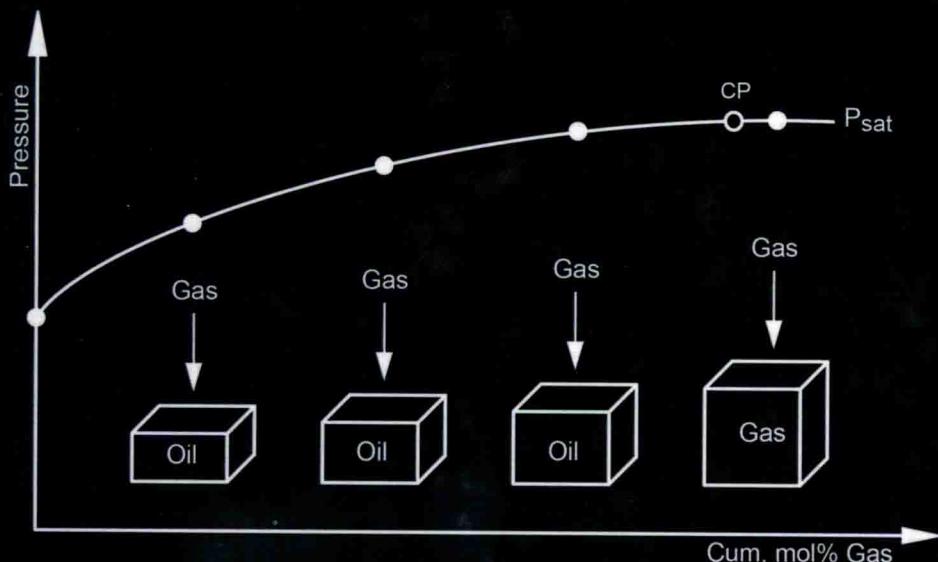


SECOND EDITION

Phase Behavior of Petroleum

Reservoir Fluids



Karen Schou Pedersen
Peter L. Christensen
Jawad Azeem Shaikh



CRC Press
Taylor & Francis Group

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S E C O N D E D I T I O N

Phase Behavior of Petroleum Reservoir Fluids

Preface

The techniques of oil and gas recovery are under constant development. This is followed by an increased demand to the accuracy of PVT simulation results. High quality simulation results are dependent on accurate fluid compositions and PVT data. We wanted to cover experimental procedures in more detail in the second edition than in the first edition, so we asked our colleague, Jawad Azeem Shaikh, to be a coauthor. Jawad has 12 years of experience from a commercial PVT laboratory, and his experience includes sampling, compositional analyses, and measurements of both routine and EOR PVT data. Chapters 2 and 3 provide a comprehensive review of experimental procedures used to provide compositional data and PVT data.

The oil industry sees the PC-SAFT equation as a possible alternative or replacement of cubic equations. The PC-SAFT equation is introduced in Chapter 4, and Chapter 5 on fluid characterization includes a section on the characterization of the PC-SAFT equation. Chapter 7 shows simulation results for PVT data obtained with the PC-SAFT equation.

Chapter 9 on regression has a section on how to recreate the original reservoir fluid composition from a depleted gas condensate reservoir fluid sample. Chapter 12 on asphaltenes includes a section on how to simulate the location of a possible asphaltene tar mat.

We have, since the first edition was published, had the opportunity to analyze numerous EOR PVT data and have used this experience to make a thorough update of Chapter 15 on MMP calculations.

All other chapters are updated with new data material and new references.

Karen Schou Pedersen
Peter Lindskou Christensen
Jawad Azeem Shaikh

Authors

Karen Schou Pedersen holds a PhD in liquid physics from the Department of Physical Chemistry at the Technical University of Denmark. She has worked as a research associate at the Physics Department at Edinburgh University and at the nuclear research center, Institut Laue-Langevin, in Grenoble. She has been the managing director of Calsep A/S since 1984 and has been responsible for several R & D projects within reservoir fluid modeling and flow assurance. She is the author of more than 50 publications on oil and gas properties.

Peter Lindskou Christensen holds a PhD from the Department of Chemical Engineering at the Technical University of Denmark. He started his career in oil and gas technology at the Risø National Laboratories in Denmark focusing on studies in the fields of reservoir simulation and PVT. He has been an Associate Professor at the Technical University of Denmark and lectured in thermodynamics, unit operations and oil and gas technology. He is currently a senior principal consultant at Calsep A/S.

Jawad Azeem Shaikh holds an MSc in petroleum technology from the University of Pune in India. He has been the regional manager and principal consultant of Calsep FZ-LLC in Dubai since 2009 and has been responsible for the project including lab coordination, designing of Enhanced Oil Recovery studies, and Equation of State modeling work of oil and gas properties. Before joining the Calsep, he was an advanced studies supervisor for Core Laboratories International B.V. His major job functions at Core Laboratories included technical support to field engineers to carry out bottom hole and separator sampling as well as project coordination and data evaluation in PVT, Compositional, and Enhanced Oil Recovery projects. He has authored several papers and articles on sampling, PVT lab work, and on oil and gas properties.

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1 Petroleum Reservoir Fluids

1.1 RESERVOIR FLUID CONSTITUENTS

Petroleum reservoir fluids are multicomponent mixtures consisting primarily of hydrocarbons. Methane (CH_4) is the simplest of all hydrocarbons, and also the most common component in petroleum reservoir fluids. Because methane contains one carbon atom, it is often referred to as C_1 . Similarly, the term C_2 is used for ethane (C_2H_6), C_3 for propane (C_3H_8), and so on. Hydrocarbons with seven and more carbon atoms are called C_{7+} components, and the entity of all C_{7+} components is called the C_{7+} fraction. Petroleum reservoir fluids may contain hydrocarbons as heavy as C_{200} . A particular C_{7+} component will belong to one of the following component classes:

Paraffins: A paraffinic compound consists of hydrocarbon segments of the type C , CH , CH_2 , or CH_3 . The carbon atoms are connected by single bonds. Paraffins are divided into normal paraffins (*n*-paraffins) and iso-paraffins (*i*-paraffins). In an *n*-paraffin, the carbon atoms form straight chains, whereas an *i*-paraffin contains at least one side chain. Paraffins are sometimes also referred to as *alkanes*. Figure 1.1 shows the structure of methane (C_1), ethane (C_2), and *n*-hexane (nC_6), which are all examples of paraffinic compounds.

Naphthenes: These compounds are similar to paraffins in the sense that they are built of the same types of hydrocarbon segments, but they differ from paraffins in that they contain one or more cyclic structures. The segments in the ring structures (e.g., CH_2) are connected by single bonds. Most naphthenic ring structures contain six carbon atoms, but naphthenic compounds with either five or seven carbon atoms connected in ring structures are also common in petroleum reservoir fluids. Naphthenes are also called *cycloalkanes*. Cyclohexane and methyl cyclopentane shown in Figure 1.1 are examples of naphthenic components.

Aromatics: Similar to naphthenes, aromatics contain one or more cyclic structures, but the carbon atoms in an aromatic compound are connected by aromatic double bonds. Benzene (C_6H_6), the simplest aromatic component, is shown in Figure 1.1. Polycyclic aromatic compounds with two or more ring structures are also found in petroleum reservoir fluids. An example of the latter type of components is naphthalene (C_{10}H_8), whose structure is also shown in Figure 1.1.

The percentage of paraffinic (P), naphthenic (N), and aromatic (A) components in a reservoir fluid is often referred to as the PNA distribution.

Petroleum reservoir fluids may also contain inorganic compounds, of which nitrogen (N_2), carbon dioxide (CO_2), and hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) are the most common. Water (H_2O) is another important constituent of reservoir fluids. As water has limited miscibility with hydrocarbons, most of the water in a reservoir is usually found in a separate water zone located beneath the gas and oil zones.

1.2 PROPERTIES OF RESERVOIR FLUID CONSTITUENTS

Table 1.1 shows selected physical properties of some constituents found in naturally occurring oil and gas mixtures. By comparing, for example, the normal boiling points, it is evident that hydrocarbons in petroleum reservoir fluids cover a wide range of component properties. At atmospheric pressure, pure methane will be in gaseous form at temperatures above the normal boiling point of

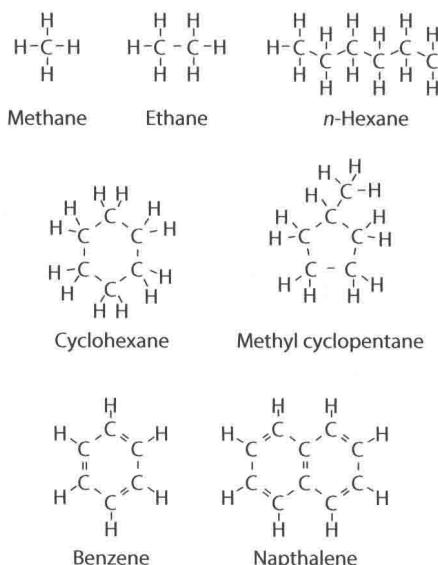


FIGURE 1.1 Molecular structures of some petroleum reservoir fluid constituents.

-161.6°C, whereas at the same pressure the temperature must be raised to 218.0°C before naphthalene evaporates. The properties of hydrocarbons with the same number of carbon atoms may also differ substantially. *n*-Hexane (*n*C₆), methyl cyclopentane (m-*c*C₅), and benzene all contain six carbon atoms. However, the properties of these three components are quite different. For example, it may be seen from Table 1.1 that the density of *n*C₆ at atmospheric conditions is lower than that of m-*c*C₅, although the density of m-*c*C₅ is lower than that of benzene. This suggests that densities of components with the same carbon number will increase in the order P → N → A. It is rare to see a measured PNA distribution and, in the absence of experimental information about the predominant molecular structures, the trend in component densities may be used to give an idea about the distribution of P, N, and A components in a given C₇₊ fraction.

The pure component vapor pressures and critical points (CPs) are essential in calculations of component and mixture properties. The pure component vapor pressures are experimentally determined by measuring the corresponding values of temperature (T) and pressure (P) at which the substance undergoes a transition from liquid to gas. Figure 1.2 shows the vapor pressure curves of methane and benzene, both of which are common constituents of oil and gas mixtures. The vapor pressure curve ends at the CP, above which no liquid-to-gas phase transition can take place. The CP of methane is -82.6°C and 46.0 bar and that of benzene 289°C and 48.9 bar. The temperature at CP is called T_C and the pressure P_C.

As illustrated in the right-hand-side plot in Figure 1.3, the phase behavior of a pure component at a given temperature, T₁, may be studied by placing a fixed amount of this component in a cell at temperature T₁. The cell volume may be varied by moving the piston up and down. At position A, the cell contents are in the gaseous state. If the piston is moved downward, the volume will decrease and the pressure increases. At position B, a liquid phase starts to form. By moving the piston further downward, the volume will further decrease, but the pressure remains constant until all gas is converted into liquid. This happens at position C. A further decrease in the cell volume will result in a rapidly increasing pressure. The left-hand-side curve in Figure 1.3 illustrates the phase changes when crossing a vapor pressure curve. A pure component can only exist in the form of two phases in equilibrium right at the vapor pressure curve. When the vapor pressure curve is reached, a conversion from either gas to liquid or liquid to gas will start. This phase transition is associated with volumetric changes at constant T and P. At the point B, the component is said to

TABLE 1.1
Physical Properties of Common Petroleum Reservoir Fluid Constituents

Component	Formula	Molecular Weight (g/mol)	Melting Point (°C)	Boiling Point (°C)	Critical Temperature (°C)	Critical Pressure (bar)	Acentric Factor	Density (g/cm ³) at 1 atm and 20°C
Inorganics								
Nitrogen	N ₂	28.013	-209.9	-195.8	147.0	33.9	0.040	—
Carbon dioxide	CO ₂	44.010	-56.6	-78.5	31.1	73.8	0.225	—
Hydrogen sulfide	H ₂ S	34.080	-83.6	59.7	100.1	89.4	0.100	—
Paraffins								
Methane	CH ₄	16.043	-182.5	-161.6	82.6	46.0	0.008	—
Ethane	C ₂ H ₆	30.070	-183.3	-87.6	32.3	48.8	0.098	—
Propane	C ₃ H ₈	44.094	-187.7	-42.1	96.7	42.5	0.152	—
Iso-butane	C ₄ H ₁₀	58.124	-159.6	-11.8	135.0	36.5	0.176	—
<i>n</i> -Butane	C ₄ H ₁₀	58.124	-138.4	-0.5	152.1	38.0	0.193	—
Iso-pentane	C ₅ H ₁₂	72.151	-159.9	27.9	187.3	33.8	0.227	0.620
<i>n</i> -Pentane	C ₅ H ₁₂	72.151	-129.8	36.1	196.4	33.7	0.251	0.626
<i>n</i> -Hexane	C ₆ H ₁₄	86.178	-95.1	68.8	234.3	29.7	0.296	0.659
Iso-octane	C ₈ H ₁₈	114.232	-109.2	117.7	286.5	24.8	0.378	0.702 (16°C)
<i>n</i> -Decane	C ₁₀ H ₂₂	142.286	-29.7	174.2	344.6	21.2	0.489	0.730
Naphthenes								
Cyclopentane	C ₅ H ₁₀	70.135	-93.9	49.3	238.6	45.1	0.196	0.745
Methyl cyclopentane	C ₆ H ₁₂	84.162	-142.5	71.9	259.6	37.8	0.231	0.754 (16°C)
Cyclohexane	C ₆ H ₁₂	84.162	6.5	80.7	280.4	40.7	0.212	0.779
Aromatics								
Benzene	C ₆ H ₆	78.114	5.6	80.1	289.0	48.9	0.212	0.885 (16°C)
Toluene	C ₇ H ₈	92.141	-95.2	110.7	318.7	41.0	0.263	0.867
<i>o</i> -Xylene	C ₈ H ₁₀	106.168	-25.2	144.5	357.2	37.3	0.310	0.880
Naphthalene	C ₁₀ H ₈	128.174	80.4	218.0	475.3	40.5	0.302	0.971 (90°C)

Source: Data from Reid, R.C., Prausnitz, J.M., and Sherwood, T.K. *The Properties of Gases and Liquids*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1977.

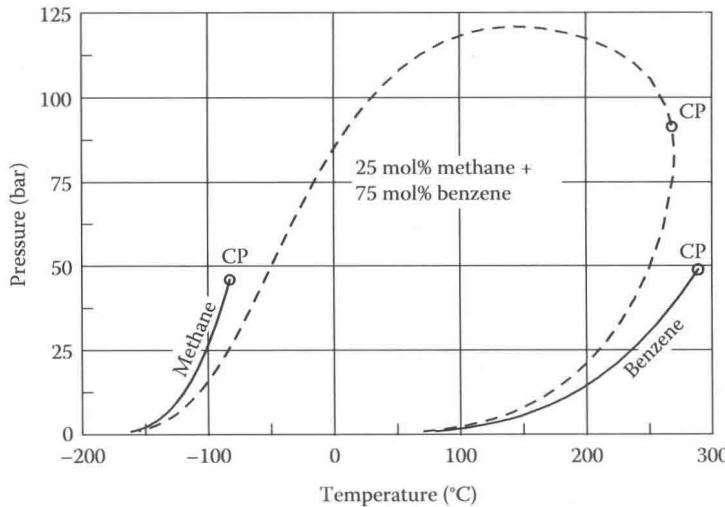


FIGURE 1.2 Vapor pressure curves of methane and benzene (full-drawn line). Phase envelope (dashed line) of a mixture of 25 mol% methane and 75 mol% benzene calculated using the Soave–Redlich–Kwong equation of state as presented in Chapter 4. Abbreviation: CP, critical point.

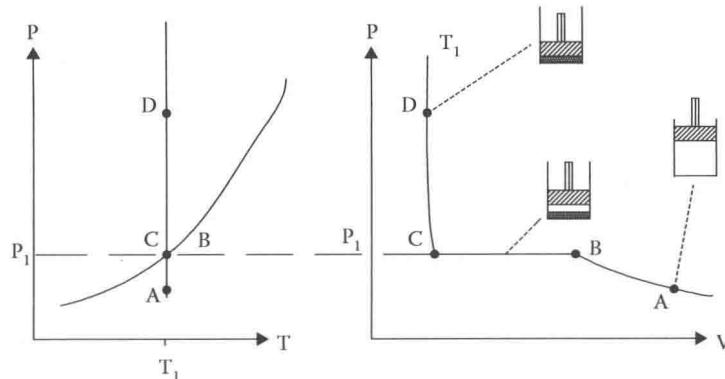


FIGURE 1.3 Pure component phase behavior in PT and PV diagrams.

be at its dew point or in the form of a saturated gas. At position C, the component is at its bubble point or in the form of a saturated liquid. At position A, the state is undersaturated gas, and at D it is undersaturated liquid.

Another important property is the acentric factor, ω , as defined by Pitzer (1955):

$$\omega = -1 - \log_{10} \left(\frac{P_r^{\text{sat}}}{P_c} \right)_{T=0.7T_c} \quad (1.1)$$

where P_r^{sat} stands for vapor pressure (or saturation pressure). The idea behind this definition is outlined in Figure 1.4. A plot of the logarithm of the reduced pure component vapor pressure, $P_r^{\text{sat}} = P^{\text{sat}}/P_c$, against the reciprocal of the reduced temperature, $T_r = T/T_c$, will for most pure substances give an approximately straight line. Figure 1.4 shows plots of $\log_{10} P_r^{\text{sat}}$ versus $1/T_r$ for argon (Ar) and *n*-decane (*n*C₁₀). For $T_r = 0.7$ ($1/T_r = 1.43$), $\log_{10} P_r^{\text{sat}} = -1.0$ for argon and -1.489 for *n*C₁₀. Argon is used as a reference and assigned an acentric factor of 0. In general, the acentric factor of a component equals $(\log_{10} P_r^{\text{sat}})_{T_r=0.7}$ for argon and $-(\log_{10} P_r^{\text{sat}})_{T_r=0.7}$ for the actual substance.

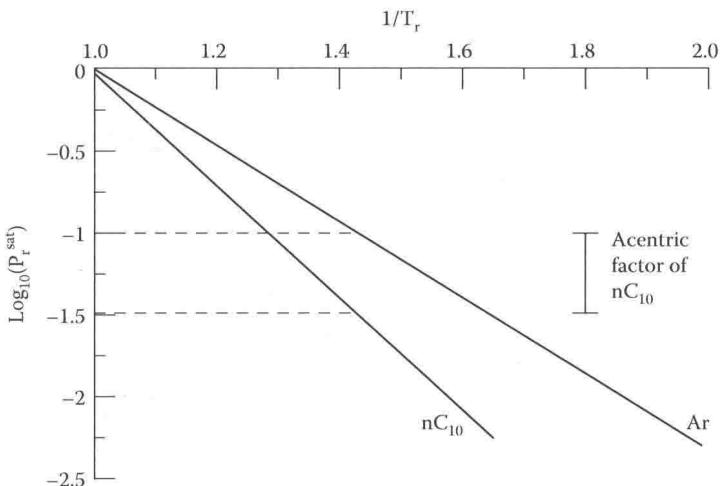


FIGURE 1.4 Acentric factor of nC₁₀ from vapor pressure curves of Ar and nC₁₀. Abbreviations: P_r^{sat}, reduced saturation point (P_{sat}/P_c); T_r, reduced temperature (T/T_c).

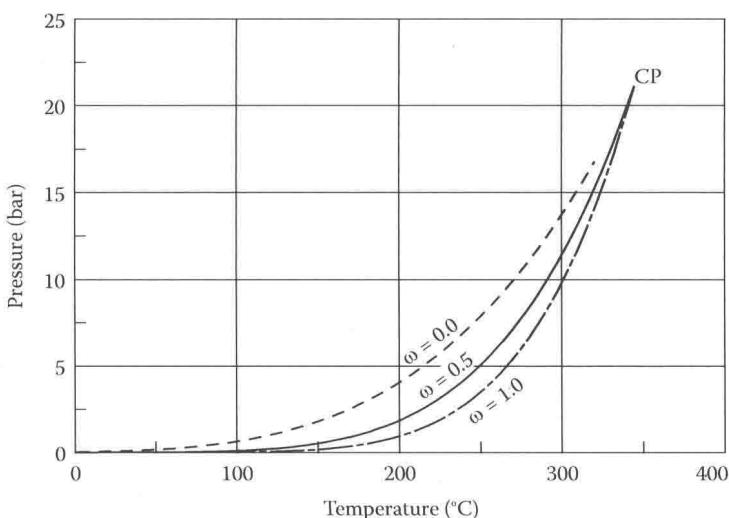


FIGURE 1.5 Vapor pressure curves of component with same T_c and P_c as nC₁₀ and acentric factors of 0.0, 0.5, and 1.0.

With this definition, the acentric factor of nC₁₀ equals $[-1 - (-1.489)] = 0.489$, which is consistent with the acentric factor given for nC₁₀ in Table 1.1.

The acentric factor has got its name because the acentric factor of *n*-paraffins increases with carbon number. Methane (C₁) has an acentric factor of 0.008, ethane (C₂) 0.098, propane (C₃) 0.152, and so on. With increasing carbon number molecules of this component class get more elongated (less spherical) with increasing carbon number. More fundamentally, the acentric factor can be seen as a measure of the curvature of the pure component vapor pressure curve. Figure 1.5 shows the vapor pressure curves of three hypothetical substances, all having the same critical temperature and pressure as nC₁₀ (344.5°C and 21.1 bar), whereas the acentric factors are 0.0, 0.5, and 1.0, respectively (the acentric factor of nC₁₀ is 0.489). With the CP locked, the vapor pressure curves are bound to end at the same point, whereas the bend on the curve is determined by the acentric factor.

For an acentric factor of 1.0, the vapor pressure curve is relatively flat at low temperatures and then increases steeply when approaching the critical temperature. If the acentric factor is lower, a more even increase is seen in vapor pressure with temperature. The vapor pressure curves in Figure 1.5 have been calculated using the Peng–Robinson equation of state presented in Chapter 4.

1.3 PHASE ENVELOPES

Petroleum reservoir fluids are multicomponent mixtures; therefore, it is of much interest to find a mixture equivalent of the pure component vapor pressure curve. With two or more components present, the two-phase region is not restricted to a single line in a PT diagram. As is illustrated in Figure 1.2 for a mixture of 25 mol% methane and 75 mol% benzene, the two-phase region for a mixture forms a closed area in P and T. The line surrounding this area is called the *phase envelope*.

Figure 1.6 shows the phase envelope for a natural gas mixture with the composition given in Table 1.2. The phase envelope consists of a dew point branch and a bubble point branch meeting at the CP of the mixture CP. On the dew point branch, the mixture is in gaseous form and in equilibrium with an incipient amount of liquid. Under these conditions, the gas (or vapor) is said to be saturated. At higher temperatures and the same pressure, there is no liquid present. By contrast, the gas may take up liquid components without liquid precipitation taking place. The gas is therefore said to be undersaturated. On the bubble point branch, the mixture is in liquid form and in equilibrium with an incipient amount of gas, and the liquid is said to be saturated. At lower temperatures and the same pressure, the liquid (or oil) is undersaturated. At the CP, two identical phases are in equilibrium, both having a composition equal to the overall composition. At temperatures close to the critical temperature and pressures above the critical pressure, there is only one phase present, but it can be difficult to tell whether it is a gas or a liquid. The term *super-critical fluid* is often used. Phase identification in the super-critical region is discussed in more detail in Chapter 6. The highest pressure at which two phases can exist is called the *cricondenbar* and the highest temperature with two phases present is called the *cricondentherm*.

The phenomenon called *retrograde condensation* is illustrated in Figure 1.6 as a dashed vertical line at $T = -30^\circ\text{C}$. At this temperature, the mixture is in gaseous form at pressures above the upper dew point pressure, that is, at pressures above approximately 75 bar. At lower pressures, the mixture will split into two phases, a gas and a liquid. Liquid formation taking place as the result of falling

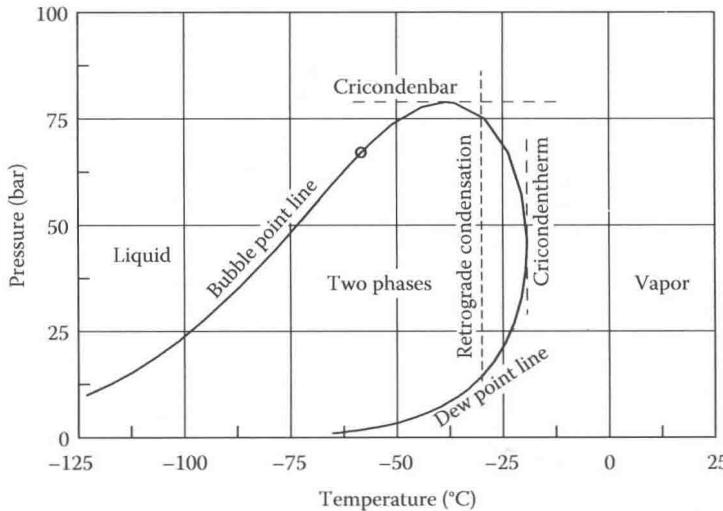


FIGURE 1.6 Phase envelope of natural gas in Table 1.2. CP stands for critical point. The phase envelope has been calculated using the Soave–Redlich–Kwong equation of state as presented in Chapter 4.