

An Integrated Approach for 3D Facies Modeling of Kangan and Dalan Reservoirs, South Pars Gas Field, Persian Gulf

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Abstract

This study focuses on the facies modeling and reservoir characterization of the Permian-Triassic age Dalan and Kangan formations, defined as the main reservoirs in the Persian Gulf's South Pars Gas Field. Based on the main characteristics of petrographical observations, 12 facies were identified and classified into four facies associations representing tidal flat (LFAs 1), lagoon (LFAs 2), shoal (LFAs 3), and open marine (LFAs 4) conditions on a carbonate ramp. A neural network approach (self-organizing maps) was employed to predict lithofacies and lithofacies associations (LFAs) in uncored wells. The method demonstrated a high level of accuracy, achieving an 87.5% success rate in predicting lithofacies using GR, DT, NPHI, RHOB, and PEF logs. The predicted LFAs were compared with the core-derived facies and rock types to generate a 2D facies model within the sequence stratigraphy framework for geologic modeling and subsequent reservoir simulation. Finally, geostatistical techniques were employed to prepare a 3D facies distribution and depositional model for the entire field. The stochastic simulation method was applied here to simulate and generate the 3D model of four major LFAs involved in the modeling. Facies modeling of the formations indicates a gentle shallowing from zone K4 to zone K3. The connectivity of LFAs 3 is well observed in zone K4, whereas in zone K3 the connectivity of LFAs 2 is evident. Zone K2 is associated with dominant LFAs 3 and minor LFAs 4. The zone K1 is characterized by the dominance of LFAs 1.

Keywords: Lithofacies, Log facies, Reservoir simulation, Carbonate reservoir, South Pars Gas Field, Persian Gulf.

Introduction

Opening of the NW-SE trending Neo Tethys Ocean followed by regional movement of the Qatar Arch resulted in the development of a wide carbonate ramp in the north margin of the Arabian Plate, in which deposition of shallow marine carbonates of Kangan and Dalan formations took place during Permian to the Triassic period in Iran (or Khuff Formation in the Arabian plate) (Ghazban, 2007; Kalhor et al., 2024). These formations are the main reservoirs of the giant South Pars Gas Field (SPGF) (Fig.1).

 The carbonate facies of the Kangan and upper Dalan formations in the studied area are classified into 4 reservoir units, known as K1, K2, K3 and K4 (from top to base) (e.g., Alsharhan, 1993; Sharland et al., 2001; Insalaco et al, 2006; Ehrenberg et al, 2007; Rahimpour-Bonab et al, 2009, Sfidari et al, 2012; Shahkaram et al, 2022; Moradi et al. 2024). The total

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thickness of the formations exceeds 450 m in the NE of the SPGF, decreasing to 380 m southward. The K4 reservoir unit, the deepest zone with ~160m thickness, is composed of limestone and dolostone and is characterized by high porosity values (up to 15%), and the highest hydrocarbon productivity (Rahimpour-Bonab et al, 2009). The K3 reservoir unit, with a gross thickness of 120 m, is dominated by dolostones with interlayers of anhydrite. Its lower part is recognizable by thick anhydrite and anhydritic carbonate (up to 50 m) which acts as a hydrocarbon barrier and separates this unit from the K4 (Shahkaram et al. 2022). This barrier interval is equivalent to the dense Upper Anhydrite unit (UA) in the North Field (Esrafili-Dezaji & Rahimpour-bonab, 2009). The K2 reservoir unit consists of \sim 42m productive limestone with a wide range of porosity and permeability values. The base of this unit is defined by a thick thrombolytic facies, which serves as a marker for the Permian-Triassic boundary in the area. This boundary is regarded as an important unconformity representing a significant time missing (Fakhar et al. 2022). The K1 reservoir unit is made up of \sim 100m dolostone with some anhydrite and carbonate intervals at its base. This unit is overlain by the Dashtak Formation (the cap rack of the field).

 From a reservoir quality point of view, the K4 and K2 units have good reservoir quality, while the other two are less important. Reservoir quality and the thickness of the formations decrease from NW to SE (Fig. 2). Despite the numerous studies on the Kangan and Dalan formations in the area, their original geologic framework model, lithofacies distribution and internal facies/facies association geometry are not understood yet.

This study focuses on these aspects and their application in reservoir modeling of the SPGF. The primary goals involve reservoir modeling of the formations and mapping the distribution of facies associations across the entire field. Due to the limitation of the available cores for the facies/facies association analysis, an integrated (petrography and geostatistical) approach, using a Self Organizing Map (SOM) neural network is planned to construct an improved reservoir model of the studied succession. The facies and facies associations of the formations have been identified based on the cores from three cored wells. The neural network extends the results obtained from core descriptions to wells with wireline log data. Geo-statistical techniques accomplish modeling of facies and facies associations. Distribution of facies and facies associations are shown throughout the field using distinct codes for each (Qi et al 2007, Iloghalu, E., 2003; Koehrer et al 2010; Lopez et al., 2024).

Figure 1. Location map of the SPGS in the Persian Gulf (right) and its general stratigraphy (left)

Figure 2. Isopach map of the studied formations in the South Pars Gas Field

Material and Methods

This study focuses exclusively on the geological facies modeling (facies defined from cores, cuttings, and logs) of the studied formations to address the modeling and simulation of the best reservoir interval(s). The research incorporates cores from three key wells containing standard thin sections and core-measured porosity and permeability values. Wireline logs, reservoir tops, and the UGC map of the reservoir horizons were available for this study. Petrographic analysis of 1800 thin sections from a 1000 m core was a base of facies and facies association determination.

 In the cored wells, the facies were determined based on texture, size, type of the allochems (ooids, peloids, shell fragments, etc.), matrix and cement types, and diagnostic sedimentary features. Substantial diagenetic features and their effects on porosity evolution are also considered. Compared with the standard microfacies (Flugel, 2010), the facies with similar characteristics are grouped as facies associations (FAs) and linked to specific depositional environments (c.f. Wilson, 1975; Flugel, 2010). These facies were used as a base for predicting lithofacies (logfacies of Serra, 1986) in the uncored wells through the Neural Network approach (Sfidari et al., 2012; Qi et al., 2007). The predicted lithofacies were cross-validated with the core-determined facies using the Neural Network approach and then employed for facies modeling through the Geostatistical method (Fig. 3).

 In the uncored wells, a suite of well logs - gamma ray (GR), acoustic transmit-time (DT), neutron (NPHI), density (RHOB), and photoelectric log (PEF) - were selected for logfacies analysis. Therefore, the facies in the uncored wells were predicted based on their characteristics in these logs, while correlating with facies defined from the cores. The predicted lithofacies with similar characters were also grouped in lithofacies associations (LFAs). During the correlation of predicted lithofacies and LFAs with the core-defined facies and FAs, depth matching was performed to ensure accurate alignment of well log data with the corresponding fine-scale core data.

Facies analysis, Litho-facies Prediction, and Depositional Model

A combination of core description and petrographic studies identified 12 facies, with their major

characteristics shown in Table 1. Results from all previous studies on the facies analysis of these formations (e.g., Insalaco et al., 2006; Ehremberg, 2007; Rahimpour-Bonab et al., 2009; Esrafili-Dizaji & Rahimpour-Bonab, 2009; Rahimpour-Bonab et al., 2010; Tavakoli et al., 2011; Tavakoli & Rahimpour-Bonab, 2012; Moradi et al., 2024) were also considered to achieve a more comprehensive and practical classification of the facies.

Facies number	Facies name	Depositional environment	Lithology	Texture	Allochem	Energy level	SMF Equal
$CF-1$	Anhydritic mudstone	Supra tidal	Anhydrite	Mudstone	No Allochem	Low	RMF 25
$CF-2$	Stromatolite Boundstone	Intertidal	carbonate	Boundstone	Microbial Organism	Low	RMF 20
$CF-3$	Pelloidal Grainstone	Intertidal lagoon	carbonate	Grainstone	Pelloid, Ooid	Medium	RMF 20
$CF-4$	Muddy Anhydrite	Lagoon	Carbonate, Anhydrite	Wackstone, Packstone	Gastropode, Pelloid	Low	RMF 22
$CF-5$	Bioclast Wackeston To Packstone	Lagoon	Carbonate/ Dolomite	Wackstone, Mudstone	Green Algae, Benthic Foraminifer	Low	RMF 22
$CF-6$	Fossiliferous Lime Mudstone	Lagoon	Carbonate/ Dolomite	Mudstone	Milliolid, Gastropode	Low	RMF18
$CF-7$	Ooid Grainstone	Shoal	Carbonate/ Dolomite	Grainstone	Ooid, Bioclast	Medium	RMF15
$CF-8$	Bioclast Grainstone	Shoal, Lee ward		Grainstone	Bioclast, Pelloid	High	RMF17
$CF-9$	Bioclast Grainstone	Shoal, Sea ward	carbonate	Grainstone	Bioclast, Pelloid	High	RMF 12
$CF-10$	Intraclast Grainstone	Shoal	Limestone	Grainstone	Ooid, Intraclast	High	RMF15
$CF-11$	Dolostone	Shoal	Dolomite	Grainstone	Bioclast Pelloid Intraclast	High	RMF13
CF ₁₂	Bioclast Wackstone	Open Marine	carbonate	Wackstone	Brachiopode, Bioclast	Medium	

Table 1. Major facies of the studied formations, their sedimentological composition, and depositional environment

Figure 3. Flowchart illustrating the major steps used in modeling and simulation of the geological facie

 Facies analysis in the uncored wells was carried out by lithofacies prediction from wireline logs. Application of computational (artificial) intelligence and pattern recognition to predict lithofacies from wireline logs is well-documented in numerous publications (e.g., Derek et al., 1990; Wong et al., 1995; Saggaf & Nebrija, 2003; Iloghalu, 2003; Qi et al., 2006; Dubois et al., 2007; Al-Anazi & Gates, 2010; Dashti et al., 2016; Maahs et al., 2024; Norsahminan et al., 2024). Transforming lithofacies from logfacies or predicting from wireline logs is a key element in field-scale studies (Qi et al., 2006; Maahs et al., 2024; Norsahminan et al., 2024). The transformation is very challenging due to the non-linear relationship between the fine-scale described lithofacies and the coarse-scale wireline log data. A crucial aspect of this approach is that the wireline logs are used as input data, with each lithofacies serving as a separate target input into the ANN.

 The electrofacies/logfacies analysis of the formations in the studied area is well documented in Sfidari et al., 2012a, 2012b. The initial results of extracted lithofacies from the determined logfacies were unreliable due to the discrepancies in calibration from logfacies to lithofacies in mud support intervals. To address this, a successful single-layer neural network (NN) with a backpropagation algorithm was used to predict lithofacies classes from normalized digital well logs. This approach (model) was trained, validated, and tested in the three key wells by correlating the predicted lithofacies with facies determined from the cores (Fig. 4).

Figure 4. Prediction of litho-facies associations by the Neural Network model in two key wells of the SPGF

 The model, fine-tuned with parameters from crass validation and testing (network size and damping parameter), was subsequently used for lithofacies prediction in the uncored wells. Similarly, the model was applied to predict the lithofacies associations (LFAs) in the uncored wells of the field. Results displayed a good performance and a reliable prediction of the Neural Network classification (Table 2).

 The depositional environments of the facies were determined based on their sedimentological characteristics (Table 1), their vertical and lateral extents, their comparison to the standard microfacies (Flugel, 2010), and those reported from equivalent formations in the area (e.g., Al-Aswad, 1997; Angiolini et al., 2003; Alsharhan & Kendall, 2003; Khalifa, 2005; Alsharhan, 2006). Based on their main characteristics, the facies are classified into four facies associations - tidal flat, lagoon, shoal, and open marine - on a carbonate ramp (Fig. 4). Depositional environments of the formations in the uncored wells were discussed through correlation of the predicted lithofacies and LFAs with the facies associations defined on the cores (table 3). The lateral distribution of facies associations and their counterparts (LFAs) across the field indicates a wide carbonate ramp along the south margin of the Neo Tethys. The absence/scarcity of reef deposits and the low diversity of facies types confirm this indication (Ahr, 1973; Burchette & Wright, 1992; Avrell et al., 1998). Similar conditions have been reported for equivalent deposits (Khuff Formation) in neighboring areas (Al-Aswad, 1997; Alsharhan, 2006).

 The Lime mudstones with anhydrite patches (facies 1) and stromatolite boundstones with wackestone to packstones (facies 2) characterize the lower sabkha to high energy parts of the lower tidal flat. Restricted and harsh conditions in the tidal flat most likely led to increased salinity and sporadic development of evaporites (facies 1).

Confusion matrix		predicted litho-facies					Absolute
			$\mathbf{2}$	3	4	Grand Total	accuracy
Actual facies		212	13	45	4	274	77.372
	$\overline{2}$	7	273	31	2	313	87.220
	3	40	29	981	27	1077	91.086
	4	11		15	109	136	80.147
	Grand Total	270	316	1072	142	1800	
	Proportion percent $(\%)$	98.540	100.958	99.535	104.411		Absolute accuracy
	difference	4	3	5	6	18	87.500

Table 2. The prediction effectiveness of the Neural Network classification model for Kangan and Dalan formations of the SPGF, SW Iran (Neural network size: 20; damping parameter: 0.01; iteration number: 500)

 Fenestral fabrics and keystone vugs remark the mudstone/wackestones of the middle and lower intertidal zone. Facies 3, 4, 5, and 6 characterize restricted sub-environments (lagoons) formed landward of the shoal barriers with low energy, low biodiversity, and temporal high salinity conditions. Water restriction was most likely affected by the efficiency of the shoal complex in time and space. The facies 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 represent barrier shoals, the highenergy parts of the ramp, and are the most significant facies in the studied formations due to their high porosity and permeability. Facies 12 (Bioclast Wackstone) is related to fore shoals or open marine settings of the ramp (below storm wave base), based on their sedimentological and faunal features.

Reservoir Quality

The petrophysical characteristics of the facies and facies associations were determined in the cored wells from core-measured porosity and permeability. Then, the results were extended to predicted lithofacies and LAFs in the uncored wells (Dashti et al., 2016; Sfidari et al., 2018, 2021). By examining the relationships between facies and their reservoir quality, the paleoenvironmental control on the petrophysical properties of the facies and predicted lithofacies was inferred. This assessment uncovered that the most potential pore spaces are observed in grain-dominated facies related to the high-energy shoal setting (Fig. 5).

 In most facies of this setting, porosity and permeability values vary from 0 to 35% and 0 to 500md respectively (Figs. $5 \& 6$). The pore spaces are predominantly inter-particle, with some moldic type. A linear relation between porosity and permeability of these facies indicates the significant role of depositional conditions on reservoir quality. Analysis of porosity distribution in the predicted lithofacies and LFAs in the uncored wells provide comparable results (Fig 6).

Three-Dimensional Modeling

The 3D model of the studied formations was established based on the spatial distribution of their constituent LFAs, the nature of the depositional setting, and the stratigraphic framework (Dashti et al., 2016; Maahs et al., 2024; Norsahminan et al., 2024). A three-dimensional UGC map of top K1 was available for this study.

Figure 5. Porosity-permeability cross-plot of the studied facies associations, indicating the highest reservoir quality in the shoal FA. The poor quality of some facies in this setting is due to the pervasive diagenetic features

Figure 6. Porosity and permeability distribution in the studied LFAs

 The other four structural surfaces (top K2, K3, K4, and Nar anhydrite) were built based on this surface, given no major fault effects (Asadi-Eskandar et al., 2013). The top K1 and top Nar anhydrite were selected as the upper and lower boundaries of the studied succession model, respectively. The five structural surfaces - top K1, K2, K3, K4, and Nar anhydrite were used as the framework for the modeling, resulting in four sub-grids (the main reservoir zones). The horizontal dimensions of the model were 60×68 km in the Y and X directions, respectively. The 3D model comprises 16320 grid cells with lateral dimensions of about 500 \times 500 m. The further subdivision of the model in vertical scale is 300 layers with a 1 m resolution grid (Fig. 7).

 The spatial distribution of the LFAs and the geometry of the depositional model are properly understood by geostatistical analysis of the model (c.f. Dubrule, 1998; Deutsch, 2002; Dashti et al., 2016; Maahs et al., 2024; Norsahminan et al., 2024). The stochastic simulation method, also known as sequential indicator simulation and kriging was applied here to simulate and generate the 3D model of the studied succession. The four major LFAs were involved in the modeling representing tidal flat (LFAs 1), lagoon (LFAs 2), shoal (LFAs 3), and open marine (LFAs 4) environments.

Figure 7. Three-dimensional intersection of the four main sub-grid reservoir zones, as a fundamental stratigraphic framework for subsequent simulating of the litho-facies associations

Figure 8. Cross-section of the lithofacies associations modeled in the studied field

 The sequential indicator simulation is based on the indicator approach (Journel, 1983; Gomez-Hernandez & Srivastava, 1990). This method is one of the most popular approaches, as a pixel-based modeling algorithm, in producing multiple facies realization. This approach attempts to model the facies/lithofacies based on a variogram that represents the size and frequency of the facies. The experimental variograms were first calculated from the facies curve in the wells. After that, the experimental variograms were fitted to the variogram model to get the horizontal and vertical of the facies (Table 4). As a final point, the simulation was performed by the use of simple kriging (Figs. 8-10).

 Facies modeling of the formations indicates a gentle shallowing from zone K4 to zone K3. The connectivity of shoal facies (LFAs 3) is well observed in zone K4, whereas in zone K3 the connectivity of LFAs 2 (lagoon facies) is evident (Figs. 8-10). This trend, indicative of shallowing in depositional settings, is associated with a decrease in reservoir quality from K4 to K3. Zone K2 is characterized by dominant LFAs 3 (shoal) and minor LFAs 4 (open marine) (Figs. 8-10). Compared to zone K3, a gentle deepening in the depositional environment is evident, which is associated with greater connectivity of shoal facies NW ward, hence better reservoir quality.

Table 4. Variogram data of the main facies associations/LFAs of the studied formations. These data were used for 3D facies modeling by indicator simulation

LFAs		Variogram		azimuth	Variogram type
Tidal flat	2500	1800		43	Exponential
Lagoon	2700	1700	1 ⁷	43	Exponential
Shoal	3000	1900	21	43	Exponential
Open marine	2400	1600	13	43	Exponential

Figure 9. Facies model based on indicator simulation with kriging. The block model of the entire field (top) and 3D cut slice in the x and y axis (below). Vertical exaggeration is X5

Figure 10. Facies model based on indicator simulation with kriging. The block model of the field (top) and 3D cut slice in the x and y axis (below). Vertical exaggeration is X15

 Zone K1 is characterized by the dominance of LFAs 1 (tidal flat facies). Compared to zone K2, a gentle shallowing in the depositional environment and a decrease in reservoir quality are observed. Considering the age of the studied zones (Fig. 1), a 2nd-order relative sea-level fall during the development of the zones (from K4 to K1) is understandable from facies modeling of the formations (Figs. 8-10).

Conclusions

The calibration of petrographic and wireline log data with rock types by an Intelligent Neural Network approach establishes a reliable framework for reservoir modeling. This model provides significant information on the depositional setting, diagenesis, and the vertical and lateral distribution of the reservoir facies.

 Twelve facies are identified and classified into four facies associations representing tidal flat (LFAs 1), lagoon (LFAs 2), shoal (LFAs 3), and open marine (LFAs 4) conditions on a carbonate ramp. Indicator simulation with kriging, based on the predicted lithofacies from wireline logs, is applicable for facies modeling and discriminating reservoir zones in the studied formations.

 Substantial core data was required to validate the predicted lithofacies from wireline logs. The neural network method is a great help in correlating log-derived facies with core-based facies.

 The dominance of the LFAs 3 (shoal facies) in the studied formations plays a significant role in their high reservoir quality. So, depositional conditions are the main controls on the reservoir quality of the formations, although diagenetic processes are considerable.

 The neural network and pattern recognition method successfully predicted lithofacies in uncored wells, with absolute accuracy ranging from 77% for LFAs 1 to 91% for LFAs 3, and an average accuracy of 87%.

 Facies modeling based on indicator simulation with kriging can be used for relative sea level change analysis, especially where the core-derived data are limited.

 Facies modeling of the formations indicates a gentle shallowing trend from zone K4 to zone K3. The connectivity of LFAs 3 is well observed in zone K4, whereas in zone K3, LFAs 2 connectivity is evident. Zone K2 is characterized by dominant LFAs 3 and minor LFAs 4, while zone K1 is dominated by LFAs 1.

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