

SUBSURFACE ISSUES FOR CO₂ FLOODING OF UKCS RESERVOIRS

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ABSTRACT

CO₂ injection is a successful IOR technique applied in onshore fields, where the CO₂ is sourced from natural CO₂ reservoirs. Concern over greenhouse gas emissions has renewed interest in the potential for CO₂ flooding in the UKCS. CO₂ would be captured onshore, e.g. from power station emissions, and injected into UKCS reservoirs to improve recovery and leave CO₂ trapped in the reservoirs at the end of project life.

Experience from onshore CO₂ injection projects is reviewed. Tertiary CO₂ injection in North American fields regularly achieves incremental recoveries in the range 4-12% STOIIP with retained gas volumes of 10-25% HCPV. Gas utilisations of better than 8 Mscf/STB are usually achieved. Reservoir parameters for onshore projects are compared with typical UKCS conditions, and the key similarities and differences highlighted. Incremental oil production in onshore CO₂ WAG projects expressed in terms of reservoir barrels is related to the volume of CO₂ retained, and is consistent with a rule of thumb developed for offshore hydrocarbon gas injection projects. Based on literature correlations most UKCS fields are expected to be above the MMP for pure CO₂.

The impact of compositional effects and the operating temperature and pressure on offshore CO₂ injection performance is assessed using sector models of WAG and crestal (gravity stable) injection schemes. Reducing the operating pressure reduces the incremental recovery but decreases the volume of CO₂ required, although in the crestal injection model, the pressure can be significantly below the MMP before recovery is adversely affected. Temperature has a significant impact on WAG recovery, and needs to be considered if CO₂ is to be injected in parts of a reservoir that have been cooled by seawater injection.

INTRODUCTION

CO₂ injection is a successful IOR technique applied in onshore reservoirs. Historically, low cost CO₂ has been sourced from gas reservoirs with a high CO₂ content. Concern over greenhouse gas emissions is leading to the introduction of CO₂ trading schemes and possible changes in fiscal regimes. With the right reservoir conditions, injection of CO₂ into oil reservoirs can result in incremental oil with the added benefit of CO₂ sequestration. A typical case in point is the onshore Weyburn Unit project in Canada, which is injecting waste CO₂

from an industrial plant in the USA to give an expected additional 140 MMSTB oil production and disposal of 19 million tonnes (350 Bscf) of CO₂.

The physical properties and PVT behaviour of CO₂ with reservoir oils is qualitatively different from other gases considered in gas injection IOR projects. Pure CO₂ has a critical point at a temperature and pressure 1071 psia and 87.91oF respectively, which is within the temperature range of UKCS light oil reservoirs in regions cooled by waterflooding and the shallower viscous oil fields. CO₂ densities can approach 1 g/cc and may be greater than oil at reservoir conditions, giving scope for designing different types of injection strategy.

This paper reviews onshore experience of CO₂ injection from the standpoint of subsurface issues and examines the similarities and differences between onshore projects and potential UKCS projects. The impact of compositional effects and the operating temperature and pressure on offshore CO₂ injection performance is assessed using sector models of WAG and crestal (gravity stable) injection schemes.

OVERVIEW OF ONSHORE PROJECT RESULTS

There were 63 producing miscible CO₂ projects in the USA reported in the Oil & Gas Journal survey of March 2000 [1], and just one immiscible CO₂ flood. The operators most actively involved in CO₂ flooding were Altura and ExxonMobil, with Amerada Hess, Merit Energy, Oxy USA, Spirit Energy and Texaco also operating several floods each. There were 7 new miscible floods planned to start by 2002. There were also 5 producing CO₂ floods in Canada, all in the Joffre Viking field, operated by Numac Energy. The only operating projects outside North America were 5 immiscible floods in Trinidad (all operated by Petrotrin) and one in Turkey (operated by TPAO).

The oil targets to CO₂ injection include:

- Residual oil to water flooding in tertiary miscible CO₂ floods (e.g. most projects in the Permian Basin of Texas and New Mexico).
- Low porosity/permeability zones in heterogeneous formations (e.g. Dollarhide [2]).
- Transition zone oil [e.g. 3,4].

In many cases, the start of gas injection was accompanied by a change of flooding pattern (e.g. from 40 to 20 acre spacing or from inverted 9-spot to inverted 5-spot), complicating the interpretation of any incremental oil signal.

MISCIBILITY

Most onshore North American projects are tertiary miscible WAG floods. These fields were generally produced by natural depletion initially and subsequently re-pressurised by water flooding to above the CO₂ MMP before gas injection commenced [e.g. 5]. The effective residual oil saturation to water in the Permian Basin San Andres formation fields is typically in the range 35-40%, therefore there is a large target for miscible flooding. However, two near-miscible floods also showed good response [6]. Achievable residual oil saturations to miscible gas flooding are in the range 3-10%, determined from cores from swept zones [7] or simple material balance calculations [8]. The North Cross (Devonian) CO₂ flood is not fully

miscible. However, core from the swept zone indicated a residual oil saturation of only 3%, therefore multi-contact miscibility was established even though the reservoir pressure was below the nominal MMP [7].

TYPE OF GAS INJECTION

The optimum injection strategy is determined primarily by the degree of gravity segregation in the flooding zone. Wettability is a significant secondary factor for horizontal gas injection projects, because it controls the tendency of the water phase to form barriers between the injected gas and unswept oil at the pore scale. Consequently, the optimum WAG ratio depends on the balance between the conflicting requirements of conformance control and tertiary recovery via reduction in effective residual oil saturation. Estimating this balance is a requirement of detailed assessments of gas IOR opportunities. Onshore CO₂ field experience suggests that continuous gas injection is optimum for water-wet rocks, whereas a 1:1 WAG ratio is optimum for oil-wet conditions. Recovery is a stronger function of slug sizes for mixed-wettability formations [9].

'Hybrid' WAG

A continuous slug of gas is injected initially, swapping to WAG when gas production becomes significant (e.g. the Dollarhide Devonian CO₂ flood [2]). This technique is effective when gas sweep is intrinsically efficient. It combines the advantages of a large early response, typical of continuous gas injection, with good sweep efficiency and efficient use of CO₂, typical of conventional WAG schemes. WAG cycles may be detrimental to injectivity, therefore water injection should be limited to areas of severe gas breakthrough. CO₂ breakthrough is not generally a problem in the Devonian formation in the Permian Basin, therefore WAG may not be warranted in most patterns. The initial 'continuous' slug is typically 8-12% HCPV of CO₂.

Classical WAG

This strategy is optimum in reservoirs where gravity override would be expected for continuous gas injection [e.g. 10]. Tapering the WAG ratio is a method of reducing CO₂ production. For example, the first 30% HCPV injection may be at a 1:1 WAG ratio, the next 10% at 2:1, and the final 10% at 3:1, followed by chase water.

SWAG

Miscible simultaneous water and gas injection (SWAG) has been tried in two CO₂ projects [10,11]. Although SWAG can simplify field operations, it may trap significant amounts of oil in water-wet rock if applied as a secondary process, or in regions where mobile oil has been bypassed by an inefficient waterflood [9]. Corrosion is potentially a greater problem in SWAG than in conventional WAG injection.

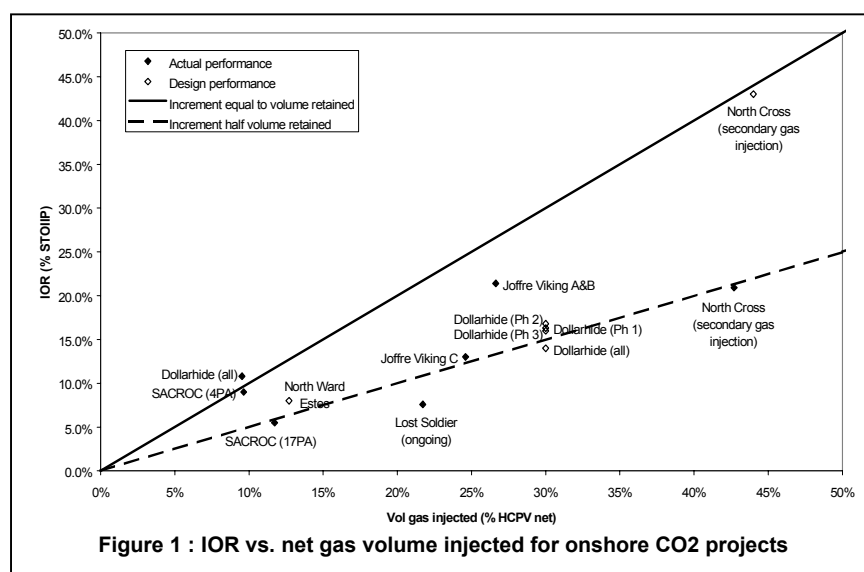
Gravity stable gas injection

There have not been many gravity stable gas injection (GSGI) projects in North America. One example is at Bay St Elaine [12]. A 33% PV slug of CO₂ solvent was injected into the top of a dipping water-drive reservoir. This was pushed down dip by injection of nitrogen gas. The CO₂ composition was tailored by the addition of CH₄ and n-butane to give the density difference required to complete the gravity-stable flood in the desired time period and also

keep above the minimum miscible pressure (MMP) in the reservoir. The flood was actually only multi-contact miscible. A pilot GSGI CO₂ flood was performed in the Weeks Island field by Shell in 1978 [13]. The reservoir was sandstone, with an average permeability of 1200 md and dip of 26°. The residual oil saturation at the start of the gas injection was estimated as 0.22. The CO₂ was mixed with a few percent of methane to ensure gravity stability and the initial gas slug size was 24% HCPV. Produced gas was re-injected. The pilot is expected to recover 8.9% STOIP, with gross and net CO₂ utilisation factors of 7.9 and 3.3 Mscf/STB, respectively.

CO₂ FLOOD RESPONSE

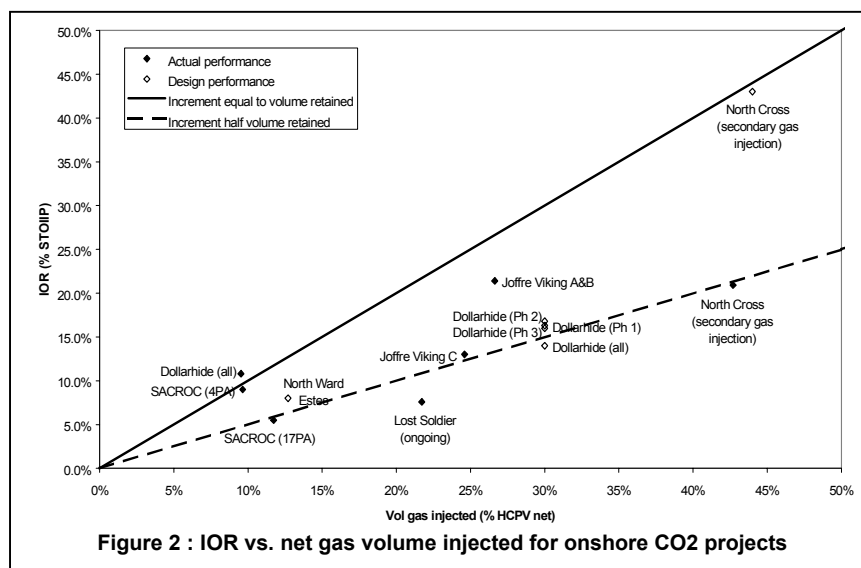
Incremental oil recoveries for successful CO₂ floods are illustrated in Figure 1 and 2.



The incremental oil recoveries range from 4% to approximately 20% STOIP, for gross injected gas volumes of 10-70% HCPV. The Lost Soldier project was ongoing at the time of the report. The incremental oil recovery is expected to increase from 7.6% to 13.2% STOIP ultimately, but the injected volume will also increase. The tertiary projects with high incremental oil recovery are the Joffre Viking A and B patterns and the Slaughter Estate pilot. Both of these are floods of two unconstrained pattern elements only, therefore there is considerable uncertainty in the estimates of STOIPs targeted. The Dollarhide, SACROC (17PA), Lost Soldier and North Ward Estes results are all averages over at least 17 adjacent pattern elements, therefore these results are considered more reliable than those based on the performance of only a few elements. The SACROC (17PA) project is ongoing, and the final IOR is expected to be around 7.5% STOIP. The Wellman project is a GSGI, to recover a thin oil rim.

In conclusion, the more reliable results illustrated in Figure 1 suggest that tertiary CO₂ injection in onshore North American fields regularly achieves incremental oil recoveries in the range 4-12% STOIP.

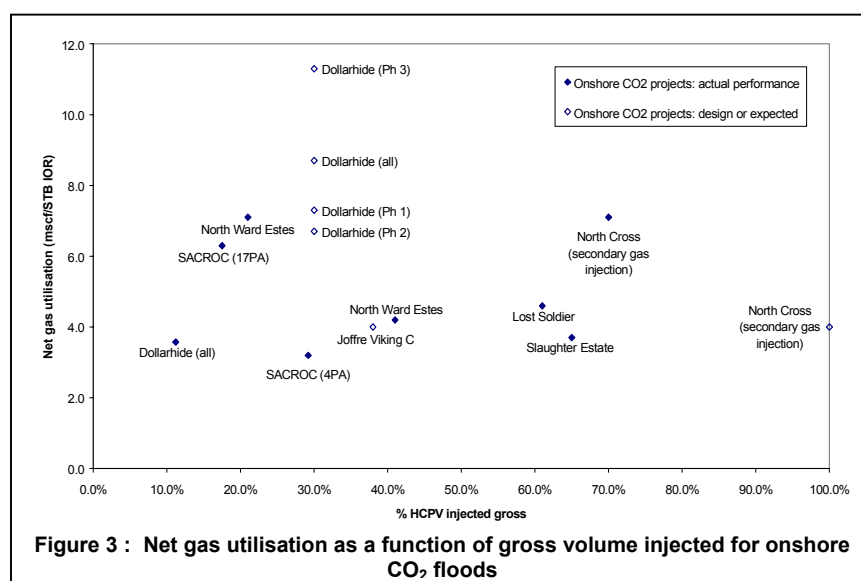
The net gas volumes injected lie in the range 8-45% HCPV, measured relative to the STOIIP. The North Cross project had the largest retained volume, but this was a secondary gas



injection, rather than a tertiary project. Retained volumes were typically 10-25% for tertiary CO₂ floods. The incremental oil production is generally between 0.5 and 1.0 of the volume retained in the reservoir, when both are expressed as a fraction of STOIIP, which is consistent with a rule of thumb developed for offshore hydrocarbon gas injection projects.

GAS UTILISATION AND ECONOMICS

Net gas utilisation provides an indication of the efficiency and therefore the economics of CO₂ injection. Net gas utilisation is illustrated as a function of injected gas volume in Figure 3 and Figure 4. The majority of projects have net gas utilisations of less than 8 Mscf/STB, and several have utilisations of less than 6 Mscf/STB.



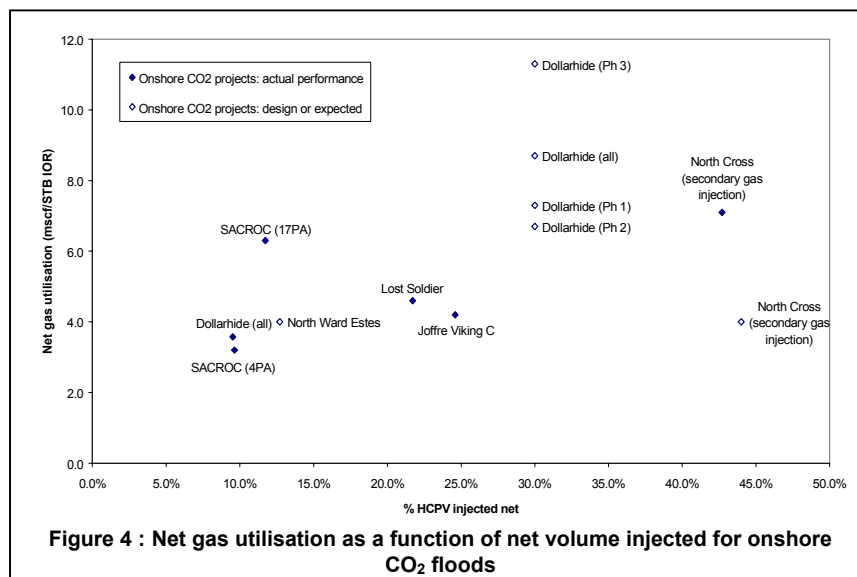
The expected value for phase 3 of the Dollarhide Devonian flood is high, which increases the expected average performance over the whole field. However, the actual flood performance averaged over all phases has been significantly better than the design target so far. This flood is unusual in that it is operated at 3600 psi, whereas the CO₂ MMP is only 1600 psi. The reason for this policy is unknown, but it will have a detrimental impact on the flood efficiency, as discussed below.

The major flood management parameters affecting economics according to [9] are:

1. The CO₂ and water half-cycle slug sizes (typically 0.1-2% PV)
2. The WAG ratio (typically 1:4-2:1)
3. The ultimate injected CO₂ slug size.

It seems unlikely that the half-cycle sizes would have a large impact on economics within the range typical for a conventional WAG. There could, however, be a significant impact on discounted economics between hybrid and conventional WAG schemes.

The relevant CO₂ volume is the volume at reservoir conditions, rather than at the surface. It is therefore most economical to operate a miscible flood as close to the MMP as possible. This was demonstrated in the Wasson Denver Unit flood, where the reservoir pressure was reduced from 3200 psi to 2200 psi before CO₂ injection commenced, to improve the volumetric efficiency of the CO₂ but stay above the MMP of 1300 psi [14]. The Wolfcamp Reef GSGI flood was initially operated significantly above the pure CO₂ MMP, to allow miscible re-injection of the produced CO₂-hydrocarbon gas. However, the pressure was subsequently reduced to near the CO₂ MMP, to reduce the CO₂ purchasing requirement, at the expense of gas separation [8,4].



A significant decrease in effective residual oil saturation might be expected even for an immiscible GSIG scheme, due to gravity drainage, therefore the above discussion applies primarily to WAG projects. Gravity-stable injection might be performed below the MMP, to reduce the CO₂ formation volume factor, giving an additional improvement in utilisation. Another method of reducing the cost of gas for a GSIG project is to down-grade the gas composition as the flood progresses. This was modelled for the Wolfcamp Reef GSIG flood, where a miscible ‘pancake’ of CO₂ was displaced downdip by nitrogen [8]. It is unclear whether the strategy was actually implemented. The strategy was used in the Slaughter Estate Unit [15].

OVERVIEW OF ONSHORE PROJECT ISSUES

ADDITIONAL GAS CONTROL METHODS

Early breakthrough arising from channelling or override (usually unexpected because of poor reservoir description) can be hard to solve offshore. Onshore, the offending well or wells may be shut in, but offshore, there are fewer wells, therefore each one may be essential [11].

Simulations of the North Coles Levee CO₂ pilot suggested that gravity over-ride dominated the displacement efficiency. In this case, co-injection of gas low down and water higher up might improve the sweep [16].

Polymer and gel have been used, mainly to improve vertical sweep. Foams have been tried, to improve the mobility ratio between the CO₂ and reservoir crude, with mixed success [17]. Gel treatments were used to reduce channelling in the Lick Creek Meakin Sand Unit immiscible CO₂ project [18]. Attempts to reduce gravity-override in the Joffre Viking field by foam treatments were unsuccessful, because the foam did not propagate into the formation [10].

CO₂ ROCK AND FLUID INTERACTIONS

CO₂ shows more complex phase behaviour with reservoir oils compared to hydrocarbon gas. In addition its relatively high solubility in water and the associated reduction in pH significantly affects reservoir chemistry.

PVT

Phase behaviour in CO₂ floods is discussed in [19], with the following main conclusions:

- Up to 5 phases can co-exist in a CO₂ flood: aqueous, liquid hydrocarbon, liquid CO₂, gaseous CO₂ and solid asphaltene precipitate.
- The actual number of phases depends on pressure, temperature and composition.
- Gas condensing into a second liquid phase can be significant at temperatures just above the v critical temperature (88° F) and near the CO₂ saturation pressure at lower temperatures. This would only occur behind the temperature front offshore.
- CO₂ displacement efficiency may increase as the pressure is decreased until the MMP is reached.

- It is necessary to consider all this complex phase behaviour when predicting flood performance, therefore compositional simulation is essential in the detailed appraisal of projects.

Hydrate formation

CO₂ hydrates will form at a temperature of approximately 50°F over the pressure range expected in UKCS reservoirs and upstream of the separators [29]. Hydrate formation has been experienced in the North Cross Devonian Unit, which has an original formation temperature of 80° F [20], where it usually occurs in wells with high GORs and high CO₂ cuts. The temperature will be reduced in the production tubing, due to the expansion of the gas entering the wellbore.

Wettability

Core floods and capillary tube visual cell tests give inconsistent changes in wettability due to miscible CO₂ flooding. CO₂ reduces the brine pH, and there is some experimental evidence that this reduces water-wetness in capillary cells. However, some experiments on intermediate-wet Texas cores suggest CO₂ flooding increases their water-wetness [9]. Furthermore, wettability may be primarily controlled by ‘pore coatings’ in the reservoir.

Fines and particulate production

CO₂ may leach minerals (calcite and siderite) from sandstone and carbonate, increasing permeability. This is important for sandstone, because these minerals contribute to the cementation of the rock [9]. Fines and particulate deposition were experienced in the Dollarhide Devonian CO₂ flood [2]. Water handling was modified to eliminate fines and particulates from the injection stream and this reduced the amount of fill in injectors. Ref. [9] concluded that dissolution, precipitation and particle invasion/migration may occur during CO₂ WAG, but the evidence is not conclusive.

Scale formation and deposition

CO₂ injection tends to exacerbate any CaCO₃ scaling problem, because the bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) concentration in the produced water increases [21]. The CO₂ is expected to reduce the pH of water in-situ by 2-3 units. This acidic water dissolves calcium from the limestone rock or from cementation minerals in sandstone formations, increasing the Ca concentration in produced water. Pressure reduction on production would then (a) increase CaCO₃ scaling tendency directly, and (b) increase the produced water pH as the CO₂ comes out of solution, which would also increase CaCO₃ scaling tendency. The reduced pH of produced water following CO₂ breakthrough, may decrease the effectiveness of scale inhibitors being applied to control BaSO₄ scaling [22].

When CO₂ enters producers it expands and cools, in common with other gases, reducing the BHT. Further cooling occurs at choke points. This may cause increased scaling, paraffin/asphaltene deposition and wellhead freezing. The impact depends on where the reservoir and wellbore temperatures lie on the solubility vs. temperature curve for each mineral. Also, the pH is decreased, therefore it is necessary to select inhibitors/treatment chemicals that are effective at low pH.

IMPACT ON INJECTIVITY

The term ‘injectivity’ is used loosely in this section, to refer to the relationship between pressure gradient and flow rate both in the near-wellbore region and deeper in the formation.

Fields experiencing decreased injectivity

WAG is often detrimental to injectivity [e.g. 2], although a comprehensive review of injectivity in 2000 found no reports of injectivity loss alone severely impairing project economics [9]. Average loss of water injectivity after the first gas cycle is around 20% for onshore West Texan projects in oil-wet carbonate reservoirs [17,9,23]. This is generally compensated by decreasing the WAG ratio [e.g. 24], increasing the injection pressure, drilling more injectors [17] or converting to horizontal injectors [23].

In the Slaughter Estate Unit (dolomite), most mature patterns suffered a 40% loss of injectivity for CO₂ and 57% loss for water. In this field, injection was below the reservoir parting pressure [15]. Attempts were made to overcome reduced injectivity in the Wasson Denver Unit (dolomite) by increasing the injection pressure above the fracture pressure. This caused out-of-zone losses, however, therefore more injectors were drilled instead [14]. The operators were able to swap to continuous gas injection in some patterns in this unit. Some producers were converted to injectors in the Sundown Slaughter Unit (dolomite), to avoid losing gas out-of-zone by injecting above the formation parting pressure. The wells were already as close together as was economically viable in this unit [25]. All these units have temperatures in the range 100-110° F, therefore there is some doubt whether the injectors would be thermally fractured, in contrast to injection wells in most North Sea fields.

Reduced injectivity could be seriously detrimental to a WAG project if it led to a shortfall in voidage replacement that reduced the reservoir pressure below the MMP for the injected gas [11].

Reduced injectivity may also be caused by wellbore heating that closes thermal fractures, or hydrate or asphaltene precipitation in the near-wellbore region [11].

Fields experiencing increased injectivity

There are some cases of injectivity improvement during WAG, for example the SACROC unit [26]. Water injectivity increased after injection of liquefied CO₂ in the Sharon Ridge Canyon Unit, which is a limestone reservoir [21]. This may be due to increased permeability caused by dissolution of calcium from the limestone rock by carbonic acid (i.e. formation water + CO₂). Increased injectivity was attributed to a similar effect in the carbonate Goldsmith San Andres Unit [6].

Relative permeabilities

Water injectivity would be expected to decrease after gas injection, from normal 3-phase relative permeability considerations. A reduction commensurate with this cause was observed in the North Cross (Devonian) Unit CO₂ flood [7]. Injectivity loss was also attributed to relative permeability effects in the Slaughter Estate Unit [15].

CO₂ relative permeabilities in West Texas carbonates can be 0.01 times oil relative permeability end points, therefore errors in CO₂ relative permeabilities can cause large errors

in injectivity predictions. Errors in CO₂ relative permeabilities affect gas production and injectivity more than oil recovery [9].

GAS SUPPLY AND COMPOSITION

This section notes information about injected gas compositions and the management of produced CO₂.

The strategy in the Wolfcamp Reef Reservoir Wellman Unit GSGI project, was to re-inject all produced gas, rather than separate and re-inject only the CO₂. Consequently, planning included slimtube experiments to determine the MMP at reservoir temperature for CO₂ containing various amounts of hydrocarbon impurities [8]. However, a later report [4] states that the produced gas contains approximately 10% NGLs that have to be removed and sold before the CO₂ is re-injected. The difference is due to a change of ownership and change of operating philosophy. The new owners decided it was more cost-effective to operate as close to the pure CO₂ MMP as possible, i.e. at the lowest possible pressure, to reduce CO₂ purchase costs.

At the Sundown Slaughter Unit, only production from wells in which CO₂ had broken through was fed to the CO₂ removal plant. Fluid from other wells was processed normally. It was possible to use an existing CO₂ removal plant locally owned by other operators for a fee, therefore there was some flexibility to exceed the unit's design capacity [25].

The Lost Soldier, Tensleep formation contains sour crude. A CO₂ WAG project was implemented. CO₂ was produced in association with 1700 ppm H₂S, which had to be reduced to <100 ppm before the CO₂ could be re-injected. The project was subsequently successfully converted to sour CO₂ re-injection [27].

The North Cross Devonian Unit was produced by hydrocarbon gas injection after an initial period of primary depletion. CO₂ flooding was then initiated, and the produced gas was a mixture of CO₂ and hydrocarbon. Gas from different producers was segregated, depending on whether it contained >60% or <60% CO₂. The high CO₂ content gas was re-injected into injectors that initially injected pipeline CO₂ (i.e. imported, pure CO₂). The lower CO₂ content gas was re-injected into updip wells that had previously been hydrocarbon injectors. These were expected to prevent excessive up-dip movement of the purer CO₂, rather than achieve miscible oil displacement [7].

In the Slaughter Estate Unit, the initial gas composition was 72 mol% CO₂ + 28 mol% H₂S. A pilot miscible WAG ran from 1976 to 1984. The WAG comprised 25% HCPV at a 1:1 WAG ratio, followed by 40% HCPV of chase gas over 11 WAG cycles. The chase gas was a varying composition of residue gas and nitrogen [15].

The CO₂ for the Springer A sand flood in the NE Purdy Unit was sourced from an anhydrous ammonia fertiliser plant. The re-injected produced gas contained 85-92% CO₂. The flood was designed to be miscible, at least for the imported gas [28].

The CO₂ composition in the Bay St Elaine Field GSGI project is tailored by the addition of methane and n-butane, to optimise the density difference for the flood [12].

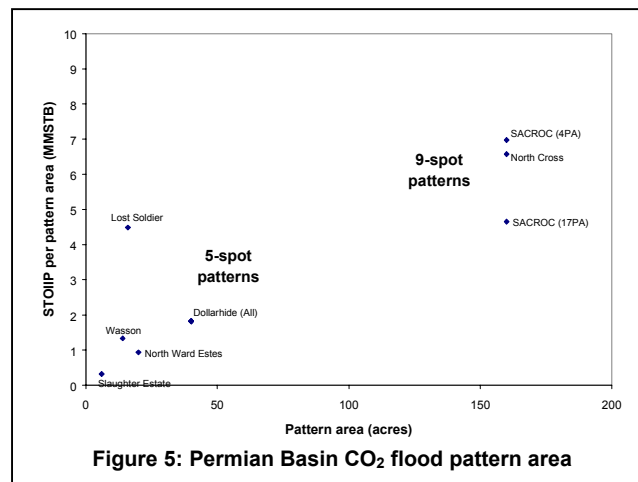
COMPARISON BETWEEN UKCS RESERVOIRS AND ONSHORE CO₂ PROJECTS

In this section the reservoir conditions in typical onshore CO₂ injection projects are compared to UKCS fields, and the likely impact on the performance of CO₂ injection considered.

RESERVOIR TYPE

Significant differences exist between onshore fields in which CO₂ has been injected and UKCS fields, including:

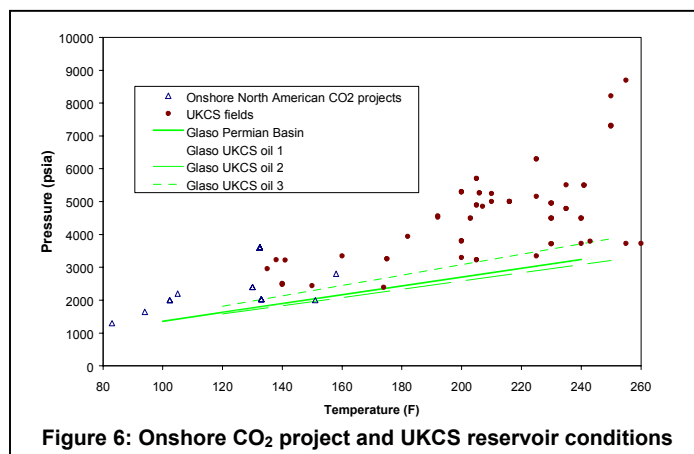
- The majority of UKCS fields are sandstone reservoirs, many of the US CO₂ injection projects are in carbonate reservoirs
- UKCS light oil fields are deeper and therefore at higher pressures and temperatures
- UKCS fields are typically developed with line drive patterns, fields are produced using 5- or 9-spot pattern flooding with significantly smaller well spacing (see Figure 5)



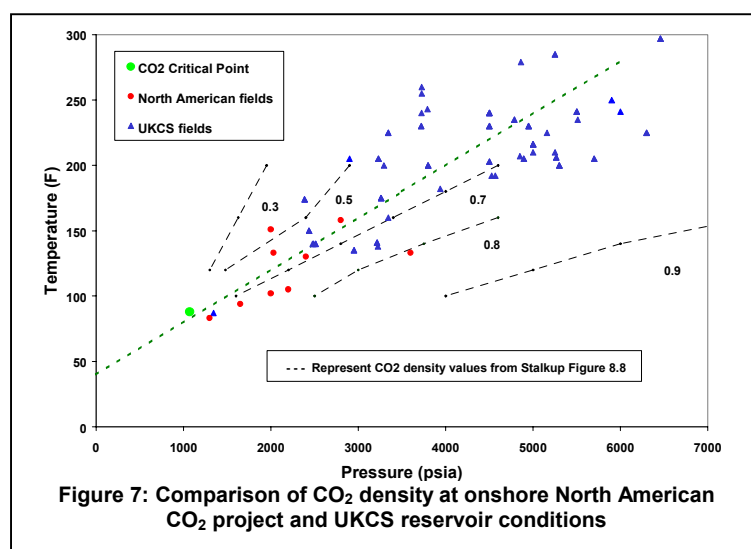
- UKCS fields operate at higher rates with more restrictive water-cut limits
- UKCS fields are generally of higher quality and gravity forces are more important. This may provide more attic targets for WAG flooding and scope for crestal gravity stable injection schemes.
- The effective residual oil saturation to water in most of the Permian Basin San Andres formation fields is in the range 35-40%, giving a large target for miscible flooding. Residual saturations may be lower in the UKCS, for example in high permeability regions with high throughputs or in zones that have been influenced by cross-layer gravity drainage
- Many North Sea fields have strong aquifer support which could limit the opportunities for pressure management.

PRESSURE AND TEMPERATURE

Figure 6 shows pressure and temperature plotted for UKCS light oil reservoirs and onshore US CO₂ injection projects.



The greater depth of UKCS fields means that pressures and temperatures are significantly higher. The CO₂ density in the formation is compared for North American projects and UKCS fields in Figure 7. This shows that CO₂ densities in UKCS fields would be in the range 0.5-0.75 g/cc, which is similar to those in CO₂ flooded Permian Basin fields, despite the different pressure and temperature regimes. Consequently, similar surface volumes of CO₂ would be required to sweep a given reservoir volume in both cases. This is different to the situation for hydrocarbon gas. Typically, a factor of 2-3 more hydrocarbon gas might be required to flood a given reservoir volume in a North Sea field than in a Permian Basin, San Andres formation reservoir.



These differences in hydrocarbon gas and CO₂ compressibilities potentially favour CO₂ projects at North Sea conditions. In addition to this, lower volumes of gas might be required

for GSGI projects, because it might be possible to reduce the reservoir pressure below the MMP, as discussed in Sections 5 and 6. The above discussion applies to regions of the field at the original reservoir temperature. There would, however, be extensive cooled zones around existing water injectors in UKCS fields. If cold CO₂ were injected into these wells, its density might be increased to 0.8-1.1 g/cc [29].

Imported CO₂ would probably have a density close to 1 g/cc on arrival at the platform, therefore it might be able to be injected via a pump, without requiring compression. The relatively high density at the formation face could improve the inflow profile relative to that expected for hydrocarbon gas. Furthermore, gravity segregation might be reduced in the cooled zone around the injectors, due to the small density difference between the CO₂ and reservoir fluids. However, there is also a danger of hydrate formation.

In contrast, recycled CO₂ would be compressed and might, therefore, be hot on arrival at the formation face, with physical properties similar to those for hydrocarbon gases in conventional gas injection schemes. The injection of hot gas might tend to close thermal fractures, reducing injectivity, if continued for a long time. This might be significant for the first water slug in a hybrid WAG scheme, but would not be expected to be important for GSGI or a conventional WAG project.

MISCIBILITY

The potential for miscibility of CO₂ with UKCS oils has been assessed using correlations and compositional modelling. Three correlations have been used, the Cronquist [30] and Alston [31] correlations are specific to miscibility of CO₂ with oil whereas the more recent Glasø correlation [32] is an adaptation for CO₂/oil systems of a more generalised MMP correlation. The three correlations can give widely varying results so the use of the three together gives some indication of the degree of uncertainty of the MMPs predicted. Cronquist met with limited success in matching reported experimental MMPs, and being the simplest form is probably the least reliable. Alston and Glasø give better matches, with results covering a good range of temperatures and pressures, however, the majority of the temperatures and MMPs reported are *lower* than those for the oils in the current study, bringing applicability into question.

Compositional modelling has been used to infer MMPs from simulations of slim tube displacements. There is no well defined set of guidelines for the choice of binary interaction coefficients for CO₂ and hydrocarbon components, and three different sets were used based on previous modelling studies of North Sea fluids.

Table 1 summarises the results obtained. For a given oil, the range in MMP values predicted by the correlations varies from 300 to 850 psi. MMPs predicted by the EOS modelling are higher on average by 200-500 psi. For the heavier oil E, full miscibility was not achieved, however it was possible to predict pressures at which 85-90% of the oil was produced after 1.2 HCPV injection of CO₂. The heavier fractions drop out and are not produced. This result cast doubt on the relatively low MMP predicted by the correlations for oil E.

Figure 6 also shows predicted MMPs using the Glasø correlation for a representative range of light oils, compared to onshore CO₂ injection projects and UKCS fields. This suggests that CO₂ will be miscible in most UKCS fields, with some fields providing significant scope for

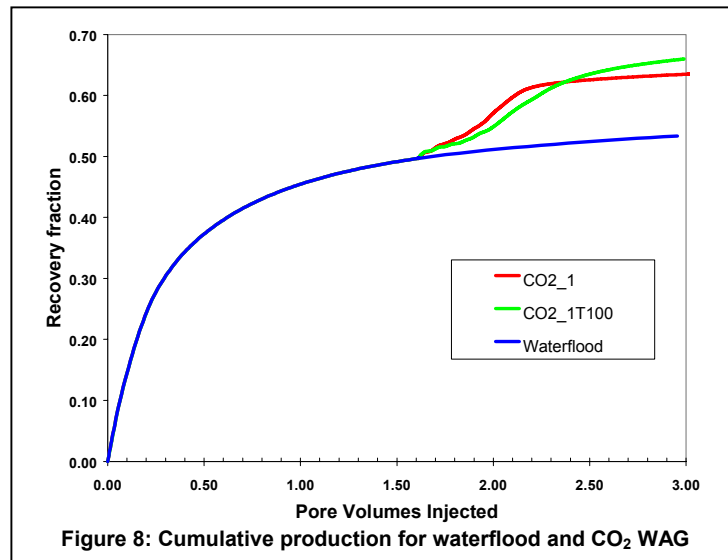
improving CO₂ utilisation if it is possible to operate at lower pressures. Miscibility would be improved in cooled (water flooded) regions of the fields.

Oil	Predicted MMP (psi)				
	A	B	C	D	E
Cronquist	2790	2936	3231	3228	2666
Alston	3081	3572	3926	3694	3010
Glasø	2839	2811	3070	2987	2494
EOS modelling	300–3400	3200–3700	3500–4200	3150–4000	1950–3900

Table 1 : Comparison of predicted MMPs for five UKCS oils

COMPOSITIONAL MODELLING OF CO₂ WAG

WAG injection was investigated using a compositional sector model extracted from a UKCS field model. The grid was refined both areally and vertically, giving a model size of 39x9x26 (NXxNYxNZ). A single producer and injector were modelled for both the waterflood and WAG strategies.



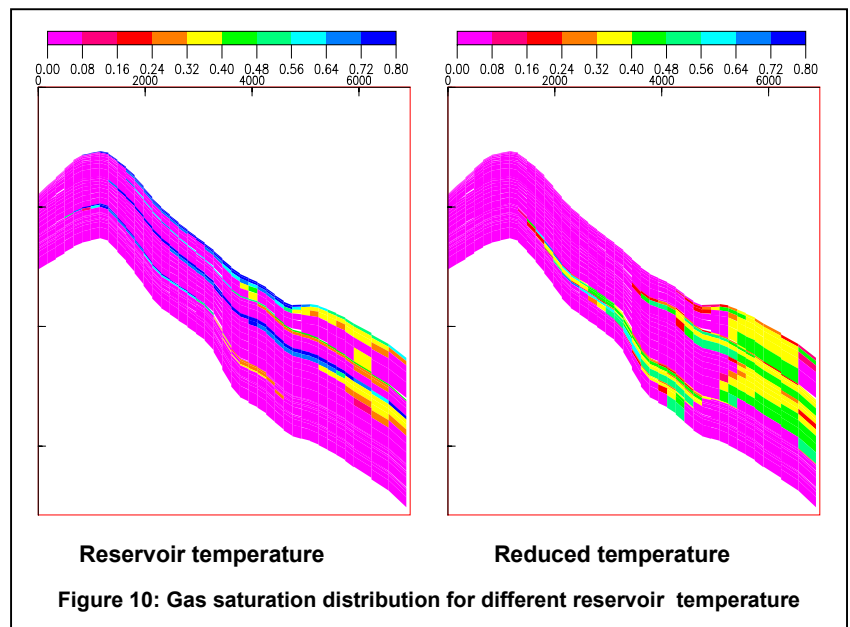
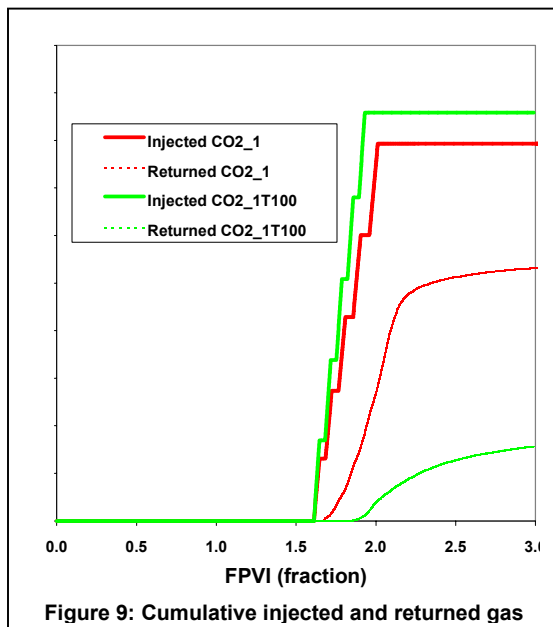
The base case EOS had an MMP of 3950 psi (Oil D previous section). A sensitivity was also considered in which the binary interaction coefficients were adjusted, which resulted in a reduction in MMP to 3150 psi. WAG simulations were run at 6000 psi and 3950 psi (i.e. keeping the pressure above the MMP). During water injection the reservoir will be cooled in the vicinity of the injectors. The temperature distribution will depend on the balance between convective and conductive transport of heat, which is controlled by the reservoir heterogeneity and the waterflood flow regime. To provide a preliminary indication of the effects of different temperatures the base case WAG simulations were run at a reduced temperature of 100°F. A proper investigation of temperature effects would require running a coupled compositional temperature simulation.

The production data for the water flood is shown in Figure 8. Water breakthrough occurs after approximately 1 year. The watercut rises sharply, reaching a value of 98% at the end of the

simulation (all recoveries will be compared at this time). The recovery factor is 53.4% at the end of the simulation.

HIGH PRESSURE INJECTION

A 5 year 1:1 WAG has been modelled (Case CO2_1), with gas and water injection in alternating cycles of 6 months each. The injected gas was pure CO₂ and pressure was maintained at 6000 psi. The total injected gas amounted to approximately 0.35 hydrocarbon pore volumes. The production profile is compared to the waterflood in Figure 8. It can be seen that a small increase in oil rate occurs after approximately 100 days. This is due to the CO₂ moving through the highest permeability layer, mixing with and mobilising the oil. A steady increase in the oil rate occurs shortly afterwards, due to extra production from the other layers. The oil increment is approximately 8.3% of the STOIP and is recovered with a net gas efficiency of 3.4 Mscf/STB. Approximately 30% of the injected gas remained in the reservoir, Figure 9.



The same WAG strategy was run with the alternative set of binary interaction coefficients (CO2_1A). Despite the case still being well above the MMP, a lower oil increment of 6.7% STOIP and a higher GOR after gas breakthrough were found. The net gas utilisation was significantly higher than CO2_1 at 4.1 Mscf/STB.

With the reduced reservoir temperature (Case CO2_1T100) pure CO₂ is denser than both the oil and water phases. The production profiles are shown in Figure 8 and compared to CO2_1. A marked increase in the oil production occurs with the increment rising to 10.9%. Approximately 79% of the injected gas remained in the reservoir. However the net gas utilisation deteriorated to 7.4 Mscf/STB. Gas saturation distributions for this case are compared with the base case in Figure 10. The gas is initially denser than the oil and water so tends to slump slowly towards the bottom of a layer. Consequently, the injected gas contacts a much larger region of oil. As the gas migrates deeper into the reservoir, it mixes with the oil forming a less dense gas phase and a more dense oil phase of about the same density until the

mixture becomes single phase. A comparison of the high pressure simulations is given in Table 2.

	IOR (% STOHP)	Gross gas utilisation (Mscf/STB)	Net gas utilisation (Mscf/stb)
CO2_1	8.32	11.16	3.41
CO2_1A	6.76	13.96	4.10
CO2_1T100	10.85	9.27	7.36

Table 2: Comparison of WAG high pressure simulations

REDUCED PRESSURE INJECTION

The same set of cases were run at a reduced pressure of 3950 psi, which is still at or above the MMP of both EOS models. The results are summarised in Table 3.

	IOR (% STOHP)	Gross gas utilisation (Mscf/STB)	Net gas utilisation (Mscf/stb)
CO2_2	7.98	9.76	2.35
CO2_2A	7.04	11.16	2.62
CO2_2T100	8.21	12.94	5.36

Table 3: Comparison of WAG simulations performed at the MMP

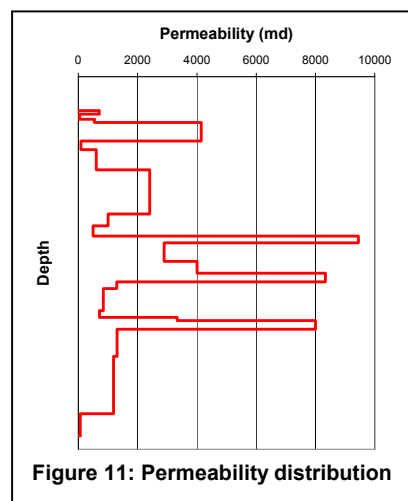
The results show the same overall trends as the higher pressure injection cases. The incremental recovery for the lower temperature case is significantly reduced, because the injected CO₂ is no longer denser than the injected water. Overall the impact of reduced pressure operation is to improve the gas utilisation efficiency, without significantly affecting the incremental production.

COMPOSITIONAL MODELLING OF CO₂ GSGI

Crestal injection of CO₂ in a GSGI mode was studied using a compositional cross-section model of a dipping fault block with the permeability distribution shown in Figure 11, and a grid resolution of 39x1x23 (NXxNYxNZ). The model was waterflooded initially, with the injector completed in blocks (39,1,1-23) and the producer in blocks (1,1,1-23). At the end of the waterflood the recovery factor was 54.9%.

At 1 January 2002, the producer was converted to a gas injector. In practice the oil bank generated by the gas injection would be tracked by redrilling or

recompleting the producer as the flood progresses to capture early oil. The focus of this work was to explore the impact of reservoir pressure and compositional effects on recovery, so the production strategy was simplified to a single producer approximately three-quarters of the way down the formation (the original water injector being shut in). This producer was completed over the entire interval, in blocks (31,1,1-23). Production was constrained to give a throughput of one hydrocarbon pore volume over a period of 15 years. The EOS model gave an MMP of 3150 psia. CO₂ was injected into the up-dip well, and in the base case model the reservoir pressure was maintained at 3260 psia.



The oil and gas saturations at 1 January 2017 for the base case CO₂ flood 'CO₂_base' are illustrated in Figure 12. A significant fraction of the formation has been swept down to below the ultimate residual oil saturation (S_{org}) of 10% defined by the oil to gas relative permeability, due to component transfer, swelling and multi-contact miscibility. There is also a clear oil bank ahead of the gas. At the end of 15 years an additional 21.5% STOIP has been recovered compared to the waterflood, however it is clear from Figure 12 that more mobile oil could have been produced if the production strategy was being actively managed. The net gas utilisation efficiency is 3.8 Mscf/STB (with a gross gas utilisation of 7.3 Mscf/bbl, indicating that the oil production is achieved within the constraints of reasonable overall gas production volumes).

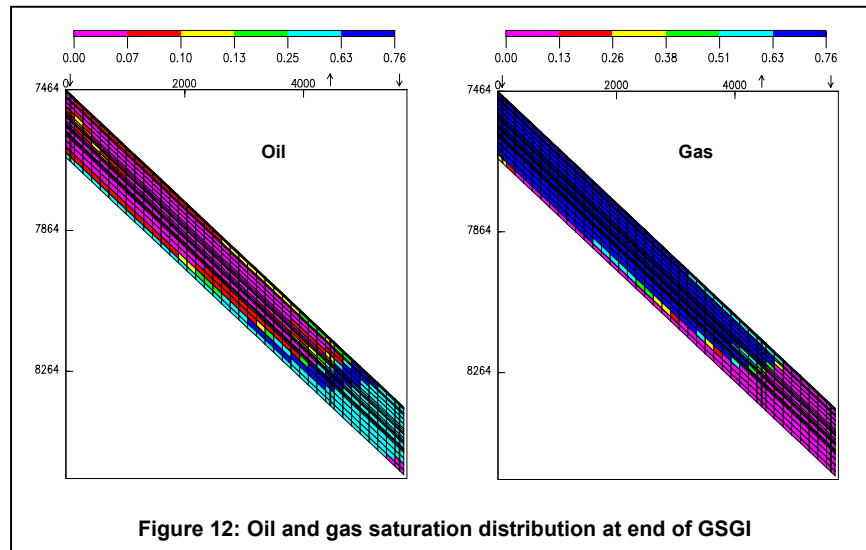


Figure 12: Oil and gas saturation distribution at end of GSGI

To understand the contribution to recovery from compositional effects compared to gravity drainage (as determined by the oil to gas relative permeability), an “immiscible” case (CO₂_Immiscible) was run by adjusting the CO₂/hydrocarbon binary interaction coefficients, to reduce component transfer, and the definition of the gas/oil IFT, to ensure that the immiscible oil to gas relative permeability curve was used. The incremental oil recovery was dramatically reduced from 21.5 to 2% STOIP, showing that compositional effects are the dominant recovery mechanism. Although the oil saturation was reduced in the region contacted by gas, most of this mobilised oil drained to the bottom of the model, increasing the saturation in the lowest layers rather than being produced.

Cases 'CO₂_2000' and 'CO₂_2000_Sorg' investigate the impact of reducing the average reservoir pressure to 2000 psi during gas injection (Table 4) to explore the balance between reduced recovery but a reduced net gas injection requirement. The MMP is now 1150 psi above the reservoir pressure. The incremental oil recovery for case 'CO₂_2000' is only reduced by 23% compared to the base case, and the final oil saturation is higher in the swept region. However, the net utilisation efficiency has improved by a factor of 2.0, compared to a factor of 1.7 which would be estimated from the ratio of CO₂ densities at reservoir pressures of 3260 and 2000 psi. A comparison of the development of the light and heavy phase densities as the floods progress suggests that the base case is primarily a condensing gas drive, whereas the reduced pressure flood is essentially a vapourising gas drive. Since the displacement is no longer at a pressure above the MMP it is more sensitive to the relative permeabilities and the incremental oil recovery increases by 3.4 MMSTB when S_{org} is reduced from 0.1 to 0.0 (cases 'CO₂_2000' and 'CO₂_2000_Sorg').

These results show that in GSGI applications there may be significant scope to reduce the CO₂ requirement, and therefore the economics, by operating at pressures significantly below the MMP.

Case name	P _{res} during GSGI (psia)	MMP (psia)	S _{org}	Recovery factor (%)	IOR (% STOIMP)	Net gas utilisation (Mscf/ STB)
Waterflood	N/A	N/A	N/A	54.9	–	–
Base case	3260	3150	0.1	76.4	21.5	3.83
Reduced pressure	2000	3150	0.1	71.2	16.3	1.93
CO ₂ _2000_ _{S_{org}}	2000	3150	0.0	74.7	19.8	1.60
Immiscible	3260	>>3150	0.1	57.1	2.2	22.71

Table 4: Summary of GSGI simulations

CONCLUSIONS

1. Tertiary CO₂ injection in onshore North American fields is a successful IOR technique that regularly achieves incremental oil recoveries in the range 4-12% STOIMP. Retained gas volumes are typically 10-25% HCPV for tertiary CO₂ floods. The incremental oil production, expressed in reservoir barrels, is generally between 0.5 and 1.0 of the volume retained in the reservoir.
2. CO₂ injection is more complex than hydrocarbon gas injection from a sub-surface standpoint. Up to 5 phases can co-exist in the reservoir. Dissolved CO₂ changes the reservoir chemistry, reducing brine pH, dissolving carbonate minerals, increasing CaCO₃ scale in wells and affecting the performance of scale inhibitor treatments.
3. CO₂ is expected to be miscible or nearly miscible with the oil at the current pressures and original temperatures of most UKCS fields. No established guidelines exist for CO₂/hydrocarbon binary interaction coefficients in EoS models of UKCS oils.
4. Although UKCS fields are at higher pressures than onshore CO₂ projects, the higher temperatures compensate to give similar CO₂ densities at reservoir conditions in both UKCS and Permian Basin floods. Consequently, similar quantities of CO₂ would be required to sweep a given reservoir volume in both cases.
5. Compositional simulation of WAG has shown that cooling in waterflooded zones of the reservoir may affect project performance. Significantly more CO₂ is required at the lower temperature because its density increases, but the MMP decreases and the density differences between CO₂ and the oil and water are reduced, or even reversed, which will improve sweep. Gas utilisation can be improved by reducing the operating pressure to near the MMP.
6. Compositional simulation of GSGI shows that gas utilisation can also be improved by operating at reduced pressures, even where these are significantly below the MMP. This underlines the importance of having a well characterised EoS model that allows project performance to be assessed over a range of operating conditions.

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