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1 Relationship between bowl-shaped clastic injectites and parent sand

2 depletion; implications for their scale invariant morphology and

3 composition

4 Abbreviated title: Bowl-shaped injectites and depleted parent sand

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12 Abstract

13 3D seismic reflection data provides a means to assess the impact of injection on parent sands, 14 and to quantify the character of the resulting injectite networks. The morphology of a series 15 of large injectite structures hosted in the Palaeocene Lower Lista Formation were mapped 16 using broadband 3D seismic data from the North Sea to investigate their relationship with 17 parent sands. Fourteen bowl-shaped structures were identified within the Lista Formation in 18 the study area (60-85 m in height, and 200-900 m in width). Sand is absent (below resolution) 19 below these large-scale bowls, suggesting that the parent sand is the underlying Maureen 20 Formation and sand 'welds' formed, rather than sand-prone channelised deposits within the 21 Lista Formation.

Identification of injectite networks can be ambiguous, which impacts geological model development. Observations from exhumed systems and core, offers high resolution insights into the complexity of injectite networks. To advance our understanding of this scale gap, we Cobain et al. Injectites, parent sand depletion, and scale invariance

25	argue for injectites being scale invariant in their shape and grain-size. This permits the
26	application of outcrop-scale knowledge to seismic-scale interpretation. The demonstrable
27	depletion of parent sands, and their scale invariance, can be applied to basin-fills worldwide
28	to reduce uncertainties of the impact of sand injectites on hydrocarbon reservoirs.
29	
30	Keywords: clastic injectites, dykes, sills, North Sea, scale invariance

32 Clastic injectites are the products of the forceful intrusion of sediment-rich flows into a host 33 lithology (Jolly and Lonergan, 2002). The source of the intrusive material therefore, must 34 undergo some form of sand depletion (Løseth et al., 2012). In core, outcrop, or seismic 35 datasets it is challenging to associate injectite networks with their parent sand unit (e.g. 36 Cobain et al. 2018) unless the connection is observed directly, and even more difficult if the 37 parent body is partially depleted of sand. In the subsurface, identification of injectites and 38 their parent sand is important for modelling fluid flow pathways between bodies of sand, and 39 prediction of the reservoir quality of the injectites.

40 Here, we present a case study of clastic injectites and an associated potential area of sand 41 depletion of the underlying stratigraphic unit, from the North Sea. Using a high resolution 42 broadband 3D seismic dataset offers the opportunity to map injectite bodies, identify the 43 likely parent sands, and to quantify their morphology and dimensions. The ability to map and 44 quantify the large-scale injectites in 3D seismic data is an advantage over exhumed injectites, 45 at outcrop (2D) and in core (1D). However, these data illustrate that there is both a far greater 46 complexity in injectites than is often accounted for, and that they occur over several orders 47 of magnitude. From this, we argue that in terms of geometry, injectites might be scale 48 invariant in form and grain-size. Therefore, injectite geometry can be compared between 49 systems. If there is scale invariance of injectite geometry this could improve reservoir 50 modelling and the appropriate use of outcrop analogues.

51 Our aim is to map a series of injectites within the study area and consider their origin and sub-52 seismic characteristics. To meet this aim, the following objectives were addressed: i) 53 documentation of the dimensions and shapes of injectites within the study area, ii) discussion 54 of the timing and parent sand for the injectites, iii) consideration of whether injectites can be 55 scale invariant by scale and composition, and iv) discussion of the implications of scale 56 invariance on the use of outcrop analogues for injectites identified in the subsurface.

57

58 Geological setting

59 The North Sea case study area is composed of Palaeocene sediments that onlap Devonian 60 basement and Late Cretaceous/Early Palaeocene chalk landward (Fig. 1) (Ahmadi et al., 2003). 61 The lowermost Palaeocene sands are interpreted to be a series of massive, stacked, 62 submarine channel and fan deposits (Maureen Formation; Mudge and Copestake, 1992; 63 Mudge, 2014). Sands were fed via deltas and through slope channel systems from the north-64 west (Galloway et al., 1993) to a submarine fan. A thick (>600 m) hemipelagic mudstone 65 succession (Lista Formation; Ahmadi et al., 2003) directly overlies the submarine fan and 66 channel-fill sands, which formed during a period of relative sea-level rise. Located within these 67 mudstones are a series of sand-prone channelised systems (Ahmadi et al., 2003). Injected and 68 remobilised sands have been interpreted in the Lista Formation mudstone in many locations 69 in the North Sea (e.g. Cheret and Carrillat, 2004; de Boer et al., 2007; Satur and Hurst, 2007; 70 Kilhams et al., 2012). This study focuses on the architecture and source of clastic injectites in 71 the Lower Lista Formation that directly overlies the Maureen Formation (Fig. 1B).

72 Methodology

73 Seismic mapping

74 The study covers a 5.75 km long, and 2.12 km wide (~12 km²) sub-area of a high resolution 3D 75 broadband seismic dataset, focussing on the Lower Lista Formation (Figs. 2A and 2B). The 76 advantage of using broadband seismic data (or multi-sensor towed streamer technology) is 77 the improved imaging of complex geometries, where it is possible to image Lista sandstone 78 with higher frequencies and less sidelobes within the data, resulting in a more accurate 79 interpretation (Østmo et al., 2014). The 3D broadband seismic survey has been time migrated 80 with a standard anisotropic 3D Kirchhoff migration, was interpreted with in-line (IL), 81 northwest-southeast orientation, and cross-line (XL), northeast-southwest orientation, and

82 has a line spacing of 6.25 metres by 6.25 metres. A positive peak event (blue-black reflection) 83 represents a downward increase in acoustic impedance whereas a negative trough (orange-84 red reflection) represents a downward decrease in acoustic impedance (Figs. 2C - 2F). 85 In the study area, reflections are more brightly imaged on the near angle stack (5°-17.5°), and 86 were chosen for mapping. Mapped sands are penetrated directly by two vertical wells 87 allowing them to be calibrated with the well logs (Fig. 3). Initially, the base of the sand bodies 88 were mapped on every 16th IL and XL (100 m) and then from the grid created by this method 89 every IL and XL was mapped where correlating between lines was problematic. Arbitrary lines 90 were used where correlating between adjacent lines was ambiguous. Mapped sands crosscut 91 stratigraphy, display both low and high angles of dip (defined as <20° and >20° respectively 92 (Hurst et al., 2011)), and form bowl-shaped structures in 3D (Fig. 2). A major uncertainty with 93 mapping injectites is that steeply dipping injectites (usually >60° (Jackson et al., 2011)) are not 94 imaged on seismic data. However, because the dataset used in this study is of such high 95 resolution, it is possible to infer whether an absence or break of seismic reflection is due to 96 steeply dipping sand units. The complicated nature of injectite geometries, which locally 97 includes the separation of a single mappable sand body into several thinner sand units on 98 different stratigraphic levels, can produce a chaotic seismic response. Where this occurred 99 either the brightest reflector was selected, or when no obviously bright reflector was present 100 the lowermost reflector was selected (e.g. Fig. 2F).

101

102 **Results and analysis**

103 Seismic mapping

104 Fourteen bowl structures were mapped in detail over the ~12 km² study area, including bright

105 reflections interpreted to be sands that connect to, or sit in-between, bowl-shaped structures.

106 These structures are shown to crosscut stratigraphy at high angles (Fig. 2C-F) and internally

107 have chaotic seismic response. After being mapped in 3D, 2D seismic profiles were taken at 108 intervals of 50 m along both ILs and XLs for quantitative analysis (Table 1); some results are 109 displayed as crossplots (Fig. 4). The key geometric parameters measured for each individual 110 bowl include: i) plan view area as an aerial parameter (m^2) , defined where the steeply dipping 111 sandstone bodies pass abruptly into sills concordant with host strata; ii) height of bowl, 112 defined as the vertical extent (m) from the base (lowest depth) to the abrupt change between 113 steeply dipping side and shallowly dipping sill; and iii) the width of each bowl through both IL 114 and XL sections, defined as the horizontal extent (m) along both IL and XL inside the aerial 115 extent of the bowl (Table 1). Measurements provided have an uncertainty of ± 6.25 m 116 horizontally (bin spacing) and vertically of ±12 m (vertical resolution). Internal sand 117 geometries and sand thicknesses are difficult to estimate because well calibrations show 118 these are likely clustered zones of thin sands (Lonergan et al., 2007) as opposed to a single, 119 thick, high net-to-gross body (Huuse et al., 2004; de Boer et al., 2007). Most of the bowl 120 structures are between 60 and 85 metres in height. Maximum measured widths are between 121 200 and 900 metres (Fig. 2), with an average width of 574 metres. The vertical distance 122 between the top of the Maureen Formation sandstone and the base of the lowermost section 123 of each bowl ranges from zero (bowl 8a in contact with Maureen Formation; Figure 2D) to 89 124 metres (bowl 9). There are 2 distinct stratigraphic horizons above the Maureen Formation 125 along which sands abruptly change from steeply dipping and discordant to concordant with 126 stratigraphy (Figs. 2C and 2D). Quantitative data show that the degree of variability between 127 the bowls is low to moderate. There is a strong correlation between the width and height of 128 bowl structures (Fig. 4B). These sands are interpreted as clastic injectites due to their 129 geometry (bowl-shaped and cross-cutting stratigraphy at high angles) and apparent 130 relationship with underlying sand unit. Sands at high angles to stratigraphy have recently been 131 described by Totake et al., (2018) where sand slices were mapped along thrust fault planes; 132 in cross-section there is some resemblance to sands in this study at high angles to surrounding

strata. This, however, is discounted as a possibility as mapped sands herein form bowl
structures in 3D, and stratigraphy either side of the sands is not displaced.

135

136 **Discussion**

137 Source of North Sea case study injectites

138 The parent sand of these injectites is a source of debate; the two possibilities are either the 139 Lista Sandstones, a series of sand-prone channelised deposits within the Lista Formation (Fig. 140 1), or the underlying Maureen Formation, which comprises stacked lobe and channel deposits 141 (Fig. 1). Provenance studies would confirm the parent sand from which injectites are sourced, 142 however, here we argue for injectite-parent relationship. The mapped bowl structures 143 presented here show a strong spatial affinity with the underlying Maureen Formation sands, 144 with some bowls showing direct contacts at their base with the Maureen Formation sands 145 (e.g. Bowl 8a; Fig. 2D). Additionally, the location of the mapped bowls overlie areas where 146 there is a seismic pinchout or absence of the underlying Maureen Formation (Figs. 2A, 2C, 2D 147 and 5). In cross section, the absence of Maureen Formation sands resembles channel incision 148 (Fig. 5). One explanation for this pinchout is the presence of a mud-filled channel system. 149 However, removal by a channel would mean a markedly different orientation (WSW-ENE and 150 curving northwards) to all other channels along the same palaeoslope, which have a 151 palaeoflow of west-to-east (Mudge, 2014). Furthermore, in plan view, the mapped pinchouts 152 are not in a channel form. For example, Figure 2A shows the Maureen Formation pinchout 153 narrowing in planform, whereas a channel would be expected to have a more consistent 154 along-axis width. An alternative explanation is that the lack of Maureen Formation sands in 155 this area is the result of depletion through the remobilisation and injection of sand into the 156 overlying Lista Formation. The spatial relationship between the absence of Maureen 157 Formation and the presence of overlying large bowl structures, the abrupt pinchout of the

158 Maureen Formation, and the connection with the overlying injectites, support this 159 interpretation. The apparent absence of Maureen Fm. sand beneath the injectite bowls points 160 to significant withdrawal from the parent sands, and the possibility that 'sand welds' formed. 161 In diapiric systems, a salt or mud weld is a surface (or thin zone) that marks the complete, or 162 near complete, movement of salt of mud (Jackson and Cramez, 1989). In a similar way, the 163 complete withdrawal of sand and redistribution into an injectite network could result in a 164 sand weld forming; and a welded surface that could separate concordant, but unconformable, 165 strata. Once a sand weld forms beneath an injectite, it will cease to be supplied with new 166 material, and injectite propagation will cease. In the case of the Maureen Fm., the resolution 167 of the data does not permit us to confidently define whether a complete (remnant sand 0 m 168 thick) or incomplete (remnant sand 0-50 m) weld developed (sensu Hudec and Jackson, 2011). 169 However, the mapping of the Maureen Fm. (Fig. 2) does reveal development of a 170 discontinuous sand weld (sensu Hudec and Jackson, 2011).

171

172 **Origin of overpressure**

173 Overpressure is a key factor required to generate clastic injectites (Jolly and Lonergan, 2002). 174 For this North Sea case study, the overpressure is suggested to be generated from: i) 175 depositional sands being encased in low permeability mudstones, and ii) influx of 176 hydrocarbons into sandstone units (Ahmadi et al., 2003). Fluid pressures within the relatively 177 shallow sandstones at the time of oil migration would have been near hydrostatic (Chiarelli 178 and Richy, 1984; Barnard and Bastow, 1991 Kubala et al., 2003). Fluid migration may not only 179 have provided the source for overpressure, but potentially could have been the trigger 180 mechanism needed for the initiation of clastic intrusion (e.g. Vigorito and Hurst, 2010; 181 Monnier et al., 2014; Cobain et al., 2015, 2017). Other trigger mechanisms, such as seismicity, 182 are also viable (e.g., see Cobain et al., 2017).

183 **Timing of injectites**

184 Hydrocarbon migration from the Beryl Embayment into the up-dip Palaeocene sands is 185 constrained to between 55 and 65 Ma and is known to be post calcite cementation (Ahmadi et al., 2003). Constraints on the timing of the process of injection are limited, however the 186 187 maximum vertical height of a single intrusion structure is 152 m, indicating a minimum burial 188 depth of at least this amount prior to intrusion. Although the sands within the Lower Lista 189 Formation are relatively shallow compared to some injectite complexes, they have undergone 190 some burial and compaction since remobilisation and deposition. The constraints on the 191 timing of this process are limited and the values presented herein have not been 192 decompacted. The measured vertical heights in features, therefore, represent a minimum 193 burial depth (Huuse *et al.*, 2004; Parize *et al.*, 2007).

194

195 Scale invariance in injectite and the suitability of analogues

196 Sand(stone) injectites have been reported on scales ranging from millimetres in length and 197 thickness (Goodall et al., 1999; Duranti et al., 2002; Hurst et al., 2011) to 10s metres thick and 198 laterally extensive for kilometres (Huuse et al., 2004; Hurst et al., 2005, 2011; Hubbard et al., 199 2007; Cartwright, 2010; Cobain et al., 2017). For example, km-scale bowl-shaped injectites 200 have been identified and described in a number of oilfields, including the Volund (Townsley 201 et al, 2012; Schwab et al. 2015) and the Gamma Fields (Huuse et al, 2007). They can share 202 morphological similarities in 2D, and commonly have a narrow grain-size range (Fig. 7) 203 attributed to preferential fluidisation of very fine sand over other grainsize types (Cobain et 204 al., 2015). The common occurrence of bowl shapes and fine grain size identified in injectites, 205 along with scales ranging by orders of magnitude, suggests that injectites are scale invariant 206 in their shape and composition; in other words injectite morphology and grain-size do not 207 change when length scales are multiplied by a common factor. This characteristic could be 208 critical in helping to predict and model sub-seismic scale injectite sands, and to identify

appropriate analogues from higher resolution data that can offer the chance to better understand process and product relationships in injectite networks. However, why should injectites be scale invariant in their shape?

212 The scale invariance of sand(stone) injections in sedimentary basins is attributed to the host 213 lithology being one of the main factors determining the geometry and architecture of an 214 intrusion as it propagates (see Figure 2 of Cobain et al., 2015). In a similar way, faults and 215 fractures are considered to be scale invariant (e.g. Scholz and Aviles, 1986; Schulz et al., 2010) 216 as a function of the host lithology (e.g. Wibberley et al., 1999; Schultz et al., 2010). 217 Furthermore, work has shown that the style of sand intrusions into fault zones varies as a 218 function of lithology (Palladino et al., 2018). Previous research on intrusion dynamics has 219 focussed primarily on igneous systems (McCaffrey and Petford, 1997; Thomson, 2007; 220 Thomson and Schofield, 2008; Schofield et al., 2012a; Magee et al., 2015). However, similar 221 geometries observed in both igneous and sedimentary intrusions suggest that emplacement 222 mechanisms are comparable and controlled by the same external parameters (Cartwright et 223 al., 2008; Polteau et al., 2008; Mourgues et al., 2012). It should be noted however, that 224 although mechanisms of emplacement may be comparable, rates of emplacement are likely 225 quite different between clastic injections and igneous intrusions (e.g., Ross et al., 2014; 226 Sigmundsson et al., 2015). Properties of host lithology that affect intrusion morphology during 227 emplacement include the propensity for brittle behaviour versus non-brittle (Schofield et al., 228 2012a), the homogeneity of the host strata (Jolly and Lonergan, 2002), and the principal stress 229 orientation (Jolly and Lonergan, 2002; Rowe et al., 2002). As it is primarily the host lithology 230 that controls final intrusion architecture, research and literature for scale invariance within 231 igneous intrusions are utilised here.

Scale invariance over several orders of magnitude is recognised in igneous intrusions. One example is 'broken bridges', a distinctive morphology within igneous intrusions that has been well documented from centimetres up to several metres at outcrops (Nicholson and Pollard,

1985; Bussel, 1989). Schofield *et al.* (2012b) recognised that broken bridges developed between elongate magma lobes in the Faroe-Shetland Basin on a seismic scale of at least 10's of metres in height and with lateral extents of over several kilometres. Field data have also been used to test dimensional scaling and mechanical models, where a range of power-law scaling relationships for different types of intrusive structures can predict geometry for laccoliths and thickness-to-length relationships for mafic sills (Cruden and Bunger, 2010) implying scale invariance.

242 Experimental modelling also assumes scale invariance, where the use of dimensionless 243 numbers demonstrates geometric and kinematic similarities between model and its natural 244 prototype. This was first recognised by Hubbert (1937), and since then the principles of 245 dimensional analysis of scaling have been used in many experiments replicating natural 246 geological processes (Hubbert, 1951; Hubbert and Willis, 1957; Mourgues and Cobbold, 2003; 247 Kavanagh et al., 2006; Rodrigues et al., 2009; Gressier et al., 2010). For clastic injectites 248 specifically, Rodrigues et al. (2009) and Mourgues et al. (2012) both successfully recreated 249 injectite geometries comparable to those in nature that can be up to several kilometres in size 250 (Vigorito and Hurst, 2010), yet experimentally may only be several centimetres. These 251 experiments support injectite morphologies being scale invariant where outside factors, such 252 as host rock lithology, fluid pressure, and principle stress orientation, are at a scaled 253 equivalent both geometrically and kinematically (Rodrigues et al., 2009; Mourgues et al., 254 2012).

The scale invariance of clastic injectites permits outcrop-scale data to be upscaled and applied to support seismic-scale interpretations. Therefore, the injectites at outcrop could be seismic forward modelled to aid recognition of injectites in reflection seismic data. Previously, the use of outcrop studies of injectites as analogues for subsurface examples has been limited to cases where the outcrop itself is of seismic scale (Surlyk and Noe-Nygaard, 2001; Vigorito *et al.*,

- 260 2008; Scott *et al.*, 2009, 2013; Vigorito and Hurst, 2010); an approach that limits the range of
- 261 usable analogues and may ultimately mean inappropriate geometries used as analogues.

263 Implications for hydrocarbon exploration

264 Subsurface remobilisation and injection of sand has significant consequences on reservoir 265 architecture, geometry, and porosity and permeability, which impact hydrocarbon recovery. In this North Sea case study, the procedure has been employed to provide unequivocal 266 267 evidence for the origin of the sand bodies mapped in the Lower Lista Formation shale to be 268 clastic injectites and not of primary deposition. Moreover, there is likely more complexity to 269 those sand bodies than can be observed in the reflection seismic data. Therefore, a larger 270 volume of sub-seismic injectites, and hence greater volume of sand and connectivity, is likely 271 present than would be predicted from seismic data alone (Fig. 8).

As more exploration drilling in the North Sea is specifically targeting clastic injectite complexes (de Boer *et al.*, 2007; Schwab *et al.*, 2015), having the ability to map and interpret injected sandstones and predict their sub-seismic distribution accurately is crucial to achieve economic viability of drilling and production from such fields. Increasing our understanding of the architecture of clastic injectites will allow more accurate interpretation during exploration, and more informed placement of production wells, increasing the economic viability of reservoirs (Fig. 8).

279 **Conclusions**

The broadband seismic survey data from this North Sea case study, combined with nearby well logs, were used to map in detail the 3D geometries of clastic injectites over a sub-area of ~12 km². Fourteen bowl structures were identified, some of which showed a direct connection with the underlying Maureen Formation. Where this direct connection occurs, the Maureen Formation is partly absent, suggesting sand depletion as clastic material is forcibly injected 285 upwards into the Lower Lista Formation forming the sand bodies mapped and interpreted as 286 injectites, and that sand welds developed. This is a rare case where, in the subsurface, the 287 parent unit can be confidently associated with clastic injectites. The impact of injectites on 288 hydrocarbon reservoirs, as well as an increase in the industry targeting unconventional or 289 complex reservoirs, means that the need for this knowledge and understanding has never 290 been so pertinent.

291 The bowl-shaped morphology of the large seismically resolvable structures, and the common 292 grain-size of similar geometries across several orders of magnitude suggest that clastic 293 injectites can be viewed as scale invariant. This is a powerful implication as exhumed 294 analogues need not be seismic-scale when other parameters such as geometry, tectonic 295 setting and connection to the contemporaneous seabed differ from the subsurface systems. 296 Rather a range of outcrop observations can be used to provide improved constraints on the 297 sub-seismic injectite networks, and connectivity, to better predict and model fluid flow during 298 hydrocarbon production, or carbon capture and sequestration.

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501 **Table and figure captions**

502 **Table 1.** *Quantitative analysis of 14 bowl structures*

2D reflection seismic profiles were taken at intervals of 50 m along both ILs and XLs for 14 bowl structures and the underlying Maureen Formation: plan view area (m²), perimeter (m), XL transect length (m), IL transect length (m), depth of top Maureen Formation (IL) (m), top Maureen Formation to base bowl vertical distance (IL) (m),depth to base bowl (IL) (m), depth to top bowl (IL) (m), vertical depth of bowl (m), depth of top Maureen Formation (XL) (m), top Maureen Formation to base bowl vertical distance (XL) (m),depth to base bowl (XL) (m), depth to top bowl (XL) (m), vertical depth of bowl (m).

Fig. 1. (**A**) North Sea Basin showing present day distribution of Palaeocene-Lower Eocene sandstone in yellow (adapted from Mudge, 2014) and locations of large scale sandstone injectites in the Palaeogene of the Northern North Sea outlined in red (after Huuse *et al.*, 2007). (**B**) Stratigraphy of the North Sea case study (adapted from Ahmadi *et al.*, 2003).

514 Fig. 2. Example seismic sections through the study area. (A) Plan view of the study area 515 showing extent of the Maureen Formation in pale grey. Black areas and the dashed line 516 denote where Maureen is absent, and darker grey represents mapped sands within the Lista 517 Formation. (B) Depth map in plan view of sands within the Lower Lista Formation and 518 polygons outlining each mapped bowl feature. Yellow lines represent sections shown in Figure 519 2C-F. (C-F) Seismic cross-sections through mapped sands; yellow line is the top Maureen 520 Formation pick, pink line picks base sand in Lower Lista Formation shale. (C) Section A-A'; 521 steeply dipping, v-shaped bowl with complex internal sand architectures. (D) Section B-B'; v-522 shaped bowl where base of bowl is in contact with the top of the Maureen Formation. (E) 523 Section C-C'; 5 km long section cutting through several outlined polygons (Fig. 2B). (F) Section 524 through several bowl structures and well log A used to correlate sand bodies.

Fig. 3. Gamma Ray (GR) well log calibration to seismic interpretation, orange colour denotes
low GR, primarily associated with higher sand content. (A) Profile through Bowl 5 (Fig. 2B),

where the underling Maureen Formation shows thick sand packages, overlying thin sand units interpreted as injectites. (**B**) Western edge of Bowl 5, where the Maureen Formation is picked out by high sand content, and the edge of the bowl shows multiple, thin sands interpreted as injectites. (**C**) Edge of Bowl 5, sand bodies appear to have pinched out. Some sand layers of unknown origin higher up in stratigraphy.

Fig. 4. Geometric properties and vertical position of the mapped sands. (A) Vertical depth to
base of each bowl and depth from base of bowl to the top of the Maureen Formation. (B)
Bowl height *versus* width, showing low to moderate degree of variability in height through
bowls of different widths. IL = inline, XL = cross line.

536 Fig. 5. (A) Representative reflection seismic section taken through the case study area. (B) 537 Simplified interpretation of depleted parent sand (Maureen Fm.) and resultant injected sand. 538 Fig. 6. Time steps of parent sand depleting as injectites form. (A) T1: pre-injection, fan sands 539 remain unconsolidated and become overpressured as overlying shale deposited. (B) T2: 540 parent sand starts to drain and deform as it injects into overlying strata. Overlying shale starts 541 to deform in response to sand draining and injecting. (C) T3: injectites cease propagating with 542 development of a sand 'weld', resulting in a large area of parent sand depleted and forming a 543 "channel-like" cross-sectional shape.

Fig. 7. Photographs of clastic injectites of same grain-size (fine and medium grain sand) and
geometry (dykes and sills) across a wide range of scales. (A) Photograph from a Palaeocene
succession, North Sea. (B) and (C) Photographs from the Fort Brown Formation, South Africa.
(D) Photograph from Miocene exposures in the Austral Basin, Tierra del Fuego, Patagonia,
Argentina.

Fig. 8. (A) 3D reservoir modelling process for a single geological model (adapted from Bentley
and Smith 2008). (B) Same model with sub-seismic injectites providing vertical connectivity
between reservoir units.

Cobain et al. Injectites, parent sand depletion, and scale invariance



552

553 Figure 1





Cobain et al. Injectites, parent sand depletion, and scale invariance





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563 Figure 6



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