

1 **Igneous Intrusions in the Faroe Shetland Basin and their Implications for Hydrocarbon**  
2 **Exploration; New Insights from Well and Seismic Data**

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4 N.J. MARK<sup>\*</sup>, N. SCHOFIELD<sup>1</sup>, S. PUGLIESE<sup>2</sup>, D. WATSON<sup>1</sup>, S. HOLFORD<sup>3</sup>, D. MUIRHEAD<sup>1</sup>, R.  
5 BROWN<sup>4</sup>, D. HEALY<sup>1</sup>

6 <sup>1</sup>*Department of Geology and Petroleum Geology, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen AB24 3UE, UK*

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8 <sup>3</sup>*Australian School of Petroleum, Santos Petroleum Engineering Building, University of Adelaide, SA 5005,*  
9 *Australia*

10  
11 <sup>4</sup>*Department of Earth Sciences, Durham University, Durham DH1 3LE, UK.*

12  
13 *\*Corresponding author (e-mail: [niall.mark@abdn.ac.uk](mailto:niall.mark@abdn.ac.uk))*

14  
15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Igneous sills and dykes that intrude pervasively into prospective sedimentary basins are a common  
17 occurrence in volcanic rifted margins, impacting the petroleum system and causing geological and  
18 technical drilling challenges during hydrocarbon exploration. The Faroe-Shetland Basin (FSB), NE  
19 Atlantic Margin, has been the focus of exploration for over 45 years, with many wells penetrating  
20 igneous intrusions. Utilising 29 FSB wells with 251 intrusions and 3D seismic data, this study presents  
21 new insights into the impacts that igneous intrusions have on hydrocarbon exploration. Examination  
22 of cores reveals that there can be up to 35% additional igneous rock in individual wells compared to  
23 estimates using seismic or petrophysical data alone, leading to potential underestimation of the igneous  
24 component in a basin. Furthermore, analysis of petrophysical data shows that within the FSB there  
25 are evolved intrusions such as diorite and rhyolite in addition to the commonly encountered basaltic  
26 intrusions. These evolved intrusions are difficult to recognise in seismic and petrophysical data and  
27 have historically been misidentified on seismic as exploration targets. Drilling data acquired through  
28 intrusions provide valuable insight into the problems exploration wells can encounter, often  
29 unexpectedly, many of which can be detrimental to safe drilling practice and result in prolonged non-  
30 productive time.

31  
32 **Keywords:** *igneous intrusions, seismic imaging, drilling, Atlantic Margin*

## 33 INTRODUCTION

34

35 Igneous intrusions within petroliferous sedimentary basins have been the focus of recent research due  
36 to the importance of understanding how intrusions affect hydrocarbon exploration and the impact  
37 they have on the petroleum system such as reduced reservoir quality and source rock maturation  
38 (Holford *et al.*, 2013; Muirhead *et al.*, 2017, Rateau *et al.*, 2013; Schofield *et al.*, 2015; Senger *et al.*,  
39 2017). Analysis of exploration wells and 3D seismic data acquired by the petroleum industry has  
40 resulted in a greater understanding of igneous intrusions in the subsurface (Smallwood & Maresh, 2002;  
41 Thomson and Hutton, 2004; Planke *et al.*, 2005; Hansen and Cartwright, 2006; Schofield *et al.* 2012a;  
42 Schofield *et al.*, 2015). Specifically, 3D seismic data has resulted in a better understanding of the  
43 morphologies, emplacement mechanisms and interconnectivity of intrusions in rifted margin  
44 sedimentary basins (Gibb & Kanaris-Sotiriou, 1988; Bell & Butcher, 2002; Thomson & Schofield, 2008;  
45 Schofield *et al.* 2015). Although previous work addresses the scientific applications such as intrusion  
46 morphologies and emplacement mechanisms, the significance of the research in relation to  
47 hydrocarbon exploration is often overlooked. Seismic data has provided valuable insights into magma  
48 plumbing systems, though such data typically only resolve intrusions 40 m in thickness and thus the  
49 role of thinner/smaller intrusions is less well understood. Furthermore, most 3D seismic data is  
50 acquired in sedimentary basins where magmatism is predominantly basaltic. Hence there is less  
51 knowledge about the seismic expression of evolved intrusions such as rhyolitic or dioritic  
52 compositions. Proper characterisation of the variable intrusion compositions and the prediction of  
53 the amount of missed igneous material in the subsurface is essential, as failure to understand this can  
54 result in important drilling implications, including poor hole condition, low rates of penetration and  
55 non-productive time.

56 This study addresses the implications igneous intrusions have for hydrocarbon exploration in  
57 the FSB and Atlantic Margin, expanding on recent work by Schofield *et al.*, (2015). Notably, we detail  
58 the importance of understanding how drilling operations can be affected by igneous intrusions within  
59 the subsurface. Specifically, this paper will address three main elements. Firstly, how data bias and  
60 resolution limits result in fewer intrusions being identified. Secondly, how identification of

61 evolved/felsic igneous rocks within the subsurface present a challenge for seismic imaging and  
62 petrophysical characterisation. Finally, the drilling complications resulting from penetrating intrusions  
63 highlights how they directly impact drilling operations, potentially incurring safety and environmental  
64 risks in addition to costly downtime. It should be noted that as the offshore exploration and drilling  
65 industry utilises substantial forms of terminology and abbreviations, we have included a table to allow  
66 for appropriate terminology descriptions and clarity (Table 3, supplementary material).

67 Despite the analysis focusing on the FSB, the themes and ideas explored in this paper are  
68 applicable to igneous hosted sedimentary basins worldwide and may help mitigate the risk of similar  
69 issues presented in this study occurring during future exploration.

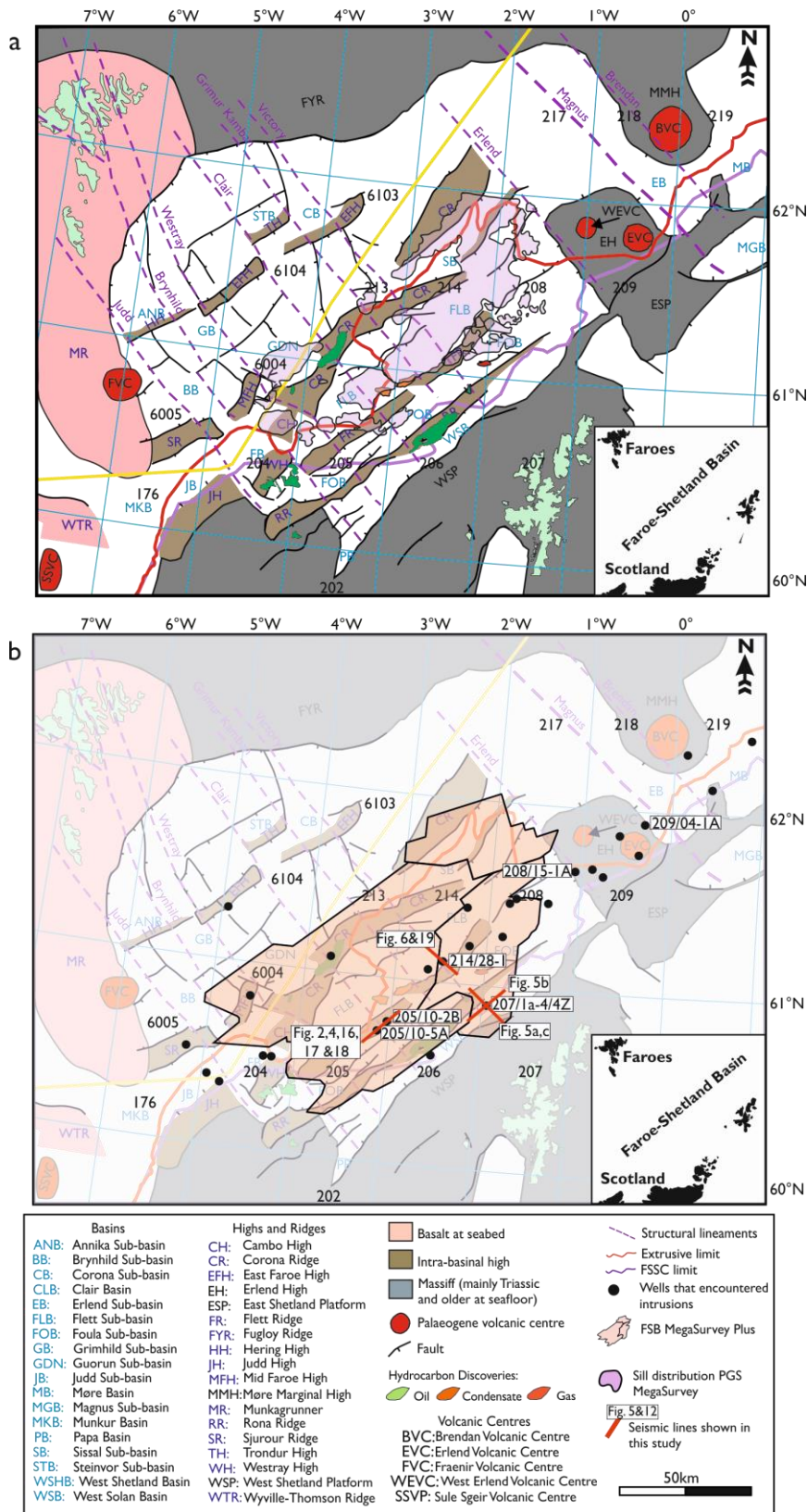
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## 71 **GEOLOGICAL HISTORY**

72 The Faroe-Shetland Basin (FSB) is located between the Shetland and Faroe Islands on the NE Atlantic  
73 Margin (Fig. 1). The basin can be sub divided into a series of SW-NE trending sub-basins and is  
74 contiguous with the Møre Basin to the north-east and the Rockall Trough to the south-west (Hitchen  
75 & Ritchie, 1987). The sub-basins consist of Jurassic to Recent sediments bound by basement highs  
76 comprised of Precambrian crystalline rocks (Lamers & Carmichael, 1999). The FSB has undergone  
77 several stages of rifting between the Devonian and Paleocene, followed by Late Paleocene and Mid-  
78 Miocene inversion (Smallwood & Maresh, 2002; Sorensen, 2003; Ritchie et al., 2011). The multiple-  
79 rifting events are thought to be influenced by a pre-existing NE-SW structural grain inherited from the  
80 Caledonian orogeny (Kimbell et al., 2005). The main structure of the basin is further complicated by  
81 transfer lineaments which run perpendicular to the main SW-NE trend of the basin (Ellis et al., 2009;  
82 Moy & Imber 2009; Schofield & Jolley, 2013) (Fig. 1). There is considerable debate regarding the nature  
83 and origin of these lineaments (Moy and Imber, 2009), although most research agrees that they have  
84 played a part in influencing sediment deposition and could have acted as conduits for upwelling magma  
85 (Jolley et al., 2005; Archer et al., 2005; Ritchie et al., 2011).

86

87



90 Figure 1: a) Structural elements map of the Faroe-Shetland Basin, with mapped sill extent. b) Outline  
91 of 3D seismic coverage and wells penetrating intrusions used in this study. Figure adapted from Ellis  
92 *et al.*, 2009, Schofield *et al.*, 2015 Mudge, 2014.

93 The FSB, along with the NE Atlantic Margin, underwent considerable igneous activity during  
94 the Late Paleocene as a result of the impinging proto-Icelandic plume and the eventual continental  
95 break-up between Greenland and Northwest Europe (White & Mckenzie, 1989). This igneous activity  
96 caused eruption of thick extrusive basaltic sequences and the emplacement of a pervasive suite of sills  
97 and dykes, the majority of which are of basaltic composition and intrude mainly into the Cretaceous  
98 sediments (Gibb & Kanaris-Sotriou, 1998, Bell & Butcher, 2002, Thomson & Schofield, 2008, Schofield  
99 *et al.*, 2015, Schofield *et al.* 2017). The intrusions, collectively termed the Faroe-Shetland Sill Complex  
100 (FSSC), are found throughout the FSB with their areal extent following the SW-NE basin trend,  
101 extending northwards into the Møre basin and south into the Rockall Trough (Ritchie *et al.*, 2011) (Fig.  
102 1). The intrusions are thought to have been emplaced between 55-53 Ma (Ritchie & Hitchen, 1996;  
103 Passey & Hitchen, 2011) although this has been questioned by recent work that suggests older phases  
104 of intrusions ranging from 61-58 Ma based on onlapping relationships onto forced folds (Schofield *et*  
105 *al.*, 2015). Forced folds are caused by the jack up of the overburden by intrusions during emplacement  
106 (Trude *et al.*, 2003).

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## 108 **DATA AND METHODOLOGY**

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110 The data used within this study consists of the Faroe-Shetland PGS MegaSurvey Plus 3D seismic dataset  
111 (Fig. 1), which covers an area of 24,000 km<sup>2</sup>. The data has undergone substantial reprocessing leading  
112 to clear imaging of the FSSC (Schofield *et al.* 2015). The well data includes all the released exploration  
113 and appraisal wells drilled in the FSB, which were analysed to identify igneous intrusions. Of this  
114 dataset, 29 wells encountered intrusions, the locations of which are highlighted in Fig. 1b. For these  
115 wells, all wireline data (e.g. p-wave compressional velocity, gamma ray), composite logs, drilling data  
116 (e.g. rate of penetration, weight on bit) and available core was synthesised and interpreted.

117

## 118 IDENTIFICATION OF INTRUSIONS IN THE SUBSURFACE: SCALE AND DATA

### 119 BIAS

#### 120 *Identification of Intrusions in Seismic and Seismic Resolution*

121  
122 The majority of igneous intrusions seismically imaged in the FSSC have a basaltic composition  
123 (informed by geochemistry from cored intrusions Gibb & Kanaris-Sotriou, 1998) and are easily  
124 identifiable as bright, high amplitude reflectors that are laterally discontinuous and crosscut  
125 stratigraphy (Bell & Butcher, 2002; Smallwood & Maresh, 2002, Schofield *et al.*, 2015) (Fig. 2a). The  
126 high amplitude nature of the basaltic intrusions results from their high acoustic impedance relative to  
127 the surrounding host rock sediments (Fig. 2b), which is a product of their high density (2.8-3.0 g/cm<sup>3</sup>)  
128 and sonic velocities (5.5-6.6 km/s) (Bell & Butcher, 2002; Smallwood & Maresh, 2002).

129 Schofield *et al.* (2015) & (2017) discusses the issues regarding the vertical resolution of seismic  
130 data and how, depending on the seismic tuning thickness, intrusions may be poorly resolved or not  
131 resolved at all, leading to a potential underestimation of intrusive volume within the Atlantic Margin  
132 Basins. Schofield *et al.* (2015) shows that for the Cretaceous succession in the FSB, where the majority  
133 of the intrusions of the FSSC are hosted, the vertical resolution ranges from 54m at the top  
134 Cretaceous to 81m at the base of the Cretaceous with detectability ranging from 26m to 40m.

#### 135 *Identification of Intrusions in Wireline and Wireline Resolution*

136 Basic (basaltic) igneous intrusions have a characteristic wireline response making them distinguishable  
137 relative to the host sediments (Bell & Butcher, 2002; Smallwood & Maresh, 2002) (Fig. 2b). Although,  
138 identification of basic igneous intrusions is usually relatively simple from wireline log responses, it is  
139 important to understand the petrophysical properties of basalt which lead to this response; this is  
140 particularly important when understanding and contrasting the wireline response of other igneous  
141 rock types (e.g. acidic/evolved) within the subsurface.

142 Basic magma is abundant in minerals such as olivine and pyroxene, which have p-wave  
143 compressional velocities of 8420m/s and 7200 m/s respectively (Mavko *et al.*, 2009; Rider & Kennedy,  
144 2011). This leads to basic igneous intrusions having high compressional p-wave sonic velocities that  
145 are much higher than surrounding sediments and are typically within the range of 5.5-6.6 km/s (which

146 converts to 55-45 $\mu$ s/ft which is the conventional unit of measurement for UK continental shelf wells)  
147 (Fig. 2b). Shear wave sonic velocities for igneous intrusions are also much higher than surrounding  
148 sediments and are typically within the range 2.4-3.4 km/s (Fig. 2b). Due to the typical uniform  
149 distribution of minerals through relatively thin igneous intrusions, the sonic wireline response is  
150 generally 'blocky' showing little to no variation through an intrusion (see Fig. 2b)

151 In addition to possessing high seismic velocities, olivine and pyroxene also possess high relative  
152 bulk densities of 3.31 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (olivine) and 3.3 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (pyroxene) (Mavko *et al.*, 2009; Rider & Kennedy,  
153 2011), resulting in basic igneous intrusions typically exhibiting bulk densities between 2.8-3.0 g/cm<sup>3</sup>  
154 with a 'blocky' wireline response which is easily distinguishable from the background host rock  
155 sediments (Fig. 2b).

156 The neutron response for basaltic igneous intrusions is typically lower than the surrounding  
157 host rock sediments with values in the range of 0.08-0.1 pu (Fig. 2b). The neutron log essentially  
158 measures the hydrogen content of a formation and will generally be low for a crystalline igneous rock  
159 as there is often limited pore space to host water (Rider & Kennedy, 2011). The neutron-density  
160 separation for basaltic igneous intrusions is typically a positive separation (neutron to left, density to  
161 the right) which is a larger positive separation than for shale sediments (Fig. 2b).

162 As basaltic magma generally contain few radioactive minerals (e.g. Potassium, Thorium and  
163 Uranium) the typical gamma response for basaltic intrusions is very low, in the range of 9-30 API.

164 Basaltic intrusions are significantly more electrically resistive than the surrounding host rock  
165 sediments (shales), as they have low porosity and permeability and contain little or no water compared  
166 with host rock sediments. The resistivity log for basaltic intrusions commonly shows wrap-around  
167 (when measured values exceed the upper range on the scale) due to the resistivity being so high. The  
168 resistivity log response is less blocky compared to the sonic density and gamma logs with a more  
169 serrated response (Fig. 2b). For some intrusions, the resistivity log can be chaotic and fluctuate  
170 significantly over a short distance which often reflects fracturing within the intrusions.

171 The caliper log measures the internal diameter of the borehole and therefore condition of the  
172 hole (Smallwood & Maresh, 2002). Due to the mechanically resistive and competent nature of

173 intrusions, the caliper log typically remains uniform through intrusions in the FSB although if the  
174 intrusions are thin and fractured, they are more likely to collapse into the wellbore causing deviations  
175 in the caliper log.

176         Although gamma ray logs record a sharp change when an intrusion is encountered, resistivity,  
177 p-wave sonic and neutron-density logs show a gradual variation (Fig. 2b). Commonly this creates a bell  
178 shaped wireline response caused by the values ramping up or down in the host rock sediments directly  
179 above and below the intrusive contact (Fig. 2b). This ramping up of the values in the host rock prior  
180 to encountering the intrusion is interpreted as representing the contact metamorphosed or hornfels  
181 zone. This zone is where the host rock sediments have been altered by heating from the intrusions  
182 resulting in differing petrophysical characteristics compared to the unaltered host rock sediments  
183 (Smallwood & Maresh, 2002).

184         Despite wireline logs (e.g. Gamma, Neutron Porosity, Resistivity) often showing distinct log  
185 motifs upon recording igneous intrusions, wireline tools have limitations in terms of the vertical  
186 thickness of beds and bed properties the tools can actually resolve.

187         Table I lists the various wireline logs and their average vertical resolution, although this figure  
188 can vary depending on factors such as logging speed and formation properties. Over non-reservoir  
189 intervals which are of less commercial interest, logging speeds will be faster, and often with a reduced  
190 suite of tools, which can lead to reduced ability to distinguish individual bed boundaries. However, at  
191 best, intrusions which are <1m thick are unlikely to be distinguished using the common logging tools.  
192 Modern downhole well tools such as borehole imaging logs have a much greater vertical resolution (2  
193 mm); however, due to cost, these are typically reserved for reservoir sections and are often not run  
194 across the full drilled section.

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<b>Logs</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Response in Basaltic Intrusions</b>	<b>Vertical Resolution</b>
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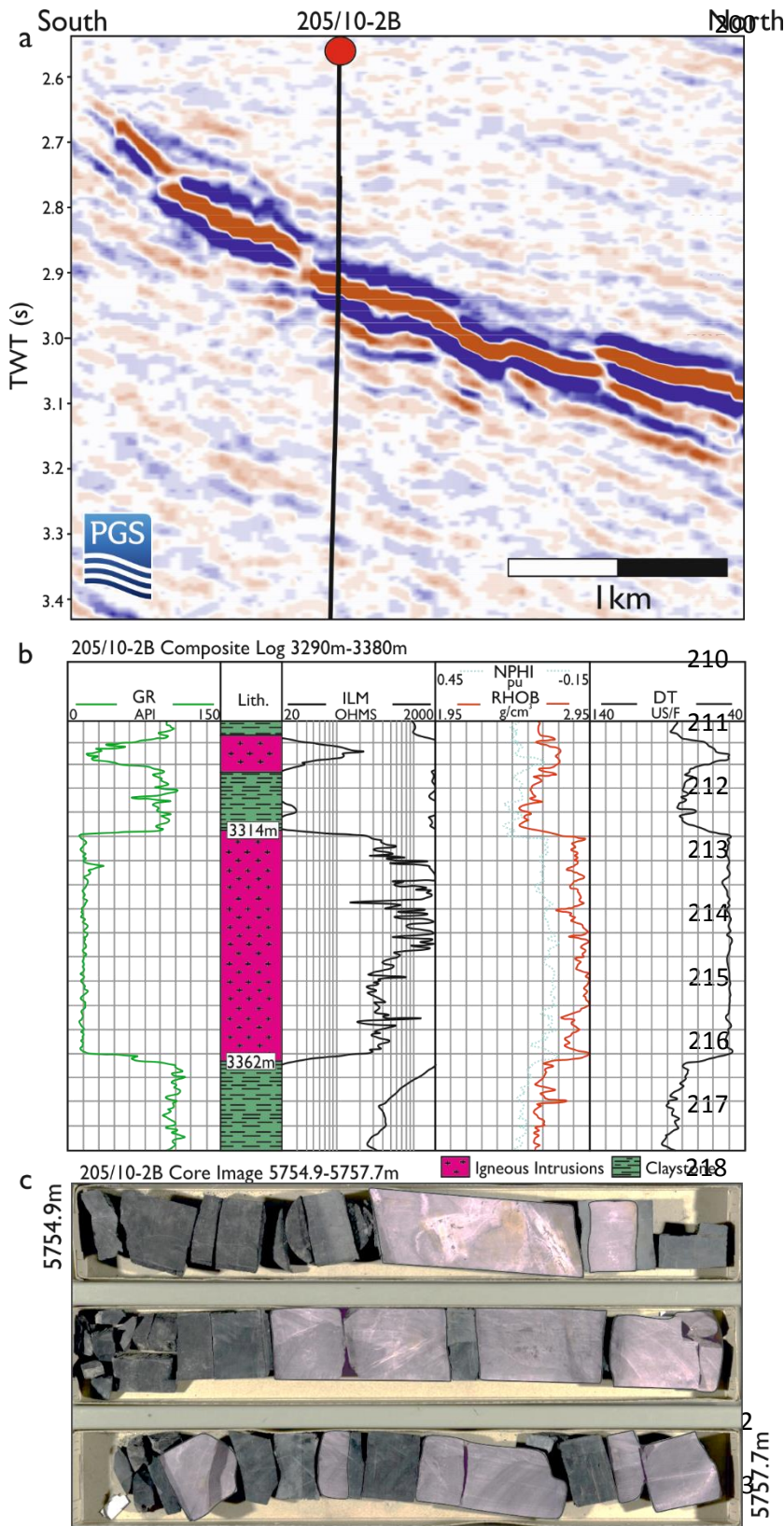


Gamma	Measures the radioactivity of the formations	Sharp drop (9-30 API)	60-90cm
Resistivity	Measures the resistivity of the formations	High blocky response but can also be serrated with big fluctuations (250-1000 ohm.m).	Induction tools: 100cm
Neutron Density	Measures a formations water content	Lower than surrounding sediments and blocky response (0.08-0.1 pu)	40-60cm
Bulk Density	Measures the overall density of the rock	Higher than surrounding sediments and blocky response (2.8-3.0 g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	40-60cm
Sonic	Formations interval transit time	Acoustically faster than surround sediments, blocky response (5.5-6.6km/s)	60cm
Caliper	Measures the diameter of the well bore	Consistent but fractures can cause deviations	N/A

196

197 Table 1: General petrophysical response for different logging tools (Rider & Kennedy, 2011).

198



224 Figure 2: a) Typical seismic response of basaltic intrusions in the FSSC. Intrusion is 47m thick. b)  
 225 Characteristic petrophysical response of basaltic intrusions. c) Core of thin basaltic intrusions into  
 226 Cretaceous shales from the 205/10-2B well, core image courtesy of BGS offshore database (BGS  
 227 2017). Seismic data courtesy of PGS (PGS FSB MegaSurvey Plus).

228 *Identification of Intrusions in Core & Cuttings*

229 Well cuttings are a product of the drilling process and are small pieces (<0.5-10 mm) of rock that are  
230 broken away by the drill bit during the drilling process, are analysed at the rig site and are given a  
231 geological description (Cook *et al.*, 2012). Cuttings are ideally sampled every 10ft, but this may depend  
232 on the well design and drilling performance, although often sample rate increases when the well  
233 reaches the prognosed reservoir interval (Millet *et al.*, 2016). Cuttings from sub-aerially erupted  
234 extrusive basalt are generally weathered and altered due to subareal exposure, and are also more  
235 likely to contain vesicles and glassy material (Millet *et al.*, 2014). In contrast, cuttings from intrusives  
236 are generally coarser grained, possess fewer vesicles and have a 'fresh' unweathered appearance (Millet  
237 *et al.*, 2014).

238 If core is acquired during drilling, it is possible to categorically define that an intrusion has been  
239 encountered. Visually, intrusions can be identified in the core data as they differ in texture and  
240 appearance (Fig. 2c). Although core data is useful, it is usually only acquired for reservoir sections and  
241 any intrusions that are cored within the UKCS have often been done so serendipitously.

242 Core through intrusions allows the identification of intrusions which are < 10 cm in thickness,  
243 greater detection than would be possible with any of the common logging tools.

244 As an illustration of intrusion detectability in wireline and core, the original composite log for  
245 well 205/10-2B (Fig. 2c) only interpreted two intrusions at the base of the well. However, this section  
246 was also cored and actually contains 15 thin intrusions ranging from 4-30 cm in thickness with a  
247 cumulative thickness of 2.5m.

248

249 *Drilling Data*

250 Measurements recorded during drilling (MWD) such as rate of penetration (ROP), torque and weight  
251 on bit (WOB), can also be used to identify intrusions in the subsurface. These measurements are  
252 acquired whilst the well is being drilled and are measured continuously with minimal lag time, therefore  
253 they provide the first indication of the presence of an intrusion within the subsurface. Even logging  
254 measurements acquired whilst drilling (LWD), located downhole on the bottom hole assembly,  
255 possess a delay when compared to live drilling measurements as these tools are commonly located

256 around 10 m from the drill bit, meaning that an intrusion could have already been penetrated before  
257 it is picked up on logs.

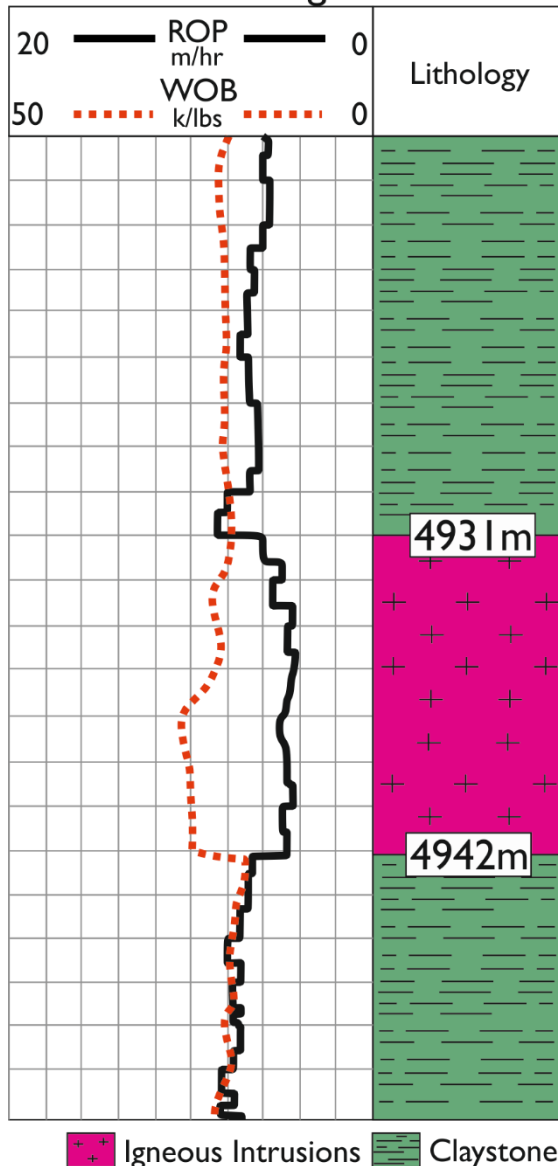
258           When drilling through intrusions, it is common for the ROP to drop to values as low as <1-2  
259 m/hr, whereas shales have values around 5-20m/hr and sandstones typically have values 20-30m/hr.  
260 The ROP values for different sediments is highly variable due to factors such as weight on bit, drill bit  
261 type and drilling depth; however, igneous material typically drills much slower than sediments (Fig. 3).  
262 Additionally, due to the hard nature of crystalline rocks, bit degradation can rapidly increase.

263           The WOB measures the amount of downward force exerted on the bit during drilling. Due  
264 to the hardness of intrusions, ROP can drop significantly; to counteract this, the driller will increase  
265 the WOB to maintain high ROP (Fig. 3).

266           If drilling through an igneous intrusion, the WOB and rotations per minute (RPM) of the drill  
267 bit are not closely controlled, the drill head can become stuck and 'lock-up', resulting in increasing  
268 torque on the drillstring. If torque on the drillstring continues to increase to critical levels, it can cause  
269 'twist off' of the drillstring from the bottom hole assembly in the well bore.

270           As igneous intrusions commonly contain cooling fractures, are brittle and therefore  
271 susceptible to further fracturing during later tectonic movements, issues can also occur with loss of  
272 drilling mud (used to maintain wellbore integrity and to prevent an influx of pressure and fluids into  
273 the wellbore). Loss of drilling mud is not only costly, but the mud is also crucial to maintaining stable  
274 downhole conditions, cuttings return and importantly, control the potential influx of fluids into the  
275 wellbore.

## 214/28-1 Mud log



276      ++ Igneous Intrusions      Claystone

277 Figure 3: Typical ROP and WOB response drilling through igneous intrusions in the 214/28-1 well.

### 278 FSB INTRUSIONS STATISTICS

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280 From statistical analysis of the intrusions encountered by wells in the FSB, it is possible to gather data  
 281 about the intrusions and their various characteristics such as abundance and average thicknesses  
 282 (Schofield *et al.*, 2015). In total, 251 intrusions have been identified in the FSB wells based on log  
 283 descriptions, petrophysical response and where possible, seismic to well ties.

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285 It has been possible to determine the following about the FSSC:

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- 287 • Average intrusion thickness: 14.9 m (minimum thickness: 6 cm and max thickness: 277 m)

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- Average depth of intrusions: 3579 m true vertical depth subsea (TVDSS). (shallowest: 1709 m and deepest: 5755 m)
- Claystone is the most common host rock lithology with 245 of the 251 total intrusions emplaced into claystone/shale.
- 8% of intrusions encountered are evolved. These evolved compositions range from diorite to rhyolite and have a higher silica content.
- 75% of intrusions encountered occur in Cretaceous sediments.
- 24% of intrusions encountered occur in Palaeocene sediments.
- 1% of intrusions encountered occur in Jurassic sediments (this figure is highly biased due to few wells penetrations in the Jurassic– see discussion below)

305 The above statistics, however, need to be taken in context of the data bias as exploration wells are  
306 typically situated away from areas that contain a large number of seismically resolvable intrusions.  
307 However, in terms of average thickness, when the well results are compared against wells which have  
308 accidentally targeted areas of high intrusion density (e.g. 164/7-1 in the Rockall Basin which  
309 encountered 76 intrusions over an 1800m thick interval; the average thickness is 11m Archer *et al.*,  
310 2005) the average thickness value of c. 15m appears to be a reasonable estimate for offshore basins  
311 along the Atlantic Margin.

312 In terms of the stratigraphic successions which host the most intrusions, factors like total  
313 depth of the well will affect whether intrusions are present or not. From both well and seismic data,  
314 it is clear that intrusions are prevalent throughout the Cretaceous succession. However, well  
315 penetrations of older successions in basinal settings (e.g. Jurassic) are limited within the FSB (Fig. 1)  
316 and tend to be focused along the basin margins (e.g. Judd High and Erlend High) where there are fewer  
317 intrusions, therefore introducing a strong sampling bias. Despite this, the fact that intrusions have been  
318 sampled within the Jurassic, even on basin highs, suggests that the percentage of intrusions in basinal  
319 area of the Jurassic (and older strata) is likely to be much higher than the 1% based on the current  
320 well data.

321 The data is also biased towards intrusions ranging in thickness below 50 m, as intrusions thicker than  
322 this will generally be visible on seismic data and therefore likely to be avoided during drilling activities

323 (Schofield et al. 2015). A further bias also exists based on the age of the well since increased knowledge  
 324 about the basin through drilling activity increases the chance of recognising igneous bodies within  
 325 seismic data, and de-risks the likelihood of accidentally encountering them (Table 2). Continued future  
 326 improvements in seismic data will likely reduce the number of igneous intrusions encountered in  
 327 exploration wells by virtue of better detectability (Schofield et al., 2015).

328

Time Period	Number of Exploration Wells that Encountered Intrusions	Number of Intrusions encountered by exploration wells	Average Thickness of Intrusions
1970-1980	3	20	16.8
1980-1990	12	170	14.5
1990-2000	6	7	52.9
2000-present	8	40	14.5

329

330 Table 2: Intrusion statistics over time. The increase in the number of intrusions encountered during  
 331 the 2000-present period is likely a result of companies targeting sub-basalt prospects, particularly in  
 332 the Faroes sector (e.g. Brugdan) with the extrusive basalt making it difficult to image intrusions.

333

334 **FSB EXPLORATION CASE STUDIES I: ISSUES WITH EVOLVED INTRUSIONS AND**  
 335 **SEISMIC IMAGING**

336 To understand the challenges caused by encountering igneous intrusions in the subsurface, it is  
 337 important to summarise some of the key wells and the issues that occurred related to igneous  
 338 intrusions. The summary below, of a number of key wells, was compiled from composite logs, drilling  
 339 reports and seismic data.

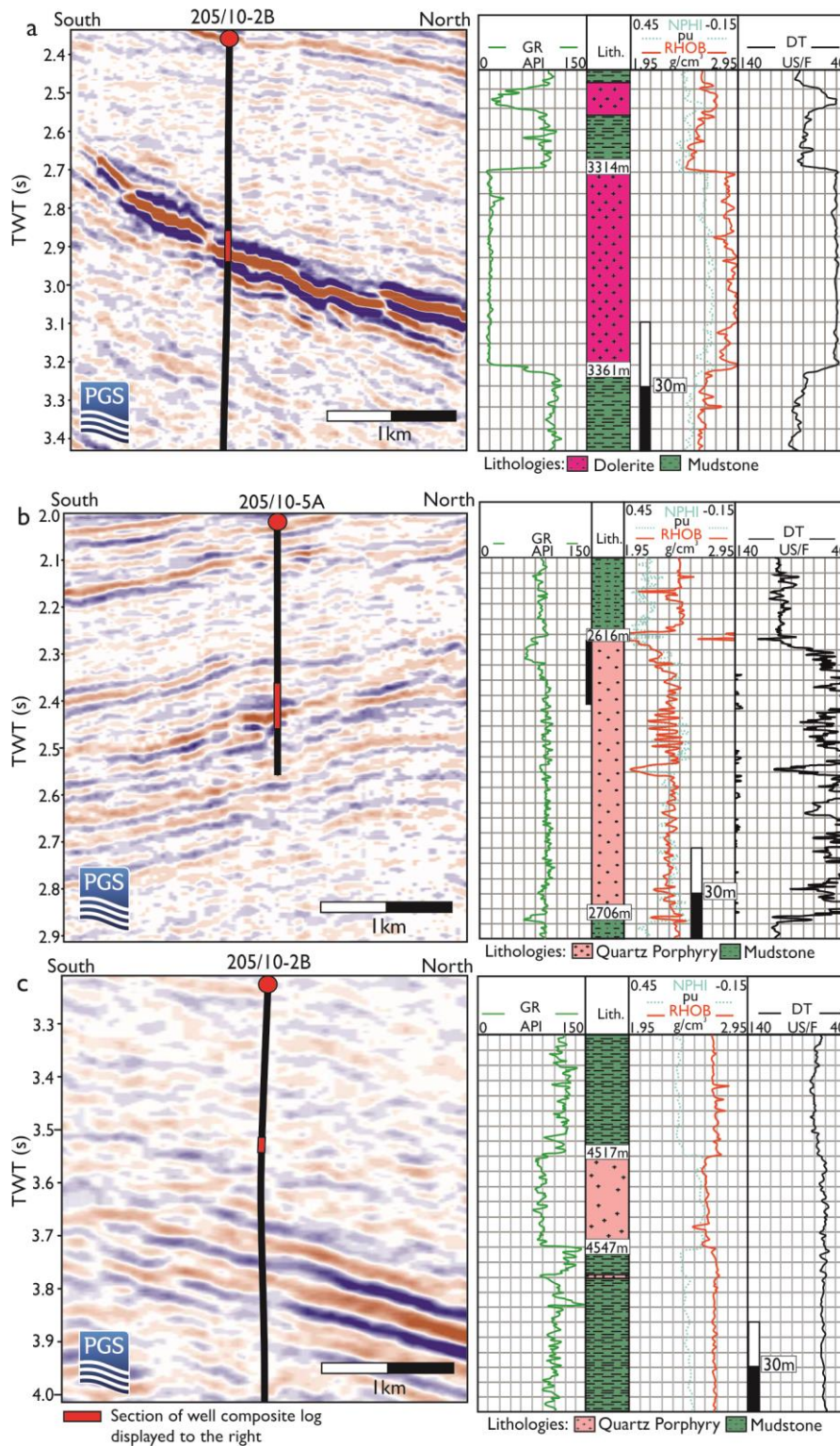
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341 *Wells 205/10-2B and 205/10-5A - Evolved Intrusions*

342 The majority of intrusions within the FSSC that have been encountered in drilling operations have a  
343 basaltic composition and are described as tholeiitic olivine-dolerites (Gibb & Kanaris-Sotiriou, 1988;  
344 Ritchie *et al.*, 2011). However, several of the exploration wells have also encountered more evolved  
345 intrusions ranging from dioritic to rhyolitic compositions. Although some of the more evolved  
346 intrusions were encountered close to igneous centres (e.g. Erlend Igneous Centre wells 209/03-1,  
347 209/04-1A and 209/09-1A; Jolley & Bell, 2002), exploration wells that were drilled in more basinal  
348 locations away from known volcanic centres also encountered more evolved intrusions (Fig. 1). Wells  
349 205/10-2B drilled in 1984 by Britoil and 205/10-5A drilled in 1997 by Chevron located along the Flett  
350 Ridge (Fig. 1), encountered evolved intrusions with compositions varying from dacite to rhyolite.

351 The evolved intrusions in 205/10-2B occurred within a series of stacked basaltic intrusions,  
352 whereas the evolved intrusion within 205/10-5A was the only intrusion encountered within that well.  
353 Figure 4 shows the log and seismic response for the evolved intrusions encountered within the 205/10-  
354 5A and 205/10-2B in comparison to the log response for a basaltic intrusion encountered in 205/10-  
355 2B. Figure 4 illustrates the petrophysical and seismic imaging contrasts between evolved and basaltic  
356 intrusions. Notably, the evolved intrusion in 205/10-2B is acoustically similar to the host rock shales  
357 and the density also drops compared to the host rock shales. The gamma response is lower than the  
358 surrounding shales but is not as low as the basaltic intrusions encountered by 205/10-2B (Fig. 4a). The  
359 evolved intrusion in 205/10-5A also has a lower density compared to the host rock shales, whereas  
360 the gamma ray log shows minimal changes between the host rock and the intrusion (Fig. 4b & c). The  
361 significance of these petrophysical differences and the issues of identification of evolved intrusions  
362 within the subsurface is discussed later.





363

364 Figure 4: Petrophysical and seismic imaging contrasts between basaltic intrusions and evolved  
 365 intrusions. a) 47m thick basaltic intrusion encountered in 205/10-2B. b) 90m thick evolved intrusion  
 366 encountered in 205/10-5A. c) 30m thick evolved intrusion encountered in 205/10-2B. Seismic data  
 367 courtesy of PGS (PGS FSB MegaSurvey Plus).

368

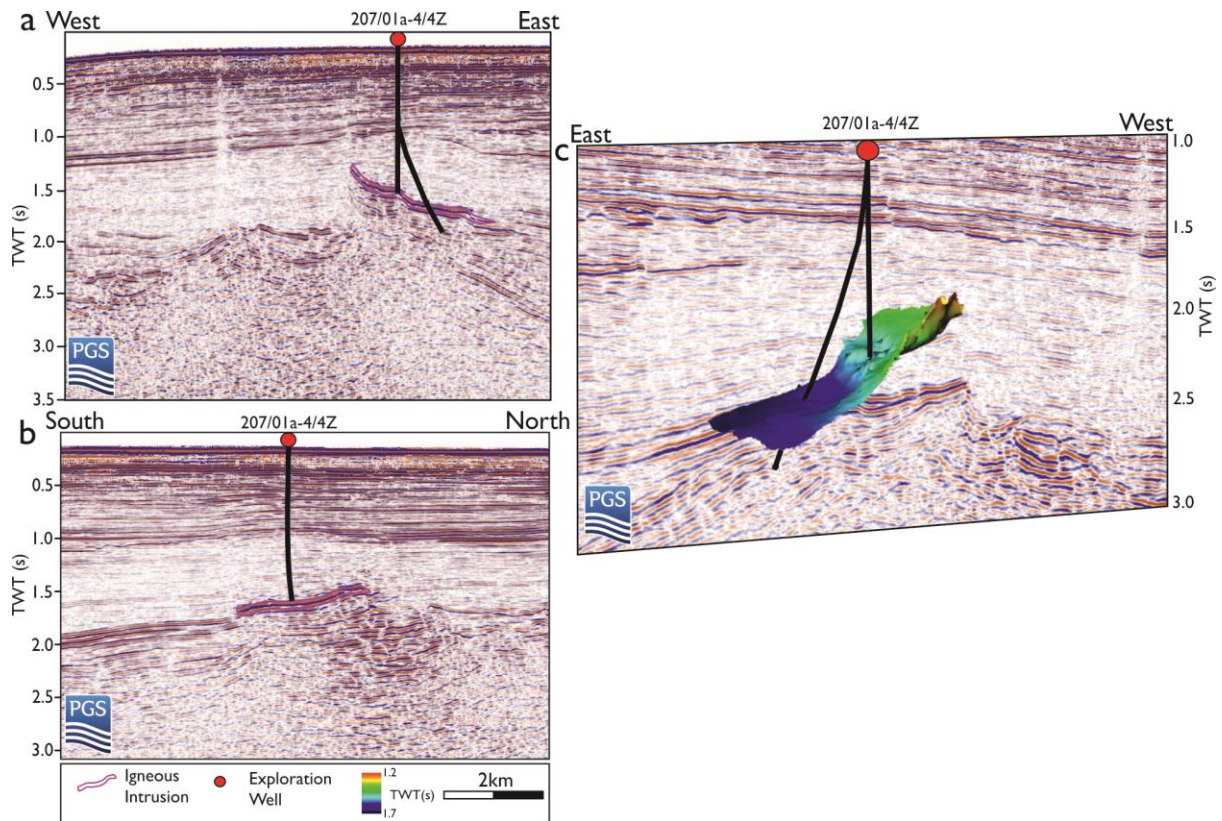
369

370 *207/01a-4/4Z - False Exploration Targets*

371 Well 207/01a-4 was drilled on the Rona Ridge in 1990 by Texaco Britain Ltd (Fig. 1). The reservoir  
372 targets were sediments deposited on the flanks of the Rona Ridge including Carboniferous/Devonian  
373 sandstones, Jurassic sandstones and Lower Cretaceous sandstones. These targets were not  
374 encountered during drilling; however, the top of a 213 m thick basaltic intrusion was encountered at  
375 1584 MDBRT, 25m deeper than the first prognosed reservoir horizons were expected to occur.  
376 Upon penetrating the intrusion, the decision was taken to core the intrusion to determine what the  
377 lithology was. A virtual seismic profile (VSP) look ahead was also conducted, which showed that the  
378 intrusion was potentially 198m thick. Based on the results of core and the VSP log, the decision was  
379 made to sidetrack the well at a depth of 618mBRT down dip to the SE (207/01a-4/4Z End of Well  
380 Report).

381 The well drilled for a further 1369m before encountering the intrusion again at a depth of  
382 1987 MDBRT. The sidetracked well drilled the entire intrusion, which was 213m thick. At the time  
383 of drilling, it is likely that the intrusion was poorly imaged on seismic data and the intrusion's close  
384 proximity to the Rona Ridge would make it difficult to distinguish a high amplitude intrusion from a  
385 high amplitude basement reflector. Seismic data at the original well location reveals that the well  
386 penetrated the intrusion, and then the sidetracked well (207/01a-4Z) was drilled to avoid the intrusion  
387 but simply encountered the deeper southern wing of the intrusion (Fig. 5).

388 Upon entering the intrusion, ROP in both the original and sidetracked well dropped from  
389 25m/hr to 2m/hr; additionally, there were issues with bit wear (207/01a-4/4Z Geological Report). In  
390 the case of the 207/01a-4/4Z sidetrack, this resulted in the drilling of an undergauge hole, that  
391 subsequently required reaming to prevent the drill string becoming stuck, resulting in further NPT.



392

393 Figure 5: a) Seismic cross line showing the intrusion encountered in the 207/01a-4 well, b) seismic  
 394 inline across the intrusion encountered in the 207/01a-4 well. In this line, the intrusion is less obvious  
 395 and looks concordant with Rona Ridge high amplitude reflector, c) 3D image of the horizons  
 396 interpretation of the top surface of the intrusion illustrating how the sidetrack encountered the lower  
 397 wing of the intrusion. Seismic data courtesy of PGS (PGS FSB MegaSurvey Plus).

398

399 **FSB EXPLORATION CASE STUDIES 2: DRILLING ISSUES ASSOCIATED WITH**  
 400 **INTRUSIONS**

401 *Wells 214/28-1 - Drilling Issues (Gas Kicks and Bit Integrity)*

402 Exploration well 214/28-1, drilled in 1984 by Esso Exploration and Production UK, encountered a total  
 403 of 9 intrusions between 3816 and 5020m MDBRT (measured depth below rotary table) in Lower  
 404 Paleocene and Upper Cretaceous sediments (Tassone et al. 2014). These intrusions resulted in  
 405 numerous drilling issues towards the lower half of the well, most notably the penetration of a series  
 406 of gas charged intrusions between 4598-5014m MDBRT, which led to the temporary loss of well  
 407 control and drilling fluids being ejected out of the well onto the kelly bushing and rig floor (Fig. 6).

408 Well 214/28-I also experienced problems with drill bit integrity and low ROP. Six drill bits  
409 were required to drill a 322m section in the Middle Paleocene which contained four intrusions with a  
410 combined thickness of only 52m, whereas a similar 400m sedimentary section with no intrusions in  
411 the nearby 214/27-I offset well required only 3 drill bits.

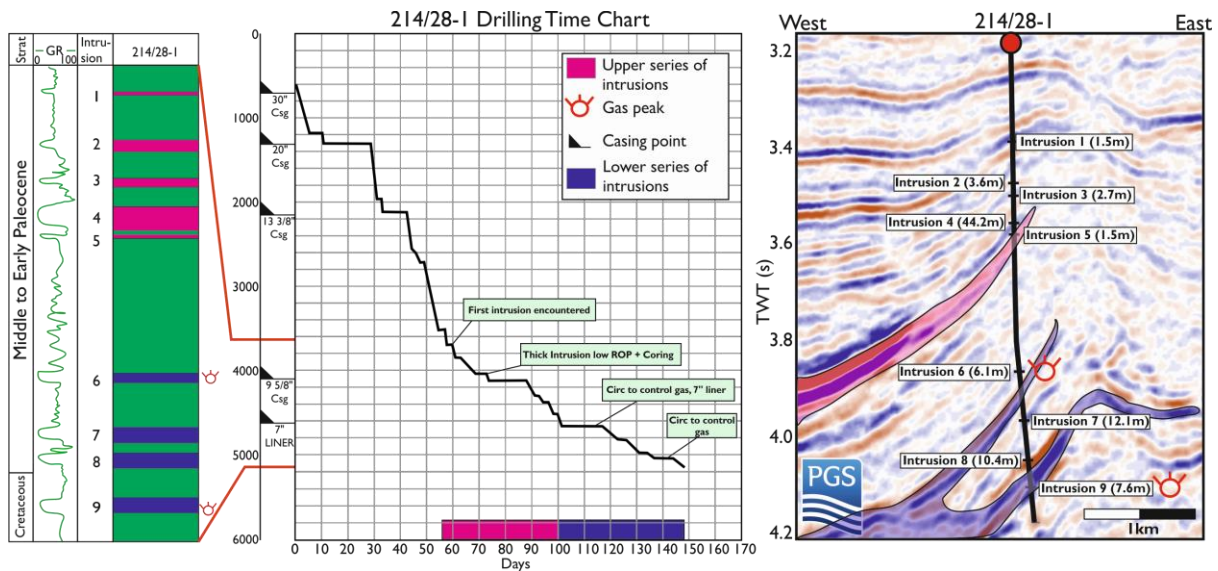
412 The largest intrusion encountered in the 214/28-I well occurred at 3992m MDBRT and was  
413 44m thick. This intrusion had ROP of less than 1.5m/hr, whereas the host rock sandstones had ROP  
414 values of 3-6m/hr. Despite the thickness of this intrusion and the benefit of modern 3D seismic data,  
415 the intrusion is extremely difficult to fully image (Fig. 6).

416 The sixth deepest intrusion encountered at 4596m MDBRT was 6m thick and was one of the  
417 two intrusions within the well that was gas charged and required drilling to be stopped whilst the well  
418 was circulated to bring the gas influx under control. During this process, the mud weight was raised  
419 from 10.7 pounds per gallon (ppg) to 13.2 ppg which brought the gas influx in the well to acceptable  
420 levels. In total, this intervention incurred 15 days of non-productive time (NPT) and also resulted in  
421 the premature setting of the 7" liner which ultimately meant the well was unable to reach its intended  
422 TD (Fig. 6).

423 The eighth deepest intrusion encountered at 4927m MDBRT was 10m thick and resulted in  
424 extremely low ROPs which dropped from 2.5m/h through shales to 0.3m/hr through the intrusion.  
425 When the bit was pulled, it was found to be highly worn with a considerable amount of metal shavings  
426 found in the drilling mud. A new bit was deployed, but slow ROP continued through the intrusion  
427 with only 13m drilled in 34 hours (Fig. 6).

428 The ninth and deepest intrusion encountered in the 214/28-I well occurred at 5013m MDBRT  
429 and was 7.6m thick. This intrusion was also found to be gas charged and the resulting influx of gas  
430 into the well bore resulted in mud flowing out over the kelly bushing. Drilling ceased and the well  
431 was shut in, whilst the mud weight was raised again, to 14.3 ppg. Although the mud weight was  
432 sufficient to control the pressure of the influxing gas, the high mud weight also led to mud losses.  
433 These losses were likely the result of induced fracturing of the surrounding host rock strata. This  
434 incident resulted in a total of 7 days of NPT whilst the gas levels were monitored (Fig. 6).

435 In total on well 214/28-1, the issues with gas charged intrusions and drill bit integrity resulted  
 436 in a combined NPT of 22 days on top of the slow drilling rates (Fig. 6). The presence of the 9 intrusions  
 437 was unexpected in the pre-drill scenario and the efforts to control the gas charged intrusions resulted  
 438 in a premature termination of the well before it had reached its intended exploration target.



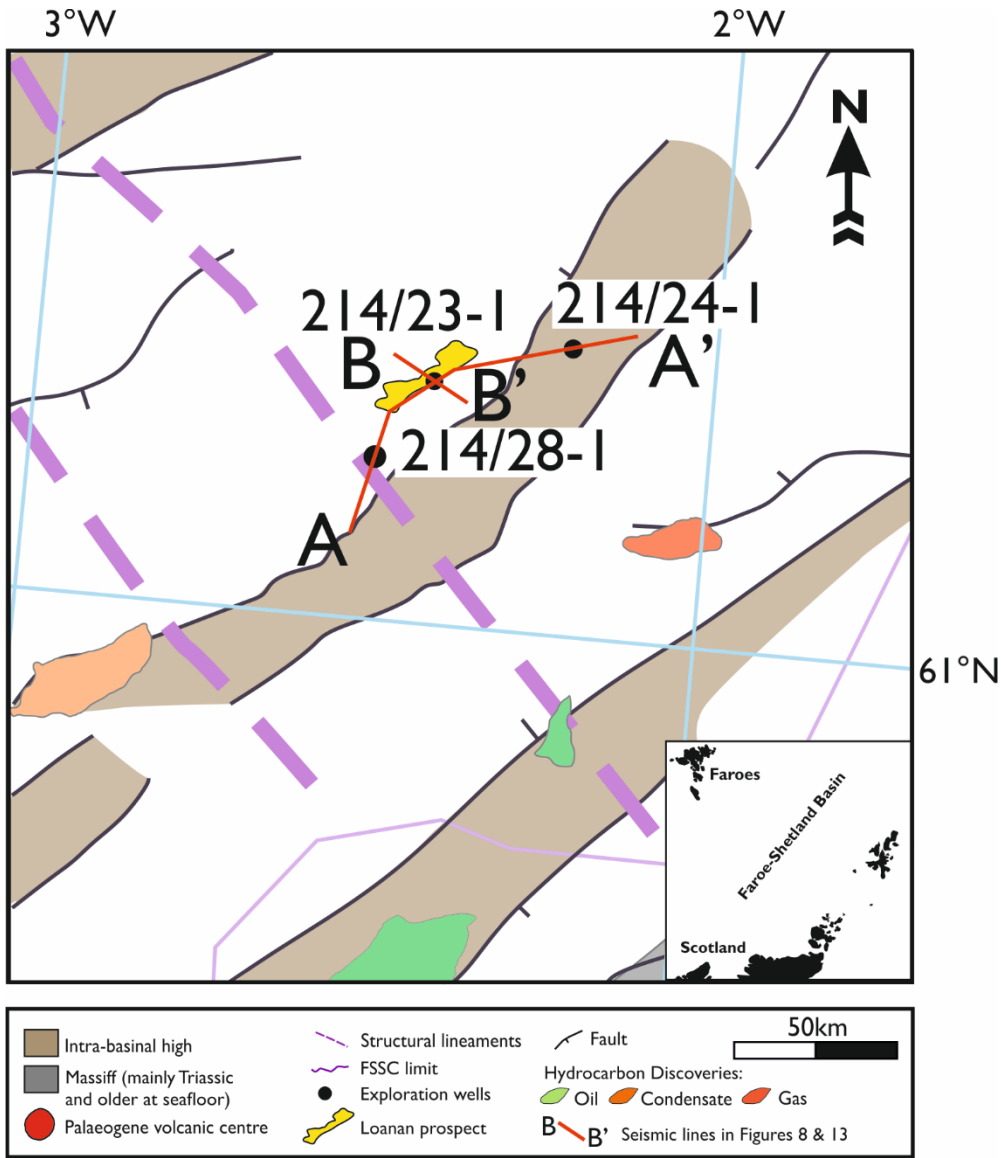
439  
 440 Figure 6: From left to right: composite log from 214/28-1 which encountered 9 dolerite sills; drilling  
 441 chart from 214/28-1 showing the drilling issues encountered whilst drilling the sills; seismic line  
 442 showing the amplitudes associated with the sills. Seismic data courtesy of PGS (PGS FSB  
 443 MegaSurvey Plus).

444  
 445 *Well 214/23-1 - Loanan Case Study*

446  
 447 The Loanan prospect (214/23-1) was drilled in 2016 by JX Nippon Exploration & Production (U.K)  
 448 Ltd (Fig. 7). The prognosed primary and secondary reservoir targets were Middle Paleocene turbidite  
 449 reservoirs. Importantly, the closest offset well to Loanan is 214/28-1, which as described above,  
 450 experienced significant problems whilst drilling due to the presence of igneous intrusions.

451 The Loanan primary target was within a structural closure, located at the edge of a forced fold  
 452 (Schofield et al. 2015), and located 0.35s TWT (~600m's) above a large sill that was the continuation  
 453 of the sills encountered in the 214/28-1 exploration well (Fig. 8). The secondary target was located  
 454 300m deeper, approx. 0.155s TWT (~260m) from the imaged top of the sill.

455



456

457 Figure 7: Map showing the location of the Loanan prospect relative to 214/28-1 which encountered  
 458 overpressured intrusions.

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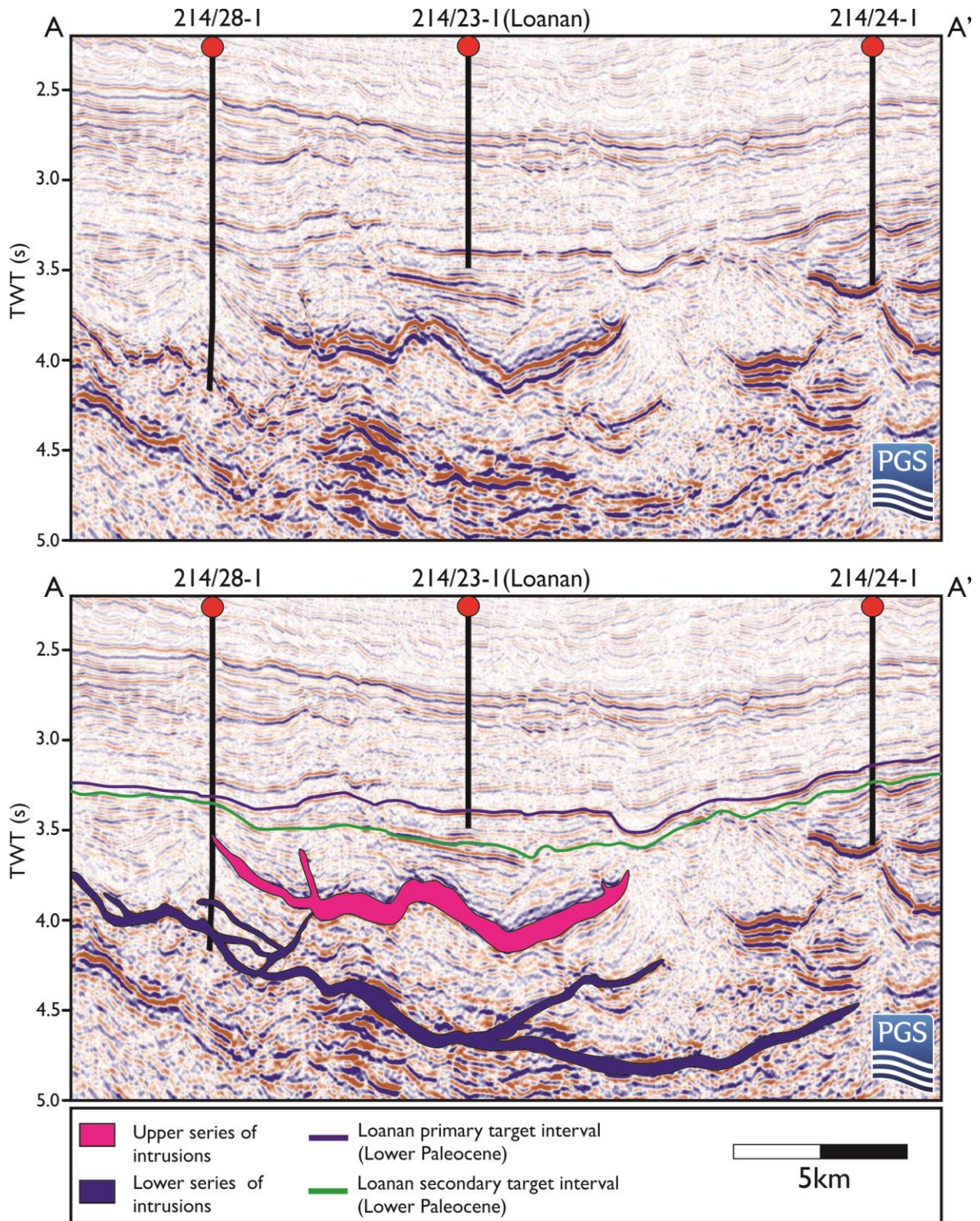
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469

470 Figure 8: Arbitrary seismic line showing the Loanan target and its location relative to sills encountered  
 471 in 214/28-I, which caused problems during drilling. Seismic data courtesy of PGS (PGS FSB  
 472 MegaSurvey Plus).

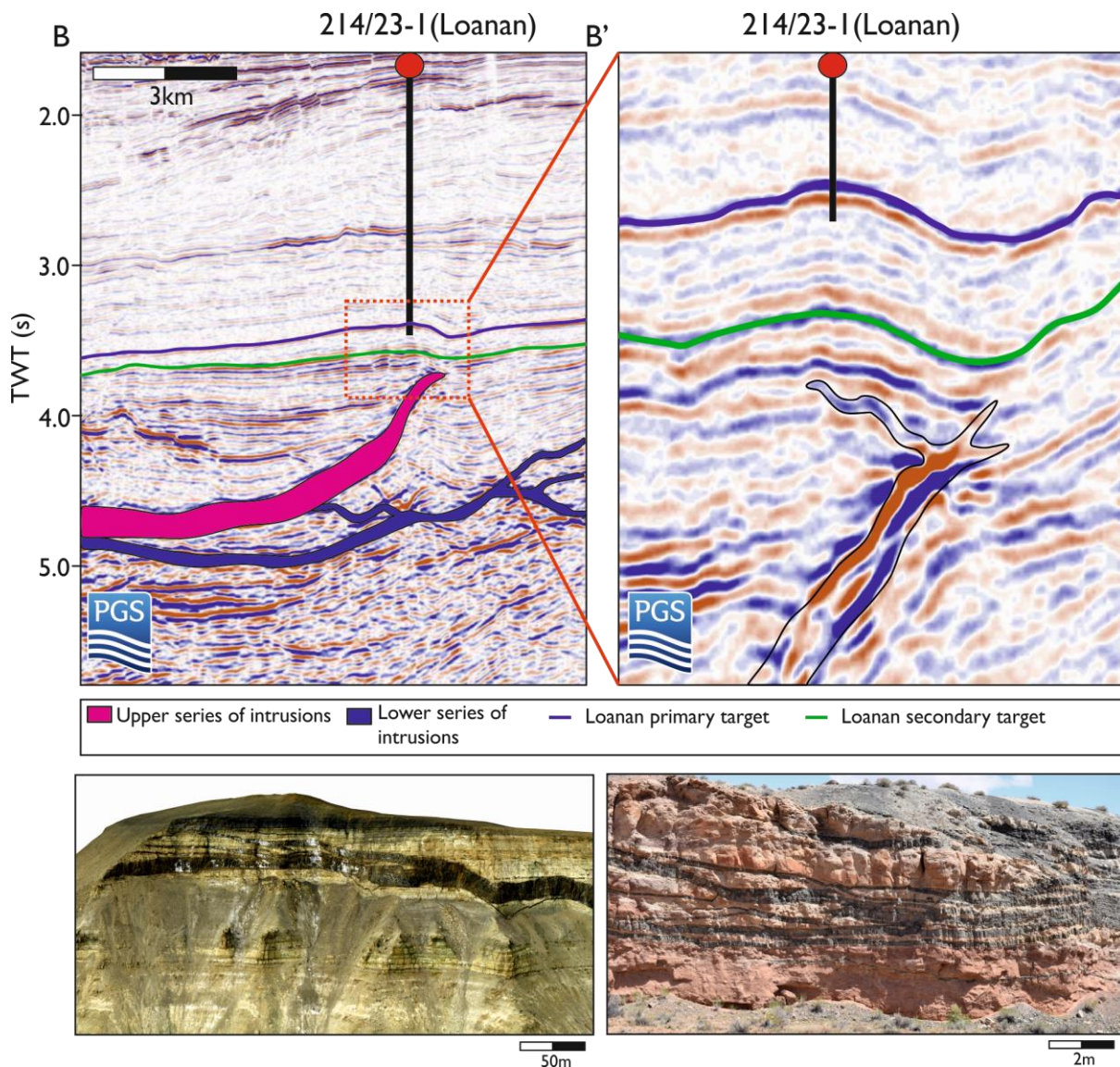
473

474 During the well design process, concern had been expressed about encountering potentially

475 overpressured intrusions, specifically in the secondary target, based on the offset well 214/28-I.

476 Although the planned TD for the Loanan was located some 400 metres above the stratigraphic level  
 477 containing intrusions which caused the drilling issues in 214/28-1, seismic data appeared to image a  
 478 series of cross-cutting intrusions potentially connecting the ‘family’ of intrusions which caused  
 479 problems in the 214/28-1 well to the large intrusion which sat below the Loanan secondary target.  
 480 On close inspection of the seismic data, it appears that thin intrusions, below the tuning thickness,  
 481 potentially intrude the secondary Loanan target (Fig. 9)

482 Given the historical risk in offset wells and the uncertainty in encountering intrusions,  
 483 particularly towards the base of the well, the well design catered for the small, but not negligible risk  
 484 of encountering an overpressured, gas charged sill.



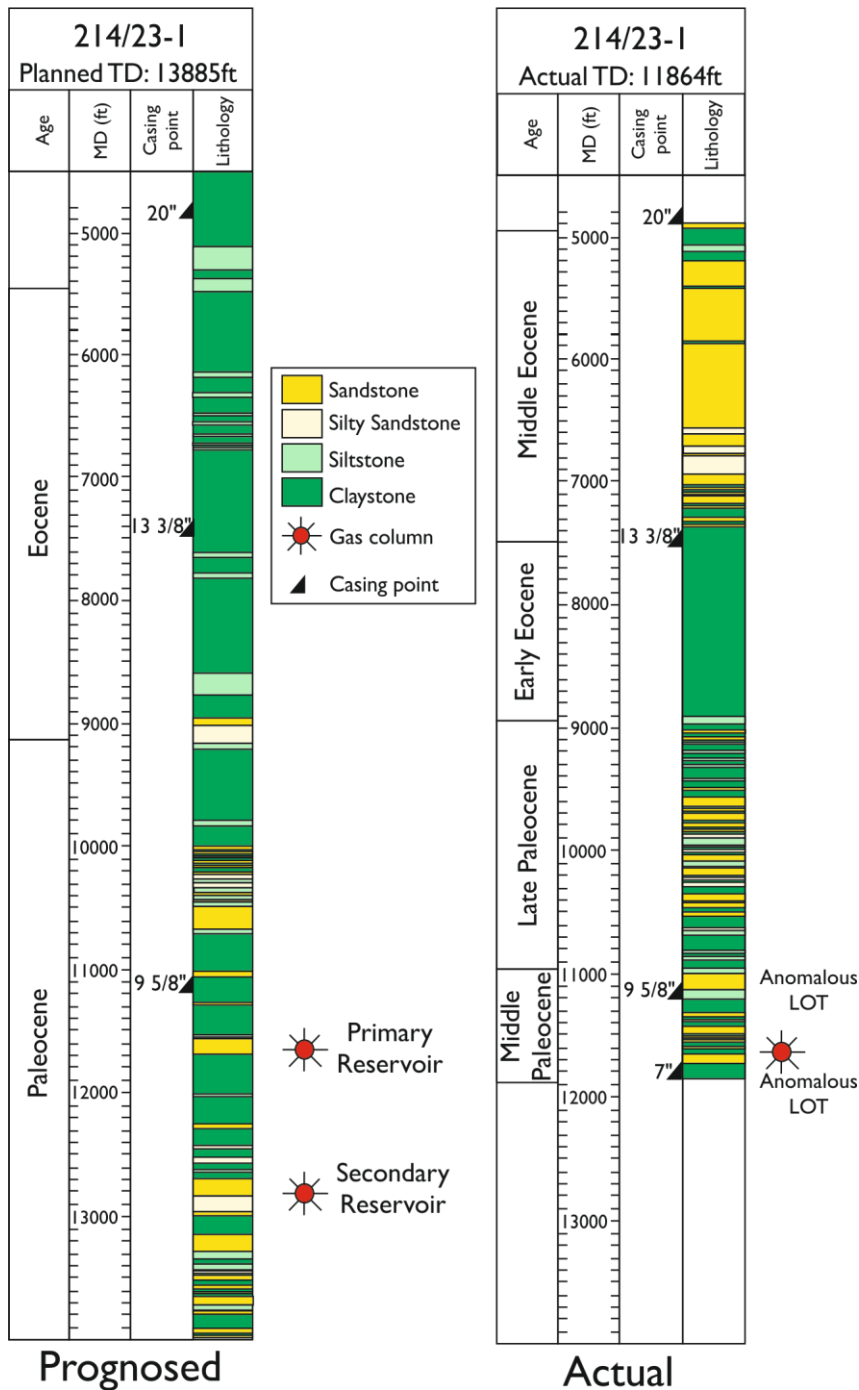
485  
 486 Figure 9: Seismic line showing the proximity of the Loanan target to the large sill beneath. Seismic  
 487 line on the right shows the potential that there are small offset intrusions bifurcating from the large



488 intrusion towards the Loanan secondary target. There could also be additional smaller intrusions  
489 which are not seismically resolvable. Small bifurcating intrusions emanating from a larger intrusion is  
490 seen in outcrop on Jameson Island, East Greenland (modified from Eide *et al.*, 2017) and the San Rafael,  
491 Utah. Intrusions splays are a common feature in siliciclastic units (Eide *et al.*, 2017). Seismic data  
492 courtesy of PGS (PGS FSB MegaSurvey Plus).

493

494 In line with pre-drill expectations, the Loanan well encountered no intrusions near the primary  
495 target. Importantly, in addition to this, the leak of test (LOT) taken below the 9 5/8" shoe (146m  
496 above the top of the primary reservoir) was significantly lower than expected, suggesting that the rock  
497 formation was weaker than prognosed in pre-drill estimates. After the primary target had been  
498 penetrated, a second LOT was conducted to assess whether drilling could safely proceed given the  
499 concern of encountering an overpressured intrusion. The result of this LOT was 13.48ppg equivalent  
500 mud weight (EMW), again significantly below pre-drill estimates and lower than the previous LOT  
501 conducted 147 m above the primary target. This low LOT was deemed insufficient to provide  
502 adequate kick tolerance should an overpressured intrusions have been encountered deeper in the  
503 section towards TD. The decision was therefore taken to prematurely TD'd the well, short of the  
504 secondary target (Fig. 10) (214/23-1 End of Well Report).



505

506 Figure 10: Prognosed vs actual stratigraphy of the Loanan well. The well was prematurely TD as a  
 507 result of the anomalously low LOT below the 9 5/8" and 7 5/8" shoe. Modified from 214/23-1 End of  
 508 Well Report.

509

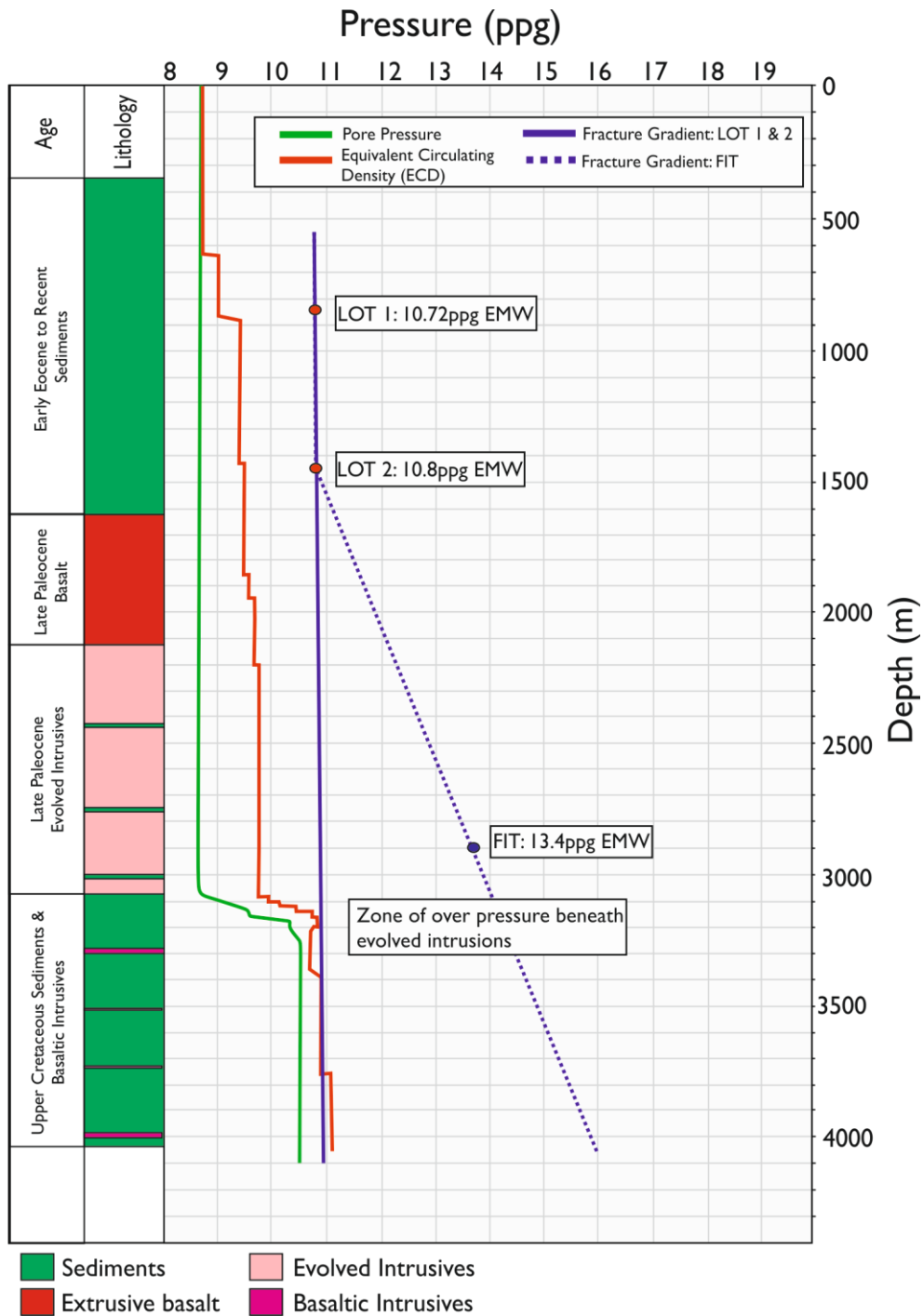
510 *Well 209/04-1A - Drilling Issues (Overpressure)*

511 Well 209/04-1A drilled in 1985 by North Sea Sun Oil Co was drilled on the Erlend High near to the

512 Erlend Volcanic Centre. This well encountered a series of evolved intrusions and also a series of

513 basaltic intrusions. At a depth of 3085m MDBRT, a sudden lithology change from a thick rhyolitic

514 intrusion to Upper Cretaceous claystone subsequently lead to an increase in the pore pressure. This  
 515 increase in pore pressure required the mud weight to be raised from 8.7 ppg to 10.8 ppg to contain  
 516 the pore pressure increase, although, like 214/28-1, this also resulted in mud losses (Fig. 11).



517  
 518 Figure 11: Pore pressure chart for the 209/04-1A well. The chart shows the sudden increase in  
 519 pressure when drilling out of the evolved intrusions into the underlying claystones and the need to  
 520 raise the ECD to mitigate this. However, raising the ECD resulted in mud losses.

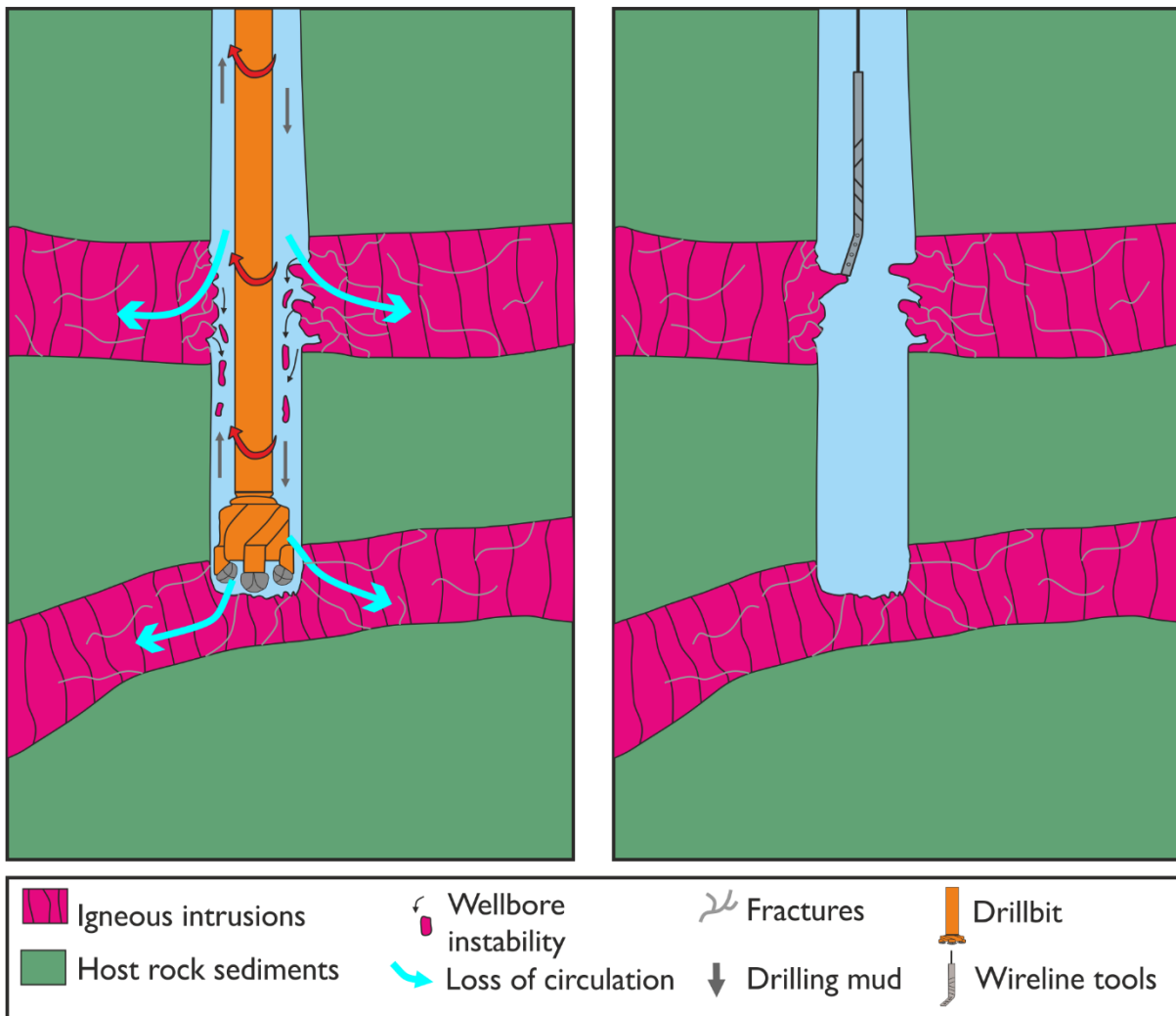
521  
 522

523 *Well 208/15-1A – Drilling Issues (Mud Losses and Wireline Running Issues)*

524

525 Well 208/15-1A, drilled in 1979 by BP, encountered 7 basaltic intrusions in the Lower Paleocene  
526 succession between 1923m to 3123 MDBRT, with a range between 2.5m to 100m in thickness. A 60  
527 m thick intrusion encountered at 1935 MDBRT incurred significant mud losses. The losses within this  
528 single intrusion were classed as severe and ranged from 3m<sup>3</sup>/hr (18bbls/hr) to 20m<sup>3</sup>/hr (126bbls/hr)  
529 and eventually resulted in total loss of circulation (208/15-1A End of Well Report). During this period,  
530 drilling was continued although the lithology log had to be determined based on ROP alone as there  
531 were no cuttings returned to the surface. In total, 23,000bbls (approx. 3.6 million litres) of mud were  
532 lost drilling the 1.2km section containing the seven intrusions, with losses as high as 60m<sup>3</sup>/hr  
533 (377bbls/hr) (208/15-1A End of Well Report). To maintain well control whilst drilling through the 60  
534 m thick intrusion, seawater had to be pumped down the wellbore to maintain a static annulus, which  
535 resulted in a well which was out of balance. In an attempt to deal with the mud losses, loss of  
536 circulation material (e.g. bark, mineral fibre, hair, mica flakes, plastic, coconut husk, limestone  
537 chippings), was pumped down the well, in an attempt to try and mitigate the losses but this had limited  
538 success.

539 This section with intrusions also had further issues when it came to logging runs, with  
540 problems running wireline tools. The tools were frequently held up on ledges (208/15-1A End of Well  
541 Report) (Fig. 12). In total, the logging and loss of circulation issues resulted in 12 days of NPT.



542

543 Figure 12: Schematic illustrating the potential impacts intrusions can have on drilling operations  
 544 including, loss of circulation fluids, wellbore instability and problems running wireline logs.

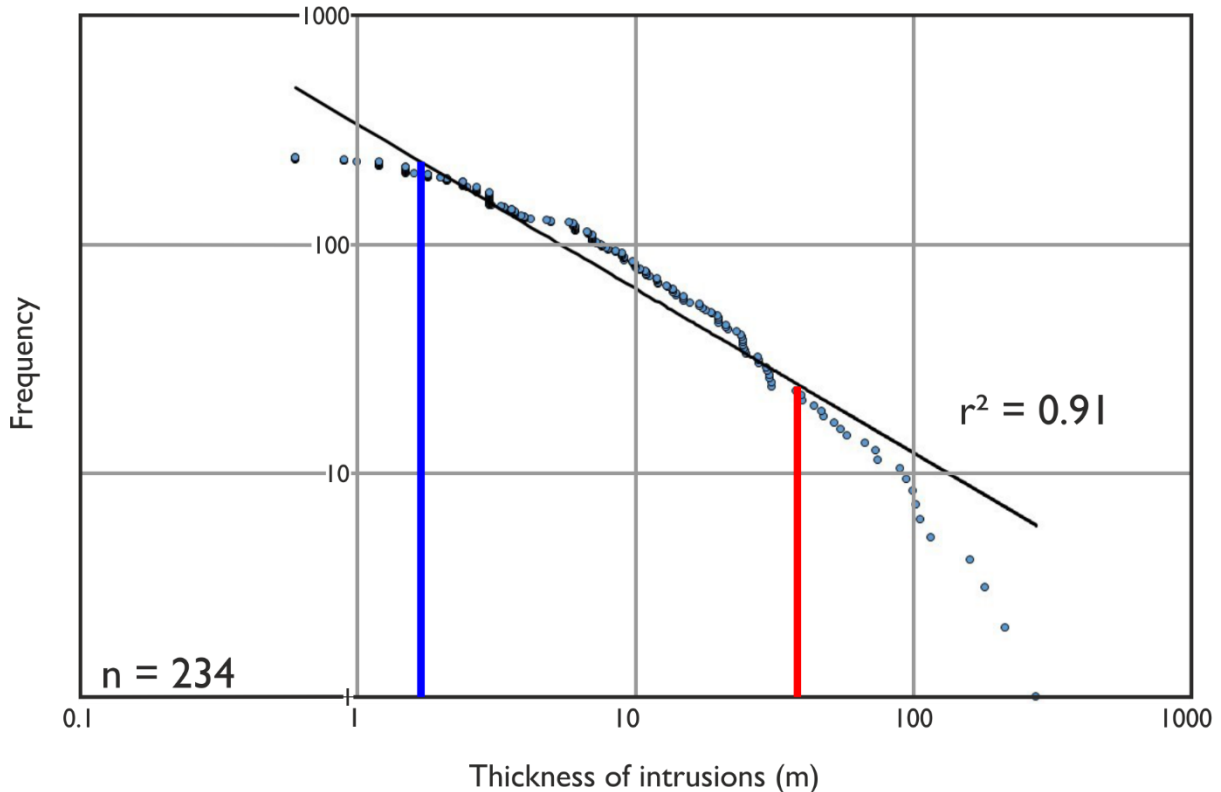
545

546 **DISCUSSION**

547 *Underestimation of Intrusions on Seismic and Log Data*

548 When the number of intrusions in FSB wells is plotted on a log-log scale, the trend for intrusions  
 549 encountered below a metre thick deviates from the normal trend line (Fig. 13). However, it is unlikely  
 550 that this is a true representation of the intrusions in the subsurface but rather a function of the difficulty  
 551 of resolving sub-metre thick intrusions in wireline or cuttings data. This interpretation is corroborated  
 552 by core data from 205/10-2B, which retrieved a section of Cretaceous sediments intruded by 15 thin  
 553 basaltic intrusions ranging in thicknesses from 5-30cm, with a cumulative thickness of 2m (Fig. 14).  
 554 When the wireline data across this cored interval is examined, no notable variations in the

555 petrophysical response are observed. In the absence of core, it is unlikely that the intrusions would  
 556 have been noticed (Fig. 14). Observations of intrusions in the field also indicate that there are  
 557 numerous thin intrusions which propagate off larger intrusions indicating that there is potential for  
 558 many more intrusions in the FSB than well and seismic data alludes to. This would have important  
 559 implications for assumptions about melt volumes in the FSB and other magmatically influenced basins  
 560 worldwide.



FSB Exploration wells:

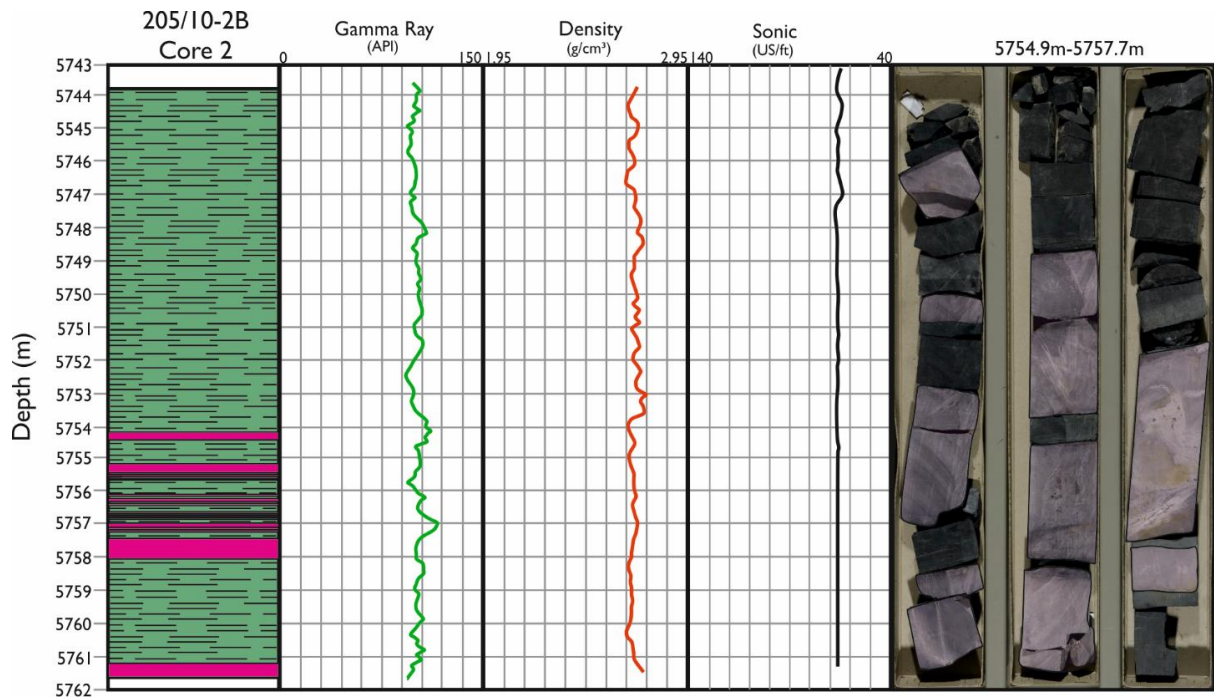
204/14-1, 204/14-2, 204/16-1, 205/10-2B, 205/10-5A, 206/13-1, 207/01-4Z, 208/15-1A  
 208/17-1, 208/17-3, 208/19-1, 208/21-1, 209/03-1, 209/04-1A, 209/06-1, 209/09-1, 209/12-  
 1, 214/19-1, 214/24-1, 214/27-1, 214/28-1, 219/20-1, 219/28-2Z, 6004, 8a-1, 6004/16-1Z,  
 6005/15-1, 6104/21-1

561

562 Figure 13: Intrusion thickness vs frequency plot for exploration wells in the FSB (plotted on a log-log  
 563 scale). The blue line indicates the point below which thin intrusions are below the petrophysical  
 564 resolution; the red line indicates the point above which intrusions are so thick that they are easily  
 565 identifiable in the subsurface and therefore avoided. The intrusions between the blue and red line  
 566 represent the majority of intrusion thicknesses in the FSB and are typically below seismic resolution  
 567 (and therefore would not be recognised pre-drill) but easily resolvable petrophysically once logs have  
 568 been acquired.

569

570



571

572 Figure 14: Core from the 205/10-2B well, which contains 10 additional intrusions varying in thickness  
 573 from 10-30cm compared to the petrophysical response through the section. Note that the intrusions  
 574 are too thin to be resolved and therefore without the core data, would never have been recognised.

575

576 Previous work on intrusions on the Atlantic Margin has focussed on the readily imaged and  
 577 often visually striking mafic sills (Gibb & Kanaris-Sotiriou, 1988; Bell & Butcher, 2002; Smallwood &  
 578 Maresh, 2004; Archer *et al.*, 2005; Thomson & Schofield, 2008; Schofield *et al.*, 2012; Schofield *et al.*,  
 579 2015). Schofield *et al.* (2015, 2017) demonstrates that the number (and total thickness) of basaltic  
 580 intrusions in seismic data along the Atlantic Margin is already likely underestimated. However, as  
 581 detailed previously, evolved intrusions are particularly difficult to identify within seismic data and even  
 582 if drilled serendipitously, their discovery would rely on the careful interpretation of petrophysical well  
 583 logs combined with cuttings and core.

584 The above observations raise the likelihood that within the FSB and Atlantic Margin, there are  
 585 considerably more evolved intrusions than previously thought. As the observations from well 205/10-  
 586 5A indicate, even a 90m thick evolved intrusion is not easily identifiable seismically, on wireline data  
 587 or indeed during drilling (205/10-5A Geological Report). From the work of Schofield *et al.* (2015), an  
 588 intrusion of 90 m thick is statistically less common, with most intrusion thicknesses falling in a 0-40 m  
 589 range. It may therefore be the case that within FSB wells and the wider Atlantic Margin, evolved

590 intrusions may have been penetrated but gone completely unrecorded in wells and simply classified as  
591 sandstones. The only indication that may corroborate the presence of an evolved igneous intrusion  
592 would be a drop in ROP. The difficulties identifying igneous intrusions in the subsurface demonstrates  
593 the importance of integrating datasets, but as Watson et al. (2017) highlight, the drive to cut costs in  
594 future exploration often results in a reluctance to acquire core and run full wireline suites over non  
595 prospective intervals, intensifying the issue of misidentification of intrusions within sedimentary basins.

596

#### 597 *False Exploration Targets – Basaltic Intrusions vs Basement*

598 The 207/01a-4&4Z exploration well targeted high amplitude reflectors which were believed to be  
599 sedimentary targets but turned out to be igneous intrusions. Despite the failure of these wells, they  
600 yield important lessons about exploration in rifted margins with pervasive igneous intrusions.

601 The large intrusion encountered in 207/01a-4&4Z is an important consideration for future  
602 exploration along the Rona Ridge. Where intrusions have been emplaced along basement highs such  
603 as the Rona Ridge, it can be difficult to differentiate high amplitude reflectors which are associated  
604 with the top basement and high amplitude reflectors associated with igneous intrusions. In the  
605 example of 207/01a-4&4Z, 3D seismic data makes it possible to visualise along strike from the well  
606 location where the intrusion crosscuts stratigraphy and has morphologies indicative of an intrusion.  
607 The identification is aided by the fact that the intrusion is 213m thick and easily resolvable. However  
608 at the top hole location of 207/01a-4, the intrusion appears concordant with the Rona Ridge reflector  
609 and is not clearly identifiable as an igneous body. Future exploration along the Rona Ridge and  
610 particularly future development of the Southern Clair field, where there are abundant intrusions, may  
611 face challenges with differentiating intrusions from the basement horizon.

612

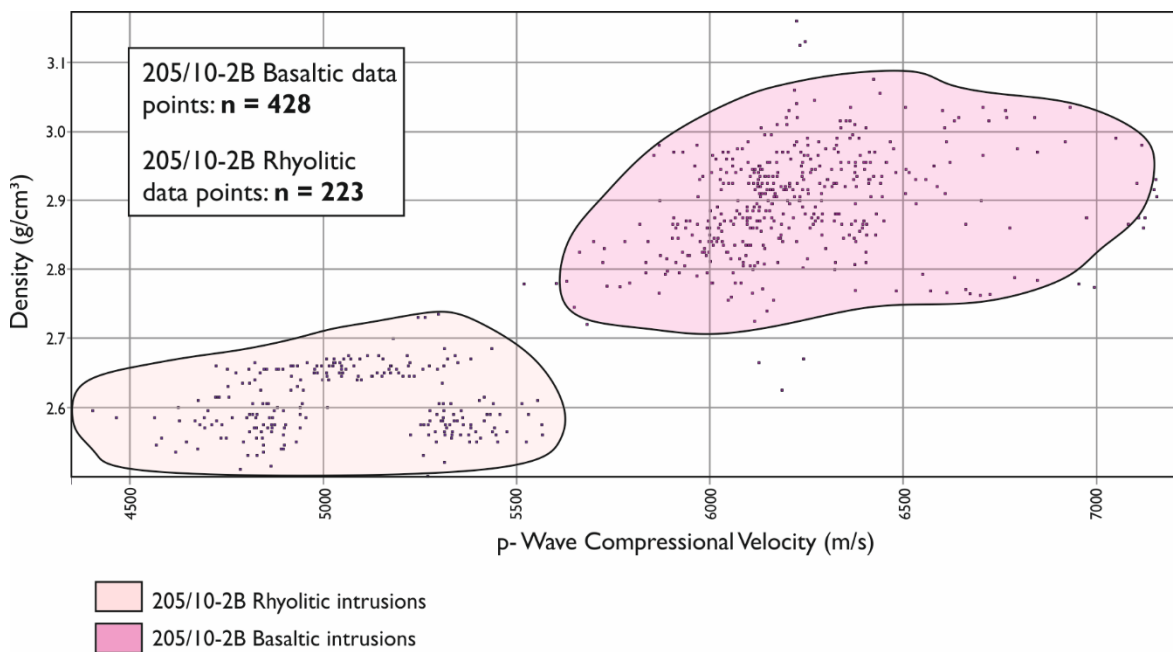
#### 613 *False Exploration Targets - Basaltic vs Evolved in the FSB*

614

615 The distinctly different petrophysical and seismic response between basaltic intrusions and evolved  
616 intrusions (Fig. 4) was demonstrated in the 205/10-5A and 205/10-2B wells. These evolved intrusions  
617 can be misidentified as exploration targets and in order to mitigate this in the future, it is important  
618 to understand why the evolved intrusions have such different petrophysical characteristics.



619 Evolved intrusions differ considerably in petrophysical response to basaltic intrusions due to  
 620 underlying differences in magma and mineral chemistry (Fig 15). In particular, evolved intrusions have  
 621 lower densities and sonic velocities compared to their basaltic counterparts. The sonic velocities and  
 622 densities of the evolved intrusions (e.g. 205/10-5A) are lower as the intrusion mainly consists of  
 623 minerals with lower elastic properties such as quartz (compressional velocity: 5880m/s, density:  
 624 2.65g/cm<sup>3</sup>) and orthoclase feldspar (compressional velocity: 4423m/s, density 2.54g/cm<sup>3</sup>). The  
 625 intrusion encountered by well 205/10-5A was also reported as containing numerous amygdales filled  
 626 with kaolinite (compressional velocity: 6200m/s, density 2.64g/cm<sup>3</sup>; Mavko et al., 2009; Rider &  
 627 Kennedy, 2011). The result of these differences manifests itself in substantial differences in acoustic  
 628 impedance between mafic and evolved intrusions and as a result, evolved intrusions do not form a  
 629 typical ‘high amplitude’ response that is often associated with basaltic intrusions in basins.

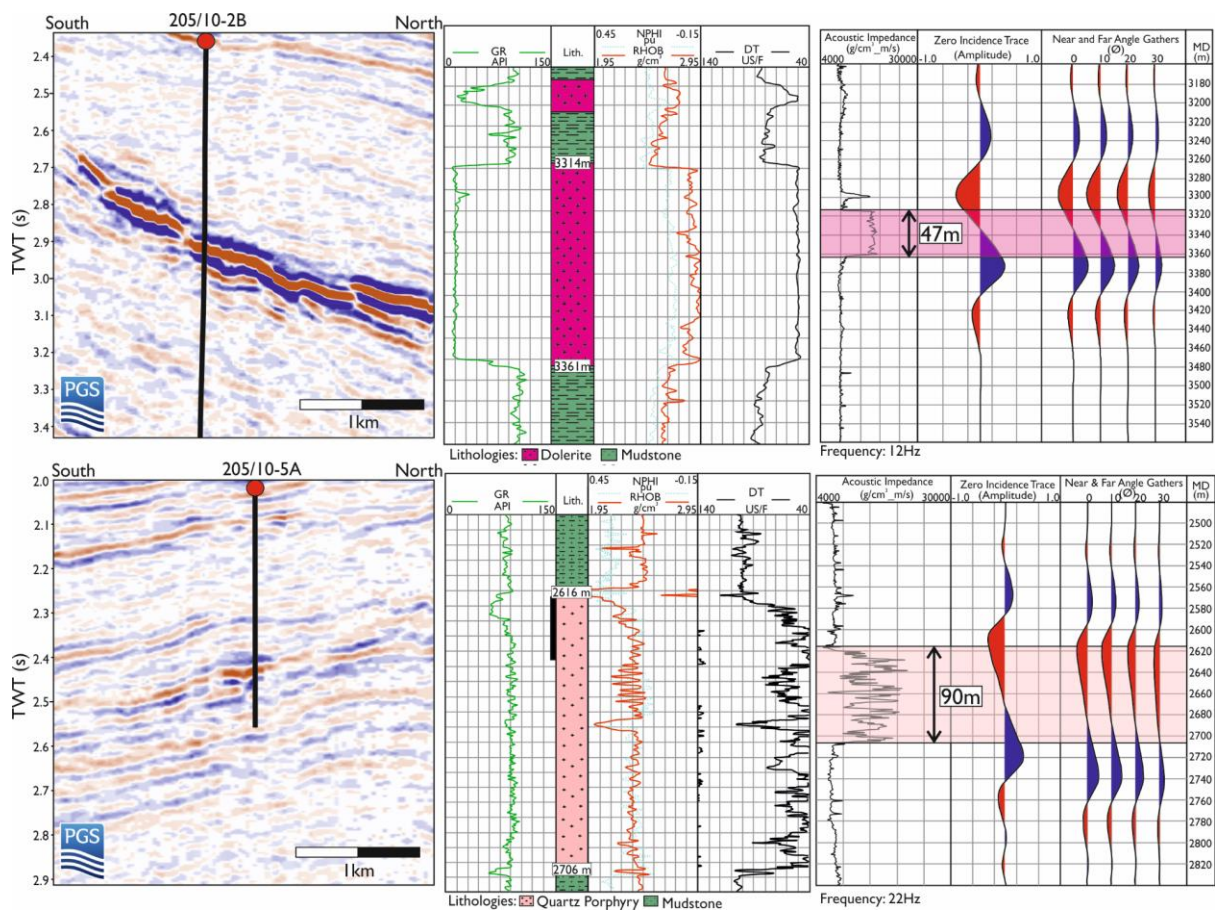


630  
 631 Figure 15: Density vs p-wave crossplot showing the different petrophysical properties of evolved vs  
 632 basaltic intrusions. The data is for basaltic and evolved intrusions encountered in the 205/10-5A and  
 633 205/10-2B wells.

634  
 635 Within well 205/10-5A, which penetrated a 90m thick evolved intrusion, the dominant  
 636 frequency of the data, even at this relatively deep level in the contemporaneous basin fill, is 22Hz. The  
 637 average seismic velocity of the Paleocene interval in which the evolved intrusion occurs is 2819ms

638 (Schofield *et al.*, 2015), leading to a vertical seismic resolution of 32m and a detectability thickness of  
 639 16m.

640 However, despite relatively good vertical resolution of data, the intrusion, which is 90m thick,  
 641 is difficult to image and is only visible as a weak seismic response with a chaotic seismic character  
 642 compared to the surrounding seismic data (Fig. 4). This weak seismic response is also corroborated  
 643 by synthetic modelling (Fig. 16). 205/10-2B, which is only 8km from 205/10-5A, contains a 40m thick  
 644 intrusion at 3000mBRT which is clearly resolvable.

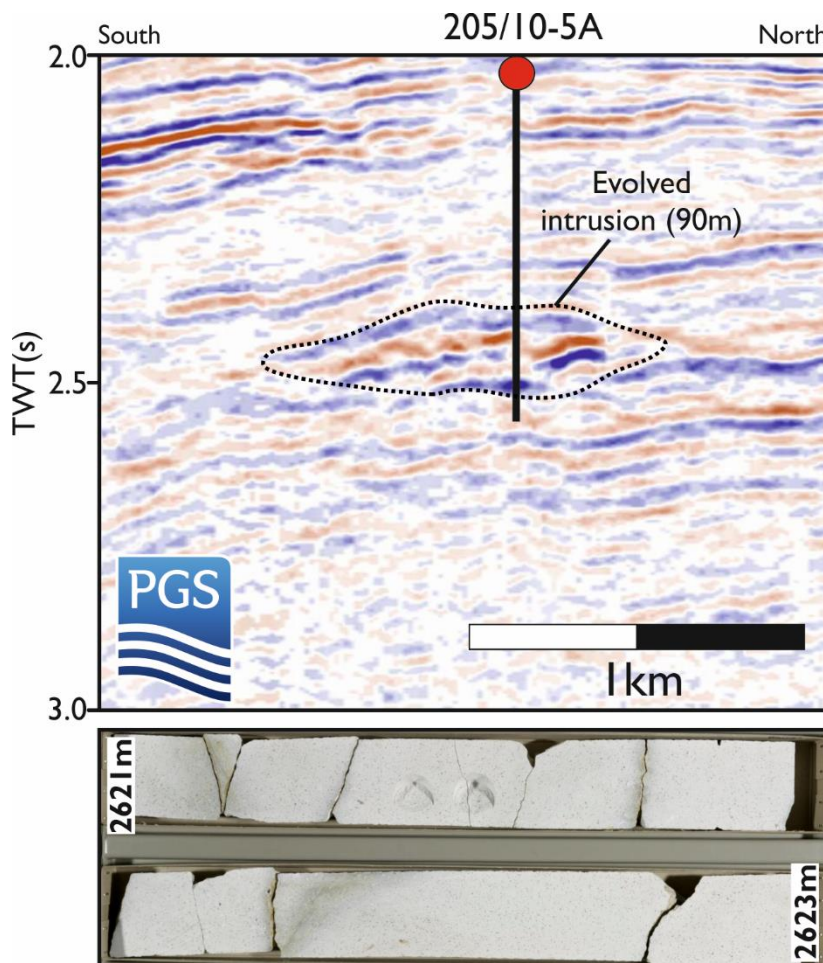


645  
 646 Figure 16: Modelling the synthetic seismic response of the evolved intrusion in 205/10-5A to the  
 647 basaltic intrusion in 205/10-2B. a) The basaltic intrusion resolves well as it has a high density and sonic  
 648 velocity resulting in a high acoustic impedance. b) The evolved intrusion does not resolve well due to  
 649 the lower density and sonic velocities resulting in a lower acoustic impedance. Seismic data courtesy  
 650 of PGS (PGS FSB MegaSurvey Plus).

651  
 652 Evolved intrusions, particularly those reaching granitic in composition, have much higher  
 653 viscosities and therefore do not propagate considerable distances from their magma source (Philpotts  
 654 & Ague, 2009). The fact that they do not flow easily accounts for the observation that the intrusion

655 looks so different to the basaltic intrusions nearby. The seismic morphology is chaotic (Fig. 17) and  
656 does not exhibit features like saucer shapes or magma lobes which are common in basaltic intrusions  
657 elsewhere in the FSB (Schofield *et al.*, 2015). If evolved intrusions typically do not travel far from the  
658 source of the magma, it may indicate that there are more evolved intrusions within that vicinity of the  
659 Flett Ridge other than the ones encountered in 205/10-2B and 205/10-5A.

660 Unfortunately, the substantial difference in seismic imaging between mafic and evolved  
661 intrusions led to the drilling of 205/10-5A, which was intended to target a mid- amplitude body that  
662 was interpreted to represent turbidite. Furthermore, the chaotic geometry of the intrusion created  
663 an amplitude anomaly with a fan-like geometry, making the target appear a likely reservoir (205/10-5A  
664 End of Well Report). The well target, which was perceived to be a turbidite fan lobe, turned out to  
665 be the 90 m evolved intrusive detailed previously. During drilling, the intrusive body was also cored,  
666 as the subsequent quartz-rich cuttings from the intrusion brought up along with the drilling mud was  
667 thought to represent the quartz rich sand of the turbidite (Fig. 17)



668

669

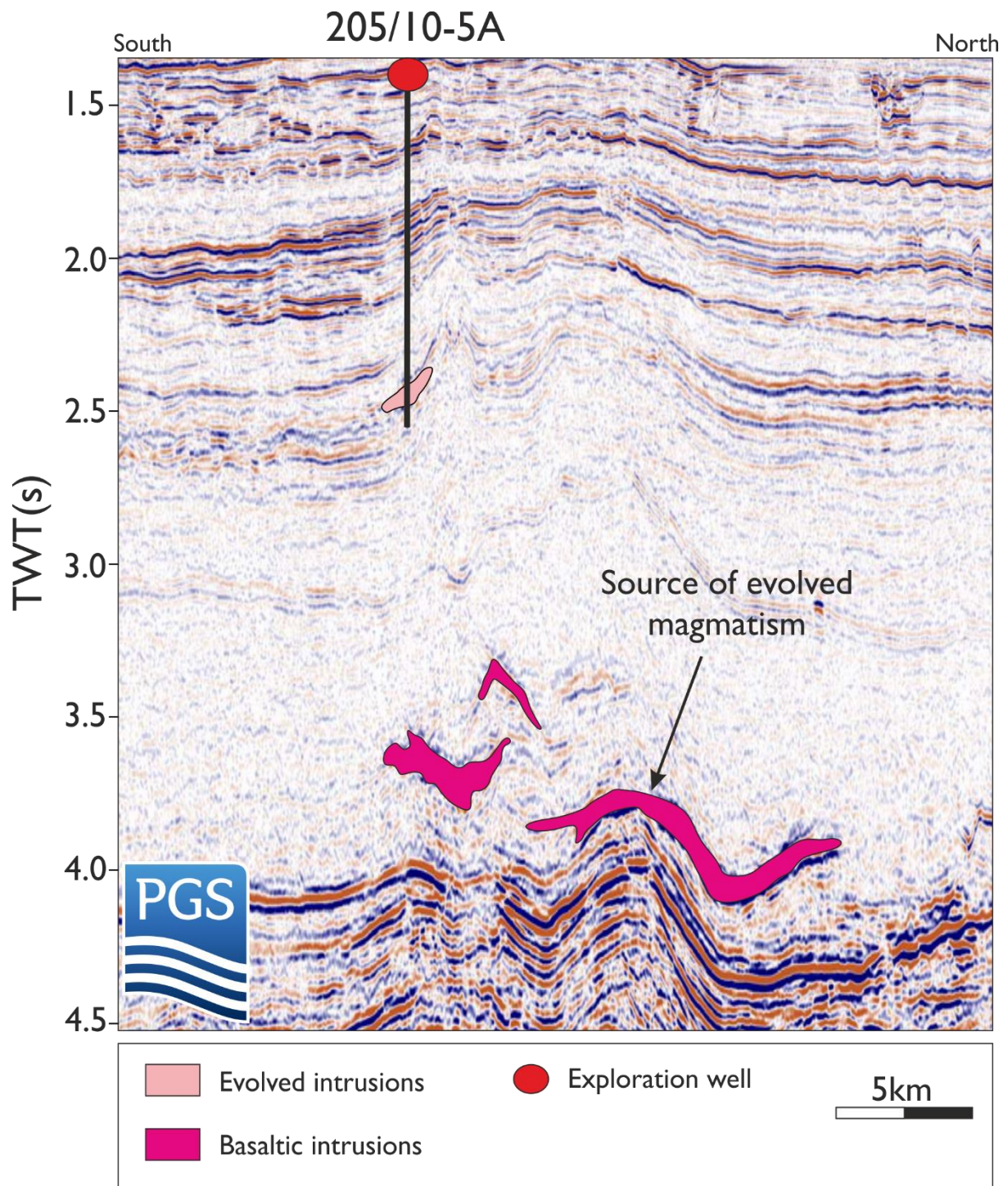
670 Figure 17: a): Seismic line across the evolved intrusion encountered in the 205/10-5A well. The  
671 intrusions is 90m thick but is poorly resolved in seismic data. The pre-drill prognosis was for the  
672 amplitude anomaly was a turbidite fan lobe. b): A 2m long cored section of the 90m thick evolved  
673 intrusion, core image courtesy of BGS offshore database (BGS 2017). Seismic data courtesy of PGS  
674 (PGS FSB MegaSurvey Plus).

675

676 In a wider context, the volume of evolved magmatic bodies within the subsurface of the FSB  
677 is difficult to estimate. ODP drilling on the Vøring Plateau has identified evolved magmas (Eldholm *et*  
678 *al.*, 1989). Evolved extrusives and intrusions have been identified in many of the wells drilled near the  
679 Erlend Volcanic Centre (Bell & Jolley, 2002). In the contiguous Rockall Basin to the south-west of the  
680 FSB, Morton *et al.*, (1988) commented on the presence of more evolved magmatism identified in the  
681 163/06-1A exploration well. The onshore volcanic rocks of the British Tertiary Igneous Province  
682 contain many large evolved igneous centres, such as the Red Hills of Skye and the Arran granite. There  
683 are also minor intrusions such as the Drumadoon sill on Arran which is described as a quartz porphyry  
684 similar in composition to the intrusion encountered in 205/10-5A. These examples of evolved  
685 magmatism identified in other basins are interpreted to be derived from crustal melting of sedimentary  
686 rocks by contact with a large body of high-temperature basaltic melt (Morton *et al.*, 1988, Eldholm *et*  
687 *al.*, 1989). The Erlend wells (209/03-1, 209/04-1A and 209/09-1A), which encountered evolved  
688 magmatism, were drilled near to the Erlend Volcanic Centre which would have likely been a heat  
689 source promoting crustal melting to generate evolved magmatism (Kanaris-Sotiriou *et al.*, 1993).

690 However, wells 205/10-5A and 205/10-2B were not drilled near any known volcanic centres,  
691 although there are numerous large basaltic intrusions imaged on seismic at depth (Fig. 18). These  
692 large basaltic intrusions could have caused crustal melting of sedimentary rocks on the Flett Ridge to  
693 generate evolved intrusions seen in 205/10-5A and 205/10-2B (BGS Technical Report, The Nature and  
694 Origin of Igneous Rocks from Well 205/10-5A). The evolved intrusion in 205/10-5A were interpreted  
695 as being peraluminous (BGS Technical Report, The Nature and Origin of Igneous Rocks from Well  
696 205/10-5A) and therefore potentially sourced from melting of clay rich sediments (Morton *et al.*, 1988).

697 Although from well penetrations these intrusions are relatively rare, the difficulty in even  
698 seismically resolving thick evolved intrusions (e.g. 90 m) at shallow stratigraphic levels, brings into  
699 question exactly how much evolved magmatism has occurred within the FSB or Atlantic Margin.  
700 Future exploration in the FSB and other rift basins should acknowledge the risk of encountering  
701 evolved intrusions, in particular the likelihood of them forming false exploration targets.



703 Figure 18: Seismic line showing the large basaltic intrusions at depth which could potentially be the  
704 heat source causing crustal melting to generate evolved magmatism. There are no large igneous  
705 centres near this location. Seismic data courtesy of PGS (PGS FSB MegaSurvey Plus).

706

#### 707 *Drilling through Intrusions – Non-Productive Time (NPT) issues*

708 The drilling issues outlined above such as drill bit integrity, slow ROP, undergauge borehole and  
709 overpressured intrusions all resulted in additional NPT and in some cases, the premature TD of  
710 exploration wells. During hydrocarbon exploration, the biggest cost exposure to a given company is  
711 drilling related and therefore, any subsurface scenario that leads to a loss of drilling time, or missing  
712 of a target commitment can have significant multi-million pound cost implications.

713 For the 214/28-1 and 208/15-1A case studies, the total NPT related to intrusions was 34  
714 days. NPT whilst drilling adds additional expenditure to drilling costs and must be minimised. If we  
715 assume an average day rate for a drill rig (Semisub >7,500ft: \$190,000 (IHS Markit, 2017)) and apply  
716 this to the number of NPT days related to issues with intrusions this totals over \$6,500,000. This  
717 estimate of additional cost is based on lost drilling time and does not include the extra costs associated  
718 with damaged bottom hole assembly (BHA) or mud losses. Furthermore, the total NPT detailed  
719 above only accounts for a quarter of the wells drilled in the FSB which encountered intrusions, so it  
720 is likely that this total number is much higher.

721

#### 722 *Overpressure and Connection of Deeper Pressure Regimes via Intrusions*

723 Well 214/28-1 and the recent Loanan well are examples of how analysis of the offset well  
724 data can inform companies about the potential drilling issues associated with intrusions and how to  
725 mitigate these issues in a pre-drill scenario. The Loanan well was prematurely aborted prior to  
726 reaching its target depth (total depth TD) due to concerns about encountering overpressured  
727 intrusions given the low LOTs (Fig. 10).

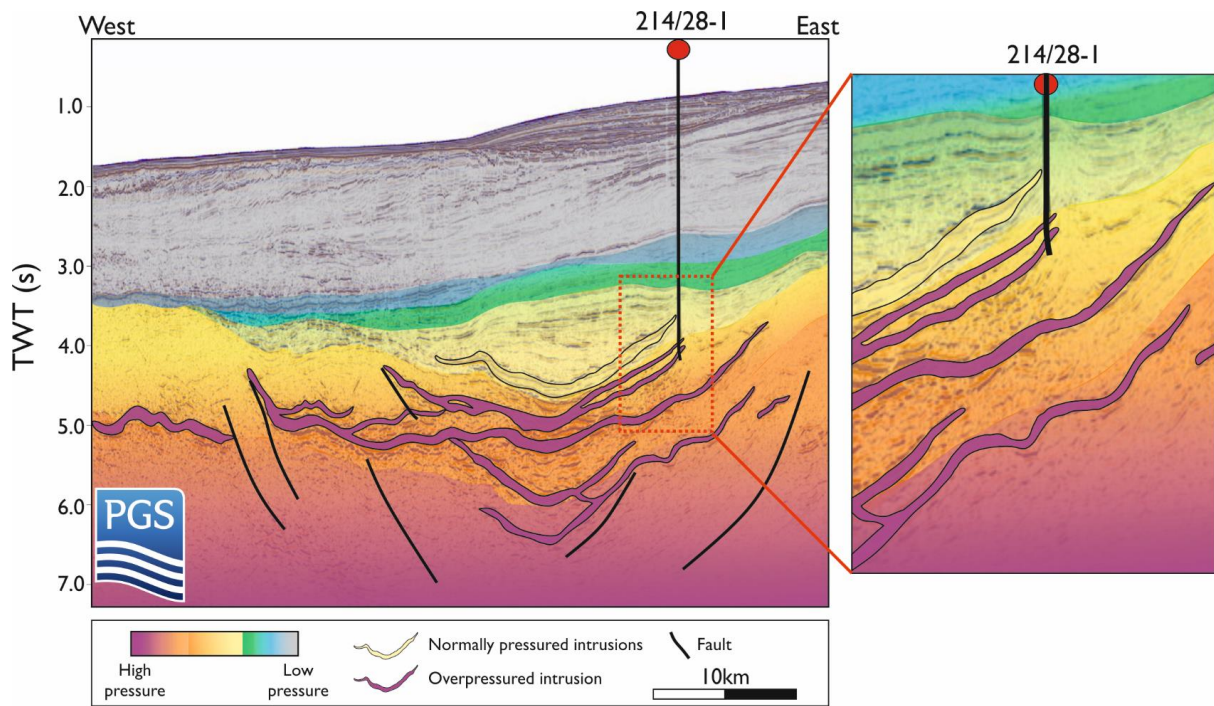
728 The origin of the overpressure associated with the intrusions in 214/28-1 is not fully  
729 understood. Within well 214/28-1, the overpressured intrusions encountered are part of a family of  
730 intrusions which can be seen to connect down into the deepest parts of the basin, at around 4 km

731 below the sea floor (Fig. 19). Extensive mud losses that have been recorded in many of the igneous  
732 intrusions within the FSB indicate that they can have open fractures even at depths of 5000mBRT  
733 (Rateau *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, one possible explanation for the overpressure within well 214/28-1 is  
734 that the interconnected intrusions acted as fractured conduits, connecting a pressure regime from  
735 deeper within the basin (Fig. 19).

736 Other mechanisms for overpressure generation are related to gas generation (Osborne &  
737 Swarbrick, 1997). The abundance of intrusions around the 214/28-1 well location could have caused  
738 local thermal maturation of shale host rocks during emplacement generating gas (Svensen *et al.*, 2004),  
739 which is a known cause of overpressure (Osborne & Swarbrick, 1997). However, with the repeated  
740 instances of loss of circulation events within intrusions in the FSB, implying an open fracture system,  
741 the risk that intrusions could act as conduits vertically through the basin connecting different pressure  
742 regimes needs to be considered.

743 In the case of the Loanan well, the planned TD for the well was <200m above the nearest,  
744 seismically imaged-intrusion (Fig. 9). Recent field work focused on sills in outcrop emphasises that it  
745 is common to see multiple thin splays or offshoot intrusions propagating away from large intrusions  
746 (Fig. 9); this effect is particularly pronounced in siliciclastic dominated intervals, which typically form  
747 hydrocarbon reservoirs (Eide *et al.*, 2017). As the Loanan well approached the secondary reservoir  
748 target, the potential for encountering multiple thin splays off the large intrusion would be increased  
749 (Fig. 9). Inspection of the current seismic data appears to show thin reflectors intruding the base of  
750 the secondary target, possibly indicating an increased risk of communication between the reservoir  
751 and intrusion (Fig. 9).

752 For future exploration in the FSB, and particularly the Flett Sub-basin around well 214/28-1, a  
753 different approach with respect to drilling design is needed in order to deal with issues related to  
754 overpressured sills and the eventuality of weaker than expected stratigraphic formations (which will  
755 affect the maximum mud weight that can be used).



756

757 Figure 19: Seismic line through the 214/28-1 well, which shows the intrusions plumbing into the  
 758 deepest parts of the basin. The Seismic line is schematically coloured to infer different pressure  
 759 regimes and how the interconnected intrusions could result in shallow intrusion having pressures  
 760 similar to pressures encountered in the deepest part of the basin. This could potentially explain the  
 761 overpressured intrusions encountered in 214/28-1. Seismic data courtesy of PGS (PGS FSB  
 762 MegaSurvey Plus).

763

764 *Rigid Frameworks Resulting in Disequilibrium Compaction*

765 In well 209/04-1A, overpressure was observed during a sudden lithology change from a 270 m thick  
 766 rhyolitic intrusion to Upper Cretaceous claystones at 3085mBR. It is possible that the impermeable  
 767 intrusion prevented normal compaction and lead to disequilibrium compaction whereby pore fluids  
 768 within the claystones were unable to escape. This results in the pore fluid pressure rising above  
 769 hydrostatic (Osborne & Swarbrick, 1997). It was below this intrusion that the overpressure was  
 770 encountered, resulting in the need to raise the mud weight to 10.8ppg, resulting in mud losses. Prior  
 771 to drilling into the claystone, a fracture integrity test was carried out in the intrusion giving a result of  
 772 13.4ppg EMW, indicating that a mud weight of 10.8ppg would not fracture the formation. This  
 773 misalignment between expected fracture integrity and the mud weight, which resulted in fracture of  
 774 the formation, is caused by the fracture integrity test being carried out in the intrusion, which has  
 775 much stronger mechanical strength compared to the claystone below (Fig. 11).



776 **CONCLUSIONS**

777 This work demonstrates the different seismic and petrophysical characteristics of igneous intrusions  
778 in the FSB and by using case studies from explorations wells, demonstrates their impact on  
779 hydrocarbon exploration. Exploration is ongoing in the FSB and due to the areal extent of the Faroe-  
780 Shetland Sill Complex and its proximity to oil and gas fields, it is important that the intrusions are  
781 studied and their implications for the petroleum system understood. The findings can be summarised  
782 as;

- 783 • Thin intrusions are difficult to identify in the subsurface due to seismic and logging tool  
784 limitations. The difficulty identifying intrusions in the subsurface means that it is likely that  
785 many more intrusions are present in basins. Combined with the difficulties associated with  
786 identifying evolved intrusions, estimates of melt volumes in rift basins are likely to be  
787 underestimated.
- 788 • The FSSC has previously been identified as mainly comprising basaltic intrusions but this study  
789 presents examples of evolved magmatic bodies.
- 790 • In contrast to basaltic magma, the distinct petrophysical and seismic properties of the evolved  
791 intrusions make them difficult to identify in the subsurface and as a result, can be misidentified  
792 as exploration targets.
- 793 • Where intrusions have been encountered in the subsurface, this has commonly resulted in  
794 issues such as low ROP, drill bit integrity, loss of circulation, cavings and overpressure.
- 795 • The 214/28-1 and Loanan case study reveals the difficulties associated with targeting prospects  
796 close to intrusions, such as drilling issues or premature TD as a result of a low LOT and risk  
797 of encountering overpressured intrusions.

798 In summary this study shows that intrusions can have significant implications for hydrocarbon  
799 exploration. The igneous intrusive complex in the FSB extends into the contiguous Møre Basin to the  
800 north, and the Rockall Basin to the south so utilising the knowledge gained from the FSB would be  
801 beneficial for future exploration in these regions and other volcanic margins globally.

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812

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**SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

<b>Drilling Acronym/Terminology</b>	<b>Definition</b>
ROP (rate of penetration)	The speed at which the drill bit can break the rock to deepen the well bore.
WOB (weight on bit)	The amount of downward force exerted on the drill bit.
Drilling mud/ Equivalent Mud Weight	Drilling mud maintains the hydrostatic pressure within the wellbore and also transports drill cuttings to the surface.

BHA (bottom hole assembly)	Lowest part of the drill string. This contains the drill bit, drill collar, measurement-while-drilling tools (not always run).
Drill bit	The tool used to cut the rock.
Drillstring	Combination of drillpipe, the bottom hole assembly.
NPT (non-productive time)	Time which is not spent drilling the hole.
RPM (revolutions per minute)	How quickly the drillstring rotates.
Casing	Casing is carried out every time the well drills to a new a certain depth and the wellbore diameter is changed. Casing prevents the formation caving into the wellbore and also controls formation fluids and pressures.
FIT (Fracture integrity test or formation integrity test)	Test of the strength and integrity of a new formation. Commonly occurs after a casing point to determine the suitable mud weight to contain the well.
LOT (Leak off test)	Similar to a FIT but this tests the formation to the point that it fractures. This allows the determination of the maximum mud weight which could be sustained before fracturing the formation. LOT measures the strength of the formation and informs what mud weight can be used before the formation will fracture and incur mud losses.
Overpressure	Subsurface pressure which is abnormally high and exceeds hydrostatic.

Underbalanced drilling	The pressure in the wellbore is lower than the pressure of the formation being drilled, resulting in fluids flowing into the wellbore. Left unchecked, this can result in a potential blowout.
Overbalanced drilling	The pressure in the wellbore is higher than the formation pressure to prevent fluids flowing into the wellbore. If too high, this can lead to fracturing and damage of the formation being drilled through.
Loss of circulation	Drilling mud is lost into the formation either through an open fracture network in the subsurface, or induced fractures due to the mud weight being too high.
Undergauge	Undergauge hole occurs in abrasive formations when the well bit becomes worn, resulting in a smaller wellbore diameter. See 'Reaming' below.
Ledges	Ledges are coherent blocks/bodies which remain stable forming tight spots which are obstacles for wireline tools (Millet <i>et al.</i> , 2016) corresponding to the intrusions.
TD (total depth)	The total depth that the well drills.
Reaming	Enlarging the wellbore to maintain wellbore diameter.
Twist off	Separation or breaking of the drillstring downhole. Can be caused by excessive torque.

Cavings/well bore instability	Pieces of rock that fall into the wellbore but are not a result of drilling action.
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