

## Sedimentary stylolite networks and connectivity in Limestone: Large-scale field observations and implications for structure evolution

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### 22 Abstract

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Stylolites are rough surfaces, formed by localized rock dissolution, and prevalent in carbonates and other sedimentary rocks. Their impact on porosity and permeability, and capacity to accommodate compactive strain, are well documented. This paper presents a meso-scale field study on sedimentary stylolites in carbonates, characterizing large-scale distributions of stylolites, including measurements conducted on longer than kilometer-long stylolites. Our field study suggests that on large-scales connections between stylolites become important. Since connectivity, and also lack of connectivity, are expected to play a significant role in strain accommodation and hydraulic rock properties, we suggest that large-scale analysis may require a new characterization scheme for "stylolites populations", based on their connectivity. We therefore divide sedimentary stylolite populations into three end-member types, which are correlated with the three possibilities for percolation of such systems: isolated stylolites (with percolation/connectivity), long-parallel stylolites (with 2-dimensional zero percolation/connectivity), and interconnected stylolite networks (with 3-dimensional percolation/connectivity). New statistical parameters and measures are devised and used to quantitatively characterize the different population types. Schematic mechanistic models are then offered to explain the evolution of the three end-member connectivity-classes. In addition we discuss the effect on fluid flow of the different population types.

### 1. Introduction

Stylolites are rough surfaces of dissolution, common in sedimentary rocks and especially prominent in carbonates. They are lined by a thin layer of relatively insoluble particles, mainly clay minerals, oxides, and organic matter, that are thought to accumulate while the major constituent of the rock, which is more soluble (e.g. carbonate, quartz) dissolves away (Stockdale, 1922, Park and Schot, 1968, Kaplan, 1976, Railsback, 1993). Stylolites are known to affect fluid flow in opposing ways: On the one hand, stylolites are often associated with reduced permeability - material that dissolves at the stylolite precipitates in adjacent pores, forming "tight" units (Wong and Oldershaw, 1981, Tada and Siever, 1989, Finkel and Wilkinson, 1990, Ehrenberg, 2006) that are important in management of hydrocarbon aquifers and reservoirs (Corwin et al., 1997). In other cases, stylolites may enhance porosity and permeability in their vicinity, in particular their tips (Carozzi and Vonbergen, 1987, Raynaud and Carrioschaffhauser, 1992) and sometimes fluid flow is observed along stylolitic surfaces (Wong and Oldershaw, 1981, Rye and Bradbury, 1988, Heap et al., 2014). In addition to their hydraulic role, stylolites are also known to accommodate large compactive strains (Tada and Siever, 1989), playing a key role in the evolution of mechanical rock properties, and the overall compactive strain of rocks.

Stylolite formation is attributed to localized Pressure Solution (PS). PS is broadly defined as dissolution and re-precipitation driven by spatial variations in chemical potential along grain surfaces: regions with high chemical potential dissolve, the dissolved material is transported through the fluid phase, and precipitates in regions where the chemical potential is lower. Variations in the chemical potential arise due to spatial variations in stress, plastic and elastic strain energies, crystal orientation and interface curvature (Deboer, 1977, Lehner, 1995, Paterson, 1995, Shimizu, 1995). The chemical potential can be extended to an electrochemical

potential (Greene et al., 2009) where spatial variations in surface charge are considered as well. Clays and organic matter are also thought to play an important role in the PS process (Heald, 1956, Thomson, 1959, Sibley and Blatt, 1976, Gruzman, 1997), and their distribution and content are believed to affect the rate of PS (Hickman and Evans, 1995, Renard et al., 2001) and the degree of PS localization on stylolites (Heald, 1955, 1956, Engelder and Marshak, 1985, Marshak and Engelder, 1985). How clays, phyllosilicates, and organic matter enhance PS is not fully understood, and suggestions include purely physical (propping grain contacts) (Weyl, 1959), chemical (varying pH) (Thomson, 1959), electrochemical (solute gradients amplified by clay electric charge) (Walderhaug et al., 2006) effects, or a combination of the above.

Key models for stylolite formation view them as isolated and spatially limited surfaces (e.g. Fletcher and Pollard (1981); Stockdale (1922)). However, in the field they are rarely "isolated", but rather appear to be closely related to other stylolites and structures (primarily Mode I and Mode II fractures) (Peacock and Sanderson, 1995, Smith, 2000). Perhaps because of the scarcity of isolated stylolites, and the difficulty in determining their terminations when not isolated, there is very limited literature on stylolites' lateral extent. Stylolites were traced in limestone for over 50 m by Park and Schot (1968), and Safaricz (2002) followed single stylolites for 8.5m and dissolution seams for over 800 m. An often-cited linear relationship between stylolite length and thickness (either amplitude or seam thickness), is thus based on a handful of field studies (Stockdale, 1922, Mardon, 1988, Benedicto and Schultz, 2010, Nenna and Aydin, 2011) though a theoretical rationale for it is fairly well understood (Aharonov and Katsman, 2009).

Most stylolites seem to have been studied on "small" outcrops or, in the case of the oil and gas industry, on cores. A few exceptions are the field-wide studies of (Stockdale, 1922, Railsback, 1993, Andrews and Railsback, 1997, Safaricz, 2002, Safaricz and Davison, 2005). Stylolites, like fractures, are "very large" in one dimension but "very small" in another dimension. Their thickness is of the order of centimeters at most, so they are impossible to resolve with standard seismic techniques. In order to determine the large-scale distribution of

stylolites (needed to assess for example reservoir performance or compactive basin-scale strain) the geometry and hydraulic properties of the centimeter-scale observation made routinely on cores needs to be upscaled to the kilometer-scale structure, which is always a challenging task. To devise a robust upscaling methodology, the cm-scale structure needs to be linked to the km-scale structure through an adequate analog-outcrop, as is common in the petroleum industry. Only through such an analog can upscaling parameters and workflows be tested and confirmed. Such studies were previously done on fractures (Dawers et al., 1993, Main, 1996, Cello, 1997, Willemse, 1997, Bour and Davy, 1998, McLeod et al., 2000), and led to basic understanding regarding the relationship between aperture and length (Vermilye and Scholz, 1995) and the formation and connectivity of fractures (Segall and Pollard, 1980, Cartwright et al., 1995, Gupta and Scholz, 2000). The present work performs a similar multi-scale study on sedimentary stylolites populations, aiming to quantify their distributions and connectivity and provide a step towards understanding their large-scale effects.

The connectivity of stylolites may be important both when they act as flow conduits, and in the opposite case, when they act as barriers. Their impact on large-scale flow properties can be understood using ideas from percolation theory (for a review on percolation see e.g. Bunde and Havlin (1991)). Percolation theory is a mathematical theory that addresses the question of the connectivity and conductivity within a composite material, composed of "black" defects placed within a "white" matrix. In the percolation "game" the black defects are typically assigned a different conductivity than their host white matrix, and percolation theory predicts electrical conductivity and resistivity of the composite black-white material (e.g. McLachlan et al. (1990)). The black defects are said to "percolate" when one can trace along black parts only (without "stepping" into white parts) from any side of the matrix body to any other. When black defects are conductive "percolation" is accompanied by abrupt enhancement of the conductivity of the matrix relative to a state of no percolation. The opposite game is just as simple – if black defects

have high resistivity (low conductivity), percolation of conducting whites controls conductivity.

Percolation of conduction whites is lost when there are enough black defects, or when blacks are

distributed in such a way that whites are disconnected.

In line of the above percolation picture, we suggest to envision stylolites as "penny-shaped" surfaces with a different fluid conductivity (higher or lower) than their host rock. These surfaces can have different radii and they can be oriented in different angles to each other and can be envisioned as "black" defects in a "white" host rock.

Percolation or connectivity of the stylolite surfaces are then expected to occur in one of three end-member ways:

<u>I: Isolated surfaces – no percolation:</u> If the radii of surfaces is small, and if there are not many surfaces within the region, then the surfaces may not cross each other and remain isolated from one another. In that case there is no percolation of surfaces from any side of the box to any other.

This system is below the percolation threshold.

II: Parallel surfaces - 2D percolation: if surfaces are virtually infinite and parallel, they create a layered structure. In this case both surfaces and host rock percolate in the direction parallel to the surfaces, but neither of them percolates in the direction perpendicular to the surfaces. If the surfaces have higher conductivity than the host rock they will enhance conductance in the surface-parallel direction and will not affect the perpendicular direction. Instead, if the surfaces have lower conductivity they will not affect the surface-parallel direction yet will act as barriers for conductance in the perpendicular direction. In this case percolation is anisotropic and so is conductance.

**III:** Networks of interconnected surfaces - 3D percolation: when there are enough surfaces, and they have a distribution of orientations, they will connect to one another and allow percolation in all three dimensions.

In order to analyze the 3D connectivity of stylolites with the above framework in mind we devised new statistical characterization tools that quantify the morphology of stylolite populations. We use our new tools in three well-exposed localities, chosen from a collection of 17 field-sites (Table 1). These sites were chosen due to their good exposure, and also because they exemplify the 3 end-member surface-connectivity/percolation possibilities presented above. The Supplementary provides location, geological setting and general description of stylolites exposed in the other 14 localities. Most of these are field-sites that we studied and a few are places described in the literature and studied by others.

### 2. Methods

### 2.1 Field sites

Three well-exposed "type" localities (1-3 in Table 1) that display possible connectivity endmember behaviors were chosen out of 17 sites (see the Supplementary Material). Detailed
measurements were made in these three localities. A Bedding-parallel population of very long
stylolites is studied in the Blanche cliff site to represent 2D percolation. To represent 3D
percolation an anastomosing network of stylolites is analyzed in the Mitzpe Ramon quarry and a
more complicated case, with a *stylolite-fracture network* that has also several *long-parallel stylolites* was investigated on an Umbria-Marche slab. *Isolated stylolites*, representing a nonpercolating population, were not found in our field sites (as seen in Table 1). Their scarcity is
explained in the discussion, while here this connectivity class is discussed based on few
examples from the literature, because topologically it is an end-member scenario, even if not
commonly found in the field. The three key field localities we study are described in detail
below, while the other sites are referred to in the Supplementary Material.

<u>Table 1:</u> Field locations, which were studied as part of this work (1-13) and collected from the literature (14-17). Detailed description and photographs are presented in the text and in the Supplementary material. Class II: Long-parallel stylolites, Class IIIa: Anastomosing stylolite network, Class IIIb: stylolite-fracture network

#	Site	Location	Geological data	Population class
1	Blanche cliff	N33°12' E35°33'	Ein-El-Assad Formation II (Albian), biomicritic limestone	
2	Mitzpe Ramon (quarry) (unit U1)	N30°38' E34°48'	Avnon formation (Upper Cenomanian), bioclastic limestone.	IIIa
3	Umbria-Marche, Italy, (purchased slab)	N43° E13°	Calcare Massiccio (CM) Formation (Lower Jurassic). Wackestone— packstone limestone.	IIIb + several II
4	Mitzpe Ramon (quarry) 4 units (other than unit U1)	N30°38' E34°48'	Avnon formation (Upper Cenomanian), bioclastic limestone.	Different units: 1 unit contains IIIb, and 3 units of IIIa.
5	Nahf (quarry)	N32°56 E35°19'	Bina formation (Turonian).	II with IIIa appearing in between
6	Ein El-Assad (cliff)	N32°56' E35°23'	Ein-El-Assad Formation (Albian).	II with IIIa appearing in between
7	Tsavoa anticline (roadcut)	N30°58' E34°46'	Nezer Formation (Turonian), biomicritic limestone interlayered with dolomite and marl	II (some connections at large scales)
8	Rama (cliff)	N32°56' E35°21'	Rama Formation (Albian), limestone interlayered with marl.	IIIa
9	Machtesh Katan (exposure)	N30°57' E35°13'	Shivta and Nezer formations (Turonian)	IIIb
10	Maale Yair, Dead Sea (exposure)	(N31°12' E35°21')	Shivta formation (Turonian)	IIIa
11	State Collage, Pennsylvania (roadcut)	(N40°47' W77°48')	Devonian-Silurian limestone	II
12	Morocco (exposure)	??	??	II
13	Givat Ram, Jerusalem		Cenomanian (?), limestone	IIIa with some localities of IIIb
14 <sup>[1]</sup>	Flamborough Head, Yorkshire, UK	between Sewerby / Bridlington and High Stacks	Cretaceous chalk	IIIa and II
15 <sup>[2]</sup>	Yazd Block quarry, Esfahan Province, Central Iran	(N33°27' E54°22')	Haftoman Formation (Upper Cretaceous), limestone	IIIa
16 <sup>[3]</sup>	Illinois Basin Salem Limestone	Two coadcuts: N38°53' W86°31' and N38°32' W90°24'	Mississippian Salem limestone	II and IIIa
17 <sup>[4]</sup>	Selinsgrove Junction, Pennsylvania (creek bed exposure)	N40°47' W76°50'	Selinsgrove member, Onandaga fm (Devonian), fine-grained limestone	tectonic isolated as well as networks of ("composite-") solution seams

Blanche cliff (Fig 1): Stylolites are exposed in the "Blanche" cliff of the Albian-age Ein-El-Assad Formation in Northern Israel. The "Blanche" here consists of a ~50m-thick biomicritic, shallow inner-platform limestone, that dips gently to the west (Sneh and Weinberger, 2003). It contains well-developed (cm-scale teeth amplitudes) bedding-parallel stylolites, which can be traced for the full extent of the outcrop, i.e., more than 1km. These are, as far as we know, the longest measured stylolites reported in the literature. Roughness of these stylolite surfaces was measured and analyzed by us in a previous paper (Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al., 2012), and is characterized by a Hurst exponent H~0.65, and by an upper cutoff for self-affinity at around 50cm. In the lowermost part of the section some interconnected stylolite networks were observed between the long parallel stylolites.

Mitzpe Ramon Quarry (Fig 2): In this quarry near the town of Mitzpe Ramon in Southern Israel, networks of interconnected stylolites appear in massive, subhorizontally stratified, bioclastic limestone of the Upper Cenomanian Avnon Formation. This site provides 3D exposures over tens of meters of polished quarry walls. The exposures consist of several vertical units that differ in stylolites networks' characteristics and in the presence or absence of fractures. In the unit of focus, where fractures are not common, the stylolites do not terminate *per se*, but rather connect to each other, so that stylolites can be traced from one side of the outcrop to any other side. In such networks stylolites delineate 'islands' or ,,lenses' of non-dissolved rock, as seen in Fig 3 (see site #4 in Supplementary A and in Table 1 for details on other units in this location).

Umbria–Marche slab, Apennines: (Fig 4): This is a 3-m-long, 1.2-m-wide and 2-cm-thick limestone slab of the Calcare Massiccio (CM) Formation (Lower Jurassic) of the Umbria–Marche of Central Italy. The slab is a wackestone–packstone limestone. The Roughness of the major stylolites (i.e. a subset of the population, defined below) exposed here was studied by Karcz and Scholz (2003) and was found to be fractal over 4.5 orders of magnitude (with a Hurst exponent of ~0.5). In this site stylolites and veins form various interconnecting geometries.

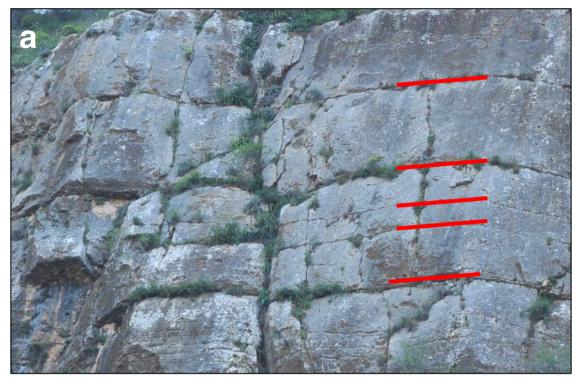




Fig 1: Long parallel stylolites in the Blanche cliff, Northern Israel.

- (a) Part of the cliff with four stylolites (labeled '4(19)', '5(7)', '5(9)' and '5(13)' in Figure 5b) marked in red, showing they can be traced for a large distance.
- (b) Zoom on two other stylolites ('3(10)' marked by a green arrow, and '3(11)', see Figure 5b), where stylolite cm-scale roughness is evident.



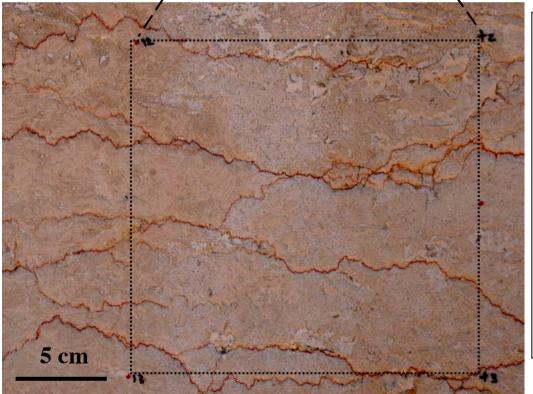


Fig 2: Interconnected stylolite network (anastomosing) from a Cenomanian limestone quarry near Mitzpe Ramon, Southern Israel.

(a) Large scale photo and (b) zoom of the mapped exposure, studied from two perpendicular sides. High-resolution photographs were combined using a grid for digitization of the stylolite network (the black grid in (a) was drawn on the photo to illustrate where the actual grid on the exposure was marked).  $5.5 \times 1.2 \text{ m}^2$  were mapped on either of the two perpendicular sides.

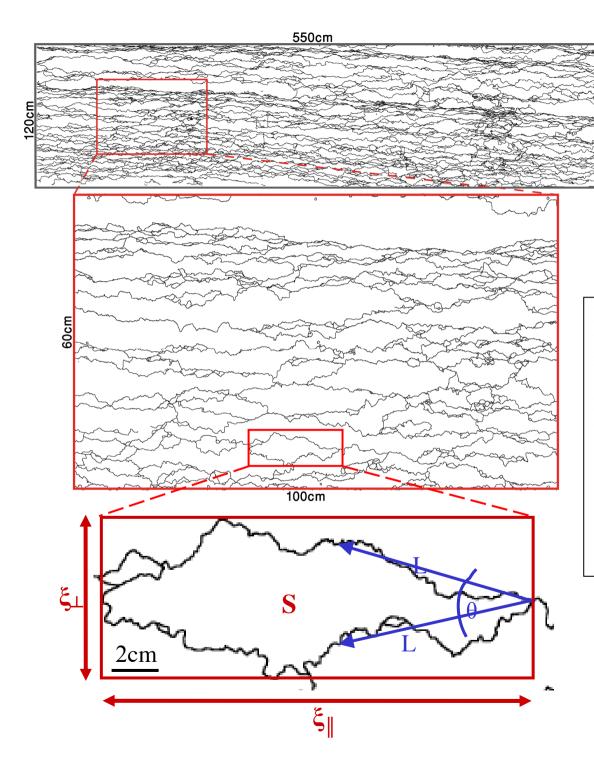


Fig 3: Three scales of a digitized map of the interconnected stylolite network seen in Fig 2 (the right section of the two perpendicular exposures in fig 2). Regions between connected stylolites, termed "islands", are described by several parameters: island area S; connection angle  $\theta$  between stylolite segments of length L; and a bounding rectangle with bedding-parallel and bedding perpendicular dimensions  $\xi II$  and  $\xi^{\perp}$ , respectively.

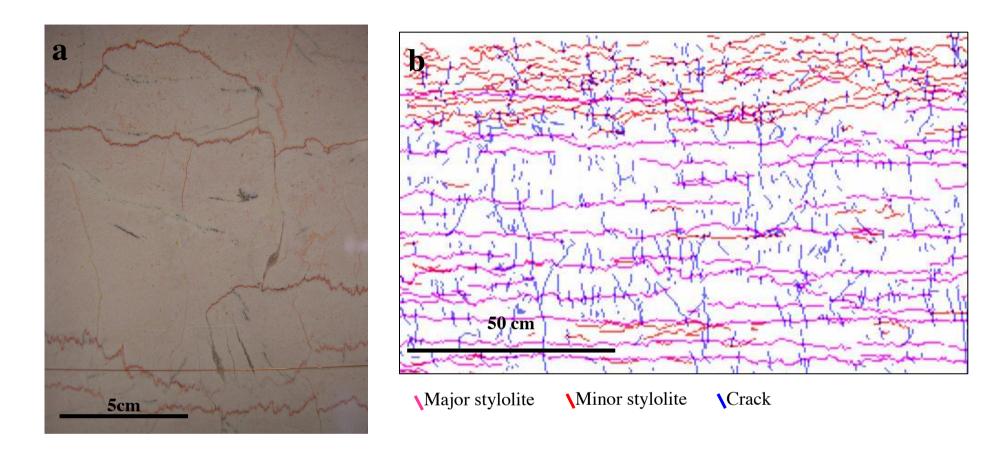


Fig 4: Interconnected network of stylolites and fractures in limestone (Calcare Massiccio Formation, Jurassic, Italy).

- (a) photo; and
- (b) digitized map of major and minor stylolites (pink and red, respectively) and of fractures (blue).

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### 2.2 Description of measurements

The type of measurements conducted on the various stylolite populations and their resolution was tailor-fit to the population characteristics.

Long parallel populations –stylolitic roughness was previously analyzed in this cite in order to study the amount of dissolution on them (Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al., 2012). Here we look at different characteristics of the same stylolites, namely lateral variations in maximum stylolite amplitude  $(A_{\text{max}})$  and in spacing between them (d). These characteristics were chosen in order to establish uniformity in bedding parallel direction and connectivity in 2D. At the Blanche cliff all observable stylolites (a total of 65 stylolites) were measured at the northern part of the cliff (Fig. 5). The cliff was then divided into 9 units, separated by prominent stylolites. Each stylolite was named according to its position in the unit (for example: stylolite '3(10)' is the 10th stylolite in unit 3). Six specific stylolites (,3(10)', ,3(11)', ,4(18)', ,4(19)', ,5(7)' and ,5(9)') that are easily viewed and are accessible at least in some places along the cliff, were traced and measured in several stations along the exposure. Spatial measurements were done directly on the cliff using a tape, or, where access was difficult, on digital images. Since stylolites are fractal surfaces (Karcz and Scholz, 2003, Renard et al., 2004, Schmittbuhl et al., 2004, Ebner et al., 2009b), properties such as mean and maximum amplitude depend on the scale of observation, l. Therefore  $A_{\text{max}}$  was defined here as the maximum distance from peak to crest along l=1m length (based on Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al. (2012)).

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<u>Anastomosing networks</u> In this type of population islands of rock are captured and become isolated between stylolites, while stylolites meet, join, and percolate in all directions. Such systems are somewhat more complex to characterize than long parallel stylolites. For example, both stylolite amplitudes and spacing are ill-defined in anastomosing networks. We thus chose to

characterize such networks via (as defined in Fig 3): a) connection angle (θ) between stylolites and b) the dimensions of "islands" demarcated by stylolites. At the Mitzpe Ramon site, the 10m columnar section was studied at several locations in the quarry and was then divided into 5 units, characterized by different density of the stylolite network, different fossils, and presence or absence of fractures (Kaduri (2013), and see also supplementary A). We chose to focus on one of these units, in which fractures and veins are rare and which does not contain large fossils. To obtain connection angle and island dimensions for the entire network, the stylolites in this unit were digitized from digital images (200μm resolution) to yield two perpendicular maps (550x120 cm each, Fig 3). The digital maps were then saved as grids composed of squares colored black for stylolites or white for rock (Fig 3c). The black and white maps were analyzed using image-processing tools in MatLAB and MatLAB codes written in Kaduri (2013) to obtain:

- 1. Values of connection angle θ measured between each two connecting stylolite lines, as a
   function of the distance L from their meeting junction, as defined in Fig 3.
  - 2. In order to obtain island dimensions, regions between stylolites ("islands") were digitally identified, and each of the islands given a serial number. In this way more than 3000 islands were obtained. Each island was then bound by a rectangular box (a "bounding box"), with horizontal and vertical lengths  $\xi_{II}$  and  $\xi_{\perp}$ , respectively (as depicted in Fig 3), to provide an estimate of their lateral and vertical dimensions. The scaling behavior of the networks may be partially revealed by studying the dependence between  $\xi_{II}$  and  $\xi_{\perp}$  for each island. Similar analysis was performed on fluid cluster populations in two-phase flow in porous media (Tallakstad et al., 2009a, Tallakstad et al., 2009b) and on networks of propagating fracture fronts, to extract the statistics of rupture avalanches (Maloy et al., 2005, Maloy et al., 2006, Tallakstad et al., 2011).

<u>Stylolite-fracture networks.</u> The stylolites and fractures in the network of the third site were digitized on the slab at a 0.5mm resolution. This type of network is composed of long, subparallel stylolites, which extend from one side of the slab to the other (termed here "major"

stylolites), and shorter (defined here as "minor") still sub-parallel, stylolites (Fig 4b). In addition the network is composed also of fractures that illustrate geometrical interactions with stylolites, as shown below. Orientations of stylolites and of fractures were studied statistically, and qualitative descriptions of interactions between fractures and stylolites were made, in order to constrain the mechanical evolution of this network and its associated strain.

### 3. Results and data analysis

The measurements conducted in the three key field-sites are presented here by site.

### 3.1 Long-parallel stylolites in the Blanche cliff

A crucial finding in the Blanche cliff site (and in sites #5, 6, 7, 11 and 12 shown in the Supplementary Material) is that most stylolites are as long as the  $\sim$ 1km outcrop and are parallel to each other and to the bedding. No fractures or joints related to the stylolites were observed and the major faults, which terminate the exposure on both sides, are post-stylolitization. Two variables were measured along the cliff exposure to detect spatial variations: spacing between adjacent stylolites (d, defined in Fig 5), and maximum teeth height of individual stylolites ( $A_{max}$ ). Although d ranges from 0.1 to 2.0 meters when looking at different neighbors, the spacing between any two given stylolites is laterally constant, as seen qualitatively in Fig 1 and as quantitatively measured over  $\sim$ 1km in Fig 6a. For example, d between stylolites 3(10) and 3(11) varies (without any obvious spatial trend) between 15 and 22 cm along 850m of the exposure.

The lateral variation of maximum stylolite amplitude ( $A_{max}$ ) in the Blanche cliff shows no particular trend, i.e. it does not decrease or increase gradually in any direction (Figs 6b, 6c). For example,  $A_{max}$  of stylolite 3(10) varies between 2.5 and 5.5 cm, which in itself may be significant, but does not vary consistently in any direction (e.g. from the center of the cliff

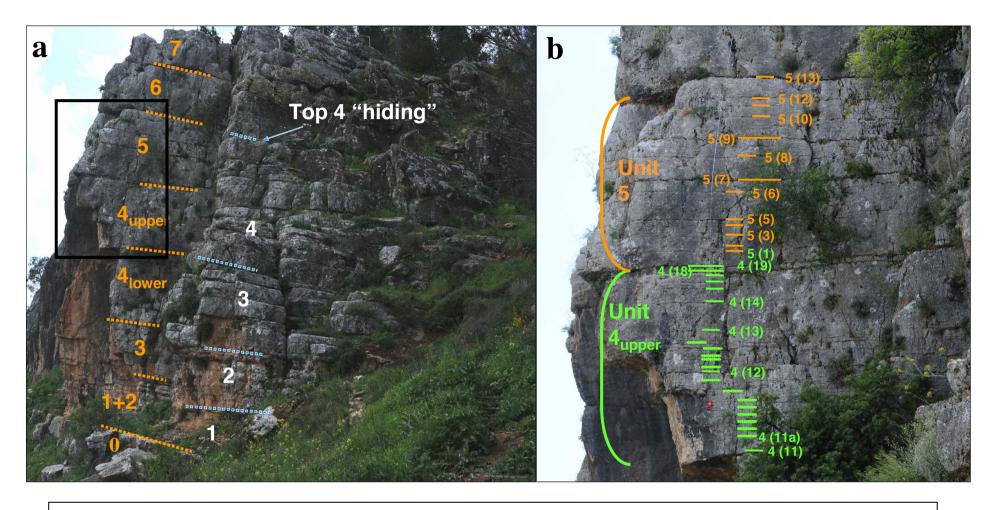


Fig 5: Images showing the Blanche (Ein El-Assad Fm.) section in the northern part of the cliff, where all 65 stylolites were identified and measured.

- (a) The section was divided to 9 major units differentiated by major stylolites (in orange). Most of the measurements were performed in the parts that are marked in white, which are more accessible.
- (b) Zoom on rectangle in (a). Stylolites are labeled according to their vertical position within a unit, i.e., 5 (3) is the third stylolite from the bottom of unit 5.

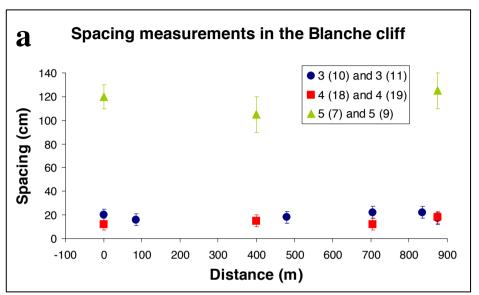
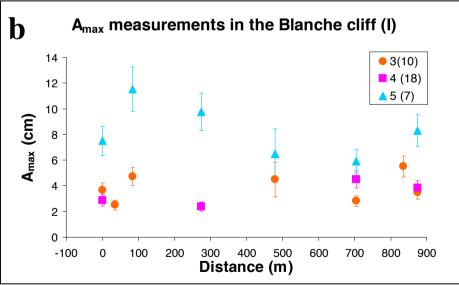
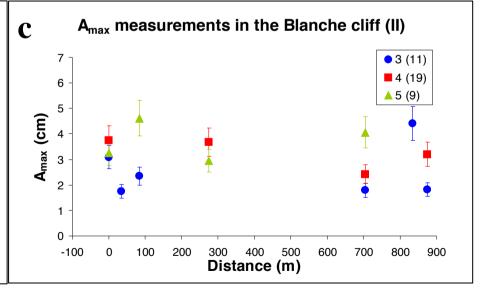


Fig 6: Measurements conducted on long parallel stylolites at several locations along the ~1km – long Blanche cliff.

- (a) Spacing between three couples of stylolites.
- (b) and (c) Maximum teeth amplitude  $(A_{max})$  of six different stylolites (viewed in two separate graphs only for purposes of convenience). Error bars are the standard deviation of several measurements in each location. No trend in spacing or  $A_{max}$  along the length of the stylolites is identified.





sideways, or from one end to the other). This either suggests that terminations are still far away, or that the observations and conclusions of Mardon (1988) and Stockdale (1922) on isolated seams, showing tapering of seam thickness and teeth amplitude from center to edges, do not apply here. This will be discussed below.

### 3.2 Anastomosing stylolite network in Mitzpe Ramon Quarry

We focus here on statistics of islands formed by stylolites. The islands vary widely in size, from centimeter to a couple of meters in width and length, yet show robust characteristics: Fig 7a shows the connection angle,  $\theta$ , between two connecting stylolites, as a function of the distance from their junction, L, as defined in Fig 3. Each data point is the average of all  $\theta(L_i)$  in the exposure and the error bars are the standard deviation, both produced from normal distribution best-fits to each value of L (inset in Fig 7a). Connection angle in the anastomosing stylolite network of the Mitzpe Ramon Quarry is found to be distance dependent. Close to the connection points, i.e. for L<2cm,  $\theta$ =80°-90°, but this value decreases asymptotically to zero (stylolites become sub-parallel) for larger values of L. This means that stylolites meet at near perpendicular angles (similarly to cracks), but approach parallel planes when far "enough" apart (L>>5cm).

Fig 7b shows vertical versus horizontal dimensions ( $\xi_{\perp}$  versus  $\xi_{II}$ ), of over 3300 islands analyzed in this site. We identify a robust power-law relation between the height and width of islands: Performing a linear fit in bi-logarithmic space of  $\xi_{\perp}$  versus  $\xi_{II}$ , we obtain

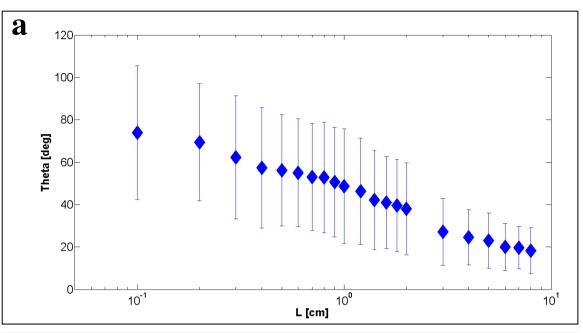
 $(1) \quad \xi_{\perp} = k \xi_{\parallel}^{\alpha}$ 

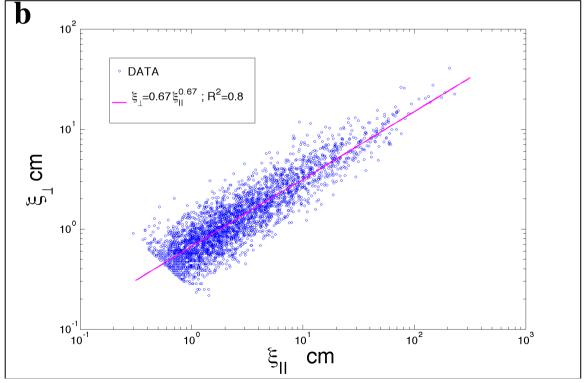
with  $k \, [\text{m}^{1-\alpha}] = 0.67 \pm 0.01$  and  $\alpha$  (unitless) =  $0.67 \pm 0.03$  (The reason that both constants are equal is probably by chance).

Fig 7: Results of the statistical analysis performed in Mitzpe Ramon quarry.

- (a)  $\theta(L)$  and
- (b) Island dimensions, as explained in the text.

The variables are illustrated in Fig 3c. Each data point in (a) is the average of all  $\theta(Li)$  in the exposure and the error bars are the standard deviation. The pink line in (b) is a best fit to the correlation between  $\xi^{\perp}$  and  $\xi II$  with both  $\alpha$  and k equal 0.67.





### 3.3 Stylolite-fracture network in the *Umbria–Marche* slab, Apennines

We view the major stylolites of this slab (Fig 4b) as a long-parallel population (shown to be fractal over 4.5 orders of magnitude (Karcz and Scholz, 2003)), whereas the minor ones are either anastomosing, connected to fractures, or isolated. Many of the fractures have clear interactions with the stylolites, e.g. emanating from-, or connecting between- stylolite tips, or emanating from stylolite teeth. Stylolites and fractures are found to be generally perpendicular to each other, as seen qualitatively in Fig 4b and quantitatively in Fig 8. However, a significant population of fractures that are sub-parallel to the stylolites is also seen in Fig 8.

### Small-scale observations

Relations between stylolites and fractures in this network imply that the two types of features are probably related to one another (Fig 9). Stylolites are often connected to each other via fractures (Figs 9a, 9d, and 9f), though regions of anastomosing stylolites are also quite common (Fig 9c). Fractures in this network are either Mode I veins or Mode II shear fractures with some offset. Fractures interpreted as Mode II shear fractures based on geometrical considerations, may exhibit small "pull-apart" features filled with cement (Fig 9a). Many Mode I veins appear at some acute angle to stylolites while others emanate from stylolite teeth (or what seem to be terminations) and are perpendicular to the stylolite mean surface (Fig 9b). Veins connected to stylolites often taper away from the stylolite (e.g. Fig 9b). Similar tapering was also described by Eren (2005). Some fractures simply connect neighboring stylolites (Figs 9a, 9f) while complex connections, such as in Fig 9d, are very common as well. At the scale of observation, some features appear not to be fully physically connected (e.g. Figs 9b, 9d). Perhaps there is connection in 3D that is not seen in the 2D view. Even when the connections are more difficult to observe, such as in Fig 9b, geometry suggests strain-related interactions between the stylolites and fractures.

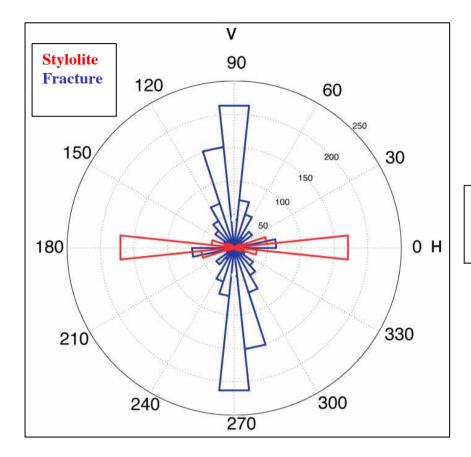
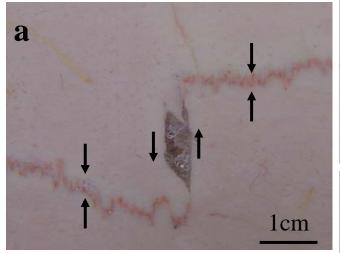
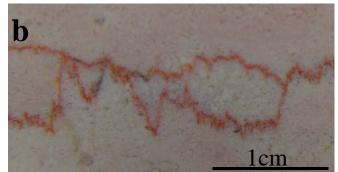
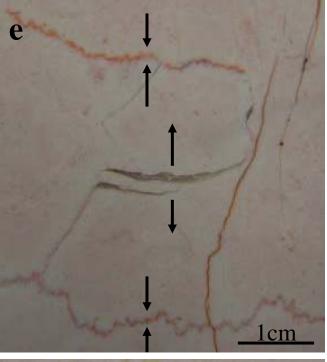


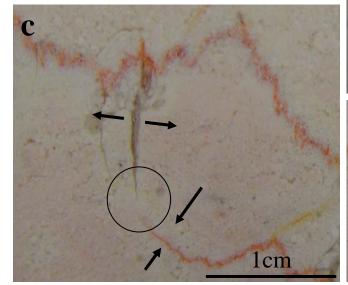
Fig 8: Orientations of stylolites and fractures in the Umbria–Marche slab, Apennines (analyzed upon map in Fig 4).











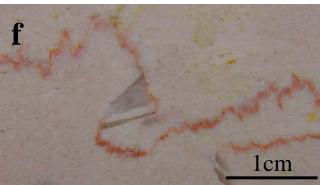


Fig 9: Zoom-in on the slab of Fig 4 showing small-scale field-relations between fractures and stylolites and between the stylolites themselves.

- (a) Mode II fracture with pull-apart structure filled with cement connecting two stylolites. Interpreted strain direction is marked by arrows.
- (b) Interconnected stylolite network that seems to be derived from stylolite "cannibalism" (see text for further explanation).
- (c) Mode 1 veins sub-parallel to the stylolite teeth and splaying from them. The veins are commonly triangular, with the aperture being largest close to the stylolite surface. stylolite mean direction is changed near a vein (circled region).
- (d) Complex connection between nonoverlapping stylolites by an array of oblique veins.
- (e) Veins parallel to stylolite surface mean direction indicating on extension that is in the same direction as compression (see arrows). This population of fractures parallel to stylolites is statistically common (see Fig 8).
- (f) Vein and stylolites closely interacting. We interpret such intimate geometries as indicating on these features to be synformational.

Figs 9a, 9b and 9c illustrate possible mechanisms for the formation of the observations in Figs 8a, 8b and 8c, respectively.

Veins parallel to the mean surface of the stylolite are seen in Figs 9e, and are statistically important (Fig 8). Explanations and implications of this observation are suggested in the discussion.

### 4. Discussion

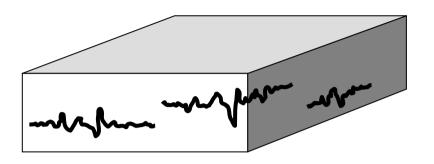
We suggest using natural divisions provided by percolation theory, in order to characterize the connectivity of natural stylolite populations. Pervious classification schemes for stylolites and pressure solution addressed roughness, spacing, relation to bedding and seam geometry (Park and Schot, 1968, Alvarez et al., 1978, Powell, 1979, Guzzetta, 1984, Engelder and Marshak, 1985, Railsback, 1993). Although these are very useful quantification approaches for classifying single stylolites, they do not address quantification needs for describing connectivity, as percolation theory offers.

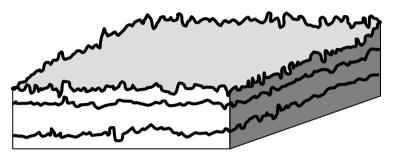
Based on the observations and measurements presented above and on the theoretical possibilities for connectivity/percolation of surfaces in a 3-D space (presented in the introduction), we may categorize sedimentary stylolite populations into three connection/percolation geometries (Fig 10):

### Class I: Isolated stylolite populations - no percolation of stylolites (Fig 10a):

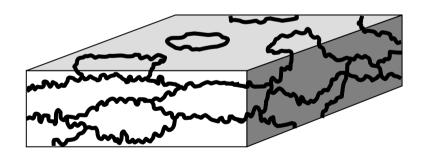
These are stylolitic surfaces with clear terminations and no connections to other stylolites or fractures. Stockdale (1922) and Mardon (1988) report finding isolated stylolites and solution seams, respectively, in carbonates. Benedicto and Schultz (2010) investigated isolated tectonic stylolites and the strain associated with them in a ~0.2m-thick limestone layer in a fault-damage zone. Nenna and Aydin (2011) describe isolated tectonic solution seams in a sandstone formation.

- a) Isolated stylolites (zero connectivity)
- b) Long bedding-parallel stylolites (2D connectivity)





- c1) Anastomosing stylolite network (3D connectivity)
- c2) Stylolite-fracture network (3D connectivity)



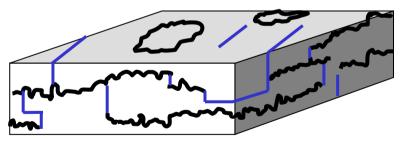


Fig 10. Connectivity-based classification of sedimentary stylolite populations: (a) Isolated stylolites; (b) Long bedding-parallel stylolite population; and (c) Interconnected-network stylolite population, further divided into (c1) anastomosing networks of stylolites and (c2) inter c onnec ted networks of stylolites and fractures (fractures appear in blue).

# Class II: Long, bedding- parallel, stylolite populations - 2D percolation of stylolites (Fig 10b):

In this group stylolites are virtually infinite bedding-parallel rough surfaces that do not connect since they are parallel. These stylolitic surfaces have roughness with amplitude smaller than the spacing between them, so they also don't overlap. Tracing these surfaces connects the rock body from side-to side in 2 dimensions, sub-parallel to bedding, but not in the 3<sup>rd</sup> dimension, perpendicular to the surfaces and to bedding. Long bedding-parallel stylolites (or solution seams) were seldom described in the literature (Park and Schot, 1968, Safaricz, 2002, Safaricz and Davison, 2005).

### Class III: Interconnected stylolite networks- 3D connectivity (Fig 10c):

Here stylolite surfaces are connected to one another by anastomosing or via fractures and veins. One can trace along these surfaces, following a "stylolite pathway", from any side of the rock to any other side, since surfaces percolate in 3 dimensions. Interconnected stylolite networks can be further divided into *anastomosing stylolite networks* and *stylolite-fracture networks*. Interconnected stylolites were reported in several references (Mardon, 1988, Rye and Bradbury, 1988, Peacock and Sanderson, 1995, Smith, 2000, Safaricz, 2002, Eren, 2005).

The stylolite populations in our investigated sites either clearly fall into one of the 3 endmember connectivity classes, or present a combination of more than one class. *Long, parallel stylolite populations* (Fig 10b) and *Interconnected networks* (Fig 10c) are both commonly
observed in field locations, as seen in the Supplementary Material (sites # 4-16). *Isolated stylolites* (Fig 10a) were not observed as a separate class in our field sites. Several stylolites in
the stylolite-fracture network in the Umbria-Marche slab seem to terminate in our observed 2D
plane, but possibly they are connected in 3D. The last site reported in the Supplementary (#17) is
the only location with isolated features (often forming networks) and for this reason we included
it, although the features are solution seams and not stylolites. Based on our fieldwork and on

literature, it appears that isolated stylolites are uncommon, though isolated pressure solution seams are not rare (Mardon, 1988, Nenna and Aydin, 2011). In terms of evolution, isolated stylolites, the non-percolating structure, may only be an intermediate stage in the evolution process of percolating stylolites (which might explain their scarcity), as discussed in the next sub-section. But in terms of topology isolated stylolites are one of the 3 topological possibilities for connectivity of stylolitic planes, so for the sake of characterizing morphology we propose to consider them as a separate class – the class of "no connectivity".

The Supplementary Material presents 14 additional field sites with large-scale stylolite exposures. Out of these, 3 have long-parallel stylolite populations, 6 have interconnected networks of both sub-groups, while 4 sites present a combination of end-member connectivities. Combinations were mostly of long parallel stylolites with anastomosing network in between.

### 4.1 Conceptual model for formation of observed stylolite populations

Here we present a conceptual model of stylolite population formation to facilitate an understanding of strain accommodation by stylolite populations. We review briefly the formation of isolated and long-parallel stylolites, as it is discussed and modeled in detail in Aharonov and Katsman (2009) and Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al. (2012), respectively. Table 2 summarizes how our field measurements support suggested formation mechanisms for each of the different populations.

### 4.1.1. Isolated stylolites:

The amount of discussion of the formation of this type of population (Fletcher and Pollard, 1981, Mardon, 1988, Aharonov and Katsman, 2009) is inversely proportional to their prevalence. These constitute Localized Volume Reduction (LVR) defects, as defined by Katsman and Aharonov (2005), and Katsman et al. (2006a, b). Field observations of these features show

<u>Table 2:</u> Summary Table: suggested mechanisms for evolution of the various stylolite populations and the type of measurements that support each mechanism

Population Type	Suggested Mechanisms	Measurements	How Measurement Supports Mechanism
Isolated stylolites; zero connectivity	Initiation from seed, continuing dissolution and elongation due to both stress and composition (clay?)	A <sub>max</sub> versus Length	If more developed (large $A_{\text{max}}$ ) in center and less towards edges, may indicate in-plane-propagation.
Long-Parallel stylolites; 2D connectivity	Initiation and continuation of roughening and dissolution on an existing surface (of higher clay content?)	-A <sub>max</sub> versus Length -Spacing versus length - Surface roughness	Constant $A_{\text{max}}$ , constant spacing between stylolite pairs along the surface, and upper cutoff to self-affinity suggest roughening of an existing surface.
Anastomosing stylolite networks; 3D connectivity	Cannibalism of bedding- parallel stylolites  AND/OR  Joining of isolated stylolites	-Intersection angle	Finding of intersection angle of 35°-45° may support formation by joining of isolated stylolites; If angle is random – supports cannibalism. If around 90°, supports connection by fractures
		-Island dimensions	Understanding how to use the statistical characteristics of Islands to estimate the amount of dissolution, depends on the physics of network formation (discussed in the text)
Stylolite-fracture network; 3D connectivity	Increased shear-stress near stylolite tips  AND/OR  Connection of stylolite tips with Mode I cracks	-Directions (angles of stylolites and of fractures) -Small-scale field relations	Pull-aparts adjacent to stylolite tips  Mode I cracks seem to attract stylolite tips.

### References which appear in Table 1

- 1. Safaricz, M., *Pressure solution in chalk.* 2002, Royal Holloway University of London.
- 2. Arzani, N., Stylolite networks in dolomitized limestones and their control on polished decorative stones: a case study from the Upper Cretaceous Khur quarries, central Iran. JGeope, 2011. 1(2): p. 25-37.
- 3. Losonsky, G., Burial depth and lithofacies control of stylolite development in the Mississippian Salem Limestone, Illinois Basin. 1992, University of Cincinnati.
- 4. Mardon, D., *Localized pressure solution and the formation of discrete solution seams.* 1988, Texas A&M University.

geometrical characteristics similar to cracks: (1) their amplitude and thickness taper towards their edges and (2) their length increases with increasing seam thickness and amplitude (Stockdale, 1922, Mardon, 1988). Such features may develop self-similarly from an initial seed defect, provided that it grows laterally sub-parallel to its plane and experiences continued dissolution on its flanks (e.g. Fletcher and Pollard (1981)). Aharonov and Katsman (2009) show that development of isolated stylolites can be explained by a feedback that arises when both clay (present in the rock at some small fraction, and in initially higher content in seed defects) and pressure solution enhance the dissolution process. Nenna and Aydin (2011) suggest that they elongate and thicken due to the presence of asperities.

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Long, parallel stylolite populations: The formation of this abundant, yet rarely *4.1.2.* acknowledged, population type was indirectly studied before: the group of Ebner and Kohen (Renard et al., 2004, Schmittbuhl et al., 2004, Koehn et al., 2007, Ebner et al., 2009a, Ebner et al., 2009b) studied roughening from a prescribed surface. We suggest long parallel stylolites form on planes where dissolution is for some reason enhanced, possibly due to initial chemical heterogeneity (e.g. higher initial content of clay or other dissolution enhancing chemical heterogeneity). In sedimentary stylolites such planes are most commonly bedding planes. Our conceptual model suggests that long parallel stylolites do not evolve by lateral elongation of isolated stylolites, but instead by dissolution-roughening on a preexisting plane, as suggested in Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al. (2012). This is implied by the constant roughness amplitude we measured along almost 1km (Fig 6), which does not follow the observed "parabolic' self-similar profile of dissolution along isolated stylolites (Stockdale, 1922, Mardon, 1988). In supplementary B we present a simple calculation that shows that the amount of dissolution on the Blanche stylolites would have been far larger than measured if they evolved by elongation from a seed rather than roughening of an existing surface. Spatially constant amplitude, as observed here, is consistent with a process invariant under translation along the stylolite. It is easiest to

explain the observed long parallel stylolites as forming by localized dissolution on an initially flat plane (most often a bedding plane), that progressively roughens with time, driven by competing effects of stress, diffusion and noise (Koehn et al., 2012, Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al., 2012, Rolland et al., 2012). The dissolution creates a self-affine surface, following a scaling law between the out-of-plane root mean square width, w(l), and the in-plane length, l, at which this width is defined:  $w(l)\sim l^H$ , with a Hurst exponent H $\sim$ 0.65, and with an upper cutoff for self-affinity that grows with increasing amount of dissolution (Renard et al., 2004, Schmittbuhl et al., 2004, Koehn et al., 2007, Ebner et al., 2009a, Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al., 2012).

### 4.1.3. Interconnected stylolite networks

This is again a very common type of population (sites # 2-6, 8-10, 13-16), which has not received much previous attention, and its formation has rarely been discussed. Based on our field observations, we propose that interconnected networks can form by one of three mechanisms or through a combination thereof. The three mechanisms are: (i) *Connection of tips of isolated stylolites* via dissolution or Mode II fractures; (ii) *Connection of stylolite tips with Mode I cracks* (iii) *Connection of long parallel stylolites*; (Figs 11a, 11b and 11c, respectively, linked to the examples in Figs 9a, 9b and 9c, respectively). In (i) and (ii) a population of nontouching surfaces of type (a) in Fig 10, connects as it evolves to finally create a percolating structure. In (iii) initially sub-parallel planes (type b in Fig 10) roughen enough with time to connect in the bedding perpendicular direction.

(i) Connection of tips of isolated stylolites: This may occur when two neighboring LVRs start to "feel" the normal and shear stress field of each other, and interact (e.g. Fueten and Robin (1992), Zhou and Aydin (2010)). Fig 11a shows a cartoon of normal and shear stresses that arise from dissolution on two horizontally over-lapping stylolites at a vertical distance d from each other, and the expected evolution due to these two stress fields, the normal and the shear:

1. Increased normal stress leading to increased dissolution (Fig 11a1): increased compressive normal stress arises near the tip of each stylolite, with a maximum value achieved at 35°-45° from the mean stylolite plane, as indicated by the "heart-shaped" blue region, following stress calculation for LVR. In case of uniform dissolution along the stylolite one can use the fact that such an LVR defect induces a stress like an "edge dislocation" (Katsman et al., 2006a), and use the calculated stress fields (Landau and Lifshitz (1986), p. 114) to conclude that maximum compressive stress is induced by the tip at 45°. In case of elliptical dissolution the maximum is found numerically at  $35^{\circ}$  (Katsman (2010a)). If spaced at a close enough vertical distance, d, stylolites are expected to induce pressure solution in the compressive stress-enhanced region between them, and thus connect by dissolution. Similar stylolite connections, via curving tips, were seen by Mardon (1988) in a partially connected network of solution seams. In the anastomosing networks observed at the Mitzpe Ramon site, curving planes are abundant: at scales larger than ~2cm, angles between connecting stylolites are small (approach zero - become parallel), while at smaller scales they are ~80° (Figure 8a). It is important to note that we find no peak in the probability function of angles around the expected value of 35°-45°. This suggests that there might be another process controlling stylolitic connections, possibly formation of shear or Mode-I fractures that link adjacent stylolites, or connection by "cannibalism' of long parallel stylolites, as detailed below.

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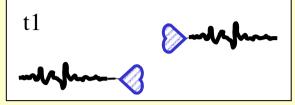
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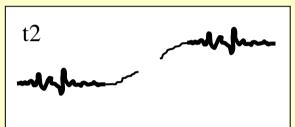
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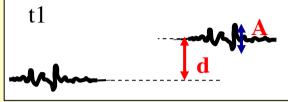
2. Increased shear strain region leading to connection of stylolites by a shear fracture (Fig 11a2): In addition to compressive stress, any LVR defect - like the analogous "edge dislocation" - is calculated theoretically to induce shear stresses near its tip in the plane normal to it (Landau and Lifshitz (1986), p. 114). The stresses are linearly proportional to the amount of volume removal (in this case amount of dissolution), and decay as 1/distance from the tip. The fact that shear stress is induced by a stylolite tip can also be understood intuitively: Two offsetting stylolites may be viewed as analogs to offset mid-ocean ridges, but with an opposite sign. While mid-ocean ridges are spreading centers that create rock, stylolites are converging

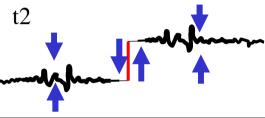
## (a1) connection of isolated stylolites by increased dissolution

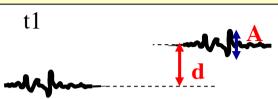


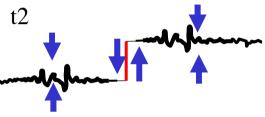


## (a2) connection of isolated stylolites by mode II fractures

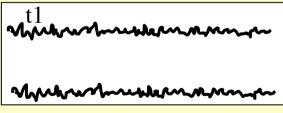






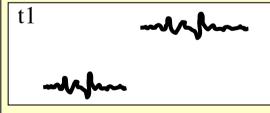


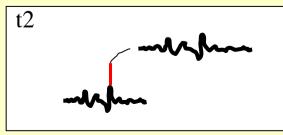
## (b) Connection of *long*parallel stylolites





## (c) Connection by mode I fractures





### Fig 11:

Cartoon showing several possible mechanisms for the formation of interconnected stylolite networks from time t1 to t2.

- (a) Connection of isolated stylolites. Increased normal stress (in blue-heartshaped-regions) enhances dissolution and may change propagation direction (a1), while increased shear strain may cause fracturing (a2). This depends on the mechanical properties of the rock at that time. A and d (a2) control weather there will be connection by linkage or fracturing. Blue arrows (a2) show stress direction.
- (b) Connection of long-parallel stylolites by their dissolution and roughening ("cannibalism" of closely spaced longparallel stylolites).
- (c) Connection of stylolites via mode I fractures, emanating from stylolite teeth. **Such fractures can connect stylolites** according to both models (a) and (b) (connection of single stylolites or continued dissolution of parallel stylolites). Tips of an adjacent stylolite may curve towards such vein, which induces extensive strain. This scenario fit with stylolite localizing via high

centers that destroy/dissolve rock (Peacock and Sanderson, 1995). When spreading/converging centers are positioned at an offset, they produce shear strain between them, proportional to the amount of rock created/destroyed. When the shear stress exceeds the material strength, a transfer fault will form and connect the two stylolites, similar to transform faults that connect offsetting mid-ocean ridges. "Pull-aparts" are common features in these transfer/transform faults, as seen in Fig 9a and discussed by Peacock and Sanderson (1995).

Two competing processes thus occur between "properly" oriented offset neighboring growing stylolites: shear fracturing between them due to increased shear stress, and dissolution due to increased normal stress. The two types of network stylolite populations (interconnected stylolites and stylolites and fractures) differ in the dominant mechanism: when shear fracturing dominates, stylolites and fractures will form; when dissolution dominates, interconnected stylolites form. Whether one mechanism prevails over the other may be associated with the hydrological state of the rock at the time of deformation: dissolution requires water at the grain contacts and a fluid path for solute to migrate or diffuse through. Alternatively, the control on which mechanism dominates may be related to the mechanical strength of the rock at the overlapping region, which in turn is controlled, *inter alia*, by rock composition, porosity and local defects.

(ii) Connection of stylolite tips with Mode I cracks (Fig 11b): The 2<sup>nd</sup> process by which isolated or planner stylolites may form networks, involves interaction between a stylolite and a Mode I vein. Mode I veins are often associated with stylolites (Rye and Bradbury, 1988, Smith, 2000, Eren, 2005) and several mechanisms have been suggested to explain their common appearance perpendicular to compression, i.e. at 90 degrees to stylolites (e.g. Fig 9b, 9d): concentrated compressive stress at tips of stylolite teeth (Zhou and Aydin, 2010); high fluid pore pressure within stylolites (Eren, 2005); and extensional stress in the mid-section of stylolites (Katsman, 2010). Regardless of its formation mechanism, a vein will impact stress-enhanced

dissolution in its vicinity, both by enhancing fluid-mediated solute transport (via flow and/or diffusion), and by perturbing the stress field (Renard et al., 2000a, Renard et al., 2000b). According to the stress fields (Landau and Lifshitz (1986), p. 114) both opening and Mode II fractures are expected at certain regions around a stylolite tip, but 180° between stylolites and veins is not expected from the stress fields, since compactive features such as stylolites induce compressive stress perpendicular to their plane (Fletcher and Pollard, 1981, Katsman et al., 2006a) while veins induce exactly the opposite- extension perpendicular to their opening direction.

Stress fields alone may thus not suffice to explain all vein -stylolite attraction, e.g. such as the interaction in Fig 9b. It is possible to attribute some of the attraction to connectivity and availability of fluid in veins, that allows fluid enhanced dissolution to dominate the location and direction of stylolite propagation (e.g. (Renard et al., 2000a, Renard et al., 2000b, Aharonov and Katsman, 2009). This suggests that the connectivity of stylolites and their ability to transfer solute in fluid may dominate, at least in some cases, their growth and propagation. The fact that fluid flow pathways, specifically cracks, enhance pressure solution rates has been observed also in experiments (Gratier et al., 2009, Croize et al., 2010).

(iii) Connection of long parallel stylolites is the third possibility for formation of interconnected stylolite networks (Fig 11c). Continued dissolution and roughening of essentially 2D stylolites can result in two stylolites merging in the 3<sup>rd</sup> bedding perpendicular, direction, at least along a limited segment (e.g. Fig 9c). Islands in this case are formed as leftover untouched regions between coalescing initially self-affine surfaces. In a somewhat similar physical picture (fracture fronts), where self-affine surfaces "eat each other' (cannibalism) and by this merge in places, it was shown that island-scaling is related to the Hurst exponent of the merging surfaces (Maloy et al., 2005, Maloy et al., 2006, Tallakstad et al., 2011). Comparison between the scaling of islands and the Hurst exponent of the stylolites may aid in constraining the physical process

for network growth, and in understanding why the power-law relating out-of-plane and in-plane dimensions of islands is characterized by an exponent  $\alpha \approx 0.67$ , similar to the Hurst exponent of single stylolites, as reported e.g. by Ebner et al. (2009a); Koehn et al. (2007); Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al. (2012); and Rolland et al. (2012).

Connection angles could be used to distinguish whether connectivity occurred by isolated stylolites meeting at tips or via long stylolites "cannibalizing" each other: If stylolites are infinite- long- roughening- planes cannibalizing each other, connection angles are expected to be random, since the geometry of a stylolite at any given point (away from its tip) can be assumed to be independent of the geometry of the stylolites above and below it at the merging point. Alternatively, if stylolites connect at tips, connection angles are expected to be ~35°-45° if connection is by dissolution (Katsman, 2010), or ~90° if by a series of micro-fractures or by larger-scale fractures (Kaduri, 2013). In our case-studies connections are close to 90° at small scales, but present a large variability around this value (inset in Fig 7a), which suggests that micro-fractures are probably involved yet that both mechanisms are plausible.

### 4.2 Strain accommodated by stylolite networks

The dissolution on stylolites introduces an irreversible volume loss in the direction perpendicular to the stylolite, which produces a compactive strain. In the section below we attempt to determine the amount of strain accommodated by the three types of stylolite connectivity classes. The large-scale connections between stylolites and veins are shown to be important in allowing strain accommodation.

### Isolated stylolites populations

Isolated stylolites can accommodate a finite and small amount of dissolution before connecting by dissolution or by shear fractures. Thus, although isolated stylolites may be considered a distinct population in terms of their connectivity and percolation behavior, they are most likely an intermediate feature in terms of strain. Isolated stylolites most likely eventually develop into an anastomosing network. The evolutionary picture is expected to be complex since, assuming that stylolite growth is solute-transfer-limited (as suggested by vein-tips attracting stylolite-tips in this study, and as seen in some experiments, e.g. Renard et al. (2000b), Zhang and Spiers (2005) and Zubtsov et al. (2005), Gratier et al. (2009)), then lack of connectivity at initial stages slows growth of isolated stylolites relative to connected ones. This can explain the scarcity of observations of isolated well-developed stylolites, while pressure solution seams, which are often considered "baby- stylolites", are indeed found in isolated populations (Mardon, 1988, Nenna and Aydin, 2011).

### Long, parallel stylolite populations

Dissolution starts on an initially flat plane, which is most often a bedding plane that progressively roughens with time. The roughness is self-affine and the upper cutoff for self-affinity grows with time (e.g. Ebner et al. (2009a); Koehn et al. (2007)). The amount of dissolution, U, is often estimated from maximum teeth height,  $A_{max}$ , but can also be estimated from other statistical parameters of the surface (Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al., 2012), provided these are measured on scales greater than the upper limits of this self-affinity. Estimates derived from scales smaller than the upper limit for self-affinity (~50cm in the Blanche stylolites) underestimate dissolution. Compactive vertical strain is calculated from the average amount of dissolution on stylolites, < U>, and the average spacing between neighboring stylolites < d>>, according to:  $v_v = \frac{< U>}{< d>>}$  The amount of dissolution, U, can also be estimated from seam thickness (e.g. Tada and Siever (1989)) assuming that initial clay content was uniform, a questionable assumption if dissolution started on a clay rich bed (Heald, 1955, 1956, Engelder and Marshak, 1985, Marshak and Engelder, 1985, Aharonov and Katsman, 2009).

### Anastomosing stylolites

Strain in a section containing this type of stylolite population may be measured in one of two ways, as from the long parallel stylolites: either from their seam thickness or from their statistical characteristics. Yet understanding how to use the statistical characteristics (such as Fig 7) to estimate the amount of dissolution, depends on the network formation which was discussed above (Aharonov et al., 2010, Aharonov et al., 2011).

#### Stylolite-fracture networks

Strain in this network is shared between the stylolites and the fractures, with Mode I and Mode II fractures taking different roles. Similar to their large-scale analog, mid-ocean ridges, **Shear fractures** have an important role in accommodating the compaction strain, even on the scale of a basin. Pull-aparts can be used here to estimate the compactive strain.

Opening veins play a more complicated role. Veins appear in two main directions, parallel and perpendicular to the main compression (Fig 8). The opening veins perpendicular to the stylolites (as discussed above) play an important, though indirect, role in compaction, by allowing fluid flow pathways and promoting rapid dissolution and compaction. In contrast, examples for local extensional strain features found in a direction *parallel to the general compaction direction* are shown in Fig 9e and also evident by the statistically significant population of stylolite-parallel Mode I fractures (Fig 8). There may be several explanations for these horizontal veins, and the understanding is made complicated by the fact that we do not know the timing of the fractures: If they are coeval with the stylolites, they may have developed due to small block rotations during the development of the stylolites, or due to local extensive strain. Some wing-crack fractures may also have developed at a different time than the stylolites, associated with a micro thrust fault under the effect of a tectonic horizontal contraction. Time scales may also be different for the two processes: fracturing may be a fast process, while

pressure solution a slow one. This difference in timescales is also very interesting to study. However, since we do not have any information on the tectonic context of this slab (the exact location of the quarry from which it was taken is unknown), we cannot have more than these speculations.

#### 4.3 Stylolites and fluid flow

The effects of stylolites on flow have been discussed previously (Wong and Oldershaw, 1981, Carozzi and Vonbergen, 1987, Rye and Bradbury, 1988, Tada and Siever, 1989, Finkel and Wilkinson, 1990, Raynaud and Carrioschaffhauser, 1992, Corwin et al., 1997, Ehrenberg, 2006, Heap et al., 2014). Yet the question of their connectivity, which is crucial for fluid flow, has not been discussed. Two very different aspects are important with regards to fluid flow. The first is the interaction between fluid-flow and stylolites **during** their formation; while the second is the influence of stylolite populations on fluid flow in the crustal rocks in which they are present, long **after** their formation. We address both aspects here, as we believe that the approach presented in this paper is an important step in their understanding.

#### 4.3.1 Interaction between fluid-flow and stylolites during their formation:

Fractures were shown to be intimately related to stylolites in the Umbria-Marche slab (Fig 9). Some Mode I cracks are clearly formed with the stylolites (Figs 9a, 9b and 9f) while others are less clearly timed (Figs 9d and 9e). Mode I fractures that seem coeval with the stylolites have affected the growth of stylolites by diverting their average plane direction (Figs 9b1 and 9b2). This interaction could perhaps be explained if their presence enhanced solute transport rates and also extended the volume available for precipitation of the dissolved matter, before they were filled with precipitation. Stylolites probably also affected fracture formation, as indicated by the latter originating from stylolite teeth, from the tapering of fractures away from

stylolites, and from shear fractures connecting stylolites. Therefore stylolites and fractures have a mutual effect on each other in our case study. This symbiosis affects simultaneously the amount of compactive strain that may occur in the system (see section 4.2), the pattern of fluid flow in the system, and the locations of dissolution and precipitation. In a system containing very little or no fractures (such as the long-parallel stylolites in the Blanche cliff), at least part of the precipitation of the dissolved matter on the stylolites occurred in the adjacent porosity (as shown in thin-sections in Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al. (2012)). In that site, measurements suggested a scenario whereby the dissolution-precipitation process may have stopped once this porosity was occluded, so that shutting down precipitation or diffusion in pores limited the amount of dissolution that occurred (Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al., 2012). However, in a system that contains many fractures, and could also be considered an open system, there is less constraint on the amount of dissolution-driven compactive strain the system can undergo.

## 4.3.2 Interaction between fluid-flow and stylolites after their formation:

Different percolation geometries of stylolites are each accompanied by associated percolation geometries of the host rock: zero-connectivity of stylolites (isolated) comes together with a fully percolated rock-body. 2D percolation of stylolites (long-parallel class) comes together with parallel percolation of the rock-body between the stylolites but allows no percolation in the bedding -perpendicular direction. 3D percolation of anastomosing networks causes disconnected lenses of rock. It is important to recall that this percolation approach and the division to stylolite connectivity-classes do not infer that stylolites are necessarily channels to fluids. Stylolites may be of higher permeability than the rock-body regions between them (e.g. Wong and Oldershaw (1981); Carozzi and Vonbergen (1987); ENREF 68 Carrio-Schaffhauser et al. (1990); Raynaud and Carrioschaffhauser (1992); Heap et al. (2014);). But the opposite may also exist in some cases: stylolites can be low-permeability features, due to the highly-cemented regions often observed around stylolites (Corwin et al. (1997); Ehrenberg (2006)).

The connectivity is important both when stylolites act as flow conduits, and when they act as barriers:

*I: Isolated stylolites – no percolation:* If stylolites have well defined tips and do not touch each other, the system is below the percolation threshold, and their permeability shouldn't affect the rock body too much, even if it is different than the permeability of the host rock.

*II: Parallel stylolites - 2D percolation:* These may induce anisotropic permeability. If they are more permeable than the host rock permeability will be enhanced in the surface-parallel direction but not in the perpendicular direction. Instead, if stylolites have lower permeability than the host rock they will not affect the surface-parallel direction yet will act as barriers in the perpendicular direction.

*III:* Stylolite Networks - 3D percolation: In this case the stylolites percolate but the rock body lenses are disconnected from each other. Highly permeable stylolites will enhance flow in a more or less isotropic manner, while low permeability stylolites will create a well-connected system of barriers, expected to reduce permeability of the rock.

# 5. Summary and conclusions

Our interest in large scale pressure solution structures, and fluid flow and strain in stylolitic rocks, led us to suggest a classification of stylolite populations in the field, based on their network connectivity. Fieldwork and percolation theory guided us to classify three distinct groups: *isolated stylolites*, *long bedding-parallel stylolites* and *interconnected networks of stylolites*. Isolated stylolites were previously quantified. The other two populations are quantified here for the first time.

Measurements conducted to characterize very *long bedding-parallel stylolites* show that their geometrical characteristics (e.g. maximum amplitude) are fairly constant along their length. Observations reported here and in Laronne Ben-Itzhak et al. (2012) support a model of formation

by roughening caused by dissolution localized on preexisting planes, most often bedding planes, (Renard et al., 2004, Schmittbuhl et al., 2004, Koehn et al., 2007, Ebner et al., 2009a). The localization mechanism for uniform dissolution on very large bedding- planes is not strictly known, but is likely connected to initial bedding-related compositional heterogeneity (possibly higher clay content) (Lind, 1993), implying that stress may not be the only (nor the most important) drive for their formation.

The interconnected networks of stylolites are further divided into *networks of anastomosing* stylolites and stylolites-fracture networks. Networks of anastomosing stylolites show islands, with a self-similar shape, bounded by stylolite seams. Connection angles between stylolites in the network average ~90 degrees near the meeting point, while stylolites become parallel at larger scales. The *Interconnected networks of stylolites and fractures*, which are composed of both Mode I and II fractures connecting stylolites, show that most fractures are perpendicular to stylolites. The measurements on both types of interconnected networks, together with small-scale observations of field relations between stylolites and fractures, suggest the possibility of several formation mechanisms for stylolite networks: (1) connection of tips of active isolated stylolites; (2) connection (via cannibalization) of long parallel stylolites; and (3) connection of stylolite tips with Mode I cracks. However full understanding of these mechanisms and when each one operates needs further work.

The measurements and analysis presented in this manuscript have several important implications. The first is that stylolites may form by various mechanisms. This is implied from the recognition that there are different geometries with different characteristics of stylolite populations. In some cases stylolites may propagate laterally during dissolution, while in others the in-plane distribution is set from the beginning. A second conclusion is that stylolites and veins often co-exist in a geometry which indicates that they interact with one another. Stylolites may induce stress perturbations that govern the location of fractures (emanating from their teeth or edges). Fractures affect stylolites (by diverting their mean direction) possibly due to the

increased solute transport that they allow. The two processes may have widely different time scales –fractures are often fast while stylolites dissolve slowly. The intriguing interactions affect both the strain and the fluid flow pathways, although quantification and full understanding need further field, modeling, and lab work.

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# Figure Captions

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- 717 **Figure 1:** Long parallel stylolites in the Blanche cliff, Northern Israel (adapted from Figure 1 in
- 718 Ben-Itzhak et al. (2012)).
- 719 (a) Part of the cliff with four stylolites (labeled ,4(19)', ,5(7)', ,5(9)' and ,5(13)' in Figure 5b)
- marked in red, showing they can be traced for a large distance.
- 721 **(b)** Zoom on two other stylolites (3(10)) marked by a green arrow, and 3(11), see Figure 5b),
- where stylolite cm-scale roughness is evident.

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- 724 Figure 2: Interconnected stylolite network from a Cenomanian limestone quarry near Mitzpe
- Ramon, Southern Israel (site 2, Table 1).
- 726 (a) Large scale photo and (b) zoom of the mapped exposure, studied from two perpendicular
- sides. High-resolution photographs were combined using a grid for digitization of the stylolite
- network (the black grid in (a) was drawn on the photo to illustrate where the actual grid on the
- exposure was marked). 5.5 x 1.2 m<sup>2</sup> were mapped on either of the two perpendicular sides.

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- 731 **Figure 3:** Three scales of a digitized map of the interconnected stylolite network seen in Figure 2
- 732 (the right section of the two perpendicular exposures in Figure 2). Regions between connected
- stylolites are termed "islands", and are described by several parameters: island area S; connection
- angle  $\theta$  between stylolite segments of length L; and a bounding rectangle with bedding-parallel
- and bedding perpendicular dimensions  $\xi_{II}$  and  $\xi_{\perp}$ , respectively.

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- 737 Figure 4: Interconnected network of stylolites and fractures in limestone (Calcare Massiccio
- 738 Formation, Jurassic, Italy).
- 739 (a) Close-up photo showing interacting stylolites and fractures; and
- 740 **(b)** Larger scale digitized map of major and minor stylolites (pink and green, respectively) and of
- 741 fractures (blue).

- 743 **Figure 5:** Images showing the Blanche (Ein El-Assad Fm.) section in the northern part of the
- cliff, where all 65 stylolites were identified and measured.
- 745 (a) The section was divided to 9 major units differentiated by major stylolites (in orange). Most
- of the measurements were performed in the parts that are marked in white (these are the same
- units as in the orange-part but on a closer and more accessible cliff).

- 748 **(b)** Zoom on rectangle in (a). Stylolites are labeled according to their vertical position within a
- unit, i.e., 5(3) is the third stylolite from the bottom of unit 5. Spacing between neighboring
- stylolites (5(12) and 5(13), as an example) is displayed in white.

- 752 **Figure 6:** Measurements conducted on long parallel stylolites at several locations along the
- 753 ∼1km long Blanche cliff.
- 754 (a) Spacing between three couples of stylolites.
- 755 **(b)** and **(c)** Maximum teeth amplitude  $(A_{max})$  of six different stylolites (viewed in two separate
- 756 graphs only for purposes of convenience). Error bars are the standard deviation of several
- 757 measurements in each location. No trend in spacing or  $A_{\text{max}}$  along the length of the stylolites is
- 758 identified.

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- 760 **Figure 7:** Statistical analysis on variables illustrated in Figure 3c, performed in Mitzpe Ramon
- 761 quarry.
- (a) angle between adjacent stylolites as function of distance from junction,  $\theta(L)$ , measured at all
- stylolite junctions. Each data point is the average of all  $\theta(L_i)$  in the exposure, where i is the index
- of the junction. Error bars are standard deviation. Both are acquired from normal distribution
- functions produced for each L<sub>i</sub>. The inset is such an example distribution for L=0.9cm.
- 766 **(b)** Island heights  $\xi \perp$  versus island width  $\xi_{II}$  measured on all islands in the outcrop, as explained
- in the text. The line is a best fit to the correlation between  $\xi \perp$  and  $\xi_{II}$

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- 769 Figure 8: Orientations of stylolites and fractures in the Umbria–Marche slab, Apennines
- 770 (analyzed upon map in Fig 4b).
- H indicates horizontal (bedding parallel) and V indicates vertical. Red indicates the stylolite
- population orientation and blue the fracture orientations.

- 774 **Figure 9:** Zoom-in on the slab of Figure 4 showing small-scale field-relations between fractures
- and stylolites and between the stylolites themselves.
- 776 (a) Mode II fracture with pull-apart structure filled with cement connecting two stylolites.
- 777 Interpreted strain direction is marked by arrows.
- 778 **(b1)** and **(b2)** Two examples of Mode 1 veins sub-parallel to the stylolite teeth and splaying from
- them. The veins are commonly triangular, with the aperture being largest close to the stylolite
- surface (b1). Stylolite mean direction is changed near a vein (circled regions).

- 781 (c) Interconnected stylolite network that seems to be derived from stylolite "cannibalism" (see
- 782 text for further explanation).
- (d) Complex connection between non-overlapping stylolites by an array of oblique veins.
- 784 (e) Veins parallel to stylolite surface mean direction. This population of fractures parallel to
- stylolites is statistically common (see Figure 8). The formation of these wing-crack fractures may
- be explained in several ways (see discussion in text).
- 787 **(f)** Vein and stylolites closely interacting.
- Possible mechanisms for the formation of the observations in Figures 9a, 9b and 9c, appear in
- Figures 11a, 11b and 11c, respectively.
- 790
- 791 **Figure 10:** Connectivity/percolation-based classification of sedimentary stylolite populations: (a)
- 792 Isolated stylolites; (b) Long bedding-parallel stylolite population; and (c) Interconnected-
- 793 network stylolite population, further divided into (c1) anastomosing networks of stylolites and
- 794 (c2) interconnected networks of stylolites and fractures (fractures appear in blue).
- 795
- 796 **Figure 11:** Cartoon showing several possible mechanisms for the formation of interconnected
- 797 stylolite networks between times t1 and t2.
- 798 (a) Connection of isolated stylolites. Increased normal stress (in blue-heart-shaped-regions)
- 799 enhances dissolution and may change propagation direction (a1), while increased shear strain
- may cause fracturing (a2). This depends on the mechanical properties of the rock at that time. A
- and d (a2) control whether there will be connection by linkage or fracturing. Thick blue arrows
- 802 (a2) show stress direction.
- 803 **(b)** Connection of stylolites via mode I fractures, emanating from stylolite teeth. Tips of an
- adjacent stylolite may curve towards such vein, which induces extensive strain. This scenario fits
- with stylolite localizing via high dissolution rates. Rapid dissolution in diffusion limited systems
- 806 can be induced by rapid fluid pathways.
- 807 (c) Connection of long-parallel stylolites by their dissolution and roughening ("cannibalism" of
- 808 closely spaced long-parallel stylolites).
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#### **Reference List**

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