

History matching of the Norne Field using the Ensemble based Reservoir Tool (EnKF/ES)

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NORWEGIAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

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by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment for the degree of Master of Science

in the

The Faculty of Engineering Science and Technology Department of Petroleum Engineering and Applied Geophysics

April 2, 2014

Declaration of Authorship

I, Daniel Aleksander Solheim, declare that this thesis titled, History matching of the Norne Field using the Ensemble Reservoir Tool (EnKF/ES), and the work presented in it are my own. I confirm that:

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- Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at NTNU or any other institution, this has been clearly stated.
- Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed.
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 With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work.
- I have acknowledged all main sources of help.
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NORWEGIAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Abstract

The Faculty of Engineering Science and Technology Department of Petroleum Engineering and Applied Geophysics

Master of Science

History matching of the Norne Field using the Ensemble based Reservoir Tool (EnKF/ES)

by Daniel Aleksander Solheim

In this thesis two stochastic algorithms, the Ensemble Smoother (ES) and the Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF), have been utilized as automatic history matching methods through the Statoil developed program the Ensemble based Reservoir Tool. Statoil, through the IO Center at NTNU, provided real historical production and pressure data. These data was used to condition on a parametrized ECLIPSE reservoir model of the Norne field. Parameters conditioned on includes the field parameters porosity, i-permeability, net-to-gross, and z-direction transmissibility multiplier, as well as fault multipliers, region transmissibility multipliers, minimum pore volumes and relative permeability endscaling options. The E-segment model and the Full-field model were both studied.

With an ensemble size of 120 realizations for the E-Segment model and 80 realizations for the Full-field model, both algorithms performed well. In most of the results an initial high uncertainty in the prior provided the necessary coverage of the historical observed data. Overall the EnKF performed better than the ES, which is natural comparing time and computational power required. Some spurious correlations and one particular ensemble collapse were experienced. The EnKF-analysed ensemble production rates provides a lot less uncertainty than the initial ensemble, and for most plots a slightly better match than the reference case. The EnKF-algorithm is shown to be vulnerable to small ensemble sizes versus large amounts of conditioning parameters, as well as highly correlated historical observations.

NORGES TEKNISK-NATURVITENSKAPELIGE UNIVERSITET

Sammendrag

Fakultet for ingeniørvitenskap og teknologi Institutt for petroleumsteknologi og anvendt geofysikk

Master of Science

Historietilpasning av Nornefeltet ved bruk av the Ensemble based Reservoir Tool (EnKF/ES)

av Daniel Aleksander Solheim

I denne oppgaven ble to stokastiske algoritmer, the Ensemble Smoother (ES) og the Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF), benyttet til historietilpasning. Algoritmene ble brukt gjennom det eksternt utviklede programmet the Ensemble based Reservoir Tool. Sanne produksjons- og trykkdata, gjort tilgjengelig av Statoil og IO Senteret på NTNU, ble brukt for å kondisjonere på en parametrisert ECLIPSE reservoir model av Norne-feltet. Kondisjoneringsparametere inkluderer feltparameterne porøsitet, i-permabilitet, net-to-gross og z-retning-transmissibilitetsmultiplikator, samt også forkastningsmultiplikatorer, region-transmissibilitetsmultiplikatorer, minimum porevolumer og relativ permeabilitetsskaleringsinnstillinger. Både E-segmentmodellen og Fullfelts-modellen ble studert.

Med en ensemblestørrelse på 120 realisasjoner for E-segment-modellen og 80 realisasjoner for Fullfelts-modellen produserte begge algoritmene gode resultater. Størstedelen av resultatplottene inneholder en ensembleprognose med en god dekning av de historiske observerte dataene. Overordnet produserte EnKF bedre resultater enn ES, noe som er logisk forskjellene i tidsbruk og nødvendig regnekraft tatt i betraktning. En del mindre gode korrelasjoner, samt én spesielt grov ensemblekollaps ble observert. De EnKF-analyserte ensemble-produksjonsratene har generelt en mye mindre usikkerhet enn ensembleprognosen, og for størstedelen av resultatplottene viser de EnKF-analyserte ensemble-produksjonsratene et bedre resultatet enn referansemodellen. EnKF-algoritmen viser seg å være sensitiv for små ensemblestørrelser sett i forhold til store mengder kondisjoneringsparametere, samt høyt korrelerte historiske observasjoner.

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Abbreviations

D	\mathbf{D} arcy, permeabiliy unit
HM	History Matching
AHM	$\mathbf{A} \text{utomatic } \mathbf{H} \text{istory } \mathbf{M} \text{atching}$
GOR	Gas Oil Ratio
NTG	Net To Gross
STOIIP	${\bf S} {\rm tock} \ {\bf T} {\rm ank} \ {\bf O} {\rm il} \ {\bf I} {\rm nitially} \ {\bf I} {\rm n} \ {\bf P} {\rm lace}$
\mathbf{pdf}	\mathbf{p} robability d ensity f unction
ERT	Ensemble based Reservoir Tool
EKF	\mathbf{E} xtended \mathbf{K} alman \mathbf{F} ilter
ES	$\mathbf{E} n semble \ \mathbf{S} moother$
EnKS	$\mathbf{E} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{m} \mathbf{o} \mathbf{t} \mathbf{h} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{h} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{h} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{s} s$
EnKF	Ensemble Kalman Filter
RML	${f R}$ andomized ${f M}$ aximum Likelihood
WWPRH	Well Water Production Rate History
WGPRH	Well Gas Production Rate History
WOPRH	Well Oil Production Rate History
WBHPH	Well Bottom Hole Pressure History
WTHPH	Well Tubing Head Pressure History
WWIRH	Well Water Injection Rate History
WGIRH	Well Gas Injection Rate History

Nomenclature

$C_{\psi\psi}$	Covariance of a scalar state
d	True historical observation
d^o	Measured historical observation $(d^o = d + \epsilon_d)$
$f(\psi)$	Probability density function, where ψ is a vector or a vector of fields
$f(\phi)$	Probability density function, where ϕ is a vector or a vector of fields
T	Final time of assimilation period
α	Poorly known model parameter to be estimated
ψ	State variable, either in scalar or vector form
Δ	Real number representing the difference between observed and predicted data
W_D	Diagonal data weighting matrix
β	Weighing factor (belief in the initial model)
m_1	Model
m_0	Prior model
C_d	Data covariance matrix
C_m	Model parameters covariance matrix
x	Vector describing ensemble members
n_e	Ensemble size
n_d	Number of historical observations
\mathbf{X}^T	A transposed vector \mathbf{X}
Tr	Trace value
Var	Variance
Cov	Covariance

Gaussian	Functions named after Carl Friedrich Gauss describing normal distributions
ECLIPSE	Black-oil, 3D, 3-phase reservoir simulator owned, maintained and developed by SIS,
	a division of Schlumberger
IO Center	Center for Integrated Operations in the Petroleum Industry
WCONHIST	ECLIPSE keyword for observed rates for history matching production wells
WCONINJH	ECLIPSE keyword for observed rates for history matching injection wells

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Aim and Objective

The aim of this thesis is to perform computer-assisted (semi-automatic) history matching of the Norne Field, both the E-segment and the Full-field model. Two separate algorithms will be used and comparative notes will be taken regarding the two. Further discussion around the parametrization of a reservoir model and conditioning done by pressure and production history will be thoroughly weighted. The objective of this thesis is to better understand the task of computer-assisted history matching, improve the behaviour and exactness of the Norne reservoir model and lay grounds for future research in this area at NTNU.

1.2 Methodology

Various methodologies have long existed for better developing and improving reservoir models used for predictions of future field behavior. Uncertainty quantification of these predictions have always been the major obstacle. The first research done on what we now know as computer-assisted, or automatic, history matching (AHM) was probably done by Kruger around 1960. He pointed out the obvious fact that for a model to resemble a real life problem, the calculated and observed

pressure data should be in agreement (Kruger, 1961). Kruger also saw it beneficial to utilize these "electronic computers" for solving the non-unique inverse problem that history matching is in an automated way. In the mid 1970s, optimal control theory was heavily applied in obtaining history matched models (Chavent et al., 1975), while in the early 1990s the simulated annealing technique as a global optimization algorithm was introduced. Without the use of gradients, this technique was different from most of the earlier methods (Ouenes and Saad, 1993).

From the middle of the 1990s a change was seen in the how the industry wanted history matched reservoir models. From the search for a single global solution there was now a desire for several local minima which made it easier to quantify and control the uncertainty of the predictions. [It has been shown that the search for a single true solution (global minimum) may in certain circumstances produce very weak results compared to several local minima (Tavassoli et al., 2004)]. With the explosive growth and accessibility of computational power, new AHM methods were developed quickly. Stochastic methods were now favoured, and the simulated annealing technique, evolutionary strategies and genetic algorithms were some of the first stochastic HM methods (Romero et al., 2000, Schulze-Riegert et al., 2002, Sen et al., 1995). The following years saw new methods emerge, such as the Mesh Adaptive Direct Search (MADS), the Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and the Generalized Pattern Search (GPS). The latest and most popular algorithms within the stochastic methods has been the Ant Colony Optimization and Differential Evolution (Hajizadeh et al., 2010).

Stochastic and derivative-free methods are often impractical in large or even medium-scale history matching problems due to the large amount of simulator responses required. The use of the adjoint method for calculating gradients was introduced already in the mid-1970s (Chen and Seinfeld, 1975), but it was not until 2003 the adjoint method was successfully extended to a 3D, three-phase flow problem (Li et al., 2003). This breakthrough gave the gradient-based methods much renewed interest and it is still an area subject to extensive research today (Kahrobaei et al., 2013). The Ensemble Kalman Filter, introduced by Evensen in 1994 (Evensen, 1994) and based on the Kalman filter (Kalman, 1960), laid foundations for a new category of history matching methods, namely data assimilation. The 3DVAR, 4DVAR and the Randomized Maximum Likelihood (RML) are other methods in this category. These are derivative-free methods, however based on recursive Bayesian estimation and probability distributions, they differ from other stochastic methods. Several reports and papers over the last years discuss these types of AHM methods.

Seemingly, the discipline of history matching has gradually evolved into heavy computerized tasks utilizing intricate mathematical and statistical algorithms. As a result, this thesis will focus on automatic history matching of the Norne Field with the use of the Ensemble Smoother and the Ensemble Kalman Filter. These are made available through the Ensemble based Reservoir Tool (ERT) developed at Statoil (Statoil and NCC, 2013). Conditioning will be performed with the use of historical pressure and production rate data made available by Statoil through the Norne Benchmark Case. The Norne reservoir model is originally created by Statoil, however through the Norne Benchmark Case created in a collaborable effort by Statoil and NTNU, the reservoir model are continually being improved (IO Center, 2010). The computer load will be shared by the NTNU HPC Group's Kongull cluster, which is a CentOS 5.3 Linux cluster running Rocks on HP servers with 2 AMD Opteron model 2431 6-core (Istanbul) processors per node.

1.3 Reservoir Simulation

Reservoir simulation is one of the most important performing tasks in the discipline of reservoir engineering. It refers to the construction and operation of a model where the behavior resembles the appearance of actual reservoir behavior (Coats, 1987). The main purpose when performing reservoir simulation is to acquire a continuous prediction of future reservoir performance, creating a base for future field decisions. This decision-making refer to decisions concerning e.g. future production and injection schemes and economical investments in various reservoir projects. Important results of future field performance include, but are not limited to, oil and gas recovery rates and economical outcome.

Reservoir simulation can only take place after the construction of an initial reservoir model from a geological model. The geological model is built with the use of reservoir data, i.e., seismic data, well bore logging, core data, and with probabilistic methods like Kriging populating a predefined grid with the given data. To transform the geological model to a simulation model, the detailed geological model must be upscaled so that the amount of grid cells is within the computational limit of existing software and hardware, or the reservoir engineer's work capability. Ideally, the reservoir simulation model is kept continuously up to date with the geological reservoir description, i.e. as close as possible to how the geophysicists and reservoir engineers conceive the true state of the reservoir at all times (Rwechungura, 2012). This is very hard to achieve with continuous changes in the reservoir models due to production, injection and natural changes, i.e. compaction, fracturing, cementation, etc. Reservoir models can consist of several hundred thousands, and even millions, of grid blocks. Although simplified from the actual heterogeneity and upscaled from the much more detailed geological model, useful reservoir models are seldom homogenous. This makes model updating a very computationally expensive task.

1.4 Inverse Theory

Inverse theory is a general framework that is used to convert observed measurements into information about a physical object or system. All our physical theories allow us to make predictions - given a complete description of a physical system, the outcome of some measurement can be predicted. This is called a forward problem (Tarantola, 2005). The other way around, using the actual results of some measurements to infer the values of the parameters that characterize the system, is a so-called inverse problem (see Figure 1.1. Thus, the forward problem has one unique solution, while the inverse problem does not. As an example, consider measurements of the gravity field around the Earth. Given the distribution of mass inside the Earth, we can, by using physical laws and theories, uniquely predict what the gravity field around the Earth looks like (forward problem). On the other hand, there are different distributions of mass that give exactly the same gravity field, therefore an inverse problem with multiple solutions would be to infer the mass distribution inside the Earth from observations of the gravity field.

Simply stated, an inverse problem can be described as a problem in which the answer is known but the question is not. As a result of this, for an inverse problem, one needs to make explicitly available any a priori information on the model parameters and take care of representing the data uncertainties in a good way. A priori information (or prior information) means information that is obtained independently of the results of measurements. For example, a well-designed geophysical inverse problem should use the concepts of geostatistics and probability densities to formulate the inverse problem (Tarantola, 2005).

Forward Model



FIGURE 1.1: Schematic difference of a Inverse and Forward Problem (Dadashpour, 2009)

1.4.1 Optimization

Used in most fields of science, the task of optimizing is to select the best element (with regard to some criteria) from some set of available alternatives. More specifically, an optimization problem would be to find the best available values of some objective function, i.e. either maximizing or minimizing the function, given a defined domain. This is exactly what is sought after in history matching. Here the objective function is defined as the difference between simulated and observed data, and the purpose is to minimize this mismatch. Looking at an objective function in economics, the purpose would be to maximize the profit.

The most important general approach to optimization is based on numerical methods. In these, iterative numerical procedures are used to generate a series of progressively improved solutions to the optimization problem, starting with an initial estimate of the solution (Antoniou and Lu, 2007). What algorithm to use depends on the objective function at hand, the possible constraints and the smoothness of the function. Some algorithms make use of the first and second derivative of the objective functions, while others are only able to find the local minimum/maximum. Time and computational power are also important factors when choosing which algorithm to use.

Regardless of the specifics, all good algorithms should possess the following properties (Nocedal and Wright, 2006):

- **Robustness:** They should perform well over a wide variety of problems in their class for all reasonable choices of the initial variables.
- Efficiency: They should not require too much computer time or storage.
- Accuracy: They should be able to identify a solution with precision without being overly sensitive to errors in the data, or to the arithmetic rounding errors that occur when the algorithm is implemented on a computer.

1.5 General history matching

History matching is the process of adjusting a reservoir model until it closely reproduces the same behavior as observed and measured petroleum data. The accuracy of the HM depends on the quality of the reservoir model and both the quality and quantity of all available historical reservoir data, i.e. production rates, pressure measurements and 4D seismic data.

When an adequate reservoir model is constructed, reservoir simulation can begin. Then the reservoir model, in an iterative process, is adjusted until the simulated data matches the historical recorded data. This is achieved through the task of optimization. When a desired criteria is reached, the model is ready to simulate future reservoir performance. As more historical data is recorded, the simulation model is continually updated. This makes it a continuous process often repeated and enhanced throughout the lifetime of the petroleum field in question.

HM usually requires numerous iterations making it a very costly operation based on time spent and computational power used. It is a non-unique inverse problem creating non-unique solutions, thus making future predictions of business decisions non-unique (Dadashpour, 2009). These decisions can be critical and costly investments like facility upgrades, workover schedules, stimulation of wells, water flooding, development drilling and new EOR-methods. Information leading to such a decision must be as exact as possible, as it is a well known fact in the oil industry that the quality of a business decision depends largely on the quality of the history matching.

We differ between manual HM and the more lately used semi-automatic HM (here AHM) (see Figure 1.2). Manual HM requires experienced reservoir engineers who analyze the difference between the simulated and observed value, and manually change one or two parameters at a time to improve the match. Such trial and error evaluation is seldom reliable for long periods of time, and is always associated with large uncertainties. This is due to the engineers available time and the hundreds of thousands of grid blocks in a simulation model, each with separate

values which ideally should be re-calculated and updated. However, with the use of AHM, computers and optimization techniques are utilized to speed up the process. This gives the advantage of a much quicker convergence towards an acceptable difference between model performance and reservoir performance. Optimization methods frequently used in the past decades include gradient-based-, derivative free-, stochastic search- and probabilistic methods. Common procedure for all the methods is to estimate parameters, iteratively reduce an objective function, and finally re-calculate estimated parameters.



FIGURE 1.2: Semi-Automatic HM vs. Manual HM (Rwechungura, 2012)

1.5.1 Objective Function

The definition of an objective function depends on the task at hand and it is in most cases either a cost function or a utility function. In computer-assisted HM cases cost functions are used to map values of variables onto a real number (here, Δ) representing the difference between observed data and the response of the system, as predicted by the forward modelling [$\Delta = d_{obs} - d_{cal}$]. These variables can in HM cases be e.g. porosity, permeability, reservoir structure, fault systems, aquifers, and degree of homogeneity. The three most commonly used methods for quantifying objective functions are the least square method, the weighted least square method and the generalized least square method (Equation 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3, respectively).

$$F = \Delta^T \Delta \tag{1.1}$$

$$F = \Delta^T W_D \Delta \tag{1.2}$$

$$F = \frac{1}{2}(1-\beta)\Delta^T C_d^{-1}\Delta + \frac{1}{2}\beta[m_1 - m_0]^T C_m^{-1}[m_1 - m_0]$$
(1.3)

where W_D is a diagonal matrix that assigns individual weights to each measurements. The weights for each data types are assigned as a function of the number of available data points in a set, and on the uncertainty associated with each type of measurement. The β factor is a weighting factor which expresses the relative strength of the belief in the initial model, while C_d is the covariance matrix of the data providing information about the correlation among the data. C_m is the covariance matrix of the parameters of the mathematical model (Dadashpour, 2009).

1.5.2 Mathematical Model

Equations like the Newton's second law and the relativity theory is a result of the human longing of understanding everything around us. Physical laws were established, describing naturally occurring phenomenons. Put together and included certain parameters, mathematical models describing and reproducing the behavior of actual physical systems in numbers are created. Such a model is, as earlier stated, a forward model and forward modelling for systems dealing with parameters that are only implicitly available, as in earth sciences, creates more difficult problems (Rwechungura, 2012).

The main purpose of the mathematical model (our forward model) is to predict the behavior of the system with a reasonable accuracy under various conditions. The following fundamental laws are relevant to the fluid dynamics in the reservoir and are put together creating an appropriate mathematical model (Dadashpour, 2009);

- Mass Conservation Law
- Darcy's Law
- The Equation of State
- Relative Permeability and Capillary Pressure Relationships

1.6 Optimization Methods

There are hundreds of different methods and algorithms for optimizing or minimizing cost- or objective functions. Optimization is even a specific branch in applied mathematics and continuous work is done to improve old algorithms and to invent new ones.

A recent way of classifying HM methods is in terms of how the particular methods explore the parameter space vs. exploit the local regions of the parameter space to find a minimum value of the objective function (Streamsim Technologies, Inc., 2011). Figure 1.3 gives an overview of some algorithms. Exploration refers to the search of different areas in the parameter space while exploitation is the refinement of the previously visited regions to find better answers. In the earlier days of AHM most of the focus was on single solution methods (exploitation), although development has shown that exploration of the parameter space using stochastic- and data assimilation optimization methods has become increasingly popular. Multiple combinations of reservoir properties can provide good matches to observed field behavior. In order to realistically quantify the uncertainty of predictions, multiple history-matched reservoir models are desired (Hajizadeh et al., 2010).



FIGURE 1.3: Schematic showing the difference of exploration vs. exploitation optimization methods (Streamsim Technologies, Inc., 2011).

Algorithms for minimizing objective functions in HM can generally be divided into three groups:

- Gradient-based Methods
- Stochastic/Non-gradient-based Methods
- Data Assimilation

Gradient-based methods are based on calculating local gradients to angle the parameter choice towards a location that minimizes some of the discrepancy between observed and simulated values. Some of these methods only need to calculate the first (Jacobian) derivative, while others also make use of the second (Hessian) derivative which in many cases can be very tiresome to calculate. The gradients are most often approximated by finite difference approximation (Dadashpour, 2009). Emphasise is here on robustness, quickness and local minima, which has the disadvantage of not likely finding the global minima and henceforth not the best history match. Typically utilized gradient-based optimization methods are the steepest decent method, the Gauss-Newton method, the conjugate gradient method and the sequential quadratic method. Some of the latest and most promising developments and results in AHM has been seen with the use of gradient-based methods coupled with the adjoint method for calculating the gradients (Kahrobaei et al., 2013). In simplified terms the adjoint method introduces more variables to the problem at hand, thus avoiding certain parts of the difficult gradient calculation. The adjoint method is however not intuitively understood and requires intimate knowledge and modifications of the simulator code itself, making it very difficult to utilize in certain cases.

Stochastic optimization methods and derivative-free methods search for global solutions and are normally able to avoid local minima. They include, but are not limited to, genetic algorithms, evolutionary algorithms, the simulated annealing technique, Tabu Search, particle swarm intelligence algorithms, Hooke-Jeeves Direct Search. All of these methods treat the simulator like a "black box", where the optimization loop does not require intimate knowledge of how the reservoir model response is obtained (Streamsim Technologies, Inc., 2011). This can often be attractive for reservoir engineers without a deep understanding of the mathematics supporting the optimization method. As one can extensively control the behavior of these algorithms, they provide the opportunity to balance the exploration and exploitation while searching for optimal solutions (Hajizadeh et al., 2010). These methods have been thoroughly studied, and proven robust and easy to adapt for different problems. In the last 10-15 years, new stochastic algorithms like the neighborhood algorithm, the ant colony optimization method and differential evolution have been developed, tested and proven promising (Hajizadeh et al., 2010, Mohamed et al., 2009, Schulze-Riegert et al., 2002). All this however comes at a high computational cost as these methods may require hundreds or thousands of evaluations of the reservoir model response, which can virtually be impossible for CPU-intensive reservoir models.

Data assimilation is an analysis technique in which the observed information is accumulated into the model state by taking advantage of consistency constraints with laws of time evolution and physical properties (Lorenc, 1986). Background information in the form of an a priori estimate of the reservoir model state is necessary to turn the under-determined analysis problem into a well-posed one. Better yet, a set of different model states based on some assumptions of the reservoir model (from physical laws and geological constraints to well logs, seismic data, etc) makes an ensemble in which the observed data either can undergo sequentially or non-sequentially, intermittent or continuous in time assimilation. The Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF) introduced in 1994 has been the subject of massive attention the last 20 years (Evensen, 1994), and is probably the most used data assimilation method to date.
Chapter 2

The Norne Field

The Norne Field is situated 80 km north of the Heidrun field and compromises the license blocks 6608/10 and 6508/1 on the Norwegian Continental Shelf. This is approximately 200 km offshore, about midway between Trondheim and Mo i Rana, with a water depth of 370 to 390 meters. The field was discovered in December 1991, and the discovery well contained a total hydrocarbon column of 135 m - a 110 meter oil column with an overlying gas cap. Two more wells was drilled in the northern and eastern part of the structure in early 1993 and early 1994. These confirmed the results from the discovery well, as well as giving an estimate of the extension of the field to the north and east. Especially the eastern well hit a structure with high potential, and the results from this well were important for optimum sizing of the process facility (Steffensen and Karstad, 1996).

Oil production started November 6th 1997 with Statoil as operator and Eni Norge AS and Petoro AS as partners. The field has been development with a production and storage vessel, the "Norne FPSO", connected to seven subsea wellhead templates named B, C, D, E, F and K (see Figure 2.1). Flexible risers carry the wellstream to the ship, which rotates around a cylindrical turret moored to the seabed. Risers and umbilicals are also connected to the turret. Gas export started in 2001 after being re-injected into the formation in the earlier production years , and the gas is now transported through a dedicated pipeline to Åsgard and from there through the Åsgard Transport Pipeline to Kårstø (NPD, 2012).



FIGURE 2.1: Development of the Norne Field (Statoil, 2006).

Today (2012) Norne produces approximately 18.000 bbl oil, 0.16 billion Sm^3 gas and 0.02 million tonnes NGL per day. Production from the Norne Field has, despite the production decrease later years (see Figure 2.2), been a huge success, and it is one of the fields in the North Sea with the highest recovery rate at above 60 %.

Recoverable Reserves	Original in place	Remaining as of 31.12.2011
Oil	$90.8 \text{ million } \text{Sm}^3$	$4.6 \text{ million } \text{Sm}^3$
Gas	11.8 billion Sm^3	5.4 billion Sm ³
NGL	11.8 million tonnes	1.0 million tonnes

TABLE 2.1: Recoverable reserves from the Norne Field (NPD, 2012)



FIGURE 2.2: Cumulative oil production per year of the Norne Field. Green and red color representing "Oil, condensate and NGL production" and "Gas production", respectively (NPD, 2012).

2.1 Geology

The Norne Field is situated on a horst block measuring approximately 9 km x 3 km, consisting of two separate oil components, the Norne main structure (C-, D- and E-segment) and the Northeast segment (G-segment) as seen in Figure 2.3. The reservoir is subdivided into four different formations from top to base; Garn, Ile, Tofte and Tilje. 98 % of oil in place is situated in the Norne main structure, and approximetely 80 % of this oil is located in The Ile and Tofte formation while gas is found in the Garn formation (see Figure 2.4).



FIGURE 2.3: Top reservoir map showing Norne horst block with the four segments (Morell, 2010).

The reservoir is found at a depth of 2500-2700 m, and the reservoir sandstones are dominated by fine-grained and well to very vell stored sub-arkosic arenites (a sedimentary clastic rock with sand grain size of 0.0625-2.0 mm). Despite ongoing diagenetic processes affecting the sandstones quality, most of the sandstones are good reservoir rocks with porosity in the range of 25-30 % and permeability varying from 20 to 2500 mD. The source rocks are believed to be the Spekk Formation from Late Jurassic and coal bedded Åre Formation from Early Jurassic. The cap rock, sealing the reservoir and keeping the oil and gas in place, is the Melke Formation. The Not Formation also behaves as a cap rock, preventing communication between the Garn and Ile Formations (Rwechungura et al., 2010).

Period	Age	Group	Formation	Reservoir Subdivision	Depositional environment	Permea- bility (mD)	Porosity average (%)	Grain size (mm)	Average Thicknes (m)							
3.4	-170my	PIKING	MELKE				-	CLYST (<0.062)								
100	No.			GARNE		2	29	VF-F SST (0.088-0.177)	9							
200	-175my		New year	GARN 2			23	VF-F SST (0.062-0.177)	11							
HAS			10	GARN 1		>	18	VF SST (0.062-0.125)	11							
3	z	ST ST	NOT	NOT		111	-	CLYST (<0.062)	8							
IDDLE	ALENIA	FANG	e	183 1		3	23	VF-F SST (0.088-0.177)	19							
M SET	A.			1.5.2			25	F SST (0.125-0.177)	12							
		認道		ALC: N			27	F\$ST (0.125-0.177) VF-F SST	3							
	UPPER		TOFTE	TOFTE 3			28 22	(0.088-0.177) F SST (0.125-0.177) VF SST (0.066-0.125)	29							
				TOFTE 1			24	F-M SST (0.125-0.500)	13							
SIC	2664	E									TILJE 4		MM	19	VF-F SST (0.062-0.250)	12
JURASS	IAN	BÅ														TILLE 3
LOWER	JENCBACH		TILLE	TILLE 2		MANAM	16	VF-F SST (0.062-0.250)	35							
	H B			TILJE 1			25	VF-M SST (0.062-0.500)	26							
		Chai	nnelize	d sands	stones Tidally inf	luenced o	leposits	Total:	22							

FIGURE 2.4: Stratigraphical sub-division of the Norne reservoir (Statoil, 2001).

2.1.1 Zonation

The present [2006] geological model consists of 17 reservoir zones (Verlo and Hetland, 2008). Today's reservoir zonation is slightly altered from earlier subdivisions. The main differences is that the Ile and Tofte zones have been further subdivided, the Tilje zones have been simplified and the Garn zones has changed name to numbered Not zones (see Figure 2.5). The zonation from 2001 was made to correspond as good as possible to the lithology changes seen in the reservoir, thus zones were chosen with basis in sequence boundaries, maximum flooding surfaces or distinct breaks in porosity or permeability correlating across the field as seen in Figure 2.4 (Statoil, 2001).

NORNE	2002	NORNE 2006										
Lower Melke		Not 3	Upper M	Not Shale								
Garn 3		Not 2	Not 2.3	Nah Cat								
Garn 2			Not 2.2	Not Sst								
Garn 1			Not 2.1									
Not		Not 1	Lower M	Not Shale								
	TI- 2.2			Ile 2.2.2								
Ile 2	lie 2.2	Ile 2	lie 2.2	Ile 2.2.1								
	Ile 2.1		Ile 2.1									
	Ile 1.3	Ile 1	Ile 1.3									
Ile 1	Ile 1.2		Ile 1.2									
	Ile 1.1		Ile 1.1									
Tofte 2	Tofte 2.2	Tofte 2	Tofte 2.2									
	Tofte 2.1		Tofte 2.1									
Tofte 1	Tofte 1.2	Tofte 1	Tofte 1.2									
	Tofte 1.1		Tofte 1.1									

FIGURE 2.5: Old and present zonation (Verlo and Hetland, 2008).

2.1.2 Reservoir Communication

Faults

Compartmentalization is a major factor in the Norne Field. One of reason for this is the field location on a horst, resulting in many faults criss-crossing the reservoir. Major faults can be discovered by studying seismic data, which together with known history of the area, contributes to confirm the positions of the faults. Figure 2.6 illustrates cross sections through the Norne Field with fluid contacts and major faults. A significant amount of lineaments are discovered from ESP data including dip and azimuth maps generated at the Top Garn level. These lineaments trend NNW-SSE and SW-NE parallell to the two main fault strike directions on the field. Some of the lineaments are identified as small faults in the seismic data, which lead to a more faulted field than shown in the structural maps (Verlo and Hetland, 2008). The displacement of these faults is probably between 5 and 20 m (Statoil, 2001). Figure 2.14 shows how these faults are modelled in the 2004 reservoir model.



FIGURE 2.6: Structural cross-sections through the Norne Field with fluid contacts (Statoil, 2001).

Stratigraphical barriers

Several stratigraphic barriers are present in the field. Continuous intervals which restrict the vertical flow within the Norne Field are listed in table 2.2.

Table	2.2:	Intervals	restricting	the flow	within	the	Norne	Field	[names	corre-
	$^{\mathrm{sp}}$	onding to	the zonation	on from	Norne 2	2002	(see F	igure 2	2.4)]	

Formation	Comments
The Melke Formation	Claystone formation, upper seal
$\fbox{Garn 3/ Garn 2}$	Carbonate cemented top layer at Garn 2
The Not Formation	Claystone formation
Ile 3/Ile 2	Carbonate cementations and increased clay content at base Ile 3
Ile 2/Ile 1	Carbonate cemented layers at base Ile 2
Ile 1/Tofte 4	Carbonate cemented layers at top Tofte 4
Tofte 2/Tofte 1	Significant grain size contrast
Tilje 3/Tilje 2	Claystone formation

Pressure development in field clearly indicated what influence the stratigraphic barriers have on the flow within the reservoir. The barriers affecting the flow most distinctively are the Not Formation, the carbonate cemented layers which separate the Ile 1 and the Tofte 4 formations, as well as the the claystone separating the Tilje 3 and Tilje 2 formations (Statoil, 2001).

Further see (Verlo and Hetland, 2008) for an extensive geological description of the Norne Field.

2.2 Wells

The Norne Field has 4 templates for production and 2 templates for injection. Each template has 4 well slots available - 3 for production and 1 for injection/production. Currently the field is exclusively developed with horizontal producers (NPD, 2012). The following principles was decisive for the wellbore locations;

- Water injectors located at the flanks of the reservoir
- Gas injectors located at the structural heights of the reservoir

• Oil producers located between gas and water injectors for delaying gas and water breakthrough

To avoid gas inflow oil producers are located at some distance from major faults. Wellbore locations were after initial placement optimized (branches, new perforation/shutins or completely new drilling locations) with regards to gas and water breakthrough by the use of reservor simulation studies. The wells are completed in different formations depending on the current drainage strategy in use (see Figure 2.7). The total number of active wells in December 2006 was 17; 11 being oil producers, 3 water injectors and 3 gas injectors, and a detail overview of the active periods of each and every production well can be seen in Table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3: Overview producing wells. The active period is based on the observed historical data, while the plugged date is based on (Verlo and Hetland, 2008).

Wells	Active (Open - No production)	Plugged
B-1H		October 2005
Gas	April 1999 - October 2005	
Oil	April 1999 - October 2005	
Water	August 2002 - October 2005	
B-1BH		N/A
Gas	January 2006 - N/A	
Oil	January 2006 - N/A	
Water	May 2006 - N/A	
B-2H		N/A
Gas	December 1998 - N/A	
Oil	December 1998 - N/A	
Water	January 2001 - N/A	
B-3H		N/A
Gas	July 1999 - N/A	
Oil	July 1999 - N/A	
Water	August 2001 - N/A	
B-4H		May 2001
Gas	April 1998 - Varying production from May 1999	
Oil	April 1998 - Varying production from May 1999	
Water	No water production	
B-4BH		September 2003
Gas	August 2001 - December 2002	
Oil	August 2001 - December 2002	
Water	September 2001 - December 2002	
B-4DH		N/A
Gas	July 2004 - N/A	

Oil	July 2004 - N/A	
Water	December 2004 - N/A	
D-1H	,	September 2002
Gas	November 1997 - August 2001	-
Oil	November 1997 - August 2001	
Water	September 2000 - August 2001	
D-1CH		N/A
Gas	November 2003 - N/A	7
Oil	November 2003 - N/A	
Water	January 2005 - N/A	
D-2H		N/A
Gas	December 1997 - N/A	- ·/
Oil	December 1997 - N/A	
Water	November 2004 - N/A	
D-3AH		June 2005
Gas	August 2000 - June 2005	5 une 2000
Oil	August 2000 - June 2005	
Water	July 2002 - June 2005	
	5 ury 2002 - 5 une 2005	N / A
D-3DII	Expression $2006 \text{ N}/\Lambda$	\mathbf{N}/\mathbf{A}
Gas	February 2006 – N/A	
UII Watan	February 2000 - N/A	
water	August 2000 - N/A	N 1 0000
D-4H		November 2002
Gas	June 1998 - April 2002 (on-off from Aug 00) I = 1000 A $(1, 2000)$ (ff f = A $(0, 0)$)	
	June 1998 - April 2002 (on-off from Aug 00)	
water	April 2000 - April 2002 (on-off from Aug 00)	NT / A
D-4AH		N/A
Gas	June 2003 - July 2006	
Oil	June 2003 - July 2006	
Water	January 2004 - October 2005	/
E-1H		N/A
Gas	September 1999 - N/A	
Oil	September 1999 - N/A	
Water	April 2002 - N/A	
E-2H		N/A
Gas	November 1999 - July 2005	
Oil	November 1999 - July 2005	
Water	January 2002 - July 2005	
E-2AH		N/A
Gas	August 2005 (no prod. Nov 05-Oct 06) - N/A	
Oil	August 2005 (no prod. Nov 05-Oct 06) - N/A	
Water	October 2006 - N/A	
E-3H		May 2000
Gas	September 1998 - April 2000	-
Oil	September 1998 - April 2000	
Water	November 1998 - April 2000	
E-3AH	L	January 2005
E-3AH		January 2005

Gas	Dec 2000 (no prod. May 01-Jan 02) - Jan 2005	
Oil	Dec 2000 (no prod. May 01-Jan 02) - Jan 2005	
Water	May 2002 - January 2005	
E-3CH		N/A
Gas	May 2005 - N/A	
Oil	May 2005 - N/A	
Water	July 2005 - N/A	
E-4AH		N/A
Gas	June 2000 (no prod. Jun 01-Aug 02) - July 2005	
Oil	June 2000 (no prod. Jun 01-Aug 02) - July 2005	
Water	March 2004 - July 2005	
K-3H		N/A
Gas	October 2006 - N/A	
Oil	October 2006 - N/A	
Water	October 2006 - N/A	



FIGURE 2.7: Drainage strategy for the Norne Field. Vertical arrows = injection streams, horizontal arrows = production streams. Blue fill = water, green fill = oil, red fill = gas (Statoil, 2006).

2.2.1 Injection strategy

The water injection strategy is based on the following issues

• As good as possible areal distribution of the water injectors to maintain a steady rise of the water level and hence good areal sweep.

- Since the vertical communication in the Norne reservoir is poor, it was necessary to convert the drainage strategy from vertical- to flank sweep. This objective was obtained by placing the water injectors towards the flanks.
- The water injectors are conventional wells that inject water into the water zone and lower part of the oil zone from Tilje 3 up to Ile 3. Tilje 1 is considered to consist of unconsolidated sand, and is located below the tight, laterally extensive shale in Tilje 2, and is not considered to be suited for water injection.
- Three of the four water injectors are located in the Norne C-segment (see Figure 2.3) which accounts for 60 % the STOIIP.

The initial strategy to maintain reservoir pressure was to re-inject produced gas into the gas cap and water into the water zone (Steffensen and Karstad, 1996). Since the gas cap had high pressure and was sealed off by the Not formation, the gas injection was changed to the water zone and the lower part of the oil zone. This change in strategy was successful, although making the prediction of gas flow in the reservoir more complicated and uncertain. A higher GOR than expected caused the production to be restricted by gas handling capacity. Gas export was started in 2001 in order to obtain a balanced gas- and water injection strategy, and prevent further increase in GOR. The deep gas injection ceased in 2005, and the initial strategy was again partially implemented – in 2006 gas from the C-wells started to inject into the gas cap to prevent pressure depletion (Morell, 2010).

Further see (Morell, 2010) for extended information about the well history of the Norne Field.

2.3 Reservoir Model

The Norne field has been simulated by four different ECLIPSE-models:

- The PDO Model this model has grid dimensions 40x70x16 and is based on a 1994 interpretation of the 3D seismic survey ST9203
- The 1998 Model this model has grid dimensions 56x124x24 and is based on a 1998 interpretation of the 3D seismic survey ST9203
- The 2004 Model this model has grid dimensions 46x112x22 and is based on a 2004 interpretation of the 4D seismic surveys ST0103, ST0305, ST0409
- The 2006 Model this model has grid dimensions 55x136x32 and is based on a 2006 interpretation of the 4D seismic surveys ST0103, ST0305, ST0409 and ST0603





FIGURE 2.8: Fault zonation PDO model

FIGURE 2.9: Fault zonation 1998 model



FIGURE 2.10: Fault zonation 2004 model



FIGURE 2.11: Fault zonation 2006 model

All of these models are created and further developed by Statoil, and where made available for NTNU through the Norne Benchmark Case (IO Center, 2010). The fault zonation for each model can be seen in Figure 2.8, 2.9, 2.10 and 2.11. The ECLIPSE-model applied in this thesis is a modified version of the 2004-model. Structurally the models are similar, but issues with the relative permeability scaling, hysteresis and the rock functions have been addressed (Cheng, 2012).

2.3.1 Reservoir Model Specifics

The Norne Reservoir Simulation Model is three-phase, 3D, black-oil ECLIPSE 100 model. The modified 2004-model applied in this thesis is discretized by a 46x112x22 grid and is physically divided into two sections by the Not Shale Formation. The upper and lower sections consists of 3 and 18 stratigraphical layers respectively.

E-segment model

The Norne Benchmark Case first made available a model focusing only on the E-segment of the Norne Field [2011], coarsening and using multipliers for the rest of the field so that the E-segment could be simulated as a stand-alone reservoir model. Attempts was first made to build a separated E-segment model with flux boundaries, but results showed that a coarsened model had fewer limitations with regards to handling EOR applications, polymers, tracers and other special features (Rwechungura et al., 2010). Therefore the coarsened model (see Figure 2.12) was used for the first Norne Comparative Case Study.



FIGURE 2.12: The coarsened Norne E-segment Model (Rwechungura et al., 2010).

The Norne E-segment model consists of 8733 active cells with an average cell blocks size of 80 to 100m in the horizontal direction.

Full-field model

The Norne Full-field model was released by the Norne Benchmark Case in 2013 compromising a full reservoir model of the Norne Field with 44431 active cells and 32 wells with accompanying information.



FIGURE 2.13: The Norne Full-field model including all drilled wells.

The most important properties of the oil and gas in the Norne Field is listed in Table 2.4, and schematics showing the reservoir model interpretation of the faults criss-crossing the Norne Field can be seen in Figure 2.14.

Property	Value
Initial Pressure	273 bar at 2639 m TVD
Reservoir Temperature	98 °C
Oil Density	$859.5~{\rm kg/m^3}~{\rm (API=32.7^\circ)}$
Gas Density	0.854 kg/m^3
Water Density	1033 kg/m^3
Bo	1.32
B_g	0.0047
Rock Wettability	Mixed
Pore Compressibility	$4.84 \times 10^{-5} \text{ bar}^{-1} \text{ at } 277 \text{ bar}^{-1}$

TABLE 2.4: Existing Norne oil and gas properties modelled in the reservoir model



FIGURE 2.14: Schematics showing the interpretations of faults in the applied ECLIPSE-model (Morell, 2010).

Chapter 3

The Ensemble Kalman Filter and the Ensemble Smoother

3.1 Background

R.E. Kalman, together with other developers, published several papers in and around 1960 establishing the mathematical foundations of the Kalman type filters. This is a type of optimization algorithms using series of measurements, taking into account random variations and other inaccuracies, to produce estimates of unknown variables more precise than those based on a single measurement alone. Modified versions of the original Kalman filter algorithms has applications in numerous fields of technology, despite originally formulated only for linear system models (Kalman, 1960) and most systems in engineering being nonlinear. The Extended Kalman Filter, which is a series of algorithms concerning different ways of treating the state and observation models, is probably the modification of the Kalman filter most used.

In the Extended Kalman Filter (EKF) there is not a requirement of linear functions, but the state transition- and observation models must be differentiable. Approximations of the covariance evolution by multivariate Taylor Series expansion and the discarding of higher orders, results in a linearization of the non-linear function around the current estimate. Thus, the usefulness of the EKF depends on the properties of the model dynamics.

The Ensemble Smoother (ES), the Ensemble Kalman Smoother (EnKS) and the Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF) are different from the EKF in that the system model is only represented by a set of models based on a probability distribution of certain critical parameters - an ensemble. These algorithms belong to a class of particle methods which use a Monte Carlo or ensemble representation for the probability distribution function (pdf), an ensemble integration using stochastic models to model the time evolution of the pdfs, and different schemes for conditioning the predicted pdf given the observations (Evensen, 2007). The assumption of a Gaussian pdf for the model prediction makes it possible to represent the pdf for the model prediction using only the mean and covariance of the pdf, resulting in a linear update equation.

- **Ensemble** An idealization consisting of a large number of virtual copies of a system, each of which represents a possible state that the real system might be in. In other words, here a statistical ensemble is a probability distribution for the state of the system (Gibbs, 1902).
- Monte-Carlo Methods A broad class of problem solving algorithms used to approximate the probability of certain outcomes by running multiple simulations using random variables in order to calculate those same probabilities heuristically.
- **Particle Filters** Algorithms making use of sequential Monte Carlo algorithms for calculating posteriors in partially observable controllable Markov chains with discrete time (Thrun, 2002).

The EnKF was introduced in 1994 (Evensen, 1994), however it was first adapted to the problem of estimating reservoir variables or parameters (permeability and porosity field) in 2003 (Vefring et al., 2003). Since its infancy EnKF has been investigated thoroughly in reservoir characterization settings as well as for HM problems (Fahimuddin et al., 2010, Gao et al., 2006, Han et al., 2013), and although the major consensus is that EnKF is a well-established and excellent method for performing AHM, it may however produce biased results if not handled with care. It has been shown that for strongly nonlinear problems EnKF can fail to achieve an acceptable data match at certain times in the assimilation process (Li and Reynolds, 2007). With a sufficiently large initial ensemble however, Li and Reynolds stated that "each ensemble member of model parameters obtained at each step of the EnKF is a linear combination of the initial ensemble". In other words, with a large enough initial ensemble of a not too nonlinear problem, the EnKF algorithm performs mostly very well.

3.2 Technical Description

Both the ES and the EnKF are Monte Carlo implementations of the Bayesian update problem. Given a probability density function (pdf) of the state of the modeled system (the prior, often called the forecast) and the data likelihood, the Bayes theorem

$$f(\psi|\phi) = \frac{f(\psi)f(\phi|\psi)}{f(\phi)}$$
(3.1)

is used to obtain the pdf after the data likelihood has been taken into account (the posterior, often called the analysis). The Bayesian update equation

$$f(\psi_1, \dots, \psi_k, \alpha, \psi_0, \psi_b | d) \propto$$

$$f(\alpha) f(\psi_0) f(\psi_b) \prod_{i=1}^k f(\psi_i | \{\psi_{l \neq i}\}, \alpha) \prod_{j=1}^J f(d_j | \psi_i(j), \alpha)$$
(3.2)

comes from formulating the combined parameter and state estimation problem using Bayesian statistics. It can be shown that under the condition of measurement error being independent in time and the dynamical model being a Markov process, a recursive formulation can be used for Bayes' theorem where measurements are processed sequentially in time (Evensen, 2007). The Bayesian update equation (3.2) is further combined with advancing the model in time, updating the model with measurement data from time to time - possibly due to the recursive formulation of Bayes' theorem. The original Kalman Filter keeps track of the change of the mean and the covariance matrix by the Bayesian update, and advances the covariance matrix in time provided the system is linear, although maintaining the covariance matrix is not feasible computationally for high-dimensional systems. This is where ES and EnKF makes use of the ensemble, and replace the covariance matrix with the sample covariance

$$C_{\psi\psi} = \overline{(\psi - \overline{\psi})(\psi - \overline{\psi})^T}$$
(3.3)

computed from the ensemble. The ensemble mean $\overline{\psi}$ is regarded as the best-guess estimate, while the ensemble spread defines the error variance. The covariance (now 3.3) is now determined by the smoothness of the ensemble members (Evensen, 2007).

The difference between ES and EnKF can be found in how the measurement driven updates are implemented in the system (see Figure 3.1 and 3.2). Where ES gathers all the observed measurements into one large update of the predictions, the EnKF updates the whole model every time new observed updates are implemented into the system.



FIGURE 3.1: Illustration of the update procedure used in the ES. The horizontal axis is time and the measurements are indicated at regular intervals. The vertical axis indicates the number of updates with measurements. The blue arrows represent the forward ensemble integration, the red arrows are the introduction of measurements, while the green arrow denotes the updating procedure from ES. The purple line represents the updated model until the end of observed measurements. Adapted from (Evensen, 2007).



FIGURE 3.2: Illustration of the update procedure used in the EnKF. The blue arrows represent the forward ensemble integration, the red arrows are the introduction of measurements, while the green arrows is the EnKF update algorithm. Thus, the blue arrows indicate the EnKF solution as a function of time, which is updated every time measurements are available. Adapted from (Evensen, 2007).

3.3 The Ensemble based Reservoir Tool

The Ensemble based Reservoir Tool (ERT) is a software developed by Statoil for handling many ECLIPSE simulations at the same time, both for sensitivity analysis and AHM purposes (Statoil and NCC, 2013). The ERT incorporates both the EnKF, ES and the RML-EnKF algorithms, as well as tools for analysis, ranking and plotting of results. The full ERT software is quite Linux (Posix) specific, and although the support libraries for working with ECLIPSE files have been successfully ported to Windows, this thesis has exclusively made use of the ERT on a Linux-based platform. The ERT has a text user interface (TUI) (see Figure 3.3) and is executed directly in the system bash with a configuration file as only argument (see Subsection 3.3.1). The code is distributed under the GPL¹ licence. The source code is located on GitHub² and the daily management of the code is a cooperation between the Norwegian Computing Center (NCC) and Statoil.

3.3.1 Setup

Some preparatory steps must be taken to be able to use an ECLIPSE reservoir model with the ERT, as well as creating a configuration and observation file. In essence, the ECLIPSE data file needs to be modified so that it can be started from any point in the file system, a non-unified restart and summary file must be written at each report step and the layout of the grid can not change between realizations (Statoil and NCC, 2013). The following modifications and additions are obligatory to be able to use an ECLIPSE reservoir model with the ERT;

Use global INCLUDE and IMPORT statements The ERT does not run ECLIPSE simulations in the folder where the original ECLIPSE files resides. Thus, it is necessary that all paths to files in INCLUDE and IMPORT statements

¹GNU General Public License. URL: http://www.gnu.org/licenses/gpl.html

²Build software better, together. URL: https://github.com/

(expect for those files that will be generated by the ERT) in the original ECLIPSE data file are global.

- Initialization The SOLUTION section in the ECLIPSE data file is used to specify initial conditions for the ECLIPSE run or restart. In the case of an new ECLIPSE run, initial conditions are either calculated from equilibrium conditions using the EQUIL (and potentially SWATINIT) keyword, or given explicitly using e.g. SWAT, SGAS, PRESSURE etc. If dealing with an ECLIPSE restart, initial conditions are read from an ECLIPSE restart file given with the RESTART keyword. As EnKF is sequential in its design and starts and stops the simulation repeatedly when conditioning to observed data, the ERT is originally meant to modify a large part of the SOLU-TION section automatically to make ECLIPSE run smoothly. However, trial and error show that by restarting the EnKF for each data update with the ENKF_RERUN keyword, frequent terminal errors is exchanged in a slightly longer simulation time. The ENKF_RERUN keyword has been used in this thesis.
- Separate SCHEDULE file The SCHEDULE section of the ECLIPSE data file is used to control the temporal progression of the simulation and the ERT depends heavily on the SCHEDULE data. Thus, the ERT requires that the contents of the SCHEDULE sections is in a separate file as the ERT will write an appropriate schedule file to the simulation folder. Naturally, the INCLUDE statement used to source the contents of the SCHEDULE sections should be local.

Configuration file

The ERT configuration file serves several purposes, including, but not limited to; defining which ECLIPSE models to use, i.e. supplying paths to a data, grid and schedule file, defining which observation file to use, defining how to run the simulations, defining where to store the results, and creating a parametrization of the given ECLIPSE model (see Section 4.2). The configuration file is a plain text file, with one statement per line. The first word on each line is a specific keyword, which then is followed by a set of arguments that are unique to the particular keyword. Similarly to ECLIPSE data files, lines starting with "--" are treated as comments. The configuration file, with accompanying keywords, used in this thesis can be seen in Section A.0.1, whereas an overview of all existing keywords can be studied in detail at the ERT homepage³.

Observation file

When using the ERT and one of the incorporated algorithms to condition on dynamic data, it is a necessity to specify which data to condition on. Specifically, for a given piece of data/parameter to condition on, the ERT need to to know the actual measured value of the data, the uncertainty of the measured data, the time of measurement, and how to simulate a response of the data given a parametrized ECLIPSE model. This information is provided to the ERT through the observation file, which is a plain text file containing different keywords associated with different observations.

The only keyword used in this thesis is the HISTORY_OBSERVATION keyword which is used for conditioning on observations from the WCONHIST and WCON-INJH keywords in the SCHEDULE section of the ECLIPSE model. A typical entry can look like this;

HISTORY OBSERVATION WOPR:E-1H {ERROR MODE=RELMIN;ERROR=0.1;ERROR MIN=1000;};

where the name, WOPR:E-1H, must correspond to an ECLIPSE keyword written to the SUMMARY files, the RELMIN is one of three error modes (RELMIN, REL or ABS), the ERROR=0.1 is an estimated 10% error and the ERROR_MIN=1000 is here the lower threshold.

³URL: http://ert.nr.no/wiki/index.php/Creating_a_configuration_file_for_ERT

```
Documentation : http://ert.nr.no
git commit : 9fc94c8472e829ac28847a4688c031f69ebd1864
compile time : 2013-10-03 11:18:25
site config : /project/res/etc/ERT/site-config
model config : /home/danieso/ert/config MULT ZFLT.txt
/-----\
              Main menu
 c: Manage cases
 r: Run, restart or analyse experiment
 u: Quality check
 p: Plot results
 a: Rank results
 e: Export data to other formats
 t: Table of results
 m: Miscellanous
w: Workflows
h: Help
```

==>

۰ ۱

| q: Quit

s: Simple menu

FIGURE 3.3: ERT Main Menu and TUI.

Chapter 4

History Matching of the Norne Field

4.1 Historical data

In this thesis only production rates and pressure data have been used for assimilation. These data have been made available by the IO Center at NTNU through the Norne Benchmark Case (IO Center, 2010). The following data has been included with the WCONHIST and WCONINJ keywords in the SCHEDULE section of the ECLIPSE model; WWPRH, WGPRH, WOPRH, WBHPH and WTHPH for each production well, as well as WGIRH and WWIRH for each injection well, for their respectively active periods. The ERT observation file specifies that the ES and EnKF will assimilate on these data when conditioning the ECLIPSE model, and that all historical data have a relative error of 10 %.

4.2 Parametrization

An AHM algorithm like the EnKF and the EnKS needs specific information about the types of reservoir model parameters it can change when assimilating on historical observed data. Thus, a parametrization of the given ECLIPSE reservoir model is required. The ERT has several parametrization keywords, but the ones used in this thesis is the FIELD and GEN_KW keywords. The following parameters are made available for alteration in the Norne reservoir model, i.e. the EnKF algorithm conditions on these parameters as it seems fit. The FIELD parameters are briefly explained in subsection 4.2.1, while every GEN_KW parameter is explained in detail in the following subsections.

4.2.1 FIELD parameters

The FIELD keyword is used to parametrize quantities which have extent over the full grid. The following static FIELD parameters are initialized with the original included or imported file found in the original Norne ECLIPSE data file. When either EnKF or EnKS are utilized for history matching purposes, these parameters are possibly changed for every update. Every FIELD parameter has one value for each active grid block, i.e. approximately 45000 (44431) possible parameters to alter.

- **PORO** Specifies every grid block porosity values and is initially upscaled from the geological model.
- **PERMX** Specifies every grid block permeability value in the X-direction and is initially upscaled from the geological model. In the Norne reservoir model PERMY is sat equal to PERMX, while PERMZ is also sat equal to PERMX however later altered in certain grid blocks to compensate for stratigraphical barriers and layering.
- **NTG** Specifies every grid block net-to-gross thickness ratio. The values specified are used to convert from gross to net thicknesses, and act as multipliers of grid block pore volumes and transmissibilities in the X- and Y-directions, and also on DZ for the calculation of well connection transmissibility factors (Schlumberger, 2009).
- MULTZ Specifies every grid block transmissibility multiplier in the Z-direction. Is a critical factor for determining vertical fluid flow together with PERMZ.

4.2.2 MULTFLT

The MULTFLT keyword is used for modifying the transmissibility and diffusivity across a fault previously defined using the FAULTS keyword (Schlumberger, 2009). Only the transmissibility option has been used in this thesis. When defining a set of faults with the FAULTS keyword fluid flow is not affected, i.e. the transmissibilites are set to 1.0. As previously stated, the Norne Field has a great deal of faults crisscrossing the reservoir, thus correct modelling of the fluid flow across these barriers is a critical factor. Figure 2.14 gives an overview of the interpretations of faults in the reservoir model, while Table 4.1 shows the MULTFLT values used in the original Norne Full-field case. 60 possible parameters to alter.

E_01	0.01	C_21_Ti	0.001
E_01_F3	0.01	C_22	0.001
DE_1	3.9	C_23	0.1
DE_1_LTo	0.01	C_24	0.1
DE_B3	0.00075	C_25	0.1
DE_2	0.015	C_26	0.1
DE_0	20	C_26N	0.001
BC	0.1	C_27	0.05
CD	0.1	C_28	1
CD_To	0.01	C_29	0.1
CD_B3	0.1	DI	0.1
CD_0	1	DI_S	0.1
CD_1	0.1	D_05	0.01
C_01	0.01	EF	1
C_01_Ti	0.01	GH	1
C_08	0.01	G_01	0.05
C_08_Ile	0.1	G_02	0.05
C_08_S	0.01	G_03	1
C_08_Ti	1	G_05	0.5
C_08_S_Ti	1	G_07	0.05
C_09	0.1	G_08	0.05
C_02	0.01	G_09	0.05
C_04	0.05	G_13	0.05
C_05	0.1	H_03	1
C_06	0.1	IH	1
C_10	0.01	m_east	1
C_12	0.1	m_east_2	1
C_20	0.5	m_north	1
C_20_LTo	0.5	m_northe	1
C_21	0.001	m_west	1

TABLE 4.1: Original Norne Full-field MULTFLT values, with fault names and their respective transmissibility multiplier.

4.2.3 MULTREGT

The MULTREGT keyword is used for setting a transmissibility multiplier between regions. The regions in question must previously have been defined using keyword FLUXNUM or MULTNUM in the GRID section (Schlumberger, 2009). In the Norne reservoir model 20 flux regions have been defined with the FLUXNUM keyword. Figure 4.1 shows the the MULTREGT values used in the original Norne Full-field case. 85 possible parameters to alter.

####;	***************************************														#############											
#	Gar	n			Iι	e		1	Т	ofte			T	il	je_4	1/3		1	Tilj€	e_1/3	2		1			Formation #
#	С	D	Е	G	С	D	Е	G	С	D	Е	G	C	I)	E	G		С	D	E	G	- I		Segi	ment #
#	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	4 :	15	16		17 1	18	19	20		Flux	num	#
#																		·								#
FLUX	1	1	1	0.005	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(9	0	0		0	0	Θ	0	#	1	С	Garn #
FLUX		1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		9	0	0		0	0	Θ	0	#	2	D	#
FLUX			1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	9	0	0		Θ	0	Θ	0	#	3	E	#
FLUX				1	0	0	0	0	0	Θ	Θ	0	0	(9	0	Θ	_ !	0	Θ	Θ	Θ	#	4	G	#
#					1	1	1 0	01	1	1		1		1 (0 1				0		• • • • • • • •	#1	5	с	# Tlo #
FLUX				1	1	1	0 05	1	1	1	1	1	0. 0	1	9.1 1	0.1	0.0		0	6	0	0	#	5	n n	100 #
FLUX						T	1	11	1	1	1	1	0.	1 0	1 3 1	0.1	0.1		0	0	0	0	#1	7	F	#
FLUX							1	11	1	1	1	1	0. 0	1	3.1 3.1	0.1	0.1		0	6	0	0	#	8	Ğ	#
#														1												
FLUX									1	1	1	0.01	1		1	1	1	- 1	0.001	Θ	Θ	Θ	#1	9	С	Tofte #
FLUX									-	1	1	1	ī		ī	ī	1	- i	0	1	õ	0	#	10	D	#
FLUX										-	1	ī	ī		ĩ	ĩ	ĩ	- 1	0	õ	0.001	õ	#	11	Ē	#
FLUX												1	1		1	1	1	- i	0	0	0	1	#	12	G	#
#																		. i								#
FLUX													1	:	1	1	0.0	91 j	0.0008	0	0	0	#	13	С	Tilje 4/3 #
FLUX															1	1	1	i	0	0.1	0->e-6	0	#j	14	D	- #
FLUX																1	1	Í	Θ	0	0.05	0	#	15	E	#
FLUX																	1	Í	0	0	Θ	0.001	#	16	G	#
#																		· 1								#
FLUX																			1	1	1	0.1	#	17	С	Tilje_1/2 #
FLUX																				1	1	1	#	18	D	#
FLUX																					1	1	#	19	E	#
FLUX																						1	#	20	G	#
####;	####	####	####	#######	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	#####	##;	####	####	####	###	########	####	########	#######	###	#####	####	#############

FIGURE 4.1: Original Norne Full-field MULTREGT values.

4.2.4 MULTZ Modifier

The MULTZ keyword is used for specifying every grid block transmissibility multiplier in the Z-direction. However it is not uncommon to further modify this parameter with a script for sensitivity analysis or manual HM procedures. MULTZ is a critical parameter in the modelling of fluid flow in the Norne reservoir model, hence the extra attention. Figure 4.2 shows the the modified MULTZ values used in the original Norne Full-field case. 48 possible parameters to alter.

	Value	i1	i2	j 1	j 2	k1	k2	Description		Value	i1	i2	j 1	j 2	k1	k2	Description
EQUALS 'MULTZ'	0.02	6	13	30	50	8	8 /	Layer 8	Layer 15 EQUALS								
/									'MULTZ'	0.00003	6	29	11	21	15	15 /	C south
Layer IU										0.00005	10	29	22	39	15	15 /	C middle
	0 005	6	14	11	18	10	10 /	C_3H		1.0	10	29	28	49	17	17 /	C-1H
'MULTZ'	0.005	14	29	11	25	10	10 /	C south east		0 005	16	19	48	61	15	15 /	E-1H/D-3H
'MULTZ'	0.05	14	25	26	30	10	10 /	C-segm mid/B-2H	I 'MULTZ'	0.0008	8	18	40	40	15	15 /	C north
'MULTZ'	0.25	6	29	11	37	10	10 /	C-seam middle	'MULTZ'	0.0008	9	18	41	41	15	15 /	•
'MULTZ'	0.5	17	17	42	54	10	10 /	C north west	'MULTZ'	0.0008	10	18	42	43	15	15 /	
'MULTZ'	0.5	6	12	38	39	10	10 /	C north west	'MULTZ'	0.0008	11	18	44	44	15	15 /	
'MULTZ'	0.5	8	12	40	40	10	10 /	C north west	'MULTZ'	0.0008	12	18	45	45	15	15 /	
'MULTZ'	0.5	10	12	41	43	10	10 /	C north west	'MULTZ'	0.0008	13	18	46	47	15	15 /	
'MULTZ'	0.5	18	33	38	54	10	10 /	C1, D4 & D3	'MULTZ'	0.0008	14	15	48	48	15	15 /	
'MULTZ'	0.5	6	13	44	52	10	10 /	B-4AH	'MULTZ'	0.0008	15	15	49	50	15	15 /	
MULTZ	0.01	13	13	48	59	10	10 /	D-segm mid (B-4BH)	'MULTZ'	0.01	12	12	46	56	15	15 /	D-segm
	0.01	14	14	49	59	10	10 /	D-segm mid (B-4BH)		0.01	13	13	48	59	15	15 /	D-segm
	0.01	17	10	55	29	10	10 /	D-Segii III (D-466)		0.01	14	14	49	65	15	15 /	D-segm D-segm
'MULTZ'	0.05	14	14	60	99 62	10	10 /	E1 E1		0.01	16	10	62	69	15	15 /	D-segm
'MULTZ'	0.05	15	15	60	65	10	10 /	E1		0.01	17	19	70	99	15	15 /	D-segm D-segm
'MULTZ'	0.05	16	16	60	69	10	10 /	E1	MULTZ'	0.0035	6	7	40	60	15	15 /	D. E west
'MULTZ'	0.005	6	9	52	60	10	10 /	F-3H/E-2H	'MULTZ'	0.0035	8	8	41	60	15	15 /	5, 2
'MULTZ'	0.005	9	9	53	57	10	10 /	F-3H/E-2H	'MULTZ'	0.0035	9	9	42	52	15	15 /	
'MULTZ'	0.005	10	10	54	58	10	10 /	F-3H/E-2H	'MULTZ'	0.0035	10	10	44	49	15	15 /	
'MULTZ'	0.005	11	11	55	58	10	10 /	F-3H/E-2H	1								
/																	
EQUALS			_	_													
'MULTZ'	1.0	22	24	21	22	11	11 /	D-1H water									
MULTZ	0.1	21	25	17	19	15	15 /	D-1H water									
MULIZ	1.0	22	24	1/	19	1/	1/ /	D-IH water									
	1.0	12	24	72	1/	15	10 /	D-IM Water									
	0.1	16	10	34 17	53	12	12 /	D-3H D-1 Q D-3 Water									
, MULIZ	0.1	10	19	47	22	10	10 /	0-511									

FIGURE 4.2: Original Norne Full-field modified MULTZ values.

4.2.5 MINPV

The MINPV keyword is used to declare a threshold pore volume that a cell must exceed or it will be made inactive, i.e. this parameter alters how many active grid blocks that are present in the model from realization to realization. Naturally this makes it difficult to specify exactly how many available parameters the EnKF can condition on, as this varies with the active grid blocks. The original Norne Full-field case have a MINPV value of 500.

4.2.6 PERMZ Modifier

The PERMZ keyword specifies every grid block permeability in the Z-direction, but is initially only a copy of the PERMX keyword. To account for stratigraphical barriers and layering these values are modified for every grid block in the Z-direction for better modelling the vertical fluid flow. Figure 4.3 shows the the modified PERMZ values used in the original Norne Full-field case. 21 possible parameters to alter (NOT layer is not active).

	Value	il 12 j	1 j2 k	1 k2	Layer
'PERMZ'	0.2	1 46 1	112	1 1 /	Garn 3
'PERMZ'	0.04	1 46 1	112	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ /	Garn 2
'PERMZ'	0.25	1 46 1	112	3 3 /	Garn 1
'PERMZ'	0.0	1 46 1	112	4 4 /	Not (inactive anyway)
'PERMZ'	0.13	1 46 1	112	5 5 /	Ile 2.2
'PERMZ'	0.13	1 46 1	112	6 6 /	Ile 2.1.3
'PERMZ'	0.13	1 46 1	112	77/	Ile 2.1.2
'PERMZ'	0.13	1 46 1	112	88/	Ile 2.1.1
'PERMZ'	0.09	1 46 1	112	99/	Ile 1.3
'PERMZ'	0.07	1 46 1	112 1	0 10 /	Ile 1.2
'PERMZ'	0.19	1 46 1	112 1	1 11 /	Ile 1.1
'PERMZ'	0.13	1 46 1	112 1	2 12 /	Tofte 2.2
'PERMZ'	0.64	1 46 1	112 1	.3 13 /	Tofte 2.1.3
'PERMZ'	0.64	1 46 1	112 1	4 14 /	Tofte 2.1.2
'PERMZ'	0.64	1 46 1	112 1	.5 15 /	Tofte 2.1.1
'PERMZ'	0.64	1 46 1	112 1	.6 16 /	Tofte 1.2.2
'PERMZ'	0.64	1 46 1	112 1	.7 17 /	Tofte 1.2.1
'PERMZ'	0.016	1 46 1	112 1	.8 18 /	Tofte 1.1
'PERMZ'	0.004	1 46 1	112 1	9 19 /	Tilje 4
'PERMZ'	0.004	1 46 1	112 2	0 20 /	Tilje 3
'PERMZ'	1.0	1 46 1	112 2	1 21 /	Tilje 2
'PERMZ'	1.0	1 46 1	112 2	2 22 /	Tilje 1
/					

FIGURE 4.3: Original Norne Full-field modified PERMZ values.

4.2.7 Relative Permeability Endscaling

The relative permeability of the Norne reservoir model is defined by the two keywords SWOF and SGOF, both consisting of two tables of 4 columns. SWOF; Water saturation, the corresponding water relative permeability, the corresponding oil relative permeability and the corresponding oil-water capillary pressure. SGOF; Gas saturation, the corresponding gas relative permeability, the corresponding oil relative permeability and the corresponding oil-gas capillary pressure. These values are acquired from laboratory work and special core analysis tests (SCAL) performed on core plugs from the Norne Field. However, as with most field parameters, the relative permeability is only evaluated for certain parts of the reservoir (wells), then stochastically estimated for the rest of the reservoir. This makes sizable deviations quite possible. The ENDSCALE keyword enables the End-Point Scaling option in ECLIPSE which allows one to scale the end-points of the relative permeability curves for each grid block (Schlumberger, 2009). Using this is a convenient way of performing sensitivity analysis on the relative permeability, which again creates effective parameters for history matching. As stated by Cheng; "...end-point values is bearing uncertainty and may be used as tuning parameters in history matching" (Cheng, 2012). The ENDSCALE keyword in the Norne Full-field reservoir model is enabled with the NODIR and REVERS options. NODIR; The saturation table end-point is non-directional, meaning that the same saturation table is used for flow in the X, Y or Z direction. REVERS; The end-point scaling is reversible, meaning that the same table is used whether the flow is from I to I+1 or from I to I-1.

Figure 4.4 shows the scaling endpoint values used in the original Norne Fullfield case. 15 possible parameters to alter (SGU and SGL are not parametrized).
	Value	i1	i2	jl	lj2	k1	k2		Layer
EQUALS SWL SWL SWL SWL SWL SWL	0.04 0.05 0.15 0.15 0.05	1 1 1 1 1	46 46 46 46 46	1 1 1 1 1	112 112 112 112 112 112	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 10	 	Ile 2.2.2, Ile 2.2.1, Ile 2.1.3, Ile 2.1.2,
SWL SWL SWL SWL	0.16 0.07 0.06 0.12	1 1 1 1	46 46 46 46	1 1 1 1	112 112 112 112	11 13 16 17	12 15 16 22	/////	Ile 2.1.1, Ile 1.3 and Ile 1.2 Ile 1.1 and Tofte 2.2 Tofte 2.1 Tofte 1.2.2 Tofte 1.2.1, Tofte 1.2.1, Tofte 1.1 and Tilje
/ ADD SWCR /	0.08	1	46	1	112	1 2	22	/	
MULTIPLY SGU /	-1	1	46	1	112	1 2	22	/	
SGU	1	1	46	1	112	1 2	22	/	
SGL SGCR SOWCR SOGCR SWU	0.0 0.03 0.13 0.07 1.0	1 1 1 1	46 46 46 46 46	1 1 1 1	112 112 112 112 112 112	1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2	22 22 22 22 22 22	//////	
/ EQUALS ISGCR	0.22	1	46	1	112	1 2	22	/	

FIGURE 4.4: Original Norne Full-field scaling endpoint values. SWL = Con-nate water saturation, SWCR = Critical water saturation, <math>SGU = Maximum gas saturation, SGL = Connate gas saturation, SGCR = Critical gas saturation, SOWCR = Critical oil-to-water saturation, <math>SOGCR = Critical oil-to-gas saturation, SWU = Maximum water saturation and ISGCR = Critical gas saturation (Imbibition).

4.3 Creating the initial ensemble

The construction of an initial, or prior, ensemble is a very important factor when using either EnKF or ES. The EnKF and ES replaces the system state covariance matrix with the sample covariance computed from the ensemble, and as the EnKF assumes that all probability distributions involved in the data assimilation are normal distributions, the ensemble has to be large enough for EnKF to be able to sample it like a normal distribution (Evensen, 2007).

4.3.1 Prior distributions

When defining a parametrization of an ECLIPSE model for use with the ERT, a set of prior distributions are available. In this thesis the UNIFORM keyword has been used, i.e. only uniformly distributed parameters. Other prior distributions can be studied in detail at the ERT homepage¹.

UNIFORM A stochastic variable is uniformly distributed if it has a constant probability density on a closed interval. Thus, the uniform distribution is completely characterized by its minimum and maximum value. An ERT example, which assigns a uniform distribution between 0 and 1 to a variable, is "<variable_name> UNIFORM 0 1" (Statoil and NCC, 2013).

"It can be shown that among all distributions bounded below by a and above by b, the uniform distribution with parameters a and b has the maximal entropy (contains the least information). Thus, the uniform distribution should be your preferred prior distribution for robust modeling of bounded variables" (Statoil and NCC, 2013).

4.3.2 MULTFLT

The initial parametrization of the MULTREGT keyword can be seen in Table 4.2, and the template file the ERT uses to create importable files for ECLIPSE can be seen in Table A.1.

 $^{^{1}\}mathrm{URL:}\ http://ert.nr.no/wiki/index.php/Prior_distributions_available_in_enkf$

E_01	UNIFORM 0.002 0.05	C_21_Ti	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.01
E_01_F3	UNIFORM 0.002 0.05	C_22	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.01
DE_1	UNIFORM 1 12	C_23	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5
DE_1_LTo	UNIFORM 0.003 0.05	C_24	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5
DE_B3	UNIFORM 0.0001 0.005	C_25	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5
DE_2	UNIFORM 0.003 0.7	C_26	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5
DE_0	UNIFORM 5 60	C_26N	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.01
BC	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5	C_27	UNIFORM 0.05 0.3
CD	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5	C_28	UNIFORM 0.3 3
CD_To	UNIFORM 0.002 0.05	C_29	UNIFORM 0.01 0.5
CD_B3	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5	DI	UNIFORM 0.01 0.5
CD_0	UNIFORM 0.3 3	DI_S	UNIFORM 0.01 0.5
CD_1	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5	D_05	UNIFORM 0.001 0.05
C_01	UNIFORM 0.001 1.5	EF	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_01_Ti	UNIFORM 0.002 0.05	GH	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_08	UNIFORM 0.002 0.05	G_01	UNIFORM 0.05 0.3
C_{08} Ile	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5	G_02	UNIFORM 0.05 0.3
C_08_S	UNIFORM 0.002 0.05	G_03	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_{08} Ti	UNIFORM 0.3 3	G_05	UNIFORM 0.1 1.5
$C_{08}_{S}_{Ti}$	UNIFORM 0.3 3	G_07	UNIFORM 0.05 0.3
C_09	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5	G_08	UNIFORM 0.05 0.3
C_02	UNIFORM 0.003 0.1	G_09	UNIFORM 0.05 0.3
C_04	UNIFORM 0.01 0.3	G_13	UNIFORM 0.05 0.3
C_{05}	UNIFORM 0.002 0.5	H_03	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_06	UNIFORM 0.002 0.5	IH	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_10	UNIFORM 0.002 0.1	m_east	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_12	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5	m_east_2	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_20	UNIFORM 0.05 1.5	m_north	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_20_LTo	UNIFORM 0.1 1.5	m_northe	UNIFORM 0.3 3
C_21	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.01	m_west	UNIFORM 0.3 3

TABLE 4.2: Initial parametrization of the MULTFLT.

4.3.3 MULTREGT

The initial parametrization of the MULTREGT keyword can be seen in Table 4.3, and the template file the ERT uses to create importable files for ECLIPSE can be seen in Table A.2.

MULTREGT0	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT83	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT1	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT84	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT2	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT85	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT3	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.05	MULTREGT86	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT4	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT87	UNIFORM 10 1000
MULTREGT5	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT88	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT14	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT89	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT19	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT90	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT20	UNIFORM 0.005 0.5	MULTREGT95	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT25	UNIFORM 0.001 0.1	MULTREGT96	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT26	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT97	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT27	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT98	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT32	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT99	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT33	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT100	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT34	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT101	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT35	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT102	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT40	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT103	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT41	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT104	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT42	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT109	UNIFORM 0.001 0.1
MULTREGT43	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT110	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT44	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT111	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT49	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT112	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT50	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT113	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT51	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT114	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT52	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT115	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT53	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT116	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT54	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT117	UNIFORM 0.001 0.1
MULTREGT59	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT118	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT60	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT119	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT61	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT128	UNIFORM 0.0001 0.01
MULTREGT62	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT132	UNIFORM 0.0008 0.008
MULTREGT63	UNIFORM 0.001 0.1	MULTREGT145	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT64	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT149	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT65	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT152	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT70	UNIFORM 0.01 1	MULTREGT163	UNIFORM 0.0001 0.01
MULTREGT71	UNIFORM 0.01 1	MULTREGT167	UNIFORM 0.005 0.5
MULTREGT72	UNIFORM 0.01 1	MULTREGT169	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT73	UNIFORM 0.01 1	MULTREGT170	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT74	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT182	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT75	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT186	UNIFORM 0.0001 0.01
MULTREGT76	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT187	UNIFORM 0.01 1
MULTREGT77	UNIFORM 0.1 10	MULTREGT188	UNIFORM 0.1 10
MULTREGT82	UNIFORM 0.01 1	MULTREGT189	UNIFORM 0.1 10

TABLE 4.3: Initial parametrization of the MULTREGT.

4.3.4 MULTZ Modifier

The initial parametrization of the MULTZ keyword can be seen in Table 4.4 for the E-segment and in Table 4.5. The template file the ERT uses to create importable files for ECLIPSE can be seen in section A.0.4.

MULTZ1	UNIFORM 0.04 0.01	MULTZ28	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ2	UNIFORM 0.002 0.01	MULTZ29	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ3	UNIFORM 0.01 0.06	MULTZ30	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ4	UNIFORM 0.02 0.1	MULTZ31	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ5	UNIFORM 0.1 0.5	MULTZ32	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ6	UNIFORM 0.1 0.9	MULTZ33	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ7	UNIFORM 0.1 0.9	MULTZ34	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ8	UNIFORM 0.1 0.9	MULTZ35	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0012
MULTZ9	UNIFORM 0.1 0.9	MULTZ36	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ10	UNIFORM 0.1 0.9	MULTZ37	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ11	UNIFORM 0.1 0.9	MULTZ38	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ12	UNIFORM 0.005 0.02	MULTZ39	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ13	UNIFORM 0.005 0.02	MULTZ40	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ14	UNIFORM 0.005 0.02	MULTZ41	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ15	UNIFORM 0.01 0.5	MULTZ42	UNIFORM 0.001 0.005
MULTZ16	UNIFORM 0.01 0.5	MULTZ43	UNIFORM 0.0015 0.006
MULTZ17	UNIFORM 0.01 0.5	MULTZ44	UNIFORM 0.0015 0.006
MULTZ18	UNIFORM 0.01 0.5	MULTZ45	UNIFORM 0.0015 0.006
MULTZ19	UNIFORM 0.001 0.01	MULTZ46	UNIFORM 0.7 1.2
MULTZ20	UNIFORM 0.001 0.01	MULTZ47	UNIFORM 0.05 0.2
MULTZ21	UNIFORM 0.001 0.01	MULTZ48	UNIFORM 0.7 1.2
MULTZ22	UNIFORM 0.001 0.01	MULTZ49	UNIFORM 0.7 1.2
MULTZ26	UNIFORM 0.7 1.2	MULTZ50	UNIFORM 0.05 0.2
MULTZ27	UNIFORM 0.001 0.05	MULTZ51	UNIFORM 0.05 0.2

 TABLE 4.4: Initial parametrization of the MULTZ Modifier, Norne E-segment model.

MULTZ1	UNIFORM 0.04 0.01	MULTZ28	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ2	UNIFORM 0.002 0.01	MULTZ29	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ3	UNIFORM 0.01 0.06	MULTZ30	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ4	UNIFORM 0.02 0.1	MULTZ31	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ5	UNIFORM 0.1 0.5	MULTZ32	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ6	UNIFORM 0.2 1	MULTZ33	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ7	UNIFORM 0.2 1	MULTZ34	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0015
MULTZ8	UNIFORM 0.2 1	MULTZ35	UNIFORM 0.0004 0.0012
MULTZ9	UNIFORM 0.2 1	MULTZ36	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ10	UNIFORM 0.2 1	MULTZ37	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ11	UNIFORM 0.2 1	MULTZ38	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ12	UNIFORM 0.005 0.02	MULTZ39	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ13	UNIFORM 0.005 0.02	MULTZ40	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ14	UNIFORM 0.005 0.02	MULTZ41	UNIFORM 0.005 0.03
MULTZ15	UNIFORM 0.02 0.1	MULTZ42	UNIFORM 0.0015 0.006
MULTZ16	UNIFORM 0.02 0.1	MULTZ43	UNIFORM 0.0015 0.006
MULTZ17	UNIFORM 0.02 0.1	MULTZ44	UNIFORM 0.0015 0.006
MULTZ18	UNIFORM 0.02 0.1	MULTZ45	UNIFORM 0.0015 0.006
MULTZ19	UNIFORM 0.002 0.01	MULTZ46	UNIFORM 0.7 1.2
MULTZ20	UNIFORM 0.002 0.01	MULTZ47	UNIFORM 0.05 0.2
MULTZ21	UNIFORM 0.002 0.01	MULTZ48	UNIFORM 0.7 1.2
MULTZ22	UNIFORM 0.002 0.01	MULTZ49	UNIFORM 0.7 1.2
MULTZ26	UNIFORM 0.7 1.2	MULTZ50	UNIFORM 0.05 0.2
MULTZ27	UNIFORM 0.002 0.01	MULTZ51	UNIFORM 0.05 0.2

TABLE 4.5: Initial parametrization of the MULTZ Modifier, Norne Full-field model.

4.3.5 MINPV

The initial parametrization of the MINPV keyword is defined as MIN_PV_GEN UNIFORM 400 600, and the template file the ERT uses to create importable files for ECLIPSE then look like this;

MINPV

 $<\!\!\mathrm{MIN_PV_GEN}\!> /$

4.3.6 PERMX Modifier

The initial parametrization of the PERMZ keyword can be seen in Table 4.6 for the E-segment and in Table 4.7. The template file the ERT uses to create importable files for ECLIPSE can be seen in section A.0.5.

PERMZ1	UNIFORM 0.02 0.5
PERMZ2	UNIFORM 0.005 0.1
PERMZ3	UNIFORM 0.02 0.7
PERMZ5	UNIFORM 0.01 0.4
PERMZ6	UNIFORM 0.01 0.4
PERMZ7	UNIFORM 0.01 0.4
PERMZ8	UNIFORM 0.01 0.4
PERMZ9	UNIFORM 0.01 0.3
PERMZ10	UNIFORM 0.001 0.25
PERMZ11	UNIFORM 0.002 0.5
PERMZ12	UNIFORM 0.002 0.3
PERMZ13	UNIFORM 0.1 2
PERMZ14	UNIFORM 0.1 2
PERMZ15	UNIFORM 0.1 2
PERMZ16	UNIFORM 0.1 2
PERMZ17	UNIFORM 0.1 2
PERMZ18	UNIFORM 0.002 0.05
PERMZ19	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.01
PERMZ20	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.01
PERMZ21	UNIFORM 0.2 2
PERMZ22	UNIFORM 0.2 2

 TABLE 4.6: Initial parametrization of the PERMZ Modifier, Norne E-segment model.

PERMZ1	UNIFORM 0.02 0.7
PERMZ2	UNIFORM 0.005 0.2
PERMZ3	UNIFORM 0.02 0.8
PERMZ5	UNIFORM 0.02 0.6
PERMZ6	UNIFORM 0.02 0.6
PERMZ7	UNIFORM 0.02 0.6
PERMZ8	UNIFORM 0.02 0.6
PERMZ9	UNIFORM 0.01 0.4
PERMZ10	UNIFORM 0.001 0.35
PERMZ11	UNIFORM 0.002 0.6
PERMZ12	UNIFORM 0.002 0.4
PERMZ13	UNIFORM 0.1 2.5
PERMZ14	UNIFORM 0.1 2.5
PERMZ15	UNIFORM 0.1 2.5
PERMZ16	UNIFORM 0.1 2.5
PERMZ17	UNIFORM 0.1 2.5
PERMZ18	UNIFORM 0.002 0.07
PERMZ19	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.02
PERMZ20	UNIFORM 0.0005 0.02
PERMZ21	UNIFORM 0.2 2.5
PERMZ22	UNIFORM 0.2 2.5

 TABLE 4.7: Initial parametrization of the PERMZ Modifier, Norne Full-field model.

4.3.7 Relative Permeability Endscaling

The initial parametrization of the keywords available with the ENDSCALE option can be seen in Table 4.8, and the template file the ERT uses to create importable files for ECLIPSE can be seen in section A.0.6.

endpoint1	UNIFORM 0.01 0.1
endpoint2	UNIFORM 0.01 0.1
endpoint3	UNIFORM 0.05 0.25
endpoint4	UNIFORM 0.05 0.25
endpoint5	UNIFORM 0.01 0.1
endpoint6	UNIFORM 0.05 0.25
endpoint7	UNIFORM 0.12 0.03
endpoint8	UNIFORM 0.01 0.1
endpoint9	UNIFORM 0.05 0.25
endpoint10	UNIFORM 0.03 0.15
endpoint13	UNIFORM 0.01 0.08
endpoint14	UNIFORM 0.05 0.25
endpoint15	UNIFORM 0.01 0.1
endpoint17	UNIFORM 0.15 0.3

TABLE 4.8: Initial parametrization of the keywords available with the END-SCALE option.

Chapter 5

Results

5.1 E-segment

The E-segment ES- and EnkF-assimilation was performed with an ensemble consisting of 120 ECLIPSE realizations, with ES- and EnKF-updates for every 25^{th} report step [258 in total]. An ensemble size with a lower bound of approximately 100 members ensure a non-biased sampling by the ES- and EnKF-algorithm (Natvik and Evensen, 2003). The reference case and the historical data records begins at the 14th of November 1997 and ends at the 1st of December 2004, while the ensemble and ES- and EnKF-assimilation simulates and predicts for 4 more years until the 1st of November 2008. With 120 realization members the execution runtime was ~4 hours for the initial ensemble and the ES, and ~20 hours for the EnKF¹. ~55GB of data was generated for each set of realizations (initial ensemble, analyzed ensemble (ES) and analyzed ensemble (EnKF)).

¹Note: The bigmem queue on the Kongull cluster was utilized, running maximum 40 realizations simultaneously. 1 node (2 AMD Opteron model 2431 6-core (Istanbul) processors, 2400 GHz core speed and 667 MHz bus frequency) per realization.



FIGURE 5.1: Oil production rate for well E-1H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.



FIGURE 5.2: Gas production rate for well E-1H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = MSCF/DAY.







FIGURE 5.3: Water production rate for well E-1H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.



FIGURE 5.4: Plots for the FIELD rates, based on the coarsened E-segment model. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY, MSCF/DAY, STB/DAY, respectively.



FIGURE 5.5: PERMZ, E-segment. Left: Original Norne case. Right: EnKF-analyzed ensemble member #60. Well E-3H perforated in indicated cell (12, 72, 5).

FIGURE 5.6: Gas saturation 1st of May 2000, E-segment. Left: Original Norne case. Right: EnKF-analyzed ensemble member #60.

In the included EnKF_analyzed_models.zip the EnKF-analyzed ensemble member #60 (ECLIPSE.DATA-file with importable files) may be studied in further depth.

5.2 Full-field

The Full-field ES- and EnkF-assimilation was performed with an ensemble consisting of 80 ECLIPSE realizations, with ES- and EnKF-updates for every 50^{th} report step [266 in total]. The low number of ensemble members and fairly large update step are due to the size of the Full-field model. A single simulation run of the original Full-field Norne model has a runtime of ~1.5 hrs. However, certain ensemble members initialized with abnormal parameters made the model very dense, thus resulting in longer convergence time for ECLIPSE. The consequence of this was runtimes of more than 6 hrs. The time limit on this thesis, available computational capacity and a consistent ensemble collapse while assimilating, made it necessary with preliminary measures like smaller ensemble size and larger EnKF update step.

The reference case and the historical data records begins at the 14th of November 1997 and ends at the 1st of December 2006, while the ensemble and ES- and EnKF-assimilation simulates and predicts for 1.25 years more until the 1st of March 2008 (the EnKF-assimilation had to be cut half a year early due to a technical mishap). With 80 realization members the execution runtime was ~25 hours for the initial ensemble and the ES, and approximately 1 week for the EnKF². ~140GB of data was generated for each set of realizations (initial ensemble, analyzed ensemble (ES) and analyzed ensemble (EnKF)).



²Note: The bigmem queue on the Kongull cluster was utilized, running maximum 30 realizations simultaneously. 1 node (2 AMD Opteron model 2431 6-core (Istanbul) processors, 2400 GHz core speed and 667 MHz bus frequency) per realization.



FIGURE 5.8: Gas production rate for well E-1H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = MSCF/DAY.



FIGURE 5.9: Water production rate for well E-1H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.

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Results



FIGURE 5.10: Oil production rate for well D-2H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.



FIGURE 5.11: Gas production rate for well D-2H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = MSCF/DAY.



FIGURE 5.12: Water production rate for well D-2H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.



FIGURE 5.13: Oil production rate for well B-2H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.

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FIGURE 5.14: Gas production rate for well B-2H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = MSCF/DAY.



FIGURE 5.15: Water production rate for well B-2H with mismatch plot. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.

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FIGURE 5.16: Plots for the FIELD rates, based on Full-field model. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY, MSCF/DAY, STB/DAY, respectively.

In the included EnKF_analyzed_models.zip the EnKF-analyzed ensemble member #40 (ECLIPSE.DATA-file with importable files) may be studied in further depth.

5.3 E-segment vs. Full-field

The Norne E-segment model consists, as earlier stated, of a fine-gridded E-segment and coarsened, large grid blocks for the rest of the field. Nevertheless, the coarsened E-segment model is, as the Norne Full-field model, meant to resemble the actual Norne reservoir model, and should produce reasonable matched estimates compared to the Full-field model. Comparison of these two is therefore of high interest.





FIGURE 5.17: Oil production FIELD rates with mismatch plot, E-segment EnKF-assimilation vs. Full-field EnKF-assimilation. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.



FIGURE 5.18: Gas production FIELD rates with mismatch plot, E-segment EnKF-assimilation vs. Full-field EnKF-assimilation. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = MSCF/DAY.





FIGURE 5.19: Water production FIELD rates with mismatch plot, E-segment EnKF-assimilation vs. Full-field EnKF-assimilation. X-axis = Time. Y-axis = STB/DAY.

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Chapter 6

Discussion & Conclusion

6.1 Discussions

The results from the ES and EnKF history matching of the Norne E-segment model and the Norne Full-field model are shown in Figures 5.1-5.16. Production rate plots for oil, gas and water per well and FIELD are created. Mismatch plots are plots where the curves' distance from zero denotes mismatch. The wells B-2H, D-2H and E-1H are the longest producing wells in their respective segment, hence the results from these three wells can be assumed representative for the rest of the wells in the field. The location of these wells can be seen in Figure 2.13. The blue curves represent the 120/80 (E-segment/Full-field) realizations of the initial ensemble, the cyan curves are the 120/80 ES-analyzed ensemble members, while the red curves represent the 120/80 EnKF-analyzed ensemble members. The historical observations are represented by the black dots and the Norne reference case from 2013 is represented by the yellow line.

The initial uncertainty in the parametrization of model parameters leads to a significant uncertainty in the simulated production. This is illustrated by the initial ensemble spread in the oil, gas and water production rates. Ideally the spread should cover the historical observations at all points in time, which is more or less achieved for all production rates. If one chooses to look at the ES and EnKF update as a linear regression problem, the importance of initial ensemble, or prior, coverage is evident; with coverage the update problem becomes linear interpolation, without coverage it becomes linear extrapolation. Without prior coverage it is therefore much harder for the ES- and EnKF-algorithm to perform a successful update analysis of the ensemble and better condition the model. However, if the historical observed data and the unknown conditioning parameters are highly correlated, extrapolation may be as successful as interpolation. This exception can be seen in Figure 5.3.

The difference in correctness (and performance) of the Ensemble Smoother versus the Ensemble Kalman Filter is clearly seen in the results. The ES does one pass of the ensemble and incorporates all observed historical values into this pass, hence a significant amount of time and computational power is saved compared to the EnKF which restarts the simulation for every 25th (E-Segment) and 50th (Fullfield) report step. However, the large amount of time and computational power required by the EnKF is made up for in much better results in terms of higher correlation with the historical observed data. This is unquestionable for both the E-segment and Full-field results.

Looking at the actual history matching, the first impression is that the model matching can be ordered from water rates, best match, to gas rates, worst match. The oil rates are situated mostly somewhere in between these. This is highly evident for the E-segment, but not so much for the Full-field model. The results for the Full-field model suggest that the highest uncertainty is found in the water production rates (see Figure 5.9, 5.12 and 5.15), including a most probably biased EnKF-analyzed ensemble result in Figure 5.12. The exact reason for the biased result is hard to explain without a thorough numerical analysis of the data assimilation for the D-segment, but a probable cause could be a filter divergence. The ensemble size used for the Full-field model is unfortunately in the lower threshold, and an insufficient ensemble size can typically cause an underestimation of the trusts its own forecast and ignores the information provided by the observations. This is caused by ensemble members aligning with the most unstable parameter

directions and is exacerbated by large observational noise (Gottwald and Majda, 2013). A more technical analysis of the biased result can be provided with the help of an equation from (Sætrom and Omre, 2013):

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(j)}$ represent two realizations in my posteriori ensemble. The covariance between these two realizations (the underlying linear dependency between the two) are, under Gaussian assumptions, given as

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}) = \frac{\operatorname{Tr}[\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{d})^{-1}(\mathbf{d}^{\mathbf{o}} - \operatorname{E}[\mathbf{d}])(\mathbf{d}^{\mathbf{o}} - \operatorname{E}[\mathbf{d}])^{T}]}{n_{e} - n_{d} - 2} \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{d})$$
(6.1)

where Tr denotes the trace value, Var denotes the variance, the **d** denotes the true historical observations, the **d**^o denotes the measured historical observations $(\mathbf{d}^{o} = \mathbf{d} + \epsilon_{d})$, E[**d**] denotes the expected historical observations, the **x** denotes the ensemble members, the n_{e} denotes the ensemble size and the n_{d} denotes the number of historical observations.

Looking at equation 6.1, the covariance will increase:

- If the true historical observations are co-linear, i.e. many Var(d) are nearly singular which leads to high values in the Var(d)⁻¹
- With a large mismatch between measured historical observations, d^o, and the expected historical observations, E[d]
- 3. With a large number of historical observations, n_d
- 4. With a small ensemble size, n_e , relative to the n_d
- 5. With a large $Var(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{d})$, which implies high-dimensional \mathbf{x} with true observations \mathbf{d} , that carry little information about \mathbf{x}

Since the expectation value of the empirical covariance matrix is given as $E[\sigma_{\hat{x}}] = Cov(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - Cov(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)})$, an ensemble collapse is inevitable if one of the factors described above increases too much. In the case of the biased result in Figure 5.12, factor number two comes into play. The prior ensemble is very "skewed" compared

to the historical observed data, hence more "dependency" (bigger $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)})$) is introduced after each and every EnKF-update. In the end, this results in an ensemble collapse and an EnKF-analyzed ensemble "off the chart".

Out of all the wells plotted in the Full-field model, E-1H has the overall best match, suggesting that the E-segment is the best matched part of the reservoir. This is not an illogical result, as the E-segment is the part of the Norne Field given the most attention with regards to data gathered and model detail. Figures 5.7 and 5.9 however, showing the oil and water production rate for well E-1H for the Full-field model, are the only plots where the ES-analyzed ensemble may be interpreted with a slightly better match than the EnKF. Although, looking at the spread, or the uncertainty, of the two analyzed ensembles, the EnKF is a lot more certain than the ES. The mean value of the ES-analyzed ensemble could be close or even worse than the mean value of the EnKF, even though the results seems to show otherwise. Nonetheless, these results are more coincidental than a tendency, as it is not seen in the rest of the results.

A fairly large error for both the ES- and EnKF-analysed realizations can be seen around November 2000 to February 2001. This error is most significant for well E-1H, but can be detected in nearly all the plots for both models. It is clearly seen in Figures 5.1, 5.2, 5.7 and 5.8. The original Norne case does not seem to have this error, and the question is what happens with the ensemble initialization and analysis in this period to cause this inaccuracy. The 22nd of September 2000 the injection well F-3H starts injecting water for the first time. This well is located in close proximity to the well E-1H (see Figure 2.13), hence an undesirable incorporation of the historical observed data from well F-3H may be a reason. Another reason may be the closing and plugging of well E-3H the 1st of April 2000, located right in the middle of the gas displacement front. An abrupt change in data at this point may have lead to numerical difficulties for the ES- and EnKF-algorithm. Figure 5.6 shows the gas saturation in layer five in the E-segment model the 1st of May 2000. Large differences can be seen for swept area, and more specifically, the transition area of the gas sweeping in the EnKF-analyzed model is much less than in the original model. This implies a higher mobility ratio for the gas in the EnKF-analyzed model, at least for layer five.

Comparing the FIELD rates of the E-segment versus the Full-field model the results are generally as expected. As of Figure 5.17, 5.18 and 5.19 none of the models are able to get a perfect fit. In addition, the uncertainty of the EnKF-analyzed ensemble is not insignificant for either case. A slight uncertainty in the EnKF-analyzed ensemble means that the assimilation could have been better and that the algorithms are still sampling Gaussian distributed parameters within a smaller bounded interval than for the initial ensemble. There is no doubt that with only 80 ensemble members updated every 50th report step for the Full-field EnKF-assimilation the match could have been better for the Full-field model. Nonetheless, an overall slightly better match are acquired for the FIELD rates with the Full-field EnKF-assimilation, which is according to theory and expectations.

As seen in Figure 5.5 the EnKF algorithm has done rather large modifications to the static PERMZ parameter of the E-segment. Similar changes are seen in the other static parameters, also the Full-field model, hence proving that the EnKF has conditioned on the parameters chosen. The fact that the ES- and EnKFalgorithms get to have complete control of the large amount of parameter chosen to condition on, is positive with regards to correctness and correlation of parameters in the model. Although, it can also be a negative thing. When performing manual HM a reservoir engineer needs to acquire in depth knowledge of every aspect of the model - down to cell level. He or she can then begin to history match by altering each and every parameter in question. This is time-consuming and initially seldom successful. However, after some initial work the increasing knowledge of the reservoir should provide an experienced reservoir engineer the necessary feedback to be able to pin-point certain critical parameters. With AHM it is easy to lose control and blindly trust the mathematics behind the algorithms. If the results end up being illogical it is not easy to troubleshoot and find errors in an algorithm not fully understood or in a reservoir model of only basic knowledge.

The EnKF is an efficient AHM algorithm, but it has some drawbacks. The ensemble and ensemble size in the EnKF needs to be selected carefully such that uncertainty is sufficiently captured. To avoid high computational costs, a relatively small ensemble size may be necessary (as for the Full-field model) which is small compared to the number of unknown parameters (in this thesis; in the number of model grid blocks). The assimilation of large amounts of data with relatively small ensembles can lead to spurious correlations and/or filter divergence, which may lead to unphysical updates of model parameters (see especially Figure 5.12). However, in spite of some illogical results most of the EnKF-analysed production rates show a slightly better match than the reference case, as well as a lot less uncertainty than the initial ensemble. This should lead to the conclusion that both the ES-assimilation and especially the EnKF-assimilation are in fact performing well.

6.2 Conclusions & Recommendations

In this thesis two stochastic algorithms, the Ensemble Smoother (ES) and the Ensemble Kalman filter (EnKS), has been utilized as automatic history matching methods through the Statoil developed program the Ensemble based Reservoir Tool. Real historical production and pressure data, provided by Statoil through IO Center NTNU, has been used to condition on a parametrized ECLIPSE reservoir model of the Norne Field. Parameters conditioned on includes the field parameters porosity, i-permeability, net-to-gross, and z-direction transmissibility multiplier, as well as fault multipliers, region transmissibility multipliers, minimum pore volumes and relative permeability endscaling options. The stand-alone E-segment model and the Full-field model were both studied.

With an ensemble size of 120 realizations for the E-Segment model and 80 realizations for the Full-field model both algorithms performed well. In most of the results an initial high uncertainty in the prior provided the necessary coverage of the historical observed data. Overall the EnKF performed better than the ES, which is natural comparing time and computational power required. Some spurious correlations and one particular ensemble collapse were experienced. The EnKF-analysed ensemble production rates provides a lot less uncertainty than the initial ensemble, and for most plots a slightly better match than the reference case. The EnKF-algorithm is shown to be vulnerable of small ensemble sizes versus large amounts of conditioning parameters, as well as highly correlated historical observations.

In the last years 4D seismic data has become a valuable tool for reservoir engineers. The higher resolution and more frequently shot seismic gathers provide them with another view of the fluid movement inside the reservoir. Where pressure and production data give detailed, but localized, information, 4D seismic data provides coarse, but global information. The research on 4D seismic data has naturally become a large part of the literature, and several articles have been published dealing with the subject of EnKF-assimilation and 4D seismic data, e.g. (Fahimuddin et al., 2010) and (Han et al., 2013). The general consensus of these articles is that the quantitative 4D seismic data complements the qualitative production- and pressure data very well, resulting in significantly better history matching of reservoir models. EnKF is especially suited for history matching with 4D seismic data due to the efficient incorporation of the large amount of assimilation data in such cases. As a proposal for further research on the Norne Field, automatic history matching using EnKF and incorporating both the available 4D seismic data and the pressure- and production data would be the next natural step.

Appendix A

The ERT specific files

A.0.1 Configuration file

-- NORNE FULL - FIELD MODEL 2014 - ERT CONFIG FILE -- Ensemble Reservoir Tool (ERT) configuration for the Norne full-field model -- Daniel A. Solheim - 2014 - danieso@stud.ntnu.no -- Documentation: -- See the README file. Keywords used in this file are documented at: http://sdp.statoil.no/wiki/index.php/res:enkf _ _ http://ert.nr.no _ _ -- Using the DEFINE keyword to avoid overwriting simulations DEFINE <USER> \$USER DEFINE <SCRATCH> /work/danieso/Scratch DEFINE <CASE> TEST2_FULLF_FULLPARA DEFINE <PWD> \$PWD

-- Do some magic to set ECLBASE and RUNPATH

ECLBASE	FIRST_GEN_NORNE- <case>-%d</case>
RUNPATH	<scratch>/<case>/realization-%d</case></scratch>
ENSPATH	<scratch>/Storage/<case></case></scratch>

-- Make sure ECLIPSE gets the right path to the include files like the relperm etc.

DEFINE <ECLPATH> /work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW2013/

-- Name of .SCH file we are using in the current setup DEFINE <SCHEDULE_FILE_NAME> BC0407_HIST01122006_NEW2.SCH

-- Use the record storage system DBASE_TYPE BLOCK_FS

-- Set the number of realizations to run NUM_REALIZATIONS 80

--Use the TORQUE queue system for running simulation on Kongull QUEUE_SYSTEM TORQUE QUEUE_OPTION TORQUE QSUB_CMD /home/danieso/ert/Scripts/myqsub.sh QUEUE_OPTION TORQUE NUM_NODES 1 QUEUE_OPTION TORQUE NUM_CPUS_PER_NODE 1 QUEUE_OPTION TORQUE MAX_RUNNING 40 QUEUE_OPTION TORQUE KEEP_QSUB_OUTPUT 1 QUEUE_OPTION TORQUE KEEP_QSUB_OUTPUT 1

-- Set image type for the plots generated

IMAGE_TYPE png

-- Load the .EGRID file GRID /work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/NORNE_ATW2013.GRID

-- Location of the ECLIPSE .DATA DATA_FILE /work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/NORNE_ATW2013_CORRECT_MOD.DATA

--Alltid starte EnFK fra tidssteg 0 etter oppdatering ENKF_RERUN TRUE ENKF_MERGE_OBSERVATIONS TRUE

--Only do updates on report steps specified in schedule file ENKF_SCHED_FILE /home/danieso/etc/EnKF_update_setup.txt ENKF_LOCAL_CV TRUE ENKF_CV_FOLDS 7 KEEP_RUNPATH 0-79

-- Parametrization:

-- Uncertainty in MULTFLT

GEN_KW MULTFLT templates/MULTFLT.tmpl MULTFLT.INC parameters/MULTFLT.txt

--UNcertainty for MULTZ Equals stuff

GEN_KW MULTZ_KW templates/MULTZ.tmpl MULTZ_KW.INC parameters/MULTZ2.txt

-- Uncertainty in MULTREGT GEN_KW MULTREGT templates/MULTREGT.tmpl MULTREGT.INC parameters/MULTREGT.txt

-- Testing sensitivity of MINPV (UNIFORM 400-600)

GEN_KW MINPV templates/minpv.temp MINPV.INC parameters/minpv_params.txt

--Testing sensitiviy of PERMZ

GEN_KW PERMZ templates/multiply_permz.temp PERMZ.INC parameters/PERMZ4.txt

--Testing sensitivty of RELPERM through ENDPOINTS GEN_KW ENDPOINTS templates/ENDPOINTS.tmpl ENDPOINTS.INC parameters/ENDPOINTS.txt

--Adding a porosity field (unbounded)

FIELD PORO PARAMETER PORO.INC INIT_FILES:/work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/INCLUDE/PETRO/PORO_0704.prop

--Adding a permeability field

FIELD PERMX PARAMETER PERM.INC INIT_FILES:/work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/INCLUDE/PETRO/PERM_0704.prop

--Adding a net-to-gross field

FIELD NTG PARAMETER NTG.INC INIT_FILES:/work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/INCLUDE/PETRO/NTG_0704.prop

--Adding a MULTZ field

FIELD MULTZ PARAMETER MULTZ.INC INIT_FILES:/work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/INCLUDE/PETRO/MULTZ_HM_1.INC

-- Load historic data from a reference case. This is needed to get the

```
historic accumulated production, as ERT is not able to compute it from
the schedule file.
HISTORY_SOURCE
               REFCASE_HISTORY
REFCASE
               /work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/NORNE_ATW2013.DATA
--Need observations to be able to plot and assimilate the historic data.
OBS_CONFIG
                /home/danieso/etc/observations2.txt
-- Collect non-observed summary variables for monitoring
SUMMARY FOIP
SUMMARY TCPU
SUMMARY FPR
SUMMARY FOPT
SUMMARY FGPT
SUMMARY FWPT
SUMMARY FOPR
SUMMARY FGPR
SUMMARY FWPR
PLOT_REFCASE FALSE
REFCASE_LIST /work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/NORNE_ATW2013.DATA
IMAGE_VIEWER /d/proj/bg/enkf/bin/noplot.sh
--Plot error bar
PLOT_ERRORBAR_MAX 100
--Location of the SCHEDULE file
SCHEDULE FILE
/work/danieso/norne/Norne_ATW_2013/INCLUDE/BC0407_HIST01122006_NEW2.SCH
-- Install the custom jobs
--INSTALL_JOB MULTIPLY_PERMZ_DOE jobs/MULTIPLY_PERMZ_DOE
```

- -- Definition of the forward models.
- -- 1.0 Replace the ECLPATH data in the generated ECLIPSE DATA file (not necessary)
- -- 4.0 If necessary, copy runpath folder
- -- 7.0 Perform a so-called Design Of Engineering matrix sensitivity run
- on XXXX (not in final AHM)
- -- 10 Run Eclipse in parallel/single mode

```
-- 1.0
--FORWARD_MODEL REPLACE(<FROM>=_ECLPATH__ , <TO>=<ECLPATH> , <FILE>=<ECLBASE>.DATA)
-- 4.0
--FORWARD_MODEL COPY_FOLDER(<copyfrom> = <CONFIG_PATH>
/../rms/rmsIMPORT/ipl_lib, <copyto> = <RUNPATH>/rms/rmsIMPORT/)
-- 7.0
--Do DOE sensitivity on the PERMZ multiplyer
--FORWARD_MODEL MULTIPLY_PERMZ_DOE(<TEMPLATE> =
/home/danieso/ert/templates/multiply_permz.temp,<PARAMETERS> =
```

/home/danieso/ert/parameters/multiply_permz.txt, <IENS> = <IENS>)

-- 10

FORWARD_MODEL ECLIPSE100_2011.1(<ECLBASE>=<ECLBASE>,<NUM_CPU>=1)

A.0.2 MULTFLT

TABLE A.1: The MULTFLT template file.

'E_01'	<e_01></e_01>	/
'E 01 F3'	< E 01 F3 >	/
$^{\prime}\mathrm{DE}_{1}^{-1}$	$<\!\!D\bar{E}_1\!\!>$	/
'DE 1 LTo'	<de 1="" lto=""></de>	/
'DE_B3'	<de_b3></de_b3>	/
'DE_2'	<DE $2>$	/
'DE_0'	<de_0></de_0>	/
'BC'	$\langle BC \rangle$	/
'CD'	<cd></cd>	/
'CD_To'	<cd_to></cd_to>	/
'CD_B3'	<cd_b3></cd_b3>	/
'CD_0'	<cd_0></cd_0>	/
'CD_1'	<cd_1></cd_1>	/
'C_01'	<c_01></c_01>	/
'C_01_Ti'	<c_01_ti></c_01_ti>	/
'C_08'	$< C_{08} >$	/
'C_08_Ile'	$<$ C_08_Ile>	/
'C_08_S'	$< C_08_S >$	/
'C_08_Ti'	$<$ C_08_Ti $>$	/
'C_08_S_Ti'	$<$ C_08_S_Ti>	/
'C_09'	$< C_{09} >$	/
'C_02'	$< C_02 >$	/
'C_04'	<c_04></c_04>	/
'C_05'	$<\!{ m C_05}>$	/
'C_06'	$< C_{06} >$	/

'C 10'	< C 10 >	/
'C ^{12'}	<c_12></c_12>	/
'C ^{20'}	$< \bar{C} 20 >$	/
'C ²⁰ LTo'	<c_20 lto=""></c_20>	/
'C ²¹ ,	$< \overline{C21>}$	/
'C ²¹ Ti'	$< C_{21}$ Ti>	/
'C ²² ,	$< \overline{C22}$	/
'C ² 3'	$< \overline{C23} >$	/
$C^{24'}$	$< \overline{C24} >$	/
$C^{25'}$	$< \overline{C25}>$	/
'C ^{26'}	$< \overline{C26} >$	/
$^{\circ}C$ 26N	$< \overline{C26N} >$	/
C^{27}	$< \overline{C27}>$	/
'C ^{28'}	$< \overline{C28} >$	/
'C ^{29'}	$< \overline{C29} >$	/
'DĪ'	$<\!\!\overline{\mathrm{DI}}\!>$	/
'DI S'	<di s=""></di>	/
'D 05'	< D 05 >	/
'EF'	$<\!\!\mathrm{EF}\!>$	/
'GH'	< GH >	/
'G 01'	< G 01 >	/
$G^{-}02'$	<G $02>$	/
$G^{-}03'$	< G 03 >	/
G_{05}^{-}	$<$ G_05 $>$	/
$G^{-}07'$	$< { m G}^{-}07 >$	/
'G_08'	<G $08>$	/
'G_09'	$<\!{ m G_09}\!>$	/
'G_13'	<g_13></g_13>	/
'H_03'	$< H_{03}^{-}$	/
'IH'	<ih></ih>	/
'm_east'	$<$ m_east $>$	/
$m_{east}2$	$<$ m_east_2 $>$	/
'm_north'	$<$ m_north $>$	/
'm_northe'	$<$ m_northe $>$	/
'm most'		/
m_west	$<$ m_west $>$	/

A.0.3 MULTREGT

TABLE A.2: The MULTREGT template file.

MULTREGT

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----------	-------------	---------------------------	---
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5	3 4	0.0	/
0 C	4	0.0	/
0	1	0.0	/
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6	4	0.0	/
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0	2	0.0	/
0	3 4	0.0	/
0	4		/
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16	т Э	0.0	/
10		0.0	/

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17	12	0.0	/
17	13	<multregt132></multregt132>	/
17	14	0.0	/
17	15	0.0	/
17	16	0.0	/
18	1	0.0	/
18	2	0.0	/
18	3	0.0	/
18	4	0.0	/
18	5	0.0	/
18	6	0.0	/
18	7	0.0	/
18	8	0.0	/
18	9	0.0	/
18	10	<MULTREGT145 $>$	/
18	11	0.0	/
18	12	0.0	/
18	13	0.0	/
18	14	<multregt149></multregt149>	/
18	15	0.0	/
18	16	0.0	/
18	17	<multregt152></multregt152>	/
19	1	0.0	/
19	2	0.0	/
19	3	0.0	/
19	4	0.0	/

19	5	0.0 /
19	6	0.0
19	7	0.0 /
19	8	0.0
19	9	0.0 /
19	10	0.0 /
19	11	<multregt163> /</multregt163>
19	12	0.0 /
19	13	0.0 /
19	14	0.0000001 /
19	15	<multregt167> /</multregt167>
19	16	0.0 /
19	17	<multregt169> /</multregt169>
19	18	<multregt170> /</multregt170>
20	1	0.0 /
20	2	0.0 /
20	3	0.0 /
20	4	0.0 /
20	5	0.0 /
20	6	0.0 /
20	7	0.0 /
20	8	0.0 /
20	9	0.0 /
20	10	0.0 /
20	11	0.0 /
20	12	<multregt182> /</multregt182>
20	13	0.0 /
20	14	0.0 /
20	15	0.0 /
20	16	<multregt186> /</multregt186>
20	17	<multregt187> /</multregt187>
20	18	<multregt188> /</multregt188>
20	19	<multregt189> /</multregt189>
/		

A.0.4 MULTZ Modifier

```
-- Layer 8

EQUALS

'MULTZ' <MULTZ1> 6 13 30 50 8 8 /

/

-- MZ layer 10

EQUALS

'MULTZ' <MULTZ2> 6 14 11 18 10 10 / C-3H

'MULTZ' <MULTZ3> 14 29 11 25 10 10 / C south east
```

'MULTZ' <MULTZ4> 14 25 26 30 10 10 / C-segm mid/B-2H 'MULTZ' <MULTZ5> 6 29 11 37 10 10 / C-segm middle 'MULTZ' <MULTZ6> 17 17 42 54 10 10 / C north west 'MULTZ' <MULTZ7> 6 12 38 39 10 10 / C north west 'MULTZ' <MULTZ8> 8 12 40 40 10 10 / C north west 'MULTZ' <MULTZ9> 10 12 41 43 10 10 / C north west 'MULTZ' <MULTZ10> 18 33 38 54 10 10 / C1, D4 & D3 'MULTZ' <MULTZ11> 6 13 44 52 10 10 / B-4AH 'MULTZ' <MULTZ12> 13 13 48 59 10 10 / D-segm mid (B-4BH) 'MULTZ' <MULTZ13> 14 14 49 59 10 10 / D-segm mid (B-4BH) 'MULTZ' <MULTZ14> 15 16 51 59 10 10 / D-segm mid (B-4BH) 'MULTZ' <MULTZ15> 17 19 55 99 10 10 / E1 'MULTZ' <MULTZ16> 14 14 60 62 10 10 / E1 'MULTZ' <MULTZ17> 15 15 60 65 10 10 / E1 'MULTZ' <MULTZ18> 16 16 60 69 10 10 / E1 'MULTZ' <MULTZ19> 6 9 52 60 10 10 / F-3H/E-2H 'MULTZ' <MULTZ20> 9 9 53 57 10 10 / F-3H/E-2H 'MULTZ' <MULTZ21> 10 10 54 58 10 10 / F-3H/E-2H 'MULTZ' <MULTZ2> 11 11 55 58 10 10 / F-3H/E-2H / -- MZ layer 15 EQUALS 'MULTZ' 0.00003 6 29 11 21 15 15 / C south 'MULTZ' 0.00005 6 29 22 39 15 15 / C middle 'MULTZ' 0.000001 19 29 39 49 15 15 / C-1H 'MULTZ' <MULTZ26> 19 29 38 45 17 17 / C-1H 'MULTZ' <MULTZ27> 16 19 48 61 15 15 / E-1H/D-3H 'MULTZ' <MULTZ28> 8 18 40 40 15 15 / C north 'MULTZ' <MULTZ29> 9 18 41 41 15 15 / 'MULTZ' <MULTZ30> 10 18 42 43 15 15 / 'MULTZ' <MULTZ31> 11 18 44 44 15 15 /

'MULTZ' <MULTZ32> 12 18 45 45 15 15 /
'MULTZ' <MULTZ33> 13 18 46 47 15 15 /

'MULTZ' <MULTZ34> 14 15 48 48 15 15 /

'MULTZ' <MULTZ35> 15 15 49 50 15 15 /

'MULTZ' <MULTZ36> 12 12 46 56 15 15 / D-segm

```
'MULTZ' <MULTZ37> 13 13 48 59 15 15 /
                                         D-segm
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ38> 14 14 49 62 15 15 /
                                         D-segm
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ39> 15 15 51 65 15 15 /
                                         D-segm
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ40> 16 19 62 69 15 15 /
                                         D-segm
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ41> 17 19 70 99 15 15 /
                                         D-segm
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ42> 6 7 40 60 15 15 / D, E west
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ43> 8 8 41 60 15 15 /
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ44> 9 9 42 52 15 15 /
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ45> 10 10 44 49 15 15 /
/
-- D-1H water
EQUALS
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ46> 22 24 21 22 11 11 /
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ47> 21 25 17 19 15 15 /
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ48> 22 24 17 19 17 17 /
 'MULTZ' <MULTZ49> 22 24 15 17 18 18 /
/
-- B-1 & B-3 water
EQUALS
'MULTZ' <MULTZ50> 12 13 34 35 15 15 /
/
-- RFT D_-H
EQUALS
'MULTZ' <MULTZ51> 16 19 47 53 18 18 / D-3H
/
```

A.0.5 PERMZ Modifier

```
MULTIPLY

'PERMZ' <PERMZ1> 1 46 1 112 1 1 / Garn 3

'PERMZ' <PERMZ2> 1 46 1 112 2 2 / Garn 2

'PERMZ' <PERMZ3> 1 46 1 112 3 3 / Garn 1

'PERMZ' 0 1 46 1 112 4 4 / Not (inactive anyway)

'PERMZ' <PERMZ5> 1 46 1 112 5 5 / Ile 2.2

'PERMZ' <PERMZ6> 1 46 1 112 6 6 / Ile 2.1.3
```

'PERMZ'	<permz7></permz7>	1 46 1 112 7	7 /	Ile 2.1.2
'PERMZ'	<permz8></permz8>	1 46 1 112 8	8 /	Ile 2.1.1
'PERMZ'	<permz9></permz9>	1 46 1 112 9	9 /	Ile 1.3
'PERMZ'	<permz10></permz10>	1 46 1 112 10	0 10 /	Ile 1.2
'PERMZ'	<permz11></permz11>	1 46 1 112 11	. 11 /	Ile 1.1
'PERMZ'	<permz12></permz12>	1 46 1 112 12	2 12 /	Tofte 2.2
'PERMZ'	<permz13></permz13>	1 46 1 112 13	3 13 /	Tofte 2.1.3
'PERMZ'	<permz14></permz14>	1 46 1 112 14	4 14 /	Tofte 2.1.2
'PERMZ'	<permz15></permz15>	1 46 1 112 15	5 15 /	Tofte 2.1.1
'PERMZ'	<permz16></permz16>	1 46 1 112 16	6 16 /	Tofte 1.2.2
'PERMZ'	<permz17></permz17>	1 46 1 112 17	' 17 /	Tofte 1.2.1
'PERMZ'	<permz18></permz18>	1 46 1 112 18	18 /	Tofte 1.1
'PERMZ'	<permz19></permz19>	1 46 1 112 19	19 /	Tilje 4
'PERMZ'	<permz20></permz20>	1 46 1 112 20	20 /	Tilje 3
'PERMZ'	<permz21></permz21>	1 46 1 112 2	21 21 /	/ Tilje 2
'PERMZ'	<permz22></permz22>	1 46 1 112 2	2 22 /	/ Tilje 1

/

Relative Permeability Endscaling A.0.6

EQUALS

/

```
SWL <endpoint1>
                     1 46 1 112 1 1
                                        /
   SWL <endpoint2>
                     1 46 1 112 2 2
                                        /
   SWL <endpoint3>
                     1 46 1 112 3 3
                                        /
   SWL <endpoint4>
                   1 \ 46 \ 1 \ 112 \ 4 \ 4
                                        /
                     1 46 1 112 5 10 / Ile 2.2.2 and Ile 2.2.1,
   SWL <endpoint5>
   Ile 2.1.3, Ile 2.1.2, and Ile 2.1.1, Ile 1.3 and Ile 1.2
                     1 46 1 112 11 12 / Ile 1.1 and Tofte 2.2
   SWL <endpoint6>
   SWL <endpoint7>
                     1 46 1 112 13 15 / Tofte 2.1
   SWL <endpoint8>
                     1 46 1 112 16 16 / Tofte 1.2.2
   SWL <endpoint9>
                      1 46 1 112 17 22 / Tofte 1.2.1,
  Tofte 1.2.1, Tofte 1.1, Tilje
COPY
 SWL SWCR /
 SWL SGU /
```

```
/
ADD
  SWCR <endpoint10> 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
/
--SGU = 1 - SWL
MULTIPLY
 SGU -1 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
/
ADD
  SGU 1.0 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
/
EQUALS
  SGL 0.0 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
  SGCR <endpoint13> 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
  SOWCR <endpoint14> 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
  SOGCR <endpoint15> 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
  SWU 1.0 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
/
--Hysteresis input
EHYSTR
  0.1 0 0.1 0.3 BOTH /
COPY
  'SWCR' 'ISWCR' 1 46 1 112 5 22 /
  'SGU' 'ISGU'
                  1 46 1 112 5 22 /
  'SWL' 'ISWL' 1 46 1 112 5 22 /
  'SWU' 'ISWU' 1 46 1 112 5 22 /
  'SGL' 'ISGL' 1 46 1 112 5 22 /
  'SOGCR' 'ISOGCR' 1 46 1 112 5 22 /
  'SOWCR' 'ISOWCR' 1 46 1 112 5 22 /
/
EQUALS
 ISGCR <endpoint17> 1 46 1 112 1 22 /
/
```

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