Differentiable Simulators: Implications for Software Development and Applications to Reduced-Order and Data-Driven Modelling

Knut-Andreas Lie

SINTEF Digital, Oslo, Norway

SIAM Conference on Mathematical & Computational Issues in the Geosciences (GS23) June 19–22, 2023, Bergen, Norway **Differentiable programming** is a programming paradigm in which a numeric computer program can be differentiated throughout via automatic differentiation.

From: wikipedia.org/wiki/Differentiable\_programming

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- provides gradients that indicate how input parameters should change to produce a change in the output state(s)
- enables gradient-based optimization, allowing for efficient parameter tuning and optimization of models
- Ieveraged in frameworks like TensorFlow, Theano, and PyTorch to enhance model training and optimization
- can be used to develop differentiable PDE-based simulators

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Two types of approaches

- static, compiled graph-based approaches like TensorFlow and Theano
- good computer optimization and scaling
- static nature limits interactivity and type of program
- operator overloading, dynamic graph-based approaches like PyTorch and Zygote (Julia)
- dynamic/interactive use, more flexible programming
- interpreter overhead, less optimization

Either case: rely on computational graphs

Typically has support for GPU, TPU, or other accelerators

**Automatic differentiation** is a set of techniques to compute the derivative or gradient of a function with respect to its inputs

Basic concepts:

- can leverage the chain rule of calculus to break down complex computations into a sequence of elementary operations
- these operations consist of a limited set of arithmetic operations and elementary functions
- each elementary operation has known differential rules
- by evaluating the derivatives of each elementary operation, one obtains exact derivatives at given input values

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**Example:** evaluate 3\*exp(-x\*y)



Forward mode:

- computes both function values and their derivatives by propagating computations forward through the computational graph, starting from the input variables
- well-suited for functions with a small number of inputs and a large number of outputs

Reverse/backward mode:

- starts from the output variables, works backward through the computational graph, accumulating sensitivities or gradients with respect to the inputs
- is efficient for large number of inputs compared to outputs, making it particularly useful for gradient-based optimization

Many libraries also use source code transformation. Mixed-mode versions may also be needed

PDE-based simulators have approximately as many outputs as inputs, and question is how to best exploit inherent sparsity structure

Software	Description		
	A unique research and prototyping tool used all over the world, e.g., as evidenced by more than 210 master/doctoral theses and 600 external journal and proceedings papers URL: mrst.no		
	Open-source reservoir simulator aimed at commercial application based on industry-standard black-oil type models. Used by Equinor for asset models on the Norwegian Continental Shelf. URL: opm-project.org Sandve, MS35, Wed 09:10, Plenary Hall		
a Jutul	Experimental Julia framework for fully differentiable multi-physics sim- ulators. Extensive functionality for reservoir simulation (JutulDarcy.jl) and computational electrochemistry (BattMo.jl)		

URL: github.com/sintefmath/Jutul.jl Møyner, MS35, Wed 10:25, Plenary Hall

- Introduce an extended pair,  $\langle v,v_x\rangle$ , to represent the value v and its derivative  $v_x$  to a given input variable  $x=\langle x,1\rangle$
- Use chain rule and elementary derivative rules to mechanically accumulate derivatives at specific values of x
  - Elementary:  $v = \sin(x) \longrightarrow \langle v \rangle = \langle \sin x, \cos x \rangle$
  - Arithmetic: v = f \* g  $\longrightarrow$   $\langle v \rangle = \langle f * g, f * g_x + f_x * g \rangle$
  - Chain rule:  $v = \exp(f(x)) \longrightarrow \langle v \rangle = \langle \exp(f(x)), \exp(f(x)) f'(x) \rangle$
- Use operator overloading to avoid messing up code



- Accuracy: exact derivatives, unlike for finite-difference approximations
- Correctness: avoids error-prone manual derivation and implementation
- Efficiency: avoids time-consuming manual derivation and implementation
- Flexibility: enables users to focus on the model's logic rather than manual derivation of derivatives
- Adaptability: simple differentiation of underlying equations with respect to parameters or variables enables sensitivity analysis, optimization, and parameter estimation

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However, there are potential pitfalls

- May struggle with complex control flow such as loops, conditionals, recursions, linear solvers, etc.
- Increased memory consumption (because of intermediate storage)
- Computational overhead: all intermediate steps computed if straightforward implementation, compiler must perform simplification of expressions in advanced versions
- Primarily designed for continuous functions/variables
- Can be misleading if you fail to specify independent variables correctly



Imagine you had discrete differentiation operators you could use like their continuous counterparts when writing code:

Continuous equations:

 $\nabla \cdot \left( \mathbf{K} \nabla p \right) + q = 0$ 

Discrete equations:  $\mathtt{div} \big( \mathrm{K}\, \mathtt{grad}(p) \big) + q = 0$ 

To explain how to achieve this, we write the equation in first-order form instead

$$-\nabla \cdot \vec{v} + q = 0, \qquad \vec{v} = -K\nabla p$$

Conservation of mass:

$$\begin{split} \sum_{\Gamma_f \in \partial \Omega_c} \int_{\Gamma_f} \vec{v} \cdot \vec{n} \, ds &= \int_{\Omega_c} \nabla \cdot \vec{v} \, d\vec{x} = \int_{\Omega_c} q d\vec{x} \\ \text{discrete:} \qquad \text{div}(\boldsymbol{v})[c] = \boldsymbol{q}[c] \end{split}$$



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discrete: 
$$\operatorname{div}(\boldsymbol{v})[c] = \boldsymbol{q}[c]$$

Darcy's law:

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Gamma_f} \vec{v}(x) \cdot \vec{n}_f \, ds &= -\int_{\Gamma_f} \mathbf{K}(x) \nabla p \cdot \vec{n}_f \, ds \\ \text{discrete:} \qquad \boldsymbol{v}[f] &= -\boldsymbol{T}[f] \operatorname{grad}(\boldsymbol{p})[f] \end{split}$$





$$\operatorname{grad}(\boldsymbol{p})[f] = \boldsymbol{p}[C_2(f)] - \boldsymbol{p}[C_1(f)],$$

p[c]: scalar quantity associated with cell c



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Introduce sparse matrix:

$$D_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & j = C_1(i), \\ -1, & j = C_2(i), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

so that

 $\mathtt{grad}(\mathbf{x}) = -\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x}$ 

and likewise,

 $\mathtt{div}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{y}$ 





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Discrete	$\mathbf{in}$	MATLAB	
T			

Incompressible flow:

eq = div(T .\* grad(p)) + q;

Compressible flow:

```
eq = (pv(p).*rho(p)-pv(p0).*rho(p0))/dt ...
+ div(avg(rho(p)).*T.*grad(p))+q;
```



Discretization of flow models leads to large systems of nonlinear algebraic equations, typically linearized and solved with Newton's method

$$oldsymbol{F}(oldsymbol{u}) = oldsymbol{0} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad rac{\partial oldsymbol{F}}{\partial oldsymbol{u}}(oldsymbol{u}^i)(oldsymbol{u}^{i+1} - oldsymbol{u}^i) = -oldsymbol{F}(oldsymbol{u}^i)$$



% Grid and petrophysics load seamount = pebi(triangleGrid([x(:) y(:)])); G = computeGeometry(G);G rock = makeRock(G, 1, 1);= G.cells.num; nc % Discrete operators S = setupOperatorsTPFA(G, rock);% Unknown p (AD) + source and sink p = initVariablesADI(zeros(nc,1));q = zeros(nc, 1); $q([135\ 282\ 17]) = [-1\ .5\ .5];$ % Evaluate residual equation = S.Div(S.T.\*S.Grad(p))+g; ea eq(1) = eq(1) + p(1);% Solve linear system

 $p = -eq.jac{1} eq.val;$ 



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With AD, we can assemble the linear system implicitly and solve it with Newton's method since  $\partial F/\partial p = A$ 

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Discretization gives the residual flow equation

Not much gained so far. However, the same idea applies to more complex nonlinear models

- You implement the residual equations  $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}_{n+1},\mathbf{x}_n;\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{0}$
- $\blacksquare$  The AD library linearizes and assembles Jacobians,  $\partial \mathbf{R}/\partial \mathbf{x}$
- The nonlinear system of algebraic equations can be solved with Newton's method

$$-\mathbf{J}\Delta\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}), \qquad \mathbf{J} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{R}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$$

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Naive implementation of AD is powerful, but can be slow compared to manual codes

#### MRST:

- vectorized AD library with variable-major ordering
- acceleration through C++-extensions





Variable-major ordering

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### MRST:

- vectorized AD library with variable-major ordering
- acceleration through C++-extensions

### OPM:

- switch from variable-major to cell-major gave speedup
- further speedup from TPFA-specialized AD library
- Jutul: both version available

Many tricks generally necessary for high efficiency

Example: 3-phase flow in 3D





Performance using Jutul (with Hypre linear solver on a single thread)

Name Model		#cells #wells		AD : linear solver	
SPE1	black-oil, 3-phase	300	2	40%	
Fractures	2-phase, 3-component $(CO_2)$	7 932	2	9.4%	
SPE9	black-oil, 3-phase	9 000	26	28%	
Egg	water–oil, 2-phase	18 553	12	23%	
Olympus	water–oil, 2-phase	192 749	18	14%	
SPE10	water–oil, 2-phase	1 122 000	5	12%	
Sleipner	water–gas (CO <sub>2</sub> ), 2-phase	1 986 176	1	23%	

For OPM Flow, the AD and property fraction is typically 30% for models of commercial interest across a wide range of parallelism

Two physical models

Model A with linearization

 $\mathbf{R}_a(\mathbf{x}_a) = \mathbf{0}, \quad -\mathbf{J}_{aa}\Delta\mathbf{x}_a = -\mathbf{R}_a$ 

Model B with linearization

 $\mathbf{R}_b(\mathbf{x}_b) = \mathbf{0}, \quad -\mathbf{J}_{bb} \Delta \mathbf{x}_b = -\mathbf{R}_b$ 

#### Combined model

$$R(\mathbf{x}_a, \mathbf{x}_b) = \begin{bmatrix} R_a(\mathbf{x}_a, \mathbf{x}_b) \\ R_b(\mathbf{x}_b, \mathbf{x}_a) \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$



Model equations, isothermal case:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \big[ \phi \rho(p) \big] + \nabla \cdot \big[ \rho(p) \vec{v} \big] = q, \qquad \vec{v} = -\frac{\mathbf{K}}{\mu(p)} \big[ \nabla p - g \rho(p) \nabla z \big],$$



Model equations, thermal case:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \big[ \phi \rho(p,T) \big] + \nabla \cdot \big[ \rho(p,T) \vec{v} \big] = q, \qquad \vec{v} = -\frac{\mathbf{K}}{\mu(p,T)} \big[ \nabla p - g \rho(p,T) \nabla z \big],$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \big[ \phi(p,T) \rho E_f(p,T) + (1-\phi) E_r(p,T) \big] + \nabla \cdot \big[ (\rho H_f \vec{v})(p,T) \big] - \nabla \cdot \big[ \mathbf{\kappa} \nabla T \big] = q_e.$$

1	Co	nstitutive laws and operators	D
	pvr	= poreVolume(G, rock);	v
	pv	= @(p) pvr .* exp( cr * (p - pr) );	
	$\operatorname{spv}$	= @(p) G.cells.volumes - pv(p);	
	: rho	$- \Theta(\mathbf{n} \mathbf{T})$ rhor $*(1 + (\mathbf{n} + (\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{n} \mathbf{r})))$ $* \exp(-ct * (\mathbf{T} \mathbf{T} \mathbf{r}))$	pro
	mu	$= @(p,T) mu0*(1+cmup*(p-p_r)).*exp(-crut*(T-T_r));$	
	:		
	Hf	= @(p,T) Cw*T + (1-Tr*ct).*(p-pr)./rho(p,T);	hEq
	$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{f}$	= @(p,T) Hf(p,T) - p./rho(p,T);	
	$\mathbf{Er}$	$= @(\Gamma)  Cr*T;$	

Discrete equations
$\label{eq:v_star} \begin{array}{lll} v & = @(p,T) & -(Tr./mu(avg(p),avg(T))) & \dots \\ & .*(~grad(p) - g*avg(rho(p,T)).*dz~); \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
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- Model A: standard reservoir model
- Model B: multisegment well model, representing pressure drops and well-bore storage (often: drift flux)









- famous problem from poroelasticity
- demonstrates two-way coupling of fluid pressure and mechanical deformation



### Differentiating a General Computational Graph



Stacking the residual equations, we can write the simulator as a system

$$S(x, p, q) = 0$$

where

- x: vector of all states in time
- **p**: parameter vector
- q: vector of driving forces

 ${\bf S}$  cannot easily be differentiated because of complex program control, iterative solvers, etc.

**Instead:** compute gradients with adjoint method (Similar to backpropagation from machine learning)

```
J_{\lambda} = O\big(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p})\big) + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\top} \mathbf{S}\big(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}), \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}\big)
```

Gradient: differentiate with respect to  $\mathbf{p}$ 

$$\frac{dJ_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}}{d\mathbf{p}} = \left(\frac{\partial O}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}\right) \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{d\mathbf{p}} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} + \mathbf{S}^{\top} \frac{d\boldsymbol{\lambda}}{d\mathbf{p}}$$

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Forward simulation:  $\mathbf{S}\big(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}),\mathbf{p},\mathbf{q}\big)=0$  Solved with a standard simulator

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 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Ajoint equations:}\\ (\partial \mathbf{S}/\partial \mathbf{x})^\top \, \boldsymbol{\lambda} = - \, (\partial O/\partial \mathbf{x})^\top \\ \mbox{Solved backward for } \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mbox{ after solv-ing forward for } \mathbf{x} \end{array}$ 

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Ajoint equations:  $(\partial \mathbf{S}/\partial \mathbf{x})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\lambda} = -(\partial O/\partial \mathbf{x})^{\top}$ Solved backward for  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$  after solving forward for  $\mathbf{x}$ 

#### Automatic differentiation:

 $\partial S / \partial p$  computed "behind the curtain" by the code during the backward adjoint solve (technically: set p as independent variable)

Forward simulation:  $S(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}), \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = 0$ Solved with a standard simulator We can write the Lagrange function as a sum over all time steps:

$$J_{\lambda} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ O_n \left( \mathbf{x}_n(\mathbf{p}) \right) + \boldsymbol{\lambda}_n^{\top} \mathbf{R}_n \left( \mathbf{x}_n(\mathbf{p}), \mathbf{x}_{n-1}(\mathbf{p}), \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}_n \right) \right]$$

Differentiate with respect to  $\mathbf{p}$ 

$$\frac{dJ_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}}{d\mathbf{p}} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ \left( \frac{\partial O_n}{\partial \mathbf{x}_n} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{R}_n}{\partial \mathbf{x}_n} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{R}_{n+1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_n} \right) \frac{d\mathbf{x}_n}{d\mathbf{p}} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{R}_n}{\partial \mathbf{p}} + \mathbf{S}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{d\boldsymbol{\lambda}_n}{d\mathbf{p}} \right] \right]$$

Backward pass for the adjoints:

$$\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{R}_n}{\partial \mathbf{x}_n}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_n = -\left(\frac{\partial O_n}{\partial \mathbf{x}_n}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} - \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{R}_{n+1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_n}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{n+1}, \qquad n = N, N - 1, \dots, 1$$
$$\frac{dJ_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}}{d\mathbf{p}} = \sum_{n=1}^N \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{R}_n}{\partial \mathbf{p}}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_n$$

- With  $\mathbf{R}: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , the Jacobian is  $\mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  (machine learning  $\mathbf{R}: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $k \ll m$ )
  - Generally, not simple to decide between forward and backward AD
  - However, we are saved by *sparsity* (but it can be difficult to utilize)
- In practice, we only solve  $\mathbf{R}_n(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_{n-1}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})$  to a precribed tolerance:
  - Accuracy of the computed gradient depends highly on this tolerance
  - Errors may accumulate
- $\blacksquare$  To solve the adjoint equations, all  $\mathbf{x}_n$  must be available
  - Typically write and read from disk
  - Special strategies for very large models
- $\blacksquare$  The computed matrices  $\partial \mathbf{R}_n / \partial \mathbf{x}_n$  are not necessarily the correct Jacobians
  - Typically computed using the same code as the forward solution
  - This code may contain logic, specialized techniques and manipulations that invalidates AD

### Example: Time-Lapse End-to-End Permeability Inversion



Complex multiphysics workflow realized by SLIM group (Georgia Tech, Prof. F. Herrmann) using the Jutul flow solver as one out of several components

Minimize over latent variable z

$$\frac{1}{2} \| \mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{G}_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{z})) - \mathbf{d} \|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \| z \|_2^2$$

where

- $\mathbf{d}$ : time-lapse seismic data
- $\mathcal{G}_{\theta^*}$ : maps latent variable to permeability  $\mathbf K$
- S: flow physics (Jutul)
- $\mathcal{R}$ : rock physics
- $\mathcal{F}$ : wave physics module

 $\mathsf{AD}$  + adjoints provide accurate Jacobians of  $\mathcal S$  with respect to  $\mathbf K$ 

This ensures interoperability with other packages in Julia's AD ecosystem

From: M. Louboutin et al. Learned multiphysics inversion with differentiable programming and machine learning. arXiv:2304.05592 [cs.MS]



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Making your simulator differentiable and open source makes it more versatile and simplifies inclusion into other workflows

# Application to Reduced-Order and Data-Driven Modelling





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Why use data-driven or reduced-order models?

- Traditional reservoir simulation models take long time to build
- Forward simulations are computationally costly
- Production optimization: may require hundreds of model evaluations
- Digital twins: desire for models that can be "continuously" updated with incoming data

# Introducing: Coarse-Grid Network (CGNet) Models



- Observations: more connections and parameters seem to improve training ability
- Why not use coarse grid instead of a "streamtube" approach?
- Advantages:
  - more parameters, fewer grid cells
  - graph topology does not depend on well placement

#### References:

- CGNet: Lie & Krogstad, Geoenergy Science and Engineering, 2023. DOI: 10.1016/j.petrol.2022.111266
- TriNet: Devold, MSc thesis, NTNU, 2023
- Krogstad, MS26, Tue 10:05, Dræggen 7



$$Continuous$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\phi \rho_{\alpha} S_{\alpha}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho_{\alpha} \vec{v}_{\alpha}) = q_{\alpha}$$

$$\vec{v}_{\alpha} = -\mathbf{K} \lambda_{\alpha} (\nabla p - \rho_{\alpha} g \nabla z)$$

$$q_{\alpha} = \lambda_{\alpha}^{wb} \mathbf{J} (p^{wb} - p)$$

Discrete  

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \Big[ (\boldsymbol{S}_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}_{\alpha})^{n+1} - (\boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{S}_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}_{\alpha})^{n} \Big] + \operatorname{div}(\boldsymbol{\rho}_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}_{\alpha}^{n+1}) &= \boldsymbol{q}_{\alpha} \\ \boldsymbol{v}_{\alpha} &= -\boldsymbol{T} \operatorname{upw}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\alpha}) \Big( \operatorname{grad}(\boldsymbol{p}) - g \operatorname{avg}(\boldsymbol{\rho}_{\alpha}) \operatorname{grad}(\boldsymbol{z}) \Big) \\ \boldsymbol{q}_{\alpha} &= \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\alpha}^{wb} \mathbf{J}(\boldsymbol{p}^{wb} - \boldsymbol{p}) \end{split}$$



$$Continuous$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\phi \rho_{\alpha} S_{\alpha}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho_{\alpha} \vec{v}_{\alpha}) = q_{\alpha}$$

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Misfit function:

$$M(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{m}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^T \boldsymbol{m}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Here,

 $\begin{array}{l} \boldsymbol{m} & - \text{ scaled misfit, } m_i = (y_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}) - y_i)/w_i \\ y_i & - \text{ the } i\text{th data point (flow rate, bhp, etc.)} \\ y_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}) & - \text{ data point predicted by GPSNet} \\ w_i & - \text{ weight for data point } i \\ \boldsymbol{\theta} & - \text{ tunable parameters, } \{V, T, J\} \end{array}$ 

In addition, we impose certain physical bounds on  $oldsymbol{ heta}$ 

Method: Gauss–Newton with damping (Levenberg–Marquardt), Jacobians computed from adjoint equations



### Example: the Norne Field





#### Semi-realistic model:

- Real-field grid: github.com/OPM/opm-data
- =  $46 \times 112 \times 22$ , 44 915 active cells
- Complex grid: faults, erosions, inactive cells, etc.
- Permeability/porosity: from Lorentzen et al. (SPE J., 2019)
- oil-water system, quadratic relperm, viscosity ratio 5:1
- initial state: filled with oil
- six injectors, constant rate
- five producers, constant bhp





#### • Fit $6 \times 6 \times 1$ mesh to map outline

Potential problems:

CGNet:

- top/bottom surfaces not represented
- wells I1 and P1 within same cell



#### CGNet:

- Fit  $6 \times 6 \times 1$  mesh to map outline
- Potential problems:
  - top/bottom surfaces not represented
  - wells I1 and P1 within same cell
- Fit to data is nonetheless ok, except in producer P5 (initially poorly connected and hence sensitivity≈0)



#### CGNet:

- Fit  $6 \times 6 \times 1$  mesh to map outline
- Potential problems:
  - top/bottom surfaces not represented
  - wells I1 and P1 within same cell
- Fit to data is nonetheless ok, except in producer P5 (initially poorly connected and hence sensitivity≈0)
- Increase to 8 × 8 to avoid multiple wells within the same cell
- Add layers to also represent top and bottom surfaces
- Cull some partially overlapping cells



- Rectangular partition in index space + split disconnected blocks
- Training data: random variation around prescribed bhp and rate controls
- Motivation: excite more reservoir states in training data





- Rectangular partition in index space + split disconnected blocks
- Training data: random variation around prescribed bhp and rate controls
- Motivation: excite more reservoir states in training data
- Case 1: Fixed but different bhp/rates





- Rectangular partition in index space + split disconnected blocks
- Training data: random variation around prescribed bhp and rate controls
- Motivation: excite more reservoir states in training data
- Case 2: P1 shut-in after 8 yrs





- Rectangular partition in index space + split disconnected blocks
- Training data: random variation around prescribed bhp and rate controls
- Motivation: excite more reservoir states in training data
- Case 3: I1/I2 converted to producers, P1 shut-in





- Rectangular partition in index space + split disconnected blocks
- Training data: random variation around prescribed bhp and rate controls
- Motivation: excite more reservoir states in training data
- Case 3: I1/I2 converted to producers, P1 shut-in

## Example: Optimizing Geothermal Storage Plants



- Residential/commercial building complex in Asker
- Complex multi-reservoir geothermal storage facility: three reservoirs, one hundred wells
- Covers heating and cooling needs
- Also provides energy to snow-melting in city streets



Residential/commercial building complex in Asker, Norway wesselkvartalet.no

### Example: Optimizing Geothermal Storage Plants



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- Complex multi-reservoir geothermal storage facility: three reservoirs, one hundred wells
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Simulation of the entire history using observed injection temperatures

Klemetsdal/Andersen, MS65, Thu 14:35/15:00

# Example: Optimizing Geothermal Storage Plants



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- Complex multi-reservoir geothermal storage facility: three reservoirs, one hundred wells
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Tried to make a case for the **importance** of differentiable simulators and the **utility** of automatic differentiation

- First part discussed how to apply AD to **dynamic variables** to aid simulator development:
  - avoid hand-calculation and explicit implementation of Jacobians
  - aid in developing fully coupled multiphysics simulators
- Second part showed how to apply AD to **parameters** in workflows:
  - use of differentiable simulator to generate data-driven or reduced-order models
  - could also have demonstrated optimization workflows
- However, none of the simulators are fully differentiable:
  - differentiable with respect to parameters in the continuous equations
  - not differentiable to grid, tolerances and program control parameters, etc.
  - generally challenging to know upfront where the need for gradients will pop up