THE PERMIAN BASIN CO₂ SEQUESTRATION MODEL AND RIDGEWAY PETROLEUM'S ST. JOHNS PROJECT

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Abstract

The U.S. Permian Basin region of West Texas and southeastern New Mexico currently injects 1.4 billion cubic feet (80,000 tons) of new carbon dioxide each day into 50 reservoirs to produce 160,000 barrels of oil per day (bopd) of additional oil. This rate of enhanced oil recovery (EOR) production has grown from zero in 1975 to now represent approximately 15% of the oil produced from the Permian Basin. Without commercial sources of aboveground CO₂, the Permian Basin is using large quantities of subsurface (natural underground) sources of CO₂ and transporting via 250-500 mile (400-800 kilometer) pipelines to the oil fields of the Permian Basin. A critical and very large pipeline network has been constructed over the twenty five-year history of CO₂ EOR and offers tremendous advantages for future oil recovery projects.

Much can be learned from the Permian Basin experience that can be applied to other regions. This paper summarizes the attributes of the Permian Basin model for CO₂ injection and sequestration, discusses the critical nature of the past capital investment in the region, and uses the model as a basis by which to think about beginning the process in other regions and, specifically, within the San Joaquin Valley area of California. A discussion of the world-class nature of the helium resources in the St. Johns Field of eastern Arizona and western New Mexico is shown as the all-important catalyst for jump-starting the California investment in the CO₂ infrastructure for the future.

Permian Basin Enhanced Oil Recovery

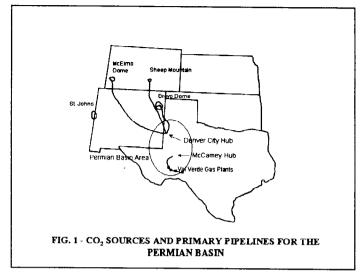
In 1974, the first two large-scale carbon dioxide injection projects were started in the Permian Basin. These two floods utilized carbon dioxide separated from natural gas that was captured at gas plants, compressed, and sent along a new pipeline built especially for the task of delivering carbon dioxide to the floods. After a period of observation and confirmation of the CO₂ EOR process, three new pipelines from three large underground sources were started in the early 1980's. These can be seen on Figure 1. These new pipelines were built with capital investment dollars resulting from the high prices of the oil boom years of the late '70's and early eighties and were justified using the \$50/barrel oil price projections of the time.

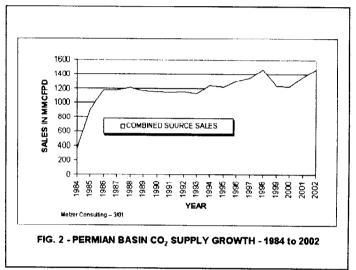
Construction of the CO₂ source field pipelines led to a dramatic acceleration of the use

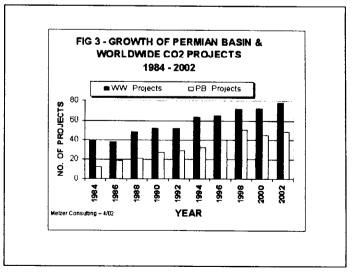
of CO₂ starting in 1984. Figures 2-4 track the growth of CO₂ supply deliveries, CO₂ flood projects, and enhanced oil recovery production through this period.

Coordinated with the growth of new projects was the development of a significant network of pipelines for distributing the CO₂ to the oilfields. Figure 5 displays the current status of the CO₂ floods and pipelines serving those fields.

As the role of CO₂ flooding in the Permian Basin began to be recognized for its economic importance, a large effort was undertaken in the 90's to assist the industry with the transfer of the complex technology associated with successfully conducting a CO₂ injection project. Prior to the early 90's, nearly all CO2 injection was conducted by a small group of major oil companies including Amoco. Exxon, Mobil, Shell, Chevron, Arco. Texaco and Amerada Hess. Their important research and subsequent development of field-tested procedures for handling, processing, and re-injection of produced CO₂. together with flood monitoring and surveillance methods were worked out over the course of many years. The technology transfer initiative was headed by the University of Texas of the Permian Basin but critically supported by the Shell, Mobil, and the U.S. Department of Energy's National Energy Technology Laboratory. As a part of the technology transfer effort, a series of shortcourses was developed by which the techniques developed by the majors were made available to the rest of the industry. Nine short

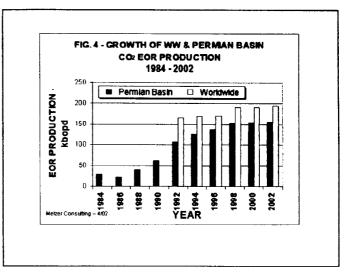




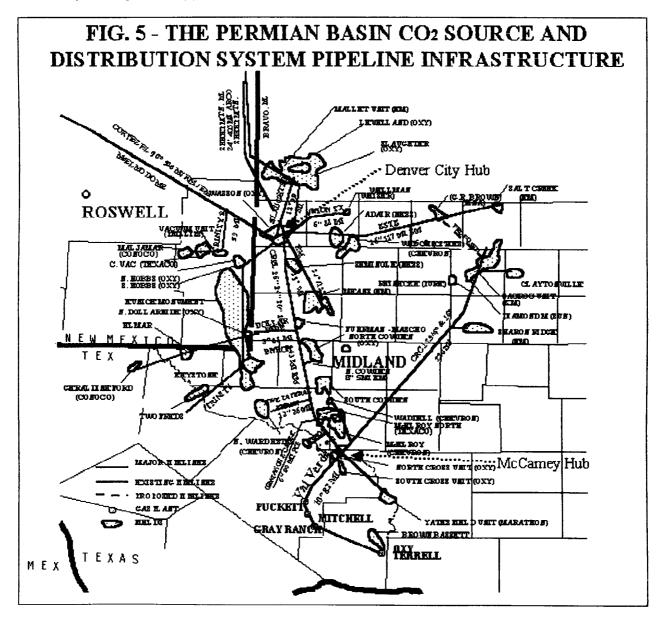


courses, covering most aspects of CO₂ handling and flooding, have been conducted since 1995; the shortcourse manuals are available to the public and can be ordered via the Internet at: http://www.utpb.edu/ceed/index.htm

In addition to the availability of the technology, access to a large network of CO₂ delivery systems is critical to the growth of CO₂ flooding and sequestration. Studies conducted as a part of the continuing series of CO₂ shortcourses have shown that the most important variable controlling economic success of CO₂ floods (using discounted rate of return as the measure) is the distance of the flood (i.e., CO₂ sink) to the CO₂ source/pipeline connection. The Permian Basin has handled this



difficulty through the aggregation of several large fields thus the cost of the main



pipeline is amortized using the large reserves available via these "anchor" fields. Smaller fields near the large anchor fields then become viable CO₂ floods as their distance to the new pipeline is reduced. Conversion of natural gas, water, or oil pipelines is typically not an option as CO₂ typically requires transmission at supercritical pressures (>1200 psi) where other types of pipelines are generally rated at lower pressure and are, therefore, very inefficient or unusable for CO₂ service.

A list of the major pipelines in the Permian Basin is given in Table 1. Given our rule of thumb estimator for the cost of construction of these pipelines of \$25,000/inch-mile. these pipelines represent a cumulative capital investment in today's dollars of just over one billion dollars. Coupling 1) the huge sums required to provide transport of CO₂ and 2) the primary controlling variable determining economically successful CO₂ floods of distance to the source of CO₂ (i.e., cost of a pipeline), one clearly needs to find ways to encourage those capital investments. Tax abatements are one way; emission credits for CO₂ sequestration could be another. But, whatever the economic incentive(s), viability of the performing flood provides the profit motive and thereby can insure the rapid growth of CO₂ flooding/sequestration projects. Underground sources of CO₂ may be desirable initially to assure flooders that the CO₂ necessary for their floods will be predictably available; however, capture of surface (stack-sourced CO₂) should begin to compete and would begin to complement the underground sources. In this manner, producing oil from CO₂ flooding/sequestration is the best mechanism for maximizing CO₂ vent stack capture and, eventually, minimizing the environmental cost of hydrocarbon fuel use.

TABLE 1: LIST OF MAJOR PERMIAN BASIN CO₂ PIPELINES

| PIPELINE | Length (km) | Length (mi) |
|-----------------------------|-------------|----------------|
| Cortez | 805 | 500 |
| Sheep Mountain | 657 | 408 |
| Bravo | 402 | 250 |
| Central Basin | 286 | 178 |
| Canyon Reef Carriers | 222 | 138 |
| Transpetco | 177 | 110 |
| Val Verde | 134 | 83 |
| Comanche Creek | 134 | 83 |
| Big Three | 97 | 60 |
| West Texas | 92 | 57 |
| Llano | 85 | 53 |
| Este II - to Salt Crk Field | 72 | 45 |
| Este I - to Welch, Tx | 64 | 40 |
| Anton Irish | 64 | 40 |
| Slaughter | 56 | 35 |
| El Mar | 56 | 35 |
| Pecos County | 42 | 26 |
| Wellman | 40 | 25 |
| Dollarhide | 37 | 23 |
| Ford | 19 | 12 |
| Cordona Lake | 11 | 7 |
| TOTAL | 3553 | 2208 |

The Permian Basin is now quite mature with its infrastructure; however, for areas with oil production new to CO_2 injection, what is needed to begin the process is the aforementioned anchor project. This can be one or a combination of two or three projects where connecting the source of CO_2 with the flood appears economically attractive for all parties, i.e., flooder, pipeliner, CO_2 provider, and government. In the formation stage for the Permian Basin, three of the parties were all the same entity, a major oil company. In today's climate, it is more likely an alliance of at least two or three entities in addition to the government, all informed about the business and profit of the others, is what will create the anchor project to jump start the process.

Ridgeway's St. Johns Field

As the result of an initial discovery well in 1994 and an extensive leasehold acquisition program, Ridgeway Petroleum Corp. (RGW) of Calgary, Alberta, Canada is the owner of approximately 280,000 acres (113,000 hectares) of a field of world-scale reserves of helium and carbon dioxide in Arizona and New Mexico within the eastern portion of the

Holbrook Basin (Figure 6). The rights come through mineral leases from the U.S. Bureau of Land Management, the States of Arizona and New Mexico, and a handful of private owners in both States.

During the course of the last five vears, a series of delineation wells was drilled to define the stratigraphy, structure and extent of reserves in the two-state area. Figure 7 displays the pertinent stratigraphic section present in the area - note that the productive intervals (noted by zone numbers) are three. The uppermost (Zone #1) is a dolomitic interval called the Ft. Apache which averages 30 meters in thickness (12m of pay thickness {net}) and averaging 460 meters in depth. The next zone is a series of sandstones and siltstones interbedded with shales and identified as the Amos Wash formation. The

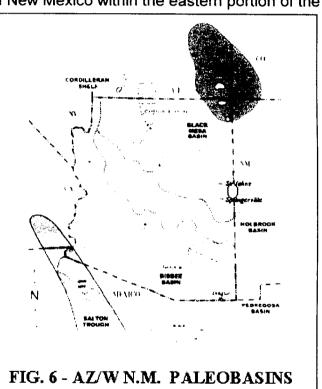
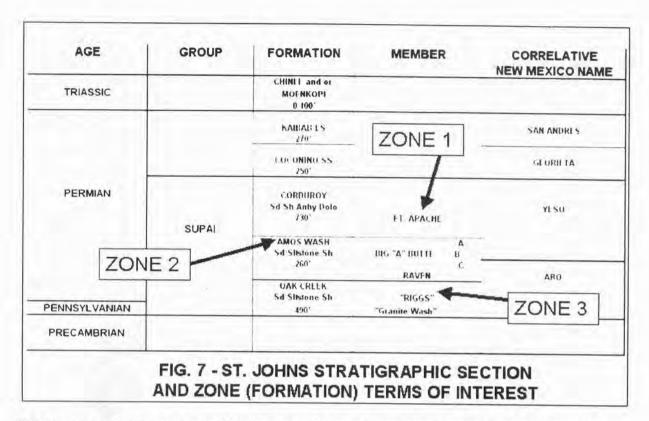


FIG. 6 - AZ/W N.M. PALEOBASINS ILLUSTRATING THE LOCATION OF THE ST. JOHNS PROJECT

average gross interval thickness is 120m with a net thickness of 25m and at a depth of 550m. A generally non-productive interval called the upper Abo underlies the Amos Wash. The upper two zones have been averaged together to obtain gas composition data. The average CO₂ composition is 93.7% CO₂, 5.4% nitrogen and 0.6% helium.



The lowermost zone is a combination granite wash and weathered granite interval just above basement rock which has been dubbed the Riggs zone. This interval varies in thickness dramatically throughout the field but can be 30m thick and is at 670m depth near the center of the field. The zone differs compositionally from the upper two in that it is nearly pure CO₂ with an average helium composition of 0.14%. Figure 8 summarizes some of the important reservoir characteristics for the three productive intervals.

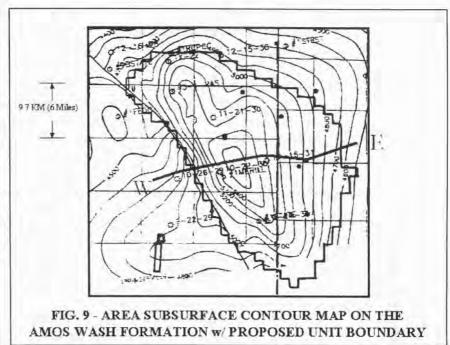
| FORMATION | PERMEABILITY (MILLIDARI JESI | POROSITY | NET PAY THICKNESS | BH PRESSURE (PSI) | BH TEMP |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------|---------|
| to a management | 0.5-20 | 13 | 40 | 400 | 86 |
| ψ ₁ =(10 | 0.5-100 | 20 | 83 | 480 | 88 |
| A TAME AND | 2 | 11 | 50 | 690 | 120 |

FIG. 8 - AVERAGED RESERVOIR CHARACTERISTICS OF THE THREE PRODUCTIVE ZONES AT ST. JOHNS

Figure 9 outlines the structural extent of the St. Johns anticline using structural contours on the middle productive interval, the top of the Amos Wash Formation. The anticlinal

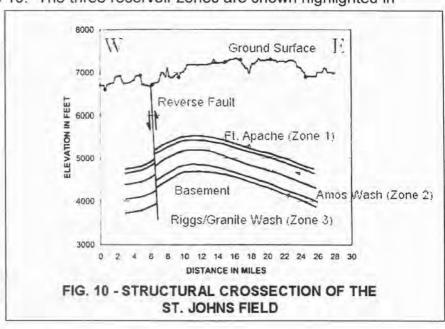
nature of the trap is interrupted by a northwest-southeast trending reverse fault with approximately 150m of throw near the highest point of the field.

In a detailed engineering study of the field, the independent consulting firm of William M. Cobb & Associates, Inc. of Dallas, Texas, dated May of 1999, estimated the original gas in place for the planned unit area at 420 billion cubic meters (14.8 trillion cubic feet) of which 1.8 bcm (64 bcf) is helium with 390 bcm (13.9 tcf) of CO2, with the balance of some 23.6 bcm (836 bcf) being predominately nitrogen.



A crossectional view of the field is shown in Figure 10. The three reservoir zones are shown highlighted in

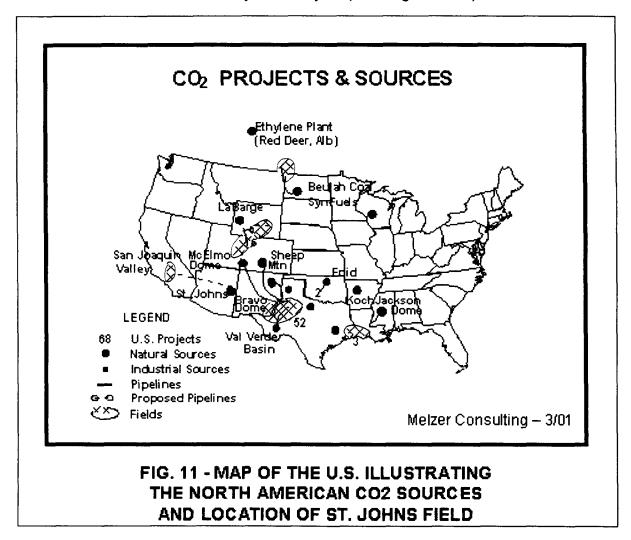
blue. A particularly notable characteristic of the field is the presence of carbon dioxide in the shallow aguifers near the surface and to the west of the structure. Some strong evidence exists for active migration of CO2 from depth feeding into the trapping reservoirs, spilling into the fault zone where it intersects the reservoir beds, and moving vertically to the shallower formations near surface. The main corroborative



evidence is the fact that many water wells on the west side of the structure produce quantities of CO_2 . Using this as a hypothesis, i.e., that the subsurface is actively producing CO_2 and making St. Johns an active trap, producing CO_2 from the St. Johns structure would, in fact, curtail the ongoing spillage of CO_2 and reduce natural atmospheric CO_2 emissions in the region.

California Initiative

Figure 11 provides a map of the U.S. showing the location of the St. Johns Field, the Permian Basin area and a proposed route of a pipeline from St. Johns to the San Joaquin Valley area near Bakersfield, California. This region of California produces approximately 570 thousand barrels of oil per day (mbopd) or 82.5% of the 692 mbopd from onshore California and 68% of the 840 mbopd of onshore plus offshore California production. This San Joaquin oil production also represents just over 10% of the U.S. Domestic oil production. Much of the San Joaquin production is a result of enhanced oil recovery but comes from shallow reservoirs and uses steam to heat the oil. This steam-drive EOR works effectively for heavy oil (<20 degrees API) reservoirs and those



shallower than 2000 feet (600 meters). For many of the lighter oils and reservoirs deeper than 2000 feet, CO₂ EOR would be applicable. Figure 12 provides a map of the southern San Joaquin Valley area illustrating the many oilfields present within a small area. Several successful CO₂ flood pilot projects have been conducted since the early 80's but the limiting factor for any large-scale application of CO₂ has always been the availability and cost of sufficient volumes of CO₂.

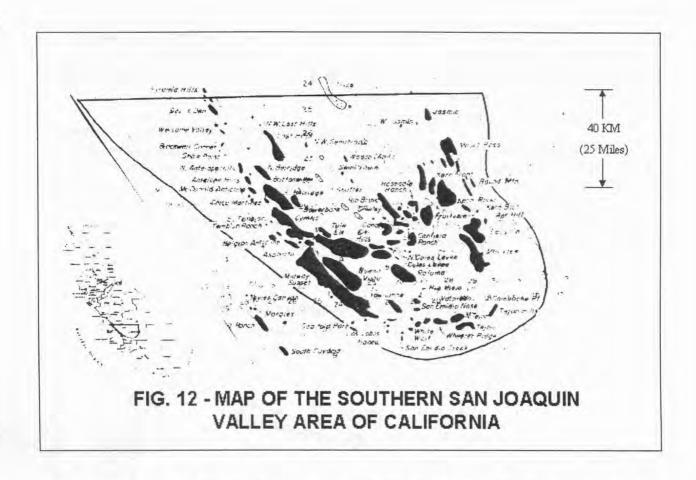
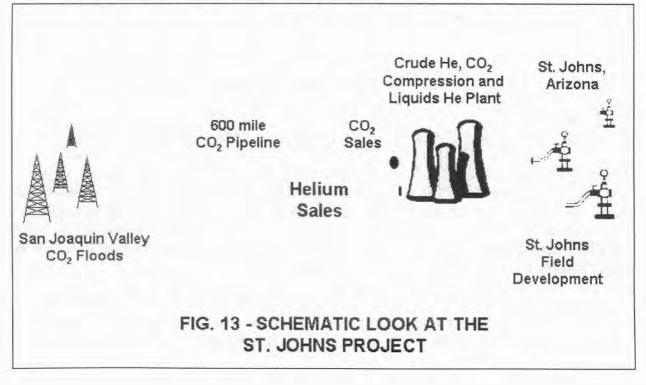
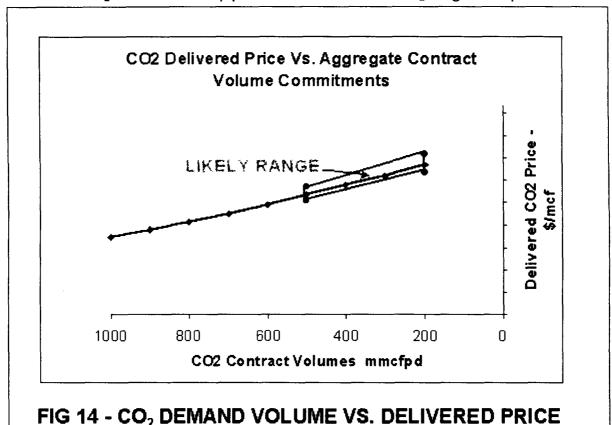


Figure 13 provides a schematic look at the St. Johns to California project. The plant for processing CO₂ and crude Helium would include a liquid helium plant to process the



helium to the required purity for commercial sales. In addition to the plant compression requirements, additional compression of the tailgate CO_2 is necessary to elevate the pressure of the CO_2 to its supercritical state for delivery into the pipeline. It should be noted that the field lies in close proximity to two coal burning power plants which will likely offer access to the large power needs of the plant facilities.

The challenge of California CO₂ flooding is economic justification of transporting, via pipeline, a large source of CO₂ to the Bakersfield area. St. Johns is geographically advantaged but the cost of the 970 km (600 mile) pipeline is a hurdle of major proportions. Fortunately, the helium present in the gas at St. Johns provides additional revenue which can be applied to the cost elements of the field development and pipeline project. Finding the "anchor" project(s) is the second hurdle as the demand volumes of CO₂ will dictate the pipeline size and cost of CO₂. Figure 14 provides a



qualitative look at the demand volume dependency on CO₂ price. Clearly, the larger the demand volume for CO₂ the less expensive the delivered price will be; however, the demand volumes and delivered price are dependent variables. In other words, the lower the cost of CO₂, the greater the number of fields which are economically attractive for CO₂ flooding and the higher the demand volumes will be. The initial set of floods will

Studies are currently underway by Ridgeway to examine the economic viability of a standalone helium project at St. Johns. Venting of the large volumes of CO₂ would appear to provide an economically tempting project; however, it has been the position

have to carry the cost of the 600-mile pipeline from Arizona.

of Ridgeway's management that CO₂ venting is neither acceptable from an environmental perspective nor is it an acceptable business strategy. Reinjection of the CO₂ volumes may make economic sense although the first look economics are marginal at best. Clearly the optimal strategy is to find a market for the CO₂ and California is the market of choice.

Summary

Approximately 75,000 tons per day (27 million tons per year) of CO₂ are injected each day in the Permian Basin area of West Texas and southeastern New Mexico. The pipeline infrastructure required to distribute the CO₂ consists of over 2200 miles of pipeline valued at a (year 2001) construction cost of over \$1 billion. The pipelines have been justified with the oil revenue produced through the use of the CO₂. Given that a source and sink(s) for CO₂ are 100 miles or more apart, the pipeline infrastructure is the key financial hurdle for creating sequestration opportunities in other regions.

Ridgeway's St. Johns project in eastern Arizona and western New Mexico has world-class reserves of both helium and carbon dioxide. Ridgeway's California initiative would produce helium to a sufficient purity for commercial sales and transport and sell by-product CO₂ for use in enhanced oil recovery projects in the San Joaquin Valley of California. The development of the St. Johns project would add 850+ million cubic meters (30+ bcf) of helium to the worldwide reserves and would add approximately one billion barrels of oil to the U.S. domestic production base.

Worldwide demand for helium, together with the demand for CO₂ in the southern San Joaquin Valley area of California for enhanced oil recovery, makes for a business model for the St. Johns project which would work as alliance of corporate entities. A major pipeline company has already joined the team and active contact is ongoing with several oil producers, helium retailing companies, and the Arizona governmental authorities. Crude and/or liquid Helium production, CO₂ production and compression, power provision, governmental cooperation, CO₂ transportation and CO₂ EOR production are the primary components of the alliance.

Finally, experience in the Permian Basin demonstrates that CO₂ enhanced oil recovery is a relatively proven and cost efficient process for CO₂ sequestration. It has been demonstrated there that large volumes can be injected and stored in mature oil reservoirs while producing additional oil to pay for sequestration project operations and infrastructure construction. Incentives to accelerate the building of pipelines and capture of vent stack CO₂ may be necessary to jump start sequestration in areas where no existing infrastructure exists.