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## From field analogues to realistic seismic modelling:

### A case study of an oil-producing andesitic sill complex in the Neuquén Basin, Argentina

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**Abstract:** Interpretation of seismic data has played a major role for recent advances in the studies of igneous sill complexes. Seismic modelling studies based on field analogues represent a promising tool to close the scale gap between observations from outcrops and seismic data and support seismic interpretation. Virtual outcrop models are commonly used to include high-resolution geological structures

21 in models of seismic-scale field analogues. However, realistic seismic modelling requires not only detailed  
22 structural input, but also well-constrained elastic properties and an adequate seismic modelling technique.  
23 Here, we present a seismic modelling study of oil-producing andesitic sills in the Neuquén Basin,  
24 Argentina, which implements all modelling elements at high accuracy by combining virtual outcrop  
25 models, well data, and a 2(3)D filtering method. Our results indicate that the modelled seismic signatures  
26 of intrusive bodies observed in field analogues are characterized by frequency-dependent interference and  
27 strong amplitude variations due to highly variable elastic properties of both host rock and sills. We  
28 demonstrate that detailed waveform patterns observed in real seismic data can be linked to intrusive  
29 bodies below the traditionally assumed limit of resolution via realistic seismic modelling. This illustrates  
30 how an integrated modelling approach based on field analogues can aid seismic interpretation.

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32 In recent years, research has provided evidence for the presence of large volumes of igneous intrusions in  
33 numerous sedimentary basins around the world. Intrusive complexes comprising volcanic sills and  
34 laccoliths can have a strong impact on basin dynamics and the related petroleum systems, as well as on  
35 hydrocarbon exploration and production (Cartwright and Hansen 2006; Infante-Paez and Marfurt 2017;  
36 Planke et al. 2005; Senger et al. 2017). These effects may include local source rock maturation (e.g.,  
37 Rodriguez Monreal et al. 2009), trap formation through host-rock and overburden deformation (Hansen  
38 and Cartwright 2006; Schmiedel et al. 2017), creation of barriers or pathways for fluid flow (Rateau et al.  
39 2013), or, if the intrusions are fractured, intrusions may themselves form atypical hydrocarbon reservoirs  
40 (e.g., Witte et al. 2012).

41 3D seismic reflection data are often the primary basis for the mapping and characterization of large-scale  
42 intrusive complexes (e.g., Jackson et al. 2013; Magee et al. 2013; Planke et al. 2005; Schmiedel et al. 2017;  
43 Schofield et al. 2015). A key reason for the advances in seismic mapping of intrusions is that they are  
44 commonly represented by prominent high amplitude reflections, which are easy to map in seismic data  
45 (Planke et al. 2005; Planke et al. 2015). However, a variety of problems is related to the seismic imaging

46 of igneous intrusions. With respect to a typical seismic wavelength, sills often represent thin geological  
47 layers of high seismic velocity (Planke et al. 2015). Importantly, recent studies indicate that many sills are  
48 too thin to be recognised in seismic images and locally up to 88% of sills could be missing when  
49 interpreting seismic data in volcanic basins (Magee et al., 2015, Schofield et al., 2015). Additionally,  
50 intrusives are usually considered to create high risk for hydrocarbon exploration, including overmaturation  
51 of source rocks, poor reservoir quality, negative effects on imaging, and challenging drilling conditions  
52 (Farooqui et al. 2009; Rohrman 2007; Senger et al. 2017). Therefore, they are still rarely drilled compared  
53 to sedimentary rocks, although progress has been made in several basins in the availability of well data  
54 (e.g., Bischoff et al. 2017). Nevertheless, the validation of observations from seismic data remains  
55 difficult in many cases.

56 Seismic modelling of field analogues is therefore important for the seismic interpretation of intrusive  
57 complexes, because it creates a vital link between geological field observations at the outcrop scale and  
58 their expression in seismic data (Lecomte et al. 2016). Few such seismic modelling studies of intrusions in  
59 sedimentary basins are available, and in many cases sketched, simplified intrusion shapes are used, and  
60 additionally, elastic properties of sedimentary units and intrusions are poorly constrained (Magee et al.  
61 2015; Planke et al. 2015). Commonly, 1D convolutional seismic modelling is used to synthesize seismic  
62 sections due to its simplicity and low computational cost (Magee et al. 2015; Rohrman 2007; Schofield et  
63 al. 2015). 1D convolution assumes a horizontally layered geological model devoid of lateral velocity  
64 variations, which proves to be inaccurate for geologically complex areas, often typical of regions where  
65 igneous bodies are found, as well as for geometrically complex intrusive bodies themselves (Eide et al.  
66 2017; Lecomte et al. 2016). To our knowledge, only one detailed seismic modelling case study exists that  
67 focuses on igneous intrusions and uses real intrusion shapes from outcrops to explore imaging effects  
68 beyond 1D convolution (Eide et al. 2017).

69 Although simple seismic modelling studies provide important insights into the expression of igneous  
70 intrusion in seismic images, interpreters need more locally calibrated and realistic seismic modelling

71 studies of field analogues. This can provide more in-depth analysis of the expected seismic expression of  
72 intrusions in each case study, especially regarding interference patterns caused by small geological  
73 features and potential amplitude variations. Such realistic seismic modelling requires (1) high-resolution  
74 geological interpretations to provide structural input for the model geometry, (2) strong constraints on the  
75 distribution of elastic properties of both intrusions and their host rocks, and (3) use of an adequate  
76 modelling technique that correctly implements the 2(3)D resolution and illumination conditions in the  
77 subsurface.

78 Here, we present a case study of hydrocarbon producing andesitic sills in the Río Grande Valley in the  
79 northern Neuquén Basin, Argentina, to illustrate an integrated approach to seismic modelling of field  
80 analogues of intrusive complexes. Our study is designed to satisfy all three criteria for realistic seismic  
81 modelling through a combination of (1) high-resolution, seismic-scale virtual outcrop models of a sill  
82 complex, (2) well data to obtain relevant elastic properties of both sills and their host rock, and (3) the  
83 usage of a 2(3)D prestack-depth migration (PSDM) simulator superior to 1D convolution in complex  
84 geological settings (Lecomte et al. 2015; Lecomte et al. 2016). The aim is to investigate the seismic  
85 response for a variety of model scenarios: (1) comparison of a simple, binary geological model to a  
86 realistic model including host rock variations and sill geometries far below the classical  $\frac{1}{4}$ -wavelength  
87 “seismic resolution limit”, but potentially within the “limit of detectability” of down to  $\frac{1}{30}$ -wavelength  
88 (Simm et al. 2014) and (2) examination of the influence of elastic property variations between the  
89 intrusions and the host rock within a well constrained range. The results are integrated with geological  
90 observations and 3D seismic data to allow direct comparison to real subsurface data in order to evaluate  
91 how realistic, locally calibrated seismic modelling based on field analogues may facilitate more confident,  
92 detailed seismic interpretation.

93

94 **Study area and geological setting**

95 The study area is located in the northern Neuquén Basin, approximately 70 km south of the town of  
96 Malargüe on the eastern flank of the Andes (Fig. 1). The Neuquén Basin is one of the foreland basins of  
97 the Andes and comprises a nearly continuous, up to 6000 m thick succession of late Triassic to Cenozoic  
98 sedimentary rocks (Howell et al. 2005). It hosts significant amounts of hydrocarbon and is regarded as one  
99 of the most important hydrocarbon province in Argentina (Sruoga and Rubinstein 2007).

100 The geodynamic evolution of the Neuquén Basin comprises three main phases. It initially formed as an  
101 elongated rift system in the Triassic-Jurassic period and subsequently evolved into a back-arc-basin phase  
102 with regional thermal subsidence after the onset of Andean subduction in the early Jurassic (Howell et al.  
103 2005). During this stage, and until the Early Cretaceous, an up to 1300-1500 m thick succession of marine  
104 sediments was deposited (Bettini and Vasquez 1979; Manceda and Figueroa 1995). This succession  
105 includes the organic-rich, calcareous shales of the Vaca Muerta and Agrio formations within the Mendoza  
106 group, which represent the main regional source rocks. In addition, the massive Chachao limestone, as  
107 well as the evaporites of the Huitrín formation, were deposited during this period. From the Early  
108 Cretaceous and onwards, the tectonic regime shifted to compression, initiating the third, foreland basin  
109 phase during which up to 3000 m of syn-tectonic continental deposits of the Neuquén and Malargüe  
110 Groups were deposited (Howell et al. 2005; Kozłowski et al. 1989). The compression, combined with a  
111 rotation of the regional tectonic stresses, triggered the rise of the Andes, and caused inversion of the  
112 Mesozoic rifts, as well as the formation of several N-S oriented fold-thrust belts (Howell et al. 2005;  
113 Manceda and Figueroa 1995). The study area is located in the Malargüe fold-and-thrust belt (Giambiagi et  
114 al. 2009).

115 The compressional tectonics were coeval with successive periods of extensive volcanism and widespread  
116 intrusion of magma into the sedimentary rocks (Kay et al. 2006). In many cases, these intrusions are  
117 intensely fractured and comprise a number of atypical hydrocarbon reservoirs in the basin (Rodríguez  
118 Monreal et al. 2009; Sruoga and Rubinstein 2007; Witte et al. 2012). Our study area is located in the Río

119 Grande Valley (Fig. 1), where oil is produced from andesitic sills in several fields (e.g., Los Cavaos, Los  
120 Volcanes), which intruded in the Vaca Muerta and Agrio formations (Witte et al. 2012). These sills are  
121 likely associated with the Upper Miocene Huincán Eruptive Cycle with reported radiometric ages (Ar/Ar)  
122 close to the study area between 10.5 Ma and 7 Ma (Nullo et al. 2002; Witte et al. 2012). Many of the sills  
123 are heavily fractured, but show generally low porosity except for a few strongly altered “cavity zones”  
124 (Witte et al. 2012). Approximately 10 km west of the Los Cavaos oil field, the Sierra Azul basement thrust  
125 brought to outcrop, among others, the Vaca Muerta and Agrio formations intruded by numerous andesitic  
126 sills (Fig.1). In this study, we focused on a 4km long continuous section, where both the sills and the host  
127 rock are accessible in a very high quality outcrop. This exceptional outcrop is a direct field analogue of the  
128 nearby Los Cavaos field.

129 **Data and methods**

130 The aim of our study is to perform geologically realistic seismic modelling of sill complexes. To achieve  
131 this, we implemented the workflow described in Figure 2. This workflow integrates (1) the geological  
132 interpretation of a seismic-scale virtual outcrop model, which yields high-resolution, geologically relevant  
133 structural input, (2) well data, such as P-wave, S-wave and density logs which are used to constrain the  
134 elastic properties of the geological units and permit the representation of sub-seismic scale property  
135 variations, and (3) seismic survey parameters such as signal frequency, survey geometry, and the velocity  
136 model in the overburden of the modelling target, which are required to include information about the local  
137 conditions for resolution and illumination (Lecomte et al. 2015). Finally, we use a 2(3)D convolution  
138 modelling algorithm that allows accurate, rapid, and low-cost modelling of PSDM seismic sections.

139 *Virtual Outcrop Model of the El Manzano Sill Complex*

140 Advanced seismic modelling requires high-quality structural input. Here, we used a high-resolution 3D  
141 virtual outcrop model of an exposed sill complex (Fig. 3a), which is considered a direct outcrop analogue  
142 to the oil-producing sills in the Los Cavaos oil field (Fig. 1). The 3D meshed surface model was obtained  
143 by Structure-from-Motion photogrammetry (e.g., Westoby et al. 2012) and computed from 254 partially  
144 overlapping photographs collected from a drone survey (built-in camera, 12 megapixels) along the  
145 roughly 4 km long and up to 250 m high outcrop face. The mesh contains more than 11 million triangles,  
146 corresponding to a spatial resolution of around 25 cm. Subsequently, the model texture built from the  
147 photographs was draped over the surface model to give a photorealistic representation of the outcrop. To  
148 ensure correct global orientation and positioning of the resulting models, differential Global Navigation  
149 Satellite System (GNSS) measurements of 39 ground control points were taken along the entire outcrop.  
150 The interpretation of the sill geometries within the intrusive complex was performed directly on the virtual  
151 model and includes a network of interconnected sills and sill fingers of <1 m to 30 m thickness, and other  
152 sub-metre scale geological details, such as intrusive steps, junctions, or host rock lenses (Fig. 3b). The  
153 small-scale interpretations were constrained by ground-truthing through direct observations collected

154 along the entire outcrop to ensure robust geological interpretation (Fig 3c). Due to limited control on the  
155 geological geometries in the third dimension, and in order to facilitate the model building and simulation  
156 process, the lines were projected onto a vertical plane aligned with the average outcrop orientation. This  
157 yields a seismic scale, sub-seismic resolution 2D model of the El Manzano sill complex (Fig. 3d).

158

### 159 *Rock properties from well analysis*

160 Meaningful seismic forward modelling requires the allocation of realistic seismic properties to the  
161 geological units represented in the model. In the case of the El Manzano sill complex, the geological units  
162 represented in the model obtained from virtual outcrop mapping comprise the sills and their sedimentary  
163 host rock. In order to compare a simplistic approach to a more realistic scenario, we set up two modelling  
164 scenarios, Model 1 and Model 2.

165 Model 1 consists of a simple binary lithological model (figure 3d), where the sills and the host rock are  
166 each given a distinct but homogeneous set of seismic properties including P-wave velocity, S-wave  
167 velocity, and density (Table 1). We interpreted the lithology in the well logs from three wells in the Los  
168 Cavaos oil field based on log signature, as well as cuttings and core descriptions from internal well-reports,  
169 and defined the average P-wave velocity and density of the host rock and intrusions. S-wave velocities for  
170 the sills were based on literature values for the  $V_p/V_s$ -ratio of igneous rocks and carbonates ( $V_p/V_s = 1.9$ )  
171 and similar shale intervals ( $V_p/V_s = 1.7-1.8$ ) in other parts of the Neuquén Basin, respectively (Fernandez-  
172 Concheso 2015; Klarner and Klarner 2012).

173 Model 2 consists of a layered host rock model derived from well log data from Los Cavaos (Fig. 4). We  
174 used sonic and density logs from a 500 m interval within the target formations between 2-2.5 km depth,  
175 including the organic rich shales of the Mendoza group, as well as local carbonate layers and the  
176 evaporites of the Huitrín Formation (Fig.1). To generate the host model, we removed the intrusions in this  
177 interval from the well data and replaced them with host rock values from the closest host rock interval to



178 isolate the host rock response, while maintaining the correct depth of the log measurements (Fig. 4a). The  
179 logs are then combined to create an acoustic impedance log used to create a 1D layer model by averaging  
180 the acoustic impedance in intervals of a user-defined thickness of 5 m (Fig. 4a). The 1D model was then  
181 extended laterally and deformed according to a deformation function that describes tectonic folding along  
182 the lateral extent of the outcrop, such that the sill geometries interpreted from the virtual outcrop model  
183 are concordant with the host rock layering (Fig. 4b), as observed in the field. This pseudo-2D approach is  
184 realistic, since in both the outcrop and in the subsurface, more significant tectonic features are absent at  
185 the scale of our model, and the sedimentary host rock sequence represents low-energy marine deposits,  
186 which show only small lateral variations. Similar to the binary scenario, the seismic properties of the sills  
187 are derived from statistical analysis of sonic and density logs from several wells, and defined as  
188 impedance endmembers at one standard deviation around the average. The variation in  $V_p$  values between  
189 4.7 km/s and 5.5 km/s is most likely the result of a variable degree of fracturing within the sills (Witte et al.  
190 2012). S-wave velocity values were derived from the same  $V_p/V_s$ -ratios as in the binary model. The  
191 property values for Model 2 are summarized in Table 1.

192

### 193 *Seismic modelling*

194 Seismic forward modelling predicts the seismic response of a geological model and can thereby help to  
195 understand real seismic data and validate their interpretation. When the geological model stems from a  
196 kilometre-scale outcrop (as is the case here), seismic modelling is particularly powerful, since the  
197 geometries correspond to real geological observations rather than sketched concepts or simplified shapes  
198 (Lecomte et al. 2016). For our study, we use a 2(3)D convolution method to simulate realistic PSDM  
199 seismic images, because this type of migration represents the ideal and expected migration approach as  
200 soon as the geology diverges from the simplistic horizontally layered model, i.e., superior to what post-  
201 stack and/or time migration methods can perform (Lecomte 2008; Lecomte et al. 2015). From a modelling  
202 perspective, this means that the results represent the best possible image of the modelled target structure

203 and thereby yield the limit of what seismic imaging may achieve in a real case. The seismograms obtained  
204 from this PSDM simulator do not offer as complete results as full-wavefield approaches, but the method  
205 has the major advantage of producing synthetic seismic sections very rapidly and at low resource cost  
206 (Lecomte 2008), allowing efficient testing of relevant parameters. In our case, an individual 2D simulation  
207 was usually computed in less than two minutes. Lecomte et al. (2016) also demonstrated the method's  
208 superiority to 1D convolution, because it accounts for 2(3)D illumination and resolution effects that are  
209 angle-dependent and may vary with parameters such as background velocity model, survey geometry or  
210 wavelet. 1D convolution neglects lateral smearing and predicts that steeply-dipping reflectors are also  
211 illuminated, which in reality is often incorrect. In addition, it is based on the elastic, rather than only  
212 acoustic, properties and includes diffraction energy, which is necessary to model complex structures (e.g.,  
213 Botter et al. 2014; Lecomte et al. 2016). The efficient calculation allows the implementation of geological  
214 details at a very high resolution (in our case tens of centimeters) even on a standard workstation, thus  
215 avoiding any upscaling approach, which might oversimplify the geological structures. The PSDM  
216 simulator makes use of the image response of a point scatterer (so-called Point Spread Function, PSF), the  
217 size and shape of which yield information on spatial resolution as well as the maximum illuminated dip in  
218 the considered case (Lecomte 2008; Lecomte et al. 2015). This method therefore provides explorationists  
219 with a reliable tool to rapidly assess their seismic interpretations using modelling studies.

220 We designed the seismic modelling workflow applied to the El Manzano case study to address three main  
221 issues: (1) influence of a realistic representation of the host rock impedance structure based on well data  
222 compared to a simple binary model, (2) difference in the response of seismic property endmembers of the  
223 sills in a given, realistic host rock, and (3) impact of seismic image resolution due to varying signal  
224 frequencies in order to assess 2D interference between thin intrusions and host rocks, i.e. beyond a 1D  
225 convolution view point. Note that although the PSDM method is available in 3D, we focus on 2D  
226 phenomena due to the 2D nature of our geological models. Frequency spectrum analysis of the 3D seismic  
227 survey from Los Cavaos revealed a center frequency of 20-30 Hz at the target depth, such that the

228 investigated frequencies were chosen to be 20 Hz, 30 Hz and 40 Hz in order to represent realistic values.  
229 The geology beneath the Los Cavaos field comprises minor inversion of normal faults and some shallow-  
230 dipping layers, but generally lacks complex structures (Witte et al. 2012). It should be noted that the  
231 presence of near-surface basalt layers does probably limit the illumination conditions at Los Cavaos,  
232 following Eide et al. (2017) who give a thorough discussion of this imaging problem. In our case, this  
233 limited-illumination effect is difficult to quantify due to the lack of an accurate velocity model. Therefore,  
234 we chose to only define the PSF analytically, i.e., without considering a specific overburden velocity  
235 model and a given survey (Lecomte et al. 2016). We select a maximum illuminated dip of 45 degrees,  
236 which corresponds to standard 3D seismic illumination and about half-wavelength lateral resolution  
237 (Simm et al. 2014), and consider an average velocity of 4 km/s in the targeted area. We only modelled  
238 zero incident-angle cases, for the sake of simplification and because we do not consider an actual survey  
239 geometry. However, it should be noted that larger incident angles would result in a poorer resolution, both  
240 vertically and laterally.

## 241 **Results**

### 242 *Model 1 vs. Model 2*

243 We observe significant differences between the modelled seismic response of the simple binary model  
244 (Model 1) and the model containing a realistic, layered host rock (Model 2) at the investigated seismic  
245 signal frequencies ranging from 20-40 Hz (Figs. 5 and 6). For each frequency, we will describe the  
246 seismic image of the binary model (Fig. 5a) first, and then point out the differences that arise from the  
247 introduction of host rock layering (Fig. 5b). Figure 6 shows close-up seismic images to highlight detailed  
248 observations of waveform patterns. For each seismic image, the corresponding point-spread function is  
249 displayed to illustrate the 2D resolution and illumination.

250 At 20 Hz center frequency, none of the individual sill segments is resolved in Model 1 (Fig. 5c). Instead,  
251 stacks of thin sills are merged into a single, continuous top reflection, and a slightly irregular bottom  
252 reflection with some discontinuities. Some of the thicker sills diverge and converge with respect to their

253 vertical spacing and cause the associated reflections to split into two, or merge into a single reflector,  
254 respectively. Locally, sill terminations cause an apparent offset of a reflection and create a fault-like  
255 appearance (Fig. 6a). In contrast, when the realistic host rock is included, it becomes much more difficult  
256 to interpret intrusions (Model 2; Fig. 5d). Particularly when the intrusions are mostly layer-parallel, the  
257 majority of intrusions only cause very subtle modifications of the existing host rock reflections and are  
258 effectively invisible. Where the sills have slightly undulating geometries and split into small fingers,  
259 interference between the sill and host rock reflections cause a wavy and braided waveform pattern (Fig.  
260 6b). As a consequence, the only sills identifiable are located in areas where they either cause a strong  
261 impedance contrast, exhibit laterally confined amplitude variations, are not layer-parallel, or a  
262 combination of these features (Fig. 5d, left side, Fig. 6b). Apparent (fault-like) offsets related to sill  
263 reflections are observed at some locations, but are less pronounced. Also, note that we find some of the  
264 strongest reflection amplitudes to be related to high impedance contrasts within the host rock, while some  
265 intrusions create relatively weak amplitudes (Figs. 5d, 6b).

266 The 30 Hz signal frequency does not resolve individual sills in Model 1, however, Figure 5e shows that  
267 closely stacked intrusions are now represented by several reflections in some places of the binary model.  
268 Depending on sill thickness and spacing, the top and bottom reflections of individual sills interfere, often  
269 destructively, and the sills still cause reflection offsets with an appearance similar to small-scale faults  
270 Figs. 5e, 6c). In Model 2, the reflection pattern of the host rock changes as a result of the increased  
271 frequency, and the distortion of the layered host rock response caused by intrusions is more pronounced  
272 compared to the 20 Hz image (Figs. 5f, 6d). Therefore, we observe not only a generally increased  
273 resolution, but also a change in the interference patterns between host rock layers and intrusions compared  
274 to the previous image at 20Hz. The stacked sills in the right side of the model remain difficult to see since  
275 they cause a layer-parallel, partly irregular, reflections that show medium, but slightly varying amplitude  
276 as a result of interference. The thicker, layer-discordant sills can now be identified in their lateral extent,  
277 although some sill terminations still cause fault-like reflection offsets (Figs, 5f, 6d). A sill underlying the

278 high-impedance layer caused by evaporites now causes a broadening of the host-rock reflection rather  
279 than a clear strong amplitude anomaly (Fig. 6d). In the center of the image, a sill splitting into several  
280 small fingers causes a complicated pattern of undulating, braided reflections of weak amplitude which  
281 strongly alters the host rock reflection pattern (Fig. 5f, 6d.)

282 In the 40 Hz image based on the binary model (Model 1; Figs. 5g, 6e), a larger number of the thinner sills  
283 are imaged, sill terminations and connectivity can be assessed in most cases, and the point-spread function  
284 indicates that the thickest sills are within the resolution limit. Using this seismic section (Fig. 5g), careful  
285 interpretation could probably recover most intrusions of the sill complex observed in the outcrop. In  
286 principle, the interference patterns observed in the previous images now apply to the intrusions of  
287 approximately less than 10 m thickness. At 40 Hz signal frequency, it is possible to discern that most of  
288 the visible apparent offsets between reflections are related to different intrusions rather than an actual  
289 offset, for instance due to a fault (Fig. 6e). The result of Model 2 at 40 Hz frequency reveals a greater  
290 degree of detail in many areas of the image, such as the representation of sills of medium thicknesses (10-  
291 15 m) with distinct top and bottom reflections, and more pronounced amplitude drops caused by sill  
292 terminations (Figs. 5h, 6f). In particular, intrusions that could be identified already at lower frequencies  
293 are now imaged in high detail. However, interference with host rock layers still causes interference  
294 patterns such as braided reflections that do not allow the interpretation of distinct sill geometries (Fig. 6f).  
295 Additionally, some layer-parallel intrusions in areas of relatively high host rock impedance remain  
296 essentially hidden in reflections caused by the sedimentary rocks (Fig. 5h, right side).

### 297 *Effect of elastic property variations in sills*

298 Based on statistical well data analysis from the Los Cavaos oil field, we now investigate the influence of  
299 seismic property variations of intrusions on the resulting seismic images from Model 2 (Fig. 7). The zero-  
300 angle reflection coefficient  $R_0$  ("reflectivity") is derived from the two endmembers for acoustic impedance  
301 of the sill intrusions embedded in the identical layered host rock and presented within a detailed section  
302 (Figs. 7a, b). The two endmembers differ by only  $0.7 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  in their P-wave velocity, corresponding to a

303 relative acoustic impedance change of 13%. However, the zero-angle (i.e., normal incidence) reflectivity  
304 in each model differs significantly due to the high variability in the host rock impedances, as illustrated by  
305 the three areas highlighted in Figs. 7a and b. In the high-impedance case, nearly all sills constitute positive  
306 top reflectors, i.e. increasing acoustic impedance, with a relatively high, but variable zero-angle reflection  
307 coefficient  $R_0$ . Reflectivity is significantly reduced wherever sills occur in high-impedance host rock  
308 layers (upper sills in area 3 in Fig. 7a). In contrast, the reflectivity pattern arising from the low-impedance  
309 sill reveals that the changes in impedance contrasts cause a significant drop in the reflection coefficient in  
310 some areas.  $R_0$  is generally reduced (e.g., area 1 in Figs. 7a,b), in some cases by up to two orders of  
311 magnitude, and even turns negative where high-impedance host rocks are present (upper sills in area 3 in  
312 Fig. 7b). Consequently, those intrusions (e.g., area 1 in Fig. 7b) become essentially transparent with  
313 respect to their reflection coefficient or produce a seismic reflection with negative amplitude from this  
314 surface. The transgressive sill limb (area 2 in Fig. 7b) acts as a positive reflector with relatively high  
315 impedance, with the exception of its upper part. Here, higher host rock impedance causes smaller contrasts  
316 and, accordingly, reflection coefficients drop in magnitude.

317 The seismic images demonstrate the consequence of the different reflectivity patterns arising from the  
318 different elastic impedances at a signal frequency of 20 Hz, 30 Hz and 40 Hz, respectively (Figs. 7c-g). At  
319 20 Hz, high-impedance intrusions (Fig. 7c) can be identified due to amplitude increase (areas 1, 2),  
320 transgressive reflections (area 2), and terminating reflections (area 3), although the low resolution does not  
321 reveal further details. At the same frequency, the only identifiable feature in the low-impedance  
322 endmember is caused by the transgressive sill limb (Fig. 7d, area 2), while strong amplitude variations and  
323 terminating reflections are not observed in the other parts of the image.

324 The increase in resolution seen in the 30 Hz images reveals more details in the corresponding seismic  
325 images (Figs. 7e, f). However, when the sills cause stronger impedance contrasts, the improvements  
326 appear to be more pronounced, since some thinner sills can be detected as interference features, and the  
327 shape of the transgressive sill and the sill terminations are more accurately imaged (Fig. 7e). In the low-

328 impedance case, the higher resolution reveals the transgressive sill, but does not resolve further intrusions  
329 (Fig. 7f). As a result of interference of reflections from the host rock with relatively weak reflections from  
330 intrusions, the sill-related reflections are of low to medium amplitude and include reflection broadening  
331 (area 1, Fig. 7f) as well as discontinuous reflections in areas with complex intrusion shapes (area 3, Fig.  
332 7f).

333 At 40 Hz, the increased resolution contributes to a higher degree of detectable detail of the sills – if they  
334 have high acoustic impedance relative to the host rock (Fig. 7g). The low-impedance endmember gains  
335 detail, but the small contrasts, as well as the blending of peaks and troughs caused by the intrusions in  
336 some cases (area 3) create a complicated pattern that is difficult to relate to the real intrusion geometries  
337 (Fig. 7h).

338 **Interpretation of the case study**

339 In the interpretation of the case study from the El Manzano outcrop, we focus on three issues: (1) the  
340 influence of the host rock implementation (binary vs realistic) on the predicted seismic expression of the  
341 sill complex, (2) the effect of reduced seismic impedance of fractured intrusions within the realistic host  
342 rock, and (3) a comparison between a 2D seismic section and 3D seismic data of the Los Cavaos oil field.

343 *Influence of including host rock layering and seismic properties on the modelled seismic response*

344 The differences between the synthetic seismic sections from El Manzano obtained from the models with  
345 binary properties (Model 1) versus a variable realistic property distribution (Model 2) demonstrate the  
346 strong effect of metre-scale property variations on the seismic response for the case of a variable host rock.  
347 The images from the binary model (Figs.5c, e, g) show some interference, but suggest that, overall, the  
348 main elements of the sill complex would be identifiable in a seismic section. On the contrary, the more  
349 realistic images that consider a layered host rock reveal that only thick sills that are layer-discordant and  
350 cause a strong impedance contrast to the surrounding host rock can be mapped with high confidence  
351 (Figs.5d, f, h). Apart from the highest resolution image at 40 Hz, the other sills are challenging to detect  
352 and are merged in frequency-dependent interference of reflections from host rock layers and intrusions.  
353 However, the detailed observations in Fig. 6 indicate that features at the scale within the  $1/30$ -wavelength  
354 limit of detectability may cause characteristic interference patterns, especially when closely stacked. By  
355 comparison to the areas in the model that lack intrusions, we are able to detect intruded intervals that show  
356 a strong disturbance of the otherwise parallel layer reflections. Where characteristic interference patterns,  
357 such as amplitude anomalies, braided or abnormally wavy reflections, or isolated reflection offsets with a  
358 fault-like appearance are present, we interpret this as an indicator for the presence of thin, potentially  
359 branching intrusions within an otherwise parallel layered host rock. Note that the exact position and  
360 thickness of such intrusions will still be difficult to determine, and significant tectonic faults are absent in  
361 the models.

362



363 *Effect of reduced impedance of fractured intrusions*

364 The absolute values for the acoustic impedance of the sills are reduced by less than 13% between the two  
365 endmembers, but depending on the host rock properties, the impedance contrasts on the top of intrusions  
366 drop from strong positive values to values close to, or even below, zero in some parts of the section. As a  
367 result, these particular sills show a different response with commonly much weaker amplitudes which are  
368 nearly impossible to recover by seismic interpretation. Although there are still some low amplitude  
369 disturbances visible at 30 Hz and 40 Hz, we are less confident that intruded areas can be identified based  
370 on disturbance of sedimentary layers, especially in areas of relatively high-impedance host rock layers  
371 where the amplitude reduction is most significant (areas 1, 3 in Fig. 7b,d,f,g). In the areas where the host  
372 rock is characterized by lower acoustic impedance (area 2, Fig. 7), the layer-discordant sill can still be  
373 identified with high confidence. Overall, we expect that fewer low-impedance sills can be directly  
374 interpreted, and intruded intervals containing such intrusions can be identified.

375 *Comparison to seismic field data*

376 A comparison of the modelling results with a seismic line from a 3D seismic cube from the Los Cavaos oil  
377 field shows remarkable similarities of specific waveform patterns that can be attributed to intrusions (Fig.  
378 8a). A schematic interpretation, based on the seismic line and our evaluation the synthetic models, is  
379 shown in Fig. 8b. Following our observations from the synthetic seismic sections, we first use strong  
380 disturbance of the otherwise parallel sedimentary reflections to subdivide the target interval (Mendoza  
381 Group, coloured in the interpretation) into an intruded and non- or less intruded area, respectively. The  
382 interpreted non-intruded part of the section appears as a set of undisturbed, flat, parallel, continuous  
383 reflections on the right side of the seismic line in Fig. 8a. We suggest that this may be due to the lack of  
384 intrusions, since the expected waveform patterns are not observed. In the intruded part, we then focus on  
385 layer-discordant reflections to interpret intrusions directly, and interpret thin intrusions where splitting of  
386 reflections, braided reflections, lateral amplitude variations occur. Numerous reflections show small

387 offsets in the real seismic data, but whether this is related to intrusions, as suggested by seismic modelling,  
388 or small-scale tectonic inversion features of normal faults is not immediately apparent.

389 Three wells confirm the presence of numerous sill intrusions of 2-40 m thickness where intrusions are  
390 interpreted from seismic (Fig. 8), which are identified through a combination of geophysical log  
391 signatures, cutting analysis and core descriptions. Examples of well log signatures from Los Cavaos can  
392 be found in the literature (Rabbel 2017; Witte et al. 2012). However, it is also clear that only a fraction of  
393 the existing intrusions can be recovered in the interpretation, and that neither the exact location nor  
394 architecture of intrusions are particularly well defined. Nevertheless, equipped with the results of our  
395 modelling study based on the direct field analogue, it is possible to identify the intruded interval and infer  
396 the existence of numerous, potentially interconnected intrusions.

#### 397 *Variations of seismic property contrasts*

398 Similarly to the result obtained from Model 2, the strongest reflection amplitudes are associated with local  
399 evaporite and carbonate layers, and may therefore be misinterpreted as sills (Fig. 7, 8a). Each of the three  
400 wells confirm 2-6 closely stacked intrusions of 2-22 m individual thickness in the interval below the  
401 Chachao limestone, which are extremely difficult to identify in the seismic line. Small impedance  
402 contrasts between the host rock and the intrusions may be a possible explanation why these relatively  
403 thick packages are not visible. Since one of the intrusions in this interval represents a fractured reservoir, it  
404 is likely that the associated velocity reduction has an additional negative effect. In strong contrast to the  
405 imaging problems in the target interval, it is worth to notice the high amplitude, layer-discordant, laterally  
406 discontinuous reflection in the Neuquén Group at around 1.5 s two-way travel time (TWT) (Fig. 8a).  
407 Although we lack well logs from this interval, this feature has been confirmed as a saucer-shaped intrusion  
408 (J.B. Spacapan, pers. comm., 2017). The interlayered continental clastic sediments of the Neuquén group  
409 are likely to have significantly lower seismic impedance values and therefore the sill creates a strong  
410 contrast, leading to the seismic response that is similar to the characteristic response reported from sills  
411 emplaced in clastic sediments (e.g., Eide et al. 2017; Planke et al. 2005).

## 412 **Discussion**

413 The ability to interpret complex geological structures, such as igneous sill complexes, on seismic images  
414 relies to a large degree on the understanding of seismic wave propagation in the subsurface and geological  
415 concepts based on field analogues (e.g., Lecomte et al. 2016; Magee et al. 2015). Here we will discuss our  
416 results in the light of the usage of realistic seismic modelling based on field analogues and well data to aid  
417 seismic interpretation of igneous intrusions by bridging the scale gap between outcrop observations and  
418 seismic data. First, we will examine the range of applications and advantages of our approach to realistic  
419 seismic modelling of field analogues. Thereafter, we outline potential implications of our study from the  
420 Neuquén Basin for seismic studies of intrusive complexes, and discuss its relevance in comparison to case  
421 studies from other geological settings.

### 422 *Applicability and advantages of the modelling workflow*

423 The three-fold workflow to seismic modelling of field analogues described in this study represents a  
424 realistic approach, because it reduces simplifications in the model: (1) the structural input for geological  
425 features represent real geology derived from virtual outcrop models (Fig. 3), (2) direct implementation of  
426 well data creates real property variations down to the scale of well log sampling, and is somewhat similar  
427 to a well tie in seismic interpretation (Fig. 4), (3) the 2(3)D filtering technique accounts for spatial  
428 resolution and illumination effects, while being computationally efficient. This allows the extensive  
429 testing of different scenarios, such as the acoustic impedance endmember cases presented in Fig. 7, even  
430 at the high level of detail represented in the model. We have customized our workflow to the specific case  
431 of modelling a sill complex emplaced in a host rock with highly variable lithologies, including shale,  
432 carbonate and evaporite layers. However, as long as virtual outcrop models of a field analogue and  
433 suitable well data are available, our approach can be applied in a range of settings, including other types of  
434 intrusions, such as laccoliths. In fact, Bakke et al. (2008) applied a comparable approach to turbidite  
435 systems, but without the use of virtual outcrop models.

436 Seismic modelling based on field analogues is becoming an increasingly popular method to assess the  
437 validity of seismic interpretations of igneous intrusions (Eide et al. 2017; Lecomte et al. 2016; Magee et al.  
438 2015). It is advantageous to use real geometries of sill complexes in seismic modelling studies of a  
439 specific geological setting, because the intrusion architecture will reflect the details that can be expected in  
440 the subsurface. Importantly, Eide et al. (2017) demonstrate that intrusions down to 1/50 of the dominant  
441 wavelength may be imaged in seismic data. This implies that architectural details of intrusions on the  
442 metre-scale need to be taken into account in seismic modelling. In contrast, idealized shapes may be very  
443 useful to isolate and analyse certain imaging effects, for instance to raise awareness for the general  
444 importance of interfering reflections from igneous intrusions (Magee et al. 2015; Planke et al. 2015).  
445 However, the applicability of the results for specific interpretations on real seismic data remains limited.  
446 Interpreters should be aware that the expression of igneous intrusions in a geologically more realistic and  
447 potentially more complex setting may look very different.

448 The direct implementation of well data to allocate host rock properties has strong benefits, and also  
449 represents the main difference to other available seismic modelling studies of sill complexes. This  
450 approach ensures that the host rock response correctly scales with the chosen seismic signal frequency in  
451 each modelling case (Figs. 5-7). In previous studies, sedimentary layers are taken into account at the scale  
452 of several tens of metres (Eide et al. 2017; Magee et al. 2015). This creates an unrealistic representation of  
453 the seismic response of the host rock, and may lead to “white space” between layer reflections at higher  
454 frequencies (Magee et al. 2015). Note that in settings where the host rock impedance is very low relative  
455 to intrusions, these effects might play a minor role (e.g., Eide et al. 2017). However, this issue can be  
456 ruled out by generating a high-resolution host rock model directly from well data, ensuring that  
457 interference effects at different scales are not neglected.

459 The complex geometrical architecture of interconnected sills emplaced in host rocks of variable acoustic  
460 impedance leads to complex interference patterns in the seismic response. This makes the detection of  
461 single intrusions very difficult, but modelling results nonetheless indicate that intruded intervals can be  
462 detected (Figs. 5,6). Highly variable seismic properties in the sedimentary rocks, e.g. interlayered shale,  
463 carbonates and evaporites, lead to intra-sedimentary reflections of comparable amplitude to sill-related  
464 reflections, as well as sill reflections of relatively low amplitudes. As a consequence, the interference of  
465 these reflections plays a much larger role compared to intrusions in settings with less variable host rock  
466 properties (Eide et al. 2017; Magee et al. 2015). In settings that are comparable to the northern Neuquén  
467 Basin, interpreters need to be aware that amplitudes characteristics can be everything between very strong  
468 positive to essentially zero, especially when the intrusions' acoustic impedance is reduced because of  
469 fractures or other alterations (Fig. 7).

470 This makes interpretation of intrusions from seismic data extremely challenging, and in some cases  
471 impossible, because intrusions might be hidden in the background seismic response (Figs. 5,7). In the  
472 seismic interpretation, a significant part of the intrusions identified in wells is missing, including sills that  
473 are well within the detection limit (Fig. 8a). Detailed seismic modelling of suitable field analogues  
474 represents one way of helping interpreters to look for specific seismic signatures. At Los Cavaos, this  
475 approach enabled us to interpret a few single intrusions, and outline the main intruded interval (Fig. 8b).  
476 In the model, variations of seismic rock properties must be implemented at high resolution to allow the  
477 prediction of detailed waveform patterns arising from interference. The comparison between binary and  
478 realistic layered host rock (Fig 5,6) shows that oversimplification, especially of the host rock, will not give  
479 a sufficiently accurate image of expected imaging conditions.

480 Our case study, despite lithological complexity, does not include tectonic faults, subvertical dykes or  
481 features such as potentially high-impedance contact metamorphic aureoles or host rock deformation due to  
482 intrusion emplacement. The extent and expression of these features vary strongly (e.g., Eide et al. 2016;

483 Spacapan et al. 2017), but they are often observed around igneous sills. It is clear that such features, if  
484 they are observed in the study area, should be included in the model, since they will likely influence the  
485 details of the seismic image. Recently, Eide et al. (2017) demonstrated that high-impedance layers in the  
486 overburden have strong negative effects on signal frequency and lateral resolution. Therefore, the  
487 overburden should be taken into account to apply realistic imaging conditions. This may complicate  
488 seismic interpretation even more, but based on our results we suggest that the details must be evaluated  
489 through case studies before further conclusions are drawn.

#### 490 *Comparison to seismic expression of igneous intrusions worldwide*

491 The results of our case study stand in strong contrast to the findings of most previous seismic  
492 interpretation studies of igneous intrusions, where consistently high amplitudes are reported for sills (e.g.,  
493 Planke et al. 2005; Schofield et al. 2012; Schofield et al. 2015). These studies were conducted in settings  
494 where high-impedance mafic intrusions are emplaced in low-impedance siliciclastic host rocks, leading to  
495 strong impedance contrasts and high seismic amplitudes (Eide et al. 2017; Planke et al. 2005).

496 Interestingly, despite these seemingly favourable imaging conditions, well data show that significant  
497 amounts of intrusions are missing in the seismic interpretation (Omosanya et al. 2016; Schofield et al.  
498 2015). This is most likely a result of decreased resolution below thick sill intrusions, rather than small  
499 impedance contrasts between igneous and sedimentary rocks (Eide et al. 2017). In the study of Schofield  
500 et al. (2015), high host rock velocities of more than 4.5 km/s may contribute to lower seismic amplitudes  
501 of sill-related reflections, since the seismic property contrasts between host-rock and intrusions are  
502 reduced.

503 However, also the more general seismic modelling studies of seismic signature of sill intrusions have  
504 implicitly focused on settings where clastic sediments host very-high impedance intrusions (e.g., North  
505 Atlantic), and promoted high seismic amplitudes as one of the main characteristics of igneous intrusions in  
506 seismic data (Magee et al. 2015; Planke et al. 2015). Based on our results, we find it important to point out  
507 that the seismic expression of igneous intrusions needs to be explicitly viewed in their respective

508 geological setting. General statements based on a specific setting should be avoided, because it might  
509 represent a pitfall for interpreters. We are able to show that very different seismic expressions can co-exist  
510 in a single seismic data set. The seismic line from Los Cavaos (Fig. 8a) shows the faint expression of the  
511 sill complex emplaced in the complex lithology of the Mendoza group, as well as a high-amplitude  
512 reflection of a transgressive andesitic sill within the low-impedance clastic rocks of the Neuquén group.  
513 There is a significant risk that a seismic interpreter who is unaware of the potential for low-amplitude sill  
514 reflections will only identify the most prominent sill.

515 In addition to the Neuquén Basin, there are other examples of sedimentary basins that host both high-  
516 impedance host rocks and host intrusive complexes, including the Santos Basin, Brazil (Klarner et al.  
517 2006; Klarner and Klarner 2012), several New Zealand basins (Bischoff et al. 2017), and the Permian  
518 section of the Barents Sea (Polteau et al. 2016). Fracturing and alterations of igneous rocks have been  
519 reported from very different geological settings (e.g., Bischoff et al. 2017; Rateau et al. 2013; Witte et al.  
520 2012). As a consequence, seismic properties and impedance contrasts may vary significantly, regardless of  
521 the chemical composition of the intrusion (Magee et al. 2015). In those settings, this may lead to  
522 challenges with the detection of igneous bodies, or distinction from other lithologies with similar seismic  
523 properties.

524 **Conclusions**

525 Our seismic modelling case study of a field analogue of an oil-producing igneous sill complex in the  
526 Neuquén Basin, Argentina, demonstrates how virtual outcrop models and well data can be integrated to  
527 build high-resolution, well-constrained geological models and conduct realistic seismic modelling of  
528 igneous sill complexes. We compare the modelling results to seismic field data from the Neuquén Basin in  
529 order to evaluate the benefit of this approach to seismic modelling, especially in geological settings with  
530 highly variable lithology. Additionally, we assess the level of geological detail that may be revealed from  
531 interpretation aided by a properly calibrated seismic modelling study. From the results presented, we draw  
532 the following conclusions:

- 533 (1) Realistic seismic modelling based on field analogues can be accomplished by a combination of (1)  
534 high-resolution, seismic-scale virtual outcrop models, (2) borehole data to allocate well  
535 constrained seismic properties including metre-scale property variations, and (3) a suitable  
536 modelling technique that accounts for both complex, high-resolution geological models and 2(3)D  
537 resolution and illumination effects.
- 538 (2) Including sub-seismic scale geometries allows the investigation of complex interference patterns  
539 and their link to the interplay of intrusion geometry and host rock layering that cause them. Such  
540 waveform patterns include splitting and transgressive reflections, braided reflections and  
541 reflection offsets that could be mistaken for small-scale faults.
- 542 (3) Comparison to real seismic data shows that the waveforms described in (2) may be used as  
543 indicators for the presence of multiple, potentially stacked and interconnected sills, or intruded  
544 intervals that may otherwise not be identified. The individual sills causing such patterns may be  
545 less than 10 metres thick in some cases.
- 546 (4) Direct implementation of well data to represent sedimentary layers at the metre-scale is  
547 particularly important in cases of highly variable host rock lithology with strong seismic property  
548 contrasts (e.g., interlayered limestone, calcareous shale, evaporites). This ensures that the host



549 rock response and associated interference of reflections scales correctly with the seismic signal  
550 frequency chosen in each simulation.

551 (5) Layer-parallel intrusions with similar seismic properties as the surrounding host rock will most  
552 likely not be imaged and therefore missing in the interpretation.

553 (6) In the presence of high-impedance sedimentary rocks, e.g. carbonates or evaporates, small  
554 absolute variations in  $v_p$ ,  $v_s$ , or density of intrusions can cause substantial changes in reflectivity  
555 of more than one order of magnitude. Consequently, the response of the affected igneous features  
556 may change from a high-amplitude reflector to essentially transparent or even show phase reversal.

557 (7) The partially low amplitudes of intrusions in the presented case study stand in strong contrast to  
558 previous work, where very high amplitudes are described as one of the main characteristics of  
559 igneous sills in seismic images. We conclude that statements on the seismic amplitudes of sills  
560 need to be made under explicit consideration of the factors that may influence the seismic  
561 property contrasts (e.g., host rock lithology and type, fracturing or alteration of intrusions).

562 (8) Endmembers of seismic expressions of sills (prominent high-amplitude reflections vs low-  
563 amplitude interference patterns) may co-exist in the same dataset. Locally calibrated seismic  
564 modelling can reduce the risk of focusing only on high-amplitude reflections.

565

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691

692 **Figure captions**

693 **Fig. 1.** Geological setting of the study area located in the northern Neuquén Basin, Argentina. **(a)** Satellite  
694 image of the Rio Grande Valley with the Los Cavaos oil field, where 3D seismic data and log data from  
695 wells (bright spots) are available. Just 10 km to the west, at the El Manzano field site, the corresponding  
696 igneous reservoir rocks are well-exposed due to a basement-cored east-verging thrust. Outcropping  
697 intrusions are highlighted in red colour. **(b)** Geological section through the study area, indicating main  
698 structures and the spatial relation between exposed and subsurface strata.

699  
700 **Fig. 2.** Flowchart implemented in this study, including the elements of the proposed workflow for realistic  
701 modelling based on field analogues. A virtual outcrop model yields high-resolution, seismic-scale model  
702 geometries, well data provide realistic elastic properties, and the seismic survey parameters lead to the  
703 pre-stack depth migration (PSDM) filter used for rapid, low-cost modelling that takes the given  
704 illumination and resolution into account. Combining the three elements provides the opportunity to  
705 perform realistic modelling, which may aid seismic interpretation through parameter sensitivity studies of  
706 the expected seismic signature.

707  
708 **Fig. 3.** Overview of geological inputs from field analogue in the study area. **(a)** High-resolution, seismic-  
709 scale virtual outcrop model of the exposed sills at the El Manzano outcrop. **(b)** Close-up view of contacts  
710 between host rock and intrusions (white lines) along the outcrop are interpreted at a resolution of less than  
711 1m. **(c)** Field observations supporting the interpretation of small-scale geological features in the virtual  
712 model. **(d)** Resulting high-resolution structural interpretation of the sill geometry from the virtual outcrop  
713 model.

714



715 **Fig. 4.** Illustration of the model building from combined well data and geometries from the virtual outcrop  
716 model. **(a)** Well logs of density and sonic velocity in the target interval are used to derive an acoustic  
717 impedance log (left). The sill intervals (red) are removed and replaced with average host rock values close  
718 to the interval (centre). The resulting acoustic impedance log is subsequently used to define a 1D layered  
719 model by averaging over intervals of user-defined length (in our case, 5m) (right). **(b)** The 1D model is  
720 laterally extended and folded according to the local dip at the field site, and the sill geometries are added  
721 to complete the geological model. In our model, P-wave velocity and density of the sills are derived from  
722 statistical analysis of well log data (Rabbel, 2017).

723  
724 **Fig. 5.** Comparison of the synthetic seismic sections based on Model 1 (homogeneous host rock) and  
725 Model 2 (layered host rock) of the outcropping sill complex at El Manzano. **(a)** Binary model including  
726 sills in a homogenous host-rock. **(b)** Geologically realistic model comprising the sills embedded in a  
727 layered and deformed host rock based on well data. Boxes indicate areas that are displayed in more detail  
728 in Figs. 6 and 7. **(c-f)** Resulting seismic sections for the two models at 20 Hz, 30 Hz, and 40 Hz center  
729 frequency, respectively. Note that 2D resolution is indicated by the size of the point-spread function (PSF)  
730 shown in each seismic section.

731  
732 **Fig. 6.** Detailed view for comparison of the synthetic seismic sections at 20, 30 and 40Hz main frequency  
733 based on Model 1(left column; a,c,d) and Model 2 (right column; b,d,e), with respect to the real sill  
734 contacts (grey lines). The outline of this detail is indicated in Fig. 5b. Note the variety of sill-related,  
735 frequency dependent interference patterns in the areas indicated by numbers 1-3 in images a) and b) (see  
736 text for detailed descriptions).

737

738 **Fig. 7.** Effect of sill property variations on the seismic modelling results. (a,b) Close-up view (indicated in  
739 Fig. 5) showing the zero-angle reflection coefficient  $R_0$  for the high- and low elastic impedance end  
740 members, respectively, defined from well data. The numbers indicate areas that show distinct differences  
741 (areas 1, 3) and similarities (area 2) between the models. (c-g) Resulting detailed seismic sections for both  
742 end members at 20 Hz, 30 Hz and 40 Hz, respectively.

743  
744 **Fig. 8.** (a) Characteristic seismic section from 3D seismic block from the Los Cavaos oil field, Argentina,  
745 including three wells intersecting sills in the intruded target interval. Patterns similar to sill-related  
746 reflection patterns obtained from seismic modelling of the field analogue (Figs. 5-7) are highlighted. Note  
747 that the right side of the seismic line appears to be nearly undistorted, while the left side is proven to be  
748 heavily intruded and exhibits a rougher appearance with distinct interference patterns. (b) Schematic  
749 interpretation of the seismic line incorporating seismic modelling results.

750

751

752 **Table 1.** *P-wave and density values from statistical well log analysis, as well as derived S-wave velocity*  
 753 *values for all lithologies present in the geological models.*

Lithology	Model 1			Model 2		
	$v_p$ (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	$v_s$ (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	Density (kg m <sup>-3</sup> )	$v_p$ (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	$v_s$ (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	Density (kg m <sup>-3</sup> )
Host	4200	2470	2600	3350-5950	1970-3380	2480-2950
Sill	5500	2890	2800	4700, 5500	2470, 2890	2800

754

