

Physics-Informed Neural Networks for Reservoir Pressure Dynamics

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Contents

1. Introduction	3
2. Methodology	3
2.1. Mathematical Model	3
2.1.1. Governing Equation	3
2.2. Physics-Informed Neural Network Architecture	5
2.2.1. Network design	5
2.2.2. Loss Function Components	5
2.3. Implementation Details	6
2.3.1. Automatic Differentiation	6
2.3.2. Training Strategy	6
2.3.3. Synthetic Data Generation	6
3. Results and discussion	6
3.1. Plotting of the results	6
3.2. Training Performance	9
3.3. Pressure Field Evolution	9
3.4. Complex model and complex scenario implementation:	9
3.4.1. Complex model in case of basic single well : MLP tanh Vs MLP sin Vs FNO	9
3.4.2. Complex scenario (Unable to get good reconstruction)	11
3.5. Summarized analysis	12
4. Conclusion	13
5. References	14

1. Introduction

For optimizing production strategies and ensuring efficient resources extraction, accurate prediction is vital in oil reservoir management. Traditional numerical methods addressed such as finite element and finite difference methods addressed that need, however they are computationally and often not stable especially for real-time applications, inverse problems and stiff systems. On the other hand, Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs) offer favorable alternative by embedding physical laws inside the neural network architectures, which are encoded as partial differential equations (PDEs).

This project implements PINNs to predict pressure dynamics in oil reservoirs based on:

- **Permeability maps:** Describing the ease of fluid flow through reservoir rock
- **Well configurations:** Single and multiple production well scenarios
- **Physical constraints:** Time-dependent diffusivity equation governing fluid flow

The implementation draws from recent advances in operator learning (Li et al., 2021, 2023), adapting Physics-Informed Neural Operators (PINO) concepts to reservoir engineering problems. Several scenarios are investigated:

- **Single Well Scenario [case 1]:** One production well at a domain center (0.5,0.5) with constant permeability.
- **2 wells scenario [case 2]:** production well places outside the measured domain (D) with constant permeability.
 $(D) \{ (x,y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1 \}$
- **Multiple wells scenario [case 3]:** several productions well places randomly inside the domain (D) with constant permeability.
- **Multiple wells [case 4]** with more complex systems with non-constant permeability.

2. Methodology

2.1. Mathematical Model

2.1.1. Governing Equation

When considering 2D oil reservoir, pressure dynamics $p(x, y)$ are governed by the following diffusivity equation, that we are studying in this project

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(x, y, t) = \nabla \cdot (K(x, y) \nabla p) + Q(x, y, t) \quad (1)$$

For a constant permeability k , this simplifies to:

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(x, y, t) = K \nabla^2 p + Q(x, y, t) = K \left(\frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial y^2} \right) + Q \quad (2)$$

For compressible flow in porous media, we can consider the following PDE

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(x, y, t) = \eta \nabla^2 p + \frac{q}{\phi} = \left(\frac{k}{\phi \mu c_t} \right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial y^2} \right) + \frac{q}{\phi} \quad (3)$$

Where:

- t is the time, (x, y) is spatial coordinates.
- $p(x, y, t)$ is the pressure field at a position (x, y) and time t , which is primary unknown.
- $\eta = \frac{k}{\phi \mu c_t}$ is the diffusivity $k(x, y)$ is the permeability map (heterogeneous), ϕ is the porosity (constant = 0.2), μ is the viscosity (constant=0.001).
- $q(x, y, t)$ is the source or sink term representing wells (negative for production)
- Domain : $(D) = \{(x, y, t) \in [0,1] \times [0,1] \times [0,1]\}$.

2.1.2. Boundary and Initial Conditions

- **Initial Condition (IC) :** For case 1,2,3 we consider an Uniform initial pressure at $t = 0 : p(x, y, 0) = 1$
- **Boundary Conditions (BC) :**

For the case 4 we used Dirichlet condition on the left boundary ($x = 0$): $p(0, y, t) = p_0$ (constant pressure). For all the cases, Neumann condition, a no-flow on all boundaries are used:

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial n} = 0 \quad \text{at } x = 0,1 \text{ and } y = 0,1 \quad (4)$$

2.1.3. Well Source Term

Wells are modeled as Gaussian sources:

$$q(x, y, t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_w} q_i \exp \left(-\frac{(x - x_{w,i})^2 + (y - y_{w,i})^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \quad (5)$$

Where q_i is the production rate ($q_i < 0$ for extraction), $(x_{w,i}, y_{w,i})$ is well location, and $\sigma \in \{0.05, 0.08\}$ is the well influence radius.

For case 4, we used injectors: $q_i(t) = \text{base} \times (1 + 0.3 \sin(2\pi t/T_{\max}))$ and producers $q_i(t) = \text{base} \times (1 - 0.3 \cos(\pi t/T_{\max}))$.

2.2. Physics-Informed Neural Network Architecture

2.2.1. Network design

For the case 1,2,3 We deployed a basic Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) with input layer : 3 neurons (x, y, t) , hidden layers consisting of 3 layers of 40 neurons each and an output layer of 1 layer (pressure p) and a hyperbolic tangent (Tanh) activation function to enhance non linearity.

Architecture can be summarized as $[3] \rightarrow [40] \rightarrow [40] \rightarrow [40] \rightarrow [1]$.

For case 4, a sine activation function are employed (periodic activation functions) with an architecture of $[3] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [1]$.

2.2.2. Loss Function Components

The physics informed loss enforces four constraints that are all embedded in the final loss to be optimized:

- Data Fidelity Loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{data}} = \frac{1}{N_{\text{data}}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{data}}} (p_{\text{pred}}(x_i, y_i, t_i) - p_{\text{data},i})^2 \quad (6)$$

- PDE Residual Loss (physics compliance):

$$r = \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} - \nabla \cdot (k \nabla p) - q = \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} - k \Delta p - q \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\text{pde}} = \frac{1}{N_{\text{col}}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{col}}} r(x_i, y_i, t_i)^2 \quad (7)$$

- Initial Condition Loss

$$t = 0: p(x, y, 0) = 1 \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\text{ic}} = \frac{1}{N_{\text{ic}}} \sum_{t=0} (p_{\text{pred}}(x_i, y_i, 0) - 1)^2 \quad (8)$$

- Boundary Condition Loss

$$\forall x \in \{0,1\}, y \in \{0,1\}: \frac{\partial p}{\partial n} = 0$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{bc}} = \frac{1}{N_{\text{bc}}} \sum_{\text{boundary points}} \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0,1} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} \Big|_{y=0,1} \right)^2 \quad (9)$$

- Total Loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = \lambda_{\text{data}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{data}} + \lambda_{\text{pde}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{pde}} + \lambda_{\text{bc}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{bc}} + \lambda_{\text{ic}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{ic}} \quad (10)$$

2.3. Implementation Details

2.3.1. Automatic Differentiation

PyTorch's autograd is used to compute derivative such as the first derivatives: $\frac{\partial p}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial p}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial p}{\partial t}$ as well as the second derivatives $\frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2}, \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial y^2}$ for the Laplacian operators. All derivatives are computed during forward pass with `create_graph = True` for higher order gradients.

2.3.2. Training Strategy

- **Optimizer:** Adam with initial learning rate 1e-3
- **Learning rate schedule:** Step decay ($\gamma = 0.5$ every 5000 epochs)
- **Collocation points:** 1000 (single well) to 1500 (multiple wells) randomly sampled per epoch
- **Training epochs:** 15,000 for both scenarios
- **Data augmentation:** Synthetic pressure measurements (20-30 points) with noise

2.3.3. Synthetic Data Generation

Sparse pressure measurements are generated using:

$$p_{data} = p_0 - \sum_w \alpha \cdot t \cdot \exp(-((x - x_w)^2 + (y - y_w)^2)/(2\sigma_{data}^2))$$

This represents pressure drawdown near wells over time.

This project can be found at <https://github.com/Akmuhammet01/Physics-informed-Reservoir-Model/pulse>.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Plotting of the results

Fig. 1, Fig. 2, Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 plots the training loss of the PINNs architecture loss alongside with individual loss and the pressure map around the wells at 4 different amount of time $t \in \{0, 0.3, 0.6, 1\}$. In Fig. 1, the single well scenario, the well is placed in the middle, at (0.5, 0.5). In the Fig. 2, the 2 wells scenario, the well are places randomly outside the domaine (D), to mimics the impact of the unknown wells placements in the observed data. In the Fig. 3 and Fig. 4, all wells are placed randomly inside the domain (D).

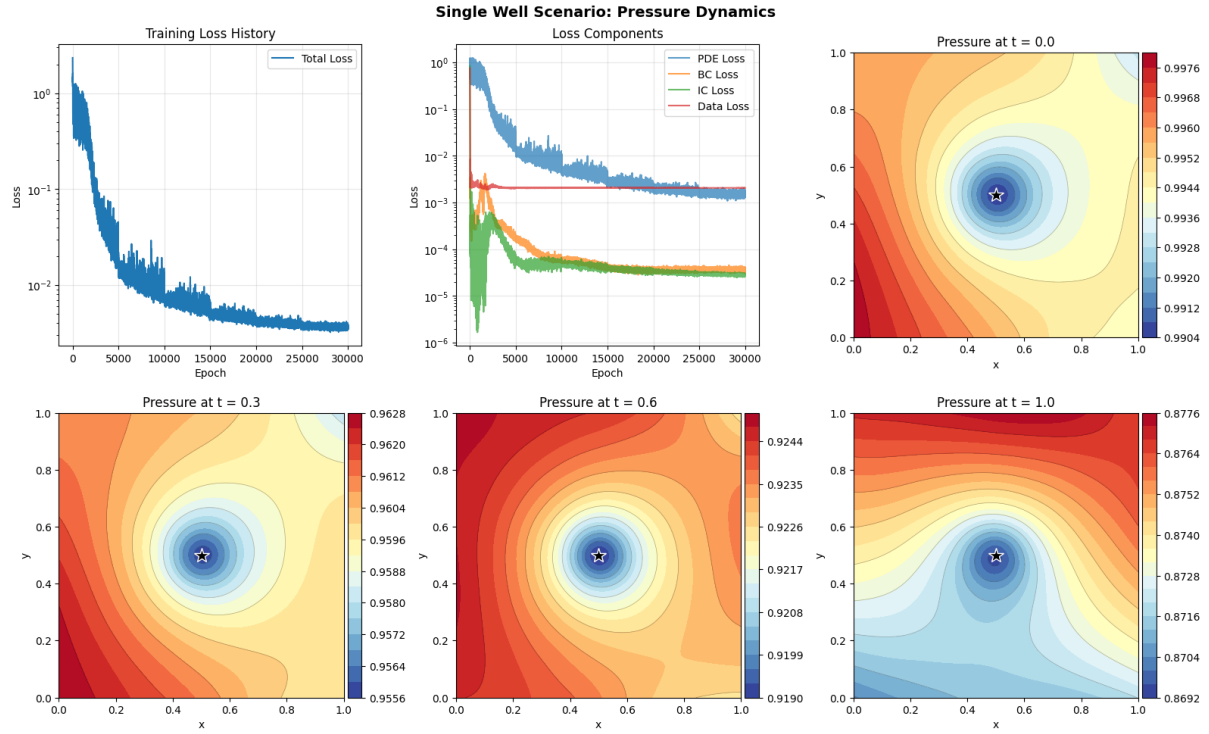


Figure 1 Single well scenario with its training loss history which includes total loss, PDE loss, BC loss, IC loss, Data loss. It includes also visualization of the pressure around the well at time step 0, 0.3, 0.6 and 1.0 . The well is located at $(0.5, 0.5)$.

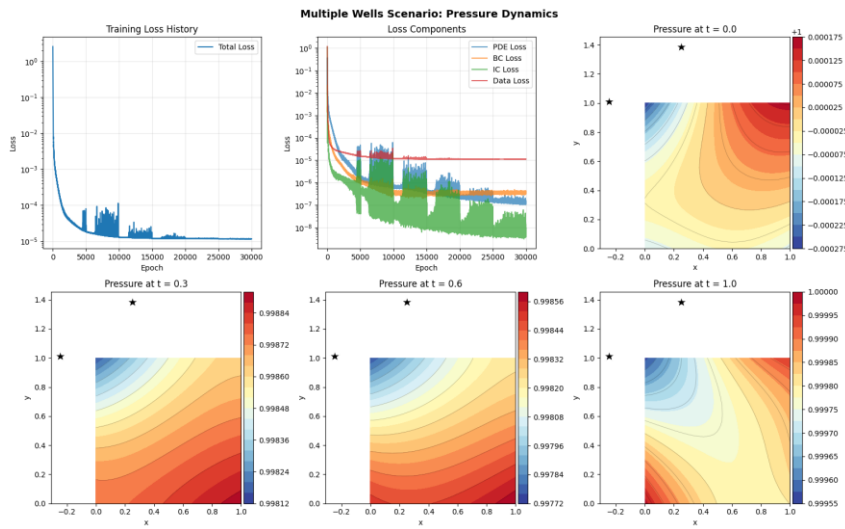


Figure 2. 2 wells scenario with its training loss history which includes total loss, PDE loss, BC loss, IC loss, Data loss. It includes also visualization of the pressure around the well at time step 0, 0.3, 0.6 and 1.0 . The well is located outside the Domain

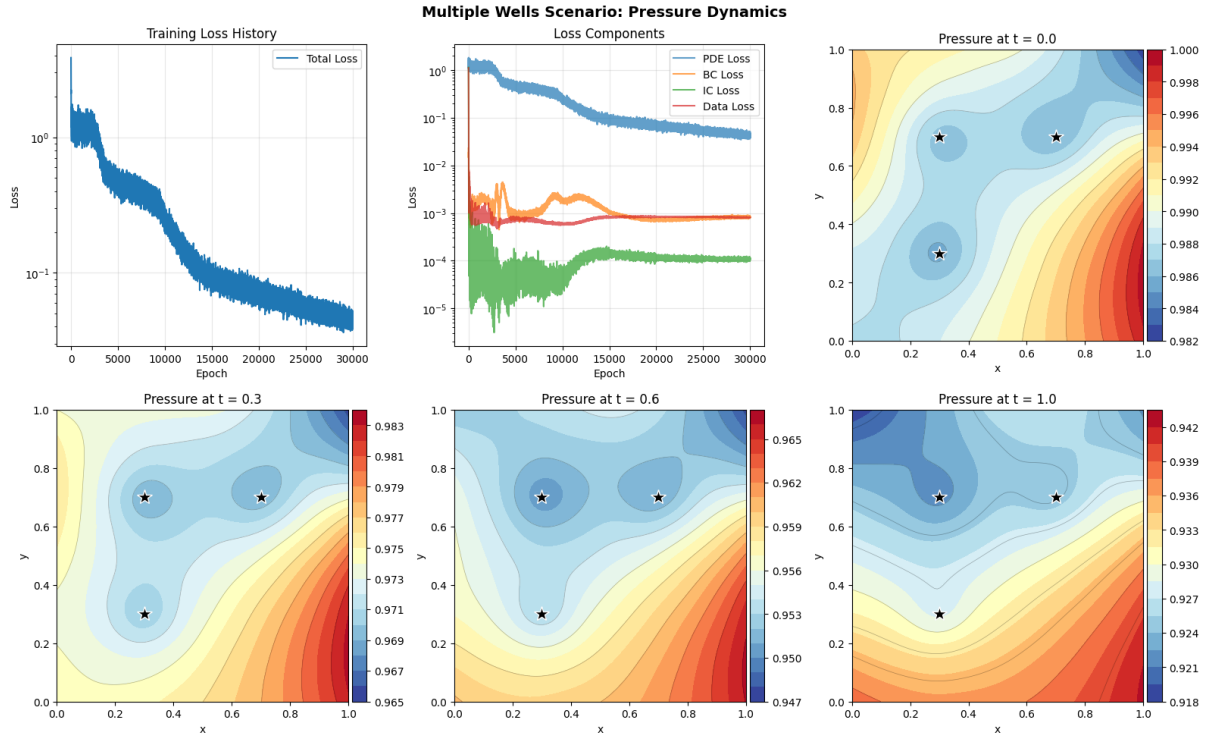


Figure 3. 3 wells scenario with its training loss, and visualization of pressure. The 3 wells are places randomly inside the domain

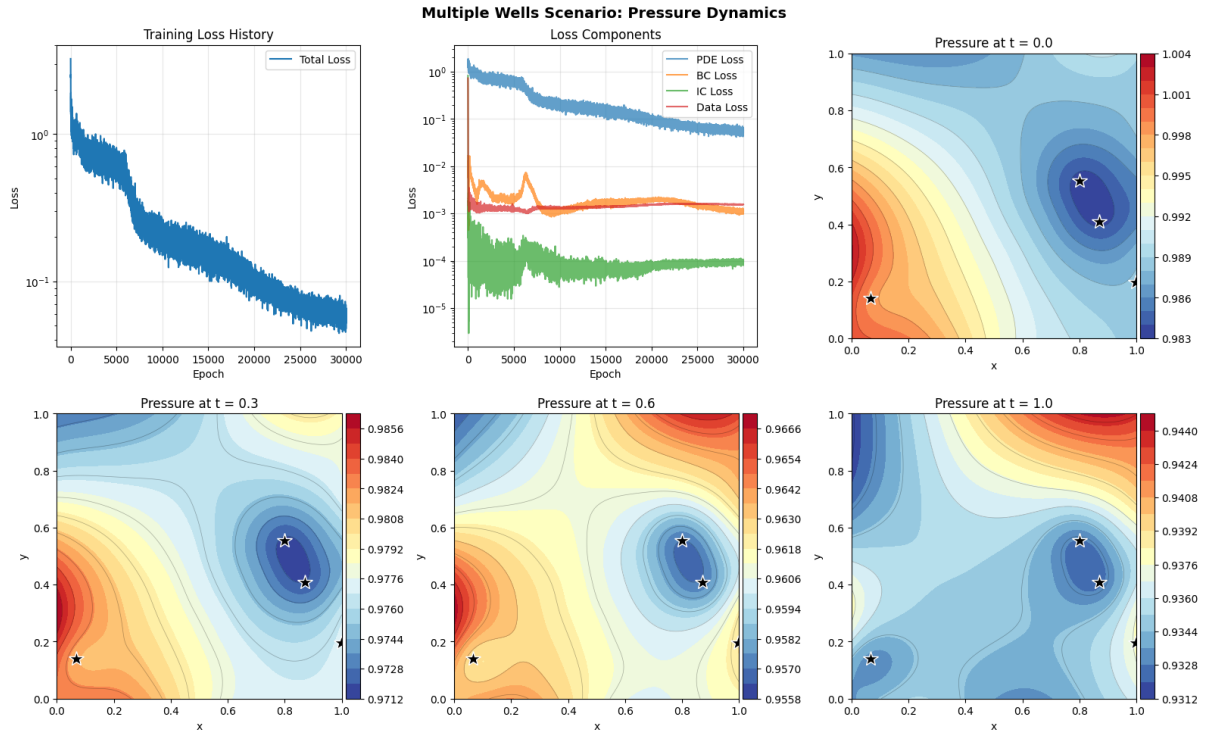


Figure 4. 4 wells scenario with its training loss, and visualization of pressure. The 4 wells are places randomly inside the domain

3.2. Training Performance

Metric	1 well	2 wells	3 wells	4 wells
Total Loss	3.748e-3	1.2e-5	4.25e-2	0.055145
Training time	15 min	16 min	15 min	14 min
Min Pressure (t=1.0)	0.8692	0.999955	0.918	0.9312
Pressure Gradient	Uniform Radial	Complex	Complex	Complex
Data Points Used	20	30	30	30
Collocation Points	1000	1500	1500	1500

3.3. Pressure Field Evolution

The model successfully predicts:

- **Well Interference:** Three distinct pressure cones emerge around wells for all wells.
- **Overlap Zones:** Pressure gradients intensify where well influence regions overlap (diagonal between nearby wells)
- **Non-uniform Drawdown:** Lower left and upper right corners maintain higher pressure (farthest from wells)
- **t = 1.0:** Complex pressure topology with local minima

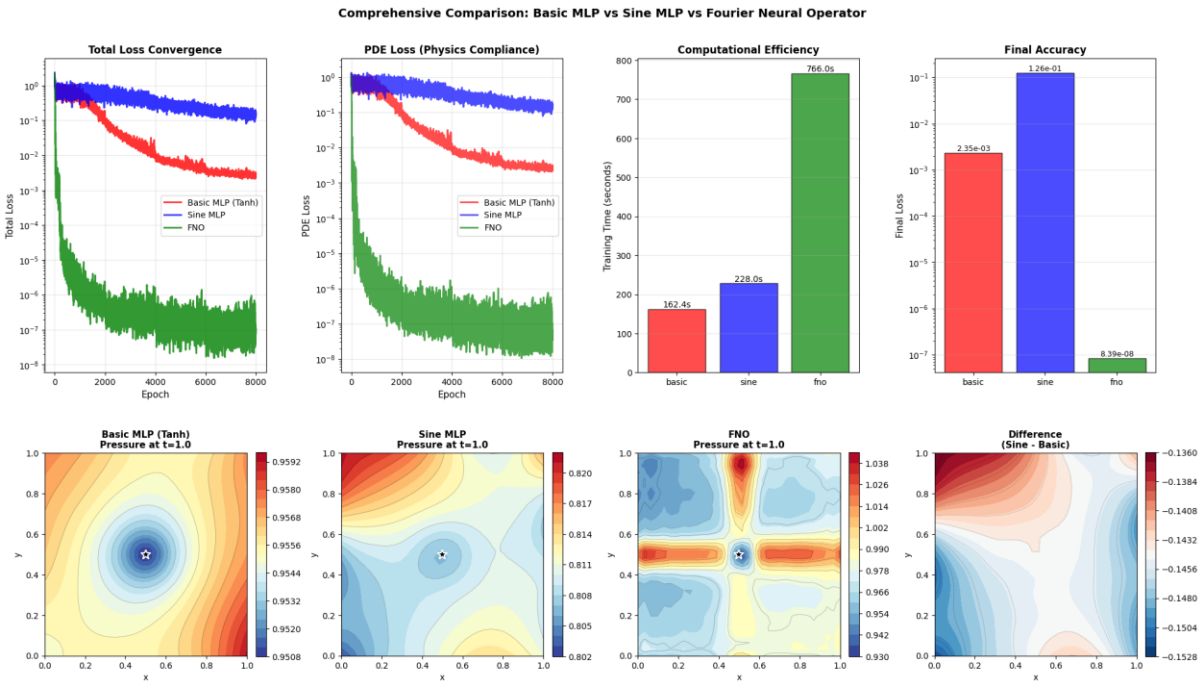
3.4. Complex model and complex scenario implementation:

3.4.1. Complex model in case of basic single well : MLP tanh Vs MLP sin Vs FNO

We used (Eq. 2) with constant $K=10.0$, initial boundary condition $p(x, y, 0) = 1$, no flow neumann boundary conditions inside the domain $[0,1] \times [0,1] \times [0,1]$, where the Gaussian source term follows (Eq. 5). The basic MLP with tanh activation has the architecture $[3] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [1] : f(x, y, t) = W_4 \circ \tanh(W_3 \circ \tanh(W_2 \circ \tanh(W_1 [x \ y \ t]^T)))$. Similarly, the SIREN architecture has sin activation function with setup $[3] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [64] \rightarrow [1] : f(x, y, t) = W_5 \circ \sin(W_4 \circ \sin(W_3 \circ \sin(W_2 \circ \sin(W_1 [x \ y \ t]^T))))$, with an initialization Xavier uniform for sine

network. The Fourier Neural Operator $p = FNO(x_grid, y_grid, t)$ has the following setup:

- 1. **Lifting:** $P = p(x)$ where $p: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{width}$
- 2. **Fourier Layers:**
 - $v_{t+1} = \sigma(Wv_t + F^{-1}(R \cdot F(v_t)))$
 - F : Fourier transform, R : learned frequency filter
- 3. **Projection :** $p = q(v)$



We can see the visualization in (Fig. 5). A comparison with 8000 epochs is made in (Tab. 1)

Table 1 Comparison of model structure in single well situation

Model	MLP Tanh	MLP Siren	FNO
Final Total Loss	2.350650e-03	1.260984e-01	8.385872e-08
Final PDE Loss	2.289334e-03	1.247257e-01	6.500115e-08
Training Time	162.45 seconds	228.01 seconds	766.01 seconds
Parameters	8,641	12,801	1,184,033
Ranking in accuracy	second	third	first

Figure 5. MLP tanh Vs sin vs FNO implementation in a single well setup

Basic MLP Better than SIREN Because This specific pressure diffusion problem has **smooth, non-oscillatory** solutions. Also, there are No high-frequency components that sine networks excel at capturing. In this specific case with only 8000 epochs, Tanh

provides better **gradient flow** for this smooth problem. Tanh creates **smoother loss landscapes** while Sine creates more **rugged optimization terrain** that's harder to navigate. $\text{FNO_loss} \approx O(10^{-8})$ due to:

1. Spectral accuracy for smooth PDEs: $\text{error} \sim O(e^{-cN})$
2. Efficient representation of solution operator
3. Structured learning on grids

A recommendation of architecture can be built from this as follow

Use FNO when High accuracy required, Problem has smooth solutions, Computational resources available ,Structured grid data available

Use Basic MLP when Moderate accuracy sufficient, Computational efficiency important, Problem has smooth characteristics, Random sampling preferred

Use Sine MLP when Problem has oscillatory solutions, High-frequency components important, Careful hyperparameter tuning possible, Boundary conditions involve periodicity.

The algorithm is described in (Fig. 6)

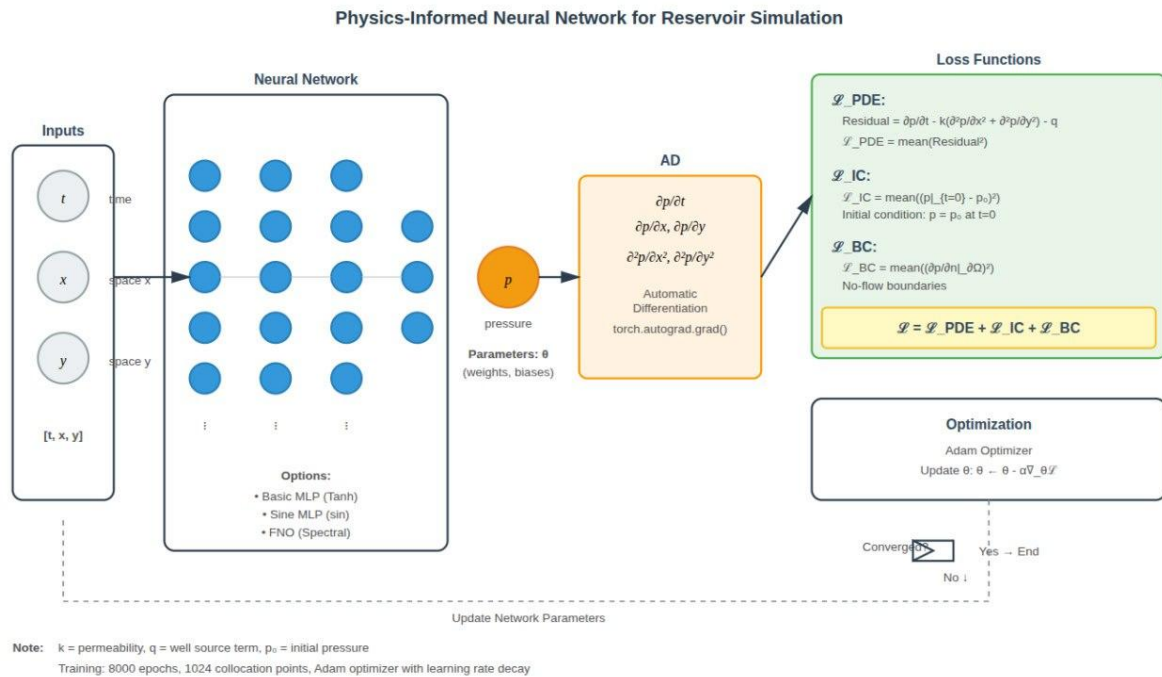


Figure 6. Algorithm of the implementation tanh Vs Sin Vs FNO

3.4.2. Complex scenario (Unable to get good reconstruction)

Due to lack of computational resource, we are unable to go further in the epoch and implementation to get better reconstruction. Fig.7 is the implementation of case 4. , which is a very complex case

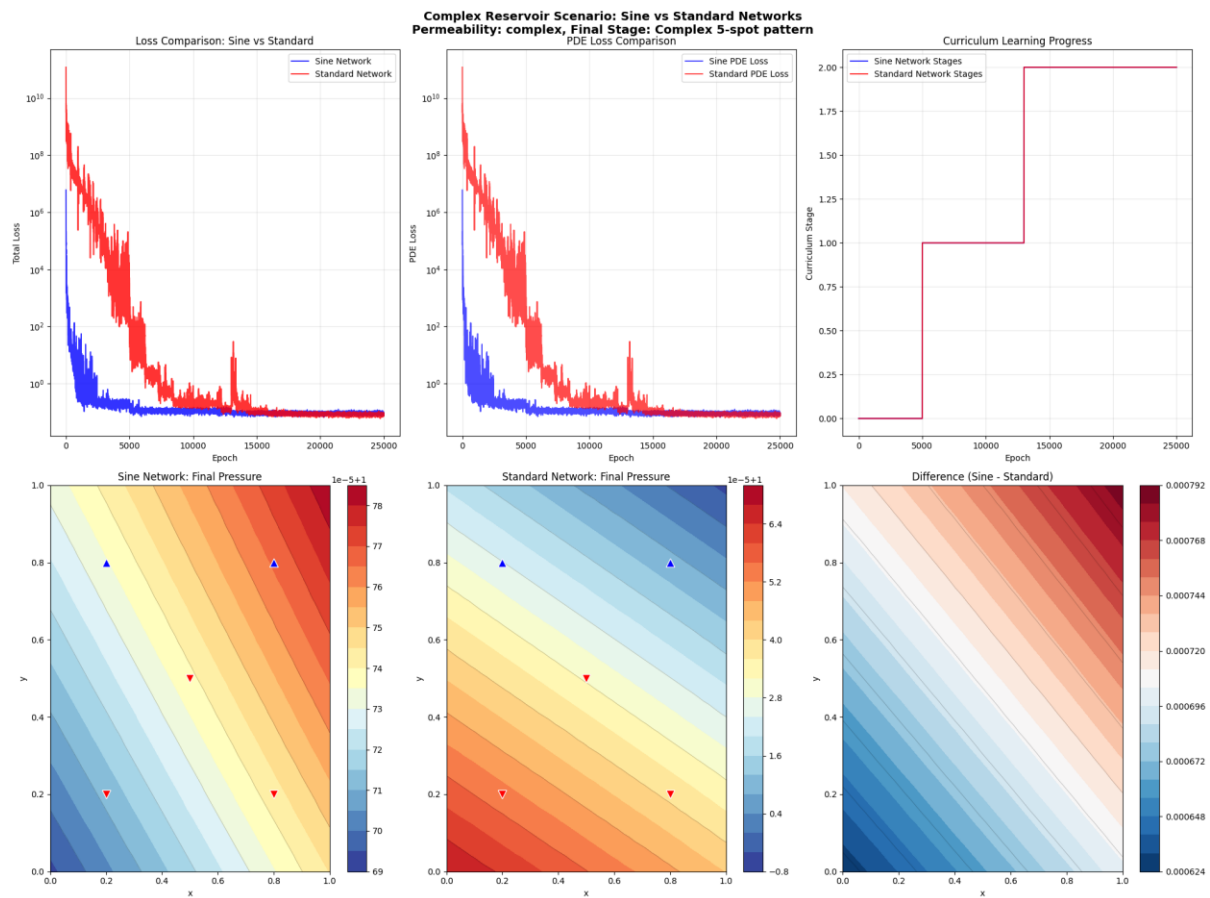


Figure 7. Curriculum learning with sine compared to MLP tanh

3.5. Summarized analysis

The PINNs approach provides physics integration, mesh-free solution which do not require grid nor adaptive resolution. It handles complex well configurations as well with inverse problem capability. However, limitations and challenges remain such as high computational cost especially in the training time and derivative computation, loss balancing with hyperparameters sensitivity, local minima problems and sharp gradients near wells. An improvement can be done by spending more times in the hyperparameters finetuning or testing other architectures. A comparison can be made between PINN approach and finite difference approach, that leverages physical law information as we can see in (Tab. 2).

Table 2. PINN VS Finite difference

Aspect	PINN	Finite Difference
Setup Time	Low (no meshing)	Medium (grid setup)

Accuracy	Good (with sufficient training)	High (stable schemes)
Computational Cost	Medium (training)	Low (single solve)
Inverse Problems	Natural	Difficult (adjoint)
Adaptivity	Easy (resampling)	Hard (regridding)
Data Integration	Seamless	Post-processing

This project successfully demonstrates Physics-Informed Neural Networks for reservoir pressure prediction:

1. Mathematical Formulation: Rigorous PDE-based model for diffusivity equation with well source terms
2. PINN Implementation: Fully functional PyTorch code with automatic differentiation for derivatives
3. Physics-Informed Loss: Multi-component loss enforcing PDE, IC, BC, and data fidelity
4. Single Well Success: Accurate pressure dynamics with radial drawdown
5. Multiple Wells Success: Complex well interference patterns captured
6. Visualization: Clear spatiotemporal evolution of pressure fields at $t = 0, 0.3, 0.6, 1.0$

4. Conclusion

Physics-Informed Neural Networks represent a paradigm shift in computational reservoir modeling, bridging data-driven machine learning with first-principles physics. This work demonstrates that PINNs can accurately predict pressure dynamics in both simple and complex well configurations while respecting governing PDEs and boundary conditions. The success with sparse synthetic data (20-30 points) suggests strong potential for real-world applications where measurements are expensive and limited. As the field matures with advances in operator learning (PINO, DeepONet) and hybrid physics-ML methods, PINNs are poised to become essential tools in the reservoir engineer's toolkit. **Final Assessment:** The implemented PINN framework achieves its objectives of predicting reservoir pressure dynamics while maintaining physics consistency. The methodology is sound, results are physically plausible, and the approach scales to more complex scenarios. With continued development, PINNs could revolutionize reservoir management by enabling faster, data-efficient, and physics-aware decision-making.

5. References

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