

1   **An integrated sedimentological, rock typing, image logs, and artificial neural**  
2   **networks analysis for reservoir quality assessment of the heterogeneous**  
3   **fluvial-deltaic Messinian Abu Madi reservoirs, Salma Field, onshore East Nile**  
4   **Delta, Egypt**

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13   **Abstract**

14   This study introduces an integrated evaluation of geological and geophysical data, including  
15   sedimentology, diagenetic alteration, image log analysis, core measurements, formation  
16   evaluation, and a neural analysis technique (K-mode algorithm) to characterize the upper  
17   Messinian heterogeneous reservoirs of the Salma Field, Nile Delta, Egypt. It links observed  
18   reservoir permeability and flow zone indicators (FZI) to predict reservoir quality and  
19   distribution within un-cored parts of the field. Core and image log analysis show that the Abu  
20   Madi sandstone reservoir is composed of seven clastic litho-facies deposited within fluvial to  
21   deltaic environments. The reservoir is controlled by four hydraulic flow units (HFU's) and five  
22   flow units (FU). Fluvial channel facies, tidally influenced fluvial channel facies, and  
23   uppermost parts of bayhead delta facies are dominated by clean sandstone with a low clay  
24   content (avg. 20%). These facies are characterized by the high pore-throat sizes (R35 and FZI  
25   values), indicating a pore system dominated by mega- to macro-pores. The estuarine facies  
26   is composed of mudstone, siltstone, and argillaceous sandstone, with 25% average clay  
27   content and moderate R35 and FZI values, indicating a pore system dominated by macro- to  
28   meso-pores. The heterolithic estuarine and bayhead delta facies contain abundant  
29   argillaceous-rich sandstones, with 29% average clay content and low R35 and FZI values,  
30   indicating a pore system dominated by micro-pores. A neural log technique was applied to  
31   predict FZIs and permeability in un-cored intervals. Paleocurrent analysis was conducted  
32   using image log data to guide sweet spot and reservoir quality tracking across the field.  
33   Reservoir quality is controlled by both diagenetic and depositional processes, chiefly an

34 abundance of detrital clays, grain size, and sorting. In the Salama Field reservoirs, mineral  
35 dissolution, cement dissolution, and micro-fractures enhance the pore system, while pore-  
36 filling and grain-coating detrital clays reduce reservoir quality. These results are important as  
37 they improve the wider understanding of the Messinian Abu Madi reservoir in the wider  
38 Mediterranean region.

39 **Keywords**

40 Fluvio-deltaic; reservoir quality; neural analysis techniques; rock typing; Salma Field;  
41 Messinian Nile Delta

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 This study evaluates the Upper Messinian reservoir rocks and in-particular the Abu Madi  
45 reservoirs of the Salma Field. The Abu Madi sandstone is the main gas-producing formation  
46 from the Salma Field in the East Nile Delta region (Fig. 1). The Upper Messinian succession is  
47 considered the main hydrocarbon reservoir interval that contains substantial gas reserves  
48 within the Nile Delta area, with a number of fields currently in production (EGPC, 1994;  
49 Barakat et al., 2021). The Upper Messinian has variable sedimentary lithofacies as a result of  
50 deposition in a range of different environments through time (EGPC, 1994; Dolson et al.,  
51 2005; Leila et al., 2015). During the late Miocene to early Pliocene, an entrenched valley  
52 system was filled with mainly sandstones (Leila & Moscariello, 2019), which were deposited  
53 during a series of fluctuation in relative sea level (EGPC, 1994; Dolson et al., 2001; Salem et  
54 al., 2005). The marine influence on deposition during Abu Madi times became stronger  
55 towards the end Miocene (Palmieri et al., 1996; Dalla et al., 1997), which resulted in the  
56 deposition of thick marine mudstones in-between sandstone bodies (Dolson et al., 2001).

57 The primary goal of reservoir evaluation is to characterize reservoir units and understand  
58 their relevant geology and reservoir properties, which is one of the key challenges in  
59 developing a reservoir model (Novak et al., 2014; Ali et al., 2021; Radwan, 2022a, b). Various  
60 methods were developed for consistent interpretation of available data to describe reservoir  
61 properties of the zone of interest in wells (Ezekwe & Filler, 2005), as well as prediction of  
62 petrophysical parameters throughout a reservoir using geostatistical and classical methods  
63 (Maschio et al., 2008; Demyanov et al., 2015; Abdullah et al., 2021a). Petrophysical  
64 parameters such as porosity and permeability are common aspects of fluid flow modeling  
65 (Corbett, 2009; Heidari et al., 2012; Mirzaei-Paiaman et al., 2018; Abdullah et al., 2021b).  
66 The significance of property modelling for petrophysical parameters and facies distribution  
67 characterization relevant to flow performance has been widely investigated (e.g., Corbett  
68 and Jensen, 1992; Jensen et al., 2000; Corbett, 2009; Soleimani and JodeiriShokri, 2015;  
69 Ghandra et al., 2015; Corbett and Duarte, 2019; Radwan et al., 2021b; Radwan, 2022a, b).

70 The quality of petroleum reservoirs is determined by their storage volume and flow capacity,  
71 which are intrinsically related to pore type and size distribution (e.g., Corbett, 2009; Taylor

72 et al., 2010). Calculating accurate hydrocarbon reserves is often challenging, largely due to  
73 reservoir facies variability and its impact on reservoir parameters, which ultimately effects  
74 the total available pore hydrocarbon volume.

75 The reservoir environment and depositional processes have an impact on the pore system in  
76 petroleum reservoirs (Soleimani et al., 2017; Radwan, 2021; Radwan et al., 2021a, c).  
77 Petrophysical properties of the reservoir are best-informed by an in-depth understanding of  
78 sedimentary process of emplacement and overall depositional setting. Reservoir diagenesis  
79 plays a critical role in the improvement and/or reduction of reservoir quality (e.g.,  
80 Ajdukiewicz and Lander, 2010; Taylor et al., 2010). Integrated reservoir characterization  
81 using a variety of datasets is essential in the evaluation of static and dynamic properties  
82 (Jones et al., 2009; Radwan, 2022).

83 Reservoir rock-typing is the main process for reservoir classification into flow units (Mirzaei-  
84 Paiaman et al., 2018; Nabawy et al., 2018a; Radwan et al., 2021b). Analysis techniques that  
85 can be combined to determine reservoir flow unit parameters include core analysis, image  
86 log analysis, and log data analysis (Beiranvand & Kamali, 2004; Al-Ibadi & Al-Jawad, 2020;  
87 Radwan et al., 2021). Rock-typing is an integrated multi-proxy approach for reservoir  
88 characterization and field production optimization that employs geological, petrophysical,  
89 and engineering data to better-characterize heterogenous reservoir units and define their  
90 potential performance (Guo et al., 2005; Gomes et al., 2008; Al-Farisi et al., 2009; Masalmeh  
91 et al., 2012; Skalinski & Kenter, 2014; Nabawy et al., 2018b; Radwan et al., 2021; Barakat,  
92 2022; Nabawy et al., 2022a,b). Most advanced rock typing techniques, such as the ‘Winland's  
93 R35’ method (Pittman, 1992), the reservoir quality index (RQI) determination (Leverett,  
94 1941), and the flow zone indicator (FZI) calculation for flow unit identification, rely on data  
95 from core measurements (e.g., Amaefule et al., 1993; El-Sharawya et al., 2020; El-Adl et al.,  
96 2021).

97 There is a general lack of core data through the key reservoir section within the Salama Field,  
98 and so accurate lithological and reservoir parameter information has limited the  
99 understanding of the pore system. This integrated study combines a comprehensive

100 evaluation and characterization of geological and petrophysical datasets, including analysis  
101 of sedimentary facies, diagenetic alteration, image data covering non-cored intervals, core  
102 data, petrophysical evaluation of well-logs, and artificial neural analysis techniques to better  
103 understand the reservoir characteristics. The application of artificial neural analysis  
104 techniques to the wider well dataset may provide an appropriate solution to aid the  
105 prediction of petrophysical parameters within the reservoir, especially in non-cored  
106 intervals.

107 Through this analysis, this study 1) examines and characterizes the lithofacies and their  
108 dynamic flow results to improve estimates of reservoir flow units within the Abu Madi  
109 sandstone; 2) constructs a depositional model for the Abu Madi sandstone reservoir using  
110 core and image log data; 3) explores the effects of diagenesis on reservoir quality; and 4)  
111 applies an artificial neural analysis technique for predicting the FZI and permeability  
112 distribution of un-cored intervals. The results of this study have basin-scale implications in  
113 terms of improved hydrocarbon reservoir understanding in the East Nile Delta region, and  
114 more-widely through the characterization of the Messinian sedimentology, stratigraphy, and  
115 reservoir quality in the Mediterranean region.

## 116 **2. Geological setting**

117 In the Nile Delta and the Mediterranean, hydrocarbon reservoirs in the onshore region are  
118 formed by Neogene-Quaternary siliciclastic sequences (Fig. 2; EGPC, 1994; Leila et al.,  
119 2022a). The Messinian section, including the Qawasim and Abu Madi formations, hosts the  
120 most economically important potential reservoirs in the Nile Delta (EGPC, 1994; El-Nikhely et  
121 al., 2022). The Abu-Madi Baltim trend in West El Manzala has been described as a series of  
122 backstepping fluvial channels (Palmieri et al., 1996; Dolson et al., 2005; Abdel-Fattah and  
123 Slatt, 2013). This backstepping was formed by transgressions that reached further south over  
124 time, finally resulting in the major transgression that gave rise to the deposition of the Kafr  
125 El Sheikh Formation (EGPC, 1994; Abdel-Fattah and Slatt, 2013). During transgression, the  
126 deposited sediments were shifted south into the eroded valleys, closer to the sediment  
127 source (EGPC, 1994). The dramatic fluctuations in relative sea-level, both during and after

128 the Messinian salinity crisis formed the deeply incised valley of the Eonile Canyon (EGPC,  
129 1994; Abdel-Fattah and Slatt, 2013; Leila and Moscariello, 2019). The Eonile Canyon was  
130 infilled by deposits of the Messinian salinity crisis and was covered by a thick pile of  
131 Pliocene-Pleistocene sediments (EGPC, 1994). The large Eonile Canyon forms in both  
132 modern-day onshore and offshore areas (Barber, 1981; Dalla et al., 1997; Dolson et al., 2001;  
133 Barakat et al., 2019). Extensive areas outside the incised canyon were subjected to erosion  
134 during low sea-level periods, and experienced sediment aggradation during initial period of  
135 transgression (EGPC, 1994). Marine clays were deposited when the transgression reached its  
136 peak. Figure 2 shows the tectonostratigraphic framework of the Nile Delta and the  
137 Mediterranean, with hydrocarbon reservoirs in the onshore region represented by Neogene-  
138 Quaternary siliciclastic sequences (EGPC, 1994; Leila et al., 2022a). The Messinian section,  
139 including the Qawasim and Abu Madi formations, hosts the most economically important  
140 potential reservoirs in the Nile Delta.

141 Messinian depositional trends were affected by Miocene faults, as well as older fault trends.  
142 The base Messinian surface is more affected by older faults, whilst the younger Messinian  
143 being influenced by reactivated Miocene faults (Fig. 3). This resulted in Messinian  
144 depositional trends that vary from the north-west to the south-east at the base, and from  
145 broadly north to south at the top. The highest area in the east of the Nile Delta today is in  
146 the southernmost part, which represents a north-west dipping paleo-high structure that has  
147 existed since the Messinian (Fig. 3). This paleo high controlled the thickness and palaeo-flow  
148 direction of the Messinian sedimentary pile (Yehia et al., 2019). Deep faults crosscut the  
149 crest of the structure, and form potential vertical hydrocarbon migration pathways into  
150 available traps (EGPC, 1994; Abdel-Fattah and Slatt, 2013; Leila and Moscariello, 2019).

151 Within the area of the Salma Field, the Abu Madi Formation is interpreted as deposits of a  
152 broad fluvial channel system, aligned roughly parallel to the gas-producing system of the  
153 Abu Madi to the west (Leila et al., 2022b). The Abu Madi Formation is sub-divided into two  
154 units in the Nile Delta region, including the upper Abu Madi unit and lower Abu Madi unit;  
155 the upper Abu Madi unit is absent within the Salma Field.

156 **3. Methodology**

157 All available data were used for the study of the Salma Field, west of the Qantara  
158 concession, Nile Delta, Egypt (Fig. 1). This included information from two key wells: Salma 2  
159 and Salma 4, which are from within the Salma Field. A complete set of well logs were  
160 available, including core petrography, thin sections, and formation micro image logs (FMI)  
161 for both the Salma-4 and Salma-2 wells; only core analysis data was available for the Salma-2  
162 well. For this study, Techlog™ (Version 2015) from Schlumberger Inc. was utilized for log  
163 data evaluation.

164 **3.1 Core petrography**

165 The uppermost part of the Abu Madi Formation reservoir is intersected in the two wells. The  
166 petrographical study was carried out on 25 thin sections that were prepared using selected  
167 core samples from the Salma-4 well. Thin section preparation included the injection of blue  
168 dye resin to enable porosity identification, and staining by a solution of Alizarin Red-S and  
169 potassium ferricyanide mixture to enable carbonate mineral identification. In addition,  
170 samples were stained with a solution of sodium cobalt nitrate to aid in the identification of  
171 alkali feldspar (*sensu* Tucker, 1988). Thin sections were examined under a polarizing  
172 microscope to study mineral composition and texture. Sandstones were classified according  
173 to the modified version of the sandstone classification scheme, as described by Dott (1964).  
174 For each thin section, the mineralogy, texture, and pinpoint porosity were defined. The  
175 relative abundances of authigenic and detrital components were calculated in percentage  
176 (%) by volume. Porosity was determined using a point counting technique (200 points for  
177 each sample).

178 **3.2 Borehole image logs**

179 Borehole image logs provide high-resolution information to visualize sedimentary structures,  
180 facies types, geomechanical characteristics, and depositional trends (Lai et al., 2018; Hassan  
181 et al., 2022). Significant advancements in imaging technology have been made, especially in  
182 its application to non-cored intervals (Lai et al., 2018; Hassan et al., 2022).

183 Core image data was available for 49 m of the Salma-2 well, and 41 m for the Salma-4 well.  
184 The core image data were used for sedimentary logging, facies description, and depositional  
185 environment interpretation. Image log (FMI) data from both cored and non-cored intervals  
186 were used to evaluate lithofacies, depositional elements, and paleo-current direction (*sensu*  
187 Tucker, 2001; Donselaar and Schmidt, 2005; Folkestad et al., 2012; Miall, 2014; Lai et al.,  
188 2018; Hassan et al., 2022). The interpretation of borehole imaging data from the studied  
189 wells followed the modern standard techniques in the oil and gas industry (e.g., Lagraba et  
190 al., 2010; Lai et al., 2018; Hassan et al., 2022).

191 **3.3 Core analysis**

192 Core analysis was performed at the Corex Laboratory in Egypt. Grain density, porosity, and  
193 permeability were measured from 58 conventional core plugs taken from the Salma-2 well  
194 and 90 conventional core plugs in the Salma-4 well. Special core analysis (SCAL) was  
195 completed on 23 core plugs from the Salma-2 well and 56 plugs from Salma-4. Analysis  
196 included electric reservoir properties such as Archie exponents (a, m, n), porosity and  
197 permeability under overburden pressure, and fluid mercury injection for pore throat and  
198 capillary pressure tests (MICP). A gamma-ray correction of the core depth with respect to log  
199 depth was conducted. Porosity and permeability data were corrected to net overburden  
200 pressure at reservoir conditions to achieve in-situ values (Dubois et al., 2006).

201 This study applies various methodologies to distinguish between different flow units within  
202 the Abu Madi Formation reservoir. Rock typing is used for classifying reservoir facies into  
203 rock types based on their dynamic behavior (Varavur et al., 2005). The dynamic behavior  
204 depends on the diagenetic processes, textures, and fluid relationships within the rock mass  
205 (Bear, 1972; Gomes et al., 2008). Semi-empirical equations can be applied to optimize rock  
206 permeability determination under various loading conditions (Panda and Lake, 1994;  
207 Bernabé et al., 2003; Costa, 2006; El -Gendy et al., 2020). Winland (1972) constructed an  
208 empirical relationship to predict rock flow units (Tiab and Donaldson, 1996; Gunter et al.,  
209 1997). The porosity and uncorrected air permeability were measured using conventional  
210 analytical techniques, whilst pore throat radii were determined using mercury injection.

211 In the reservoir, the flow unit (R35) is defined according to a uniform pore throat size  
212 distribution and similar flow performance. The R35 Equations are provided below (1&2;  
213 Kolodzie, 1980; Pittman, 1992).

214  $\text{Log R35} = 0.732 + 0.588 \log K_a - 0.864 \log \Phi_{\text{core}}$  (1)

215  $R35 = 10^{(0.732 + 0.588 \log K_a - 0.864 \log \Phi)}$  (2)

216 Where: R35 is the radius of pore throat parallel to the 35% of mercury saturation,  
217  $K_a$  is uncorrected air permeability (in mD), and  $\Phi$  is effective porosity in (%).  
218 R35 indicates the inflection point when pore throat size is cross plotted against mercury  
219 saturation (Katz, 1986; Gunter et al., 1997).

220 The second approach is based on the reservoir quality index (RQI) (Leverett, 1941), and flow  
221 zone indicator (FZI) (Amaefule et al., 1993; Barakat and Nooh, 2017; Nabawy et al., 2020;  
222 Radwan et al., 2021b). Rock is classified according to RQI and flow properties (Amaefule et  
223 al., 1993; Nabawy and Barakat, 2017; Radwan et al., 2021b). The RQI equation is based on  
224 the theory that a porous medium can be represented by a package of capillary tubes  
225 (Kozeny, 1927), and permeability can be expressed as follows:

226  $K = \frac{\phi}{8t} r^2$  (3)

227 Where  $K$  is permeability in  $\mu\text{m}^2$ ,  $\phi$  is effective porosity infraction,  $r$  is the radius of the  
228 capillary tubes and  $t$  is tortuosity.

229 Carmen, (1937) modified Equation 1 into the ‘Kozeny-Carmen’ model with the following  
230 generalized form:

231  $K = \left(\frac{1}{f_s t^2} \cdot S^2 g v\right) * \frac{\phi^3}{(1 - \phi)^2}$  (4)

232 Where  $f_s$  is shape factor and  $S^2 g v$  is specific surface area for the grain volume unit in  $\mu\text{m}$ .

233 Amaefule et al. (1993) addressed the variables of the Kozeny constant and  $S^2$  characteristics  
234 of porous media.

235  $FZI = 1/\sqrt{f_s t^2 \cdot S^2 g v}$  (5)

236  $K = \frac{\phi^3}{(1 - \phi)^2} * FZI^2$  (6)

237  $VK / \phi = [\phi / (1 - \phi)] * FZI$  (7)

238 Where permeability is expressed in mD, and RQI ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) is written as:

239  $RQI = 0.0314V K / \phi$  (8)

240 The hydraulic flow concept is used to divide a reservoir into units with unique FZI values (Al-  
 241 Ajmi & Holditch, 2000). The FZI approach combines petrophysical data with environmental  
 242 factors to classify the reservoir into different hydraulic flow units (HFUs), which are defined  
 243 as a representative reservoir volume with almost identical petrophysical and fluid properties  
 244 (Amaefule et al., 1993). FZI was calculated using RQI and normalized porosity after applying  
 245 the correction for porosity and permeability related to reservoir conditions. HFU's were  
 246 defined from the FZI normal distribution values with the cumulative FZI curve, where the  
 247 change in the slope of the cumulative curve represents a change in flow unit at the inflection  
 248 point. The HFU in a reservoir is calculated from FZI and RQI (Amaefule et al., 1993; Guo et al.,  
 249 2005).

250  $FZI = \frac{RQI}{\phi_z}$  (9)

251  $\phi_z = \frac{\phi}{(1 - \phi)}$  (10)

252 Where  $\phi_z$  is the normalized porosity.

### 253 **3.4 Well logs analysis**

254 All available wells for Salma Field were used for petrophysical analysis (clay content,  
 255 porosity, lithology, and fluid saturations). A quantitative evaluation of the muddy sandstone  
 256 reservoir requires an accurate estimation of the clay volume (VSH). The gamma-ray indicator  
 257 was used in the clay content calculation. The density-neutron and photoelectric curve (Pef)  
 258 were used for lithology identification (Radwan et al., 2020). Effective porosity (PHIE) was  
 259 computed from the neutron-density endpoint matrix cross-plot (Bateman, 1985) and  
 260 corrected for VSH and gas effects. The lithology and grain density from the core data were  
 261 used in the evaluation. The 'Indonesian Model' was applied (Poupon and Leveaux, 1971;

262 Archie, 1942; Bhatt et al., 2001) to determine the reservoir water saturation volume in the  
263 muddy sandstone formations. This assumed that formation waters are relatively fresh  
264 (salinity = 20,000 NaCl equivalent) and there is a high mudstone content. The cementation  
265 factor ( $m$ ) and saturation index ( $n$ ) were estimated from SCAL. The formation water  
266 resistivity ( $R_w$ ) was calculated using a reservoir water production sample.

267 **3.5 Neural log analysis**

268 Petrophysical analysis and reservoir character attributes form as 1-D datasets within the  
269 borehole, and it is challenging to predict how they vary away from wells (Lucia, 2007; El-  
270 Gendy, 2017). Simulation-based methods are often applied to consistently identify rock  
271 types in sedimentary well logs (Gandhi et al., 2010; Heidari et al., 2011). To further aid this  
272 prediction away from the well bore, artificial neural networks have been applied to rock type  
273 classification and flow unit identification. Artificial neural network (ANN) techniques are  
274 important for well logging prediction (Dubois et al., 2006). ANN can be used to investigate  
275 the relationship between linear or non-linear input-output patterns, to generalize training  
276 groups, and estimate test groups. The neural log technique (K-mode) used in this study  
277 applies powerful neural network capabilities to predict poor or un-recorded  
278 data/parameters (e.g., 'K'). FZI data obtained from core tests and logging curves are used as  
279 training data for the FZI prediction in non-cored intervals. Using 'TechlogTM' software (K-  
280 mode), a statistical model using petrophysical parameters from well logs, and FZI from core  
281 measurements, was developed to predict the FZI curves on a log basis within cored intervals.  
282 Subsequently, this methodology was applied to un-cored intervals to gain additional  
283 information about those reservoir units. To create and develop a neural network model,  
284 input and training data are used, including input parameters (VSH, PHIE, Pef, and FZI),  
285 followed by application data, which will be used in the final prediction of required data (VSH,  
286 PHIE, and Pef).

287 **3.6 Stratigraphic modified Lorenz plot (SMLP)**

288 This graphical technique is the most effective for evaluating and separating the reservoir into  
289 distinguishable flow units (Tiab and Donaldson, 1996; Gunter et al., 1997), as well as  
290 assessing how each unit contributes to reservoir performance (Chopra et al., 1998; Gomes et

291 al., 2008). Stratigraphic modified Lorenz plots (SMLP) are constructed by plotting flow  
292 capacity (%Kh) versus storage capacity (%Φh), where h is sample interval thickness, and k is  
293 permeability (mD). The partial sums are computed and normalized to 100%, then arranged  
294 in stratigraphic order (Gomes et al., 2008). Gradients with steep angles represent a higher  
295 flow capacity in relation to unit storage capacity, which are often referred to as 'speed  
296 zones' (Chopra et al., 1998). Intervals with low storage capacity and minor flow capacity  
297 typically form baffles to flow within the reservoir. Finally, intervals with no flow or storage  
298 capacity are regarded as sealing units (Salazar, 2006; Gunter et al., 1997).

## 299 **4. Results**

### 300 **4.1 Core and image log interpretation**

301 The core data and image log were interpreted for contained lithofacies, depositional  
302 elements, and overall environment of deposition. The reservoir interval within the Salma-2  
303 and Salma-4 wells was divided into the lower, middle, and upper units, which are  
304 characterized by seven facies.

#### 305 *4.1.1 Sub-aerial gravity-flow facies*

306 The sedimentary facies of the basal zone consist of deformed mudstone and mixed  
307 mudstone and sandstone heterolithic deposits. These sedimentary rocks display erosional  
308 basal contacts (see incision facies C in Fig. 4) and form repeated successions.

309 It is interpreted that these deposits represent sub-aerial gravity-flow facies, which were  
310 accumulated directly after the scour of the canyon, and formed through the de-stabilization  
311 of the canyon walls. Other evidence of valley bank collapse accompanying local collapses and  
312 mudslides during within this interval have been observed elsewhere (*sensu* Blair and  
313 McPherson, 1994; Hunger et al., 2001). However, It is also possible that these mudslides  
314 formed through a complex sequence of erosion, iso-static distortion, sea-level drop, and  
315 water release processes that occurred during the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC) (Gargani et  
316 al., 2010).

#### 317 *4.1.2 Fluvial channel facies*

318 The fluvial channel facies represent the majority of the Abu Madi basal reservoir unit. It is  
319 composed of blocky massive coarse-grained sandstones, and occasional conglomeratic  
320 sandstones, with sharp and erosional contacts that represent the scour surface at the base  
321 of this facies. The sandstone is poorly-sorted at the base, becoming moderately-sorted  
322 towards the top, where an overall fining-upward trend is observed. Massive kaolinitic pebbly  
323 sandstones (Fig. 4) are interpreted as being deposited rapidly, during a high-energy flow  
324 event. The lack of interbedded mud-drapes or mudstone beds supports a period of high  
325 hydrodynamic energy.

326 The multiple amalgamated scour surfaces filled with coarse-grained poorly-sorted and  
327 moderately-sorted sandstones, as well as the distinct lack of intervening mudstone units,  
328 indicates the presence of stacked fluvial channel elements (Bridge, 2006). The presence of  
329 sandstone beneath and overlying horizontal laminations of very light brown colored  
330 mudstone, as well as the absence of any bioturbation or ichnofossils, suggests a high energy  
331 fluvial channel formed in a terrestrial setting (Miall, 1977; Tucker, 2001).

332 *4.1.3 Tidal channel facies*

333 This tidal channel facies consists of lowermost beds of poorly-sorted coarse-grained massive  
334 (or structureless) sandstones with sharp-bases, and a fining-upwards succession of  
335 moderate- to well-sorted sandstones (Fig. 5). The sandstones are characterized by parallel  
336 lamination and trough cross-bedding, ripple-cross lamination, upwards increasing  
337 bioturbation, an upward increase of mud-drapes, and glauconite.

338 The normally graded sandstones with trough cross bedding, followed by parallel lamination  
339 and/or ripple cross bedding, is interpreted as representing in-channel deposition. The fine-  
340 grained glauconitic sediments and mud-drapes at the top of these deposits indicate the  
341 influence of shallow waters and tidal currents (Terwindt, 1971; Van den Berg, 2007). The  
342 upwards increase in bioturbation can be used to infer a transition from brackish to  
343 freshwater conditions (MacEachern and Bann, 2008).

344 *4.1.4 Tidal flat facies*

345 The tidal flat facies are composed of grey laminated mudstones, siltstones, and occasionally  
346 very fine-grained lenticular sandstones. Low-angle to horizontal laminations and mud-drapes  
347 form wavy bedded heterolithic units, which contain abundant bioturbation and rhizoliths  
348 (Figs 4A and 5D).

349 These facies are interpreted to have formed in a restricted tidal flat environment. The  
350 presence of lenticular beds, mud-drapes, and wavy bedding can be used to indicate a  
351 complex mixture of higher energy oscillatory wave action, and intermittent periods of lower  
352 energy sedimentary processes, which together suggests a component of tidally-influence on  
353 sedimentation (Klein, 1971; Buatois, 1999). The presence of abundant bioturbation, and  
354 importantly the development of rhizoliths, indicates a very shallow water setting, certainly  
355 where parts were exposed for prolonged periods, during which time roots were able to  
356 establish within the substrate.

357 *4.1.5 Tidally influenced fluvial channel facies*

358 The tidally influenced fluvial channel facies are composed of brown moderately-sorted,  
359 occasionally poorly-sorted, coarse- to very coarse-grained, massive (structureless), pebbly or  
360 kaolinitic sandstone. The basal part comprises brown sandstone with intercalated multi-  
361 colored mudstones (Fig. 5). An overall fining-upwards is recognized within this unit, with  
362 sediments becoming fine-grained and moderately-sorted towards the top. Parallel  
363 laminations and abundant mud-drapes are recognized throughout, and glauconite plus flame  
364 structures are present near to the top. The fine-grained sandstones typically display wave  
365 ripple-cross lamination, cross-stratification, wavy bedding, flaser lamination, and abundant  
366 reactivation surfaces (Fig. 5).

367 The erosive-bases and fining-upward trend may be used to indicate deposition in a tidally  
368 influenced channel (Terwindt, 1971), whilst multiple stacked erosion surfaces, which form an  
369 amalgamated succession, suggest the presence of multiple stacked channels (*sensu* Van den  
370 berg et al., 2007). The presence of massive pebbly sandstones at the base and flame  
371 structures at the top suggests rapid deposition under a high hydrodynamic regime. Multi-  
372 colored mudstones and glauconite suggests complex reducing conditions, which is normally-

373 indicative of a restricted shallow water environment. The abundance of flaser  
374 lamination bedding, wavy bedding, abundant reactivation surfaces, and mud-drapes  
375 strongly suggest tidal influence on sedimentation.

376 *4.1.6 Flood plain facies*

377 The flood plain facies consists of light grey siltstones and poorly- to moderately-sorted very  
378 fine-grained glauconitic and bioclastic sandstones and interbedded mudstones (Fig. 5).  
379 Sandstones display both symmetrical and asymmetrical ripple cross-lamination, tidal  
380 bundles, and mud-draped reactivation surfaces, the latter being more common near the top  
381 of the succession.

382 The light grey mudstones and siltstones reflect well-drained proximal floodplain deposition  
383 in a hydrodynamically low-energy setting. Evidence for intermittent tidal influence on  
384 sedimentation is provided by interbedded sandstones, with tidal bundles, glauconite,  
385 symmetrical ripple cross-lamination, and mud-draped reactivation surfaces, which are  
386 interpreted to reflect the deposits of a progressive transgression of the shelf.

387 *4.1.7 Sabkha facies*

388 The sabkha facies comprises multi-colored laminated mudstones with very brittle and  
389 indurated surfaces (indicating sub-aerial exposure), bioturbated siltstones, and occasion  
390 muddy-sandstone interbeds. Anhydrite is observed formed as nodules within the  
391 argillaceous matrix (Fig. 5). An upwards increase in evaporite textures occurs, which is  
392 succeeded by a thick anhydrite bed.

393 This facies reflects a low-energy restricted shallow water environment, most likely within a  
394 sub-tidal lagoon setting. Anhydrite nodules were formed during periods of sub-aerial  
395 exposure (Kinsman, 1969). The bioturbated siltstones and muddy-sandstones interbeds are  
396 interpreted to have been deposited during semi-arid periods. Importantly, and largely  
397 because of the bedded anhydrite, this facies represents a non-permeable layer that may  
398 form a potential intra-reservoir barrier to fluid flow.

399 **4.2 Facies characteristics of the Abu Madi reservoir**

400 Detailed thin section (TS) analysis allowed the identification and characterization of the  
401 detrital and authigenic components of the Abu Madi reservoir. Relative abundances of  
402 components (% by volume) were obtained through point counting on thin sections  
403 (200 points for each TS). The analyzed sandstone samples from the Salma-4 well include sub-  
404 feldspathic arenite (48%), sub-feldspathic wacke (28%), sub-lithic arenite (8%), feldspathic  
405 wacke (8%), anhydrite sub-feldspathic (4%), and lithic arenite (4%) (Fig. 6; after Dott, 1964).

406 The sabkha facies (Fig. 7A) contains mudstone and argillaceous matrix composed of  
407 anhydrite, sub-feldspathic arenite, and silt to coarse-grained sand. It is moderate- to well-  
408 sorted, rounded- to sub-angular, moderately cemented, and occasionally highly cemented.  
409 Frequent monocrystalline quartz grains (Qz) occur, as well as K-feldspars (K) and traces of  
410 mica flakes. Opaque minerals and pore-filling anhydrite crystals (An) are observed. This  
411 facies displays poor to moderate pore interconnectivity.

412 The flood plain facies (Fig. 7B) comprises silt to coarse-grained sand, represented by sub-  
413 feldspathic arenite and wacke, which are poorly-cemented, moderately-compacted, and  
414 contain abundant monocrystalline quartz grains. Small amounts of K-feldspar, detrital  
415 glauconite pellets (G), bioclasts (B), and plagioclase feldspars (Ps) are present. The sandstone  
416 has moderate to good pore interconnectivity.

417 The tidally influenced fluvial channel facies is composed of mainly fine- to coarse-grained  
418 sand (Fig. 7C) that can be classified as a sub-feldspathic arenite. These rock units are  
419 dominated by quartz grains that are moderate- to well-sorted, rounded to sub-angular,  
420 poorly cemented, and moderately compacted. It contains small amounts of K-feldspars,  
421 bioclasts, and rare amounts of heavy minerals and opaques (see green arrows on Fig. 7). The  
422 sandstones of this facies have good pore interconnectivity.

423 The fluvial channel facies can be classified as a sub-lithic arenite (Fig. 7D). It is mainly  
424 composed of silt to granule grade material, the latter of which are typically poorly-sorted  
425 and sub-angular to rounded. The sandstones are poorly-cemented and moderately-  
426 compacted, with common pore-filling and grain-coating detrital clays (Dc), as well as small

427 amounts of bioclasts (B) and shell fragments. The sandstones of this facies have moderate to  
428 good pore interconnectivity.

429 The tidal flat sedimentary facies are composed of very fine-grained sandstones and  
430 siltstones (Fig. 7E). The moderately sorted- to well-sorted, rounded to sub-angular  
431 sandstone, which are poorly-cemented and weakly compacted, can be classified as a sub-  
432 feldspathic wacke. The sandstones contain frequent examples of pore-filling and grain-  
433 coating detrital authigenic clays (Dc), as well as small amounts of K-feldspars. The  
434 sandstones of this facies have poor pore interconnectivity.

435 The tidal channel facies (Fig. 7F) is represented by sub-feldspathic arenites and wackes. The  
436 sandstones are poorly- to moderately-sorted, rounded to sub-angular, poorly cemented, and  
437 moderately compacted, with small amounts of K-feldspar. The sandstones of this facies have  
438 moderate pore interconnectivity.

#### 439 **4.3 Diagenetic features**

440 The Abu Madi sandstone samples show multiple diagenetic features, including dissolution,  
441 fracturing, cementation, and compaction, which all play a role in the development of the  
442 final pore network. Diagenetic features related to fracturing were also recorded, which when  
443 present can act to enhance reservoir characteristics (Figs 7E, 7F). Grains show evidence for  
444 moderate compaction and associated microfractures resulting from grain-to-grain point  
445 contacts (Fig. 7). Cementation by micro and pseudo sparite was observed in TS, particularly  
446 where detrital clays were dominant (Figs 7A, 7B, 7E, 7F). Anhydrite cementation is dominant  
447 in the heterolithic sandstones (Fig. 7A), which can act to block pore throats and reduce  
448 overall reservoir quality. The dissolution of cement and feldspars is recorded in a few samples  
449 (Figs 7E, 7B). Finally, in some cases residual hydrocarbons are observed filling pore spaces  
450 (i.e., pore spaces related to dissolution of the cements and feldspars) that were formed during  
451 the late stages of diagenesis (Fig. 7E).

#### 452 **4.4 FMI Image data analysis from non-cored intervals**

453 The Abu Madi facies identification in non-cored intervals was completed using formation  
454 image data (FMI) from the Salma-4 well between 2080–2280 m MDBRT (Fig. 8). These logs  
455 were interpreted for lithology, sedimentological features, and sedimentary facies.

456 The lowermost unit between 2280–2180 m MDBRT is dominated by a repeated (cyclic)  
457 fining-upwards succession of coarse- to very coarse-grained pebbly sandstones that are  
458 massive or cross-stratified, with numerous scour surfaces. The dip data display average  
459 north-west dip azimuths associated with paleo-current indicators. This unit is interpreted as  
460 fluvial channel deposits.

461 The middle unit between 2180–2138 m MDBRT and 2125–2100 m MDBRT is composed of  
462 horizontally-stratified and massively-bedded units in the lower part, while the upper part  
463 comprises laminated muddy-sandstones, laminated siltstones, and heterolithic sediments,  
464 with a general fining upward pattern (Fig. 9). The presence of siltstone and mudstone  
465 interbeds indicates the periods of energy decrease and deposition from lower energy flows.  
466 Based on the observed lithofacies and dip data, the middle unit is interpreted as  
467 amalgamated tidal channel and tidal flat deposits.

468 The upper unit between 2100–2080 m MDBRT (Fig. 9B), is formed by alternating units of  
469 massively-bedded muddy sandstones with cross-stratified sandstones, which is especially  
470 clear near the top of the unit. The unit displays an overall coarsening-upward pattern. The  
471 dip data show an east to north-east dip azimuth. This unit is interpreted as deposits of a tidal  
472 bar in a bayhead delta setting. However, the very upper-most zone of this interval shows  
473 slightly divergent dip data relating to palaeocurrent direction, which trends in both north-  
474 east and north-west dip azimuth. It is interpreted that these palaeocurrent directions  
475 represent deposition within the original fluvial channel direction, but which are modified by  
476 the influence of a contrasting tide direction (Fig. 10).

#### 477 **4.5 Depositional model from image data**

478 The Abu Madi facies sediments are represented by three key zones (Fig. 11): the upper,  
479 middle, and lower. The lower zone (A) represents a fluvial channel depositional environment  
480 (Fluvial Domain). It consists of sharp-based aggrading fluvial facies, with stacked fluvial

481 channel-fill sediments, and finning-upward successions, which collectively represent an  
482 initial north-westerly directed progradational phase.

483 The middle zone represents a tidally-influenced marginal marine depositional environment  
484 with three internal sub-units represented by an estuary, delta progradation, and finally a  
485 return to estuarine conditions. The lower sub-unit is represented by an estuarine  
486 environment (B; estuarine domain) and formed through the deposition under low  
487 accommodation space corresponding to a retro-progradational phase and transition from  
488 terrestrial to marine sedimentation. The middle sub-unit reflects deposition in a bayhead  
489 delta setting (C; tidal domain), during which gradual cyclic progradation of the sediments  
490 under tidal action occurred. Beds show a progradational phase. The facies are primarily  
491 composed of sandstone, with sandy tidal flats formed on a bayhead delta plain, and  
492 heterolithic facies representing tidal influences in adjacent areas. The upper sub-unit marks  
493 a return to estuarine deposition (B; estuarine domain) following the progradation of the  
494 bayhead delta during middle sub-unit times.

495 The upper zone represents a tidal environment and consists of two sub-units. The lower-  
496 most sub-unit represents a tidally influenced fluvial channel system (D; tidal domain). It also  
497 displays a change in palaeocurrent direction, as indicated by north-east to north-west dip  
498 azimuths. The upper-most sub-unit is represented by Sabkha deposits (E; tidal domain),  
499 which formed in a supratidal setting. The Sabkha deposits contain intercalated and bedded  
500 anhydrite, as well as fine-grained tidal flat facies.

501 The facies and depositional model (Fig. 11) depicts initial deposition in a continental setting  
502 in which fluvial processes dominated. This was followed by an fining-upward pattern, with  
503 an erosive scouring possibly related to lowstand to transgressive system tract conditions.  
504 Continued and widespread transgression of the palaeoshelf occurred resulting in a switch to  
505 marginal-marine sedimentary processes. Initial deposits were formed in a tidally-dominated  
506 estuary, with subsequent phases of progradation forming fluvial-dominated deposits within  
507 a bayhead delta. Finally, the depositional environment transitioned into a restricted tidal flat  
508 setting and/or Sabkha associated with the early onset of highstand conditions.

509 **4.6 Rock type classification and flow unit identification**

510 Rock typing is a technique used for classifying the reservoir into units of unique  
511 petrophysical characteristics. It is used to establish the relationship between reservoir  
512 parameters from different sources, such as core data, logs, production data, and geological  
513 descriptions (Amaefule et al., 1993).

514 **4.6.1 Winland's R<sub>35</sub> and flow units (FU)**

515 Flow units were distinguished from the porosity-air permeability plot of cored intervals of  
516 the Abu Madi Formation (Fig. 12). The results of the flow unit assessment are presented in  
517 table (1), based on the range of pore-throat radii (R35) to five flow units (FU's):

- 518 1. FU-I: A flow unit with a R35 value of above 15 µm, which can be classified as having  
519 mega-pores. The porosity range is 24–39 % and permeability is often >900 mD. FU-I  
520 directly relates to fluvial channel and tidally influenced fluvial channel facies within the  
521 reservoir. The sandstones are relatively clean, contain only small amounts of  
522 argillaceous material, and have excellent reservoir quality.
- 523 2. FU-II: A flow unit with a R35 value ranging from 6–15 µm, which can be classified as  
524 having macro to mega-pores. The porosity range is 20–32 % and the permeability is  
525 150–900 mD. It relates to the fluvial channel facies and tidally influenced fluvial channel  
526 deposits, which form very good reservoir units.
- 527 3. FU- III: A flow unit with R35 values ranging from 3.5–6 µm, which can be classified as  
528 having macro-pores. The porosity ranges between 16–30 % and the permeability ranges  
529 between 50–150 mD. This unit represents the estuarine tidal channel facies and the  
530 tidally influenced fluvial channel facies, which form good-quality reservoir units.
- 531 4. FU- IV: A flow unit with a R35 value ranging from 2–3.5 µm, which can be classified as  
532 having meso-pores. The porosity range is 13–31 %, while the permeability is 10–60 mD,  
533 and therefore represents medium to low-quality reservoir units.
- 534 5. FU- V: A flow unit with a R35 ranging from 0.5–2 µm, which can be classified as having  
535 micro-porosity. The porosity range is 14–26%, and the permeability range is 0.8–10 mD.  
536 This unit represents fluvial channel and the tidal channel (estuarine) facies, which form  
537 low-quality reservoir units.

538 Table 1: Statistical variability of petrophysical properties associated with each flow unit,  
 539 based on Winland's flow unit classification:

Flow unit	R35 ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Pores type	Porosity (%)	Permeability (mD)	Reservoir quality
FU I	>15	Mega pores	24–39	>900	Excellent
FU II	6–15	Macro- to Mega pores	20–32	150–900	Very Good
FU III	3.5–6	Macro pores	16–30	50–150	Good
FU IV	2–3.5	Meso pores	13–31	10–60	Moderate
FU V	0.5–2	Micro pores	14–26	0.8–10	Low

#### 540 **4.6.2 Normalized cumulative reservoir quality index (NCRQI)**

541 Rock typing classification is based on the (RQI) concept and dynamic flow properties. From  
 542 corrected core data that considers the reservoir condition in terms of porosity and  
 543 permeability. RQI is calculated and used to determine (NCRQI) for each data point as follows:

$$544 \quad \text{NCRQI} = \frac{\sum_{x=1}^i \sqrt{\frac{K_i}{\phi_i}}}{\sum_{x=1}^n \sqrt{\frac{K_n}{\phi_n}}} \quad (11)$$

545 Where n and i are the total numbers of data and number of data points at sequential steps  
 546 of computation, respectively. NCRQI depth curves for Salma-2 and Salma-4 wells (Fig. 13)  
 547 show that the slope change NCRQI curve represents the change in reservoir flow unit  
 548 (Gomes et al., 2008). The slope of the curve represents the rate of change of NCRQI with  
 549 depth, where a high rate represents both high reservoir quality and flow rate. The reservoir  
 550 units are separated (graphically) into different flow units based on change of curve slope.

551 The reservoirs show high-quality in units 1 & 2 (Table 1). These units have the highest  
 552 porosity and permeability and are associated with fluvial and tidally-influenced fluvial  
 553 facies. Unit 3 represent the medium-quality unit and is related to tidal channel facies, while  
 554 the low-quality unit 4 corresponds to the heterolithic and argillaceous sandstones.

#### 555 **4.6.3 Hydraulic flow units (HFU)**

556 The core data of Salma-2 and Salma-4 wells (Fig. 14) show four main HFU's controlling the  
557 Abu Madi reservoir performance for the cored intervals. The defined HFU's and reservoir  
558 facies are described in (Fig. 15), and the final HFU results for the Abu Madi Formation are  
559 summarized in Table (2).

560 **HFU-I:** The average FZI is between 4.5–10 µm, which represent excellent sandstone reservoir  
561 quality. Porosity ranges between 25–33 % and permeability exceeds 900 mD. This unit is  
562 mainly composed of fluvial channel and tidally influenced fluvial channel facies.

563 **HFU-II:** The average FZI is between 1.7–4.5 µm, reflecting a good to very good quality  
564 sandstone. Porosity ranges between 17–33 %, and permeabilities are between 70–900 mD.  
565 This unit is mainly composed of fluvial channel, tidal influenced fluvial channel, and clean  
566 sandstones of the tidal channels.

567 **HFU-III:** The average FZI is between 0.6–1.7 µm, reflecting a moderate quality sandstone.  
568 Porosity ranges between 12–33% and permeability between 4–100 mD. This unit is mainly  
569 composed of tidal channel and tidal flat sandstones (estuarine), with argillaceous parts of  
570 the fluvial and tidal influenced fluvial channel.

571 **HFU-IV:** The average FZI is between 0.2–0.6 µm, reflecting a low-quality sandstone. Porosity  
572 ranges between 15–30% and permeability between 0.6– 8 mD. This unit is represented by  
573 heterolithic sandstones of tidal flat facies.

574 Table 2. HFU data for the Abu Madi Formation.

Hydraulic flow unit	FZI (µm)	Porosity (%)	Permeability (mD)	Reservoir quality
HFU I	4.5–10	2533	>900	Excellent
HFU II	1.7–4.5	17–33	70–1000	Good - Very good
HFU III	0.6–1.7	12–33	4–100	Moderate - Good
HFU IV	0.2–0.6	15–30	0.6–8	Low

575 **4.7 Formation evaluation**

576 The evaluation of well logs has been performed to determine the petrophysical properties of  
577 the Abu Madi reservoir using graphical and computational methods. Log evaluation using  
578 'TechlogTM' (Version, 2015) has been applied to determine shale volume, effective porosity,  
579 lithology, and hydrocarbon saturation. A large proportion of the data within the neutron-  
580 density raw data cross-plots for Salma-2 and Salama-4 wells demonstrate conformance with  
581 the sandstone trendline (Figs 16 and 17). Some points plot closer to the limestone line,  
582 which is interpreted as reflecting the presence of carbonate cementing minerals. Other  
583 points plot concordantly along the dolomite line, where the deposits contain shale. Finally, a  
584 cluster of data points plot above the sandstone line, which is likely caused by the gas effect  
585 (*sensu* Radwan et al., 2020). The thicknesses of the gas-bearing zone (net pay) for the two  
586 wells and other petrophysical analysis parameters are summarized in table (3). The Salma-2  
587 well (Fig. 18), shows that all of the sandstone reservoir intervals are above the gas-water  
588 contact within the pay zone.

589 The Abu Madi sandstone is characterized by excellent reservoir quality, with high porosity  
590 (average porosity of 22%), and low clay content (average shale volume of 19%). This is  
591 especially the case in the lower zones, which represent the coarse-grained sandstone of  
592 fluvial channel facies with water saturation ranges between (20–40%). The upper zone of the  
593 reservoir is composed of lower quality fluvial channel facies, where the sandstones are finer-  
594 grained, and the clay content is higher. The upper part of the reservoir is interpreted as tidal  
595 channel and tidal flat facies, comprising fine- to very fine-grained sandstone, with mudstone  
596 intercalations. The Salma-4 well interpretation (Fig. 19) shows very good reservoir quality,  
597 with gas-bearing zones above 2113.4 m and water zones below 2117.5 m. The main pay  
598 zones in the upper part of Abu Madi are within high porosity tidally influenced fluvial  
599 channel sandstones. A small part of the good quality (average porosity of 22%) tidal channel  
600 sandstone net pay zone is above the 'gas down to' (GDT) level. The rest of Abu Madi  
601 reservoir is below the gas zone, with bayhead delta and fluvial channel sandstones being  
602 'water-wet'. In general, the upper part is characterized by very fine-grained and clay-grade  
603 tidal flat sediments, with an overall high clay content (average shale volume of 21%). Clay  
604 content reduces resistivity (+/-3 ohm.m), whilst increasing irreducible water saturation

605 (>40%) (Tiab and Donaldson, 1996). The estuarine zone shows evidence for calcareous  
606 cements within the bayhead delta facies, which are interpreted to be formed through  
607 secondary processes during diagenesis within the estuarine environment.

608 Table 3: Petrophysical analysis of net pay zones in the Abu Madi Formation.

Well	Zones	Top (m)	Bottom (m)	Gross thickness (m)	Net pay (m)	Av. shale volume (%)	Av. porosity (%)	Av. water saturation (%)
Salma-2	Estuarine	2014.7	2025.4	10.7	2.60	26.0	18	36
Salma-2	Fluvial	2025.4	2070.0	44.6	22.70	19.0	22	40
Salma-4	Sabkha	2080.0	2088.5	8.5	0.15	34.0	19	47
Salma-4	Tidally influenced fluvial channel	2088.5	2100.0	11.5	9.80	21.4	24	39
Salma-4	Estuarine	2100.0	2115.0	15	2.29	21.0	22	60

609 **4.8 FZI and permeability prediction**

610 The neural log technique (K-mode) is statistical in nature and uses 148 core points for input  
611 data (PHIE and FZI based on core analysis) to predict FZI, with HFU's based on log data (PHIE,  
612 Pef, and Vshale). Using both log and core data within the cored zones, the neural analysis  
613 method iteratively uses FZI as a function related to log data to predict a FZI curve for non-  
614 cored intervals.

615 Using permeability (K) as a function on porosity( $\phi$ ), and FZI (Eq. 12).

$$616 K = 1014 FZI^2 * \phi^3 / (1 - \phi)^2 \quad (12)$$

617 The result of neural analysis of predicted FZI neural-derived and permeability calculations  
618 are presented in table (4). Although HFU's are limited by different FZI ranges, each unit may  
619 contain a wide range of potentially overlapping porosity and permeability values. The FZI  
620 values, along with seismic attribute information and sedimentary facies models, are used to  
621 define the character and distribution of flow units within the full reservoir model. The data  
622 from the core in Salma-2 and Salma-4 wells (Fig. 14) shows wide ranges of FZI across the  
623 main HFU's. Selected training data from cores covers most reservoir types and has been  
624 verified later with other cores. The resulting model provides an important tool for  
625 permeability prediction in reservoir flow simulation and production optimization.

626 In the Salma-2 well, FZI values are high within most reservoir intervals, including the un-  
 627 cored sections dominated by flow units 1 and 2 (Figs 20 and 21), reflecting the high reservoir  
 628 quality of fluvial channel sandstones. More minor intervals of the argillaceous fluvial channel  
 629 flow unit 3 are also present. Permeability prediction shows a high permeability range in the  
 630 lower zone, with a moderate range in other zones. The Salma-4 well contains alternating  
 631 high and medium FZI values within the pay zone intervals, with medium-to-high permeability  
 632 ranges. The middle part of the Abu Madi reservoir is below the gas zone (Fig. 21) and  
 633 displays a low to moderate FZI range (flow units 3 and 2) in bayhead delta, estuarine, and  
 634 tidal flat facies. The lower part of the Abu Madi reservoir is represented by a high range of  
 635 FZI (flow unit 1), reflecting the variable sorting and coarser grain-sizes. The summary of HFU  
 636 distribution for different reservoir units and environments is shown for Salma-2 (Fig. 22A)  
 637 and Salma-4 (Fig. 22B).

638 **Table 4: Petrophysical and neural analysis (FZI, Permeability) of reservoir zones for Abu Madi**  
 639 **Formation.**

Well	Zones	Gross thickness (m)	Net reservoir (m)	Av. shale volume (%)	Av. porosity (%)	Flow zone indicator ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) Min - Max	Av. flow zone indicator ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Av. horizontal permeability (mD)
Salma-2	Estuarine	10.7	2.6	26.0	18.0	1 – 7.2	3.9	356.7
Salma-2	Fluvial	44.6	22.9	19.0	22.0	1.8 – 7.0	4.5	648.3
Salma-4	Sabkha	8.5	0.3	29.6	17.3	0.5 – 2.0	1.8	24.7
Salma-4	Tidal influenced fluvial channel	11.5	9.8	21.4	24.0	1.8 – 8.5	3.7	676.7
Salma-4	Estuarine	66.9	10.7	25.0	18.9	1 – 9.0	2.2	173.4
Salma-4	Bayhead delta	13.9	10.4	24.6	18.3	1 – 6.0	1.9	83.1
Salma-4	Fluvial	94.4	64.9	21.0	19.7	1 – 10.6	3.5	683.9

640 **4.9 Stratigraphic Modified Lorenz Plot (SMLP)**

641 The cumulative percent of flow capacity (%Kh) was plotted versus the cumulative percent of  
 642 storage capacity (% $\phi$ h). Each slope segment represents the flow performance of a specific  
 643 reservoir unit (Figs 23 and 24). The application of the ‘Stratigraphic Modified Lorenz Plot’  
 644 (SMLP) technique displays the main flow units, stratigraphically.

645 In Salma-2, flow performance is controlled by five units (A, B, C, D, and E; Fig. 23). The main  
646 units that contribute to the maximum storage and flow capacity are unit-A (45% storage and  
647 40% flow) and unit-B (22% storage and 52% flow), which are fluvial channel facies in the  
648 middle and lower parts of the reservoir. The argillaceous fluvial channel deposits of units C  
649 and D in the upper part of the reservoir have low storage and flow capacity, whilst estuarine  
650 facies of unit E are sealing (7% storage and 6% flow).

651 In Salma-4, overall flow performance is controlled by 11 separate flow units (A–K; Fig. 24).  
652 The units that contribute the main storage and flow capacity are A, C, E, G, and J (35%  
653 storage and 86% flow, collectively), which are mostly related to tidally-influenced fluvial  
654 channel and estuarine facies of unit A. Unit E displays maximum flow performance (36%),  
655 which represents a ‘speed zone’, whilst flow units K and I represent low-quality reservoir  
656 intervals or baffles (22% storage and 4% flow, collectively). Units B, D, and F display very low-  
657 quality flow performance (20% storage and 1% flow) and considered as sealing units.

## 658 **5. Discussion**

### 659 **5.1. Depositional and diagenetic controls on the reservoir quality**

660 In general, fluvial deposits form highly heterogeneous reservoirs, where the connectivity of  
661 sand bodies and their characteristics control the reservoir quality at multiple scales (Gibling,  
662 2006). In the study area, the Abu Madi Formation is composed of sabkha, fluvial channel,  
663 flood plain, tidally influenced fluvial channel, tidal flat, and tidal channel facies. This dynamic  
664 sedimentary system resulted in the deposition and preservation of variable sandstone types,  
665 including sub-feldspathic arenites, sub-feldspathic wackes, sub-lithic arenites, feldspathic  
666 wackes, anhydrite sub-feldspathic arenites, and lithic arenites. Each lithofacies has different  
667 characteristics and depositional conditions that control the texture, grain size, and sorting,  
668 which affect the reservoir quality. Additionally, diagenetic processes such as dissolution,  
669 fracturing, cementation, and compaction act to control the pore network in sandstone  
670 reservoirs (e.g., Worden and Burley, 2003; Taylor et al., 2010).

#### 671 *5.1.1 Sabkha Facies*

672 The sandstones of the sabkha facies in Abu Madi reservoir (Figs. 5A and 7A) are dominated  
673 by anhydrite sub-feldspathic arenites, with argillaceous-rich silt grade to coarse-grained

674 sandstones. Detrital clays within the matrix have a significant impact in terms of reducing  
675 reservoir quality, as do pore-filling anhydrite crystals (Fig. 7A), siderite bands, and anhydrite  
676 nodules, all features that can act to reduce overall porosity and permeability within the  
677 reservoir (*sensu* Elias et al., 2004). The grain contacts are dominated by point contacts, with  
678 only a few long concavo-convex contacts, which indicates low to moderate compaction.  
679 Overall, the sabkha facies sandstones in the Abu Madi reservoir are interpreted as poor to  
680 moderate in terms of reservoir quality (Fig. 7A).

681 *5.1.2 Fluvial Channel Facies*

682 The fluvial channel facies typically represent significant reservoir intervals, with high-quality  
683 porous and permeable sandstones often deposited and preserved in these settings (Mial,  
684 1988; Luo et al., 2009; Morad et al., 2010; Leila et al., 2022a, b; Abdel-Fattah et al., 2022).  
685 The fluvial channel facies (Fig. 4B) are dominated by blocky and massively-bedded silt to  
686 granule grade poorly-sorted sandstones of the sub-lithic arenite type (Figs 4B and 7D), which  
687 show an overall fining-upwards trend. The massively bedded kaolinitic pebbly sandstones,  
688 along with the interbedded mudstone beds, absence of bioturbation, and mud-drapes,  
689 collectively suggest deposition in a fluvial channel setting (Allen, 1982; Mial, 1988; Bridge,  
690 2006). The sandstones display a well-preserved primary porosity, with low amounts of pore  
691 filling and grain-coating detrital clays (Dc). The grains show only minor evidence of  
692 microfractures and grain contacts are dominated by point contacts, indicating a limited  
693 influence of compaction on reservoir quality (Fig 7D). The lateral continuity of correlated  
694 fluvial channel sandstones between the Salma-2 and Salma-4 wells is observed in the lower  
695 parts of the reservoir. In summary, the fluvial channel sandstone facies have very good pore  
696 interconnectivity, very good reservoir quality, and are more widely recognized as forming  
697 ideal intervals for gas storage and fluid flow (Allen, 1982; Mial, 1988; Bridge, 2006).

698 *5.1.3 Flood Plain Facies*

699 The flood plain facies (Fig. 7B) are dominated by silt to coarse-grained sub-feldspathic  
700 arenites. Grain contacts are dominated by point contacts, with a few long and concavo-  
701 convex contacts, reflecting low to moderate compaction. The grains are less compacted and  
702 have more space than compared with the sabkha facies. Thin section analysis shows

703 scattered detrital clays that rare block pore spaces (Fig. 7B). Detrital clay abundance is less  
704 than compared with the sabkha facies (Fig. 7A) and the fluvial channel facies (Fig. 7D), which  
705 indicates higher porosity in the flood plain facies. Additionally, cementation by micro and  
706 pseudo sparite act to reduce the pore network, although porosity is observed to be fair to  
707 good. In summary, the flood plain facies have moderate to good pore interconnectivity and  
708 reservoir quality (Fig. 7B).

709 *5.1.4 Tidally influenced Fluvial Channel Facies*

710 The tidally influenced fluvial channel facies is a favorable reservoir in many petroleum  
711 systems worldwide (Hein, 2015). These facies are dominated by coarse-grained sub-  
712 feldspathic arenites (Fig. 7-C), with occasional gravelly-pebbly grains. Pore-filling kaolinite  
713 cements are observed (Fig. 5C). Grain contacts are dominated by point contacts, reflecting  
714 low to moderate compaction with visible preserved porosity (Fig. 7C). The commonly  
715 observed mud drapes are indicative of tidal influences on sedimentation (e.g., Allen, 1982;  
716 Martinius and Van den Berg, 2011; Hein, 2015). A good pore interconnectivity is observed in  
717 these facies (Fig. 7C). In HFU-II and HFU-III, the reservoir quality is affected by pore-filling  
718 cementation. The accumulation of K-feldspars, glauconite, and heavy minerals in the pore  
719 spaces blocks pore throats and reduces overall pore connectivity (Fig. 7C); these diagenetic  
720 factors are less prevalent in (HFU-I). Overall, the tidally influenced fluvial channel facies are  
721 interpreted as excellent to very good in terms of reservoir quality.

722 *5.1.5 Tidal Flat Facies*

723 Good-quality sandstone reservoirs, with good porosity and permeability, exist within tidal  
724 flat environments (e.g., Seaïag et al., 2016). In this study, the tidal flat facies are dominated  
725 by fine- to coarse-grained sub-feldspathic wackes (Fig. 7E), which are heterolithic at the  
726 lamination scale, and bioturbated (Fig. 5D, 4A). The grain contacts in the tidal flat facies are  
727 dominated by point contacts with few long and concavo-convex contacts, contain limited  
728 examples of intragranular microfractures, and therefore were likely exposed to low to  
729 moderate degrees of compaction. Pore-filling detrital clays are observed (Fig. 7E), which act  
730 to reduce overall reservoir quality; pore-filling residual hydrocarbons and grain-coating  
731 detrital clays (Dc) are also observed. Collectively, these observations suggest poor

732 interconnectivity in the tidal flat facies and therefore poor reservoir quality. The heterolithic  
733 sandstone group of samples (HFU IV) has the lowest reservoir quality in the studied Abu  
734 Madi reservoir.

735 **5.1.6 Tidal Channel Facies**

736 Tidal channel facies can form good-quality reservoirs in petroleum systems worldwide (e.g.,  
737 Weimer et al., 1982; Reinson et al., 1988). In this study, this facies are dominated by silt to  
738 fine-grained, poorly to moderately-sorted sub-feldspathic arenites and wackes (Fig. 7F).  
739 Point-to-point grain contact demonstrates that these deposits have been affected by  
740 moderate compaction (Fig. 7F). The existence of pore-filling detrital clays decreases the pore  
741 system effectiveness and reduces reservoir quality. Moderate cementation of this facies has  
742 reduced the total pore volume, with some evidence for moderate pore interconnectivity  
743 suggesting moderate reservoir quality (Fig. 7F).

744 To summarize, the reservoir quality of the Abu Madi reservoir is controlled by both  
745 depositional and diagenetic processes. There is an inverse relationship between the porosity  
746 and detrital clay volume, where a high detrital clay content indicates poor reservoir quality.  
747 The grain size analysis reflects some enhancement of the reservoir quality associated with  
748 the presence of coarse-grained sediments. Most sediments are poorly- to moderately-  
749 sorted. This study interprets that the abundance of detrital clays plays the main controlling  
750 parameter in reservoir quality, followed by grain size, and sorting. Reservoir quality-  
751 enhancing diagenetic controls include dissolution of cement and feldspars (Fig. 7E, B), and  
752 micro-fractures (Fig. 7E, F). On the contrary, the impacts of the reservoir quality-reducing  
753 diagenetic controls were primarily dependent on the cementation (i.e., argillaceous material  
754 and kaolinite) that led to a partial reduction of the pore network. The studied intervals  
755 displayed low to moderate degrees of compaction, and so its influence on reservoir quality  
756 is thought to be low.

757 **5.2. Pore systems, flow units, and links with depositional lithofacies**

758 The Abu Madi reservoir is characterized by a wide range of facies and flow units, which  
759 reflects the variation in the depositional environment. Fluvial channel facies, tidal influenced

channel facies, and the upper part of bayhead delta facies are dominated by clean sandstones, with a low clay content (average 20%). These are characterized by the highest R35 and FZI values, indicating a pore system dominated by mega-to macro-pores (FU-I and FU-II; HFU-I and HFU-II). The estuarine facies are dominated by siltstone and mudstone, as well as argillaceous sandstone, with an average clay content of 25%. The estuarine facies are characterized by moderate R35 and FZI values, indicating a pore system dominated by macro-to meso-pores (FU-III and FU-IV), and (HFU-III). Heterolithic deposits of the estuarine environment and bayhead delta sandstone facies are abundant in mudstones and argillaceous-rich sandstones. The argillaceous-rich sandstones contain an average clay content of 29%, forming poor quality reservoir intervals characterized by low R35 and FZI values, indicating a pore system dominated by micro-pores (FU-V) and (HFU-IV). The high storage and flow capacity of the Abu Madi fluvial channel facies and tidal influenced fluvial channel facies (HFU-1, HFU-2) is largely controlled by the sedimentological distribution of low detrital clay and siltstone content. In addition, reservoir quality-enhancing diagenetic controls, including dissolution of cement and feldspars (Fig. 7), and micro-fractures (Fig. 7) aid in their high reservoir performance. The storage and flow capacity of the estuarine facies/flow zones (HFU-III, HFU-IV) are low due to their high detrital clay and siltstone content. In addition, reservoir quality-reducing diagenetic controls, including cementation and compaction (Fig. 7) act to further reduce the performance of these intervals.

Despite these observations, there is no fixed relationship between the lithofacies and the petrophysical parameters (e.g., the porosity/permeability values and the HFU's/FU's), where the observed porosities and permeabilities vary across lithofacies. HFU's and FU's have been observed in both poor and excellent reservoir quality zones. This phenomenon highlights the high-degree of heterogeneity of the studied Abu Madi reservoirs, which is reported in similar studies of comparable sedimentary settings, worldwide (Moraes and Surdam, 1993; Alaa et al., 2000; Pranter et al., 2007; Luo et al., 2009; Colombera et al., 2012; Henares et al., 2016; Sahoo et al., 2016; Abdel-Fattah et al., 2022).

### 5.3. Implications for hydrocarbon exploration and production

788 The Abu Madi Formation is an important rock unit in the Nile Delta petroleum system  
789 because they contain potentially economically-significant volumes of reservoir rocks (EGPC,  
790 1994; Dolson et al., 2005; Leila et al., 2015). As a result, investigating the petrophysical and  
791 sedimentological controls on the Abu Madi sandstone reservoir is useful for effective  
792 reservoir quality prediction, which contributes to the overall understanding of the Messinian  
793 hydrocarbon plays. A better understanding of the Abu Madi subsurface reservoirs can be  
794 gained by accurately predicting the connectivity, rock type, and flow behavior of these  
795 deposits, which aids in further reservoir simulation and modeling. The identification of five  
796 different flow units (i.e., FU-I, FU-II, FU-III, FU-IV, and FU-V) based on the application of  
797 Winland's R35 technique, as well as four HFU's (i.e., HFU-I, HFU-II, HFU-III, and HFU-IV)  
798 improves reservoir prediction and simulation for reservoir management and recovery in such  
799 heterogeneous sandstone reservoirs.

800 In terms of reservoir quality, the integrated core measurements, image log interpretation,  
801 and petrophysical analysis indicate that HFU-I has the highest reservoir quality, which is  
802 characterized by excellent porosity of 25–33% and excellent permeability of >900 mD. HFU-II  
803 has very good reservoir quality, which is characterized by between 17–33% porosity and very  
804 700– 1000 mD permeability. The HFU-III has moderate to good reservoir quality, with 12–  
805 33% porosity and 4–100 mD permeability. This may shed light on the HFU-I, HFU-II, and HFU-  
806 III of the fluvial and tidally-influenced fluvial sandstones, which can now be further appraised  
807 during continued field development. HFU-IV has the lowest reservoir quality, which is  
808 characterized by low permeability (0.6–8 mD).

809 The inferred data from image logs allows us to define the average paleo-current direction in  
810 the studied fluvial to deltaic setting. The fluvial channel dip data shows a north-west  
811 azimuth, suggesting that the rivers were flowing in a north-westerly direction. In-  
812 comparison, the estuarine dip data shows an east to north-east dip azimuth, suggesting the  
813 marine-dominated sedimentary systems were oriented slightly oblique to the overall strike  
814 of the in-draining fluvial systems. The tidally influenced fluvial channel deposits dip data  
815 shows a north-east to north-west dip azimuth, representing the fluvial channel direction  
816 with the superimposed and opposing bi-directional marine tide direction (Fig. 10). The paleo-

817 current direction information is important as at the field scale it can be used to guide  
818 tracking of these reservoirs across the field, and at the regional scales it provides  
819 information on the overall palaeoflow direction of the sedimentary systems during the  
820 Messinian in the Nile Delta area.

821 The neural log technique succeeded in predicting FZI, permeability, and petrophysical  
822 parameters in the un-cored intervals. The resulting distribution of hydraulic flow units  
823 method honored the geology of the reservoirs, as well as static and dynamic petrophysical  
824 properties. Flow units take into account both pore structure and fluid-flow performance,  
825 which improves permeability estimation and reduces the uncertainty in petrophysical  
826 assessments. Derived empirical relationships of porosity and permeability for different types  
827 of sandstone and combined empirical and theoretical models with laboratory-measured  
828 data, show a good agreement between estimated FZI and permeability and core  
829 measurements. The prediction of FZI and permeability in the non-cored intervals is of great  
830 importance in the field development and can be used in other drilled and future planned  
831 wells for production optimization.

832 The modified Lorenz Plot SMLP was able to improve the knowledge of the Abu Madi  
833 reservoir storage capacity and flow performance, which is controlled by five flow units in the  
834 Salma-2 well and 11 flow units in the Salma-4 well. Based on the previous results, it is  
835 concluded that the Abu Madi reservoir in the Salma-4 is more heterogeneous. In the Salma-2  
836 well, the maximum storage and flow capacity are associated with the clean sandstones of  
837 fluvial channel deposits in the middle and lower parts of the reservoir. The low storage and  
838 flow capacity is associated with argillaceous-rich fluvial channel facies in the upper part of  
839 the reservoir. In the Salma-4 well, the main storage and flow capacity is related to tidally-  
840 influenced fluvial channel deposits and tidal channel sandstones. Flow units K and I  
841 represent low-quality reservoirs (baffles). Flow performance in the Abu Madi reservoir is  
842 primarily controlled by the character and distribution of fluvial channel and tidally influenced  
843 fluvial channel deposits, with little contribution from estuarine deposits.

844 **Conclusions**

845 This comprehensive integrated study has improved the geological understanding of the  
846 Messinian deposits, and in-particular the reservoir units, in the Nile Delta area. In-particular,  
847 an improved geological understanding of the Abu Madi reservoirs is provided, which exhibit  
848 multi-scalar heterogeneities in depositional environments, fluid flow, and rock types. This  
849 study demonstrates that the Abu Madi Formation in Salma Field is composed of a range of  
850 different facies, including sub-aerial gravity-flow facies, fluvial channel facies, tidal channel  
851 facies, tidal flat facies, tidally influenced fluvial channel facies, flood plain facies, and sabkha  
852 facies. The sedimentary processes responsible for depositing these facies formed a range of  
853 sandstone types, including sub-feldspathic arenites, sub-feldspathic wackes, sub-lithic  
854 arenites, feldspathic wackes, anhydrite sub-feldspathics. Reservoir quality is controlled by A  
855 combination of these depositional processes (sedimentary facies) and diagenetic processes.  
856 The abundance of detrital clays plays the main controlling parameter in reservoir quality,  
857 followed by grain size and sorting. The dissolution of cement and feldspars, along with the  
858 presence of micro-fractured grains form the main reservoir-quality-enhancing diagenetic  
859 factors, whilst pore-filling detrital clays led to a partial reduction of the pore network.

860 The neural log technique (K-mode) has succeeded in predicting FZI, permeability, and  
861 petrophysical parameters in the non-cored intervals. The resulting model can be used to  
862 obtain a reliable permeability prediction based on combining porosity and FZI to provide  
863 more accurate reservoir flow simulations. The Modified Lorenz Plot SMLP shows that the  
864 storage capacity and flow performance is controlled by five flow units in the Salma-2 well,  
865 whilst 11 flow units were detected in the Salma-4 well.

866 The Abu Madi reservoir is divided into four HFU's, including HFU-I (excellent reservoir quality  
867 and dominated by fluvial channel and tidal influenced fluvial channel facies), HFU-II (very  
868 good to good reservoir quality and dominated by fluvial channel, tidal influenced fluvial  
869 channel, and tidal channel facies, HFU-III (moderate quality sandstone dominated by tidal  
870 channel and tidal flat sandstones, with argillaceous parts of the fluvial and tidal influenced  
871 fluvial channel), and HFU-IV (low-quality reservoir and dominated by heterolithic sandstones  
872 of tidal flat facies). The storage and flow capacity of the fluvial channel facies and tidally  
873 influenced fluvial channel facies (HFU-1, HFU-2) samples are the largest due to the lower

874 detrital clay and silt content. The storage and flow capacity of the estuarine (HFU-III, HFU-IV)  
875 facies is limited by the high detrital clay and siltstone content.

876 This integrated comprehensive analysis of multi-proxy datasets has yielded an improved rock  
877 type classification and petrophysical parameter distribution in heterogeneous reservoirs.  
878 The main flow in the Abu Madi reservoir is related to fluvial channel deposits and tidally  
879 influenced fluvial channel units, which better-informs the next exploration and production  
880 phases. The results of this study also contribute to the overall geological understanding of  
881 the sedimentary and stratigraphical understanding of the Messinian system in the Nile Delta  
882 area. In-particular, the relationship between interpreted sedimentary facies and depositional  
883 environment, and the spatio-stratal distribution of reservoir quality contributes greatly to  
884 the overall improved understanding of the hydrocarbon system and reservoir typology in the  
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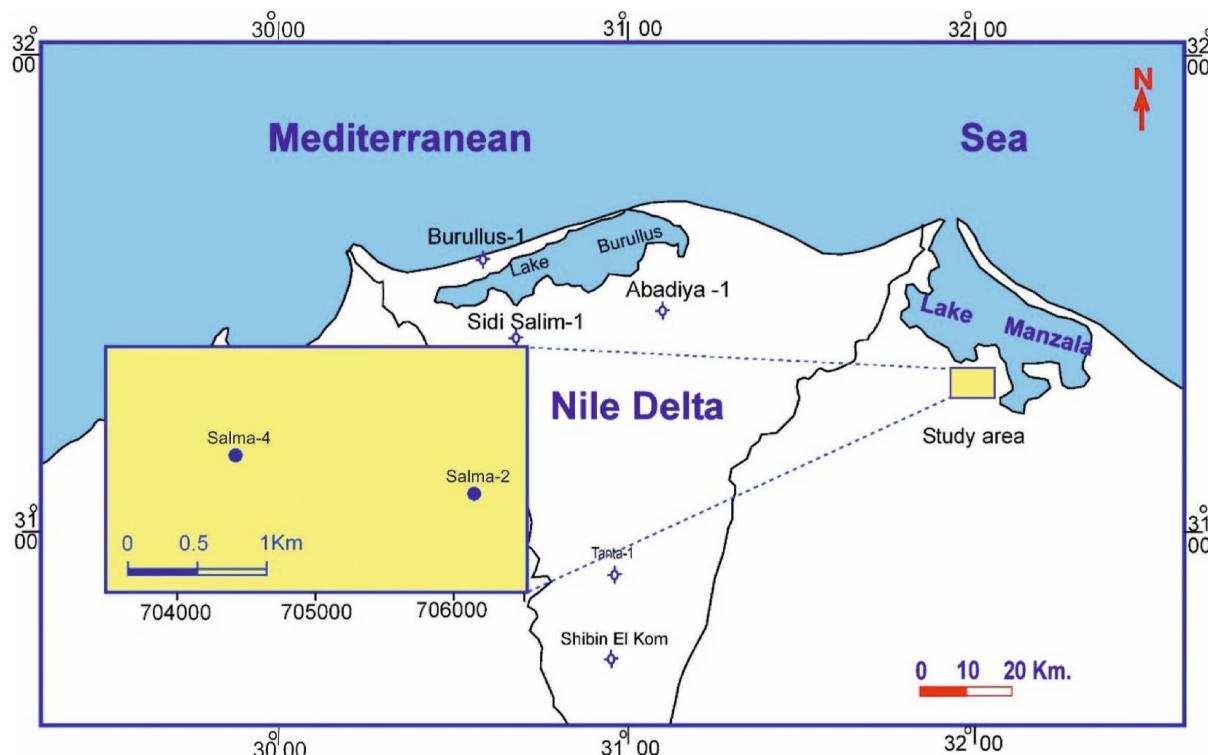
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 1373 *Sandstone diagenesis: Recent and ancient*, 4, 3-44.
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- 1378

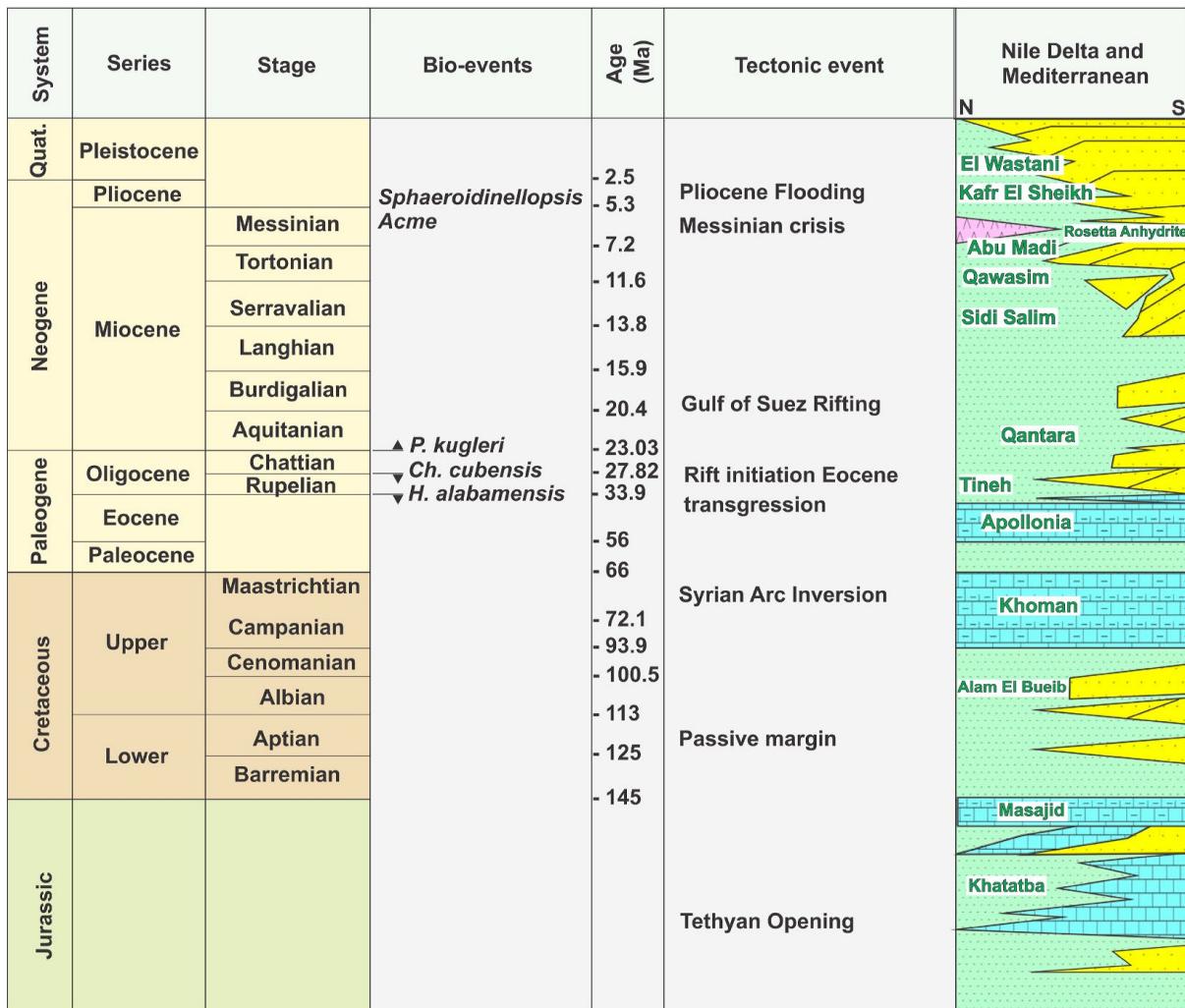
1379 **List of Figures**

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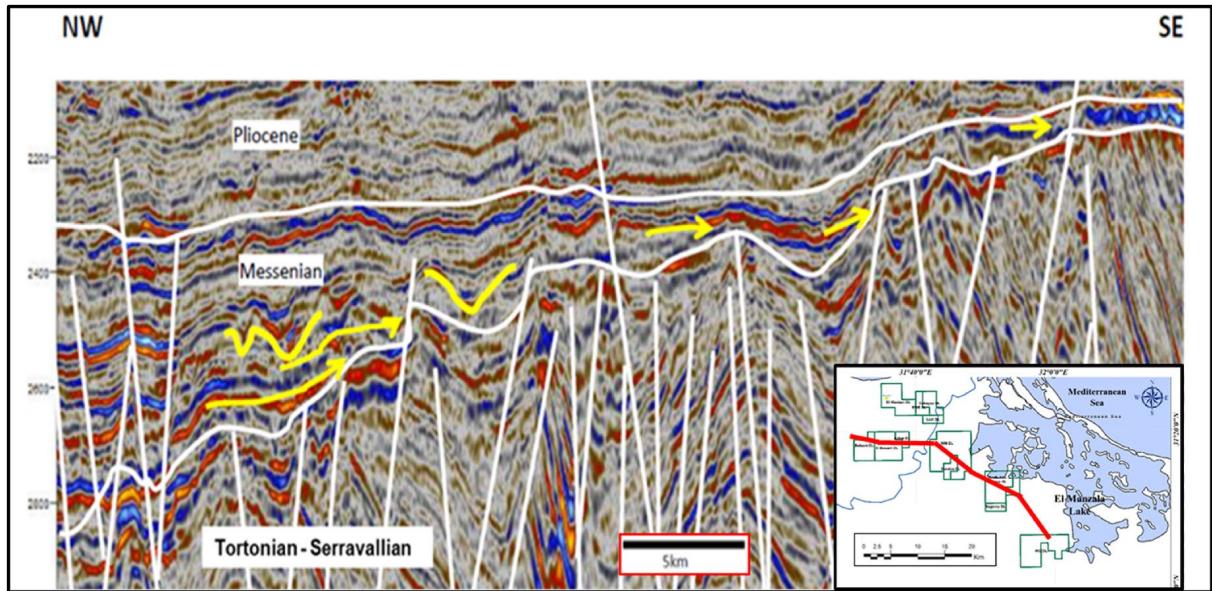
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1382 Fig.1: Location map of Salma Field.



1383

1384 *Fig.2: Tectonostratigraphic framework of the Nile Delta and Mediterranean (modified after*  
 1385 *Dolson et al., 2014). Ch. cubensis = Chiloguembelina cubensis; H. alabamensis*  
 1386 *=Hantkenina alabamensis; P. Kugleri = Paragloboratalia Kugleri; Quat. = Quaternary.*

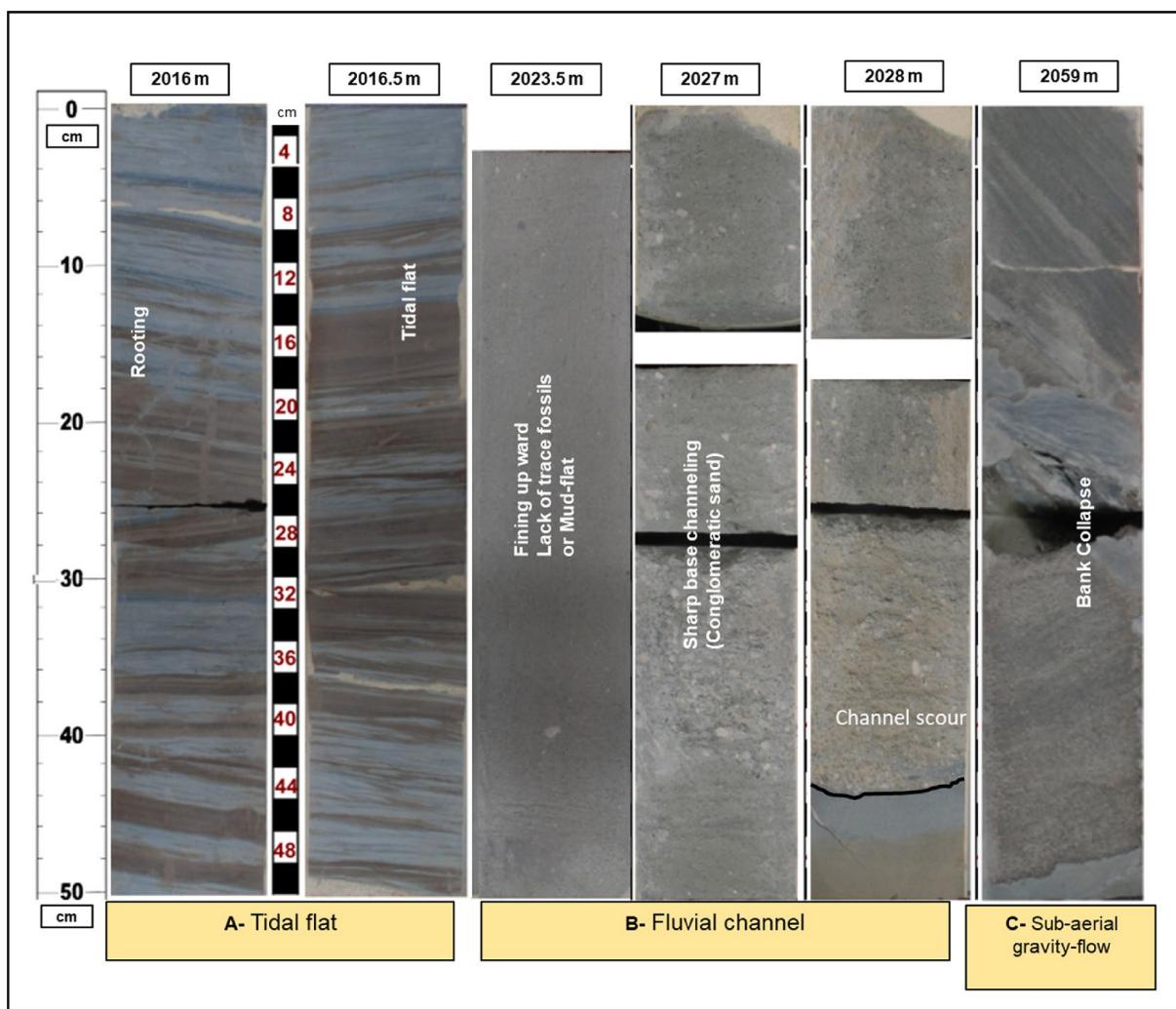


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1388 Fig. 3: Regional east Nile Delta Messenian depositional trends (Yehia et al., 2019).

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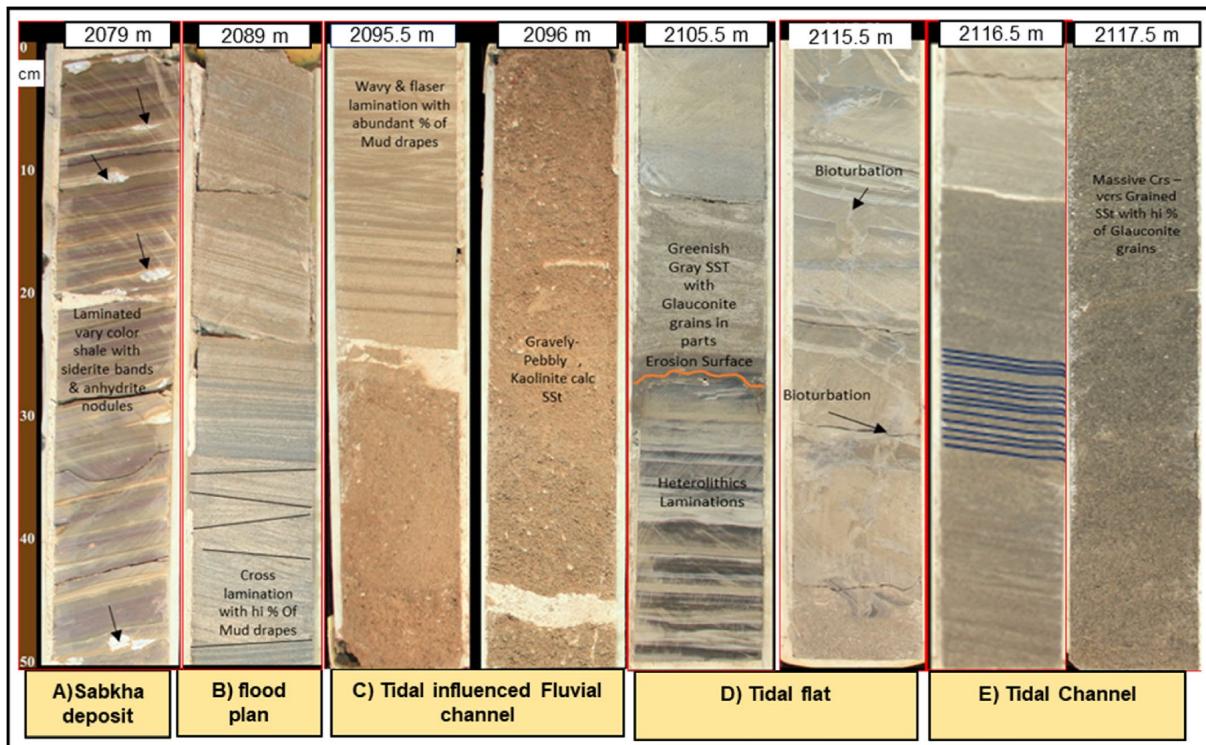
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1392 Fig. 4: Core photos showing the sedimentary facies of Abu Madi Formation in Salma-2 well.

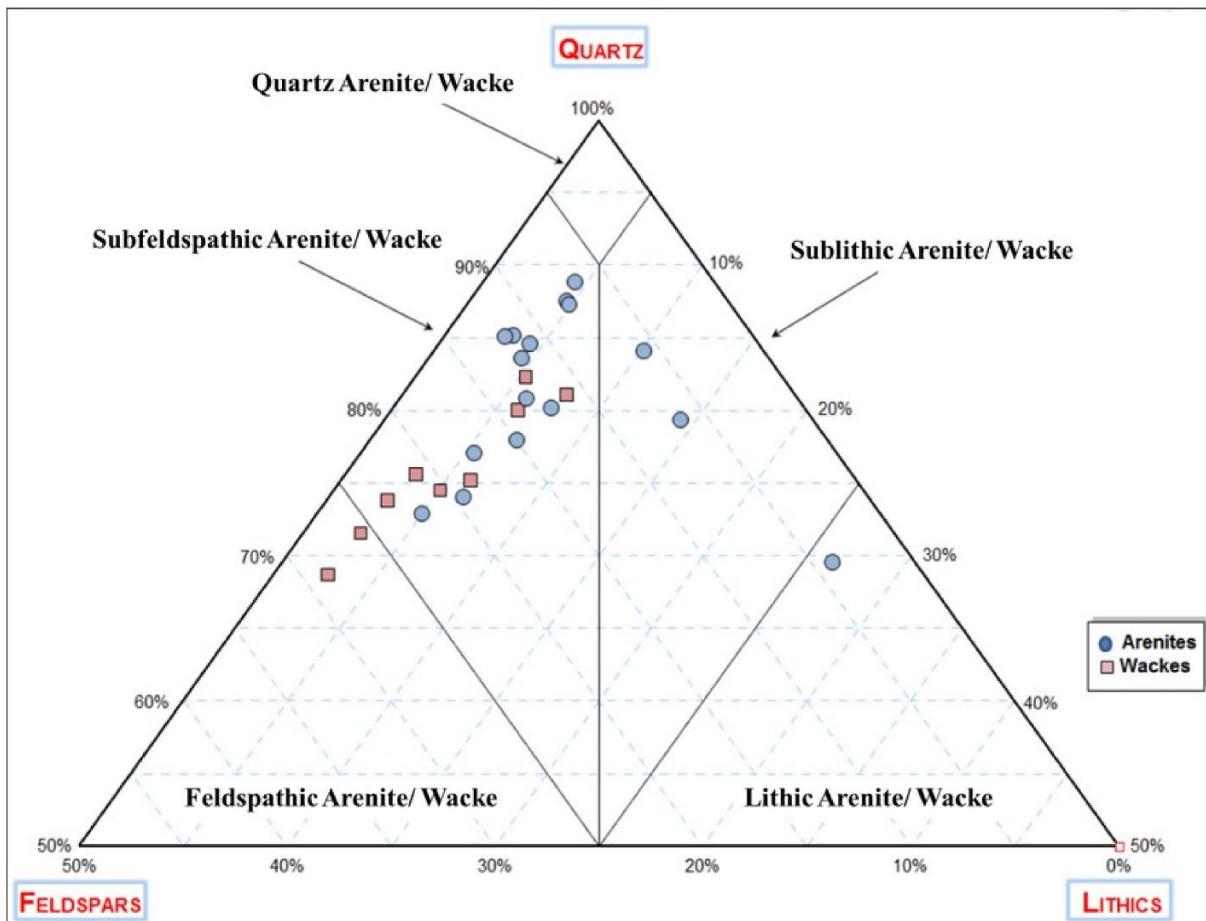
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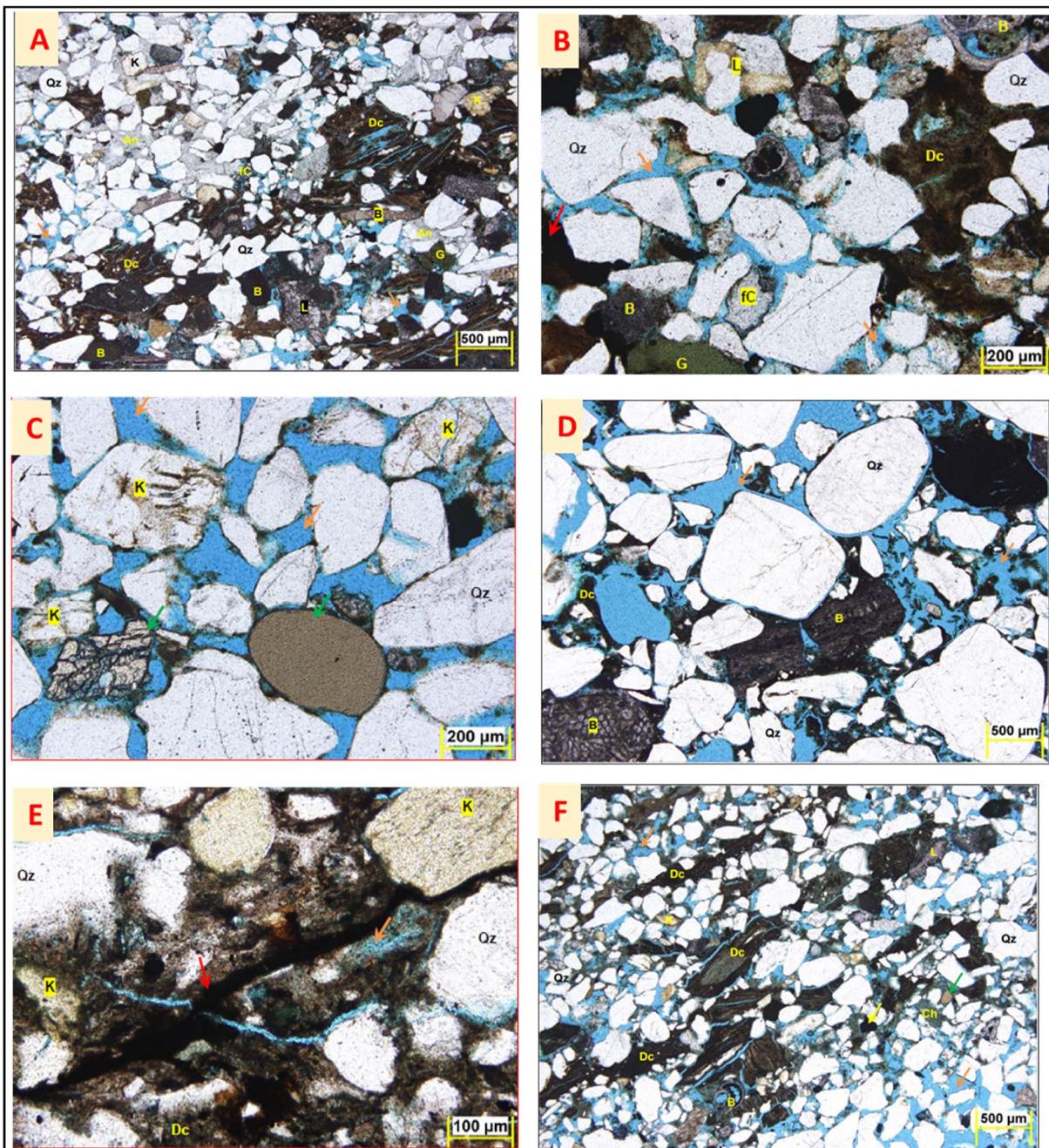
1395 Fig. 5: Core photos showing the sedimentary facies of Abu Madi Formation in Salma-4 well.

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1398 Fig. 6: Ternary plot showing detrital composition of Abu Madi Sandstone of Salma-4 well.



1399

1400 Fig. 7: Thin section microphotographs illustrating different sandstones microfacies of Abu  
 1401 Madi Formation (Mineral symbols: Anhydrite, An; Quartz, Qz ; K-feldspars, K;  
 1402 Glauconite, G ; Bioclasts , B ; Plagioclase feldspars , Ps; Lithic fragments , L ; Detrital  
 1403 clays , Dc ; Porosity (Orange Arrows), Heavy Minerals (Green Arrows), Residual  
 1404 Hydrocarbons (Red Arrows).

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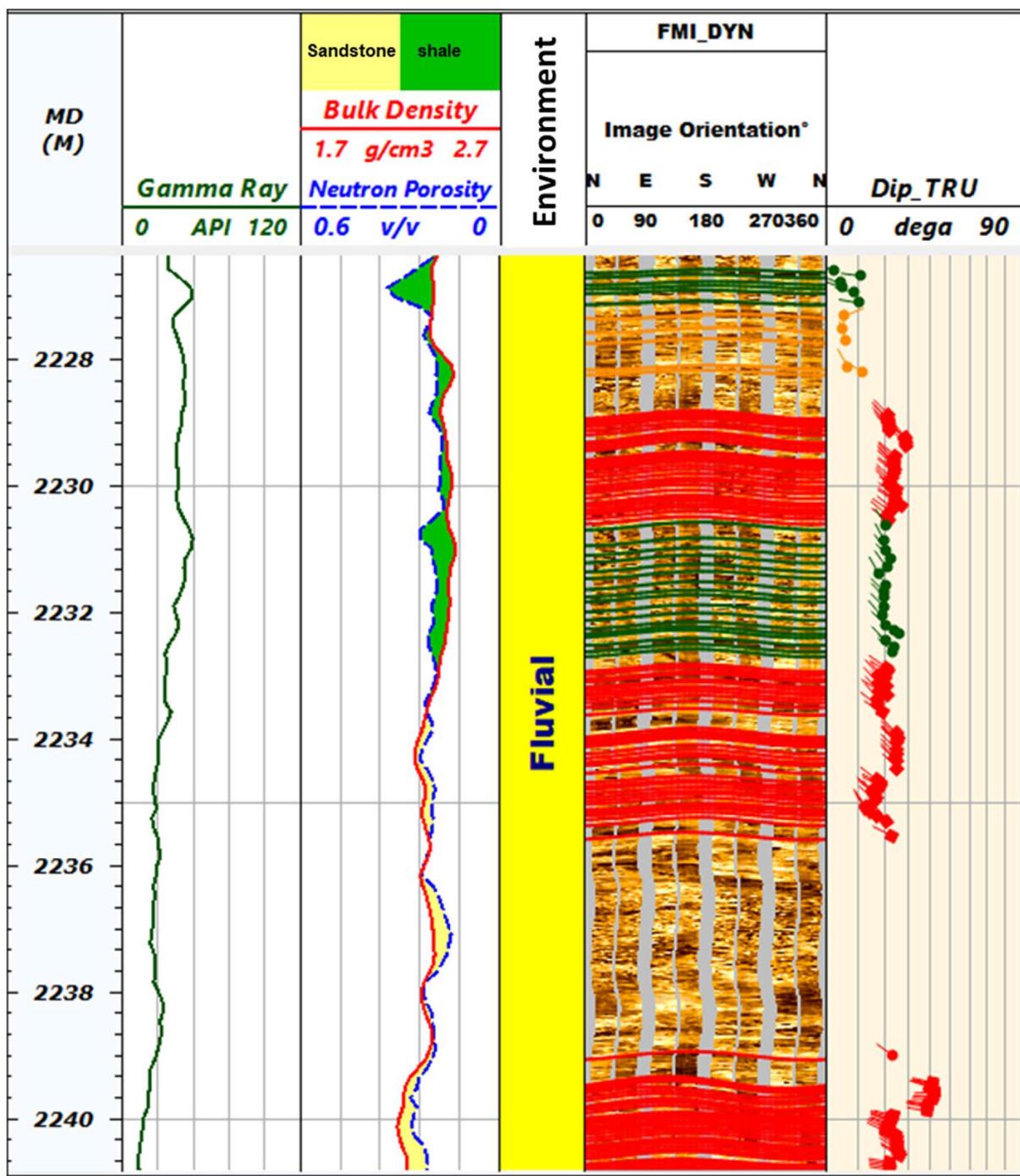


Fig. 8: FMI interpretation showing Abu Madi sedimentary facies (Fluvial channel) in Salma-4 well.

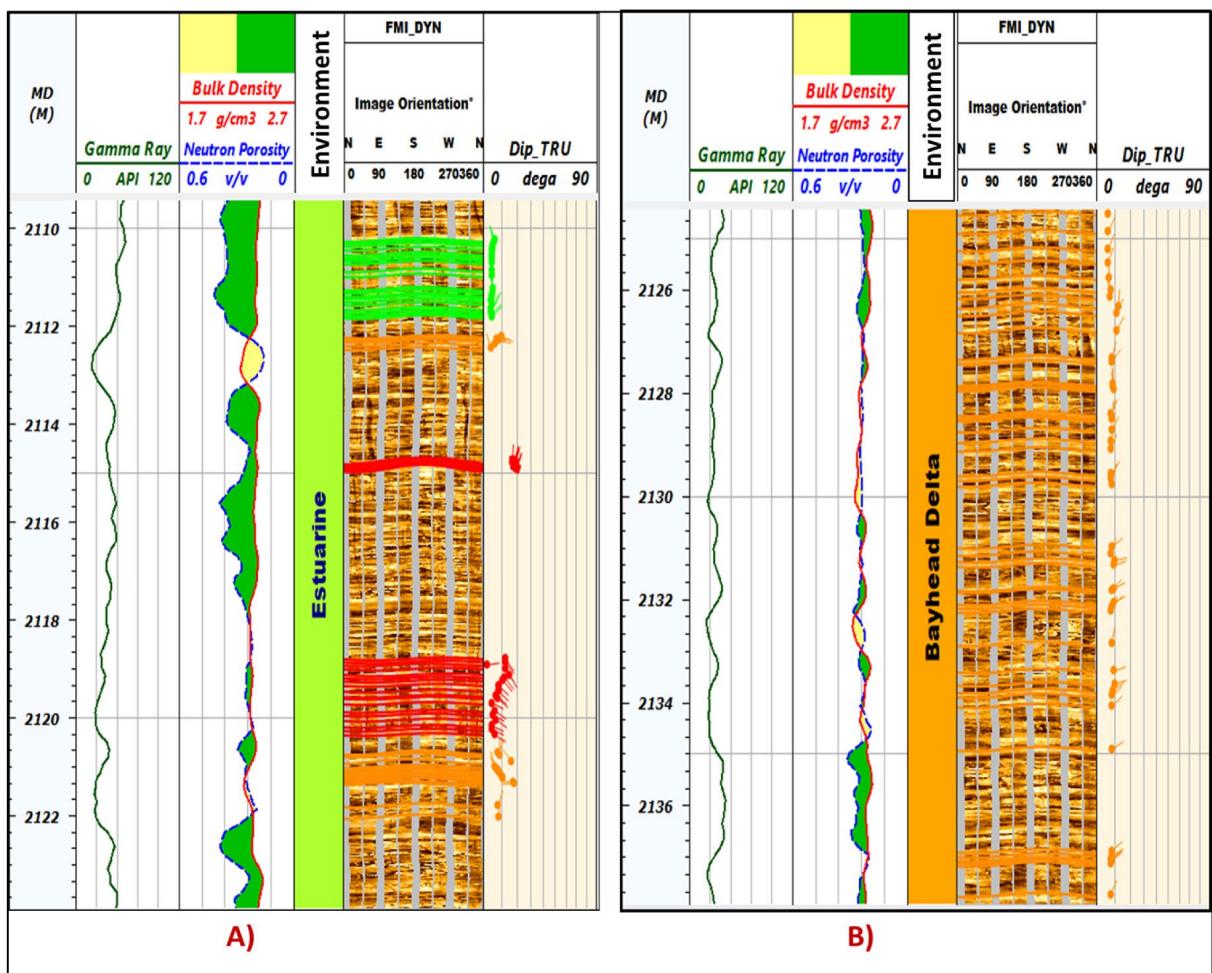


Fig. 9: FMI interpretation showing Abu Madi sedimentary facies (Tidal channel) in Salma-4 well.

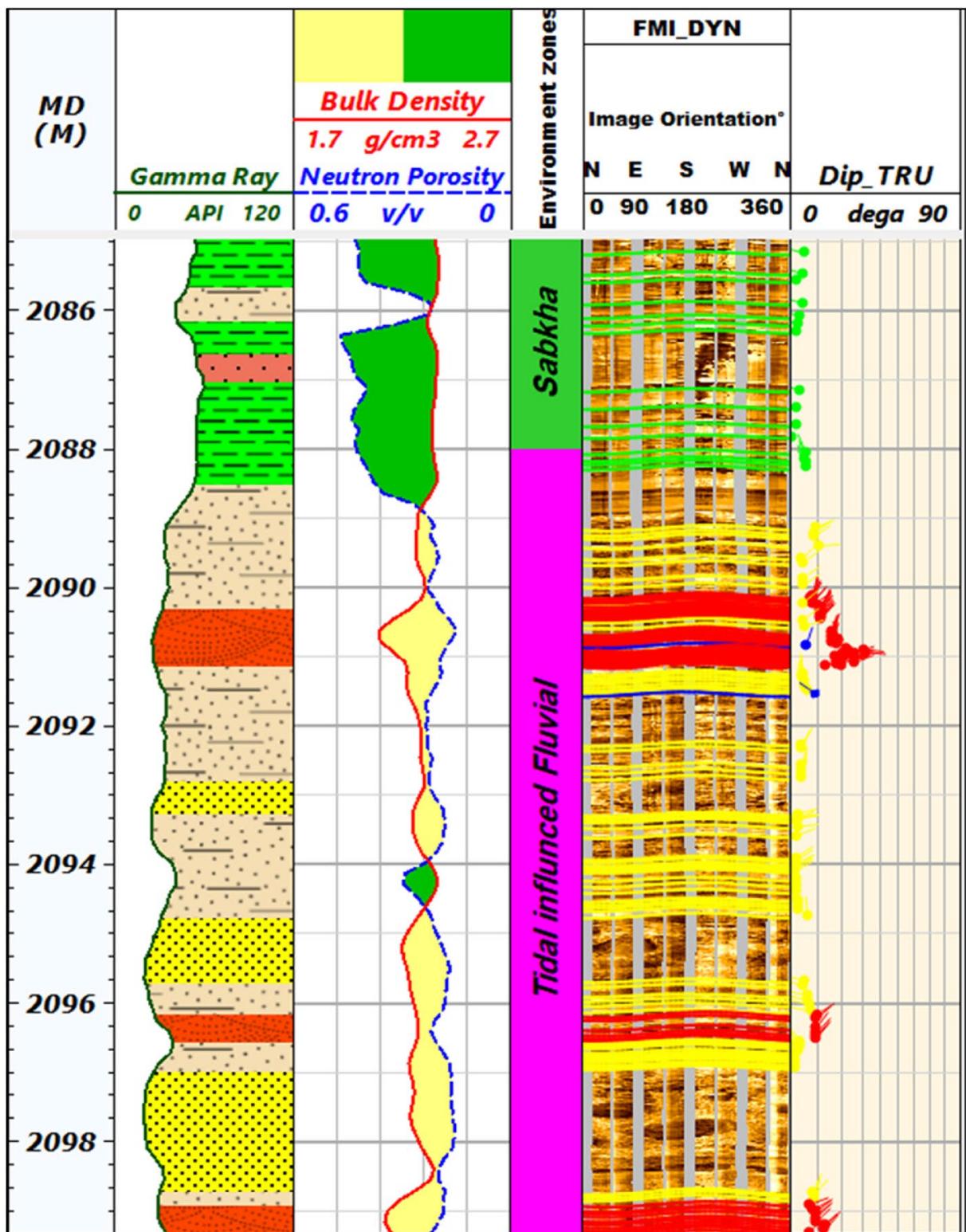
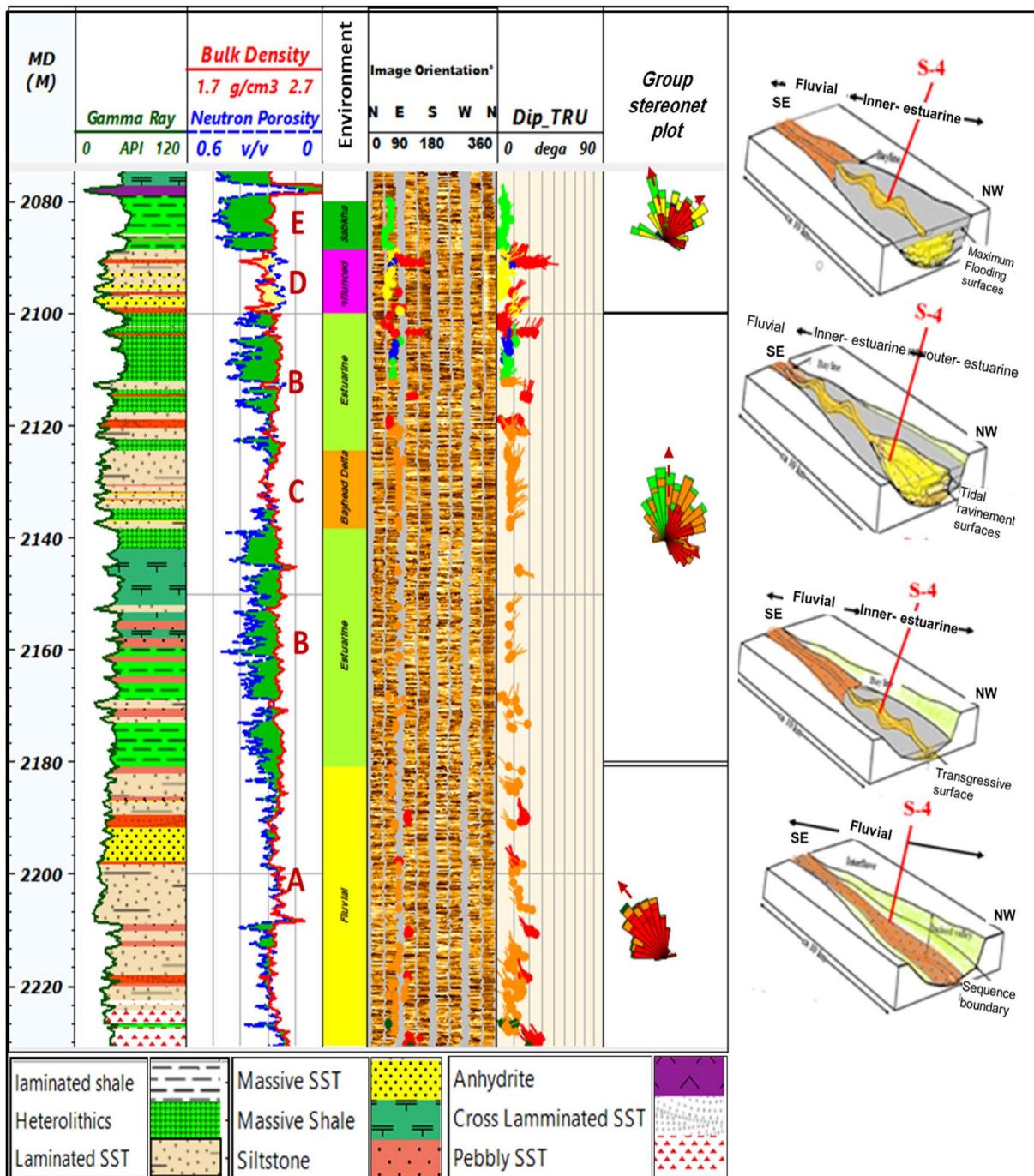
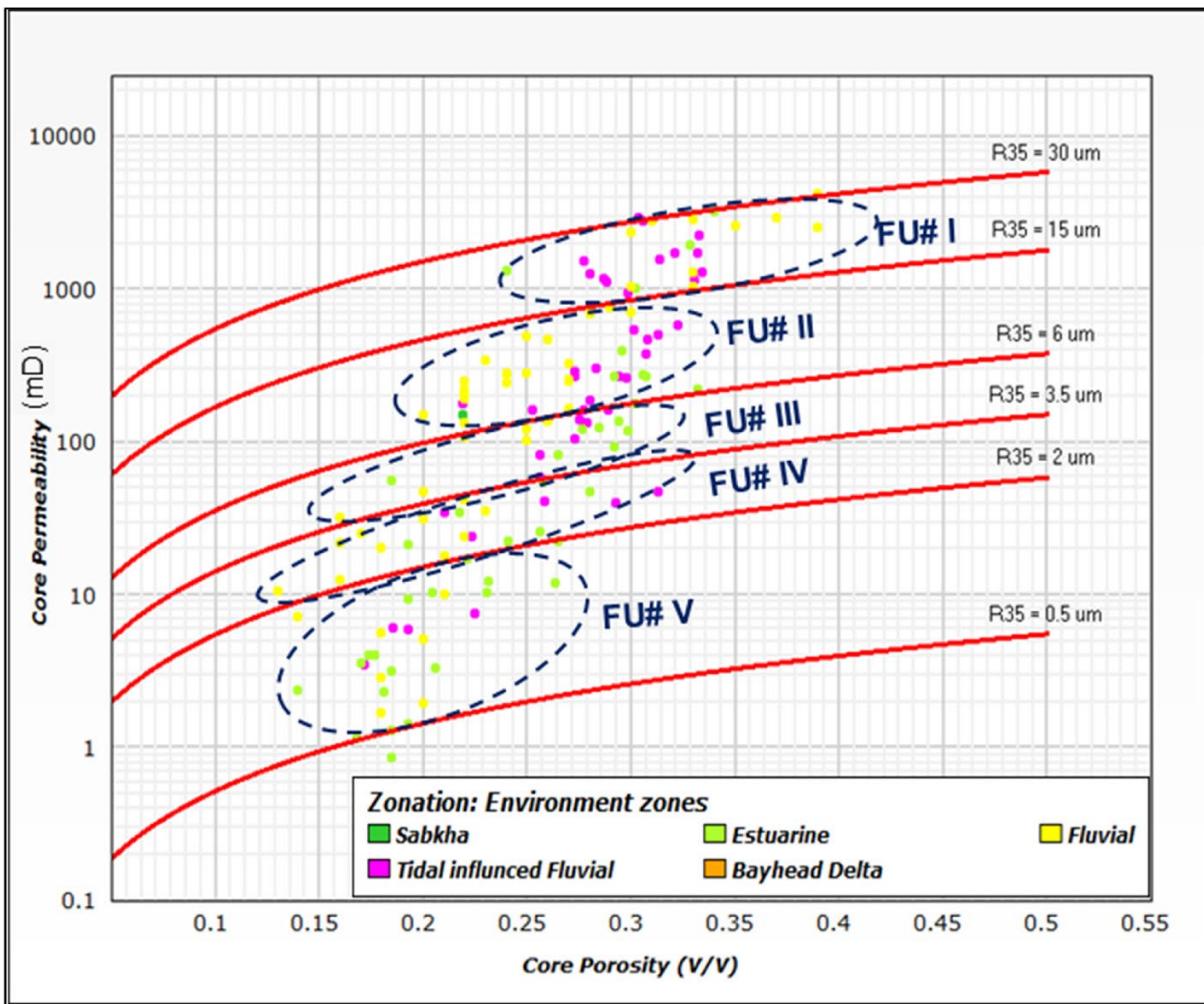


Fig. 10: FMI interpretation showing Abu Madi sedimentary facies (bayhead delta) in Salma-4 well.

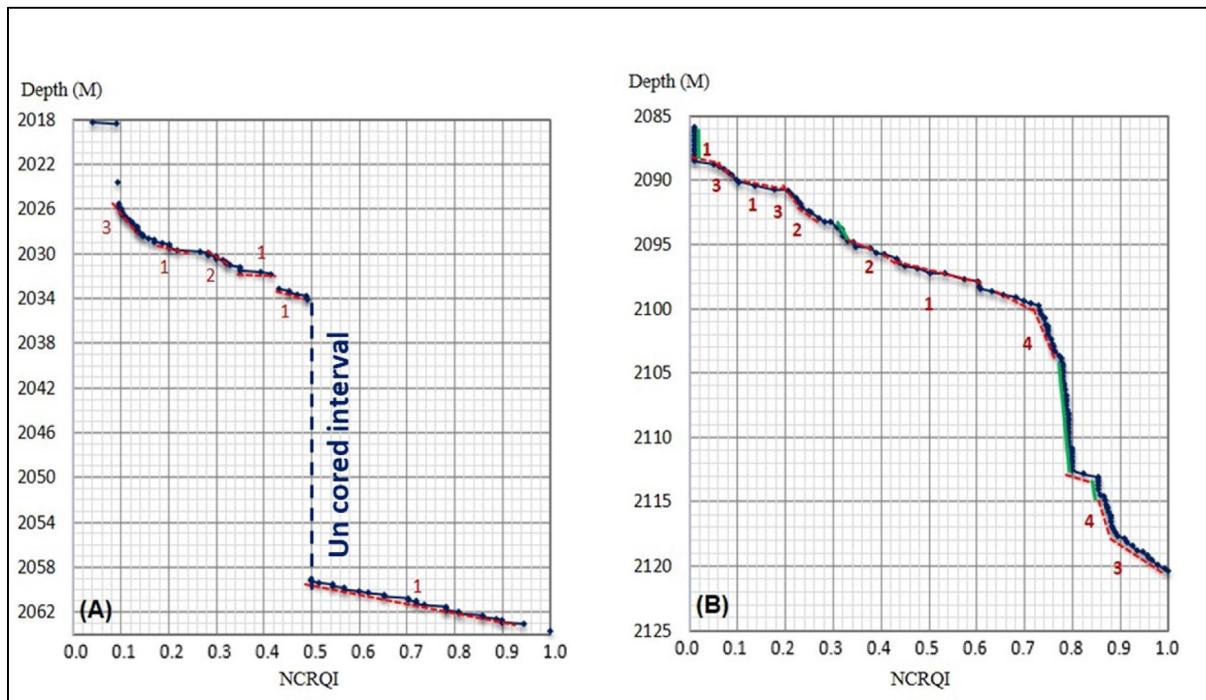


1419 Fig. 11: Composite FMI interpretation showing Abu Madi sedimentary facies and depositional  
1420 model in Salma-4 well.

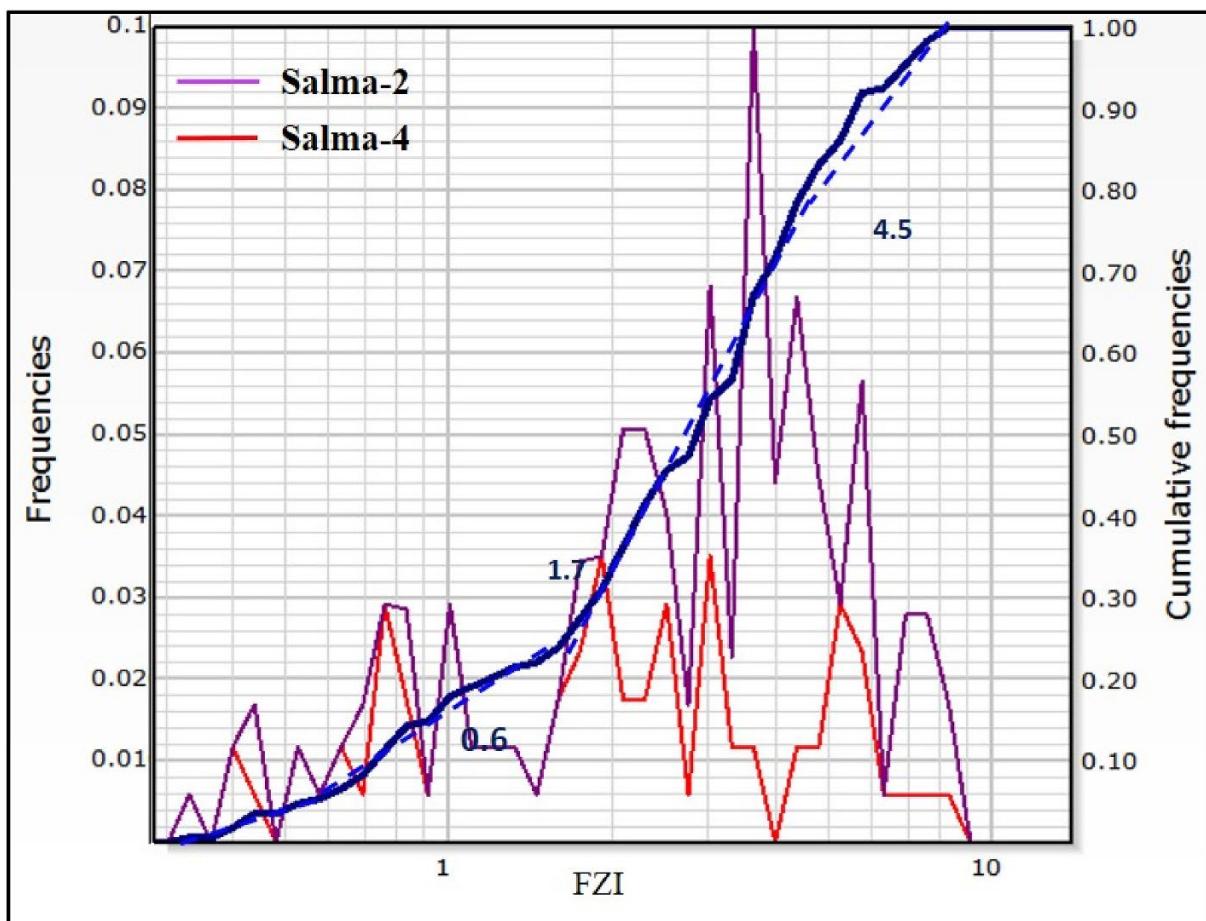


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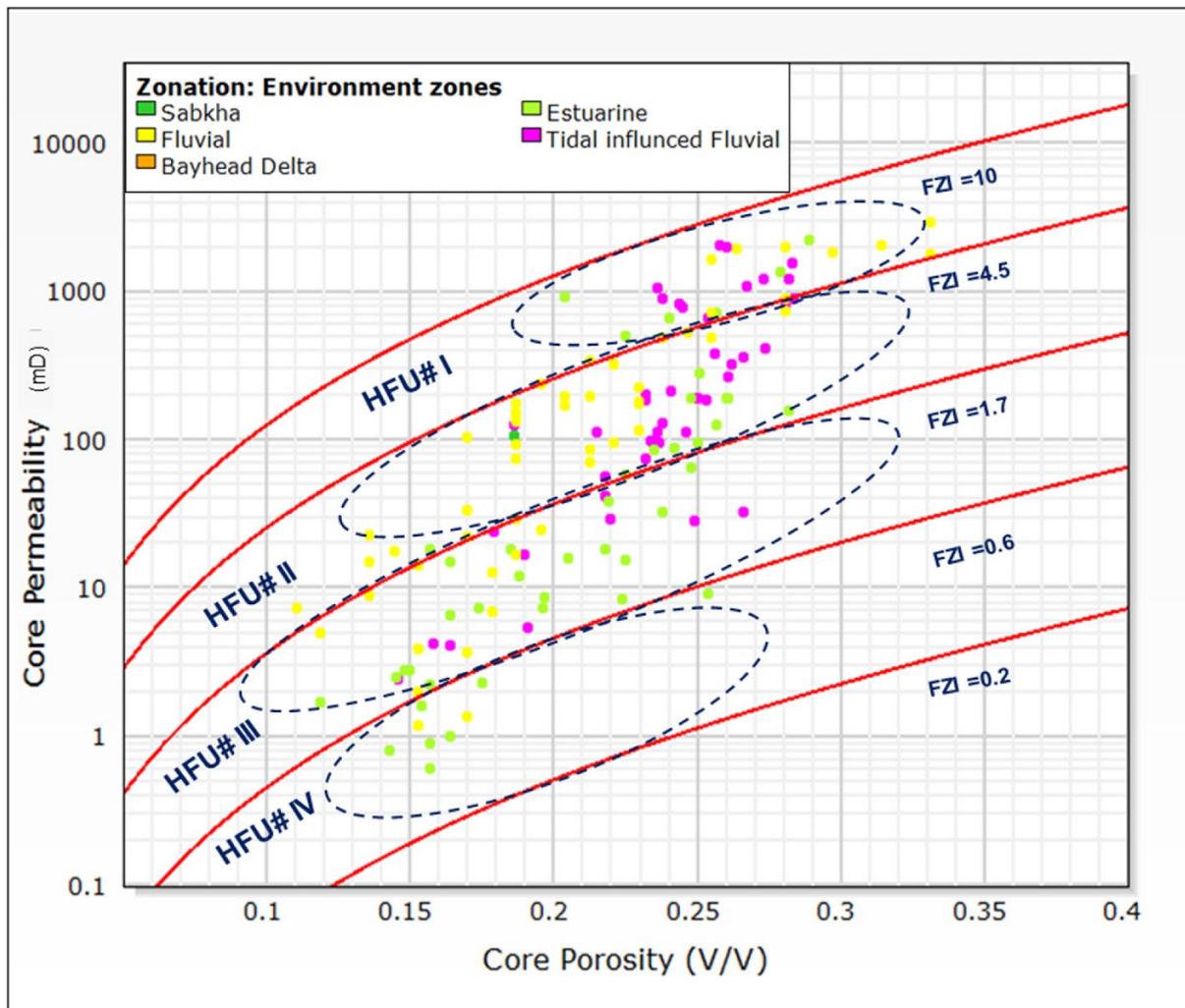
1422 Fig.12: Porosity vs. permeability cross plot for Abu Madi sedimentary facies (The colored lines  
 1423 are R35 pore throat radii).



1424  
1425 Fig.13: NCRQI – Depth Cross plot for Abu Madi sedimentary facies; (A) Salma-2 well, (B)  
1426 Salma-4 well.

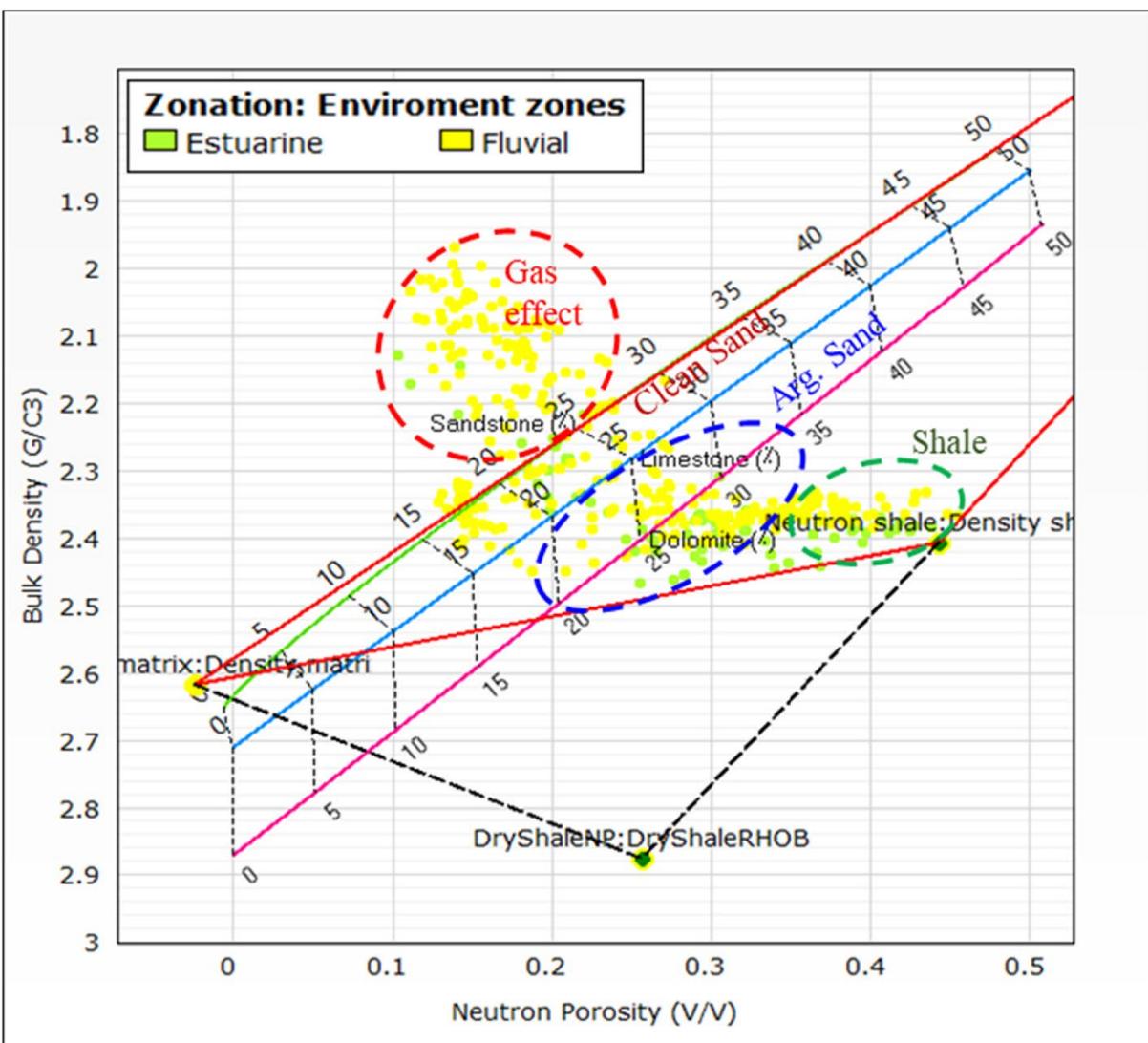


1427  
1428 Fig.14: Core FZI distribution and cumulative curves for Abu Madi in Salma-2 and Salma-4  
1429 wells.



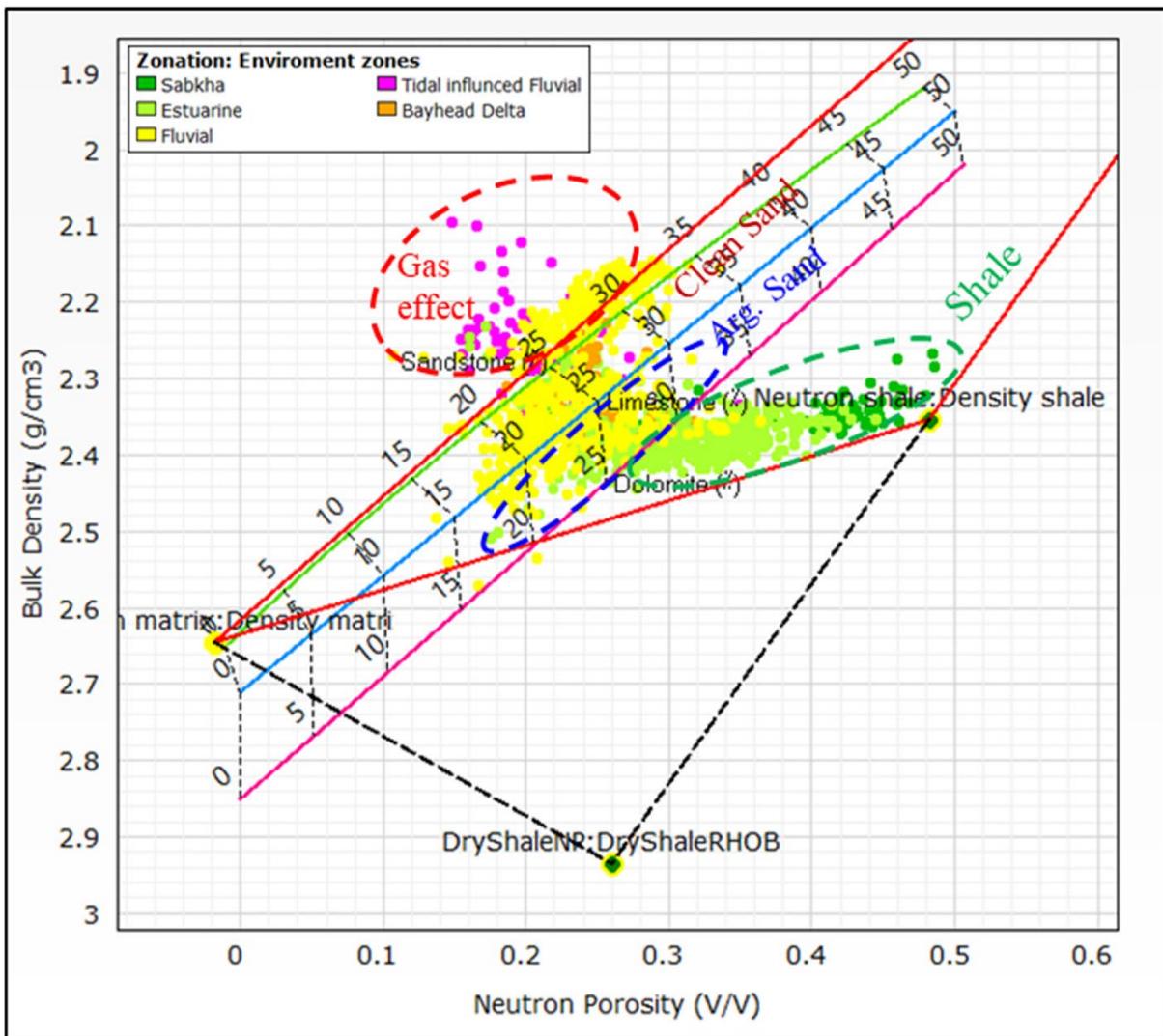
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1431 Fig.15: porosity vs. horizontal permeability Cross plot for Hydraulic flow units (HFU) of Abu  
1432 Madi sedimentary facies.



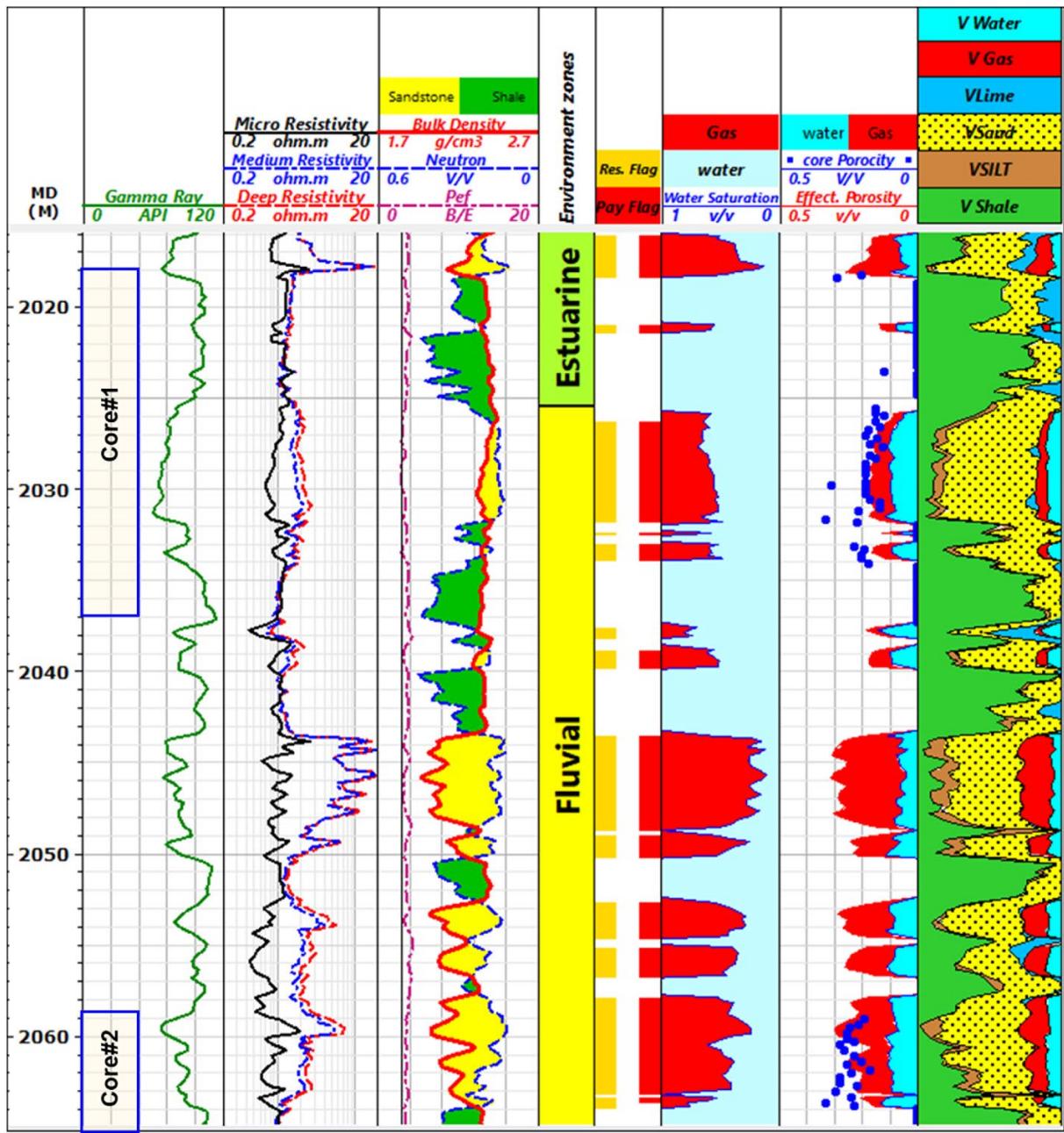
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1434 Fig.16: Density- neutron cross plot for Salma-2 well.

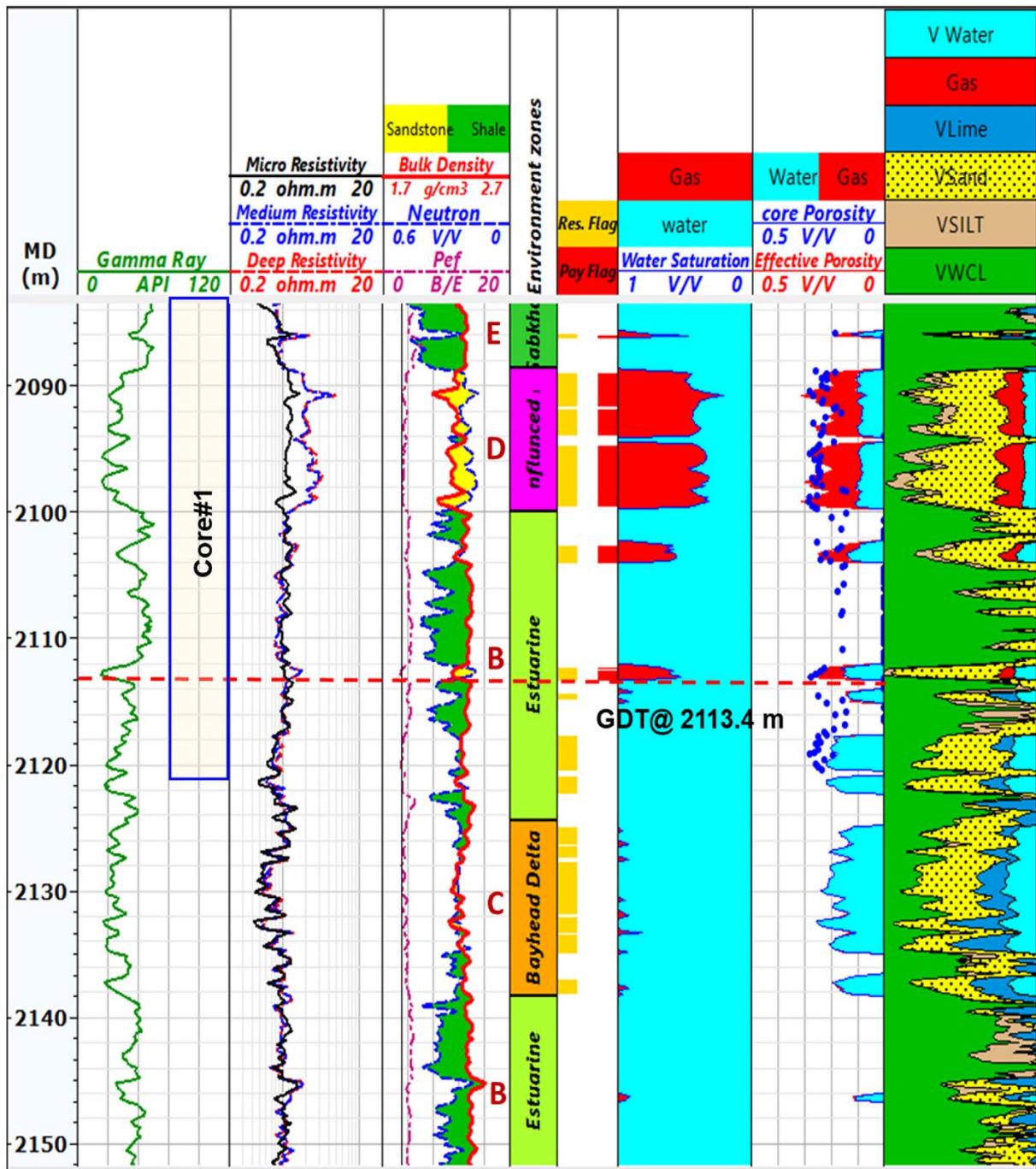


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1436 Fig.17: Density- neutron cross plot for Salma-4 well



1438 Fig.18: Composite logs showing porosity, water saturation, lithology, and depositional  
1439 environment for Abu Madi Formation in Salma-2 well.



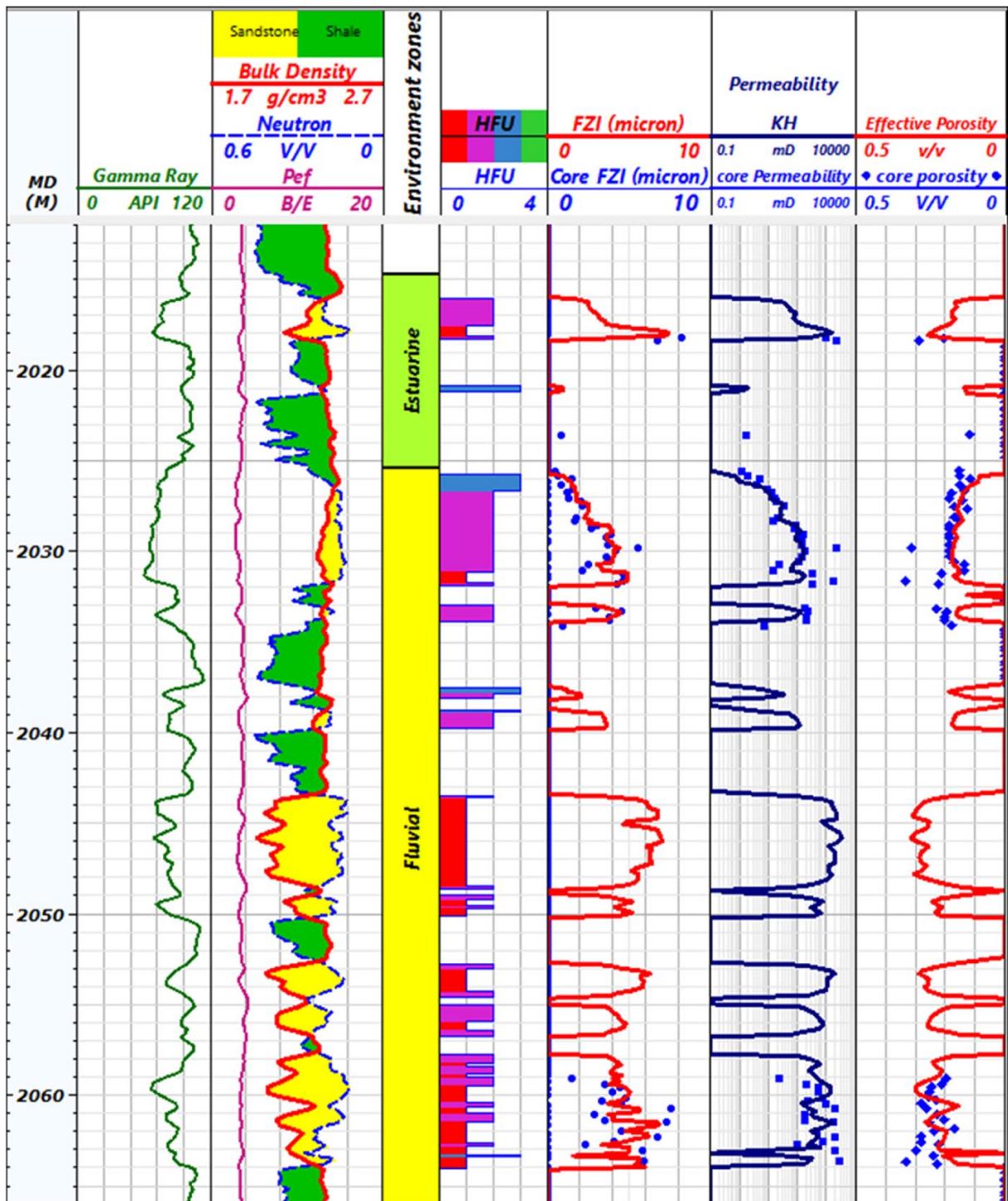
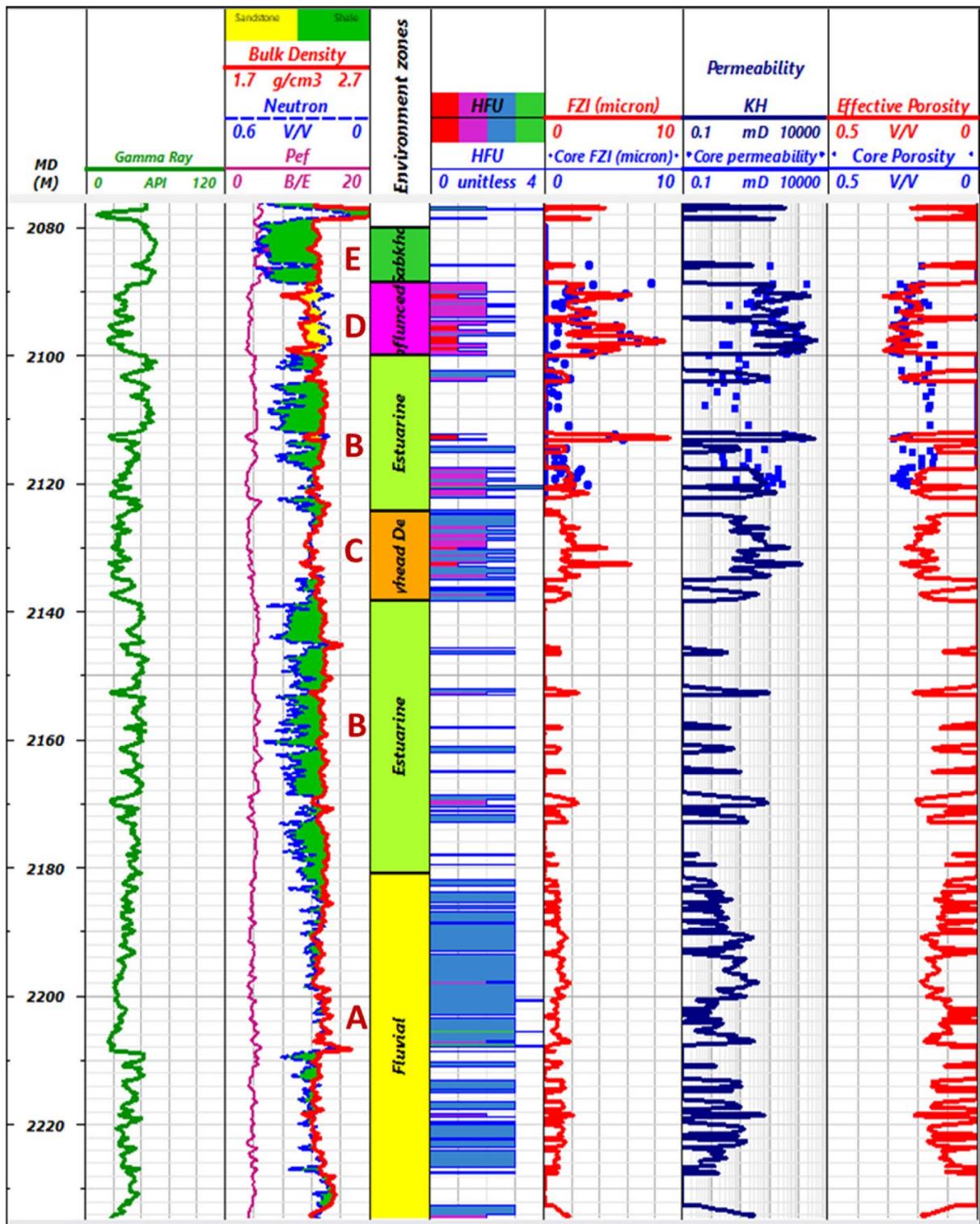
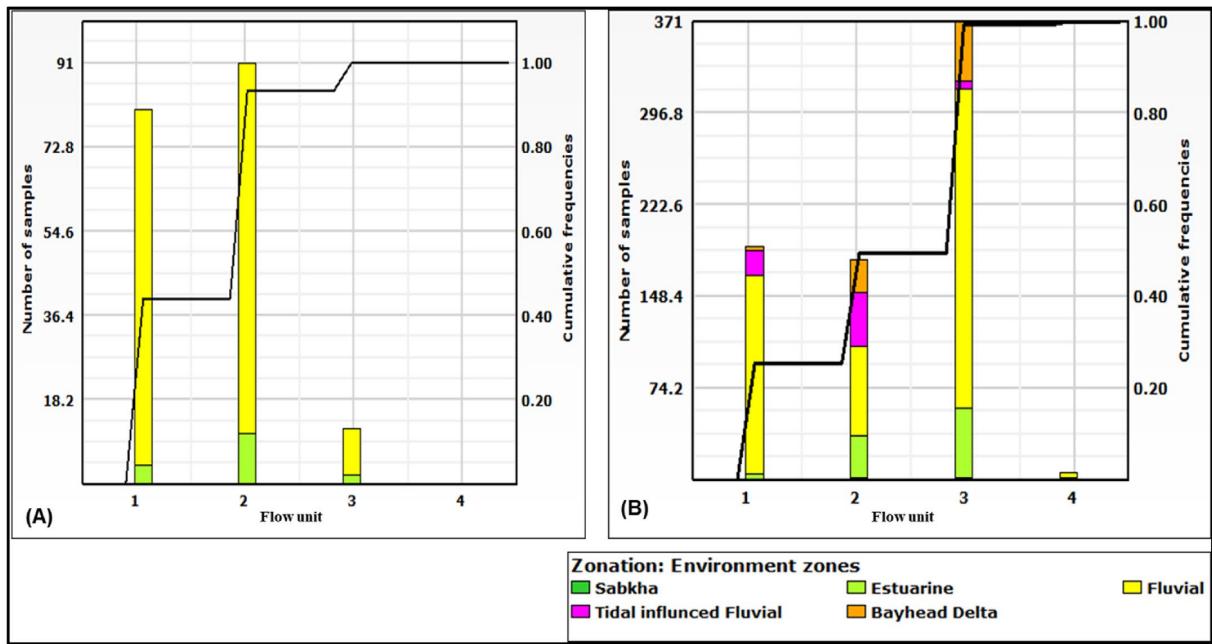


Fig.20: Composite log from neural log showing porosity, permeability, FZI, HFU and depositional environment for Abu Madi Formation in Salma-2 well.

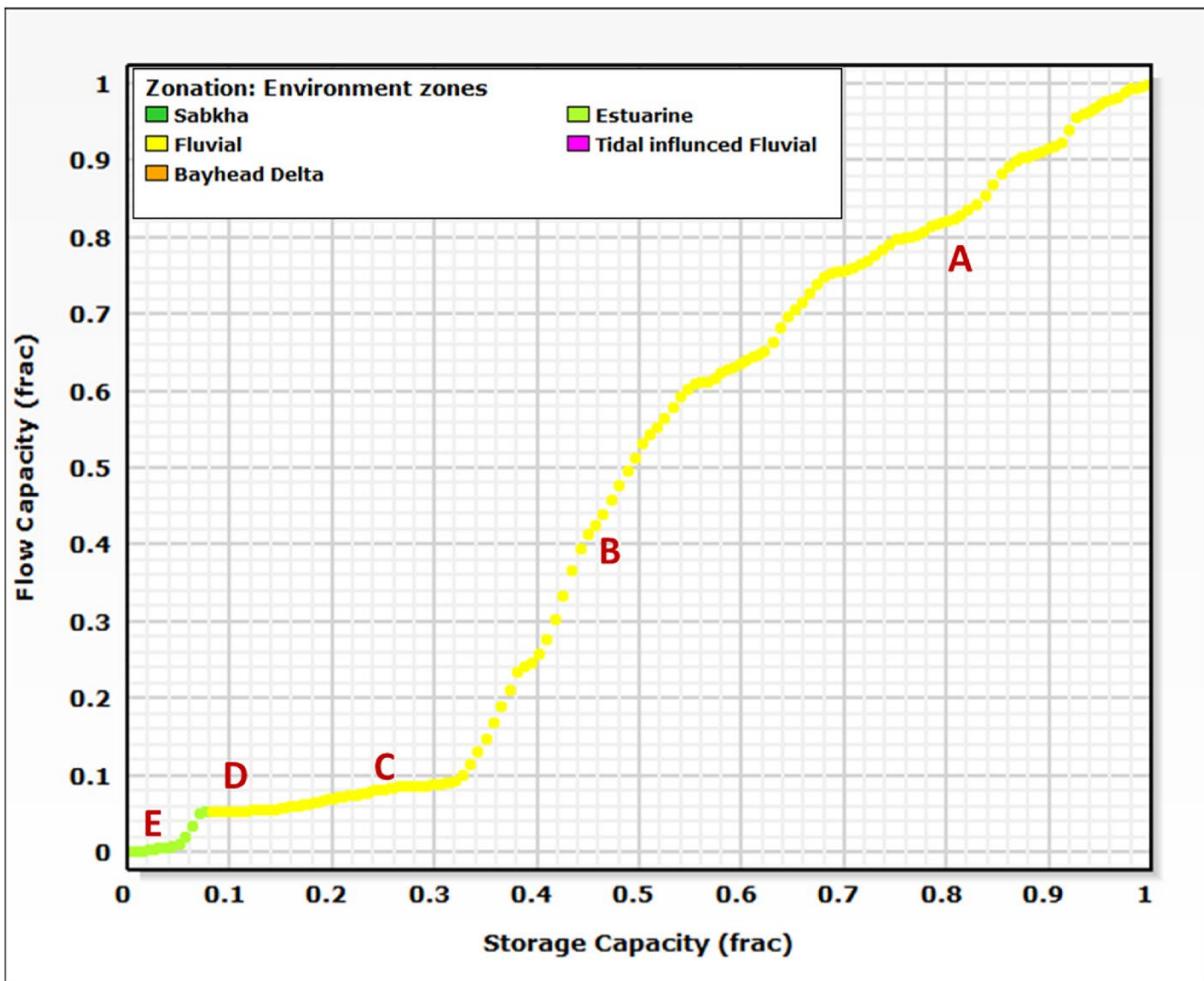


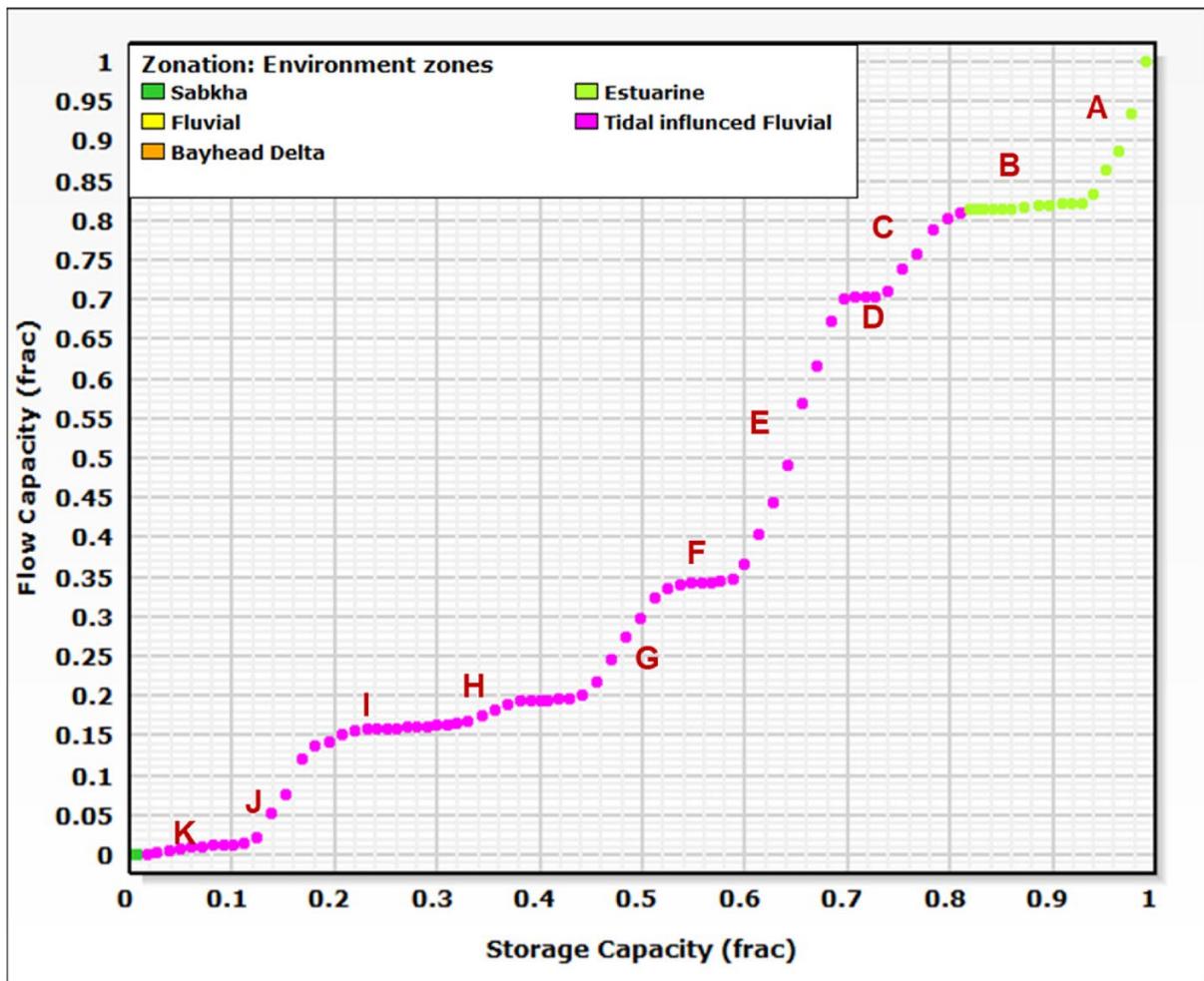
1446  
1447 Fig.21: Composite log from neural log showing porosity, permeability, FZI, HFU and  
1448 depositional environment for Abu Madi Formation in Salma-4 well.  
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1452 Fig.22: Hydraulic Flow units showing their distributions related to different reservoir units  
1453 and environment; (A) Salma-2, (B) Salma-4 wells.





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Fig.24: Stratigraphic modified Lorenz plot (SMLP) for Messinian reservoir in Salma-4 well.