

WATER CONING PREDICTION REVIEW: DEVELOPING AN INTEGRATED APPROACH**Abstract**

In petroleum industry, oil production strategy to circumvent water coning in reservoirs with strong water drive is quit challenging. To ameliorate this oil production related problem, several water coning prediction models and control approaches have been developed by researchers. The prediction approaches include analytical, empirical and numerical approach. The analytical and empirical prediction approaches are qualitative water coning prediction approach with limited field scale application. However, these approaches model predictions can again field application if upscale. Numerical approach has provided the fulcrum to study the complexity of water coning phenomenon in bottom-water drive reservoirs, and its prediction and sensitivity results have found wide field application. In addition, the various developed water coning control methods: downhole oil-water separation (DOWS), downhole water sink (DWS), downhole water loop (DWL), among others have proved to be effective, as it reduces the water-cut, produced water and water handling problem at the surface during hydrocarbon production. However, the challenge of producing the bypassed oil in the reservoir remains unattended with these coning control methods. Also, even as effective as these water coning control methods may seem, they have their drawbacks that limit their application in certain reservoirs. Therefore, developing integrated approach that is adaptive to control water coning and produce bypassed oil in bottom-water drive reservoirs is important to the oil and gas industry.

Keywords: Water coning; Coning prediction approaches; Coning control methods; Integrated approach

1. Introduction

In oil and gas production, proper planning and development strategies are put in place to avert any production-related problems. One of such problems is coning and/or cusping; depending on the coned fluid - water or gas into the well. Coning is a fundamental petroleum engineering problem since oil is very often found below a gas zone, or above water zone or sandwiched between these two zones (Ike and Debasmitta, 2013). The production of water from oil producing wells is a common occurrence in oil field, which results from one or more reasons such as normal rise of oil water contact, water coning and water fingering (Saadet *al.*, 1995). In general, coning or cresting are the term used to describe the mechanism underlying the upward movement of water and/or the downward movement of gas into the perforations of a producing well (Okwananke and Isehunwa, 2008). This phenomenon is as a result of fluids segregation according to their densities, when gravitational forces are exceeded by the flowing pressure - viscous force. In most oil and gas field over the world, produced water due to coning is normally present in the reservoir even before production start; as in bottom water aquifer and/or in artificially improved recovery scheme, as in water injection (Ibelegbu and Onyekonwu, 2010). Therefore, the production of excessive water and/or gas has been a continuing problem for operators since the beginning of petroleum industry (Jin, 2009). Additionally, Inikori (2002) mentioned that produced water problem exist in North Sea and in the Niger Delta, as well as in the Middle East. Thus, water in general is produced from oil wells at a water cut that depends on the well and reservoir characteristics (Shadizadeh and Ghorbani, 2001). Water coning is characterized by the gradual growth of a cone of water in the vertical and radial directions. Namani *et al.* (2007) mentioned that in conventional reservoirs the extent of cone growth and/or its stabilization depend on factors such as:

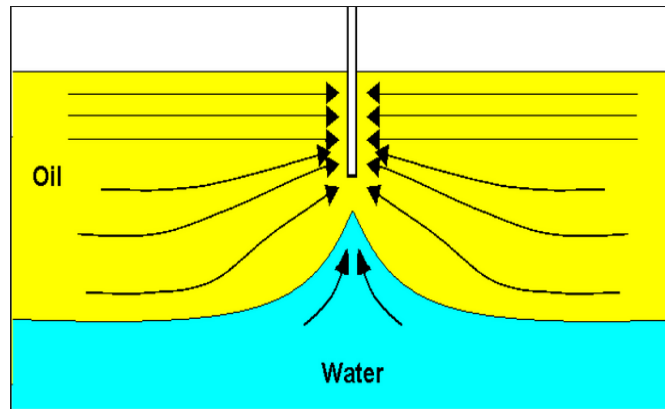
47 mobility ratio, oil zone thickness, the extent of the well penetration and vertical permeability; with
48 total production rate being the most important. In addition, Saleh and Khalaf(2009) were of the
49 opinion that water coning depended on the properties of the porous media, oil-water viscosity ratio,
50 distance from the oil-water interface to the well, production rate, densities of the fluids and capillary
51 effects. Unlike conventional reservoirs, coning phenomenon in fractured reservoirs is more
52 challenging and complicated due to the intrinsic difference in them along with the heterogeneity and
53 high permeable medium of the fractures compared to matrixes (Foroozeshet *al.*, 2008). Therefore, the
54 study of water coning behaviour requires good understanding of reservoir geology, water production
55 (water cut) history profile, reservoir pressure changes, gas-oil ratio (GOR), and material balance
56 analysis (Bae, 2015). Hence, maximizing oil recovery in a reservoir with underlain water and overlain
57 gas is a challenge because coning or cresting of unwanted fluids is inevitable (Kabiret *al.*, 2004).
58 Thence, delaying the encroachment and production of gas and water are essentially the controlling
59 factors in maximizing the field's ultimate oil recovery (Ahmed, 2006). Since production of oil and/or
60 gas involves the flow of formation fluid into the wellbore, several coning prediction and control
61 approaches have been developed to mitigate the formation of water and/or gas coning in the near
62 wellbore. Therefore, this paper evaluates the various water coning prediction approaches and the
63 control methods to propose an integrated approach to avert water coning during production of oil and
64 gas from the reservoir.

65

66 **2. Mechanism of Water Coning**

67 In bottom-water drive reservoirs, water-coning is a production-related-problem in partial perforated
68 wells- wells completed at the upper parts of the reservoir. During production of oil, the pressure drop
69 in the well tends to draw-up water from the aquifer towards the lowest completion interval at the well;
70 as shown in Figure 1. This rising up of aquifer content - water, is caused by potential distribution near
71 the wellbore. Worth noting that since the moment the well is produced, water cone is formed as a result
72 of potential difference between the oil and water phase. In this connection, Gan (2015) reported that
73 the upward movement of water cone depends on vertical potential gradient, activity of aquifer,
74 vertical permeability, fractional well penetration, drainage radius, well radius, and water-oil density
75 contrast. Additionally, since water is more mobile than oil; owing to viscosity difference, when the
76 same potential gradient is applied; water velocity seems higher than that of oil. Consequently, the oil-
77 water-contact below oil completion interval rises towards the perforation. In infinite acting reservoirs
78 with inactive or weak aquifer, if the production is sufficiently low, the viscous force is offset by
79 gravity contrast between the oil and water phase. Hence the water cone becomes stable and cease
80 rising toward the completion interval. However, when the production rate increases, the cone height
81 above the oil water contact (OWC) also increases. At a certain moment where gravity contrast of
82 water and oil cannot offset their mobility differences, water cone becomes unstable and rises towards
83 the well perforation intervals. Thence, water coning becomes eminent and breakthrough - water
84 production at the well, is unavoidable.

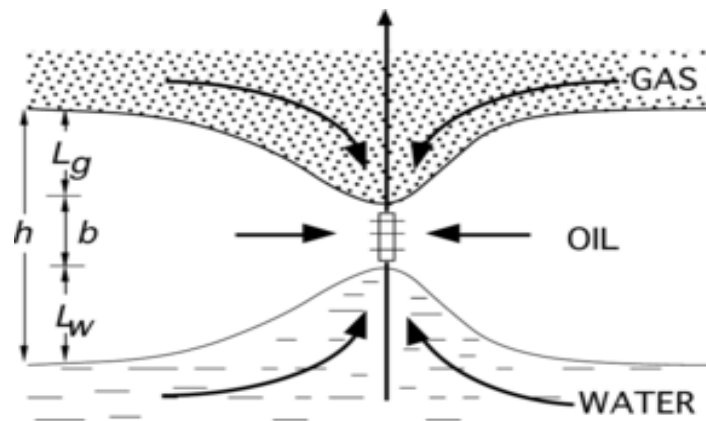
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86
87 **Figure 1:** Schematic of Water Coning into a Well (Bekbauov *et al.*, 2012)
88

89 **3. Water Coning Predictions**

90 In the production of oil from hydrocarbon reservoirs with strong water-drive or aquifer, it is likely that
91 the well(s) in the field will experience water coning when produced for a long period. Also, when
92 producing at high production rate, water coning occurs in a more pronounced manner earlier than
93 expected. This resulted in accelerated water production that cannot be controlled anymore (Bae,
94 2015). In the literature, several studies had been performed to predict and mitigate water coning in the
95 production of oil and gas. The early study of water and/or gas coning phenomenon was based on the
96 understanding of well and coning configurations depicted in Figure 2. Several authors have developed
97 correlations to predict coning problem in terms of critical oil rate - the maximum production oil rate
98 without producing water, water breakthrough time, and water-oil ratio (WOR) after breakthrough.
99 Among these, critical oil rate is probably the most discussed coning parameter (Osisanya *et al.*, 2000).
100 Generally, these correlations formulation can be divided into two categories. The first category
101 determines the correlations analytically based on the equilibrium conditions of viscous and gravity
102 forces in the reservoir. While the second category is based on empirical correlations developed from
103 laboratory experiments or computer simulation. Nowadays, there has been a shift from the former
104 approach of developing the empirical correlations to the later; due to the complexity of reservoirs
105 engineering problems and the recent advances in computer technology (Recham, 2001). Additionally,
106 the computer based approach of coning study has provided a more reliable avenue of assessing
107 reservoir parameters and well completion as they affect coning phenomenon during oil and gas
108 production. Nevertheless, irrespective of the coning studied approach, critical rate, breakthrough time
109 and water cut performance after breakthrough still remain the yardstick for predicting and evaluating
110 coning phenomenon in petroleum reservoir during the production of oil and gas.



111

112 **Figure 2: Gas and Water Coning Schematic in Producing Well (<http://petrowiki.org>)**

113 ***a. Analytical Approach***

114 The early study of water coning phenomenon analytically was pioneered by Muskat and Wyckoff
115 (1935). They presented an approximate analytical solution for the total pressure drop using graphical
116 method to obtain the critical coning rate. Authur (1944) then extended the Muskat and Wyckoff
117 (1935) theory to include simultaneous water and gas coning. Thereafter, Authors like Meyer and
118 Gardner (1954), Chaney *et al.* (1956) and Hoyland *et al.* (1989) expanded Muskat and Wyckoff (1935)
119 work to include different assumptions to establish coning critical rate. In 1964, Chierice *et al.* presented
120 the effect of reservoir geometry and well configuration on critical coning rate and optimum
121 perforation interval for simultaneous gas and water coning. Also, Chappellear and Hirasaki (1976)
122 derived a coning model based on vertical equilibrium and segregated flow for a radially symmetric,
123 homogeneous, anisotropic permeability system. Wheatley (1985) accounted for the influence of cone
124 shape on the oil potential which other authors had not done before. Chaperon (1986) presented the
125 critical flow rate for the onset of water coning for vertical and horizontal wells. He added that the
126 critical coning rate increases with decrease in vertical permeability. Further studies by Piper and
127 Gonzalez (1987) extended the Wheatley's (1985) work to handle three-phase calculation for critical
128 rate and optimum completion interval. They maintained that neglecting the effect of cone rise on fluid
129 potential causes the estimated critical rate to be 20 to 25 percent higher than the actual field critical
130 rate. Furthermore, Abbas and Bass (1988) studied the performance of water coning under different
131 boundary conditions analytically, experimentally and numerically. For analytical approach, they
132 derived solution for calculating the water-free oil rate for steady state and pseudo-steady state flow
133 conditions in a two-dimension radial flow system using an average pressure concept. Although the
134 two-dimensional radial flow assumption and average pressure concept are not suitable for water
135 coning systems Rechamet *et al.* (2000), they were the first researchers to establish the effect of limited
136 wellbore penetration on the critical cone rate. Guo and Lee (1992) and Guo *et al.* (1992) have
137 presented a graphical analysis of water coning on the oil productivity of a well. This analytical
138 solution is for an optimum wellbore penetration into oil zone to maximize the critical oil rate for an
139 isotropic oil zone. Also, the Guo *et al.* (1992) work presented an analytical solution which is used to
140 determine water-oil interface location in an anisotropic reservoir. Again, Tabatabaei *et al.* (2012)
141 presented analytical solution for water coning in vertical wells. They developed a model that predicts
142 critical rate and optimum wellbore penetration to achieve maximum water-free production rate of
143 vertical oil wells. The developed model was based on radial, spherical and combined three-
144 dimensional flow that takes into the effect of permeability anisotropy, fluid density difference, and
145 wellbore penetration.

146 In all, most of the analytical coning studies in the literature focused on establishing critical flow rate
147 in vertical wells with few works on horizontal wells. Conversely, Alikhan and Ali (1985) earlier
148 mentioned that water coning problem is highly complex; therefore, an analytical solution is not
149 possible. However, to develop an effective control strategy against coning, certain theoretical aspects
150 regarding coning must be understood. Therefore, to develop analytical solutions, certain assumptions
151 must be made. These assumptions limit the practical applicability of these analytical solutions. Hence,
152 the most reliable way to study coning is with a specially designed finite-difference simulator
153 (Letkeman and Ridings, 1970; Fetkovich *et al.*, 1998). That notwithstanding, certain analytical
154 solutions and empirical correlations can be helpful and serve as a preliminary guide for water coning
155 predictions.

156

157 ***b. Empirical Approach***

158 Numerous laboratory studies of water coning have been reported in the literature. The early work used
159 an analog model - Hele-Shaw or potentiometric for the study. Meyer and Searcy (1956) used the
160 Hele-Shaw model to predict water breakthrough time and the steady state water-oil ratio (WOR).
161 Also, Henley *et al.*(1956) presented the first scaled-model laboratory experiments to study oil
162 recovery by bottom water drive. They examined the effects of rate of production, fluid mobilities,
163 capillary and gravity forces, well penetration and well completion techniques on the oil recovery
164 performance using unconsolidated sand pack model with permeability range from 30 to 250
165 darcies. Additionally, Smith and Pirson(1963) investigated the method to control water coning by
166 injecting oil at a point below the producing interval. They reported that water-oil ratio (WOR) was
167 reduced by the injected fluid, and the reduced water-oil was improved if the injected fluid was more
168 viscous than the reservoir oil or a zone of reduced permeability exists in the vicinity of the injection
169 point. In addition, they maintained that for a given oil production rate, the optimum point of fluid
170 injection was the point closet to the bottom of the producing interval that does not interfere with the
171 oil production. Before then, Karp *et al.* (1962) earlier considered several factors involved in creating,
172 designing and locating (i.e., above the production perforation) horizontal barrier for controlling water
173 coning. They performed experiments to test the suitability of various materials as impermeable
174 barriers. Then, they concluded that reservoirs with high-density or high-viscosity crude oil, very low
175 permeabilities or small oil-zone thickness may be poor candidate for the barrier treatment. On the
176 other hand, Sobocinski and Cornelius (1965) developed a correlation that predicts the onset of water
177 coning based on laboratory data and modelling results. In their correlation, they expanded the
178 breakthrough time and cone height in dimensionless forms involving those scaling factors: water-oil
179 density difference, oil-zone thickness, oil viscosity, oil formation volume factor, porosity and oil flow
180 rate, considered important to coning. Khan (1970) looked at water influx in three-dimension scaled
181 laboratory model. The model used a porous sand pack and modelled fluids to represent thin oil and
182 water layers. The result of the study indicated that mobility ratio had a significant influence on the
183 value of the water-cut and degree of water coning at a given total production rate. Also, for mobility
184 ratios less than unity, the water cones have relatively lower profiles and greater radial spread.
185 Additionally, for higher mobility ratios, the water cone experiences an initial rapid rise followed by a
186 radial spread. Furthermore, Bournazel and Jeanson(1971) developed a method for coning onset
187 prediction combining experimental correlations with a simplified analytical approach. They used
188 dimensionless number to estimate breakthrough time based on the assumptions that the front shape
189 behaves like a current line, in an equivalent model of different shape. Equally, this approach can be
190 used to determine the optimum completion and withdrawal.

191 On the other hand, Schols (1972) presented empirical critical rate correlations for partially penetrated
192 wells in isotropic and anisotropic reservoirs. These correlations were based on laboratory experiments
193 using Hele-Shaw model and mathematical simulations. Then, Mungan (1979) conducted a laboratory
194 study of water coning in a layered model test bed where fluid saturation was tracked as a function of
195 time and location. The experiments accounted for the effect of viscosity and production rate on the
196 behaviour of the water cone, the effect of heterogeneity in the test bed, and the effect of injection of
197 polymer slug at the oil-water contact before water injection were conducted. He maintained that high
198 oil viscosity or high production rate result in low recovery and high water-oil ratio (WOR) for the
199 same water injection. Also, the injected polymer solution at the water-oil contact would delays
200 development of water cone. However, in all the various laboratory experiments to study water coning
201 parameters, no attempt was made to look at saturation and pressure distribution in the test bed as a
202 function of time. Rajan and Luhning(1993) mentioned that the lack of this information inhibited a
203 better understanding of the coning phenomenon. Then, they experimentally considered the use of
204 cold, non-condensable gas injection into an oil reservoir with bottom water as an effective method for
205 water coning suppression. Their studies revealed that the injected gas migrates towards the production

206 well along the oil-water interface as a blanket thereby increasing the free gas saturation. Also, the
207 injected gas creates a three phase region of oil, water and gas which resulted in reduced relative
208 permeability for water flow and the residual oil saturation. Jiang and Butler (1998)
209 conducted experimental investigation of the effect of flow rates and viscosity ratios on the stability of
210 coning interface and on oil recovery at breakthrough. They established that oil recovery at
211 breakthrough decreased with flow rate and viscosity ratio. Conversely, where viscosity ratio was high,
212 the oil recovery at high flow rate formed multiple fingers with high oil recovery than low flow rates
213 with considerable amount of oil. Shevchenko (2013) performed experiments to study water coning
214 phenomenon in perforated pipes geometry. Analysis of his results showed that water coning in the
215 annulus geometry directly depends on the fluid flow rate, high oil viscosity and annulus width.
216 Nevertheless, Menouar and Hakim (1995) noted that most experimental studies performed on scaled
217 petrophysical models may not provide all the answers to reservoir engineering problems due to the
218 difficulty of scaling some of the reservoir parameters. Thus, the empirical approach of water coning
219 studies may also face the aforementioned challenge.

220 *c. Numerical Approach*

221 A lot of computer simulations to handle coning problem in the petroleum reservoir have been made
222 available in the literature. Researchers have conducted sensitivity studies to delineate the relative
223 importance of various parameters in coning phenomena. The first numerical approach of coning study
224 was performed by Welge and Weber in 1964. They applied two-phase, two-dimensional model using
225 the alternating direction implicit procedure (ADIP) in the gas and water coning simulation. Then, they
226 stated that special computational techniques must be used after cone breakthrough to achieve reliable
227 results and keep calculation costs within reasonable limits. In addition, they suggested that the
228 average horizontal to vertical permeability (K_h/K_v) ratio is critical parameter in the coning study.
229 Also, Pirson and Metha (1967) developed a computer program to simulate water coning based on the
230 Welge and Weber's mathematical model. They studied the effects of various factors: vertical to
231 horizontal permeability ratio, oil-water mobility ratio, specific gravity differential between the two
232 phases and flow rate on the advance of a water cone. The obtained results were found to agree with
233 known phenomenon. However, comparison of their results with Muskat's approximate method, they
234 establish that Muskat's method gives high critical rate as it ignores the water-oil transition
235 zone. MacDonald and Coats (1970) described and evaluated three methods for the simulation of well
236 coning behaviour. They improved upon the small time step restriction of coning problems by making
237 the production and transmissibility terms implicit, and this increase the simulation speed much more
238 than the traditional IMPES (Implicit Pressure Explicit Saturation) method. They concluded that fully
239 implicit model accepts larger time increment sizes and is more efficient for problems involving high
240 capillary forces but requires more computer time. They further recommended radial model with fine
241 grid around the wellbore for vertical well conceptual studies. Furthermore, Letkeman and Ridings
242 (1970) proposed a numerical coning model that exhibits stable saturation and production behaviour
243 during cone formation and after breakthrough. The stability of their model finite difference equation
244 was due to production rate and mobilities implicit extrapolation at the new time level. In 1972, Kaneko
245 and Mungan performed a numerical simulation study on oil reservoir with bottom water. Their results
246 showed that water breakthrough time and water-oil ratio (WOR) increased significantly as the
247 production rate increased. Then, Bryne and Morse (1973) presented a systematic numerical coning
248 simulation study which included the effects of reservoir and well parameters. They reported that
249 increase in well penetration depth reduced the water-free oil production rate (critical rate). They
250 further added that there was no significant effect of wellbore radius on water-oil ratio and
251 breakthrough time. Also, Miller and Rogers (1973) presented detailed coning simulation which was
252 suitable to evaluate water coning problem for a single well in a reservoir with bottom water. They

253 simulated a single well using radial coordinates and a grid system which could be used to determine
254 the most important parameters in water coning on both short-term and long-term production.
255 Interestingly, their simulated results for critical oil rate matched well with Schols' (1972) critical rate
256 correlation prediction. Aziz *et al.*(1973) simulated two-phase coning model to predict the coning
257 phenomena for two wells in the Sylvan Lake, Pekisko B Pool. The obtained results were compared
258 with available history to investigate reservoir parameters such as horizontal permeability, vertical
259 permeability near the wellbore, and pressure maintenance by water or oil influx. Their obtained model
260 result was used to explain some interesting aspects of the coning problem for the two wells.
261 On the other hand, Mungan (1975) performed both experimental and numerical modelling studies of
262 water coning into oil producing well under two-phase, immiscible and incompressible flow
263 conditions. The obtained results indicated higher oil recovery and lower water-oil ratio (WOR) when
264 the production rate, well penetration, vertical permeability and well spacing were decreased; or when
265 the horizontal permeability and the ratio of gravity to viscous forces were increased. Also, Blades and
266 Stright(1975) simulated water coning behaviour of undersaturated, high viscous oil reservoirs;
267 pressure maintained by bottom water drive. The multi-rate performance of two wells was matched
268 with two-dimension coning model to investigate the sensitivities of some reservoir fluid and rock
269 properties. The study considered necessary to include capillary pressure in the model to history match
270 the coning behaviour and develop a set of type curves (defined by oil zone thickness and oil viscosity)
271 to predict coning behaviour and ultimate recovery in the specified reservoir. In addition, Abougoush
272 (1979) developed correlation from the results of a sensitivity study for heavy oil pool (reservoir)
273 where water coning was a frequent problem. He reported that a coning correlation which combines
274 the important parameters into dimensionless groups can be derived for the heavy oil cases in a way
275 that a single curve is adequate to define the water-oil behaviour. Additionally, he pointed out that oil
276 production decline rapidly and stabilized at a fraction of the initial productivity, but the stabilized
277 value was not sensitive to the oil zone thickness. Kuo and Desbrisay(1983) used a numerical approach
278 to determine the sensitivity of water coning behaviour to various reservoir parameters. From the
279 simulation results, they developed a simplified correlation to predict the water-cut in bottom water
280 drive reservoirs. Also, they provided a simplified model programmed on a hand held calculator which
281 can conveniently predict critical rate, water breakthrough time and water cut performance without
282 lengthy computations on expensive computer. Yang and Wattenbarger(1991) developed water coning
283 correlation similar to Addington's gas coning correlation to predict critical rate, breakthrough time
284 and water-oil ratio after breakthrough. They used radial model with logarithmic grid distribution for
285 vertical wells and a 3-Dimensional Cartesian model for horizontal well studies with finer grid
286 distribution around the wellbore and coarser grid away from the wellbore. Menouar and Hakim (1995)
287 studied the effects of various reservoir parameters such as anisotropy ratio and mobility ratio on water
288 coning behaviour. For horizontal wells, most of the studies present the critical rate as an increasing
289 function of anisotropy ratio (α). Their study shows that this is valid only for $0.5 < \alpha < 1$, and for 0.01
290 $< \alpha < 0.1$, the critical rate is strongly decreasing function of anisotropy ratio. Inikori (2002) reported
291 that several other authors including Wu *et al.*(1995) and McMullan and Larson (2000) used a 3-
292 Dimensional Cartesian model with finer grid in the oil zone and coarser grid in the water zone
293 together with implicit type commercial numerical simulators for water coning studies in horizontal
294 wells. Worth noting that, most of the numerical coning studies from 1990s were focused on horizontal
295 wells or both vertical and horizontal wells. Makinde *et al.* (2011) simulated water coning behaviour in
296 horizontal wells and pointed out that the oil column height below perforation is the critical criterion
297 for coning behaviour horizontal well. He also added that reservoir porosity contributes to delay of
298 water coning into the horizontal well. Then, Rustum (2015) compared between empirical water
299 coning models and single-well simulated model with actual field performance. He maintained that
300 some of the empirical models can be considered more reliable than the others, however, the single-

301 well numerical model gives a more reliable history matched water-cut performance than the empirical
302 correlations. Nevertheless, numerical approach of water coning study in reservoirs has provided the
303 locus for understanding the complexity of the phenomenon in bottom-water drive reservoirs, as the
304 obtained results and models have been used in wide field application.

305 **3.1. Water Coning Control Methods**

306 Several approaches have been invented to develop water-drive reservoirs efficiently and
307 economically. Researchers began to seek ways to control water coning problem - a predominant
308 challenge of developing water-dive reservoir, shortly after knowing the coning phenomenon.
309 Numerous practical solutions have been developed to delay the water breakthrough time and minimize
310 the severity of water coning in vertical wells (Jin, 2005). These practical approaches
311 include: separating oil and water in the oil-water contact (OWC) using horizontal impermeable
312 barriers (Karp *et al.*, 1962), controlling the fluids mobility in the reservoir (Smith and Pirson,
313 1963), producing oil below its critical rate (Abbas and Bass, 1988), completing the upper section of
314 the pay zone (Guo and Lee, 1993), using horizontal wells (Joshi, 1991) and producing oil and water
315 separately by downhole water sink (DWS) as well as downhole water loop (DWL) (Wojtanowicz *et al.*,
316 1991; Siemek and Stopa, 2002; Jin, 2005, among others). However, some of these proposed water
317 coning control methods have drawbacks- limited, field applications. Even the completing of the upper
318 section of the pay zone also requires producing below the critical rate; which is not economical.
319 Additionally, when using water shut-off with chemicals, the well may be damaged when the polymer
320 or gel barrier enters the oil completion (Jin *et al.*, 2009). On the other hand, Chugboet *al.* (1989)
321 reported that horizontal wells are not always a solution to water coning problem, as they are
322 constrained by drilling technology. Therefore, downhole water sink (DWS) and downhole water loop
323 (DWL) technology are attractive water coning attenuation methods, which are proven to be effective
324 ways to reduce water coning in vertical oil completions. Thus, their field application cannot be
325 overemphasized.

326 **i. Perforation Squeeze-off and Re-completion**

327 In some reservoir where shale barriers are inter-bedded with the sandstone as in laminated sands, the
328 shale barriers could form effective seal between the sand layers. The sandstone - high permeable sand
329 layers in contact with the water zone are often times responsible for the high water influx in to the
330 production interval. This zone could be isolated by squeeze cement during workover operation to
331 minimize the level of water production. Most times, the entire perforation is completely squeezed off
332 and the well re-completed away from the new oil-water contact. Goodwin (1984) mentioned that
333 water production through coning can be altered by squeeze cementing only if the water is flowing
334 through natural or created fractures, or through annular channels in the primary cement sheath.
335 Furthermore, Inikori (2002) added that this operation would not be feasible if adequate zonal isolation
336 is not possible due to absence of shale barrier streaks.

337 **ii. Conformance Technology - Water Shut-off**

338 According to Halliburton (2017) conformance technology is the application of processes to a wellbore
339 or reservoir to help reduce production of unwanted water and/or gas to efficiently enhance
340 hydrocarbon recovery and/or satisfy a broad range of reservoir management and environmental
341 objectives. On the other hand, water shut-off involves an operation that hinder water to reach and/or
342 enter the production well(s) during oil and gas production. This technique is used worldwide to avoid
343 the massive water production. To achieve this objective, chemical conformance technology: sealant
344 and relative permeability modifier are used. Sealants are preferred materials that selectively seal a

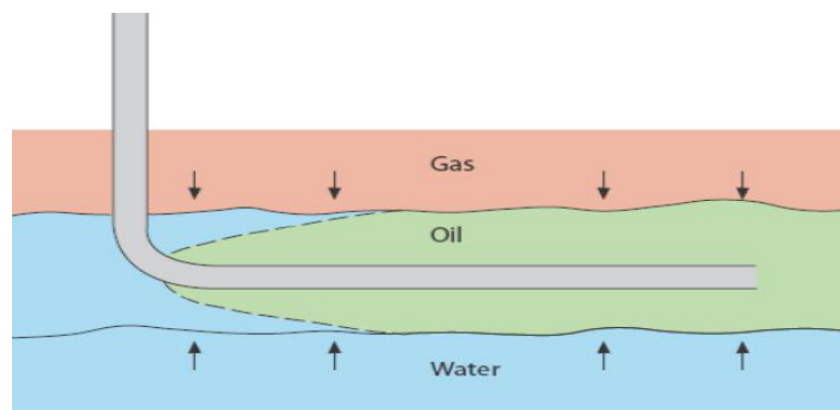
345 water producing zone that can be mechanically or chemically isolated. Relative permeability
 346 modifiers are polymer treatments that can be designed to reduced water flow from the treated area
 347 with very minimum damage to the production of oil and gas. However, several literatures have gave
 348 case histories of field applications of these technologies, their long term effect on reservoir properties
 349 and overall well performance remains a controversy to industry operators (Inikori, 2002).

350 *iii. Total Penetration Method*

351 This method simply involves the extension of perforation interval to traverse the entire pay (oil) zone
 352 and into the bottom water zoneto maintain radial flow of fluids (i.e., oil and water) into the wellbore.
 353 The approach is to avoid development of cone and attendant oil bypass. Consequently, the production
 354 of water starts immediately as oil production commences. Therefore, water handling facilities are put
 355 in place to accommodate the excess water produced at the surface. However, over time as the
 356 production continues the tendency for cone development is unavoidable (Ehlig-Economides *et al.*,
 357 1996). Also, Inikori (2002) mentioned that the combined production of high volume of water and oil
 358 in one production string create unwanted environmental problem cause by the disposal of the
 359 contaminated water.

360 *iv. Horizontal Well Technology*

361 Horizontal wells are high-angle wells with an inclination of generally greater than 85° drilled to
 362 enhance reservoir performance by placing a long wellbore section within the reservoir
 363 (www.petrowiki.org). Figure 3 shows the schematic of a horizontal well configuration in the oil zone
 364 of a reservoir. Joshi (2003) mentioned that the purpose of the horizontal wells are to enhance well
 365 productivity, reduced water and gas coning, intersect natural fractures and to improve well economics.
 366 Conversely, this well technology seems as coning suppression method as it also experience coning
 367 phenomena if the production rate is too high. However, the production rate that may result in coning
 368 in horizontal well is far higher than its vertical counterpart. As earlier alluded, Chugboet *al.*(1989)
 369 maintained that horizontal wells are not always a solution to water coning problem, as they are
 370 constrained by drilling technology. Additionally, this well technology can only drained one pay zone
 371 per horizontal well and its high cost of 1.4 to 3 times more than a vertical well
 372 (www.petroblogweb.wordpress.com) is a concern.



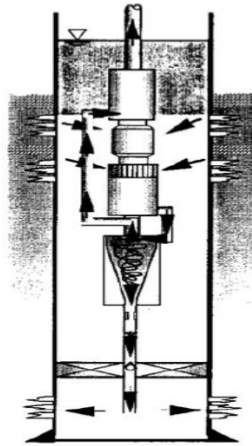
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374 Figure 3: Horizontal Well Schematic (Shaibuet *al.*, 2017)

375 *v. Downhole Oil-Water Separation Technology*

376 Downhole oil-water separation (DOWS) involves the use of hydrocyclone separators and special
 377 design downhole pumps installed in the completion/production string to separate the oil and water

378 mixture within the wellbore. Figure 4 depicts a typical configuration of the downhole oil-water
 379 separation technology. This technology has been in the oil and gas industry since the 1990s, however,
 380 despite its economic and environmental advantages, only a limited number of the system has been
 381 installed in the oil and gas wells (Abdullah and Ahmed, 2015). This development is due to the
 382 complexity of the technology, as wellbore space is very limited. Thus, the hydrocyclone designed
 383 (must be narrow) for the operation hindered the minimum casing size requirement. Additionally,
 384 Inikori (2002) opined that the technology provides reduced surface water handling, but the
 385 fundamental problem of water interference with oil production within the reservoir creating bypass oil
 386 still remains unresolved with this technology. Therefore, the problem of bypassed oil by the water
 387 cone development is not mitigated by this technology.

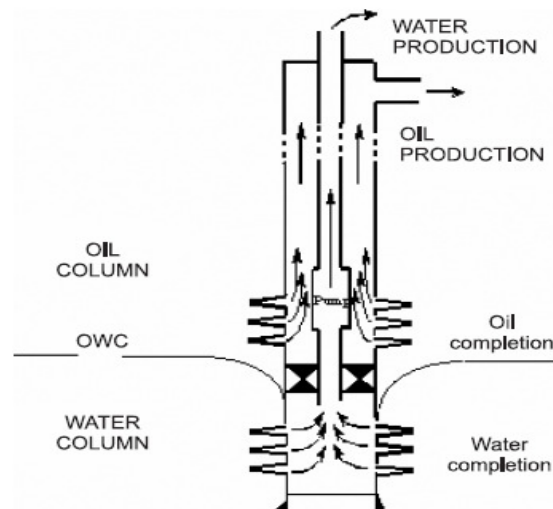


388
 389

Figure 4: Downhole Oil-Water Separation Schematic (Abdullah and Ahmed, 2015)

390 **vi. Downhole Water Sink (DWS) Method**

391 Downhole water sink (DWS) is a completion/production technique for producing water-
 392 free hydrocarbons from reservoirs with bottom-water-drive and strong tendency to water-coning
 393 (Wojtanowicz *et al.*, 1991). It provides an innovative solution for water coning control which can
 394 reduce water cut significantly (Gan, 2015), as well as delay the breakthrough time. This technology
 395 eliminates water cutting the hydrocarbon production by using hydrodynamic mechanism of coning
 396 control in-situ at the oil-water contact (Luiprasert *et al.*, 2013). Basically, DWS involves a dual-
 397 completion well with one completed at oil zone for oil production and the other completed at water
 398 zone for water drainage near oil-water contact. The typical downhole water sink (DWS) system is
 399 depicted in Figure 5. In the Figure, the drainage completion provides the extra pressure drop below
 400 oil-water contact which can balance the rising force at the oil interval. Thus, this opposite pressure
 401 drawdown in the water interval may result in considerably water coning suppression and leads to
 402 better water cut control after water breakthrough.



403

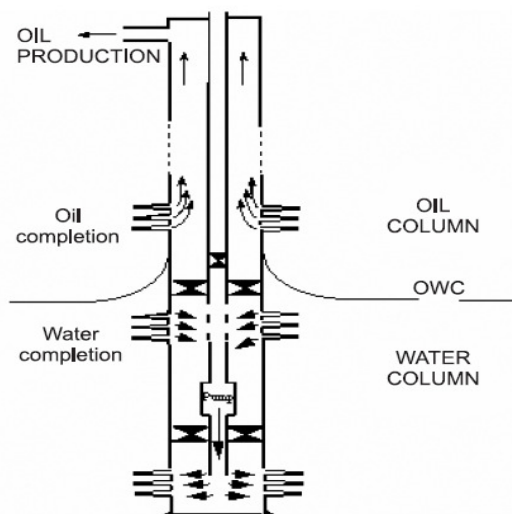
404

Figure 5: Downhole Water Sink Schematic (Wojtanowicz, 2006)

405 Downhole water sink (DWS) technology - operational and design, has been studied theoretically
 406 (Wojtanowicz *et al.*, 1991; Swisher and Wojtanowicz, 1995) and experimentally (Shirman and
 407 Wojtanowicz, 1997) since 1991. On other hand, numerical simulation study (Inikori,
 408 2002) has justified the feasibility of DWS. After the successful first field implementation of DWS in
 409 1994 by Hunt Petroleum (Swisher and Wojtanowicz, 1995), numerous other companies have tested
 410 the technology in the field reported good results. However, for DWS technology, a look at the total
 411 volume of water produced at the surface could be scarily when compared to conventional well. This is
 412 because much oil-free water is lifted to the surface; which doesn't require treatment. Therefore, water
 413 disposal cost would not increase as a consequence of the technology. Although DWS technology shows
 414 great potentials, it requires a large amount of water to be pumped to and handle at the surface. This
 415 implies large lifting costs.

416 **vii. Downhole Water Loop (DWL)**

417 Downhole water loop (DWL) technology was developed on the basis of downhole water sink (DWS)
 418 well/completion to cushion the set back (i.e., handling of huge volume of water at the surface),
 419 experienced with the DWS technology. It involves a triple-completed well: one perforation located at
 420 oil zone and the other two locates at water zone. These three completions are separated by two
 421 packers unlike the DWS completion with single packer. The top most completion at oil zone is used
 422 for oil production while the second completion - water drainage interval (WDI), is used to produce
 423 water simultaneously near the oil-water contact to stabilize the interface. The produced water at the
 424 WDI is re-injected into the same aquifer through the lowest completion - water re-injection interval
 425 (WRI) using submersible pump. A typical configuration of downhole water loop (DWL) is shown in
 426 Figure 6. However, Jinet *al.* (2009) reported that the efficiency of DWL strongly depends upon the
 427 vertical distance between the two water looping completions: water drainage and water re-injection
 428 intervals. Thus, this dependency of the DWL technology on water looping completions interval limits
 429 its application in reservoir with small size water zone (aquifer).

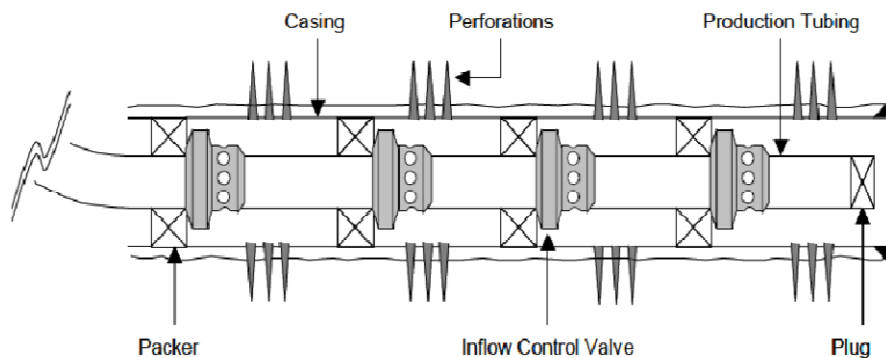


430

431 **Figure 6:** Downhole Water Loop Schematic (Wojtanowicz, 2006)

432 **viii. Intelligent Completions**

433 Completions that enable reservoir engineers to monitor and control production or injection in at least
 434 one reservoir zone are known as intelligent or smart completion. Such technology is proving to be a
 435 reliable and cost-effective way for better reservoir management. Intelligent or smart wells are
 436 basically wells fitted with special downhole completions equipment that measure and monitor well
 437 conditions and reservoir parameters such as flow rate, fluid composition, bottomhole temperature and
 438 pressure (Shaibuet *al.*, 2017). In addition, Kwame *et al.* (2014) mentioned that intelligent wells have
 439 downhole control valves to regulate, seal portions of the wellbore and optimize the movement of
 440 hydrocarbon into the well to enhance oil recovery. Therefore, intelligent well technology can provide
 441 an effective way to deal with water coning by deploying special downhole instrumentation which can
 442 be operated remotely (Guevara-Addiegroet *al.*, 2008). Thus, it protects operations from the risks
 443 associated with early water or gas breakthroughs and from crossflow between producing zone in the
 444 same well. A typical smart well completion configuration is depicted in Figure 7.



445

446 **Figure 7:** Intelligent Well Completion Schematic (Aderemi, 2012)

447 Intelligent completions just like other water coning attenuation methods have its drawbacks. They are
 448 very expensive due to the high cost of installed inflow control devices, control cables and lines,
 449 isolation feed-through packers, and the surface control data gathering systems. Cullick and

450 Sukkestad(2010) added that the reliability of the downhole valves and sensors are factors for
451 consideration. Also, identification of potential and suitable candidates for intelligent well technology
452 is a major concern (Arashi, 2007).

453 In summary, the alluded various water coning control approaches mostly addresses two major
454 challenges of water coning phenomenon; which are, increased watercut and water handling problems
455 at the surface during oil production. However, the challenge of bypassed oil in the reservoir as a result
456 of water coning around the wellbore remains unattended with the numerous water coning attenuation
457 methods. Thus, Table 1 presents the various water coning control methods as well as the suitable
458 candidate reservoir for the applied control approach.

Table 1: Comparison of Some Water Coning Control Methods

	Control Methods	Completion	Advantage(s)	Limitation(s)	Candidate Reservoir
i.	Production below critical production rate; q_c		Low water cut; no water production at the surface. Longer time to reach breakthrough.	The production rate is not economical.	Both water-drive reservoirs with active and inactive (weak) aquifer.
ii.	Perforation far from oil-water contact (OWC)	The perforation interval is placed at a predetermined distance far from the oil-water contact	Delayed the breakthrough time. The oil production rate can be slightly above the critical rate	It is limited by the oil column thickness (pay zone) of the reservoir	Conventional and thin-oil rim reservoirs with both active and inactive aquifer.
iii.	Total penetration	The perforation interval covers the entire oil column (zone) and extended distance below oil-water contact (OWC) into the water layer	Oil production rate would be greater than critical production rate. Delayed breakthrough time; low water cur	The height of the oil column or zone is the determining factor	Thin-oil rim reservoirs; especially with inactive aquifer
iv.	Vertical well gel treatments	Injecting polymers or gels to form a barrier between oil and water zones	Delayed breakthrough time and reduce water cut	The polymers or gels may plug the reservoir pore connectivity which can impaired fluid flow The well may damage when the polymer or gel barrier enters the oil completion	Both water-drive reservoirs with inactive and active aquifer
v.	Horizontal wells	Drill horizontal well into the oil zone	Compared to vertical well in the same oil zone, it provide delayed breakthrough time and high oil recovery potentials	Horizontal wells are constrained by drilling technology. It is expensive than its conventional counterpart.	Conventional and thin-oil column reservoirs with both weak and active aquifer
vi.	Downhole oil-water separation technology	Well completed with installed hydrocyclone and pumps to separate water from oil mixture	Production of water free oil at the surface, reduce water handling at the surface, etc.	Hindered the minimum casing size requirement	Conventional and thin-oil column reservoirs with both weak and active aquifer are candidate
vii.	Downhole water sink (DWS)	Dual completion; above and below the oil-water contact (OWC)	Increase critical rate and low water cut. Delayed or breakthrough time	Production of water and handling problems. More energy consumption and high lifting cost Completion of dual zone is expensive than conventional (single) well	Conventional reservoir with large active aquifer
viii.	Downhole water loop (DWL)	Triple completion; one above oil-water contact and two below OWC (i.e., one completion at DI and other at DWI)	Increase critical rate and low water cut, with delayed breakthrough time; Better performance at reservoir pressure maintenance; No production and handling of water at the surface, Less energy and consumption cost of water pump	Due to complexity and water coning dynamic, it requires careful design of the production system; Limited by the thickness of the aquifer; Completion of three intervals is expensive	Weak (inactive) bottom-water drive reservoirs
ix.	Thin-horizontal downhole water loop (THDWL)	Quadruple (four) completion; one above OWC for production of oil and three below OWC.	Handling the drawback observed in the DWS and DWL. Less or low water cut than DWS and DWL	Very expensive than DWS and DWL completion approach	Both water drive reservoir with weak and active aquifer.

	Control Methods	Completion	Advantage(s)	Limitation(s)	Candidate Reservoir
x.	Intelligent or smart completions	Well completed with installed inflow control valves (ICVs), sensors, gauges, etc.	Monitor, regulate and measure reservoir and fluid parameters Increase reservoir productivity	Very expensive due to high cost of installed ICVs, etc. Reliability of the downhole valves and sensor are considerable factors for monitoring and control	Conventional and thin oil column reservoirs with high recoverable reserves are possible candidate

460 **4. An Integrated Approach**

461 This paper has assessed the existing water coning prediction, that is, correlations and control
462 approaches. The analytical and empirical prediction methods are qualitative water coning prediction
463 approach that lacks field scale application. However, some of the existing correlations based on
464 analytical and empirical approached require upscaling to gain field scale application. Nevertheless,
465 these approaches have provided insight on this phenomenal production problem - water coning, in
466 bottom-water drive reservoirs. In addition, numerical study of the water coning problem in reservoirs
467 has provided both qualitative and quantitative approaches to the problem. Thus, the approach has
468 showcased some reservoir's parameters that influence the phenomenon in bottom-water drive
469 reservoirs. Therefore, with high quality field data input, correlations from this approach can be widely
470 applied to fields. On the other hand, water coning control methods: downhole water sink (DWS) and
471 downhole water loop (DWL) as well as the proposed thin horizontal downhole water loop (THDWL)
472 are the most efficient control measures for the phenomenal production problem. However, the
473 screening criteria for the candidate reservoir for their full implementation become of essence. The
474 challenges of surface water handling in DWS and aquifer size limitation for DWL are worrisome,
475 despite their field success. Additionally, the recent intelligent/smart well completion that sense water
476 and/or gas encroachment in to the wellbore is promising. Its sensing potential may sometime be
477 misleading in cases of channelling, casing leakages, among others. Also its automatic shut-in is
478 another considerable factor in its use for water coning control. Therefore, an integrated approach that
479 considers the outlined drawbacks in the water coning control approaches is important. Hence, there is
480 need for integrated controls water coning in bottom-water drive reservoirs. The approach that is
481 adaptive to implement the appropriate water coning control measures as well as handle the challenge
482 of bypassed oil in the reservoir. Thus, the proposed integrated approach should incorporate two or
483 more control approaches at a time.

484 **Conclusion**

486 Controlling encroached water into the wellbore from aquifer in most bottom-water drive reservoirs
487 during oil and gas production is very challenging throughout the productive life of the well. Thus,
488 several coning prediction correlations and control approaches have been propound by researchers.
489 However, some of these developed correlations alongside the control methods have found wide
490 application but their predictions vary from reservoir to reservoir. Therefore, the need to develop
491 integrated approach that extends the application of the numerous water coning control methods is of
492 essence. In the course of this, the various water coning prediction approaches and control methods are
493 reviewed and the following conclusions are drawn:

- 494 i. analytical and empirical water coning prediction correlations require upscaling to gain
495 field scale application;
- 496 ii. numerical simulation approach provides an effective method to study the complexity of
497 water coning phenomenon in reservoir, especially where quality data from the field are
498 available;
- 499 iii. most developed water coning control methods have handled increase water-cut and water
500 production as well as water handling problems at the surface during hydrocarbon
501 production, but the challenge of producing the bypassed oil in the reservoir remain a
502 concern; and
- 503 iv. the proposed integrated approach should provide a more robust method to mitigate water
504 coning problem in bottom-water drive reservoirs.

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