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## **Reservoir complexity and recovery potential - Literature survey**

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## Summary

This report discusses screening techniques for evaluating the reservoir potential for IOR opportunities. The aim of screening techniques may be formulated as “to perform fast qualitative and/or rough quantitative evaluations of problems and opportunities for more detailed studies”. It is necessary to mention that the accuracy of any method tends to increase along with its complexity and data requirements. Screening techniques do not require detailed information about the reservoir in question; however, they aim to give a quick direction (or road map) for more detailed reservoir simulation study.

A number of screening techniques were developed and published to date. This report aims to classify and describe the most typical and interesting approaches rather than to cover all existing publications.

The first section discusses the reservoir complexity index (RCI) which provides a measure to express reservoir features (including hard-to-formulate criteria) and properties from the standpoint of their influence on reservoir performance and ultimate recovery. This approach provides a convenient way to benchmark different reservoirs and identify IOR opportunities. Several publications dedicated to RCI were selected to demonstrate the theory and its practical applications.

The second section discusses miscellaneous approaches for IOR screening. A rough classification of the methods is given in the beginning. The classification is followed by description of five methodologies. These methodologies (which are believed to be most typical and interesting) are quite different, however they give a good understanding of how miscellaneous tools (expert, statistical and simulation) may be combined within a consistent workflow. The last subsection considers issues related to reservoir databases, which are important for the application of RCI and other statistical methods.

The last section, “Discussion”, aims to formulate preliminary conclusions and ways-forward which are mostly related to the development of a methodology that accounts for particularities of Norwegian fields.

# 1 Reservoir complexity index and recovery potential

## 1.1 What is reservoir complexity?

In our opinion, the term “reservoir complexity” has to do with the following interrelated points:

1. Level of sophistication of production facilities; for instance, subsea production is more complex than production from platform.
2. Predictability of the reservoir behavior (to what extent may one rely upon a model to predict the reservoir behavior?); for instance, behavior of fractured reservoirs tends to be less predictable than non-fractured one.
3. Efforts required reaching the planned recovery.
4. Degree of uncertainty and risk associated with production planning.<sup>[HD1]</sup>
5. Amount of information required to represent essential features and fluid flow in a given reservoir. The more complex the reservoir, the more information is needed to characterize it. For instance, permeability of a perfectly homogeneous reservoir may be expressed via a single number, whereas permeability of a heterogeneous reservoir needs to be expressed via a distribution.
6. Performance sensitivity to reservoir description and upscaling errors;
7. Efforts are to be invested to extract oil from the reservoir in a profitable and time/cost efficient manner.

The last point aims to summarize the previous ones from operator’s point of view. As it can be easily seen, complexity criteria can hardly be expressed<sup>[HD2]</sup> by numbers with a physical meaning. . However, it’s obvious that some fields are more complex than others. Therefore “the complexity” needs a measure, by means of which it could be expressed. On the other hand, it is also evident that reservoir complexity has to do with a number of parameters of reservoir itself (quality, compartmentalization, heterogeneity, oil viscosity, oil column thickness etc.), its location (offshore/onshore) and economic environment. Reservoir Complexity Index (RCI), discussed in the next section, provides the methodology for it.

## 1.2 Published applications on reservoir complexity index

The scoring approach for screening of the reservoir complexity seems to originate from the work by *Dromgoole & Speers (1997)*.<sup>[HD3]</sup> However, some similar scoring methodologies may be found in earlier works; for instance, a similar methodology for IOR screening may be found in *Surguchev et al. (1992)*. Dromgoole and Speers attempted to develop a methodology for a reliable estimation of recoverable reserves that was capable to account for some hard-to-formulate criteria<sup>[HD4]</sup> such as reservoir quality, architecture and structural complexity.

The authors proposed to assess the effect of the whole geological reservoir complexity on field reserve estimates by dividing potential reservoir complexities into nine categories (Table 1). Each category is given a score in the scale from 1 to 5 based on the following rating system:

- Structural complexity:
  1. Very low degree of complexity
  2. Low degree of complexity
  3. Medium degree of complexity
  4. High degree of complexity
  5. Very high degree of complexity

- Reservoir quality and architecture:
  1. Enhances recovery
  2. May help recovery
  3. No effect on recovery
  4. Detrimental to recovery
  5. Very detrimental recovery

All scores are finally added to calculate the overall reservoir complexity.

Table 1.

|                       |                                    |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| Structural complexity | Reservoir quality and architecture |
| Overburden complexity | Reservoir layering                 |
| Fault complexity      | Reservoir continuity               |
|                       | Permeability channels              |
|                       | Barrier continuity                 |
|                       | Fault transmissibility             |
|                       | Fractures                          |
|                       | Diagenesis                         |

**Norwegian Petroleum Directorate (NPD)** proposed the use of Reservoir Complexity Index (RCI) to express the complexity of the reservoir and indicate how challenging it may be to achieve a higher recovery factor [HD5]. A number of parameters was selected to describe the reservoir conditions, summarized in the table below:

Table 2. Scoring scale used by NPD (Bygdevoll (2010))

| Complexity attribute             | Description  | Complexity score                                   |            |  |        |   |
|----------------------------------|--|--|------------|--|--------|---|
|                                  |  | Low Complexity<br>1                                | 2          | 3  | 4      | High complexity<br>5  |
| Average permeability             | Describes the pore volume weighted average permeability in the main flow direction of the defined reservoir. mD                        | >10.000  | 1000-10000 | 100-1000                                     | 10-100 | <10   |
| permeability contrast            | Describes the permeability contrast between geological layers/facies types, and is calculated as $\log_{10} [K_{max}/K_{min}]$         | >1   | 1-2        | 2-3  | 3-4    | >4  |
| Structural complexity            | Describes how fluid flow between wells is affected by fault density, fault throw, fault transmissibility, ...                          | The fault properties does not restrict fluid flow. |            |  |        | The fault properties restrict fluid flow significantly. (High density of faults with throw larger than reservoir thickness and/or 'zero' transmissibility). |
| Lateral stratigraphic continuity | Describes the stratigraphic continuity of the flow units in the main flow direction within the defined reservoir                       | High degree of continuity                          |            |  |        | Highly discontinuous. Difficult to predict/describe injector/producer connecting flow units.  |
| STOOIP density                   | Describes the areal concentration of STOOIP and is defined as $STOOIP/area$ (mill. Sm <sup>3</sup> /km <sup>2</sup> )                  | >4.5   | 2-4.5      | 1-2  | 0.5-1  | <0.5  |
| Coning tendency                  | Describes the coning problems associated with a gas cap or aquifer support. Large complexity only in cases where the oil band is thin. | No coning tendency.                                |            | Some coning problems from gas cap or aquifer |        | Thein oil zone and production severely restricted by gas or water coning problems   |

The complexity scores for selected Norwegian fields were calculated according to this table and plotted on x-axis, whereas the corresponding recovery factors were included on the y-axis in Figure 1. As it can be seen, the points demonstrate satisfactory linear trend between recovery factor and RCI.

Bygdevoll (2010) also analyzed the influence of field size and production facility type to recovery factor which seems to be tangible (Figure 2). [HD6]

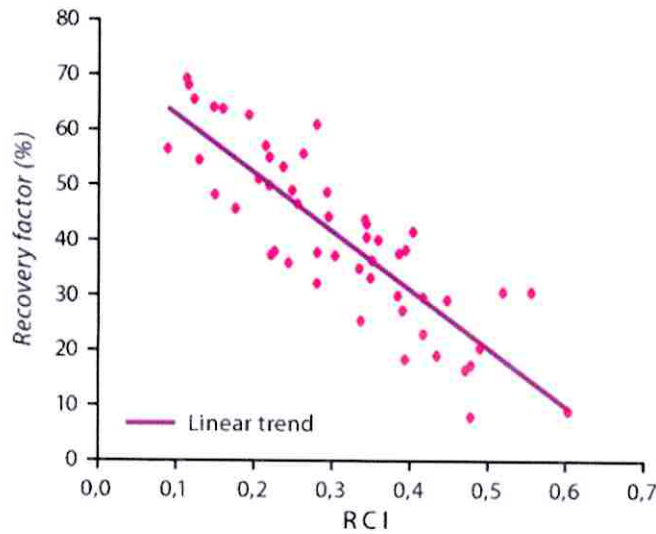


Figure 1. RCI vs. Oil recovery for NCS fields (Bygdevoll (2010))

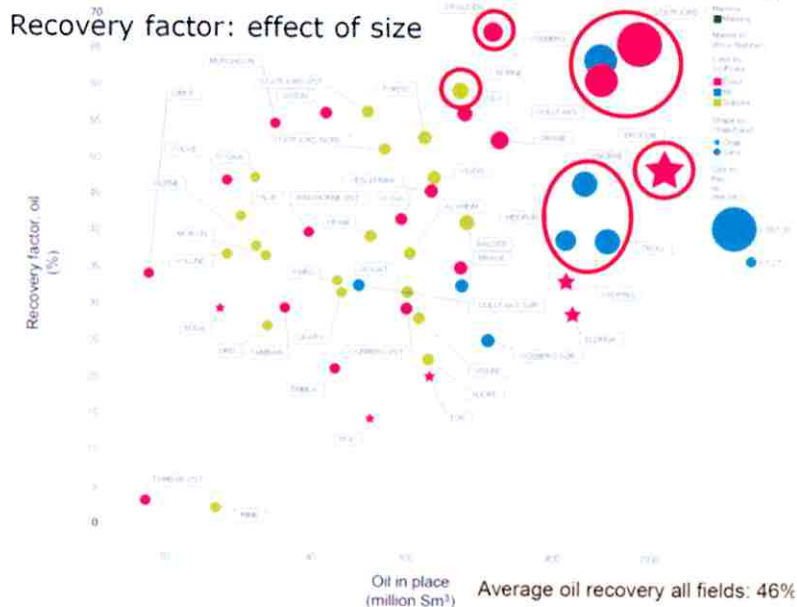


Figure 2. RF vs. OOIP (Bygdevoll (2010))

**Wickens & Kelly (2010)** used a similar approach that relates recovery factor with a complexity index determined via the following four parameters which were considered as the most essential:

- Oil viscosity;
- Vertical reservoir heterogeneity;
- STOIP areal density;
- Structural compartmentalization/faulting.

Each parameter was defined via the scoring scales outlined in Table 3:

Table 3. RCI scoring scales used by Wickens & Kelly (2010)

Table 1 Scoring system

| Parameter  | Range   |                       |                                    |                                    |                   |
|--|---------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------|
|  | 1       | 2                     | 3                                  | 4                                  | 5                 |
| Score  | 1       | 2                     | 3                                  | 4                                  | 5                 |
| Visc. (cp)   | 0 to 1  | 1 to 10               | 10 to 100                          | 100 to 1000                        | >10 <sup>3</sup>  |
| Vert. res. het (kmax kmin)                               | 1 to 10 | 10 to 10 <sup>2</sup> | 10 <sup>2</sup> to 10 <sup>3</sup> | 10 <sup>3</sup> to 10 <sup>4</sup> | > 10 <sup>4</sup> |
| Areal dens. (millions sm <sup>3</sup> /km <sup>2</sup> ) | >4.5    | 4.5 to 2              | 2 to 1                             | 1 to 0.5                           | <0.5              |

Table 2 Structural compartmentalisation/Faulting scoring system

| Score | Examples                  | Comment  |
|-------|---------------------------|--|
| 1     | Harding/Fulmar<br>Forties | Excellent reservoir quality.   |
| 2     | Hutton/Brent/<br>Heather  | Compartmentalization by faulting plays a significant part in reservoir performance.  |
| 3     | Auk/Bray S/<br>Ninian     | Highly faulted complex reservoir architecture with some extensive major faults and many small, discontinuous faults. May have potential for early water breakthrough via faults.   |
| 4     | Mariner/<br>Maureen       | Does not quite merit a score of 5.   |
| 5     | Don/Clair                 | Highly fractured reservoir compartments. Each well may encounter different fluid contacts with different reservoir and fluid properties indicating reservoir compartmentalization. |

[HD7]

After ranking each parameter, the weighted sum was considered as a complex parameter for reservoir complexity. The weights are to be determined by curve fitting to get the best match to data. Wickens & Kelly tested their methodology for UK fields and managed to get a good correlation (Figure 3) between the complexity index and recovery factor.

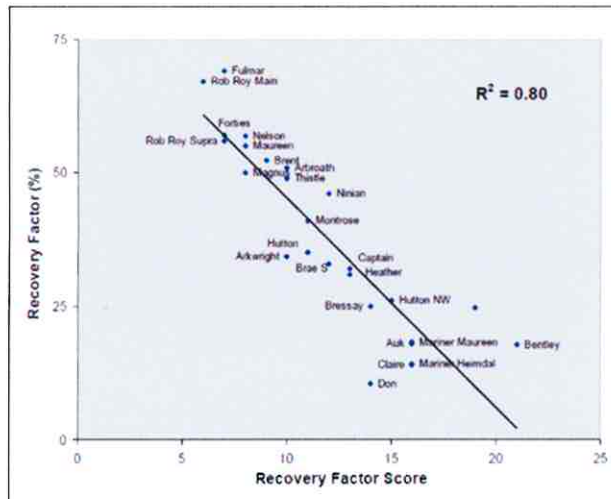


Figure 3. Recovery factor vs. complexity index (Wickens & Kelly (2010))

The authors also analyzed the influence of some scoring parameters (Figure 4); structural complexity and viscosity turned out to be most influential whereas the impact of the areal density was almost negligible.

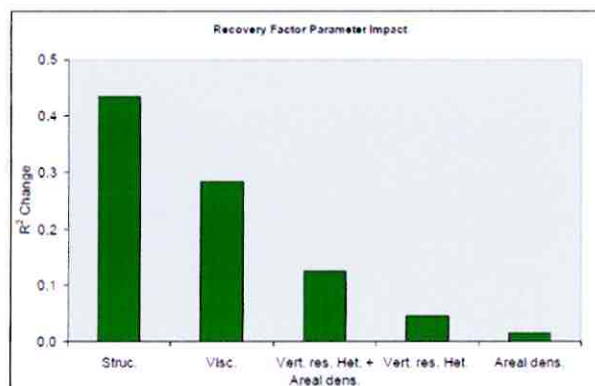


Figure 4. Sensitivity of the correlation to the complexity index components (Wickens & Kelly (2010))

In general, this correlation demonstrated a satisfactory prediction capability, clarity of the basic principles and required input data. The scoring approach is most interesting from the standpoint of dealing with miscellaneous hard-to-formulate parameters, which cannot be assessed directly or expressed via a parameter with a physical meaning, but can be intuitively understood and ranked by an expert.

*Horikx et al. (2013)* developed a methodology to assess target recovery factors of chalk oil fields accounting for the following features (Table 4):

Table 4. Reservoir features used in work by Horikx et al. (2013)

|   |  |
|---|--|
| <b>Lateral Reservoir Quality</b><br>Faulting and micro-fracturing<br>Lateral permeability variation               | <b>Dynamic Aspects</b><br>Moveable oil fraction<br>Wettability<br>Compaction drive potential<br>Gas cap and bubble point<br>Oil mobility |
| <b>Vertical Reservoir Quality</b><br>Net-to-Gross ratio<br>Vertical connectivity<br>Vertical permeability profile | <b>Geography and Economics</b><br>Location of field<br>Effective oil column  |

However, the methodology is not clear and is heavily based on “engineering judgments” whose meanings [HD8][AK9] were not provided. The interesting point is usage of reservoir simulation to capture oil mobility vs. recovery factor relationship (Figure 5).

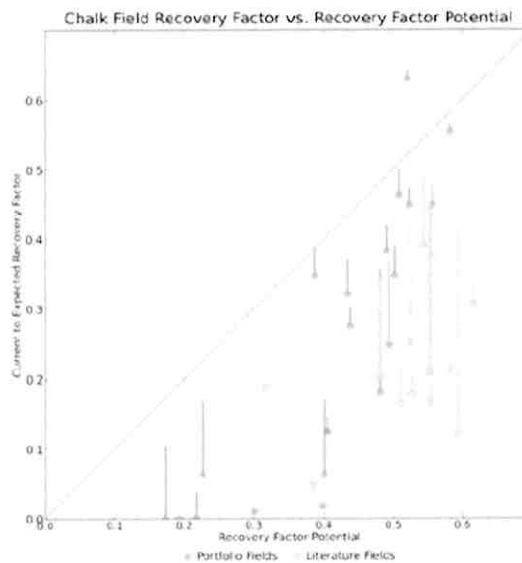


Figure 5. Cross-plot of current, expected and potential recovery factors by *Horikx et al. (2013)*

## 2 Screening procedures for IOR/EOR potential evaluation

### 2.1 General classification of screening methods

In general, all existing approaches for IOR potential screening may be divided roughly into the following three categories:

- 1) Expert methods based on EOR criteria:



- a) “Rules of thumb” techniques for which the most essential reservoir properties (oil viscosity, GOR, etc.) are to be compared with typical values established by practice of EOR field implementations. A number of criteria has been published and a comprehensive review may be found in *Lake et al. (2008)*. A newer example of such criteria may be found in paper by *Dickson et al. (2010)*.
  - b) Scoring methods (e.g., *Surguchev et al. (1992)*).
- 2) Statistical methods use databases to derive required statistical estimates. The following techniques may be used to capture correlations of recovery factor vs. reservoir parameters:
- a) Cluster analysis (*Alvarado et al. (2002)* and *Babushkina et al. (2013)*);
  - b) Neural networks (*Surguchev & Li (2000)* and *Ibatullin et al. (2002)*);
  - c) Bayesian Belief Networks (*Zerat et al. (2011)*)
- 3) Reservoir models:
- a) Analytical methods: decline curves, material balance and analytical solutions (Dykstra-Parsons, Buckley–Leverett) for EOR processes;
  - b) Numerical methods: simplified and mechanistic reservoir models.

As it will be illustrated by examples in the next subsection, all these methods can coexist and complement each other within a single workflow and framework. For instance, proxy-models may be as reservoir models based on parameters derived by means of a statistical analysis of performance of real field. On the other hand, there are statistical proxy-models based on results of series of simulation runs.

## 2.2 Industrial workflows for IOR screening

### 2.2.1 IRIS

The SWORD application (*Surguchev et al., (2011)*) consists of three modules for IOR/EOR screening listed below:

- Applicability screening – EOR criteria;
- Recovery factor estimation – module based on Cluster Analysis (*Babushkina et al. (2013)*) for statistic estimation of recovery factors for given values of porosity, permeability, saturation, pressure, temperature, oil viscosity and type of formation rock.
- Performance prediction – analytical solutions based on Dykstra-Parsons and Buckley-Leverett for:
  - waterflooding;
  - polymer / surfactant flooding;
  - nitrogen / CO<sub>2</sub> / hydrocarbon miscible flooding;
  - cyclic waterflooding;
  - WAG injection;
  - steam flooding.

## 2.2.2 BP

Smalley *et al.* (2009) described the Reservoir Technical Limits (RTL™) approach that is developed by BP. This approach represents an oil recovery factor, RF, in the form of the product:

$$RF = E_{ps} \times E_d \times E_s \times E_c$$

where:

$E_{ps}$  – pore-scale displacement efficiency;

$E_d$  – drainage efficiency that refers to connectedness to a producing well;

$E_s$  – sweep efficiency that refers to movement of oil to producers within the drained volume;

$E_c$  – cut-offs efficiency that refers to loss of oil recovery related to end of field life/access due to the following reasons:

- Depletion of energy;
- Expiration of production facilities lifetime;
- End of license agreement.

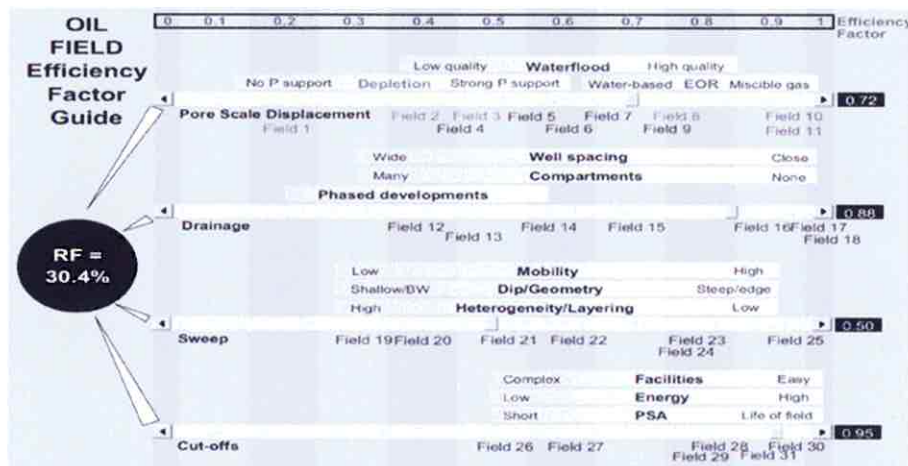


Figure 6. Screen shot of BP's RTL toolkit[HD10] (Smalley *et al.* (2009))

BP's methodology consists of the following steps:

- I. Base definition – estimate current recovery potential;
- II. Identification of opportunities to increase the following RF components:
  - $E_{ps}$ : waterflooding IOR/EOR;
  - $E_d$ : infill drilling, recompletions, sidetracks and extended-reach wells, etc.;
  - $E_s$ : infill drilling, sidetracks, intelligent completions, water/gas shut off;
  - $E_c$ : artificial lift, facilities upgrades, capture of nearby production etc.;
- III. Opportunity description and prioritization related to:
  - a. activity[HD11][AK12] involved;
  - b. expected resource volume added by the activity;
  - c. time scale;
  - d. which efficiency factor is being improved;
  - e. likely cost per incremental barrel;
  - f. probability of success;
  - g. key risks;

- h. technical challenges/barriers;
- i. possible technical solutions and action plan.[HD13][AK14]

These opportunities are divided into the following categories:

- Options – opportunities that are well defined, are economically sound, and can be implemented in the short-term (~1 year);
- Possibilities – medium- (1 – 5 years) and long-term (>5 years) opportunities that can be implemented economically using either existing technology or technology that requires only incremental development;
- Barrier opportunities – barriers exist for these opportunities to be implemented.

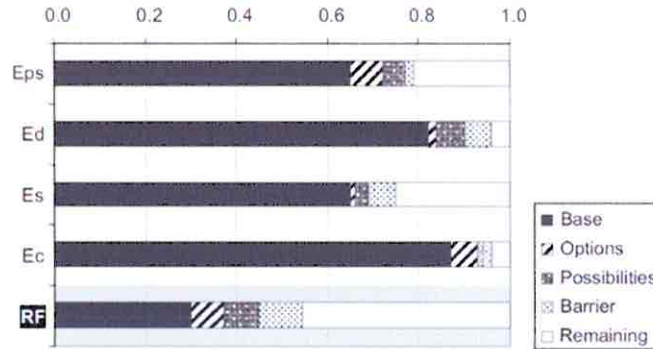


Figure 7. The illustration of different opportunities to increase the efficiency factors[HD15] (Smalley et al. (2009))

IV. Quality control:

- a. Internal consistency check;
- b. External consistency check – involves plotting the recovery factors for the options, possibilities and barrier opportunities against the complexity index [HD16](based on Dromgoole and Spears (1997), but using more sophisticated scoring and weighting methods) [AK17]for a range of analogue fields.

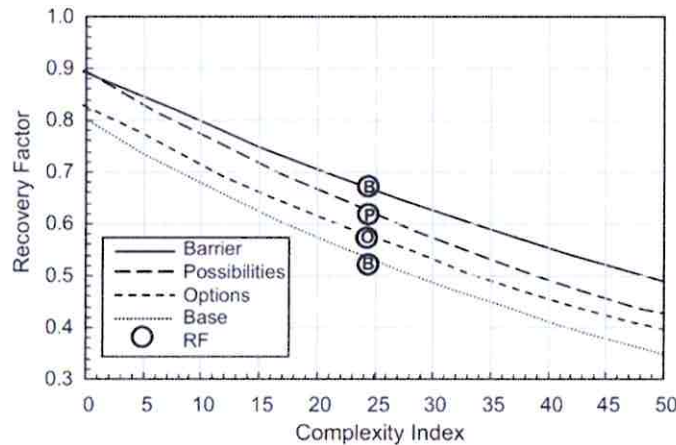


Figure 8. Recovery factors for the Base, Options, Possibilities and Barrier (circles) compared to analogue-calibrated trend lines for fields with similar  $E_{ps}$  and well spacing (Smalley et al. (2009)). [HD18]

V. Data Capture and Follow-up.

2.2.3 ExxonMobil

Dickson et al. (2010) described the Improved Hydrocarbon Recovery (IHR) screening methodology used by ExxonMobil. This methodology is organized as follows:

### I. Screening and prioritization

- I.1. Collect reservoir and fluid data: *“Analog data used in the screening tool when specific reservoir data is not available. The basis for analog generation is the data provided by the C&C Reservoir and IHS commercial databases. For most properties, analog values are obtained from proven and probable (PP) weighted averages based on a user-defined region generation, basin, sub-basin, reservoir, zone, period, or epoch. Reservoir temperature and pressure are determined from temperature and pressure vs. depth curves for analog fields. Average permeability is estimated from the PP from weighted average in conjunction with minimum and maximum average permeability information (usually reported by IHS)”*<sup>[HD19]</sup> (Dickson et al. (2010))
- I.2. Pass/fail test by comparing the following properties with screening criteria of EOR methods:
  - a. Reservoir pressure;
  - b. Formation salinity;
  - c. Reservoir depth;
  - d. API gravity;
  - e. Oil saturation;
  - f. Reservoir temperature;
  - g. In-situ viscosity;
  - h. Payzone thickness;
  - i. Average permeability;
  - j. Reservoir dip.

The screening criteria and properties are plotted and compared against each other. A process passes the screening test when its horizontal bar (Figure 9) crosses the vertical black line denoting the viscosity of the reservoir in question. <sup>[HD20]</sup>

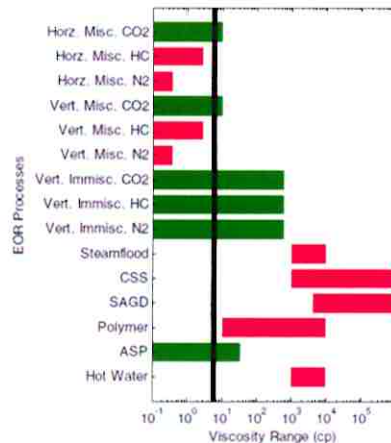


Figure 9. Illustration of the pass/fail test<sup>[HD21]</sup> (Dickson et al. (2010))

- I.3. Assign<sup>[HD22]</sup><sup>[AK23]</sup> a score according to pass/fail test result.
- I.4. Weight score according to property importance:

TABLE 1: IMPORTANT RESERVOIR PROPERTIES (× DENOTES SHOW-STOPPER CRITERIA; ↑ DENOTES INCREASED WEIGHTING)

| EOR Process                         | $K_h$ | $S_o$ | $ll$ | Depth | Pressure | Thick. | Salinity | Temp. |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|----------|--------|----------|-------|
| Gas Injection (miscible/immiscible) | -     | -     | ↑    | -     | ↑/×      | -      | -        | -     |
| Chemical                            | ↑     | -     | -    | -     | -        | -      | ↑        | ↑/×   |
| Thermal (steam-related)             | -     | ↑     | ×    | ↑/×   | ×        | ↑      | -        | -     |
| Hot water                           | -     | ↑     | ×    | ↑/×   | -        | ↑      | -        | ↑/×   |

- I.5. Compare the final normalized scores for all EOR options and rank them as follows<sup>1</sup>:
- Recommended, if the score  $> 0.8$ ;
  - Marginally recommended, if the score is greater than 0.6 and less than 0.8;
  - Not recommended, if the score  $< 0.6$ .<sup>[HD24]</sup>

**II. Sector modeling and type curve generation.** Generic sector models are used to generate type curves for a given reservoir description and properties (depositional environment, vertical/horizontal continuity, permeability distribution, etc.).

**III. Flowstream generation.** The generated type curves may be used in a proxy simulator for other relevant fields.

## 2.2.4 Schlumberger

*Graf et al. (2011)* performed candidate screening for waterflooding implementation in over 100 Nigerian reservoirs for additional recovery potential and possible further evaluation. The developed workflow consisted of four steps:

1. Dataset survey to identify key parameters for the classification of reservoir types;
2. Back population of missing data. Self-organizing maps (SOM) models are used as a regression tool to compute missing values on the basis of available values of a certain measurement and on the basis of the identified correlations among the parameters.
3. Construction of stochastic proxy models (also known as surrogate reservoir models) to assess incremental oil recovery due to waterflooding. A simple 2D slanted cross-sectional numerical model was used.
4. The stochastic output of the proxy models is used as states for Belief Bayesian Network in order to calculate joint probabilities. On the basis of the resulting probabilities, all reservoirs are ranked for the potential of success of waterflooding implementation.

## 2.2.5 C&C reservoirs

C&C reservoirs is a US-based consultancy which gathers and provides knowledge base for the upstream industry (mentioned above in 2.2.3). *Lu et al. (2011)* proposed the following methodology:

- 1) **Selection of candidate analogs.** Identify field analogues according to the following attributes<sup>2</sup>:
  - a) Onshore or offshore development. The production performance of offshore fields usually presents high annual recovery rates with a short field life (<30 years). By contrast, typical onshore fields generally have low annual recovery rates and longer field life (50-100 years);
  - b) STOIP or areal density of STOIP. A field with large STOIP will generally experience longer developing stage characterized by a low to moderate annual recovery rate. Small fields, on the contrary, usually display a production performance pattern similar to that of offshore fields;
  - c) Depositional system/environment and sandbody/facies types. For instance, a carbonate reef reservoir will present a markedly different production performance and ultimate recovery factor than a fluvial sandstone reservoir;

<sup>1</sup> Cut-off values are based on comparison between prioritized and actual implemented EOR projects.

<sup>2</sup> The authors do not reveal any details, but they refer to *Wickens & Kelly (2010)*.

- d) Viscosity or mobility ratio;
  - e) Permeability and reservoir heterogeneity;
  - f) Natural drive mechanism and secondary recovery/EOR applications;
  - g) Other relevant attributes: rock wettability, structural/stratigraphic compartments, fault attributes and reservoir depth.
- 2) **Candidate analogs ranking, statistic and calculations.** Selected analog reservoirs are used to derive production stage durations (Figure 10). Based on the ranking results from low to high recovery factor, all candidate analogs can be divided into three categories (low, medium and high case). Then statistical analyses and simulations are run for the three cases separately.

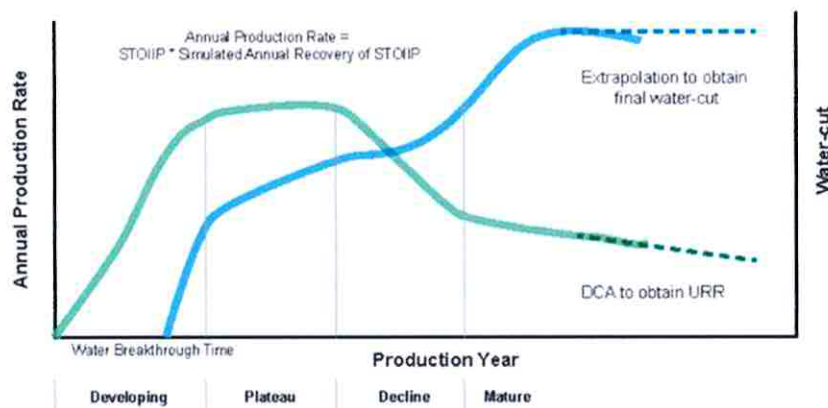


Figure 10. Schematic illustration of developing stages (Lu et al. ((2011)))

- 3) **Full field performance forecast.** Decline curve analysis, using STOIIP as the basic input.

## 2.3 Reservoir databases

To date there is a number of industrial databases which, with different levels of detail and completeness, summarize reservoir properties and production data. Data inconsistency and incompleteness are the main drawbacks of these databases that prevent them from being used for practical purposes. For example, in the above-mentioned paper by Graf et al. (2011), the following statistics were reported for a database of 12 parameters for 100 reservoirs (Figure 11):

- Database overall completeness – 40%;
- Initial reservoir pressure – 87%;
- Oil viscosity – 18,5%;
- Permeability – 5%;
- Dataset consistency for all reservoirs – 6%;

The organizations involved in data gathering may be divided into three groups:

- Industry analysts (OGJ, IHS, C&C Reservoir, etc.);
- Governmental agencies;
- Operators' in-house.

Only the second category is available in public access. A brief overview of existing databases, mostly public ones, is given in Table 5.

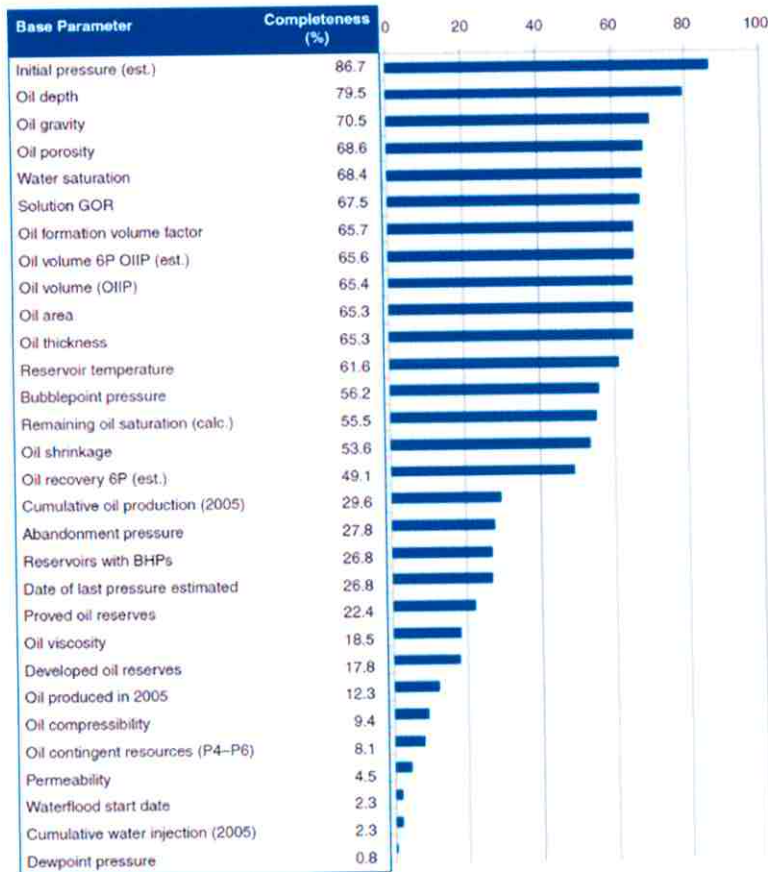


Figure 11. Completeness of database parameters used by Graf et al. (2011)

Table 5. Short description of existing databases

| Country | Database  | Content comments  |
|---------|---|---|
| USA     | TORIS:<br>Original dataset (1984), <a href="#">Updated (1995) Ohio dataset</a> , <a href="#">Updated (2000) Kentucky dataset</a> , <a href="#">Updated (2005) dataset for the Appalachian Region</a> , <a href="#">Updated (2010) Wyoming dataset</a> | Tertiary Oil Recovery Information System, gathered by Department of Energy, contains a number (ca. 60) of reservoir parameters and development details over several thousands US reservoirs |
| UK      | <a href="#">Oil and gas: field data</a>   | Field and well oil, water, gas production profiles  |
| Denmark | <a href="#">Danish Energy Agency</a>  | Production profiles   |
| Int.    | IHS   | Miscellaneous databases   |
| Int.    | EOR OGJ   | Information on basic reservoir properties (porosity, permeability, gravity, viscosity) for EOR deployment cases   |
| Int.    | <a href="#">C&amp;C reservoirs</a>  | Miscellaneous databases   |
| Norway  | <a href="#">Diskos</a>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Seismic and navigational data</li> <li>• Well data</li> <li>• Production data</li> </ul>   |
| Norway  | <a href="#">NPD Fact Pages</a>  | Production profiles, recoverable reserves, in-place resources   |

### 3 Discussion

#### 3.1 Distinctive features of NCS fields relevant for IOR screening

NCS has the following distinctive features, which are of importance for IOR deployment and, hence, IOR screening point of view:

- Reservoirs with light oil, natural gas availability, and widespread waterflooding;
- All NCS EOR applications, with the exception of gas methods, were hitherto limited to platform fields and fields with combined subsea/surface facilities.
- Applications of EOR techniques, apart from gas methods, are hindered due to transportation and environmental restrictions.
- Offshore fields only. Infrastructure has a strong influence, especially, on subsea fields. As of 2013 platform, combined and subsea fields yielded ~47.8%, ~29.5% and 22.7% of oil production, respectively, with subsea wells contributing [HD25][AK26] more than half of oil production. The subsea/platform ratio is likely to continue increasing (Figure 12).

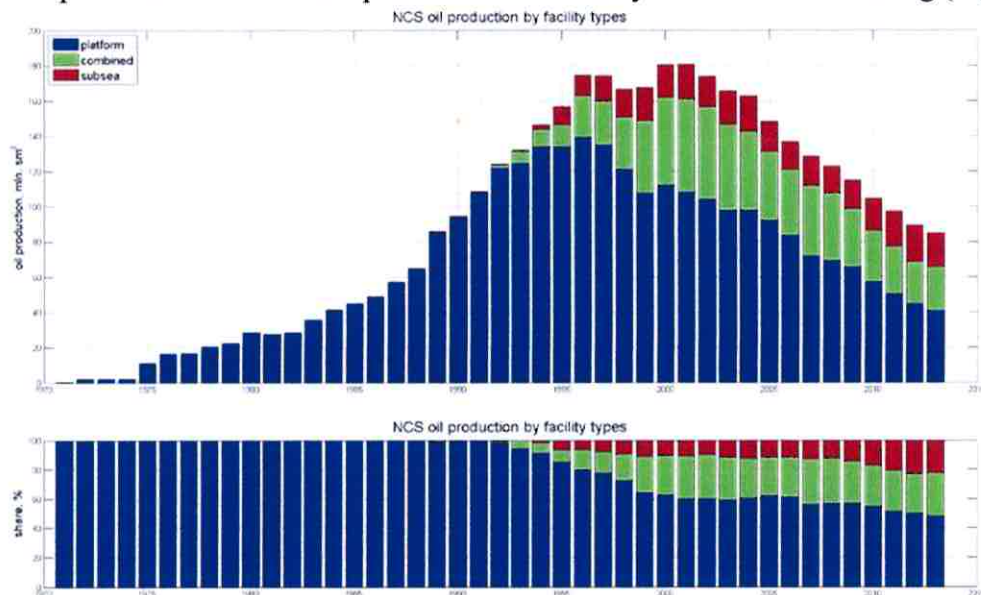


Figure 12. NCS production profile with shown shares of platform, combined and subsea fields[HD27] (based on NPD data)[AK28]

- Subsea facilities impose a number of constraints related to well flow and well maintenance (well interventions are more expensive and less frequent than for platform wells) and flow assurance. Any technique which is capable to mitigate the constraints (for instance, subsea boosting and processing) may be considered as an IOR tool. Therefore, it makes sense to extend the project's scope to consider "subsea-specific" IOR opportunities.

#### 3.2 Relevant parameters

The following parameters are the most frequent used on IOR screening.

1. Average permeability;
2. Heterogeneity (permeability contrast; permeability variation; Dykstra-Parsons and Lorenz coefficient);



3. Fractures;
4. Structural complexity;
5. Lateral stratigraphic continuity;
6. Vertical communication;
7. Reservoir dip;
8. Original Oil In Place;
9. STOOIP density;
10. Oil viscosity;
11. Coning tendency;
12. Aquifer support;
13. Compaction;
14. Reservoir pressure;
15. Temperature;
16. Flow assurance;
17. Water depth;
18. Production facilities type: platform, combined, subsea.

### 3.3 Ways-forward to develop the scoring approach for NCS

1. Introduce a parameter to reflect constraints imposed by the type of production facilities<sup>3</sup>.
2. Consider STOIP as a scoring parameter;
3. The scoring approach can be extended by means of Fuzzy Logic membership functions (this may make the scoring procedure smoother and more flexible, particularly to assess hard-to formulate parameters);
4. Add a  $\frac{[\text{STOIP}]}{[\text{number of wells}]}$  parameter (it is likely to correlate with RF);
5. These suggestions can be tested and validated for the limited (20-30) sample of UK fields from *Wickens & Kelly (2010)*. It is not likely to take a lot of time, but would be of great use as we have at our disposal an excellent description for UK fields (*Gluyas & Hichens, (2003)*) which are adjacent to NCS and, hence, are analogs to Norwegian fields.

### 3.4 Possible way forward to develop / improve statistical tools for IOR/EOR screening

1. Back population of data (Graf et al., 2011) is an interesting idea that could add a significant value to any screening procedure.
2. Build up in-house synthetic database of the field cases based on the numerical simulation to:
  - duly test a methodology on a “clean” database; and
  - analyze the influence of possible data gaps.

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<sup>3</sup> For instance, it may be the following scale: 0 – onshore field, 1 – platform, 2 – combined subsea/platform, 3 – all-subsea;

## Abbreviations

NCS – Norwegian Continental Shelf  
(O)RF – (oil) recovery factor  
STOIIP – stock-tank oil initially in place oil initial in place  
IOR – improved oil recovery  
EOR – enhanced oil recovery  
RCI – reservoir complexity index

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