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Mahmoud Leila, Keanu Loiseau, Isabelle Moretti. Controls on generation and accumulation of blended gases (CH4/H2/He) in the Neoproterozoic Amadeus Basin, Australia. Marine and Petroleum Geology, 2022, 140, pp.105643. 10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2022.105643. hal-03623683

# HAL Id: hal-03623683 https://hal.science/hal-03623683v1

Submitted on 22 Jul 2024

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# 1 Controls on generation and accumulation of blended gases (CH<sub>4</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>/He) in the

2 Neoproterozoic Amadeus Basin, Australia.

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## 8 Abstract

Various gases are generated in the subsurface, by diagenetic processes, fluid/rock 9 interactions, maturation of petroleum source rocks and microbial activity. Often these 10 gases just leak at the surface but sometimes they may accumulate in a subsurface trap. 11 The present study investigates the case of the southern part of the Amadeus Basin, 12 Australia, where exploration wells tested a blend of hydrocarbon (HC), helium (He) and 13 hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>). In Mt Kitty-1 well, He- and H<sub>2</sub>-rich gases were reported (He ~9%, H<sub>2</sub> 14 ~11.4%) with traces of HC, whereas  $C_1$  and  $C_{2+}$  HC gases associated with He were 15 16 discovered in Magee-1 well. Seismic and well data elucidate accumulation of the gas blend within a classical subsurface system with a structural trap, a permeable reservoir 17 and a thick salt layer as seal. This salt, the Proterozoic Upper Gillen, is overlying the 18 Heavitree sandstones and fractured basement reservoirs. The former is dominated by 19 intergranular porosity (~13%), whereas the latter is commonly associated with complex 20 patterns of fractures associated with deep-seated faults. The sources of blended gases 21 are different: thermal cracking of organic matter for hydrocarbons, radiolytic decay of 22 radioelements for helium. Radiolysis, and water reduction as well as oxidation of 23 24 hydrocarbons are open hypothesizes for H<sub>2</sub> generation in the study region. Neoproterozoic and Early Paleozoic tectonic episodes (e.g. Petermann; Alice Springs) 25 allowed the formation of various structural traps where the gas blend was accumulated. 26

The large quantity of He, light gas slowly generated by the crustal radioactivity indicates that the seal is very efficient and that accumulations could have been in place for millions of years very likely with an evolving  $CH_4/H_2/He$  ratios through time. The presence of gas chimneys and surface depressions in the basin indicate that the generation, and/or migration of the gases are still active. All the data are consistent with a long-term accumulation of this gas blend, different from the short term H<sub>2</sub> retention in
 the reservoir that was proposed in other contexts such as in Mali.

34 **Keywords:** Natural hydrogen; helium; hydrocarbon gases; Amadeus Basin; Australia.

#### 35 **1. Introduction**

Generation of hydrocarbon and non-hydrocarbon gases is mostly dependent on the 36 genetic 37 complex interactions between three main processes (biogenesis, thermogenesis and abiogenesis) (Bernard, 1978; Schoell, 1983; Whiticar, 1999; Lin et 38 al., 2005; Vacquand et al., 2018 and references therein). Deciphering the origin of these 39 gases and various mechanisms of their generation is crucial for a proper exploitation of 40 the geo-resources. Hydrocarbons (HC) are often expelled from thermally-mature 41 organic-rich rocks after reaching the oil and gas window maturities, whereas biogenic 42 processes commonly generate dry HC by consuming the light liquid HC phases at low 43 temperature levels (Schoell, 1983; Peters and Casa, 1994; Whiticar, 1999; Leila and 44 Moscariello, 2017). Radiolysis also generates helium (He) and hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) gases via 45 the radiolytic decay of radioelements coupled with a possible dissociation of water 46 (Ballentine et al., 1991; Warr et al., 2019, Klein et al., 2019 and references therein). The 47 abiogenic processes can produce light hydrocarbon (mainly  $C_1$  and  $C_{2+}$ ) and non-48 hydrocarbon (H<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>) gases at a wide range of temperatures in various geological 49 environments (Coveney et al., 1987; Holloway and O'Day, 2000; Taran et al., 2010; 50 Etiope, 2017; Prinzhofer et al., 2019; Moretti et al., 2021a, b; Leila et al., 2021; Radwan 51 et al., 2022). These processes include redox reactions between water and Fe<sup>+2</sup>-bearing 52 rocks (mafic, ultramafic rocks and ironstones) (Charlou et al., 2002; McCollom and 53 Bach, 2009; Vacquand et al., 2018), radiolytic dissociation of water by radioelements 54 (uranium, thorium) in crustal rocks (Lin et al., 2005; Sherwood Lollar et al., 2014), 55 volcanism and volcanic degassing (Stefánsson and Arnórsson, 2002) as well as thermal 56 metamorphism (Orlando et al., 2010). 57

Natural H<sub>2</sub> generation via abiogenic processes was recently estimated at 2.8 Mtonnes/year (Truche et al., 2020), nonetheless, this estimation could be much more under-estimated (Zgonnik, 2020). Moreover, recent discovery of shallow H<sub>2</sub>-rich (~98 mol%) gas in Bougou-1 well, Taoudeni Basin, in Mali (Prinzhofer et al., 2018), highlights the potentiality of subsurface natural H<sub>2</sub> exploitation. Just a few years ago, it was

claimed that H<sub>2</sub> does not exist as a free gas in the Earth's crust and the fact that a 63 natural seal did not exist for such a low molecular weight gas was often affirmed and 64 published (e.g. Zgonnik et al., 2015; Moretti et al., 2021a, b). The implications of the 65 subsurface H<sub>2</sub> storage and of the discovery in Mali was not really considered. 66 Additionally, some geoscientists believe that the subsurface  $H_2$  will be mainly produced 67 within a dynamic system and a flow of H<sub>2</sub> may exists in a porous medium such as in 68 Mali (Prinzhofer et al., 2018) or within the steam of the geothermal plans (Stefánsson 69 and Arnórsson, 2002; Combaudon et al., 2022). Hydrogen currently presents a zero 70 carbon alternative for the traditional fossil fuels and the advances in H<sub>2</sub> exploration and 71 production may aid in the decarbonization of the global energy supply (e.g. Gielen et al., 72 2019). Similarly, other non-HC gases such as helium is widely used in high-tech 73 industries such as cryogenics, and the global demand for this important gas is currently 74 increasing (Skirrow et al., 2013; Waltenberg, 2015; Haines and Allen, 2019). 75

Blended hydrocarbon and non-hydrocarbon gases were reported from several 76 places in Australia such as the Cobar copper mine, New South Wales (~75%  $H_2$  and ~ 77 25% CH<sub>4</sub>; Stack and Rabone, 2018), Yorke Peninsula and Kangaroo Island 78 79 (Woolnough, 1934) as well as in some exploration wells offshore Victoria (Golden Beach-1 ~38 mol.% H<sub>2</sub>) and in Amadeus Basin (Mt. Kitty-1 ~11 mol.% H<sub>2</sub>) (McInnes et 80 al., 2017). In addition, surficial evidence for subsurface gas emanations is recognized 81 by sub-circular depressions (SCD) that have been reported from all over the globe 82 (Russia, USA, Brazil, and Ukraine) (Larin et al., 2015; Zgonnik et al., 2015, Prinzhofer et 83 84 al., 2019; Zgonnik, 2020; Moretti et al., 2021a, b, Geymond et al., 2022). They are visible on satellite images and have been observed in several places in Australia where 85 seeps of H<sub>2</sub>-rich gases have been reported (Moretti et al., 2021b, Frery et al, 2021). 86

The present study focuses on the HC and non-HC gas blend discovered in the Amadeus Basin, central Australia (Fig. 1). The Amadeus Basin is an extensive intracratonic structure covering an area of approximately 170,000 km<sup>2</sup>. It is one of the Australia's most petroliferous provinces with hydrocarbon exploration history that has been started since the early 1960s (Young and Ambrose, 2007). The basin contains proven HC reserves estimated at approximately 37 million barrels of oil and more than 400 BCF (billion cubic feet) of gases (Jackson et al., 1984). It constitutes a thick (~ 17 km) sedimentary cover of Proterozoic to late Devonian rocks (Fig. 2). Five distinct
petroleum systems have been identified in the Amadeus Basin; the first four are mainly
hosted in the Neoproterozoic rocks with sub-economic gas discoveries (e.g. Magee-1,
Mereenie, Orange-1, -2 and Dingo-1 to -5).



**Fig. 1.** A) Location map illustrating the location of the studied wells and proven gas discoveries in Amadeus Basin, central Australia, B) Illustrative N-S cross-section (not to scale) in central Amadeus Basin showing the main structural elements, the distribution of different stratigraphic units (modified from Johns et al., 2017) and the kind of plays that have been targeted.

118 The youngest petroleum system comprises the Ordovician sandstones hosting the 119 economic accumulations of large oil and gas such as the Mereenie and Palm Valley

fields (Fig. 1; Marshall, 2003). The source rock potential of the Neoproterozoic systems 120 was considered to be poor or rather negligible (Jackson et al., 1984; Summons and 121 Powell, 1991). However, the recent organic-geochemical and geologic data have 122 demonstrated several potential source rocks in the Neoproterozoic successions in some 123 parts of the basin (Marshall, 2003; 2004). Today, the non-hydrocarbon gas plays (H<sub>2</sub>, 124 He) in the Neoproterozoic systems are actively explored (Hissey et al., 2016; 125 Scrimgeour, 2019; Haines and Allen, 2019). The case of HC/He/H<sub>2</sub> gas blend in the 126 Amadeus Basin is especially interesting since their kinetics are rather different and the 127 gases have variable residence times in the reservoir (Lin et al., 2005). The factors 128 controlling the generation, mixing and accumulation of this gas blend remain poorly 129 constrained but in Australia the subsurface data are publicly available and we took this 130 opportunity to investigate the surface and subsurface data, seismic and wells for 131 potential geo-energy exploration plans. Additionally, with proven resources of both HC 132 and non-HC gases, Amadeus Basin presents a natural laboratory where we can 133 examine the controls on generation and accumulation of various gas plays. 134

#### 135 **2. Geologic setting**

The Amadeus Basin presents an E-W trending belt of folded Neoproterozoic-Early 136 Paleozoic (Cambrian-Devonian) sedimentary successions in central Australia overlying 137 unconformably the Paleo- to Mesoproterozoic crystalline basement complex (Wells et 138 al., 1970; Jackson et al., 1984; Marshall et al., 2007; Edgoose, 2013; Carr et al., 2016). 139 The basement rocks are exposed in the northern (Arunta Orogen) and southern 140 (Musgrave Complex) parts of the basin due to their uplift during Petermann (Ediacaran-141 Early Cambrian) and Alice Springs (Paleozoic) orogenies. Northward, the exposed 142 basement complex consists of deformed meta-sedimentary and meta-igneous felsic and 143 intermediate rocks, whereas the southern basement is constituted by high-grade 144 metamorphic fedspathic gneiss and intrusive igneous bodies (Jackson et al., 1984; 145 146 Marshall et al., 2007; Carr et al., 2016). The Amadeus Basin extended westwards where an NNE-striking shallow ridge of crystalline basement was emplaced during the 147 Late Paleozoic orogeny. Prior to latest Paleozoic, sediment accumulation in Amadeus 148 149 Basin was linked to a continuous deposition southward (Powell et al., 1994). The sedimentary basin-fill was initiated during the Early Neoproterozoic and the pre-salt 150

sediments comprise a quartzite-rich siliciclastic package of the Dean/Heavitree
Formation which is exposed along the northern margins of the basin (Fig.2; Walter et
al., 1995).

The Petermann and Alice Springs orogenies controlled sedimentation and 154 distribution of the basin-fill sedimentary successions in Amadeus Basin. During 155 Petermann Orogeny (~550-535 Ma), parts of the Amadeus Basin was either uplifted, 156 eroded or locally metamorphosed along the southern margin with synchronous 157 deposition of thick siliciclastic materials that were sourced from the uplifted parts (Bagas 158 et al., 1996; Haines et al., 2015). The Petermann uplift phase was likely accompanied 159 160 by salt movements; however, the irregular patterns of the folds reveal that the saltrelated structures were evolved as earlier growth features prior to their reactivation 161 during the orogenic uplift. Alice Springs orogeny (~400 Ma) largely affected the 162 northeastern part of the basin and was accompanied by a contemporaneous deposition 163 of synorogenic sedimentary facies that are preferentially localized in the northern and 164 northeastern parts of the basin. 165

The Heavitree Formation comprises quartz-rich sandstones overlying unconformably 166 the basement complex. The sandstones are intercalated with siltstones and 167 conglomerate, and are mostly of fluvial to shallow marine origin. The Heavitree 168 sandstones are followed by carbonates and fine-grained siliciclastic and evaporites of 169 Bitter Springs Group. The Heavitree-Bitter Springs contact is only conformable in the 170 eastern parts of the basin. In the northern parts, the Bitter Springs Group comprises, 171 from bottom to top, the Gillen, Loves Creek and Johnny Creek formations (Fig. 2). The 172 Gillen Formation consists of thick evaporite deposits (halite, gypsum) interbedded with 173 dolomite, shale and siltstone. The Loves Creek Formation is made of stromatolitic 174 dolomite facies unconformably overlying the Gillen facies and conformably followed by 175 the lacustrine red dolomitic and evaporitic mudstone of the Johnys Creek Formation. 176 The post-Bitter Springs stratigraphy comprises thick mixed carbonate and siliciclastic 177 sediments resting unconformably above the evaporitic mudstone and dolomite of the 178 Johnys Creek Formation. The Amadeus Basin contains thick, well-developed Paleozoic 179 180 sedimentary successions (mostly shales, siltstone and minor sand interbeds) except in 181 the western regions where the Paleozoic sediments are comparatively thinner 182 (Marshall, 2003; Haines et al., 2010; Normington et al., 2015).



Fig. 2. Generalized composite stratigraphic column for the Amadeus Basin illustrating the tectono-stratigraphic framework of the basin and the possible source rocks and reservoir intervals (Marshall, 2004).

Hydrocarbon exploration to date in the Amadeus Basin focused on the Paleozoic 207 successions principally targeting the structural and combined structural-stratigraphic 208 plays in the shallow salt-related structures in the north. The discoveries so far are post-209 salt and located in the northern part of the basin, however, the subsalt strata are 210 shallower southward and exploration has been started there since the last decade. For 211 the pre-salt petroleum systems, Heavitree Formation presents a potential reservoir that 212 213 could be sourced from the shale intervals in Bitter Springs Group (Marshall, 2003). The evaporites of Gillen and Loves Creek Formations are likely to be effective cap rock for 214 the gases that may accumulate in Heavitree reservoir. 215

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#### 3. Data and methods

The Australian policy towards the dissemination and sharing of scientific advances allows access to a lot of information directly on the government site of the Department of Geosciences (https://www.ga.gov.au/). The available subsurface dataset utilized in this study includes 2D seismic, wireline logs as well as analytical internal reports.

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# 3.1. Seismic dataset

The subsurface seismic dataset constitutes regional post-stack 2D seismic grid covering an area of approximately 30,000 km<sup>2</sup> in the eastern and central parts of the Amadeus Basin. In addition, local 3D seismic blocks around the studied Magee-1 and Mt Kitty-1 wells have also been utilized in this study (Fig. 1). The seismic data was interpreted using Petrel Schlumberger 2017 software following the standard seismic interpretation scheme of Herron (2011). The seismic data (time) was tied with well logs (depth) using check shots that were available for all the studied wells.

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## 3.2. Wireline logging analysis

A complete set of wireline logs for Magee-1, Mt Kitty-1, and Murphy-1 wells have been interpreted using the Schlumberger Techlog 2017 software. The available well logs include gamma ray (GR), bit size (BS), caliper (Cal), spontaneous potential (SP), shallow and deep resistivity (LLS, LLD), photoelectric factor (PEF), neutron (NPHI) and 234 density (RHOB). The GR and NPHI logs were corrected for environmental effects such 235 as borehole size, mud weight and salinity. DST data from Magee-1 well was used to 236 drive Rw values which is approximately 0.04  $\Omega$ m at 77°C. The cementation exponent 237 "m" was derived using the triple porosity model (Aguilera and Aguilera, 2004). The 238 wireline logging interpretation includes a qualitative and semi-quantitative estimation for 239 the different petrophysical (porosity Phi, permeability K, water saturation S<sub>w</sub>) and 240 lithological parameters using the standard logging interpretation technique.

241

## 3.3. Source rock evaluation and gas analysis

Available analyses for Total Organic Carbon (TOC) and Rock-Eval pyrolysis carried 242 out by the operators on 12 cutting samples from Upper (2 samples) and Lower Gillen (8 243 samples) member as well as Inindia Beds (2 samples) in Magee-1 and Murphy-1 wells 244 were utilized in this study (Table 1, Geotech, 1992). At that time, the cuttings were 245 analyzed using Rock-Eval 2 apparatus following the procedure described by Espitalié et 246 al., (1986). The Rock-Eval pyrolysis peaks include  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$  and  $S_3$  values which 247 respectively reflect the amount of free, pyrolyzed and organically-bound CO<sub>2</sub> 248 hydrocarbons. Additionally, the temperature at S<sub>2</sub> peak (T<sub>max</sub>) reflects the source rock 249 maturity (Peters and Cassa, 1994). Geochemical gas analyses comprise the 250 measurement of the molecular gas composition and relative abundance of different 251 hydrocarbon and non-hydrocarbon gases using chromatographic separation. The 252 identified hydrocarbon gas phases comprise C1, C2+ components whereas the non-253 hydrocarbon gases constitute  $N_2$ , Ar, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, and He (Table 2). 254

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### 3.4. Basin modelling procedure

Burial and thermal history models were constructed for Magee-1 well using 256 Schlumberger PetroMod 1D software to simulate the conditions of hydrocarbon 257 generation and expulsion. The input data for the models comprises a detailed 258 stratigraphic information, thermal boundary conditions, as well as the present-day 259 thermal maturity values. The thermal boundary conditions include the sediment-water 260 interface temperature (SWIT) and the basal heat flow (HF). The paleowater depth 261 (PWD) was determined based on the depositional environment of the sediments. This is 262 an important parameter to define the thermal boundary condition (SWIT). The surface 263

temperature trends have been synthesized for Magee-1 well in southern Australia 264 (24°S) using the time-latitude diagrams (Wygrala, 1989). The lower thermal boundary 265 condition, paleo heat flow (HF, values in mW/m<sup>2</sup>) values were calculated using the 266 known plate tectonic framework and crustal evolution models (Fig. 3; Allen and Allen, 267 1990). The basal heat flow values follow a general trend reporting a maximum value of 268 113 mW/m<sup>2</sup> during the main rifting phase of Areyonga, reducing progressively during the 269 compressional tectonic phases of Petemann, Bloodwood, and Rodingan movement and 270 finally reached to 50 mW/m<sup>2</sup> in the present-day (Fig. 3). 271



**Fig. 3.** The thermal boundary condition assessment for Magee-1 well including: (top) the paleowater depth (PWD, in meter) and (middle) the sediment-water interface temperature (SWIT, in °C), and (bottom) the paleo-heat flow (HF, in mW/m<sup>2</sup>). The basal heat flow values were specified for each geologic event using the present-day analogs and extrapolated through time (Allen and Allen, 1990).

The simulation results were calibrated using equivalent vitrinite reflectance data (VRE) deduced from the measured Rock-Eval  $T_{max}$  values (Fig. 4). The calculated vitrinite reflectance from temperature histories was carried out using the EASY-%R<sub>o</sub> algorithm of Sweeney and Burnham (1990). The predefined kinetic model\_TII(B) of Pepper Corvi (1995) was designated based on the source rock type and depositional environment. The timing of hydrocarbon expulsion was deduced considering that 20% of the porous volume of source rocks should be filled by hydrocarbons prior to the expulsion onset (Ungerer, 1990). The assigned initial TOC and HI (TOC<sub>o</sub>, HI<sub>o</sub>) were calculated from the measured TOC and HI following the procedure described by (Peters et al., 2005).





314 **3.5 Petrography** 

Three thin sections were prepared from the cutting and SWC samples retrieved from the 7 m thick Heavitree sandstones in Magee-1 well (Geotech, 1992). The cuttings were impregnated with analdite and blue dye to facilitate the visualization of pore spaces and quantification of porosity. Additionally, the thin sections were stained with sodiumcobaltinitrite to identify feldspars.

## 320 **4. Results**

#### 321

#### 4.1. Surface emanations

Several sub-circular depressions (SCD) have been recognized from the satellite 322 images in the study area. The observed SCD are similar to those reported for surficial 323 H<sub>2</sub> emitting structures, the so-called fairy circles, as described in south and west 324 Australia (Moretti et al., 2021a; Frery et al., 2021, Geymond et al., 2022). High densities 325 of scattered, slightly elongated SCD are observed near the Amadeus Lake (Fig. 5). The 326 diameter of the SCD structures varies from several tens to hundreds of meters and 327 most of them have diameters greater than 400 m. The large SCD often display 328 concave-up elevation profiles with smooth topography, whereas the small depressions 329 (< 200 m diameter) have sharp, concave-up and irregular elevation profiles. 330



Fig. 5. Google Earth photographs illustrating occurrence of several aligned Sub Circular
 Depressions in Amadeus Basin with variable depth/equivalent diameter ratios
 highlighted in red.

345 The depressions also contain some local highs usually localized in the center. The depth/equivalent diameter ratio of the SCD ranges from 1% to more than 3% (Fig. 5). 346 These values are very similar to the ones reported in other parts of Australia and in the 347 areas where H<sub>2</sub> emitting structures have been mapped (Moretti et al., 2021b, Geymond 348 et al., 2022). Moreover, a trend of SCD is observed to the south of the Amadeus Lake. 349 They are aligned in NW-SE direction parallel to the faults associated with Petermann 350 Orogeny (Fig. 6) suggesting a possible gas leakage along these faults similar to that 351 reported elsewhere such as in Russia (Larin et al., 2015). 352



Fig. 6. Map illustrating the distribution of the sub-circular depressions (SCD) in the southern part of Amadeus Basin, grey dots. The depressions are aligned parallel to the master NW-SE trending fault trends affecting the basin. One may note the highest density of the SCD eastward near the wells that proven the presence of H<sub>2</sub>.

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## 4.2. Seismic interpretation

The interpreted 2D seismic profiles delineate the complex structural elements that 374 influenced the stratigraphic architecture of the study region. The seismic profiles 375 illustrate chaotic and reflection free seismic reflections interpreted as crystalline 376 377 basement that are often dissected by large deep-sated faults (Figs. 7A, B and 8). The basement is picked at relatively shallow depths (< 2000 millisecond two-way time ms 378 TWT), however several basement highs (< - 1700 ms TWT) are locally observed. The 379 basement top is defined by irregular, undulated non-conformity surface. Thin-skinned 380 deformation features probably associated with the Petermann Orogeny with major faults 381 382 detached within the basement and the overlying pre-salt and salt layers are identified as the most prominent structural elements. The faults are mainly dipping westward with 383 displacements up to 300 ms TWT at the top of the Gillen Formation. The basement 384 385 faults were likely reactivated during Petermann Orogeny resulting in a formation of multiple local antiforms associated with inverted basement blocks (Fig. 8). 386

The pre-salt Heavitree Formation is represented by discontinuous high amplitude and reflectivity seismic reflections locally onlap the non-conformity surface topping the basement (Fig. 7A, B). The Heavitree reflections are localized in the basement lows and depressions adjacent to the deep faults (Fig. 7A), where they attained a maximum thickness of less than 100 ms TWT. The basement is relatively deeper in the southwestern part of the study area where its top is picked at more than - 2500 ms TWT (Fig. 9A).



Fig. 7. Interpreted 2D seismic profiles showing the distribution of the different stratigraphic horizons and the major
structural elements. Seismic location: green line on the map.



The Gillen salt is characterized by very low amplitude, transparent to semi-428 transparent chaotic reflections (Figs. 7A, B and 8). Lower Gillen reflections are less 429 chaotic with moderate amplitude and reflectivity, locally displaying discrete patches that 430 are localized in the basement highs (carbonate build-ups?). In some parts such as in 431 Magee-1 well area, these patches are followed by thin (~ 15 ms TWT), high amplitude 432 horizontal, continuous reflections interpreted as halite layers. The top of the Gillen salt is 433 picked at variable depths in the study area, however, it is relatively shallower and 434 thicker in the west than in the east (Fig. 9B). Loves Creek reflections are semi-435 transparent and display low to moderate amplitude and reflectivity. They grade upward 436 into the parallel, high amplitude and reflectivity reflections of the Johnys Creek 437 Formation. The seismic reflections of the Bitter Springs Group are terminated against 438 Petermann unconformity characterized by high amplitude, continuous, and irregular 439 440 reflector erosionally-truncating the pre-Petermann reflections. The Petermann unconformity is picked at greater depths in the eastern part of the study area (~ -1000 441 ms TWT, Fig. 10A). The Gillen salt has been mobilized possibly during the Petermann 442 Orogeny, and therefore its thickness varies greatly in the study region (Fig. 10B). 443 444 Reactivation of the basement faults during the Petermann Orogeny is more prominent in the western part of the study area resulting in the inversion of the basement blocks 445 associated with formation of flower-like structures (Fig. 8). 446

Several forms of chaotic and disordered vertical disturbances have been observed 447 on seismic and were interpreted as gas escape structures (gas chimneys). They are 448 represented by vertically-aligned columnar features associated with an abrupt decrease 449 450 in the reflection amplitude and continuity (Figs. 7A, B and 8). The observed gas chimneys often traced vertically from the basement to the Petermann unconformity 451 where they often disturb the overlying layers. They range in size on the horizontal scale 452 453 from several few tens of meters up to 500 m (Fig. 11). None of these features are associated with pockmarks that often reflect entrapment of the migrated gases. In this 454 kind of salt-rich basin, some of these disturbances in seismic reflections may also be 455 induced from the mobilization of salt forming salt scars. 456



Fig. 9. A) Depth contour maps at the top of Heavitree Formation/basement and Gillen
Salt (B) illustrating relative deepening in the southwestern part of the study area.
Projected gas chimneys often occur in the eastern part where the basement and salt
are relatively shallow.



**Fig. 10.** A) Depth contour maps at the top of Petermann unconformity; B) Thickness map showing variations in salt distribution and its thinning in the eastern part of the study area.



Fig. 11. Local vertical disturbances in the seismic reflections possibly reflect occurrenceof gas chimneys and/or salt scars.



The Heavitree Formation consists mainly of guartzose sandstone with a framework 532 composition dominated by quartz, feldspars and subordinate lithic fragments (Fig. 12A, 533 B). The framework components are medium to coarse grained, poorly to moderately 534 sorted and sub-rounded to sub-angular. The feldspars are fresh to partly altered and are 535 mainly represented by K-feldspars (Av. 8%) with minor plagioclase (Av. 1%). The lithic 536 fragments (Av. 5.5%) are mainly sedimentary (claystone) with minor igneous and 537 metamorphic fragments. The sandstones have an average composition of Q<sub>77</sub>F<sub>15</sub>L<sub>8</sub>, and 538 are therefore classified as quartz to subfeldspathic arenite (Fig. 12C). The framework 539 components are tightly-compacted and display sutured and concavo-convex grain 540 contacts (Fig. 12B). Moreover, the feldspars are partly dissolved forming secondary 541 pore spaces. Quartz overgrowths are often associated with the sutured grain contacts. 542 543 Authigenic clays are observed on the altered feldspars. Cutting sample Heavitree Fm (2350 m), field of view 2.72 mn







Fig. 12. Thin section microphotographs showing the mineralogical composition of 555 Heavitree Formation (Amdel core services, 1993): A) cutting sample in PPL, B) Rock 556 sample in XPL, C) QFL modal composition of the studied Heavitree sandstone samples 557 (Blatt and Tracy, 1996). Mineral symbols: quartz (Qz), K-feldsprs (Kfs), rock fragment 558 (RF), quartz overgrowth (Qzo). 559

#### 560 **4.4. Wireline log analysis**

Interpretation of wireline logs aids in the identification of different petrophysical 561 parameters that determine the reservoir potential of the Neoproterozoic succession in 562 the study area. In Magee-1 well, porous gas-bearing intervals are scarce and often 563 localize above the basement at the base of the Gillen salt (Fig. 13). Heavitree pay (6 m 564 thick) is characterized by a blocky gamma ray pattern with very low values (20-30 API). 565 The Heavitree pay zone has an average clay volume of 17%, however, most of the clay 566 materials are present in structural forms (claystone fragments, Fig. 12A) and therefore 567 they do not adversely impact the porosity values (Av. 13%). The pay zone sandstones 568 569 also display low water saturation values (Av. 34%) and a notable neutron-density crossover typifying the presence of trapped gas. Another porous, gas-bearing interval is 570 observed above the Lower Gillen succession. This interval consists of approximately 20 571 m thick halite layers characterized by very low gamma ray values (< 10 API). This halite 572 interval is also traced in Murphy-1 well at the base of Gillen Salt (Fig. 14). The halite 573 beds have very high porosity (Av. 23%) and very low clay volume (< 5%) values. 574



**Fig. 13.** Vertical distribution of the different wireline logs data including the calculated values of effective porosity and water saturation in Magee-1 well.

The abnormally high porosity of the halite possibly reflects a gas entrapment in the 587 pore spaces during halite crystallization (Blamey et al., 2016). The elevated resistivity 588 values (> 200 ohm.m) and the prominent neutron-density crossover coupled with the 589 very low water saturation values (Av. 9%) are evidence for gas entrapment in the halite 590 crystal lattice. In Mt Kitty-1 well, porous intervals are locally observed in the basement 591 rocks where the effective porosity values are up to 13% with an average value of 4% 592 (Fig. 15). The basement contains several fracture zones characterized by anomalously 593 high resistivity values with a notable separation between shallow and deep resistivity 594 curves characteristics for gas-filled fracture network (Sw < 50%). The fracture zones 595 also display very low formation matrix density and high neutron values typifying a 596 possible invasion of mud filtrate. 597



**Fig. 14.** Vertical distribution of the different wireline logs and calculated values of effective porosity and water saturation showing some potential above salt reservoir intervals in Murphy-1 well.

#### 614 **4.5. Source rock characteristics**

The investigated shales from Lower and Upper Gillen have low TOC values < 1 wt%. 615 Those of Lower Gillen have slightly higher TOC values (Av. 0.57 wt%) than the Upper 616 Gillen samples (Av. 0.50 wt%). Elevated TOC values (however lower than 2 wt%) are 617 observed in the shales of Inindia Beds. Most of the TOC content is attributed to the 618 residual carbon (RC), whereas the pyrolyzed carbon (PC) values are very low (Table 1). 619 The Rock-Eval S<sub>1</sub> values are low in the Lower Gillen and Inindia Beds shales (Av. 0.1 620 mg HC/rock) and are comparatively higher in the Upper Gillen shale samples (Av. 1.5 621 mg HC/rock). Rock-Eval S<sub>2</sub> values are lower than 1 in all the studied rocks. Similar to 622 623  $S_2$ , the Rock-Eval  $S_3$  values are less than 1 with values ranging from 0.04 to 0.60. Additionally, the T<sub>max</sub> values vary in a wide range in lower and Upper Gillen samples 624 (393-445°C and 350-393°C, respectively), and they range between 433°C and 435°C in 625



Fig. 15. Vertical distribution of the different wireline logs showing potential reservoir
 intervals only in the sub-salt basement of Mt Kitty-1 well.

640 The production index (PI) is high in the Upper Gillen samples with a maximum value of 0.77, while it is relatively lower (< 0.4) in the Lower Gillen and Inindia beds samples 641 (Table 1). The generative potential (GP) is less than 1 except in one sample of the 642 Upper Gillen. The hydrogen index (HI) values are very low in Lower Gillen and Inindia 643 Beds shales (31-60 and 17-21 mg HC/g TOC, respectively) and are higher in the Upper 644 Gillen with values ranging between 90 and 159 mg HC/g TOC. Similarly, the oxygen 645 index (OI) values are very low in all the studied samples with values less than 50 and 5 646 mg CO<sub>2</sub>/g TOC in the Lower Gillen and Inindia Beds, respectively, whilst elevated OI 647 values are only observed in the Upper Gillen samples (Table 1). 648

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### 4.6. Hydrocarbon and non-hydrocarbon gas analysis

The Magee-1 well gases consist mainly of N<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> comprising approximately 650 75% of the whole gas composition. Other gas phases comprise He (6.20%) with 651 subordinate contents of  $C_2$  and  $C_{2+}$  components (Table 1). The Magee-1 gas is 652 characterized by higher IC<sub>5</sub>/nC<sub>5</sub> than IC<sub>4</sub>/nC<sub>4</sub>, and a dryness coefficient (DC) value of 653 0.80. Mt Kitty-1 gases are characterized by elevated N<sub>2</sub> contents that range from 61% to 654 approximately 100%. They contain variable contents of CH<sub>4</sub> (0.04-13.14%) with 655 subordinate quantities of He (0-9%) and H<sub>2</sub> (0-11.4%). C<sub>2+</sub> phases are also significant in 656 Mt Kitty-1 gas samples where the DC values are often less than 0.75. Notably, Mt Kitty-657 1 gases display much greater  $IC_5/nC_5$  relative to  $IC_4/nC_4$  (Table 1). In Murphy-1 gas 658 samples, the hydrocarbon gases mostly constitute CH<sub>4</sub> with variable contents of C<sub>2+</sub> 659 components. Murphy-1 gases also display a wide range of DC values between 0.79-660 0.90 and show relatively elevated  $IC_4/nC_4$  than  $IC_5/nC_5$  values. 661

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## 670 **4.7. Burial model**

671 The burial model of Magee-1 well highlights five major tectonic phases that have controlled the sediment distribution and architecture in the study region. These tectonic 672 events comprise: the earliest Areyonga rifting phase that is followed by four successive 673 674 younger compressional events. These are the Petemann, Bloodwood, Rodingan and Alice Springs oroginies. The heat flow corresponding to these tectonic phases are 675 assigned as follows: 113, 75, 72, 70, and 65 mW/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively. These tectonic 676 phases likely controlled the thermal maturity of the Lower Gillen organic-rich shales 677 (Fig. 16). The pre-rift sediments were subjected to a moderate subsidence which 678 created an accommodation space for the accumulation of the thick salt layers (Gillen 679 salt) and the massive white dolomite (Loves Creek) above the Lower Gillen sediments. 680 The syn-rift phase (Areyonga rifting) was characterized by a lithospheric streching 681 coupled with elevated levels of heat flux. Contemporaneous to the post-rift thermal 682 subsidence (Cambrian-Ordovician), very thick sedimentary successions of post-rift 683 clastic facies were deposited. The post-rift thermal subsidence has been ended with the 684 onset of the successive compressive phases (Petemann, Bloodwood, Rodingan and 685 Alice Springs oroginies) during which the subsidence rate has significanly decreased 686 (Fig. 16). The top of oil window was reached at relatively shallow depths (~ 1350 m). 687 Additionally, the expulsion onset and the gas window maturity were observed at greater 688 depths (~ 2338 m) and higher temperatures (~ 117 °C, Fig. 17) compared to the oil 689 690 window.

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**Fig. 16.** Illustrative burial models for the sedimentary succession in Magee-1 well. The temperature overlay (A) is added to demonstrate the thermal history. The simulated vitrinite reflectance maturity overlay (B) was deduced using the EASY%\_Ro algorithm

(Sweeney and Burnham, 1990) as a function of time and space. The red lines
 represents the temperature intervals for 50, and 100°C.



**Fig. 17.** The burial history chart of Magee-1 well with the hydrocarbon generation zone overlay according to TII-B kinetic model of Pepper and Corvi (1995) through geologic time. The vertical colored dashed lines represent the onset of oil generation at ~ 700 Ma (green dashed line), the vertical purple dashed line represents the expulsion onset at 448 Ma and the red dashed line points to the gas generation window at 400 Ma.

739 **5. Discussion** 

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# 5.1. Hydrocarbon gas origin, generation and expulsion

The TOC and Rock-Eval pyrolysis results are frequently used to investigate and assess the capability of the organic-rich sediments to generate thermogenic hydrocarbons (Peters, 1986; Peters and Cassa, 1994, Leila and Moscariello, 2017). Based on the measured TOC values, Lower and Upper Gillen shales contain fair contents of organic matter, whereas the samples of Inindia Beds are richer in the organic content. However, the Rock-Eval S<sub>2</sub> values are below 0.8 that is often 747 considered as a lower limit to interpret the values in terms of generation potentiality, especially the T<sub>max</sub> as valid for maturity assessment. The measured S<sub>2</sub> values in studied 748 shales reflect their current poor potentiality to generate hydrocarbons upon thermal 749 cracking of the kerogen. The poor S<sub>2</sub> values in all the shale samples are consistent with 750 their depleted contents of pyrolyzed carbon (Pc), however, most of these samples may 751 have had much higher initial TOC contents than that currently preserved. Based on 752 measured present-day TOC, the initial TOC values were deduced following theoretical 753 calculations proposed by Peters et al. (2005) (Table 1). The maximum initial TOC and 754 755 HI values were theoretically deduced as 1.3 % and 500 mg HC/g TOC, respectively. Accordingly, potential source rock intervals that could have generated hydrocarbon 756 gases are hosted in the Lower Gillen and Inindia Beds (Fig. 18). However, more data 757 are required to better define the source rock in the deepest part in the drainage area of 758 the drilled structures. In addition, no work has been published for such an old, 759



Fig. 18. Production index (PI) versus Rock-Eval T<sub>max</sub> plot illustrating the potentiality of
 some intervals in Lower Gillen and Inindia Beds to generate hydrocarbon gases. The
 investigated shales of Lower Gillen Formation likely generated most of the hydrocarbon
 gases in the basin.

Dominance of C<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>2+</sub> gas phases in all the investigated HC gases points to a 778 prominent contribution from thermogenic sources (e.g. Tissot and Welte, 1978; Hunt, 779 1996). Furthermore, the calculated dryness coefficient (DC) values for the HC gases are 780 less than 0.95 which is much lower than those reported for pure biogenic gases (~ 0.99; 781 Radwan et al., 2022), thus confirming a dominant thermogenic origin for the studied HC 782 783 gases (Table 2). Genesis of hydrocarbon gases via thermogenic cracking of organicrich kerogen is often associated with generation of wet gas components (DC < 0.9), 784 however, mixing with biogenic gas phases would increase the DC values to more than 785 0.9 (Schoell, 1983; Whiticar, 1999). Accordingly, mixed biogenic and thermogenic 786 hydrocarbon gases are common in Murphy-1 well at different depths, whereas gases 787 collected from the other wells only contain thermogenic hydrocarbon gases. Occurrence 788 of some alkanes and their relative proportion such as  $iC_4/nC_4$  and  $iC_5/nC_5$  often infers 789 on the conditions of HC gas generation from mature kerogens (Wang et al., 2017, Qin 790 791 et al., 2018). With increasing thermal maturity, the concentration of the less stable isobutane decreases relative to the more stable n-butane (Qin et al., 2018). The good 792 correlation between the dryness coefficient and  $iC_4/nC_4$  (R<sup>2</sup>= 0.75) suggests generation 793 of studied HC gases via primary cracking of an organic-rich kerogen at the gas window. 794 The relationship between natural logarithms of  $C_1/C_2$  and  $C_2/C_3$  ratios commonly reflects 795 796 the mechanism of HC gas generation (primary versus secondary cracking). Hydrocarbon gases generated via secondary cracking of liquid HC phases often display 797 a progressive increase in both  $C_1/C_2$  and  $C_2/C_3$  ratios (Tao et al., 2014). The studied 798 hydrocarbon gases show a slight increase in the natural logarithms of  $C_1/C_2$  and  $C_2/C_3$ 799 ratios typifying their generation from primary cracking of a mature kerogen (Fig. 19). 800 This is consistent with our modelling results and the hypothesis of thermogenic cracking 801 802 of the Lower Gillen organic-rich intervals that have entered the gas window during the earliest Mesozoic. 803

Burial modeling results point out that the Lower Gillen had reached the gas window about 200 Ma with a simulated present-day temperature of 86°C (Fig. 16). The initial rifting phase (850 Ma to 760 Ma) was characterized by high heat flow value; however, it did not contribute to the HC generation due to the high thermal conductivity of the Upper



Fig. 19. Plot of ln  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  values typifying generation of the studied HC gas phases via primary cracking of the kerogen (Tao et al., 2014).

The transition from liquid to gaseous hydrocarbon generation was gradual with a generation phase of wet gases within the oil window. The 1D modeling results elucidated that the gas window occurred at a burial depth of 2340m in Magee-1 well. The first two tectonic events have induced a minimal impact on the hydrocarbon

generation due to the cooling effect of the overlying Gillen salt layers. Despite the fact 831 that the burial temperature did not exceed 110°C and was even constant since the Late 832 Paleozoic, the prolonged exposure to this temperature resulted in a slow maturation of 833 the organic matter and kerogen transformation into hydrocarbons (e.g. Loptain, 1971; 834 Waples, 1980; Wood, 2018). We hypothesize that the kerogen type of the initial organic 835 matter, the interplay between burial temperature, exposure time as well as the cooling 836 effect induced by the Upper Gillen salt control the type and composition of the 837 generated hydrocarbons. 838

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#### 5.2. Origin of H<sub>2</sub> and He

Helium (He) occurrence in the study area with a maximum content of 9% in Mt Kitty-840 841 1 well presents one of the highest recorded subsurface concentrations ever recorded on Earth (McInnes et al., 2017, Boreham et al., 2018). Furthermore, the He-rich gases are 842 mixed with a significant concentration of  $H_2$  (~ 11%) as well as wet hydrocarbon gases 843  $(C_1/C_2 \sim 3)$ . This unusual gas blend reveals a complex interplay between various gas 844 generation processes in the subsurface. The occurrence of He in the subsurface is 845 often associated with either mantellic or crustal gases as well as the dissolution of 846 atmospheric gases in the groundwater (Poreda et al., 1986; Ni et al., 2014; Moore et al., 847 2017). Except mantellic gases, all the other sources are associated with an enrichment 848 of <sup>4</sup>He relative to <sup>3</sup>He. Therefore, a useful tool to discriminate the origin of He-rich gases 849 850 is the relative proportion of He isotopic composition (R= <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He) relative to that in the air ( $R_a$ = 1.4 × 10<sup>-6</sup>). For example, the He derived from the upper mantle displays 851 average R/R<sub>a</sub> values between 2 and 8, whereas those from the lower mantle show 852 elevated R/R<sub>a</sub> values up to 40 (Ni et al., 2014; Moore et al., 2017). Helium derived from 853 the Mid-Ocean Ridge Basalt (MORB) displays high isotope ratios with an average 854 (R/R<sub>a</sub>) value of about 8. On the other hand, atmospheric He dissolved in the 855 groundwater has an average (R/R<sub>a</sub>) value of approximately 1, whereas the crustal-856 derived He is largely depleted in <sup>3</sup>He and therefore has an average value of 0.02 or less 857 (Ballentine et al., 1991). 858

The relative abundance of some elements such as uranium and thorium in the rock forming minerals determines the extent of He generation from the crustal rocks and hence controls its average R/R<sub>a</sub> values (e.g. Poreda et al. 1986; Darrah et al. 2015;
Moore et al. 2017). Pure crustal-derived He commonly shows R/R<sub>a</sub> values greater than
0.05 and mixing with mantle-derived He would increase the values up to 0.5 (Ni et al.,



**Fig. 20.** (A) Plot of R/Ra ratio versus <sup>3</sup>He/CO<sub>2</sub>, (B) <sup>4</sup>He versus R/Ra plot illustrating the crustal origin of helium in the studied gases. Data are from McInnes et al. (2017).

The log-log plot of R/R<sub>a</sub> versus <sup>4</sup>He concentration (Fig. 20B) confirms the dominant 889 crustal origin of He in Mt Kitty-1 well. Thus, we hypothesize that He gas accumulation in 890 Mt Kitty-1 well is mostly derived from the sub-salt granitic basement rocks. The spectral 891 gamma ray logs typified that these rocks are rich in uranium and thorium (Fig. 15), thus 892 they are capable of generating helium via radiogenic reactions and radioactive decay 893 these elements. This crustal derivation of He is often coupled with a concomitant 894 generation of H<sub>2</sub> via a radiolytic dissociation of water (e.g. Lin et al., 2005; Warr et al., 895 896 2019). Alternatively, H<sub>2</sub> may also be generated by oxidation of iron rich materials but we do not have data on the deepest layer mineralogy to discuss this hypothesis. Another 897 plausible mechanism for H<sub>2</sub> generation is the oxidation of hydrocarbons, however the 898 negative correlation between H<sub>2</sub> and hydrocarbon phases such as CH<sub>4</sub> ( $R^2$ = -0.75) as 899 well as the complete absence of H<sub>2</sub> in the above-salt layers of Murphy-1 well may rule 900 out a significant H<sub>2</sub> input via oxidation of HC gases. 901

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#### 5.3. Gas accumulation versus gas seepage

In the study region, the studied gases are reported from the sub-salt basement and 903 Heavitree Formation. Fractures in the granitic basement present the main gas-bearing 904 zones in Mt Kitty-1 well. Fractures are ubiquitous in the Proterozoic basement rocks 905 906 paving the base of the Amadeus Basin. The fracture network is commonly controlled by the faults and the high porosities and permeabilities are often associated with the 907 tectonically induced fractures (Heap and Kennedy, 2016). Mt-Kitty-1 well is located in a 908 tectonically-high region due to the tectonic uplift of the faulted basement associated with 909 the fracture patterns and deep-seated faults which are commonly infilled with gases 910 (high resistivity zones) that are sealed beneath the thick Gillen salt layers (Fig. 6). 911 Therefore, gas accumulation in Mt Kitty-1 area are a classical structural trap sealed by 912 913 the thick salt layers.

The porous sandstones of Heavitree Formation present a potential gas pay zone in Magee-1 well. Heavitree Formation has minimal contents of matrix and pore-filling cements and therefore preserves a very good intergranular porosity. The intergranular pores are well-connected and hence display a good effective porosity likely infilled with 918 gases (Fig. 11). But the Heavitree Formation is very thin in Magee-1 well (< 6 m), and 919 thus hindering any economic accumulation of gases. Moreover, economic gas 920 accumulations should occur in the western and southwestern parts of the basin where 921 the Heavitree Formation is believed to be thicker (Fig. 5B). Additionally, the thickness of 922 the Gillen salt layers also increases westward and southwestward and therefore will 923 provide effective seal for the trapped gasses in the Heavitree pay zone (Fig. 8B).

The above-salt reservoir intervals are scarce and the wireline log results reveal occurrence of thick non-porous and impermeable intervals. However, thin porous and permeable sandstone zones were observed in the Inindia Beds where the effective porosity reaches up to 20%. These zones likely present potential reservoirs for the gaseous hydrocarbons that were generated from the organic-rich zones in Inindia Beds, however its low thickness may hinder any economic gas accumulations in this region.

Gas seepage zones such as SCD are correlated with distribution of the thin salt 930 layers. Observed discrepancies in the seismic reflections (gas chimneys) often coincide 931 with the regions where the thickness of the salt layers is minimal (Fig. 7). Thick 932 accumulation of salt layers commonly provides effective seal for fluids preventing their 933 934 leakage and hence allows the economic gas accumulation and entrapment in the reservoir rocks (Grunau, 1987; Schlomer and Krooss, 1997). Furthermore, for gases 935 with a relatively small atomic radius such as He and H<sub>2</sub>, thick impervious salt layers are 936 essential for to their entrapment in the reservoir. On the other hand, a clear link is 937 observed between the surficial SCD distribution and the subsurface gas chimneys (Fig. 938 939 22), and both are correlated with regions where thin layers of Gillen salt exist.



**Fig. 21.** Interpreted 2D seismic profile illustrating possible occurrence of gas chimneys where the Gillen Salt layers are thinning. The subsurface gas chimneys are well-correlated with SCD typifying continuous gas emanations.

#### 952 6. Conclusions

- In the Amadeus Basin, hydrocarbon (HC) and non-hydrocarbon gas blend was
   discovered in some exploratory wells. The gases range from HC-He-rich in
   Magee-1 to HC-He-H2 blend in Mt Kitty-1 well.
- The HC gases are wet gas with a significant share (> 10%) of  $C_{2+}$ 957 components.
- Potential HC-source rock intervals likely occur in the Neoproterozoic Lower
   Gillen shales, however, the Rock-Eval data revealed a remnant inert carbon
   with minimal capability to generate HC gases.
- Modeling results shows that wet HC-gases may have been generated from the
   Lower Gillen shales that had an initial organic carbon of at least 1.3 wt% and
   entered the gas generation window during Late Devonian at the end of Alice
   Springs orogeny. The temperatures remain rather low but the 400 years
   allowed this gas generation.
- He-rich gases display a crustal signature with elevated <sup>3</sup>He contents and R/R<sub>a</sub>
   value of 0.031 typifying their generation via radiolytic decay of the thorium and
   uranium-rich basement potentially synchronous with H<sub>2</sub> generation from
   radiolysis. Other source of H<sub>2</sub> by water reduction cannot be precluded.

The Amadeus Basin case study allows to open new horizons since the gas is very likely a classical accumulation, in a structural trap sealed by a salt layer. The reservoir has been charged by these three gases at different rates but probably all over hundreds of millions of years since the He generation is a low process. The presence of this mixture shows that the salt may retain these light gases for millions of years, which opens new exploration perspectives.

#### 976 Acknowledgment

The authors gratefully acknowledge Emanuelle Frery for the collaboration and the help to collect the Amadeus basin data set. Moreover, some datasets (e.g. 2D seismic) were kindly provided by Geoscience Exploration and Mining Information System (GEMIS) of the Northern Territory, Australia. We thank Dan Levy and Gabriel Pasquet, from E2S UPPA, for many interesting discussions. We appreciate the comments of Branimir Segvic and another anonymous reviewer that significantly improved the manuscript. This work is a part of Keanu Loiseau master project that has been funded by Engie. A part of the work has also been funded by Campus France in the frame of Make our Planet Great Again "MOPGA" program (project number mopga-pdf-0000000089).

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Well name	Formation	Depth (m)	TOC (wt% )	PC (wt%)	S1 mg/g	S₂ mg/g	S₃ mg/g	T <sub>max</sub> (C°)	н	OI	PI	GP
Magee-1	U. Gillen	1927	0.52	0.07	0.35	0.47	0.47	393	90	903	0.43	0.82
Magee-1	U. Gillen	2217	0.49	0.28	2.65	0.78	0.60	350	159	122	0.77	3.43
Magee-1	L. Gillen	2323	0.79	0.05	0.18	0.45	0.27	442	57	34	0.29	0.63
Magee-1	L. Gillen	2326	0.81	0.05	0.20	0.41	0.27	445	51	33	0.33	0.61
Magee-1	L. Gillen	2329	0.53	0.03	0.10	0.28	0.24	444	53	45	0.26	0.38
Magee-1	L. Gillen	2332	0.63	0.03	0.09	0.33	0.24	441	52	38	0.21	0.42
Magee-1	L. Gillen	2335	0.49	0.02	0.06	0.21	0.20	442	43	41	0.22	0.27
Magee-1	L. Gillen	2338	0.60	0.04	0.11	0.36	0.21	442	60	35	0.23	0.47
Magee-1	L. Gillen	2341	0.50	0.03	0.09	0.31	0.15	444	62	30	0.23	0.40
Magee-1	L. Gillen	2344	0.45	0.02	0.05	0.14	0.18	393	31	40	0.26	0.19
Murphy-1	Inindia Beds	1005	2.29	0.05	0.13	0.49	0.04	433	21	2	0.21	0.62
Murphy-1	Inindia Beds	1056	3.19	0.06	0.16	0.53	0.06	435	17	2	0.23	0.69

**Table 1.** Total organic carbon (TOC) and Rock-Eval pyrolysis results for the analyzed shale samples retrieved from the studied wells in Amadeus Basin.

1226 TOC = total organic carbon.  $S_1$  = volatile hydrocarbon content (mg HC/g rock);  $S_2$  = remaining 1227 hydrocarbon generative potential (mg HC/g rock);  $S_3$  = carbon dioxide yield (mg CO<sub>2</sub>/g rock);  $T_{max}$  = 1228 temperature at maximum of S2 peak; HI = hydrogen index ( $S_2 \times 100/TOC$ ) (mg HC/g TOC); OI = oxygen 1229 index ( $S_3 \times 100/TOC$ ) (mg CO<sub>2</sub>/g TOC); PI = production index ( $S_1/(S_1 + S_2)$ ); GP = Generation potential 1230 ( $S_1 + S_2$ ) (mg/g).

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1237	Table 2. Composition of the analyzed gas blend collected from the studied wells in Amadeus Basin. isotope gas analyses
1238	are reported from McInnes et al. (2017).

Well name	Depth (m)	N <sub>2</sub>	Ar	Не	H₂	CO <sub>2</sub>	<b>C</b> 1	C2	C <sub>2+</sub>	IC₄/ nC₄	IC₅/ nC₅	DC	R/R <sub>a</sub>	CO₂/ ³He	<sup>84</sup> Kr/ <sup>36</sup> Ar	<sup>132</sup> Xe∕ <sup>84</sup> Kr
Magee-1	2349	43.61	0.46	6.20	0.03	0.82	39.26	6.10	3.52	0.63	1.11	0.80	-	-	-	-
Mt Kitty-1	2144	79.62	-	4.23	5.05	0.33	7.29	2.10	2.85	0.41	8.00	0.71	-	-	-	-
Mt Kitty-1	2156	61.04	0.57	8.96	11.4	0.09	13.14	3.53	1.24	0.36	6.50	0.73	0.031*	4.46 x 10 <sup>7*</sup>	0.0062*	0.142*
Mt Kitty-1	2253	99.67	-	0.0	0.0	0.08	0.04	0.02	0.01	0	0	-				
Murphy-1	1647	-	-	-	-	-	1.18	0.01	0.31	0	0	0.79				
Murphy-1	1650	-	-	-	-	-	32.69	2.87	3.90	1.08	0.96	0.83				
Murphy-1	1653	-	-	-	-	-	72.61	3.21	0.99	1.10	0.25	0.94				
Murphy-1	1656	-	-	-	-	-	27.81	3.14	3.61	1.30	0.82	0.81				
Murphy-1	1764	-	-	-	-	-	1.48	0.08	0.16	0	0	0.90				

1239 Dc is the dryness Coefficient  $(C_1/\Sigma C_1-C_3)$ ; \* Noble gas data is from (McInnes et al., 2017).