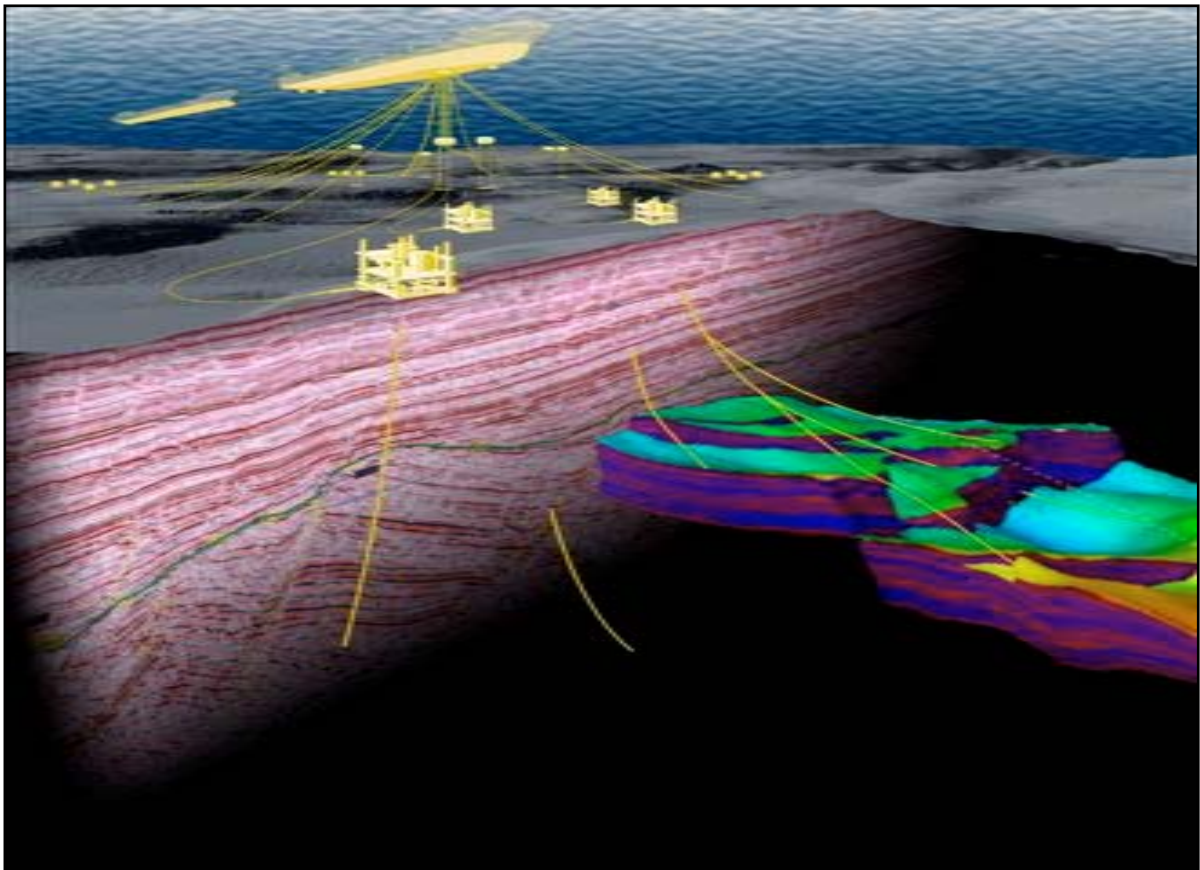


NTNU – Norwegian University of Science and Technology
Department of Petroleum Engineering and Applied Geophysics

**CO₂ as Injection Gas for Enhanced Oil Recovery
and
Estimation of the Potential on the Norwegian Continental Shelf**

by

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Trondheim / Stavanger, May 2003

Part I of II

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank my supervisor Professor Ole Torsæter at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology for excellent guiding and help in my work with this thesis. I would also like to thank my employer, the Norwegian Petroleum Directorate, for giving me the opportunity and time to complete the thesis. My thanks also go to my colleagues Mr. Gunnar Einang, Mr. Søren Davidsen and Mr. Jan Bygdevoll for valuable discussions while working with this thesis. Finally, I would like to thank Dr. Eric Lindeberg and senior researcher Idar Akervoll at the Sintef Research for valuable information on CO₂ related issues.

SUMMARY

The main objective of this thesis is to investigate the possibility of using CO₂ as injection gas for enhanced oil recovery and estimate the potential of additional oil recovery from mature oil fields on the Norwegian Continental Shelf (NCS). Because of the lack of CO₂ data from offshore oil fields, a literature study on CO₂ flood experience worldwide was undertaken. In addition, the physical properties of CO₂ and CO₂ as a solvent have been studied.

The literature study makes it possible to conclude that CO₂ has been an excellent solvent for enhanced oil recovery from onshore oil fields, especially in the USA and Canada. Almost 30 years of experience and more than 80 CO₂ projects show that the additional recovery is in the region of 7 to 15 % of the oil initially in place.

The estimation is based on specific field data for all fields and reservoirs included in the thesis. CO₂ data are limited to studies and reservoir simulations from Forties, Ekofisk, Brage and Gullfaks. Since Forties is a UK oil field, most of the data used are from the three Norwegian oil fields.

This thesis includes all oilfields currently in production. Fields under development, fields with approved plan for development and operation (PDO), or discoveries under evaluation are not included. However, they may have potential for use of CO₂ in the future. The candidates are screened according to their capability of being CO₂ flooded, based on current industry experience and miscibility calculations. Then a model based on the most critical parameters is developed. Finally, risk analysis and Monte Carlo simulations are run to estimate the total potential. Applying the model developed and compensating for uncertainties, the additional recovery is estimated between 240 and 320 million Sm³ of oil. This potential constitutes large increases in oil production from the Norwegian Continental Shelf if CO₂ can be made available at competitive prices. For some of the time critical fields, immediate action is called upon, but for the majority of the fields dealt with in this thesis, CO₂ injection can be postponed 5 years or more.

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1. INTRODUCTION

With production from many mature oil fields on the Norwegian Continental Shelf declining and approaching tail production, the field owners have to consider enhanced oil recovery as a way of recovering more oil from the fields. Enhanced oil recovery through the injection of CO₂ as a tertiary recovery mechanism, preferably after water flooding, is one mechanism with which to recover more oil, extend the field life and increase the profitability of the fields.

Experience gained from CO₂ flooding worldwide indicates that enhanced oil recovery by using CO₂ as injection gas may result in additional oil ranging from 7 to 15 % of the oil initially in place. As regards oil fields on the Norwegian Continental Shelf, it is not granted that this additional recovery can be obtained, but field studies indicate that there is potential. With initially oil in place close to 8000 million Sm³ in the oil fields currently in production, also small percentages represent large volume of extra oil. Few other tertiary recovery mechanisms seem to be able to compete with this, and albeit years of research have been invested in them, other methods are not considered to be economically viable. Miscible gas flooding by using hydrocarbon gas might be an alternative, but because of the high market price for gas, it is more profitable to sell the gas

An estimation of this potential is in great demand, both from the industry and the authorities. However, too little CO₂ data has been available from the Norwegian Continental Shelf to predict the overall potential of CO₂ flooding. The Norwegian Petroleum Directorate, in cooperation with the operators, has initiated reservoir studies to be performed by the operators of three representative fields in production, the Ekofisk, Gullfaks and Brage fields. Data from these studies will be made available for this thesis, in addition to available information from other studies, field experience and pilot projects worldwide. There are also several papers dealing with this subject.

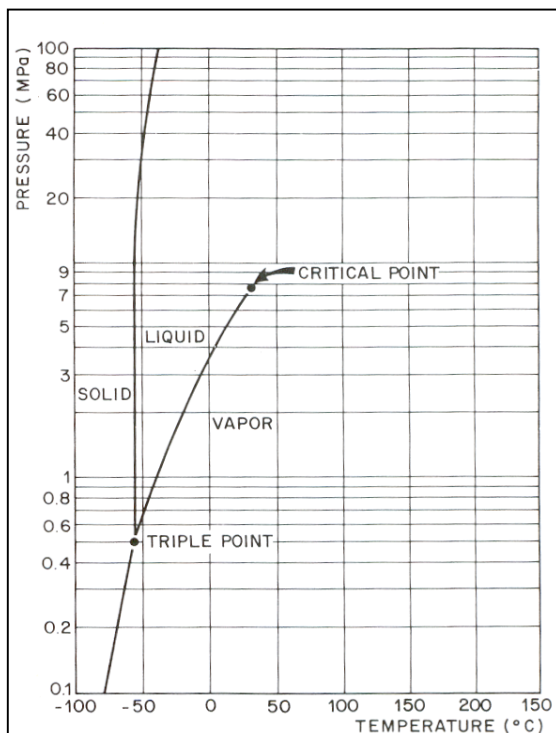
This thesis generally uses available information, does calculations on critical field data and develops a method of estimating the enhanced oil recovery potential of CO₂ floods. Reservoir studies and simulations are not required for all fields, but nevertheless a significant amount of data will be used to establish a method of estimating the overall potential. In addition, an overview of industry experience worldwide and how CO₂ act as a solvent will be given and used as background material for the estimation.

CO₂ is a greenhouse gas, and Norway has entered into international agreements to reduce the emission of greenhouse gasses. This thesis will not look into the environmental impacts of reducing CO₂ emissions, but may contribute some useful material in that respect. By using CO₂ as injection gas, significant amounts of CO₂ can be stored in the reservoirs upon flooding and after the oil fields have been abandoned.

2. THE PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF CO₂

Pure CO₂ is a colourless, odourless, inert, and non-combustible gas. The molecular weight at standard conditions is 44.010 g/mol, which is one and a half times higher than air. CO₂ is solid at low temperatures and pressures, but most dependent on temperature as shown in figure 2.1. But by increasing the pressure and temperature, the liquid phase appears for the first time and coexists with the solid and vapour phases at the triple point. The liquid and the vapour phase of CO₂ coexist from the triple point and up to the critical point on the curve.

Below the critical temperature CO₂ can be either liquid or gas over a wide range of pressures. Above the critical temperature CO₂ will exist as a gas regardless of the pressure. However, at increasingly higher supercritical pressures the vapour becomes and behaves more like a liquid.



The properties under standard condition at 1.013 bar and 0 °C are:

- Mol. weight: 44.010 g/mol
- Sp. gravity to air: 1.529
- Density: 1.95 kg/m³

Critical properties:

- T_c: 31,05 °C
- P_c: 73.9 bar
- V_c: 94 cm³/mol

Triple point:

- T_{tr}: - 56,6 °C
- P_{tr}: 5.10 bar

Figure 2.1 - CO₂ phase diagram [1]

Figure 2.1 shows the phase diagram for CO₂. The phase behaviour, transition and boundaries will be described in more detail in chapter 2.1 where the equations involved will be used to calculate and construct the CO₂ phase diagram.

The next figures will give an expression of the behaviour of CO₂ with respect to:

- Density
- Compressibility
- Viscosity
- Solubility

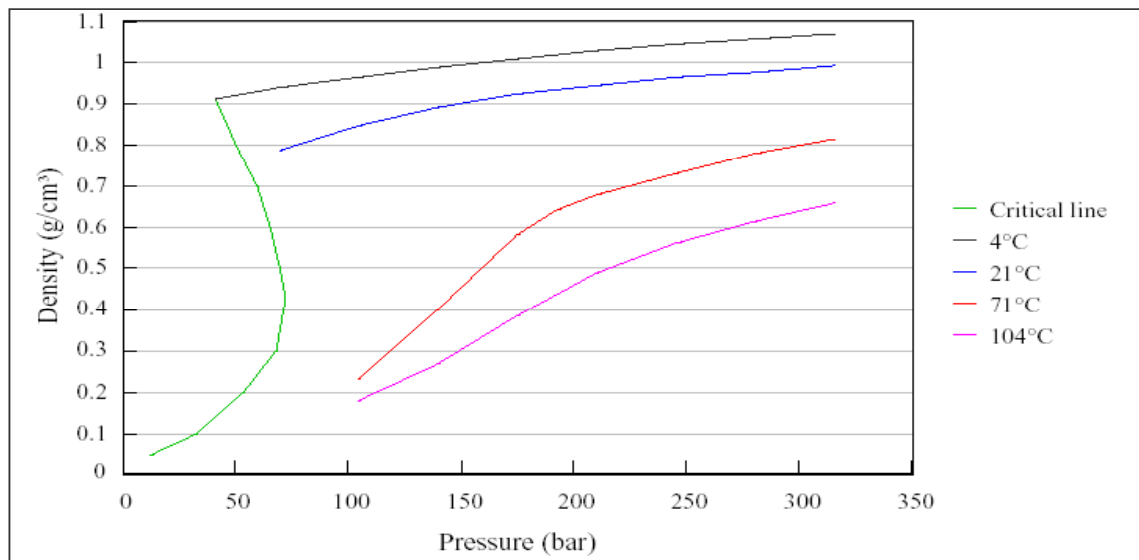


Figure 2.2 - CO₂ density as a function of pressure and temperature [2 and 3]

Figure 2.2 shows that the fluid density increases with pressures at temperatures above critical conditions, but abrupt discontinuities appear at temperatures below the critical region.

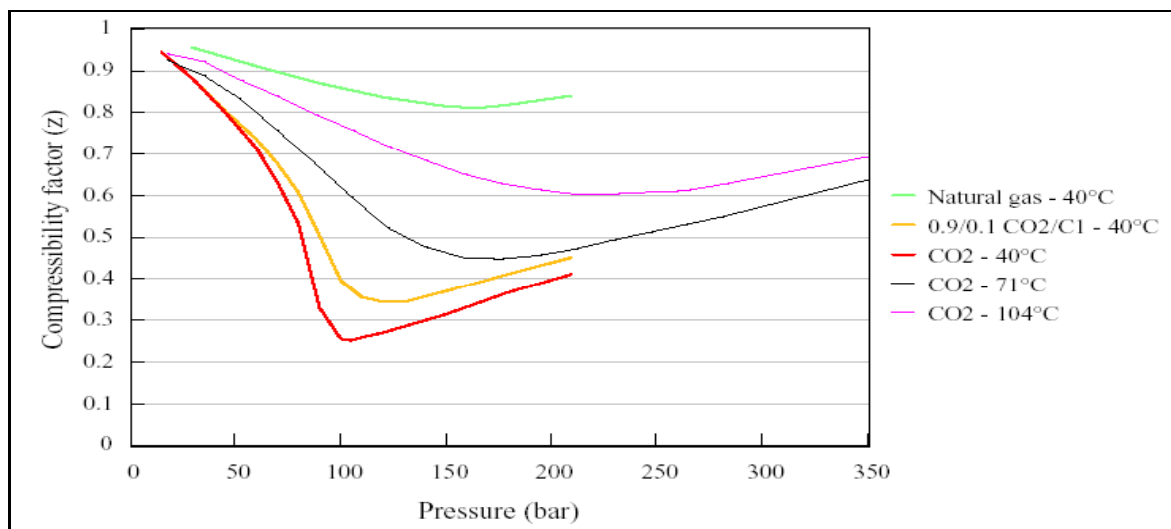


Figure 2.3 - Compressibility as a function of pressure and temperature [2, 4 and 5].

Figure 2.3 shows the compressibility of CO₂, natural gas and CO₂-methane mixture as a function of pressure at some different temperatures. As shown in the figure, the compressibility of CO₂ is considerably different than for the natural gas and CO₂-methane mixture. At 100 bar and 40 °C the compressibility varies respectively from 0,25 to 0,4 and 0,85 for the natural gas.

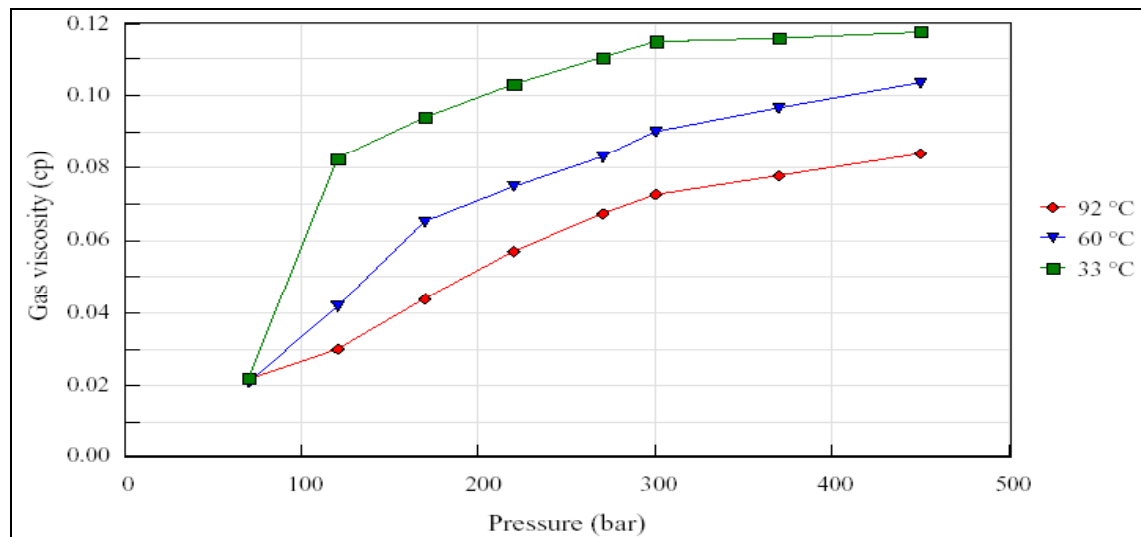


Figure 2.4 - CO₂ viscosity as a function of pressure and temperature [2].

Figure 2.4 shows that the CO₂ viscosity strongly depends on pressure and temperature, and the viscosity increases considerably when pressure increases for a given reservoir temperature. The viscosity for natural gas and formation water are in the range of 0,02 to 0,03 and 0,3 to 1,0 cp, respectively. As shown in the figure, the viscosity of CO₂ is somewhere in between the viscosity of natural gas and formation water for all relevant temperatures and pressures. By means of viscosity, the displacement of water with CO₂ is more effective than displacement with natural gas. Together with the CO₂ density shown in figure 2.2, the CO₂ will properly not override the water with the same degree as a HC gas.

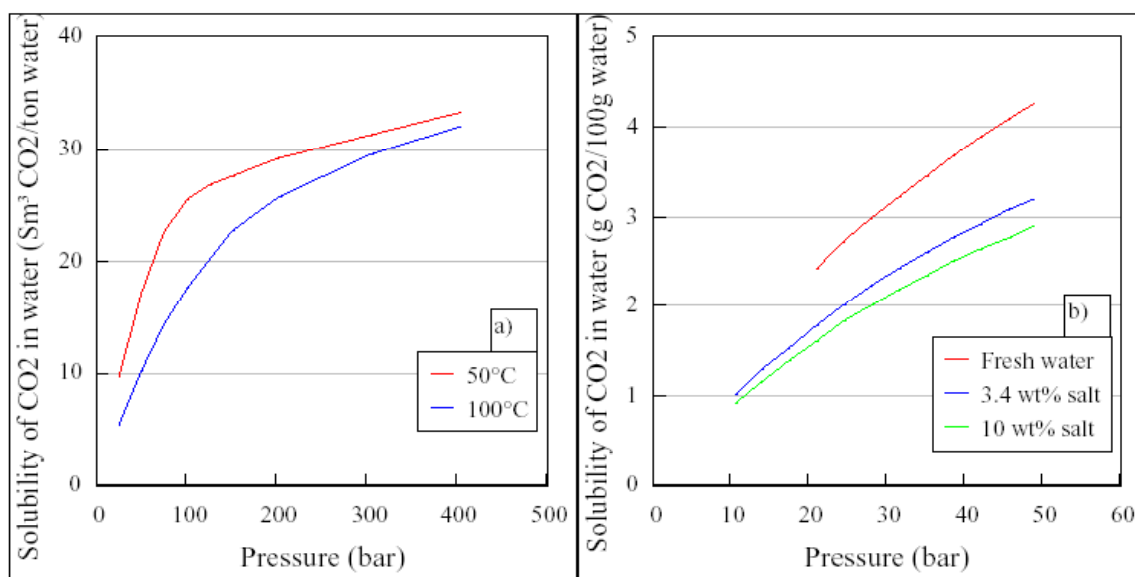


Figure 2.5 - Solubility of CO₂ in water as function of (a) pressure and temperature, and (b) pressure and salinity [2, 6 and 7].

The solubility of CO₂ in water as a function of pressure, temperature and salinities is shown in figure 2.5. CO₂ has an increasing solubility in water with increasing pressure. The opposite effect is seen with increased temperature and salinity.

2.1 Phase transitions and phase diagram for CO₂

The properties of CO₂, and the phase behaviour are important to understand when a CO₂ flood is considered. However, the most important behaviour is how CO₂ interfere with reservoir fluids and reservoir rock when it flows through the reservoir under different temperature and pressure conditions.

The simplest applications of thermodynamics are the phase transitions that a pure substance can undergo. The process involves a single substance that undergoes a physical change. A phase of a substance is a form of matter that is uniform throughout in chemical composition and physical state. A phase transition, the spontaneous conversion of one phase to another, occurs at a characteristic temperature for a given pressure. A phase diagram of a substance is a map of the ranges of pressure and temperature at which each phase of a substance is the most stable. The boundaries between regions, or the phase boundaries, show the values of P and T at which two phases coexist in equilibrium.

In the following, a method to construct the CO₂ phase diagram will be explained by separately considering the three types of equilibrium based on the criteria for phase equilibrium, the Gibbs free energy and the Clausius - Clapeyron equation.

2.1.1 Phase equilibrium

For two phases to be in equilibrium, the chemical potential of the substance in both phases must be equivalent.

$$\begin{aligned}\mu\alpha &= \mu\beta \\ \mu\alpha &= \mu\gamma \\ \mu\beta &= \mu\gamma\end{aligned}\quad (2.1)$$

By assuming an infinitesimal change in temperature or pressure to two phases in equilibrium,

$$\begin{aligned}\mu(\alpha) + d\mu(\alpha) &= \mu(\beta) + d\mu(\beta) \\ \mu(\alpha) + d\mu(\alpha) &= \mu(\gamma) + d\mu(\gamma) \\ \mu(\beta) + d\mu(\beta) &= \mu(\beta\gamma) + d\mu(\gamma)\end{aligned}\quad (2.2)$$

and apply the definition of the chemical potential,

$$\begin{aligned}d\mu(\alpha) &= -S(\alpha)dT + V(\alpha)dP \\ d\mu(\beta) &= -S(\beta)dT + V(\beta)dP \\ d\mu(\gamma) &= -S(\gamma)dT + V(\gamma)dP\end{aligned}\quad (2.3)$$

and defining the transition,

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &\Leftrightarrow \beta \\ \alpha &\Leftrightarrow \gamma \\ \beta &\Leftrightarrow \gamma\end{aligned}\quad (2.4)$$

the slope of any phase boundary can be obtained from the Clapeyron equation as shown schematically in figure 2.6.

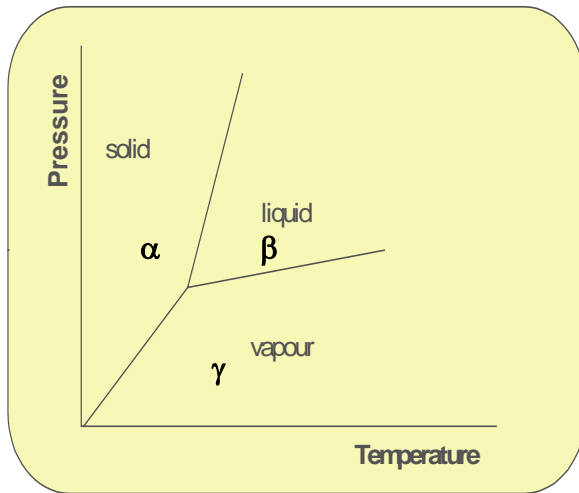


Figure 2.6 - Schematic phase diagram and phase transitions

2.1.2 The Clausius - Clapeyron equation

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_{\Delta G} = \frac{\Delta S}{\Delta V} \quad (2.5)$$

Since the phases are in equilibrium with each other at any point on the line, the Gibbs free energy for the transition is zero everywhere on the phase line.

$$\Delta G = 0 \quad (2.6)$$

For a process at constant temperature we will have,

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \quad (2.7)$$

which combined with equation 2.6 gives,

$$\Delta S = \frac{\Delta H}{T} \quad (2.8)$$

Equation 2.5 can now be written as,

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_{\Delta G} = \frac{\Delta H}{T\Delta V} \quad (2.9)$$

Equation 2.5 or 2.9 is useful if we want to integrate dP to find P as a function of T. Both equations are exact, but to integrate them, we can make the approximation that either ΔS or ΔH is reasonably constant over the temperature range. Since the ΔH varies more slowly with temperature than ΔS , it is better to integrate equation 2.9.

2.1.3 Solid - Liquid Equilibrium

A solid is in equilibrium with its liquid when the rate of at which molecules leave the solid is the same as the rate at which they return. The process of melting of a solid is known as fusion. Note that the melting point is not a very strong function of temperature. For most compounds,

the melting temperature rises as the pressure increases. (For water the opposite is true). Hence, here we assume that both ΔH and ΔV are constant. That is because we consider the transition solid-to-solid or liquid to solid to be approximately constant. Equation 2.9 prepared for integration gives,

$$\int_{P_1}^{P_2} \partial P = \frac{\Delta H}{\Delta V} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \frac{1}{T} \partial T \quad (2.10)$$

and equation 2.10 integrated gives,

$$P_2 = P_1 + \left(\frac{\Delta H_{fus}}{\Delta V_{fus}} \right) \ln \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) \quad (2.11)$$

P_2 is the equilibrium pressure of the substance at temperature T_2 , and P_1 is the equilibrium pressure at temperature T_1 . ΔH_{fus} and ΔV_{fus} are the changes in enthalpy and volume of the substance that accompany melting. Starting with a known point along the curve (for example the triple point) we can calculate the rest of the curve referenced to this point.

2.1.4 Solid – Vapour Equilibrium

A solid is in equilibrium with its vapour when the rate of at which molecules leave the solid is the same as the rate at which they return. The process of vaporization of a solid is known as sublimation. For a given temperature, the pressure at which the solid is in equilibrium with its vapour is called the vapour pressure. Vapour pressure increases as temperature rises.

Since ΔV is not close to be constant for the solid to vapour or liquid to vapour case, we have to do two more approximations. One;

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta V &= V_{gas} - V_{liquid} \approx V_{gas} \\ \Delta V &= V_{gas} - V_{solid} \approx V_{gas} \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

and two; using the ideal gas equation,

$$V_{gas} \approx nRT / P \quad (2.13)$$

Equation 2.9 together with 2.12 and 2.13 can now be written as,

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right)_{\Delta G} = \frac{\Delta H}{T \frac{nRT}{P}} = \frac{\Delta \bar{H}}{R} \frac{P}{T^2} \quad (2.14)$$

and prepared for integration,

$$\int_{P_1}^{P_2} \frac{1}{P} \partial P = \frac{\Delta \bar{H}}{R} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \frac{1}{T^2} \partial T \quad (2.15)$$

Integration of equation 2.15 gives,

$$P_2 = P_1 \exp\left(-\left(\frac{\Delta H_{sub}}{R}\right)\left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1}\right)\right) \quad (2.16)$$

where P_2 is the vapour pressure of the substance at temperature T_2 , and P_1 is the vapour pressure at temperature T_1 . ΔH_{sub} is a constant and known as the enthalpy of sublimation and correspond to the heat that must be absorbed by one mole of the substance to sublime it. We can now describe the solid-vapour curve if we know the ΔH_{sub} .

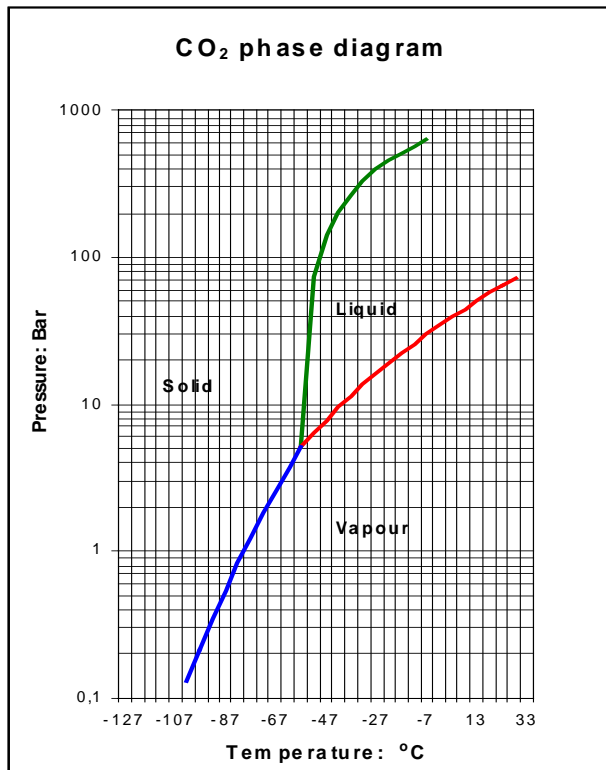
2.1.5 Liquid - Vapour Equilibrium

$$P_2 = P_1 \exp\left(-\left(\frac{\Delta H_{vap}}{R}\right)\left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1}\right)\right) \quad (2.17)$$

where P_2 is the vapour pressure of the substance at temperature T_2 , and P_1 is the vapour pressure at temperature T_1 . ΔH_{vap} is a constant and known as the enthalpy of vaporizing. We can now describe the liquid-vapour curve if we know the ΔH_{vap} .

Equation 2.11, 2.16 and 2.17 can now be used to construct the entire phase diagram. If we know two points on the curve we can solve for ΔH . If we know one point on the curve and ΔH , we can solve any other point or even have the entire curve.

2.1.6 Phase diagram calculated from the derived equations



The calculation and construction of the phase diagram are based on equation 2.11, 2.16 and 2.17, and the following numbers:

P_{tr}	= 5.10 bar
T_{tr}	= -56.6 °C (304.2 °K)
Gas constant	= 8.314 J/mol °K
ΔH_{fus}	= 8330 J/mol °K
ΔH_{sub}	= 25230 J/mol °K
ΔH_{vap}	= 16900 J/mol °K
ΔV	= 0.027 litre /mol

Figure 2.7 - Calculated phase diagram for pure CO₂

2.2 CO₂ - rock and fluid interactions

The effect of the interaction between CO₂, rocks and reservoir fluids varies with type of rock and fluids as well as pressure and temperature. In addition, CO₂ shows more complex phase behaviour with reservoir oil than most of the other solvents. In the following, some important issues are briefly described.

2.2.1 PVT conditions

The PVT conditions are more complex in a CO₂ flood than for instance in a HC flood, and the phase behaviour with reservoir oil is both difficult to predict and measure during the entire flood period. The relatively high solubility in water and the associated reduction in pH will affect the reservoir chemistry depending on the PVT conditions, reservoir fluid and rock composition. Grigg and Siagian [8] have investigated those phenomena for a four-phase flow in low temperature CO₂ floods. The main conclusion from this work is:

- Up to five phases, aqueous, liquid HC, liquid CO₂, gaseous CO₂ and solid asphaltene precipitate, can coexist in a CO₂ flood.
- The actual number of phases depends on pressure, temperature and composition.
- Gas who condensing into a second liquid phase can be significant at temperatures just above the critical CO₂ pressure, and near the saturation pressure for CO₂ at lower temperatures. It is assumed that this would only occur behind the temperature front for a typical offshore oil field.
- CO₂ displacement efficiency may increase as the pressure is decreased until the minimum miscibility pressure is reached.
- It is necessary to consider all this complex behaviour when predicting flood performance. Therefore, it is important to do detailed compositional simulations as a part of the planning of the CO₂ flood.

2.2.2 CO₂ hydrates

When water is present, CO₂ hydrate can form at appropriate temperatures and pressures. CO₂ hydrates can occur at temperatures as high as 10 °C if the pressure is greater than 45 bar. Hydrate formation can be a problem at chokes and valves where pressure is reduced suddenly and CO₂ cools because of expansion, Stalkup [7]. It is experienced that hydrate has occurred in projects where original reservoir temperature are as high as 27°C. This has happened in the North Cross Devonian Unit [9], where it usually occurs in wells with high gas-oil ratio and high CO₂ cuts.

The possibility of forming CO₂ hydrates must be taken into account when CO₂ floods are considered in NCS reservoirs, where CO₂ hydrates will form at temperature of approximately 10 °C over the pressure range expected upstream of the separators [7].

2.2.3 Wettability

Wetting characteristic of the reservoir rock appear to be the most controlling factor of the operating strategy for an EOR process, but according to McDougal, Dixit and Sorbie [10], the precise taxonomy of wettability is still lacking. There are also indications that core floods and capillary tube visual cell tests can give inconsistent changes in wettability due to CO₂ miscible flooding. CO₂ reduces the brine pH, and there is some experimental evidence that this reduces the water-wetness in capillary cells. Experience from both laboratory tests and studies of field data supports that wetting characteristic is critical to CO₂ floods.

Rogers and Grigg [11] concludes that water-wet conditions suggest continuous gas injection, while oil-wet conditions suggest water alternating with gas (WAG) process with an optimum of equal or 1:1 velocity ratio. Jackson, Andrews and Claridge [12] stated also that mixed-wet states indicate maximum recovery is a stronger function of slug size in secondary CO₂ recovery than in a tertiary flood. In addition, water-wet laboratory models indicate gravity forces dominate while in oil-wet tertiary floods where viscous fingering is a controlling factor.

2.2.4 Scale

Scaling problem is often seen in connection with water injection or where produced water is increasing. It is not a problem for the fluid flow in the reservoir, but it puts restriction on flow through the production wells and the injection wells. When CO₂ is injected it tends to exacerbate any CaCO₃ scaling problem because the bicarbonate concentration in the produced water increases. Since the scaling, and the problems related to scaling will not have any impact on the work on estimating the EOR potential from CO₂ floods, a closer look into the problem will not be done here. But Yuan, Mosley and Hyer [13] have looked into the problem in a study on mineral scaling control. Shuler, Freitas and Bowker [14] has also discussed the problem when selecting scale inhibitors for a CO₂ flood.

2.3 Injectivity abnormalities

Experience from CO₂ floods in US shows examples of both increasing and decreasing injectivity when implementing CO₂ injection or WAG. Based on the fluid flow properties of CO₂, one would intuitively expect that gas injectivity would be greater than the waterflood brine injectivity. However, in practice this behaviour is not always observed. In addition, water injectivity may be higher or lower than the waterflood brine injectivity. What is more perplexing is that some reservoirs may lose injectivity and others may increase injectivity after the first slug of CO₂ is injected. In addition, this phenomenon may occur on a local scale. Injection wells in the same field and reservoir may have significantly different behaviour.

2.3.1 Injectivity increases

Increased injectivity is seen in the SACROC Unit during the WAG process. This is further discussed by Langston, Hoadley and Young [15]. Yuan, Mosley and Hyer [13] reported that the water injectivity increased after injection of liquefied CO₂ in the Sharon Rigde Canyon Unit. It is a limestone reservoir, and the effect may be a result of increased permeability caused by dissolution of calcium from the limestone rock by carbonic acid. Jasek, Frank, Mathis and Smith [16] have reported that the same effect is seen from the Goldsmith San Andreas Unit CO₂ pilot. A number of CO₂ floods have also experienced higher gas injection relative to pre water flood injections. One example here is the North Ward Estes CO₂ flood, studied by Ring and Smith [17] and Prieditius, Wolle and Notz [18].

Roper [19] has seen that after the first CO₂ slug in a WAG process the brine injectivity tend to increase. It is assumed that this is attributed to combined effects of:

- High degree of heterogeneity
- Cross flow
- Oil viscosity reduction
- Penetration of CO₂ through high permeability zones
- Compressibility and redistribution of the reservoir pressure profile during shut-in periods prior to injection of brine
- Solubility of CO₂ in injected brine near wellbore

It's assumed that the injectivity increase will not be as great where vertical permeability is lower, pay section is thicker, or the injection well is stimulated and production well is not stimulated.

2.3.2 Injectivity reduction

Reduction of injectivity is problematic for a CO₂ flood. This could be seriously detrimental to a WAG project if it led to a shortfall in voidage replacement that reduces the reservoir pressure below the minimum miscibility pressure for the CO₂. A review of the WAG field experience is further discussed in a study done by Christensen, Stenby and Skauge [20]. They also indicate that reduced injectivity could be caused by wellbore heating that closes thermal fractures, or hydrate or asphaltene precipitation in the near wellbore region.

For some fields there is reported great loss in injectivity, Stein, Frey, Walker and Parlani [21] gives an example from the Slaughter Estate Unit, where the most mature patterns suffered a 40% loss of injectivity for CO₂, and 57% loss for water. This is a dolomite reservoir, and the injection was below the reservoir parting pressure.

2.3.3 Entrapment

Entrapment has been suggested as a cause of injectivity loss. Mechanisms found to affect trapping in miscible displacements at laboratory scale are solvent diffusion, oil swelling, water saturation and solvent contact time. In a CO₂ flooding process, the oil becomes increasingly heavy, suggesting that some oil is initially bypassed and later recovered by extraction.

Capillary entrapment is a phenomenon that could occur in a CO₂ tertiary flood since the solvent must displace water in order to mobilize and recover the oil. This entrapment occurs when the oil saturation becomes low, and the oil phase network loses its continuity. At this point, viscous and gravitational pressure gradients become insufficient to mobilize the remaining oil that is trapped against capillary barriers in the reservoir. Those phenomena are further discussed in a study done by van Lingen and Knight [22].

2.3.4 Relative permeability

Relative permeability, the permeability of one phase relative to another, determines the mobility ratio of the CO₂ flood displacement. Defined as the ratio of the displacing to the displaced mobility, the overall efficiency of miscible displacement may be lowered by the effect of an unfavorable mobility ratio. Relative permeability occurs because the rock porosity contains multiple phases including oil, water, and gas. Relative permeability affects the injectivity of CO₂ and, therefore, is an important factor in the rate at which CO₂ will be sequestered.

Relative permeability is an important input to any reservoir modelling and simulations, but it must be regarded as a lumping parameter that includes effects of wetting characteristics, heterogeneity of reservoir rock and fluid (interfacial tensions), fluid saturations and other micro and macro influences. It has been seen from laboratory studies that large differences in CO₂ and oil relative permeability's can generate large differences for predicted injectivity, Prieditis and Brugman [23]. Roper, Pope and Sepehrnoori [24], have shown in their analyses of tertiary injectivity of CO₂ that a sharp injectivity reduction at the start of the brine cycle can be associated with relative permeability reduction near the well and then gradually experience an increasing injectivity trend throughout the rest of the cycle. It is not a monitored case, but simulated, and the reason is suggested to be due to two-phase flow of gas

and brine initially near the well. While the cycle proceeds, the saturations and the relative permeabilities change.

In a literature analysis of the WAG injectivity abnormalities in the CO₂ process, Rogers, Reid and Grigg [11] have discussed the permeability effects in more detail. One observation is that CO₂ relative permeabilities in West Texas carbonates can be 0.01 times oil relative permeability end points, and therefore errors in CO₂ relative permeabilities can cause large errors in injectivity predictions. Errors in CO₂ relative permeabilities seem to affect gas production and injectivity more than it effects oil recovery.

2.3.5 Heterogeneity

Pizarro and Lake [25] have studied the effect of heterogeneity on injectivity through geo statistical analysis and autocorrelation of the reservoir permeability distribution. They found that injectivity in a heterogeneous reservoir is a function of 10 parameters:

$$I = f(k_x, k_z, \mu, P_L, L, h_1, h_2, H, W, q)$$

In this function, k_x and k_z are the permeability in x and z direction, μ is the viscosity, P_L is the pressure at well location x, L is the length of a rectangular reservoir, h_1 and h_2 represent the bottom and the top of the perforation interval, H is the reservoir thickness, W is the width of a rectangular reservoir and q is the flow rate.

WAG recovery is more sensitive to reservoir heterogeneity than oil recovery by water injection alone, and therefore this is an important issue to consider in a CO₂ flood where WAG is regarded as the optimum recovery mechanism.

Heterogeneity by means of stratification may strongly influence the water-gas displacement process. This is discussed in a study done by Surguchev, Korbri and Krakstad [26]. Vertical conformance of WAG displacement is strongly influenced by conformance between zones. In a none communicating layered system, vertical distribution of CO₂ is dominated by permeability contrasts, Gorrell [27]. The ratio of viscous to gravity forces is the prime variable for determining the efficiency of WAG injection and controls the vertical conformance and displacement efficiency of the flood. Roper, Pope and Sepehrnoori [24] indicate that cross flow or convective mixing can substantially increase injectivity even in the presence of low vertical to horizontal permeability ratios.

2.3.6 Concluding remarks on injectivity abnormalities

A literature analysis of the WAG injectivity abnormalities in the CO₂ process is done by Rogers and Grigg [11], and the conclusions on factors effecting injectivity drawn from the literature are: Hence, the bullet points below shows only the headlines.

- Lower injectivity is not necessarily a near-wellbore effect.
- Oil banks.
- Salinity and pH may change the reservoir wettability.
- Wettability.
- There is considerable disagreement as to whether dissolution, precipitation and particle invasion/migration occurs during injection of CO₂ and/or the WAG process.
- Fluid trapping or bypassing.
- Relative permeability effects.

- Directional permeability effects.
- Phase behaviour.

2.4 Advantages and disadvantages by using CO₂ as a solvent in miscible floods

CO₂ is regarded to be an excellent solvent for miscible CO₂ floods. But still there are both advantages and disadvantages to take into consideration when considering an EOR project.

2.4.1 Advantages

The greatest difference compared to other gases is that CO₂ can extract heavier components up to C₃₀. The solubility of CO₂ in hydrocarbon oil causes the oil to swell. CO₂ expands oil to a greater extent than methane does. The swelling depends on the amount of methane in the oil. Because the CO₂ does not displace all of the methane when it contacts a reservoir fluid, the more methane there is in the oil, the less is the swelling of oil. CO₂ has the following characteristics in a flood process:

- It promotes swelling
- It reduces oil viscosity
- It increases oil density
- It is soluble in water
- It can vaporize and extract portions of the oil
- It achieves miscibility at pressures of only 100 to 300 bar
- It reduces water density
- It reduces the difference between oil and water density, and then reduce the change for gravity segregation
- It reduces the surface tension of oil and water, and result in a more effective displacement

2.4.2 Disadvantages

One of the main problems in achieving profitable CO₂ flooding has been the high mobility of the CO₂. The relative low density and viscosity of CO₂ compared to reservoir oil are responsible for gravity tonguing and viscous fingering. The effect of CO₂ is more severe than those problem are in a water flood. In order to avoid those negative effects, several attempts have been don to improve the sweep efficiency. Those can be:

- Installation of well packers and perforating techniques
- Shutting in production wells to regulate flow
- Alternating CO₂ and water injection (WAG)
- Addition of foaming solutions together with CO₂

The volumetric sweep efficiency can be significantly improved by implement the WAG process. The gas mobility in the reservoir will be reduced, and becomes close to the mobility of the water. However, the complete evaluation of the process must take into account the possible effect of hysteresis on relative permeability's in drainage and imbibitions, and it is important to find an optimal water/CO₂ ratio. Another option to reduce the mobility of CO₂ is to implement foaming solution combined with CO₂ injection. This can either be done to improve the sweeping conditions or blocking the CO₂ in more permeable layers. Foam is further discussed by Chang, Owusu, French and Kovarik [28].

3. ENHANCED OIL RECOVERY

Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR) is a term applied to methods used for recovering oil from a petroleum reservoir beyond that recoverable by primary and secondary methods.

The main objective of all methods of EOR is to increase the volumetric (macroscopic) sweep efficiency and to enhance the displacement (microscopic) efficiency, as compared to an ordinary water flooding. One mechanism is to increase the volumetric sweep by reducing the mobility ratio between the displacing and displaced fluids. The other mechanism is targeted to the reduction of the amount of oil trapped due to capillary forces. By reducing the interfacial tension between the displacing and displaced fluids the effect of trapping is lowered.

In general, EOR technologies fall into four groups of the following categories:

- Gas miscible recovery
- Chemical flooding
- Thermal recovery
- Microbial flooding

This thesis will focus on the CO₂ miscible process, and therefore, examples of EOR technologies are just briefly described here.

Gas miscible recovery:

The injection fluid (solvent) is normally natural gas, enriched natural gas, flue gas, nitrogen or CO₂. These fluids are not first contact miscible with reservoir oils, but with sufficiently high reservoir pressure they achieve dynamic miscibility with many reservoir oils. Miscibility and drive mechanisms are further described and discussed in chapter 4. CO₂ flooding has proven to be among the most promising EOR methods, especially in the US because it takes advantage of available, naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs. Injection of CO₂ in mature oil fields on the Norwegian Continental Shelf is presently also under evaluation. This is further described in chapter 6. US experience is described in chapter 5.

Chemical recovery:

Polymer flooding

In this enhanced water flooding method, high molecular weight water-soluble polymers are added to the injection water to improve its mobility ratio, reducing oil “bypassing” and raising yields. Permeability profile modification treatments with polymer solutions are becoming increasingly common.

Surfactant flooding

Also known as micellar-polymer flooding, low-tension water flooding, and micro-emulsion flooding, this method typically involves injecting a small slug of surfactant solution into the reservoir, followed by polymer thickened water, and then brine. Despite its very high displacement efficiency, micellar-polymer flooding is hampered by the high cost of chemicals and excessive chemical losses within the reservoir.

Thermal recovery:**Steam injection**

Steam injection and flooding are very effective in recovering heavy viscous crudes. Thermal recovery is applicable for individual well stimulation or field-wide flooding.

In-situ combustion

This process attempts to recover oil by burning a portion of in-place crude. Air or oxygen is injected to facilitate burning. The process is very complex involving multiphase flow of flue gases, volatile hydrocarbons, steam, hot water, and oil. Its performance in general has been insufficient to make it economically attractive to producers.

Microbial recovery:

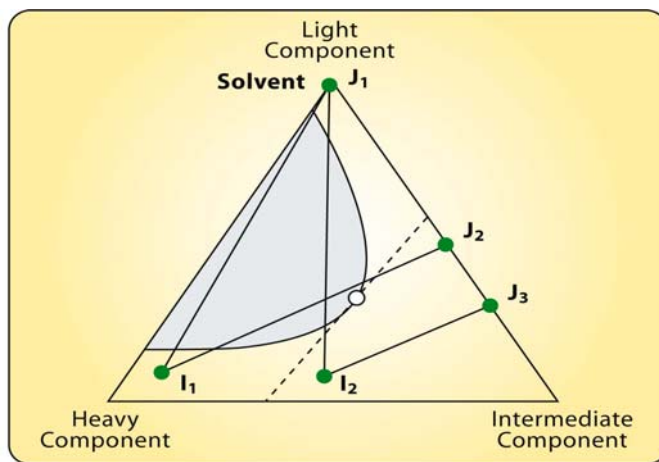
This method takes advantage of microbial byproducts in the reservoir, such as CO₂, methane, polymer, alcohol, acetone, and other compounds. These, in turn, can change oil properties in a positive direction, and thereby facilitate additional oil recovery.

4. ENHANCED OIL RECOVERY BY MISCIBLE GAS/CO₂ FLOODING

After a field is flooded by water there are large volumes of oil remaining in the reservoir because of capillary forces and surface forces acting in the fluid-rock system. This residual oil is the target for tertiary CO₂ flooding which will be further described in this thesis. The estimated recovery from oilfields on the NCS varies from about 15 to 65 % of STOIP, averaging on 44%, which means that the EOR potential is large.

4.1 Miscibility and drive mechanism

To explain the different processes in miscible flooding, ternary diagrams are widely used. In the following, ternary diagrams will be shown for the different flooding conditions. Figure 4.1 summarizes the different processes.



- $I_1 - J_1$: Immiscible drive
- $I_2 - J_3$: First contact miscible
- $I_2 - J_1$: Vaporizing gas drive
- $I_1 - J_2$: Condensing gas drive

Figure 4.1 - Conditions for different types of oil displacement by solvents [29].

Since the dilution path (I_2 - J_3) in figure 4.1 does not pass through the two-phase region or cross the critical tie line, it forms first contact miscible displacement. The path (I_1 - J_1), which entirely lies on the two-phase region, forms immiscible displacement. When the initial and injected compositions are on the opposite side of the critical tie line, the displacement is either a vaporizing gas drive (I_2 - J_1) or a condensing gas drive (I_1 - J_2).

4.2 First contact miscible flooding

The most direct method to achieve miscible displacement is by injecting a solvent that mixes with the oil completely, such that all mixtures are in single phase. To reach the first-contact miscibility between solvent and oil, the pressure must be over the cricondenbar since all solvent-oil mixtures above this pressure are single phases. If the solvent, for instance a propane-butane mixture is liquid at reservoir pressure and temperature, the saturation pressure for the mixture of oil and solvent will vary between the bubble-point pressure for the oil and the bubble-point pressure for the solvent. In this case the cricondenbar is higher than the two bubble-point pressures. If the solvent is gas at reservoir pressure and temperature, the phase behaviour is more complicated. In this case, the cricondenbar may occur at mixtures intermediate between pure oil and pure solvent.

If natural gas or CO₂ is chosen as a solvent to sweep the reservoir, a miscible slug must be created ahead of the injected gas in order to reach a miscible displacement process. The slug may be of propane or liquefied petroleum gas, and the slug must be completely miscible with the reservoir oil at its leading edge and also completely miscible with the injected gas at its

tailing edge. The volume of the injected slug material must be sufficient to last for the entire sweep process. The first contact flooding will not continue if the slug is bypassed. The first contact minimum miscible pressure (FCMMP) is the lowest pressure at which the reservoir oil and injection gas are miscible in all ratios.

4.3 Multiple contact miscible flooding

The degree of miscibility between a reservoir oil and injection gas is often expressed in terms of the minimum miscibility pressure (MMP). The multiple contact miscibility pressure (MCMMP or just MMP) is the lowest pressure at which the oil and gas phases resulting from a multi-contact process, vaporizing or condensing, between reservoir oil and an injection gas are miscible in all ratios.

Multiple contact miscible injection fluid is normally natural gas at high pressure, enriched natural gas, flue gas, nitrogen or CO₂. These fluids are not first-contact miscible and forms two-phase regions when they mix directly with the reservoir fluids. The miscibility is achieved by mass transfer of components which results from multiple and repeated contact between the oil and the injected fluid through the reservoir. There are two main processes where dynamic miscible displacement can be achieved. Those are the vaporizing and the condensing gas drive.

The following descriptions explain the mechanisms for gas drives in general, but the difference between CO₂ and natural gas is that the dynamic miscibility with CO₂ does not require the presence of intermediate molecular weight hydrocarbons in the reservoir fluid. The extraction of a broad range of hydrocarbons from the reservoir oil often causes dynamic miscibility to occur at attainable pressures, which are lower than the miscibility pressure for a dry hydrocarbon gas.

4.3.1 Vaporizing gas drive

Vaporizing gas drive is a particular case of a multiple contact miscibility process. It is based on vaporization of the intermediate components from the reservoir oil. A miscible transition zone is created, and C₂ to C₆ (CO₂ can extract up to C₃₀) is extracted due to the high injection pressure. A vaporizing gas miscible process can displace nearly all the oil in the area that has been contacted. However, the fraction of the reservoir contacted may be low due to flow conditions and reservoir heterogeneities. The process requires high pressure at the oil-gas interface, and the reservoir oil must contain a high concentration of C₂ to C₆, particularly if HC gas is used.

The pressure required for achieving dynamic miscibility with CO₂ is usually significantly lower than the pressure required for other gases as natural gas, flue gas or nitrogen. By using CO₂, also higher molecular weight hydrocarbons can be extracted. The lower pressure and the extraction of higher hydrocarbon fractions are a major advantage of the CO₂ miscible process.

Figure 4.2 shows a ternary diagram for this process. The displacement is not first contact miscible because the dilution path passes through the two-phase region. To explain the process in the figure, one has to imagine that there are a series of mixed cells that represent the permeable medium in a one-dimensional displacement. The first cell initially contains crude oil to which one adds an amount of solvent so that the overall composition is given by the mixture. The first mixture (the point on the tie line L₁-G₁ where it crosses the solvent – crude line) will split into two phases, gas G₁ and liquid L₁, determined by the equilibrium lines. The gas G₁ will have a much higher mobility than the liquid L₁, and moves into a second mixing

cell to form the next mixture. The liquid L_1 remains behind to mix with more pure solvent. In the second cell the mixture splits into G_2 and L_2 and so on. Behind the second cell as it is shown in this figure the gas phase will no longer form two phases on mixing with the crude. From this point all compositions in the displacement will be a straight dilution path between the crude and a point tangent to the bimodal curve. The displacement will be first contact miscible with a solvent composition given by the point of tangency. Now the process has developed miscibility since the solvent has been enriched in intermediate components to be miscible with the crude. The vaporizing gas drive occurs at the front of the solvent slug. The process is called a vaporizing gas drive since the intermediate components have vaporized from the crude.

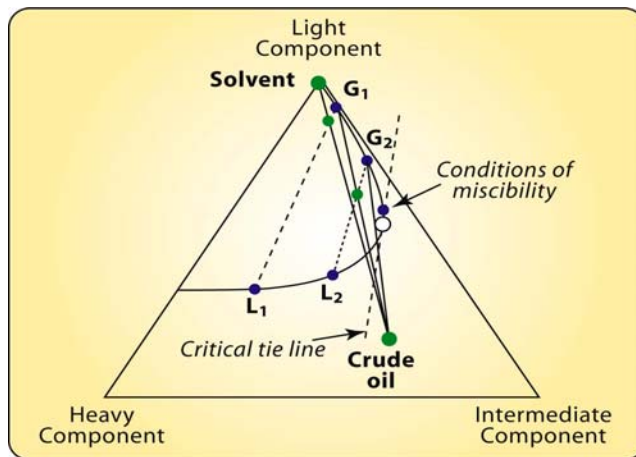


Figure 4.2 - Multiple contact vaporising gas drive [29].

4.3.2 Condensing gas drive

When a rich gas is injected into oil, oil and gas are initially immiscible. Multiple contacts condensing drive will occur when the reservoir oil in a particular cell meets new portions of fresh solvents. A miscible bank forms through condensation of the intermediate components from gas into oil. Then a process similar to the vaporizing drive will be developed, and the oil behind the front becomes progressively lighter. The successive oil compositions formed behind the front will occupy a greater volume in the pores than the original oil because of swelling. This will then lead to form a mobile oil bank behind the zone of gas stripped of intermediate components. The process continues unless developed miscibility conditions are met.

The process is shown schematically in figure 4.3 where the first mixing cell splits into liquid L_1 and gas G_1 . Gas G_1 moves on to the next mixing cell and liquid L_1 mixes with fresh solvent to form the next mixture. Liquid L_2 mixes with fresh solvent, and so on. The mixing process will ultimately result in a single-phase mixture. Since the gas phase has already passed through the first cell, the miscibility now develops at the rear of the solvent-crude mixing zone as a consequence of the enrichment of the liquid phase from the intermediate components. The front of the mixing zone is a region of immiscible flow owing to the continual contacting to the gas phases G_1 , G_2 , and so on. Since the intermediate component condenses into the liquid phase, the process is called a condensing gas drive.

CO₂ cannot form miscibility alone, but through a vaporizing drive were injected CO₂ vaporizes some of the light components in the oil. These are subsequently re-condensed at the

displacement front creating an enriched zone with favourable mobility characteristics, referred to as a combined vaporizing and condensing drive.

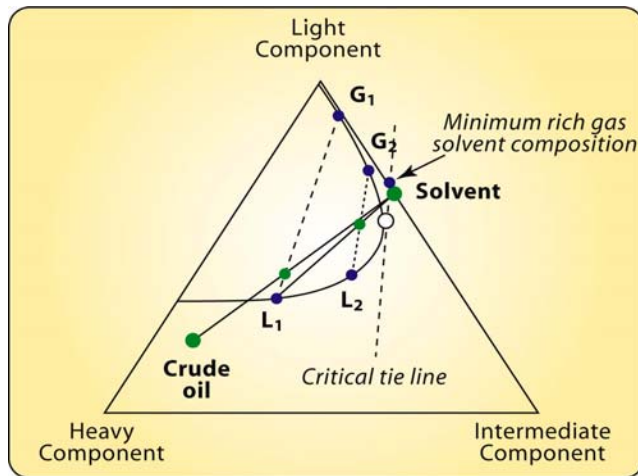


Figure 4.3 - Multiple contacts condensing gas drive [29].

4.3.3 Combined vaporizing and condensing mechanism

Experimental observations and calculations with equation of state have shown that miscible displacement by rich gas injection seems to be due to a combined vaporizing and condensing mechanism. Zick [30], Novosad and Costain [31]. The main conclusions from those articles are:

- A combined vaporizing and condensing gas drive mechanism is more likely than a pure condensing gas drive when rich gas is injected into reservoir oil.
- A pseudo miscible zone develops quite similar to that in a condensing gas drive.
- Some residual oil remains trapped behind the displacement as in a vaporizing gas drive.

For the CO₂ case, a combined drive can be developed under the right circumstances. MMP calculations done with PVT-Sim (see chapter 8.2) results in consequently lower MMP for the combined drive than for the vaporizing drive for a wide range of fluid compositions.

4.4 Minimum miscible pressure from slimtube miscibility apparatus

The minimum miscibility pressure can also be measured by using a slim tube miscibility apparatus. There exist various types of slimtube apparatus based on the chosen operation conditions.

The apparatus is usually constructed to measure miscibility conditions at reservoir pressure and temperature, and in general terms it works the way that the gas to be tested is injected at a desired pressure through the slim tube previously cleaned and saturated in oil by means of a high-pressure pump. A backpressure regulator maintains a constant pressure inside the system. The effluents can be observed through a capillary sight glass tube. They are then exposed to atmospheric pressure and temperature through a backpressure regulator. The volume of liquid effluents is then monitored continuously using a digital volume-measuring detector. The produced gas can be measured with a wet gas meter. A set of recovery curves can be plotted by using the raw data obtained from the different miscible displacement experiment. MMP for the fluid flooded by gas or CO₂ can be constructed as shown in figure

4.5. Density meter and gas chromatograph may be installed to extend the capabilities of the instrument. Figure 4.4 shows a schematic view for a slim tube apparatus.

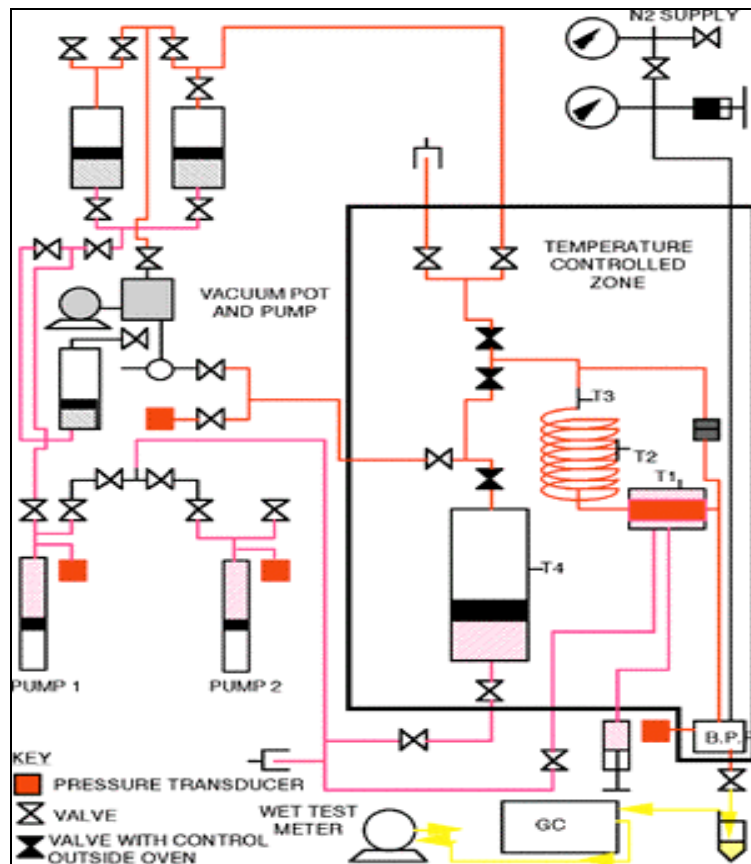
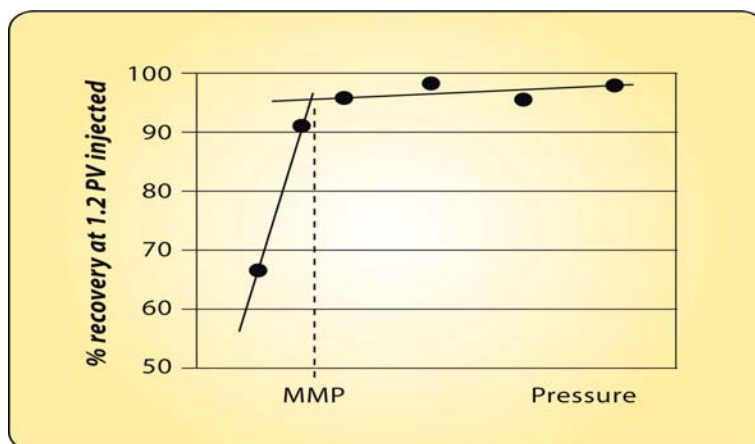


Figure 4.4 - Schematic view of a slim tube apparatus [32].



Slim tube MMP:

The MMP is defined [1] as the pressure for which the oil recovery is at least 90 % after 1.2 PV of solvent is injected.

Figure 4.5 – MMP estimation by recovery curves at different pressures.

A slimtube miscible measurement is often of high quality. However, a reliable slimtube test is strongly dependent on the packed grain sizes. This is attributable to difference in the pore throat sizes and associated pore invasion pressure due to capillarity. This is further discussed in a paper presented by F.B Thomas, T. Okazawa, P. Hodgins, X. Zhou, A. Erlan and D.B. Bennion. [33].

Slimtube experiments and interpreted slimtube simulations can provide a reliable determination of MMP for a system. But one of the major problems with this type of miscibility tests is the severe case-dependent dispersion, physical or numerical. Those effects have to be taken into account in order to avoid an overestimation of the MMP. Stalkup [34] and Lars Høier, Curtis H. Whitson [35] have investigated those effects.

4.5 Some remarks on the MMP and the calculation of the MMP

Miscibility pressure is one of the most important parameters for a CO₂ miscible flood. The different factors effecting the MMP, correlations and reliability is investigated by various author. Stalkup [34] have summarised some of the experience gained up to 1983:

- Dynamic miscibility occurs when the CO₂ density is sufficiently great that the dense gas CO₂ or liquid CO₂ solubilizes the C₅ through C₃₀ hydrocarbons contained in the reservoir oil.
- Reservoir temperature is an important variable, and higher temperature results in higher MMP requirement.
- MMP is inversely related to the total amount of C₅ to C₃₀ present in the reservoir oil. The more of these, the lower is the MMP.
- MMP is affected by the molecular weight distribution of the individual C₅ to C₃₀. Low molecular weight results in lower MMP.
- MMP is affected of the types of hydrocarbons, but too much lesser degree than the fractions. For example, aromatics result in lower MMP.
- Properties of heavy fractions, > C₃₀ also affect the MMP, but not as much as the total quantity of C₃₀⁺.
- MMP does not require the presence of C₂ to C₄.
- The presence of methane in the reservoir does not change the MMP appreciably.

Høier and Whitson [35] have investigated miscibility variation in compositionally grading reservoirs (paper from 1998). They have gone through the various mechanisms. One important conclusion from this work regarding EOR is that the MMP in oil reservoirs always increases with depth, both for vaporizing and condensing/vaporizing mechanisms. Vaporizing MMP is always greater than or equal to the bubble-point pressure, while the condensing/vaporizing MMP can be greater than or less than the bubble point pressure.

Recent work by various authors seems to conclude that analytical approach and new developments of analytical equations gives good results in determining the MMP and MME (minimum miscibility enrichment). Hua Yuan and Russell T. Johns from the University of Texas at Austin have recently developed a simplified method for calculation of the MMP and MME [36 and 37]. They have focused on method robustness. This new method differs from other published methods by significantly reducing the number of equations and unknown parameters. It is a fast and robust method for calculation, and it can avoid trivial and false solutions.

5 SUMMARY OF CO₂ FLOOD PROJECTS WORLDWIDE

CO₂ as injection gas for oil recovery has been mentioned as early as 1916 in the literature, but it was dismissed as a laboratory curiosity due to the absence of large and economically priced supplies. But in the early 1950s the industry started to look more seriously into miscible flooding. It began with looking at first contact miscible floods projects by using propane, LPG and natural gas. But these solvents were soon regarded to be too expensive and unsuitable at that time because of their low viscosity and density, which could result in low volumetric sweep efficiency. As a result of rejecting those solvents, CO₂ was again on the agenda. The first project, the Ritchie field, started CO₂ injection in 1964. This was a small project, and first in 1972 the bigger CO₂ project, SACROC Unit in Scurry County in the Permian Basin, started to inject CO₂ as an immiscible secondary recovery mechanism. After that, CO₂ floods have been used successfully throughout several areas in the US, especially in the Permian Basin. Outside the US, CO₂ floods have been implemented in Canada, Hungary, Turkey, Trinidad and Brazil.

Except from US, there are not many CO₂ floods worldwide. The main reason for this has most probably to do with the availability of CO₂. Huge volumes are required, and there are lack of both infrastructure and sources in most of the oil producing regions world wide, except from US, especially in the Permian Basin. Today there are about 78 CO₂ floods in operation world wide, 67 in US, 2 in Canada, 2 in Turkey, 5 in Trinidad and 1 in Brazil [38]. But all together there have been more than 100 EOR projects with CO₂ flooding since the first flood took place [39 and 40].

Operations History:

- USA: 85 projects
- Canada: 8 projects
- Hungary: 3 projects
- Turkey: 2 projects
- Trinidad: 5 projects
- Brazil: 1 project, onshore oil field [38]

United States:

- 67 floods (66 miscible and 1 immiscible)
- The first large project SACROC started in January 1972
- Average life of producing properties is about 12 years
- 21 companies are operating floods in 2001 (1 to 16 projects)
- There are over 6,400 producing wells and 4,200 injection wells
- Depths varies from 820 to 3280 m

Canada:

- | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------|---|
| • Retlaw Mannville: | Nov. 1983 | (Immiscible CO ₂ , Terminated) |
| • Joffre Viking Pool: | Jan. 1984 | (Miscible CO ₂ , Operating) |
| • Abandoned field: | | (produced about 16% OOIP in mature area) |
| • Midale Midale Beds: | July 1986 | (Miscible CO ₂ , Suspended) |
| • Harmattan East Rundle: | 1988 | (Miscible CO ₂ , Terminated) |
| • Zama Keg River: | 1995 | (Miscible acid gas, Terminated) |
| • Elswick Midale Beds: | Apr. 2000 | (Miscible CO ₂ , Suspended) |
| • Weyburn Midale Beds: | Oct. 2000 | (Miscible CO ₂ , Operating) |

Other countries:

- Hungary: 3 projects 1971 – 1996 (Immiscible CO₂, Terminated)
- Turkey: 2 projects 1986 (Immiscible CO₂, Operating)
- Trinidad: 5 projects 1974 (Immiscible CO₂, Operating)
- Brazil: 1 project[32] - (Aracas field, miscible operating)

5.1 The Permian Basin

The Permian Basin is one of the most prolific petroleum provinces of North America. It is in a mature stage of both exploration and development. Almost half of the CO₂ floods around the world are located in this area. The CO₂ floods in the Permian Basin uses more than 28.3 million Sm³ of CO₂ per day and produce more than 20 % of the areas total oil production, more than 22000 Sm³/day. Oil and gas have been found in rocks ranging from Cambrian to Cretaceous age, but most of the hydrocarbons are found in rocks of Paleozoic age. It is one of the largest structural basins in North America. It encompasses a surface area in excess of 220000 km² and includes all or parts of 52 counties located in West Texas and southeast New Mexico. The area is shown in figure 5.1. The name of the basin derives from the fact that the area was down warped before being covered by the Permian sea and the subsidence continued through much of the Permian period. Consequently, it contains one of the thickest deposits of Permian rocks found anywhere.

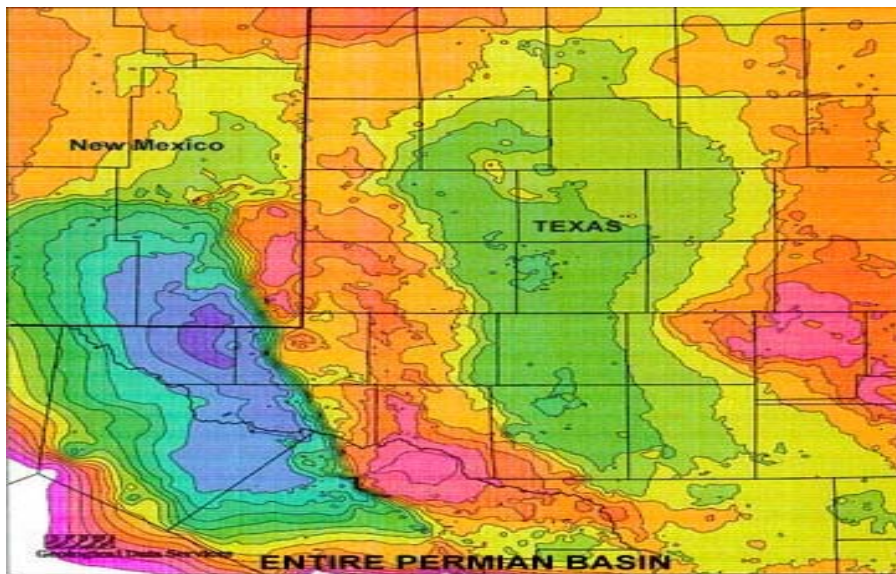


Figure 5.1 - The Permian Basin [41].

Structurally, the Permian Basin is bounded on the south by the Marathon Ouachita Fold Belt, on the west by the Diablo Platform and Pedernal Uplift, on the north by the Matador Arch, and on the east by the Eastern Shelf of the Permian (Midland) Basin and west flank of the Bend Arch. The basin is separated into eastern and western halves by a north-south trending Central Basin Platform. In a cross section, the basin is an asymmetrical feature. The western half contains a thicker and more structurally deformed sequence of sedimentary rock as shown in figure 5.2.

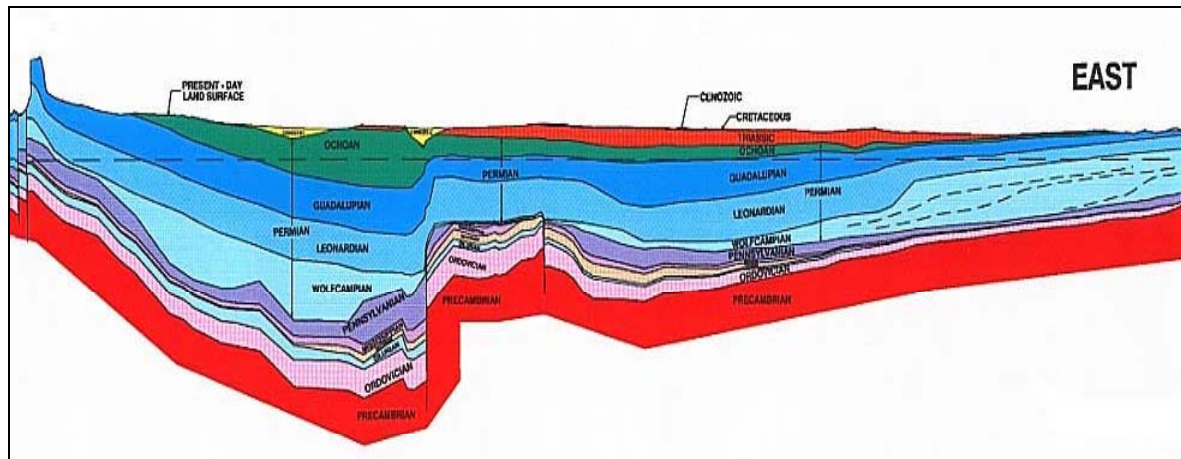


Figure 5.2 - West to East Cross-section of the Permian Basin [42].

Figure 5.2 shows a West to East cross-section of the basin. By combining the contoured map in figure 5.1 with the cross section in figure 5.2, one can observe the Central Basin Platform high in the middle with the deep Delaware Basin to the left and shallower Midland Basin to the right.

The Permian Basin has been characterized as a large structural depression formed as a result of down warp in the Precambrian basement surface. The basin was filled with Paleozoic and, to a much lesser extent, younger sediments. It acquired its present structural form by Early Permian time. The overall basin is divisible into several distinct structural and tectonic elements.

As mentioned, the basin is mature, but already in the early 1970s many oil reservoirs were maturing and the owners started to lock into tertiary recovery methods to increase the oil recovery. Because of the large quantities of CO₂ saturated natural gas near the oil fields, relatively low priced CO₂ was available at that time. Large quantities of CO₂ were being extracted from natural gas and emitted to the atmosphere. A Chevron affiliate conceived and developed the first CO₂ flood in the area, and a 354 km long CO₂ pipeline from four CO₂ extraction plants (OXY - Terrell, Valero - Grey Ranch, Northern - Mitchell, and Warren - Puckett) were built to supply CO₂ to the Sacroc Unit. This was the beginning of the successful history of CO₂ floods in the Permian Basin.

5.1.1 The SACROC Unit in the Permian Basin

The SACROC (Scurry Area Canyon Reef Operators Committee) Unit in the Permian Basin was the first large scale CO₂ flood in the world. The SACROC operation covers an area of 205 km² within the depleted Kelly Snyder oil field in the eastern part of the Permian Basin in West Texas.

The oil is mainly produced from limestone reservoirs of the Canyon Reef Formation of late Pennsylvanian age. The field is internally complex, and tight shale zones vertically segregate the oil reservoir into numerous stacked compartments. The zones are not in pressure communication and the fluid flow is essentially horizontal. The reservoir is large and holds approximately 336 million Sm³ originally oil in place.

Primary oil production started in 1948. To maintain the oil production, secondary oil recovery method with water injection was implemented in 1954. A CO₂ immiscible flood was

implemented in 1972, and 21 year later a tertiary CO₂ miscible flood was implemented, and it is still ongoing.

During the period from 1972 to 1975 the CO₂ came from nearby natural gas processing plants about 270 km away from the oilfield. The CO₂ was naturally occurring in the gas, and had to be separated before further transportation. The CO₂ was a by-product that otherwise would be emitted to the atmosphere. In 1996 they had to change the source of CO₂ supply when the old CO₂ pipeline converted to transport natural gas. The SACROC and the nearby North and South Cross fields converted then to natural CO₂ supplied from Shell CO₂ Company. From 1998 SACROC was supplied with CO₂ from the Val Verde gas treatment plant.

In the early stages of the CO₂ flood the injection rate was about 5.1 million Sm³/day, but declined to 1.7 million Sm³/day in 1995. The cumulative gross total CO₂ injected was then about 30 billion Sm³ and had contributed to 11 million Sm³ of EOR oil.

EOR performance could have been considerably better within certain portions of the SACROC Unit in area where water flooding had been mature by the time CO₂ injection started. In one area, 2.4 km² and 24 wells, injection during the first 5 years led to an incremental recovery of 10 % of the STOIIP. Results over a 7 years period over a larger area, 10.9 km² and 100 wells gave incremental oil recovery of 7.5 % of the STOIIP. The previous operator, Pennzoil, has estimated the CO₂ miscible flooding to recover an additional 8 % of the STOIIP. The present operator, Kinder Morgan CO₂ has more than 80 % ownership stake in the SACROC, and are focusing on increasing the CO₂ injection in order to produce more EOR oil. The oil production rate has increased by approximately 50 % since Kinder Morgan acquired interest in SACROC and assumed operations in June 2000. To increase the EOR oil, new CO₂ infrastructure is needed. The building of additional infrastructure will increase CO₂ deliveries to the project from 3.5 million Sm³/day to well over 5.7 million Sm³/day when the expansion comes online in late 2003. The unit has produced more than 191 million Sm³ of oil since its discovery in 1948 and it still has significant additional oil reserves recoverable by CO₂ injection operations.

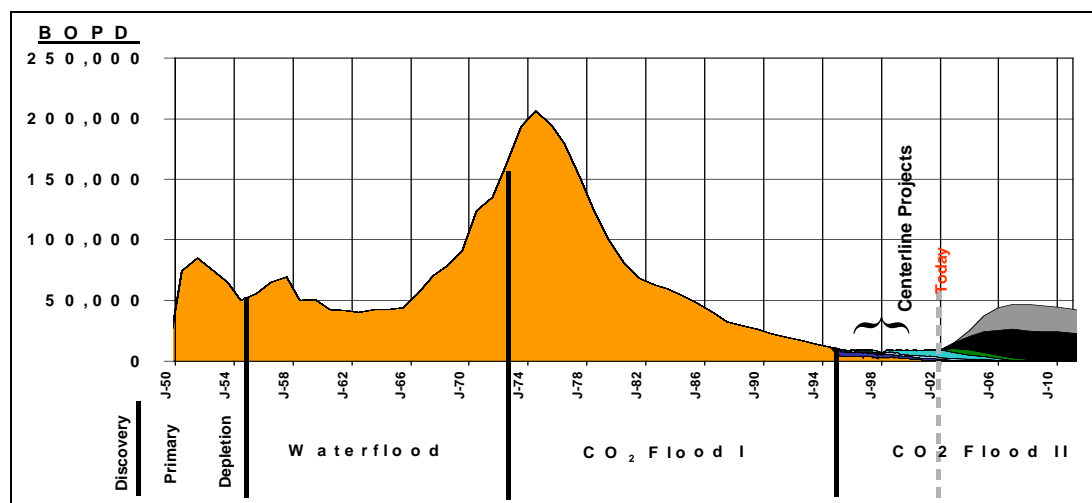


Figure 5.3 - SACROC Unit development history and prognoses up to 2010 [43].

From figure 5.3 one can see that the field has gone through all stages of the general features of an oilfields life periods with a peak production above 31800 Sm³/day 19 years after the waterflood was implemented. Immiscible CO₂ flood was implemented in 1972 just before the peak production, but after that, the production decreased rapidly. In 1995 the second CO₂

flood was implemented, a tertiary miscible CO₂ flood. At this point the production was down to 1900 Sm³/day. With the expansion, oil production is expected to grow from approximately 1900 Sm³/day currently to more than 3180 Sm³/day by late 2003, with substantial continued growth thereafter, [43 and 44].

5.1.2 SACROC CO₂ project, key parameters

Reservoir:	Limestone, Canyon Reef Formation
Production wells:	325
CO ₂ injectors:	57
Original oil in place:	336 million Sm ³
Current EOR area:	200 km ²
Estimated EOR prod:	26.8 million Sm ³ (8% of OOIP)
Initial reservoir pressure (-1311 m):	216 bar
Bubble point pressure:	128 bar
Reservoir temperature (-1311 m):	54.4 °C
Average porosity:	7,6 %
Average permeability:	19,4 md
Average initial water saturation:	21.9%
Oil viscosity:	0.35 cp
Oil gravity:	0.82
Oil volume factor:	1.5 res m ³ /Sm ³
Solution GOR:	178 m ³ /m ³
Water-oil mobility ratio:	0.3
CO ₂ -oil mobility ratio:	8.0

5.2 The Weyburn Oil field in Canada

The Weyburn CO₂ flood is the largest horizontal injection program in the world, involving a 30 m thick fractured carbonate reservoir at 1400 m depth. Approximately 1000 wells, including 137 horizontal wells with 284 lateral legs, have been used to recover 24 % of the oil originally in place. Pan Canadian, the operator, converted 19 patterns of horizontal wells to CO₂ injection. Injection of 85000 to 198000 Sm³/day per well has occurred since early October 2000. The goal of the CO₂ flood is to increase the production by at least 15 % incremental oil.

The field covers 210 km² southeast of Weyburn, just north of the North Dakota border. Production consists primarily of medium gravity crude oil with a low gas to oil ratio. Central Del Rio Oils Limited, a predecessor company that became part of PanCanadian in 1971, discovered the field in December 1954. The actual Weyburn Unit was established in 1962. The 50 companies and individuals then producing from the field pooled their interests into one unit and initiated a water flood project to increase the reservoir pressure. PanCanadian holds now the largest share of the current 37 partners in the field and is operator of the oil field.

Pan Canadian announced in 1997 that they would develop an EOR project to extend the lifetime of the Weyburn field by more than 25 years. The project will involve a CO₂ miscible flood, which is anticipated to extract an additional 19.4 million Sm³ or more from the field. The CO₂ for the project will come from the Great Plains Synfuels plant in Beulah, North Dakota, operated by the Dakota Gasification Company (DGC). The route of the pipeline is shown in figure 5.4.

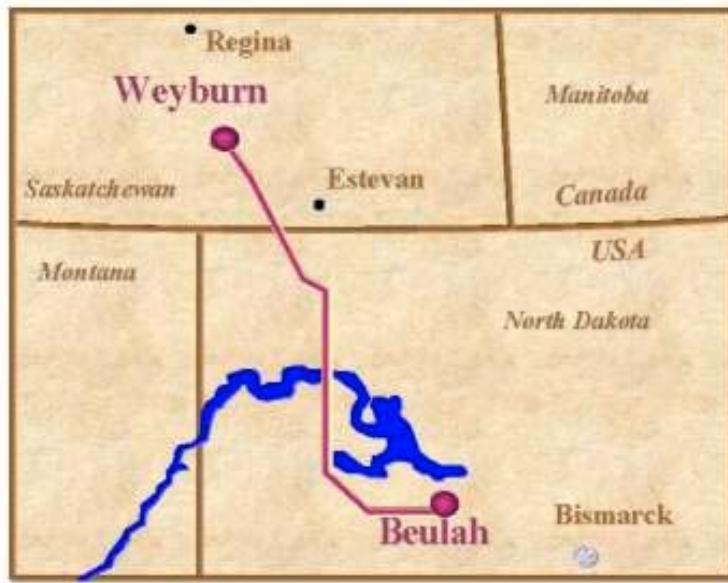


Figure 5.4 - Route of CO₂ Pipeline from North Dakota to Weyburn oilfield [45].

There are two huge compressors pushing the CO₂ through the pipeline. Each compressor is driven by a 15 megawatt electric motor. Should additional demand for CO₂ arise, more compressors and a booster station would be required. During normal operations CO₂ will be carried in the pipeline as a gas, but in a supercritical condition and acts much like a liquid. During the pipe filling process, the CO₂ is in a gaseous state. As the pipeline fills and its pressure increases, CO₂ does become liquid. Then as the pressure continues to increase, the CO₂ returns to the gas phase and enters the supercritical state.

Weyburn CO₂ project represents another new by-product for the Synfuels Plant. With CO₂ the Synfuels Plant now has eight by-products on its production list, along with about 3.8 million Sm³ of synthetic natural gas per day, which is the primary product. PanCanadian will use up to 2.7 million Sm³ of CO₂ daily, about 40 % of the Synfuels Plant's capacity. At the plant, CO₂ is produced from the Rectisol unit in the gas cleanup train. The pipeline project is a result of the CO₂ sales contract signed in July 1997 between DGC and PanCanadian.

Few of the existing projects use CO₂ from anthropogenic, and the sequestration of CO₂ in this field will make a direct contribution to reducing anthropogenic emissions of CO₂ and will provide an example for future sequestration projects of the potential available from use of this technique.

On September 14, 2000, CO₂ began flowing. The first additional oil from the Weyburn CO₂ flood started to flow in 2001.

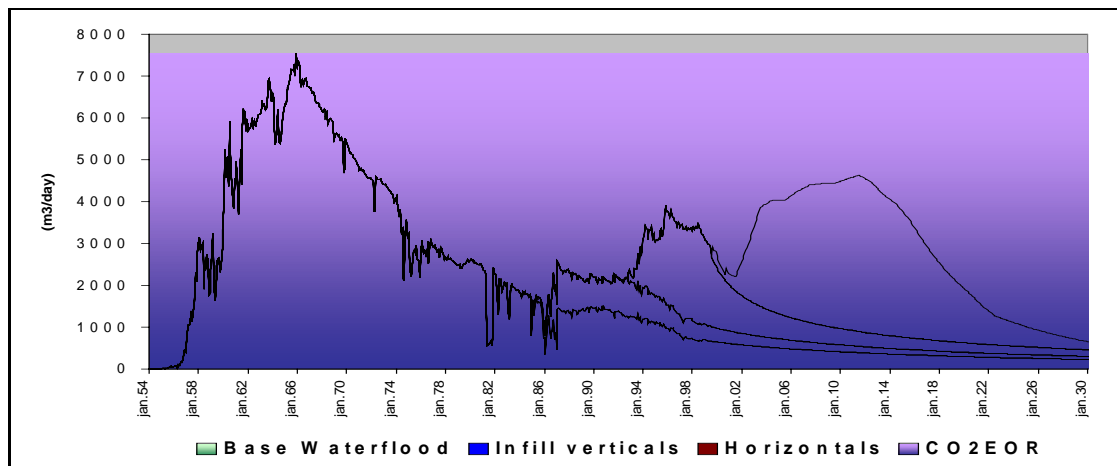


Figure 5.5 - Weyburn production, history and prognoses (1954 – 2030) [45].

Figure 5.5 shows the expected incremental oil production from the miscible CO₂ injection. The production profile is a good example of the feature of an oil field, showing the base case, increased production from infill wells followed by a tertiary EOR technique. A rapid increase in oil production is observed after the CO₂ started to flow into the reservoir. The present aim is to reach a recovery at 40 % of the originally oil in place. It has been estimated that up to half of the injected CO₂ can be stored in the immobile oil that remains in place in the oilfield at the end of production. Pan Canadian will inject 5000 tonnes of CO₂ per day into the Weyburn field as part of its CO₂ EOR operations. Over the 20 years of predicted lifetime it is expected that 20 million tonne of CO₂ will be stored in the Weyburn oil field. In production terms the project will store about 535 m³ of CO₂ per Sm³ of oil produced.

The Weyburn field produces from the Mississippian Midale Beds of the Charles Formation, figure 5.6. The reservoir is made up of two parts, the uppermost Marly dolomite and the lowermost Vuggy limestone. The reservoir is overlain by an anhydrite unit that forms the top and up dip lateral seal to the reservoir. The combination of the overlying anhydrite and the porous upper part of the reservoir provides an acoustic impedance contrast and a seismic reflector coincident with the reservoir interval. The reservoir zone generally averages 30 m in thickness, has a temperature of 63 °C, and a pressure of approximately 207 bar.

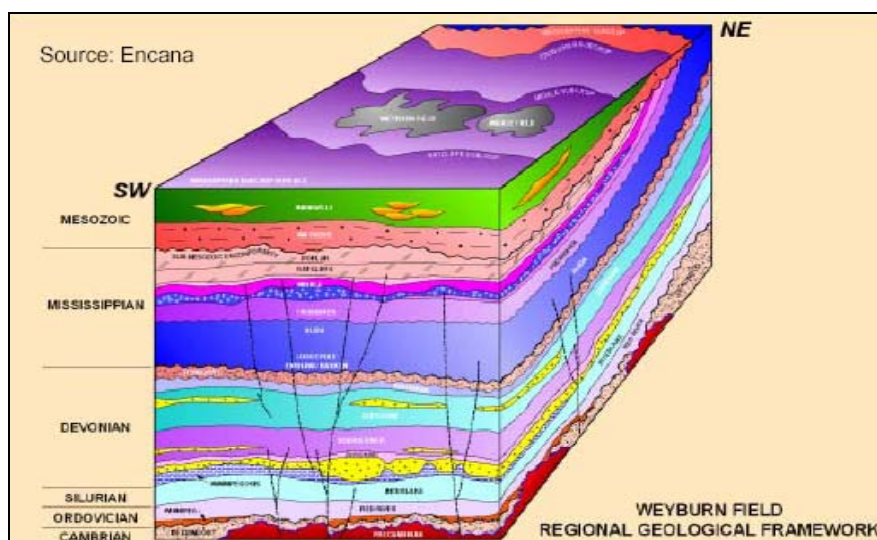


Figure 5.6 – Weyburn regional geological framework [46].

The most porous unit is the Marly, averaging 26 % porosity. Permeability of this zone is low, averaging 10 md. Horizontal wells drilled since 1991 in Weyburn Field have targeted the Marly as a zone of bypassed pay. These wells have substantiated the belief that the Marly unit was not as effectively swept as its underlying counterpart, the Vuggy. The Vuggy averages 11 % porosity and 15 md permeability. The flow capacity of the formation is the product of permeability and net thickness. The Marly has a relatively low flow capacity relative to the Vuggy and correspondingly low sweep efficiency. The potential for bypassed oil in the Marly is greater with CO₂ flooding than it is with water flooding because of the comparatively high mobility of CO₂. Figure 5.6 illustrates the Weyburn field regional geological framework.

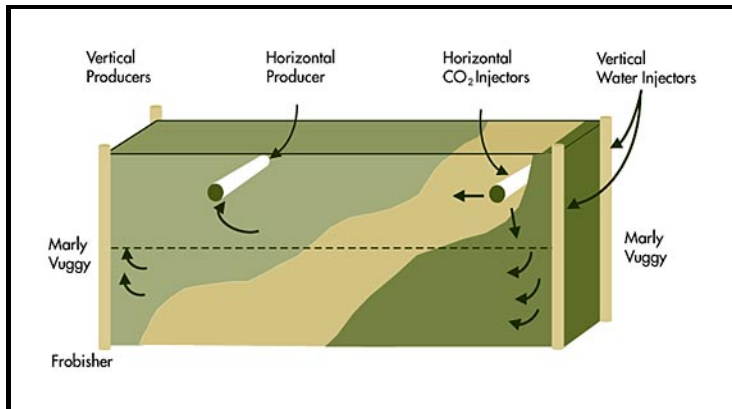


Figure 5.7 – Sketch of Weyburn well configuration [47].

Figure 5.7 illustrates schematically the reservoirs and the horizontal wells, both injectors and producers. Injected CO₂ is flowing both vertically and horizontally away from the horizontal injectors. The geologic model obtained from the history match includes a zone of relatively large vertical permeability in the vicinity of the injection well that allows fluid flow between the upper Marly and lower Vuggy layers. The greatest fracture density occurs in proximity to the faults. The open fracture systems are conduits for fluid movement vertically and laterally in the reservoir. Permeability is the biggest uncertainty in the reservoir modelling thus far.

Table 5.1 gives an overview of the reservoir parameters.

Reservoir Zone	Lithology & Textures	Porosity (avg.%, Type)	Matrix Permeability (avg.,md)	Heterogeneity	Fracture Density
Marly (M1, M3)	Dolostone mudstone, wackestone	20-37 (26) intercrystalline moldic	<0.1 - 100 (10)	Low bioturbation dolomitization	Low - Moderate (2-4m spacing) >25% Ø~unfract.
Upper Vuggy (V1)	Limestone packstone, wackestone	2-15 (10) interparticle intraparticle	<0.01 - 20 (1)	Medium thick bedded, bioturbation	High (<1m spacing)
Lower Vuggy (V2-V6)	Limestone mudstone to grainstone	5-20 (15) fenestral vuggy	<1 - 500 (50)	High well bedded, high order cyclicity, complex diagenesis	Moderate - High (<1-2m spacing) microfractured

Table 5.1 – Weyburn reservoir parameters [48].

5.2.1 Weyburn oil field, key parameters

Discovered:	1954
Started water flood:	1964
Started CO ₂ flood:	2001
Vertical wells:	490 OP, 181 WI, 16 WAG injectors
Horizontal wells:	184 OP, 1 WI, 13 CO ₂ I
Originally oil in place:	228 million Sm ³
Cum. Produced (09/01):	56.6 million Sm ³
Total recovery to date:	25.4%
Expected recovery:	40.0% (with additional 8.6% contribution from the CO ₂ flood)
Current oil rate:	3300 m ³ /d
Area:	180 km ²
Dept:	1450 m
Average res. thickness:	30 m
Res. temperature:	63 °C
Res. pressure:	207 bar
Sour Crude:	0.9 to 0.86
Geology:	Mississippian Midale Beds/Charles Formation
Vuggy (Limestone):	11% porosity and 15 md permeability
Marly (Dolomite):	26% porosity and 11md permeability

5.2.2 The Weyburn CO₂ Monitoring Project

An intensive research program closely follows the Weyburn field, and the information and experience gained will contribute to a better understanding of the CO₂ effect both to EOR, sequestration and capture. The program is organised by the International Energy Agency (IEA). The project has government and industrial sponsors, and there are a range of research partners from Canada, USA and Europe. The project is described in more detail in the project proposal for funding prepared by the Petroleum Technology Research Centre Regina, Saskatchewan January 26, 2000 [49], and [46]. The main project objectives and some milestones are listed below:

Specific project objectives:

- Develop expertise in CO₂ EOR and sequestration
- Prove the ability of oil reservoirs to securely store CO₂
- Identify the risk associated with geological storage and propose mitigation measures
- Develop CO₂ mobility control methods
- Develop technology to monitor CO₂ movement
- Develop an economic model

Project history:

- The project began with a workshop on Sequestration in Regina fall 1999
- A research consortium, comprised of public and private sector research from Canada, USA and Europe was established in 2000
- Funding requested from various Governments and Industry
- Baseline data gathered in 2000
- Major funding in place in 2001
- Full scope of project launched fall 2001

5.3 EOR projects in the US and the role of CO₂ floods

Since the peak production in the late 1980s, US have seen a gradually declining in domestic oil production, and thereby more dependent on oil import. This may be one of the reasons that US is the leading producer of EOR oil world wide, and in particular with respect to CO₂ floods. The initial force behind many of the current CO₂ floods in US can also be traced to incentives contained in the Crude Oil Windfall Profit Tax Act of 1980 [50]. The legislation referentially taxed some EOR projects profits at 30 %, compared with a conventional crude oil profit tax of 70 % [51], but this incentive ceased with the collapse of oil prices in early 1986.

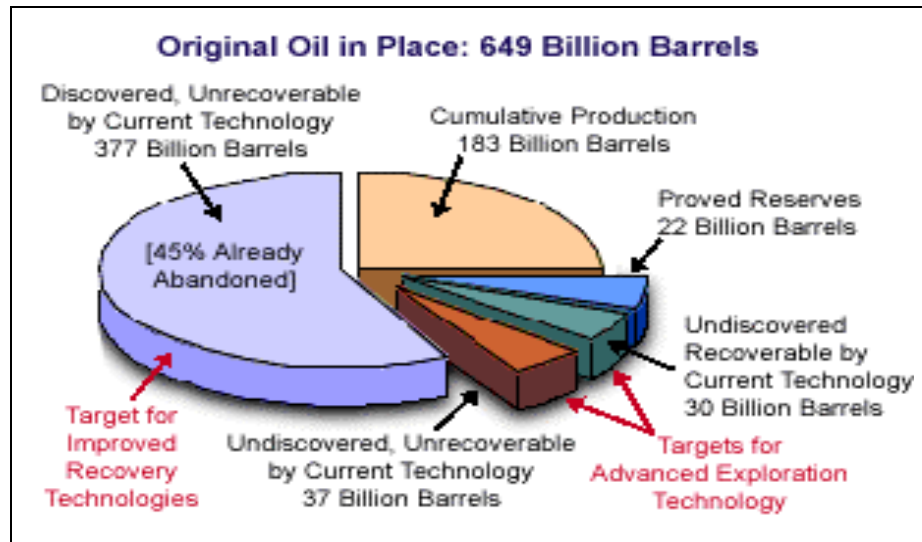


Figure 5.8 - US oil resources and target for improved oil recovery [52].

Average oil recovery from US reservoirs is only about 32 %. Although it is physically impossible to recover all of the oil that is discovered, but the potential for improvement with the use CO₂ projects and new technology in general is regarded as large. As mentioned above, the US leads the world in EOR technology, and already more than 12 % of the US oil production comes from EOR applications, and that fraction is growing steadily. In comparison, the world's EOR production is about 3 % and also growing. Figure 5.8 gives an impression of US oil resources and target for improved oil recovery.

From figure 5.9 and 5.10 one can see that the CO₂ floods is the EOR technique that have contributed the most to field growth in the US. Thermal EOR is still the largest contributor, but with a decreasing trend. It is also important to note that despite the decline in number of EOR projects, and the low oil price during 1998 and 1999, the EOR production still was a significant portion of the US, about 12 % of the total oil production.

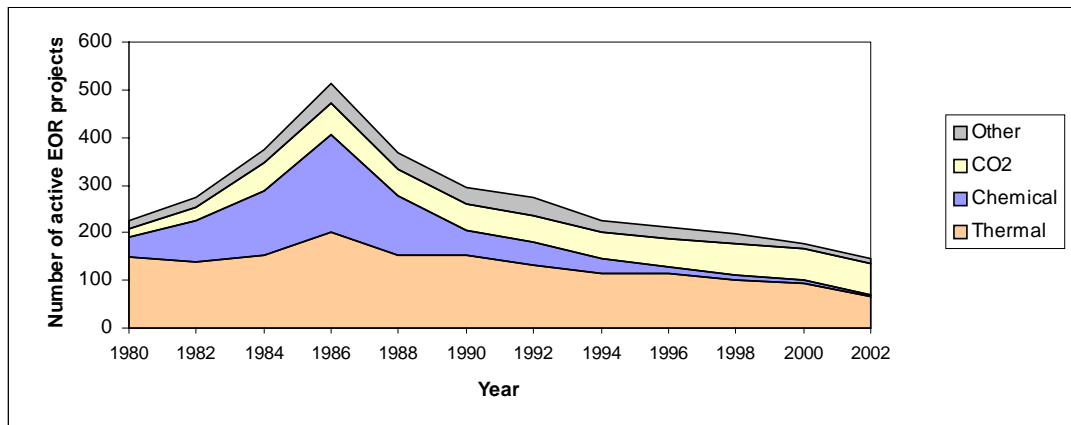


Figure 5.9 - Number of active EOR projects in US [53].

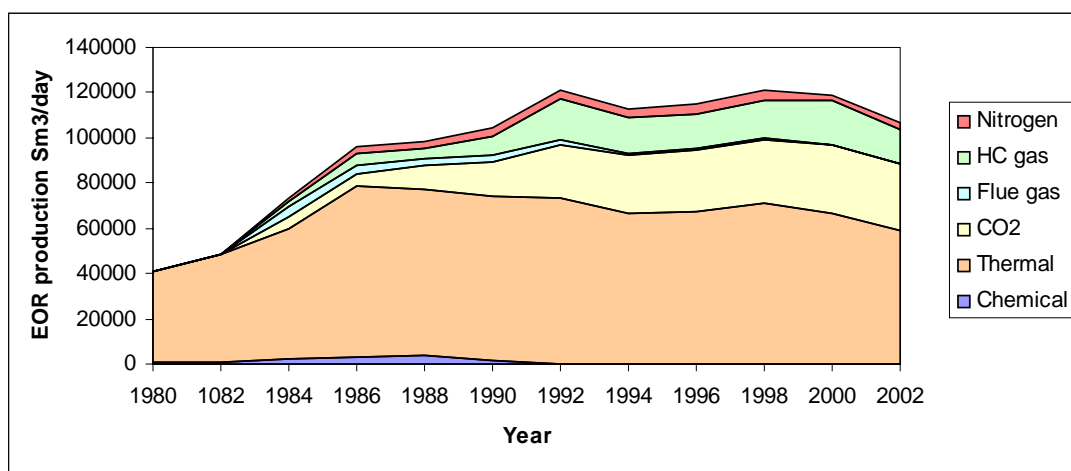


Figure 5.10 – EOR production from US projects [53].

In 2002 the CO₂ floods accounts for about 28 % of US total EOR production, which represents about 3.3 % of the total US crude oil production. As mentioned in the introduction, a typical CO₂ flood can, under the right conditions, yield an additional 7 to 15 % of the original oil in place, and extending the life time of a producing field by as much as 15 to 30 year [51]. The current injection of CO₂ in mature US oil field is about 32 million ton per year, and together with the benefits of oil recovery it also capture CO₂ in the reservoirs and thereby reduces the emission of greenhouse gasses to the atmosphere.

Prospects for further growth and expansion of CO₂ floods look promising, and analyst estimates for the Permian Basin alone indicates that more than 50 additional prospects seems to have economic to be implemented in the near future. This could add another 80 million to 160 billion Sm³ of oil [54]. However, the economic for the different projects are variable and dependent on pieces and available technology. One of the operators in the Permian Basin is planning to initiate 4 to 5 new projects over a five years period, and in addition about 10 expansions of existing projects. It's not unlikely that other operators have similar plans.

Future areas for CO₂ floods in the US will most probably be in Wyoming, Kansas and California. The planed CO₂ miscible flood demonstration project in Kansas will be the first CO₂ flood project in Kansas [54 and 55]. The goal is to demonstrate the technical feasibility of the process in a major Kansas reservoir, the Hall Gurney Field, one of several CO₂ flood

candidate fields in central Kansas. This is a project where an electrical co-generation, ethanol fuel production will provide CO₂ to the EOR demonstration project. Waste heat from a 15-megawatt gas turbine generator provides heat inputs for to the ethanol plant, and the CO₂, a fermentation process by product of ethanol production, will be utilized in the CO₂ miscible flood demonstration project. Efficiencies gained in by product utilization and energy use by linking traditional and alternative energy systems enhance the economics of each while creating environmental benefits through geologic sequestration of CO₂. Many experts believe that California will be the next large area for CO₂ floods, but the distance to present CO₂ sources is long, and infrastructure still misses. California is the fourth largest oil producing state in the US.

5.4 CO₂ availability and prices in US and Canada

With the success of the SACROC flood, high oil prices and many old oil fields to be flooded, the demand for CO₂ was so high that major oil companies built three long CO₂ pipelines into the Permian Basin in the early to mid 1980s. Distribution pipelines were built in the area to feed the oil fields with CO₂. Most of these pipelines were built on the strength of ten year take or pay CO₂ purchase contracts, which began expiring in the mid 1990s. At that time oil prices had been relatively low for many years, new floods were postponed, and existing floods were not being expanded. At the present time activity is increasing and many projects are under consideration. In 1998 the Val Verde pipeline started to deliver CO₂ into the Canyon Reef Carriers CO₂ pipeline, and in 2000 the pipeline from Dakota to Canada started to deliver CO₂ to the Weyburn field. Figure 5.11 shows the major CO₂ sources and pipelines in US.



Figure 5.11 – CO₂ sources and pipelines in US [51].

To give an impression of the existing CO₂ sources, the main sources and delivery pipelines is listed below [56 and 57]. It is not the intention to describe the sources and pipelines in detail, but it is important to know that the availability of CO₂ and infrastructures for delivering CO₂ in this area is quite different from most of the other oil provinces where CO₂ floods are considered as an alternative EOR technique.

5.4.1 CO₂ sources

The major part of the CO₂ sources used in EOR projects in US comes from natural domes and natural gas processing plants, but some volumes is also captured form power plant flue gas.

The McElmo Dome

This is one of the world's largest known accumulations of nearly pure CO₂. The dome produces from the Leadville formation at 2440 m depth with 44 wells that produce at individual rates up to 2.8 million Sm³/day. Due to increasing demand, both the McElmo Dome and its pipelines have recently been expanded. At present, more than 28.2 million Sm³/day can be delivered to the Permian Basin and an additional 1.7 million Sm³ to Utah. Additional expansions are under consideration.

The Sheep Mountain Field

This is the smallest CO₂ source field serving the Permian Basin, with published initial reserve estimates of 57 to 85 billion Sm³ CO₂ and produces from 1830 m in the Dakota and Entrada formations in Huerfano County, Colorado

Bravo Dome

It is located in northeastern New Mexico and covers an area of more than 3600 km² with initially reserves about 226 billions Sm³ of CO₂. The dome currently produces more than 11.3 million Sm³/day from more than 350 wells. Production comes from Tubb Sandstone at 701 m depth. Recent developments include more than 40 new wells, as well as an upgrade to the compression plant.

Val Verde Associated:

The CO₂ comes from four gas treating plants in West Texas and deliver CO₂ into the Canyon Reef Carriers pipeline for further transportation to projects in the Permian Basin. SACROC is one of them.

Synfuels Plant

The Synfuels gasification plant, outside of Beulah in North Dakota deliver CO₂ to the Weyburn field in Canada. CO₂ is one of eight by products from the plant. The Weyburn field will take up to 2.7 million Sm³/day.

5.4.2 CO₂ pipelines**The Canyon Reef Carriers pipeline**

The pipeline was constructed in 1972, and it's the oldest CO₂ pipeline in West Texas and extends 225 km from McCamey, Texas, to the SACROC field. The diameter is 0.41 m and it has a capacity of 6.8 million Sm³/day.

The Estes Pipeline

It is a 192 km long pipeline with a capacity of 7 million Sm³/day at Denver City and 4.2 million Sm³/day at the Salt Creek terminus.

The Central Basin Pipeline

The line varies in diameter from 0.66 m at Denver City down to 0.41 m near McCamey, Texas. The present capacity of the line is 17 million Sm³/day, but if power were added, the capacity could be increased to 34 million Sm³/day.

The Sheep Mountain pipeline

The pipeline runs 296 km southeast to the Rosebud connection with the Bravo Dome source field. The diameter is 0.51 m and the line has a capacity of 9.3 million Sm³/day. A separate line with a diameter on 0.61 m has a capacity of 13.6 million Sm³/day and runs 360 km south to the Denver City Hub and onward to the Seminole San Andres Unit.

The Bravo Pipeline

The pipeline has a diameter on 0.51 m and runs 351 km to the Denver City Hub and has a capacity of 10.8 million Sm³/day, delivering CO₂ at 125-130 bars. Major delivery points along the line include the Slaughter field in Cochran and Hockley counties, Texas, and the Wasson field in Yoakum County, Texas.

The Val Verde Pipeline

It is a 132 km pipeline in West Texas connecting four gas-treating plants to the Canyon Reef Carriers CO₂ pipeline.

Synfuels Plant pipeline

This is a 325 km long pipeline from the Synfuels Plant to Canada where the Weyburn field gets its CO₂.

West Texas Pipeline and the Llano lateral

The West Texas Pipeline extends from the Denver City Hub 204 km south to Reeves County, Texas. The Llano lateral runs 585 km off the Cortez main line. Both pipelines vary from 0.2 to 0.3 m in diameter and have capacities of approximately 2.8 million Sm³/day.

Cortez Pipeline

The diameter is 0.76 m, and the pipeline runs 808 km from the McElmo Dome and carries CO₂ to the Denver City Hub in West Texas. Cortez has a capacity of 28 to 113 mill Sm³/day with currently 98 % pure CO₂.

McElmo Creek Pipeline

It is a small pipeline with a diameter on 0.2 m and it runs 64 km from the McElmo Dome to Utah. The capacity is approximately 1.7 million Sm³/day.

5.4.3 CO₂ prices

On onshore fields in US and Canada CO₂ flood costs have dropped dramatically since the 1980s. The range of the drop are from more than \$1 million per pattern, to less than half of that. CO₂ prices have also fallen by 40 %. However, flood costs vary depending on field size, pattern spacing, location and existing facilities, but in general, total operating expenses exclusive of CO₂ cost ranges from \$12.6 to \$18.9 pr m³. Compared to a water flood, this represents about 10 % more than an average water flood operating expenses.

An optimal candidate to be CO₂ flooded is a mature water flooded oilfield. The field should be on decline, and located in the neighbored of existing CO₂ infrastructure. If so, and with the other criteria's fulfilled (as mentioned in chapter 5.5), the possibility should be good to extend the field's lifetime and increase the value form the field. Estimated costs for a new CO₂ flood, based on a price of \$113 per Sm³ (18 \$/bbl) show a profit potential of more than \$48 per Sm³. Figure 5.12 shows cost split for an average Permian Basin field with reservoir properties within the criteria required for a miscible CO₂ flood.

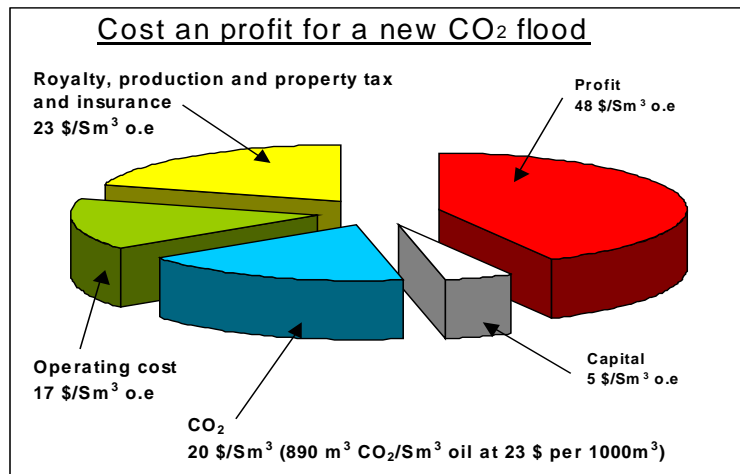


Figure 5.12 – Cost and profit for a new CO₂ flood based on a price of 113 \$/Sm³ [58].

From figure 5.12 one can see that the CO₂ price plays an important role in the total project economy, and a nearby source of CO₂ is a key factor. At the present time [54], the delivery cost for CO₂ varies from 23 \$ per thousand Sm³ from natural domes, 35 \$ per thousand Sm³ from natural gas processing to 106 \$ per thousand Sm³ when it is captured from power plants flue gas.

5.5 US and Canadian CO₂ screening criteria

Since CO₂ injection became economical in US in the early 1970s there are published several of methods to screen CO₂ flood candidates. It is not the intention to go through all those, but table 5.2 gives an overview of criteria's given by various authors.

Reservoir Parameters	Geffen (1973)	Lewin and Associates (1976)	NPC (1976)	McRee (1977)	Iyoho (1978)	OTA (1978)	Caroana (1982)	Tarber and Martin (1983)
Visc. (cp) at res. cond	<3	<12	=<10	<5	<10	=<12	<2	<15
Gravity (°API)	>30	>30	>=27	>35	30-45	27-30	>40	>26
Sor _w	>0,25	>0,25	-	>0,25	>0,25	-	>30	>30
Depth (ft)	-	>3000	>2300	>2000	>2500	2500-7200	<9800 (1)	>2000
Temp (°F)	-	NC (2)	<250	-	-	-	<195	NC
Reservoir pres. (pisa)	>1100	>1500	-	-	-	-	>1200	-
Perm. (md)	-	NC	-	>5	>10	-	>1	NC

(1): Due to temperature constraint, (2): NC: Not a critical factor

Table 5.2 – US CO₂ flood screening criteria's [59].

Methods to screen and carry forwards new candidates have matured over time, and new and updated criteria's are developed. Below is an example of a set of criteria's that may be regarded as an industry standard in US [60].

- Oil gravity, light oil with density <900 kg/m³
- Oil saturation, $S_o > 25\%$,
- Reservoir pressure >76 bar and ideally 14 bar higher than the MMP at the time of CO₂ injection starts
- Porosity >15%
- Permeability >1 md

The screening criteria's mentioned here are meant to be used as a first order of screening, and more detailed studies has to be undertaken before a decision to implement new CO₂ flood projects can be taken.

5.6 Experience gained from CO₂ floods in US and Canada

Experience from a large number of CO₂ flood projects in the Permian Basin, Canada and other regions in US summarizes that there are some major factors that have been important in order to implement profitable CO₂ floods and further growths in existing and new floods:

- CO₂ sources. (When the first CO₂ project started, large quantities of CO₂ was available)
- Fiscal regime. (In US there are tax reduction for EOR projects, but different rules from state to state)
- Infrastructure (New pipelines was rapidly developed to feed CO₂ into areas with mature oil fields)
- Low CO₂ and transportation costs. (The cost for delivered CO₂ costs has dropped approximately 40 % since the 1980s)
- Screening methods to reduce risks. (CO₂ Companies has developed proven tools to help to select the best CO₂ flood candidates)
- Flood design. (New technology helps to get the most production from the least CO₂, while preventing breakthrough and other reservoir problems)
- Less expensive equipment. (Experience shows that the same equipment used for water flooding can generally be used for CO₂ flooding)
- New areas with mature oil fields for CO₂ EOR keeps focus on improvement.
- Large quantities of CO₂ sources still available from natural domes and gas processing plants.

5.7 Discussing

US followed by Canada and to some degree also Turkey, Trinidad, Hungary and Brazil has demonstrated that enhanced oil recovery from CO₂ floods is proven technology, and that most of the mature oil fields facing the end of production can extend their lifetime and increase their values by implementing tertiary CO₂ floods. US are the leading country in CO₂ EOR, and it is expected that new floods in Wyoming, Kansas and California will increase the EOR production tremendously. Great focus on emission of greenhouse gases and demand for energy seems to be the driving force in accelerating the implementation of new CO₂ floods in these areas.

The success from US and Canadian CO₂ floods and the growing focus on environment issues can be the releasing factor for investigating and implementing CO₂ floods on mature oil fields

on the Norwegian Continental Shelf. However, it is not straightforward to extrapolate the experience gained from existing CO₂ floods world wide to North Sea conditions.

North Sea oil fields will most likely be exposed to different technical challenges and operating costs than current CO₂ floods, but beside of this, the mature North Sea oil fields should easily pas the criteria's used for US and Canadian projects. In many cases North Sea oil fields will fit those criteria's more favourable than many, or most, of the US and Canadian onshore oil fields. Looking at the disadvantages, availability of CO₂ at an acceptable price seams to be one of the major obstacles. Another area of concern is the huge and complex offshore installations and the investments needed to upgrade the installations in response to production of the injected CO₂ and the corrosive environment this creates.

To conclude, experiences gained in existing CO₂ floods in US and Canada are not directly comparable to EOR projects on mature North Sea oil fields. But it indicates that there is a large EOR potential, and technology is available to be used careless of types of reservoirs. The main question is how much more oil can be extracted, and what are the main success criteria's and the most important reservoir parameters to be used in a brooder estimation of the total technologic EOR potential. A closer look into the studies done on North Sea oil fields will hopefully give a better answer to this.

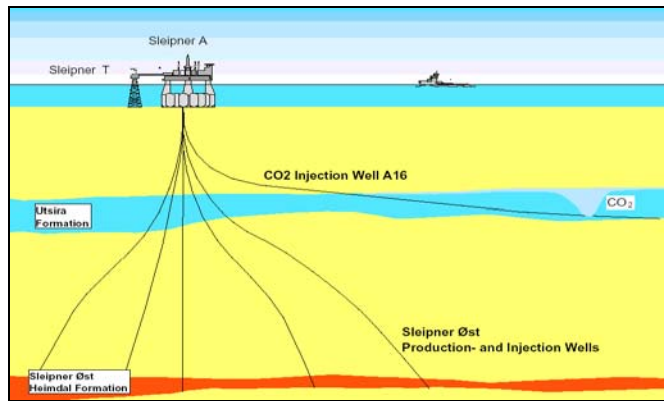
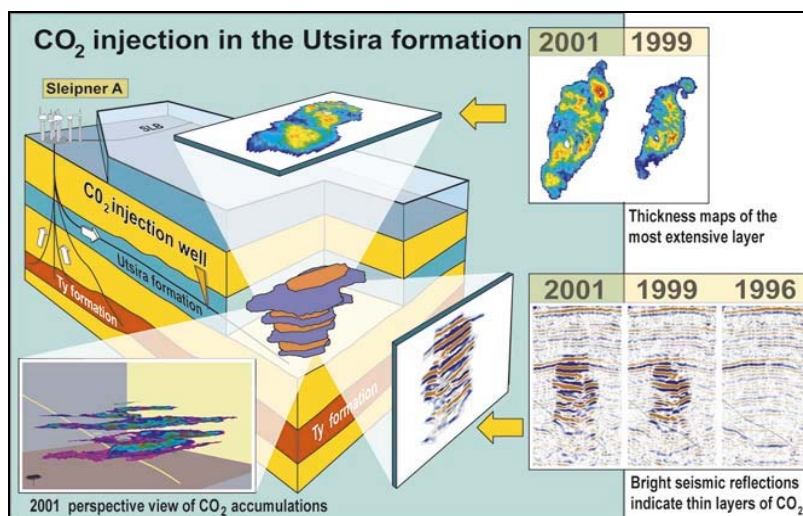


Figure 6.2 – Schematically overview of the Sleipner CO₂ injection [62].

The Saline Aquifer CO₂ storage Project (SACS Project) [63] was initiated in 1998, and data collection and interpretations is still ongoing. It is a multidisciplinary project involving reservoir mapping, rock and fluid geochemical evaluation, reservoir water flow and CO₂ brine mixing implication. The EU THERMIE programme together with a wide spectre of participating companies and institutions are funding the project.

The SACS Final Technical Report, February 2000 [61] gives a short summary of the work carried out during the first project period. One important message from the SACS Project is that the measured behaviour of CO₂ compares to the simulated behaviour. Figure 6.2 gives an impression of the movement of CO₂ over time from a seismic interpreted picture. According to Lindeberg, Zweigel, Bergmo, Ghaderi and Lothe [64] the measured data has a relatively good match to the simulations. The first survey was completed in September 1999 when the CO₂ bubble around the injection well was large enough, and in such concentrations, that it was possible to monitor it by a 4D “time laps” seismic survey.

Another issue of concern was the injectivity of CO₂ and handling of equipment as compressors, pumps, and separation units were hydrate problems could occur. But after some problems in the beginning, it seems to be under control. A production shut down on Sleipner will have great impact on the field economy because of the high daily delivery of sale gas.



Figures 6.2 - Movement of CO₂ over time from a seismic interpreted data [65].

The missing link in this project with respect to EOR is the compositional effects between CO₂ and hydrocarbons and gravity segregation. Gravity segregation of CO₂ when it flows through the reservoir is an important factor with respect to sweep efficiency and oil recovery. The Utsira formation is not an oil-bearing reservoir, and does not give any information about these effects in that respect.

6.2 The Forties field

The Forties field is mentioned in this thesis because it is one of few mature offshore oilfields in the North Sea where CO₂ injection has been studied as an EOR alternative [66]. When this was written, BP, the major owner of the field is planning to sell its 96.14 % stake in the field to a US independent oil and gas company, Apache, for 1.3 billion US dollars. How this change in ownership will affect the CO₂ EOR project is not known.

The Forties field is a giant offshore oil field in the UK sector of the North Sea, located in the South Viking Graben. The field was discovered in 1970, and has been in production since November 1975. The field reached its peak production in 1978, approximately 79500 Sm³/day. At the present time the production is 7950 Sm³/day with water cut approaching 90 %. The oil is transported onshore to Cruden Bay through a 91 cm pipeline. There is no gas export system, and associated gas has to be flared or used to power generation. Today the entire gas production is utilised for power generation.

The producing reservoir is a turbidite sandstone sequence from Upper Paleocene. Average depth is approximately 2130 metres subsea. The reservoir consists of four main channel sand complexes, Alpha, Bravo, Echo and Charlie. The Charlie sand is isolated from the other channels. The Main Sand reservoir is composed mostly of sandy sediment deposited as a submarine fan, while much of the separate Charlie Sand accumulated within feeder channels of sand flowing across the sea floor. Paleocene turbidite sandstones are not widespread on the NCS, but exist in the Frigg and Heimdal area, Cod, Balder, Sleipner and Grane oil and gas fields.

Seawater injection is used for pressure support and sweep. STOIP at discovery was 670 million Sm³. Cumulative production to date has been about 59 % of STOIP. Remaining reserves are currently about 19 million Sm³, giving an expected ultimate recovery factor of approximately 62 %.

The bulk of the reservoir has been well swept by water and the remaining oil exists at low saturation (15 – 30 %) with low mobility. In addition pockets of bypassed high saturation oil exist where the formation has been shielded by shale or in pockets at the top of the formation.

Figure 6.3 shows the three different EOR targets where oil is not properly swept by water. The targets are attic oil, remaining oil under shale and intermediate saturations.

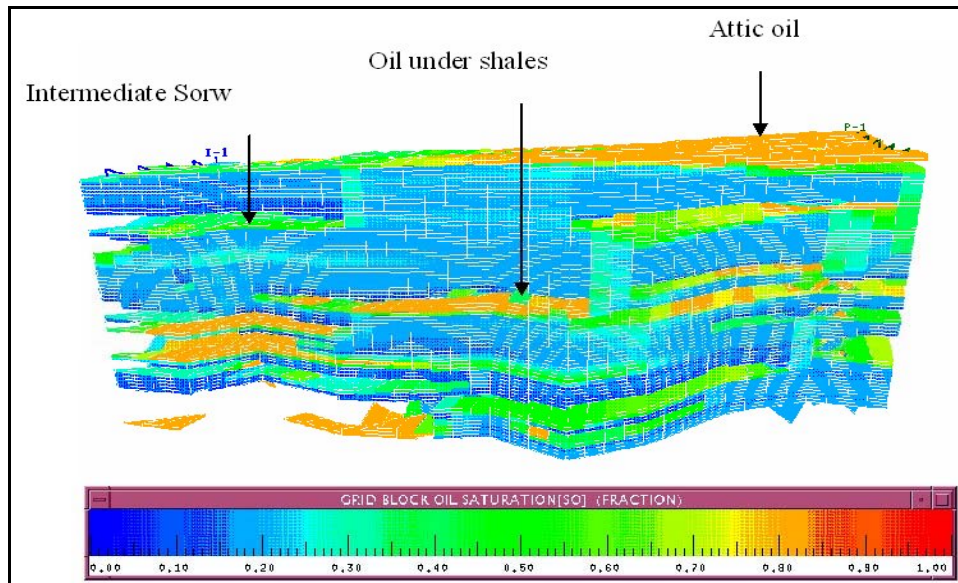


Figure 6.3 – Cross section of the reservoir and oil saturation [67].

Forties field data:

Area:	91 km ²
Water depth:	128 m
STOIIP:	670 million Sm ³
Reservoir depth:	213 m subsea (average)
Reservoir thickness:	170 m (average)
Reservoir pressure:	194 bar (current pressure)
Reservoir temperature:	96 °C
Oil density:	840 kg/m ³
GOR:	53 Sm ³ /m ³
Sorw:	0.15 – 0.30

6.2.1 Forties CO₂ EOR project

With resources of 250 million Sm³ remaining in the reservoir after current production plans, great efforts have been done to look at potential EOR projects. A screening resulted with a potential to improve the recovery factor up to 10 % with EOR contributing half of the total potential. To evaluate the EOR potential, studies were performed in four areas:

- Miscibility and fluid properties
- Small-scale displacement efficiency
- Reservoir sweep
- Implications for surface facilities

After an evaluation of hydrocarbon gas, CO₂ and air as possible injection gases, CO₂ was chosen as the optimal EOR method. Hydrocarbon gas had to be enriched with NGL to achieve miscibility, and was rejected because of the high cost. The key requirement for modelling the large changes in fluid compositions and hence fluid properties in such a process is to be able to model the near critical region of the thermodynamic diagram. An Equation of State was developed for this purpose. To constrain the EOS, swelling tests and multiple contact tests were performed. Basic data from a swelling test provide liquid saturations as a function of pressure for a range of injected gas mole fractions. Cross plotting the data as lines of constant liquid quality shows convergence at the critical point at a CO₂ mole fraction just over 0.7.

A set of slim tube displacements was performed to validate the EOS. The MMP for pure CO₂ was 187 bar, approximately 21 bar below current reservoir pressure.

Core scale displacement:

To perform the test, a composite core was constructed by butting together core plugs (7.5 cm long by 3.8 cm diameter) cut from Forties core samples. The core was filled with representative reservoir oil and swept by injected CO₂ under reservoir conditions in order to verify the displacement efficiency. An injection gas comprising 90% CO₂ and 10% methane was used to mimic performance after breakthrough of CO₂ when produced gas including hydrocarbons was blended into the injection stream. An initial waterflood was performed to create the initial saturation and distribution of oil found in well swept parts of the reservoir. This was followed by a simulated WAG flood co-injecting water and the CO₂/methane mixture in a 1: 1 ratio. At the end of the initial waterflood the average oil saturation in the core was 0.27, and in consistent with the range of field values observed. After injection of 19 PV of CO₂/methane, the average oil saturation had been reduced to less than 10 % confirming that the displacement mechanism was effective at the core scale.

Reservoir simulations:

The simulation was based on a full field model scaled up from a single area model. The upscale methodology used here was adopted from a model developed by Arco. The same model has previous been successfully used on Prudhoe Bay and Kuparuk oilfields in Alaska. To deal with the uncertainties due to scaling up from a relatively small model to a large full field model several recovery curves was generated corresponding to different areas of the reservoir. These curves were then used in the scaling up tool in order to limit the uncertainties. An extensive review of uncertainties in the model inputs was undertaken to enable optimisation of the displacement. Predicted incremental reserves ranged from 16 million Sm³ for an injection rate of 2 million tonnes CO₂/year rising to 32 million Sm³ for an injection rate of 4 million tonnes/year.

Conclusions:

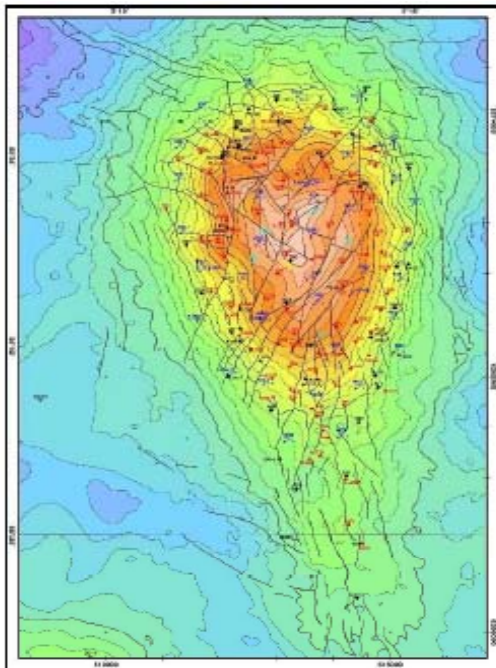
- CO₂ EOR is considered to be the best option due to high additional oil recovery.
- CO₂ EOR can give up to 4,7 % of STOIP by inject 4 million tonnes CO₂/year.
- Miscibility and core flood studies indicates that up to 15 % methane can be tolerated in the injected stream before recovery is adversely affected.
- 40 – 80 million tonnes of CO₂ can be stored in the subsurface over a twenty-year period.
- Some significant obstacles to implementation were identified:
 - Lack of low cost CO₂
 - Surface facilities has to be modified
 - Fiscal regime (lower marginal tax rate)

6.3 The Ekofisk field

Ekofisk was the first producing oilfield on the NCS. The production started in 1971 and according to current prognoses, the field will produce at least until 2028, which is the date when the license period expires. The field was produced with primary depletion and to some degree gas injection (produced gas in excess of contract quantities) until 1987 when water injection started. The good response from the water injection resulted in a field wide expansion of water injection. Today the injection capacity is above 130000 m³/day. Reservoir compaction and seabed subsidence required new installations due to safety concerns, and new process and transportation facilities were commissioned in 1998. Average oil production

today is 77000 Sm³/day. According to the current production plan the recovery is expected to be about 45 % of STOIIP. That means that there is large volume of remaining oil left in the reservoir to be produced by tertiary EOR methods.

Ekofisk is the largest oilfield in production on the NCS with respect to oil in place. Today there are 87 oil wells and 37 injecting wells in operation. Figure 6.4 gives an impression of the field size, and shows the top structure map for the Ekofisk field.



Ekofisk key data:

Recourses: 1049 million Sm³ oil in place
 Reserves: 468 million Sm³ oil (preset estimate)
 Recovery: 45 % of STOIIP (present estimate)
 Reservoir: Chalk, Ekofisk and Tor formations

of Danian/Maastrichtian age
 Height: 300 m +/-
 Oil density: 0,840 kg/Sm³
 Oil viscosity: 0,35 cp
 Bo: 1.78 Sm³/m³
 Porosity: 30 % +/-
 Permeability: 1-100 md
 Pressure: 497 bar (initial)
 Temperature: 131 °C

Figure 6.4 - Top structure map for Ekofisk field [68].

6.3.1 Ekofisk EOR screening

Since the Ekofisk oil field has a large STOIIP, 1049 million Sm³, and in the same time a relatively low oil recovery, the field operator has high focus on how to increase the recovery. In order to meet those challenges, the operator has done a screening study where five different EOR methods were investigated [68].

6.3.2 Ekofisk CO₂ WAG study

The CO₂ WAG was estimated to be the second best alternative among the five alternatives, but currently rejected because of expected price and availability of CO₂ [69]. The calculated potential of 5.6 % of STOIIP represents almost 60 million Sm³ of additional oil from the field. However, even if CO₂ could be available at a reasonable price there are still some uncertainties that have to be investigated. The most precarious concerns are dissolution and compaction of the chalk, and the uncertainties about how the injected CO₂ will be able to contact residual oil in the chalk matrix. CO₂-oil PVT data from the field are limited, and has to be further investigated. Another matter of concern is possible forming of hydrates in the cold water flooded area. A single well WAG pilot test in 1996 resulted in a rapidly drop of gas injectivity (to zero after a few hours). This was in a well that had injected a total of 7 millions m³ water over a 5 years period at that time. The reason for this was most probable

hydrate formation. Crestal gas injection has been ongoing since 1975 without any major problems.

Modelling:

A compositional simulator was used to model CO₂ injection phase behaviour and the ability of the injection gas to mobilize and recover incremental oil. To generate the EOR forecast a representative sector model from the central water flood area was selected to simulate the CO₂ EOR process. The model was build up of a 7x7x14 five-spot configuration and included representative reservoir layers, reservoir properties, well spacing and representative (available) fluid data. Residual oil saturation under water/oil displacement was 0.30 and 0.25 under the gas/oil displacement. The simulation model was based on a single porosity model with effective properties and viscous displacement characteristics tuned to match the history matched full field model.

The main result is based on a full field model, scaled of forecasts from the sector model. This was done for all the EOR alternatives, and without optimisation performed for the individual processes. Further, the WAG cycles and operating schedules were adjusted to existing facilities capacity limits. The CO₂ WAG was premised to start early 2004 and last for 13 years, followed by a blow down period from 2017 to 2028. All 30 current water injection wells were converted to WAG services:

- 10 wells for CO₂ injection at a 6 month schedule
- Injection capacity, 9.9 million Sm³ CO₂ per day at 410 bar wellhead pressure
- 20 wells for water injection
- Water injection capacity, 130000 m³/day

One of the key issues to estimate the oil recovery from a CO₂ flood is the ability of CO₂ to contact and mobilize water flooded residual oil in the fractured chalk. One of the premises in this process performance is that injected gas will be able to move into the chalk matrix to contact and viscously displace water flooded residual oil. This modelling premise is based on performance of the imbibitions/viscous displacement of oil by water under current water flood operations as represented in the current full-field Ekofisk model.

Outstanding issues:

There are some major issues that have to be investigated before further work or field pilot tests can be done.

- CO₂-oil PVT data
- The impact of CO₂ on compaction, sea bed subsidence and well failure
- Reaction of CO₂-rich injection water with calcium carbonate in the rock matrix (may consume fractions of the CO₂ injected, and then reduce the effect of the CO₂ slug)
- Slimtube MMP estimations

6.4. The Brage field

The Brage oil field is located in the Oseberg area in the northern part of the North Sea. The field was discovered in 1980 and oil production started in 1993. The field produces from reservoirs in the lower part of the Brent group, the Dunlin group (Intra Dunlin Sand) and the Statfjord formation. Production from the Statfjord formation started in 1997. The Statfjord formation has a gas cap and a higher content of associated gas than the other reservoirs. The production strategy for the Brent group and the Dunlin group is to maintain the reservoir

pressure by help of water injection. Brage has a STOIP of 140 million Sm³, with the biggest contribution from the Fensfjord reservoir. A field map is shown in figure 6.5.

The Statfjord formation:

Statfjord is a solid sandstone reservoir with some nodular calcite and siltstone. The permeability varies from 500 md to 2 D. The reservoir consists of two isolated units, Statfjord South and Statfjord North. The current production strategy is based on voidage replacement.

The Fensfjord formation:

Fensfjord is a sand-, siltstone reservoir with some calcite cemented layers and high permeable stringers. The permeability varies from 10 md to 6 D. Most of the time the drive mechanism has been WAG injection. Currently the pressure maintenance comes from water and gas injection, but not as a WAG schedule. In addition, solution gas drive provides some additional recovery mechanisms.

The Sognefjord formation:

Sognefjord is a layered sandstone-, siltstone reservoir of Kimmeridgian and Oxfordian age with a 16-17 m oil column. The permeability varies from 20 md to 2 D. The reservoir is produced by pressure depletion from a single horizontal well with high water cut and high gas oil ratio.

Since the production started in 1993 the field has produced 41 million Sm³ of oil (referees to end of 2002). The estimated reserves to be produced are in the order of 45 million Sm³, and the field is in the tail end production phase. Some additional resources are proven to increase the STOIP from 140 to 150 million Sm³, but the recovery from the additional resources is estimated to be low. All together, the current production plan will give a total recovery of just above 30 %. Therefore, the operator and owners are looking at alternatives to increase the oil production. CO₂ injection as a tertiary drive mechanism is under evaluation.

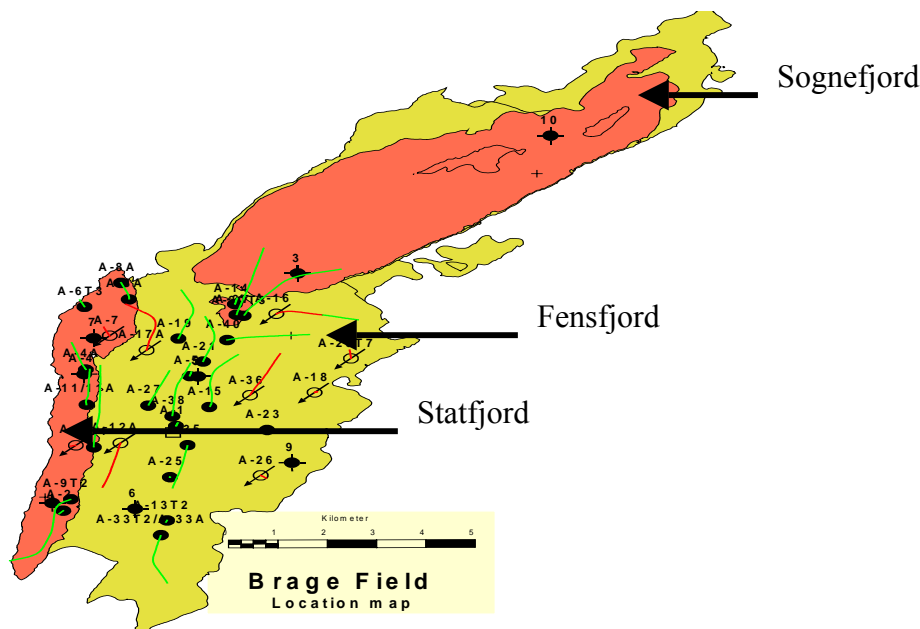


Figure 6.5 – Brage map [70].

6.4.1 Brage Statfjord South CO₂ WAG injection study

This is an update of a study done by the operator in 2000, where additional recovery from CO₂ injection was estimated to give about 3 millions Sm³ extra oil from the Statfjord reservoir, about 6 % of the reference STOIP. In 2002 two new studies were done, but now just on one the southern part of the Statfjord reservoir. The first study was a screening type where the Stone Steady State model was used. The additional oil recovery was estimated to 4.4 % of the STOIP involved. This was more pessimistic than the results from the 2000 study, and a compositional simulation study was performed. The result from this study gave respectively 3.3 and 5.1 % of the STOIP with a WAG ratio of 1:1 and 3:1. Scaling up the result from the simulation study to include the whole Statfjord reservoir and the Fensfjord reservoir, one can have an additional oil recovery in range of 6 million Sm³ from the Brage field. The Sognefjord reservoir is not regarded as a candidate to be CO₂ flooded because of lack of pressure support. The result of the study was presented at the SPE Drilling, Completion and Reservoir Management Seminar in Bergen 1 April 2003 [70].

6.5. The Gullfaks field

Gullfaks is located in the Tampen area in the northern part of the North Sea. The field was developed with three Condep concrete gravity base structures. In addition to processing its own oil and gas, production from adjacent fields are tied in and processed. The field was discovered in 1978, and production started in 1986. The STOIP is about 588 millions Sm³ with an estimated recovery at 335 million Sm³, which gives an average recovery of 57 %. Today, nearly 90 % of the reserves are produced, and the operator has focus on incremental production from the field. Different EOR methods are investigated, and CO₂ injection (CO₂ WAG) seems to be the most promising.

Gullfaks produces from Brent, Cook, Lunde and Statfjord formations. The main reservoir is Brent. The reservoir is relatively shallow at a depth of 1800 to 2200 m and is made up of several angled fault blocks. The field is complicated to produce due to the many faults. The main drive mechanism is primarily pressure maintenance from water injection, but there is also some gas injection (and WAG). Some fault segments are produced with pressure depletion because they are too small to make it profitable to drill injection wells.

6.5.1 Gullfaks Brent CO₂ WAG study

Current studies indicate that additional recovery from CO₂ injection can give from 17 to 34 million Sm³ of oil dependent of number of injection wells. This represents 3.9 to 7.7 % of the STOIP involved. Even higher recovery is possible. The studies done so far is limited to the Brent reservoir, but both Cook and Statfjord are regarded to have better reservoir conditions to CO₂ flooding than the Brent reservoir. That means that additional recovery from the Gullfaks field can be in excess of 8 % of the STOIP from those reservoirs.

Among the CO₂ studies done on North Sea oil fields, the Gullfaks study may be regarded as the most mature, and different research institutions and consultants are used for quality assurance and to assist in modelling and simulations. The reservoir simulation is to some degree similar to the methods used on the Forties study, and based on experiences from Prudhoe of Bay. Full field models on E100 (black oil) and sector models E300 (compositional) are transformed into a streamline model, FrontSim, and simulator-running time are reduced to minutes or hours. By doing this, a wider range of scenarios can be investigated. Figure 6.6 shows schematically how a traditional reservoir model is transformed to the streamline model, FrontSim, and how to present the saturation. It is expected that a decision to go further with the CO₂ WAG project will be taken later this year. Figure 6.7 shows schematically a model of the EOR simulation approach. The result of the study done so

far was presented at the SPE Drilling, Completion and Reservoir Management Seminar in Bergen 1 April 2003 [71].

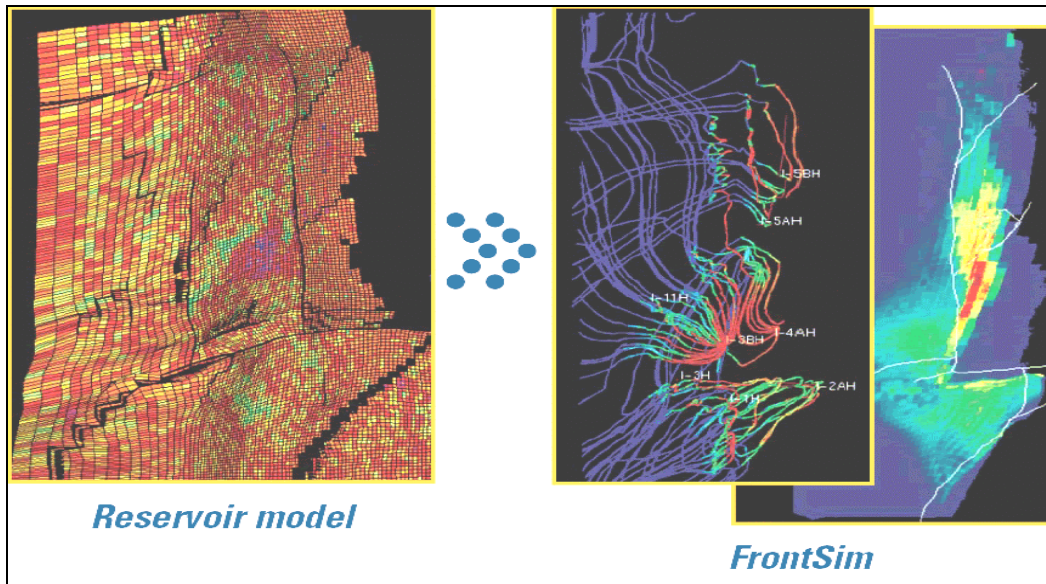


Figure 6.6 – FrontSim output [72].

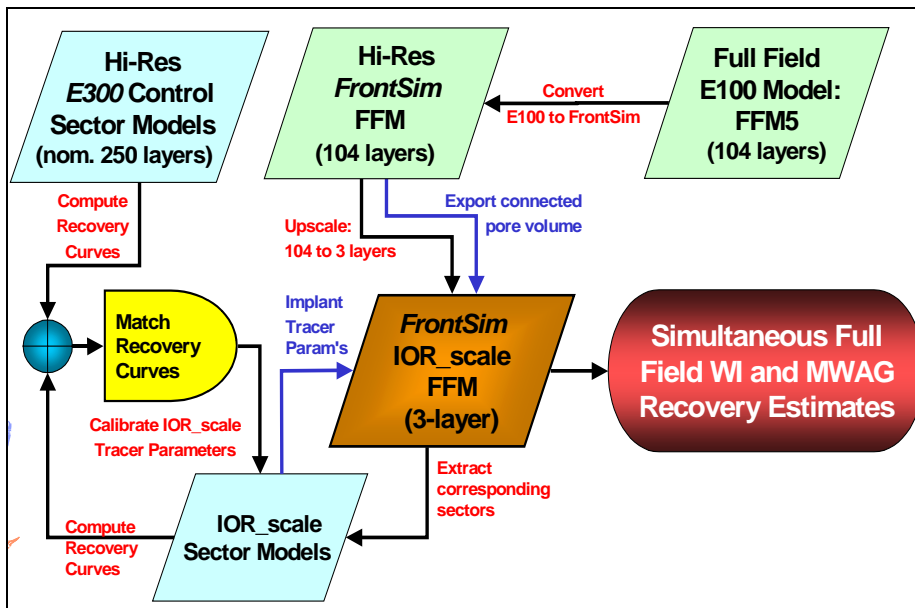


Figure 6.7 – Gullfaks EOR model [71].

6.6 Summary and discussion of the North Sea CO₂ studies

Main results:

Gullfaks:	3,9 – 7,7 % of STOIP	(dependent on number of wells)
Brage:	3,1 – 5,1 % of STOIP	(dependent on WAG ratio)
Forties:	4,7 % of STOIP	(based on 4 million tonnes CO ₂ /year)
Ekofisk:	5.6 % of STOIP	(based on 30 wells, 10 WAG and 20 WI)

Sleipner:

Sleipner is not a candidate to CO₂ EOR, but it is the only offshore field with experience in injection of CO₂. The CO₂ is injected into the Utsira formation, a large saline aquifer reservoir. There is minor production from the reservoir (some water production for injection purposes), and dynamic flow information through the reservoir is difficult to predict, likewise information on oil mobilization due to the lack of reservoir oil. However, valuable experience is gained from an operational point of view. Simulations on movement of CO₂ shows good match to the observation from seismic interpretations.

Forties:

The study indicates that CO₂ EOR can be up to 4.7 % of STOIP depending on the amount of CO₂ injected. Compared to the low residual oil saturation and low oil mobility, this is a promising result with respect to similar EOR project on NCS oil fields. Forties produce from turbidite sandstones from Paelocene age, which is not common on NCS oil fields except the few mentioned in chapter 6.2. However, the reservoir quality for the Forties field should not be very different from an average NCS sandstones reservoirs. Forties is a UK oilfield, and thereby it is difficult to get access to sensitive field data, but together with results and data from Ekofisk, Gullfaks and Brage it contributes with valuable data in order to establish a method to estimate the NCS CO₂ EOR potential.

Ekofisk:

There is some lack of CO₂-oil PVT data, and industry experience is to some extent used in the computational reservoir simulation. Those are the most critical parameters from a simulation point of view, and have to be further investigated. However, worldwide experience from CO₂ floods and studies indicates that recovery is possible over a wide range of fluid properties. In addition there is a major lack of knowledge in how CO₂ reacts with the chalk under reservoir conditions, and thereby limits the extraction of hydrocarbons over flooded portions of the reservoir. Subsidence is also a major concern and has to be properly investigated before full scale CO₂ injection can be implemented. The current estimated CO₂ EOR from Ekofisk is about 5.6 % of STOIP. The study gives no clear indication of critical factors that can be used in a comparison with other similar reservoirs in Eldfisk, Hod, Tor and Valhall. However, by combining the data available it should give an indication on possible additional recovery from the other chalk fields.

Brage:

The study done by using the Stone Steady State model resulted in 4.4 % additional oil recovery of the reference volume involved. This was far less than the 2000 study showed, and a compositional study was performed. This study gave a result up to 5.1 % recovery. By scaling up the latest result from the compositional simulation, an increased recovery of 6

million Sm³ of oil is estimated by including the Statfjord and Fensfjord reservoirs. The study is premature, and slim tube experiments, as well as full field simulations has to be further investigated. However, the results give a good indication that Brage is a candidate to CO₂ injection. Brage is one of few fields where injection should start as soon as possible.

Gullfaks:

The method used is to some degree similar to the Forties simulation study. The study is matured to the point where both compositional simulations and slim tube experiments have been carried out. Detailed studies are still ongoing both on reservoir, facilities, transport and CO₂ sources. The goal is to reach a level where the decision to go further with the CO₂ project can be taken. So far, the reservoir study is limited to the Brent reservoir, which is the main oil-producing reservoir on Gullfaks. The simulated recovery is about 7.7 % of the Brent STOIP. This is the maximum case so far, and requires high well density. The Statfjord and Cook reservoirs are regarded to be candidates for CO₂ WAG flooding as well as the Brent, and from these reservoirs even higher recovery is possible.

Conclusions:

From CO₂ EOR studies done on North Sea oilfields so far it should be possible to give an answer on the range of additional recovery one can expect from CO₂ floods. The span from roughly 4 to 8 % of STOIP is however below the industry experience from US CO₂ projects, which stands for the majority of worldwide CO₂ projects. Compared to the number of fields and reservoirs that are regarded as possible candidates to CO₂ injection, the results from these 4 studies does not give enough information itself, but all together they give a reasonable basis for further use in the estimation of the total CO₂ EOR potential. However, further studies and experiments are required. The Gullfaks study is regarded as the most mature among the studies done so far, and that will also be reflected in the results from the estimation and method used in this thesis.

7. SCREENING OF CANDIDATES FOR TERTIARY CO₂ FLOODS

Current candidates are mature oil fields that have reached a stage in their production life where CO₂ would be a natural choice as the reservoirs ideally should be at an advanced stage of water flooding. The main reason for this is that most of the mobile oil has been produced, and the remaining volume of oil is residual oil that cannot be produced without implementing EOR techniques.

The main objective is to estimate the total EOR volume from CO₂ floods in oil fields currently in production on the Norwegian Continental Shelf. It could have been possible, however, to give estimations by comprising candidates for secondary CO₂ floods, but as long as water injection or re-injection of produced gas is an alternative, its not likely that CO₂ will be used as secondary drive mechanisms.

The oil fields on the NCS vary in maturity from fields that recently started production to fields approaching the end of their lifetime. Most of the oil production, however, still comes from mature giants as Stratford, Gullfaks and Ekofisk. A plot of each field, showing production history and prognoses, is shown in the enclosure. Since oil prognoses on field level are confidential company data, said enclosure is not available to the public.

Figure 7.1 gives an overview of the candidates and shows the produced reserves, remaining reserves and the remaining resources left behind after current production plans (the EOR target). These fields have about 8000 millions Sm³ of STOIIP. The recovery factor varies from 15 to 65 %, averaging at 44. The goal of the authorities is to recover 50 % of the oil in place, on average. This goal may be too optimistic, and in later years the recovery factor has seemed to flatten out. Not even 44 % of recovery can be reached without new initiatives from the field owners. Implementation of CO₂ injection is an option worth considering in this respect.

Table 7.1 summarizes the oil fields and reservoirs dealt with in this thesis. It shows the volumes in place and the recovery mechanisms for each oilfield. The volumes are oil, NGL, associated gas and gas cap (initially free gas).

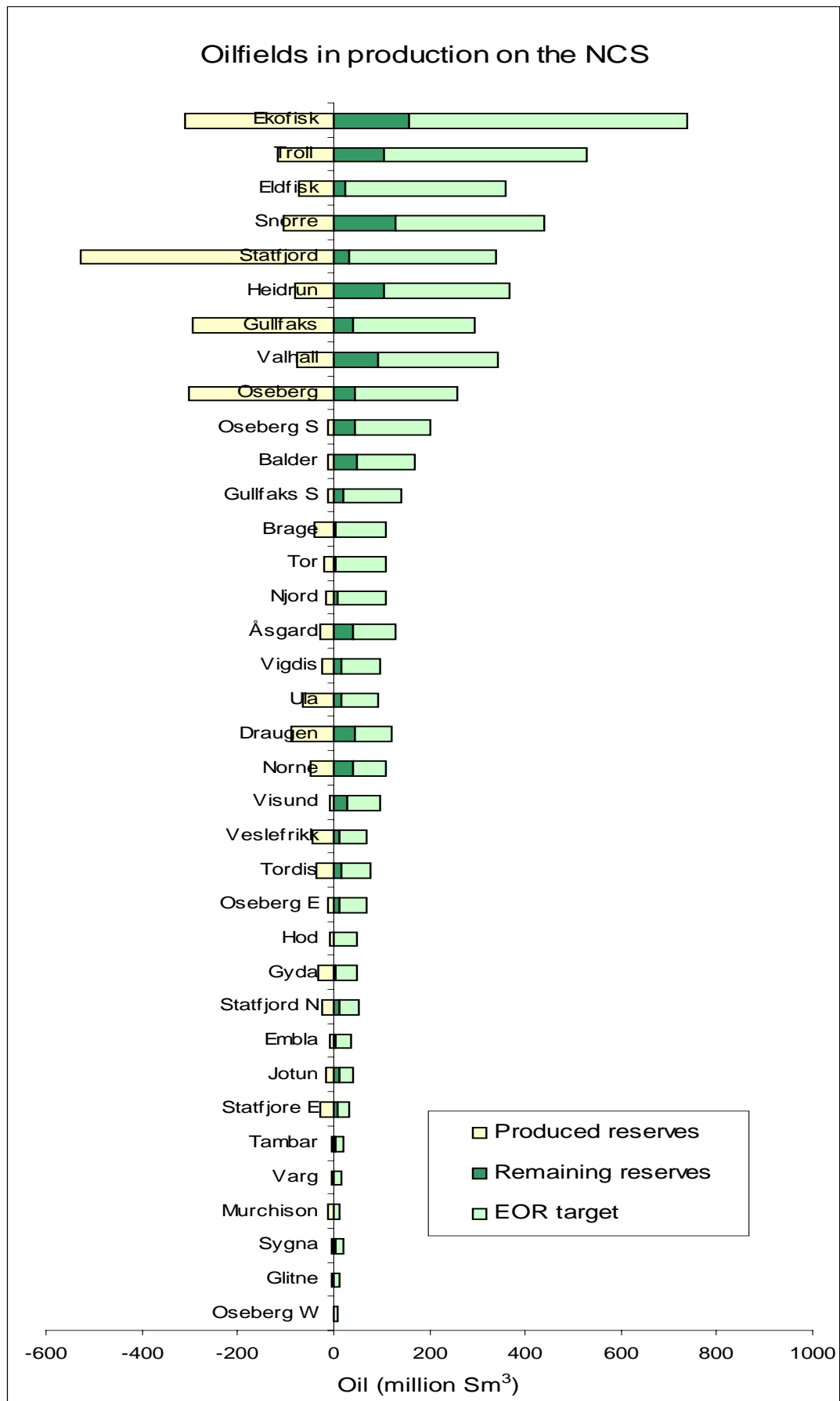


Figure 7.1 – Illustration of the EOR target for oilfields currently in production on the NCS

Oilfields	Reservoirs	Volume in place				Drive-Mechanisms			
		Oil	NGL	Gas	G. cap	WI	GI	WAG	PD
		10 ⁶ Sm ³	10 ⁶ Sm ³	10 ⁹ Sm ³	10 ⁹ Sm ³				
BALDER	Balder	76.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	x			
	Balder E4	13.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	x			
	Balder E5	12.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	x			
	Forseti	25.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	x			
	Ringhorn Jurassic	33.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	x			
	Ringhorn "prospector"	19.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	x			
BRAGE	Fensfjord	79.2	4.0	7.4	0.0	x		x	
	Sognefjord	18.3	3.1	2.2	3.5				x
	Statfjord	45.3	1.5	2.7	0.0	x			
DRAUGEN	Garn	31.7	0.0	1.8	0.0	x			
	Rogn	178.2	0.0	9.9	0.0	x			
EKOFISK	Ekofisk og Tor	1049.0	0.0	277.9	0.0	x	x		
ELDFISK	Ekofisk og Tor	428.6	0.0	107.4	0.0	x			
EMBLA	Dev. og Perm.	43.4	0.0	15.1	0.0				x
GLITNE	Glitne, Heimdal Fm.	14.6	0.0	0.8	0.0	x			
GULLFAKS	Brent u/GFVest	441.0	0.0	42.7	0.0	x	x	x	
	Cook	45.0	0.0	4.5	0.0	x		x	
	Gullfaks Vest inkl. Shetland	6.9	0.0	0.8	0.0	x			
	Lunde	3.1	0.0	0.5	0.0				x
	Statfjord inkl. Krans, ++	92.0	0.0	13.4	0.0	x	x		
GULLFAKS SØR	GF Sør Brent	39.9	20.8	8.8	75.5		x		
	GF Sør Statfjord	35.7	2.7	6.6	9.7				x
	Gullveig Brent	7.0	2.4	1.9	2.1				x
	Rimfaks Brent	23.9	14.1	7.8	15.5		x		
	Rimfaks Statfjord	10.8	2.9	2.9	3.9		x		
GYDA	Gyda Jurassic	63.9	3.4	12.5	0.0	x			
	Gyda South	14.0	1.4	7.5	0.0	x			
HEIDRUN	HEIDRUN (gas total)		9.6	37.3	56.1				
	Fangst	155.0			yes	x	x		
	Tilje	123.0			yes	x			
	Åre	162.0			yes	x			
	Heidrun Nord	8.0	0.2	0.5	1.0	x			
HOD	Hod	14.5	0.0	2.4	0.0				x
	Tor/Ekofisk	39.8	0.0	5.8	0.0				x
JOTUN	Elli	34.8	0.0	1.2	0.0	x			
	Elli South	4.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	x			
	Tau	18.6	0.0	1.7	0.4	x			
NJORD	Ile East/Central	7.5	0.7	2.4	4.4		x		
	Ile North	4.0	0.0	1.7	1.9				x
	Tilje East/Central	81.8	0.0	16.4	4.0		x		
	Tilje North	30.7	0.0	6.9	0.0				x
NORNE	Norne	157.0	1.8	18.3	11.5	x	x		
OSEBERG	Ness	95.9	0.0	13.3	16.8		x		
	ORELN2	376.8	0.0	53.2	51.1	x	x		
	Tarbert	87.9	0.0	12.1	5.9	x	x		
OSEBERG SØR	C	25.1	0.0	3.3	0.0	x			
	G Øst	23.1	0.0	4.3	2.3	x			
	K Vest	13.2	0.0	2.8	0.1	x			

	K Øst	3.3	0.0	0.7	0.0	x			
	Omega Nord	64.0	0.0	9.0	2.2	x	x		
	Omega Sør	48.0	0.0	6.7	0.5	x			
OSEBERG VEST	Gamma Nord	10.7	0.0	1.6	9.4				x
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sadel Nord Ness	1.3	0.0	0.1	0.0				x
	Beta Sadel Nord Ore	2.0	0.0	0.2	0.0				x
	Beta Sadel Nord Tarb.+Heather	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0		x		
	Beta Sadel LOSST	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0		x		
	Beta Sadel Ness	10.0	0.0	0.9	0.0		x		
	Beta Sadel ORE	25.7	0.0	2.2	0.0	x	x		
	Beta Sadel Tarbert+Heather	2.7	0.0	0.2	0.0				
	Beta Sør LOSST	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0				
	Beta Sør Ness	13.3	0.0	1.1	0.0	x			
	Beta Sør ORE	18.5	0.0	1.6	0.0	x			
	Beta Sør Tarbert+Heather	5.4	0.0	0.5	0.0				
SNORRE	Snorre Syd, Statfjord/Lunde	399.0	0.0	43.1	0.0	x		x	
	Snorre B, Statfjord/Lunde	143.0	0.0	18.3	0.0			x	
STATFJORD	Brent	665.0	0.0	121.8	0.0	x	x		
	Dunlin	18.4	0.0	2.7	0.0	x			
	Statfjord	179.2	0.0	28.0	0.0	x	x		
STATFJORD NORD	Brent og Munin	77.1	0.0	5.8	0.0	x			
STATFJORD ØST	Brent	59.7	0.0	8.5	0.0	x			
SYGNA	Brent	24.1	0.0	1.5	0.0	x			
TAMBAR	Gyda Jurassic	21.9	1.1	5.1	0.0				x
TOR	Ekofisk og Tor	129.9	0.0	34.4	0.0	x			
TORDIS	Tordis	68.5	0.0	7.1	0.0	x			
	Tordis Sør Øst (STUJ)	5.1	0.0	0.5	0.0	x			
	Tordis Øst	14.8	0.0	1.5	0.0	x			
	Borg	27.7	0.0	3.8	0.0	x			
TROLL II	Gassprovinsen	444.0	0.0	0.0	0.0				x
	Mellomområdet	19.0	0.0	0.0	0.0				x
	Oljeprovinsen	155.0	0.0	0.0	0.0				x
	Troll Vest Fensfjord	26.5	0.0	0.0	0.0				x
ULA	Ula Jurassic	155.0	0.0	17.0	0.0	x			
VALHALL	Hod	114.0	0.0	29.7	0.0				x
	Tor	302.0	0.0	56.2	0.0				x
VARG	Varg	20.4	0.0	2.5	0.0		x		
VESLEFRIKK	VESLEFRIKK (gas total)		1.1	16.3	1.1				
	Brent/IDS	106.9			no	x		x	
	Statfjord	5.7			yes		x		
VIGDIS	Vigdis, Brent	63.3	0.0	4.4	0.0	x			
VISUND	Brent NI	15.0		4.4	no		x	x	
	Brent NII	32.7		44.1	yes		x		
	Statfjord/Amund SI	22.7		9.6	no		x		
	Brent SI	10.3		26.1	yes		x		
ÅSGARD	Smørbukk	35.5	136.2	12.1	162.7		x		
	Smørbukk Sør	99.7	29.2	35.7	25.8		x		
Sum total:		7984.0	236.0	1283.6	467.4				

Table 7.1 – Overview of volume in place and recovery mechanisms

7.1 Screening method

It is considered satisfactory to use the screening criteria in chapter 5.5. Originally, they were prepared for US and Canadian onshore oil fields, but they may be used to begin with when screening North Sea candidates. The most critical parameter with respect to miscible CO₂ flooding is the MMP. Preferably, the MMP at the start of a CO₂ flood should be at least 14 bar above the MMP to achieve miscibility of CO₂ and reservoir oil. This means that the ratio between reservoir pressure and minimum miscible pressure (P/MMP) normally should be greater than 1, but CO₂ flood EOR is still possible for P/MMP greater than 0.9. Because of the uncertainties of both calculation of MMP (see chapter 7.2) and measured pressure data, reservoirs with P/MMP greater than 0.9 are regarded as suitable for CO₂ floods by this screening if the reservoir pressure is lower than the original reservoir pressure at the start of CO₂ injection.

Reservoirs suitable for EOR by implementing CO₂ floods have various degrees of suitability depending on the intrinsic reservoir and oil properties. The range of reservoir characteristics and fluid properties suitable for CO₂ miscible injection is quite broad, and ideal reservoirs should have:

1. Oil gravity < 900 kg/m³
2. Oil saturation >25 %,
3. Reservoir pressure > 0.9 MMP
4. Porosity >15 %
5. Permeability >1 md
6. Acceptable heterogeneity

In addition:

7. Does the oil field (reservoirs) have a major gas cap or large amounts of stored gas (after injection) for further sales?
8. Is the oil field mature?
9. Are the reservoirs flooded with water, gas or WAG?

Parameters as density, permeability, porosity and oil saturation are not regarded as critical to oilfields on the NCS because almost all of these fields will meet the criteria mentioned above. One could pay more attention to the residual oil saturation after water, gas or WAG flooding, but as long as the prognosis after depleting the various oil fields is in the range of 15 to 65 % of the STOIP, a further approach to the criteria is not required.

Reservoir heterogeneity is also an important screening parameter, and it affects early CO₂ breakthrough and thus volume of CO₂ recycled. CO₂-WAG recovery is one aspect sensitive to reservoir heterogeneity (for more details, see chapter 2). All oil field on the NCS have varying degrees of heterogeneities, but they are all regarded as acceptable. Hence no oil field in this screening is rejected because of heterogeneity.

Criterion 7 is difficult to comply with, but it is used to reject candidates where postponed gas sales will result in reduced profitability compared to additional EOR oil from CO₂ injection. In addition, the criterion will reject reservoirs that will see reduced profitability if the processing cost of processing gas infiltrated with CO₂ before reaching sales gas specifications is higher than the profits made from the EOR oil. It is difficult to be exact about the last

criterion, but only a few fields will be affected by it as this is a question of costs, and new separation technology may change the outlook.

In addition, small isolated accumulations and small oil fields operated from stand-alone installations at a relatively great distance from existing infrastructure will not be considered to have CO₂ EOR potential. The Murchison oil field is also rejected because of the small Norwegian ownership in the field (22 %). The flow chart in figure 7.2 illustrates the screening process.

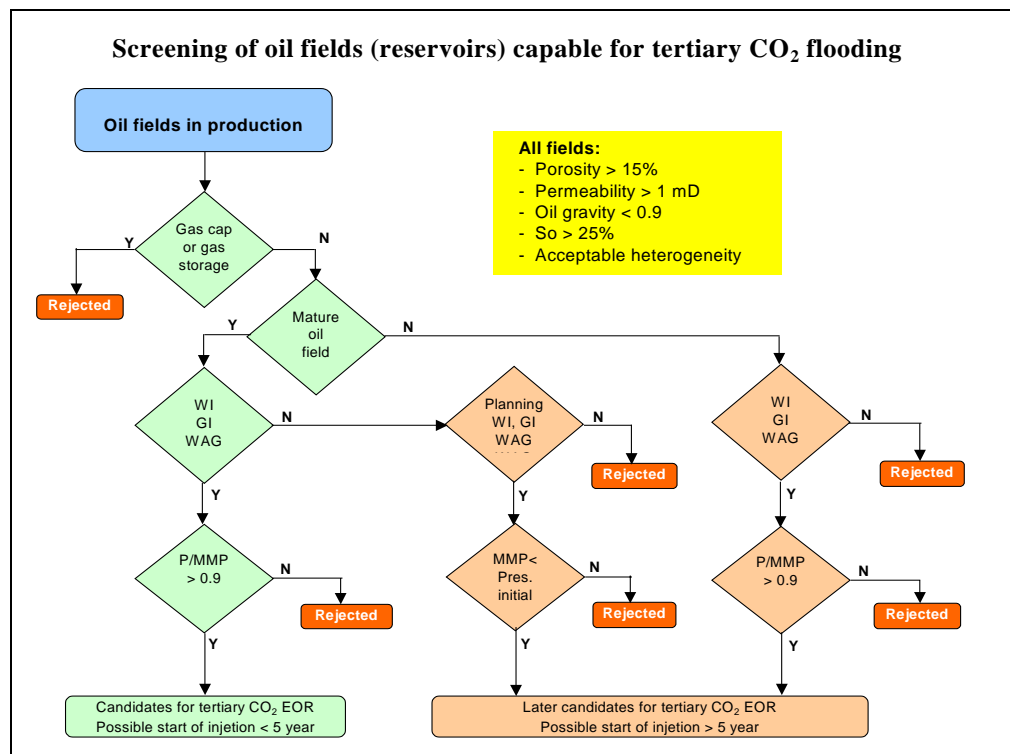


Figure 7.2 – Flow chart for screening of candidates for tertiary CO₂ floods

Candidates that have passed the screening criteria for CO₂ EOR are listed in the spreadsheet, table 8.4, for further risk analysis, calculation and simulation. The candidates are grouped in geographical areas and divided into candidates that can start CO₂ injection within five years, and candidates that can start injection in five years or later.

7.2 Calculation of MMP

To calculate the minimum miscibility pressure, the MMP module of the simulation tool PVTsim, version 12 is used. Input data is taken from files and databases in the Norwegian Petroleum Directorate.

There are indications that EOS calculations by using PVTsim may be too conservative. For some calculation, the data are compared to calculations done by Sintef (senior researcher Idar Akevoll). The comparison of EOS against Glasø and Alison correlations done by Sintef supports that EOS calculations are conservative. For some fields those correlations are closer to slim tube results than the EOS method. However, in this thesis PVTsim MMP will be used.

7.2.1 Minimum miscibility pressure calculations

The MMP module of PVTsim permits calculation of the first contact minimum miscibility pressure (FCMMP) as well as the multiple contact minimum miscibility pressure (MCMMP), normally referred to as the MMP.

The FCMMP may be calculated by tracking the saturation pressure as a function of oil/gas mixing ratio. The highest saturation point pressure located during the tracking procedure equals FCMMP. Two different procedures are used in PVTsim for calculating vaporizing and condensing MCMMP. One is based on an extension of the procedures behind a ternary diagram to multi-component mixtures and the second is based on simulation. When simulating a condensing gas drive, the cell initially contains reservoir oil. Injection gas is added and any formed gas is removed. A set of differential mass balances and algebraic equilibrium relations of the following form describe the vaporizing drive,

$$dv_i = (f_i - o_i) dt; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (7.1)$$

$$\frac{o_i}{O} \phi_i^v = \frac{v_i}{V} \phi_i^l; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (7.2)$$

$$O = \sum_{i=1}^N o_i; \quad V = \sum_{i=1}^N v_i \quad (7.3)$$

where f_i and o_i are respectively the rates of addition to and removal of component i from the cell in moles/time and v_i is the number of moles of component i in the cell.

Since the feed rate and feed composition are constant, integration over an arbitrary time step Δt gives

$$v_i(t + \Delta t) = v_i(t) + f_i \Delta t - \int_t^{t+\Delta t} o_i dt; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (7.4)$$

Using the trapezoidal rule for evaluation of the integral one gets

$$v_i(t + \Delta t) = v_i(t) + f_i \Delta t - \frac{o_i(t) + o_i(t + \Delta t)}{2} \Delta t; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (7.5)$$

The compositions of the first equilibrium phases ($t = 0$) are known from the calculation of FCMMP. Adding $d\beta$ moles of reservoir oil to a gas at equilibrium causes $d\gamma$ moles of oil to be formed, and the initial relative flow rate of oil, $d\gamma/d\beta$, can be determined manipulating the equilibrium relations. Successive solution with a chosen time step Δt simulates the miscibility process. If an additional time step at some point does not result in a two-phase solution, miscibility has been established. If on the other hand the end result is constant compositions, miscibility cannot be obtained at the specified conditions. Simulations at different pressures determine MCMMP as the lowest pressure at which miscibility is obtained.

7.2.2 Combined drive mechanism

While the above mentioned method for determination of the MCMMP describes the situation where miscibility develops at the flood front or at the injection point, a more sophisticated approach is required to properly account for the situation where miscibility develops between the flood front and the injection point. In this case a key tie-line approach is applied. Tie lines are lines that connect points in composition space, for instance between an oil composition

and the composition of the gas that contacts it. When a tie line becomes a point, the two phases are miscible (they have the same composition). Ignoring dispersion, it can be shown that there exists a series of key tie lines, which control the development of miscibility. These represent the path which the composition changes in the system theoretically will follow. In order to locate the MMP the algorithm tracks this path at increasing pressures until one of the key tie lines reduce to a point.

Key tie lines are either connected by continuous variations or by shocks. The shocks represent the situations where oil is contacted by gas that it is not in equilibrium, causing an abrupt change in composition. In a fully self-sharpening system all key tie lines are connected by shocks (In a fully self sharpening system the gas moves faster than the contacted oil anywhere in the displacement process). Even when the system is not fully self-sharpening, the present method is considered to give a very good estimate of the true solution. It has been shown by Wang and Orr [73] that neighbouring key tie lines are coplanar and hence have a point of intersection. This information is used to locate the next key tie line in the series.

In order to determine co-planarity, the method developed by Jensen, Michelsen and Stenby [74] is applied. In this approach, the co-planarity criterion constrains the values of α and β to lie in the interval of [0; 1]. This makes the algorithm quite robust.

$$z^* = \alpha y^{(1)} + (1 + \alpha) x^{(2)} = \beta y^{(2)} + (1 - \beta) x^{(1)} \quad (7.6)$$

The succession of N-1 intersecting key tie lines can then be written as

$$x_i^{j+1}(1 - \alpha_j) + y_i^j \alpha_j - x_i^j(1 - \beta_j) - y_i^{j+1} \beta_j = 0 \quad (7.7)$$

$$i = 1, \dots, N - 1$$

$$j = 1, \dots, N - 2$$

where i are the component number and j the tie line number.

The first and last tie lines in the sequence are specified by the tie lines through the original oil and the injection gas respectively. Following the above nomenclature, these two compositions are specified as follows:

$$z_i^{\text{oil}} = x_i^{j=1}(1 - \beta_{\text{oil}}) + y_i^{j=1} \beta_{\text{oil}} \quad (7.8)$$

$$z_i^{\text{inj}} = x_i^{j=N-1}(1 - \beta_{\text{inj}}) + y_i^{j=N-1} \beta_{\text{inj}} \quad (7.9)$$

$$i = 1, \dots, N - 1$$

The equations above are solved subject to the usual phase equilibrium and mass balance constraints

$$x_i^j \phi_i^L - y_i^j \phi_i^V = 0 \quad (7.10)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N x_i^j - y_i^j = 0 \quad (7.11)$$

$$i = 1, \dots, N$$

$$j = 1, \dots, N - 1$$

All of this may be rearranged to a set of non-linear equations to be solved for the co-planarity parameters (α , β) and the phase compositions.

The calculated MMP pressures are listed in table 7.2 together with the corresponding reservoir pressures and temperatures. In the screening process, the MMP for the combined method is used.

Oil field	MMP		Reservoir pressure		Res.temp
	Vaporizing Bar	Combined Bar	Current Bar	Originally Bar	Originally °C
Balder	383	339	165 +/-	172	77
Ringhorn	196	-	180 +/-	188	78
Brage <i>Statfjord</i>	302	187	200 +/-	219	84
Draugen	164	117	155 +/-	165	71
Ekofisk	172 (1)– 275 (2) [75]		350 +/-	497	131
Eldfisk	369	212	200 +/-	472	122
Embla	321	205	-		159
Glitne	254	156	-	218	80
Gullfaks <i>Brent</i>	355	266	280 +/-	310	72
<i>Statfjord</i>	280	176	280 +/-	330	86
Gullfaks Sør <i>Brent</i>	551	277	370-420	460	125
Gyda	276	195	480 +/-	593	152
Heidrun <i>Fangst</i>	343	221	240 +/-	252	84
<i>Tilje</i>	299	189	230 +/-	251	85
<i>Åre</i>	399	393	220 +/-	251	85
Hod	330	145	150 +/-	467	98
Jotun	236	-	150 +/-	199	82
Njord	341	211	170-380	395	120
Norne <i>Tofte</i>	355	255	250 +	275	98
Oseberg	325	204	220 +/-	284	102
Oseberg Øst	253	162	220-250	325	124
Oseberg Sør	323	195	240 +/-	299	107
Oseberg Vest	363	260	-	321	107
Snorre <i>Lunde</i>	247	142	300 -	383	93
	257	151	280 +/-	383	93
Snorre B <i>Lunde</i>					
Statfjord <i>Brent</i>	281	175	320 +/-	383	89
<i>Statfjord</i>	269	158	330 +/-	404	100
Statfjord Nord	240	161	320 +/-	398	98
Statfjord Øst	300	169	320 +/-	378	91
Sygna	239	169	380 +/-	395	95
Tambar	299	195	-	538	165
Tor	319	195	140 +/-	497	127
Tordis <i>Tordis</i>	259	159	295	340	84
	237	-	310	337	84
<i>Tordis Øst</i>	289	169	330	334	91
<i>Borg</i>					
Troll	339	-	150 +/-	158	68
Ula	274	183	440 +/-	491	143
Valhall <i>Tor</i>	336	157	240 +/-	447	90
	309	158	240 +/-	449	89

<i>Ekofisk</i>						
Varg		346	222	-	347	120
Veslefrik	<i>Oseberg</i>	285	188	300 +/-	321	125
	<i>Statfjord</i>	407	207	300 +	355	133
Vigdis	<i>Rannoch</i>	253	165	280 +	368	91
Visund	<i>Tarbert/Ness</i>	368	232	400 +/-	434	115
Åsgard	<i>Garn</i>	392	210	300 +/-	405	141

(1) MMP at 82 °C, (2) MMP at 131 °C

Table 7.2 – Reservoir temperature, -pressure and calculated MMP

8. ESTIMATION OF THE CO₂ EOR POTENTIAL

The screening of candidates and estimation of the EOR potential is based on available reservoir parameters and field data. Most of the data is taken from files and databases in NPD, which includes annual field reports and reservoir management plans for all fields dealt with in this thesis. A great part of the data is confidential, and therefore not included here. Some data, central to the calculations and methods used are enclosed as a confidential supplement to the thesis.

Although a large and specified amount of data are used, the result very much depends on the studies done by Statoil, Phillips Petroleum, Norsk Hydro and BP, on the potential for increased recovery from CO₂ (chapter 6) injection. All CO₂ flood experience today comes from onshore oil fields, but to some degree, methods and simulation techniques from successful simulations done on other projects, have been adopted, for example from the Prudhoe of Bay oil field in Canada (see chapter 6.5). Prudhoe of Bay has miscible gas flooding with a large quantity of CO₂ in the injecting gas.

Main results from the studies

Gullfaks:	3.9 – 7.7 % of STOIP	(dependent on number of wells)
Brage:	3.1 – 5.1 % of STOIP	(dependent on WAG ratio)
Forties:	4.7 % of STOIP	(based on 4 million tonnes CO ₂ /year)
Ekofisk:	5.6 % of STOIP	(based on 30 wells, 10 WAG and 20 WI)

The Gullfaks Brent study is regarded as the most mature of these. By including the Statfjord and Cock reservoirs, the CO₂ EOR from Gullfaks may exceed 8 % of the STOIP of these reservoirs.

8.1 Method

The @RISK analysis and simulation tool has been used to do Monte Carlo simulations on the most critical variable parameter, the CO₂ EOR recovery factor. In addition, three other variables have been chosen to best describe the uncertainties involved. Figure 8.1 and table 8.1 show the method used. The three parameters, heterogeneity, recovery and residual oil saturation are given a low and high possibility instead of low, medium and high, as 27 and not 8 different adjustment factors would have had to be dealt with then, which is too much within this scope of work. One could also have used a set of distribution curves for each of the parameters and performed a risk analysis, but it is considered more correct to establish a set of fixed correlation factors.

The heterogeneity parameter is defined as high if the reservoir is faulted or layered. Also reservoirs with abnormal high well density are defined to have high heterogeneity. Homogeneous reservoirs or partly faulted reservoirs are defined to have low heterogeneity. The recovery factor is defined as the recovery (% of STOIP) before EOR initiatives. This is a characteristic that says something about the reservoirs' productivity, and high recovery should indicate that CO₂ solvents should have good possibilities of contacting large volumes of residual oil during the flow through the reservoir. The third factor is the residual oil saturation. The factor is not only restricted to residual oil saturation after water or gas flooding, but includes bypassed oil and attic oil (see figure 6.3). The reservoirs are therefore described according to what kind of drive mechanism they have, water injection, gas injection, WAG or pure pressure depletion (see table 7.1). One may assume that reservoirs that have been water flooded have more residual oil left than reservoirs that have been gas or WAG flooded. This may not always be true, but usually, reservoirs suitable for secondary gas injection have lower Sorw than Sorw for a water flooded reservoir. All in all, the combination of these three parameters with fluid, temperature and pressure data should give a good indication of the reservoir properties and impact on CO₂ EOR.

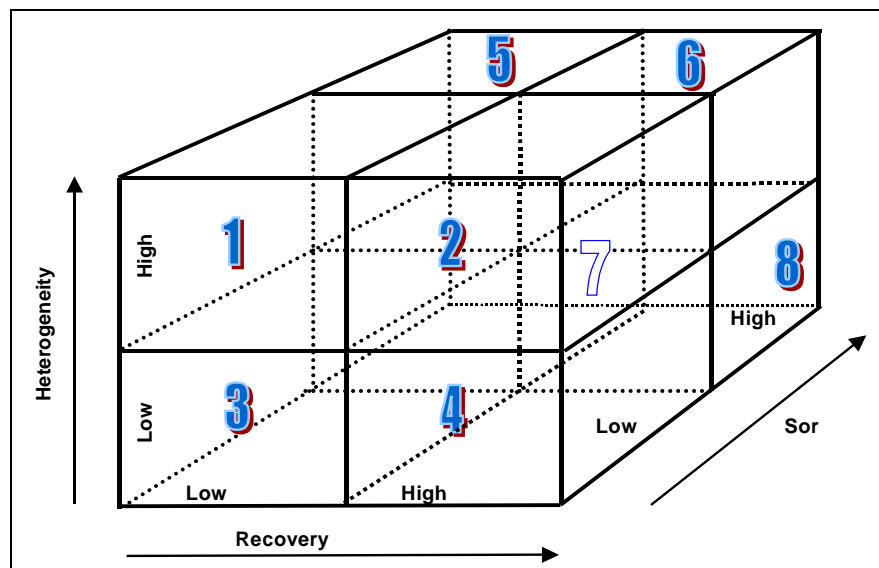


Figure 8.1 – Schematically quantification of reservoir quality

Reservoir-quality*	Sor*		Recovery*		Heterogeneity*		Adjusting-factor
	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	
1	x		x			x	0,75
2	x			x		x	0,80
3	x		x		x		0,85
4	x			x	x		0,95
5		x	x			x	0,85
6		x		x		x	1,00
7		x	x		x		1,00
8		x		x	x		1,10

Sor*: Water flooded/mainly water flooded reservoir (high), gas or WAG (low)

Recovery*: Recovery (% of STOIP) without EOR

Heterogeneity*: Faulted/layered and/or high well rate (high), else low

Table 8.1 – Reservoir quality parameters and estimated adjustment factor for EOR calculations

The adjustment factors, $f(\text{Sor}^*, \text{Recovery}^*, \text{Heterogeneity}^*)$ are lumped into the spreadsheet in table 8.4. The factors are weighted to Gullfaks properties where the function $f(\text{Sor}^*, \text{Recovery}^*, \text{Heterogeneity}^*)_{\text{Gullfaks}} = 1$. The Gullfaks recovery has increased from around 4 to about 8 % of STOIP since the first screening study was completed, and it is likely to expect the same for Ekofisk and Brage if they had gone further with their studies. The adjustment factors are therefore optimised to match a higher recovery from these fields. One could also optimise the adjustment factors in relation to reservoir sizes. But since about 92 % of the STOIP (candidates of CO₂ EOR) contribution comes from a reservoir (or group of reservoirs) with more than 50 million Sm³ of oil, and about 77 % from reservoirs with more than 100 million Sm³ of oil, it is decided not to refine the model according to reservoir sizes. The model may easily be modified, however, to include new or corrected data.

8.2 Estimation

In the spreadsheet model, table 8.4, the result shows a total EOR potential of 279 million Sm³ before risk analysis and Monte Carlo simulations are run. This is with an average recovery factor of 6 % of STOIP, and by using the specified adjustment factors. All fields (and reservoirs) that are included in the thesis are listed according to geographical areas. The areas are the southern part of the North Sea, Jotun Balder area, Troll Oseberg area, Tampen area and fields in the Norwegian Sea. The reason for this is to show the potential in the different areas, which may be useful for further investigation and infrastructure studies. Further, the potential is split into mature candidates that can start CO₂ injection within 5 years and candidates that can start in 5 year or later.

The model is simple, but the initial screening, MMP calculations and valuation of the fields and reservoirs involved are based on specific field data. The weakest link in the methodology chain is the expected mean value of the recovery factor, which is totally dependent on the results from the CO₂ studies on Forties (to some degree), Ekofisk, Brage and Gullfaks. However, the recovery factors are considered to be conservative compared to industry experience from existing CO₂ projects worldwide, and the possibility for overestimating is regarded as low. The nature of the recovery factors leads to using a triangle distribution for risk analysis and Monte Carlo simulation. This is mainly because there are only 4 fields that have been studied. If there had been a larger number of inputs, a log normal distribution could have been more convenient. In the spreadsheet model, both sandstone and chalk reservoirs are given a variation in recovery of between 4 and 8 % of STOIP

Table 8.2 shows the result from the Monte Carlo simulations, while table 8.3 shows the un-risked potential compared to the risked potential. The results from the Monte Carlo simulations are enclosed in appendix A.

Area	< 5 year	> 5 year	Total (million Sm3)
Southern North Sea	10 - 18	78 - 136	93 - 148
Troll Oseberg	9 - 16	10 - 15	21 - 30
Tampen	44 - 66	24 - 42	71 - 103
Norwegian Sea	3 - 5	33 - 50	37 - 54
Sum total	72 - 100	160 - 225	242 - 323

Table 8.2 – CO₂ EOR potential from Monte Carlo Simulations

Estimation	< 5 year	> 5 year	Total (million Sm ³)
Un-risked (1)	58 - 117	138 - 277	197 - 393
Partly risked (2)	57 - 114	129 - 258	186 - 372
Risked (3)	72 - 100	160 - 225	242 - 323

1) Screened EOR STOIP and recovery 4 - 8 %

2) Screened EOR STOIP with adjusting factors and recovery 4 – 8 %

3) Full Monte Carlo simulation (sum total in table 8.2)

Table 8.3 – Un-risked compared to risked EOR potential

8.3 Conclusions

The results of this thesis indicate that there are great EOR potential from CO₂ injection in mature oil field on the Norwegian Continental Shelf. The potential is estimated to between 242 and 323 millions Sm³ of additional oil. Compared to a traditional new field development, this corresponds to a 600 million Sm³ STOIP field. (Gullfaks size). Development costs and operating costs for implementing CO₂ floods are not included, but considering the large amount of additional oil, such flooding is definitely an alternative to any other EOR techniques.

The result must, however, be regarded as a provisional estimate because of the lack of CO₂ experience on offshore oil fields. The method of calculation is based on a combination of detailed reservoir data and a limited number of CO₂ data, but compared to industry experience, the expected total EOR potential should not be overestimated. The MMP calculations may also be conservative in that it has rejected some candidates. However, the intention was not to give an accurate answer, but to inspire further investigation and research. Finally, the author of this thesis realises that the field owners may not agree with the results, or the interpretation of the data used in this thesis.

An interesting finding from the literature study is that an oilfield that has behaved well under water flooding seems to behave well under CO₂ flooding. Another finding is that (not surprisingly) increased oil production, up to a certain point, is almost linear to the amount of CO₂ injected. This is also seen for the North Sea candidates dealt with in this thesis.

8.4 Spreadsheet model used for Monte Carlo simulations (overleaf)

Oil fields	Reservoirs	STOIIP	Candidates		Correlation factors		< 5 year	> 5 year	
			No = 0	< 5 year = 1	f (res)	f (rec)	EOR	EOR	
			Yes = 1	> 5 year = 0					
Southern part of the North Sea									
EKOFISK	Ekofisk og Tor	1049.0	1	0	1.00	6.000	0.0	62.9	
ELDFISK	Ekofisk og Tor	428.6	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	21.9	
EMBLA	Dev. og Perm.	43.4	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
GYDA	Gyda Jurassic	63.9	1	1	0.85	6.000	3.3	0.0	
GYDA	Gyda South	14.0	1	1	0.85	6.000	0.7	0.0	
HOD	Hod	14.5	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
HOD	Tor/Ekofisk	39.8	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
TAMBAR	Gyda Jurassic	21.9	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
TOR	Ekofisk og Tor	129.9	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
ULA	Ula Jurassic	155.0	1	1	1.10	6.000	10.2	0.0	
VALHALL	Hod	114.0	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	5.8	
VALHALL	Tor	302.0	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	15.4	
Sum Southern part of the North Sea:							14.2	106.0	120.3
Jotun Balder area									
BALDER	Balder	76.8	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
BALDER	Balder E4	13.8	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
BALDER	Balder E5	12.9	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
BALDER	Forseti	25.4	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
BALDER	Ringhorn Jurassic	33.9	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
BALDER	Ringhorne "prospector"	19.9	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
GLITNE	Glitne, Heimdal Fm.	14.6	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
JOTUN	Elli	34.8	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
JOTUN	Elli South	4.1	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
JOTUN	Tau	18.6	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
VARG	Varg	20.4	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
Sum Jotun Balder area:							0.0	0.0	0.0
Troll Oseberg area									
BRAGE	Fensfjord	79.2	1	1	0.80	6.000	3.8	0.0	

BRAGE	Sognefjord	18.3	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
BRAGE	Statfjord	45.3	1	1	1.00	6.000	2.7	0.0	
OSEBERG	Ness	95.9	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG	ORELN2	376.8	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG	Tarbert	87.9	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG SØR	C	25.1	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	1.3	
OSEBERG SØR	G Øst	23.1	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	1.2	
OSEBERG SØR	K Vest	13.2	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	0.7	
OSEBERG SØR	K Øst	3.3	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG SØR	Omega Nord	64.0	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	3.3	
OSEBERG SØR	Omega Sør	48.0	1	0	1.00	6.000	0.0	2.9	
OSEBERG VEST	Gamma Nord	10.7	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sadel Nord Ness	1.3	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sadel Nord Ore	2.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sadel Nord Tarb+Heath	0.4	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sadel LOSST	0.2	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sadel Ness	10.0	1	0	0.75	6.000	0.0	0.5	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sadel ORE	25.7	1	0	0.75	6.000	0.0	1.2	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sadel Tarbert+Heather	2.7	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sør LOSST	0.3	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sør Ness	13.3	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	0.7	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sør ORE	18.5	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	0.9	
OSEBERG ØST	Beta Sør Tarbert+Heather	5.4	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
TROLL	Gassprovinsen	444.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
TROLL	Mellomområdet	19.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
TROLL	Oljeprovinen	155.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
TROLL	Troll Vest Fensfjord	26.5	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
VESLEFRIKK	Brent/IDS	106.9	1	1	1.00	6.000	6.4	0.0	
VESLEFRIKK	Statfjord	5.7	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
Sum Troll Oseberg area:							12.9	12.5	25.4
Tampen area									
GULLFAKS	Brent u/GFVest	441.0	1	1	1.00	6.000	26.5	0.0	
GULLFAKS	Cook	45.0	1	1	1.10	6.000	3.0	0.0	
GULLFAKS	Gullfaks Vest inkl. Shetland	6.9	0	1		6.000	0.0	0.0	

GULLFAKS	Lunde	3.1	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
GULLFAKS	Statfjord inkl. Krans, ++	92.0	1	1	1.10	6.000	6.1	0.0	
GULLFAKS SØR	GF Sør Brent	39.9	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
GULLFAKS SØR	GF Sør Statfjord	35.7	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
GULLFAKS SØR	Gullveig Brent	7.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
GULLFAKS SØR	Rimfaks Brent	23.9	1		0.85	6.000	0.0	1.2	
GULLFAKS SØR	Rimfaks Statfjord	10.8	1		0.85	6.000	0.0	0.6	
SNORRE	Snorre Syd, Statfjord/Lunde	399.0	1	0	1.00	6.000	0.0	23.9	
SNORRE	Snorre B, Statfjord/Lunde	143.0	1	0	0.80	6.000	0.0	6.9	
STATFJORD	Brent	665.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
STATFJORD	Dunlin	18.4	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
STATFJORD	Statfjord	179.2	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
STATFJORD NORD	Brent og Munin	77.1	1	1	1.00	6.000	4.6	0.0	
STATFJORD ØST	Brent	59.7	1	1	1.00	6.000	3.6	0.0	
SYGNA	Brent	24.1	1	1	1.00	6.000	1.4	0.0	
TORDIS	Tordis	68.5	1	1	1.00	6.000	4.1	0.0	
TORDIS	Tordis Sør Øst (STUJ)	5.1	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
TORDIS	Tordis Øst	14.8	1	1	0.80	6.000	0.7	0.0	
TORDIS	Borg	27.7	1	1	1.00	6.000	1.7	0.0	
VIGDIS	Vigdis, Brent	63.3	1	1	0.85	6.000	3.2	0.0	
VISUND	Brent NI	15.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
VISUND	Brent NII	32.7	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
VISUND	Startfjord/Amund SI	22.7	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
VISUND	Brent SI	10.3	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
Sum Tampen area:							54.9	32.6	87.4

The Norwegian Sea

DRAUGEN	Garn	31.7	1	0	1.00	6.000	0.0	1.9
DRAUGEN	Rogn	178.2	1	0	1.00	6.000	0.0	10.7
HEIDRUN	Fangst	155.0	1	0	1.00	6.000	0.0	9.3
HEIDRUN	Tilje	123.0	1	0	0.85	6.000	0.0	6.3

HEIDRUN	Åre	162.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
HEIDRUN	Heidrun Nord	8.0	0	0		6.000	0.0	0.0	
NJORD	Ile East/Central	7.5	0	0		6.000	0.0	0.0	
NJORD	Ile North	4.0	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
NJORD	Tilje East/Central	81.8	1	1	0.75	6.000	3.7	0.0	
NJORD	Tilje North	30.7	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
NORNE	Norne	157.0	1	0	1.00	6.000	0.0	9.4	
ÅSGARD	Smørbukk	35.5	0			6.000	0.0	0.0	
ÅSGARD	Smørbukk Sør	99.7	1	0	0.75	6.000	0.0	4.5	
Sum the Norwegian Sea:							3.7	42.1	45.8
SUM STOIIIP CANDIDATES:		4915.0					85.7	193.2	278.9
SUM STOIIIP TOTAL:		7984.0							

Table 8.4 – Spreadsheet for risk analysis and Monte Carlo simulation

9. ABBREVIATIONS AND NOMECLATURE

Abbreviations

STOIP	=	Stock tank oil initially in place
NCS	=	Norwegian Continental Shelf
SACROC	=	Scurry Area Canyon Reef Operators Committee
SACS	=	Saline Aquifer CO ₂ Storage
THERMIE	=	THERMIE is the Demonstration Component of the EU Non-Nuclear Programme JOULE-THERMIE
IEA	=	The International Energy Agency
EOR	=	Enhanced Oil Recovery
FCMMP	=	First contact minimum miscible pressure
MCMMP	=	Multiple contact minimum miscible pressure
MMP	=	Minimum miscible pressure (often used instead of MCMMP)
MME	=	Minimum miscibility enrichment
OP	=	Oil producing well
WI	=	Water injection
GI	=	Gas injection
GOR	=	Gas oil ratio
NGL	=	Natural gas liquid
LPG	=	Liquid petroleum gas
PV	=	Pore volume
EOS	=	Equation of state
4D	=	Four dimensional seismic survey

Nomenclature

T	=	Temperature
T _c	=	Critical temperature
T _{tr}	=	Triple point temperature
P	=	Pressure
P _c	=	Critical pressure
P _{tr}	=	Triple point pressure
R	=	Universal gas constant
G	=	Gibbs free energy
ΔG	=	Change in energy
H	=	Enthalpy
S	=	Entropy
ΔH _{fus}	=	Change in enthalpy of the substance that accompany melting (fusion)
ΔV _{fus}	=	Change in volume of the substance that accompany melting
ΔH _{vap}	=	Change in enthalpy of the substance that accompany evaporation
ΔH _{sub}	=	Change in enthalpy of the substance that accompany sublimation
L ₁ , L ₂	=	Liquid mixes
G ₁ , G ₂	=	Gas mixes
t	=	Time
Δt	=	Time step
f	=	Rates of addition of reservoir oil
o	=	Rates of removal of equilibrium oil

v	=	Molar amounts of each component in the gas phase
O	=	Moles of equilibrium oil
V	=	Moles of gas
x	=	Mole fraction in liquid phase
y	=	Mole fraction in vapour phase
z	=	Overall mole fraction
α, β	=	Co-planarity parameters
ϕ	=	Fugacity coefficient
S_{or}	=	Residual oil saturation
S_{orw}	=	Residual oil saturation after water flooding
S_{org}	=	Residual oil saturation after gas flooding
$f(\text{res})$	=	Fixed correlation factors
$f(\text{rec})$	=	Variable input parameter (recovery factor) to Monte Carlo simulation

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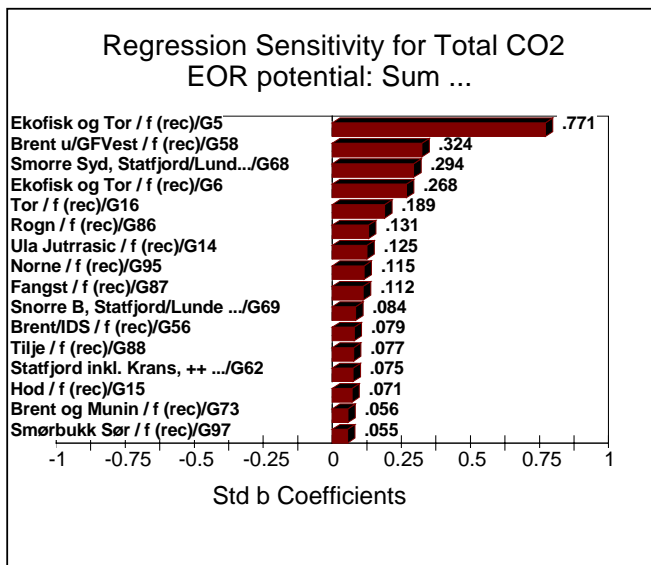
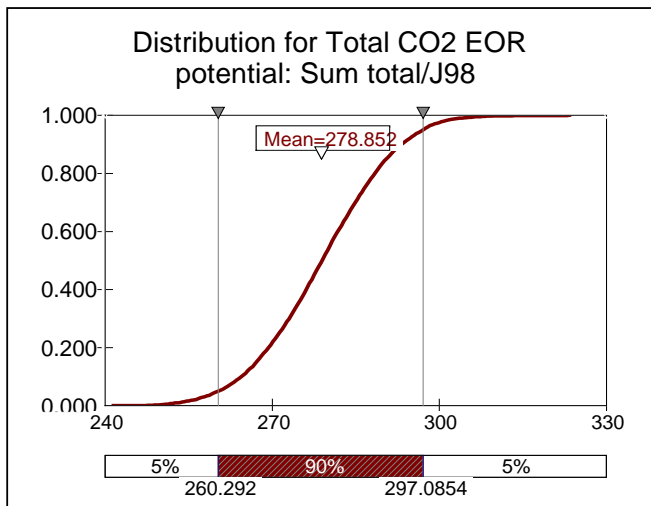
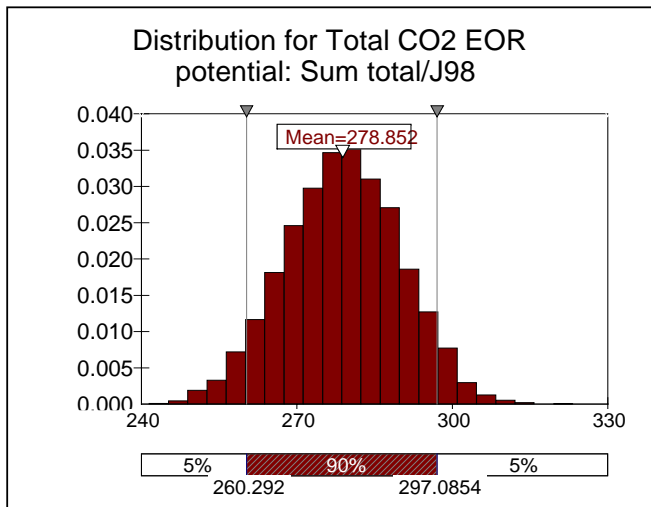
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70. Paul Hood, Norsk Hydro, "Feasibility Study for CO₂ Injection in the Brage Field", SPE Drilling, Completion and Reservoir Management Seminar in Bergen 1 April 2003.
 71. Hafsteinn Agustsson, Statoil, "Feasibility Study for CO₂ Injection in Statoil Operated Fields", SPE Drilling, Completion and Reservoir Management Seminar in Bergen 1 April 2003.
 72. ECLIPSE FrontSim (Streamline simulator),
<http://www.sis.slb.com/content/software/simulation/frontsim.asp>
 73. Yun Wang, SPE, and Franklin M. Orr, Jr. "Calculation of Minimum Miscibility Pressure". SPE paper 39683, presented the SPE/DOE Improved Oil Recovery Symposium held in Tulsa, Oklahoma, 19-22 April 1998.
 74. Jenssen, Michelsen, and Stenby, "Effective Algorithm for Calculation of Minimum Miscibility Pressure", SPE paper 50632, presented at the SPE European Petroleum Conference held in The Hague, Netherlands, 20-22 October 1998.
 75. Phillips, MMP data for Ekofisk (Communication between Phillips and Tom Andersen NPD)

APPENDIX A : RESULTS FROM THE MONTE CARLO SIMULATION

Simulation Results for Total CO₂ EOR potential: Sum total / J98

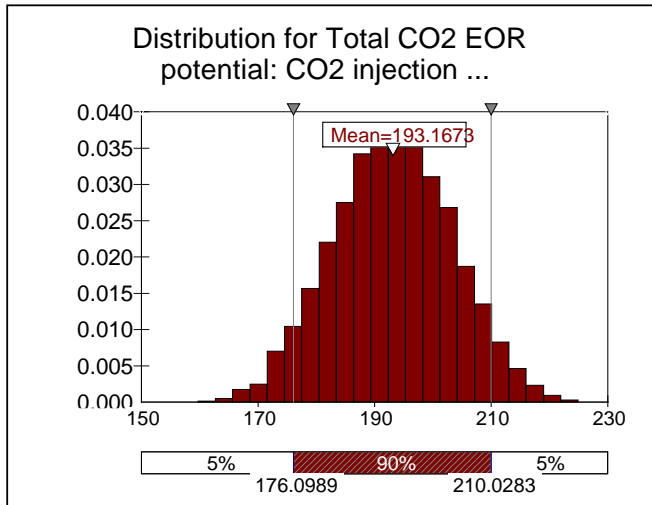


Summary Information	
Workbook Name	put Monte Carlo alle felt.x
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	10000
Number of Inputs	93
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.05.2003 08:58
Simulation Stop Time	07.05.2003 08:59
Simulation Duration	00:00:26
Random Seed	193526971

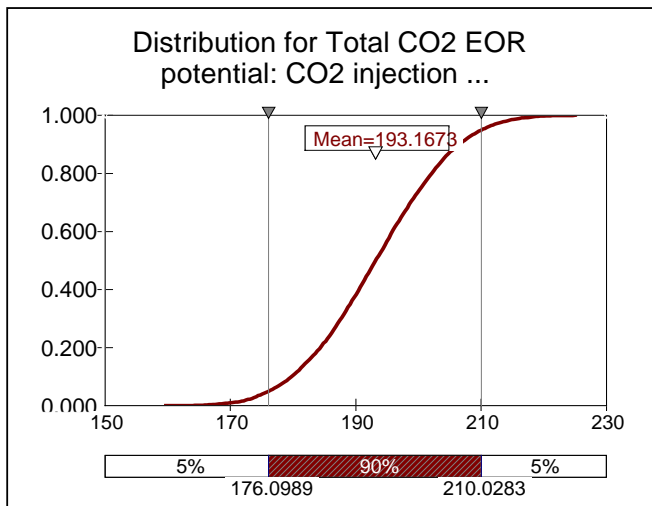
Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	241.5	5 %	260.3
Maximum	323.3	10 %	264.5
Mean	278.9	15 %	267.1
Std Dev	11.1	20 %	269.3
Variance	123.2685271	25 %	271.2
Skewness	-0.028566161	30 %	273.0
Kurtosis	2.834638894	35 %	274.6
Median	278.9	40 %	276.1
Mode	266.5	45 %	277.5
Left X	260.3	50 %	278.9
Left P	5 %	55 %	280.3
Right X	297.1	60 %	281.7
Right P	95 %	65 %	283.4
Diff X	36.8	70 %	284.9
Diff P	90 %	75 %	286.6
#Errors	0	80 %	288.4
Filter Min		85 %	290.5
Filter Max		90 %	293.1
#Filtered	0	95 %	297.1

Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.771	0.761
#2	Brent u/GFVest	0.324	0.307
#3	Smorre Syd, Sta	0.294	0.262
#4	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.268	0.238
#5	Tor / f (rec) / \$G	0.189	0.193
#6	Rogn / f (rec) / \$	0.131	0.124
#7	Ula Juttrasic / f	0.125	0.131
#8	Norne / f (rec) /	0.115	0.116
#9	Fangst / f (rec) /	0.112	0.118
#10	Snorre B, Statfj	0.084	0.115
#11	Brent/IDS / f (re	0.079	0.078
#12	Tilje / f (rec) / \$C	0.077	0.062
#13	Statfjord inkl. Kr	0.075	0.058
#14	Hod / f (rec) / \$C	0.071	0.055
#15	Brent og Munin	0.056	0.066
#16	Smørbukk Sør /	0.055	0.052

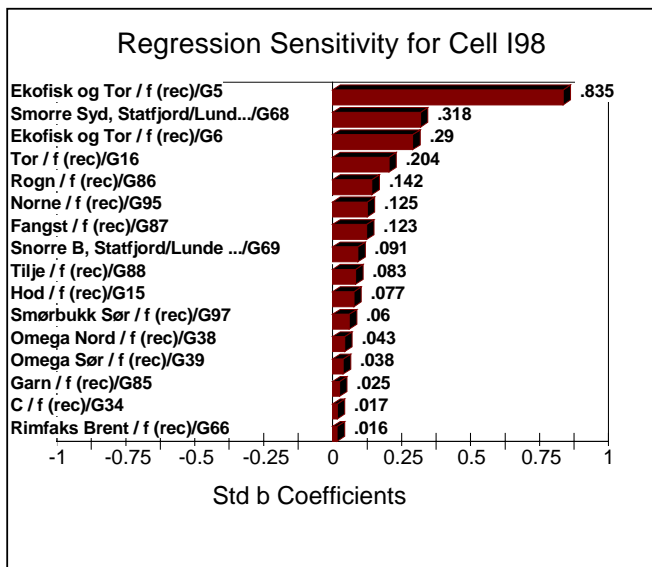
Simulation Results for Total CO₂ EOR potential: CO₂ injection after 5 year / I98



Summary Information	
Workbook Name	put Monte Carlo alle felt.x
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	10000
Number of Inputs	93
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 12:37
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 12:37
Simulation Duration	00:00:25
Random Seed	1070136162

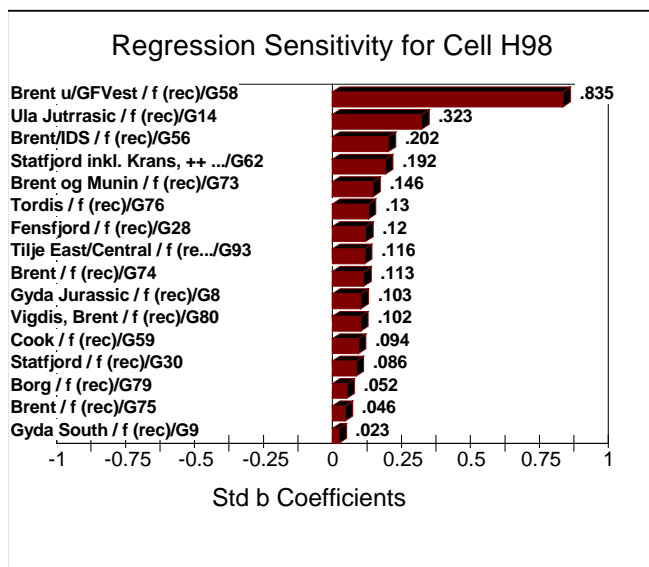
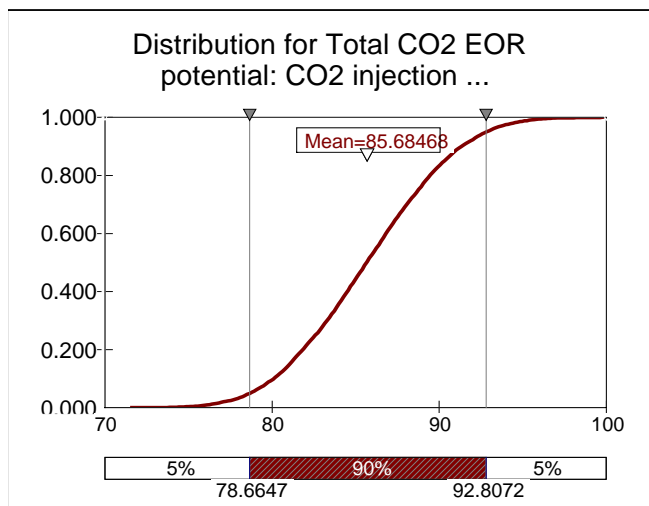
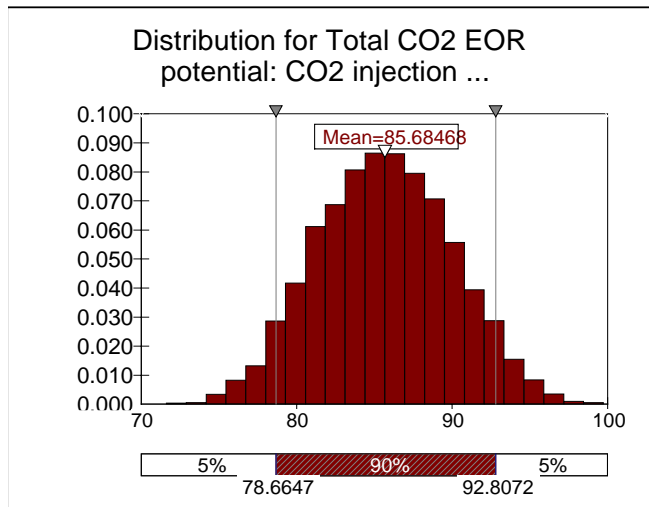


Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	159.7	5 %	176.1
Maximum	225.0	10 %	179.7
Mean	193.2	15 %	182.2
Std Dev	10.3	20 %	184.3
Variance	105.2962833	25 %	186.2
Skewness	-0.012581339	30 %	187.6
Kurtosis	2.720091868	35 %	189.1
Median	193.2	40 %	190.5
Mode	173.6	45 %	191.8
Left X	176.1	50 %	193.2
Left P	5 %	55 %	194.5
Right X	210.0	60 %	195.8
Right P	95 %	65 %	197.3
Diff X	33.9	70 %	198.7
Diff P	90 %	75 %	200.4
#Errors	0	80 %	202.1
Filter Min		85 %	204.0
Filter Max		90 %	206.6
#Filtered	0	95 %	210.0



Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.835	0.830
#2	Smorre Syd, Sta	0.318	0.293
#3	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.290	0.280
#4	Tor / f (rec) / \$G	0.204	0.200
#5	Rogn / f (rec) / \$	0.142	0.140
#6	Norne / f (rec) /	0.125	0.108
#7	Fangst / f (rec) /	0.123	0.121
#8	Snorre B, Statfj	0.091	0.084
#9	Tilje / f (rec) / \$C	0.083	0.059
#10	Hod / f (rec) / \$C	0.077	0.072
#11	Smørbukk Sør /	0.060	0.049
#12	Omega Nord / f	0.043	0.057
#13	Omega Sør / f (0.038	0.021
#14	Garn / f (rec) / \$	0.025	0.041
#15	C / f (rec) / \$G\$	0.017	0.031
#16	Rimfaks Brent /	0.016	0.030

Simulation Results for Total CO₂ EOR potential: CO₂ injection within 5 year / H98

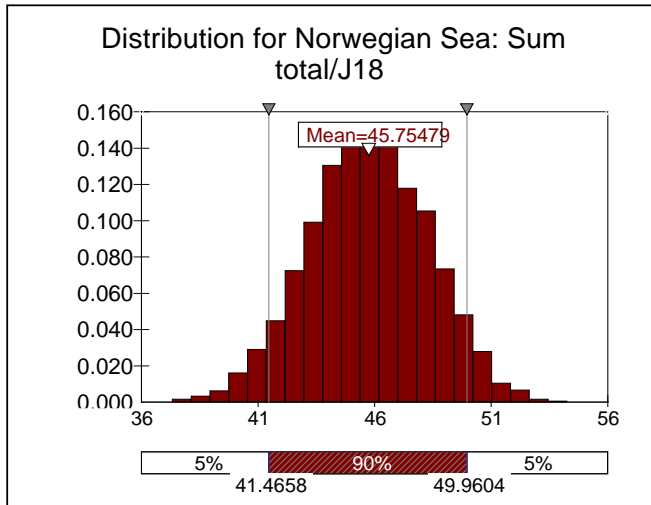


Summary Information	
Workbook Name	put Monte Carlo alle felt...
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	10000
Number of Inputs	93
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.05.2003 08:54
Simulation Stop Time	07.05.2003 08:54
Simulation Duration	00:00:27
Random Seed	1399412072

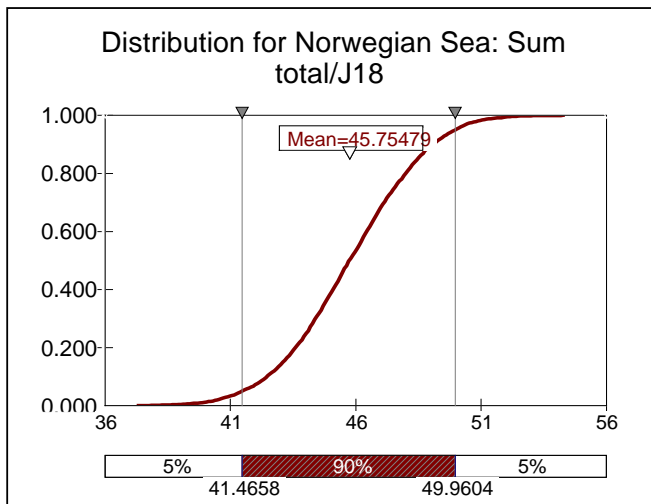
Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	71.6	5 %	78.7
Maximum	99.8	10 %	80.1
Mean	85.7	15 %	81.1
Std Dev	4.3	20 %	81.8
Variance	18.59731218	25 %	82.6
Skewness	0.032848554	30 %	83.3
Kurtosis	2.650582792	35 %	83.9
Median	85.7	40 %	84.5
Mode	79.3	45 %	85.1
Left X	78.7	50 %	85.7
Left P	5 %	55 %	86.2
Right X	92.8	60 %	86.8
Right P	95 %	65 %	87.4
Diff X	14.1	70 %	88.1
Diff P	90 %	75 %	88.8
#Errors	0	80 %	89.4
Filter Min		85 %	90.3
Filter Max		90 %	91.3
#Filtered	0	95 %	92.8

Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Brent u/GFVest	0.835	0.834
#2	Ula Jutrasic / f	0.323	0.306
#3	Brent/IDS / f (re	0.202	0.196
#4	Statfjord inkl. Kr	0.192	0.195
#5	Brent og Munin	0.146	0.141
#6	Tordis / f (rec) /	0.130	0.109
#7	Fensfjord / f (rec	0.120	0.118
#8	Tilje East/Centra	0.116	0.110
#9	Brent / f (rec) / \$	0.113	0.085
#10	Gyda Jurassic /	0.103	0.095
#11	Vigdis, Brent / f	0.102	0.106
#12	Cook / f (rec) / \$	0.094	0.088
#13	Statfjord / f (rec)	0.086	0.075
#14	Borg / f (rec) / \$	0.052	0.038
#15	Brent / f (rec) / \$	0.046	0.044
#16	Gyda South / f (0.023	0.047

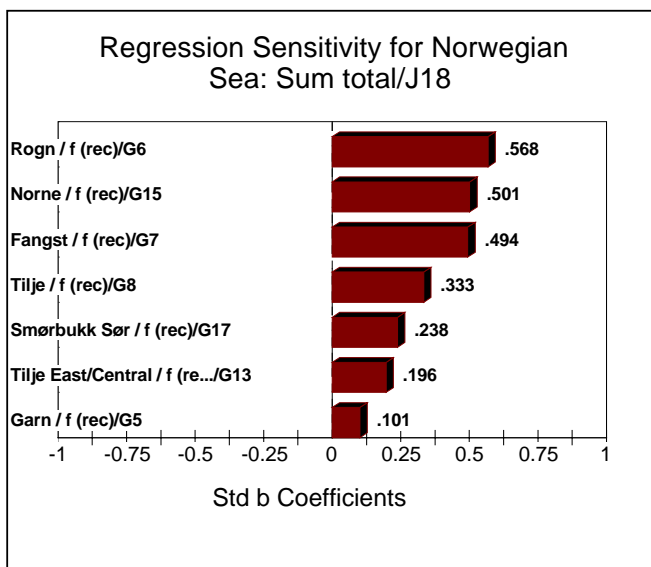
Simulation Results for Norwegian Sea: Sum total / J18



Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo Norskehav
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	13
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 12:24
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 12:25
Simulation Duration	00:00:04
Random Seed	516539911

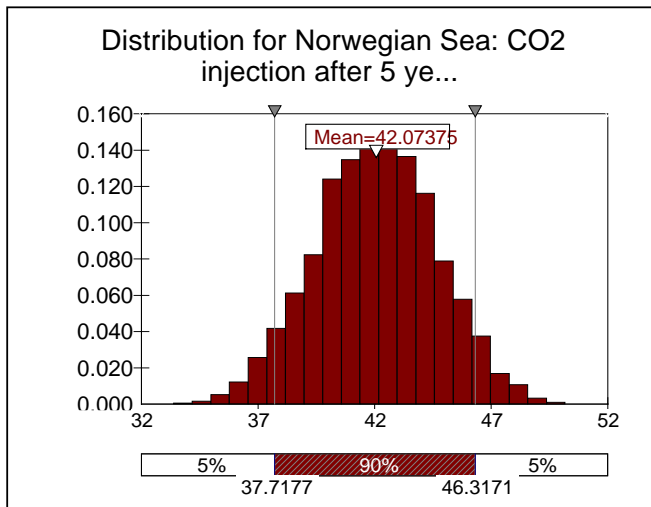


Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	37.3	5 %	41.5
Maximum	54.3	10 %	42.4
Mean	45.8	15 %	43.1
Std Dev	2.6	20 %	43.6
Variance	6.560164025	25 %	44.0
Skewness	-0.051612417	30 %	44.4
Kurtosis	2.85669199	35 %	44.7
Median	45.7	40 %	45.1
Mode	43.9	45 %	45.4
Left X	41.5	50 %	45.7
Left P	5 %	55 %	46.1
Right X	50.0	60 %	46.4
Right P	95 %	65 %	46.8
Diff X	8.5	70 %	47.1
Diff P	90 %	75 %	47.5
#Errors	0	80 %	48.0
Filter Min		85 %	48.5
Filter Max		90 %	49.0
#Filtered	0	95 %	50.0

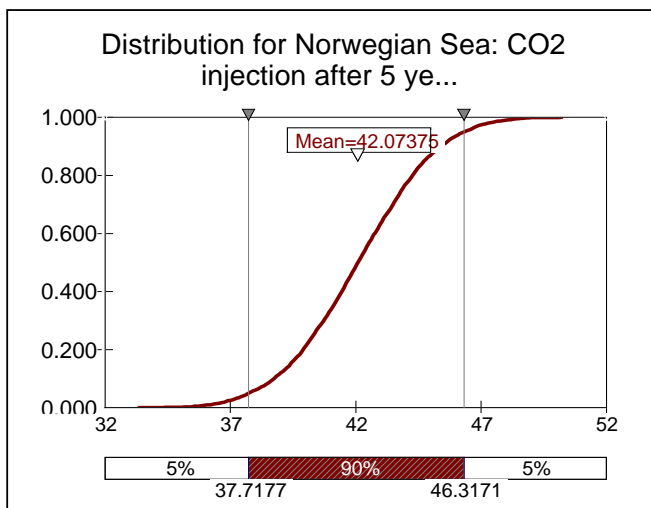


Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Rogn / f (rec) / \$	0.568	0.550
#2	Norne / f (rec) /	0.501	0.476
#3	Fangst / f (rec) /	0.494	0.449
#4	Tilje / f (rec) / \$C	0.333	0.305
#5	Smørbukk Sør /	0.238	0.229
#6	Tilje East/Centra	0.196	0.188
#7	Garn / f (rec) / \$	0.101	0.099
#8	Åre / f (rec) / \$G	0.000	0.035
#9	Ile East/Central	0.000	-0.025
#10	Heidrun Nord / f	0.000	-0.001
#11	Smørbukk / f (re	0.000	0.005
#12	Tilje North / f (re	0.000	0.006
#13	Ile North / f (rec)	0.000	0.011
#14			
#15			
#16			

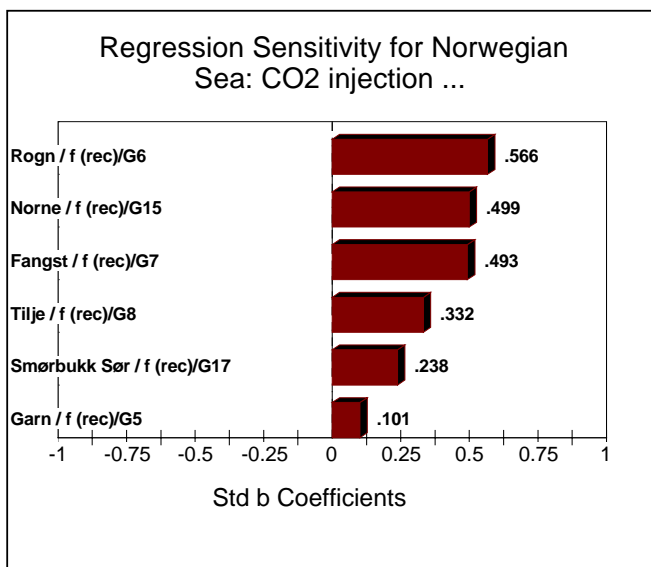
Simulation Results for Norwegian Sea: CO₂ injection after 5 year / I18



Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo Norskehavn
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	13
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 12:22
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 12:22
Simulation Duration	00:00:03
Random Seed	2055165268

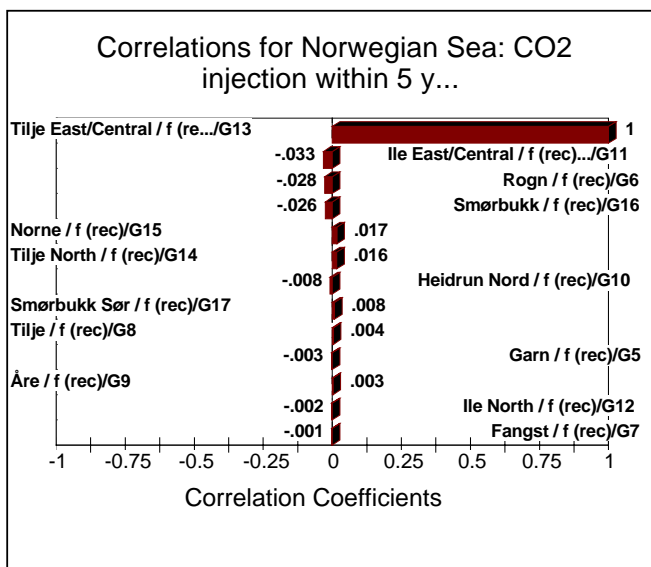
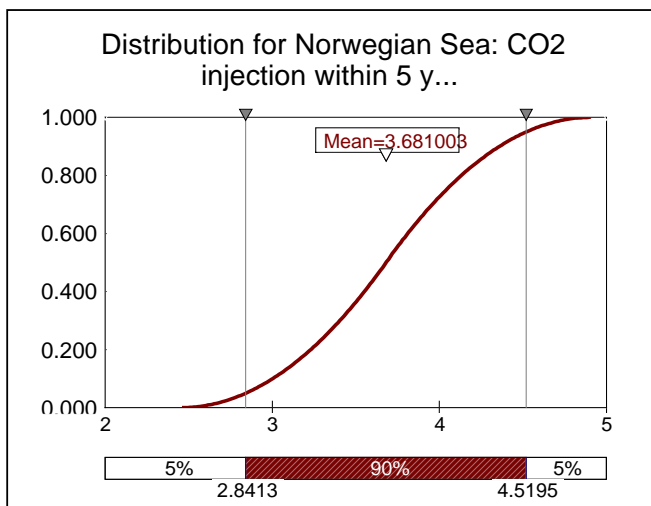
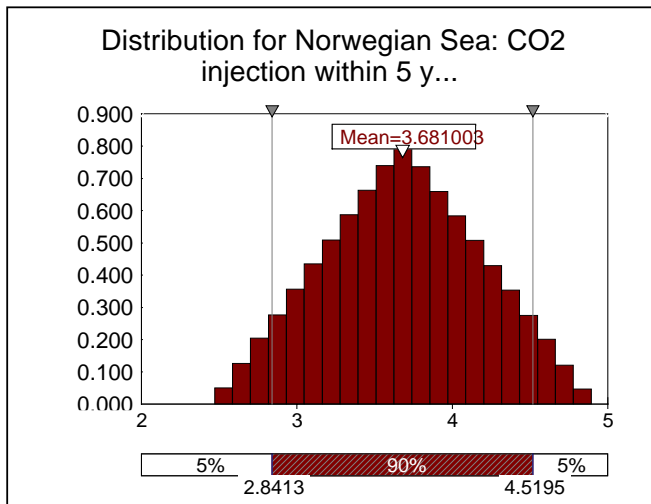


Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	33.4	5 %	37.7
Maximum	50.2	10 %	38.7
Mean	42.1	15 %	39.4
Std Dev	2.6	20 %	39.9
Variance	6.597231847	25 %	40.3
Skewness	-0.035621984	30 %	40.7
Kurtosis	2.809427747	35 %	41.1
Median	42.1	40 %	41.4
Mode	43.5	45 %	41.8
Left X	37.7	50 %	42.1
Left P	5 %	55 %	42.4
Right X	46.3	60 %	42.8
Right P	95 %	65 %	43.1
Diff X	8.6	70 %	43.5
Diff P	90 %	75 %	43.8
#Errors	0	80 %	44.3
Filter Min		85 %	44.7
Filter Max		90 %	45.4
#Filtered	0	95 %	46.3



Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Rogn / f (rec) / \$	0.566	0.576
#2	Norne / f (rec) / \$	0.499	0.476
#3	Fangst / f (rec) / \$	0.493	0.466
#4	Tilje / f (rec) / \$	0.332	0.335
#5	Smørbukk Sør / f (rec) / \$	0.238	0.251
#6	Garn / f (rec) / \$	0.101	0.103
#7	Tilje North / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.003
#8	Smørbukk / f (rec) / \$	0.000	0.011
#9	Åre / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.004
#10	Heidrun Nord / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.001
#11	Ile East/Central / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.002
#12	Tilje East/Central / f (rec) / \$	0.000	0.016
#13	Ile North / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.016
#14			
#15			
#16			

Simulation Results for Norwegian Sea: CO₂ injection within 5 year / H18

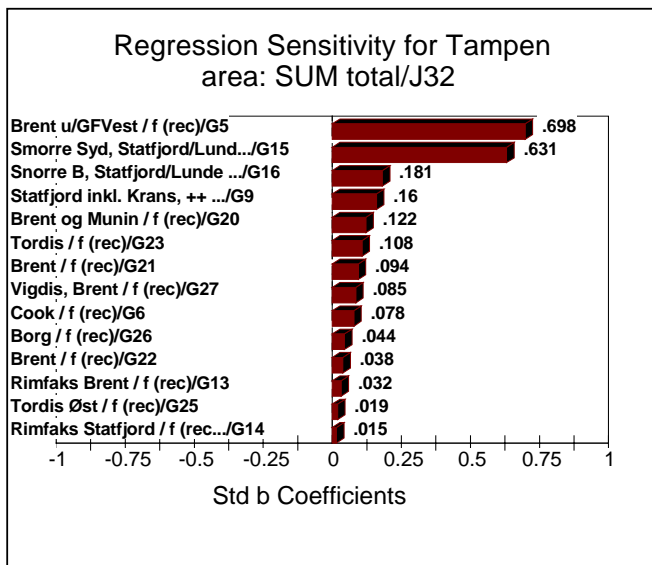
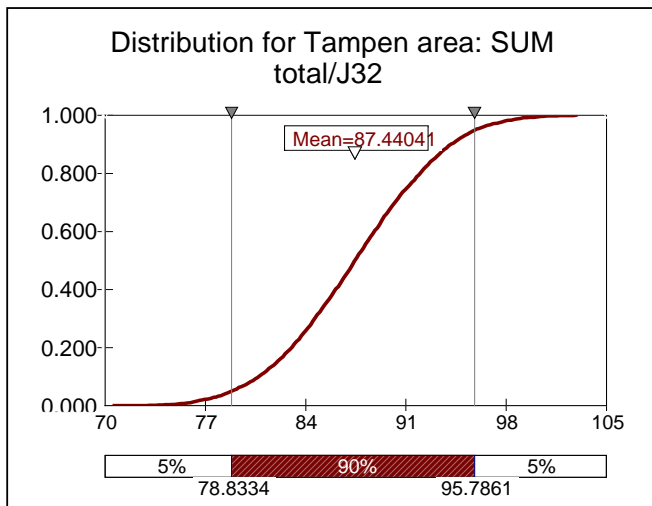
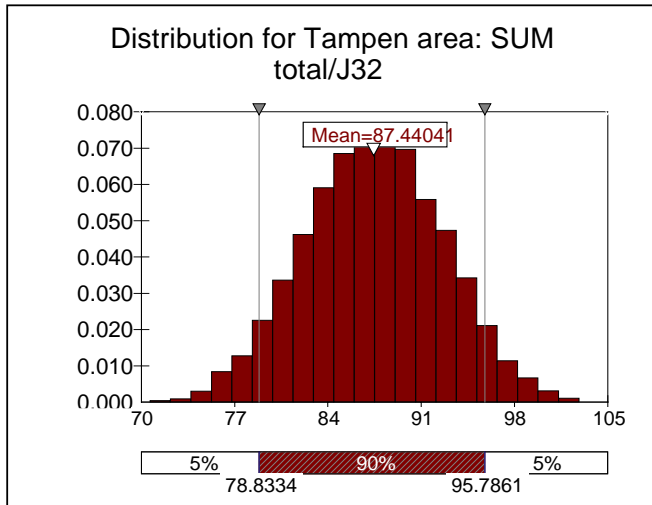


Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo Norskehav
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	13
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 11:22
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 11:22
Simulation Duration	00:00:03
Random Seed	2046581132

Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	2.5	5 %	2.8
Maximum	4.9	10 %	3.0
Mean	3.7	15 %	3.1
Std Dev	0.5	20 %	3.2
Variance	0.250971955	25 %	3.3
Skewness	3.49464E-05	30 %	3.4
Kurtosis	2.402508467	35 %	3.5
Median	3.7	40 %	3.6
Mode	3.7	45 %	3.6
Left X	2.8	50 %	3.7
Left P	5 %	55 %	3.7
Right X	4.5	60 %	3.8
Right P	95 %	65 %	3.9
Diff X	1.7	70 %	4.0
Diff P	90 %	75 %	4.0
#Errors	0	80 %	4.1
Filter Min		85 %	4.2
Filter Max		90 %	4.4
#Filtered	0	95 %	4.5

Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Tilje East/Centra	1.000	1.000
#2	Tilje / f (rec) / \$C	0.000	0.004
#3	Smørbukk / f (re	0.000	-0.026
#4	Heidrun Nord / f	0.000	-0.008
#5	Fangst / f (rec) /	0.000	-0.001
#6	Ile North / f (rec)	0.000	-0.002
#7	Tilje North / f (re	0.000	0.016
#8	Garn / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.003
#9	Smørbukk Sør /	0.000	0.008
#10	Rogn / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.028
#11	Åre / f (rec) / \$G	0.000	0.003
#12	Ile East/Central	0.000	-0.033
#13	Norne / f (rec) /	0.000	0.017
#14			
#15			
#16			

Simulation Results for Tampen area: SUM total / J32

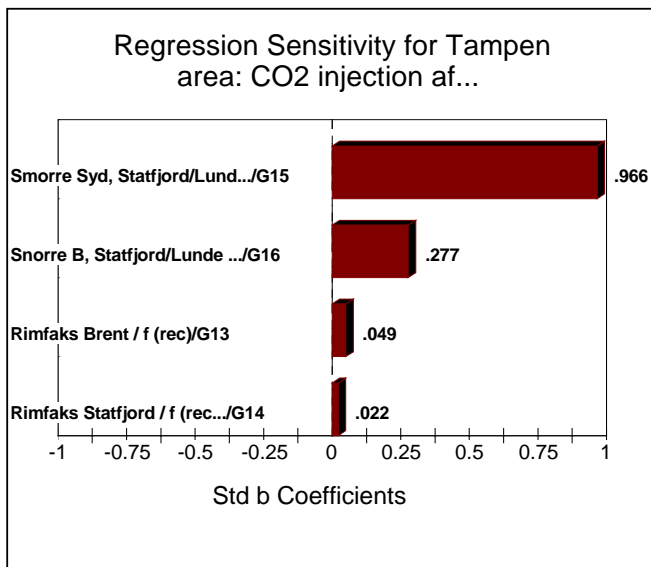
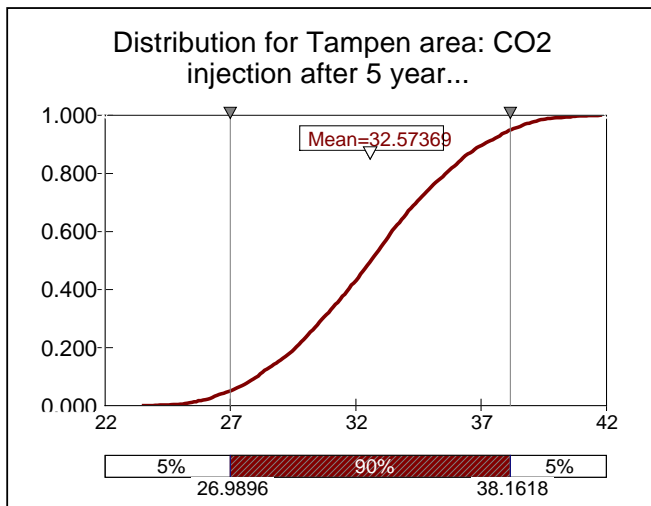
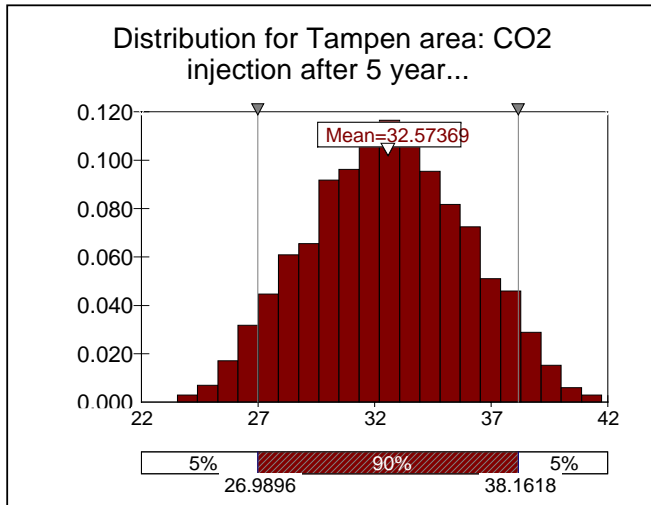


Summary Information	
Workbook Name	but Monte Carlo Tampen.
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	27
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 11:13
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 11:13
Simulation Duration	00:00:05
Random Seed	107157192

Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	70.7	5 %	78.8
Maximum	102.9	10 %	80.7
Mean	87.4	15 %	82.0
Std Dev	5.2	20 %	83.0
Variance	26.64446297	25 %	83.9
Skewness	-0.015340793	30 %	84.6
Kurtosis	2.71912679	35 %	85.4
Median	87.4	40 %	86.1
Mode	88.7	45 %	86.8
Left X	78.8	50 %	87.4
Left P	5 %	55 %	88.1
Right X	95.8	60 %	88.8
Right P	95 %	65 %	89.5
Diff X	17.0	70 %	90.2
Diff P	90 %	75 %	91.0
#Errors	0	80 %	92.0
Filter Min		85 %	93.0
Filter Max		90 %	94.1
#Filtered	0	95 %	95.8

Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Brent u/GFVest	0.698	0.688
#2	Smorre Syd, Sta	0.631	0.612
#3	Snorre B, Statfj	0.181	0.187
#4	Statfjord inkl. Kr	0.160	0.131
#5	Brent og Munin	0.122	0.135
#6	Tordis / f (rec) /	0.108	0.117
#7	Brent / f (rec) / \$	0.094	0.095
#8	Vigdis, Brent / f	0.085	0.086
#9	Cook / f (rec) / \$	0.078	0.069
#10	Borg / f (rec) / \$	0.044	0.074
#11	Brent / f (rec) / \$	0.038	0.064
#12	Rimfaks Brent /	0.032	0.034
#13	Tordis Øst / f (re	0.019	0.017
#14	Rimfaks Statfjor	0.015	0.011
#15	Startfjord/Amun	0.000	-0.005
#16	Gullveig Brent /	0.000	-0.001

Simulation Results for Tampen area: CO₂ injection after 5 year / I32

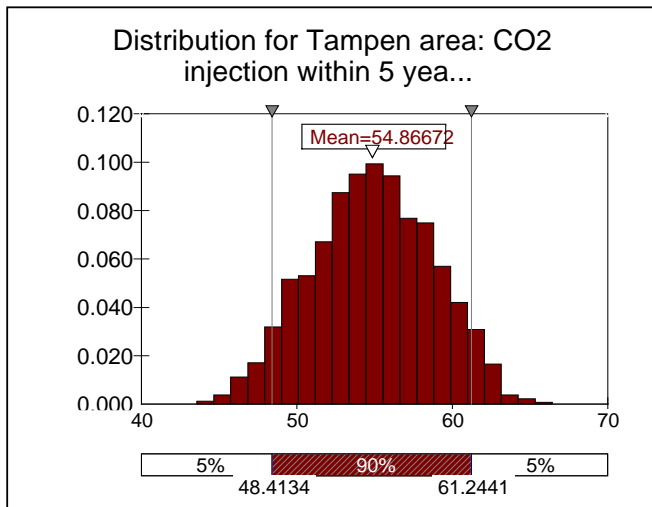


Summary Information	
Workbook Name	but Monte Carlo Tampen.
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	27
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 11:11
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 11:11
Simulation Duration	00:00:05
Random Seed	1854066579

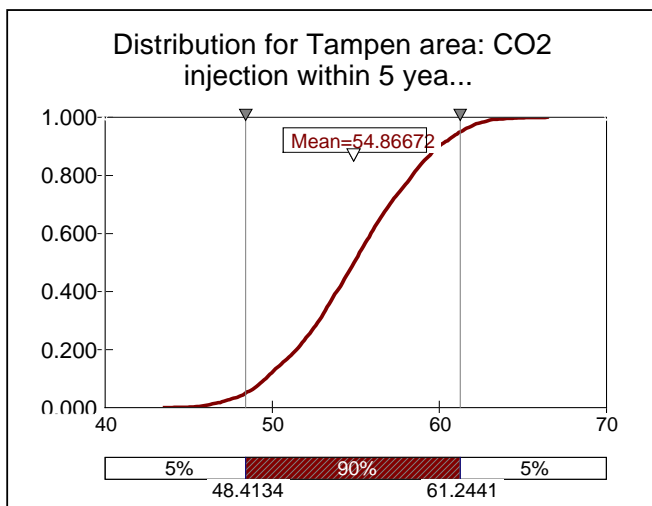
Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	23.5	5 %	27.0
Maximum	41.7	10 %	28.1
Mean	32.6	15 %	28.9
Std Dev	3.4	20 %	29.6
Variance	11.37961215	25 %	30.2
Skewness	0.003678297	30 %	30.7
Kurtosis	2.500728014	35 %	31.2
Median	32.6	40 %	31.7
Mode	28.8	45 %	32.2
Left X	27.0	50 %	32.6
Left P	5 %	55 %	33.0
Right X	38.2	60 %	33.4
Right P	95 %	65 %	33.9
Diff X	11.2	70 %	34.4
Diff P	90 %	75 %	35.0
#Errors	0	80 %	35.6
Filter Min		85 %	36.2
Filter Max		90 %	37.1
#Filtered	0	95 %	38.2

Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Smorre Syd, Sta	0.966	0.959
#2	Snorre B, Statfj	0.277	0.236
#3	Rimfaks Brent /	0.049	0.044
#4	Rimfaks Statfjor	0.022	0.022
#5	Brent / f (rec) / \$	0.000	0.003
#6	Cook / f (rec) / \$	0.000	0.004
#7	Brent og Munin	0.000	0.002
#8	Startfjord/Amun	0.000	0.013
#9	Tordis Sør Øst	0.000	0.007
#10	Brent / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.019
#11	GF Sør Statfjor	0.000	-0.005
#12	Lunde / f (rec) /	0.000	0.015
#13	Gullfaks Vest in	0.000	-0.023
#14	Brent NII / f (rec	0.000	-0.008
#15	Statfjord inkl. Kr	0.000	-0.014
#16	Brent NI / f (rec)	0.000	0.024

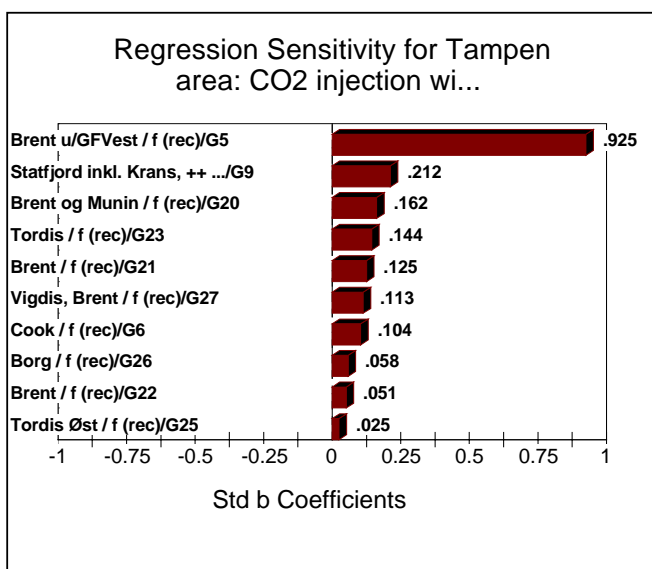
Simulation Results for Tampen area: CO₂ injection within 5 year / H32



Summary Information	
Workbook Name	but Monte Carlo Tampen.
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	27
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 11:08
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 11:08
Simulation Duration	00:00:05
Random Seed	1335337573

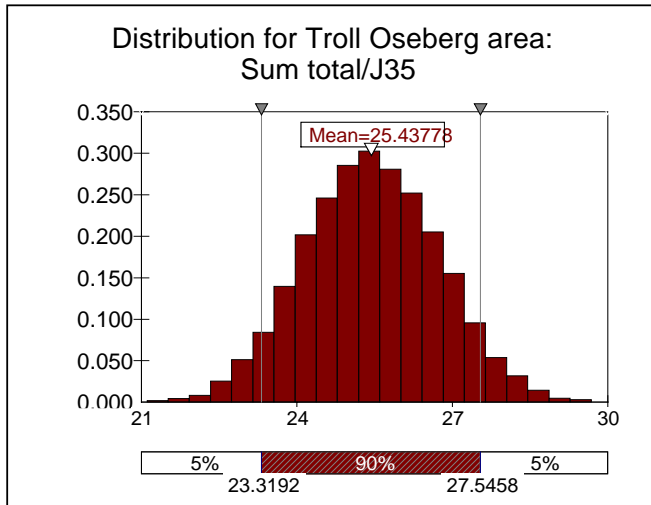


Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	43.6	5 %	48.4
Maximum	66.4	10 %	49.6
Mean	54.9	15 %	50.5
Std Dev	3.9	20 %	51.5
Variance	15.16403399	25 %	52.2
Skewness	-0.050075122	30 %	52.8
Kurtosis	2.543247664	35 %	53.3
Median	54.9	40 %	53.9
Mode	54.5	45 %	54.4
Left X	48.4	50 %	54.9
Left P	5 %	55 %	55.4
Right X	61.2	60 %	55.9
Right P	95 %	65 %	56.4
Diff X	12.8	70 %	57.0
Diff P	90 %	75 %	57.7
#Errors	0	80 %	58.4
Filter Min		85 %	59.1
Filter Max		90 %	60.0
#Filtered	0	95 %	61.2

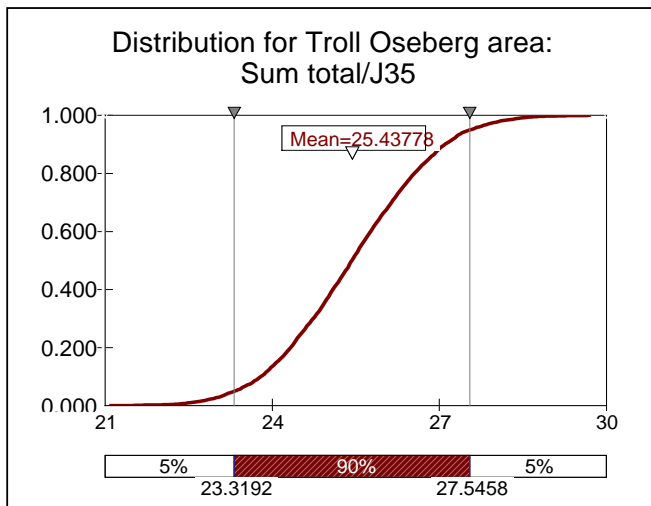


Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Brent u/GFVest	0.925	0.927
#2	Statfjord inkl. Krans, ++ .../G9	0.212	0.199
#3	Brent og Munin / f (rec)/G20	0.162	0.169
#4	Tordis / f (rec) / G23	0.144	0.145
#5	Brent / f (rec) / G21	0.125	0.117
#6	Vigdis, Brent / f (rec) / G27	0.113	0.126
#7	Cook / f (rec) / G6	0.104	0.108
#8	Borg / f (rec) / G26	0.058	0.053
#9	Brent / f (rec) / G22	0.051	0.030
#10	Tordis Øst / f (rec) / G25	0.025	0.014
#11	Gullveig Brent / f (rec) / G24	0.000	0.029
#12	Gullfaks Vest in / f (rec) / G28	0.000	0.005
#13	GF Sør Brent / f (rec) / G29	0.000	-0.007
#14	Smorre Syd, Statfjord / f (rec) / G30	0.000	0.012
#15	Statfjord / f (rec) / G31	0.000	0.003
#16	Snorre B, Statfjord / f (rec) / G32	0.000	-0.017

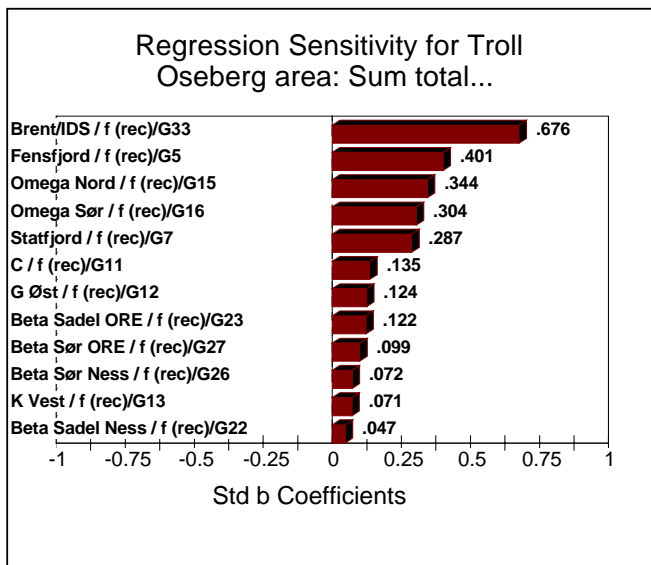
Simulation Results for Troll Oseberg area: Sum total / J35



Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo Troll Osebe
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	30
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 11:02
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 11:02
Simulation Duration	00:00:06
Random Seed	2100978818

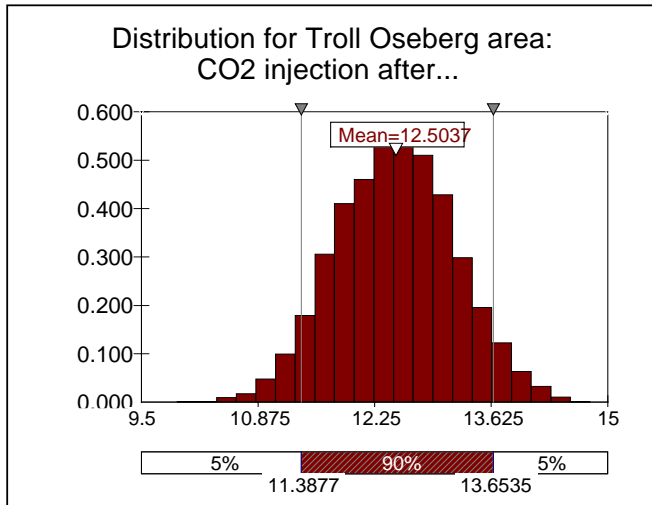


Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	21.1	5 %	23.3
Maximum	29.7	10 %	23.8
Mean	25.4	15 %	24.1
Std Dev	1.3	20 %	24.3
Variance	1.665756676	25 %	24.5
Skewness	0.026176566	30 %	24.7
Kurtosis	2.838716521	35 %	24.9
Median	25.4	40 %	25.1
Mode	23.8	45 %	25.3
Left X	23.3	50 %	25.4
Left P	5 %	55 %	25.6
Right X	27.5	60 %	25.8
Right P	95 %	65 %	25.9
Diff X	4.2	70 %	26.1
Diff P	90 %	75 %	26.3
#Errors	0	80 %	26.5
Filter Min		85 %	26.8
Filter Max		90 %	27.1
#Filtered	0	95 %	27.5

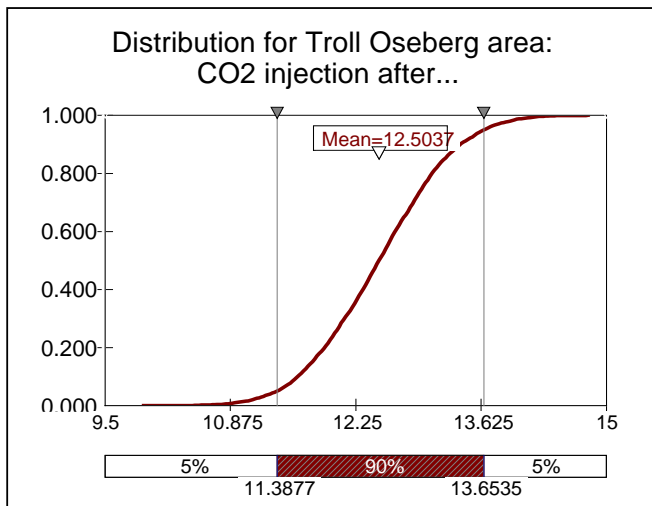


Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Brent/IDS / f (rec)	0.676	0.683
#2	Fensfjord / f (rec)	0.401	0.400
#3	Omega Nord / f (rec)	0.344	0.337
#4	Omega Sør / f (rec)	0.304	0.292
#5	Statfjord / f (rec)	0.287	0.274
#6	C / f (rec) / \$G\$	0.135	0.135
#7	G Øst / f (rec) / \$G\$	0.124	0.117
#8	Beta Sadel ORE / f (rec)	0.122	0.149
#9	Beta Sør ORE / f (rec)	0.099	0.069
#10	Beta Sør Ness / f (rec)	0.072	0.093
#11	K Vest / f (rec) / \$G\$	0.071	0.062
#12	Beta Sadel Ness / f (rec)	0.047	0.039
#13	Troll Vest Fensf	0.000	0.028
#14	Oljeprovinsen / f (rec)	0.000	-0.015
#15	Statfjord / f (rec)	0.000	0.003
#16	Beta Saddle No	0.000	0.015

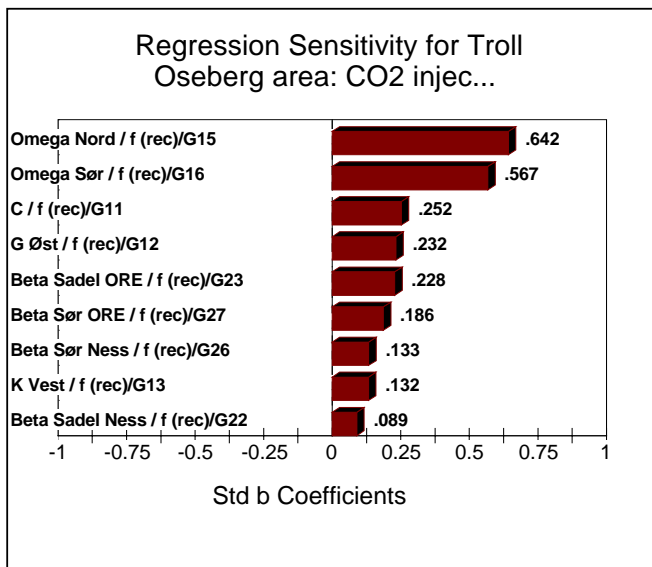
Simulation Results for Troll Oseberg area: CO₂ injection after 5 year / I35



Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo Troll Osebe
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	30
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 10:59
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 10:59
Simulation Duration	00:00:06
Random Seed	1481974552

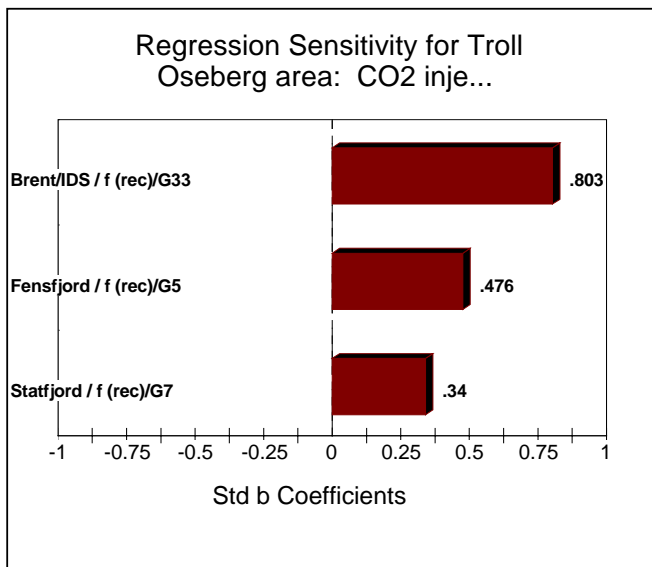
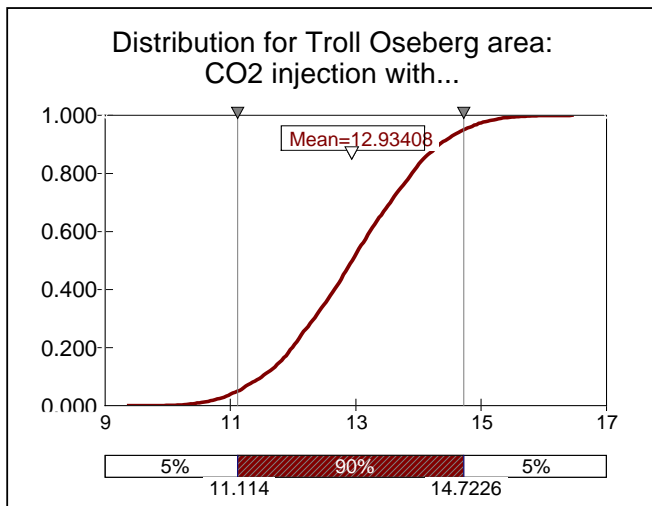
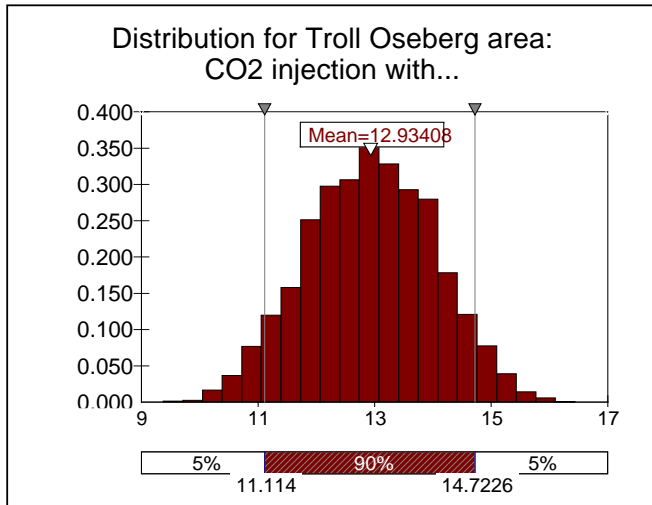


Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	9.9	5 %	11.4
Maximum	14.8	10 %	11.6
Mean	12.5	15 %	11.8
Std Dev	0.7	20 %	11.9
Variance	0.478282666	25 %	12.0
Skewness	0.008012449	30 %	12.1
Kurtosis	2.817043932	35 %	12.2
Median	12.5	40 %	12.3
Mode	11.9	45 %	12.4
Left X	11.4	50 %	12.5
Left P	5 %	55 %	12.6
Right X	13.7	60 %	12.7
Right P	95 %	65 %	12.8
Diff X	2.3	70 %	12.9
Diff P	90 %	75 %	13.0
#Errors	0	80 %	13.1
Filter Min		85 %	13.2
Filter Max		90 %	13.4
#Filtered	0	95 %	13.7



Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Omega Nord / f	0.642	0.658
#2	Omega Sør / f	0.567	0.564
#3	C / f (rec) / \$G\$	0.252	0.246
#4	G Øst / f (rec) / \$	0.232	0.232
#5	Beta Sadel ORE	0.228	0.210
#6	Beta Sør ORE /	0.186	0.192
#7	Beta Sør Ness /	0.133	0.112
#8	K Vest / f (rec) /	0.132	0.120
#9	Beta Sadel Nes	0.089	0.072
#10	K Øst / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.007
#11	Oljeprovinsen /	0.000	0.024
#12	Tarbert / f (rec) /	0.000	0.015
#13	Brent/IDS / f (re	0.000	0.001
#14	Statfjord / f (rec)	0.000	-0.005
#15	Troll Vest Fensf	0.000	-0.018
#16	Beta Saddle No	0.000	0.020

Simulation Results for Troll Oseberg area: CO₂ injection within 5 year / H35

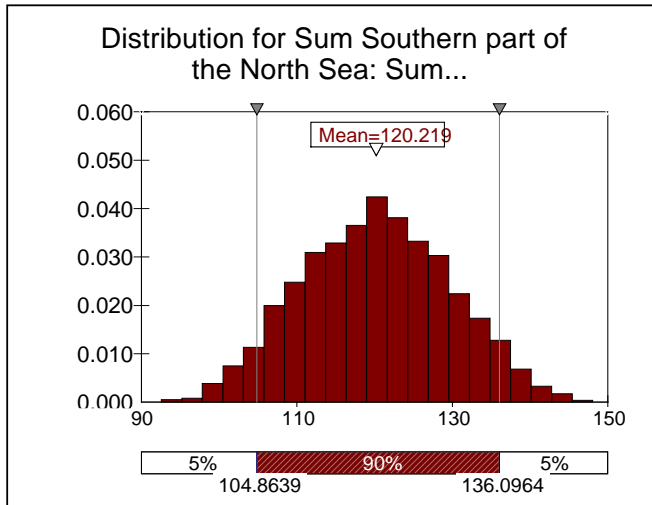


Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo Troll Osebe
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	30
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 10:56
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 10:56
Simulation Duration	00:00:06
Random Seed	916521405

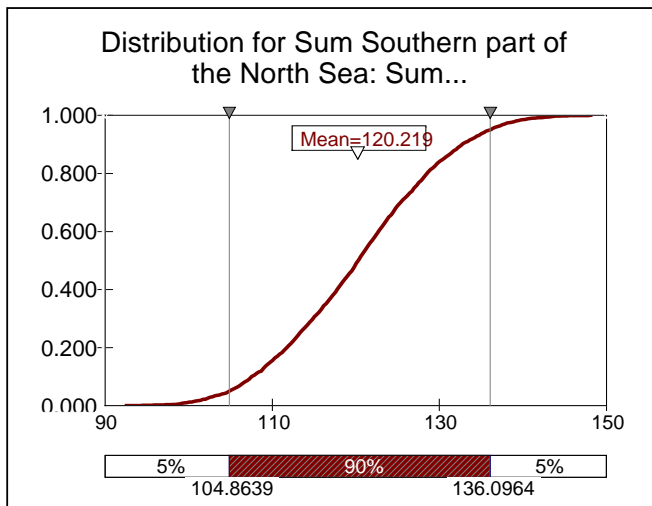
Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	9.4	5 %	11.1
Maximum	16.4	10 %	11.5
Mean	12.9	15 %	11.8
Std Dev	1.1	20 %	12.0
Variance	1.182699701	25 %	12.1
Skewness	-0.023682168	30 %	12.3
Kurtosis	2.641319166	35 %	12.5
Median	12.9	40 %	12.7
Mode	11.9	45 %	12.8
Left X	11.1	50 %	12.9
Left P	5 %	55 %	13.1
Right X	14.7	60 %	13.2
Right P	95 %	65 %	13.4
Diff X	3.6	70 %	13.6
Diff P	90 %	75 %	13.7
#Errors	0	80 %	13.9
Filter Min		85 %	14.1
Filter Max		90 %	14.3
#Filtered	0	95 %	14.7

Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Brent/IDS / f (rec)	0.803	0.805
#2	Fensfjord / f (rec)	0.476	0.474
#3	Statfjord / f (rec)	0.340	0.337
#4	Beta Sør LOSS	0.000	-0.012
#5	Ness / f (rec) / \$	0.000	-0.012
#6	Omega Nord / f	0.000	0.001
#7	Beta Sadel Tarb	0.000	-0.003
#8	Beta Sadel LOS	0.000	0.008
#9	Beta Saddle No	0.000	0.005
#10	Beta Sadel ORE	0.000	0.019
#11	C / f (rec) / \$G\$	0.000	0.006
#12	Beta Saddle No	0.000	0.014
#13	Omega Sør / f (0.000	0.001
#14	K Vest / f (rec) /	0.000	0.009
#15	Gamma Nord / f	0.000	-0.008
#16	ORELN2 / f (rec)	0.000	-0.007

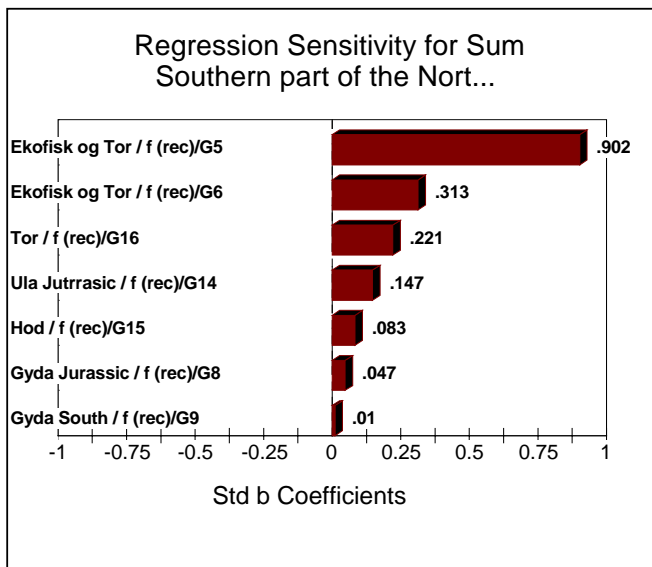
Simulation Results for Southern part of the North Sea: Sum total / J17



Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo sørlige nord
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	12
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.05.2003 08:36
Simulation Stop Time	07.05.2003 08:36
Simulation Duration	00:00:03
Random Seed	1845406161

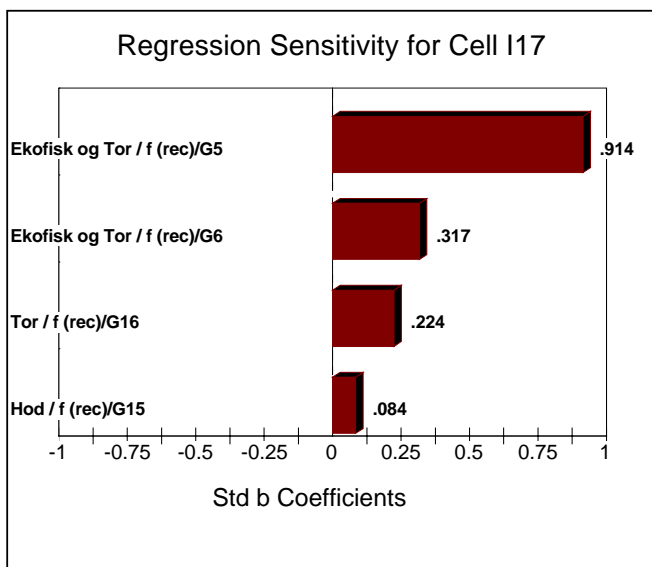
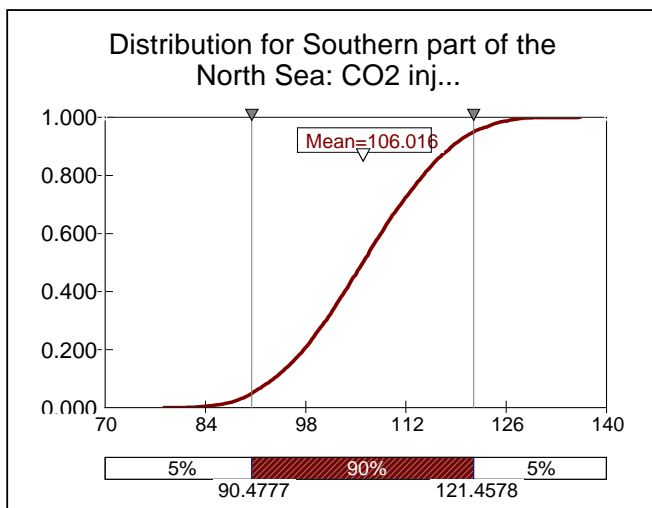
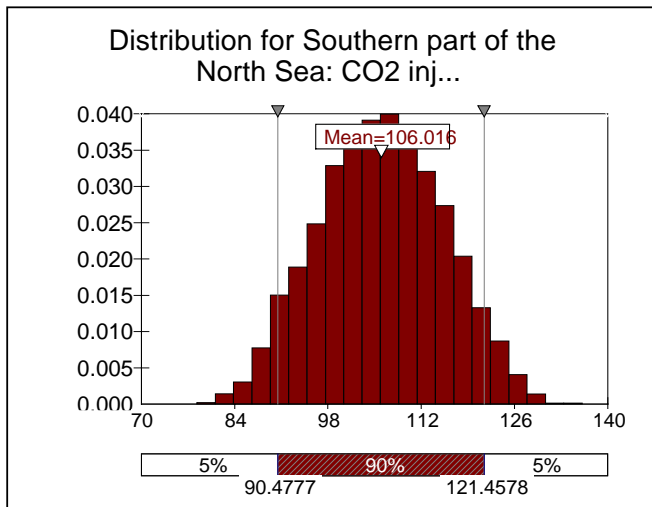


Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	92.6	5 %	104.9
Maximum	148.1	10 %	107.5
Mean	120.2	15 %	109.8
Std Dev	9.5	20 %	111.7
Variance	90.08849765	25 %	113.3
Skewness	0.021018492	30 %	114.9
Kurtosis	2.55875693	35 %	116.3
Median	120.3	40 %	117.8
Mode	119.3	45 %	119.1
Left X	104.9	50 %	120.3
Left P	5 %	55 %	121.5
Right X	136.1	60 %	122.7
Right P	95 %	65 %	123.9
Diff X	31.2	70 %	125.4
Diff P	90 %	75 %	127.0
#Errors	0	80 %	128.5
Filter Min		85 %	130.5
Filter Max		90 %	132.7
#Filtered	0	95 %	136.1



Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.902	0.902
#2	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.313	0.309
#3	Tor / f (rec) / \$G	0.221	0.208
#4	Ula Juttrasic / f	0.147	0.161
#5	Hod / f (rec) / \$C	0.083	0.091
#6	Gyda Jurassic /	0.047	0.047
#7	Gyda South / f (0.010	0.020
#8	Dev. og Perm. /	0.000	-0.002
#9	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.000	0.001
#10	Hod / f (rec) / \$C	0.000	-0.006
#11	Tor/Ekofisk / f (r	0.000	-0.011
#12	Gyda Jurrasic /	0.000	-0.026
#13			
#14			
#15			
#16			

Simulation Results for Southern part of the North Sea: CO₂ injection after 5 year / I17

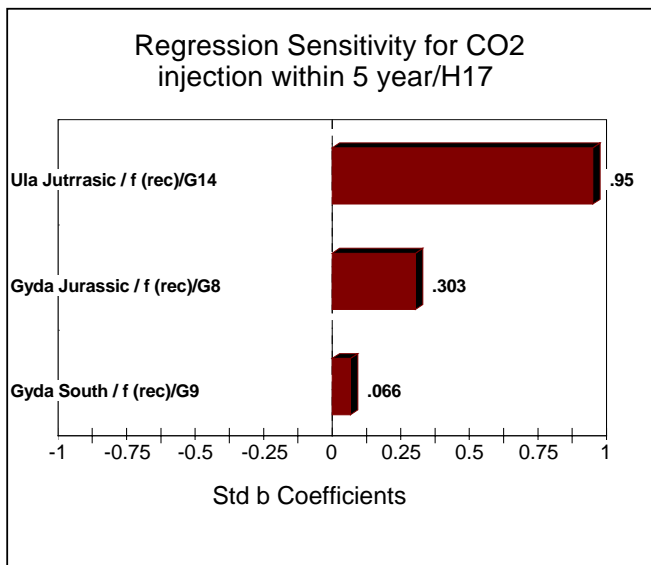
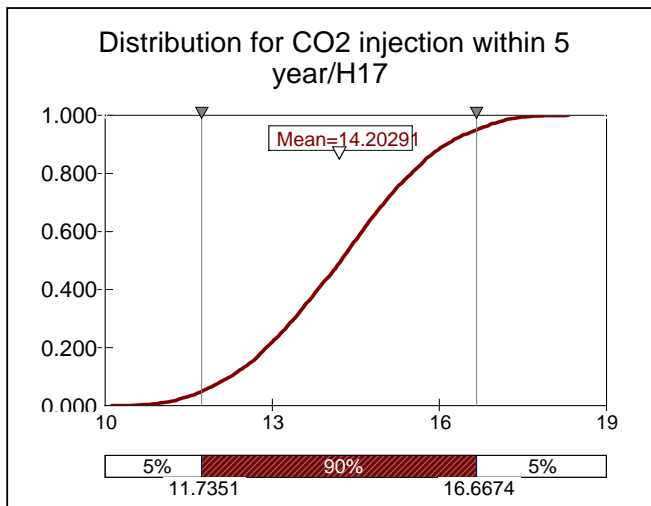
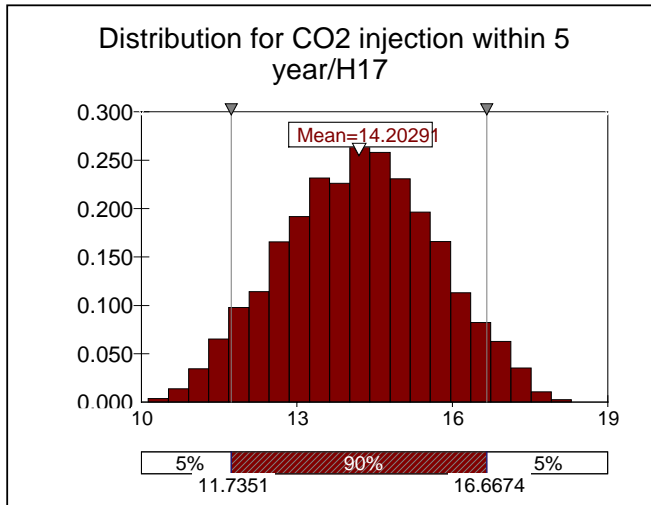


Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo sørlige nord
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	12
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.04.2003 10:06
Simulation Stop Time	07.04.2003 10:07
Simulation Duration	00:00:04
Random Seed	936988329

Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	78.3	5 %	90.5
Maximum	136.2	10 %	93.5
Mean	106.0	15 %	95.8
Std Dev	9.4	20 %	97.7
Variance	87.84462415	25 %	99.3
Skewness	0.009779209	30 %	100.8
Kurtosis	2.530898318	35 %	102.1
Median	106.0	40 %	103.5
Mode	106.9	45 %	104.7
Left X	90.5	50 %	106.0
Left P	5 %	55 %	107.2
Right X	121.5	60 %	108.5
Right P	95 %	65 %	109.8
Diff X	31.0	70 %	111.3
Diff P	90 %	75 %	112.8
#Errors	0	80 %	114.4
Filter Min		85 %	116.1
Filter Max		90 %	118.4
#Filtered	0	95 %	121.5

Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.914	0.917
#2	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.317	0.317
#3	Tor / f (rec) / \$G	0.224	0.204
#4	Hod / f (rec) / \$C	0.084	0.084
#5	Gyda South / f (0.000	0.018
#6	Dev. og Perm. /	0.000	0.013
#7	Gyda Jurrasic /	0.000	-0.002
#8	Hod / f (rec) / \$C	0.000	-0.001
#9	Ula Jutrasic / f	0.000	0.012
#10	Gyda Jurassic /	0.000	-0.001
#11	Tor/Ekofisk / f (r	0.000	-0.016
#12	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.000	0.006
#13			
#14			
#15			
#16			

Simulation Results for Southern part of the North Sea: CO₂ injection within 5 year / H17



Summary Information	
Workbook Name	Monte Carlo sørlige nord
Number of Simulations	1
Number of Iterations	5000
Number of Inputs	12
Number of Outputs	1
Sampling Type	Latin Hypercube
Simulation Start Time	07.05.2003 08:28
Simulation Stop Time	07.05.2003 08:28
Simulation Duration	00:00:03
Random Seed	164732400

Summary Statistics			
Statistic	Value	%tile	Value
Minimum	10.1	5 %	11.7
Maximum	18.3	10 %	12.2
Mean	14.2	15 %	12.6
Std Dev	1.5	20 %	12.9
Variance	2.145996433	25 %	13.2
Skewness	-0.020386474	30 %	13.4
Kurtosis	2.522307077	35 %	13.6
Median	14.2	40 %	13.8
Mode	14.2	45 %	14.0
Left X	11.7	50 %	14.2
Left P	5 %	55 %	14.4
Right X	16.7	60 %	14.6
Right P	95 %	65 %	14.8
Diff X	4.9	70 %	15.0
Diff P	90 %	75 %	15.2
#Errors	0	80 %	15.5
Filter Min		85 %	15.8
Filter Max		90 %	16.1
#Filtered	0	95 %	16.7

Sensitivity			
Rank	Name	Regr	Corr
#1	Ula Juttrasic / f	0.950	0.951
#2	Gyda Jurassic /	0.303	0.288
#3	Gyda South / f (0.066	0.039
#4	Dev. og Perm. /	0.000	-0.014
#5	Hod / f (rec) / \$C	0.000	-0.004
#6	Hod / f (rec) / \$C	0.000	-0.008
#7	Gyda Juttrasic /	0.000	0.002
#8	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.000	-0.005
#9	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.000	0.004
#10	Ekofisk og Tor /	0.000	-0.008
#11	Tor / f (rec) / \$G	0.000	-0.015
#12	Tor/Ekofisk / f (r	0.000	0.004
#13			
#14			
#15			
#16			

APPENDIX B**Confidential enclosure (Not Available)**

- Fluid data and compositions used in the MMP simulations
- Oil production, history and prognosis for each of the 36 oilfields