

**UNIVERSIDADE DO VALE DO RIO DOS SINOS - UNISINOS
UNIDADE ACADÊMICA DE PESQUISA E PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM GEOLOGIA
NÍVEL MESTRADO**

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**EVOLUÇÃO TERMAL DE POTENCIAIS RESERVATÓRIOS NA PORÇÃO LESTE
DA BACIA DO PARNAÍBA**

SÃO LEOPOLDO

2018

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EVOLUÇÃO TERMAL DE POTENCIAIS RESERVATÓRIOS NA PORÇÃO LESTE DA
BACIA DO PARNAÍBA

Artigo apresentado como requisito parcial para
obtenção do título de Mestre em Geologia, pelo
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Geologia da
Universidade do Vale do Rio dos Sinos -
UNISINOS

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São Leopoldo
2018

C268e

Cardoso Júnior, Márcio.

Evolução termal de potenciais reservatórios na porção leste da bacia do Parnaíba / Márcio Cardoso Júnior. – 2018. 68 f. : il. ; 30 cm.

Dissertação (mestrado) – Universidade do Vale do Rio dos Sinos, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Geologia, 2018.

“Orientador: Prof. Dr. Farid Chemale Júnior; coorientadora: Dra. Christie Helouise Engelmann de Oliveira.”

1. Formação Poti. 2. Termocronologia por traço de fissão. 3. Reservatórios de gás. I. Título.

CDU 55

AGRADECIMENTOS

Gostaria de agradecer a todos que durante o período do meu mestrado contribuíram para a realização desta dissertação, e especialmente:

- Ao Projeto POTI ANP-UnB-PGN pelos custos de viagem de campo e pelas amostras utilizadas neste trabalho;

- A CAPES pela bolsa PROSUC de estudo;

- Ao meu orientador Farid Chemale Jr. pela confiança e a oportunidade de desenvolver este trabalho, e pelo auxílio durante todo o mestrado;

- A minha coorientadora Christie H. E. de Oliveira pelas empolgantes discussões e pelos muitos momentos de trabalho compartilhado, além de sua grande amizade;

- Aos meus pais, Márcio Cardoso e Ana Beatriz Amboni que sempre me deram muito suporte e estão presentes ao meu lado para me auxiliar em minhas decisões;

- A minha colega e amiga Ariane S. da Silveira, quem me incentivou a entrar no mestrado e sempre me passa valiosos conselhos;

- Aos professores do PPG em Geologia que me passaram seus conhecimentos e vasta experiência, além de me ajudarem na construção desta dissertação;

- E aos meus colegas de mestrado e amigos com quem tive momentos de descontração e boas conversas, entre eles, Franciele Trentin, Laís Vieira, Mauro Daniel R. Bruno, Lucas R. Norenberg, Cândido Hanauer, Marcelo K. de Souza, Henrique A. Lopes, Ricardo Paiva e Valessa Araújo.

RESUMO

Nas últimas décadas, a Bacia do Parnaíba vem sendo assunto de estudo desde que foi descoberto seu alto potencial para exploração de gás natural. Neste escopo, a área de estudo deste trabalho está localizada na porção leste da bacia, região nordeste do Brasil, na qual afloram arenitos e siltitos das formações Cabeças (Devoniano) e Poti (Carbonífero), rochas reservatório da Bacia do Parnaíba. Subordinadamente, rochas magmáticas estão presentes correspondentes a dois eventos intrusivos de idade Mesozóica atribuídas às formações Mosquito e Sardinha. O primeiro evento é relacionado à ruptura entre a América do Norte e a América do Sul, e o segundo, entre a América do Sul e a África, cujos processos de intrusão magmática nas rochas sedimentares paleozóicas alteraram não somente as características petrográficas destas rochas, mas também modificaram as propriedades das rochas reservatório na bacia, sendo essas alterações identificadas durante etapas exploratórias. Foram coletadas amostras de rochas sedimentares em furos de sondagem e afloramentos, nas quais foram aplicados métodos de Termocronologia por Traços de Fissão em apatita e zircão, e petrografia, com o objetivo de integrar os dados de história térmica com as propriedades físicas das rochas, relacionando aos sistemas petrolíferos da região. Os resultados de Traços de Fissão em apatita e zircão indicam que o evento magmático da Formação Sardinha (Cretáceo) foi o de maior influência nesta porção da bacia. Em porções próximas as rochas magmáticas, as paleotemperaturas superaram 300 °C, condição que alterou os reservatórios. As altas temperaturas mobilizaram fluidos hidrotermais que alteraram as rochas pela dissolução de minerais e precipitação de cimento carbonático nos espaços porosos. Em porções onde a influência térmica foi atenuada, em termos de paleotemperatura máxima, as condições se tornam favoráveis para a não alteração térmica dos reservatórios.

Palavras-Chave: Formação Poti, Termocronologia por Traço de Fissão, Reservatório de Gás.

ABSTRACT

In the last few decades, the Parnaíba Basin is being subject of study since it was discovered its high potential on natural gas exploration. In this scope, the study area is located on the eastern part of the basin, northern region of Brazil, in which outcrop sandstones and siltstones of the Cabeças (Devonian) and Poti (Carboniferous) Formation, reservoir rocks of Parnaíba Basin. Subordinately, magmatic rocks are present corresponding to two intrusive events of Mesozoic ages attributed to the Mosquito and Sardinha formations. The first event is related to the breakup between the North America and South America, and the second, between South America and Africa, whose processes of magmatic intrusion in the Paleozoic rocks changed not only the petrographic characteristics of these rocks, but also modified the properties of the reservoir rocks in the basin, being these alterations identified during exploration stages. It was collected samples of sedimentary rocks in drilled core and outcrops, in which were applied method of Thermochronology by Fission-tracks in apatite and zircon, and petrography, with the objective to integrate data of thermal history and physical properties of the rocks, relating to petroleum systems in the region. The results of Fission-tracks in apatite and zircon indicated that the magmatic event of the Sardinha Formation (Cretaceous) was the major influence in the portion of the basin. In near portion of the magmatic rocks, the paleotemperatures have overcome 300 °C, condition that altered the reservoirs. The high temperatures mobilized hydrothermal fluids which altered the rocks by dissolving minerals and precipitation of carbonate cement in the pore space. In portions where the thermal influence is attenuated, in terms of maximum paleotemperature, the conditions become favorable for the non-thermal alteration of reservoirs.

Keywords: Poti Formation, Thermochronology by Fission-tracks, Gas Reservoir.

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APRESENTAÇÃO

A Bacia do Parnaíba apresenta um alto potencial exploratório para reservatórios de gás nas formações Poti e Cabeças. A qualidade destes reservatórios é dependente da presença dos dois pulsos intrusivos ocorridos durante o período Mesozóico. Especificamente, o aquecimento provocado pelas rochas ígneas modificou os parâmetros físicos e a maturação dos hidrocarbonetos das rochas sedimentares adjacentes, tanto nas rochas geradoras, como nas rochas reservatório. Os processos de aquecimento ligados aos pulsos magmáticos podem ter influência direta no comportamento heterogêneo no que tange ao processo de extração de gás.

Sendo assim, o principal objetivo desta dissertação é determinar os efeitos na qualidade dos níveis reservatório potenciais das formações Poti e Cabeças pela influência térmica das rochas intrusivas. Os objetivos secundários são: determinar a variação de temperatura próxima às rochas intrusivas e as propriedades diagenéticas das rochas sedimentares potenciais para reservatórios de gás. A determinação dos efeitos térmicos nas rochas reservatório foi realizada por meio de estudos petrográficos em lâminas delgadas e análises termocronológicas por traços de fissão em apatita e zircão.

Esta dissertação faz parte do projeto de pesquisa e desenvolvimento executado pelo Instituto de Geociências da Universidade de Brasília (UnB) com participação da Fundação de Empreendimentos Científicos e Tecnológicos (FINATEC) Parnaíba Gás Natural (PGN), Agência Nacional do Petróleo, Gás e Biocombustíveis (ANP), denominado de POTI ANP-UnB-PGN e coordenado pelos professores Carlos Emanuel de Souza Cruz e Carlos Jorge de Abreu. Durante a realização do projeto foi realizada uma saída de campo (16/04/2017 – 21/04/2017) para coleta de 10 amostras (testemunho e afloramento) próximas aos corpos magmáticos, a fim de aplicar os métodos enunciados acima. Os resultados obtidos culminaram na produção do manuscrito “THERMAL HISTORY OF POTENTIAL GAS RESERVOIR

ROCKS IN THE EASTERN PARNAÍBA BASIN, BRAZIL”, posicionado ao fim deste volume, no qual são elencadas discussões e conclusões.

A BACIA DO PARNAÍBA E OS SISTEMAS PETROLÍFEROS

A Bacia do Parnaíba cobre uma área aproximada de 600.000 Km², com seu maior diâmetro na direção nordeste/sudoeste, recobrando parte dos estados do Piauí, Maranhão, Pará, Tocantins, Ceará e Bahia (Fig. 1). A bacia está posicionada sobre um embasamento constituído de rochas sedimentares, ígneas e metamórficas, datadas do Arqueano ao Ordoviciano (VAZ et al., 2007). Almeida e Carneiro (2004) indicam que a subsidência inicial da bacia estaria ligada a eventos térmicos tardi- ou pós-orogênicos do Ciclo Brasileiro, citados pelos autores como “Estádio de Transição”, no qual começaram a se desenvolver registros sedimentares em zonas deprimidas por falhamentos indicados por Oliveira e Mohriak (2003) em uma fase *rift*, pré-sinéclise.

O registro sedimentar da fase sinéclise da Bacia do Parnaíba é dividido em cinco supersequências: Siluriana, Mesodevoniana-Eocarbonífera, Neocarbonífera-Eotriássica, Jurássica e Cretácea, correspondendo a ciclos transgressivos-regressivos. A bacia tem uma espessura máxima de 3.500 metros no depocentro principal, o que indica uma lenta subsidência devido à pequena espessura de sedimentos e amplo intervalo de tempo (VAZ et al., 2007).

A Supersequência Siluriana é formada pelo Grupo Serra Grande, correspondendo a um ciclo transgressivo-regressivo completo depositado sobre o embasamento de idade proterozóica a cambriana. O grupo é constituído pelas formações Ipú, Tianguá e Jaicós. As rochas estão presentes em toda a extensão da bacia, aflorando na borda leste sobre o embasamento. O contato entre as formações é concordante, e a Formação Tianguá inclui a superfície de inundação máxima do Grupo Serra Grande (VAZ et al., 2007).

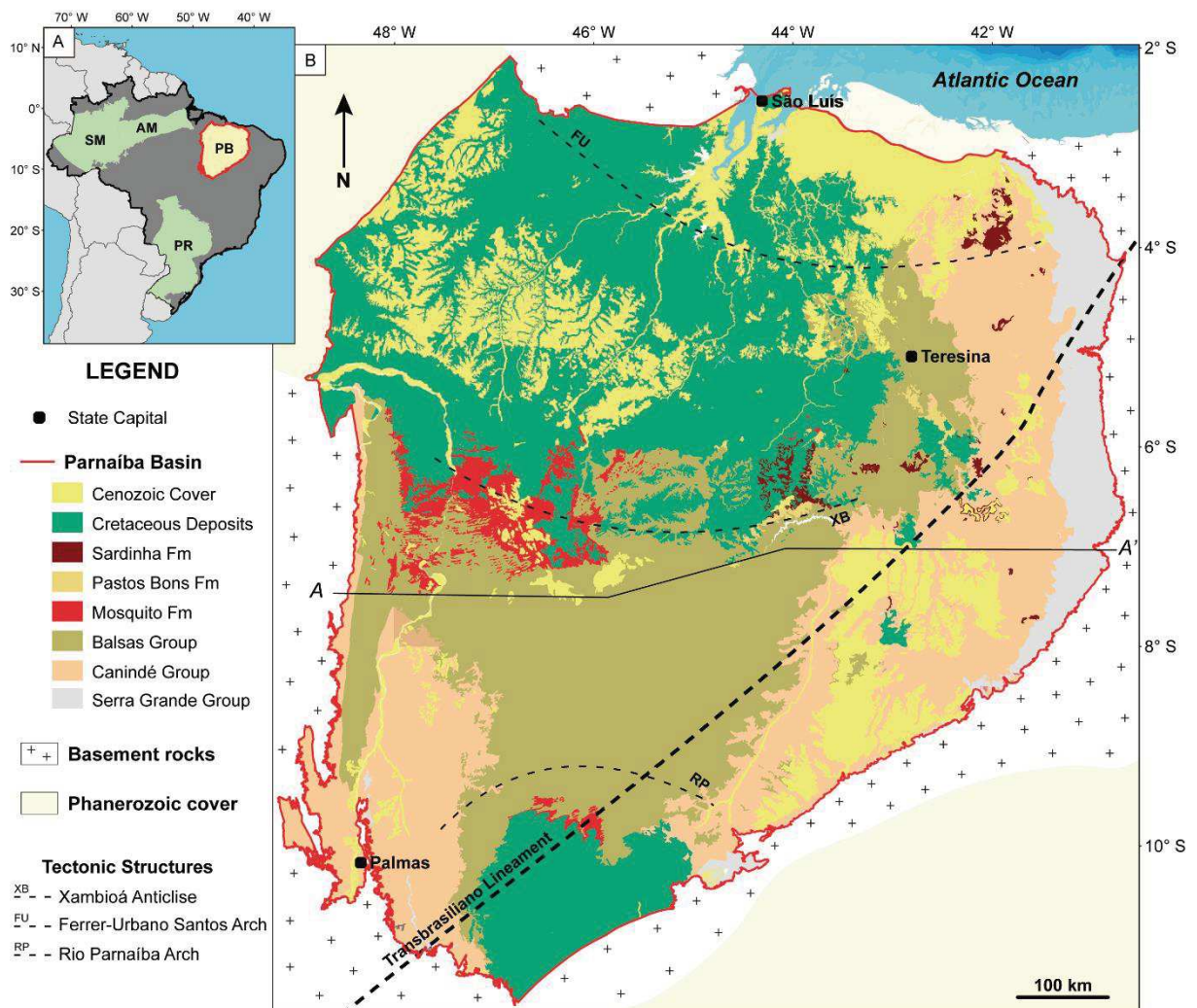


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A Supersequência Mesodevoniana-Eocarbonífera corresponde ao Grupo Canindé, constituído pelas formações Itaim, Pimenteiras, Cabeças, Longá e Poti, depositado de forma discordante sobre a supersequência anterior. Na base da sequência está a Formação Itaim, descrita como depósitos de tempestitos de ambiente de plataforma rasa. Acima, tem-se a Formação Pimenteiras, constituída de folhelhos escuros ricos em matéria orgânica. Durante a deposição dos folhelhos desta formação, diversos autores indicam o momento de transgressão máxima registrado na bacia. Após a ingressão marinha da Formação Pimenteiras está

posicionada a Formação Cabeças, composta por diamictitos e arenito fino de ambiente nerítico plataformal com influência periglacial registrando um evento glacial no norte da América do Sul. A Formação Longá consiste de folhelhos laminados e siltitos bioturbados que sobrepõem a Formação Cabeças. Os depósitos desta formação são interpretados como registro de um ambiente deposicional de mar epicontinental, no qual os siltitos indicam a transgressão pós-glacial e os folhelhos, uma sedimentação mais profunda. No topo do grupo está a Formação Poti, constituída na base de arenitos finos e siltitos com estratificação cruzada *hummocky* interpretados como ambientes de deposição de *shoreface* inferior/superior marinho raso. No topo, arenitos com lentes de silito interpretados como canais flúvio-estuarinos e planícies de maré (Figs. 2B, 2C e 2D) (GÓES e FEIJÓ, 1994; GÓES, 1995; MILANI e ZALÁN, 1999; VAZ et al., 2007).

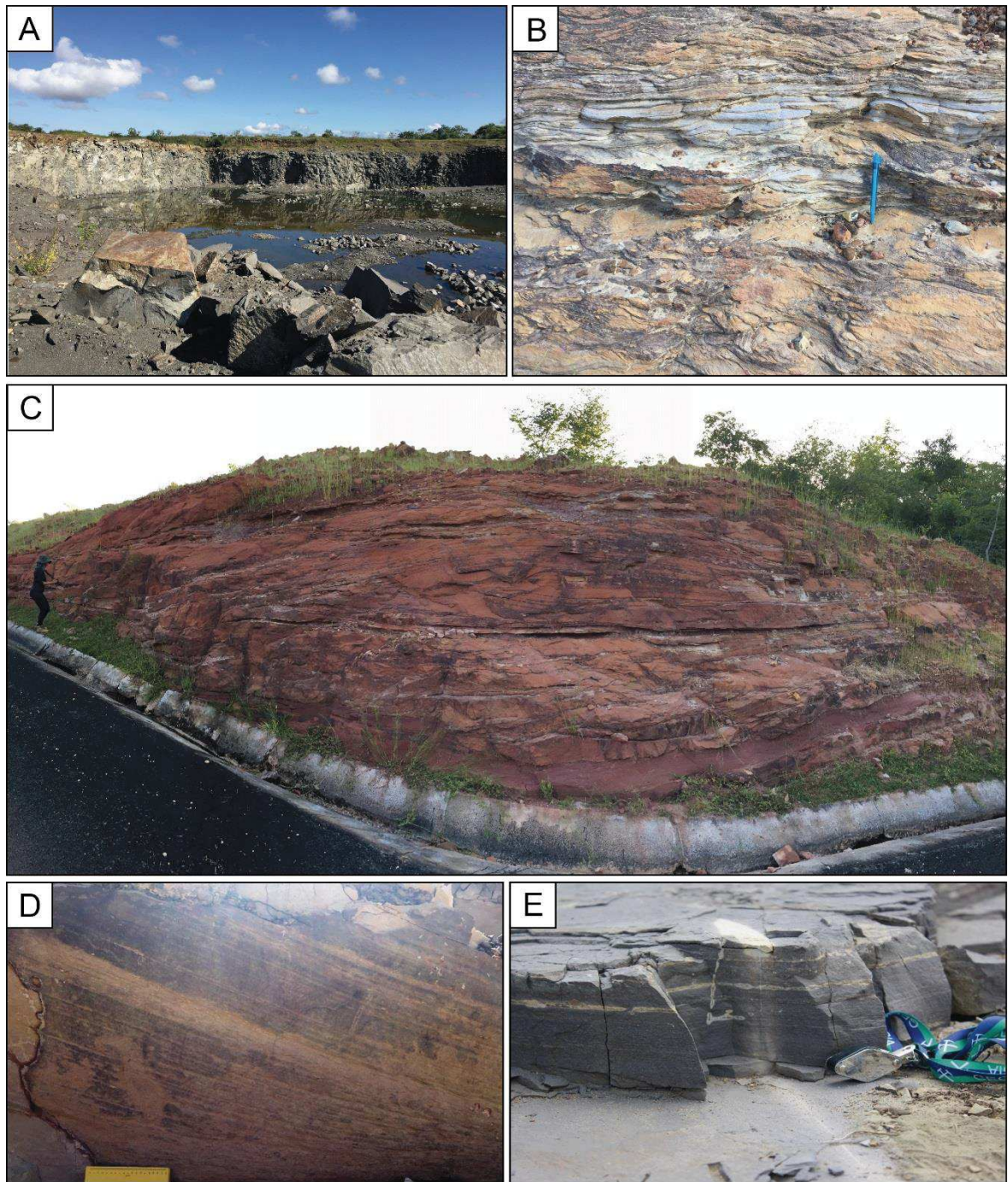


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Na Supersequência Mesodevoniana-Eocarbonífera estão contidos os principais sistemas petrolíferos da Bacia do Parnaíba em produção. No sistema Pimenteiras-Cabeças(!), os

folhelhos marinhos radioativos da Formação Pimenteiras são as rochas geradoras com níveis máximos de até 6% de COT, enquanto os arenitos deltáicos da Formação Cabeças são as rochas reservatório. No sistema Pimenteiras-Poti(!), no qual a fonte geradora é a mesma, as rochas reservatório são os arenitos de ambiente costeiro da Formação Poti (ANP, 2015). Os folhelhos e seu caráter gerador estão diretamente relacionados aos pulsos intrusivos magmáticos na bacia que possibilitaram a maturação dos hidrocarbonetos pela ação térmica. Nos sistemas, as rochas ígneas atuam como *traps* estratigráficos em forma de soleiras e diques (RODRIGUES, 1995).

A Supersequência Neocarbonífera-Eotriássica é constituída pelo Grupo Balsas, formado pelas formações Piauí, Pedra de Fogo, Motuca e Sambaíba. Durante esta sequência a bacia sofre mudanças drásticas de ambiente deposicionais. Inicialmente desenvolveram-se mares abertos de clima temperado que passaram a mares restritos de clima árido, registrando contato concordante entre as formações. Um evento de regressão mundial no final do período Permiano causou uma progressiva desertificação do mar epicontinental da bacia, culminando na formação de depósitos desérticos relacionados à Formação Sambaíba. A presença de arenitos altamente ferruginosos da Formação Sambaíba indica a influência térmica de intrusões basálticas, sendo inferida uma contemporaneidade entre estes depósitos e os primeiros derrames dos basaltos da Formação Mosquito (VAZ et al., 2007; ARAÚJO et al., 2016; VIEIRA e SCHERER, 2017).

A Supersequência Jurássica é composta pela Formação Pastos Bons e teve sua subsidência inicial resultante de movimentos isostáticos decorrentes da carga das rochas intrusivas da Formação Mosquito e do pacote sedimentar. São depósitos de ambientes continentais associados a paleodepressões com contribuições fluviais em ambientes lacustres de clima árido (Fig. 2E). A fase final desta unidade sedimentar é consequente de movimentos tectônicos da abertura do Oceano Atlântico (VAZ et al., 2007; CARDOSO et al., 2017).

A Supersequência Cretácea está posicionada no topo do registro sedimentar da bacia. Em decorrência da abertura do Oceano Atlântico, o depocentro passou para a porção

norte/nordeste, sendo as ingressões marinhas durante o período provenientes deste oceano. Esta sequência é constituída pelas formações Corda, Grajaú, Codó e Itapecuru (VAZ et al., 2007). Segundo Rossetti et al. (2001), as três primeiras formações são contemporâneas, indicado por interdigitações, e têm idades Neoptianas a Eoalbianas. A Formação Itapecuru é interpretada como depósitos gerados em ambiente fluvial à estuarino/lagunar, em uma tendência transgressiva, discordantes sobre as formações Grajaú e Codó.

Durante o período Mesozóico, eventos distensivos de remobilização de falhas e surgimento de fraturas possibilitaram a intrusão de corpos ígneos na bacia. As intrusões se dividem em dois pulsos, as formações Mosquito e Sardinha, que ocorrem como diques e *sills* em toda a bacia. A Formação Mosquito é descrita por intrusões basálticas relacionados ao rifteamento do Atlântico Central e idades Eojurássicas, enquanto que a Formação Sardinha está associada a corpos basálticos dispostos principalmente em forma de diques, relacionados ao *rift* do Atlântico Sul e idades Eocretáceas (Fig. 2A) (BAKSI e ARCHIBALD, 1997; MERLE et al., 2011; SILVA et al., 2017).

A Formação Mosquito é correlacionada à Província Magmática do Atlântico Central (CAMP), um *Large Igneous Province* (LIP) que afetou termicamente rochas da América, Europa e África. O evento está associado a fragmentação do Supercontinente Pangeia que deu origem ao Oceano Atlântico Central. Neste contexto, a Formação Mosquito representa um conjunto de eventos intrusivos do CAMP, datado por Merle et al. (2011) utilizando Ar^{40}/Ar^{39} e obtendo idade de $199 \pm 2,4$ Ma. A Formação Sardinha é correlacionada a Província Magmática Paraná-Etendeka (PEMP), evento que afetou a América do Sul e África durante a abertura do Oceano Atlântico Sul. Diversos autores realizaram trabalhos de datação nas rochas desta formação, indicando idades entre ~120 e 130 Ma (FODOR et al., 1990; BAKSI e ARCHIBALD, 1997).

O MÉTODO TERMOCRONOLOGIA POR TRAÇOS DE FISSÃO

A Termocronologia por Traços de Fissão (TF) é atualmente um dos métodos termocronológicos mais usado para estabelecer histórias térmicas da crosta superior em diferentes ambientes tectônicos e geomorfológicos. O método TF proporciona informações de história térmica de baixa temperatura para apatita até ~120 °C e para zircão até ~320 °C. As idades derivadas do método são correlacionadas aos eventos térmicos aos quais uma amostra tenha sido submetida desde sua formação, e podem representar tanto a idade de cristalização da rocha, como a idade do(s) evento(s) térmico(s) (GALLAGHER et al., 1998; BERNET e GARVER, 2005; TAGAMI e O'SULLIVAN, 2005; LISKER et al., 2009).

O método se baseia na fissão espontânea dos átomos de ^{238}U contido no retículo cristalino dos minerais que causa a separação do isótopo de U em dois segmentos com forças repulsivas entre si, gerando traços iônicos nos trajetos da repulsão (traços de fissão). O método TF é aplicado a minerais acessórios cuja concentração de ^{238}U (1-1000 ppm) seja suficiente para contagem/medição dos traços, sendo os mais comuns a apatita, o zircão e a titanita. Os traços recém-formados possuem comprimento médio de ~11 μm (zircão) e ~16 μm (apatita). Estes traços são continuamente produzidos no mineral ao longo do tempo, podendo ser observados em microscópio óptico sob aumentos de aproximadamente 1200x, depois de um ataque químico conveniente. O processo de fissão que danifica o cristal produzindo os traços é termicamente ativado, sendo iniciado na temperatura de fechamento para cada mineral. Acima da temperatura de fechamento, os traços se remobilizam e tendem a se apagar (GALLAGHER et al., 1998; KETCHAM et al., 1999; BERNET e GARVER, 2005; REINERS e BRANDON, 2006).

Segundo Dodson (1973), a temperatura de fechamento é definida como a temperatura de um dado termocronômetro (p.ex., TF em zircão ou apatita) no momento correspondente à sua idade aparente (p.ex., idade TF). Em apatitas, esta temperatura é fortemente influenciada

pela composição química dos cristais, e no zircão ao dano acumulado de radiação no cristal (metamictização). Diversos experimentos realizados por diferentes pesquisadores (GALLAGHER et al., 1998; KETCHAM et al., 1999) indicam temperaturas de fechamento genéricas para as apatitas, variando de 60 °C a 120 °C, sendo que as flúor-apatitas possuem temperaturas de fechamento menores, enquanto que as cloro-apatitas temperaturas maiores. A determinação composicional das apatitas, o teor de cloro, pode ser realizada por microsonda eletrônica, e pela determinação do Dpar. O Dpar é a medida do diâmetro paralelo ao eixo cristalográfico “c” do traço em um cristal, formado pela intersecção de um *etch pit* com a superfície polida do cristal (DONELICK, 1993). O Dpar indica correlação positiva com teores de Cl e OH, e negativa com F, sendo possível identificar a composição da apatita analisada, a partir de sua medida. No zircão, cristais com maiores danos de radiação possuem temperaturas de fechamento mais baixas (~180–260 °C) e são menos resistentes ao apagamento dos traços do que cristais com menos danos (300–360 °C) (GALLAGHER et al., 1998; GARVER et al. 2005; REINERS e BRANDON, 2006).

Outro conceito importante no método TF é o processo de encurtamento e apagamento dos traços que ocorre em uma escala de temperatura chamada de Zona de *Annealing* Parcial (PAZ) (WAGNER, 1979). Esta zona compreende temperaturas de 60 °C a 120 °C nas apatitas e 180 °C a 320 °C no zircão. Nesta zona, novos traços começam a ser formados e os antigos encurtados, porém todos os traços sofrem um contínuo encurtamento se permanecerem nesta zona por um certo período. Segundo Laslett et al. (1987), o tempo necessário para alterar o comprimento dos traços é de ~10 Ma para fontes térmicas monotônicas, podendo variar para fontes de calor heterogêneas. Se o cristal for aquecido além desta zona de temperatura (p.ex. $T > 120$ °C em apatitas) pode sofrer o *annealing* total dos traços, redefinindo a estrutura cristalina. Dessa forma, a temperatura de fechamento (máxima) se torna um limiar importante na história térmica do mineral, por ser o início da geração dos traços e à ela é indicada uma

idade aparente. Em altas temperaturas, os cristais adquirem energia suficiente para recuperar a estrutura cristalina e “apagar” os traços, perdendo a capacidade de armazenar os dados de história térmica (GALLAGHER et al., 1998; DONELICK et al., 2005; TAGAMI, 2005).

Idades TF em Apatita e Zircão

O cálculo da idade TF é atribuído, genericamente, à estimativa da densidade de traços espontâneos no mineral oriundos do isótopo-pai (^{238}U) e da densidade dos traços de fissão induzidos na mica, sendo necessária uma correta correlação entre as duas áreas (mineral e mica) para uma idade traço de fissão precisa. Por meio do método do detector externo, no qual as amostras são irradiadas em contato com as micas, os dados são gerados para cada cristal e compõem parâmetros para o cálculo. Este cálculo é realizado pela fórmula abaixo:

$$t = \frac{1}{\lambda_d} \ln \left(\lambda_d \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_i} \rho_d \zeta g + 1 \right)$$

Onde, t é a idade; ρ_s e ρ_i são os traços espontâneos e induzidos contados em uma unidade de área; λ_d é a constante de decaimento de U^{238} ($4,47 \times 10^9$ anos); ρ_d é a densidade de traços no dosímetro posicionado junto com as amostras na irradiação; g é o fator de eficiência relacionado ao detector externo (0,5); e ζ é a constante de calibração do responsável técnico pela contagem. A calibração ζ é determinada empiricamente pela contagem de traços em um padrão (e.g. Apatita de Durango, Zircão Fish Canyon Tuff), ou seja, amostras que possuem comportamento homogêneo e idades bem estabelecidas (HURFORD e GREEN, 1983). Dessa forma, a presença da calibração na fórmula busca um caráter homogêneo ao resultado, independentemente do responsável que realiza a contagem (GALLAGHER et al., 1998, DONELICK et al., 2005).

As idades traços de fissão são constituídas por uma média estimada de idade de uma população de grãos individuais de cada amostra. Tipicamente são datados 20 (amostras do embasamento) a 30 (amostras detríticas) grãos para uma amostra (GALLAGHER et al., 1998). Antes de ser realizado o cálculo da média é realizado o teste χ^2 , o qual identifica a

homogeneidade das idades dos grãos. Resultados de $\chi^2 > 5$ indicam uma população de idade, enquanto que resultados de $\chi^2 < 5$ e dispersão $> 15\%$ indicam mais populações. Assim, quando há mais de uma população, os conjuntos são analisados separadamente e compostas médias diferentes para cada população, identificam eventos térmicos distintos. Estatisticamente, as idades podem ser calculadas de três formas: média, *pooled* e central. A idade média é a simples média aritmética da razão de traços espontâneos e induzidos, enquanto a idade *pooled* é a divisão da quantidade total de traços espontâneos e induzidos. A idade central é a média ponderada com distribuição logarítmica normal de uma população de grãos. De maneira geral, amostras de rochas exumadas rapidamente possuem idades homogêneas com médias semelhantes, por outro lado, amostras detríticas podem conter idades não concordantes, contendo informações de diferentes eventos de exumação (GALBRAITH e LASLETT, 1993; GALLAGHER et al., 1998; DONELICK et al., 2005).

Aplicação do Método TF

O método TF possui diversas aplicações e resulta em diferentes dados térmicos passíveis de interpretação para o contexto de uma área de estudo. Diferentes regiões possuem particularidades que podem afetar ou não os termocronômetros, sendo uma questão de magnitude e duração da fonte de calor. Estas particularidades são os diferentes processos que podem influenciar no aumento ou diminuição de temperatura como soterramento, falhas, intrusões e soerguimento. Neste sentido, os dados resultantes do método indicam condições de tempo e temperatura, cabendo ao analista interpretar estes dados, correlacionando com os processos em uma dada área de estudo. Em bacias sedimentares, estes métodos corroboram para interpretações combinadas com técnicas de modelagem possibilitando a avaliação de: (a) processos de formação da bacia, taxas de soterramento; (b) deformação; (c) datação e duração da geração, migração e *trap* de hidrocarbonetos; (d) efeitos de intrusões e fluidização na bacia;

e (e) alterações climáticas passadas (GALLAGHER et al., 1998; ARMSTRONG, 2005; REINERS e BRANDON, 2006).

Em bacias sedimentares, o método TF vem sendo amplamente aplicado na estruturação de histórias termais para sistemas petrolíferos. Nos estudos, são identificados picos de máxima paleotemperatura a fim de contextualizar os estágios/duração de maturação dos hidrocarbonetos. Estudos como de Osadetz et al. (2002) e Tingate e Duddy (2002) identificam possíveis eventos térmicos por TF em apatita de maturação de hidrocarbonetos em períodos do fim do Paleozóico e no Mesozóico para as bacias sedimentares de Williston (Canadá) e Officer (Austrália), respectivamente. Na Cordilheira dos Andes, Mora et al. (2010) desenvolveram um estudo no qual são propostos modelos de deformação baseados em idades de TF em apatita e zircão que estão diretamente relacionados aos sistemas petrolíferos das bacias do leste andino.

1 **THERMAL HISTORY OF POTENTIAL GAS RESERVOIR ROCKS IN THE**
2 **EASTERN PARNAÍBA BASIN, BRAZIL**

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11

12 **Abstract:**

13 The Parnaíba Basin is a major intracratonic sedimentary basin in Brazil and its natural gas
14 systems are a potential natural resource formed by the influence of igneous intrusions. To
15 constrain the thermal history of unexplored potential reservoir rocks in the eastern part of the
16 Parnaíba Basin, sedimentary rocks near intrusions were analyzed by petrography and
17 thermochronology (apatite and zircon fission track: AFT and ZFT). Petrography shows
18 dissolutions and carbonate clays pore filling generated by thermal destabilization of feldspars
19 and overburden of intrusions. AFT results indicate high partial annealing by the last magmatic
20 event in the basin, and ZFT results show ages of maximum paleotemperature compatible with
21 the Sardinha magmatic event. In the thermal history models, rocks closed to the intrusion were
22 influenced and underwent maximum paleotemperatures above 300 °C (572 °F), which is higher
23 than the favorable conditions for reservoir rocks. As a result of these temperatures,
24 hydrothermal fluid modified the diagenetic evolution of the succession by dissolving and
25 precipitating carbonate cement in pore space. In the studied area, at distances greater than 50 m

26 (164 ft) from the intrusion the rocks were not be altered to be appropriated to a reservoir context
27 in terms of paleotemperature. This study includes an innovative approach for
28 thermochronological data in the analysis of thermal histories of petroleum systems.

29 **Keywords:** Fission-tracks; Basic Sills; Petroleum systems; Parnaíba Basin; CAMP
30 Magmatism; Northeastern Brazil.

31 1 INTRODUCTION

32 Petroleum systems occur in a variety of geological contexts and require some factors to
33 generate and preserve hydrocarbons. Physical and thermo-chemical factors control the right
34 conditions for natural production and accumulation. Physical factors of petroleum systems
35 involve organic carbon matter accumulation, followed by hydrocarbon migration and retention
36 under trapping and sealing settings. The thermo-chemical factors are also important conditions
37 that change rock properties, conducting organic matter to stages of hydrocarbon maturation.
38 Some maturation stages can only be achieved as result of increasing temperature (e.g. burial,
39 faulting, magmatic intrusion) in sedimentary basin evolution (Magoon and Dow, 1994; Welte
40 et al., 2012).

41 Distinct types of sedimentary basins have thermal behaviors linked to tectonic settings.
42 During basin evolution, different tectonic events can occur caused by extensional or
43 compressional forces and resulting in basin subsidence or uplift. These events change thermal
44 behavior of basins by modifying geothermal gradient of the upper crust that interferes in
45 petroleum systems (Allen and Allen, 2013). Usually, burial is the primary mechanism that
46 increases temperature and contributes to hydrocarbon generation in thick basins, whereas
47 shallow depth basins need other events to naturally achieve hydrocarbon maturation
48 temperatures. Intrusive magmatic activity is a prime example of temperature shift in the thermal
49 history of a sedimentary basin and contributes in many ways to form a petroleum system.

50 Several petroleum systems in sedimentary basins are currently in exploration based on igneous
51 intrusion models (e.g., North Atlantic and Australia; see more in Senger et al., 2017). However,
52 intrusions can also affect diverse elements and processes (migration, reservoir, trap and seal) in
53 these systems in either positive or negative ways according to the magnitude and/or placement
54 of magmatism. The understanding of the thermal factors can lead to prediction models to target
55 promising areas for hydrocarbon resources (Poelchau et al., 1997; Yalçın et al., 1997).

56 In the Paleozoic, several sedimentary basins started to develop in Gondwana
57 supercontinent. In the western part of the supercontinent, the Parnaíba, Congo, Paraná and
58 Cape-Karoo basins cover large areas and show similarities in their intracratonic genesis and
59 depositional histories (Linol et al., 2016). They have complex post-depositional thermal
60 histories associated to tectonic processes of Gondwana. In the north, the basins had extensional
61 movements resulting in the opening of Central and North Atlantic Ocean. These movements
62 triggered subvolcanic magmatism named Central Atlantic Magmatic Province (CAMP) (e.g.,
63 Marzoli et al., 1999; Mizusaki et al., 2002; Nomade et al., 2007) that extensively intruded
64 cratonic areas and sedimentary basins in the Jurassic, and recorded in thermochronological ages
65 as shown by Dias et al. (2017) in the Araguaia Belt, Brazil. In the south, the extensional context
66 led to the Paraná-Etendeka magmatism emplacement during Cretaceous that thermally affected
67 the Brazilian margin (e.g., Engelmann de Oliveira et al., 2016). Some of the magmatic events
68 influenced petroleum systems of the Paleozoic intracratonic basins of Gondwana (Brown et al.,
69 1994; Milani and Zalán, 1999; Zalán, 2004; Burke et al., 2003; Thomaz Filho et al., 2008).

70 In the Parnaíba Basin, the magmatic activity thermally affected the rocks of late
71 Devonian petroleum systems (Rodrigues, 1995). The basin has sedimentary layers nearly
72 horizontal and continuous, which were intruded during the Mesozoic by igneous rocks divided
73 in two major magmatic events (Mosquito and Sardinha Formations). These events are
74 associated to CAMP and Paraná-Etendeka magmatism and occur as sills and dykes between

75 different sedimentary strata. Intrusions acted in the thermal maturation of the source rock,
76 migration enhancement and stratigraphic trapping, and sealing reservoir rocks. In these settings,
77 the reservoir layers were altered by late intrusions and have irregular shapes, controlled by
78 placement and heat exchange with the igneous intrusions (Kingston and Matzko, 1995; Porto
79 and Pereira, 2014; Miranda et al., 2016).

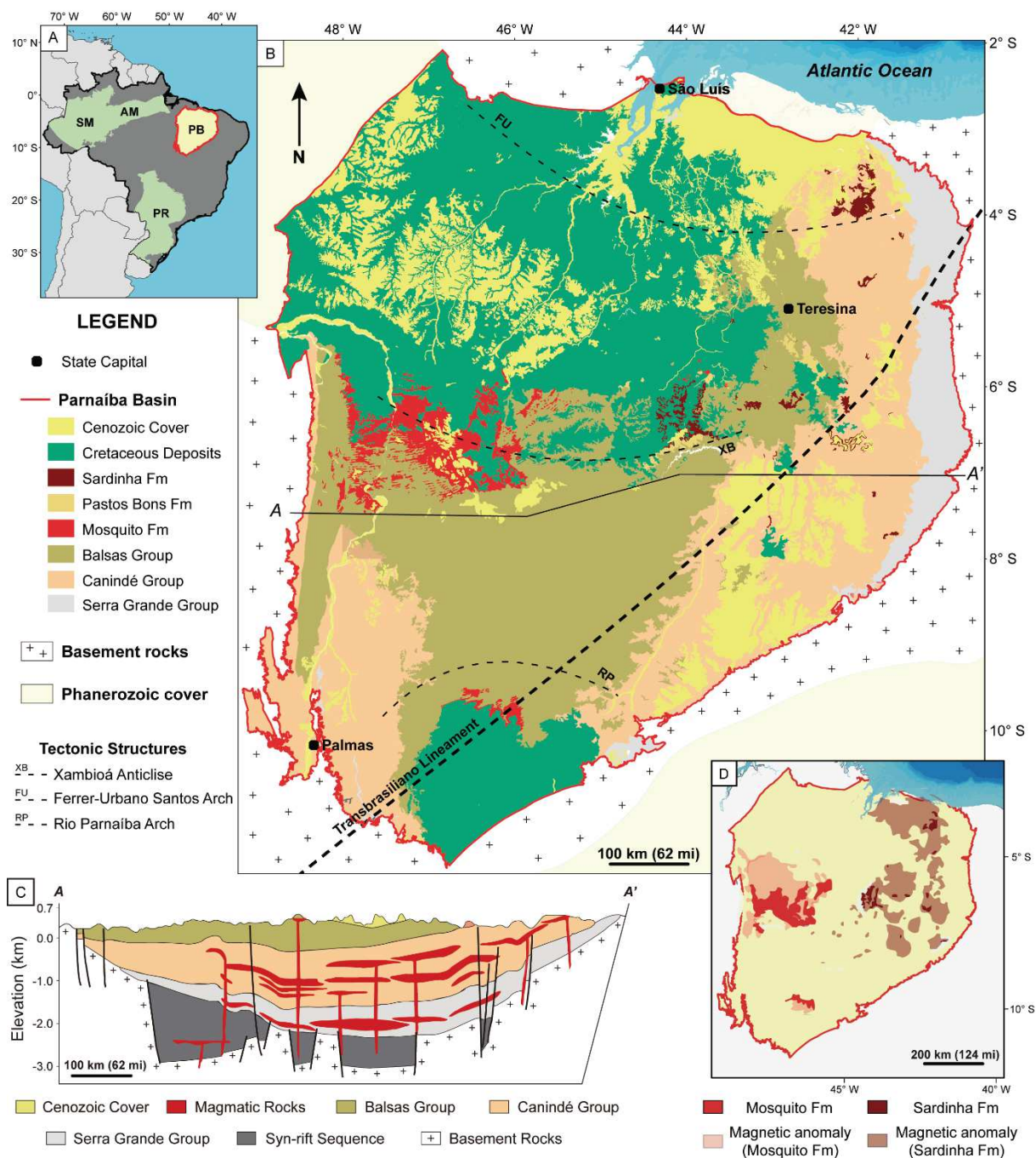
80 The Parnaíba Basin is the fourth most productive of natural gas in Brazil (ANP, 2017).
81 According to the Brazilian National Petroleum Agency (ANP), the exploration in the Parnaíba
82 Basin in 2017 was ca. 5,700 Mm³/day. Its main petroleum systems comprise the Pimenteiras
83 Formation as source rock and the Cabeças and Poti Formation as main reservoir (Cunha et al.,
84 2012). These systems are directly correlated to the magmatic intrusions that acted in thermal
85 maturation as well as stratigraphic and structural trapping (Rodrigues, 1995; ANP, 2015).
86 Application of apatite fission-track (AFT) and zircon fission-track (ZFT) analyses in
87 hydrocarbon exploration are well-established methods that allow paleotemperature
88 determination in the ca. 60-120 °C (140-248 °F) and ca. 180-320 °C (284-608 °F) ranges (e.g.
89 Bernet and Garver, 2005; Donelick et al., 2005). These analyses are widely used to constrain
90 the thermal history of the upper crust and provide constraints on the timing and duration of
91 heating and cooling events in sedimentary basins (e.g. Green et al., 2004; Engelmann de
92 Oliveira et al., 2016). The ZFT method is particularly useful because the temperature range is
93 comparable to the gas maturation stage (>200 °C (392 °F)); gas is largely exploited in the
94 Parnaíba Basin.

95 In this study, an integrated approach combines petrography, AFT and ZFT analyses
96 applied to understanding the influence of igneous rocks in paleotemperature. Also, information
97 is obtained on the thermal history of potential reservoir rocks in the eastern part of the Parnaíba
98 Basin, where sedimentary and igneous bodies occur closely placed. For this purpose, outcrop
99 and borehole samples were analyzed to delimit the thermal history of the rocks and to evidence

100 the alteration of reservoir layers. Results show that rocks closer to the intrusion underwent
101 maximum paleotemperatures above favourable conditions for reservoir rocks. Rocks farther
102 from the intrusion have better reservoir characteristics in terms of paleotemperature. The results
103 expand the use of thermochronological methodology in detrital sedimentary rocks and is
104 proposed as an alternative way to constrain thermal histories in rocks with low or no organic
105 material.

106 **2 GEOLOGICAL SETTING**

107 The Parnaíba Basin is an intracratonic sedimentary basin which covers ca. 600,000 km²
108 (231,661 mi²) of northeastern Brazil (Fig. 1A and 1B) and has a 3.5 km (2.17 mi) thick volcanic-
109 sedimentary record with a long Phanerozoic depositional history (e.g., Góes and Feijó, 1994;
110 Vaz et al., 2007). The basin covers an amalgamation of different Precambrian terranes
111 generated during the Brasiliano orogeny (Brito Neves, 2002). Basement rocks of the basin are
112 divided into: (a) Parnaíba Block in a totally covered central area showing featureless reflector
113 patterns and interpreted as granitic terrane (Daly et al., 2014); (b) basin edges partially covering
114 cratonic areas (Amazonas, São Luís and São Francisco cratons) and mobile belts (Gurupi Belt,
115 and Borborema and Tocantins provinces) which are distinct blocks and suture zones juxtaposed
116 during the Brasiliano orogeny (de Castro et al., 2014).



117

118 Figure 1. A) Location map. Brazilian Paleozoic intracratonic basins, SM – Solimões Basin; AM
 119 – Amazonas Basin; PB – Parnaíba Basin; and PR – Paraná Basin. B) Parnaíba Basin divided in
 120 sedimentary units and major tectonic structures. C) Schematic cross-section of the Parnaíba
 121 Basin (modified from Góes et al., 1990). D) Interpretative geophysical map of the magnetic
 122 anomalies of Mosquito and Sardinha Formations (modified from Mocitaiba et al., 2017).

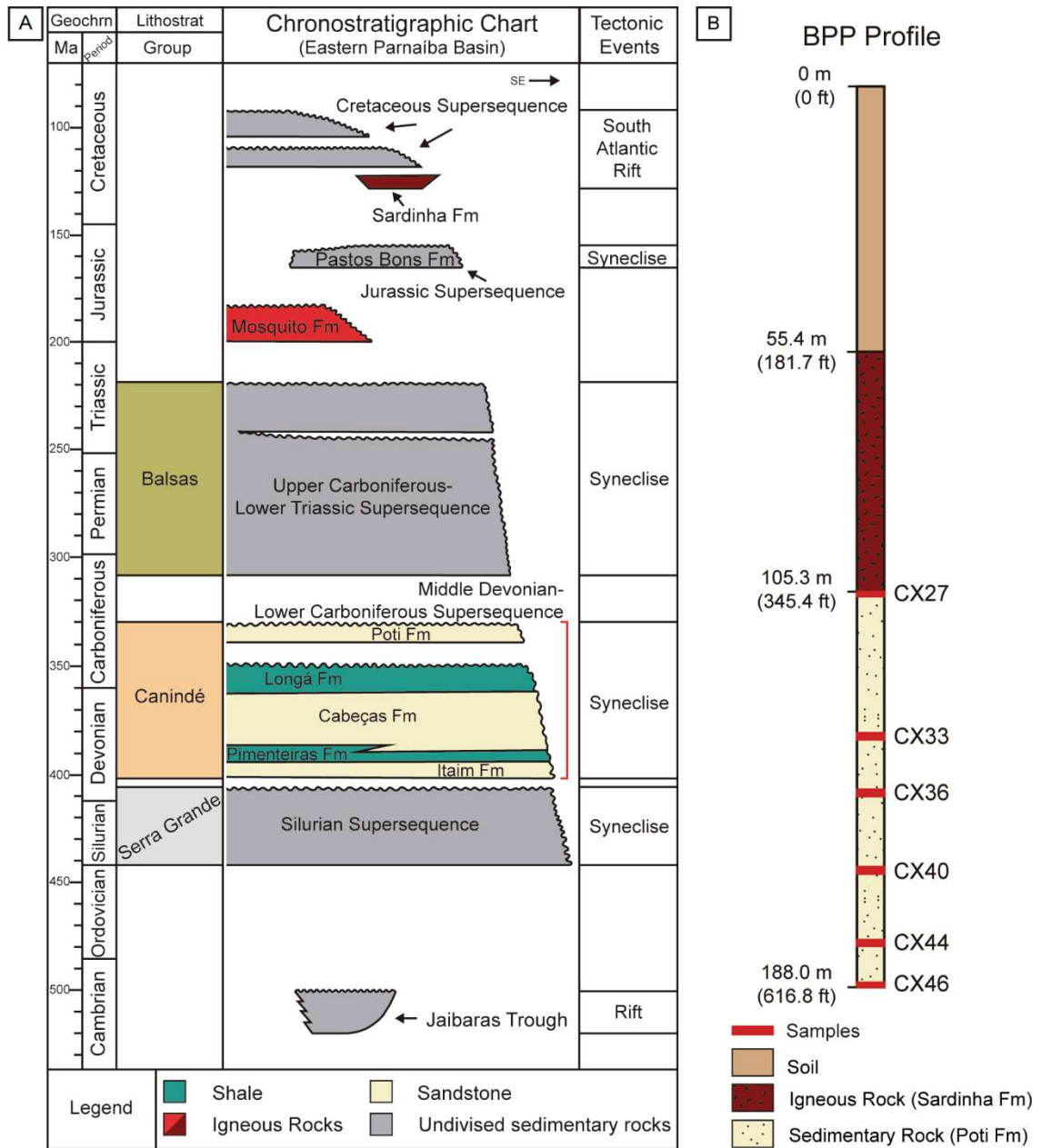
123 In the early Cambrian to Ordovician, lithospheric stretching of Western Gondwana and
124 Laurentia resulted in reactivation of a rift system along preexisting weakness zones in the
125 basement rocks. The stretching formed NE- to E-W-oriented grabens along the Transbrasiliano
126 Lineament which initiated the formation of rift basins, such as the Jaibaras Trough covered by
127 sedimentary rocks (Oliveira and Mohriak, 2003). These early Paleozoic grabens were filled by
128 fluvial-lacustrine sediments of the pre-syneclise stage of Parnaíba Basin (Almeida and
129 Carneiro, 2004). The initial subsidence of the late Parnaíba Basin sag stage is explained as result
130 of thermal subsidence (lithospheric contraction) during Ordovician to Silurian. From the initial
131 subsidence until the early Carboniferous, the principal depositional axis of the basin was over
132 the Transbrasiliano Lineament on the eastern edge (Oliveira and Mohriak, 2003; Daly et al.,
133 2014; de Castro et al., 2016).

134 The sedimentary infill of the Parnaíba Basin is divided into five supersequences
135 bounded by major unconformities (Fig. 2A): Silurian, Middle Devonian-Lower Carboniferous,
136 Upper Carboniferous-Lower Triassic, Jurassic and Cretaceous (i.e., Vaz et al., 2007). The
137 Silurian supersequence corresponds to a 2nd order transgressive-regressive cycle. It covers the
138 basement and has sandstones and siltstones. This supersequence corresponds to the Serra
139 Grande Group described by Della Fávera (1990), Góes and Feijó (1994) and Góes (1995).

140 The Middle Devonian-Lower Carboniferous Supersequence lies above the
141 supersequence and is equivalent to the Canindé Group. The group includes sandstones and
142 mudstones of the Itaim, Pimenteiras, Cabeças, Longá and Poti Formations. The Itaim Formation
143 is described as shallow marine, storm-dominated sandstone. The Pimenteiras Formation is
144 characterized by fine-grained rocks and includes organic-rich black shales, which correspond
145 to the maximum flooding stage of this supersequence as well as the entire depositional history
146 of the Parnaíba Basin. The Cabeças Formation is composed of glacial-influenced, shallow
147 marine sandstones. The Longá Formation includes sandstone and siltstone deposited in similar

148 conditions as the Itaim Formation. In addition, the uppermost Poti Formation has sandstones
149 related to transitional environments (upper shoreface, estuarine and fluvial-estuarine) (Góes
150 and Feijó, 1994; Góes, 1995; Milani and Zalán, 1999; Vaz et al., 2007).

151 In the late Carboniferous, Pangea aggregation started to compress and uplift some areas
152 such as the Ferrer-Urbano Santos and Rio Parnaíba arches, moving the basin depocenter
153 towards the west (Xambioa anticline) and delimiting the contour of the Parnaíba Basin. The
154 Upper Carboniferous-Lower Triassic Supersequence is related to a drastic climate change,
155 when open seas of temperate climate became restricted due to global sea-level fall (Becker,
156 1993). During this period, a progressive desertification occurred in the basin with deposition in
157 arid environment. This supersequence is also called Balsas Group and was majorly dominated
158 by continental and restricted marine depositional settings (e.g. Araújo et al., 2016; Vieira and
159 Scherer, 2017). Extensional movements related to Pangea rupturing caused the intrusion of sills
160 and dykes with Jurassic (Mosquito Formation) and Cretaceous age (Sardinha Formation) (Fig.
161 1C and 1D) (Fodor et al., 1990; Silva et al., 2017).



162

163 Figure 2. A) Chronostratigraphic chart of eastern Parnaíba Basin (modified from Vaz et al.,
 164 2007). B) Schematic profile of BPP borehole. Red marks highlight position of collected
 165 samples.

166 Mosquito Formation is composed of basaltic dykes and sills associated with the early
 167 North and Central Atlantic Ocean rift (~200 Ma) (Merle et al., 2011) and the Penatecaua
 168 magmatism in the Amazonas Basin as part of CAMP (Marzoli et al., 1999). The Jurassic
 169 supersequence is formed by the Pastos Bons Formation, whose sediments were deposited in
 170 continental environments in low areas due to magmatic overload of the Mosquito Formation.

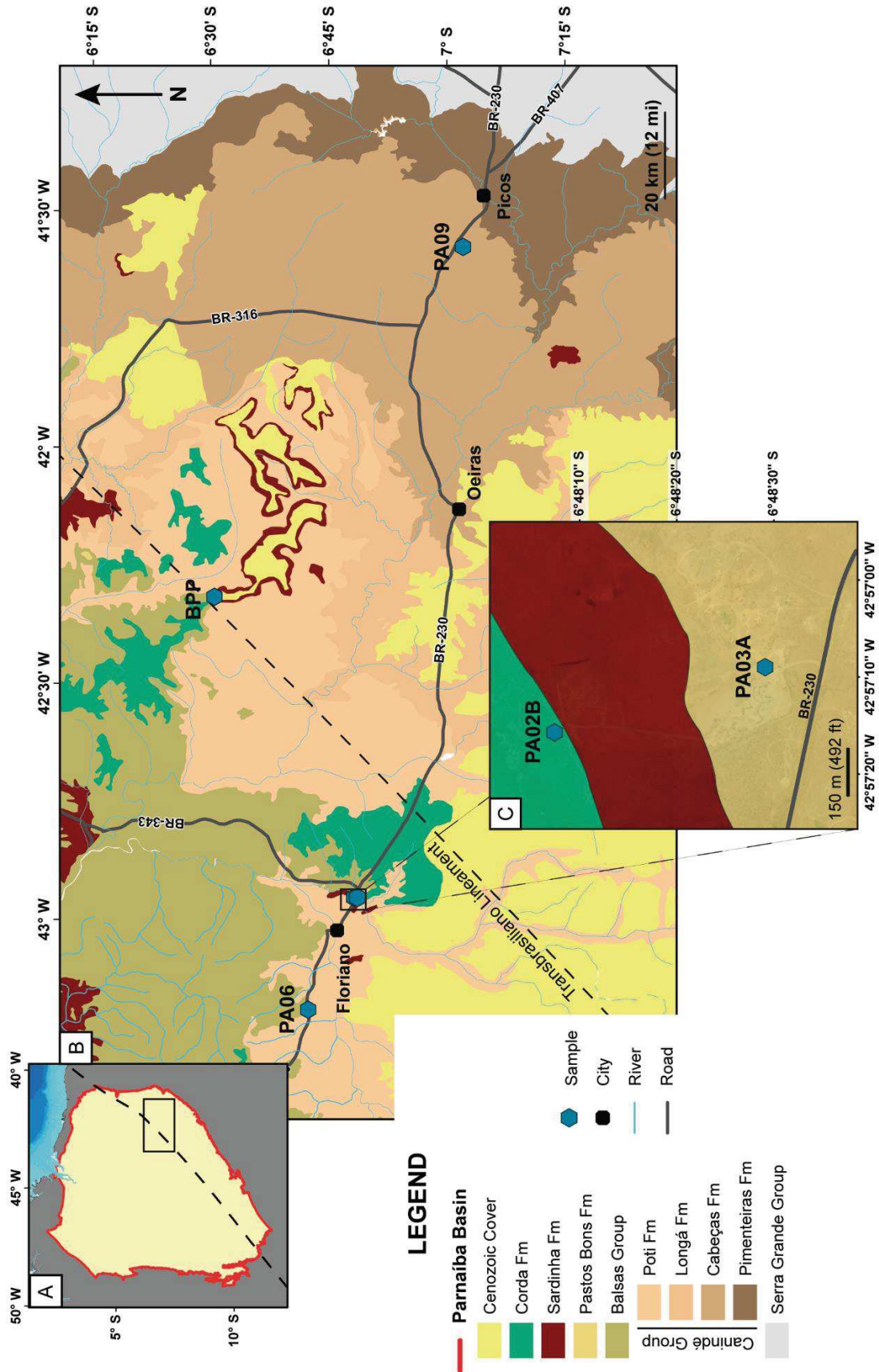
171 During the Cretaceous, the South Atlantic Ocean rift caused major marine ingressions
 172 changing depositional systems. Rifting movements along with Pangea break-up generated a
 173 new intrusion, the Sardinha Formation, formed by dykes with early Cretaceous age (120-130
 174 Ma) (Fodor et al., 1990; Baksi and Archibald, 1997) and associated with magmatism of the
 175 Serra Geral Group in the Paraná Basin (Thomaz Filho et al., 2000). The final supersequence is
 176 Cretaceous, deposited in continental to transitional marine environments (aeolian and fluvial-
 177 lacustrine to shallow platform) with the depocenter located in the northwestern part of the basin,
 178 and composed by the Corda, Grajaú, Codó and Itapecuru Formations.

179 3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

180 Samples from four outcrops and six boreholes were collected in Parnaíba Basin from
 181 the Cabeças, Poti, Pastos Bons and Corda Formations in portions near intrusions (less than 40
 182 m (131 ft), except sample PA06). More details of each sample are provided in Table 1 and
 183 Figures 2B and 3.

184 Table 1. Details of samples studied with fission-tracks and petrography

Sample	Lithology/ Formation	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation/Depth (m)	Stratigraphic Age (Ma)	AFT	ZFT	Petrography
<i>Borehole BPP</i>								
CX27	Sandstone/ Poti	42° 19' 22"	06° 30' 07"	- / 105.3 – 106.3	331 - 339	X	X	X
CX33	Sandstone/ Poti	42° 19' 22"	06° 30' 07"	- / 134.9 – 136.3	331 – 339	X	X	X
CX36	Sandstone/ Poti	42° 19' 22"	06° 30' 07"	- / 146.9 – 148.3	331 – 339	X	X	X
CX40	Sandstone/ Poti	42° 19' 22"	06° 30' 07"	- / 163.0 – 164.5	331 – 339	X	X	X
CX44	Sandstone/ Poti	42° 19' 22"	06° 30' 07"	- / 178.2 – 179.5	331 – 339	X	X	X
CX46	Sandstone/ Poti	42° 19' 22"	06° 30' 07"	- / 187.1 – 188.0	331 – 339	X	X	X
<i>Outcrop</i>								
PA02B	Sandstone/ Corda	42° 57' 12"	06° 48' 08"	135 / -	111 - 119	X	X	X
PA03A	Siltstone/ Pastos Bons	42° 57' 06"	06° 48' 30"	146 / -	154 - 165	X	X	X
PA06	Siltstone/ Poti	43° 11' 26"	06° 42' 18"	121 / -	331 – 339		X	
PA09A	Sandstone/ Cabeças	41° 34' 34"	07° 01' 58"	274 / -	364 - 390	X	X	X



185

186 Figure 3. Geologic map of the study area. A) Parnaíba Basin and the Transbrasiliiano Lineament.

187 B) Study area. Borehole BPP and sample location. C) Location of samples PA02B and PA03A.

188 3.1 Petrography

189 Petrographic analysis was performed in three outcrop samples and all six borehole
190 samples. These samples were selected to study petrographic aspects of the interaction between
191 intrusions and sedimentary rocks. The depositional and diagenetic study included thin sections
192 of samples under the optical polarizing microscope Zeiss AXIO Lab.A1 with 2.5x, 10x, 20x,
193 50x objectives, at Universidade do Vale do Rio dos Sinos, Brazil. Petrographic information can
194 be found in Table 2. Standard point counting technique (Dickinson et al., 1983) was used to
195 distinguish different components of the sedimentary rocks.

196 3.2 Thermochronology

197 AFT and ZFT thermochronology were performed in all samples (Table 1). Apatite and
198 zircon grains were concentrated using conventional methods of crushing and magnetic, heavy
199 liquid and hand-picking separation. Apatite grains were mounted in epoxy resin, polished and
200 etched for 20 s in a 5.5 M HNO₃ solution at 21 °C (69.8 °F) to reveal the fission tracks. Zircon
201 grains were mounted in Teflon®, polished and etched in a NaOH-KOH melt solution at 230 °C
202 (446 °F). We adopted the multi-mount technique and prepared two or three zircon mounts per
203 sample (Bernet and Garver, 2005), etched for different periods of time varying from 3 to 14 h.
204 The mounts were covered with low-U mica sheets and dated by the external detector method
205 (Hurford, 1990). Neutron irradiation was done in the IPEN-CNEN Reactor, São Paulo, Brazil,
206 using CN2 dosimeter glasses, Durango age standard for apatite mounts, and Fish Canyon Tuff
207 age standard for zircon mounts.

208 AFT and ZFT analyses were performed at the Low-Temperature Thermochronology
209 Lab at Universidade de São Paulo, Brazil, using an Olympus BX51 Microscope (1250x, dry)
210 with a digitalizing tablet and a computer-controlled stage drive by the FTStage 4.05 software
211 (Dumitru, 1993). For each sample, 20 grains or more were dated counting both

212 thermochronometers. A summary of AFT and ZFT data is shown in Table 4. AFT and ZFT
213 ages and errors were calculated following the zeta-calibration (ζ) method (Hurford and Green,
214 1983) with the RadialPlotter software (Vermeesch, 2009). A zeta-calibration factor of $135.4 \pm$
215 2.6 (CN2; C. Engelmann de Oliveira) was used. Fission tracks age errors are quoted at 1σ
216 confidence level and derived by conventional method (Green, 1981). The Chi-squared test (χ^2)
217 was used to quantify individual ages of a unique population, in which a $\chi^2 > 5\%$ is considered to
218 represent a concordant age so samples contain a single age population (Galbraith and Laslett,
219 1993). AFT lengths were measured on horizontal confined fission tracks. Etch pit diameter
220 (Dpar; Donelick et al., 2005) values were used as a kinetic parameter.

221 Thermal modeling was performed using the HeFTy v. 1.9.3 software (Ketcham, 2005).
222 Input data include AFT and ZFT fission track ages, track lengths when available, and Dpar as
223 a kinetic parameter. We used the kinetic annealing model of Ketcham et al. (2007) for AFT and
224 Rahn et al. (2004) for ZFT. The inversion modeling was run until 100 good models (Goodness
225 of Fitness, GOF > 0.5) were obtained (Ketcham, 2005) using a Monte-Carlo search method.
226 Stratigraphic ages and present-day temperature were included as constraints allowing the
227 software to search for a wide range of a coherent time-temperature (t-T) spectra. Additional
228 constraining boxes delimitate the intrusion age of the Mosquito and Sardinha Formations; ages
229 of the youngest unconformities of the basin (125-120 Ma and 110-105 Ma) were included for
230 thermal modeling of the samples.

231 4 RESULTS

232 4.1. Petrography

233 Poti Formation samples from the borehole (CXs samples) are mostly composed of
234 mono- and polycrystalline quartz (>85 vol.%); plagioclase and K-feldspar are present in minor

235 proportion (Table 3) and rock fragments are rare. According to Dickinson et al. (1983) diagram,
 236 these samples are derived from intracratonic sources (Fig. 4). Samples are sandstones, grain-
 237 supported and long compaction contacts between grains. Other petrographic information can
 238 be found in Table 2. In the borehole samples, two major groups show different depositional and
 239 diagenetic features. The upper group (CX27, CX33 and CX36) has bimodal grain distribution
 240 of two average grain sizes in thin section (Fig. 5C). The lower group (CX40, CX44 and CX46)
 241 has smaller grain size and high sphericity compared to the upper group (Fig. 5E).

242 The upper group is cemented by kaolinite and chalcedony, and grain dissolution resulted
 243 from eodiagenesis (Fig. 5A). The lower group has similar cement in the pore spaces but
 244 different diagenetic composition from initial process of illitic clays (illite and smectite)
 245 formation from micas and presence of small, nearly cubic crystals of pyrite (Fig. 5D).

246

247 Table 2. Selected petrographic information

Sample	Average Size (mm)	Sorting	Rounding	Sphericity	Compaction Grain contacts	Matrix
Poti Formation						
CX27	0.7/0.3	Moderate	Sub-rounded to rounded	Low	Long	None
CX33	1.5/0.2	Moderate	Sub-rounded to rounded	Low	Long	None
CX36	1/0.5	Moderate	Sub-rounded to rounded	Low	Long	None
CX40	0.3	Well	Sub-rounded to rounded	High	Long	None
CX44	0.3	Well	Sub-rounded to rounded	High	Long	None
CX46	0.2	Well	Sub-rounded to rounded	High	Long	None
Corda Formation						
PA02B	0.3	Well	Sub-rounded	Low	Long	None
Pastos Bons Formation						
PA03A	>0.1	Well	Rounded	High	-	Fe-oxides
Cabeças Formation						
PA09A	0.5	Moderate	Sub-angular to sub-rounded	Low	Point to Long	None

248 All information was visually determined in the majority of grains and contacts in thin sections during
 249 point counting.
 250

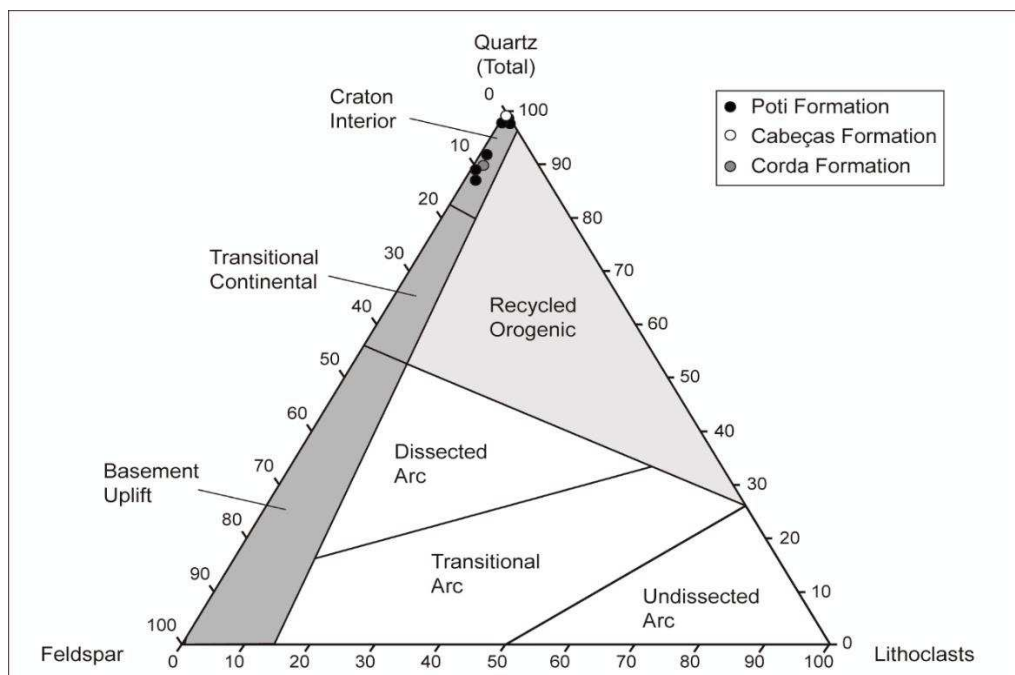
251 Porosity differentiates the two groups, but primary porosity was not found in any
 252 sample. Primary porosity is occluded as result of compaction and post-depositional cementation
 253 (Fig. 5B). Following standard 300-point counting, samples showed secondary porosity from
 254 grain and cement dissolution. In the borehole samples, the upper group has higher porosity than
 255 the lower group (Figs. 5B and 5F).

256

257 Table 3. Modal composition

Sample	Monoquartz/ Polyquartz	Feldspar	Rock Fragments	Cement	Porosity	Others	Total
<i>Poti Formation</i>							
CX27	58/13	1	1	18	9	-	100
CX33	50/12	1	3	15	19	-	100
CX36	57/17	3	-	10	12	1	100
CX40	61/15	7	1	4	2	5	100
CX44	62/13	8	2	9	3	3	100
CX46	52/18	9	1	14	5	1	100
<i>Corda Formation</i>							
PA02B	50/8	8	2	14	17	1	100
<i>Cabeças Formation</i>							
PA09A	50/9	-	1	12	28	-	100

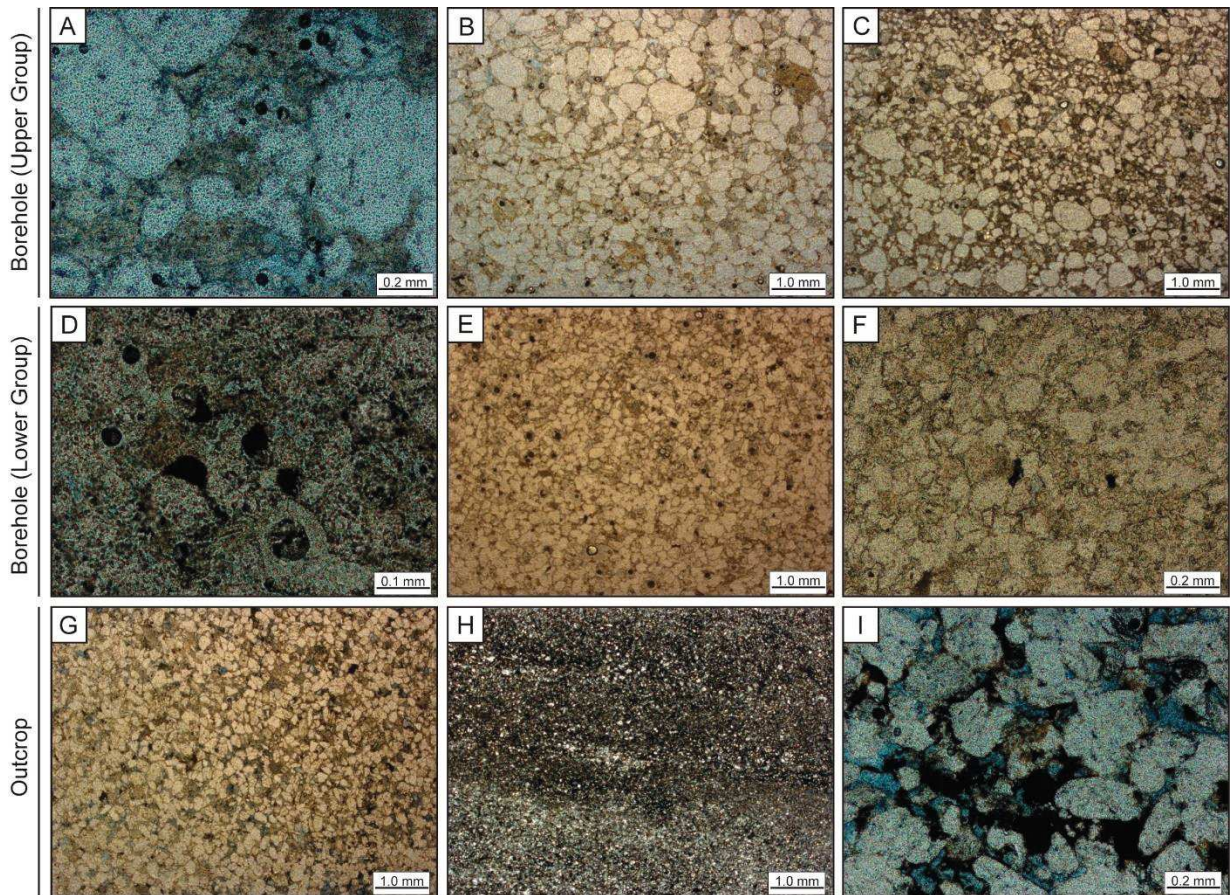
258 Results are in percent based on point counting in each sample. Feldspar includes K-feldspar and
 259 plagioclase. Cement is kaolinite, quartz or ferruginous minerals. Porosity is secondary. Other
 260 minerals are zircon, mica and Fe-oxides.



261

262 Figure 4. Sandstone provenance diagram (Dickinson et al., 1983) indicates quartzose recycled

263 sources from craton interior.



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Figure 5. A) Dissolution features in sample CX27 in natural light (NL) (x10). B) Pore space filling by carbonate cement in sample CX33 in NL (x2.5). C) Bimodal grain size distribution in sample CX36 in NL (x2.5). D) Pyrite crystals inside pores in sample CX40 in NL (x20). E) Small grain size in sample CX44 in NL (x2.5). F) Tightly packed texture with little pore space in sample CX46 in NL (x10). G) Pyrite crystals (black spots) in pore space of sample PA02B in NL (x2.5). H) Siltstone with bioturbation structures in sample PA03A in NL (x2.5). I) Black to red ferruginous cement (hematite and goethite) in sample PA09A in LN (x10).

Sample PA02B from Corda Formation shows distinct petrographic characteristics compared to CXs samples. Grains are sub-rounded and well sorted. PA02B has higher porosity and cement in pore space compared to other sandstones. Cementation is similar to the lower group from Poti samples with initial illitic clay formation and occurrence of pyrite crystals (Fig. 5G). A sample from Pastos Bons Formation (PA03A) is a siltstone composed of quartz and

278 mica. The sample shows a reddish ferruginous cementation (hematite and goethite). The
279 principal feature in this sample are the bioturbation structures along with pyrite (Fig. 5H).

280 The Cabeças Formation sample (PA09A) shows a moderately sorted sand-sized
281 framework composed mostly of mono- and polycrystalline quartz (>95%). Grains of
282 plagioclase and K-feldspar occur, and rock fragments are rare. The sample has medium point
283 to long compaction grain contacts. The porosity percentage is higher than the other samples and
284 cementation is made of ferruginous minerals (hematite/goethite) and kaolinite (Fig. 5I).

285 4.2. Thermochronology

286 AFT and ZFT results are presented in Table 4. ZFT age distribution is shown in Figure
287 6. Thermal history models are presented in Figures 7 and 8.

288 4.2.1 Apatite Fission Track data

289 AFT data from borehole and outcrop samples have central ages expanding from $20.4 \pm$
290 7.8 to 130 ± 31 Ma. Samples CX33 and CX40 failed the χ^2 -test indicating more than one age
291 population. Apatite grains from sedimentary rocks show high partial annealing resetting with
292 little or even no spontaneous fission tracks. Nonetheless, induced fission tracks in all apatite
293 samples support AFT central age much younger than ZFT central ages of correlating samples
294 (Table 4).

295 Among borehole samples, CX33 shows two age distributions with a higher proportion
296 of a younger age of 16.8 ± 6.1 Ma (92%) compared to the older, 186 ± 41 Ma (8%). Sample
297 CX40 shows similar two-age distribution of 7.7 ± 8 Ma (82%) and 140 ± 79 Ma (18%). In a
298 lower position, CX44 recorded an average central age of 67 ± 8.7 Ma. In outcrop samples,
299 PA02B shows a central age of 34 ± 8.6 Ma and MTL 8.92 ± 1.01 μm , and sample PA03A

300 recorded an average central age of 130 ± 31 Ma and MTL 9.28 ± 0.79 μm . For these samples,
 301 measured Dpar values vary from 2.36 μm for PA03A to 1.28 μm for PA02B.

302

303 Table 4. Apatite and zircon fission track data

Sample	Dating Method	N	ρ_s ($\times 10^5$)	Ns	ρ_i ($\times 10^5$)	Ni	ρ_d ($\times 10^5$)	Nd	Central Age (Ma)	$\pm 1\sigma$ (Ma)	χ^2 (%)	U (ppm)	Dpar (μm)	n	MTL (μm)	S.D. (μm)	Group I Age (Ma) (%)	Group II Age (Ma) (%)
<i>Borehole BPP</i>																		
CX27	ZFT	39	73.3	3901	8.7	466	1.6	2500	92.8	9.3	0	194.7	-	-	-	-	57 (45)	172 (55)
CX33	AFT	22	0.5	67	1.0	125	19.7	6001	24.2	8.9	0	2.0	-	-	-	-	16 (92)	186 (8)
	ZFT	39	116.1	5695	5.2	253	1.6	2500	210.0	25.0	0	114.7	-	-	-	-	80 (16)	298 (84)
CX36	ZFT	49	97.1	4777	5.3	259	1.6	2500	182.0	23.0	0	117.1	-	-	-	-	92 (26)	291 (74)
CX40	AFT	31	0.2	22	0.7	90	19.7	6001	20.4	7.8	3	1.3	-	-	-	-	7 (82)	140 (18)
	ZFT	51	157.9	4909	3.0	92	1.6	2500	563.0	59.0	100	65.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
CX44	AFT	51	0.3	90	0.5	177	19.7	6001	67.0	8.7	78	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
	ZFT	31	134.0	3941	2.4	71	1.6	2500	576.0	76.0	36	53.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
CX46	ZFT	49	108.9	5244	3.6	172	1.6	2500	324.0	27.0	19	79.5	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Outcrop</i>																		
PA02B	AFT	50	0.1	28	0.3	91	19.7	6001	34.0	8.6	84	0.6	1.3	5	10.3	2.1	-	-
	ZFT	46	54.1	3229	8.2	487	1.6	2500	72.6	4.1	9	181.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
PA03A	AFT	18	1.7	92	1.2	64	19.7	6001	130.0	31.0	7	2.2	2.4	19	11.3	1.6	-	-
	ZFT	03	80.3	257	4.1	13	1.6	2500	215.0	61.0	36	90.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
PA06	ZFT	16	125.5	1310	2.7	28	1.6	2500	497.0	95.0	58	59.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
PA09A	ZFT	40	124.8	4963	3.0	118	1.6	2500	447.0	43.0	23	66.0	-	-	-	-	-	-

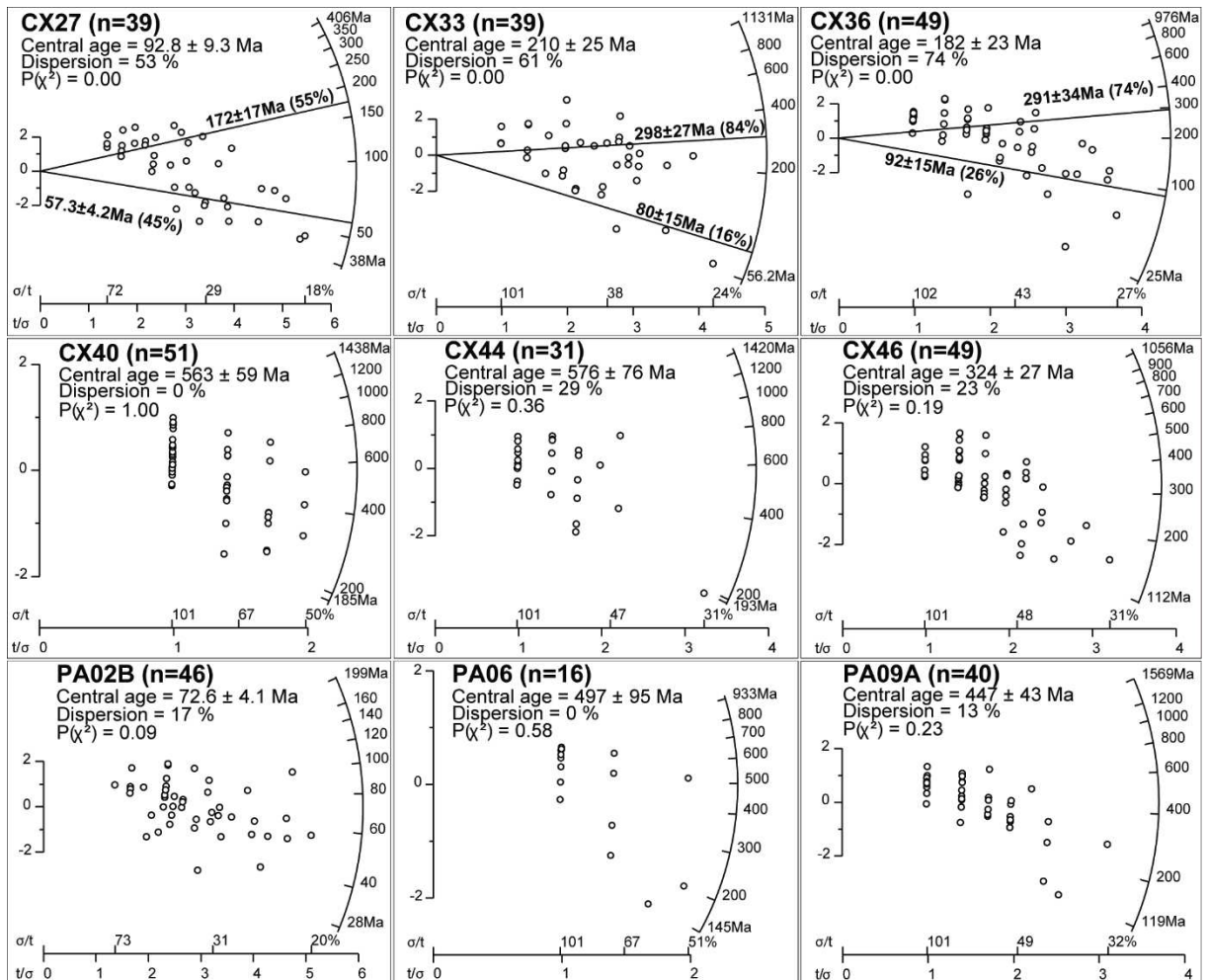
N: number of grains analyzed to determine track densities; ρ_s : measured spontaneous track density; Ns: number of spontaneous tracks counted; ρ_i : measured induced track density; Ni: number of induced tracks counted; ρ_d : track density measured in glass dosimeter; Nd: number of tracks counted in determining ρ_d ; 1σ : standard deviation; χ^2 : Chi-square probability; U: calculated uranium content; Dpar: mean etch pit diameter of all measured etch pits; n: number of confined tracks lengths measured; MTL: mean track length; S. D.: standard deviation of track length distribution of individual track measurements; (-): not analysed. Note: AFT age calculated using C. Engelmann de Oliveira zeta-calibration, ζ -CN2 - 135.4.

304

305 4.2.2 Zircon Fission Track data

306 ZFT central ages expand from 72.6 to 576.0 Ma (Table 4 and Fig. 6). Zircon grains have
307 U-concentration of 53.7–194.7 ppm (Table 4). Three samples failed the χ^2 -test indicating more
308 than one age population in the ZFT analyses. The uppermost sample CX27 shows two ages,
309 one at 57.3 ± 4.2 Ma (45%) and an older at 172 ± 17 Ma (55%). Almost 29 m (95 ft) downward
310 in the core, sample CX33 also shows two ages (80 ± 15 Ma and 298 ± 27 Ma), but with more
311 grains from the oldest population (16% and 84%). Sample CX36 is located 10 m (32.8 ft) below
312 CX33 and presents two ages, one at 92 ± 15 Ma (26%) and an older at 291 ± 34 Ma (74%).
313 Stratigraphically below the three upper samples, CX40 shows a central age of 563 ± 59 Ma and
314 CX44 an age of 576 ± 76 Ma. Both samples lack single grain ages younger than 185 Ma. The
315 lowermost sample CX46 records a central age of 324 ± 27 Ma with a few single grain ages as
316 low as 112 Ma.

317 Central age distributions in outcrop samples vary similar to the borehole. Sample
318 PA02B shows a young central age of 72.6 ± 4.1 Ma, while Pastos Bons Formation sample
319 (PA03A) records an older central age of 215 ± 61 Ma. Both samples are located close to an
320 igneous intrusion (PA02A). Nevertheless, PA03A has fewer single grain ages which enhances
321 the error. A Poti Formation sample (PA06) shows a central age of 497 ± 95 Ma and the Cabeças
322 Formation sample (PA09A) an age of 447 ± 43 Ma.



323

324 Figure 6. RadialPlotter diagrams of ZFT ages samples showing number of grains (n), central

325 ages, dispersion and χ^2 -test result.326

4.2.3 Thermal history models

327 Based on fission-tracks parameters and geological background of the area, inversion

328 models for the samples were conducted using the pre-defined constraints (Fig. 7). The best-fit

329 thermal models from borehole samples show maximum post-depositional paleotemperatures

330 decreasing with depth and all occurring from ca. 102 to 201 Ma. Sample CX27 shows good

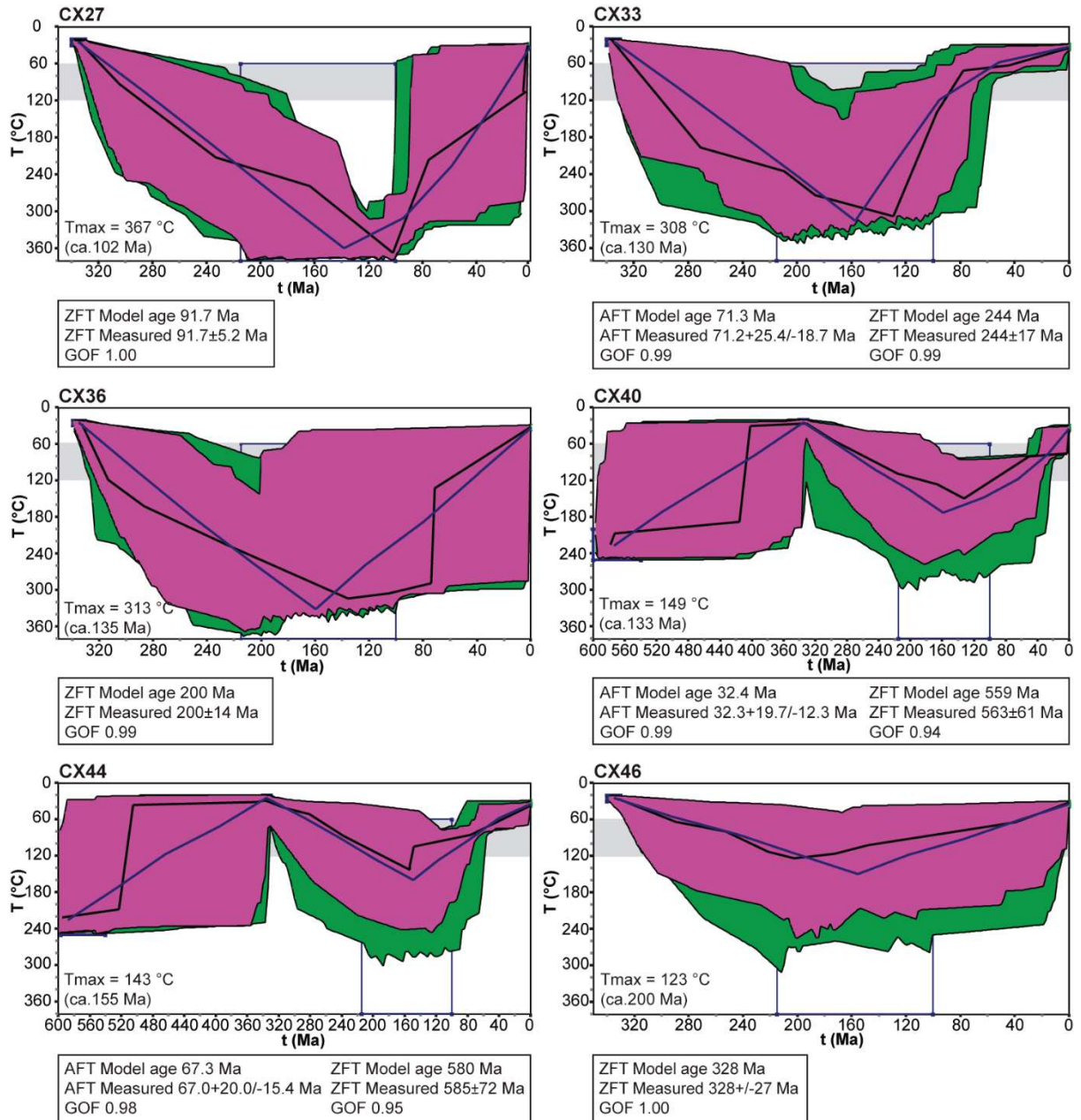
331 fitting paths with an initial constant heating reaching beyond the apatite partial annealing zone

332 (PAZ) with a maximum paleotemperature of ca. 367 °C (692.6 °F) at 102 Ma, then a rapid

333 cooling to present-day temperature. Likewise, samples CX33 and CX36 show increasing

334 paleotemperatures until 130 and 136 Ma, when reached a maximum paleotemperature of 308
335 °C (586.4 °F) and 313 °C (595.4 °F), respectively, followed by a final cooling event to present-
336 day temperature.

337 Borehole samples CX40 and CX44 show a pre-depositional thermal history which
338 recorded a maximum paleotemperature of ca. 600 to 560 Ma. After deposition, the rocks
339 experienced a heating phase, in which the samples reached a maximum paleotemperature of ca.
340 149 °C (300.2 °F) and 143 °C (289.4 °F) at 133 and 155 Ma, respectively. Good fitting paths
341 of sample CX46 record heating to a maximum temperature of ca. 123 °C (253.4 °F) at 201 Ma,
342 followed by a cooling event to present-day temperature.



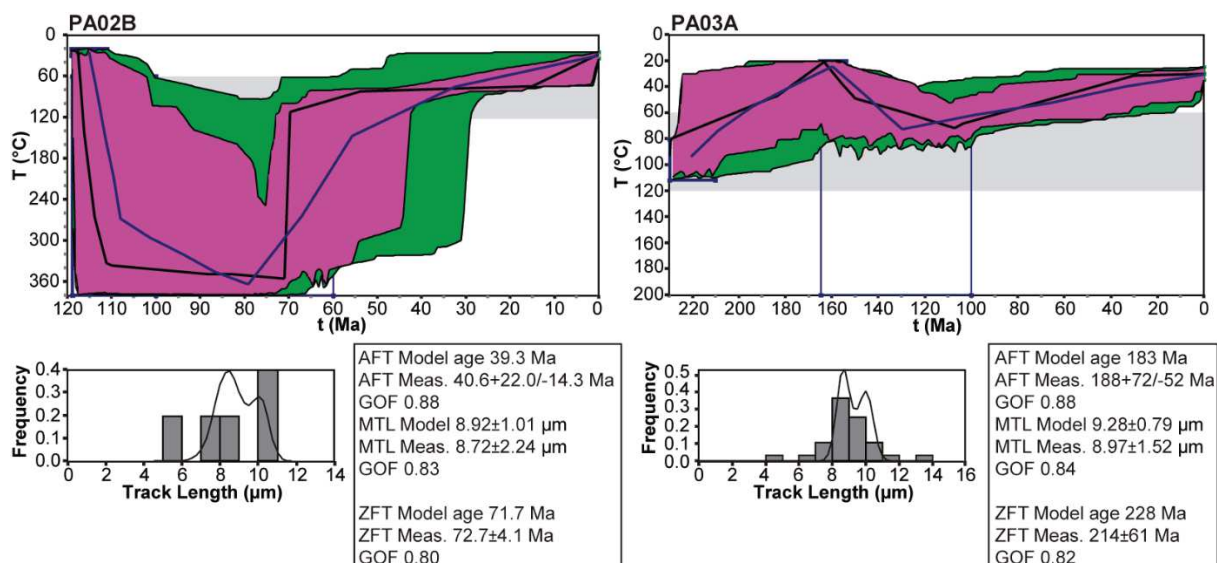
343

344 Figure 7. Thermal histories models from HeFTy software (Ketcham, 2005) for borehole
 345 samples (CXs). Green, purple and blue lines represent acceptable, good and weighted mean
 346 fitting t-T paths, respectively. Gray boxes indicate the apatite partial annealing zone. Blue boxes
 347 are t-T constraints.

348

349 Good fitting paths of sample PA03A show post-depositional heating to a maximum
 350 paleotemperature of ca. 72 °C (161.6 °F) at 108 Ma, and thereafter a cooling phase until present-
 351 day temperature. The best-fit thermal model from sample PA02B shows a sudden heating

352 during deposition-time to a maximum paleotemperature of ca. 355 °C (671 °F) during 45 Myr,
 353 then a rapid cooling to PAZ temperature and thereafter to present-day temperature (Fig 8).



354

355 Figure 8. Thermal histories models from HeFTy software (Ketcham, 2005) for outcrop samples.

356 Green, purple and blue lines represent acceptable, good and weighted mean fitting t-T paths,

357 respectively. Gray boxes indicate the apatite partial annealing zone. Blue boxes are t-T

358 constraints.

359 5 DISCUSSIONS

360 5.1. Dimension of the Thermal Effect of Potential Reservoir Rocks

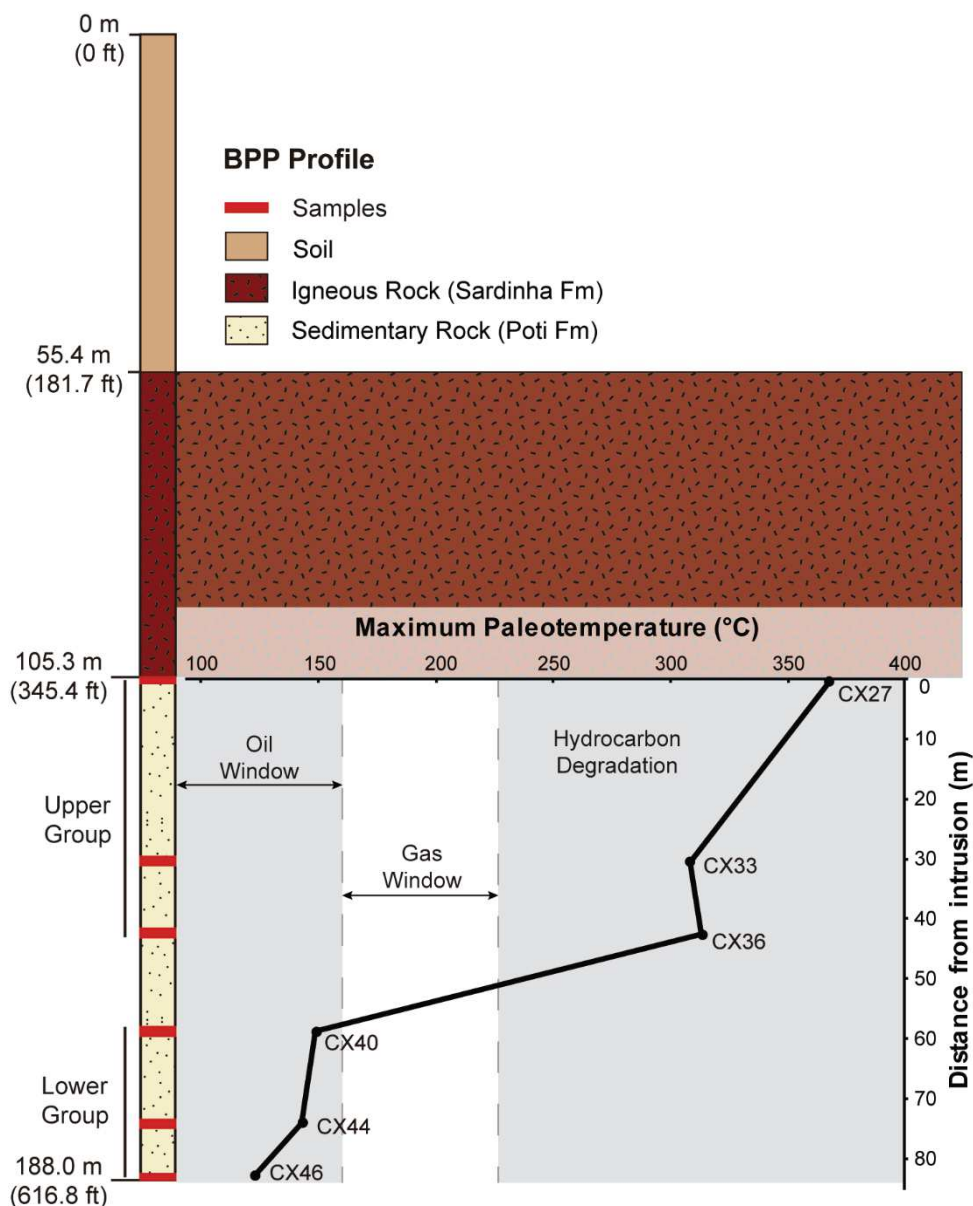
361 Borehole samples are separated in two groups (upper and lower) by depositional and
 362 diagenetic properties, and the groups are also reflected in the thermochronology data which
 363 records a diverse thermal history. All AFT ages are much younger than depositional age and
 364 indicate a partial or total reset related to elevated temperature (above apatite PAZ) from the
 365 nearby igneous intrusion. Differently, ZFT central ages record pre- and post-depositional ages.
 366 Post-depositional ages indicate a thermal influence of the two magmatic events, although the
 367 last event (Sardinha Formation) is better evidenced in the samples that show a clear division
 368 between the two groups in terms of maximum paleotemperature.

369 Comparing petrographic characteristics, the upper group (CX27, CX33 and CX36)
370 shows larger, low spherical and moderately sorted grains, implying less transport and reworking
371 than the lower group (CX40, CX44 and CX46), which is composed of smaller and spherical
372 grains. Besides, the lower group has mica sheets between quartz grains implying a low energy
373 system compared to the upper group. Stages of eodiagenesis in all samples show precipitation
374 of kaolinite inside pore spaces. Spaces are also filled with quartz cement (chalcedony)
375 overgrowing quartz grains. Compaction grain contacts emphasize that the samples were
376 compacted enough to rearrange the grains and diminish the primary porosity when mechanical
377 compaction started. The presence of secondary porosity by grain dissolution is linked to the
378 high temperature fluid percolation from the later intrusion of igneous rocks of Mosquito and
379 Sardinha Formations. This porosity was then filled with quartz cement and kaolinite from quartz
380 and feldspar dissolution. The dissolution of detrital K-feldspar grains implies in temperature ca.
381 50-150 °C (122-302 °F) (Wilkinson et al., 2001) and the replacement by authigenic clay
382 minerals (kaolinite) occurs at ca. 50–150 °C (122-302 °F) (e.g. Verdel et al., 2012; Wilkinson
383 et al., 2001). The correlation of porosity with average grain size shows that fewer pore spaces
384 in the lower group probably result from major compaction of smaller grains. Differently, the
385 upper group shows a higher porosity possibly due to the larger grains and the hydrothermal
386 influence of the intrusion (Houseknecht, 1988).

387 In terms of thermochronology, the upper group is positioned below the igneous sill and
388 shows a high magnitude influence from the intrusion demonstrated by increase in older ZFT
389 ages with depth until sample CX36 (Fig. 6). These results of sample ages show a clear reduction
390 in thermal effects with depth. Furthermore, in terms of maximum paleotemperature, inversion
391 models of the upper group samples show influence up to sample CX36, in which samples
392 underwent temperatures from ca. 367 °C (692.6 °F) in CX27 to 313 °C (595.4 °F) in CX36,
393 correlated to the Sardinha Formation intrusion event (Fig. 9). These paleotemperatures are

394 similar to Rodrigues (1995) using vitrinite reflectance in a different area of the basin. Although
395 the intrusion affected all samples, the results also show a great decay in thermal influence
396 between samples CX36 and CX40 (ca. 313 °C to 149 °C (595.4 °F to 300.2 °F)) which
397 corresponds to a significant limit to the intrusion influence. Thereby, the high temperature
398 influence (>225 °C (437 °F)) is verified until ~51 m (167.3 ft) from the intrusion contact with
399 the sedimentary rocks (Fig. 9). This distance is comparable to the influence described by
400 Rodrigues (1995) of 0.8 to 1.3 times the size of the igneous body. However, we are unable to
401 make correlation with size because the intrusion is altered at the top of the section. The high
402 temperature (above the apatite PAZ) experienced by all apatite samples from the borehole is
403 verified by the high partial annealing of the spontaneous fission tracks.

404 The lower group (~60 m (196.8 ft) distant from the intrusion; Fig. 9) shows pre-
405 depositional ZFT central ages varying from 560 to 600 Ma, correlated to the Brasiliano orogeny,
406 the last major tectonic event of the pre-depositional history. Nonetheless, a few zircon grains
407 (<10%) record ages younger than 200 Ma and indicate a thermal influence from the upper
408 intrusion (Sardinha Formation), but also record the influence of the older intrusion in the basin,
409 the Mosquito Formation (~200 Ma). Sample CX46 records a ZFT central age of 324 ± 27 Ma
410 which correlates to the initial depositional age of the Poti Formation. Inversion models of the
411 lower group show that maximum post-depositional temperatures vary from ca. 149 to 123 °C
412 (300.2 to 253.4 °F) (Fig. 7). The lowermost sample (CX46) records the maximum
413 paleotemperature related to the Mosquito Formation (~200 Ma), which is associated to the
414 CAMP event that largely affected the Parnaíba Basin (Merle et al., 2011).



415

416 Figure 9. Maximum paleotemperature profile for borehole samples. Between samples CX36
 417 and CX40, there is an important decay in the thermal influence from the upper igneous rocks.
 418 Below ca. 50 m (164 ft) from the intrusion, the sedimentary rocks maintained low temperatures
 419 and the reservoir layer stayed unmodified.

420 Regarding the petroleum system, the maximum paleotemperatures experienced by the
 421 upper group samples altered the physical properties of the reservoir rocks in the Parnaíba Basin.
 422 Moreover, paleotemperatures above 225 °C (437 °F) which were estimated for sandstone
 423 potential reservoir layers (Upper Group, Fig. 9) and intruded by later Sardinha Formation

424 magmatism, modified significantly the fabric of these rocks. Reservoir layers which experience
425 these high temperatures underwent hydrocarbon dehydration forming varying carbonic
426 products (e.g. graphite) (Vandenbroucke et al., 1999). High temperatures also resulted in
427 hydrothermal fluid percolation and alteration of framework grains (quartz and feldspars). High
428 temperature fluids from the intrusion caused almost total feldspar dissolution, increasing the
429 porosity in the upper group. However, after the thermal influence, fluids rich in carbonate and
430 silica started to precipitate minerals in pore spaces, increasing substantially cementation, as
431 shown in Table 3. Even with porosity enhancement caused by grain dissolution, the formation
432 of carbonate cement is not favorable in a reservoir context because it decreases the permeability
433 (Bjørlykke et al., 1989; Poelchau et al., 1997; Ahmed, 2002; Taylor et al., 2010).

434 In the lower group, we can observe a mixture of thermal influence in the maximum
435 paleotemperatures. This is explained by an older high intensity thermal event related to the
436 Mosquito Formation coming from lower depths of the basin, and a younger influence from the
437 upper intrusion (Sardinha Formation) acting on this group. In terms of temperature, these
438 samples are favorable for hydrocarbon reservoir, because they kept paleotemperature high
439 enough to alter the reservoir layer ($>225\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($437\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$)). However, diagenetic aspects do not
440 endorse the capability because compared to the upper group, the grain dissolution in the lower
441 group created less secondary porosity and the mechanical compaction was probably enhanced
442 by overburden from the igneous rocks. Porosity of samples shows compact sandstones with less
443 than 10% porous space, unfavorable condition for reservoir rocks (Table 3). Also, early
444 illitization and pyrite presence is described in samples from the lower group. According to
445 Rickard (1997), authigenic pyrite forms in stable conditions from 25 to $125\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (77 to $257\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$).
446 The occurrence of euhedral pyrite in pore space in these rocks implies in early diagenesis of
447 shallow marine deposits with low organic matter leading to low rates of sulfide production. The
448 process is different from mud-rich rocks with higher contents of sulphur which results in

449 framboidal pyrites, after microbial organisms supersaturate the intraporous fluids (Taylor and
450 Macquaker, 2000). In this case, sand-rich rocks of the lower group have low FeS saturation
451 precipitating small nearly euhedral intrapore pyrite. The absence of pyrite crystals in the upper
452 group suggests a deficiency in organic matter during early diagenesis or even destabilization of
453 FeS by high paleotemperature fluids in these rocks.

454 **5.2. Thermal History and Petroleum Systems of the Eastern Margin**

455 In the eastern edge of the Parnaíba Basin, the thermochronological results reveal that all
456 samples were thermally influenced by the two magmatic events, Mosquito (~200 Ma) and
457 Sardinha (120-130 Ma), however the last event is better registered. We analyzed two sets of
458 samples; those from the BPP borehole record the decay of thermal influence near an intrusive
459 rock, and the outcrop samples show the regional thermal influence of the magmatic events.

460 Borehole samples of the Poti Formation evidence the thermal influence allowing an
461 estimative of thermal decay in the borehole (Fig. 9). In a separate set of samples, outcrop sample
462 PA06, collected far from an intrusion, records a pre-depositional ZFT central age. However,
463 the youngest ZFT age of ~145 Ma is from a zircon grain completely reset by intrusions of the
464 Sardinha Formation. This sample points to the regional thermal influence of the last event in
465 this part of the basin.

466 The Cabeças Formation outcrop sample PA09A records a ZFT central age of
467 provenance, nevertheless it also records zircon grain ages associated in time to the younger
468 magmatic intrusion (Sardinha Formation) at ~120 Ma. Petrographic information of this sample
469 shows moderate sorting and more angular and irregular grain shapes, implying shorter grain
470 transport. Grain contacts in this sample have medium point to length compaction and higher
471 porosity than Poti samples (Table 3). The rock is cemented by opaque ferruginous minerals

472 indicating a transitional to continental environment with meteoric water percolation and
473 oxidation.

474 Sample PA03A from the Pastos Bons Formation is from a typically low energy
475 environment with fine quartz and mica grains. The rock is cemented by opaque minerals of
476 black-reddish color indicating ferruginous minerals. The sample shows bioturbation marks
477 indicating paralic environment with biotic action along with nearly euhedral pyrite minerals, an
478 indication of reductive context (Worden and Morad, 2003). Euhedral pyrite also indicates low
479 saturation in sulphate (Taylor and Macquaker, 2000). Thermochronological data for this sample
480 show AFT central age of 130 ± 31 Ma indicating a major influence from the Sardinha Formation
481 and a maximum paleotemperature of ca. 71°C (159.8°F) related to this intrusion (Fig. 8).

482 Stratigraphically above of Sardinha Formation, sample PA02B from Corda Formation
483 has fine sand of low sphericity, composed of angular grains and larger pore spaces than Poti
484 Formation samples. Cementation is by carbonate minerals with early illitization of micaceous
485 minerals and presence of euhedral, intrapore pyrite. Inversion model of the AFT and ZFT data
486 shows heating event coeval to deposition (Fig. 8). This is not well resolved but represents Corda
487 Formation sandstone deposition associated to an intrusive event of the Sardinha Formation,
488 which explains the correlated deposition and thermal influence of this sample.

489 In the context of the Parnaíba Basin, the Mosquito and Sardinha Formations strongly
490 affected the sedimentary rocks and surrounding basement rocks. The first event (Mosquito
491 Formation) is associated in time to the large igneous province CAMP (Marzoli et al., 2018;
492 Svensen et al., 2018) that affected the western part of Gondwana during the early stage of
493 paleocontinent break-up. Regionally, in the western basement rocks of the basin, Dias et al.
494 (2017) used Fission Track dating of zircon grains from Archean to Paleoproterozoic granites
495 and gneisses and determined younger fission track ages of ~ 200 Ma reflecting crustal heating
496 associated with the Lower Jurassic Mosquito. These authors attributed a significant role to this

497 event in the production of heat for hydrocarbon generation in the Parnaíba basin. Also, Klein et
498 al. (2013) dated intrusions in the São Luís craton in the northwestern edge of the basin,
499 correlated in time to the Mosquito event. These studies show the large extension of CAMP
500 overlying the basement rocks and the Paleozoic Basin. In the sedimentary rocks of the Parnaíba
501 Basin, CAMP is linked to the western edge of the basin in which intrusive bodies of the
502 Mosquito Formation are exposed (De Min et al., 2003; Merle et al., 2011; Mocitaiba et al.,
503 2017).

504 Sardinha Formation is described in the eastern edge of the basin (Oliveira et al., 2018)
505 and linked to another large igneous province, the Paraná-Etendeka Magmatism, which is a later
506 phase of Gondwana break-up in the southern Atlantic Ocean margin (Mizusaki et al., 2002).
507 The event is connected to diverse intrusive rocks in eastern Brazil, including the Rio Ceará–
508 Mirim Dike Swarm (de Castro et al., 2018) in the eastern basement rocks of the Parnaíba Basin.

509 The samples analyzed in this study reveal thermal influence of both magmatic events in
510 the eastern edge of the basin. AFT central ages are correlated with the last event, while ZFT
511 ages record pre-depositional ages correlated to the Brasiliano orogeny, although a few single
512 grains evidence the thermal influence of Mesozoic magmatic events. Associating the results to
513 petroleum systems, the older Mosquito event thermally influenced the generation of
514 hydrocarbon as described by Rodrigues (1995) and Porto and Pereira (2014). In the studied
515 area, the late Sardinha event also acted in hydrocarbon generation, although the intrusion event
516 altered the reservoir rocks by intruding in reservoir layers and enhancing the maximum
517 paleotemperatures as shown in the borehole samples. In this way, the disposition of laccolith
518 bodies of the Sardinha Formation altered the reservoir layers in this part of the Parnaíba Basin.

519 6 CONCLUSIONS

520 In this study, all samples had minor hydrocarbon abundance but help identify thermal
521 effects of surrounding igneous rocks in potential reservoir rocks. The AFT, ZFT and
522 petrographic data allow us to identify that the intrusions acted as thermal enhancement to
523 hydrocarbon, but on the other hand, the intrusion altered the reservoir layer in the eastern part
524 of the Parnaíba Basin. Results also validate an innovative approach for thermochronological
525 studies in delimiting thermal histories of petroleum systems. The main conclusions of this study
526 are:

527 (1) Thermochronological data show influences from two magmatic events, but the
528 major influence in the eastern part of the Parnaíba Basin is related to the last
529 Sardinha Formation.

530 (2) The intrusion effects in Poti and Cabeças samples increased the dissolution,
531 carbonate precipitation and compaction in the rocks due to higher temperature fluid
532 percolation and overburden in the system.

533 (3) Pastos Bons Formation sample was thermally influenced by the intrusion. However,
534 the rocks show no diagenetic features or porosity for a potential reservoir. The
535 deposition history of the Corda Formation sample is close in time with the Sardinha
536 intrusion, thus duration of intrusion was short to constrain a potential reservoir
537 context.

538 (4) In borehole samples closer than ca. 50 m (164 ft) to magmatic activity, the reservoir
539 properties were obliterated by high temperature (>225 °C (437 °F)) and secondary
540 diagenetic effects.

541 (5) In the lower group of borehole samples, farther than ca. 50 m (164 ft) from the
542 intrusion, the maximum paleotemperatures were sufficiently low so potential

543 reservoir layers remained unaltered, but compaction was enhanced by igneous
544 overburden.

545

546 **Acknowledgements**

547 The authors acknowledge Project POTI ANP-UnB-PGN for financial and scientific
548 support and Andrew Carter for dosimeter glasses. We are also thankful to the professor Léo A.
549 Hartmann for reviewing this manuscript. The first author thanks CAPES (Coordenação de
550 Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior) within the Ministry of Education of Brazil for
551 the student grant (PROSUC/88887.150578/2017-00).

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