ARCH STABILITY AND FAILURE BEHAVIOR IN UNCONSOLIDATED NATURAL SANDS

by

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty and the Board of Trustees of the Colorado School of Mines in partial fulfill ment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Petroleum Engineering.

Signed : *Â'*

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Golden, Colorado Date: Max $\mathsf{Z}^{\mathsf{ad}}, 19 \leq 0$

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To

Abiose

Abimbola and Tolulope

ABSTRACT

The flow of sand into the wellbore of a producing oil well may cause the failure of surface and downhole equipment through abrasive wear. This may lead to the total loss of the well or serious environmental problems requiring a huge expense in addition to loss of production. The growing world need for petroleum and the increasing cost of developing new fields make the search for effective and permanent sand-control methods quite opportune. Hall, et al. (1970) drew attention to the arching phenomenon of unconsolidated sand and its relevance to sand control. This was the subject of the investigations by Tippie(1973), **Cleary (1978), Melvan (1978),and Wood (1979). The scope of these studies has been further extended.**

This thesis reports a study of the arching behavior of unconsolidated natural sands under loading stresses simulating a producing oil formation. Three natural sand samples with different physical and mechanical properties, but almost identical sand grain distributions, were used. The stability and failure behavior of arch structures in these sands was investigated at overburden stresses of 500, 750, 1000, 1500, and 1800/2250 psi.

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X-ray diffraction analysis showed that about 1% by weight of each sand was composed of traces of various clay minerals including illites, montmorillonite, and kaolite. A fourth sand sample used was a mixture of equal parts of 20-40 and 80-100 mesh Gopher State frac sand.

In all cases, sandfree production was achieved as a result of stable sand arches. The arches were more stable in the natural sands than in the Gopher State sand. The arch structures were weaker at low overburden stresses (500, 750 psi) and stronger at high stresses (1500 and 2250 psi) than the sand. The following failure criterion was $\sigma_1 - P_{\text{in}} - 6.601$ **a**lso established: $\frac{a_1}{847.2Q\mu}$ $k_{cor}R \ge 0.002807(-\frac{111}{\sigma_1})$

Suggestions for practical applications are based on the findings of this study. These are expected to assist operators in dealing with sand problems.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Sand production is a major problem in oil wells pro**ducing from unconsolidated or loosely consolidated formations all over the world. This is common in younger Tertiary sediments as found in the Gulf Coast, the Los Angeles Basin of California, the North Sea, Libya, Venezuela, Trinidad, Indonesia, and Nigeria. Sand production in oil wells has serious and adverse effects on both reservoir performance and the operating cost of wells. The flow of sand into the wellbore reduces productivity and fills up the borehole with sand. It may also cause the failure of surface and downhole equipment through abrasive wear. These may lead to the total loss of the well and serious environmental problems. At best, expensive workover operations are required.**

Sand problems were first recognized in the field of groundwater hydrology. Experience in this area has been of tremendous value to the petroleum industry. However, the growing world need for petroleum and the increasing cost of developing new fields make the search for more effective and permanent sand control methods quite opportune at this time. Sand control refers to the general

 $\mathbf{1}$

practice and technology of excluding sand influx into the wellbore, and thereby eliminating the inconveniences of production losses and costly damages to producing wells. Widespread control methods are basically employed by mechanical or chemical means. These include;

- **(i) Bridging flow of sand into the wellbore by either wire screens or gravels**
- **(ii) Consolidating (or glueing) sand grains in place by plastics or resins**
- **(iii) A combination of (i) and (ii).**

Field experience shows that sand production in some formations is rate sensitive. In this case, successful control can be achieved by rate and rate-variation control. Sand-free production can be achieved if the rate is kept below a critical value. Sudden rate increases can cause sand flow for a short while. However, control by holding down production rate is quite inadequate for many practical cases as the critical rate may be uneconomical. Other formations are stress sensitive as regards sand production. Kohlhaas (1976) noted that sand failure depends partly on well history: rate effects dominate short-term behavior while stress effects dominate long-term behavior. In effect, most unconsolidated formations are stress sensitive in the long run. He suggested that stress alteration was the

 $\overline{2}$

mechanism which would control sand on a long-term basis. Suman (1975) suggested installing inflatable packers in the borehole to alter the stress field. This packer can be inflated with a cement slurry which, when hardened, maintains the stress field around the wellbore at a new level.

Analyses are made by calculating stresses and comparing them with the failure conditions of the sand. Elastic rock behavior is usually assumed. However, while hard rocks or consolidated sand may behave as elastic media, this assumption can hardly be justified for loose or unconsolidated sand, especially under a high confining pressure as experienced in a producing reservoir. Other theoretical developments involving stresses around a well**bore have been approached with the assumption of a partial yield. The region close to the borehole is assumed to be in a plastic state. This is surrounded by a region stressed below the limit of plasticity.**

Actual behavior of unconsolidated producing sand formation is influenced by the ability of the sand to form an arch around a perforation. The behavior of such arches was studied by Tippie (1973), Melvan (1978), Cleary (1978), and Wood (1979) at the Colorado School of Mines. Tippie conducted experiments with 20/40 US mesh Gopher State frac

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sand, simulating reservoir conditions at low overburden stresses. Melvan and Cleary continued this work at high stresses, while Wood extended it to include various mix**tures of 20/40 and 80/100 US mesh sands. The scope of these studies has been further extended by using natural sands. This thesis reports therefore, a study of the behavior of unconsolidated natural sands under loading stresses simulating a producing formation, in a triaxial pressure cell. Three natural sand samples were used. Tests were also conducted with equal mixtures of 20/40 and 80/100 US mesh Gopher State frac sand to answer questions raised from the previous works of Melvan, Cleary, and Wood. Stability and failure conditions of sand arch structure were studied. Criteria for predicting sand production are presented, and suggestions are made for field practice that can minimize sand problems in producing wells.**

Chapter 2

DEFINITIONS AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The following theoretical background is reviewed from textbooks and literature on rock and soil mechanics: 2.1 Applied Stress: The applied stress acting on a forma**tion at any depth is the weight of the overburden load that the formation supports at that depth. This weight is jointly supported by both the formation grains and the reservoir fluids**

$$
P_{\rm ob} = \sigma + P_{\rm p} \qquad 2.1
$$

where P_{ob} = Overburden pressure

a = Intergranular stress Pp = Pore pressure.

The overburden pressure is also equal to the total weight of the overlying rocks and fluids. Thus:

$$
P_{\text{ob}} = [(1-\phi)\rho_{\sigma}g + \phi\rho_{f}g]D \qquad 2.2
$$

where ρ_g = average grain density

- **p£ = average fluid density**
	- **D = Depth of formation**
	- **g = acceleration due to gravity**
	- **(j) = porosity.**

Average overburden pressure gradient is commonly assumed to be 1 psi/ft. The value can be less in young

sediments. In the Gulf Coast area an average gradient of 0.85 psi/ft has been established (Eaton, 1968],

2.2 Formation Elastic Constants

2.2.1 Modulus of Elasticity (Young's Modulus), E , is defined similarly for rocks as for metals. It is the ratio of longitudinal stress to longitudinal strain in an elastic deformation. It can be determined in the laboratory by the triaxial testing machine or by acoustic velocity measurements. Young's modulus of rock is discussed in **detail in section 3.3.1.**

2.2.2 Bulk Modulus, K. Formation bulk modulus is the **ratio of effective hydrostatic pressure acting on the for**mation to the resulting volumetric strain $\frac{\Delta V}{V}$ on the formation. It is also the inverse of total compressibility, $\frac{1}{C_{1}}$. **Volumetric strain is the sum of strains in the three principal directions :**

$$
\frac{\Delta V}{V} = e_1 + e_2 + e_3 \tag{2.3}
$$

2.2.3 Modulus of Rigidity (Shear Modulus), G , is defined as the ratio of shear stress to shear strain.

$$
G = \tau/\gamma
$$
\nwhere τ = shear stress

\n γ = shear strain.

2.2.4 Poisson's Ratio, ν , of a formation is the ratio of **the lateral extension to longitudinal contraction under a longitudinal compressive stress. It ranges in value between 0 and 0.5 for rocks. For example, typical values of Poisson's ratio for shale are between 0.01 and 0.15; for consolidated sand, sandstone, and limestone, between 0.15 and 0.27; and for unconsolidated sand, between 0.28 and 0.45.**

The different elastic constants are related as ex**pressed below:**

Poisson's ratio for a rock material can be obtained in the laboratory, either directly from triaxial tests or from acoustic velocity measurements. From Hooke's law, the stress-strain relationship in a triaxial cell is

$$
e_{ij} = \frac{1 + \nu}{E} \tau_{ij} - \frac{\nu}{E} \delta_{ij} e_{kk}
$$
 2.6

where v Poisson's ratio 'ij Kronecker delta $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \end{pmatrix}$ = 0 if and $e_{kk} = e_{11} + e_{22} + e_{33}$ 1**] stress tenor strain tensor** $\begin{pmatrix} i & = & j \\ i & \neq & j \end{pmatrix}$

In the triaxial test,

$$
\tau_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{x} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{y} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_{z} \end{bmatrix}
$$
 2.7

and the above equation when expanded becomes :

$$
e_{x} = \frac{1}{E} \left[\sigma_{x} - \nu (\sigma_{y} + \sigma_{z}) \right]
$$

\n
$$
e_{y} = \frac{1}{E} \left[\sigma_{y} - \nu (\sigma_{x} + \sigma_{z}) \right]
$$

\n
$$
e_{z} = \frac{1}{E} \left[\sigma_{z} - \nu (\sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y}) \right]
$$

\n2.8

Both compressional and longitudinal acoustic-wave velocities are related to the formation elastic constants by

$$
V_p = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda + 2G}{\rho}}
$$

$$
V_{\rm S} = \sqrt{\frac{G}{\rho}}
$$

where
$$
V_p
$$
 = Velocity of compression wave
\n V_s = Velocity of longitudinal shear wave
\n ρ = formation density.

Combining these equations:

$$
\left(\frac{V_s}{V_p}\right)^2 = \frac{(\Delta t_p)^2}{(\Delta t_s)^2} = \frac{G}{\lambda + 2G}
$$

where Δt_p , Δt_s , are the travel times between two points for the compressional and longitudinal waves, respectively. **Since**

$$
v = \frac{\lambda}{2(\lambda + 2G)} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{(\frac{G}{\lambda + 2G})}{1 - (\frac{G}{\lambda + 2G})}
$$

 \overline{a}

$$
\nu = \frac{\frac{1}{2} - (\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_s})^2}{1 - (\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_s})^2}
$$

 $^{\Delta}$ ^{τ} $^{\text{p}}$ At_r, At_r, and the time ratio $\frac{1}{\lambda+1}$ can be obtained from $P = \frac{1}{s}$

laboratory measurements under simulated reservoir conditions. Acoustic measurements give dynamic moduli which are generally higher than static moduli. A correlation between dynamic and static bulk modulus was suggested by Towle (1976).

2.3 Rock Compaction: Petroleum accumulation in a reservoir always has a fluid pressure in the pore space. When this

pressure is reduced by the withdrawal of fluid from the reservoir, a slight reservoir compaction may follow. Maxi mum compaction is related to change in porosity:

$$
\Delta H = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \phi_1 - \phi_2 \\ \hline 1 - \phi_2 \end{array}\right] H
$$
 2.14

where
$$
H = \text{thickness of zone}
$$

\n $\Delta H = \text{vertical compaction}$

\$1 **and (f**)2 **are initial and final porosities, respectively.**

2.4 Mohr's Circle: A convenient graphical method for representing stresses within an element of material is a plot of shear stress on a plane as a function of normal stress. A two-dimensional construction of a Mohr's circle for a triaxial test is shown in Figure 1. Compressive stresses are assumed positive and tensile stresses are assumed negative. In Figure 1, OB and OA represent the magnitude of the major and minor principal stresses, σ_1 **and** 02 **respectively. The circle is drawn on AB as diameter The diameter also shows the magnitude of maximum stress inequality in the material. Stress at any point contained in a plane making angle 9 to the direction of the major principal stress can be obtained from the Mohr's circle:**

(i)
$$
\sigma = \text{OF} = \left(\frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_3}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2}\right) \cos 2\theta
$$
 2.15

$$
(ii)\tau = FD = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) \sin 2\theta
$$

2.5 Mohr Failure Envelope. When enough data are available several Mohr's Circles may be constructed for different **stress conditions. At failure of a rock material a Mohr failure envelope can be drawn to these Circles as shown in Figure 2. This envelope is symmetrical about the x-axis and characterizes the material.**

When the normal and shear stresses give a circle that plots within the envelope, no failure can be expected. However, if the circle extends outside the envelope, failure occurs. Mohr failure envelope for a perfectly elastic cohesionless material is represented by two straight lines that intersect at the origin. The envelope follows a curved path in the case of a granular sedimentary formation .

2.6 Fundamental Stress Equations : Biot (1941) described soil consolidation as a process of adaptation of formation to load variation. Load variation can be experienced in the life of an oil reservoir either as a result of varying borehole pressure in drilling and completion operations or due to fluid withdrawal from the reservoir. The stresses

acting at any point are obtained by considering a diminishing microscopic boundary condition in a macroscopic framework of the formation. These can be represented by a second rank tensor. There is generally a symmetry of stresses at any point in the formation.

2.6.1 Equations of Equilibrium: the stress field in a given system at any point satisfies the equation of equilibrium :

$$
\tau_{ij,j} = -F_i
$$
 (2.16)

Where expanded, this becomes:

- (i) $\frac{\partial \tau_{XX}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{YX}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{ZX}}{\partial z} = -F_x$
- (ii) $\frac{\partial \tau_{xy}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{yy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zy}}{\partial z} = -F_y$ 2.17
- (iii) $\frac{\partial \tau_{XZ}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{YZ}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{ZZ}}{\partial z} = -F_z$

 $F^{\mathbf{r}}$, $F^{\mathbf{r}}$ and $F^{\mathbf{r}}$ are the component of the body force.

2.6.2 Equations of Compatibility: Continuity of displacement is maintained throughout the material under a stress system. The following equations are therefore satisfied:

$$
e_{ij,kl} + e_{k1,ij} - e_{ik,j1} - e_{i1,jk} = 0
$$
 2.18

This can be written out as :

(i)
$$
\frac{\partial^2 e_{yx}}{\partial y \partial z} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[-\frac{\partial e_{yz}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial e_{zx}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial e_{xy}}{\partial z} \right]
$$

\n(ii) $\frac{\partial^2 e_{yy}}{\partial x \partial z} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[-\frac{\partial e_{zx}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial e_{xy}}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial e_{yz}}{\partial x} \right]$
\n(iii) $\frac{\partial^2 e_{zz}}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[-\frac{\partial e_{xy}}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial e_{yz}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial e_{zx}}{\partial y} \right]$
\n(iv) $2\frac{\partial^2 e_{xy}}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 e_{xx}}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 e_{yy}}{\partial x^2}$
\n(v) $2\frac{\partial^2 e_{yz}}{\partial y \partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 e_{yy}}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial^2 e_{zz}}{\partial y^2}$
\n(vi) $2\frac{\partial^2 e_{zx}}{\partial z \partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 e_{zz}}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 e_{zx}}{\partial z^2}$

The rest of the expansions are either taken care of by symmetry or some repetition of the above. With adequate boundary conditions,both the equations of equilibrium and compatibility can be combined to give solution to stresses in a given system. A stress function Φ satisfies **the biharmonic equation:**

$$
\frac{\partial^4 \Phi}{\partial x^4} + \frac{\partial^4 \Phi}{\partial x^2 \partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^4 \Phi}{\partial y^4} = 0
$$
 2.20

 Φ is known as the Airy's stress function.

9x2

9z2

Chapter 3

LITERATURE SURVEY

3.1 Introduction : Most of the unconsolidated sediments of the earth's crust are composed mainly of solid mineral particles derived from the physical and chemical weathering of rock and varying amounts of moisture, organic matters, air, and other gases. Terzaghi (1943) defined soil as "those sediments and unconsolidated accumulation of solid particles produced by the mechanical or chemical disintegration of rocks." Like inorganic and non-plastic silt, sand falls into the category of unconsolidated sediments which is composed only of those particles derived from primary minerals.

The behavior of soil is largely influenced by its structure and composition. A small percentage of extremely fine-grained soil can dominate and effectively control the behavior of mixed soil. Unconsolidated sands are generally referred to as single-grain structured. Individual grains or particles have definite sizes and shapes which collectively form a continuous, relatively incompressible solid framework, as compared with fine-grained or colloidal soil. Fluid saturation plays an important part in the behavior of a sand body. Overburden load is jointly

supported by both the formation grains and the reservoir fluids, as discussed in Section 2.1.

Rock compressibility is greatly affected by fluid saturation. Three types of compressibility commonly defined in the petroleum industry were described by Geerstma (1957). Formation strength is derived from inherent tensile strength, cohesive strength, and the shear resistance due to internal friction between grains. The formation and stability of arches in loose sand depends on the level of confining stresses and the existence of cohesive forces within the sand body.

Analysis of stresses in soil is usually based on the theory of elasticity. However, there have been suggestions as to the inaccuracies of this assumption as applied to unconsolidated sediments. Harrison, et al. (1954) observed that failure in much of the earth's crust is governed by "non elastic properties, the shear strength, cohesiveness, and the frictional resistance to deformation." These authors suggested that weaker formations that lie below relatively shallow depths exist in the plastic state. Gassmann (1951) stated that the behavior of "polyphase systems," such as porous solids or loose aggregate of grains whose pores are filled with liquids or gases, deviates considerably from perfect elasticity. The deformations caused by small variations in stress, as experienced

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under elastic-wave propagation, are, however, reversible and can be considered elastic. Dealing with deformation around a wellbore in an oil well, Scot, et al. (1953) suggested that a material in a thick-walled cylinder may only yield partially so that a plastic region is surrounded by a region stressed below the limit of plasticity. Gnirk (1972) also based his analysis of stresses around the borehole on this assumption.

Other factors that affect the behavior of unconsolidated sands include creep and relaxation effects which are due to the viscoelastic properties of the formation. Creep effect shows an increase in strain with time for a constant load or stress, while stress relaxation is the phenomenon in which the stress decreases with time for a constant strain. Cyclic effects have also been reported for a number of experiments with formation sand (Carpenter, et al., 1940; Hughes, et al., 1953; and Fatt, 1958).

Various factors affecting the behavior of unconsolidated sand and their effects on sand control are considered in the following section:

3.2 Compressibilities of Porous Media: The three types **of formation compressibilities described by Geertsma (1957) are :**

(i) Rock Matrix Compressibility, c^. This is the fractional change in volume of the solid material per unit change in uniform pressure

$$
c_r = -\frac{1}{V_r} \left(\frac{\partial V_r}{\partial p} \right) \overline{\sigma}
$$
 3.1

where V_r = rock grain volume and $\bar{\sigma}$ = composite or external hydrostatic **stress**

For all practical purposes the rock matrix compressibility may be considered constant.

(ii) Rock Bulk Compressibility, $c_b^{}$, is the fractional **change in the total or bulk volume of the porous rocks per unit change in stress**

$$
c_b = \frac{1}{V_b} \left(\frac{\partial V_p}{\partial \overline{\sigma}} \right)_p
$$
 3.2

where V_h = Bulk volume.

(iii) Pore Compressibility, c^. This is the fractional change in pore volume per unit change in stress

$$
c_p = \frac{1}{V_p} \left(\frac{\partial V_p}{\partial \overline{\sigma}} \right)_p
$$
 3.3

where $V_p = \phi V_b$

and V, _ ϕ = $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\phi}}$, porosity
and o 1**,** 02 **and o** 3 **are the principal stresses.**

Two types of stress variations can be distinguished. These are: (i) the internal or pore pressure, p, variation, all external stresses being constant; and (ii) ex**ternal or bulk stress variation while internal or fluid and pressure in the pores is kept constant. While internal pressure is usually hydrostatic, external stress can result from both hydrostatic fluid pressure and external stresses on rocks. External stress may therefore vary in both magnitude and direction. The three types of compressibilities are related by the following relationships:**

$$
(i) \frac{1}{V_b} \left(\frac{\partial V_b}{\partial p} \right)_{\overline{\sigma}} = - (c_b - c_r) \qquad 3.4
$$

\n
$$
(ii) \quad c_p = \frac{1}{V_p} \left(\frac{\partial V_p}{\partial \overline{\sigma}} \right)_p = \frac{1}{\phi} (c_b - c_r)
$$

\nwhere $\overline{\sigma} = \frac{1}{3} (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3)$,
\nand σ_1 , σ_2 and σ_3 are the principal stresses.

The net effective stress is $(\sigma - p)$ and the change in Net Effective Stress is $(d\sigma - dp)$.

Carpenter, et al. (1940) and Fatt (1958) measured rock^compressibilities in the laboratory. Fatt determined $\binom{1}{1}$ **on a number of cores and obtained a correlation with "net overburden pressure". He defines net overburden** pressure as $(\bar{\sigma} - 0.85p)$. This author introduced the factor

of 0.85 to take account of the fact that the internal pressure does not wholly react against the external pressure. He found that pore compressibility was a function of pressure, but did not obtain any correlation with porosity. Hall (1953) designated the compressibility term $1 / \frac{\partial V_p}{\partial t}$ as the formation compaction component of $\frac{1}{V_p} \left(\frac{\partial V_p}{\partial \overline{\sigma}} \right)_p$

the total rock compressibility. He obtained a correlation of "formation compaction component with porosity."

Rock compressibility has also been described by a number of investigators in the area of Civil and Construction Engineering as pore pressure coefficient. Bishop (1952) and Skempton, et al. (1955) used the pore pressure coefficient in estimating the stability of an earth dam. Pore pressure ratio defined by Skempton (1954) is given by the expression

$$
\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta \sigma_1} = \overline{B} = B \left[1 - (1-A)(1 - \frac{\Delta \sigma_3}{\Delta \sigma_1}) \right]
$$
 3.5

where B is the overall pore pressure coefficient and A and B are constants defined by the equation:

$$
\Delta P_p = B \left[\Delta \sigma_3 + A (\Delta \sigma_1 - \Delta \sigma_3) \right]. \tag{3.6}
$$

 ΔP_p denotes an increase in pore pressure and $\Delta \sigma_1$ and $\Delta \sigma_3$ **denote changes in the major and minor principal stresses ,**

respectively. Bishop (1973) expressed pore pressure coefficient as :

$$
\frac{\Delta P_p}{\Delta \sigma} = \frac{1}{1 + \phi(c_p - c_s)/(c - c_s)}
$$
 3.7

where c denotes the compressibility of the soil skeleton, c_p denotes compressibility of the pore fluid, and c_s is **the compressibility of the solid grains.**

The pore pressure coefficient as defined in the manner above is clearly a function of the compressibilities of the porous soil, the pore fluid, and the solid material. It is, however, not usual to present rock compressibilities in this manner in the petroleum industry.

Biot (1940) described rock compressibilities by two physical constants, H and R, related by the equation:

$$
\theta = \frac{1}{3H} \quad (\sigma_{\mathbf{x}} + \sigma_{\mathbf{y}} + \sigma_{\mathbf{z}}) + \frac{\sigma}{R} \tag{3.8}
$$

where 6 **is the water content in the porous material,**

$$
\theta = \frac{dV}{V_b} = \phi \frac{dV}{V_p} . \qquad 3.9
$$

 $\sigma_{\mathbf{x}}$, $\sigma_{\mathbf{v}}$, and $\sigma_{\mathbf{z}}$ are the stresses in three orthorgonal directions, x, y, and z.

o is the fluid pressure.

1/H is a measure of the compressibility of the soil for

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a change in fluid pressure, and 1/R is a measure of the change in fluid content for a given change in fluid pres**sure. A coefficient a which measures the ratio of the fluid volume squeezed out, to the volume change in rock under compaction is defined by**

$$
\alpha = \frac{2(1 + v)G}{3(1 - 2v)H}
$$
 3.10

Geertsma (1957) expressed these constants in terms of the three compressibilities earlier discussed as:

(i)
$$
\frac{1}{H} = c_b - c_r
$$

\n(ii) $\frac{1}{R} = c_b - (1 + \phi)c_r$ 3.11
\n(iii) $\alpha = 1 - c_r/c_b$.

3.3 Behavior of Porous Media

3.3.1 Application of the Theory of Elasticity: Both the macroscopic and microscopic behavior of rock differ signifi cantly from that of metal. As a result, concepts of Theory of Elasticity as known from experience with metals cannot be applied to rocks indiscriminately if reliable results are to be expected. Rock Mechanics is therefore based on the actual behavior of rocks, rather than adapted from the **Theory of Elasticity. Fairhurst (1963) described Rock**

Mechanics as the field of study devoted to the understanding of "the basic processes of rock deformation and their technological significance."

The terms "ductility" and "brittleness" are commonly used to describe yield or failure of metals. These terms are similarly applicable for rocks. Jaeger, et al. (1969) defined "ductility" as a condition under which a material under a stress load sustains a permanent deformation without losing its ability to resist the load. These authors described "brittleness" as a condition in which the ability of a material to resist a load decreases with increasing deformation. These definitions will be adhered to in the following discussion.

Stress-Strain Relationship: The mechanical properties of different types of rock have been experimentally studied in the laboratory. Axial compression of a cyclindrical sample in a triaxial cell is the most common method of testing. The elastic modulus and compressive strengths of rock are determined for design purposes. The brittle-ductile transition and the plastic behavior of rocks, especially at high confining pressure and temperature, are of much importance in geophysical activities. In all cases stress-strain relationships of the material depict the rock behavior and properties.

Three types of elastic behavior will be distinguished:

- **(i) Linear Elasticity**
- **(ii) Perfect Elasticity**
- **(iii) Simple Elastic Behavior**

Linear Elastic behavior is one in which the stress and strain are linearly related:

```
\sigma = E \epsilon 3.12
where \sigma = stress
       £ = strain
```
and E = Young's Modulus or Modulus of Elasticity Most consolidated rocks fall into this category at low stresses.

Perfect Elasticity implies that stress is a certain **function of strain, not necessarily linear:**

$$
\sigma = f(\epsilon). \hspace{1cm} 3.13
$$

The same path of stress - strain curve is traversed during stress loading and unloading; no permanent strain is established. There is no unique Young's Modulus in this case. Two types of Young's Modulus can be defined at any parti**cular point: Tangent Modulus at any point is the slope of stress-strain curve at that point:**

$$
E_{t} = \frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon}.
$$
 3.14

Secant Modulus at any point is simply the ratio of stress

to strain at that point:

$$
E_S = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \tag{3.15}
$$

Simple Elastic Behavior refers to the situation when no permanent strain is left in a material when the applied stress is removed. The unloading condition may not necessarily follow the same path as the loading condition. When this happens an effect known as "hysteresis" occurs. More work is done on a material which exhibits hysteresis effects during loading than is recovered during unloading. Behavior of most rocks can be approximately described by Figure 3. The figure can be divided into four regions:

- **(i) Region OA (slightly convex upwards)**
- **(ii) Region AB (very nearly linear)**
- **,(iii) Region BC (concave downwards reaching a maximum at C)**
	- **(iv) A following region, CD.**

The strength of a rock is determined by the value of the stress at point C_o. There is usually no permanent strain if the rock is stressed within the regions OA and AB. However, **permanent strains may be established if the rock is stressed beyond point B. If a rock is restressed after it had a permanent strain, a stress-strain curve similar to OABCD is repeated along the path QRCD. This is known as "cyclic**

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effect." Most investigators working with rock samples have observed either hysteresis or cyclic effects on stressstrain curves. Carpenter, et al. (1940) observed "cyclic hysteresis" on their experiment with Woodbine sands. Hughes and Cook (1953) reported that Berea and Stevens sandstones showed hysteresis effects. Fatt (1958) also observed hysteresis effects in those samples whose porosities were greater than 20**%.**

In a linear elastic material with constant Young's **modulus and Poisson's ratio, volumetric strain during compression varies linearly, as a function of stress, with a positive slope. However, for most rocks a deviation from a straight line is observed. Brace, et al. (1966) state that the volumetric strain starts to deviate from a straight line when the stress reaches one-half of the strength of the rock. Relative negative volumetric strain (expansion) with increased stress is a phenomenon known as "dilatancy." Dilatancy is very important in unconsolidated sand. Hall and Harrisberger (1970) established from their experiment that dilatancy is a critical factor in the ability of a sand body to form a stable arch. Experimenting with 20-40 mesh Ottawa sand, they obtained volumetric increases of the sand during a compression test. Their result is shown in Figure 4. At low stress level, sand**

failure is accompanied by dilatancy. At high pressure, failure is due to crushing of individual grains. A re arrangement of grains may result in a negative volumetric change. A transition zone exists between these two conditions. Hall and Harrisberger were able to conclude from their experiment that arch stability was only possible if the stress conditions were such that sand failure was accompanied by dilatancy. Failure criteria are discussed in more detail in Section 3.3.3.

All rocks show time-dependent effects which are known as an-elasticity or time-dependent elasticity. The stress strain curve may therefore vary with time of application of stress. The strength of a rock increases with confining pressure. This conclusion was reached by von Karman (1911) and Boker (1915). Von Karman noted a transition from a brittle behavior to a ductile behavior exists with increasing confining pressures for Carrara marble. In most rocks this transition is ill-defined. Work-hardening results at high confining stress. This is a phenomenon in which the axial stress increases steadily with stress after the yield point has been exceeded. Brittle-ductile transition occurs at lower stresses, in an elevated temperature en**vironment. The brittle - ductile transition is therefore crucial in determining the behavior of rock in the lower**

earth crust which exists at elevated temperatures.

3.3.2 Application of the Theory of Plasticity. The theory of plasticity is often applied to the analysis of yield in sedimentary rocks. Actual behavior of real soil, however, differs considerably from an ideal plastic material Nevertheless, like the theory of elasticity, this can form a theoretical basis against which actual rock and soil behavior can be measured. The onset of plasticity is that point of irreversibility in the stress-strain path. Nonlinearity of the stress-strain curve does not necessarily indicate plasticity. Plasticity is generally characterized by a point beyond which permanent strains appear.

If stress remains constant from the onset of plasticity, and the strain increases, the material is described as per**fect plastic. As mentioned earlier, most rocks show work hardening effects. When this happens, the stress is a** certain function of strain: $\sigma = f(\epsilon)$. Besides the deforma**tion of the individual grains, plastic or irreversible deformation may result from friction losses due to relative motion of grains that may occur during compression. It may also result from crushing and rearrangement of grains at high stresses.**

Failure condition is independent of the path of loading. The material fails under only a given set of stresses

irrespective of the loading sequence that leads to this stress condition. The major application of the theory of plasticity to rock is in the failure criteria. No distinction is hereby made between "yield" and "failure" in sedimentary rocks.

3.3.3 Failure Criteria

(i) Mohr-Coulomb Criterion: Following his investigation, Coulomb (1773) suggested that the shear stress tending to cause shear failure of rock across any plane is resisted by the force of cohesion of the rock and by a constant multiplied by the normal stress across the plane:

$$
\tau = \tau_0 + \mu_0 \sigma \tag{3.16}
$$

where t = shear stress acting along any plane a = normal stress acting on the plane T = cohesion o μ_{Ω} = tan ϕ .

 μ_{Ω} is known as the coefficient of internal friction and ϕ **is the angle of friction.**

In another hypothesis, Mohr (1900) proposed that when shear failure takes place along a plane, the normal stress and the shear stress along the plane are related in a manner characteristic of the material:

$$
\tau = f(\sigma) \tag{3.17}
$$

It can be noted from the foregoing that Coulomb's failure criterion is a particular form of Mohr's failure **theory. While Coulomb's failure criterion assumes a linear** function, the generalized Mohr's hypothesis shows that **the relationship between shear stress and normal stress need not be linear. This criterion is sometimes referred to as the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion. The characteristic of the rock described by Mohr can be obtained by drawing an envelope tangential to Mohr's Circles corresponding to failure condition of the rock at different stresses. The intermediate stress is not of any consequence in con**structing a Mohr's Circle. However, it is assumed that the **fracture plane contains the direction of the intermediate stress.**

(ii) Von Mise's Criterion: Von Mise's criterion of **failure is most commonly used, and is adequate for most problems on metals. It is also known as the Maximum Distortional Strain Energy Failure Criterion; and it applies** mainly to failure in the plastic region. Von Mise's cri**terion is applied to rock at high confining pressure and temperature. As mentioned earlier, for this condition, most rocks exhibit ductile behavior similar to metals.**

This criterion maximizes the function:

Max $(V) = (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2 + (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2$ and $V = 2\sigma_0^2$ 3.18 where σ_0 = yield point and σ_1 , σ_2 , and σ_3 are the principal stresses. **The strain Energy of Distortion = Oo^** 6**G**

where G is the Bulk Modulus.

Various modifications of the Von Mise's failure criterion have been used by different investigators. Stassi-D'Alia (1959) used the following modified form:

$$
(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_2)^2
$$

= 2(C₀ - T₀) ($\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3$) + 2C₀T₀ 3.19

where Co and To are the yield strength in compression and tension,respectively.

Bishop (1966) described his criterion for failure as:

 $(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) = \frac{\alpha}{5} (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3)$ and $(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2$ 3.20

$$
= \frac{\alpha^2}{9} (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3)^2
$$

a is a constant.

3.4 Literature Related to the Petroleum Industry

A great number of the oil and gas fields around the world are producing from unconsolidated formations, with $T-2299$ 31

the enormous problem of sand production. The sand problem was long recognized by groundwater hydrologists from whom the petroleum industry learned the early techniques of sand control. Most of the techniques centered around mechanical processes of gravel packing. Hall and Harrisberger (1970) drew the attention of the industry to the arching behavior of a sand structure and its relevance to sand control. Arching phenomena of loose sand were by no means a new subject. Terzaghi (1943) reported that Engesser (1882), Bierbaumer (1913), Caquot (1934) and Vollmy (1937) had studied the equilibrium behavior of sand arches. Terzaghi (1936) also reported arching of stressed sandpack in his trap-door experiments. He described arching as "the ability of a material to transfer load from one location to another in response to relative displacement between the locations by the mechanism of shear stress."

Hall and Harrisberger (1970) tested samples of unconsolidated sand in a cylindrical chamber of 3-3/4 inches I.D. fitted with a hydraulically operated piston. The samples were loaded vertically in a pre-determined way over a 7/16-inch diameter trapdoor located at the bottom center of the chamber. They observed arching of the sand when the trapdoor was removed. Hall and Harrisberger also investigated the stability of the arch to fluid flow and

changing load. They conducted a series of tests with wellrounded 20-40 mesh Ottawa sand, angular 20-40 mesh Arkola sand, and Miocene sands. They varied the initial saturation, fluid flow and loading conditions. They observed that the stability of the arches required some restraints on the grains forming the inner free surface of the arch. These restraints were provided by the cohesive force resulting from the interfacial tension between pore fluids. They reported that the wetting phase should be in the pen**dular flow regime for the interfacial tension to develop. They also observed that the arch formed by the more angular sands failed with grain crushing under loads at lower stresses. They concluded that dilatancy and cohesiveness are necessary conditions for the stability of a sand arch.**

Stein and Hilchie (1972) assumed that the stability of a friable sand required the formation of a stable sand arch around each perforation. They considered that the pressure drop of the flowing fluid was the major factor affecting the stability of any sand arch. They conducted a production test on one well, and used this as a standard against which other wells in the area were measured. The test consisted of a series of increasing production rates, and "equivalent reservoir pressure drawdown," to a critical point where "sand production became excessive, and would

not stop or slow down significantly with continued production." They assumed that the critical pressure drawdown, ΔP_c , **would be proportional to the shear modulus of the sand. Thus the allowable pressure drawdown in any zone is related to the critical pressure drawdown in the test:**

$$
\Delta P_{well} \leq [\Delta P_{c}]_{Test\ well} \cdot \frac{C_{well}}{G_{test\ well}} \cdot . \qquad 3.21
$$

Stein and Hilchie estimated the formation shear modulus by assuming that $(\lambda + 2G)$, which they referred to as the **dynamic combined modulus, correlated with the rock strength. (X + 2G) values can be estimated from density and acoustic velocity logs :**

$$
\lambda + 2G = 1.34 \times 10^{10} \frac{\rho}{(\Delta t)^2} . \qquad 3.22
$$

Neglecting changes in density, Stein and Hilchie plotted At against ΔP_c for various sands indicating 'safe', 'risky', **and possible 'failure' regions. By neglecting changes in density, Stein and Hilchie did not consider the effect of pore fluid on rock bulk density and acoustic travel time. Oil and gas affect these properties differently. Density is less and travel time is greater if the pore fluid is gas rather than oil. These authors als-o plotted variation of (X + 2G) with formation depth. They assumed that at zero depth the curve must be asymptotic to the bulk modulus.**

From the relationship: λ + 2G = K + 4/3 G, they equated the difference between $(\lambda + 2G)$ values at any depth and **the asymptotic value at the surface to 4/3 G .**

In a follow-up, Stein, et al. (1973) estimated the shear modulus differently by assuming that the maximum pressure gradient at each arch face for sandfree production was proportional to the strength of the sand:

$$
\frac{dp}{dr} = \frac{qB\mu}{1.123E - 3kAN} \propto G
$$
 3.23

where N is the number of perforations. They therefore related the allowable pressure gradient of a well to that of a test well assuming:

$$
\frac{\left[\frac{dp}{dr}\right]_{w e 11}}{\left[\frac{dp}{dr}\right]_{T e s t \text{ well}}}
$$
 =
$$
\frac{\left[q B \mu\right]_{w e 11}}{\left[q B \mu\right]_{T e s t \text{ well}}}
$$

$$
\frac{\left[k A N\right]_{T e s t \text{ well}}}{\left[k A N\right]_{w e 11}}
$$

The sand control research of the Colorado School of Mines started with the work of Tippie in 1973. Tipple used a semi-cylindrical cell with simulated 4-inch casing made of plexiglass. The casing simulator was removable so that arch structures could be physically examined at the end of each test. Tippie conducted his tests at 260 psi overburden load on a 20-40 mesh Gopher State frac sand.

flowing mineral spirits. He found that the initial arch size was a function of the initial producing rate. Based oh this work Tippie and Kohlhaas (1973) reported that arch growth is a function of flow rate and initial arch size, and that a critical flow rate and arch size exist below which a stable arch can form. They also noted that terminal arch velocity decreases as stable arch size increases. Tippie and Kohlhaas (1974) concluded that fines migration contributes to arch instability.

Based on his interpretation of sand arch experiments of Hall, et al. (1970), the concepts of stress equilibrium around a wellbore, and field observations, Suman, Jr. (1975) **presented methods of stabilizing unconsolidated sand in an oil field. He described arch behavior as a function of increasing loads categorized into four ranges. Range I is at low arch loads. Range II is at somewhat greater loads, while Range III is at greater loads than Range II. Range IV is greater loads than Range III. In Range I dilatant action of the sand body dominates, and only 'very tenuous' arches form. Dilatant action also occurs in Range II. Arches formed in this range are rate sensitive and fail with the expansion of the inner row of sand grains, followed by rolling and sliding motion between grains. Suman, Jr.,suggested that some of the experiments**

of Hall, et al. (1970) and those of Tippie (1973) were conducted with arch loads in this range. Arches formed in Range III are stable, with interlocked sand grains. According to Suman, Jr., arch failures in this region are accompanied by grain shearing rather than dilatancy. He suggested that loads in Range IV are large enough to cause the failure of the arch by crushing the inner row of sand grains, and no arch can possibly exist in this range. The behavior of a producing well will depend on the effective load due to a combination of the effects of pressure drawdown and the initial loading condition. Suman, Jr. proposed a relationship for mud pressure during drilling or workover operations such that the mud pressure P_m is high enough **to prevent dilatant action of the sand or shear crushing without causing a formation breakdown:**

$$
P_m \ge \frac{F_p - P_p}{k + \frac{1-k}{2} + P_p}
$$
, $k = \frac{1 + \sin \phi}{1 - \sin \phi}$ 3.25

where k is the ratio of the maximum to minimum principal stresses in a dry and cohesionless sand. F_n is the formation breakdown pressure and P_p is the formation pore pressure. **Suman, Jr. also suggested that dilatation disturbs tenuous cementation of clay material and other particles causing fine mobility and the resulting productivity impairment. He proposed the installation of inflatable packers to adjust**

the stresses around the wellbore in a manner that will ensure an arch load in the stable region, as a long term stability control.

Cleary (1978), Melvan (1978),and Wood (1979) used the equipment described in Chapter 4 in their experiments. Cleary and Melvan continued the work of Tippie at higher stresses while Wood investigated the effects of sand sizes and sorting on arch stability. Cleary and Melvan used the 20-40 mesh Gopher State frac sand that Tippie used. They conducted their experiments concurrently flowing mineral spirits and kerosene in a stressed sandpack. They were the first to monitor stresses within the sandpack during a test. They observed that the behavior of sand arches around the perforation was reflected by stress variation within the sandpack. Cleary, Melvan,and Kohlhaas (1979) confirmed the formation of an arch by unconsolidated sand. They observed that the stability of the arch increased while cavity size decreased with increasing stress. They also noted two modes of arch instability which include an initial restructuring and a total arch failure.

Wood used various mixtures of 20-40 and 80-100 mesh Gopher State frac sand and flowed kerosene through a stressed sandpack. He observed that grain sizes have no influence on the ability of unconsolidated sand to form

a stable arch. In his experiments the arches formed at flow rates of % to 2 **barrels per day and failed at flow rates of 5 to 10 barrels per day.**

Recently, Bratli and Risnes (1979) also reported a study of the arching behavior of 20-40 and 80-100 mesh Ottawa sand under stresses due to flowing fluid. They flowed air and oil vertically through a stressed sandpack in a steel cylinder with a central hole at the bottom. Their observations were quite similar to those of Cleary and Melvan. They also distinguished between two modes of arch failures. They found that thin inner shells of arch collapsed several times before a total arch failure occurred. They developed a theoretical stability criterion for spherical arches in their model:

$$
\frac{\mu Q}{4\pi k_{\mathsf{C}} R} \leq \left(\frac{T+1}{T}\right) 4\,\text{So tan }\alpha \tag{3.26}
$$

where $T = 2(tan^2\alpha-1)$ and $\alpha = \pi/4 + \phi/2$ 4 **is the internal friction angle of the sand. So is the shear strength of the sand, k^ is the permeability of the sand arch, and R is the radius of the inner arch structure.**

They proposed that both modes of failure occurred in their model when:

$$
\left(\frac{T+1}{T}\right)4\text{So } \tan \alpha > \frac{\mu Q}{4\pi k_c R_1} > \frac{k_e}{k_c} \left(\frac{T+1}{T}\right)4\text{So } \tan \alpha \qquad 3.27
$$

where k_e/k_c is the ratio of the effective permeability **of sandpack to the reduced permeability in the arch.**

It is clear from the foregoing that most of the experimental works that are reported in the literature were conducted with well-rounded 20-40 and 80-100 mesh sands. Hall and Harrisberger (1970) did most of their studies with the 20-40 mesh Ottawa sand and only very limited studies were conducted with the angular sands. This thesis has extended the study of arch stability and failure behavior to unconsolidated natural sands. Rate effects as well as pressure drop effects have been studied and reported. Tests have also been conducted with a mixture of equal parts of 20-40 and 80-100 mesh Gopher State frac sand which answer questions raised from previous works, and show the effect of water production on arch stability.

Chapter 4

DISCUSSION OF EQUIPMENT

4.1 The equipment used in this study was designed to simulate a reservoir formation and the environment of a cased perforated wellbore. A simple transformation of the cell geometry will duplicate actual field conditions. The main body of the equipment shown in figure 5 is a cylindrical pressure cell made of solid steel and mounted on a structural steel frame that enables it to rotate around a horizontal axis. Any position of the cell can be maintained by two winches holding it. A vertical position was maintained during all tests. The cell has an external diameter of 30 inches, an internal diameter of 16 inches and a length of 87 inches. About 52-3/4 inches of the length is available during tests for the sandpack. Two plexiglass view ports, 8 **inches in diameter, are symmetrically located on the flow outlet side of the cell. They are located 24 inches apart and include** ¹/₂-inch bores simulating perforations. The view ports have **the same thickness as the cell, with** 2**-inch arc sections machined into their inside ends. The section adjoins a similar plexiglass section inside the cell, spanning a total length of 32 inches. The section simulates casing in the well. Five inlet ports are lined up symmetrically on the opposite sides of the cell such that the inlet**

and outlet ports are along a diameter of the cell. Only the middle three ports were used during the tests. A 2**-inch diameter steel screen was glued over each inlet port; inside the cell. This functioned as a flow diffuser. Four ports are also symmetrically located on the top and bottom of the cell for desaturating the cell. Six other ports symmetrically located on either side of the flow ports are designed for instrument probing of the cell. One of these was used for the leads of the strain gauges.**

A complete assembly of the cell includes two hydraulic jacks or rams, held by two buttress - threaded end caps on either end of the cell. These and other features of the equipment are further discussed below.

4.2 Hydraulic Rams

The hydraulic rams were designed to apply stress load on the sandpack. The hydraulic system is complete with a Sprague pneumatic/hydraulic pump. This air operated device pumps hydraulic fluid into the inner chamber of the rams at increasingly higher pressures. The amount of fluid being pumped into each ram can be checked by a set of control valves along the hydraulic fluid flow line. The fluid pressure displaces an 11**-inch-diameter piston which transmits the pressure onto the sandpack. Attached externally to the piston of each ram is a l^i-inch-thick steel plate.**

16 inches in diameter, held by a single flat-head alien bolt. This ensures that the pressure or stress is applied over the whole area of the sandpack. The inner chamber of the ram is complete and sealed with a cover plate held to its body by nineteen allen-head $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch bolts. The **ram is basically designed to operate at a maximum fluid pressure of 10,000 psi. (However it was found that owing to the limitations imposed by the inadequate strength of the bolts, the maximum operating pressure should not exceed 7,500 psi.) A system of relief valves ensures that the fluid pressure does not exceed 10,000 psi. The pressure is also relieved from a small hole on the side** of the rams, if the piston tries to extend beyond $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches. This offers a protection against shear failure of the bot**tom part of the rams. Two 0-rings are placed around the rams to ensure adequate pressure seal between the cell and the rams.**

4.3 Stress Transducers

Five new diaphragm stress transducers were constructed using Micro-Measurement's 'JB' pattern strain gauges. The **gauges were mounted in aluminum housings in a manner similar to that used by Melvan. New aluminum housings were manufactured in order to ensure adequately clean mounting surfaces. They are cylindrical in shape,** *Ih* **inches diameter**

by *Ih* **inches high. A hollow concentric circular section is drilled on one end to a depth of 1 inch leaving a diaphragm thickness of %-inch. The gauges were glued and protected according to the manufacturer's specifications. Each housing is complete with an 0-ring - sealed stainless steel cap screwed onto it. The center of the cap is threaded for easy attachment to an adaptor. Three** transducers are arranged orthogonally on $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch adaptors. **An %-inch diameter stainless steel feeder tube runs on the side of the cell and bends midway to position the transducers in the middle of the cell, one pointing in the vertical direction and the two others in perpendicular horizontal directions.**

The transducers were calibrated while imbedded in a wet sand in a small calibration cell designed by Melvan. The cell was loaded during the calibration by a soil testing machine located at the Earth Mechanics Institute.

4.4 Flow System

The flow system includes two pumps that can be alternately used, and may also be simultaneously used with little modification to the flow network. One of them is a double-plunger type positive displacement, Penwatt Corpor ation's Wallace and Tiernan Series 150A Metering Pump, with a Reeves variable-speed drive, 3/4 horsepower motor.

equipped with 1-inch-diameter plungers. Manufacturer's manual shows that it is capable of delivering 43.4 barrels per day of water at a maximum discharge pressure of 190 psig. The other pump is a positive displacement Moyno type pump equipped with a $7\frac{1}{2}$ horsepower Reeves variable**speed motor, capable of delivering water at high rates at a maximum discharge pressure less than 400 psig. Both pumps were used at different times during the experiments.**

The flow line includes a bypass to regulate how much flow goes through the cell. The flow rate was monitored by a differential pressure transducer connected to pressure points tapped along two horizontal 49-inch tubings through either of which the liquid can flow downstream. The tubings are 1/8-inch and %-inch in diameters and are used for low and high flow rates,respectively. The smaller tubing was calibrated for flow rates below 8.5 barrels per day and the bigger tubing was calibrated for flow rates up to 55 barrels per day. The transducer was connected through a pressure demodulator to a Honeywell strip chart recorder. The flow rate was calibrated by timing measured volumes with the corresponding pen position on the recorder The demodulator adjustments were kept at fixed positions during the calibration and throughout the tests.

4.5 Pressure Monitor

Two Data Instrument pressure transducers were located at the inlet and outlet of the cell to monitor the inlet and outlet pressures, respectively. The inlet transducer had a 500-psi range and the outlet transducer had a 100-psi range. Both transducers were connected to Honeywell strip chart recorders with which they were previously calibrated. The pressure calibrations were established with a deadweight tester. All the calibrations are shown in figures 6 through 12.

4.6 Fluid Injection

A second Wallace and Tiernan plunger metering pump was available to inject water into the cell in order to establish some water saturation in the area around the perforation and thereby ensure a pendular water saturation during the test. This procedure was established by Cleary and Melvan. However, the injection of water was not found necessary to establish an arch or a cavity in tests with natural sands. The use of the pump was limited to the tests with Gopher State frac sand.

4.7 Separator

The 'separator' is a $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch-diameter 18 -inch-long **plexiglass tube connected to the outlet of the cell.**

Connection is made to the side of the tube. The axis of the tube, while connected, is positioned in the vertical direction. The 'separator' catches any produced sand and water and facilitates a free flow of fluid. The produced sand during any test was emptied from the separator before the next test to prevent mixing up the sands. The sand in each case was examined, dried and analyzed for grain size distribution. Tests were terminated when the produced sand was so excessive as to fill the separator completely and plug the flow line.

Chapter 5

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAND SAMPLES

5.1 The experiments are divided into four groups: A, B, C, and D; each using different types of sand. In the Croup A tests a mixture of equal parts of 20-40 and 80-100 mesh Copher State frac sand was used. Three different natural sand samples containing clay materials were used in test Croups B, C, and D. The different sands will henceforth be referred to as sands A, B, C, and D, respectively. At the start of this work, a large number of natural sand samples were collected from various gravel pits at outcrops around the Colden area. Preliminary permeability tests were conducted on all the samples. Sands B, C, and D were selected because they demonstrated sufficient and highest permeabilities among the samples tested. Coarser grains than 20-mesh size were removed from the natural sand samples subsequently used. This improved the sand homogeneity and permeability.

Comparative sieve analyses of the samples are shown in table 1 and figure 13. Although sand A included grain sizes between 20-mesh and 170 mesh, the distribution was not normal. The sand contained only 10% of 60-mesh size, 11% of 80-mesh size, 54% of 40-mesh size and less than 8%

greater than 100-mesh. In contrast, the grain sizes of each of the natural sand samples varied between 20-mesh and smaller than 400-mesh and closely approximated a nor**mal distribution. The figure shows that sample B was better sorted than either samples C or D. Statistical parameters of the samples are shown in table 2.**

Clay analysis was obtained on all natural samples by x-ray diffraction at the Amoco Production Company Laboratory in Tulsa, Oklahoma. The estimated mineral percentages of the samples are shown in table 3. The table shows that the samples were predominantly quartz and feldspar. Various traces of clay minerals including illites, montmorillonite, and kaolite, were present which totalled about 1% by weight of the samples. This was consistent with the sieve analysis which showed about 1% by weight finer than 200 mesh **in all the samples. A small quantity of mica was optically detected in all the samples. Opaque magnetic minerals were also present in quantities too small to measure. About 3% actinolite was detected in sample B. A chemical analysis of the fines (170-mesh and smaller) was also obtained independently. The results are shown in table 4. The table shows elemental constituents obtained by x-ray fluorescence. Silicate clay minerals like illites and kaolite are grouped** under SiO₂. The results also agreed with the x-ray diffraction

analysis.

Triaxial tests were conducted on dry and wet specimens of all the natural sand samples at different confining pressures between 50 psi and 2000 psi. The Material Testin; System equipment located at the Earth Mechanics Institute was used. The essential features of the set-up are shown in figure 14. The equipment is complete with an automatic recorder. (Reduced copies of the test printouts for tests with wet sands are included in the last two pages of this thesis). Stress-strain relations obtained from the tests are shown in figures 15 through 17. The levels of yield stresses increased with increasing confining pressures; and plastic yield was evident in all cases. Points of sudden sand failures are indicated on the figures. Mohr failure envelopes of the samples have been constructed, and are shown in figures 18 through 20, showing a pronounced plas**ticity in sand C. In all cases the dry samples showed evidence of grain crushing at the failure points indicated. The levels of cohesion in all the natural sands were about equal.**

Chapter 6

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

6.1 Sand A was packed in fresh water. Sands B, C, and D were packed in brine solution of 250 grams of NaCl per liter of water because of the clay minerals they contained. This provided adequate salinity to minimize clay expansion in water without much problem of salt precipitation. The aqueous phase in all the tests will henceforth be referred to as simply water. The following procedures apply to all **cases.**

6.2 Loading of Cell

There is no major difference between the loading procedure used here and that previously used by Cleary, Melvan, and Wood. The step-by-step procedure is contained in Cleary's (1978) and Melvan's (1978) theses. Essentially, **the cell was loaded in the upright position with the lower ram and end cap in place. Large quantities of sand and water were measured out in excess of what were required. The amounts left at the end of the loading process were also measured, so that the amounts used could be accurately estimated. During loading, the sand saturated with water was carried in buckets, and loaded as a slurry into the**

cell. The sandpack was continually tapped as loading pro**gressed to eliminate trapped air and ensure a homogeneous packing. Precautions were taken to ensure adequate compaction around the strain gauges without damaging them. The cell was packed to about 5 inches below the ram seat. The cell thread was cleaned and excess water removed from it. This was measured along with the unused water. The upper ram and end cap were then positioned to complete the process.**

6.3 Desaturation

During this process the water saturation of the sandpack was reduced from 100% to "irreducible" by displacement with kerosene. The kerosene was injected at low rate through a saturation valve located in the top part of the cell. The displacement fluid was produced from a similar valve in the lower part of the cell. A hydrostatic pressure head was maintained through a standpipe to prevent any gravity drainage in the cell. This desaturation process continued until the water cut in the produced fluid was less than 1%. This usually took 15 to 24 hours. The total amount of water produced in this process was also measured.

At this stage, all flow lines and the hydraulic fluid lines were connected. The strain gauges, the transducers and the differential transducer calibrated to measure the flow rate were connected to the various Honeywell strip

chart recorders. The procedure up to this point was followed at the beginning of each group of tests after a new sand had been loaded into the cell. The following are test procedures for each group of tests.

6 . 4 Stress - Loading

The application of stress load on the sandpack was achieved by pumping hydraulic fluid Super-21 into the hydraulic-jack rams using the pneumatic pump. This applied pressure on the sandpack equivalent to the hydraulic line pressure, reduced by the ratio of the piston to ram bottom plate areas. In order to achieve a mid-cell grain-to-grain vertical stress of 2250 psi, the hydraulic line pressure reached about 9000 psi. All attempts to load the sandpack to 3000 psi vertical stress failed. The nineteen bolts holding each of the rams failed on two occasions. On two other occasions the single flat-head alien bolt holding the ram lower plates failed. As a result, the maximum vertical midpoint grain-to-grain stress attainable was 2250 psi. Even this level was unattainable in sand C; the maxi**mum in sand C was 1960 psi. Sand A was tested only at an initial vertical mid-cell stress of 1500 psi, while other sands were tested at 500, 750, 1000, 1500, and 1800 or 2500 psi.**

The bypass flow line valve was kept opened and kerosene was flowed at low rate, as stress load was being applied

on the sandpack. This prevented both excessive pressure build-up inside the cell and backflow of the sand. Damage to the flow diffuser screen, glued over the inlet ports, was also prevented. During the stress - loading process the hydraulic fluid was continuously pumped into the rams until the required stress level was reached. At very high stresses it was sometimes necessary to stress continually over a 24-hour period or more to reach the desired stress level.

6.5 Test Runs

During the various tests, the inlet and outlet pressures, the flow rate, and the three orthogonal stresses midway in the sandpack were continuously recorded on strip charts. The two types of pumps were used at different times during the experiments. The tests were started with the positive displacement, double piston pump, and continued with the Moyno pump, after a breakdown during the Group B tests. The pump was operated at maximum capacity. Inlet pressure to the cell was varied by adjusting the bypass valve. In most cases, tests were started at low inlet pressure achieved by fully opening the bypass valve. A particular inlet pressure was maintained until a constant flow rate was reached. In some cases, rate decline followed a brief period of constant rate. This was believed to result from increasing skin effect owing to the migration of
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fine sand and clay. The inlet pressure was increased after flow became stable or as soon as a flow decline was observed The sand behavior around the perforation was continually observed through the lucite port. Arch failures were monitored on the recorders by pressure changes. All the parameters being recorded were affected by a major arch failure. Minor arch failures and restabilization were monitored by the strain gauges.

Tests were conducted beyond points of arch failures, unless excessive sand was produced that could not be handled without terminating the test. Tests would normally continue until the bypass valve had been completely shut off and the maximum pump pressure was imposed on the cell. When the sand arch had been essentially stable in a test, a follow-up test was started at the maximum pressure. Also when skin effects were evident in a test, a back-flow was found necessary to clean up areas around the perforation before the next test.

Chapter 7

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 Cleary (1978), Melvan (1978), and Wood (1979) reported that during their experiments, cavities developed at the perforation and extended upwards. The exact cause of this was not specified but may be due to asymmetry of stress application on the sandpack, flow of injected water in that direction, or gravity effect. Test AI conducted with a mixture of equal parts of 20-40 and 80-100 mesh Gopher State frac sand, was carried out to clarify this point. Fluid was flowed through the lower perforation instead of the upper perforation as in the previous experiments It was expected that if the cavities had grown upward in the previous tests as a result of asymmetry of stress application, this arrangement would shift the stress asymmetry toward the bottom of the cell, and thereby cause the cavity to extend downward. About 200 cc of water, which was injected before the test to create a pendular saturation around the perforation, was bled downwards. Thus, if the direction of cavity growth had reflected the direction of pendular saturation, this procedure should ensure that the cavity extended downwards. If despite all these procedures, the cavity still grew upwards, it would become clear that

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the growth was due to gravity effects. Data recorded during the tests are digitized and presented in tables 5 through 41. A summary of the observations made during the tests is included in these tables under the comment column. The following are reviews of some of the observations made during the tests:

Cavities formed and extended above the perforation in all the tests. In test AI, no major failure of the initial **arch structure was observed. The recorders indicated an essentially constant sandpack stress. Test A II was a repeat of A I. It was conducted to determine how long the arch structure could remain stable. Maximum flow rate in test A I was 10.2 bbls/day but the maximum flow rate attainable in test A II was 5.23 bbls/day. The arch remained stable for 14 hours of continuous test, during which no sand was produced.**

Test A III was a displacement of kerosene by water. Field experience shows that sand production becomes intense when a well starts producing water. This test was conducted to determine if the establishment of a stable arch before starting to produce water could hold back the sand. The flow was started at 0.9 bbls/day and stabilized at 0.825 bbls/ day. Conditions remained stable for about 36 minutes of flow, before the first drop of water appeared in the

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separator. Almost immediately, sand fell into and partly filled the cavity, leaving the cavity outline still observable. Subsequently, lumps of sand were dropping out, and within a few minutes the separator was completely full of sand slurry. The flow of sand was so intense that the test had to be terminated. About 3.13 liters of water had been pumped into the cell before the test was terminated. Total arch failure was monitored on the stress recorders from the onset of water production.

The procedure in test A IV was similar to that of test A I. The test was conducted after reducing the water saturation in the sandpack to ''irreducible" level, following test A III. The aim was to determine if a well that was producing water could re-establish a stable arch if the water ceases and a pendular water saturation is once more established around the perforation. The flow was started at a rate of about 0.45 bbls/day, increased gradually and stabilized at about 2.28 bbls/day. An initial cavity developed as flow started. Flow rate was increased to 2.58 bbls/day after a stable condition had been established. Sand was produced at this rate and a partial arch failure was observed on the recorders. The cavity grew as the arch restabilized. After a period of stable flow, the pump was stopped and restarted at the previous rate. The arch failed almost immediately resulting in a heavy sand production

The flow rate increased to about 5.66 bbls/day under the same pump condition and more sand was produced. Unexpectedly, a stable arch finally re-established, and a larger cavity developed. The stable condition was maintained through an increasing flow rate reaching 8.28 bbls/day. The arch failed again at this rate and more sand was produced. Sandfree production was able to continue after the arch restabilized.

In test B I, conducted with natural sample B, arch and cavity were formed as the sandpack was being stressed. It was therefore not necessary to inject water into the cell before starting this test, as was the case in the earlier tests. Following this experience, no water was injected in the rest of the tests conducted with the natural sand samples. The test started at a flow rate of 1.3 bbls/ day and a pressure drop of 15.6 psi. Cavity size increased with increasing flow rate and pressure. Sand was produced in the process, but there were no major failures during the test.

In test B II excess fluid was allowed to build up in the cell. The aim of this was to build up energy in the sandpack, similar to oil field reservoir energy, which could produce the fluid. The test was conducted to establish the feasibility of such test procedure. The outlet valve was closed when the sandpack was being stressed to 750 psi.

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Although there was an indication that an arch was formed, no cavity was observed during stress loading. One horizontal stress became greater than the vertical stress as a result of a re-distribution of stress load by the arch.

With the pump shut down, the test was conducted as a bleed-off or drawdown. Although the valve was opened slowly, the sand production was heavy. This stopped after a brief period, leaving a cavity about 1 inch high and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch wide. **The flow rate during this test reached a maximum of 2.24 bbls/day before it started to decay gradually to 0.18 bbls/ day.**

Test B III was conducted to determine the stability of the arch formed during test B II. In this test cavity size enlarged to about 3 inches by 1 inch; and the arch remained essentially stable. A partial arch failure occurred as test B IV started at high pressure. The test was a continuation of test B III at higher pressures. The pop-off and check valves in the flow line that had limited pressure in the previous tests were removed before thé test. However, flow impairment was severe, and flow rate only got to 9 bbls/day with 1642 psi pressure drop. Before the next test, the flowline was examined and cleaned up, and a backflow was initiated to clean any skin around the perforation. The initial arch formed in the following test failed

with stresses dropping and increasing. Subsequent arch failure during the test occurred while flow rate was declining, as shown in table 13. The failure resulted from a lack of complete stability after the previous failure rather than rate or pressure effect. A major arch failure occurred in test B X at a flow rate of 3.1 bbls/day and 190 psi pressure drop. The test that preceded this, which was conducted at the same stress level of 2250 psi, was essentially stable although the flow rate reached 7 bbls/day. The major arch failure in test B X could therefore only be attributed to increasing skin effect. The failure was accompanied by sand production and a rate surge to 6.3 bbls/day. Test B XII was also conducted at 2250 psi after it was impossible to load the sandpack to 3000 psi. A partial arch failure occurred in this test following a large increase in pressure drop. Drastic reduction in the pressure and rate did not affect the arch.

The initial cavity formed in test C I (table 21) was slightly smaller than those in the previous tests. It grew rapidly with increasing flow rate to more than 4 inches high by *Ih* **inches wide. Three minor arch failures occurred before the flow rate reached the maximum of 30.7 bbls/day. A major arch failure occurred in test C II at a flow rate of 22.4 bbls/day and 286 psi pressure drop.**

The test data are shown in table 22. The failure was caused by a combination of pressure drop, flow rate, and skin effects. It was marked by both pressure and rate surges. The cavity enlarged to more than 4 inches when conditions stabilized. The cavity width was about 1 inch. Minor arch failures occurred during all tests conducted with the natural sand sample C except test C III conducted at 1000 psi stress level. Arch strengthening or load readjustments were observed in tests C IV and C VIII, as shown in tables 24 and 28, respectively. It was not possible to stress the sand to 2250 psi, the highest stress level at which tests were conducted with this sand was 1800 psi. (Maximum of 1960 psi was reached when stress-loading.)

The arch structures formed during tests conducted with natural sand sample D were generally more stable than those in the other sands, and cavity sizes were smaller. The maximum flow rates established in tests D I and D II (tables 30 and 31) were 2.04 bbls/day and 4.2 bbls/day, respectively, at about 350 psi pressure drop. Both tests, conducted at 500-psi stress level, were essentially stable, A major arch failure occurred in test D III which was also conducted at 500 psi. The failure occurred at a flow rate of 2.7 bbls/day and 137 psi pressure drop. It was also

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marked by both pressure and rate surges. Inlet pressure dropped while the outlet pressure increased, and the rate reached 7.05 bbls/day. The cavity size also enlarged beyond the 4 inches viewing area, and was 1 inch wide. All other tests with natural sand D were predominantly stable.

Summaries of cavity and failure data in all the tests are shown in tables 42 through 45, and table 46 through 49, respectively. More general reviews of the various observations, made during the tests, are presented in the following sections.

7.2 Cavity Formation

The cavities formed as the sandpacks were being stressed when the outlet valve was opened and fluid was flowing at low rates. Cavity formation resulted from the flow of fluid through the arch. Loose sand grains within the arch structure were carried by the drag force due to the flow, thereby creating a cavity. In test B II, the cavity did not form until the flow valve was opened.

The injection of water in the group A tests helped to initiate the formation of a cavity. The injection of water was found not necessary in order to initiate cavities in the natural sand samples. This was probably due to the high levels of water saturation in these sands. A comparison be**tween the initial saturations in all the sandpacks is shown**

in table 51.

7.3 Cavity Growth

In all the tests, cavities developed above the perforation and extended upwards due to gravity. Cavity sizes increased as flow rate and pressure drop across the cell increased. Increases of cavity size resulted from increase of arch sizes, erosion, or failure of the inner grains of a stable arch structure. The initial cavity size was between $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch to $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch high by $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch to $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch wide. The largest **cavity observed extended beyond the view area and was about** *Ih* **inches wide. The shapes of the cavities were rather irregular and narrower at the bottom in most cases. The sizes reported were the maximum dimensions. In general cavity shapes were elliptical or rectangular after a major arch failure.**

7.4 Arch Formation

Arch structures were formed around the perforation in response to stress load. It was not possible to examine the arch physically without destroying it, owing to equipment design. The formation of cavities during tests was observed by previous investigators to be evidence of arch formation. This is confirmed by this investigation. Arch formation also manifested itself by the readjustment of stresses around the perforation observed during tests.

There was no substantial sand production in any test during stress readjustment; only in two cases (tests B VI and C III, tables 14 and 13 respectively) were traces of sand observed. In tests B XI and C XI, one horizontal stress decreased as the sandpack was being stressed. This was an indication that the arches formed in the preceding tests were still stable. A formation of an arch across the cell was possible because of the cell geometry. This could also have affected the stresses in this manner. In tests B II and B VI, one horizontal stress was greater than the vertical stress as the result of a redistribution of the stress load by the arch. In test B VIII the arch collapsed under increasing stress load, causing sand to be produced, and the cavity to disappear.

7.5 Arch Failure

At least one major failure occurred in every sand used. The failures are described as 'major' because of the degree of instability generated at failure. All failures were accompanied by some sand production. In major failures the quantity of sand produced was quite high. At least about half of the volume of the separator (44 cubic inches) was produced before stability could be achieved. In test A III a complete arch collapse was observed and sand produc**tion was continuous as water reached the perforation. The**

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major arch failure in test A IV reflected a weaker arch than that in test A I. The weakness of the arch was a result of the previous major failure in test A III. All other conditions of test were similar in tests A I and A IV. Sudden pressure drop resulted in the major arch failure in test B X, causing a significant flow rate surge. In test C II, the major arch failure was preceded by increasing skin. The failure caused tremendous rate and pressure surges. A similar situation occurred in test D III. The failure in this case was caused by a combination of skin and weakness of arch resulting from repeated tests.

Minor arch failures occurred in most other tests ex cept those with natural sand sample D. These failures were accompanied by a slight drop in at least one of the stresses - predominantly the vertical stress and cavity enlargement. Sand D was more stable than either sands B or C. Sand C was stable at high stress levels, but rather unstable at 500 psi and 750 psi. Minor arch failure occurred at every stress level in tests with sand B. Arches restabilized in all cases except in test A III where failure resulted from water production. The arch in sand B restabilized more readily.

Chapter 8

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

8.1 The experimental results have been analyzed with a view to identifying the various factors affecting the stability and failure of the sand arches formed during the tests. A number of such factors were identified as a result of the varying conditions under which tests were conducted at the same stress levels. The relationship between the various parameters measured during the test are examined graphically in figures 21 through 33. The in situ stressload responses of some of the sands are shown in figures 34 through 37. The observed cavity sizes have also been plotted as functions of the flow rate and the pressure drop in figures 38 through 41, and figures 42 through 45, respectively. Points of arch failures are indicated on all the plots .

The stresses measured just before arch failures have also been examined in relation to the failure envelopes of the various sands. These are shown in figures 46 through 48. The sieve analyses of the produced sand following arch failures are compared with the analyses of the original samples in figures 49 through 52. The relationship between stress load, flow rate, and pressure drop at the conditions

of arch failure are examined graphically for each sand in figures 53 through 58. The maximum stress changes at failure in each sand are shown in figure 59.

Although this does not quite accurately describe the behavior of the sands, poro-elasticity theory has been reviewed in Appendix A. Bratli, et al. (1979) remarked that theory of elasticity does not reflect sand arch be**havior. Plastic deformation of the sands was in fact evident during the tests, as well as during the triaxial tests of the samples. Nevertheless, poro-elasticity theory combined with the actual failure envelope of the sand are considered valid bases of comparison of the stability and failure behavior of the sand arches. In their analysis Bratli, et al. (1979) assumed that the sand behaves elastically up to the level of Coulomb's failure criterion, and that the sand arch obeys Coulomb's failure criterion. With these simplifications, they developed a stability criterion for the sand arch, discussed in Chapter 3. This criterion has been examined in relation to the behavior of sand arches in this investigation. The comparison is shown in table 53.**

The analysis was facilitated by the complex transformation shown in figure 60. A relationship between pressure drop per unit strength of flow and a dimensionless arch radius are developed and presented in figures 61 and 62.

Details of the theory are discussed in Appendix C. With the same approach, the permeability of the sandpack was estimated at the various stress levels during tests. These results are presented in figure 63 for each sand. The flow potential per unit strength of flow has also been calculated and presented in figure 64. A general behavior of all the sands at arch failure conditions is obtained from the dimensionless plots shown in figures 65 through 68. The figures show plots of dimensionless functions of pressure drop against dimensionless functions of stresses in the sandpack at failure conditions.

All these are reviewed in greater detail in the following sections.

8.2 Plots of Pressure Drop Versus Flow Rate

The pressure drop measured across the cell is plotted against flow rate for the tests with each sand, as shown in figures 21 through 26. Flow rate increased gradually to a maximum for a constant pressure drop. Owing to increasing skin effect, the rate tended to decline after reaching the maximum. Only the maximum steady flow rates are considered in these plots. All the plots are approximately linear at lower pressure drops. In most cases the plots deviate from linearity at higher pressure drop due to smaller rate

responses. This may be attributed to increased skin effect owing to fine deposition around the perforation. Similar plots were obtained by Holman (1975), Bratli, et al. (1979), and Penberthy, et al. (1979). The latter showed that the slope of the straight line portion increases with the uniformity coefficient of the sandpack.

Figure 21 shows the test results from the Gopher State frac sand. The slope of the line is lowest in test A I and increases through test A III. Fine migration increased as the tests were repeated. The major arch failure in test A III eliminated any flow barrier resulting from fine deposi tion around the arch. This resulted in the improved flow performance observed in test A IV. Figures 22 through 24 show pressure drop versus flow rate measured in the natural sand sample B. The tests conducted at 1500 psi and 2250 psi are shown in figures 22 and 23, respectively. Figure 22 shows that the plots for tests B VI and B VII are essentially parallel. This indicates that the average sandpack permeability was lower in test B VII than in B VI. In figure 23, skin effect increased in test B X compared to test B IX. The improvement in test B XII was due to backflowing before the test. Comparative plots of the test results from sand B are shown in figure 24.

Plots of pressure drop versus flow rate for tests conducted with natural sand sample C are shown in figure 25. The slope of the straight portion increased with the overbur den stress on the sandpack up to 1500 psi test stress level, but decreased at 2250 psi. Similar plots are made from test results with natural sand sample D, as shown in figure 26. In all cases, initial backflow before any test resulted in some flow improvement.

8.3 Plots of AP/Q Versus Q

Tipple (1973) showed that AP/Q is a measure of the skin effect. The inverse is a measure of the effective sandpack permeability as shown in Appendix C. Log-log plots of AP/Q versus Q for the different sands are shown in figures 27 through 30. The plots are shown on rectilinear coordinates in figures 31 through 33 for tests B II, C V, and C IX conducted at single pressure drops. The log-log plots are linear with a slope of -1 for a constant AP. The directions of increasing AP are indicated on the figures by arrows.

Figure 27 shows that arch failures in Sand A occurred at flow rates between 1.92 and 10.2 barrels per day, and at pressure drops between 33 psi and 123 psi. Arch failures in natural sand sample B did not occur at any flow rate lower than 1.5 barrels per day nor any pressure drop lower than 129 psi as shown in figure 63. The minimum flow rate

at which arch failure occurred in sand C was 0.7 barrel per day, and the highest flow rate was 36 barrels per day. Arch failures occurred in this sand at pressure drops between 20 psi and 357 psi as shown in figure 75. The only arch failure in sand D was at a flow rate of 2.7 barrels per day and a pressure drop of 137 psi.

8.4 Cavity Data

Cavity size is defined by the product of the observed average width and height of the cavity. This is plotted against flow rate and pressure drop in figures 38 through 41 and figure 42 through 45, respectively. The plots are approximately linear with positive slopes. Cavity sizes increased with flow rate and pressure drop. The maximum cavity sizes decreased as overburden stress increased, in the absence of a major arch failure.

8 . 5 Failure Analysis

Stresses prevailing in the natural sands just before arch failures are represented by Mohr's circles in figures **46 through 48. The figures also show comparisons with the failure envelopes of the sand. The three orthogonal stresses measured during the tests are assumed to be approximately equal to the principal stresses in the arch structures. This assumption may not be strictly correct as the principal**

directions would possibly change during the tests.

The figures present a valuable comparative analysis of the behavior of arch structures in the different sands. Arch failures in sands C and D occurred under conditions that would be considered 'safe' for the sand, as shown in **figures 47 and 48, respectively. This demonstrated that the arches were weaker than the sandpack under the conditions of failure.**

In contrast, figure 46 shows that the arch failure at 1500 psi and the major failure that occurred at 2250 psi stress level in sand B were at conditions that would also cause the sand to fail. The arches therefore had better strengths than the sandpacks under those conditions. There was no evidence of grain crushing accompanying failure in both cases. Sieve analyses of the produced sands following arch failures are compared with the original samples in figures 49 through 52. A higher-percentage of coarse grains was produced following the major arch failure in sand B as shown in figure 50. Minor arch failures in other cases occurred under conditions that would be 'safe' for the **s a n d .**

The vertical stress load at failure is plotted against flow rate and pressure drop in figures 53 through 55 and figures 56 through 58, respectively, for sands A, B, and C.

Enough failure data were not available for similar plots for sand D. The failure conditions are bracketed by the curves shown in each of figures 53 and 56, and figures 54 and 57 for sands A and B, respectively. The stress levels reach maximum levels as flow rate and pressure drop at failure increase. The level of stress in the sandpack for failure at a given flow rate or pressure drop ranges between a minimum and a maximum value corresponding to the lower and upper curves. In contrast, the failure conditions in sand C lie along a single curve as shown in figures 55 and 58. Both figures show that the stress reaches a minimum value for increasing flow rate and pressure drop at failure.

Maximum stress changes at failure in all the sands are plotted against the vertical stress load in figure 132. The coefficient of linear correlation of the line is less than 0.1. Highest stress changes were obtained during major arch failure. Points of major arch failures are indicated by arrows and connected by dashed lines.

8.6 **Theoretical Analysis**

In making a theoretical analysis of the behavior of the sand arch developed during the tests, a simple spherical arch geometry was assumed. The theory of poro-elasticity discussed in Appendix A did not readily lend itself to the

analysis because many of the various parameters involved were not accurately defined during the experiments. The analysis was therefore based on the simplified assumptions of Bratli, et al. (1979) and the theoretical development shown in Appendix C. Bratli and Risnes (1979) assumed that the spherical arch structure satisfied Lame's equations of radial and tangential stresses. Combining these with the pressures due to fluid flow, and assuming Coulomb's criterion of failure, they obtained a stability criterion of the arch. In practical units, this stability criterion can be expressed as :

$$
\frac{847.2\mu Q}{k_a R} \le 4\frac{(T+1)}{T} \text{ So tan } \alpha
$$
 (8.1)
where μ = fluid viscosity (cp)
 Q = flow rate (bbls/day)
 k_a = arch permeability (md)
R = radius of the arch (inches)
So = shear strength of the sand (psi)
 T = 2(tan²α-1), α = π /4 + ϕ /2
 ϕ = internal friction angle of the sand.

In Appendix C, by making a complex transformation shown in figure 59, an approximate relationship has been developed between the arch radius, the ratio of sandpack

permeability to arch permeability, and the pressure drop across the cell. The relationship is only approximate because the effect of the casing simulator is neglected by assuming a circular cross-section of the cell. From this relationship the effects of arch radius on the pressure drop have been presented graphically in figures 60 and 61. In these figures, the abscissa is a dimensionless arch radius r, defined as the ratio of the arch radius to the diameter of the cell. The ordinate is the pressure drop per unit strength of the source and sink at steady state. In practical units:

$$
\frac{\Delta P}{S} = \frac{\Delta P}{70.6Q\mu} = (\frac{\Delta P}{Q})(\frac{Kh}{70.6\mu})
$$
\n(8.2)

where AP is the pressure drop in psi Q is the flow rate in barrels per day k is the average sandpack permeability in millidarcies h is the average flow height in feet y is the fluid viscosity in centipoise and S is the strength of the source and the sink

From equation (8.2):

$$
\overline{k} = \left[\frac{\Delta P}{S}\right] \left[\frac{70.6\,\mu}{h}\right] \left[\frac{1}{\Delta P/Q}\right]
$$
 (8.3)

The average permeability of the sandpack was evaluated at early flow times when the arch permeability was essentially the same as the sandpack permeability (k /k = 1**). P & Since the initial cavity radius in all the tests varied between % and % inch, the dimensionless arch radius at the time of cavity formation was assumed to vary between 0.0156 and 0.03125. (The diameter of the cell is 16 inches) From figure 134 :**

For
$$
r = 0.0156
$$
, $\frac{\Delta P}{S} = 19.38$
and for $r = 0.03125$, $\frac{\Delta P}{S} = 16.57$.

An average value of $\frac{\Delta P}{S}$ of 17.98 was used in evaluating **equation (8.3). Assuming a fluid viscosity of 1.9cp, and an average flow height of 24 ft, equation (8.3) can be expressed as ;**

$$
\overline{k} = \frac{100.49}{\Delta P/Q} \tag{8.4}
$$

AP/Q values were determined from the slope of the straight line portion of the AP versus Q plots.

The values of $\frac{\Delta P}{S}$ at arch failure were determined from **the experimental data. With the corresponding cavity size at failure, the ratio of the sandpack permeability to the arch permeability was obtained from figure 60 or 61. These are shown in table 54.**

In order to complete this table, the shear strengths of the sand samples were determined from their failure envelopes. Estimate of the shear strength of the Gopher State frac sand was obtained from the failure envelope of similar 20-40 and 80-100 mesh Ottawa sand reported by Bratli, et al. (1970). The failure envelopes of the natural sands show that a single internal friction angle, ϕ , cannot be used to des**cribe the sands. As a result, a range of values that contain the minimum and maximum points on the curves were used. A complete calculation of the parameters of equation (8.1) for the conditions of failure during the tests is shown in table 54. According to the criterion, a failure should occur when :**

$$
\frac{847.2 \mu Q}{k_p D} \ge 4 \frac{T+1}{T} \text{ So tan } \alpha \qquad (8.5)
$$

where r is a dimensionless arch radius, and D is the cell diameter.

The table shows that this criterion of failure was satisfied in almost all cases of arch failure with all the sands. The criterion did not distinguish between failure and nonfailure satisfactorily, however. In many cases, the criterion for failure was met but failure did not occur. This difficulty is caused by the deviation of the true failure envelope from Bratli and Risnes' assumption of the simplified straight-

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line Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion, which is considerable in some stress ranges. Values of α and S_{α} required by **Bratli and Risnes' criterion are not defined by the true envelope.**

The approach used in evaluating sandpack permeability in this analysis was also used to determine the sandpack permeability at different stress levels. The variation of dimensionless sandpack permeability with pseudo effective stress is plotted as shown in figure 62 for all sands. The results agree with published permeability variation with stress load in the literature. Similar results were obtained by Fatt (1953), Dobrynin (1962), and Vairogs, et al. **(1972). The approach used in the analysis can therefore be justified.**

Figure 63 shows equi-potential lines around the perforation calculated from equations (Cl.4) and Cl.7) of Appendix C. The elliptical or elongated shapes of the cavities formed during the tests can be explained as a reflection of the flow potential around the perforation as shown in the figure. The assumption of a spherical arch is only for the analytical convenience.

8 **.7 Dimensionless Pressure Drop Versus Dimensionless Stress**

As discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.2.1, the net effective stress in a reservoir formation is the difference

between the overburden stress and the reservoir pore pressure. In the model used in this investigation, pore pres**sure was not measured. The effective stress is considered to be the overburden stress less a certain fraction of the** pressure drop: $\sigma_{effective} = \sigma_{ob} - A(P_{in} - P_{out})$.

For consistency with the previous investigators, the value of the constant A is assumed to be unity and the outlet pressure is neglected in relation to the inlet pressure. The resulting function $(\sigma_1 - P_{in})$ is called "pseudo **effective stress" in this thesis. Dimensionless pressure drop functions are plotted against dimensionless stress** functions in figures 65 through 68. The dimensionless **quantities are defined as follows :**

(i)
$$
\Delta P_{D}' = \frac{\Delta P \cdot k_{max} R}{847.2Q\mu}
$$

\n(ii) $\Delta P_{D} = \frac{\Delta P \cdot k_{cor} R}{847.2Q\mu}$ (8.6)
\n(iii) $\sigma_{eD} = \frac{\sigma_1 - P_{in}}{\sigma_1}$
\nand (iv) $\sigma_{fD} = \frac{\sigma_1 - P_{in}}{\sigma_1 - \Delta \sigma_{failure}}$.

k is the estimated maximum permeability of the sand- max ^ pack at any time during the tests in millidarcies, as shown in figure 63.

- k_{corr} is the corrected sandpack permeability adjusted for the prevailing pseudo-effective stress at failure (also in millidarcies).
- R is the average arch radius (inches) defined by the square root of the product of average maximum height and width of the cavity.

Q is the flow rate in barrels per day.

y is the fluid viscosity in centipoise.

 ΔP is the pressure drop across the cell (psi).

 (σ_1-P_{in}) is the pseudo effective stress defined above (psi). and $\Delta \sigma_{\tt failure}$ is the maximum change in sand stress when arch failed.

A plot of ΔP ['] against σ _e⁰ is shown in figure 60. The failure data points satisfy the criterion:

$$
\Delta P_{n} \geq 5.023 e^{-6.7986 \sigma} e^{D}
$$
 (8.7)

83% of the data satisfy the condition:

$$
\Delta P_D' \ge 984.08e^{-12.015\sigma}eD
$$
 (8.8)

In figure 66, $\Delta P^{}_{\rm D}$ is plotted against $\sigma^{}_{\rm eD}$. The failure criterion established from this plot is

$$
\Delta P_D \geq 15.56 e^{-8.638\sigma} eD \tag{8.9}
$$

The dimensionless data points show a considerable scatter

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on the semi-log plot. In figure 67 the linear correlation coefficient of the data is -0.69, and the regression line is defined by:

$$
\sigma_{eD} = 0.6426 \Delta P_D^{-0.0778} \tag{8.10}
$$

for all conditions of failure

$$
\sigma_{eD} \geq 0.4106\Delta P_{D}^{-0.1515}
$$

or $\Delta P_{D} \geq .002807\sigma_{eD}^{-6.601}$ (8.11)

The dimensionless stress function, σ_{fD} , is plotted against the dimensionless pressure drop, ΔP^D in figure 68. The **regression line has been determined without considering the failure data resulting from water production, and the subsequent failure after desaturating (tests A III and A IV) The line is defined by**

$$
\sigma_{\rm fD} = 0.6868\Delta P_{\rm D}^{-0.07935} \quad , \tag{8.12}
$$

and the coefficient of correlation is -0.63. Failures occurred when:

(i)
$$
\sigma_{fD} \ge 0.5224\Delta P_D^{-0.1135}
$$

or (ii) $\Delta P_D \ge 0.003277\sigma_{fD}^{-8.8106}$ (8.13)

While accurate estimate of the in situ shear strength

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of cohesion which is required in using Bratli and Risnes' criterion may pose a problem the foregoing criteria do not require knowledge of formation cohesion. The application of these criteria to field data will therefore not involve the additional expense of soil testing.

Although none of the criteria has been tested in the field, equation (8 **.**10**) is believed to be superior for practical application. The parameters involved except the arch radius, R, are usually available from reservoir and production data. The arch radius may be estimated by the approach used in Appendix C.**

The present failure criterion therefore has advantages over the criterion of Bratli and Risnes.

Chapter 9

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

9.1 Summary

Wellbore environment in a producing oil reservoir was simulated in the laboratory to study the behavior of arch structures formed around perforations by unconsolidated natural sands. The work was an extension of the sandcontrol studies carried out by Tippie (1973), Cleary (1978), Melvan (1978), and Wood (1979) using Gopher State frac sand. Producing natural sand formations were simulated inside a cylindrical pressure cell at overburden stresses of 500, 750, 1000, and 1800/2250 psi. Three natural sand samples with different physical and mechanical properties, but almost identical grain size distributions were used. X-ray diffraction analysis showed that about 1% by weight of each sand was composed of traces of various clay minerals. Additional properties of the sands were obtained from triaxial tests conducted at various confining pressures from 50 psito 2000 **psi.**

A mixture of equal parts of 20-40 and 80-100 standard US mesh Gopher State frac sand was used for a series of tests conducted at 1500 psi overburden stress. The tests formed a contact between the previous and the present

studies. The stability of a sand arch in a formation pro**ducing water was also examined with this sand.**

In all other tests, kerosene was flowed through a stressed sandpack with "irreducible" level of water saturation. Stresses in the sandpack around the perforation measured in three orthogonal directions, were continuously monitored during the tests. The flow rate and pressures at the inlet and outlet of the cell were also continuously recorded.

Cavities formed around the perforation subsequent to arch formations. The growth and collapse of any cavity reflected the behavior of the arch that generated it. Constant visual observation of cavity and sand behavior around the perforations was achieved through a plexiglass viewing area. The relations between measured parameters and arch stability were analyzed. The stresses that resulted in failure of arch structures were compared with the failure envelope of the sand. The conditions at failure were compared with the stability criterion proposed by Bratli, et al. (1979). Dimensionless relationships between the various failure parameters for all the sands were presented graphical ly. From all these, the following conclusions are drawn on the behavior of arches and cavities in natural and Gopher State frac sands under the conditions of this study.

9.2 Conclus ions

- 1**. Sand arches formed around the perforation as a consequence of the stresses in the sandpack, and the cohesive ness of the sand.**
- **2. Cavities developed due to the fluid drag force on the loose sand within stable arch structures. The size of a cavity reflected the inner radius of the arch that generated it.**
- **3. In general, cavity size increased with respect to the flow rate and the pressure drop across the cell, and decreased with respect to the overburden stress.**
- **4. The cavities extended upwards during growth as a result of gravity.**
- **5. Arch instabilities developed due to:**
	- **(i) high flow rates**
	- **(ii) high pressure drop across the cell**
	- **(iii) flow restriction resulting from the deposition of fines around the perforation**
		- **(iv) structural weaknesses of the arch due to repeated tests**
			- **(v) sudden operational changes that might have caused rate and pressure surges**
		- **(vi) a combination of two or more of the above.**
- 6 **. Cavity enlargement followed a minor arch failure. Much bigger cavities developed after major arch failures.**
- **7. Sand arches would not develop with a funicular water saturation. Existing stable arches collapsed and sand produced continuously as water flowed out of the sandpack .**
- 8 **. The criterion of arch failure in all the sands was:**

$$
\frac{\Delta P \cdot k_{cor}R}{847.2Q\mu} \geq .002807 \left(\frac{\sigma_1 - p_{in}}{\sigma_1} \right)^{-6.601}
$$

- **9. Natural sand sample D developed the most stable arches. Natural sand sample C formed arches that were very stable at 1000, 1500, and 1800 psi stress levels, but were rather unstable at 500 psi and 750 psi stress** levels. Arches in sand B were less stable, but re**stabilized more readily after arch failures at all stress levels.**
- **10. The sand arch structures were weaker at low stress levels (500 and 750 psi) and stronger at high stress levels (1500 and 2250 psi) than the sand bodies.**

Chapter 10

SUGGESTIONS

10.1 Suggestions for Practical Application

The following suggestions based on the findings of this study should assist operators in dealing with sand problems.

- **1. Reservoir formation sand with adequate grain-to grain stress, and cohesiveness, will form sand arches** spanning over perforations when the wellbore is per**forated under proper conditions permitting a stress relief. Formation cohesiveness may be from either the clay content or a pendular water saturation around the wellbore. Arches developed at all the stress levels of tests in this study.**
- **2. The arch structure can give a sandfree production in reservoirs that will normally be expected to produce sand. Stable arches were formed at a flow rate of 37 barrels per day per perforation in the natural sand sample C .**
- **3. The stability of the sand arch will depend on the formation overburden stress and the properties of the sand. In this study more stable arches were formed at 1500-, 1800-,and 2250-psi stress levels.**

4. The failure criterion for practical application is of the form;

$$
\frac{\Delta P \cdot kR}{Q\mu} \geq \alpha \left(\frac{\sigma_{effective}}{\sigma_{overburden}} \right)^{-\beta}
$$

where a and 3 **are constants.**

The values of α and β should be established from test **wells in a field. The parameters involved are readily available from reservoir and production data. (The arch radius R can be estimated by the approach used in Appendix C.)**

- **5. Arch instability can be minimized by avoiding rapid operational changes like sudden opening and closing of flow valve which induces rate and pressure surges.**
- 6 **. Skin buildup by the deposition of 'fines' around a stable arch may cause failure of the arch. Such failures should be anticipated if the formation con**tains a high percentage of 'fines'. The arch should **restabilize readily. Improved flow performance may also occur following such restabilization.**
- **7. Higher flow rates may be reached with a stable arch if drawdown is gradual.**
- 8 **. Workover operations involving the injection of fluids will weaken a stable arch and might cause arch failure when flow resumes. Such workover operations should be**

kept to a minimum when sand curtailment is entrusted to the formation of stable arches.

- **9. Stable sand arches cannot exist with funicular water saturation around the wellbore. Conventional sand control is recommended if there is a possibility of a future water cut.**
- **10. The conditions for arches to form in an oil well are best achieved if the mud is slightly underweighted when perforating. This ensures a stress relief necessary for arch formation. This procedure also eliminates skin effect due to mud filtration which may cause arch instability.**

10.2 Suggestions for Further Research

The following are areas that might be considered in future research work:

- **1. A comprehensive high pressure bleed-off test with varying outlet pressure.**
- **2. A numerical simulation of the pressure cell model. (A groundwork for this is included in Appendix A through Appendix C.)**
- **3. A two-perforation flow system showing flow interference effects on arch stability.**
- **4. Arch stability in inclined wellbores.**
- **5. Arch stability in a 2-phase gas-liquid system.**
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APPENDIX A

A 1 EQUATION OF PORO-ELASTICITY

The following describes the general elastic stressstrain behavior of a porous, permeable stressed material, subjected to changing pore pressure. This subject was discussed by Biot in 1941 and 1955, and by Geertsma in 1957 and 1973. Lubinski (1954) drew attention to the similarity between this and the subject of thermo-elasticity.

In a poroelastic material, Hooke's Law can be expressed as :

$$
\tau_{ij} = 2G (e_{ij} + \frac{v}{1-2v} e \delta_{ij}) - (1-\beta)P\delta_{ij}
$$
 (A1.1)

This is similar to the thermoelastic relation:

$$
\tau_{ij} = 2G(e_{ij} + \frac{v}{1-2v}e^{i}i_{j}) - \frac{2G(1+v)}{1-2v} \alpha T \delta_{ij}
$$
\nwhere
\n $e = e_{ii}$ (dilation)
\n $P =$ pore pressure
\n $G =$ Bulk shear modulus
\n $v =$ Poisson's ratio
\n $\delta_{ij} =$ Kronecker delta
\n $\beta =$ cr/cb - the ratio of the compressibilities of
\nrock matrix and rock bulk
\n $\alpha =$ thermal coefficient of material
\nand $T =$ temperature of the material.

Equilibrium conditions are given by

$$
\tau_{ij, j} + Fi = 0 \tag{A1.2}
$$

where Fi denotes components of the body force. The components of strains can be expressed in terms of displacements, u_i :

$$
e_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}(u_{i,j} + u_{j,i})
$$
 (A1.3)

$$
e = U_{k,k} \qquad (A1.4)
$$

From equation (Al.l) through (A1.4):

$$
G(u_{i,kk} + u_{k,ik}) + \frac{2Gv}{1-2v}e, i - (1-\beta)P, i + Fi = 0
$$
 (A1.5)

Also, by combining equations (Al.l) and (A1.2);

2G (e_{ij,j} +
$$
\frac{v}{1-2v}
$$
e,i) - (1- β) P,i + Fi = 0

Differentiating this and combining with equation (A1.3) gives :

$$
\frac{2G(1-\nu)}{1-2\nu} e, ii - (1-\beta)P, ii + Fi, i = 0
$$
 (A1.6)

Equations (A1.5) and (A1.6) are the general forms of poroelastic equation.

A 2. Solution of Poroelastic Equation

Substituting equation (A1.4) in equation (A1.5):

$$
G(u_{i,kk} + u_{k,ik}) + \frac{2Gv}{1-2v}u_{k,ki} - (1-\beta)P, i + Fi = 0
$$
 (A2.1)

By expressing the displacements in terms of a displacement function 4**?, such that**

$$
u_i = \Psi, i
$$
 and $e = \Psi, kk$

and expressing the body force as a potential function, $-\Phi$, i, **it can be shown from equation (A2.1) that:**

$$
\psi_{\text{ikk}} = \frac{(1-\beta)(1-2\nu)}{2G(1-2\nu)} (P + \Phi), \quad i
$$
 (A2.2)

Integrating equation (A2.2):

$$
\psi_{\gamma k k} = \frac{(1-\beta)(1-2\nu)}{2G(1-\nu)} \quad (P + \Phi) + constant.
$$

A particular solution to the differential equation is obtained by solving the Poisson's equation:

$$
\Psi_{\gamma k k} = \frac{(1-\beta)(1-2\nu)}{2G(1-\nu)} (P + \Phi)
$$

In terms of gravitational potential:

$$
\psi = \frac{(1-\beta)(1-2\nu)}{4\pi G(1-\nu)} \frac{\int \int \int \frac{P+\Phi}{r} dV}{v}
$$

A general solution is obtained by solving the equation: e,^^ = 0 **which describes the displacement field in solid bodies. Thus a complete solution is obtained by adding the general solution to solid body elasticity to the particular solution above.**

A 3. Equilibrium of a Spherical Arch From equation (A1.5): G $u_{i, kk}$ + (G+ λ)e, i - (1- β)P, i + Fi = 0 (A3.1) where $\lambda = \frac{2G\nu}{1-2\nu}$

Assuming a solution in the form of:

$$
u_{i} = x_{i} \psi(r) \tag{A3.2}
$$

where ψ is a displacement potential assumed to be a **function of the radius of the sphere alone. Substituting equation (A3.2) in (A3.1) and neglecting the body forces:**

$$
(\lambda + 2G) \left(\psi'' + \frac{4}{\gamma}\psi'\right) - \frac{(1-\beta)}{\gamma}P' = 0
$$
\n
$$
\psi' = \frac{d\psi}{dr}, \quad \psi'' = \frac{d^2\psi}{dr^2} \quad \text{and} \quad P' = \frac{dP}{dr}
$$
\n(A3.3)

The general solution of equation (A3.3) is of the form:

$$
\psi(r) = A_1 + \frac{A_2}{r^3} + \frac{(1-\beta)}{\lambda + 2G} \psi_0(r)
$$

where $\psi_0(r) = \frac{1}{r^3} \int_{r_1}^r P(r) r^2 dr$

Ai and *Az* **are constants.**

Differentiating equation (A3.2), we have

$$
u_{i,j} = \delta_{ij} + x_i \psi^{i} \frac{x_j}{r}
$$

and
$$
u_{i,j} = 3\psi + r\psi'
$$

Substituting these in equation $(A1.1)$:

$$
\tau_{ij} = 2G(\psi \delta_{ij} + \frac{x_i x_j}{r} \psi') + \lambda (3\psi + r\psi') - (1-\beta)P\delta_{ij}
$$

The radial and tangential stresses are:

$$
\sigma_r = \tau_{ij} v_i v_j
$$
 and $\sigma_{\theta} = \tau_{ij} n_i n_j$ respectively.
\nwhere v_i and v_j are unit vectors
\n n_i and n_j are unit vectors normal to
\n v_i and v_j respectively.
\nNoting that $v_i = \frac{x_i}{r}$ in the radial direction,

$$
n_{\mathbf{i}}n_{\mathbf{i}} = 1 \text{ and } n_{\mathbf{i}}x_{\mathbf{i}} = 0, \text{ we have}
$$

$$
\sigma_{\mathbf{r}} = (3\lambda + 2\mathbf{G})\psi + (\lambda + 2\mathbf{G})\mathbf{r}\psi' - (1-\beta)P
$$
 (A3.4)

and $\sigma_{\theta} = (3\lambda + 2G)\psi + \lambda r\psi' - (1-\beta)P$ (A3.5)

Substituting for ψ and ψ' :

$$
\sigma_{\mathbf{r}} = (3\lambda + 2G)A_1 - \frac{4G}{r^3}A_2 - \frac{4G(1-\beta)}{\lambda + 2G} \psi_0
$$

and $\sigma_{\theta} = (3\lambda + 2G)A_1 + \frac{2G}{r^3}A_2 + \frac{2G(1-\beta)}{\lambda + 2G}(\psi_0 - P)$

The constants Ai and *Az* **are eliminated by substituting proper boundary conditions.**

APPENDIX B

EQUATION OF FLOW

B 1. Three Dimensional Flow Equation

Suppose that a source and a sink in a cylinder are located at point (r_0, ϕ_0, z_0) and (r_1, ϕ_1, z_1) , respectively, **defined in a cylindrical coordinate. The Green's function of the interior of the cylinder is obtained by a series solution of the form:**

$$
\nabla^2 \psi = -4\pi \delta_0 (r_0, \phi_0, z_0) + 4\pi \delta_1 (r_1, \phi_1, z_1) \quad (B1.1)
$$

where δ_0 and δ_1 are both zero except at points

 (r_0, ϕ_0, z_0) and (r_1, ϕ_1, z) , respectively.

Suppose there are no flow across the top, bottom and radial boundaries of the cylinder:

$$
\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = 0
$$

$$
\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[Jm \frac{\pi \beta m s r}{r e} \right] \right\}_{r = re} = 0
$$

and

The solution to equation (Bl.l) is of the form (Morse and Fashbach, 1953):

$$
\psi = \sum_{\text{mns}}^{\infty} A_{\text{mns}} \cos\left[\ln(\phi - \phi_0)\right] \cos\frac{n\pi z}{\ell} J_m\left(\frac{\pi \beta m s r}{r_e}\right)
$$

$$
-\sum_{\text{mns}}^{\infty} B_{\text{mns}} \cos\left[\ln(\phi - \phi_1)\right] \cos\frac{n\pi z}{\ell} J_m\left(\frac{\pi \beta m s r}{r_e}\right) \tag{B1.2}
$$

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where Jm(x) is the Bessel function of the first kind.

With the boundary condition we can obtain values of the constants Amns and Bmns:

$$
Amns = \frac{G_2 \cos \left[m(\phi_0 - \phi_1) \right] - G_1}{\sin^2 m(\phi_0 - \phi_1)}
$$

and

Bmns =
$$
\frac{G_1 \cos \left[m(\phi_0 - \phi_1) \right] - G_2}{\sin^2 m(\phi_0 - \phi_1)}
$$

where

$$
G_1 = \frac{16}{m^2 \ell \left(1 + \frac{n^2 \text{re}^2}{\ell^2 \beta^2 \text{ms}}\right)} \frac{1}{\text{J} \cdot \text{m}^2} \left(\pi \beta_{\text{ms}}\right) \left[\cos \frac{n \pi z_0}{\ell} \text{J} \cdot \frac{\pi \beta_{\text{ms} r_0}}{r e}\right]
$$

- cos m(\phi_0 - \phi_1) cos $\frac{n \pi z}{\ell}$ J m $\left(\frac{\pi \beta_{\text{ms}} r_1}{r e}\right)$

and

$$
G_2 = \frac{16}{m^2 \ell \left(1 + \frac{n^2 r_e^2}{ms}\right)} \frac{1}{\text{Jm2} \left(\pi \beta_{\text{mS}}\right)} \left[\cos m(\phi_0 - \phi_1) \cos \frac{n \pi z_0}{\ell} \text{Jm} \left(\frac{\pi \beta_{\text{mS}} r_o}{r_e}\right)\right]
$$

- $\cos \frac{n \pi z_1}{\ell} \text{Jm} \left(\frac{\pi \beta_{\text{mS}} r_i}{r_e}\right)$

B 2. Two Dimensional Steady-State Flow Equation

The flow equation discussed in appendix B 1 can be greatly simplified assuming a two-dimensional steady-state plane flow system. Consider a bounded stratum of porous medium, and suppose that an incompressible fluid of constant density, ρ , is flowing through at a steady state **condition. Suppose also that there is no flow across the**

boundaries and the vertical direction x_3 is also a principal **axis of permeability. The components of flow velocity** in the three principal directions of permeability x_1 , x_2 and x_3 , are obtained from Darcy's law:

$$
v_1 = -\frac{\rho}{\mu} k_1 \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_1}, \quad v_2 = -\frac{\rho}{\mu} k_2 \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_2} \quad \text{and} \quad v_3 = -\frac{\rho}{\mu} k_3 \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_3} \qquad (B \ 2.1)
$$

where k_1 , k_2 and k_3 are the permeabilities in

x i , Xz and x 3 **directions,**

and 0 **is the flow potential defined as :**

$$
\Phi = \frac{f \cdot P_2}{P_1} \frac{dp}{\rho} + g \Delta x_3 \tag{B 2.2}
$$

Pi is a reference pressure at a datum and Pz is the pressure at any point $-\Delta x_3$ from the datum. **Assuming no flow across the boundary, the component of** v elocity $v_3 = 0$, and

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}p}{\mathrm{d}x_3} = -\rho g
$$

from continuity equation:

$$
\frac{\partial v_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial x_2} = 0 \tag{B 2.3}
$$

Substituting equation (B 2.1) in (B 2.3)

$$
k_1 \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x_1^2} + k_2 \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x_2^2} = 0
$$
 (B 2.4)

or
$$
\frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial y^2} = 0
$$
 (B 2.5)

where x and y are transformed coordinates:

$$
x = x_1 \text{ and } y = x_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1}{k_2}}
$$

The xi-xz and x-y coordinate systems are identical in an isotropic medium where $k_1 = k_2 (=k_3)$. In a cylindrical **coordinate the Laplace equation (B 2.5) can be expressed as :**

$$
\frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial p}{\partial \phi^2} = 0
$$

or
$$
\frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial r^1} + \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial \phi^2} = 0
$$
 (B 2.6)

where $r' = 1nr$.

Equation (B 2.6) may be solved with the proper boundary conditions by numerical methods of either relaxation or iteration.

APPENDIX C

EFFECTS OF ARCH/CAVITY ON FLOW

Consider that the cell of a unit radius whose cross section is shown in figure 133 has a point source and a sink at points B and D respectively. Consider also that spherical arches of radii r₁ and r₂ are formed at B and D, **respectively. Suppose that cavities are developed at both the inlet and outlet by fluid flow. The limiting** radii of the cavities will be r₁ and r₂ at points B and **D,respectively.**

Consider the complex transformation of the cell cross section in the z-plane into the upper half of the w-plane. The linear fractional transformation of the unit circle in the z-plane into a circular band of infinite radius in the w-plane is of the form

$$
z = \frac{\alpha W + \beta}{\gamma W + \delta} \tag{C 1.1}
$$

where $z = x + iy$; $w = u + iv$

 $i = \sqrt{-1}$; α , β , γ , and δ are constants. **In figure 133, (i) point A(0,0) in the z-plane is mapped into point A ' (0,1) in the w-plane. (ii) point C(0,1) in the z-plane is mapped into point** $C'(\infty,0)$ in the w-plane, and

(iii) point E(0, -1) in the z-plane is mapped into point E'(0,0) in the w-plane. **Substituting these point mapping and solving for a, 3, Y**

and Ô , equation (C 1.1) becomes:

$$
z = \frac{w - i}{1 - iw} \tag{C 1.2}
$$

By simple manipulation, equation (C 1.2) can be expressed as $\ddot{}$ $\ddot{\$

$$
w = \frac{z+i}{1+i z} = \frac{2x}{x^2 + (1-y)^2} - \frac{i(x^2 + y^2 - 1)}{x^2 + (1-y)^2}
$$
 (C 1.3)

From equation (C 1.3):

u =
$$
\frac{2x}{x^2 + (1-y)^2}
$$
 and v = $\frac{(x^2 + y^2 - 1)}{x^2 + (1-y)^2}$ (C 1.4)

The complex potential Ω because of a combination of source **and sink in the w-plane can be obtained from any standard text book of complex variable (ref. 39):**

$$
\Omega = -\operatorname{S1n}(w-1) + \operatorname{S1n}(w+1) \tag{C 1.5}
$$

where S is the strength of the source and sink:

$$
S = \frac{q\mu}{4\pi kh}
$$

where q is the flow rate

y is the fluid viscosity

k is the average sandpack permeability

and h is the average height of flow.

Equation (C 1.5) can also be expressed as;

$$
\Omega = - \sin\left[\frac{(u+1)^2 + v^2}{(u-1)^2 + v^2}\right] - i \operatorname{Stan}^{-1}\left[\frac{2v}{u^2 + v^2 - 1}\right] \qquad (C \ 1.6)
$$

(Morse and Feshbach, page 1232)

Thus, the potential function Φ and the stream function Ψ **are given by**

$$
\Phi = -\sin\left[\frac{(u+1)^2 + v^2}{(u-1)^2 + v^2}\right] \tag{C 1.7}
$$

and

$$
\Psi = - S \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{2v}{u^2 + v^2 - 1} \right]
$$
 (C 1.8)

The potential function Φ_1 at point G at the inlet sandface **can be obtained by combing equations (C 1.4) and (C 1.7), and substituting the transformed values when x=l-ri and** $y=0$., $(0 \le r_1 \le 1)$

$$
\Phi_1(z) = -\sin\left[\frac{(4-4r_1+r_1^2)^2 + (2r_1-r_1^2)^2}{r_1^4 + (2r_1-r_1^2)^2}\right]
$$

Similarly, the potential function 02 **at point F at the outlet sandface can be obtained by combining equations (C 1.4) and (C 1.8), and substituting the transformed values when** $x = -1 + r_2$, and $y=0$., $(0 < r_2 < 1)$

$$
\Phi_2(z) = -\sin\left[\frac{r_2^2 + (2r_2 - r_2^2)^2}{(4r_2 - 4 - r_2^2) + (2r_2 - r_2^2)^2}\right]
$$

The potential difference between points G and F at the inlet and outlet of the cell is :

$$
\Phi_{1}(Z) - \Phi_{2}(Z) = -\operatorname{SIn}\left[\frac{4 - 4r_{1} + r_{1}^{2}}{r_{1}^{2} + (2r_{1} - r_{1}^{2})^{2}} + \operatorname{SIn}\left[\frac{r_{2}^{2} + (2r_{2} - r_{2}^{2})^{2}}{4r_{2} - 4 - r_{2}^{2})^{2} + (2r_{2} - r_{2}^{2})^{2}}\right] \right]
$$
\n
$$
= \Delta P
$$
\n(C 1.9)

Two cases are considered in completing the above analysis: Case 1. Let $r_1 = r_2 = r$

where r is the radius of the arch. By substituting this condition and simplifying equation (C 1.9) becomes :

$$
\frac{\Delta P}{S} = - 2 \ln \left[\frac{r^2 (r^2 - 2r + 2)}{2(1 - r)(2 - r)^2} \right]
$$
 (C 1.10)

Case. 2. Let the effective cavity radius r2 **at the flow outlet be a function of the ratio of the sandpack permea**bility, k_n to the arch permeability, k_n. **P &** Suppose $r_1 = r$; and $r_2 = r e^{-(k_p/k_a - 1)}$ **where r is the arch radius.**

By substituting these in equation (C 1.9), we can express $\frac{\Delta P}{S}$ as a function of the arch radius, and the permeability ratio, k_p / k_a

$$
\frac{\Delta P}{S} = f(r, k_p / k_a).
$$

 $\begin{array}{cc} \text{TABLE} & 1 \end{array}$

Sand Sieve Analysis

TABLE 2

X-RAY DIFFRACTION MINERAL PERCENTAGES

TABLE 4 \overline{a}

TEST NUMBER: AI

TEST NUMBER: AI In those world in the

TEST NUMBER: AII

TEST NUMBER: AII

SAND: Gopher State
20-40/80-100 US Mesh

EXPERIMENTAL DATA

STRESS LEVEL: 1500 ps1

 $\bar{\bar{1}}$

 \bar{V}

597

 $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$

TEST NUMBER: AII

 \mathbf{r}

 \bar{t}

 $T - 2299$

TEST NUMBER: AII $\label{eq:4} \begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{r} \\ \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{r} & \mathbf$

TEST NUMBER: AIV

TEST NUMIBER: BT $\label{eq:3} \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right) \right) \, d\mu$

 $T-2299$ 119

TEST NUMBER: BII (Drawdown Test) TABLE 10

TEST NUMBER: BII (Drawdown Test)

SAND: Natural
Sample B

STRESS LEVEL: 750 ps1

TEST NUMBER: BIII

 $T - 2299$

TEST NUMBERITY

 $T - 2299$

TEST NUMBER: BV

тавье 13

 \rm{TABLF} 1/3(cont'd)

TEST NUMBER: BV

TABLE IS (cont'd)

TEST NUMBER: BV

TEST NUMBER: BVI

ТАВLЕ 14

TABLE 14 (cont'd)

TEST NUMBER: BVI

TABLE 14(cont'd)

TEST NUMBER: BVI

 $T - 2299$

TEST NUMBER: BVII

TABLE 15

130

TABLE 15(cont'd)

TEST NUMBER: BVII

TEST NUMBER: BVII

TEST NUMBER: BVIII (Strees Loading)

тавье 16

 $T - 2299$

TABLE 17

134

TEST NUMBER: BIX

 $T - 2299$

TEST NUMBER: BX **ТАВLЕ 18**

 $T - 2299$

TABLE 10(cont'd)

137

TABLE 19

TEST NUMBER: BXI

$T - 2299$

 $T - 2299$

TEST NUMBER: BXII тлві, 20

139

TABLE 20(cont'd)

TEST NUMBER: BXII

TEST NUMBER: CI

SAND: Natural
Sample C

STRESS LEVEL: 500 psi

TEST NUMBER: CH

SAND: Natural
Sample C

STRESS LEVEL: 750 psi

FEST NUMBER: CH

SAND: Natural
Sample C

EXPERIMENTAL DATA

660

960

 $1:20$

STRESS LEVEL: 1000 psi

SAND: Natural
Sumple C

 \downarrow

STRESS LEVEL: 1000 psi

TABLE 24

TEST NUMBER: CIV

TEST NUMBER: CIV

SAND: Natural
Sample C

STRESS LEVEL: 1500 psi

TEST NUMBER: CIV

SAND: Natural
Sample C

EXPERIMENTAL DATA

STRESS LEVEL: 1500 psi

TEST NUMBER: CV

 $\frac{1}{2}$

TEST NUMBER: CV

SAND: Natural
Sample C

STRESS LEVEL: 1500 psi

Stopped pneumatic pump. 9000 psi hydraulie line **Stopped fluid pump** Rams "knocking" Comment pressure. 38888888 $\frac{695}{695}$ $\frac{1}{\sigma}$ anses
1388888 $\mathbf{I}% _{0}\left(\mathbf{I}_{1}\right)$ $\mathbf{1}=\mathbf{1}$ $\Gamma = 1$ \mathbf{R} Pseudo
Effective Stress **CALCULATED DATA** $\frac{1}{2}$ 865
855 a a a a a a a a
3 3 3 3 3 4 5 6 9 53232586
23333866 និន្ទនននន្ទន្ទ esesses 1125
1315
1475
1535
1545
1545 1255
1345 $5\overline{3}$ $\mathbf{1}$ \mathbf{r} $\mathbf{u} = 0$ (psi/bbls/dny) \overline{Vb} $\begin{array}{c} 71.67 \\ 12.42 \\ 7.63 \\ 7.92 \\ 7.92 \\ 7.93 \\ 6.83 \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} 9.58 \\ 10.85 \\ 1.71 \\ 12.58 \\ 13.23 \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} 16.91 \\ 18.75 \\ 20.59 \\ 20.79 \\ 20.79 \\ 20.79 \\ 21.88 \end{array}$ 14.44 22.34
 22.83 $\bar{\mathbf{r}}$ $\bar{\bar{t}}$ $\mathbf{E}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{E})$ $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t} - \mathbf{t} - \mathbf{t} - \mathbf{t}$ (psi) 5588888 20.5
20.5
20.5
20.5
20.5 21.0
 21.0 $\dot{=}$ \mathbf{t} $\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{t}=\mathbf{0}$ $\mathbf{I}=\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{I}=\mathbf{I}=\mathbf{I}$ Flow Rate, Q $(Mu/s/Day)$ 0.5556645
0.45556645 2.14
 1.89
 1.75
 1.63
 1.42
 1.42 1.33
 1.128
 1.07
 1.07
 1.05
 0.96 $\begin{array}{c} 3.886 \\ -0.5864 \\ -0.6044 \\ -0.5864 \end{array}$ 0.36
 0.36
 0.36
 0.36
 0.36 outlet
(psi) 50000000 5452 ្ត
ភូមិស្គុត
ភូមិស្គុត ្អូត្មក្នុ 4.5 4.5 Pressure SAND: Natural
Sample C $\frac{1}{\ln(x)}$ $\mathbf{1}=\mathbf{1}=\mathbf{1}=\mathbf{1}$ **8588888** $1 \leq i \leq 1 \leq 1 \leq 4$ **8886888** 35
25 $\overline{\overline{\overline{c}}\overline{\overline{c}}}$ 5555552 8888888
8888888 88888
88888 EXPERIMENTAL DATA **Sand Stress** $\frac{1}{2}$ 5535555 0222328
232328 0988
0028
0028
0028 **2222288** 1520
1460
1420
1420
1400 1150
1340
1500
1500
1600 $\begin{array}{c} 1380 \\ 0370 \\ 0370 \\ 0370 \\ 0370 \\ 0361 \\ \end{array}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ ESESEER 1365
1355
1355
1355 $(nrs:min)$ Time 0:52
0:55
0:55 1:08
1:12 **SES 245524**
COLORED COMP 823
CESS
CESSE 3
CESSE 3 **HANA**
HANA 53386

STRESS LEVEL: 130-1600 psi

TEST NUMBER: CVII (Stress Loading)

I gammer

D.7 SIGNIT

TEST NUMBER: CVIII

SAND: Natural
Sample C

STRESS LEVEL: 1800 ps1

TEST NUMBER: CIX

Stopped test for 15 hours.

TABLE 29cont'd

TEST NUMBER: CIX

TEST NUMBER: DI nous ou

 \overline{a}

TEST NUMBER: DII

 $T - 2299$

TEST NUMBER: DIII

SAND: Natural
Sample D

STRESS LEVEL: 500 psi

TEST NUMBER: DIII

SAND: Natural

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

TEST NUMBER: DIV

SAND: Natural
Sample D

STRESS LEVEL: 750 psi

TEST NUMBER: DIV

Cavity size: 1/2" x 1"

Comment

TEST NUMBER: DV

 $T - 2299$

 164

 $T - 2299$

TABLE 35

 165

TEST NUMBER: DVII

 \mathcal{O} -square .

TEST NUMBER: DVIII

TEST NUMBER: DIX

SAND: Natural
Sample D

STRESS LEVEL: 1500 psi

TEST NUMBER: DIX

SAND: Natural
Sample D

STRESS LEVEL: 1500 psi

TEST NUMBER: DX

TEST NUMBER: DXI

TEST NUMBER: DXII

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$

TABLE: 43 CAVITY DATA

Natural Sand - Sample B

TABLE: 43
CAVITY DATA

Natural Sand - Sample B

TABLE: 44 CAVITY DATA

Natural Sand-Sample C

TABLE: 45 CAVITY DATA

Natural Sand-Sample D

 $T - 2299$

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TABLE 49
EAII IIBE DATA

Sand Pack Parameters

* Failure condition that does not obey Bratli, et al.'s criterion.

		0.4114 0.11414 0.01143 0.1163	
Sand	Cohesive Strength, So (psi)	Angle of Internal Friction ϕ (deg)	Angle of Failure α (deg.) $\alpha = 450 + \phi/\bar{2}$
A	2.83	$29.6 - 37$	$59.8 - 63.5$
B	85	$23.4 - 47.7$	$56.7 - 68.85$
C	90	$13.6 - 58.0$	$51.8 - 74$
D	90	$23.3 - 58.8$	$56.65 - 74.4$

Table 54. Sand Characteristics

Figure 1.

Figure 3.

After Jaeger et al (1976)

Figure 4a.

After Hall & Harrisberger (1970)

Figure 12.

TRIAXIAL CELL

PRESSURE DROP VS FLOW RATE

Figure 21.

Gopher State Frac. Sand
(20 - 40 / 80 - 100 Mixture)

PRESSURE DROP VS FLOW RATE

Figure 24.

Natural Sand - Sample B

207

Figure 27.

 $LOG(\triangle P/Q)$ VS LOG (Q) **Natural Sand - Sample B**

Figure 29.

Figure 30.

Figure 33.

 220

Cavity Size (in.²)

Flow Rate, Q (BbLs/Day)

Figure 41. CAVITY SIZE VS FLOW RATE

Cavity Size (in.²)

Cavity Size (in.²)

 $\ddot{}$

 $\ddot{}$

Figure 49.

Figure 50.

SAND B : SIEVE ANALYSIS

Figure 51.

Figure 52.

SAND D : SIEVE ANALYSIS

 $T - 2299$

 $T - 2299$

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Figure 62. **EFFECT OF ARCH RADIUS ON PRESSURE DROP**

ARCH RADIUS CELL DIAMETER Figure 63.

CHANGE IN PERMEABILITY

WITH PSEUDO-EFFECTIVE STRESS

* Values of k_{max} : 4.73md for Sand A, 9.49 for sand B, 21.25 for Sand C, and 2.09 for sand D.

FLOW POTENTIAL AROUND PERFORATION

Figure 69a. **Perforation View Area Showing a Cavity.**

Figure 69b. **The inside of the Cell after unloading part of the sand.**

Figure 70a. Triaxial Test Printouts.

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