



Reservoir Evaluation of the Tertiary Succession in Selected Wells at Ajeel Oilfield, Northern Mesopotamian Basin, NE Iraq

Abbas F. Gharib^{1,2} · Ali Müjdat Özkan³

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Abstract

In the present study, a total of forty-five rock samples, well-logs data, and 3 crude-oil samples from reservoir rocks, in addition to 70 rock samples from Jurassic–Cretaceous source rocks, are used to assess the Tertiary succession in the Ajeel oilfield. Examined thin sections prepared from core rock samples collected from several wells within the Ajeel oilfield indicated the presence of several microfacies in which different types of porosity such as intraparticle, interparticle, moldic, and vugs have been detected. Moreover, different diagenetic features, including cementation, dolomitization, recrystallization, dissolution, and microfractures, indicate that the examined formations were deposited in a marine depositional environment. Cross-plots of several well-logging data showed that Tertiary reservoir rocks can be divided into eight reservoir units composed predominantly of limestone, dolomitic limestone, and thin beds of anhydrite beds. In the majority of wells, these units had a total and effective porosity of up to 32.0% and 30%, respectively. A wide range of variation is observed in water saturation with the lowest being 5% and higher hydrocarbon contents, indicating that these formations are the main reservoirs in the Mesopotamian Basin. The geochemical investigation of crude-oils recognized paraffinic (medium-light), and sour crude-oils, which are originated mainly from marine-origin organic matters. Palynofacies examination showed that source rocks in the Mesopotamian Basin deposited mainly in distal suboxic-anoxic and distal dysoxic-oxic conditions with kerogen Type II (oil-prone), indicating that Jurassic–Cretaceous succession represents main sources rocks in northern Iraq.

Keywords Reservoir evaluation · Ajeel oilfield · Hydrocarbon-bearing zones · Tertiary succession · Jurassic–Cretaceous succession · Paraffinic crude-oils

Introduction

This research examines Iraq's oil-and-gas-producing Tigris subzone, which is situated in the Mesopotamian Basin's northern Tikrit governorate. Iraq is the Middle East's hydrocarbon-richest country and an OPEC leader, with proven oil reserves of up to 133 billion barrels and natural gas reserves

of up to 110 trillion cubic feet (Horn 2003, 2004; Verma et al. 2004). It contains multiple petroleum systems spanning the Paleozoic, Mesozoic, and Cenozoic eras, making it one of the Middle East's largest producers of hydrocarbons, with the major oilfields situated within Mesopotamian–Zagros basins (Ahlbrandt et al. 2000; Pitman et al. 2004; Verma et al. 2004).

The Mesopotamian Basin, which encompasses Iraq, Kuwait, and Iran, is one of the world's most significant hydrocarbon basins (Fig. 1). Petroleum exploration in this Basin is started by Iraqi Oil Companies (IOC) approximately in late 1920. It contains many important oilfields, such as Majnoon, West Qurna, Nah Umr, Rumaila, Subba, Ratawi, Zubair, Balad, East Baghdad, Ajeel, and Tikrit Oilfields (Fig. 1), and this Basin has attracted the attention of academic researchers and the oil and gas industry due to its potential for conventional petroleum investigations and development (Altameemi and Alzaidy 2018; Mamaseni et al. 2018; Hamdullaa et al. 2018; Abeer et al. 2019; Al-Khafaji et al. 2021; Gharib et al.

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✉ Abbas F. Gharib
abass.falah@sadiq.edu.iq; abbas_falah1987720@yahoo.com

¹ Department of Oil and Gas Economics, College of Administrative and Financial Science, Imam Ja'afar Al-Sadiq University, Baghdad, Iraq

² Geological Engineering Department, Selçuk University, Selçuklu, Konya, Turkey

³ Geological Engineering Department, Konya Technical University, 42250 S Konya, Turkey

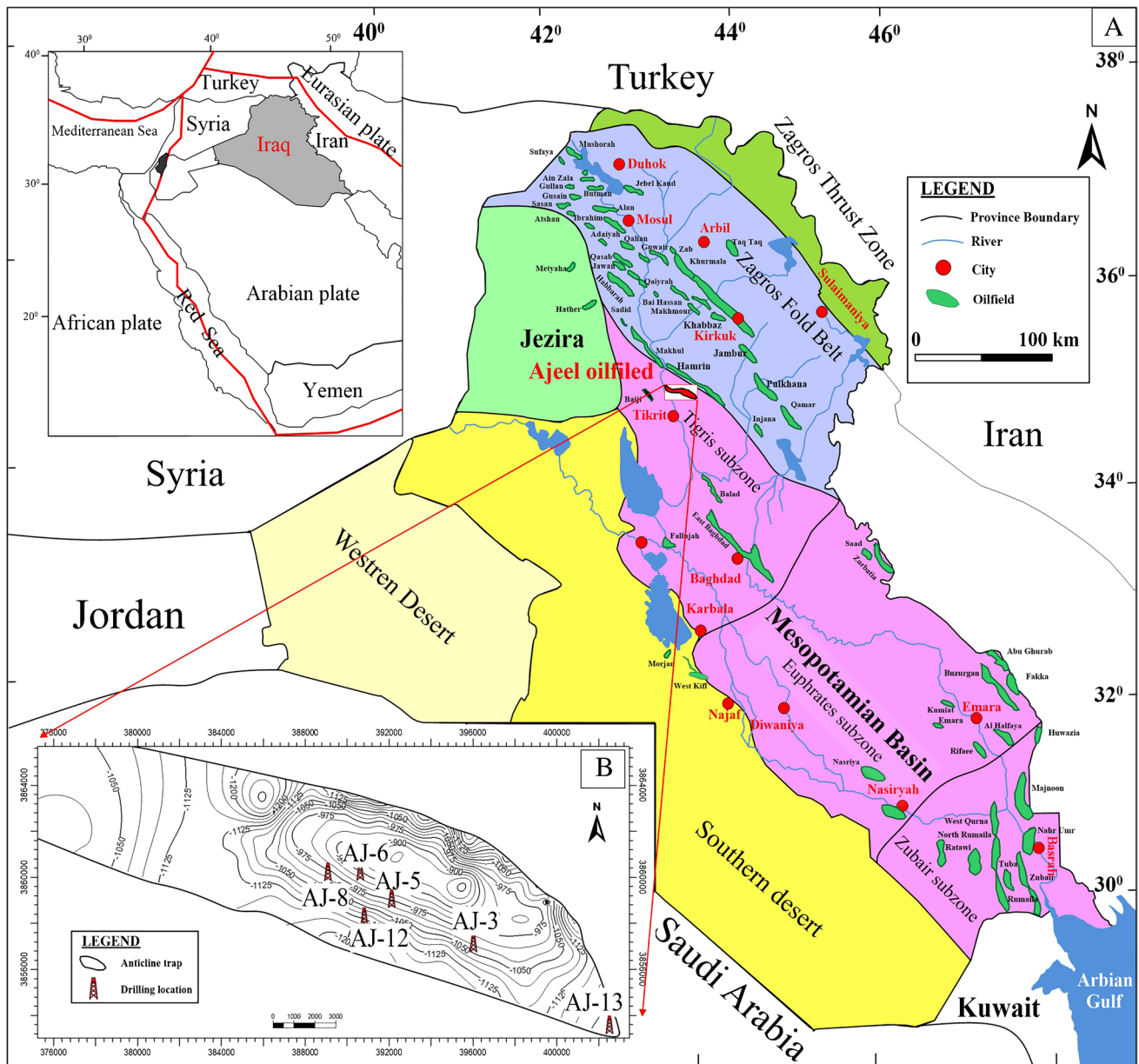
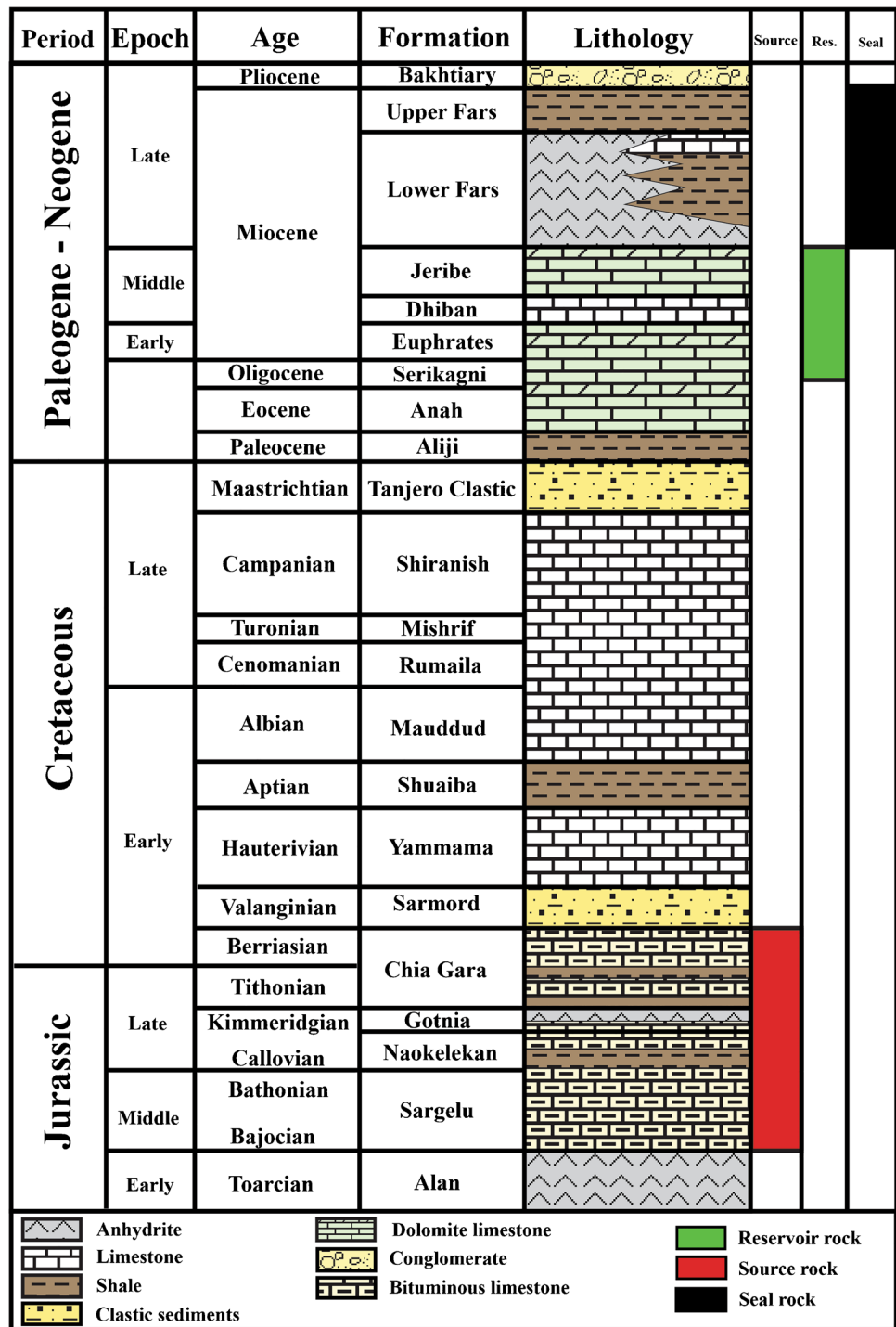


Fig. 1 A Location map of studied area B Structural contour map and well locations

2021). Previous studies have evaluated the reservoir characterization and sedimentology of the cretaceous formations in central and southern Iraq (e.g., Al-Fandi et al. 2020; Alta-meemi and Alzaidy 2018; Mamaseni et al. 2018; Mohammed et al. 2021, 2022). Stratigraphic correlation and depositional setting of Miocene Euphrates and Jeribe formations in northern and southern Iraq have been studied by Ctyrokey and Karim (1971); Hussein et al. (2017); Ahmed et al. (2021); and Abdullah et al. (2019). However, no detailed reservoir characteristics investigations have been undertaken within a well-logging and geochemical context of the Ajeel oilfield (discovered in the 1970s) which prompted the present research.

The study area is presented by Ajeel oilfield in the north-western part of the Mesopotamian Basin, NE Iraq (Fig. 1), containing communicating carbonate reservoirs with primary production from the carbonate units of the Tertiary Serikagni, Euphrates, Dhiban, and Jeribe formations (Fig. 2), while Jurassic and Cretaceous organic-rich marine carbonate and shale successions including Sargelu, Naokelekan/Najmah, Gotnia, and Chia Gara formations are the main sources of hydrocarbons in the Iraqi petroleum region (Alsharhan and Nairn 1997; Pitman et al. 2004; Al-Ameri and Zumberge 2013; Badics and Aqrawi 2015). Therefore, this study tries to find genetic links between Tertiary reservoir rocks and

Fig. 2 The stratigraphic columnar shows lithostratigraphic units of the Ajeel oilfield



source rocks in producing Ajeel field. In this regard, there are a total of 45 rock samples, well-logging data of four wells, and three crude-oils from Tertiary reservoir rocks, as well as 70 core and cutting samples, from Jurassic–Cretaceous succession.

The current study aims to determine (1) the lithology, depositional environment, diagenesis, porosity types identification,

(2) total (PHIT) and secondary porosity (PHIE) estimation, (3) shale content (V_{CL}) measurements, (4) water saturation (S_w), and bulk volume of water (B_{VW} , $B_{VW}S_{XO}$) determination, (5) crude-oil characterization, and (6) palynological evaluation in order to conclude the depositional environment and predict hydrocarbon-generation potential of these formations in the Mesopotamian Basin, NE Iraq.

Geological background

Iraq is sandwiched among the Iranian–Turkish and Arabian Plates (Fig. 1a), with the N-NE edges restricted by the Taurus and Zagros sutures, and the NW-SW edge is bounded by the Dead and the Red Seas, respectively (Beydoun 1991; Sadooni and Aqrabi 2000). Ajeel oilfield is situated inside the Tigris subzone, about 35 km north of Tikrit governorate at the northwest margin of the Mesopotamian, NE Iraq, with a symmetrical anticline of the NW–SE trending axis (Fig. 1). The anticlinal structures in Iraq are formed as a result of multiple stages of convergence of thin-skinned sediments and Paleozoic age basements. The Mesopotamian Basin is one of the most important petroleum provinces that extends from northwest to southeast Iraq with several discovered hydrocarbon fields (Buday 1980a; Jassim and Goff 2006; Al-Khafaji et al. 2018, 2019, 2021). The Mesopotamian Basin is about 800 km across and subdivided from north to south into the Tigris, Euphrates, and Zubair subzones.

Iraq's Oligocene–Pliocene age is divided into two sedimentological cycles, (1) the Oligocene–Middle Miocene succession which includes Ghar, Serikagni, Euphrates Limestone, Dhiban Anhydrite with minor amounts of limestone beds, Jeribe Limestone, and Injanah formations; (2) the Upper Miocene–Pliocene succession, which includes the Zahra, Dibdibba, Fatha, and Bakhtiari formations (Buday 1980b).

The Arabian Plate can be divided into the Arabian Shield and the Arabian Shelf. The Arabian shelf in Iraq can be divided into a stable shelf and an unstable shelf (Jassim and Buday 2006). They consist of five tectono-physiographic zones that are generally bounded by major faults that may represent deep-seated structural elements. These tectonic zones include (1) the thrust zone, (2) the folded zone, (3) the Mesopotamian Basin, (4) the Salman zone, and (5) the Rutbah-Jezira zone (Ameen 1992; Jassim and Goff 2006). The Cretaceous and Tertiary oil habitat of the supergiant oilfields in northern Iraq is a result of several geological processes that started during the Middle-Upper Triassic time when the Neo-Tethys Ocean began to form at the expense of the Paleo-Tethys farther north. During this period, the central part of Iraq and the Mesopotamian Zone has received considerably thicker sedimentation that reached 4500 m. Later during the Jurassic–Early Cretaceous periods, the carbonate source rocks are deposited as a result of major inundation and the spotted constructional high during Kimmeridgian-Tithonian resulted in restriction and isolation from the open marine of the Neo-Tethys. The Cretaceous and the Paleocene Periods represent the pre-collisional stage which involved deposition on the marginal cratonic platform, quasi-platform, and the foreland basin of the passive continental margin of the Arabian Plate; and on the active continental margins and

island arcs of the Iranian and Turkish Plates. Finally, Neo-Tethys are closed during the Eocene period, and the Arabian plate collided with the active margins of the Iranian and Turkish Plates. However, the tectonic movement of the Arabian and Eurasian plates produced Jurassic–Cretaceous-to-late-Paleogene–Neogene successions of both marine and non-marine sediments, interrupted by numerous periods of erosional events and unconformities (Ameen 1992; Al-Khafaji et al. 2018).

Figure 1 depicts the general lithology of the Ajeel oilfield. The Serikagni, Euphrates, Dhiban, and Jeribe reservoir rocks, as well as Fatha, Injana cap rocks, and Bakhtiari conglomerates, are predominantly Tertiary rocks.

The Serikagni formation (Fig. 2), initially reported by Bellen in 1955 in the Jebel Sinjar region, is overlain directly by the Euphrates formation and underlined by Anah formation (Buday 1980b; Jassim and Goff 2006). Furthermore, this formation contains *Globigerina*, chalky limestone with a few off-shore calcareous sediments (Al-Dabbas and Hassan 2013; Koyi and Mansurbeg 2021).

The Euphrates formation as described by De Boeckh in 1929 near Wadi Fuhaimi (Bellen et al. 1959; Ahmed et al. 2021) comprises of recrystallized limestone, dolomite, dolomitic limestone, and shelly limestone beds. The Dhiban formation is conformably overlain by the Jeribe formation (Fig. 2), it is described by Henson in 1940 in the Sinjar area, Foothill Zone comprises of anhydrite, interbedded dolomite, and limestone layers.

Bellen first is introduced the Jeribe formation in 1957 at Sinjar anticline (Bellen et al. 1959; Lawa et al. 2020), it comprises of recrystallized, dolomitized, and argillaceous limestones, deposited in backreef and reef habitats, while Fatha formation is subdivided into several informal zones (Fig. 2), comprising anhydrite interbedded with limestone and marl. The formation is deposited in lagoonal conditions (Jassim and Goff 2006). However, the Fatha, Injana, and Bakhtiari formations represent the major seal rocks in northern Iraq (Fig. 2).

Methodology

The data for this study are kindly provided by Iraq's North Oil Company (NOC). These data sets comprise 45 stratigraphic core and cutting samples, as well as digital well logs and three crude-oil samples from six production wells (AJ-3, AJ-5, AJ-6, and AJ-13). These wells penetrated the Maudud formation's top part to depths of 2000–2500 m. In addition, 70 rock samples are acquired from AJ-8 and AJ-12 wells for palynological examination.

Thin sections are prepared for microscopic examination to determine microfacies, porosity types, and depositional environments. It included the investigation of the

paleontological and petrographic components of more than 150 slides made from 45 cores and cutting samples for paleoenvironmental interpretations following the guidelines of Dunnington (1967); Embry and Klovan (1972). Grain assemblages were the primary characteristics used to distinguish Microfacies Associations (MA). Geochemical analyses are conducted at the StratoChem laboratory (Cairo, Egypt), including stable carbon isotopes and gas chromatography to describe crude-oils types and origin. Porosity and permeability determination from core samples are conducted at the north oil company laboratories (NOC), northern Iraq.

Prior to the well-log analysis, well-logging data including gamma ray, neutron, bulk density, acoustic, and resistivity logs, are digitized using neural log software, environmental corrections, and depth calibrations are done by using core information and gamma-ray log as a reference curve. Interactive Petrophysics-3.5, Surfer-16, and CoreDRAW-2021 software are used to plot calculated parameters. However, these logs are being used to evaluate the petrophysical properties of the investigated formations by substituting them into the important equations below.

M–N plot represents one of the most important parameters in the lithology determination; three logs, including density, neutron, and sonic logs, are utilized to calculate M–N values. Sonic and density data are used to determine M values, whereas neutron and density data have been used to obtain N values (Inteq 1999; Schlumberger 1972, 1989). The following parameters apply to determine the M and N values:

$$M = (DT_f - DT) / (pb - pf) \times 0.01 \tag{1}$$

$$N = (\varnothing_{Nf} - \varnothing_N) / (Pb - pf) \tag{2}$$

where DT_f= 189 for fresh and 185 for saltwater; DT= sonic-log measurement, Pb= density log; Pf= 1.0 freshwater density; \varnothing_{Nf} = 1.0, \varnothing_N = neutron log porosity (NPHI).

A gamma-ray log (GR) has a direct relation with shale volume and represents an initial step in porosity calculation; a low response of gamma-ray indicates clean intervals. In order to reveal intervals with better reservoir probability, the volume of shale (V_{CL}) is estimated from a gamma-ray log (Dresser Atlas 1979), using Eq. (3 and 4).

$$I_{GR} = \frac{GR_{log} - GR_{min}}{GR_{max} - GR_{min}} \tag{3}$$

$$V_{CL} = 0.083[2^{(3.7IGR)} - 1] \tag{4}$$

where I_{GR} = index gamma ray; GR_{log} = gamma-ray log reading, GR_{min} = minimum gamma ray, GR_{max} = maximum gamma-ray reading in shale zone.

Both of total (PHIE) and effective porosity (PHIE) of the considered formations are determined by using neutron, density, and sonic logs. Generally, the neutron log measures the direct porosity of the formation and is corrected using Eq. 5 (Zaki 1994):

$$\varnothing_{Ncorr} = \varnothing_N - (V_{sh} * \varnothing_{Nsh}) \tag{5}$$

where \varnothing_{Ncorr} = neutron porosity (corrected); \varnothing_N = neutron-log reading, \varnothing_{Nsh} = neutron log for shale zone. The bulk density of a rock is a function of lithology and porosity and is represented by Eq. 6 (Selley and Sonnenberg 2015):

$$\varnothing_{Dcorr} = \frac{(P_{ma} - P_b)}{P_{ma} - P_f} - V_{sh} \frac{P_{ma} - P_{sh}}{P_{ma} - P_f} \tag{6}$$

where \varnothing_{Dcorr} = density porosity (corrected); ρ_{ma} = matrix density (limestone = 2.71, dolomite = 2.88); ρ_b = log density (RHOB); ρ_{sh} = density value of shale zone; ρ_f = formation fluid density; ρ_f = 1.0 g/cc (for fresh water mud).

Sonic porosity (\varnothing_{Scorr}) is achieved by using Eq. 7 (Dresser Atlas 1979):

$$\varnothing_{Scorr} = \frac{\Delta t_{log} - \Delta t_{ma}}{\Delta t_f - \Delta t_{ma}} - V_{sh} \frac{\Delta t_{log} - \Delta t_{ma}}{\Delta t_f - \Delta t_{ma}} \tag{7}$$

where Δt_{Log} = sonic log reading, Δt_{ma} = transit time of the matrix material (limestone = 47, dolomite = 43 μ s/ft); Δt_f = fresh mud = 189; and Δt_{sh} = interval transit time for adjacent shale.

The relationship between effective porosity and total porosity is represented by the following equations:

$$PHIE = PHIT(1 - V_{sh}) \tag{8}$$

$$PHIT = (\varnothing_{Ncorr} + \varnothing_{Dcorr}) / 2 \tag{9}$$

The hydrocarbon saturation can be determined using the fluid saturation property, which is expressed as the fraction or percentage of the total pore volume filled by oil, gas, or water (Tiab and Donaldson 2004, 2015). The hydrocarbon saturation is obtained by relation (10).

$$SH = 1 - SW \tag{10}$$

Water saturation (S_w) is always part of the fluids that occupy the pore spaces of reservoir rocks (Dresser

Table 1 The used parameters in permeability calculation

Wyllie-Rose method	Wyllie Rose sv1	Swirr	b	c	kw
Timur	Oil	0.2	4.4	2	8581.0
	Gas	0.2	4.4	2	8581.0
Morris	Oil	0.2	6	2	62,500
	Gas	0.2	6	2	6241.0
Schlumberger	Oil and Gas	0.2	4.5	2	10,000.0

Atlas 1979). Water saturation (S_w) and water saturation in the flushed (S_{XO}) zones are expressed by Archie Eqs. (11 and 12):

$$S_w = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{\phi^m}} \times \frac{R_w}{R_t} \quad (11)$$

$$S_{XO} = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{\phi^m}} \times \frac{R_{mf}}{R_{XO}} \quad (12)$$

where R_t = true formation resistivity (from LLD log); R_{XO} = formation resistivity in the invaded zone (from MSFL log); a = tortuosity factor ($a = 1.0$); $n, m = 2.0$; R_w = formation water resistivity, and R_{mf} = resistivity of the mud filtrate at formation temperature.

Water resistivity (R_w) is obtained from the spontaneous potential (sp) log using Eq. 13:

Table 2 Summary of microfacies, depositional environments, diagenesis, and pore types of reservoir rocks

Well	Formation	Depth M	Microfacies	Depo. Envi	Diagenesis	Pore Types
AJ-6	Jeribe	1024	Peneroplis Wackstone	Hypersaline lagoon	Dolomitization, recrystallization	Interparticle, intraparticle, moldic, microfractures, skeleton,
AJ-6	Jeribe	1044	Bioclastic-echinoderm packstone	Open platform	Dolomitization, dissolution	interparticle, moldic, microfractures
AJ-6	Dhiban	1073	Miliolidal mudstone	Restricted lagoon	Dolomitization, recrystallization, cementation (pore filling calcite)	Interparticle, intraparticle
AJ-6	Euphrates	1094	Peloidal packstone	Restricted lagoon	Dolomitization, recrystallization	Interparticle
AJ-6	Euphrates	1111	Foraminifera packstone	Restricted lagoon	Dolomitization, recrystallization, cementation (pore filling anhydrite)	Interparticle, intraparticle, moldic, vugs, microfractures
AJ-6	Euphrates	1130	Ooidal packstone	Winnowed (Shoal) platform	Dolomitization	intraparticle
AJ-6	Serikagni	1170	Calcareous mudstone	Outer ramp	Dolomitization, Recrystallization, dissolution, cementation (pore filling anhydrite)	Interparticle
AJ-3	Jeribe	866	Foraminiferal Mudstone-wackestone	Restricted lagoon	Dolomitization, Recrystallization, dissolution	Intercrystalline, separate vugs
AJ-3	Jeribe	870	Peneroplis bearing Wackestone			Interparticle, intraparticle, moldic
AJ-3	Jeribe	876	Bioclastic-echinoderm bearing packstone	Restricted lagoon	Dolomitization, dissolution	
AJ-3	Dhiban	900	Miliolidal mudstone	Restricted lagoon	Dolomitization, recrystallization, cementation (anhydrite)	Interparticle, moldic, microfractures
AJ-3	Euphrates	925	Peloidal packstone	Restricted lagoon		Interparticle, intraparticle, moldic,
AJ-3	Euphrates	934	Foraminifera packstone		Dolomitization, recrystallization	
AJ-3	Euphrates	975	Ooidal packstone	Winnowed platform	Dolomitization, dissolution	microfractures
AJ-3	Serikagni	1010	Calcareous mudstone	Outer ramp	Dolomitization, cementation (anhydrite)	
AJ-13	Jeribe	1173	Foraminiferal mudstone-wackestone	Restricted lagoon	Dolomitization, dissolution	Interparticle, intraparticle, moldic, microfractures
AJ-13	Jeribe	1190	Peneroplis bearing wackestone			
AJ-13	Dhiban	1220	Calcareous mudstone		Dolomitization, cementation (calcite)	microfractures
AJ-13	Euphrates	1245	Foraminifera packstone			
AJ-13	Euphrates	1299	Ooidal packstone	Winnowed (Shoal) platform		Interparticle, intraparticle
AJ-13	Serikagni	1315	Calcareous mudstone	Outer ramp	Dolomitization, recrystallization cementation	Dolomitization, Microfractures

$$Sp = -(60 + 0.133T)\log \frac{Rmf}{Rw} \tag{13}$$

where $-(60 + 0.133 T)$ is the constant; T is the formation temperature in F°.

The bulk volume water is the product of porosity and water saturation (Tiab and Donaldson 2004, 2015):

$$B_{VW} = \varnothing e S_w \tag{14}$$

$B_{VW} S_{XO} = S_{XO} \varnothing$ (15) Permeability estimated using Wyllie and Rose equation (Wyllie and Rose 1950):

$$K = k_w \frac{\Phi^{1.5}}{S_w^{1.5}} \tag{16}$$

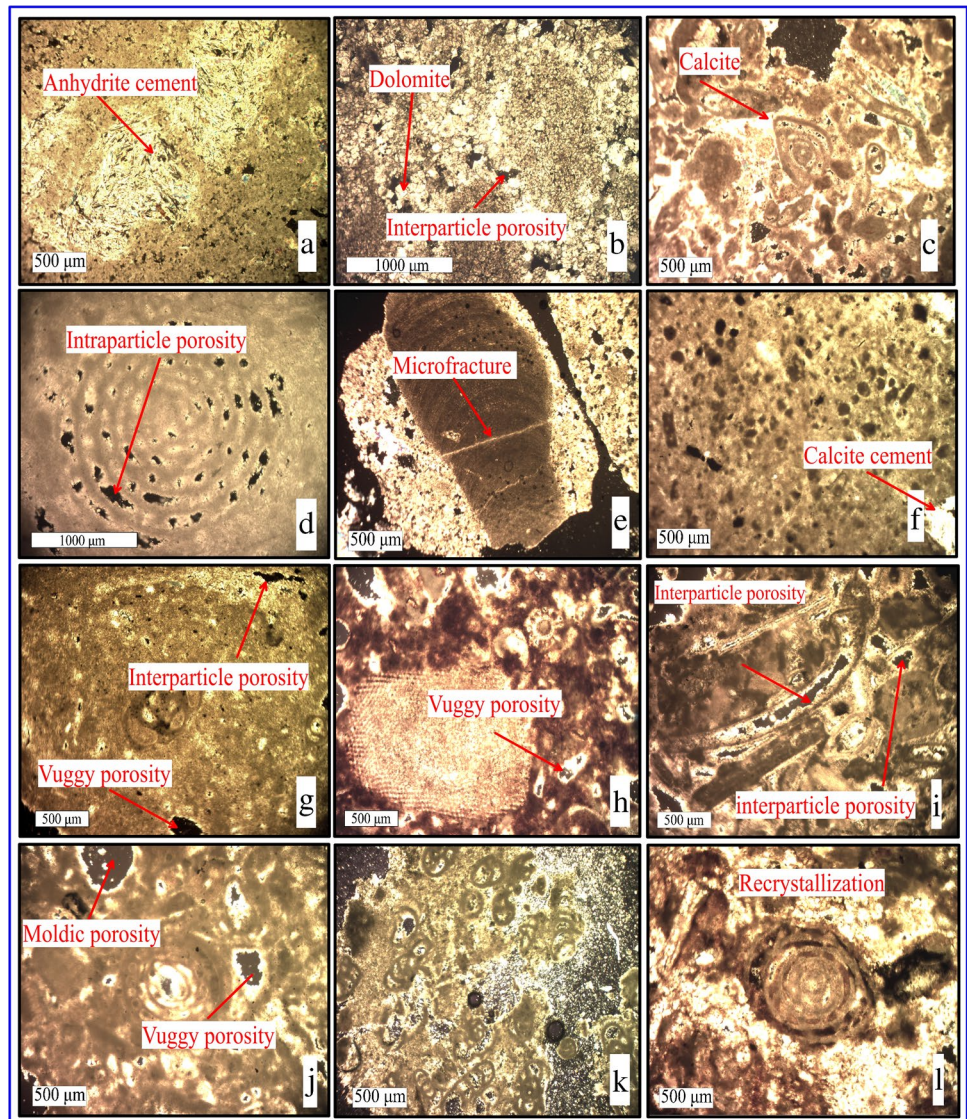
The Wyllie and Rose component is summarized in Table 1. The neural network (ANN) is applied for uncored zones to obtain porosity and permeability from log data, the standard method to calculate permeability is described by Haykin (2009), and it is represented as follows:

$$y_{net} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i w_i + w_b \tag{17}$$

$$y_{out} = \int (y_{net}) = (1 + e^{-y_{net}})^{-1} \tag{18}$$

where y_{net} = summation of weighted input; x_i = is the neuron input, w_i = is a weight associated with each neuron input; w_b = bias, and n = number of samples; y_{out} = is the response of the neural network system.

Fig. 3 Microfacies and porosity types of Tertiary succession



Results and discussion

Microfacies and depositional environment

Eight different microfacies types are recognized in the Serikagni, Euphrates, Dhiban, and Jeribe formations based on the microscopic examination (Table 2).

The typical classification of microfacies is described by Dunham (1962). There was one microfacies type in the Serikagni and Dhiban formations, three distinct microfacies types in the Euphrates formation, and two distinct microfacies types in the Jeribe formation (Fig. 3), the main depositional environments of studied formations ranged from the lagoon (hypersaline) to the open platform.

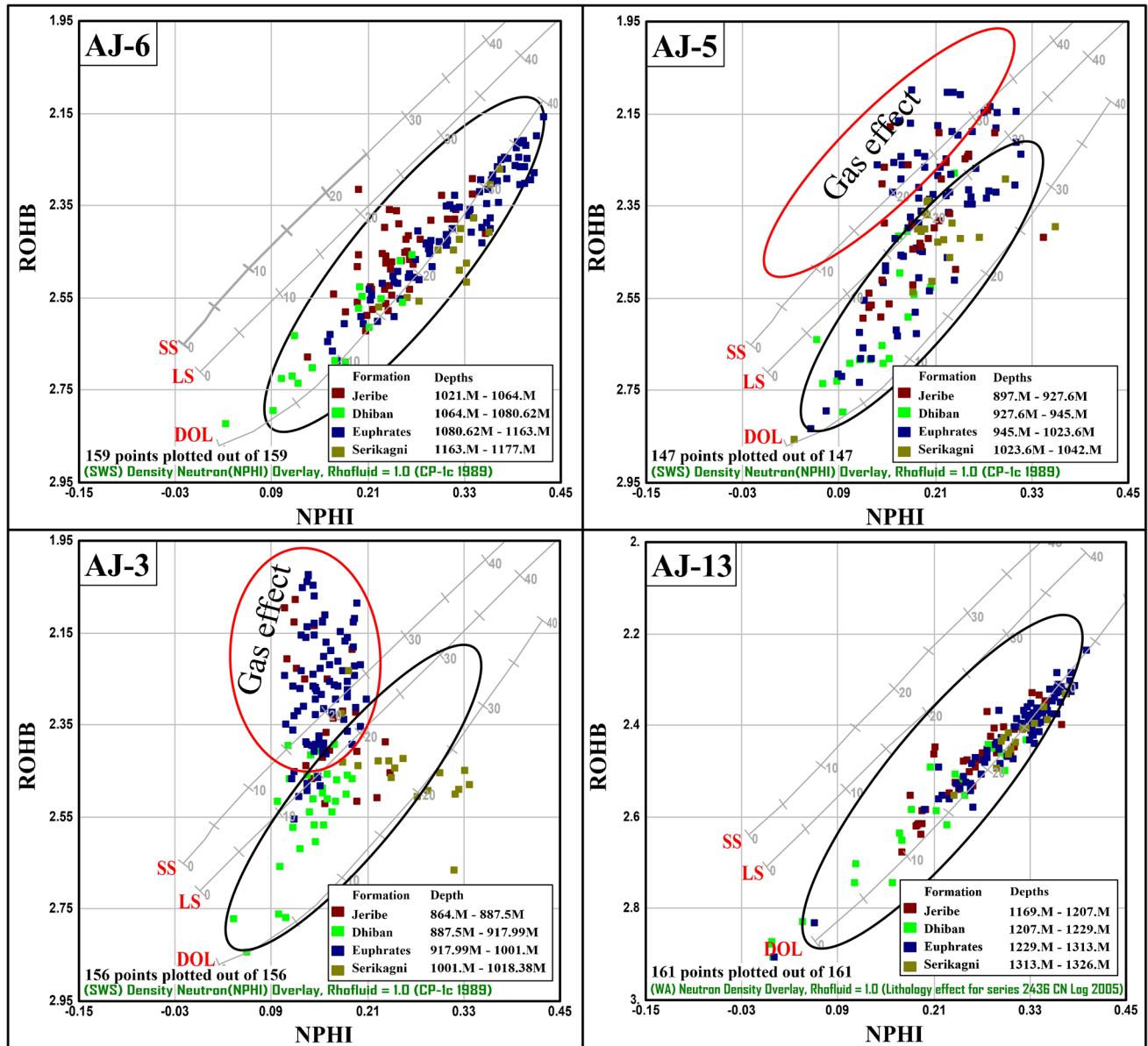


Fig. 4 Neutron–density cross-plot of AJ-6, AJ-5, AJ-3, and AJ-13 wells

Dolomitization, recrystallization, cementation, and dissolution are the four major kinds of diagenesis in the investigated formations (Tucker and Wright 1990; Flügel 2004). Several porosity types were distinguished based on Choquette and Pray (1970) method including interparticle, intraparticle, moldic, microfractures, and vuggy porosity types (Fig. 3; Table 2).

Lithological assessment

Well-logs reflect direct and indirect measures of rock properties, providing the possibility to determine groups of rocks with particular characteristics that distinguish them from other rock types. Relations between electrical log responses were studied to define how many rock types

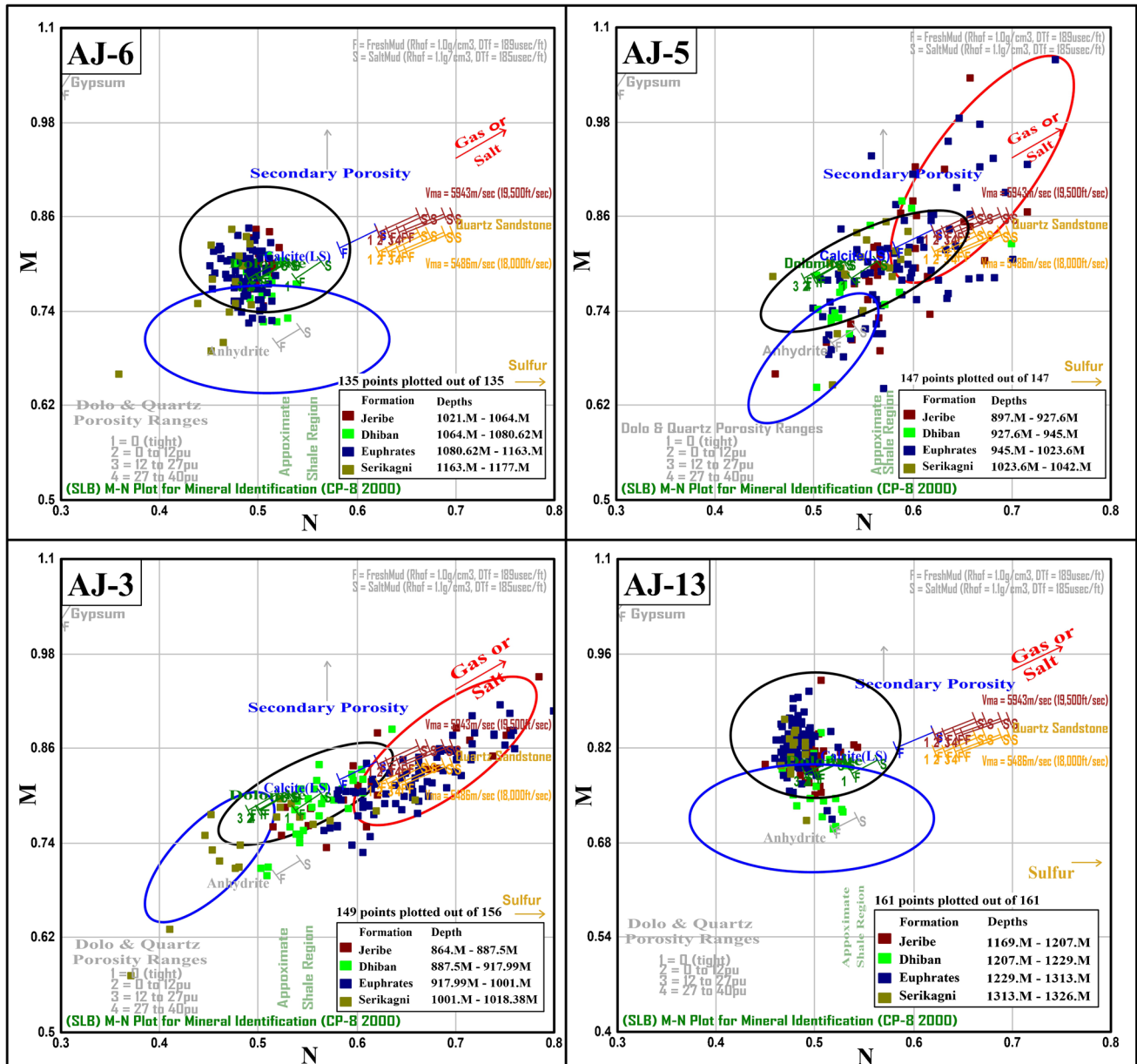


Fig. 5 M–N cross-plot of AJ-6, AJ-5, AJ-3, and AJ-13 wells

Table 3 Petrophysical parameters averages of Tertiary reservoir rocks, NE Iraq

Formation	Well	VCLGR (%)	PHIT (%)	PHIE (%)	PhiSon (%)	S _w (%)	S _{XO} (%)	B _{VW} (%)	B _{VW} S _{XO} (%)
Jeribe	AJ-6	27	12.5	6.6	17.4	41	47.8	0	2.9
Jeribe	AJ-5	17	15.7	13.9	22	22	55.9	0	6.3
Jeribe	AJ-3	14.5	21.5	21.5	22.5	21.3	43.5	6.9	6.3
Jeribe	AJ-13	16.8	31	26.2	15.5	100	100	39.7	26.1
Dhiban	AJ-6	7.5	10.2	7.2	11.6	63	72.5	3.3	4.6
Dhiban	AJ-5	5.1	4.6	3.6	14.3	77.3	89.8	1.1	2.3
Dhiban	AJ-3	0.7	10.1	10.1	14.7	49	65	2.6	4.5
Dhiban	AJ-13	1	31	28.2	13	96.2	96.2	26.5	26.5
Euphrates	AJ-6	8.7	21.6	18.6	22.4	75	77.4	14.2	14.7
Euphrates	AJ-5	6	16.2	15.5	22.6	29	64.8	2.1	8.6
Euphrates	AJ-3	5.5	23	23	25.1	11.5	35.4	2	6.8
Euphrates	AJ-13	6.8	37.7	30	17.6	99	100	34.6	34.6
Serikagni	AJ-6	20.4	17.5	12.2	20.3	94	98.2	11.4	12
Serikagni	AJ-5	19.9	14.4	12.2	20.5	41	61.5	4.9	7.7
Serikagni	AJ-3	21.3	11.6	11.6	22.7	69.2	79.2	6.9	8.3
Serikagni	AJ-13	3	30	27	18.2	100	100	39.7	39.7

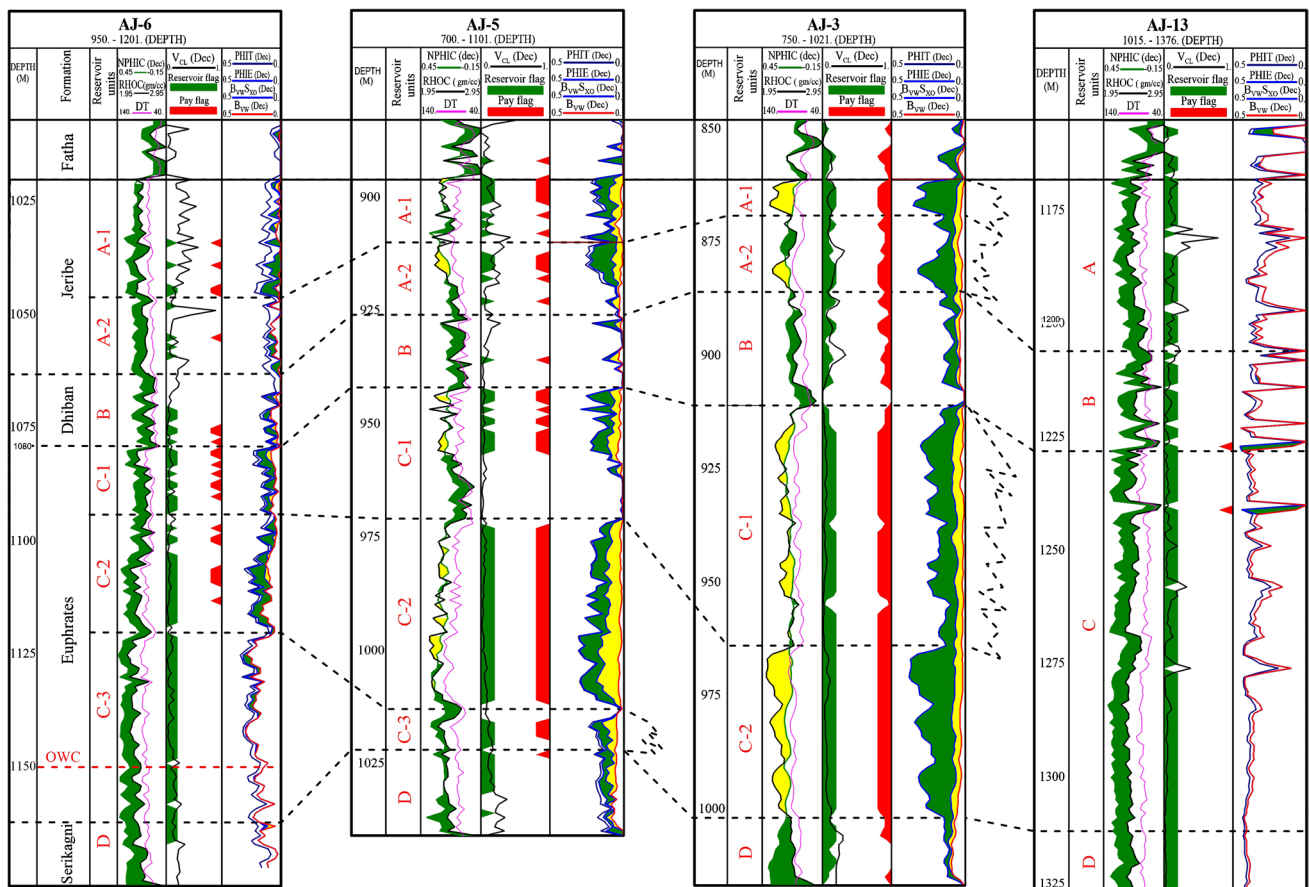


Fig. 6 Petrophysical results and main reservoir units in the studied wells

can be determined and what specific characteristics they have that are particular to them. This analysis allows the definition of four petrophysical rock types (Figs. 4 and 5). The neutron–density (N-D) and M–N cross-plots can be used to identify lithologies such as dolomite, limestone, quartz, and evaporites (Schlumberger 1989). Moreover, to distinguish oil and gas (Asquith and Krygowski 2004; Kennedy 2015). The N-D cross-plots (CP-1e Chart) suggest that the main lithologies of Serikagni, Euphrates, Dhiban, and Jeribe formations are limestone and dolomitic limestone, which becomes more dolomitized in AJ-6 and AJ-13 wells. The results were compared to surface and underground stratigraphic studies (e.g., Dunnington 1967; Buday 1980a; Jassim and Goff 2006; Al-Dabbas et al. 2013; Sissakian et al. 2016; Ahmed et al. 2021), and the correlation results showed a similarity relation of more than 85%. The neutron–density cross-plots revealed that the Euphrates and Jeribe formations contain larger amounts of hydrocarbon than Serikagni and

Dhiban formations (Fig. 4). Based on the M–N cross-plots (Fig. 5), the Serikagni and Euphrates formations consist of dolomite and calcite, while Dhiban formation comprises calcite, anhydrite, and dolomites, whereas calcite and dolomite represent the main constituents of the Jeribe formation with a little anhydrite. The scattered data points of Euphrates and Jeribe formations in AJ-5 and AJ-3 are due to the hydrocarbon contents (Fig. 5). This first model improves the prediction of lithologies in the studied area, especially in uncored wells, using well-log measurements.

Clay and Porosity contents

The higher reserve quality the lower the clay contents, generally shale volume represents one of the most important factors that affect porosity values. However, the lowermost shale content in the Euphrates and Dhiban formations, shale volume (V_{CL}) ranged between 0.7 and 7.5% and 5.5 and 8.7%, respectively, while in Serikagni and

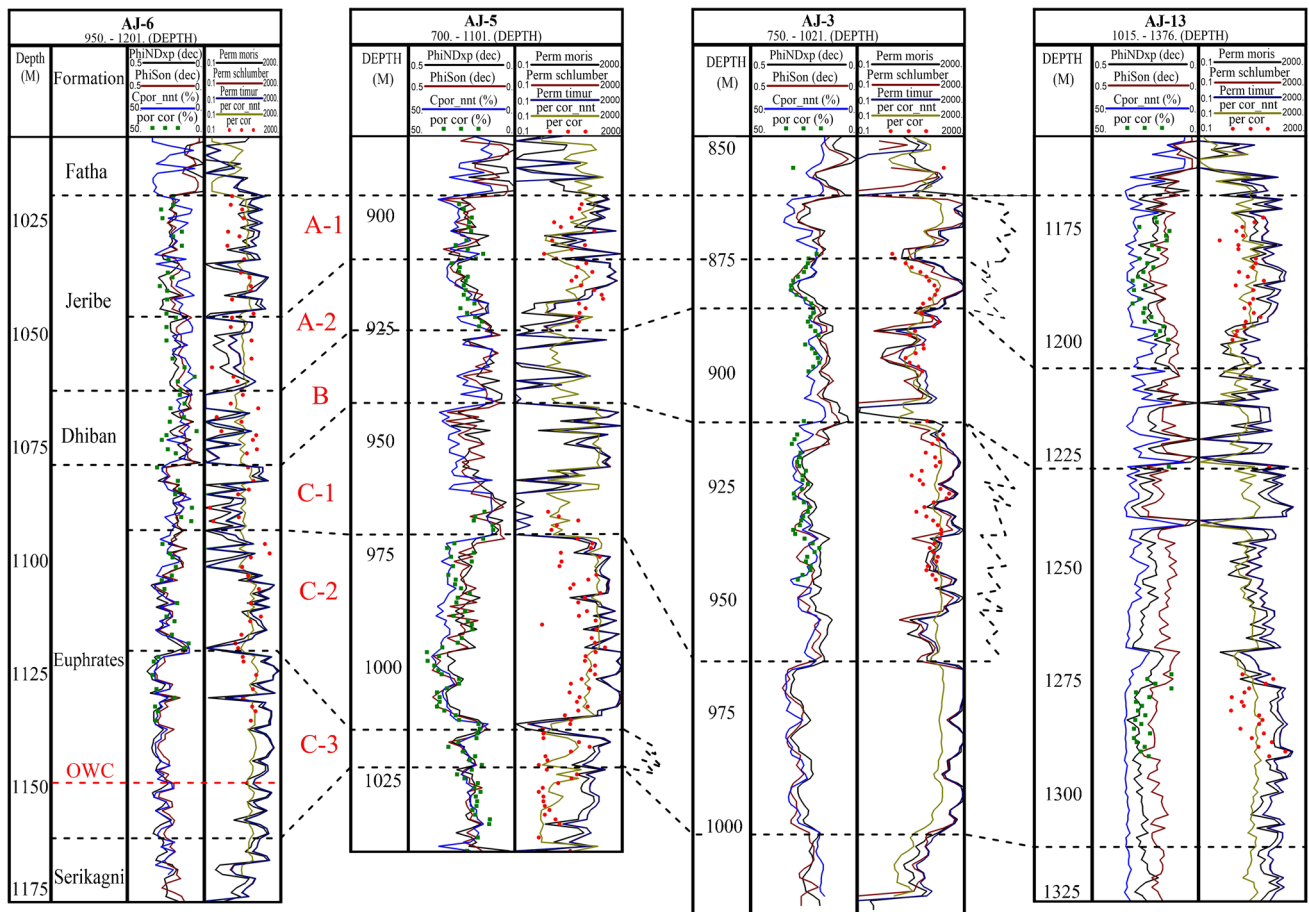


Fig. 7 Correlation between porosity and permeability through studied wells

Jeribe formations, ranged between 14.5 and 27% and 3.0 and 20.4%, respectively (Table 3), these values showed a good reserve quality of mentioned formations except lower parts of Serikagni formation (Fig. 6). Porosity is the proportion of voids in the rocks and represented as a percentage or a decimal fraction, the matrix porosity rather than vuggy or fracture porosity calculated by sonic log (Asquith and Krygowski 2004). Sonic porosity values reached 25.1% for Serikagni, Euphrates, and Jeribe formations as an effect of dolomitization and dissolution; these values reduce in Dhiban formation, which ranged between 11.6 and 14.7% indicating cementation and anhydrite contents (Fig. 6). The average values of the PHIT and PHIE porosities ranged between 10.1 and 32.7% and 3.6 and 30.0% (Table 3), respectively.

Hydrocarbon estimation

The water saturation (S_w) is the proportion of brine rather than hydrocarbon captured in pore space, which affects hydrocarbon quantity and movements (Ellis and Singer 2007). The water resistivity (R_w) values ranged between 0.04 and 0.05 in all wells except in AJ-13 which is below oil–water contact. Average values of the bulk volume of water (B_{VW}) ranged between 0 and 39.7%, while in the flushed zones ($B_{VW}S_{XO}$), ranged between 23 and 39.7% (Fig. 6), the combination of S_{XO} , S_w , bulk volume of water gives some qualitative indication of permeability and the movable hydrocarbons saturation, where the water saturation in the flushed zone (S_{XO}) indicates movable hydrocarbons (Dresser Atlas 1979; Hakimi et al. 2012; Mamaseni et al. 2018). The lower water saturation (S_w) values in an invaded zone than water saturation (S_{XO}) in the flushed zone (Table 3), indicates that the Euphrates and Jeribe formations have a good reservoir quality and high hydrocarbon contents, while Serikagni, Dhiban formations have higher water and lower hydrocarbon contents (Fig. 6).

Permeability and net pay

The Wylie-Rose and neural network (ANN) methods are used to estimate permeability values. The neural network is a computational model that simulates the function of the human nervous system (Haykin 2009). This method is mentioned by many authors (Handhel 2009; Bhatt and Helle 2010; Verma et al. 2014; Kohli and Arora 2016). The permeability estimation from log data in the uncored zones is an important parameter for evaluation purposes and hydrocarbon-bearing zones identification. The main results of porosity and permeability are summarized in Fig. 7, the porosity and permeability values have revealed good to excellent reserve capability of Euphrates and Jeribe formations, while Serikagni, Dhiban, and the lower part of Fatha (Transition)

Table 4 Geochemical parameters results of crude-oil samples from reservoir rocks, NE Iraq

Well	Source Rocks	Depth M	SAT. wt.%	ARO. wt.%	NSO. wt.%	ASP. wt.%	$\delta^{13}C$ SAT	$\delta^{13}C$ ARO	Pri/Phy	Pri/n-C ₁₇	Phy/n-C ₁₈	S	API
AJ-31	Jeribe	800–900	61.6	29.7	2.58	6.19	-27.3	-27.4	0.91	0.29	0.38	2.85	33
AJ-17	Euphrates	850–1000	56.02	21.6	20.72	1.65	-27.4	-27.4	0.8	0.25	0.37	2.87	31
AJ-12	Serikagni	2250 – 2350	61.77	20.4	14.73	3.08	-27	-27.3	0.8	0.16	0.22	2.61	32

$\delta^{13}C_{SAT}$ = Composition of stable carbon for the saturated hydrocarbon portion; $\delta^{13}C_{ARO}$ = composition of stable carbon of the aromatic hydrocarbon portion; Pri./Phy. = ratio of pristane/phytane; Pri/n-C₁₇ = ratio of pristane/n-C₁₇; Phy/n-C₁₈ = ratio of phytane/n-C₁₈; canomical variable (CV) = $-2.53\delta^{13}C_{SAT} + 2.22\delta^{13}C_{ARO} - 11.65$; S. = sulfur content of crude-oil; American Petroleum Institute (API) to measure crude-oil gravity = $(141.5/\text{specific gravity}) - 131.5$

formations have poor to fair hydrocarbon reserve quality. The net pay and net/gross values obtained from porosity, permeability, and water saturation data, represent the most important petrophysical parameters that remark hydrocarbon-bearing zones. The reservoir rocks were divided into eight reservoir units, based on different petrophysical parameters such as porosity, permeability, water/hydrocarbon saturation, and a bulk volume of water was applied to establish reservoir and non-reservoir units (Fig. 6).

Crude-oil evaluation

The geochemical data of 3 crude-oil samples from the Tertiary reservoirs are shown in Table 4; Fig. 8; these data were used to determine depositional conditions of organic matter and crude-oils origins (Peters and Moldowan 1993). The saturates, aromatics, resins, and asphaltenes values were used to determine the depositional environment of organic

matter and crude-oil origin (Tissot and Welte 1984; Al-Khafaji et al. 2020, 2021; Kong et al. 2020), and the analyzed crude-oil samples (Table 4; Fig. 8C) are paraffinic (marine origin) type. Furthermore, the saturate and aromatic fractions of $\delta^{13}C$ used to determine marine and terrestrial origin organic matters (Sofer 1984), which ranged between -27.4 and -27% and -27.4 and -27.3% (Table 4; Fig. 8C), revealing that the crude-oil samples are generated mainly from marine origin source rocks. The relationship between Pr/n-C₁₇ and Ph/n-C₁₈ (Table 4; Fig. 8D) revealed a reducing environment with kerogen type-II. Higher API values of up to 33 indicate medium-light crude-oil type. Based on Hsu and Robinson's (2019) classification, higher sulfur contents are reached 1.5%, indicating sour crude-oil type in Mesopotamian Basin, northern Iraq. The pristane/phytane ratio provides information about the environment, regard to lithology, and the maturity of hydrocarbons (Peters and Moldowan 1993). Low pristane/phytane values < 1.0 indicate marine

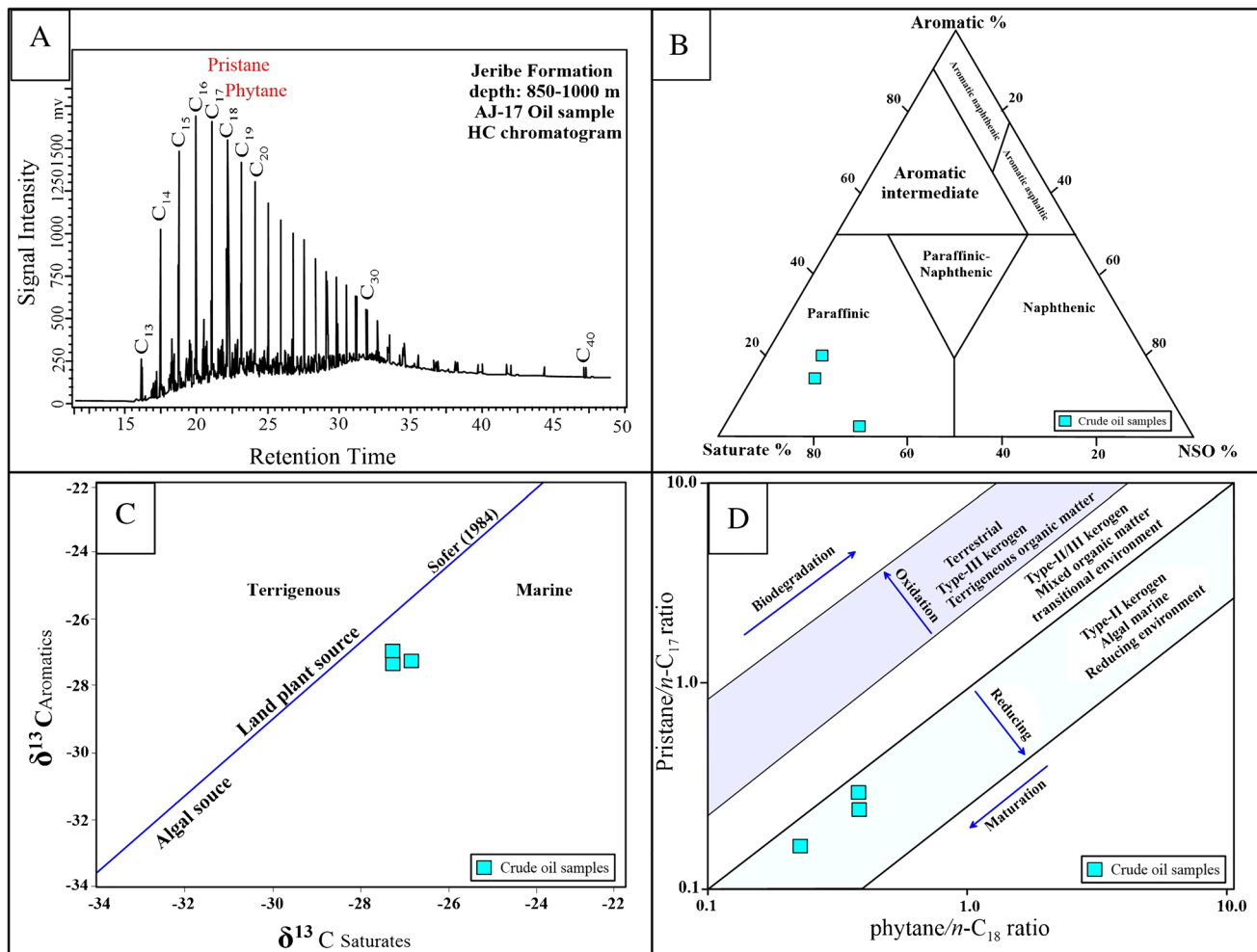


Fig. 8 **A** Representative gas chromatography (GC) of crude-oils from reservoir rocks, **B** Ternary diagram of aromatic, saturate, and NSO components presenting crude-oils type in the Mesopotamian Basin. **C**

Saturate and the aromatic fraction of carbon isotope cross-plot (Sofer 1984). **D** Pristane/n-C₁₇ versus phytane/n-C₁₈ for crude-oils from the Tertiary reservoir (Peters and Moldowan 1993)

depositional environments, while higher values reveal terrestrial depositional conditions (Powell and McKirdy 1973; ten Haven et al. 1987; Abeer et al. 2012; Al-Khafaji et al. 2021). However, the analyzed samples have low Pri./Phy. up to 0.99 (Table 4) and indicate reducing conditions and contributions of marine origin organic matter.

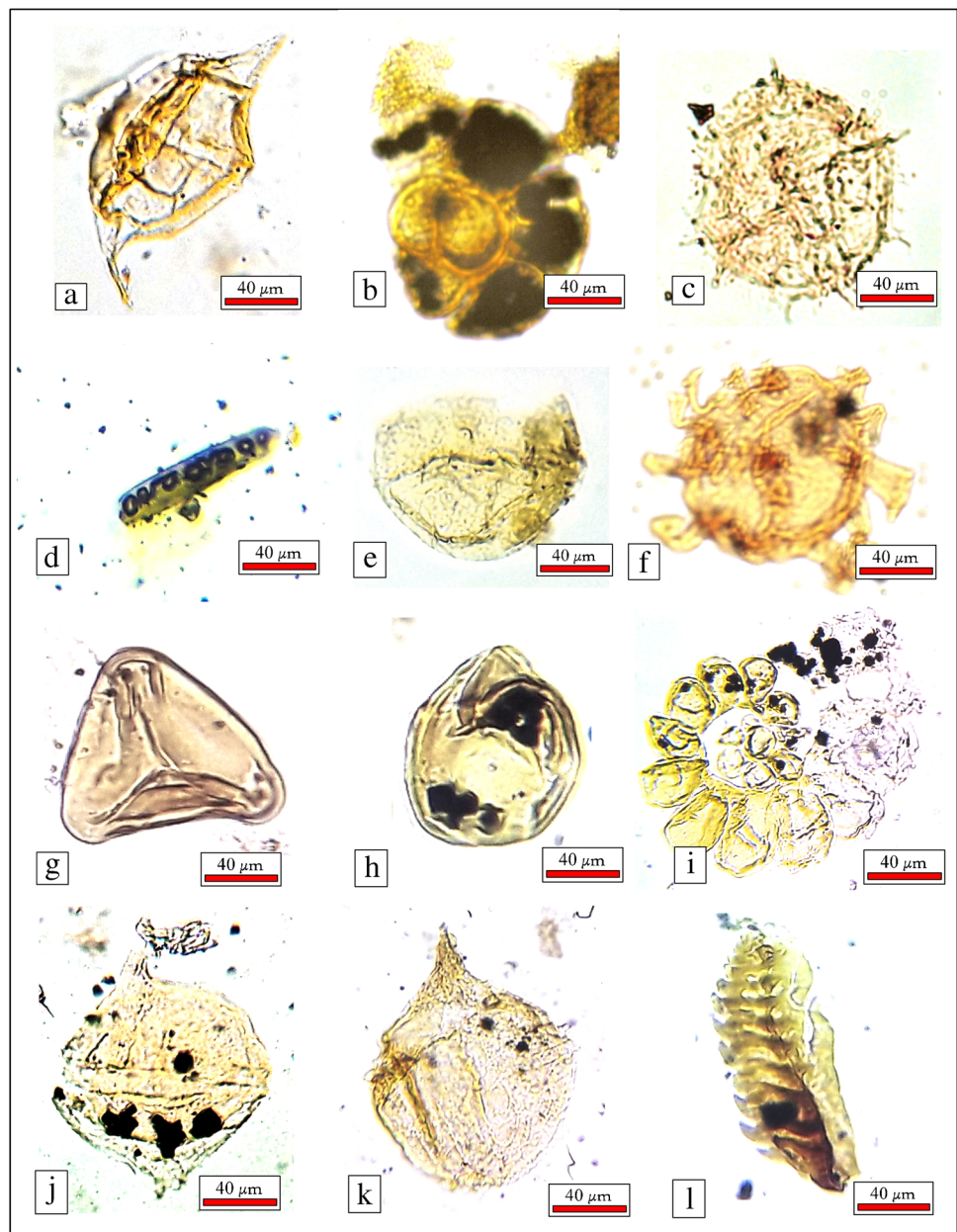
Palynofacies assessment

Palynological investigation of 70 core and cutting samples from Jurassic–Cretaceous source rocks has indicated that the Sargelu, Naokelekan, Gotnia, and Chia Gara formations are dominated by amorphous-organic matters (AOM) of up to 80%, with rare palynomorphs and phytoclasts contents

of up to 20%. Tyson's (1993) APP ternary diagram and Thompson and Dembicki's (1986) AOM categorization are used to identify kerogen and depositional environments. In this study, the palynomorphs contain dinoflagellate cysts, foraminiferal test linings, and fungi (Fig. 9). Meanwhile, phytoclasts consist of terrestrial origin tracheids and cuticles, with few marine inhibitors such as Scolecodonts (Fig. 9).

The Sargelu formation's palynofacies are characterized by thin-bedded, black, bituminous limestone, dolomitic limestone, and black papery shale layers. The studied samples include a modest amount of phytoclasts (up to 9%) and a significant amount of marine-derived AOM (up to 90% of total organic matter), as well as palynomorphs (up to 24%).

Fig. 9 Palynomorphs from the Sargelu, Naokelekan, Chia Gara formations in Ajeel oilfield, NE Iraq. **a** *Muderongia* sp. dinocyst specimen, AJ-12 well, Sargelu formation, 3575 m., **b** Foraminiferal test linings, AJ-12 well, Sargelu formation, 3550 m., **c** *Sentusidinium* sp., dinocyst specimen, AJ-12 well, Sargelu formation, 3510 m., **d** Fungal spore sac, AJ-12, Sargelu formation, 3300 m., **e** *Meiourgonyaaulax cytogenensis*, Upper Callovian, AJ-8 well, Naokelekan formation, 3240 m., **f** *Compositosphaeridium* sp. dinocyst, AJ-8 well, Naokelekan formation, 3238 m., **g** *Gleichenidites* sp. dinocyst specimen, Middle Jurassic, AJ-12 well, Naokelekan formation, 3496 m., **h** *Chytroeisphaeridia chytroeides*, dinocyst specimen, Lower Callovian, AJ-8 well, Naokelekan formation, 3238 m., **i** Foraminiferal test linings, AJ-12 well, Chia Gara formation, 3317 m., **j** *Cribroperidinium longicornis*, dinocyst specimen, AJ-12 well, Chia Gara formation, 3310 m., **k** *Cribroperidinium edwardsii*, dinocyst specimen, AJ-8 well, Chia Gara formation, 3125 m., **l** Unidentified Scolecodonts, AJ-8 well, Chia Gara formation, 3280 m



The palynomorphs including *Muderongia* sp., foraminiferal test linings, *Sentusidinium* sp., and fungal spore sacs indicate Bajocian-Bathonian age and outer neritic deeper marine environment.

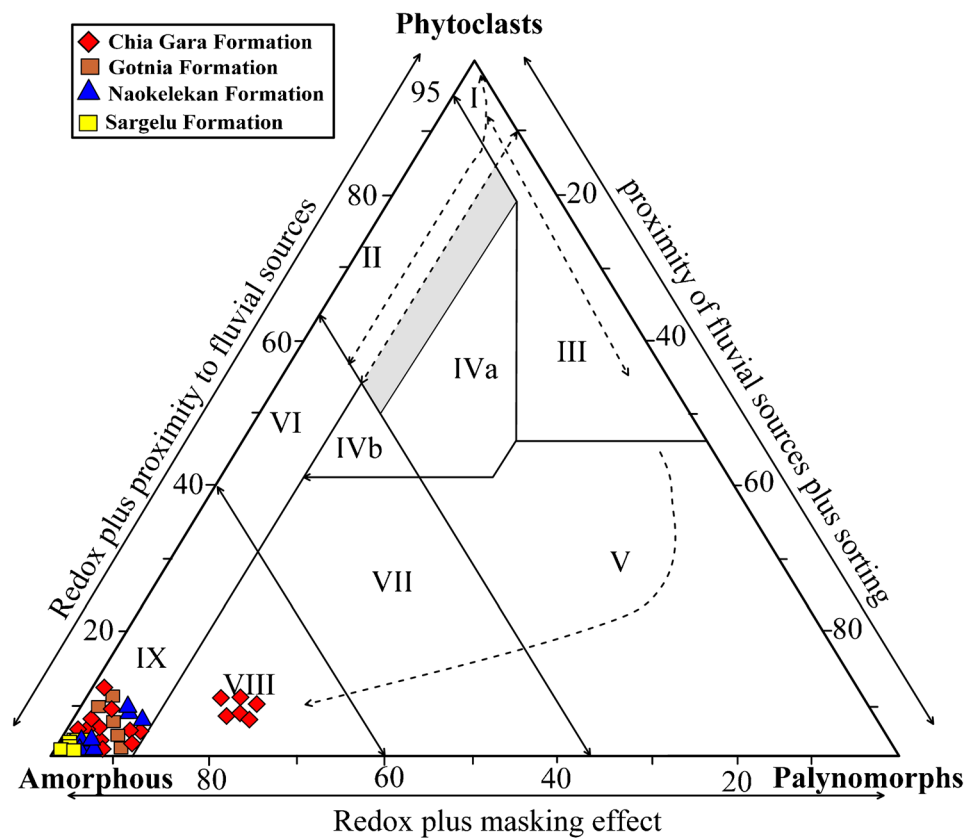
The Naokelekan formation's palynofacies are observed in laminated shaly limestone, hard dark gray limestone, and thin-bedded, bituminous limestone with intercalated black bituminous-calcareous shale. All examined samples are dominated by AOM at a content of up to 95%, with rare phytoclasts at a concentration of up to 7%. Overall ratio of palynomorphs was between 5 and 9%, consisting of *Meiouronyaulax cytogenesis*, *Compositosphaeridium* sp., and *Gleichenidites* sp., suggesting that this formation was Callovian-Kimmeridgian in age (Fig. 9).

The Gotnia is composed of anhydrite that is interbedded by brown calcareous shales, thin black bituminous shales,

and recrystallized limestone beds. All of the examined samples contain a significant amount of AOM, up to 98%. Furthermore, palynofacies of the Chia Gara formation are determined in limestone, calcareous shale, argillaceous limestone, and shale beds. All of the examined samples have domination by AOM usually more than 90%, indicating suboxic to anoxic sedimentation conditions (Tyson 1995). The palynomorphs represented by foraminiferal test linings, *Cribroperidinium longicornis*, *Cribroperidinium edwardsii*, and Scolecodont (Fig. 9), indicate Tithonian-Berriasian age and mid-deep shelf depositional environment.

Plotting the organic-matter assemblage ratios on Tyson's (1993, Fig. 10) APP ternary diagram indicates a transition from a distal suboxic-anoxic to a distal dysoxic-oxic environment, owing to the high content of AOM, which dilutes

Fig. 10 Ternary diagram of palynofacies groups is used for paleoenvironmental analyses and kerogen types determination (Tyson 1995)



Palynofacies fields	Environment of deposition	Kerogen type
I	Highly proximal shelf or basin.	Type-III (Gas-prone)
II	Marginal dyoxic- anoxic basin	Type-III (Gas-prone)
III	Heterolithic oxic shelf (proximal shelf).	Type-III or -IV (Gas-prone)
IV	Shelf to basin transition.	Type-III or -II (Gas-prone)
V	Mud dominated oxic shelf (distal shelf).	Type-III > -IV (Gas-prone)
VI	Proximal suboxic- anoxic shelf.	Type-II (Oil-prone)
VII	Distal dysoxic- anoxic shelf.	Type-II (Oil-prone)
VIII	Distal dysoxic- oxic shelf.	Type-II > -I (Oil-prone)
IX	Distal suboxic- anoxic basin.	Type-II > -I (Highly oil-prone)

all other organic particles and is consequently classified as Type II > I kerogen (highly oil prone).

Conclusions

The microscopic examination (Table 4) has revealed that the Serikagni formation is deposited in the outer-ramp environment, while other formations are deposited in the inner ramp environment.

The N-D and M-N cross-plots show that Tertiary formations consist of limestone, dolomite, dolomitic limestone, marly limestone, and anhydrite. The Euphrates and Jeribe formations are separated by Dhiban evaporite units. Moreover, the anhydrite (CaSO₄) has a low gamma response, neutron porosity of up to 2%, and a bulk density of 2.98 gm/cc (Fig. 6). The porosity and permeability results show good reserve qualities in the C2, A2 units, and partially in the C3, C1, A1 units, and the hydrocarbons have been reserved between 860 and 1150 m, while fair reservoir quality in the D and B units due to anhydrite and shale content (Fig. 6). The geochemical results of crude-oils from Mesopotamian Basin, northern Iraq, recognized medium-light type, which is originated mainly from marine origin organic matters.

Palynofacies examination revealed that the Sargelu, Naokelekan, and Gotnia formations have been deposited primarily in the distal suboxic–anoxic conditions and contain kerogen type II (oil window), while Chia Gara formation deposited mainly in the distal suboxic–anoxic and distal dysoxic–oxic conditions and contain Type-II > I (oil-prone), suggesting that the Jurassic–Cretaceous successions are main oil sources in the Mesopotamian Basin, northern Iraq.

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Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare that are relevant to the content of this article.

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