

1           **Petrofacies of Eocene sand injectites of the Tumey Giant**  
2                           **Injection Complex, California (USA)**

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13  
14                           **Abstract**

15       The forearc succession of Great Valley Group in Central California provides some of the  
16       best examples of giant sand injection complexes in the world and is therefore considered  
17       valuable analogues for injectite systems in subsurface. Several sand injection complexes  
18       are well described in the outcrop and subsurface, however the petrographic  
19       characteristics of injectites are still poorly documented. In this paper, we present the  
20       results of an integrated study of field observations, quantitative and qualitative sandstone  
21       petrography, provenance, and petrofacies analysis of the Tumey Giant Injection  
22       Complex (TGIC) in order to understand its lithostratigraphy and petrological evolution,  
23       and its impacts on reservoir petrofacies characteristics and fluid migration. The TGIC  
24       intrudes into a 450 m thick deep-water succession of slope mudrocks and sandy  
25       channel-fills of the Kreyenhagen Shale Eocene), forming an interconnected network of  
26       sandstone sills, dykes and injection breccias. The complex generated a horizontal and  
27       vertical plumbing system for fluid migration, connecting isolated sandy channel-fills

28 among low-permeability mudrocks. The primary detrital composition, diagenetic  
29 products, microtextures, and provenance signatures allowed for the definition and  
30 discrimination of depositional and intrusive petrofacies and their genetic relations.  
31 Petrofacies associations confirm that the gypsum-cemented feldspathic litharenites from  
32 the Kreyenhagen Shale channel-fills are the only source for the injection complex.  
33 Eodiagenetic compaction and extensive gypsum cementation reduced the primary  
34 porosity of the complex, while telodiagenetic dissolution of autigenic constituents formed  
35 pervasive secondary porosity. The underlying calcite-cemented arkosic sandstones of  
36 the Lodo and Domengine formations acted as barriers for fluid flow, aiding lateral fluid  
37 migration and overpressure buildup within the overlying Kreyenhagen channel-fills.  
38 Intense grain microfracturing occurred during sand remobilization and injection along  
39 with erosion of the host mudrocks. This study has significance for the generation of  
40 reliable stratigraphic and petrological models for sand injection complex genesis and  
41 evolution that consequently can help the understanding and exploration of injectite  
42 complexes elsewhere.

43

44 **Keywords:** Sand injection complex; Sandstone petrography; Injectite Provenance;  
45 Reservoir petrofacies; Intragranular microfracturing; Fluid flow

46

## 47 **1. Introduction**

48 Sand injectites form when fluidized sand is ‘forcedly’ emplaced into low-  
49 permeability host strata, creating a network of dikes, sills, pipes, injection breccias  
50 and other irregular intrusions. They are described from many depositional  
51 settings (Jolly and Lonergan, 2002) but are commonly recorded in deep-marine  
52 environments associated with submarine fans and turbiditic successions (Hiscott  
53 1979; Archer 1984; Vigorito et al., 2008; Hurst et al., 2015). In deep-water  
54 settings, sandy channel-fills are sealed by shales and other low-permeable strata,  
55 trapping pressurized fluids during increasing burial and compaction (Cartwright

56 et al., 2007). Eventually, when pore-fluid overpressure inside the channel-fills  
57 reach the lithostatic pressure of the surrounding rocks, hydraulic fractures  
58 propagate into the host strata, triggering sand fluidization and injection, forming  
59 injectites (Jolly and Lonergan, 2002; Vigorito and Hurst, 2010).

60 Sand intrusions have been described for almost 200 years (e.g.,  
61 Murchinson, 1827; Diller, 1890; Newsom, 1903; Hiscott, 1979; Surlyk and Noe-  
62 Nygaard, 2001; Palladino et al., 2018). For most of this time, they were  
63 considered localized geological oddities, without basin-scale influence. However,  
64 this view changed drastically after the recognition of injectites associated with  
65 hydrocarbon reservoirs (Dixon et al., 1995), particularly from their seismic  
66 interpretation (Huuse et al., 2007; Lonergan and Cartwright, 1999; MacLeod et  
67 al., 1999). During the past decades, numerous papers have emerged from the  
68 study of large-scale injectites in the subsurface (e.g., Dixon et al., 1995;  
69 Bergslien, 2002; Duranti and Hurst, 2004; Huuse et al., 2004; Schwab et al.,  
70 2015) and outcrops (e.g., Boehm and Moore, 2002; Schwartz et al., 2003; Surlyk  
71 et al., 2007; Vigorito et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2013; Palladino et al., 2016, 2018;  
72 Zvirtes et al., 2019). In terms of hydrocarbon exploration, large scale injection  
73 complexes (extending hundreds of meters vertically and several kilometres  
74 laterally) form vertical and lateral communication between reservoirs separated  
75 by low permeability sedimentary intervals (Hurst et al., 2003), influencing the  
76 distribution and efficiency of fluid migration, modifying reservoir shape and  
77 distribution, trap and seal properties, and forming excellent pay zones (Hurst and  
78 Cartwright, 2007; Braccini et al., 2008).

79 Studies of well-exposed outcrops of injection complexes (Vigorito et al.,  
80 2008; Scott et al., 2009, 2013) provide reliable geological context for such

81 stratigraphic and petrological studies, and consistent analogues for subsurface  
82 interpretation (Hurst et al., 2015). For this reason, outcrop studies are  
83 fundamental to understand injectite features at sub-seismic and microscopic  
84 scales, serving as analogues for calibration of the subsurface petrofacies and of  
85 the plumbing systems they generate (Huuse et al., 2010).

86         Despite many studies on sediment remobilization and injection, and fluid  
87 flow processes of injectites (Cartwright et al., 2008; Huuse, 2008; Jackson et al.,  
88 2011), their smaller-scale features remain poorly documented and understood  
89 (cf., Duranti and Hurst, 2004; Huuse et al., 2007). Petrographic studies on sand  
90 injection complexes are still scarce and the understanding of the  
91 interrelationships between sediment remobilization and injection, and the post-  
92 injection diagenetic processes, is also at an early stage (e.g., Lonergan and  
93 Cartwright, 1999; Parnell and Kelly, 2003; Davies et al., 2006; Jonk et al., 2005;  
94 Jonk, 2010; Scott et al., 2009; Ravier et al., 2015;). Understanding the distribution  
95 of detrital composition and diagenetic alterations of sandstones and their impact  
96 on reservoir quality is crucial for petroleum exploration and production (Bloch and  
97 Helmold, 1995; De Ros and Goldberg, 2007; Morad et al., 2010). Petrofacies  
98 analysis of injectites is particularly valuable in subsurface interpretation where  
99 differentiation between depositional and injected sandstone may be challenging,  
100 even when excellent quality seismic and core data are available. Therefore, the  
101 characterization of petrofacies of sand injection complexes is fundamental in  
102 order to evaluate their reservoir characteristics ~~and their~~ and their effects on fluid  
103 flow.

104         This study focuses on field investigations and petrographic analysis of the  
105 Tumey Giant Injection Complex (TGIC) in the Eocene succession of the San

106 Joaquin Basin (California, USA) (**Fig. 1**). The scarce previous works about the  
107 TGIC were focused on the outcrop features and external geometry (Huuse et al.,  
108 2007; Palladino et al., 2016, 2018) and recently on detailed lithostratigraphic  
109 mapping and structural analysis by Zvirtes et al. (2019). Here, we study the  
110 processes of sand remobilization and injection of the TGIC at meso- and micro-  
111 scales by detailed field and petrographic analysis, allowing the definition of the  
112 lithostratigraphic organization of the complex along with the description of primary  
113 composition, textures, diagenetic processes, provenance signatures, and  
114 petrofacies characteristics. The present study demonstrates the utility of the  
115 petrofacies concept to sand injection complexes and its aid for the definition of  
116 the petrogenetic relationships between intrusive sandstones and parent units,  
117 their characteristics in terms of reservoir petrofacies, and their impact on fluid  
118 flow.

## 119 **2. Geological context**

### 120 **2.1. Tectonic setting**

121 The TGIC crops out discontinuously along the western flank of the San  
122 Joaquin Basin, as part of the Great Valley Group (GVG), in Central California  
123 (Fig. 1). The GVG was deposited within a N-S elongate forearc basin system  
124 formed following the Nevadan orogeny in the Late Jurassic (Dickinson and Seely,  
125 1979; Dickinson, 1981; Constenius et al., 2000). Throughout the Cretaceous and  
126 Paleogene, the eastward subduction of the oceanic Farallon plate beneath the  
127 continental North American plate (Atwater, 1970; Atwater and Stock, 1998), gave  
128 rise to the Franciscan-Great Valley-Sierra Nevada arc-trench system (Ingersoll,  
129 1983) (Fig. 1A,B).

130 By the Late Cretaceous, the onset of the Laramide orogeny took place,  
131 due to the decreasing dip of the subducting slab, promoting eastward migration  
132 of the arc magmatism (Fig. 1B). This orogenic phase is considered to be  
133 responsible for the regional uplift of the GVG (Moxon and Graham, 1987).  
134 Subduction terminated by the late Paleogene and Neogene, by the northward  
135 movement of the Mendocino triple junction (Atwater, 1970) which shifted to the  
136 current transform margin of the western USA. The study area is part of the  
137 deformed western margin of the San Joaquin Basin, where the Cenozoic  
138 sequence was uplifted and exposed during Neogene contractional and strike-slip  
139 tectonics which developed the San Andreas Fault system (Atwater, 1970). This  
140 regime formed extensive arrays of NW-SE trending *en échelon* folds (Bartow,  
141 1996) with alternating anticlines and synclines often underlain by thrust planes  
142 (Namson and Davis, 1988; Bartow, 1991), and NW-SE dextral faulting systems  
143 (Fig. 1C).

144

## 145 **2.2. Petrologic evolution of the Great Valley forearc basin**

146 The petrologic evolution of the GVG has been traced through many  
147 provenance studies (e.g., Dickinson and Rich, 1972; Mansfield, 1979, Dickinson  
148 et al., 1983; Ingersoll, 1983, 2012). Petrofacies of the GVG generally reflect the  
149 petrologic evolution of arc terranes, and unroofing of Sierran batholiths through  
150 the late Mesozoic (Ingersoll, 1983; Dickinson et al., 1983). Petrofacies document  
151 mainly the dissection of the Cretaceous Sierran magmatic arc, as well as the  
152 erosion of residual orogenic highlands formed during latest Jurassic arc–arc and  
153 arc-continent collision of the Nevadan orogeny (Ingersoll, 1983; Dickinson 2002).  
154 Vertical petrofacies changes of the GVG are recorded in the lithic sediments with

155 sedimentary, volcanic and metamorphic grains from supracrustal sources in the  
156 lower portion of the sequence, related to erosion of the volcano-sedimentary  
157 cover of the Sierran magmatic arc, and older arc-derived terranes of the Nevadan  
158 orogeny. This succession evolved upward to arkosic sands derived from plutonic  
159 rocks as the volcanic cover of Sierra Nevada was stripped off, reflecting  
160 dissection of the magmatic arc to the east (Ingersoll, 1983).

161         During the Late Cretaceous-Early Paleogene, exhumation of the Sierra  
162 Nevada to the east, and uplift of the Franciscan Complex to the west took place  
163 (Unruh et al., 2007) (Fig. 1B), leading to changes in depositional environments,  
164 sedimentary palaeocurrent patterns and provenance, thus modifying the  
165 petrofacies characteristics of the succession. Palaeocurrent data from outcrops,  
166 facies distribution patterns, and provenance information suggest a predominantly  
167 westward, south-westward, and north-westward transport from the Sierran  
168 magmatic arc for most of the GVG (Ingersoll, 1979). This oblique and longitudinal  
169 sedimentary supply may have been controlled by bathymetric highs, the trench-  
170 slope break or outer arc ridges within the forearc basin. However, the occurrence  
171 of Franciscan-derived detritus within the Moreno Formation (Upper Cretaceous  
172 to Paleocene) (McGuire, 1988; Mitchell et al., 2010), and within part of the  
173 Domengine Formation (Middle Eocene) (Schulein, 1993; Sharman et al., 2017),  
174 suggests sedimentary contribution from the Franciscan Complex. These  
175 petrological variations throughout the sequence reflect the active tectonic  
176 environment of the basin and its subsequent influences over the sources and  
177 deposits of the GVG.

178

179 **2.3. Stratigraphy of the study area**

180 The study area is located in the northern portion of the Tumey Hills along  
181 the east margin of the Coast Ranges in Central California (Fig. 1C). This area  
182 records marine and non-marine deposition, with several unconformities  
183 associated with tectonic and eustatic fluctuations within the San Joaquin Basin  
184 (SJB) (Bartow, 1991, 1996; Johnson and Graham 2007). In the study area, ca.  
185 650 m thick Paleocene to Miocene sedimentary sequences crops out, covering  
186 an area of approximately 4 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 2). The area is structured by an asymmetric  
187 anticline with a steeper limb dipping 30-50° to SW and a gentler limb dipping 20-  
188 30° to the NE (Zvirtes et al., 2019) (Fig. 2).

189 The oldest stratigraphic unit in the study sector is the Moreno Formation  
190 (Upper Cretaceous to Lower Paleocene), which consists of a sequence  
191 dominated by mudrocks and diatomaceous mudrocks, alternating with base-of-  
192 slope to shelf-edge turbiditic channels (Payne, 1951; McGuire, 1988) (Fig. 3).  
193 This formation hosts the Panoche Giant Injection Complex (Vigorito et al., 2008;  
194 Vigorito and Hurst, 2010), which is considered the biggest giant sand injection  
195 complex cropping out in the world. A regional unconformity that represents less  
196 than a 3 Ma hiatus (McGuire, 1988) eroding the top of the Moreno Formation. is  
197 overlain by the Lodo Formation. The Lodo Formation (Upper Paleocene to Lower  
198 Eocene) consists dominantly of claystone with sand-rich arkosic turbidites  
199 representing submarine slope to basin floor fans (Nilsen et al., 1974). During the  
200 Middle Eocene, the San Joaquin Basin became shallower, reflecting uplift and  
201 unroofing of the subduction complex (Moxon and Graham, 1987; Schulein, 1993;  
202 Johnson and Graham, 2007). Consequently, the coastline prograded, depositing  
203 estuarine and deltaic sediments of the Domengine Formation (Todd and Monroe,  
204 1968; Sullivan and Sullivan, 2012; Sharman et al., 2017) (Fig. 3). At Tumey Hill,



205 the Domengine Formation occurs as laterally discontinuous outcrops (10-30 m  
206 thick) of grey, highly bioturbated, very fine- to coarse-grained sandstones. Abrupt  
207 subsidence and basin-wide transgression led to a return of deep-marine  
208 conditions (Milam, 1985) resulting in widespread deposition of the Kreyenhagen  
209 Shale (Middle to Late Eocene). Milam (1985) suggests that the Domengine-  
210 Kreyenhagen boundary may represent a minor unconformity, with a depositional  
211 hiatus of less than 1 Ma.

212 The Kreyenhagen Shale is a widespread transgressive marine bathyal  
213 succession, which consists of fine-grained siliceous and calcareous biogenic  
214 facies, partially deposited under dysoxic to anoxic conditions (Milam, 1985). It is  
215 represented by siliciclastic and biosiliceous mudrocks, with intervals of  
216 porcelanite and diatomite. Locally, fine-grained deposits alternate with isolated,  
217 sand-rich slope channel-fills. Kreyenhagen Shale forms part of a major  
218 Paleogene slope deposited between 48 Ma and 36 Ma (Milam, 1985) and hosts  
219 the injectites of the Tumey Giant Injection Complex. The top of the formation, as  
220 well as the upper sector of the TGIC, is truncated by a Late Eocene unconformity,  
221 followed by the deposition of Late Eocene-Early Oligocene thick turbiditic Tumey  
222 Sandstone Lentic (Figs. 3 and 4), constraining the injection event to the Late  
223 Eocene (Zvirtes et al., 2019).

224

### 225 **3. Materials and Methods**

226 This study was based on detailed geological mapping of the TGIC, along  
227 with the petrographic analysis of the main lithological units associated with the  
228 sand injection complex. Stratigraphic intervals, geometries and spatial  
229 distribution of sandstone intrusions were mapped with support of photographs,

230 satellite images, and stratigraphic profiles (Fig. 4A). Stratigraphic logs were used  
231 for petrofacies correlations and played an important role in differentiating  
232 between depositional and intrusive petrofacies, thereby allowing the definition of  
233 the lithostratigraphic organization of the complex (Fig. 4B).

234         Based on the relationships between sandstone intrusions and potential  
235 parent units of the Tumey Giant Injection Complex, 30 samples were selected for  
236 qualitative and quantitative petrographic and petrophysical analysis. We also  
237 analysed and compared the sandstones from the underlying Lodo and  
238 Domengine formations to investigate the geological influences on the Tumey  
239 Giant Injection Complex formation and their possible contribution of sand to the  
240 injection complex as potential parent units. Some samples were impregnated with  
241 blue epoxy resin prior to preparation of the thin sections to allow quantification of  
242 porosity. Selected samples were prepared for scanning electron microscopy  
243 analysis by secondary (SEM) and back-scattered electrons (BSE).

244         Quantification of primary and diagenetic constituents and porosity was  
245 obtained by quantitative petrographic analysis using the Gazzi-Dickinson method  
246 (Zuffa 1985) counting 300 evenly spaced points per section. The petrographic  
247 descriptions were acquired, stored and processed using the Petroledge®  
248 software (De Ros et al., 2007), which standardizes the geological nomenclature,  
249 allows reconstruction of the original composition, and provides automatic  
250 compositional classification and provenance detrital modes determination of  
251 sandstones. Detrital essential composition and provenance were displayed on  
252 Folk (1980) and Dickinson (1985) diagrams, respectively. Modification of clastic  
253 composition by hydrodynamic segregation and/or incorporation of host rock  
254 clasts into the intrusive sandstones framework, and textural modifications such

255 as intragranular micro-fracturing, were also evaluated during petrographic  
256 analysis.

257         The sequence of diagenetic processes that affected the TGIC was defined  
258 based on textural paragenetic relationships among the diagenetic minerals  
259 observed through optical petrography and electron microscopy. Cross-cutting  
260 relationships between the different diagenetic constituents and their structures  
261 were used to reconstruct the relative chronology of each diagenetic phase. The  
262 composition, habits, textures, and fabric of siliciclastic and diagenetic  
263 constituents were also examined through scanning electron microscopy (SEM)  
264 with the support of energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS) analysis, using  
265 a Carl Zeiss Gemini SEM 300 equipment at the University of Aberdeen. Particular  
266 emphasis was given to investigate grains surface textures, and intragranular  
267 micro-fractures mainly observed in sandstone intrusions.

268

## 269 **4. Results and analysis**

### 270 **4.1. Internal organization of the TGIC**

271         The TGIC is emplaced into the Kreyenhagen Shale (Middle to Upper  
272 Eocene), intruding a ca. 450 m thickness of mudrock and biosiliceous mudrock  
273 interbedded with sandstone-rich turbiditic channel-fills located at different  
274 stratigraphic positions (Figs. 4, 5). Based on stratigraphic and structural  
275 relationships, the TGIC is divided into lower and upper intrusive intervals (Zvirtes  
276 et al. 2019) (Fig. 5).

277

#### 278 4.1.1. Lower intrusive interval

279 The lower intrusive interval occurs between ca. 480 m and 250 m below  
280 the Late Eocene unconformity. It is defined by: (1) an intrusive network  
281 dominantly composed of a sill complex with a stepped, staggered and multi-  
282 layered geometry connected by narrow, short low- and high-angle dykes; (2) host  
283 strata consist of ca. 250 m of brown, clay-rich mudrock intercalated with m-thick  
284 layers of biosiliceous mudrock; and (3) depositional sandstone, comprising  
285 channelized turbidites intensely modified by sand fluidization and feeding the  
286 adjacent intrusive network.

287 Depositional sandstone forms stacked turbiditic channel-fills, typically 1-4  
288 m thick, but up to 8 m thick, extending laterally for 10's of meters (Figs. 5). They  
289 are grey, poorly to moderately sorted, medium-grained sandstone alternating with  
290 dm-thick intervals of brown mudrock (Fig. 6A). Medium-grained sand dominates,  
291 but pebbly conglomeratic sandstone occurs along channel bases with low-angle  
292 cross bedding shifting upward to sub-parallel bedding and structureless  
293 sandstone (Figs. 6A, C). Disruption of primary sedimentary structures is common,  
294 sometimes forming structureless units related to sand fluidization (cf., Zvirtes et  
295 al., 2019). Upper erosive margins are common, with the development of margin-  
296 parallel banding (Fig. 6B), which is a common feature in sand injectites (Scott et  
297 al., 2009; Hurst et al., 2011).

298 The architectural organization of the lower intrusive network is defined by  
299 a system of sills and low-angle intrusions, connected by planar and irregular  
300 dykes (Zvirtes et al., 2019). Sills commonly have discontinuous tabular geometry,  
301 with erosive lower and upper margins, and are individually up to 4 m-thick, but  
302 typically occur in the range of 0.5 to 2 m (Figs. 4, 5). Intrusions pinch-out laterally

303 and have abrupt lateral changes in thickness, with planar and curved margins  
304 recording both brittle fracture of the host strata and erosion of host strata during  
305 sand emplacement. Mudrock clasts are common intra-clasts derived from the  
306 hydraulic fracture of the host strata. Dykes are discontinuous, volumetrically  
307 smaller, and more irregular than the sills. Short, high- to low-angle dykes <1 m  
308 thickness, typically show a thickness that range between 0.2 and 0.5 m, with  
309 planar and curved margins (Fig. 6C). Dykes bifurcate laterally and upwards where  
310 they form sub-vertical branches.

311

#### 312 **4.1.2. Upper intrusive interval**

313 The upper intrusive interval (Zvirtes et al., 2019) occurs from ca. 250 m below  
314 the Late Eocene unconformity (Figs. 4 and 5). It consists of (1) host strata made  
315 up by clay-rich mudrock (ca. 50 m thick) that grade upward into bio siliceous-  
316 dominated mudrock (ca. 150 m thick); (2) depositional sandstone comprising  
317 sandy channel-fills, which are intensely modified by sand fluidization; and (3) an  
318 intrusive network of interconnected sills, dykes and injection breccia intruding ca.  
319 200 m thickness of host strata and extending laterally for more than 2 km.

320 Depositional sandstone forms broader and thicker channel-fills (up to 40 m  
321 thick) than those in the lower intrusive interval (Figs. 4B, 7A). Typically, the  
322 channels have an amalgamated and homogeneous sandstone fill, without mud-  
323 rich interbeds. At the base of the channels, mudstone intra-clast lags occur  
324 formed by mass flows in the axial portion of the channels during deposition (Figs.  
325 6E, F). The channels pass upward into thick homogeneous sandstone associated  
326 with intense sand fluidization (Zvirtes et al., 2019). Channels have direct contact

327 with adjacent intrusions implying a common genetic relationship between both  
328 elements (Figs. 6D, 7).

329 Intrusions consist of composite dykes, sills, injection breccia and irregular  
330 intrusive bodies. They form a network of composite intrusions of asymmetric  
331 saucer-shaped intrusions with large wings emanating from the channelized  
332 turbidites (parent units) (Fig. 7). Dykes and sills intrude host strata at low and high  
333 angles and have a wide range of thickness (from 0.01 to 12 m). They occur in  
334 several intrusive shapes, ranging from sheet-like with planar margins to highly  
335 irregular, bulbous and curved margins (Zvirtes et al., 2019). Internal structures  
336 include banding (1 to 10 cm thickness) and laminae (0.2 to 1 cm thick),  
337 particularly developed in the margins and central portions of the intrusions. Bands  
338 are characterised by alignment of platy and elongate clasts, including fragments  
339 of mudrock derived from the host strata. A large-scale composite intrusion, up to  
340 12 m thick, forms an impressive wing (*sensu* Huuse et al., 2007) displaying a  
341 series of steps with associated dykes and sills. The wing transects ca. 100 m of  
342 host strata and extends laterally more than 600 m from its parent unit (Figs. 5, 7).  
343 The geometry and scale of the wing is consistent with similar structures identified  
344 from interpretation of seismic data that frequently occur along the margins of  
345 turbiditic channels (Huuse et al., 2004; Jackson et al., 2011; Hurst and Vigorito,  
346 2017; Zvirtes et al., 2019).

347 A broad injection breccia zone occurs exclusively in the upper intrusive  
348 interval (Zvirtes et al., 2019). It has an irregular and discontinuous sub-horizontal  
349 distribution, reaching a thickness of ca. 80 m, and extending laterally for hundreds  
350 of metres (Figs. 4, 8). Injection breccias consist of irregular sandstone intrusions  
351 among blocks of biosiliceous mudrock from ca. 0.01 to 3 m diameter, and

352 irregular geometries (Fig. 8B) similar to the mudrock clast breccia (facies B4) of  
353 Duranti and Hurst (2004). The breccias form a range of complex lithofacies  
354 formed by breccias supported by clasts of biosiliceous mudrocks with a sandy  
355 matrix defined as “blocky breccias”, or breccias supported by a sandy matrix  
356 defined as “dispersive breccia” by Zvirtes et al. (2019). The sandy matrix presents  
357 a composition and grain size similar to the depositional and intrusive sandstones  
358 throughout the complex, suggesting a genetic relationship (Zvirtes et al., 2019).

359

360 Mudrock blocks are typically intruded by irregular dykes (0.1 to 3 m thick),  
361 and the resultant fractured clasts display a jig-saw texture (Duranti and Hurst  
362 2004; Scott et al., 2009) (Fig. 8C, D). In the uppermost portion of the upper  
363 interval, there is a dyke-dominated zone, formed by low- and high-angle dykes  
364 with low aperture (0.1-0.5 m thick). This zone is eroded by the late Eocene  
365 unconformity, which in turn is overlain by turbiditic sandstones of the Tumey  
366 Sandstone Lentil (Zvirtes et al., 2019) constraining the injection event to the  
367 Upper Eocene (Figs. 4B, 5).

368

#### 369 **4.2. Petrographic analysis**

370 To understand the petrogenetic relationships between depositional and  
371 intrusive sandstones, we defined petrofacies using field and petrographic data.  
372 The sandstone samples were classified in two broad petrofacies associations  
373 (**Fig. 9**): (1) depositional petrofacies from sandstones in the Lodo, Domengine,  
374 and Kreyenhagen formations; and (2) intrusive petrofacies, including dykes, sills  
375 and injection breccia. Sandstone primary detrital composition, diagenetic

376 minerals and porosity (% of total rock volume) are presented in Table 1, with the  
377 recalculated modal point count data of detrital grains in Table 2.

378

#### 379 **4.2.1. Lodo Formation petrofacies**

380 **Structures, textures, and fabric.** The Lodo Formation represents slope turbiditic  
381 sequence of fine-grained mudrock m- to dm-intercalated by turbiditic laterally-  
382 extensive fans (1-2 m thick). The samples consist of sub-mature, massive, fine-  
383 to medium-grained sandstones and discontinuous small lenses of bioclast-rich  
384 conglomerate (up to 50cm thick) (Fig. 10A). On average sandstones comprise  
385 77% grains, 18% cement, and 5% porosity (Table 1). Grains are moderately to  
386 well sorted, with low sphericity. They are loosely packed with a homogeneous  
387 texture, which is preserved by early diagenetic, pre-compactional calcite cement  
388 (Figs. 10B, C). Framework grains are partially dissolved and have abundant point  
389 and rare long and concave-convex intergranular contacts. Intra-granular micro-  
390 fractures are rare (<2%) (Fig. 10D).

391

392 **Primary composition.** The detrital composition is arkosic (*sensu* Folk, 1980) (Fig.  
393 11a) with mean QFL composition of Q46F40L14 (Table 2). Quartz grains are  
394 mainly monocrystalline quartz with sharp extinction, and to a lesser extent,  
395 monocrystalline quartz with wavy extinction. Polycrystalline grains are minor.  
396 Plagioclase is the dominant feldspar (Table 1), some with fractures and  
397 dissolution features, with less common orthoclase and microcline. Sedimentary  
398 rock fragments, mainly chert and mudrock, are the predominant lithic fragments,  
399 with subordinate volcanic and low rank metamorphic fragments, such as slate  
400 and phyllite.



401

402 **Diagenetic constituents and porosity.** Diagenetic processes and products  
403 identified in the Lodo Formation arkoses are pervasive pore-filling and grain-  
404 replacive poikilotopic calcite (Fig. 10C). Intrabasinal iron oxides and hydroxides  
405 occur as minor authigenic constituents. Local replacement of quartz and feldspar  
406 by calcite is observed (Fig. 10D). Intergranular macro-porosity (Table 1) is  
407 severely reduced by calcite cementation and the minor remaining porosity is  
408 mainly of secondary dissolution origin.

409

#### 410 **4.2.2. Domengine Formation petrofacies**

411 **Structures, textures, and fabric.** Domengine Formation sandstones were  
412 deposited in deltaic and estuarine environments, and consist of 81% grains, 14%  
413 diagenetic cement, and 5% porosity (Table 1). Grain size ranges from very fine-  
414 to coarse-grained. Grains are well- to moderately-sorted, with mainly angular to  
415 sub-angular shape, and low sphericity (Fig. 10F, H). The grain fabric has normal  
416 packing, with chaotic to sub-parallel orientation. Intergranular contacts between  
417 grains are typically point and long, with rare concave-convex contacts. Similarly  
418 to the Lodo Formation samples, intra-granular micro-fractures are rare (<3% of  
419 grains).

420

421 **Primary composition.** Quartz-rich, lithic arkose is the detrital composition  
422 (sensu Folk, 1980; Fig. 11A). The mean QFL composition is Q65F21L14 (Table  
423 2). Quartz is mainly monocrystalline with sharp extinction, with rare  
424 monocrystalline grains with wavy extinction, and polycrystalline grains (Table 1).  
425 K-feldspar is predominant over plagioclase. Lithic fragments are mainly derived

426 from sedimentary rocks, composed mostly by chert and rare mudrock fragments.  
427 Volcanic rock fragments with aphyric and trachytic textures and metamorphic  
428 grains are subordinate (Table 1). Biotite, muscovite, and opaque and transparent  
429 heavy mineral grains are trace constituents.

430

431 **Diagenetic constituents and porosity.** The main observed diagenetic constituent  
432 corresponds to pervasive intergranular poikilotopic and coarse mosaic calcite  
433 (Fig. 10G, H). Structures associated with compaction include deformation of  
434 biotite and soft rock fragments. Rare discontinuous quartz, albite and K-feldspar  
435 overgrowths occur. Chlorite, iron oxides and hydroxides occur as replacements  
436 of undifferentiated detrital grains. Primary intergranular porosity was significantly  
437 reduced by calcite precipitation (Table 1), with minor secondary porosity created  
438 by cement dissolution.

439

#### 440 **4.2.3. Kreyenhagen Shale petrofacies**

441 **Structures, textures, and fabric.** Sandstone in the Kreyenhagen Shale,  
442 representing marine slope channel-fills, consists of compositionally and texturally  
443 immature, moderately to mainly poorly sorted, very-fine to very-coarse,  
444 predominantly medium-grained sandstone (Figs. 9, 12). On average samples  
445 consist of 87% grains, 8% authigenic cement, and 5% porosity (Table 1). Grains  
446 are mainly angular to sub-angular, with low sphericity, and chaotic to sub-parallel  
447 orientation, marked by the long-axes of metamorphic and sedimentary rock  
448 fragments, biotite, muscovite, feldspars and quartz grains (Fig. 12C, F). Grain are  
449 normally packed with inter-granular point contacts predominating over long and

450 concavo-convex contacts, with rare sutured contacts. Up to 10% of the grains  
451 have intra-granular micro-fractures (Table 1).

452

453 **Primary composition.** The primary composition of the Kreyenhagen sandstone  
454 is feldspathic litharenite (*sensu* Folk, 1980; Fig. 11A), rich in sedimentary and  
455 volcanic, and, to a lesser extent, low grade metamorphic rock fragments. The  
456 mean QFL composition is Q32F24L44 (Table 2). Quartz is mainly monocrystalline  
457 with abrupt extinction, and less commonly monocrystalline with wavy extinction.  
458 Subordinate polycrystalline quartz grains have granoblastic textures indicative of  
459 a metamorphic origin. K-feldspar dominates over plagioclase. Rock fragments,  
460 the main clastic component, comprise mostly chert and mudrock. Intermediate  
461 volcanic rock fragments with hemi-crystalline and trachytic textures marked by  
462 the alignment of laths of plagioclase (Fig. 12E) are also common. Metamorphic  
463 slate and schist grains are subordinate.

464

465 **Diagenetic constituents and porosity.** Intense mechanical compaction is  
466 pervasive with deformation of soft clasts, such as mudrocks, argillaceous intra-  
467 clasts, and mica grains (e.g., biotite), with concomitant lithic pseudo-matrix (Fig.  
468 12C, F), and inter-granular cementation by poikilotopic gypsum (Table 1;  
469 Fig.12B). Authigenic clay coatings and chaotic pore-filling aggregates are  
470 common (Fig. 12D). The occurrence of discontinuous inter-granular pore-lining  
471 iron oxides and hydroxides is probably related to recent alteration associated with  
472 uplift and exposure (Fig. 12C). Porosity was greatly reduced by compaction and  
473 occluded by gypsum cementation, with minor secondary porosity formed by

474 progressive dissolution of volcanic grains, mudrock clasts, clay mineral  
475 pseudomatrix and gypsum (Table 1).

476

#### 477 **4.2.4. Intrusive petrofacies: sandstone sills, dykes, and injection breccias**

##### 478 **Structures, textures, and fabric.**

479 On average, sandstone intrusions consist of 80% grains, 11% cement, and  
480 9% porosity, with a fine-grained matrix present in some samples (Table 1).  
481 Samples are well- to dominantly moderately-sorted sandstones. Grains are very  
482 angular to sub-rounded, predominantly angular, with medium to low sphericity  
483 (Fig. 9). Sandstone is structureless or has irregular lamination marked by  
484 concentrations of rock fragments (Fig. 13), which are oriented parallel or sub-  
485 parallel to the intrusion margins. The fabric is loose to tightly packed, with grain  
486 orientation ranging from homogenous and chaotic to sub-parallel. Point  
487 intergranular grain contacts are more abundant than elongate contacts, with rare  
488 concavo-convex and sutured contacts.

489 Petrographic and BSE examination of the sandstone in the injection  
490 breccia zone reveals the pervasive presence of mudrock clasts with angular and  
491 rounded shapes and of varied sizes (Fig. 14A). Typically, sand grains penetrate  
492 the margins of mudrock clasts (Fig. 14), sometimes forming thin dykes (ca. 0.5  
493 mm wide) (Fig. 14E).

494 The host biosiliceous mudrocks are rich in diatom frustules and radiolarian  
495 skeletons, still partially preserved as amorphous opal-A or recrystallized to opal-  
496 CT or micro-quartz with high degree of preservation (Fig. 14B). The process of  
497 corrosion (*sensu* Scott et al., 2009) is promoted by the erosion of host mudrock  
498 during sand injection (Figs. 14C-F). In some cases, clasts start to disintegrate to

499 sand size and become part of the sand framework (Fig. 14C). These processes,  
500 along with scouring and erosion of the host strata, imply high-velocity turbulent  
501 flow conditions with low viscosity during sand injection (Scott et al., 2009; Hurst  
502 et al., 2011).

503

504 **Primary composition.** All the sandstone intrusions are feldspathic litharenites  
505 (*sensu* Folk, 1980) (Fig. 11A). The mean QFL composition is Q30F23L47 (Table  
506 2). Quartz grains are intensely fractured, and mostly are composed of  
507 monocrystalline grains with abrupt extinction, subordinately by monocrystalline  
508 grains with wavy extinction, and polycrystalline grains with granoblastic texture of  
509 metamorphic origin (Table 1). Among the feldspars, which are commonly altered  
510 and fractured, K-feldspar dominates over plagioclase. Lithic fragments are the  
511 main detrital constituents of sandstone intrusions, with sedimentary fragments  
512 (mainly chert and mudrock) being the most abundant (Table 1). Volcanic  
513 fragments with trachytic texture are more common than metamorphic rock  
514 fragments such as phyllite and slate. On average, sedimentary rock fragments  
515 are 7% more abundant in the sandstone intrusions than in the parent turbiditic  
516 units (Table 1). We attribute this to the incorporation of host mudrock fragments  
517 during sand intrusion by hydrofracturing and erosion of host mudrocks.  
518 Accessory detrital constituents include biotite, muscovite, hornblende, zircon, and  
519 opaque heavy minerals.

520

521 **Diagenetic constituents and porosity.** Mechanical compaction is the main  
522 diagenetic process recorded affecting the deformation of primary constituents  
523 such as biotite, mudrock and volcanic fragments (Fig. 11C). Additionally,

524 mechanical compaction is the responsible for the extensive formation of lithic  
525 pseudomatrix. Pervasive cementation developed by pore-filling poikilotopic  
526 gypsum (Fig. 11B Table 1). Porosity of sandstone intrusions varies throughout  
527 the complex (Table 1). Original porosity was intensely reduced by compaction  
528 and by pervasive gypsum cementation during early diagenesis. Dissolution of  
529 gypsum cement (Fig. 13E), pseudomatrix (Fig. 13F), and lithic fragments, such  
530 as volcanic fragments commonly created secondary porosity.

531

532 **Microfracturing.** Intense intra-granular micro-fracturing is common in quartz,  
533 feldspar and sedimentary lithic fragments of intrusive sandstones (Fig. 15). Stains  
534 of iron oxides and hydroxides highlight micro-fractures in quartz and feldspar (Fig.  
535 15C). Quartz grains typically contain randomly-oriented planar and arcuate  
536 fractures (Fig. 15A, G, H) that tend to be less intense nearer to grain margins  
537 (Fig. 15A, E). Micro-fractures in quartz are typically randomly oriented. In some  
538 quartz grains, flaked surfaces with multiple conchoidal fractures may record multi-  
539 cyclic inter-granular collisions (Fig. 15G, H). Plagioclase grains commonly have  
540 orthogonal micro-fracture patterns developed along and perpendicular to  
541 cleavage and polysynthetic twins (Fig. 15c). K-feldspar grains have some random  
542 fracture orientation but fractures develop preferentially along the cleavages.  
543 Chert and mudrock clasts also contain micro-fractures, and like the  
544 monocrystalline quartz grains, are more fractured in their inner portions (Fig.  
545 15F).

546

547 **4.3. Effects of compaction and cementation on porosity**

548           Compaction and cementation are the main mechanisms of primary  
549 porosity reduction in sandstones (e.g., Ehrenberg, 1995; Makowitz et al., 2006),  
550 and understanding the controls on these processes has significant implications  
551 for reservoir quality prediction. In this section, we discuss the conditions of  
552 mechanical compaction and cementation of depositional and intrusive  
553 sandstones, and their impact on porosity of the TGIC. The proportion of primary  
554 porosity loss due to compaction *versus* cementation can be represented in  
555 Ehrenberg's diagram (Ehrenberg, 1989) (Fig. 16), which represents the  
556 intergranular volume (IGV) *versus* the intergranular cement percentage,  
557 assuming a value of 40% of the initial (depositional) porosity. Intergranular  
558 porosity values represented in the diagram for the analysed samples are  
559 overestimated, because initial porosity was smaller than 40%, due to the  
560 moderate sorting (Ehrenberg, 1989).

561           The diagram indicates that the original porosity of both depositional and  
562 intrusive petrofacies was reduced mainly by mechanical compaction (Fig. 16).  
563 The deposited sandstones were more affected by mechanical compaction than  
564 the intrusive sandstones, due mostly to the pervasive generation of  
565 pseudomatrix, what resulted in lower intergranular porosity (average 4%; max.  
566 7%). On the other hand, intrusive sandstones were relatively less affected by  
567 mechanical compaction and more affected by cementation than the depositional  
568 bodies, which resulted in higher porosity values of the former (average 8.7%;  
569 max. 22%). The intergranular porosity of the Kreyenhagen channel-fills and  
570 intrusive sands were also reduced by gypsum cementation. The higher porosity  
571 of the intrusive sandstones may be explained by two factors: (1) the deposited  
572 sandstones were already suffering mechanical compaction during early burial,

573 when sand injection took place; and (2) grain packing reorganization that took  
574 place during sand fluidization and remobilization (Hurst and Cronin, 2001). Both  
575 factors could have influenced the porosity differences between depositional and  
576 intrusive sandstones.

577

## 578 **5. Discussion**

### 579 **5.1. Provenance Analysis**

580 In common with other sandstones, the ultimate control on the composition  
581 of sandstones is the composition of source terranes and related weathering,  
582 processes of sedimentary transport and temporary storage in depositional  
583 systems, and further modification during burial diagenesis (Ingersoll, 1983;  
584 Dickinson, 1985). Sand injection promotes additional factors and processes,  
585 other than those related to depositional environments, that modify sandstone  
586 composition, such as grain comminution from high-velocity inter-granular  
587 collisions and corrasion (Scott et al., 2009), during entrained flow and erosion of  
588 material from hydraulically-fractured host strata (Scott et al., 2009; Hurst et al.,  
589 2011; Ravier et al., 2015). Commonly, sandstone intrusions are compositionally  
590 similar to their parent units, which allows a genetic correlation between them  
591 (Hurst et al., 2017). However, the incorporation of host strata material during sand  
592 injection may modify the composition of the sand during its emplacement (Hurst  
593 et al., 2011).

594 Sandstone in the Lodo, Domengine and Kreyenhagen formations records  
595 significant provenance variation through time, with contributions from basement  
596 uplift to magmatic arc sources (*sensu* Dickinson, 1985) (Fig. 11B). Arkoses in the  
597 Lodo Formation. has a provenance signature characteristic of erosion and uplift



598 of a continental basement block to the south of the San Joaquin Basin (Ingersoll  
599 *et al.*, 2012). This signature concurs with palaeocurrents of a northward-  
600 prograding submarine fan system during the early Paleogene (Nilsen *et al.*,  
601 1974). Quartz-rich lithic arkoses of the Domengine Formation were deposited in  
602 shallow marine, deltaic and estuarine depositional systems after regional  
603 shoaling during the Middle Eocene and record a major period of regression  
604 related to the uplift of the basin (Schulein, 1993). They have a provenance  
605 signature from a dissected magmatic arc characteristic of mixed sources (*sensu*  
606 Dickinson, 1985) (Fig. 11B). Therefore, changing from the basement uplift of  
607 Lodo sandstones towards a dissected magmatic arc provenance of Domengine  
608 and Kreyenhagen formations, records a tectonic reorganization of the basin.  
609 Contribution from the exhumed Franciscan Complex is a potential source area  
610 for the Domengine sandstones (Schulein, 1993; Sharman *et al.*, 2017).  
611 Unfortunately, no depositional structures were observed in the structureless  
612 sandstones of the formation. The relative high quartz content can be related to  
613 pervasive autocyclic controls in the depositional system, such as the erosion and  
614 reworking of sedimentary deposits, a longer-distance transport system, and  
615 consequent deterioration of less resistant components, such as feldspar and lithic  
616 fragments.

617         The overlain Kreyenhagen Shale records the deepening of the basin with  
618 slope mudstone and channelized sandstones. This records a regionally  
619 significant transgression during a period of extensive subsidence of the GVG in  
620 which there was a return to deep-water depositional conditions. The channel-fills  
621 comprise feldspathic litharenites with provenance signature characteristic of a  
622 dissected magmatic arc (*sensu* Dickinson, 1985) (Fig. 11B). This provenance is

623 compatible with palaeocurrent data that indicate derivation from the Sierran  
624 magmatic arc to the east, which was intensely uplifted throughout the Cenozoic  
625 (Ingersoll *et al.*, 2012). The Kreyenhagen channels have a high content of rock  
626 fragments that can be considered the result of erosion of supra-crustal sources,  
627 high sedimentation rates, and short transportation distances (Schrank *et al.*,  
628 2017). Possibly this indicates direct supply from fluvial systems into a deep-water  
629 environment (Hurst and Morton, 2001). Low-grade metamorphic fragments likely  
630 come from the metamorphic terrane of the Sierra Nevada orogenic system. The  
631 high content of volcanic rock fragments can be related to the erosion of Jurassic  
632 volcano-sedimentary sections formed during the Nevadan orogeny or by erosion  
633 of Cenozoic volcanic terranes related to the Idaho magmatism (Sharman *et al.*,  
634 2015).

635 Sandstone intrusions are compositionally very similar to the Kreyenhagen  
636 sandstone being composed by feldspathic litharenites rich in sedimentary,  
637 volcanism and metamorphic rock fragments and provenance signatures of a  
638 dissected magmatic arc (Fig. 10B). These strong compositional and provenance  
639 similarities confirm the field observations that Lodo and Domengine sandstones  
640 did not contribute sand to the formation of the TGIC, and that turbiditic channels  
641 in the Kreyenhagen Shale were the sole parent units for injected sand.

642

## 643 **5.2. Diagenetic evolution of the TGIC**

644 The connections between the types of diagenetic processes and their  
645 distributions are the key to interpret the evolution of the diagenetic alterations  
646 through time, and their controls on reservoir quality and heterogeneity (Morad *et al.*  
647 *et al.*, 2010, 2012; Schrank *et al.*, 2017). The recorded diagenetic products and

648 processes allowed the correlation of the petrogenetic relationships between the  
649 depositional units and the sandstones intrusions. Diagenetic processes strongly  
650 affected the porosity of each unit and consequently the quality of the TGIC as  
651 reservoir. The regional burial history of the San Joaquin Basin indicates that the  
652 Eocene succession experienced a burial not exceeding 2.5 km depth and records  
653 significant uplift from the Oligocene to Miocene, until total exhumation was  
654 achieved (*He et al.*, 2014). This means that the analysed sandstones were mostly  
655 affected by processes within the field of eodiagenesis, which occurred under the  
656 influence of depositional fluids at depths less than about 2 km ( $T > 70^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), and of  
657 shallow mesodiagenesis, at depths at 2-3 km and temperatures between  $70^{\circ}\text{C}$   
658 and  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$  (*Morad et al.*, 2000). The evolution of the main diagenetic products  
659 and processes of the TGIC and the underlying Lodo and Domengine formations  
660 is summarized in the Figure 17.

661

### 662 **5.2.1. Diagenesis of Lodo and Domengine sandstones**

663 Arkoses and lithic arkoses in the Lodo and Domengine formations  
664 experienced similar diagenetic evolution. Both units were pervasively cemented  
665 by calcite along with accompanying dissolution and replacement of framework  
666 grains (e.g., quartz, feldspar) during early diagenesis (Fig. 17). Eogenetic calcite  
667 cement dominates the eodiagenesis of many shallow marine siliciclastic  
668 sediments (*Morad et al.*, 2010), but can be important in deep-marine settings too.  
669 Seawater and carbonate shells are the main sources of ions for early marine  
670 carbonate cements (*Morad*, 1998). Sandstone in the Lodo Formation grades  
671 laterally into conglomerates containing carbonate bioclasts, the dissolution of  
672 which is the probable source of the eogenetic carbonate cement. The shallow

673 marine Domengine sandstone are often enriched in carbonate bioclasts, which  
674 could have acted as nuclei for calcite precipitation, and as a source of cement  
675 during burial. Carbonate cementation is normally more extensive in transgressive  
676 systems tract sandstones, particularly below parasequence boundaries,  
677 transgressive surfaces, and maximum flooding surfaces (Morad et al., 2010). The  
678 Domengine sandstones represent deltaic and estuarine deposits overlain by the  
679 deep-water mudrocks of the Kreyenhagen Shale in a transgressive systems tract  
680 regime. Therefore, this corresponds to a situation with high potential for extensive  
681 carbonate precipitation.

682 Mechanical compaction in the arkoses and lithic arkoses of Lodo and  
683 Domengine formations had limited development due to fabric stabilization by the  
684 precipitation of early calcite cements. As cemented sandstones are unlikely to  
685 undergo liquefaction or fluidization due to their framework stiffness and low  
686 porosity and permeability, the early eogenetic cementation of Lodo and  
687 Domengine sandstones prevented fluidization of these units, also creating  
688 barriers for fluid migration (Fig. 17).

689

#### 690 **5.2.2. Diagenesis of Kreyenhagen sandstones (parent units) and intrusive** 691 **network of the TGIC**

692 Soon after deposition of the turbiditic Kreyenhagen succession,  
693 overpressure conditions inside the channels led pore-fluid pressure to overcome  
694 lithostatic pressure, triggering hydrofracture of the host strata and simultaneously  
695 leading to sand fluidization and injection. After sand injection, the progressive  
696 burial of the complex led to mechanical compaction of parent units and the  
697 intrusive network. Compaction was more intense in the parent unit sandstones

698 because of the lack of early diagenetic cement and their lithic composition.  
699 Normally, the compaction of lithic sandstone promotes strong deformation of  
700 ductile fragments, such as mudrock, volcanic and low-grade metamorphic rock  
701 fragments, which generates a pseudomatrix and inhibits early cementation.  
702 Authigenic clay minerals (probably smectite) coatings occur in the parent units  
703 (Fig. 12D) and are inferred to pre-date sand injection. Smectite coatings or rims  
704 are commonly related to the alteration of volcanic fragments and mafic minerals  
705 (e.g., biotite) (De Ros et al., 1997; Morad et al., 2010), which are common in the  
706 lithic Kreyenhagen sandstones.

707 Pervasive carbonate is a common diagenetic cement in injectites (Jonk et  
708 al., 2005), however, the TGIC is pervasively cemented by gypsum. Poikilotopic  
709 gypsum occurs as early diagenetic pore-filling cement in the Kreyenhagen parent  
710 units and in sandstone intrusions. It is interpreted as a product of fluid percolation  
711 through the complex (Fig. 17). Unfortunately, the gypsum cementation of the  
712 deep-marine Kreyenhagen sandstones and intrusions of the TGIC have no clear  
713 origin for this process. Gypsum precipitation in sandstones is normally  
714 eodiagenetic and related to brine in evaporitic environments (Glennie et al., 1978;  
715 Strong and Milodowski, 1987; Henares et al., 2014). However, saturation can be  
716 reached by alteration of volcanogenic material which releases large amounts of  
717 Ca to the porewaters (Hoareau et al., 2011). The volcanic-rich litharenites of  
718 Kreyenhagen Shale channel-fills are potential sources of volcanogenic material  
719 for alteration. The gypsum cementation, along with mechanical compaction  
720 destroyed the primary porosity of depositional and intrusive sandstones, making  
721 them barriers for fluid migration.

722 Late dissolution of primary and diagenetic constituents, along with  
723 precipitation of iron oxides and hydroxides, is probably the result of exposure of  
724 the rocks to surface or near-surface conditions, during percolation of meteoric  
725 waters (Fig. 17). The dissolution of primary and diagenetic products created  
726 significant secondary porosity, with values up to 22% in the injection breccia  
727 (Table 1). The localized precipitation of iron oxides and hydroxides, and clay  
728 minerals were a product of hydration and oxidation of iron-rich mineral, such as  
729 pyrite and biotite during telodiagenesis (Rodrigues and Goldberg, 201). Overall,  
730 the diagenetic history of the TGIC records intense eodiagenetic evolution  
731 influenced by its depositional environments, followed by progressive burial and  
732 ultimately late uplift and exhumation, driven by contractional tectonics.

733

### 734 **5.3. Microtextural analysis**

735 The disintegration of clasts from host mudrocks along with the embedding  
736 of individual sand grains in the intrusion walls provides evidence of erosion  
737 associated with the process of corrasion, as demonstrated in the Yellowbank  
738 Creek Injection Complex in California by Scott et al. (2009) and in the Vocontian  
739 Basin in France by Ravier et al. (2015). Corrasion is defined by Allen (1984) as  
740 the erosion promoted when grains impact a surface at high velocity, resulting in  
741 the detachment of clasts from that surface. The petrographic analysis confirms  
742 that corrasion is the one of the main mechanisms of erosion of host mudrocks of  
743 the TGIC (Figs. 14, 15). The detachment of mudrock clasts and subsequent  
744 abrasion by sand grains is the main factor associated with the enrichment of  
745 mudrock clasts in the intrusive petrofacies in relation to their parent sandstones  
746 (Fig. 15J). Scott et al. (2009) speculate that corrasion is also responsible for the  
747 development of erosional scours observed along the margins of injectites, which

748 are not described in detail but commonly observed in sandstone intrusions of the  
749 TGIC.

750 Petrographic analysis also revealed that the grains from the sandstone  
751 intrusions are often severely affected by micro-fracturing (Fig. 15). Microfractures  
752 can be developed by different geological processes such as weathering,  
753 transportation of grains from source rocks to depositional environment (Boggs,  
754 2009), mechanical compaction or tectonism during diagenesis (Makowitz et al.,  
755 2006), and meteorite impacts (Ferrière et al., 2009). Brittle grain deformation  
756 during burial forms fractures that are commonly wedge-shaped, with aligned  
757 spalling, and small-scale cataclasis (Makowitz et al., 2006). Microfracturing  
758 associated with meteorite impacts show a well-organized orientation as planar  
759 deformation structures (Trepmann, 2008). None of these patterns are shown by  
760 the grains of TGIC sandstone intrusions. Fractures in sandstone intrusions seem  
761 to be developed following the structure of monomineralic grains (quartz and  
762 feldspar) and rock fragments, without systematic relationships with neighbouring  
763 grains, as formed by burial or tectonic fracturing. Intragranular fracturing  
764 preceded gypsum cementation, given that fractures do not crosscut the  
765 intergranular gypsum cement. The intrusive petrofacies present higher  
766 percentages of micro-fractured grains (5-35%) than the depositional petrofacies  
767 of KS (5-10%) (Fig. 15J). This evidence indicates that the TGIC grain fractures  
768 were not generated *in situ* by mechanical compaction of the parent units and  
769 intrusions, but rather during sand injection emplacement.

770 Sands from the lowermost TGIC parent units may have been transported  
771 upward for ca. 400 m and laterally for at least hundreds of meters (Fig. 4). During  
772 granular flow grains are in constant movement which can induce intergranular

773 interactions such as frictional sliding and collisions among grains and between  
774 the grains and the host rocks. The intragranular fracturing patterns observed in  
775 the sandstone intrusions is very heterogeneous, and can be controlled by  
776 different parameters such as the stiffness, strength, and friction coefficient of  
777 different grains with different shapes and sizes (Li et al., 2018). The stress related  
778 to this process can cause mechanical flexure or torsions of crystalline structures  
779 of some minerals through preferential fragile crystallographic directions (e.g.,  
780 cleavages or twinning).

781         During sand injection, emplacement is likely to involve complex  
782 mechanisms which include multiple grain impacts, different types of grains and  
783 grain sizes, different grain velocities (turbulent flow) and collisional angles. The  
784 pattern of intragranular fractures in intrusion sandstones associated with their  
785 angular fractured margins, and the abnormal frequency and degree of their  
786 development, suggests that injected sand suffered intense intergranular  
787 collisions during turbulent flow. Such micro-fracturing pattern can be considered  
788 a possible diagnostic feature to identify sand injectites.

789

#### 790 **5.4. Fluid flow and reservoir petrofacies heterogeneity**

791         Sand injectites represent an emerging play in deep-water environments  
792 and may be characterised by typically good reservoir quality, playing a major role  
793 in fluid flow (Jonk, 2010). Once emplaced, they may form preferential conducts  
794 for fluid migration, as well as intrusive traps, constituting porous and permeable  
795 reservoirs of considerable volume and introducing high interconnectivity among  
796 otherwise isolated depositional sandbodies (Hurst and Cartwright, 2007).  
797 Sandstone heterogeneity strongly influences reservoir performance by controlling  
798 fluid flow (Wardlaw and Cassan, 1979; Weber, 1982). Consequently, reservoir



799 heterogeneity prediction is of prime importance for the planning and execution of  
800 hydrocarbon production strategies. Sand injectites can create permeable  
801 pathways for hydrocarbon migration and act as good reservoirs but, on the other  
802 hand, they are also prone to cementation which reduce their porosity and  
803 reservoir potential (Jonk, 2010). According to the definition of the diagenetic  
804 alterations of the TGIC through time, we can estimate when the sand injections  
805 and related depositional succession behaved as potential fluid flow pathways  
806 and/or barriers (Fig. 17).

807         Sand fluidization and remobilization occurred only in the Kreyenhagen  
808 Shale turbidites, implying that supra-lithostatic conditions were attained just  
809 inside this unit and not in the underlying formations. Absence of fluidization of the  
810 Domengine and Lodo formation sandstones was probably a response to their  
811 early calcite cementation. Pervasive early cementation inhibits further  
812 mechanical compaction and can compartmentalize reservoirs by acting as  
813 barriers to water (and hydrocarbon) flow (Morad et al., 2010). Furthermore, the  
814 compaction of sandstone sequences containing zones with laterally continuous  
815 carbonate cementation may lead to the development of overpressure in adjacent,  
816 weakly cemented zones (Morad, 1998). In this context, the early calcite  
817 cementation of Domengine and Lodo formations could have acted as an  
818 underlying barrier, constraining fluid escape to the weakly cemented, porous  
819 Kreyenhagen channel-fills, thus promoting overpressure build up (Fig 17, time 1).  
820 On the other hand, the channel-fills of the Kreyenhagen Shale sealed by low  
821 permeability muddy strata were intensely fluidized and remobilized by  
822 overpressured fluids.

823 Before sand injection, the Kreyenhagen Shale channel-fills were under  
824 shallow burial, affected by progressive mechanical compaction, with sealing  
825 mudrocks preventing connate fluids to escape supporting overpressure build up.  
826 As the pore-fluid pressure overcame the fracture gradient of the host mudrocks,  
827 hydraulic fracture propagation was initiated and a pressure gradient between the  
828 overpressured sands and the lower-pressure upper interval was formed (Hurst et  
829 al., 2011). To balance this pressure gradient, overpressured fluid flow migrated  
830 to lower pressure zones. When the fluid flow overcame the minimum fluidization  
831 velocity of the sediments, sand fluidization and remobilization started, injecting  
832 fluidized sand into the fractured host mudrocks (Vigorito and Hurst, 2010) (Fig.  
833 17, time 2). Hydraulic fracture propagation and sand injection eventually ceased  
834 when the pressure was balanced, stopping fluid flow. As the upper portion of the  
835 TGIC was eroded, we do not have evidence to determine whether the injections  
836 reached the paleo-seafloor or remained trapped in the shallow subsurface.

837 After emplacement, the intrusive network formed a network of pathways  
838 for fluid migration. Sand injections are reported to maintain relatively good  
839 porosity during shallow burial (Hurst and Cartwright, 2007), and the TGIC  
840 confirms this tendency because the intrusive network is overall more porous than  
841 its deposited parent units (Fig. 16). After sand injection, limited mechanical  
842 compaction followed by pervasive gypsum cementation caused heterogeneous  
843 but significant porosity reduction, creating barriers inside the complex (Fig. 17,  
844 time 3). Gypsum veins filling fractures and joints that cross the cemented  
845 sandstones may suggest multiple fluid overpressure episodes, or simply  
846 differential compaction and deformation during burial.

847           The last phase affecting the complex is associated with the Late  
848 Paleogene-Neogene exhumation of San Joaquin Basin. Significant oxidation  
849 (oxides and hydroxides) and dissolution of primary constituents, pseudomatrix,  
850 argillaceous intraclasts, and gypsum was promoted by the circulation of meteoric  
851 water within both the depositional and injected sandstones. This exhumation  
852 created pervasive secondary porosity, increasing fluid flow and consequently  
853 improving final reservoir quality (Fig. 17, time 4).

854           The diagenetic processes observed in the TGIC suggest that despite sand  
855 injections it usually has good porosity and may constitute good reservoirs.  
856 However, post-injection compaction, cementation and dissolution may change  
857 significantly the porosity and reservoir quality of injectites through time.

858

## 859 **6. Conclusions**

860           This study determined the stratigraphic organization and the petrogenetic  
861 relationships between depositional and intrusive petrofacies of the TGIC. It also  
862 evaluated how the diagenetic processes and reservoir petrofacies characteristics  
863 of sand injection complexes may vary through time. These results are important  
864 to understand injection complex architecture and petrofacies association, which  
865 can be used to model the flow of petroleum and aqueous fluids within injectite  
866 networks. The key conclusions resulting from this study are as follows:

867

868 (1) The pattern of compositional and textural parameters within the succession  
869 and its provenance signatures indicated that the sand supply to shallow and  
870 deep-water sandstones was constrained by the depositional geodynamic

871 evolution of the San Joaquin Basin during the early and middle Paleogene,  
872 associated with active tectonic setting and eustatic sea-level fluctuations.

873

874 (2) Field observations and petrofacies associations indicate that the parent units  
875 for the intrusive network were the turbiditic channels of the Kreyenhagen  
876 Formation without contribution from the underlying Lodo and Domengine  
877 formations.

878

879 (3) The injection of fluidised sand into hydrofractures resulted in the emplacement  
880 of a network of porous and permeable conduits of dykes, sills and breccias within  
881 thick impermeable strata, creating a porous plumbing system well-connected  
882 horizontally and vertically for fluid migration and diagenetic processes.

883

884 (4) Intrusive petrofacies are more porous than depositional parent units,  
885 presenting better reservoir quality.

886

887 (5) Corrasion is identified as an important process of erosion of host mudrocks.

888

889 (6) Intense intragranular micro-fracturing of quartz, feldspars and lithic fragments  
890 is assumed to have formed during fluidization and injection of sand, through  
891 intergranular collisions, and can be considered a potential diagnostic feature of  
892 sand injectites.

893

894 (7) Differential diagenetic processes influenced overpressure conditions and fluid  
895 migration, by creating flow barriers in the underlying units (early calcite

896 cementation of Lodo and Domengine formations), aiding lateral fluid migration  
897 into Kreyenhagen channel-fills. Post-injection compaction and gypsum  
898 cementation of intrusions and parent units reduced primary porosity, followed by  
899 telodiagenetic processes leading to intense cement dissolution by meteoric  
900 water, developing secondary porosity.

901

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## 1329 **Figure Captions**

1330 **Figure 1.** Geological context overview and location of the study area (modified from  
1331 Zvirtes et al., 2019). (A) Simplified geographic and geological map of North and Central

1332 California. (B) W-E geological cross-sections showing the tectonic evolution of the Great  
1333 Valley forearc basin from Late Cretaceous subduction system to the present transform  
1334 regime of the San Andreas Fault system (modified from Dickinson and Seeley, 1979),  
1335 and the relative position of the Tumey Giant Injection Complex (TGIC). (C) Regional  
1336 geological map of the study area, with the relevant stratigraphic units (modified from  
1337 Bartow, 1996); (D) Schematic NW-SE section along Tumey and Panoche Hills, showing  
1338 the erosional truncation of progressively older stratigraphic units toward the west-  
1339 northwest, and the relative position of Tumey Hill succession (modified from Sharman et  
1340 al., 2017).

1341

1342 **Figure 2.** (A) Detailed geological map of the Tumey Hill area, with the main depositional  
1343 and intrusive units (blue) of the Tumey Giant Injection Complex and location of the  
1344 samples analysed in this paper. (B) W-E cross section of the Tumey Hill area (see map  
1345 for location). Note that the sandstone intrusions (in blue) are schematically represented  
1346 with exaggerated size, for visualization proposes.

1347

1348 **Figure 3.** (A) Generalized stratigraphic column for the Panoche and Tumey Hills area  
1349 with the architectural organization of the Panoche Giant Injection Complex emplaced  
1350 during the Early Paleocene into muddy strata of Moreno Formation (Vigorito et al., 2008),  
1351 and of the Tumey Giant Injection Complex emplaced in the Kreyenhagen Shale.  
1352 Abbreviations: Cret. = Cretaceous; Fm. = Formation; M = Middle; Sh. = Shale; Ss. =  
1353 Sandstone. (modified from Johnson and Graham, 2007; Sharman et al., 2017). (B)  
1354 Stratigraphic column of Tumey Giant Injection Complex at Tumey Hill area, with  
1355 lithostratigraphic organization (above) and geometries of the main intrusive bodies of the  
1356 complex (below).

1357

1358 **Figure 4.** (A) Satellite image (Google Earth) of Tumey Hill, with the location of the main  
1359 log profiles presented in B (eye view is 40° to topographic surface toward East at 2.35

1360 km altitude). (B) Stratigraphic log sections of Tumey Hill area, with geological  
1361 interpretation and facies associations of the complex. Note that the intrusions between  
1362 logs (blue) are schematically correlated for spatial and geometric visualization (modified  
1363 from Zvirtes et al., 2019).

1364

1365 **Figure 5.** Schematic 3D block diagram representing the lithostratigraphic and  
1366 architectural organization of the Tumey Giant Injection Complex, with relative location of  
1367 the outcrops presented throughout the paper (modified from Zvirtes et al., 2019).

1368

1369 **Figure 6.** Outcrops of depositional turbiditic channel-fills (parent units) of Kreyenhagen  
1370 Formation. (A) Modified depositional turbiditic sandstones (>6 m thick) with depositional  
1371 and remobilization structures, overlain by brown clay-rich mudrocks being intruded by  
1372 dykes and sills that emanate from the turbiditic body; (B) Detail of the upper erosional  
1373 surface of the channel with development of sub-parallel banding; (C) Detail of the  
1374 irregular and segmented sandstone dyke emanating from the underlying turbiditic  
1375 sandstone; (D) Picture of the upper channel-fill feeding a wing-like intrusion; (E) Basal  
1376 section the upper sandy channel-fill with preserved large-scale cross-bedding and  
1377 conglomeratic basal lag marking erosional surface inside the channel; (F) Photo  
1378 interpretation of € (modified from Zvirtes et al. (2019).

1379

1380 **Figure 7.** Upper intrusive interval of the Tumey Giant Injection Complex. (A) 3D block  
1381 diagram of figure 5 with location of the wing-like intrusion system; (B) Panorama view of  
1382 the upper intrusion interval showing the geographical location of the main parent unit  
1383 (left), the related wing-like intrusion (right) and breccia zones (background); (C) Picture  
1384 of the main outcrop zone of the wing-like intrusion and the host biosiliceous mudrocks;  
1385 (D) Close view of the main steps of the wing-like intrusion with feeder dykes (below)  
1386 connected with the thick intrusion steps (above) and breccias to the right.

1387

1388 **Figure 8.** Outcrops of the injection breccia zones. (A) Panoramic view of the injection  
 1389 breccia outcrop belt developed within biosiliceous mudrocks in the upper intrusive  
 1390 interval (white rocks) and respective stratigraphic log (right); (B) Biosiliceous mudrocks  
 1391 intensely brecciated and injected by medium-grained sandstone with mudrock clasts with  
 1392 varied shapes and sizes. Detail of gypsum veins filling fractures in the right; (C) Photo of  
 1393 matrix-supported injection breccia (dispersive breccia); (D) Photointerpretation of (C).  
 1394 Yellow: sandstone; Brown: Mudrock clasts; Blue: Gypsum veins.

1395

1396 **Figure 9.** Summary of the characteristics of depositional and intrusive petrofacies.

1397

1398 **Figure 10** – Meso- and micro-scale characteristics of Lodo (A, B, C and D) and  
 1399 Domengine (E, F, G and H) sandstones. (A) Outcrop of Lodo Formation displaying  
 1400 intercalation of turbiditic sandstones, bioclasts-rich conglomerates , and dark brownish  
 1401 mudrocks. Log section to the left; (B) Photomicrographs of a well sorted, medium-grained  
 1402 arkose (uncrossed polarizers //P at top left; crossed polarizers XP at bottom right); (C)  
 1403 Arkose with pore-filling poikilotopic calcite cement (Cal) , obliterating primary porosity  
 1404 and replacing quartz (Qz), feldspars (Kf and Pl) and chert (Ch) grains (yellow arrows)  
 1405 (XP); (D) High magnification view of calcite cementation and replacement of plagioclase  
 1406 (Pl), K-feldspar (Kf) and quartz (Qz).(XP); (E) Outcrop of Domengine sandstone intensely  
 1407 modified by bioturbation with randomly orientated burrows (detailed in the top right); (F)  
 1408 Photomicrographs of shallow marine, well sorted, very fine-grained lithic arkose, with  
 1409 glauconite pellets (uncrossed polarizers //P at top left ; crossed polarizers XP at bottom  
 1410 right); (G) Lithic arkose of Domengine Formation rich in quartz, K-feldspar and chert  
 1411 fragments cemented by calcite (XP) (H) Detail of pervasive pore-filing calcite  
 1412 cementation (XP).

1413

1414 **Figure 11.** Petrological characteristic of the depositional and intrusive sandstones and  
 1415 their petrogenetic associations. (A) Detrital composition of sandstones plotted in Folk

1416 (1968) diagram; (B) Provenance diagram (Dickinson, 1985), showing the variation of  
1417 sources between depositional sandstones and correlation with intrusive petrofacies.  
1418 Note the petrogenetic association between Kreyenhagen channel-fills (orange circles)  
1419 and sandstone intrusions (yellow circles), suggesting a common genetic origin.

1420

1421 **Figure 12.** Photomicrographs of the Kreyenhagen sandstones (parent units). (A)  
1422 Photomicrographs (parallel: //P and crossed polarizers: XP) of sample 06: poorly sorted,  
1423 fine- to medium-grained feldspathic litharenite, rich in sedimentary, volcanic and low-  
1424 grade metamorphic rock fragments (yellow arrow); (B) Pervasive pore-filling gypsum (Gy)  
1425 cementation in sandstone with quartz (Qz), K-feldspar (Kf), plagioclase (Pl) grains,  
1426 volcanic (Volc) and metamorphic rock fragments of phyllite (Phy); (XP); (C) Intense  
1427 mechanical compaction of biotite and mudrock fragments, with formation of  
1428 pseudomatrix (yellow arrows)(//P); (D) Pore-lining and grain coatings authigenic clays  
1429 (probably smectite) inhibiting gypsum cementation; (XP); (E) Volcanic rock fragment with  
1430 trachytic texture; (XP); (F) Argillaceous pseudomatrix developed by intense mechanical  
1431 compaction and deformation of mud intraclasts and micas; (//P).

1432

1433 **Figure 13.** Photomicrographs of the sandstone intrusions. (A) Photomicrographs (//P  
1434 and XP) of moderately sorted feldspathic litharenite rich in sedimentary (chert and  
1435 mudrock), volcanic and low-grade metamorphic rock fragments. (B) Pervasive pore-filling  
1436 poikilotopic gypsum (Gy) cementation. Chert (Ch) and phyllite (Phy) fragments. (XP). (C)  
1437 Intense mechanical compaction and pseudomatrix development from deformation of  
1438 biotite and mudrock fragments (XP). (D) Quartz, feldspars and chert grains cemented by  
1439 poikilotopic gypsum cement. Note the strong intragranular micro-fracturing of some  
1440 quartz and feldspars (XP). (E) Lithic sandstone with alignment of biotite and mudrock  
1441 fragments. Secondary porosity created by dissolution of gypsum cement. Note the  
1442 intense grains fracturing, especially the quartz grains in the bottom left of the picture



1443 (//P). (F) Dissolution of argillaceous pseudomatrix, gypsum cement, and biosiliceous  
 1444 fragments (centre) generating secondary porosity (//P).

1445

1446 **Figure 14.** Photomicrographs of sandstone intrusion in the breccia zone. (A) Mudrock  
 1447 clast injection breccia (sample 85) with angular and rounded fragments of biosiliceous  
 1448 mudstones with wide range of sizes, surrounded by a matrix of medium-grained sand;  
 1449 (//P); (B) Host biosiliceous mudrock (//P) rich in diatoms (bottom left; //P) and radiolarians  
 1450 (top right; XP) preserved as amorphous opal-A and micro-crystalline opal-CT; (C)  
 1451 Biosiliceous mudrock fragment being disintegrated by sand injection (corrasion),  
 1452 generating an input of sand size host strata fragments to the injected sandstones (//P);  
 1453 (D) Detail of penetration of sand grains in the margins of mudrock fragment. Note  
 1454 development of secondary porosity associated with dissolution of gypsum cement,  
 1455 feldspar grains and volcanic rock fragments (yellow arrows; //P); (E) Micro-dike of sand  
 1456 injection into host biosiliceous mudrock. Note deformation of the host biosiliceous  
 1457 material close to embedded grains (yellow arrows; //P); (F) SEM image of and embedded  
 1458 quartz grain into host biosiliceous mudstone. Note intragranular microfracture crossing  
 1459 the grain (yellow arrow).

1460

1461 **Figure 15.** (A) Photomicrograph of a sandstone dyke (sample 40A), with grains of quartz  
 1462 (yellow arrows) and feldspar (red arrow) with intense intragranular micro-fracturing (XP);  
 1463 (B) Photomicrograph of a micro-fractured large grain of chert (centre)(//P); (C)  
 1464 Photomicrograph of a sandstone sill (sample 38A) with up to 35% of the grains micro-  
 1465 fractured. Note orthogonal fracture pattern along crystalline structure of plagioclase (Pl);  
 1466 (D) Two quartz grains highly fractured with very irregular and sharp margins (BSE); (E)  
 1467 Strongly micro-fractured quartz grains (BSE); (F) Micro-fractured feldspar (BSE); (G)  
 1468 Quartz grain with multiple conchoidal fracture surfaces associated with intense  
 1469 intergranular collisions (SEM); (H) Quartz grain with flaked surface marked by conchoidal  
 1470 fractures (SEM); (I) BSE image of micro-fractured quartz grain embedded in biosiliceous

1471 mudrock; (J) Schematic conceptual model for the processes of corrosion of host rocks  
 1472 and micro-fracturing of clastic grains during sand remobilization from parent units and  
 1473 intrusion into opening fracture system.

1474

1475 **Figure 16.** Ehrenberg diagram (Ehrenberg, 1989) showing the relationship between total  
 1476 intergranular volume and intergranular cement of sandstones, as evaluation of the  
 1477 porosity reduction by cementation and/or compaction of depositional and intrusive  
 1478 petrofacies. Note that the sandstone intrusions present a more porous petrofacies  
 1479 characteristic than their parent units of Kreyenhagen channel-fills that were more  
 1480 affected by mechanical compaction presenting a strongly compacted petrofacies  
 1481 characteristic.

1482

1483 **Figure 17** – Diagenetic and petrological evolution of the Tumey Giant Injection Complex  
 1484 and its impact on fluid flow. Board displaying the diagenetic sequence of depositional  
 1485 and intrusive petrofacies (top left). Lodo and Domengine petrofacies present similar  
 1486 diagenetic evolution therefore are shown at the same evolutionary diagenetic sequence  
 1487 (lower portion of the board). The same is applied to the sandstone intrusions and parent  
 1488 unit of Kreyenhagen Shale. The sequence of the main diagenetic processes affecting  
 1489 the Tumey Giant Injection Complex are represented in the schematic geological sections  
 1490 1 to 4.

1491

## 1492 **Table Captions**

1493 **Table 1.** Detrital, diagenetic and porosity amounts (% of total rock volume) of deposited  
 1494 and intrusive sandstones, along with % of microfractured grains. (Grain parameters: Qm  
 1495 = monocrystalline quartz; Qp = polycrystalline quartz; K = K-feldspar; P = plagioclase; F  
 1496 = K + P; Lv = volcanic fragments; Ls = sedimentary fragments; Lm = metamorphic  
 1497 fragments; M = micas).

1498

1499 **Table 2.** Recalculated modal point count data for the intrusive sandstones of the Tumey  
1500 Giant Injection Complex and deposited sandstones of the Kreyenhagen formation, and  
1501 sandstones of the Lodo and Domengine formations. (Av., average; SD. standard  
1502 deviation. Grain parameters: Qm = monocrystalline quartz; Qp = polycrystalline quartz;  
1503 Qt = Qm + Qp; K = K-feldspar; M = phyllosilicates; P = plagioclase; F = K + P; L =  
1504 aphanitic lithic grains; Lt = L + Qp; Lv = volcanic fragments; Ls = sedimentary fragments;  
1505 Lm = metamorphic fragments).

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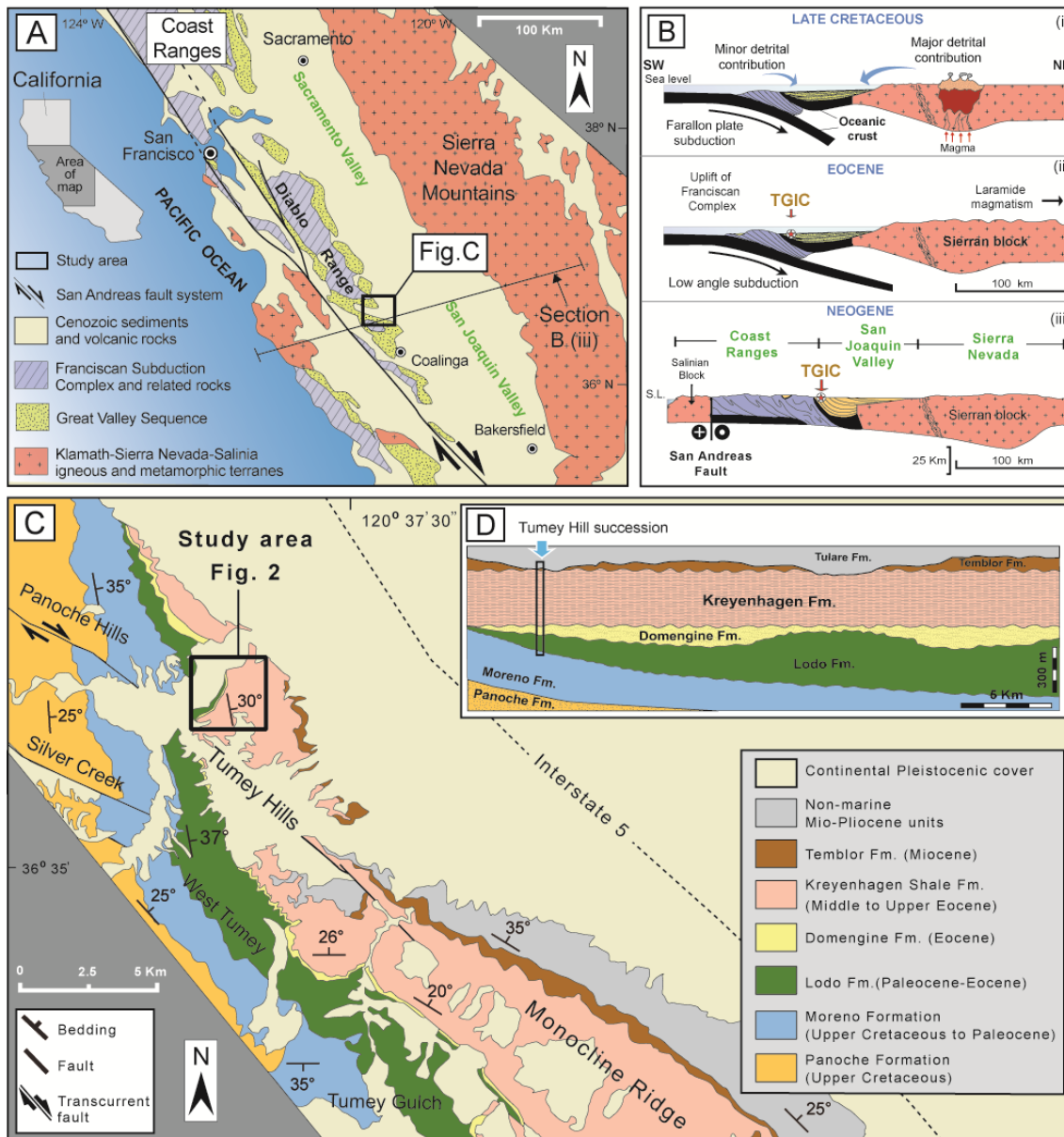
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1511 Fig. 1



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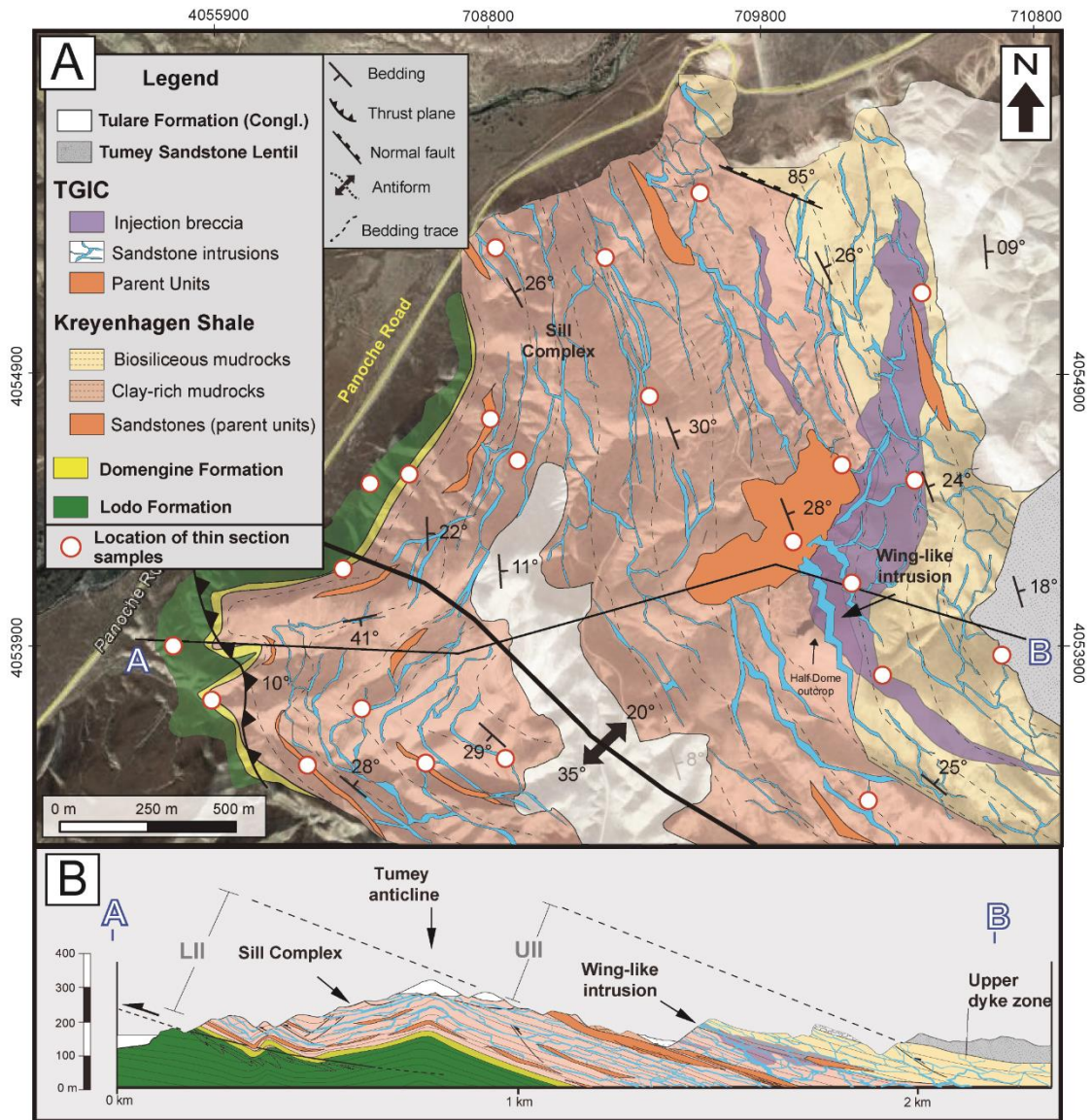
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1519 Fig. 2



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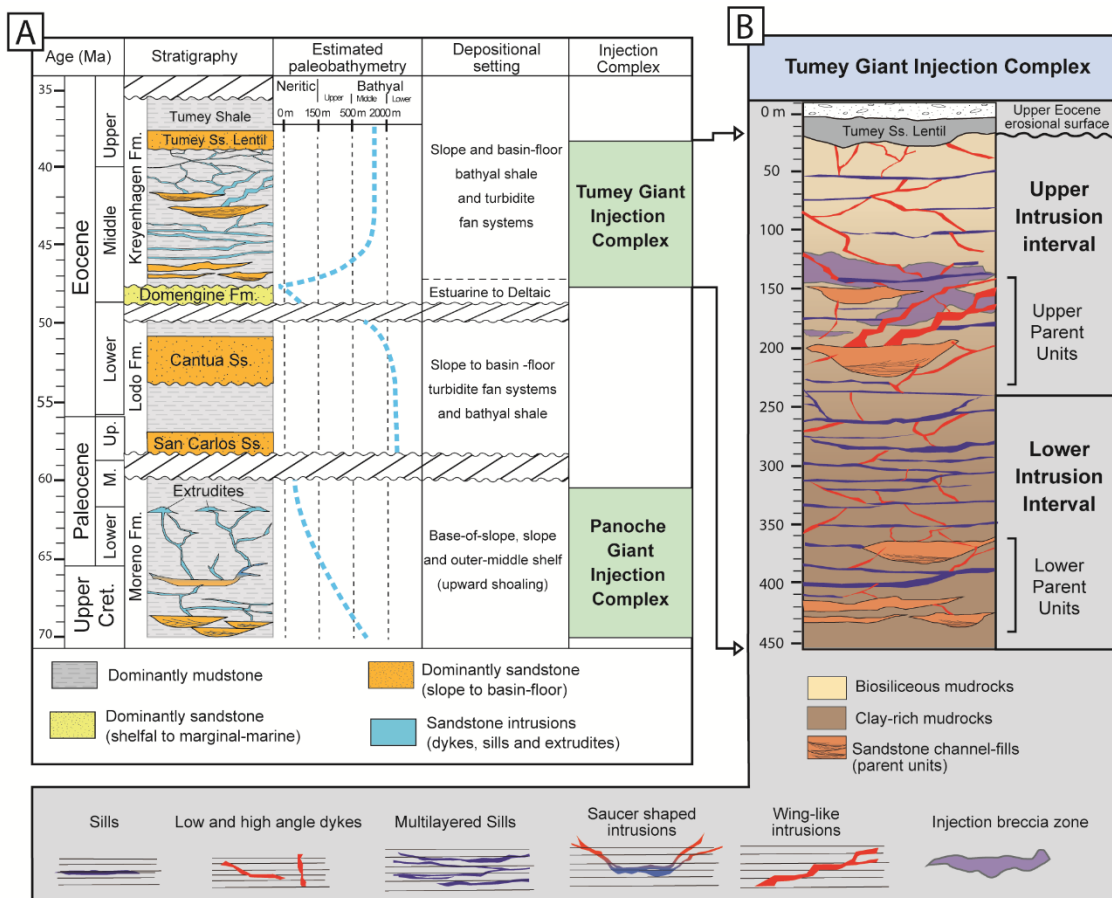
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**Fig. 3**

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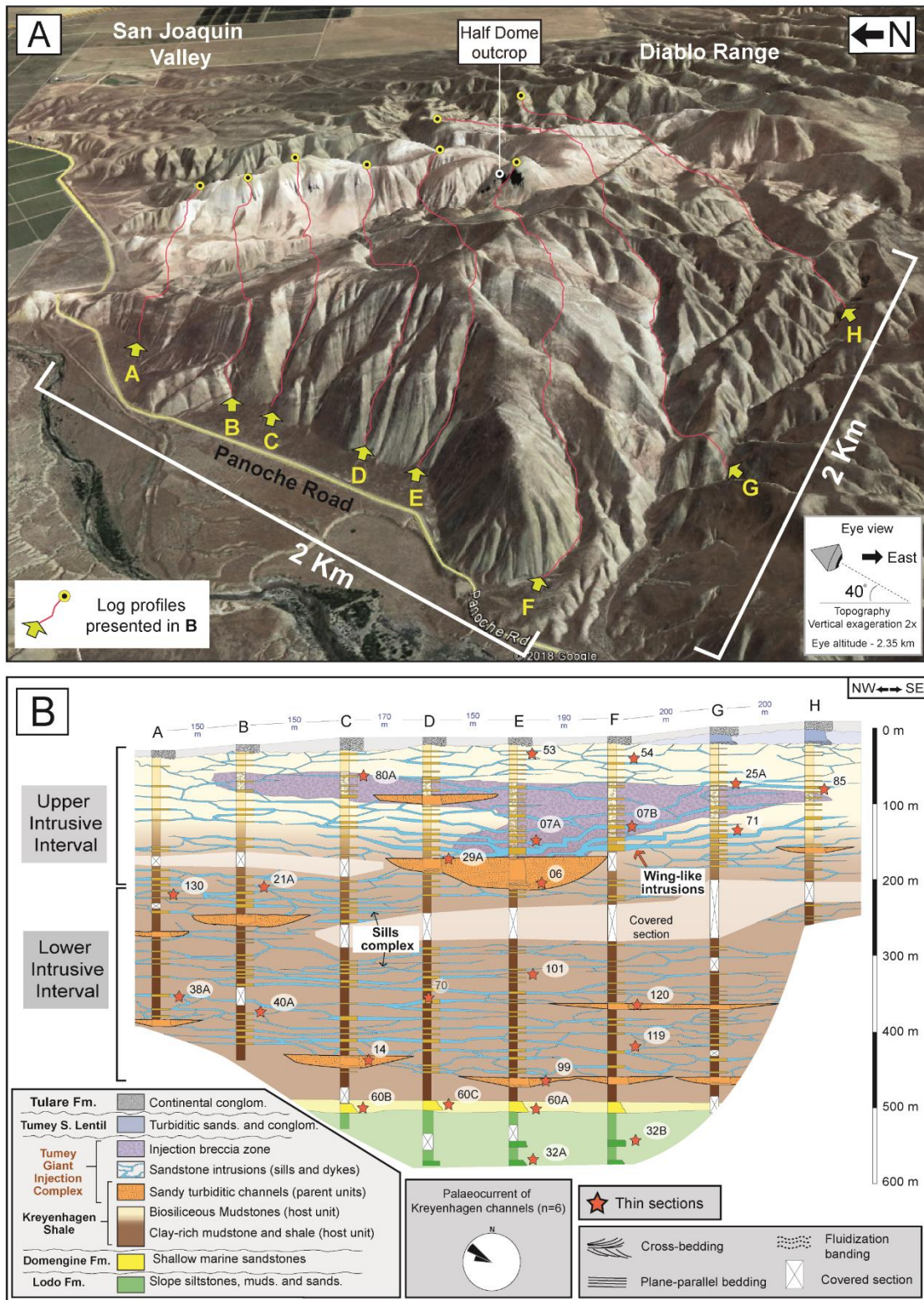
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1539 Fig. 4

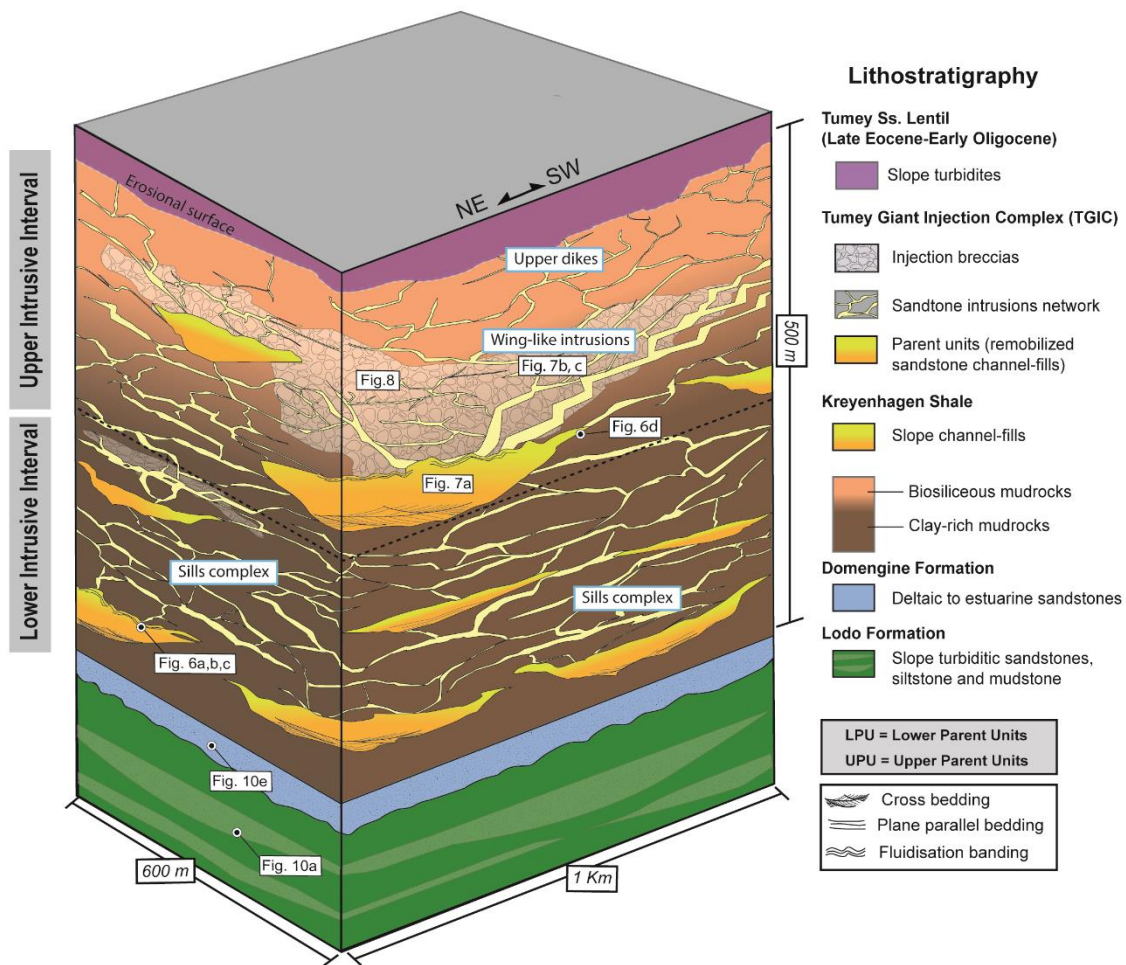


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1543 [Fig. 5](#)



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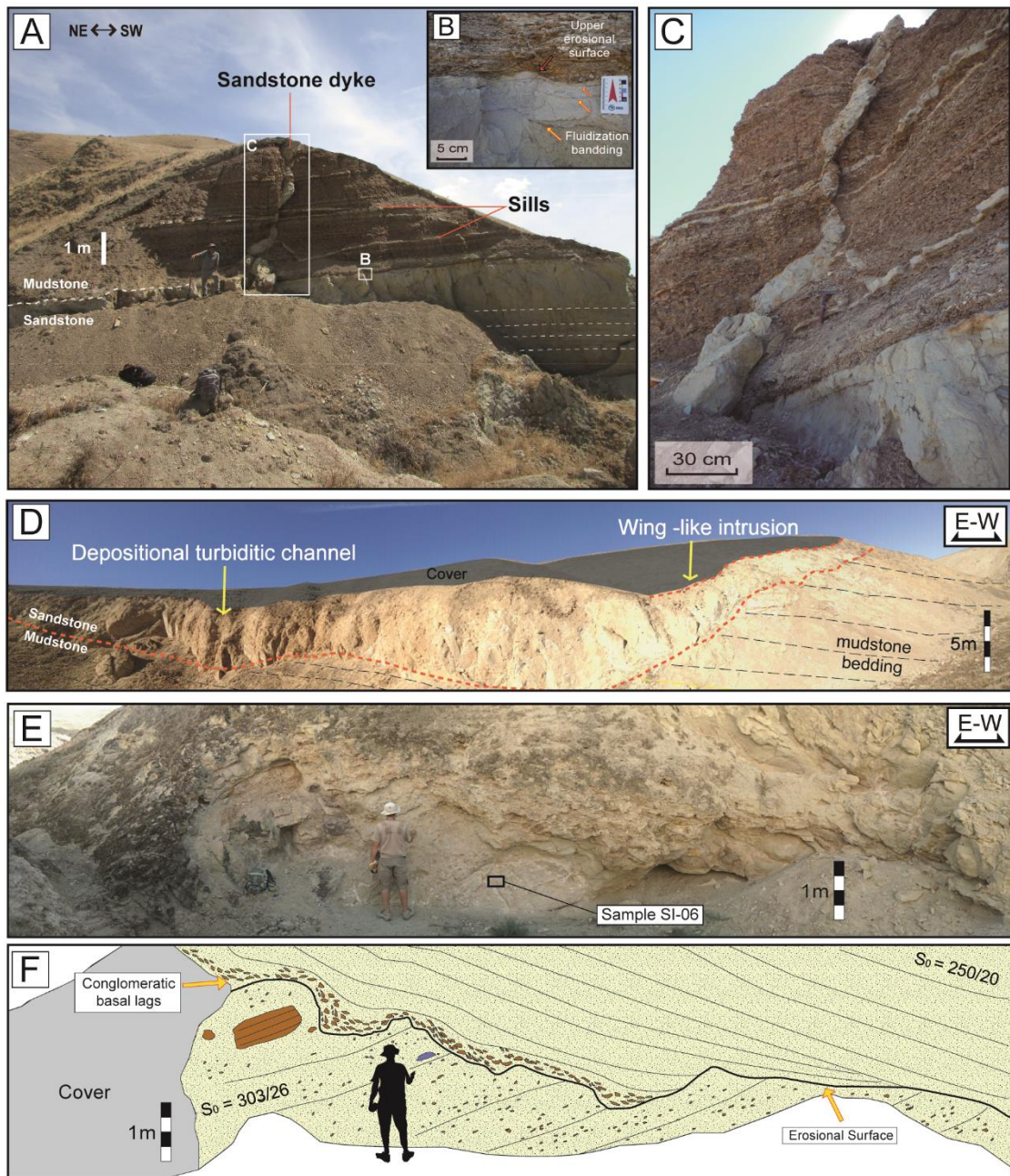
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1552 [Fig. 6](#)





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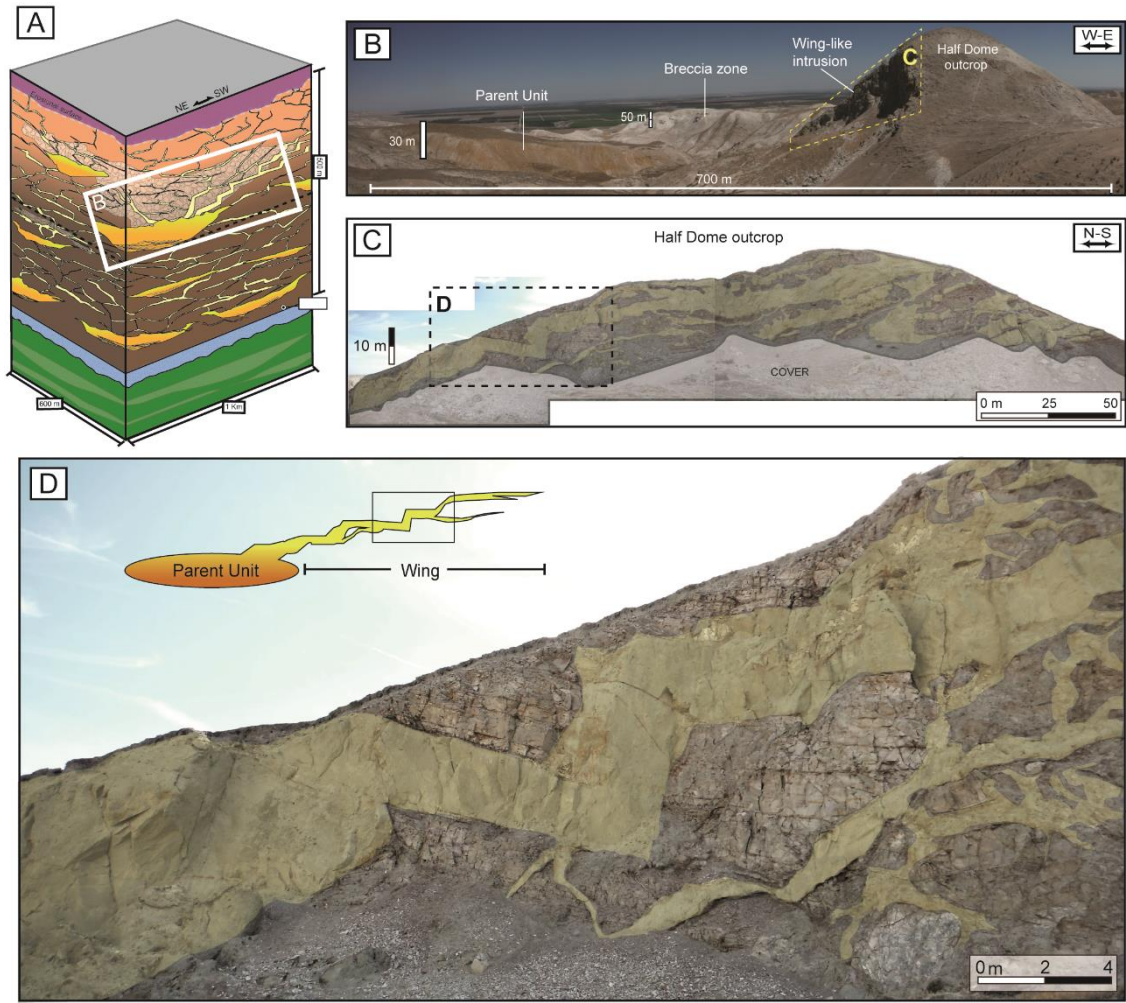
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**Fig. 7**

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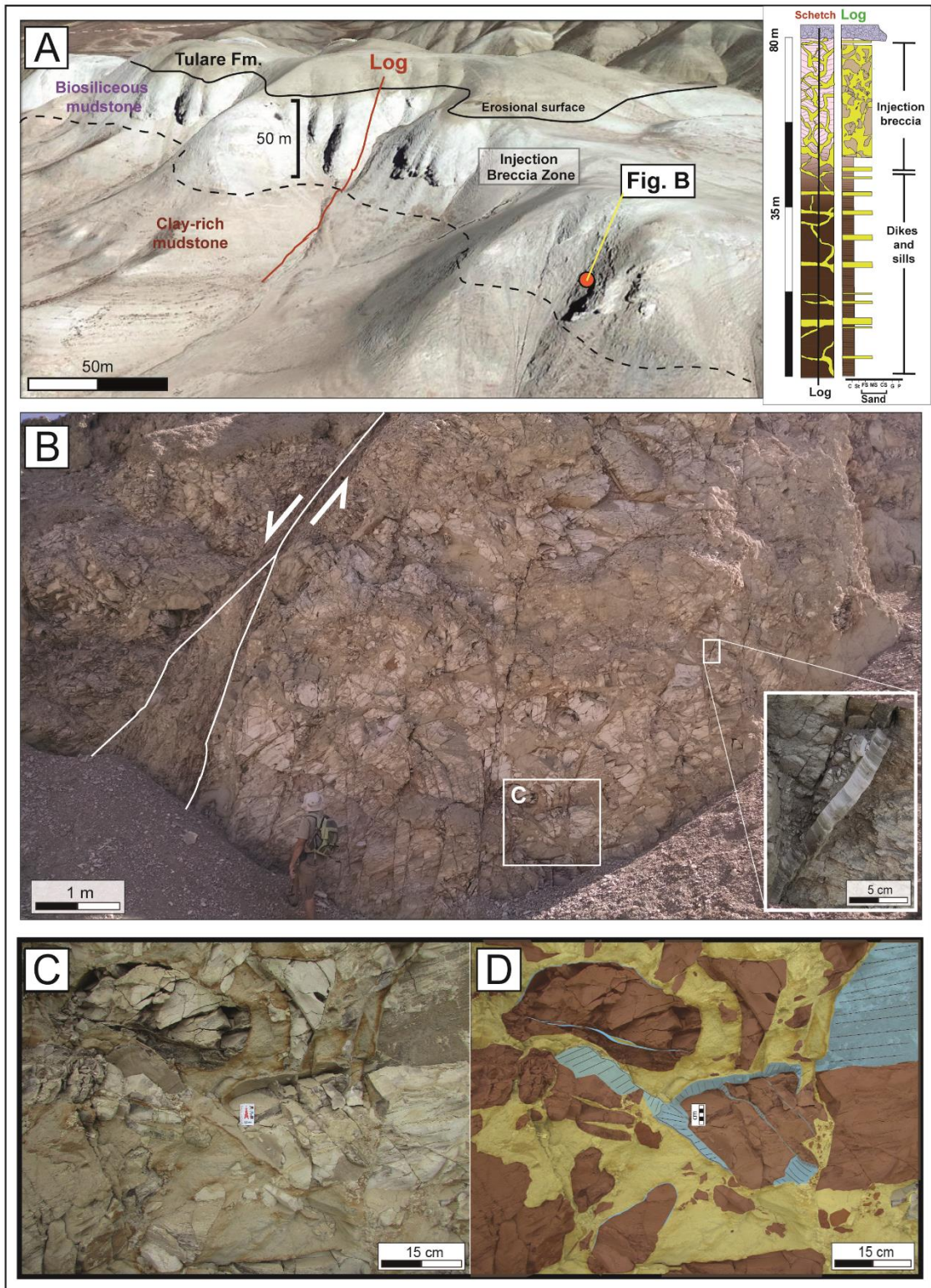
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**Fig. 8**



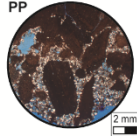

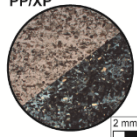

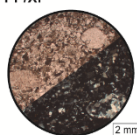

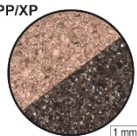

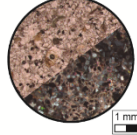

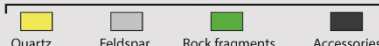

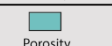
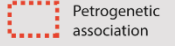
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1573 **Fig. 9**

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	Photomicrographs PP/XP	Modal composition	Texture	Siliciclastic Classification (Folk, 1980)	Provenance signature (Dickinson, 1985)	Injectite and diagenetic processes	Porosity
Intrusive Petrofacies	Breccias 		Moderately sorted, fine- to medium-grained sandstone with mudstone clasts; abundant micro-fractures (up to 20%)	Arkosic litharenite (mudstone-clast injection breccia)	Dissected Arc	Brecciation of host mudstone and sand injections; weak compaction; strong dissolution of cements and primary constituents	High porosity (up to 22%); enhanced by dissolution of primary grains and autigenic cements;
	Dykes and sills 		Moderately to well sorted, fine- to medium-grained sandstone; abundant micro-fractures (upt to 30%)	Arkosic litharenite to litharenite	Dissected Arc	Sand fluidization and injection; pervasive intergranular microfracturing; mechanical compaction; formation of pseudomatrix; pervasive gypsum cementation; dissolution of primary constituents, cements and argillaceous pseudomatrix	Low to high porosity (min. 0%; average: 9%; max. 18%) reduced by cementation and increased by primary grains and autigenic cements dissolution;
Depositional Petrofacies	Kreyenhagen (parent unit) 		Poorly to moderately sorted, very fine to coarse grained sandstone; common micro-fractures (<10%)	Arkosic litharenite	Dissected Arc	Sand fluidization and remobilization; strong mechanical compaction; formation of pseudomatrix; autigenic clay coatings; pervasive gypsum cementation; dissolution of primary constituents and cements and argillaceous pseudomatrix	Low porosity (min. 2%; average: 4%; max. 7%); reduced by strong mechanical compaction and to lesser extent gypsum cementation
	Domengine 		Well to moderately sorted, very-fine to medium-grained sandstone; rare micro-fractures (<<5%)	Quartz-rich lithic arkose	Dissected Arc (mixed)	Mechanical compaction; pervasive calcite cementation; partial dissolution of primary constituents and cement	Low porosity reduced mainly by calcite cementation (min. 0%; average: 5%; max. 10%);
	Lodo 		Well to moderately sorted, very-fine to medium-grained sandstone; rare micro-fractures (<<5%)	Arkose	Basement Uplift	Mechanical compaction; pervasive calcite cementation; partial dissolution of primary constituents and cement	Low porosity reduced by calcite cementation (Min. 4%; average: 5.5%; max. 7%);
<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> <div style="text-align: center;"> <p>Clastic components</p>  </div> <div style="text-align: center;"> <p>Diagenetic cements</p>  </div> <div style="text-align: center;"> <p>Porosity</p>  </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Petrogenetic association</p> </div> </div>							

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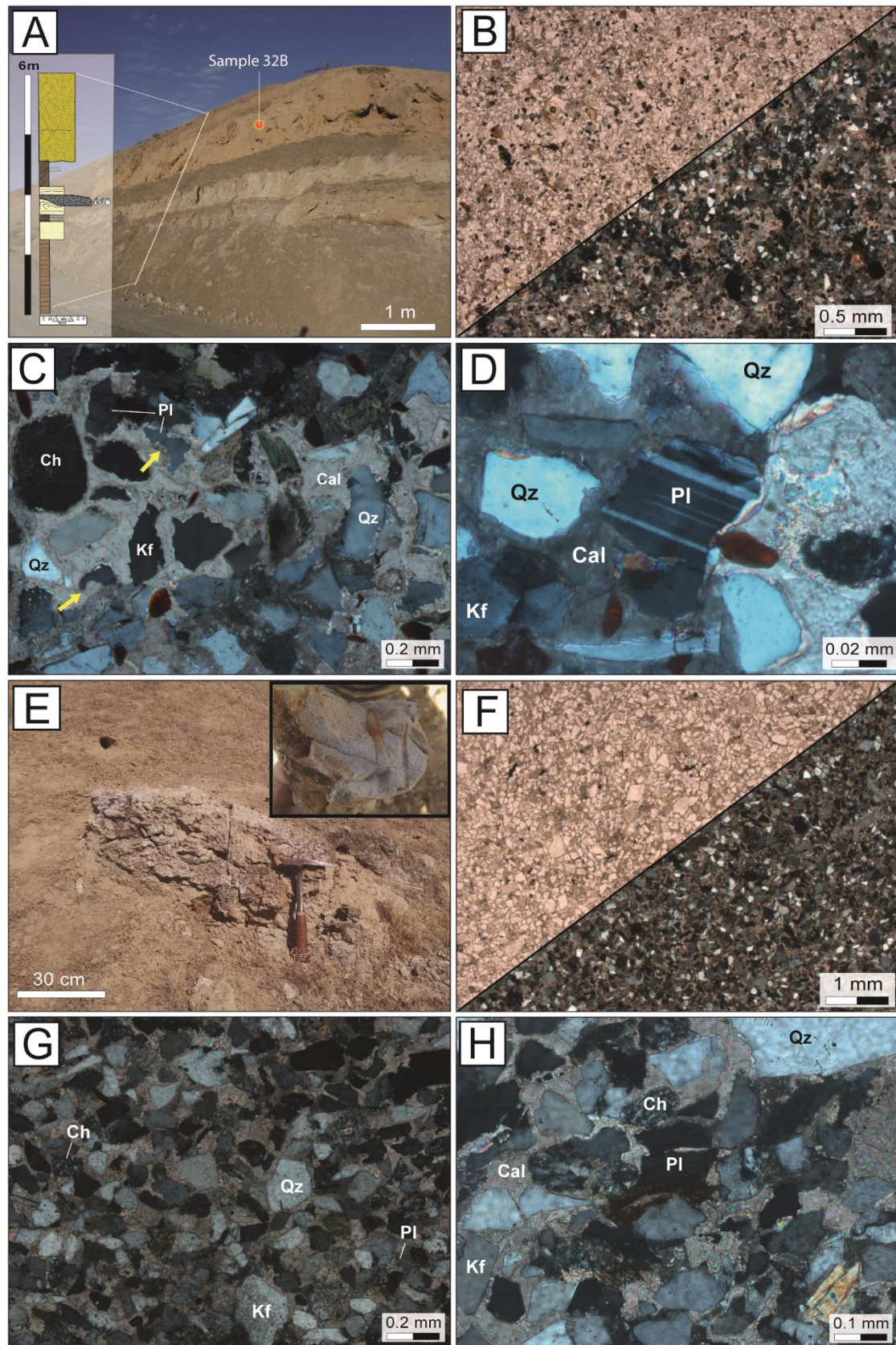
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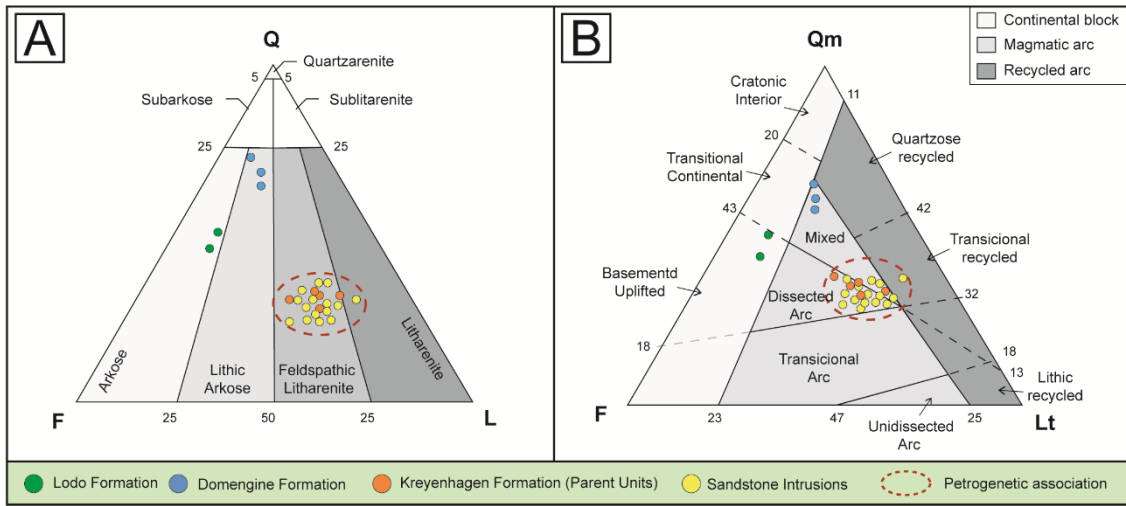
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Fig. 10



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1584 **Fig. 11**



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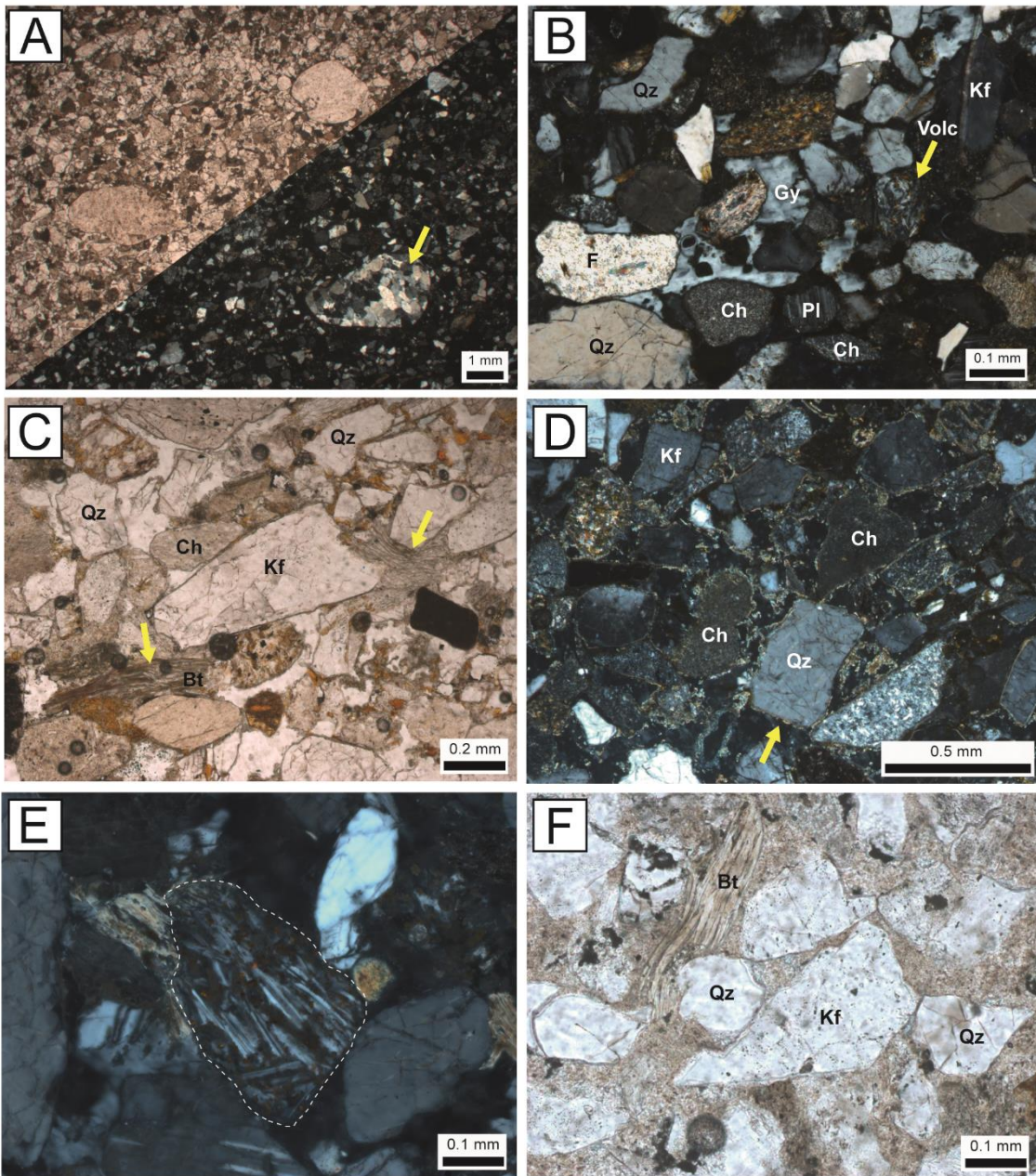
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1600 **Fig. 12**

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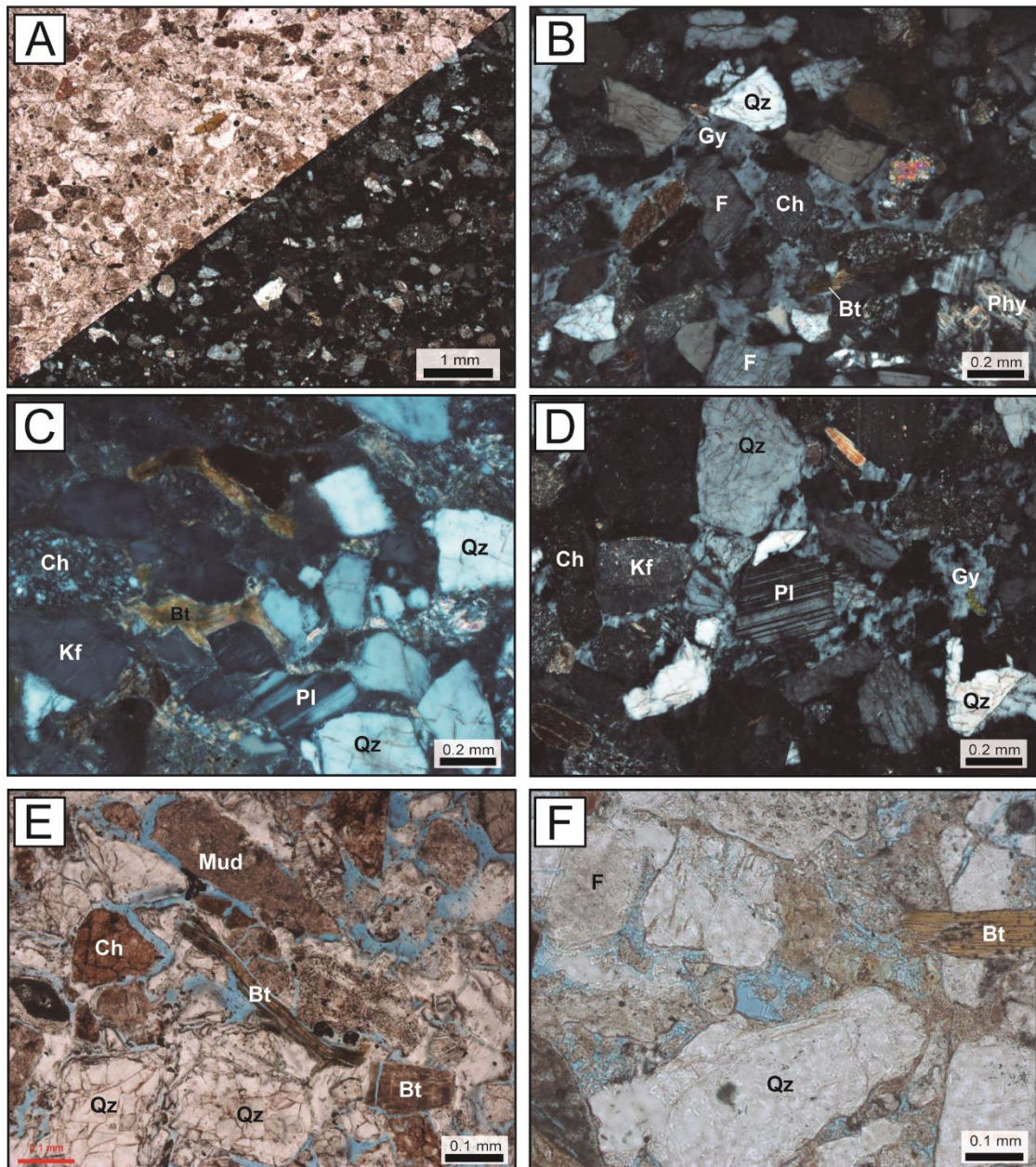
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**Fig. 13**



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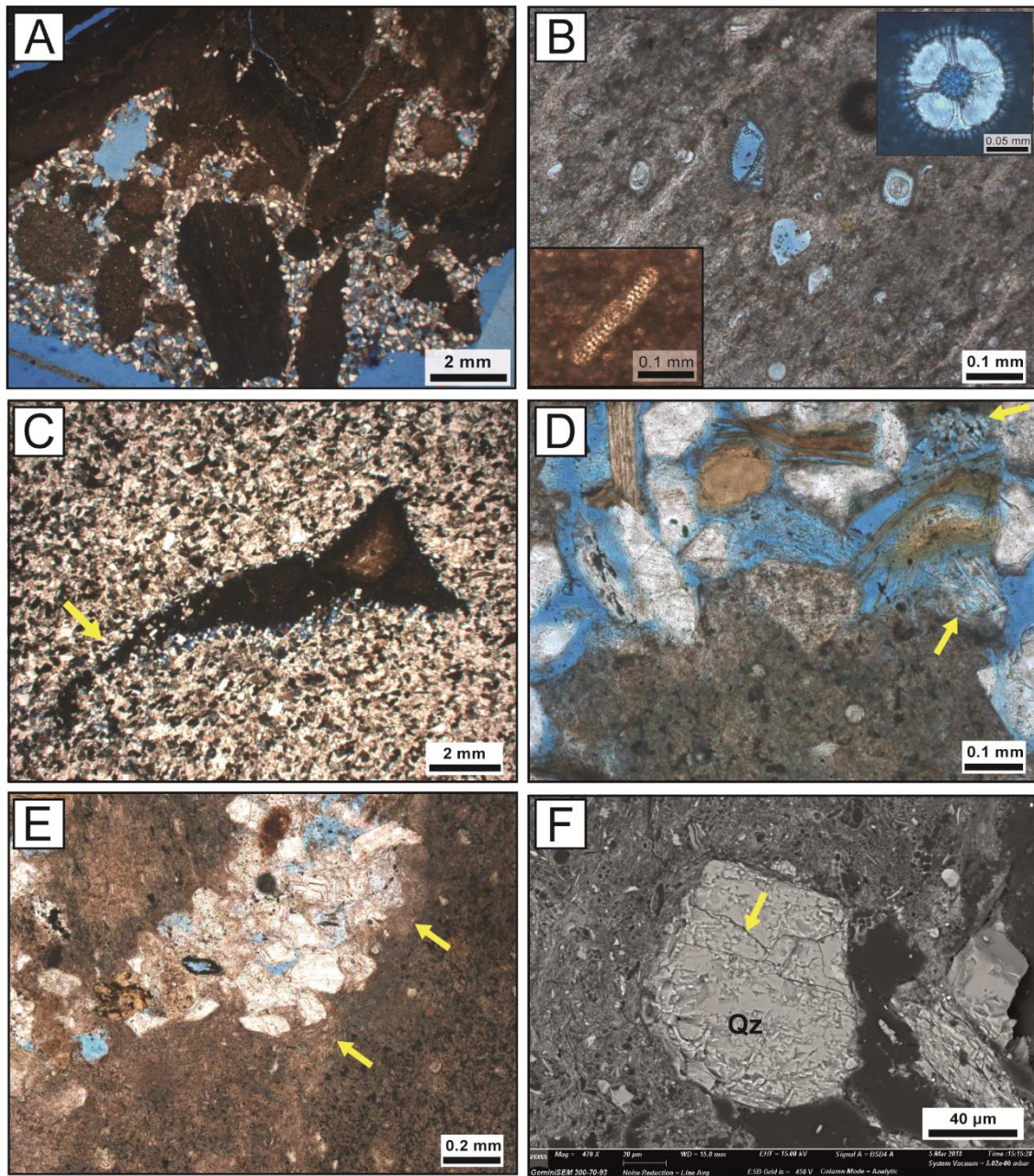
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1614 Fig. 14





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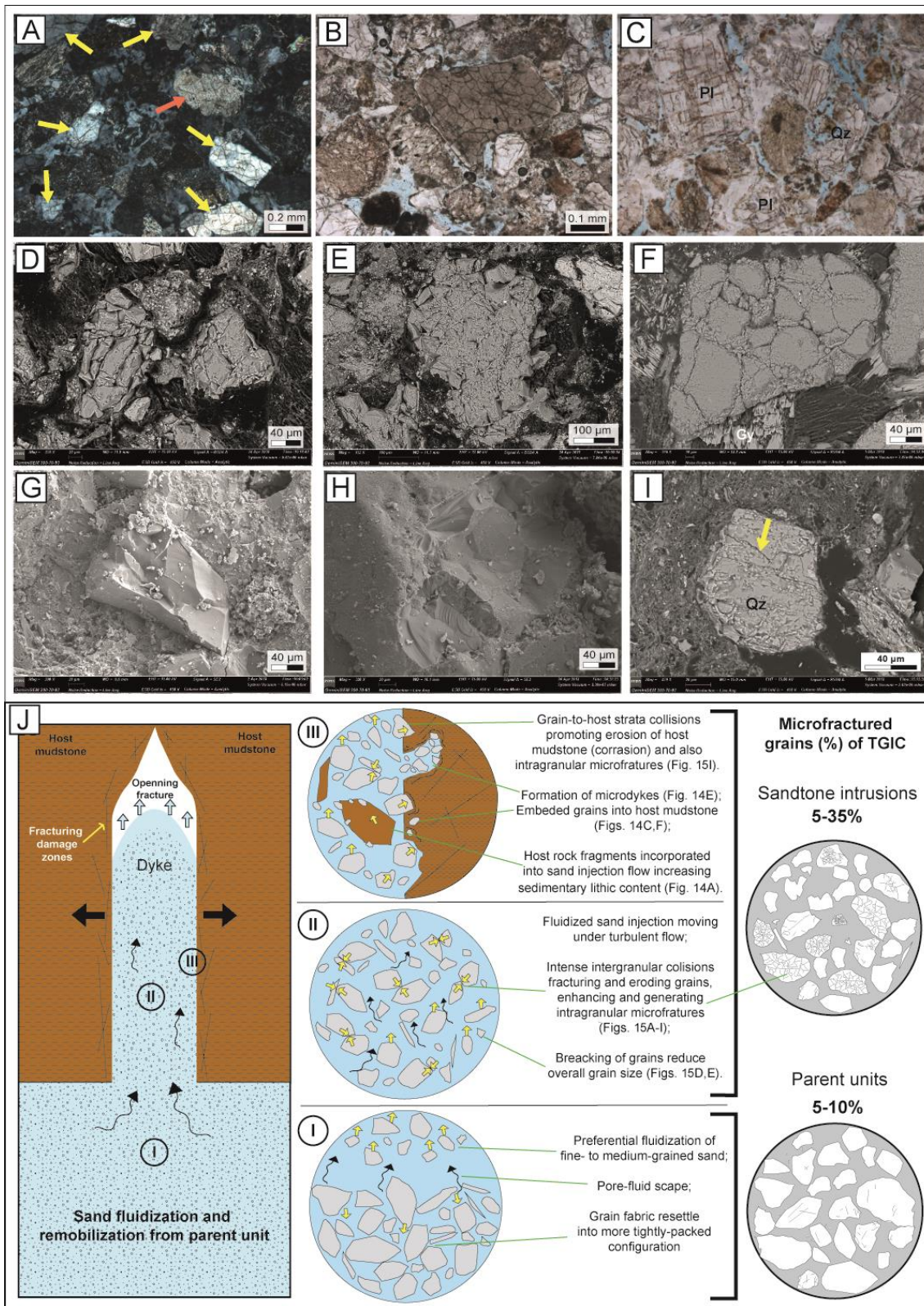
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Fig.15

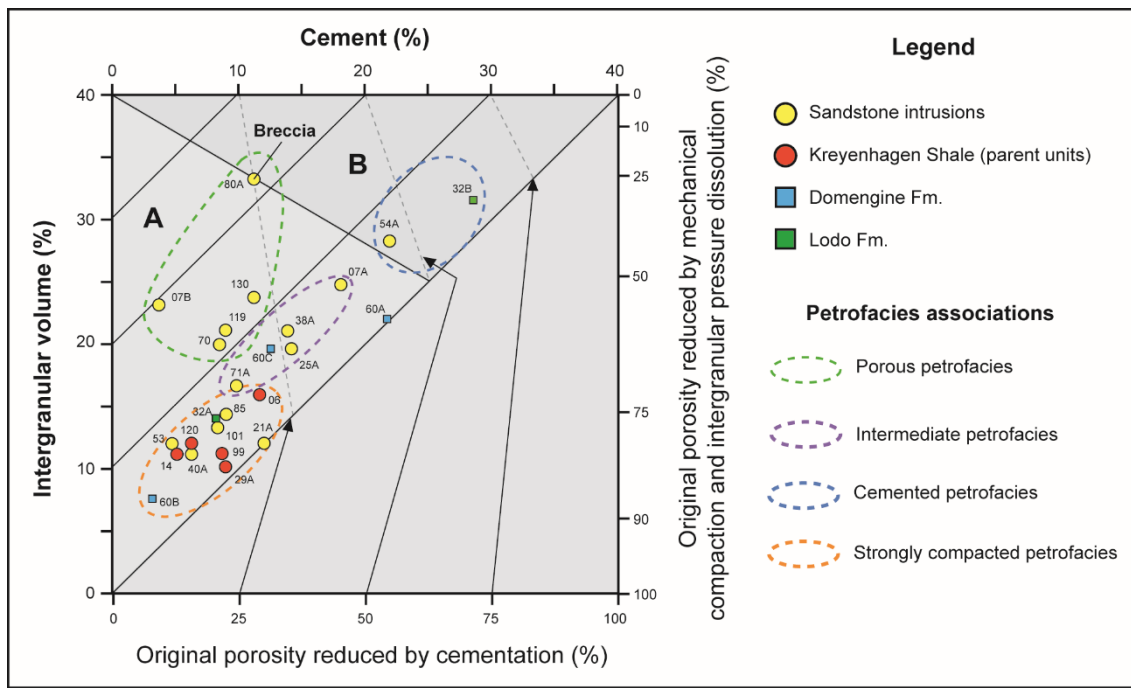


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1625 **Fig. 16**



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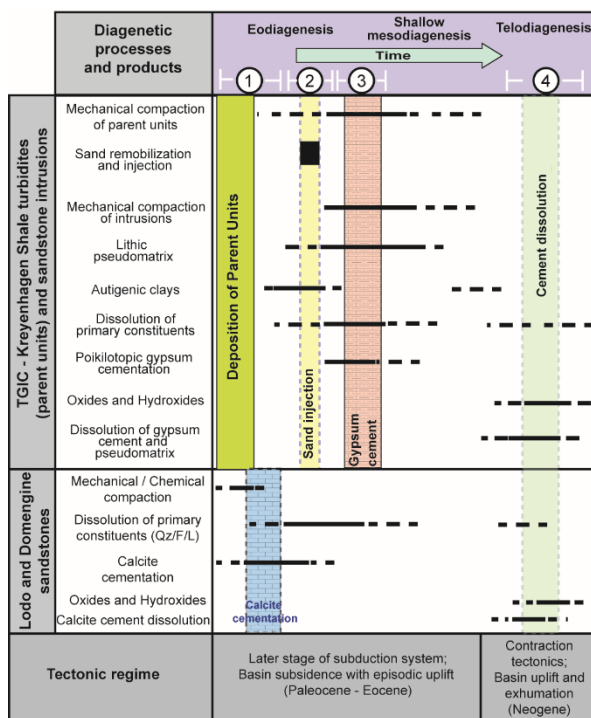
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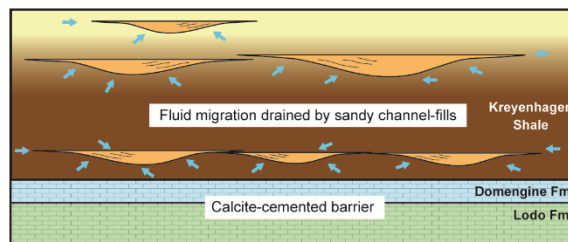
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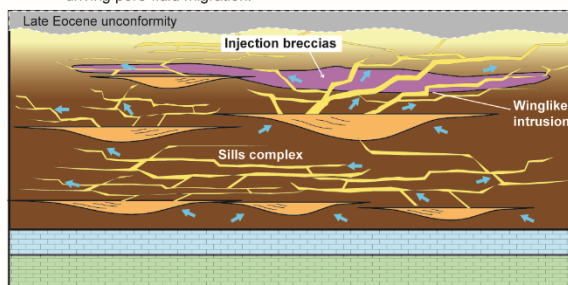
1639 **Fig. 17**



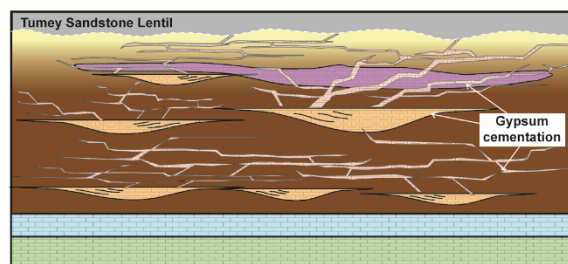
**1** Early diagenetic calcite cementation of underlying sandstones of Lodo and Domengine formations creating flow barriers and driving lateral fluid migration; Fluids drained by sandy channel-fills of Kreyenhagen Shale



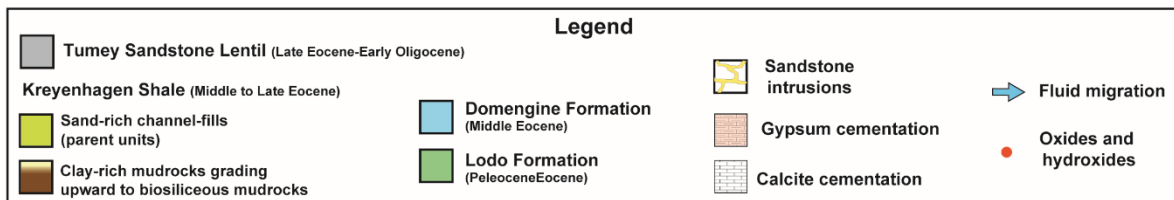
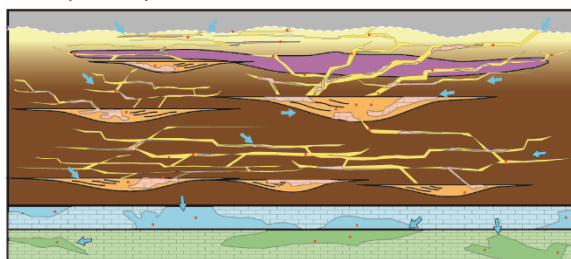
**2** Overpressure of channels overcome lithostatic pressure initiating hydraulic fracturing propagation and brecciation of host rocks along with sand fluidization, remobilization and injection; Injectites create a porous and permeable interconnected network of intrusive and depositional sandstones driving pore-fluid migration.



**3** Intense mechanical compaction and pseudomatrix development followed by generalized gypsum cementation of the turbiditic channels and sandstone intrusions of the complex, destroying primary sandstone porosity; Cemented injectites become barriers for fluid migration.



**4** Exhumation of the TGIC; Telodiagenetic processes by meteoric water infiltration partially dissolving calcite and gypsum cements, pseudomatrix, and primary constituents, creating secondary porosity. Precipitation of oxides and hydroxides by meteoric water infiltration.



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