Probabilistic Envelope based Visualization for Monitoring Drilling Well Data Logging

Kishansingh Rajput and Guoning Chen

University of Houston, Houston, U.S.A.

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Abstract: In oil and gas industries, to monitor the drilling well status and take actions when needed to prevent damage, different logs are recorded and compared with the reference logs of the nearby existing wells. The deviation of the log of the current well from the majority of the reference logs may indicate potential issues of drilling. Currently, the standard methods used in the industry are line/scatter plots. Due to limitations such as clutter and lack of quantitative information, these plots are not effective. In this paper, a probabilistic envelope based technique is proposed for the visualization and anomaly detection of drilling data. This technique provides quantitative information, is able to avoid the outliers in the reference data and works well even with a large number of reference sequences. This technique is applied to the detection of anomalies from drilling well logs to demonstrate its effectiveness. It is also adapted to the detection of over/under gauge during drilling.

1 INTRODUCTION

In oil and gas industry, well drilling is a process of cutting through rock (and other) formations. During drilling, many logs (or signals), such as, Rate of Penetration (ROP), Weight on Bit, Torque, are recorded and monitored in real-time by engineers during drilling to detect potential abnormal behaviors of the drilling. For example, ROP is the speed at which a drill bit is proceeding further, normally measured in feet per minute. ROP depends on the formations, the drill bit is penetrating through. ROP increases when it enters the sand formation and decreases in Shale (a type of rock) formations. Another reason of increase in ROP could be well kick, a condition in drilling when the pressure within the drilled rock is more than the mud pressure acting on the rock face, which forces the formation fluid to the well-bore (Eren, 2018). In such situation, well engineers need to stop drilling and perform bottom-up (i.e., entire mud volume is pumped to the surface from bottom of a well-bore).

The drilling creates bore-hole. The raw sides of the bore-hole cannot support themselves. If the drilled well is to become a production well, engineers put a casing (tubing) inside the drilled well to protect and support the well-stream, it is called completion process. In the process of casing a well, steel pipes are run down the recently drilled bore-hole. This process is also called setting pipe. The space between the raw formation and the casing is filled with cement to attach the casing and make it stronger. In addition to providing stability and keeping the sides of the well from caving in the bore hole, casing protects the well-stream from outside contaminants, as well as any other reservoirs from the oil or gas that is being produced. Casing wear (damage) occurs as a result of the drill string rubbing against the casing, high pressure, and temperature conditions. The wear depends upon the contact forces, the wear track length (distance of one surface moved across the other), the nature of the surfaces in contact, the material strength and hardness, and the presence of third bodies or lubricants between the wearing surfaces. The main generator of wear track length is drill string rotation. In addition to this, bore-holes are not always vertical and sometimes they are inclined or even horizontal. In such wells there is more chance of wear at the bends.

Figure 1 (e) shows a typical example of casing wear (over/under gauge) in bore-hole. Casing wear is a critical problem in oil wells. If not treated on time, it may lead to severe damage and ultimately abandonment of bore hole, causing huge loss. To prevent this damage, the geometry information of the cross section of the well in different depth is measured via the Caliper log data (Figure 1 (f)).
Figure 1: In oil and gas industry (a), well drilling signals (e.g., some 1D signals as shown in (b)) are actively monitored to identify potential drilling issues. Anomalies in the trend of the live streaming signals when compared with the signals of the same property of the existing nearby wells (small plots on the top) may be the early sign of some damage. Current practice (c) overlaps the live signals on top of the reference signals to identify obvious deviation, resulting in clutter. Our probabilistic envelope representation of the reference signals enables an effective detection of the anomalies with the indication of the amount of deviation (> 75% of the reference signals) (d). After the drilling is completed and the well becomes a production well, casing is put to support the bore-hole (e). To detect the potential casing wear, caliber logs are measured and stored (f). Caliber logs measure the diameter of the casing at a specific depth in a number of pre-defined directions (e.g., 8 in the illustration). These 1D logs are then used to discover over and under gauge sections along the casing manually. The over and under gauge sections are usually visualized in the 3D representation of the casing (g). This 3D rendering does not intuitively show the amount of over and under gauge and their orientation.

Despite measuring different properties, most drilling and well data are represented as 1D signals. The Y axis represents the depth of drilling (with 0 in the top) and X axis corresponds to the value of a specific property (Figure 1 (b)). Because the depth increases when the drilling time increases, drilling signals share some similarity with time series data. Thus, time series data visualization techniques are often used to show the drilling signals. Among them, line plots are the most common representation.

To identify the possible anomaly in the live streaming signal during drilling, current practice often overlaps it with a few reference signals of the nearby wells, as shown in Figure 1 (c). This easily results in cluttering if multiple references are used. Also, even an anomaly can be spotted, it is hard to approximate the amount of deviation the live signal is from the references.

To show casing wear (i.e., over/under gauge), current practice uses 3D rendering to visualize the sections where wear occurs (Figure 1 (g)). This approach has limitations like obstruction and lack of details (e.g., amount of wearing and shape of cross sections at wearing). Although 3D rendering highlights regions of over/under gauge with colors, user needs to manually rotate and shift the 3D scene to find out the interesting sections.

To address the above challenges and improve the efficiency in processing drilling log data for decision making, we introduce a probabilistic envelope (PE-) based visualization technique (Figure 2) adapted from the curve box plot technique (Mirzargar et al., 2014), which provides control over different level of details and focuses on new observations to effectively compare trends of the real time signal with those of multiple reference signals to quickly detect the anomalies. The envelope like plots are created from the reference signals with the help of probability theory and the real time temporal signal is being visualized over the envelopes. More importantly, after some modification, the PE-based visualization technique can be adapted for the summary visualization of the caliber logs for...
the detection and analysis of casing wear. In summary, we make the following contribution.

- We introduce a probabilistic envelope (PE-) based visualization that can provide an adjustable summary representation of a set of similar drilling log data (i.e., some 1D data sequences). This PE-based technique can be applied to both the open-ended 1D data sequences and sets of closed 1D data sequences with small modification (e.g., the circular envelopes).

- Based on the above PE-based summary representation, we develop two visual analytics systems for anomaly detection for drilling log monitoring using nearby reference logs and casing wear visualization and analysis, respectively.

Our PE-based representation is simple to construct and robust to outliers. It is adjustable by the user via a couple intuitive parameters. We have applied the two visual analytics systems developed based on the PE technique to a number of drilling log data⁴ to demonstrate their effectiveness.

2 RELATED WORK

Time series data visualization is very important in different applications, and it becomes crucial in real time applications where quick decision making is dependent on the provided data. Our work is closely related to topics from time series data visualization, trend detection and ensemble time series data visualization. We provide a brief review of the previous work done in these topics.

**Standard Time Series Data Visualization.** Time primitives, type of data and application specific representation need to be considered when visualizing and interacting with time series data (Aigner et al., 2007; Aigner et al., 2008). In interactive exploration of temporal data such as time series signals, time mask can be used to detect one or more disjoint time intervals in which certain metric is followed by the time series data (Andrienko et al., 2017). The concept of time mask and metrics matching is also called rule discovery. Apart from time mask, classification, summarizing and clustering are also widely used techniques in time series data mining (Fu, 2011).

Temporal trend is important for time series data. The detection of trends at different granularity level helps to get an overview of data and its structure (Van et al., 2017). But when there are multiple overlapping sub-trends, it is difficult to separate them via simple visualization techniques. More advanced techniques such as animation (Robertson et al., 2008) may be employed to address this challenge. To address visualizing long time series with screen-size limitations, SignalLens technique (Kincaid, 2010) is proposed that utilizes the Focus+Context techniques. Another similar lens technique called ChronoLens (Zhao et al., 2011) presents a more generalized multi-level lensing technique for visualization and analysis of large time series data. Timenotes (Walker et al., 2015) introduces an interactive tool for stack zooming and overlays for effective visualization of time series data. All these techniques focus on the effective visualization of one time series data and/or the comparison of two time series sequences, which are not sufficient for our problem that requires to compare one signal with N (≫ 2) other signals.

**Ensemble Time Series Data Visualization.** Our problem of using a set of reference time series data to help identify the abnormal behaviors in the target sequence shares some similarity to the ensemble time series data visualization, in which a concise visual representation of a large set of data members is sought to reduce visual clutter. For an ensemble set of curves, spaghetti plots (Wilks, 2011) are usually used to provide an overview of the configuration of the ensemble, which may result in clutter. Generalization of box plots for ensembles of curves is a recent technique to visualize and compare different curves using the concept of data-depth (Mirzargar et al., 2014). An extension of contour box-plots to 3D is used to evaluate shape alignments (Raj et al., 2016). A visualization and exploration approach for modeling and characterizing the relationships and uncertainties in the context of a multidimensional ensemble dataset is proposed in (Chen et al., 2015). Hao proposed a new ensemble visualization approach for network security analysis (Hao et al., 2015) and a new visualization for temporal ensembles (Hao et al., 2016). Potter et al. proposed a framework for statistical visualization of ensemble data (Potter et al., 2009). A more comprehensive review of ensemble visualization techniques can be found in a recent survey (Wang et al., 2018).

In this work, we seek for a representation that can convey the probability information of the distribution of the samples on the reference sequences for anomaly detection with certain quantitative feedback (e.g., the target sequence is different than 75% of the reference in a specific time period). To address that, we introduce a probabilistic envelop technique. In fact, our technique can be considered a special case of the curved box plot (Mirzargar et al., 2014) with a

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¹To protect the credentials of the data source as required by the data owner, these data were modified from the original data through small perturbation and resampling.
few major differences. First, our reference signals are naturally aligned in time axis, enabling a simple and efficient envelope construction. Second, we construct our envelope representation enclosing all samples of the references, while curve box plot need not. Third, we provide a parameter to the user to control the level of the detail of the constructed envelope (Figure 4).

3 ENVELOPE-BASED VISUALIZATION

In this section, we introduce our probability envelope based (or PE) technique, which constructs a probability envelope representation with multiple likelihood (or probabilistic) layers from a set of reference 1D signals. The current signal can then be visualized over the envelope representation to effectively reveal abnormal behaviors. The likelihood distribution resembles envelope structure with multiple layers as shown in Figure 2 (b). The layers (shown with different color shading) in the envelope structure represents different likelihood of the reference signals, that is, how likely a certain percentage of the reference signals falling within the given layer. In the following, we describe how to construct the probabilistic envelope with different probability levels.

We estimate the likelihood of a given sample on a reference falling within a given layer by computing the proportion of points from the reference signals falling within the specific layer. The user can decide these proportions based on the need of their specific application and tasks. **Input Parameters:** List of reference signals, number of layers (m) along with their probability values. Step-size for clustering.

**Method:** Firstly, all the reference signals are merged into a single signal while preserving their time axis (Figure 2 (a)). Then, the observations are clustered using a step-size over time axis. Step-size can either be provided by the user or a default value can be used. For each cluster, likelihood of the observations falling at certain magnitude is computed using the probability theory. For each cluster, the algorithm starts from the central/median point and gradually moves away in both directions until it encloses the desired number of points to fulfill the probability constraint. For example, if a cluster consists of 20 points and the probability value for the central envelope, provided by the user, is 50%, then starting from the central point the algorithm will keep moving outwards in both directions until it encloses 10 points (10 is 50% of 20), and the algorithm will mark the enclosing region as the central envelope. Similarly, to define other envelope regions, the algorithm will start from both the boundaries of the previous envelope in the opposite direction and follow the similar procedure. This process will be repeated until all the envelopes are defined. Algorithm 1 provides a pseudo-code for the computation of envelopes. For a likelihood distribution with m layers, we need 2m boundaries. In the algorithm we call these boundary arrays as boundary_lower and boundary_upper, representing lower and upper bounds of envelope, respectively.

Like the curve box plot technique (Mirzargar et al., 2014), we start with the median point (or center position) to grow the envelope. This is different from techniques that construct envelope around the average (or mean) curve (Wang et al., 2018), which may not have equal number of curves (or samples) on the two sides of the average curve for the subsequent probability estimation. Different from the curve box plot, we provide the user the flexibility to specify different levels of probability (see Figure 3). More importantly,
we allow the user to control the level of the details of the features of the envelope (Figure 4). Finally, our envelope encloses all reference signals, while the curve box plot need not, and we apply our envelope to detect anomalies of the target signal based on the user-specified probability level (Figure 7).

To visualize the obtained envelopes, darker shades for the envelopes with high probability values are used while gradually decreasing the darkness of the shades for the envelopes with lower probability values (Figure 2 (b)). In Figure 2 (b), the envelope structures consist of 3 layers with the probability values of 50%, 75% and 100%, respectively. Intuitively, the most inner (or central) layer of the envelope encloses 50% of the points/observations from reference signals, middle envelope layer encloses 75% of the observations and the outer envelope layer encloses all the observations in the reference signals.

Algorithm 1: Algorithm to calculate boundaries for envelope structure.

1: Initialize $P$ with list of percentage values $P_1, P_2, ..., P_m$ for all the m envelopes and $D_0$ as step-size for clustering
2: From all the reference signals group signal points falling within each $D_0$ step (based on depth) as a cluster
3: for each cluster do
4: Put all the points of the cluster to a list $L$
5: Find Median $M$ of the list $L$
6: length ← length of $L$
7: Initialize $m$ temporary empty lists as $t_{p1}, t_{p2}, ..., t_{pm}$
8: for each $P_i$ in $P$ do
9: Find number of points $N_i$ in the envelope i using $N_i = \text{int}\left(\frac{\text{length of } P_i}{100}\right)$
10: for $j$ in range 1...$N_i$ do
11: $X ←$ A point nearest to $M$ in $L$
12: $X$ ← A point nearest to $M$ in $L$
13: Add $X$ to $t_{p_i}$
14: Remove $X$ from $L$
15: Stop if $L$ is empty
16: Append all the element of $t_{p_{i-1}}$ to $t_{p_i}$
17: for i=1 to len($P$) do
18: Add $\min(t_{p_i})$ to $\text{boundary lower}_i$
19: Add $\max(t_{p_i})$ to $\text{boundary upper}_i$
20: return \{ $\text{boundary lower}_1, \text{boundary upper}_1, ..., \text{boundary lower}_m, \text{boundary upper}_m$ \}

4 EVALUATION OF PE REPRESENTATION

In this section, we provide a brief evaluation of the proposed PE-based visualization technique in terms of its time complexity, robustness to the outliers in the reference signals, and the effect of the step size parameter for the control of the level-of-details in the envelope representation.

Time Complexity. Consider $r$ reference signals each consisting of $n$ observations (or samples). To compute the likelihood with $m$ layers, the run-time complexity of the above described Algorithm 1 is a function of $r$ and $n$, i.e., $O(A) = O(r \times n)$. Note that the time complexity does not depend on the number of layers or the probability values assigned to each layer. Therefore, the time complexity of likelihood computation is proportional to the number of aggregate data points in all the references. It is observed that sometimes, time series data are described in terms of length of time axis ($T$) and length of time step ($S$) at which observations are repeated. In this case, the time complexity is $O(A) = O\left(r \times \frac{T}{S}\right)$. As the run-time complexity depends on the number of references, the computation will be slow if the number of references is very large. As the quality of the envelope structures are enhanced with increase in number of reference signals, there is a trade-off between accuracy and speed.
Robustness to Outliers. The standard method does not have significant difference on outlier visualization with small or large number of references as shown in Figure 3 (a). In contrast, our PE-technique can mitigate the effect of outliers with an appropriate number of layers and probability values, but this mitigation is more effective when the number of references is large, provided the majority of them do not have many outliers as shown in Figure 3 (b–e). Reducing the probability of outermost layer can avoid the outliers, but with a smaller number of references where the proportion of outliers is large, it needs a large decrease in probability value which affects the sections with no outliers. On the other hand, with a large number of references and less proportion of outliers, it works well with slight decrease in probability as can be understood from Figure 3.

Effect of the Step-size for Clustering. The step-size parameter is used to control the width of the individual time intervals used to compute the probabilistic of the observations falling within these intervals. The smaller the step size the finer (or more detailed) the temporal trend of the constructed envelopes reveal; the larger the step size, the smoother the obtained envelopes will be. Figure 4 illustrates the effect of different step sizes to the obtained envelope.

5 APPLICATIONS

We apply the envelope based aggregated visualization technique to two drilling well applications, i.e., the anomaly detection in drilling logs data based on reference signals (Section 5.1) and casing wear detection and visual analysis (Section 5.2).

5.1 Anomaly Detection from Drilling Well Logs with References

To apply the introduced PE representation for the anomaly detection in drilling logs, we develop a simple web-based visualization system based on Dash and plotly. Figure 5 shows the interface for the PE-based visualization. We have a control panel with some parameters along which are set to their default values based on earlier suggestions from the experts. Our system allows the user to select a portion of the signals to have a closer look. The control panel allows the user to specify the step size parameter to control the detail of the envelop shape and the probability value for each envelope. The user can also specify which level of the envelope is used to detect anomaly (75% is the default threshold). To avoid noise being detected as anomaly, our approach does not mark the signal being anomalous until it is out of the threshold envelope for at least x-feet, where x is Offset Range for Detection on the control panel. The change in the envelope structures and step-size have a near real-time effect on the visualization, hence users have a flexibility to change the envelope structure and offset range on the go. During the drilling process engineers want to focus more on the latest portion of the incoming signal. To allow the engineers to focus on the latest portion of the signal, the earlier portion of the signal will be simplified and faded out.

In some cases, reference signals are not available or not useful (e.g., the reference wells are too far away). In such cases, a rigid boundary based anomaly detection technique can be used. This can be easily accomplished using simple line plots with boundaries that follow certain function enclosing the normal value range. This function may be according to the seasonality (if any) or any other factor depending on the application, generally these boundaries are flat as shown in Figure 6 (a) with blue color. The sections of the signal are marked with red color which has magnitude outside the boundaries. To provide the quantitative measure of the consistency of the signal, results shown in Figure 6 (a) are summarized in Figure 6 (b) in the form of histogram. Histogram shows the proportion of signal data points falling inside and outside the boundaries, respectively.

We apply our PE-technique to help detect anomalies from the drilling logs. To do so, the user needs
Figure 6: Hard boundary based signal monitoring.

Figure 7: PE-based visualization (with 15 references and step-size 6) for drilling signal monitoring. Three probability layers, 50%, 75%, and 100%, are used. The current signal is shown as the green line. The red sections indicate places where the signal goes outside of the specified likelihood threshold. (a), (b), and (c) uses the 50%, 75%, and 100% layers as threshold, respectively.

to first mark a layer (based on probability values given initially for the computation of the envelopes) as threshold and offset depth. Threshold layer is the outermost layer enclosing valid magnitude range for the current signal, and all the observations falling outside of this envelope will be considered as anomaly. Figure 7 shows some representative results of the detected sections with anomalies using different probability levels on a few synthetic ROP signal logs with 15 references for depth up to 470 feet with ROP observations taken at each 0.5 feet. The envelopes there are constructed with step-size 6, offset 20 feet, based on the 15 reference signals. In Figure 7 (a), the outermost layer (with 100% probability) is used, in which no anomaly is found. For Figure 7 (b) and (c), 75% and 50% layers are used for anomaly detection, respectively. Specifically, Figure 7 (b) marks ROP as abnormal in depth interval between 210 feet and 240 feet since the ROP magnitude is higher than its magnitude in at least 75% of the reference logs. Since the ROP value in this depth range is still very close to the boundary of 75% layer (i.e., not deviating too much from the majority), the engineers may consider its behavior still in the normal range. Our framework also marks sections between 380 feet and 470 feet because the ROP magnitude is lower than at least 75% of the reference logs. The decrease of ROP can indicate the change of the rock formation (e.g., becoming harder to cut through). In addition, the ROP seems continuously dropping, even though it remains within the 100% envelope layer. The engineers will need to keep a close eye on the behavior of this drill and may need to stop the drilling if ROP drops out of the outermost layer later.

Figure 5 shows the application of PE-technique on DMSE logs during drilling. DMSE is amount of work needed to be done to excavate unit volume of rock. Drilling through hard rocks require higher DMSE while sand formations need lower DMSE to maintain certain ROP. Nearby wells are expected to have similar surface formations at same depth with small margin. The envelopes shown in Figure 5 are constructed with 24 reference signals. Both references and live signals are for depth 0-7500 feet where each observation is 0.5 feet apart (total 15000 data points per signal). Our framework marks live signal after 7140 feet as abnormal as the observations fall outside 70% probability range continuously for more than 20 feet (offset range for detection). The red section indicates live DMSE deviates for long duration from the references. Depending on other logs, this could indicate a formation transition or a potential fault in machines (since there are fluctuation in live signal), well engineers could decide to stop drilling and perform corrective measures.

Discussion. A popular automatic, machine learning based technique for time series data is Recurrent Neural Network (RNN). In some applications one-dimensional convolutional layers based neural networks also perform reasonably well. But these techniques work as a black-box, meaning that the computations behind the inferences (or predictions by the model) are not intuitive to the end user. In our applications, the engineers wish to know what leads the models to classify a time-series as anomalous. On the other hand, our technique is very intuitive, flexible, and easy to use. The engineers have complete control over the parameters, and they have very high confi-
5.2 Visual Analysis of Bore-hole Gauge with Circular Probability Envelope

In this section, we describe how the above PE-based representation can be adapted to support the visualization and detection of casing wear in bore-hole gauge. First, we briefly describe the current approach to provide more background about the caliber log data collected for bore-hole gauge monitoring.

The current approach to visualize gauge (casing wear) with caliper log data is to use multiple connected area plots providing vertical casing view from different angles (directions). This is demonstrated in Figure 8. Radius measurements in opposite directions are plotted together as an area plot to create a vertical casing view (Figure 8 (b)). Each plot shows casing from a particular direction as described in Figure 8. Depth ranges within which over/under gauge exists can be easily captured with these plots along with their direction information.

For caliper having many measuring fingers (typically 20-80 fingers), this approach will generate many plots. Manually analyzing and establishing correlation between such a large number of plots is labor intensive. To address that, we devise a visual analytic strategy based on a circular probabilistic envelope – the extension of the previously introduced PE-technique described next.

5.2.1 Circular Probabilistic Envelope

The envelope based representation introduced in Section 3 can be applied to a set of 1D closed sequences (e.g., closed curves) that have the same center and the same number of sample directions (e.g., diameter measures), which leads to the circular probabilistic envelope. Specifically, starting from the center and along each sample direction, a median point is first found based on the distributions of the samples from different sequences in this direction. Then, the interval for 50%, 75%, ..., 100% probability of distribution can be constructed with the same process as described in Algorithm 1. Note that different from the original PE-technique, there is no need to specify a step-size for the circular envelope computation as the circle is naturally sub-divided into segments based on the individual sample directions of the diameter measures.

To apply the circular envelope representation for the caliper log, we connect the diameter measurements in different directions in order at a given depth to form a closed curve (illustrated by Figure 9 (a)). We then construct the circular envelope representation described above. Figure 9 (b) illustrates a circular envelope representation, which provides a summary view and a qualitative evaluation of the well for a specific depth range. At the center of envelopes an angle is provided to show the overall orientation of the well (i.e., the orientation of the summary elliptical shape of the circular envelope). If all the diameter measurements at different depth are perfect (i.e., identical to an ideal diameter), there is no orientation information that can be extracted.

The time complexity of the computation of these circular envelopes is similar to that discussed in Section 4. As explained in Section 4, time-complexity does not depend on the number of layers or probabil-
5.2.2 Detection of over/under Gauge

To detect over/under gauge, we first compute a new heat-map based on the circumferences of the individual cross sections of the well (Figure 10). Specifically, we unwrapped the well by choosing one particular direction and compute a vertical discrete heat-map based on the difference between the circumference of each cross section with the circumference of the specified ideal circle of the well. If the difference is beyond a threshold, ±ε (also specified by the user), an over or under gauge event occurs.

Due to measurement error and background noise during sensing, over/under gauge may occur in a very short period of time (or in depth) – which is usually an artifact, as in practice over/under gauge event usually persists for a longer period in time and depth. To filter out this artifact, we use a depth range threshold M, similar to the Offset Range described for the anomaly detection. Specifically, we only consider a depth range as an over/under gauge portion if it is larger than M feet. Users have an option to select the median circumference of the circumferences at all depths as the ideal circumference instead of specifying one explicitly. Users can also modify the depth range threshold M. When an over gauge event occurs, the corresponding depth range will be colored in red in the circumference heat-map. Similar, the depth range with an under gauge event is colored in red, while purple indicates both over and under gauge occur in a depth range (Figure 10).

Note that although in theory an over/under gauge cross section may have the circumferences identical to the circumference of the ideal circle, in practice this rarely occurs. In bare-hole application, if there is wear it is most likely to have difference in two semi-circumference because the chances of it forming a symmetric ellipse are low.

Once the heat-map is obtained and the depth ranges where over/under gauge occurs are detected, we use the above envelope visualization to plot the statistics of the circumvents within each of these depth ranges to represent the amount and orientation of the over/under gauge in that depth range. To provide the quantitative evaluation of the over/under gauge along with directional information, we also construct a radial bar chart connected to the envelope plot, as shown in Figure 11 (b). The red bars out-
Figure 12: Detection of depth ranges of Over/Under gauges and their detailed evaluation. Detected depth Ranges with 
over/under gauge from the heatmap, are all individually plotted with envelope plot for detailed evaluation.

side the casing represents over gauge and the blue bars
inside casing represents under gauge. The lengths of
the bars represent the amount of over/under gauge in
terms of physical length measurement, and the color
shows the amount of observations (i.e., the percent-
age) causing the over/under gauge in that direction.
The more saturated the color, the more observations
with over/under gauge.

5.2.3 Use Cases

We apply the above visualization techniques to help
provide a detailed study of a section of the bore-hole
configuration on caliper log data of a well with depth
of 1000 feet. A caliper with 16 fingers was used,
providing diameter measurements in 8 different direc-
tions, measurements were taken with a fixed interval
of a feet (total 16000 data points), Figure 12 demon-
strates this. In this case, three depth ranges with dif-
ferent over/under gauge configurations are automati-
cally detected with \( M = 5 \) ft in the heat-map shown in
the left with ideal radius of 5 ± 0.5 inches. For each
of the detected depth ranges, the corresponding cross
sections of the well are used to construct the circu-
elar envelopes. Here, the envelopes with three differ-
et probability levels (with probability values 50%,
75%, and 100%) are shown. The summary radial bar
charts are also visualized alongside the circular en-
vlopes, facilitating a detailed inspection of the re-
spective over/under gauge configurations.

For the depth range between 312ft to 363ft, over
gauge is detected along the vertical direction (i.e.,
along 91.58° and −91.58°). The configuration of this
over gauge is almost symmetry along the vertical di-
rection as indicated by the radial bar chart. The over-
all deviation of this over gauge is about 1 inch from
the ideal configuration and about 0.5 inch from the
boundary of the ideal margin, indicating small thin-
ning as well as deformation of the casing wall in
the 90° direction. For the depth range from 800ft
to 899ft, another over gauge is detected. Different
from the above over gauge, this over gauge exhibits a
non-symmetry configuration primarily along 45°
direction. This is clearly indicated in both the circu-
elar envelope representation and the radial bar chart.
The amount of over gauge is about 0.9 inch from the
boundary of the ideal radius margin, suggesting the
wear of the casing wall in the 45° direction. For the
depth range starting 640ft and ending at 699ft, both
over gauge and under gauge are detected within it.
While the over gauge occurs in a much wider angle
range and with a roughly symmetry configuration, the
under gauge occurs in a much narrower angle range
with a non-symmetry configuration. Nonetheless, the
over/under gauge is increasing in this depth, which
may indicate the casing wear is getting worse due to
the rubbing of drillstring against the casing wall be-
comes more severe when drilling down deeper into
the well. The existence of the under gauge also indi-
cates the casing in this depth is not only worn but may also be deformed due to higher pressure and temperature (Lejano et al., 2010), requiring further inspection.

From this example, we show that compared to the existing practice (Figure 8), our circular envelopes can help the user intuitively identify the amount of over/under gauge (based on the distance between the red circle and the purple/ideal circle) and the orientation of the bore hole gauge. In the meantime, the radial bar chart provides a concise summary of the statistics of the over/under gauge configurations.

**Impact of the Number of Directions (or Fingers) in the Bore-hole Measures.** Figure 13 shows probabilistic envelope plots for the data having radius measurement for 8 and 16 directions at each depth level. The plots with more radial directions can more accurately represent the actual wear in the casing as shown in Figure 13 (b)(d) compared to Figure 13 (a)(c). Nonetheless, with more directions more data need to be stored and processed. A good trade off needs to be made to achieve sufficient accuracy in the envelope representation while having reasonable storage space and processing time for the data.

**Feedback from the Experts.** Our visualization systems have been used by several well engineers in their daily tasks of monitoring the live drilling of a new well as well as analyzing a casing wear of a production well to decide when to start the repair. Two of these engineers provide us the feedback on the use of the systems introduced above. One of them remarks that “they have very good potential...when properly used and relevant data are fed to it, can be of great help to the well engineers and geophysicists”. The other engineer comments “ in the presence of a caliper or similar log measuring the internal diameter of a casing that has been installed in a well, the tool can effectively reveal casing wear for that casing.” The tool can effectively reveal “damage caused to the internal of casing caused by the drillstring (or other downhole equipment) rubbing against the casing while drilling the well”. The summary information conveyed by the envelope-based representation is “intuitive and thus is more effective than the custom tools provided by the service provider (who did the logging work).” The “utilization of plotly dash makes the tools immensely interactive...the user does not need to be trained, but can use the tools easily.” The engineers also sug-
gested us “to try to increase the use cases and trials of the app to better identify any room for improvement.”

6 CONCLUSION

In this work, we have developed a new probability and envelope (layers) based visualization, called the probabilistic envelope based (PE-) technique, for the summary representation and visualization of different drilling log data. Our PE-based representation is easy to construct and support adjustable visualization to provide quantitative information about the statistics of the data. We have developed two visual analysis systems based on this representation to support the anomaly detection from drilling log signals and the casing wear analysis, both of which are important tasks in oil and gas industries. We have applied our systems to a number of drilling log data sets to demonstrate their effectiveness.

Even though our results show that the PE-technique performs much better than the standard methods in the anomaly detection and provides a concise and effective representation of various casing wear, it is yet to assess how easily the proposed PE-technique can be adapted to other more challenging situations. In addition, the proposed PE-technique is computed based on the probabilistic information. In the future, other statistics information can be used to aid the design of the visualization to address different needs of specific applications.

REFERENCES


