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Shale Gas Reserve Potential in the Sedentary Basins of Malaysia and South-East Asia Region

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7 Abstract

Shale gas, which is mostly methane, can be found in any sedimentary basins. The depositional 8 setting directly controls key factors in shale gas, such asorganic geochemistry, organic richness, 9 and rock composition. Shale gas reservoir type is a source rock that has retained gas 10 production potential. Produced gas comes from adsorbed gas in the organic matter and free 11 gas trapped in the pores of the organic matter and in the organic portions of the matrix. The 12 main objective of this study is to discuss the potential of shale gas reserves in Malaysia and 13 South East Asia sedimentary basins. Shale can actually be a game changer in South East Asia 14 and mainly for Malaysia, China, India, Pakistan, Indonesia and Thailand. Malaysia, located 15 within Southeast Asia, has two distinct parts. The western half contains the Peninsular 16

¹⁷ Malaysia, and the eastern half includes the states of Sarawak and Sabah.

18

19 Index terms— sedimentary basins, shale gas reserves, south asia region, global shale reserves.

20 1 Introduction

n the last decade and more, shale gas resources have emerged as a viable energy source. The development of 21 these shales changed the traditional approach geologists had been following-that of the sequence of gas first 22 being generated in the source rock, followed by its migration into the reservoir rock in which it is trapped. The 23 shale layer acts as both source and reservoir rock in gas reservoir, there is no need for migration and since the 24 25 permeability is near zero, it forms its own seal. Large amount of gas is generated in shale layers by sedimentation 26 of organic matter. It is important for development of shale gas reservoirs to locate such layers where gas can be generated and accumulated in a sedimentary basin as well as the sweet spot with shale gas deposits. To accomplish 27 this, the tectonics of shale sedimentary basins have to be analyzed, along with the sedimentary environment and 28 sequence stratigraphy. As different shale gas reservoirs have different properties, it is imperative to study them 29 before any exploration plan is put in place. 30

Shale gas consists of 70-90% methane, it is often called unconventional natural gas and is taken from different rock layers than traditional gas. shale gas exploration and exploitation is governed by many factors such as the areal extent of shale layer, thickness, total organiccarbon content, kerogen type, maturity, mineralogy, brittleness verses ductility etc. integrated studies of geological, geochemical, geophysical, petrophysical, geo mechanical can help evaluating all these factors to identify the sweet spots for shale gas exploration and exploitation. The shale itself has very low permeability and, without employing fracturing technology, production well flow rates would be minimal, ??Satinder et al, 2012 and ??amada, 2017).

The main method of shale gas production is hydraulic fracturing, which requires a tremendous amount of water. Every shale gas well needs millions of gallons of water. The hydraulic fracturing process shoots out a mixture of water and chemicals at high pressure to extract the gas, inevitably requiring large amounts of water. Thus, the most important issue in developing shale gas in SE ASIA developing the technology to minimize water usage. In summary, it can be stated that the potential for shale gas as a source of energy in Southeast Asia appears to be good. However, more work needs to be carried out to ascertain the exact capacity of this gas in

44 each country mentioned earlier.

For a shale gas reservoir to become a successful shale gas play, the following characteristics need to be considered: organic richness (TOC), maturation, thickness, gas in place, permeability, mineralogy, brittleness and pore pressure. An optimum combination of these factors leads to favorable productivity. Geophysical methods can help in characterizing the shale gas resource plays. However, the methodology adopted is in general quite different from methodologies applied to conventional reservoirs. In addition, the characterization of each shale reservoir could require particular types of tools and approaches to well understand the sedimentation conditions and the petrrophysical properties to meet the growing challenges and expectations of shale gas resources.

Exploration and production activity started in Southeast Asia in the beginning of the last century. Shale gas resources are widely spread across the globe, there is great interest in the economic potential for developing shale gas more widely. The main objective of this study is to discuss the potential of shale gas reserves in Malaysia and South-East Asia sedimentary basins. Shale can be a game changer in South East Asia and mainly for Malaysia, China, India, Pakistan, Indonesia and Thailand. All these countries are big importers of crude oil and shale has the potential to drastically reduce the huge import bills of these nations. However, Southeast Asia has strengthened its important role in the global energy market, due to the growing economies in the region.

59 **2** II.

⁶⁰ 3 Malaysia Basins And Shale Gas Potential

Malaysia is in rapid economic growth while oil and gas is expected to play an important role in the economy towards the year 2020, when the country is expected to be fully industrialized.

Malaysia is the world's third-largest exporter of liquefied natural gas, and the second-largest oil and natural gas producer in the Southeast Asia. Malaysian sedimentary basins are major areas for potential oil and gas reservoirs as they contain many faults and natural traps, which collects and accumulate hydrocarbons under its impermeable layer. Six major Tertiary sedimentary basins are present in Malaysia: the Malay, Penyu, Sarawak,

67 Sabah, Sandakan and a portion of Tarakan basins (Fig. ?? Peninsular Malaysia region have four main basins,

⁶⁸ The Malay Basin and the Penyu Basin are located offshore to the east of the peninsula. Other two basins, namely

69 the Central Sumatra Basin and the North Sumatra Basin lie to the west of the peninsula and are mostly offshore 70 with a small portion lying onshore. The Malay Basin contains about 12-km thick Neogene sediments that were

deposited within the non-marine to shallow marine environment. In the Penyu Basin, oil has been discovered on

⁷² horst blocks of Oligocene synrift play consisting of fluvial sandstones reservoirs.

⁷³ 4 III. China Potential And Major Shale Gas Prospects

74 China is the third country gaining shale gas discovery in the world after the United States and Canada. China 75 has a huge shale gas resources. According to some estimates, it is the world's largest reserve. China possesses 76 31.6 trillion cubic meters (1,115 trillion cubic feet) of technically recoverable shale gas resources(EIA, 2013).

For geographical distribution, target areas can be divided into four regions (Fig The Sichuan and Tarim Basins

are two large organic rich shale plays, and other five less prospective basins are the Songliao, Bohai, Ordos, Tuha
 and Jungar Basins. The Sichuan Basin is considered as the most promising basin to develop shale gas in short

so term, because of its well-developed gas pipeline network and mature gas market.

81 Shale Gas Reserve potential in the Sedentary Basins of Malaysia and South-East Asia Region

82 5 a)

83 Sichuan Basin is one of the richest shale gas basins in China. Shale exploration activity in China has been focused on the Sichuan Basin, which contains marine-deposited, dry-gas mature source rock shales that resemble 84 commercially productive shales. The Sichuan Basin covers a large 190,000-km2 area in south central China. The 85 basin currently produces about 1.5 Bcf/d of natural gas from conventional and lowpermeability sandstones and 86 carbonates within the Triassic Xujiahe and Feixianguan formations, from complex structural-stratigraphic traps 87 (mainly faulted anticlines) that are distributed across the basin. Sichuan Basin is the Changning-Weiyuan area, 88 which is found to be high in thermal evolution degree (Ro: 2.0%-4.0%), porosity (3.0%-4.8%), gas concentration 89 (2.82-3.28 m3/t) and the burial depth is relatively moderate (1500-4500 m). ?? The Sichuan Basin, primary 90 focus for shale gas, has multiple shale targets but also significant geologic challenges, such as numerous faults, 91 often steep dips, high tectonic stress, slow drilling in hard formations, and high H2S and CO2 in places. Table-1 92 93 data provides good control of shale thickness, depth, structural geology, thermal maturity, and organic content. 94 The Sichuan basin has four tectonic zones: the Northwest Depression, Central Uplift, and the East and 95 South Fold Belts. The Central Uplift, characterized by relatively simple structure and comparatively few faults, 96 appears to be the most attractive region for shale gas development. In contrast, the East and South Fold Belts are structurally more complex, with numerous closely spaced folds and faults. 97

The four-main organic-rich shale targets in the Sichuan Basin are the Lower Cambrian Qiongzhusi, Lower Silurian Longmaxi, Lower Permian Qixia, and the Upper Permian Longtan formations. (Figure 3). Most important is the Lower Silurian Longmaxi Formation, which contains an average 300 m of organically rich, black, graptolitic-bearing, siliceous to cherty shale. TOC is mostly low to moderate, reaching 4% and consisting mainly of Type II kerogen (Liu et al., 2011). Thermal maturity ishigh and increases with depth, ranging from
 dry gas prone to over mature (Ro 2.4% to 3.6%).

Another shale gas target in the Sichuan Basin is the Cambrian Qiongzhusi Formation. Even though deeper 104 than the Longmaxi and mostly screened out by the 5-km depth, the Qiongzhusi contains high-quality source rocks 105 that provide stacked shale resource potential. The formation was deposited under shallow marine continental shelf 106 conditions and has an overall thickness of 250 to 600m. The Tarim Basin, located in the Xinjiang Autonomous 107 Region, is China's largest onshore sedimentary basin (600,000 km2, the Tarim Basin produces 260,000 B/D of oil 108 and 1.6 Bcfd of natural gas from conventional reservoirs, which were sourced mainly by organic-rich Cambrian 109 and Ordovician shales. Figure 7 shows the structural elements of the Tarim Basin, and Prospective of shale gas. 110 The Tarim Basin is sub-divided by fault and fold systems into a series of seven distinct structural zones, 111 comprising three uplifts and four depressions. 112

113 6 India Shale Gas Potential

Natural gas is rapidly substituting fuel to suffice the growing energy requirement of today's world. As the consumption of natural gas is increasing rapidly, it is essential to identify and develop the available energy resources. India has the huge prospects of unconventional shale gas resources. Commercial exploration of these shale gas resources can effectively make the global natural gas curve more elastic.

There is a sizeable deposit of shale formations in several sedimentary basins of India with different total organic (TOC) content and maturity history. The Cambay, Krishna-Godavari, Cauvery and Damodar valley are the four major basins of shale gas reservoirs as indicated by considerable thickness of shales; sufficient TOC (2 to 6 wt%) content; and good thermal maturity with vitrinite reflectance of more than 1.0. (Ind., 2014). The reservoir properties and resource potential (290 TCF) of shale gas, estimated by ARI, are shown in Table-3.

According to ARI (American Research Institute), shale gas reserves would be anywhere between 600 Tcf to 2000 Tcf and technically recoverable shale gas resource is estimated as 63 Tcf in spread over many sedimentary basins India. Most of Indian basins especially the Cambay, Krishna-Godavari, Cauvery and Damodar Valley have good prospects of shale gas (Fig. 9). Several other basins such as the Vindhyan, Upper Assam, Pranhita-Godavari and Rajasthan, though show thermal immaturity, contain measurable thickness of shale with good

127 Codavari and Rajastian, though show thermal initiaturity, contain measurable thereiss of shale with good 128 TOC content.

129 **7** b)

It is located on the east coast of India; land part covers an area of 15000 sq. km and the offshore part covers an area of 25,000 sq. km. Shale in the Krishna Godavari Basin is limited to the four grabens (subbasins) where the thermal maturity is sufficiently high for wet to dry gas generation. (Mahto, 2014) Estimated risked shale gas in place is of 136 Tcf, with a risked technically recoverable resource of 27 Tcf.

134 **8 c)**

The Cauvery basin covers an area (25,000 sq.km) and shallow offshore areas (30,000 sq. km). The basin contains a thick interval of organic rich source rocks in Lower Cretaceous Andimadam and Sattapadi shale formations. The oldest rocks in the Cauvery Basin : are the shallow marine, late Jurassic sediments and early Cretaceous deposits. Average resource around 43 Tcf of risked shale gas in-place is estimated of which 9 Tcf is considered technically recoverable.

¹⁴⁰ 9 d)

The Damodar Valley Basin is part of a group of basins collectively named as Gondwanas. (Pradhan, 2015)
The Gondwanas, comprising the Satpura, Pranhita-Godavari, Son-Mahanadi and Damodar Basins. In this basin
around 33 Tcf of risked shale gas in-place is estimated of which 7 Tcf is considered technically recoverable.

144 **10** e)

The Southern Indus Basin is in southern Pakistan adjacent to the border with India. Southern Indus Basin has 145 five commercial oil discoveries and one gas discovery in the conventional Cretaceous-age and three gas discoveries 146 and one gas condensate discovery in shallower formations. Moreover, with the help of this technology the well 147 can drain shale gas resources from a geographical area that is much larger than a single vertical well within 148 the same shale formation. The Lower Indus basin has two types of shale formations, which are Sembar and 149 Ranikotformation. Within the overall prospective area of the Lower Indus Basin, the Sembar Shale has risked 150 shale gas in-place of 531 Tcf, with 101 Tcf as the risked, technically recoverable shale gas resource. In addition, 151 prospective area of the Lower Indus Basin, the Ranikot Shale has 55 Tcf of risked shale gas in-place and 82 billion 152 barrels of risked shale oil in-place. 153

¹⁵⁴ 11 Cambay Basin Krishna Godavari Basin

155 Cauvery

Sembar Formation 156

? It mainly consists of clastic rocks, typically shale with lesser quantities of siltstone and sandstone in the 157 Lower Indus. The sand content increases towards the Southeast in the Lower Indus Basin. However, in the 158 Middle Indus Basin, the formation is composed of siltstone with few marl and shales. 159

? Shale in Sembar Formation is basically medium hard, pyritic, moderately indurated and slightly calcareous 160 in the area. The gross thickness varies from >50m to 800 m. ? The TOC and thermal maturity (Ro) of Sembar 161 formation as per exploration targets is around 2% and 1%-1.6% respectively. ? The shale in Paleocene Ranikot 162 Formations is primarily upper carbonate unit, which is tailored with fossiliferous limestone inter-bedded with 163 dolomitic shale, calcareous sandstone and abundant bituminous material. ? The prospective area of the Ranikot 164 formation has a thickness of around 1,000-3,000ft with net shale thickness of 200 ft. 165

12**Ranikot Formation** 166

i. 167 ii.

168

Lower Indus Basin 13169

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Thailand 14 171

This large Southeast Asian country has significant prospective shale gas potential. Nearly 90% of its current 172 petroleum output comes from offshore fields in the Gulf of Thailand, with only limited production from small 173 onshore fields. Approximately 40% of Thailand's primary energy consumption is supplied by natural gas. 174

Thailand's greatest potential appears to be shale gas deposits contained in Permian and Triassic shale source 175 rocks in the Khorat, the country's largest onshore sedimentary basin. (Jeenagool, 2015) These shales can be 176 locally thick, organic-rich, dry gas prone, deeply buried, and overpressure. 177

Thailand has three main onshore sedimentary basins which may have unconventional oil and gas potential, 178 Figure -13. These include the large Khorat Basin in the northeast; a series of smaller, isolated pullapart basins 179 in the Northern Intermontane Basin, where shale oil deposits are being mined; and the similarly complex Central 180 Plains Basin. 181

182 The Khorat Basin in northeast Thailand has an estimated 5 Tcf of risked technically recoverable shale gas 183 resources. While no shale gas/oil exploration activity has been reported to date. The structural Khorat Basin depression was initiated during the Middle Paleozoic, with widespread deposition of clastic and carbonate 184 sedimentary rocks, beginning with the Carboniferous Si That Formation. Fluvial and lacustrine deposits of 185 the Triassic Kuchinarai Group also have been identified as petroleum source rocks in the Khorat Basin, with 186 high-TOC intervals. The Kuchinarai Group reportedly averages a prospective 6,500 to 7,000 feet deep within 187 the basin. Thermal maturity modeling suggests it reaches the dry gas window, with no liquids potential (Ro> 188 2.0%).189

Indonesia Shale Gas Potential 15190

Indonesia is the world's fourth most populous country (250 million) and a major producer of coal, oil, and 191 natural gas. Indonesia has shale gas and shale oil potential within selected marine-deposited formations, as well 192 as more extensive shale resources within nonmarine and often coaly shale deposits, Estimated 46 Tcf technically 193 recoverable shale gas resources out of 303 Tcf of risked shale gas in-place. in central and western Indonesia. (Fig. 194 15 shows Stratigraphy of Source Rocks) 195

16a) 196

The Bintuni Basin, located in the eastern side of the Bird's Head region, appears to have the simplest structural 197 conditions and best shale prospectively in the eastern Indonesia region. The stratigraphic section resembles that 198 of the Salawati Basin, with preserved Paleozoic, Mesozoic, and Tertiary units. The prospective areas of the 199 Permian Aifam formation have an estimated 29 TCF of technically recoverable shale gas resources out of 114 200 Tcf of gas in-place. (Kuuskraa V. S., 2013) This marine-deposited unit could be the best shale gas target in 201

Indonesia. To date No shale gas/oil leasing or exploration activity has been reported in eastern Indonesia. 202

17b) 203

204 Sumatra has shale oil and gas potential in three deep basin complexes: The North, Central, and South Sumatra basins. The North Sumatra Basin produces mainly conventional gas both onshore and offshore. Central Sumatra 205 Basin one of main resources in Shale gas with technically recoverable resources from the Brown Shale are estimated 206 at 3.3 Tcf out of 42 Tcf shale gas. 207

South Sumatra Basin, this basin is a significant conventional oil and gas producing area as well as a focus 208 of Shale gas & coalbed methane exploration. The basin contains late Eocene to early Oligocene deposits of 209 clastic sediments in transgressional pull-apart depressions. The Eocene to Oligocene TalangAkar Formation is 210

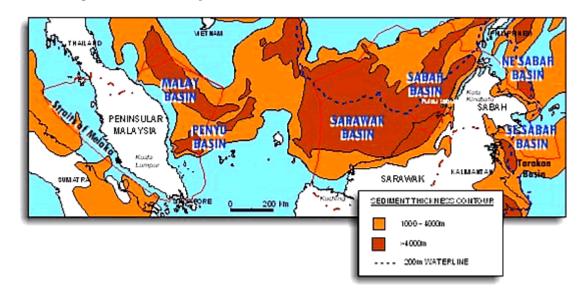
prospective within a large 15,490-mi2 area and estimated to have a 367-ft thick high-graded zone with average 5% TOC and 0.7% Ro. The pressure gradient is normal and the clay content is considered high. The TalangAkar Formation has an estimated 4.1 of technically recoverable shale gas resources, out of 68 Tcf.

²¹⁴ 18 VIII.

215 19 Conclusion

? Shale gas refers to natural gas in organic rich fine grained rocks (shale and/or mud rock). Gas stored in shale
as: 1) adsorbed gas attached to organic matter, 2) free gas in matrix pores, micro pores and natural; fractures
and 3) solution gas in liquids such as bitumen and oil. For shale gas, hydraulic

Shale Gas Reserve potential in the Sedentary Basins of Malaysia and South-East Asia Region Tarakan basins 219 in Kalimantan; most reserve of shale gas in the eastern part (Salawati, Bintuni, Tomori) but it structurally 220 complex basins. Other basins in Indonesia appear to be less prospective due to low TOC, high clay and CO2 221 contents Many of Indonesia's organic-rich shales are non-marine coaly deposits that may not be brittle enough 222 for shale development. Their depositional setting ranges from deepwater marine in eastern Indonesia to mostly 223 lacustrine and deltaic environments Indonesia has shale gas within selected marinedeposited formations, more 224 extensive shale resources. The petroleum source rocks in onshore Indonesian basins are relatively young, mostly 225 Eocene to Pliocene. (Rahmalia, 2012) Indonesia have many onshore sedimentary basins (Figure 15) which may 226 have shale gas potential, these include the Central and South Sumatra basins on Sumatra Island; the Kutei and ? 227 The economic feasibility of shale gas as unconventional resources is highly dependent on the price of conventional 228 resources, and the assumption that the price will remain at a certain level for some time to come. Available 229 technology and development plans have great impact on the forecasting of unconventional resources either as 230 complement or replacement of the conventional resources. considered: organic richness (TOC), maturation, 231 thickness, gas in place, permeability, mineralogy, brittleness and pore pressure. An optimum combination of 232 these factors leads to favorable productivity. Geophysical methods can help in characterizing the shale gas 233 resource plays ? Shale gas reservoir to become a successful shale gas play, the following characteristics need to 234 1 2 3 be fracturing of a reservoir is the preferred stimulation method.





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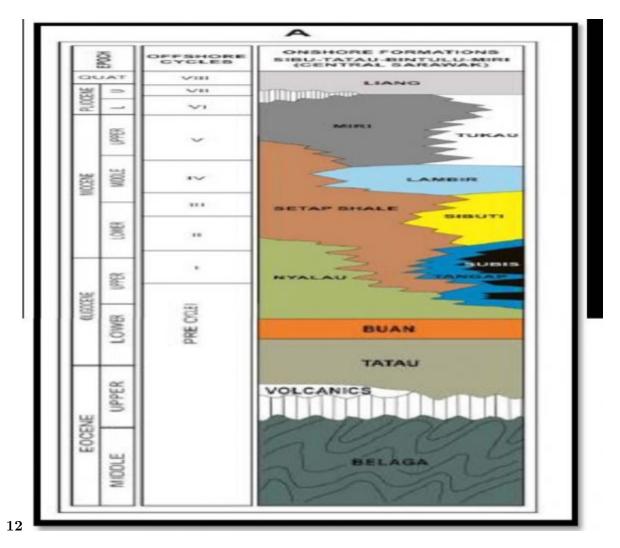


Figure 2: Figure 1 : Figure 2 :

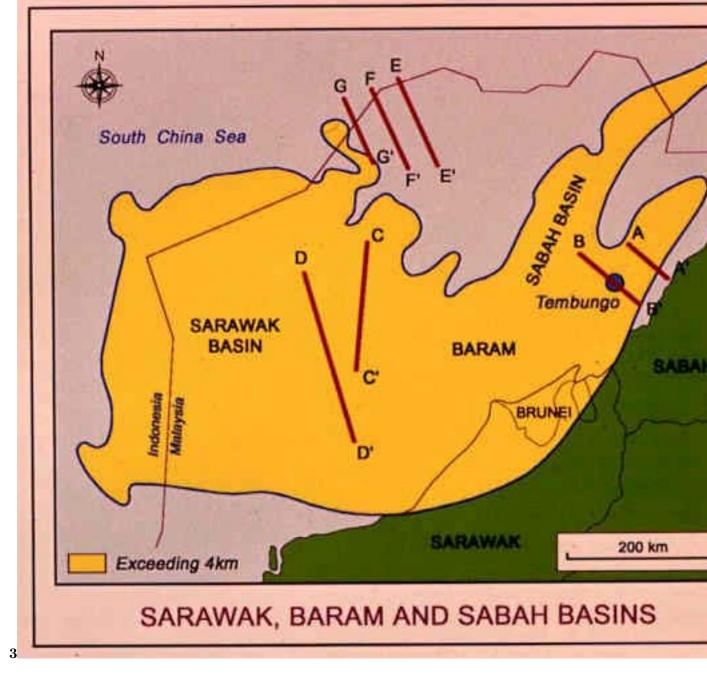
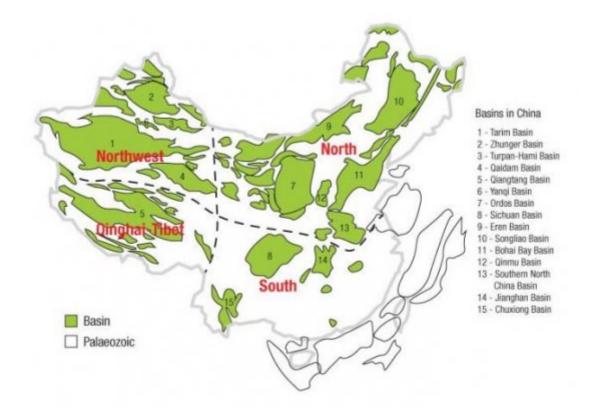


Figure 3: Figure 3 :



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Figure 4: Figure 4 :

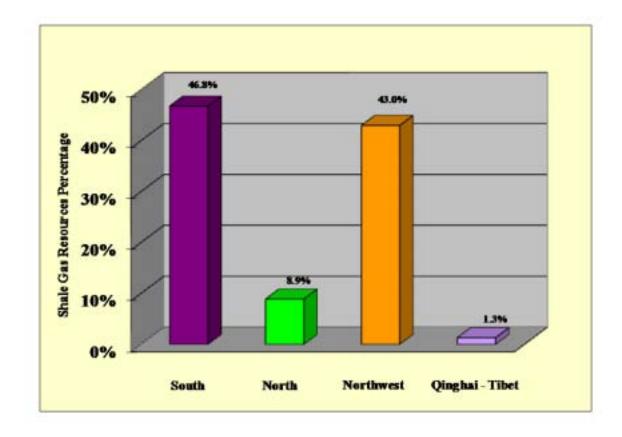


Figure 5: Figure 5 : Figure 6 :

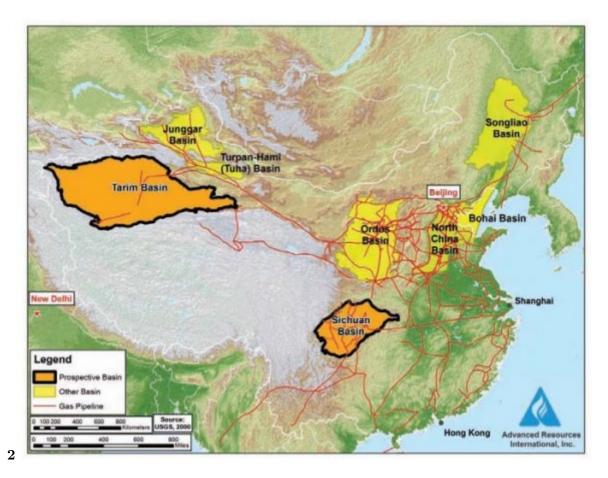


Figure 6: Table 2 :

System	Series	Formation	Depth	Formation thickness (m)	Shale Thickness (m)	Area (10 ³ km ²)	Shale Gas Resource (10 ¹² m ³)
Triassic	upper	Xujiahe	1,870-5,000	1,800-5,100	500-1,860	14-16.5	8.4-33.5
Silurian	lower	Longmaxi	2,300-4,100	200-800	50-500	128.2	4-12.4
Ordovician	upper	Wufengzu	2,300-4,500		2-40	147.3	0.52
Cambria	lower	Qiongzhusi	2,700-3,600	50-500	74-400	184.5	7.14-14.6
Sinian	upper	Doushantuo		25-70	10-40		

7

Figure 7: Figure 7 :

		SICHU	JAN BASIN			
ERA	PERIOD	EPOCH	FORMATION	AGE (Ma)	THICKNESS (m	
8	QUATERNARY			0-3	0 - 380	
CENO2OIC	TERTIARY	Upper		3 - 25	0 - 300	
8	TERNART	Lower		25 - 80	0 - 800	
	CRETACEOUS			80 - 140	0 - 2000	
		Upper	Penglaizhen		650 - 1400	
0	JURASSIC	Middle	Suining	140 - 195	340 - 500	
MESOZOIC	30143510	Moder	Shaximiao	140 - 155	600 - 2800	
00		Middle-Low er	Ziliujing	-	200 - 900	
E		Upper	Xujiahe	195 - 205	250 - 3000	
M	TRIASSIC	Middle	Leikoupo			
		Lower	Jialingiang	205 - 230	900 - 1700	
			Feixianguan			
	PERMIAN	Upper	Changxing		200 - 500	
			Longtan	230 - 270	200 - 500	
		Lower	Maokou	230 - 210	000 500	
0			Qixia-Liangshan		200 - 500	
ALEOZOIC	CARBONIFEROUS	Mississippian	Huanglong	270 - 320	0 - 500	
0	OULIDIAN	Upper			0 - 1500	
ALI	SILURIAN	Lower Longmaxi			0 - 1500	
0	ORDOVICIAN			320 - 570	0 - 600	
1		Upper	Xixiangchi	320 - 570		
	CAMBRIAN	Middle	Yuxiansi		0 - 2500	
		Lower	Qiongzhusi			
8		Upper	Dengying		200 - 1100	
PROTEROZOC	SINIAN	opper	Doushantuo	570 - 850	200 - 1100	
8	Contraction of the second s	Lower			0 - 400	
8	PRE-SINIAN			850		

Figure 8:

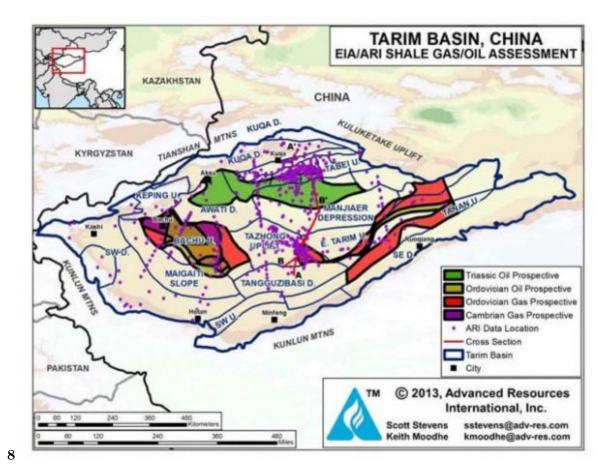


Figure 9: Figure 8 :

ERA	PERIOD	EPOCH	FORMATION	AGE (Ma)	THICKNESS (m
0	QUATERNARY	Q			
IOZ(N ₂₀		2	
CENDZOI	TERTIARY	Ntw			
	100.022230000000	Eh			
	CRETACEOUS	K _{2y}		i	
0	CREIACEOUS	K _{tr}			
MESOZOIC		J _{3k}		1	
8	JURASSIC	J _{2t}	3		
ME	11.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.	J _{2y} J1k			
	TRIASSIC	9.15	6		
_	114/00/0	100	Shazijing		
	PERMIAN	Upper	Aqiaqun	290	0 - 780
		Middle-Lower	Aqiaqun	200	
	CARBONIFEROUS	Upper-Middle	Xiaohaizi		
		opper midule	Kalashayi	290 - 355	0 - 691
		Lower	Bachu	200 000	
_	DEVONIAN		Daona	355 - 405	0 - 241
0	DEVOID	Upper		Same marks	02.1355(4)
0Z	SILURIAN	Middle		405 - 439	0 - 517
PALEOZOIC		Lower	×	1	0 - 300
ALI		Upper	Hetuao (O1-2)	439 - 459	00.007.007.0
٩.					org-rich
	ORDOVICIAN	Middle	Yijianfan (O ₂)	459 - 478	0 - 150
		Construction of the second			org-rich 0 - 50
		Lower	Lianglitage (O3)	478 - 505	
		Linner	Oluthana		org-rich
		Upper	Qiulitage		2918
	CAMBRIAN	Middle	Awatage	505 - 600	125
		Lower	Xiaoerbulake		74
PROTEROZOIC	SINIAN			600+	200 - 1100

Figure 10: Figure 9

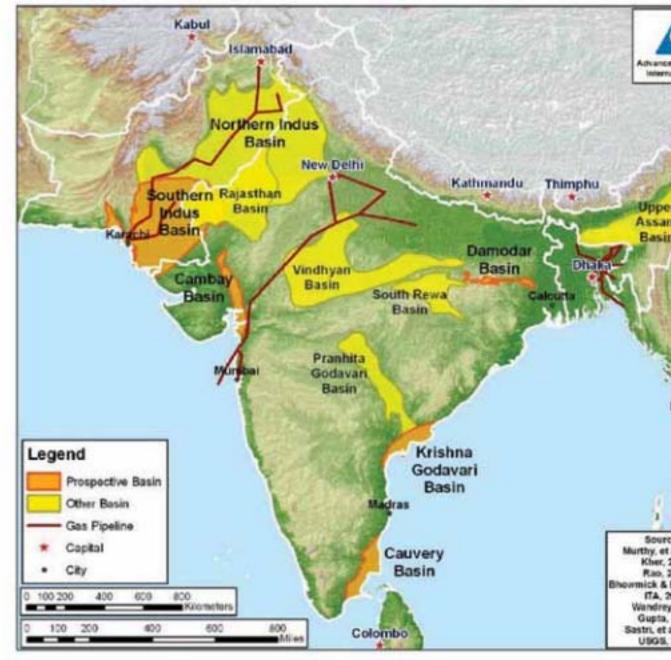
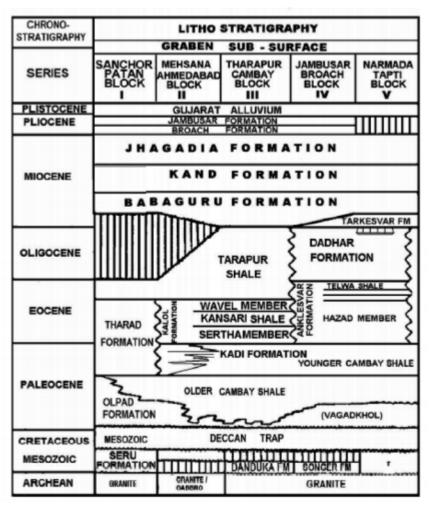


Figure 11: 3 : Figure 10 :

	Basin/Gross Area Shale Formation Geological Age		Cambay basin (20,000 mi ²) Damodar Valley basin (1,410 mi ²)		Krishna- Godavari basin (7,800mi ²)	Cauvery basin (9,100 mi ²)	
ta			Cambay Shale	Barren Measure	Kommugudem Shale	Andimadam Formation	
Basic data			Upper Cretaceous/ Tertiary	Permian-Triassic	Permian	Cretaceous	
	Prospective Area(mi ²)		940	1,080	4,340	1,005	
ent	Thickness (ft)	Interval	1,600-4,900	0-2,100	3,100-3,500	600-1,200	
Physical Extent		Organic Rich	1,500	1,050	1,000	800	
cal		Net	500	368	300	400	
hysi	Depth (ft)	Interval	11,500-16,400	3,280-6,560	6,200-13,900	7,000-13,000	
PI		Average	13,000	4,920	11,500	10,000	
Reservoir properties	Reservoir Pressure		Moderately Overpressured	Moderately Overpressured	Normal	Normal	
Reservoir	Average TOC (wt. %)		3.0%	4.5%	6.0%	2.0%	
Pro	Clay Content		Medium	High	High	High	
8	GIP Concentration(BCF/mi2)		231	123	156	143	
Resource	Risked GIP (TO	CF)	78	33	136	43	
Re	Risked recoverable(TCF)		20	7	27	9	

Figure 12: Figure 11 :



12

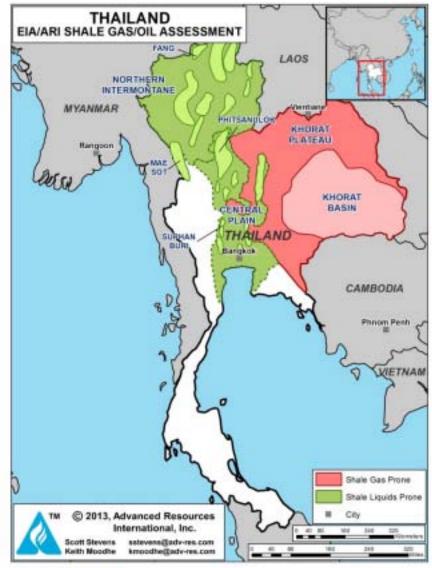
Figure 13: Figure 12 :



Figure 14: Figure 13 :

1			PAKISTAN BASINS									
	BASIN		SOUTHERN INDUS	CENTRA	L INDUS	1	ORTH	ERN IN	DUS	BALOC	HISTAN	
ERA	PERIOD	EPOCH		FO	RM	A	тι	0	N			
	QUATERNARY	Pleistocene				Т					nara.	
	Genterounni		Siwaliks	Siwa	liks						ati	
		Pliocene		_					linglas			
		Miocene	Gaj	Ge	Ň	-	Kamilal			rkini		
1			0.8		8-4 -	-	N	urree			igur hab	
CENOZOIC		Oligocene	Nari	Na						-	han	
											alaf	
5	TERTIARY		Kirthar	Kirthar				201210			Wakai	
		Eccene	Ghaziji	Saka				ohat		Saindak	Khara	
			Baska/Laki	Num				uldana				
			Dunghan	Dung	han	1		atala		Isp	kan	
		Paleocene	Ranikot	Ranikot			Lockhart Hangu		Rakhshani			
			Khadro Pab	Pa		-						
		Unner	Mughal Kot	Mugha		1.5	Kan	vagarh	_	14.1	mai	
		Upper	Parh	Pai			r.a.	vogarn			risinai	
	CRETACEOUS		Goru	Go		-				<u> </u>		
		Lower		INCOMPANY AND INCOMPANY			Lumshiwal		Sin	rani		
			Sembar	Sembar			Chichal					
		Upper	Takatu/Chiltan	Samana Suk			unicitai					
0	JURASSIC	Opper	renarca Crimen									
20		Middke	Lorolai/Data				Samana Suk					
MESOZOIC			Coronicuta	Shina	wari		Shi	nawar				
-		Lower	Shirinab	Da	ta	Data		1				
-							_	_	_			
		Upper		King	Kingriali							
			1 1	, ang sa			K	ingriali				
						Tredian		1				
	TRIASSIC		Wulqai/Alozai	Tree	fan		T	redian				
	TRIASSIC	Middke	Wulgai/Alozai	Tree	Ían	+			_			
	TRIASSIC		Wulgai/Alozai	Tree Miar			M	ianwali				
	TRIASSIC	Middke Lower	Wulgai/Alozai				M	ianwali Chidru				
	TRIASSIC		WulgaVAlozai	Mar	wai		M	ianwali				
	_		WulgaYAlozai		wai		M C	ianwali Chidru				
	TRIASSIC		WulgaVAlozai	Miar Zal	wai uch		M C V S	ianwali Chidru Nargal				
OIC	_		WulgaVAlozai	Mar	wai uch		M C V S	ianwali Chidru Vargal Vardhai				
202010	_		WulgaVAlozai	Miar Zal	wai uch		M C V S V D	ianwali Chidru Vargal Vardhai Varcha				
ALEOZOIC	_			Miar Zal Niau	wali uch ihan		M C V S V D	ianwali Chidru Vargal Iardhai Varcha Jandot				
PALEOZOIC	PERMIAN		Wulgai/Alozai Baghanwala	Miar Zal	wali uch ihan		M V S V D	ianwali Chidru Nargal Iardhai Varcha Iandot Tobra				
PALEOZOIC	_			Miar Zal Niau	wai uch ihan nwala		M V S V D	ianwali Chidru Vargal Iardhai Varcha Jandot				
PALEOZOIC	PERMIAN		Baghanwala	Mar Zal Nilaa <u>Bagha</u>	wali uch ihan nwala ana		M C V S C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	ianwali Chidru Nargal Nardhai Nardha Nandot Tobra <i>uttana</i>				
	PERMIAN		Baghanwala Jutana	Mar Zak Nilaa Bagha Jutti	wai uch Ihan nwala ana sak		M C V S C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	ianwali Chidru Nargal Iardhai Varcha Iandot Tobra				
	PERMIAN		Baghanwala Jutana Kussak	Mar Zak Nilaa Bagha Jutt Kus Kke	wai uch ihan ana ana sak sak		M V S U Ju Ju	ianwali Chidru Nargal andhai Nardha Nardha Nardha Tobra rttana hewra	e			
PROTEROZOIC PALEOZOIC	PERMIAN		Baghanwala Jutana Kussak Khewra	Mar Zal Niau Bagha Jutti Kus	wai uch ihan ana ana sak wra iange		M V S U Ju Ju	ianwali Chidru Nargal Nardhai Nardha Nandot Tobra <i>uttana</i>	e			

Figure 15: ShaleTable 4 :



14 Source: ARI, 2013

Figure 16: Figure 14 :

Bask Data	Basin/Gross Area		Khorat (32,400 mi ²)	
k.	Shale	Nam Duk Fm Permian		
Bas	Geol			
1	Deposition	Marine		
ant	Prospective A	rea (mi ²)	1,750	
^p hysical Extent	Thickness (ft)	Organically Rich	400	
1	Thickness (it)	Net	200	
ysi	Death (B)	Interval	6,000 - 12,000	
4d	Depth (ft)	Average	9,000	
ies i	Reservoir Pres	Mod. Overpress.		
Reservoir Properties	Average TOC	3.0%		
Res	Thermal Matur	rity (% Ro)	2.50%	
10.00	Clay Content		Low	
	Gas Phase	Dry Gas		
Resource	GIP Concentra	tion (Bcf/mi ²)	83.0	
teso	Risked GIP (To	cf)	21.8	
-	Risked Recover	100 C	5.4	

Figure 17: Figure 15 :

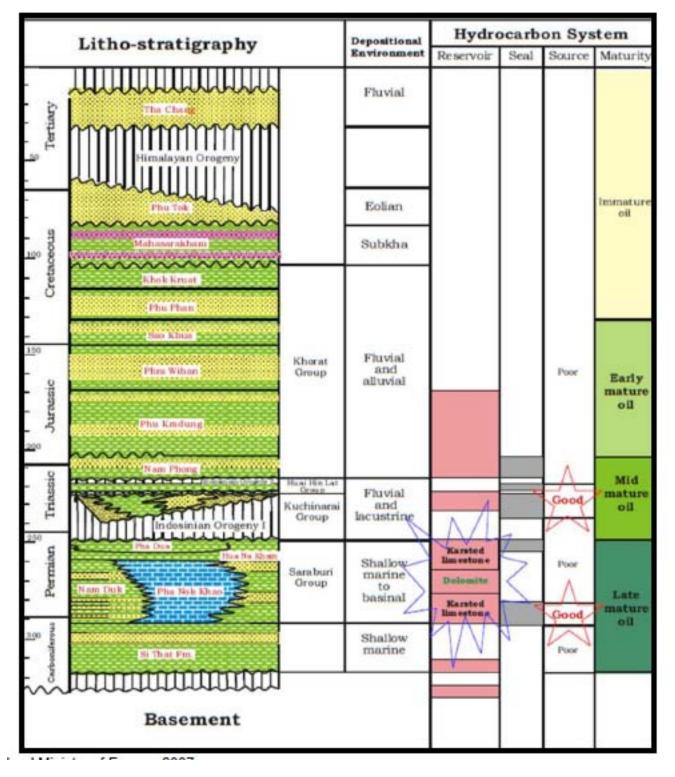


Figure 18:

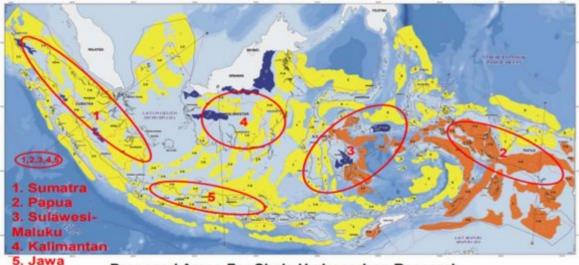




Figure 19:

1

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Sichuan Basin

[Note: Zou C. D., 2010] The EIA shale report assessment said the shale formations in the Sichuan shale are, on average, around 11,000 ft. deep. Sichuan basins technically recoverable resources which are 17. 716 trillion of cubic meters. (Xin-gang, 2015). Some available data on this basin are are summarized in Table1.]

Figure 20: Table 1 :

Country	Basin	Risked Gas in place TCF
Malaysia	Sarawak & Sabah	8.8
	Sichuan	
China	Tarim	$1,\!115$
	Ordos	
	Cambay	146
India	Godavari Cauvery	381 30
	Damodar	27
Pakistan	Indus, Balochistan & Pasheen	105
Thailand	Khorat	22
Indonesia	Sumatra Bintumi	68 114

236 .1 Acknowledgment

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