

Dear Editor,

We wish to submit an article titled “Permeability Characterisation of Sedimentological Facies in the Bunter Sandstone Formation, Endurance CO₂ Storage Site, Offshore UK” as a preprint. The authors and their affiliations are listed below:

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Best wishes,

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Permeability Characterisation of Sedimentological Facies in the Bunter Sandstone Formation, Endurance CO₂ Storage Site, Offshore UK

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Abstract

Permeability variations due to sedimentological heterogeneity are important in controlling CO₂ migration pathways, CO₂ plume dynamics, and stratigraphic, capillary and dissolution trapping of CO₂ in subsurface storage units and complexes. Thus, knowing these parameters is crucial to developing a CO₂ injection strategy that maximizes storage and trapping efficiency. In this study we analyzed the sedimentological and permeability heterogeneity of the Bunter Sandstone Formation at the Endurance CO₂ storage site, offshore UK, through integrated facies analysis, minipermeameter measurements, and thin section analysis. Detailed core logging and outcrop analysis were performed to identify facies and related heterogeneities. Twelve lithofacies have been identified in cores. By analyzing the stacking patterns of the facies, three facies associations and three architectural elements were identified in cores and outcrop analogues, respectively. Heterogeneities occur at all the scales ranging from mm-scale laminae to 10's m-scale architectural elements.

Permeability variations at outcrop and in core are closely related to sedimentological heterogeneities. Minipermeameter and core plug permeability data show up to three orders of magnitude variation across the facies. Cross-bedded (Sp, St, Sl, Spmc) and structureless (Sm) sandstones are the most permeable (4-5400 mD) facies, whereas pebbly conglomerates (Gmg) and laminated mudstones (Fl) are least permeable (0.18-89 mD) facies. Mottled and deformed sandstone (Smd) and crinkly laminated sandstone (Sc) have highly variable permeability (0.69-480 mD). Minipermeameter data reveal permeability varies by a factor of five at centimeter scale within planar cross-bedded (Sp), trough cross-bedded (St) and planar bedded sandstone (Sh) sandstone facies, while planar cross-bedded sandstone with mud clasts along foresets (Spmc) exhibit permeability variation up to a factor of four. Petrographic analysis of thin sections shows that these permeability variations are related to changes in grain size, clay content, and distribution of dolomite cements.

1 Introduction

Anthropogenic emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂) have increased by 36% over the last 300 years and are considered the primary cause of climate change (Jones et al., 2023). To avoid the most severe consequences of climate change, atmospheric warming needs to be kept below 1.5°C (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018). Large scale geological storage of CO₂ in the subsurface has been proposed as a potential mitigating option to stabilize and diminish human-induced CO₂ emissions. This method depends on securely storing significant volumes of CO₂ underground in subsurface saline formations and depleted hydrocarbon reservoirs. The heterogeneous nature of geological formations is a crucial control how injected CO₂ moves and is contained (Trevisan et al., 2015). This complexity deeply influences the efficacy of dissolution (Farajzadeh et al., 2009; Agartan et al., 2015) and capillary trapping (Bryant et al., 2008; Trevisan et al., 2015) mechanisms. Thus, it is critical to understand geological heterogeneities and their impact on permeability in these geological formations. Understanding these factors are essential for unlocking the full potential of geological CO₂ storage in mitigating global carbon emissions. This study investigates the relationship between geological heterogeneity and permeability variations and considers their impact on CO₂ movement, storage and trapping. The Bunter Sandstone Formation is the storage unit in the Endurance CO₂ storage site – the first of its kind in the UK (Gluyas & Bagudu, 2020). Regional analysis of the Bunter Sandstone Formation utilizing petrophysical and seismic data suggests that reservoir properties are favourable for CO₂ injection, although the unit contains extensive mudstone layers and cemented intervals (Hollinsworth et al., 2024). The findings of this study will be helpful to understand the effects of small-scale variations in lithostratigraphically equivalent units (e.g., Buntsandstein in Germany and the Netherlands; (Arts et al., 2012) and in fluvial deposits in other parts of the world.

Upon injection, geological CO₂ storage is controlled by four trapping mechanisms, namely stratigraphic trapping, residual trapping, dissolution, and mineralization (Bachu & Adams, 2003). Fluid flow near the injection well bore is dominated by viscous forces, but as the distance from the injection well increases, capillary and buoyancy forces take over (Petrovskyy et al., 2023). Therefore, most of the storage reservoir in which CO₂ migration will take place will be dominated by capillary and buoyancy forces. It has been observed that sedimentological heterogeneity has a significant impact on multiphase flow dynamics in parts of the reservoir where capillary and buoyancy flow regimes dominate (Li & Benson, 2015).

The most important reservoir properties that control CO₂ migration and storage are effective porosity and permeability (Kovscek, 2002). These properties are controlled by the organization of sedimentological and structural heterogeneities within the reservoir. Different sedimentological facies exhibit varying degrees of permeability, which affects the efficiency of CO₂ injection and storage. Understanding the relationships between facies types and permeability variations therefore helps to constrain CO₂ migration pathways, plume dispersal and estimates of CO₂ storage capacity.

Many studies have been conducted on permeability variations associated with heterogeneity in different geological settings and deposits (Stalkup & Ebanks, 1986; Prosser et al., 1995; Ringrose et al., 1999; Possemiers et al., 2012). The main purpose of these studies was to understand their impact on hydrocarbon recovery efficiency (Lewis, 1988; Honarpour & Saad, 1994; Honarpour et al., 1995; Chen et al., 1999; Ringrose et al., 1999; Stephen et al., 2001; Rashid et al., 2012; Pantou, 2014; Gao & Li, 2016) and groundwater flow through aquifers (Freeze & Witherspoon, 1967; Cheng, 1984; Neuzil, 1986; Keller et al., 1988; Gotkowitz, 1993; Huysmans et al., 2008). These studies show that permeability heterogeneity occurs at different scales and they are strongly influenced by sedimentary architectures and clay contents, especially in high porosity sandstone units (Prosser et al., 1995; Ringrose et al., 1999; Possemiers et al., 2012). However, only a few studies have been conducted to understand the impact of heterogeneities on CO₂ migration in CO₂ storage reservoirs (Ambrose et al., 2008; Krevor et al., 2011; Trevisan et al., 2014; Krevor et al., 2015; Li & Benson, 2015; Trevisan et al., 2015; Gershenson et al., 2017; Krishnamurthy et al., 2017; Trevisan et al., 2017; Krishnamurthy et al., 2022; Alshakri et al., 2023). Core flooding experiments undertaken in these studies primarily aim to understand the capillary trapping at the pore scale, but understanding how these effects propagate into larger scales is still a challenge. Thus, it is imperative to identify permeability heterogeneities at different length scales and to evaluate their effect on CO₂ trapping in order to apply core-scale findings at the storage unit scale robustly.

Probe permeameter data has been effective in characterising small-scale permeability variations related to sedimentological heterogeneity (Corbett et al., 1992; Honarpour & Saad, 1994; Ringrose et al., 2005; Huysmans et al., 2008). The non-destructive nature of the measurement allows collection of high-resolution data from the facies of interest. Minipermeameter data from the Sherwood Sandstone Group and equivalent Bunter Sandstone Formation have been previously collected from outcrops (McKinley et al., 2011)

and cores (Weatherford, 2015), but not placed in the context of a sedimentological facies scheme, which limits the degree to which variability in permeability values can be predicted.

The aims of this paper are: (1) to identify and interpret variability in sedimentary facies in cores and analogous outcrops of the Bunter Sandstone Formation, and (2) to investigate the relationships between sedimentological facies, related heterogeneity and permeability variation in the Bunter Sandstone Formation.

2 Geological context

The Endurance CO₂ storage site is defined by a four-way dip closure that spans Blocks 42/25 and 43/21 in the UK sector of the North Sea, 60 miles east of the coast of Northeast England (Fig. 1). This closure is approximately 22 kilometers long, 8 km wide, and more than 200 meters high (Gluyas & Bagudu, 2020).

The Early Triassic Bunter Sandstone Formation is the targeted storage unit in the Endurance CO₂ storage site. The reservoir's crest is roughly 1020 m below the seabed, and the four-way closure is penetrated by three wells above the spill point (Fig.1B). The lithological characteristics and stratigraphic position of this formation and stratigraphic equivalents make it a key target for hydrocarbon exploration (e.g., Wytch Farm oil field), groundwater resources (onshore) and CO₂ storage (e.g., Southern North Sea and Liverpool Bay). This formation and its lithostratigraphic equivalents are widely distributed across Western and Central Europe, including large parts of Germany, France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. The Bunter Sandstone Formation is equivalent to the Sherwood Sandstone Group of the onshore UK, suggesting regional continuity of deposition (Medici et al., 2015).

The Bunter Sandstone Formation is overlain by the Middle to Late Triassic, evaporate-bearing Haisborough Group (equivalent to the Mercia Mudstone Group, onshore UK), which serves as a seal (Cameron et al., 1992). The Bunter Sandstone Formation unit was deposited in a continental setting, featuring a complex interplay of fluvial, aeolian, and lacustrine environments. The Formation reflects a time when most part of the continental Europe was characterized by arid to semi-arid conditions, with vast desert dune fields and ephemeral river systems (Ziegler, 1982).

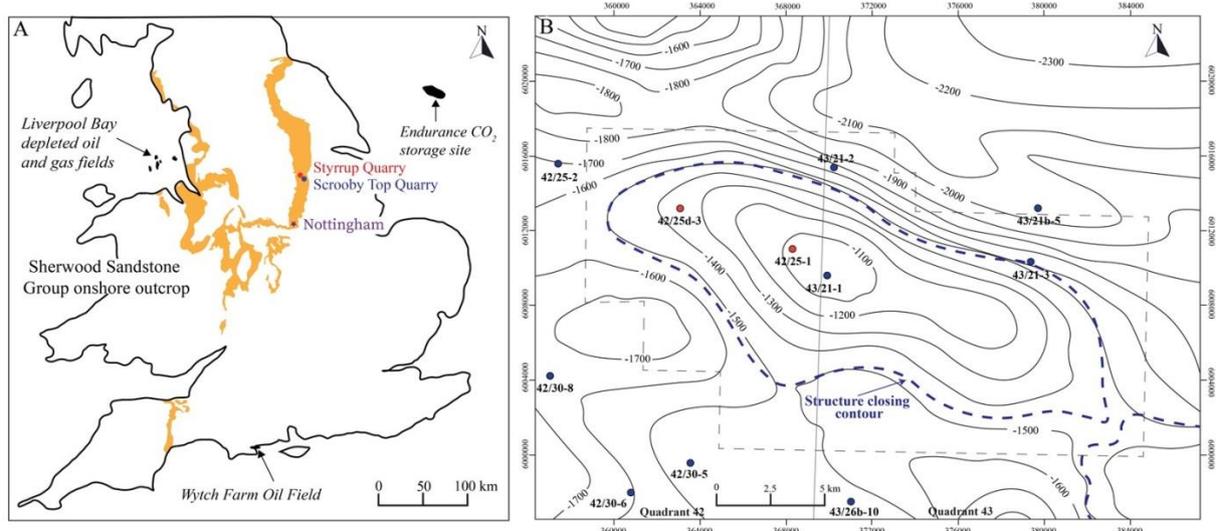


Figure 1: A) Map showing the distribution of Sherwood Sandstone Group outcrops (orange) in the onshore UK and occurrence in subsurface reservoirs (black). Red and blue circle show the location of the Styrrup Quarry and Two Oaks Quarry and Nottingham outcrops. B) Depth structure map of the Endurance CO₂ storage site and wells drilled within the structural closure of the site (modified after (Gluyas & Bagudu, 2020)). Cores from two wells highlighted in red were studied for facies analysis.

3 Data and Methodology

The study integrates detailed facies analysis of core and outcrop data, core plug and minipermeameter permeability measurements, and thin sections of selected core and outcrop samples.

3.1 Facies analysis

3.1.1 Core

Core data from wells 42/25-1 and 42/25d-3 covering an interval of 10 and 163 meters (Fig. 4) respectively were studied to construct a lithofacies scheme that characterises small-scale sedimentological heterogeneity. Detailed sedimentological logging of the cores was performed for the purpose of facies analysis. The overall quality of core from well 42/25d-3 is very good, while core from well 42/25-1 is poor in quality. Cores from the well 42-25-1 are mostly broken therefore sedimentary structures were not readily identifiable, whereas cores from well 42-25d-3 are new and well preserved.

3.1.2 Outcrop analogue

Outcrop analogues are key to understand facies distributions and the dimensions, geometry and distribution of heterogeneities at inter-well scale and constrain the lateral extent of these facies.

The Sherwood Sandstone Group, which is lithostratigraphically equivalent to the Bunter Sandstone Formation, is exposed in several quarries (e.g., Styrrup Quarry, Scrooby Top Quarry, Two Oaks Quarry, Breedon Quarry) and man-made faces (e.g., Park Tunnel, Nottingham Castle) in Nottinghamshire, eastern UK. In the well-preserved Styrrup Quarry (Fig.1A) exposure, we collected data to supplement a previously published architectural panel with lateral dimensions of 110 m and 30 m in NNW-SSE and ENE-WSW orientations, respectively (Wakefield et al., 2015). The height of the quarry faces is 8 m. The architectural panel shows the different architectural elements exposed on the quarry faces and their relationship with each other. We apply the core-based facies scheme to this outcrop face, and also describe four small (c. 1 m) measured sections to characterize individual facies and collect minipermeameter data and samples for thin-sections. There is a dearth of natural outcrops of the Bunter Sandstone Formation in the eastern UK, hence the preserved outcrop in Styrrup Quarry has been considered as an analogue for the Bunter Sandstone Formation in the Southern North Sea by many authors (McKinley et al., 2011; McKinley et al., 2013; Wakefield et al., 2015). This outcrop allows identification of sedimentary facies and architectural elements in detail, even though it is far from the Endurance CO₂ storage site (Fig. 1A). We have also been to some well exposed outcrops in the Park Tunnel and Nottingham Castle in the Nottingham city centre.

3.2 Minipermeametry measurements

Permeability measurements for all the lithofacies identified in the core and three lithofacies described in the outcrop were taken using a portable hand-held air permeameter (Tiny Perm 3). Permeability readings were taken using a 10 cm large grid for a total of 20 measurements per facies. For facies containing planar laminae, measurements were collected on an orthogonal grid. For lithofacies with inclined laminae, such as foreset in planar and trough cross bedded sandstone, measurements were taken along the inclined laminae. It was difficult to measure permeability where the cores were broken, because fractures can significantly

impact permeability measurements. Outcrop faces are highly weathered, and there were few smooth surfaces against which measurements could be taken.

3.3 Thin section Petrography

Thin section petrography was performed to identify the causes of permeability variations between and within lithofacies. Ten thin sections were prepared for selected lithofacies in core and three from selected lithofacies at outcrop. Thin sections were studied under petrographic microscope to characterise texture and mineralogy, for comparison with variations in permeability.

4 Results

4.1 Core and outcrop facies analysis

In the outcrops examined for this study, the Sherwood Sandstone is composed of medium to fine grained sandstone with pebbles, whereas the studied cores contain additional mudstone-bearing lithologies. In total, 13 lithofacies have been identified. Descriptions and interpretations of the lithofacies are summarized in Table 1. Matrix-supported conglomerate (Gmg), planar cross-bedded sandstone (Sp), planar cross-bedded sandstone with clasts along foresets (Sph), interbedded siltstone and sandstone (Sss), parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh), structureless sandstone (Sm), trough cross laminated sandstone (St), and laminated mudstone (Fl) are common in both the cores and outcrop (Figs. 2, 3). In addition, low angle cross bedded sandstone (Sl), mottled and deformed sandstone (Smd), crinkly laminated sandstone (Sc), and rippled sandstone (Sr) are identified in core from well 42/25d-3 (Fig. 5).

Table 1: Descriptions and interpretations of lithofacies in outcrop and core.

Lithofacies	Description	Interpretation	Permeability (mD)
Matrix-supported conglomerate (Gmg)	Conglomerates and sandstone; fine to coarse grained sand matrix with grey mudstone clasts that are 10–40 mm in diameter. Clasts are sub-rounded to sub-angular.	Intraclasts record the localised reworking of mudstone beds with clasts derived either via erosion from the base of channels or from bank collapse at channel margins.	0.7-89
Planar cross-bedded sandstone (Sp)	Fine to medium-grained, moderately sorted sandstone arranged in sets of cross beds. Individual cross-sets are 10-12	Downstream migration and deposition of straight-crested dunes under low flow regime conditions.	9.5 -5350

	cm thick. Both the topset and the bottomset are horizontal to slightly inclined. Foresets are inclined at 17-23°. Foreset consists of alternating clay-poor and clay-rich laminae.		
Low angle cross-bedded sandstone (Sl)	Fine to medium-grained, moderately sorted cross bedded sandstone. Individual set thickness is around 20-30 cm. Foresets are inclined at <math><15^{\circ}</math>	Downstream migration and deposition of straight-crested dunes under low flow regime conditions.	35-1673
Trough cross-bedded sandstone (St)	Medium to fine grained cross bedded sandstone. Individual sets are 40-80 cm thick and they consist of multiple sets.	Downstream migration of sinuous-crested dunes under lower flow regime conditions.	13 – 2813
Trough cross-laminated sandstone (St1)	Multiple sets of fine to medium-grained, moderately sorted trough cross-laminated sandstone. Individual sets are 10-15cm thick, and cosets are 0.6-1 m thick. Dark coloured clay-rich laminae are present along the troughs. The basal surfaces are commonly erosional.	Downstream migration and deposition of sinuous-crested ripples under lower flow regime conditions.	35-1673
Planar cross-bedded sandstone with mud clasts (Spmc)	Well-sorted, fine to medium grained, cross-bedded sandstone with mud clasts along foresets. Clasts are rounded and 20-40 mm in diameter.	Downstream migration and deposition of straight-crested dunes under lower flow regime conditions. Mud clasts represents broken fragments of previously deposited (Fl) facies which have been reworked into the channel.	4-3853
Parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh)	Fine-grained, well-sorted sandstone containing planar-parallel lamination. Clay-rich laminae are present. Thickness of this unit ranges from 0.5-1.5 m.	Migration and deposition of sandy bedforms under upper flow regime conditions.	7.2-2468
Structureless sandstone (Sm)	Fine to medium grained, moderately to well sorted sandstone with erosional base. Units are 30-50cm thick and often overlie mudstone units.	Deposition from laminar, high density sandy flows.	9.5 -5350
Fine sandstone and siltstone (Sss)	Siltstone with subordinate thin (20-50 cm) beds of fine-grained sandstone. Sandstones are typically cross-bedded. Units contain abundant sand-filled desiccation cracks.	Deposition during falling flow stage, and subsequent subaerial exposure.	1.14-588
Laminated mudstone (Fl)	Laminated, dark brown mudstone with rare siltstone laminae. Units are typically 10-20 cm thick, but rarely up to 50 cm thick.	Deposition from suspension in overbank areas and abandoned channels.	0.18-2.92

Mottled and deformed sandstone (Smd)	Fine grained sandstone with deformations in the form of harmonic and disharmonic folds, antiform shapes, and subvertical pipes.	Deformation due to escape of overpressured water.	2.8-480
Crinkly laminated sandstone (Sc)	Thin units (10-20 cm) of siltstones and very fine-grained sandstones with irregular to highly diffuse, crinkly and variably continuous lamination.	Adhesion ripples and warts deposited on a damp substrate.	0.69-180
Rippled sandstone (Sr)	Fine grained, moderately sorted sandstone containing symmetrical cross-lamination in beds 10-20 cm thick.	Downstream migration and deposition of current ripples under lower flow regime conditions. Symmetrical ripple forms record wave reworking.	8-160

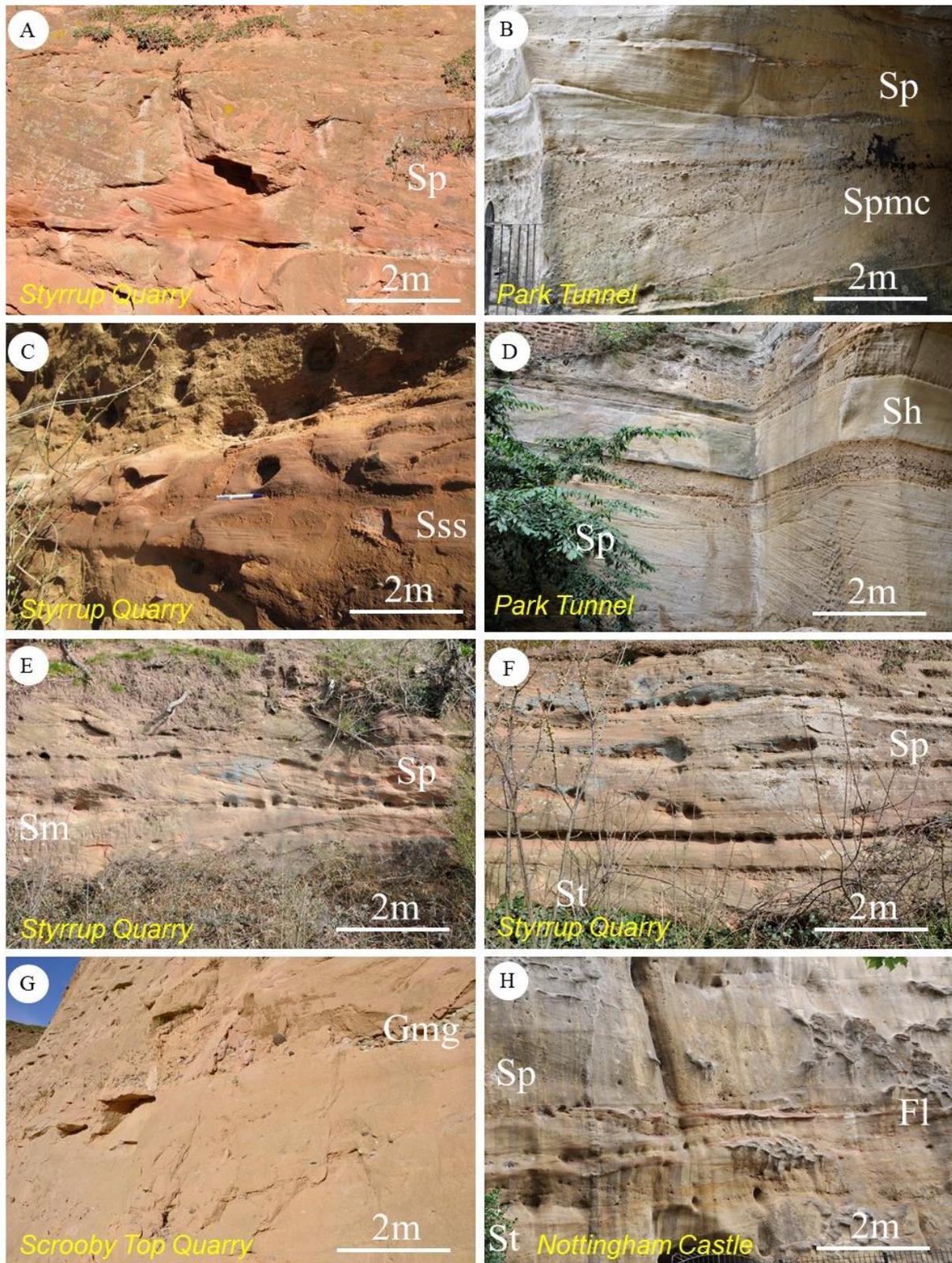


Figure 2: Lithofacies identified in quarry-face and man-made outcrops (Fig. 1A): A) planar cross-bedded sandstone (Sp); B) planar cross-bedded sandstone with mud clasts (Spmc); C) Fine sandstone and siltstone (Sss); D) parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh); E) structureless sandstone (Sm); F) trough cross-bedded sandstone (St); G) matrix-supported conglomerate (Gmg); and H) laminated mudstone (Fl).

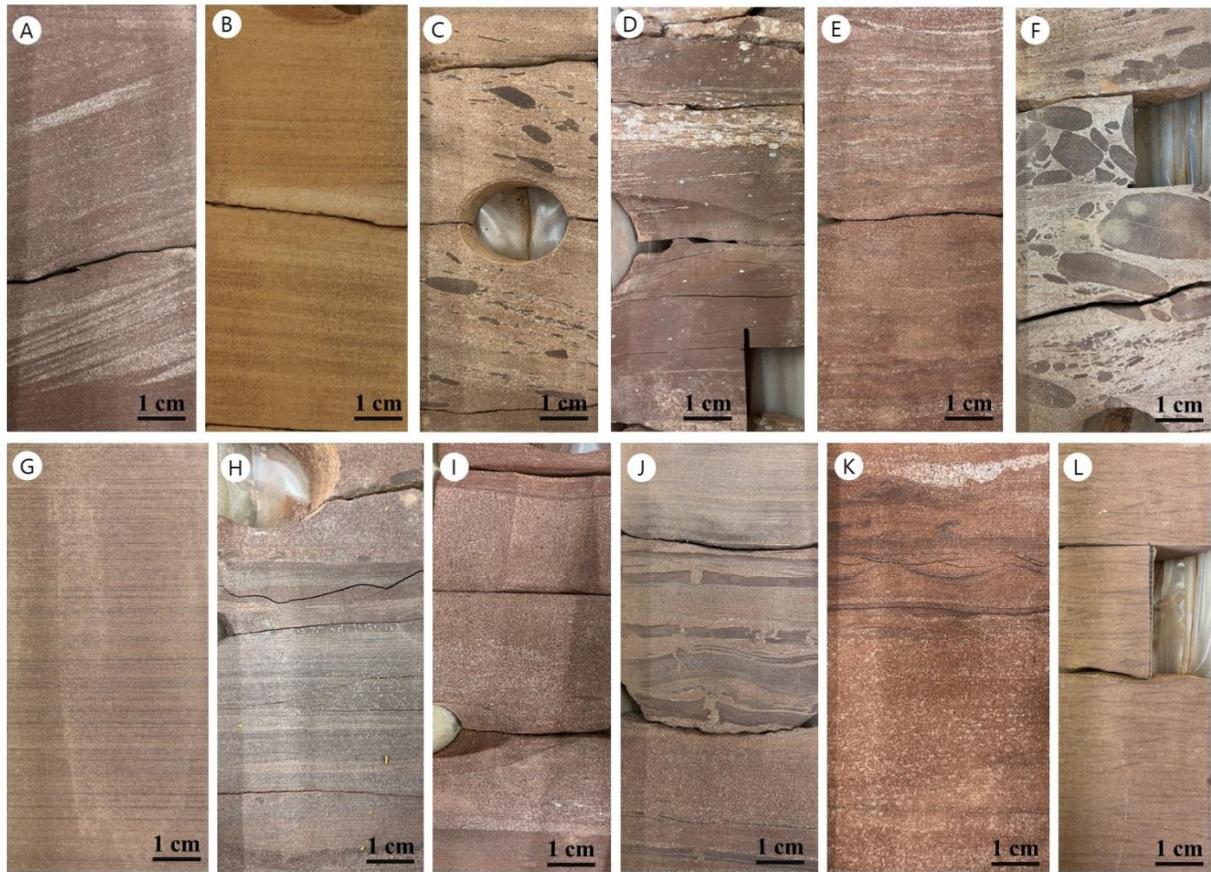


Figure 3: Lithofacies identified in the cores of well 42/25d-3: A) planar cross-bedded sandstone (Sp); B) low-angle cross-bedded sandstone (Sl); C) planar cross-bedded sandstone with mud clasts (Spmc); D) laminated mudstone (Fl); E) crinkly laminated sandstone (Sc); F) matrix-supported conglomerate (Gmg); G) parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh); H) Fine sandstone and siltstone (Sss); I) structureless sandstone (Sm); J) mottled and deformed sandstone (Smd); K) rippled sandstone (Sr); and L) trough cross-laminated sandstone (St1).

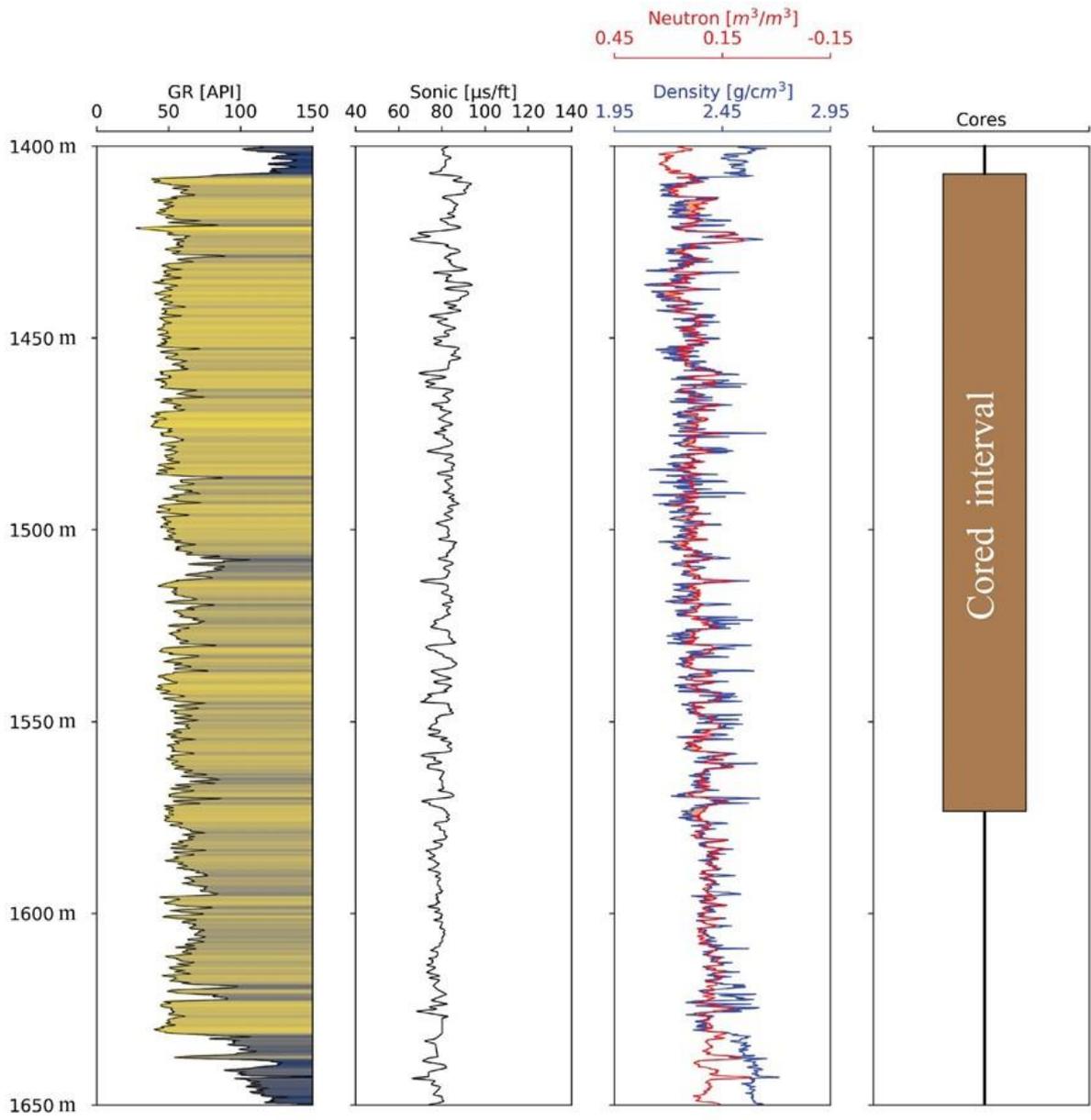
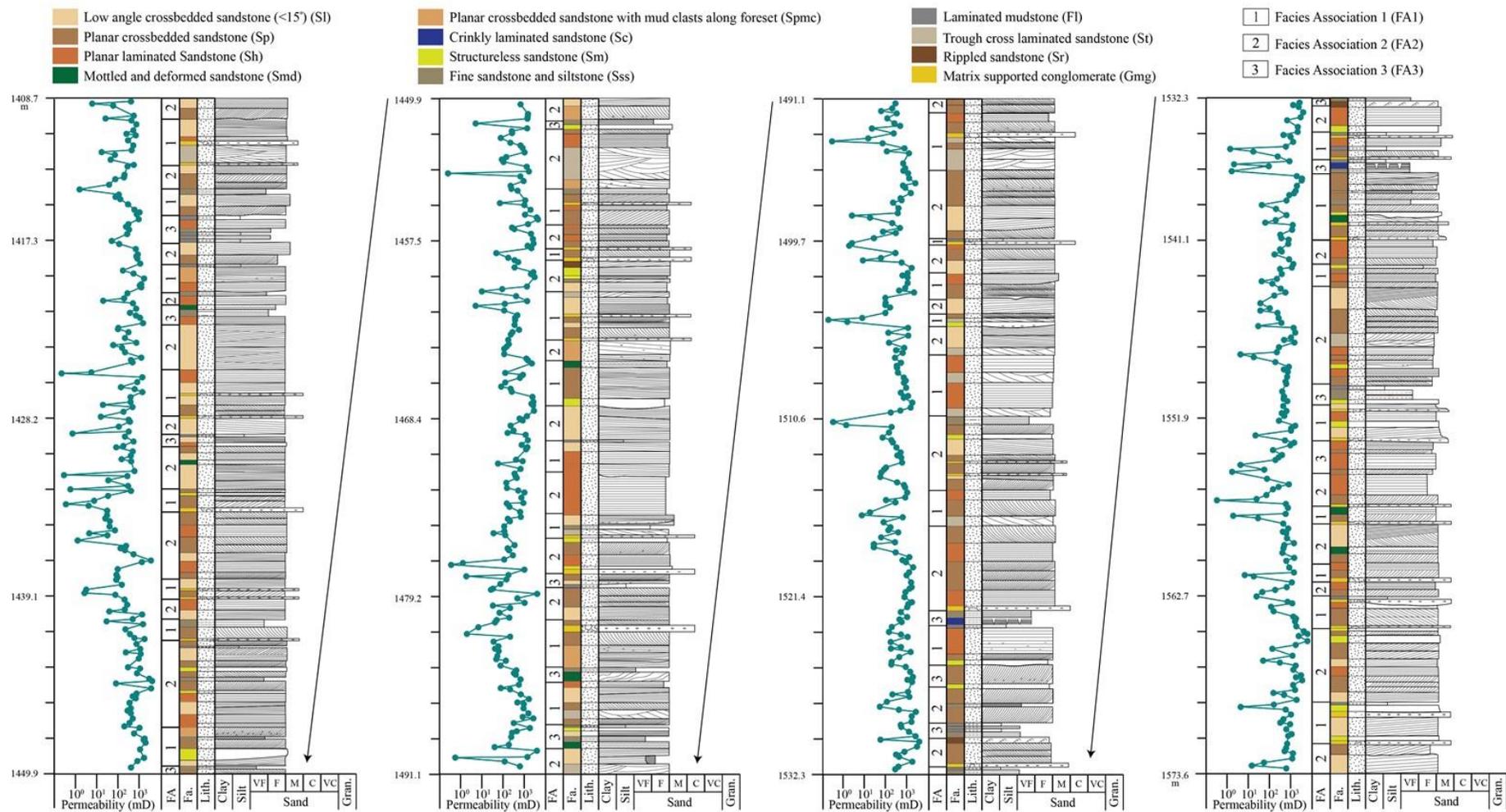


Figure 4: Geophysical logs of well 42/25d-3 and the cored interval (c. 163 m).



1

2 Figure 5: Sedimentological log through core in well 42/25d-3, illustrating the vertical stacking of lithofacies to form facies associations and the corresponding core plug
 3 permeability.

4 4.2 Facies associations

5

6 Lithofacies recording depositional processes recur in associations that characterise
7 depositional environments. Facies associations are integrated with outcrop observations to
8 constrain the dimensions and geometry of architectural elements. Three facies association
9 have been identified, as summarized below.

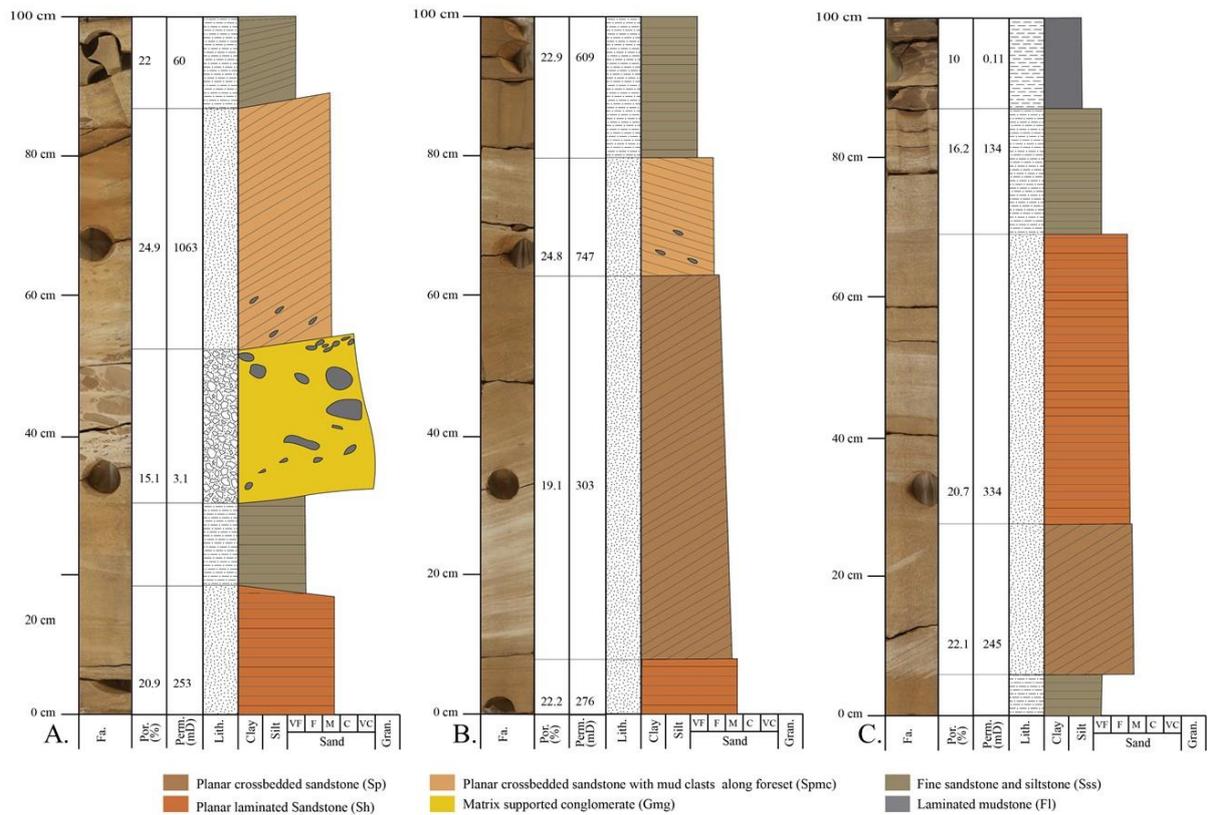
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11 4.2.1 FA1: Channel-fill deposits

12 **Description:** Facies Association 1 consists of the following lithofacies arranged in units 2-3
13 m thick: matrix-supported conglomerate (Gmg), planar cross-bedded sandstone (Sp), planar
14 cross-bedded sandstone with mudclasts (Spmc), parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh),
15 interbedded sandstone and siltstone (Sss), crinkly laminated sandstone (Sc) and laminated
16 mudstone (Fl) (Fig. 6). In an idealized vertical succession through the facies association,
17 matrix-supported conglomerate (Gmg) at the base is overlain by planar cross-bedded
18 sandstone (Sp, Spmc) in which cross-set thickness and mudclast abundance decrease
19 upwards, and then parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh) and the unit is capped by interbedded
20 sandstone and siltstone (Sss) and laminated mudstone (Fl). A decrease in grain size is also
21 observed from base to top of this idealized succession. The basal conglomerate unit is not
22 present in the all units of the facies association. In some units, crinkly laminated sandstone
23 (Sc) caps successions of the facies association. At outcrop, this facies association has a
24 channelized or lenticular geometry and have a facies association consisting of matrix-
25 supported conglomerate (Gmg), trough cross-bedded sandstone (St), planar cross-bedded
26 sandstone with mudclasts (Spmc), and structureless sandstone (Sm) (Fig. 6). Units of the
27 facies association show a crude fining-upward trend and are typically 2-4m thick and can be
28 traced laterally for up to 25m. Palaeocurrent data measured from the cross beds in the Styrrup
29 Quarry outcrops have an azimuth of 162°.

30 **Interpretation:** Facies Association 1 is interpreted to represent channel-fill deposits
31 (Gibling, 2006). Basal conglomerate (Gmg) is associated with the initial channel scouring
32 and overlying cross-bedded sandstone (Sp, Spmc) represents migration of dunes within the
33 channel. The upward thinning of cross-beds represents an upward decrease in dune height
34 due to shallowing of water depth. Where cross-bedded sandstone (Sp, Spmc) is overlain by
35 parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh), this transition records a shift from lower to upper flow

36 regime conditions. Interbedded sandstones and siltstones (Sss) and laminated mudstone (Fl)
 37 at top of this association formed during the falling stage and cessation of flow in the channel,
 38 while crinkly laminated sandstone (Sc) may have formed when wind blew over the wet
 39 surface of the partially infilled channel (Porada et al., 2008). Mudclasts in this association
 40 were not transported a long distance, as indicated by their relatively large size and
 41 subrounded-to-angular shape, and may have been eroded from fine-grained overbank
 42 deposits. Palaeocurrents in the Styrrup Quarry outcrops are parallel to the regional flow
 43 direction of Sherwood Sandstone palaeo-rivers (Wakefield et al., 2015).

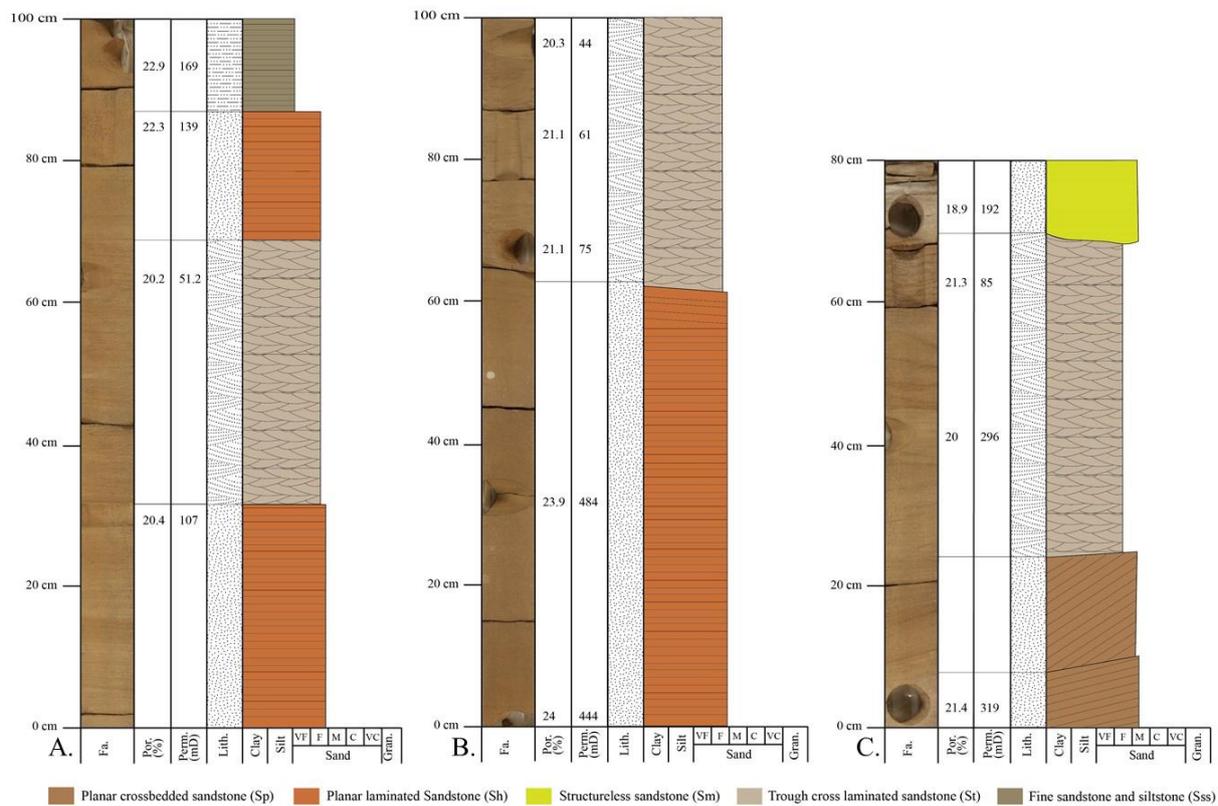


44
 45 Figure 6: Core photos and sedimentological logs through core in well 42/25d-3 with core plug porosity and
 46 permeability, illustrating channel-fill deposits (Facies Association 1). The core photos are from the following
 47 depths: A) 1478.3-1479.3 m; B) 1514.8-1515.8 m; and C) 1570.6-1571.6 m.

48 4.2.2 FA2: Lateral- and downstream-accreting bars

49 **Description:** Facies Association 2 consists of the following lithofacies arranged in units 1-4
 50 m thick: low-angle cross-bedded sandstone (Sl), planar cross bedded sandstone (Sp), trough
 51 cross-laminated sandstone (St), parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh), and laminated mudstone
 52 (Fl) (Fig. 7). An idealized succession through the facies association consists of low-angle
 53 cross-bedded sandstone (Sl) at the base overlain successively by planar cross bedded

54 sandstone (Sp), trough cross laminated sandstone (St1), parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh) and
 55 laminated mudstone (Fl) towards the top. This idealized succession is rare. Instead,
 56 alternating layers of parallel-laminated sandstone and trough cross-laminated sandstone (St1)
 57 are the most abundant lithofacies successions. The lack of dipmeter data makes it difficult to
 58 estimate paleocurrent directions. However, similar facies associations have been identified at
 59 outcrop. The cross-bedded facies (Sp, Spmc, St, Sl) constitute more than 80% of the
 60 association, while the rest is usually made up of Sh, Sr and Sss. Units of the facies association
 61 have a lensoidal shape and the upper surface is convex down in some examples (Fig. 9). The
 62 thickness of this association in the outcrop ranges from 2-4.5 m. Palaeocurrent data measured
 63 from the cross beds in the outcrop show two dominant directions which are 351° and 173°
 64 (Wakefield et al., 2015).



65
 66 Figure 7: Core photos and sedimentological logs through core in well 42/25d-3 with core plug porosity and
 67 permeability, illustrating lateral- and downstream-accreting bar deposits (facies association 2). The core photos
 68 are from the following depths: A) 1511.2-1512.2 m; B) 1509.3-1510.3 m; and C) 1565.1-1566.1 m.

69 **Interpretation:** Facies Association 2 is interpreted to represent lateral- and downstream-
 70 accreted bars (Miall, 1977; Ghazi & Mountney, 2009; Grenfell, 2012). Association
 71 dominated by low-angle cross-bedded sandstone (Sl) is common in ephemeral stream
 72 deposits, and is typically associated with the lateral migration (Picard & High, 1973).

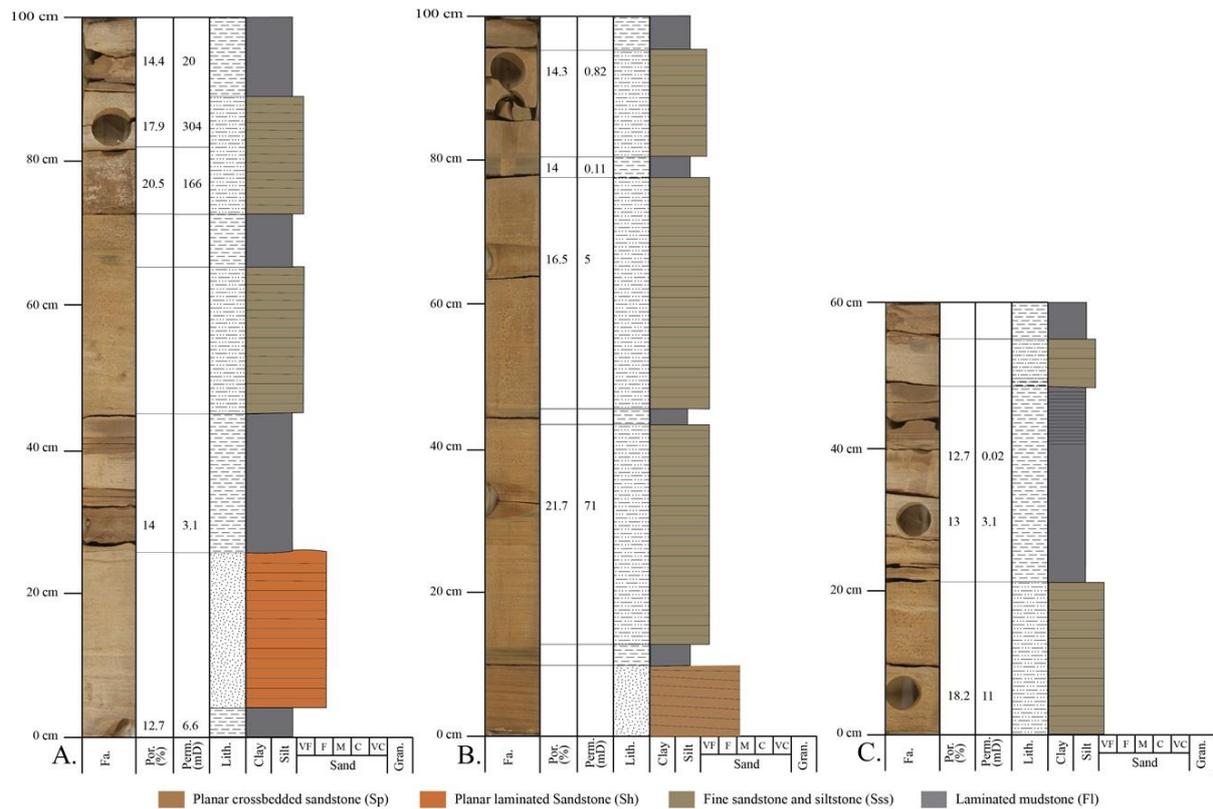
73 Inclined bedding in the Sl dominated intervals show a direction perpendicular to
74 palaeocurrent directions, supporting the interpretation of lateral bar accretion. Inclined
75 bedding in other intervals is parallel to palaeocurrent directions, indicating downstream bar
76 accretion. The presence of parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh) on top of cross-bedded
77 sandstone (Sl, St1) indicates a change from lower to upper flow regime, possibly due to
78 decrease in water depth. The convex down shape of the bounding cosets of cross-beds
79 preserves bar geometry.

80 4.2.3 FA3: Overbank deposits

81 **Description:** Facies association 3 consists of the following lithofacies arranged in units 0.2-
82 1.8 m thick: parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh), interbedded sandstone and siltstone (Sss) and
83 laminated mudstone (Fl). Cross-bedded sandstones (St1, Sr) also occur as minor constituents
84 (Fig. 8). This facies association differs from the others in that erosional surfaces are absent.
85 Contacts between the facies are gradational. The most common facies in this association are
86 interbedded sandstone and siltstone (Sss) and mudstone (Fl).

87 **Interpretation:** The prevalence of parallel-laminated sandstone (Sh), interbedded sandstone
88 and siltstone (Sss) and laminated mudstone (Fl) is suggestive of deposition on a sandy
89 floodplain (Fisher et al., 2007; Lewin & Ashworth, 2014) while the absence of matrix-
90 supported conglomerate (Gmg) implies the absence of channelised flow. Parallel-laminated
91 sandstone units (Sh) are interpreted as proximal floodplain deposits that formed during non-
92 channelized flows during flood events. Cross-laminated sandstone and rippled sandstone are
93 interpreted as intermediate floodplain deposits, while interbedded sandstone and siltstone
94 (Sss) and laminated mudstone (Fl) are interpreted as distal floodplain deposits.

95



96

97 Figure 8: Core photos and sedimentological logs through core in well 42/25d-3 with core plug porosity and
 98 permeability, illustrating overbank deposits (facies association 3). The core photos are from the following
 99 depths: A) 1542.3-1543.3 m; B) 1518.5-1519.5 m; and C) 1548.7-1549.7 m.

100 4.3 Architectural element analysis

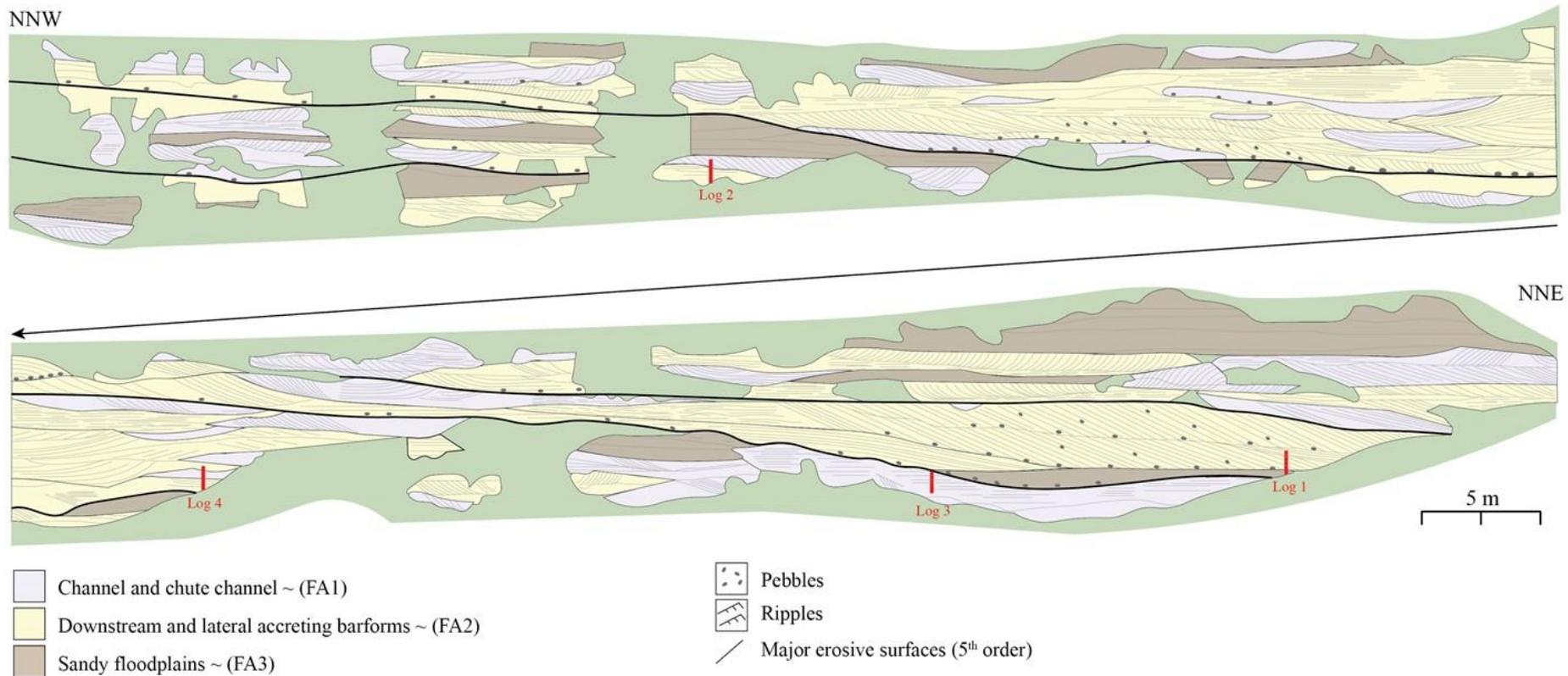
101 Five types of architectural elements were documented in the Styrrup Quarry outcrop by
 102 (Wakefield et al., 2015), based on their lithofacies composition, the geometry and character
 103 of their bounding surfaces, and their paleocurrent orientations (Table 2). Similar architectural
 104 elements have been documented in studies of the Sherwood Sandstone Group and Bunter
 105 Sandstone Formation in other outcrops (e.g., (Medici et al., 2015)). Figure 8 shows a
 106 modification of the architectural panel constructed by (Wakefield et al., 2015) that has been
 107 adapted to match the lithofacies scheme summarised in Table 1. Architectural elements
 108 documented at outcrop are compared to facies associations with similar constituent facies in
 109 core. Several architectural elements could not be differentiated in core (e.g., lateral- and
 110 downstream-accretion elements), and are thus grouped together. The five architectural
 111 elements identified by Wakefield et. al. (2015) have been regrouped into three architectural
 112 elements to match the facies associations identified in the cores (Fig. 9). Detailed measured
 113 sections through selected facies are shown in Figure 9.

114 Architectural elements are showing the lateral extent of the facies associations and the
 115 geometry. The geometry of the identified architectural elements and their constituent facies
 116 are shown in table 2. Four small (c.1m) measured sections were taken in the Styrrup Quarry
 117 to show the heterogeneities within and across facies.

118 Table 2: Descriptions and interpretations of architectural elements at outcrop (after Wakefield et al., 2015).

Architectural elements in outcrops (Wakefield et al., 2015)	Facies association in cores (this study)	Constituent lithofacies (this study)	Geometry
Channel	Facies association 1	Gmg, Sp, SPMC, Sh, SSS, Sc, Fl	concave up (channelised)
Chute channel	Facies association 1	Gmg, Sp, SPMC, Sh, SSS, Sc, Fl	concave up (channelised)
Downstream accreting barforms	Facies association 2	Gmg, Sl, St, Sh, Fl	Lensoidal
Lateral accreting barforms	Facies association 2	Gmg, Sl, St, Sh, Fl	Lensoidal
Sandy floodplains	Facies association 3	Sh, SSS, Fl	Sheetlike

119

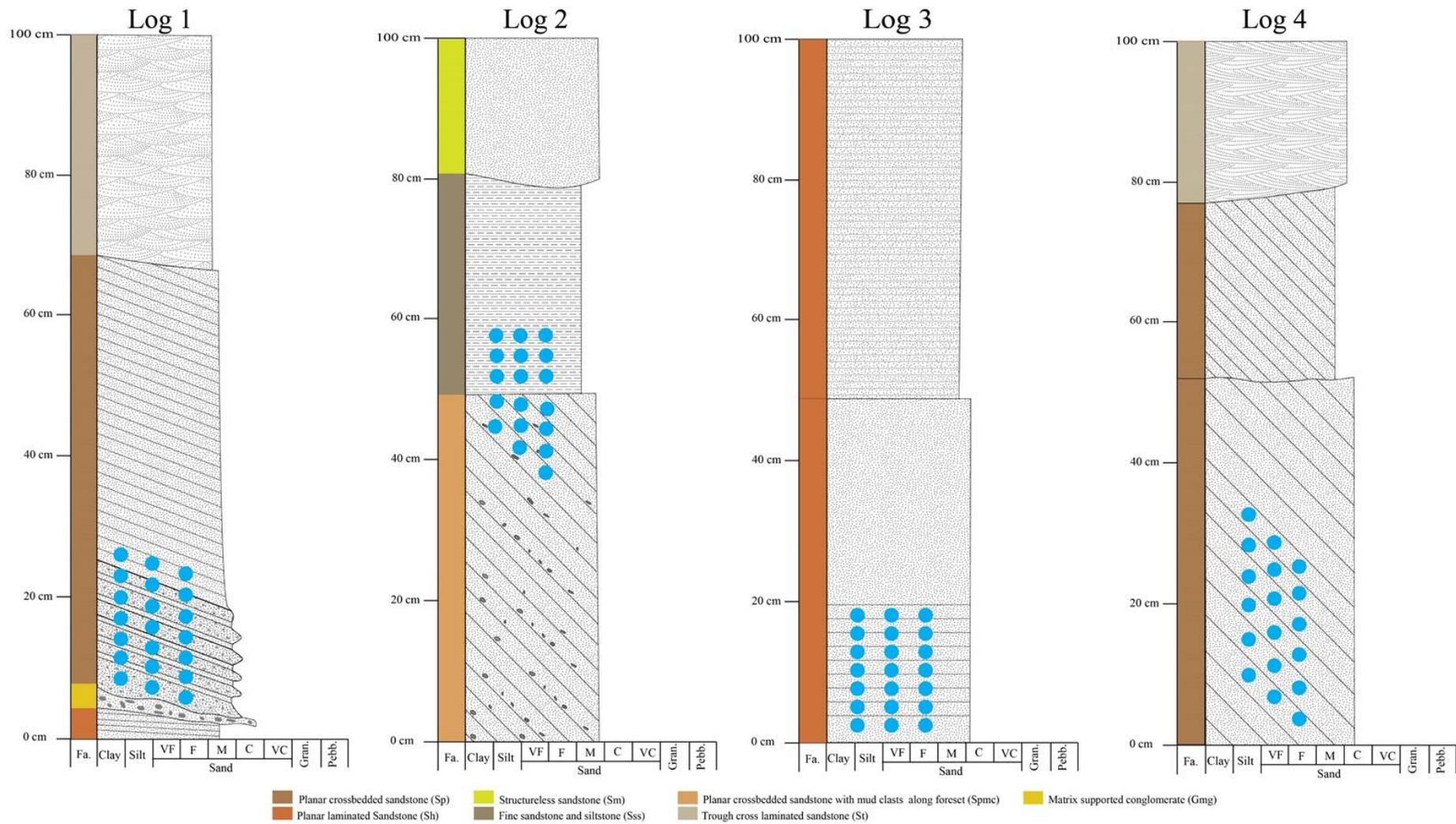


120

121 Figure 9: Architectural element panel for quarry face (represented by green color) in Styrrup Quarry (based on the original drawing published in Wakefield et al., 2015).

122 Detailed sedimentary logs 1-4 that characterise lithofacies and facies associations are located. The bottom panel continues laterally from the top.

123



124

125 Figure 10: Small (c.1m) measured sections (Fig.9) in Styrrup Quarry showing lithological variation within individual facies and across facies boundaries. Blue circles show
 126 the points from where permeability measurements were taken.

127 4.4 Permeability distribution and variability

128

129 4.4.1 Core plug permeability

130

131 Permeability and porosity measurements from core plugs were previously conducted on
132 samples obtained from the Endurance well 42/25d-3 at 1-foot (0.30-m) intervals
133 (Weatherford, 2015). These values were then assigned to the interpreted lithofacies in the
134 core log of the same well (Figs. 5-8). Crossplots of permeability versus helium porosity for
135 lithofacies in each facies association are shown in Figure 11). At core plug scale, facies
136 associations 1 and 2 have higher permeability than facies association 3. In comparison to
137 facies association 1, facies association 2 has a more clearly defined cluster of high
138 permeability facies and a smaller spread of data than facies association 1. Among the facies
139 within these associations, planar and low angle cross-bedded sandstones (Sp, Sl) have
140 relatively higher permeability than the trough cross-bedded sandstones (St) and planar cross-
141 bedded sandstones with mudclasts along foresets (Spmc) (Fig. 11A, B). Structureless
142 sandstones (Sm) have higher porosity and permeability than planar bedded sandstones (Sh)
143 (Fig. 11A, B). Mottled and deformed sandstones (Smd) and crinkly laminated sandstones
144 (Sc) have a wide range of porosity and permeability, reflecting the mixture of sandstone and
145 mudstone that these facies contain (Fig. 11C). Mudstones (Fl) and matrix-supported
146 conglomerates (Gmg) are the facies with lowest permeability (Fig. 11C).

147

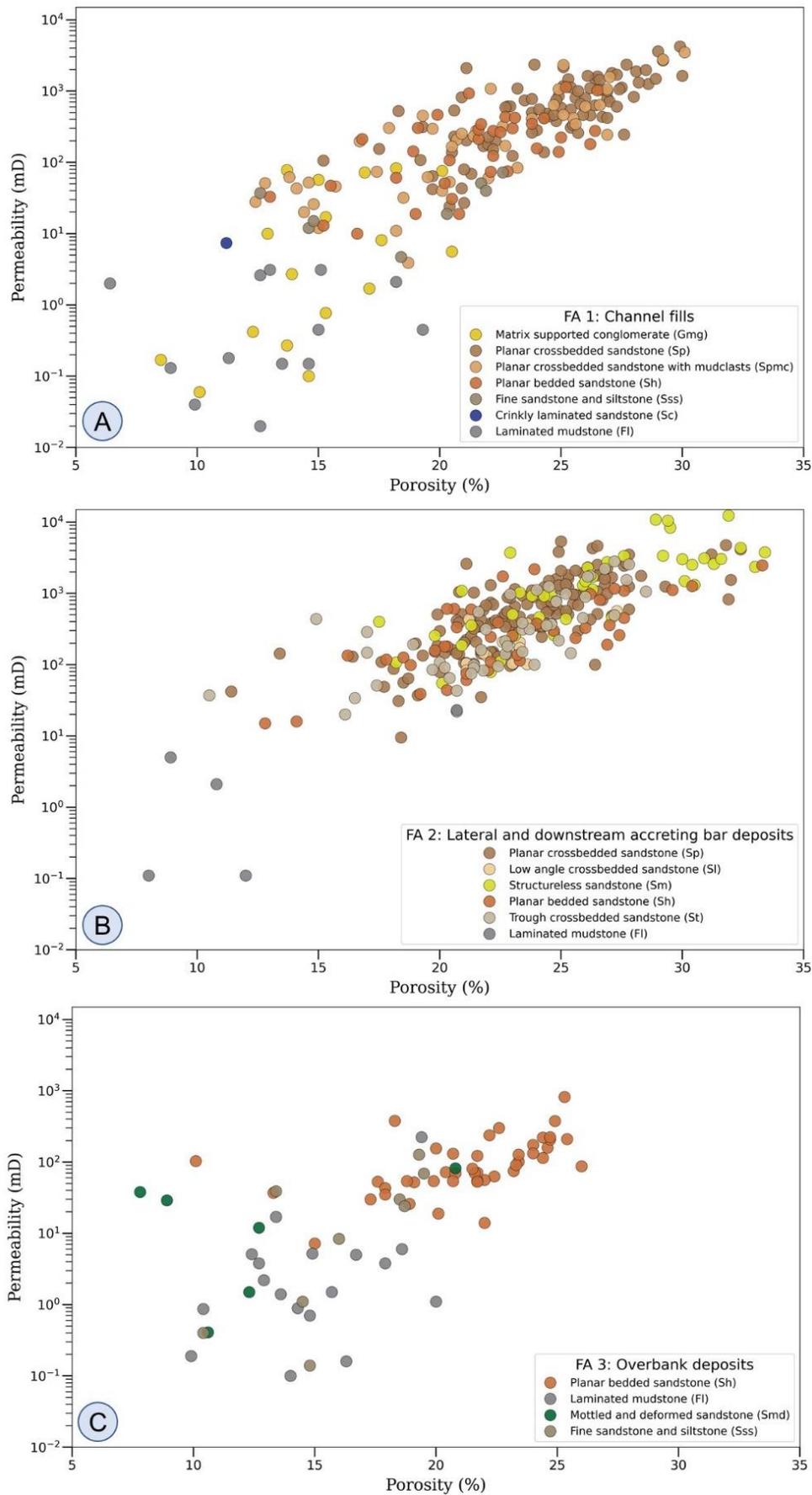
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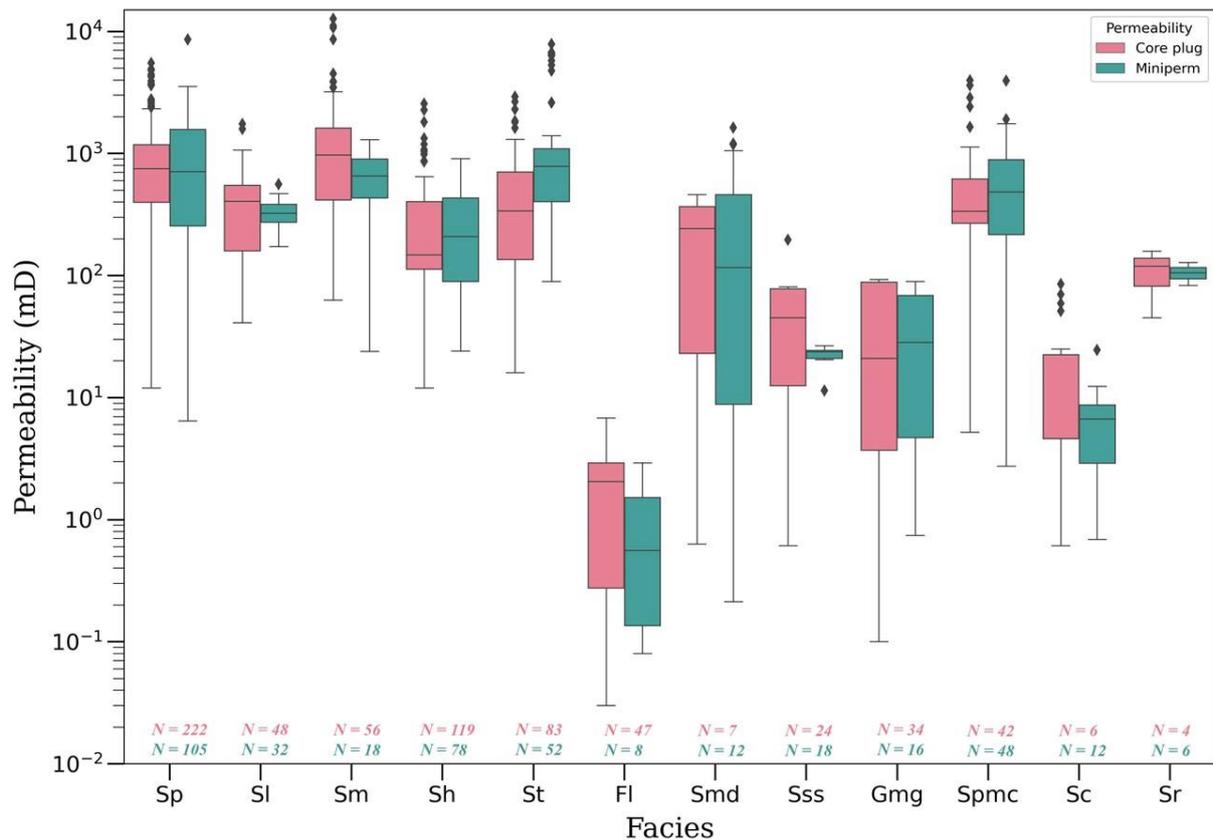
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153 Figure 11: Core plug porosity and permeability distributions of different facies in three facies associations. A)
 154 FA1, channel-fill deposits; B) FA2, lateral- and downstream-accreting bars; and C) FA3, overbank deposits.

155 4.4.2 Minipermeameter data
 156

157 In the studied facies, core plug permeability data have an overall range of 0.02-12400 mD
 158 with a Q1 and Q3 value of 71 mD and 756 mD, respectively (Fig. 12). Corresponding
 159 permeability values for minipermeameter data range from 0.93-3930 mD with Q1 and Q3
 160 values 109 mD and 748 mD respectively (Fig. 12). Permeability measurements from these
 161 two sources are therefore in relatively close agreement.



162

163 Figure 12: Box plot showing the range of permeability values for different facies from core plug and probe
 164 permeability measurements in well 42/25d-3. The number of measurements is also shown in the plot.

165 Among the core facies, structureless sandstones (Sm) and cross-bedded sandstones (Sp,
 166 Spmc, St) have high median permeability values. Permeability in facies Sp ranges from 9.5-
 167 5350 mD (median of 826 mD) in the core plugs and 23-2230 mD (median of 701 mD) in the
 168 minipermeameter measurements. Permeability in facies St and Sl ranges from 13-2810 mD
 169 and 35-1670 mD in the core plugs and the minipermeameter measurements range from 12-
 170 1780 mD and 124-1570 mD, respectively. Median permeability values of these facies are 427
 171 mD and 482 mD in core plugs, and 411 mD and 560 mD in the minipermeameter
 172 measurements, respectively.

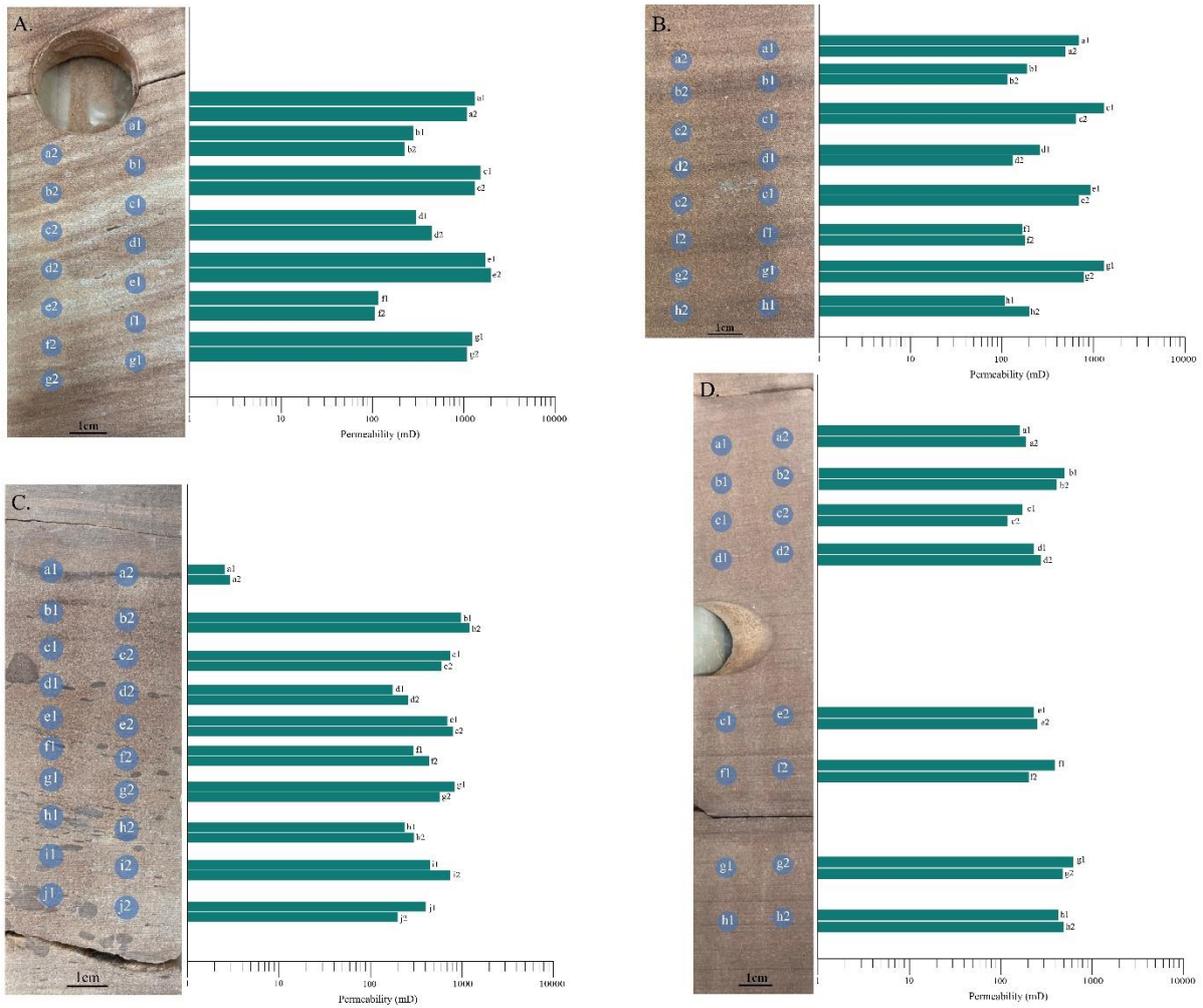
173 Planar cross-bedded sandstones with mudclasts along foresets (Spmc) exhibit a relatively
174 larger range of permeability values than other cross-bedded sandstones (Sp, St). Permeability
175 values of the former facies range from 4-3850 mD and 114-3930 mD in core plug and
176 minipermeameter data, respectively with median value of 566 mD. Parallel laminated
177 sandstone (Sh) has lower permeability than the cross bedded and structureless sandstones,
178 with median Values of 292 mD in core plugs and 398 mD in minipermeameter
179 measurements. Fine sandstone and siltstone (Sss) has a median permeability of 24 mD.
180 Mottled and deformed sandstone facies (Smd) and crinkly laminated sandstone (Sc) show
181 variable permeability due to the presence of muddy layers and the sand filled desiccation
182 cracks. Matrix supported conglomerate (Gmg) and laminated mudstone (Fl) have the lowest
183 median permeability values, of 1.6 mD and 0.65 mD, respectively. For all lithofacies, there is
184 good agreement between minipermeameter and core plug permeability. Minipermeameter data of the
185 same facies were also collected at the Styrrup Quarry. Similar variations were observed but
186 the absolute values are higher (McKinley et al., 2011; McKinley et al., 2013) due to the
187 friable nature of the rocks, hence they were not reported in this paper.

188 4.5 Facies heterogeneity and its influence on permeability

189

190 Along with the variation between facies, permeability variations within each facies has also
191 been observed.

192

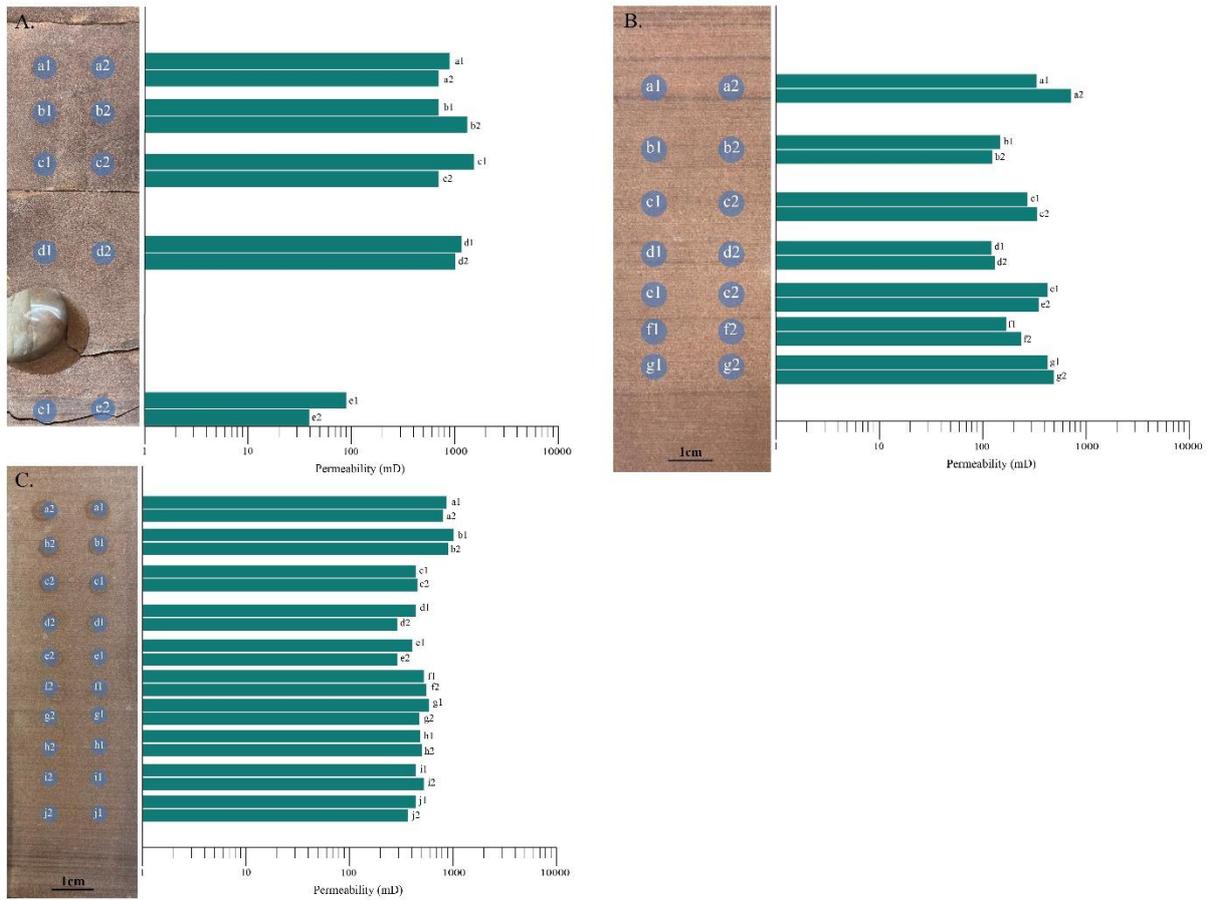


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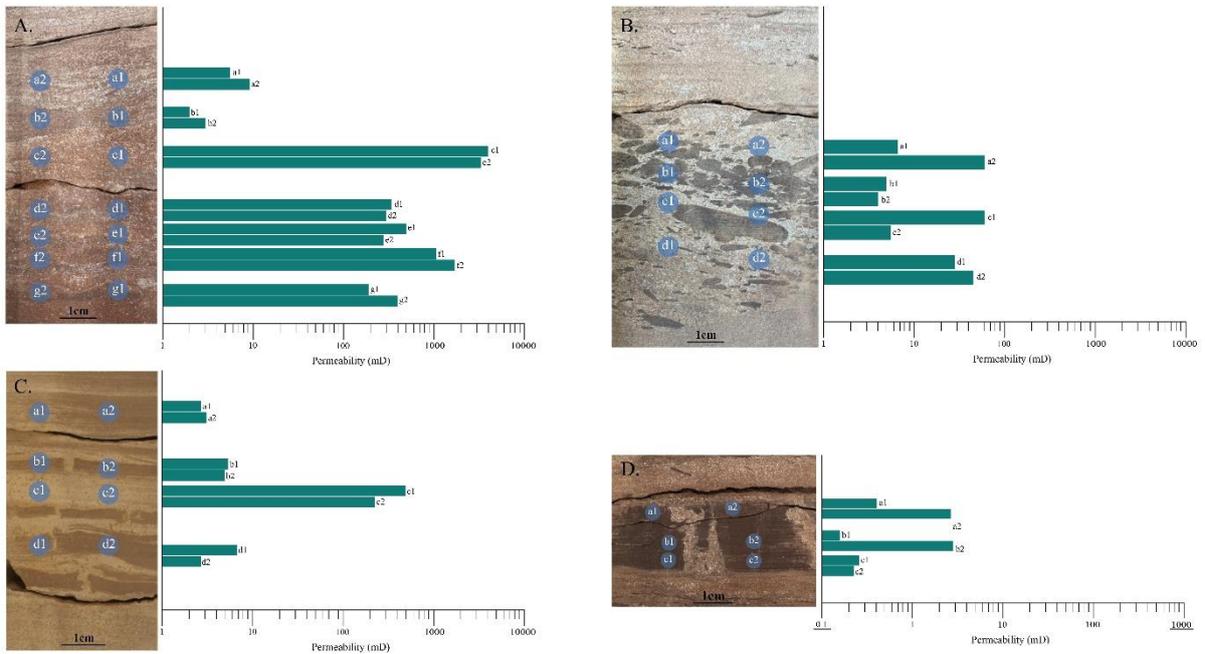
194 Figure 13: Lamina-scale permeability variations in cross-bedded sandstone facies: A) Sp; B) St; C) Spmc; and
 195 D) Sl.

196 In the cross-bedded sandstone facies, lamina-scale variations in permeability reflect
 197 alternating clay-rich and clay-poor laminae. Permeability varies between these laminae types
 198 by a factor of 5 in facies Sp and St, with clay-poor and clay-rich laminae exhibiting
 199 permeability values of c. 1000 mD and c. 200 mD, respectively (Fig. 13A, B). Permeability
 200 values vary by a factor of 4 in facies Spmc, with low values associated with mudclasts (Fig.
 201 13C). Parallel laminated sandstones (Sh) also show internal variations in permeability
 202 between clay-rich (c. 200 mD) and clay-poor (c. 1000 mD) laminae (Fig. 14).

203

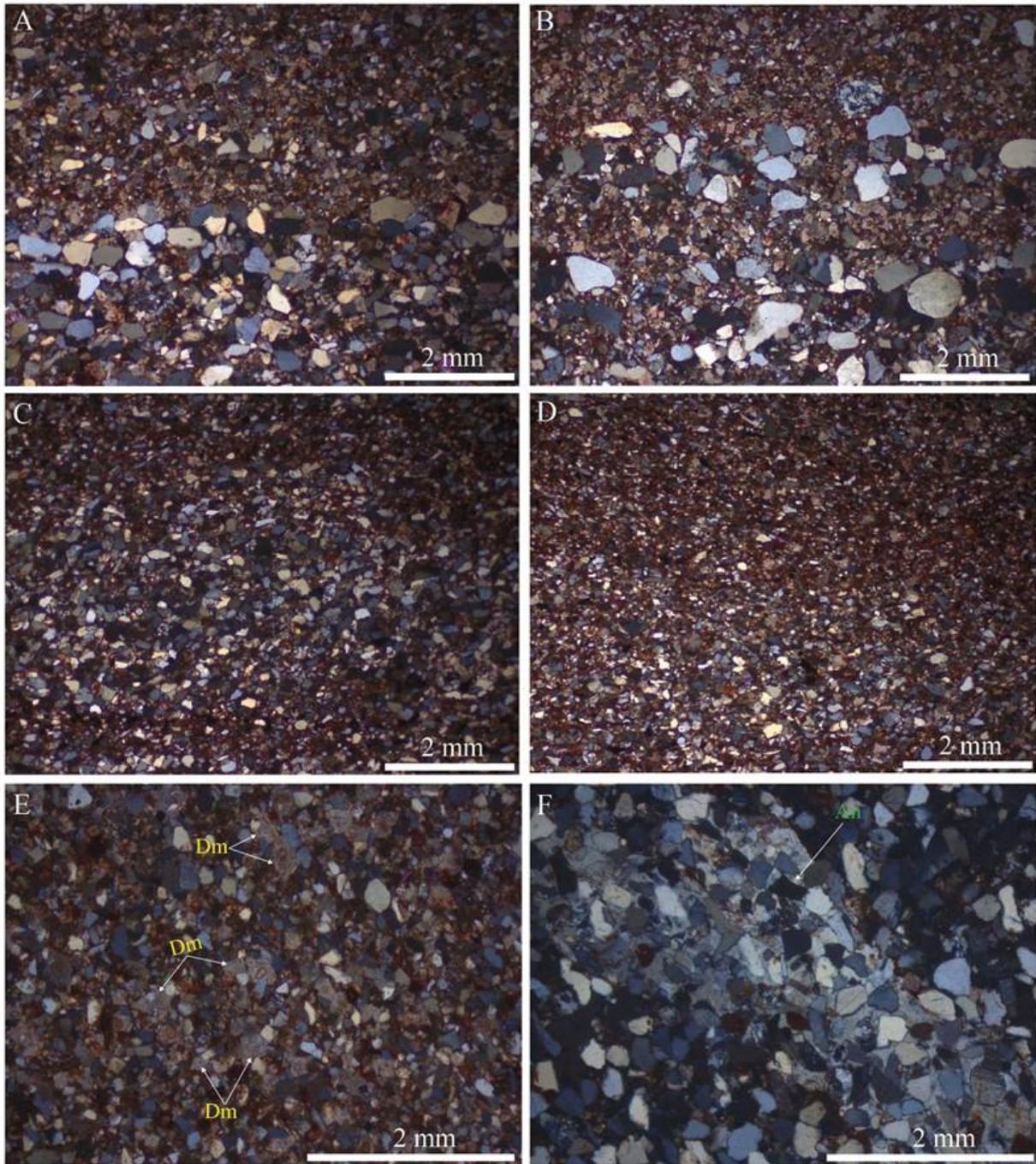


204 Figure 14: Lamina-scale permeability variations in sandstone facies that are not cross-bedded: A) Sm; B) Sh;
 205 and C) Sss.



206
 207 Figure 15: Lamina-scale permeability variations in conglomeratic and heterolithic sandstone facies: A) Sc; B)
 208 Gmg; C) Smd; and D) Fl. The permeability scale for facies Fl is different to that for other facies.

209 The sand filled desiccation cracks in Smd show higher permeability than the host muddy
210 lithologies. Permeability of this facies range from as low as 2.8 mD in the muds to 48 mD in
211 the sand. Matrix supported conglomerates (Gmg) also show variations of up to a factor of 4
212 (Fig.15), but the overall permeability of this facies and the mudstones are low. Permeability
213 in the Gmg and Fl ranges from 0.79 -89 and 0.18-2.92 mD respectively.



214

215 Figure 16: Photomicrographs showing alternating fine and medium grained laminae in: A, B) facies Sp; C)
216 facies Sh; and D) St. Presence of: E) dolomite; and F) anhydrite cements was observed in facies Sp, St, and Sh.

217

218 Thin sections show that grain sizes are not uniform between sandstone facies. Cross-bedded
219 and structureless sandstone facies (Sp, Spmc, St, Sl, and Sm) (Fig. 16A, 16B) are coarser
220 grained than planar-bedded sandstones (Sh) (Fig. 16C). It is also evident that clay-rich
221 laminae are finer-grained than clay-poor laminae in cross-bedded sandstone facies (Fig.
222 16A). The coarser grains are medium sand and the finer fraction are fine sand with clay
223 minerals. Toeset laminae in the trough cross-bedded sandstone are finer grained than foreset
224 laminae (Fig. 16D). In facies Sp, St, Spmc, coarser grains are surrounded by finer-grained
225 matrix or dolomite cement (Fig. 16E, 16F). All of these lamina-scale and grain-scale
226 heterogeneities are interpreted to contribute to permeability variations within facies (Payton
227 et al., 2022).

228 5 Discussion

229

230 In the studied cores and outcrops, thirteen lithofacies are identified in the Bunter Sandstone
231 Formation, typical of fluvial deposits. In the East Irish Sea basin aeolian facies have been
232 reported in the Bunter Sandstone Formation and the equivalent formations (Cowan, 1993).
233 But in the endurance field aeolian facies are missing. The most abundant of them are the
234 facies that form accreting bar deposits (Medici et al., 2015).

235 Analysis of Bunter Sandstone Formation cores and outcrop analogue indicates that
236 heterogeneities occur at multiple scales. The smallest scale heterogeneities observed in thin
237 section, core and outcrop are laminae (e.g., alternating clay-poor and clay-rich foreset
238 laminae in cross-bed sets). The thickness of the foreset laminae ranges from 1-1.5 cm. The
239 next scale (10's cm – 1's m) of heterogeneity corresponds to sedimentary structures that
240 define the internal architecture of lithofacies in core and outcrop. The stacking of lithofacies
241 to form facies associations and architectural elements describes the third scale (1's to 100's
242 m) of heterogeneity considered in this study (Fig. 9). Architectural elements correspond to
243 units of a particular facies association, and can be distinguished at outcrop, where 2D and 3D
244 geometrical relationships can be observed (e.g., at Styrrup Quarry), but not in 1D core. Facies
245 associations provide a link between core and outcrop datasets in this context. The spatial
246 distribution and interfingering of facies associations at this scale may control the distribution
247 of high permeability sandstones.

248 Permeability variations in core plugs and minipermeameter measurements from core and
249 outcrop occur over 3 orders of magnitude (Figs. 11-12), while permeability variations within

250 facies are generally more subdued to less than 1 order of magnitude, (Figs. 13-15) but can
251 reach 2 orders of magnitude, e.g., in facies Sp (Fig. 13A). These variations are controlled by
252 the grain size and cement distribution. Permeability variations within facies also tend to occur
253 along horizontal laminae (Sh) or along inclined foreset laminae in cross-bed sets (Sp, St,
254 Spmc, and Sl). These lamina-scale permeability variations are likely to control the ratio of
255 vertical to horizontal permeability, one of the main parameters that control residual saturation
256 and fluid distributions in the subsurface (England et al., 1987; Dekker & Abriola, 2000), and
257 may contribute to gravitational, capillary, and dissolution trapping (Dai et al., 2019).

258 5.1 Implications for trapping of CO₂

259

260 Numerical simulation studies show that fluid flow in homogeneous reservoirs is mainly
261 controlled by buoyancy (Krishnamurthy et al., 2022). However, flow is dispersed by
262 heterogeneity, which may enhance CO₂ trapping. CO₂ may thus occupy a larger pore volume
263 in heterogeneous reservoirs, which will also reduce the column height of the buoyant CO₂
264 and decrease the chance of top-seal failure. Core flooding experiments show that
265 heterogeneities can increase residual trapping by 3-5 times as a result of these mechanisms
266 (Krevor et al., 2011). Krishnamurthy et al. (2017) showed that capillary pressure contrasts
267 due to cm- to -m scale heterogeneities can affect the flow path of CO₂ and contribute to
268 trapping capacity. Different sedimentary structures have different trapping potential owing to
269 the geometry and lateral continuity of their internal laminae and beds. Cross-bedded facies
270 are inherently more heterogeneous than their planar bedded counterparts due to their more
271 complex stratification styles (Mishra & Haese, 2020). Topset and bottomset laminae in cross-
272 bedded units are often less permeable than foreset laminae, consistent with our observations
273 of the Bunter Sandstone Formation, and may therefore baffle CO₂ migration and disperse the
274 CO₂ plume. Hollinsworth et al., (2024) identified and correlated laterally extensive mudstone
275 layers and halite-cemented intervals in the Bunter Sandstone Formation, forming baffles that
276 may help CO₂ to disperse laterally and increase residual trapping (Baz et al., 2016; Mishra &
277 Haese, 2018).

278 5.2 Applicability at storage-unit and storage-complex scale

279

280 The findings of this study clearly show that sedimentological heterogeneity at lamina- to
281 facies-scales causes significant variations in permeability. However, the effects of such
282 heterogeneity are commonly omitted from numerical models built to estimate the total

283 storage capacity and storage efficiency of CO₂ (Heinemann et al., 2012; Noy et al., 2012;
284 Williams et al., 2013; Agada et al., 2017). Robust assessment of the effects of lamina- to
285 facies-scales heterogeneity will require multiscale modelling (Aarnes et al., 2007; Ringrose et
286 al., 2008; Nordahl et al., 2014; Milad et al., 2020). The first step in this approach will be to
287 build small scale 3D models in order to derive effective properties that can be implemented in
288 larger scale models, with models constructed at a hierarchy of scales that reflect the 3D
289 organization of sedimentological heterogeneity.

290 6 Conclusions

291

292 This study investigated permeability variations in the Bunter Sandstone in relation to
293 sedimentological heterogeneity through core and outcrop analysis, permeability
294 measurements, and thin section analysis. A total of 13 lithofacies were identified with 12 of
295 them present in the cores and 8 in the outcrop. There are three distinct facies associations
296 identified in the cores, which are correlated with architectural elements identified in the
297 outcrop of Bunter Sandstone Formation in Styrrup Quarry. Five architectural elements
298 previously reported in the literature have been regrouped into three to match the core facies
299 associations. Measurements of permeability in cores using a minipermeameter and from core
300 plugs show variations of the order of three among facies and a factor of five within individual
301 facies. Cross-bedded and structureless sandstone facies (Sp, St, Sl, Sm) have higher
302 permeabilities than planar bedded facies (Sh, Sss) and deformed sandstone facies (Smd).
303 Matrix supported conglomerate (Gmg) and the laminated mudstone (Fl) have the lowest
304 permeability. Due to the presence of alternating clay rich and clay poor laminae and pebbles
305 along the foreset, cross-bedded sandstone facies show higher permeability variations than the
306 others. These variations are related to the variations of lithology and cementation as seen in
307 thin sections.

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