

GEOSTATISTICAL EVALUATION OF WELL LOGS IN RESERVOIR
CHARACTERIZATION IN AZERI-CHIRAG-GUNESHLI FIELD

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**GEOSTATISTICAL EVALUATION OF WELL LOGS IN RESERVOIR
CHARACTERIZATION AND FLOW UNIT DETERMINATION IN AZERI-CHIRAG-
GUNESHLI FIELD**

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ABSTRACT

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The Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli (ACG) field is situated offshore of Caspian Sea Azerbaijan sector. It is an elongated anticline in structure and the reservoir section consists of mainly sandstone. Recoverable reserves are calculated to be 5.4 bbl of oil (Binyatov 2008). Sedimentary environment corresponding to this region is mainly fluvio-deltaic.

The main aim of this study is to obtain better understanding of two main prolific hydrocarbon reservoir Pereriv B and Pereriv D by integration of well logs and core data. Moreover, flow unit determination was also very important point of this study. The work represents a petrophysical-based method that uses well loggings and core plug data to delineate flow units within the most productive sandstone reservoir in Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli field.

Nine wells are available for this work and 6 of them have core data. Geostatistical methods such as histogram analysis and principal component analysis have been used for each formation. Based on well log data petrophysical parameters such as porosity, volume of shale, saturations have been estimated and they are integrated with core plug data. From the well logs it was obtained that the both Pereriv B and Pereriv D formations have high NTG ratio. Moreover, one flow unit have been determined within a Pereriv B formation based on core data such as porosity, permeability and pore throat size. These parameters was observed to be high in flow unit. Moreover, histogram and Principal Component Analysis showed that Pereriv B and Pereriv D formations are similar to each other. Although the statistical methods could not find any new flow unit but the studies gave a good result in comparison of two different formations.

Key words: Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli field, Caspian Sea, Azerbaijan, Pereriv B, Pereriv D, flow unit, well logs, geostatistics, histogram analysis, principal component analysis

ÖZ

AZERİ-ÇİRAQ-GÜNEŞLİ SAHASININ REZERVUAR KARAKTERİZASYONUNDA KUYU LOGLARININ JEOSTATİSTİKSEL DEĞERLENDİRMESİ

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Azeri-Çıraq-Güneşli sahası Hazar Denizi'nin Azerbaycan kısmında yerleşmektedir. ACG, antiklinal yapıya sahip olup rezervuar kısmı ağırlıklı olarak kumtaşından oluşmuştur. Rezervlerin 5.4 milyar varilinin çıkarılabileceği hesaplanmıştır. Bu bölgedeki çökeltme ortamı daha çok flüvyal deltaya karşılık gelmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın asıl amacı, iki ana verimli hidrokarbon rezervi olan Pereriv B ve Pereriv D'yi kuyu logları ve karot bilgilerini kullanarak daha iyi anlamaktır. Ayrıca, akış ünitelerinin saptanması bu çalışmada önemli bir yere sahiptir. Bu çalışma, sahanın en verimli kum taşı rezervi olan Pereriv B'nin formasyonlarının akış birimlerinin taslağını çizmek için kuyu loglarını ve karot bilgilerini kullanan petrofiziksel bir yöntemi temsil etmektedir.

Bu çalışmada kullanılacak 9 kuyu vardır ve bunların 6 tanesinin karot bilgisi vardır. Herbir formasyon için histogram analizi ve temel bileşen analizi gibi jeostatistiksel yöntemler kullanılmıştır. Kuyu loglarının verilerine dayanarak gözenek, kil hacmi, doyumluluk gibi petrofiziksel parametreler tahmin edilmiş ve bunlar karot verileriyle bütünlenmiştir. Pereriv B ve Pereriv D'nin yüksek kumluluk oranlarına sahip olduğu kuyu loglarından çıkarılmıştır. Ayrıca, Pereriv B'nin bünyesinde gözenek, akışkanlık ve gözenek boyutu gibi karot bilgilerine dayanan bir akış birimi belirlenmiştir. Bu parametreler akış birimlerinde yüksek değerler almaktadır. Üstelik, histogram ve temel bileşen analizi, Pereriv B ve Pereriv D'nin formasyonlarının birbirlerine benzediklerini göstermiştir. İstatistiksel metodlar Pereriv D'de akış birimi bulmada çok fazla faydalı olmamalarına rağmen iki farklı formasyonun karşılaştırılmasında iyi sonuç vermişlerdir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Azeri-Çıraq-Güneşli sahası, Hazar denizi, Azerbaycan, Pereriv B, Pereriv D, akış birimi, kuyu logları, jeostatistik, histogram tahlili.

To my family

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Reservoir characterization is one of the key processes to obtain better understanding of the flow ability and storage capacity of petroleum reservoir. Usually sandstone reservoirs make challenges for petroleum engineers and geoscientist to obtain reliable information about it because of their ability to be cemented and heterogeneous due to post depositional and diagenetic alterations. One of the uncertainties found in clastic reservoirs can be shown by the large variability seen mostly in porosity/permeability crossplots gained from conventional core data analysis.

Characterization of sandstone reservoirs such as subdividing it into flow units is a special way of reservoir zonation. Particular petrophysical elements such as pore throat radius, permeability, porosity, water saturation, storage and flow capacity can be very useful in determination of the presence of distinct units which help researchers to make reliable reservoir characterization. The biggest advantage from determination of the flow units can be got in the early life of the reservoir because it gives better prediction of the future reservoir performance.

A hydraulic flow unit (HFU) is determined as the indication volume of total reservoir rock within which physical and geological factors that cause fluid flow are internally consistent and understandably different from features of other rocks (Ebanks et al., 1984). A hydraulic flow unit is a zone of the reservoir which is continuous both horizontally and vertically exhibit similar flow characteristics.

Understanding of permeability is a crucial step in establishing a reliable reservoir description. Reservoir permeability highly affects the strategies of the well completions and stimulation and reservoir management. There are some methods to identify reservoir permeability such as well testing, coring, and conventional well loggings. Due to high cost of coring, usually limited number of wells can be cored. However, some alternative ways can be used in determination of the permeability. The most applicable one is to estimate the permeability from well logs. The reason is that logging does not cost as much as coring. A disadvantage of well log derivation of permeability is heterogeneity of the sandstone reservoir that makes a difficulty and problems. A basic correlation between permeability and porosity can not be established, due to the effect of other well log parameters that are needed to be embedded into the correlation. Besides all of these challenges for permeability estimation from well logs, using wireline log data provides a continuous permeability profile throughout the particular interval that can be described as a hydraulic flow unit (Al-Ajmi et al, 2000).

The Azeri Cirag Guneshli Oil Field is located to the South East of Baku, offshore Azerbaijan (Figure 1) in water depths ranging 60m-280m (Binyatov 2008). The field structure consists of three connected culminations, which are, from west to east Shallow Water Guneshli, Deep Water Guneshli, Chirag and Azeri. The ACG complex comprises approximately 135 square kilometers and the fields have been calculated recoverable reserves of about 5 to 6 billion barrels of hydrocarbon. Moreover, there are two main productive sandstone reservoir horizon called Pereriv B, and Pereriv D.



Figure 1. Location map of Azeri-Chirag Guneshli field

The field has been operated by the consortium called Azerbaijan International Oil Company since 1994. The consortium is led by BP with 37.4% share. Also there are other international oil companies within the consortium such as TPAO 6.75%, Chevron 11.3%, SOCAR and Inpex 10%, StatoilHydro 8.5%, Itocu 3.9%, Hess 2.72%.

The aim of this study is to describe and characterize Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli field by using core data and well log data from the wells drilled in the area. The distribution of reservoir properties concerning the petrophysical parameters are taken into account for a true hydraulic flow zonation. The well logs are analyzed for all available wells, and then the outcome is compared with core data information to obtain reliable estimates between parameters. All data obtained from cores and well logs are analyzed to model a petrophysically based flow units for ACG field with geostatistical methods.

1.1. Statement of Purpose

In Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli field 9 wells are available for this study. All of these wells penetrate to Pereriv B which consists of sandstone and shale alteration. Among those 9 wells only 7 wells are available in Pereriv D formation. Moreover, all wells have well logs and only 5 of them have core data. It is worthy to highlight that cores are taken only from Pereriv B

The main purpose of this work is to identify the flow units in Pereriv B, which is the most oil productive sandstone reservoir in ACG Field. The flow unit zonation concept is primarily based on the available core plug data measurements and the conventional well logging data. The basic geologic framework of the studied wells should be constructed by well log attributes. The study is followed by the core data analysis for the determination of the petrophysical framework. The core plug analysis is fitted within the methods and classifications available in the literature. A profile of various units can be obtained after the combination of this work. To reach the goal, geostatistical approaches are used for discrimination of similar data and groups. However, not all the available wells in the field are cored, for the continuity of defined unit delineation, wells with no cores will be chosen and permeability estimation will be tried to be applied within the geostatistical methods.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE SURVEY

2.1. SouthCaspianBasin

The area of interest is located in South Caspian Basin, Azerbaijan sector of offshore Caspian Sea where many researches about stratigraphical, sedimentological, lithological and petrographical properties of the reservoir units including the productive series of ACG filed are present.

Kevin et al. (2007) stated first detailed assessment of the role of big and intermediate scale heterogeneities on fluid flow. In this research experimental approaches have been performed to obtain the influence of different heterogeneities. An important achievement from this work was that connection between close high and low NTG reservoir units highly improves recovery, allowing pressure contribution and a route for oil migration from sand bodies within the poor NTG parts which would otherwise be isolated.

Francesco et al. (2001) worked on a project which was a case history of the characterization of a structure in the sector of Azerbaijan gained by application of seismic tools such as “3D Pre-Stack Depth Migration and Continuity Depth Cube volumes”. This work was concentrated on the “Kurdash Permit” and close location of Azerbaijan of south most the country, close to Iran’s boarder, situated in the west part of the South Caspian. It considers the techniques applied to illustrate the subsurface, the resultant model and implications for its geological history made visible by the advanced seismic tools.

Moreover, Reynolds et al. (2006) made researches on ACG field. And the paper was about variations in pressure that’s seen with depth, location, stratigraphy and time are crucial to identify flow units and compartments in hydrocarbon reservoirs.

2.2. Hydraulic flow unit concept

Numerous methods were suggested to subdivide reservoir rocks into layers (these layers are mentioned as lithofacies, petrofacies, electrofacies, and hydraulic flow units or also called flow units).

Lucia et al. (1992) determined flow units carbonate-ramp reservoirs. The work was concentrated on finding mean number of petrophysical parameters within geological constraints and made an attempt to illustrate the 3D spatial distribution of petrophysical parameters in the formation.

Abbaszadeh, et al. (1995) also worked on prediction of permeability by hydraulic flow units applying Amaefule’s method. First he calculated pore-throat related parameters of flow

zone indicator and reservoir quality index by using core information after it, they used cluster analysis for finding the probable hydraulic flow zones. The approaches include probability plot, Ward's analytical algorithm, and the histogram analysis. These methods give visual description of flow zone indicator distribution to identify the probable number of fs. Together analytical clustering methods with graphical methods can give a reliable result for dividing of hydraulic flow units.

Klimentos et al. (1995) joined seismic wave technology and petrophysics for making a new approach in reservoir characterizations and explorations of reservoirs in a hydraulic flow unit point of view

Gunter et al.(1997) highlighted the significance of finding of flow zones in a beginning of the field life, because such kind of an prediction will help a lot to obtain better information to detect flow units.

Ratchkovski et al. (1999) applied conventional methods and statistics for defining hydraulic flow units for better reservoir characterization. The variogram modeling petrophysical parameters have been constructed.

Lee and Datta-Gupta (1999) made a research on electrofacies characterization by the help of non-parametric regression techniques and multivariate analysis. In order to determine electrofacies and their classification, they utilized PCA, discriminant analysis, and model-based cluster analysis. In order to estimate permeability from well logs non parametric regression were performed. By using alternating conditional expectations (ACE) and neural networks (NNET) regression models were analyzed.

Porras et al. (1999) established a correlation among different flow units model. These zonations are different where hydraulic flow unit is recognized as a consistent with identical and average properties which have an influence on flow, petrofacies are characterized as zones with identical features

Rincones et al. (2000) made a study about flow unit context to determine an effective petrophysical fracture characterization. They utilized permeability-porosity relationship, reservoir quality index concepts, and flow zone indicator to deliniate flow units.

Aguilera et al. (2001) introduced different methodology for flow unit determination. They used Pickett crossplots of effective porosity versus true resistivity in order to obtain reservoir process speed, which is equal to k/ϕ . Capillary pressure data, pore-throat apertures and Winland R35 values analysis are also included in their study to define hydraulic flow units.

CHAPTER 3

GEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

3.1 Regional geological settings

The Caspian Basin is widely regarded as a remaining back arc basin of the Tethys Sea that evolved adjacent to the rapidly uplifting Greater Caucasus Mountains after the Paleogene Era (Zonenshain and Le Pichon 1986). One of the major processes which have been evolved in the formation of South Caspian basin's present shape and petroleum system were due to interaction between Indian, Arabian and Eurasian plates and numerous microplates (Figure2) (Golonka et al., 2002). The Caspian Sea and Black Sea were a part back-arc basin of Mesozoic chain stretching more than 3000 km. This also included the Carpathian Basin in central Europe and the Vallesian Trough in Switzerland (Dercourt et al., 1986). Neo-Tethys was south of the island-arc system. Zonenshain et al. (1986) mention that the basins formed after three different tectonic scenarios—in Mid and Late Jurassic, and Late Cretaceous times.

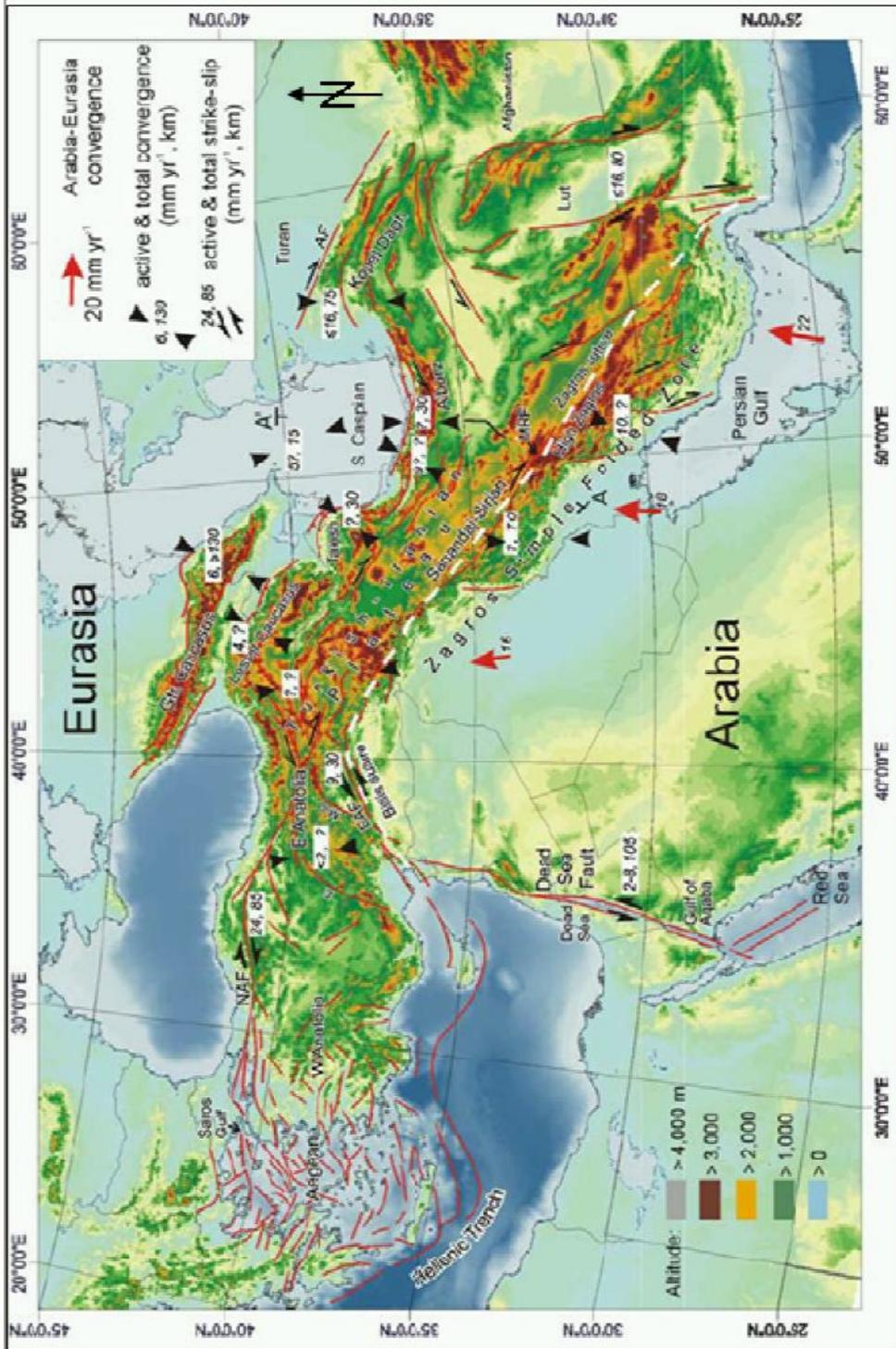


Figure 2. . Arabia – Eurasia Collisions. (adapted from Allen et. al., 2002)

From Middle Jurassic to Early Cretaceous time, extension occurred north of the Pontic-Trans-Caucasus arc, resulting in rifting and the formation of the early Black Sea and South part of the Caspian Basin. Toward the east, rate of spread was more rapid. This produced an oceanic basin, the remnants of which now form the South Caspian Basin. (Zonenshain et al., 1986).

Renewed interaction between the Eurasian and Arabian plates during Oligocene-Late Pliocene period started the separation of the Caspian Sea and the Black Sea. This process resulted in uplift of the Caucasus mountains, during the northward migration of the Iranian plate, the Elburz Mountains rose, causing separation of central Iran from the Caspian paleobasin (Smith-Rouchet et al., 2006) (Figure 3).

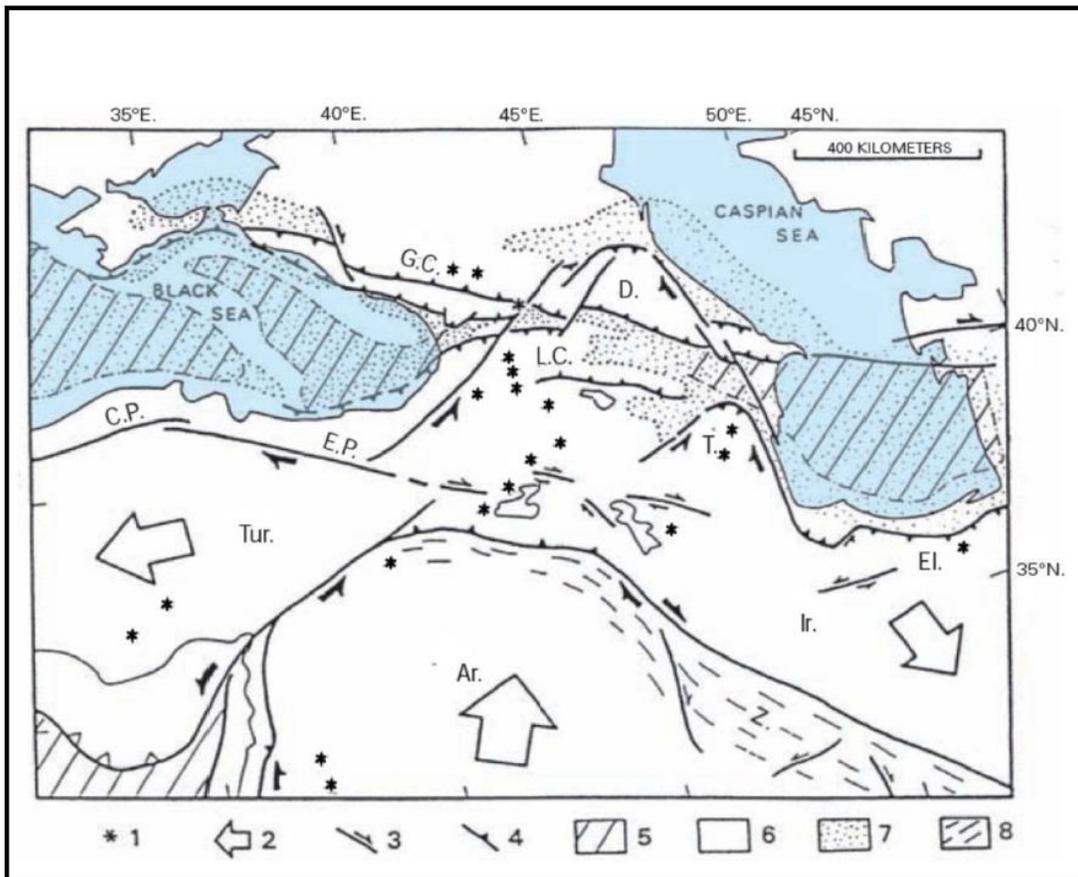


Figure 3. Principal tectonic features in the Caspian Sea – Black Sea regions. 1-volcanoes; 2-relative motion of crustal blocks; 03-major strike-slip faults (arrows show relative movement); 4-major thrust faults (saw teeth on overriding block); 5-oceanic or intermediate crust ; 6-continenta crust; 7-main sedimentary basin; 8-zone of folding. GC=Greater Caucasus; LC=Lesser Caucasus; T=Talesh; El=Elbroz; Ir=Iranian Block; Ar=Arabian Block; CP=Central Pontides; EP=Eastern Pontides; D=Dagestau; Tur=Turkish Block; SCB=South Caspian Basin. Red square indicated study area (Smith-Rouch, 2006).

In the Middle Miocene, uplift of the Greater Caucasus isolated the connection of the Caspian and the Black Sea, and led to the produced of anaerobic conditions in the basins (Smith-Rouch et al., 2006). Clastic accumulation was dominant during this time period. The plate's interaction in the Greatest Caucous area caused large amounts of sediments influx, in the form of proximal and distal flysch. The sedimentation rate exceeded subsidence, thus filling the basins. By the Middle Miocene, the Caspian Sea was separated from the World Ocean (Golonka et al., 2002). This separation during the Oligocene-Early Miocene time resulted ideal environment for deposition and preservation of organic-rich shales.

During the Pliocene time the strongest subsidence occurred in the basin, when more than 8000 to 10000 meters thick sediments got deposited in that time (Safarov et al, 2007). The South Caspian Basin was isolated from the Middle

Caspian Basin, and was a single lake during the deposition of the Productive Series (Dumont et al., 1998). Isolation of the basin led to the generation of different depositional environment throughout the whole Caspian Basin. The Paleo-Volga River incised a valley in the north which caused a formation of a huge delta in the South Caspian Basin (Nummedal et al., 2002) (Figure. 4). Generally, South Caspian Basin's sediments were deposited in lacustrine environment.

The major transportation agents of sediments were Paleo-Volga, the Paleo Amu- Darya and the Paleo-Kura Rivers (Golonka et al., 2002). There is a compressional structure in the surrounding of South Caspian Basin. It is located between the Caucasus and the Kopet Dag belts, and it is bordered to the South by the Iranian part with the Elbruz belt (Figure 3) (Safarov et al., 2007).

Figure 3 illustrates the position of strike-slip faults and thrust belts bordering the basin and arrows shown the northward migration of the Arabian plate, the southeastward movement of the Iranian block, and the southwestward movement of the Turkish block (Smith-Rouch et al, 2006). First touch of the north most part of the Arabian plate with materials of other continent appears to have started 45 million years ago (Salamov et al, 2005). The main deformation did not begin until the Pliocene in the folded belt of the Zagros Mountains (Falcon et al., 1974).

The basin consists of the region's thickest sedimentations and is bordered by mountains. Those sedimentations mainly got deposited after Oligocene time when foreland basin setting was dominant. A big muddy sequence called Maykop which is also considered significant source rock for the region was deposited Oligo-Miocene (Simmons et al., 1997). The basin was restricted and was related with a dramatic fall in sea level during end of the Miocene. Maykop shale formation was overlaid by sand bodies that were carried to the basin by the Paleo-Volga, Paleo-Kura and Paleo-Amu Darya rivers (Figure 4).

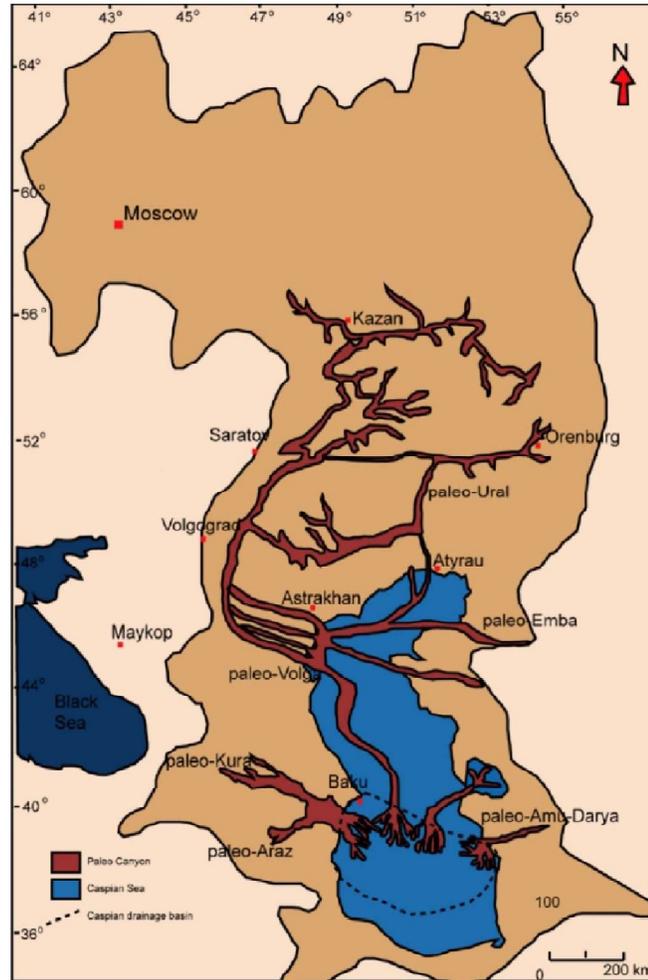


Figure 4. Major Delta Systems in South Caspian Basin. (Krooneberg et al., 2005)

These Lower to Upper Pliocene fluvial deltaic sandstones, known as the “Productive Series” (Figure 5), are about 8 km thick and were deposited about 1-2 million years ago. They comprise the main petroleum bearing rocks in the area (Reynolds et al., 1998).

There are several folds corresponding Late Pliocene which are common throughout the basin (Devlin et al., 1999).

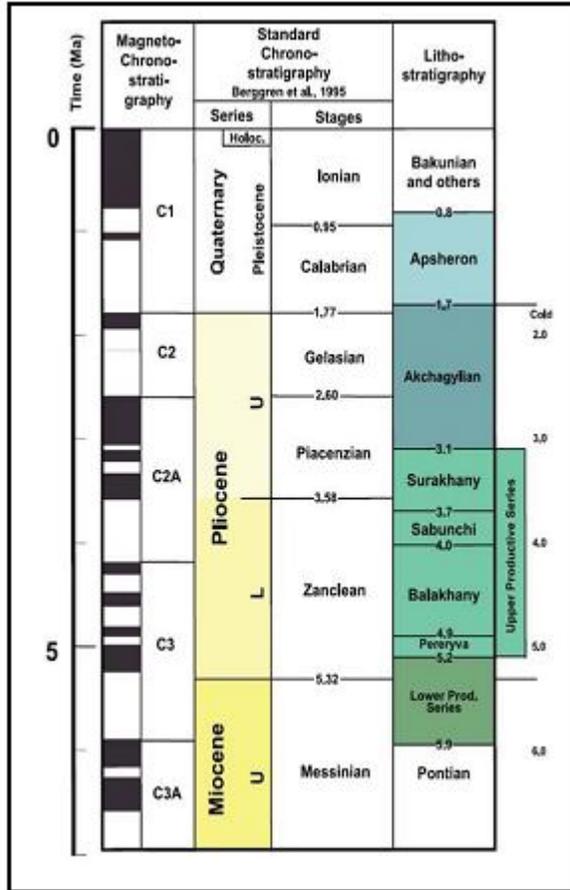


Figure 5. Chronostratigraphy of the Upper Miocene to Quaternary formations in the South and Central Caspian basins. (Abreau and Nummedal 2007)

The Productive series are non-marine, deltaic fluvial sediments deposited during the Pliocene. A huge amount of clastic sediment was carried into the basin by the Paleo-Volga, Paleo-Kura and Paleo-Amu Darya rivers running into the Caspian Sea.

High rates of sedimentation and rapid sediment accumulation caused overpressuring of the underlying mud, which are now presently represented as mud volcanoes. Hydrocarbon traps were produced after deformation of the productive series, with the folds detached in the underlying highly pressured mud formation. Generally folds correspond to late Pliocene and younger times through the basin (Safarov et al., 2007).

3.2 Stratigraphy of the study area

The stratigraphic subdivision of the South Caspian has been established on the basis of available outcrop studies, cores and logs from deep wells on the western and eastern margins of the Basin (Buryakovsky et al., 2001). Most of the sediments deposited in South Caspian Basin during Early Pliocene time. The Pliocene Productive Series (Figure 5) is the important unit of the essential petroleum interval in the Basin. Formation of this unit is predicted to be established by a main fall in the base level following the absolute separation of the South Caspian Basin from the global ocean during Late Miocene (Hinds et al., 2004; Reynolds et al., 1998). This hydrocarbon bearing unit is about 8 km thick bedding of fluvio deltaic deposits, accumulated at very high rate of sedimentation (2-4 mm/y) because of the Paleo-Volga, Paleo-Kura and Paleo-Amu Darya Rivers (Figure 4), between 5.2 and 3.1 Ma ago (Jones and Simmmons, 1996; Reynolds et al., 1998). The Productive Series has been analyzed by the lithological point of view by examining samples from outcrop, and cores and logs from deep wells. The sediments are lack of fauna and their stratigraphic position is defined by faunal features of the overlying Akchagylian Stage and underlying Pontian Stage. Subdivision of the thick hydrocarbon bearing unit was performed based on changes in lithology which has been resulted from cyclic deposition (Buryakovski et al., 2001). In South Caspian Region, stratigraphic sequences are divided into “suites” rather than formations. It should be noted, that the Russian use of “suite” is equivalent to “formation” in that both are mappable stratigraphic units (Smith- Rouch et al., 2006; Reynolds et al., 1998).

Precise detailed description of the Productive Series largely based on the field work studies of several outcrops around Apsheron Peninsula (Reynolds et al., 1998; Hinds et al., 2004; Kroonenberg et al., 2005).

In the study area the Productive series has been subdivided (Uskin et al., 1916) for 9 subdivisions (Figure 6) because of lithology and their characteristics. These suites or formations and subunits of formations or members are easily recognizable on logs data, and are accepted to be approximately same to regionally mappable units. Despite weak biostratigraphic marks, lithostratigraphic correlation of individual formations has been used. This led Reynolds et al. (1998) to think about the chronostratigraphic significance of individual formations. Moreover, the Productive Series subdivided into two parts: lower and upper parts, with the bottom boundary of the Pereriv Formation (Hinds et al., 2004) (Figure 6).

There are two intervals in Productive Series: 1) Lower part of the Productive Series; 2) Upper part Productive Series. Each interval is subdivided into a number of formations (Uskin, 1916; Azizbekov, 1972; Reynoldset al., 1998). Integration of subsurface and outcrop data suggests that these formations approximate to chronostratigraphically significant packages, which is correlatable over large distance areas (Safarov et al., 2007).

The Lower Productive Series contains five formations:

1. Kalin Formation (KaS)
2. Pre-Kirmaky Formation (PK)
3. Kirmaky Formation (KS)
4. Post-Kirmaky Sand Formation (NKP)
5. Post-Kirmaky Clay Formation (NKG)

The Upper Productive Series contains the following:

1. Pereriva Formation (also may appear as Pereryv, Pereryva)
2. Balakhany Formation
3. Sabunchi Formation
4. Surakhany Formation

Among those suites Kalin Formation (KaS) is the only formation that is not outcropping in any area within Apsheron Peninsula. It is only recognized from the subsurface where it shows coarse-grained conglomeratic succession more than 300 m in thickness and therefore did not illustrate in Figure 7 (Abramovich and Mekhtiyev, 1954).

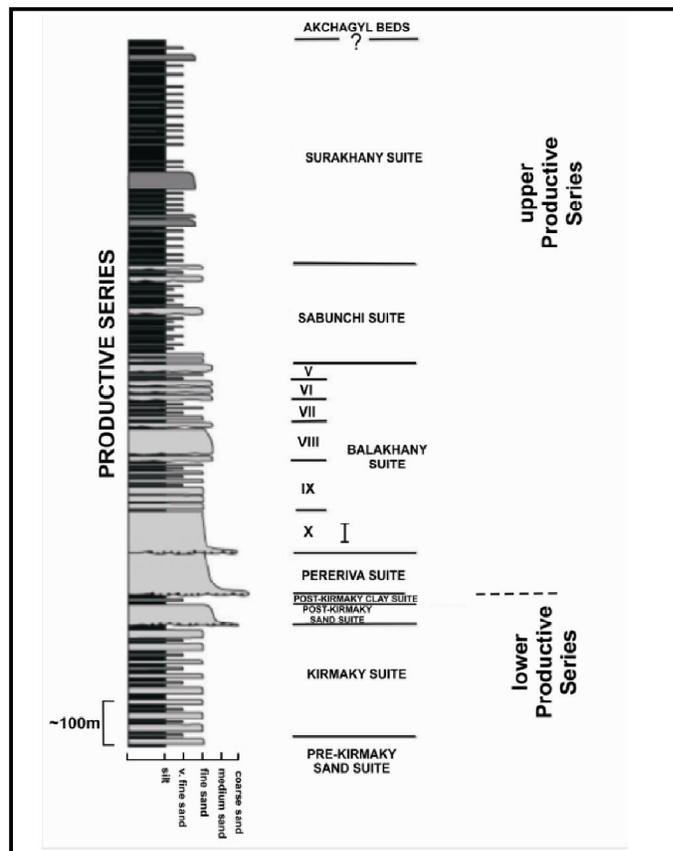


Figure 6. Stratigraphic column of the Productive Series. Grey color represented sands, black color mudstone. (Hinds et al., 2004)

The Pre-Kirmaky Formation (PK) is locally more than 150 m thick across the Apsheron Peninsula and characterized by fining-upwards profiles up to 5m in thickness with very coarse sandstone in the base of it which is followed upwards through fine sand to thin-bedded silt and clay.

The Kirmaky Formation (KS) is approximately 250-300m in thickness and is divided into a lower sandstone part and an upper argillaceous part. It indicates a large-scale vertical sedimentary architecture with variations of packages of mudstone and sandstone with changing

thickness between 2 and 8m. Horizontally, these packages exhibit sheet like geometry in dip section, and can be recognized as a consistent form more than hundreds of meters, showing just very little change in. Paleocurrents are basically to the SSE (Reynolds et al., 1998); Hinds et al., 2004).

The Post-Kirmaky Sand Formations about 35-40 m and consists of amalgamated, fining-upward, channelized sandstones with thickness between 2-4 m, and shows an overall fining-upwards trends Paleocurrents are mostly to the SSE (Hinds et al., 2004).

The thickness of the Post-Kirmaky Clay Formations 30-35 m thick and is weakly exposed. The formation is characterized by red to brown, and grey silt with thin, black plastic clays, interbedded with laterally continuous, climbing ripples laminated sandstone and represented by a gradational base with Post-Kirmaky Sand Formation. In some of the horizons desiccation cracks can be seen. There was no clear indication of coarsening upward or fining upward patterns observed within the unit. Paleoflows are dominantly to SSE (Figure 7) (Hinds et al., 2004).

The Pereriv Unit is among the most significant producing formation of the South Caspian Basin. It's about 110m thick and exhibits an overall fining-upward grain-size trend, with quartz conglomerates at the base overlain by mostly amalgamated, broad, channelized sandstone deposits of 2 to 5 m thick with thin siltstone interbeds. Sandstones are represented by different colors from grayish to yellow/brown, to red (Hinds et al., 2004). Fining-upward successions, 4-7 m thick, are common and are characterized by cross-beds up to 3.5 m high (Reynolds et al., 1998). Paleocurrents are mostly to the SSE (Figure 7).

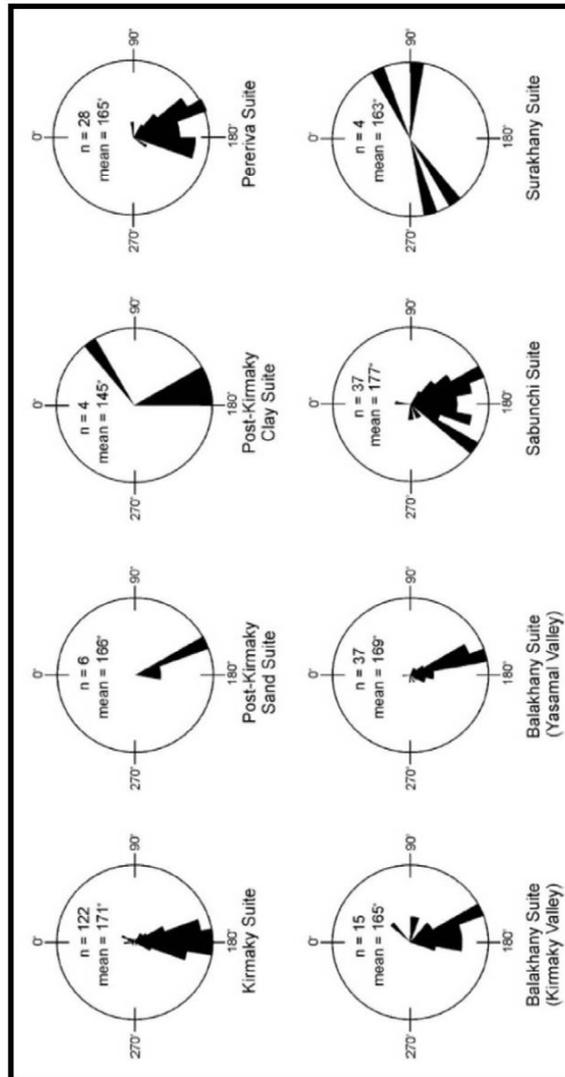


Figure 7. Palocurrents of the Productive Series (Hinds et al., 2004)

Another main reservoir formation called Balakhany Formation which is approximately 300 m thick located on the Apsheron Peninsula and is important producing zone in the offshore. It is also divided into 6 subunits (subunit X at the base to subunit V at the top) in which the even-numbered successions represent more sandstone dominated intervals and the odd-numbered ones are mud dominated. The Balakhany X subdivision is about 80m and consists of channelized, cross-bedded sandstone 2 to 5 meters thick showing different amount of amalgamation. Balakhany X subunit exhibits a fining upward trend starting basal conglomeratic sandstone at the bottom to fine sandstones at the top. Color of the sandstones in subunit varies from brown to yellow and orange. The Balakhany IX is about 50 meters thick and it is outcropping in the Yasamal Valley. The lower part shows alteration of channelized, amalgamated sandstone with grey and dark brown mudstone. Mudstone bedding is horizontally consistent for 100 m to 3 m in thickness. Sand filled desiccation cracks can be noticed in some intervals.

The Balakhany VIII subunit is about 50 m in Kirmaky Valley and is nearly 80 m in thickness in Yasamal Valley outcrops. Subunit VIII shows identical sedimentary architecture to subunit X and is characterized by amalgamated, channelized sandstone 2-5 m thick and alterations in color from brownish and grey to yellow. The Balakhany VII subunit is 50 meters in thickness and consists of planar, fine grained, channelized sandstone of 1.5 to 3 meters thick. Those sandstone units are interstratified with poorly established, coarsening upward, mudstone to sandstone, from 4 to 6 meters of thicknesses. In some intervals the reddish-brown mudstones comprise numerous desiccation cracks. The Balakhany VI subunit is about 40 meter thick and is characterized by fine-grained channelized sandstones 6-9 m in thickness. Color of the sandstone varies from grey to yellowish brown.

Mostly amalgamated channels are from 3.5 to 4 meters thick and up to 45 m wide. The Balakhany V subunit is 50-60 m in thickness and consists of sandstone 4 m thick. In this subunit coarsening-upward successions are common (Hinds et al., 2004; Kroonenberg et al., 2005). Paleocurrent for the Balakhany Formation are generally towards the S-SSE (Figure 7).

The Sabunchi Formations approximately 220m thick. Formation is represented by decimeter thick beds of sandstone, mudstone and siltstone. The most part of the succession comprises vertically stacked coarsening-upward, interbedded sandstone and siltstone packages between 4 and 6 meters thickness. They are grayish and yellowish in color. The lower unit of the formation can be recognized with a prominent grey-colored mud, and a sandstone channel recognized as the upper contact. Paleocurrent vectors show a SSE trend (Figure 7), some westerly flows were found (Hinds et al., 2004).

The upper most of lithostratigraphic unit of the Productive Series is Surakhany Formation which is approximately 500 meters in thickness in outcrop. This part is highly argillaceous full of by thick bedded of clay and siltstone, and some amount of sand. Multicolored mudstone packages between 5-25m thick comprising mainly of massive or well laminated claystone and siltstone. Sub-vertical burrows and root traces noticed in siltstone (Hinds et al., 2004). Paleocurrent directions show from ESE to SSW.

Reynolds et al. (1998) suggested modern prediction of deposition environment of the Productive Series which are outcropping around the Caspian Sea, which are very similar to their offshore part of the Apsheron Peninsula. The Reynolds et al. (1998) conducted new interpretation of the area and in his new depositional model for the Productive Series was based on the determination in outcropping sections of mainly fluvial dominated delta facies related of fluvial, delta plain, proximal delta-front and distal delta-front environments that has been interpreted to have genetic relationship with each others.

Reynolds et al. (1998) analyzed the variations of sand and mud rich lithofacies, which represent the Productive Series, as characterizing the repeated juxtaposition of proximal and distal fluvio-deltaic environments. Reynolds et al. (1998) suggested that an extensive braid-delta built southwards across the Apsheron Ridge on a very low-gradient slope into a relatively permanent, though fluctuating, South Caspian lake. According to his model, thick amalgamated channel sand packages are braided fluvial channel deposits, while coarsening-up packages are distributary mouth-bar sands. The thick braided-river sand intervals are related to lowstands in lake level, involving progradation of the delta and a basinward shift of discrete facies belts, whereas rising lake level led to transgression and deposition of widespread highstand mudstones.

Hinds et al. (2004) proposed new depositional environment interpretation of the Productive Series based upon extensive outcrop observations. Formation of the lower part of the Productive Series is thought to be variation of sheet flood related river sediments, channelized deposits and lacustrine muds.

Hinds et al. (2004) interpreted deposition of the “Upper Productive Series as terminal fluvial system which repeatedly expanded and contracted across its alluvial plain, but experienced only moderate lacustrine influence.

Hinds et al. (2004) model proposes that dryness created in desiccation of the lake and a slow background deposition of clays and silts due to the rivers had run dry and little coarse sediment reached the basin (Figure 8A). Hinterland mountains rejuvenation of the river systems during the wet periods dumped large volumes of coarse erosion products into the basin during flashfloods that were reworked by the ephemeral braided streams on a low-gradient fluvial lacustrine enlargement and ubiquitous deposition of muds and silts in shallow water was initiated by the increasing river flow. High frequency climatic cycles are thought to be responsible for individual sand units, while longer term cycles of ~100,000 year produce the sand packages and thicker mudstone units (Figure 8D). In this model, reservoir sand-bodies were deposited over large parts of the basin at the start of humid periods just before lake levels began to rise and are predominantly braided-river channel-fill (amalgamated channel sand packages) and prograding sheet-flood overbank lobes (coarsening-upward packages).

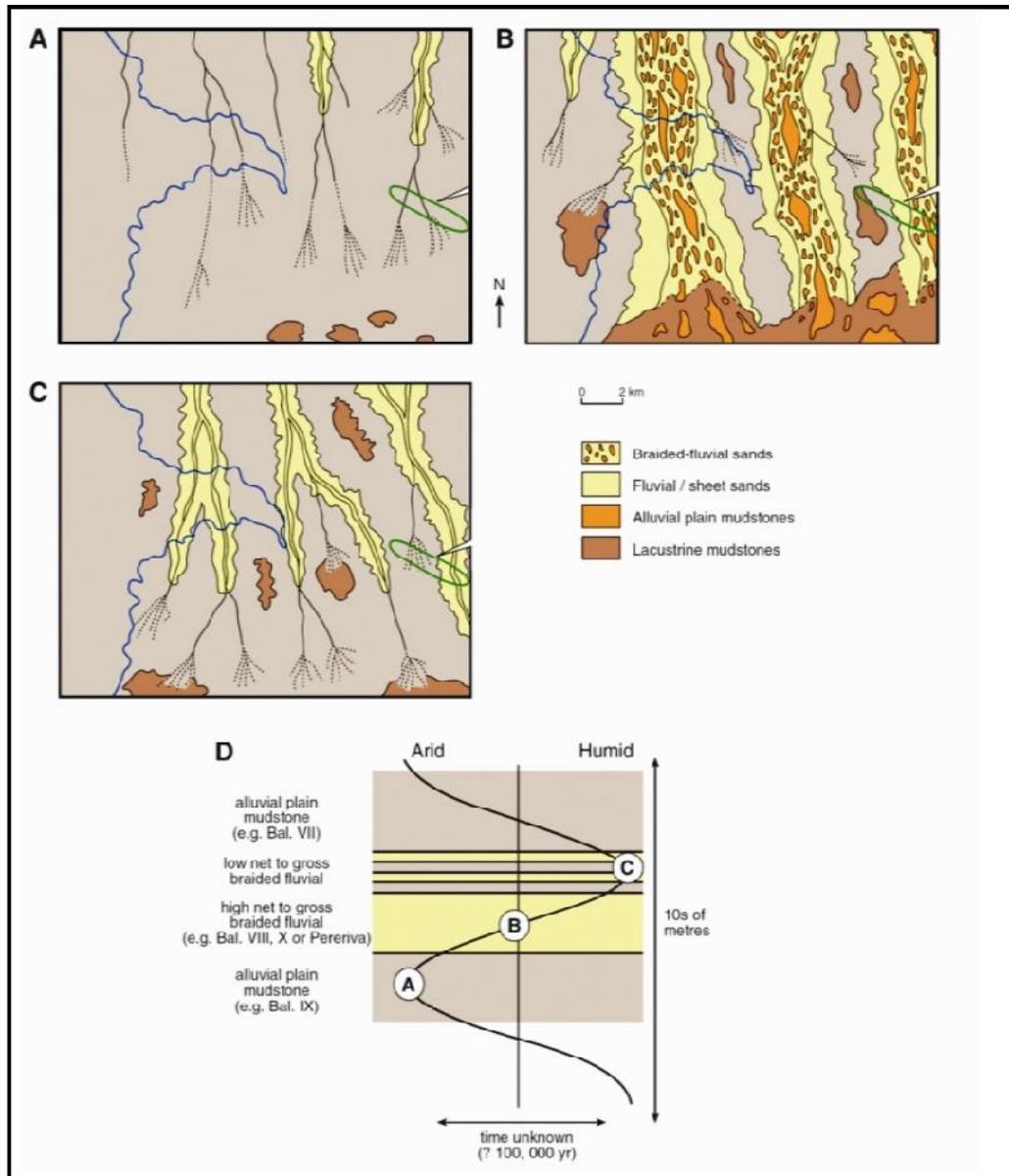


Figure 8. Paleogeography of the Productive Series on the Apsheron Peninsula and surrounding areas during: (A) maximum aridity and minimum coarse clastic and water input; (B) increasing climatic humidity and establishment of sand – rich braided river systems possibly feeding a braid – delta further south; and (C) declining sediment load produces low – sinuosity sand – poor braided fluvial systems. (D) Climatic cycle that could have driven the depositional environments of the Productive Series. Green ellipsoid represents the position of study area (Hinds *et al.*, 2004).

3.3 Field background

Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli (ACG) is huge offshore oil field in South Caspian Basin, approximately 120 kilometers away from the shoreline of Caspian Sea – Apsheron peninsula sector. Area of the field is about 432 square kilometers. It is operating ten different petroleum companies (consortium) led by BP. Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli fields have been estimated recoverable hydrocarbon of about 6 billion barrels. As of the end of 2005, the production rate from eight drilled wells at the platform was approximately 240 000 barrels per day. The peak of oil production over 800 000 barrels per day, was obtained in third quarter of 2010. In the beginning of 2012 oil production was about 710 000 barrels per day.

The structural trap, which forms the huge oil field, is a North West-South East trending, trusted anticline with steep dip angle. Within this structural closure there are several crestal faults cut in strike direction as well as mud volcanoes of different size that makes the structure complex. Oil and gas are observed within a number of various zones corresponding to Pliocene time; the most significant reservoirs encountered in the Pereriv and overlying Balakhany Formations. The high oil column that characterizes the field is the result of extensive structural relief combined with excellent top and lateral seals, for example, 900 meters on the north part of Azeri and 580 meter on the south of Chirag. Varying pressure regimes linked with effective seals may be responsible for the greater than 300 meters north-south alteration in oil contact(s). At the main Pereriv reservoir level, the ACG Field is 50 km in length and 5 km in width.

Hydrocarbons are explained to have been generated and migrated from Late Miocene to Early Pliocene aged Maykop lacustrine shale buried in the deep and rapidly subsiding South Caspian basin to the south of ACG. The ACG anticline was originated in the Late Pliocene in response to compression related with the formation of the Alpine/Himalayan mountain belts to the south. Release of highly pressured, deeply buried shale exploited lines of weakness associated with the inversion and faulting forming a number of mud volcanoes some of which are still active.

CHAPTER4

METHODS AND APPLICATIONS

For identification of petrophysically based reservoir zonation and characterization, the appropriate representative data of the studied reservoir must be acquired. The relevant methods for getting such data can be listed as (1) conventional core plug tests, (2) well logging. In this section, the methods and their applications; which are utilized to build a hydraulic flow unit zonation within the reservoir of scope Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli filed), are described that uses the available data. The approach tried to be applied in the study comprises the fundamental geologic framework of the area of interest, the petrophysical features of ACG field, interpretation of core-plug data, analyses of well logging data, combination of all these works to get a hydraulic flow unit zonation with the help of permeability/permeability estimation in the logged but uncored well.

4.1 Available data

There are 9 cored wells with log data and 12 noncored with log data in Azeri Chirag Guneshli filed in order to divide the field into the flow units. Conventional core analyses were utilized and small database has been constructed based on the result of those analyses. The wells which have core and log data are A08Z, B01ST1, C01, D01Z, GCA1, GCA2, GCA4, GCA4Z, GCA5, GCA5Z, and GCA6. Figure 9 is a map which shows the well locations. These wells have both core and well log data. The core analysis produced several parameters and those parameters are categorized into 3 division: Petrographic consolidation, Pc parameters, RCAL data.

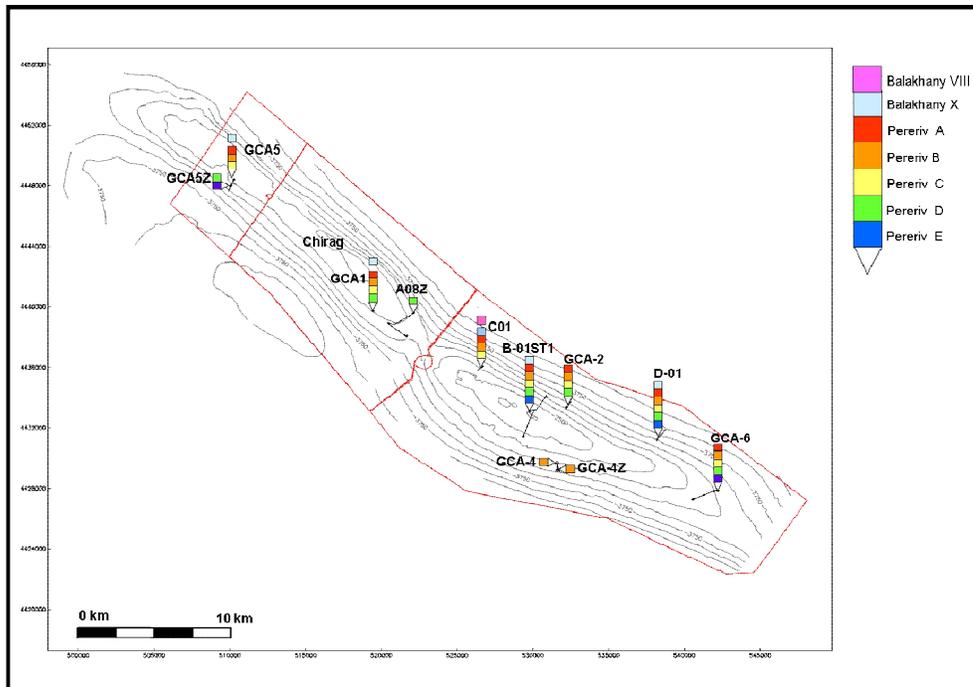


Figure 9. Area of interest (Structural map) with well locations and formations.

These 3 main data categories have also been divided into subdivisions. Subdivisions of petrographic data include: sandstone classification, textural data (mean grain size, sorting), framework grains (%), ductile components (%), authigenic minerals (%), modal porosity (%), ICCS Hg porosimetry analysis (Hg porosity, hydraulic radius, Hg permeability) and permeability porosity data from core analysis under 400PSI. Pc parameters include: porosity of helium and hg, permeability of air and hg, pore throat sorting and radiuses.

Moreover, besides these core parameters there are conventional well logs. Usually, GR, caliper log, sonic, deep and middle resistivity, neutron, density were utilized in the wells.

Table 11 below briefly summarizes available data for the project of flow units.

Table 1. Available core and well log data

Core Data			Well logs
Petrographic Consolidation	Pc Parameters	RCAL	
Sandstone classification	PORhg (%)	CPOR	DEN
Mean grain size	PORhel	CKHEL	CALI
Sorting	Fpurcell		GR
Frainwork Grains (%)	Kair		NEU
Ductile Components (%)	Khg		PHIE
Authigenic Minerals (%)	PTS,psi		PHIT
Modal porosity (%)	Rapexavto		RESDEP
ICCS Hg porosimetry	Rparachor		DESMED
	Rapexman		SONIC
	Sapex		SW
	r5-r85		VSHALE
	Rariphimetic		
	Rweighted_aripmetic		
	Rgeometric		
	Rweighted_geometric		
	Rharmean		

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6. Each Party shall be fully responsible for any damages and losses caused to the other Party as a result of breach of this Agreement.
7. No amendments, changes or modifications to this Agreement shall be valid except if the same are in writing and signed by a duly authorized representative of each of the Parties hereto.

4.2 Well Logging Data Analyses

Surface geological techniques are able to identify subsurface structures which could possibly contain fluids inside it; however, they can not to predict if this fluid is hydrocarbons. So far, there is no possible way than drilling a well to exactly determine the presence of hydrocarbons in subsurface. Whereas, to drill a well is money and time consuming process, that end with a result of none hydrocarbon bearing zone in the drilled sections. However, more relevant way is to use the formation evaluation tests for analyzing the interested subsurface zone, rather than drill a well. Formation evaluation is the procedure of working on drilled well measurements to evaluate the characteristics of the subsurface reservoirs, such as identification of the physical and chemical features of reservoirs and their contained fluids.

There are 4 method of formation evaluation: (1) core analysis (2) drillsteam test (3) mud logging (4) well logging. One of the easiest ways of obtaining subsurface data at the early stage of the study can be considered as well logging, which chiefly contributes to formation evaluation. The main aim of the well logging is to recognize the reservoir rocks, calculate the hydrocarbons in place, and estimate the recoverable hydrocarbons; beside these the data acquired from well loggings also contribute so many.

In Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli field, the conventional open-hole well logs are available as mentioned above. These log data are used to study the lithological-mineralogical components and the petrophysical parameters like effective porosity and fluid saturations. As well as the use of raw log data, some cross plots can be also utilized based on log parameters which are used to understand the nature of porosity. Acquired well log elements are also run as input for the geostatistical methods, for correlating with core data for permeability/porosity estimations. The way of evaluation methods on well logs and the applications of these methods to the worked wells will be described in this part.

4.2.1 Gamma Ray Analysis

The recognition of shaly rocks (formations containing clay minerals) can be done by using mainly Gamma Ray (GR) Log. Spontaneous Potential (SP) Log can also be used for this purpose. Two elements which are radioactive, Thorium (Th) and potassium (K) tend to exist in shales. Shale-free sandstones and carbonates (usually considered as *clean zones*) contain very little amount of K and Th, because the chemical environment that dominate during their accumulation is not favorable for the deposition of radioactive minerals. In GR logs, the important abundance of unstable elements, show a certain level of natural radioactivity. The GR log's a measure of the overall gamma radiation the well that is used to recognize probable petroleum bearing reservoir rock and shales.

Shaly zone of the formation can be described as shale volume (Vsh). Qualitatively, Vsh shows whether the zones are shaly or clean. Quantitatively, Vsh helps to know the shale effect on log responses and, if needed, to correct them to non shale formation responses by means of cross plots.

Volume of the shale can be estimated by using the following equation

$$V_{sh} = \frac{GR_{log} - GR_{clean}}{GR_{shale} - GR_{clean}} \quad (1)$$

GRlog = gamma ray response in the zone of interest

GRclean = average gamma ray response in the cleanest formations

GRshale = average gamma ray response in shale

Well GCA1:

The GR log for well GCA1 is available from 490 m - 2958m. In this well the zone of interest (Pereriv B) penetrates in 2764 meters and the bottom of the formation is in 2804 meters. Generally this zone is clean sandstone with few amount of shale content. That is reason why this is is one of the prolific hydrocarbon bearing zone.

Well GCA2:

The GR log is available for 353 – 3647 meters in GCA2 well. The interval of interest for this well is being penetrated in 3243 meters. Also bottom of the formation is in 3300 meters. The well GCA2 is also shows low Vshale value throughout the Pereriv B zone although there is very few thin shale zones.

Well GCA4:

The GR log is available for 2370 – 3467 meters. Well GCA4 hit the formation Pereriv B in depth of 3108 m. Bottom of the formation is in 3159 meters. The interval is clean sand with thin shale layers.

Well GCA5:

The GR log is available for 268 – 3030 meters. Well GCA5 hit the formation Pereriv B in depth of 2888 m. Bottom of the formation is in 2936 meters. As other wells in the area GR responses shows low value for Pereriv B.

Well GCA6:

The GR log is available for 703 – 3471 meters. Well GCA4 penetrates the formation Pereriv B in depth of 3333 m. Bottom of the formation is in 3377 meters. The interval is clean sand with very thin shale layers.

Well C0-1:

The GR log is available for 90 - 3011 meters. Well C0-1 penetrates the formation Pereriv B in depth of 2816 m. Bottom of the formation is in 2903 meters. The interval is clean sand with thin shale layers.

Well D-01Z:

The GR log is available for 1388 – 3889 meters. Well D-01Z penetrates the formation Pereriv B in depth of 3740 m. Bottom of the formation is in 3796 meters. GR responses in this well show that the well is highly sandstone zone with thin shale content.

Well B01ST1:

The GR log is available for 171 - 2504 meters. This well penetrates the formation Pereriv B in depth of 2366 m. Bottom of the formation is in 2411 meters. The interval is clean sand with thin shale layers.

Well A08Z:

The GR log is available for 1118 – 3822 meters. Well A08Z hits the formation Pereriv B in depth of 3611 m. Bottom of the formation is in 3695 meters. The interval is clean sand with thin shale layers.

4.2.2 Sonic Log Analysis

Sonic log is a significant way of formation analysis. This type of logging uses the acoustic wave propagation around the well bore. As the log responses are not changed by secondary porosity, they may be used to correlate within wells. Sonic logs generally help to estimate porosity. Two ways are described for porosity estimation from sonic logs; Wyllie Method and experimental method.

Conventional sonic log measure the reciprocal of the velocity of the compressional (P wave) wave. This value is called interval transit time, Δt , or slowness, and its unit is microseconds per foot ($\mu\text{sec}/\text{ft}$). Porosity of consolidated formations is related to Δt by Wyllie's equation.

$$\phi = \frac{\Delta t - \Delta t_{mat}}{\Delta t_f - \Delta t_{mat}} \quad (2)$$

Where;

Δt_{mat} and Δt_f are the slowness of the matrix and pore fluid respectively, and Δt is the slowness of the zone of interest.

The average values of matrix for Wyllie's equation are stated below.

Table 2. Matrix velocities used in Wyllie's Equation

matrix type	$\Delta t_{mat}(\mu\text{sec}/\text{ft})$
Sandstone	55.5
Limestone	47.5
Dolomite	43.5
Fluid	189

The sonic porosities of the wells are acquired by using Wyllie's equation. The porosities obtained from sonic log are the primary porosities, but the sonic waves are not measured within the fractures and vugs of the zone in consider.

4.2.3 Caliper Log Analysis

Looking at borehole diameter with caliper logging has showed clearly that the actual borehole size often differs from the bit size which is used to drill it.

The difference is significant in some circumstances. Usually, the drilled well is far from being a regular cylinder with uniform size.

The borehole's size and shape depend on the formation drilled. Enlargements of the drilled hole are most commonly seen in shales and shaly formations. (Bassiouni et al., 1994). Due to their electrochemical characteristics, clay minerals absorb water, making the shale formation to swell. Enlargements can also be seen in water-soluble formations, such as salts.

Such kind of enlargements is because of the soft, unconsolidated zones that the drilling mud causing souring effects. In some cases, the hole is looked as it is being drilled smaller than its actual bit size. This is mainly when in permeable reservoir rock drilled with mud that contains solids. This effect which is called mud cakes occur in this sections making smaller diameters.

Such analyses of caliper log measurements require knowledge of borehole diameter and shape. To determine the borehole geometry, caliper log is run with microresistivity, density, sidewall neutron, sonic, and dipmeter logs. Besides giving knowledge about the borehole shape calipers can also be used obtain the permeable zones of the drilled formation.

4.2.4 Density Log Analysis

The density log measures the density of the formation rock. If the matrix densities are known, the recorded ρ_b values can be used to determine the porosity.

The bulk density, (ρ_b) is the overall gross or weight-average density of a unit of the formation. Solving for porosity yields,

$$\phi = \frac{\rho_{mat} - \rho_{bulk}}{\rho_{mat} - \rho_{fluid}} \quad (3)$$

Where; ρ_f is the average density of the fluids in pore spaces. Common values of ρ_{ma} are given in table 3.

Table 3. Matrix values for common types of rocks

rock type	ρ matrix (g/cc)
Sandstone	2.65
Limestone	2.71
Dolomite	2.87
anhydrite	2.98

The values for ρ_f are listed in Table 4.

Table 4. Fluid densities according to the mud type

fluid type	ρ (g/cc)
oil	0.9
fresh water	1
brine	1.1

The estimation of porosity by using density log applies only to relatively simple environments. In complex environments, such as shaly sands, gas-bearing formations, and complex lithology, the density log is linked with other porosity logs. Porosity estimation gets more difficult when the lithology is not known or when it contains two or more minerals of unknown proportions. The most common mixtures associated in our wells are the combination of shale and sandstone.

Density log are usually applied with neutron log tools and the analysis are based upon both of them. If it is used alone, it is used to know the identification of the formation rock porosity and its bulk density. Bulk density is the sum of matrix density and fluid density.

4.2.5 Neutron Log Analysis

The neutron logging is based on the elastic scattering of neutrons as a collision with the nuclei in the target. Target with high hydrogen content shows low concentrations of neutrons, and inversely, target with low hydrogen content shows high concentrations of neutrons. As most of

the hydrogen is part of the fluids located in the porous area, this value is inversely proportional to porosity.

The wellbore size, temperature, mud cake, mud salinity, reservoir pressure, and formation water salinity influence the neutron log measurement, but such changes can be removed by applying some correlation charts. The abundance of gas and shale in the reservoir also affect the neutron logs record. The shale in the formation can result in higher values of neutron porosity. Neutron logs are usually plotted with density logs as mentioned before. Together, they are the most efficient lithology and porosity identification logs besides determination of gas-bearing formations.

The lithology identification is usually based on neutron-density logs. The location of neutron and ρ_b curves, the separation between them gives lithology understanding.

Neutron logs help to estimate porosity, in fact the actual values of the neutron gives porosity measurement, however, when the density log values are added into the porosity estimations, such as in the density-neutron crossplot technique, the results are more reliable than the neutron and density porosities alone.

The porosity estimated by means of density-neutron can be shown as ϕ_{D-N} . This result can be considered to be very identical to the core porosity obtained by laboratory tests.

The ϕ_{D-N} porosity is the total porosity of the interval of the interest. This total porosity includes also the ineffective porosity that is already inside it.

Since the irreducible water saturation can be excluded from the production, as saturation calculations are done, this total porosity can be considered as an effective porosity as accepting the error that may occur, or instead Magnetic Resonance (MR) can be used, if available.

The ϕ_{D-N} value can be estimated as follows:

- the bulk density number are taken from the log. These values are used to get density porosity (ϕ_D) by using the Equation 3.
- the neutron porosity number are taken from the log. Necessary corrections have to be performed for lithology using the chart in Figure 10, to obtain corrected values of neutronporosity (ϕ_N)
- by using below equation, the ϕ_{D-N} porosity is calculated.

$$\phi_{D-N} = \frac{\phi_D - \phi_N}{2} \quad (4)$$

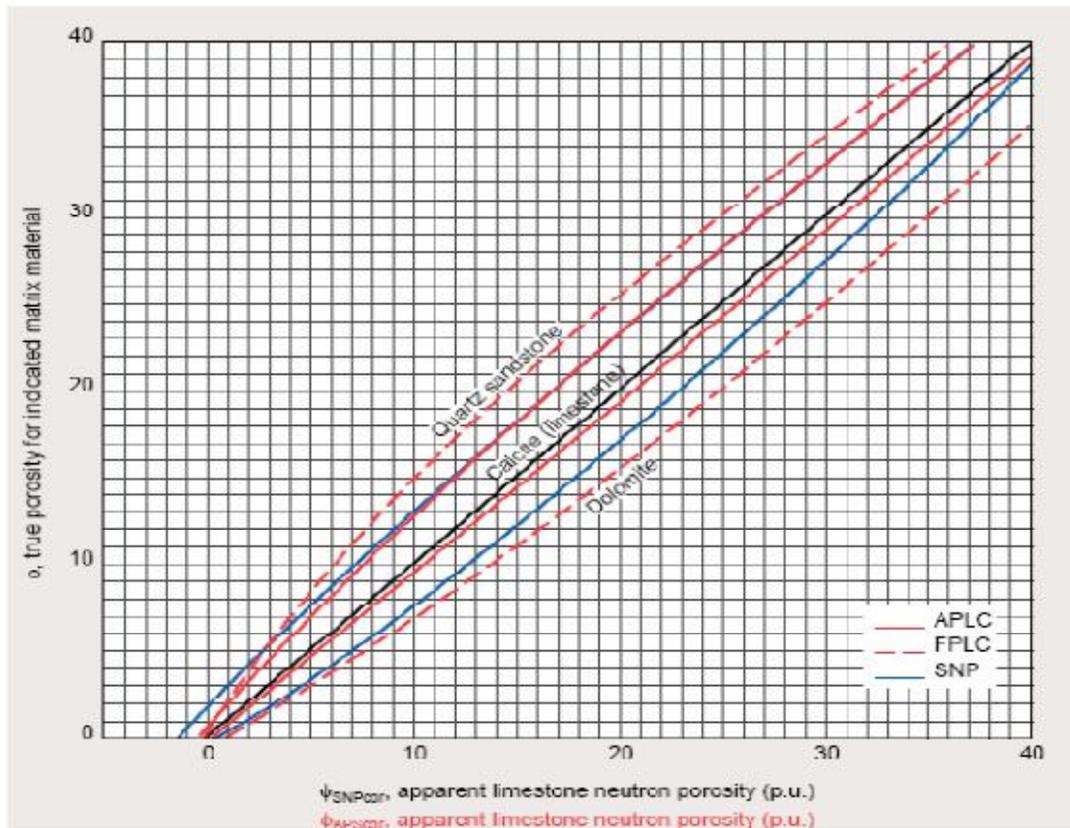


Figure 10. Neutron Porosity Equivalence Chart (Schlumberger, Log Interpretation Charts, 1988)

The ϕ D-N porosity can also be estimated by means of density-neutron cross plots. The cross plot utilized in most cases is given in Figure 11. This cross plot is mainly used for porosity determination. The second purpose of it is to recognize the lithology types in percentages.

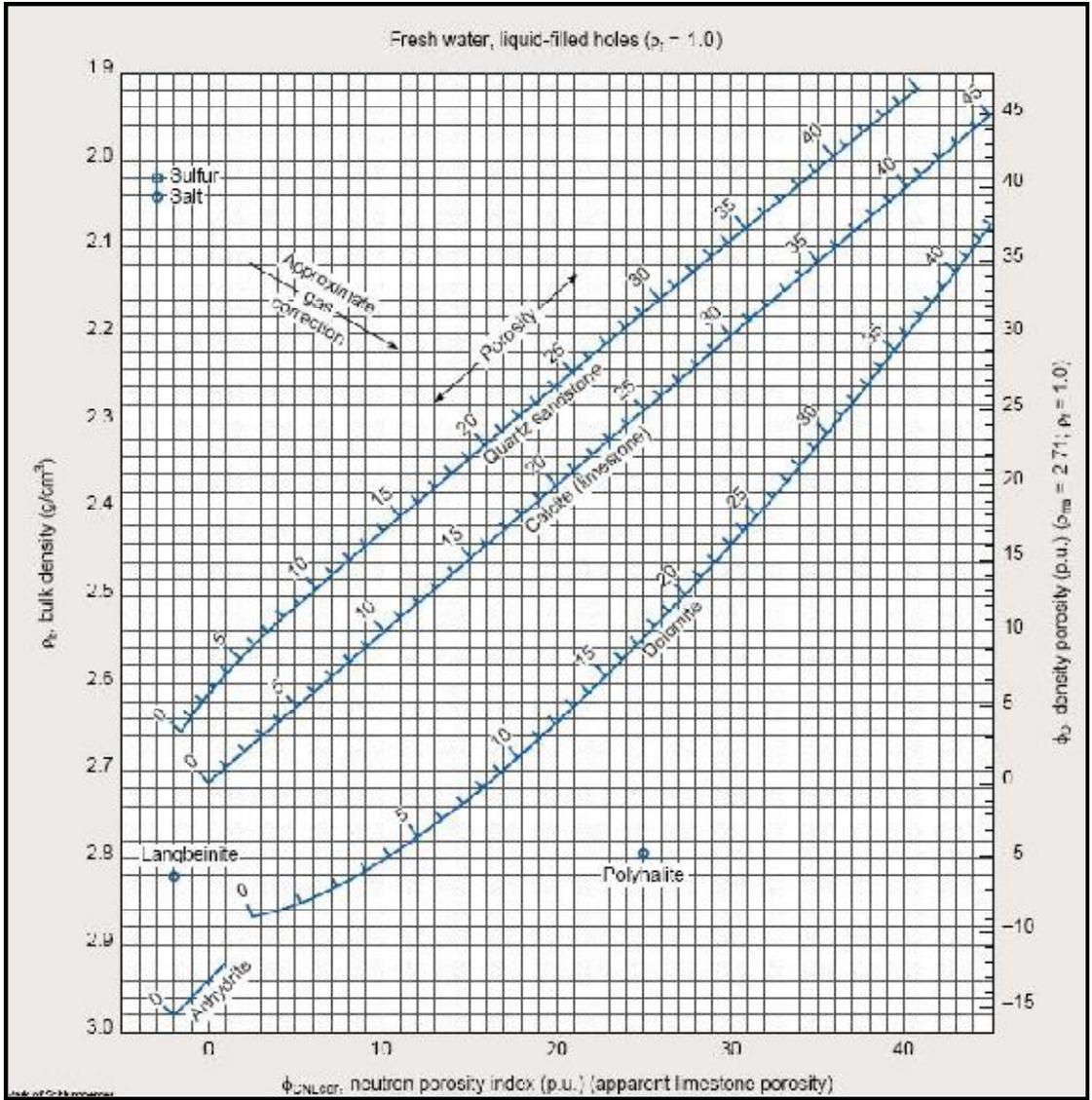


Figure 11. Crossplot for Porosity and Lithology Determination from density log and compensated neutron log (Schlumberger, Log Interpretation Charts, 1988)

4.2.7 Resistivity Log Analysis

For determining the saturations of hydrocarbons within the formations, firstly saturations of water should be calculated. A resistivity of a reservoir is the ability of its constituents to transmit electricity. The tools used for resistivity logging are classified within depth of investigation as follows;

- Deep resistivity tools for uninvaded zones
- Shallow resistivity tools for transition zones
- Microresistivity tools for flushed zones

The most common resistivity tools in use can be classified as;

- Dual Laterolog Tool
- Dual Induction Tool
- Micro Spherically Focused Log
- Microlog

The resistivity of a target with its lithology and fluid (water and hydrocarbon) and in the pores is true resistivity (R_t) of the formation. A porous and a permeable reservoir has always water, even it includes hydrocarbon. The water in the pores of formation before it drilled is the formation water saturation (R_w) of the formation. After a drilling operation, drilling mud penetrates and this influences the vicinity of the wellbore forming different zones with different resistivities. This zonation is shown in Figure 12.

The original water saturation, S_w is only valid for the zones of uninvaded formation. The flushed zone is totally invaded with drilling mud with a resistivity of R_{mf} , and the saturation of this formation is shown as S_{xo} .

A resistivity of a formation which has saturation of 100% with water ($S_w = 1$) can be called as R_o and the resistivity of the water that saturates the formation is R_w , then there is a ratio between them. This ratio is called “formation resistivity factor” or “formation factor” (F).

$$F = \frac{R_o}{R_w} \quad (5)$$

F is generally controlled by porosity and tortuosity. But, the rock tortuosity is very difficult to record. On the basis of laboratory measurements of F and porosity, Archie proposed the following equation in 1949.

$$F = \frac{1}{\phi^m} \quad (6)$$

Where, m is the cementation exponent

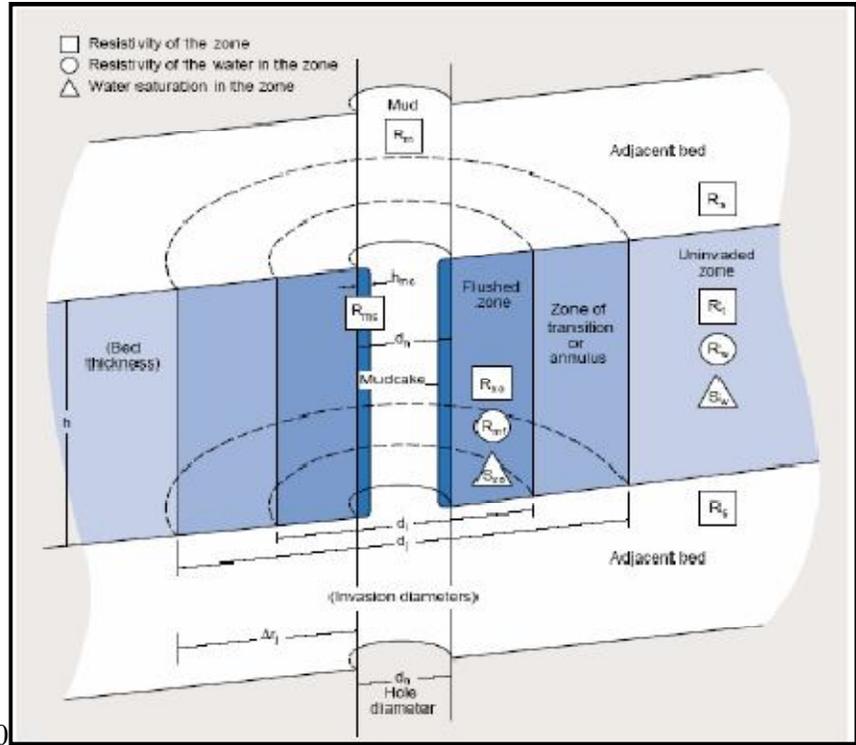


Figure 12. The zones around borehole due to mud invasion (Schlumberger, Log Interpretation Charts, 1988)

Another empirical formula relating F and porosity was also proposed by the results of the experiments conducted by Winsaer in 1952. This equation is in the form of;

$$F = \frac{a}{\phi^m} \quad (7)$$

Where a is the tortuosity constant. The values of a and m vary with pore geometry. The m varies mainly with the degree of consolidation of the rock.

After the calculation of F value, water saturations can be computed by using Archie's Equation as blow;

$$S_w = \sqrt{\frac{R \cdot R_w}{R_t}} \quad (8)$$

R_w is the saturation of water for uninvaded zone, and R_t is the true resistivity of the formation that can be recorded from deep resistivity logs (R-LLD).

Using the same equation, the saturation of water for the flushed zone can also be computed.

$$S_{xo} = \sqrt{\frac{F \cdot R_{mf}}{R_{xo}}} \quad (9)$$

Where R_{mf} is the resistivity of the mud filtrate, and R_{xo} is the resistivity of the flushed zone.

R_{xo} can be obtained by Micro Spherically Focused Log (MSFL). The hydrocarbon saturation in the uninvaded zone, which is the oil saturation (S_o) is then,

$$S_o = 1 - S_w \quad (10)$$

And the hydrocarbon saturation in the flushed zone, which is the residual oil saturation (ROS) is calculated as;

$$ROS = 1 - S_{xo} \quad (11)$$

The difference between the saturations of invaded zone and uninvaded zones result in movable oil saturation (MOS).

$$MOS = S_o - ROS \quad (12)$$

In order to find saturations, R_w should be computed.

4.2.8 Core Data Analysis

The reservoir characterization has to contain core analyses that allow researchers to know the reservoir parameters such as porosity type, porosity distribution, and permeability. All data obtained from the core data analyses have to be checked carefully and comparisons should be made with other available data. For an efficient reservoir characterization, all available data of core analyses, well logging, and production tests have to be taken into consideration. But usually, not all the wells are cored, because coring is an expensive process, so with the available data in hand, the other parameters are tried to be compared with one another and estimations are made.

Three types of core analyses are commonly used; (1) conventional or core plug analysis, (2) whole core analysis, (3) sidewall core analysis (Helander et al., 1983). The most advanced technology of Core Tomography (CT) is also in use for core analysis.

Commonly core plug method is used. A small plug sample is taken from the core and rock properties such as porosity and permeability are checked. If the heterogeneities exist such as fractures and vugs, the core plug analysis is not reliable and whole-core analysis is applied.

In sidewall coring, a sidewall core is cut from the wall of a drilled well. In ACG field, there are a lot of conventional core analyses are available. These analyses include core plug porosities (in %), air and liquid permeabilities (in mD), and grain densities (in g/cc) within related depth intervals.

Firstly the provided core plug data were investigated individually; basic statistics were applied to core data, correlation between the parameters was established.

After a wide study on coreplug data, the measurements were correlated with the results from well logging data to construct estimation models and to understand which parameters are dominant over these models.

4.2.9 Core Plug Porosity Analysis

From the reservoir engineering standpoint, one of the most important rock properties is porosity, a measure of the space available for storage of petroleum hydrocarbon (Amyx et al., 1960). Porosity can be divided into subgroups according to its origin; (1) original primary), (2) induced (secondary). Original porosity is developed in the deposition of the material, and induced porosity is that developed by some geological processes after the deposition of rock (Amyx et al., 1960).

Core plugs commonly do not directly show porosity values that comprise the effects of post depositional events. The methods used for the determination of pore volume and bulk volume are unsatisfactory, because drainage may occur from larger pores (Amyx et al, 1960). It is better to use larger and longer core samples, as in whole core analysis, to estimate the bulk volume. However, this is not always feasible, so the results gained from the core plug should be relied on.

The mean values of the core plug porosity for each wells is shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Average porosity (%) values for the wells (Pereriv B)

GCA1	GCA4	GCA5	C-01	D-01Z
19	16	15	14	19

4.3 Core Plug Permeability Analysis

The ability of the formation to conduct fluids is known as permeability. The measurement of permeability is a measure of the fluid conductivity of the particular material (Amyx et al., 1960).

Darcy's equation is used to define fluid flow in porous media.

$$k = \frac{Q}{A} \cdot \frac{\mu L}{\Delta P} \quad (13)$$

Where, Q is the flow rate in (cc/sec), A is the cross-sectional area in (cm²), L is the length (cm), ΔP pressure difference in (atm), and μ is viscosity of the fluid in (cp).

Permeability measurements need to be held in care in order to acquire reliable results that represent the reservoir. Permeability can be identified by means of liquid permeability tests or gas permeability tests. In each case, the determined permeability is called as liquid permeability and air permeability(if air is used). If liquid is used, the fluid should not react with the solids in the core sample. As gas is used, gas slippage can be seen, known as Klinkenberg effect. As an example of reaction that can be seen between fluids and solids may be given as clay swelling in the presence of water.

It must also be kept in mind that, when the core is taken out from the reservoir, all of the confining pressures which attribute to overburden pressures are removed. Compaction of the core due to overburden pressure may cause as much as a 60 percent reduction in the permeability of various formations (Amyx et al, 1960).

For ACG field, air and liquid permeability values are available for Pereriv B formation. Average values of permeability are given in table 6.

Table 6. Mean permeability values with mD

GCA1	GCA4	GCA5	GCA6	C-01	D-01Z
224	683	452	200	176	351

CHAPTER 5

GEOSTATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Dataset

9 wells A08Z, C01, D01Z, GCA1, GCA2, GCA4, GCA5, GCA6, and B01ST1 were available for the geostatistical reservoir characterization of Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli field.

The simple conventional well logging was used for obtaining better understanding of reservoir parameters. Conventional well logs such as GR, Caliper, Density, Neutron, Sonic, and Resistivity have been run in almost all wells available for this study. Table 7 is a simple example of well (GCA1) log data showing all available digitized well log data for only small vertical section.

Table 7. Well log of GCA1 well

DEPTH M	DEN G/C3	CALI IN	GR GAPI	NEU V/V	RESDEP OHMM	SON US/F
2764.7	2.47929	8.193	51.204	0.2083	9.6955	99.16
2764.8	2.46049	8.189	49.9433	0.2075	10.6752	100.225
2764.9	2.4428	8.1853	49.3523	0.2101	11.697	101.251
2765	2.42602	8.182	49.431	0.2161	12.7418	102.238
2765.1	2.40865	8.18	48.7863	0.2203	14.1103	103.397
2765.2	2.38987	8.179	47.288	0.2238	15.7359	104.593
2765.3	2.36979	8.179	44.936	0.2266	17.5222	105.828
2765.4	2.35375	8.1817	42.1407	0.225	19.6311	106.803
2765.5	2.34244	8.185	40.0613	0.2216	22.0109	107.557
2765.6	2.33574	8.189	38.698	0.2164	24.6603	108.091
2765.7	2.33576	8.1917	39.1053	0.2184	28.0487	108.316
2765.8	2.33647	8.193	40.0173	0.2225	31.5392	108.489
2765.9	2.33778	8.193	41.434	0.2287	34.9493	108.609
2766	2.33707	8.193	43.008	0.2337	37.4216	108.637
2766.1	2.33477	8.1933	44.0723	0.2376	39.5032	108.612
2766.2	2.33075	8.194	44.627	0.2402	41.1345	108.534
2766.3	2.32202	8.1933	43.0197	0.2435	42.4011	108.489
2766.4	2.31237	8.192	40.5277	0.2469	44.2208	108.577
2766.5	2.30162	8.19	37.151	0.2504	46.4597	108.798
2766.6	2.29359	8.19	34.131	0.2456	51.8172	109.361
2766.7	2.28827	8.191	31.952	0.2398	59.0138	109.98
2766.8	2.28557	8.193	30.614	0.2331	67.6841	110.654
2766.9	2.28156	8.1937	30.29	0.2308	76.3316	111.154
2767	2.27484	8.1943	29.8013	0.229	82.3606	111.57
2767.1	2.27023	8.1947	29.4747	0.2283	83.9932	111.736
2767.2	2.26049	8.1957	28.674	0.2283	84.2625	112.085
2767.3	2.25046	8.197	27.726	0.2296	81.5197	112.452
2767.4	2.24645	8.197	26.9173	0.2334	77.0781	112.88

Table 7 is a well log for 3 meter vertical section. First column is showing depth and log data values are available per 0.1 meters. Based on these available log data petrophysical parameters and lithology identification have been performed for 0.1 meter increment.

However, in Pereriv D C01 well is completely absent for this study. Moreover, GCA4 well has no density log for Pereriv D section.

Conventional cores have also been taken from some of the wells in order to integrate well log with core plug data to have a reliable reservoir description. Among nine wells mentioned above only 7 of them have core data. These data set includes permeability of air, pore throat size, calculated microporosity including fractures, calculated microporosity excluding fractures, HG porosity, 400 PSI porosity and permeability. Table 8 is an example which includes all of these data for GCA 1 well.

Table 8. Core data for GCA1 well

Depth (dd, RKB, m)	Total Macroporosity (excl.Fracture)	K _{air} (mD)	r ₃₅	k/phi	Calculated Microporosity	Hg Porosity (%)	400 PSI Porosity (%)
2664.32	5.2	0	0.1	0	10.2	13	10.1
2671.09	4.2	11.36	1.79	2.6	17.1	22	20.8
2682.39	0	860.08	6.37		10.5	27.6	27.4
2685.34	11.5	82.69	0	7.2	16.91	10	16.9
2687.33	9.1	508.1	2.98	55.9	14.8	19.7	21.3
2698.31	4.3	0.33	0.32	0.1	6	14	6.1
2708.31	0.5	163.84	5.87	327.7	12.5	25.8	23.9
2710.43	16.5	109.9	3.25	6.7	15.9	22.4	21.1
2770.43	0	236.03	5.87		13.5	24.5	23.1
2775.33	9.5	37.1	2.53	3.9	8.8	21.9	20.8
2780.56	3.8	520.7	0	134.9	7.2	28	25.5
2785.1	7.7	919.5	27.8	118.3	2.7	31.8	24.1
2788.35	17	20.38	3.85	1.2	8.4	16.1	23.3
2792.3	trace	11.55	2.12		8.4	17.4	14.5
2798.35	5.6	487.99	18.6	86.1	9.4	33.2	23.9
2803.3	trace	121.17	4.19		11.4	22	21.7
2808.52	3.3	318.96	8.18	94.1	5.5	21.4	22.2
2819.36	11.1	184.83	5.39	16.6	9.7	25.2	22.1
2823.31	5.2	147.3	5.39	28.2	14.5	26.6	24.1
2829.63	8.6	0	8.18	0	nm	25	
2833.61	11.5	119.37	2.3	10.4	17.8	22.7	26.4
2838.34	16	0.47	0.54	0.1	11.6		15.1
2848.36	18.1	17.05	0.42	1	10.9	14.8	11.4

Because of the problems and difficulties of core taking, scale of the core examples are inconsistent. In some points even some of the parameters were not able to estimate.

5.2 Histogram Analysis

Histograms are used to simply show the distribution of a quantitative variable by its relative frequency of data points in an interval. The histogram function in SPSS gives the option of overlaying a normal curve. If there is a strong deviation from the normal distribution or if the distribution mean is off-set far from 0, then this might tell you something about possible problems with the data (e.g. measurement or calculation errors might lead to a non-normal distribution) or also show severe nutrition problems in the population. Histograms are most useful for continuous data to see if the distribution is normal and whether there is adequate data cleaning. Also, histograms are useful for determining arbitrary cut-points for creating categories from continuous

data. By using SPSS, porosity (core and density porosity) histogram plots have been plotted for Pereriv B and Pereriv D. Main aim was to compare core and log porosities.

Figure 12 is a histogram chart of GCA1 well. The wells have both core and well log porosities. And the vertical interval selected to construct histogram chart was the same as the core interval.

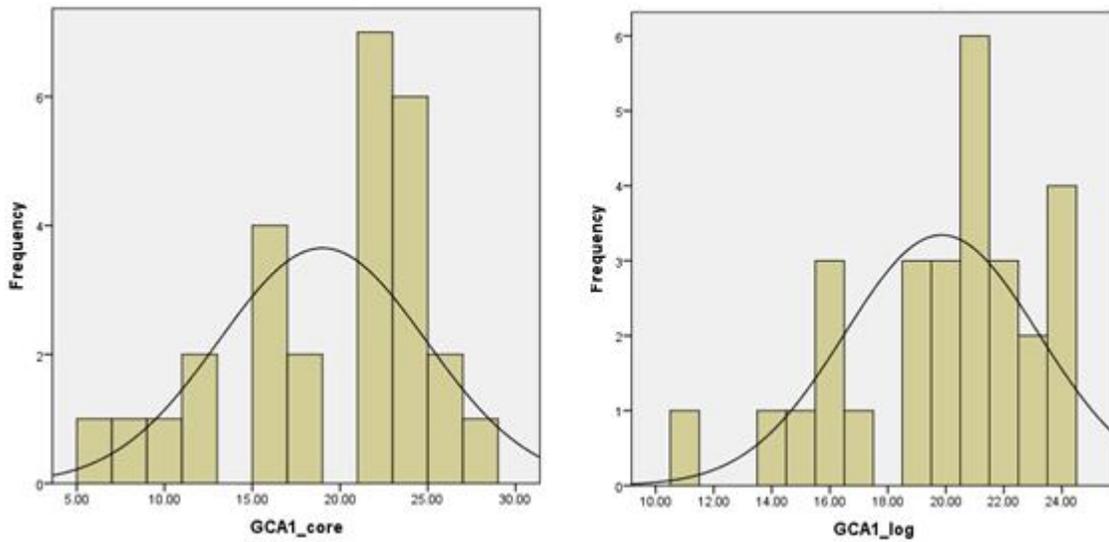


Figure 13. Histogram chart of porosity from well log and core in GCA1 well

Figure 13 shows that there is some similarity between core and log porosity in GCA1 well. Because of lack data in the core analysis it is not very identical.

Figure 14 is another example of GCA4 well's core and log porosity histogram chart. Generally small interval was cored and that interval was selected for this analysis. Therefore, almost in all charts histograms do not fit to normal curve.

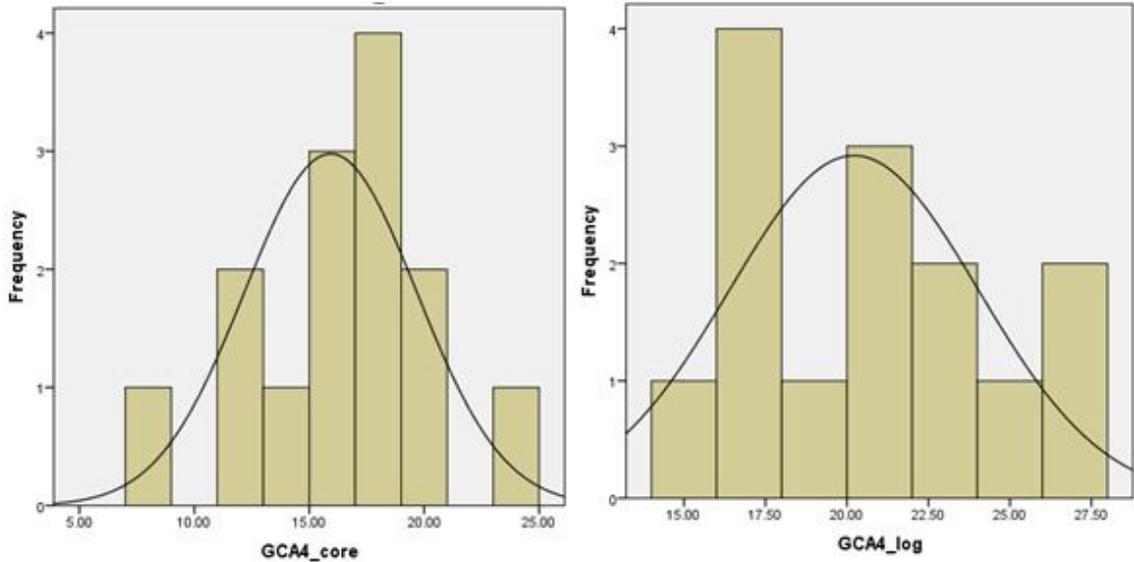


Figure 14. Histogram chart of porosity from well log and core in GCA4 well

Figure 14 shows two different porosity distributions. Log porosity distribution is slightly negatively skewed. Unlike it core porosity is normal distributed but there are still some gaps which make it to be unfit to normal curve.

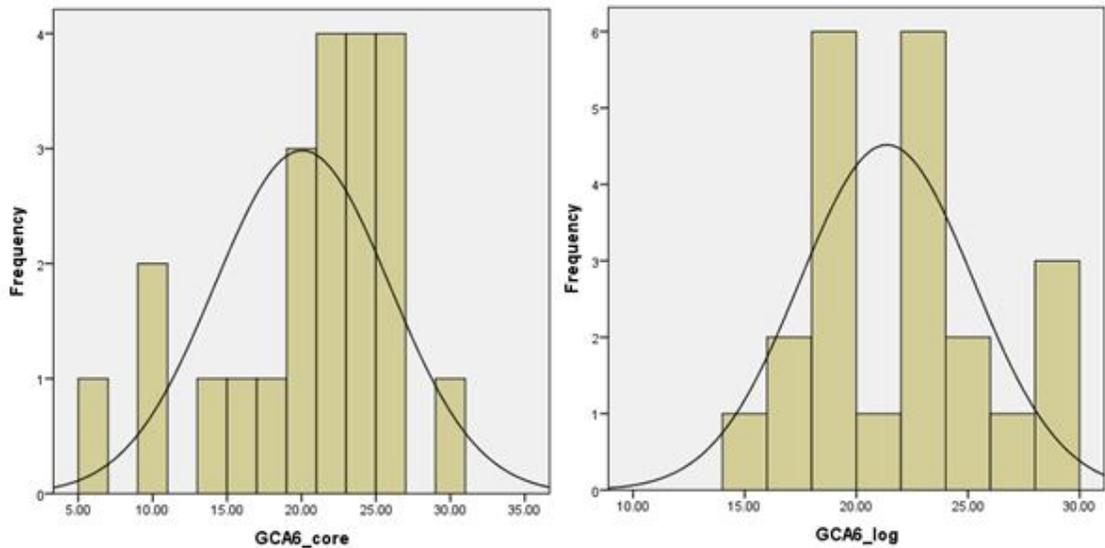


Figure 15. Histogram chart of porosity from well log and core in GCA6 well.

In GCA6 core and well log porosity distribution is also different. It may be explained by the insufficient data. However, normal curves for GCA6 well are the same.

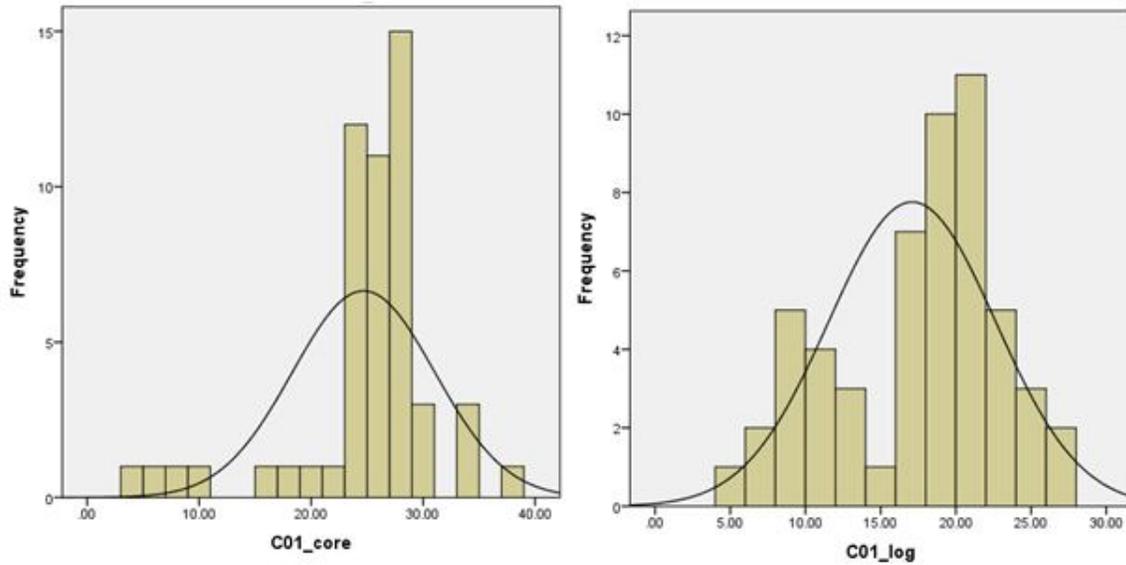


Figure 16. Histogram chart of porosity from well log and core in C01 well.

Figure 16 is another example of comparison of histogram charts for C01. As it can be noticed in the figure core porosity is not enough to make clear similarities. On the other hand pattern of the normal curve frequencies is slightly identical.

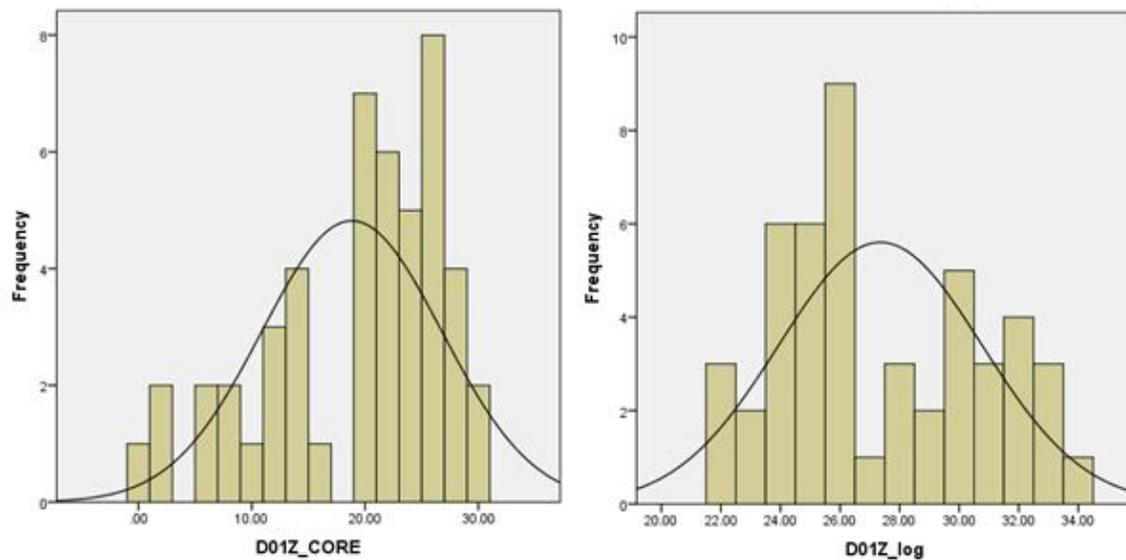


Figure 17. Histogram chart of porosity from well log and core in D01Z well.

In last example (Figure 17) log porosity does not fit to normal curve distribution. However, small porosity values in core example fit to normal curve.

Furthermore, it was mentioned in previous chapter that in Pereriv D there was no core data for this study. Therefore, well logs have been used in characterization of the reservoir. Also same histogram analysis was performed on Pereriv D based on well log data. The similar results have been obtained. Moreover, frequencies of density porosities of both formations have been compared by correlation coefficient and it was realized that they are related. Table 9 is frequency table of density porosity for Pereriv B and D. And again SPSS has been used in calculation of density log porosity frequencies.

Table 9. Correlation coefficients between Pereriv B and D in A08Z and GCA6

A08Z			GCA6		
Porosity	Fre PerB	Fre PerD	Porosity	Fre PerB	Fre PerD
0	1	1	2	0	1
1	3	2	3	0	1
2	8	2	4	0	1
3	10	3	5	0	0
4	8	12	6	0	4
5	12	19	7	2	2
6	16	32	8	2	5
7	13	24	9	2	3
8	21	21	10	5	2
9	16	25	11	2	1
10	28	34	12	6	3
11	37	31	13	4	9
12	54	26	14	8	10
13	52	31	15	21	10
14	67	25	16	16	18
15	67	18	17	33	26
16	57	23	18	36	19
17	54	14	19	54	15
18	60	14	20	58	6
19	50	6	21	23	2
20	33	0	22	15	0
21	43	0	23	7	0
22	24	0	24	1	0
23	4	0			
	Corr coef	0.428297		Corr coef	0.598039

In Table 9 correlation coefficients of Pereriv B and Pereriv D are 0.42 and 0.59 which is not very high. Here it is worthy to mention that In Pereriv B the vertical section which is chosen for correlation with Pereriv D corresponds to flow unit. Therefore similarity of these two sections can mean possible flow unit in Pereriv D. In Table 10 the same correlation of Pereriv B and Pereriv D is shown for another well.

Table 10. Correlation coefficient between Pereriv B and D in B01ST1

B01ST1		
Porosity	Fre PerB	Fre PerD
8	3	0
9	4	0
10	2	5
11	2	5
12	1	4
13	1	1
14	2	4
15	1	10
16	5	5
17	3	6
18	4	9
19	9	8
20	10	13
21	14	20
22	14	14
23	29	20
24	13	31
25	38	44
26	34	44
27	52	15
28	41	12
29	40	0
30	34	0
31	53	0
32	24	0
33	17	0
34	5	0
Corr coef	0.30444072	

Again B01ST1 well shows low correlation coefficient meaning that the two formations in B01ST1 well are not related to each other. However, in next tables correlation coefficients of Pereriv B and Pereriv D in GCA1, GCA2, and D01Z wells are high enough. In GCA1 well it is 0.89 which can be considered very good correlation between Pereriv B and Pereriv D. Therefore, it can be concluded that in this two formations porosity is controlling by the same parameters which is very similar. On the other hand in GCA2 well correlation coefficient of Pereriv B and Pereriv D based on porosity value 0.85 which is slightly lower than GCA1 well but still it is high enough to consider it identical.

As shown in Table 11 D01Z well has also high correlation coefficient 0.81. Generally last three wells mentioned in Table 11 has the highest correlation coefficients among other wells.

Table 11. Correlation coefficients between Pereriv B and D in GCA1, GCA2 and D01Z

GCA1			GCA2			D01Z		
Porosity	Fre PerB	Fre PerD	Porosity	Fre PerB	Fre PerD	Porosity	Fre PerB	Fre PerD
9	5	0	12	1	3	13	1	0
10	4	4	13	8	4	15	3	0
11	3	6	14	8	3	16	2	0
12	5	5	15	8	8	17	5	2
13	5	3	16	14	6	18	6	2
14	11	3	17	14	4	19	4	1
15	12	13	18	26	9	20	7	2
16	23	27	19	31	7	21	10	6
17	47	27	20	51	6	22	17	6
18	53	30	21	66	8	23	27	14
19	90	60	22	93	31	24	20	1
20	89	43	23	94	53	25	5	2
21	45	53	24	91	45	26	3	0
22	5	16	25	39	35	27	4	0
	Corr coef	0.892644	26	6	8		Corr coef	0.815897
			28	3	0			
			30	3	0			
			31	4	0			
			32	2	0			
			34	1	0			
			35	1	0			
			36	1	0			
				Corr coef	0.853768			

Moreover, GCA5 is another well which has also high correlation between Pereriv B and Pereriv D. Table 12 is a frequency table showing this correlation. In this table we have 22 porosity values which are encountered both in Pereriv B and Pereriv D. And correlation coefficient between them is 0.71.

Table 12. Correlation coefficients between Pereriv B and D in GCA5 well

GCA5		
Porosity	Fre PerB	Fre PerD
5	1	0
6	2	3
7	1	5
8	2	8
9	6	5
10	22	6
11	14	6
12	14	8
13	15	6
14	10	19
15	13	28
16	21	10
17	34	25
18	34	19
19	42	29
20	74	52
21	71	47
22	66	38
23	54	7
24	53	0
25	30	0
26	2	0
	Corr coef	0.707077

Based on the histogram analysis these tables have been constructed and correlation coefficients have been found between Pereriv B and Pereriv D. And the vertical section for this study chosen in Pereriv B was flow zone and therefore, high correlation coefficient may indicate flow unit zonation in Pereriv D. Except A08Z and B01ST1 wells other wells showed high correlation.

5.2 Principal Component Analysis

Principal Component Analysis or simply PCA is considered for the relationship of the variables in the data matrix. In a geometrical point of view, relationship of two variables can be illustrated in x-y plot of Figure 18 where a marked tendency can be noticed for big values of x to be related to big values of y. If x and y are standardized variables, this tendency may be measured by the mean value of the product $x \bullet y$ of the standardized values. As before to get away from the errors or for desk calculator use, the value is estimated from the raw data, and a more complex equation is used, in which the covariance, or average cross-product of the deviations from the means of the two variables,, is divided by the product of their standard deviations. The result, in either case, is the correlation coefficient between x and y, for which the symbol r is often used. With one correlation coefficient between each pair of the variables, a data matrix of n variates gives rise to an n x n matrix of correlation coefficient, sometimes termed the matrix. Because the

correlation between x and y is the same as that between y and x, the r matrix has the same values above and below the main diagonal.

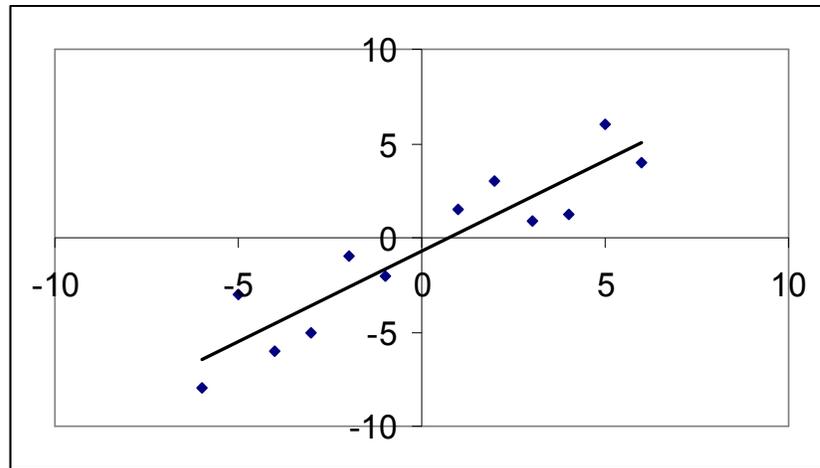


Figure 18. x and y plot of distribution

The main idea of this method is to form, from a set of existing variables, a new variable (or new variables, but as few as possible) that contain as much variability of the original data as possible. This is a method of data reduction; we reduce the number of variables in order to handle data more easily. In most cases we wish to get only one dimension (variable) that contains most of the variability of the original data. This variable represents some sort of index of a certain property that is measured by the original variables.

Principal components analysis is a method of data reduction. Suppose that you have a dozen variables that are correlated. You might use principal components analysis to reduce your 12 measures to a few principal components. In this example, you may be most interested in obtaining the component scores (which are variables that are added to your data set) and/or to look at the dimensionality of the data. For example, if two components are extracted and those two components accounted for 68% of the total variance, then we would say that two dimensions in the component space account for 68% of the variance. Principal components analysis, like factor analysis, can be performed on raw data, as shown in this example, or on a correlation or a covariance matrix. If raw data are used, the procedure will create the original correlation matrix or covariance matrix, as specified by the user. If the correlation matrix is used, the variables are standardized and the total variance will equal the number of variables used in the analysis (because each standardized variable has a variance equal to 1). If the covariance matrix is used, the variables will remain in their original metric. However, one must take care to use variables whose variances and scales are similar.

There are several softwares that can utilize PCA. In our research SPSS have been used and many options were included. All 9 wells of Pereriv B and Pereriv D and their density porosity values are used as an input for SPSS and the results are shown below.

Table 13 is output because we used the univariate option. Also note that the values shown in the table are the mean, standard deviation and sample size of porosity which has been derived from porosity logging

Table 13. Descriptive statistics of density porosity for the wells

Descriptive Statistics			
Wells	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
GCA1	38.5	3.5	113
GCA2	29.5	1.1	113
GCA4	23.7	1.2	113
GCA5	32.1	2.9	113
GCA6	24.5	2.4	113
C01	28.3	5.9	113
D01Z	30.7	1.9	113
B01ST1	40.1	2.6	113
A08Z	17.5	2.4	113

Table 14 is a correlation table showing the correlations between the original variables

Table 14. Correlation matrix of the components

		Correlation Matrix						
		GCA1	GCA2	GCA4	GCA5	GCA6	C01	D01Z
Correlation	GCA1	1.000	.385	-.221	.398	-.146	.105	.195
	GCA2	.385	1.000	-.072	.246	-.232	.003	.271
	GCA4	-.221	-.072	1.000	.006	-.028	.467	-.133
	GCA5	.398	.246	.006	1.000	-.182	.264	.114
	GCA6	-.146	-.232	-.028	-.182	1.000	-.070	-.037
	C01	.105	.003	.467	.264	-.070	1.000	-.111
	D01Z	.195	.271	-.133	.114	-.037	-.111	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	B01ST1	.104	.023	-.038	-.030	-.081	.041	-.037
	A08Z	-.188	.070	-.289	-.191	.036	-.458	.140
	GCA1		.000	.009	.000	.062	.133	.019
	GCA2	.000		.223	.004	.007	.486	.002
	GCA4	.009	.223		.473	.384	.000	.079
	GCA5	.000	.004	.473		.027	.002	.115
	GCA6	.062	.007	.384	.027		.230	.348
	C01	.133	.486	.000	.002	.230		.120
	D01Z	.019	.002	.079	.115	.348	.120	
	B01ST1	.137	.404	.344	.375	.198	.332	.347
A08Z	.023	.232	.001	.021	.353	.000	.070	

Table 15 shows Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity - This measure varies between 0 and 1, and values closer to 1 are better.

Table 15. KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.629
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	143.331
	df	36
	Sig.	.000

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. An identity matrix is matrix in which all of the diagonal elements are 1 and all off diagonal elements are 0. You want to reject this null hypothesis. Taken together, these tests provide a minimum standard which should be passed before a principal components analysis (or a factor analysis) should be conducted.

Table 16.Communalities

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
GCA1	1.000	.633
GCA2	1.000	.531
GCA4	1.000	.633
GCA5	1.000	.531
GCA6	1.000	.196
C01	1.000	.714
D01Z	1.000	.406
B01ST1	1.000	.778
A08Z	1.000	.606

Communalities - This is the proportion of each variable's variance that can be explained by the principal components. Initial - By definition, the initial value of the communality in principal components analysis is 1. Extraction - The values in this column indicate the proportion of each variable's variance that can be explained by the principal components. Variables with high values are well represented in the common factor space, while variables with low values are not well represented. They are the reproduced variances from the number of components that you have saved. You can find these values on the diagonal of the reproduced correlation matrix.

Table 17. Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.052	22.801	22.801	2.052	22.801	22.801
2	1.896	21.063	43.864	1.896	21.063	43.864
3	1.081	12.013	55.878	1.081	12.013	55.878
4	.968	10.758	66.635			
5	.861	9.571	76.207			
6	.669	7.429	83.636			
7	.608	6.754	90.390			
8	.457	5.079	95.468			
9	.408	4.532	100.000			

In Table 17 several options have been illustrated. Component - There are as many components extracted during a principal components analysis as there are variables that are put into it. In our example, we used 9 variables so we have 9 components. Initial Eigenvalues - Eigenvalues are the variances of the principal components. Because we conducted our principal components analysis on the correlation matrix, the variables are standardized, which means that the each variable has a variance of 1, and the total variance is equal to the number of variables used in the analysis, in this case, 9. Total - This column contains the eigenvalues. The first component will always account for the most variance (and hence have the highest eigenvalue), and the next component will account for as much of the left over variance as it can, and so on. Hence, each successive component will account for less and less variance. % of Variance - This column contains the percent of variance accounted for by each principal component. Cumulative % - This column contains the cumulative percentage of variance accounted for by the current and all preceding principal components. For example, the third row shows a value of 68.313. This means that the first three components together account for 55.878% of the total variance. Cumulative % - This column contains the cumulative percentage of variance accounted for by the current and all preceding principal components. For example, the third row shows a value of 68.313. This means that the first three components together account for 68.313% of the total variance.

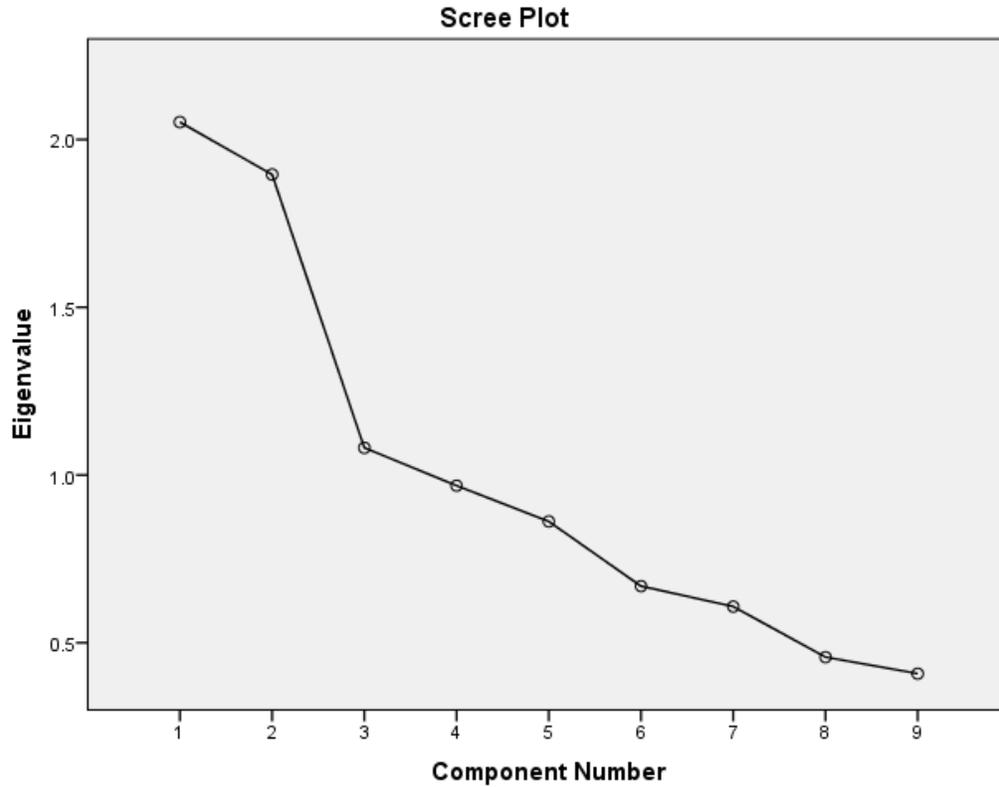


Figure 19. Scree plot of principal components

The scree plot (Figure 18) graphs the eigenvalue against the component number. You can see these values in the first two columns of the table immediately above. From the third component on, you can see that the line is almost flat, meaning the each successive component is accounting for smaller and smaller amounts of the total variance. In general, we are interested in keeping only those principal components whose eigenvalues are greater than 1. Components with an eigenvalue of less than 1 account for less variance than did the original variable (which had a variance of 1), and so are of little use. Hence, you can see that the point of principal components analysis is to redistribute the variance in the correlation matrix (using the method of eigenvalue decomposition) to redistribute the variance to first components extracted.

Table 18. Component matrix

	Component Matrix		
	Component		
	1	2	3
GCA5	.690	.157	.174
GCA1	.646	.435	-.164
C01	.600	-.579	.138
A08Z	-.549	.516	.196
GCA6	-.398	-.173	.089
GCA4	.238	-.691	.315
D01Z	.159	.539	.300
GCA2	.479	.531	.139
B01ST1	.165	-.023	-.866

Component Matrix - This table contains component loadings, which are the correlations between the variable and the component. Because these are correlations, possible values range from -1 to +1. On the /format subcommand, we used the option blank (.30), which tells SPSS not to print any of the correlations that are .3 or less. This makes the output easier to read by removing the clutter of low correlations that are probably not meaningful anyway. Component - The columns under this heading are the principal components that have been extracted. As you can see by the footnote provided by SPSS, three components were extracted (the two components that had an eigenvalue greater than 1). You usually do not try to interpret the components the way that you would factors analysis that have been extracted from a factor analysis. Rather, most people are interested in the component scores, which are used for data reduction (as opposed to factor analysis where you are looking for underlying latent continua). You can save the component scores to your data set for use in other analyses using the /save subcommand.

Table 19 contains two tables, the reproduced correlations in the top part of the table, and the residuals in the bottom part of the table. Reproduced Correlation - The reproduced correlation matrix is the correlation matrix based on the extracted components. You want the values in the reproduced matrix to be as close to the values in the original correlation matrix as possible. This means that you want the residual matrix, which contains the differences between the original and the reproduced matrix, to be close to zero.

Table 19. Reproduced correlations of principal components

		Reproduced Correlations					
		GCA1	GCA2	GCA4	GCA5	GCA6	C01
Reproduced Correlation	GCA1	.633 ^a	.518	-.199	.486	-.347	.113
	GCA2	.518	.531 ^a	-.209	.438	-.270	-.001
	GCA4	-.199	-.209	.633 ^a	.110	.053	.586
	GCA5	.486	.438	.110	.531 ^a	-.286	.347
	GCA6	-.347	-.270	.053	-.286	.196 ^a	-.126
	C01	.113	-.001	.586	.347	-.126	.714 ^a
	D01Z	.288	.404	-.240	.247	-.130	-.175
Residual	B01S	.239	-.054	-.218	-.040	-.138	-.007
	T1						
	A08Z	-.163	.038	-.426	-.264	.147	-.601
	GCA1		-.133	-.022	-.088	.201	-.008
	GCA2	-.133		.137	-.192	.038	.004
	GCA4	-.022	.137		-.103	-.081	-.119
	GCA5	-.088	-.192	-.103		.104	-.082
	GCA6	.201	.038	-.081	.104		.056
	C01	-.008	.004	-.119	-.082	.056	
	D01Z	-.093	-.134	.107	-.133	.093	.063
	B01S	-.135	.077	.179	.010	.058	.048
T1							
A08Z	-.026	.032	.136	.072	-.111	.144	

If the reproduced matrix is very similar to the original correlation matrix, then you know that the components that were extracted accounted for a great deal of the variance in the original correlation matrix, and these few components do a good job of representing the original data. The numbers on the diagonal of the reproduced correlation matrix are presented in the Communalities table in the column labeled Extracted. Residual - As noted in the first footnote provided by SPSS (a.), the values in this part of the table represent the differences between original correlations (shown in the correlation table at the beginning of the output) and the reproduced correlations, which are shown in the top part of this table.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

As it is already mentioned that the sedimentary environment in the region was fluvio-deltaic which lead deposition of clastic sediments. Therefore, usually we see sandstone and shale alteration in the wells which have been drilled. From the core data it is obtained that Pereriv B consists of sandstone and thin shale beddings. Moreover, from the GR log Vshale has been estimated. And the result is plotted versus depth. Figure 20 shows the volume of shale in all 9 wells drilled to Pereriv B. In the figure wells are aligned from NW to SE

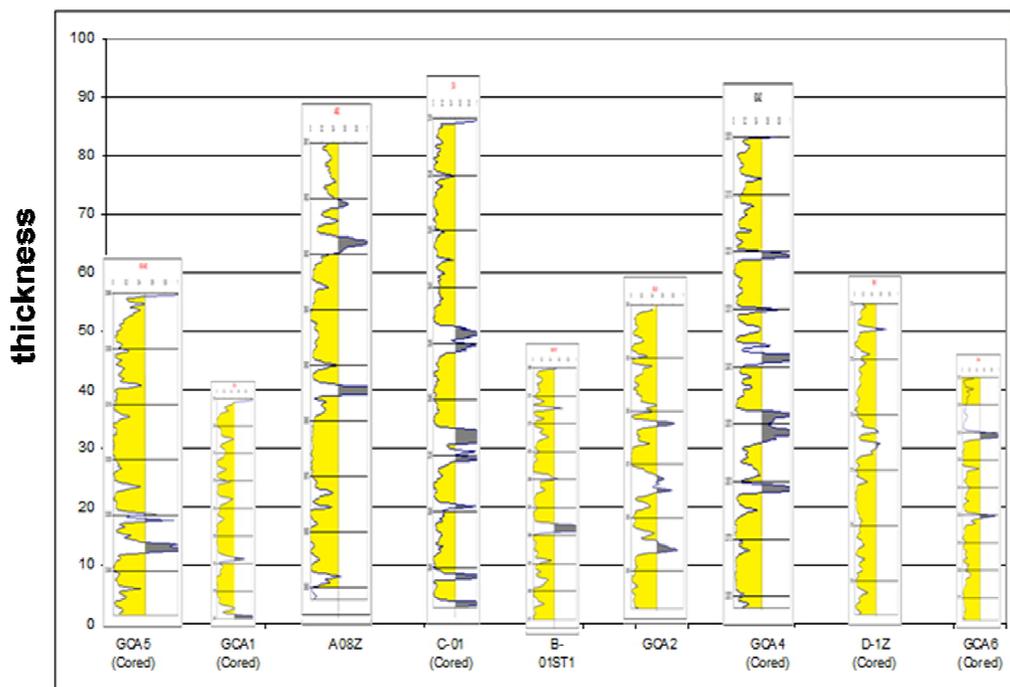


Figure 20. Volume of shale versus depth. Yellow parts indicates clean sandstone, grey parts indicates shale

As mentioned in previous chapters, 9 wells are available for this study. In all 9 wells well logs have been run and some of them have been cored. The interpretation of well log, core data and summary of statistical analysis shows that there is a separation in Pereriv B formation. This separation was observed by the dramatically increase in permeability and pore throat size. Moreover, porosity value is also getting high in this zone. Figure 20 is one example of showing

this separation. Upper part of the section exhibit distinct pattern and indicates our determined flow unit. Therefore, it can be thought that this zone of same flow characteristics can comprise same flow unit. Also, this zone which is characterized by the high porosity, permeability and pore throat size are observable in all wells.

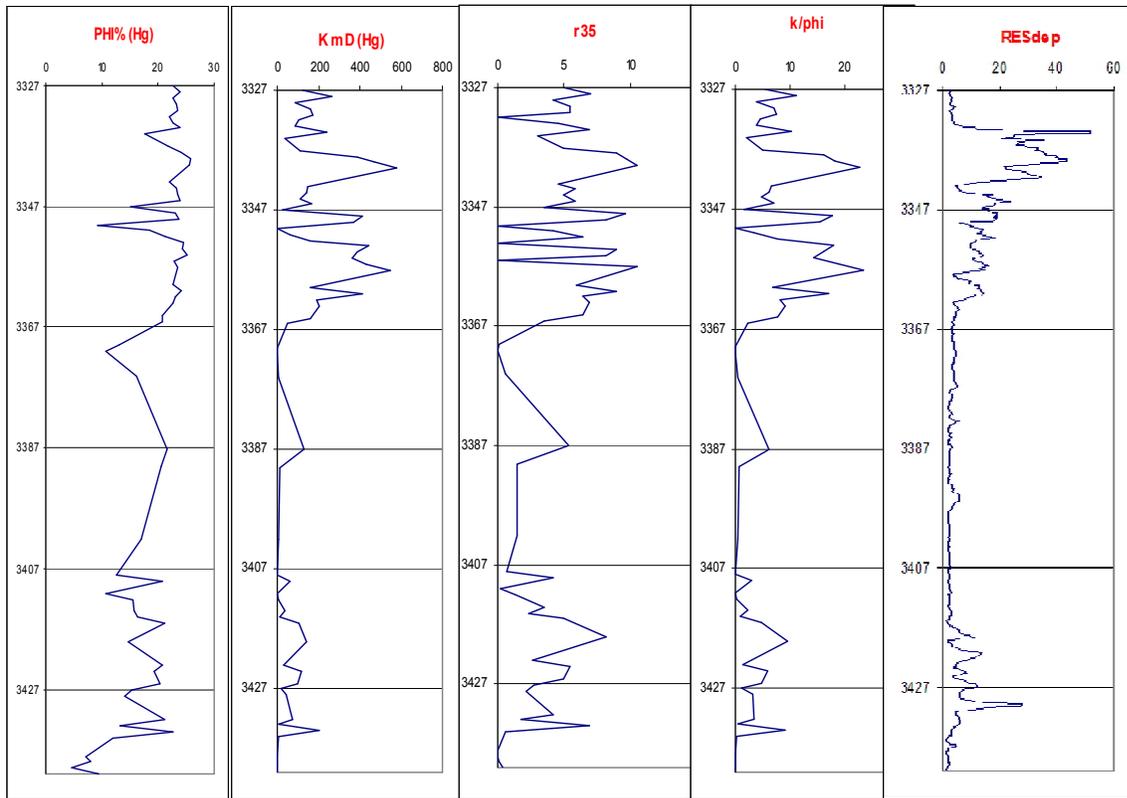


Figure 21. Porosity permeability, ratio of them and r35 values with depth. Well GCA6, Pereriv B

The core plug analysis, port-size study, and the k/ϕ analysis showed that the data samples clustered around this unit.

Furthermore, statistical methods have been also utilized to find a relationship between Pereriv B and Pereriv D. First of all histogram analysis has been applied and porosity frequency plots have been constructed. General tendency of the porosity histograms are very close to normal distribution. Figure 21 is an example of histogram chart of A08Z which is very similar to normal distribution.

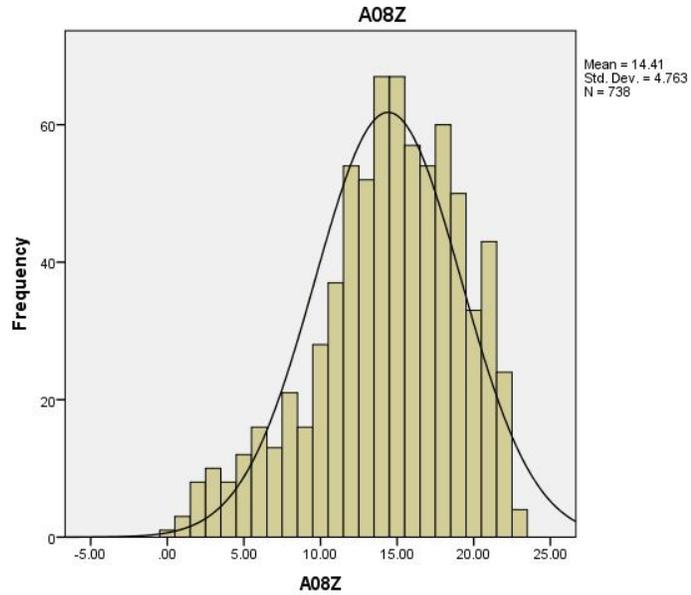


Figure 22. Histogram chart of porosity. Well A08Z

Moreover, the same type of histogram charts were constructed for Pereriv D. Also frequencies of porosity both for Pereriv B and Pereriv D were correlated and the result gave a very high number of correlation coefficient. This can also be concluded as that there is a relationship of Pereriv B and Pereriv D. Also It was obtained that the mean value of porosity in Pereriv B for A08Z well is 14 and standard deviation is 4.7.

Principal Component Analysis also performed to get a better understanding of the relationship between porosities of two reservoir formation. The results of the PCA have been also stated in previous chapter. The results of PCA separated two components and based on these two components scatter plots were constructed. Figure 22 is a scatter plot of PCA results of Pereriv B and Pereriv D.

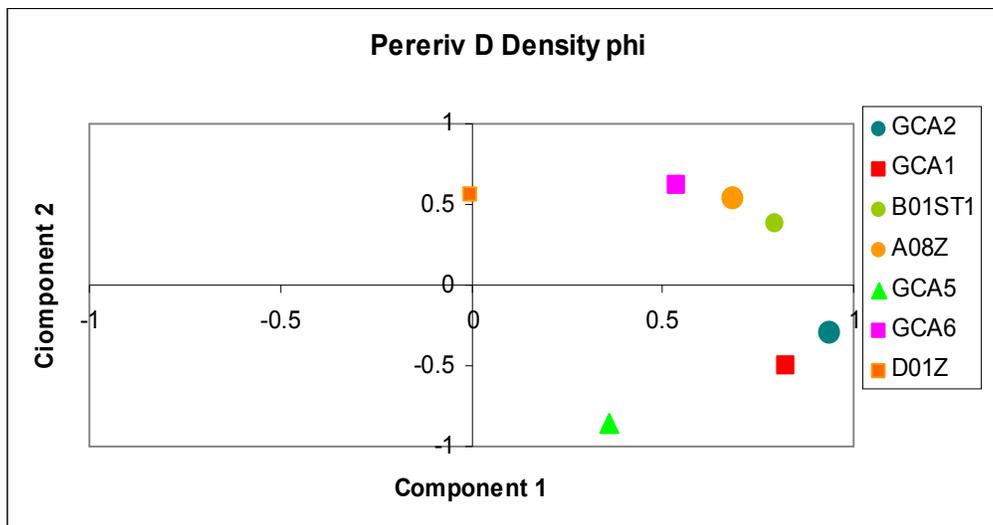
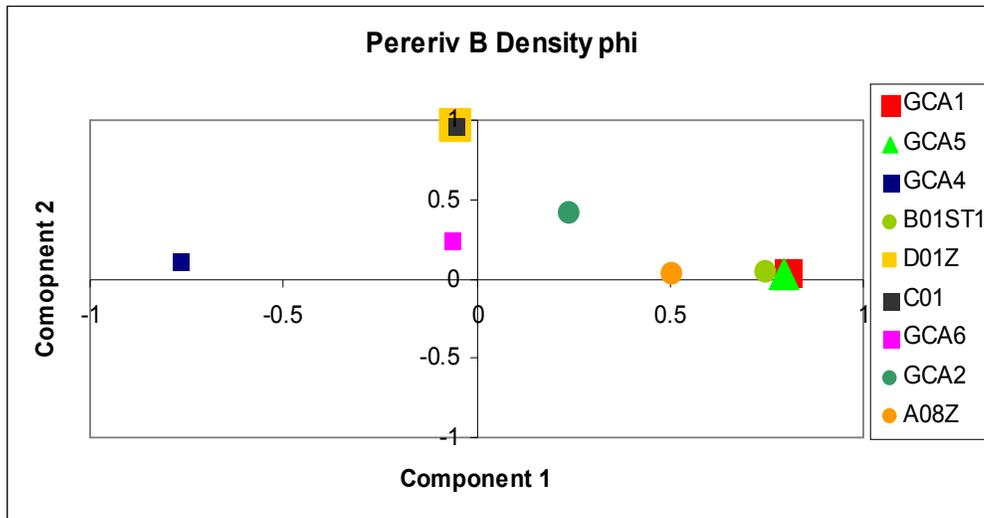


Figure 23. Scatter plots of PCA results

Interpretation of the scatter plots showed that porosity is controlled by two factors which could not be identified during our study. In Pereriv B, scatter plots of PCA results indicates that there is no negative effect of second component. Moreover, because of the effect of first component several cluster groups can be distinguished. Also there is a well GCA4 which is completely different from other groups. The reason that can explain this abnormality is that in this well Pereriv B is extremely thick (86 meters) but the thickness for PCA which has been selected is only 11 meters. On the other hand, in Pereriv D PCA result showed no negative effect of first component but both negative and positive influence of second component can be seen. Here is also second cluster groups can be observed.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Volume of shale was calculated from GR and it was obtained that NTG ratio is high in Pereriv D. It contains clean sandstone and average thickness of the Pereriv D is about 25. However, Pereriv B has a slightly higher NTG ratio than Pereriv D. Also Average thickness of the Pereriv B observed in available wells is about 65 meters.
2. One of the crucial points in the reservoir characterization from well loggings was porosity estimation. Mainly, sonic and density logs have been utilized. In some wells sonic log porosity was comparatively higher than density porosity however, for identified flow unit section sonic porosity and density porosities are very identical and correlation coefficient between them was high enough.
3. Based on the core data, especially pores throat size (R_{35}) porosity and permeability flow unit determination was performed. Identified flow unit in Pereriv B shows high values of porosity and permeability, and R_{35} . Based on this interpretation upper part of the Pereriv B identified as a flow unit. And these identified flow zone are correlated in all available wells. For defined flow unit, porosity values estimated from density loggings show the same pattern. Therefore, porosity values can give some information of the flow units in other formations.
4. Determined flow zone is pure sandstone zone and can also be characterized by very low Vshale value.
5. Geostatistical method applied to compare Pereriv B and Pereriv D. Histogram have been applied to see the porosity distribution by making frequency plots. Histogram charts of porosity for both Pereriv B and Pereriv D are identical and close to normal distribution. Some of them can be considered as negatively or positively skewed.
6. For both formations, porosity frequency table were constructed. Frequencies of porosity parameter in each well both for Pereriv B and Pereriv D were compared and correlation coefficients were calculated. The results were very high correlation coefficient meaning that they can be related to each other.
7. Principal Component Analysis is another geostatistical method which has also been applied to see how Pereriv B and Pereriv D related to each other. Both Pereriv B and Pereriv D porosity values have been used for PCA testing. In Pereriv B, PCA result gave three components for porosity and two components in Pereriv D.
8. Moreover, scatter plots for determined components showed that in Pereriv B three different cluster groups. On the other hand, two cluster groups can be observed in Pereriv D. Generally with some exceptions these cluster groups show same Vshale, depth and porosity values. Therefore, cluster groups may be interpreted based on above mentioned parameters.

As a recommendation for further work, continuation of the core sampling needs to be performed for Pereriv D. These can lead us better understanding of the reservoir and reliable flow unit determination. Moreover, determination of the flow unit and correlation of them can result in successful reservoir management in the future.

Furthermore, for future works, other statistical methods can also be applied to look for the relationship of two formations. Especially cross correlation can lead to some result in this work.

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APPENDIX A

CORE DATA

Table 20 Core data of well GCA1

Depth (dd, RKB, m)	Total Macropor osity (excl.Frac ture)	K _{air}	r ₃₅	k/phi	Calculat ed Micropor osity	Hg Porosity (%)	400 PSI Porosity (%)	400 PSI Permeab ility (Kg)
2664.32	5.22	0.00	0.10	0	10.14794	13	10.14794	
2671.09	4.29	11.36	1.79	2.648019	17.02	22	20.89	13.31182
2682.39	0	860.08	6.37		10.43869	27.6	27.45869	952.6946
2685.34	11.51	82.69	0.00	7.184188	16.91805	10	16.94805	101.0737
2687.33	9.1	508.10	2.98	55.83516	14.71458	19.7	21.38458	591.0023
2698.31	4.31	0.33	0.32	0.076566	5.996789	14	6.016789	1.117098
2708.31	0.5	163.84	5.87	327.68	12.43212	25.8	23.98212	201.5168
2710.43	16.54	109.90	3.25	6.644498	15.91339	22.4	21.14339	138.7624
2770.43	0	236.03	5.87		13.50979	24.5	23.18979	290.2805
2775.33	9.51	37.10	2.53	3.901157	8.897928	21.9	20.84793	44.84004
2780.56	3.86	520.70	0.00	134.8964	7.23356	28	25.55356	646.261
2785.1	7.77	919.50	27.80	118.3398	2.765355	31.8	24.03535	1132.938
2788.35	17.01	20.38	3.85	1.198119	8.492469	16.1	23.38247	25.03055
2792.3	trace	11.55	2.12		8.479962	17.4	14.58996	14.95345
2798.35	5.67	487.99	18.60	86.06526	9.456548	33.2	23.99655	608.641
2803.3	trace	121.17	4.19		11.46823	22	21.79823	158.1861
2808.52	3.39	318.96	8.18	94.0885	5.545684	21.4	22.21568	409.5793
2819.36	11.11	184.83	5.39	16.63636	9.769375	25.2	22.15937	15.98642
2823.31	5.22	147.30	5.39	28.21839	14.58612	26.6	24.13612	175.8585
2829.63	8.68	0	8.18	0	nm	25		
2833.61	11.51	119.37	2.3	10.37098	17.81	22.7	26.49	138.1452
2838.34	16.32	0.47	0.54	0.028799	11.63814		15.02814	1.31002
2848.36	18.12	17.05	0.42	0.940949	10.91775	14.8	11.42775	20.71136
2853.1	11.49	1.41	0.7	0.122715	10.85712		16.07712	2.519638
2854.33	4.7	0.38	1.96	0.080851	10.46777		15.23777	1.115248
2856.05	12.4	90.32	0.19	7.283871	11.93579		11.93579	117.0754
2858.27	10.32	8.43	0.91	0.81686	13.95952		18.27952	10.25285
2866.28	14.59	0.3	0.46	0.020562	6.772868		7.272868	0.938335
2871.35	0.51	0	0	0				
2882	0.96							
2888	trace							
2893	3.57							
2896	2.77							

Table 21. Core data of well GCA4

Depth (dd, RKB, m)	Total Macroporosity (excl.Fracture)	Fracture Macroporosity	Total Macroporosity (incl.Fracture)	Calculated Microporosity	Hg Porosity (%)	Hg Permeability (mD)	400 PSI Porosity (%)	400 PSI Permeability (Kg)
3125.2	19.37	trace	19.38	6.18	27.2	520	25.55	667.793
3127.5	11.9	trace	11.91	13.59	26.6	279	25.49	392.199
3135.2	18.39	5.64	24.03	7.98	27	1340	26.37	1977.905
3138.3	8.27	0	8.27	11.12	20.8	40	19.39	35.524
3139.4	17.01	trace	17.02	6.35	25.1	490	23.36	707.681
3143.3	13.44	0	13.44	8.45	23.4	23.6	21.89	15.689
3143.6	18.15	1.21	19.36	6.89	26.1	450	25.04	664.797
3148.1	15.42	5.53	20.95	8.74	25.7	420	24.16	558.435
3155.5	16.4	1.64	18.04	10.52	27.6	670	26.92	1177.661
3317.2	16.88	0.82	17.7	6.58	23.5	256	23.46	571.01
3319.6	11.89	0	11.89	12.81	23.9	294	24.7	468.667
3321.3	16.17	0.83	17	7.55	25.6	500	23.72	599.439
3324.5	22.79	0	22.79	3.09	27	760	25.88	1117.359
3325.6	19.04	0	19.04	3.87	26.3	580	22.91	601.994

Table 22. Core data of well GCA5

Depth (dd, RKB, m)	Total Macroporosity (excl.Fracture)	Fracture Macroporosity	Total Macroporosity (incl.Fracture)	Calculated Microporosity	Hg Porosity (%)	Hg Permeability (mD)
2789.1	17.88618	0.813008	18.69919	6.740813	25.44	206.97
2803.1	7.305936	1.369863	8.675799	10.1042	18.78	14.38
2805.2	15.12605	0.840336	15.96639	10.01361	25.98	335.91
2807.1	12.93103	0.862069	13.7931	13.9169	27.71	112.96
2810.1	15	1.666667	16.66667	8.213333	24.88	95.83
2860.1	8.636364	0.454545	9.090909	13.66909	22.76	11.48
2861.1	16.94215	0.413223	17.35537	10.02463	27.38	141.76
2864.1	20.93023	1.550388	22.48062	10.33938	32.82	726.72
2879.1	17.28395	0.411523	17.69547	11.15453	28.85	1150.603
2885.0	7.834101	-	7.834101	12.2959	20.13	15.75
2886.2	9.41704	0.896861	10.3139	11.3061	21.62	215.2
2894.1	14.28571	1.680672	15.96639	10.03361	26	308.09
2896.1	16.87243	0.823045	17.69547	10.02453	27.72	835.34
2899.1	10.38961	3.030303	13.41991	12.02009	25.44	236.41
2902.1	13.08017	2.531646	15.61181	9.388186	25	431.75
2907.1	14.46281	2.892562	17.35537	5.684628	23.04	1044.05
2909.1	14.22594	2.09205	16.31799	10.41201	26.73	511.54
2911.1	15.22634	2.469136	17.69547	9.684527	27.38	1159.807
2914.1	12.80992	4.545455	17.35537	10.25463	27.61	845.992
2922.6	35.46326	0.638978	36.10224	-9.93224	26.17	739.81
2927.1	20.39216	1.176471	21.56863	-0.39863	21.17	2083.922
2927.1	16.87243	0.823045	17.69547	10.22453	27.92	800.97
2938.1	11.35371	1.310044	12.66376	12.67624	25.34	229.733
2944.1	6.511628	0.465116	6.976744	11.64326	18.62	21.34
3113.1	15.66265	4.016064	19.67871	10.33735	26	367.77
3119.1	1.960784	-	1.960784	12.03922	14	1.0558
3124.1	3.381643	trace	3.391643	11.61836	15	2.9665
3129.1	6.511628	0.465116	6.976744	9.488372	16	5.4917

Table 23. Core data of well GCA6

Depth (dd, RKB, m)	Total Macroporosity (excl.Fracture)	Calculated Microporosity	400 PSI Porosity (%)	400 PSI Permeability (Kg)	PORhel	K _{air}	K _{hg}	r ₃₅
3327.06	14.16667	4.999237	21.6659	241.2421	0.192913	190.5796	126	4.97
3328.06	14.46281	5.375863	22.73124	424.6584	0.201803	335.4814	266	6.97
3329.06	10.86957	10.53221	23.57569	139.6493	0.209804	110.3235	88	4.2
3330.07					0.197358	225.15	162	5.41
3331.07	11.53846	7.697218	22.22713	242.5965	0.197358	191.654	173	5.41
3332.06					0.207137	117.1728	102	0
3333.07					0.187579	102.6289	87	4.57
3334.06					0.207137	249.9639	242	6.94
3335.06	13.38912	6.28379	22.60178	107.7096	0.200914	85.0909	34	3
3337.06					0.203581	150.0763	109	4.97
3338.06					0.234695	0	390	8.93
3339.06					0.246252	0	470	9.74
3340.06	19.77186	4.829121	28.78349	877.3681	0.256031	693.1223	580	10.56
3343.06					0.185801	0	145	4.57
3344.06	14.52282	8.234643	25.24709	197.1155	0.224027	155.7248	141	5.89
3345.06					0.232917	110.4657	111	4.97
3346.06	13.58025	6.543792	24.23927	233.6278	0.215137	184.5677	166	5.89
3347.06					0.069781	13.9593	25.4	3.55
3348.06					0.207137	0	410	9.68
3349.07	15.68627	3.000372	24.569	493.5366	0.218694	389.8966	370	8.21
3350.11					0.096427	0	0.00006	0
3351.06	8.40708	7.844849	19.34927	87.05144	0.171577	68.7695	64	4.2
3352.06					0.194691	166.927	162	6.38
3353.05	15.6	5.232589	25.23259	685.7063	0.224027	541.7109	440	0
3354.05					0.220472	435.764	390	8.93
3355.06	16.46586	6.22944	25.90816	349.5226	0.23025	276.1208	360	8.21
3356.06					0.208915	0	430	0
3357.11					0.212471	0	550	10.56
3360.06	14.28571	6.408829	22.37522	69.12772	0.199136	54.6127	157	5.9
3361.06					0.221361	0	410	8.93
3362.06					0.217805	208.2677	190	6.39
3363.07					0.216026	236.8104	205	6.95
3365.06					0.191135	0	159	6.4
3366.06	6.046512	8.94855	15.92529	31.87838	0.127343	25.1852	49	3.55

Table 24. Core data of well C01

Depth (dd, RKB, m)	MODAL POROSITY (%)	Primary Interparticle Macroporosity	Secondary Intraparticle Macroporosity	Secondary Oversized Macroporosity	Total Macroporosity (excl. Fracture)	Fracture Macroporosity	Calculated Microporosity	Hg Porosity (%)	Hg Permeability (mD)
2802.13	14.89362	12.34043	0.425532	0	12.76596	2.12766	2800.002	28.47208	
2818.02								26.38	
2820.15								33.09623	
2822.05								33.50813	
2827.08	16.31799	12.97071	0.41841	0	13.38912	2.92887	2824.151	23.73592	
2830.1	0	0	0	0		0	2830.1	4.766847	0.079919
2836.02								30.13644	
2839.02								27.61562	
2843.05								24.05839	132.0301
2848.04	22.77992	19.30502	0	0	19.30502	3.474903	2844.565	24.84802	540.0479
2859.05								27.81438	
2860.07								27.00766	621.9569
2864.05								28.04772	607.1982
2879.05	23.66412	20.61069	0.381679	0	20.99237	2.671756	2876.378	27.62877	719.721
2882.03	17.01245	14.10788	0	0	14.10788	2.904564	2879.125	23.18765	108.2886
2888.05	22.77992	18.14672	1.930502	0	20.07722	2.702703	2885.347	25.67053	234.3946
2891.02								24.11953	
2896.05)						27.86942	

Table 25. Core data of well D01Z

Depth (dd, RKB, m)	MODAL POROSITY (%)	Total Macroporosity (excl. Fracture)	Total Macroporosity (incl. Fracture)	Calculated Microporosity	Hg Porosity (%)	Hg Permeability (mD)
3714.09	25.65056	23.79182	25.65056	3712.231	28.04807	543.1402
3716.03	25.37313	23.13433	25.37313	3713.791	28.96276	
3718.03	13.7931	11.63793	13.7931	3715.875	24.30621	103.5786
3719.07	23.07692	20	23.07692	3715.993	28.19834	
3720.03	23.37165	20.30651	23.37165	3716.965	28.76088	770.1668
3722.03	19.67871	17.26908	19.67871	3719.62	25.57444	
3725.03	22.17899	19.45525	22.17899	3722.306	26.56411	521.0657
3727.03	21.56863	18.03922	21.56863	3723.501	25.42902	175.2452
3728.03	22.77992	17.76062	22.77992	3723.011	27.79496	876.1417
3731.07	24.81203	21.05263	24.81203	3727.311	27.39561	
3736.08	22.48062	20.54264	22.48062	3734.142	27.97457	441.5948
3740.03	28.57143	23.57143	28.57143	3735.03	28.87664	897.0431
3742.07	26.19926	23.61624	26.19926	3739.487	28.41489	860.0689
3745.05	18.69919	15.85366	18.69919	3742.204	23.66635	248.4583
3746.05	22.77992	19.69112	22.77992	3742.961	23.71197	423.8862
3747.07	26.47059	23.52941	26.47059		26.7072	1038.694
3749.03	20.94862	19.36759	20.94862	3747.449	27.4036	466.6279
3752.08	19.67871	18.07229	19.67871	3750.474	26.27199	284.4881
3754.03					26.25342	
3756.03	30.06993	26.92308	30.06993	0	27.71054	1047.904
3759.03	20	16	20	3755.03	26.52926	398.5413
3762.07	26.19926	23.24723	26.19926	3759.118	26.62357	841.6955
3763.03	18.69919	15.44715	18.69919	3759.778	25.31241	506.8272
3766.03	27.53623	22.10145	27.53623	0	27.31949	
3769.08	24.5283	20.75472	24.5283	3765.306	25.11403	
3771.03	22.17899	20.23346	22.17899	3769.084	24.87103	256.2544

APPENDIX B

RESULTS OF PCA

Pereriv B. Density Porosity

Table 26 Correlation matrix (Pereriv B)

Correlation Matrix

	A08Z	B01ST 1	D01Z	GCA1	GCA2	GCA4	GCA 5
A08Z	1.000	.082	.034	.410	.132	-.402	.171
B01ST	.082	1.000	-.063	.603	.191	-.343	.607
D01Z	.034	-.063	1.000	-.027	.201	.082	.039
GCA1	.410	.603	-.027	1.000	.179	-.417	.480
Correlation GCA2	.132	.191	.201	.179	1.000	-.143	-.003
GCA4	-.402	-.343	.082	-.417	-.143	1.000	-.599
GCA5	.171	.607	.039	.480	-.003	-.599	1.000
GCA6	-.250	.315	.053	.094	.284	.369	-.098
C01	.034	-.063	1.000	-.027	.201	.082	.039

Correlation Matrix

		GCA6	C01
	A08Z	-.250	.034
	B01ST1	.315	-.063
	D01Z	.053	1.000
	GCA1	.094	-.027
Correlation	GCA2	.284	.201
	GCA4	.369	.082
	GCA5	-.098	.039
	GCA6	1.000	.053
	C01	.053	1.000

Table 27. Communalities (Pereriv B)

Communalities		
	Initial	Extractio n
A08Z	1.000	.744
B01ST1	1.000	.853
D01Z	1.000	.996
GCA1	1.000	.682
GCA2	1.000	.734
GCA4	1.000	.740
GCA5	1.000	.840
GCA6	1.000	.839
C01	1.000	.996

Table 28. Total Variance Explained (Pereriv B)

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.744	30.486	30.486	2.744	30.486	30.486
2	2.108	23.422	53.908	2.108	23.422	53.908
3	1.557	17.304	71.212	1.557	17.304	71.212
4	1.016	11.291	82.503	1.016	11.291	82.503
5	.712	7.911	90.414			
6	.361	4.007	94.421			
7	.268	2.982	97.403			
8	.234	2.597	100.000			
9	-4.983E-016	-5.537E-015	100.000			

Table 29. Total Variance Explained (Pereriv B)

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.409	26.763	26.763
2	2.024	22.487	49.251
3	1.665	18.502	67.752
4	1.328	14.751	82.503
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			

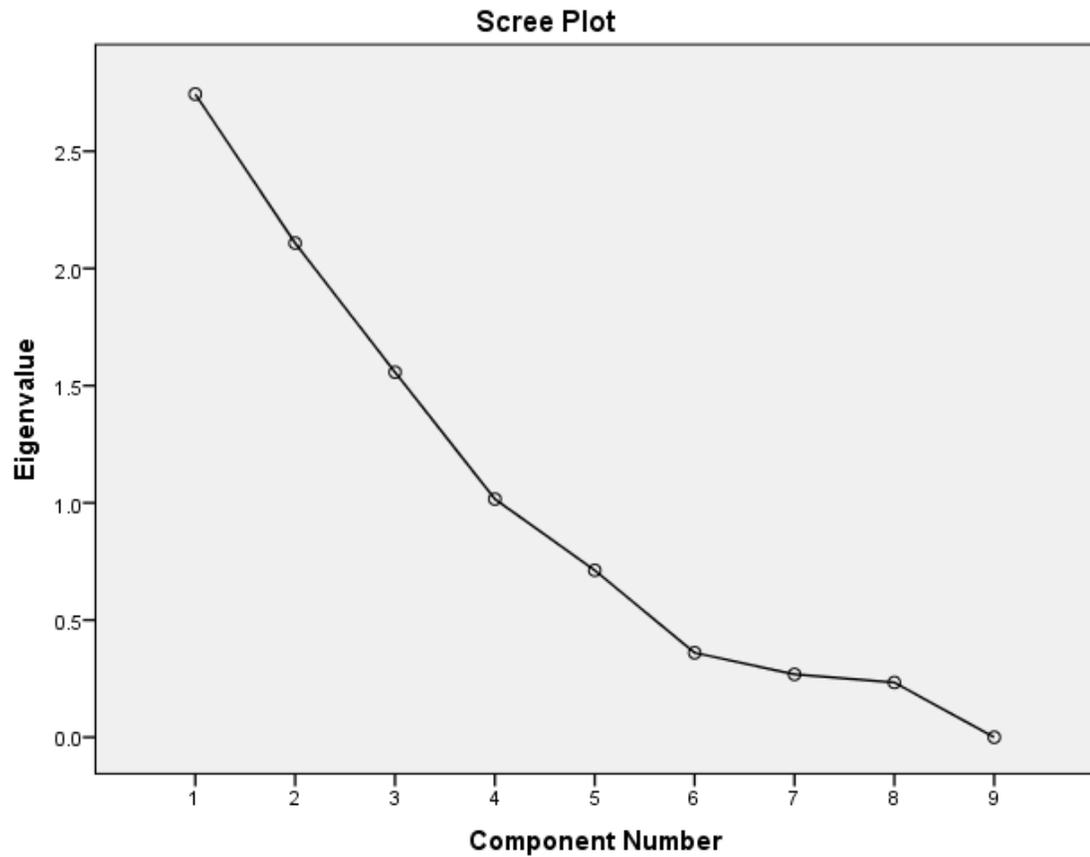


Figure 24. Scree plot (Pereriv B)

Table 30. Component matrix (Pereriv B)

	Component Matrix			
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
GCA1	.802	.043	.165	.100
GCA5	.795	.029	-.044	-.453
GCA4	-.766	.113	.374	-.018
B01ST1	.748	.036	.489	-.232
D01Z	-.052	.965	-.205	-.144
C01	-.052	.965	-.205	-.144
GCA6	-.065	.240	.879	.066
GCA2	.241	.414	.323	.633
A08Z	.504	.035	-.433	.548

Table 31. Reproduced Correlations (Pereriv B)

		Reproduced Correlations					
		A08Z	B01ST1	D01Z	GCA1	GCA2	GCA4
Reproduced Correlation	A08Z	.744 ^a	.039	.018	.390	.343	-.555
	B01ST1	.039	.853 ^a	-.071	.658	.207	-.382
	D01Z	.018	-.071	.996 ^a	-.048	.230	.075
	GCA1	.390	.658	-.048	.682 ^a	.328	-.550
	GCA2	.343	.207	.230	.328	.734 ^a	-.029
	GCA4	-.555	-.382	.075	-.550	-.029	.740 ^a
	GCA5	.173	.679	.061	.586	-.097	-.614
	GCA6	-.369	.375	.045	.110	.410	.404
Residual ^b	C01	.018	-.071	.996	-.048	.230	.075
	A08Z		.043	.016	.021	-.211	.153
	B01ST1	.043		.007	-.055	-.015	.038
	D01Z	.016	.007		.021	-.029	.007
	GCA1	.021	-.055	.021		-.149	.133
	GCA2	-.211	-.015	-.029	-.149		-.114
	GCA4	.153	.038	.007	.133	-.114	
	GCA5	-.001	-.072	-.022	-.106	.095	.015
GCA6	.118	-.061	.008	-.016	-.125	-.036	
C01	.016	.007	.004	.021	-.029	.007	

Table 32. Reproduced Correlations (Pereriv B)

		Reproduced Correlations		
		GCA5	GCA6	C01
Reproduced Correlation	A08Z	.173 ^a	-.369	.018
	B01ST1	.679	.375 ^a	-.071
	D01Z	.061	.045	.996 ^a
	GCA1	.586	.110	-.048
	GCA2	-.097	.410	.230
	GCA4	-.614	.404	.075
	GCA5	.840	-.113	.061
	GCA6	-.113	.839	.045
	C01	.061	.045	.996
	A08Z	-.001	.118	.016
Residual ^b	B01ST1	-.072	-.061	.007
	D01Z	-.022	.008	.004
	GCA1	-.106	-.016	.021
	GCA2	.095	-.125	-.029
	GCA4	.015	-.036	.007
	GCA5		.015	-.022
	GCA6	.015		.008
	C01	-.022	.008	

Table 33. Rotated component matrix (Pereriv B)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
B01ST1	.877	-.076	.176	.217
GCA5	.870	.097	-.165	-.218
GCA1	.715	-.061	-.249	.325
D01Z	-.018	.994	.010	.086
C01	-.018	.994	.010	.086
A08Z	.126	.001	-.793	.315
GCA6	.146	-.007	.711	.559
GCA4	-.575	.053	.635	.067
GCA2	.061	.161	-.091	.835

Table 34. Component transformation matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	.886	-.048	-.421	.187
2	.025	.942	.089	.323
3	.253	-.253	.786	.504
4	-.387	-.214	-.444	.779

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Table 35. Correlation matrix (Pereriv D)

		Correlation Matrix						
		A08Z	B01ST 1	D01Z	GCA1	GCA2	GCA5	GCA6
Correlation	A08Z	1.000	.753	.135	.243	.476	-.259	.497
	B01S T1	.753	1.000	.171	.379	.582	.005	.519
	D01Z	.135	.171	1.000	-.181	-.169	-.235	.294
	GCA1	.243	.379	-.181	1.000	.930	.718	.199
	GCA2	.476	.582	-.169	.930	1.000	.560	.352
	GCA5	-.259	.005	-.235	.718	.560	1.000	-.360
	GCA6	.497	.519	.294	.199	.352	-.360	1.000
	Sig. (1- tailed)	A08Z		.000	.216	.077	.002	.063
B01S T1		.000		.159	.011	.000	.488	.001
D01Z		.216	.159		.146	.162	.083	.041
GCA1		.077	.011	.146		.000	.000	.122
GCA2		.002	.000	.162	.000		.000	.018
GCA5		.063	.488	.083	.000	.000		.015
GCA6		.001	.001	.041	.122	.018	.015	

Table 36. KMO and Bartlett's Test (Pereriv D)

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.573
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	205.189
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

Table 37. Anti-image matrices (Pereriv D)

		Anti-image Matrices					
		A08Z	B01ST1	D01Z	GCA1	GCA2	GCA5
Anti-image Covariance	A08Z	.222	-.128	-.078	.008	-.047	.105
	B01ST1	-.128	.301	-.070	.042	-.032	-.052
	D01Z	-.078	-.070	.710	-.026	.069	-.072
	GCA1	.008	.042	-.026	.065	-.045	-.034
	GCA2	-.047	-.032	.069	-.045	.051	-.019
	GCA5	.105	-.052	-.072	-.034	-.019	.134
	GCA6	.100	-.076	-.175	-.019	-.040	.144
Anti-image Correlation	A08Z	.542 ^a	-.494	-.197	.069	-.442	.607
	B01ST1	-.494	.708 ^a	-.151	.303	-.259	-.259
	D01Z	-.197	-.151	.383 ^a	-.120	.361	-.232
	GCA1	.069	.303	-.120	.657 ^a	-.775	-.365
	GCA2	-.442	-.259	.361	-.775	.622 ^a	-.235
	GCA5	.607	-.259	-.232	-.365	-.235	.474 ^a
	GCA6	.389	-.253	-.379	-.140	-.324	.722

		Anti-image Matrices	
		GCA6	
Anti-image Covariance	A08Z	.100	
	B01ST1	-.076	
	D01Z	-.175	
	GCA1	-.019	
	GCA2	-.040	
	GCA5	.144	
	GCA6	.298	
Anti-image Correlation	A08Z	.389 ^a	
	B01ST1	-.253	
	D01Z	-.379	
	GCA1	-.140	
	GCA2	-.324	
	GCA5	.722	
	GCA6	.472	

Table 38. Communalities (Pereriv D)

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
A08Z	1.000	.749
B01ST1	1.000	.778
D01Z	1.000	.310
GCA1	1.000	.926
GCA2	1.000	.965
GCA5	1.000	.861
GCA6	1.000	.669

Table 39. Total variance explained (Pereriv D)

Component	Total variance explained			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.075	43.926	43.926	3.075	43.926	43.926
2	2.184	31.198	75.124	2.184	31.198	75.124
3	.846	12.081	87.206			
4	.553	7.895	95.100			
5	.246	3.511	98.612			
6	.066	.943	99.555			
7	.031	.445	100.000			

Table 40. Total variance explained (Pereriv D)

Component	Total variance explained		
	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.697	38.531	38.531
2	2.562	36.593	75.124
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			

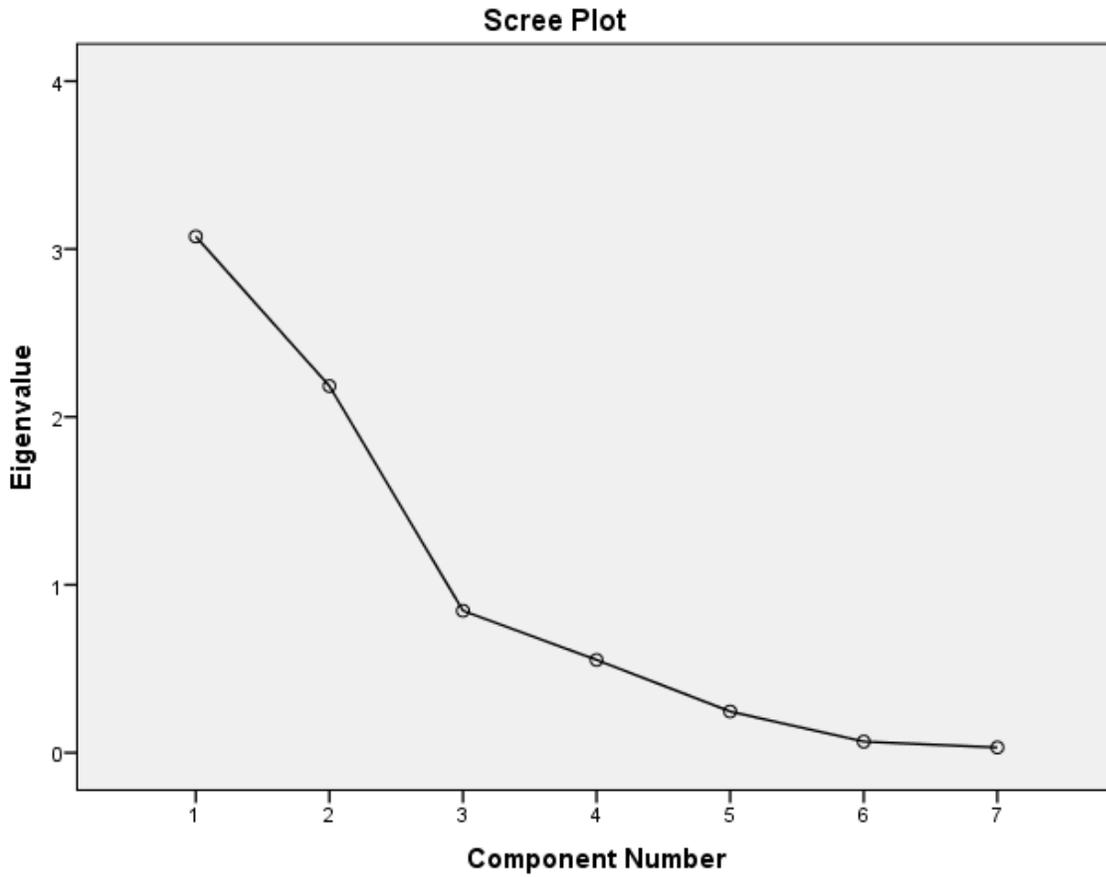


Figure 25. Scree plot (Pereriv D)

Table 41. Component matrix (Pereriv D)

	Component matrix	
	Component	
	1	2
GCA2	.937	-.294
GCA1	.822	-.500
B01ST1	.796	.380
A08Z	.684	.530
GCA5	.360	-.855
GCA6	.538	.616
D01Z	-.002	.557

Table 42. Reproduced correlations (Pereriv D)

		Reproduced correlations					
		A08Z	B01ST1	D01Z	GCA1	GCA2	GCA5
Reproduced Correlation	A08Z	.749 ^a	.746	.294	.297	.485	-.207
	B01ST1	.746	.778 ^a	.210	.465	.634	-.038
	D01Z	.294	.210	.310 ^a	-.281	-.166	-.477
	GCA1	.297	.465	-.281	.926 ^a	.918	.724
	GCA2	.485	.634	-.166	.918	.965 ^a	.589
	GCA5	-.207	-.038	-.477	.724	.589	.861 ^a
Residual ^b	GCA6	.695	.662	.342	.134	.323	-.333
	A08Z		.007	-.159	-.054	-.009	-.052
	B01ST1	.007		-.038	-.085	-.053	.043
	D01Z	-.159	-.038		.100	-.003	.242
	GCA1	-.054	-.085	.100		.012	-.007
	GCA2	-.009	-.053	-.003	.012		-.030
	GCA5	-.052	.043	.242	-.007	-.030	
	GCA6	-.197	-.143	-.048	.065	.029	-.027

Table 43. Reproduced correlations (Pereriv D)

Reproduced correlations		GCA6
Reproduced Correlation	A08Z	.695 ^a
	B01ST1	.662
	D01Z	.342
	GCA1	.134
	GCA2	.323
	GCA5	-.333
	GCA6	.669
Residual ^b	A08Z	-.197
	B01ST1	-.143
	D01Z	-.048
	GCA1	.065
	GCA2	.029
	GCA5	-.027
	GCA6	

Table 44. Rotated Component Matrix (Pereriv D)

Rotated Component Matrix		
	Component	
	1	2
A08Z	.864	.043
B01ST1	.851	.230
GCA6	.810	-.118
GCA1	.298	.915
GCA5	-.283	.884
GCA2	.520	.833
D01Z	.361	-.424

Table 45. Component transformation matrix (Pereriv D)

**Component transformation
matrix**

Component	1	2
1	.759	.651
2	.651	-.759