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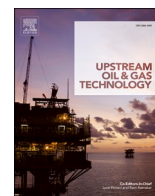


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Experimental investigation of bypassed-oil recovery in tight reservoir rock using a two-step CO₂ soaking strategy: Effects of fracture geometry

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ABSTRACT

The potential of the CO₂ soaking procedure has been generally acknowledged as a valid way to advance the tight rock oil recovery. Over the last decade, a significant number of Huff-n-Puff (H-n-P) experiments have been conducted to develop unconventional oil reservoirs. However, the majority of experiments used fully saturated cores and unconfined core holders. Therefore, the average oil recovery at the field-scale could not be accurately estimated. Besides, the effect of key factors such as fracture geometry on bypassed oil recovery has remained obscure. For better quantifying CO₂ H-n-P efficiency in oil fields, this study proposes an immiscible CO₂ soaking process aimed at bypassing the oil before conducting the H-n-P process using various fracture forms and dimensions. Tight cores from Sarawak with an average porosity and permeability of 9% and 0.07 md, respectively, were employed in this experimental research. The importance of the fracture surface areas (FSA), fracture depth (FD), width (FW), and diameter was thoroughly studied. The research findings revealed that the two-step CO₂ soaking procedure significantly reduces the effectiveness of the currently applied laboratory H-n-P process. However, the outcomes are more consistent with the current average oil recoveries in field pilots. The study demonstrates that FD is the most critical factor in maximizing the remaining oil recovery. The research indicates that the FSA does not always follow a specific trend. It is, however, dependent on the fracture geometry. The significance of the crack's surface area and fracture intensity is determined to be primarily dependent on the fracture shape and the utilized core holder system, respectively. The study's findings presented a higher degree of accuracy in estimating actual oil recovery from tight reservoirs employing two-step soaking technology.

1. Introduction

The advancement in hydraulic fracturing in horizontal wells has made it possible for several countries to produce unconventional oil [60]. Unconventional formations such as the Bakken, Permian Basin, and Eagle Ford have made an undeniable contribution to shale oil

production and transformed the energy landscape in several states in the United States [5,13,28,36]. However, with the existing technologies, only less than 10% can be retrieved through primary depletion [39,55]. According to Clark [18], the most likely value for the oil recovery factor (RF) in shale oil reservoirs is approximately 7%. After an unconventional well is fractured, oil production typically drops to less than 20% of the

Abbreviations: H-n-P, huff-n-puff; EOR, enhanced oil recovery; FSA, fracture surface areas; FD, fracture depth; FW, fracture width; RF, recovery factor; Soi, initial oil saturation; Sor, residual oil saturation; MMP, minimum miscibility pressure; MCM, multi-contact miscibility; BPR, back-pressure regulator; CL, core length; CD, core diameter; CV, core volume; CSA, core surface area; CLA, core lateral area; FL, fracture length; FV, fracture volume; UTM, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia; W_{dry}, weight of dry core.

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initial rate within one year [14,39]. Thus, tight formations have been identified as limited natural energy reservoirs due to their poor physical properties and sharp decline rate in primary production. The lack of possibilities for extending the life span of numerous shale/tight oil wells leaves companies with no options, forcing them to drill additional wells to maintain the production rate. However, drilling is costly and carries environmental challenges [32]. One major issue with new wells is the re-fracking job because new wells need to be re-fracked frequently due to the limited drainage radius. Therefore, innovative technologies are required to extract the remaining oil from matured reservoirs to maintain profitable oil production volumes [8,9,16]. Scholars have persistently worked on developing of new procedures to increase the recovery factor in tight oil reservoirs. Unfortunately, they found that techniques that have been successfully implemented in conventional reservoirs are not economically efficient, which does not warrant any further technological research [58].

To improve unconventional oil recovery, research on the Huff-n-Puff technique of (H-n-P) has been reported. This process is widely employed in North America and China [17] and is found to be cost-effective and more efficient in low-permeability formations [45]. This method has also been successfully employed in high viscous reservoirs for decades [31,34]. Over the last few years, a great amount of bypassed oil in unconventional reservoirs have further aroused wide concern about the application of the H-n-P development. Several laboratory gas H-n-P studies have been performed to access greater quantities of the remaining oil, and in this instance, a wide variety of parameters and methodologies have been considered [3,7,15,23,24,26,46,54,56,74]. Most researchers approved the method of the H-n-P system; however, they disagreed over the role of some critical mechanisms and key parameters due to the lack of actual field data [48]. Other researchers [6]; Fiallos [25] claimed that the technique has a considerable performance only when close to the fracture. Despite the success of numerous researchers demonstrating the effectiveness of the H-n-P technique in producing tight oil, its success in extracting bypassed oil under in-situ reservoir conditions remains indistinct. While pilot studies on natural oil-bearing systems can provide declarative knowledge of the enhanced oil recovery (EOR) method's efficiency, comparative studies may not be feasible. Another drawback of pilot projects is their cost of over several million dollars. While laboratory tests can be performed at considerably lower costs [10,37,46]. On the other hand, there are substantial discrepancies between laboratory-generated EOR efficiencies and those discovered through field observations [48]. Generally speaking, several H-n-P laboratory studies reported substantial oil recoveries of up to 100%, yet, the average oil recoveries in field pilots are only 30% [33, 47].

Recent studies demonstrate attempts to replicate improved oil recovery from matrix-fracture combinations, especially in tight reservoirs. This is accomplished by placing high-permeability spacers on core surfaces to imitate fractures [44]. Other laboratory studies have used pre-saturated cores in high-pressure vessels (B. [38]). Such models are incapable of simulating reservoir conditions where the matrix's surface area is not specified. Artificial fractures are, therefore, essential for evaluating key mechanisms for managing injected gas transport into the matrix. And also critical for assessing operational procedures such as soaking time, number of cycles, injection pressure time, production pressure time, etc.

At present, there is literature on numerous laboratory cases. [1,70, 76], reporting favorable performance of the CO₂ H-n-P method performed on tight oil extraction. However, there are limited experimental studies with an emphasis on fracture geometry. Despite the fact that the presence of the fracture network increases the gas-swept area, enlarges the oil flow path, and contributes to the enhancement of oil recovery, it also presents some difficulties. For instance, several studies have demonstrated that in the late stages of oil development, the injected gas travels along the cracks and is unable to make contact with the oil in the matrix, resulting in minimal oil recovery [69]. Furthermore, a valuable

study was conducted by Niu and Schechter [50] to understand the influence of fracture geometry on H-n-P performance. Nevertheless, further knowledge is required regarding the significance of FSA for bypassed oil recovery in a more realistic reservoir condition. Subsequently, many research findings have been reviewed to explore the fracture's potential in H-n-P [29,46,50,62]. Unfortunately, the majority of the studies focused on the overall success of the operating factors and conditions. However, the existing literature does not emphasize on the conclusions regarding the surface area of different fractures [48].

Based on the authors' knowledge, no studies have underlined the significance of FSA using various fracture models for validating the H-n-P performance and key factors such as fracture width (FW), fracture depth (FD), and fracture diameter.

Even though CO₂ H-n-P technology has been thoroughly researched [29,41,63,70], most of the previous experimental findings have validated the H-n-P procedure using fully oil-saturated cores. This suggests that the oil removed did not accurately represent the depleted horizontal wells. All of the aforementioned limitations increase the uncertainty surrounding earlier gas cyclic results, indicating that only a few experiments have quantified the H-n-P system's efficiency under realistic reservoir conditions.

In this research, an advanced two-step soaking method was developed to quantify the efficiency of CO₂ H-n-P in depleted tight formations. An immiscible CO₂ soaking method was employed ahead of the H-n-P procedures to bypass the oil as required using un-fractured and fractured cores. This method is utilized to change the core saturation from the initial oil saturation (Soi) to residual oil saturation (Sor), allowing for better investigation of primary depleted wells. This suggests that the H-n-P procedure that follows would be implemented to estimate the recovery of bypassed oil. This research adds new insight and opens new frontiers on evaluating the performance of the H-n-P technique in the actual oil field. Consequently, reducing the current gap between experimental conclusions and field results. More importantly, this research provides a detailed perspective and ground-breaking conclusions regarding the main H-n-P processes and identifies the fracture property that is more significant for improving the hydraulic fracture design. Generally, the two-step CO₂ soaking strategies were developed based on the following considerations: (1) the soaking system helps the molecular diffusion mechanisms to attain a maturity level [21]; (2) the extended soaking process can better validate the application of the H-n-P method, especially in tight/shale fields [48]; (3) the severe need for modified methods capable of replicating reservoir conditions that closely simulate EOR in fracked tight oil formations [46]; (4) the soaking process contributes to the replication of the reservoir's original fluid distribution by transporting crude oil into the matrix via fractures [64]; (5) the CO₂ soaking process likely leads the in-situ system to be more water-wet [53]; (6) the molecular diffusion is the dominant mechanism of CO₂ distribution in the reservoir during the soaking process [56]; (7) similar processes have been demonstrated to be successful approaches to extracting non-bypassed oil systems [43]; and (8) similar processes have been demonstrated to be successful approaches to extracting bypassed oil systems [21]. However, its effectiveness as a means of extracting the remaining tight oil, and the elements affecting its efficiency (e.g., fracture geometry), are still ambiguous given the scarce number of articles on the subject.

2. Experimental

Recently, the H-n-P methodology has been an efficacious EOR procedure applied to numerous tight reservoirs [3,9,22,30,40,66,68,70,76] and shale formations [20,24,46,51,57,61,62,73,74,76]. In this research, similar tools are employed to design gas injection systems. However, improved procedures are also applied and proven better to evaluate the technique. Two CO₂ soaking methods were applied in this study. The first is the CO₂ immiscible soaking process, which is conducted to bypass the oil as required. The second approach is a miscible CO₂ soaking

procedure that was carried out to extract the remaining oil in the matrix. The two-step soaking methods are intended to simulate the actual H-n-P process in the oil field.

2.1. Experimental materials

2.1.1. Core samples

The cores utilized to simulate the bypassed oil were tight sandstone, collected from the Sarawak basin in Malaysia. They mainly consisted of quartz (56.81%), orthoclase (03%), albite (09%), calcite (08%), and ankerite (04%). The cores were between 4 and 7.5 cm in length, and an average of 4.9 cm in diameter. Table 1 presents the measured dimensions of the cores and fractures used in this research. The cores were divided into groups based on the objective of the study.

2.1.2. Fluids

Synthetic oil (diesel) was used as a light oil to saturate cores. The measured density and viscosity of the diesel were 0.84 gm/cm³ and 5.975 mm²/s, respectively. The API gravity was 42° A commercial carbon dioxide cylinder with a purity level of 99.99% was utilized for gas injection. The minimum miscible pressure (MMP) of the CO₂/oil was 1253 psi based on 20 ft slim tube tests (STT). Hence, the injection processes were operated under 800 psi and 1750 psi, representing immiscible and multi-contact miscibility (MCM), respectively.

2.1.3. Experiment tools

A variety of tools were used in this study to build multiple setups, including oil saturation and CO₂ injection sets. The schematic diagrams of the performed experiments are presented and explained in the next section. Two different core holders, with and without a confining pressure system, were employed in this experiment to house the core sample. High-pressure gauges were cautiously positioned in the setup to record the pressure throughout the CO₂ injection time, soaking period, and production stage. Two and three-way valves were securely equipped. High-pressure regulators were employed to pressurize the system. Two back-pressure regulators (BPR) were used to ensure that the desired core pressure is maintained at the required level. The backpressure was applied by using N₂ as the pressurizing medium. Two saturation vessels, along with a vacuum pump, were employed to clean up the system and saturate the core samples. To provide a confining pressure to the core holder, a manual pump was employed (maintained at 500 psi above the pressure inside). An air path oven was utilized to achieve the expected reservoir temperature. An accumulator with a 500D syringe pump was employed to store the CO₂ and then injected into the core holder. This combined system was also applied to thrust the oil into the core vessel while maintaining a high saturation pressure at the same time. The syringe pump was mainly used for boosting the pressure and ensuring that

the injected fluid pressure reached the predesigned test value. A collector vessel was used to accrue the oil that was produced.

2.2. Experimental setups

This section describes the schematic diagrams of the experimental setup created for core saturation and soaking procedures. The study has three stages: the saturation process, the CO₂ immiscible approach (first soaking step), and the miscible CO₂ H-n-P test (second soaking step). The system shown in Fig. 1 presents the schematic setup for the core saturation experiments operated for the oil saturation process. Details of the experimental setups are reported in Li et al. [39]. The technique used for core saturation consists of two different stages, as shown in Fig. 1. After the cores are dried at 248°F, weighed, while major properties such as porosity and permeability are measured, they are saturated using two different saturation vessels, stages A and B. As soon as the cores were fully saturated and prepared for the EOR test, they were placed in the conventional core holder to perform the first soaking step. The schematic setup is modified to bypass the oil as required (Fig. 2). A similar system has already been developed and reported by several researchers [2,6,12]. After the immiscible soaking process is completed, CO₂ H-n-P attempts are carried out to recover the remaining oil using two different investigation systems. Figs 3 and 4 represent the schematic design assembled to perform H-n-P operations using both the confined and free path systems.

It can be noticed from Fig. 2 that two injection ends (valve-1 and valve-2), as well as a production end (valve-5), are present. During the first-step soaking, immiscible CO₂ injection procedure, valve-2 is locked, and the CO₂ is injected using valve-1. When the CO₂ is injected into the fracture, it becomes in direct contact with the intended sides of the matrix (in contrast to the free path design). Therefore, the CO₂ moves along the constructed space to bypass the oil (as expected). Both BPRs are accurately controlled during the injection practice to ensure that the pressure inside the core holder is continued at the required level. Then, a confining pressure pump is applied to restrain the core inside the rubber sleeve and ensure that the CO₂ will not make any contact with the core sides, except through the designed fractures. After soaking, the gas, together with the oil, is produced by releasing the back pressure through BPR-1. Due to the core being placed vertically inside the conventional core holder, an additional gravity force is achieved to easily produce the oil and guarantee that the extracted fluid will not be infused into the core sample. These soaking procedures are continued until no substantial change is observed or the extracted oil is exhausted.

The immiscible process is carried out in anticipation of simulating the displacement process of the hydraulic fracture technology in an actual horizontal well. Evidently, in a real shale oil reservoir, 5–10% of the original oil in place is recovered using the hydraulic fracturing

Table 1
The dimensions of cores and fractures.

Sample	Core dimensions					Fracture dimensions				
	CL	CD	CV	CSA	CLA	FL	FD	FW	FV	FSA
1	7.4	4.9	139.54	151.62	113.91	4.9	1.3	0.2	1.274	13.72
2	7.4	4.9	139.54	151.62	113.91	4.9	0.5	0.2	0.490	5.88
3	6.2	4.9	116.91	133.15	95.44	4.9	2.6	0.5	6.370	27.93
4	6.2	4.9	116.91	133.15	95.44	4.9	2	3	29.40	34.30
5	5.5	4.9	103.71	122.38	84.66	4.9	3	0.5	7.35	31.85
6	4	4.9	75.42	99.29	61.57	4	0.1	0.3	0.12	2.00
7	4	4.9	75.42	99.29	61.57	4	0.1	0.3	0.12	4.00
8	6.2	4.9	116.91	133.15	95.44	/	/	/	/	/
9	6.2	4.9	116.91	133.15	95.44	Unknown (in-situ fracture)				
10	6.2	4.9	116.91	133.15	95.44	/	/	/	/	/
11	6.2	4.9	116.91	133.15	95.44	/	/	/	/	/
12	4	4.9	75.42	99.29	61.57	4	0.1	0.3	0.12	2.00
13	4	4.9	75.42	99.29	61.57	4	0.1	0.3	0.12	4.00

Note: Core dimensions: CL (core length, cm); CD (core diameter, cm); CV (core volume, cm³); CSA (core surface area, cm²); CLA (core lateral area, cm²). Fracture dimensions: FL (fracture length, cm); FD (fracture depth, cm); FW (fracture width, cm); FV (fracture volume, cm³); FSA (fracture surface area, cm²).

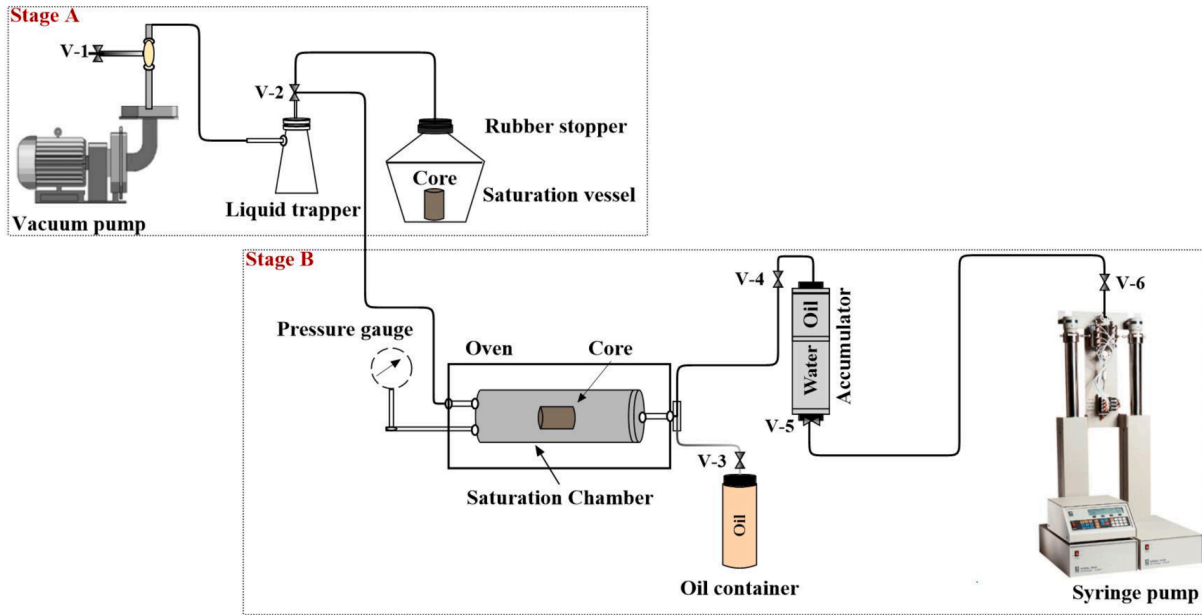


Fig. 1. Schematic of the setup for the core saturation experiments.

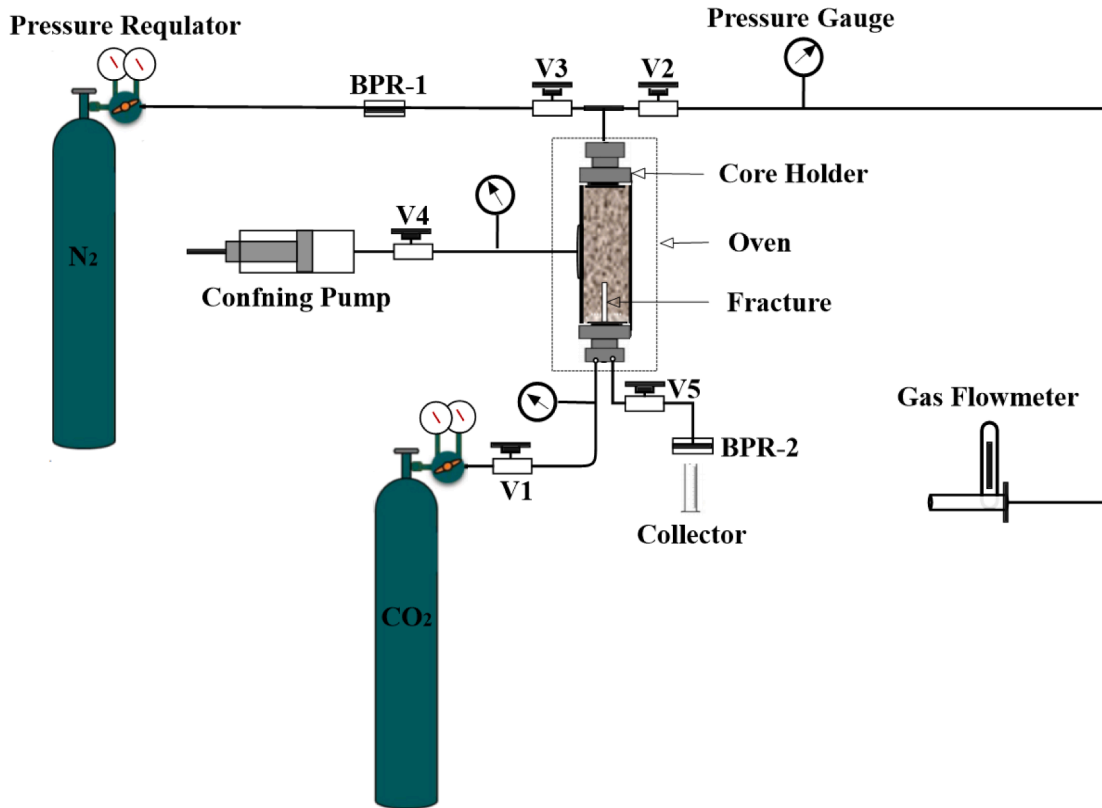


Fig. 2. Experimental schematic diagram of the modified confined system for immiscible soaking test.

knowledge [19]. Thus, nearly 90% of oil is bypassed [73]. This soaking process is done in the hope of simulating the field process by producing a small amount of saturated oil and distributing the remaining oil into the smaller pores of the core [11]. The formed fracture's width, depth, and diameter are adjustable to simulate various fracture areas. After the oil is bypassed using the first immiscible soaking approach, procedures are repeated in a miscible H-n-P mode using the same cores; however,

dissimilar systems are employed. Note that both soaking methods, immiscible and miscible, are performed using a similar reservoir temperature. As a result, the soaking time effect can be evaluated more effectively.

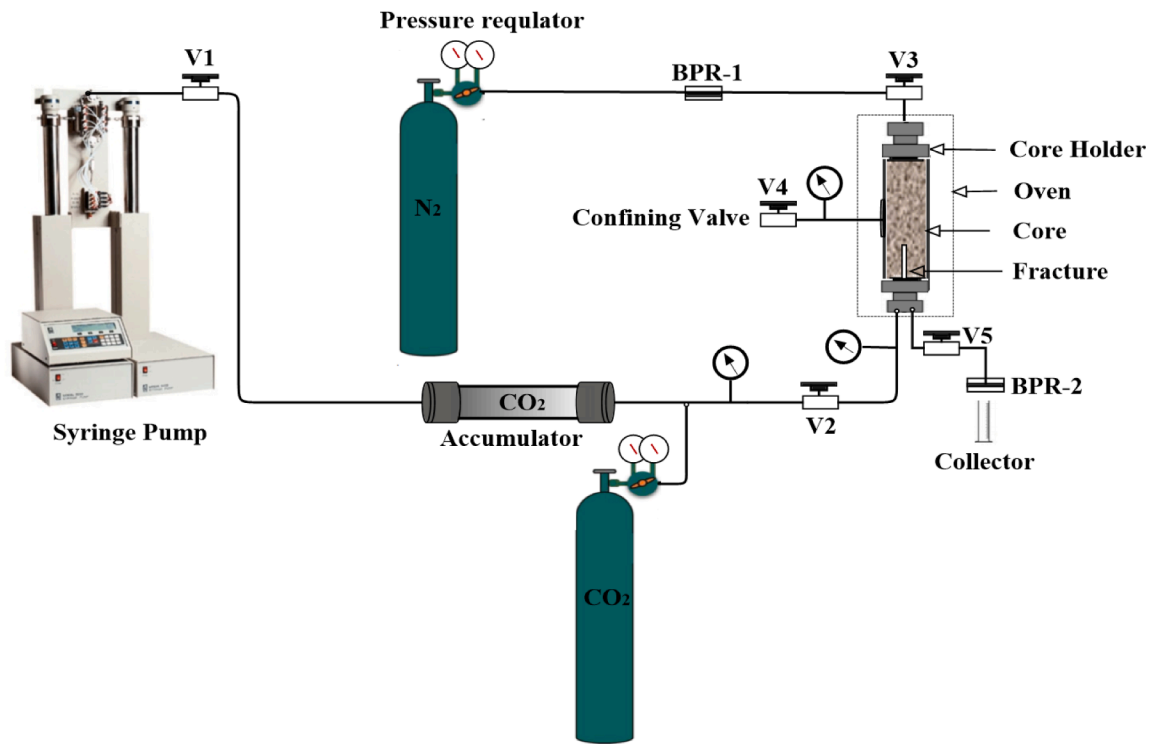


Fig. 3. Experimental schematic diagram of the modified confined system for H-n-P test.

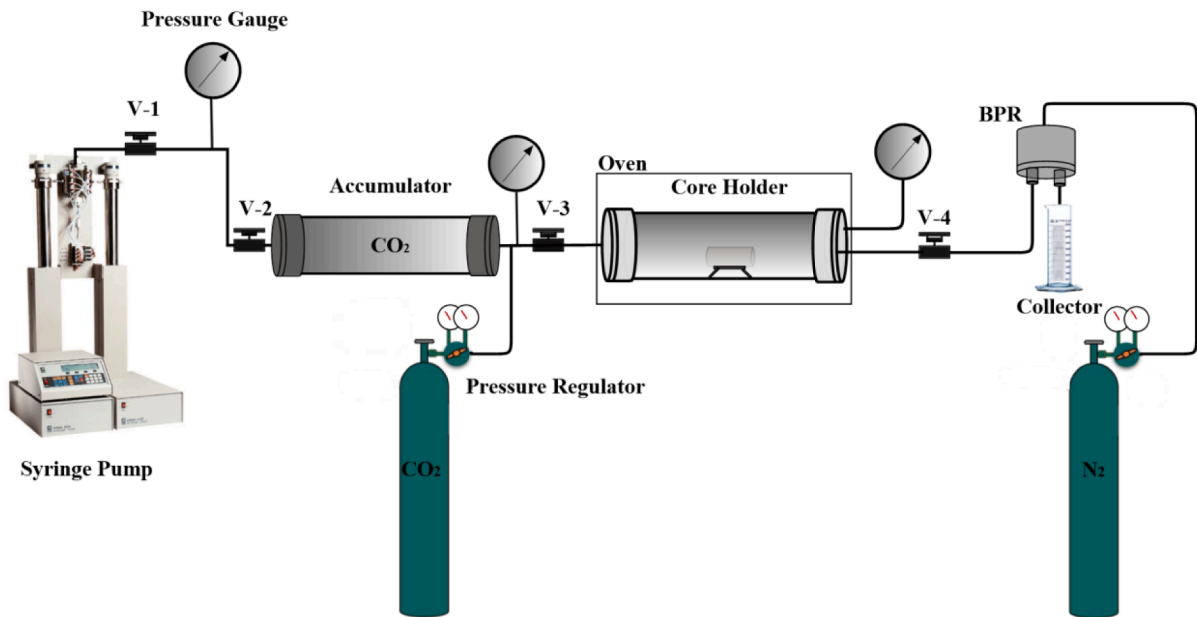


Fig. 4. Schematic of the free path setup for the CO₂ H-n-P experiment.

2.3. Experimental procedures

2.3.1. Core fracture design

The samples used in this study are tight sandstones (Sarawak region, Malaysia) acquired from a geology lab at UTM. Several cylindrical plugs were prepared based on the objectives of the study and each contained a certain orientated artificial (induced) fracture. One category of these fractures was centerline fractures (along the core's diameter), specifically for investigating the FSA, including FW and FD. Another was generated on the outside core surface (along the core's length) to assess

the number of formed fractures. The third design was a hole in the core center to further investigate the FSA. The primary central fracture was created by dividing the plug into sides within a certain depth and width. The subsequent one was a straight line with specific dimensions along the core length. The first and second types of fractures were formed using a special grinder and various diameter discs compatible with the core surface type. Regarding the hole fracture that was created in the center, special drill bits for sandstone with various diameters (0.2 cm, 0.3 cm, and 0.5 cm) were used to make the fracture. Performing the above-stated fractures along with the overburden pressure system

enables simulating fractured horizontal wells at a more realistic reservoir condition. Fig. 5 (a, b, and c) shows the schematic diagram of all the designed fractures. The individual fracture design was adopted from numerous publications [27,29,35,42,46,52,62,71,77].

2.3.2. Core saturation

The typical saturation approach for conventional reservoir samples is ineffective for tight cores. Therefore, two saturation stages were performed to ensure the cores were fully saturated. Before conducting the saturation process, residual fluids inside the cores were removed by placing them in an oven at 248°F. Then the cores were left under a vacuum for two days to clean up the samples using a saturation vessel in stage A and two separate pumps, see Fig. 6. After vacuuming, each core is dry weighted as W_{dry} . The vessel was then filled with oil, after which the pump was resumed to begin the initial oil saturation procedure. The apparatus used for such processes involves a vacuum pump, a liquid trapper, and a saturation vessel. As soon as gas bubbles are absent from the vessel, the vacuum pump is turned off, and the cores are relocated to the high-pressure saturation vessel in stage B. The system in stage B mainly consists of an accumulator, a syringe pump, a pressure gauge, a stainless vessel, and an air bath oven. The syringe pump is used to reinject the oil into the vessel at high pressure through an accumulator. The accumulator has a piston that separates it into two sections: water and oil. In cooperation with the syringe pump, this piston pushes the oil slowly into the vessel that houses the core sample.

After the saturation pressure has reached 2100 psi, the pressure gauge is closely monitored. The pressure is maintained for seven days until no further pressure decrease is observed. To ensure that the pressure inside and outside the core reaches equilibrium and the degree of core saturation does not vary. Furthermore, the pressure is decreased very slowly while the temperature is maintained, as is the case in the oil field. However, a conventional saturation procedure was used to validate the modified saturation system. It is worth mentioning that the core temperature is maintained at a constant level throughout each complete test. When atmospheric pressure is reached, the saturated oil volume is measured. The calculated degree of saturation is then matched with the original porosity to confirm that the plugs are completely saturated. The weight of the core sample is then recorded as W_{sat} . At this point, the core is assumed to be 100% saturated and ready for the gas EOR injection processes.

2.3.3. Immiscible soaking procedure (first-step CO₂ soaking)

The procedures for the first CO₂ soaking are described in this section. The system was tested before the CO₂ injection by injecting N₂ at a pressure higher than the experimental pressure. First, the oil-saturated plug was placed inside the core holder according to the designed

fracture shape (Fig. 2). Then, the backpressure was adjusted to a pre-specified value to maintain a constant core pressure. Two backpressure regulators were included in the system. The CO₂ was then injected directly into the fracture until the pressure reached 800 psi. At that point, valve-1 was closed, and the core was aged for a soaking period. In this setup, only established channels are meant to represent fractures. Due to the high permeability contrast between the core matrix and fracture, CO₂ was mainly distributed through the fracture, enabling oil to be bypassed at various depths. The confining pressure was kept at 500 psi which was higher than the injection pressure to force the CO₂ to enter the fracture. After the soaking period, the backpressure was released through BPR-2. CO₂ was then injected at a constant flow rate of 25 ml/min for oil production using valve-2. By injecting CO₂ at a constant rate, the oil that came out to the surface during the soaking period was produced. Hence, the following miscible H-n-P process can be proficiently elucidated. The produced oil is accumulated, and its volume is measured. The procedures were continued until no additional oil was extracted. After one immiscible cycle is completed, the core sample was weighed (W_i) and the oil recovery was measured using Eq. (1). A series of such soaking procedures were performed using different fracture models and fracture dimensions. Some experiments were performed using fractured free and in-situ fractured core samples to obtain a clearer understanding and a conclusive conclusion.

$$\text{PercentOilRecoveryinImmiscibleSoakingCycle}i = \frac{wsat - wi}{wsat - wdry} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

Note: W_{sat} is the weight of the core sample fully saturated with oil, W_i is the weight of the core sample after one soaking cycle, W_{dry} is the weight of the dry core sample.

2.3.4. Miscible CO₂ H-n-P procedure (second-step CO₂ soaking)

Following the abovementioned procedures, the CO₂ H-n-P experiment was performed utilizing the setups in Figs 3 and 4. The test was conducted after the first immiscible CO₂ soaking step aimed at extracting additional oil recovery and further simulating the FSA, similar to the H-n-P process in the depleted oil well. First, the CO₂ was injected into the accumulator to be stored at 800 psi. Then the pressure was increased to the desired level using the syringe pump. After injecting the CO₂ at 1750 psi into the fracture or the system, the inlet valve was closed, so the system began the second soaking stage. Subsequently, the puff stage was initiated; the system was put back into production mode by depressurizing the core holder to atmospheric pressure. Such pressurizing–soaking–depressurizing steps constitute a complete H-n-P cycle. After one completed cycle, the second one starts immediately, and so on. The same procedures were performed in the subsequent cycles. Each time, the weight of the core plug is documented, and oil recovery is

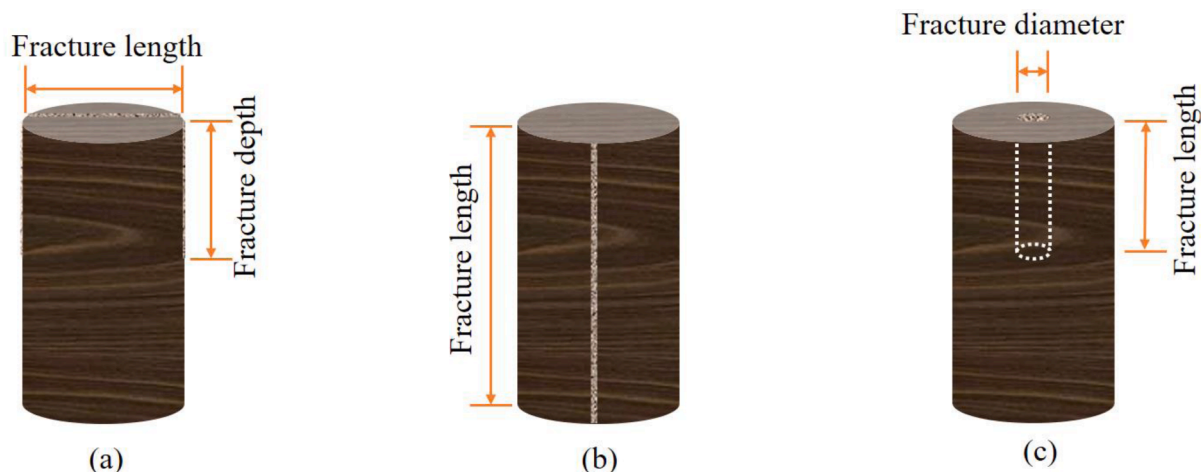


Fig. 5. Schematic of the designed artificial fractures.

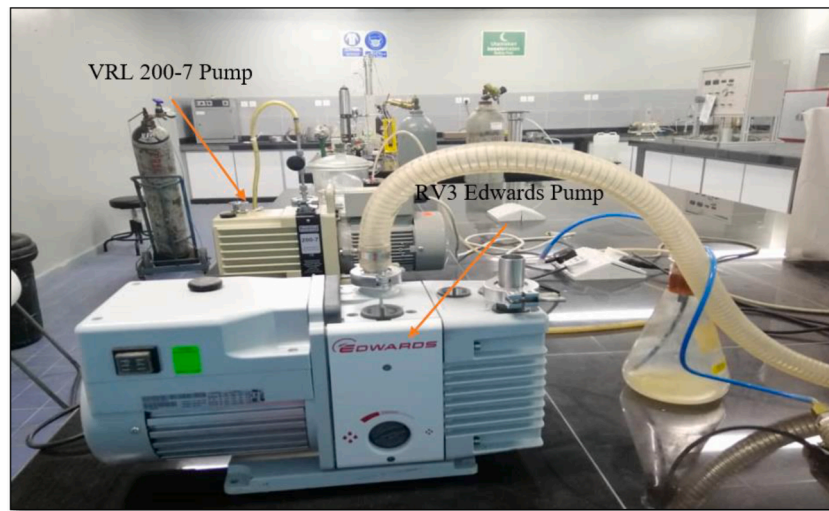


Fig. 6. Photograph of the vacuum pumps used to vacuum and saturate the core samples.

measured using Eq. (2). These CO₂ miscible cycles were repeated until no further obvious amounts of liquid oil was extracted.

$$\text{PercentOilRecoveryinMiscibleSoakingCycle} = \frac{wsat - wi}{wsat - wdry} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effect of the saturation system

When conducting a core flooding test, it is essential to measure the initial oil saturation of the core, so that the amount of oil extracted can be successfully measured. Incorrect saturation instruction can negatively affect the EOR experimental results. Generally, most literature on improving the saturation level mentions increasing the oil soaking times and soaking pressures [14]. However, only a few studies have reported the pressure depletion impact [75]; therefore, two different saturation scenarios were considered. The first case is that the pressure is gradually depleted after the oil-soaking process while the oven is kept on. The pressure is constantly lowered by 5 psi per hour to form a pressure depletion (PD). The core is weighed as soon as the soaking pressure reaches the atmospheric level. In the second scenario, the oven is turned off and the pressure is released in a short time (analogous to the conventional approach). Both processes are repeated using different core porosities. After each test is performed, the oil saturation porosity (ϕ_{sat}) is calculated and compared to the original gas porosity (ϕ_{gas}). The ϕ_{gas} is used as a reference value for porosity to compare it with the ϕ_{sat} results. Overall, ϕ_{gas} is moderately higher than ϕ_{sat} of fluid due to the low viscosity and small molecules. This allows the gas to flow easily into spaces of nano-pore size.

The results of core saturation indicate that, in the conventional scenario, an average of 90.83% of pore spaces are saturated with oil, while the percentage arrived at 97.41% in the low-pressure depletion methodology. The degree of oil saturation is equal to the ratio of saturated oil volume (oil-in-place) divided by the pore volume (PV) of the core and the value of the density of oil. The difference in weight between the weight of the dry core and the weight of the saturated core is the oil-in-place. The degree of oil saturation can be expressed by Eq. (3). Considering the obtained ϕ_{sat} for each group; it was observed that the low-pressure system had a greater influence on small pores media than the conventional structures. Even though the average oil saturation of both processes is above 90%, it is noteworthy that the improved degree of oil saturation is significant in evaluating the remaining oil extraction using soaking methodologies. The results of each applied method are very close, which implies that procedures were executed appropriately.

The research findings revealed that higher pressure depletion time (PDT) triggers a higher level of saturation, especially in low porous media. As a result, rapid saturation pressure decline had a negative impact on saturation degree and made bypassed oil evaluation less efficient.

$$\text{DegreeofSaturation} = \frac{wsat - wi}{\rho_{oil} - \rho_v} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

3.2. Bypassed-oil recovery during immiscible CO₂ soaking

3.2.1. Effect of FSA on bypassed oil recovery using a confined system

Table 2 presents the fracture specifications of various investigated cores. All the experiments were executed under the same operating pressure; however, different fracture forms and surface areas were applied. In general, there is a frequent lack of clarification about the characteristics associated with hydraulic fractures. Thus, this section studies the significance of FW and FD, along with the fracture numbers. A conventional core holder with an overburden pressure system was used to efficiently assess the surface area's potential in oil recovery. Two artificial fracture types exhibited in Fig. 5, (a) and (b), were investigated. Both were constructed with a specially designed width and depth to emulate various FSAs. As a result of the confining pressure, the CO₂ was made to flow involuntarily along those dominant channels; therefore, only a limited area was affected by the injected CO₂. Only the oil wedged near the fracture was recovered efficiently. This is exactly the scenario of H-n-P performance in the oil field ([6]; Fiallos [25]). Based on the analysis of weight difference (see Table 3), the findings of the first pattern illustrate that the core with a greater fracture width has a lower recovery under the same operating conditions. The most critical factor in

Table 2
Fracture specifications and number of various investigated cores.

Sample	Status	Width, cm	Length, cm	Depth, cm	No of frac	Surface area per frac, cm ²
1	Fractured	0.2	4.9	1.3	1	13.72
2	Fractured	0.2	4.9	0.5	1	5.88
3	Fractured	0.5	4.9	2.6	1	27.93
4	Fractured	3	4.9	2	1	34.30
5	Fractured	0.5	4.9	3	1	31.85
6	Fractured	0.3	4	0.1	2	2.00
7	Fractured	0.3	4	0.1	4	2.00
8	Un-Fractured	/	/	/	/	/

Table 3
wt and total oil recovery after five cycles using various FSA.

Core weight, g	Cycle	Sample 3	Sample 4	Sample 5	Sample 6	Sample 7	Sample 8
Wi (initial), g	0	299.07	301.32	229.77	185.22	194.32	295.166
Wi, g	1	298.44	300.88	227.22	183.31	192.23	294.95
Wi, g	2	298.16	300.63	226.1	182.09	190.96	294.83
Wi, g	3	297.80	300.40	225.44	181.25	190.07	294.79
Wi, g	4	297.55	300.28	224.99	180.84	189.61	294.75
Wi, g	5	297.42	300.12	224.69	180.64	189.27	294.75
Total recovery,%		21.40	13.27	28.96	15.21	16.32	11.63

Note Wi: The weight of core sample after one cycle.

improving oil recovery is fracture depth because oil recovery increases dramatically in deeper fractures. In general, the results indicate that as the surface area of the fracture increases in-depth, the ratio of oil produced to oil in place also increases. However, the inverse scenario occurs when the fracture’s surface area increases in width (Fig. 7). While the research demonstrates that a larger FSA results in increased oil recovery from deeper fractures, the significance of the surface area is unclear and unrelated to any particular trend. This may be attributed to the fracture model. Therefore, a different fracture shape is investigated in Section 3.4.3. The recovery from fractures with varying surface areas is depicted in Fig. 7. According to the observations, the intermediate FSA value of 31.85 cm² (Sample 5 in Table 1) has the highest recovery rate of 28%, while the highest FSA value of 34.30 cm² (Sample 4 in Table 1) has the lowest recovery rate of 13%. The above conclusion is consistent with that of Song et al. [64].

The results also demonstrate that the core with no fracture, FSA = 0 (sample 8 in Tables 1 and 2), had the lowest oil recovery (Fig. 7). Based on the results, it was established that to attain the desired economic oil volume, a deeper fracture requires less cycles. According to the results in Table 3, the intermediate FSA value of 31.85 cm² gives the highest recovery rate of 28%, whereas the highest FSA of 34.30 cm² gives nearly the lowest recovery rate of 13%. The recovery trend was reversed, with sample 2 generating less oil than sample 1, even though it had a smaller surface area (Fig. 8). Again, this is related to FD, not the total FSA. With a higher FD, a higher rate of oil recovery is achieved. This also confirms that the role of the FSA is unrelated to any trend. However, the results discussed herein can be used to improve the design of hydraulic fracturing operations, fluids, and additive packages used in tight oil reservoirs, and is expected to help decrease associated clean-up times and costs. In conclusion, deeper FSA yielded more oil. But, cracks having a

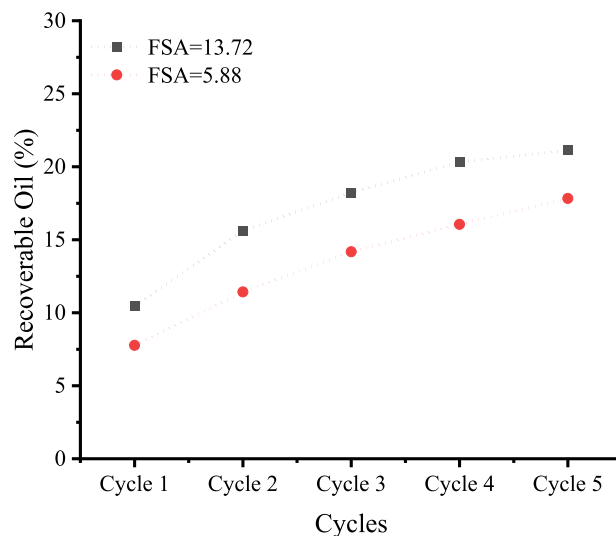


Fig. 8. Oil recovery from fractures that are the same in length and width but vary in depth.

narrow width and a great depth would maximize oil recovery.

An additional experiment was performed to validate the EOR efficiency using a more realistic reservoir condition. Specifically, a sandstone core with an in-situ fracture (Sample 9 in Table 1) was used in this test to get more accurate results. However, the FSA is unknown, indicating that FW and FD are undefined. The results shown in Fig. 9 demonstrate that both un-fractured and in-situ fractured cores had

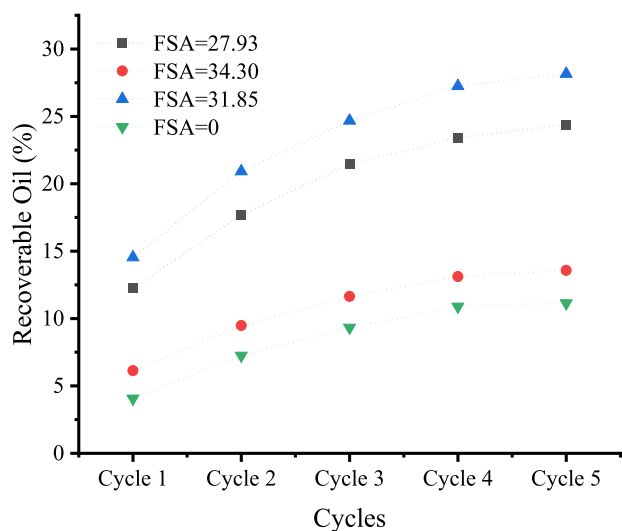


Fig. 7. The CO₂ soaking oil recovery per cycle under fracture and free fractured conditions.

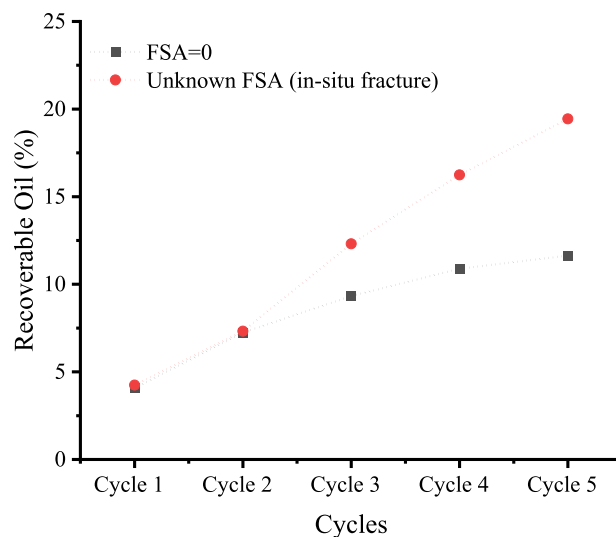


Fig. 9. The CO₂ soaking oil recovery from in-situ fractured core and other free fractured samples.

almost the same oil recovery during the first two cycles. Then sample 9's recovery increased significantly. After five cycles, Sample 9 delivered a 19% improvement in oil recovery, whereas Sample 8 produced only 11%. Therefore, the finding suggests that in situ FSA has little impact on oil recovery during the early soaking cycles. This may account for the CO₂ soaking process's poor performance in the low permeability oil field, despite promising laboratory results. Thus, it can be concluded that a confined core holder is a sufficient system for investigating the core FSAs. The discovery implies that in-situ FSA has little effect on oil recovery during the initial soaking cycles. The results also demonstrate the importance of utilizing EOR technology, particularly after well-completion operations are finished. Additionally, it emphasizes the critical use of an in-situ fracture model, especially in tight cores. Considering the particular pattern of fractures, an increase in fracture total (the number of fractures) results in a slight increase in oil recovery. For example, when the number of fractures per core is doubled from two to four, the total oil recovery increases by 0.62, as shown in Fig. 10. However, oil recovery increased by 1.65% during the first cycle, indicating that increasing the number of fractures significantly impacted the initial soaking cycles. This is consistent with the results recently reported by Mahzari et al. [46]. Although the number of fractures had a slightly significant effect on bypassed oil recovery using the confined system, the intensity of the fractures was thoroughly investigated.

3.2.2. Effect of investigation system on bypassed oil recovery

Similar investigative processes were performed using confined and unconfined core holders. Fig. 11 shows the recovery attained from two fracture-free cores, 10 and 11, using confined and unconfined systems, respectively. Contrary to confined system results, Sample 11 achieved the highest oil recovery using the unconfined core holder. The result is inconsistent with the conclusion earlier. The difference in oil recovery between the two modes reached 15%. This may be attributed to the investigative core holder, which plays a significant role in the CO₂ soaking recovery. Taking into account the individual pattern of fracture, less improvement in oil recovery occurs with an increase in fracture total. For instance, the oil recovery remains nearly constant when the fractures increase from 2 (Sample 12) to 4 (Sample 13) per core, as illustrated in Fig. 12. This indicates that artificial fractures have no effect since the system allows the gas to freely circulate all over the core by using the entire surface area of the plug, extracting oil from all sides. However, the most effective means to strip oil from tight cores with a permeability of less than 0.001 md is to use an unconfined system [14]. Once more, we acknowledge that using the free path core holder is not

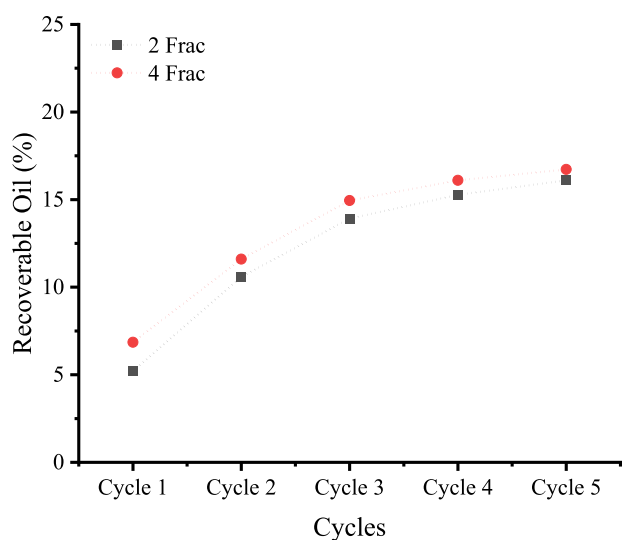


Fig. 10. Oil recovered was obtained from two fractures and four fractures per core using a confined system.

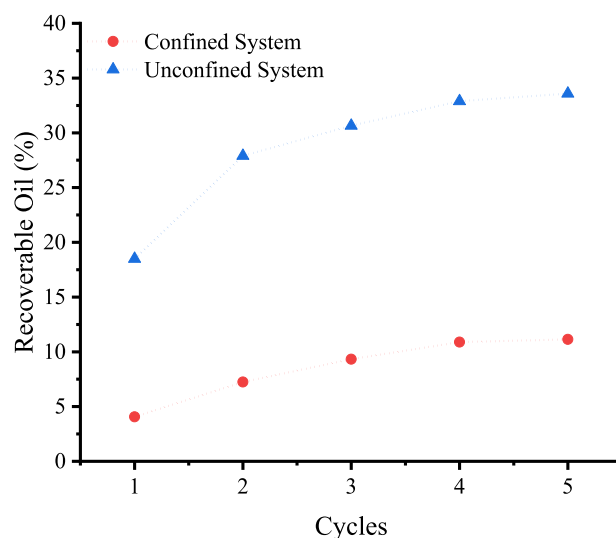


Fig. 11. The CO₂ soaking oil recovery per cycle for un-fractured core using confined and an unconfined pressure system.

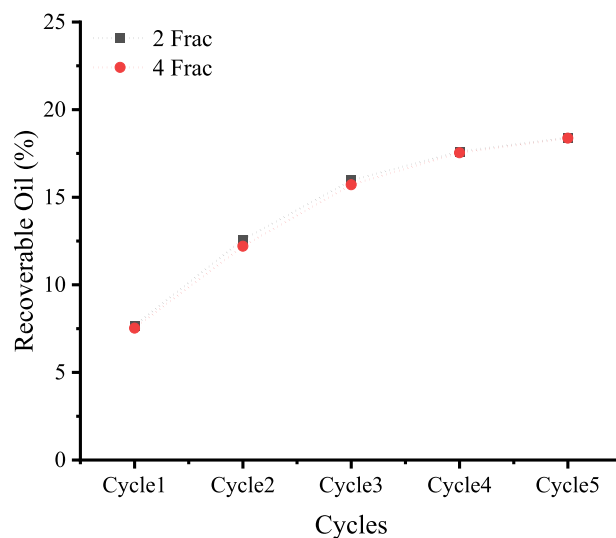


Fig. 12. Oil recovered was obtained from two fractures and four fractures per core using an unconfined system.

an accurate system to evaluate simulated cores. The results show that surface areas and fracture intensity are not as significant as they are in the confined system. Even though the average contact area between gas and oil has been enlarged, there is no evidential relationship between FSA and oil recovery. In general, the results indicate a major difference in the performance of CO₂ when different core holders are employed. The results obtained from an unconfined system may shed light on the substandard results of some lab tests despite the outstanding demonstration of competence of the simulation scale.

3.4. Bypassed-oil recovery during CO₂ H-n-P, soaking step 2

3.4.1. Effect of miscible CO₂ soaking process on FSA using a confined system

Following the immiscible protocols, the CO₂ H-n-P experiment was performed instantly to extract any remaining oil and further simulate the FSA. After completing the first-step soaking process for core Samples 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, they were placed in the core holder shown in Fig. 3. Sensitivity experiments were conducted at a constant injection pressure

of 1750 psi. According to the findings in Fig. 13, CO₂ H-n-P has a significant effect on bypassed oil recovery, particularly in deep fractures. The highest oil recovery factors were observed in Samples 3 and 5. In Sample 5, approximately 54% of bypassed oil was effectively extracted. Although all cores demonstrated an increase in oil recovery, the increase was extremely modest in certain samples, such as Sample 4. Increased oil extraction occurs primarily as a result of CO₂'s miscibility, which diffuses more easily into the deep fracture, reducing the viscosity and swelling of the oil. According to Adel et al. [4] and Tovar et al. [67], the dominant microscopic mechanisms are vaporization and oil expansion. Sun et al. [65] reported that incremental oil is sensitive to formation and fracture porosity, formation and fracture permeability, injection rate, cycling period, time of first injection, and the number of cycles. However, it is not sensitive to capillary pressure, diffusion coefficient, and length of soaking period. The results also indicate that when Fw is constant, the depth is the key factor. Although the volume of oil extracted using the two-step soaking methodology is less than previously reported results, this research confirms field pilot observations. This may demonstrate the relevance and importance of depleting fully saturated cores before initiating any H-n-P investigation. It's worth noting that both curves in Fig. 13 exhibit the same increasing trend, showing the higher level of certainty in determining FSA during immiscible and miscible processes.

3.4.2. Effect of number of fractures on h-n-p recovery using a confined system

The effect of the number of fractures on remaining oil recovery was also further investigated using Samples 6 and 7, with two and four fractures, respectively. To better understand the effect of fracture intensity, the recovery factor was calculated using data from eight cycles. All tests were conducted immediately after the first immiscible soaking process. Both samples demonstrated an increase in the recovery factor. As shown in Fig. 14, oil recovery from both samples increased significantly before declining. The RF of Sample 6 increased continuously until cycle 8. In contrast, owing to the close spacing of the fractures in Sample 7, oil recovery increased noticeably until cycle 5 and then remained constant, indicating that the number of cycles became less efficient. The conclusion was consistent with the results observed by Yu and Sheng [72], and Sie and Nguyen [59]. In terms of FSA, it has been demonstrated that samples with a larger surface area (more fractures) recover more initial recovery. FW and FD, on the other hand, are constant. This conclusion is consistent with that of Song et al. [62]. According to experimental findings, the number of H-n-P cycles is highly dependent

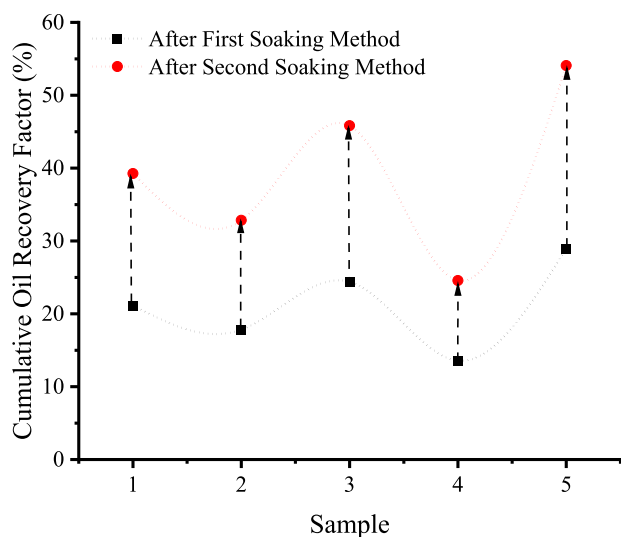


Fig. 13. Cumulative recovery factors from five cores with various FSAs during the miscible CO₂ H-n-P injection immediately following the immiscible process.

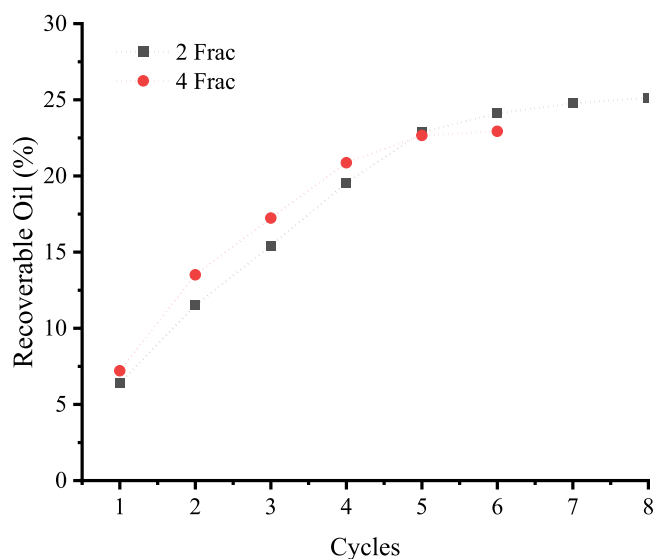


Fig. 14. The effect of the H-n-P cycle on oil recovery of two fractures and four fractures cores using a confined system.

on the number of formed fractures. As the number of fractures increases, the relative FSA increases, the relative matrix size decreases, and the apparent surface-to-volume ratio (AS/V) increases.

The results confirm that oil recovery declines more rapidly in subsequent cycles than in initial cycles. Especially in the core with an increased fracture density. This is in line with the outcomes reported by Zhu et al. [77]. As shown in Fig. 14, the black and red lines intersect at a specific cycle, at which point the oil recovery rate begins to decline. Based on the dissection of both tested cores into sides and pieces, the CO₂ was found to spread more erratically and slowly in Sample 6, while in Sample 7, it spread faster towards the center of the core. This may be attributed to the number of applied fractures. CO₂ diffused slightly more slowly towards the center in a core with two fractures than in a core with four fractures, indicating that additional cycles are required to reach the economic rate. This may help to explain the continual increase in the RF in Sample 6 compared to Sample 7. Further research needs to be conducted using computer axial tomography (CAT) scanning and electrical resistivity (NMR) measurement to justify such observations better.

3.4.3. Effect of FSA on bypassed oil recovery using hole fracture

To precisely investigate the importance of FSA, three cores were drilled in the center at a depth of 3 cm and diameters of 0.2 cm, 0.3 cm, and 0.5 cm. The fractures had a surface area of 1.91 cm², 2.89 cm², and 4.90 cm², respectively. Such a matrix/core-fracture model has already been used to simulate shale oil by other investigators [35]. This study intended to systematically evaluate FSA's effect on CO₂ soaking potential using different fracture geometry or models (where gas can contact all sides of the fracture). The research can help in determining whether there are some zones with the optimum FSA for favorable oil recovery. After the CO₂ immiscible soaking process, the core was weighted and vertically placed in the confined core holder (Fig. 3). Miscible CO₂ was then injected into the fracture through valve-2, making contact with all core/matrix surfaces. As a result, the CO₂ traveled mostly along the designed hole fracture. The immiscible results demonstrate that fractures significantly impact oil recovery efficiency while increasing FSA in the matrix-fracture system improves the rate of oil recovery. Additionally, increasing FSA from 1.91 to 2.89 cm² only results in a 6.4% increase in RF, whereas increasing FSA from 2.89 to 4.90 cm² results in an 8.7% upsurge in recovery factor. The maximum recovery was achieved at the highest FSA condition with a value of 28.4% OOIP. A similar growth trend occurred during the miscible H-n-P process (Table 4). An increase of 23.2% OOIP of recovery factor was observed when the

Table 4

Summary of immiscible CO₂ process and CO₂ H-P results using different hole FSAs.

Test no.	FSA (cm ²)	RF, immiscible CO ₂ soaking (%)	RF, CO ₂ H-n-P (%)	RF, total (%)
1	1.91	13.3	36.5	49.8
2	2.89	19.7	33.2	52.9
3	4.90	28.4	30.7	59.1

reservoir condition was changed from immiscible to miscible using 1.91 cm² FSA. An increase in FSA, in general, adds a recovery factor. This is due to an increase in the average contact area between CO₂ and matrix oil, resulting in improved CO₂-oil interaction. Furthermore, the difference in total oil recovery achieved at various FSA conditions increased as the surface area of fracture increased. This implies that the higher the FSA, the more sensitive the oil RF is to it. This finding is consistent with the results of Min et al. [49].

While the recovery factor increased during the CO₂ immiscible soaking process, it decreased during the miscible CO₂ H-n-P activity, as illustrated in Fig. 15. In other words, as the FSA increases, the distance between the black and red lines narrows until they are nearly identical. This implies that FSA has a significant beneficial effect on oil recovery and the miscible CO₂ soaking process will eventually become less significant. This is because the immiscible process produced a large amount of oil, particularly at higher FSA values. This may demonstrate the effectiveness of the first-step soaking method before the H-n-P process. As shown in Fig. 15, increasing the surface area of the fracture significantly improves total oil recovery. These experiments demonstrate the vital nature of the surface area and the critical importance of comprehending the stimulated reservoir. This highlights the direct connection between the fracture geometry and the surface area of the stimulated reservoir.

4. Conclusions

1 Several significant new findings can be summarized as follows:

- The performance of soaking process in fractured reservoirs is contingent upon the fracture geometry and thus on the FSA.
- The most critical factor in optimizing oil recovery is fracture depth. While the research indicates that a larger FSA, results in increased oil recovery from a deeper fracture, the significance of the surface area is largely determined by the fracture design and investigation system.
- Considering the number of fractures formed, an increase in fracture total results in a noticeable increase in oil recovery. However, such a conclusion is system-dependent.
- The effectiveness of FSA depends on fracture geometry and pattern. This further highlighted the critical nature of fracture geometry concerning the surface area.
- Due to the absence of field production data, this work concentrates on theoretical research that deviates from actual production. In the future, we plan to use numerical simulations in more in-depth research to demonstrate the importance of using realistic reservoir conditions and get a wider range of results that can help guide field production.

5. Recommendations

- Internal mapping of the cores pre/post soaking would add value to our contribution. Therefore, further research utilizing CT or NMR measurements can provide valuable insights and better justify the research observations.

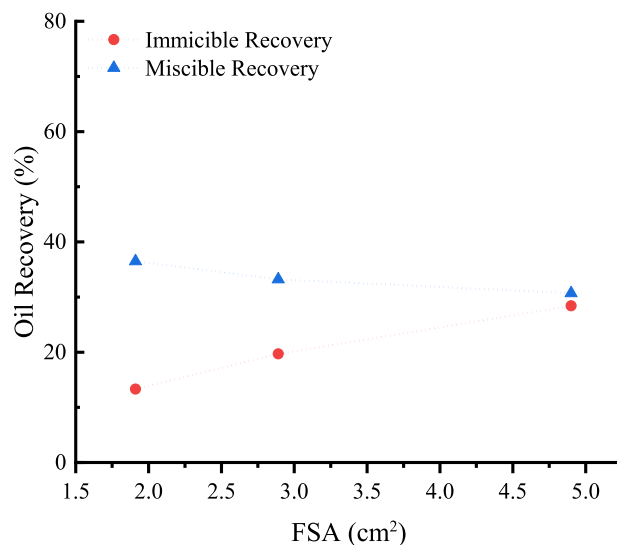


Fig. 15. Oil recovery vs. FSA during both miscible and immiscible CO₂ soaking process.

Declaration of Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in the submitted paper.

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