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# Numerical Modelling of the Effect of Wettability, Interfacial Tension and Temperature on Oil Recovery at Pore-Scale level

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#### 9 Abstract

A numerical investigation into the effect of wettability and temperature on oil recovery 10 11 with a hot water injection at different temperatures is reported in this paper. The 12 computational domain is a two-dimensional porous medium (reservoir) maintained at a fixed temperature with pore spaces of varying sizes and interconnected pore-throats. 13 ANSYS-Fluent VOF (volume of fluid) model was used to simulate the two-phase transport 14 15 through the reservoir with hot water injections at varying temperatures (20, 40 and 60 °C) and wettability contact angles of 45°, 90° and 150°. In addition, an investigation was 16 17 conducted on the effect of combined interfacial tension and matrix wettability on oil 18 recovery process at low and high interfacial tension of 0.025 N/m and 0.045 N/m 19 respectively for the three different wettability contact angles.

The results showed that, the displacement behaviour of water and oil-wet system is 20 affected significantly by the contact angle with a profound effect on the oil recovery factor. 21 In the water-wet case (with the water wetting the matrix wall and the oil phase surrounded 22 23 by water), relatively more oil is displaced from the domain thereby improving the oil recovery factor. The water-wetter system resulted in about 35-45% oil recovery than the 24 25 oil-wet system, with the unrecovered oil mainly adhering to the wall region of the pore 26 bodies for oil-wet system. For the intermediate wet case, initial fluid distribution is seen to have a more significant effect on the displacement behaviour than the contact angles. 27 In conclusion, by altering the wettability from oil-wet to water-wet condition, the oil 28 29 recovery rate is improved. The results from this study are consistent with the experimental and numerical studies in literature and it will further enhance the understanding of the 30 phenomenon that is critical to the mechanism of recovery such as surfactant and polymer 31 32 flooding process.

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- 34 **Keyword:** oil recovery, wettability, interfacial tension, temperature, contact angle,
- 35 Computational Fluid Dynamics.
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#### 42 **1. Introduction**

43 A mix of interacting factors and rock/fluid properties from the pore scale up to the 44 macro and field scale affects the recovery of oil from reservoirs. The need for a 45 comprehensive understanding and characterisation of the various interacting factors is 46 essential for optimum recovery and an enhanced efficiency and cost effectiveness of 47 petroleum resources recovery. The characterisation of these operating factors was been 48 the subject of intense research over the last decades [1]. One of the key fundamental pore-scale properties that controls the distribution and displacement of fluid in the 49 reservoir is wettability. The wettability of petroleum reservoirs is the most significant factor 50 that control the oil recovery rate and results in a profound effect on petroleum 51 52 production. It is thus vital to investigate the wettability conditions of the reservoir as it 53 directly affects the multiphase flow characteristic, which influences the different recovery 54 strategies. Consequent to a comprehensive literature review of reservoir wettability 55 conditions and Pore-scale network model, the work reported in this paper focus on the 56 effect of temperature on a wettability contact angle and combined interfacial tension with 57 matrix wettability on oil recovery process.

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## 59 2. Literature review

60 2.1. <u>Wettability conditions of reservoir</u>

Wettability is the spreading and adherence affinity of one fluid to a solid surface in the 61 62 presence of other immiscible fluids measured by the contact angle as shown in Figure 1 63 [2]. Thus, in a water-wet media, water preferentially adheres to the surface of the grain 64 solid (hydrophilic) while that of oil-wet media have the oil phase adhering to the solid surface (hydrophobic). The various categories of formation wettability include (a) strong-65 66 wet, (b) weak-wet, (c) intermediate-wet or neutral-wet, (d) fractional-wet, (e) mixed-wet. When a formation is strongly wetted or weakly wetted, one of the immiscible fluids adheres 67 68 to the solid surface, while in intermediate or neutral-wettability conditions, this preferential adherence property of the surface is absent and thus both immiscible fluids present have 69 70 almost equal affinity to the solid surface. Fractional wetting on the other hand, refers to a condition of spatial variation in the wetness of solid surfaces, while mixed wettability is a 71 type of fractional wettability as the walls of the pore space and pore throats have an affinity 72 to different fluids [1, 3]. In natural porous media, different factors affect the wettability 73 74 conditions ranging from the surface roughness, immobile adsorbed liquid layers, as well 75 as the adsorption properties of the constituting minerals [4, 5, 6]. It has been reported 76 that the most common formations with minerals such as quartz, carbonates, and sulphates 77 are strongly water wet [5].

A fundamental assumption about the petroleum reservoir is that it is always strongly 78 79 water-wet. This assumption is because the reservoir was originally a water bearing aguifer prior to the migration of oil from the source rock through migratory pathways to displace 80 some contained water and fill the reservoir now containing both oil and water. Chinedu et 81 82 al., [6] stated that water is contained in the pore volumes of the reservoir with the migrated oil and the final wettability determination is dependent on the constituents of the 83 84 oil. The final wettability is affected by whether the oil contains polar compounds and high 85 molecular paraffin. In additions, it is also affected by the distribution of minerals, reservoir rock type as well as the salinity of the connate water. This finding was further buttressed 86 87 by Blunt et al., [7] stating that petroleum reservoirs are strongly water-wet as oil-wetness 88 characteristics are observed in many soils contaminated by oil. Buckley et al., [8] stated 89 the reason for this alteration to be the continued contact of the oil phase with the solid surface results in the adherence of the surface-active components of the oil to the solid 90 91 surface thereby changing the surface wettability.

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Figure 1: Different wettability contact angles.

97 The oil-water wetting preference of the formation affects many facets of 98 reservoir performance, mainly in water flooding and enhanced oil recovery methods. 99 Therefore, wrongly assuming a water-wet reservoir condition could lead to irreversible reservoir damage [9]. Therefore, the understanding of the wettability condition of oil-100 101 bearing formation is vital for optimizing oil recovery. The demand for crude oil is 102 continuously increasing due to industrial development and an increase in world population. 103 The increase in global demand has necessitated improvements in the recovery strategy 104 with water flooding which is one of the least expensive and easily implemented techniques. 105 With the reservoir been a multiphase flow domain, understanding wettability becomes important to optimise recovery [10]. The original wettability of a formation and altered 106 107 wettability during and after hydrocarbon migration influence the profile of initial water saturation and production characteristics in the formation [9]. Further information on 108 109 wettability and its corresponding effect on the exploitation petroleum resources can be 110 found in literature [2, 6, 7, 11].

111 Olugbenga and Manuel [5] experiment investigated the effects of wettability on 112 capillary pressure, relative permeability, and irreducible saturation using a porous plate. 113 The study reported how the wettability alteration of a medium of water to oil-wetness 114 affect the multiphase flow properties. The initial water-wet samples with porosities ranging 115 from 23% to 33% and absolute air permeability of 50 to 233 mD, yielded an irreducible 116 wetting phase saturation of 19% to 21% when tested as water wet samples under air-117 brine system. In addition, they altered the wettability to oil-wet using a surfactant with the test yielding a wetting phase (oil) irreducible saturation of 25% to 34% and concluded 118 119 that a change of the wettability from water-wet to oil-wet results is an improvement of 120 the wetting phase (oil) recovery.

Zhang and Austad [12], investigated the effect of temperature and ionic 121 122 contents on wettability and oil recovery from carbonate rocks. They conducted a series of 123 experiments by spontaneous imbibition of water with different sulphate concentrations 124 into a homogenous chalk core of permeability between 2-5 mD at different operating 125 temperatures. Their results showed significant improvement of the oil recovery with 126 increasing sulphate concentration in the injection fluid for a moderate water wet and 127 preferential oil wet chalk samples. In addition, a better efficiency in the wettability 128 alteration process in presence of sulphate with increase in temperature was reported. 129 Another study on carbonate reservoirs was carried out by Kallel et al., [13] on the effect of wettability distributions on oil recovery from microporous carbonate reservoirs. They 130 131 used a qualitatively wettability alteration scenario to implement a two-phase flow network 132 model to capture a diversity of pore shapes. Their results revealed that wettability effects 133 are considerably significant in the carbonate network due to the micro-pores effects on oil 134 recovery.

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#### 136 2.2. <u>Pore-scale network model</u>

Blunt et al., [14] investigated the effect of wettability on water-flood oil recovery with a pore-scale network model approach. They explored several multiphase flow 139 phenomena using pore networks extracted from unconsolidated sand pack, a poorly 140 consolidated sandstone cores, a granular carbonate and Berea sandstone. Their results 141 showed that in a uniformly wet system, less water-wetness increases recovery and reaches 142 a maximum for oil-wet condition in which the recovery becomes relatively constant at 143 contact angle about 100°. In addition, their results also showed that the oil-wet fraction 144 affects the recovery in a mixed-wet media more than the contact angle in the oil-wet 145 regions with optimal recovery occurring when a small fraction of the system is water-wet. Mohammadmoradi and Apostolos [15] implemented a direct quasi-static simulation 146 147 approach to investigate the effect of wettability on water-flood performance in partially 148 saturated microstructures. Their results showed that the electrical and hydraulic conductivity influence the wettability that is significance in shaping the fluid pathways and 149 two phase spatial distribution in the formation. Their findings are in agreement with 150 151 previous studies that wettability is a critical factor controlling fluid distribution in a porous 152 medium, but disagrees with the reports of oil-wetted favouring recovery. Their findings also showed that oil-wetness speeds up water breakthrough time and decreases oil 153 154 recovery during spontaneous imbibition.

Mingming and Wang [16] used a two-dimensional simplification of a porous 155 156 media pore volume geometry to study the process of hot water flooding in a water/oil two-157 phase flow for enhanced oil recovery. They adopted the volume of fluid (VOF) multiphase flow model to capture the position of the multiphase fluid (oil/water) interface and heat 158 transfer physics. The behaviours of hot water flooding at pore-scale under different 159 160 wettability condition were investigated and they reported a significant effect of the contact 161 angle on the original oil saturation and the displacement process for the oil-wet media and showed an increase in the oil recovery with increasing temperature. Zhao and Wen [17] 162 163 employed an idealised geometry similar to that of Mingming and Wang [16] to investigate 164 the effect of wettability and interfacial tension on flooding process for enhanced oil recovery. Their findings showed that wettability effect on recovery at pore scale in oil-165 166 saturated pores is significant in a water-wet scenario. They concluded that a good mixture of both water wettability alteration and a low capillary effect could potentially result to an 167 168 ideal EOR result.

A thermal recovery method involving injection of steam or hot water is known 169 to change the wettability of reservoir rocks [1]. Temperature effect on wettability has been 170 171 shown to improve or change the hydrophilic nature of the reservoir rock [18]. Dangerfield 172 and Brown [19] change original hydrophilic rock to hydrophobic via oil deposit on the 173 surface of the rock due to the adsorption of ionic compounds of crude oil. Schembre et al., 174 [20] investigated the effect of water imbibition at elevated temperatures on wettability alteration and oil recovery. They conducted experiments at temperatures from 45 to 230 175 176 °C using nine different reservoir core samples of permeability ranging from 0.2 to 0.7 mD and porosity of 45 to 65%. Their results showed that the increase in temperature lead to 177 a significant increment in imbibition rate and oil recovery, with a shift in the wettability 178 179 index from intermediate and weakly water-wet to strongly water-wet.

180 Several research works on the effect of wettability on the macroscopic behaviour of fluids has been reported in literature. Nevertheless, there is no definite consensus on 181 the optimum wettability condition for the most favourable oil recovery performance as 182 some of the studies reveal highest recovery under oil-wet conditions [5, 14], while others 183 184 asserts that recovery efficiency is achieved under water-wet conditions [15, 16]. In addition, the application of imaging tools has been used to analyse the pore-scale 185 186 phenomenon and its influence on the immiscible displacement process, but with a major challenge as it is rather difficult to control and vary the wettability of the porous matrix 187 188 experimentally.

In this study, a Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) method is used to simulate two-phase flows at the pore level. A major advantage of direct simulations, as CFD is the possibility of obtaining a realistic representation of the digital porous system with models that captures the intricate physics present in pore-scale flows. The main objective of this study is to delineate the pore-scale behaviour of immiscible displacement under varying wettability and interfacial tension conditions. The work reported in this paper provides a 195 detailed representation of the interfacial phenomena by varying the wetness conditions of 196 porous media, interfacial tension and fluid viscosity.

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## 198 **3. Numerical model description**

A multiphase flow simulation at pore scale and capturing the interface between the 199 immiscible fluids is usually a matter of interest. A numerical modelling of a two-200 201 dimensional idealised poly-disperse porous media (Figure 2) was simulated with ANSYS Fluent® 18.1 to simulate the effects of varying porous media wetness conditions, 202 interfacial tension and fluid viscosity on oil recovery. The Volume of Fluid (VOF) method 203 was used to simulate a water-flood operation in a series of interconnected pore spaces 204 205 with the incorporation of interface tracking model to track the oil/water interface. Three different injection temperature scenarios (20, 40 and 60 °C) under varying wettability 206 conditions for the matrix wall were simulated. Water at different temperature (20, 40 and 207 60 °C) was injected into a high temperature (80 °C) porous domain of 80% oil saturation 208 209 and an irreducible water saturation of 20%. Two different interfacial tension values of 0.025 N/m and 0.045 N/m was used each to model the different contact angle conditions 210 of water-wet (45°), intermediate-wet (90°) and oil-wet (150°). To simulate the interfacial 211 tension and wettability conditions of the system; the phase interaction physics capability 212 213 in ANSYS Fluent<sup>®</sup> software was used. In the phase interaction panel, the interfacial tension was set and the wettability conditions imposed by the wall adhesion option after the 214 215 specific contact angle was specified under the boundary conditions settings for the grain 216 walls.

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#### 3.1. <u>Model geometry</u>

The two-dimensional pore scale geometry used in this study is a 22 mm by 10 mm 219 rectangle block shown in Figure 2. The micromodel in this study is made of polydisperse 220 221 solid grains having two different diameters of 1 and 2 mm which is representative of commercial grade silica grade silica sand 8/16 [21] . Pore-bodies and pore throats of 222 223 varying dimensions characterize the model. While some study utilises a homogenous 224 porous medium with similar diameter for all the grains, it is obvious that that is not a realistic representation of a natural porous media. The different diameter sizes for the 225 sand grains has been used to mimic the true nature of a natural porous system with 226 varying grains sizes and thus heterogeneous flow characteristics. The pore throat width 227 228 was varied between 0.10 mm and 0.35 mm to mimic a low and high permeability zone as 229 representative of a natural porous media.

The pore volume of the sample is  $1.28 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3$ , which gives a porosity of 230 approximately 58%. Single-phase flow simulation with water indicates an absolute 231 permeability of  $8.6 \times 10^{-9}$  m<sup>2</sup>. At the inlet and outlet face, a gap of approximately 1 mm 232 233 was allowed before the first set of grains. Although a natural rock 2D slide would have a 234 spatially periodic matrix at these faces, the gaps imposed here would allow the flow to 235 develop before meeting the first sets of obstructions in the solid grain matrix. While an idealised geometry as this do not reflect the 3D connectivity of real porous media, they 236 237 can be adopted as computationally affordable alternatives to 3D pore-scale models that 238 allows for more detailed visualization of the intricate physics in a much clearer way than 239 the 3-D models. Another advantage for the application of micromodels is the prospect of 240 designing, fabricating and studying different shapes and patterns.

241 A no-slip boundary condition was imposed on the grain walls and on all the lateral 242 sides. The flow domain is initially saturated with phase-1 (oil) at 80% and phase-2 (water) at 20% and water was injected at a constant velocity of 0.005 m/s from the inlet and 0 243 Pa pressure was specified as the outlet boundary condition. A velocity inlet condition has 244 been used in the model as a standard practice in situations where the injection flow rate 245 or velocity is known without information of the pressure at the inlet. As obtained in 246 laboratory core flood experiments, an injection flow rate is imposed at the inlet and the 247 pressure drop is recorded with installed transducers, in this set of simulations, the 248

249 numerical model computes the pressure at the inlet from the imposed velocity condition and other flow parameters [22]. Based upon the injection velocity, pore diameters and 250 251 velocity of fluids the flow was assumed laminar and as such, no turbulence model 252 considered.



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Figure 2: the 2D pore-scale media configuration.

For a better capturing of the occurrences around the walls and for the accuracy of 255 the results, the grid around the individual grain wall region was structured and refined 256 257 with fine meshes. A number of sensitivity studies were carried out to determine the 258 optimum inflation layers, mesh sizes and number of control volumes needed to ensure that the computed profiles of the oil/water interface are grid independent. The final mesh 259 260 used for the simulations has a total control volume of 39817 (Figure 3). The time steps sizes used for the simulation is 0.0005 and PISO scheme for the pressure-velocity 261 coupling, PRESTO for the pressure discretization and Geo-Reconstruct for the volume 262 263 fraction.



Figure 3: Grid used for the study showing the refined inflation layers.

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#### Properties of fluid and the porous media 3.2.

All the simulations were conducted with constant fluid property except for the 269 viscosity of the oil phase owing to the heat transfer between the fluids and solid matrix 270 271 walls. The water phase has a viscosity of 0.001 kg/m-s while the oil has a varying viscosity 272 with respect to operating temperature (Figure 4). While the oil phase was simulated with a temperature dependent viscosity, the water phase viscosity was kept constant as 273 274 experimental observation on the variation of water viscosity with temperature is minimal and as such has a negligible effect in flooding a highly viscous oil phase. We conducted a 275 preliminary experiment to obtain the viscosity data of motor oil at different temperatures 276 277 using a fann model 35 viscometer. The viscosity ratio  $(\mu_w/\mu_o)$  for the simulations was found to be between 0.007-0.081 which is less than  $1 \times 10^3$  as recommended by ANSYS 278 Fluent<sup>®</sup> to avoid convergence difficulties. The density of the displacing fluid (water) is 1000 279  $kg/m^3$  while that of oil is 865.8 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. Although, it was expected that the density of oil 280 will be affected by various factors such as temperature and pressure, however, only the 281 influence of temperature on viscosity was considered in this study. In addition, the effect 282 283 of temperature on the fluid thermal conductivity and specific heat capacity was not considered. A survey of the literature showed a near linear decrease in the oil/water interfacial tension,  $\sigma_{ow}$  with increase in temperature [23, 24, 25], and a 1 °C increase in temperature resulted in a 0.05 mN/m decrease in oil/water interfacial tension using reference values of 47 mN/m at temperature of 60 °C [16].

The viscosity of the primary phase (oil) as a function of local temperature was 288 289 incorporated through a User-Defined Function (UDF). The experimental viscosity data were used to determine a function for corresponding oil phase viscosity for temperature ranging 290 from 20 °C to 100 °C. The model for the viscosity with corresponding temperature is given 291 in Eq. (1). As seen in the function below, at temperatures above 100 °C, the oil viscosity 292 is 12.3 cP, when the temperate is below 20 °C the oil viscosity is 142 cP while for 293 temperatures between the ranges of 20 to 100 °C, the function is used to calculate the 294 295 viscosity of the oil phase.

$$\mu = f(T) = \begin{cases} 0.0123 \, (kg/ms), & T > 373 \, K \\ 4504.7e^{-0.035T} \, (kg/ms), & 293k \le T \le 373 \, K \\ 0.142 \, (kg/ms), & T < 293 \, K \end{cases}$$
(1)



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#### 3.3. <u>Volume-Of-Fluid (VOF) method</u>

The VOF method is a numerical modelling technique for tracking and detecting the 302 303 free surface or fluid-fluid interface and it's model two or more immiscible fluids by solving 304 a single set of momentum equations and tracking the volume fraction of each of the fluids throughout the domain [24]. The model formulation works on the basis that the two or 305 306 more fluid phases are immiscible and non-interpenetrating and within each control volume, 307 the volume fractions of all the fluid phases is equal to one. A volume averaged value 308 variables and property is assigned to each of the phases, if the volume fraction of each 309 phase is known at each location. Therefore, the variables and properties within a given 310 cell is a purely representative either of a given phase, or of results from a mixture of the phases. Typically, the volume fraction of oil phase  $(a_o)$  equals to one if the cell is 311 312 completely occupied by oil  $(a_0 = 1)$ , while it equals to zero if the cell is completely occupied 313 by water  $(a_0 = 0)$ . If the cell contains the oil-water interface, then the volume fractions of oil and water lies between 0-1 ( $0 < a_0 < 1$ ). The governing equations solved in the VOF 314 models include the standard mass, momentum and energy conservation equations with 315 316 the inclusion of the volume fraction equation as presented in Eq. (2-6).

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) = 0 \tag{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial(\rho\vec{u})}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho\vec{u}\vec{u}) = -\nabla p = \nabla \cdot [\mu(\nabla\vec{u} + \nabla\vec{u}^T)] + \vec{F}$$
(3)

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$$\frac{\partial(\rho T)}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u}T) = \nabla \cdot (\frac{k}{c_p} \nabla T)$$
(4)

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$$\frac{\partial \alpha_w}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \alpha_w = 0 \tag{5}$$

Where  $\vec{u} = (u, v)$  is the velocity vector,  $\rho$  is the volume-averaged density and p is the pressure. The coefficient of kinetic viscosity is  $\mu$ , the surface tension force per unit volume is  $\vec{F}$ , T is the temperature, k is the thermal conductivity and  $c_p$  is the specific heat capacity.

The fluid properties computed in the transport equations are determined by the 324 325 presence or absence of the component fluids in each computational cell. When a computational cell or control volume is completely filled by a single phase, only the 326 properties of the phase are used in the equations. However, when the fluid interface is 327 within the control volume, the mixture properties of the two phases are used to compute 328 329 the volume fraction weighted average. The following equations were used for computing the properties in a control volume. In a two-phase oil-water system for example, denoting 330 the oil and water by the subscripts *o* and *w* respectively, and if the volume fraction of the 331 water is being tracked, the density in each cell is given in Eq. (6). Other fluid properties 332 333 [e.g., viscosity (Eq. (7)] were computed in a similar manner.

$$\rho = \alpha_w \rho_w + (1 - \alpha_o) \rho_o \tag{6}$$

(7)

$$\mu = \alpha_w \mu_w + (1 - \alpha_o) \mu_o$$

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#### 3.4. Surface tension, wall adhesion and capillary number

Surface tension plays a dominant role in a two-phase immiscible fluid flow at microscale level. The continuum surface force (CSF) model for surface tension by Brackbill et al., [26] was implemented in ANSYS Fluent<sup>®</sup> [27] model through the source term in the momentum equation. Equation (8) was used to approximate the surface tension force per unit volume  $\vec{F}$  in the momentum equation

$$\vec{F} = \sigma \frac{2\rho k_w \nabla \alpha_w}{(\rho_w + \rho_o)} \tag{8}$$

341 Where,  $\sigma$  is the surface tension coefficient and k is the interface curvature 342 computed from  $k = -(\nabla \cdot \hat{n})$ . The unit normal vector of the interface is represented as  $\hat{n}$ . 343 The contact angle with the wall was used to adjust the unit normal vector of the interface 344  $(\hat{n})$  in the cells near the wall. The surface normal to the live cell next to the wall as  $\hat{n} =$ 345  $\hat{n}_w cos\theta_w + \hat{t}_w sin\theta_w$ . Where  $\hat{n}_w$  and  $\hat{t}_w$  are the unit vectors normal and tangential to the wall, 346 respectively.

347 The capillary number is a dimensionless quantity that characterizes the ratio of viscous forces to the interfacial tension forces acting across the fluid-fluid interface 348 denoted by Ca [Eq. (9)]. For a flowing liquid, if Ca >1, then viscous forces is more 349 dominant relative to the interfacial forces. However, for Ca < 1, the interfacial forces 350 dominates the flow and viscous forces are negligible. The capillary number is usually large 351 for high-speed flows compared to low-speed flows. A typically capillary flow through pores 352 in the porous reservoir have Ca of about  $10^{-6}$ , and flow in drill pipes have Ca of about 1 353 354 [28].

$$Ca = \frac{\mu V}{\sigma}$$

#### 356 *3.5. Validation of the numerical methodology*

A preliminary study was conducted to validate the numerical methodology against a recovery factor data adapted from a core flood experiment of Ahmadi et al. 2016 [22]. The design and operating conditions of the numerical study are similar to the experimental conditions with the injection temperature of 20 °C and inlet velocity of  $2.94 \times 10^6$  m/s. The recovery factor results at different time intervals were plotted against the core flooding experimental data as shown in Figure 5. The results displayed a favourable comparison between the numerical and experimental data with less than ±2.5 % error margin.



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Figure 5: comparison of the recovery factor plots between experiment and numerical data.

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370 4. Results and discussion

The results of the hot water-flooding processes involving the different wettability and interfacial tension scenarios have been presented and analysed in this section. The results are in the form of volume recovery factors (RF) which is defined as the volume fraction of oil that was displaced from the porous media and was computed using Eq. (10).

$$RF = \frac{V_{displaced}}{V_{initial}} = \frac{V_{initial} - V_{residual}}{V_{initial}} \times 100$$
(10)

375 Where  $V_{initial}$  is the initial volume of oil in the domain,  $V_{displaced}$  is the volume of oil 376 displaced, and  $V_{residual}$  is the residual volume of oil left in the domain after the water 377 flooding process.

378 The respective pressure drop across the computational domain at a different 379 injection temperature under the three wettability conditions considered is shown in Figure 6. It is observed that the entire wettability scenario shows a reduction in the pressure with 380 an increase in temperature, but become almost insignificant with the water-wet scenario. 381 382 However, under a low injection temperature, the pressure drops for the intermediate-wet and oil-wet cases shown a higher value in comparison to the water-wet media. This could 383 be attributed to the fact that the oil phase adheres to the solid grain walls and thus 384 385 resulting in a resistance to flow causing an increased the pressure drop. With the increase 386 in temperature from 20 to 60 °C, it can be observed that the pressure drop reduces and

almost having the same magnitude with that of the water-wet media. This may be due tothe reduction in the oil viscosity and pressure drop with the increase in temperature.

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#### 4.1. Combined effect of wettability and temperature on the recovery factor

395 The effect of porous media wettability on recovery factor at different injection 396 temperature is presented in Figure 7. The result of the wettability cases presented were 397 conducted using three different water contact angles of 45°, 90° and 150°. As shown in the plot, the recovery factor in the water-wet or hydrophilic (i.e. media with a greater 398 399 affinity for water than for oil) is highest with values above 70% and the recovery factor 400 decreases with increasing contact angle with values around 40% for the intermediate-wet 401 system and less than 20% of the oil-wet media. Similar results is observed in Figure 8, 402 where the oil phase sticking to the spherical solid grains for all the oil-wet scenarios. It 403 can be seen that at the transient evolution of the fluid-fluid interface, the water phase 404 convex to the left in the water-wet media with water filling up the small pore spaces while 405 the oil forms globules of varying sizes in the central part of the large pores. The oil phase has no direct contact with the matrix wall, but covered with a thin water film and serving 406 407 as a form of slippery surface for the oil to be displaced and recovered. In this case, the 408 water breakthrough time is relatively delayed because the displacement process favours 409 the outward flow of the oil phase more than the water.

410 However, in the case of hydrophobic rock, the reverse of the above process is seen 411 as the cover surface of the rock, creating a form of lubricating lining for the easy passage of the invading water, which results in quicker water breakthrough. In addition, the effect 412 413 of oil-wetness can also be seen in the pressure profile shown in Figure 6 where at 20 °C, the pressure drop in the water-wet media is about 12 Pa when compared to the 35 Pa for 414 415 the oil-wet media. It is evidence that higher pressure is needed to mobilise the oil from 416 the inner small pores of the media and to detach the oil phase from the walls of the porous media. 417

The effect of temperature is found to be more predominant in the water-wet media. For the water-wet case and temperature between 20 and 60 °C, a variation of about 17% is observed in the recovery factor, while almost an insignificant variation is observed in the oil-wet case. It can be explained that water-wetness makes it relatively easier for the oil to be displaced by the invading water while the oil-wet case requires more thermal energy in the system to reduce the oil viscosity; thereby releasing the oil stuck on the matrix wall and displace as much oil as possible. For the low temperature (20 °C) injection 425 case, the recovery factor of the water-wet media is seen to be about 72 %, while that of the oil-wet media is a little above 10%. However, with increasing temperature, there 426 427 seems to be a slight reversal in the profile with higher recovery favouring the oil-wet case. 428 This observation is in agreement with the findings of Mingming et al., [16] that reported an increase in the oil recovery with increment in temperature for the oil-wet media. A 429 plausible explanation for this occurrence is that a reduction in the viscosity of a fluid under 430 431 same interfacial tension results in a reduction in the capillary number, which can be 432 observed in the water-wet displayed in Figure 6. However, an injection temperature of 20 433 °C leads to a recovery of 72%, and reducing the viscosity of the oil phase by increasing 434 the temperature to 60 °C and under the same interfacial tension and water-wetness lead 435 to a reduction in the capillary number, which hinders the recovery of the oil, phase (60%). 436







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440 The wettability condition of a reservoir rocks affects the effectiveness of any oil recovery method in use. At the commencement of oil production through primary recovery, 441 the displacement of the oil phase is mainly under the influence of a pressure drop with the 442 oil phase having a relatively high mobility and relative permeability due to its high 443 444 saturation, making it easy to move in the direction of the wellbore. With the decline in the relative permeability of the oil via the reduction in its saturation (Figure 8), water 445 446 saturation increase by the invading water filling the pore spaces which was earlier occupied by oil and then leaving the remaining oil in the form of isolated globules sandwiched in the 447 448 water. This make it difficult to extract the oil singularly by the effect of a pressure 449 difference.

450 With increase in temperature of the injection water (thermal recovery method), more oil is recovered (mainly in the oil-wet media) as shown in Figure 7 and 8. With the 451 452 reduction in the oil-viscosity via temperature increase leading to capillary pressure reduction and resulted in the coming together of the oil globules into larger droplets 453 454 (coalescence). This coalesced oil phase forms a zone or chain-like network of connected 455 oil (oil bank) that easily migrate to the outlet. Besides the reduction in the oil viscosity, 456 other studies have reported that temperature aids in the oil recovery by changing the media wettability in the hydrophilic direction [1, 18, 19]. As reported by Dangerfield and 457 458 Brown, [19] at high temperatures, ionic compounds separate from the wall of the media 459 resulting in a change of the wettability to become more hydrophilic. Donaldson and Alam 460 [1] reported a similar increase in recovery with an increase in temperature due to the 461 relative permeability increase of oil with increasing temperature.



(b) Simulations under high interfacial tension of 0.045N/m

- 462 Figure 8: Fluid distribution of the different cases (the red and blue colour is oil and water 463 respectively) (a) low IFT and (b) high IFT. 464
- 465 466

#### Effect of Interfacial Tension (IFT) 4.2.

467 The effect of interfacial tension (IFT) on the displacement process under different wettability conditions are presented the Figure 9 (a-c). The relative trend shows that the 468 percentage recovery of oil from the flooding are higher in the cases of lower interfacial 469 470 tension. The displacement process was simulated under the water-wet  $(45^{\circ})$ , 471 intermediate-wet (90°) and oil-wet (150°) state, at varying injection temperatures. In practice, in the primary oil recovery, approximately 20% of the original oil in place is 472 473 recovered depending on the type of reservoir, with a secondary recovery mechanism 474 adding another 15 to 20% [29]. The quest to recover the left over oil is the aim of every 475 enhanced oil recovery mechanism. As stated by Carcoana [29], the two main factors that 476 determines the recovery of residual oil are the Capillary Number and Mobility Ratio.

477 It is evident from the results in Figure 9 that a reduction of the interfacial tension 478 leads to a better recovery. This could be explained with the Eq. (9) for the capillary number representing the ratio of viscous to capillary forces. A reduction in the interfacial tension 479 480 for the same media constriction (pore geometry) resulted in an increase in capillary number which is a significant parameter in oil recovery. In essence, a lower capillary 481 number suggests that capillary forces dominate the flow, while a larger capillary number 482 indicates that the flow is a viscous dominated. In practice, enhanced oil recovery 483

484 mechanism wishes to increase the capillary number in order to reduce trapping. In this 485 regards, Thomas. S, [30] pointed out that capillary number needs to be increased by three 486 orders of magnitude to recover about 50% of the residual oil saturation.

The benefit of combining IFT and wettability is apparent from this study. For an 487 injection temperature of 20 °C under high IFT of 0.045 N/m, a percentage recovery of 488 about 10% was observed. Reducing only the IFT to 0.025 N/m improves the recovery 489 minimally to about 13%. On the other hand, reducing the wettability from the oil-wet of 490 491 150° to intermediate-wet of 90° results in recovery factor of between 35-45%, and a further reduction of the wettability to water-wet (45°) results in recovery factor of between 492 60-75%. This clearly shows that, though a low IFT is enough to resist the capillary effects, 493 494 an improved oil recovery factor cannot be achieved due to the adherence of the oil to the walls caused by the wettability effects. 495



496



497

(b)



499 Figure 9: Combined effect of interfacial tension and temperature on recovery factor for

500 oil-wet media (a) water-wet (b) intermediate-wet (c) oil-wet.

501

#### 502 **5. Conclusion**

The results of the influence of wettability, temperature and interfacial tension (IFT) on water-flood oil recovery using an idealised pore-scale numerical model have been analysed. Reservoir conditions were used in all the cases with high and low IFT, waterwet, intermediate-wet and oil-wet state with an injection temperature of 20, 40 and 60 507 °C. The main conclusions are:

- i. Wettability alteration from oil-wet to water-wet condition can enhance the
   detachment of the oil phase from pore walls, but unable to improve the recovery
   sufficiently due to the capillary effect.
- 511 ii. The displacement efficiency in all the wettability conditions could be improved by a512 sufficient reduction in the interfacial tension between the fluid phases.
- 513 iii. Improved recovery could be achieved with a reduction in the interfacial tension and514 altering the wettability towards a water-wet state.

515 This study has demonstrated the effectiveness of using a computational fluid dynamics 516 modelling approach to predict the influences of operating conditions on reservoir 517 multiphase flow characteristics at pore-scale level. The use of the numerical approach will 518 enhance the understanding of the requirements for the optimised oil recovery process.

At injection temperature of 20 °C and high IFT of 0.045 N/m, a percentage recovery of about 10% was achieved while a reduced IFT to 0.025 N/m gives a recovery of about 13%. On the other hand, wettability reduction from the oil-wet to intermediate-wet states results in recovery factor of between 35-45% while a water-wet state results in recovery factor of between 60-75%. This clearly shows that, though a low IFT is enough to resist the capillary effects, an improved oil recovery factor cannot be achieved due to the adherence of the oil to the walls caused by the wettability effects.

A comprehensive understanding of the pore-scale mechanisms that is controlling the macroscale displacement phenomenon as been investigated in this paper and will improve the predictive capability and design strategies for enhanced oil recovery practical applications and other fluid flow mechanism such as soil remediation, hydrology and sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> in deep saline aquifers.

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#### 533 **References**

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