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Produced water re-injection in a non-fresh water aquifer with geochemical reaction, hydrodynamic molecular dispersion and adsorption kinetics controlling: model development and numerical simulation

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Abstract An improved produced water reinjection (PWRI) model that incorporates filtration, geochemical reaction, molecular transport, and mass adsorption kinetics was developed to predict cake deposition and injectivity performance in hydrocarbon aquifers in Nigeria oil fields. Thus, the improved PWRI model considered contributions of geochemical reaction, adsorption kinetics, and hydrodynamic molecular dispersion mechanism to alter the injectivity and deposition of suspended solids on aquifer wall resulting in cake formation in pores during PWRI and transport of active constituents in hydrocarbon reservoirs. The injectivity decline and cake deposition for specific case studies of hydrocarbon aquifers in Nigeria oil fields were characterized with respect to its well geometry, lithology, and calibrations data and simulated in COMSOL multiphysics software environment. The PWRI model was validated by comparisons to assessments of previous field studies based on data and results supplied by operator and regulator. The results of simulation showed that PWRI performance was altered because of temporal variations and declinations of permeability, injectivity, and cake precipitation, which were observed to be dependent on active adsorption and geochemical reaction kinetics coupled with filtration scheme and molecular dispersion. From the observed results and findings, transition time t_r to cake nucleation and growth were dependent on aguifer constituents, well capacity, filtration coefficients, particle-to-

grain size ratio, water quality, and more importantly, particle-to-grain adsorption kinetics. Thus, the results showed that injectivity decline and permeability damage were direct contributions of geochemical reaction, hydrodynamic molecular diffusion, and adsorption kinetics to the internal filtration mechanism, which are largely dependent on the initial conditions of concentration of active constituents of produced water and aquifer capacity.

Keywords Reinjection · PWRI · Cake formation · Aquifer · Adsorption kinetics · Produced water

List of Symbols

 $S_{\rm T}$ Skin factor μ Viscosity $P_{\rm inj}$ Injection pressure

q Flow rate (m³/s) k Permeability

 k_{σ} Permeability damage factor η Total collision probability

 η_1 Collision probability due to interception η_D Collision probability due to diffusion η_{lm} Collision probability due to impaction η_s Collision probability due to sedimentation

 $\eta_{\rm E}$ Collision probability due to surface forces

 d_p Particle diameter d_g Grain diameter ϕ Effective porosity ρ_p Particle density Fluid density

 $\rho_{\rm f}$ Fluid density U, u Darcy's velocity

g Gravity acceleration (m/s²)

T Absolute temperature K (°C)

C(r, t) Volumetric concentrations of suspended particles, ppm



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$\sigma(r, t)$		concentrations of the deposited	Produced water	Heavy metals, suspended solids,
	particles, pp		constituents	dissolved solids, hydrocarbon
ko	Absolute per	•	.	traces, etc.
λ	Filtration co		Injection pipe	Produced water transfer medium
L	_	e porous media	XX 11 1	from surface to sub-surface
$\varepsilon_{ m r}$	_	h in radial direction	Well bore	Point of contact of injection pipe
$\varepsilon_{\rm z}$	_	h in axial direction	D 1 1 C1	with formation/reservoir
t	Time (years))	Deep bed filtration	The flow and deposition of particles
τ	Scaled time		To 1 21 - 14 11 11 1	in the rock matrix
\in		entration of suspended solids	Injectivity decline	Index signifying the change in the
S		entration of deposited particles	Eassatian	injection rate of the injected fluid
$\lambda_{\rm o}$		ion coefficient	Formation	Reduction in aquifer properties that
$\alpha_{\rm c}$		ollision efficiency	damage	are solely responsible for the
I	Injectivity in			transmissibility of reservoir fluids
J	Transition ti	njectivity index		through the pore spaces (fracture in
$T_{\rm r}$			Adagration	internal walls of the aquifer)
N	_	particles attached to one grain during one-phase suspension flow	Adsorption kinetics	Attraction and retention of particle
$J_{ m d}$	•	meability of residual oil	Killetics	to the surface grain and the preference of this particle for a
$K_{\rm ror}$	-	pedance straight line during deep bed		particular site within the reservoir
m		one-phase suspension flow	Hydrodynamic	Is a term used to include both
121		pedance straight line during external	dispersion	diffusion and dispersion of
$m_{\rm c}$		on for one-phase suspension flow	dispersion	particles within a medium
n	Pressure (M.		Geochemical	This is the interaction of species
p		the per unit reservoir thickness (L^2/T)	reaction	constituents in the produced water
$q \\ r$	Reservoir ra	=	reaction	and the formation of the host
	Well radius			aquifer
$r_{ m w} \ r_{ m d}$		te radius (L, m)	Colloids	Colloidal particles are suspended
$R_{\rm c}$	Contour radi		Colloius	particles carried in the fluid stream
S_{or}	Residual oil		Scales	Result of nucleation of colloids
$S_{ m wi}$	Initial water		Cakes	Deposition of scales in pore sites is
T	Time (T, s)		Cunes	referred to as cakes
T	Dimensionle	ess time	Geomechanics	Involves the geologic study of the
$T_{ m tr}$		ess transition time	Geomeenames	behaviour of soil and rock
U		elocity (L/T, m/s)	Corrosion	Loss in metal due to degradation,
α		osity fraction	Collogion	erosion or prevailing ambient
β	-	amage coefficient		conditions
φ	Porosity		Souring	Acidic smell/taste characteristic
,	•	-	Representative	A pictured or drawn shape
		and acronyms	Elementary volume	representative of the actual shape.
Produce	ed water	Water associated with crude oil	•	Used in solving mathematical
ъ.,		exploration and production		problems
	ed water	Sending back produced water	Isotherms	Equations considered at constant
re-inject	tion	from the surface into the sub-		temperature
NT C		surface	Finite-element	Numerical method of solution
Non-fresh water Crude oil bearing formation		method	whereby a problem is	
hydrocarbon aquifer			characterized by boundaries and	
Reservo	Ш	A permeable subsurface rock that		solved within these boundaries
Eores at		contains petroleum	PW	Produced water
Formati	.011	Refers to the reservoir bearing	PWRI	Produced water re-injection
		fluids, e.g., oil, gas, and water	EOR	Enhanced oil recovery



E & P	Exploration and production
REV	Representative elementary volume
TVD	Total vertical depth
BHP	Bottom hole pressure

Introduction

Reinjection of produced water into spent hydrocarbon aquifer also referred to as produced water reinjection (PWRI) is one of the earliest and most environment friendly methods to dispose produced water from production platforms. However, reinjection of produced water degrades the aquifer that results in injectivity decline, fracturing of the internal walls of the aquifer and later formation damage, as shown in Fig. 1. Thus, PWRI has reduced performance over a period, because the method cannot be sustained throughout the production life of the reservoir.

Previous studies and models described processes and mechanisms that resulted in formation damage and cake formation which were well developed and documented in technical literatures. PWRI in aquifers is generally studied under two research domains: (1) internal filtration and (2) external cake build up (Bedrikovetsky et al. 2001; Bedrikovetsky et al. 2007; Wennberg and Sharma 1997; Farajzadeh 2002; Al-Abduwani 2005). Significant research works and models were advanced and documented in several technical literatures to predict injectivity and characterize formation damage system and well behavior (Pang and Sharma 1994, 1997; Ojukwu and van den Hoek 2004; Guedes et al. 2006; Yerramilli et al. 2013).

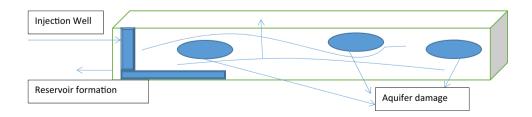
Precious studies show that formation damage and injectivity decline are two major drawbacks associated with PWRI performance in hydrocarbon aquifer. Some past and recent studies were focused on understanding formation damage mechanisms (Salehi and Settari 2008; Prasad et al. 1999; Davidson 1979; Marchesin et al. 2011; Abou-Sayed et al. 2005; Zhang et al. 1993; Todd 1979; Ochi et al. 2007; Nabzar et al. 1997; De Zwart 2007; Faruk 2010; Lawal et al. 2011; Lawal and Vesovic 2010; Wang and Le 2008; Li et al. 2012).

There are other studies and models available in technical literature targeted to predict injectivity decline from par-

ticulate mechanics and flow transport. Notable contributions in this regard include work of Barkman and Davidson (1972), Pang and Sharma (1994, 1997) as well as Wennberg and Sharma (1997). In theory, efficiency and sustainability of the PWRI were progressed by considering injectivity decline as an outcome of momentum and particulate transport phenomena in porous media (Mendez 1999). There are other model and studies reported in technical literatures by previous researchers that focused on the filtration coefficient as the sole determinant of injectivity decline and fracturing (Abou-Sayed et al. 2007; Ajay and Sharman 2007, Al-Abduwani et al. 2001; Altoef et al. 2004; Chang 1985; Clifford et al. 1991; Donaldson et al. 1977; Doresa et al. 2012; Folarin et al. 2013; Gong et al. 2013; Hustedt et al. 2006). None of these models hinted on possible geochemical reaction of produced water heavy metals and aquifer water constituents and effect of geochemical reaction, the focus of this research study.

Nevertheless, recent findings (Idialu 2014) suggest a significant role of adsorption, geochemical reaction and molecular transport kinetics in well behavior, cake formation and damage characterization in PWRI modeling, and field data analysis. Therefore, this paper considers the effects of geochemical reaction, adsorption kinetics, and hydrodynamic molecular transport in formation damage and injectivity decline modeling and developments. Performance of PWRI water injectivity decline as a function of injection water quality, rates, and pressures was found to be significant factors in well injection design and formulation of secondary and tertiary recovery strategies. The effect of geochemical reaction in scale formation to injectivity decline was considered in the PWRI model analysis while outlining also the role of adsorption kinetics and molecular transport. The justification of this work inspired by the significant and active research interest over the last decade in the use of produced water as a resource in reinjection as alternative secondary and tertiary recovery method could achieve the goals of the zero tolerance by regulatory authority to water disposal management to maintain marine life and environment sustainability.

Fig. 1 Collapsed features where fracture will be more prevalent





loss of recovery; (4) loss in reservoir potential; (5) poor reservoir sweep (bypass oil and early water breakthrough); (6) excessive chemical treatment; and (7) discharge not

The generalized improved PWRI model incorporated

molecular transport, geochemical, and adsorption kinetics in

Eq. 1 with boundary conditions presented in Eqs. 2, 3, and 4:

Model development

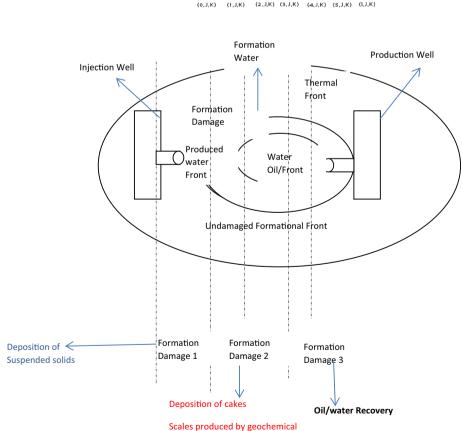
The aquifer grid for produced water system and geometry of the PWRI schemes in well-reservoir formation, effects, and problems encountered were illustrated in Figs. 2 and 3, respectively. The implications arising from PWRI management are: (1) injectivity loss; (2) permeability loss; (3)

Fig. 2 Generic aquifer grid system for produced water re-injection system. Cin Concentration of active constituents in produced water in Reservoir-Aquifer Control volume grid, Cout Concentration of active constituents in produced water out Reservoir-Aquifer Control volume grid. U_x in, U_y in, U_z in is the velocity of produced water in Cartesian coordinates x, y, z in Reservoir-Aquifer Control volume grid. U_{xout} , U_{yout} , U_{zout} is the velocity of produced water in Cartesian coordinates x, y, z out Reservoir-Aquifer Control volume grid

(1,0,0) × (2,0,0) (3,0,0) (4,0,0) (5,0,0) (1,0,0) (0,1,0) (1,1,0) (2,1,0) (3,1,0) (4,1,0) (5,1,0) Ux in C in (0,3,0) (1,3,0) (2,3,0) (3,3,0) (4,3,0) Uv in (0,4,0)...(1,4,0)...(2,4,0). (3,4,0)...(4,4,0). (3,1,0) (4,1,0) Uy in Uy in (0.1.K) (0,2,K) U₂ in U₂ in (0.4.K) (2,J,K) (3,J,K) (4,J,K) (5,J,K) (I,J,K)

meeting environmental regulations.

Fig. 3 Geometry of PWRI in well-reservoir formation



Eig 2 Compating of DWDL in



$$\frac{\partial \phi(t)C}{\partial t} + \nabla(Cv) - \nabla^2(DC) = -(\sigma_n + R_d) + R_n \tag{1}$$

$$C = C(x, z, t); \ 0 \le x \le L; \ 0 \le z \le Z; \ t \ge 0$$

$$C(x, z, 0) = C_0$$
(2)

$$C(L, z, t) = 0 (3)$$

$$\left[\frac{\partial C}{\partial r}\right]_{(r=R,Z,t)} = 0 \left[\frac{\partial C}{\partial z}\right]_{(x,Z=Z,t)} = 0 \tag{4}$$

where C is the concentration of produced water active constituents, C_0 is the initial concentration of the active constituents, v is the produced water transport velocity in the geologic formation, $\phi(t)$ is the variable porosity, D is the molecular diffusivity, and t is time.

The significant control variables in improved PWRI model are as follows:

 $\sigma_{\rm n}$ deposition filtration term, $R_{\rm n}$ geochemical reaction term, $R_{\rm d}$ adsorption kinetics term, DC molecular transport term.

In this work, the geochemical reaction rate mechanism was described to follow second-order kinetics summarized as Eqs. 5 and 7 as follows.

At time t = 0

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
C_{\text{Ao}} & C_{\text{Bo}} & \longrightarrow X & C_{\text{co}} \\
C_{\text{Ao}} - X_{\text{r}} C_{\text{Ao}} & C_{\text{Bo}} - X_{\text{r}} C_{\text{Bo}} & C_{\text{co}} + X_{\text{r}} C_{\text{Co}}.
\end{array} \tag{5}$$

At time t = t

$$C_{\rm A}$$
 $C_{\rm B}$ $C_{\rm C}$. (6)

1 mol of Component A reacted with 1 mol of Component B to produce 1 mol of scale products:

$$R_{\rm n} = \frac{1}{V_{\rm fm}} \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = K_{\rm o} \left(\frac{C_{\rm T}}{1 + \sum K_i C_i} \right) (C_{\rm A} C_{\rm B} - K_1 C) \tag{7}$$

$$R_{\rm n} = \frac{\partial R_{\rm rn}}{\partial t} = K_o \left(\frac{C_{\rm T}}{1 + \sum K_i C_i} \right) (C_{\rm A} C_{\rm B} - K_1 C). \tag{8}$$

These important contributions in the improved model were used to standardize the general performance of produced water reinjection in hydrocarbon aquifers, with geochemical reaction, adsorption kinetics, and hydrodynamic dispersion transport that highlighted as the key performance indicators of the improved model, as illustrated in subsequent sections (see Fig. 4).

Invasion Zone Front 1

To account for adsorption kinetics (Rd) in internal filtration modeling, three linear adsorption isotherms which are Linear; Langmuir, and Freundlich isotherms were considered. Single particle (suspended) linear adsorption is shown in

$$C_{\rm S} = K_{\rm a}C. \tag{9}$$

To determine the active mass transfer coefficient (K_a), the Arrhenius equation is introduced as follows:

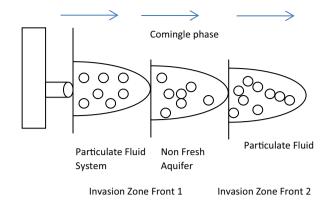


Fig. 4 Micro pore particle retention kinetics

Dp +dg

$$K_a = K_0 e^{-\frac{\Delta H}{RT}}. (10)$$

dg

The R_d macroscale adsorption particle retention kinetics (adsorption) on the surface of grain were computed and presented as Eq. 9:

$$\frac{\partial C_{i}}{\partial t} + \left(v_{z} \frac{\partial C_{i}}{\partial z} + \frac{v_{\theta}}{r} \frac{\partial C_{i}}{\partial \theta} + \frac{v_{r}}{r} \frac{\partial rC_{i}}{\partial r}\right)
- \left(D_{z} \frac{\partial^{2} C_{i}}{\partial z^{2}} + D_{r} \left(\frac{\partial^{2} C_{i}}{\partial r^{2}} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial C_{i}}{\partial r}\right)\right)
= R_{d}.$$
(11)

With R_d is given by Eq. 12:

$$R_d = E_{\rm mp} \left(\frac{1 - \varphi_{\rm mp}}{\varphi_{\rm mp}} \right) \left(\frac{3K_g}{R} \right) \left(C_i - \frac{C_T K_i C_i}{1 + \sum_{l=n}^n K_l C_i} \right) \tag{12}$$

where $E_{\rm mp}$ is defined as trapping efficiency factor. For particulate transport systems at the PW invasion zone when t=0 and $0 < t < t_i$, where t_i is the residence time of the particle in invasion zone Li. Previous studies illustrated that the suspended particles adsorbed have different dynamics in each invasion zone in the aquifer, thus the transport equation becomes

$$\left(\frac{\partial C_{i}}{\partial t}\right)_{L_{i}} + \left(E_{mp}\left(\frac{1-\varphi_{mp}}{\varphi_{mp}}\right)\right)_{L_{i}} \left(\frac{\hat{k}k_{g}}{R}\left(C_{T} - \frac{C_{T}k_{i}c_{i}}{1+\sum k_{i}c_{i}}\right)\right)_{L_{i}} \\
= \left(-V_{Z}\frac{\partial c_{i}}{\partial z}\right)_{L_{i}} + \left(-\frac{V_{\theta}\partial c_{i}}{r\partial\theta}\right)_{L_{i}} + \left(-\frac{V_{r}}{r}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial r}(rc_{i})\right)\right)_{L_{i}} \\
+ \left(D_{z}\frac{\partial^{2}c_{i}}{\partial z^{2}}\right)_{L_{i}} + \left(D_{r}\left(\frac{\partial^{2}c_{i}}{\partial r^{2}} + \frac{1\partial c_{i}}{r\partial r}\right)\right)_{L_{i}} \\
0 < L_{i} < L_{T_{i}}.$$
(13)

The improved PWRI model in generalized dimensionless form accounts for residual oil mobility $S_{\rm or}$ and permeability $k_{\rm or}$, porous media particle retention adsorption factor in Eq. 12:



$$\left(\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial \tau^*} - \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \tau^*} + \left(\frac{q_o}{c_o}\right) \frac{\partial \Psi_D}{\partial \tau^*}\right) + \left(\frac{R_o}{c_o}\right) \frac{\partial \Psi_r}{\partial \tau^*}\right)
+ \alpha_1(\upsilon) \left(\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial \varepsilon_r}\right) + \alpha_2(\upsilon) \frac{\zeta}{\varepsilon_r} + \alpha_3(\upsilon) \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial \varepsilon_z}
= \alpha_4(\upsilon) \frac{\partial^2 \zeta}{\partial r^2} + \alpha_5(\upsilon) \left(\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial \varepsilon_r}\right) + \alpha_6(\upsilon) \left(\frac{\partial^2 \zeta}{\partial \varepsilon_{\overline{\tau}}}\right).$$
(14)

Iwaski (1937) proposed the filtration model in Eq. 15 which represented the rate of particle trapping:

$$\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial t} = \lambda v C \tag{15}$$

where v is the superficial velocity, λ is defined as the filtration coefficient, a function of a large number of parameters, and C is the fraction of suspended particles per unit volume of suspension.

The rate of deposition was proportional to the concentration of suspended particles and fluid velocity, see Eq. 14:

$$\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial t} = \lambda \parallel U \parallel C_s. \tag{16}$$

The filtration coefficient was computed by the relation Eq. 17:

$$\lambda = \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{1 - \phi}{d_s} \right) \alpha_c n \tag{17}$$

where ∞_c represents the total collision probability of the bed efficiency and n is the collision probability of the filtration mechanisms.

The Filtration Coefficient Numerical Model was computed as Eq. 16:

$$\begin{bmatrix} S_{i1} \\ S_{i2} \\ S_{i3} \\ \vdots \\ S_{in} \end{bmatrix}_{K+1} = \begin{bmatrix} S_{i1} \\ S_{i2} \\ S_{i3} \\ \vdots \\ S_{in} \end{bmatrix}_{K} + \alpha_0 \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{i1} \\ \epsilon_{i2} \\ \epsilon_{i3} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{in} \end{bmatrix}_{K}$$

$$(18)$$

We assumed the following in the development of improved PWRI model:

- (a) The displacing fluid (water) and the deposited solids were considered incompressible.
- (b) The densities of the solid particles were considered equal in both dispersed and deposited states.
- (c) The linear velocity in v_r , v_z , and v_{φ} along the core is constant. In addition, we assumed a constant velocity with time. Therefore, the conservation of the total flux is $d\omega v = 0$.
- (d) The kinetics of the particles was considered linear.

- (e) Dependency of the viscosity and concentration was considered negligible.
- (f) Thermal and shear stresses were considered negligible.

The injectivity index was computed as flow rate per unit of the pressure drop between the injector and the reservoir and computed, see formula as shown in

$$\prod = \frac{q(t)}{\Delta p(t)}.$$
(17)

The impedance was computed as the inverse of the dimensionless injectivity index:

$$J(T) = \frac{\prod(0)}{\prod(t)} = \frac{q_o \Delta p(T)}{\Delta p(0)q(T)}.$$
 (19)

The impedance was computed as piecewise linear function of the dimensionless time for either deep bed filtration or external cake formation (Pang and Sharma 1994, 1997; Prasad et al. 1999):

$$J_{\rm d}(T) = 1 + mT \quad \text{For} \quad T < T_{\rm r} \tag{20}$$

$$J_{\rm d}(T) = 1 + mT_{\rm r} + m_{\rm c}(T - T_{\rm r})$$
 For $T > T_{\rm r}$. (21)

The nucleation or transition time T_r was represented as Eq. 22:

$$T_{\rm r} > \frac{2\alpha r_{\rm w}}{\lambda C_{\rm o} R_{\rm c}^2}.\tag{22}$$

The impedance slope m during the deep filtration was computed by the formula of Eq. 22:

$$m_{\rm c} = \frac{kk_{\rm rowr}\varphi c_o}{k_{\rm c}(1 - \varphi_{\rm c})X_{\rm w}(-{\rm In}X_{\rm w})}$$
(23)

$$m = \left(\frac{\beta \varphi c_{o}}{\ln X_{w}}\right) (\lambda R_{c}) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{X_{w}}}\right) (-\exp(-\lambda (R_{C} - r_{w}))$$
$$-\lambda R_{C} \exp(\lambda r_{w}) \int_{\lambda r_{w}}^{\lambda R_{c}} \frac{\exp(-u)}{u} du$$
(24)

where

$$u = \lambda R_{\rm c} \sqrt{X} \tag{25}$$

$$X = \ell^2 = \left(\frac{r}{R_{\rm c}}\right)^2 \tag{26}$$

$$X_{\rm w} = \ell^2 = \left(\frac{r_{\rm w}}{R_{\rm c}}\right)^2. \tag{27}$$

 $m_{\rm c}$ represent the slope of the external cake formation.

The damage section of the aquifer formation was computed as a ratio of differential in injection pressure over injection rate presented in Eq. 28:

$$\frac{\Delta P_{\in}}{q} = \frac{\mu \text{In}\left(\frac{r_{e}}{r_{w}}\right)}{2\pi K_{\text{or}} K_{\sigma}}.$$
(28)



The undamaged section was computed as Eq. 29:

$$\frac{\Delta P}{q} = \frac{\mu \text{In}\left(\frac{r_e}{r_w}\right)}{2\pi K_{\text{Or}}} \tag{29}$$

Total Injectivity Pressure Gradient = $\frac{\Delta P}{q} + \frac{\Delta P_{\in}}{q}$

$$= (1 + K_{\sigma}) \frac{\mu \ln\left(\frac{r_{\rm c}}{r_{\rm w}}\right)}{2\Pi h K_{\rm or}} \tag{30}$$

where

$$\frac{\Delta P_{\infty}}{q} = \frac{\mu \ln\left(\frac{r_{\rm c}}{r_{\rm cc}}\right)}{2\pi K_{\rm or}} \tag{31}$$

Total Impedance = Damage Impedance + Undamaged Impedance. (32)

Figure 5 shows the damage section which represents area that has been affected by cake deposits, whereas undamaged section is unaffected by solids deposition.

The total impedance was computed by

$$\frac{\Delta P}{q} = \frac{\mu}{2\pi K_{\rm or}} \left(\ln \left(\frac{r_{\rm e}}{r_{\rm w}} \right) + K_{\sigma}' \right). \tag{33}$$

The dimensionless form of total impedance index was computed as Eq. 33 as follows:

$$\frac{\left(\frac{\Delta P}{q}\right)_T}{\left(\frac{\Delta P_{\rm O}}{q_{\rm O}}\right)} = \frac{\left(\left(\ln\left(\frac{r_{\rm c}}{r_{\rm w}}\right) + K_{\sigma}'\right)\right)_{\rm T}}{\left(\left(\ln\left(\frac{r_{\rm c}}{r_{\rm w}}\right)_{\rm T}\right)\right)_{\rm T}}$$
(34)

where

$$j = 1 + K_{\sigma}' \left(\frac{1}{\ln\left(\frac{r_{\epsilon}}{r_{w}}\right)} \right). \tag{35}$$

The injectivity index was computed as the flow rate per unit of the pressure drop between the injector and the reservoir (Eq. 35):

$$\prod = \frac{q(t)}{\Delta p(t)}.$$
(36)

Based on preliminary field data obtained from a field operator and regulator in Nigeria, the model was solved using finite-element method and the injectivity and solid deposition simulated in COMSOL environment. Details of

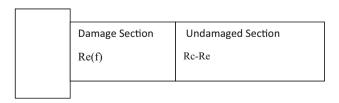


Fig. 5 Damage and undamaged section of a reservoir

the finite-element method and COMSOL software algorithms applied to solve the mode were presented in subsequent sections.

Field data, numerical development, and computer simulation

The improved PWRI model was solved by finite-element method and injectivity and permeability damage simulated in the COMSOL Multiphysics software environment using the field data obtained from regulator for the Onshore Field in Nigeria. In the numerical model, a six-order six-point implicit differencing scheme was used and resulting numerical solution of the governing equations of the PWRI concentration field was solved by the Triadiagonal Matrix Algorithm (TDMA) method. The implicit finite scheme was then applied to the PWRI Model of Eq. 5 to give Eq. 36:

$$\alpha'_{1}\zeta_{ijk+1} + \alpha'_{2}\zeta_{i+1jk+1} + \alpha'_{3}\zeta_{ij+1k+1} + \alpha'_{4}\zeta_{i-1jk+1} + \alpha'_{5}\zeta_{ij-1,k+1} = \alpha'_{6}\zeta_{ijk} + \hat{a}_{r}\Delta q_{rijk} - \hat{a}_{d}\Delta q_{dijk}$$
(37)

where

the adsorption term in Eq. (37) was specified by Eq. (38):

$$\Delta q_{dijk} = \left(\frac{a_1}{\hat{a}_d}\right) \zeta_{ijk+1} - \left(1 - \frac{\hat{a}_2}{\hat{a}_d}\right) \zeta_{ijk} + \left(1 - \frac{\hat{a}_2}{\hat{a}_d}\right) \left(C_T \frac{k_1}{1 + k_1 c_0 \zeta_{iik}}\right) \zeta_{ijk}. \tag{38}$$

The other terms in Eq. (36) was defined in line with the reservoir:

$$\alpha_1' = 1 - \Delta \tau^* \left(\frac{\alpha_1}{\Delta \in_{\bar{r}}} + \frac{\alpha_3}{\Delta \in_{\bar{z}}} - \frac{2\alpha_4}{(\Delta \in_{\bar{r}})^2} - \frac{2\alpha_6}{(\Delta \in_{\bar{r}})^2} \right)$$
(39)

$$\alpha_2' = \left(\frac{\alpha_1 \Delta \tau^*}{\Delta \in_{\bar{r}}} - \frac{\alpha_4 \Delta \tau^*}{(\Delta \in_{r})^2} + \frac{\alpha_5 \Delta \tau^*}{\Delta \in_{r}}\right) \tag{40}$$

$$\alpha_3' = \left(\frac{\alpha_3 \Delta \tau^*}{\Delta \in_z} - \frac{\alpha_6 \Delta \tau^*}{\left(\Delta \in_z\right)^2}\right) \tag{41}$$

$$\alpha_4' = \left(\frac{\alpha_4 \Delta \tau^*}{\left(\Delta \in r\right)^2}\right) \tag{42}$$

$$\alpha_5' = \left(\frac{\alpha_6 \Delta \tau^*}{\left(\Delta \in_{z}\right)^2}\right) \tag{43}$$

$$\alpha_6' = 1 - \Delta \tau^*(\alpha_o + \alpha_2) \tag{44} \label{eq:44}$$

where

$$\alpha_{\rm I}(v) = \left(\frac{v_{\rm r}}{v}\right) \left(\frac{L}{R_{\rm o}}\right) \tag{45}$$



Well Perforations (md) Ini start UP Tubing size Inj. press. Inj. rate A-5 12,173'-12,282' 4.5" 22 MBWPD 11/19/2000 2505 psig 5.5" A-10 15,060'-15,132' 3342 psig 20 MBWPD 5/22/2001 A-12 17,152'-17,258' 5.5" 2504 psig 26 MBWPD 4/19/2001 A-14 26,772'-26,846' 5.5" 2359 psig 22 MBWPD 5/16/2003 A-19 20,990'-21,062' 5.5" 3240 psig 19 MBWPD 12/10/2001 Total Injection 109 MBWPD

Table 1 Re-injection parameters *source: Energy Tech Co, Houston, Texas, USA and petroleum regulator, Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR), as reported by (Idialu 2014)

$$\alpha_2(v) = \left(\frac{v_r}{v}\right) \left(\frac{L}{R_o}\right) \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_r}\right) \tag{46}$$

$$\alpha_3(v) = \frac{v_z}{v} \tag{47}$$

$$\alpha_4(v) = \left(\frac{D_{\rm er}}{v}\right) \left(\frac{L}{R^2}\right) \tag{48}$$

$$\alpha_5(v) = \left(\frac{D_{\rm er}}{v}\right) \left(\frac{L}{R_0^2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{\rm r}}\right) \tag{49}$$

$$\alpha_6(v) = \left(\frac{D_{ez}}{v}\right) \left(\frac{1}{L}\right). \tag{50}$$

Computation of Velocity in r and z direction:

$$v_r = \frac{q_r}{2\pi rh} = \left(\frac{K_{\text{or}}K_{\sigma_r}}{\mu}\right) \int_{r_{\text{ol}}}^{r_{\text{el}}} \frac{1}{r} \frac{drP}{dr} + \int_{r_{\text{ol}}}^{r_{\text{e}}} K_{or} \frac{1}{r} \frac{drP}{dr}$$
 (51)

$$v_z = \frac{q_z}{\pi r^2 h} = \left(\frac{K_{oz} K_{oz}}{\mu}\right) \int_{r_{oz}}^{r_{el}} \frac{\mathrm{d}P}{\mathrm{d}z} + \int_{r_{el}}^{r_e} K_{oz} \frac{\mathrm{d}P}{\mathrm{d}z}$$
 (52)

$$\int_{r_{\rm or}}^{r_{\rm e}} \left(\frac{q}{2\pi h}\right) \frac{\mathrm{d}r}{r} = \left(\frac{K_{\rm or}(1+K_{\sigma})}{\mu}\right) \Delta P \tag{53}$$

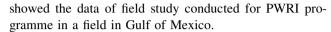
$$\frac{\Delta P}{q} = \frac{\mu \text{In}\left(\frac{r_e}{r_w}\right)}{2\pi K_{\text{or}}} + \frac{\mu \text{In}\left(\frac{r_e}{r_w}\right)}{2\pi K_{\text{or}} K_{\sigma}}$$
(54)

$$\frac{\Delta P}{q} = \frac{1}{2\pi K_{or}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{K_{\sigma}} \right).$$

The flow chart in Fig. 4 described the simulation algorithm using the COMSOL Multiphysics software.

Field water compatibility studies for fields in Gulf of Guinea, Nigeria field in Niger Delta

The data of PWRI case studies for Gulf of Guinea (Niger Delta, Nigeria) were provided in operator's report planned for water flood for secondary enhanced recovery in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. Five PWRI runs were assessed for this study. The limiting factors for injection rates were friction and pumping capabilities. Table 1



From these studies, friction contributed significant part in PWRI performance which varied significantly depending on rate and tubing size. In addition, a number of other estimates were determined over a range of the variables of Young's Modulus, Poisson's Ratio, injection water temperature, and the difference in pressure between the reservoir pressure and flowing bottom hole pressure that were ran (Fig. 6).

Impact of water quality on matrix injection

The WID (Water Injectivity Decline) simulator results presented in Figs. 7 and 8 outlined the significance of water quality on injection rates and pressure. The simulator was developed at the University of Texas. The output shows injectivity vs. time. The injectivity is dimensionless permeability, and the half-life is the amount of time, in days, at which the dimensionless permeability drops to half the original value. The output based on their results shown in Fig. 7 is for matrix injection with very good water quality (1 ppm of 1 micron sized particles). The results show futility of trying to inject below the fracture gradient since injection rate declines in the matter of a few days to a fraction of the original value. The permeability profile shows that the damage is shallow, even with good perm (200 md).

The field data runs reviewed showed that water quality has a significant impact on the half-life. With 5 ppm of 5 micron solids, the half-life is about a year for a 100' fracture. This meant that the fracture will continue to grow at about this rate every year, assuming that it is confined to a single zone (Tables 2, 3).

Results and discussions

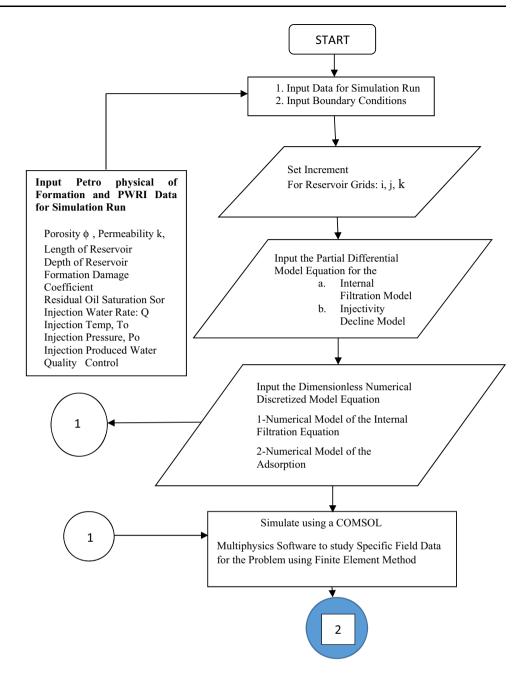
The discussions of results of findings are presented as follows:

Injectivity profile with time

In this section, the results of injectivity with time are presented for two different studies obtained for two different



Fig. 6 Flow chart algorithm of simulation program for the PWRI model



fields, with the actual field data run compared with simulated data obtained from this work. Figure 9 results show plot of injectivity with time for a typical PWRI data obtained for a field in the Gulf of Mexico (Texas Fields) and were supplied by the field operator, while Fig. 10 shows the simulated injectivity based on data obtained from operator Nigerian Oil Field. While the numerical values of the simulated and field study may differ, injectivity profile trends obtained in Fig. 9 compared favorably with injectivity obtained in Fig. 10 simulated on the COMSOL Multiphysics platform thereby validating the improved PWRI model. The plots establish that injectivity decline

was spatially away from the produced water invasion zone in the host aquifer to settle at a threshold value. The transition time to cake formation for actual field run was 50 days while for our simulated run was observed to occur within 5 days. The blue line shown in Fig. 9 shows the injectivity decline for the field studies, while the grey line in Fig. 10 shows the injectivity decline profile simulated in COMSOL metaphysics environment where a correlation in trend was observed. The green line in Fig. 9 shows a steep change in injectivity near the well bore showing effect of geometry with respect to injection fracture with injection decline steepest at the well bore than further away.



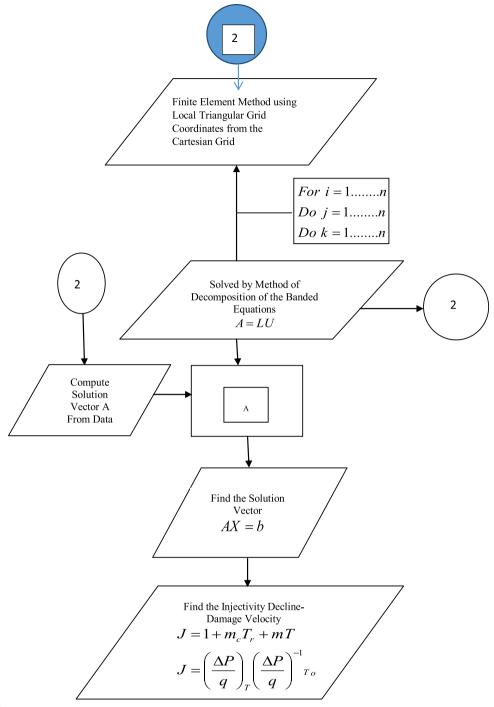


Fig. 6 continued

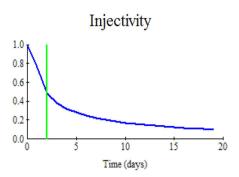
Effect of flow rate on injectivity with time

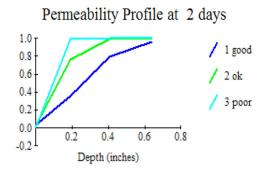
In this section, we show how higher injection rate and sweep volume could impact on injectivity decline and cake deposition. Figures 11 and 12 show the plots of the simulated injectivity decline against PWRI rates and

observed to be inversely proportional to each other. From plots increased injection rate led to decreased injectivity decline leading to sustained impairment and transition to cake formation which was minimized to a constant residual value. The sweep volume erodes deposition and adsorption on walls of aquifer, because drag force was



Fig. 7 1 ppm, 1 micron, Injectivity and perm profiles *source: Energy Tech Co, Houston, Texas, USA and petroleum regulator, Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR), as reported by (Idialu 2014)





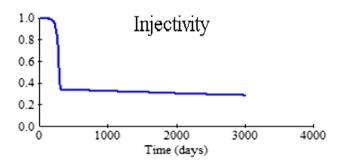


Fig. 8 60 md, 100 ft fracture, 5 ppm, 5 micron *source: Energy Tech Co, Houston, Texas, USA and petroleum regulator, Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR), as reported by (Idialu 2014)

observed to have the effect of reducing solids deposition to a constant injection rate. Previous studies showed that friction contributed significant role in PWRI performance and varied significantly depending on rate and tubing size. Significant reduction in injectivity decline and fracturing could be attributed to lager drag force resulting from increased rates. These results were validated by Gulf of Mexico study presented in Table 1 where similar observations of plots of actual and simulated results trends were correlated. In addition, a number of other estimates over a range of the variables of Young's Modulus, Poisson's Ratio, injection water temperature, and the difference in pressure between the reservoir pressure and flowing bottom hole pressure were ran. The results in Fig. 11 showed futility of attempting to inject below the fracture gradient since injection rate declines in the matter of a few days to a fraction of the original value transient was followed by a steady state of constant injectivity beyond which decline remains constant after 15 days, transition time to cake formation irrespective of the injection rates. Injectivity decline increased as flow rate

Table 2 Sensitivity summary data *source: Energy Tech Co, Houston, Texas, USA and petroleum regulator, Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR), as reported by (Idialu 2014)

	Frac gradient	WHP	Young's modulus	Poisson's ratio	Injection temp	BHP– $P_{\rm r}$ injection	Friction
Best guess	0.60	2.545	2,500,000	0.1	80	2000	900
Highest pressure	0.70	4.603	2,000,000	0.08	150	2500	1500
Lowest pressure	0.49	1.134	3,000,000	0.125	60	1500	600
Best guess	0.60	2.545	2,500,000	0.1	80	2000	900
YM high	0.56	2.140	3,000,000	0.1	80	2000	900
YM low	0.64	2.950	2,000,000	0.1	80	2000	900
Best guess	0.60	2.545	2,500,000	0.1	80	2000	900
PR high	0.60	2.487	2,500,000	0.125	80	2000	900
PR low	0.60	2.589	2,500,000	0.08	80	2000	900
Best guess	0.60	2.545	2,500,000	0.1	80	2000	900
Temp high	0.68	3.379	2,500,000	0.1	150	2000	900
Temp low	0.57	2.307	2,500,000	0.1	60	2000	900
Best guess	0.60	2.545	2,500,000	0.1	80	2000	900
Press high	0.63	2.901	2,500,000	0.1	80	2500	900
Press low	0.56	2.190	2,500,000	0.1	80	1500	900
Best guess	0.60	2.545	2,500,000	0.1	80	2000	900
Friction high	0.60	3.145	2,500,000	0.1	80	2000	1500
Friction low	0.60	2.245	2,500,000	0.1	80	2000	600



decreases and vice versa. Formation around the fracture is impaired by deep penetration of solids, (ii) an external filter cake is built on the fracture wall by oil and solids

Table 3 WID run summary *source: Energy Tech Co, Houston, Texas, USA and petroleum regulator, Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR), as reported by (Idialu 2014)

Perm	Particle size, microns	Concentration, ppm	Half-life, days	Frac Length, ft
All three zones	1	1	2	0 (matrix injection)
200	5	5	152	50
200	2	2	381	50
200	1	1	766	50
60	5	5	298	100
60	5	5	155	50
60	2	2	385	50
60	1	1	770	50
5	2	2	403	50
5	1	1	790	50

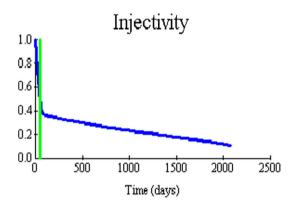
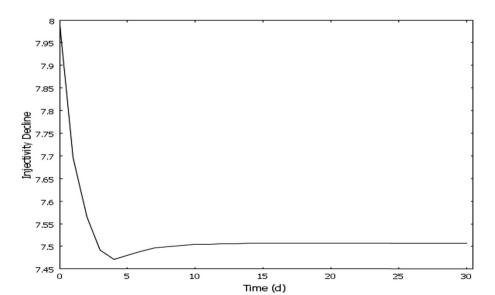


Fig. 9 Field studies, injectivity with time

Fig. 10 Injectivity profile with time (days)



that remain in the fracture and (iii) filter cake growth eventually leads to plugging of the fracture. The injectivity decline was dependent on injection rate impact on produced water invasion zone flooding volume in aquifer formation with a lower sweep volume leading to higher injectivity decline and in increase of the produced water sweep volume rate leads to higher injectivity performance and, therefore, higher recovery.

Effect of particle size and formation damage on injectivity

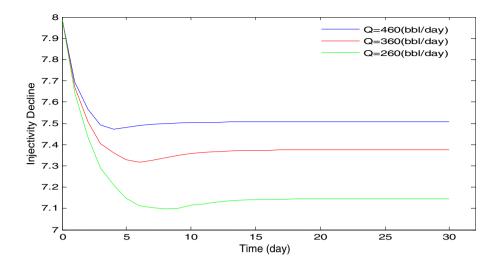
In this section, the effects of particle size on injectivity with time were studied and demonstrated. Figure 13 showed decrease in injectivity with time as the particle size decreases. The particle to grain size $\left(\frac{dp}{dr}\right)$ of 0.6164 showed

lower injectivity decline than a particle to grain size $\left(\frac{dp}{dg}\right)$ of 0.2740. The smaller particles were able to penetrate the pores faster than larger grain particles in suspended solids thereby increasing chances for internal cake formation and external cake build up. The plots showed that injectivity index decreased from 1.135 to 1.1 in 30 days. The impact of particle to grain size is a function of adsorption capacity of particles on aquifer wall to form cake deposits significant in altering injectivity and formation damage alongside quality of constituents, injection rate of produced water which were established in the previous section.

Figure 14 outlined the variation of injectivity decline with velocity damage factor. The plots showed decreased injectivity as damage factor increased irrespective of time the produced water is transported in the reservoir. The damage factor is a numerical index of the reduction in permeability resulted from formation damage due to



Fig. 11 Effect of flow rate on injectivity



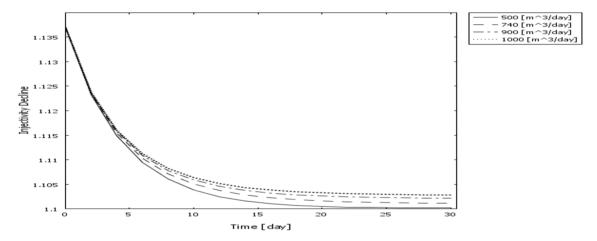


Fig. 12 Injectivity against time and flow rate. $\left(\frac{dp}{dx}\right)$ is the particle to grain ratio

scaling. However, the extent of decline of injectivity with damage factor was observed to invariant with time. The injectivity was same irrespective of the time for any specific damage factor.

Profile of permeability damage with distance

Figure 15 showed the profile of permeability on both fracturing and filtration phenomena. The profile decreased with time and increased uniformly with radial distance from produced water invasion zone. From the analysis of the results in the absence of particle deposition, low permeability formation were observed to be more likely fractured as the net fracturing pressure was observed to be inversely proportional to permeability, for a given injection rate. In addition, particle filtration and formation damage were governed by the interactions of particles in the injected water within the reservoir. In general, formation plugging is severe as the formation permeability decreased.

However, from results, formation permeability was directly dependent on the formation grain size (dg). A comparison of the profile in Fig. 16 and the permeability of field data of Fig. 15 showed a good agreement for damage permeability, with a little allowance for lithological variation and other factors that may partially contribute to injectivity variation.

Effect of temperature variation on injectivity with time

Figure 17 outlines the significance of temperature variation as a key role in adsorption rate in the Arrhenius equation and subsequently injectivity decline. Higher temperature favors greater retention rates outlining the importance of adsorption rate in particle deposition. The fracture gradient was influenced as temperature changes which led to less injectivity as temperature increases. As cooler injection fluids reduce temperature, the rock becomes more brittle



Fig. 13 Effect of particle size on injectivity with time. dp/dg is the particle to grain ratio

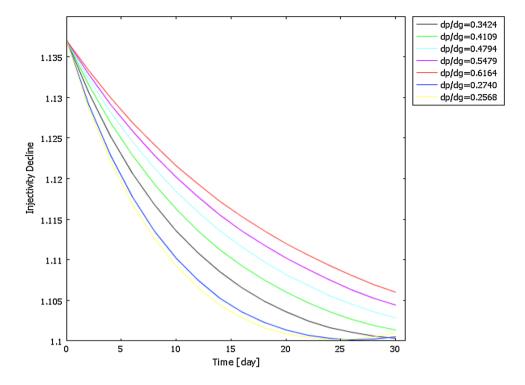
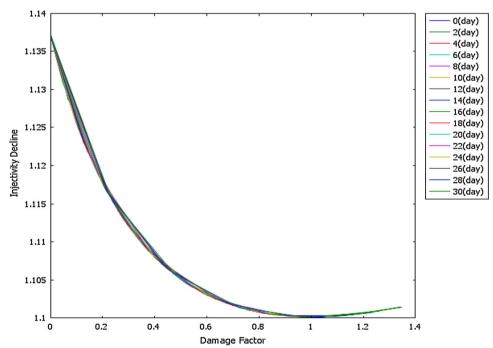
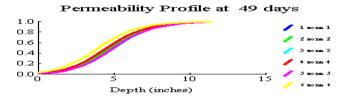


Fig. 14 Variation of injectivity decline with damage factor





 $\textbf{Fig. 15} \ \ \text{Field simulation data of profile of permeability with depth at different zones}$

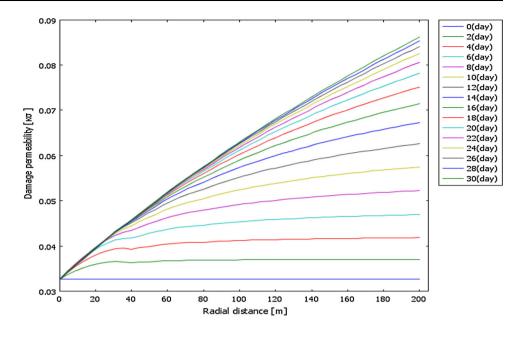
and this effect is strongly dependent on Young's Modulus of elasticity. The profile is an exponential decrease in injectivity with time as temperature decreases.

Concentration variation with depth for first 5 days

Figure 18 showed the concentration of suspended and deposited solids decreases exponentially with depth. At an



Fig. 16 Profile of permeability damage with distance



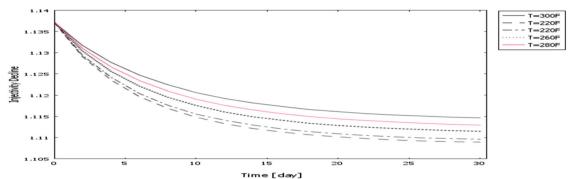
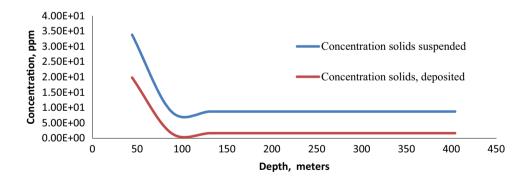


Fig. 17 Effect of temperature variation on injectivity with time

Fig. 18 Variation of concentration (suspended and deposited solids) with time for the first 5 days, of injection for calcite geochemical reaction index SI = 1.48



assumed depth 100 m, the concentration decrease reaches a minimum after which concentration remains constant. The effect of geochemical reaction scaling is apparent as concentration solids deposited was observed to be less than concentration in suspension.

Figure 19 outlines simulation of injectivity performance with time for the reservoir temperature temp = 164 °F and Flow Line temp = 125 °F for calcite

geochemical reaction which has a scaling index $\mathrm{SI}=1.48$. The significant results reveal Injectivity decline is exponential in time. For a water injection rate of 5000 bbls/day, injectivity decline is a maximum on the first day and remain constant for the remaining days as it progresses. The simulation results show potential calcite scaling of $\mathrm{SI}=1.48>1$ induces a faster time to injectivity decline.



Fig. 19 Profile of injectivity with time for reservoir temp = 164 °F and flow line temp = 125 °F for calcite geochemical reaction index SI = 1.48

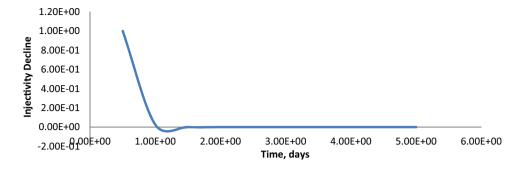


Fig. 20 Profile of Concentration (suspended and deposited) with radial distance at TVD 44.2 m and at 5 days Reservoir Temp = 164 °F and Flow Line Temp = 125 °F for Calcite Geochemical Rxn Index SI = 1.48

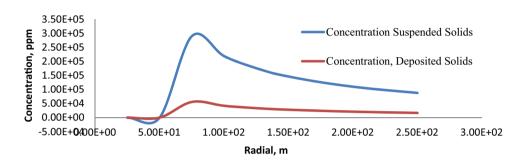


Figure 20 is the profile of concentration of suspended and deposited solids with radial distance on the 5th day for injection at 5000 bbl/day (TVD 44.2 m and time 1 day) for reservoir temp = 164 °F and flow line temp = 125 °F for Calcite Scaling Index SI = 1.48. Concentration decreases for deposited and suspended solids after 50–100 m may be the result of increased deposition precipitated due to increased geochemical scaling.

Conclusion

An improved PWRI model incorporating the effect of geochemical reaction, adsorption kinetics and hydrodynamics molecular transport was presented to predict performance of produced water reinjection Schemes in hydrocarbon aquifer. The model was solved using a finite-element method with the injectivity and solids deposition simulated in COMSOL Multiphysics Software. At a specific length in the aquifer, the concentration profile of the active specie follows an exponential distribution in time. Meanwhile, injectivity decline decreases exponentially with radial distance in the aquifer. The injectivity decline was found to be a function of cake deposition resulting from geochemical reaction, adsorption kinetics coupled filtration scheme and molecular diffusion. In conclusion, we established that the

transition time t_r to cake nucleation and growth was a consequence aquifer capacity, filtration coefficients particle and grain size diameters and, more importantly, adsorption kinetics, geochemical reaction and produced water quality.

Acknowledgements The support for this work by the Energy Tech Co, Houston Texas and Department of Petroleum Resources for supplying research data is greatly acknowledged. The support of systems engineering staff and technical and research assistant at the department of chemical engineering is acknowledged for their assistance in COMSOL multiphysics software programming of data and models.

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Appendix A: field validation simulation on nigerian onshore field

The field data for the study was supplied by the operator of the onshore field (Field X) in Nigeria Licensed by the Regulator is presented below (Tables 4, 5).



Table 4 Reservoir/well data of sample of study area

Sample name	Units	FieldX-10ST	Field X-12HST	Field X-13HST	Field X-18ST	Field X-26	Field X produced water
Data sampled							20/3/08
Analysis		VRMT	VRMT		VRMT	VRMT	VRMT
Field		X	X		X	X	Produced Water
Well		10	12	13	18	26	
Reservoir		R-03/X-02	R-03/X-05	R-03/X-06	R-17/X-06	R-03/X-06	
Interval (TVD)	(ft)	8709-10164	7702-9385	7310-8510	7282-7340	5891-5890	
Datum	(ft)	6026	5898	5897	7296	5880	
Initial reservoir pressure	Psia	2457	2571	2546	2913	2534	n/a
Initial reservoir temperature	°F	164	163	162	188.75	162	n/a
Flow line pressure	Psia	105	120	125	450	125	n/a
Flow line temperature	°F	124	122	119	128	120	n/a
Average gas production	MScf/d	1309	1433	510	778	294	n/a
Average oil production	bbl/day	1740	2600	1623	1501	940	n/a
Average water production	bbl/day	2.0	2.7	405	0.5	1.0	n/a

Table 5 Produced water parameters quality

Parameters	Symbol	FieldX-10ST	Field X-12HST	Field X-13HST	Field X-18ST	Field X-26	Field X produced water
рН							
Density	g/cc	8.37	8.64	8.40	8.41	8.43	7.95
Total dissolved solid	mg/l	15,050.00	9640.00	12,720.00	14,720.00	12,680.00	16,000.00
Chloride	mg/l	9996.9	6797.89	9447.07	9597.02	8797.27	10946.00
Sulphate	mg/l	124.55	80.68	104.82	130.80	94.22	39.12
Total alkalinity	mg/l	900.00	560.00	1633.33	833.33	833.33	1520
Sodium	mg/l	7251.72	4996.41	6163.06	7410.69	6188.79	2773.02
Potassium	mg/l	198.75	148.56	213.51	221.80	179.96	104.10
Calcuim	mg/l	43.50	46.40	64.60	51.60	106.00	303.25
Magnesium	mg/l	27.50	25.60	37.80	36.00	26.00	51.12
Strontium	mg/l	0.20	0.24	0.33	0.36	26.00	51.12
Barium	mg/l	1.55	1.76	2.01	2.12	1.48	1.32
Iron	mg/l	0.84	0.13	0.03	0.31	0.21	0.86
Carbonate	mg/l	240	96	320	80	160	0.00
Bicarbonate	mg/l	610	488	1342	854	692.33	1854
Phosphate	mg/l	4.55	3.84	8.68	2.96	1.80	
Hydroxide	mg/l	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Copper	mg/l	0.07	0.00	0.12	0.84	0.36	
Nickel	mg/l	0.14	0.10	0.17	0.12	0.04	
Lead	mg/l	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Zinc	mg/l	0.28	0.11	0.03	0.03	0.07	2.37
Quality control							
Total dissolved solids-calculated	mg/l	17,966	12,362	16,730	17,891	15,751	13,418.00
SP Gravity-calculated	g/cc	1.012	1.009	1.012	1.012	1.011	1.007



Table 6 Produced water injectivity quality

Well(s)	X10ST					Inhibitor pH a	pH after precipitation
Tempt.	Press.	Calcite					
°F	Psia	pН	SI	ΔSI	mg/L	mg/L	
124	105	8.50	1.48	0.63	104	0.35	8.45
128	366	8.08	1.12	0.27	98	0.05	8.03
133	628	7.93	0.99	0.14	95	0.00	7.88
137	889	7.85	0.92	0.07	93	0.00	7.81
142	1,150	7.80	0.88	0.03	91	0.00	7.76
146	1412	7.77	0.86	0.01	90	0.00	7.73
151	1673	7.75	0.85	0.00	90	0.00	7.71
155	1934	7.74	0.85	0.00	90	0.00	7.70
160	2196	7.74	0.85	0.00	90	0.00	7.69
164	2457	7.73	0.85	0.00	90	0.00	7.69

Produced water analysis data

The water analysis data conducted at a Laboratory in Lagos is presented in the Table 6. The chemical indicators for QA/QC, such as Na/K, Ca/Mg, Ca/Na and TDS, are within ranges typical of formation waters. Several software programs have been used to calculate the scaling potential. The program ScaleSoftpitzer by Mason Thompson's Brine Consortia Group at Rice University reported used for all scaling tendency calculations. The program was designed for the prediction, treatment and control of common scale deposits in Oil and Gas wells. Scale SoftPitzer quantitatively calculates the scaling potential up the wellbores. It used the formation water compositions, CO₂ and H₂S content of the gas compositions or pH and the production rate data if available. The scaling potential is expressed in terms of saturation indices (SI) for scale minerals and the amount of scale deposits per volume of water in mg/l.

Saturation Index (SI) is defined as log of saturation ratio as shown below

$$SI = Log((CaCO3)/Ksp)$$
(55)

 $K_{\rm sp}$ is the solubility product of calcium carbonate. Please note:

If $SI \le 0$ No Scale formation should be expected.

If $SI \ge 0$ There is potential for Scale Formation

Field X-10ST

Self scaling Assessment-Calcite

Without commingling with field X produced water, Well X-10RST shows the tendency to form calcite scale at production conditions.

The field for study was based on data for an onshore field in Nigeria overseen by the Petroleum Regulator and National Oil Company. Without Commingling with Field X produced water, Well X-10RST shows the tendency to form calcite scale at production conditions.

Model field study computer simulation analysis

The classical model developed for PWRI was solved by finite-element method in COMSOL multiphysics software environment using the field data presented above for an onshore field in Nigeria. The produced water from the Field X is planned for water flood for enhanced hydrocarbon recovery. Five produced water samples were collected for this study. The samples were from FieldX10st, Field X12st, FieldX13st, FieldX14st and Field X14t. Their corresponding reservoirs are R-03/X-02, R-03/X-05, R-03/X06, R17/X-06 and R-03/X-06, respectively. Water compatibility can be assessed by conducting the scaling tendencies predictions with respect to calcium carbonate (calcite) and barium Sulphate (Barite) of Field X produced water with formation water.

Appendix B: The field data used for simulation is presented below

Data

The chemical indicators for QA/QC such as Na/K, Ca/Mg, Ca/Na and TDS are within ranges typical of formation waters.

- 1) WELL 10 2) RESERVOIR B-03/X-02 3) INTER-VAL (TVD) 8709-10164FT C
- 4) DATUM 6026 FT C 5) INITIAL RESERVOIR PRESSURE: 2457PSIA
- 6) INITIAL RESERVOIR TEMPERATURE: 164 °C FLOWLINE PRESSURE 105PSIA

OPEN (6, FILE = 'X.RES') 1) Initial Concentration of Deposits CD (1, 1, 1) = 0.0, 2) Time = 10 days 3)



Adsorption Constant Term KAD = $3.0 \text{ mol/dm}^3 \text{ s } 3$) Total Length of Reservoir RN = 500 m 4) Mole Constant RG = 8.3149 kJ/kmol K**4**) Pressure Gradient DP = 0.000005 psia 5) Length of Damage Zone of RC = 200 m**6**) Density of late = 25 ppm 7) Length of Well Bore RW = 0.2 m 8) Water Injection Rate Q = 5000 bbls/day 9) Initial Concentration of Suspended Particulate $CO = 25 \ 10$) Permeability Damage Constant BDAMG = 50 11) Absolute Permeability KABS = 501 m Darcy 12) Relative Permeability of Water in Formation KROW = $0.5 \, 13$) Relative Permeability if Water-Oil KWOR = 0.5 14) DATUM Height TVD of formation = 6026 ft 15) Total Vertical Depth TVD1 = 8709 ft 16) Total Vertical Depth TVD2 = 10164 ft **17**) The Heat of Activation DHEA = 2.3 J/K 18) Filtration Coefficient LAND = 20/ m 19) VISC = 0.7 cp 20) Temperature of Formation TEMPF = $164 \, ^{\circ}\text{F}$ **21**) Temperature of Reservoir TEMPR = 124 °F 22) Flow Rate of Gas in Formation QGAS = 1309 MSfc/days 23) Flow Rate of Water in Formation QWATER = 2.0 bbls/days 24) Flow Rate of Oil in Formation QOIL = 1740 bbls/days 25) Heat of Reaction Constant L1 = 0.06345 kJ/Kmol K 26) Tem-°F **27**) Conversion to FTEMP = (5.0)9.0)*(TEMPF-32) **28**) RTEMP = (5.0/9.0)*(TEMPR-32) **29**) DTEMP = RTEMP-FTEMP **30**) TEMPD = DTEMP/ LOG (RTEMP/FTEMP) 31) KG = L1*EXP (-DHEA/ RG*TEMPD) 32) Grant Sites concentration CT = 1.0 33) Porosity of Reservoir, $P_{\rm or} = 0.22$ (33) Porosity of Cake, $P_{\rm orc} = 0.12$

Produced water re-injection data used in COMSOL multiphysics software Simulation

Variable	Values
$c_{\rm d}$	0
k	2e-3
$r_{ m w}$	0.2
$K_{ m or}$	0.5
$K_{\rm abs}$	50e-15
K_{Q}	50
$r_{ m e}$	10
$R_{ m g}$	8.314
C_{T}	1
rho	25
DH	2.3
T	346.483
C_0	25
Q	1360
v_{is}	0.0007
A_{o}	2e20
k_1	$A_{\rm o}*\exp(-{\rm DH}/(R_{\rm g}*T))$

Appendix continued

Variable	Values
l_a	20
$E_{\rm n}$	200
$E_{ m np}$	300
$r_{\rm c}$	200
DP	$vis*log(r_c/r_w)/(2*pi*K_{or}*K_Q)$
d	443.484
$v_{\rm r}$	$(DP*K_{abs}*K_{or}*K_{Q})/(v_{is}*log(r_{c}/r_{w})*r_{e}*d)$
$P_{\rm o}$	0.22
tan	tan(Po)
n	3/Po*(1/tan-1/Po)
A	pi*d^2/4
и	Q/A
D	0.2
f_{g}	0.023
$r_{\rm d}$	d/2
v	$Q/(2*pi*r_d*200)$
В	50
alpha	0.1
$R_{\rm c}$	200
$T_{ m r}$	$(2*alpha*r_w)/(la*C0*Rc^2)$
$X_{ m w}$	$(r_{\rm w}/R_{\rm c})^2$
RAmi	$n*((1-Po)/Po)*rho*q_t$
r_2	$(1-Po)/Po*(3*f_g/R_g)$
r_3	C-(CT*k1*C)/(1 + k1*C)
RAma	r2*r3
$R_{\rm d}$	RAmi + RAma
$K_{\rm c}$	1/(1 + B*C)
K_{c1}	$1/K_{\rm c}$
$r_{\rm c}r_{\rm w}$	$1/(\log(r_{\rm e}/r_{\rm w}))$
J	$1 + Kc1*r_{c}r_{w}$
DP_3	$(Q*vis)/(2*pi*K_{or})*(log(r_e/r_w) + K_{c1})$
IJ	1/J
vr_1	$(DP3*K_{abs}*K_{or}*K_{Q})/(vis*log(r_{e}/r_{w})*r_{e}*d)$
$Q_{\rm n}$	la*vr1*C
R	$-(Q_{\rm n}+R_{\rm d})$

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