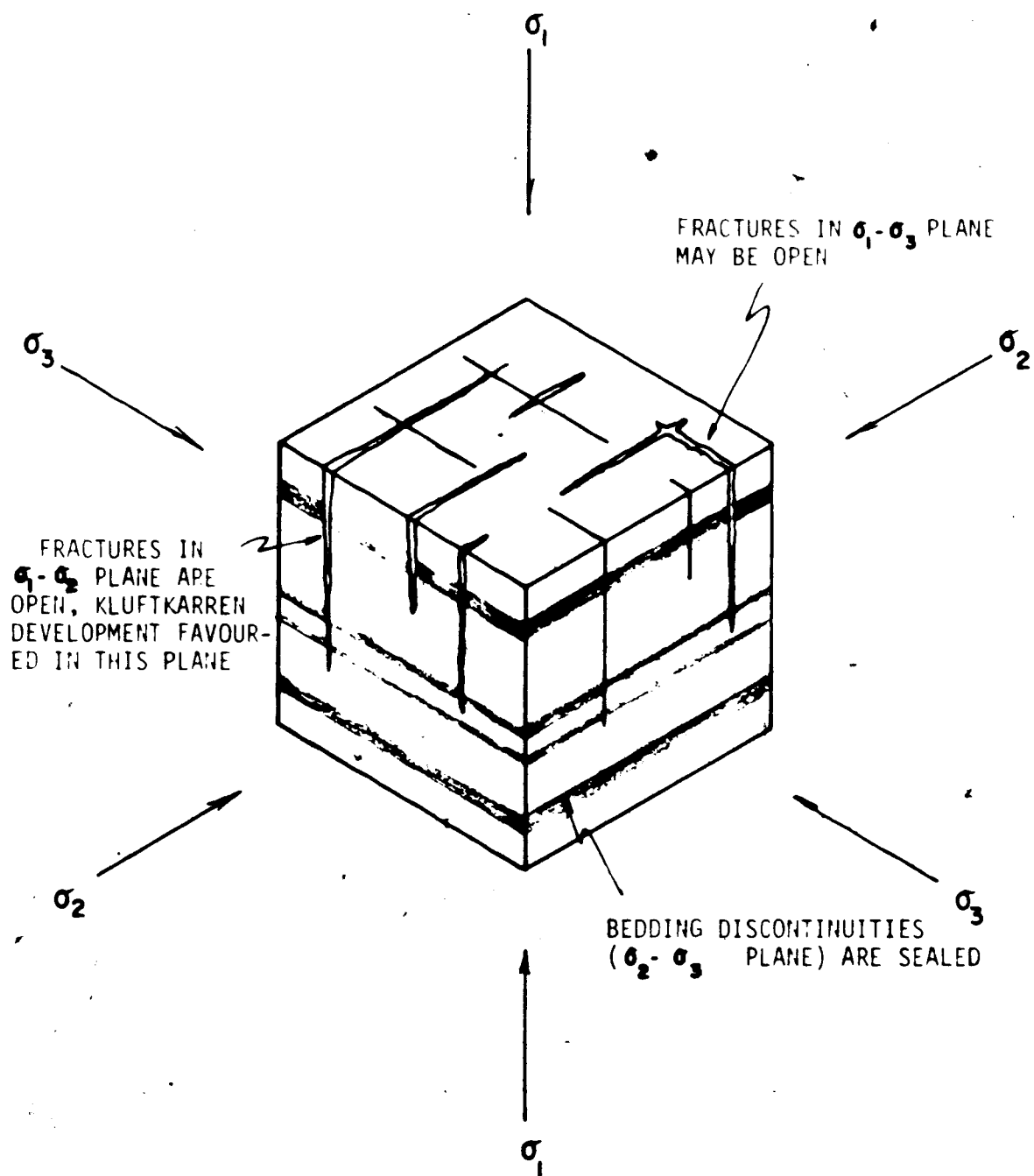


FIGURE 5.9: EFFECT OF REGIONAL STRESS STATE UPON FRACTURE OPENING AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF KLUFTKARREN

regional folding.

Other less obvious indicators of stress conditions include core squeezing and collapse structures. The lack of plastic deformation or squeezing of soft, deformable clays again discounts high lateral stresses. These materials are expected to possess low deformation moduli, thereby inducing stress transfer. Plastic deformation would occur at low stress levels and was only observed in relation to slumping features.

Collapse structures such as those observed in boreholes 104 and 88 (Plate 4.5) are interpreted to represent slumped material that have settled under gravitational forces. If high horizontal stresses had existed at the time of collapse, stress arching is expected to have prevented the upward translation of a collapse pipe. This is incompatible with the observed failure mode. Again, these features hold no implication for the present state of stress. They do discount the probability of high horizontal stresses at the time of collapse.

Finally, although core diskings fractures were difficult to discern from dessication and handling fractures, the presence of a high degree of subhorizontal fracturing may support high confining stresses. Obert and Stephenson (1965) reported that diskings only occurs at high stress levels where:

$$\sigma_r > 3400 + 2 S_o + 0.7 \sigma_2$$

where

σ_r = radial field stress (psi)

σ_2 = axial field stress (psi)

S_o = inherent shear strength (psi)

This would suggest that the in-situ stresses at SANDALTA are insufficient to effect a high degree of core diskings.

It is noted that the regional faulting proposed by Hackbarth (1978) was that of a normal fault striking northerly with a western downthrown block. Such faulting would be incompatible with the proposed northeast major principal stress orientation of Gough and Bell (1981). Moreover, normal faulting is not the expected mode of failure in a thrust (σ_2 = vertical) or strike-slip (σ_3 = vertical) stress field.

In summary, there are presently no direct core or in-situ measurements upon which an accurate assessment of Devonian field stresses may be completed. There is however, circumstantial evidence to suggest that extreme horizontal loads have never affected the Waterways. The strongest evidence is in the form of an apparent vertical permeability anisotropy, lack of stylolites or slickensides and vertical collapse structures. Secondary support is provided by the formations' warping character and lack of plastic deformations.

Although high horizontal stresses have been identified in the McMurray Formation, they do not necessarily persist at depth. In the SANDALTA locale, Waterways K_0 values are expected to be modest; in the range 0.70-1.30. A strike-slip stress field (σ_1 = NE-SW, σ_2 = vertical, σ_3 = NW-SE) or normal stress field (σ_1 $\bar{\perp}$ vertical) is favoured. A thrust stress field (σ_3 = vertical) is considered unlikely.

5.4.3 Inhomogeneity in the Stress Field

Although there is little expectation of excessively high horizontal stresses, considerable stress inhomogeneity is envisaged to characterize the Waterways. In particular, complex paleotopography, extended periods of uplift and regional solution subsidence are all thought to have contributed to local stress redistributions. Valley formation, gypsum-anhydrite transformations and local differences in elastic moduli are also considered to have had a limited effect upon the stress field. Although these inhomogeneities may be obscure in light of the stress redistributions expected upon thermal stimulation, they may be of some consequence to construction proceedings.

Paleotopography is likely to exercise the greatest influence upon local stress conditions. Significant stress concentrations may exist in topographic lows causing a

reduction in hydraulic conductivity and a local elevation of the shear strength. Overstressing may occur in some underground openings, however the magnitude of these local stress concentrations is not considered to be critical. Alternatively, paleotopographic highs may be stress relieved, exhibiting open fractures and a lower shearing resistance. The depth of influence of these inhomogeneities is a function of the maximum topographic relief. All MAISP tunnels should be located beneath the zone of influence, however access shafts will intersect this zone. Shaft deformations or spalling may result from such local stress concentrations.

Periods of uplift and stress relief are also considered to have affected stress redistribution. Although these represent ancient occurrences, they are believed to have contributed to increased inhomogeneity in the current stress field. Jointing due to tensile overstressing is the obvious manifestation of regional uplift. Another source of potential stress inhomogeneity is the unloading induced by removal of late Paleozoic and early Mesozoic sediments. This unloading may have initiated rebound strains and stress redistributions.

Regional subsidence and local collapse are also thought to have had a considerable influence upon stress redistribution. Prairie Evaporite solution is considered to have led to mild regional settlement which may have induced

lateral compressional stresses. Alternatively, local collapse pipes are likely stress-relieved.

Secondary stress field inhomogeneities include valley formation and erosion, gypsum-anhydrite transformations and local rock stiffness variations. Proximity to a stress relieved boundary such as the Athabasca River valley, may also affect local inhomogeneity.

In summary, a high degree of stress inhomogeneity may be expected throughout the shallow Waterways members. This inhomogeneity is expected to decrease with depth as paleotopographic and uplift influences become more subdued. In general, vertical stresses are expected to coincide with the overburden stress, whereas lateral stresses are likely to be anisotropic. These stress inhomogeneities are expected to be significant at a local scale only. Regional field stresses are thought to be widely homogeneous.

5.4.4 Design and Construction Considerations

5.4.4.1 Paleotopographical Effects

The general characteristics of the Devonian surface are well described by Martin and Jamin (1963), Ozoray (1977) and Mossop (1978). This study adds the following observations based upon a review of stratigraphic cross-

sections and Devonian structural maps (see Appendix B and Figure 5.10):

1. A minimum of 100 metres of Devonian relief exists in the SANDALTA locale. Up to 90 metres is due to early Cretaceous fluvial channelling. Surface karstification and local solution subsidence are considered to have played a secondary role.
2. Fluviokarst features are generally immature and are limited to the development of small diameter (5-20 cm) pipes and large, lenticular (0-10 m) cavities. All pipes and cavities are infilled with Cretaceous bituminous sands or residual Paleozoic clays. Caverns do not appear to characterize the solution, however kluftkarren may be well developed along formation joints.
3. Surface depressions and fluvial channels are commonly infilled with early Cretaceous unsorted alluvium. Sands and organic silts are common; clays and gravels less common. Paleosols are generally poorly developed, but do form a thin mantle of light green, highly plastic clay immediately atop the limestone. The clays also commonly infill small solution pipes and fractures.
4. Large, round collapse pipes (<400 m diameter)

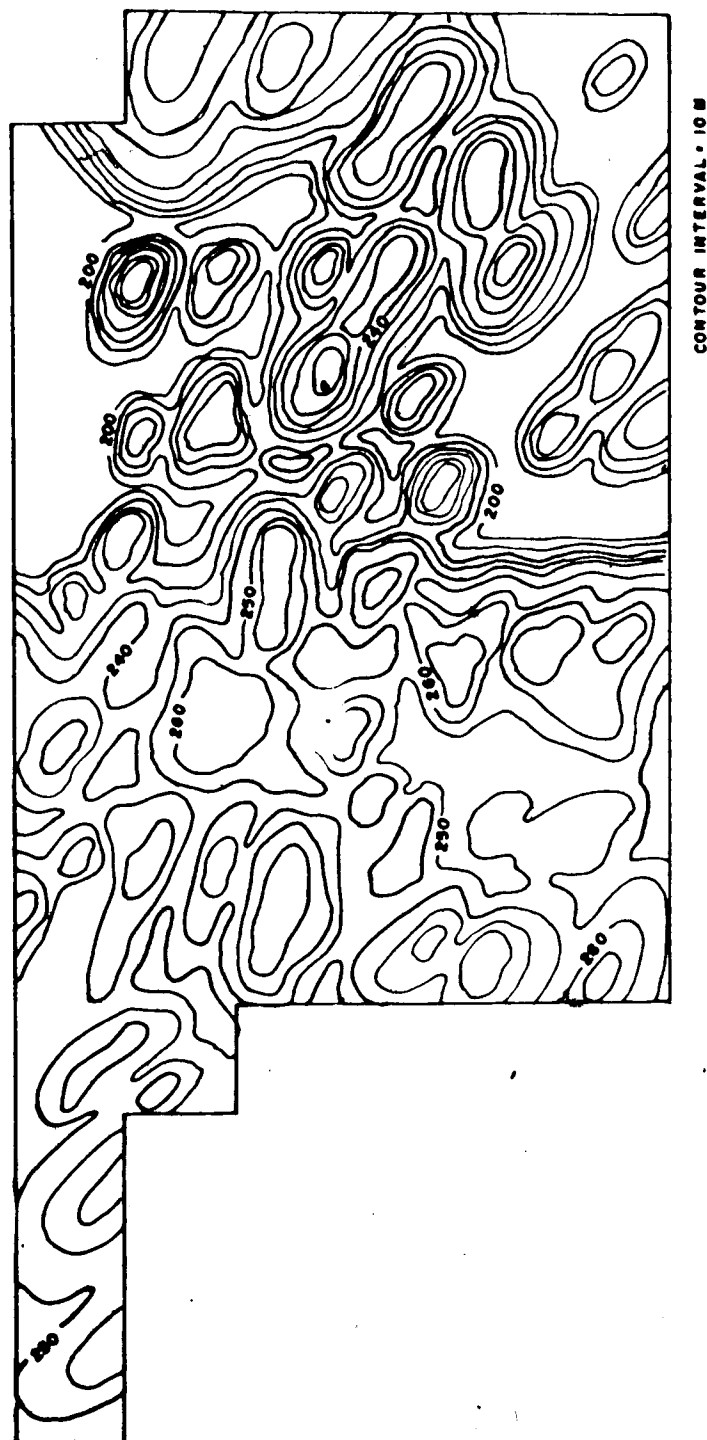


FIGURE 5.10: LOCAL PALEOZOIC STRUCTURE

are sporadically located and are thought to represent the manifestation of Prairie Evaporite solution. They may contribute up to 20 metres of relief.

5. Paleodrainage at SANDALTA was northerly. The predominant orientation of early Cretaceous drainage channels is locally north-south.
6. Regional surface dip is insignificant relative to the local effects of erosion, subsidence and solution.

These paleotopographical features, if present in the mine assisted in-situ area, will exercise a considerable influence upon MAISP construction. In particular, underground workings should avoid intersecting a north-south fluvial channel that may be infilled with unconsolidated alluvium. These materials are considered weak and deleterious. They are subject to hydraulic piping and are not suitable in the buffer zone because of their uncemented permeable character. Clearly, the delineation of early Cretaceous drainage channels is a priority in MAISP site investigations. Access tunnels may have to be located deeper in order to maintain the required buffer zone in limestone.

It is noted that preliminary contour mapping at a scale similar to that of Figure 5.10 may mask certain fluvial channels. Narrow channels in particular may be

overlooked when contour control is poor. The great complexity of the Devonian surface becomes increasingly evident as greater control is established. Figure 5.10 reflects first order paleotopography and does not clearly distinguish the fluvial channels observed in Sections A-A' to C-C' of Appendix B.

Subsurface workings should also avoid known collapse pipes. Such features are disturbed, weakened structures that may be metastable. Stress redistribution may affect substantial ground losses or collapse in underground workings. Grouting or rock bolting may serve to stabilize such features.

Smaller scale solution features such as karren or dolines may also be encountered, however they are not expected to jeopardize overall mine integrity. Both intraformational unconformities and steep angle shear zones should be considered inherent zones of weakness. Their presence may induce preferred block instabilities during tunnelling. Such surfaces should be delineated during pre-construction site investigations.

Finally, as discussed in Section 5.4.3, local paleotopography may exercise significant control upon shallow stress inhomogeneity. Stress concentrations are expected to dissipate with depth.

To conclude, paleotopographical effects are not expected to influence MAISP development much beyond the construction stage. During construction however, erosional

and solution features may be encountered. Such ground conditions warrant detailed pre-construction site investigations.

5.4.4.2 Hydrogeological Effects

The viability of a MAISP project will be largely dependent upon the control exercised over steam injection, fracture propagation and bitumen recovery. All of these factors depend upon the assumption that the limestone will provide a strong, impermeable hydrogeologic basement. Section 3.6 revealed the potential for substantial vertical permeability. It was suggested that Waterways permeability was structurally controlled by subvertical fractures which in turn, contributed to a strong permeability anisotropy. Both the rock mass permeability and the degree of anisotropy were considered to be stress level dependent.

Ozoray, Hackbarth and Lytviak (1980) described the occurrence of numerous saline springs, which not only confirmed the presence of vertical permeability, but also supported an upward hydraulic gradient throughout the Waterways. This is believed to be responsible for the presence of pressurized basal McMurray sands. Brooker, Devenny and MacRae (1978) discussed the potential problems of depressurizing these aquifers. Some in-situ permeability measurements have been completed and report values of 10^{-7} to 10^{-10} cm/sec at depths of 340-425 metres (GCRI, 1981).

Although these values are very low, they were obtained from standard borehole tests completed in vertical boreholes. In order to accurately assess Waterways permeability, oriented borehole tests must be adopted. Vertical permeability anisotropies cannot be evaluated in vertically oriented boreholes. The potential consequences of ungrouted vertical permeability include significant injection and production losses, groundwater inflow and the possibility of wellhead stability problems.

Grouting is considered to be the most efficient method of eliminating undesirable permeability, however this must be accomplished at pressures that do not exceed in-situ stresses. Secondary grouting may be required if drill and blast methods are employed in tunnel construction.

The long term effects of elevated temperature and pressure may affect both a reduction and increase in formation permeability. Elevated temperatures induce thermal expansion which results in a net decrease in permeability. Alternatively however, fluid injection will reduce normal effective stresses and favour fracture preservation. Local collapse pipes and shear zones may also serve as hydraulic conduits. Again, grouting may be required to mitigate this effect.

The potential for accelerated fracture corrosion is another hydrogeological effect of concern to MAISP designers. Elevated temperatures and pressures catalyze the solution reaction which may contribute to an overall

permeability increase with time. Unfortunately, the degree to which corrosion may be accelerated has not been studied to date. Although these concerns are not considered a major threat to mine integrity, there is considerable need for further investigation of this phenomenon. It is expected the corrosion process may be controlled by influencing injection fluid chemistry.

Another concern related to wetting of the argillaceous lithologies is that of the potential for up to 9% axial swell as measured by Williams (1980) in unconfined laboratory samples. Although small confinement pressures were recorded, 9% axial expansion is a significant amount of swell and must be considered in tunnel and shaft design. This swell is believed to be due to the rehydration of the clay component in the calcareous shales, however it is emphasized that no smectitic clay species were detected in x-ray diffraction tests.

Oxidation of the sulphate marcasite also results in substantial volumetric expansion. Under certain circumstances, this may result in point loading of a tunnel or shaft lining.

One final concern related to hydrogeology is that of groundwater quality and the potential environmental problems associated with the disposal of saline groundwaters. The treatment or storage of such contaminants may be required in extreme cases. Saline groundwaters may also damage or corrode exposed mine equipment.

5.4.4.3 Temperature and Pressure Effects

The most complex considerations in a Devonian MAISP design are those relating to elevated temperature and pressure regimes. Steam injection will result in stress redistributions and structural deformations that may affect both shaft and tunnel integrity. Three primary effects are considered:

1. earth pressure from an increase in formation volume due to injected steam
2. earth pressure resulting from thermal expansion of the host limestone at elevated formation temperatures
3. hydraulic pressure resulting from the forced injection of stimulation steam

Charlwood, Byrne, McKinley and Varoglu (1980) treated the thermal-geomechanical aspects of MAISP design in detail. They proposed a retreating mine concept employing a buffer zone around shafts and tunnels into which no direct steam injection would occur. Thus, the greater the buffer zone, the less severe the temperature and pressure effects will be upon structural integrity. These influences must be weighed against the economy of employing shallow mine workings.

At present, the complexity of thermal-geomechanical analyses precludes accurate prediction of either temperature

or pressure at tunnel or shaft boundaries. Recent design approaches have involved thermal continuum and crack propagation analyses. The former method generally involves finite element or finite difference modelling of a homogeneous formation material subjected to imposed temperature and pressure gradients. This permits the prediction of simplified conditions at shaft or tunnel linings, however such analyses are highly sensitive to boundary conditions. The second type of analysis generally involves finite element modelling of crack propagation in an elastic medium. This approach does not account for thermal expansivity, however it is useful in modelling fluid flow during the early stages of reservoir stimulation. Undoubtedly, both forms of analysis oversimplify actual formation conditions.

Charlwood et al (1980) discussed the following requirements of a suitable rheological model:

1. ability to model failure mechanisms
2. ability to model rock joints and their strength behaviour
3. ability to model progressive failure and load transfer about mine openings
4. ability to model sustained high temperature effects
5. ability to model thermal failure modes such as spalling and slabbing
6. ability to model time dependent processes

It is unlikely all of these requirements will be satisfied by a singular rheological model. Instead, a combination of conventional rock mechanics methods and idealized numerical models is evolving. The following general statements are presented as an aid in characterizing Waterways thermal-geomechanical behaviour.

1. Volumetric expansion due to fluid injection is expected to be less significant than the influence of thermal expansion and hydraulic pressurization. Volumetric expansion may however, induce significant stress redistribution during the early stages of injection. The influence of all three effects are subdued by increased buffer zone thickness.
2. Elevated formation temperatures may create measurable earth pressures on linings due to thermal expansion of the limestone. The magnitude of these loads will be a function of the permeability of the formation as undrained thermal expansion exceeds that of drained thermal expansion. A high Devonian permeability will drain injection fluids and reduce the active earth pressure exerted due to thermal expansion. In addition, the

magnitude of the earth pressure increases with proximity to the injection sites. A reduced buffer zone will effect higher limestone temperatures and thus greater thermal expansion. Thermal gradients about the tunnel or shaft may also affect non-homogeneous loading of the lining. Other thermal concerns include the effect of elevated temperatures upon lining materials and well casings, and the long term spalling or slabbing failures described by Charlwood et al (1980).

3. High injection pressures may induce mild hydraulic loads upon tunnel and shaft linings however again, this effect is dependent upon rock mass permeability and proximity of the tunnel to the actual injection site. Reduced permeability will affect higher pore pressures, which may, in turn, result in reduced effective confining stresses and an increased active earth pressure. Substantial Devonian permeability will effectively drain the rock mass and prevent excess pore fluid pressures from accumulating. Unfortunately, injection and production losses may also occur if Devonian permeability is excessive.
4. In general, grouting is considered to be the most effective method of reducing Devonian

permeability. Grouting is however, also subject to temperature and pressure effects. Thermal cracking may occur which serves to establish previous hydraulic communication along formation discontinuities. Wellhead instability and injection losses are undesirable consequences of ineffective grouting.

In summary, the temperature and pressure effects of thermal stimulation dominate post-construction geotechnical concerns. Volumetric expansion, hydraulic loading and earth pressure from thermal expansion are all mechanisms that may impose new loads on shaft and tunnel linings. Design models must account for these loads and maintain tunnel servicability, safety and structural integrity. Further study is required to assess the effect of formation permeability upon injection and production losses, drained or undrained thermal expansion and overall thermal-geomechanical behaviour.

6. CLOSURE

6.1 Summary

This study has examined various geological features of the Waterways Formation and considered their impact upon proposed oilsand developments. In particular, a detailed review of Moberly and Christina lithologies was conducted and a facies analysis completed. Many large and small scale geological features were described and categorized according to their solutional, erosional or weathering origins.

Geotechnical considerations involved a review of the overall rock mass quality and an evaluation of the expected impact of the observed geological features upon engineering projects. Preliminary design concerns were developed for both open pit and mine assisted in-situ oilsand recovery projects.

6.2 Major Elucidations

This study has elucidated the following major concerns:

1. A high degree of lateral lithologic variability characterizes the Waterways Formation. The variation is most marked in terms of rock texture which has been related to the shallow marine depositional

environment. All carbonate facies are finely interbedded and highly argillaceous. The predominant Moberly and Christina lithologies are nodular to finely interbedded micrite and argillaceous limestone, calcareous shale, biohermal limestone and limestone intraclast breccia. All lithologies remain unaffected by post-depositional diagenetic processes such as regional metasomatism or dolomitization.

2. The structural history of the formation does not include episodes of regional tectonic compression. There is no core evidence of compressional folding, strike or thrust slip faulting. All structural deformations are attributed to subsidence originating from removal of the underlying Prairie Evaporite Formation. Periods of regional uplift are considered responsible for the development of the predominant N-S/E-W tensile joint system.
3. The paleotopography of the upper Devonian surface is characterized by fluviokarst features. Relief is at least 90 metres and is primarily due to early Cretaceous fluvial channelling. Surface karren and dolines are structurally controlled and contribute to less than 10 metres of overall relief. Deep-seated Prairie Evaporite solution is manifested in

steep angle normal faults and large (<400 m diameter) round collapse pipes or sinkholes. These features are not related to surface karstification. Prairie Evaporite subsidence is considered to contribute up to 20 metres of relief and to the wavy, undulating appearance of bedding in outcrop. Other mesoscopic solution features are concentrated about apparent intraformational unconformities. These represent short-lived periods of intra-Devonian exposure and solution.

4. Paleosols are light green, plastic clays that form a thin mantle of residual Devonian material atop the limestone. They are texturally and mineralogically distinct from the early Cretaceous basal McMurray alluvium which is commonly dark-coloured, unsorted carbonaceous sand, gravel and clay. The early Cretaceous alluvium is quantitatively more abundant than the paleoresiduals and characteristically infills local topographic lows or fluvial channels. The channels also influence the regional distribution of McMurray sands and thus the location of the thickest ore zones. The absence of widespread paleosols and the predominance of highly scoured limestone surfaces reflects a

relatively poorly developed weathering profile.

5. Formation joints and boudinage fractures create the potential for a vertical formation permeability several orders of magnitude greater than horizontal permeabilities. Such anisotropy remains unmeasured but is supported by the presence of upward flowing saline springs and basal McMurray artesian aquifers (Ozoray, Hackbarth and Lytviak, 1980). An upward regional hydraulic gradient across the Waterways was established by Hackbarth (1978). All permeability is structurally controlled and stress level dependent.
6. Bitumen staining in subvertical formation fractures supports both an anisotropic permeability tensor and a normal local stress field (σ_1 = vertical). Infiltrated bitumen further acts as a solution retardant at shallow depths.
7. Overall rock mass quality is only fair to good and decreases with increasing argillaceous content. Engineering behaviour is dominated by rock mass discontinuities such as joints and bedding. Empirical classifications are ineffective in accounting for local solution or erosional features.

8. A normal (σ_1 = vertical) or strike-slip (σ_2 = vertical) stress field is favoured with the vertical stress coinciding with the overburden stress. In-situ stress measurements are lacking but core evidence suggests modest horizontal stresses exist. K_0 values are not expected to exceed 1.3. Considerable stress inhomogeneity is expected within the shallow Moberly and Christina Members. This inhomogeneity is due to paleotopography, uplift, stress relief and varying lithologic stiffnesses.
9. Open pit highwall stability is not generally jeopardized by Devonian lithology or structure. Certain unfavourable orientations may result in mine floor heave, but deep-seated block instability is unlikely. Mine floor integrity and trafficability may be jeopardized by basal Cretaceous alluvium or the presence of unstable collapse pipes or sinkholes. Detailed site investigations or remedial measures such as grouting or pinning may be required to stabilize deep-seated collapse structures.
10. MAISP design may be affected by Devonian structure and behaviour. Construction concerns involve the effect of paleotopography

upon the stress state and potential failure mechanisms. Geological structure will also influence tunnel and shaft construction practice. Post-construction concerns include the influence of hydrogeological and thermal-geomechanical effects upon the stimulation and production process. The potential for significant Waterways permeability may influence design modification in order to mitigate injection or production losses and any threat to tunnel or shaft integrity. Drained or undrained thermal expansion of the host limestone may be accompanied by elevated hydraulic pressures and volumetric expansion of the formation. Grouting may be required to alleviate some of these design concerns.

Temperature and pressure concerns cannot be adequately assessed at present by available numerical or analytical means. The thermal-geomechanical interaction of the underground structure with the rock mass is a complex problem requiring much future study. A realistic rheological model must account for the natural complexity of the host rock mass.

6.3 Areas For Further Study

In general, the lithologic and stratigraphic features of the Waterways Formation have been well researched and documented. There is little need to further characterize these aspects, however there is a considerable lack of knowledge of deep-seated structural occurrences and shallow solution features. Devonian or Precambrian faulting mechanisms remain largely unexplored and Prairie Evaporite solution has been inadequately assessed.

This thesis has illuminated several features of the Devonian-Cretaceous fluviokarst but has also illustrated that more detailed drilling will be required to fully characterize shallow karren and dolines.

An effort was made to correlate such features with specific rock facies, however this approach was not fruitful. It suggested that the spatial distribution of small scale features is most likely a function of rock jointing, local petrographic features and regional hydrogeologic gradients. It is questionable whether detailed mapping of such features will prove meaningful. Moreover, the author considers a better understanding of the mechanics and spatial distribution of large, deep-seated collapse pipes to be of greater immediate concern.

Hydrogeologic conditions also require more detailed study. In particular, the in-situ measurement of rock mass permeability and its anisotropy are critical. The presence

of basal McMurray artesian conditions and local flow regimes should be established on a site specific basis.

Further work is also suggested in establishing the current in-situ state of stress and fracture densities. These parameters are necessary design factors for MAISP projects and will be required prior to establishing final design linings for tunnels and shafts. The local state of stress affects rock mass permeability and thus construction inflows and pore fluid pressures. Fracture characteristics will influence both groundwater conditions and potential block instabilities during tunnelling.

Geotechnical index properties are considered to have been adequately assessed by Williams (1980) however the thermal-geomechanical behaviour of the limestone remains undetermined. MAISP projects will induce long term elevated temperatures and pressures which are expected to influence overall rock mass behaviour. Current methods of analysis do not include a comprehensive rheological model, but do provide a valuable first approximation to thermal expansion mechanics. Future numerical analyses must account for the inherent geological complexity of the given earth material. The potential for accelerated carbonate dissolution upon injection is another process requiring further study.

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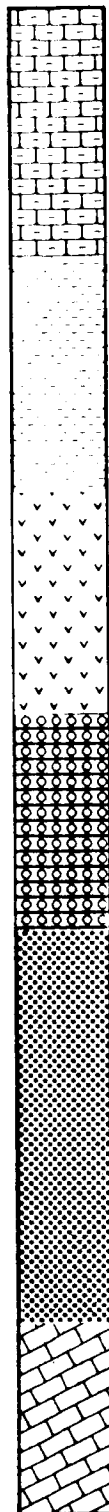
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APPENDIX A

LOG KEY

Rock Type A - Massive to Nodular
Argillaceous Limestones and Finely
Interbedded Limestone-Micrite

Rock Type B - Calcareous Shale

Rock Type C - Limestone Intraclast
Breccia

Rock Type D - Biohermal Limestone

Rock Type E - Uncemented Quartz
Sand

Rock Type F - Unconsolidated
Sediments

Disturbed (Brecciated) Carbonate

[illegible]

[illegible]

DEVIATION MATERIALS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORRECTION LOG			
CORRECTION NO. 20				GROUND ELEVATION: 312.65 MSL			
CORRECTION LOCATION: 8-14-84-181/4				DATE LOGGED: JUNE 8, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	PHOTOMONTAGE STRIP	RECOVERY SAMPLE LOG	RECOVERY FACTOR	LYTHOLOG DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	PROPERTY
11.7							
11.8							
11.9							
12.0							
12.1							
12.2							
12.3							
12.4							
12.5							
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DE VONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 33				GROUND ELEVATION 317.33 FEET			
COREHOLE LOCATION 8-20-94-944				DATE LOGGED JUNE 17, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	RECOVERY (FEET)	RECOVERY (FEET) CORRECTION	RECOVERY (FEET) CORRECTION	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	RECOVERY STRUCTURE	RECOVERY STRUCTURE	PERMEABILITY
183.8							
184.2							
184.6							
185.0							
185.4							
185.8							
186.2							
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291.8							

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[illegible]

DEVIKIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 50				GROUND ELEVATION 334.4 FEET			
COREHOLE LOCATION 8-20-84-204				DATE LOGGED JUNE 18, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	REMARKS (FACIES, STRUCTURE, etc.)	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	POSSIBILITY	PHOTOMONTAGE PLATE
101.2							
102.1							
103.1							
104.1							
105.1							
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200.1							

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORRELATION LOG			
CORRELATION NO. 56				GROUND ELEVATION 32158 MSL			
CORRELATION LOCATION 8-28-84-SM4				DATE LOGGED SEPTEMBER 18, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	DEPTH (METERS)	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
17.6							
18.4							
19.2							
20.0							
20.8							
21.6							
22.4							
23.2							
24.0							
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98.4							
99.2							
100.0							

BEYONTH WATERSHEDS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORE-HOLE LOG			
CORE-HOLE NO. 58				GROUND ELEVATION 322.81 MBS.			
CORE-HOLE LOCATION: 8-21-94-944				DATE LOGGED: SEPTEMBER 15, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
133.2	NON-CONGLOMERATE CLAY, SILT, SAND AND CON.						
134.1							
135.1							
136.1							
137.2							
138.2							
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DESCRIPTIVE CORRELOG LOG		DEVIATION WATERWAYS FORMATION	
CORRELOG NO. 72		CORRELOG NO. 72	
DATE LOGGED: SEPTEMBER 10, 1961		CORRELOG LOCATION: 14-7-94-944	
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING SYMBOL	REMARKS	REMARKS
0-1		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
1-2		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
2-3		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
3-4		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
4-5		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
5-6		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
6-7		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
7-8		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
8-9		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
9-10		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
10-11		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
11-12		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
12-13		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
13-14		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
14-15		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
15-16		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
16-17		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
17-18		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
18-19		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
19-20		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
20-21		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
21-22		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
22-23		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
23-24		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
24-25		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
25-26		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
26-27		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
27-28		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
28-29		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
29-30		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
30-31		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
31-32		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
32-33		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
33-34		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
34-35		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
35-36		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
36-37		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
37-38		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
38-39		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
39-40		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
40-41		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
41-42		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
42-43		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
43-44		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
44-45		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
45-46		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
46-47		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
47-48		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
48-49		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
49-50		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
50-51		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
51-52		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
52-53		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
53-54		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
54-55		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
55-56		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
56-57		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
57-58		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
58-59		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
59-60		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
60-61		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
61-62		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
62-63		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
63-64		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
64-65		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
65-66		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
66-67		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
67-68		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
68-69		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
69-70		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
70-71		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
71-72		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
72-73		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
73-74		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
74-75		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
75-76		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
76-77		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
77-78		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
78-79		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
79-80		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
80-81		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
81-82		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
82-83		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
83-84		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
84-85		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
85-86		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
86-87		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
87-88		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
88-89		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
89-90		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY
90-91		UNCONFORMITY	UNCONFORMITY

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORREHOLE LOG			
CORREHOLE NO. 78				GROUND ELEVATION 331.78 MMSL			
CORREHOLE LOCATION 7-9-94-564				DATE LOGGED: JUNE 12, 1991			
DEPTH METERS	DEPTH FEET	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
130.2							
131.4							
132.1							
132.8							
133.5							
134.2							
135.0							
135.7							
136.5							
137.2							
138.0							
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139.5							
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141.0							
141.8							
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143.3							
144.0							
144.8							
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146.3							
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332.3							
333.0							

BEYOND WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 79				GROUND ELEVATION 258.33 MBSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 12-12-94-SW4				DATE LOGGED JUNE 12, 1991			
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING SYMBOL	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
91.2							
91.4							
91.6							
91.8							
92.0							
92.2							
92.4							
92.6							
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DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORE-HOLE LOG			
CORE-HOLE NO. 88				GROUND ELEVATION: 328.37 MBSL			
CORE-HOLE LOCATION: 18-8-94-S44				DATE LOGGED: SEPTEMBER 15, 1981			
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	REMARKS (PRINTING CODE)	REMARKS (FIELD)	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	PERMEABILITY
80.0							
80.2							
80.4							
80.6							
80.8							
81.0							
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DESCRIPTIVE CORRELATION LOG									
DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION					GROUND ELEVATION: 335.99 MSSL				
CORRELATION NO. 84					DATE LOGGED: JUNE 18, 1981				
CORRELATION LOCATION: 14-28-94-04.4									
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECENTLY EXPOSED STRATA	RECENTLY EXPOSED CORRELATION CODE	RECENTLY EXPOSED FACIES	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	POREY STRUCTURE	RECONY STRUCTURE	PERMEABILITY	HYDROLOGIC FLOW
30.7					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
30.8					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
30.9					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.0					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.1					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.2					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.3					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.4					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.5					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.6					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.7					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.8					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
31.9					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.0					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.1					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.2					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.3					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.4					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.5					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.6					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.7					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.8					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
32.9					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.0					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.1					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.2					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.3					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.4					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.5					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.6					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.7					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.8					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
33.9					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
34.0					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	
34.1					REGULAR TO	WIDELY SPACED	VERY LOW INTERMITTENT	PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 86				GROUND ELEVATION: 302.85 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION: S-5-94-944				DATE LOGGED: JULY 7, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGICAL SYMBOL	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
80.5							
81.0							
81.5							
82.0							
82.5							
83.0							
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[illegible]

[illegible]

DEVONIAN WATERBURY FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 84				GROUND ELEVATION 325.5 MRL			
COREHOLE LOCATION: JUNE 11, 1981				DATE LOGGED: 7-9-84-BM4			
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING SYMBOLS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
0.0							
0.1							
0.2							
0.3							
0.4							
0.5							
0.6							
0.7							
0.8							
0.9							
1.0							
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1.7							
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REVOLUTIONARY WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 30				GROUND ELEVATION 334.9 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 5-B-94-SH4				DATE LOGGED: JUNE 11, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING SYMBOL	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
129.2							
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DEVONIAN MIDDLEBURY FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 88				GROUND ELEVATION 328.53 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 14-14-84-814				DATE LOGGED JULY 16, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING STRATIGRAPHY	THINNING STRATIGRAPHY	CHINA RECORDS STRATIGRAPHY	RECONSTRUCTED STRATIGRAPHY	RECONSTRUCTED STRATIGRAPHY	RECONSTRUCTED STRATIGRAPHY	RECONSTRUCTED STRATIGRAPHY
30.0							
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RECEIPTING OFFICIALS USE		RECEIPTING OFFICIALS USE	
GRAND ELEVATION 25.27 MFL		GRAND ELEVATION 25.27 MFL	
DATE LAMED JULY 21, 1968		DATE LAMED JULY 21, 1968	
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9
10	10	10	10
11	11	11	11
12	12	12	12
13	13	13	13
14	14	14	14
15	15	15	15
16	16	16	16
17	17	17	17
18	18	18	18
19	19	19	19
20	20	20	20
21	21	21	21
22	22	22	22
23	23	23	23
24	24	24	24
25	25	25	25
26	26	26	26
27	27	27	27
28	28	28	28
29	29	29	29
30	30	30	30
31	31	31	31
32	32	32	32
33	33	33	33
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42	42	42	42
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91	91	91	91
92	92	92	92
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97	97	97	97
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99	99	99	99
100	100	100	100

DEVONIAN UNTERMYRS FORMATION		DESCRIPTIVE CORRELATION LOG				
CORRELATION NO. 84		GROUND ELEVATION 325.87 MSL				
CORRELATION LOCATION 9-17-84-804		DATE LOGGED JULY 8, 1981				
DEPTH METERS	STRATIGRAPHIC UNIT	REMARKS	STRUCTURE	PROPERTY	PHOTOMONTAGE UNIT	NO.
80.0						
81.0						
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DEVIATION WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 18				GROUND ELEVATION: 328.3 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION: 7-18-94-SW4				DATE LOGGED: JUL 7, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING SYMBOL	REMARKS (FACIES)	LITHOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	PROPERTY	PHOTOGRAPHIC PLANT
72.5			RED LIGNITE, LIGNITE, MOTTLED, RECONSTRUCTIVE LINE, WELL SORTED, VERY HEAVY, SUBORDINATE, ATTITUDE, RETURN STONE	MODERATELY INTERMEDIATE, TEXTURE, SOME FINELY, INTERMEDIATE, SOME LIGNITE, SOME LIGNITE	MODERATELY SPACED, SUBORDINATE, TENSION FRACTURES, MODERATE, FRACTURES, FRACTURE, PERMEABILITY	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE, PERMEABILITY, LOW FRACTURE	N/A
71.5							
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GENERAL INFO		GENERAL LOCATION		GENERAL ELEVATION		GENERAL DIRECTION		GENERAL DATE	
NO.	NAME	NO.	NAME	NO.	NAME	NO.	NAME	NO.	NAME
1	1000	1	1000	1	1000	1	1000	1	1000
2	2000	2	2000	2	2000	2	2000	2	2000
3	3000	3	3000	3	3000	3	3000	3	3000
4	4000	4	4000	4	4000	4	4000	4	4000
5	5000	5	5000	5	5000	5	5000	5	5000
6	6000	6	6000	6	6000	6	6000	6	6000
7	7000	7	7000	7	7000	7	7000	7	7000
8	8000	8	8000	8	8000	8	8000	8	8000
9	9000	9	9000	9	9000	9	9000	9	9000
10	10000	10	10000	10	10000	10	10000	10	10000
11	11000	11	11000	11	11000	11	11000	11	11000
12	12000	12	12000	12	12000	12	12000	12	12000
13	13000	13	13000	13	13000	13	13000	13	13000
14	14000	14	14000	14	14000	14	14000	14	14000
15	15000	15	15000	15	15000	15	15000	15	15000
16	16000	16	16000	16	16000	16	16000	16	16000
17	17000	17	17000	17	17000	17	17000	17	17000
18	18000	18	18000	18	18000	18	18000	18	18000
19	19000	19	19000	19	19000	19	19000	19	19000
20	20000	20	20000	20	20000	20	20000	20	20000
21	21000	21	21000	21	21000	21	21000	21	21000
22	22000	22	22000	22	22000	22	22000	22	22000
23	23000	23	23000	23	23000	23	23000	23	23000
24	24000	24	24000	24	24000	24	24000	24	24000
25	25000	25	25000	25	25000	25	25000	25	25000
26	26000	26	26000	26	26000	26	26000	26	26000
27	27000	27	27000	27	27000	27	27000	27	27000
28	28000	28	28000	28	28000	28	28000	28	28000
29	29000	29	29000	29	29000	29	29000	29	29000
30	30000	30	30000	30	30000	30	30000	30	30000
31	31000	31	31000	31	31000	31	31000	31	31000
32	32000	32	32000	32	32000	32	32000	32	32000
33	33000	33	33000	33	33000	33	33000	33	33000
34	34000	34	34000	34	34000	34	34000	34	34000
35	35000	35	35000	35	35000	35	35000	35	35000
36	36000	36	36000	36	36000	36	36000	36	36000
37	37000	37	37000	37	37000	37	37000	37	37000
38	38000	38	38000	38	38000	38	38000	38	38000
39	39000	39	39000	39	39000	39	39000	39	39000
40	40000	40	40000	40					

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION			DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 12			GROUND ELEVATION 324.86 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 15-N-34-S04			DATE LOGGED JULY 15, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	REMARKS	RECOVERY (PERCENT)	RECOVERY (FEET)	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	REMARKS
0-1						
1-1						
2-1						
3-1						
4-1						
5-1						
6-1						
7-1						
8-1						
9-1						
10-1						
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74-1						
75-1						
76-1						
77-1						
78-1						
79-1						
80-1						
81-1						
82-1						

[illegible]

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION									
DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG									
COREHOLE NO. 118									
GROUND ELEVATION: 323.82 MSL									
DATE LOGGED: JULY 14, 1981									
COREHOLE LOCATION: 15-19-34-844									
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	REMARKS	REMARKS (CONT'D)	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	POREY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	PERMEABILITY	NOTED PERMEABILITY	NO
80.1				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
80.2				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
80.3				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
80.4				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
80.5				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
80.6				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
80.7				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
80.8				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
80.9				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.0				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.1				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.2				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.3				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.4				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.5				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.6				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.7				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.8				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
81.9				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.0				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.1				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.2				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.3				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.4				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.5				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.6				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.7				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.8				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
82.9				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.0				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.1				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.2				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.3				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.4				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.5				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.6				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.7				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.8				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
83.9				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.0				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.1				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.2				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.3				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.4				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.5				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.6				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.7				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.8				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
84.9				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					
85.0				LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION					

DEMONSTRATION WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 119				GROUND ELEVATION: 321.99 MBSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION: 11-20-84-944				DATE LOGGED: JULY 28, 1981			
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGICAL STRATA	SEDIMENTARY FACIES	LITHOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION	SEDIMENTARY STRUCTURE	SEDIMENTARY STRUCTURE	PERMEABILITY	NOTES
81.8							
82.0							
82.2							
82.4							
82.6							
82.8							
83.0							
83.2							
83.4							
83.6							
83.8							
84.0							
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92.4							
92.6							
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93.0							
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97.2							
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97.6							
97.8							
98.0							
98.2							
98.4							
98.6							
98.8							
99.0							
99.2							
99.4							
99.6							
99.8							
100.0							

DE VORSEAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. C23				GROUND ELEVATION: 323.26 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION: 14-31-54-804				DATE LOGGED: JULY 14, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	DEPTH (METERS)	DEPTH (FEET)	DEPTH (METERS)	PRIMARY STRATIGRAPHY	SECONDARY STRATIGRAPHY	PERMEABILITY	PERMEABILITY
100.0	30.5						
99.0	29.9						
98.0	29.3						
97.0	28.7						
96.0	28.1						
95.0	27.5						
94.0	26.9						
93.0	26.3						
92.0	25.7						
91.0	25.1						
90.0	24.5						
89.0	23.9						
88.0	23.3						
87.0	22.7						
86.0	22.1						
85.0	21.5						
84.0	20.9						
83.0	20.3						
82.0	19.7						
81.0	19.1						
80.0	18.5						
79.0	17.9						
78.0	17.3						
77.0	16.7						
76.0	16.1						
75.0	15.5						
74.0	14.9						
73.0	14.3						
72.0	13.7						
71.0	13.1						
70.0	12.5						
69.0	11.9						
68.0	11.3						
67.0	10.7						
66.0	10.1						
65.0	9.5						
64.0	8.9						
63.0	8.3						
62.0	7.7						
61.0	7.1						
60.0	6.5						
59.0	5.9						
58.0	5.3						
57.0	4.7						
56.0	4.1						
55.0	3.5						
54.0	2.9						
53.0	2.3						
52.0	1.7						
51.0	1.1						
50.0	0.5						
49.0	-0.1						
48.0	-0.7						
47.0	-1.3						
46.0	-1.9						
45.0	-2.5						
44.0	-3.1						
43.0	-3.7						
42.0	-4.3						
41.0	-4.9						
40.0	-5.5						
39.0	-6.1						
38.0	-6.7						
37.0	-7.3						
36.0	-7.9						
35.0	-8.5						
34.0	-9.1						
33.0	-9.7						
32.0	-10.3						
31.0	-10.9						
30.0	-11.5						
29.0	-12.1						
28.0	-12.7						
27.0	-13.3						
26.0	-13.9						
25.0	-14.5						
24.0	-15.1						
23.0	-15.7						
22.0	-16.3						
21.0	-16.9						
20.0	-17.5						
19.0	-18.1						
18.0	-18.7						
17.0	-19.3						
16.0	-19.9						
15.0	-20.5						
14.0	-21.1						
13.0	-21.7						
12.0	-22.3						
11.0	-22.9						
10.0	-23.5						
9.0	-24.1						
8.0	-24.7						
7.0	-25.3						
6.0	-25.9						
5.0	-26.5						
4.0	-27.1						
3.0	-27.7						
2.0	-28.3						
1.0	-28.9						
0.0	-29.5						

[illegible]

[illegible]


DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION						DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG	
COREHOLE NO. 120						GROUND ELEVATION: 320.86 MRS.	
COREHOLE LOCATION: T-20-94-S44						DATE LOGGED: JULY 29, 1981	
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECOVERY PERCENTAGE	RECOVERY FACTORS	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	REMARKS	RECOVERY STRUCTURE	RECOVERY STRUCTURE
100.0				INTERMEDIATE LITHOLOGIC WHITE TO GREY, FINE, WELL SORTED SAND, SUBHORIZONTAL, ATTEMPTED FRAGILE PYRITE MODULES			
100.5							
101.0							
101.5							
102.0							
102.5							
103.0							
103.5							
104.0							
104.5							
105.0							
105.5							
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118.0							
118.5							
119.0							
119.5							
120.0							
120.5							
121.0							
121.5							

100.0	100.5	101.0	101.5	102.0	102.5	103.0	103.5	104.0	104.5	105.0	105.5	106.0	106.5	107.0	107.5	108.0	108.5	109.0	109.5	110.0	110.5	111.0	111.5	112.0	112.5	113.0	113.5	114.0	114.5	115.0	115.5	116.0	116.5	117.0	117.5	118.0	118.5	119.0	119.5	120.0	120.5	121.0	121.5																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																						

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 129				GROUND ELEVATION 320.98 MRS.			
COREHOLE LOCATION 6-28-94-SM4				DATE LOGGED JULY 13, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	REMARKS (SEE PAGE 129)	REMARKS (SEE PAGE 129)	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	POSSIBILITY	DEPTH (FEET)
94.5			OLIGOCLASTIC SHALE, GRAY, FINE-TEXTURED, WELL DEVELOPED, SUBHORIZONTAL, ATTITUDE, SOME INTERMEDIATE, LUTITE, STROMATOLITE, WHITE, MODERATE, FREQUENT, FINE, SUBHORIZONTAL	LUTITE	MODERATELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL TENSION FRACTURES, OCC. SUPERFICIAL COMPRESSION IN FRACTURE, FRACTURE PERMEABILITY	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE POROSITY, LOW FRACTURE POROSITY	94.5
95.0							95.0
95.5							95.5
96.0							96.0
96.5							96.5
97.0							97.0
97.5							97.5
98.0							98.0
98.5							98.5
99.0							99.0
99.5							99.5
100.0							100.0
100.5							100.5
101.0							101.0
101.5							101.5
102.0							102.0
102.5							102.5
103.0							103.0
103.5							103.5
104.0							104.0
104.5							104.5
105.0							105.0
105.5							105.5
106.0							106.0
106.5							106.5
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108.0							108.0
108.5							108.5
109.0							109.0
109.5							109.5
110.0							110.0
110.5							110.5
111.0							111.0
111.5							111.5
112.0							112.0
112.5							112.5
113.0							113.0
113.5							113.5
114.0							114.0
114.5							114.5
115.0							115.0
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116.0							116.0
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117.0							117.0
117.5							117.5
118.0							118.0
118.5							118.5
119.0							119.0
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125.0							125.0
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127.0							127.0
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144.0							144.0
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145.0							145.0
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171.0							171.0
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191.5							191.5
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193.0							193.0
193.5							193.5
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211.0							211.0
211.5							211.5
212.0							212.0
212.5							

DEVIATION INSTRUMENTS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG							
COREHOLE NO. 108				GROUND ELEVATION 315.48 MSL							
COREHOLE LOCATION T-20-84-84.4				DATE LOGGED SEPTEMBER 11, 1981							
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED CORE	STRUCTURE FACTOR	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	STRUCTURE	RECONSTRUCTED STRUCTURE	STRUCTURE	RECONSTRUCTED STRUCTURE	STRUCTURE	RECONSTRUCTED STRUCTURE
80.1					OLIGOCENE SHALES, GREY, FINE-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED, WELL SORTED, WELL INDOURATED, SUBHORIZONTAL ATTITUDE, OCC. PHOTIC NODULES, SOME FINE-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED LITHOLOGIC STRINGS	LOW-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED, WELL SORTED, WELL INDOURATED, SUBHORIZONTAL ATTITUDE, OCC. PHOTIC NODULES, SOME FINE-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED LITHOLOGIC STRINGS	LOW-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED, WELL SORTED, WELL INDOURATED, SUBHORIZONTAL ATTITUDE, OCC. PHOTIC NODULES, SOME FINE-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED LITHOLOGIC STRINGS	LOW-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED, WELL SORTED, WELL INDOURATED, SUBHORIZONTAL ATTITUDE, OCC. PHOTIC NODULES, SOME FINE-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED LITHOLOGIC STRINGS	LOW-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED, WELL SORTED, WELL INDOURATED, SUBHORIZONTAL ATTITUDE, OCC. PHOTIC NODULES, SOME FINE-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED LITHOLOGIC STRINGS	LOW-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED, WELL SORTED, WELL INDOURATED, SUBHORIZONTAL ATTITUDE, OCC. PHOTIC NODULES, SOME FINE-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED LITHOLOGIC STRINGS	LOW-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED, WELL SORTED, WELL INDOURATED, SUBHORIZONTAL ATTITUDE, OCC. PHOTIC NODULES, SOME FINE-TO-MEDIUM GRAINED LITHOLOGIC STRINGS
80.2											
80.3											
80.4											
81.1											
81.2											
81.3											
81.4											
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81.6											
81.7											
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82.0											
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87.9											
88.0											
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DEVIKORIN LITHOMARTS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORRELATION LOG			
CORRELATION NO. 131				GROUND ELEVATION 322.38 1962.			
CORRELATION LOCATION 5-25-94-384				DATE LOGGED SEPTEMBER 3, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	REMARKS (SYMBOLS)	REMARKS (SYMBOLS)	REMARKS (SYMBOLS)	REMARKS (SYMBOLS)	REMARKS (SYMBOLS)	REMARKS (SYMBOLS)
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DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG	
COREHOLE NO. 122		GROUND ELEVATION 324.25 MBSL	
COREHOLE LOCATION 11-25-94-944		DATE LOGGED AUGUST 7, 1981	
DEPTH FEET	GENERAL STRATIGRAPHY	REMARKS	REMARKS
73.8		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
74.7		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
75.8		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
76.4		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
77.2		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
78.1		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
78.8		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
79.8		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
80.8		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
81.8		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
82.3		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
83.2		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
84.8		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
85.8		LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID
86.7	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
88.8	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
89.4	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
89.3	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
89.1	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
89.0	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
89.8	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
91.7	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
92.8	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
93.4	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
94.2	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
95.1	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
95.8	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
96.8	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
97.8	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
98.5	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
99.3	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
100.2	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
101.0	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
101.8	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
102.7	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	
103.8	LOW-TO-MID	LOW-TO-MID	

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 133				GROUND ELEVATION: 371.23 MBSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION: 15-29-94-SW4				DATE LOGGED: JULY 28, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	RECOVERY (PERCENT)	REMARKS	STRATIGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	TERTIARY STRUCTURE	NOTES
70.0			OLIGOCLASTIC SHALE, GREY, FISSILE, WELL CEMENTED, SUBHORIZONTAL, ATTITUDE	LAMINAR	MODERATELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL TENSION FRACTURES, FRACTURE PERMEABILITY	VERY LOW INTERPARTICLE POROSITY, LOW FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
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DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG		GROUND ELEVATION 326.31' PMSL		DATE LOGGED AUGUST 18, 1981	
COREHOLE NO. 135		COREHOLE LOCATION 3-38-34-SM4			
DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION					
DEPTH FEET	LOGGING INTERVAL	GROUND ELEVATION	FORMATION	MINOR STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE
70.0	70.0-71.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
71.0	71.0-72.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
72.0	72.0-73.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
73.0	73.0-74.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
74.0	74.0-75.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
75.0	75.0-76.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
76.0	76.0-77.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
77.0	77.0-78.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
78.0	78.0-79.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
79.0	79.0-80.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
80.0	80.0-81.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
81.0	81.0-82.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
82.0	82.0-83.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
83.0	83.0-84.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
84.0	84.0-85.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
85.0	85.0-86.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
86.0	86.0-87.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
87.0	87.0-88.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
88.0	88.0-89.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
89.0	89.0-90.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
90.0	90.0-91.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
91.0	91.0-92.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
92.0	92.0-93.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
93.0	93.0-94.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
94.0	94.0-95.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
95.0	95.0-96.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
96.0	96.0-97.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
97.0	97.0-98.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
98.0	98.0-99.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
99.0	99.0-100.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
100.0	100.0-101.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
101.0	101.0-102.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
102.0	102.0-103.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
103.0	103.0-104.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
104.0	104.0-105.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
105.0	105.0-106.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
106.0	106.0-107.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
107.0	107.0-108.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
108.0	108.0-109.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
109.0	109.0-110.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
110.0	110.0-111.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
111.0	111.0-112.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
112.0	112.0-113.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
113.0	113.0-114.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
114.0	114.0-115.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
115.0	115.0-116.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
116.0	116.0-117.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
117.0	117.0-118.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
118.0	118.0-119.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
119.0	119.0-120.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
120.0	120.0-121.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
121.0	121.0-122.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
122.0	122.0-123.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
123.0	123.0-124.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
124.0	124.0-125.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
125.0	125.0-126.0	326.31	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		
126.0	126.0				

DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG				GROUND ELEVATION 322.3 MBSL				DATE LOGGED JUNE 18, 1981			
DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				COREHOLE NO. 136				COREHOLE LOCATION: T-31-94-94A			
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGICAL STRATA	RECOVERED STRATA	RECOVERING FACTS	LITHOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION	MODERN STRATIGRAPHY	SECONDARY STRATIGRAPHY	MODERNITY	PHOTODUPLICATION PLATE			
76.2				ARGILLACEOUS LIMESTONE, WHITE TO GREY, SUBHORIZONTAL, WELL INDURATED MERT. HARD. EXTENSIVE SOLUTION FRACTURES PIPE FILLED WITH REDDISH CLAY. GREEN STAIN. SOME LUNATE FRAGMENTAL BITUMEN	MODERN TO FINELY INTERBEDDED ARGILLACEOUS LITHOLOGICAL TEXTURE	EXTENSIVE SOLUTION FEATURES PIPE DIMENSIONS 2-3 CM X 1/2" IN DIA. MODERN STRATIGRAPHY, FRACTURE PERMEABILITY	MODERATE FRACTURE AND SOLUTION VOID POROSITY	N/A			
76.8				ARGILLACEOUS LIMESTONE, GREY, SUBHORIZONTAL, WELL INDURATED MERT. HARD. SUBHORIZONTAL ATTITUDE, EXTENSIVE SOLUTION FRACTURES PIPE FILLED WITH REDDISH CLAY. GREEN STAIN. SOME LUNATE FRAGMENTAL BITUMEN	MODERN TO FINELY INTERBEDDED ARGILLACEOUS LITHOLOGICAL TEXTURE	ARGILLACEOUS, MODERATELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL, TENSION FRACTURES, POTENTIAL IMPROVED SURFACE AT 1" DIAMETER	VERY LOW INTERPARTICLE POROSITY, LOW FRACTURE AND BEDDOLITE POROSITY	N/A			
77.4											
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DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 139				GROUND ELEVATION 200.3 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 3-32-84-514				DATE LOGGED JUNE 18, 1981			
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECOVERY PERCENT CORO	RECOVERY PERCENT	UNLOGGED INTERVAL	ADJACENT STRATA	SECTORIAL UNDOGS	ADJACENT
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DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 148				GROUND ELEVATION 320.77 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION S-32-94-304				DATE LOGGED JUNE 25, 1980			
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC STRAT.	RECOVERY PERCENT CORRE	RECOVERY PERCENT	UNIT/LOGIC DEPOSITION	INFILLABLE SANDSTONE	INFILLABLE SANDSTONE	LOG
30.2							
30.1							
30.0							
29.9							
29.8							
29.7							
29.6							
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DEVONIAN WHITEWATER FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 141				GROUND ELEVATION: 319.85 MRS.			
COREHOLE LOCATION: 8-32-94-SM4				DATE LOGGED: JUNE 29, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING SYMBOLS	RECOVERY (PERCENT SWH)	GROUND RECOVERY (PERCENT SWH)	RECOVERY (PERCENT SWH)	RECOVERY (PERCENT SWH)	RECOVERY (PERCENT SWH)	RECOVERY (PERCENT SWH)
01.0							
02.0							
03.0							
04.0							
05.0							
06.0							
07.0							
08.0							
09.0							
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89.0							
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97.0							
98.0							
99.0							
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DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 145				GROUND ELEVATION 328.3 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 11-Y-84-1004				DATE LOGGED JUNE 11, 1981			
DEPTH FEET	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
67.0							
67.5							
68.0							
68.5							
69.0							
69.5							
70.0							
70.5							
71.0							
71.5							
72.0							
72.5							
73.0							
73.5							
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100.0							

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 146				GROUND ELEVATION: 313.2 MRS.			
COREHOLE LOCATION: 12-2-94-10U4				DATE LOGGED: JUNE 18, 1981			
DEPTH METERS	RECONSTRUCTED STRATA	RECONSTRUCTED CORE	RECONSTRUCTED FACIES	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	POSSIBILITY
52.5							
53.0							
53.5							
54.0							
54.5							
55.0							
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56.5							
57.0							
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DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG									
DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION									
COREHOLE NO. 147									
GROUND ELEVATION: 311.45 MSL									
DATE LOGGED: JULY 27, 1961									
COREHOLE LOCATION: 4-11-94 NW/4									
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECORDED STRONG CORRELATION	RECORDED FACIES	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	POSSIBILITY	NOTED CORRELATION	LOG
59.2				ARGILLACEOUS Limestone, WHITE TO GREY MICROCRYSTALLINE, WELL INDURATED VERY SUBHORIZONTAL, ATTITUDE, OCC. ARGILLACEOUS STRINGS, SOME WEATHERING DISCOLORATION, OCC. BULLHEAD ZONE, SOME FLUOR. BRACHIOPODS	MASSIVE, MICRITIC TEXTURE, SOME INTERBEDDED ARGILLACEOUS BEDDING, HARDENING	WIDELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL TENSION FRACTURES, SOME BOLDING, FRACTURE PERMEABILITY POTENTIALLY ANISOTROPIC	VERY LOW INTERPARTICLE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	59.2	59.2
59.1								59.1	59.1
59.0								59.0	59.0
58.9								58.9	58.9
58.8								58.8	58.8
58.7								58.7	58.7
58.6								58.6	58.6
58.5								58.5	58.5
58.4								58.4	58.4
58.3								58.3	58.3
58.2								58.2	58.2
58.1								58.1	58.1
58.0								58.0	58.0
57.9								57.9	57.9
57.8								57.8	57.8
57.7								57.7	57.7
57.6								57.6	57.6
57.5								57.5	57.5
57.4								57.4	57.4
57.3								57.3	57.3
57.2								57.2	57.2
57.1								57.1	57.1
57.0								57.0	57.0
56.9								56.9	56.9
56.8								56.8	56.8
56.7								56.7	56.7
56.6								56.6	56.6
56.5								56.5	56.5
56.4								56.4	56.4
56.3								56.3	56.3
56.2								56.2	56.2
56.1								56.1	56.1
56.0								56.0	56.0
55.9								55.9	55.9
55.8								55.8	55.8
55.7								55.7	55.7
55.6								55.6	55.6
55.5								55.5	55.5
55.4								55.4	55.4
55.3								55.3	55.3
55.2								55.2	55.2
55.1								55.1	55.1
55.0								55.0	55.0
54.9								54.9	54.9
54.8								54.8	54.8
54.7								54.7	54.7
54.6								54.6	54.6
54.5								54.5	54.5
54.4								54.4	54.4
54.3								54.3	54.3
54.2								54.2	54.2
54.1								54.1	54.1
54.0								54.0	54.0
53.9								53.9	53.9
53.8								53.8	53.8
53.7								53.7	53.7
53.6								53.6	53.6
53.5								53.5	53.5
53.4								53.4	53.4
53.3								53.3	53.3
53.2								53.2	53.2
53.1								53.1	53.1
53.0								53.0	53.0
52.9								52.9	52.9
52.8								52.8	52.8
52.7								52.7	52.7
52.6								52.6	52.6
52.5								52.5	52.5
52.4								52.4	52.4
52.3								52.3	52.3
52.2								52.2	52.2
52.1								52.1	52.1
52.0								52.0	52.0
51.9								51.9	51.9
51.8								51.8	51.8
51.7								51.7	51.7
51.6								51.6	51.6
51.5								51.5	51.5
51.4								51.4	51.4
51.3								51.3	51.3
51.2								51.2	51.2
51.1								51.1	51.1
51.0								51.0	51.0
50.9								50.9	50.9
50.8								50.8	50.8
50.7								50.7	50.7
50.6								50.6	50.6
50.5								50.5	50.5
50.4								50.4	50.4
50.3								50.3	50.3
50.2								50.2	50.2
50.1								50.1	50.1
50.0								50.0	50.0
49.9								49.9	49.9
49.8								49.8	49.8
49.7								49.7	49.7
49.6								49.6	49.6
49.5								49.5	49.5
49.4								49.4	49.4
49.3								49.3	49.3
49.2								49.2	49.2
49.1								49.1	49.1
49.0								49.0	49.0
48.9								48.9	48.9
48.8								48.8	48.8
48.7								48.7	48.7
48.6								48.6	48.6
48.5								48.5	48.5
48.4								48.4	48.4
48.3								48.3	48.3
48.2								48.2	48.2
48.1								48.1	48.1
48.0								48.0	48.0
47.9								47.9	47.9
47.8								47.8	47.8
47.7								47.7	47.7
47.6								47.6	47.6
47.5								47.5	47.5
47.4								47.4	47.4
47.3								47.3	47.3
47.2								47.2	47.2
47.1								47.1	47.1
47.0								47.0	47.0
46.9								46.9	46.9
46.8								46.8	46.8
46.7								46.7	46.7
46.6								46.6	46.6
46.5								46.5	46.5
46.4								46.4	46.4
46.3								46.3	46.3
46.2								46.2	46.2
46.1								46.1	46.1
46.0								46.0	46.0
45.9								45.9	45.9
45.8								45.8	45.8
45.7								45.7	45.7
45.6								45.6	45.6
45.5								45.5	45.5
45.4								45.4	45.4
45.3								45.3	45.3
45.2								45.2	45.2
45.1								45.1	45.1
45.0								45.0	45.0
44.9								44.9	44.9
44.8								44.8	44.8
44.7								44.7	44.7
44.6								44.6	44.6
44.5								44.5	44.5
44.4								44.4	44.4
44.3								44.3	44.3
44.2								44.2	44.2
44.1								44.1	44.1
44.0								44.0	44.0
43.9								43.9	43.9
43.8								43.8	43.8
43.7								43.7	43.7
43.6								43.6	43.6
43.5								43.5	43.5
43.4								43.4	43.4
43.3								43.3	43.3
43.2								43.2	43.2
43.1								43.1	43.1
43.0								43.0	43.0
42.9								42.9	42.9
42.8								42.8	42.8
42.7								42.7	42.7
42.6								42.6	42.6
42.5								42.5	42.5
42.4								42.4	42.4
42.3								42.3	42.3
42.2								42.2	42.2
42.1								42.1	42.1
42.0								42.0	42.0
41.9								41.9	41.9
41.8								41.8	41.8
41.7								41.7	41.7
41.6								41.6	41.6
41.5								41.5	41.5
41.4								41.4	41.4
41.3								41.3	41.3
41.2								41.2	41.2
41.1								41.1	41.1
41.0								41.0	41.0
40.9								40.9	40.9
40.8								40.8	40.8
40.7									

DEVIATION WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG				
COREHOLE NO. 145				GROUND ELEVATION 321.53 MRS.				
COREHOLE LOCATION 2-12-94-M04				DATE LOGGED AUGUST 17, 1981				
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED CORE	RECONSTRUCTED FACTS	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	MINOR STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	POSSIBLE	HYDROLOGIC POROSITY
80.0								
81.0				ARGILLACEOUS LIVERSTONE, WHITE TO GREY, MICROCRYSTALLINE, WELL INCLINATED VERY HARD, SUBHORIZONTAL, ATTITUDE, SOME FRAG.	POSSIBLY TO FINELY INTERBEDDED, EPS MICRITIC TEXTURE	CLOSELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL TENSION FRACTURES, WIDELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL FRACTURES, SOME BUILDUP, FRACTURE PERMEABILITY	VERY LOW INTERPARTICLE POROSITY, LOW FRACTURE POROSITY	58
82.0								57
83.0								57
84.0				CONGLOMERATE, LIVERSTONE, WHITE TO GREY, MICROCRYSTALLINE, WELL INCLINATED VERY HARD, SUBHORIZONTAL, ATTITUDE	POSSIBLY TO FINELY INTERBEDDED, EPS MICRITIC TEXTURE	CLOSELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL TENSION FRACTURES, WIDELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL FRACTURES, SOME BUILDUP, FRACTURE PERMEABILITY	VERY LOW INTERPARTICLE POROSITY, LOW FRACTURE POROSITY	57
85.0								57
86.0								57
87.0								57
88.0								57
89.0								57
90.0								57
91.0								57
92.0								57
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140.0								57
141.0								57
142.0								57
143.0								57
144.0								57
145.0								57

[illegible]

[illegible]

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 154				GROUND ELEVATION 323.47 MRS.			
COREHOLE LOCATION 9-13-94-004				DATE LOGGED SEPTEMBER 9, 1990			
DEPTH METERS	RECOVERY PERCENT	RECOVERY PERCENT COR.	RECOVERY PERCENT FACIES	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	PERMEABILITY
30.0							
31.0							
32.0							
33.0							
34.0							
35.0							
36.0							
37.0							
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DEVIATION WATERWAYS FORMATION		DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG	
COREHOLE NO. 155		GROUND ELEVATION 221.8 MBL	
COREHOLE LOCATION 11-12-84-180A		DATE LOGGED JUNE 8, 1981	
DEPTH METERS	DEPTH FEET	GENERAL STRATIGRAPHIC POSITION	REMARKS
00.0	0.0	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
01.0	3.3	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
02.0	6.6	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
03.0	9.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
04.0	13.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
05.0	16.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
06.0	19.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
07.0	23.0	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
08.0	26.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
09.0	29.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
10.0	32.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
11.0	36.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
12.0	39.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
13.0	42.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
14.0	45.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
15.0	49.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
16.0	52.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
17.0	55.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
18.0	59.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
19.0	62.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
20.0	65.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
21.0	68.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
22.0	72.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
23.0	75.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
24.0	78.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
25.0	82.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
26.0	85.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
27.0	88.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
28.0	91.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
29.0	95.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
30.0	98.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
31.0	101.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
32.0	105.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
33.0	108.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
34.0	111.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
35.0	114.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
36.0	118.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
37.0	121.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
38.0	124.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
39.0	128.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
40.0	131.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
41.0	134.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
42.0	137.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
43.0	141.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
44.0	144.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
45.0	147.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
46.0	151.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
47.0	154.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
48.0	157.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
49.0	160.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
50.0	164.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
51.0	167.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
52.0	170.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
53.0	174.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
54.0	177.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
55.0	180.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
56.0	183.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
57.0	187.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
58.0	190.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
59.0	193.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
60.0	197.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
61.0	200.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
62.0	203.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
63.0	206.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
64.0	210.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
65.0	213.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
66.0	216.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
67.0	220.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
68.0	223.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
69.0	226.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
70.0	229.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
71.0	233.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
72.0	236.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
73.0	239.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
74.0	243.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
75.0	246.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
76.0	249.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
77.0	252.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
78.0	256.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
79.0	259.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
80.0	262.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
81.0	266.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
82.0	269.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
83.0	272.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
84.0	275.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
85.0	279.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
86.0	282.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
87.0	285.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
88.0	289.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
89.0	292.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
90.0	295.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
91.0	298.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
92.0	302.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
93.0	305.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
94.0	308.8	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
95.0	312.1	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
96.0	315.4	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
97.0	318.7	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
98.0	321.9	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
99.0	325.2	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	
100.0	328.5	DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION	

DEVIATION WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 101				GROUND ELEVATION 317.80 FEET			
COREHOLE LOCATION 9-14-94-NB44				DATE LOGGED AUGUST 6, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED SYMBOL	GROUND ELEVATION (FEET)	RECONSTRUCTED SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED SYMBOL
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DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION									
COREHOLE NO. 184									
COREHOLE LOCATION: 14-24-94 1044									
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECOVERY PERCENT COR.	REDSIGNED FACIES	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	BEDDING	CLASSIFICATION	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
52.2				SAND/CLAY, DE. BROWN, BEDDED, NON-CONFORMABLE					
53.6				CLAY/BROWN, FINE, BEDDED, NON-CONFORMABLE					
54.8				CLAY/SAND, GREY TO OLIVE, FINE, BEDDED, NON-CONFORMABLE					
55.8				INTERBEDDED MEDIUM GRAINED SAND STRATIGERS, BEDDED					
57.0									
58.2									
59.4									
60.6									
61.8									
63.0				LITHOLOGIC INTERFACIAL BEDDING, WHITE TO GREY					
64.2				SUBSOLUBLE LITHOLOGIC BEDDING, WHITE TO GREY					
65.4				SUBSOLUBLE CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
66.6				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
67.8				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
69.0				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
70.2				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
71.4				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
72.6				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
73.8				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
75.0				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
76.2				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
77.4				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
78.6				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
79.8				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
81.0				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
82.2				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
83.4				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
84.6				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
85.8				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
87.0				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
88.2				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
89.4				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					
90.6				CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED, CLAY, WHITE, DISTURBED					

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. M65				GROUND ELEVATION 315.28 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 5-25-94-M64				DATE LOGGED JULY 8, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LOGGING SYMBOL	RECOVERY (PERCENT)	GRIND ANALYSIS	TEXTURAL DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	TERTIARY STRUCTURE
10.1				LIMONITE CLAY/SLT. GRY. FISSILE. WELL ORIENTED NON-CLAYED. SOME SAND INTERBED. DOG. BITUMINOUS STRONG. CHROMOGENOUS PARTICLES. DOG. WHITE MIDDLE	LIMONITE. SOME INTERBEDDED SANDY HORIZONS. SOME BITUMINOUS STRONG	WIDELY SPACED SUBHORIZONTAL TENSION FRACTURES. SOME WEATHERING. FRACTURE PERMEABILITY	VERY LOW INTERSTITIAL POROSITY. LOW FRACTURE POROSITY
10.2							
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20.0							

DEVIATION WATERWAYS FORMATION		DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG						
COREHOLE NO. 166		GROUND ELEVATION: 318.8 MRS.						
COREHOLE LOCATION: 7-25 94-1044		DATE LOGGED: JULY 9, 1980						
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECOVERY PRESSURE CORRECTION	SEALANT FACIES	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	PERMEABILITY	BIOTIC/ABOTIC
54.5								
55.0								
55.5								
56.0								
56.5								
57.0								
57.5								
58.0								
58.5								
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DEVIATION UNIFORMITY FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COR-HOLE LOG			
CORE-HOLE NO. 80				GROUND ELEVATION 311.53 MSL			
CORE-HOLE LOCATION 8-26-54 1814				DATE LOGGED JULY 9, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	DEPTH (METERS)	DEPTH (FEET)	DEPTH (METERS)	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	POSSIBILITY	REMARKS
31.7				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
30.4				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
29.1				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
28.8				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
27.5				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
26.2				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
24.9				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
23.6				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
22.3				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
21.0				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
19.7				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
18.4				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
17.1				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
15.8				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
14.5				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
13.2				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
11.9				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
10.6				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
9.3				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
8.0				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
6.7				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
5.4				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
4.1				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
2.8				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
1.5				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A
0.2				LOWERS TO FINELY BEDDED LITHOLOGY	WIDELY SPACED SUB-HORIZONTAL FRACTURES	VERY LOW INTERMEDIATE AND FRACTURE POROSITY	N/A

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORRELATION LOG			
CORRELATION NO. 178				GROUND ELEVATION 300.52 1992			
CORRELATION LOCATION 8-27-54 1814				DATE LOGGED JULY 9, 1980			
DEPTH (FEET)	GENERAL STRATIGRAPHY	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
36.0							
36.2							
36.4							
37.4							
38.0							
38.6							
38.8							
39.0							
39.2							
39.4							
39.6							
39.8							
40.0							
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40.6							
40.8							
41.0							
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41.4							
41.6							
41.8							
42.0							
42.2							
42.4							
42.6							
42.8							
43.0							
43.2							
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92.0							
92.2							
92.4							
92.6							
92.8							
93.0							

DEVIATION WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 171				GROUND ELEVATION 385.17 MBSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 9-77-94-1844				DATE LOGGED: JULY 18, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	DEPTH (METERS)	LOGGING INTERVAL	GROUND SURFACE	SECTION	STRATIGRAPHIC UNIT	ROCK STR. TYPE	ROCK STR. DESCRIPTION
0.0	0.0						
1.0	1.0						
2.0	2.0						
3.0	3.0						
4.0	4.0						
5.0	5.0						
6.0	6.0						
7.0	7.0						
8.0	8.0						
9.0	9.0						
10.0	10.0						
11.0	11.0						
12.0	12.0						
13.0	13.0						
14.0	14.0						
15.0	15.0						
16.0	16.0						
17.0	17.0						
18.0	18.0						
19.0	19.0						
20.0	20.0						
21.0	21.0						
22.0	22.0						
23.0	23.0						
24.0	24.0						
25.0	25.0						
26.0	26.0						
27.0	27.0						
28.0	28.0						
29.0	29.0						
30.0	30.0						
31.0	31.0						
32.0	32.0						
33.0	33.0						
34.0	34.0						
35.0	35.0						
36.0	36.0						
37.0	37.0						
38.0	38.0						
39.0	39.0						
40.0	40.0						
41.0	41.0						
42.0	42.0						
43.0	43.0						
44.0	44.0						
45.0	45.0						
46.0	46.0						
47.0	47.0						
48.0	48.0						
49.0	49.0						
50.0	50.0						
51.0	51.0						
52.0	52.0						
53.0	53.0						
54.0	54.0						
55.0	55.0						
56.0	56.0						
57.0	57.0						
58.0	58.0						
59.0	59.0						
60.0	60.0						
61.0	61.0						
62.0	62.0						
63.0	63.0						
64.0	64.0						
65.0	65.0						
66.0	66.0						
67.0	67.0						
68.0	68.0						
69.0	69.0						
70.0	70.0						
71.0	71.0						
72.0	72.0						
73.0	73.0						
74.0	74.0						
75.0	75.0						
76.0	76.0						
77.0	77.0						
78.0	78.0						
79.0	79.0						
80.0	80.0						
81.0	81.0						
82.0	82.0						
83.0	83.0						
84.0	84.0						
85.0	85.0						
86.0	86.0						
87.0	87.0						
88.0	88.0						
89.0	89.0						
90.0	90.0						
91.0	91.0						
92.0	92.0						
93.0	93.0						
94.0	94.0						
95.0	95.0						
96.0	96.0						
97.0	97.0						
98.0	98.0						
99.0	99.0						
100.0	100.0						

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 172				GROUND ELEVATION 30.71 MBSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION: 18-27-94-1804				DATE LOGGED: JULY 8, 1981			
DEPTH (MBSL)	DEPTH (FEET)	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
29.7	29.7						
30.0	30.0						
30.3	30.3						
30.6	30.6						
30.9	30.9						
31.2	31.2						
31.5	31.5						
31.8	31.8						
32.1	32.1						
32.4	32.4						
32.7	32.7						
33.0	33.0						
33.3	33.3						
33.6	33.6						
33.9	33.9						
34.2	34.2						
34.5	34.5						
34.8	34.8						
35.1	35.1						
35.4	35.4						
35.7	35.7						
36.0	36.0						
36.3	36.3						
36.6	36.6						
36.9	36.9						
37.2	37.2						
37.5	37.5						
37.8	37.8						
38.1	38.1						
38.4	38.4						
38.7	38.7						
39.0	39.0						
39.3	39.3						
39.6	39.6						
39.9	39.9						
40.2	40.2						
40.5	40.5						
40.8	40.8						
41.1	41.1						
41.4	41.4						
41.7	41.7						
42.0	42.0						
42.3	42.3						
42.6	42.6						
42.9	42.9						
43.2	43.2						
43.5	43.5						
43.8	43.8						
44.1	44.1						
44.4	44.4						
44.7	44.7						
45.0	45.0						
45.3	45.3						
45.6	45.6						
45.9	45.9						
46.2	46.2						
46.5	46.5						
46.8	46.8						
47.1	47.1						
47.4	47.4						
47.7	47.7						
48.0	48.0						
48.3	48.3						
48.6	48.6						
48.9	48.9						
49.2	49.2						
49.5	49.5						
49.8	49.8						
50.1	50.1						
50.4	50.4						
50.7	50.7						
51.0	51.0						
51.3	51.3						
51.6	51.6						
51.9	51.9						
52.2	52.2						
52.5	52.5						
52.8	52.8						
53.1	53.1						
53.4	53.4						
53.7	53.7						
54.0	54.0						

DEMONSTRATION WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORRELATION LOG			
CORRELATION NO. 177				GROUND ELEVATION 208.15 MSL			
CORRELATION LOCATION 18-34-84-1824				DATE LOGGED JULY 9, 1961			
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
43.7							
44.4							
45.1							
45.8							
46.5							
47.2							
47.9							
48.6							
49.3							
50.0							
50.7							
51.4							
52.1							
52.8							
53.5							
54.2							
54.9							
55.6							
56.3							
57.0							
57.7							
58.4							
59.1							
59.8							
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105.3							
106.0							
106.7							
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224.3							
225.0							
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227.1							
227.8							
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229.2							
229.9							
230.6							
231.3							
232.0							
232.7							
233.4							
234.1							

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 179				GROUND ELEVATION 388.86 MGS.			
COREHOLE LOCATION 1-35-34-1014				DATE LOGGED JUNE 29, 1981			
DEPTH (FEET)	LITHOLOGICAL SYMBOL	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
38.3							
38.8							
39.3							
39.8							
40.3							
40.8							
41.3							
41.8							
42.3							
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65.3							
65.8							

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION			DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG		
COREHOLE NO. 101			GROUND ELEVATION 306.14 MMSL		
COREHOLE LOCATION 10-25-94-101A			DATE LOGGED AUGUST 17, 1981		
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGICAL STRATA	RECOVERY PERCENT CORRECTION	RECOVERY PERCENT	LITHOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION	RECOVERY STRUCTURE
36.0					
36.5					
37.0					
37.5					
38.0					
38.5					
39.0					
39.5					
40.0					
40.5					
41.0					
41.5					
42.0					
42.5					
43.0					
43.5					
44.0					
44.5					
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79.0					
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80.0					
80.5					
81.0					
81.5					
82.0					
82.5					
83.0					
83.5					
84.0					
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85.0					
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86.0					
86.5					
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87.5					
88.0					
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92.5					
93.0					
93.5					
94.0					
94.5					
95.0					
95.5					
96.0					
96.5					
97.0					
97.5					
98.0					
98.5					
99.0					
99.5					
100.0					

[illegible]

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		DESCRIPTIVE CORRELOG LOG				
CORRELOG NO. 187		GROUND ELEVATION 311.44 MSL				
CORRELOG LOCATION 4-30-34-1814		DATE LOGGED JUNE 29, 1981				
DEPTH (FEET)	DEPTH (METERS)	REMARKS	STRUCTURE	TEXTURE	STRUCTURE	TEXTURE
187.7	58.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
187.6	58.0					
187.5	57.9					
187.4	57.8					
187.3	57.7					
187.2	57.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
187.1	57.5					
187.0	57.4					
186.9	57.3					
186.8	57.2					
186.7	57.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
186.6	57.0					
186.5	56.9					
186.4	56.8					
186.3	56.7					
186.2	56.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
186.1	56.5					
186.0	56.4					
185.9	56.3					
185.8	56.2					
185.7	56.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
185.6	56.0					
185.5	55.9					
185.4	55.8					
185.3	55.7					
185.2	55.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
185.1	55.5					
185.0	55.4					
184.9	55.3					
184.8	55.2					
184.7	55.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
184.6	55.0					
184.5	54.9					
184.4	54.8					
184.3	54.7					
184.2	54.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
184.1	54.5					
184.0	54.4					
183.9	54.3					
183.8	54.2					
183.7	54.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
183.6	54.0					
183.5	53.9					
183.4	53.8					
183.3	53.7					
183.2	53.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
183.1	53.5					
183.0	53.4					
182.9	53.3					
182.8	53.2					
182.7	53.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
182.6	53.0					
182.5	52.9					
182.4	52.8					
182.3	52.7					
182.2	52.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
182.1	52.5					
182.0	52.4					
181.9	52.3					
181.8	52.2					
181.7	52.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
181.6	52.0					
181.5	51.9					
181.4	51.8					
181.3	51.7					
181.2	51.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
181.1	51.5					
181.0	51.4					
180.9	51.3					
180.8	51.2					
180.7	51.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
180.6	51.0					
180.5	50.9					
180.4	50.8					
180.3	50.7					
180.2	50.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
180.1	50.5					
180.0	50.4					
179.9	50.3					
179.8	50.2					
179.7	50.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
179.6	50.0					
179.5	49.9					
179.4	49.8					
179.3	49.7					
179.2	49.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
179.1	49.5					
179.0	49.4					
178.9	49.3					
178.8	49.2					
178.7	49.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
178.6	49.0					
178.5	48.9					
178.4	48.8					
178.3	48.7					
178.2	48.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
178.1	48.5					
178.0	48.4					
177.9	48.3					
177.8	48.2					
177.7	48.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
177.6	48.0					
177.5	47.9					
177.4	47.8					
177.3	47.7					
177.2	47.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
177.1	47.5					
177.0	47.4					
176.9	47.3					
176.8	47.2					
176.7	47.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
176.6	47.0					
176.5	46.9					
176.4	46.8					
176.3	46.7					
176.2	46.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
176.1	46.5					
176.0	46.4					
175.9	46.3					
175.8	46.2					
175.7	46.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
175.6	46.0					
175.5	45.9					
175.4	45.8					
175.3	45.7					
175.2	45.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
175.1	45.5					
175.0	45.4					
174.9	45.3					
174.8	45.2					
174.7	45.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
174.6	45.0					
174.5	44.9					
174.4	44.8					
174.3	44.7					
174.2	44.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
174.1	44.5					
174.0	44.4					
173.9	44.3					
173.8	44.2					
173.7	44.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
173.6	44.0					
173.5	43.9					
173.4	43.8					
173.3	43.7					
173.2	43.6	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
173.1	43.5					
173.0	43.4					
172.9	43.3					
172.8	43.2					
172.7	43.1	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE	FINE CRYSTALLINE
172.6	43.0					
172.5	42.9					
172.4	42.8					
172.3	42.7					

[illegible]

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CONCHOLE LOG			
CONCHOLE NO. 182				GROUND ELEVATION 328.40 MSL			
CONCHOLE LOCATION: 8-32-94-944				DATE LOGGED: AUGUST 18, 1981			
DEPTH METERS	RECOVERY PERCENT CORO	RECOVERY PERCENT STRAL	RECOVERY PERCENT SAND	RECOVERY PERCENT SAND	RECOVERY PERCENT SAND	RECOVERY PERCENT SAND	RECOVERY PERCENT SAND
182.7							
182.4							
182.1							
181.8							
181.5							
181.2							
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180.6							
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180.0							
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99.0							
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98.4							
98.1							
97.8							

DEVIATION WATERWAYS FORMATION			DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG					
COREHOLE NO. 193			GROUND ELEVATION 321.27 MSL					
COREHOLE LOCATION 13-25-94-S44			DATE LOGGED JULY 6, 1981					
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED STRATIGRAPHY	FIELD OBSERVATION	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	POSSIBILITY	NOTES
87.7								
88.4								
88.8								
89.2								
89.6								
90.0								
90.4								
90.8								
91.2								
91.6								
92.0								
92.4								
92.8								
93.2								
94.0								
94.7								
95.4								
96.1								
96.8								
97.5								
98.2								
98.9								
99.6								
100.3								
101.0								
101.7								
102.4								

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG					
COREHOLE NO. 194		GROUND ELEVATION 322.84 MMSL					
COREHOLE LOCATION 4-28-94-804		DATE LOGGED JULY 8, 1981					
DEPTH METERS	RECONSTRUCTED STRATIGRAPHIC COLUMN	RECONSTRUCTED LITHOLOGY	LITHOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	PERMEABILITY	NOTES
80.7							
81.4							
82.1							
82.8							
83.5							
84.2							
84.8							
85.5							
86.2							
87.0							
87.7							
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90.5							
91.2							
91.8							
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261.8							
262.5							
263.2							

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION		DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG					
COREHOLE 197		GROUND ELEVATION 323.50 MSL					
COREHOLE LOCATION 4-28-94-944		DATE LOGGED JUNE 9, 1981					
DEPTH METERS	LITHOLOGIC SYMBOL	RECONSTRUCTED STRATIGRAPHIC COLUMN	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	MODERN	PHOTOMONTAGE PLATE
80.2							
80.4							
80.6							
80.8							
81.0							
81.2							
81.4							
81.6							
81.8							
82.0							
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100.0							

DEVONIAN WATERWAYS FORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE COREHOLE LOG			
COREHOLE NO. 188				GROUND ELEVATION 325.38 MSL			
COREHOLE LOCATION 4-17-84-584				DATE LOGGED SEPTEMBER 9, 1981			
DEPTH (M)	LOGGING SYMBOL	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS	REMARKS
0.0							
0.1							
0.2							
0.3							
0.4							
0.5							
0.6							
0.7							
0.8							
0.9							
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DEVELOPER INFORMATION				DESCRIPTIVE CORRELATION LOG				
CORRELATION NO. 28				GROUND ELEVATION 327.58 MSL				
CORRELATION LOCATION 1-D-34-BM4				DATE LOGGED AUGUST 25, 1980				
DEPTH (M)	LITHOLOGIC FORM	GROUND ELEVATION (MSL)	REMARKS	LITHOLOGIC DESCRIPTION	PRIMARY STRUCTURE	SECONDARY STRUCTURE	POSSIBILITY	NOTES
26.2								
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APPENDIX B

(map pocket)

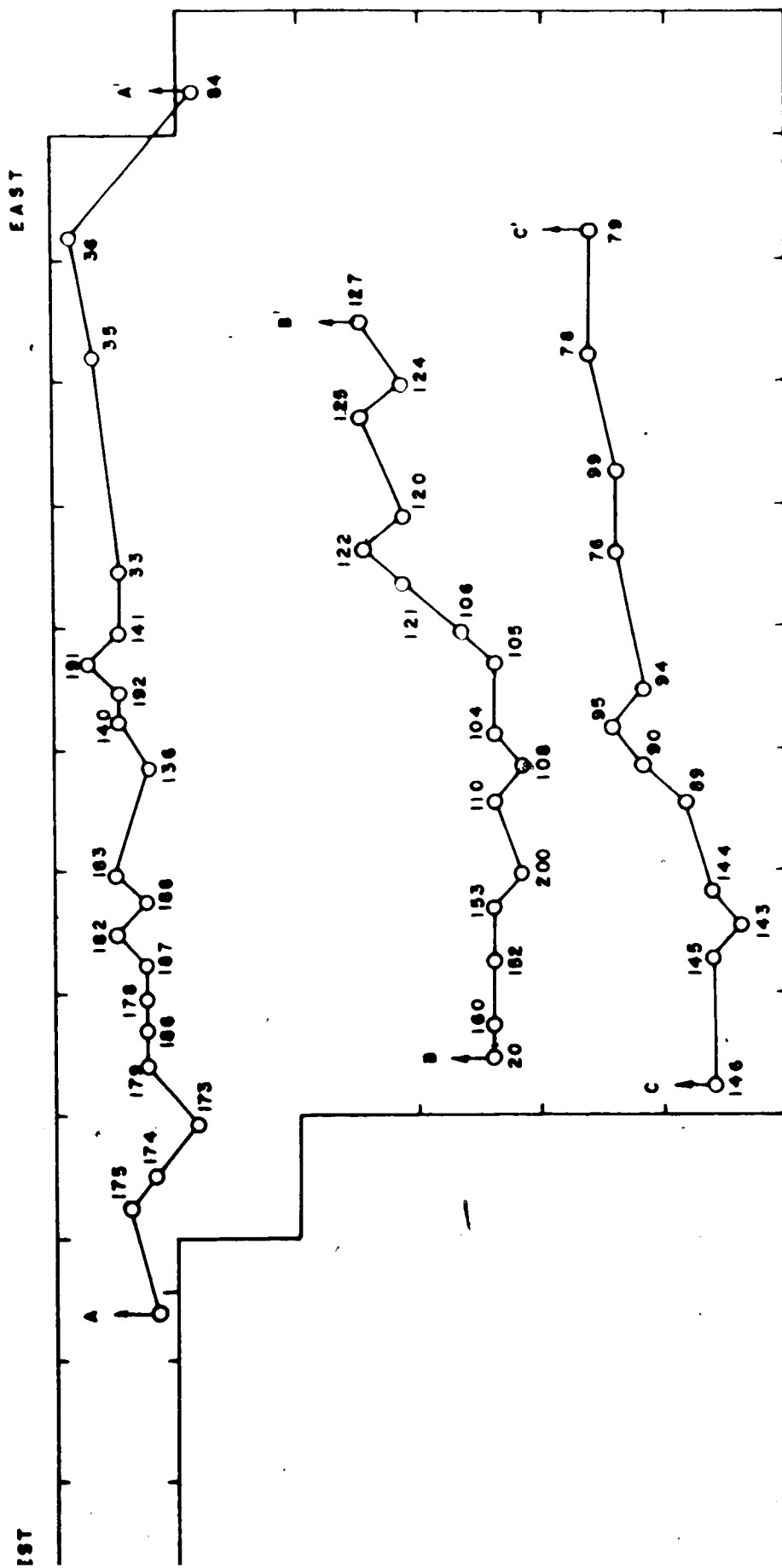


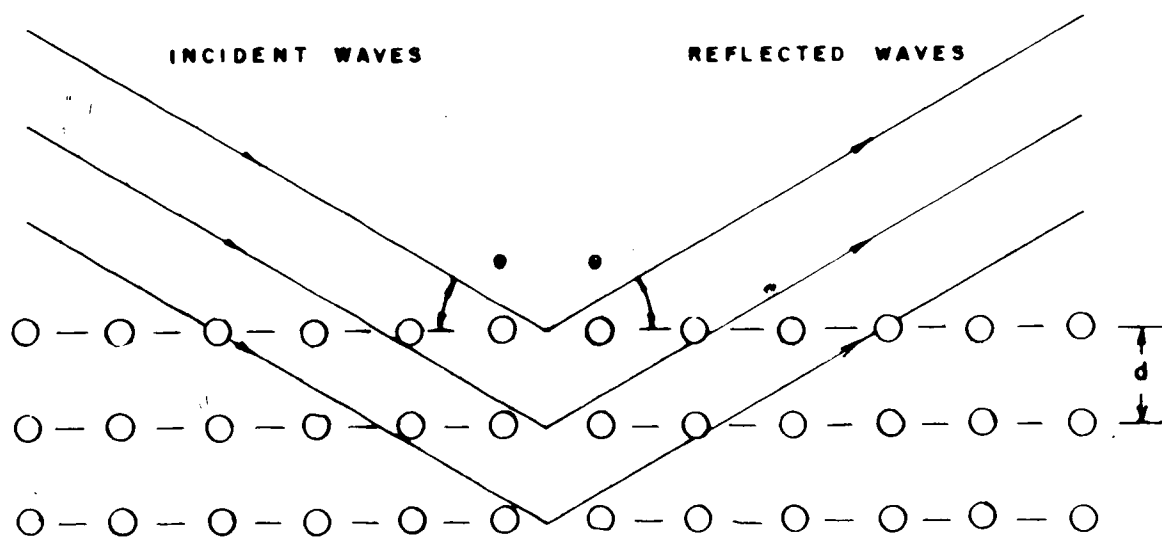
FIGURE B.1: STRATIGRAPHIC CROSS SECTION LOCATIONS

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C - X-RAY DIFFRACTION TESTS

The diffraction of high speed electrons by planes of atoms is dictated by Bragg's Law which relates the angle of diffraction (θ) to the spacing (d) of atomic planes comprising the crystal structure of the examined mineral (Figure C.1). Subsequent back-calculation of d -spacing from diffraction traces permits the identification of various clay species. Moreover, the intensity of the reflected radiation is directly proportional to the relative amount of each species present. Thus one may determine predominant mineralogical influences and provenance. Such information may be significant when swelling clays are involved. Berry and Mason (1959) provided detail concerning x-ray diffraction principles and mineralogical species.

Numerous preparatory treatments were employed in completing x-ray diffraction analyses for the present study. These were incorporated to eliminate the effects of a high carbonate content in the untreated samples. In addition, various temperature and humidity levels were employed to aid in the distinction of specific mineral species. The following preparatory procedures were completed:



$$n\lambda = 2d \sin \theta$$

- n = number of the wave front
- λ = wavelength of incoming x-rays
- d = interplanar spacing
- θ = angle of incidence/reflection of wave fronts

1. sodium acetate saturation with heating (catalyzes the dissolution of calcium carbonate)
2. Sonication, bleaching, washing (flocculates or disperses the clay-sized fractions ($<2\mu$)), followed by settling to separate the 2μ fraction. Heating in NH_3 (bleach) removes all organic particles.
3. Individual saturation in Ca,K (enhances the adsorption of Ca, K ions into unoccupied atomic positions within the phyllosilicate framework).
4. Samples are freeze-dried and subhorizontally aligned (permits the preservation of the crystal structure and provides the required enhancement of basal reflections).
5. Selected samples are saturated in ethylene-glycol and tested at various elevated temperatures (these processes enhance reflections and reveal the collapse of crystal structures upon dehydration).

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D - GEOLOGICAL FIELD TRIP

The author accompanied staff geologists from Gulf Canada Resources Inc. (Calgary) on a 3-day field trip (October 4,5,6, 1982) to explore McMurray and Waterways Formation outcrop throughout the immediate SANDALTA locale. Outcrops were studied at several locations along the MacKay and Muskeg Rivers (Figure D.1) and resulted in the discovery of several structural features.

Location 1 along the MacKay River revealed an undisturbed but well weathered Waterways exposure. Two lithologies were observed corresponding to the marbly (nodular) argillaceous and massive crystalline limestones of rock type A. The exposure displayed well-developed subhorizontal bedding and a highly weathered "nodular" texture with a rubbly talus. In fresh, unweathered core, this lithology displayed a marbly, mottled texture.

Jointing was also observed at Location 1. Two dominant subvertical sets were observed and coincided with those noted by Babcock (1975). Joints were often vertically discontinuous and appeared to be widely developed. Both sets were more well defined in the massive crystalline units than in the nodular lithologies. This was attributed to the reduced thickness and higher stiffness of the massive crystalline unit. No offsets or shear characteristics were observed along joint

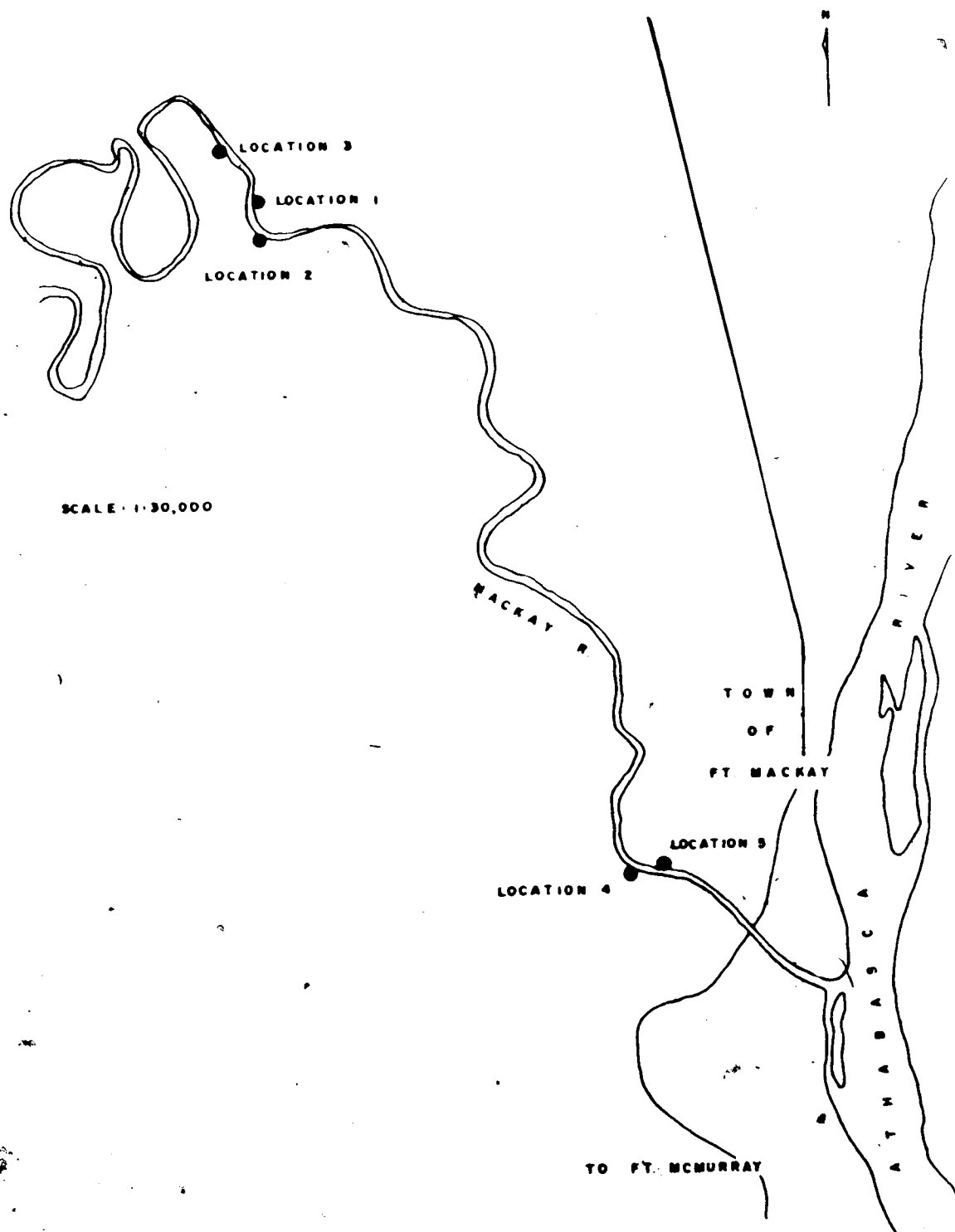


FIGURE D.1: MacKAY RIVER LOCATIONS

faces. Most joint surfaces displayed a moderately weathered tensile character. Bitumen staining was observed throughout the section and had two apparent sources:

1. Devonian organic lenses and bioclastic debris.
2. Post-Devonian fracture infiltration.

Location 2 also displayed nodular lithologies and a sedimentary structure not observed in the study core. Well-defined wave ripple marks were observed on the upper bedding plane of one exposure. The wavelength was 2-4 cm with amplitudes of 1-2 cm. The observed texture was irregular in that a nodular or lumpy appearance dominated the wave pattern. This is thought to be due to the syndepositional development of concretionary carbonate nodules or differential compaction preceding lithification. The irregular ripple pattern may also be partially attributed to irregular or wind-affected wave activity in the shallow marine environment.

In addition to wave ripple marks, a highly fossiliferous limestone unit was observed. Crinoid stems and brachiopod shells dominated the lithology and were easily identified on the exposed outcrop face. Ferrous iron-staining was also observed and a few disseminated bituminous particles were encountered.

Location 3 displayed a subhorizontal sand-filled solution cavity at the base of the western river valley wall. In section, the cavity measured approximately 4 metres long and 0.60 metres thick. It was primarily infilled with clean, medium-grained, bituminous quartz sand, however light green plastic clays were also observed at the base of the cavity. A small (<5 cm) inclined solution pipe was found leading into the cavity and was also infilled with bituminous sand and clay (Figure D.2). The orientation of the cavity appeared to be controlled by the subhorizontal bedding attitude of the host rock, however its three-dimensional character could not be established. Nearby locations on the east river bank also displayed subvertical or inclined narrow, solution pipes (<10 cm) infilled with bituminous quartz sands.

Locations 4 and 5 along the MacKay River displayed two additional features of note. Location 4 on the west bank displayed a brittle fracturing phenomenon in beds of nodular to finely interbedded argillaceous limestone. Immediately above the river bed elevation, a distinct break in one of the well-bedded limestone units was accompanied by a mild offset and rotational deformation of the beds on the eastern half of the fracture (Figure D.3). Close examination of the brittle failure surface revealed no shear characteristics such as slickensides,

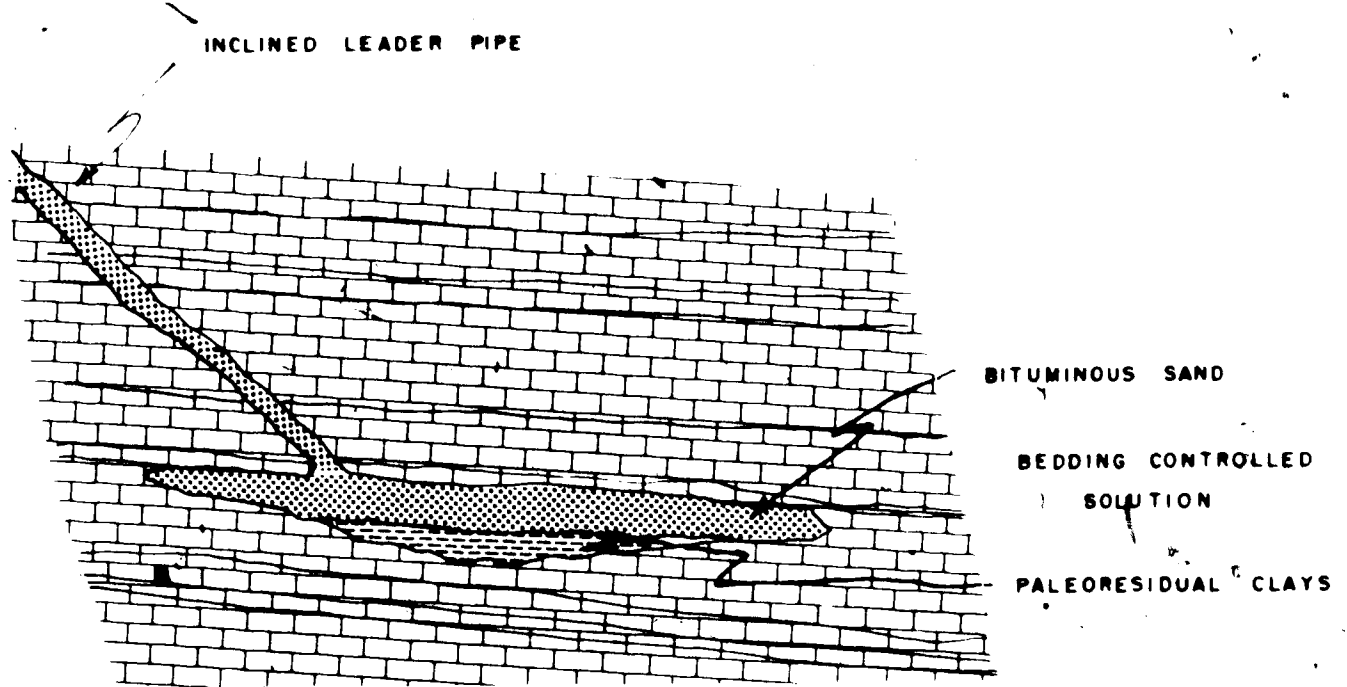


FIGURE D.2: SUBHORIZONTAL SOLUTION CAVITY

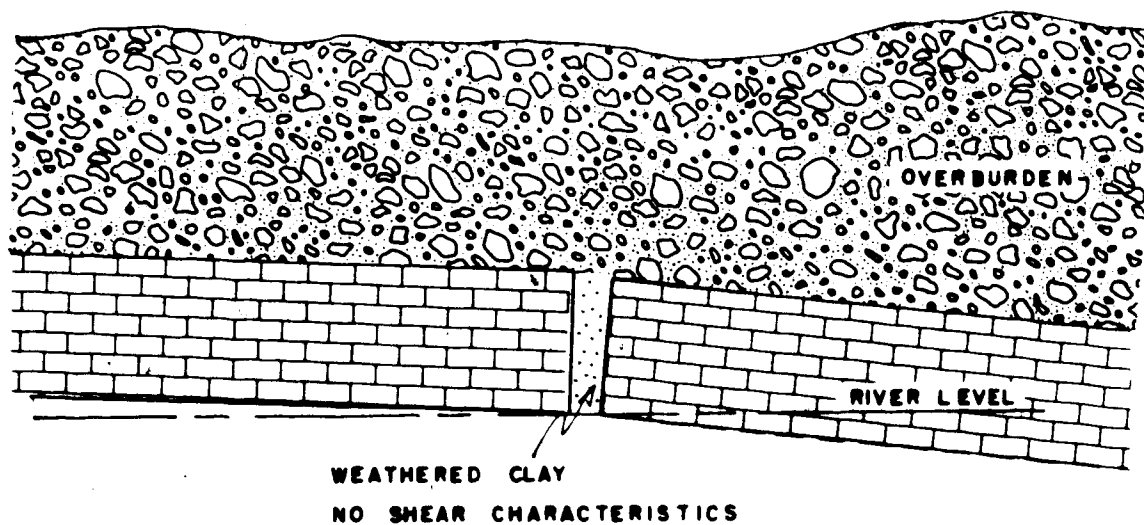


FIGURE D.3: BRITTLE FRACTURE - NO APPARENT SHEAR

however the near-vertical discontinuity was infilled with weathered olive clay and silt. This material was not interpreted to represent 'presheared rock flour or gouge, but rather post-fracture erosional detritus. The non-shear character of the feature was further supported by a lack of measurable vertical offset, however again strike slip shear could not be eliminated.

Location 5 displayed the stratigraphic relationship between the reworked light green paleosols seen throughout the core study and the darker alluvium found infilling various erosional lows in the Paleozoic surface. At site 5 the author observed a well defined weathering profile characterized by gradational changes in the argillaceous limestone upward into the plastic clays that characterize intraformational unconformities. Atop this Paleozoic sequence was a thin (<0.7 m) brown, Cretaceous clay which was in turn overlain by the bituminous sands of the McMurray Formation.

Outcrops visited along the Muskeg River (Figure D.4) also revealed stratigraphic and structural features. One of the most obvious findings was the development of near-vertical river bank cuts in the Waterways members. Again, differential weathering contributed to a very rubbly, nodular texture, however most slopes resided at greater than 80° to the horizontal. A few shallow rotational slides were observed but appeared to initiate in the

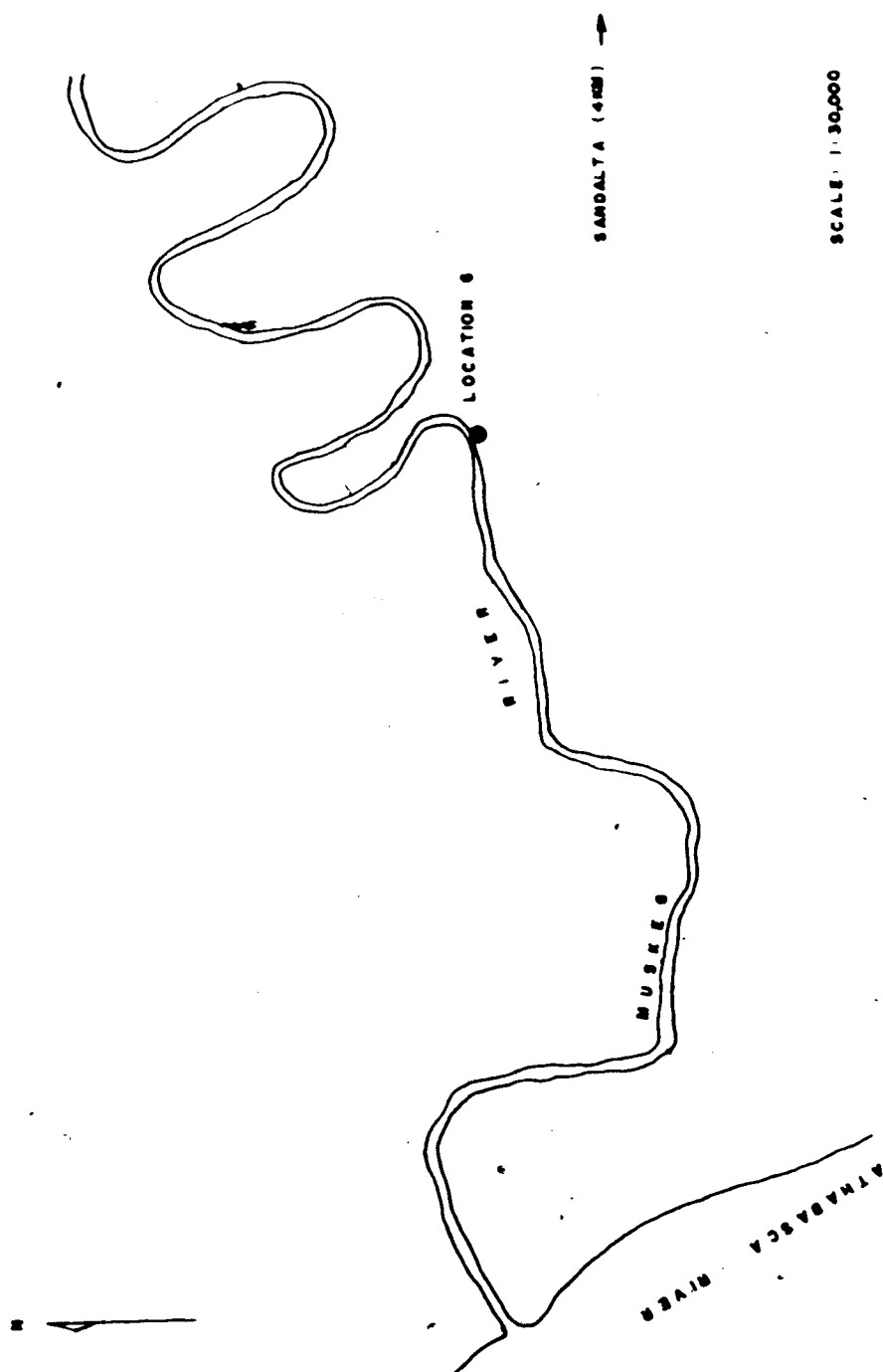


FIGURE D.4: MUSKEG RIVER LOCATIONS

overlying Cretaceous or Tertiary materials. No deep-seated Devonian instability was evident despite 20-30 metre vertical river bank walls.

Brittle fracturing of warped Waterways units was again observed at one Muskeg River outcrop. At Location 6 the author observed what appeared to represent faulting in the formation. More detailed examination revealed that little or no shear offset had occurred and that near-vertical, tensile fracturing of a local subsidence basin was the apparent mechanism.