



# **Stratigraphic evolution and characteristics of lobes: a high-resolution study of Fan 3, Tanqua Karoo, South Africa.**

by  
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Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Science  
at the University of Stellenbosch



Supervisors  
Dr. H. de V. Wickens  
Dr. D.M. Hodgson

March 2009



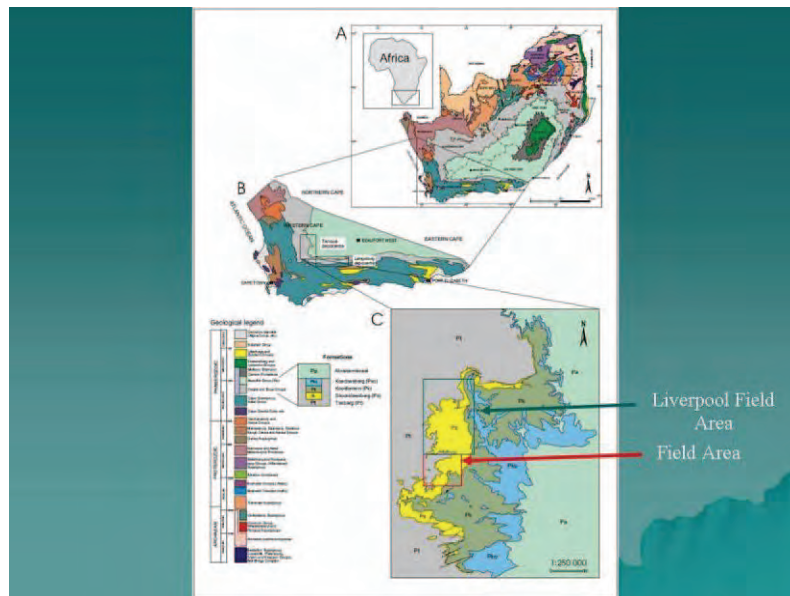
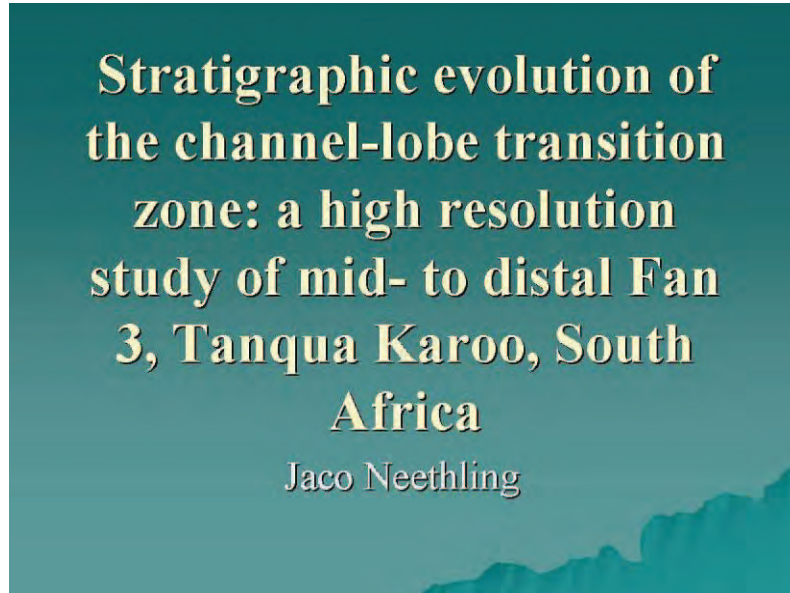
*Geology*  
Stellenbosch University

# Appendix B

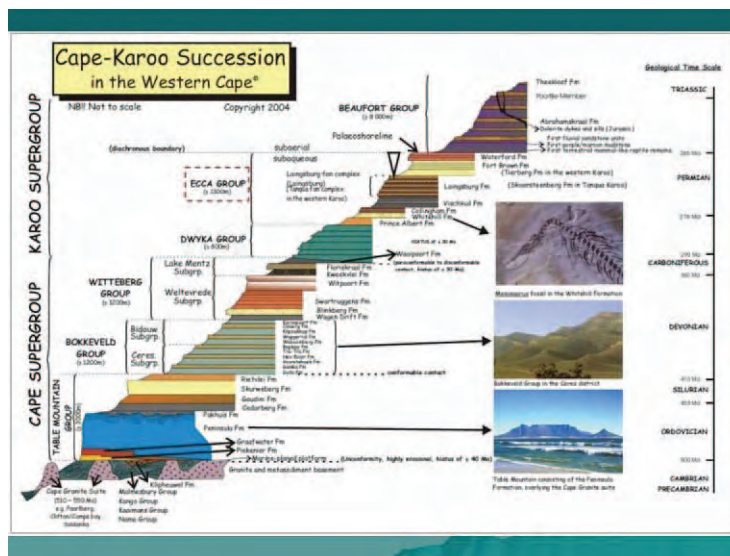
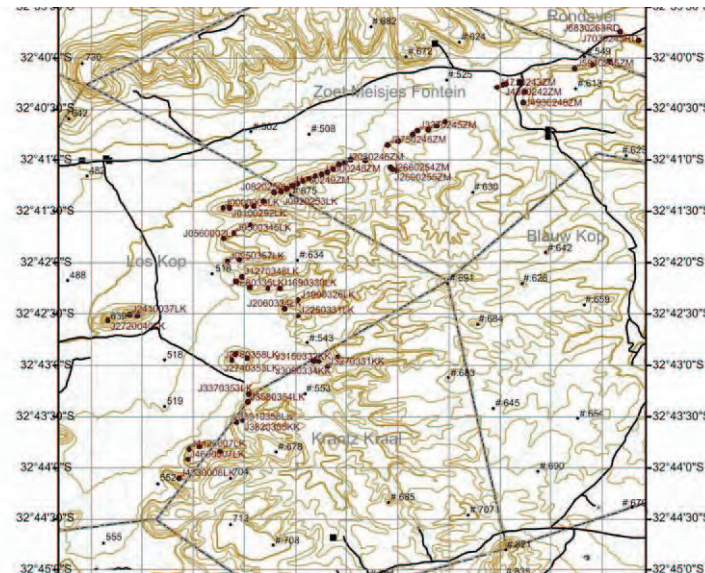
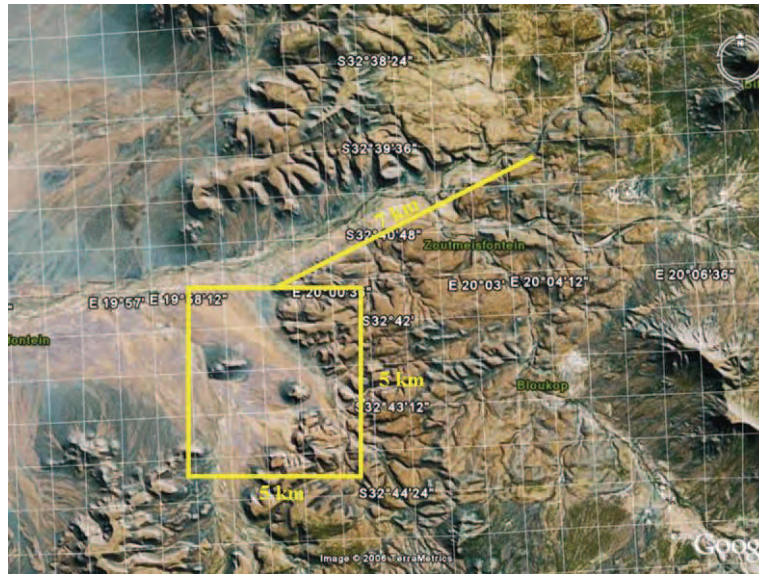
## **PetroSA Presentation**

## PetroSA Presentation

The presentation was given as per agreement with PetroSA for the aid provided with the modelling section of this project.



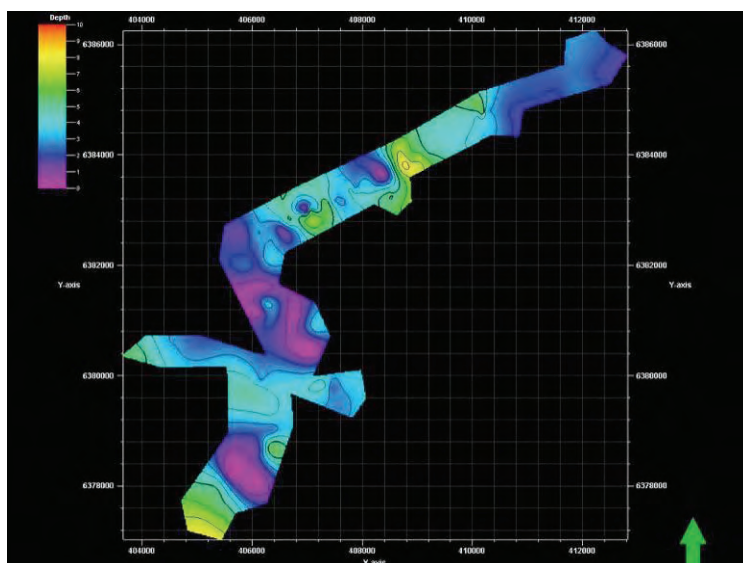
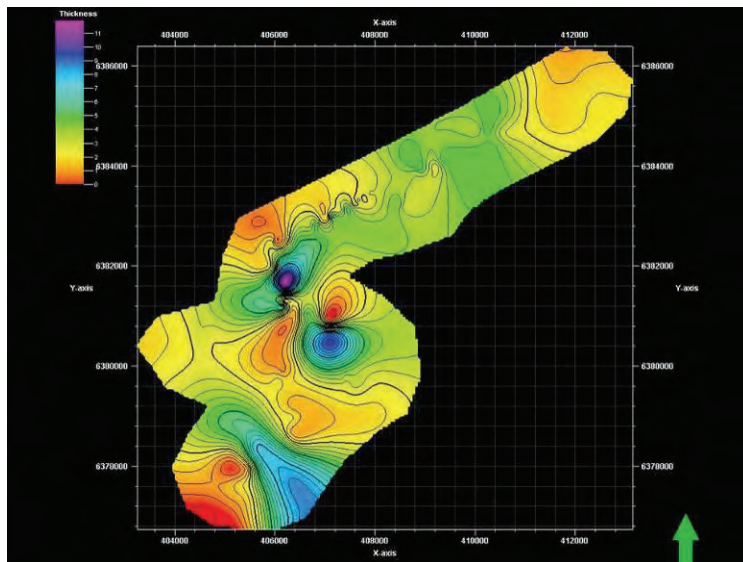
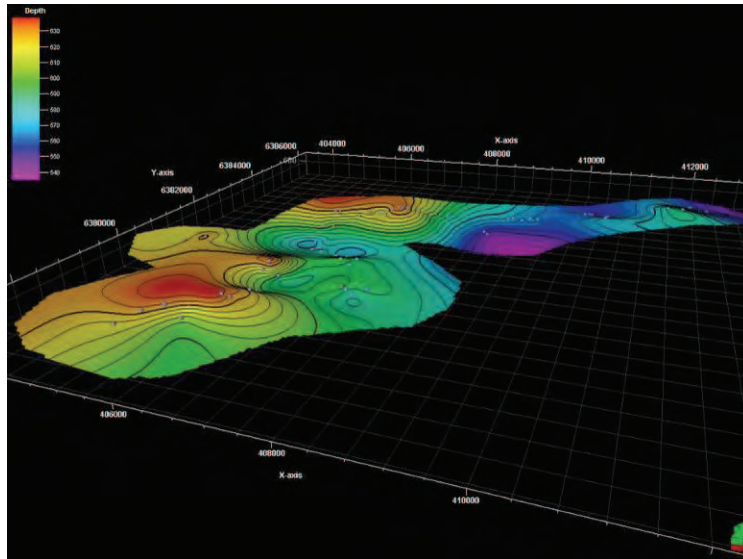
# Appendix B PetroSA Presentation





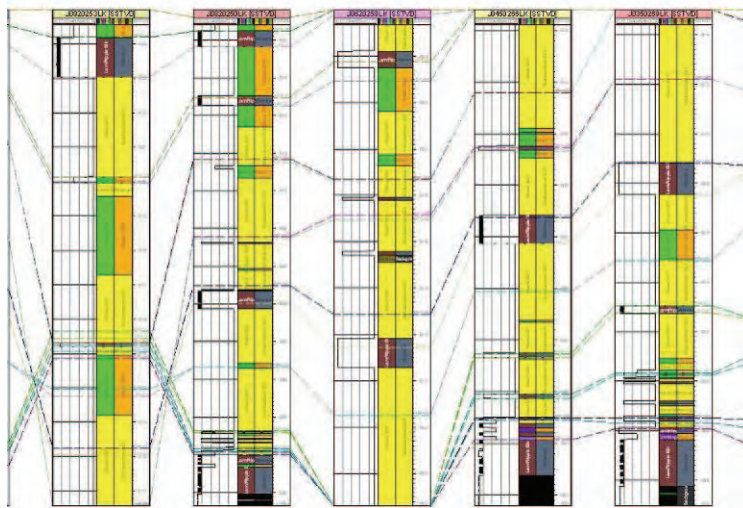
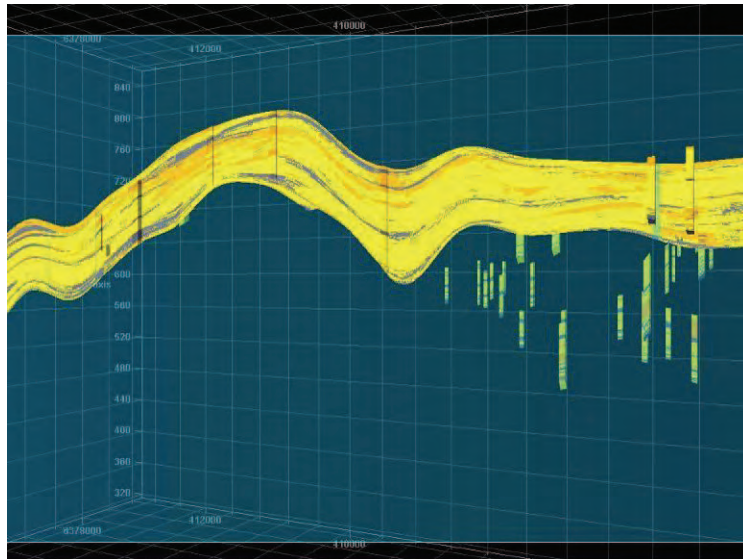


## Appendix B PetroSA Presentation









## Current work

- ◆ Project hand-in: 1 September 2008
- ◆ Finishing Write-up

# Appendix C

## **Petrel Thickness Maps**

## Petrel Thickness Maps

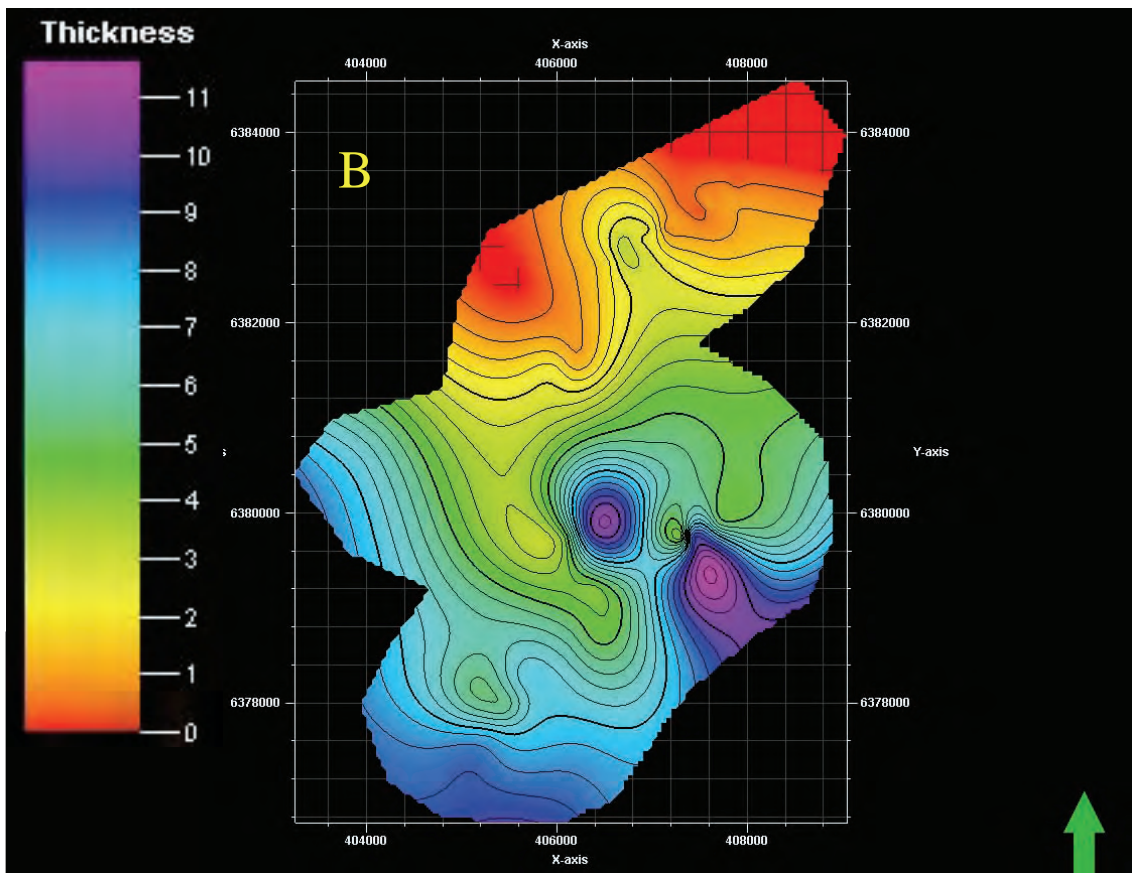
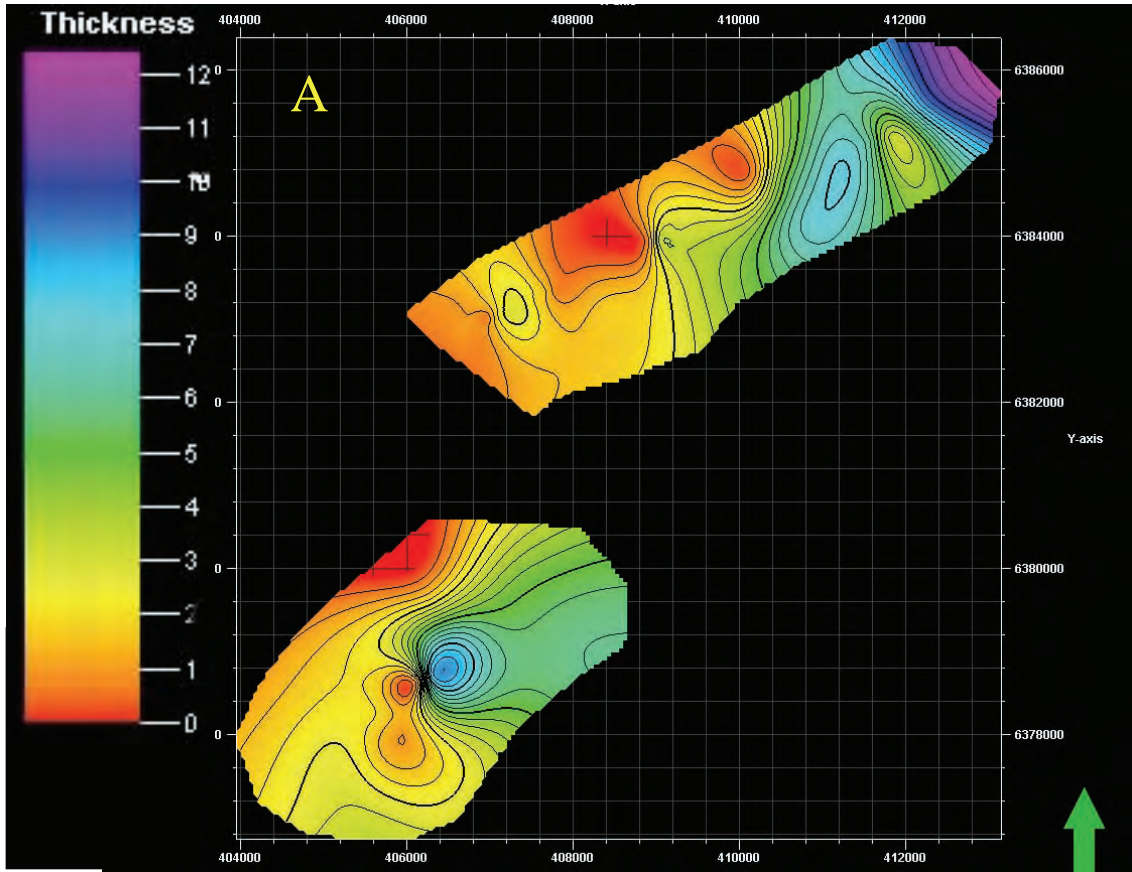
The images herein represent all the thickness maps created during experimentation with various methods in Petrel.

The first 10 images were created during the early stages. Five different border polygons were used, separated by several hundred metres from the data points. In this case, thickness maps could be produced for only the sandstone prone lobes and lobe-elements, as their pinch-out patterns made it impossible to accurately represent the siltstones separating them. Also, these thickness maps were created using the “Create Thickness Map” function within Petrel, and the resulting colour patterns and scales were left unchanged.

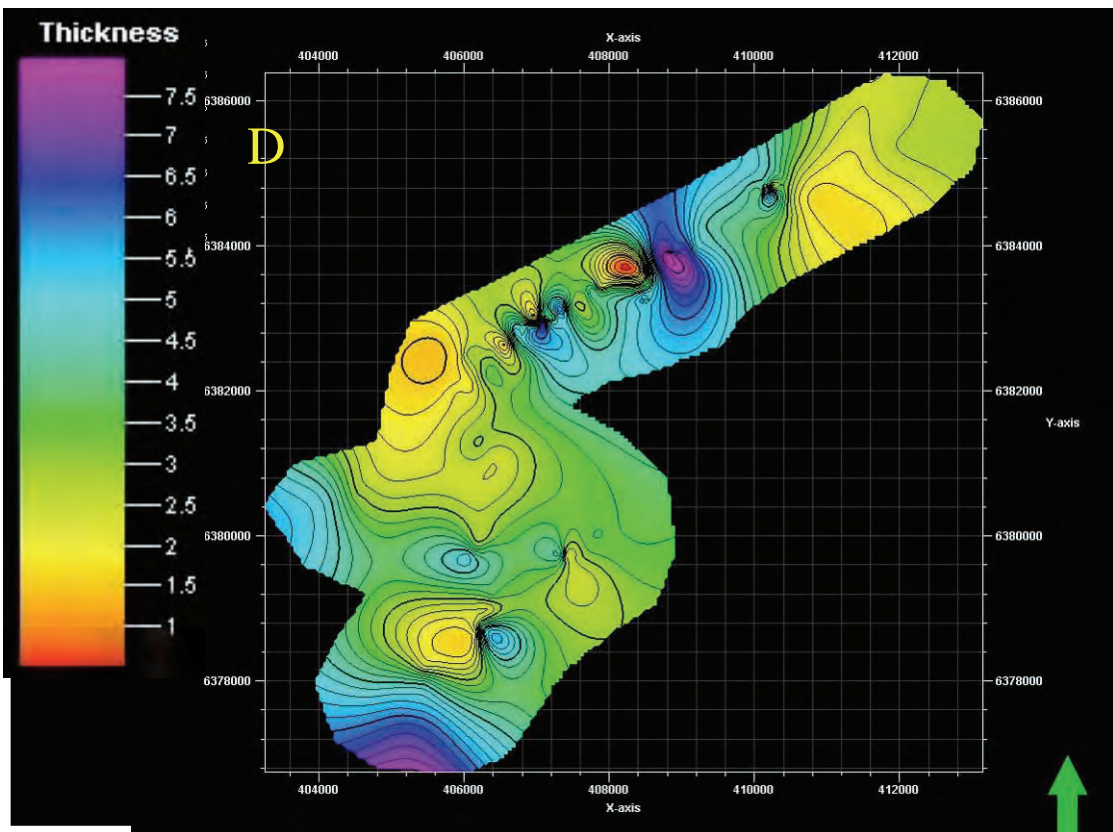
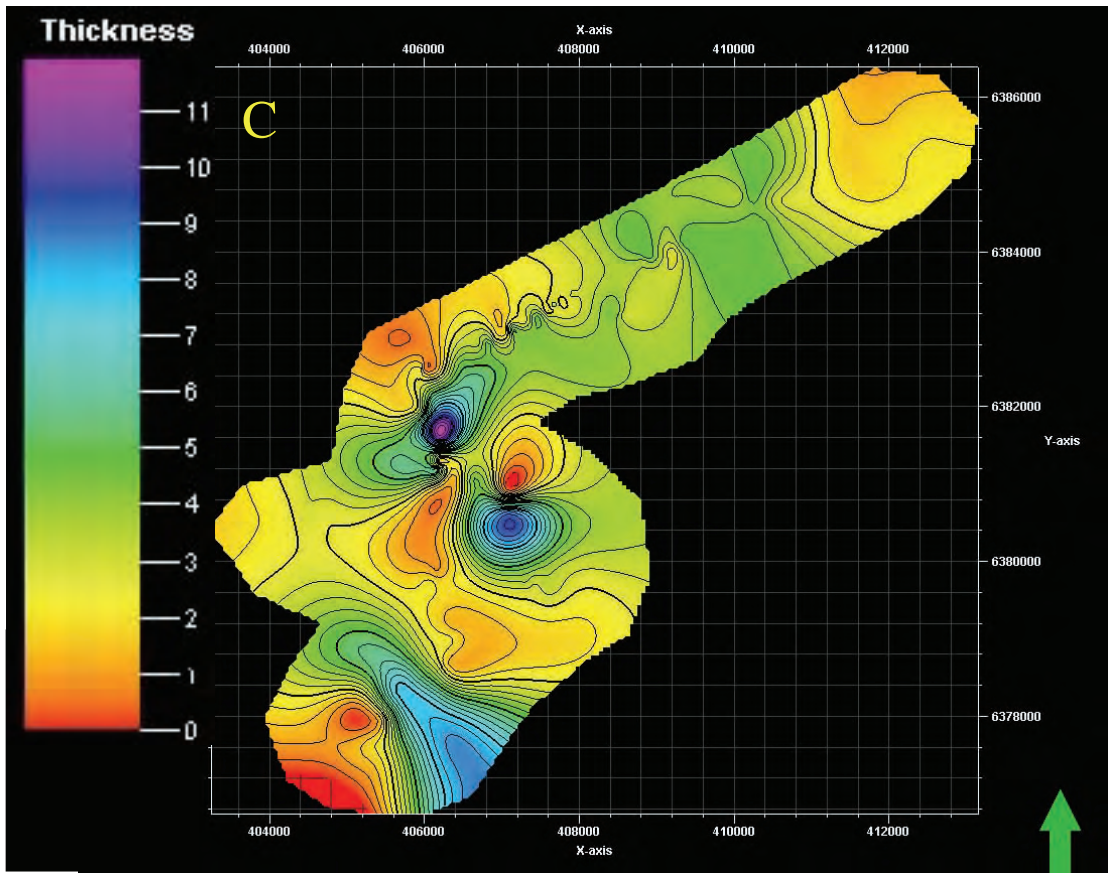
The second set of thickness maps represents the last run. Here all 19 maps, namely the sandstone prone lobes and lobe-elements, as well as their separating thin-bedded intervals, could be produced. The reason for this is discussed in Chapters 6 and 7. For these maps a much tighter border polygon was used, making it possible to more accurately extrapolate the data in 3D. These thickness maps were created using the “Arithmetic” function in Petrel, the thicknesses given by  $Z = Z^{\text{Top}} - Z^{\text{Bottom}}$ . The colour pattern was left unchanged, but the vertical thickness scale was adjusted for each map. Most of them used a fixed vertical scale to better compare them. This scale for sandstone prone lobes and lobe-elements had to be reduced for lower stratigraphic units, as their drastic decrease in thickness meant they were no longer comparable to the upper units. The sandstone isopach maps also show the inferred axial zones and lobe fringes.

Both sets of thickness maps are presented from the top (namely Lobe 6) downward.

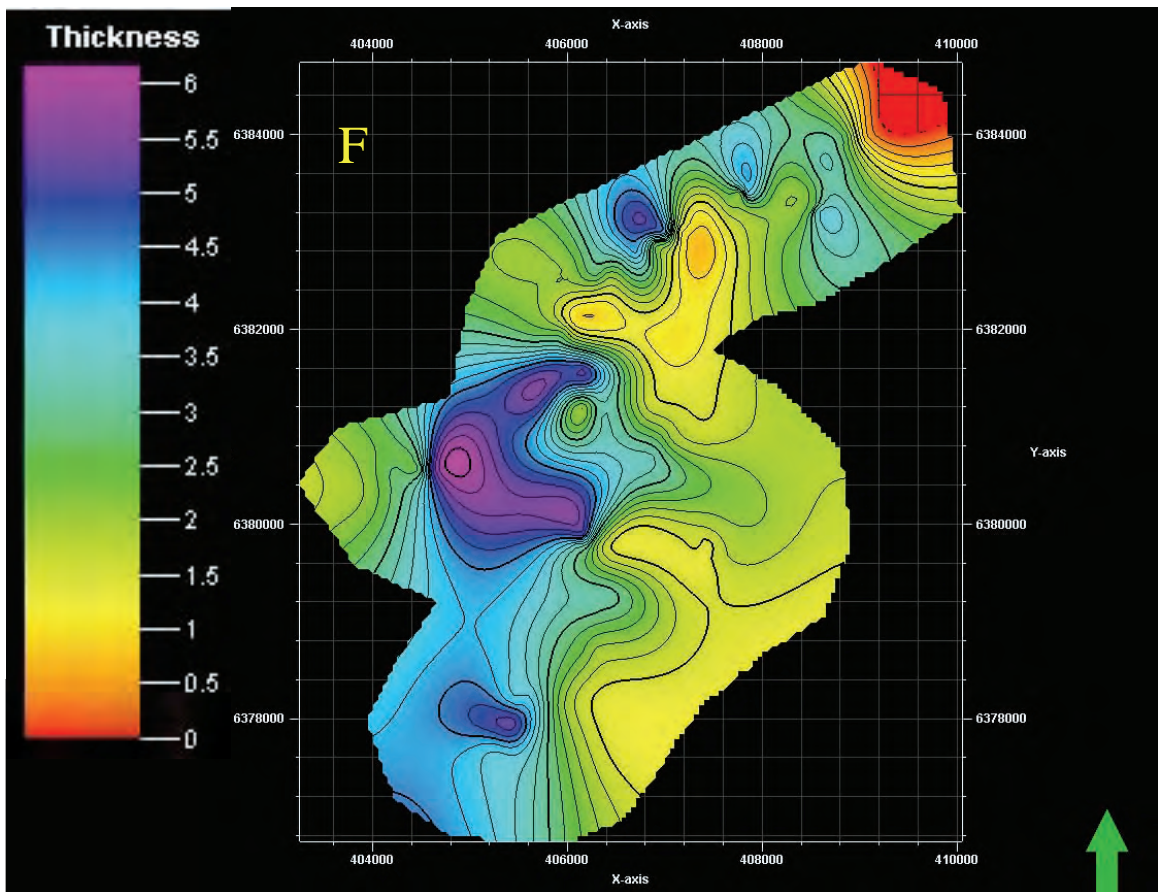
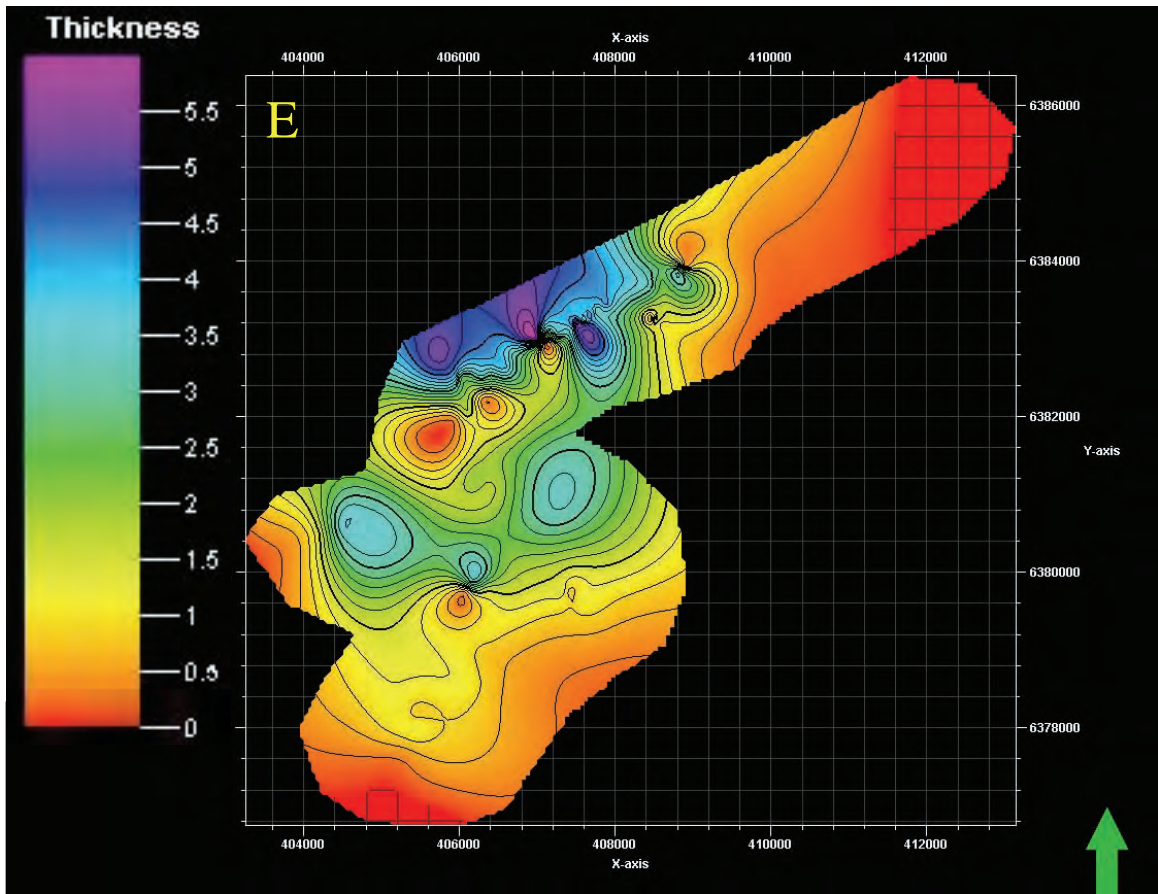
Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



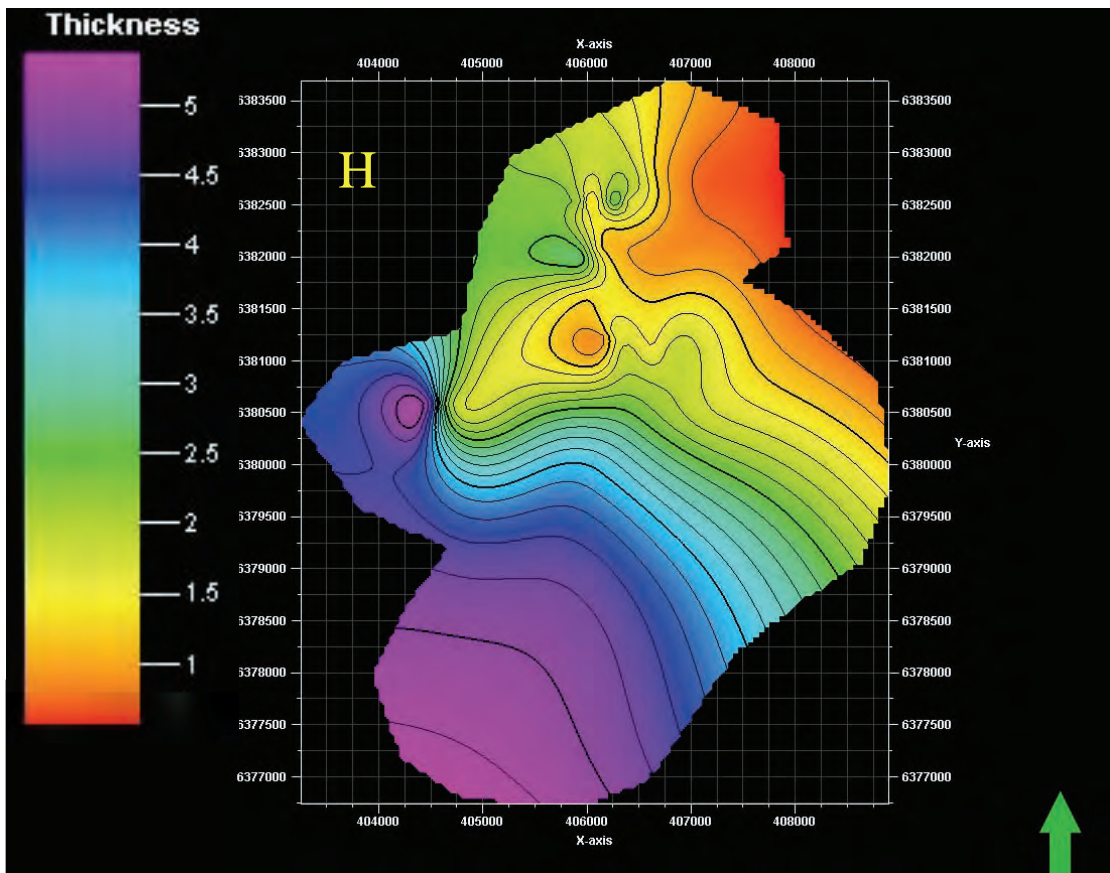
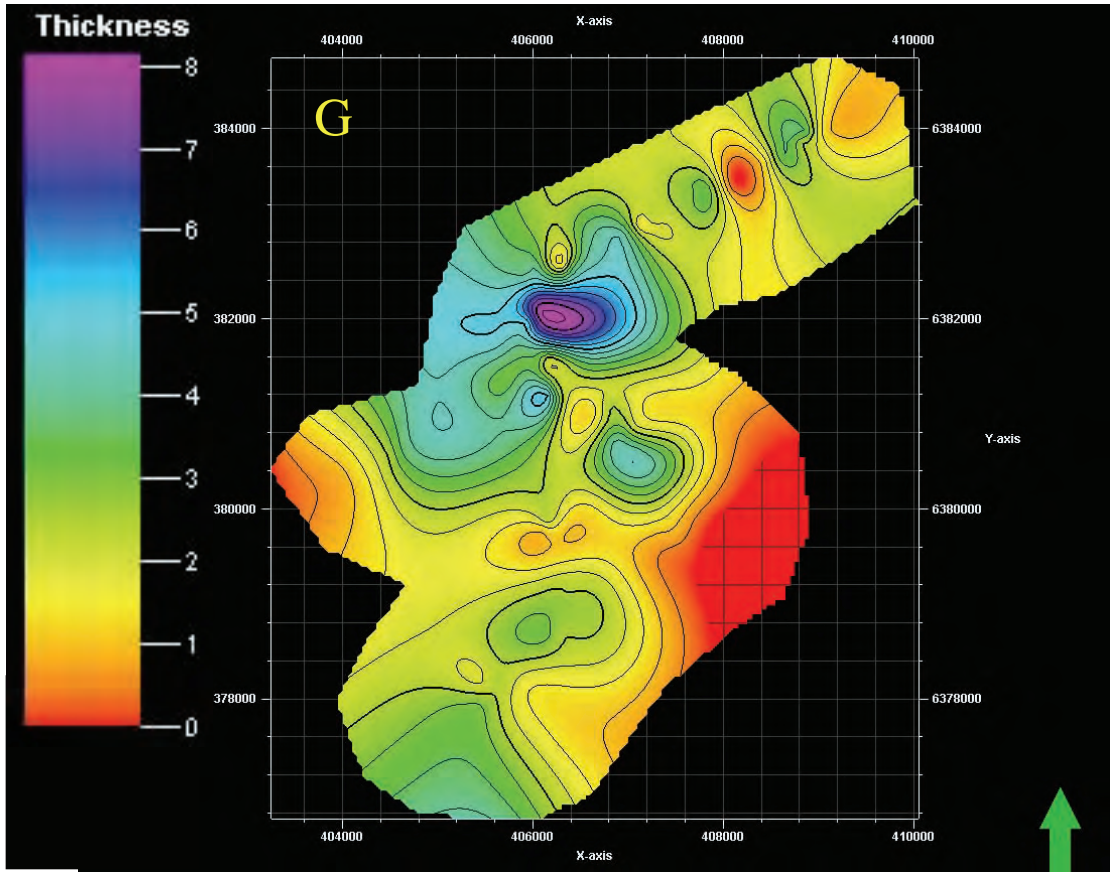
Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



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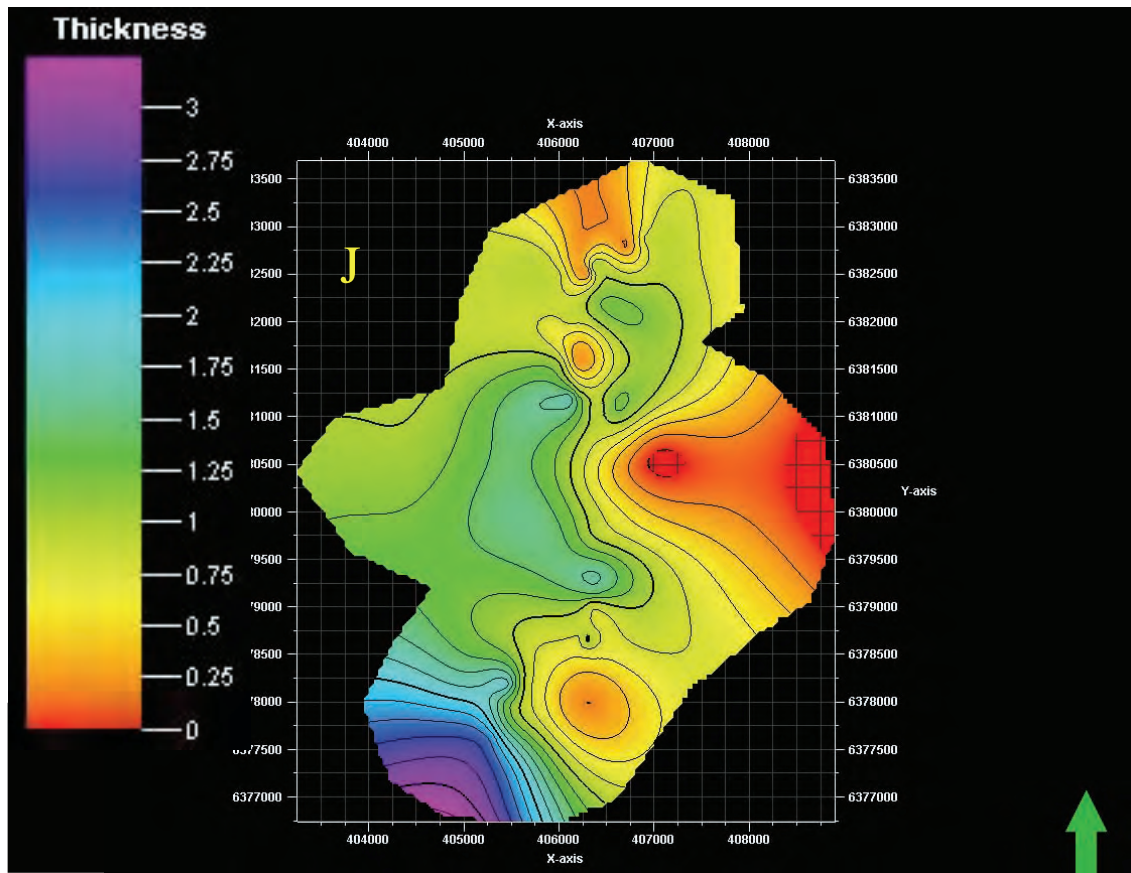
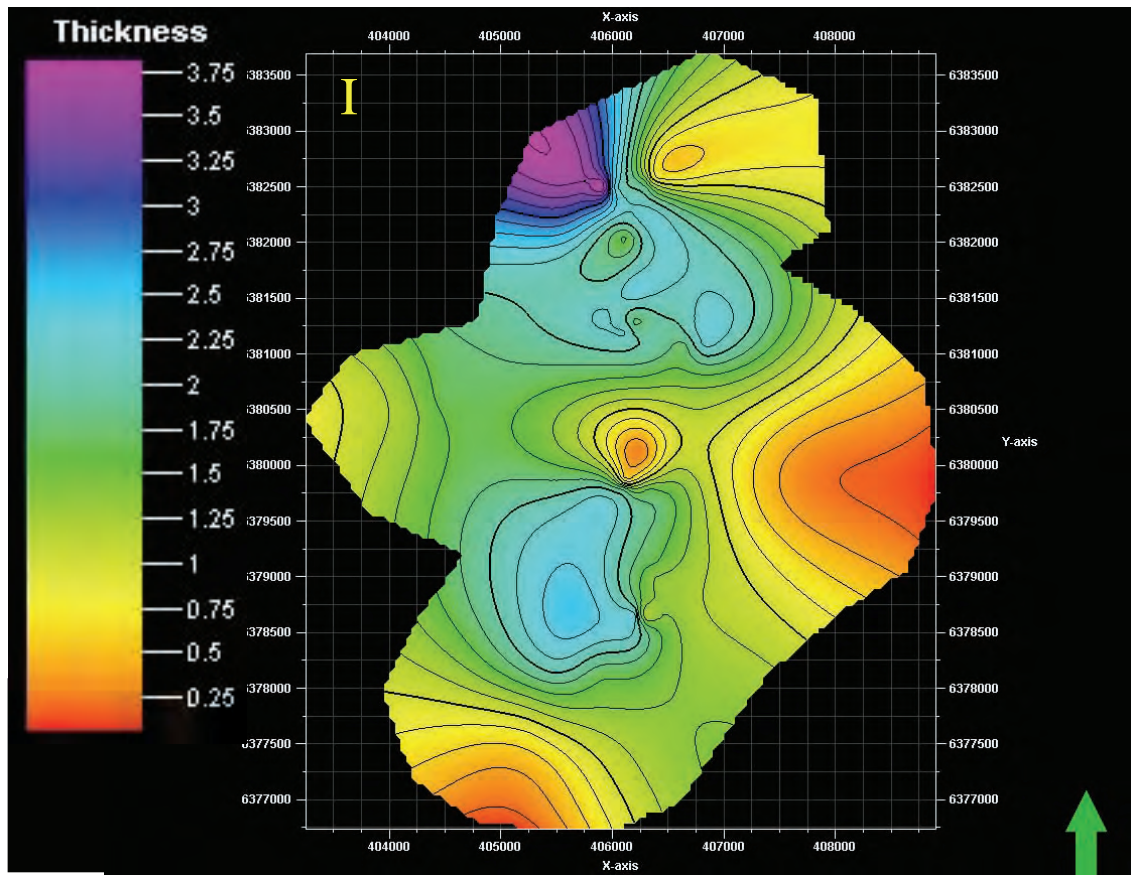


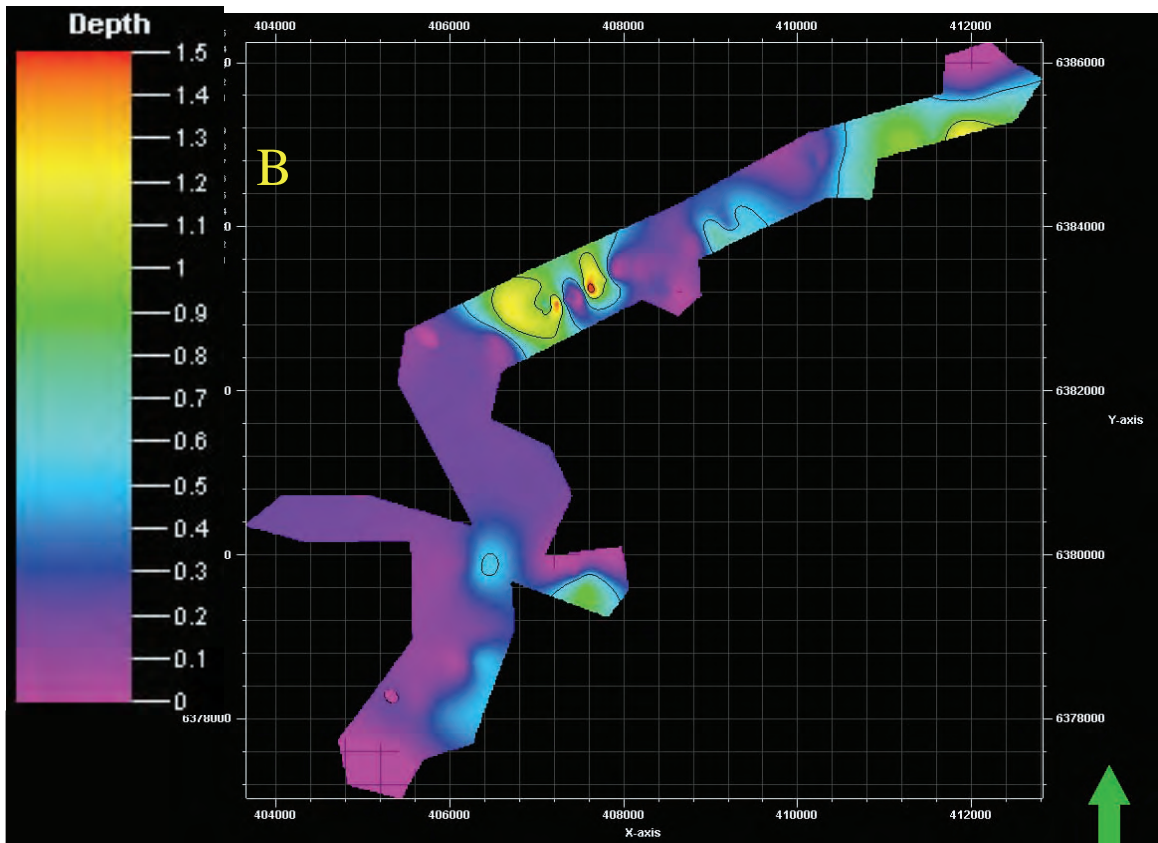
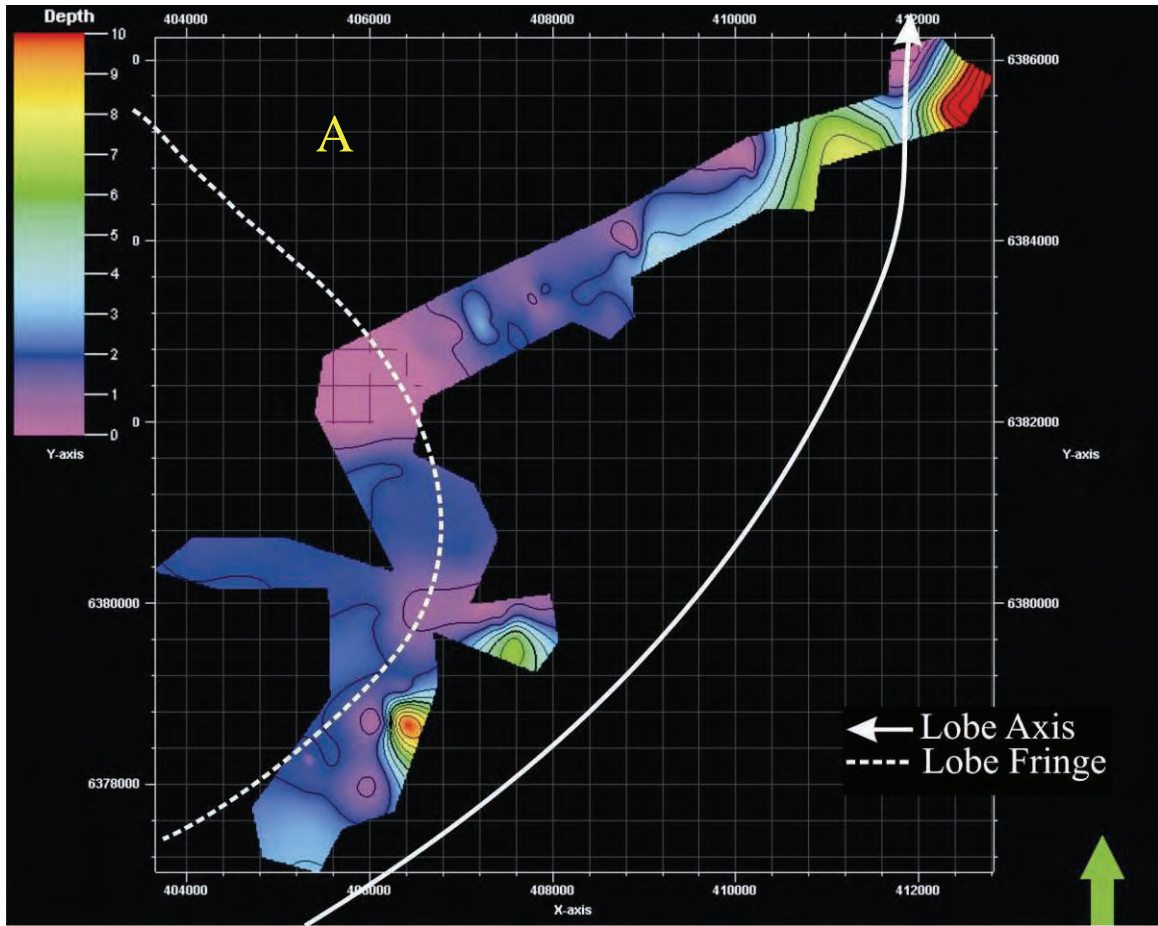
Figure C.1 The first set of Thickness Maps.



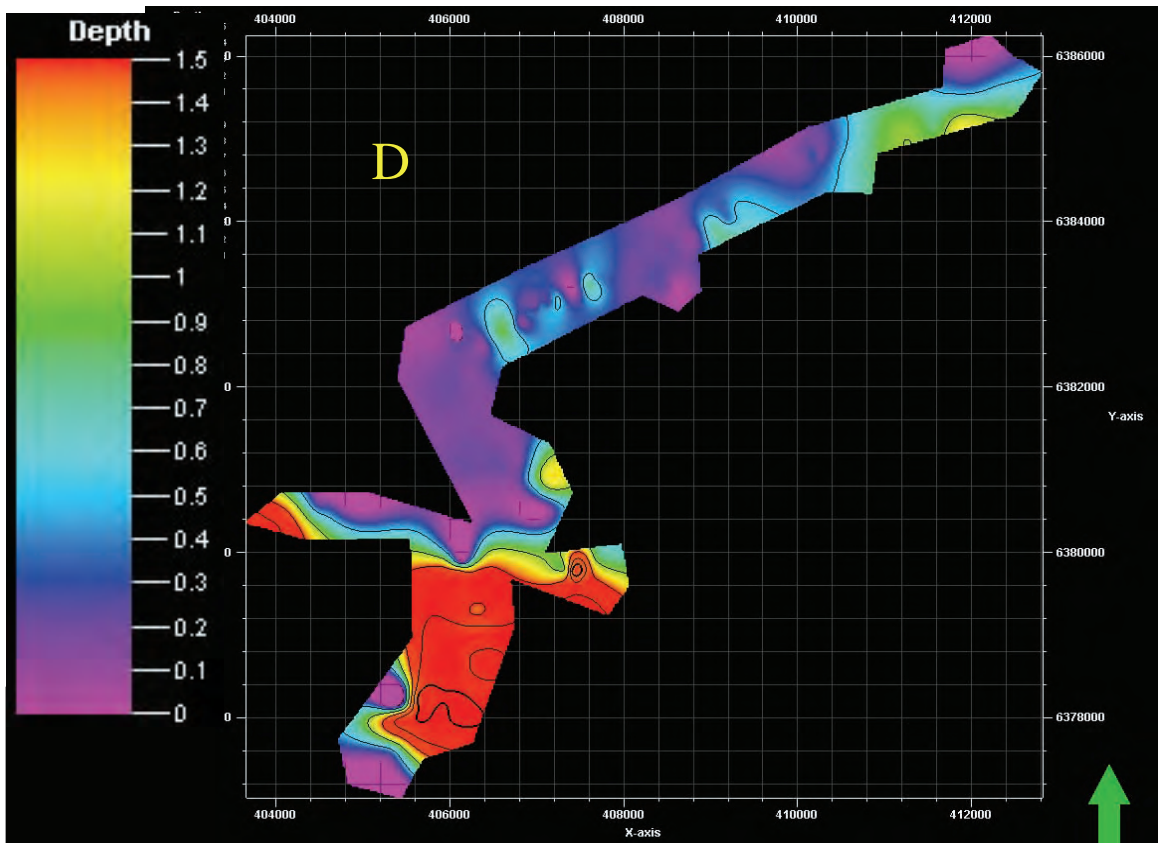
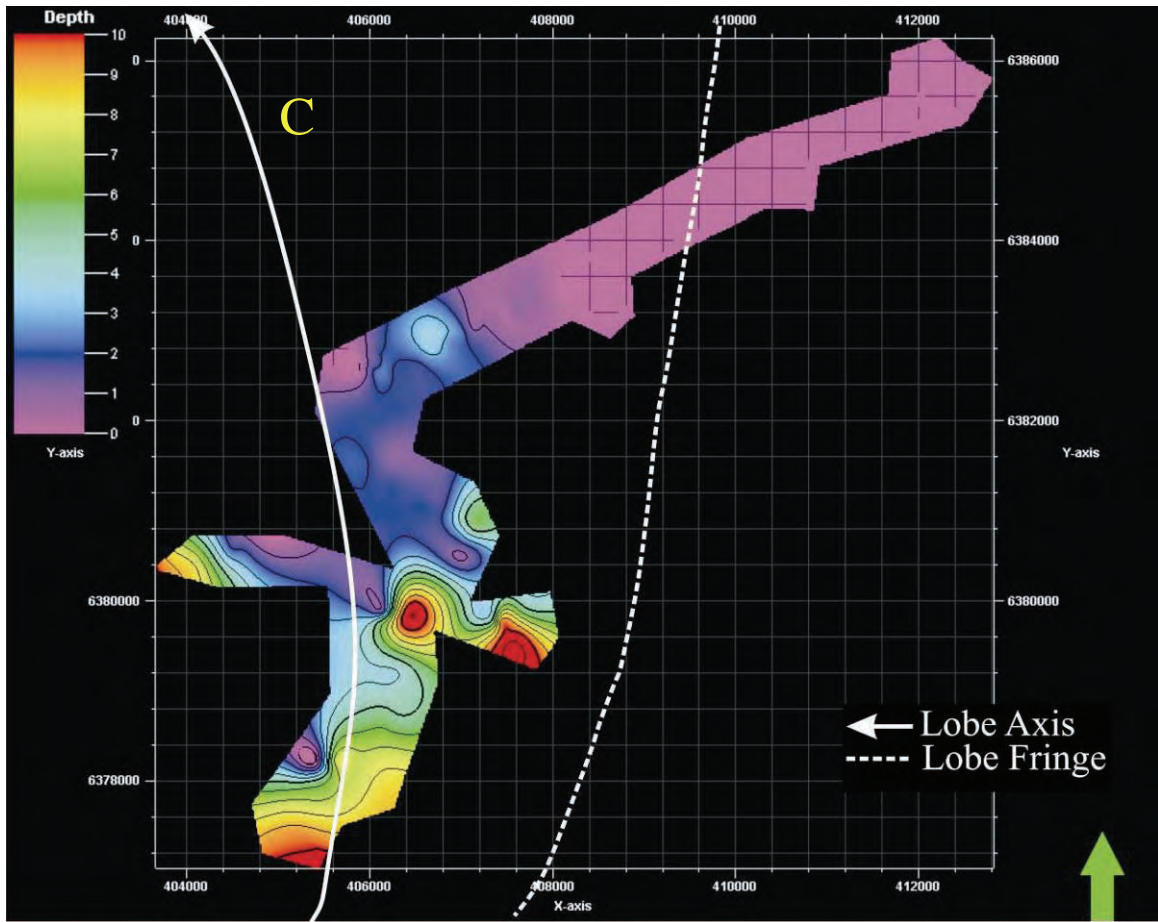
**Figure |C.1 Legend**

- A - Lobe 6
- B - Upper Lobe 5
- C - Lower Lobe 5
- D - Upper Lobe 4
- E - Lower Lobe 4
- F - Upper Lobe 2
- G - Lower Lobe 2
- H - Lobe 1
- I - Sub Lobe 2
- J - Sub Lobe 1

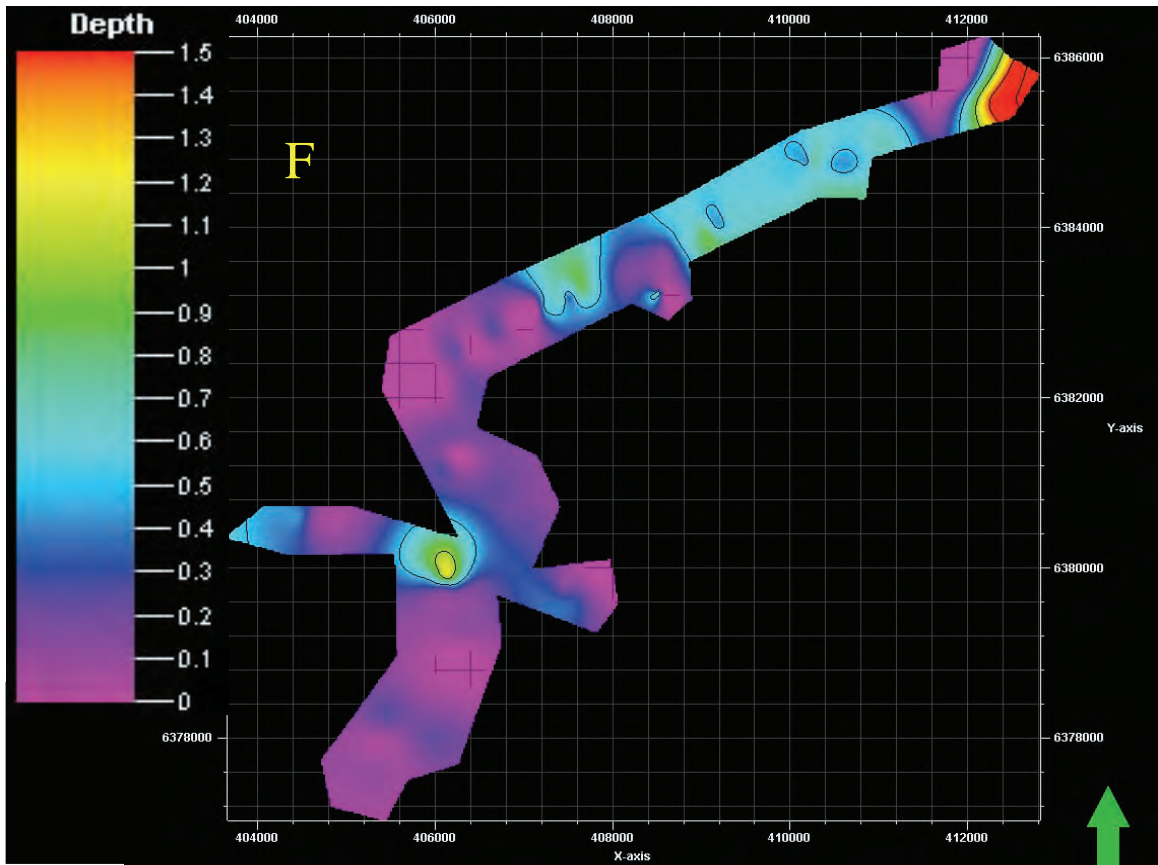
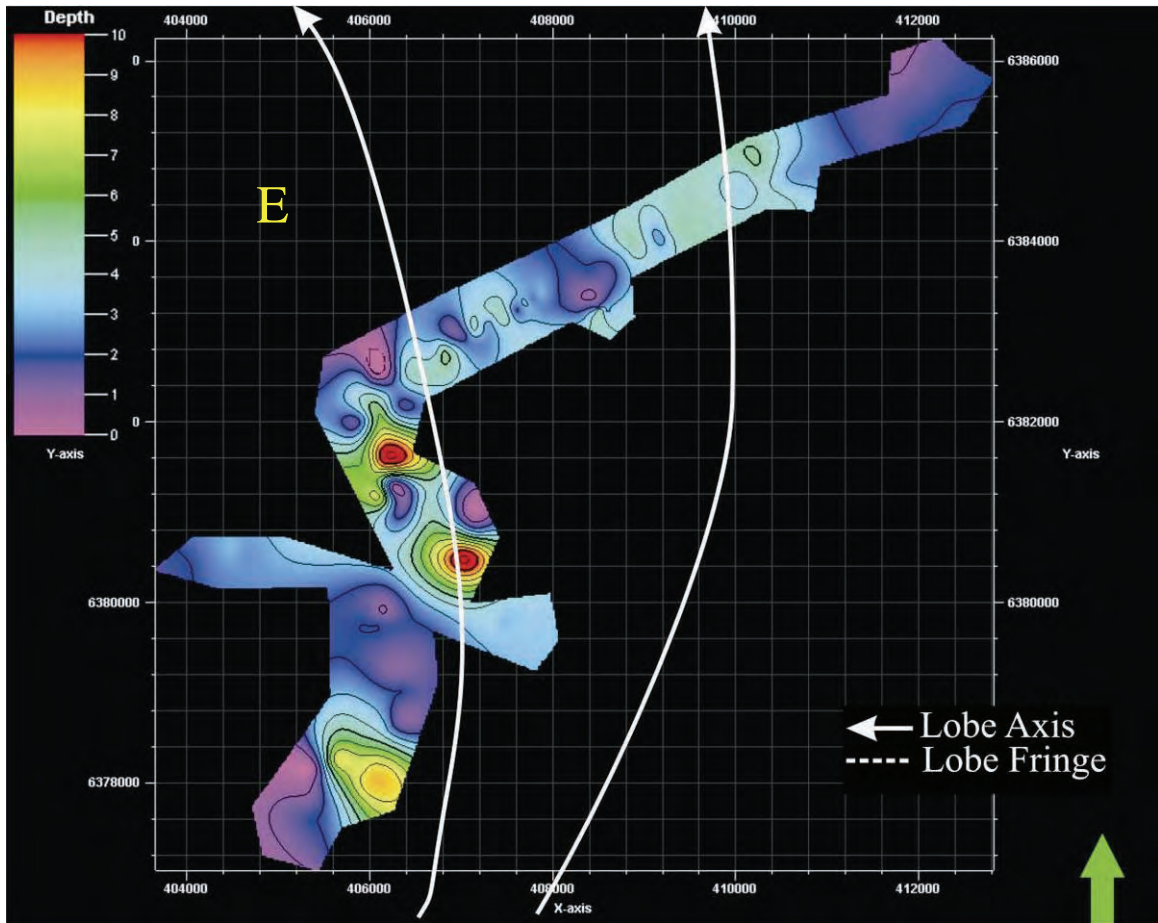
Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



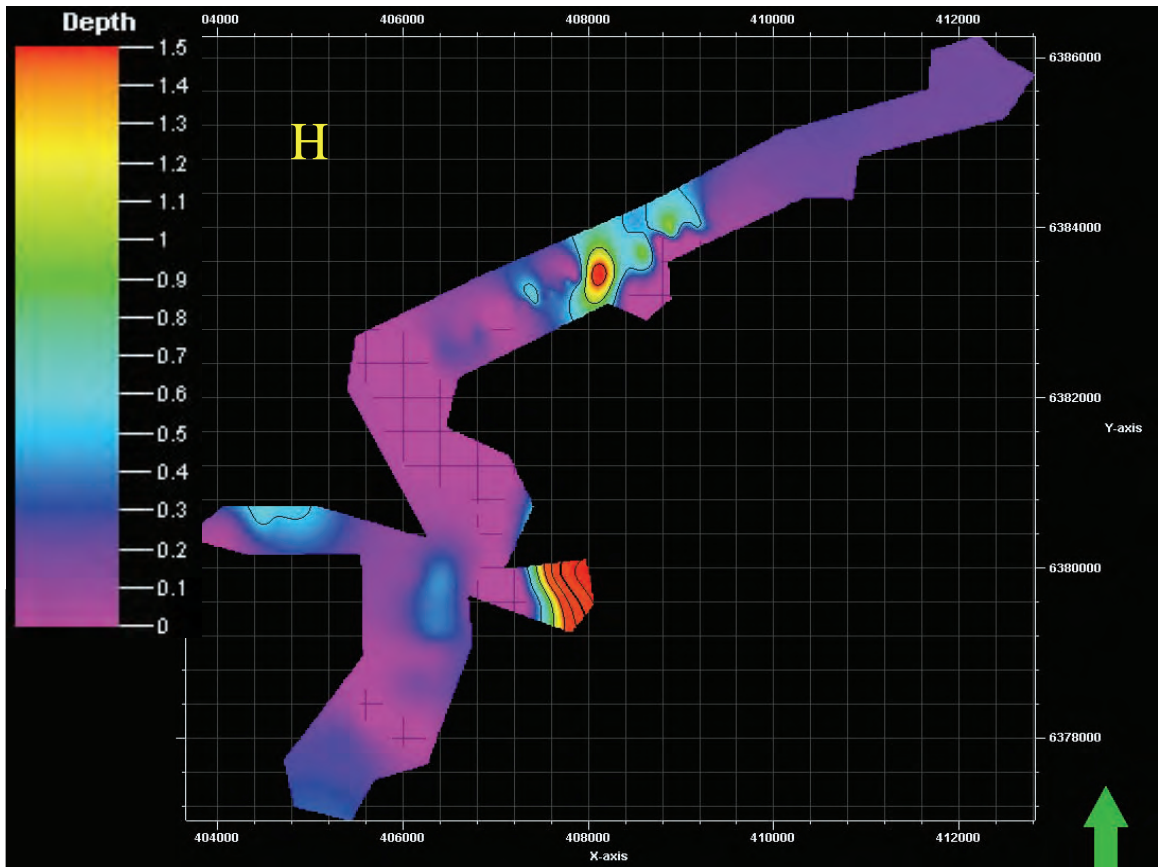
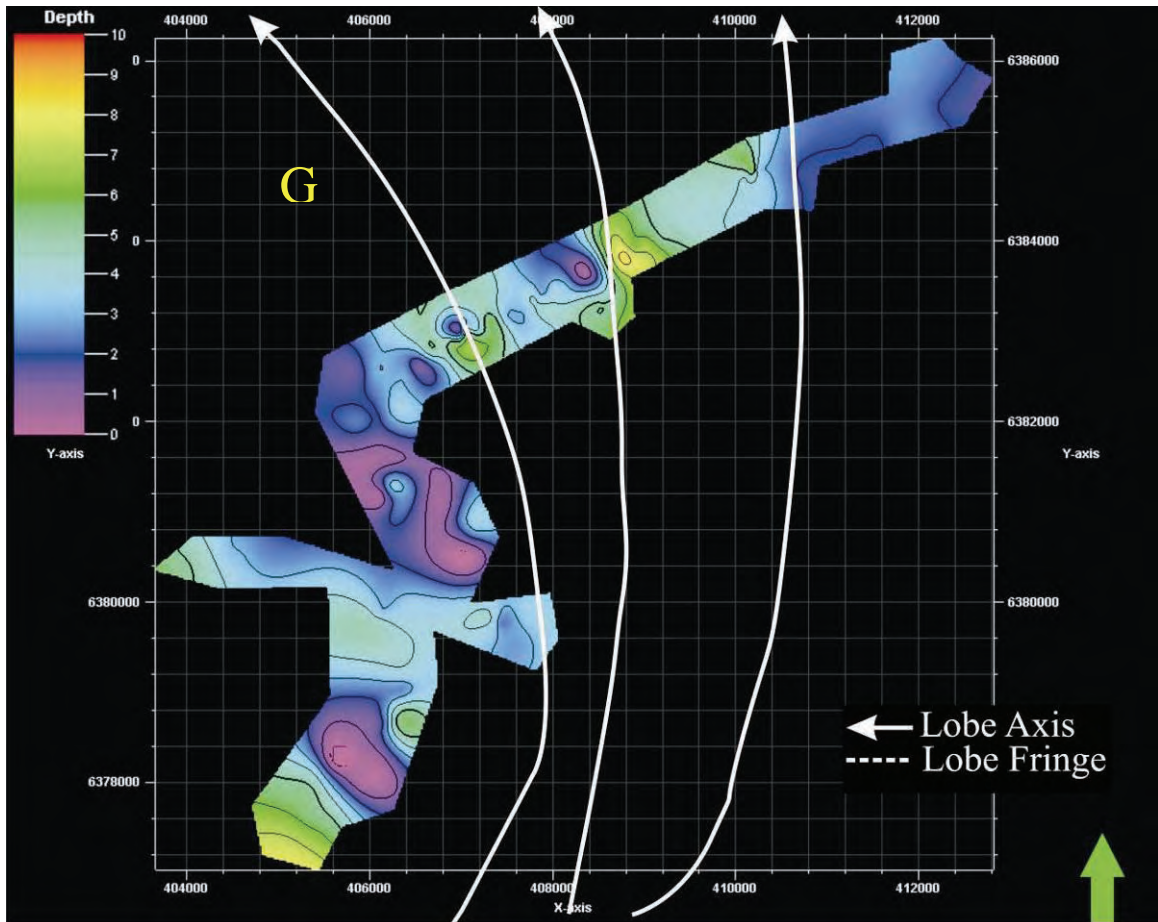
Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



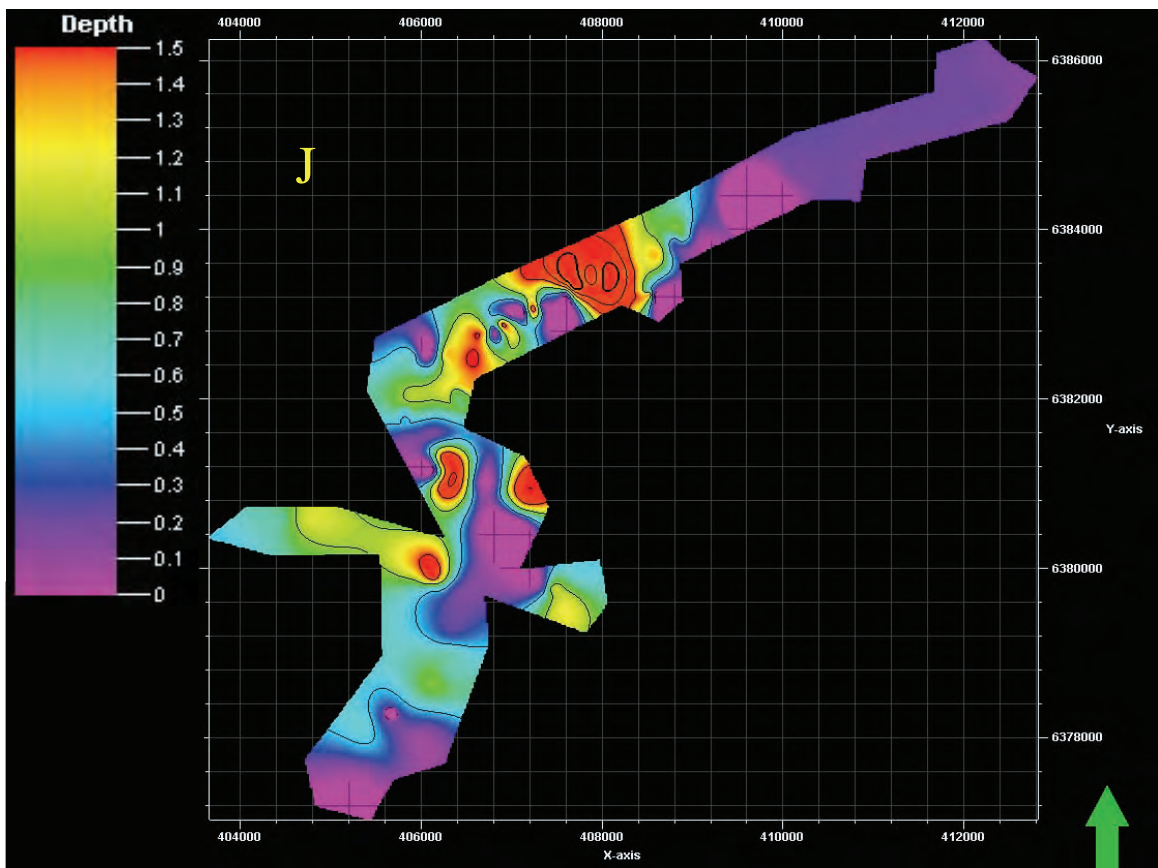
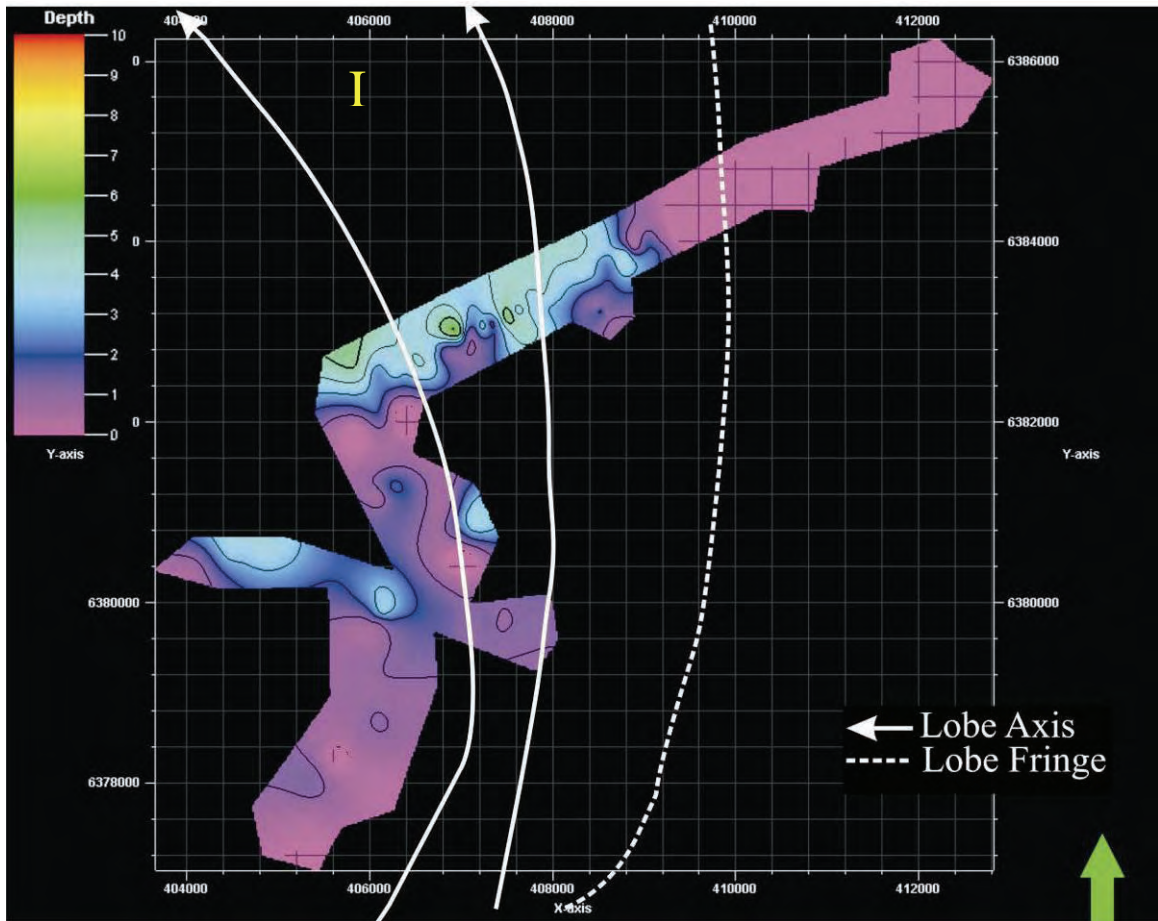
Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



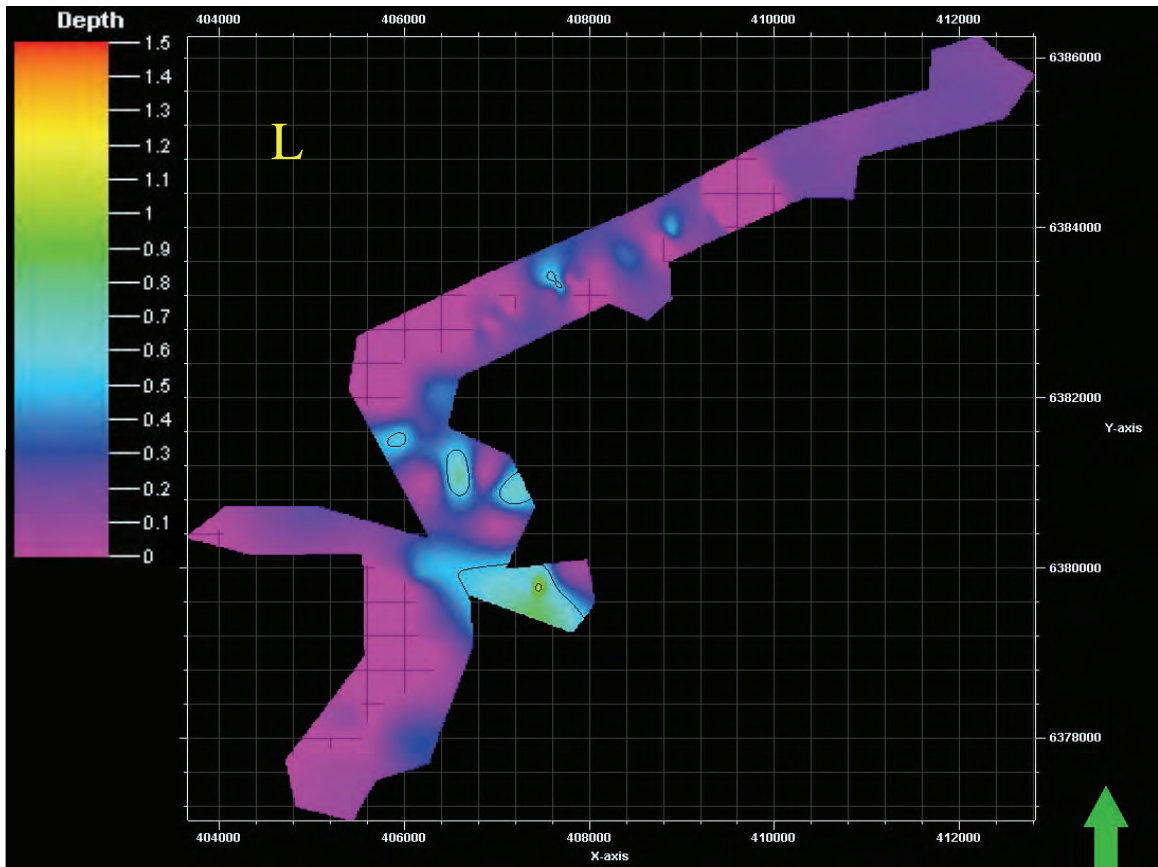
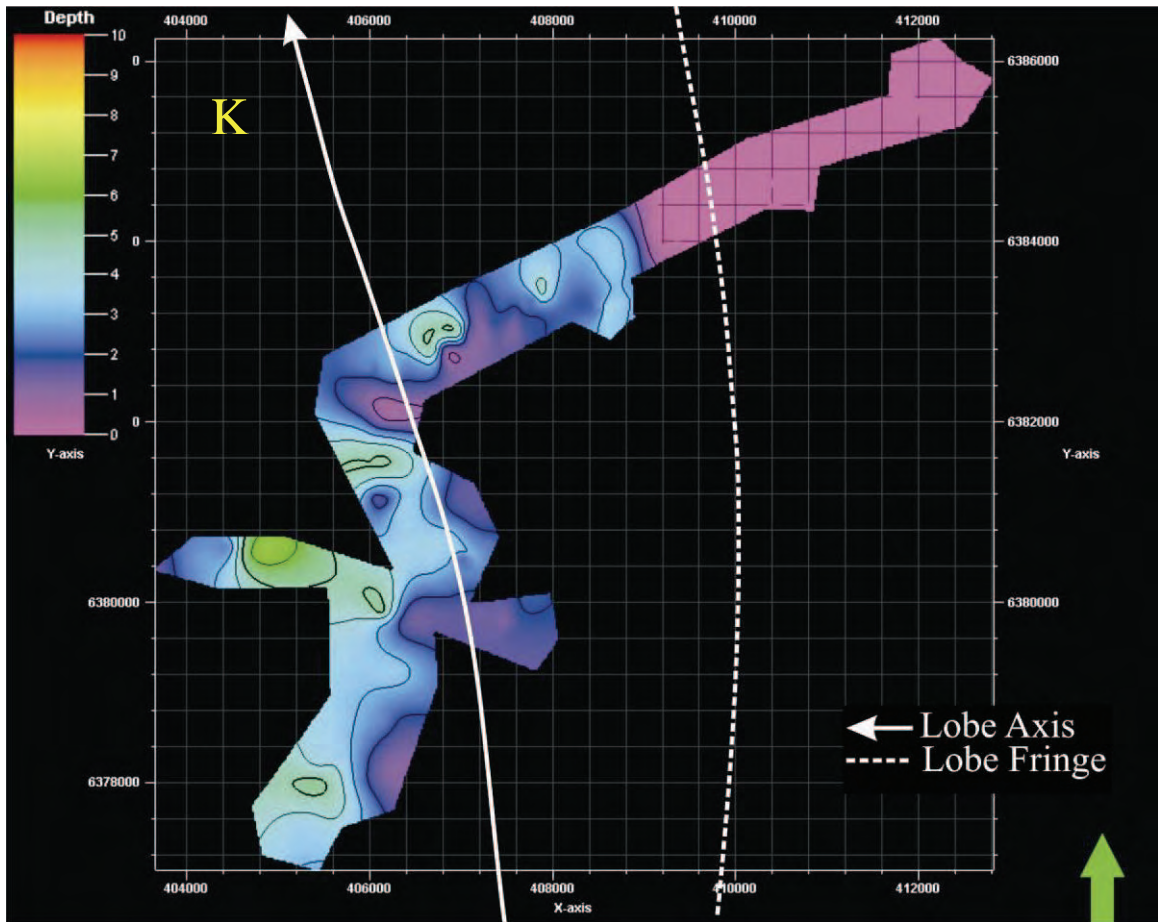
Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



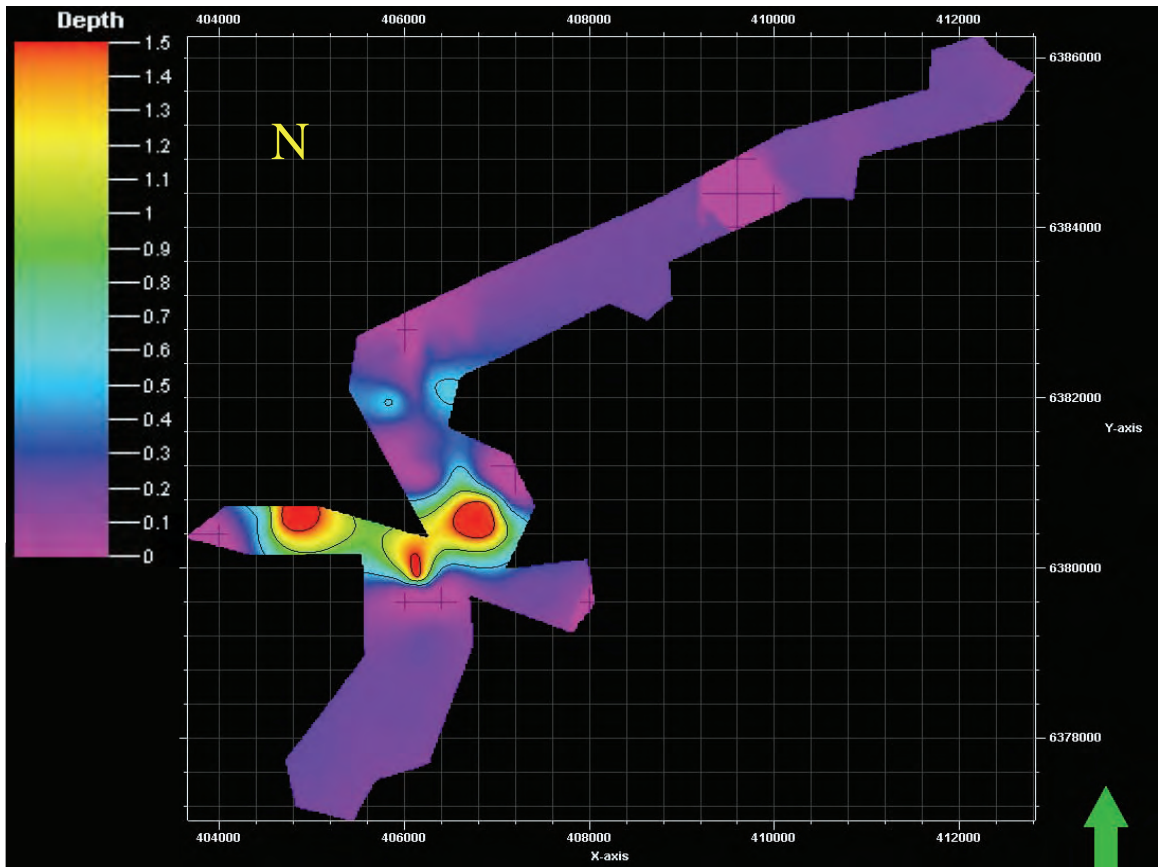
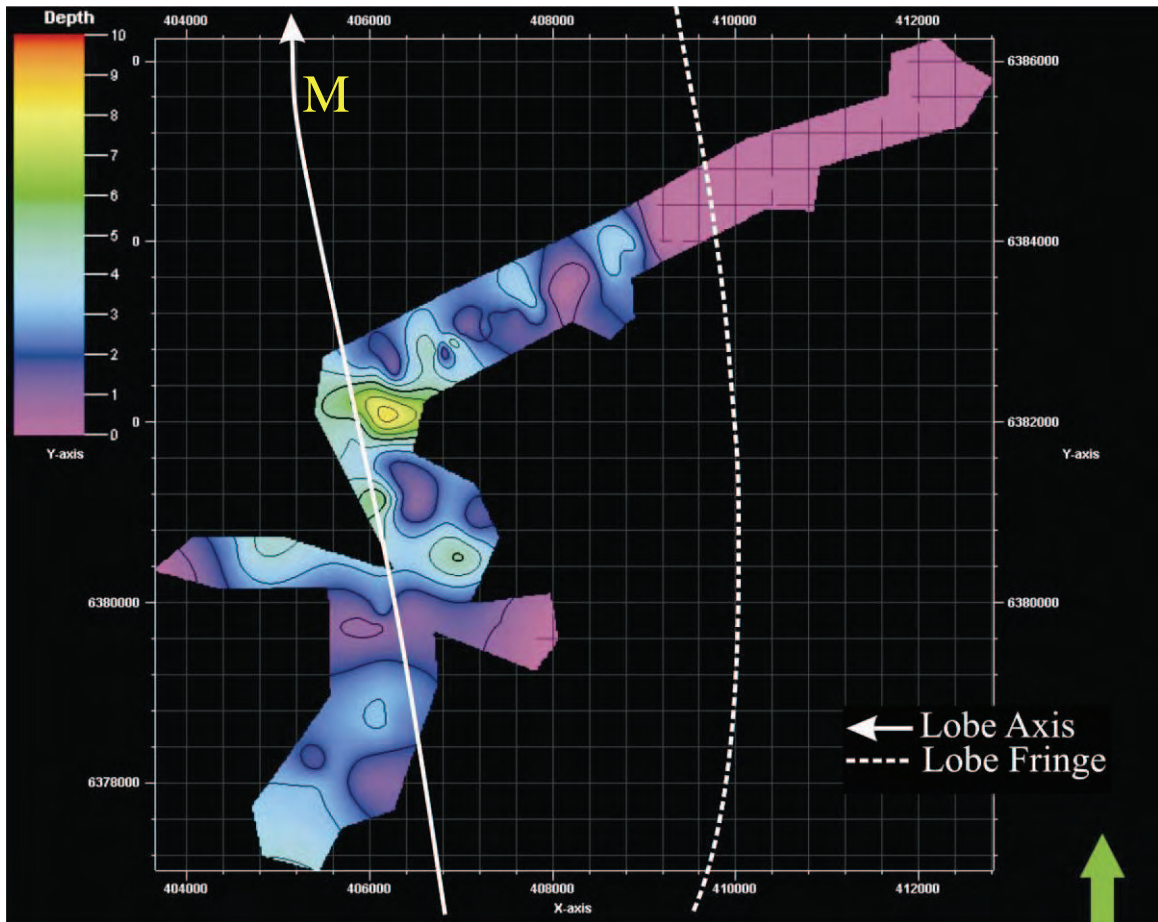
Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



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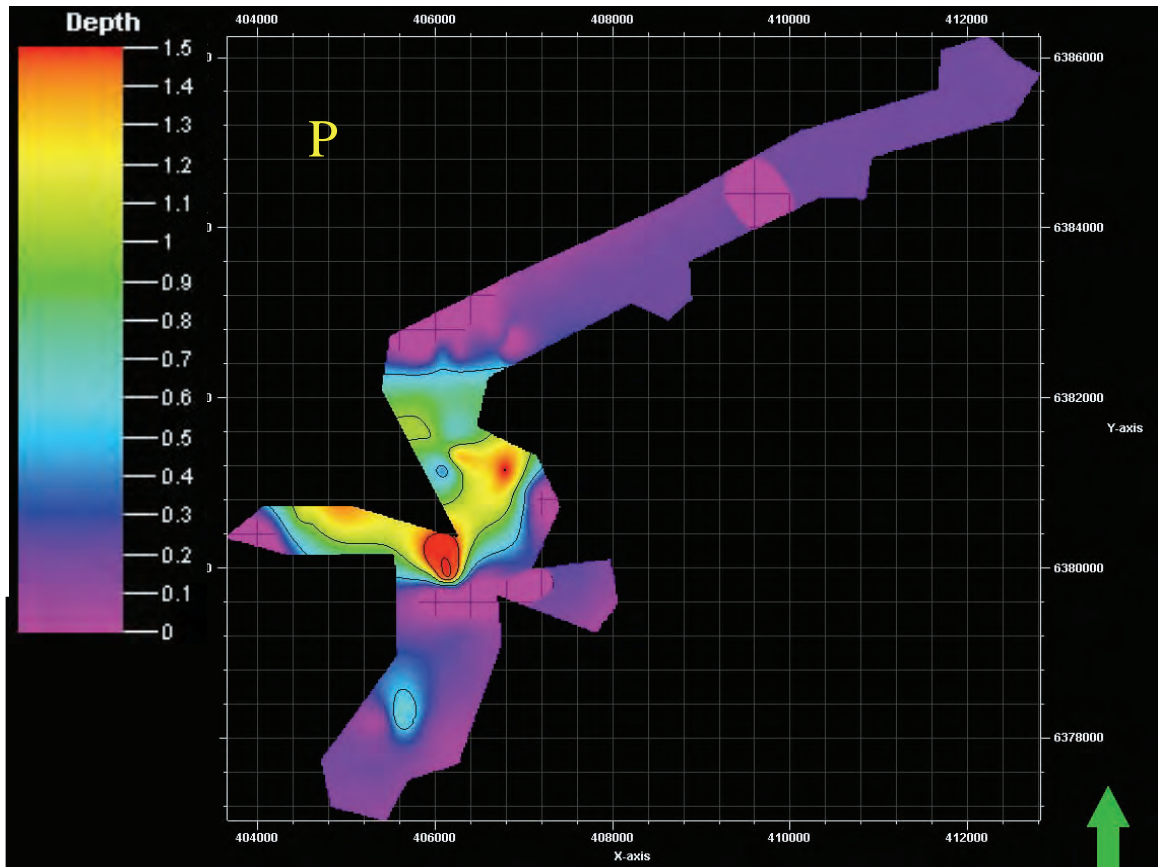
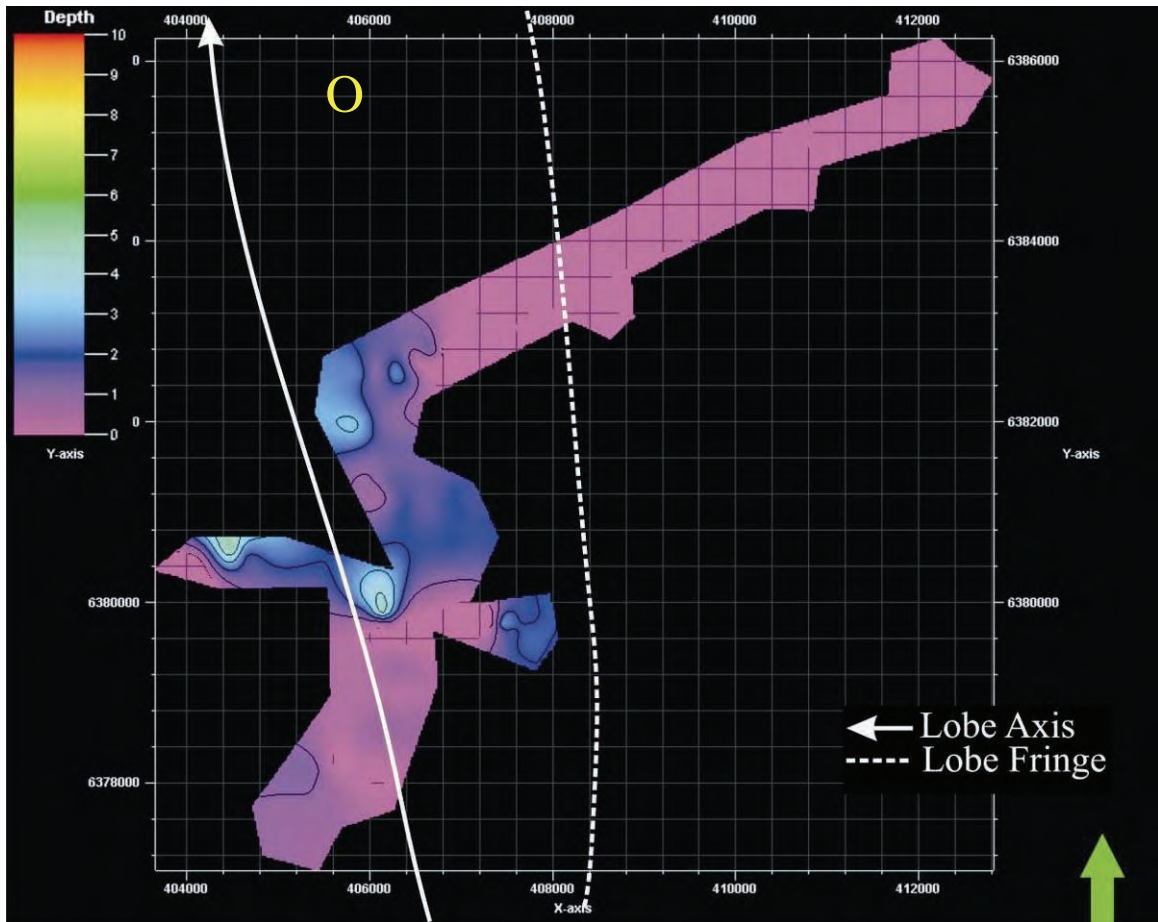


Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps

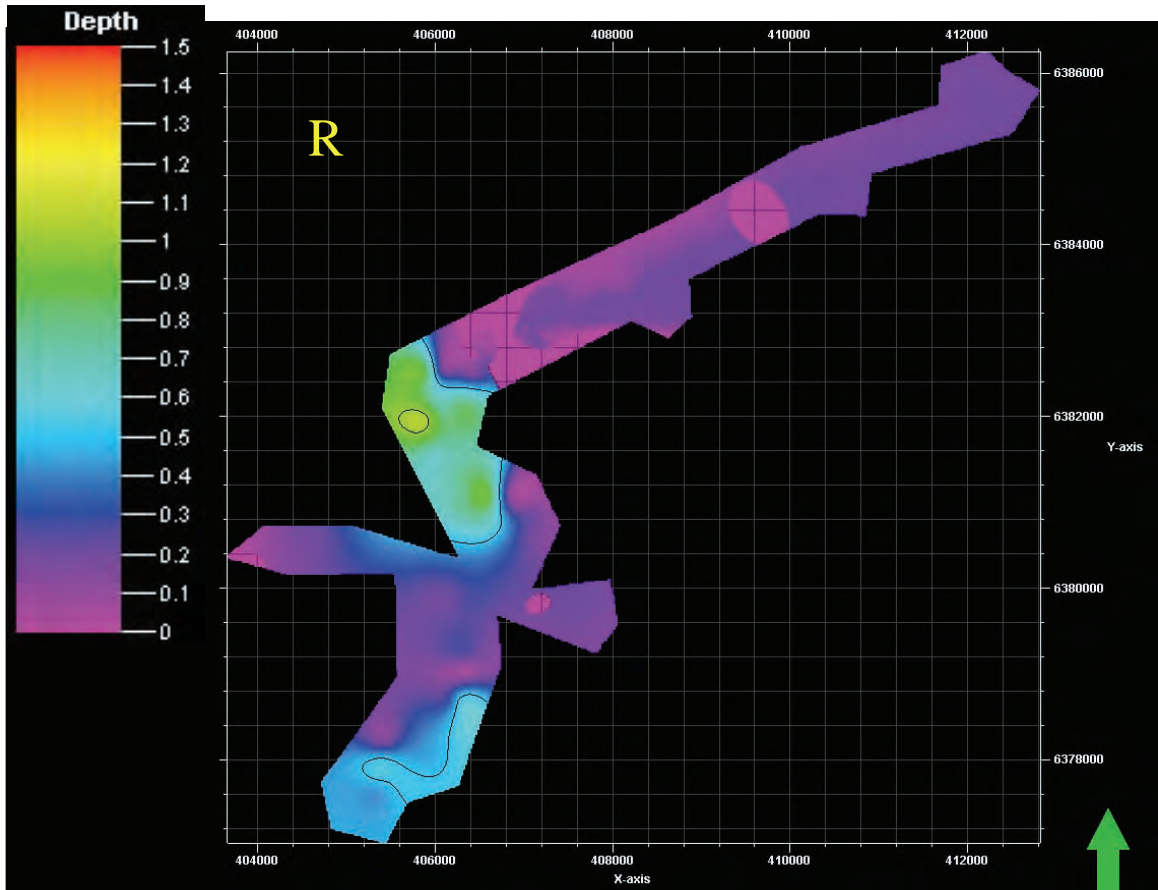
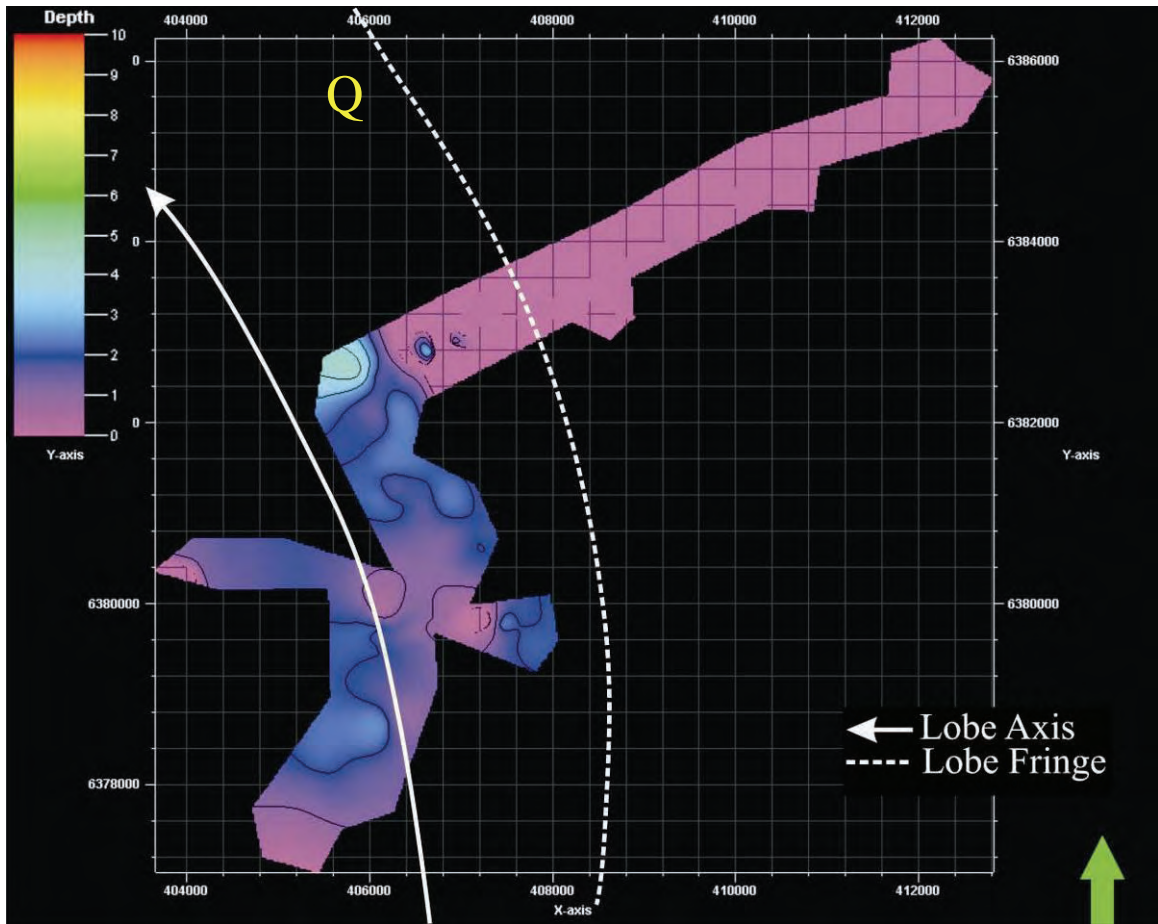




Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



Appendix C Petrel Thickness Maps



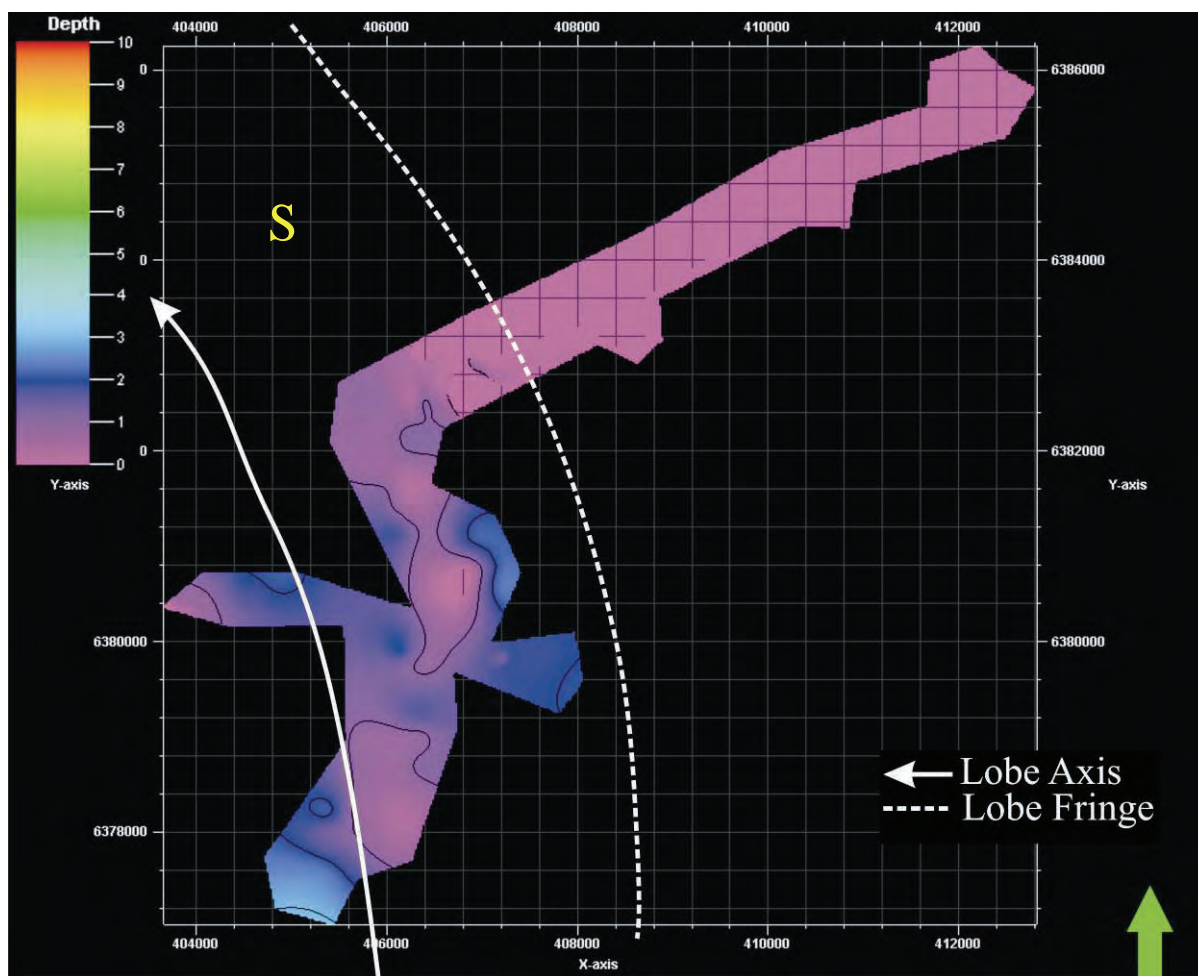


Figure C.2 The final set of Thickness Maps.

**Figure C.2 Legend**

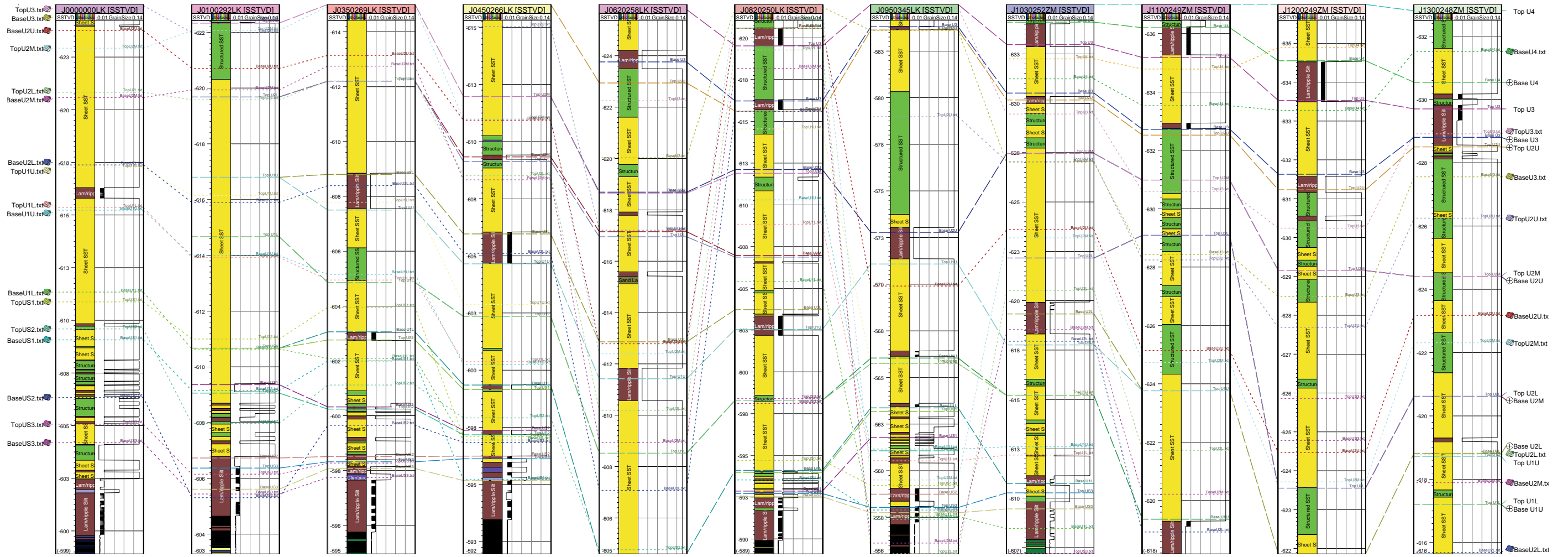
- |                       |                  |
|-----------------------|------------------|
| A - Lobe 6            | K - Upper Lobe 2 |
| B - Interlobe F       | L - Intralobe 2  |
| C - Upper Lobe 5      | M - Lower Lobe 2 |
| D - Intralobe 4       | N - Interlobe B  |
| E - Lower Lobe 5      | O - Lobe 1       |
| F - Interlobe E       | P - Interlobe A  |
| G - Upper Lobe 4      | Q - Sub Lobe 2   |
| H - Intralobe 3       | R - Intralobe 1  |
| I - Lower Lobe 4      | S - Sub Lobe 1   |
| J - Interlobe C and D |                  |

# Appendix D

## **Petrel Correlation Panels**

### **Petrel Correlation Panels**

The Panels presented here were created using Petrel's correlation function. They display the same wells as the corresponding Panels in Appendix A. The difference is of course the correlations themselves: they are represented by the calculated well-tops, and are not manually inserted. Figure D.1 is a representation of the first few wells in the Gemsbok River valley (starting with J0000000LK), but here the first Kriging surfaces are also included to show the lack of accuracy. When up-scaling a well, everything not situated between two surfaces is omitted, and therefore lost to later work.



**Figure D.1** An example correlation panel created in Petrel, showing both the original DSL facies as well as the grain size. Both the well-tops (dashed lines) and the surfaces (dotted lines) created with the Kriging algorithm are included. Note the mess. The well-tops are at the correct levels, whereas the surfaces are literally all over the place. This is what prompted the use of a different algorithm, as the results gained with Kriging simply weren't useful.

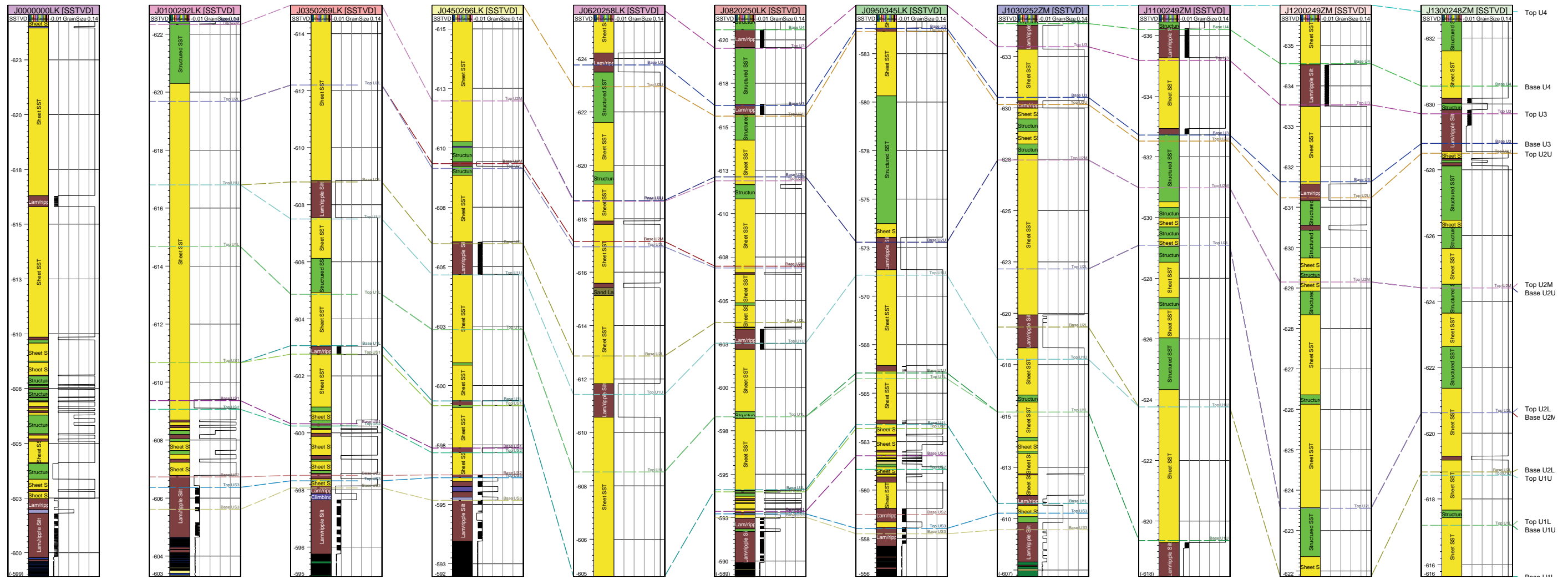


Figure D.2 The same correlation as in figure D.1, only this time the surfaces were omitted in order to give a clear representation.

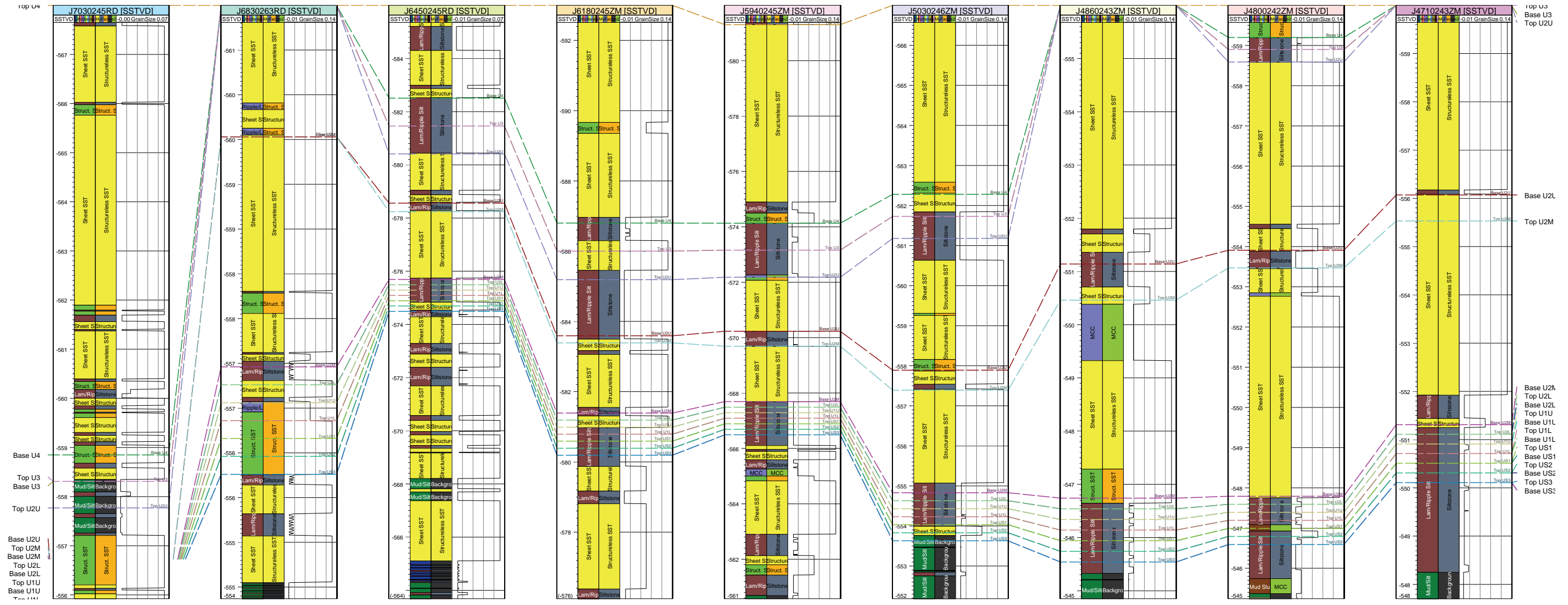


Figure D.3 Panel 1 - 2 as represented by Petrel. Here the new facies as well as the new Excel data is represented. This view in 2D provides a much clearer picture of what the “new” data achieved by extending “missing” units to the full length of the field area.

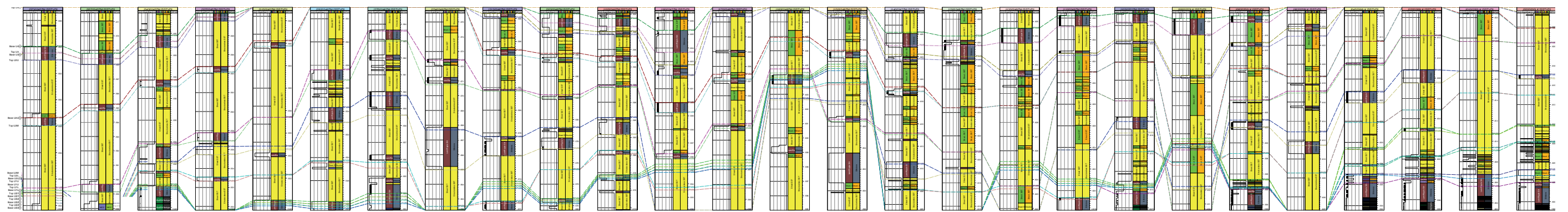


Figure D.4 Panel 3 as represented by Petrel.



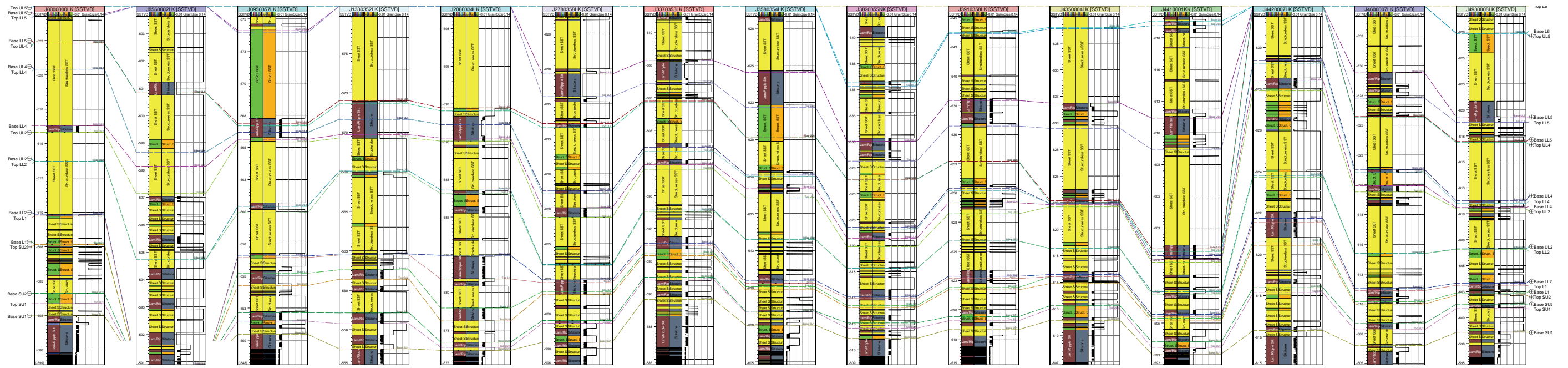


Figure D.5 Panel 12 as represented by Petrel

# Appendix E

## **Interpolation Algorithms in Petrel**

## **Interpolation Algorithms in Petrel**

**(based on descriptions in Petrel Online Help)**

There are numerous algorithms included in Petrel which can be used to create surfaces and interpolate models, and by extension, grids used for models, which are also surfaces. Some of these are: closest, artificial, moving average, directional trend, functional, cos expansion, convergent gridder, Kriging, and sequential Gaussian simulation.

This appendix is a short summary of some of the algorithms used in Petrel, as described in the Online Help files of Petrel 2007.1.2.

**Closest algorithms** use the closest input point for the creation of surfaces.

**Artificial algorithms** can use five different methods, all based on variation, or lack thereof, of Z-values. The Z-values can either be constant, or based on complex variation from sources such as isochors. The dip and azimuth can also be defined for some methods.

**Moving average algorithms** find an average of the input data and weights it according to its distance from data points. The algorithm is fast and will create values for all cells of a grid. It can, however, create concentric patterns if the range of the input data is large. The algorithm will not generate values larger or smaller than the minimum and maximum values of the input data. Petrel can utilise the algorithm by changing the exponent.

**Directional trend algorithms** are not so much used for surface creation as to give a directional trend to any other algorithm used for interpolation. Both the direction and influence weight can be adjusted.

**Functional algorithms** use standard equations, from straight lines to parabolic functions, to create 3-dimensional functions. It then uses these functions in the interpolation of Z-values for a surface. The algorithm weights the input points by distance and will be recalculated for each interpolation. It will keep a trend going, and is therefore best suited for twenty or more input points. The algorithm actually requires more than a few points so as not to fail.

**Cos expansion algorithms** create smooth surfaces, in other words it minimizes curvature. This is useful for few points, but cumbersome when points become too numerous, and can fail if points are too close together.

**Convergent gridder algorithms** are control point orientated algorithms (as opposed to grid point) which will converge upon the solution iteratively adding more and more resolution. The result is that general trends are retained even in areas with little data, while detail is honoured in areas where the data exists. This algorithm is the surface gridding and smoothing algorithm used

when building a structural model, a single surface model or smoothing a grid. A general-purpose algorithm, it is suited to a variety of data types of various densities. It can handle line data (such as fault interpretations), dense data point distributions (horizon interpretation grids), sparse data point distribution (horizon marker interpretations), or a combinations of the above, as well as other data types. It can honour data approximately (geophysical data) or exactly (geologic data). The algorithm is fast, building the model in stages by iterating or converging from an initial to a final solution. There is no data searching or sorting. The iterative converging process ensures this is a data-driven process which requires minimal parameter control, although many parameters are available. Surface derivatives at every iteration are interpolated and fed into the next iteration. Extrapolation is stable, even at large distances from the data.

**Kriging algorithms** use variograms to express the spatial variability of the input data (variograms are used to analyse the spatial variation of reservoir properties, and are based on the principle that closely spaced data are more likely to correlate than data spaced farther apart, and after a certain distance a minimum correlation is reached, after which distance becomes irrelevant). The type of function for the variogram, namely exponential, spherical and Gaussian, range, sill and nugget can all be defined manually. The algorithm will not generate values larger or smaller than the minimum and maximum values of the input data.

The **Sequential Gaussian simulation** is a stochastic method of interpolation based on Kriging. It is capable of honouring input data, input distributions, variograms and trends. During the simulation, local highs and lows will be generated between input data point locations which honour the variogram, the positions of which will be determined by a random number which can be set manually, but in the absence of other information, the input distribution will be given by the original input data. In the latter case the result will not produce values above or below the maximum and minimum of the input data.