Seismic imaging of complex geometry: forward modeling of sandstone intrusions

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Abstract

Sandstone intrusions form large bedding-discordant sandstones that intruded into finer grained, less permeable host strata. They form naturally sand-propped hydraulic fractures that constitute a connected network of permeable conduits through which fluids escape to the Earth's surface. Saucer-shaped sandstone intrusions are among the largest volume intrusions and are commonly resolved on seismic data. Outcrop analogues of seismically-resolved saucers-shaped intrusions reveal that many attendant intrusions, in particular dikes, are undetected in seismic data. Seismic forward modeling of a detailed outcrop description of a saucer-shaped intrusion demonstrates that intrusions steeper than 45° are undetected and that up to 40% of the entire volume of sandstone intrusions is not seismically imaged. Wedge geometry associated with discordant contacts between different lithologies causes constructive and destructive amplitude interference, creating imaging artefacts of sandstone thickness and geometry. Comparison of the outcrop seismic models with 3D seismic data from Volund oilfield demonstrate both the similarity of the saucer-shaped intrusions and the

distribution and quantity of dikes that may be undetected (ca. 78%) using subsurface data. Lack of detection of dikes has direct implications on the valuation of upward migration of fluids and an overestimation of seal capacity. This therefore has major implications when using seismic data to evaluate waste sequestration or to execute hydrocarbon or groundwater exploration and production.

1. Introduction

Interpretation of seismic images is integral to the evaluation of the significance of shallow crustal fluid-migration systems in fine-grained strata (Hurst et al., 2003; Huuse et al., 2010; Blackford et al., 2014; Karstens and Berndt, 2015; Cevatoglu et al., 2016). Identification of complex geological features is however compromised by the limits of resolution (Moser and Howard, 2008) and bedding-discordant features, (e. g. sandstone dikes) which are notoriously difficult to image. Consequently, when using seismic images to evaluate the transmissivity of fine-grained strata - seals in petroleum systems (Cartwright et al., 2007) - important permeable conduits may be undetected and the seal capacity overestimated. Extensional fractures and faults periodically or permanently enhance fluid transmissivity through intrinsically low-permeability fine-grained strata, thereby enhancing upward migration of fluid. Sandstone intrusions form when fractures and faults are propped open by naturally-injected fluidised sand (Vigorito and Hurst, 2010; Palladino et al., 2018), they persist through geologic time and once formed do not require pore-fluid overpressure to sustain dilation, thus facilitating fluid migration (Jenkins, 1930; Hurst et al., 2003; Jonk et al., 2005).

Examination of outcrops from the Panoche Giant Injection Complex (PGIC) (Vigorito and Hurst, 2010; Hurst and Vigorito, 2017) indicates that sand-propped hydraulic fractures including sills and dikes are clearly visible and their azimuth, aperture and length can be quantified (Vetel and Cartwright, 2009; Vigorito and Hurst, 2010). To investigate how

different sandstone intrusion geometries are seismically imaged we create geological templates of the outcrop data to forward model 2D seismic images (Lecomte et al., 2015). Specifically, we quantify the proportion of intrusions that are resolved or detected thus allowing an estimate of sandstone intrusions captured in seismic images and the potential effect this has on fluid migration, and evaluation of fluid migration.

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Since the serendipitous discovery of commercial quantities of hydrocarbons in sandstone intrusions (Jenssen et al., 1993) knowledge of sand injection complexes has grown. Ultimately this led to the deliberate exploration of analogous features for hydrocarbons (De Boer et al., 2007; Szarawarska et al., 2010) a process by which mapping of bedding-discordant sandstone intrusions became routine (Briedis et al., 2007; Schwab et al., 2014). Borehole core allowed the identification and characterisation of distinctive sedimentary facies formed during sand injection and provided a basis for enhancing the understanding of the processes by which sand is fluidised and injected (Duranti and Hurst, 2004; Vigorito and Hurst, 2010). Outcrop studies of giant sand injection complexes demonstrate that sandstone intrusions emanate from parent depositional sandstone and form highly porous and permeable conduits for fluid migration over areas of 100's to 1,000's km² and dissect 100's m of fine-grained host strata (Vigorito and Hurst, 2010; Hurst and Vigorito, 2017). Within a spectrum of geological features that act as fluid migration pathways through the shallow portion of the crust, sand injection complexes constitute a class of seal bypass structures that remain elusive to subsurface imaging technology (Huuse et al., 2010). Discordance to bedding is one of the main characteristics of sandstone intrusions. When the discordances are at a low (<45°) angle to bedding, they are distinctive on seismic data (Jenssen et al., 1993; Lonergan et al., 2000; Huuse et al., 2004).

When sandstone intrusions are at the limit of seismic resolution and, or, steep it is very challenging to detect individual intrusions and almost impossible to resolve them (Huuse et al., 2007; Lecomte et al., 2016). High-quality outcrops of giant sand injection complexes thus provide crucial analogue data when characterising distribution and connectivity of

subsurface sandstone intrusions, which are critical parameters in geological exploration, and in the evaluation of fluid and gas storage and geological waste disposal.

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2. Panoche Giant Injection Complex (PGIC) and Subsurface Injection Complexes

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The Panoche Giant Injection Complex (PGIC) is one of two adjacent exceptionally wellexposed sand injection complexes in the San Joaquin Valley of central California (Vigorito et al., 2008), which hosts the largest-known exposures of sand injection complexes. Outcrop of the PGIC covers almost 400 km² (Fig. 1) and examination of borehole data from the neighbouring San Joaquin Valley extends the known area to >1500 km² (Mario Vigorito, personal communication). There is no evidence that the PGIC was ever heated above approximately 50 °C (equivalent to <2 km burial) and until the mid/late Eocene, it remained within a few 100's m of the Earth's surface (Hurst et al., 2017). Moreno Formation strata that host the PGIC are slightly consolidated apart from occasional carbonate concretions. Because of the large scale of PGIC outcrop, many laterally extensive, km-scale sandstone intrusions are exposed which have very similar geometry, size and thickness to subsurface examples (Fig. 2; Hurst and Vigorito, 2017). Here we use a >2 km long cliff section from Right Angle Canyon (RAC) (Fig. 1c) as our analogue for subsurface seismically resolvable sandstone intrusions. The sandstone intrusions in RAC, and generally in the PGIC (Figs 1b and 1c), formed by fluidisation and injection of sand predominantly from turbiditic sandstone units in the Dosados Member (Moreno Formation) (Fig. 1d; Vigorito and Hurst, 2010), an interpretation that is sustained for the PGIC by mineral-chemical analysis (Hurst et al., 2017).

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The PGIC sand injection complex has a well-defined architectural pattern in which intrusion geometry records the evolution of pore-fluid pressure during injection (Vigorito and Hurst, 2010; Hurst et al., 2011), and is subdivided vertically into: a lower dike zone, a sill zone and an upper dike zone. Except where eroded, the uppermost dikes of the upper dike

zone terminate at the paleo-seafloor, which in many areas was the site of sand extrusion at the time of sand injection and elsewhere supported cold-carbonate seep communities (Schwartz et al., 2003; Vigorito et al., 2008; Vigorito and Hurst, 2010; Blouet et al., 2017). Very occasionally, meter-scale thick sills formed 20 to 30 meters below the paleo-seafloor. In the study area, the lower dike zone is poorly exposed and comprises only a few steep dikes, and for simplicity we model only the sandstone intrusions of the sill zone and upper dike zone. At a kilometric scale the thickest sandstone intrusions in RAC display a saucer-shaped geometry (Hurst and Vigorito, 2017) in which it is possible to differentiate a main southern and northern inner sill, a northern and southern "wing" (sensu Huuse et al., 2004), an outer sill and central nested intrusions (Fig. 3).

Subsurface examples of sand injection complexes are characterised by saucer-shaped intrusions, some of which form entire oilfields (Fig. 2a), and which occur in several stratigraphic intervals in restricted areas but also in disparate areas (Huuse et al., 2004; Huuse et al., 2007). To evaluate the utility of the RAC outcrop data as a subsurface analogue, comparison is made with seismic and borehole data from Volund oilfield (Fig. 2b), which include several generations of high-quality marine seismic reflection data and excellent borehole core data. Using synthetic seismic models of outcrops, this investigation evaluates their relevance to subsurface interpretation of sand injection complexes by comparison with Volund field.

3. Methods and field analogue dataset

Our approach to generating 2D synthetic seismic profiles from 2D geological templates follows the method of Lecomte et al. (2016) based on a 2D convolution and a point-spread function (Lecomte, 2008). An accurate 2D geometric model of the outcrop data, uploaded with Vp, Vs and density data obtained from Blue Agave #1 and N24/9-7a well log data (see

below), forms the geological template - the *a priori* solution - that is required for seismic forward modeling. The outcrop analogue includes cm- to m- scale detail to avoid subjective simplification of input data prior to modeling, and are of higher resolution than the results of the seismic forward model.

Little of the fine-scale (sub-seismic) geological detail from the outcrop description is expected to be captured in the seismic forward models, but by including sub-seismic detail in models we ensure that their possible summative diffractive and back-scattered effects are not neglected (Zavalishin, 2000). At the outset, it is known that steep-angle to bedding and narrow aperture intrusions are very unlikely to be resolved and unlikely to be detected (Huuse et al., 2007). However, their effect on seismic data may produce characteristics unlike the actual sandstone geometry but may form characteristic pattern from which their presence can be inferred. Moreover, the knowledge of the *a priori* geological interpretations allows discussion of the results of the seismic forward models in unprecedented detail (Lecomte et al., 2016).

3.1. Outcrop data: the saucer-shaped intrusion, Right Angle Canyon

The eastern face of the canyon is close to a strike section approximately parallel to the underlying Dosados Member turbiditic channel, with strata dipping at ~35° NE along a slope with a 30 to 35° face (**Fig. 3**). Photogrammetric data were acquired and calibrated with logs of stratigraphic sections that were acquired across the outcrop. The sill zone is more than 150 m thick and shows clearly that dikes connect the Dosados Member sandstone unit with the saucer-shaped intrusion (**Fig. 3b**), and were the preferential pathways for the upward flow of fluidised sand. Sills intersect with underlying and lateral dikes and sill margins are, to varying degrees, discordant with bedding. Sill thickness ranges from a few centimetres up to several meters, while individual sill segments are of the order of a few hundred of meters long. Sills have steps, changes of inclination and bifurcation. The saucer-shaped intrusion is a composite feature with a central area dominated by low-angle to bedding sills that laterally

steepen to form wings inclined at between 20 and 85° (**Fig. 3**). The upper dike zone is characterized by isolated dikes and dike swarms (**Fig. 3b**) in which dikes are fed both by sills or dikes that are directly connected to parent units. Dike aperture ranges from a few centimetres up to 7 meters and their length ranges from a few centimetres up to several hundred meters. Dikes often decrease in aperture upward and appear to be semi-continuous in 2D where jogs occur (Vétel and Cartwright, 2010). After correction for the regional tectonic tilt, dikes have a NNW-SSE strike orientation with dip angles to bedding ranging from a few tens of degrees up to 90°.

The northern part of the saucer-shaped intrusion has an inner sill ca. 7 m thick that runs along the upper part of the sill zone for about 550 m (Fig. 3), partly exploiting the discontinuity between mudstone and a depositional sandstone, but without causing a significant fluidization of the latter (Fig. 3b). At the northernmost part of the saucer the geometry is a high-angle (~73°) intrusion that defines a wing geometry. The wing is laterally continuous with aperture ranging from 2 m to 10 m, cross-cutting the stratigraphy for ca. 130 m, and with the dip increasing gradually from the lower to the upper part of the wing where it is almost vertical (Fig. 3b). The upper limit of the wing is the point where the high-angle intrusion forms an outer sill, which propagates and bifurcates northward. In the central part of the saucer the sill changes dip to form a low-angle dike, the main feeder dike, which is linked directly to the underlying parent unit (Fig. 3b). Also in the central area, stacked nested intrusions occur (Fig. 3b), which consist of low-angle intrusions that sometimes terminate against high-angle dikes or simply pinch out away from their mid-point.

The southern part of the saucer has an inner sill, which is up to 13 m thick, 470 m long and located in the upper part of the sill zone (**Fig. 3b**). To the north and south of the thickest section the inner sill thins gradually to 5 m and 8 m, respectively. Near its thickest point the sill steps up to the south. A composite wing is formed by a rapid increase in steepness up to approximately 85°, which then bifurcates into a series of offset dikes with similar orientation

(**Fig. 3b**). In the lower part of the wing the dikes diverge but merge upward and then bifurcate into lower aperture dikes. The cumulative thickness of the dikes in the lower and upper parts of the wing is *ca.* 10 m and *ca.* 6 m, respectively. The excellent and extensive exposure reveals a plethora of features similar to those recognised in core (Duranti et al., 2002; Duranti and Hurst, 2004; Hurst et al., 2011) and seismic data (Huuse et al., 2004; Huuse et al., 2007) from subsurface sand injection complexes, which is why the PGIC is the prime outcrop analogue for understanding subsurface sand injection complexes.

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3.2. Petrophysical data

When creating seismic models of outcrops as analogues for subsurface interpretation, models need to be populated by accurate petrophysical data. Petrophysical characteristics of outcrops are modified by uplift and weathering so to avoid compromising the subsurface (seismic) model, the RAC template uses data from the same stratigraphic interval in the Blue Agave #1 borehole located 11 km NE of RAC (**Fig. 1b**). The Moreno Formation in Blue Agave #1 is at a similar depth to the reservoir interval in Volund field (Schwab et al., 2014).

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Blue Agave #1 borehole (Cheney Ranch gas field - San Joaquin Valley)

The entire Moreno Formation (McGuire, 1988) is penetrated in Blue Agave #1, and a full suite of wireline data available log are (https://maps.conservation.ca.gov/doggr/wellfinder/#close). This facilitates correlation between Blue Agave #1 and the RAC section (Figs 1c and 4). In Blue Agave #1 the top and base of the Moreno Formation occur at 1672 m and 2250 m subsurface, respectively. Wireline log data show variations in bulk density and pressure-wave velocity (V_p) which correspond to lithological variations (mudstone, sandstone and diagenetic carbonate concretions). Shear-wave velocity (V_s) was derived from V_p using the Greenberg-Castagna equation (Greenberg and Castagna, 1992) (see Fig. 4). Top surfaces of the biosiliceous mudstone of the Marca Member, the sandstone-rich slope-turbiditic deposits of the Tierra

Loma Member and the sandstone of the Dosados Member are important features that are identified in the borehole and outcrop and are correlated with confidence (**Fig. 4**).

N24/9-7A borehole (Volund oil field - Norwegian North Sea)

Because the Blue Agave #1 wireline data do not allow a clear identification of the sandstone intrusions, wireline data from the N24/9-7A borehole, Volund oilfield (De Boer et al., 2007; Schwab et al., 2014) were used to provide petrophysical data for intrusions in the seismic forward modeling. The Volund reservoir is entirely formed by saucer-shaped sandstone intrusions (**Fig. 2b**; Huuse et al., 2004; Schwab et al., 2014). Borehole N24/9-7A penetrates the saucer-shaped intrusion at ~1900 m subsea, which approximates to the position of the sandstone intrusions in Blue Agave #1. Coincidence of the burial depths and the presence of similar lithologies allows us to infer similar lithostatic overburden in both boreholes and justifies the use of the N24/9-7A data from sandstone intrusions in the seismic forward models. V_p and bulk density of the sandstone intrusions are lower than those of the host mudstone. Borehole geophysical data from the Volund field are publically available (http://factpages.npd.no/factpages/default.aspx?culture=en&nav1= wellbore).

3.3. 2D geological and petrophysical model

A critical aspect of the geological model is the creation of a cross section of RAC in which the geometry of the sandstone intrusions and the geometry of the surrounding host strata are depicted accurately (**Fig. 5a**). Stratigraphic logs, dip/strike measurements, photogrammetric data and geo-referenced satellite images, are integrated in the model. The main dike orientation is approximately perpendicular to the 2D cross section (**Fig. 5b**), thus the dip angles are similar to the true inclinations of the sandstone intrusions. Because the Moreno Formation and the host strata in well N24/9-7A are unlikely to have identical petrophysical characterisites, using petrophysical data from Blue Agave #1 (**Fig. 4**), including Vp, V_s and interval bulk density (**Table 1**), ensures that the seismic model of the RAC contains accurate geometry and petrophysical data. Using subsurface data from well N24/9-

7A may introduce petrophysical characteristics uncommon to the Moreno Formation, for example, a lack of strong acoustic impedance may compromise imaging of diagnostic features of sand injection complexes such as the jack-up of host strata (Szarawarska et al., 2010) and will generally fail to resolve the geological features present in the outcrop based models. Our seismic model of RAC is a base case unique to the Moreno Formation that allows meaningful comparison to subsurface seismic data, herein specifically Volund field.

3.4. Geophysical method (2D convolution)

Modeling uses ray-based point-spread functions (PSF) to produce a synthetic seismic reflection section by convolution of an input 2D reflectivity model (Lecomte et al., 2003; Lecomte et al., 2016). PSF create elementary images of pre-stack depth migration. The method advances beyond 1D convolution by implicitly adding a complete resolution pattern, unrestricted to a single direction, and incorporating illumination effects (Lecomte et al., 2016). Thereby, extended convolution makes use of a given velocity model for the overburden and of a seismic survey geometry, thus having both resolution and illumination patterns controlled by actual wave propagation effects. The synthetic seismic images that are produced correspond to ideal results of PSDM imaging, the latter being a necessity when modeling complex geology (Gray et al., 2001) such as sand injection complexes.

The overburden model and survey geometry used in the seismic forward modeling are shown (**Fig. 5c**) with the corresponding PSF placed in the corner of each synthetic seismic section (**Fig. 5d**). When interpreting a seismic image, one must keep in mind that any 2D reflectivity "scatterer" in the input model consequently appears as the PSF with its corresponding polarity and strength. Complex 2D interference between all the PSF footprints combine to form the final image. As will be illustrated, the resolution pattern obtained for the model in figure **5d** results in a PSF with a central peak size of approximately a quarter wavelength vertically and a half wavelength horizontally, these being typical dimensions for a good quality seismic acquisition and imaging (Simm and Bacon, 2014). Within the

acquisition and migration (Kirchhoff PSDM) conditions of this experiment the illumination is limited to ~45° in dip as geological dips steeper than this are not imaged (Biondi, 2001).

Similarity between the 2D geometry of saucer-shaped intrusions in Volund field and RAC (**Fig. 2b**) are indicative that the latter is a suitable analogue for forward seismic simulation of the outcrop data (**Fig. 5a**). The dominant frequencies of the full-stack seismic volume of Volund are between 30 and 40 Hz (Szarawarska et al., 2010). Accordingly, the same range of frequencies were used in the seismic forward models. Although a wavelet directly extracted from Volund field data could be used for the modeling, simple zero-phase Ricker wavelets were used with peak frequencies of 30 and 40 Hz for convolution of the 2D reflectivity model. This avoided possible artefacts such as high secondary lobes with, *e. g.*, Ormsby wavelets (Ryan, 1994).

4. Results

4.1. Synthetic seismic models of sandstone intrusions

The 30 Hz seismic forward model of the RAC saucer-shaped sandstone intrusion has well-defined horizontal seismic reflections (**Fig. 5d**). These reflectors are related to acoustic impedance contrasts between mudstone units, between mudstone and depositional sandstone or where (close to) bedding-parallel sandstone intrusions (sills) occur. Subhorizontal and high-angle seismic reflections cut across the horizontal reflections and are associated with the presence of sandstone dikes (compare **Figs 5a** and **5d**). Thick subhorizontal intrusions that form the inner sill are well illuminated (**Fig. 5d**) although the peak to trough interval in most cases is dissimilar to the actual thickness of intrusions.

The discrepancy between the distance from peak to trough and the true thickness is controlled by the frequency of the impulses and the interference effects between stratigraphic reflections and reflections generated along sandstone intrusion contacts (**Fig. 6**).

4.1.1 Stepped seismic reflections related to the occurrence of wedge geometry

Using the 40 Hz seismic forward model to image the northern wing demonstrates how the geometric relationship between the stepped intrusion and host strata (Figs 6a and 6b) creates a complex wedge-geometry cluster. The sandstone intrusion cuts strata that have contrasting acoustic impedance (Fig. 6c). The effects of constructive and destructive interference (Widess, 1973) on the wavelet amplitude are revealed (Figs 6c and 6d, left hand insets). In the case of constructive interference, the wedge-geometry causes amplitude enhancement of the seismic signal, whereas destructive interference either attenuates or cancels the seismic signal (Figs 6c and 6d). In the latter case discontinuities along seismic reflections produce artefact steps (tuning wedge steps) whereas in reality the sandstone intrusion is laterally continuous (Fig. 6d).

4.1.2 Stepped seismic reflections and discordant amplitudes related to the presence of highangle sandstone intrusions

Seismic detection of dikes depends on factors such as their thickness, contrast in acoustic impedance and dip angle, with high-angle to bedding dip the main detrimental factor influencing the detection of intrusions (Biondi, 2001). With this in mind, examples are evaluated that show how variations of dip angle of sandstone intrusions produce discordant amplitude anomalies or the complete absence of seismic response.

The maximum dip angle that is illuminated using the seismic survey array (**Fig. 5c**) is ~45° (**Fig. 5d**, top right-hand insets). Above this value reflections of seismic rays along dike margins are likely to be undetected (**Fig. 5d**). Where the margins of sandstone intrusions dip at angles greater than ~45° they produce artefact discontinuities along the seismic reflections. Results of the forward modeling reinforce the concept (**Figs 6c** and **6d**) and indicate that the steps highlighted at point 1 are undoubtedly imaging artefacts.

Examples of high-angle sandstone intrusions from the southern part of RAC (Fig. 7) reveal that the composite wing consists of several steep-to-bedding offset intrusions (Figs 7b and 7c), which because of high dip-angles (average dip ~75°) is only partially detected (Fig. 7d). Moreover, in this area the reflection of the seismic rays highlights the presence of a seismic amplitude anomaly, but does not provide accurate information about the geometry of the sandstone intrusions (compare Figs 7c and 7d). Clues about the presence of sandstone intrusions are obtained from observation of the relationship between the inner sill and the jack-up (Figs 7c and 7d); jack-up describes the uplift of the overburden above sandstone intrusions relative to areas without intrusions. Jack-up of the base of Marca Member overlies both the southern wing and part of the southern inner sill (Figs 7a and 7b) and is highlighted by the displacement of bedding parallel seismic reflections (compare Fig. 7b and 7c). These coincide exactly with the location of the seismic amplitude anomalies caused by the complex geometry of the composite wing. In this case the jack-up is directly indicative of the presence of sandstone intrusion.

Well-defined discordant amplitude anomalies are present where large aperture (>4m) dikes dip with angles of less than ~45° (point 1 in **Fig. 7c**). Again, when the dip angle of intrusions exceeds the maximum dip angle that is illuminated (point 2 in **Figs 6c** and **7c**) no amplitude anomalies are recorded, which limits the possibility of detecting sandstone intrusions.

4.2. Synthetic vs actual data

Comparison of the 40 Hz forward model of RAC with actual seismic data from Volund oilfield highlights remarkable similarities (**Fig. 8**). The synthetic data and Volund oilfield data are of comparable lateral and vertical scale, and in terms of geometry and architecture they are almost identical. In both the seismic sections the main sandstone intrusions consist of: 1) an inner sill; 2) two main bedding-discordant amplitude anomalies (wings); 3) the jack-up of the horizontal reflections approximately above and parallel to the location of the inner sill

(Fig. 8). Detail from the Volund seismic data (Fig. 8a) shows clear stepped seismic reflections along the inner sill which, in the light of the forward modeling may be interpreted either as high-angle intrusion steps or tuning wedge steps (compare Fig. 8a and 8b). Where horizontal stratigraphic reflections intersect high-angle seismic reflections the effect of tuning-wedge amplitude enhancement is generated, in which case the increase of signal amplitude could be misinterpreted as a variation in target acoustic impedance, which is incorrect. Comparison between the cross-sectional geometry of Volund field and RAC reveals similar overall geometry although Volund has thicker sandstone intrusions (Fig. 8c and 8d). The geological model has vastly more dikes than resolved in either seismic interpretation (compare Fig. 8d and 8e).

4.3. Detection vs resolution

The limit of vertical resolution is a quarter wavelength ($\lambda/4$) of the dominant frequency of the seismic source.

When the thickness of a layer is greater than the limit of vertical resolution, reflections at its top and base begin to resolve as separate events. Below the limit of vertical resolution, constructive or destructive interference of waves from closely-spaced reflections depending on their relative impedance contrasts. These contrasts control the final imaging. Wave interference limits the possibility to discriminate the actual thickness of a bed but not the possibility to detect its thickness as the combined reflection amplitude should be linearly related to its thickness below $\lambda/8$ (Shoemaker et al., 2007).

For actual data, the limit of detectability depends on the acoustic impedance contrast, the wavelet spectrum and the signal-to-noise ratio of the seismic (Zhang and Castagna, 2011). Thus, a thin bed cannot be resolved if its seismic amplitude merges with the background noise (Simm and Bacon, 2014). The limit of detectability of thin-bedded hydrocarbon-saturated sandstone, characterized by strong contrast in acoustic impedance with the surrounding strata, is usually set between $\lambda/20$ and $\lambda/30$ (Widess, 1973; Sheriff and Geldart, 1995; Zhang and Castagna, 2011). To gain insight into the proportion of bedding-

discordant intrusions (dikes) that would not be detected during a seismic survey we compiled measurements of strike, dip and thickness of dikes (**Fig. 9**).

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Because the limit of detectability of sandstone intrusions also depends on the ability to illuminate their dip angle (Vermeer, 2012), using detailed outcrop data and a defined survey design in a seismic forward model allows the quantification of the percentage of dikes that are likely to be resolved or detected in the subsurface. Differentiate very-low angle dikes from sills may be challenging, therefore only dikes with a dip angle above 10° with respect to bedding and >5 cm thick were included. Thinner dikes would never be detected individually, regardless of their dip angle.

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Taking into account that seismic methods have limited detection-ability of sandstone intrusions above 45°, only 22% of the dikes known to be present are likely to be detected (**Fig. 9a**), while the remaining 78% fall in the undetectable field (steeper than 45°) (**Fig. 9a**). If dike thickness and dip angle are known the percentage of sandstone intrusions that are detectable can be calculated by assuming that the peak frequency of the pulse (f) and the velocity of the compressional waves (V_p) at the zone of interest are constrained. When fields of resolvable, detectable and undetectable - for a dominant frequency of 40 Hz, V_p of 2000 m/s and a maximum dip angle illuminated of 45° - are calculated (Fig. 9b), it is clear that most dikes are undetectable; approximately 10% of the sandstone intrusions are detectable and <1% are resolved with reasonable accuracy (Fig. 9b). Changing the values of frequency and wave velocity shift the limits of the detectable and undetectable fields. The data show that the proportion of thick dikes (range between 1.6 to 13 m) decreases as the dip angle of intrusions increases (Fig. 9c). However, despite most dikes having high dip-angles, most of the sandstone volume is accommodated in the thick (wide aperture) low-angle intrusions (Fig. 9c), which represent most of the sandstone volume associated with the wings of a saucer-shaped intrusion. Unsurprisingly, the resolution of the geometry of individual parts of the sandstone intrusion is more tenuous than resolving the overall geometry. Consequently,

saucers and sills generally appear more discontinuous than in reality (Figs 8d and 8e) and dikes are resolved as "blobs" (Figs 7d and 7e).

The low probability of detecting high-angle sandstone intrusions means that seismic interpreters need to be aware of the likely underestimation of the quantity of dikes, their reservoir volume and their spatial distribution within an injection complex. The seismic-based model (Fig. 8d) of the 40 Hz synthetic seismic line of RAC highlights the importance of this point. Comparison of the seismic forward model and the initial geological model (Figs 8d and 8e) shows that mapping of the top and the base of the thick sandstone intrusions should be straightforward, but that it is more challenging to interpret the sill zone and the upper dike zone, where sub-seismic and high angle (> 45° to bedding) sandstone intrusions occur. Computation of the volume of sandstone present in the forward model compared to reality (Figs 8d and 8e) shows that between 20 and 40% of the volume of the sandstone present may be undetected in seismic images. In practice, this means that one makes a seismic interpretation of sandstone intrusion complexes significant underestimation will occur, and more important in the context of promoting leakage in the upper dike zone - the degree of connectivity between individual sandstone intrusions will be grossly underestimated.

5. Discussion

5.1. Comparison of seismic data from the outcrop model and Volund field

In terms of the scale of features that are resolved on the 3D seismic data from Volund field, the overall geometry of the forward seismic model of the RAC saucer-shaped intrusion is remarkably similar (**Fig. 8**). The lateral extent and height of the intrusion indicate that the fracture systems which host both intrusions are very similar, which is indicative of a similar process of formation. In the case of RAC, the position of the paleo-seafloor, hence the depth of burial at which sand injection occurred, are constrained (*cf.* Vigorito and Hurst, 2010). This relationship is more speculative in Volund field where paleo-seafloor extrusions are not

clearly visible on seismic data and probably not identified in boreholes (De Boer et al., 2007; Schwab et al., 2014). A significant difference between the intrusion complexes is the thickness of the sandstone: Volund field generally >20 m thick in the lower sill-dominated part of the saucer (**Fig. 8a**) and RAC <20m thick throughout most of the saucer (**Fig. 8b**). Despite the thickness difference, the fracture geometries have similar asymmetric geometries.

Saucer-shaped intrusions, including wings, conical intrusions and other variants in the realm of sand injectites, are well know from 3D seismic data (MacLeod, 1999; Duranti et al., 2002; Huuse et al., 2004; Huuse et al., 2007; Szarawarska et al., 2010). In stark contrast, well-exposed outcrop examples of saucer-shaped intrusions at similar scale are unusual (Surlyk et al., 2007; Vigorito and Hurst, 2010; Hurst and Vigorito, 2017). The disparity in knowledge of subsurface and outcrop data has limited the informed geological modeling of sandstone intrusions and is a significant reason why constraining the volumes of intrusive sandstones remains challenging. Because seismic data acquisition techniques fail to image dikes (steep to bedding), a significant volume of sandstone may be invisible, as illustrated in the outcrop seismic model (Figs 8d and 8e). Arguably more significant is how the failure to image dikes can lead to gross underestimation of vertical transmissivity in what appear to be low permeability seals (Vigorito and Hurst, 2010). Undetected dikes (in the upper dike zone) similarly lead to underestimation of vertical hydraulic continuity in the mudstone dominated overburden. In the RAC outcrop model ~78% of dikes are undetected (Fig. 9), which although they are not volumetrically large, they are likely to have a strong influence on hydraulic continuity throughout a sand injection complex.

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5.2. Consequences of tuning effects

Discordance between sandstone intrusions and finer-grained host strata causes obvious problems when interpreting seismic data where sandstone intrusions are present (Huuse et al., 2007). Intrusions steeper than 45° do not produce reflections similar to the intrusion geometry but produce features that could be interpreted as random imaging-artefacts, or are

undetected (Figs 5d, 6d and 7d). Tuning effects occur along wedge-shaped units that have margins inclined at less than 45° to bedding and cause both constructive and destructive interference (Fig. 6), which creates step geometry, apparent thickening and thinning of sandstone, and may produce a more complex external geometry than exists (Fig. 6d). Where intrusions steepen more than 45°, they transform from resolvable or detectable to undetectable and form images unfamiliar in the context of conventional sandstone intrusions (Figs 7c and 7d, points 1 and 2). Steep composite intrusions produce unclear reflections that do not indicate the presence of sandstone and may be open to interpretation as imaging artefacts or noise possibly associated with fluid substitution, rather than sandstone intrusions (Fig. 5d, dike swarm and Figs 7c and 7d, composite wing).

Limitations of resolution and detection may hinder the accurate estimation of sandstone volume and geometry, which affects connectivity, thus compromising the spatial representation of the distribution of sandstone (MacLeod et al., 1999; Duranti et al., 2002; Schwab et al., 2014) (**Figs 5, 6** and **7**). Where a dike swarm up to ~100m across and >200m high with individual dikes of 0.5 to >3 m aperture occurs, seismic images do not capture realistically the sandstone geometry or distribution (**Figs 5d** and **7**). Within the area of the dike swarm the forward model creates small discordances among flat-lying reflections and some low-relief folds along the top of the Marca Member (**Fig. 5d**). All of these effects are tuning artefacts caused by high-angle intersections between sandstone dikes and none of them represent geological features present at outcrop. It seems likely that when interpreting the possible presence of sandstone dikes in the upper dike zone one should expect seismic images to have unrealistic geological features rather than linear, dike-like, geometry.

5.3. Bedding-discordant amplitude anomalies in different geological context

Mass-transport deposits are generally associated with chaotic seismic facies, which are seen as the seismic expression of intensely folded strata, imbricated strata and slide-scar surfaces (Kneller et al., 2016). They produce a wide range of bedding-discordant amplitude anomalies (Bull et al., 2009) similar to those present in sand injection complexes. Bedding-

discordance may be misinterpreted if tuning-wedge step effects or tuning-wedge amplitude enhancement effects are not taken into account. In common with sandstone intrusions, seismic forward models of mass-transport deposits fail to detect surfaces characterized by high dip angles (Dykstra et al., 2011).

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5.4. Fluid flux and seafloor seepage

Sandstone dikes are conduits for fluid flow to the surface, expelling sand and fluid during their emplacement (Hurst et al., 2011) and subsequently enhancing longer-term drainage from deeper strata (Schwartz et al., 2003; Mazzini et al., 2003; Blouet et al., 2017). Because dikes propagate at lower pore-fluid pressure than sills (Hurst et al., 2011), in a sand injection complex where pore-fluid pressure was sublithostatic and the underlying pressure cell restricted in volume, dikes may form the only sandstone intrusions present. Dikes would of course emanate from parent units and, as observed in the PGIC, they may propagate through 100's meters of host strata and reach the paleo-seafloor (Vigorito et al., 2008; Hurst et al., 2011). It is unlikely that any dikes are detectable (Fig. 9), and even if they occur as dike swarms the seismic images are likely to form features that do not resemble dike geometry (Figs 5a and 5d). Areas of sand injection complexes where sills and saucers are absent, but dikes occur, appear similar to host strata in which no intrusions are present. The upper dike zone is difficult to image on actual seismic data (Fig. 8a) and in seismic forward models (Figs 5d and 8b), which has direct implications on the estimation of rates and volumes of fluid expelled from otherwise low permeability host strata that in turn relate directly to estimates of their porosity loss (Hurst et al., 2012).

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6. Conclusions

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Seismic forward modeling of large outcrops confirms the tacit assumption that seismic images fail to image many geometric features of sandstone intrusions. Seismic models of kilometre-scale saucer-shaped intrusions from the Panoche Giant Injection Complex create

cross-sectional profiles that have very similar geometry and dimensions to sandstone intrusions from the Volund oilfield. Almost 78% of dikes in the outcrop model are likely to be undetected. Generally, thin and steep intrusions are not seismically imaged but were explicitly included in the seismic modeling. Inevitably, hydraulic continuity in subsurface models of sand injection complexes is underestimated.

Results of seismic modeling of outcrop show that even high seismic frequency (40 Hz) fails to detect most steep (>45° to bedding) intrusions. Individual steep dikes are undetected. Intrusions <45° to bedding are routinely detected but their thickness is rarely resolved and their geometry may not resemble genuine. Dike swarms are detected but the seismic images do not resemble at the actual geometry, rather, a group of minor bedding discordances, including small folds. Similar artefact geometry may be representative of seismic images of dikes on subsurface seismic data. Lack of detection of dikes gives misleading impressions of vertical transmissibility in the overburden (upper dike zone) of sand injection complexes.

Up to the 40% of the total sandstone volume in an injection complex may be not imaged in actual seismic data, which creates significant uncertainty related to estimation of sandstone storativity. If unrecognised, underestimation of vertical and horizontal transmissivity is implicit in otherwise low permeability (mudstone) strata in which the only intrusions are dikes. Sandstone dikes are conduits for fluid escape during burial, but because *ca.* 78% are undetected, underestimation of fluid flux will ensue.

Where there is discordance between lithologies with contrasting amplitude impedance, which is a characteristic of sandstone intrusions, tuning wedge-effects occur, such as tuning wedge steps and tuning wedge amplitude enhancement. Seismic modeling demonstrates that constructive and destructive amplitude interference generates imaging artefacts that produce incorrect images of sandstone intrusion thickness. Recognition of the significance of tuning wedge-effects enables the use of seismic models of outcrops to derive more accurate descriptions when undertaking subsurface data interpretation. Failure to recognise possible artefacts caused by constructive and destructive amplitude interference causes erroneous seismic interpretation.

The immediate implications of this work herein include petroleum and groundwater exploration and production, and evaluation of top seal integrity analysis for carbon and nuclear waste storage.

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Fig. 1. Outcrop location and lithostratigraphy. a) Location of the study area in the central California. b) Geological map of the Panoche Hills, NW margin of the San Joaquin Valley; red outline is shown in c. c) Geologic map of Right Angle Canyon. The Maastrichtian-Danian stratal units dip ENE with an average dip angle of ca. 30°. A saucer-shaped sandstone intrusion (red) crops out on the NW margin of Right Angle Canyon and cuts the stratigraphy of the Moreno Formation stopping within the Dos Palos Member at the Cima Sandstone Lentil. d) Lithostratigraphy and sandstone intrusion architecture in the study area.

Fig. 2. a) Location of some of the main Paleogene sandstone intrusion complexes (red stars) of the North Sea. b) 3D rendering of the Volund saucer-shaped intrusion from 3D seismic data (modified from Braccini et al., 2006). The lower part of the saucer-shaped intrusion (blue-green) is approximately bedding-parallel (inner sill) whereas bedding-discordant intrusions (dikes) and outer sills define the wings of the intrusion complex (yellow-orange). The depth range between the top of the inner sill and the top of the outer sill is about 240 m. Image x4 vertically exaggerated.

Fig. 3. The saucer-shaped sandstone intrusion in Right Angle Canyon. a) Oblique view (from Google Earth) of Right Angle Canyon (see Fig. 1 for location). b) Geological interpretation of the sandstone intrusion complex. The intensely remobilized parent units are mainly located within the Dosados Member, whereas the sandstone intrusions occur primarily within the Tierra Loma, Marca and Dos Palos members. The upper limit of the injection complex coincides with the Cima Sandstone Lentil, much of which comprises sand extrudites. Saucer-shaped geometry prevails in the thickest sandstone intrusions.

Fig. 4. Lithostratigraphy and petrophysical characteristics. The lithostratigraphy is based on outcrop description whereas borehole log data are from Blue Agave #1 well (see Fig. 1b for location), which has a similar Moreno Fm section to RAC and occurs at a similar depth to Volund field. Average values for bulk density and ultrasonic velocity were used to build the

layered petrophysical model. Shear-wave velocity (Vs) was derived from pressure-wave velocities (Vp).

Table 1

Table shows interval values of ultrasonic velocity and density used in the petrophysical model.

Fig. 5. a) Geological model of Right Angle Canyon (RAC). Sedimentary logs were used for correlation and to define sandstone geometry. Petrophysical characteristics are colour-coded as defined in Table1. b) Equal-angle lower hemisphere stereoplot of the poles of dikes in RAC, n = total number of measurements. Data are corrected for the tectonic dip. c) The seismic survey array as designed in the seismic forward modeller. The target area is located between 1.7 and 2.4 km below the seafloor. d) Synthetic seismic expression of RAC using a zero-phase Ricker wavelet with a peak frequency of 30 Hz. The histogram shows the number of illumination vectors and the maximum dip angle of the reflections illuminated.

Fig. 6. a) The RAC northern wing (see Fig. 3b for location). b) Geological interpretation of a) showing the discordance of the sandstone intrusion and the wedge geometry produced at the intersection between horizontal strata and the intrusion. c) Geological model of the northern wing (see Fig. 5a for location). Minus (-) and plus (+) symbols mark where destructive and constructive wave interference occur, respectively. d) A synthetic seismic model of the northern wing using a zero-phase Ricker wavelet with a peak frequency of 40 Hz to convolve the reflectivity model.

Fig. 7. a) Detail of the RAC southern wing and part of southern inner sill (see Fig. 3b for location). b) Geological interpretation of a) showing the discordance of the sandstone intrusion and the jack-up of the overlying mudstone. c) Geological model of the southern

RAC wing (see Fig. 5a for location). d) Synthetic seismic model of the southern wing using a zero-phase Ricker wavelet with a peak frequency of 40 Hz to convolve the reflectivity model.

Fig. 8. Comparison of actual seismic data with synthetic data in which the horizontal and vertical scales are approximately equal. a) Seismic section through the Volund field saucershaped sandstone intrusion (see Fig. 2c for location). The sub-horizontal and stepped highamplitude reflections are interpreted as part of the inner sill whereas the two main discordant amplitude anomalies occur where the top of the Balder Formation is offset and are interpreted as wings (Huuse et al., 2004; Schwab et al., 2014). Note that emplacement of the inner sill causes jack-up of the overlying strata. Dashed white ovals highlight the occurrence of steps within the inner sill reflections and at the base of the wing reflection as well as amplitude enhancement effect. b) The 40Hz synthetic seismic section from RAC that displays similar geometry to the Volund section. The overall similarity between actual seismic data and synthetic seismic data supports the value of seismic forward modeling of geological models to enhance the seismic interpretation of sandstone intrusions. c) Seismic interpretation of a) showing the main sandstone intrusion features on actual seismic data. d) Seismic interpretation of b) showing the geometry of the saucer-shaped intrusion as a seismic interpreter would see them. e) Geological model of RAC showing the high number of high-angle sandstone intrusions unlikely to be detected by a seismic survey.

Fig. 9 a) Frequency of the sandstone intrusions according to their dip angle. Intrusions that dip at less than ~45° are most likely to be resolved or detected. b) Cross-plot of intrusion thickness against intrusion dip angle. Resolvable, detectable and undetectable fields are defined according to the maximum dip angle illuminated, $\lambda/4$ and $\lambda/30$. A pick frequency of the pulse at the zone of interest of 40Hz, a background velocity of 2000 m/s and an average depth of the target area of 2 km, were used to define the fields as reported in figure. c) Percentage of intrusion thickness interval against the intrusion dip angle. Note that the thickest dikes fall in the range of 10 to 60° with the majority of them below 45°.

Figure 1

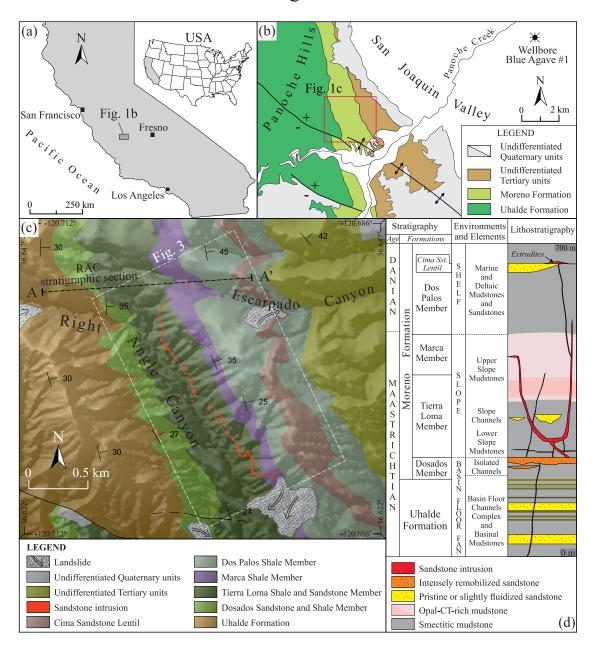


Figure 2

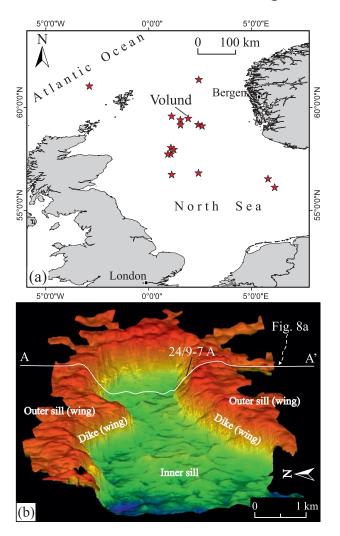


Figure 3

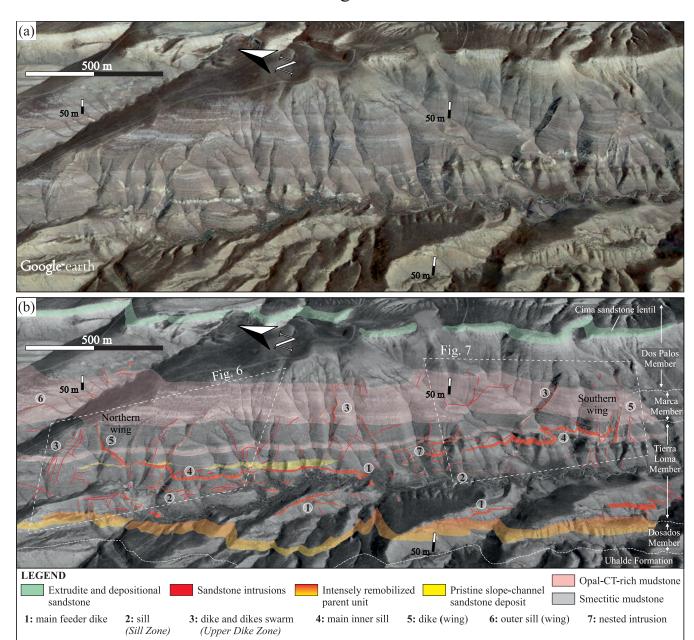
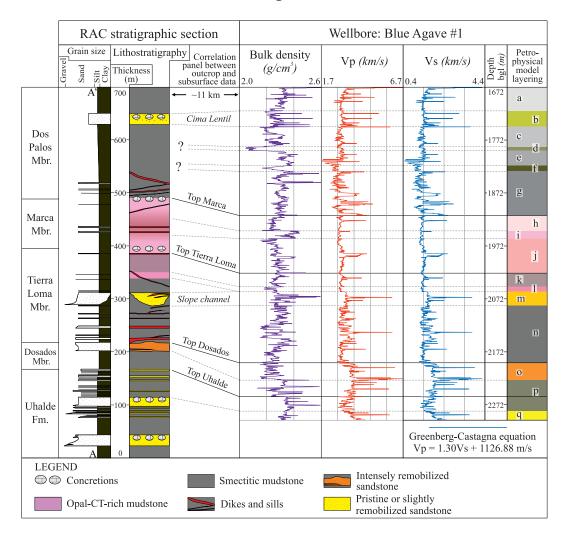


Figure 4



Tab 1

Data from wellbore Blue Agave #1

| Petro- | | | Interval values | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| physical model layering | Lithology | Depth bgl | Vp (m/s) | Vs (m/s) | Rho (g/cm³) |
| а | smectitic mudstone | 1672-1721 | 3140 | 1549 | 2.31 |
| b | silty-sandstone | 1721-1747 | 3212 | 1604 | 2.29 |
| С | smectitic mudstone | 1747-1784 | 2853 | 1328 | 2.24 |
| d | smectitic mudstone | 1784-1791 | 2895 | 1360 | 2.09 |
| е | smectitic mudstone | 1791-1820 | 2761 | 1257 | 2.34 |
| f | smectitic mudstone | 1820-1831 | 2585 | 1122 | 2.27 |
| g | smectitic mudstone | 1831-1914 | 3010 | 1449 | 2.31 |
| h | opal-CT-rich mudstone | 1914-1943 | 2903 | 1366 | 2.25 |
| i | opal-CT-rich mudstone | 1943-1957 | 2826 | 1307 | 2.38 |
| j | opal-CT-rich mudstone | 1957-2023 | 3014 | 1452 | 2.28 |
| k | opal-CT-rich mudstone | 2023-2049 | 2973 | 1420 | 2.27 |
| I | opal-CT-rich mudstone | 2049-2058 | 2853 | 1328 | 2.24 |
| m | sandstone | 2058-2075 | 3404 | 1751 | 2.32 |
| n | smectitic mudstone | 2075-2192 | 3116 | 1530 | 2.28 |
| o | sandstone | 2192-2224 | 3834 | 2082 | 2.23 |
| р | smectitic mudstone | 2224-2256 | 3770 | 2033 | 2.32 |
| q | sandstone | 2256-2301 | 3471 | 1803 | 2.36 |
| | concretions | / | 5210 | 3141 | 2.46 |

Data from wellbore 24/9-7 A

| | Lithology | Depth bsf | Interval values | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| | | | Vp (m/s) | Vs (m/s) | Rho (g/cm³) |
| sandstone intrusion | Oil-saturated sandstone | 1899-1938 | 2771 | 1265 | 2.1 |

Figure 5

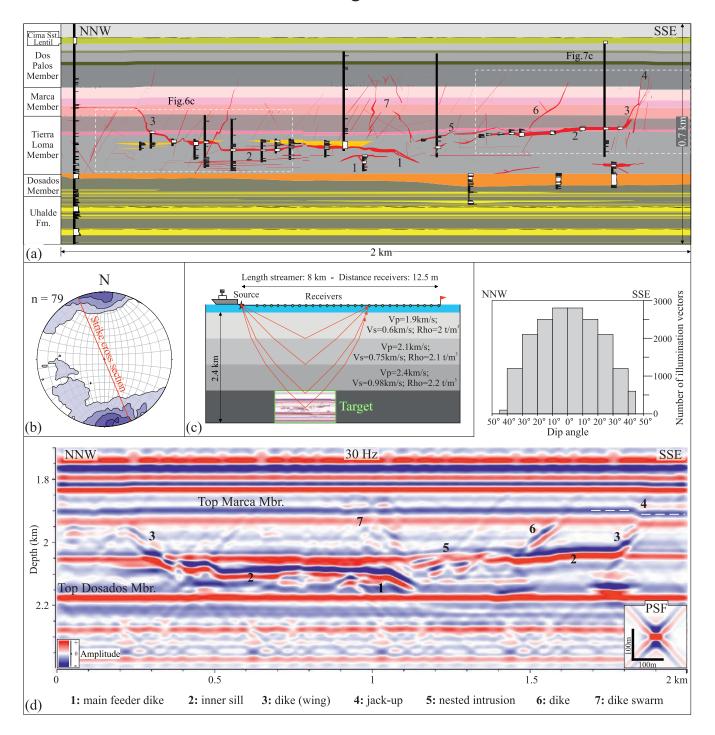


Figure 6

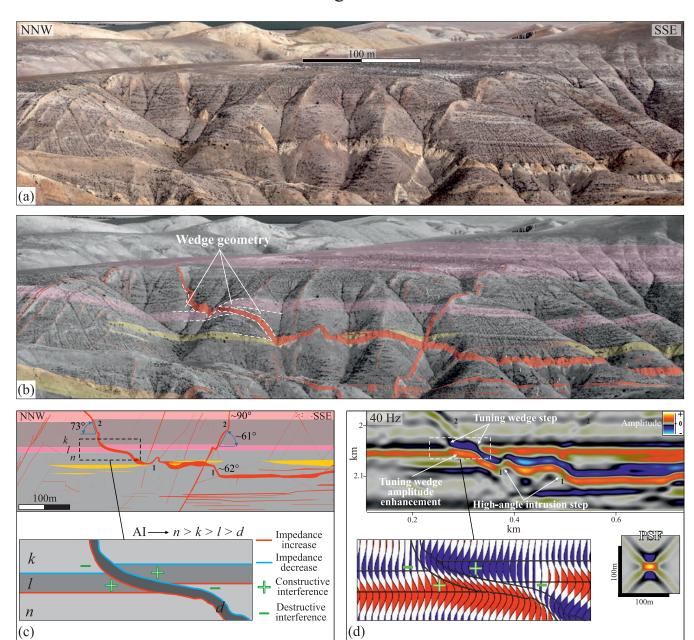


Figure 7

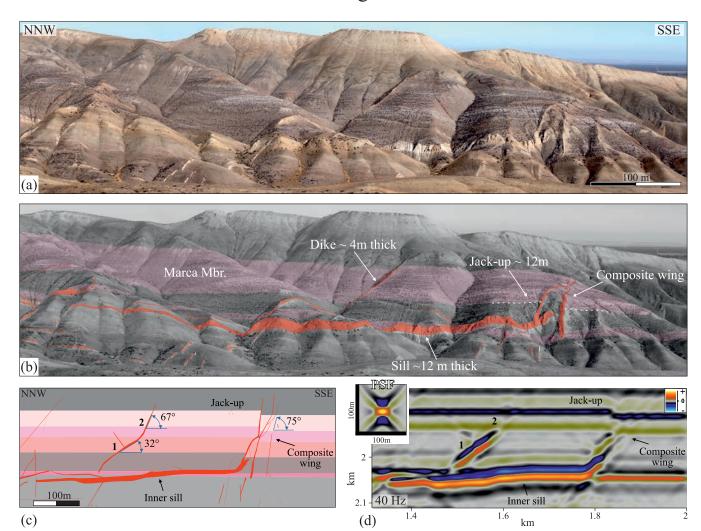


Figure 8

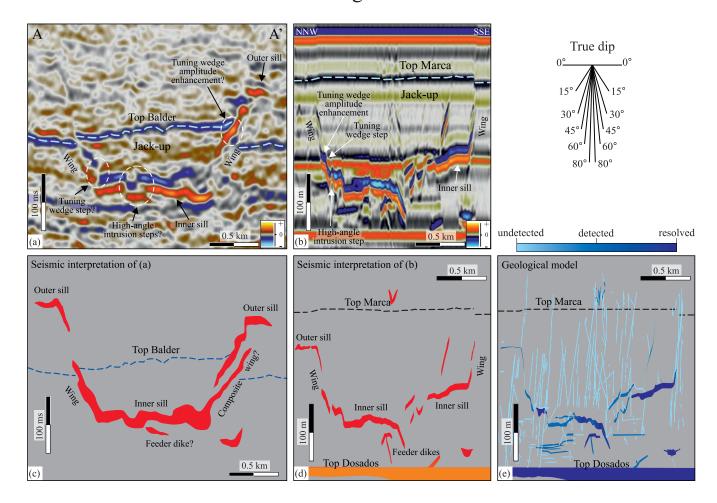


Figure 9

