

1 **Impacts of igneous intrusions on source and reservoir potential in prospective**  
2 **sedimentary basins along the western Australian continental margin**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 Many prospective basins in rifted continental margins, including those located  
12 along the western Australian continental margin, contain extrusive and intrusive rocks  
13 generated during rifting and particularly during continental breakup. Intrusive igneous  
14 systems in rifted margin basins are typically characterized by networks of  
15 interconnected, laterally and vertically extensive sheet complexes (e.g. sills and  
16 dykes) that transgress basin stratigraphy. The presence of igneous rocks thus  
17 represents an important geological risk in hydrocarbon exploration. Constraining the  
18 distribution, timing and intrusive mechanisms of the igneous rocks is essential to  
19 reducing exploration risk. This paper focuses on two key sources of risk associated  
20 with the intrusion of igneous rocks into prospective sedimentary basins: (1)  
21 interconnected, low-permeability sheet intrusions (e.g. sills and dykes) that can  
22 compartmentalise significant volumes of source and reservoir rock, thereby reducing  
23 migration efficiencies; and (2) igneous-related hydrothermal circulation systems that  
24 can be highly mineralising and thus detrimental to reservoir quality. It is also  
25 important to highlight that igneous rocks may also be beneficial to petroleum systems.  
26 For example, the thermal effects of igneous intrusions may in some cases be sufficient

27 to place immature source rocks within the oil window. The impacts of igneous  
28 intrusion on the prospectivity of rift basins along the western Australian continental  
29 margin are examined, with particular focus on frontier exploration areas such as the  
30 Exmouth Plateau and Browse Basin.

31

32 **Key words:** Intrusion, compartmentalization, fluid flow, seismic, thermochronology

33

### 34 **Introduction**

35 Igneous rocks are commonly generated when continents rift to form new  
36 ocean basins and are the result of decompression melting of hot asthenospheric mantle  
37 that rises passively beneath zones of stretched and thinned lithosphere (White &  
38 McKenzie, 1989). Consequently, nearly all extensional basins located along passive  
39 continental margins are associated with some degree of intrusive and extrusive  
40 activity during rifting, though the volume and distribution of magmatism generated  
41 during the rift-phase is generally minor in comparison to the voluminous, transient  
42 breakup-related magmatism that can occur if rifting culminates in rupture of the  
43 continental lithosphere (White & McKenzie, 1989; Planke et al., 2000). At so-called  
44 “magma-dominated” margins, such as the northeast Atlantic margin, transient,  
45 voluminous magmatism around the time of continental breakup can produce up to 6-7  
46 km of melt. Even margins regarded as “magma-poor” (e.g. the west Iberian margin)  
47 may be associated with up to 3 km of igneous addition during crustal breakup  
48 (Reston, 2008).

49 The increasing shift in focus of conventional hydrocarbon exploration towards  
50 rifted continental margins calls for a better understanding of igneous activity, which  
51 presents an important geological risk in many frontier continental margin sedimentary

52 basins. Hydrocarbon exploration has traditionally sought to avoid basins containing  
53 igneous rocks because of the difficulties they can pose for seismic reflection imaging  
54 and their perceived detrimental short-term and long-term impacts on petroleum  
55 systems (Rohrman, 2007). Recent years have witnessed increasing exploration  
56 activity and successes in basins containing igneous rocks intruded during rifting  
57 and/or continental breakup, such as along the northeast Atlantic margin off Ireland,  
58 the United Kingdom and Norway. This is also the case for several basins along the  
59 western Australian continental margin (Fig. 1), including the Carnarvon and Browse  
60 Basins, which contain a variety of igneous features located in close proximity to  
61 multi-TCF gas fields such as Scarborough and Icthis (Symonds et al., 1998).  
62 Prospective but relatively unexplored deep-water segments of the western Australian  
63 continental margin such as the Exmouth and Scott Plateaus are characterized by  
64 extensive breakup-related magmatism (Symonds et al., 1998; Planke et al., 2000) and  
65 igneous rocks generated during rifting are also present in less prolific petroleum  
66 provinces such as the northwest Canning Basin (Reeckmann & Mebberson, 1984) and  
67 offshore the northern Perth Basin (Gorter & Deighton, 2002). An improved  
68 understanding of the impacts of igneous activity on petroleum systems (both  
69 beneficial and detrimental) is likely to become increasingly important in reducing  
70 exploration risk and unlocking the potential of these frontier areas.

71        Networks of interconnected, laterally and vertically extensive igneous  
72 intrusions such as sills and dykes are a characteristic component of igneous systems in  
73 many rifted margin basins (Planke et al., 2005; Thomson & Schofield, 2008; Holford  
74 et al., 2012; Jackson, 2012; Rateau et al., 2013), including those located along the  
75 western Australian continental margin (Symonds et al., 1998; Magee et al., 2013; Fig.  
76 2). As a result of relatively recent advances in seismic imaging and interpretation the

77 wide range of impacts that sills and dykes pose to the elements of the petroleum  
78 system are becoming better realised. In this paper, we focus on two important but  
79 commonly underappreciated effects of igneous intrusions on reservoir and source  
80 sequences. The first is the compartmentalisation of source and reservoir units by  
81 interconnected, low-permeability sheet intrusions that transect basin stratigraphy. The  
82 second is the generation of hydrothermal circulation systems by the intrusion of  
83 igneous rocks into porous, water-saturated sedimentary rocks.

84

### 85 **Compartmentalisation of basin stratigraphy by igneous intrusions**

86 Recent investigations of subsurface intrusive complexes using 2D and 3D  
87 seismic datasets, mostly from rift basins along the northeast Atlantic margin (e.g. Bell  
88 & Butcher, 2002; Smallwood & Maresh, 2002; Thomson & Hutton, 2004; Planke et  
89 al., 2005; Cartwright & Hansen, 2006; Thomson & Schofield, 2008), have provided  
90 important new insights into the nature and mechanisms of magma storage and  
91 transport in sedimentary basins. Such studies have identified the true, three-  
92 dimensional geometries of subsurface igneous intrusions, repeatedly identifying  
93 concave-upwards, 'saucer-shaped' sills with radially or bilaterally symmetrical forms  
94 that possess flat or gently concave inner saucers connected to flat outer rims by  
95 steeply inclined, transgressive sheets. Detailed seismic interpretations of these sills  
96 using both horizon mapping and opacity volume rendering methods have shown that  
97 it is possible to resolve small-scale, lobate features on the surfaces of intrusions that  
98 essentially provide kinematic indicators for the directions in which sills have  
99 propagated (Cartwright & Huuse, 2005). Features such as lobate branching patterns  
100 (Thomson & Hutton, 2004) imply that magma is transported in sills through a  
101 network of magma tubes that consistently indicate upwards and outwards flow

102 directions (Thomson & Schofield, 2008). Such findings have been supported by field  
103 studies of saucer-shaped intrusions (Schofield et al. 2010). Furthermore, detailed  
104 studies of major sill complexes located offshore Norway have shown that saucer-  
105 shaped and inclined sheet-like sills are often interconnected by junctions that occur  
106 systematically in the lowest parts of the overlying sills (Cartwright & Hansen, 2006).  
107 These observations confirm that shallower sills in intrusive complexes are fed by  
108 deeper sills, and that sill complexes can act as through-going magmatic plumbing  
109 systems capable of transporting melts over vertical and lateral distances of >10 km  
110 from mid-lower crustal levels to near-surface depths (Cartwright & Hansen, 2006).  
111 Such sill complexes are capable of transecting multiple layers of basin stratigraphy.  
112 This dynamic view of magmatic plumbing systems differs somewhat from the  
113 traditional views that magmatic systems are typically vertically stacked, and  
114 essentially comprise a large magma chamber overlain by a series of vertical dykes,  
115 feeding an overlying volcano (e.g. Gudmundsson, 1990).

116         The recognition of complex, interconnected networks of sills and dykes that  
117 cover large lateral and vertical distances in petroliferous sedimentary basins has  
118 several important ramifications for assessing prospectivity. The propensity for such  
119 intrusions to exploit and intrude along particular stratigraphic horizons (e.g. ductile  
120 and/or overpressured shales; Thomson, 2007) or pre-existing structural discontinuities  
121 (e.g. faults; Magee et al., 2013) can result in the compartmentalization of significant  
122 volumes of source or reservoir rock if the bounding igneous intrusions do not possess  
123 appreciable secondary permeability. Such secondary permeability can, for example,  
124 be imparted by cooling joints or tectonic fracturing (Rateau et al., 2013). Some  
125 examples of compartmentalisation of basin stratigraphy in seismic data from the  
126 North West Shelf and at outcrop scale in east Greenland are shown in Figures 2 and 3,

127 respectively. The creation of isolated compartments of sediments sealed by low-  
128 permeability igneous intrusions would clearly impact migration pathways and the  
129 efficiency of hydrocarbon migration both out of source rock intervals and into  
130 potential reservoir horizons, whilst the permeability of sedimentary rocks adjacent to  
131 intrusions is likely to be degraded as a result of contact metamorphism. The concept  
132 of reservoir and source compartmentalization by igneous intrusions is illustrated in a  
133 series of hypothetical play scenarios shown in Figure 4. In addition, if subsurface  
134 intrusion is accompanied by the rapid burial of sediments by coeval lava eruptions  
135 this may result in significant undercompaction due to the intrusive network acting as a  
136 rigid framework. Depending on the sealing capacity of the intrusions, differential  
137 lateral pressures may develop within reservoir bodies bound by intrusive sheets. Such  
138 ‘pressure cages’ may pose a significant hazard during drilling of sub-basaltic plays.

139         The extent to which igneous intrusions can create barriers to subsurface fluid  
140 migration is dictated by their bulk permeability. Whilst most igneous intrusions will  
141 have negligible primary porosity, fractures generated during thermal cooling shortly  
142 after emplacement or subsequently during brittle tectonic deformation can provide  
143 some secondary porosity and permeability, thereby providing pathways for fluid  
144 migration through otherwise impermeable barriers (Rateau et al., 2013). Indeed, the  
145 Los Cavos oil field in the northern Neuquén Basin, Argentina, is reservoired in  
146 naturally fractured andesitic sills (fracture porosity = 1 to 8%) emplaced in Upper  
147 Jurassic shale source rocks (Witte et al., 2012). Though vesicles are present in these  
148 sills, they are poorly connected and do not contribute to the high reservoir  
149 connectivity and permeability which is provided by cavity zones and weakly  
150 cemented large fractures that formed during cooling-related contraction and a number  
151 of subsequent deformation events (Witte et al., 2012).

152           The presence of host-rock ‘bridge structures’ may provide alternative  
153 pathways for fluid migration in otherwise laterally continuous, impermeable  
154 intrusions. Bridge structures are commonly recognized in field exposures of sills, and  
155 have recently been documented for the first time in the subsurface using high quality  
156 3D seismic data from the Faroe-Shetland Basin (Schofield et al., 2012). These  
157 structures form when separate magma lobes begin to propagate as a series of offset  
158 but overlapping en echelon bodies. Depending on the degree of diagenetic alteration,  
159 the bridges of host rock between the developing magma lobes may enable the  
160 migration of fluids through zones of compartmentalized stratigraphy, in an analogous  
161 manner to relay ramps that provide migration pathways through faults that would  
162 otherwise act as seals (e.g. Figure 5 in Schofield et al., 2012).

163

#### 164 **Hydrothermal circulation systems generated by igneous intrusions**

165           Much of the existing research on the thermal effects of intrusive activity in  
166 petroliferous basins has focused on the direct interactions between igneous intrusions  
167 and source rock facies in an attempt to predict their impact on maturation or  
168 overmaturation (Schutter, 2003). In general, the direct thermal (i.e. contact  
169 metamorphic) effects of intrusive bodies on source rocks appears to be minimal  
170 (Rohrman, 2007) and most estimates of the thermal aureole size range from 0.5 to 5  
171 times the thickness of the associated, individual intrusion (Duddy et al., 1994;  
172 Schutter, 2003; Fig. 4). The thermal effects of igneous intrusions appear to be most  
173 profound when the occurrence of intrusions is dense (Rohrman, 2007); i.e. when  
174 multiple, thick intrusive sills (i.e. >100 m thick) are emplaced into organic-rich  
175 sediments simultaneously (Aarnes et al., 2011), or when previous intrusive activity

176 has already raised the background geothermal gradient as may be the case in the  
177 Taranaki Basin of New Zealand (Schutter, 2003).

178       Importantly, attempts to replicate levels of maturation around intrusive rocks  
179 using conductive cooling models alone have commonly produced underestimates  
180 relative to observed data (Rohrman, 2007). This observation implies that heating by  
181 convective and/or advective processes may also have a significant affect on source  
182 rock maturation (Barker et al., 1998; Rohrman, 2007). Hydrothermal systems capable  
183 of transporting heat both vertically and laterally can result from the boiling and  
184 expulsion of pore-waters and the release of magmatic fluids following igneous  
185 intrusion into porous sedimentary rocks (Einsele, 1988). Such systems can be  
186 distinguished from conductive heating effects using palaeotemperature information  
187 provided by techniques such as apatite fission track analysis (AFTA) or vitrinite  
188 reflectance (VR). Conductive heating of sedimentary rocks around an intrusion is  
189 typically manifested in VR data by significant fluctuations in maturity or  
190 palaeotemperature over narrow depth intervals around the intrusion (Fig. 5), with  
191 widths of the thermal aureole typically 0.5 to 5 times that of the intrusion (e.g. Duddy  
192 et al., 1994; Holford et al., 2010). In contrast, hydrothermal circulation systems  
193 associated with intrusions can result in observable thermal signatures at distances of  
194 up to 10's of km from the intrusion as a result of the lateral flow of heated fluids  
195 through an aquifer (Duddy et al., 1994). Such systems are characterized by bell-  
196 shaped or dogleg geothermal gradients or palaeotemperature profiles, with different  
197 forms depending on the duration of fluid flow (Duddy et al., 1994, 1998; Fig. 5).

198       Recognition of hydrothermal circulation systems triggered by igneous  
199 intrusions is important when assessing prospectivity because hydrothermal fluids can  
200 be highly mineralizing and thus degrade the quality of potential reservoirs through the



201 temperature-controlled cementation of minerals such as quartz. Parnell (2010)  
202 presents fluid inclusion data from several magmatically influenced basins along the  
203 northeast Atlantic margin, including the Faroe-Shetland Basin. These data contain  
204 evidence for high temperature ( $>200^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and short lived ( $<0.1$  to 1 Myr) hot fluid  
205 pulses, which are attributed to hydrothermal activity triggered by sill intrusions, that  
206 have precipitated quartz cements within potential reservoir sandstones.

207

#### 208 *Case Study: The Canning Basin*

209         A classic example of a hydrothermal circulation system induced by igneous  
210 intrusion along the western Australian continental margin was documented by  
211 Reeckmann & Mebberson (1984) using data from the North West Canning Basin.  
212 Here, a number of large mafic sills were emplaced into Permian-Carboniferous  
213 sediments during the early Permian (Reeckmann & Mebberson, 1984; Duddy et al.,  
214 1994). These intrusions caused forced folding of the overlying strata (c.f. Hansen &  
215 Cartwright, 2006) resulting in closed domal structures. One such structure was tested  
216 by the Perindi 1 well, which intersected a 156 m thick doleritic intrusion (Reeckmann  
217 & Mebberson, 1984). VR values from Permian and Devonian sediments adjacent to  
218 the intrusion are consistently between 1 and 1.3% over a vertical distance  $\sim 550$  m  
219 above and  $\sim 300$  m below the dolerite, implying little palaeotemperature variation over  
220 a  $\sim 1$  km depth range (Duddy et al., 1994; Fig. 6). This pattern of high  
221 palaeotemperatures is attributed to the circulation of fluids in adjacent porous  
222 sandstones, as triggered by the igneous intrusion (Reeckmann & Mebberson, 1984).  
223 Evidence from AFTA and VR data suggests that the temperature of the hydrothermal  
224 fluids was likely  $>160^{\circ}\text{C}$ , around  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$  higher than the temperature throughout the  
225 sedimentary section prior to the intrusion (Duddy et al., 1994). These elevated

226 temperatures may have placed potential source rocks of the regionally immature  
227 Permian-age Poole Formation into the oil window for the duration of the heating  
228 event, potentially explaining a number of oil shows encountered within Poole  
229 Formation limestones and the uppermost sandstone within the Permian-age Grant  
230 Formation (Reeckmann & Mebberson, 1984).

231         The intrusion of extensive doleritic sills and laccoliths to shallow levels within  
232 porous sandstones of the Grant Formation resulted in distinct thermal effects that can  
233 be observed in wells located several kilometres away from the most proximal  
234 intrusions (Duddy et al., 1994). AFTA data from the Kambara 1 well indicate  
235 maximum palaeotemperatures of ~90-110°C during the Permian. Seismic data  
236 indicate that the nearest known Permian intrusions are located ~3 km to the northwest  
237 and southeast of this well. Interpretation of the AFTA data suggests that better aquifer  
238 zones within the Grant and Poole formations may have experienced slightly higher  
239 temperatures than less porous intervals. This observation, coupled with VR data from  
240 shales that show no pronounced increase in reflectance, seems to indicate relatively  
241 short-duration heating by fluids at some distance from the site of intrusive heating  
242 (Reeckmann & Mebberson, 1984; Duddy et al., 1994). It also implies that  
243 hydrothermal fluids are likely to exploit the same porous and permeable pathways  
244 used during the migration of hydrocarbons.

245

#### 246 **Implications for prospectivity of the western Australian continental margin**

247         Igneous rocks generated during the late Jurassic to early Cretaceous  
248 continental breakup between Australia and Greater India are widely distributed along  
249 the western Australian continental margin (Symonds et al., 1998) and present a key  
250 geological risk within highly prospective frontier regions such as the Exmouth Plateau

251 and the Browse Basin. Seismic data from the Exmouth Plateau indicate the presence  
252 of large numbers of igneous intrusions within the Triassic-Jurassic succession, which  
253 includes potential source rocks (e.g. the Lower Triassic Locker Shale and Upper  
254 Triassic Mungaroo Formation) and known fluvio-deltaic sandstone reservoirs within  
255 the Upper Triassic Mungaroo Formation. Since these intrusions are generally thin  
256 (interpreted to be several tens of metres thick based on seismic data), their influence  
257 on maturation is considered to be minor (Rohrman, 2012). However, intrusions may  
258 play an important role in influencing hydrocarbon migration pathways (Rohrman,  
259 2012), particular in regions where dense, interconnected networks of sills and dykes  
260 occur. An additional risk associated with igneous intrusion is the release of volatiles  
261 such as CO<sub>2</sub>, which can lead to flushing of hydrocarbon-filled reservoirs (Holford et  
262 al., 2012). High levels of CO<sub>2</sub> (38%) and N<sub>2</sub> (27%) were recovered in repeat  
263 formation tester results from the main pay zone in Zeepaard 1 (Barber, 1988). While  
264 this has been interpreted as indicating cracking of NSO compounds from overmature  
265 source rocks following heating by proximal intrusions (Barber, 1988), CO<sub>2</sub> can also  
266 be released during magma degassing. This process is thought to be responsible for the  
267 high CO<sub>2</sub> content in a number of uneconomic gas fields in the Otway Basin (Holford  
268 et al., 2012).

269 Many wells in the Browse Basin have penetrated subaerial volcanics within  
270 the Plover Formation (Symonds et al., 1998) and their distribution throughout the  
271 basin poses a significant exploration risk (Jason et al., 2004). Buffon 1 encountered a  
272 489 m thick sequence of layered basalts overlying 193 m of volcanoclastics (Symonds  
273 et al., 1998). Such layered volcanic sequences generate strong multiple reflections and  
274 lead to scattering of the seismic signal (Rohrman, 2007), making it difficult to image  
275 the sub-basaltic sequences. This constitutes one of the most significant exploration

276 risks in the Faroe-Shetland Basin (Archer et al., 2005) because it is difficult to predict  
277 the precise thickness of the extrusive sequences and to image sub-basaltic intrusions  
278 that may impede drilling and lead to compartmentalization of source and reservoir  
279 intervals (Rateau et al., 2013). Thicker than expected volcanics and the absence of  
280 reservoir were identified as a key factors in the failure of Maginnis 1/ST2, which was  
281 drilled in 2002-2003 in the deep-water Seringapatam sub-basin beneath the eastern  
282 Scott Plateau (Jason et al., 2004). In addition to the absence of reservoir, it has been  
283 postulated that the thick volcanic sequence within the target interval may have formed  
284 a barrier to lateral migration from mature source rock intervals in adjacent grabens  
285 (Jason et al., 2004).

286

## 287 **Conclusions**

288         The focus of this paper has been to demonstrate that the intrusion of igneous  
289 sills and dykes into prospective sedimentary basins can have potentially drastic  
290 impacts on petroleum systems. By understanding the magmatic history, and nature  
291 and distribution of intrusions within the basin, it is possible to assess the risks that  
292 intrusions may pose on the elements of the petroleum system; however, it is important  
293 to emphasise that the impacts of intrusions in basins with active petroleum systems  
294 are still not well understood. Key uncertainties include the factors that dictate whether  
295 igneous intrusions are likely to act as barriers or baffles to hydrocarbon migration,  
296 such as the depth of burial of the intrusions within the sedimentary section, the  
297 intensity of jointing and the thickness of the intrusive bodies (Rateau et al., 2013).  
298 Detailed studies are needed to improve knowledge of the sealing capability of  
299 intrusions within the subsurface, and in particular, to understand how migration  
300 pathways and efficiency are affected by intrusions. Despite these uncertainties, it is

301 tentatively suggested that the impact of igneous intrusions on petroleum systems in  
302 basins modified by magmatism, particularly breakup-related magmatism, is generally  
303 underestimated.

304

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466

467 **Figure captions**

468 **Figure 1:** Distribution of magmatism along the western Australian continental margin  
469 (modified after Symonds et al. (1998) and Rey et al. (2008)).

470

471 **Figure 2:** Seismic line 110/12, central Exmouth Plateau. Interconnected igneous  
472 intrusions are common within the Triassic section, which contains both source rocks  
473 (e.g. the Lower Triassic Locker Shale and Upper Triassic Mungaroo Formation) and  
474 fluvio-deltaic sandstone reservoirs (Mungaroo Formation). The Eendracht 1  
475 exploration well targeted a Triassic fault block leading to a gas discovery, whilst  
476 Investigator 1 recorded gas shows within the Mungaroo Formation (modified from  
477 Geoscience Australia, (2012)).

478

479 **Figure 3.** Seismic-scale outcrop showing a ‘box-work’ of sills and dykes intruding a  
480 faulted section of Jurassic-Triassic sediments on Traill Island, eastern Greenland. This  
481 outcrop provides an analogue for compartmentalization of a prospective reservoir in  
482 an extensional basin setting. Note the zones of visible contact metamorphism around  
483 the intrusions, likely resulting in a significant reduction in the volume of potential  
484 reservoir rock.

485

486 **Figure 4.** Series of conceptual play diagrams illustrating the potential impacts of  
487 igneous intrusions on compartmentalization of source and reservoir units in  
488 sedimentary basins (modified from Holford et al. (2012) and Rateau et al. (2013)).

489

490 **Figure 5. A.** Schematic diagram showing a typical vitrinite reflectance profile  
491 developed in lithified, low porosity sediments by conductive heating near an intrusive  
492 sill (modified from Duddy et al. (1994)). **B.** Schematic illustration of the development  
493 of a palaeotemperature profile around an aquifer or reservoir following initiation of  
494 intrusion-related hydrothermal fluid flow at 60°C. Illustrates the change from a linear

495 background thermal condition, through a bell-shaped transient profile, to a linear  
496 steady-state profile (modified from Duddy et al. (1998)).

497

498 **Figure 6. A.** Distribution of shallow sill intrusions in the northwest Canning Basin.

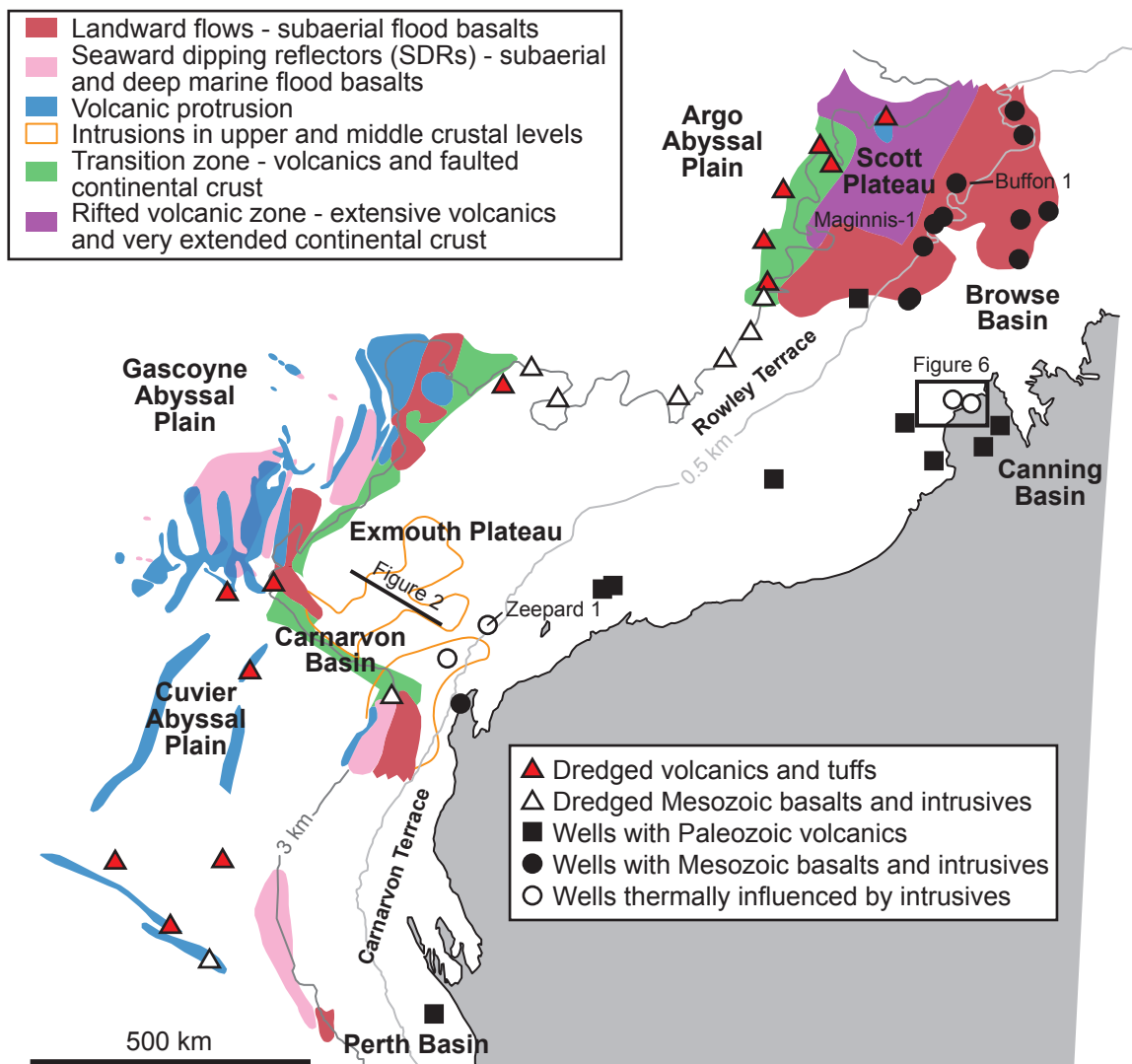
499 See text for further discussion. **B.** VR depth plot for Perindi 1 and Tappers Inlet 1

500 wells, northwest Canning Basin. Note the lower, near vertical palaeogeothermal

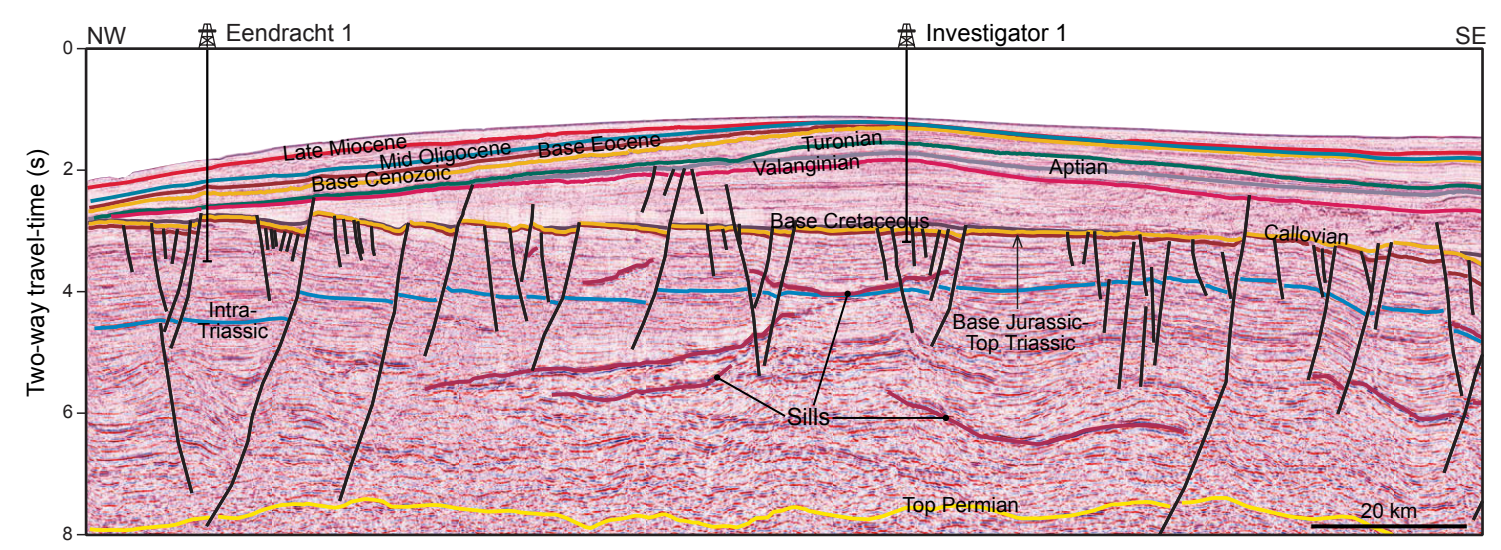
501 gradient associated with the dolerite sill in Perindi 1 (modified from Reeckmann &

502 Mebberson (1984)).

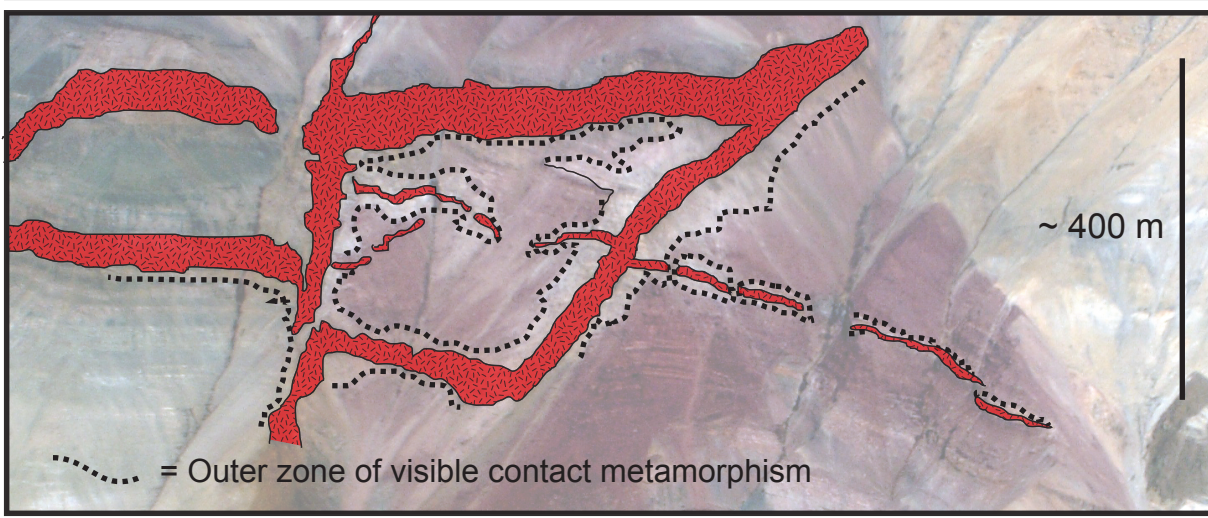
Holford et al Figure 1



Holford et al Figure 2



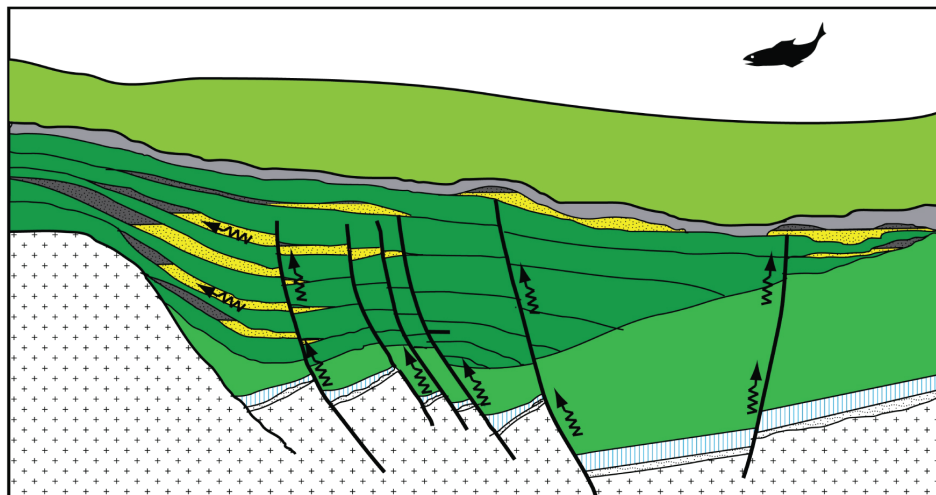
'Box-Work' igneous compartmentalisation of sedimentary strata, East Greenland



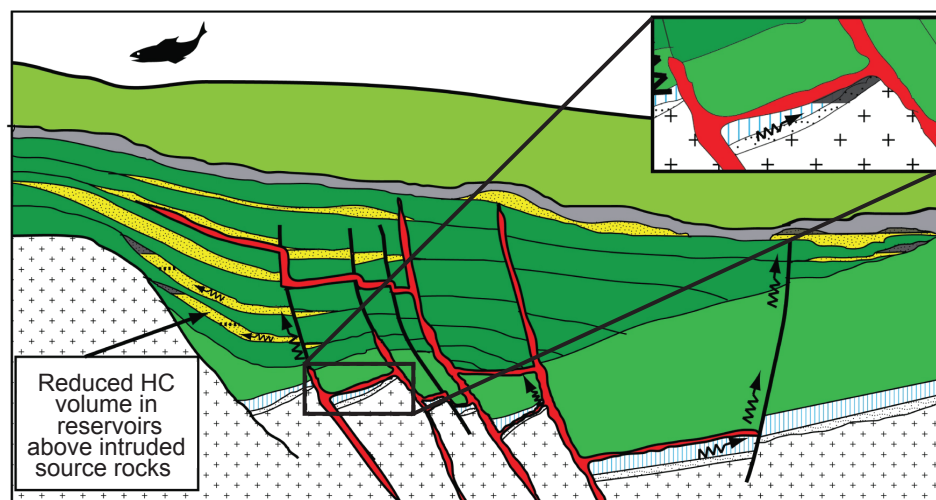


End-member impacts of igneous intrusions on conventional sandstone plays

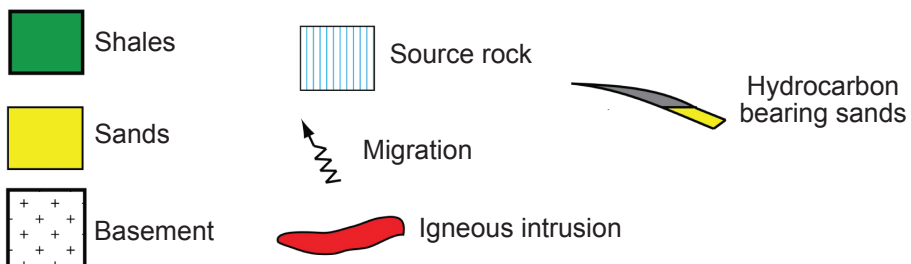
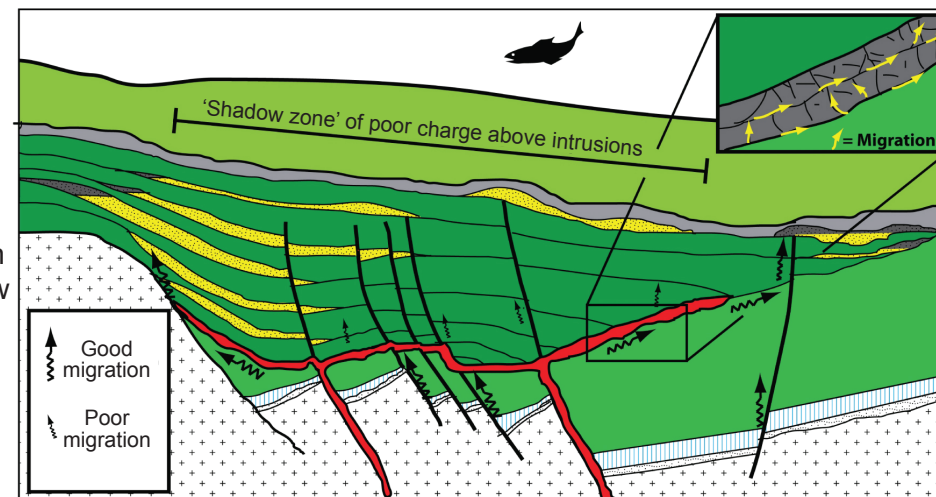
**Scenario 1**  
No intrusions -  
petroleum systems  
unaffected



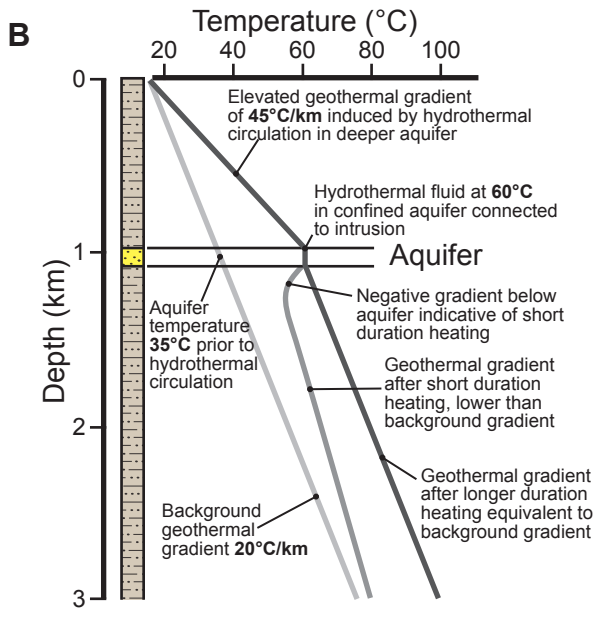
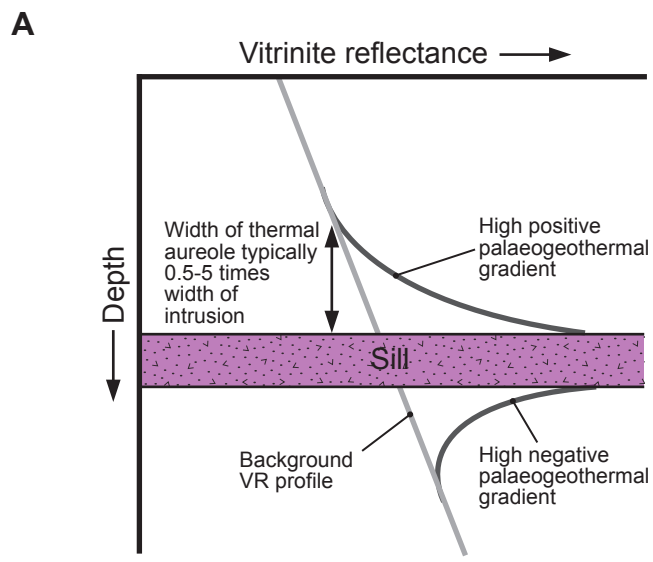
**Scenario 2**  
Compartmentalisation  
of source rock intervals -  
hydrocarbons trapped  
close to source, unable  
to migrate to reservoirs  
leading to reduction in  
charge



**Scenario 3**  
Compartmentalisation  
of basin fill -  
intrusions act as barriers  
and baffles to hydrocarbon  
migration, creating 'shadow  
zones' of underfilled  
reservoir units  
overlying intrusions



Holford et al Figure 5



Holford et al Figure 6

