Ethane-Based Enhanced Oil Recovery: An Innovative and Profitable Enhanced-Oil-Recovery Opportunity for a Low-Price Environment

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Summary

This paper summarizes the current state of the ethane industry in the United States (US) and explores the opportunity for using ethane for enhanced oil recovery (EOR). We show both simulation data and field examples to demonstrate that ethane is an excellent EOR injectant.

After decades of research and field application, the use of carbon dioxide $(CO₂)$ as an EOR injectant has proved to be very successful. However, there are limited supplies of low-cost $CO₂$ available, and there are also significant drawbacks, especially corrosion, involving its use. The rich gases and volatile oils developed by horizontal drilling and fracturing in the shale reservoirs have brought about an enormous increase in ethane production. Ethane prices have dropped substantially. In the US, ethane is no longer priced as a petrochemical feedstock, but is priced as a fuel. Also, substantial quantities of ethane are currently being flared.

Ethane-based EOR can supplement the very successful $CO₂$ based EOR industry in the US. There simply is not enough low- \cos CO₂ available to undertake all the potential gas EOR projects in the US. The current abundance of low-cost ethane presents a significant opportunity to add new gas EOR projects. The ethanebased EOR opportunity can be summarized as follows:

• $CO₂$ -based EOR works well, and is well-understood.

- Ethane has more solubility in oil, lower minimum miscibility pressures (MMPs), and better solvent efficiency than $CO₂$.
- Ethane is operationally simpler than $CO₂$ for EOR.
- Ethane is now inexpensive, and will likely stay inexpensive.
- Ethane-based EOR has become a viable option in the Lower 48 (lower 48 states in US). Large volumes of low-cost ethane are available. Recent additions to the growing ethane infrastructure now deliver ethane to locations where ethanebased EOR targets are plentiful.

Introduction

EOR has been very successfully used in the US for decades. US EOR production has been sustained at roughly 700,000 MBOPD. The most important technology before the 1990s was thermal EOR, mostly cyclic steam and steamdrive in California. Beginning in the 1980s, thermal EOR was supplemented with $CO₂$ EOR in the Permian Basin and hydrocarbon water-alternating-gas (WAG) in Alaska. As shown in Fig. 1, thermal EOR is a mature technology with slowly declining production rates. During the same time span, gas EOR has continued to increase in both absolute rates (left figure) and in the fraction of EOR in the US (right figure), and in 2014 accounted for more than 60% of the US EOR production.

Although oil-rate forecasting is by no means exact, the EOR production from $US CO₂$ projects is forecast to increase substantially (Fig. 2). The absolute numbers in the forecast may not be correct, but the trend of increasing $CO₂ EOR$ production is clear. New CO₂ EOR projects are under way in Wyoming, Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas, and Louisiana. $CO₂ EOR$ onshore is a very successful, very mature technology, and the risks are low.

The magnitude of the $CO₂ EOR$ potential in the US is tens of billions of additional barrels of recovery. Most of this potential is in old onshore fields in the Lower 48, where costs are relatively low and the geology is well-understood. The US Department of Energy (DOE) report on "Next Generation" CO₂ EOR (shown in Table 1) estimated that the economic-recovery potential of $CO₂ EOR$ in the Lower 48 onshore is 60 billion bbl [2012 Advanced Resources International (ARI 2012) update of DOE/NETL-2011/1504].

CO₂ Supply

Extensive experience in designing and evaluating EOR projects around the world has made one thing extremely clear: Successful EOR projects are always based on the economical availability of the appropriate EOR injectants. Good EOR targets exist almost everywhere, but the limiting factor is the availability of an appropriate EOR injectant at an acceptable cost. The biggest obstacle for the huge $CO₂$ EOR reserves in Table 1 was cited as the need for an additional 25 billion t (475 Tcf) of relatively low-cost $CO₂$. Currently, available $CO₂$ supplies were estimated at 2.3 billion t (44 Tcf). This represents a tenfold increase in the need for low- $\cos \text{CO}_2$ supplies.

Fig. 3 shows the existing $CO₂$ EOR infrastructure in the US. With one exception, the major natural sources of $CO₂$ have all been developed. The St. Johns $CO₂$ field on the Arizona/New Mexico border was expected to provide 1.3 Tcf of $CO₂$ at a total project cost of USD 982 million (Brock 2014). In January 2015, the project was deferred, and the right-of-way application was withdrawn (Arenivas 2015). The remaining undeveloped natural $CO₂$ sources all appear to be much smaller than St. Johns. In addition, the "easy" industrial sources have almost all been developed. These "easy" sources, those that emit concentrated $CO₂$, include methane reformers, ethanol plants, and ammonia/fertilizer plants that are near good $CO₂ EOR$ targets.

CO2 EOR injection rates are currently approximately 3.2 Bscf/D (60 million t/a), with increasing volumes from the Gulf Coast and Wyoming. This will be nowhere near enough to supply the $CO₂$ demand laid out in Table 1. Fig. 4 shows a schematic of the existing supply and remaining demand for low-cost $CO₂$ (Hill 2013). The dashed line is the $CO₂$ required to implement the $CO₂$ projects on which the EOR reserves of Table 1 are based. The brown and green regions give the $CO₂$ rates from currently available sources.

If natural $CO₂$ sources and "easy" industrial sources will be insufficient, where will the $CO₂$ come from to satisfy the remaining $CO₂$ demand? One possibility is carbon capture from coalfired power plants. The DOE Carbon Capture, Utilization, and Storage (CCUS) Demonstration Projects have received billions of dollars of subsidies to commercialize the capture of $CO₂$ from coal-fired power plants. Fig. 5 from the DOE (Middleton 2014) shows the demonstration projects. The figure includes the

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Fig. 1—United States EOR production (The Oil and Gas Journal 2014 EOR survey).

Fig. 2-CO₂ EOR forecast (ARI adjustment to The Oil and Gas Journal 2014 EOR survey).

approved estimated-construction cost. The status of these CCUS projects and the currently estimated costs for those projects now under construction have been added in red. The actual costs are proving to be, on average, more than twice as high as initially estimated. Barring any change of technology, $CO₂$ capture from coal plants will not be able to supply much of the remaining lowcost $CO₂$ demand shown in Fig. 4.

Ethane as a Supplement to $CO₂$

Decades of research and dozens of field applications have proved that $CO₂ EOR$ works very well. However, most economic sources of $CO₂$ are already on line, and developing substantial volumes of additional $CO₂$ supply will be difficult. The US could really use \approx 300 Tcf of "something that works" to recover some of the potential $CO₂$ EOR reserves. What else is there besides $CO₂$ that would work? One answer to this question can be found in Fig. 6 (Verma 2015), which shows the US EOR production by recovery mechanism. The blue wedge is EOR from both miscible and immiscible hydrocarbon-gas injection, virtually all which is on the North Slope of Alaska. Similar to $CO₂$ EOR, the engineering and economic issues and opportunities of hydrocarbon-gas EOR are well-understood and have been proved by decades of research and field experience. The Alaskan EOR experience is different from the Lower 48 because there has been no market for North Slope gas, and the operators could take advantage of enriched-gas injection. The conventional wisdom has been that hydrocarbon-gas EOR is too expensive in the Lower 48 because natural-gas prices are too high.

The North Slope projects have injected methane that has been enriched with ethane, propane, and butane. Some of the projects also use $CO₂$ (the Prudhoe Bay Field and east), whereas some do not (the Kuparuk River Field and west). The Prudhoe Bay Miscible Gas Project (PBMGP) makes an interesting case study. It is the world's largest enriched gas flood, with an ultimate EOR expected to range between 400 and 500 million STB (Cockin 1993).

A typical Prudhoe Bay miscible-injectant (MI) composition contains roughly 20 mol% $CO₂$ and 20 mol% ethane, as shown in Fig. 7 (McGuire et al. 2005). Slimtube simulations [using 100 cells in a finite-difference model with the Peng-Robinson (1978) equation of state (EOS) (Zick 2016)] show that the MI is miscible at the average reservoir pressure of 3,600 psi, whereas the $CO₂$ is clearly immiscible. In this system, the $CO₂$ is a carrier gas, and the miscibility is provided by the ethane and propane.

Experimental work was carried out in the 1990s to investigate ethane and $CO₂$ as EOR injectants for the viscous oil in the West

Oil Recovery*** (Billion Barrels) CO2 Demand/Storage*** (Billion Metric Tons)

*The values for economically recoverable oil and economic CO₂ demand (storage) represent an update to the numbers in the NETL/ARI report "Improving Domestic Energy Security and Lowering CO₂ Emissions with 'Next Generation' CO₂-Enhanced Oil Recovery (CO₂-EOR)" (June 1, 2011). **At USD 85 /bbl oil price and USD 40 t $CO₂$ market price with ROR of 20% (before tax).

***Includes 2.6 billion bbl already being produced or being developed with miscible CO₂-EOR and 2300 million t of CO₂ use from natural sources and gas.

Table 1-Potential of "Next generation" $CO₂$ EOR.

Fig. 3-CO₂ EOR infrastructure in the US (updated from DOE).

Sak Field. Both pressure/volume/temperature (PVT) cell studies and slimtube floods were conducted with an 18.5° API West Sak crude oil at 65°F (DeRuiter et al. 1994). The difference in behavior between ethane and $CO₂$ with this oil (shown in Fig. 8) was striking. The gas solubility and viscosity reduction of ethane were much greater than those of $CO₂$. As stated by Sharma (1990), "STD [slimtube displacement] results and EOS predictions indicate that $CO₂$ was unable to develop dynamic miscibility with West Sak crude at reservoir pressure and temperature conditions." Ethane was miscible with the West Sak oil at 600 psi (DeRuiter et al. 1994), whereas $CO₂$ failed to achieve miscibility even at pressures as high as 6,600 psi (Sharma et al. 1989). In this viscous-oil system, liquid ethane is far more effective as an EOR injectant than liquid $CO₂$.

The superiority of ethane as an EOR injectant, either in terms of solubility, swelling, and viscosity reduction or in terms of developing multiple-contact miscibility, is illustrated in Fig. 9. Ethane and $CO₂$ have almost identical critical temperatures

(\approx 90°F), whereas the critical pressure of CO₂ is roughly 50% higher than that of ethane. To achieve a similar liquid-like state in the reservoir, $CO₂$ will require a substantially higher reservoir pressure. This has major implications for shallow, low-pressure reservoirs, and for deep, hot reservoirs such as those at Prudhoe Bay. Ethane may have a lower density than $CO₂$ in the reservoir (see Fig. 9), which could affect gravity override and impact vertical-sweep efficiency.

Additional comparisons between ethane and $CO₂$ injectant were made with 11 oils that had a Peng-Robinson EOS that had been calibrated with $CO₂$ experimental data (Peng and Robinson 1976; Kumar and Okuno 2016). PennPVT (Ahmadi and Johns 2011) was used in these miscibility calculations. It proved to be very difficult to use analytical methods to determine the MMP of pure $CO₂$ or pure ethane for these comparisons. Most of the oils were from low-temperature reservoirs in the Permian Basin, and tended to form a solvent-rich upper liquid phase with high concentrations of $CO₂$ or ethane. Diluting the $CO₂$ or ethane with

Fig. 4-CO₂ production (Brock 2014) and demand (ARI, CCUS, EPRI Cost Workshop, April 25-26, 2012).

DOE CCUS Demonstration Projects

Focus – Large-scale commercial demonstration of CCUS integrated with coal power generation and industrial sources.

Fig. 5—Current status of DOE Carbon Capture, Utilization, and Storage demonstration Projects.

sufficient methane avoided the three-phase region and made the solutions stable. Stable solutions with some of the oils were found with 50, 75, and 90% enriching component, with the remainder being methane. On average, the 75% ethane MMP was approximately 27% of the 100% methane MMP. The $CO₂$ MMP at the same dilution was approximately 38% of the 100% methane MMP. The 75% ethane MMP was approximately 60% of the $CO₂$ MMP at the same dilution. The MMP data for the 11 oils are shown in Table 2. It should be noted that there is significant uncertainty in EOS-calculated MMPs, and consistent sets of ethane and $CO₂$ swell experiments and slimtube experiments should be run to design actual gas EOR projects.

Fig. 6—US EOR oil production with various EOR methods.

Ethane WAG vs. CO₂ WAG Operational Issues

There are numerous challenges in the widespread implementation of $CO₂$ flooding. The most significant issue has been that of corrosion. This has been a problem in surface facilities, pipelines, injection wells, and production wells. Examples of this corrosion are shown in Fig. 10. The problems are well-understood, and successful mitigation strategies have been developed [American Petroleum Institute (API) recommendations for CO_2 -injection wells (Meyer 2007) are shown in Table 3].

The following description by Meyer of the experience at the SACROC $CO₂$ flood is an excellent summary of the problems encountered and how they have been overcome. Meter runs, initially constructed of plastic-coated carbon-steel piping and valves with plastic-coated carbon-steel bodies with 316 SS trim, were subject to severe corrosion at any point of coating damage, particularly at flange faces. Where 316 SS was used, no corrosion was observed. Meter runs are now constructed entirely of 316 SS pipe and valving. Initially, injection wellheads were equipped with 410 SS wellheads and 410 SS valves. They were subject to severe pitting-type corrosion that occurred primarily under deposits from settled suspended matter contained in the injection water. Plastic coating the 410 SS wellheads and valve bodies and changing the gates and seats to 316 SS prolonged the life of many of the wellheads. A replacement program using all 316 SS wellheads was eventually undertaken. Injection wells were initially equipped using primarily 2-7/8 in. and 2-3/8 in. J-55 plasticcoated tubing set on plastic-coated double-set packers. The plastic coating used was a thin-film epoxy modified phenolic type. Up to 25% of the injection wells had tubing pulled and inspected each year due to tubing leaks or for workover purposes. The

Fig. 7-Slimtube simulations of ethane and $CO₂$ at Prudhoe Bay conditions.

Fig. 8-Viscosity reduction and slimtube recovery with 18.5°API West Sak oil at 65°F.

primary cause of failure was identified as mechanical damage occurring during hauling, running, and pulling of the tubing. Handling and installation procedures were modified to circumvent these problems. Powder applied epoxy-phenolics, 8–16 mil in thickness, exhibited improved resistance to mechanical damage and was not subject to blistering. Tubing with this coating is now in use.

Ethane is noncorrosive, and, by dilution, should act to reduce the partial pressure and corrosivity of any acid-gas components that may be present in the waterflood-produced fluids. There are no foreseen additional metallurgical requirements to implement ethane WAG injection. However, ethane, an excellent solvent, will affect lube oils, greases, thread sealants, and O-ring and

valve-packing elastomers in a manner similar to $CO₂$. As with any gas-injection project, tubing-collar leaks could be a problem with ethane injection. New or reconditioned tubing with premium threads and an ethane-resistant thread compound may be warranted. The advantages of ethane WAG over $CO₂$ WAG will be particularly important in areas with limited-corrosion problems where the produced oil is sweet.

An additional advantage of ethane over $CO₂$ is the dramatically smaller solubility in water. $CO₂$ is approximately 20 times as soluble in water as is ethane (shown in Fig. 11). In addition to increased corrosivity, the "parasitic losses" of $CO₂$ to the large volumes of water contacted in a mature waterflood will significantly increase the volume of $CO₂$ required for a WAG flood. A

Fig. 9-Ethane and $CO₂$ critical properties, liquefaction pressure, and physical properties at 150°F.

Table 2—MMP of C_2 and CO_2 mixtures with C_1 using 11 different CO_2 -calibrated EOSs.

CO2 trapping study (Kuuskraa 2004) of a representative reservoir (1,900 psi, 102F, 10% porosity, 90 Ft net pay, 30,000 ppm brine) showed that more than 2 Bscf of $CO₂$ per square mile was trapped by being dissolved in the reservoir brine at a solubility of 140 scf CO2 per bbl. Ethane will not see the solution trapping associated with $CO₂$, and as a result, there is a large economic benefit for comparable ethane EOR projects.

A final advantage of ethane over $CO₂$ is that the produced gas from an ethane WAG flood will have intrinsic value as sales gas or fuel, and no acid-gas removal plant would be required, either for gas sales or for gas reinjection. High-GOR fields before significant ethane breakthrough could produce lean gas that is too diluted with methane to make recycle desirable. The gas could continue to be sold or burned for fuel until the gas C_{2+} mole fraction becomes high enough to be a good injectant. Eventually, returned ethane will overwhelm the solution gas production.

Ethane Cost and Availability

The conventional wisdom has been that hydrocarbon WAG works well in Alaska but not in the Lower 48. In general, methane is ineffective as a WAG injectant, whereas ethane and propane are too expensive to inject. Indeed, this perception has been true for decades. However, this perception is no longer true. The "shale revolution" in the US has created a major EOR opportunity for using low-cost ethane in both miscible and immiscible WAG projects. Ethane prices have dropped substantially because of this increased production (Fig. 12). In the US, ethane is no longer

Fig. 10—Examples of $CO₂$ -induced corrosion (Norris 2016; Himipex Oil Company 2016).

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Component	MOC
Upstream Metering and Piping Runs	316 SS, Fiberglass
Tree (Trim)	316 SS, Nickel, Monel
Valve Packing and Seals	Teflon, Nylon
Wellhead (Trim)	316 SS, Nickel, Monel
Tubing Hanger	316 SS, Incolov,
Tubing	GRE-lined carbon steel, IPC carbon steel, CRA
Tubing-Joint Seals	Seal ring (GRE), coated threads and collars (IPC)
ON/OFF Tool, Profile Nipple	Nickel-plated wetted parts, 316 SS
Packers	Internally coated hardened rubber of 80-90 durometer strength (Buna-N), nickel-plated wetted parts
Cements and Cement Additives	API cements and/or acid-resistant specialty cements and additives

Materials of Construction (MOC) for CO₂ Injection Wells

Table 3-API recommended materials for $CO₂$ injectors.

Fig. 11-Solubility of ethane and $CO₂$ in water (Engineering Toolbox 2016; PetroSkills 2016).

priced as a petrochemical feedstock, but is priced as fuel. Burning ethane as fuel is not optimal from an environmental viewpoint. The carbon/hydrogen ratio of ethane is higher than that of methane, and ethane releases approximately 13% more $CO₂$ per Btu of fuel energy (Kolodziej 2013). Because of higher flame temperatures, NOx emissions are also higher for fuels containing ethane (Goldmeer et al. 2015).

The price of ethane for the week ending 1 January 2016, was USD 0.153 per gallon, which is USD 2.33 per million Btu, or USD 4.15 per Mscf. Wellhead prices for ethane in many areas are far lower than the spot prices listed previously. Propane remains far more expensive than ethane on a Btu basis, as shown in Fig. 13. The enriching agent of choice at this time is clearly ethane.

Although forecasting the ethane price is risky, it appears likely that the prices will remain low for a long time. The ethane supply is being driven by light oil and rich gas production from the shale reservoirs, and this light-oil production, with its associated ethane, is forecast to increase substantially [see Bakken gas-production forecast in Fig. 14 (Zhang 2015) and typical Bakken gas composition (Wocken et al. 2013) in Table 4]. Additional planned

Fig. 12—Ethane-price history in the US.

Fig. 13—Recent liquefied-petroleum-gas component prices (Energy Information Agency 2015).

Fig. 14—Bakken gas-supply forecast.

ethylene plants and ethane exports do not appear to be enough to end the ethane surplus from this increasing ethane supply.

Ethane EOR Opportunities

In recent years, an extensive ethane infrastructure has been built in the US. This includes ethane pipelines and natural-gas-liquids (NGL) pipelines from ethane-rich shale plays such as the Bakken, the Eagle Ford, and the Marcellus/Utica (see Fig. 15). This has

Table 4—Typical Bakken gas composition.

opened up ethane EOR opportunities either in areas that do not have sufficient $CO₂$ available to address the huge EOR targets in Table 1 or in fields that are not appropriate for $CO₂$ WAG. We will conclude with three examples of different types of ethane EOR targets: one field in Illinois, one field in Oklahoma, and one field in Texas. These evaluations will focus on WAG-

Fig. 15—Ethane pipelines or key NGL pipelines, and areas of high-ethane EOR potential.

Table 5—Lawrence Field properties.

displacement efficiency and miscibility in the reservoir, with a commercial simulator, and are not intended to accurately represent the reservoir geology or sweep efficiency.

Lawrence Field. A very promising target for ethane EOR is the Illinois Basin. In 2005, the DOE identified a target of 370 million STB EOR from the largest fields in the Illinois Basin under their "Moderate Oil Price/High CO₂ Cost Scenario" (ARI 2005). No viable source of $CO₂$ currently exists to develop these reserves. The largest field in the basin is the Lawrence Field [1.05 billion STB original oil in place (OOIP)], which was discovered in 1906. Cumulative oil recovery is just under 40% OOIP. The Lawrence Field has two active alkaline–surfactant–polymer (ASP) pilots under way—one in the shallower Bridgeport interval and one in the deeper Cypress interval. The properties of the Lawrence Field at the ASP pilot locations are shown in Table 5 (Rex Energy 2008; Dean 2011). The Lawrence Field is approximately 20 miles north of the Princeton, Indiana, terminal of the ATEX ethane pipeline (see Fig. 15).

One obvious issue for a WAG project in the Bridgeport interval is the shallow depth of the reservoir. At a depth of 950 ft, a safe injection pressure will be perhaps no more than 700 psi. Slimtube simulations (with 100 cells in a finite-difference model) were run to determine the MMP of both ethane and $CO₂$ in the Lawrence Field (see Fig. 16). An EOS model for the Lawrence Field was not available, so the CO_2 -calibrated 32°API NWE oil with a temperature of 83°F was used as a proxy. The oil composition was adjusted to 34°API, and the Bridgeport and Cypress reservoir temperatures of 71 and 80° F, respectively, were used. The MMP for ethane in the Bridgeport was just under 600 psi, whereas the MMP for $CO₂$ was approximately 950 psi.

A quarter-five-spot model of the Bridgeport was built with the SPE3 Comparative Solution Project Problem, which was a $9 \times 9 \times 4$ -layer gas cycling and blowdown problem. Reasonable

Fig. 16—Slimtube simulations of Lawrence Field.

estimates of the depth, initial pressure, reservoir thickness, well spacing, fluid composition, average porosity, and average permeability from the Lawrence Bridgeport were used in the model. The 10-acre spacing base model was waterflooded for 20 years (7,305 days). For the ethane evaluation, the model was placed on waterflood for 4,000 days, and then 12 WAG cycles of ethane and water were injected at 700 psi. A similar procedure was followed to inject 12 WAG cycles of CO₂, and to inject 12 cycles of methane. In these models, $CO₂$ and ethane had the same relative permeability (gas-like).

The cumulative recoveries in %OOIP from the waterflood (WF), the ethane WAG, the $CO₂$ WAG, and the methane WAG are shown in Table 6. The ethane WAG recovered an additional 11.8% OOIP at a gross efficiency of 1.8 Mscf of ethane per STB EOR. The net efficiency (including gas recycle) was a very attractive 0.9 Mscf ethane per STB EOR. The results of the pattern model waterflood and ethane WAG simulations are shown in Fig. 17. The $CO₂ WAG$ recovered an additional 3.2% OOIP at a gross efficiency of 7.3 Mscf of $CO₂$ per STB EOR. Net efficiency was 3.7 Mscf of CO² per STB EOR As expected, the methane WAG recovered no additional oil.

A comparison between the ethane WAG and the $CO₂$ WAG is shown in Fig. 18. Oil-saturation maps and oil-viscosity maps from the ethane and $CO₂ WAG$ runs are shown in Fig. 19. The ethane WAG was miscible and reduced the oil viscosity by a factor of ten. The $CO₂ WAG$ was not miscible, and reduced the oil viscosity by approximately half.

Cushing Field. A second very promising target for ethane EOR is the midcontinent area. In 2005, the US DOE identified a target of 2,890 million STB EOR from the largest fields in Oklahoma under their "Moderate Oil Price/High $CO₂ Cost$ " Scenario (ARI 2005a, b). Most of the available $CO₂$ in Oklahoma from industrial sources has already been developed, and several CO₂ floods are already operating. Table 7 lists Oklahoma fields with more than one-billion barrels of remaining OIP, whereas Fig. 20 shows the location of these large fields (ARI 2005a, b). No viable source of $CO₂$ currently exists to develop the potential $CO₂$ EOR reserves from these fields, although there is a small $CO₂$ flood under way in Sho-Vel-Tum. The Glenn Pool Field, like the Lawrence Field, is too shallow for $CO₂$ flooding. The other fields have excellent reservoir properties for CO₂ WAG.

Table 6—Bridgeport EOR.

Cushing Field was chosen for evaluation of ethane EOR because it is centrally located in the so-called "pipeline capital of the world." Very-large volumes of ethane are flowing into and out of this region, as shown in Fig. 21 (Gillaspie 2015). The properties of the Cushing Field are shown in Table 8 (Llave 1996).

Slimtube simulations (with 100 cells in a finite-difference model) were run to determine the MMP of both ethane and $CO₂$ in the Cushing Field (see Fig. 22). An EOS model for Cushing was not available, so the CO_2 -calibrated 32° API Oil-B1 oil with a temperature of 83°F was used as a proxy. The oil composition was adjusted to 38°API, and the Cushing reservoir temperature of 108°F was used. The MMP for ethane in the Cushing Field was approximately 875 psi, whereas the MMP for $CO₂$ was approximately 1,250 psi.

A quarter-five-spot model of Cushing was built with the SPE3 Comparative Solution Project Problem. Reasonable estimates of

Fig. 19—Lawrence Bridgeport ethane and $CO₂$ WAG simulation oil saturation and oil viscosity.

Table 7—Large Oklahoma ethane EOR candidate fields.

the depth, initial pressure, reservoir thickness, well spacing, fluid composition, average porosity, and average permeability from Cushing were used in the model. The 20-acre spacing base model was waterflooded for 20 years (7,305 days). For the ethane evaluation, the model was placed on waterflood for 4,000 days, and then 16 WAG cycles of ethane and water were injected at 1,600 psi. A similar procedure was followed to inject 16 WAG cycles of $CO₂$, and to inject 10 cycles of methane. The cumulative recoveries in %OOIP from the waterflood, the ethane WAG, the $CO₂$ WAG, and the methane WAG are shown in Table 9. The ethane WAG recovered an additional 9.1% OOIP at a gross efficiency of 3.8 Mscf per STB EOR. The net efficiency was a very attractive 1.6 Mscf ethane per STB EOR. The results of the pattern-model waterflood and ethane WAG simulations are shown in Fig. 23. The $CO₂ WAG$ recovered an additional 6.5% OOIP at a gross efficiency of 4.3 Mscf of CO₂ per STB EOR. Net efficiency was 2.8 Mscf of CO₂ per STB EOR. As expected, the methane WAG did not recover any additional oil.

A comparison between the ethane WAG and the $CO₂$ WAG for Cushing is shown in Fig. 24. Oil-saturation maps and oil-viscosity maps from the ethane and $CO₂$ WAG runs are shown in Fig. 25. The ethane WAG was miscible and reduced the oil viscosity by almost an order of magnitude. The $CO₂$ WAG was not miscible away from the injection well, but significantly swelled the oil and reduced the oil viscosity by a factor of four. Both ethane and CO₂ had good gross and net gas efficiencies.

East Texas Field. Another very promising target for ethane EOR is Texas. In 2011, the DOE identified a "Next Generation $CO₂$ " potential recovery of 13.5 billion STB from East and Central Texas (ARI 2011). Recovering this oil would require roughly 2.8 billion t (55 Tcf) of $CO₂$ from sources that have not been identified. The biggest field in this region is the supergiant East Texas Field (ETOF), with an OOIP of roughly 7.0 billion STB. The ETOF was chosen for evaluation of ethane EOR because it is a very large target and it is connected with the ATEX ethane pipeline system. Very-large volumes of ethane are flowing into and out of this region, as shown in Figs. 15 and 21. The properties of the East Texas Field are shown in Table 10 (Wang 2014).

One major issue facing the ETOF is the large number of very old wells in the field. A 1972 study showed that one-quarter of the wells in the ETOF had casing leaks (East Texas Engineering Association 1972). The 2014 Research Partnership to Secure Energy for America/DOE report on the ETOF (Wang 2014) concluded that "with most wells over 80 years old, leaking of $CO₂$ will be an environmental and economic issue that is difficult to overcome." Increasing the average reservoir pressure in an ETOF WAG project much above the current 1,100 psi will likely result in gas-containment issues.

Slimtube simulations (with 100 cells in a finite-difference model) were run to determine the MMP of both ethane and $CO₂$ in the ETOF (see Fig. 26). An EOS model of the ETOF was not available, so the CO_2 -calibrated 32°API Rangely oil with a

Fig. 20—Location of largest Oklahoma fields.

Fig. 21—Oklahoma NGL infrastructure.

temperature of 160° F was used as a proxy. The oil composition was adjusted to 39°API, and the ETOF reservoir temperature of 146°F was applied. The MMP for ethane in the ETOF was approximately 1,150 psi, whereas the MMP for $CO₂$ was approximately 1,900 psi. The slimtube simulation comparison with the ETOF $CO₂$ Berea Sand coreflood and slimtube experimental data (Wang 2014) was quite good.

A quarter-five-spot model of the ETOF was built with the SPE3 Comparative Solution Project Problem. Reasonable estimates of the depth, initial pressure, reservoir thickness, well spacing, fluid composition, average porosity, and average permeability from the ETOF were used in the model. Injection pressure was limited to 1,600 psi to reduce gas-containment issues. The 10-acre spacing base model was waterflooded for 20 years (7,305 days). For the ethane evaluation, the model was placed on waterflood for 4,000 days, and then 12 WAG cycles of ethane and water were injected at 1,600 psi. A similar procedure

Fig. 22—Slimtube simulations of Cushing Field.

Table 8—Cushing Field properties.

was followed to inject both 12 WAG cycles of $CO₂$ and 12 cycles of methane.

The cumulative recoveries in %OOIP from the waterflood, the ethane WAG, the $CO₂ WAG$, and the methane WAG are shown in Table 11. The ethane WAG recovered an additional 10.9% OOIP at a gross efficiency of 7.1 Mscf per STB EOR. The net efficiency was a very attractive 1.5 Mscf ethane per STB EOR. The results of the pattern-model waterflood and ethane WAG simulations are shown in Fig. 27. The $CO₂$ WAG recovered an additional 3.0% OOIP at a gross efficiency of 18.4 Mscf of $CO₂$ per STB EOR. Net efficiency was 3.3 Mscf of $CO₂$ per STB EOR As expected, the methane WAG did not recover significant additional oil. A comparison between the ethane WAG and the $CO₂ WAG$ for the ETOF is shown in Fig. 28. Oil-saturation maps and oil-viscosity maps from the ethane and $CO₂ WAG$ runs are shown in Fig. 29. The ethane WAG was miscible and reduced the oil viscosity significantly. The $CO₂$ was near-miscible at the injection well, but did not effectively reduce the residual oil saturations at the average pattern pressure of 1100 psi.

A summary of the EOR performance and the gross and net solvent efficiencies for the three example fields is shown in Table 12. The costs were assumed to be USD 4.15 per Mscf for ethane and USD 2.00 per Mscf for $CO₂$. These prices are illustrative only; actual component pricing and availability will vary with both location and time.

Conclusions

The "shale revolution" in the US has brought about an enormous increase in ethane production, and ethane prices have dropped steeply. Ethane-based EOR can supplement the very successful $CO₂$ -based EOR industry in the US. The current abundance of low-cost ethane presents a significant opportunity to add new gas EOR projects. The ethane-based EOR opportunity can be summarized as follows:

- CO₂-based EOR works well, and is well-understood. The $CO₂ EOR$ potential in the Lower 48 is roughly 60 billion bbl of incremental oil. There is not, and very likely will not be, enough low-cost $CO₂$ available to undertake most of these potential gas EOR projects.
- Ethane has more solubility in oil and lower MMPs than $CO₂$. In shallow fields, such as the Lawrence Field, or in low-pressure fields, such as the East Texas Field, ethane EOR will recover more oil than $CO₂$ EOR. In higher-

Table 9—Cushing Field EOR.

pressure fields, such as the Cushing Field, both gases work well. Which gas works better in the higher-pressure cases will likely depend on gravity override and the reservoir description.

• Ethane is simpler than $CO₂$ for EOR. The ethane does not cause additional corrosion, and no special materials are required for injection wells, production wells, pipelines, or surface facilities. "Parasitic losses" from gas solubility in

Fig. 25-Cushing $CO₂$ and ethane WAG simulation oil saturation and oil viscosity.

Table 10—East Texas Field properties.

Table 11—East Texas Field EOR.

Fig. 26—Slimtube simulations of the East Texas Field.

water are dramatically smaller with ethane than with $CO₂$. The produced gas from an ethane WAG flood will have intrinsic value as sales gas or fuel, and no acid-gas-removal plant is required.

• Ethane is now inexpensive in the US, and it will very likely stay inexpensive for a long time. Supplies of ethane from shale plays such as the Bakken, the Marcellus/Utica, and the Eagle Ford are forecast to increase for years to come.

Fig. 27—East Texas Field waterflood and ethane WAG.

Fig. 28-East Texas Field $CO₂$ and ethane WAG.

Fig. 29-East Texas Field $CO₂$ and ethane WAG simulation oil saturation and oil viscosity.

Table 12—EOR performance and the gross and net solvent efficiencies for the three example fields.

However, there will not be enough ethane available to implement EOR in all the potential target fields.

- Ethane-based EOR has become a viable option in the Lower 48. Large volumes of low-cost ethane are available. Recent additions to the growing ethane infrastructure, such as the ATEX and Bakken pipelines, now deliver ethane to locations where ethane-based EOR targets are plentiful.
- Some of the ethane is currently being flared, and much of it is being used as fuel. Ethane has higher $CO₂$ emissions per unit of energy than methane. Using ethane for higher-value applications, such as petrochemicals or EOR, will reduce $CO₂$ emissions if methane is burned for fuel instead of ethane.

Nomenclature

- $API = American Petroleum Institute$
- $DOE = United States Department of Energy$
- $EIA =$ Energy Information Agency
- $EOS =$ equation of state
- $ETEA = East Texas Engineering Association$
	- $GI = gas$ injection
- $GP = gas$ production
- $MMP =$ minimum miscibility pressure
- $NETL = National Energy Technology Laboratory$
- $Pi =$ initial reservoir pressure
- $PR EOS = Peng-Robinson equation of state (1976, 1978) EOS$
- $RPSEA = Research Partnership to Secure Energy for America$
- $STD =$ slimtube displacement
	- T_C = critical temperature
- T_P = critical pressure
- $WAG = water$ alternating gas

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