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STRATIGRAPHY AND DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENTS  
OF THE MIDDLE DEVONIAN WATT MOUNTAIN FORMATION  
UTIKUMA LAKE AREA, ALBERTA

BY



JOHN BOURAK

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH  
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

DEPARTMENT OF GEOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL 1993



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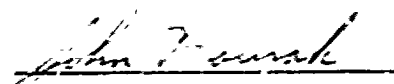
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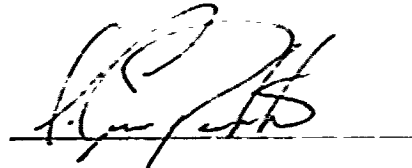


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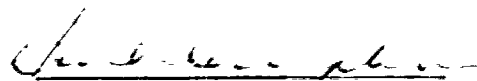
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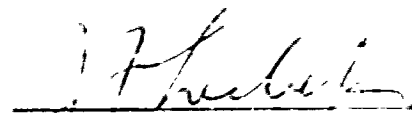
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Date August 11, 1983

## ABSTRACT

Within the Nipisi field area located in north-central Alberta, Middle Devonian Watt Mountain Formation sediments accumulated in a north-south trending trough shaped feature. This Muskeg trough evolved throughout Middle Devonian time as a result of salt solution collapse in the underlying Muskeg Formation. The Muskeg trough fill consists of six cycles of deposition which record the progradation and abandonment of lacustrine braid-delta deposits.

Four recurring facies associations collectively suggest that the Watt Mountain Formation sediments in the Muskeg trough fill were deposited in a lacustrine braid-delta paleoenvironment. The four associations are: (1) lacustrine deposits, consisting dominantly of mudstones which were mostly deposited in the central and eastward basin area, (2) marginal lacustrine deposits, which were poorly developed and included fluvial mouth-bar, beach, and barrier deposits, (3) interdistributary deposits, consisting of a wide range of facies and sequences, (4) channel deposits, comprising the braided fluvial system sourced from the east.

Production in the Nipisi oil field is from the stratigraphically trapped Middle Devonian (Givetian) Gilwood Sandstone Member of the Watt Mountain Formation. The interbedding of the Gilwood Sandstone Member with Watt Mountain mudstones suggest that sedimentation occurred in cyclical paleoenvironmental conditions. Each of the Gilwood Sandstone Member depositional periods was attributed to tectonic activity associated with the Peace River Arch, while the Watt Mountain Formation mudstones were primarily deposited during relatively quiescent periods. The reservoir is present in six laterally continuous arkosic sandstone-dominated zones which vary in areal distribution. The distribution of each layer was controlled by the shape of the Muskeg trough and variations in the hydrologic conditions that existed during sedimentation.

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I am very grateful to Marc Marshall, who provided me with a variety of thesis topics, and the opportunity to work with Shell Canada's Oil Development team. This team provided me with an exceptional work environment which stimulated many of the ideas presented in this study. In particular, I would like to thank Linda McKean for her technical help, and Rob Spitzer and Bill Stein for their guidance and support throughout this project. I would also like to thank Mike Ranger from the University of Alberta for the rights to use his AppleCore logging program.

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## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

Oil production in the Nipisi field is from the Middle Devonian (Givetian) Gilwood Sandstone Member of the Watt Mountain Formation. Nipisi is a stratigraphically trapped reservoir located on the eastward flank of the ancestral Peace River Arch. Extensive development of this reservoir has significantly increased the well control available for use in geological studies, and has provided an opportunity to reevaluate the complex distribution of Watt Mountain Formation sediments.

Successful future exploitation of the Nipisi field is dependent on the understanding of the areal distribution and continuity of the Gilwood Sandstone Member and the effect of structural controls. Therefore, the major goal of this thesis is to gain these understandings by developing a depositional history that explains Watt Mountain Formation sedimentation in the Nipisi field area.

### 1.2 Study Area and Historical Development

This study is of the Watt Mountain Formation in the unitized outline of Nipisi Gilwood Unit No. 1, located in Townships 78 to 81, Ranges 7 to 9W5M, approximately 273 km (170 miles) northwest of Edmonton (Fig. 1.1). Currently, the unitized area covers approximately 300 km<sup>2</sup>, and contains 330 producing oil wells and 76 injectors.

The discovery of the Nipisi field in 1965 was due to a prompt northward extension of the Gilwood play that followed the discovery of the Mitsue Oil field in 1964. The Nipisi field was unitized (Nipisi Gilwood Unit No. 1) in 1969, to enable the implementation of a waterflood maintenance scheme. In 1978, the Nipisi field was evaluated for the possibility of a miscible flood development project, and in 1984, the



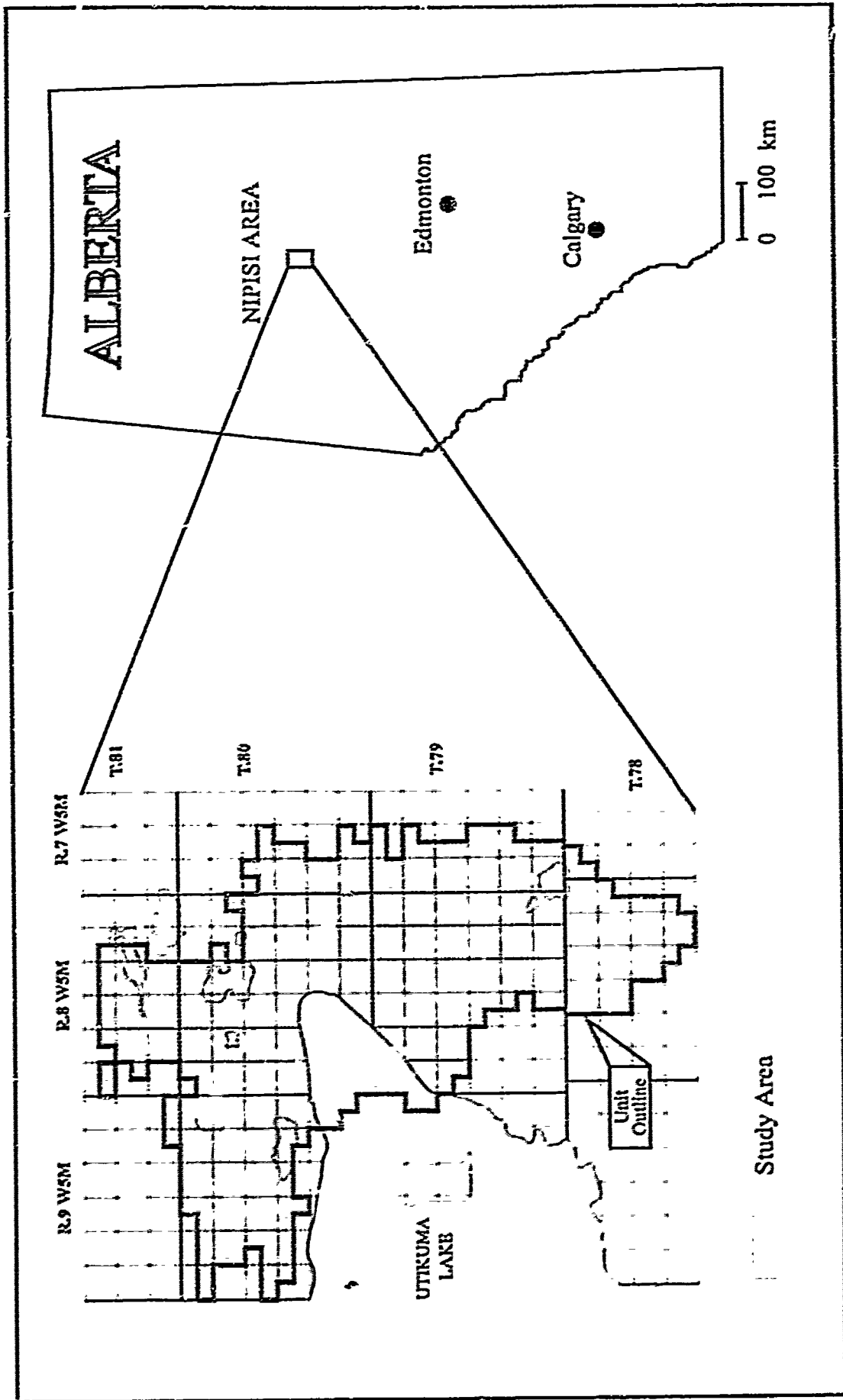


Figure 1.1 Study area location map illustrating the Gilwood Unit outline.

first miscible flood test area, named Stage I, was initiated to determine its effectiveness. Favorable production performance in Stage I prompted two further stages of miscible flood development: Stage II in 1986, and Stage III in 1988 (Fig. 1.2).

### 1.3 Goals and Objectives

The major goals of this thesis are to gain an understanding of the distribution and depositional nature of the Gilwood sandstones, and develop a geological model that will aid in the exploitation strategies of the Gilwood sandstone reservoir in the Nipisi field area.

The primary objectives were:

- (1) to define sedimentary facies and vertical facies relationships in the Watt Mountain Formation;
- (2) to develop a depositional facies model for the Watt Mountain Formation,
- (3) to determine the influence and origin of the structural controls imposed on the Watt Mountain Formation;
- (4) to map the distribution of the Gilwood Sandstone Member reservoir zones, and,
- (5) to develop a depositional history of the Watt Mountain Formation.

The objectives of this study were accomplished by developing an extensive database using 52 core descriptions and 303 digitized mechanical well logs in the Nipisi field area (Fig. 1.3).

#### (1) Drill core descriptions

A total of fifty-two drill cores in the Nipisi field area were examined in Calgary at either the Energy Resource Conservation Board core research facility or the Shell

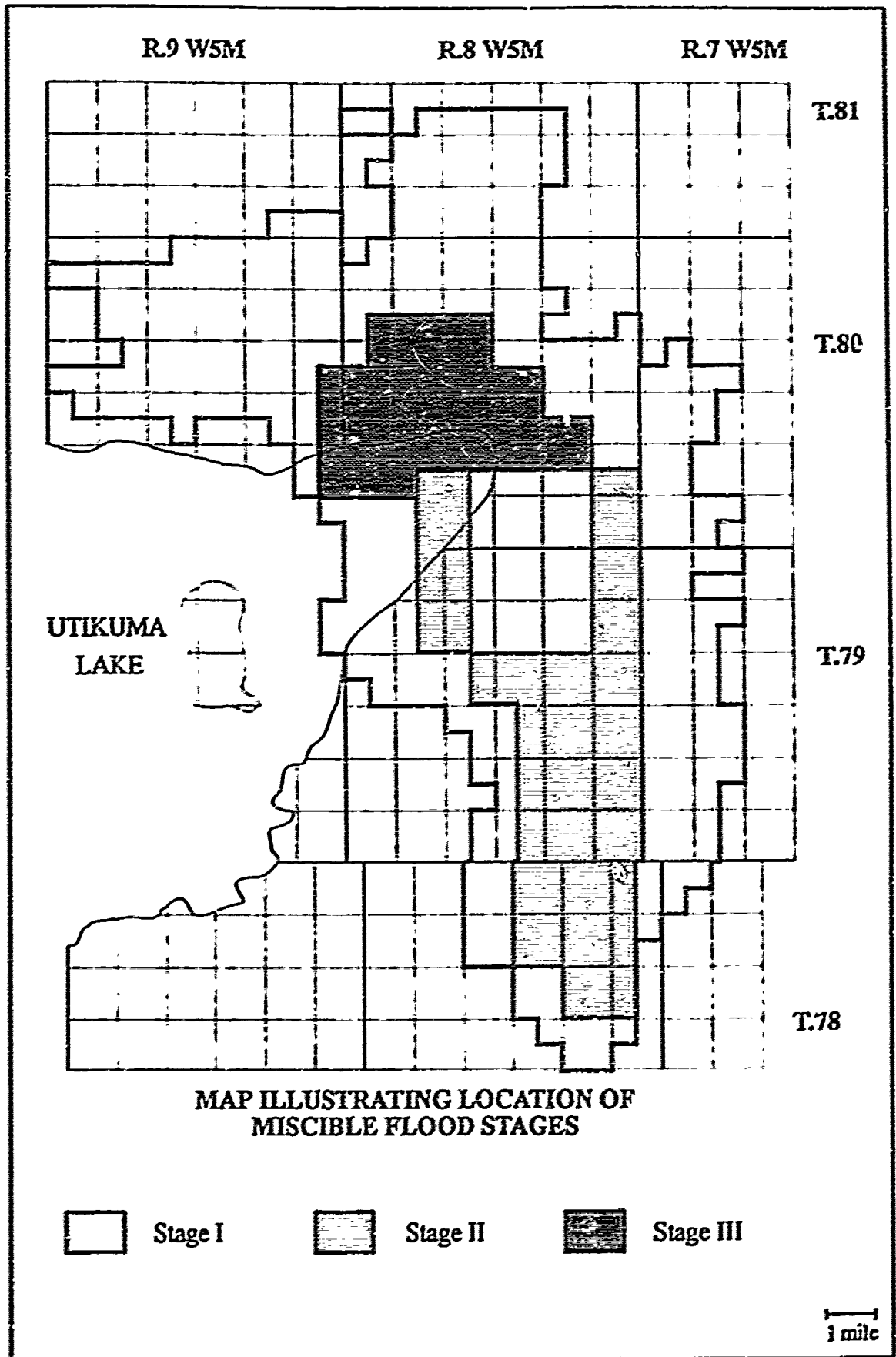


Figure 1.2 Location of miscible flood stages.

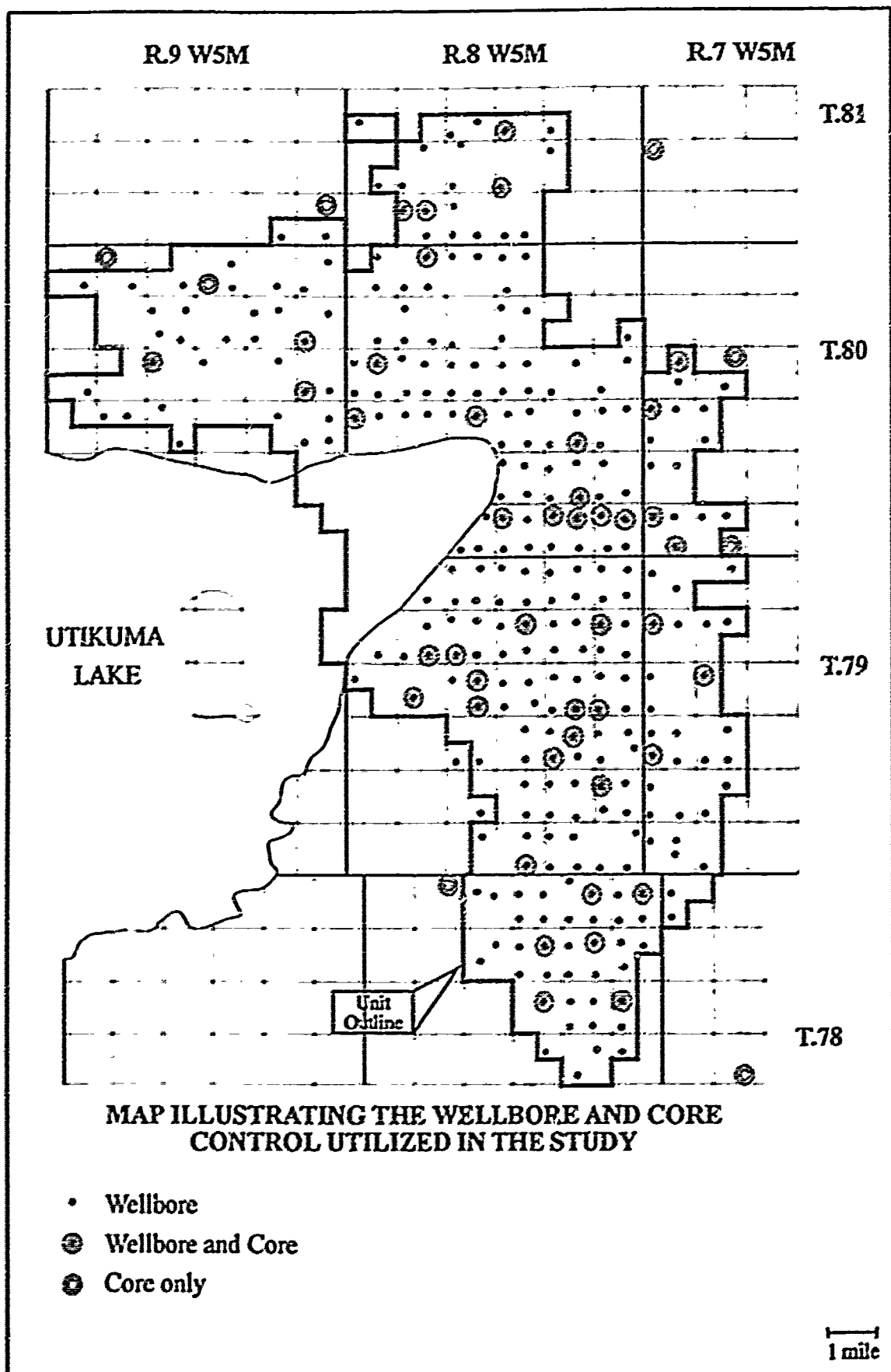


Figure 1.3 Map illustrating the wellbore and core control utilized in the study.

Canada core research center (Appendix A). The drill core descriptions include reference to:

- (1) lithology,
- (2) grain size and sorting characteristics,
- (3) physical and biogenic sedimentary structures, and
- (4) fauna content.

## (2) Well logs

Digitized mechanical well logs from 303 wells were used to generate a subsurface database. The primary logs used included the Gamma Ray, Spontaneous Potential, Sonic, and Caliper. Before using these logs for correlations, they were normalized, expanded into a vertical scale of 1.15 m/cm, and calibrated with drill core data. The Spontaneous Potential and Gamma Ray logs proved to be the most useful; however, the Gamma Ray log was distorted in its reflection of shale content in the feldspathic sandstones. Once the database was generated, it was used to construct a collection of maps that illustrated the structural attitude of various paleosurfaces, and the three-dimensional distribution of the reservoir zones contained in the Watt Mountain Formation.

## 1.4 Previous Research

Research on the Watt Mountain Formation has been performed on both regional and local scales surrounding the ancestral Peace River Arch, and has provided published information on the petrology, sedimentology, and possible origins.

The Watt Mountain Formation was first named by Law (1955), and the Gilwood Sandstone as a member of the Watt Mountain Formation by Guthrie (1956) Guthrie

(1956) also referred to the Manning Wash on the north flank of the Peace River arch as a Gilwood equivalent. Greenwalt (1956) discussed the differentiation of the Granite Wash from the Manning or Gilwood, and Sikabonyi and Rodgers (1959) believed these two sands were time equivalents (Rottenfusser, 1974). A regional analysis of the Elk Point Group was presented by Suska (1963), who studied the Elk Point Group and Cambrian rocks of North-Central Alberta. The petrology and mineralogy of the Watt Mountain Formation in the Mitsue-Nipisi area have been studied by Kramers (1967), and Kramers and Lerbekmo (1967). Thachuk (1968) studied the sedimentology and depositional environments of the Watt Mountain Formation to determine the feasibility of waterflooding the Nipisi Oil field reservoir. He proposed that the sediments were deposited in a deltaic environment, and that they could be divided into 4 zones, each separated by a continuous shale bed. Shawa (1969) studied the Gilwood sandstone in the Nipisi field and proposed a deltaic origin for these sediments based on observations of textural analysis, paleocurrent analysis, sedimentary structures, and sandstone geometry. Nelson (1970) examined the cementing relationships in the Gilwood in the Mitsue oil field. Pugh (1972) discussed the relationship of the Gilwood Sandstone Member to both older coarse clastic detritus and to the Precambrian regolith. Jansa and Fischbuch (1974) discussed the evolution of Middle and Upper Devonian sediments in the Sturgeon - Mitsue area Alberta. Rottenfusser (1974), and Rottenfusser and Oliver (1977), described the petrology and depositional environments of the Watt Mountain Formation of Northern Alberta. Alcock and Benteau (1976) studied the physical characteristics and mineralogy of the Watt Mountain sediments and concluded that the Gilwood in the Nipisi field area was deposited in a fan-like deltaic system. They also divided the Nipisi field into three depositional realms. 1) alluvial plain, 2) delta plain and 3) delta front. Gibbs (1984) published an undergraduate thesis on the stratigraphy of the Gilwood in the Lovet Creek area, in Alberta. Horn *et al.* (1985) published an abstract

that suggested the Middle Devonian Gilwood sandstones of the Watt Mountain Formation in the Utikuma-Nipisi field area was deposited in a fan-delta setting.

### 1.5 Nomenclature

McGehee (1949) was the first to use the name Elk Point Formation after describing rock units located near Elk Point in east-central Alberta. Belyea (1952) gave the Elk Point Formation group status, and Workman (1953) further divided the Elk Point into Upper and Lower portions. The Watt Mountain Formation is part of the Upper Elk Point Group and was defined by Law (1955):

"This is the uppermost unit of the Elk Point and corresponds approximately with Workman's (1953) upper variable unit. It consists of a maximum of 155 feet of shale, siltstone, sandstone, arkose, limestone breccia, anhydrite and dolomite. The lithologic character of the unit is controlled to a large extent by the distance from the Peace River landmass." (p. 1951)

Law (1955) described the Watt Mountain Formation in the California Standard's Steen River No. 2-22-117-5W6 well, completed in April of 1953. In this well, the Watt Mountain Formation starts at a depth of 1356.9 m, is 18.5 m thick, and completely cored.

Guthrie (1956) designated the Gilwood Sandstone as a member of the Watt Mountain Formation in his discussion of the lithology and stratigraphy of the Gilwood in the Giroux Lake area, in Alberta. He defined and described the Gilwood Member in the Stanolind Giroux Lake well in 6-20-65-20W5. In the 6-20 well, the Gilwood Member is 10.4 m thick, starts at a depth of 3068.6 m, and has two cored intervals, 3070.7 to 3071.9 and 3072.2 to 3085.9 m. Guthrie (1956) refers to the Gilwood as "an outwash of arkosic sands over the surface of older formations wedging out around the Peace

River land mass." He restricted the term "Gilwood" to the outwash sand because in areas proximal to the Arch there was difficulty in distinguishing between the Granite Wash and the Gilwood sand. Many workers, beginning with Suska (1963), refer to the Gilwood Sandstone instead of the Gilwood Member. This more descriptive notation is used in the petroleum industry to such an extent that the Gilwood Member is now mainly called the Gilwood Sandstone Member. This thesis will concur with the industry usage of Gilwood Sandstone Member for the sandstones in the Watt Mountain Formation.

Rottenfusser (1974) discussed the nomenclature problem that existed before the early 1970's in naming the sandstones in the Watt Mountain Formation north and south of the Peace River Arch. These sandstones were found to be correlative, but the Peace River Arch was used as a barrier to create separate names. The sandstones in the Watt Mountain Formation were referred to as Manning Sand north of the Peace River Arch and Gilwood Sandstone south of the Arch. However, the term Manning Sand has since been dropped from active use.

## 1.6 Stratigraphy and General Geology

The Elk Point Group represents the Middle Devonian of the Nipisi field area (Fig 1.4). Law (1955) divided the Upper Elk Point Group into three formations. Keg River at the base, Muskeg in the middle, and Watt Mountain at the top. The Keg River consists of a Lower Keg River open marine limestone unit and an Upper Keg River reefal limestone unit. The open marine limestones developed during a transgression that began at the beginning of Keg River deposition, and the development of carbonate build-ups in the Upper Keg River deposits occurred during a period of moderate shallowing (McCamis and Griffith, 1967). Open marine conditions during Keg River deposition were followed by restricted conditions and the deposition of the evaporitic Muskeg



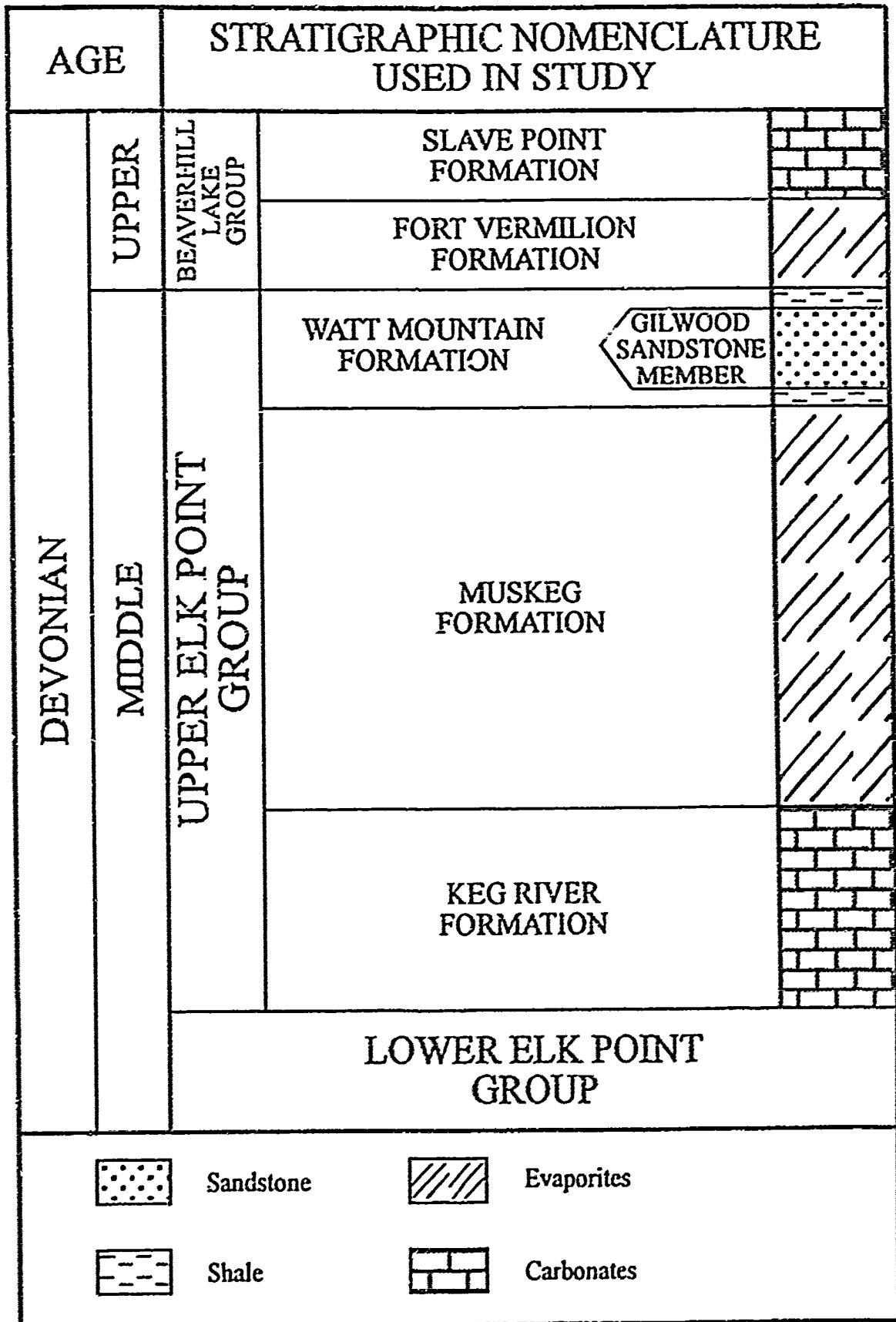


Figure 1.4 Stratigraphic nomenclature used in this study together with dominant formation and member lithology. Adapted from Bassett and Stout, 1967.

Formation. The Muskeg Formation consists of a basal salt deposit, and an upper unit of interbedded anhydrite and evaporitic dolomite. A regional uplift over the Peace River Arch and West Alberta Ridge resulted in the deposition of a regressive sandstone and shale sequence making up the Watt Mountain Formation (Bassett and Stout, 1967). The sandstones, defined as the Gilwood Member by Guthrie (1956), were deposited in cyclic sequences associated with tectonic activity associated with the Peace River Arch (Cant, 1988). After deposition of the Watt Mountain clastics, a standstill, or slight regression of the sea, resulted in the deposition of evaporites that make up the overlying Upper Devonian Fort Vermilion Formation. This slight regression was followed by a main transgressive phase of the late-middle Devonian, which deposited the limestones of the Slave Point Formation (Jansa and Fischbuch, 1974).

### 1.7 General Setting and Tectonic Framework

A regional framework for the deposition of Watt Mountain Formation is discussed here to place the study area in its appropriate paleogeographic setting. Devonian sediments of the Interior Plains and eastern Rocky Mountains were deposited on a slowly subsiding tectonic shelf bordering the Canadian Shield (Bassett and Stout, 1967). During the Middle Devonian, the Elk Point Sea covered most of Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba, and was partially separated from the sea over British Columbia by the exposed Western Alberta Ridge and Peace River High (Fig. 1.5) (Nelson, 1970). These two exposed highs strongly influenced the deposition of Middle Devonian sediments (Bassett and Stout, 1967).

The study area is located approximately 30 kilometers east of the eastern flank of the Peace River Arch, a feature that was tectonically active over a 500 m.y. period (O'Connell *et al.*, 1990). The proximity of the Nipisi field area to this activity was

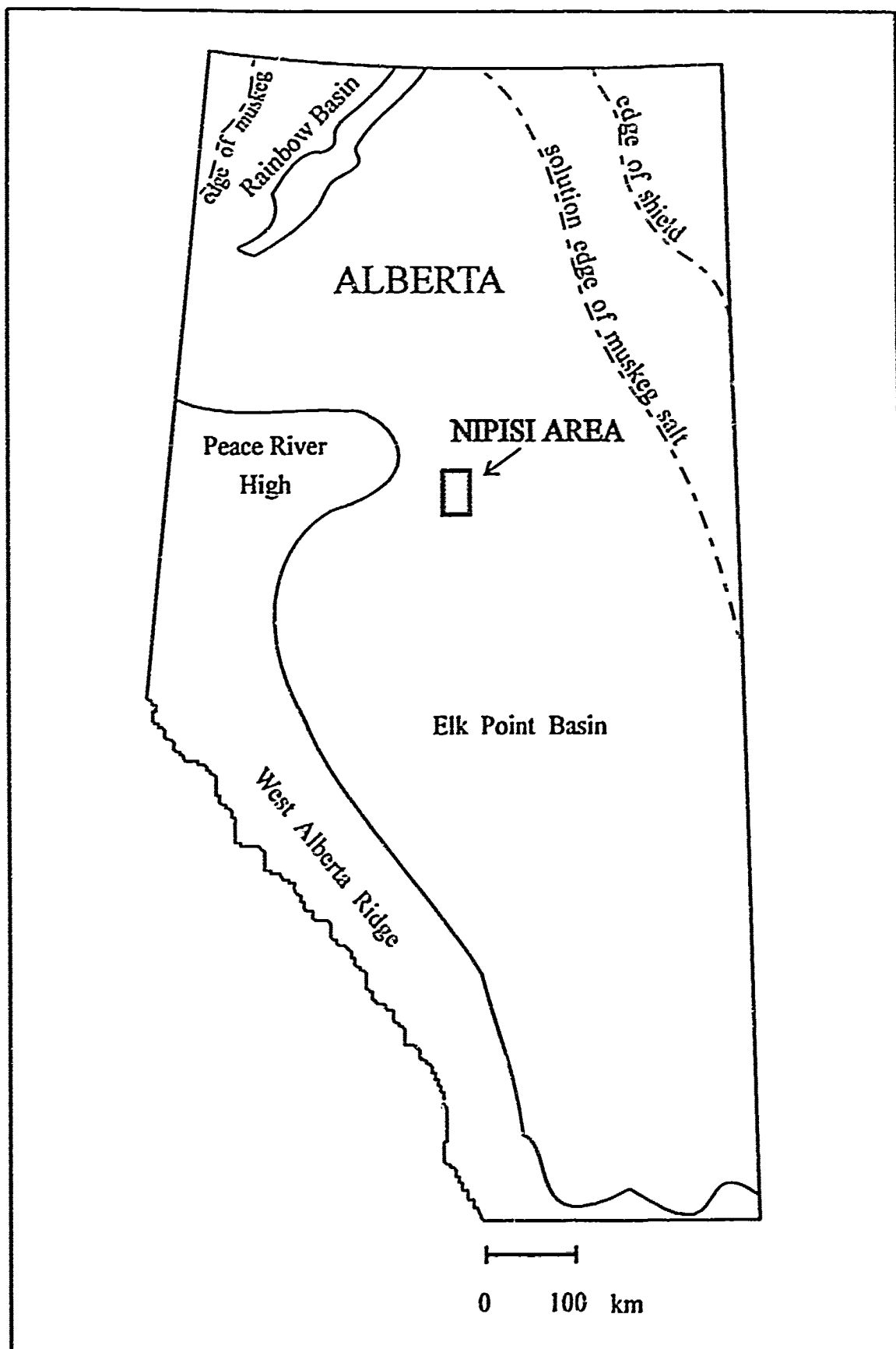


Figure 1.5 Middle Devonian tectonic and regional framework map of Alberta. Adapted from Bassett and Stout (1967).

undoubtedly a factor in the development of the present structural attitude of the Middle Devonian sediments in this area. The Peace River Arch is a major crustal structure that consists of uplifted Precambrian rock, and is associated with many faults that cut the overlying Devonian, Mississippian, and Pennsylvanian sediments (Cant, 1988).

The exact timing of the Arch's initial phase of uplift is uncertain, but evidence of sandy Middle Cambrian units terminating against the Arch suggests that the initiation of the Peace River Arch had occurred by the Mid-Cambrian (Pugh, 1972, Cant, 1988). Silurian sediments preserved to the north, northwest, and southwest of the Peace River Arch indicates that it was emergent at this time (Norford, 1990). By the Middle to Late Devonian the first episode of normal faulting occurred (Cant, 1988). These faults generated local topographical relief which enhanced the erosional activity on the Peace River Arch. This erosion was the source of the clastic debris that accumulated at Nipisi. Cant (1988) suggested that the interbedding of these clastics with other Elk Point Group sediments indicates that several distinct episodes of tectonism occurred during this time. However, Basset and Stout (1967) and Geldsetzer (1990) believe that the development of the clastics occurred during a major regressive hiatus in the basin.

The Arch persisted as a positive tectonic feature until the slow transgression that started during Upper Devonian time gradually transgressed the elevated areas (Sikabonyi and Rodgers, 1959). Besides gradual eustatic sea level rise, the burial of the Arch may also have also occurred through subsidence or a combination of the two (O'Connell *et al.*, 1990). Although the Arch was no longer emergent, faulting and subsidence continued throughout the Mississippian and Pennsylvanian, and it was not until the end of Pennsylvanian-Permian deposition that major structures became inactive (Cant, 1988). Because the Arch was the source of Gilwood clastics, stratigraphic and structurally trapped Gilwood reservoirs occur in close proximity to it (Figs. 1.6 and 1.7).

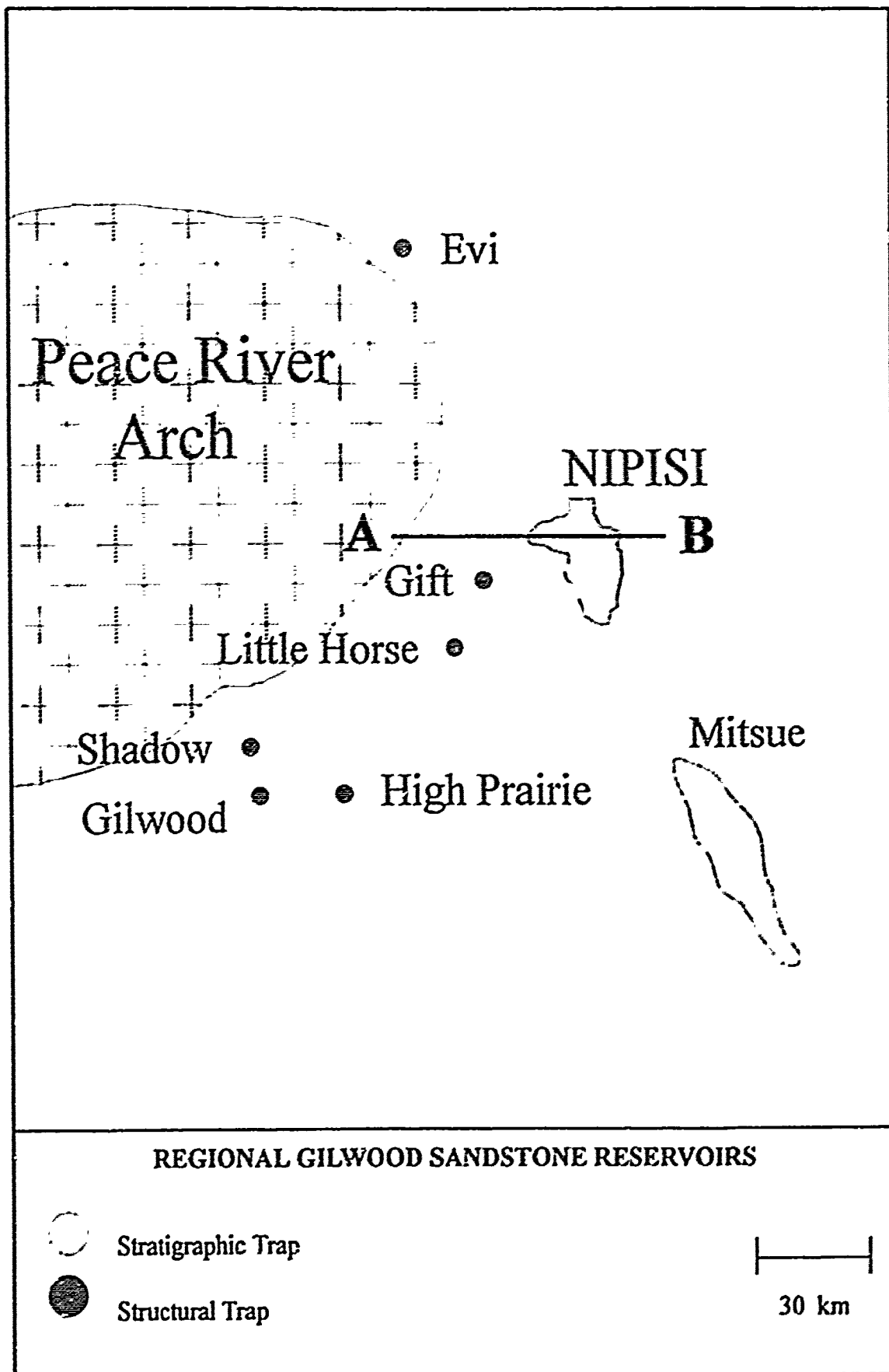


Figure 1.6 Location of regional Gilwood Sandstone reservoirs.

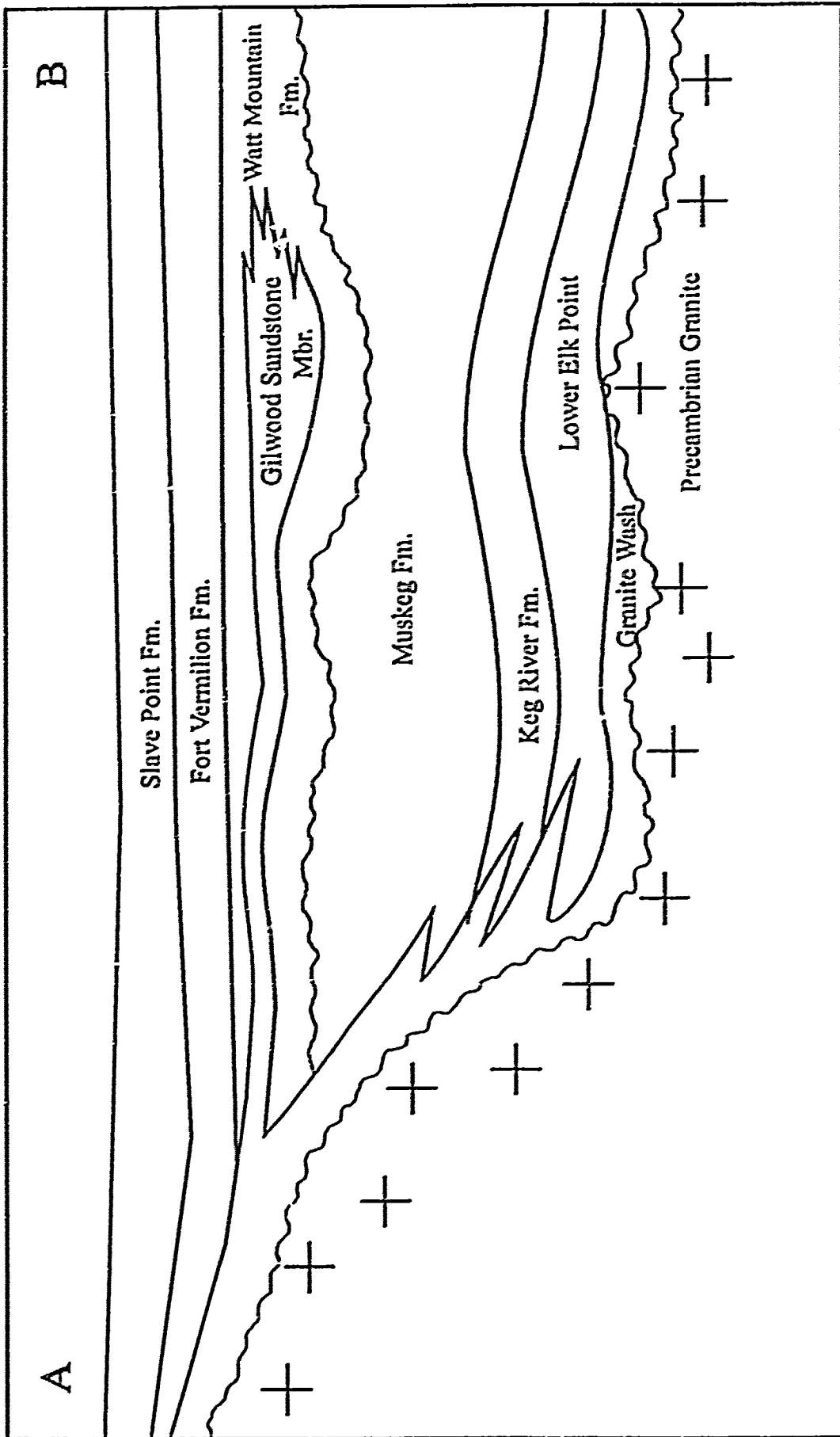


Figure 1.7 Schematic cross section A-B (referenced in Fig. 1.6) illustrating Elk Point sediments overlapping the Peace River Arch in the Nipisi area. Adapted from Shawa (1969).

### 1.8 Division of the Watt Mountain Formation

With limited well control, Thachuk (1968) divided the Watt Mountain Formation into 4 zones, each containing one or more sandstone beds. However, the present study shows that it is possible to divide the sandstone-dominated units into 6 discrete correlatable zones (Figure 1.8).

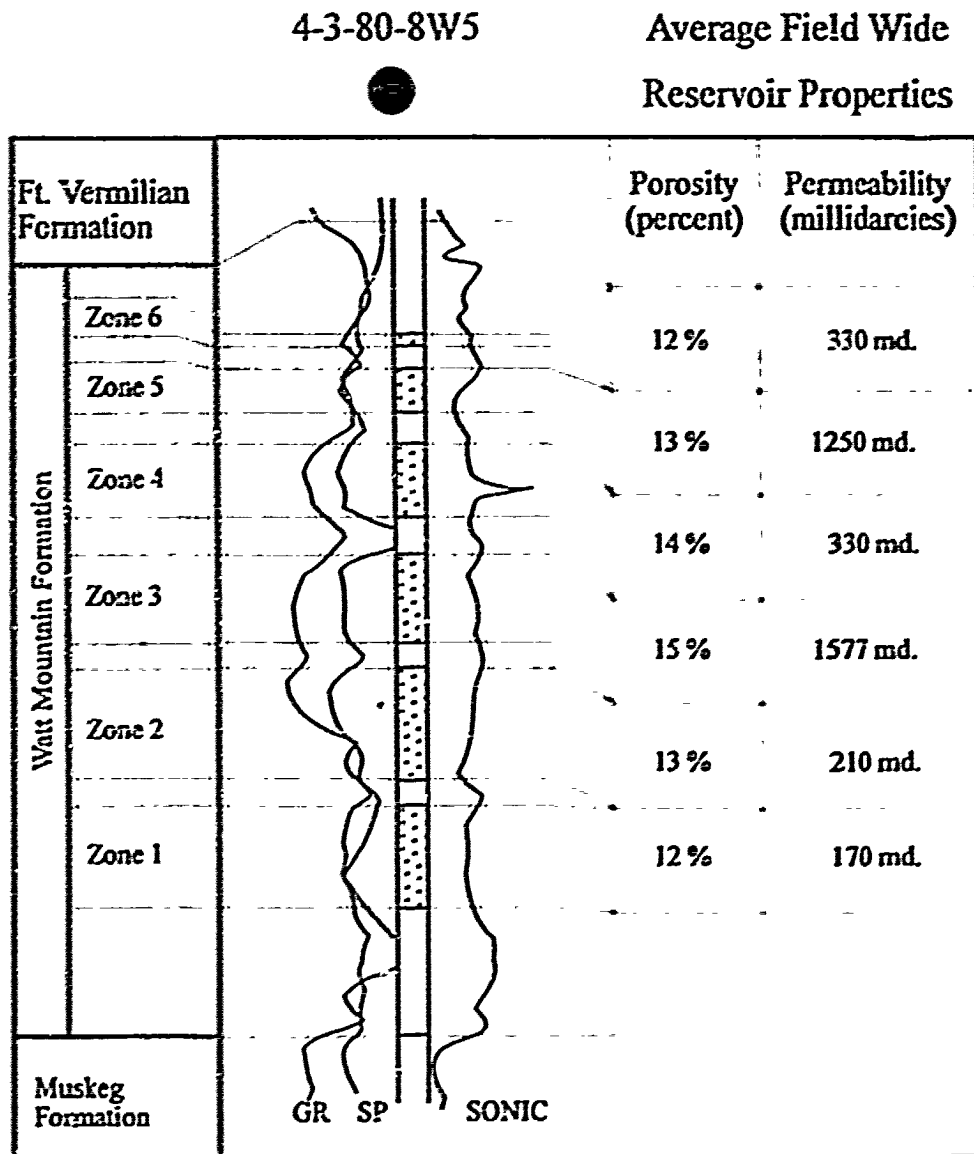


Figure 1.8 Illustration of the six Gilwood Sandstone Member zones of the Watt Mountain Formation together with average reservoir properties

## CHAPTER 2 COMPOSITION OF WATT MOUNTAIN SEDIMENTS

### 2.1 Sandstones

The average composition of the Gilwood Sandstone Member in the Nipisi field area has been documented by Kramers and Lerbekmo (1967), Thachuk (1967), and Alcock and Benteau (1976). Because of this writer's division of the Gilwood into 6 correlatable zones, 2 thin sections from each zone were evaluated to determine if any of the zones had a distinct mineralogical difference. The results showed that all zones had similar mineralogic characteristics, suggesting a similar source for all episodes of clastic deposition in the Nipisi Field area (Table 2.1).

Mineral	Average %
Quartz	57.5
Feldspars	24.8
Carbonate	4.1
Anhydrite	6.8
Accessories	<1.0

Table 2.1 Average Mineralogy of Watt Mountain Sandstones based on all published compositional data.

On the basis of their compositional range, the Gilwood sandstones are classified as arkoses and subarkoses according to the mineralogic classification system for sandstones used by McBride (1963). Accessory minerals and rock fragments generally make up less than 1 percent of the sandstones, and can include detrital biotite, chert, igneous-metamorphic rock fragments, and shale fragments (Kramers and Lerbekmo, 1967).



## 2.2 Mudstones

The mineralogy of the Watt Mountain Formation mudstones was analyzed using x-ray diffraction techniques at Shell Canada's Research Centre in Calgary, Alberta. Eight samples from four wells were processed for bulk analysis, and one sample was further analyzed to separate the clay fraction (Table 2).

Clays in the mudstone samples included illite, kaolinite, and chlorite. Illite was the main clay component in all 8 samples, averaging 36%, kaolinite and chlorite were clearly subordinate. This ranking is consistent with the findings of Kramers and Lerbekmo (1967), Rottenfusser (1974), and Alcock and Benteau (1976). The large amounts of illite reflects the abundance of potassium-rich minerals found in the Gilwood sands. Potassium rich clays like illite are generated at the expense of potassium rich minerals and potassium poor clays (Retallack, 1990).

Alcock and Benteau (1976) analyzed samples from three wells in the Nipisi area and reported that a high dolomite content compared to calcite was a characteristic feature of Watt Mountain Formation mudstones in the Nipisi area. In this thesis, half the processed samples detected only <1% dolomite, and calcite was found in amounts up to 13%. The combined results reflect a broader view of carbonate content in the Nipisi Field, a view that corresponds with Watt Mountain Formation mudstone compositional values in other field areas. Rottenfusser (1974) analyzed Watt Mountain Formation mudstones north of the Peace River Arch, and proved a relationship between higher proportions of calcite and proximity to freshwater limestone deposits. Thinner limestones with a similar appearance were found in the Nipisi area, and may also be the source of local increases in carbonate content. Quartz and potassium feldspar was detected in all samples, and their abundance is directly related to the sand and silt content of the mudstones.

## Location 12-24-78-08W5

<u>Depth</u>	<u>Qtz</u>	<u>Plag</u>	<u>K-feld</u>	<u>Calc</u>	<u>Dol</u>	<u>Anhy</u>	<u>Sid</u>	<u>Pyr</u>	<u>Kaol</u>	<u>Ill</u>	<u>Chl</u>
5676 ft	17	-	4	-	20	-	-	-	7	52	-
5686 ft	25	-	4	1	41	2	-	-	4	23	-

## Location 10-27-78-08W5

<u>Depth</u>	<u>Qtz</u>	<u>Plag</u>	<u>K-feld</u>	<u>Calc</u>	<u>Dol</u>	<u>Anhy</u>	<u>Sid</u>	<u>Pyr</u>	<u>Kaol</u>	<u>Ill</u>	<u>Chl</u>
5699.5 ft	10	-	5	12	-	-	<1	-	-	63	10
5699.6 ft	7	-	4	13	-	-	<1	-	-	67	9

## Location 12-20-79-08W5

<u>Depth</u>	<u>Qtz</u>	<u>Plag</u>	<u>K-feld</u>	<u>Calc</u>	<u>Dol</u>	<u>Anhy</u>	<u>Sid</u>	<u>Pyr</u>	<u>Kaol</u>	<u>Ill</u>	<u>Chl</u>
5543.8 ft	36	2	7	-	14	3	-	2	11	24	-
5564.2 ft	30	-	28	10	<1	3	-	2	1	25	-

## Location 12-21-80-09W5

<u>Depth</u>	<u>Qtz</u>	<u>Plag</u>	<u>K-feld</u>	<u>Calc</u>	<u>Dol</u>	<u>Anhy</u>	<u>Sid</u>	<u>Pyr</u>	<u>Kaol</u>	<u>Ill</u>	<u>Chl</u>
5636 ft	35	-	51	9	<1	2	<1	-	-	2	-
5647 ft	30	-	28	10	<1	3	-	2	1	25	-

Table 2.2 Mineralogy of Watt Mountain Formation Mudstones  
From X-ray Diffraction Analysis.

### 2.2.1 Relationship of Composition and Colour

Based on the G.S.A. colour chart, the Watt Mountain Formation mudstones are present in solid and variegated varieties of medium gray (N 5), olive-gray (5 Y 4/1), pale-green (10 G 6/2), grayish-green (5 G 5/2), dark reddish-brown (10 R 3/4), dusky-red (5 Y 3/4), and black. Although there is a coloured variety of mudstones, at all sandstone-mudstone contacts the colour was always green. An attempt was made to determine if the green colouration was a result of mineralogical differences.

Four pairs of mudstone samples, one red and one green, were taken from the same well location and analyzed with x-ray diffraction techniques to determine the mineralogy. In the 10-27 well, the possible error of sampling from different types of mudstones was decreased by taking samples of each colour 4 cm apart. The data provided no evidence to suggest that the colour difference was caused by differences in mineralogy (Table 2.2). Kramers and Lerbekmo (1967) also found no correlation between total iron content and colour of the mudstones in Watt Mountain Formation mudstone samples in the Mitsue field. They concluded that colour differences were caused by different oxidation states of the iron present. The theory that colour is independent of total iron content and dependent on  $Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+}$  has been demonstrated by workers including Tomlinson (1916), Pettijohn (1975), and McBride (1974). Potter *et al.* (1980) concluded from Van Houten's (1973) work that the colour in sediments can be changed so easily that it is usually of depositional or diagenetic origin rather than detrital. The exact cause of the green colouration occurring at all mudstones-sandstone contacts is unknown, but because of their similar mineralogy and the presence of green reaction zones at all sandstone-mudstone contacts, it is likely that the green colouration has a diagenetic origin.

## CHAPTER 3 FACIES DESCRIPTIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS

### 3.1 The Facies Concept

Although the word facies is seen regularly in published work, it has been used in the wrong context so often that its usefulness as a geologic term has been hampered. Conceptual problems of the term have centered on its misuse as a purely descriptive term, and its use in branches of scientific work other than sedimentary geology.

Facies is a Latin word derived from *facia* or *facies* meaning the external appearance or look of something (Teichert, 1958; Walker, 1984). It was initially introduced into the geologic literature by Nicolaus Steno in 1669 to signify the entire aspect of the earth's surface during an interval of geologic time. Modern scientific usage of the facies concept was derived from comparative stratigraphic studies done in 1838 by Swiss geologist, Amand Gressly (Teichert, 1958). Although Gressly is regarded as the founder of the facies concept, another geologist, Prevost, can rightly be regarded as a co-founder (Teichert, 1958). Prevost independently deduced similar principles to that of Gressly at around the same time, but by using only simple reasoning and observation (Teichert, 1958). A translation of Gressly's definition was given by Teichert (1958), and reads as follows:

"To begin with, two principal facts characterize the sum total of the modifications which I call facies or aspects of a stratigraphical unit: one is that certain lithological aspect of a stratigraphic unit is linked everywhere with the same paleontological assemblage, the other is that from such an assemblage fossil genera and species common in other facies are invariably excluded."

The core of Gressly's 1838 facies concept was the interdependence of lithological and paleontological information. Scientists commonly separate the lithological and paleontological aspects of by using terms like "lithofacies" and "biofacies", however,

these concepts are intermixed (Middleton, 1978). Gressly also implied that facies were to be areally unrestricted. For example, Middleton (1978) pointed out an exemplary example of the use of facies by De Raaf *et al.* (1965), who subdivided a group of three formations into a cyclic repetition of facies distinguished by "lithological, structural and organic aspects detectable in the field."

The term "facies" is a purely descriptive one representing the sum of primary lithological and paleontological properties of a stratigraphic unit, and is to be used in an areally unrestricted sense. Individual facies are important for providing insight toward the hydrodynamic and ecological conditions at time of deposition. The most common misuse of the facies concept is the application of facies to assumed environmental conditions rather than to reconstructing environments by means of the study of facies (Middleton, 1978).

### 3.2 Facies Descriptions and Interpretations

Lithological, sedimentological, and paleontological features were used to define eight distinct facies in the Watt Mountain Formation in the Nipisi field area. The following is a description of those eight facies and the interpreted paleohydrodynamic conditions that generated them. The significance of the paleontological features will be discussed more thoroughly in Chapter 4.

#### 3.2.1 Facies 1 - Black Shale

##### Description

Facies 1 is a distinctive black shale that ranges from 0.03 - 0.45 m in thickness (Fig 3.1). The shale contains thin (<1 mm) horizontal laminations and was typically very



**Figure 3.1 Facies 1 (Black Shale Facies)**

- A)** Typical black fissile shale of facies 1. Note the contact with an overlying grayish green mudstone 2.5 cm from top of core. The photograph is from 4-25-80-0W5, 1695.8 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- B)** Contact of black shale with underlying anhydritic shale of the Muskeg Formation. The photograph is from 4-18-79-7W5, 1717.0 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.

fissile. It was located at or near the basal contact of the Watt Mountain Formation where it predominantly occurs as a single bed, but occasionally it was interbedded with a tan to variegated-in-colour anhydritic shale. Both upper and lower bedding contacts are always sharp and planar. No biogenic sedimentary structures were observed in the black shales, however, body fossils identified as *Lingula* occur in moderate amounts

#### Interpretations:

These laminated black shales are vertically accreted deposits reflecting the process of suspension settling in a very low energy environment. The lack of silt or sand-sized particles suggests that the energy levels remained low throughout deposition. In order for these shales to develop their black colouration they must contain >3% organic carbon (Potter *et al.*, 1980). Because organic matter is best preserved in anaerobic conditions, black shales are mostly interpreted to represent deposition at water depths greater than 50 meters (McCollum, 1988). However, Selley (1985) demonstrated that stratification of the water column and development of anoxic condition can occur in shallow water environments.

This facies has a distinct lack of diverse benthic fauna and biogenic structures, suggesting that ecological conditions were largely unfavorable for the survival of most organisms.

### 3.2.2 Facies 2 - Mudstone

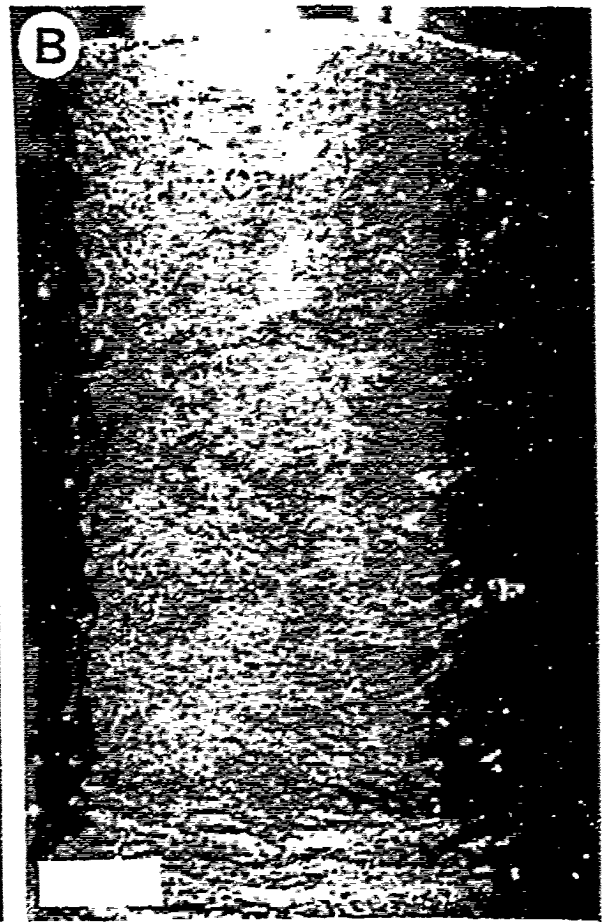
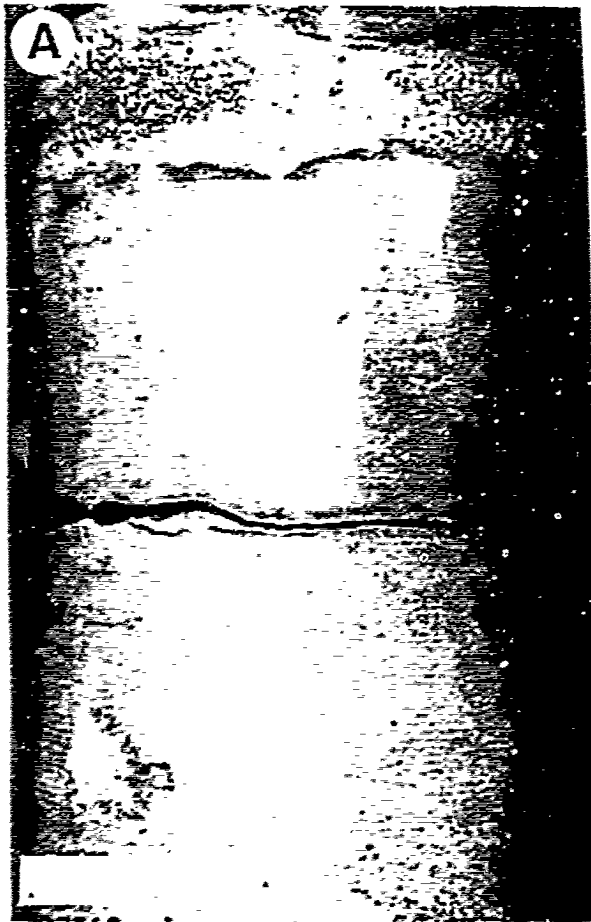
#### Description:

Facies 2 is composed of mudstones that are commonly silty and sandy, and exist in a variety of colours including solid and variegated shades of grayish green, dusky red, and rarely gray (Fig. 3.2 (A-D)). Average units are 1.5 m thick, and thicknesses range

**Figure 3.2 (A-D) Facies 2 (Typical Green and Red Mudstone)**

- A)** Pale green mudstone with scattered fine to coarse sand sized grains at the base, and a thin (1.5 cm) sandstone bed near the top of core. The photograph is from a mudstone unit below Gilwood zone 2 in 4-18-79-7W5, 1715.6 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- B)** Dusky green silty mudstone with sparse sand size grains. The photograph is from the uppermost mudstone unit in the Watt Mountain Formation in 10-21-79-8W5, 1739.2 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- C)** Dark reddish brown blocky mudstone. The photograph is from a mudstone unit below Gilwood zone 2 in 10-21-79-8W5, 1744.0 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- D)** Dark reddish brown blocky mudstone. The photograph is from a mudstone unit below Gilwood zone 5 in 4-25-80-9W5, 1718.4 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.





from a few cm to 5.2 m. Single mudstone beds are displayed in units of alternating colours of red and green, separated by either sharp or gradational contacts. Mudstone beds are typically bounded above and below by sandstones. Lower mudstone-sandstone contacts can be sharp or gradational, while upper contacts are always sharp and occasionally scoured. Scattered sandstone grains ranging from very fine to very coarse are present in the majority of mudstone beds. These scattered grains may exist throughout the facies or in localized areas, and are mostly found near the upper and lower contacts.

Slickensided surfaces are present in these mudstones. They are best viewed on the plane view of a vertical core where they can either cover the entire surface area, or are smaller (<1 cm), diffuse, and randomly arranged. Associated with the small slickensides is a crumbly texture, as opposed to a typical blocky texture of mudstones without slickensides.

The mudstones occasionally contain polygonal and irregular shaped cracks, which were most often filled with a fine-grained sandstone (Fig. 3.2 (E-F)). Sand filled cracks in red mudstones exhibit a thin (1-3 mm) green coloured zone at the edges of the crack that enhanced its visibility. Some mudstones contain nodules that are typically brecciated, but whole forms up to 2.5 cm in diameter were also observed (Fig. 3.2 (G-H)). The mudstones of this facies also contain very rare sand filled vertical fractures (Fig. 3.2 (J)).

In the mudstones are rare, scattered, and randomly oriented calcareous intraclasts and calcareous zones. They are either spherical, elongate, or irregular in shape, and have maximum diameters ranging from 0.2 to 2.5 cm (Fig. 3.2 (K)).

**Figure 3.2 (E-H) Facies 2 (Mudcracks and Irregular Shaped Nodules)**

- E)** Sand filled polygonal shaped mud cracks in a variegated dark reddish brown and pale green mudstone. The photograph is a bedding plane view of a mudstone unit below Gilwood zone 2 in 4-18-79-7W5, 1715.9 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- F)** Small irregular shaped mudcracks filled with a very-fine grained sand, in a variegated dark reddish brown and pale green mudstone. Note how the visibility of the mudcracks is enhanced by the presence of a thin (1 mm) pale green reaction zone. The photograph is a bedding plane view of a mudstone unit below Gilwood zone 2 in 4-18-79-7W5, 1715.9 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- G)** Brecciated appearance of a dark reddish brown mudstone. Note an original spherical shape (S) associated with the brecciated area. The photograph is from a mudstone unit just above Gilwood zone 1 in 10-19-80-7W5, 1691.1 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- H)** A septarian concretion developed in a dark reddish brown mudstone. The photograph is from a mudstone unit above Gilwood zone 1 in 10-19-80-7W5, 1689.5 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.



**Figure 3.2 (I-L) Facies 2 (Fractures and Calcareous Clasts)**

- I)** Vertical micro-desiccation cracks occurring across a gradational contact separating a lower pale green mudstone and an upper dark reddish brown mudstone. The photograph is from a mudstone unit directly above the upper contact of Gilwood zone 2 in 4-18-79-7W5, 1724.7 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- J)** Large sand-filled fracture passing through a dark reddish brown and pale green mudstone. This fracture initiated from a sandstone bed located 8 cm below bottom of photograph. Note the pale green alteration zone at the edge of the fracture. The photograph is from a mudstone unit above Gilwood zone 1 in 10-21-79-8W5, 1744.8 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- K)** Variegated dark reddish brown and grayish green mudstone with scattered calcareous clasts. The photograph is from a mudstone unit just above Gilwood zone 4 in 10-21-79-8W5, 1734.8 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- L)** Mottled grayish green and dark reddish brown silty mudstone with scattered fine- to coarse-grain sand. The photograph is from a silty mudstone unit above Gilwood zone 2 in 6-20-79-8W5, 1743.3 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.



### Interpretations:

The mudstones are vertically accreted deposits interpreted to reflect deposition in a low energy setting by suspension fallout. Suspension fallout is associated with either temporally or spatially decreasing suspension transport (Harms *et al.*, 1982). The presence of scattered silty and sandy zones in the mudstone suggests that the hydrodynamic conditions of the system fluctuated, and were occasionally increased to levels that allowed the transportation of silt and sand sized particles. Scattered coarse grains may also indicate a proximity to relatively strong currents (Harms *et al.*, 1982). Because the silt and sand grains remained scattered and were not shaped into thin beds, current velocities remained low enough to prevent the movement of grains on the bed after they settled.

Accessory features in this facies indicate the existence of post-depositional alteration of the mudstones. The red coloured mudstones suggest that post-depositional oxidation occurred since almost no modern streams transport truly red alluvium (Van Houten, 1973). Oxidation reactions mainly occur in well drained soils, but may also occur in coarse-grained shallowly buried materials circulated by oxygenated water (Retallack, 1990). The persistence of green mudstones at all sandstone-mudstone contacts is a diagenetic feature (McBride, 1974), clearly shown when green coloured mudstones transect red mudstone bedding.

The two sizes of slickensides represent two distinct origins. Slickensides covering the entire surface area of core are interpreted to represent movement along a possible fault plane, while the smaller types are interpreted to be stress cutans. Stress cutans are indicated by randomly arranged diffuse slickensides (Retallack, 1990). These stress cutans can be formed in clayey soils where peds (aggregates of soil) are repeatedly heaved past one another by swell-shrink during wetting and drying episodes, or they may

be formed after burial when compaction also causes peds to be crushed against each other (Smith, 1990, Retallack, 1990).

The mud cracks are interpreted to be formed due to shrinkage or desiccation of muds during subaerial exposure, however, desiccation can occur in both subaerial and subaqueous environments. Desiccation resulting in the development of polygonal or rectilinear networks of cracks occurs when interstitial waters are removed, causing mineral grains to become densely aggregated (Potter *et al.*, 1980). Mudcracks have been reported to occur in both horizontal surfaces or on hill slopes as steep as 38 degrees (Plummer and Gostin, 1981). The complex nodular forms of the red mudstone are interpreted to be septarian nodules. Fluctuations of oxygenation in paleosols may induce septarian cracking, a process which results in brecciation of the nodules (Retallack, 1990).

Similar descriptions of calcareous nodules have been described under various terms, including concretion, nodule, conestone, and karkar. The formation of these nodules is interpreted by most workers to be during early diagenesis above the water table, and some have related them to soil-forming processes (McBride, 1974). Soil nodules and concretions are commonly formed in dry, well drained soils, and reflect the availability of oxygen at the time of formation (Retallack, 1990).

### 3 2 3 Facies 3 - Small-Scale Cross-Stratified Sandstone

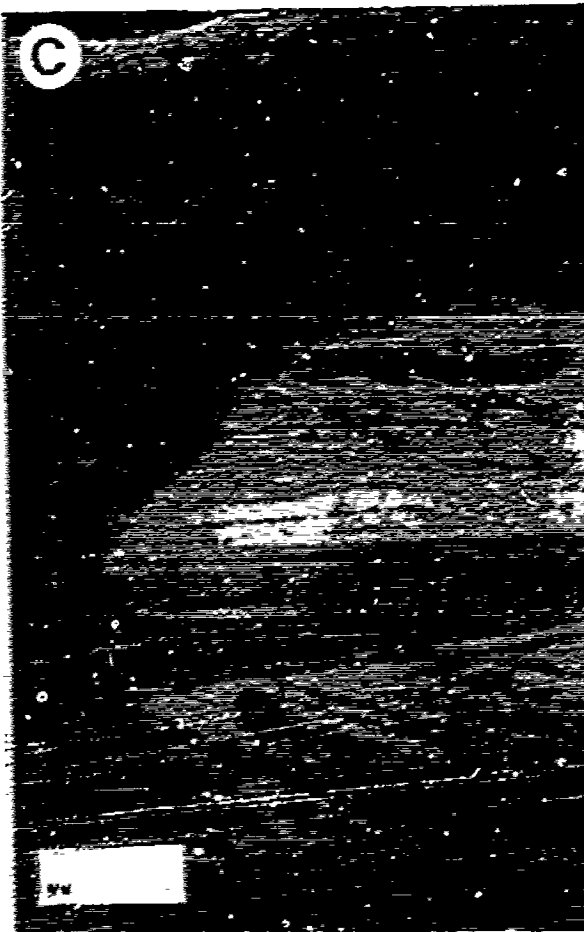
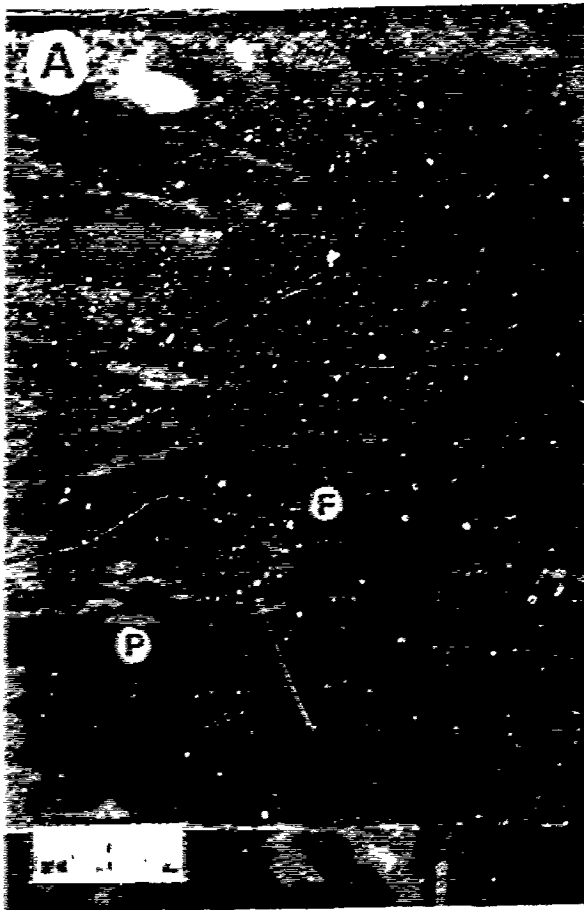
#### Description

Facies 3 is characterized by thin beds (<8 cm) of cross-laminated sandstone (Fig 3 3) that is commonly muddy and chiefly fine- to very fine-grained. Cross-stratification is dominated by asymmetrical tabular forms, but more complex slightly symmetrical



**Figure 3.3 Facies 3 (Small-Scale Cross-Stratified Sandstone)**

- A)** Fine-grained, small-scale cross-stratified sandstone with current and combined flow ripples. Note the near planar grayish green mud parting (p) and the mud flasers (f). The photograph is from the upper part of a fining upward sandstone within Gilwood zone 1 in 1-32-78-8W5, 1729.1 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- B)** Fine-grained, small-scale cross-stratified sandstone illustrating climbing ripples formed in 1.5 cm sets. Note the planar laminated sandstone overlying the small-scale cross-stratified sandstone. The photograph is from the lower portion of a coarsening upward sequence developed in Gilwood zone 2 in 4-18-79-7W5, 1732.8 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- C)** Photograph illustrating the close relationship between fine-grained small-scale cross-stratified sandstones and planar laminated sandstones. The photograph is from a lower part of Gilwood zone 3 in 12-25-79-8W5, 1719.8 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- D)** Medium grained, small-scale cross-stratified sandstone. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 1 in 12-30-79-7W5, 1711.7 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.



cross-stratification can be present. The asymmetrical tabular-shaped cross stratification is internally composed of high-angle ( $>20^{\circ}$ ) cross beds with set thicknesses of  $<3$  cm, and cosets ranging up to a maximum of 8 cm. The shape of the lower bounding surface varies from straight to curved, and can be inclined up to an angle of  $10^{\circ}$ . The upper bounding surface is similar to the lower except gradational forms may also exist. This facies is not a very common one. It is usually associated with the planar laminated sandstone facies, and is dominantly located in the upper beds of fining upward sequences which are initiated by large-scale cross-bedded sandstones.

Thin (1 mm to 5 mm) mud drapes and discontinuous mud flasers occur in this facies. They are present as laminations in the sets and cosets of the small-scale cross-laminated sandstone. The drapes have lower contacts that are sharply conformable to the lower bounding surface, and upper contacts that are either sharp or scoured. Convolute bedding in the form of slumping occurs rarely, and it may produce a near vertical appearance to the fabric of sediment. Angular mudstone intraclasts ranging in size from 0.2 to 3 cm are associated with the slump features.

#### Interpretations:

The cross-laminated sandstones are interpreted to be the result of migrating small-scale current and combined flow ripples. An abundance of asymmetrical form-sets suggests the domination of low velocity unidirectional currents. The minimum and maximum current velocities needed to generate small ripples is dependent on mean sediment size. For very fine- to fine-grained sediment small ripples are generated at current velocities of 15 to 60 cm/s (Harms *et al.*, 1982). Climbing-ripple (ripple drift) cross-lamination suggests rapid deposition in sediment laden waters (Moslow and Tillman, 1986). Combined flow ripples are an intermediate form of ripple influenced by both currents and waves. Allen (1984), suggested that combined flow ripples are

generated in shallower waters than wave ripples. The lack of well developed wave ripples suggests that this facies was probably generated in a current dominated setting.

### 3 2 4 Facies 4 - Cross-Stratified Sandstone

#### Description

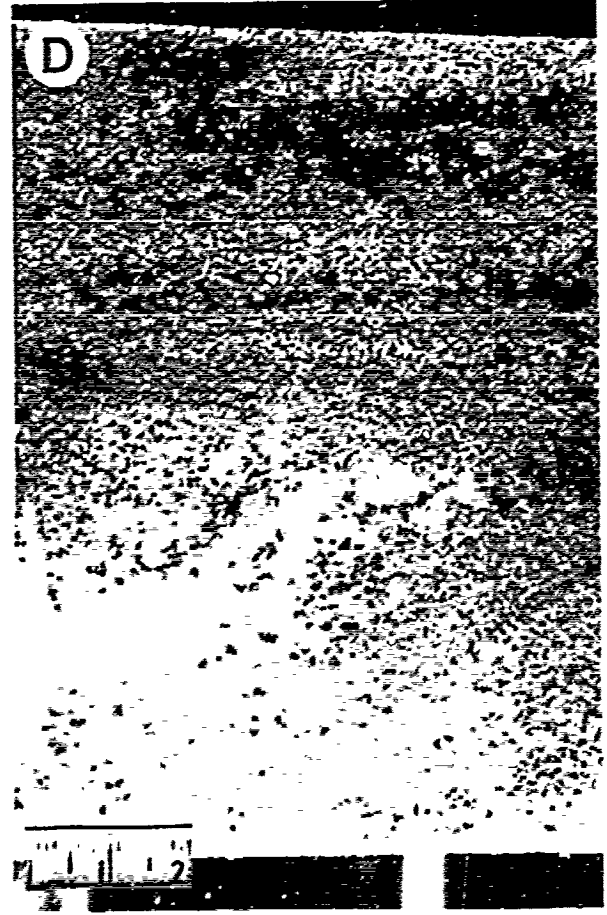
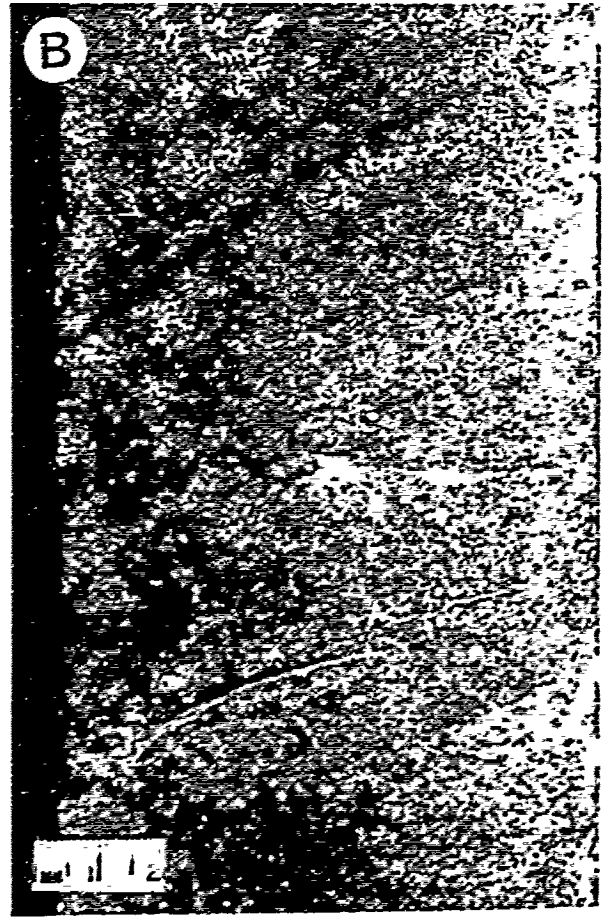
Representatives of facies 4 are widespread, numerous, and characterized by trough and planar cross-stratified sandstone (Fig. 3.4 (A-H)). The cross-bedded sandstones occur in solitary or grouped sets making up sedimentary units from 0.15 to 2.5 m thick, and average approximately 1.2 m. Lower bed contacts are either sharp or scoured, and upper bed contacts either sharp or gradational. The planar-tabular sets have both unidirectional and bi-directional dip directions.

The sandstones are subrounded to angular and range from fine- to very coarse-grained. They commonly contain scattered coarse to pebbly sized grains and exhibit rapid and extreme vertical changes in grain-sizes. Sorting is typically poor to very poor in the coarse grained sands, and moderate to poor in the medium-grained sand. Well-sorted sandstones are rare and tend to occur in medium-grained sand. The primary type of cross-bedding is planar-tabular. These cross-beds have apparent foreset dips of  $10^{\circ}$  -  $30^{\circ}$  that are either tangential or non-tangential with the lower bounding surface. Trough cross-beds display concave-up foresets that are tangential to the underlying surface and increased in inclination upward to maximum apparent dips of  $35^{\circ}$ . In both types of cross-bedding individual foresets commonly exhibit normal grading, distinguished by differences in colour, grain size, and degree of cementation.

Mud clasts are commonly found in the sandstones of facies 4. They are either subrounded, angular, or lenticular in shape, and have maximum diameters or lengths that

**Figure 3.4 Facies 4 (Large-Scale Cross-Stratified Sandstone)**

- A) Medium-grained, large-scale planar cross-stratified sandstone. Note the grayish green mud clasts and mud clast molds aligned along bedding plane. Also note the cementing of the coarser grained foresets. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 1 in 10-32-80-8W5, 1709.2 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- B) Medium-grained, large-scale cross-stratified sandstone. Note the fish bones. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 2 in 1-32-78-8W5, 1730.9 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- C) Medium-grained, large-scale cross-stratified sandstone. The photograph is from 2-3-78-8W5, 1782.4 m. This location is 3 miles south of the study area. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- D) Fine- medium-grained, large-scale cross-stratified sandstone. Note the high angle of the cross-beds and the coarser grained cemented lag. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 4 in 4-10-81-8W5, 1671.2 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**



**Figure 3.4 Facies 4 (Large-Scale Cross-Stratified Sandstone)**

- E) Coarse-grained to pebbly cross-stratified sandstone. The photograph is from the base of Gilwood zone 5 in 10-22-78-8W5, 1738.5 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- F) Medium-grained, large-scale trough cross-stratified sandstone. The photograph is from the base of Gilwood zone 2 in 4-25-80-9W5, 1724.0 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- G) Coarse-grained, large-scale trough cross-stratified sandstone. Note the cementing of the coarser grained zones. The photograph is from 12-1-80-8W5, 1706.8 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- H) Medium- coarse-grained, large-scale cross-stratified sandstone. Note the scattered pebbles and the sharp planar upper contact. The photograph is from the upper part of Gilwood zone 5 in 4-10-81-8W5, 1671.2 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**





range from 0.2 to 5.0 cm. They typically exist randomly oriented near the base of cross-bedded units. However, smaller clasts that had a tendency to align with foreset laminae can be located anywhere in the cross-stratified sandstones. Mud clasts are generally preserved, but occasionally the mud was removed leaving only the partial filling of a mud clast mold. The colour of the smaller clasts (0.2 to 2 cm) was either black or shades of green similar to those found in the Watt Mountain Formation mudstones, while the larger (2 to 5 cm) clasts were only black.

#### Interpretations:

This facies contains cross-stratified sandstones interpreted to be the product of migrating bars or dunes generated by unidirectional fluvial currents. Planar-tabular cross-stratified sandstones with parallel dipping foresets result from down current migration of straight crested (2-dimensional) bars or dunes, while trough cross-stratification is generated by down current migration of sinuous crested (3-dimensional) bars or dunes (Harms *et al.*, 1982). In reality, all bed forms have three-dimensional geometry. However, when describing bed forms from a standpoint of fluid flow, those with a length or breadth that is large compared to their height are referred to as two-dimensional (Allen, 1968). Friend (1965) suggested that the origin of groups of sets of cross-strata is the result of the passage of groups of megaripples, each moving as a result of simultaneous deposition of cross-strata downstream and erosion of material upstream.

Dunes may be generated on the bar tops during low water stages (Miall, 1977). They are asymmetrical flow-transverse bedforms very similar to small ripples in geometry and movement, but are an order of magnitude larger (Middleton and Southard, 1984). The relationship between the sediment size and flow velocity determines whether a dune or ripple will be generated. With increasing mean sediment size, dunes are preferred over ripples at lower flow velocities. For the sediment sizes described in this

facies, the lowest range of flow velocity needed to generate dune bedforms ranges from approximately 35 to 65 cm/s (Harms *et al.*, 1982). For grain sizes less than medium to coarse, an increase in flow velocity will produce a change in bedforms from current ripples, to dunes, to a plane bed (upper stage). For sands with a mean grain size greater than medium to coarse, ripples can no longer be generated, and with an increase in flow velocity, bedforms will change from plane beds (lower stage), to dunes, to plane beds (upper stage) (Allen, 1984). Migrating, straight-crested (2-dimensional) dunes produce tabular cross-bedding, and with a higher flow velocity, migrating sinuous-crested (3-dimensional) dunes, commonly linguoid in form, will produce trough cross-bedding (Harms *et al.*, 1982).

The rapid manner in which grain sizes and sedimentary structures change in this facies suggests that it was subject to rapid and variable flow conditions. The distribution of grain size and sedimentary structures suggests that both increases and decreases in flow velocities occurred, sometimes changing very rapidly. Fining upward cycles generally record the waning or progressive decrease in flow velocities, coarsening upward stratification is the result of increased flow velocities. The rare occurrence of mudstone partings contained in the cross-bedded sandstones suggests that current velocities were rarely reduced sufficiently enough for deposition of muds from suspension.

Mudstone intraclasts are interpreted to be rip-up clasts locally derived from either reworking desiccated mud crack-generated fragments or by the hydraulic erosion of cohesive mud laminae or beds. The occurrence of angular mud clasts suggests that transportation before deposition was minimal, because mud clasts round rapidly during transport (Smith, 1972).

### 3.2.5 Facies 5 - Planar-Laminated Sandstone

#### Description:

Facies 5 is characterized by very fine- to coarse-grained planar to low-angle (<5°) laminated sandstone (Fig 3.5). Laminae defined by slight changes in grain size and mineralogy, range in thickness from 1 to 9 mm. Pale yellowish brown laminations are composed of sand, grayish green laminations are shale, and the black laminations are mica. The sandstones are poorly- to moderately well-sorted, and may contain scattered coarse to very-coarse grains of quartz, feldspar, and angular green shale clasts (< 0.5 cm in diameter). Bed thicknesses range from 0.5 to 9 cm and have lower truncation surfaces that are planar or scoured. Upper contacts are found to be either planar, scoured, or gradational. Although this facies dominantly occurs as a single isolated bed, it was associated with facies 3 (small-scale cross-stratified sandstone), and also locally interbedded with laminated and thinly bedded green mudstones in the upper portion of this facies.

Accessory features include thin (< 0.5 cm) horizontal to wavy mud laminations and flasers, scattered coarser grains and pebbles, and convolute bedding. Rare fish plates are also present.

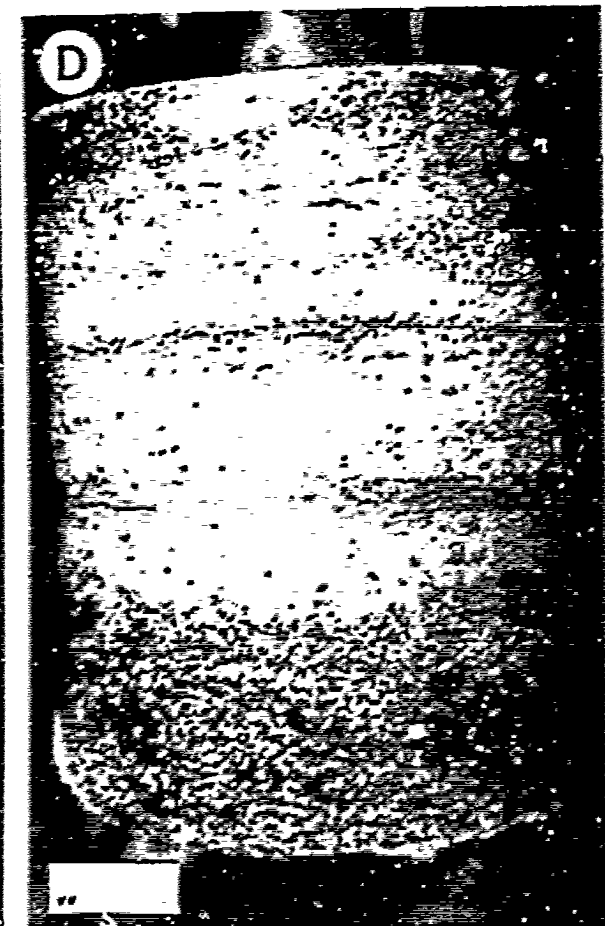
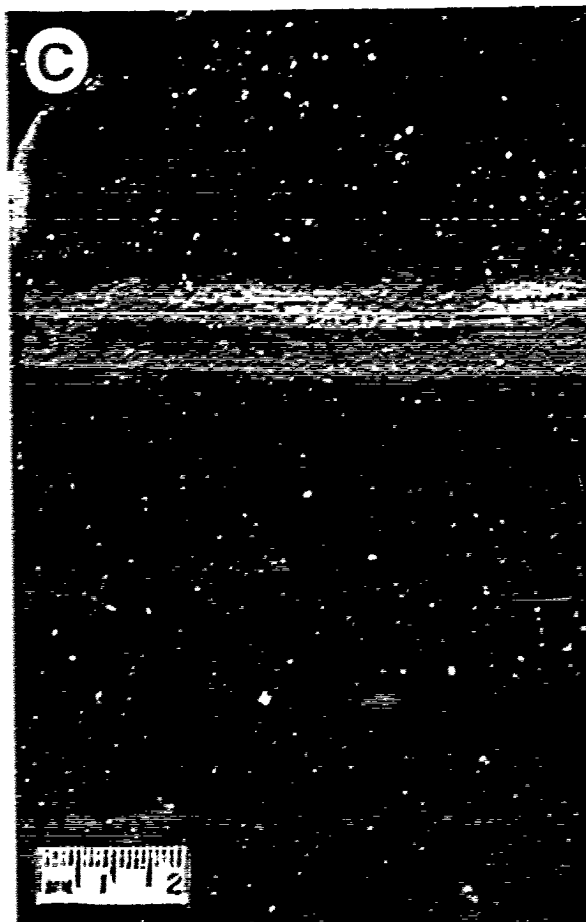
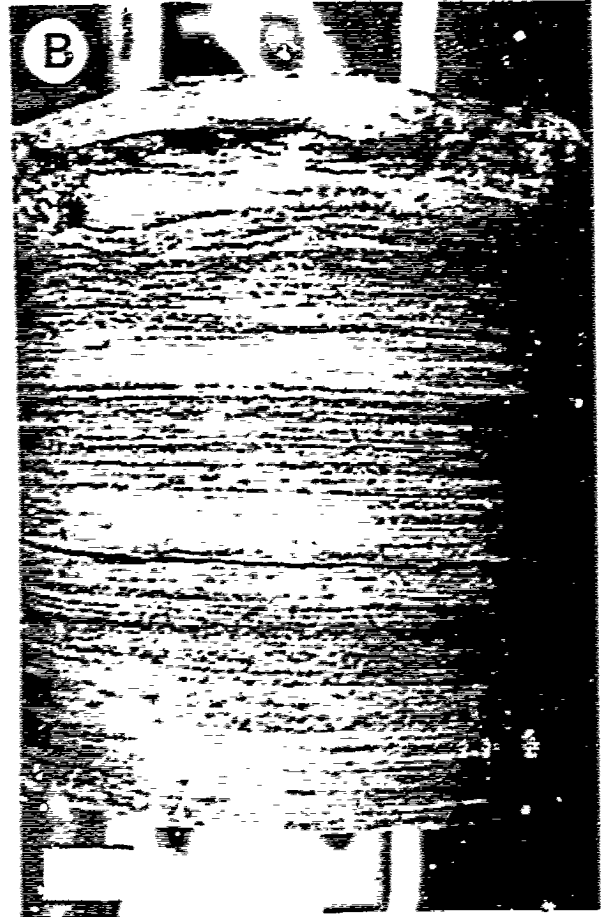
#### Interpretations.

The planar laminated sandstone facies is interpreted to represent sediment transport under upper flow conditions. Planar laminated beds can be generated over large areas in either tractional forces generated in lower flow (38 to 58 cm/s) and upper flow velocities (60 to 175 cm/s), or through deposition from suspension fall out. A specific origin for the generation of plane laminations can be ambiguous. However, certain criteria can aid in developing correct interpretations.

**Figure 3.5 Facies 5 (Planar-Laminated Sandstone)**

- A) Very fine-grained micaceous planar-laminated sandstone. Note the 2 cm massive zone in the center of photograph with scoured base, and the 3 coarse sand grains in the upper planar laminated zone. The photograph is from the top of Gilwood zone 2 in 4-28-79-8W5, 1741.5 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- B) Very fine-grained micaceous planar-laminated sandstone. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 5 in 4-18-79-7W5, 1704.7 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- C) Very fine-grained planar-laminated sandstone. The photograph is from the top Gilwood zone 2 in 10-36-78-8W5, 1709.1 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- D) Medium-grained planar-laminated to thinly bedded sandstone. Note the cyclic fining upward cycles. The photograph is from the top of Gilwood zone 1 in 10-32-80-8W5, 1708.0 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**

z



Deposition of planar laminated beds by tractional forces rather than suspension fall out can be deduced by the existence of sharp erosional lower bounding surfaces. If the plane laminated beds were generated by suspension fall out, a draping effect over the nonplanar substrate would be produced (Harms *et al.*, 1982). In addition, material coarser than fine sand size cannot be generated through suspension fall out since the current velocities needed to spread out the sediment for substantial distances would create tractional forces. Fine sand sized material can only generate plane laminated beds in upper flow regime conditions. However, if it has been decided that tractional forces were involved in generating the plane laminated beds in sediment sizes  $>0.7$  to 2 mm, additional criteria are needed to distinguish between upper and lower flow origins. If the planar bed is substantially thick it is unlikely that lower-stage transport rates were involved, and when planar laminated beds are interbedded with trough cross-stratified sands an upper-stage condition is suggested (Harms *et al.*, 1982).

The thin mud laminations suggest that the hydrodynamic conditions experienced brief decreases in flow velocity allowing the deposition of the finer muds. The occasional scattered coarse grains in the fine-grained planar laminated sandstones is a reflection of brief increases in flow velocity capable of transporting coarser-grained sediment.

Convolute bedding is the result of the expelling of pore fluid during the earliest stages of sediment consolidation. These type of structures are most commonly associated with water-laid sediments in a setting prone to high rates of sedimentation which prevents excessive packing of the sands (Allen, 1984).

### 3.2.6 Facies 6 - Massive Sandstone

#### Description:

The massive sandstone facies is a minor one characterized by a structureless sandstone that is very fine- to coarse-grained, and poorly- to well-sorted (Fig 3.6). Bed thicknesses range from a few cm to 0.9 m. Lower bed contacts are scoured or gradational, and upper bed contacts are sharp or gradational. The massive sandstones can exist as solitary isolated beds, but they were mostly associated with other facies. The well-sorted massive sandstones are interbedded with facies 5 (planar laminated sandstone), and the poorly-sorted sandstones, that could also include scattered mud and limestone clasts, are often associated with facies 4 (cross-stratified sandstones).

#### Interpretation:

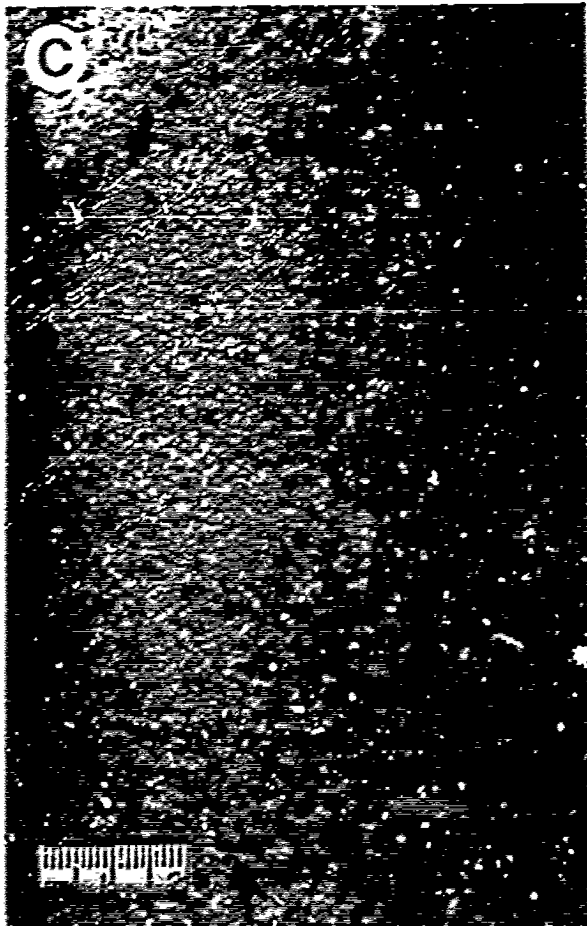
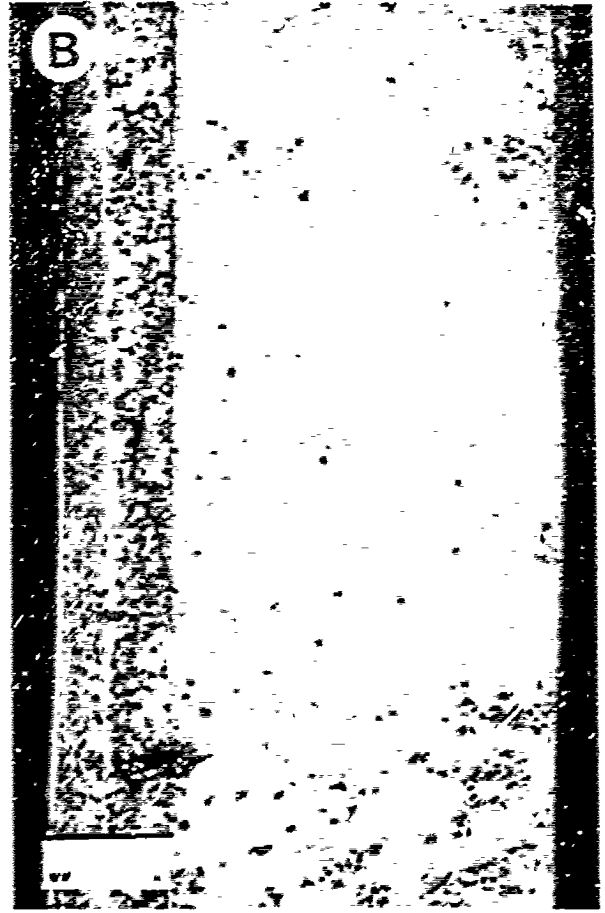
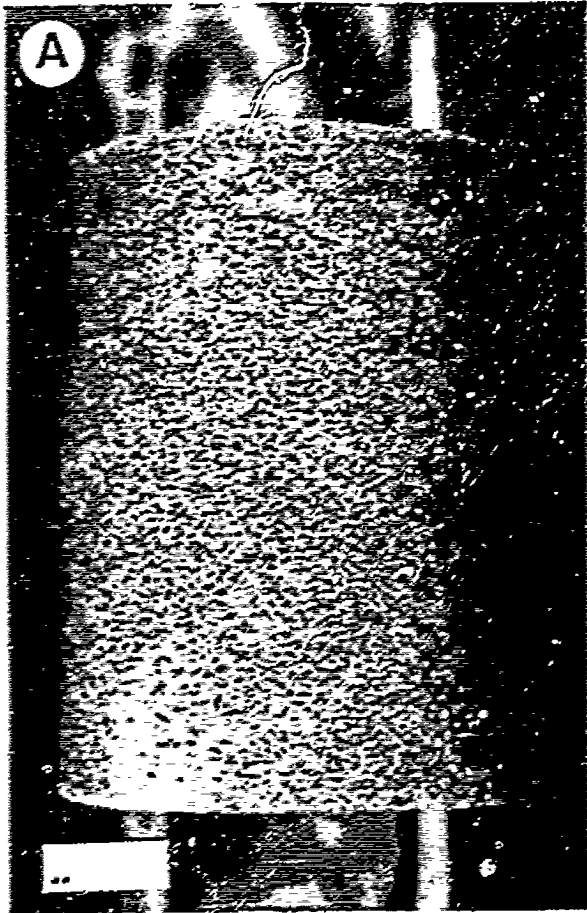
Rapid deposition without subsequent tractional transport is the mechanism that likely generated the massive fabric of this facies. Rapid deposition resulted in the development of the poorly-sorted massive sandstones, located at the bases of fining upward cycles. This rapid deposition is supported by the presence of scattered mudstone and calcareous intraclasts. The moderately- to well-sorted massive sandstones are interbedded with planar laminated sandstones, suggesting an association with upper flow regime conditions. Beynon (1991), suggested that rapid deposition in upper flow conditions can suppress the formation of planar laminated beds and result in the generation of a massive fabric.

The appearance of a massive fabric is not always the result of massive fabric generating processes. A massive appearance may be the result of difficulty in recognizing poorly developed sedimentary structures. Renault and Owen (1991) noted

**Figure 3.6 Facies 6 (Massive Sandstone)**

- A) Medium-grained well sorted massive sandstone. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 5 in 12-20-79-8W5, 1691.9 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- B) Coarse-grained massive sandstone with abundant feldspar. Note that this massive zone is well cemented. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 2 in 4-25-80-9W5, 1721.4 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- C) Medium-grained well sorted massive sandstone. The photograph is from the base of Gilwood zone 3 in 4-28-79-8W5, 1740.8 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- D) A coarse-grained massive sandstone overlying a cross-bedded sandstone. Note the pebble size clasts scattered throughout the core and the cemented coarser zones contained in the lower cross-bedded sandstone. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 3 in 2-21-79-8W5, 1745.2 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**





that sedimentary structures in small modern beach bars on Lake Bogoria are poorly developed, and in some cases the sandstones, granules, or pebbles, may appear massive

### 3.2.7 Facies 7 - Interbedded Sandstone and Mudstone

#### Description.

Facies 7 is a minor facies characterized by a platy to thinly interbedded massive to laminated mudstone and very fine- to coarse-grained sandstone (Fig 3.7). Interbed thicknesses range from 0.6 to 10 cm, and decrease upward in the interbedded unit. Rare scattered coarse grains occur in both the sandstone and mudstone interbeds.

The sandstones range in grain size from very fine-grained sand to pebbles. The sandstones are poorly- to moderately-sorted, and some thicker beds may exhibit normal grading. Internal stratification of the sandstones is demonstrated by a variety of sedimentary structures, but in a particular interbedded unit it usually consists of either planar-horizontal and low-angle cross-stratified sandstones, or structureless sandstones. Rare mudstone intraclasts with textures similar to the underlying mudstones can occur in the sandstones. The basal contacts of the sandstone interbeds are generally sharp and planar, or scoured. Mudstone beds are massive to laminated and are commonly very sandy. In the mudstones are occasional isolated lenticular sand bodies and extremely rare small cracks filled with fine-grained sandstone. A cross-sectional view of these cracks displays an irregular shape with a sub-vertical to vertical orientation, which extended downward approximately 0.5 cm from the base of an overlying sandstone unit. Basal contacts of the mudstone beds are typically sharp and conformable to the underlying sandstone, but gradational forms also exist.

**Figure 3.7 Facies 7 (Interbedded Sandstone and Mudstone)**

- A)** Thinly interbedded fine-grained sandstones and grayish green mudstones (Type A). Note the shrinkage cracks (S) and the rare occurrence of *Planolites* (P). The photograph is from the base of Gilwood zone 5 in 4-18-79-7W5, 1708.1 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- B)** Thinly interbedded fine-grained sandstones and grayish green mudstones (Type A). Note the planar laminated sandstone bed (L), syneresis cracks, and the scattered coarse grains. The photograph is from the upper part of Gilwood zone 2 in 10-19-80-8W5, 1716.1 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- C)** Interbedded coarse-grained poorly sorted sandstones and grayish green mudstones (Type B). Note the massive appearance of the sandstone interbeds. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 3 in 10-19-80-8W5, 1745.2 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- D)** Interbedded coarse-grained poorly sorted sandstones and grayish green mudstones (Type B). Note the massive appearance of the sandstone interbeds. The photograph is from a unit below Gilwood zone 2 in 12-18-80-8W5, 1725.3 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.



Fish remains in the form of plates are present. Biogenic structures are extremely rare and are limited to occurrences of *Planolites*.

#### Interpretations:

The interbedded nature of the sandstones and mudstones is a result of alternating depositional processes. The mudstones are simply a result of suspension fallout during periods of low energy, while the sandstones represent a variety of depositional processes. Planar and low angle cross-stratified sandstones reflect varied flow velocities during deposition involving tractional transport. The planar horizontal beds with sharp lower contacts are generated in upper flow tractional settings similar to facies 5, while the cross-laminated sands represent sediment transport in lower flow tractional settings similar to facies 3. Poorly sorted massive sandstone interbeds consisting of medium- to coarse-grained sandstones reflect rapid deposition through suspension fallout without subsequent tractional transport. The high relief exhibited on the upper sandstone contacts of some massive sandstone interbeds suggests that some of these deposits may have been formed by mass emplacement. Mass emplacement can result when the concentration of settling sediment becomes unstable on an inclined surface (Harms *et al.*, 1982).

The small fine-grained sand-filled cracks are interpreted to be shrinkage cracks whose origin has not been determined. Shrinkage cracks can form at the sediment-air interface by desiccation processes and at the sediment-water interface or substratally by syneresis processes (Plummer and Gostin, 1981).

### 3.2.8 Facies 8 - Mixed Sand and Mud

#### Description

Facies 8 is characterized by a homogenous mixture of sand and mud (Fig. 3.8). The mixture has varying sand to mud ratios that can increase or decrease upward. Muds are typically green, and the sands, which vary from fine to very-coarse, are poorly sorted. The facies can be up to 1.4 m thick and dominantly occurred near sandstone-mudstone contacts. Rarely the mixed sand and mud had a convoluted fabric. Commonly associated with this facies are modest amounts of scattered calcareous clasts ranging in size from 0.2 to 3 cm, and partially cemented calcareous zones up to 20 cm thick. The calcareous clasts were irregular in shape, micritic, and were found to replace and surround clastic grains.

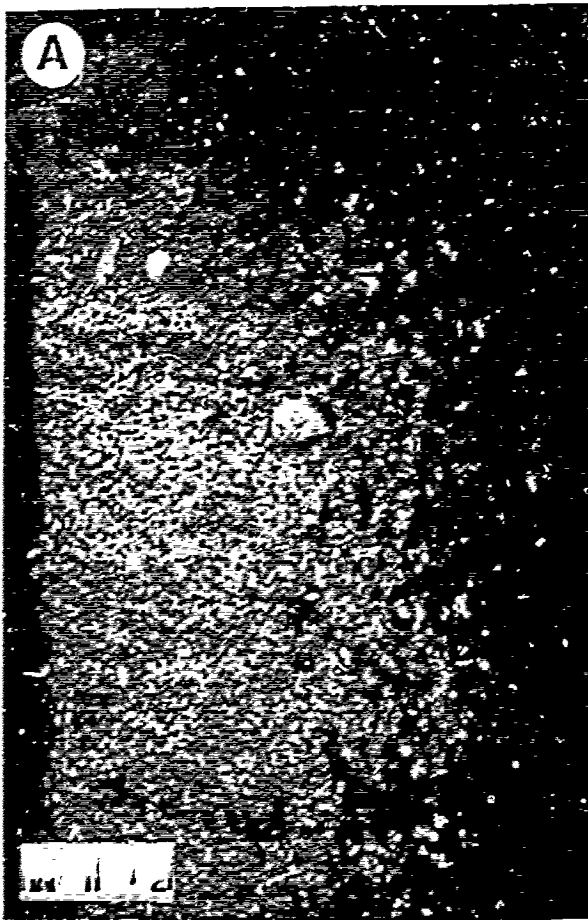
#### Interpretations

The mixed sand and mud deposits are interpreted to reflect a rapid decrease in flow velocity, which resulted in decreased flow competence and the immediate deposition of sediment. Rapid decreases in flow velocity can occur when sediment-laden fluvial currents enter relative stationary deposits of water. However, in order for three dimensional mixing and appreciable sediment deposition to occur at the point of interaction, the two mixing waters must be equally dense (Elliott, 1986).

Scattered calcareous intraclasts are interpreted to be rip-up clasts, which were derived from either caliche or fresh water limestone deposits. The calcareous cemented zones have the characteristics of caliche deposits formed above the water table in aridland soils (Retallack, 1990).

**Figure 3.8 Facies 8 (Mixed Sand and Mud)**

- A) **Mixed sand and mud illustrating an upward decrease in sand content. Note the few scattered pebbles. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 4 in 4-28-79-8W5, 1735.6 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- B) **Thoroughly intermixed coarse-grained sand and grayish green mud. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 3 in 10-27-79-8W5, 1724.8 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- C) **Mixed fine- to coarse-grained sand and grayish green mud. Note the moderate amount of calcareous cement. The photograph is from Gilwood zone 3 in 10-27-79-8W5, 1724.3 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**
- D) **Mixed fine- to coarse-grained sand and grayish green mud. Note the dense concentrations of calcareous cement. The photograph is from a unit below Gilwood zone 5 in 2-21-79-8W5, 1739.0 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.**





### 3.2.9 Limestone

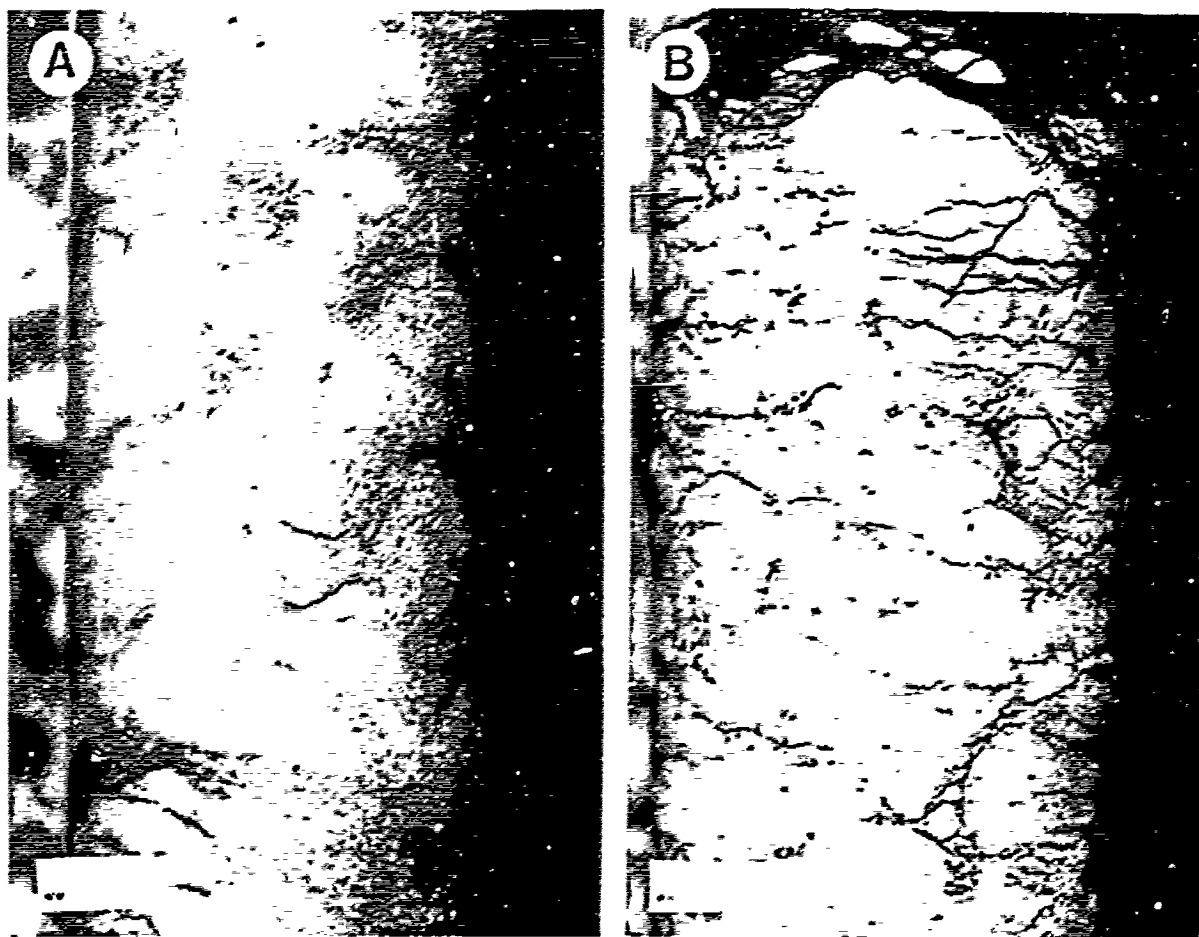
The following limestone description is not a facies in the definable sense, but is a localized unit with a recognizable "state."

#### Description

Thick (up to 45 cm) solid calcareous zones containing scattered fine- to coarse-grained sand occur in 12-18-80-8W5 and 10-21-79-8W5 (Fig. 3.9). These limestone deposits have a nodular habit and are light gray to cream in colour. Separating the nodules are continuous and discontinuous mudstone laminations.

#### Interpretations:

Based on the appearance, thickness, and intimate association with lacustrine deposits, these limestones are interpreted to represent accumulations of freshwater carbonates. In shallow waters (<10m), carbonate production is dominantly biogenic or bioinduced (Platt and Wright, 1991). These carbonates were probably deposited in small localized standing bodies of water where charophyte/algal mounds grew. Rottenfusser (1974) analyzed limestones with a similar appearance in the Watt Mountain Formation north of the Peace River Arch, and through isotopic and petrographic analysis he interpreted them to be freshwater in origin.



**Figure 3.9 Limestones**

- A) Photograph is part of a 45 cm thick calcareous zone developed below Gilwood zone 2 in 12-18-80-8W5, 1723.6 m. Note the nodular habit and thin discontinuous shale laminations. Scale bar is 2 cm.
- B) Dense calcareous zone developed in the upper part of a fine-grained sandstone unit. Note the scattered sand grains, discontinuous mudstone laminations, and the upper contact with an overlying grayish green mudstone. The photograph is from the top of Gilwood zone 3 in 10-21-79-8W5, 1738.5 m. Scale bar is 2 cm.

## CHAPTER 4 WATT MOUNTAIN FAUNA AND ICHNOLOGY

### 4.1 Introduction

Paleontological data from the Nipisi field area has been published by Thachuk (1967), Kramers and Lerbekmo (1967), and Alcock and Benteau (1976). The combination of these studies provided a very comprehensive account of the total fossil content in Watt Mountain Formation. The writer has confirmed the identification of phosphatic brachiopods (*Lingula*), fish remains of the order Antiarchi, and arthropods of the order Conchostraca. The following discussion will examine the environmental significance of all fauna contained in the Watt Mountain Formation of the Nipisi field area, including those identified by the writer, and those referenced in previous studies.

### 4.2 Watt Mountain Fauna

The phosphatic brachiopods identified as *Lingula* only existed in the basal black shale facies (Facies 1). When *Lingula* and other normally benthic forms are found in black shale environments they are usually interpreted to be epiplanktic (Ettensohn & Barron, 1981). McCollum (1988) however, suggested that a *Lingula* infauna may develop in a shallow epicontinental sea with reduced salinity. This interpretation is favored for *Lingula* occurring in the Nipisi field area because similar conditions likely existed during time of deposition. Considering the thin black shale facies is encased between evaporites and lacustrine mudstones, both of which are shallow water deposits, it is unlikely that during the limited time of black shale deposition, a significant deepening event occurred in the area. The reduced salinity conditions required for the existence of *Lingula* in McCollum's (1988) model probably developed in the Nipisi area when periods of elevated fresh water inflow caused the mixing of fresh and marine waters.

Of the fifty-two cores examined, thirty-three contained fish remains in the form of plates, scales, bones, and teeth. Fish remains were mostly present in the lower 0.3 m of mudstone deposits, and only rarely in the sandstones or the middle to upper portions of mudstone deposits. Thachuk (1967) identified these fish remains to be from the order *Antiarchi* and family *Asterolepidae*. These were armored fish considered to have been bottom-living forms that inhabited fresh to possibly brackish waters (Thachuk, 1967). Middle to Upper Devonian fish remains from other areas have similarly been interpreted to have fresh to brackish water origins. Devonian "fish beds" from the Old Red Sandstone deposits of Scotland and Ireland were interpreted as freshwater lake deposits (Trewin, 1986). Gordon (1988) however, stated that although most fish from the Middle to Upper Devonian Catskill Magnafacies have been assumed to represent freshwater species, some evidence suggested that the fish may have lived in brackish to even marine conditions.

Combining the observations of Thachuk (1967), and Alcock and Benteau (1976), two types of charophytes, *Eochara wichandeni*, and *Chovanella burgessi*, have been identified in the Watt Mountain Formation mudstones and in some of the upper Gilwood sandstones. Charophytes are calcareous green algae of the genus *Chara* that can be found in both modern and ancient lakes (Dean and Fouch, 1983). They are common on lake margins where they grow on low energy substrates down to 15-20 m depth (Cohen and Thouin, 1987). Because they contain both internal and external  $\text{CaCO}_3$ , charophytes are a major source of biogenic carbonate (Dean and Fouch, 1983).

Alcock and Benteau (1976) classified samples of Conchostracas from Nipisi as *Asmusia membranacea*, and *Ulugkemia sinuata*. Conchostracas are crustaceans that commonly live in ponds or other small temporary bodies of water. A few species however, have also been located in coastal salt flats (Robison and Kaesler, 1987).

## 4.2 Ichthyology

Trace fossils can be found throughout a range of marine and nonmarine environments, and examples of trace fossil assemblages have been documented in rocks of similar and older age than the Watt Mountain Formation (cf. Bradshaw, 1981, Vos, 1981, Pollard *et al.*, 1982, Gordon, 1988). During examination of cores from the Watt Mountain Formation only very rare examples of *Planolites*, a feeding burrow of a infaunal deposit-feeder, were identified (Elsdale *et al.*, 1984). This single ichnogenus is known to occur in both continental and marine environments, and has also been interpreted to be a facies-independent burrow (Guzzoni, 1983). Therefore, limited information can be directly obtained by the existence of *Planolites*.

Trace fossils can survive in a range of conditions varying from marine to nonmarine, therefore, a distinct lack of them in the Nipisi field area can indirectly provide insight into the environmental conditions that existed during sedimentation of the Watt Mountain Formation in this area. The survival and abundance of invertebrate tracemakers is mainly dependent on factors such as temperature, food supply, moisture levels, salinity, substrate characteristics, and intensity of wave or current agitation (Frey and Pemberton, 1987). Therefore, the limited occurrence of tracemakers suggests that not all of the above mentioned factors were continuously favorable for their survival. Considering the facies making up the Watt Mountain Formation deposits, it is unlikely that factors such as moisture levels, substrate characteristics, or intensity of wave and current agitation would be factors that could inhibit trace fossil occurrence throughout deposition of these facies. Therefore, temperature and food supply are the likely candidates, which may suggest that either paleoclimatic conditions were too hot, or there was a lack of food supply during sedimentation of the Watt Mountain Formation.

### 4.3 Palynology

Extremely rare fragments of primitive plants, *Psilophytes*, were identified in the cores examined in the Nipisi field area. This lack of flora was consistent with the findings of other workers who have studied the Watt Mountain Formation in the vicinity of the Peace River Arch. Palynologic processing by Alcock and Bentezu (1976) on three wells in the Nipisi field area revealed only some wood and cuticle. Rottenfusser (1976) discovered limited flora north of the Peace River Arch, and Kramers and Leebekro (1967) discovered limited flora in the Mitsue field area. However, during the Middle Devonian other parts of the world were lush with greenery. This indicates that plant growth was somehow discouraged in the Peace River Arch region, perhaps by very hot and dry conditions that occurred over much of the area during this time (Nelson, 1970). These hot and dry conditions are supported by Witzke and Backel (1988) who placed most of Middle Devonian Euramerica in an arid evaporitic belt.

## CHAPTER 5 VERTICAL FACIES ASSOCIATIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS

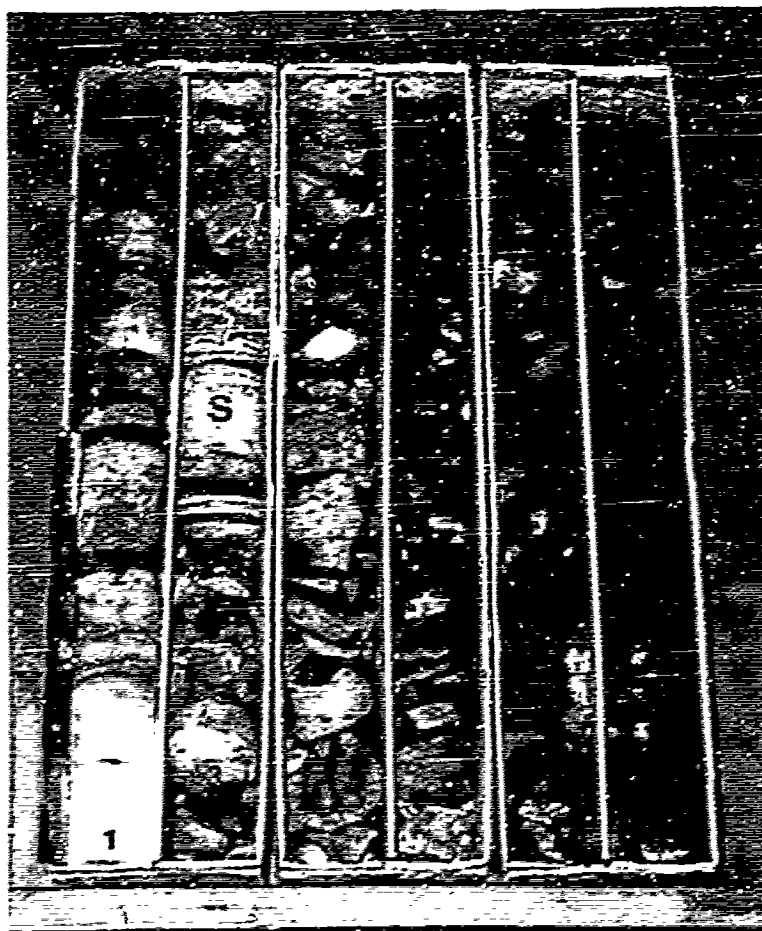
### 5.1 Introduction - Facies Association

The term "facies association" was originally defined by Potter in 1959 as "a collection of commonly associated sedimentary attributes" (Miall, 1984). The purpose of this chapter is to describe and interpret the most common sequential associations of the eight facies presented in Chapter 3. An individual facies may provide some evidence to suggest an environment of deposition, but most facies are not exclusively generated in any one environment (Harms *et al.*, 1982). Therefore, in order to increase the significance of an environmental interpretation, it should be based on a grouping of facies that represent recurring facies associations, or genetically related sequences (Collinson, 1969, Walker, 1992). The eight facies in Chapter 3 that represented recurring structures, textures, and biological attributes, were qualitatively grouped into 4 facies associations. The facies in each association were then collectively interpreted with the intent of determining the major paleoenvironment.

#### 5.1.1 Facies Association 1 (Lacustrine Deposits)

##### Description.

Facies association 1 is characteristically dominated by red or green coloured mudstones (Facies 2) that contain accessory features such as stress cutans, calcareous nodules, and mud cracks. Silty to sandy zones, and thin (2 to 11 cm) fine-to medium-grained sandstone interbeds are common in the mudstones (Fig 5.1). Internally, the sandstone interbeds are characterized by either planar-laminated (Facies 3) or small-scale cross-stratified sandstones (Facies 5). This association ranges from a few cm to approximately 5 m in thickness, with the thickest deposits located on the eastern edge of



**Figure 5.1 Facies Association 1**

Core sequence illustrating the typical siltstones and mudstones of Facies Association 1. This relatively thick sequence with limited sandy zones has developed because of its distal location from the western sourced clastics. The deposits illustrated in the photo include

- 1-2 Upper fine-grained sandstone of Gilwood zone 1 gradationally overlain by 10 cm of pale green mudstone. This thin mudstone is a typical illustration of the invariable presence of green coloured mudstones at all mudstone sandstone contacts.
- 2-3 Dark reddish brown blocky mudstone exhibiting septarian cracking.
- 3-4 Blocky mudstone dominantly grayish green with scattered dark reddish brown patches. Fish scales and small slickensides were present above the sandy zone (s).
- 4-5 Dark reddish brown blocky mudstone that is fissile in part.

The photograph is from 10-19-80-7W5, 1691 4-1686 8 m. Scale bar is 40 cm.



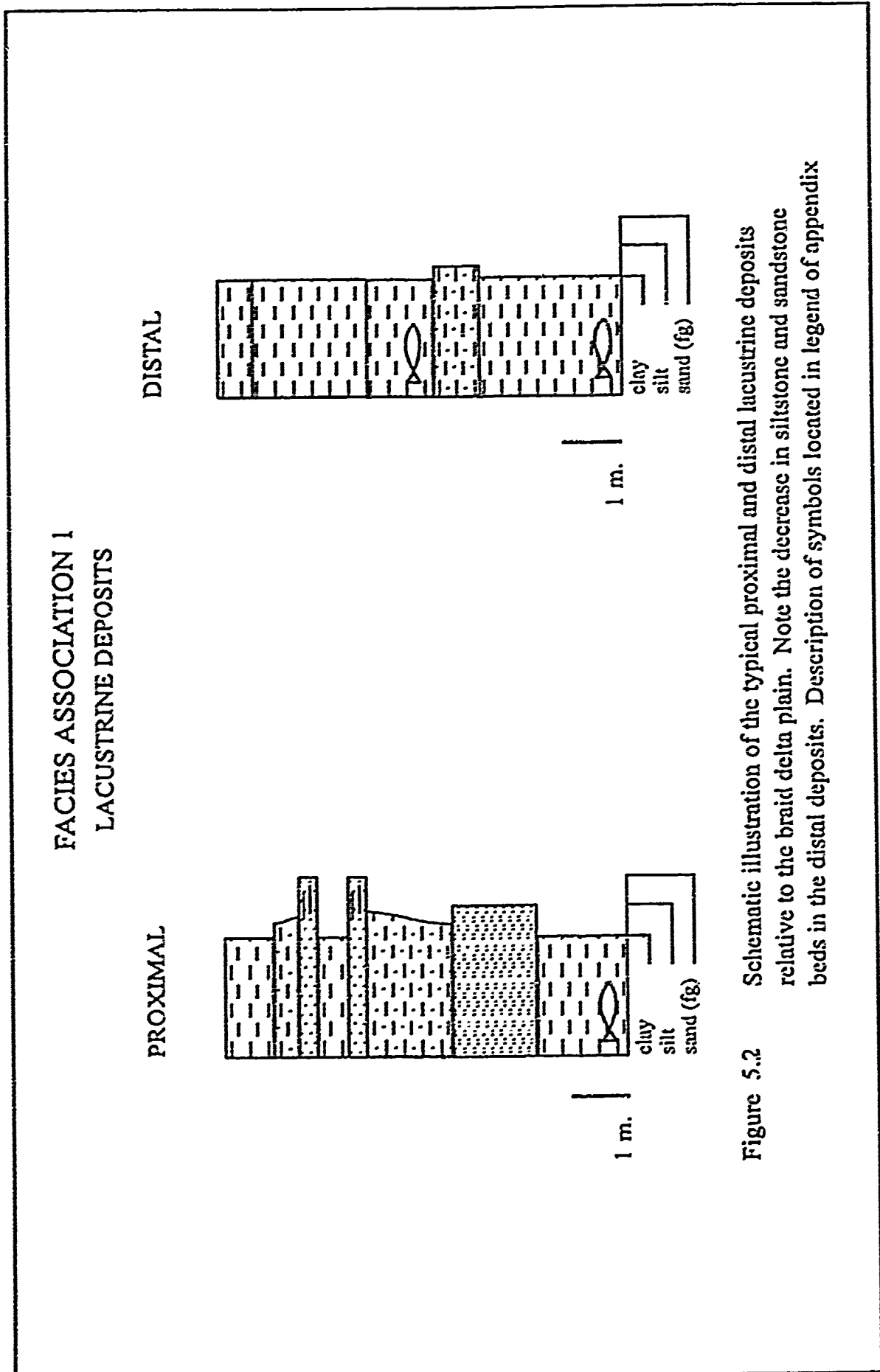
the Nipisi field and become progressively thinner toward the west. Fish fragments and *Chara* were the most prevalent fauna.

#### Interpretations:

Facies association 1 is interpreted to represent an accumulation of deposits in a fresh to brackish water lacustrine environment. This interpretation is based on the lithologic, paleontologic, and sedimentologic characteristics of the facies in this association (Fig. 5.2).

The mudstone deposits that accumulated by suspension fallout in a relatively low energy hydrologic system (Chapter 3) are interpreted to have been deposited in a lacustrine setting. The presence of charophytes and Conchostracas in the mudstones also supports this lacustrine interpretation since they can both be associated with lakes or small temporary bodies of water (Alcock and Benteau, 1976, Dean and Fouch, 1983). The water chemistry of this lake was likely variable, but the presence of fish fragments of the order Antiarchi in the mudstones suggested that fresh to brackish water conditions existed (Thachuk, 1967). Additionally, because the mudstones dominantly lacked lamination and only fish fragments and not intact fish skeletons were found, deposition was likely from a relatively shallow dominantly unstratified lake (Rogers and Astin, 1991).

The presence of sandy mudstone zones, thin sandstone beds, and subaerially exposed areas in the mudstones, suggests rapidly changing hydrodynamic conditions. Although hydrodynamic changes can occur in both lacustrine and marine environments, lacustrine settings are more susceptible to rapid climatically and tectonically controlled fluctuation because they commonly have narrow facies belts (Platt and Wright, 1991). Subaerial exposure is also a very common feature in lacustrine environments resulting



from oscillations in lake level and shoreline positions (Allen and Collinson, 1986). The lack of evaporites in the Watt Mountain Formation despite frequent subaerial exposure is very significant. It suggests that the lakes were composed of fresh water, which would have inhibited any evaporite formation (Tucker, 1991).

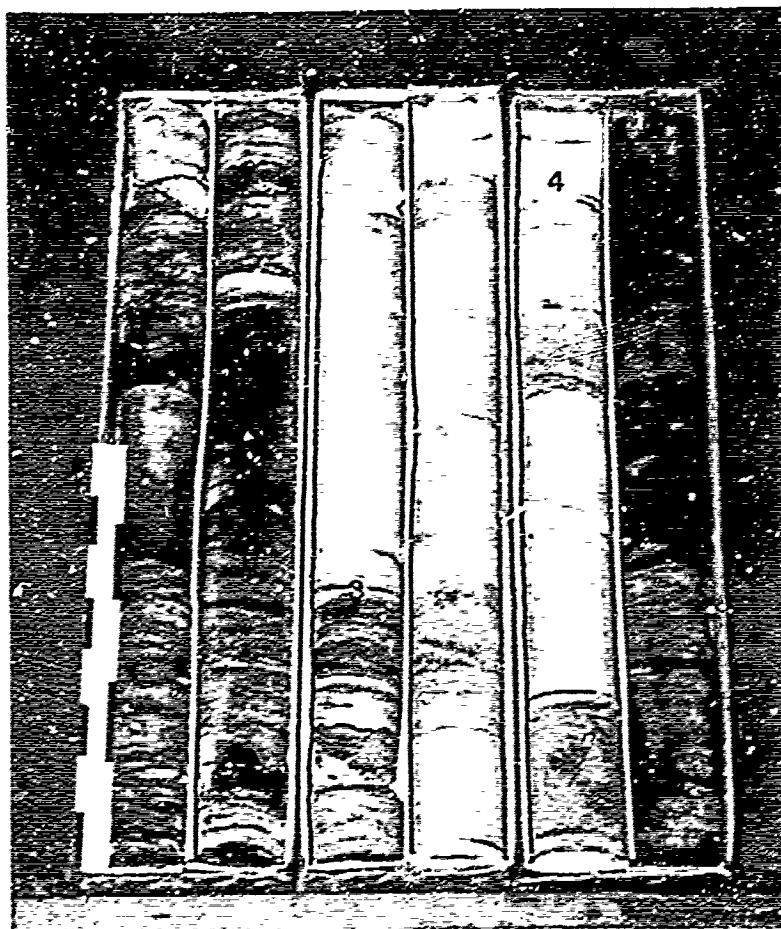
Watt Mountain Formation mudstones and associated sandstone interbeds lack evidence indicating active tidal or strong wave processes. Although large lakes closely resemble shallow seas in processes of deposition and facies patterns, negligible tidal effects and lower wave energies are two differences that can distinguish lacustrine from marine environments (Picard and High, 1972).

### 5.1.2 Facies Association 2 (Marginal Lacustrine Deposits)

#### Description:

Facies association 2 is characterized by a coarsening and thickening upward succession of sandstone and mudstone (Fig. 5.3), and is limited in occurrence relative to the fining upward successions in the Watt Mountain Formation. An idealized succession begins with a lower massive mudstone (Facies 2) that grades upward into a mixed silty to sandy mudstone (Facies 8), followed by a unit of interbedded sandstone and mudstone, and an upper unit of thick-bedded coarsening upward sandstone. However, the units of mixed silty to sandy mudstone (Facies 8) and interbedded sandstone and mudstone may be absent. The termination of facies association 2 is indicated when the coarsening upward succession is replaced by either lacustrine deposits or less commonly, scour-based fining upward sandstones.

The upper thick bedded sandstone unit dominates this facies association. It consists of a coarsening upward fairly- to well-sorted sandstone that may be up to 2



**Figure 5.3 Facies Association 2**

Cored sequence illustrating a coarsening upward succession of Facies Association 2

- 1-2 A lower mudstone
- 2-3 A middle interbedded sandstone and mudstone unit. The sandstone interbeds consist of fine-grained planar laminated and small-scale cross bedded sandstones
- 3-4 A upper thick bedded coarsening upward sandstone dominated by large scale cross bedding. A fish plate occurs in the upper 0.3 m of this unit
- 4-5 A wedging mudstone unit

The photograph is illustrating Gullwood zone 5 m 12-20-70-7W5-1690 to 1694.9 m  
Scale bar is 40 cm

meters in thickness. Grain sizes are typically in the medium- to coarse-grain range, but may also be fine-grained or pebbly. Internally the sandstones contain intra-erosive surfaces, and although cross-bedded sandstones (Facies 4) dominate, massive (Facies 6) and planar-laminated (Facies 5) sandstones are present. In the sandstones are mudstone clasts, occasional mudstone laminations, and very rare occurrences of fish remains.

When present, the lower mixed silty to sandy mudstone (Facies 8) and the interbedded sandstone and mudstone portion of facies association 2 are typically 0.3 to 1.0 m in thickness. The interbeds commonly show upward increases in the relative proportion of sandstone. Sandstone interbeds range from very fine- to medium-grained, and are typically composed of either massive (Facies 6), parallel laminated (Facies 5), or small scale ripple cross-laminated (Facies 3) sandstones. The mudstone interbeds are mostly green, massive, and contain varying amounts of scattered sand grains and fish remains.

#### Interpretations:

Facies association 2 (Fig. 5.4) is interpreted to represent deposits generated on lacustrine margins, such as fluvial mouth bars, beaches, spits, and barriers. The fluvial mouth bars formed when fluvial systems entered the lake basin, while the beaches, spits, and barriers, formed by processes commonly associated with low- to intermediate wave energy marine environments (Lin Changsong *et al.*, 1991, Allen and Collinson, 1986).

The classic view of deposits generated by prograding mouth bars is often summarized in a single, coarsening-upwards sequence, however, in reality there are bound to be large- and small-scale variations in facies (Elliot, 1986). The upper thick bedded sandstones which represent proximal mouth bar or channel deposits are always preserved in the Nipisi examples. However, rarely present are the distal bar deposits.

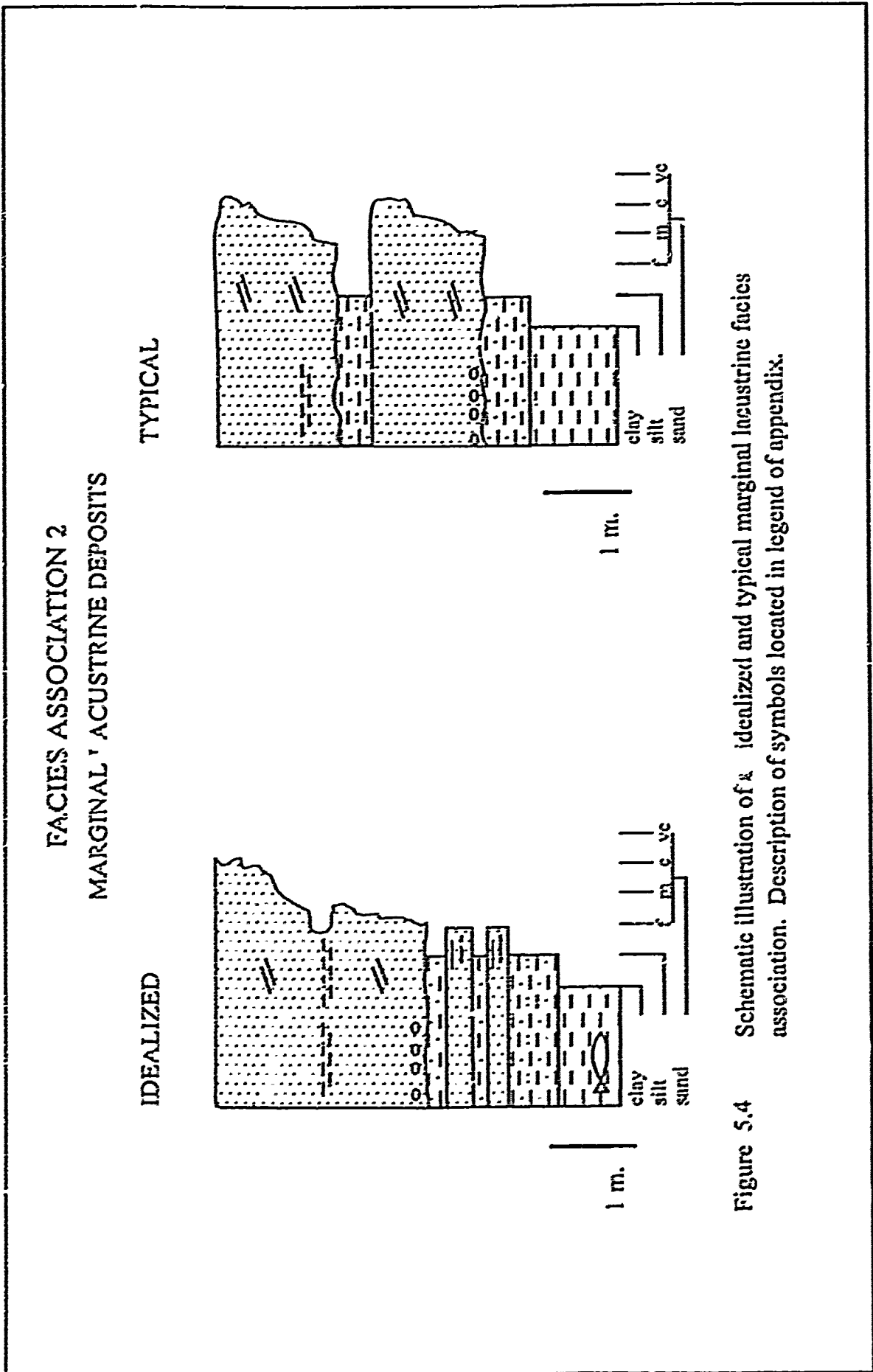


Figure 5.4 Schematic illustration of an idealized and typical marginal lacustrine facies association. Description of symbols located in legend of appendix.

represented by the sandy mudstones and interbedded sandstones and mudstones at the bases of these coarsening-upward successions.

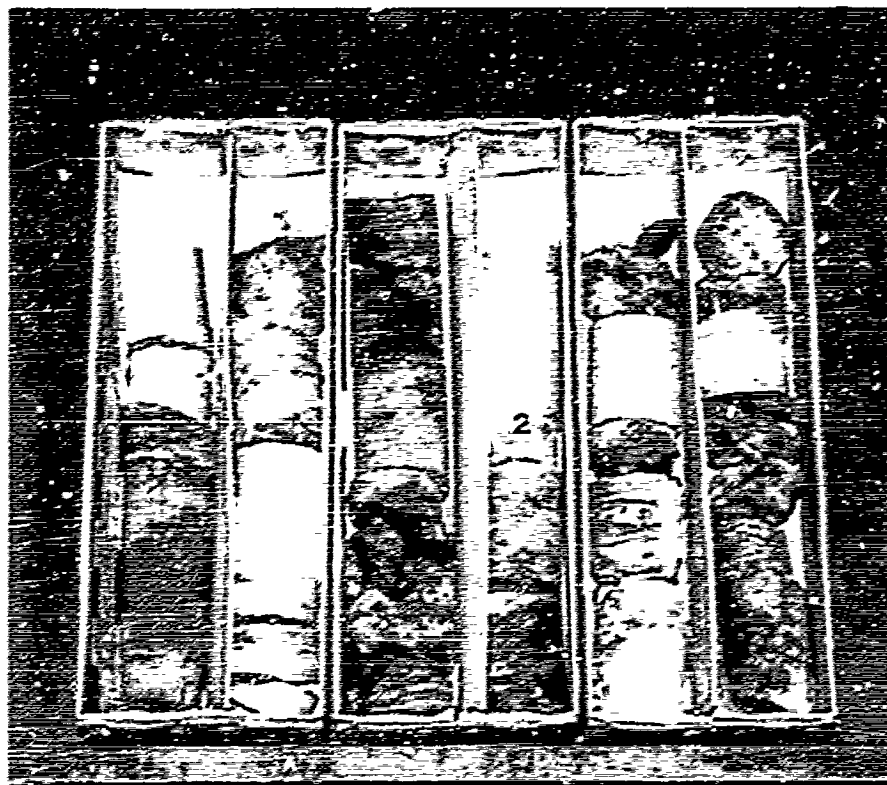
Partial sorting exhibited in some sandstones is a result of minor reworking of sands along the marginal lacustrine areas by waves which dominated the shorelines during the quiescent periods between basin infill stages. These shorelines are interpreted to have occurred in relatively shallow waters. Renault and Owen (1991) showed that beaches could form in fresh or saline shallow lakes with a mean depth of only 5.5 m.

The limited occurrence of this facies association can be attributed to the lack of tidal and high wave energies, and difficulty in recognition. Marginal lacustrine deposits are difficult to recognize because rapidly fluctuating lake levels may obscure the identification of shoreline processes. Fluctuating levels continually transform shoreline configurations to an extent that effectively inhibits the development of broad progradational shoreline sequences (Picard and High, 1972). In addition, recognition of these littoral deposits also depends greatly on the degree of post-depositional modification (Renault and Owen, 1991).

### 5.1.3 Facies Association 3 (Interdistributary Deposits)

#### Description.

The successions characterizing facies association 3 exhibit considerable variation in facies sequences, consisting of both sandstones and mudstones in a wide range of relative proportions (Fig. 5.5). A general sequence includes a mudstone unit (Facies 2), and variable amounts of fining and coarsening upward sandstone interbeds. The mudstones (Facies 2) commonly contain accessory features such as mud cracks, stress cutans, and calcareous zones and intraclasts, while the sandstone interbeds consist of



**Figure 5.5 Facies Association 3**

Cored sequence illustrating the deposits representative of Facies Association 3. The photograph demonstrates the cyclic deposition of silty to sandy mudstone deposits and thin fine- to coarse-grained sandstones. This particular sequence includes 4 fining upward cycles (labeled 1-4). Each cycle contains a lower sharp based sandstone dominated unit overlain by a mixed sandstone and mudstone followed by a sandy mudstone containing scattered calcareous clasts and small slickensides.

The photograph is illustrating Gilwood zone 5 in 10-32-80-8W5, 1697.3-1701.5 m (2.5 m of mudstone is missing at 1700.5 m). Scale bar is 40 cm.



very fine- to coarse-grained cross-laminated (Facies 3) and cross-stratified (Facies 4) sandstones that range up to 0.45 m in thickness

### Interpretations

Facies association 3 is interpreted to represent an accumulation of deposits generated in the interdistributary areas in the lacustrine braid-delta plain. Interdistributary areas are generally enclosed shallow bodies of water that are quiet or even stagnant, and periodically intruded by deposits normally located in the river channels. The wide range of facies and sequences is a result of the variety of processes, including overbank flooding and crevassing, that can be responsible for the filling of interdistributary areas (Fig 5 6) (Galloway, 1981, Elliott, 1986)

The mudstone deposits in this association reflect the deposition of fines by suspension fall out during relative quiescent periods in the interdistributary areas, while the sandy bedforms are interpreted to be crevasse events. Crevasse events can generate both coarsening and fining upward sequences that represent progradation and gradual abandonment respectively (Afiail, 1985). Deposition in the upper part of interdistributary bay-fill sequences may be indicated by an increased abundance of current generated structures similar to those of facies 3 (cross-laminated sandstone), which is a result of the increasing in energy of the shallower water as the bay fills with sediment (Horn *et al* , 1978)

### 5.1.3 Facies Association 4 (Channel Deposits)

#### Description

Facies association 4 is characterized by the stacking of fining upward and, less commonly, coarsening upward cycles, which together can generate sandstone-dominated

FACIES ASSOCIATION 3  
 INTERDISTRIBUTARY DEPOSITS

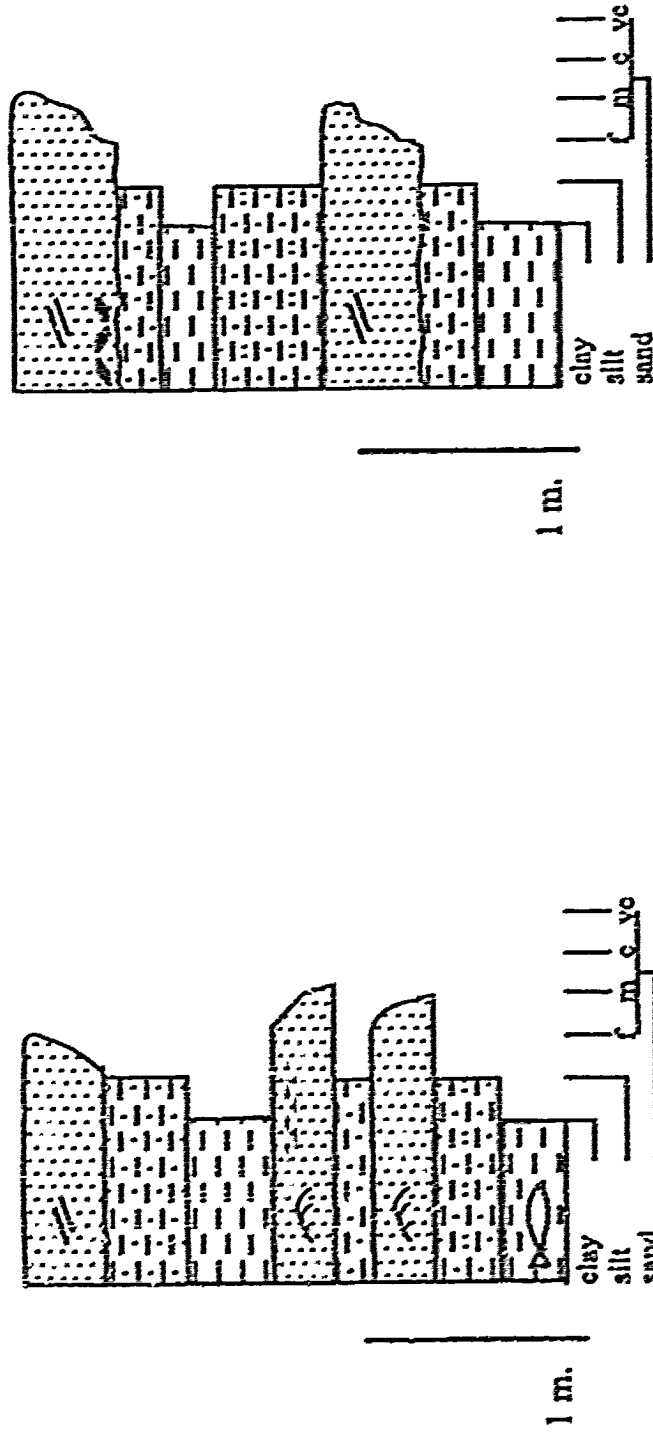


Figure 5.6 Schematic illustrations of interdistributary deposits. Notice the fining and coarsening upward sandstone interbeds. Description of symbols located in legend of appendix.

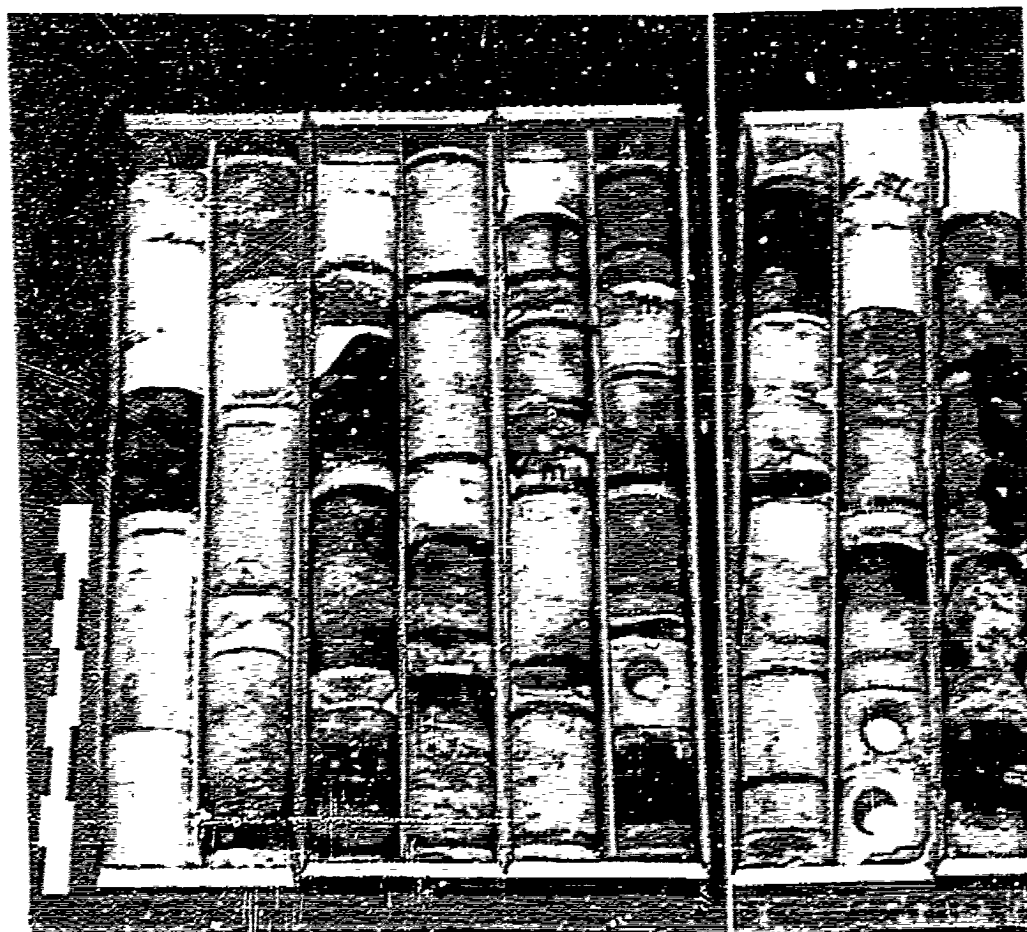
units up to a few meters thick (Fig. 5.7). Individual cycles are dominated by large-scale cross-stratified sandstones, and are commonly separated by either thin deposits of mudstone (Facies 2) or minor scour surfaces.

A typical fining upward succession begins with a sharp scoured base of low relief (<2 cm) and a coarse grained lag containing randomly oriented mud clasts. Immediately following is a middle unit consisting of large-scale cross-stratified sandstones (Facies 4), and an upper unit made up of cross- and planar-laminated sandstones (Facies 3 and 5 respectively).

#### Interpretations:

The stacking of fining and coarsening upward sandstone-dominated cycles which characterize this facies association (Fig. 5.8) is a reflection of repetitious channel establishment and abandonment at a given site, and can be attributed to factors intrinsic to the fluvial regime (Allen, 1970). Additional features in these deposits such as the rapid changes in facies showing increases and decreases in flow velocity, and the relatively low abundance of trough cross-stratification relative to planar cross-stratification, are features characteristic of braided channel deposits (Moody Stuart, 1966, Smith, 1970). Similar associations also interpreted to represent braided channel deposits have been described by Boothroyd and Nummedal (1978), Pollard *et al.* (1982), and Fernandez *et al.* (1988). Braided river systems are characterized by many channels separated by bars or small islands, and when compared with meandering rivers, they have a lower sinuosity, coarser sediment load, and higher width/depth ratio (Miall, 1977)

The development of the braided pattern is a result of complex interactions between sediment supply and water discharge (Collinson, 1986). Braided patterns are preferentially formed under fluvial environments containing excess sediment load and



**Figure 5.7 Facies Association 4**

Cored sequence illustrating stacked fining upward successions representative of Facies Association 4. Within the 3 large-scale fining upward cycles (1-2, 2-3, 3-4) there are numerous fining upward and occasional coarsening upward sub-cycles reflecting rapid fluctuations in flow velocity. The tops of the fining upward sub-cycles occasionally include mudstone (m). This lack of mudstone results in the deposition of a relatively continuous sandstone unit. Fining upward sequences are dominated by large scale cross-bedding in the lower medium- to coarse-grained sandstones, and these grade into an upper finer-grained small-scale cross-stratified or planar-stratified sandstone.

The photograph is from 2-3-79-8W5, 1731.7-1727.1 m (Gilwood zones 3 and 4). Scale bar is 40 cm.

FACIES ASSOCIATION 4  
CHANNEL DEPOSITS

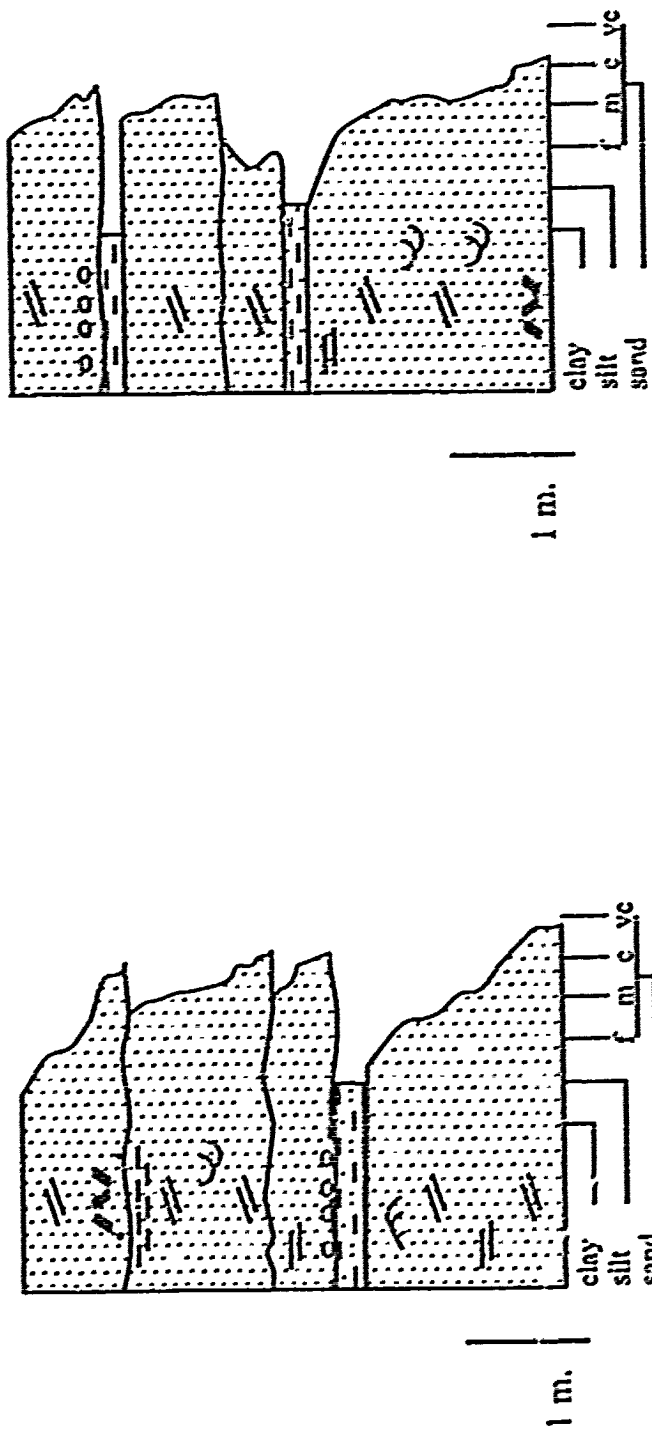


Figure 5.8 Schematic illustration of typical braid-delta distributary channel deposits. Note the stacking of fining upward cycles and rapid changes in sediment type. Description of symbols located in legend of appendix

highly variable discharge rates (Smith, 1970, Boggs, 1987, Miall, 1992). They result from the splitting of flow initiated by the development of mid-channel bars and islands that temporarily store the excess sediment that is available when a river no longer has the capacity or energy to carry its sediment load (Miall, 1992). Given adequate sediment supply, the development of low sinuosity channels is common in arid climates where sporadic discharge rates are common (Elliott, 1986; Miall, 1992).

The lack of flora in sediments of the Watt Mountain formation (Chapter 4) was a significant factor toward the development of braided channels. Braided channel patterns are favored in non-vegetated sediment because of the limited ability to confine channels. Channel banks containing vegetated sediments are more cohesive than non-vegetated banks and result in the development of channels that tend to form meandering rather than braided patterns (Cotter, 1978). Smith (1976) concluded that non-vegetated sediment could be 20,000 times less stable than sediment with 16-18% by volume plant root (Fedor and Cooper, 1989). By decreasing bed load grain size, enhancing fine sediment production, and by increasing bank stability, vegetated sediment has the ability to retard erosion, decrease sediment yield, total runoff, discharge, and flood peaks for a given precipitation period (Schumm, 1968, Cotter 1978).

## 5.2 Depositional Facies Model For Watt Mountain Sediments

The definition of a facies model was given as "a general summary of a specific sedimentary environment..." by Walker (1984). Based on the four recurring facies associations 1) Lacustrine Deposits, 2) Marginal Lacustrine Deposits, 3) Braid-Delta Plain Interdistributary Deposits, and 4) Braid-Delta Plain Channel Deposits, in the sediments of the Watt Mountain Formation in the Nipisi field area, a lacustrine braid-delta facies model is suggested.

The term braid-delta was defined by McPherson *et al.* (1987) to represent delta formation where braided fluvial systems prograde into standing bodies of water. This type of delta, which has been previously classified as a fan-delta, has similar shoreline and subaqueous components as a fan-delta, but has been separately classified because of its distinctly different subaerial components. Subaerial components of a fan-delta include an alluvial fan consisting of interbedded sheetflood, debris-flow, and braided-channel deposits, while a braid-delta consists entirely of braided-river or braid-plain deposits (McPherson *et al.*, 1987). Soegaard (1990) suggested that these differences are a direct consequence of the basin margin gradient. Therefore, fan-deltas are more restricted to areas where steep alluvial-fan gradients can be maintained while braid-deltas are not.

A hydrologically balanced system occurs when evaporation and outflow is equal to inflow and precipitation. In the deposits of the Watt Mountain Formation there is evidence suggesting that major periodic changes occurred in the paleoenvironmental conditions. These changes significantly impacted the subcomponents of the lacustrine braid-delta system by changing the hydrologic balance, which is an important control on facies development (Platt and Wright, 1991). The stacking of repetitive facies sequences indicated that the paleoenvironmental conditions were cyclic, with each cycle represented by facies development in either periods when inflow exceeds evaporation or when evaporation exceeds inflow. During these changing conditions it is uncertain whether all facies associations were in existence continuously throughout Watt Mountain deposition. Two end-member paleoenvironmental models (A and B) are suggested for the Nipisi area (Fig 5.9). Model A illustrates the paleoenvironment when inflow exceeded evaporation while in model B evaporation exceeded inflow.

In model A (Fig 5.9), channels in the braid-plain prograded into the lacustrine basin and limited the accumulation of lacustrine deposition to the distal areas. This high

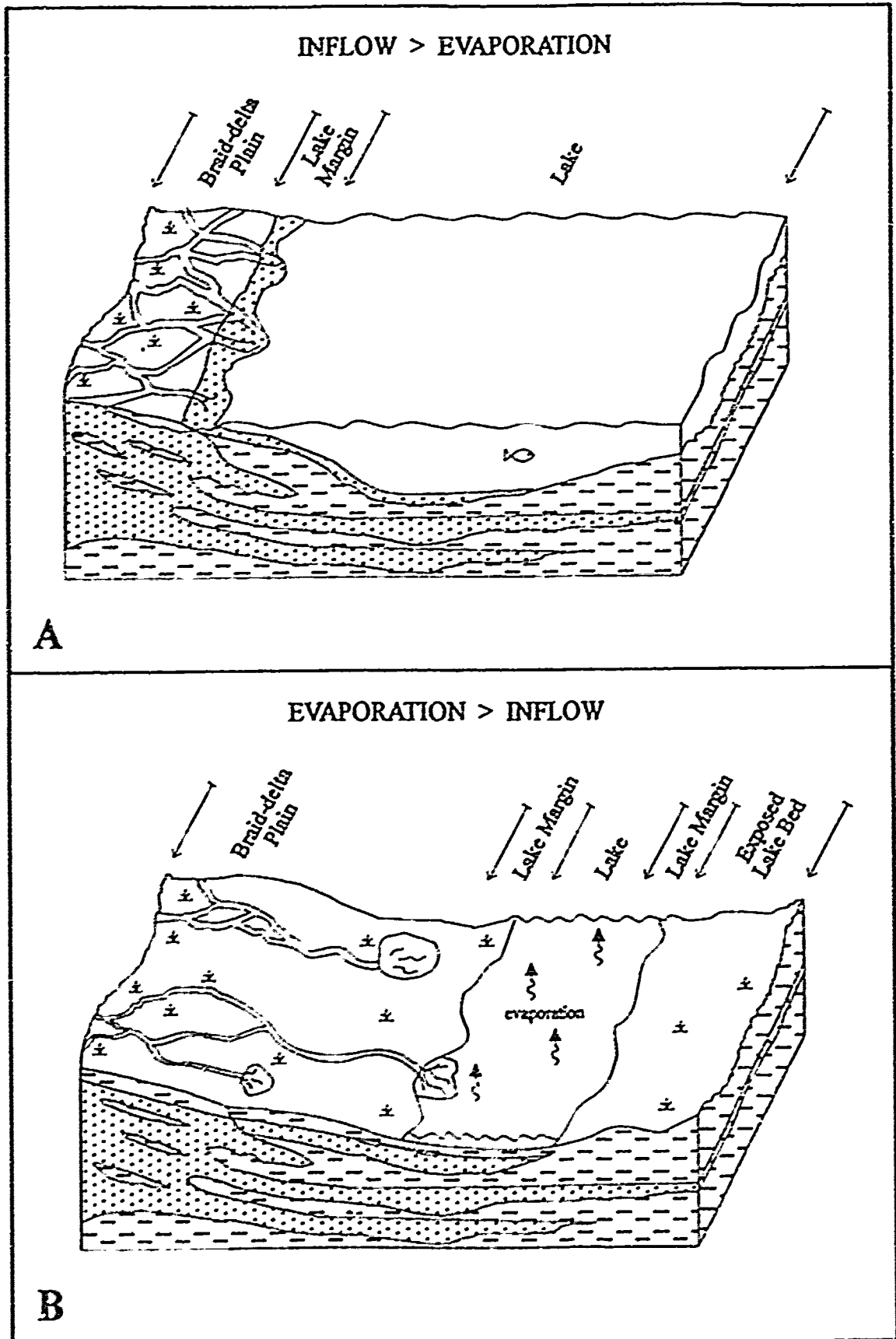


Figure 5.9 Two end member paleoenvironmental models for the Nipisi field area. (Modified from Rodgers and Astin, 1991)



inflow resulted in elevated lake levels and a landward shifting of the paleoshorlines and their associated facies. At the highest levels the lake may have had outlets, however, the maximum depth of the lake and possible spill level that limited it must remain the subject of speculation. When the braid-plain reached the margins of the lake, individual channels either generated marginal lacustrine deposits or continued subaqueously. Billi *et al* (1991) explained two processes that allowed the formation of subaqueous channels, both of which may have occurred at Nipisi. The first process initially required braided distributary channels to cut into the lake bottom when it was exposed to subaerial conditions during dry spells. This would make it much easier for channels to continue subaqueously when more humid conditions were re-established, because there would be a pre-established channel path. The alternative hypothesis involved strong hyperpycnal flows that allowed the formation of subaqueous channels since they could easily scour into the lacustrine clays as they entered the lake.

In model B (Fig. 5.9), lowered levels of inflow relative to evaporation resulted in the shifting of paleoshorelines and the exposure of previously submerged areas. During this evaporation phase it was likely that the lake was hydrologically closed, and the lack of prograding channels allowed the deposition of lacustrine deposits throughout the basin, including those areas previously dominated by sandstone deposition. The extreme limit of exposure during the evaporation phase may have been extensive, but the existence of isolated occurrences of fresh water carbonates suggests that small isolated bodies of water remained for some length of time.

## CHAPTER 6 STRUCTURE

### 6.1 Regional and Local Structure

Searching for a geological datum in northern Alberta, Rottenfusser (1974) constructed a structure map on the top of the Slave Point Formation with a 200 feet (61 meter) contour interval. The map covered a 15 square township area and illustrated that the Slave Point top was a nearly planar surface with a dip to the southwest of 4.7 m/km, and was suitable for use as a datum. The regional structure in the Nipisi area (approximately 2.75 square townships) was determined using a 10 m contour interval on this surface (Fig. 6.1), and although there are some distortions to the regularity of the contours, a southwest dip of approximately 5.4 m/km was calculated.

Rottenfusser (1974) expressed concern over using the top of the Watt Mountain Formation as a datum north of the Peace River Arch. His concerns were based on the difficulty in distinguishing between the Watt Mountain and overlying Slave Point Formation, and uncertainties in how flat-lying the top of the Watt Mountain Formation was. Within the Nipisi area, the top of the Watt Mountain Formation can be correlated with confidence, and many workers have used this surface as a datum. The similarity between the Watt Mountain and Slave Point formations structure contour maps, with the exception of some increased nosing of the contours in the northern part of the field, suggests that the top of the Watt Mountain Formation is also a reasonably flat surface (Fig. 6.2). Thachuk (1967) proved that the nosing of contours was a reflection of significant basement topography, which was in excess of 60 meters in the northern Nipisi area.

The contact between the Watt Mountain Formation and the underlying Muskeg Formation is an erosional unconformable surface (Alcock and Benteau, 1976). Although

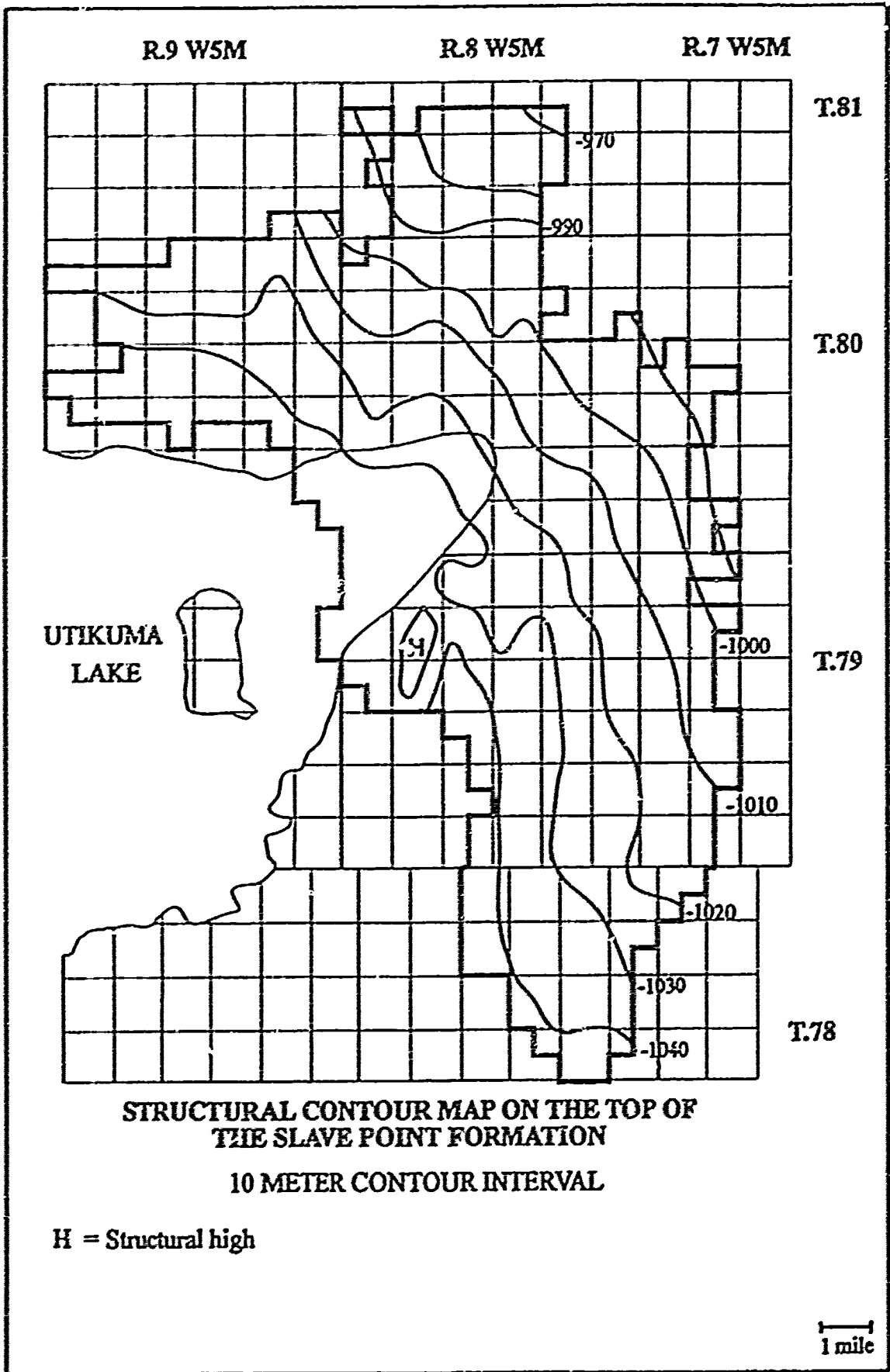


Figure 6.1 Structural contours on the top of the Slave Point Formation.

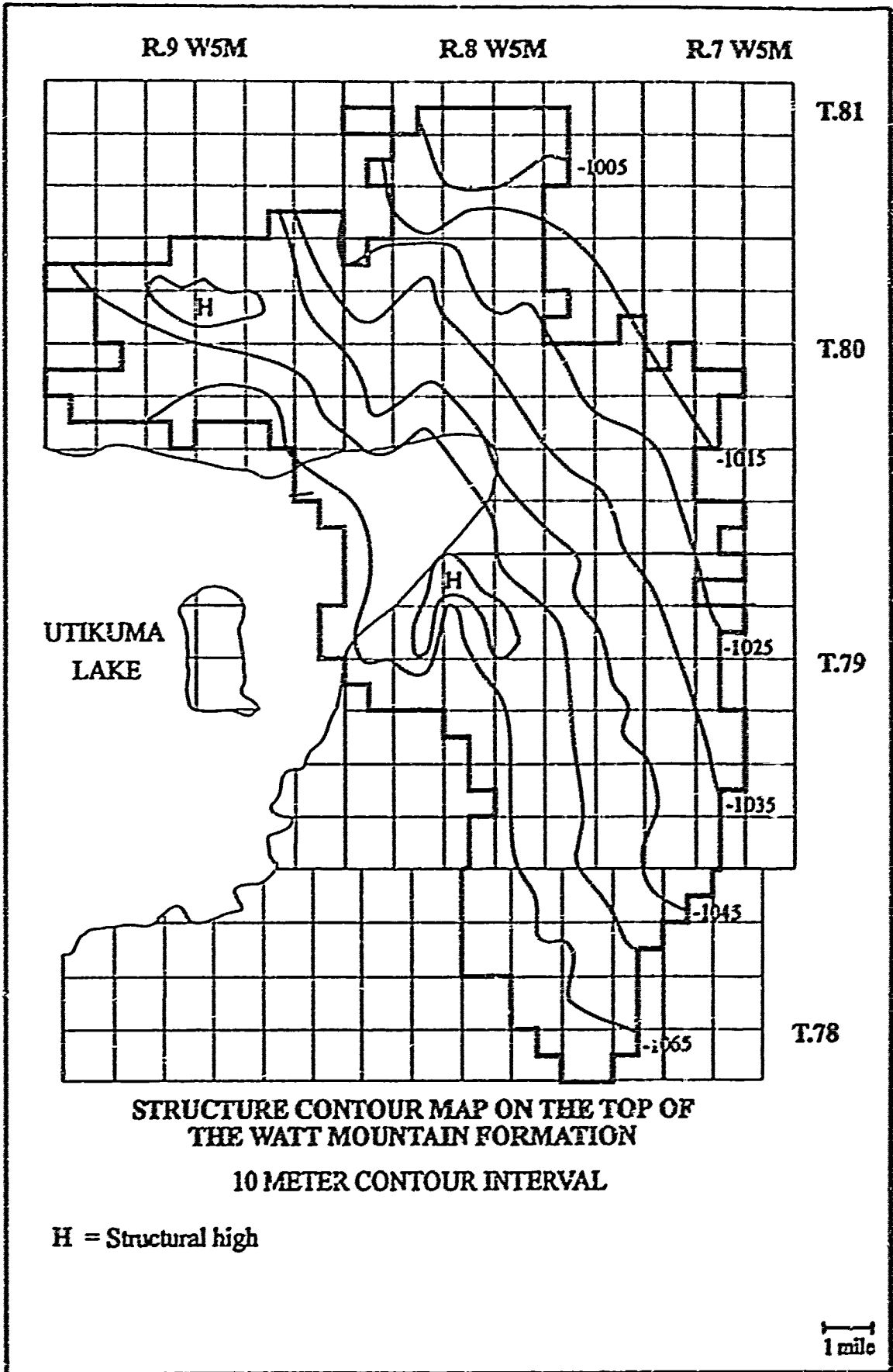


Figure 6.2 Structural contours on the top of the Watt Mountain Formation.

there is a similarity between the structural pattern of the Muskeg Formation top (Fig. 6.3) and the top of the Slave Point and Watt Mountain formations, the top of the Muskeg Formation has a significantly larger averaged southwest structural dip of 7.3 m/km on the eastern part of the field. This difference suggests that the structure of the Muskeg Formation was affected by events additional to those that generated the regional structure in the Nipisi field. A restored structure map of the top of the Muskeg Formation, using the depositionally flat Slave Point Formation as a datum, illustrates a north-south trending trough-like feature within the Nipisi field area (Fig. 6.4). This trough-like feature is clearly visible in a three-dimensional paleostructure diagram of the Muskeg Formation using the Watt Mountain Formation as a datum (Fig. 6.5). The trough resulted in the thick Watt Mountain sediment accumulation in the Nipisi area. A Watt Mountain Formation isopach (Fig. 6.6) illustrates the relationship between thickness of the Watt Mountain Formation and deepness of the trough.

## 6.2 Origin of Muskeg Trough

Previous studies have suggested that the Muskeg trough was the result of salt solution collapse prior to deposition of the Watt Mountain Formation (Thachuk, 1967 and Alcock and Benteau, 1976). Thachuk (1967) suggested that the salt solution occurred in the thick salt bed located at the base of the Muskeg Formation. Evidence for this was illustrated in an isopach map of this basal salt, which showed the existence of an erosional salt edge located approximately in the center of the Muskeg trough. This basal salt is important because it is the thickest salt bed in the Muskeg Formation. The present study shows, however, that there are many other thinner salt beds that appear to have been removed by salt dissolution, and these also contributed to the thinning of the Muskeg Formation over the Nipisi area.

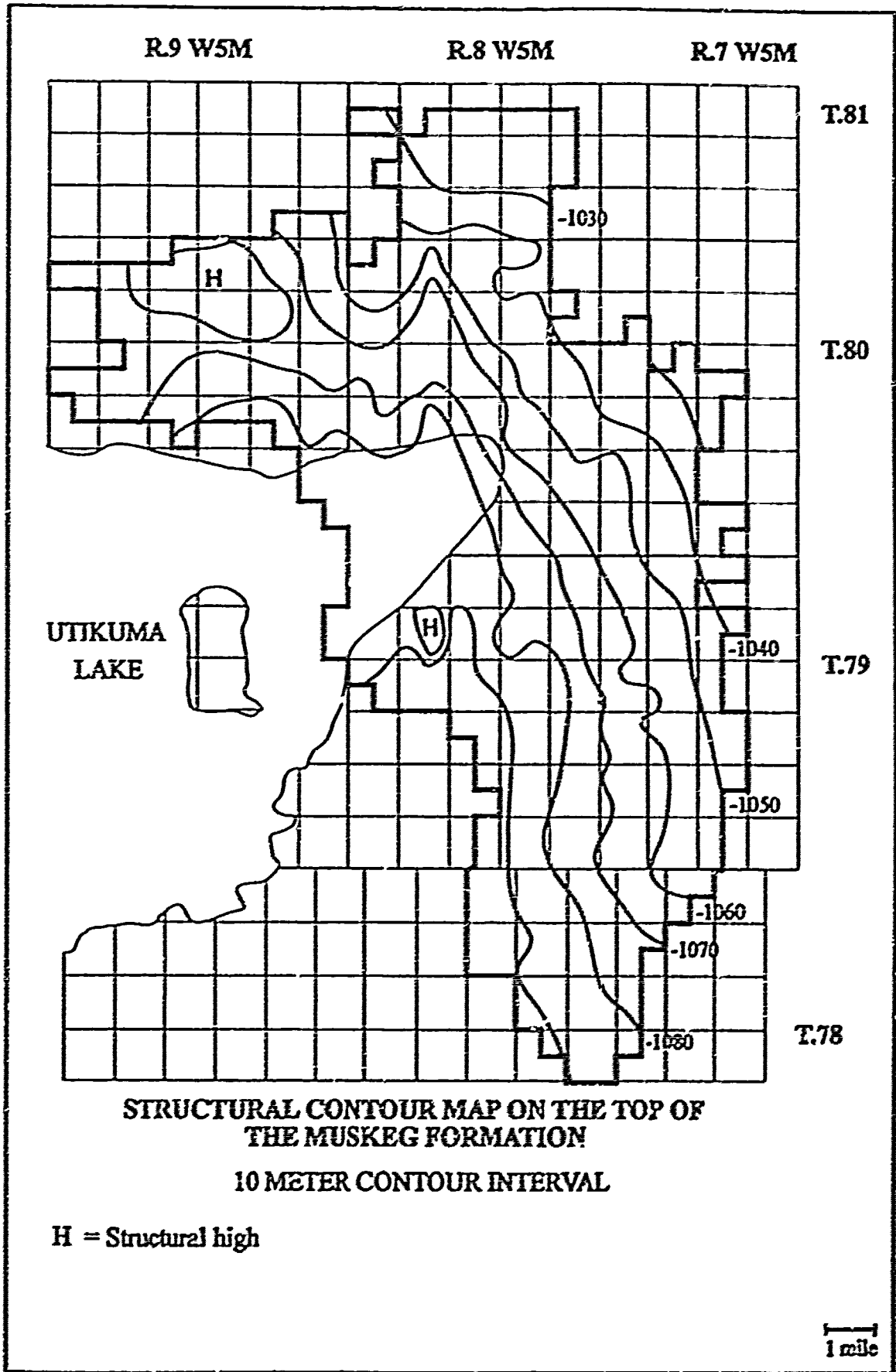


Figure 6.3 Structural contours on the top of the Muskeg Formation.

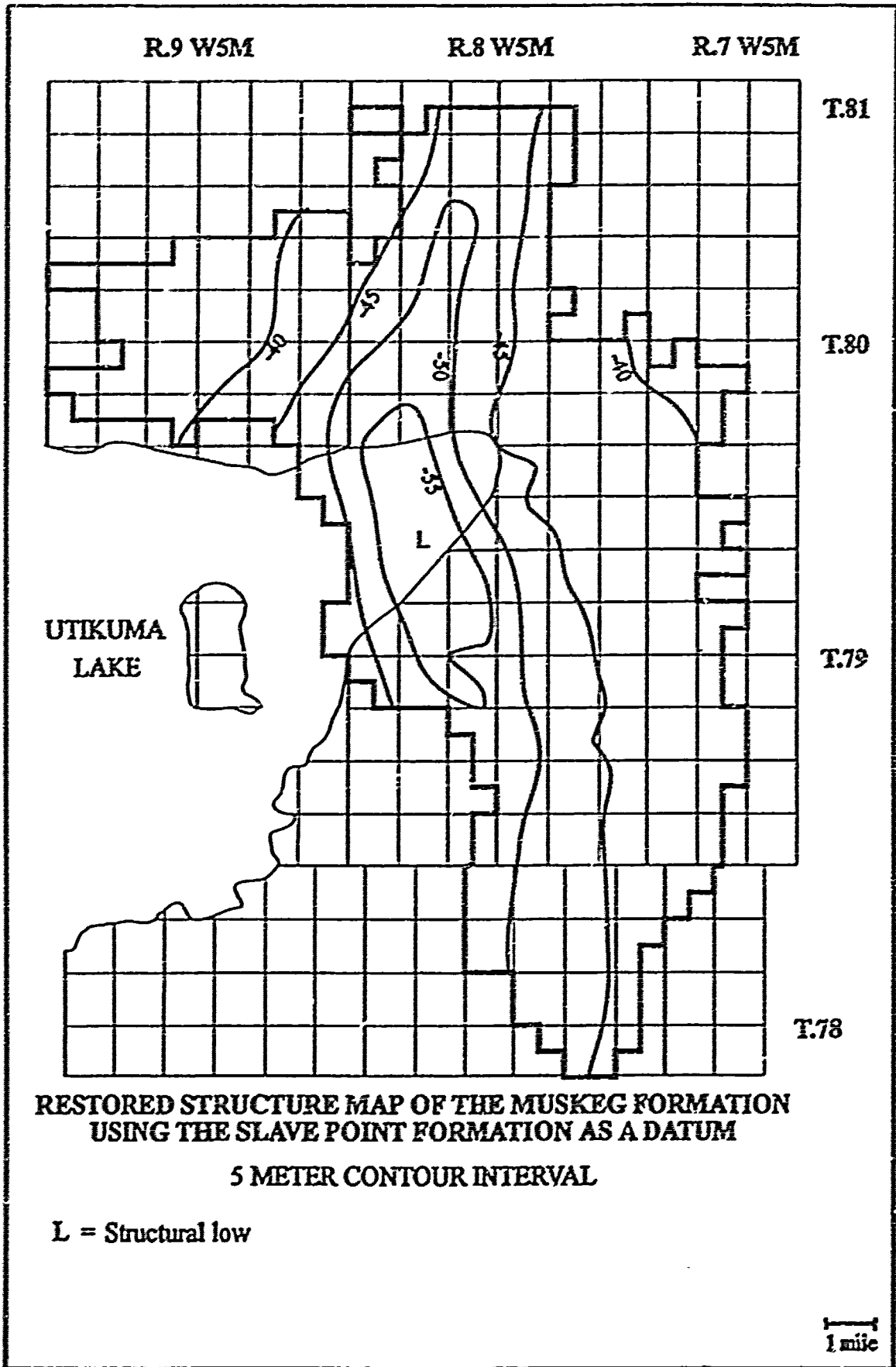
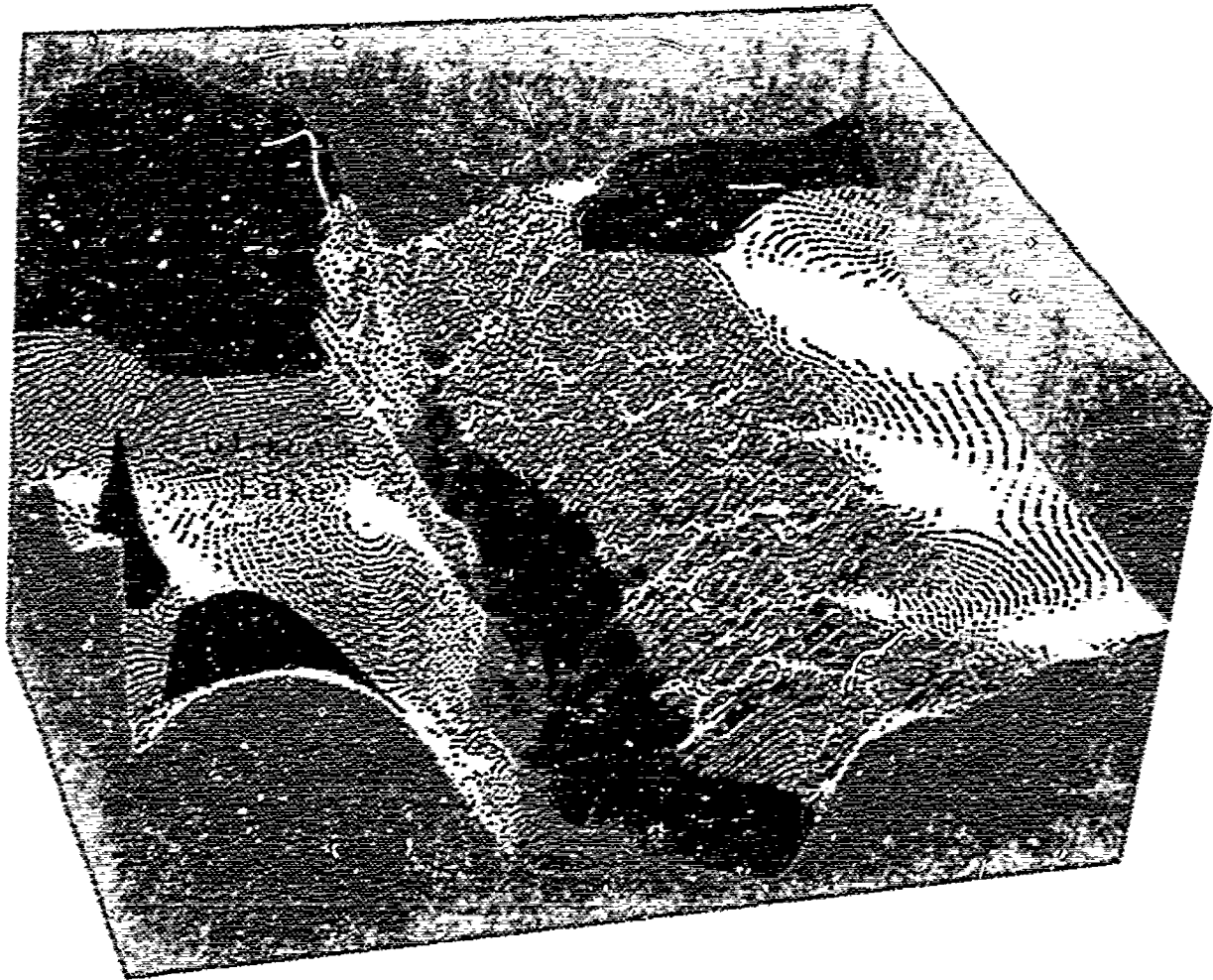




Figure 6.4 Restored Muskeg Fm. structure map using Slave Point Fm. as datum.



-  Topographical low (Base of Muskeg trough)
-  Topographical high

**Figure 6 5** Three dimensional block diagram illustrating the paleostructure of the Muskeg Formation at the end of Watt Mountain time



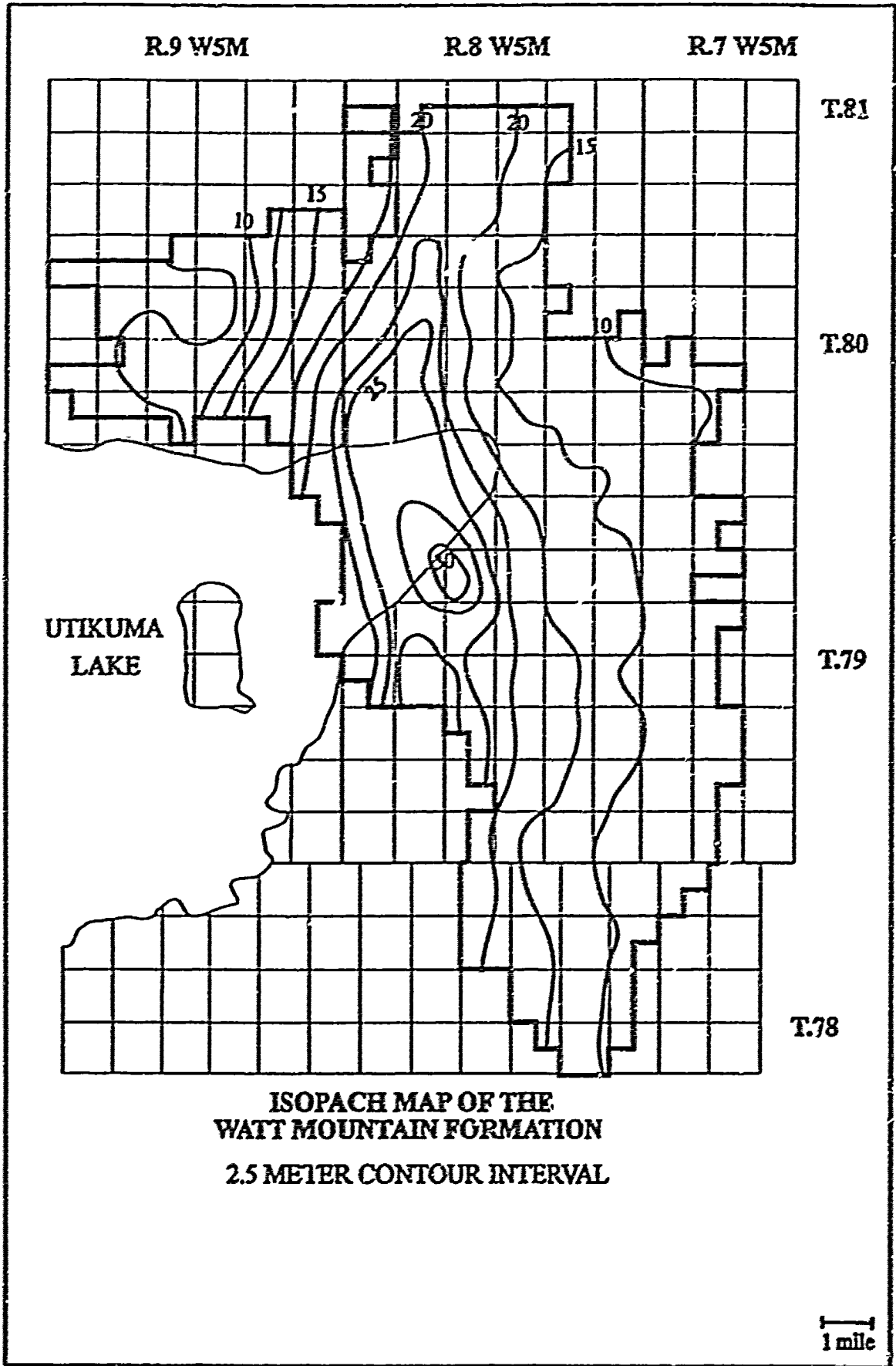


Figure 6.6 Isopach map of the Watt Mountain Formation.

An isopach map of the Muskeg Formation (Fig. 6.7) illustrates that the whole formation gradually thins in a westward direction, therefore, it is not surprising that the total accumulation of salt within the Muskeg Formation would also thin in this direction as demonstrated by Thachuk's isopach map of the lower Muskeg salt (Thachuk, 1967). A problem exists though, as to what causes the increased thickness of the Muskeg Formation to the west of Thachuk's (1976) zero salt edge. To the west of the zero salt edge, there is no lower salt left to explain the increased thickness of the Muskeg Formation. However, the increased thickness of the Muskeg Formation on the western side of the Nipisi area can be explained if all salts in the Muskeg Formation are thought to have contributed to the salt solution collapse. A total salt isopach map was generated by using a 65  $\mu\text{s}/\text{ft}$  cutoff on the sonic log (Fig. 6.8). The map illustrates that the thickening of the Muskeg Formation on the western side of the Muskeg trough is associated with a thickening of total salt accumulation.

### 6.3 Timing of Salt Solution Collapse

The timing of salt solution has been documented by previous workers to have occurred prior to Watt Mountain Formation deposition during a period of Muskeg subaerial exposure (Thachuk, 1967 and Alcock and Benteau, 1976). It is possible that parts of the Nipisi field area experienced limited collapse during this Muskeg exposure period, but detailed mapping of the 6 Gilwood zones suggested that collapsing also occurred during the deposition of the Watt Mountain Formation. In this study, collapse was recorded at the end of Gilwood zone 2, Gilwood zone 4, and at the end of Watt Mountain deposition (Fig 6.9, 6.10, 6.11). A progression of collapse at these time intervals can be demonstrated (Figs. 6.12 to 6.16).

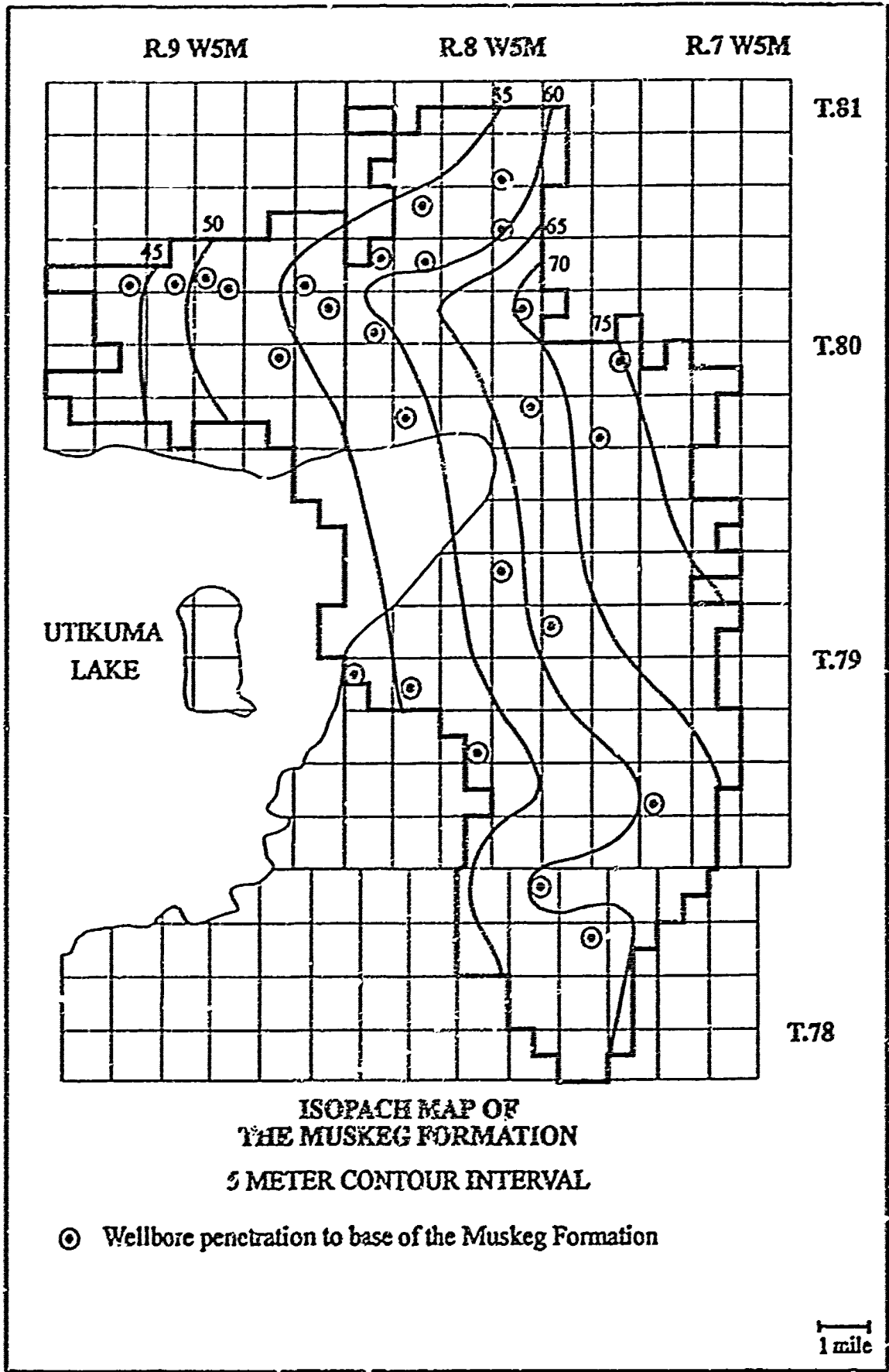


Figure 6.7 Isopach map of the Muskeg Formation

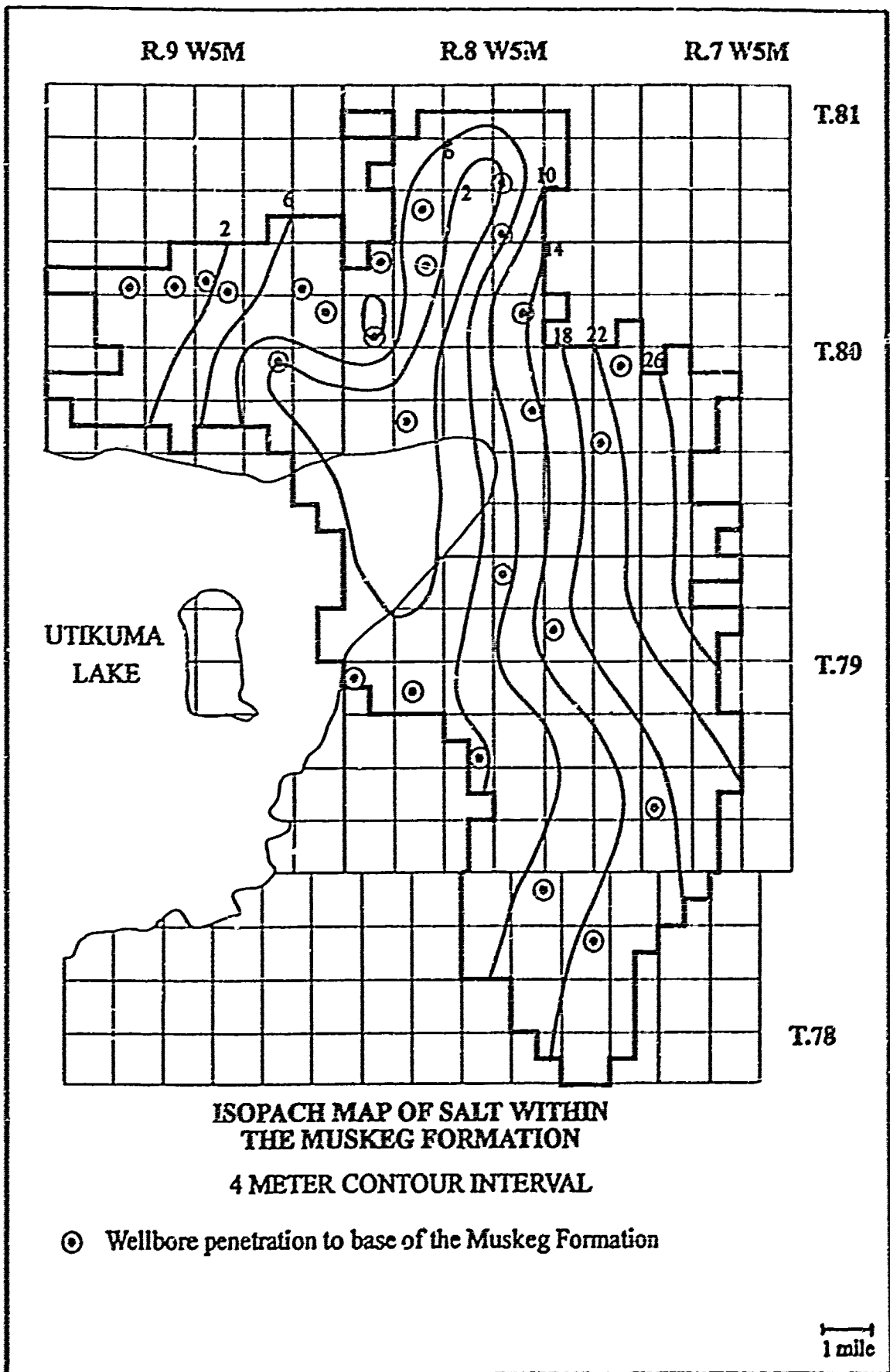


Figure 6.8 Isopach map of salt within the Muskeg Formation.

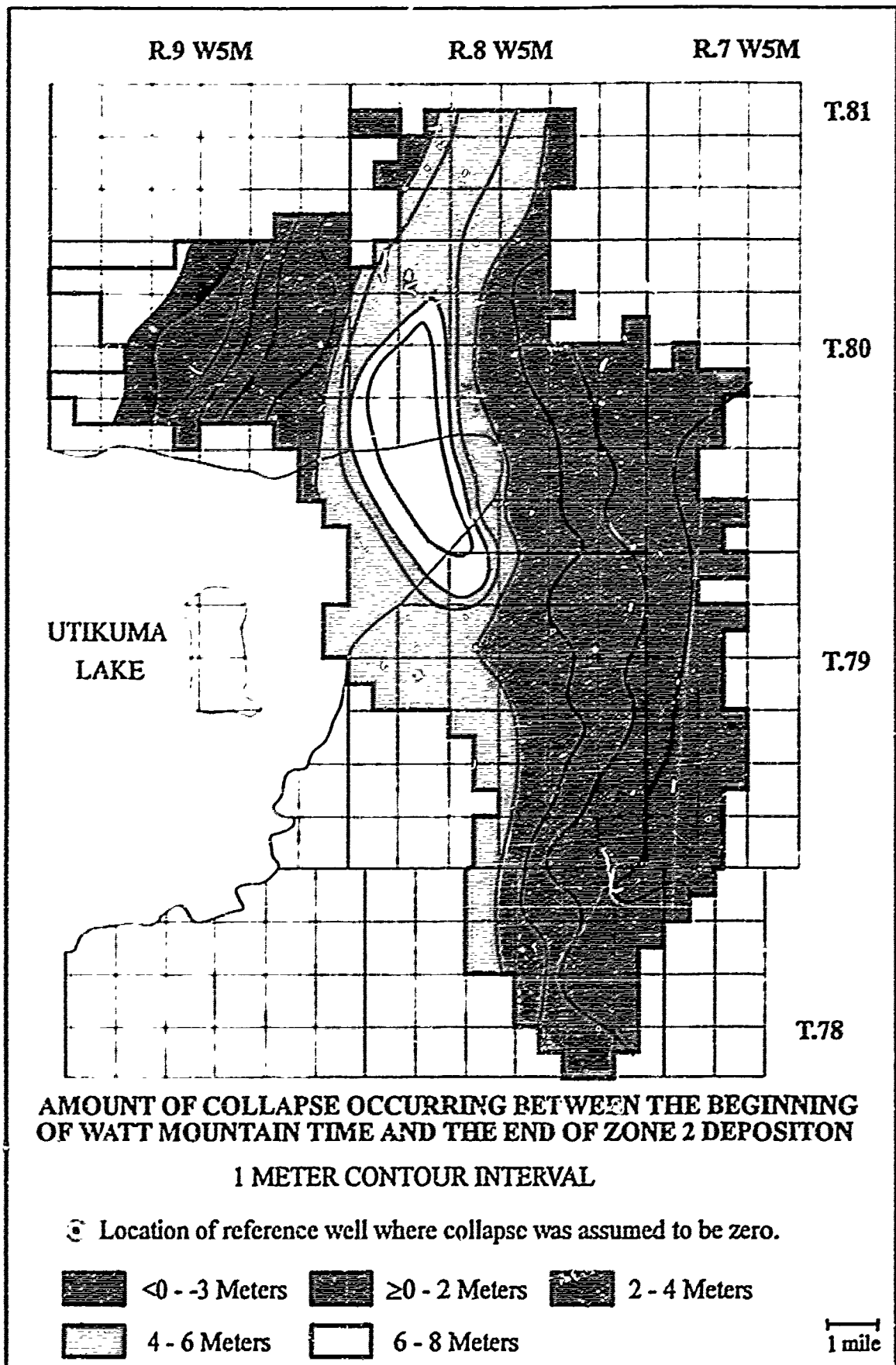


Fig. 6.9 Contour map illustrating the amount of collapse occurring between the beginning of Watt Mountain time and the end of Gilwood Zone 2 deposition.

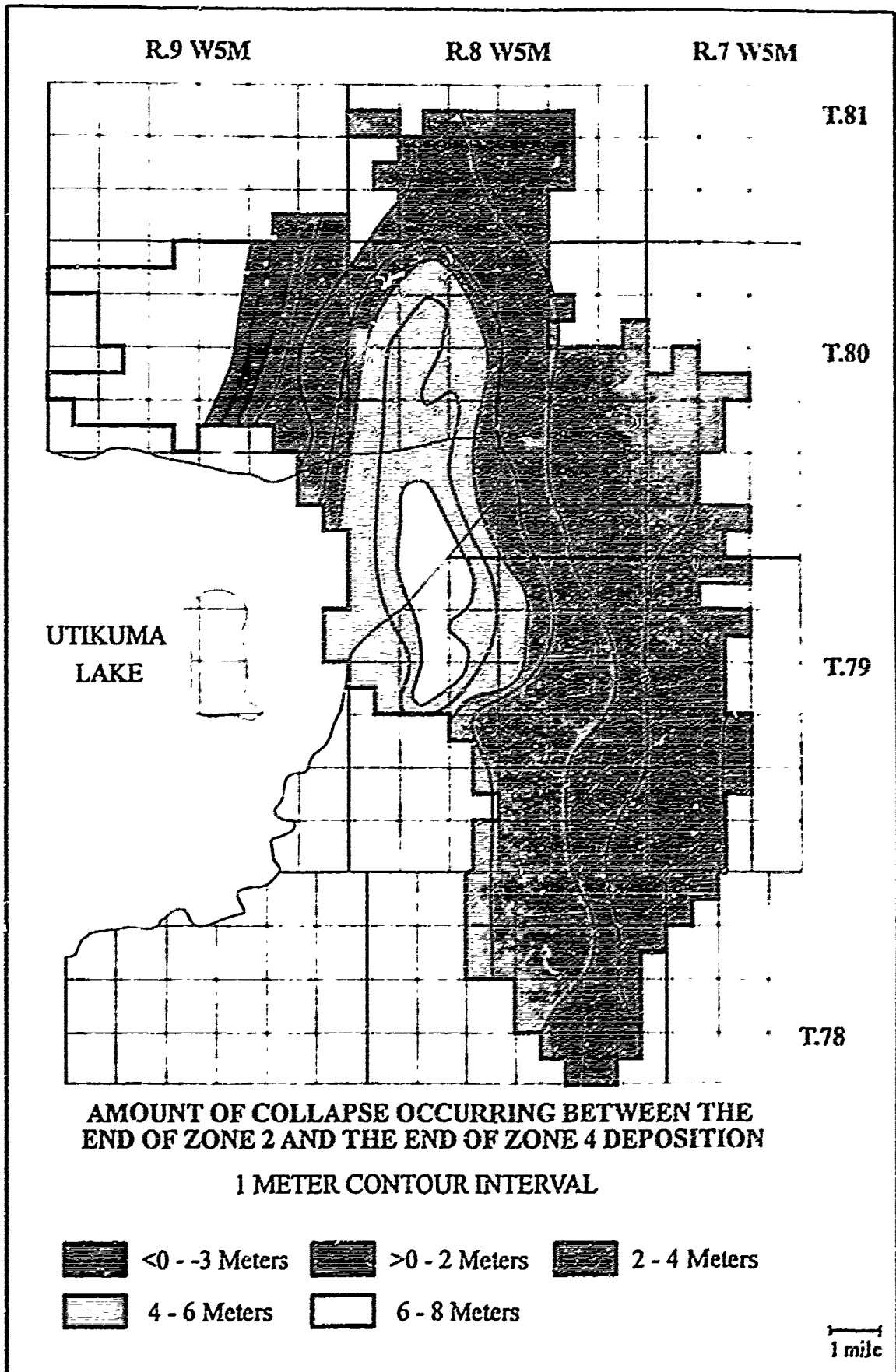


Fig. 6.10 Contour map illustrating the amount of collapse occurring between the end of Gilwood Zone 2 and the end of Gilwood Zone 4 deposition.

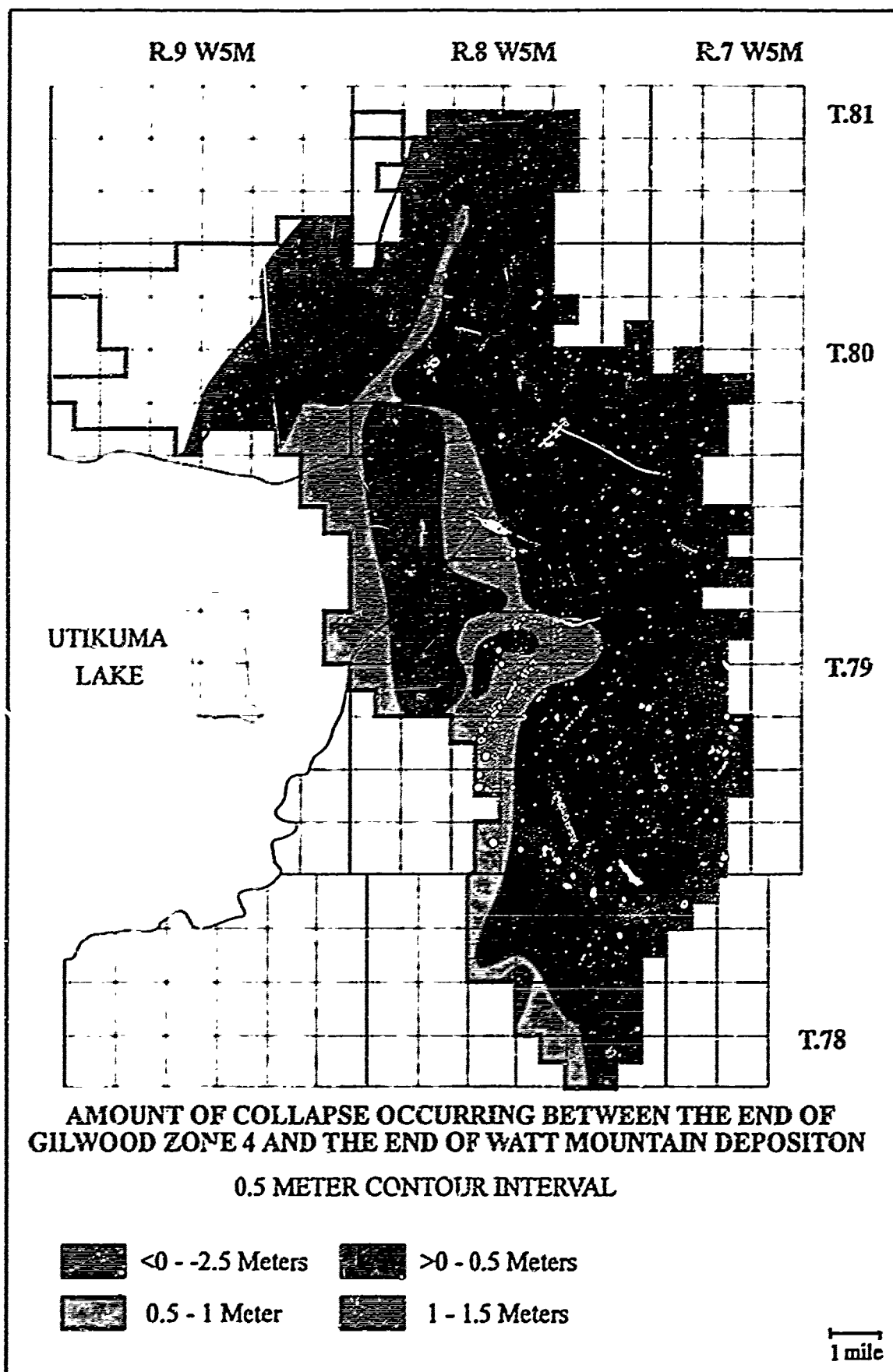


Fig. 6.11 Contour map illustrating the amount of collapse occurring between the end of Gilwood Zone 4 and the end of Watt Mountain deposition.

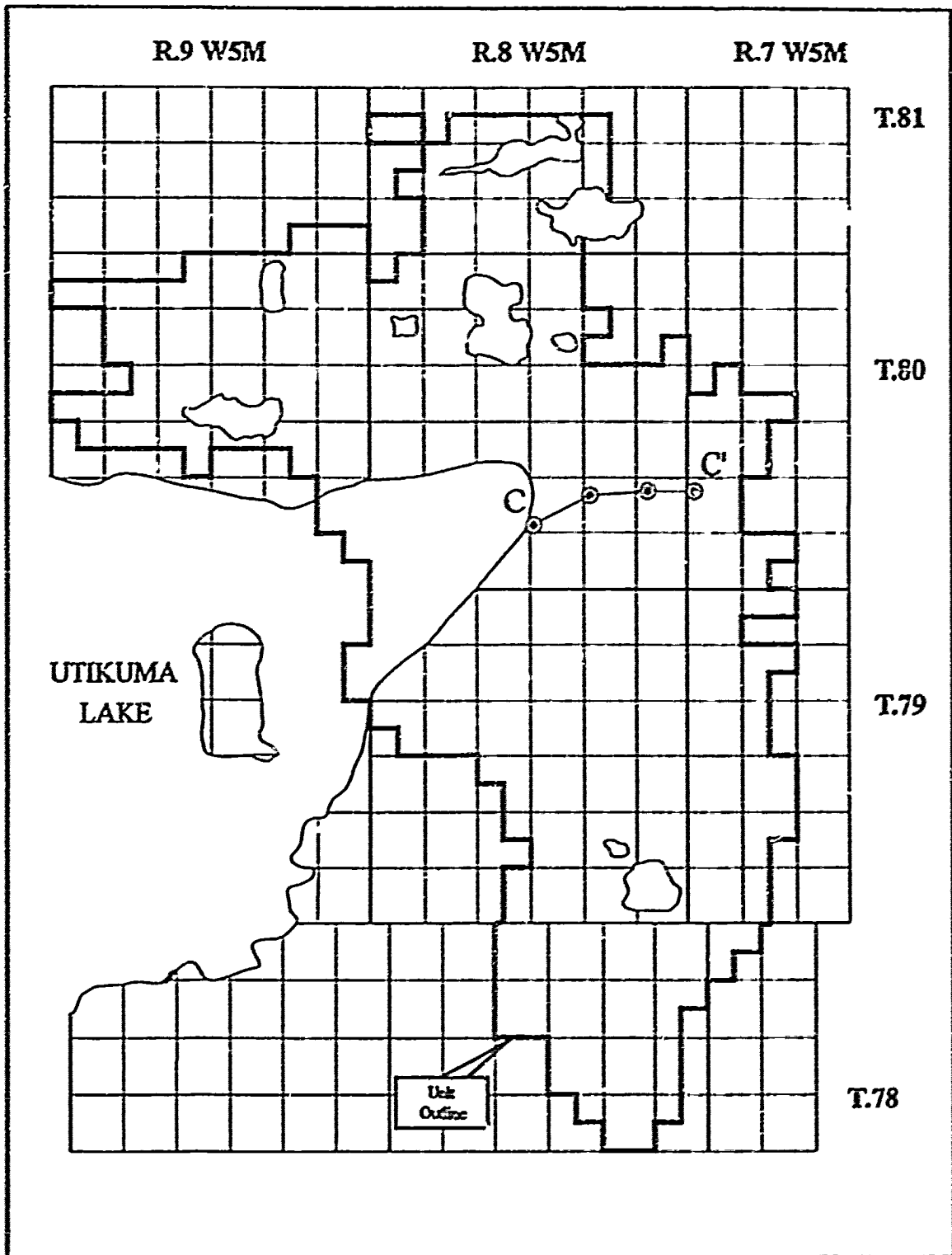


Figure 6.12 Reference map for cross sections C -C' illustrated in figures 6.13 - 6.16.



STRATIGRAPHIC CROSS -SECTION

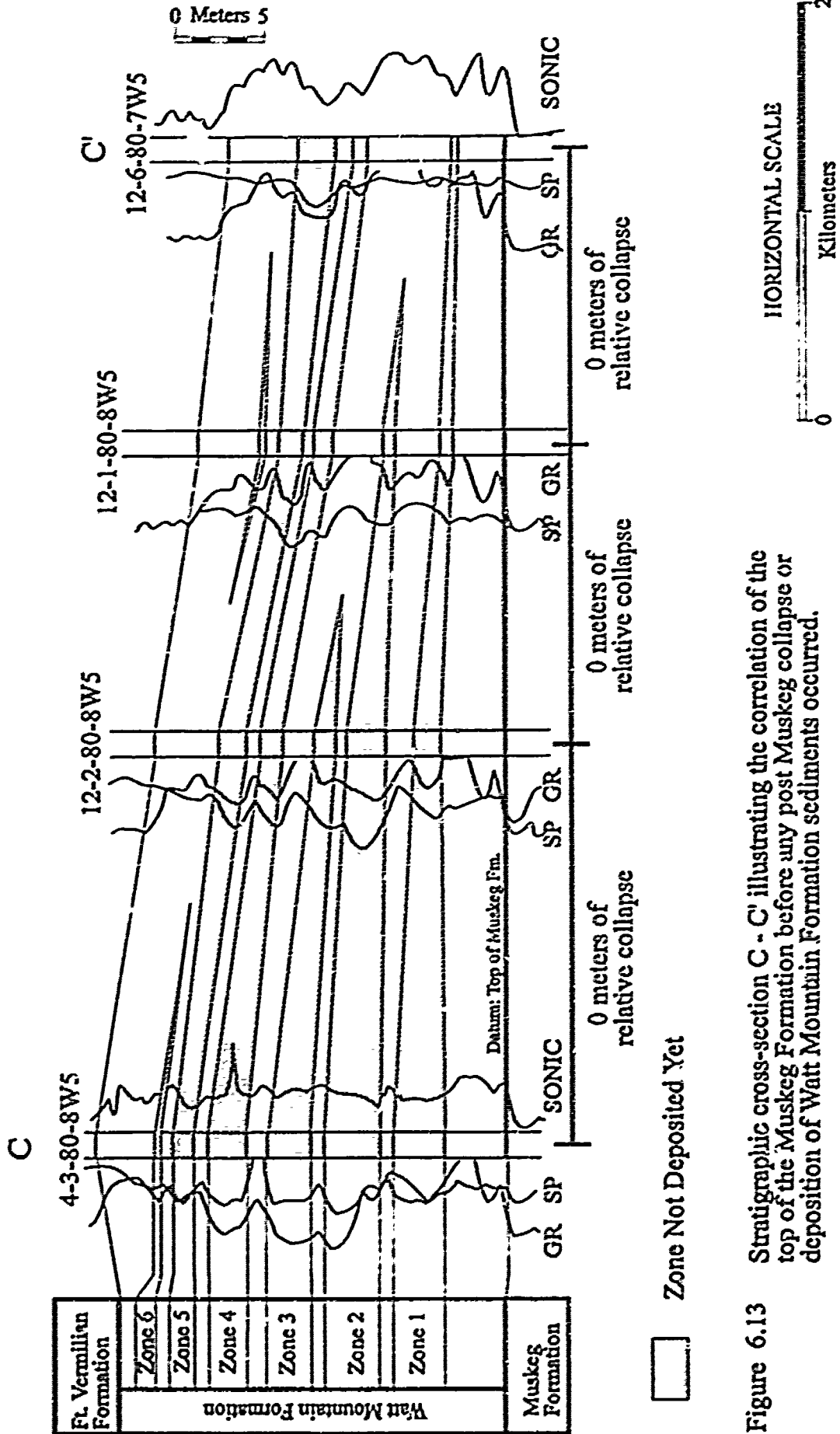


Figure 6.13 Stratigraphic cross-section C - C' illustrating the correlation of the top of the Muskeg Formation before any post Muskeg collapse or deposition of Wait Mountain Formation sediments occurred.

# STRATIGRAPHIC CROSS-SECTION

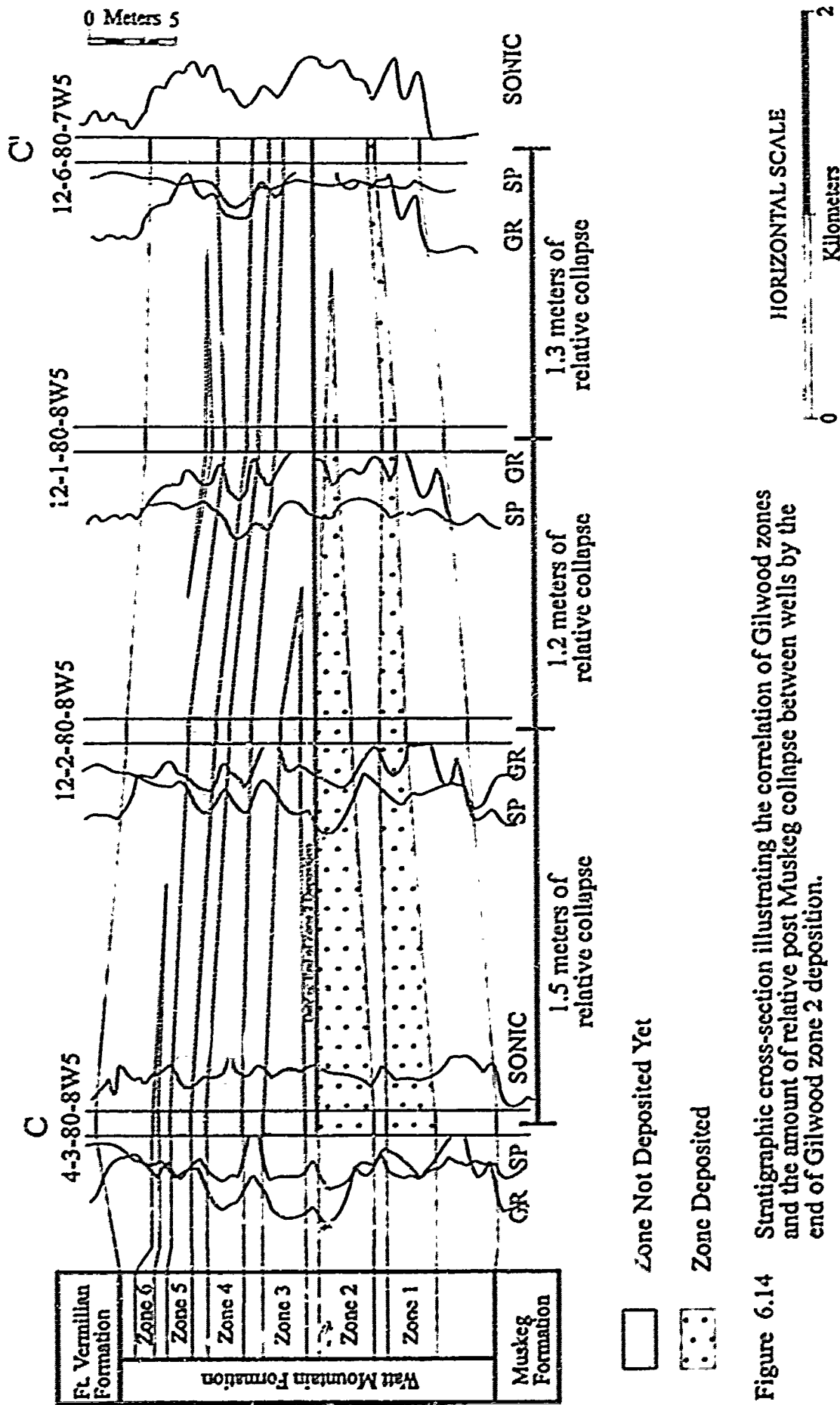


Figure 6.14 Stratigraphic cross-section illustrating the correlation of Gilwood zones and the amount of relative post Muskeg collapse between wells by the end of Gilwood zone 2 deposition.

STRATIGRAPHIC CROSS-SECTION

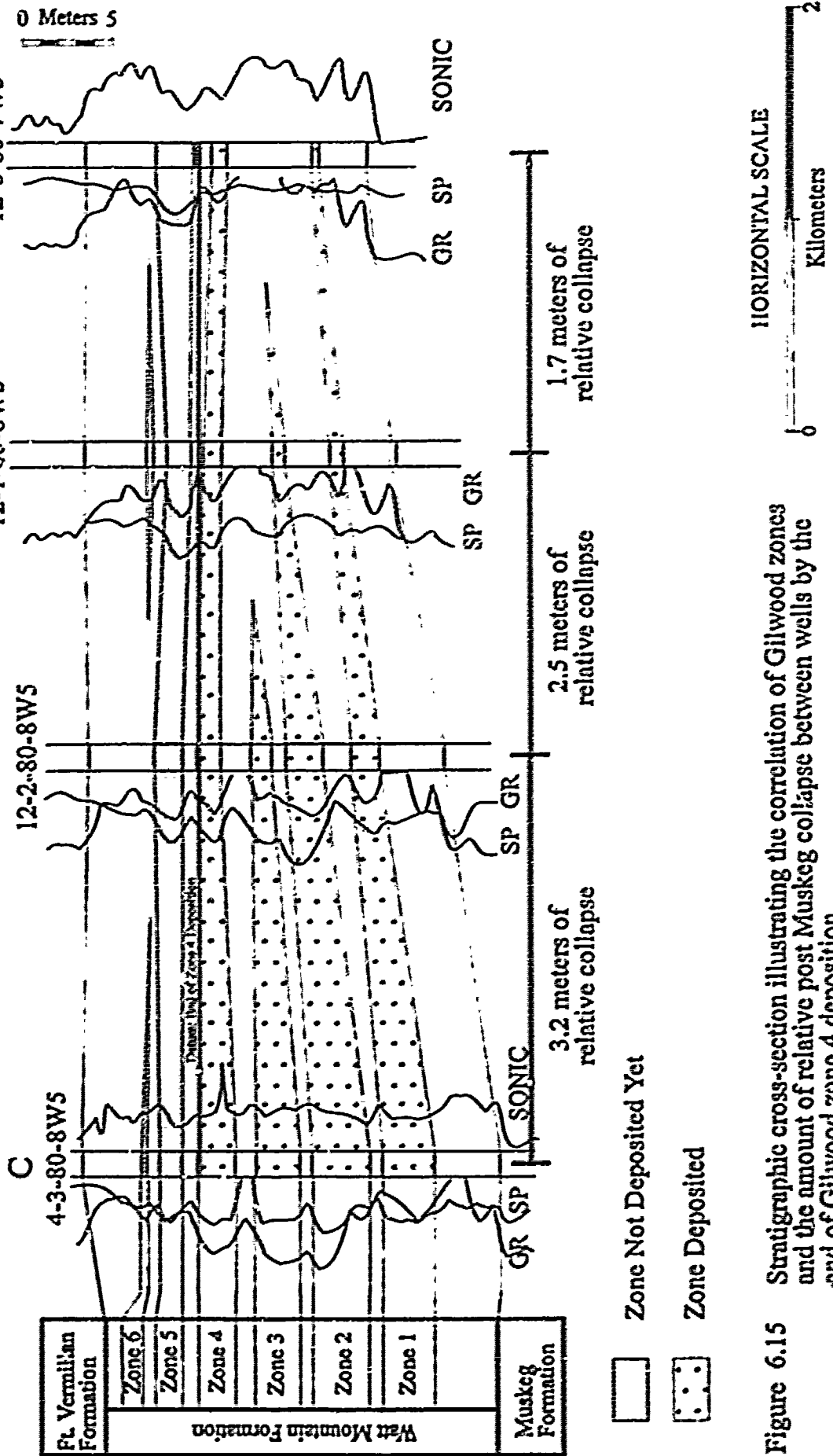
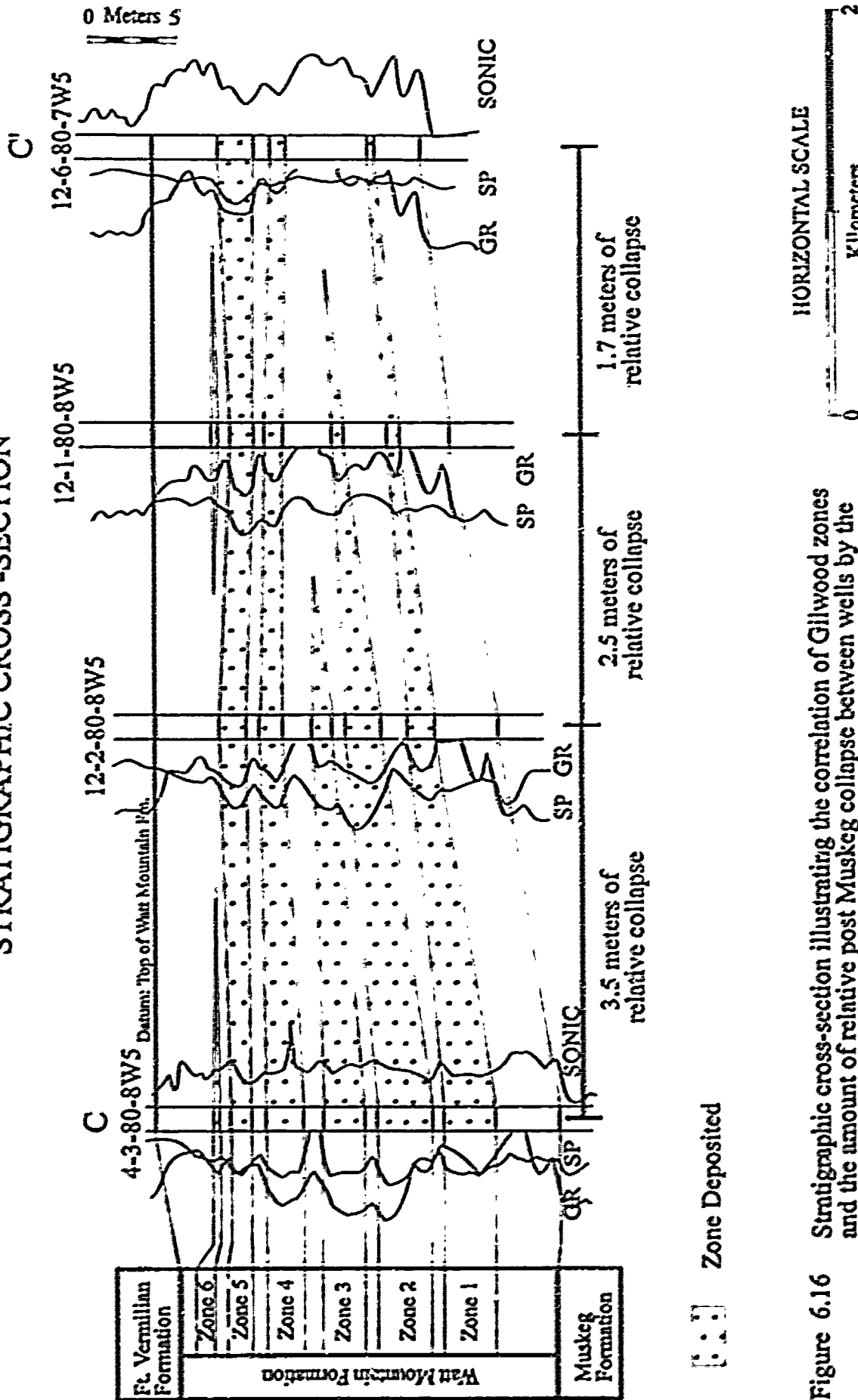


Figure 6.15 Stratigraphic cross-section illustrating the correlation of Gilwood zones and the amount of relative post Muskeg collapse between wells by the end of Gilwood zone 4 deposition.

STRATIGRAPHIC CROSS-SECTION



Zone Deposited

Figure 6.16 Stratigraphic cross-section illustrating the correlation of Gilwood zones and the amount of relative post Muskeg collapse between wells by the end of Watt Mountain deposition.

## CHAPTER 7 DISTRIBUTION OF WATT MOUNTAIN SEDIMENTS

### 7.1 Introduction

The sediments in the Watt Mountain Formation in the Nipisi field have been divided into four facies associations that collectively suggested that sedimentation occurred in a lacustrine braid-delta system. Braid-delta deposits have high lateral continuity, and on a large scale they commonly produce sheet-like bodies over the length and width of the flood plain (McPherson *et al.*, 1987). In the Nipisi field, six laterally continuous sandstone-dominated zones have been identified. The paleogeographic distribution, relative sand body geometry and thickness of each zone, were found by constructing an isopach map of each (Figs. 7.1 to 7.6). Separating the six sandstone-dominated zones were mudstone deposits. These deposits were also laterally continuous, however, there were rare occurrences where these mudstones were absent, resulting in the stacking of one Gilwood zone over another.

The complexity of the vertical assemblages that make up the Watt Mountain Formation in the Nipisi field suggested that paleoenvironmental changes occurred during sedimentation of the Watt Mountain Formation. These were attributed to changes in the climate and tectonic setting, which are the two fundamental controls that influence the evolution of any basin (Reynolds *et al.*, 1989). Climate may influence the evaporation to precipitation ratio, discharge rates, and modes of sediment transport, while tectonic activity may control the basin geometry (Anadon *et al.*, 1991).

In describing the distribution of the Watt Mountain sediments an attempt was made to include the relative importance of the factors associated with the climate and tectonic controls.

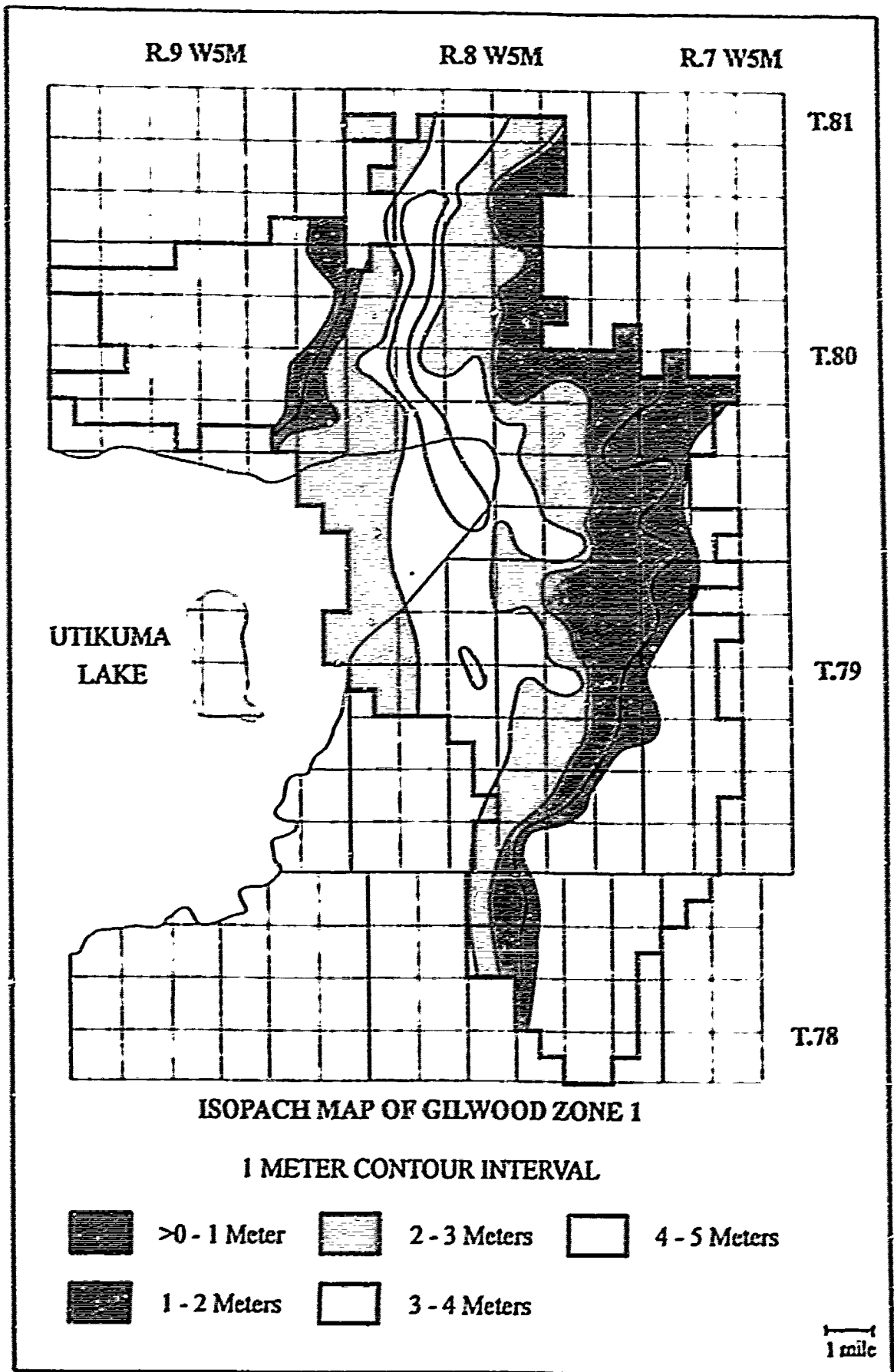


Figure 7.1 Isopach map of Gilwood Zone 1.

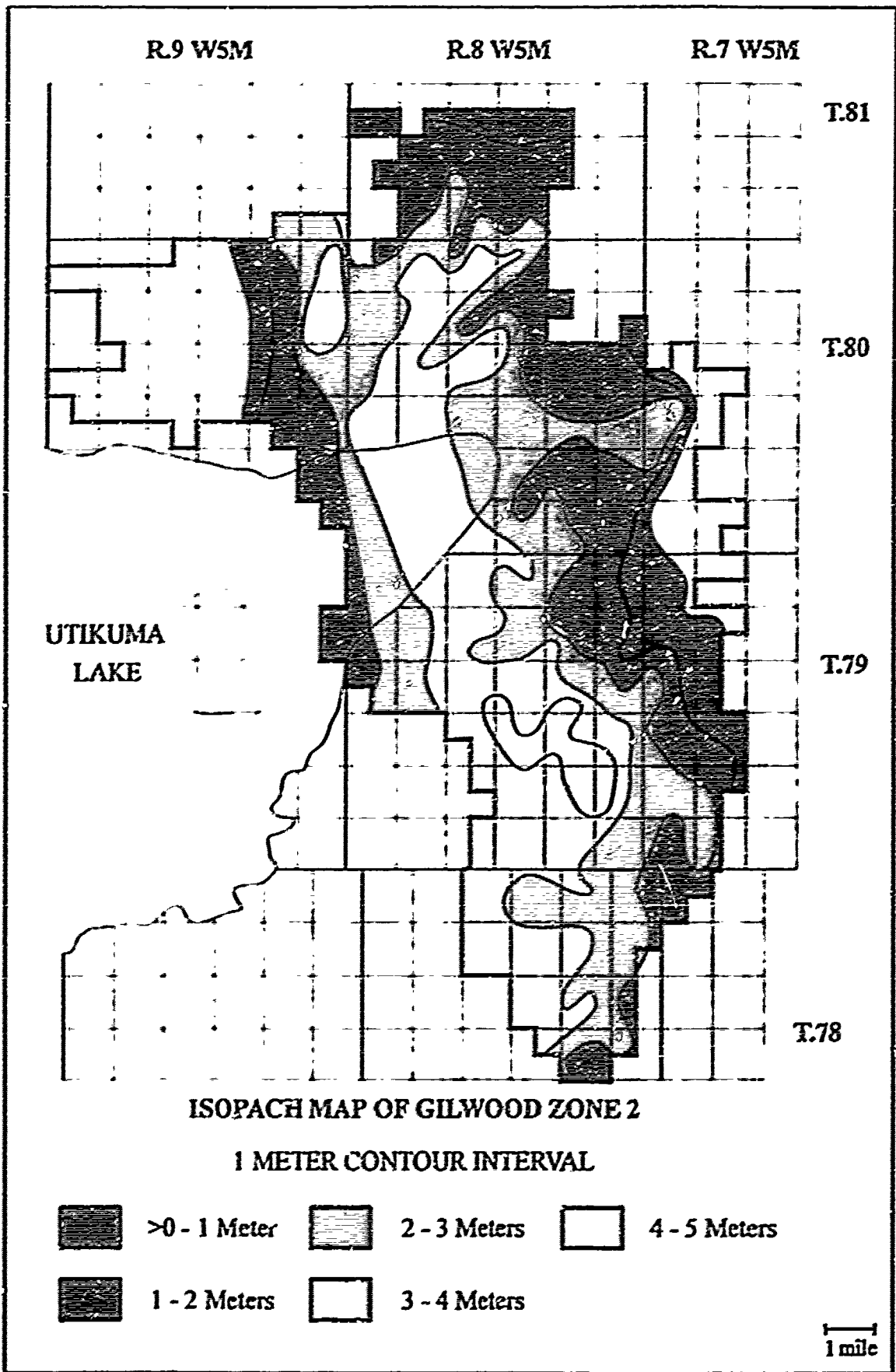


Figure 72 Isopach map of Gilwood Zone 2.

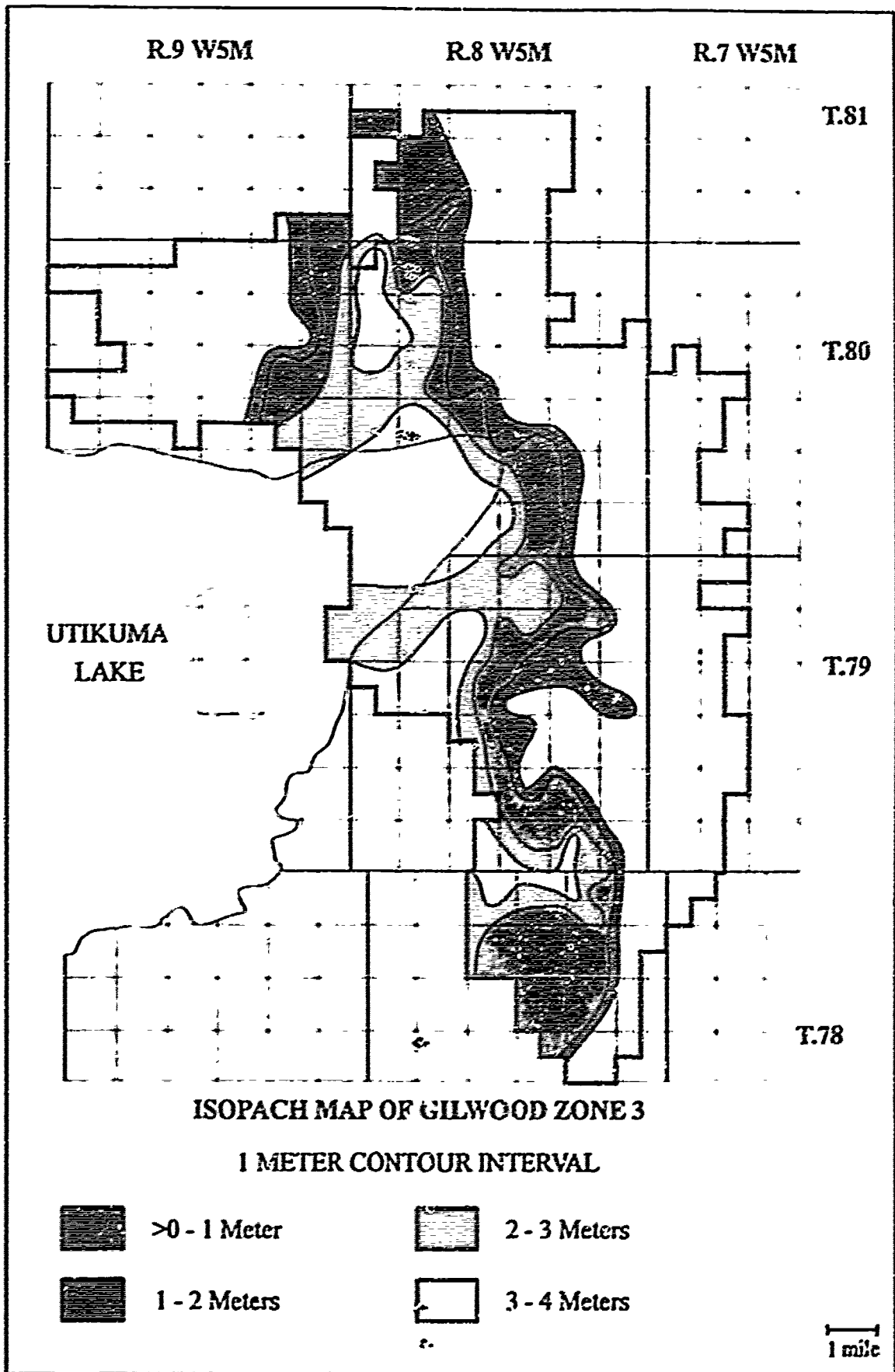


Figure 73 Isopach map of Gilwood Zone 3.



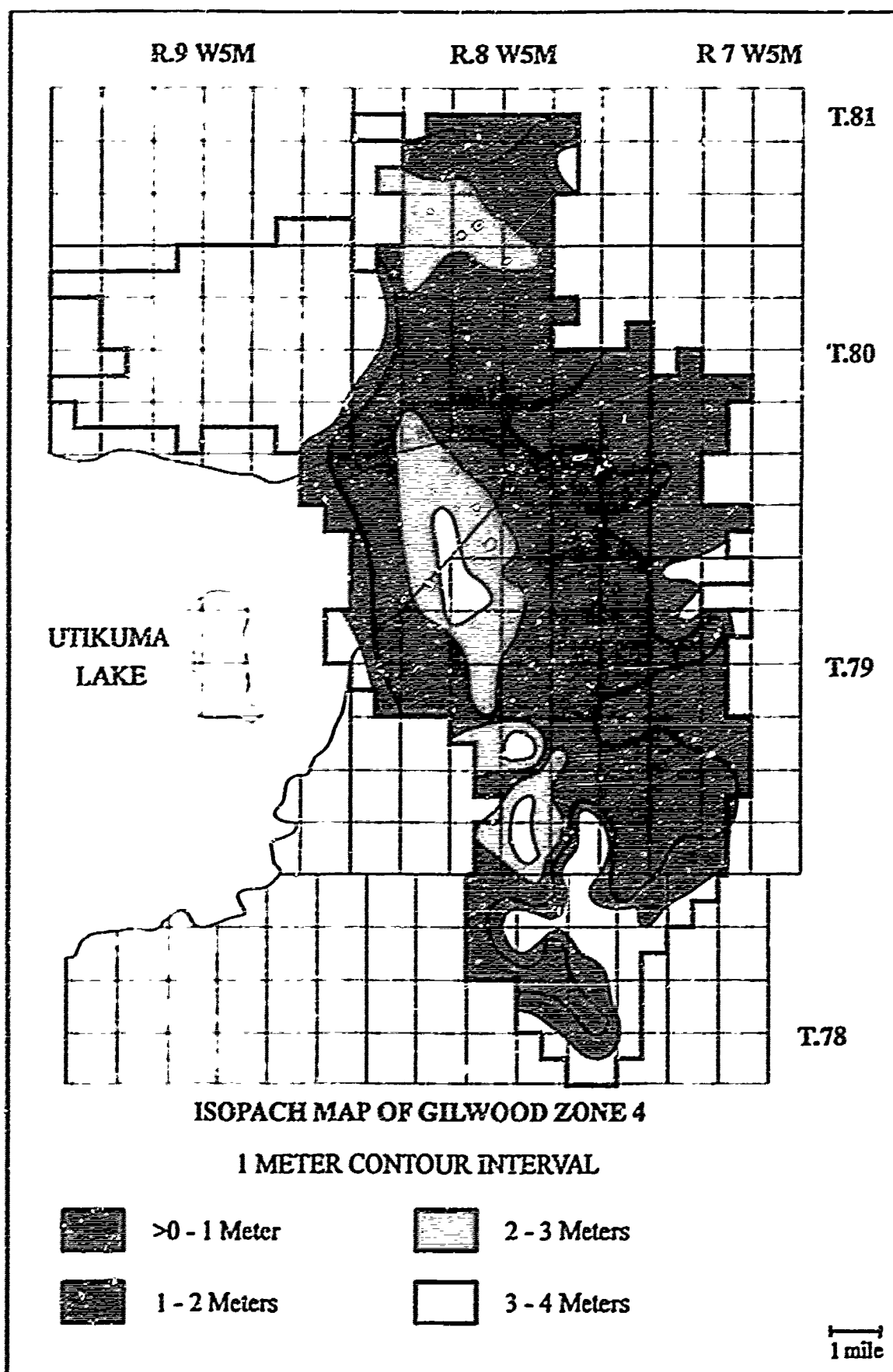


Figure 7.4 Isopach map of Gilwood Zone 4.

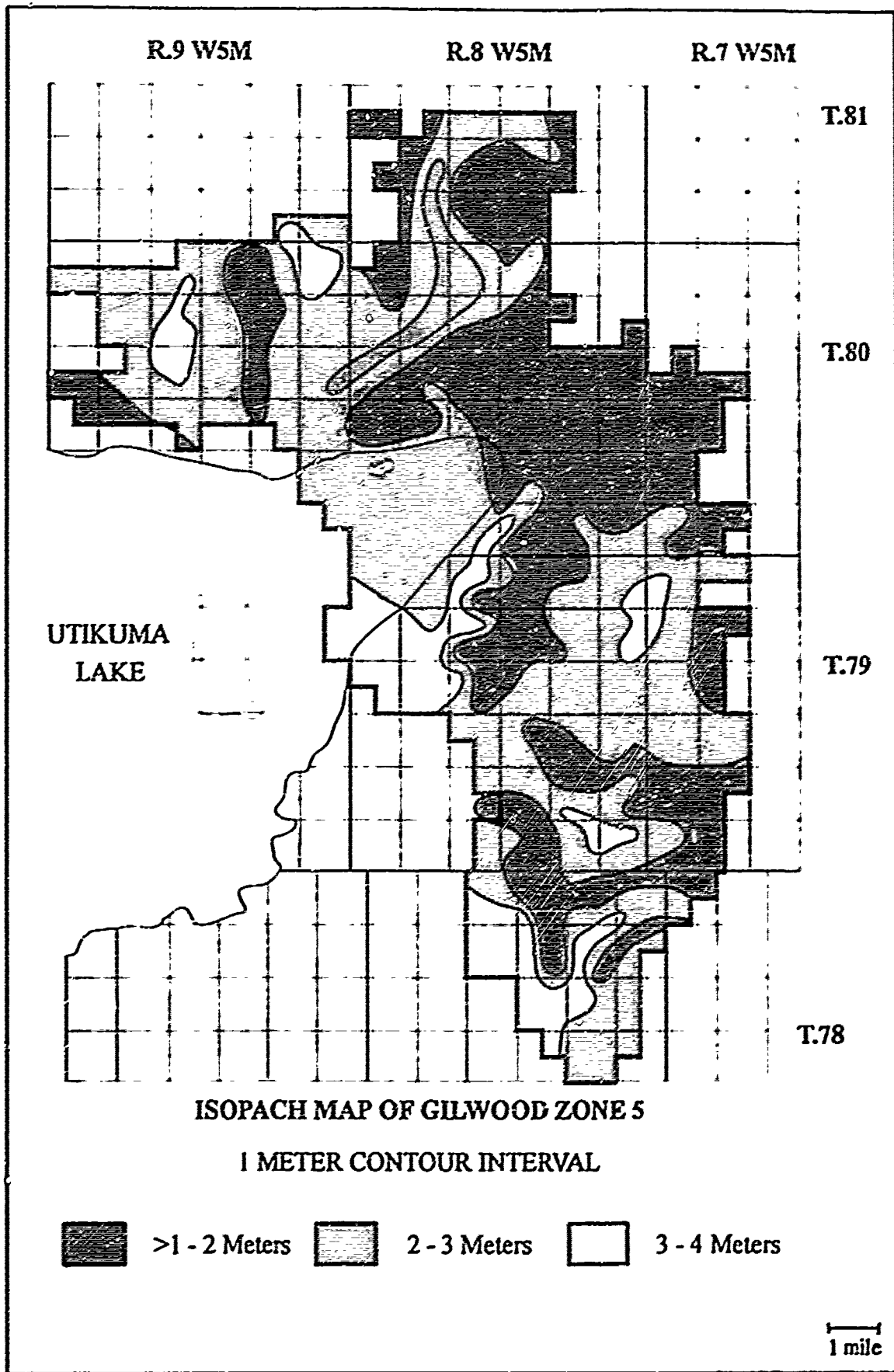


Figure 7.5 Isopach map of Gilwood Zone 5

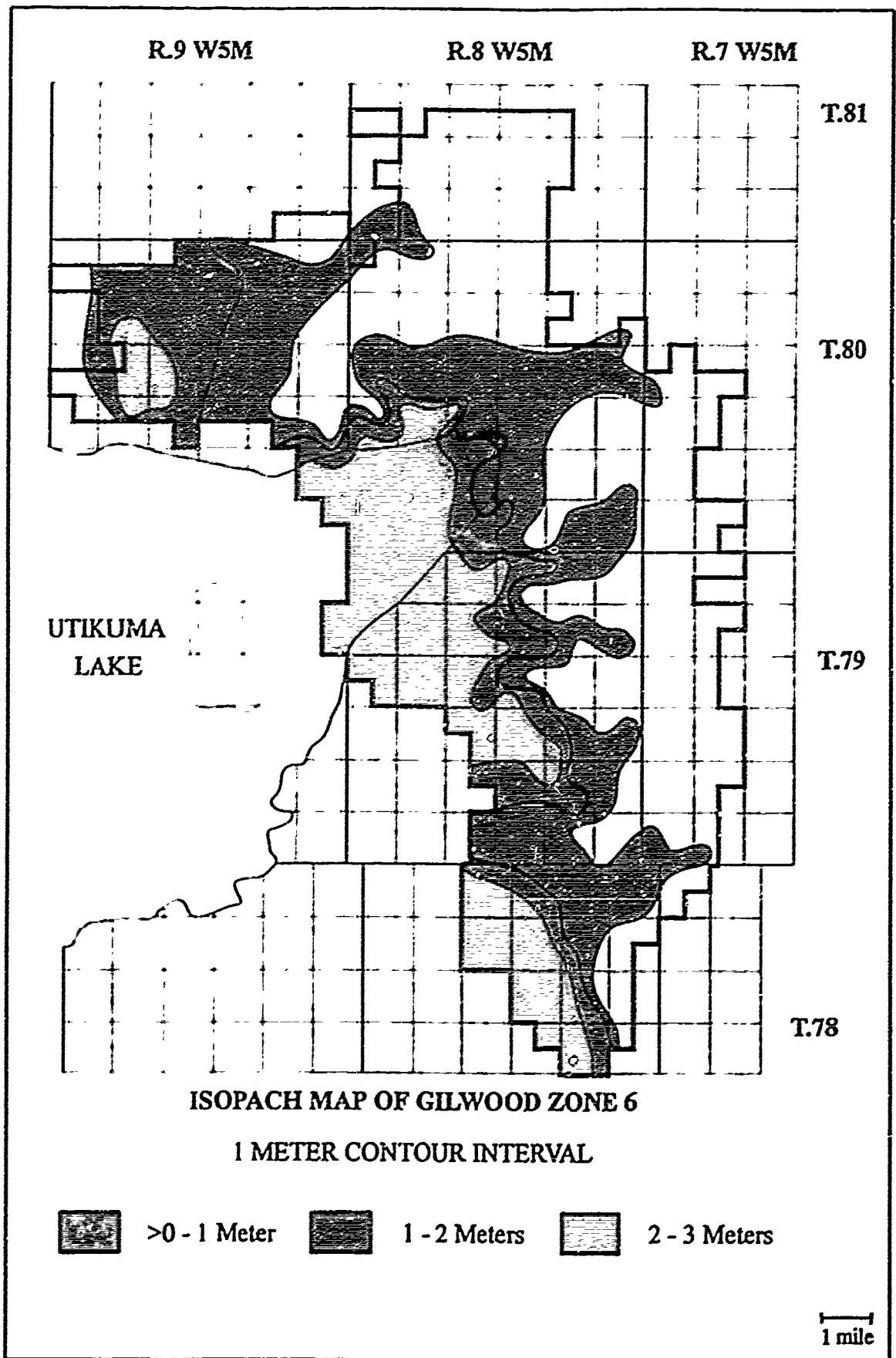


Figure 76 Isopach map of Gilwood Zone 6.

## 7.2 Distribution of the Gilwood Sandstone Zones

Each of the six Gilwood zones represent a period of high clastic input sourced from the west. Gilwood zones 1 and 3 are the most areally restricted of the six zones, suggesting that the Muskeg trough strongly influenced the distribution of these sediments by confining them as they prograded into the Nipisi area. The eastward tonguing of sediment in Gilwood zone 2, and the extension of Gilwood zone 4 out to the eastern limits of the Nipisi field, suggest some periods of Gilwood deposition were less influenced.

The differences in the areal distribution of the sandstone zones is strongly dependent on the shape of the Muskeg trough prior to deposition of the zone, and the amount of sediment deposited. Eastward progradation of a Gilwood zone deposit can only be achieved through progressive filling of the trough. Therefore, when the relief of the trough before deposition was small, less sediment was needed for the progradation across the Nipisi area than when the trough's relief was large. The lack of preservation of Gilwood zones 1 to 4 in the northwestern corner of the Nipisi field area is a result of successive deposition over this area, which resulted in the erosion of all but the upper two Gilwood zones (5 and 6).

The amount of collapse that occurred between the end of Gilwood zone 4 and the end of Watt Mountain Formation deposition was relatively minimal (Fig. 6.11). This resulted in the progradation of Gilwood zones 5 and 6 into the Nipisi area without the distribution of their sediment being significantly influenced by the Muskeg trough. Therefore, the depositional pattern and eastward progradation of these two zones across the Nipisi field was mainly controlled by the energy of the hydrologic system.

Gilwood zone 5 illustrates extensive complex tonguing emanating from a northwestern to western source with no apparent north south trend. Gilwood zone 6 is

the last major episode of sandstone deposition recorded in the Watt Mountain Formation. The limited eastward progradation of this zone compared to Gilwood zone 5 suggested that the energy of this depositional system was significantly less.

#### 7.4 Distribution of Watt Mountain Mudstones

The Watt Mountain Formation mudstones represent lacustrine deposits (Facies Association 1) that accumulated throughout the Nipisi field area during quiescent periods. These mudstones formed laterally continuous beds that effectively separate each of the Gilwood zones. During high inflow periods, sandstone deposits dominated the western areas of the Nipisi field, and mudstone accumulations were limited to areas beyond the sandstones westward progradational limits. The thicknesses of the laterally continuous mudstones that effectively separate the Gilwood zones are illustrated in Table 7.1.

Between Gilwood Zones	Thickness (meters)	
	Average	Range
1, 2	1.3	0.0 - 2.3
2, 3	1.1	0.0 - 3.4
3, 4	2.0	0.3 - 3.0
4, 5	0.9	0.0 - 1.2
5, 6	1.1	0.6 - 2.4

Table 7.1 Thickness of mudstone units separating Gilwood zones.

A trend in the distribution of sedimentary structures in the mudstones was also observed. The mudcracks and stress cutans, interpreted to represent subaerial exposed areas, mostly developed where isopach values of the underlying Gilwood zone were small. These small isopach values were associated with areas around the fringe of the trough, which are also the first areas to become exposed when lake levels dropped.

## CHAPTER 8 DEPOSITIONAL HISTORY OF THE WATT MOUNTAIN FM.

### 8.1 Introduction

The Elk Point sea covered the Nipisi field area during early Watt Mountain Formation deposition as suggested by the existence of a basal black shale facies (Facies 1) containing distinct marine fauna. However, most of the Watt Mountain Formation's sediments do not contain evidence to suggest deposition occurred in a marine setting. The vertical facies associations determined in Chapter 5 suggested that deposition occurred in a lacustrine braid-delta setting.

The interbedding of the Gilwood Sandstone Member with the Watt Mountain Formation mudstones clearly suggested sedimentation occurred during episodes of fluctuating paleoenvironmental conditions. These fluctuating conditions occurred in cycles that generated a recurring sequence of deposits that consisted of three stages of deposition. The first stage is a sandstone dominated deposit that makes up the Gilwood zones. This was followed by a second mudstone dominated stage that was deposited during a quiescent period, and a final stage that reflected a period of exposure. The spatial distribution of these deposits was a combined reflection of differing degrees of influence on sedimentation by the Muskeg trough, and the energy and duration of the hydrologic system. The following interpretive depositional history is a sequence of paleoenvironmental conditions that likely existed during Watt Mountain deposition. It was determined by integrating the distribution of facies associations and the depositional patterns of the Gilwood zones and Watt Mountain Formation mudstones.

### 8.2 Depositional History

The lacustrine braid-delta setting in the Nipisi area was initiated by salt solution collapse in the Muskeg Formation in early Watt Mountain deposition. This developed a

north-south trending trough in the center of the Nipisi field which, during a regressive phase in the Elk Point sea, formed an isolated body of water, or lake. After formation of this lake, changes occurred in the type of sediment being deposited. In the Nipisi area, the change was from black shale containing a distinct marine fauna to a variegated mudstone containing fish that were believed to have proliferated under fresh to brackish conditions. However, the conditions for the survival of these fish deteriorated as the ratio of evaporation to inflow increased. This resulted in a progressive lowering of the lake and exposure of previously submerged areas, as indicated by the presence of stress cutans and mud cracks in the mudstones that underlie Gilwood zone 1.

Gilwood zone 1 represented the first major influx of coarse-grained sediment into the Nipisi field area, and the beginning of the first depositional cycle in the Watt Mountain Formation. The restricted sand body geometry of the first stage of deposition (Gilwood zone 1) was attributed to significant relief in the trough which limited the progradation of braided channels. Changes in the paleoenvironmental conditions terminated Gilwood zone 1 deposition and initiated stage 2, which was the deposition of mudstones throughout the Nipisi area. This rapid change in the paleoenvironmental conditions likely caused a rapid demise of the fish living in the lake, since their remains were only located in the lower 0.3 m of this mudstone unit. The existence of a high evaporation to inflow ratio progressed the cycle of sedimentation into stage three, where continual drops in lake levels resulted in the development of soils around the fringes of the lake. Most modern lakes are bounded by subaerial erosion surfaces with some degree of soil development (Picard and High, 1972). The existence of the fresh water carbonates located in the center of the trough indicated that some areas remained submerged. It is unknown whether these submerged areas were localized ponds or the continued presence of a very shallow lake in the center of the trough.

Gilwood zone 2 was the beginning of a second depositional cycle. This second cycle was very similar to the first. However, a lower relief in parts of the trough, resulted in stage 1 deposits (Gilwood zone 2) to be more widespread and extend farther southeastward than Gilwood zone 1 stage 1 deposits. Stage 2 and 3 deposits of this cycle were very similar to cycle one. Abundant fish remains in the first 0.3 m of the overlying mudstone indicated rapid deterioration of favorable living conditions, and a lowered lake level again resulted in the exposure of mudstones and the development of soils in the fringes of the Nipisi field area.

Prior to the beginning of the third depositional cycle there was a significant event of salt solution collapse in the Muskeg Formation that resulted in an extremely limited aerial distribution of Gilwood zone 3 (Fig 7.3). The northwestern to western sourced sediment of Gilwood zone 3 was confined to a narrow north-south-trending band that followed along the axis of the trough. The existence of some sandy mudstone zones in stage 2 deposits of this depositional cycle suggests that smaller streams continued to supply sediment to the lake. However, the water conditions still deteriorated significantly enough to make the lake waters unfavorable for the survival of fish. A result of evaporation exceeding inflow was the development of soils around the fringing areas of the Nipisi field during stage 3 of this cycle.

Before the beginning of cycle 4 deposition there was only minor salt solution collapse. Therefore, the significant collapse occurring before cycle 3 is almost directly related to the amount of collapse illustrated in Figure 6.10, which is the amount of collapse occurring between the end of Gilwood zone 2 and the end of Gilwood zone 4 deposition. The limited relief occurring before cycle 4 restricted the amount of excess thickening that normally occurred along the axis of the trough, and consequently a more widespread distribution of sandstones developed. Stage 2 was very short resulting in the



deposition of a thin mudstone. Although stage 2 was dominated by mudstones, the significant number of sandy mudstone zones suggests a continued presence of inflow into the lacustrine basin. The lack of stress cutans in these mudstone deposits signifies that lake levels did not drop enough to cause submerged areas to become exposed for soil development (stage 3).

The fifth cycle of deposition in the Watt Mountain Formation began with the deposition of Gilwood zone 5. The distribution of this zone (Fig. 7.4), suggests that zone 5 deposition was not influenced by the trough. The lack of major relief in the trough removed one of the major depositional controls imposed on clastic sediments entering the lacustrine area. Sandstones were deposited on a slightly sloped braid-delta plain, forming a broad sheet-like sandstone with thicker, complex eastward-extending tongues. Beginning at the deposition of zone 5, there was a significant change in the depositional setting of the Nipisi field area. Although stage 2 mudstones developed, they had a blocky grayish-green to olive-gray colour, which was distinctly different from the stratigraphically lower mudstone deposits that were primarily variegated red and green in colour. This difference in colour may be associated with a change from a primarily subaerial oxidizing environment, or a subaqueous one with input of continental oxidized sediments, to a primarily subaqueous environment (Martini *et al.*, 1991). Very little collapse occurred between the beginning of Gilwood zone 4 and the end of Watt Mountain deposition (Fig. 6.11). Gilwood zone 6 is the last major clastic pulse of sedimentation reflected in the Watt Mountain Formation, and its depositional pattern reflects the lack of depositional control imposed by the trough (Fig. 7.6).

## CHAPTER 9 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The Middle Devonian Watt Mountain Formation within the Nipisi oil field area, consists of a complex succession of lacustrine braid-delta deposits. This paleoenvironmental interpretation was based on the existence of four recurring facies associations. (1) lacustrine deposits, (2) marginal lacustrine deposits, (3) interdistributary deposits, and (4) channel deposits. The complex succession of deposits was subdivided into six cycles of deposition, which record the progradation and abandonment of lacustrine braid-delta deposits. An idealized cycle is internally characterized by three stages of deposition. The first or lower stage is dominated by sandstone deposits, followed by a mudstone dominated middle stage, and an upper stage which reflects deposits exhibiting evidence of subaerial exposure.

The stage one sandstone deposits consist of channel and marginal lacustrine deposits which prograded across a low gradient braid-delta plain during periods of sandstone influx. These periods of influx have been attributed to tectonic activity associated with the Pezce River Arch. Channel sandstone deposits prograded eastward, away from the Arch, forming laterally continuous sheets of sandstone across the Nipisi area. In the distal areas beyond the sandstone progradational limits, lacustrine mudstone deposits were also being accumulated. However, the stage two lacustrine mudstone deposits which separated each of the Gilwood sandstone zones dominantly accumulated in the periods between sandstone influx.

The distribution of braid-delta deposits was strongly controlled by the shape of the Muskeg trough, which was a depression that developed in the center of the Nipisi field area through dissolution of salts within the underlying Muskeg Formation. Dissolution related subsidence occurred prior to and during Watt Mountain deposition, modifying the amount of relief in the Muskeg trough. The effect of this relief on

Gilwood sandstone zone deposition is reflected in the depositional patterns of these deposits. Gilwood sandstone zone deposits strongly influenced by the trough were restricted in their areal extent, while zones less influenced had wider areal distributions because of their ability to freely prograde across the Nipisi field area. The understanding of the paleoenvironment and depositional history of Watt Mountain Formation sediments in the Nipisi field area provided information that was essential in determining that Nipisi oil is distributed within a layered reservoir. The knowledge that each of these layers has different reservoir characteristics and areal distribution will aid in developing exploitation strategies.

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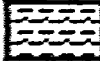











































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**APPENDIX**

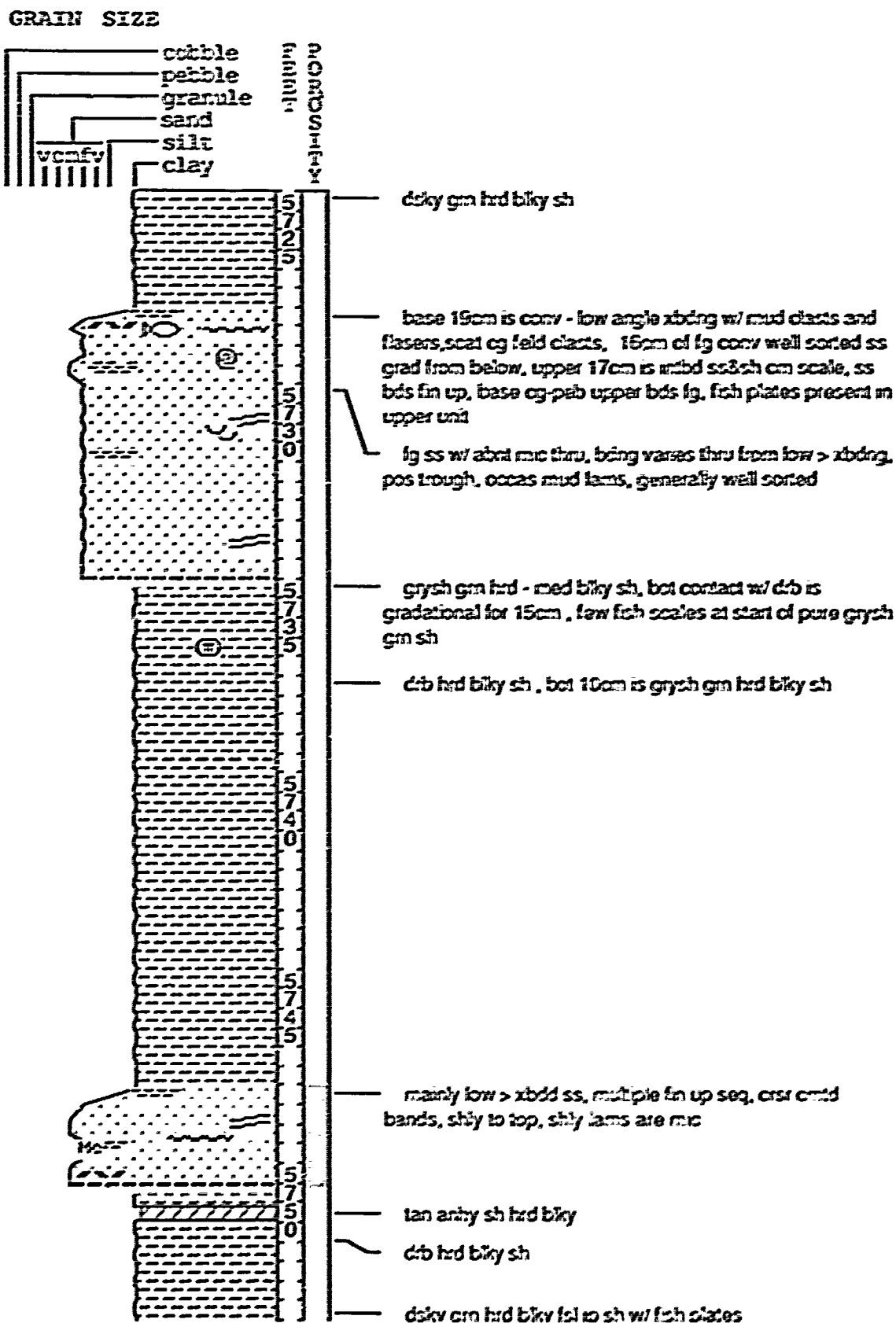
LEGEND FOR APPENDIX

LITHOLOGY					
	Sandstone		Silty Sandstone		Muddy Sandstone
	Siltstone		Sandy Silt		Muddy Silt
	Mudstone		Sandy Mudstone		Silty Mudstone
	Anhydrite		Breccia		Missing Core
Lithologic Modifiers					
	Sandy	 Me	Micaceous		Pebble Horizon
	Silty	 FH	Feldspar Clasts		Scattered Limestone
	Muddy	 Py	Pyrite		Dense Limestone
	Mud Clasts	 Pd	Paleosol		
	Small Mud Clasts		Brecciated		
Physical Structures					
	Climbing Ripples		Current Ripples		Stylolites
	Trough Cross Bedding		Massive Bedding		Stress Cutans
	High Angle Lamination		Low Angle Lamination		Slickensides
	Horizontal Lamination		Grading, fining upward		Churned Bedding
	Minor Cemented Horizon		Grading, coarsening upward		
Fossils					
	Brachiopod		Fish Scales		Fish Bone
			Fish Remains		
Relative Porosity					
	Poor 4 - <9%		Fair 9 - <14%		Good 14 - <19%
			Excellent >19%		
Contact Type					
	Sharp		Scoured		Uncertain
			Undulating		

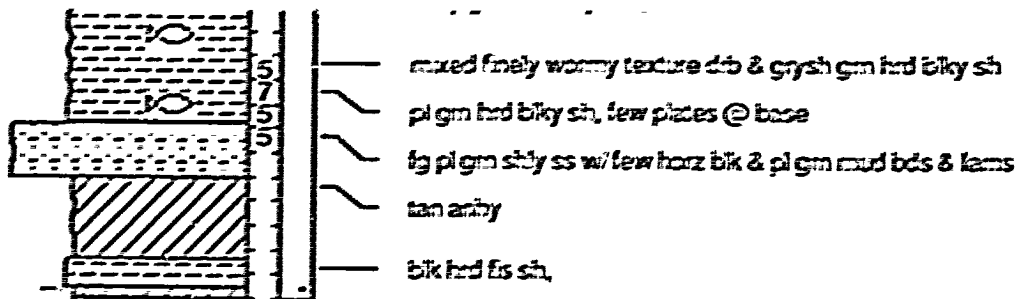
## ABBREVIATIONS USED IN CORE DESCRIPTIONS

abnt	abundant	mass	massive
bcmg	becoming	md	mud
bdng	bedding	mdst	mudstone
bds	beds	mdy	muddy
blk	black	mg	medium grain
blky	blocky	mar	minor
brn	brown	msng	missing
btm	bottom	mxd	mixed
calc	calcareous	ol	olive
cg	coarse grain	pbl	pebbles
cgs	coarse grains	pl	pale
cmtd	cemented	psbl	possible
conv	convoluted	pyb	pale yellowish brown
disc	discontinuous	rdsh	reddish
dk	dark	rmdr	remainder
drb	dark reddish brown	seqc	sequence
dsky	dusky	sh	shale
feld	feldspar	slks	slickensides
fg	fine grain	slst	siltstone
fltg	floating	sl	slightly
fsl	fissile	sndy	sandy
fract	fracture	srd	sorted
fnt	faint	ss	sandstone
grd	grade	sty	stylolites
grn	green	thinly	thinly
gms	grains	thru	throughout
grysh	grayish	tr	trace
hzntl	horizontal	twds	towards
intb	interbedded	vfg	very fine grain
intlam	interlaminated	v	very
ip	in part	vp	very poor
lam	laminations	wd	wood
lamd	laminated	wxy	waxy
lrg	large	ylsh	yellowish

## Pan Am A-1 2-17-78-7w5 Core mostly rubble

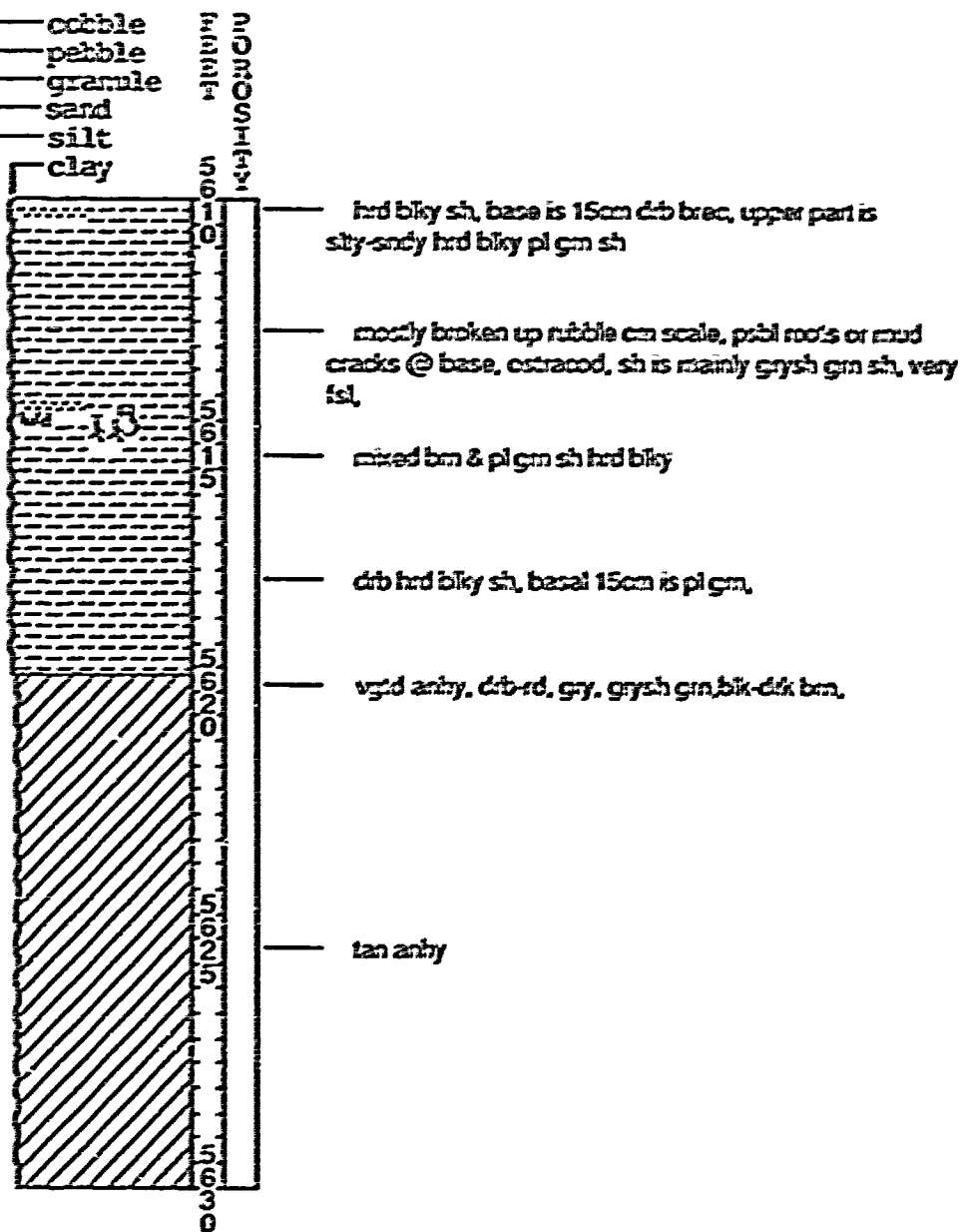
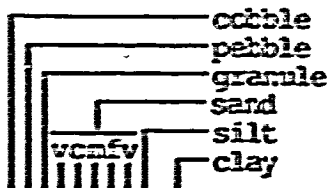




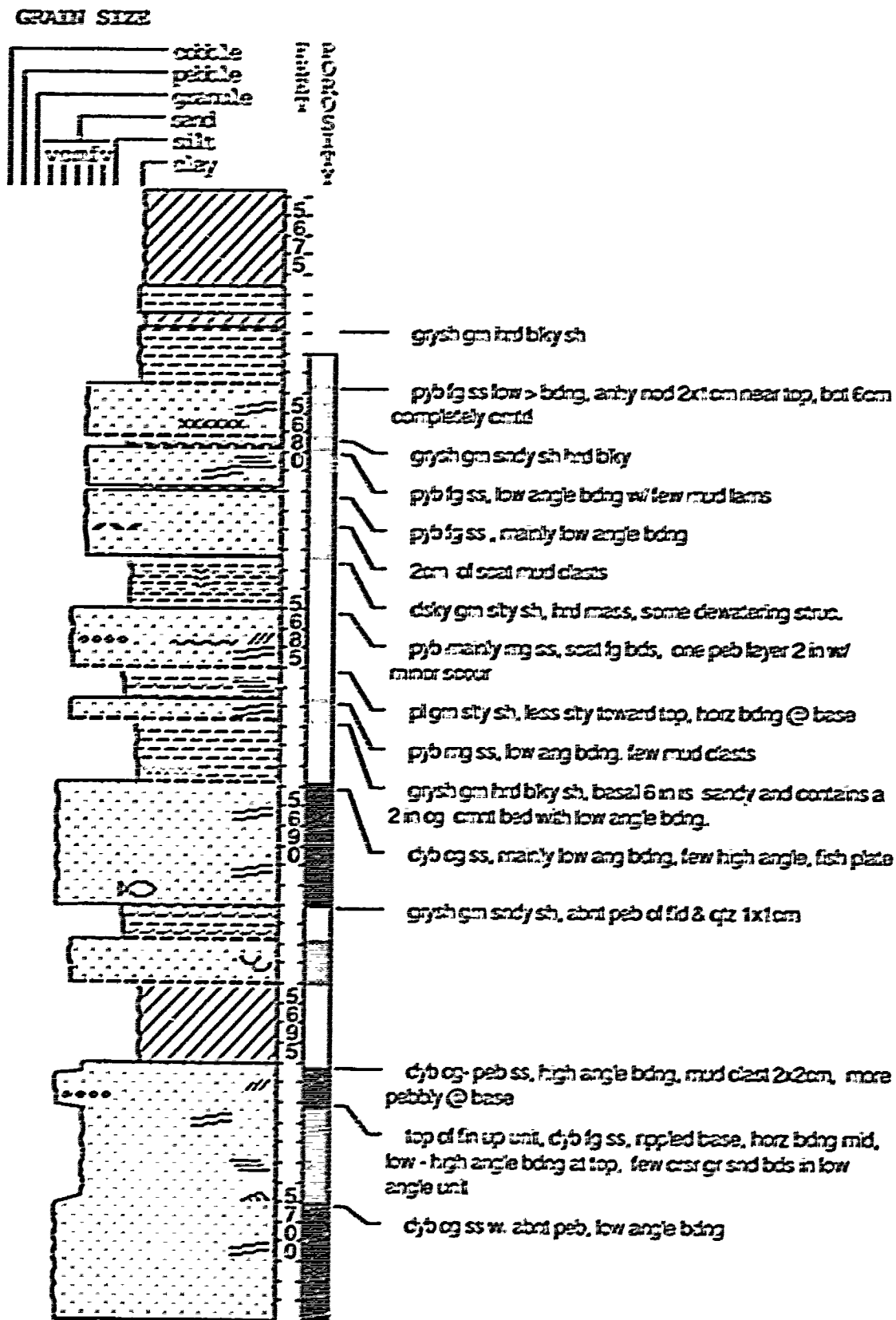


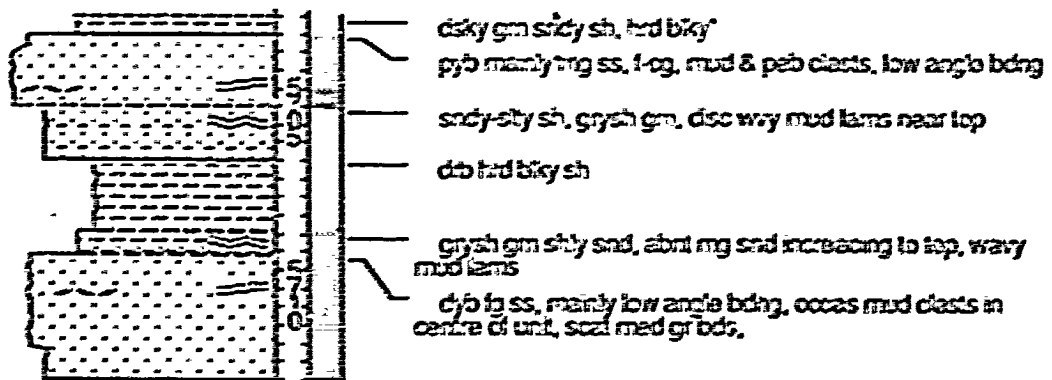
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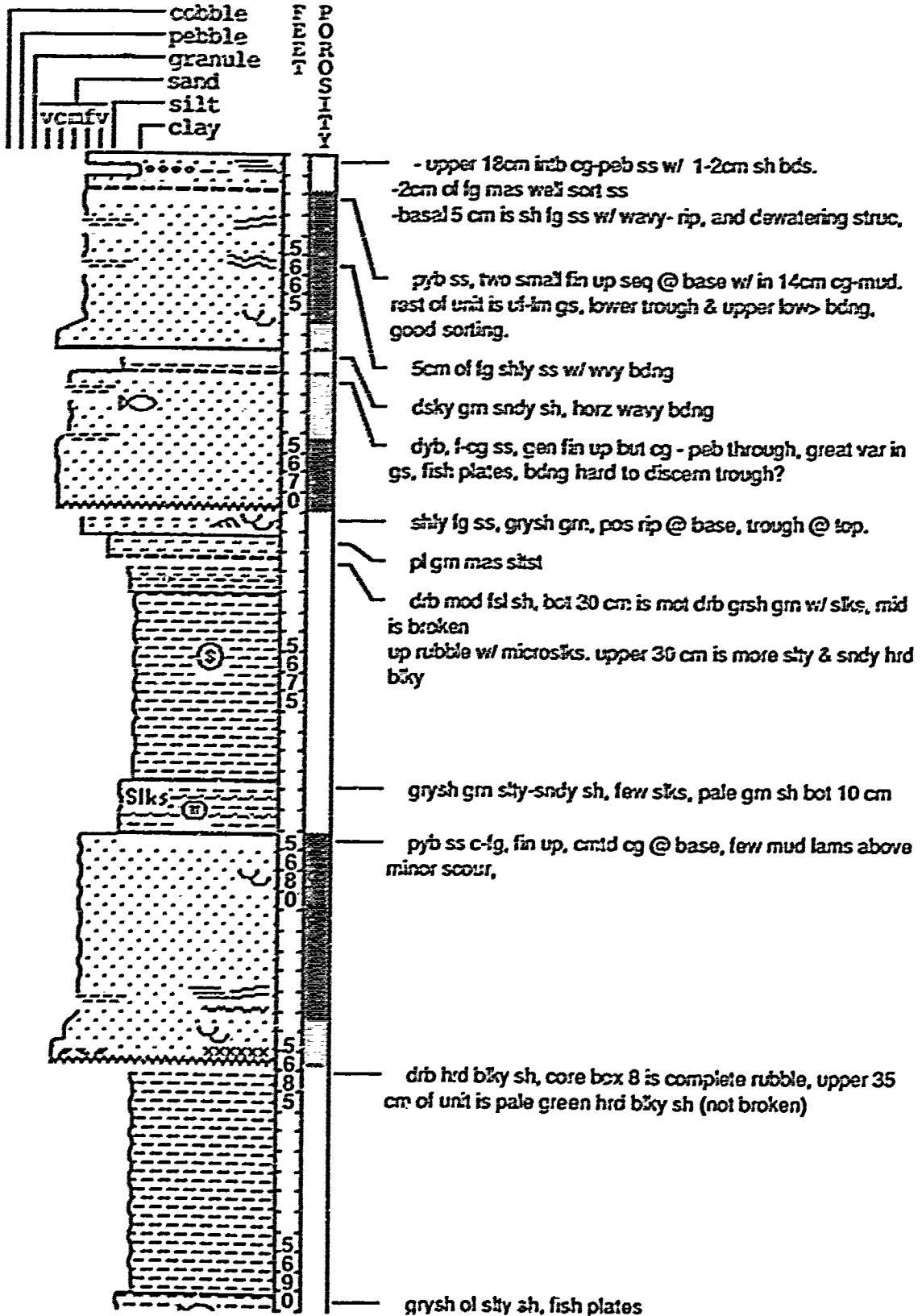
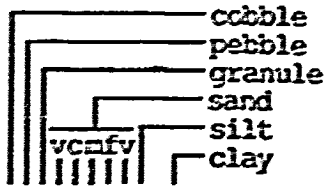
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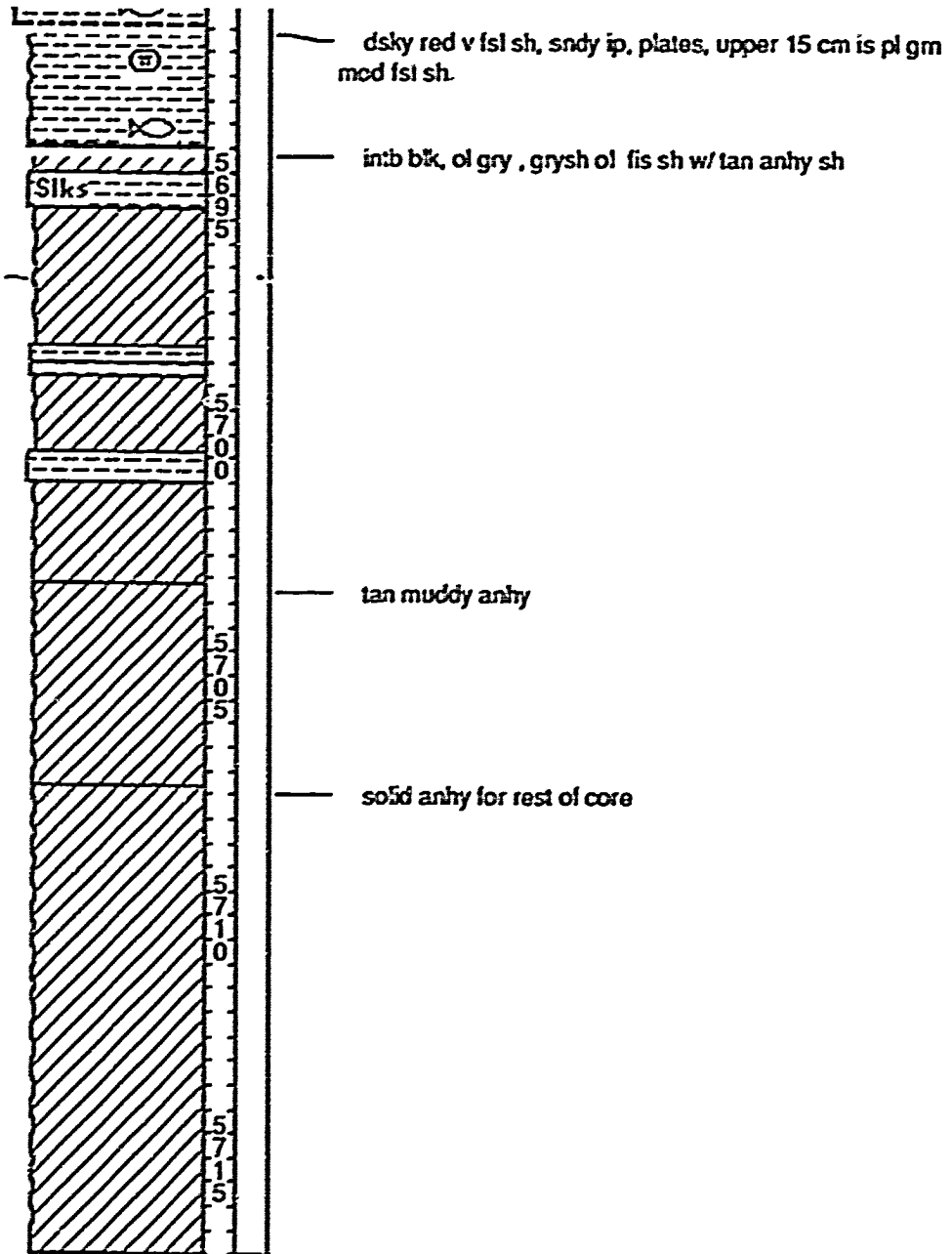




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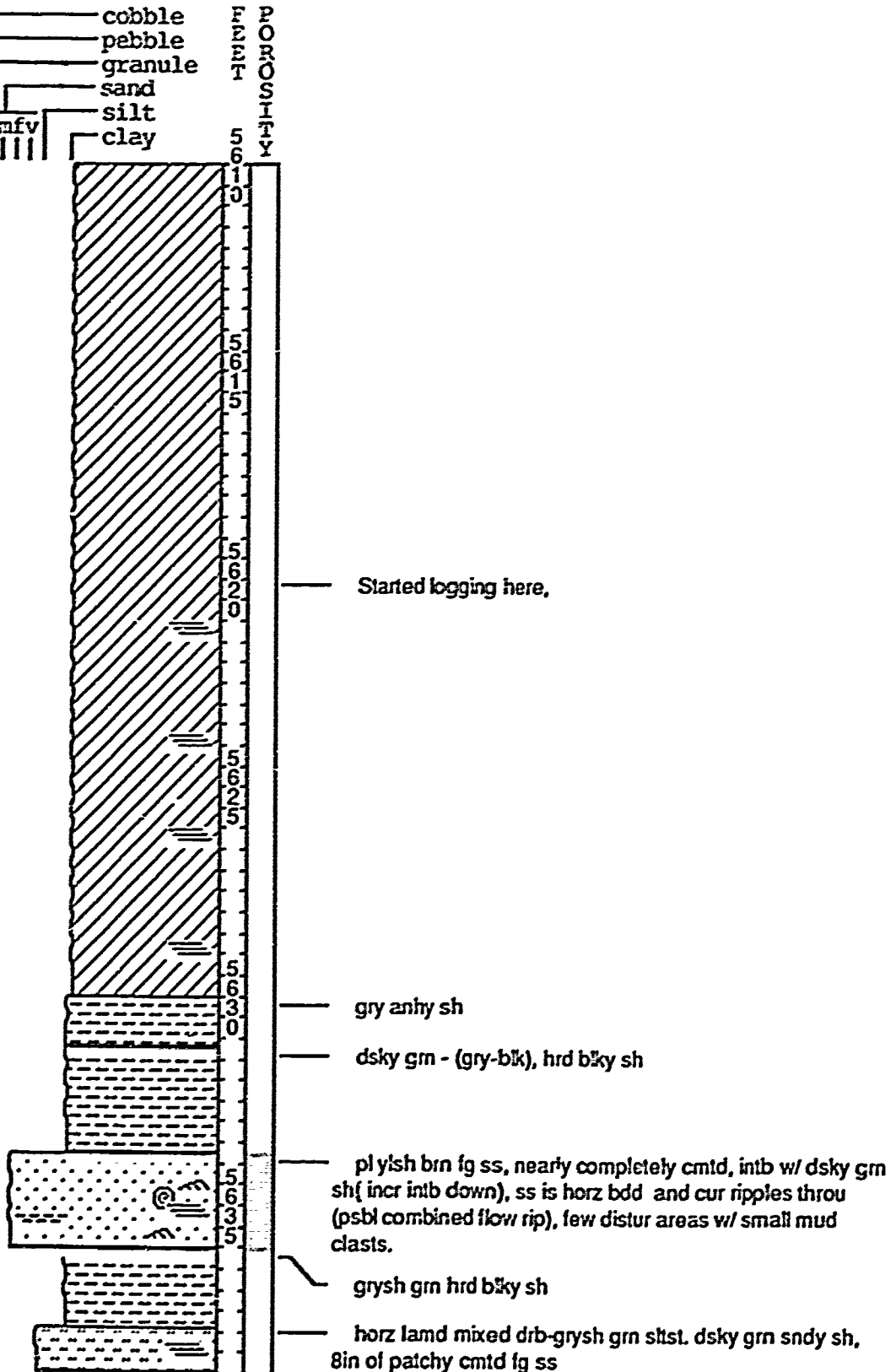
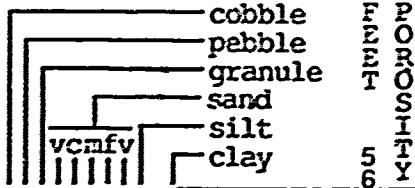
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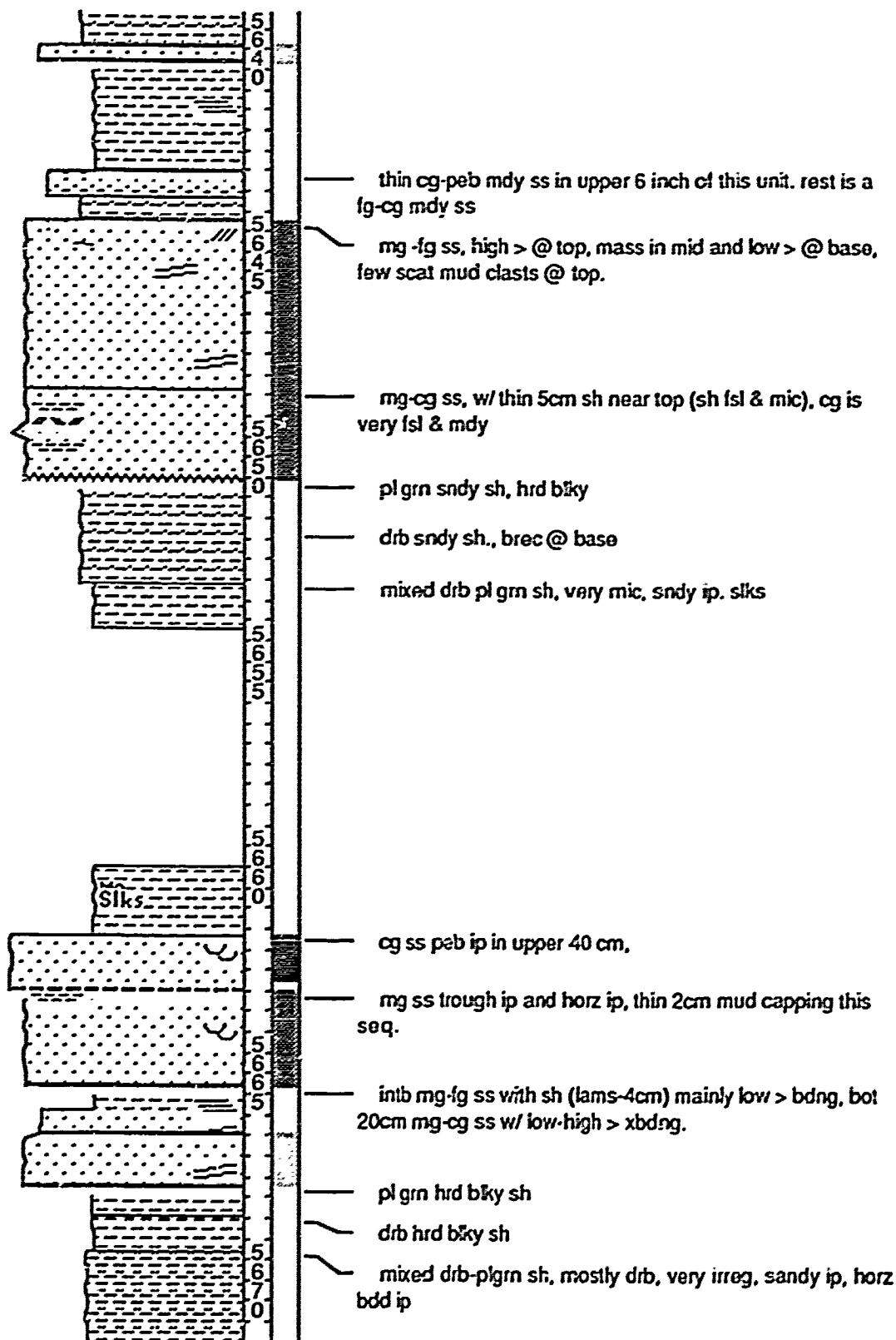




Mobil SW Nipisi Mobil SW NIPISI  
10-26-78-8w5

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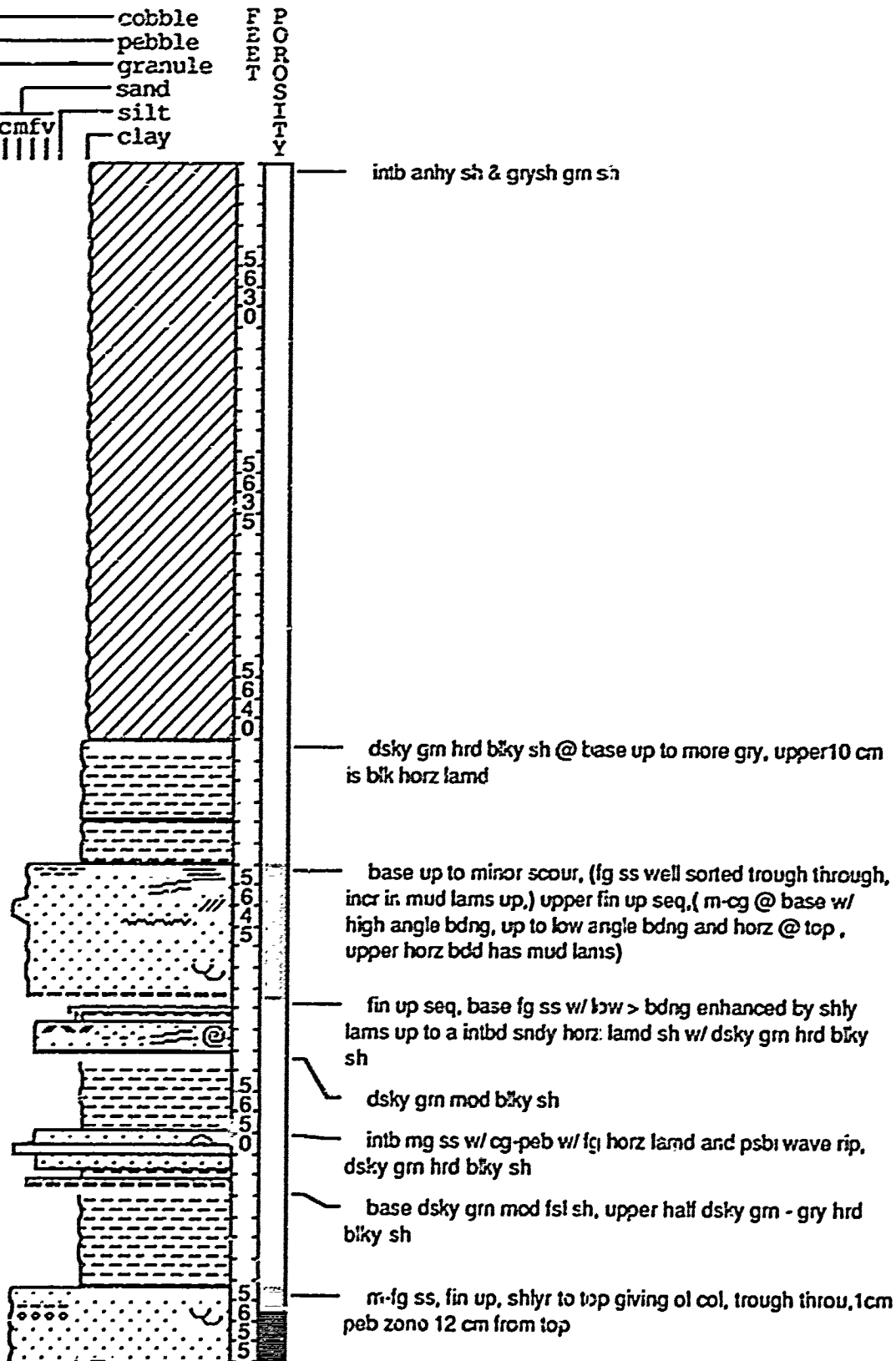
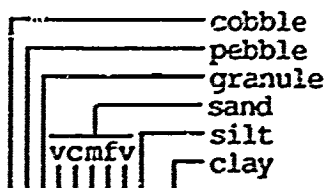


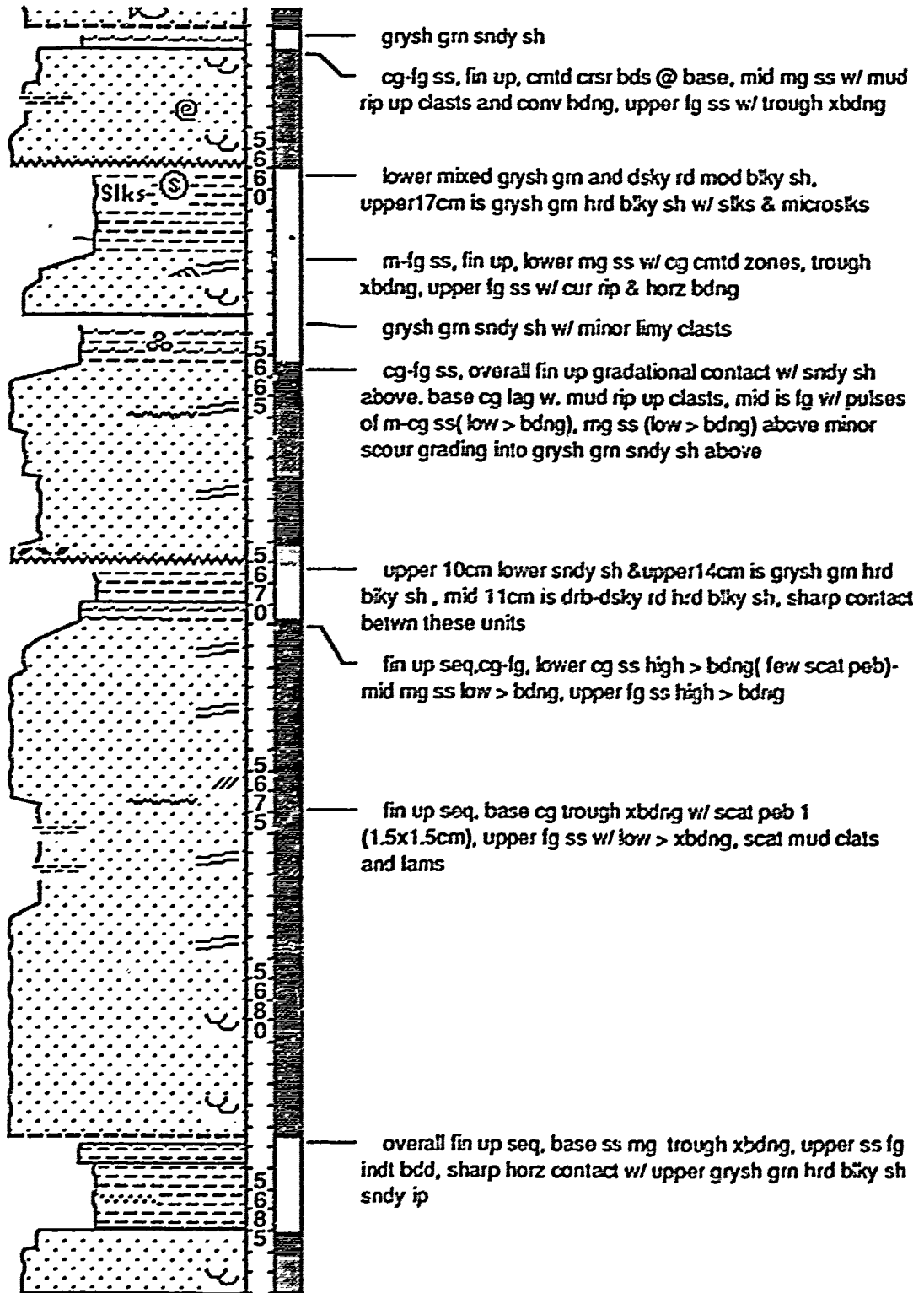




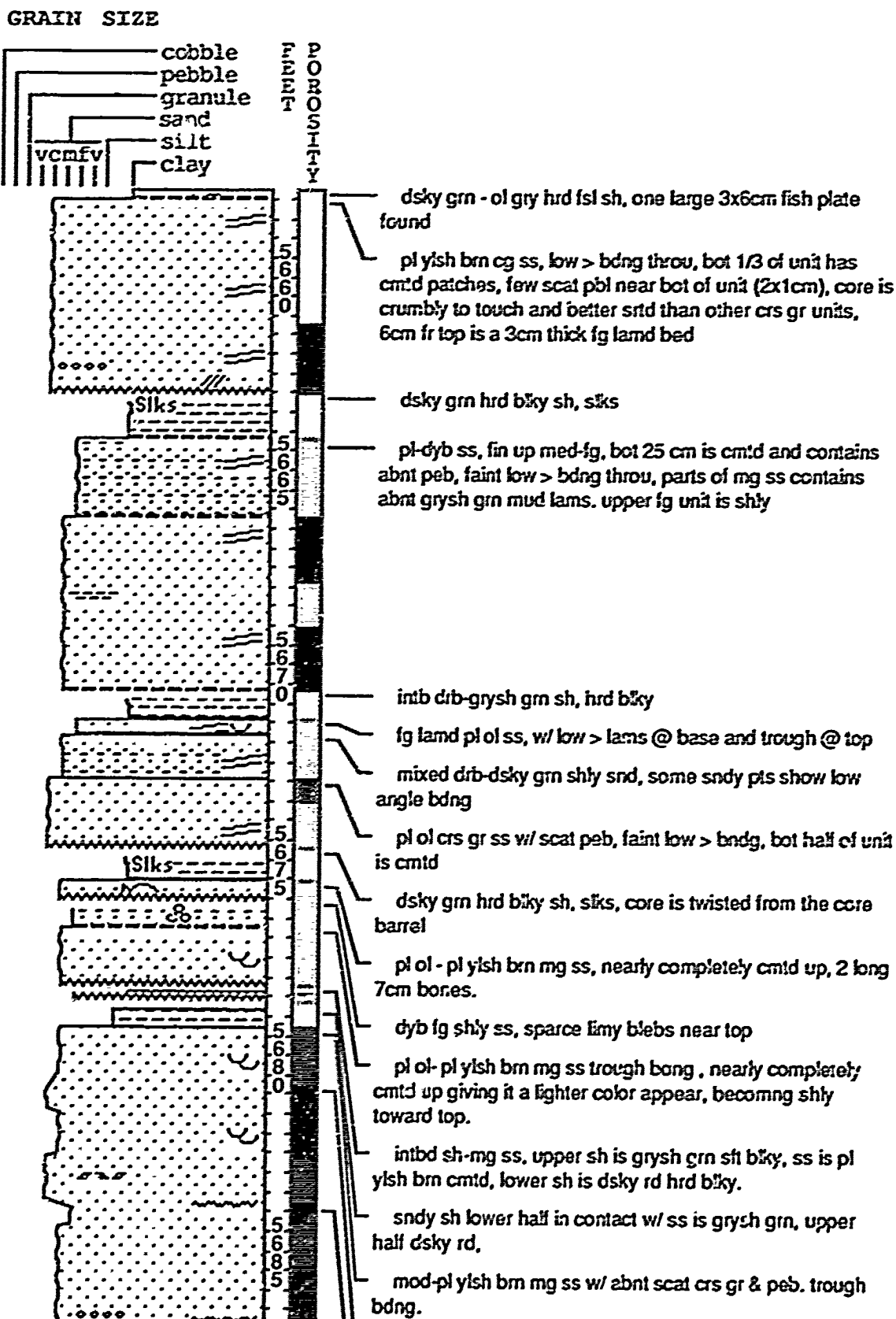
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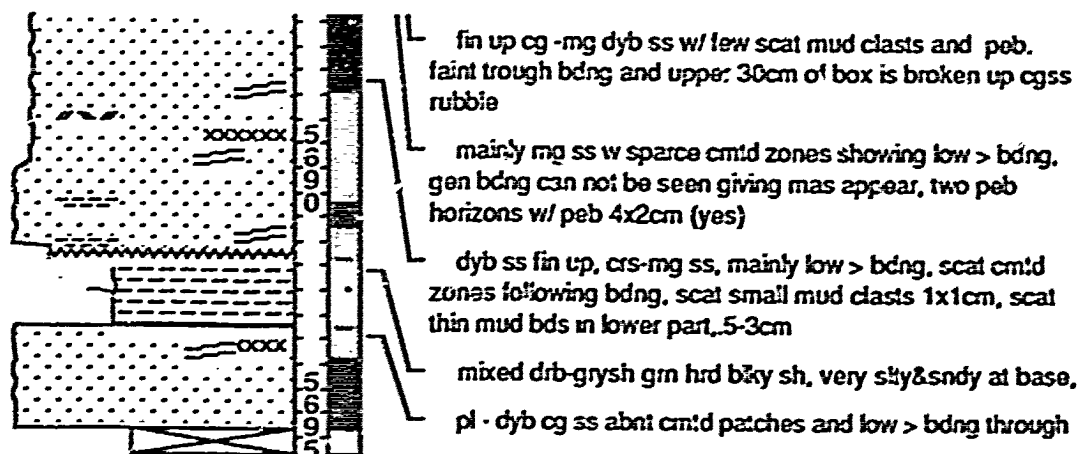
**GRAIN SIZE**





C. Norex et al NIPISI  
16-32-78-8w5

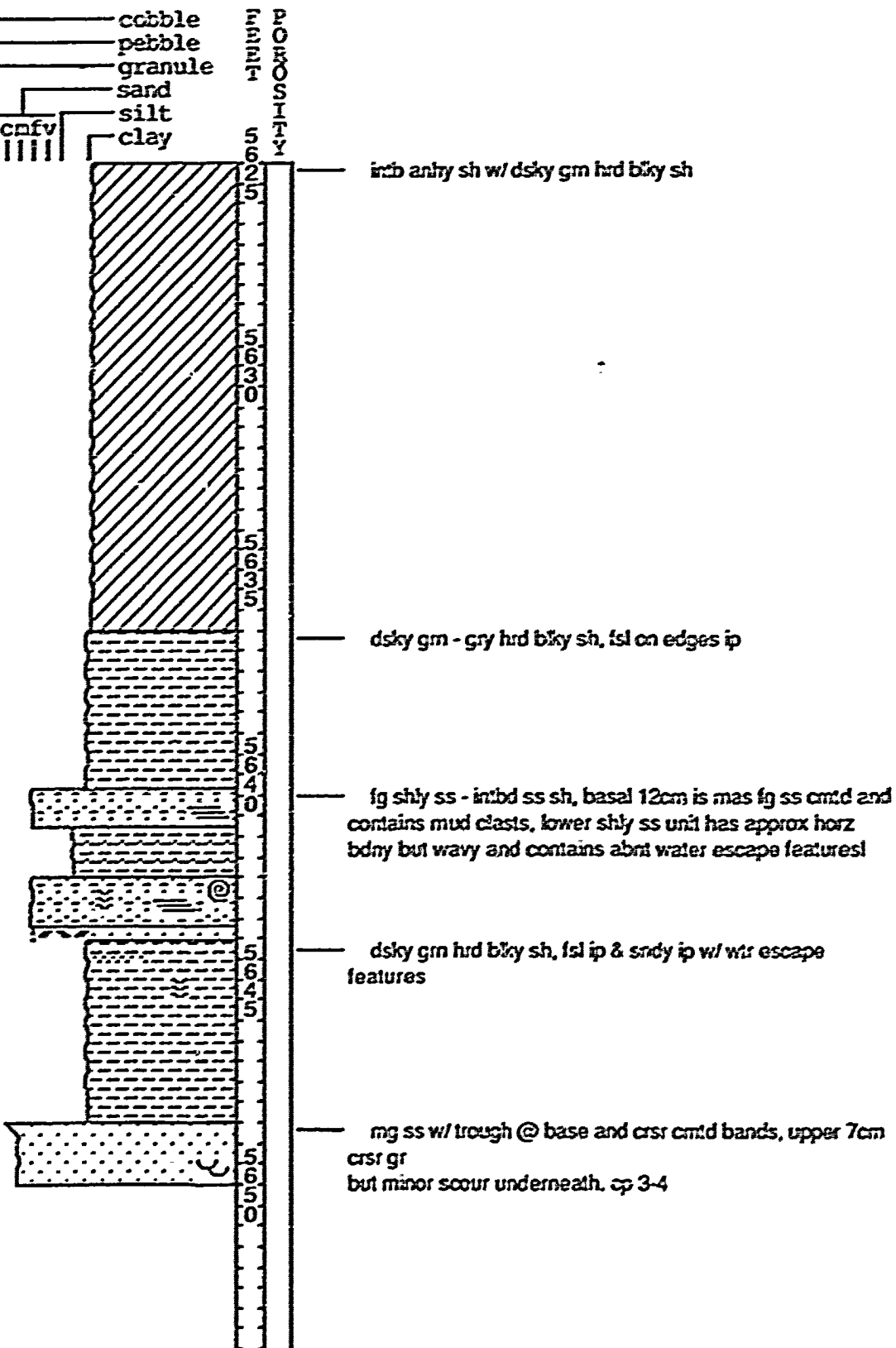
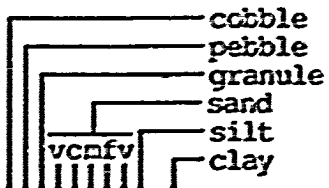


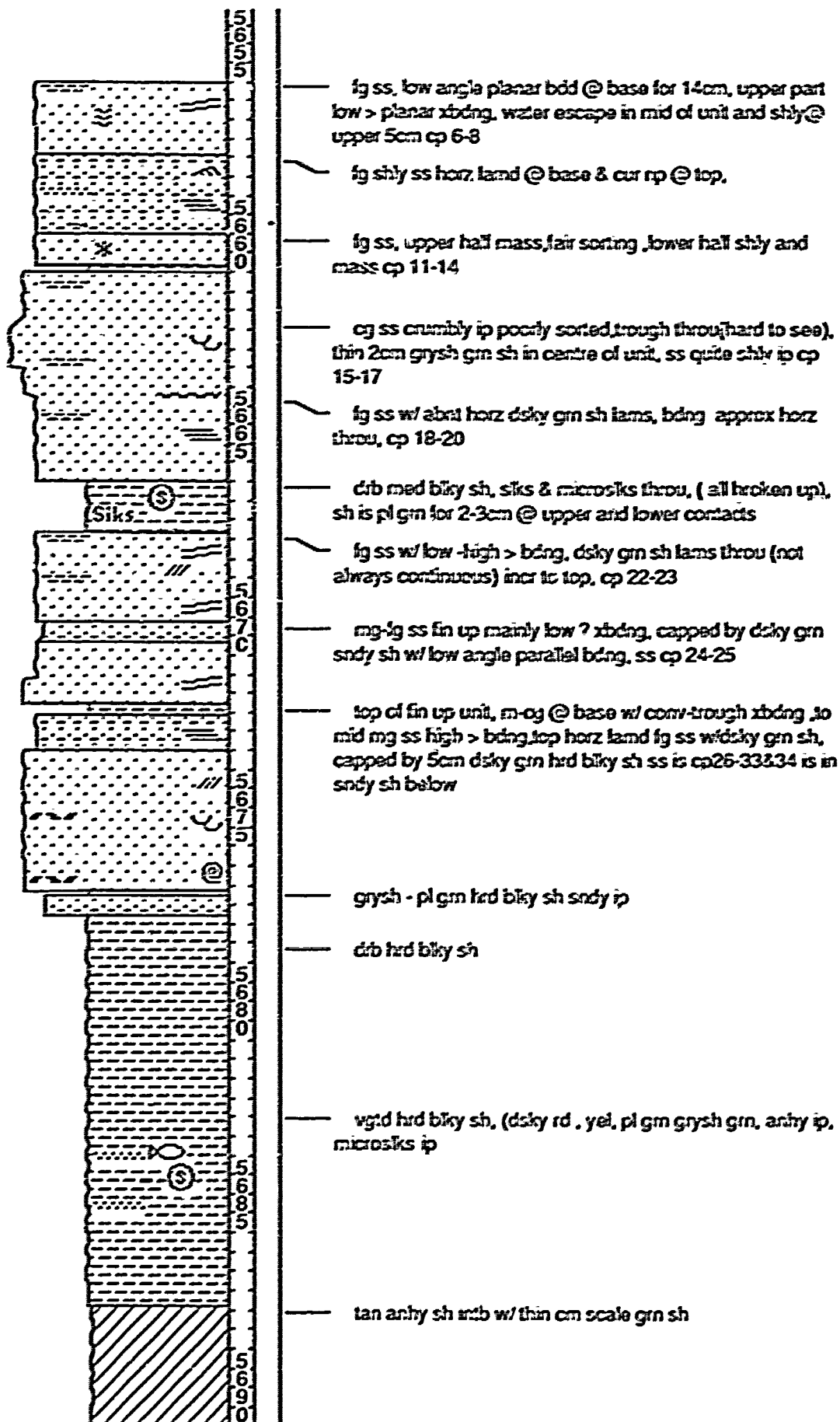


# Texaco Texcan Nipisi

## 10-35-78-8w5

**GRAIN SIZE**





fg ss, low angle planar bdd @ base for 14cm, upper part low > planar xbdng, water escape in mid of unit and shly @ upper 5cm cp 6-8

fg shly ss horz lamd @ base & cur rp @ top,

fg ss, upper half mass, fair sorting, lower half shly and mass cp 11-14

cg ss crumbly ip poorly sorted, trough throu (hard to see), thin 2cm grysh gm sh in centre of unit, ss quite shly ip cp 15-17

fg ss w/ abnd horz dsky gm sh lams, bndg approx horz throu, cp 18-20

drb med blk sh, silks & microsiks throu, ( all broken up), sh is pl gm for 2-3cm @ upper and lower contacts

fg ss w/ low -high > bndg, dsky gm sh lams throu (not always continuous) incr to top, cp 22-23

mg-fg ss fin up mainly low ? xbdng, capped by dsky gm sndy sh w/ low angle parallel bndg, ss cp 24-25

top of fin up unit, m-cg @ base w/ conv-trough xbdng, to mid mg ss high > bndg, top horz lamd fg ss w/dsky gm sh, capped by 5cm dsky gm hrd blk sh ss is cp 26-33 & 34 is in sndy sh below

grysh - pl gm hrd blk sh sndy ip

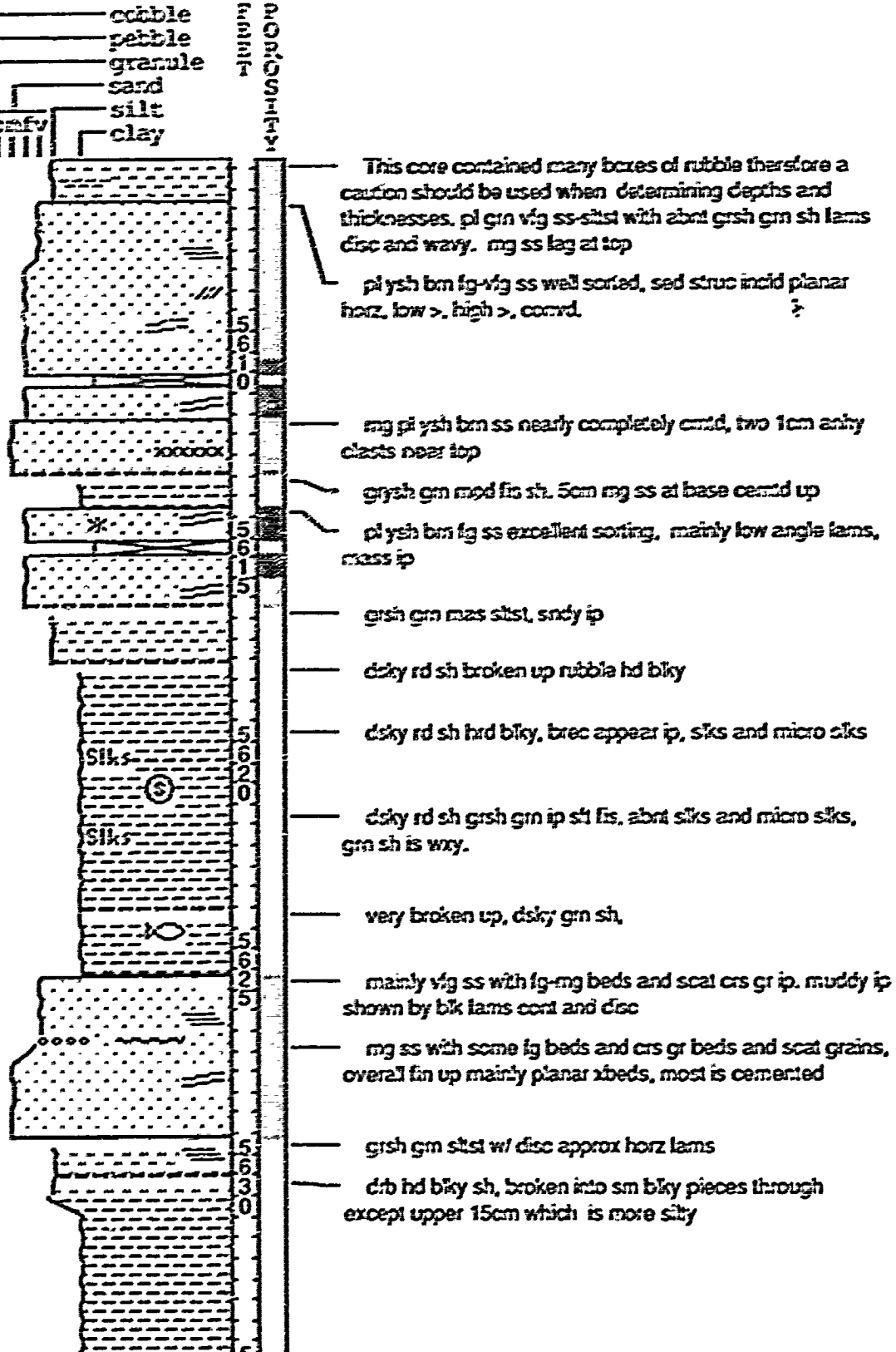
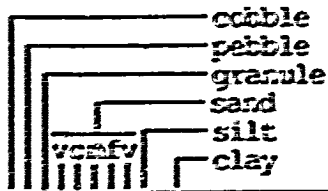
drb hrd blk sh

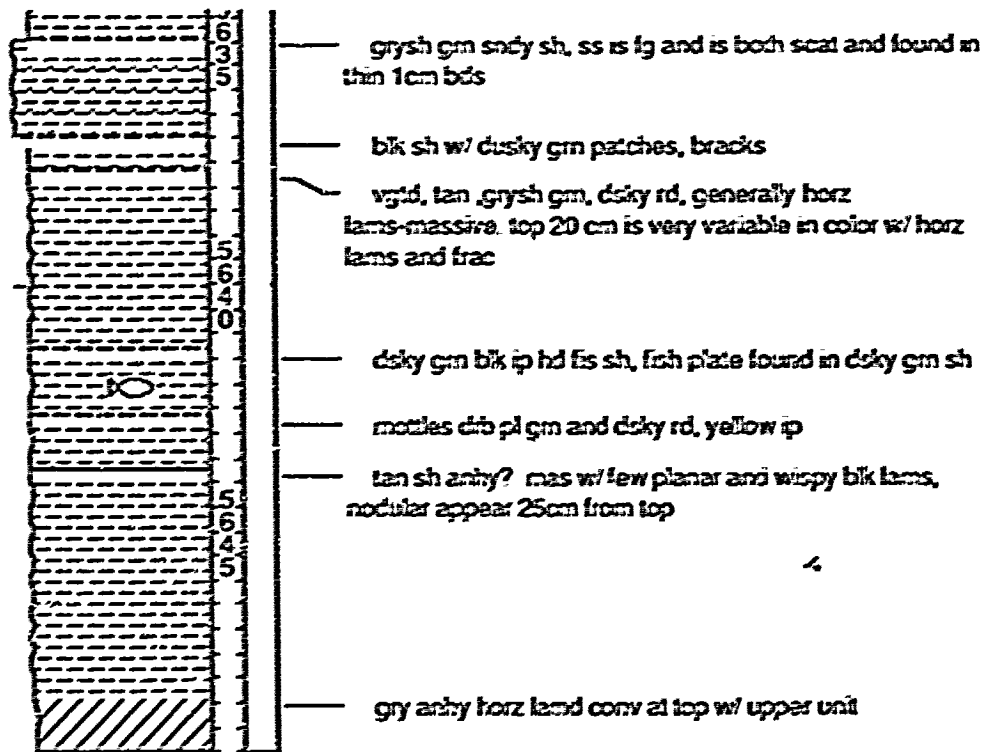
vgd hrd blk sh, (dsky rd, yel, pl gm grysh gm, anhy ip, microsiks ip

tan anhy sh intb w/ thin cm scale gm sh

# Shell et al Nipisi 10-36-78-8w5

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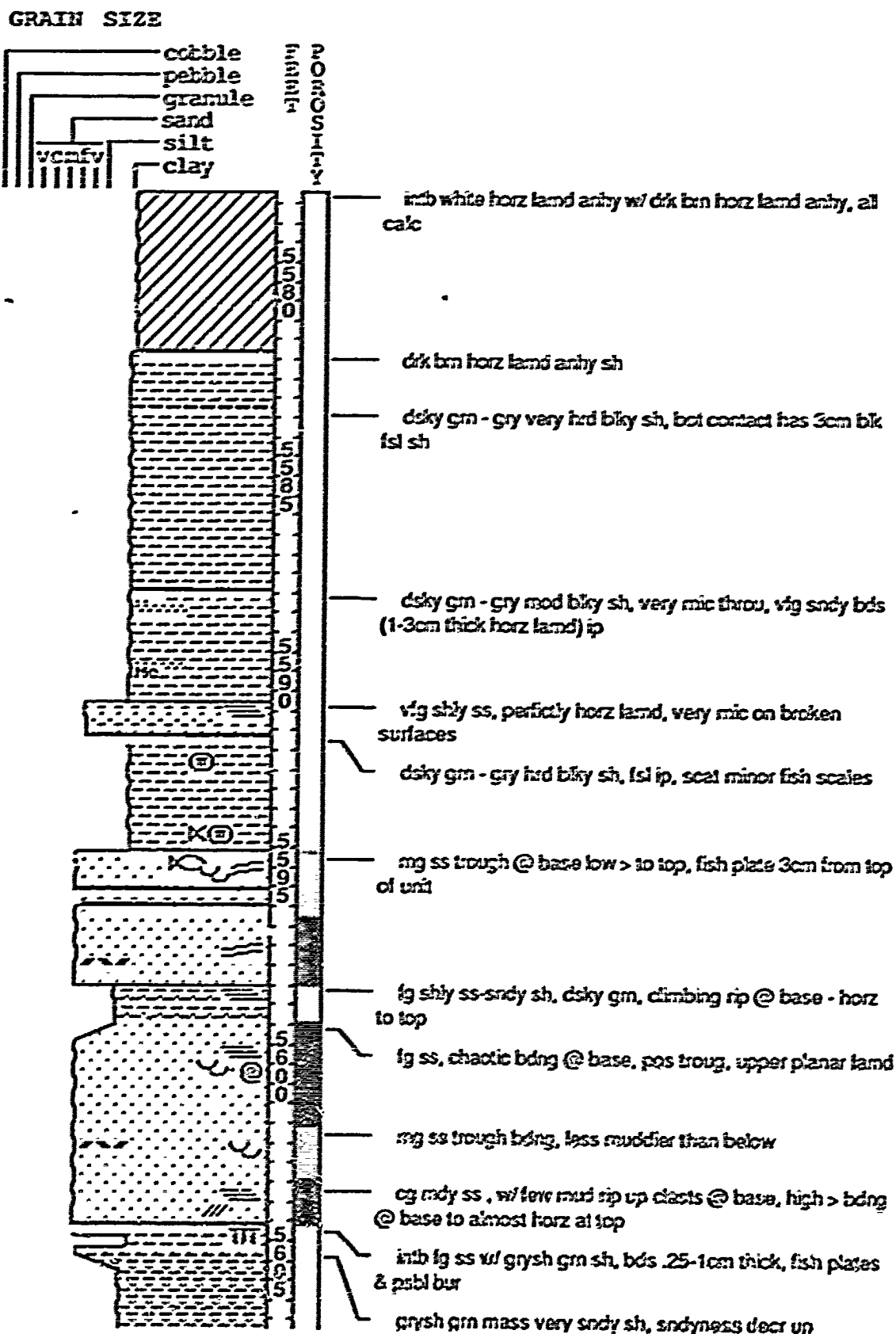


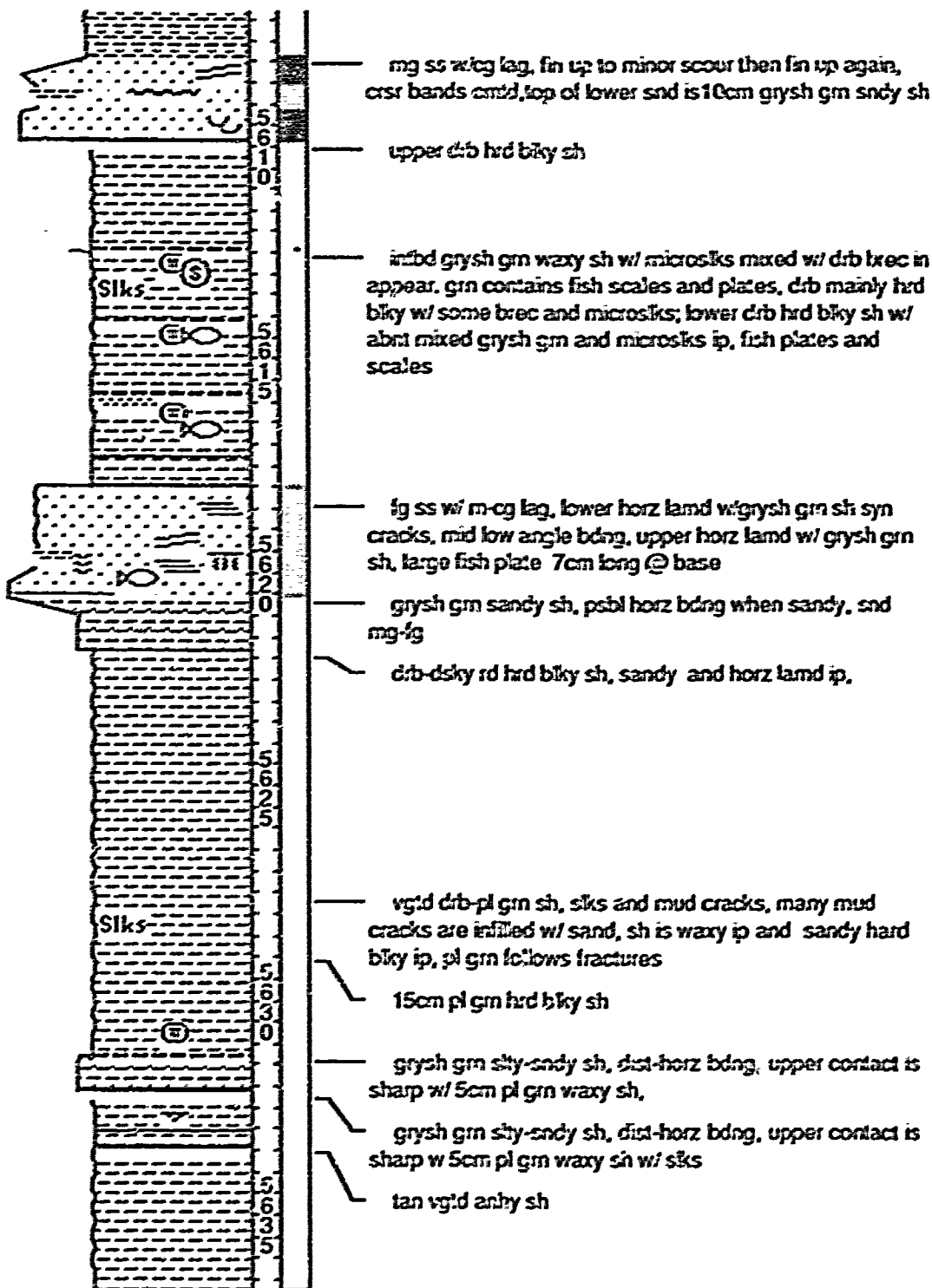
4



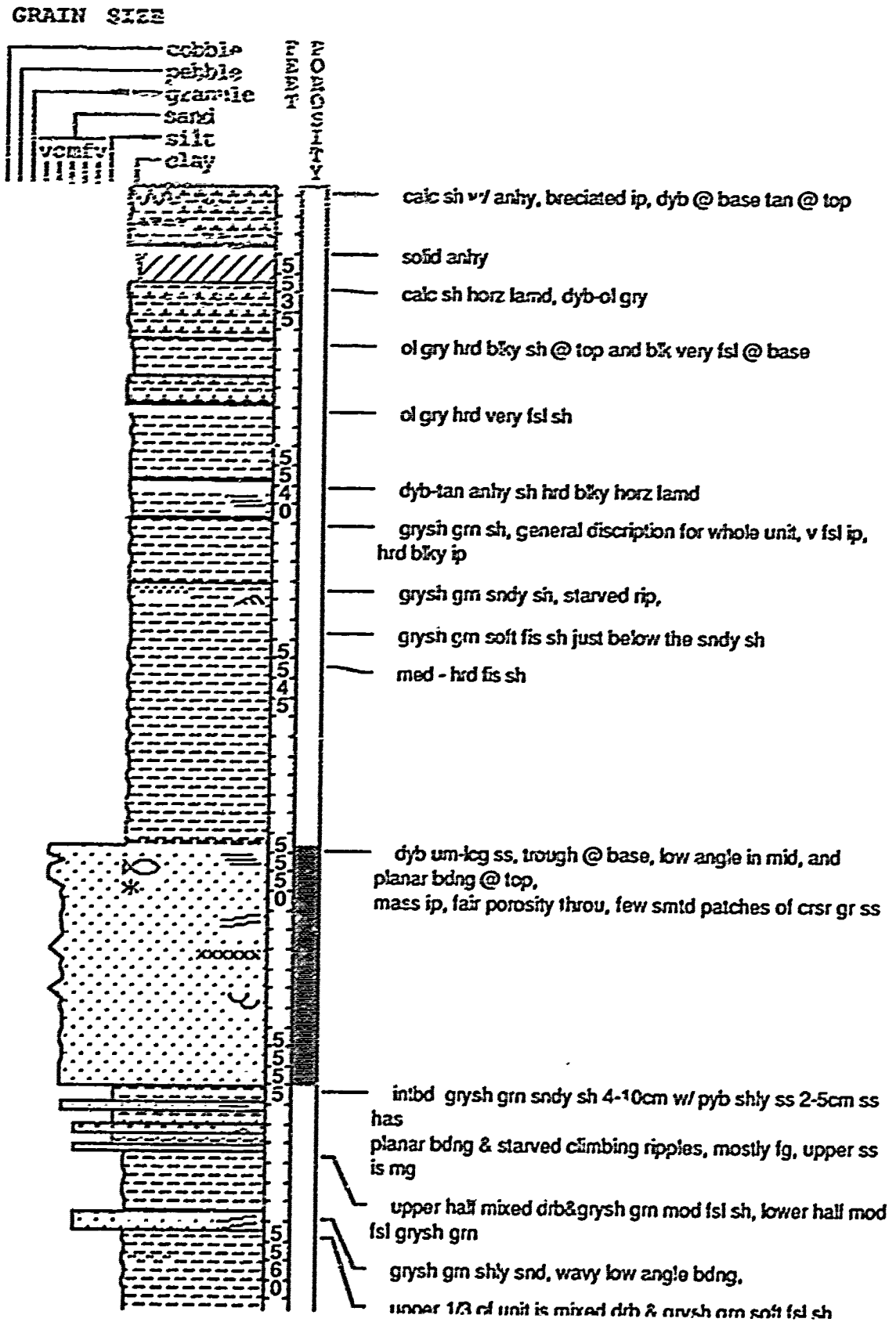
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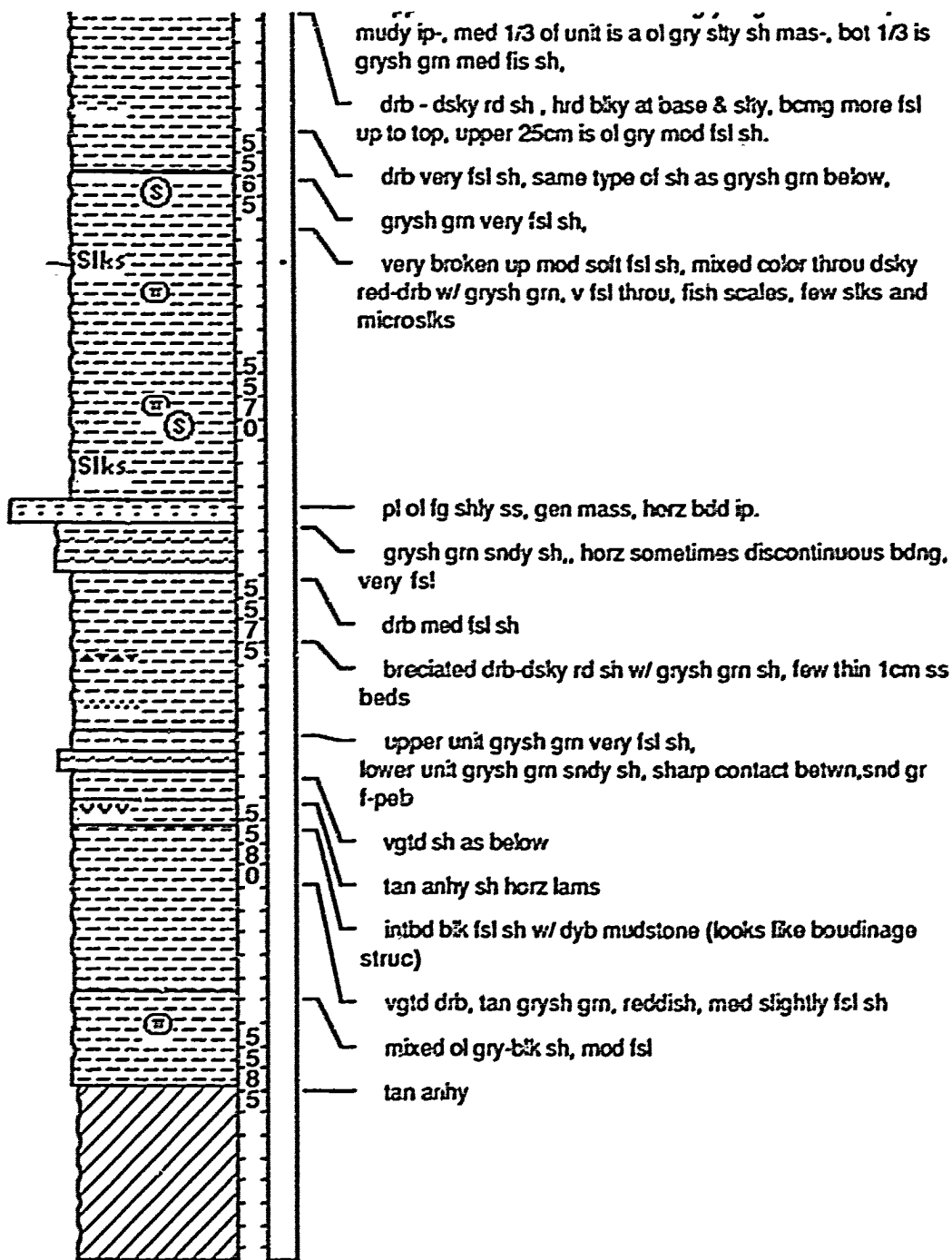
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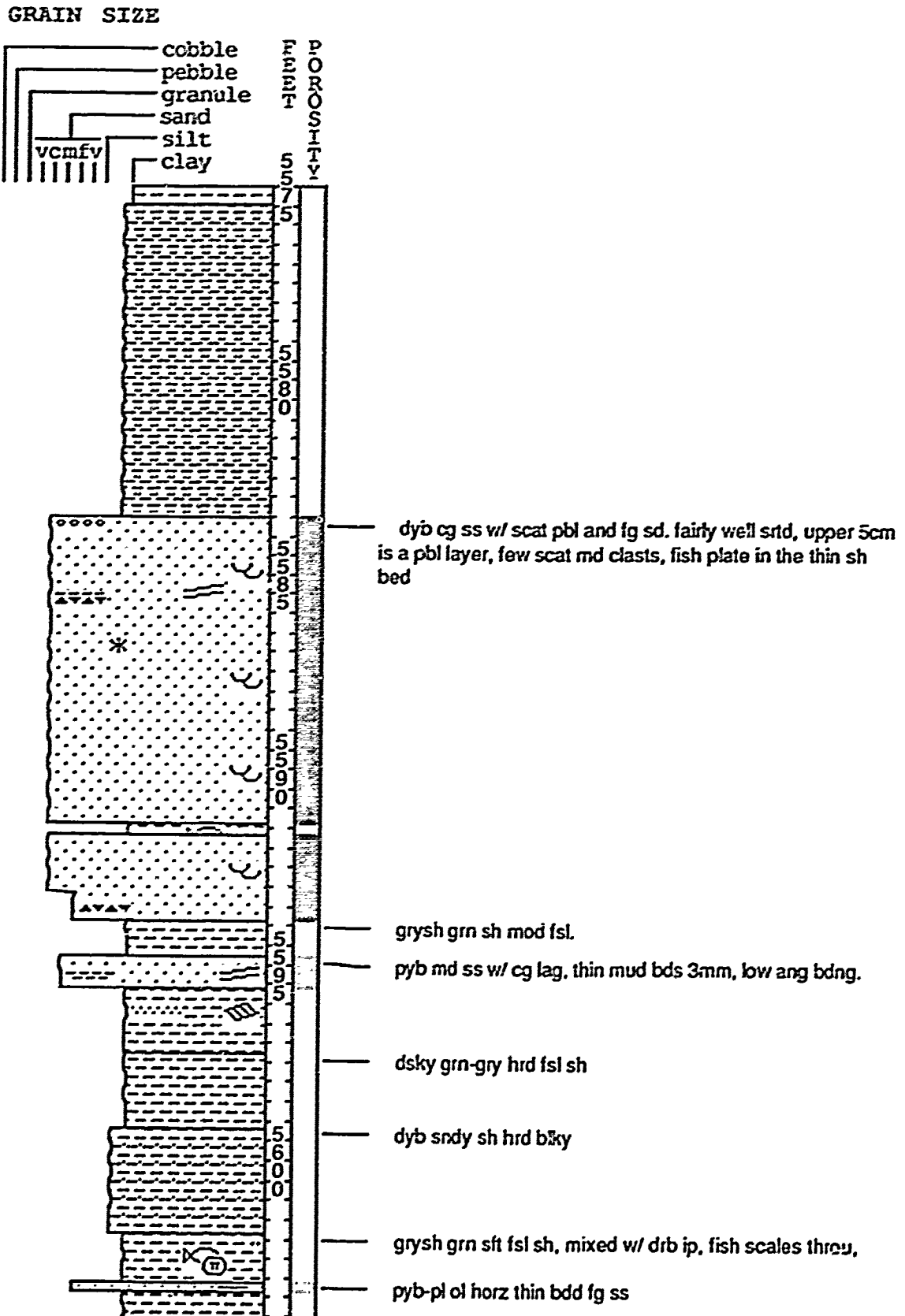


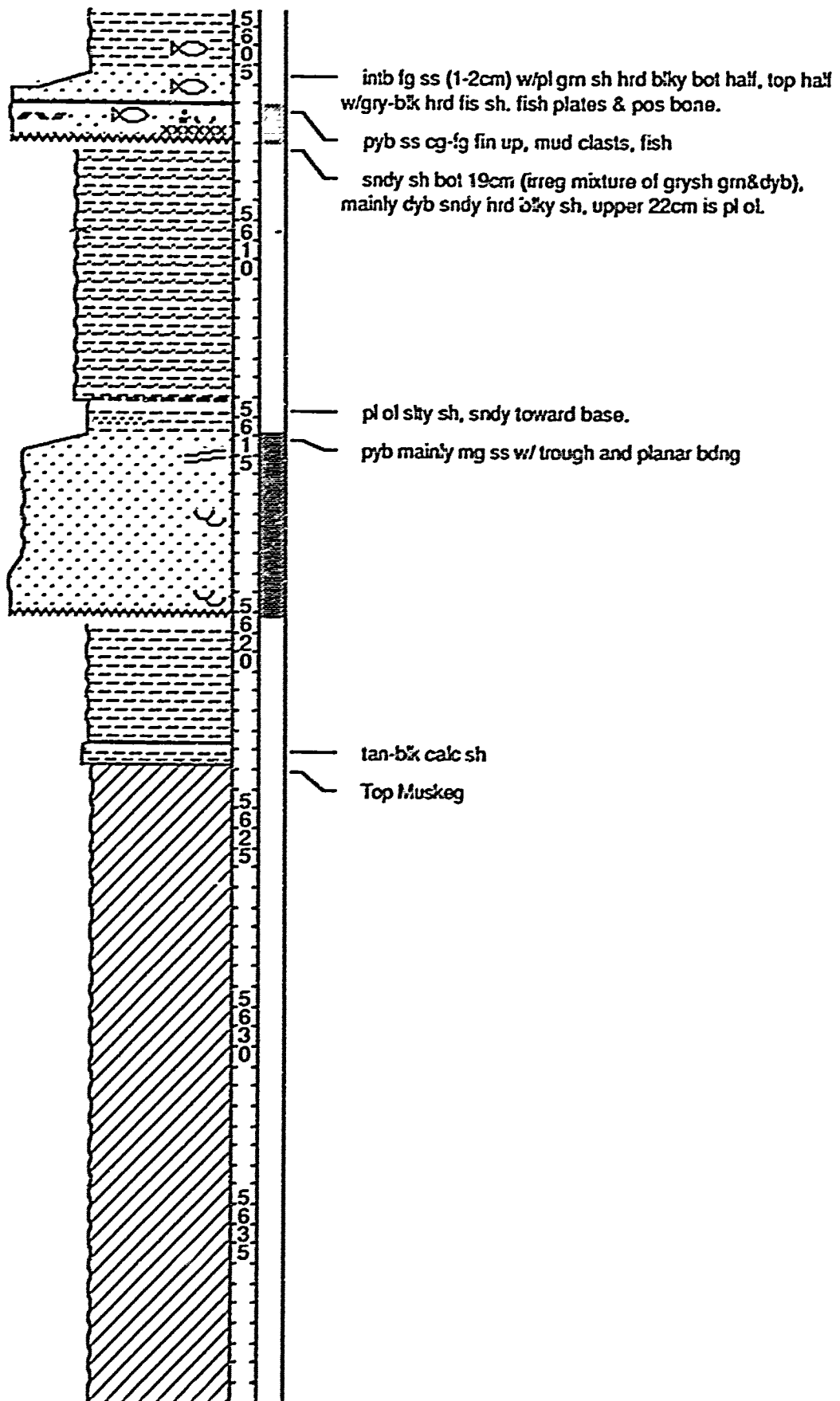
MB BA Nipisi  
12-20-79-7w5





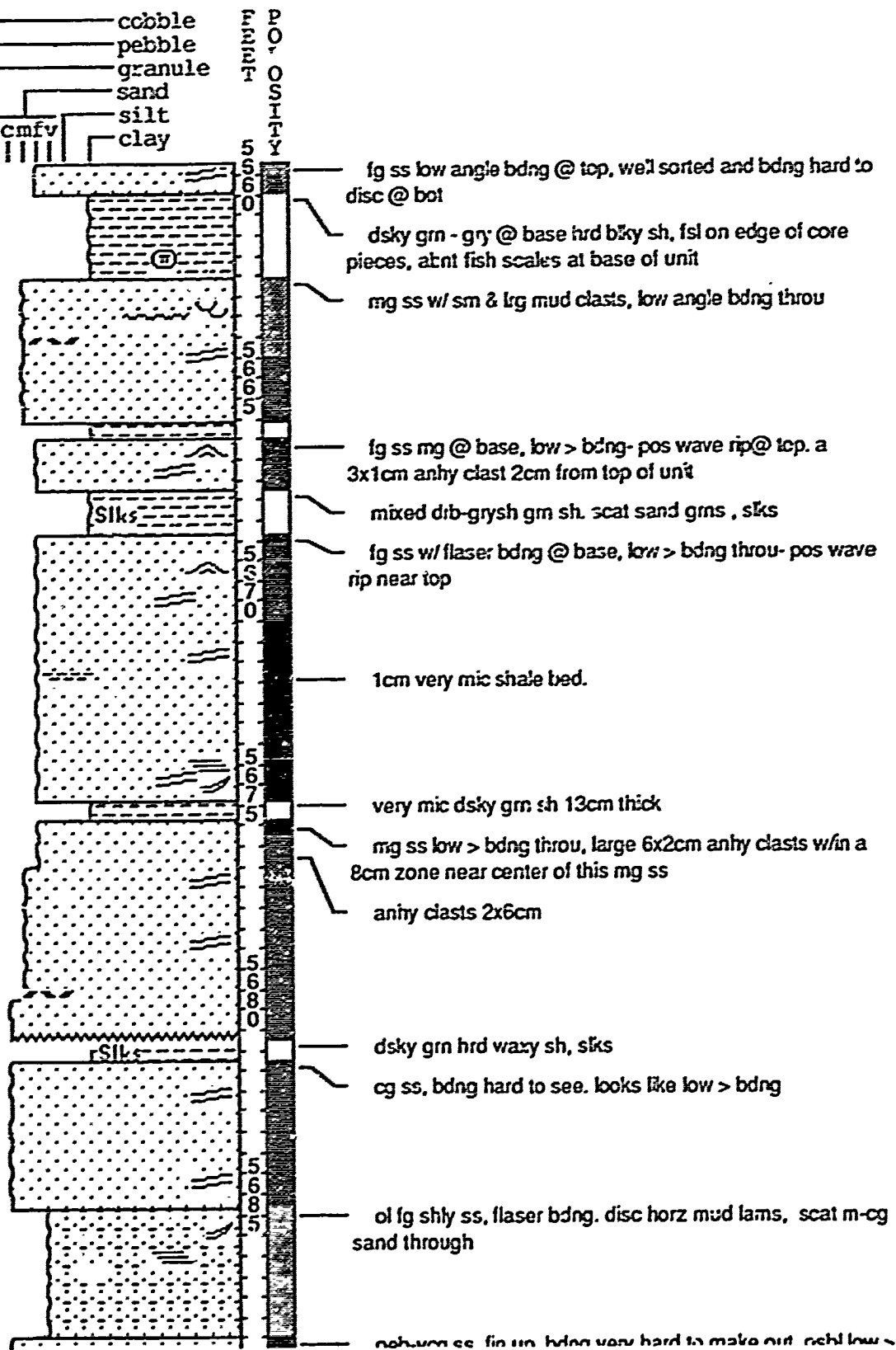
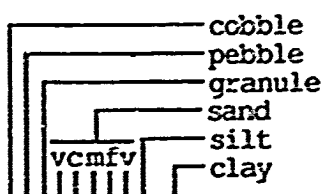
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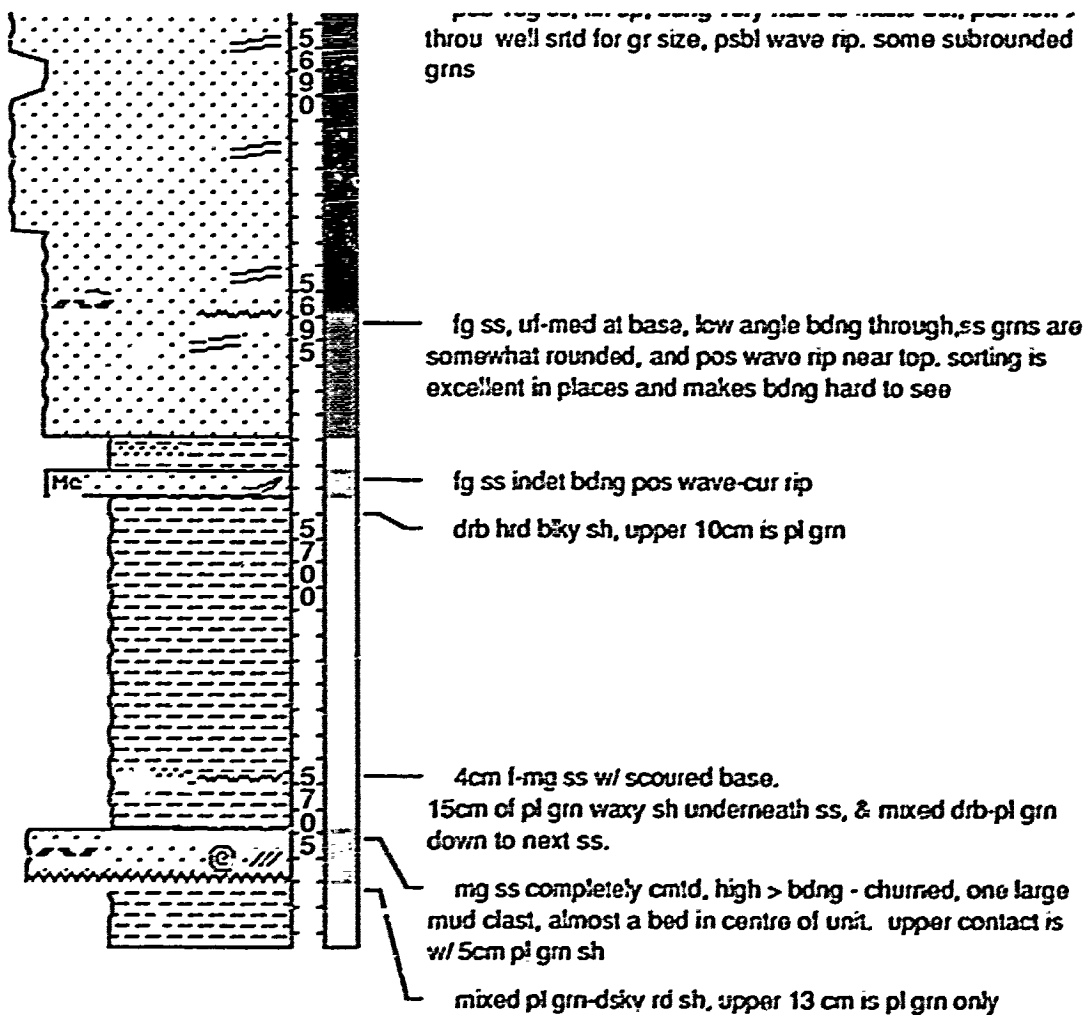




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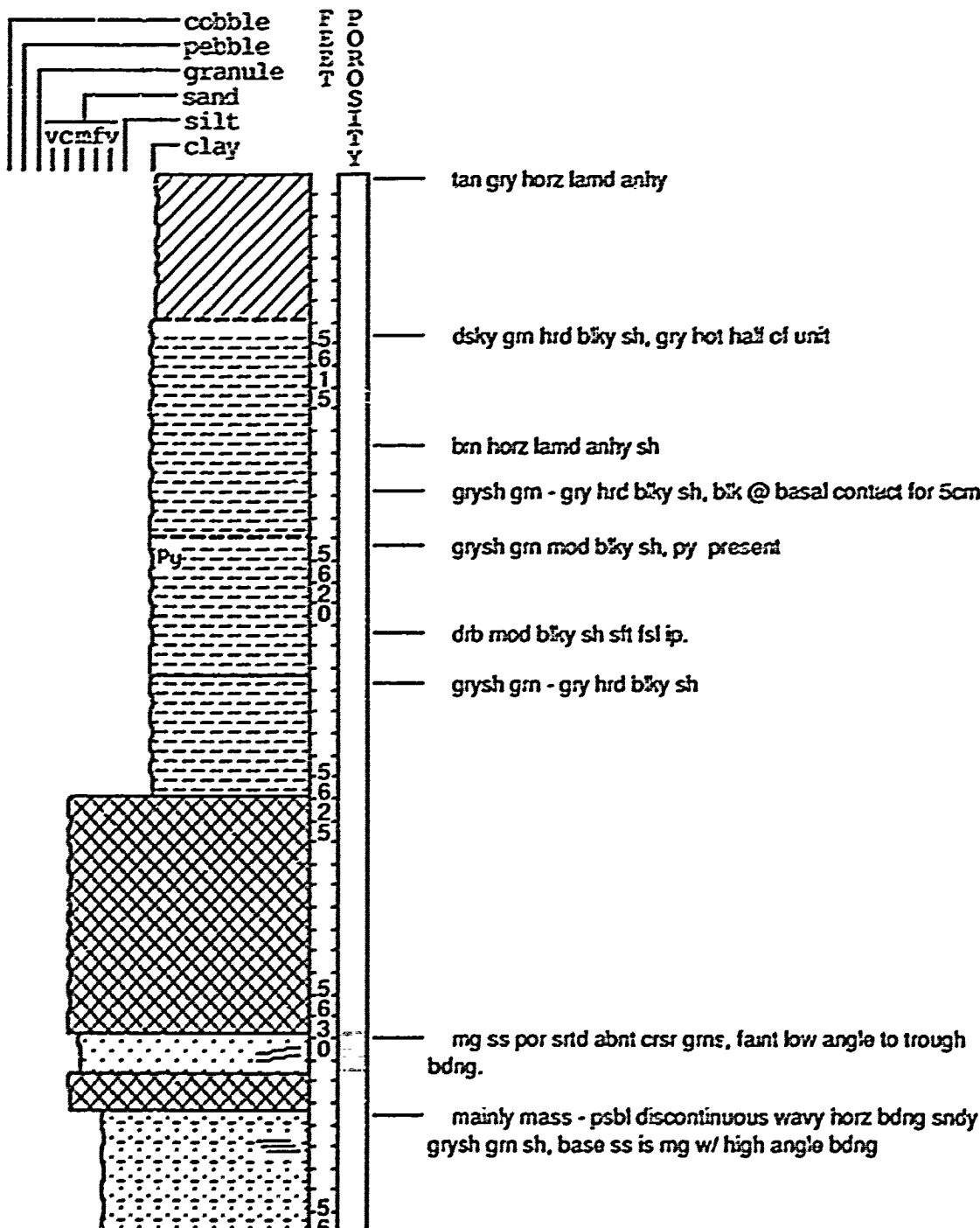


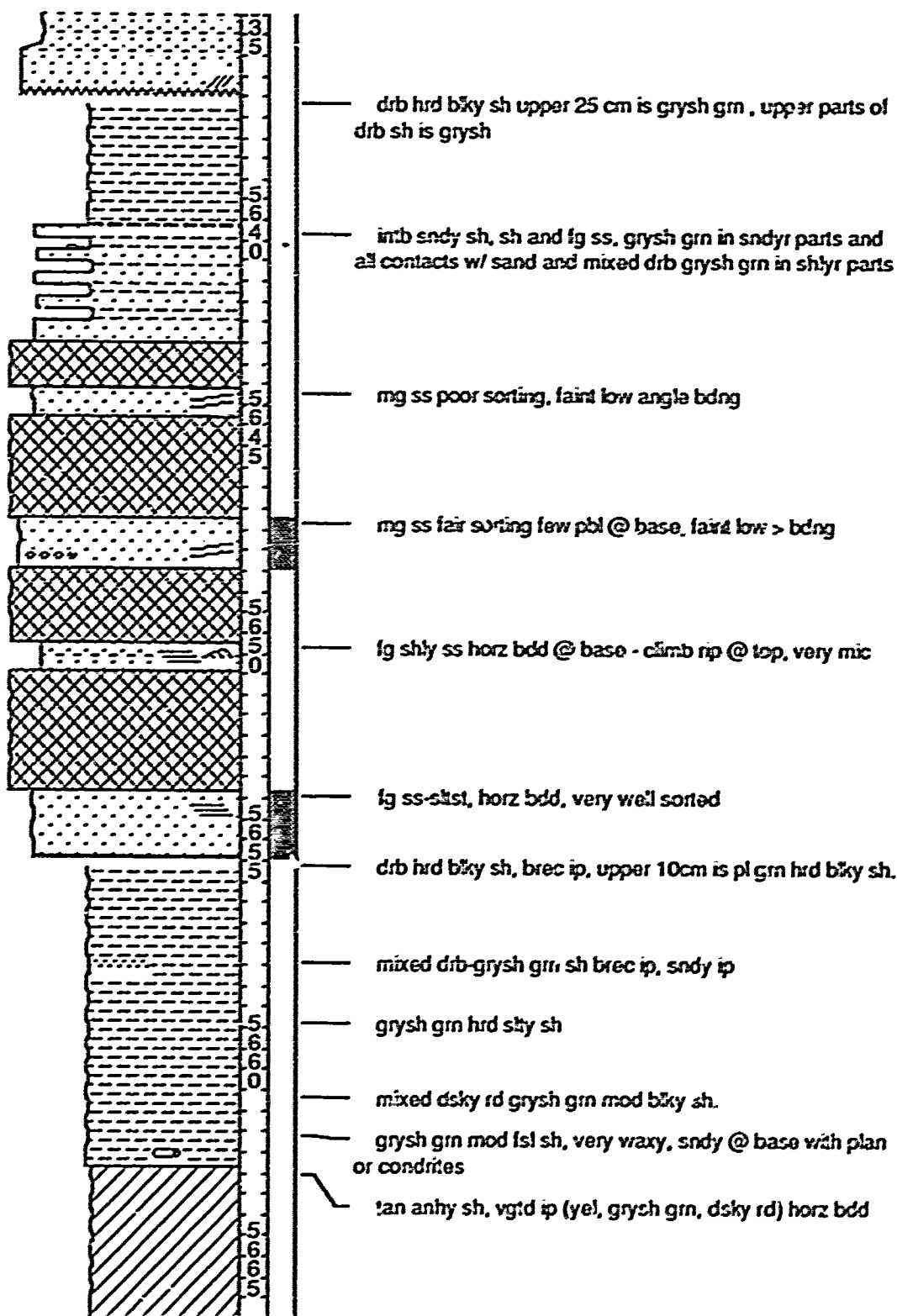


## Amoco Unit 310 12-12-79-8w5 SS Covered by Wax

Remarks: Almost all ss is covered by orange wax to preserve original reservoir characteristics

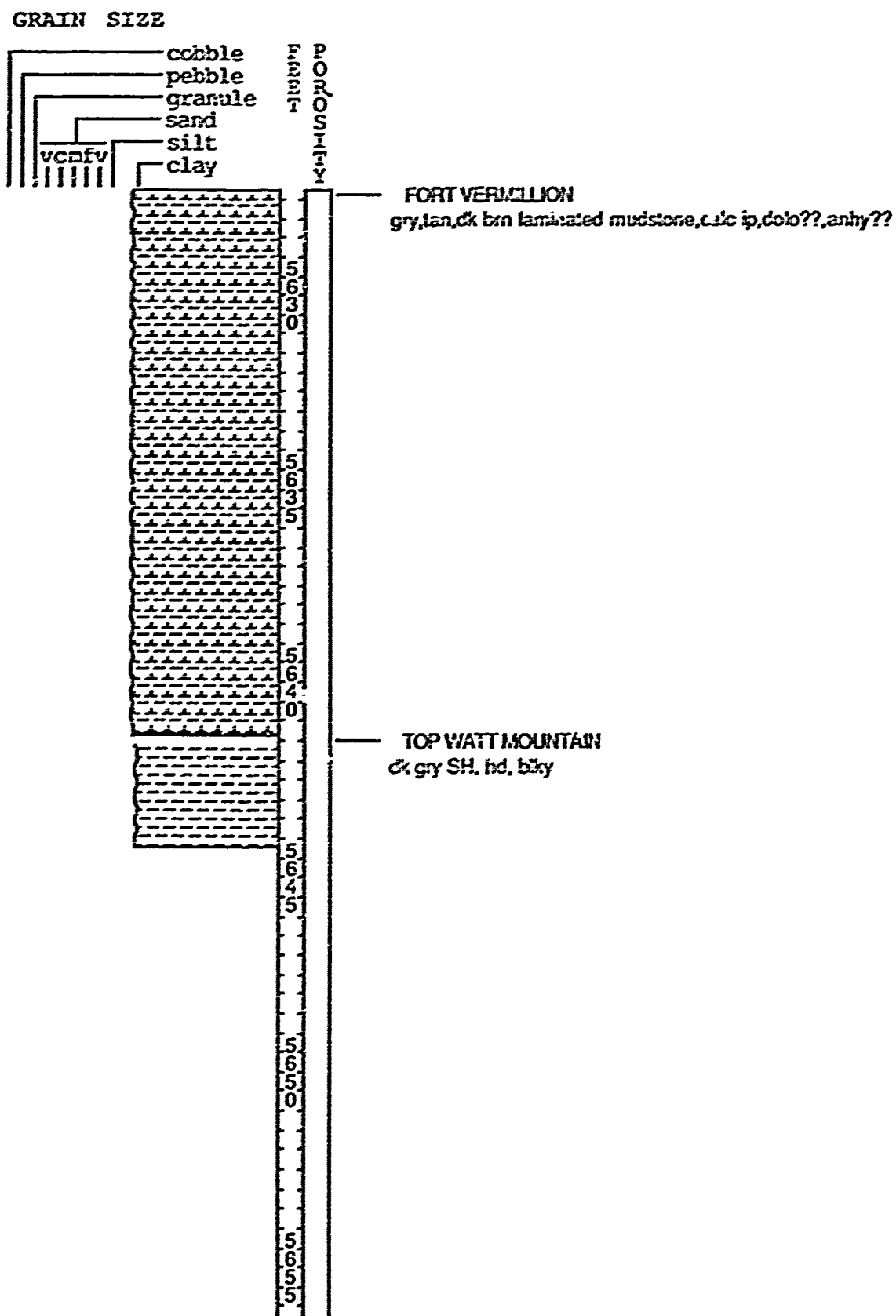
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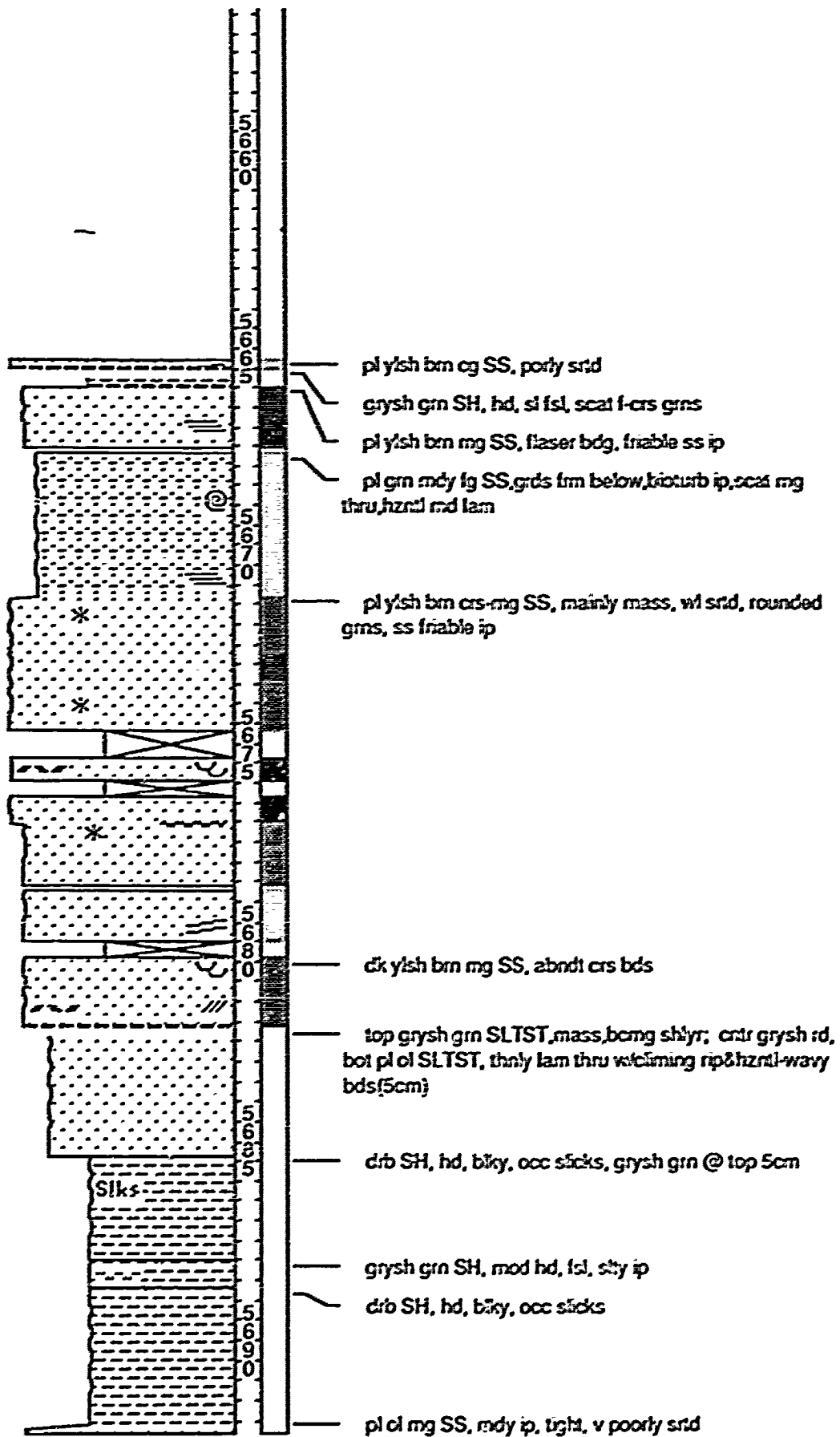




# Shell et al Nipisi

## 4-14-79-8w5

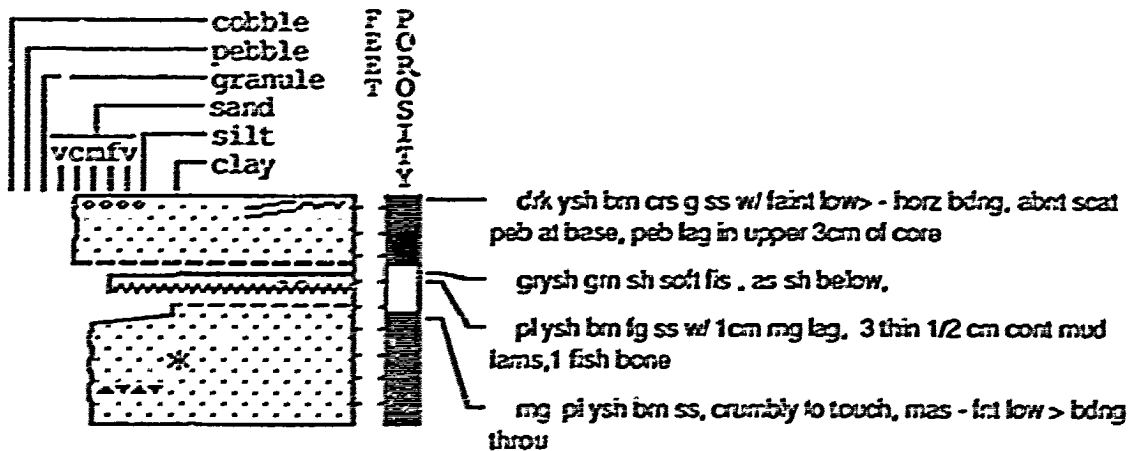




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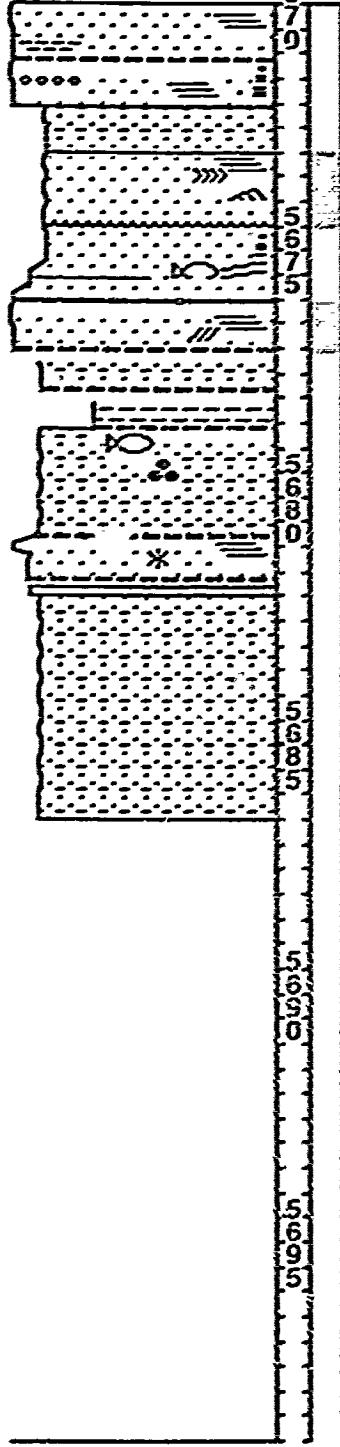
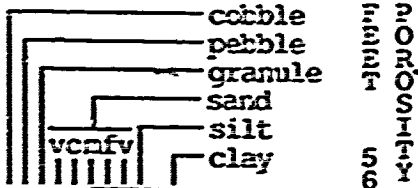
10-14-79-8w5

### GRAIN SIZE



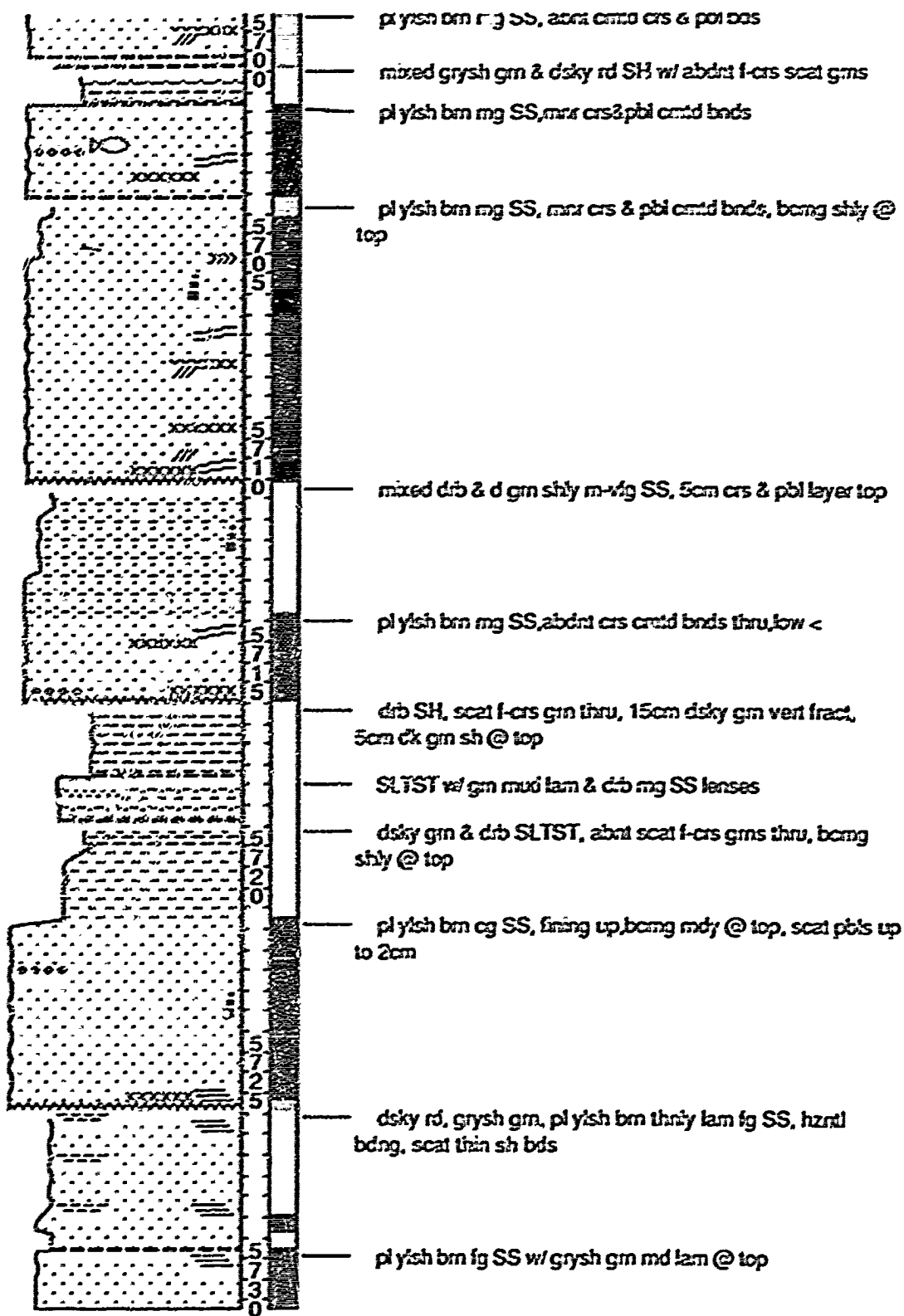
## Shell et al Nipisi 6-20-79-8w5 depths may be out

**GRAIN SIZE**



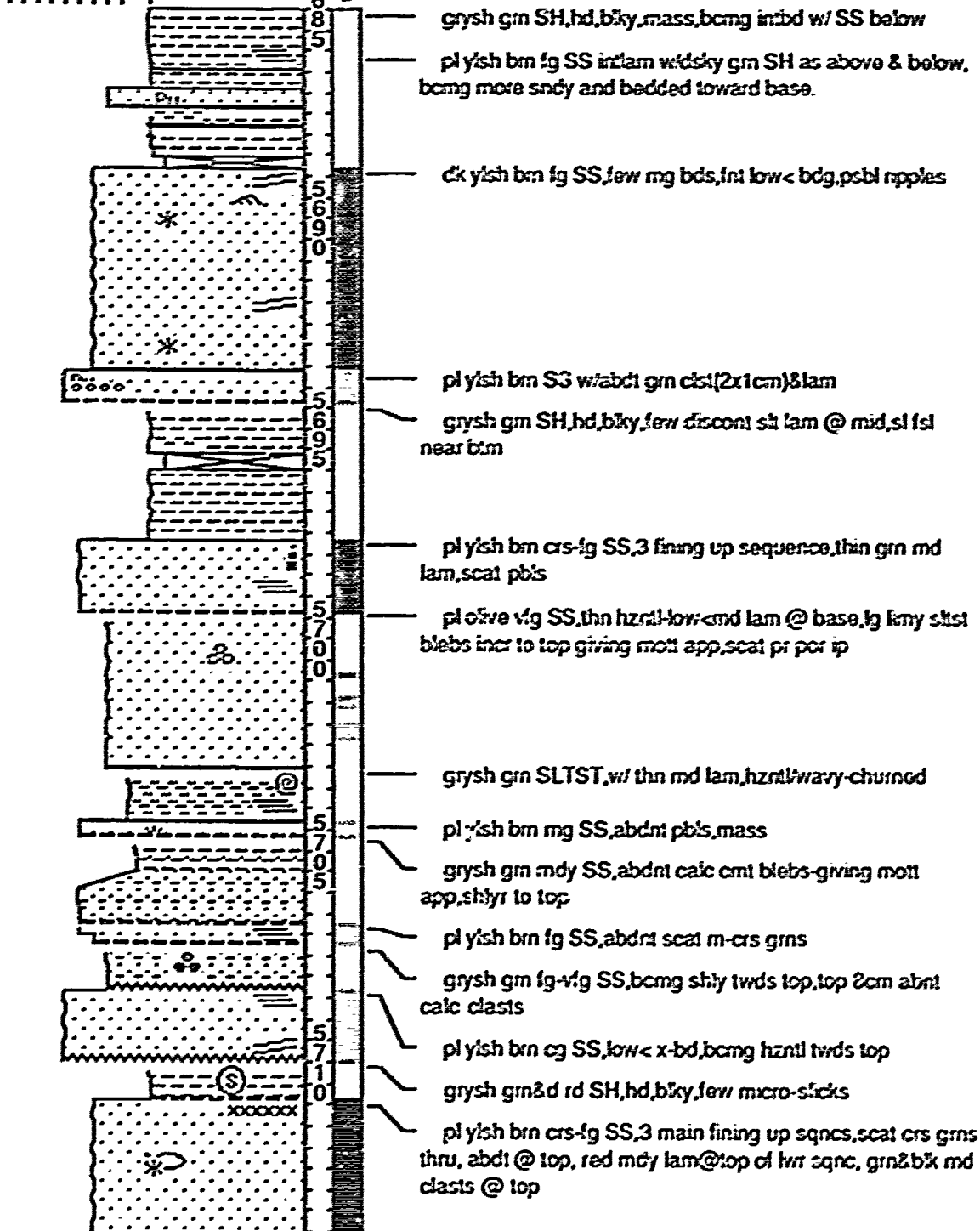
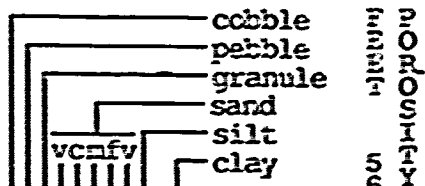
- pl yish brn c-mg SS, 2? soap
- pl olive lg SS w/ disc gm sh lam
- mod yish brn vlg SS, lamd
- pl olive SS, *intact* w/ gryn gm sh, bring up, soil crs  
gms
- pl yish brn SS, abnt cr, sand lvs, hard-bone ldrng
- mbly SS, as below
- missing core from sampling, described as gm sh by  
thachuck
- gryn gm w mbly f-crs SS, w/abnt lmy blabs
- pl yish brn lg SS, well crtd, soil m-crs gms, mass-lamd
- mixed gryn gm d rd SH w/abnt f-crs soil gms

..

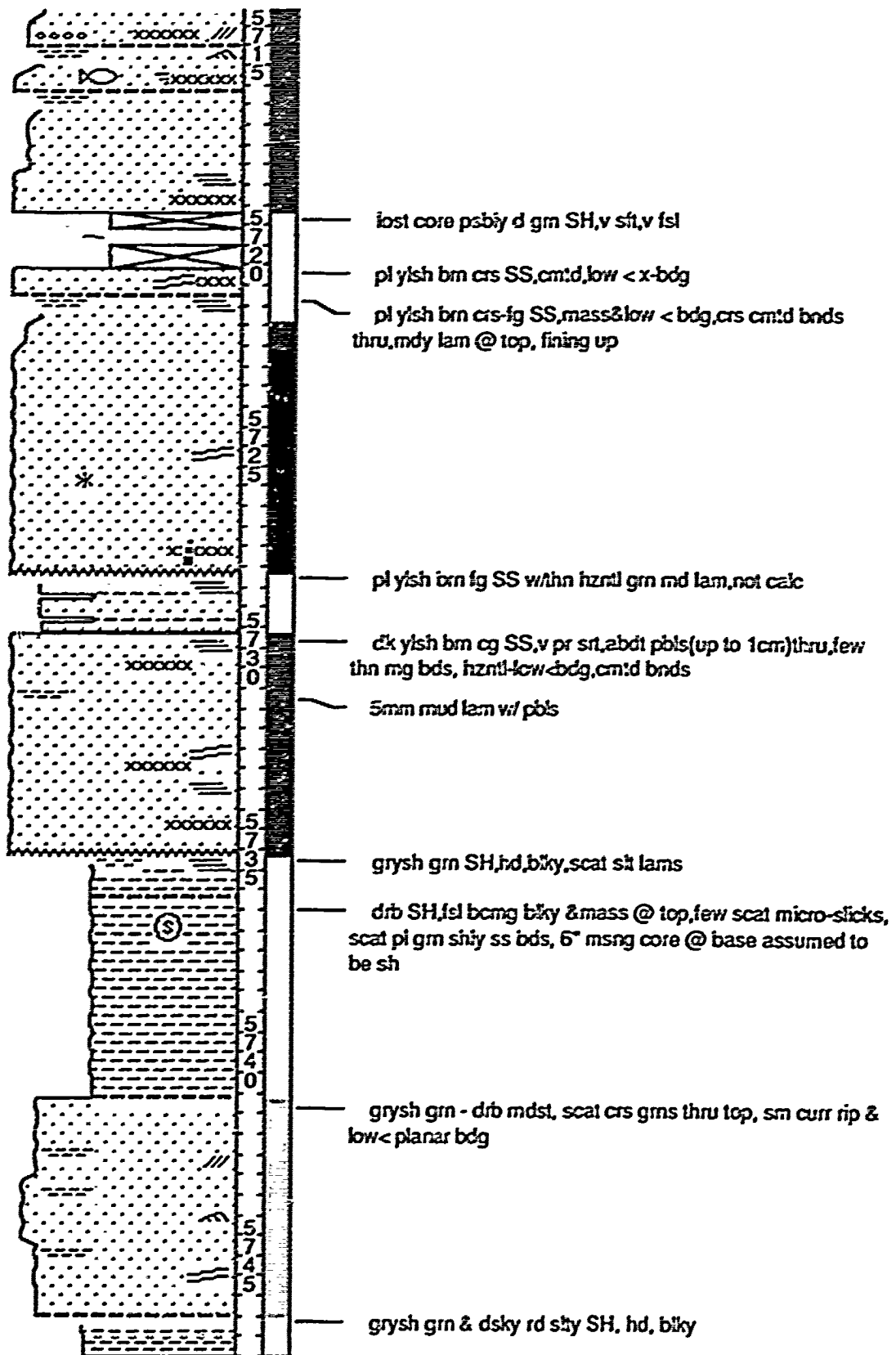


## Shell et al Nipisi 2-21-79-8w5 Thachuk's TYPE LOG

**GRAIN SIZE**

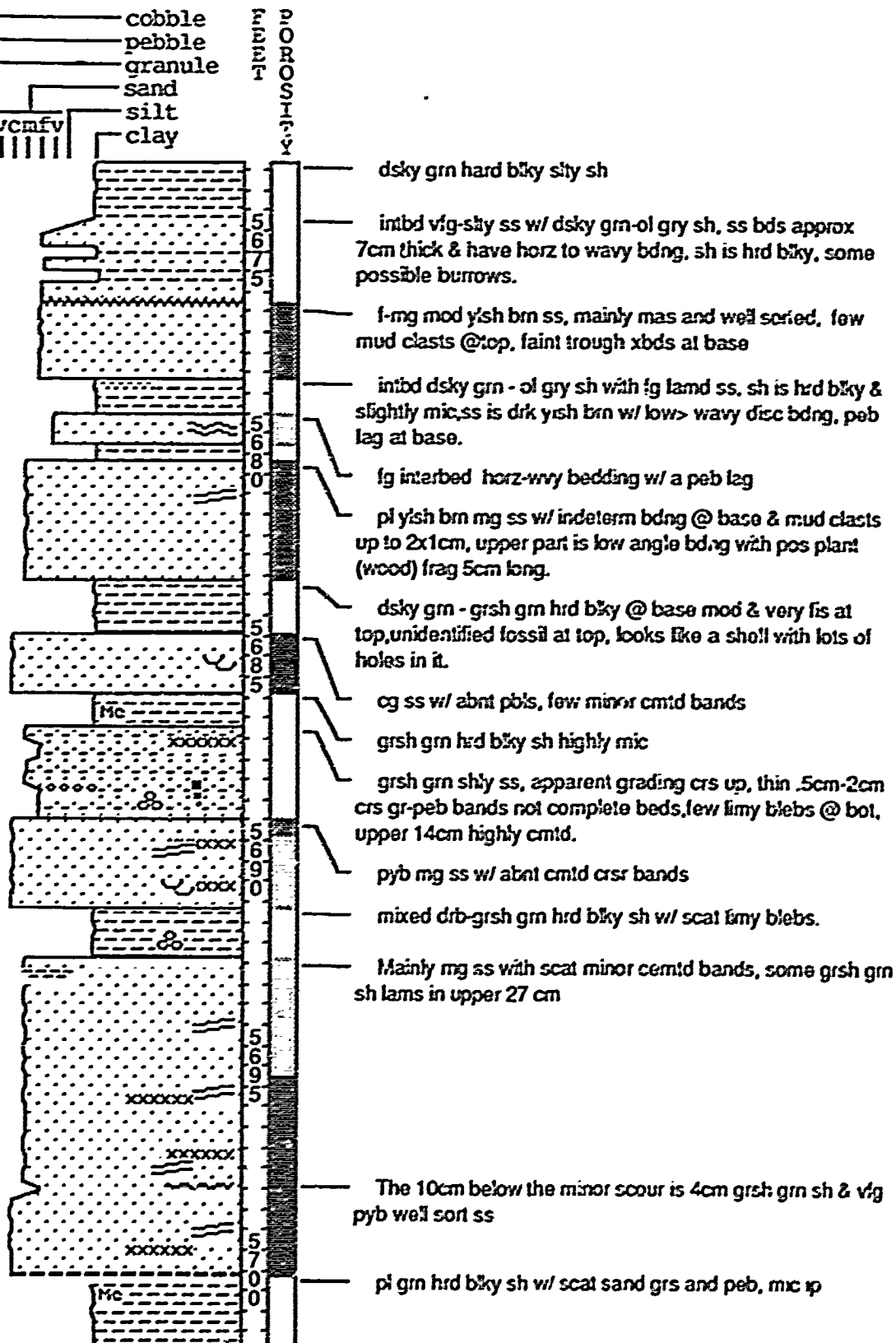
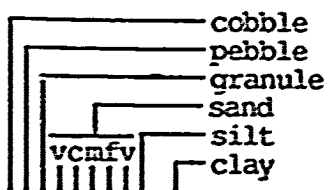


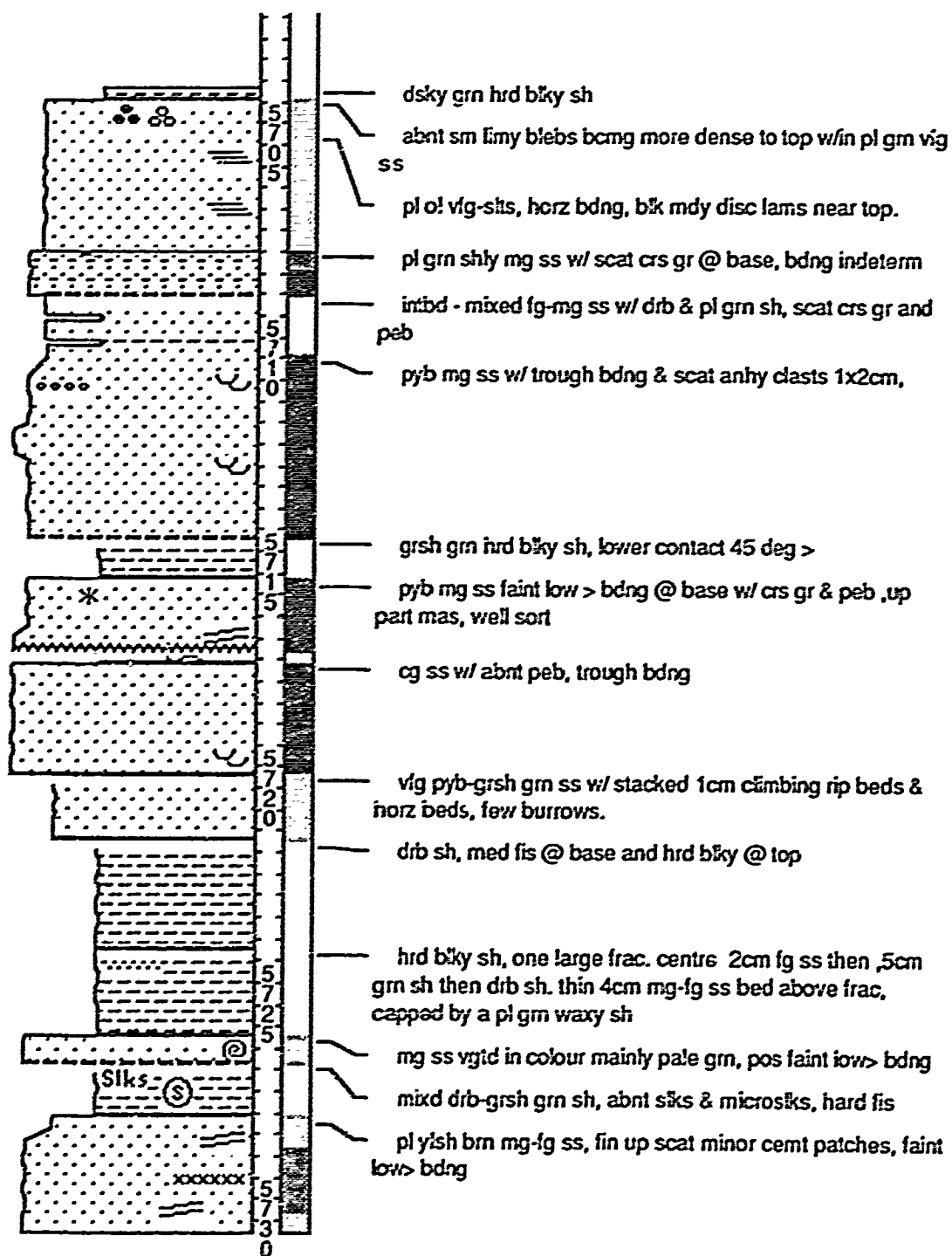




# Amoco Unit 152 10-21-79-8w5

**GRAIN SIZE**

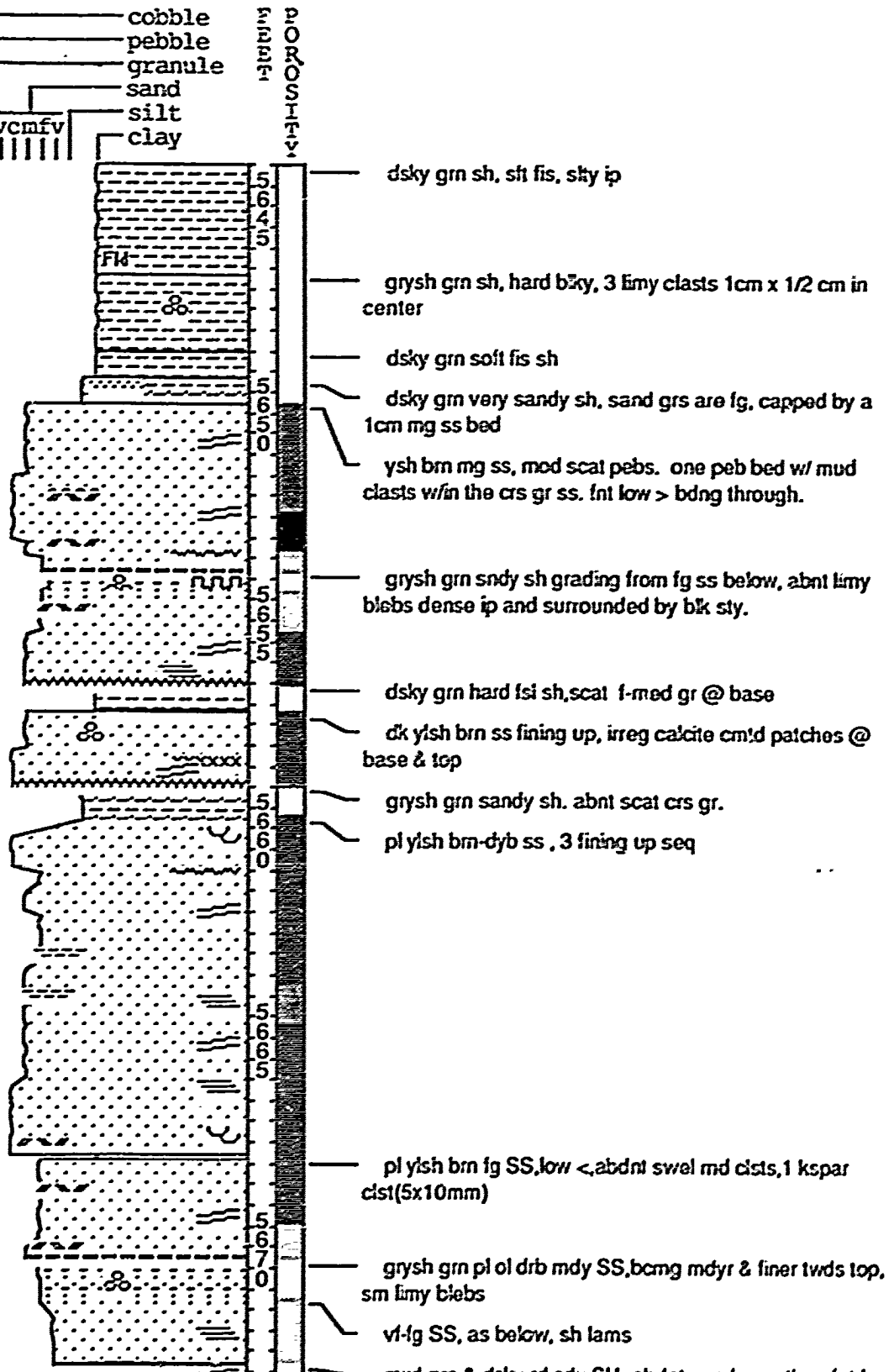
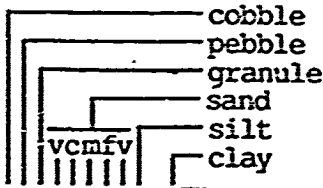


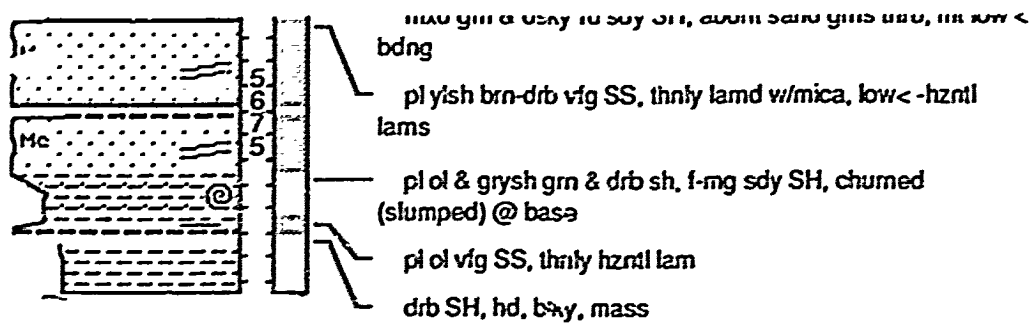


# Amoco Unit 286 Nipisi

## 2-23-79-8w5

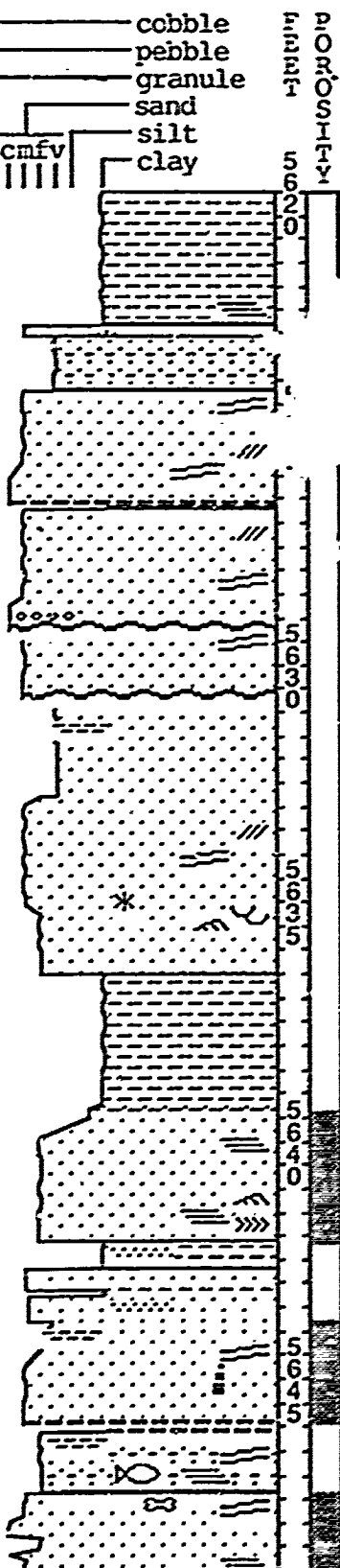
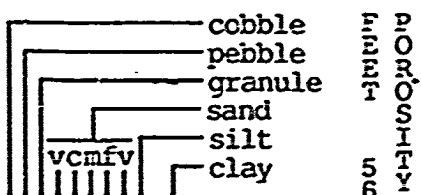
**GRAIN SIZE**



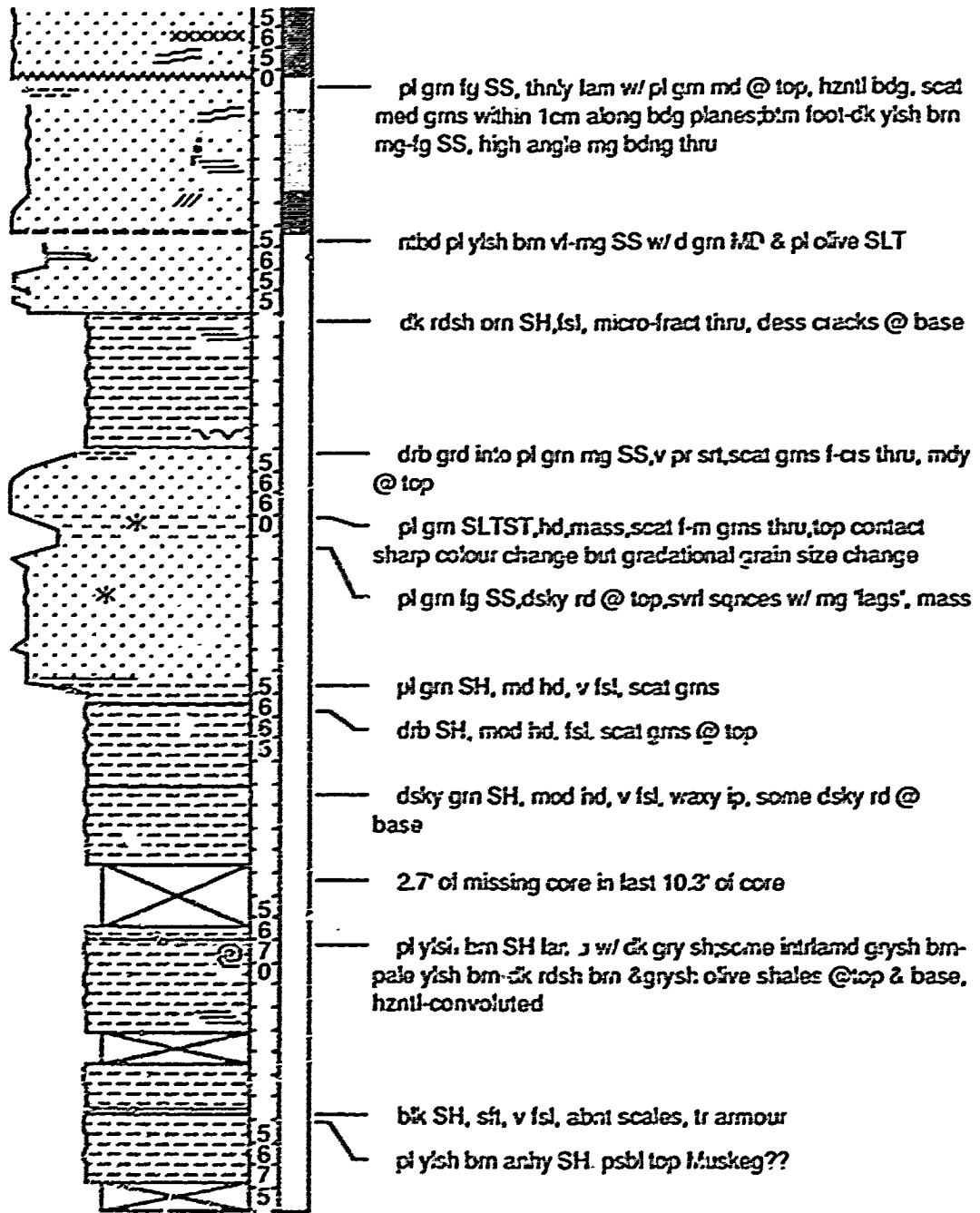


# Shelli et al Nipisi 4-24-79-8w5

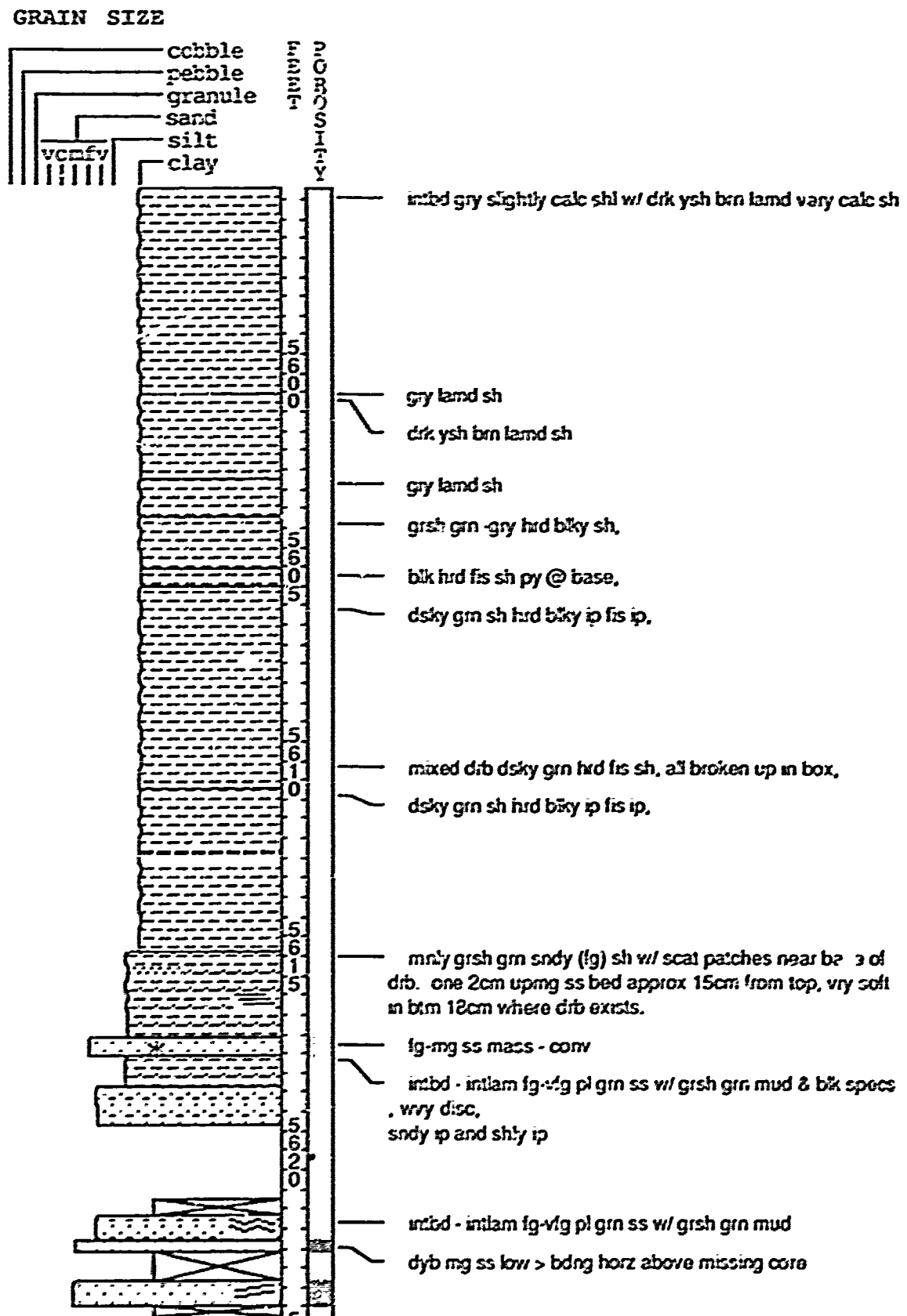
GRAIN SIZE



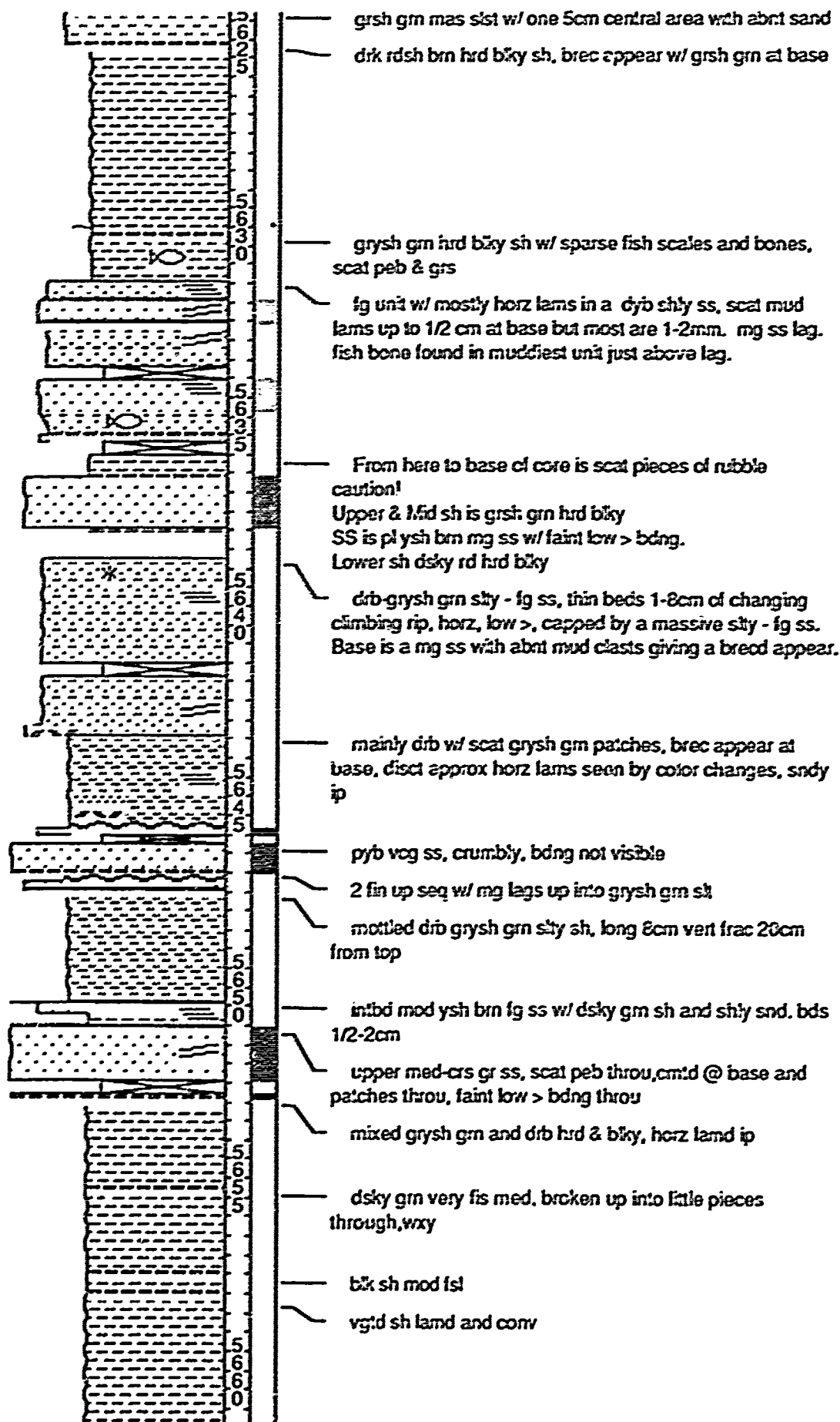
- dk gm-gry SH, hd, bky sl fsl
- br mg ss w/ abt scat crs gr & pbl's
- fg ss, thin lam, dewatering struc
- br m-cg ss, no apparent grading on lrg scale, sm scale (1-3cm) fining up seqc
- dky grn sh, soft & bky - slightly fsl, abnt lg-med grs scat pl ysh brn med gr ss, scat cg's and pbl's.
- bot 10 cm of pbl layer is churned w/ a grysh grn swelling clay
- pl ysh brn mg ss, mainly low > bdng, scat pl grn mud lams and pbl sized clasts.
- vfg grysh grn ss, Some lams show low > bdng, contains scat crs grs and limy clasts which are surrounded by blk lams. Scat grs bcng more abnt at base.
- high > bdng in grysh of fg ss (7cm) (clump feature)
- only one 1cm set of current ripples, trough above and mas below
- drb SH, gm sh @ top & btm 10cm, mod bky fsl, scat micro fract thru
- pl ysh brn fg SS, thin pl grn md lams thru, grades into sh, scat crs grns thru upper part
- grysh gm SH, slt, fsl, abnt ss lam
- drb sdy SH intb w/ v sft, fsl sh
- dk ysh brn mg-fg SS, fining up, mg bnds, few swl clay cist & lams @ top
- grysh grn SH v sft, mod fsl
- grysh grn fg SS, abnt mdy lam @ base decr to top w/ 1cm sh bd 10cm fr top
- pl ysh brn SS, variable grain size - no grdng.

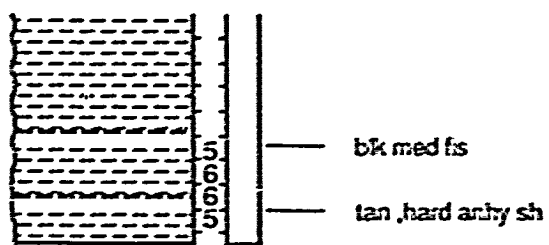


# Shell et al Nipisi 12-25-79-8w5

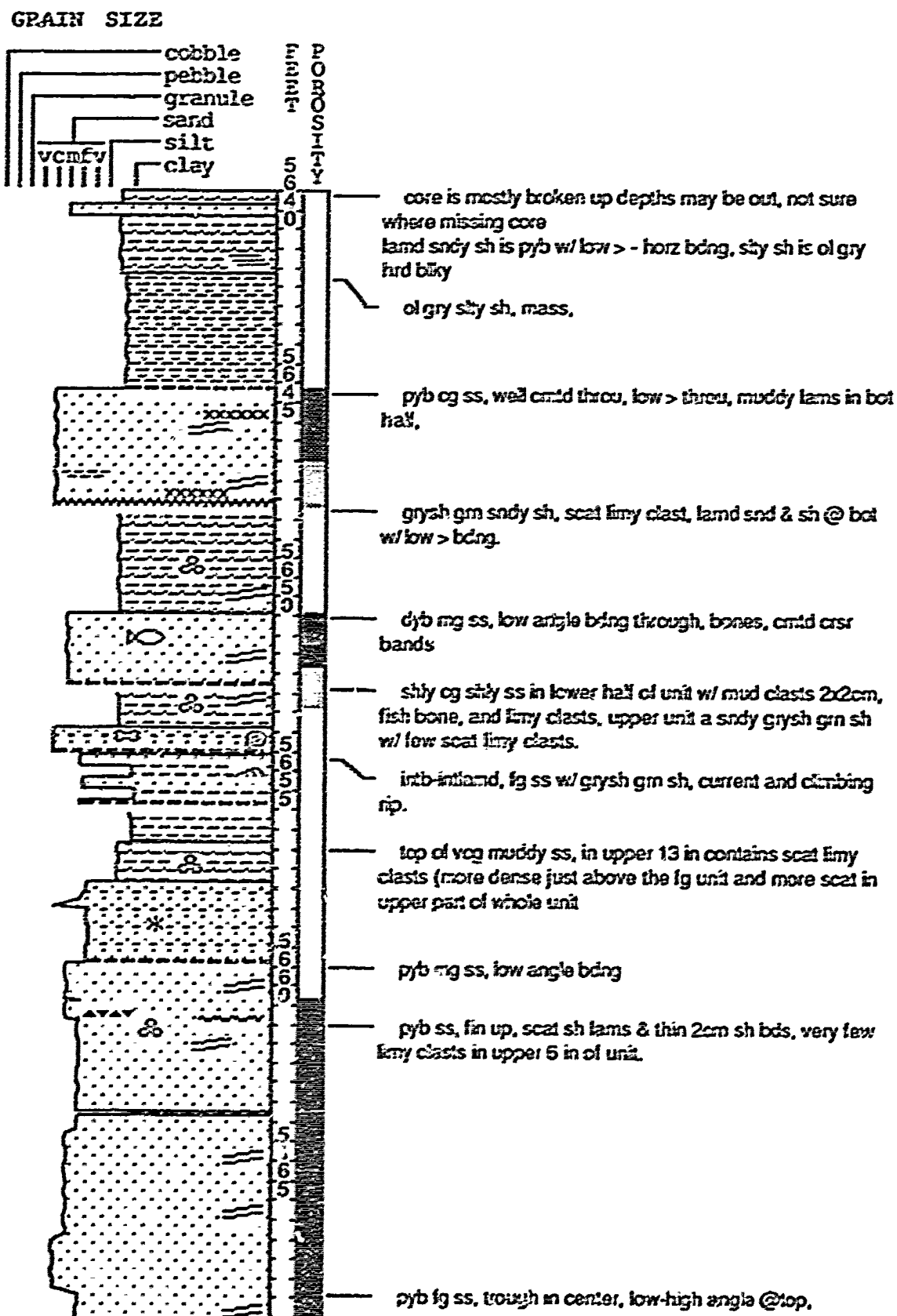


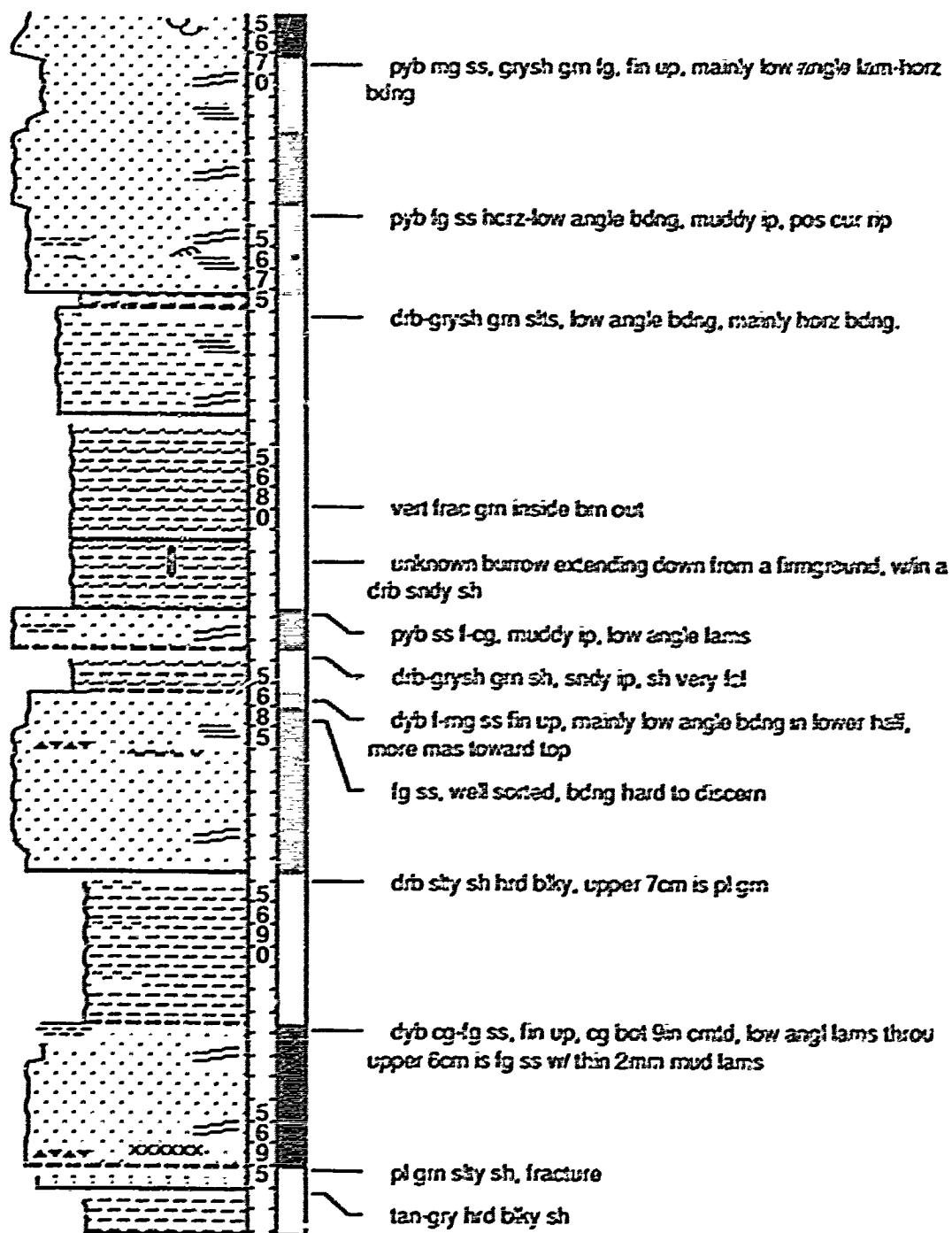




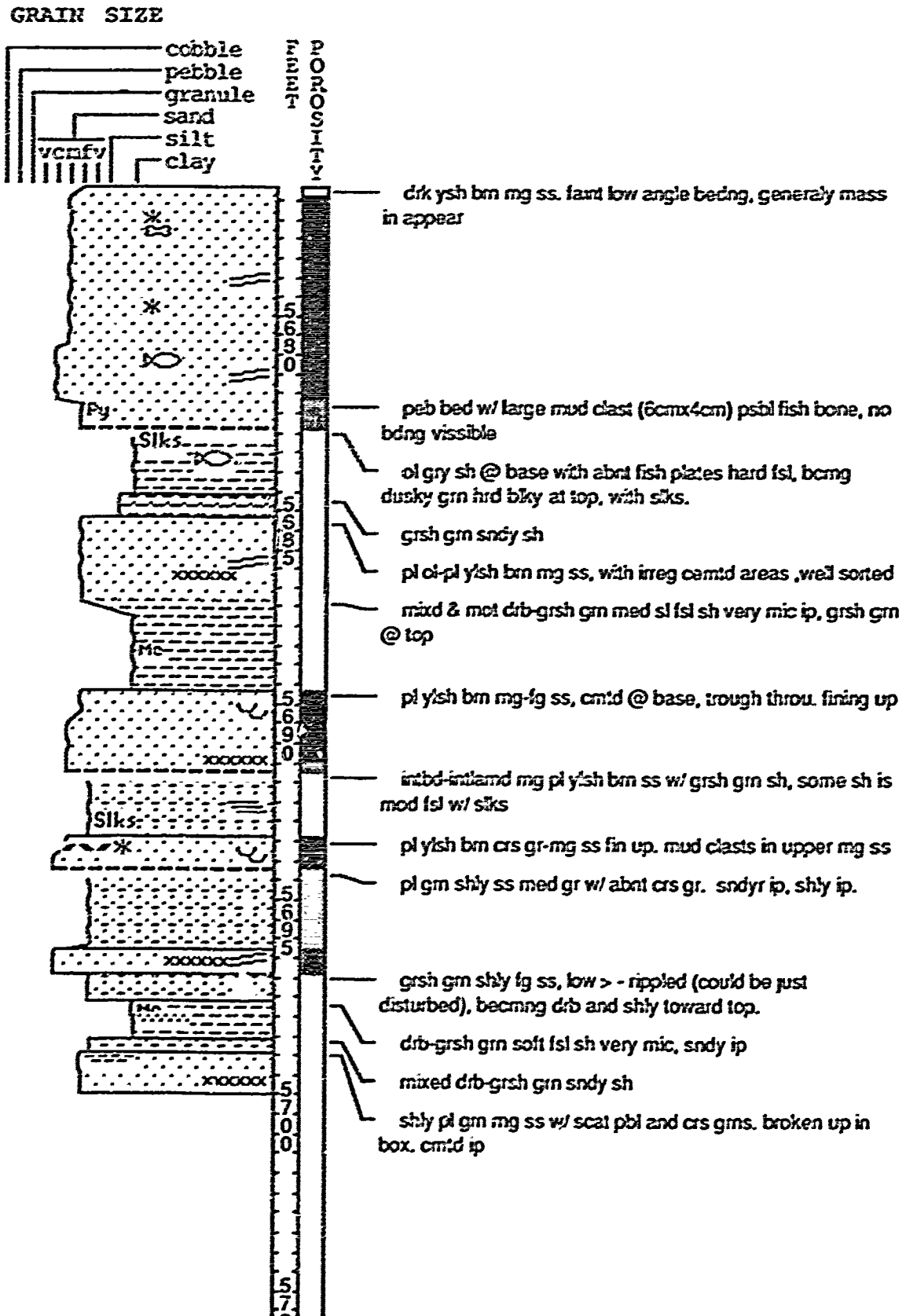


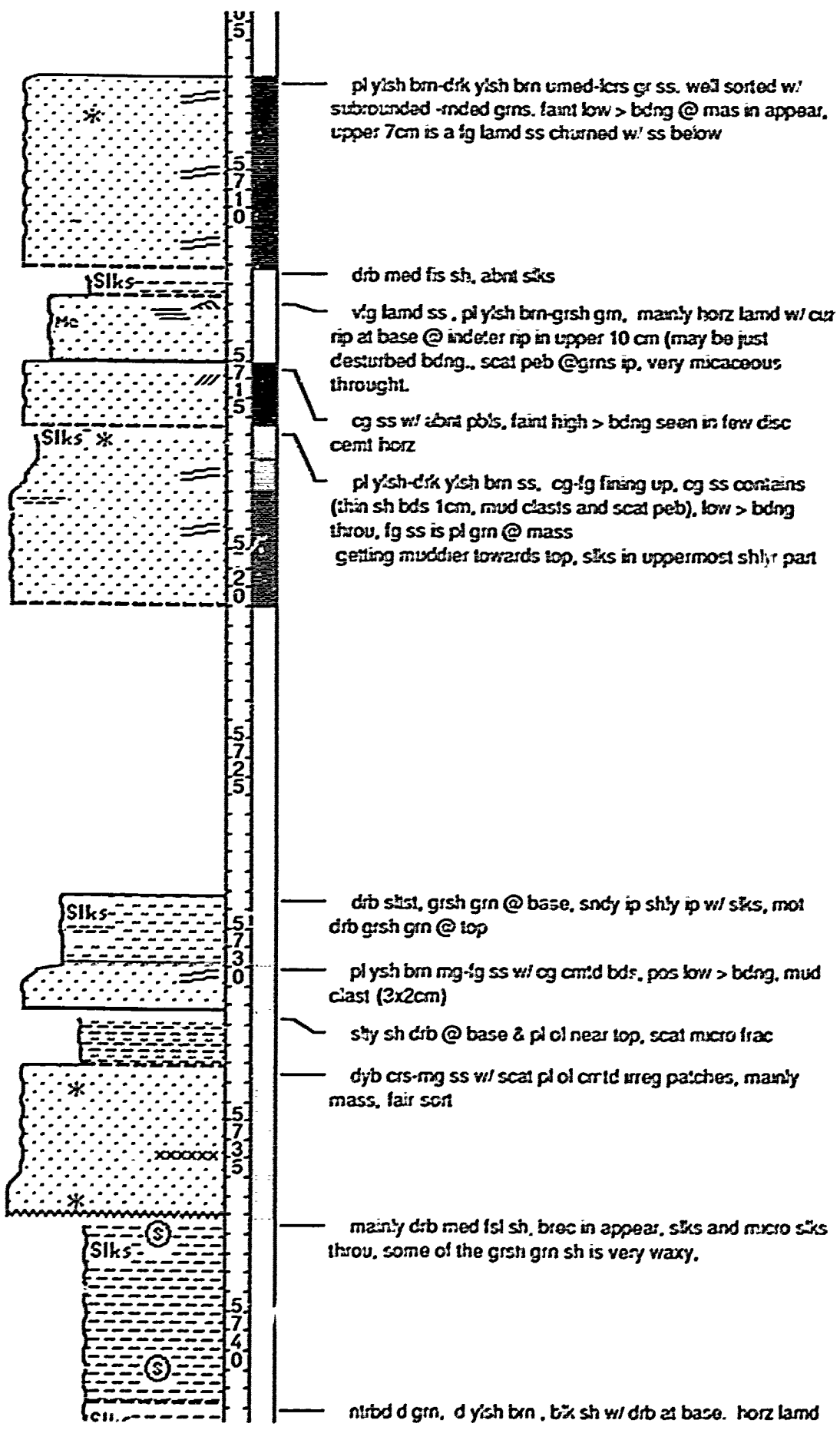
# Shell et al Nipisi 10-27-79-8w5

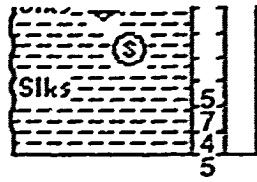




# Amoco Unit No. 121 4-28-79-8w5







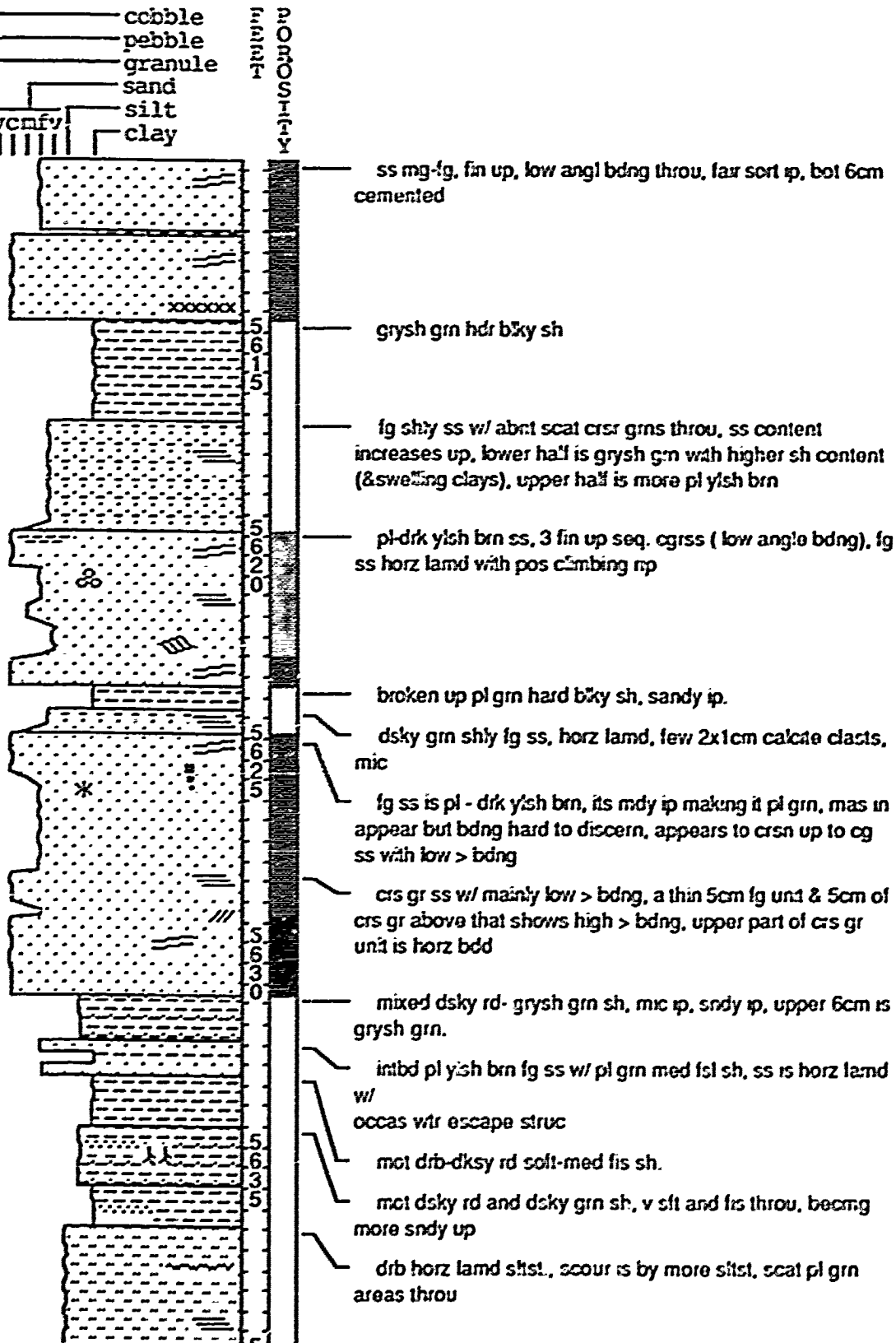
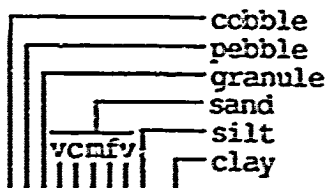
through, scat brac in blk sh

~ .

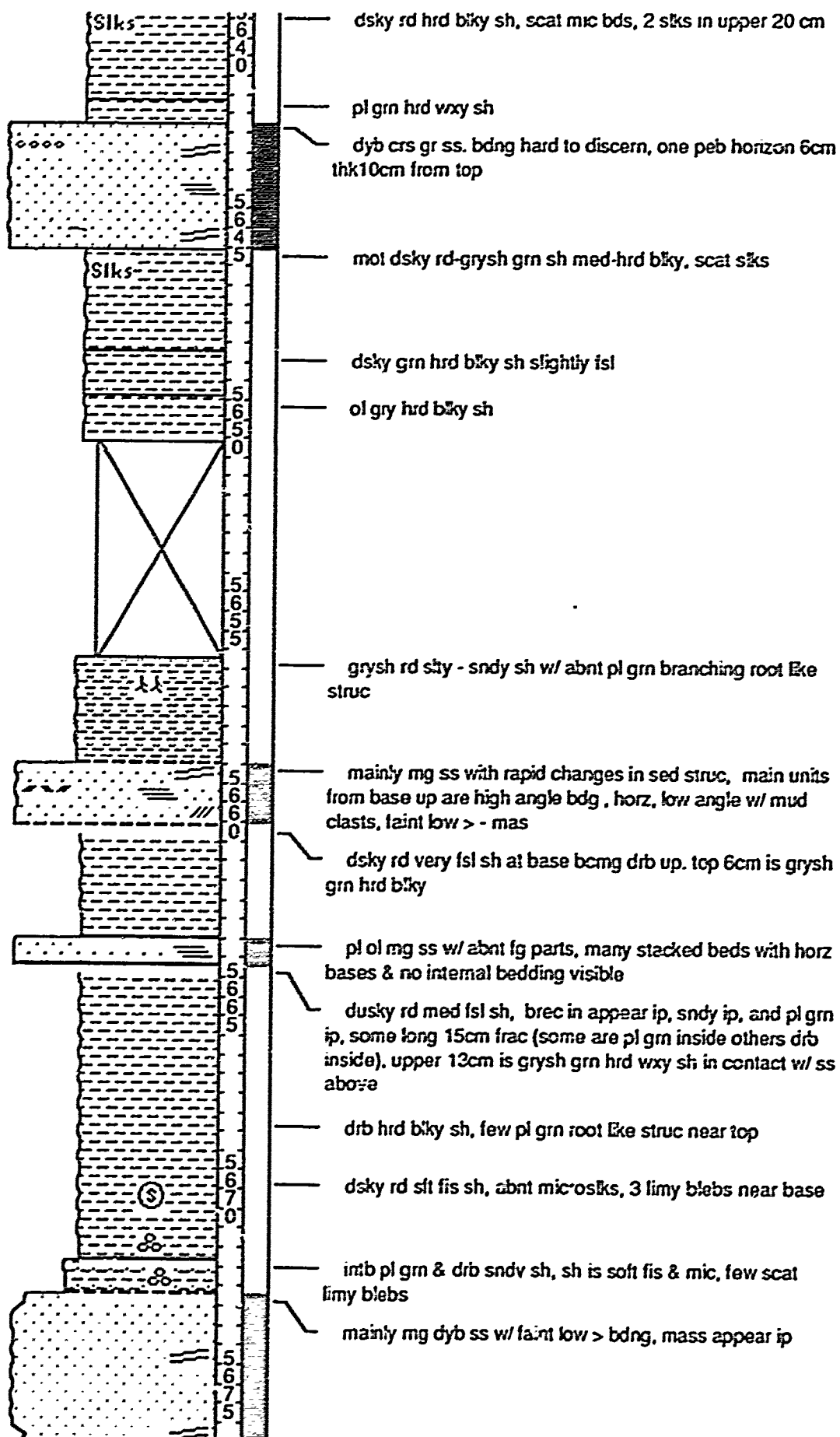
# Hamilton Nipisi

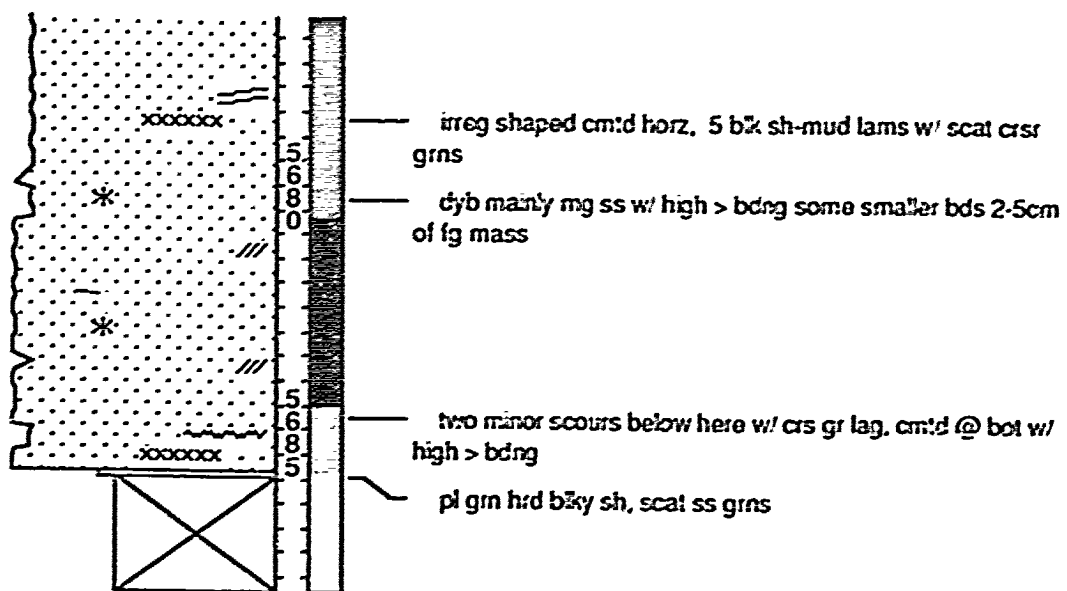
2-29-79-8w5

GRAIN SIZE

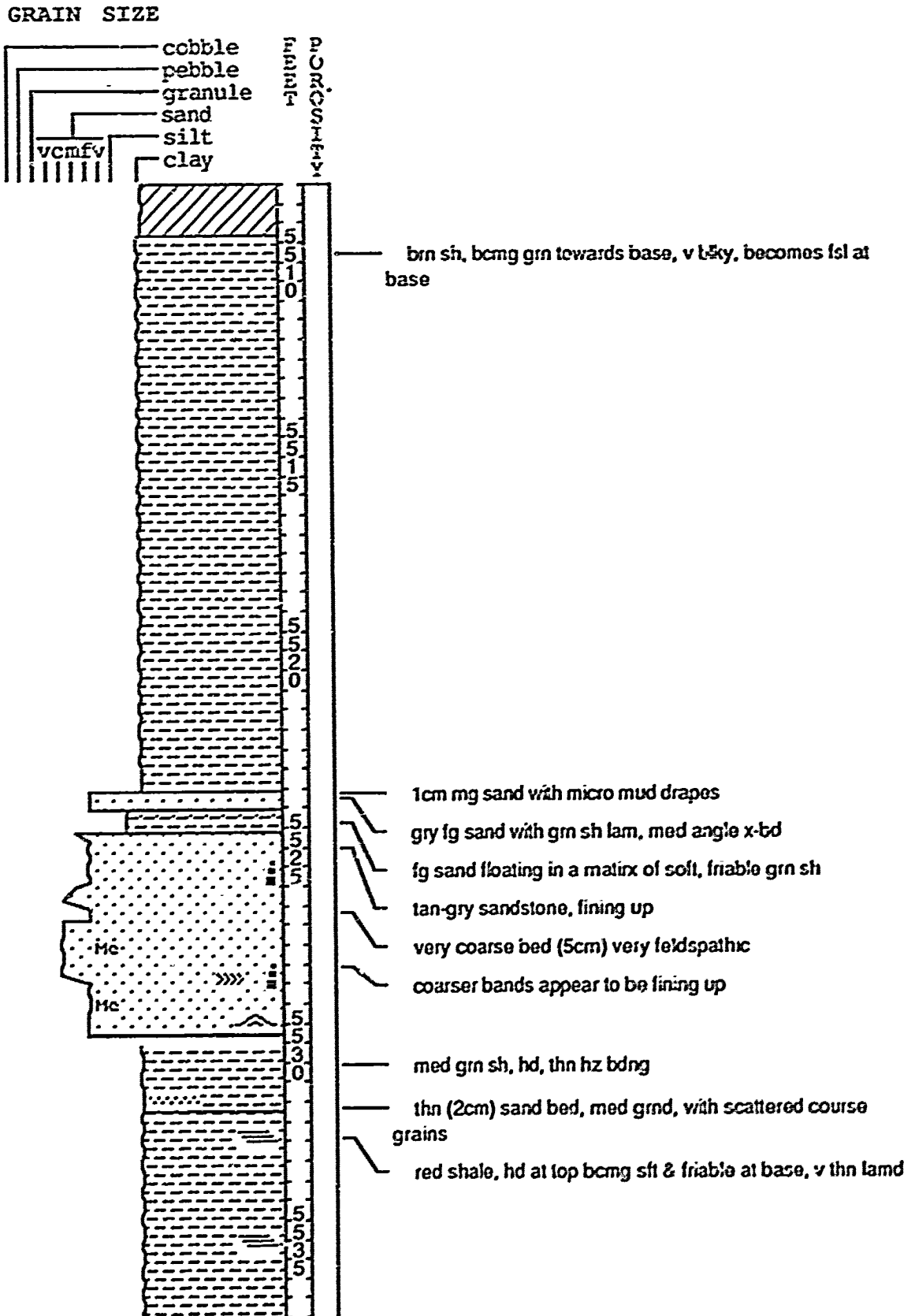


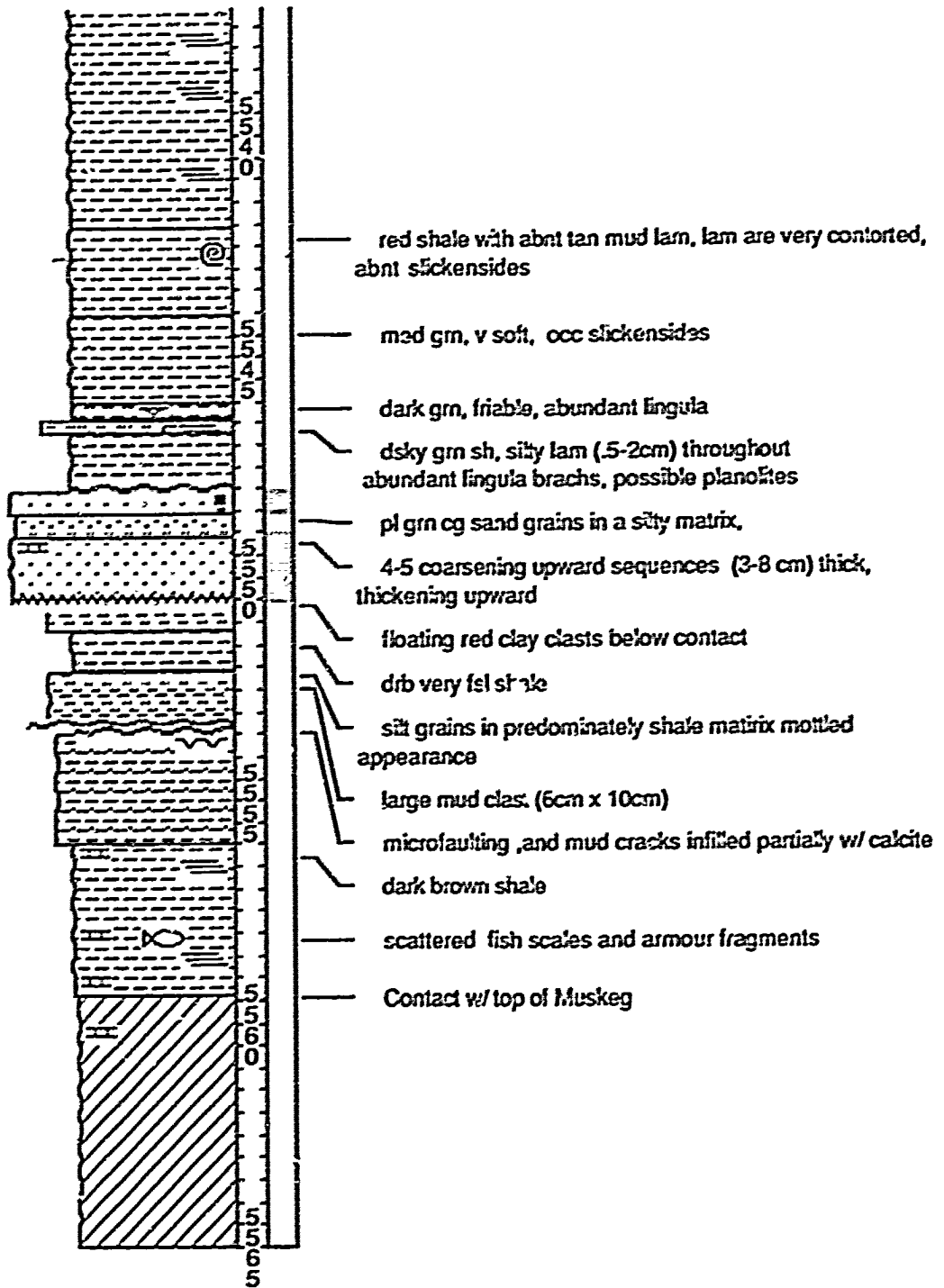




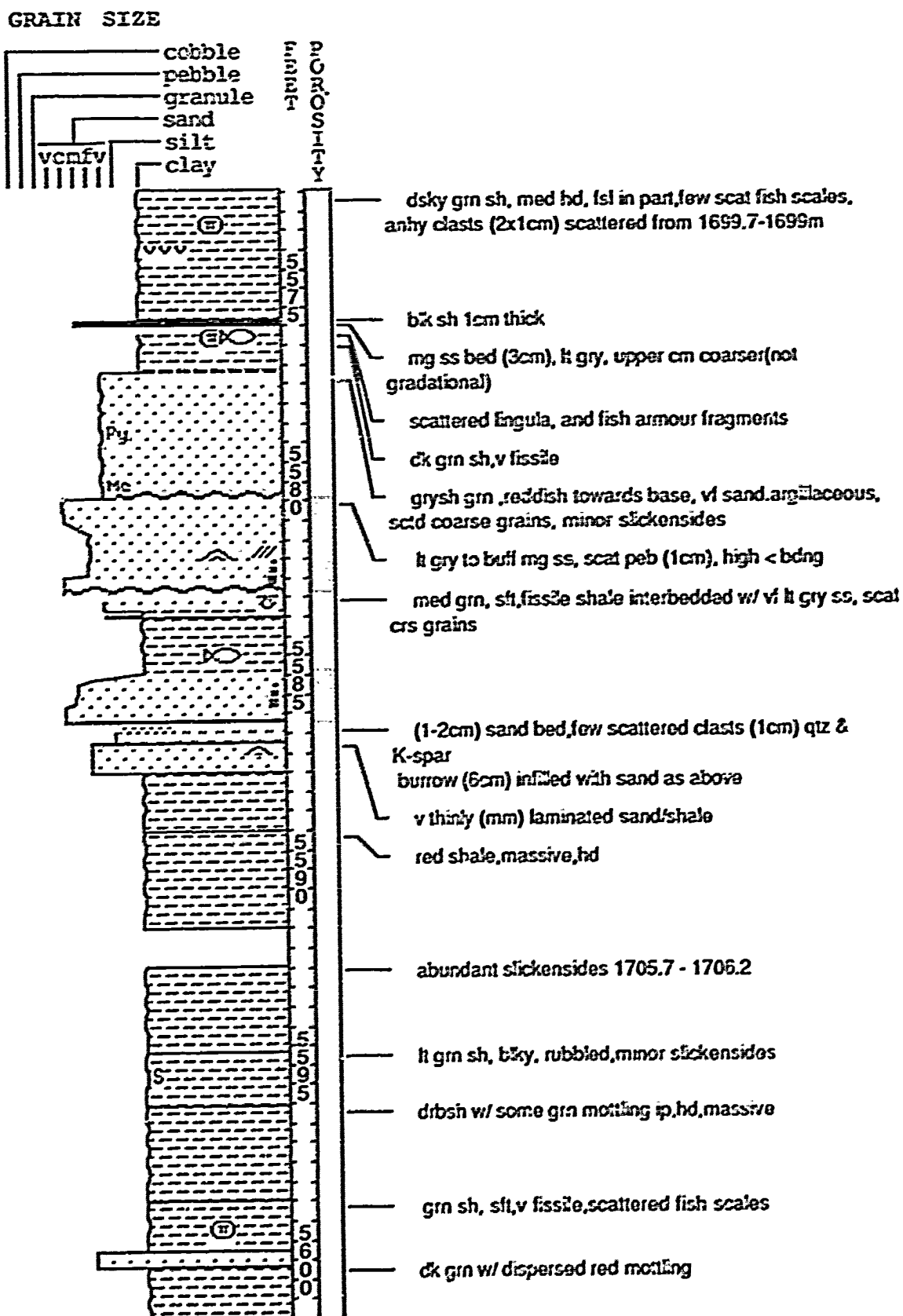


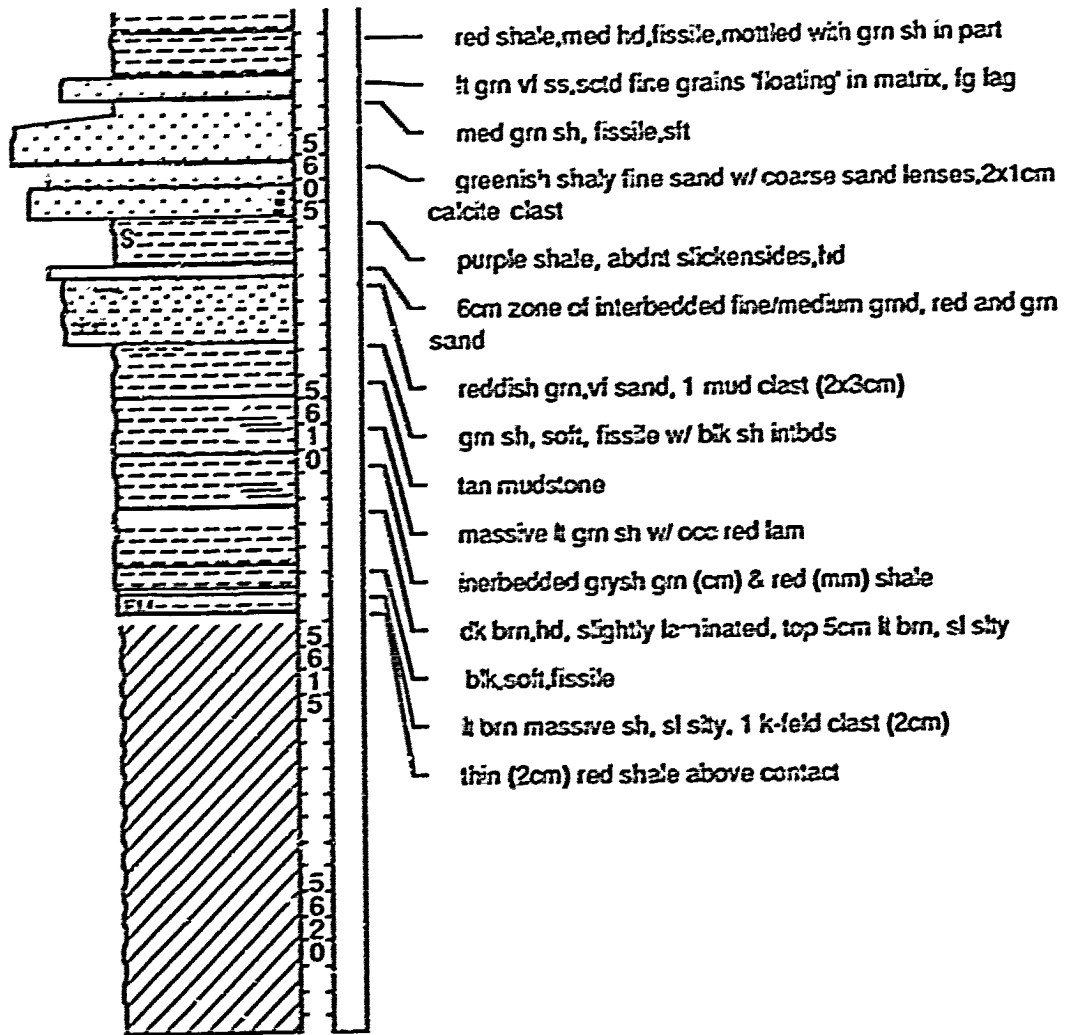
Cairn et al Nipisi  
2-5-80-7w5





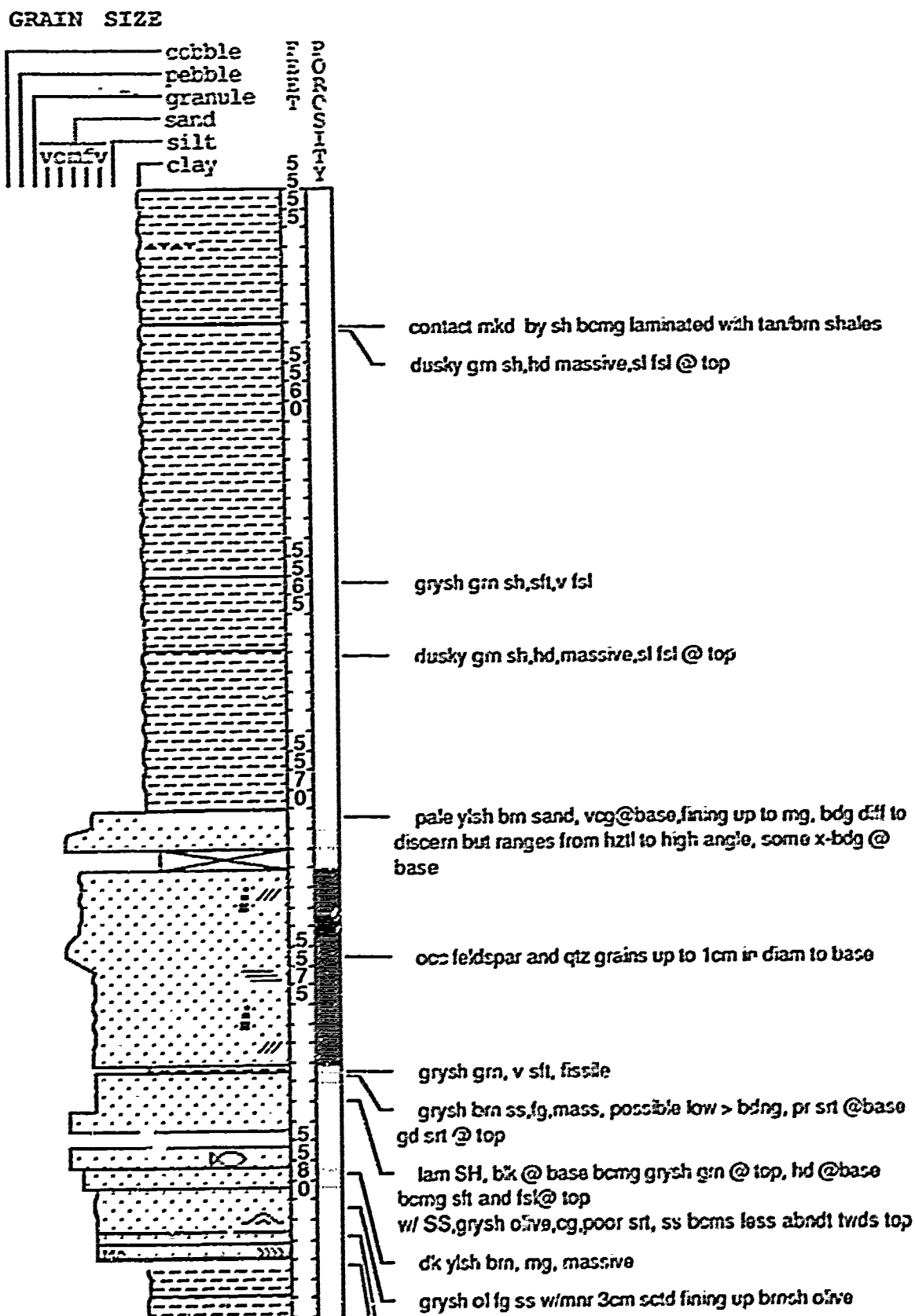
## Amoco Unit 378 Nipisi 2-6-80-7w5

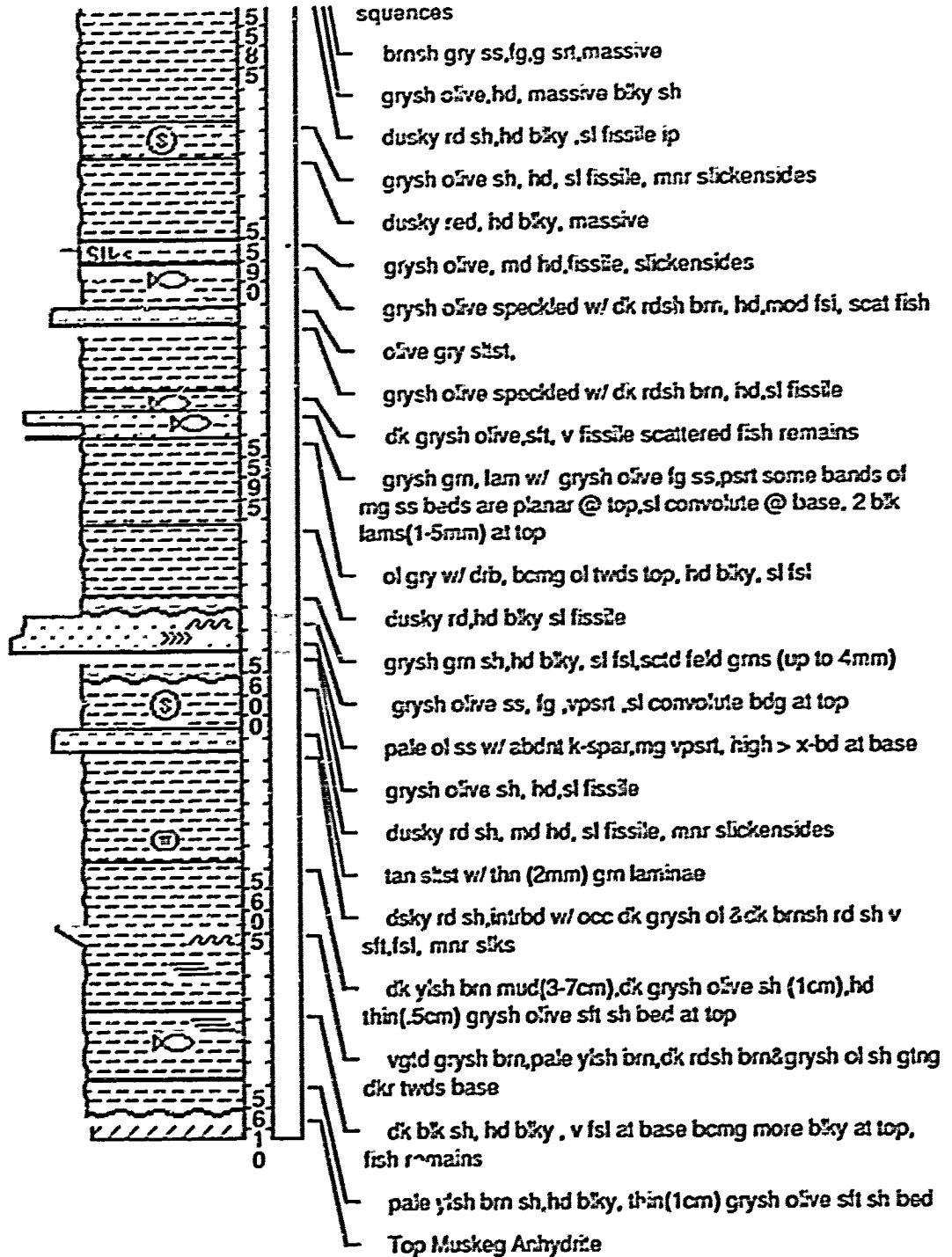




# Uno-Tex SOBC Nipisi

12-6-80-7w5



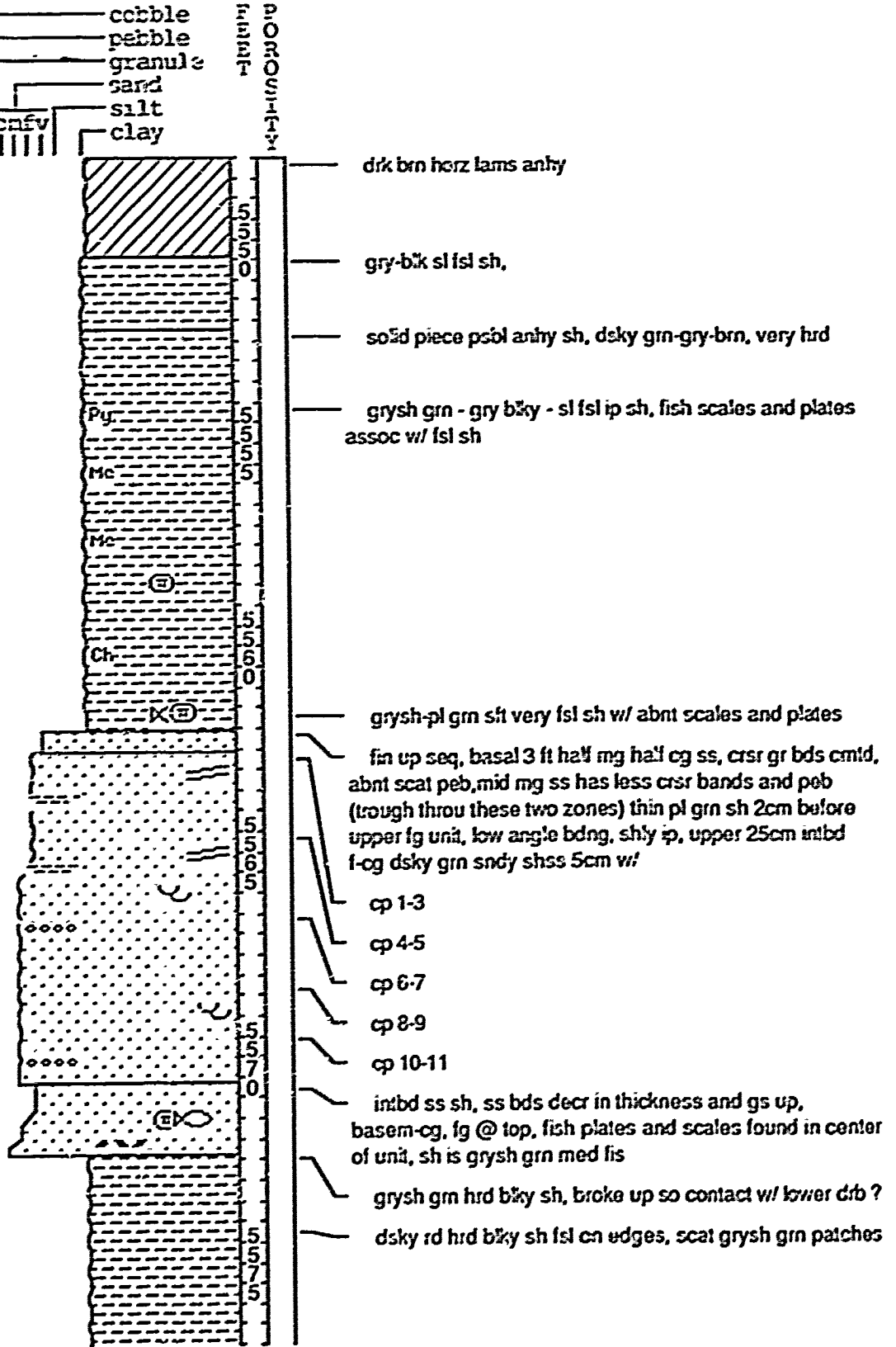
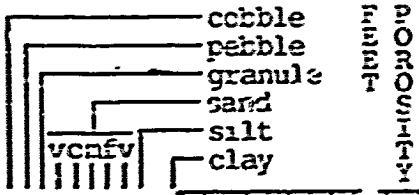


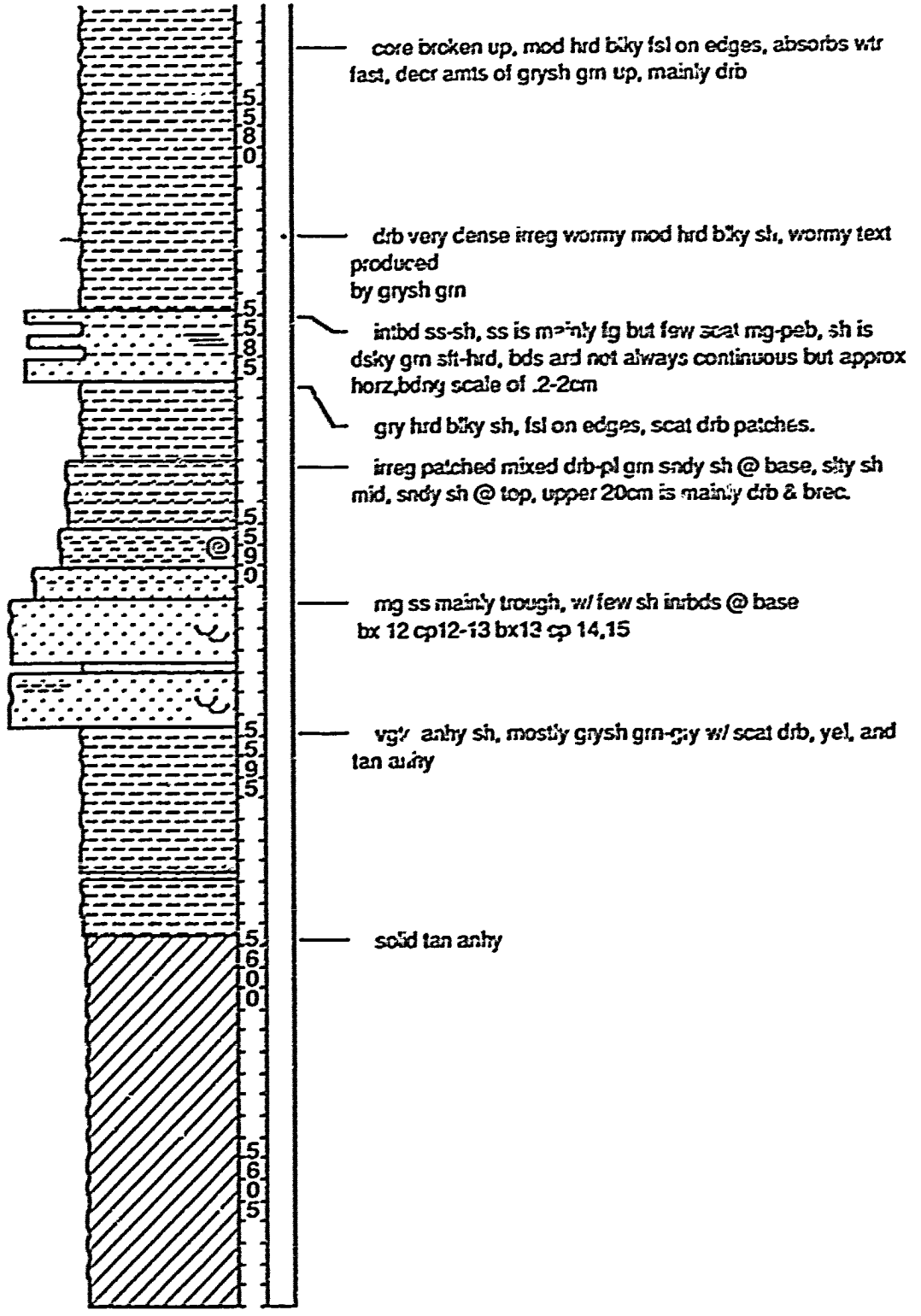


# Uno-tex Nipisi

12-18-80-7w5

**GRAIN SIZE**

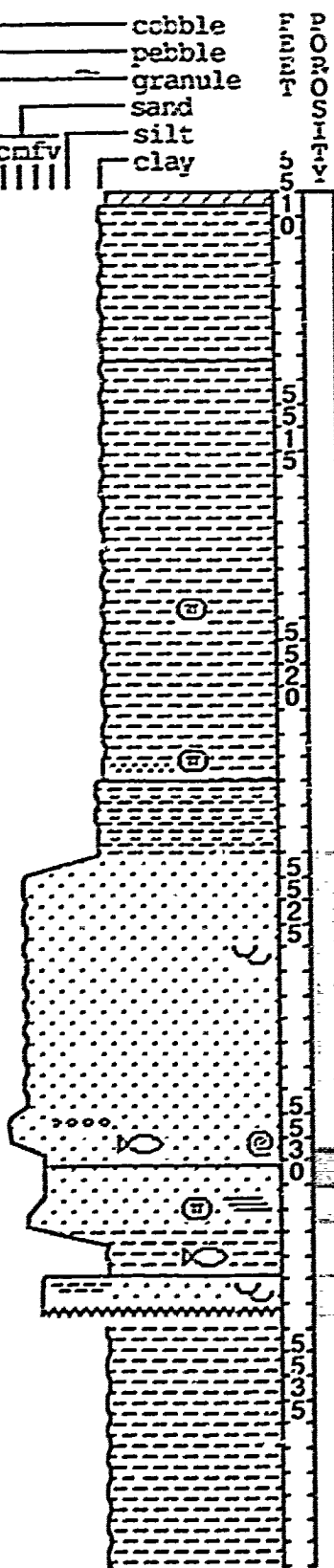
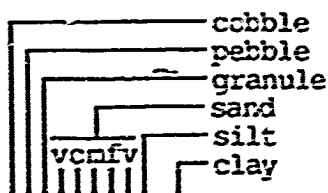




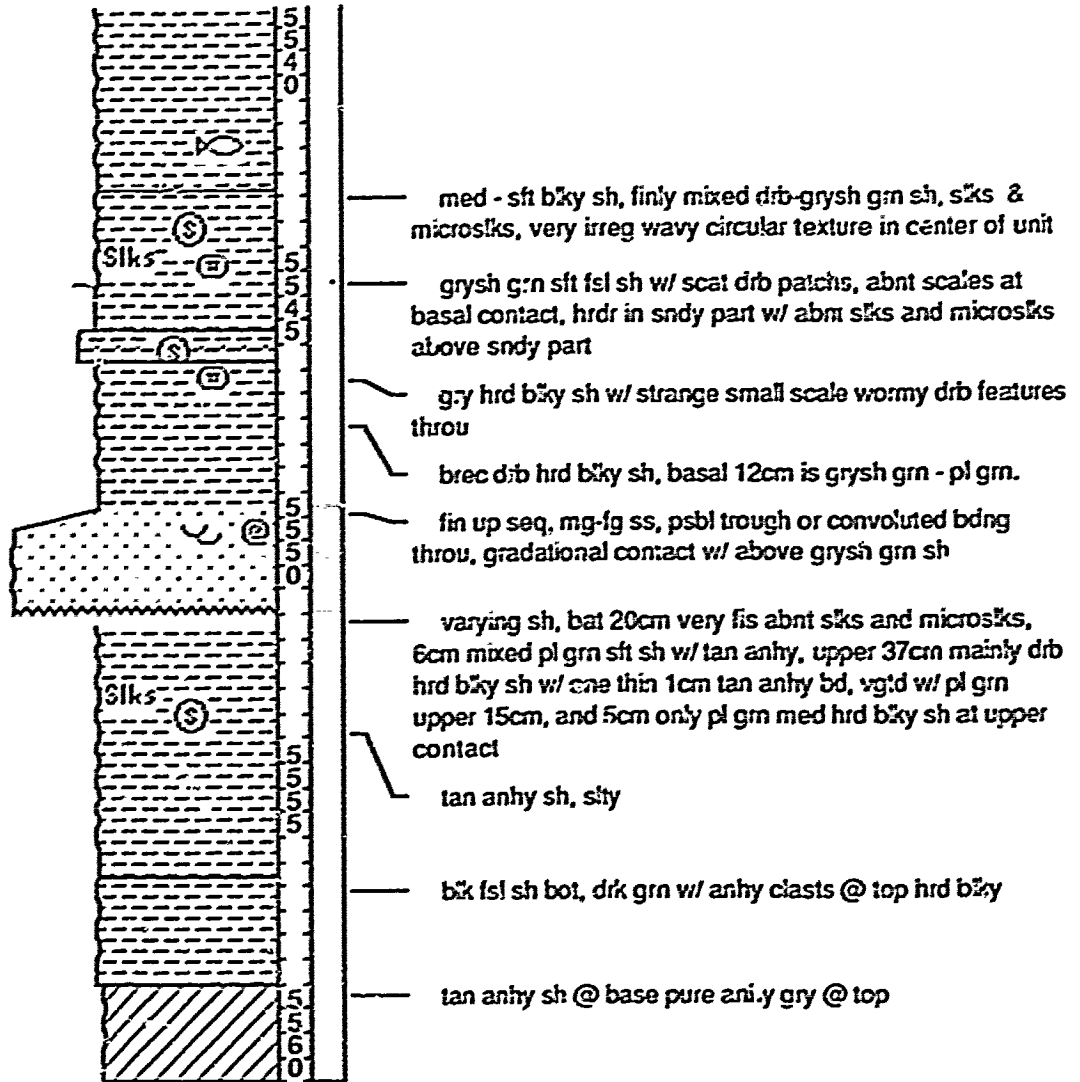
# HBBA Nipisi

## 10-19-80-7w5

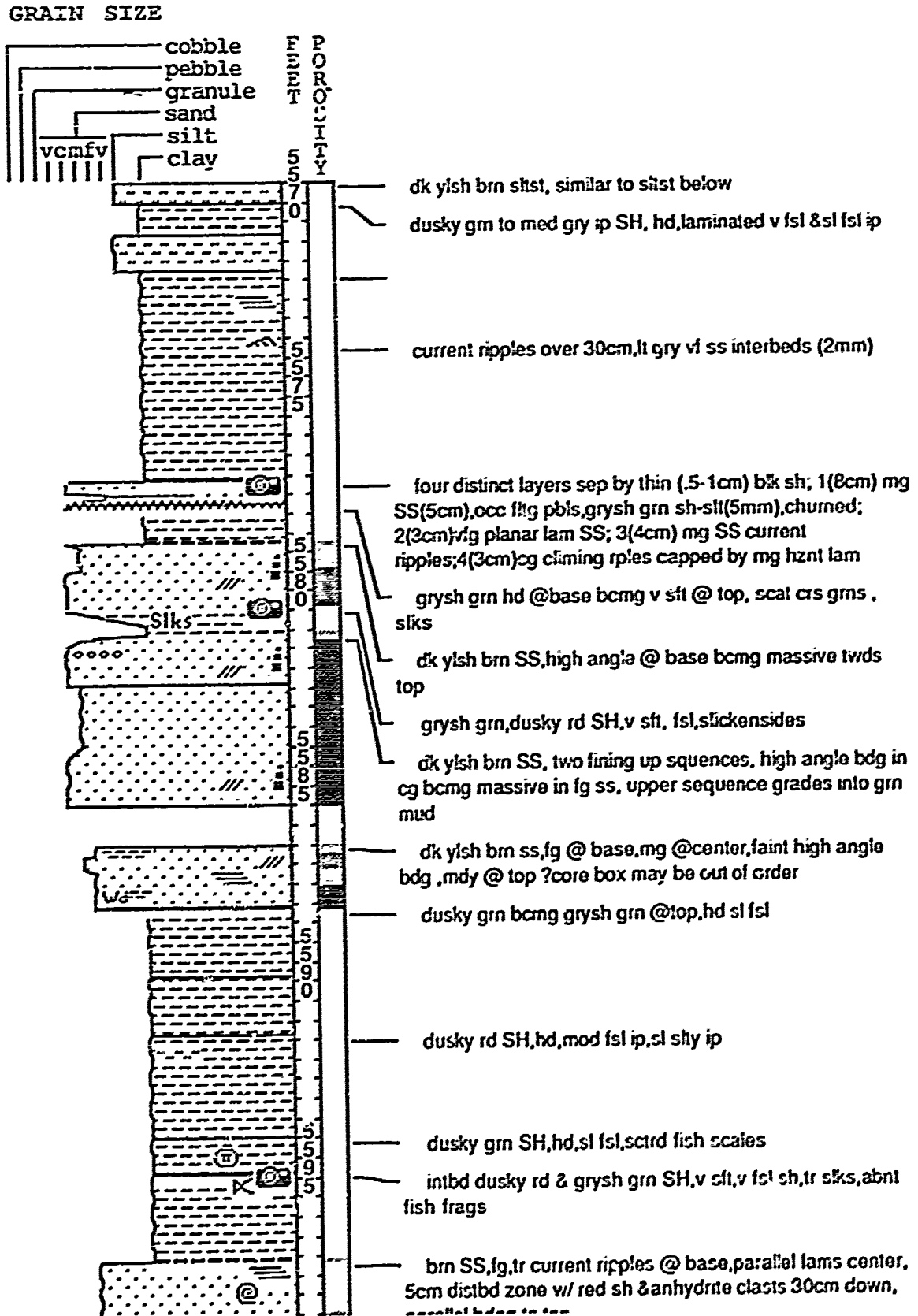
**GRAIN SIZE**

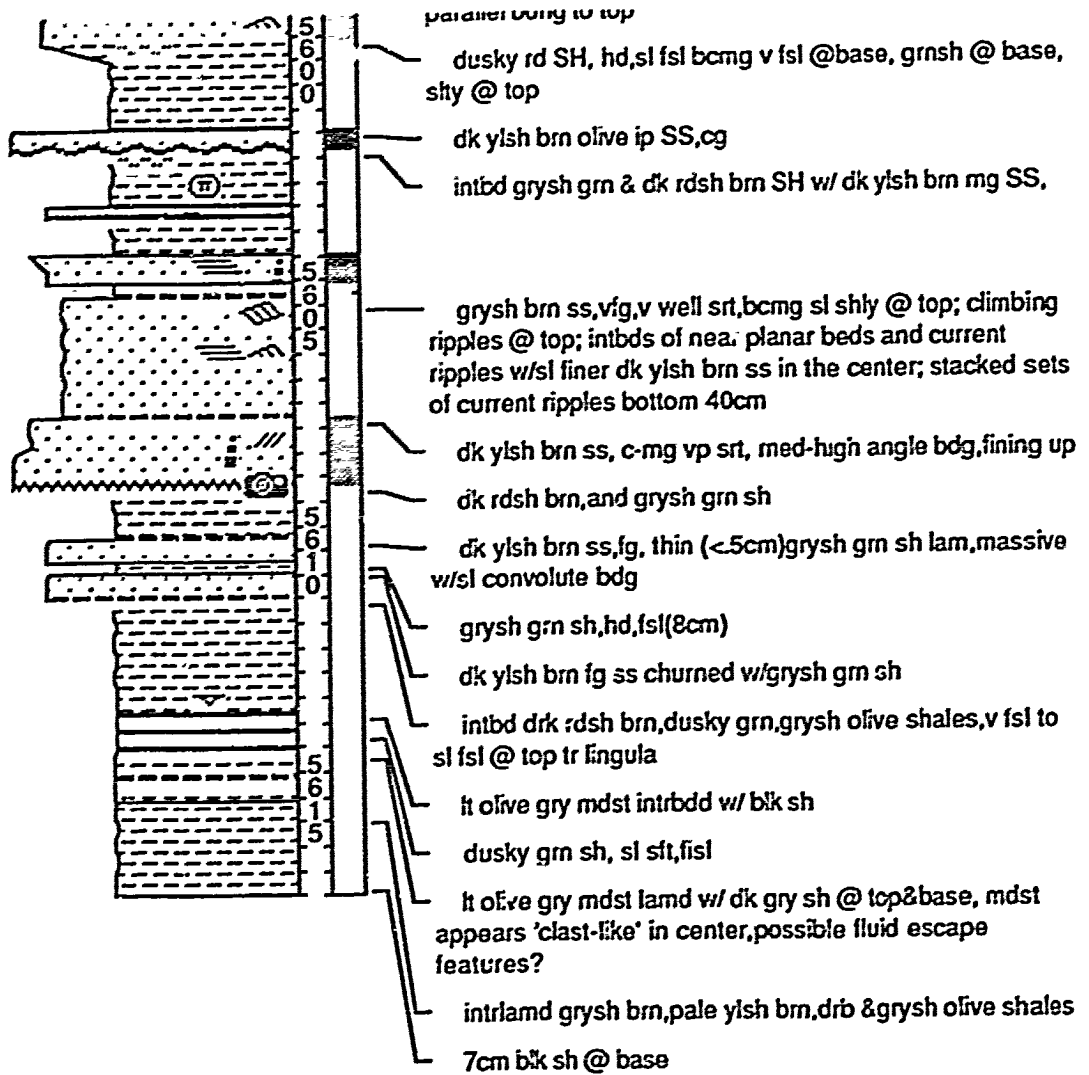


- drk brn horz lamd anh sh, calc
- drk grn brn gry, hrd bkly sh w/ scat small cm anh zones.
- dsky grn mod bkly sh, always md fis - soft around scale areas
- pl-slightly grysh grn massive slty sh-ststone
- difficult to make out bding, pos trough, definite fin up or dec in amt of pb's up, cm'd crsr bnds throu
- extrem var in gs, psbl trough bding but more likely convoluted, scat pb's throu, abnt plates @ base of cg ss
- int'bd ss w/ sndy sh @ base and ss w/ sft fsl sh @ top, grad contact from below, lower ss bds are mg poor sorted up to 6cm thick, upper ss is fg well sorted up to 7cm thick, abnt fish plates w/in lower mg ss. bding is horz-wavy through, (12cm base of ss above is same as this upper fg ss and contains sm .5cm mud clasts, is low angle bdd)
- grysh gm med-hrd bkly sh fsl on edges, abnt plates @ base,
- mg ss trough throu w/ abnt sh lams & bds, cm'd throu
- mainly med -sft bkly sh fsl ip, scat grn worm patches decr up, upper 15cm is pl grn hrd bkly

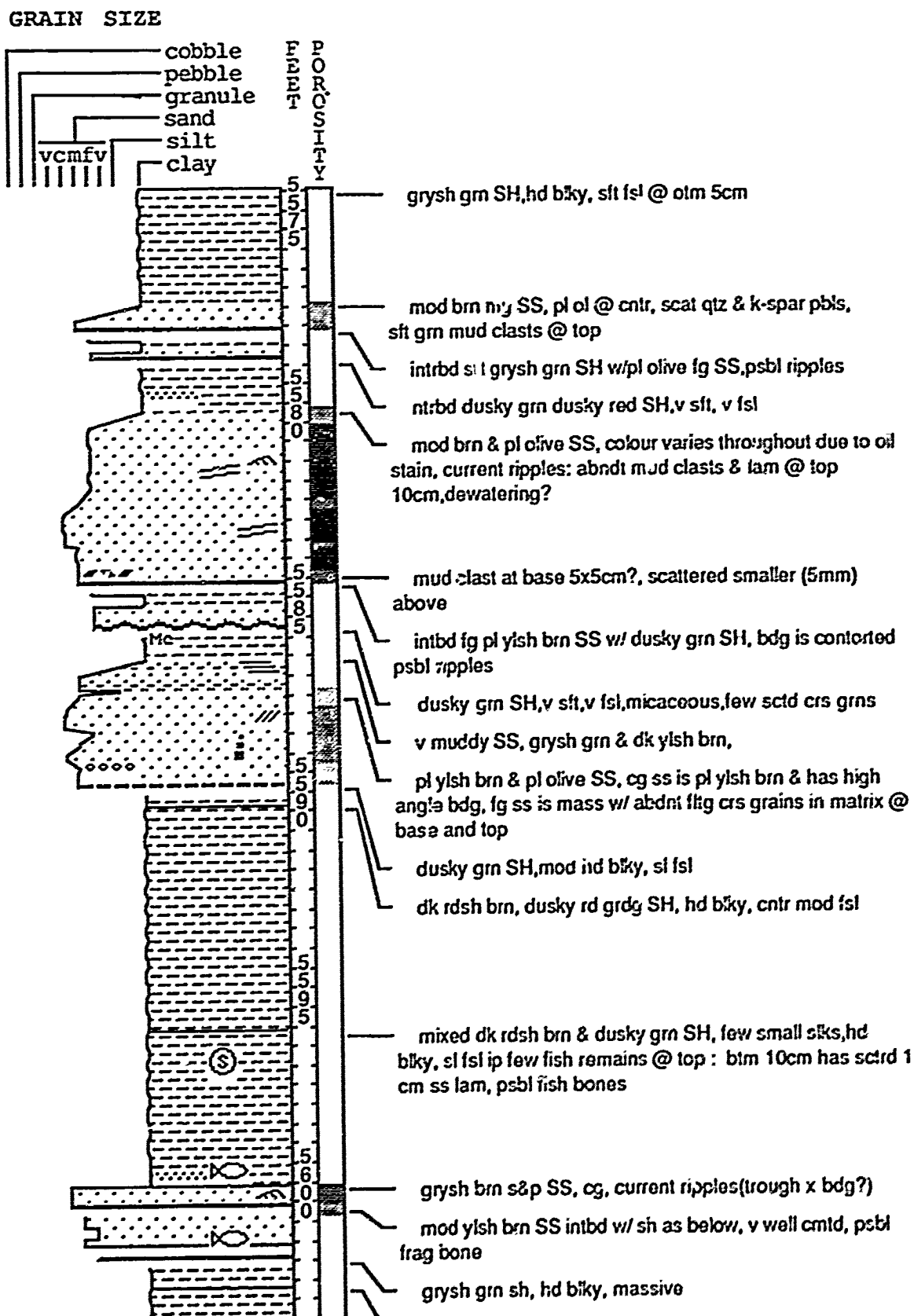


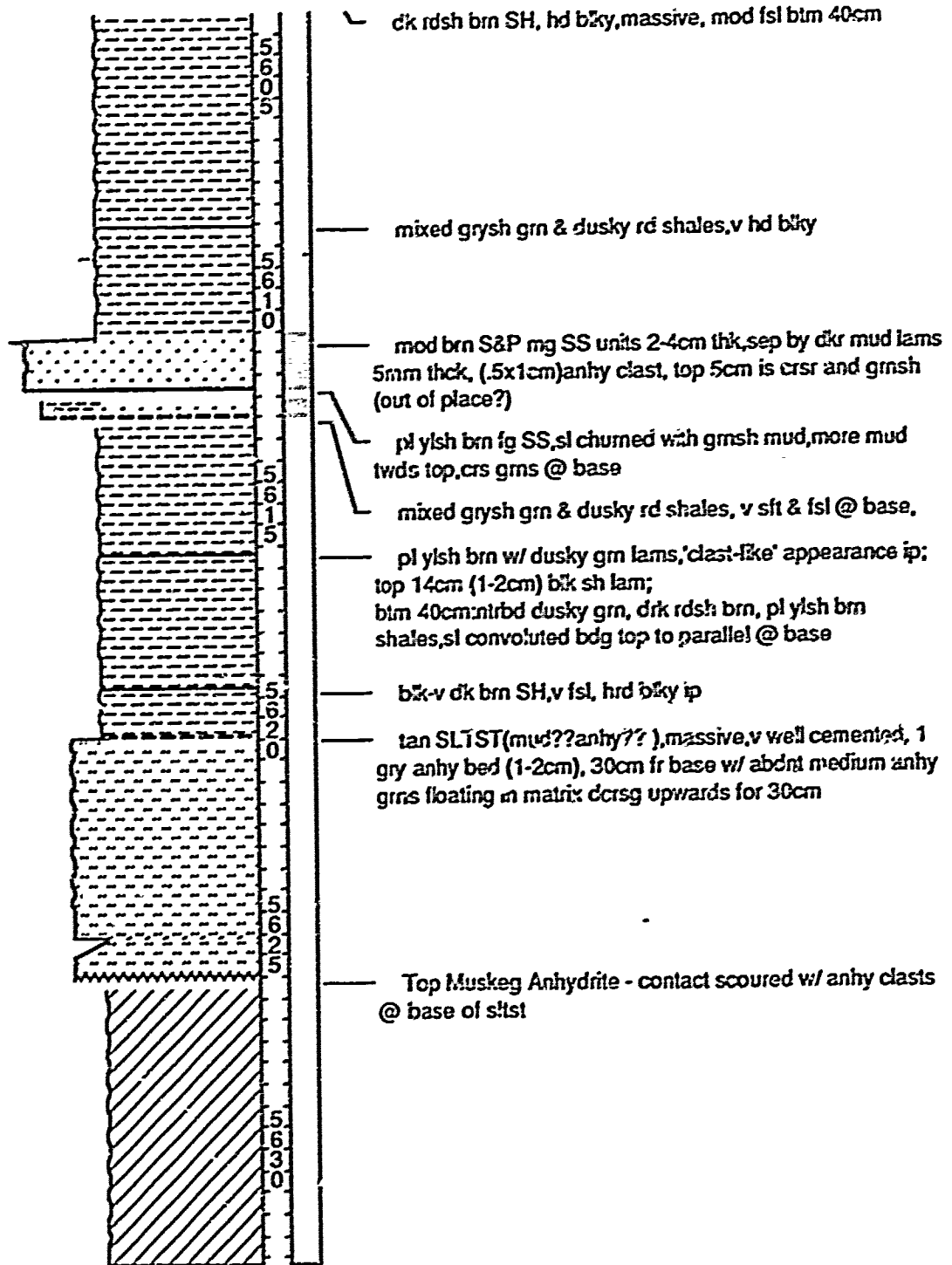
## Hamilton Uno-Tex E Utik 10-1-80-8w5





## Amoco Unit 320 WIW Nipisi 12-1-80-8w5

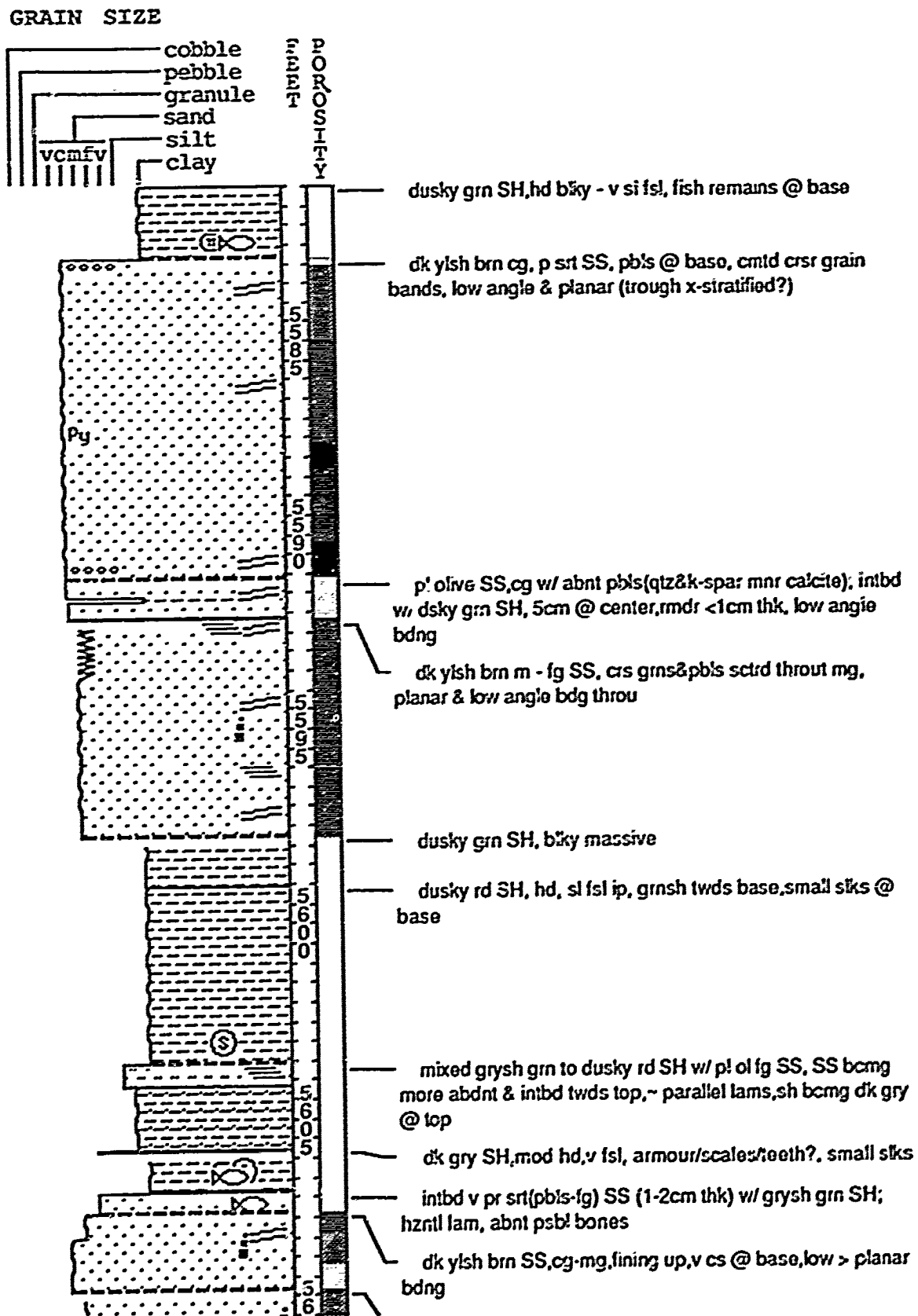


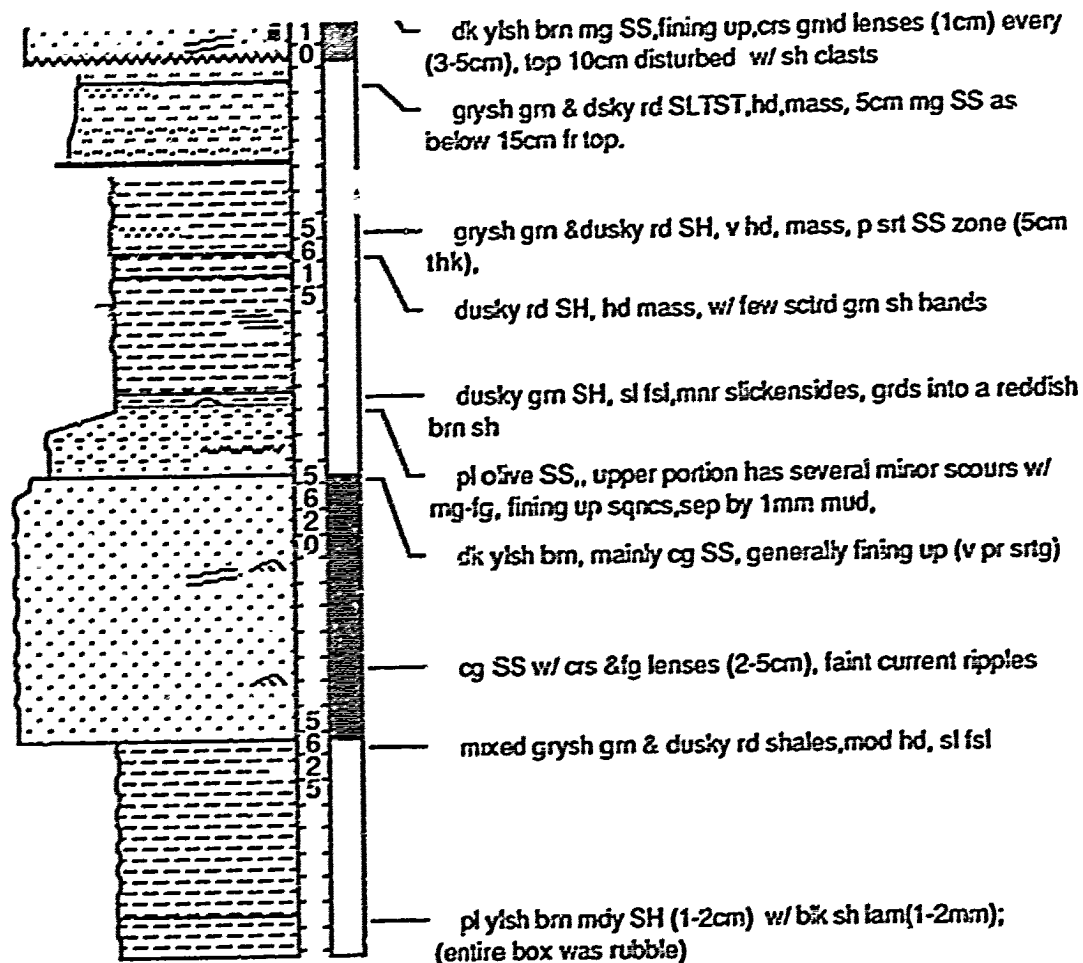




# Amoco NGU Unit 293 Nipisi

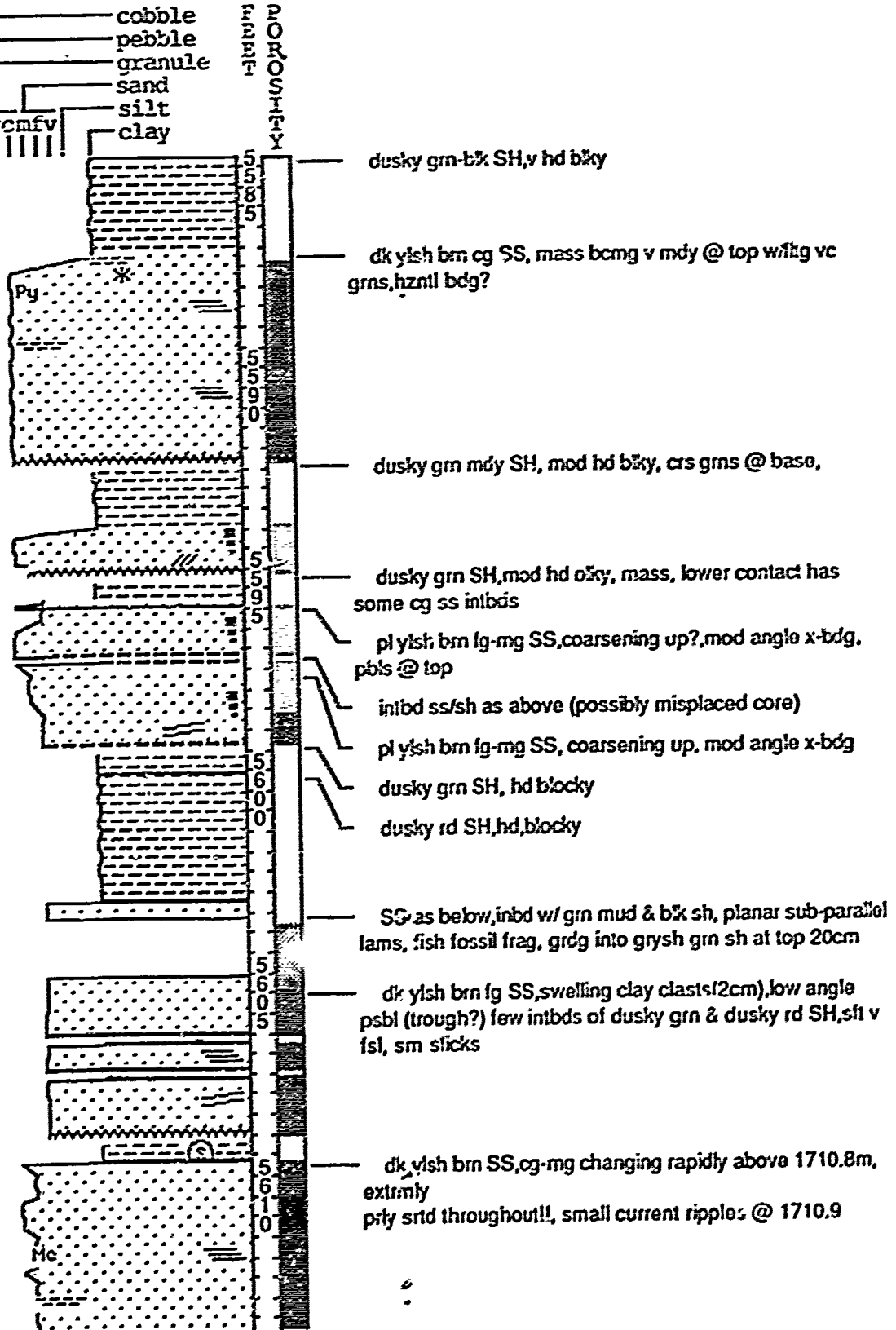
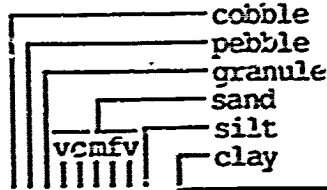
## 10-2-80-8w5

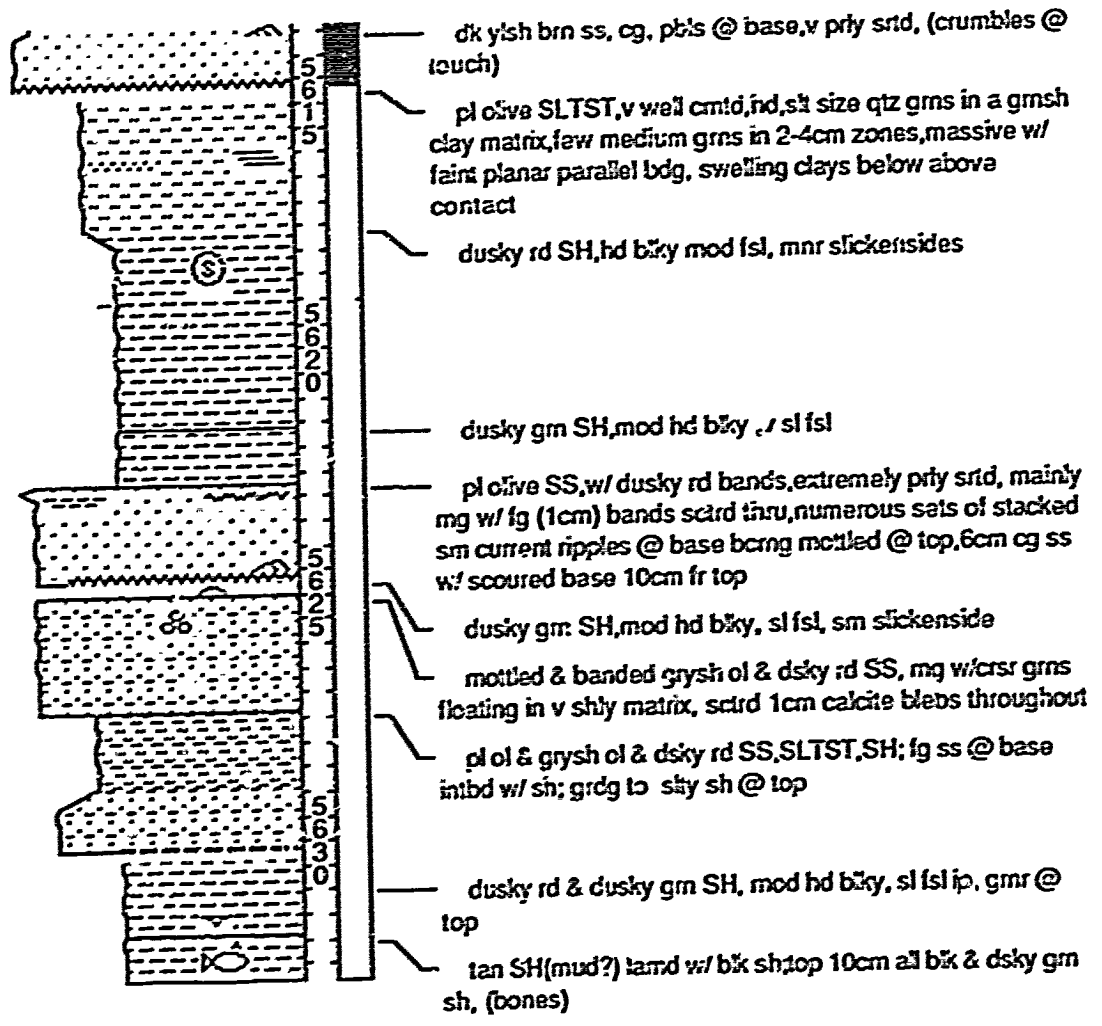




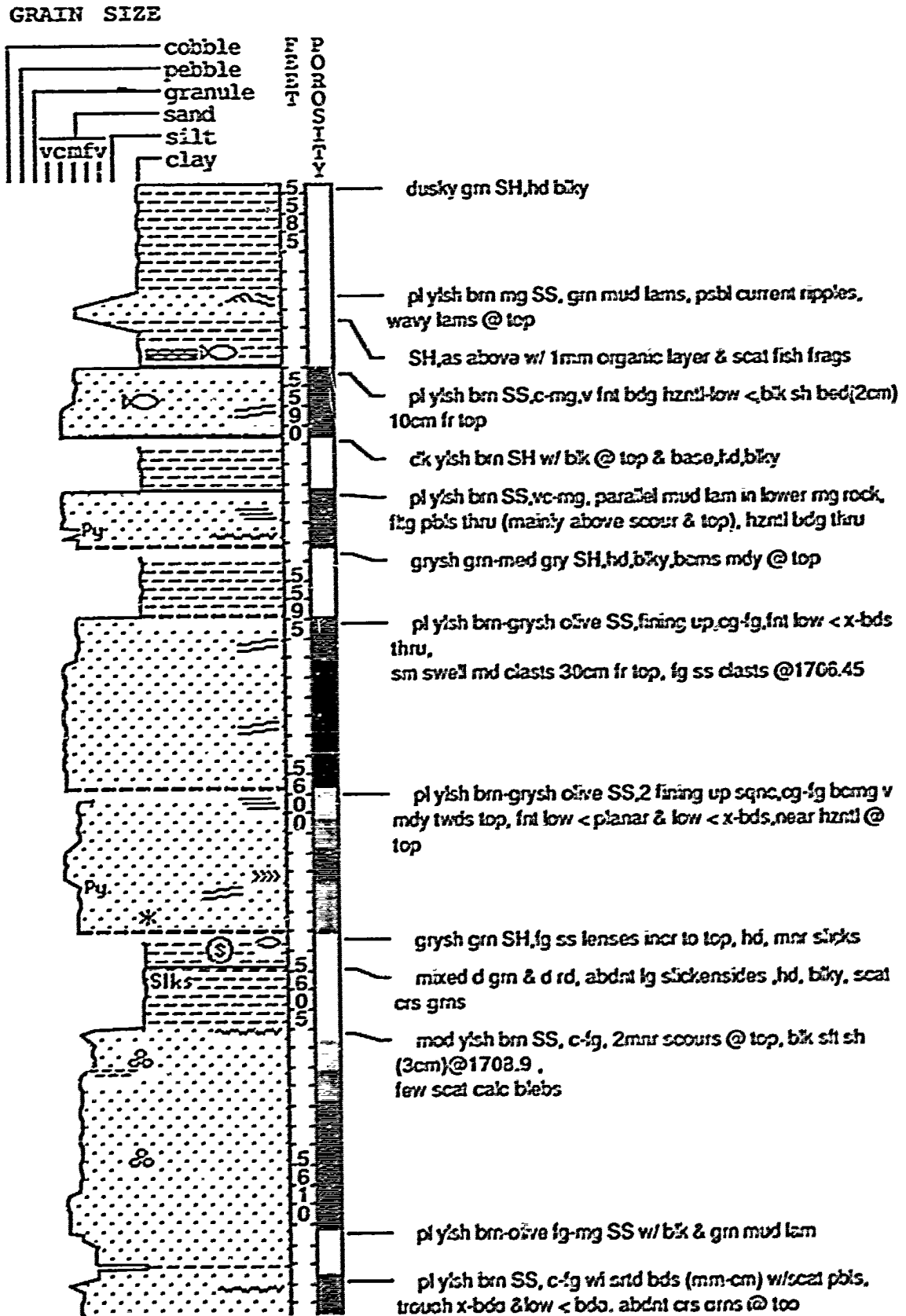
# Amoco Unit 264 Nipisi 12-2-80-8w5

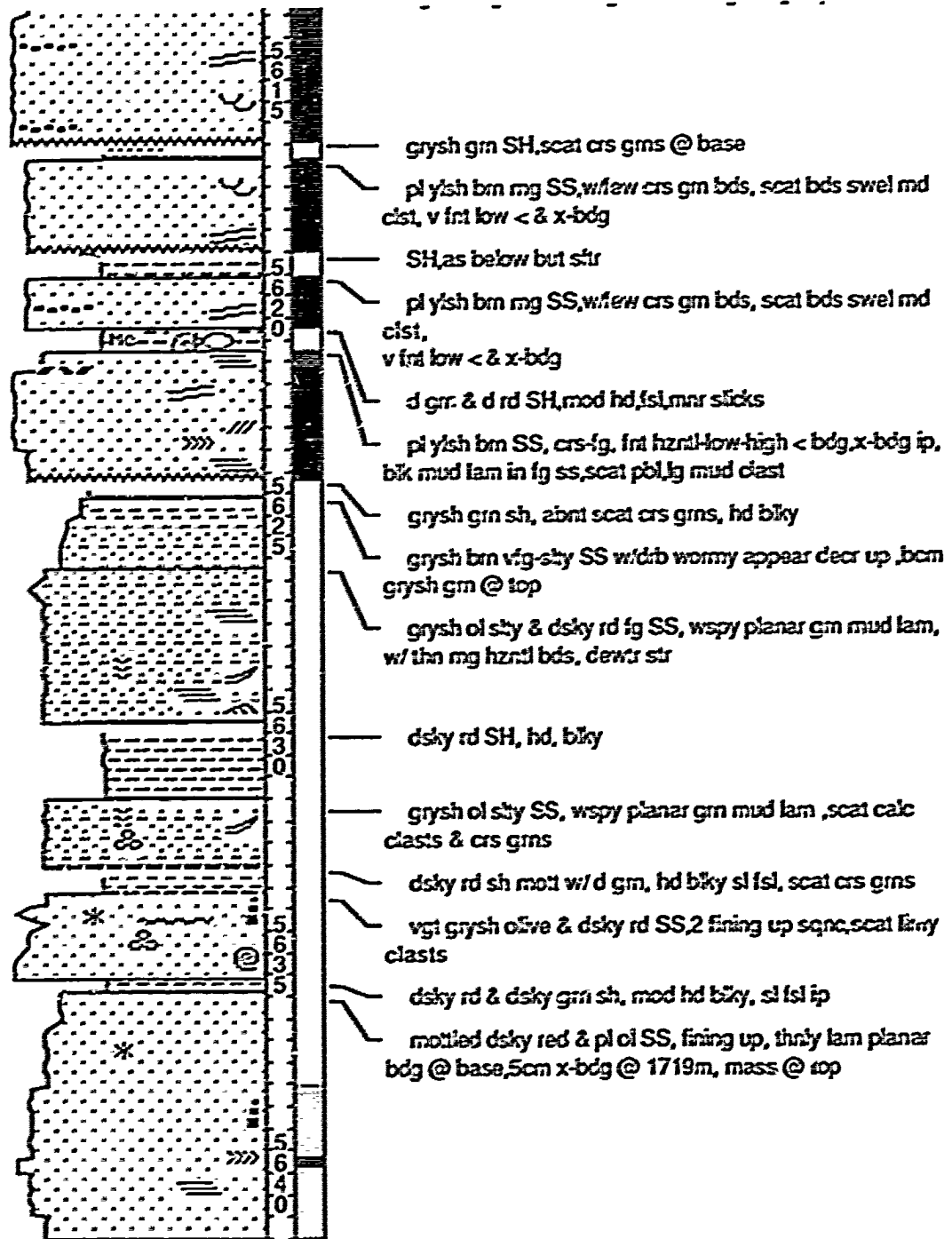
## GRAIN SIZE





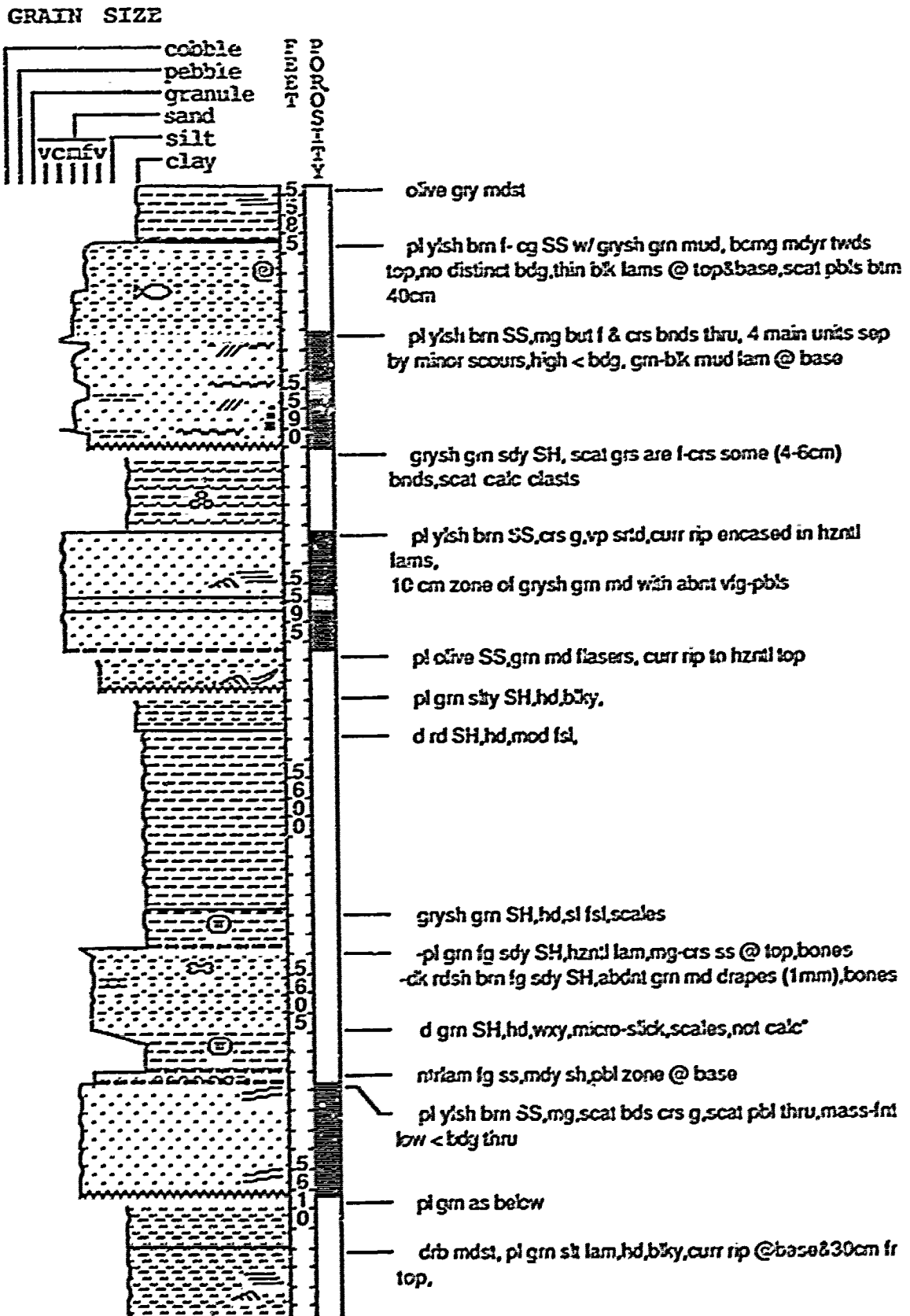
## Amoco Unit No. 193 12-3-80-8w5

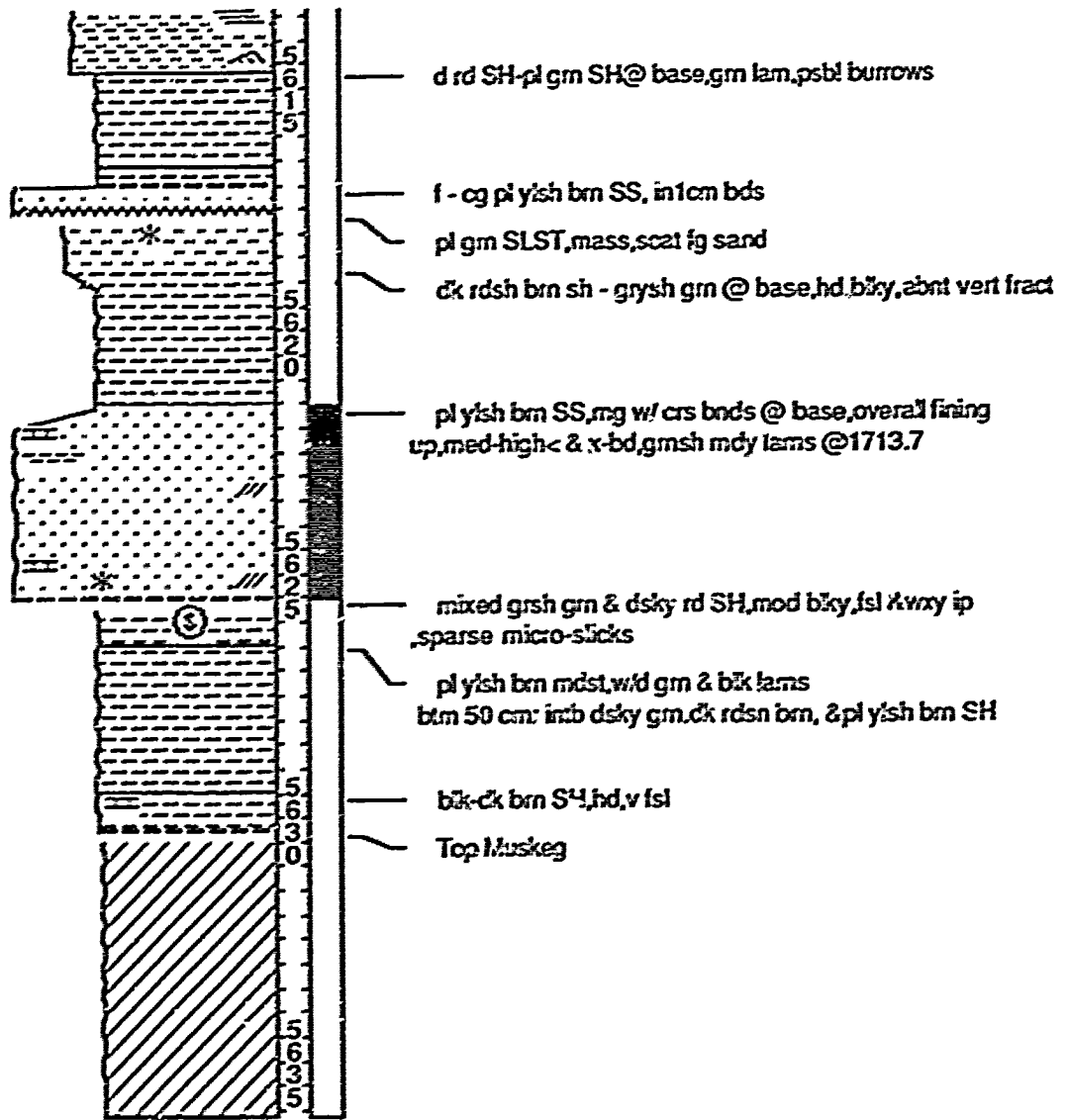




# Amoco NGU Unit 294

## 2-11-80 -8w5

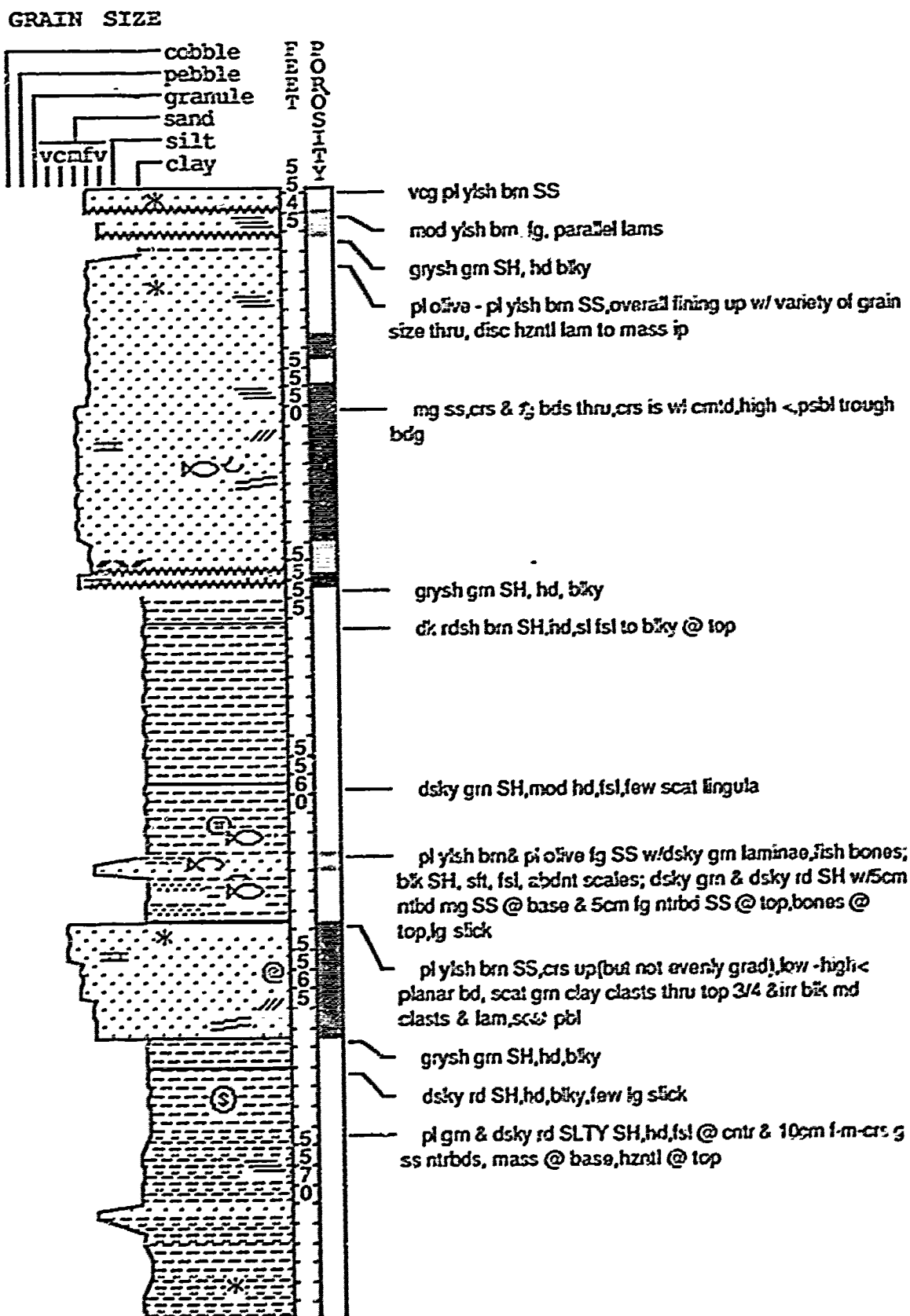


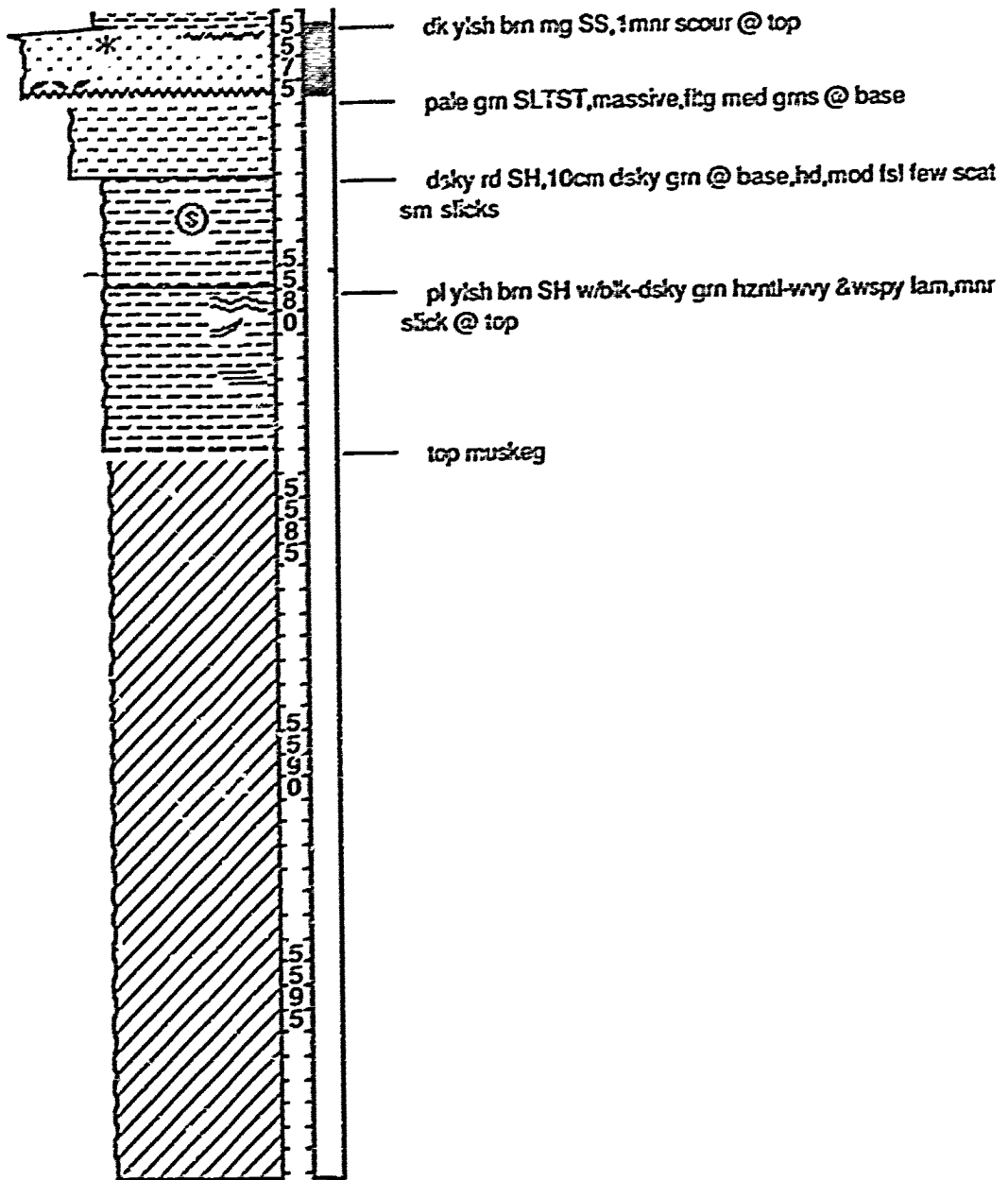




# Amoco Unit 296 Nipisi

2-14-80-8w5 note: 1.5m lost core??

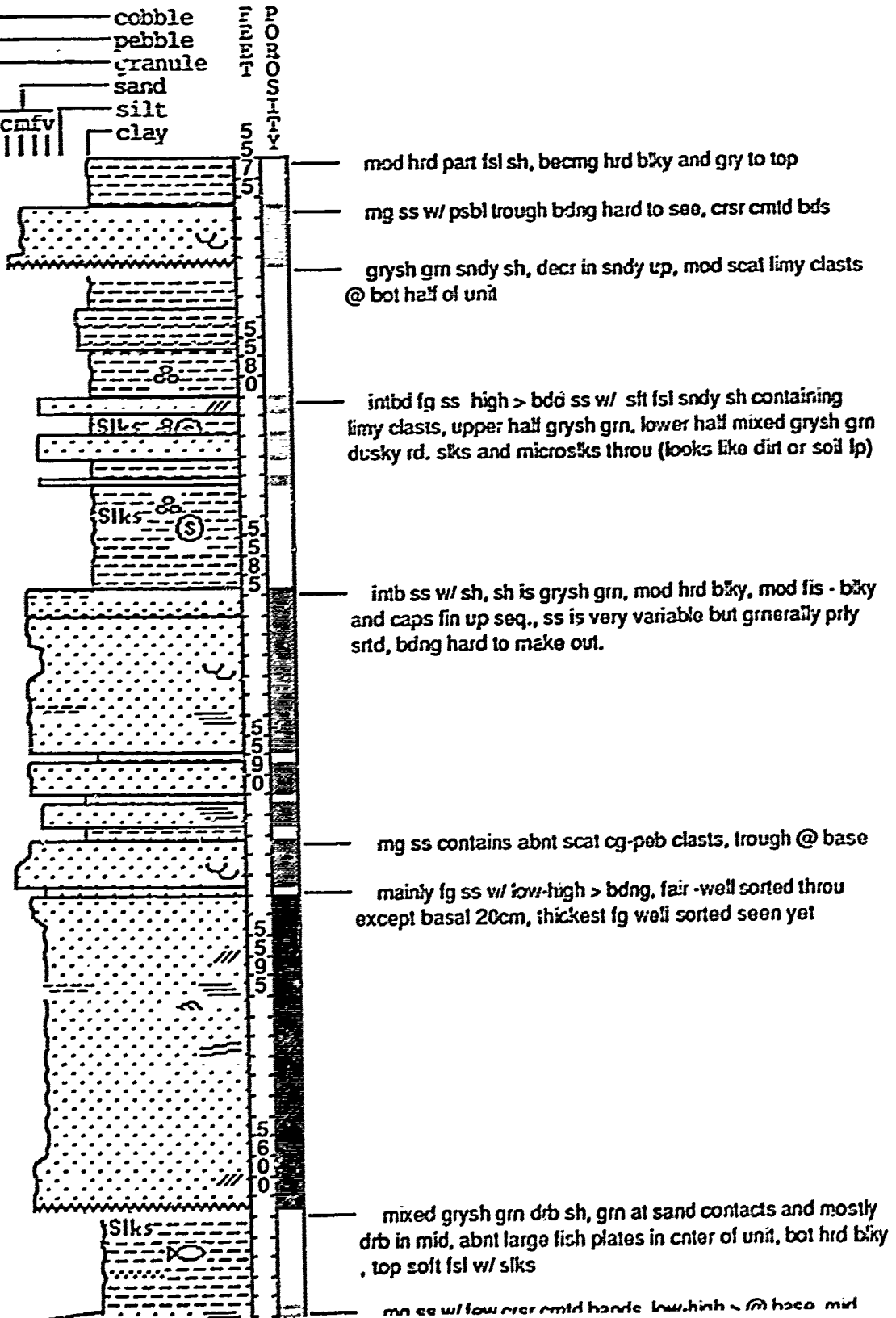
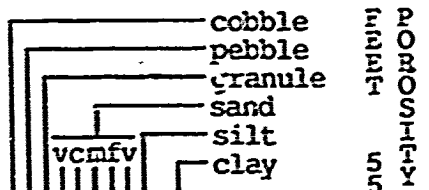


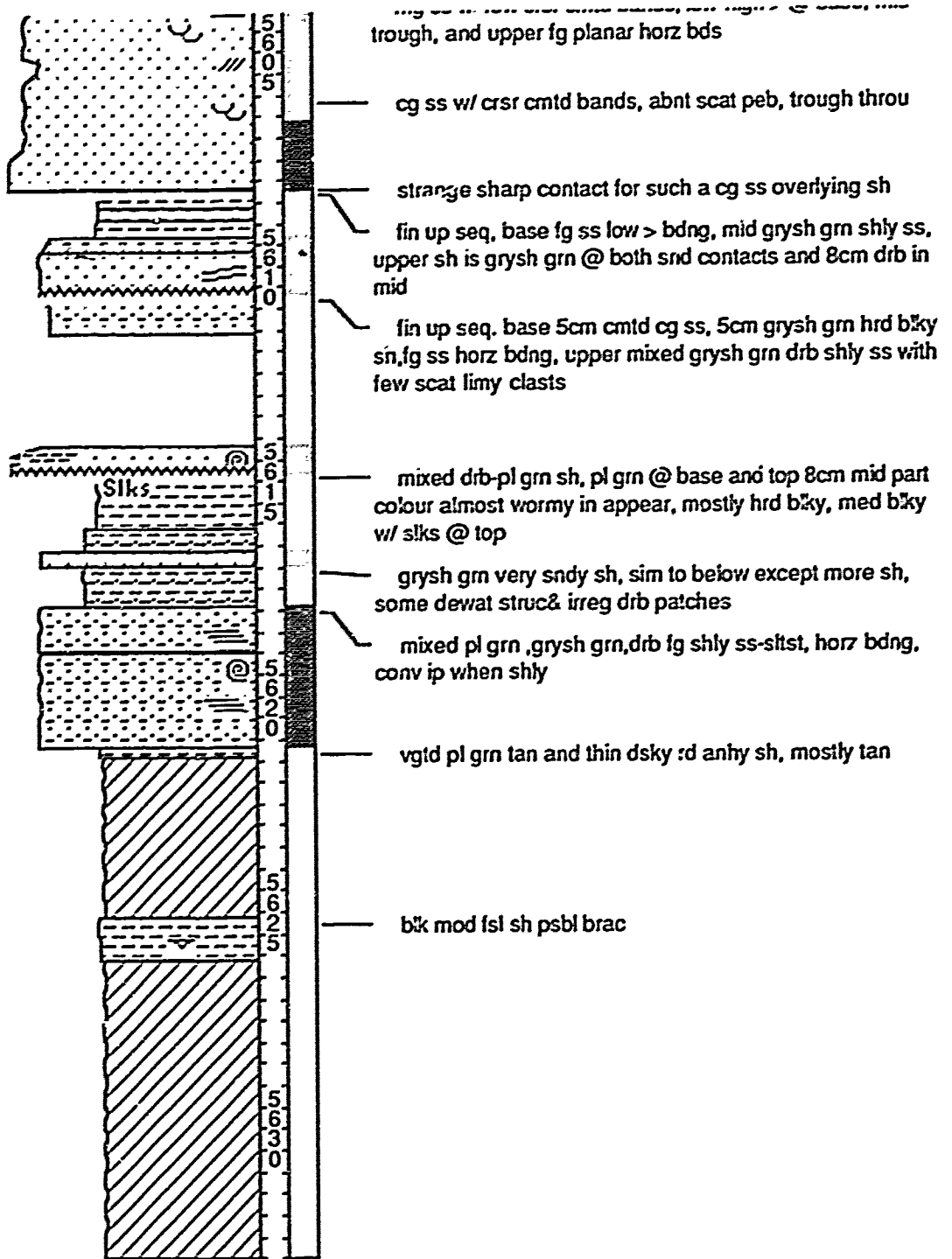


# Pacific Nipisi

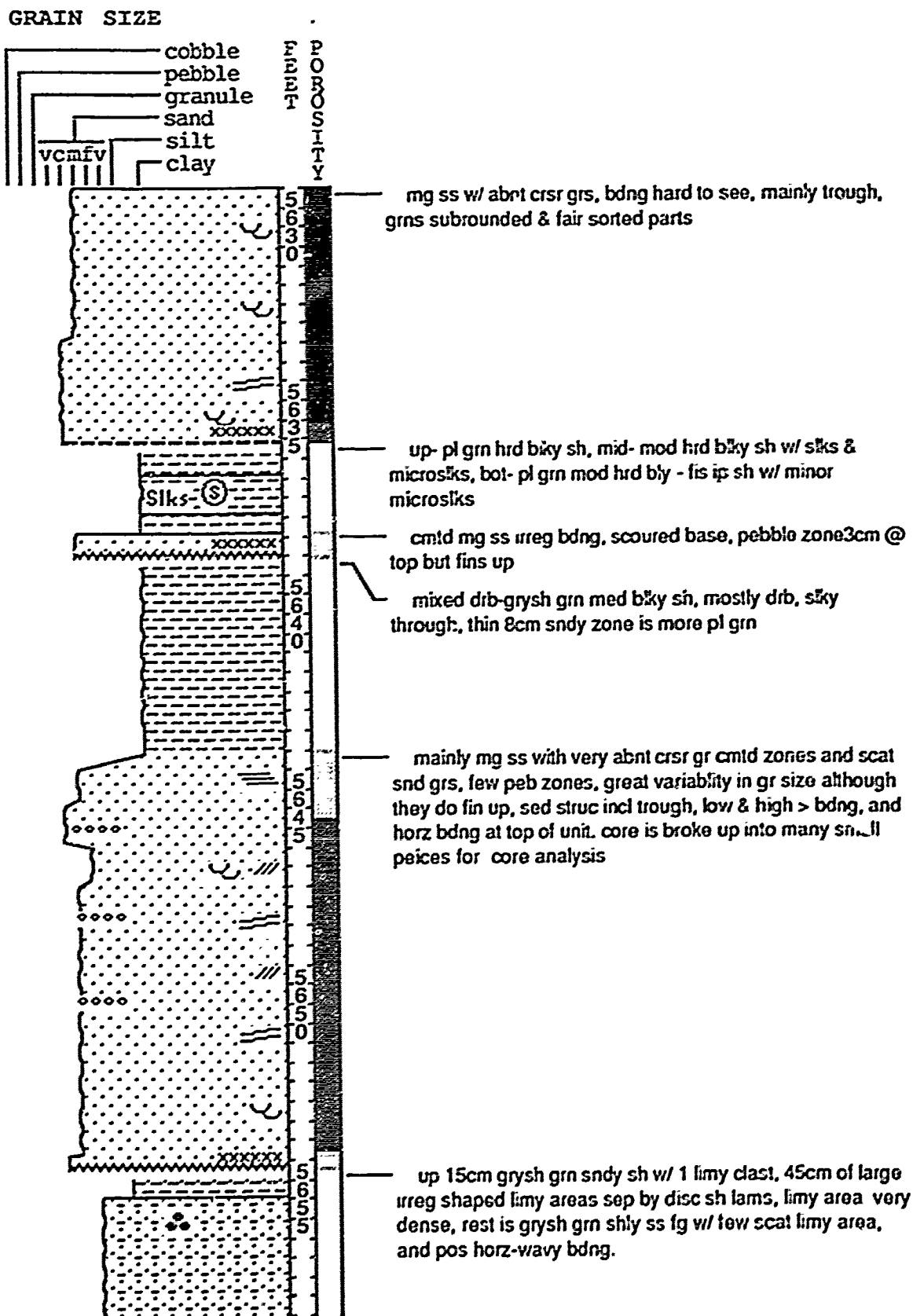
10-16-80-8w5

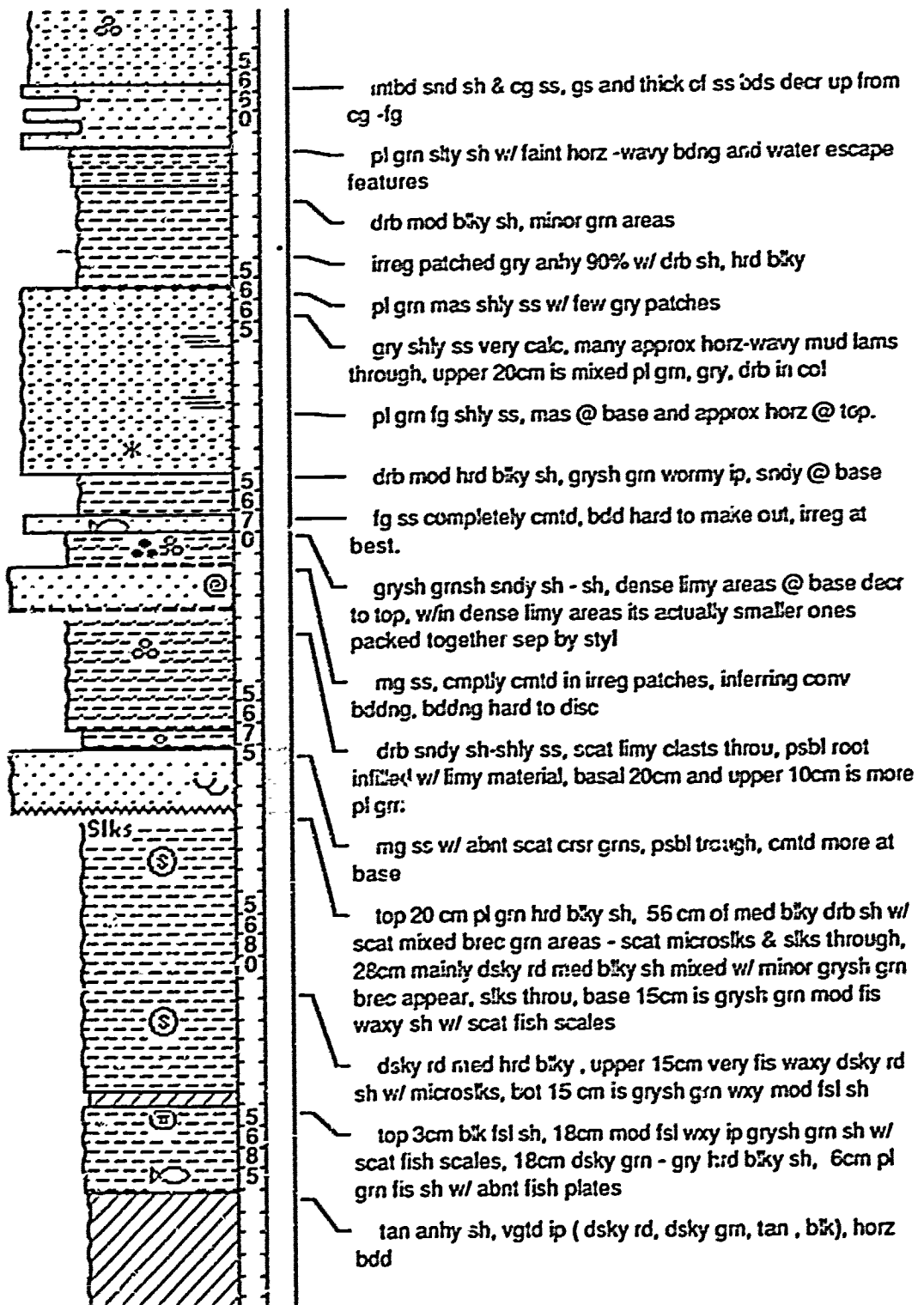
GRAIN SIZE





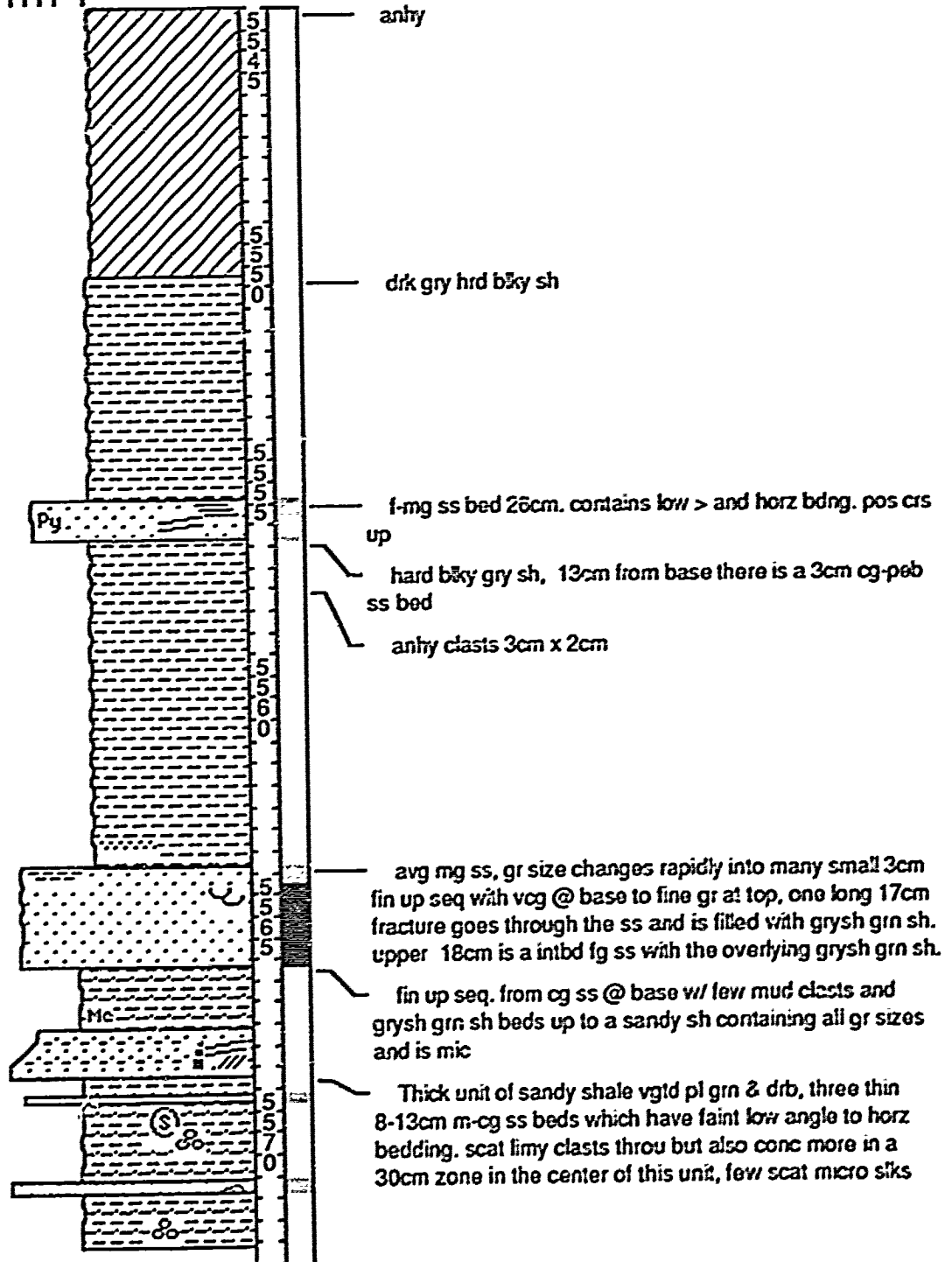
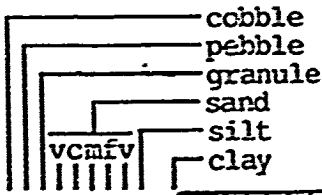
# Mobil NW Nipisi 12-18-80-8w5

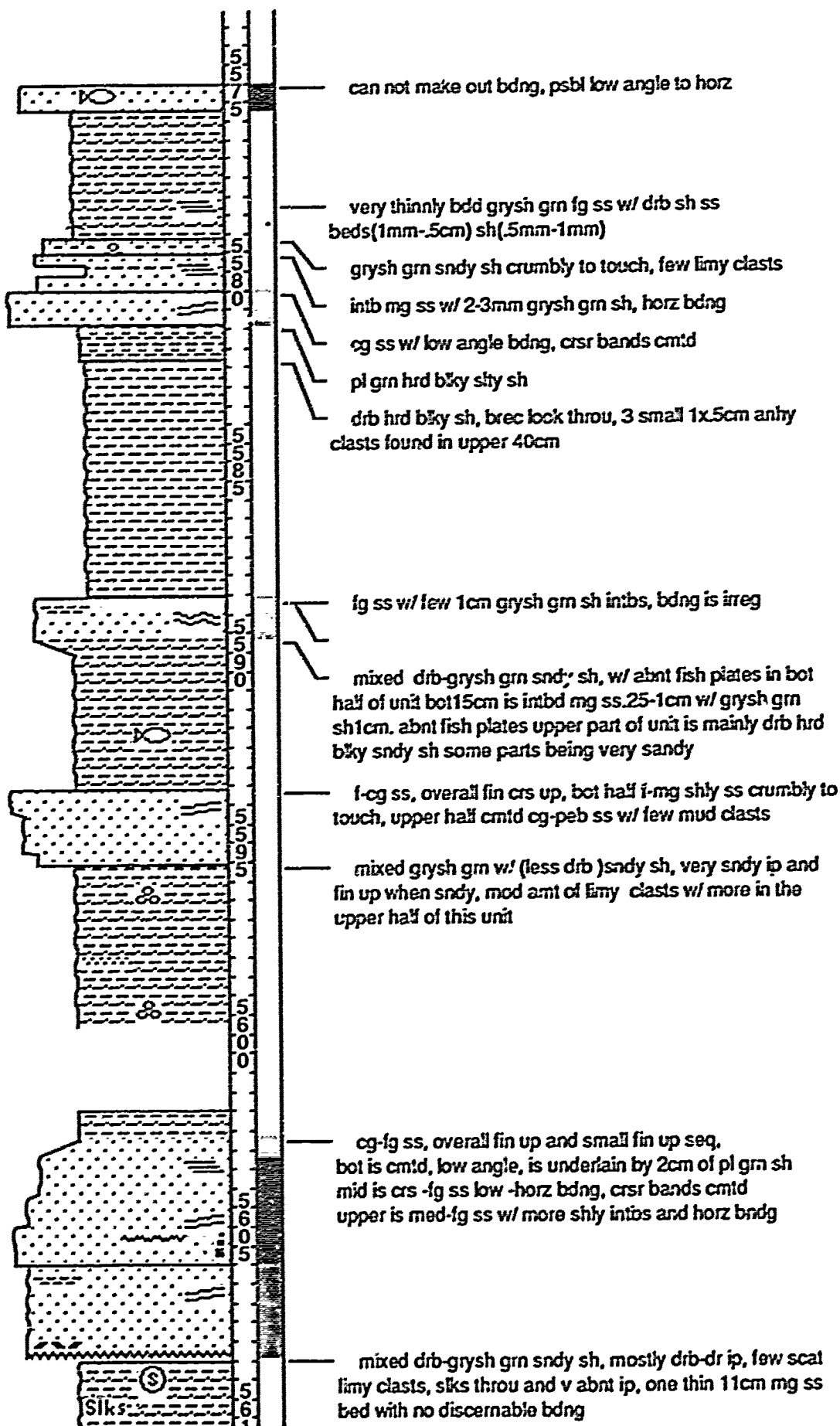




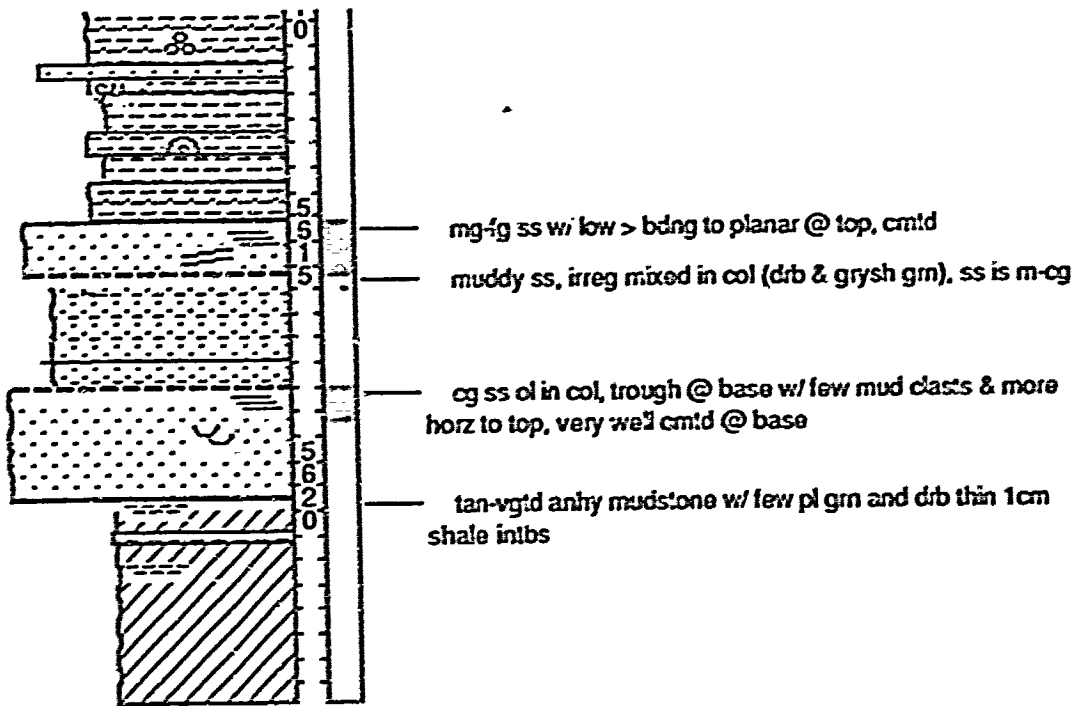
# Atlantic Muskwa 10-32-80-8w5

GRAIN SIZE



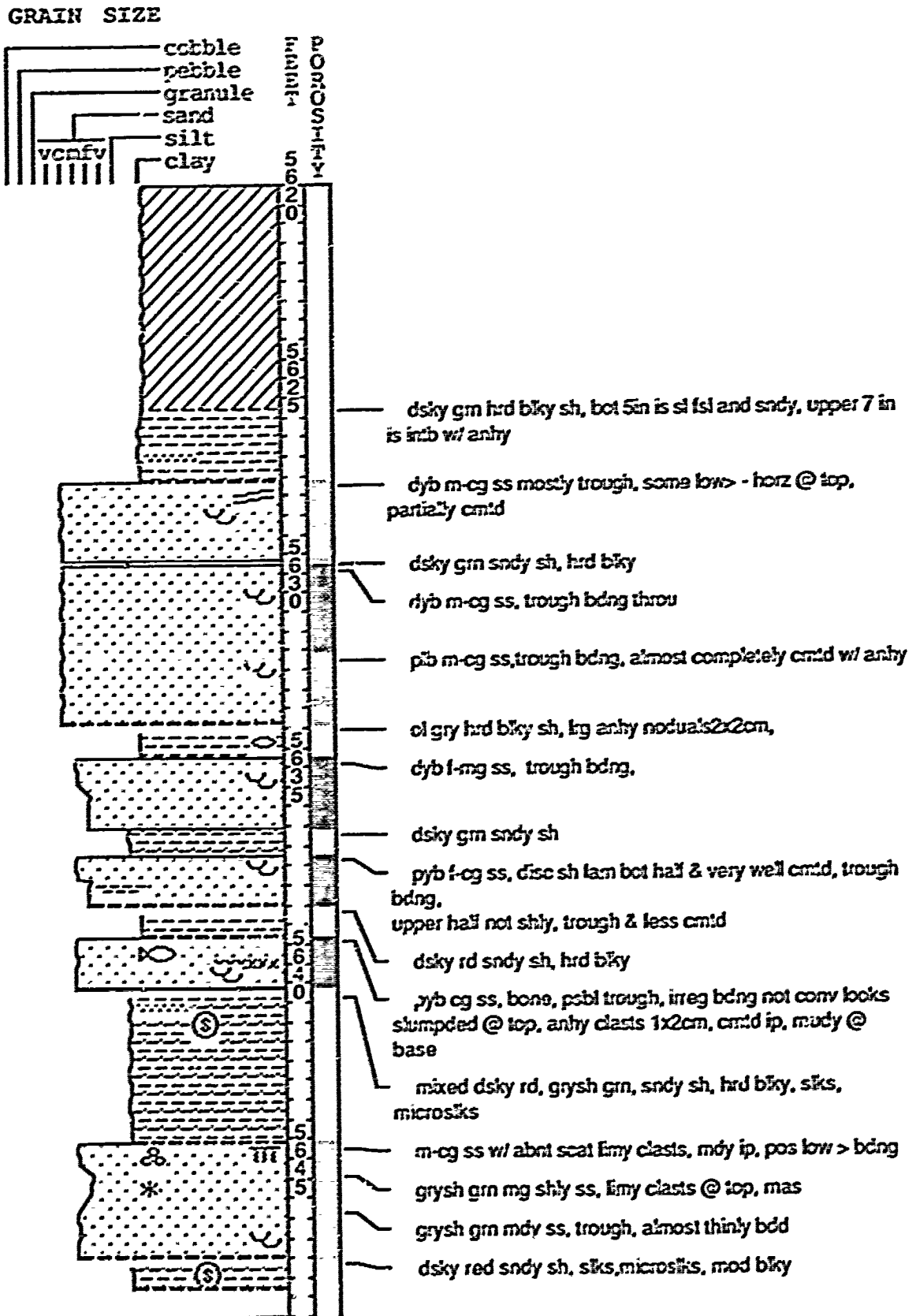


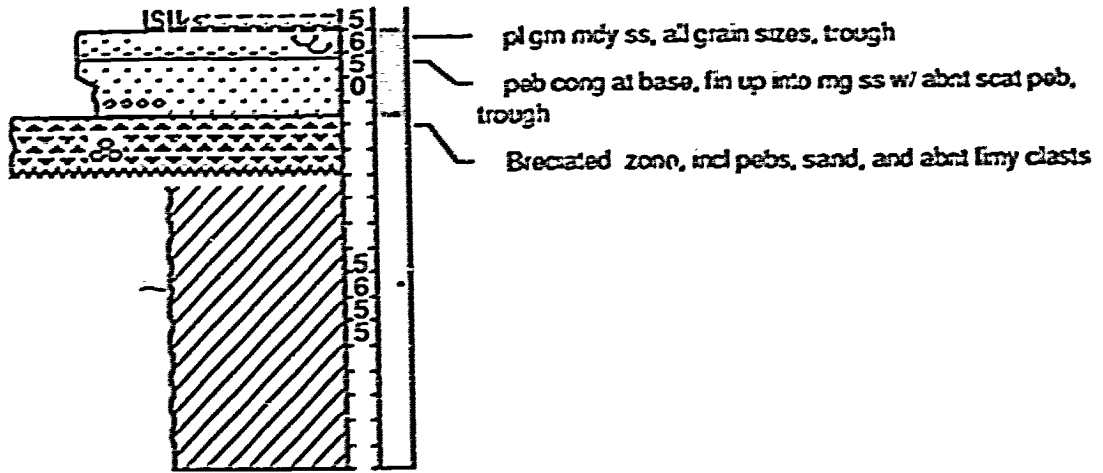




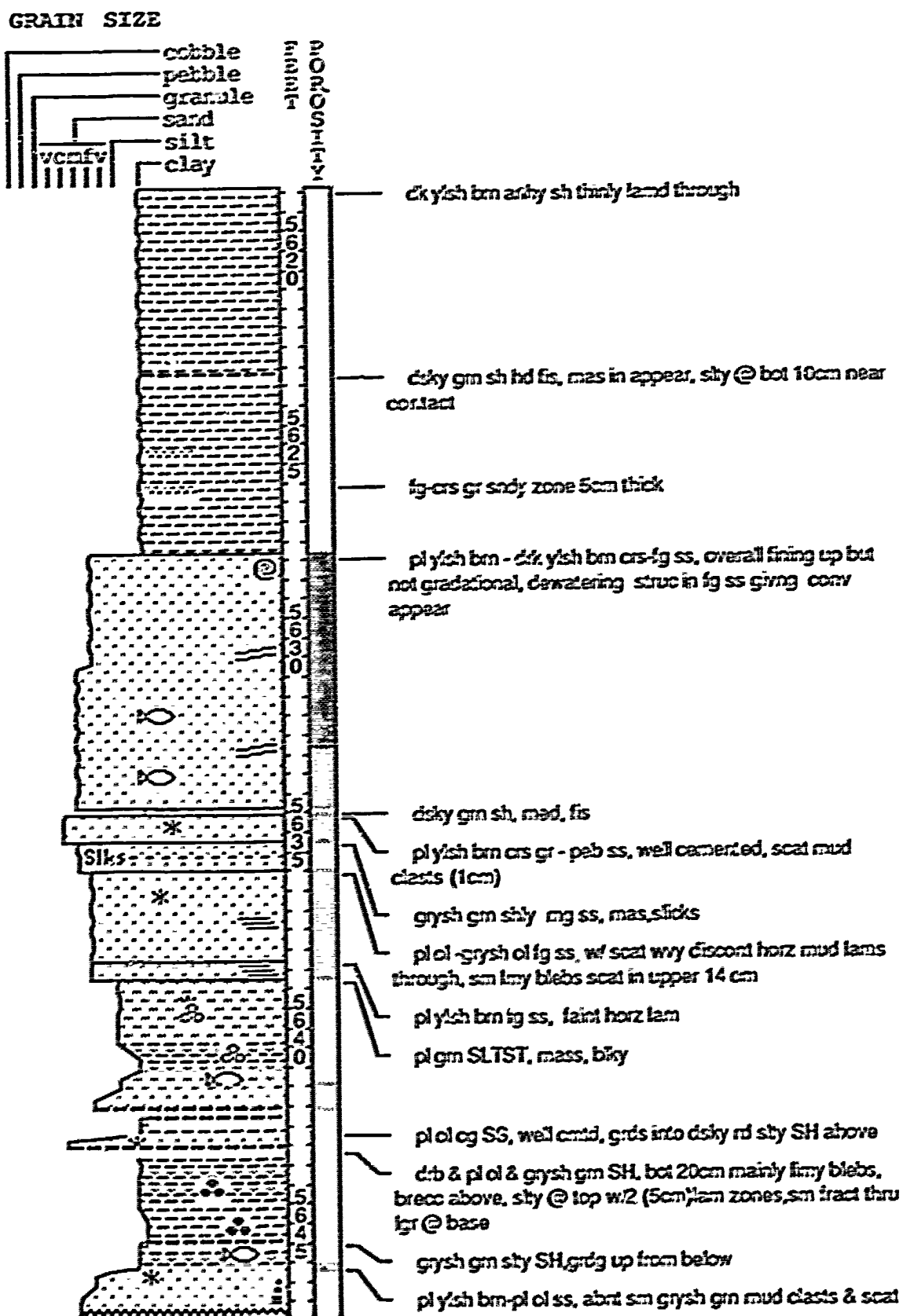
# Mobil Utik Nipisi

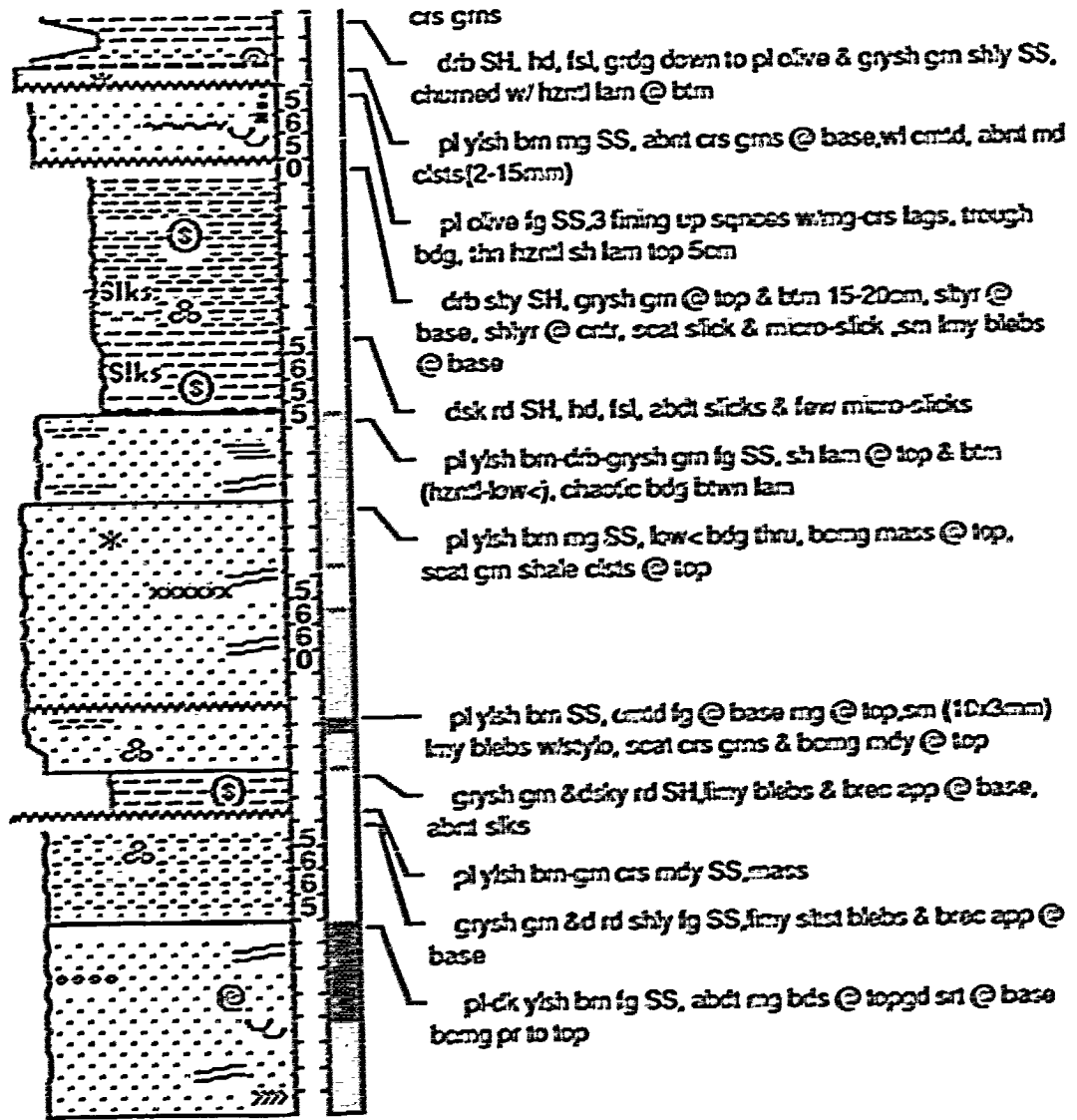
12-21-80-9w5 Depth's may be out





4-24-80-9w5

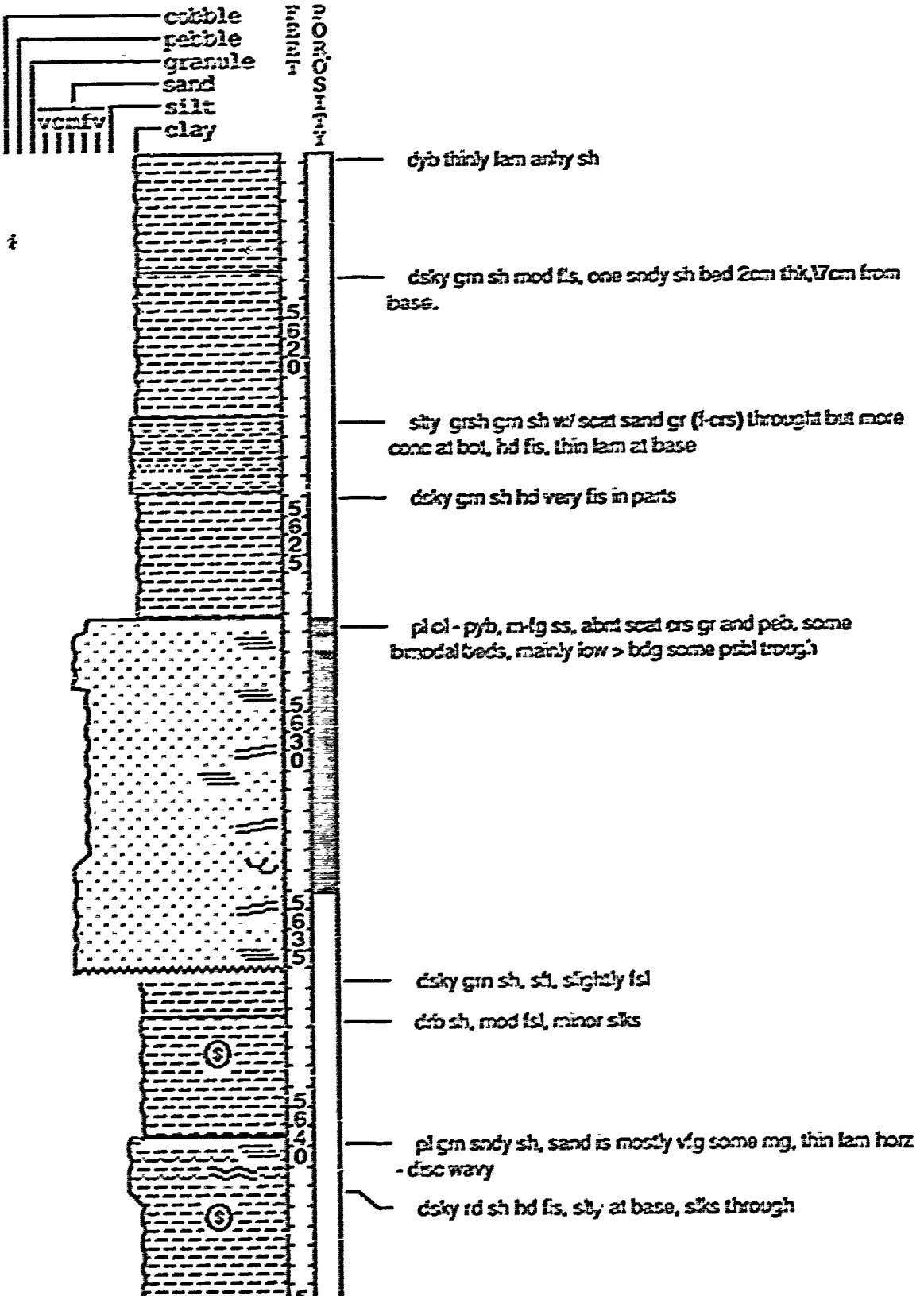
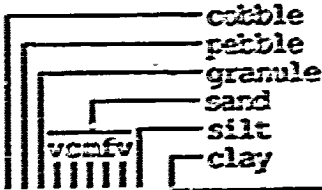


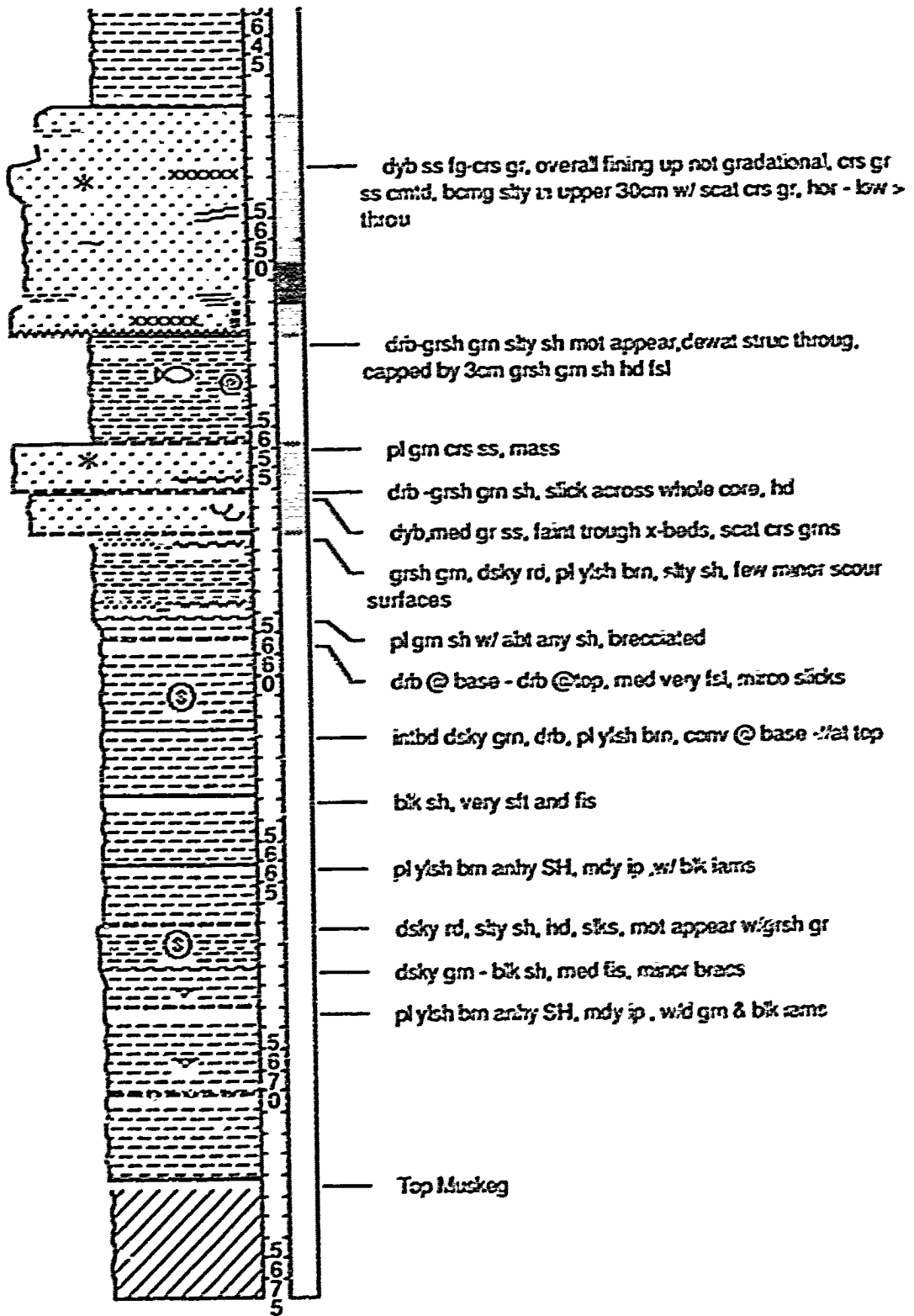


# Arco IOE Nipisi

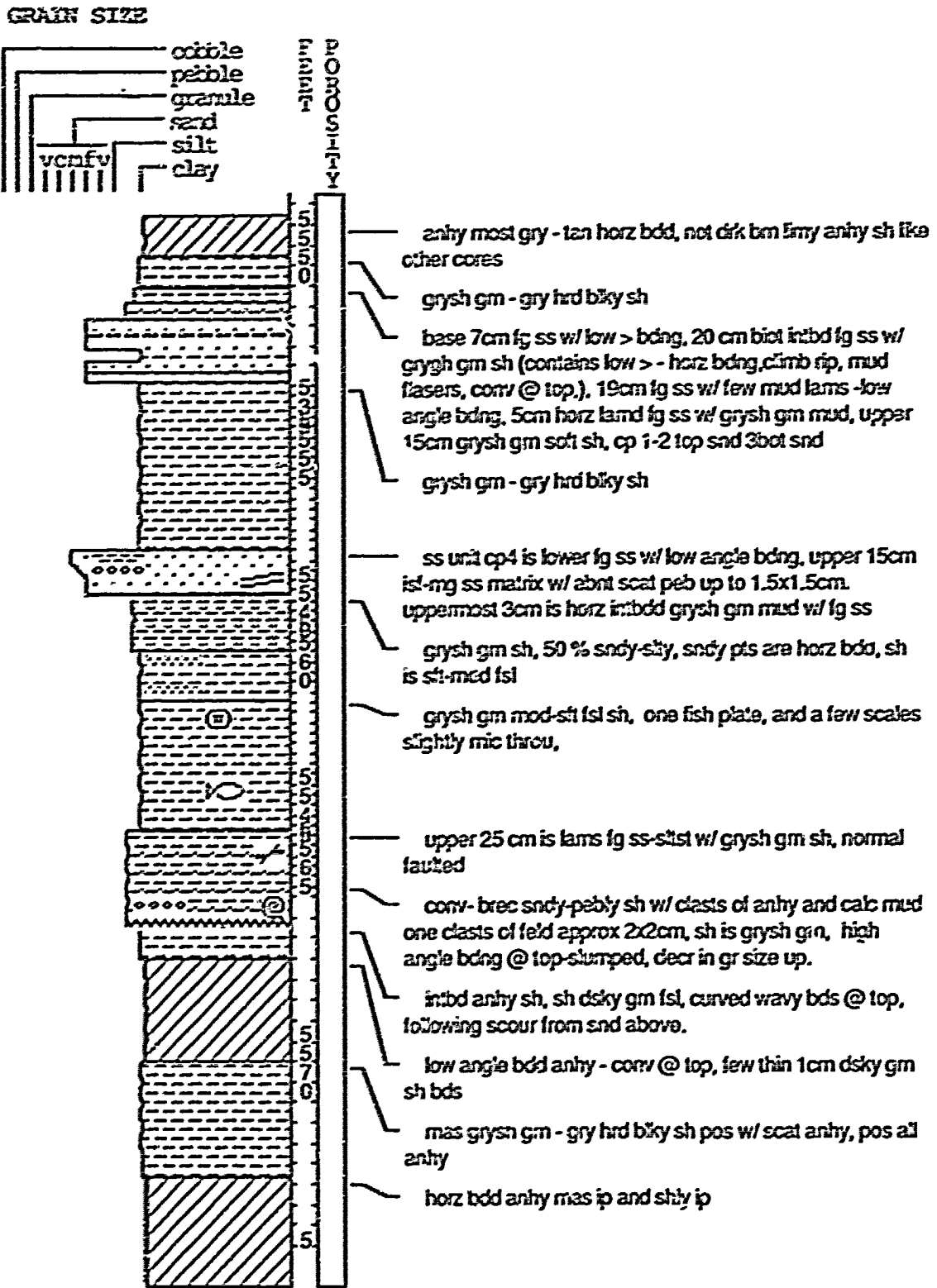
## 4-25-80-9w5

**GRAIN SIZE**

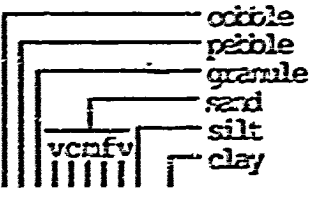




## Pan Am H-2 Nipisi 12-32-80-9w5



**GRAIN SIZE**

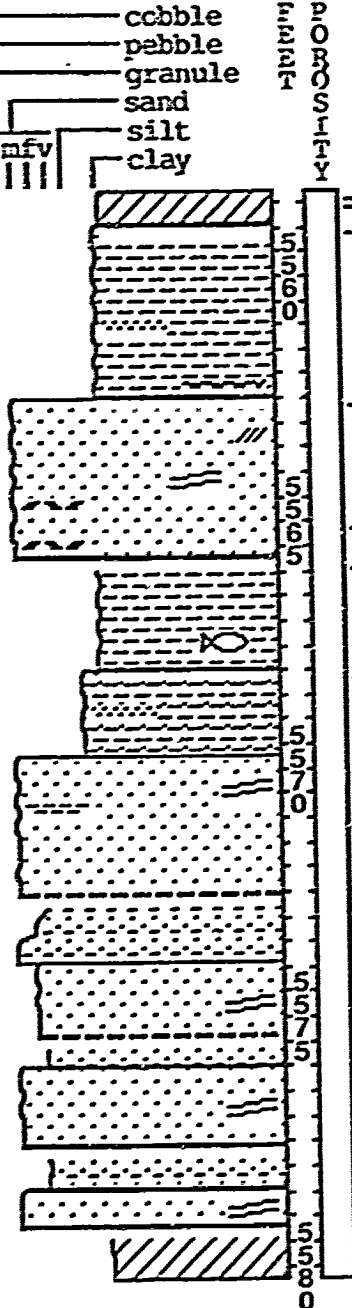
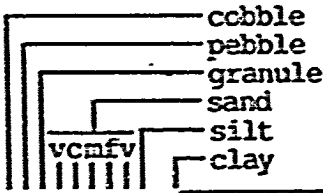


- anhy most gry - tan horz bdd, not drk brn fmy anhy sh like other cores
- grysh gm - gry hrd bky sh
- base 7cm fg ss w/ low > bding, 20 cm biot intbd fg ss w/ grysh gm sh (contains low > - horz bding, climb rip, mud flasers, conv @ top), 19cm fg ss w/ few mud lams - low angle bding, 5cm horz lamd fg ss w/ grysh gm mud, upper 15cm grysh gm soft sh, cp 1-2 top snd 3bot snd
- grysh gm - gry hrd bky sh
- ss unit cp4 is lower fg ss w/ low angle bding, upper 15cm isl-mg ss matrix w/ abnt scat peb up to 1.5x1.5cm. uppermost 3cm is horz intbd grysh gm mud w/ fg ss
- grysh gm sh, 50% sndy-sly, sndy pts are horz bdd, sh is st-med fsl
- grysh gm mod-st fsl sh, one fish plate, and a few scales slightly mic throu,
- upper 25 cm is lams fg ss-stst w/ grysh gm sh, normal faulted
- conv- brecc sandy-pebly sh w/ clasts of anhy and calc mud one clasts of feld approx 2x2cm, sh is grysh gm, high angle bding @ top-slumped, decr in gr size up.
- intbd anhy sh, sh dsky gm fsl, curved wavy bds @ top, following scour from snd above.
- low angle bdd anhy - conv @ top, few thin 1cm dsky gm sh bds
- mas grysh gm - gry hrd bky sh pos w/ scat anhy, pos all anhy
- horz bdd anhy mas ip and shly ip



# Amoco Et Al Nipisi 5-34-80-9w5

**GRAIN SIZE**

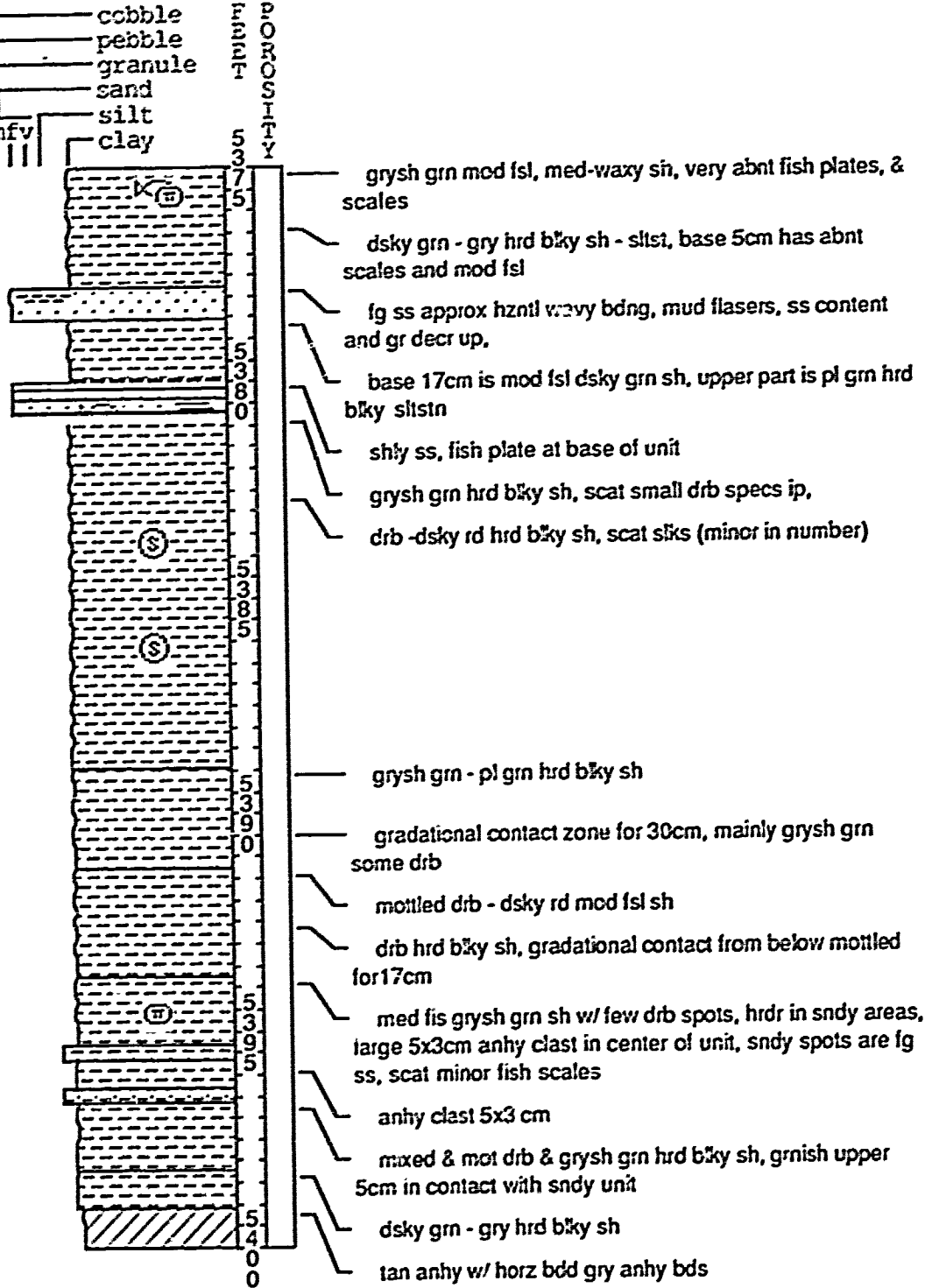
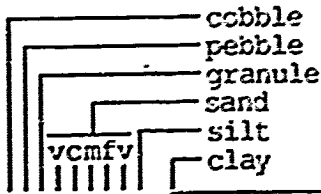


- Is actually 10 boxes but I used only boxes containing Wt Mtn. And started the depths from the anhy sh contact
- drk brn horz lamd anhy sh
- dsky grn soft fsl sh, upper 13cm is hrd bky and like a transition zone, sh is sndy ip w/in bot half of unit (flaser bdng), -a 2cm cg ss bed is present 4cm from bot of unit, this ss is crsr gr then the upper part of the underlying ss
- mg ss w/ high > bdng @ top and low > thru rest, small .5x1cm mud clasts scat thru.
- intbd ss&sh for bot 15cm
- dsky grn - gry hrd bky sh, some fish plates in centro of the unit
- grysh grn mod sndy sh, very soft fsl ip
- mg ss, crve, low > bdng but hard to see in lower half, few mud lams in center of unit
- f-mg shly ss, shly incr up, few low angle bds present
- fg ss, well srted, faint low > bdng, brn in col (dif then upper sand)
- pl grn shly fg ss, calc cmt @ base
- plysh brn mg ss, bdng hard to see. psbl lo > , snd grns rndd-subrndd
- top of fin up seq. mg ss low > bdng w/ pyr and subrounded grns up to pl grn shly ss. some pyr in lower ss,

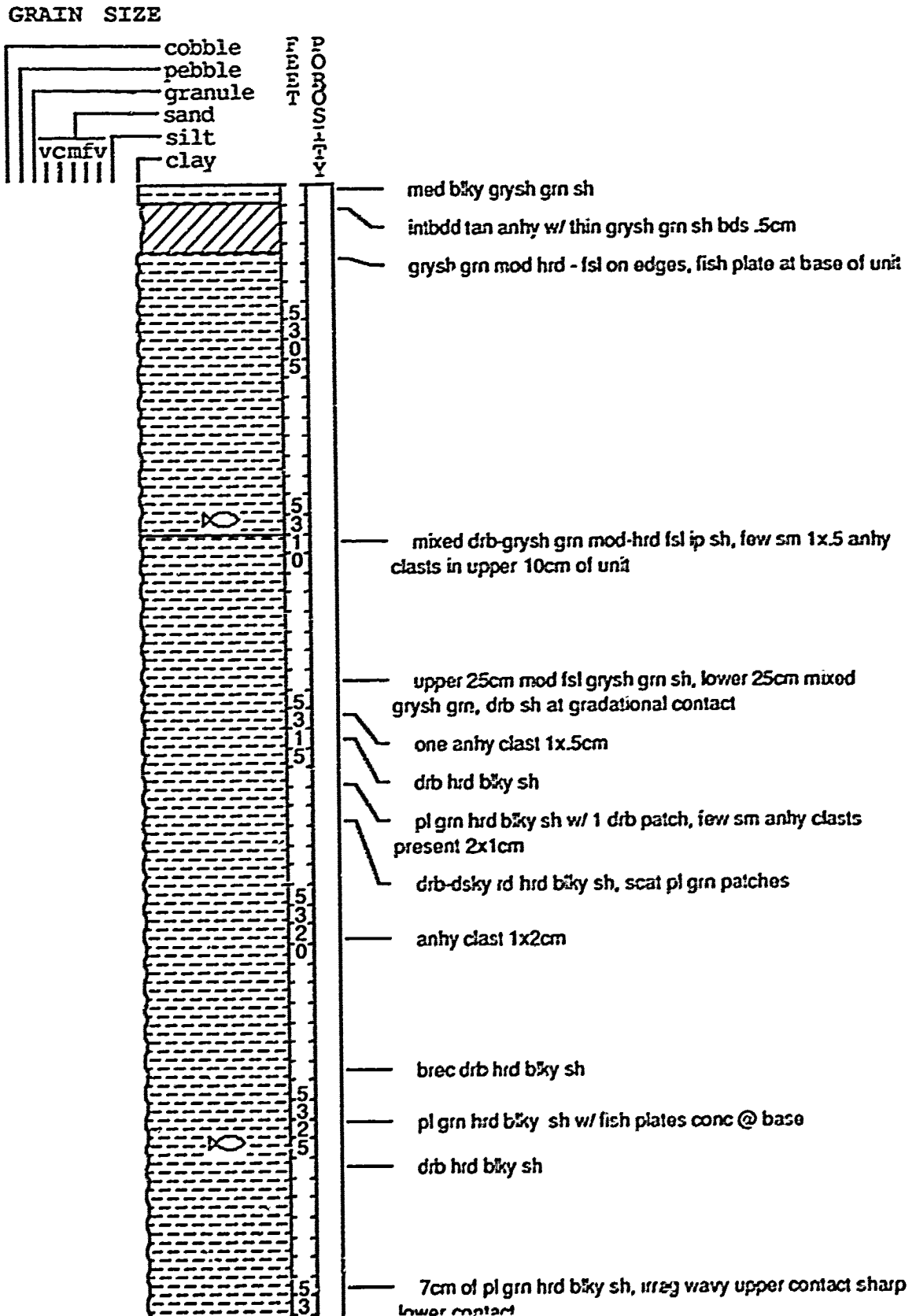
# Pan Am G-1 Nipisi

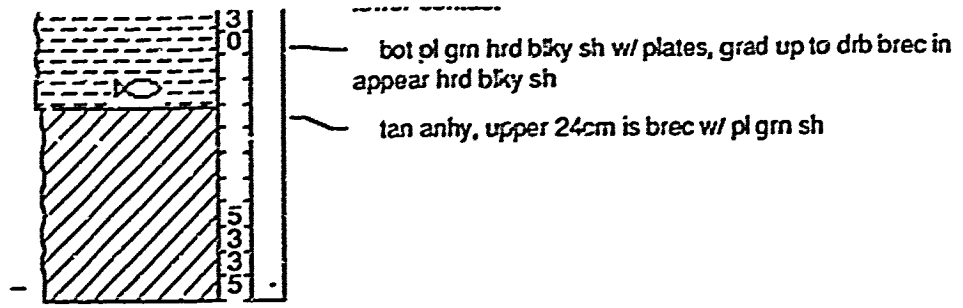
## 13-7-81-7w5

**GRAIN SIZE**



# Pacific et al Nipisi 10-20-81-7w5

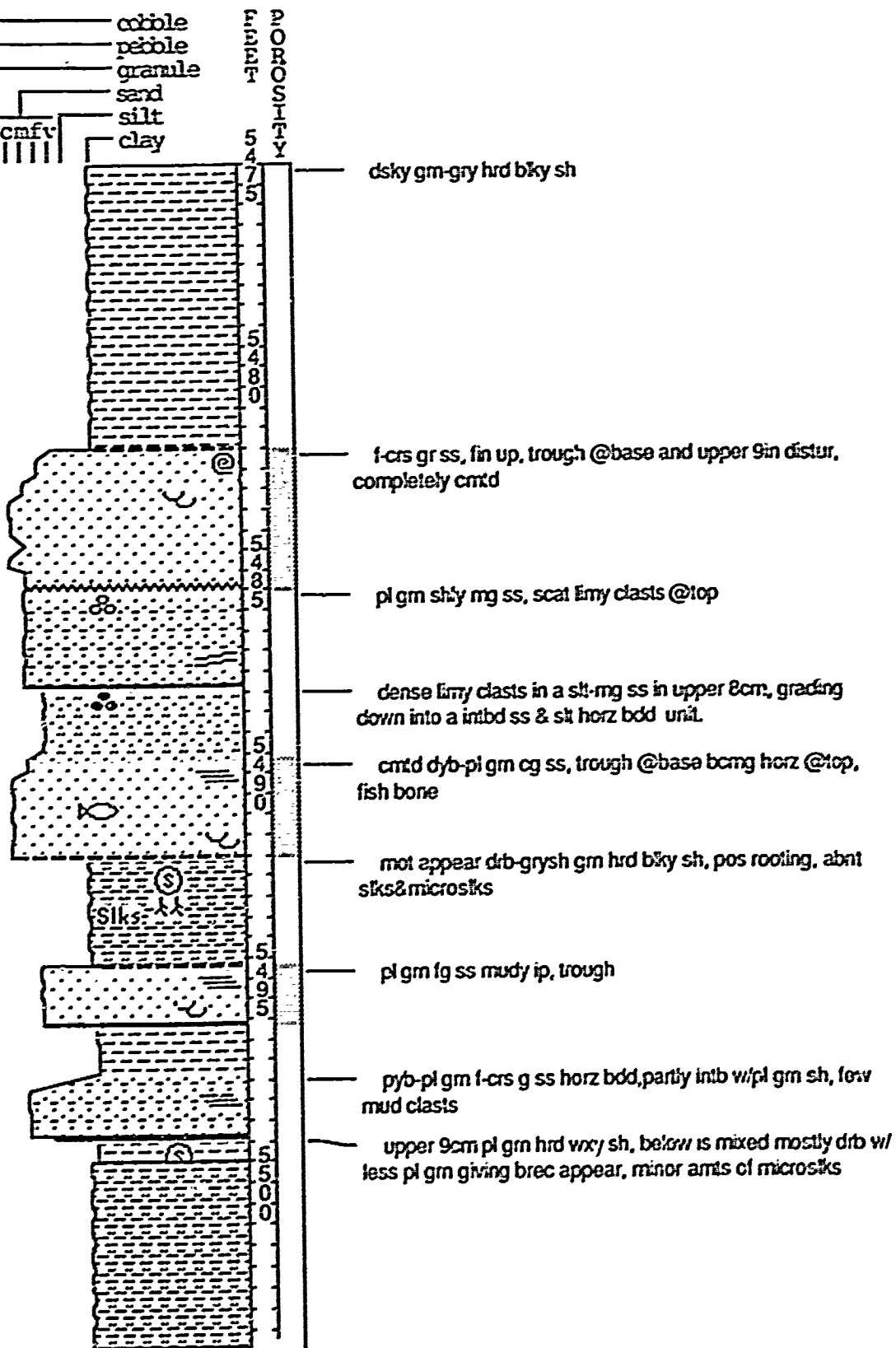
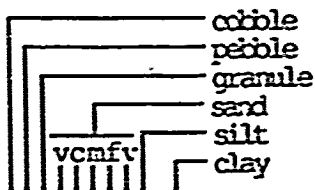


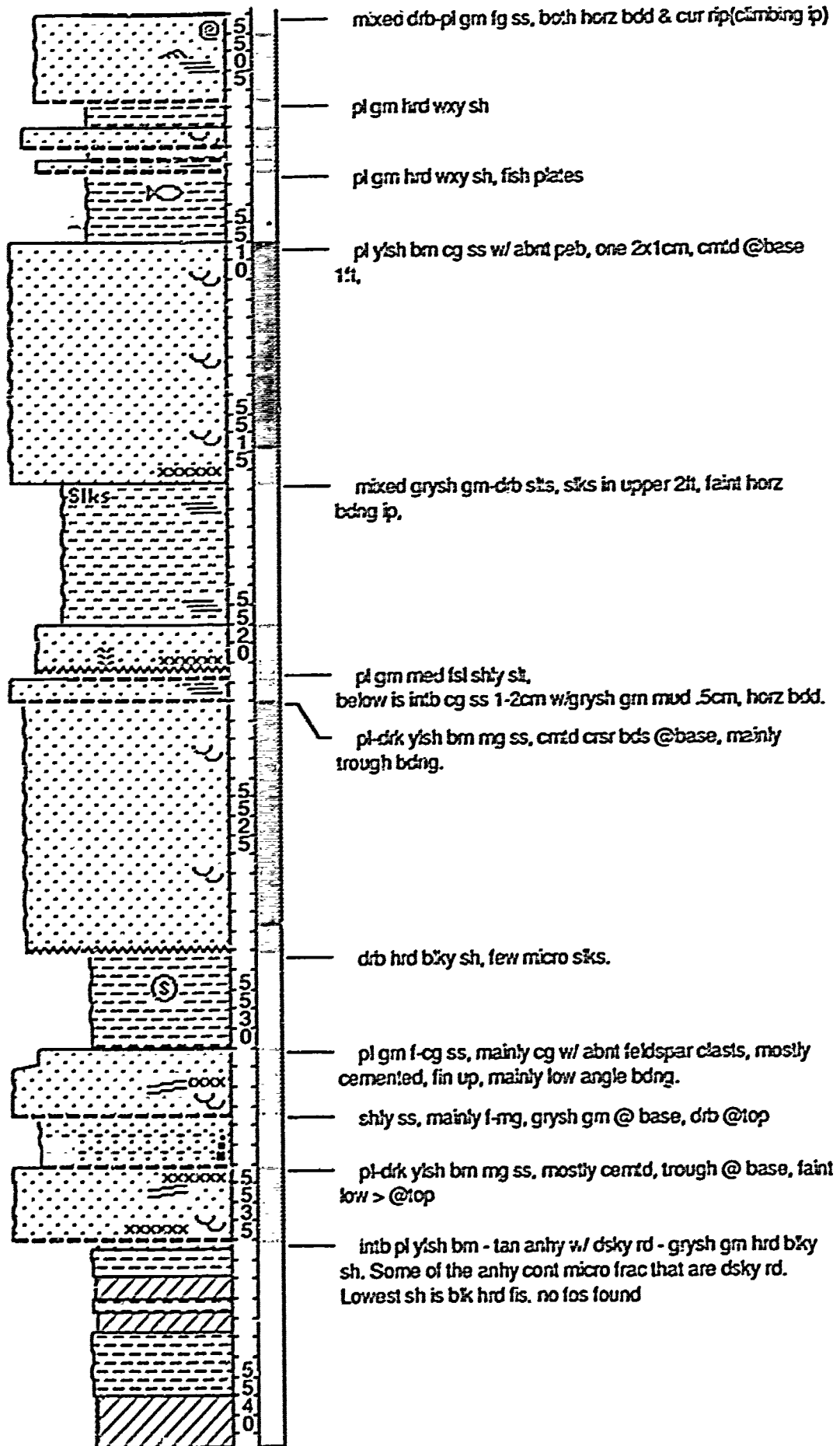


# Atlantic IOE Nipisi

## 10-5-81-8w5

**GRAIN SIZE**

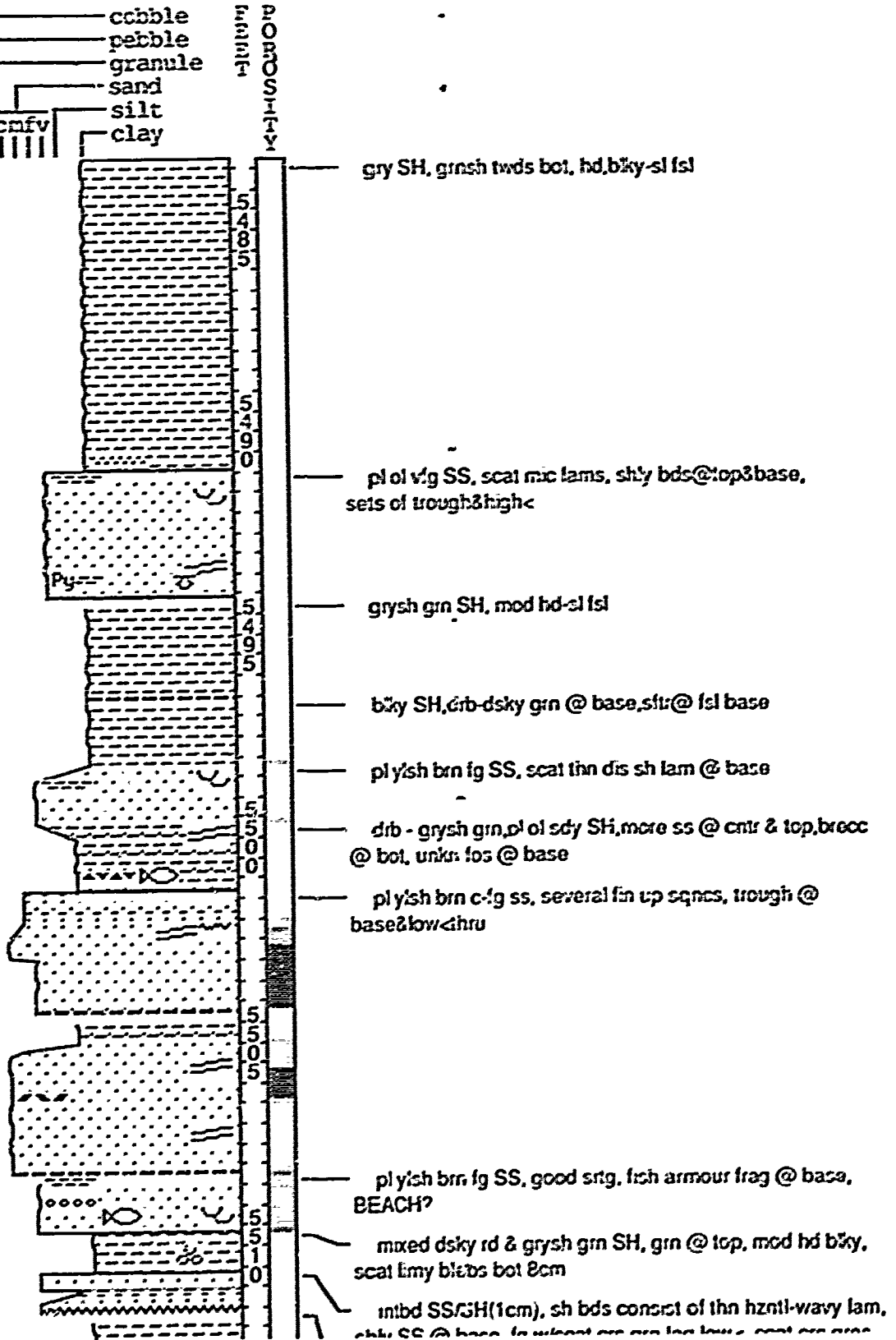
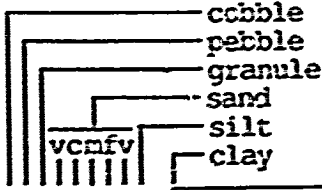


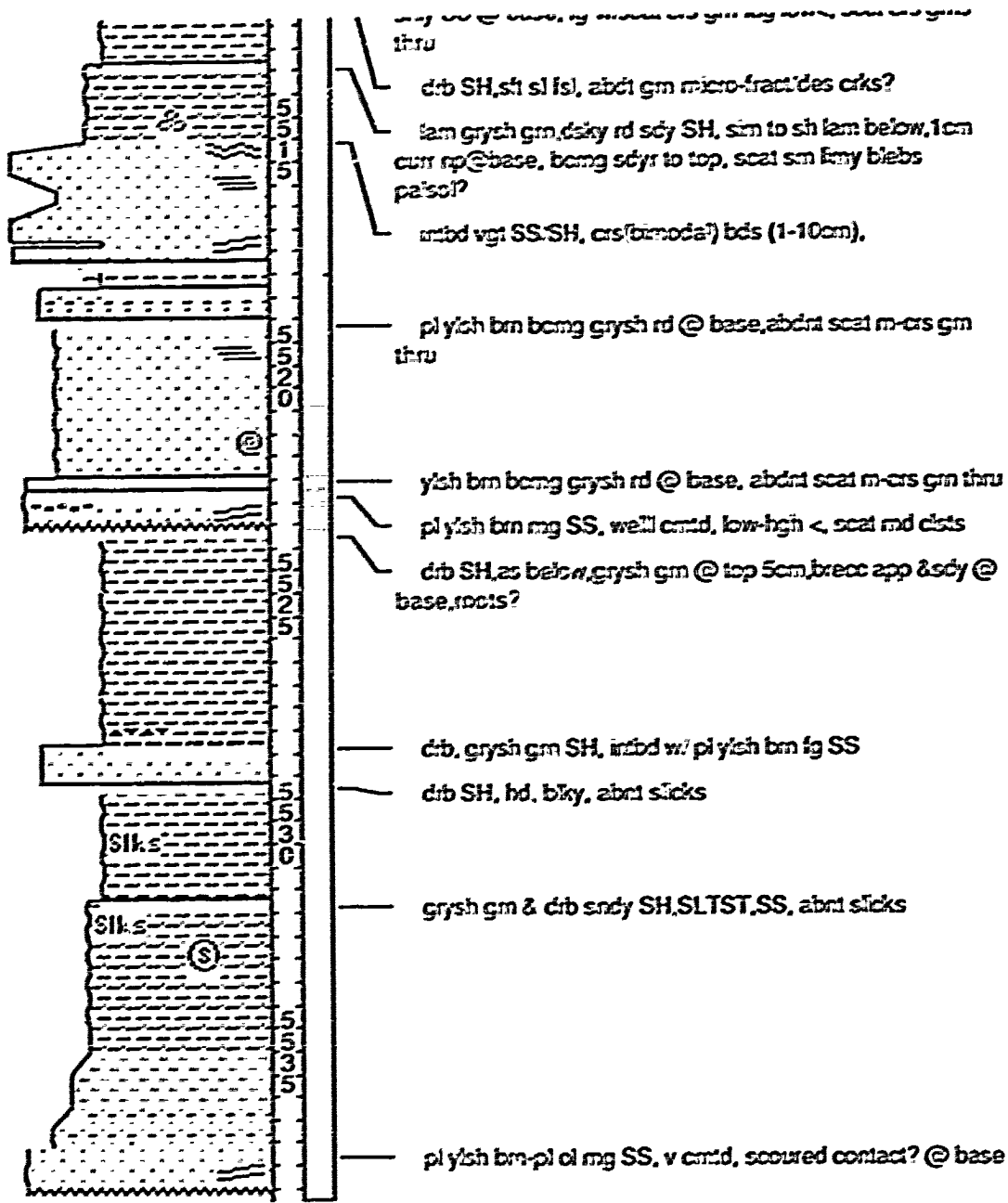


# ARCO IOE NIPISI

## 12-5-81-8w5

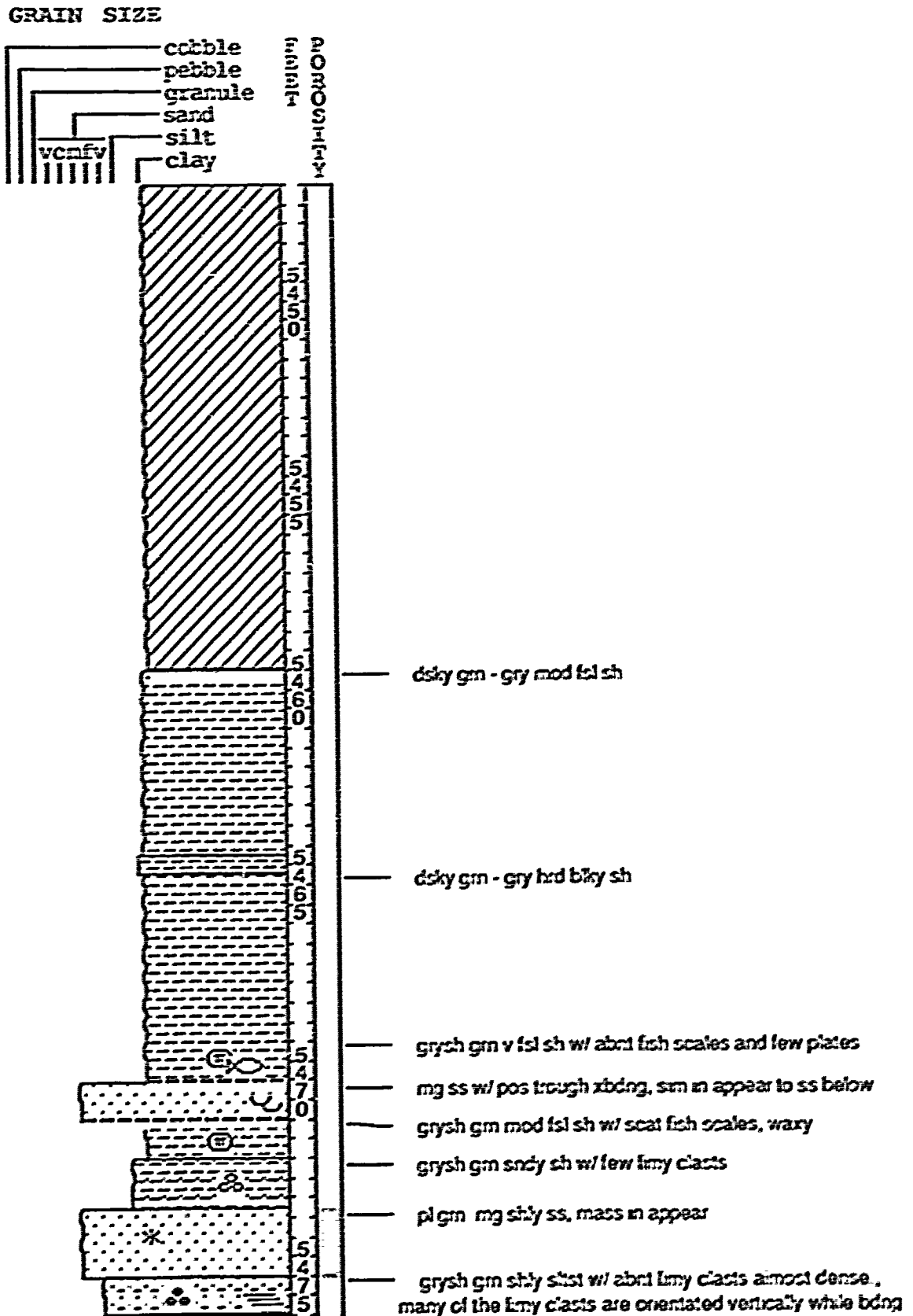
**GRAIN SIZE**

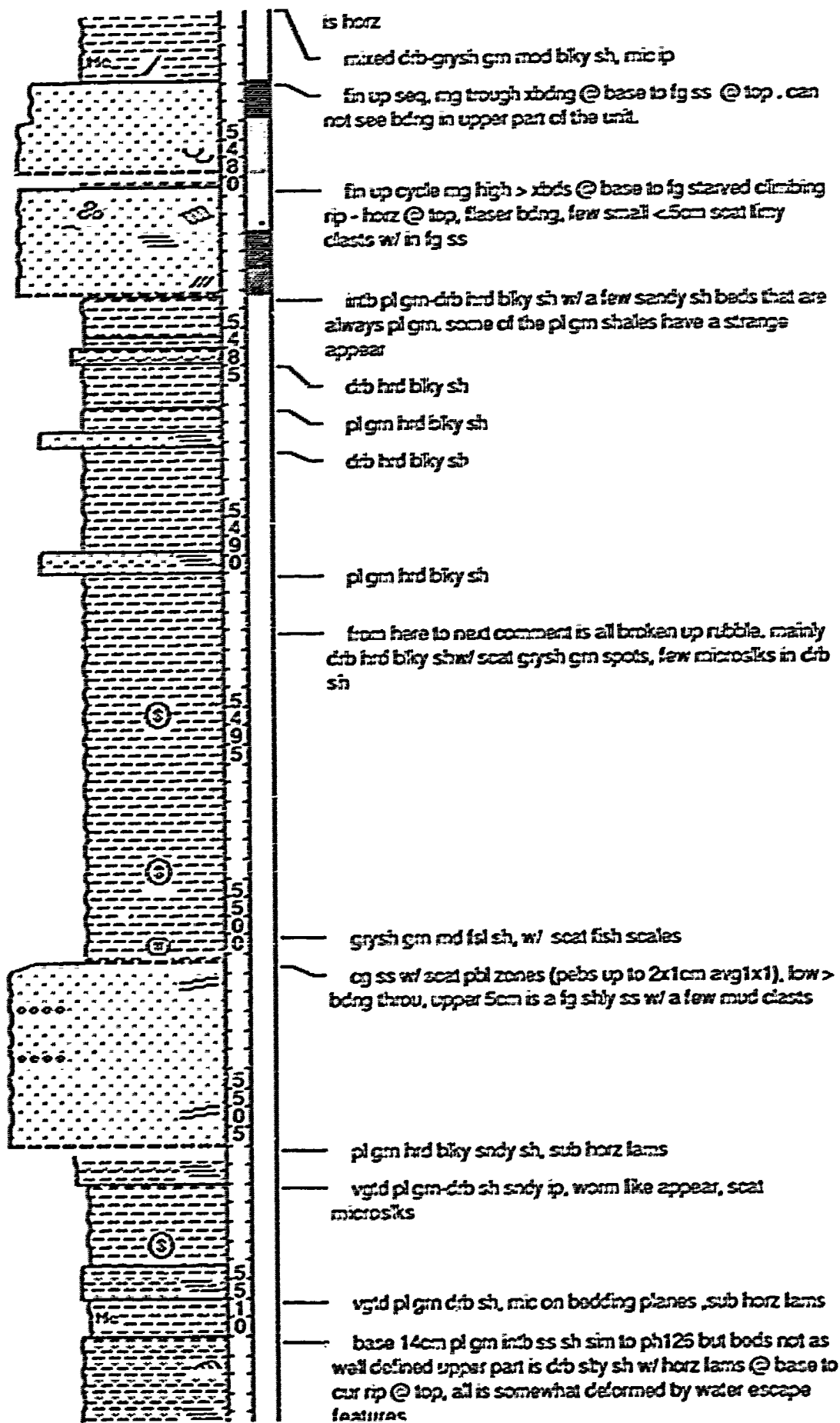


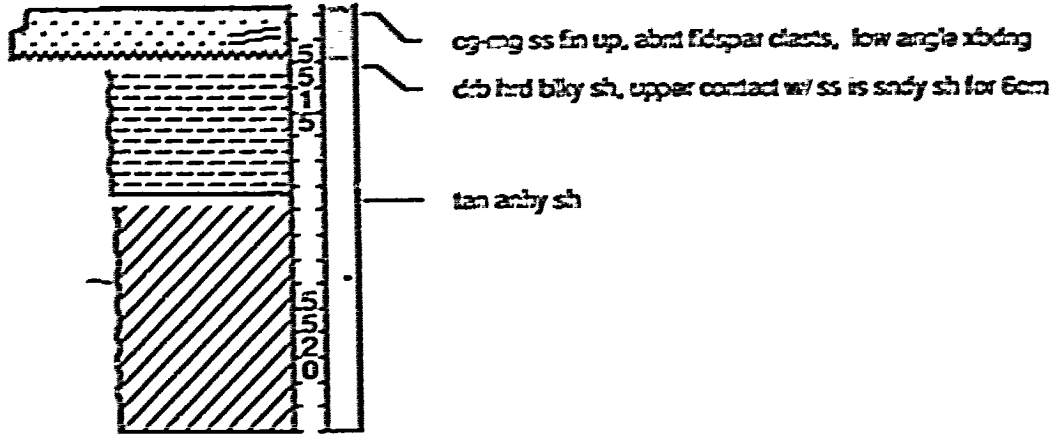




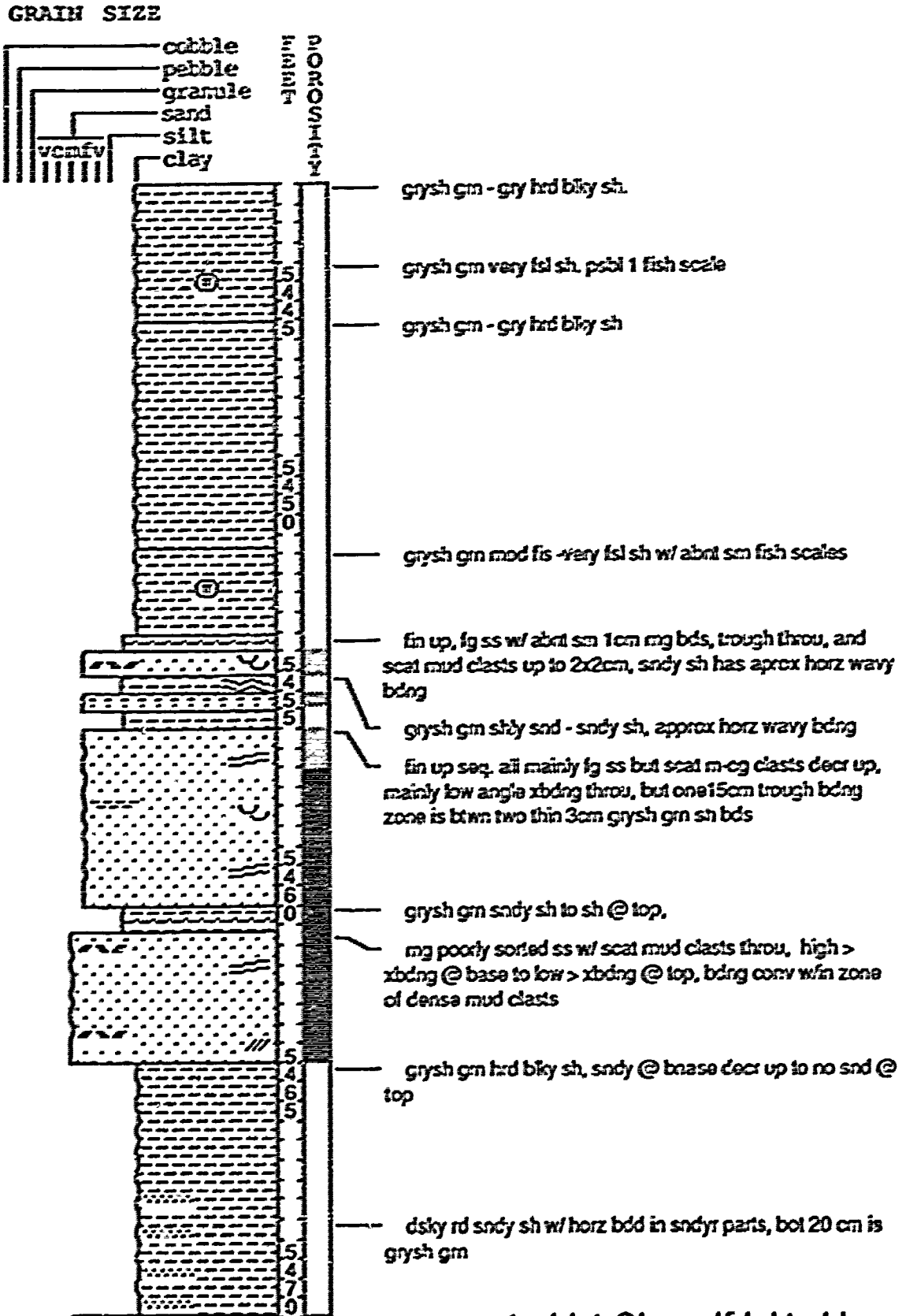
# Atlantic Muskwa 4-10-81-8w5

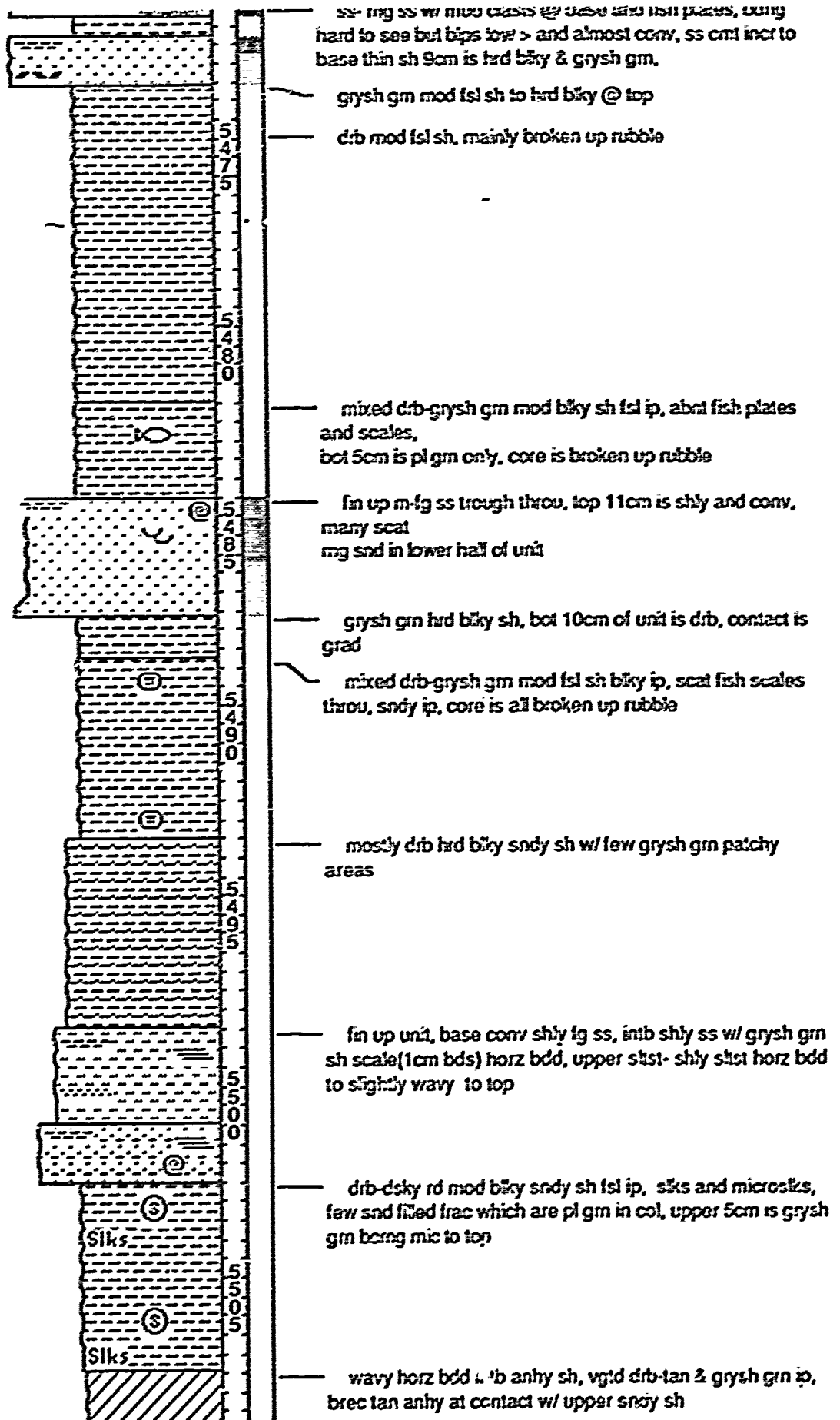


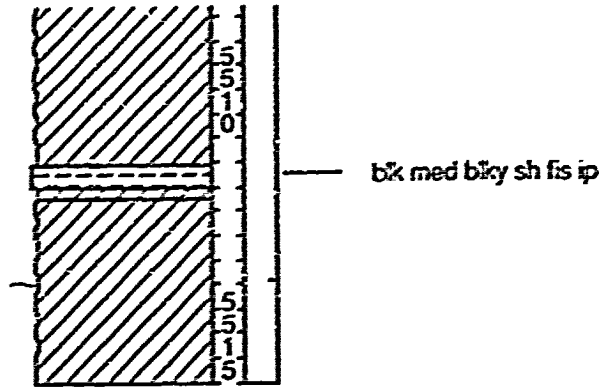




# Atlantic Muskwa 4-15-81-8w5 Slabbed







# Pan Am M-2 Nipisi

10-1-81-9w5

## GRAIN SIZE

