

Baker Hughes INTEQ

Figure: 0.21



Drilling Engineering Workbook

Figure: 0.16

A Distributed Learning

Figure: 0.14

80270H Rev. B December 1995

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HUGHES

INTEQ

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Figure: 0.21

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FORWARD

The *Drilling Engineering Workbook* is a correspondence (distributed learning) course which covers the important elements of drilling a well. The emphasis is on the theory behind these drilling elements in order to develop a greater understanding of the principles involved in drilling a well.

This is a learning course. Individuals should study each section and answer the questions at the end of the section. Supplementary reading is provided in this workbook, along with the related material for each section. This information is intended for those individuals involved in drilling a well.

Comments on the course material, should be directed to the Technical Advisor.

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PREFACE

Equation: 0.29

At Baker Hughes INTEQ, we pride ourselves on our people and their level of

proficiency and adaptability at the wellsite, where time, money,

Figure: 0.18 depends on rapid, reliable information management. The

Figure: 0.17 career training system (IN-FACTS), is a system for

training personnel in professional advancement for field operations

Figure: 0.19 these applications.

The IN-FACTS system provides a standardized career development path which utilizes a

Figure: 0.19 learning progression to move personnel into fully developed

Figure: 0.26 roles. Baker Hughes INTEQ personnel can embark

on an individualized career development path which utilizes a

Figure: 0.24 clearly understood, orderly flow of learning

Figure: 0.21 opportunities to move from one discipline to another, and to

Figure: 0.25 move into other disciplines. Movement through the IN-

Figure: 0.24 career development path is based on individual experience, skills, and knowledge

Figure: 0.20 growth and informed decision making.

The training program consists of classroom instruction, self-study, and on-the-job training.

Figure: 0.18 Training in our website services includes increased

Figure: 0.18 opportunities for exhibitors involved in "hand them construction

Text: 0.24 training package will focus on these topics.

Figure: 0.20

Chart: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

INSTRUCTIONING THIS WORKBOOK

The aim of this didactic learning workbook is to provide you with the information on various drilling subjects that can best be studied outside a classroom. It is not the intention of the authors to force you to complete all the assignments as soon as possible. You are encouraged to spend enough time on each particular subject in order to fully understand it. This workbook includes:

Figure: 0.18**Figure: 0.17****Figure: 0.15****Figure: 0.19****Figure: 0.23****Figure: 0.19**

you to complete all the assignments as soon as

you to spend enough time on each particular

workbook includes:

Casing and Cementing**Bit Technology****Drillstring Basics****Directional Drilling****Horizontal Wellbores****Stuck Pipe****Well Control****Cost Analysis****Technical Writing****Figure: 0.19****Text: 0.26****Figure: 0.22****Figure: 0.19****Table: 0.20****Text: 0.18**

At the end of each chapter there will be a "Check Your Progress" section which are designed to assist you in understanding the information presented. It is recommended that you do not proceed until you are comfortable with the concepts. If you have any questions you may have to the Technical Training Department or a technical expert.

When you have completed the workbook assignment (Appendix A). This is to be completed and returned to your supervisor or training administrator. Using this assignment as a guide, your supervisor or training administrator will be able to assist you in the next step.

Upon satisfactory completion of the "Check Your Progress" test will be necessary to take the "Project Management" test. This test is a "Pass/Fail" requirement. Passing requirement for this test is 70%. This test will be administered by the training department or the local administrator.

Figure: 0.18**Figure: 0.25****Text: 0.20****Figure: 0.17****Text: 0.17****Table: 0.17****Figure: 0.23****Text: 0.22****Text: 0.18****Figure: 0.23****Text: 0.22**

Summary

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This workbook is designed to review those engineering principles that are unique to drilling a well and to increase your knowledge and understanding of how these principles apply to wellsites.

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shorter courses will help you learn for yourself, with guidance and assistance from experienced technical personnel, travel expenses and the Technical Training Department.

The aim of the training programme is to develop your minimum skills to a level which will make you fully competent, reliable professional within the oil industry.

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.20

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Text: 0.19

Comments

Figure: 0.21

The Technical Training staff at Baker Hughes INTEQ is interested in your comments and suggestions. Your feedback will help us improve our products and services. Your suggestions and comments will be even better. Please take the time to contact us.

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Drilling Engineering Workbook

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Journal Angl

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Heat Treating

Polymerized Diamond

PDC Drill Bl

Bit Design

PDC Bit Oper

PDC Bit Drill

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Drilling Fluids And Hydraulics

Figure: 0.17

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Recognize the components in the various types of drilling fluids.
- Explain the basic properties and warnings of the major common types of drilling fluids.
- Provide the basic formulas for calculating fluid properties such as a "mud log".
- Calculate barometric pressure changes made to a pre-existing mud system.
- Calculate PV and Y₁ from Fann viscometers readings.
- Perform hydrostatic calculations using the Darcy-Weisbach Law Model.
- Calculate the effect of temperature on mud viscosity.
- Additional References

Table: 0.18

Equation: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.23

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Drill Figure: 0.20

A drilling fluid is any fluid which is circulated through a well in order to remove cuttings.

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.23

Equation: 0.26

1. Remove cuttings from the well bore.

2. Cool the bottom hole assembly (BHA).

3. Suspend cuttings in the fluid when circulation is stopped.

4. Release pressure to prevent damage to equipment.

5. Allow cuttings to settle.

6. Provide enough hydrostatic pressure to balance formation pressure.

7. Prevent borehole collapse.

8. Protect the borehole from damage which could impair production.

9. Clean, circulate, and flush the well bore.

Occasionally, these functions will tend to act in conflicting ways. It can be seen that item #1 is best accomplished with a high viscosity, whereas items #4-5 are best accomplished with a low viscosity. Items #6-9 are best accomplished with a low viscosity because drilled solids will tend to pack into the producing formation.

Make-up of a Drilling Fluid

In its most basic form a drilling fluid is composed of a liquid (either water or oil) and some solid particles.

Figure: 0.23

Equation: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.17

In emulsion, a dispersed liquid

Figure: 0.23

The Base Liquid

- Water

Figure: 0.20

- Oil - diesel oil

Figure: 0.22

- Mineral Oil or Gasoline

Figure: 0.22

Dispersed Solids

- Colloidal particles of various sizes

Text: 0.22**Text: 0.19**

Dissolved Solids

- Usually salts, but it is important

Text: 0.20

All drilling fluids have certain properties

Figure: 0.22

which are important

Text: 0.22

varies. These properties include density, viscosity, gel strength, filter cake,

Text: 0.22

water loss, and etc.

Text: 0.24**Normal Drilling Fluids****Figure: 0.23**

Though this type

Text: 0.21

is more difficult

Text: 0.21

there is little effi-

Text: 0.21

ciency. It is simple to make

Text: 0.21

1. It is used where no unexpected conditions occur

2. The size, so its properties are in the range required

Figure: 0.18

3. The control

Text: 0.21

Since viscosity

Text: 0.18

colloidal clay is

Text: 0.16

used:

Text: 0.16

1. Water soluble polyphosphates

EauText: 0.213

- (a) the reduces

Text: 0.20

- (b) can be u

Text: 0.20

- (c) if filter cake and

Text: 0.21

- add colloidal clay to system

Text: 0.21

2. Caustic Soda

TabChart: 0.19

- (a) the

Text: 0.18

- (b) use

Chart: 0.16

- the

Text: 0.17

- use

Chart: 0.22

- the

Text: 0.20

The upper portion

Figure: 0.20 "normal" muds

1. Care must be taken not to add chemicals which may hinder the making of
2. Native clays used

Equation: 0.19**Equation: 0.24****Special Drilling Fluids****Equation: 0.24**

These drilling fluids are made to combat particular abnormal move

Figure: 0.20 Specific objectives. These are:

1. Specific objectives

Text: 0.21**Figure: 0.20**

- (a) prevent penetration into producing zones

2. Abutment

Text: 0.22

- (a) long section

- (b) high formation

Text: 0.24**Lime Base Muds****Figure: 0.25**

1. Water base
2. Treated with large amounts of lime.
3. Added in a tank or
4. Ratio of 2 lb causes 5 lb lime per 1 barrel of mud.
5. Will go through a highly viscous stage, but will become stable at

Text: 0.24

6. Contains

- (a) large amounts of contaminating salts

- (b) remains

6. Weaknesses: it has a tendency to segregate to high bottom.

Text: 0.20**Text: 0.17****Equation: 0.19****Equation: 0.22****Equation: 0.19****Chart: 0.16**

lime-Treated

Figure: 0.24

1. Similar to lime-based muds, differ only in clays
2. A common use of lime-treated muds is high temperature gelation process
 - (a) use less lime than lime-based muds
 - (b) not nearly so resistant to salt contamination

Figure: 0.19**Emulsion Muds - Oil in Water**

1. Oil can be added to natural muds with good results
2. Text: 0.18 necessary
3. Natural or special emulsifying agents hold oil in tight suspension after mixing
 - Fatu: 0.18
 - Figure: 0.18
4. Oils used are
 - (a) Crude oil
 - (b) Diesel
 - (c) any oil which is immiscible with water
5. Oil content in mud may be 1% to 40%
6. Advantages
 - (a) very stable properties
 - (b) easily maintained
 - (c) low filtration and infiltration rates
 - (d) faster penetration
 - (e) reduces down-hole friction
7. Major objection is that they mask any oil from the formations

Text: 0.20**Figure: 0.19****Text: 0.18****Figure: 0.18****Text: 0.18****Figure: 0.18****Text: 0.23****Text: 0.24****Text: 0.19****Inhibited Muds**

1. Muds with inhibited clays
2. Large amounts of dilution required
3. High pH usually necessary
4. Designed to reduce the amount of formation swelling caused by filtrate - inhibit clay

Equation: 0.19**Chart: 0.19****Chart: 0.21****Chart: 0.18****Equation: 0.17**

5. Disadvantages

(a) need specialized electric logs

(b) requires much mud circulation

(c) low mud weight

(d) hard to increase viscosity

(e) salt destroys natural filter cake formation properties of clays

Figure: 0.19**Equation: 0.18****Equation: 0.22****Equation: 0.25****Equation: 0.22****Gypsum Base Muds**

1. A specialized inhibitor

Equation: 0.19

(a) contained large amounts of calcium sulfate

Text: 0.17

(c) lime

Figure: 0.25

2. Advantages

Text: 0.24

(a) mud is stable

Figure: 0.21

(c) filtrate does not damage cores

Text: 0.17

(d) high gel strength

3. Disadvantages

Chart: 0.17

(a) fine abrasives

Text: 0.19

(b) retards setting time

Text: 0.20**Oil Based Muds**

1. Oil instead of water

Text: 0.20

2. Additives must be soluble

Text: 0.25

3. Generally premixed

Text: 0.204. To increase viscosity
be added**Figure: 0.21**

slaked lime may

5. Advantages

Text: 0.22

(a) will not hydrate

Text: 0.20

(b) good lubrication

Chart: 0.19

ill rates

Equation: 0.17**Equation: 0.19**

Hughes INTEQ

Equation: 0.20

6. Disadvantages:

(a) expensive

(b) dirty to work with

(c) requires special equipment

(d) viscosity varies with pressure

Figure: 0.20

Chart: 0.19

Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.16

Inverted Emulsions

- Water in oil emulsion. Oil largest component, then water added.

Order of addition is important

- Text: 0.18** mixtures of oil mads, but cheaper.

Somewhat less stable

Salt Water Muds

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.20

- Can be used either completely or partly salted

- Weight can be increased

- No filter cake build-up in shales

formations

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.21

Silicate Muds

Text: 0.21

- Components are clay minerals and water

- Used to reduce water loss which prevents heaving or sloughing

- Will be 12% solid or less

- Crosslinks, can increase shear strength results

Text: 0.18

Low Solids Muds

Text: 0.18

- Equation: 0.22** add at a minimum, which promotes faster and safer drilling

- Three ways **Equation: 0.21**

(a) water dilution

(b) centrifuging

(c) circulated through large surface area pits

- When clays are present, chemicals are needed

Text: 0.20

4. When soil is **Fig 1****Figure: 0.21**, w. clay solids are replaced by organic matter.

5. Other advantages:

 - (a) good infiltration **Equation: 0.27** volumes
 - (b) always give firm **Equation: 0.23**

6. Problems:

 - (a) excessive dilution **Figure: 0.21**
 - (b) can be **Fig 2****Figure: 0.22**

Drilling Fluid Classification

Non-Distributed System

This mud system consists of **Figure 0.21** and other lightly treated systems. Generally

Table: 0.27

These include by reducers. Note where problems with viscosity occur. The imp products are specific mud chemicals are added to maintain

Calcium-Treated Mud Systems

Figure: 0.22 This mud system contains calcium chloride to inhibit the hydration of formation clay minerals. Calcium chloride and calcium chloride are the main components of this system.

Polymer Mat.

Figure: 0.19 Polymers are used to increase the borehole shear-thinning modulus, which are linear-weight compounds, which are linked polymers, which have good rheological properties, are also used.

Low Solids

This type of **Equation: 0.18** Total solids should not be greater than 3%. Dri **Text: 0.18**

Saturated S

A saturated solution has a maximum solubility of 180,000 ppm. In a saltwater system, those values range from 6,000 to 189,000 ppm. Those are the extremes for seawater systems.

These results can be explained by Figure 0.23, water, then sodium chloride or other salts (potassium iodide) are added to maintain the clay, CMC or starch

Oil-Based Mud

There are two types of dispersed phase emulsion muds, 1) the continuous phase (water in oil mud), and 2) the discontinuous phase (oil in water mud). Figure 0.22 shows a water-in-oil mud system. Figure 0.23 shows an oil-in-water mud system. Figure 0.24 shows a schematic of the rheological properties of emulsion muds.

Air, Mist, Foam

These "lower than normal" types of wells may be cuttings and can be used until appreciable amounts of water are encountered, 2) must drilling is then used, which involves mud circulation, and 3) when water is encountered, which uses chemical detergents, or acidizing treatments, to reduce the hydrostatic pressure.

Workover Mud

Also called comminution, it involves the use of mechanical systems designed to 1) minimize formation fracturing fluids and 2) reduce the size of the particles. They are usually highly treated by hydration. They are usually highly treated by hydration. They are usually highly treated by hydration.

Drilling Fluid Additives

Many substances perform specialized common functions.

Alkalinity and

Designed to control the pressure of the drilling fluid.
Most common a **Text: 0.19** bar excess of static pressure.

B-5-1-1-1

Used to reduce the bacteria count. Paraformaldehyde, caustic soda, lime and starch water are the most common.

Figure 0.19 Calcium Isotopes

These are used to overcome the contamination effects of calcium sulphate. The most common are caustic soda, soda ash, boric acid and poly phosphates.

Figure- 0.24

Figure 0.22

Equation- 0.18

Text-020

Corrosion Inhibit**Figure: 0.20**

Used to control the effects of oxygen and hydrogen sulfide corrosion.

Hydrated lime is commonly used to check this type of

corrosion. Other materials used include organic corrosion inhibition properties.

Defoamers**Equation: 0.22**

These are used to reduce the foaming action in salt and saturated saltwater mud systems.

Equation: 0.24**Emulsifiers****Equation: 0.21**

Added to a mud system to form an homogeneous mixture of two liquids (oil and water).

Text: 0.23

The most common emulsifiers are modified lignosulfonates, fatty acids and amine derivatives.

Filtrate Reducers**Text: 0.26**

These are used to reduce the amount of filtrate lost to the formations. The

Figure: 0.23

Most common filter reducers are sodium carboxymethylcellulose.

Text: 0.17**Flocculants****Figure: 0.19**

These are used to cause particles in suspension to form into bunches, called flocs. Commonly used are salt, hydrated lime, gypsum and bentonite.

Text: 0.19**Foaming Agents****Equation: 0.16**

Most common foaming agents are used to reduce the amount of foam in the presence of water.

Text: 0.19**Lost Circulation Materials****Equation: 0.18**

These inert substances are used to prevent the loss of drilling fluid into the formations, to prevent the loss of circulation. Commonly used are bentonite, Nut plug (nut shells), and mica flakes.

Text: 0.18**Lubricants****Text: 0.19**

These are used to reduce the coefficient of friction. Certain types of oil are used.

Equation: 0.20**Pipe-Freeliners****Text: 0.23**

Used as spot treatments to reduce friction. Lubricity and detergents, salts inhibit formation hydration. Commonly used are oils, detergents, salts.

Text: 0.25**Text: 0.21****Text: 0.18****Text: 0.17****Equation: 0.20**

Shale Control

These are used to control the hydration, caving and disintegration of clay/shale formations.

Figure: 0.25

These are used to control the hydration, caving and disintegration of clay/

shale formations.

sodium silicate and

Equation: 0.20**Surfactants**

These are used to reduce the interfacial tension between contacting surfaces (oil/water).

Figure: 0.22**Weighting Agents**

Used to provide the fluids specific gravity.

Equation: 0.17

Materials are barite, hematite, barium carbonate and galena.

Equation: 0.16**Figure: 0.20**

Material Balance Equations

Material balance equations are used for calculating volumes and densities when two or more materials are mixed together.

The Material Balance Equations

$$V_1 W_1 + V_2 W_2 = V_3 W_3 \quad \text{where} \quad V_1 + V_2 = V_3$$

where: V_1 = Volume of first material to be mixed together

W_1 = Density of first material

V_2 = Volume of second material to be mixed together

W_2 = Density of second material

V_3 = Volume of total mixture

W_3 = Density of total mixture

The most commonly used variables in these equations are:

Barite

- Weight of a barrel of barite

$$42 \text{ gal/bbl} \times 8.33 \text{ lb/gal} \times 4.2 = 1470 \text{ lb/bbl}$$

* since one barrel contains 14.70 sacks

- Weight of a gallon of barite

$$42 \text{ gal/bbl} / 12 = 3.5 \text{ lb/gal}$$

Hematite**Figure: 0.18**

- Weight of a barrel of hematite

$$42 \text{ gal/bbl} \times 8.33 \text{ lb/gal} \times 5.0 = 1749 \text{ lb/bbl}$$

- Weight of a gallon of hematite

$$8.33 \text{ lb/gal} / 12 = 0.69 \text{ lb/gal}$$

Light Oil**Figure: 0.18**

- Example: 41° API Gravity

$$0.22 \text{ lb/gal} / 12 = 0.02 \text{ lb/gal}$$

$$41 \text{°API} = 0.857 \text{ lb/gal}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.20}$$

Example Problem

Figure: 0.24

Calculate how many sacks of barite are required to increase the density of an 800 barrel mud to 14.5 lb/gal.

Figure: 0.21

Using: $V_1W_1 + V_2W_2 = V_FW_F$

Chart: 0.19

where: $V_1 = 800$ bbls

$W_1 = 12.7$ lb/gal

$V_2 = \text{unknown volume}$

$W_2 = 34.9$ lb/gal (density of barite)

$V_F = V_1 + V_2$ (or 800)

$W_F = 14.5$ lb/gal

therefore: $800(12.7) + V_2(34.9) = 800(14.5)$

$$10,160 + 34.9V_2 = 11,600$$

$$20.4V_2 = 1,440$$

$$V_2 = 70.6$$

bbls of barite

$$70.6 \text{ bbls} \times 14.7 \text{ sack/bbl} = 103.8 \text{ sacks of barite}$$

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.24

bbls of barite

bbls of barite

Figure: 0.21

Chart: 0.21

Equation: 0.18

Chart: 0.18

Example Problem #1-2:

Calculate how much water and barite are required to dilute 800 barrels of a 10.5 lb/gal water-based drilling mud.

Using: $V_1W_1 + V_2W_2 = V_FW_F$

Figure: 0.20

where: $V_1 = \text{unknown volume}$

$W_1 = 8.33$ lb/gal

$V_2 = \text{unknown volume of barite or } (800 - V_1)$

$W_2 = 34.9$ lb/gal

$V_F = 800$ bbls

$W_F = 10.5$ lb/gal

therefore: $V_1(8.33) + V_2(34.9) = 800(10.5)$

Text: 0.19

$$8.33V_1 + 27.92V_2 = 8400$$

$$-8.33V_1 - 8.33V_1$$

$$-19.58V_2 = -5600$$

Text: 0.17

$$V_2 = 800 \text{ bbls} - 735 \text{ bbls} = 65 \text{ bbls}$$

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.17

Other: 0.19

Chart: 0.24

Figure: 0.24

Oil-Figure: 0.22

These fluids, because of their special nature of being a mixture of two immiscible liquids, require special treatments and testing procedures.

Dispersed Phase: A liquid dispersed in another liquid in the form of finely divided droplets.

Continuous Phase: The liquid present in the form of the matrix in which the dispersed phase is dispersed.

Equation: 0.28

To keep these droplets from coalescing and forming larger droplets, an emulsifier is added to form an interfacial film around the dispersed phase. This film prevents each other, so they remain dispersed.

The effective emulsifying agent depends on the alkalinity and electrolytes (ions) present in the drilling fluid.

Electrical Stability

The electrical stability (E.S.) of an oil-based drilling fluid is the stability of the emulsion against breakdown.

Text: 0.17

Equation: 0.18

1. An increase in voltage applied into the drilling fluid and the amount of current required to break the emulsion increases.

Text: 0.19

2. E.S. is dependent on the pH, viscosity, and temperature of the drilling fluid.

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.15

2. E.S. is dependent on the pH, viscosity, and temperature of the drilling fluid.

Figure: 0.22

- a. E.S. is dependent on the pH, viscosity, and temperature of the drilling fluid.

b. Current required to break the emulsion increases.

- c. during drilling, the E.S. can increase to 800 or higher.

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Oil: Water Ratio

The Oil: Water Ratio is defined as the percent oil in the liquid phase and the percent water in the liquid phase. It can be determined from a retort analysis of the drilling fluid.

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Example Problem #1.3

Determine the oil: water ratio from the following report analysis:

oil = 54% Water = 30% solids = 10%

$$\text{oil\%} = \frac{54}{34.4} \times 100 = 157.5\% \quad \text{Equation: 0.19}$$

The oil: water ratio is 60:40. **TeEquation: 0.20**

To change the oil: water ratio requires adding oil or water. To increase the ratio, add oil. To decrease the ratio, add water. The oil required to increase the oil: water ratio by 10% is calculated as follows:

where: $\%V_{oi}$ = initial % of oil by volume (%)

Figure: 0.18

$\%V_{fi}$ = final % of oil by volume (%)

V_{oi} = total initial volume (quarts)

V_{fi} = total final volume (quarts)

The water required to reduce the oil: water ratio by 10% is calculated as follows:

where: $\%V_{oi}$ = initial % of oil by volume (%)

Figure: 0.19

$\%V_{fi}$ = final % of oil by volume (%)

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.25

Figure: 0.26

Figure: 0.27

Figure: 0.28

Figure: 0.29

Figure: 0.30

Figure: 0.31

Figure: 0.32

Figure: 0.33

Figure: 0.34

Figure: 0.35

Figure: 0.36

Figure: 0.37

Figure: 0.38

Figure: 0.39

Figure: 0.40

Figure: 0.41

Figure: 0.42

Figure: 0.43

Figure: 0.44

Figure: 0.45

Figure: 0.46

Figure: 0.47

Figure: 0.48

Aniline Point

Another common term used when discussing oil-based drilling fluids is the aniline point of that fluid. The aniline point is the temperature below

which an oil containing 50% by volume aniline ($C_6H_5NH_2$) becomes cloudy.

The solvent powers for rubber are related to the aniline point.

Oils having an aniline point above 140°F are considered incapable to use.

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.25

Figure: 0.26

Figure: 0.27

Figure: 0.28

Figure: 0.29

Figure: 0.30

Figure: 0.31

Figure: 0.32

Figure: 0.33

Figure: 0.34

Figure: 0.35

Figure: 0.36

Figure: 0.37

Drill Figure: 0.22 misc

Table 1: Typical Composition/Costs - Unweighted Drilling Fluid

(Figure: 0.20) to mix one barrel

| Component | Volume | Cost(\$) | Cost(\$) |
|--------------------------|---------|----------|----------|
| Diesel Oil | 0.8 bbl | 142.00 | 33.60 |
| Emulsifier/Wetting Agent | 6.0 lbs | 1.50 | 9.00 |
| Water | | | |
| Gel | | | |
| Calcium Chloride | | | |
| Lime | | | |
| Total Cost (1 bbl) | | | 52.90 |

Fresh-Water Dispersed Drilling Fluid

| | | | |
|-----------------------|----------|------|------|
| Bentonite | 25.0 lbs | 0.07 | 1.75 |
| Chrome Lignosulfonate | 6.0 lbs | 0.50 | 3.00 |
| Lignite | 4.0 lbs | 0.30 | 1.20 |
| Caustic Soda | 3.0 lbs | 0.40 | 1.20 |
| Water | 1.0 bbl | - | - |
| Total Cost (1 bbl) | | | 7.15 |

KCl Polymer Drilling Fluid

| | | | |
|---|----------|------|-------|
| Bentonite (pre-mixed w/ H ₂ O) | 5.0 lbs | 0.07 | 0.35 |
| Chrome Lignosulfonate | 1.0 lbs | 0.50 | 0.50 |
| Caustic Soda | 0.3 lbs | 0.40 | 0.12 |
| Potassium Chloride | 35.0 lbs | 0.20 | 7.00 |
| Polyanionic Cellulose | 2.0 lbs | 3.00 | 6.00 |
| Potassium Hydroxide | 0.3 lbs | 0.80 | 0.24 |
| Total Cost (1 bbl) | | | 14.21 |

Table 2: Type

FOUR
(Barrels of Beer)

Balances of payment

Component

Volume

Cost(S) Cost(S)

Equation: 0.20

Low Gelation Drilling Fluid

| | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| Diesel Oil | 55 bbl | 42.00 | 23.10 |
| Emulsifier/Wetting Agent | 8.0 lbs | 1.50 | 12.00 |
| Water | | | Figure: 0.20 |
| Gel | 4.0 lbs | 1.20 | 4.80 |
| Calcium Chloride | | Figure: 0.19 | 0.20 |
| Lime | | Figure: 0.22 | 0.10 |
| Barite | | Figure: 0.19 | 0.07 |
| Total Cost (1 bbl) | | Chart: 0.19 | 78.20 |
| Fresh | | Chart: 0.21 | |
| Bentonite | | Equation: 0.21 | 0.07 |
| Chrome Lignosulfonate | 9.0 lbs | Chart: 0.23 | 0.50 |
| Lignite | 6.0 lbs | | 0.30 |
| Caustic Soda | 4.0 lbs | | 0.40 |
| Barite | 450.0 lbs | | 0.07 |
| Water | 1.0 bbl | | - |
| Total Cost (1 bbl) | | | 40.80 |

KCl Polymer Drilling Fluid

| | | | |
|---|-----------|------|-------|
| Bentonite (pre-mixed w/ H ₂ O) | 5.0 lbs | 0.07 | 0.35 |
| Chrome Lignosulfonate | 1.0 lbs | 0.50 | 0.50 |
| Caustic Soda | 0.3 lbs | 0.40 | 0.12 |
| Potassium Chloride | 24.0 lbs | 0.20 | 4.80 |
| Polyinosinic Cellulose | 3.0 lbs | 3.00 | 9.00 |
| Modified Starch | 5.0 lbs | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| Potassium Hydroxide | 0.3 lbs | 0.80 | 0.24 |
| Barite | 400.0 lbs | 0.07 | 28.00 |
| | | | |
| Total Cost (1 bbl) | | | 43.01 |

Table 3: Drilling

Figure: 0.18

| Drilling Conditions | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| High Angle Hole | | | | | x | | x | x | x | x |
| Very Reactive Shales | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Sticking Problems | x | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Lost Circulation | x | x | x | | x | x | | | x | |
| Mud Weights (>16ppg) | x | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | x |
| Temperatures (>325F) | | | | | x | x | x | | x | x |
| Gas Hydrates | | | x | x | | | | x | | |
| Recommended Mud Type | | | | | | | | | | |
| Oil-Based | | | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Lignosulfonate | 1 | 2 | | | | 1 | 2 | | | 2 |
| Polymer | | | 2 | 1 | | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Potassium Lime | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 3 | | 3 | | | 2 |

To use this chart: If the well was a high angle well with possible reactive shales and the possibility of differential sticking, drilling fluid choices (in order of preference) are: (1) oil-base, (2) polymer and (3) potassium lime

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.18

Drilling Engineering

Figure: 0.24

For those working at wellsites, a basic knowledge of "fluid" properties is required, especially that of liquids.

Fluids can be either compressible or incompressible. Liquids are highly compressible and its volume becomes smaller as pressure increases. Gases, on the other hand, are compressible and their volume becomes smaller as pressure increases.

We shall be dealing with liquids throughout the text. Since drilling muds are commonly referred to as "muds", we shall use the term "mud" when referring to drilling fluid with no intent to imply that it is a solid.

A cube of water with each edge 1 ft long weighs 62.4 lbs. The density or "specific gravity" of water is 1.000.

The gravitational force of attraction between two masses is called "mass density" or just density. This same cube of water would exert a pressure of 0.244 lbs/in² distributed evenly over its base.

Hydrostatic pressure is defined as the pressure exerted by a column of liquid of height h and density ρ .

$$H_p = (\rho g h) \quad (0.19)$$

where:

$$H_p = \text{hydrostatic pressure}$$

$$\rho = \text{fluid density}$$

$$g = \text{gravitational constant}$$

Note that this is a direct proportionality between depth and fluid density.

In oilfield units, the conversion factor is 0.0519 lb/in² per ft of liquid.

There are 7.48 gal in 1 cu ft of water.

because: $1 \text{ lb/gal} \times 7.48 \text{ gal/cu ft} \times 1 \text{ ft} = 7.48 \text{ lb/in}^2$

and: $7.48 / 144 = \text{psi}/\text{ft/lb/gal}$

therefore: $0.0519 = \text{psi}/\text{ft/lb/gal}$

A drilling fluid of 8.34 lb/gal exerts a pressure of 0.4123 psi.

$$8.34 \text{ lb/gal} \times 0.0519 \text{ psi/lb/gal} \times 0.4123 \text{ ft} = 0.178 \text{ psi} \quad (0.18)$$

In SI units the conversion factor is 1000 N/m² per m.

$H_p (\text{kPa}) = M \times 1000 \text{ N/m}^2$

Text: 0.19

$$H_p (\text{kPa}) = M \times 1000 \text{ N/m}^2 \quad (0.19)$$

$$F = M \times 1000 \text{ N/m}^2 \quad (0.20)$$

Figure: 0.20

Pressure is defined as the force acting on a unit area. In the oil field, pressure is often expressed in pounds per square inch (psi).

At the wellsite, we may need to know the pressures throughout the circulating system. We may need to know the pressure at a particular point in the system, or we may want to calculate the pressure volume at a given rate. There are several mechanisms imposed. Although their

Note: *The pressure at any given point in the circulating system*

$$P = \rho g h \quad \text{Equation: 0.19}$$

Hydrostatic Pressure

As mentioned earlier, this is the pressure due to a column of fluid due to its density. This pressure always exists and may be calculated whether the fluid is static or flowing. It can be calculated using:

$$H_p(\text{psi}) = MW \cdot 0.0519 \cdot TVD(\text{ft}) \quad \text{Text: 0.22}$$

Table: 0.19
Hydraulic Pressure

This is the pressure required to move the drilling fluid through pipe, generated by the mud pump in order to move the drilling fluid around the system and back to the flowline.

Figure: 0.20
Pressure will be developed at any point in the system. This type of pressure can be calculated at any point in the circulating system.

Pressure drop or pressure loss is the loss of fluid over a given distance, for example,

Figure: 0.20



the hydraulic head at point B in the figure is 600 psi. How much pressure must be developed to move the mud from point A to point B?

$$\Delta P = \rho g \Delta h \quad \text{Equation: 0.18}$$

Text: 0.22 *Source: Hughes INTEC*

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.19

The hydraulic pressure at point E in the figure is 225 psi. However, the total pressure at point E is 675 psi. That is, 675 psi is required to overcome the hydrostatic pressure from A to B and 375 psi to overcome the pressure drop from C to D.

Exercise 1-4: If the pump pressure is 1000 psi, what is the pressure at points C and D?

Point C _____ psi

Point D _____ psi

Exercise 1-5: What is the pressure drop (loss) between the following points?

A to C _____ psi

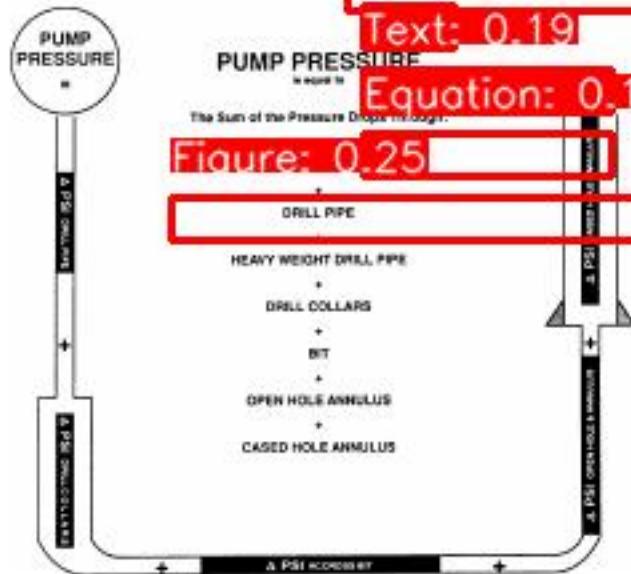
B to C _____ psi

B to D _____ psi

C to D _____ psi

D to E _____ psi

The total system pressure loss in the drawing (A to E) is 900 psi.



Note: The pressure at any given point in the circulating system is the sum of the hydrostatic, hydraulic, and imposed pressures which exist at that point.

Typically, by **Equation: 0.20** in order to:

- Determine the total pressure being exerted at the casing shoe (generally the bottom of the well).

(generally the bottom of the well); the bottom of the well.

This pressure is determined by **Equation: 0.20** (assuming a mud density

equivalent mud weight) and **Equation: 0.23** (determining the equivalent mud weight).

Density) for that equivalent mud weight.

- Determine the mud properties required to support the wellbore.

- mud properties

- drill string configuration

- bit size

- total flow rate

- flow rate

- Determine the mud properties required to support the wellbore.

- maximum pump pressure

- mud properties

- drill string configuration

- bit size

- flow rate

Imposed Pressure

These are external pressures applied to the wellbore. These pressures may be imposed on the wellbore when the well is open to the atmosphere or when the well is shut-in. These pressures are called imposed pressure. This type of pressure is distributed uniformly throughout the shut-in wellbore.

- the pumps (i.e. when the well kicks)
- the formation (i.e. when the well kicks)

Other: 0.16: Pump

Assume that the well shown on page 1-21 is shut in (annular preventer & choke valves closed). If a small amount of mud is pumped into the wellbore, the pressure will begin to increase immediately and will be felt uniformly throughout the wellbore.

As an example, if 100 psi of mud is pumped into the wellbore, the pressure (900 psi) is felt inside the BOP stack, inside the drill string, at the bottom of the hole, and throughout the entire circulating system.

Such procedures are commonly used under each casing string. It is referred to as testing the casing shoe and is done in order to determine the maximum pressure the shoe can withstand. Under normal conditions,

the formation fracture pressure increases with depth. This means that formations normally become harder to fracture, as depth increases.

Equation: 0.19

Note: Under normal conditions, the weakest point in the annulus will be at the bottom of the hole.

It is possible to conduct three different types of tests:

- Leak-Off Test: Pumping mud into the shut-in well continues until mud is lost to the formation. This is described by a non-linear relationship between pressure and flow rate.
 - Pressure Integrity Test: Mud is pumped into the well under a predetermined imposed (pump) pressure. This test is conducted without any loss of mud into the formation.
 - Fracture Test: Pumping mud into the well until a fracture occurs.
- Although this type of test is occasionally done, it is not a normal way of conducting a fracture test.

Exercise 1-6: After setting the 13 1/2" casing shoe, the well was drilled to 10,000 ft. A leak-off test was run. Leak-off pressure = _____ psi. The leak-off test was conducted with a mud density of 12.8 ppg in the hole. Calculate:

Pressure @ Shoe = _____ psi

Gradient @ Shoe = _____ psi/ft

EQMD @ Shoe = _____ ppg

Exercise 1-7: After running the leak-off test, drilling proceeded in the hole. The mud density was increased to 13.2 ppg. A second leak-off test was conducted. The leak-off pressure = _____ psi. Calculate the following:

Pressure @ Shoe = _____ psi

Gradient @ Shoe = _____ psi/ft

EQMD @ Shoe = _____ ppg

Pressure @ 10,000 ft = _____ psi

Gradient @ 10,000 ft = _____ psi/ft

EQMD @ 10,000 ft = _____ ppg

Exercise 0.8: If while drilling at a rate of 14.4 ppg, a leak-off test had been conducted at the casing shoe, and the pressure (pump pressure) at the casing shoe was 100 psi, what would you have experienced the exercise?

Leak-Off pressure = _____

If the formation at the shoe is the weakest point in the borehole at what depth did the formation take mud out of the well? (Hint: compare the values of EQM and EBM.)

Text: 0.21

Pressure Imposition

Figure: 0.19

Imposed pressure is the pressure exerted by the mud in the annulus. If formation pressure exceeds imposed pressure, and the well is shut-in, the pressure differential between the hydrostatic of the drilling fluid and the formation pressure, will be recorded as a kick. If formation pressure is less than imposed pressure, and the well is shut-in, different readings will be noted. These will be the drillpipe (pump) pressure and the casing (choke) pressure.

If no pressure is applied to the annulus, then the hydrostatic pressure in the annulus will be equal to the pressure in the wellbore.

Figure: 0.22

Equation: 0.18

- Usually, the density of the drilling fluid will have a density less than the formation pressure.

Text: 0.20

- The mud will be less than the hydrostatic pressure because the formation pressure is constant for the entire length of the wellbore, and since the annular pressure is constant, the mud pressure must differ.

Figure: 0.25

- The mud pressure will be less than the annular pressure sum.

Figure: 0.23

Exercise 0.9: While drilling at a rate of 14.4 ppg, the wellhead pressure was immediately shut in after the system stabilized. The pressure at the surface was 200 psi. What is the pressure in the wellbore?

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.28

What must the mud pressure be to balance the kicking formation?

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Chart: 0.16

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.16

Figure: 0.23

Equation: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Exercise 1-10: The formation fluid pressure is 6.8 ppg. The influx comes from a 6.5 ppg annulus.

What is the surface casing pressure? _____ psi

What is the pressure at the bottom of the well?

Depending on the situation, one or more pressure sources may exist in the well at any given time. If there is no pressure in the bore, it exists everywhere in the system. However, its magnitude may vary throughout the system.

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.19

Pascal's Law

"The pressure applied to a confined fluid is transmitted undiminished in all directions, every particle of the fluid carrying the same pressure."

Figure: 0.23 When applied to drilling practices are important. When a well is shut in during a kick, the pressure is exerted throughout the entire wellbore. Which of the following uphold experience the same pressure?

Equation: 0.21

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.21

Figure: 0.23

Table: 0.17

Chart: 0.14

Figure: 0.16

Drill Figure: 0.21

One of the most important reports at the wellsite is the daily drilling fluid report, or "mud report". Containing basic well and rig information, the mud report will contain a list of all the required properties of the drilling fluid. The most important property is density.

Density

The density of water is 1.0 g/cm³. As mentioned earlier, fresh water has a density of 8.34 lb/ft³, with a specific gravity of 0.453 psf/ft. As long as the total weight of the fluid is less than the weight of the rock, the fluid will not move it.

Text: 0.16

Text: 0.21

Since this is not the case, some heavy material must be added to the fluid, the mud weight.

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.17

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.17

During wells with drilling fluid, the beam is balanced by adding steel shot to the counterweight until the rider sits on the scribe line.

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.17 (ps)

The plastic viscosity (PV) is calculated by measuring the shear rate and stress of the fluid using a Fann viscometer, which is a rotating two speed model.

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.17

The Fann viscometer consists of a sleeve and a bob, which rotate around a central axis.

When the outer sleeve rotates at a known speed, torque is transmitted through the inner bob by a spiral spring and bushing, where the torque is proportional to the shear rate.

The shear rate is the rotational speed of the sleeve and the shear stress is the stress (torque) applied to the bob, measured as:

Equation: 0.18
d to be converted. Chart: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Baker Hughes 000000

80278H Rev. B / December 1995

Shear rate is the shear stress per unit distance. It is usually written as sec^{-1} . The dial reading on the dial reading multiplied by 1.067 to obtain a reading in sec^{-1} .

The units of viscosity are poise or centipoise (1/100 poises) and is derived as follows:

Viscosity (poise)

where: $F = \text{Force}$

$A = \text{Area}$

$V = \text{Velocity}$

$H = \text{Distance}$

This produces viscosity as Dynes (sec/cm^2) or poise.

The Fann viscometer reading is $511 \times \text{dial reading} / \text{shear rate}$ to obtain shear stress in $\text{lb}/100\text{ft}^2$; or multiply by 1.067 to obtain the shear rate in sec^{-1} to get Dynes/ cm^2 .

Viscosity then becomes:

since $511 \text{ sec}^{-1} = 300 \text{ rpm}$

or $(300 \times \text{Text: 0.21}) / \text{rpm}$

The viscometer is designed to give the viscosity of water used at 300 rpm.

For Non-Newtonian fluids, viscosity shear-stress to shear-rate is not constant and varies with shear-rate. With a Bingham plastic fluid, a finite force is required to initiate a constant rate of increase of shear-stress with shear-rate. To obtain a value for this constant rate of increase, readings are taken at 300 rpm and 600 rpm. The 600 rpm reading minus the 300 rpm reading gives the slope of the shear-stress to shear-rate curve.

The "apparent viscosity" is calculated as $(600 - 300) / \text{shear rate}$ and divided by 2. This is a measure of that resistance to flow between solids in the mud and the shearing layers of the mud itself.

We can see that control over our PV! This leads to "Why a mud is one of the most important factors in drilling. The mud, the suspension applied to the formation, is obvious that increasing the mud density, so a balance must be found in which the

Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.21

Chart: 0.20

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.19

Text: (Text: 0.19)

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.21

Equation:

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.24

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.17

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.17

Text: 0.29

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.25

Figure: 0.19

correct mud weight is maintained without exerting unnecessary pressure.

Figure: 0.20

are maintained without exerting unnecessary pressure.

Figure: 0.20

In the mud system, we have solids that are an integral part of the mud (bentonite, sand, limestone, diamonds, etc.). The addition of barite or hematite to the mud will increase the PV. The PV is also a function of temperature and pressure. As the temperature increases, the PV will decrease. Several methods can be used to reduce the PV of the mud, one of which will be discussed below.

1. Dilution

2. Shale shakers

3. Centrifuges

4. Desanding

To increase the viscosity of the mud, various types of "mud chemicals" can be added. These are usually type of polymers and gums (Guar or Xanthan) are also used.

The polymer viscosifiers used in drilling muds are called "polymers". Most polymers provide a mud with a higher viscosity than water, which allows viscosity to be maintained while circulating pressures are reduced.

Yield Point

This parameter is also obtained from the viscometer. The yield point (YP), as mentioned earlier, is the minimum shear stress required to overcome the electro-chemical attractive forces within the mud. It is the point at which the shear stress becomes positive and continues to increase until it reaches a value near or on the particle's surfaces. With this information, the rheological properties of the mud, the volume concentration of the solids, and the concentration of the dispersants can be determined within the fluid phase.

The yield point can be measured in the field by either:

$$YP = 300 \text{ rpm reading} - PV$$

$$Text: 0.19 \quad (300 \text{ rpm reading}) - 600 \text{ rpm reading}$$

$$Text: 0.19$$

Text: 0.18

Equation: 0.17

Equation: 0.20

Header: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Drilling Engineering

Equation: 0.19

Drilling Fluids And Hydraulics

This gives a higher yield point than the actual or true yield.

As stated earlier, at low shear rates, the Bingham model does not give particularly good results.

High viscosity, on the other hand, is caused by:

1. Introduction of soluble contaminants such as salt, cement, anhydrite, etc., which neutralize negative charges of the clay particles.
2. The breaking of hydrogen bonds between the bit and pipe, which creates space between the particles causing them to stick together.
3. Introduction of inert solids causes the particles to be closer together instead of further apart.
4. Drilling of hydrotalcite system, increasing the number of charges and by bringing the particles closer together.
5. Both insufficient and excessive amounts of chemicals will increase the attrition rate.

Treatment for increased yield point may be controlled by chemical action, but reduction of the yield point is costly.

Yield point may be lowered by:

1. Broken bond valence theory states that certain negative ions at the edge of the clay particles. These residual valences attract cations such as tannins, lignins, thickeners, and organic phosphates. The attractive forces are strong enough to hold the clay's natural negative charges together so that the particles repel each other.
2. If calcareous scale formation occurs, the ion is removed from the mud, thus decreasing the attractive forces and hence the yield point.
3. Water content of the mud content is very high, but it is generally not recommended because it is chemically inactive (i.e., mud does not set).

As mentioned earlier, in addition to carrying the load, the mud and act as "thinners" in a column. They also have a secondary function of a

Header: 0.17

Table: 0.25

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.25

generally higher than the actual or true yield.

Figure: 0.21

At low shear rates, the Bingham model does not give particularly good results.

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.23

High viscosity, on the other hand, is caused by:

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.19

Other: 0.17

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.16

Table: 0.17

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.27

Text: 0.16

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.16

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Header: 0.17

Table: 0.25

Text: 0.22

Standard transmission for G-10 are:

1. Kill the source of CO₂ (if it is a kick, then circulate out the gas through the wellhead) **Figure: 0.21** **Chap 0.10**
 2. Re-establish proper surface pressure **Figure: 0.23** or lame and/or caustic such.

While a high pH will leach out scale, Figure: 0.19 to add chemicals to remove scale. Figure: 0.23

H_2S as a gas is neutral, but when dissolved in water it becomes acidic.

increases, the total amount of sulfides existing as H₂S is reduced. The pH should be maintained at 8.31.

Figure 0.21 Ring formations are to be drilled. A scavenger should be added to remove sulfide. The most common scavengers are zinc carbonate, zinc chromate, zinc oxyxide, iron-sponge (Fe_3O_4) and copper carbonate. The pH will have to be increased when scavengers are added.

pH is commonly measured with pH indicator paper. This paper is impregnated with dyes that render a color which is pH dependent. The paper is placed on the surface of the sample. When the color has stabilized, it is compared to a color chart. An electronic pH meter may also be used.

Filtrate/Water Loss

Filter Cake Thickness

Two types of filtration occur: **dynamic**, while circulating and **static**, while the mud is at rest. Dynamic filtration reaches a constant rate when the rate of erosion of the filter cake is zero.

Text- 0.23ake. Static filtration will cause the cake to grow thicker with time, which results in a decrease in loss of fluid with time.

Text: 0.20 **Figure:** 0.19 **Text:** 0.16 **Text:** 0.18

Workbook

Excessive filter cake

following problems:

1. Tie up hole, causing excessive drag.
2. Increase water loss.
3. Different filter cake.
4. Excessive wireline losses.

Most of these problems are caused by the filter cake and not the amount of filtration because low water loss may not do problems with filter cake. A

The standard filtrate increase can be expressed as:

$$Q_2 =$$

Where: Q_2 = filtrate volume in time t_2

$$Q_1 =$$

Pressure also permeability act as the best

Increased temperature phase and heat the amount of

Proper dispersion of the colloid particles gives a good overlap of particles, thus giving good

$$F_1 =$$

The standard recorded as pressure/high The tests made cartridges or

The high pressure downhole conditions upon the standard tem

$$T_1 =$$

Chart: 0.21 test is conducted to simulate conditions, since the degree of filtration may vary, depending

$$F_2 =$$

Equation: 0.21 sample only at maximum temperature and 100 psi, or

$$F_3 =$$

Figure: 0.15
Equation: 0.18

at high temperature
filter cake is com-

The primary fluid loss agent in most water based muds are the clays. These solids should have a size below 1 micron. This will reduce the porosity and permeability. The use of centrifugal filtration problems can occur if the filter cake is too thick. A fluid loss agent will swell. Water acting on the fluid loss agent will cause it to swell.

Sodium Carboxy
long chain struc
grades. It is thou
openings in the
the clay particle
concentrations r
the fluid loss age

Alkalinity, Mud
Alkalinity, Filtrate

Alkalinity or ac
logarithmic and
noticeable chang
show the phenol

The test for filtr
Text: 0.22 adding 2 or 3 drops of phenolphthalein indicator
solution. Doses of 0.01 normal nitric or sulfuric acid solution are then
Text: 0.18 just disappears. The alkalinity is measured
Text: 0.17 as the number of milliliters of acid per milliliter of filtrate. The test for mud
Text: 0.19 is similar except 25 to 50 milliliters of water
Text: 0.19 are added for dilution. Phenolphthalein are added. The
Text: 0.17 result is measured.

Salt/Chlorides

The salt or chlorides concentration of the mud is monitored as an indicator of contamination. Chlorides may come from water used to make mud, salt brines, or from the formation. They are reacted on mud filtrate.

One or more milliliters of 10% phenolphthalein and 2 or 3 drops of phenolphtalein solution are added to remove the pinkish color. One grain of pure ca-

pressure will indicate if the

Figure: 0.24 pressure will indicate if the
Equation: 0.21 ge percentage being under 1
low porosity and permeability.

Chart: 0.22 equipment may cause
Figure: 0.23 size solids. Starch is also used as

Text: 0.21 that it will easily gelatinize
Header: 0.19 used in viscometers,

Header: 0.21 and starch is used in

Text: 0.18 *Chemical additives* will be used to

Chart: 0.20 into different lengths or
Text: 0.21 long chains plugging narrow

Text: 0.19 with a film. It will however, lose its effectiveness as salt

Text: 0.19 polyacrylic cellulose is used as

Figure: 0.22 *Chemical additives* will be used to

Equation: 0.20 *Chemical additives* will be used to

Text: 0.24 *Pf/Mf*

Text: 0.19 *Chemical additives* will be used to

Table: 0.19 vary considerably without a
Text: 0.19 *Chemical additives* will be used to

Equation: 0.19 *Chemical additives* will be used to

Text: 0.22 *Chemical additives* will be used to

Figure: 0.18 just disappears. The alkalinity is measured

Text: 0.17 as the number of milliliters of acid per milliliter of filtrate. The test for mud

Text: 0.19 is similar except 25 to 50 milliliters of water
Text: 0.19 are added for dilution. Phenolphthalein are added. The
Text: 0.17 result is measured.

Table: 0.17 *ppm or gpg*

Text: 0.20 *ppm or gpg*

Text: 0.23 *ppm or gpg*

Text: 0.22 *ppm or gpg*

Text: 0.19 *ppm or gpg*

Figure: 0.23 *ppm or gpg*

Text: 0.24 *ppm or gpg*

Text: 0.20 *ppm or gpg*

Header: 0.16 *ppm or gpg*

Equation: 0.16 *ppm or gpg*

of distilled water is added. This means that the solution is clear while drops of silver nitrate are added. This means that the solution is clear while drops of silver nitrate are added. This means that the solution is clear while drops of silver nitrate are added. This means that the solution is clear while drops of silver nitrate are added. This means that the solution is clear while drops of silver nitrate are added.

Chlorides are measured by titration with silver nitrate.

This can be converted to salt (NaCl) ppm by multiplying the chlorides by 1.65, or to grams per liter.

$$\text{Equation: 0.25} \quad \text{Chlorides (ppm)} = \frac{\text{ml titrant}}{\text{ml filtrate}}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.28} \quad \text{Chlorides (g/l)} = \frac{\text{Chlorides (ppm)}}{1.65}$$

Calcium

$$\text{Figure: 0.24} \quad \text{Calcium (ppm)}$$

If water contains calcium, it is called "hard water". The harder the water, the more difficult it is to get bentonite to yield shear modulus. It is also difficult to make a good gel. Excess calcium ions may cause a loss of shear modulus.

$$\text{Figure: 0.23} \quad \text{Calcium (ppm)} = \frac{\text{ml titrant}}{\text{ml filtrate}} \times 10^{-3}$$

Text: 0.19

Sand Content

$$\text{Figure: 0.20} \quad \text{Sand Content (\% vol)}$$

This is measured by filling a graduated cylinder with mud, pouring over it a known amount of sand, then washed off. The volume of sand remaining in the cylinder is measured. The volume of sand is then calculated as a percentage of the total volume. This will give an indication as to the effectiveness of the mechanical solids control.

Text: 0.18

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

Solids Content

% vol

Water Content

% vol

Oil Content

% vol

A retort is used to measure the water content of liquids and solids in a drilling fluid. A measured amount of sample is heated until the liquid portion is vaporized. The percentage of water is then calculated as a percentage of the original sample. This will give an indication as to the effectiveness of the mechanical solids control.

Text: 0.19

Funnel Viscosity

seconds

$$\text{Figure: 0.30} \quad \text{Funnel Viscosity (seconds)}$$

An instrument used to measure viscosity. It is a funnel containing 946 cc of water will flow through the funnel in 30 seconds. To use the test, the bottom orifice is covered and drilling fluid is poured into the funnel until the funnel is full. When the bottom is uncovered, the time required to fill one quart is recorded (in seconds) along with the sample.

$$\text{Figure: 0.22} \quad \text{Viscosity (seconds)} = \frac{\text{Time (seconds)}}{\text{Volume (quarts)}}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.16} \quad \text{Viscosity (cP)} = \frac{\text{Viscosity (seconds)}}{1.06}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.20} \quad \text{Viscosity (cP)} = \frac{\text{Viscosity (seconds)}}{1.06}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.17} \quad \text{Viscosity (cP)} = \frac{\text{Viscosity (seconds)}}{1.06}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.18} \quad \text{Viscosity (cP)} = \frac{\text{Viscosity (seconds)}}{1.06}$$

Final viscosity measurement it has changed, only the

Equation: 0.21 it is a one point

Figure: 0.21 as to why the viscosity has

Equation: 0.21

Deforma

Figure: 0.26

The magnitude of shear between the layers is represented by the shear-rate, which is defined as the difference in the velocities between the layers, divided by the distance between the layers. This relationship between the shear-stress and shear-rate is known as "Newtonian fluid behavior".

For some fluids, the shear-rate is proportional to the shear-stress, then the shear-rate is given by the ratio of the shear-stress to the pressure required to move the fluid, known as "Newtonian fluid behavior".

Shear-Stress

The slope of the shear-stress profile is given by the absolute viscosity, this is the maximum shear stress at the wall and a minimum (0) at the center.



Drilling fluids are non-Newtonian in behavior, and are defined by more complex relationships between shear-stress and shear-rate. When drilling fluids contain colloidal particles (or clays), these particles tend to increase the shear-stress or force necessary to maintain a given flow rate. This is due to electrical attraction between particles and to them physically "bumping" into each other. Long particles, randomly oriented in a flow stream, will display high interparticle interference. However, as shear-rate is increased, the particles will tend to develop an orderly orientation and this interaction will decrease.

In the center of a pipe, the shear-rate will be low and hence particle interaction high, giving it a flattened flow profile. This profile has an

improved carrying capacity for larger particles.

As can be seen from the previous examples, the ratio of shear-stress to shear-rate is

Various "oilfield" Newtonian shear-rate/shear-stress curve.

variables, the more shear-rate/shear-stress curve. In order to arrived at "standard" shear-rate/shear-stress curve.

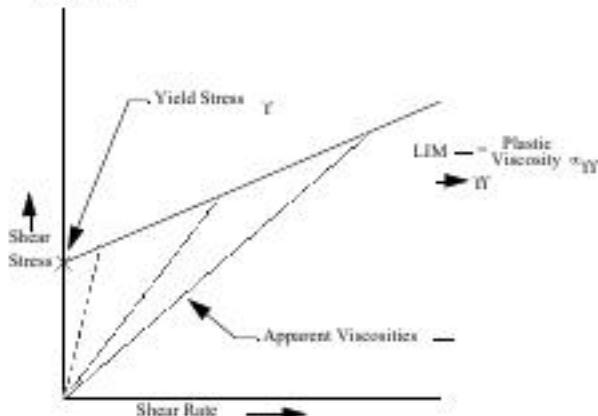
The two most common models used at the wellsite are the Bingham Plastic Model and the Power Law Model.

Bingham Plastic Model

The Bingham model is defined by the relationship;

$$\text{Shear Stress} = \text{Yield Stress} + (\text{Plastic Viscosity} \times \text{Shear Rate})$$

The major difference between this and Newtonian fluids is the presence of a Yield Stress or "Yield Point" (which is a measure of the electronic attractive forces in the fluid under flowing conditions). No bulk movement of the fluid occurs until this yield stress is overcome. Once the yield stress is exceeded, equal increments of shear stress produce equal increments of shear rate.



Flow Curve for a Bingham Plastic Fluid

Note that the apparent viscosity decreases with increased shear rate. This phenomenon is known as "shear thinning". As shear rates approach infinity, the apparent viscosity reaches a limit known as the Plastic Viscosity. This viscosity is the slope of the Bingham plastic line. The

commonly used

viscosities for the

model does not

Figure: 0.25

ally designed to measure

the above illustration, this

stability at low shear rates.

Figure: 0.22

Chart: 0.20

Power Law Model

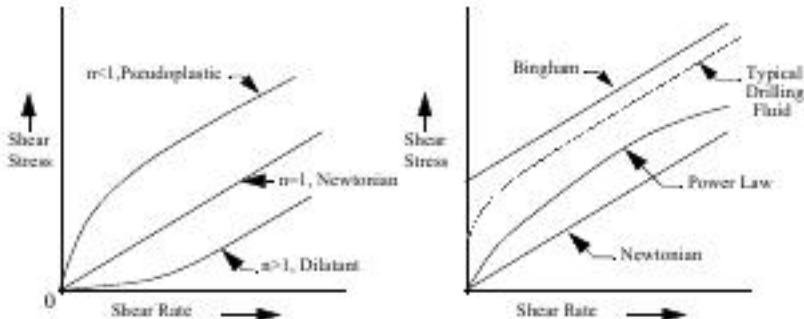
Figure: 0.24

relationship:

$$\text{Shear Stress} = \text{Consistency Factor} \times \text{Shear Rate}^n$$

describes the relationship between shear stress and shear rate for a fluid, and is somewhat analogous to the Bingham Model. The flow behavior index (n) indicates the degree of non-Newtonian characteristics of the fluid. As the fluid becomes more viscous, i.e., consistency factor (k) increases, as a fluid becomes more shear thinning " n " decreases. When " n " is 1 the fluid is Newtonian. If " n " is greater than 1, the fluid is classed as Dilatant (the apparent viscosity increases as the shear rate increases). If " n " is between zero and 1 the fluid is classified as Pseudoplastic, exhibiting shear-thinning; (i.e., the apparent viscosity decreases as the shear rate increases). For drilling fluids, this is a desirable property and most drilling fluids are pseudoplastics.

While the Power Law Model is more accurate than the Bingham Model at low shear rates, it does not include a yield stress. This results in poor results at extremely low shear rates.



A modification to the Power Law Model, the **OXY Model**, was proposed for use in oil-based muds. The major difference is the viscometer readings used to determine the "k" and "n" values. Power Law uses the 300 and 600 rpm readings, the OXY Model uses the 6 and 100 rpm readings. In addition, other models have been proposed that tend to exhibit behavior between the Bingham and Power Law models at low shear rates.

Non-Newtonian fluids may show a degree of time-dependent behavior. (For example, the apparent viscosity for a fixed shear rate does not remain

constant shear.) If the duration of shear is increased, the shear stress will decrease. This is termed "Thixotropy".

The shear strength is dependent upon the duration of shear. It is necessary to make an adjustment of shear rate and the stabilizer concentration to obtain the best results.

"Gel strength" is used to measure this time-dependent behavior. This strength measures the attractive forces of a fluid while under static conditions. If the gel strength increases steadily with time, the gel strength is classed strong or progressive. If it increases slowly with time, it is classed as weak or fragile.

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.24

Equation: 0.26

Equation: 0.22

Figure: 0.23

Equation: 0.23

minimum with the duration of flow time, the fluid is

anisotropic and will show

different viscosity in different

directions. This is called

shear-thinning behavior. This

is dependent upon the

shear rate. The shear rate must be

adjusted to obtain the best results.

When clay particles are

dispersed in water, they

will attract each other and

form a gel structure. This

is called a gel. The strength

of a gel depends upon the

time of formation. If the

gel strength increases

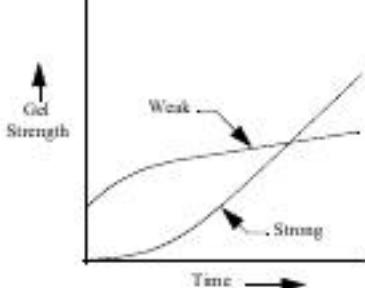
progressively with time,

it is called a strong gel.

If it increases slowly with

time, it is called a weak

or fragile gel.



When strong gels occur, excessive pressures may be required to break circulation.

In the "Advanced Logging Procedures Workbook" (PN 80269H), an introduction to hydraulics illustrates the Bingham method for hydraulic optimization. The most commonly used method is the Power Law Model.

This model fits the power law equation of consistency, although at low shear rates, it will fit the Bingham model. The fluid in which the shear stress increases as a function of shear rate, raised to some power. As such, the power law model is:

Shear Stress

"k" is known as the pumpability of the fluid and is indicative of the how "non-Newtonian" the fluid is.

Both parameters are determined from the Fann V/G motor defined as the viscosity of a fluid at a shear rate of 1 sec^{-1} . When $\eta_{\text{VG}} = 1$, the fluid is Newtonian. As the fluid becomes more shear thinning, the "n" value decreases.

$$k = (1 + 0.001)^{-n}$$

where: 300 rpm at 500 rpm/s
 600 rpm at 600 rpm/s

If the Fann VG motor data is plotted, both "k" and "n" can be determined using two points.

$$k = 1.067 \cdot \frac{(PV + YP)}{(2PV + YP)}$$

where: PV = Plastic viscosity (cP)
 YP = Yield point (cP)

Once these values are determined, pressure losses throughout the system can be described by plotting the pressure drop using the Hazen Williams equation, the drill string, and the annulus.

Surface Pressure Loss

System pressure loss calculations begin with the determination of the type/class of surface equipment/hose, swivel, and fittings.

types/classes
They are:

Figure: 0.21

ADC as the most common.

Figure: 0.19

| Class #1 (Coefficient 2) | Class #3 (Coefficient 3) |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 40 ft & 3 in. I.D. Standpipe | 40 ft & 3.5 in. I.D. Standpipe |
| 45 ft & 2 in. I.D. Hose | 55 ft & 2.5 in. I.D. Hose |
| 4 ft & 2 in. I.D. Swivel | 5 ft & 2.5 in. I.D. Swivel |
| 40 ft & 2.25 in. I.D. Kelly | 40 ft & 3.25 in. I.D. Kelly |

| Class #3 (Coefficient 4) | Class #4 (Coefficient 3) |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 5 ft & 2.5 in. I.D. Swivel | 6 ft & 3 in. I.D. Swivel |
| 45 ft & 4 in. I.D. Standpipe | 45 ft & 4 in. I.D. Standpipe |
| 40 ft & 3.25 in. I.D. Kelly | 40 ft & 4 in. I.D. Kelly |
| 55 ft & 3 in. I.D. Hose | 55 ft & 3 in. I.D. Hose |

When calculating surface pressure losses, choose the class which is closest to the present rig equipment; if necessary, extrapolate. Most modern rigs will have a surface pressure coefficient between 2 and 10. The coefficient is then used in the following formula:

$$P_h = 10^3 \times k_s \times MD \times Q^{1.86}$$

where: P_h = Surface Pressure Loss (psi)

k_s = Surface Pressure Coefficient

MD = Mud Density (lb/in^3)

$$Q$$
 Equation: 0.18

When extrapolating, increased lengths will increase the coefficient, while decreased lengths will decrease the coefficient.

Pressure Loss in the Drillstring

Once passed through the surface equipment, the fluid will flow through the drillstring. In calculating calculations, three parts of the circulation system are considered: **Figure: 0.15** (pump), **Figure: 0.16** (drillstring) and **Figure: 0.19** (surface equipment). The velocities are in the order of 1000 ft/min (30 m/s). Since the fluid is in turbulent flow, **Figure: 0.18** can be used.

The pressure required to circulate mud at a given flow rate is approximately 1.8 power of the flowrate. Doubling the flowrate would increase the pressure drop in the drillstring by approximately 3.5 times. Typically, the pressure losses in the drillstring are about 35 percent of the total pump pressure.

With this information, how much pressure will be required to pump

Figure: 0.25

Figure: 0.21
how much pressure will be required to pump

Drillstring Pressure

Equation: 0.19

Model calculations begin with:

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.22

where: $P_L = \text{Pressure Loss in Laminar Flow}$

$L = \text{Length of flow section}$

$V_p = \text{Velocity in Section}$

$d = \text{Inside Diameter of drill pipe (inches)}$

$k = \text{Consistency factor}$

$n = \text{Text: 0.23}$

Fluid velocity in the armoring

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.27

Figure: 0.25

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.21

The equivalent viscosity

Text: 0.21

$$\eta_e = \frac{90000 \cdot F_D \cdot n}{L \cdot V_p^2}$$

Which, in turn, is used to determine the Reynolds Number.

Text: (Figure: 0.23)

$$Re = \frac{\rho \cdot V_p \cdot D}{\eta_e}$$

Text: 0.19

Flow behavior, which is Power Law, depends on the value of the fluid. The critical Reynolds Number (Re_c) is determined using:

3470 - 1370n (from laminar to transitional)

4270 - 1370n (from transitional to turbulent)

If: $Re < Re_c$ flow is laminar

Re is between laminar and turbulent, flow is transitional

$Re > Re_c$

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

If the flow is re-calculated to be include

Figure: 0.20**Figure: 0.19****Equation: 0.20**

$$\frac{P_{d1} - P_{d2}}{f \cdot L \cdot \frac{\rho}{1000} \cdot V^2} = \frac{(L_{loss} + 2.02)}{log \left(\frac{d_1}{d_2} \right) - 1.75}$$

$$\frac{P_{d1} - P_{d2}}{f \cdot L \cdot \frac{\rho}{1000} \cdot V^2} = \frac{50}{log \left(\frac{d_1}{d_2} \right) - 1.75}$$

Pressure losses are then determined

$$P_{d1} = f \cdot L \cdot \frac{\rho}{1000} \cdot V^2 + P_{atm}$$

Equation: 0.21**Figure: 0.22****Figure: 0.22**

Annular Pressure Losses

Hydraulic calculations continue with a determination of the pressure lost in the annulus. Assuming laminar flow, the "pressure loss" equation is:

$$\text{Equation: 0.26} \quad \frac{1.6 \cdot V \cdot G}{300(d_1 - d_2)} \cdot \frac{L}{(d_1 - d_2)}$$

where: k = **Equation: 0.23**

L = **Equation: 0.24**

d_1 = **Equation: 0.20**

d_2 = **Equation: 0.20**

V = **Equation: 0.20**

n = Power Index

G = Geometric Factor

Fluid velocity in the annulus is determined by using:

$$\text{Equation: 0.18} \quad D = \frac{D_1 + D_2}{2}$$

where: D_1 = hole or annulus diameter

D_2 = pipe or collar diameter

A "geometric factor" is used to account for the ratio of the actual shear stress imposed on the system to the dynamic pressure imposed on the system. This is a dimensionless variable (y)

$$y = \frac{F_{shear}}{F_{dynamic}}$$

"C" can then be

Figure: 0.25

$$G = \frac{1 + \frac{2}{5} \left(\frac{2 - \alpha}{4 - \alpha} \right) n + 1}{\left(4 - \alpha \right)^2}$$

If flow in the annulus is transitional, i.e. intermediate between laminar and fully developed turbulent flow, then the pressure losses are determined by the Hazen Williams equation.

Figure: 0.22

$$f = \frac{16}{Re} + \frac{(Re - 1000)}{800}$$

Chart: 0.22

Pressure losses are then determined:

$$P_{\text{loss}} = \frac{f \cdot L \cdot MD \cdot V^2}{92894 \cdot (d_1 - d_2)}$$

Reynolds Number and Critical Reynolds Number

The Reynolds Number, used in the laminar/transition/turbulent calculations, is calculated using equivalent viscosity (α):

$$\alpha = \frac{90000 \cdot Pl \cdot (d_1 - d_2)^2}{L \cdot V}$$

Reynolds Number is then:

$$Re = \frac{D \cdot V \cdot (d_1 - d_2)}{\alpha}$$

Text: 0.22

The fluid velocity must be less than the critical Reynolds Number for given fluid properties and pipe configurations to avoid using:

$$V_c = 60 \cdot \left[\frac{Re_c \cdot k}{185.6 \cdot MD} \cdot \frac{96 \cdot G^{-\alpha}}{(d_1 - d_2)} \right]^{\frac{1}{2-\alpha}}$$

where: $Re_c = \frac{3470 \cdot 1370 \ln}{(3470 \cdot 1370 \ln) + 1}$

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.20

Cuttings Transport

One of the primary functions of a drilling fluid is to bring the drilled cuttings to the surface.

Drilling cuttings can lead to a number of problems, including pipe damage, pipe, and excessive

hydrostatic pressure. These problems, in turn, may be affected by many factors which affect the transport of cuttings.

Transport of cuttings is affected by many factors which affect the parameters which affect

the transport of cuttings. These factors include density, nominal size limit, and particle size distribution.

Transport of cuttings is affected by many factors which affect the parameters which affect

If the cutting torque causes the annulus to become eccentric, the flow rate is reduced.

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Cuttings Slip Velocity

A cutting, transported in a fluid, experiences a positive upward force due to the difference in fluid velocity, density and viscosity, and a negative downward force due to the weight of the cutting. The upward force is known as its "slip velocity".

Several studies have shown that the following generalizations to be made:

1. The slip velocity increases with increasing shear stress and decreasing剪切强度.

2. An increase in shear stress results in an increase in the amount of剪切强度.

3. Cuttings transport efficiency increases as fluid velocity increases.

4. The shear stress required to transport cuttings increases as the shear stress increases.

5. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

6. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

7. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

8. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

9. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

10. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

11. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

12. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

13. Cuttings transport efficiency has a moderate influence on剪切强度.

6. Hole size =
transport.

Figure: 0.21 effects on cutting

Those who have observed a solids tracer emerging over the shale shaker will realize the hole size is not the same as the calculated estimate. This may be an approximation. The reason for this is the size of the particle will affect the transport of the drilling fluid. It is the size of the particle and the size of the particle.

Cuttings will travel more efficiently if they travel flat and horizontally. If they are tilted, they will drop more easily. Smaller cuttings result in a helical motion of the fluid, which will aid transport for those cuttings nearest the wall.

The rheological properties of the drilling fluid will affect cuttings transport in as much as the shear modulus increases with increasing shear rate. The increase carrying capacity of the fluid will increase the flow pressure and the shear modulus.

The slip velocity is the difference between the fluid velocity and the particle velocity.

$$V_s = \frac{F_d}{\rho_p g}$$

Chart: 0.19

where: V_s = slip velocity

Figure: 0.18

Other: 0.18

d_p = particle diameter

ρ_p = particle density (gms/cc)

MD = Mud Density (gbs/cu ft)

Equation: 0.17

For these calculations, the particle density is found by multiplying the cuttings density (gms/cc) by the density of fresh water (9.81). The coefficient is the frictional drag coefficient.

In turbulent flow, the drag coefficient is 1.5.

In laminar flow, this case the slip velocity is:

$$V_s = 175.2 \cdot d_p$$

Equation: 0.20

Chart: 0.17

Table: 0.15

Equation: 0.17

Equivalent viscosity is calculated as mentioned earlier.

Table: 0.17

Equation: 0.20

Table: 0.17

Figure: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Equation:

Bit Figure: 0.21 Optimization

Jet Nozzles

Figure: 0.19

Jet nozzles were introduced into the oilfield in 1968. These were necessary

for hole cleaning in deep wells. Prior to jet nozzles, the fluid course in the annulus between the bit and the

$$\text{Equation: 0.20}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.25}$$

These "convoluted" annuli required a higher pressure than was necessary to lift the cutting.

$$\text{Equation: 0.28}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.24}$$

Both roller cone bits and PDC bits have recesses to install different size jet nozzles in or around the bit. A typical bit usually contains six to nine. The flow area of all jets combined is determined by the nozzle size and the number of jets. For example, suppose four size 9 jets were being used:

$$\text{Equation: 0.20}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.23}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.17}$$

$= 0.0621 \text{ sq. in.}$

Chart: 0.19

There are four jets, so the flow rate is:

$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

Jet nozzles increase the speed of the drilling leaving the bit to approximately 100 ft/sec, and on many occasions the velocity is much greater.

Velocity is so important in hydraulic operations that it is often measured when the jets are installed in a bit. The formula is:

$$V_n = \frac{418.3 Q}{d_j^2}$$

ft/min

Text: 0.180

where: V_n = Nozzle Velocity (ft/sec)

Q = Flow Rate (gal/min)

d_j = Nozzle Size (32nds)

$$\text{Equation: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

Note: A factor of 1.13 is included in the chart.

$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

As mentioned earlier, the bit is suspended in the wellbore. It is suspended beneath the bit. In soft formations, the hook is generated by the jetting action of the drilling fluid, and the drill bit is suspended by the weight of the fluid.

Figure: 0.17

Equation: 0.22

Text: 0.180

the loading of the
should be propor-

Figure: 0.25
Figure: 0.21

ard formations, the drill rate
hole cleaning is adequate.

Surface Horsepower

Chart: 0.21 studies processes all aspects concerning drilling fluids and the associated equipment must be considered.

The first component is the surface equipment and the hydraulics involved. There are two limiting factors on the surface hydraulic horsepower.

The first is the flow rate through the annulus shot. A Reynolds Number around the collar is "critical velocity" will be

upper range is near that section. In addition, running the pump at always advisable because there will be more

The lower limit is determined by the annular section. A normal range is

The second factor is the pumps can produce with little problem. However,

because of the various components associated with the surface system

(standpipe, rotary table, etc.) less than the maximum rated

Text: 0.24
Text: 0.21
Text: 0.21
Text: 0.24
Text: 0.21
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.25

1714

where: $H_{sp} = \frac{P}{Q}$

P - Surface Horsepower
 Q - Flow rate

Once the surface distributions are determined, the horsepower

Text: 0.19
Text: 0.19
Text: 0.18

where: $H_{sw} = \frac{H_{sp}}{1 + \frac{H_{sp}}{H_{sh}}}$

Text: 0.19
Text: 0.17

Button Figure: 0.21

Bottom hole cleaning is the removal of cuttings from the bottom of the hole. Cleaning necessary to maximize the rate of penetration.

1. Hydraulic
2. Hydromechanical

Maximizing the bottom hole cleaning rate requires the highest flow rate and the highest nozzle velocity.

However, the "lowest flow rate" will usually result in inadequate bottom hole cleaning. To compensate for this, bottom hole pressure can be increased by using smaller nozzles.

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.27

Equation: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Hydraulic Horsepower

Hydraulic horsepower is the power required to move fluid from beneath the surface to the bottom of the hole.

The minimum pressure at the bit, or bit pressure drop, is essential in bottom hole cleaning. This pressure drop is determined by:

Text: 0.20

where: $M = \text{Mass}$

Text: 0.17

$V_n = \text{Nozzle Velocity (ft/sec)}$

Text: 0.19

From the bit

Figure: 0.21

power can be calculated:

Figure: 0.17

Equation: 0.14

To optimize bottom hole cleaning and minimize the bit pressure drop, it is necessary to select a circulation rate and nozzle velocity that will result in the minimum pressure drop across the nozzles of the bit.

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.17

$$H_{bb} = 0.65 H_p$$

Hydraulic Impact

Hydraulic (jet) impact force is based on the theory that cuttings are best removed from the borehole by impact forces.

Text: 0.21

Equation: 0.17

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.23

Equation: 0.24

Equation: 0.25

Equation: 0.26

Equation: 0.27

overhead and circulation system.
determined by:

Figure: 0.24**Equation: 0.21**

$$\frac{MD}{1930} \cdot Q \cdot V_n$$

where: MD = Mud Density (lb/gal)

Q = Flow Rate (gal/min)

V_n = Nozzle Velocity (ft/min)

As can be seen, input force depends on

velocity rather than pressure. This is an important consideration.

The emphasis is on a large volume flow rate, rather than a small volume impact force.

This condition is met when rates and bit nozzle sizes are

chosen which will move the cuttings away from the bit.

through the jet nozzle.

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Fixed Cutter Bit Hydraulics

The hydraulics of fixed cutter bits are similar to PDC bits.

remove cuttings and cool the bit. Fluid volume is

critical to PDC bit performance.

to diamond bit performance.

The major components of fixed cutter bit hydraulic

- flow rate - Q (gal/min) and V (ft/min)

Figure: 0.20

Characteristics - MD (lb/gal), YP (psi/100ft²) and

PV (cps)

- pressure - H_{sp} (psi) or through the jet

Figure: 0.22

- the Total Head - H_T (psi) of nozzle sizes

A very important parameter is "Hydraulic Power Per

Square Inch" or HSI. It is calculated using H_{hs} (hydraulic horsepower):

Other: 0.14

Other: 0.17

Other: 0.17

where: H_{hs} = Hydraulic horsepower (psi)

A = Bit Area (inches²)

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.16

Figure: 0.15

Figure: 0.21

* If the area of flow is calculated using:

Figure: 0.21**Figure: 0.21**

d^2

4

where: d = bit diameter (inches)

The hydraulic horsepower equation is the same as **Figure: 0.17**, however in fixed cutter bits, nozzles, flow area restrictions, cuttings and the uneven hole pattern.

Pressure losses at the bit are calculated using:

Figure: 0.24**Figure: 0.19****Figure: 0.19**

PDC Bit Hydraulics

Since PDC bits are formation specific (most used in shale), formation characteristics will determine that the drilling fluid will dictate the HSI, for water-based drilling fluid ranges between 2.5 and 4.5, while for oil-based drilling fluid ranges between 1.5 and 3.0.

Figure: 0.20 The orifices, will have several characteristics which will directly affect hydraulic energy:

1. the nozzle exit velocity is very high once it leaves the nozzles
2. high initial velocities are achieved across the nozzle
3. for a given nozzle size, increasing the nozzle diameter increases the exit velocity

The increase in horizontal velocities provide better cuttings removal, better cooling, and reduced torque.

Nozzle velocity is measured as with reference to

Diamond Bit Hydraulics

Figure: 0.19

The horizontal fluid courses assist this performance. It can

Figure: 0.17**Figure: 0.18****Figure: 0.17**

The fluid courses assist this performance. It can cool the diamonds and to remove the cuttings.

Figure: 0.21**Figure: 0.17****Text: 0.20**

The diamond bit has

Figure: 0.25 of two components:

1. **Fluid Course Area** is the sum of all fluid courses on the bit. They are called **Text: 0.21**
2. **Diamond Exposure** **Figure: 0.23** formation, produced by the diamond extrusion.

The desired TFA is calculated **Text: 0.18** into the bit by varying the diamond exposure, and the width of the fluid courses.

Another phenomenon associated with the use of a hydraulic pump is the tendency of the mud at the bit face to rise over the bit face and tends to lift the bit off the bottom of the hole. For example, the pump-off force on a 8-in. bit (at 900 psi) would be about 10 times greater than the weight of the bit itself. It will remain at least this distance from the bottom of the hole.

Diamond Bit Flow

There are two main types of flow systems, and these:

1. Cross Flow System (also called collector systems)
 - a) the "high pressure" primary fluid comes from the center of the bit, where "low pressure collectors" draw the fluid across the

Figure: 0.16

b) this ensures that the diamonds towards the outside diameter are **Text: 0.17**

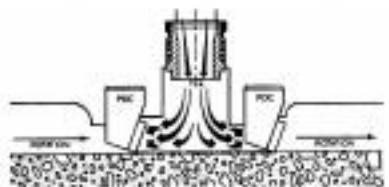
2. Radial Flow System
 - a) provides a high percentage of the total fluid to the outer diamond row
 - b) permits fluid to travel from the center of the bit to the outer pad to facilitate cutting
 - c) maintains uniform fluid course depth as the bit diameter increases by increasing fluid course depth as the bit diameter increases.
 - d) The HSI should be between 2.0 and 3.0.

Text: 0.20

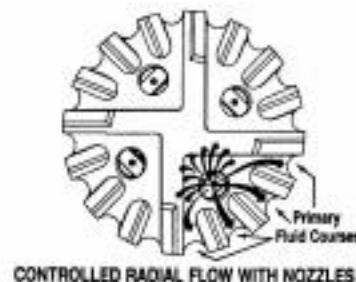
Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.18



PDC TFA (Total Flow Area) determined by nozzle area times number of nozzles.



CONTROLLED RADIAL FLOW WITH NOZZLES

Jet Nozzle Flow Area (inches)

| Jet Size | TFA of 1 Jet | TFA of 2 Jets | TFA of 3 Jets | TFA of 4 Jets | TFA of 5 Jets | TFA of 6 Jets | TFA of 7 Jets | TFA of 8 Jets | TFA of 9 Jets |
|----------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| 7/32 | .038 | .075 | .113 | .150 | .188 | .226 | .263 | .301 | .338 |
| 8/32 | .049 | .098 | .147 | .196 | .245 | .295 | .344 | .393 | .442 |
| 9/32 | .062 | .124 | .186 | .249 | .311 | .373 | .435 | .497 | .559 |
| 10/32 | .077 | .155 | .230 | .307 | .384 | .460 | .537 | .614 | .690 |
| 11/32 | .095 | .186 | .278 | .371 | .464 | .557 | .650 | .742 | .835 |
| 12/32 | .110 | .221 | .331 | .442 | .552 | .663 | .775 | .884 | .994 |
| 13/32 | .130 | .259 | .389 | .519 | .648 | .778 | .907 | 1.037 | 1.167 |
| 14/32 | .150 | .301 | .451 | .601 | .752 | .902 | 1.052 | 1.203 | 1.353 |
| 15/32 | .173 | .345 | .518 | .690 | .865 | 1.058 | 1.208 | 1.381 | 1.553 |
| 16/32 | .196 | .395 | .589 | .785 | .982 | 1.176 | 1.374 | 1.571 | 1.767 |

Figure 1-1: Nozzle Flow Area

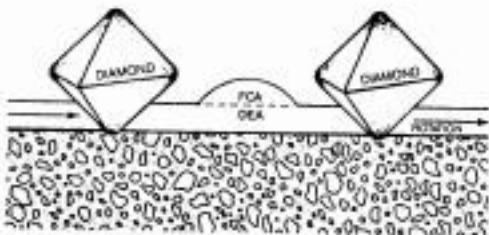


Figure 1-2

Figure: 0.21

Both swab and surge pressures are caused by moving the drillstring axially, and can be calculated by applying Bernoulli's principle to the fluid flow.

The pressure loss is proportional to the square of the axial velocity in the annulus, so the pressure distribution depends on the axial velocity in the annulus.

Two approaches are commonly used to calculate the axial velocity in the annulus:

The first assumes that the annulus and drillstring remain equal at all times, which is very inaccurate.

Header: 0.17

Figure: 0.19

where: V_s = Drillstring velocity (ft/min)

V_p = Drillstring velocity (ft/min)

D = Borehole Diameter (inch)

d = Drillstring Outside Diameter (inch)

d_i = Drillstring Inside Diameter (inch)

The minus sign in the equation indicates that the drillstring velocity is in the opposite direction to the fluid velocity.

This average velocity equation is based on the assumption that the geometry changes. This method is easily applied to the wellbore in the oilfield. Its basic premise, that the fluid velocity in the borehole and annulus remain equal, is rarely justified. The axial velocity in the borehole, caused by the bit nozzles and the annular flow, will nearly always exceed that caused by the drillstring. Therefore, surge pressures are therefore overestimated.

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.18

An alternative method is to consider the drillstring as a "short tube". As shown in Figure 0.23, the total pressure drop along the drillstring is the sum of hydrostatic and frictional pressures. The total pressure drop in the annulus should equal the total pressure drop in the borehole. The total pressure is the sum of hydrostatic and frictional pressures in the annulus.

Both sums result in the same pressure drop, using dimensionless sections like this:

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.25

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.16

Text: 0.23

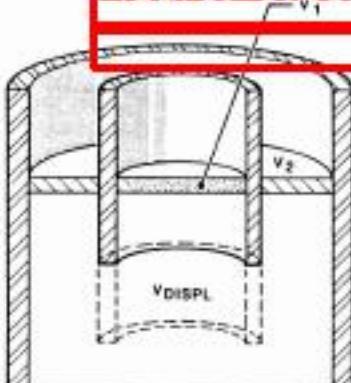
Figure: 0.23

Chart: 0.19

There is only one way to fulfill this criterion, and it can be found by trial and error.

Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.20



$$v_1 + v_2 = v_{\text{DISPL}}$$

Figure 1-3: Equal Level Displacement

When tripping out of the hole, it may be assumed that both drillstring and annulus are kept full of fluid. The required distribution of flow is that which gives equal frictional losses in the pipe bore and annulus. When tripping into the hole, the fluid level inside the drillstring can drop well below that in the annulus, if small bit nozzles are present. This effect is usually seen as a pit volume being higher than expected, string weight lower than expected, and a column of air being trapped before standpipe pressure builds up while breaking circulation.

When the fluid level in the drillstring is below that of the annulus, a greater hydrostatic pressure differential exists between the two sections, and fluid will tend to flow from the annulus into the drillstring. The resulting flow rate depends on the calculation flow distribution by a factor of 1.0 to 1.5. Surge pressure is small and consequently measuring the flow rate in the annulus is difficult. The practice of calculating flow distribution by equating the frictional losses in the pipe bore and annulus is generally accepted.

If the pipe is closed off, the fluid level in the annulus, because of the weight of the fluid in the pipe, will rise until it reaches the top of the pipe.

Chart: 0.19

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.22

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.26

Equation: 0.17

Figure: 0.10

Calculating the pressure drop of the inner velocity due to the displacement of the outer fluid at the same flowrate is more complicated than describing the outer flow.

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.17

Equation: 0.17

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.25

Equation: 0.20

is complicated by the motion of the outer fluid. The outer flow direction is in the opposite direction to the inner flow.

The pressure drop will be greater than that for the outer flow alone (Equation 0.17). Equations 0.22 and 0.25 are usually too complex to solve.

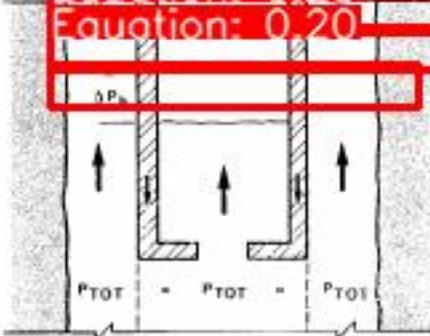


Figure 1-4: U-Tube Analogy for Equal Pressure Displacement

The problem can be solved for a Newtonian fluid in laminar flow, using:

$$\frac{8\eta L}{\phi PR^2} \left[V_a + \frac{V_p}{2ln} + \frac{V_p^2}{(1-\frac{2}{D})} \right] = 1 + \frac{2}{D} + \frac{(1-\frac{2}{D})^2}{ln}$$

where: V_p = pipe velocity

$= d/D$

The analogy is not immediately clear, as solution is clear. The stationary annulus solution can be used. If V_a is the outer fluid velocity, then substituting

$$V_{eff} = V_a + V_p \left[\frac{2}{2ln} + \frac{2}{(1-\frac{2}{D})} \right]$$

The term:

$$\frac{1}{2ln} + \frac{2}{(1-\frac{2}{D})}$$

is known as the *clogging constant* (K_c). It represents the proportion of pipe velocity which must be added to fluid velocity in order to find the equivalent or effective velocity, which must be used in the stationary annulus calculation. The effective velocity is numerically greater than the

actual fluid velocity, because V_x and v_y are opposite signs and the clinging constant is negative.

For Newtonian fluids, the clinging constant depends only on the annulus diameter ratio. This is not the case for non-Newtonian fluids, in which the clinging constant is also a function of the drilling fluids properties, and of fluid and pipe velocity. Calculation of clinging constants for non-Newtonian fluids is very tedious. Some representative values for Bingham fluids and Power Law fluids are shown in Figures 1-5 and 1-6.

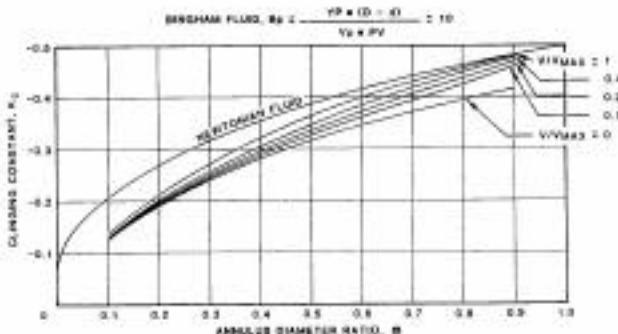


Figure 1-5: Clinging Constants for Bingham Fluid

It is common oilfield practice to assume a clinging constant of -0.45. The two graphs, however, show how much in error this can be. Baker Hughes INTEQ prefers a more exact calculation.

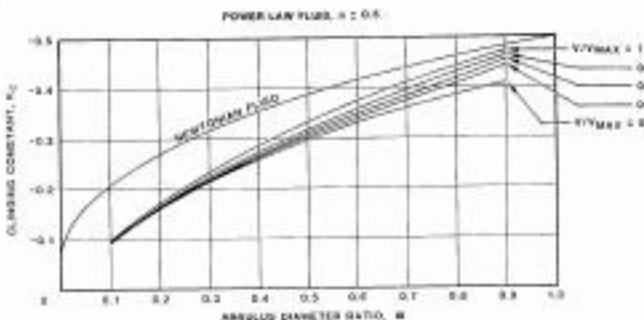


Figure 1-6: Clinging Constants for Power Law Fluid

The possibility of turbulent flow in the annulus must be considered in swab and surge calculations. Assuming that the velocity profile in turbulent flow is flat, the resultant pressure drop can be estimated by summing the pressure drops caused by the velocity at the outer wall and the relative velocity ($V_s - v_p$) at the inner wall, because V_s and v_p are of opposite signs. With a closed pipe, the turbulent flow clinging constant can be approximated by:

$$K_t \approx \frac{2 - \left[\frac{4 + \frac{1}{\phi}}{1 + \frac{1}{\phi}} \right]^{0.5}}{1 - \frac{2}{\phi}}$$

This function is graphed in Figure 1-7. It is an approximation for closed pipe and it appears to be similar to turbulent flow clinging constants derived by other authors.

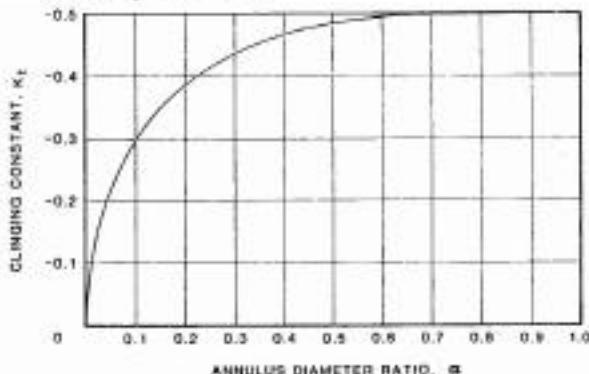


Figure 1-7: Clinging Constants for Turbulent Flow

The point at which transition occurs from laminar to turbulent flow is difficult to determine theoretically, and experimental data is lacking. It is therefore recommended that, for swab and surge pressure calculations, both laminar and turbulent pressure drops be calculated. The flow regime giving the greater pressure drop may then be considered to be correct. This procedure is conservative in that it will give a pressure equal to or exceeding the true swab or surge pressure.

Finally, when calculating swab or surge pressures for Power Law fluids, the calculated pressure loss should be checked against the pressure

required to break
breaking pressure

Figure: 0.23

annular section, the gel

Equation: 0.20

$$P_g = \frac{4L}{\pi} \frac{\sigma_s}{d}$$

where: P_g = Pressure to break gel strength (psi)

L = Section length (feet)

σ_s = Gel strength (psi, foot)

D = Outer diameter (inches)

d = Inner diameter (inches)

If the calculated swab or surge pressure is less than the sum of the gel breaking pressures, the gel breaking pressure is used. This check is not required if the fluid model incorporates a yield stress.

Text: 0.25

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.16

Text: 0.16

Figure: 0.20

Swab Figure: 0.19 Report

Open Hole

Input Figure: 0.20

| | | | |
|---------------|--------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| Depth | 12000.0 ft. | Min. Density | 10.00 lb/gal |
| Casing Depth | 10000.0 ft. | PV | 20.00 cP |
| Leak Off EQMD | 15.10 lb/gal | YP | 15.00 lb/ft ² |
| Pore Pressure | 9.00 lb/gal | Average Stand | 95.0 ft. |

Swab and Surge Analysis

| Pipe Velocity | | | Bit at Total Depth | | | Bit at Casing Shoe | | |
|---------------|---------|---------|--------------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|-----------|------------|
| Stand Time | Average | Maximum | Pressure Drop | Swab EQMD | Surge EQMD | Pressure Drop | Swab EQMD | Surge EQMD |
| sec/stand | ft/sec | ft/sec | psi | lb/gal | lb/gal | psi | lb/gal | lb/gal |
| 200 | 0.48 | 0.70 | 4 | 99.9 | 10.01 | 3 | 9.99 | 10.01 |
| 180 | 0.52 | 0.77 | 4 | 9.99 | 10.01 | 5 | 9.99 | 10.01 |
| 160 | 0.58 | 0.87 | 7 | 9.99 | 10.01 | 4 | 9.99 | 10.01 |
| 140 | 0.66 | 1.00 | 5 | 99.9 | 10.01 | 4 | 9.99 | 10.01 |
| 120 | 0.78 | 1.16 | 6 | 9.99 | 10.01 | 5 | 9.99 | 10.01 |
| 100 | 0.93 | 1.39 | 6 | 9.99 | 10.01 | 5 | 9.99 | 10.01 |
| 80 | 1.16 | 1.74 | 7 | 9.99 | 10.01 | 6 | 9.99 | 10.01 |
| 60 | 1.55 | 2.35 | 9 | 9.99 | 10.01 | 8 | 9.99 | 10.01 |
| 40 | 2.32 | 3.49 | 12 | 9.98 | 10.02 | 10 | 9.98 | 10.02 |
| 20 | 4.85 | 6.97 | 18 | 9.97 | 10.03 | 15 | 9.97 | 10.03 |
| 10 | 9.10 | 13.95 | 28 | 9.95 | 10.05 | 24 | 9.95 | 10.05 |
| 5 | 18.33 | 15.80 | 30 | 9.95 | 10.05 | 26 | 9.95 | 10.05 |
| 3 | 31.62 | 17.44 | 33 | 9.95 | 10.05 | 28 | 9.95 | 10.05 |
| 2 | 31.29 | 19.93 | 36 | 9.94 | 10.06 | 31 | 9.94 | 10.06 |
| 1 | 15.50 | 23.25 | 40 | 9.94 | 10.06 | 34 | 9.93 | 10.07 |
| 5 | 18.60 | 29.90 | 45 | 9.93 | 10.07 | 38 | 9.93 | 10.07 |
| 4 | 23.29 | 34.87 | 52 | 9.92 | 10.08 | 44 | 9.92 | 10.08 |
| 3 | 31.00 | 46.50 | 62 | 9.90 | 10.10 | 53 | 9.90 | 10.10 |
| 2 | 46.50 | 69.75 | 81 | 9.87 | 10.13 | 69 | 9.87 | 10.15 |
| 1 | 91.00 | 139.50 | 128 | 9.80 | 10.20 | 109 | 9.79 | 10.21 |

While Bit is in Open Hole

Recommended Maximum Running Speed: 0.67 sec/stand

Maximum Surge EQMD: 10.20 lb/gal

Recommended Maximum Pulling Speed: 0.67 sec/stand

Maximum Swab EQMD: 9.80 lb/gal

While Bit is in Cased Hole

Recommended Maximum Running Speed: 0.67 sec/stand

Maximum Surge EQMD: 10.21 lb/gal

Recommended Maximum Pulling Speed: 0.67 sec/stand

Maximum Swab EQMD: 9.79 lb/gal

Figure: 0.20 | Mud Hydraulics Report

| Input Data | | | | | |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| Depth | 12000 ft | Mud Density | 12.00 slugs | Cannons Density | 2.30 g/cm ³ |
| Vertical Depth | 12000 ft | IPV | 20.00 cP | Bu Area | 1201212.132 in ² |
| Pump Rate | 107 gallons | VP | 15.00 lb/in ² | | |
| Flow Rate | 450 gal/min | Power Law n | 0.6217 | Total Flow Area | 0.3513 in ² |
| Pump Pressure | 3000 psi | Power Law m | 0.6521 | | |
| Average RDP | 20.0 ft/s | | | | |

Table of Results - Power Law Fluid Model @ 450 gal/min

| Section | | Section Info | | Pipe | | Volume & Capacities | | Pressure Loss | | Mud Velocity | | Reynolds Number - Flow | | | |
|---------|---------|--------------|--------|-------|-------|---------------------|-------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------------|------------------|-----------|-------|
| From | To | Length | Diam | S12 | S13 | V12 | V13 | ΔP ₁₂ | ΔP ₁₃ | V ₁₂ | V ₁₃ | Re ₁₂ | Re ₁₃ | Condition | Reg |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.0 | 1000.0 | 100.0 | 12.000 | 0.000 | 0.270 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| 1000.0 | 10000.0 | 12.000 | 12.000 | 0.270 | 0.270 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| 10000.0 | 10000.0 | 12.000 | 12.000 | 0.000 | 0.270 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| 10000.0 | 10000.0 | 12.000 | 12.000 | 0.270 | 0.270 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| 10000.0 | 10000.0 | 12.000 | 12.000 | 0.000 | 0.270 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| 10000.0 | 10000.0 | 100.0 | 12.000 | 0.000 | 0.270 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |

Figure: 0.26

Volume Summary

| | bb/s | Stroke | Minutes | |
|--------------------|------|--------|---------|--------------------|
| Annular Capacity | 1578 | 15948 | 148 | ⇒ Lag Time |
| Pipe Capacity | 288 | 2303 | 20 | ⇒ Down Time |
| Circulating Volume | 1785 | 19051 | 168 | ⇒ Circulating Time |
| Pipe Displacement | 122 | | | |
| Total Hole Volume | | | | |

Hydraulics Results Using Power Law Fluid Model

| Flow Rate | 90 | 140 | 210 | 300 | 470 | 600 | 820 | 1000 | 1400 | 1700 | 2100 | gal/min |
|----------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Pump Rate | 21 | 38 | 68 | 73 | 99 | 115 | 128 | 148 | 168 | 178 | 190 | min/min |
| Total Flow Area | 0.20033 | 0.35053 | 0.52053 | 0.70053 | 0.90053 | 0.99053 | 1.05053 | 1.10053 | 1.15053 | 1.19053 | 1.23053 | in²/in² |
| Bit Velocity | 87.1 | 108.8 | 128.8 | 136.3 | 146 | 150 | 158.3 | 170.2 | 180.5 | 184.6 | 190.1 | ft/sec |
| Impact Force | 18.8 | 19.8 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.6 | lb |
| Hydrostatic Torque | 4.0 | 23.0 | 76.3 | 179.0 | 123 | 342.4 | 1046.8 | 1213.8 | 1368.6 | 1279.3 | 1340.1 | lb·ft |
| Flow Loss | 80 | 110 | 137 | 120 | 110 | 97 | 124 | 133 | 162 | 130 | 200 | psi |
| Bit Loss | 82 | 144 | 118 | 94 | 109 | 209 | 274 | 310 | 384 | 382 | 400 | psi |
| Percentage of Total | 181 | 444 | 328 | 403 | 416 | 408 | 47.0 | 48.8 | 48.6 | 79.7 | 71.1 | % |
| Annular Loss | 12 | 18 | 12 | 27 | 11 | 14 | 18 | 42 | 18 | 17 | 40 | psi |
| Cutting Loss | 2.0 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | psi |
| Total Loss | 127 | 178 | 186 | 163 | 226 | 186 | 186 | 214 | 186 | 178 | 192 | psi |
| Hydrostatic Pressure | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | 7476 | psi |
| Circulating Pressure | 7758 | 7654 | 7796 | 7576 | 7768 | 7962 | 7988 | 7987 | 7988 | 7961 | 7778 | psi |
| ICD @ Vertical Depth | 12.62 | 12.81 | 12.84 | 12.84 | 12.89 | 12.88 | 12.86 | 12.87 | 12.88 | 12.88 | 12.18 | ft/dip |
| ICD with Cuttings | 12.62 | 12.28 | 12.18 | 12.16 | 12.14 | 12.13 | 12.13 | 12.13 | 12.13 | 12.14 | 12.18 | ft/dip |

Minimum: Eccentricity Flow is 159 gal/min to maintain laminar flow in annulus with Diameter 12.200 and F_f=0.010 in.Minimum: Eccentricity Flow is 362 gal/min to maintain cutting transport in annulus with Diameter 20.000 and F_f=0.000 in.

Bit Hydraulics Optimization Report - Input Data

| Previous Bit | | | |
|-------------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|
| Nozzle A diameter | 12 1/32 in | Mud Density | 12.00 lb/gal |
| Nozzle B diameter | 12 1/32 in | IPV | 20.000 cP |
| Nozzle C diameter | 12 1/32 in | YP | 15.00 lb/cf³² |
| | | Flow Rate | 450 gal/min |
| Total Flow Area | 0.3313 in²/2 | Pump Pressure | 3300 psi |

| Optimization Limits | Maximum | | Minimum |
|---------------------|-------------|--|-------------|
| Flow Rate | 800 gal/min | | 300 gal/min |
| Pump Pressure | 3000 psi | | |

Calculated From Previous Bit

| | |
|--------------------|--------------|
| Jet Velocity | 435.7 ft/sec |
| Parasitic Pressure | 1262 psi |
| Bit Pressure Drop | 2038 psi |
| Parasitic Exponent | 1.6271 |

Calculated Optimum Bit Hydraulics

| | Hydraulic Power | Impact Force |
|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Parasitic Pressure | 1142 psi | 1654 psi |
| Bit Pressure Drop | 1858 psi | 1346 psi |
| Optimum Flow Rate | 423 gal/min | 531 gal/min |
| Flow Rate Used | 423 gal/min | 531 gal/min |
| Hydraulic Power | 465.0 Bhp | 423.0 Bhp |
| Impact Force | 1094.5 lbf | 1169.7 lbf |
| Jet Velocity | 416.0 ft/sec | 354.1 ft/sec |
| Total Flow Area | 0.3263 in ² | 0.4815 in ² |
| Recommended Bit Nozzles | 11/12/12 - 1/32 in | 14/14/15 - 1/32 in |

Self Figure: 0.21

1. What are the three basic components of a drilling fluid?

Figure: 0.17

b



Equation: 0.22

c

Equation: 0.26

2. What are three major types of emulsions?

a

Equation: 0.22

b

Equation: 0.26

c



Figure: 0.21

3. What material is used to stabilize oil phases in an invert emulsion?

Figure: 0.19



Text: 0.20



Text: 0.20

4. What criteria is used to express the stability of an oil-based mud's emulsion strength?



Equation: 0.22

Chart: 0.20



Chart: 0.17



Figure: 0.19

6. Bingham's Plasticity Model relates shear stress and shear rate increment. It is also known as the Newtonian Model. What is that feature?

Chart: 0.24

Chart: 0.21

Chart: 0.19

7. If a gel strength is measured at 1000 psi, what is its classification?



Chart: 0.21

Chart: 0.21

Figure: 0.17

9. What must

Final Equation: 0.22 **Equation: 0.20****Figure: 0.23****Equation: 0.19**

9. What type of gel structure is used in drilling fluids?

10. What two gel structures are commonly used in drilling fluids?

 Figure: 0.21 **Figure: 0.21**11. What is the **Table**
Figure: 0.24 **Chart: 0.22**12. Calculate the amount of volume increase if you raise the bottom hole pressure by 100 psi.
Given: $\Delta P = 100 \text{ psi}$
Calculate: $\Delta V = ?$
Given: $\Delta P = 100 \text{ psi}$
Calculate: $\Delta V = ?$ **Figure: 0.21**

sacks/bbl = 14.9

 Figure: 0.19

answer _____

13. Calculate slip velocity. Given: $\mu = 2.4 \text{ g/cc}$ Drill Pipe ID = 5.5 in.

Particulate Size = 0.005 in.

Viscosity = 100 cP

Annular Velocity = 3 ft/sec

Gravim. = 1.05 g/cc

Flow Regime: _____ Laminar

Figure: 0.23**Figure: 0.22****Equation: 0.20**

answer _____

14. Calculate

Figure: 0.17

Fann Meter.

Given: RPM₅₀₀ = 40

readings from the

Equation: 0.19RP₅₀₀ = 30

answer _____

Equation: 0.22**Equation: 0.25**

15. From the data in question #14, calculate n and k.

answer _____

Figure: 0.21

16. In hard formations, what must be efficient for the drill rate to be proportional to?

Text: 0.20

17. What two factors are important when determining surface hydraulic pressure?

Figure: 0.21**Figure: 0.23**

a. _____

b. _____

Equation: 0.17

18. What would be the effect on the bit rate, with a pump pressure of 1000 psi?

Text: 0.21**Chart: 0.19**

Text: 0.18

19. Using 3200 psi, what is the equivalent surface pressure in hydraulic horsepower?

Text: 0.17**Text: 0.17**

Hhh = _____

Hif = _____

Text: 0.18**Chart: 0.21**

20. What factors affect the rate of penetration of PDC and diamond bits?

Figure: 0.18

PDC Bits: _____

Equation: 0.17

Diamond Bits: _____

Text: 0.16**Chart: 0.16**

Equation: 0.17

INTRODUCING INTEQ

Equation: 0.20

21. What are the following drilling fluids?

Water-Based Drilling Fluids:

Oil-Based Drilling Fluids:

22. What two components are present in drilling fluid?

a.

b.

23. What are the two types of channelized flow patterns?

a.

b.

24. Turbulent flow has _____ carrying capacity than laminar flow. Why is it not normally the flow regime of choice?



Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.21



Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.24

Notes

Casing And Cementing

Figure: 0.21

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the limitations of various casing strings.
- Calculate the required volumes for cementing operations.
- Calculate cement slurry volumes, joint losses, and mud returns.
- Troubleshoot cementing operations.

Equation: 0.17

Text: 0.21

Additional References

Petroleum Extension Service, *API Recommended Practice for Casing and Cementing*, University of Texas at Austin, 1986

Bourgoyne Jr., Adam, et al, *API Drilling Engineering Handbook*, API Drilling Engineering Series, Vol. 2, 1986

Moore, Preston, *Drilling Practices Manual*, PennWell Publishing Co., Tulsa, 1986

Rabia, Hussain, *Oilwell Drilling Engineering: Principles and Practice*, Graham & Trotman Limited, 1982

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.19

Casing
Figure: 0.22

Casing has several important functions during the drilling and completing of a well. It is used to support the borehole while drilling or the completed well. It protects or isolates zones of a well. Casing is also one of the largest components completed with a well.

Casing is usually made of steel.

Conductor Casing

Conductor pipe or sleeve pipe is it is hammer-driven to depth, is the first string of casing to be run in a well. It is usually run in depths up to 300 ft. The nominal outside diameter of conductor pipe is from 16 to 36 inches (outside diameter).

The sizes of conductor pipe are to:

- raise the bottom hole assembly so that fluid returns are not lost
- prevent sand from entering the wellbore
- prevent water from entering the wellbore

Surface Casing

The amount of surface casing depends on the depth of the unconsolidated formations. Surface casing is usually set in the first competent formation between 20 inch

and 13-3/8 inch (nominal outside diameter). Corrosive fluids tend to increase with depth, different grades of casing will be required to handle these fluids.

The sizes of surface casing are to:

- protect from water infiltrations
- seal off lost circulation zones
- protect against gas migration
- protect against fractured zones
- provide a "k-off" test to be conducted

Intermediate Casing

Intermediate casing is normally used to seal off a problem formation. The size of intermediate casing will depend on the size of the surface casing.

The sizes of intermediate casing are to:

The sizes of intermediate casing are to:

conditions. Note diameter).

Production Casing

Production casing strings are run to contain formations and provide for selective production in many wells. The size of production casing will depend on the production rate, the barrel per day, and the size of the pipe. Common sizes are between 3 and 7 inches.

Liner

A liner is a string of pipe "hung" (attached) from the base of the intermediate casing and reach to the bottom of the hole. The weight of a liner or the size of the string is reduced, as are running and cementing times. During the course of the well if the liner has to be moved (such as making it another string of casing), the string is known as a "tie-back" string.

Casing Standards

The American Petroleum Institute has developed certain standards and specifications for casing and tubing. One of the more common standards is API Standard 5CT. There are three types of joints used:

- Nominal weight per foot for a 20 ft length of uncoupled and coupled casing joint.

Plain End Weight: The weight of the joint of casing without the flanges.

- Threaded Weight: The weight of a casing joint with threads at one end.

The Plain End Weight is calculated using the formula in API Bulletin 5C3.

API standards include three length ranges, which are:

- R-1: Joint length 16 to 25 feet, and 95% must have a length of 25 ft.
- R-2: Joint length 25 to 35 feet, and 95% must have a length of 35 ft.

Equation: 0.26 $\frac{1}{8}$ inch (outside diameter).

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.21 pipe set in a well. These

Figure: 0.20 size of production casing

Equation: 0.22 barrel per day

Text: 0.22 size of the pipe. Common sizes

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.16

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.19 from the base of the intermediate casing and reach to the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.19 or a liner or the size of the string is reduced, as are running and cementing times. During the course of the well

Figure: 0.17 making it another string of casing. The surface is known as a "tie-back" string.

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.23 has developed certain standards

Text: 0.23 running and cementing time of the hole.

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.25 retical calculated weight per

Text: 0.19 foot for a 20 ft length of uncoupled and coupled casing joint.

Text: 0.19 weight of the joint of casing without the flanges.

Text: 0.15 weight of a casing joint with threads at one end.

Figure: 0.19

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.23 in API Bulletin 5C3.

Equation: 0.23 API standards include three length ranges, which are:

Text: 0.20 16 to 25 feet, and

Equation: 0.17 95% must have a length of 25 ft.

Text: 0.18 25 to 35 feet, and

Equation: 0.17 95% must have a length of 35 ft.

Text: 0.19 16 to 25 feet, and

Equation: 0.17 95% must have a length of 25 ft.

Text: 0.19 25 to 35 feet, and

Equation: 0.17 95% must have a length of 35 ft.

Text: 0.23 16 to 25 feet, and

P-2 joints

must have
lengths greater than

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.16

The API grade of casing denotes the steel properties of the casing. The

grade has a letter prefix followed by a number, which

designates the

casing grade.

Text: 0.16

Equation: 0.16

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

| API Grade | Yield Strength | Tensile Strength |
|-----------|----------------|------------------|
| | (lbf/in), psi | (lbf/in), psi |
| H-40 | 40,000 | 60,000 |
| J-55 | 55,000 | 75,000 |
| K-55 | 55,000 | 95,000 |
| C-75 | 75,000 | 95,000 |
| L-80 | 80,000 | 100,000 |
| N-80 | 80,000 | 100,000 |
| C-90 | 90,000 | 105,000 |
| C-95 | 95,000 | 105,000 |
| P-110 | 110,000 | 125,000 |

Casing properties are defined as:

- Yield Strength: The tensile stress required to produce a total elongation of 0.5% per unit length
- Collapse Strength: The maximum external pressure or force required to collapse the casing joint
- Burst Strength: The maximum internal pressure required to cause a casing joint to yield

Casing dimensions are specified by its outside diameter (OD) and nominal wall thickness. Normal wellsite conventions specify casing by its OD and weight per foot. As stated earlier, one should specify which weight one is referring to, the nominal weight.

Figure: 0.18

Casing Couplings

Figure: 0.18

Couplings are short sections of the same grade of steel as the casing. They are normally made of the same grade of steel as the casing. They must

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.17

shear strength can

for four types of

- Short round threads and couplings (CSG)
- Long round th
- Buttress thre
- Extremeline s

The CSG and LSCG ha

rounded shape, with eight

referred to as API 8-rou

LSCG has a longer thre

connection. LSCG

Buttress (BCSG) c

are also longer c

Text: 0.16

The XCSG (Extre

connectors in the

both box and pi

Coupling thread

are made up. A l

connection will

make-up is man

required turns.

A special thread

type of coupling

Many companies

standards, which

couplings.

Equation: 0.26 API has specifications

Equation: 0.21

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.21

Header: 0.17

Text: 0.16

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.22

Table: 0.20

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.23

Figure: 0.16

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Introduction

is often described as the process of mixing and displacing a slurry down the annulus, behind the casing, where it is allowed to "set", thus bonding.

additional functions of

- P_{n1}

- P_{n2}

- P_{n3}

- Protecting the casing from corrosion.

- Sealing off permeable zones.

- Protecting

The main ingredient of cement is limestone and clay. These are resembling the rocks quarried on the Island of Sicily.

All cement is manufactured from limestone and argillaceous materials.

argillaceous materials are ground and mixed in a dry condition (dry processing) or wet processing.

the upper end of the kiln is heated to temperatures of about 1400°C.

the mixture remains at this temperature until the reaction between the raw materials.

When the mixture has been heated to the required temperature, the clinker is then ground

with a controlled amount of gypsum (3.5 to 3.0% by weight), to form portland cement.

The principle components of cement are:

Tricalcium Silicate(C3S), Tricalcium Aluminate(C3A), and Tetracalcium Alumino-Ferrite(C4AF). Table 2-2

contains more detailed information on these compounds. These

compounds are added to water to form a cementitious paste, which is then called a "cement slurry".

on the burning process are:

Tricalcium Silicate(C3S), Tricalcium Aluminate(C3A), and Tetracalcium Alumino-Ferrite(C4AF). Table 2-2

contains more detailed information on these compounds. These

compounds are added to water to form a cementitious paste, which is then called a "cement slurry".

The American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) has established a classification system for the various types of cement based on their chemical and physical properties, and their applications.

Table 2-3 shows the classification of cement under various

temperature ranges and their applications.

Table 2-4 shows the classification of cement under various

temperature ranges and their applications.

Table 2-5 shows the classification of cement under various

temperature ranges and their applications.

Table 2-6 shows the classification of cement under various

temperature ranges and their applications.

Table 2-7 shows the classification of cement under various

temperature ranges and their applications.

Table 2-8 shows the classification of cement under various

temperature ranges and their applications.

Table 2-9 shows the classification of cement under various

temperature ranges and their applications.

Table 2-10 shows the classification of cement under various

temperature ranges and their applications.

Example problem

Figure: 0.18

Using the information
Requirement.

Cement Blend:

35: 65 : 2% GEL C

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.20

| | Bulk Weight lbs/ft ³ | Absolute Volume gal/lb |
|-----------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Class H | 94 | 0.0382 |
| Fly Ash | 74 | 0.0487 |
| Gel (Bentonite) | 60 | 0.0453 |
| Water | X | 0.1199 |

| Material | lb/ft ³ | gal/lb | gal/ft ³ |
|----------|--------------------|--------|---------------------------|
| Class H | 61.1 | x | 0.0382 = 2.33 (65% of 94) |
| Fly Ash | 25.9 | x | 0.0487 = 1.26 (35% of 74) |
| Subtotal | 87.0 | | 3.59 |
| Gel | 1.74 | x | 0.0453 = 0.08 (2% of 87) |
| Water | X | x | 0.1199 = 0.1199X |

$$88.74 + X = 13.5(3.67 + 0.1199X)$$

$$88.74 + X = 49.545 + 1.61865X$$

$$39.195 = 0.61865X$$

$$63.35 = X$$

$$\text{Water} = 63.35 \text{ lb/ft}^3 \times 0.1199 \text{ gal/lb} = 7.60 \text{ gal/sack}$$

$$\text{Yield} = (3.67 \text{ gal/ft}^3 + 7.60 \text{ gal/sack})/7.4805 \text{ gal/ft}^3 = 1.52 \text{ ft}^3/\text{sack}$$

Typical Casing: 0.25

The annular volume is calculated by subtracting the volume of the carbide reamers from the volume of the casing. The difference is multiplied by the length of the casing below the plugs. This value is then converted to barrels.

The annular volume is calculated by the formula $(d_1^2 - d_2^2) \times 0.000971 \times L$ and the conversion factor is 1 barrel = 4.2 cubic feet.

From carbide data, the annular volume is determined. If it isn't known, then a "margin excess" is added to the volume (anywhere between 10% and 15%) to account for the cement volume. Once the annular volume is determined, then a minimum excess factor is applied (normally 10% to 15%) to the annular volume.

This quantity will be used to calculate the amount of cement required for the annulus and casing.

Example Field Calculations

Well Information:

13 3/8" casing (4.44 in. ID)

12 1/4" open hole (4.06 in. ID)

9 5/8" casing (3.75 in. ID 8.921 ft to be run to TD)

Float Collar 42 ft

Cement 100 bbls

Slurry: Class G (+25% excess) neat, with 1.3% FL-50 at 14.2 ppg

20 bbls

High Pressure air

10 minutes for pump down

Displacement Rate 100 bbls/min

Volume Calculations

Volume 1: 13 3/8" casing

Volume 2: 12 1/4" casing

Volume 3: 9 5/8" casing

Volume 4: 100 bbls

Volume 5: 100 bbls

Volume 6: 100 bbls

Volume 7: 100 bbls

Volume 8: 100 bbls

Volume 9: 100 bbls

Volume 10: 100 bbls

Volume 11: 100 bbls

Volume 12: 100 bbls

Volume 13: 100 bbls

Equation: 0.21**Equation: 0.20****Figure: 0.21****Figure: 0.21****Equation: 0.18****Text: 0.19****Text: 0.18****Text: 0.18****Figure: 0.21****Text: 0.19****Chart: 0.17****Figure: 0.18****Chart: 0.20****Figure: 0.25****Text: 0.25****Figure: 0.24****Figure: 0.26****Figure: 0.20****Figure: 0.16****Text: 0.18****Figure: 0.15****Figure: 0.18****Text: 0.15****Figure: 0.18****Equation: 0.21****Equation: 0.19****Equation: 0.20****Equation: 0.19**

Equation: 0.19

$$\text{Total Slurry Volume} = 108.8 + 271.8 + 18.22 = 399 \text{ ft}^3$$

Cement and Water Requirements:

| Material | 1.3% FT lb/ft ³ | gpm/in | gal/ft ³ |
|----------|-------------------------------|--------|---------------------|
|----------|-------------------------------|--------|---------------------|

Class G

FL-50 (1.3%)

Water

Equation: 0.19

$$\text{Equation: 0.2}$$

Removal of

Equation: 0.26

For cementing operations to be successful, all annular spaces must be filled with cement, and the previous casing and formations in contact with the cement must be displaced by the cement slurry. This is a very matter, because there are several factors which can affect this:

- washers and spacers
- fluid and cement viscosity
- crooked hole and/or irregularities in the borehole
- fluid not being pumped at the correct rate
- poorly treated wellbore

Good drilling practices help prevent a failure. The rule of thumb is that the wellbore should have:

- a low gel strength
- a low density
- a low viscosity
- a chemically inert fluid

Since these conditions are very seldom met, mud washers and spacers are usually pumped into the wellbore to displace the drilling fluid as possible.

Cementing Nomenclature

Casing Centralizers

Centralizers assist in the removal of the stuck or displacement of drilling fluid by providing a means of supporting the casing in the borehole slurry. Close scrutiny of the mudlog and wireline logs will indicate the placement of centralizers. Zones of potential sticking, doglegs and areas of key seating, should be avoided.

Wall Scratches

These are most useful when running casing through a high fluid-loss drilling fluid. There are three types of wall scratches: rotating scratchers, reciprocating scratchers (normally in vertical wells), and reciprocating scratchers used when the pipe is reciprocated (moved up and down). When the pipe is run, it is rotated in 15 to 20 foot intervals, depending on drilling requirements.

Chart: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.21

Wiper Plug

Figure: 0.22

Both top and bottom plugs are used during cementing operations. They are used to separate the cement slurry from the drilling fluid.

The red bottom wiper plug is placed in the annulus, and has a piston-like action ahead of the cement slurry to prevent cement/drilling fluid contamination. The black top wiper plug comes in at 1000 psi. This pressure (1000 psi) causes the piston to move forward, allowing the cement slurry to flow through the wiper plug.

The black top wiper plug is placed in the annulus, and has a piston-like action ahead of the cement slurry to prevent cement/drilling fluid contamination. The black top wiper plug also signals the end of displacement. After the bottom wiper plug has been removed, the top wiper plug is removed to prevent cement contamination of the drilling fluid. The top plug also signals the completion of the cementing operation.

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Table: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.18

An accelerator is a chemical additive used to speed up the normal rate of reaction between cement and water, thus shortening the thickening time of the cement, increasing the strength of cement, and saves time on the drilling rig. Commonly used on shallow, low-temperature formations.

Table: 0.19 shows the time for "waiting-on-cement". Most cements require 24 hours to reach a minimum compressive strength of 500 psi. Accelerators reduce the time required for drilling operations. When using accelerators, it is important to note that some additives may not be compatible with basic cements because at temperatures below 40° F, the cement may not develop its full strength.

Common accelerators include calcium chloride, sodium chloride, sea water, anhydrous calcium sulfide, potassium chloride and gypsum.

Figure: 0.19 shows the relationship between temperature and the time required for a cement to develop 500 psi compressive strength.

Equation: 0.17 is used to calculate the time required for a cement to develop 500 psi compressive strength.

Text: 0.20 provides the formula for calculating the time required for a cement to develop 500 psi compressive strength.

Equation: 0.20 is used to calculate the time required for a cement to develop 500 psi compressive strength.

Text: 0.19 provides the formula for calculating the time required for a cement to develop 500 psi compressive strength.

Retarders**Equation: 0.26**

Neat cement slurries set quickly at a BHT greater than 110°F. A retarder is an additive used to increase the thickening time of cements. Besides extending the pumping time, retarders affect the viscosity of slurries. Common retarders are organic materials.

Common retarders are organic materials.

Extenders

Extended cement slurries are used to reduce the hydrostatic pressure on weak formations. Extended cement slurries consist of extenders. Extenders work by allowing the addition of more water to the slurry to lighten the mixture and to keep the solid particles suspended. Common extenders are bentonite and kaolinite.

Common extenders are bentonite and kaolinite.

Pozzolans

Pozzolans are natural or synthetic materials added to portland cement to reduce the cost of cement. Pozzolans are usually volcanic ash or ground granulated blast-furnace slag. In dry cement, silica in the pozzolans combines with the free lime to form a soluble constituent in the cement.

Common pozzolans are volcanic ash and ground granulated blast-furnace slag.

Table: 0.21

Common pozzolans are volcanic ash and ground granulated blast-furnace slag.

Table: 0.25

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.25

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.23

Table: 0.19

| Table 2-2: PRINCIPLE COMPOUNDS IN PORTLAND CEMENT | |
|--|---|
| Tricalcium silicate Equation: 0.19 | 1. The major compound in ordinary cement. 2. Contributes to an early development, especially during the first few days. 3. Hydration equation: $3\text{CaO} \cdot 2\text{SiO}_3 + 4\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 3\text{CaO} \cdot 2\text{SiO}_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ |
| Dicalcium silicate Equation: 0.17 | 1. A minor compound, less than tricalcium silicate. 2. Contributes to a slower, gradual increase in strength, over an extended period of time. 3. Hydration equation: $2\text{CaO} \cdot \text{SiO}_3 + 4\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CaO} \cdot 2\text{SiO}_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ |
| Tricalcium aluminosilicate Equation: 0.21 | 1. Promotes early development. 2. Contributes to a rapid increase in strength. 3. Resistant to sulfate attack (HSR = High Sulfate Resistance). 4. Gypsum reacts with this phase to form ettringite and then vermiculite. 5. Produces a large volume expansion over first few days. 6. Hydration equation: $\text{3CaO} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_5 + 12\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 \rightarrow 3\text{CaO} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_5 \cdot \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$ |
| Tetracalcium aluminoferrite Equation: 0.17 | 1. Promotes early development of cement. 2. Hydration equation: $4\text{CaO} \cdot \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 \rightarrow 6\text{CaO} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_5 \cdot \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$ |

Figure: 0.17**Figure: 0.24****Equation:**

Table 2-32

| API Class | Application | |
|-----------|--|--|
| A | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used at depth up to 1000 ft. - Economical when compared to premium cements * Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg <p>Text: 0.19 Figure: 0.22</p> <p>Yield - 4.29 ft³/sk</p> <p>Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg Water Requirement - 56% (5.19 gal/sk & 0.844 ft³/sk)</p> | Equation: 0.19 Figure: 0.22 |
| Neat | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used when no slurry is required - Economical when compared to premium cements * Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg <p>Text: 0.19 Figure: 0.18</p> <p>Yield - 4.29 ft³/sk</p> | Equation: 0.19 Figure: 0.18 |
| B | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used at depth up to 1000 ft. - Used when water is required - Economical when compared to premium cements * Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg <p>Text: 0.19 Figure: 0.19</p> <p>Yield - 4.29 ft³/sk</p> <p>Water Requirement - 56% (5.19 gal/sk & 0.844 ft³/sk)</p> | Chart: 0.16 Equation: 0.19 |
| Neat | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used when no slurry is required - Economical when compared to premium cements * Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg <p>Text: 0.19 Figure: 0.19</p> <p>Yield - 4.29 ft³/sk</p> | Chart: 0.19 |
| C | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used at depth up to 1000 ft. - Used at temp. up to 260°F - Used when high strength is required - Used when it is required - High in tricalcium silicate <p>Text: 0.18 Figure: 0.17</p> <p>Yield - 4.29 ft³/sk</p> <p>Water Requirement - 56% (6.31 gal/sk & 0.844 ft³/sk)</p> | Chart: 0.18 Equation: 0.19 |
| Neat | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used when no slurry is required <p>Text: 0.18 Figure: 0.17</p> <p>Yield - 4.29 ft³/sk</p> | Chart: 0.19 |
| D,E | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Class D used in depths from 1000 to 10000 ft. and at temperatures from 170 - 260°F - Both used at depths up to 10000 ft. and at temperatures from 170 - 290°F - Both available in bags and bulk - Both are retarders - Both are more expensive than cement * Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg <p>Text: 0.21 Figure: 0.17</p> <p>Yield - 4.29 ft³/sk</p> <p>Water Requirement - 56% (6.31 gal/sk & 0.844 ft³/sk)</p> <p>Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg Water Requirement - 56% (6.31 gal/sk & 0.844 ft³/sk)</p> <p>Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg Water Requirement - 56% (6.31 gal/sk & 0.844 ft³/sk)</p> | Figure: 0.21 Table: 0.18 |
| Neat | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used at depths up to 10000 ft. and at temperatures from 170 - 290°F - Both available in bags and bulk - Both are retarders - Both are more expensive than cement * Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg <p>Text: 0.21 Figure: 0.21</p> <p>Yield - 4.29 ft³/sk</p> <p>Water Requirement - 56% (6.31 gal/sk & 0.844 ft³/sk)</p> <p>Normal Slurry Weight is 15.6 ppg Water Requirement - 56% (6.31 gal/sk & 0.844 ft³/sk)</p> | Table: 0.18 |

Text: OTable: 0-17

Figure: 0.16

ture: 0.20

Table 2-3: continued

| API Class | Application |
|-----------|---|
| F | <p>Equation: 0.18</p> <p>Figure: 0.25</p> <p>0000 to 16000 ft. In 230 - 320°F</p> <p>Used at temperatures and pressures are encountered - retarded with an organic additive, chemical composition and grind</p> |
| Neat I | <p>Text: 0.20</p> <p>* Normal Slurry Weight 16.5 ppg * Normal Mud Weight 16.0 ppg * Normal Slurry Weight 16.0 ppg</p> <p>Text: 0.21</p> <p>Text: 0.19</p> |
| G,H | <p>- Used at deep wells</p> <p>Text: 0.18</p> <p>Text: 0.19</p> <p>Without modifiers</p> <p>Usable over a wide range of temperatures and pressures</p> <p>Additives can be blended at bulk station or at well site</p> <p>- Class H is a coarser grind than Class G</p> |
| Neat | <p>Text: 0.19</p> <p>Figure: 0.19</p> <p>* Class G slurry weight 16.0 ppg (4.96 gal/sk & 0.66 ft³/sk)</p> <p>* Class H slurry weight 16.4 (deep) ppg</p> <p>* Class H API weight 16.0 ppg (4.76 gal/sk & 0.57 ft³/sk)</p> <p>* Class H slurry weight 16.0 ppg (hollow) to 1.05 ft³/sk (deep)</p> <p>Text: 0.17</p> <p>Figure: 0.24</p> <p>Text: 0.17</p> <p>Text: 0.19</p> |
| J | <p>- Used at deep wells</p> <p>Text: 0.17</p> <p>Figure: 0.22</p> <p>Equation: 0.22</p> <p>Used with retarder</p> <p>Will not set at temperatures less than 150°F when used as a cementitious material</p> <p>Water requirement</p> <p>Figure: 0.22</p> <p>Equation: 0.19</p> <p>Figure: 0.24</p> <p>Equation: 0.20</p> <p>Figure: 0.24</p> <p>Text: 0.19</p> <p>Equation: 0.20</p> <p>Chart: 0.18</p> |
| I | <p>Figure: 0.23</p> |

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.22

Fig

Table 2-4: Physical Properties of Cement Additives

| Material | Bulk Weight, lb/ft ³ | Specific Gravity g/cc | Absolute Volume gal/lb | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|
| | | | gal/lb | ft ³ /lb |
| Sodium Chloride | 71.0 | 2.17 | 0.0553 | 0.0074 |
| Calcium Chloride | 56.0 | 1.96 | 0.0612 | 0.0082 |
| Potassium Chloride | 64.9 | 1.984 | 0.0604 | 0.0081 |
| Gypsum | 75 | 2.7 | 0.0444 | 0.0059 |
| Cement | 94 | 3.14 | 0.0382 | 0.0051 |
| Attapulgite | 40 | 2.89 | 0.0415 | 0.0053 |
| Barite | 135 | 4.23 | 0.0284 | 0.0038 |
| Hematite | 193 | 5.02 | 0.0239 | 0.0032 |
| Diatomaceous Earth | 16.7 | 2.1 | 0.0572 | 0.0076 |
| Pozzolan | 40 | 2.43 | 0.0493 | 0.0066 |
| Diesel Oil (1) | 51.1 | 0.82 | 0.1457 | 0.0195 |
| Diesel Oil (2) | 53.0 | 0.85 | 0.1411 | 0.0189 |
| Fly Ash | 74 | 2.46 | 0.0487 | 0.0065 |
| Bentonite | 60 | 2.65 | 0.0453 | 0.0060 |
| Gilsonite | 50 | 1.07 | 0.1122 | 0.0150 |
| Nut Plug | 48 | 1.28 | 0.0938 | 0.0125 |
| Silica Flour | 70 | 2.63 | 0.0456 | 0.0061 |
| Sand | 100 | 2.63 | 0.0456 | 0.0061 |
| Water (fresh) | 62.4 | 1.00 | 0.1200 | 0.0160 |
| Water (Sea) | 63.96 | 1.025 | 0.1169 | 0.0153 |
| Lignosulphonate | 35.1 | 1.36 | 0.0882 | 0.0118 |
| Polymer (FL-50) | 35 | 1.34 | 0.0895 | 0.0119 |

Table 2-5: Absolute Volume of NaCl (Dissolved)

| %NaCl | gal/lb |
|-------|---------|
| 2 | 0.0371 |
| 5 | 0.0381 |
| 8 | 0.0390 |
| 10 | 0.0394 |
| 12 | 0.0399 |
| 15 | 0.0405 |
| 17 | 0.04095 |
| 20 | 0.0412 |
| 23 | 0.0422 |
| 25 | 0.0426 |
| 28 | 0.0430 |
| 30 | 0.0433 |
| 33 | 0.04375 |
| 35 | 0.0440 |
| 37 | 0.0442 |

Table 2-6: General Problems Encountered During A Cementing Operation

| PROBLEM | PROBABLE CAUSE | CORRECTION |
|--|--|---|
| Cannot receive fluid from the rig | Figure: 0.19 Figure: 0.20 a. Blocked to wrong line b. Tank empty c. Line full d. Line in line | Figure: 0.21 Figure: 0.21 a. Trace out supply lines and tank b. Prime unit supply lines and tank c. Check air system d. Prime pumps |
| Cannot pump out of displacement tank | a. Valve closed or broken b. Clogging in suction c. No air pressure on the unit d. Air lock in pump | Text: 0.20 Figure: 0.21 Figure: 0.21 Figure: 0.17 Figure: 0.16 a. Check air system b. Prime pumps |
| Leaks or blowouts during discharge | Text: 0.20 Equation: 0.19 Figure: 0.18 a. Improperly made up b. Washed-out pipe | Equation: 0.19 Equation: 0.19 Figure: 0.18 Figure: 0.19 a. Take apart, inspect and repair b. Take apart, inspect and replace |
| Cannot pump cement through cement mixer | Figure: 0.19 Figure: 0.17 a. Valve closed or broken b. Clogging in suction c. Obstruction in suction d. Screen or jet plug e. Obstruction in mixer | Figure: 0.20 Figure: 0.18 Figure: 0.18 Figure: 0.18 Figure: 0.18 a. Check pump for rotation b. Back-flush c. Take apart, inspect and repair d. Take apart, inspect and replace |
| Cannot obtain proper slurry or control the density | a. Starving mixing pump b. Obstruction in jet bypass | Equation: 0.18 Equation: 0.18 Table: 0.18 Figure: 0.22 Text: 0.18 Figure: 0.20 Figure: 0.21 Equation: 0.22 a. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter b. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter c. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter d. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter e. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter f. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter g. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter h. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter i. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter j. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter k. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter l. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter m. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter n. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter o. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter p. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter q. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter r. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter s. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter t. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter u. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter v. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter w. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter x. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter y. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter z. Check out pump, jet, bypass, line, filter |

Table 2-6: continued

| PROBLEM | PROBABLE CAUSE | CORRECTION |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|
| No cement to surface | a. Loss to formation b. Loss to formation Figure: 0.19 Figure: 0.23 Figure: 0.20 Equation: 0.19 Figure: 0.19 | b. Use lost-circulation material Figure: 0.19 Figure: 0.18 Figure: 0.23 Figure: 0.20 |
| Sudden pressure drop while displacing | a. Pumps lost pressure b. Split pipe c. Lost circulation d. Packer failure Figure: 0.20 Equation: 0.19 Figure: 0.19 | e. Reverse out and re-enter hole in pipe and reverse f. Increase volume, locate hole in pipe and squeeze g. Check well returns h. Check annulus pressure. i. Reverse out and reset packer j. Check annulus pressure. k. Reverse out and reset packer |
| | a. Differential pressure too great b. Hole caved in. | a. Slow pump rate. Use low density slurry. Displace with a heavy fluid. Open bleeder valve and allow pipe to settle back in place. Chain down pipe b. Slow pump rate. Use low density slurry. Displace with a heavy fluid. Open bleeder valve and allow pipe to settle back in place. Chain down pipe |

Table 2-6: continued

| PROBLEM | PROBABLE CAUSE | CORRECTION |
|--|--|--|
| Find no cement the shoe joint | Equation: 0.1 Figure: 0.23 wall by top plug closed from of top plug ment to | Figure: 0.18 in pre- flush large valve after pipe |
| Top plug bump | a. Casing joint off or casing weight quoted wrong. b. Plug still in head Text: 0.19 Text: 0.19 failed to seal ession | a. Recheck calculations and weight of casing. Check with measuring line b. Check cement head. Check with measuring line c. Stop pumping; check with measuring line d. Allow for compression in mud. Check with measuring line |
| Top plug bumps but pressure fails | a. Surface leak b. Shoe joint off c. Baffle broken d. Plug failed to seal e. Surface leak | a. Check for surface leaks b. Stop pumping; check float c. Stop pumping; check float d. Stop pumping; check float e. Check leak |
| Cement plug in place; pipe on a vacuum | a. Underdisplaced b. Formation broke down c. Oversized hole | a. Recheck calculations b. Recheck calculations; allow to equalize c. Recheck calculations; allow to equalize |
| Cement plug in place; pressure on pipe | Equation: 0.16 Table: 0.17 b. Undersized hole c. Well fluid out of balance d. Pre-flush and after-flush not in balance e. Slurry lighter than well | a. Recheck calculations b. Allow to equalize c. Circulate fluid to condition before cementing d. Pull it wet e. Overdisplaced |
| | Equation: 0.18 Equation: 0.19 Text: 0.20 | |

| PROBLEM | PROBABLE CAUSE | CORRECTION |
|--|---|---|
| Cement plug did not set in place; cannot pull pipe | Text: 0.19 Equation: 0.21 Chart: 0.18 | Text: 0.19 Equation: 0.17 Chart: 0.18 |
| Cannot cement plug or plug too low | a. Casing not seated in borehole b. Hole washed out c. Lost to formation d. Moved downhole | Text: 0.21 Equation: 0.20 Equation: 0.18 |
| Locating cement plug to bottom of hole | Text: 0.17 Equation: 0.1 Chart: 0.23 Chart: 0.18 | Text: 0.17 Equation: 0.16 Chart: 0.16 Equation: 0.19 |
| Plugging for lost circulation | a. Weak zone, fractures, caverns | Table: 0.16 Equation: 0.18 Figure: 0.19 |

Figure: 0.23
Chart: 0.22

Table 2-6: continued

| PROBLEM | PROBABLE CAUSE | CORRECTION |
|---|---|---|
| Squeeze cement or treating below packer; stuck or pressure annulus | Equation: 0.19 Text: 0.17 Text: 0.17 Other: 0.18 Equation: 0.18 Text: 0.20 | Figure: 0.22 Text: 0.22 Text: 0.22 Text: 0.18 Equation: 0.20 Figure: 0.19 |
| Squeeze cementing or treating below packer. Sudden pressure loss in the annulus | a. Casing split above perforations above b. BOP leaking | Table: 0.18 Figure: 0.16 Equation: 0.17 |
| Displacing cement to packer depth, lost displacing | a. Not reading stroke counter b. Pumping too fast | Text: 0.20 Text: 0.18 Equation: 0.19 Text: 0.20 Equation: 0.18 Chart: 0.18 |
| Squeeze cement place; packer too high | Figure: 0.23 Figure: 0.24 Equation: 0.20 Table: 0.20 Text: 0.17 Text: 0.19 Text: 0.18 Text: 0.21 | Text: 0.17 Text: 0.19 Text: 0.18 Text: 0.19 Text: 0.18 Text: 0.21 |

Table 2-6: continued

| PROBLEM | PROBABLE CAUSE | Equation: 0.18 |
|---|--|---|
| Zone to be squeezed across well fluid but not cement | a. Tight formation b. Pressure limitation too low c. Sensitive zones | Text: 0.20 Text: 0.20 Figure: 0.18 |
| Mixing bulk dry cement and can't fixed in time to finish | | Figure: 0.19 Figure: 0.19 |
| Slurry pump becomes | | Figure: 0.18 Figure: 0.18 Figure: 0.21 Figure: 0.22 |
| Operator complains of trouble turning up top rubber plug in large-diameter casing | with bit | Figure: 0.20 Figure: 0.21 Text: 0.19 Text: 0.19 |
| | | |
| | | Figure: 0.22 Equation: 0.25 Equation: 0.18 Equation: 0.18 Chart: 0.22 Figure: 0.21 |

Casing Equations: 0.16 report

Depth 14500.0 ft

Casing Shoe Depth

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.19

| From | Station To | Length | Dia | Blow | Casing Section | Length Joint | OD | ID | Capacity Joint | Blk Joint | Casing Total | Capacity Joint | Blk Total | Blow Rate |
|--------|------------|--------|--------|------|-------------------|-----------------|-------|------|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|--------------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | in | | | 0 | in | in | lbs | blk | lbs | lbs | blk | lb/in |
| 1.0 | 1000.0 | 100.0 | 26.000 | 1 | 96.7 | 1.000 | 1.000 | .967 | 4 | 0.028 | 0 | 1.473 | 0.00 | 1.130 |
| 1000.0 | 1962.0 | 242.6 | 22.446 | 2 | 96.7 | 1.000 | 1.000 | .967 | 2 | 0.028 | 4 | 1.473 | .33 | 0.812 |
| 1962.0 | 2951.0 | 989.2 | 22.446 | 2 | 96.7 | 1.028 | 1.028 | .967 | 11.3 | 0.022 | 162 | 1.931 | .475 | 0.000 |
| 2951.0 | 3950.0 | 1100.1 | 22.446 | 3 | 96.7 | 1.028 | 1.028 | .967 | 16 | 0.027 | 1.00 | 1.029 | .77 | 0.000 |
| 3950.0 | 4950.0 | 1000.0 | 22.446 | 3 | 96.7 | 1.028 | 1.028 | .967 | 11 | 0.027 | 1.02 | 1.049 | .231 | 0.000 |
| 4950.0 | 14500.0 | 947.2 | 22.230 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | |

Summary

| | |
|---------------------------|----------|
| Total Stand Displacement | 197 kbs |
| Total Casing Capacity | 1626 kbs |
| Total Casing Displacement | 1215 kbs |
| Total Annular Volume | 999 kbs |
| Total Hole Volume | 2271 kbs |

Weights and Headload

| Casing Head Load | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---------|---------------------|------------------|--------------|-------|-----------------------------------|--------|----------------------|-------|
| Casing Section | Length | Number of Joints | Average Joint | Casing OD | ID | Casing Weight: Steel per Joint | In Air | In Mud Empty Full | |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | in | in | lb/ft | lb | lb | |
| 1 | 5328.8 | 136 | 39.2 | 9.625 | 8.921 | 36.80 | 0.14 | 19.56 | |
| 2 | 7945.2 | 264 | 38.9 | 9.625 | 8.835 | 36.80 | 0.14 | 29.17 | |
| 3 | 7573.0 | 0 | 95.3 | 5.000 | 4.000 | 26.80 | 0.75 | 5.97 | |
| ----- | ----- | ----- | ----- | ----- | ----- | ----- | ----- | ----- | |
| | 14031.8 | 348 | | | | | 54.70 | 7.95 | 47.50 |

Headload Summary

| | |
|------------------------|------------|
| Block and Block Weight | 86.00 kbs |
| Empty Casing in Air | 153.70 kbs |
| Empty Casing in Mud | 106.95 kbs |
| Full Casing in Mud | 140.50 kbs |

Cementing Analysis

Cement Pump Capacity

0.119 bbl/stk

| Cementing Operation | Circulating Depth | Cement Type | Piston Rate | Length Circum | Mud Density | Cement Density | Volume Cement | Stand Volume to Position Cement | Cement Back Pressure |
|------------------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|-------------------|------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1000.0 | 11000.0 | 14000.0 | 1000.0 | 9.00 | 12.00 | 100 | 352.19 | 1026 |
| 2 | 3000.0 | 7000.0 | 9000.0 | 1000.0 | 9.00 | 11.50 | 50 | 311.50 | 580 |
| 3 | 7000.0 | 3000.0 | 4500.0 | 1000.0 | 9.00 | 11.00 | 30 | 45.19 | 363 |

Self Figure: 0.21e

1. What do the "threaded and coupled weight" standards refer to?

FinalEquation: 0.22



Equation: 0.28

Equation: 0.26

2. Three common A associated tensile strengths are:

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____



Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

3. After the initial cement materials are mixed and baked the resulting mixture is known as:

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

4. What formula is used to calculate the absolute volume of cementing material?

TextText: 0.20



Text: 0.18

5. An example of a slurry mixture is 60:40:2. What do these three numbers refer to?

Figure: 0.17

60:_____

40:_____

2:_____

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

6. What are the ideal temperatures for drilling fluid that should be used during cementing?

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.21



Equation: 0.21

Figure: 0.23



Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.21

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Equation: 0.18

7. Most operators wait in cement to reach a minimum compressive strength of _____ operations.

8. Why are Pozzolans used?

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.17

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.23

9. Given the following:
with an excess factor of _____

Figure: 0.22

| Diameters and Lengths | Material | Specific Gravities |
|-----------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Casing OD = 13 3/8" | Text | Figure: 0.24 |
| Casing ID = 12.415" | Bentonite | Table: 0.19 |
| Casing Shoe = 40' | CaCl_2 | 3.0200 |
| Hole Size = 15 1/2" | Figure: 0.20 | Figure: 0.22 |

Objective:

Table: 0.17

Chart: 0.17

Equation: 0.2

Tail Slurry:

Text: 0.17

Equation: 0.2

Chart: 0.17

Lead Slurry:

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.1

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.1

Equation: 0.1

Answer:

Table: 0.17

Table: 0.17

10. What is a casing coupling?

Text: 0.15

Table: 0.19

Table: 0.19

Equation: 0.16

Table: 0.21

Table: 0.21

Other: 0

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Other: 0

Chart: 0.17

Chart: 0.17

Equation: 0.19

-Notes-

Bit Technology

Text: 0.20

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Describe the components of roller cone and fixed cutter bits and understand why these variations are advantageous in certain situations. **Equation: 0.19**
- Determine the optimum bit size based on the size of the wellbore and the previous bit performance. **Text: 0.20**
- Describe the various types of cutter bits. **Text: 0.21**
- Explain why running procedures are different for fixed cutter bits. **Figure: 0.23**
- Explain how to calculate the number of teeth required for a given application. **Figure: 0.18**

Additional Review Reading Material

Rabia, Hussain, *Oilwell Drilling Handbook*, 2nd edition, Pennwell Publishing Company, 1985.

SPE, *Applied Drilling Principles*, Society of Petroleum Engineers, Vol. 2, 1986.

Moore, Preston, *Drilling Practices Manual*, 2nd Edition, Pennwell Publishing Company, 1986.

Hughes Tool Co.; Video Tape, *Roller Cone Bit Design*.

Hughes Tool Co.; Video Tape, **Figure: 0.20**

Hughes Tool Co.; Video Tape, *Ball Bit Grading*.

Hughes Tool Co.; Video Tape, **Figure: 0.16**



Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.20



Chart: 0.18

Chart: 0.18

Chart: 0.26

Bit Equation: 0.26

The *Advanced Logging Procedures* workbook contains information on drill bits, IADC classification, and bit grading, and should be referred to before beginning.

Rolling Cutter Rolling Bit

The first successful rolling cutter bit was developed by G.W. Dickey in 1909. Over the next fifteen years, the rolling cutter bit was used primarily in hard formation areas.

This rolling cutter bit was a reduced cone bit. Due to the high friction in the cuttings, consequently, the bit had a tendency to overheat.

The bit was redesigned with a larger cone angle. In the early 1930's, the rolling cutter bit was redesigned for hard and soft formations.

The primary difference between a rolling cutter bit and a reduced cone bit was the use of intrusion.

Intrusion is the rock being broken by the weight of the bit. This action, together with the use of a special case hardened steel.

The primary advantage of a rolling cutter bit is the three bearing design located around the journal.

One advantage of a rolling cutter bit is the three bearing design located around the journal. Middle bearings are ball

bearings, which run in the direction. They are pressed into a special case hardened bushing.

Although rolling cutter bits have been developed, there are still some problems remaining outstanding: (1) the change in water course

design and the introduction of the tungsten carbide, and (3) the development of sealed journal bearings.

Although rolling cutter bits have been developed, there are still some problems remaining outstanding: (1) the change in water course

design and the introduction of the tungsten carbide, and (3) the development of sealed journal bearings.

Journal Angle

One of the basic parameters of rolling cutter rock bits is the journal angle. The journal angle is the angle at which the journal is inclined, relative to a vertical line, from one rock bit type to the next, in each case, it is different.

The journal angle is the angle at which the journal is inclined, relative to a vertical line, from one rock bit type to the next, in each case, it is different.

The journal angle also controls the journal profile, which is the angle at which the journal is inclined, relative to a vertical line, from one rock bit type to the next, in each case, it is different.

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The journal angle also controls the journal profile, which is the angle at which the journal is inclined, relative to a vertical line, from one rock bit type to the next, in each case, it is different.

Journal angle of:

Figure: 0.22 formation:**Soft Formations:**

Journal angle (3° to 11°) allows a convex profile which accommodates cutter action and permits greater tooth depth.

Medium Formations:**Figure: 0.24**

Journal angle (34° to 36°), to decrease cutter action.

Hard Formations:**Figure: 0.19**

Uses a large journal angle (39°), to minimize cutter action.

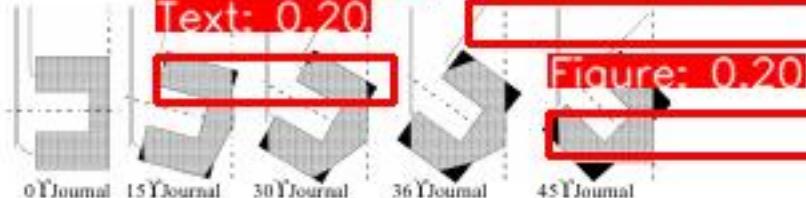
Figure: 0.17**Text: 0.20**

Figure 3-1: Journal Angles in Roller Cone Bits

Interfitting Teeth and Cone Offset

The idea of interfitting teeth (Figure 3-2a), makes it possible to have large bit parts, and allows the inner row of teeth to cut new formation on each rotation. Interfitting also offers some degree of self-cleaning. One result of this interfitting is that each of the three rows of teeth cuts a different path.

Cone offset (Figure 3-2b), is caused by the journal centerline not intersecting the bit centerline. For instance if the journal centerline misses the bit centerline (measured perpendicular to the journal centerline at the center of rotation) is one degree.

Figure: 0.21

The skew point is an arbitrary point on the journal centerline which is the angle formed between the journal centerline and a line from the bit center to the outer tip.

The skew direction is the direction of rotation. This permits the tips to all cut in the same "Negative" gauge. All, increasing gauge wear.

Equation: 0.23**Equation: 0.18****Equation: 0.18****Chart: 0.22**

As with straight teeth, there is a limit to the amount of tooth offset that can be used. In soft formation bits, the maximum offset (3° skew angle) is used to increase the tooth's scrubbing action. Medium formation bits and a limited offset are used to increase the tooth's cutting action. While hard formation bits have no offset, to maintain a sharp cutting edge.

$$\text{Equation: 0.27}$$

rent in each type of formation. In soft formation bits, the maximum offset (3° skew angle) is used to increase the tooth's scrubbing action. Medium formation bits and a limited offset are used to increase the tooth's cutting action. While hard formation bits have no offset, to maintain a sharp cutting edge.

$$\text{Text: 0.22}$$

formation bits have no offset, to maintain a sharp cutting edge.

$$\text{Text: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.19}$$

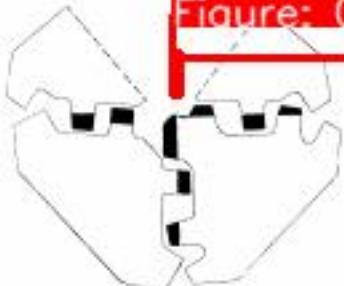


Figure 3-2a: Interfitting Teeth



Figure 3-2b: Cutter Offset Skew Angle

Circulation Systems

The first hydraulic features incorporated into drilling tools dated back to the original use of hollow drillpipe with direct circulation of drilling fluids.

As the first fishtail bits became popular, around the turn of the century, circulation through the bit body was used for the first time. The first milling bits introduced a central water conduit which directed water to the teeth.

Text: 0.17 **Text: 0.20** **Text: 0.17**

In 1912, regular circulation systems were introduced to the oil industry. The "jet bit" concept is considered to be the major hydraulic design innovation in bits and remains state-of-the-art.

Further improvements in circulation systems include extended nozzle stems and the various water courses in the bit body.

Figure: 0.18 **Text: 0.21**

Figure: 0.22 **Text: 0.27**

Regular circulation systems direct fluid from the center of the bit body to three holes drilled in the dome of the bit. These holes allow fluid to flow through the bit, through the nozzle stems to the mouth of the nozzle, and finally flush away the cuttings.

Text: 0.19 **Text: 0.17** **Text: 0.25**

Text: 0.23 **Text: 0.18** **Text: 0.25**

Text: 0.17 **Text: 0.17** **Baker Hughes INTEQ**

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Jet Circulation

Jet circulation bits (Figure 3-3b), are manufactured with smooth, streamlined, fluid passageways through the bore of the bit. Drilling fluid passes through the jet nozzle holes at the bottom to flush cuttings away from the bit and flows up and around the outside of the bit.

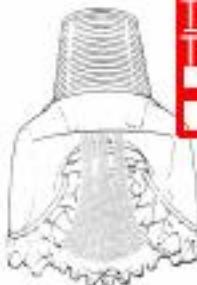


Figure 3-3a: Regular Circulation

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Equation: 0.16

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.21



Figure 3-3b: Jet Nozzle Circulation

Air or Gas Circulation Bits

A third type of circulation medium is compressed air or gas, and can be used with either regular or jet circulation bits. Bits manufactured for air or gas circulation have special passageways from the bore of the bit to the bearings, through which a portion of the air or gas is diverted to keep the bearings cool and purged of dust or cuttings. From the special passageways the air or gas passes through a number of strategically located ports or holes in the bearing journal, flows through the bearing structure and exhausts, at the smallest hole gauge of the bit, to blow up the annulus.

Text: 0.24**Jet Nozzles**

There are essentially two types of nozzles used in tri-cone bits.

Shrouded nozzles are used for low pressure drilling and high pressure drilling periods. Standard jet

nozzles are easier to clean than shrouded nozzles. However, standard jet nozzle erosion is not a problem for standard jet nozzles.

Designated for deep hole drilling, standard jet nozzles are used for high pressure drilling.

Nozzle sizes play a major role in the success of air or gas circulation. The benefits of the correct selection include faster drill rates, reduced costs, and improved safety.

Hydraulics. The benefits of the correct selection include faster drill rates, reduced costs, and improved safety.

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Hydraulics. The benefits of the correct selection include faster drill rates, reduced costs, and improved safety.

Orifice sizes
being between
sizes from 18

Equation: 0.29 with the most common

Equation: 0.26 bit jets are available in

Figure: 0.22

Cutting Structure

Equation: 0.18 were introduced into the oilfield, the drag bit was replaced by the roller cone's steel tooth cutting structure. These steel teeth, which are made of a single piece of steel, have a thickness, to

Equation: 0.17 number per cone, and

Text: 0.22 When hardened, the steel teeth, a different cutting structure.

Text: 0.18 Introduced by the Giddings and Conoco, it brought on nickname the "The Chert Bit".

Figure: 0.19 A drilling time up to 3 hours to 30 hours or more.

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Equation: 0.17 in steel tooth cutting structures, teeth are angled (figure 5-4).

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.19



Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.26

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.23

Medium Formation Cutting Structures

Teeth on medium formation bits are fairly numerous, with moderate spacing and depth. The teeth are strong, and are a compromise between hard and soft bits, with tooth angles of 43°. The gauge rows are hardfaced.

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Hard Formation Cutting Structures

There are many teeth on this type of bit. They are closely spaced and are short and blunt. There are many narrow rows with tooth angles of 46° to 50°. The inner rows have no hardfacing, while the gauge row is hardfaced.

Tungsten Carbide Cutting Structures

Since most of the basic design features of the mill tooth cutting structures have been incorporated into insert bits, the main variations occur in insert shape (Figure 3-5).

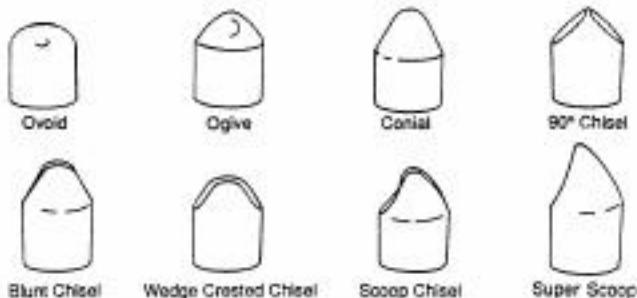


Figure 3-5: Tungsten Carbide Tooth Shapes

Historical shapes of milled teeth have built up a mystique about insert tooth shape. Many people in the oil field thought that chisel shaped teeth significantly affected the drill rate in all formations. This was because early drilling practices used light bit weights, causing the relatively sharp chisel shaped inserts to have a higher unit loading on the formation, hence faster drill rates. When heavier bit weights are used, it tends to nullify the advantage of the chisel shape. Even the steel milled teeth break down under heavy weights. In fact, most bits drill 75% of the hole in a 1/2 to 3/4 dull condition. With this in mind, many "blunt" insert tooth designs were made, and seem to drill efficiently. Nowadays, most insert teeth have this blunt, conical shape.

Gauge Protection

Protection of the gauge surface is vital to the effectiveness of any bit. The gauge surfaces constantly ream the hole, and thus are subject to continuous abrasive wear.

Applying tungsten carbide in a steel matrix through a welding process, called "hardfacing", provides the best resistance to this type of wear. Gauge protection is improved as the amount of hardfaced surface area increases.

The "A" type teeth provide the maximum amount of surface area for the application of hard materials. The "B" type teeth provide the minimum amount of surface area for the application of soft materials.

For work in contact with hot-top tungsten carbide insert is pressed into the surface to add further protection.

Gauge prototyped IADC code. Text: 0.24 code bits by adding a 'G' to the

2-1

Bearing Systems

The first type sealed, roller bearing arrangement, utilizing rollers on the heel of the journal.

Figure 0-17 *ubri ate the bearings. Bearing size was*

Figure 0.20 available with modifications for

The next generation of roller bearing systems is coming.

Equation: 0.18
Text: 0.19

Chart- 0.18
Table- 0.21

Charts 0.20

Chore 0.20

Figure 0.18—

Section 0.17

Education: U.S.A.

Text-021

Text-016

Textbooks

Text- 016

Equation: 0.10

Education 2019

Text: 0.20

the lubricant film
the bearing seal

Figure: 0.22

lize pressures surrounding

Figure: 0.21

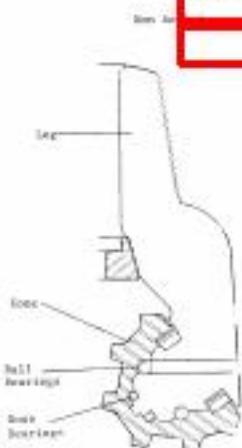


Figure 3-6a

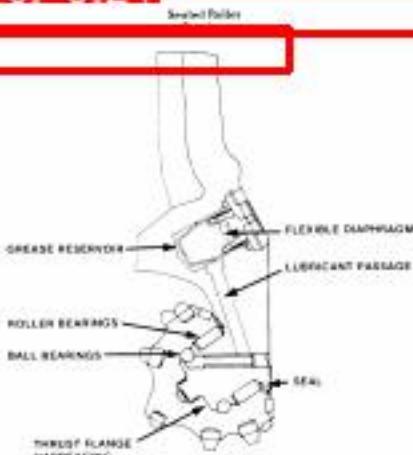


Figure 3-6b

There is, however, one serious drawback to the roller-ball-roller bearing system. The primary cause of roller bearing failure is journal spalling, which causes destruction of the rollers and the locking of the cone.

To remedy this, instead of the standard roller bearing assembly, the "journal bearing" system utilizes solid metal bushings for direct cone to journal contact. This offers a distinct mechanical advantage over roller arrangements in that it distributes the load more evenly at the load bearing point. This distribution is the chief cause of roller bearing assembly failure—spalling in the load portion of the bearing face.

Journal bearing systems used in carbide insert bits feature a metal bearing surface on the journal and a lubricant. Specialized seals keep the drilling fluid and bearing surfaces clean. Graphite seals the graphite between the journal and cone to form a perfect arc. Bearings have a specific texture to ensure a carefully controlled surface.

The manufacturer journals either no bearing or a bearing designed to accommodate the cone. Once the cone is seated,

Figure: 0.23

arbitrarily inserts the bearing. Precision fit of the

Figure: 0.24

bits features a metal bearing surface on the journal and a lubricant.

Figure: 0.25

Specialized seals keep the drilling fluid and bearing surfaces clean.

Figure: 0.26

Graphite seals the graphite between the journal and cone to form a perfect arc.

Figure: 0.27

Bearings have a specific texture to ensure a carefully controlled surface.

Figure: 0.28

The manufacturer journals either no bearing or a bearing designed to accommodate the cone. Once the cone is seated,

machines press the journal, so the seal between the cone and the journal is opened.

Seals

The first and sealed roller bearing in rubber, which is a circular steel spring encased in rubber. The cone. The next major problem is in order to make the seal between the cone and the journal, which is a circular steel spring encased in rubber. The cone and the face of the journal are the most effective seal. The bearing is tolerance, which must be precise.

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.21 *Diagram illustrating the principle of a roller bearing seal. A circular steel spring (the seal) is encased in rubber. It is positioned between the cone and the journal of a bearing. The seal is designed to provide a tight seal between the bearing components.*

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.19 *Diagram illustrating the principle of a roller bearing seal. A circular steel spring (the seal) is encased in rubber. It is positioned between the cone and the journal of a bearing. The seal is designed to provide a tight seal between the bearing components.*

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.18 *Diagram illustrating the principle of a roller bearing seal. A circular steel spring (the seal) is encased in rubber. It is positioned between the cone and the journal of a bearing. The seal is designed to provide a tight seal between the bearing components.*

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.22 *Diagram illustrating the principle of a roller bearing seal. A circular steel spring (the seal) is encased in rubber. It is positioned between the cone and the journal of a bearing. The seal is designed to provide a tight seal between the bearing components.*

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.20 *Diagram illustrating the principle of a roller bearing seal. A circular steel spring (the seal) is encased in rubber. It is positioned between the cone and the journal of a bearing. The seal is designed to provide a tight seal between the bearing components.*

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.21 *Diagram illustrating the principle of a roller bearing seal. A circular steel spring (the seal) is encased in rubber. It is positioned between the cone and the journal of a bearing. The seal is designed to provide a tight seal between the bearing components.*

Text: 0.20

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Table: 0.20

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Text: 0.21

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Text: 0.23 *Diagram illustrating the principle of a roller bearing seal. A circular steel spring (the seal) is encased in rubber. It is positioned between the cone and the journal of a bearing. The seal is designed to provide a tight seal between the bearing components.*

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Table: 0.18 *Diagram illustrating the principle of a roller bearing seal. A circular steel spring (the seal) is encased in rubber. It is positioned between the cone and the journal of a bearing. The seal is designed to provide a tight seal between the bearing components.*

Text: 0.19

Table: 0.18

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Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.18

Material Requirements

The rock bit of hard steel tester uses a diamond pyramid indenter with a load of 150 kilograms. The deeper the indenter goes into the rock, the harder it is to break. The measurement is made on the Rockwell C scale (Rc). The tester uses a diamond pyramid indenter with a load of 150 kilograms. The harder the indenter goes into the rock, the harder it is to break.

The desired mechanical properties in steel is determined by its carbon content, particularly the amount of carbon (up to about 0.7%), the hardening agent (alloying elements), and the heat treatment process. Alloying elements such as molybdenum, tungsten, and vanadium harden the steel and cause the steel to become more ductile. The steel must also have the right grain size and structure in response to heat treating. The grain size is determined by the cooling rate during heat treatment. The smaller the grain size, the higher the strength and toughness of the metal, the less ductile it becomes. The grain size is controlled by the cooling rate during heat treatment. The smaller the grain size, the higher the strength and toughness of the metal, the less ductile it becomes. Alloying elements improve the mechanical properties of the steel, increasing its strength, ductility, and resistance to failure from impact.

Heat Treating

The desired mechanical properties in steel are developed through heat treatment. As mentioned above, the strength is improved by increasing the carbon content of the steel. Heat treatment is commonly used to improve the mechanical properties of steel.

Carburizing (strengthening and increasing work propagation) is attained by leaving the inner section of the steel unchanged.

The overall physical properties of the steel are achieved by heating the outer section to a higher temperature than quenching the inner section. The carburized section gets about 60 - 64 Rc, while the inner section remains at 40 - 42 Rc, resulting in a hardness ratio of about 2:1.

Mill Tooth Bit

The teeth on a mill tooth bit are made of carbide. This hard-facing can be on the gauge teeth (for hard formations) or on both rows. Hard-facing is applied in such a way that it can self-sharpening.

Insert Bits

Over the past ten years, significant progress in rolling cutter bits has been made in the design of the cutter teeth. The use of insert bits has long been accepted; it was not until recently that bit manufacturers obtained enough experience with the material and design to make it possible to consistently produce high-quality bits for soft formations - soft rock, shale, sandstone, and so on.

The chief advantage of insert bits is that there is virtually no change in the configuration of the cutter teeth. The bit often finds good performance factor on formation changes.

$$\text{Equation: } 0.20$$

$$\text{Equation: } 0.22$$

$$\text{Equation: } 0.23$$

The basic principle of the design of carbide tools is to apply to minimum the forces required to hold the tooth interfit, insert and gauge requirements.

Of primary importance is the proper grade of carbide material used in the inserts. Much has been learned in the last few years in the initial development of primary carbide grades for use in the manufacture of various grades of carbide tools.

At present, the composition of the mechanical properties of the carbide (gouging/spalling resistance, crushing/fracture resistance, etc.) function closely parallels the composition of the carbide used in the manufacture of tools. For this reason, the composition as well as the configuration of the carbide tool must be determined by the ultimate in both areas has not been determined.

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.17

Figure: 0.20

Polycrystalline Diamond Compact Bits

In the early days of oilwell drilling, fishtail/drag bits were used extensively throughout the oilfield. These bits had a very sharp cutting edge which would not penetrate the rock surface. They were used in gas reservoirs, a common application being the drilling of horizontal wells.

General Electric developed the polycrystalline diamond compact bit in the absence of natural diamonds. It was first used in the oilfield in the early 70's. The bit has a very hard cutting edge which is made from polycrystalline diamond. This bit is competitive with the conventional fishtail/drag bit.

PDC Drill Blanks

These drill blanks are made by bonding a layer of diamond to a high-pressure bonded sintered carbide substrate. The wear resistance of diamond is complemented by the strength and durability of tungsten carbide.

PDC blanks are self-sharpening in the sense that small, sharp crystals are repeatedly exposed as the polycrystalline film wears away. This is because they are weak cleavage planes, which can result in the formation of diamonds in the blank.

The blanks are then fitted into holes which are positioned in a helical pattern to give an equal distribution of weight on bit, and a redundant shearing action. The result being

The bit body is made of tri-cone bits, a type of cutter made of tungsten carbide.

Bit Design

PDC bits feature a central bearing hole which is a major advantage, because there are no bearing pads to fish out of the hole. The bit has wear pads to help extend its life.

Figure: 0.20 shows a typical PDC bit design. The bit has a central bearing hole which is a major advantage, because there are no bearing pads to fish out of the hole. The bit has wear pads to help extend its life.

Table: 0.18 gives the dimensions of a typical PDC bit. The bit has a central bearing hole which is a major advantage, because there are no bearing pads to fish out of the hole. The bit has wear pads to help extend its life.

Equation: 0.18 gives the formula for calculating the weight of a PDC bit. The bit has a central bearing hole which is a major advantage, because there are no bearing pads to fish out of the hole. The bit has wear pads to help extend its life.

Figure: 0.17 shows a typical PDC bit design. The bit has a central bearing hole which is a major advantage, because there are no bearing pads to fish out of the hole. The bit has wear pads to help extend its life.

Table: 0.19 gives the dimensions of a typical PDC bit. The bit has a central bearing hole which is a major advantage, because there are no bearing pads to fish out of the hole. The bit has wear pads to help extend its life.

The face of the bit attacks the rock, decreasing the potential energy.

Jet nozzles are strategically located to increase the efficiency of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

The cutters are:

- an **annular cutter** which scrapes the sides of the bore
- a **radial cutter** which scrapes the bottom of the bore
- a **bladed plug cutter**, more than one-inch from the bore

All three types provide a consistent bottomhole pattern. The bore combination of scribe and round cutters to enhance the scraping and shearing action of the annular cutter.

Without moving parts, the bit has a consistent self-cleaning action between the nozzles as do the roller cone bits.

PDC Bit Operating Principles

PDC bits do not have rows of teeth. Instead, they rely on the self fluid-cleaning action between the nozzles to flush the cuttings away. This is accomplished with strategically positioned converging-diverging nozzles which maximize the erosion of the body near the nozzle area. A horsepower per square inch range of 2.0 to 4.0 hydraulic pressure is required. Ingestible jet nozzles come in standard sizes.

Text: 0.19 PDC cutting elements provide a self-sharpening edge with the wear resistance of diamonds. They are used in formations such as shale, sandstone, salt, and anhydrite. These formations have penetration rates with weights between 100 and 150 pounds per minute per foot of bit diameter and rotary speed of 85 to 140 rpm.

High rotary speeds reduce the chance of deviation. Optimal

Equation: 0.25 gauge and nose cutters to minimize while decreasing

Equation: 0.24 the potential energy of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.23 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.27 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.22 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Equation: 0.20 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.22 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Equation: 0.18 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.20 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Equation: 0.20 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Equation: 0.19 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Chart: 0.18 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.19 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.19 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.23 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.24 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.19 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.21 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.24 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.19 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.18 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.25 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.26 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.19 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.18 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Table: 0.20 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.17 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.18 shows the effect of the cutters and the bottom of the hole.

Text: 0.20

Most applications

Text: 0.19

Lighter weight

Text: 0.20

drill bit means lower stress on the drill string, with increased

string life as a result.

Text: 0.20

drill collars are used.

Text: 0.20

These bits have

Text: 0.21

base muds and the

Text: 0.21

PDC bit performance

Text: 0.21

in formations that tend to be somewhat elastic and

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.19

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Text: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Even though PDC

Text: 0.18

improved drilling

Text: 0.18

met in order that the bit can be as efficient and economical as possible.

Text: 0.19

1. When

Text: 0.19

damaged

Text: 0.22

the hole

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.25

a. When

Text: 0.25

removing

Text: 0.24

b. The

Text: 0.23

debris is left inside

Text: 0.19

c. The prop

Text: 0.21

up the bit.

Text: 0.22

d. The bit is

Text: 0.22

of roller cone bits. It

Text: 0.22

can damage the gauge cutters.

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Equation: 0.21

Bit Technology

Drilling Engineering

4. If it is necessary to pick up the kelly and run the bit, the rotary speed should be about 60 rpm and go slowly.
Text: 0.24
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.18
Text: 0.19
Figure: 0.22
Figure: 0.19
Text: 0.20
Figure: 0.26
Figure: 0.21
Figure: 0.23
5. When near bottom, at full flow, and at 60 rpm, stop drilling the bit with over 600 PDC bits, it is common that the first on-bottom indication is a sudden increase in torque and weight.
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.18
Text: 0.19
Figure: 0.22
Figure: 0.26
Figure: 0.21
Figure: 0.23
Text: 0.23
Text: 0.23
Figure: 0.23
Figure: 0.22
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Figure: 0.21
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Figure: 0.20
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Figure: 0.20
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Figure: 0.18
Text: 0.20
Text: 0.19
Figure: 0.20
Text: 0.20
Text: 0.19
Figure: 0.20
Text: 0.20
Text: 0.19
Figure: 0.25
Figure: 0.22
Text: 0.17
Table: 0.16

will be a sudden decrease in torque, and an increase in standpipe pressure. In this portion, there will be very little weight-on-bit and a decrease in the penetration rate.

Figure: 0.19 and torque, and

Equation: 0.20

Diamond Core Bits

Diamond core bits were introduced into the oilfield in the early 1920's and were used to penetrate hard rock. These early diamond bits were very expensive.

Since performance was the primary consideration, the cost was justified.

By the 1940's, the technology had improved to the point where diamonds were cast in a matrix of tungsten carbide powder.

This change in setting pattern led to the introduction of diamond bits. Diamond bits were more durable than roller cone bits, and were ten to fifteen times the cost of roller bits, and were twice as expensive as diamond bits.

Regardless of the cost, engineers were interested in using diamond bits to drill for long periods of time. Several companies began to provide a means of measuring the drilling and the subsequent downhole performance on a basis.

In the late 1950's several major oil companies began to use diamond bits, and these studies provided a means of measuring the penetration rate. This plus developments of more erosion resistant matrix materials, led to the introduction of diamond bits.

There are three basic types of diamond bits:

1. Single crystal diamonds, which are grown and come in geometrically regular shapes. They are extremely sharp.
2. Coated diamonds, which are grown or synthesized and are yellowish or grayish in color, and do not permit the transmission of light. They are balls (rounded) in shape.

Black diamonds (Black Diamond): So named because the majority of them are black and do not transmit light. The majority of these diamonds have a crystalline or amorphous structure.

Diamonds used in the oilfield are cut into various sizes and shapes, such as 15 stones per cm².

Diamonds are very hard and are able to withstand abrasion better than steel. Diamonds are

resistant to abrasion, except when they are subjected to impact.

There are two types of diamond bits: cut and polished.

Cut diamonds are used for drilling through hard rock, while polished diamonds are used for drilling through soft rock.

Polished diamonds are used for drilling through soft rock, while cut diamonds are used for drilling through hard rock.

Cut diamonds are used for drilling through hard rock, while polished diamonds are used for drilling through soft rock.

Cut diamonds are used for drilling through hard rock, while polished diamonds are used for drilling through soft rock.

The Diamonds

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resistant to abrasion, except when they are subjected to impact.

There are two types of diamond bits: cut and polished.

Cut diamonds are used for drilling through hard rock, while polished diamonds are used for drilling through soft rock.

material known

length and have high thermal capacity. The longer the bit, the more weight it has to withstand impacts.

The terminology used to describe diamond quality is quite varied, and "quality" is roughly defined as follows:

1. Surface Quality: Better surface quality.
2. Transparency: Light is more easily transmitted through the diamond when non-crystalline diamonds and coated diamonds are being evaluated.
3. Internal Structure: The absence of inclusions, no growth lines, and no fractures.
4. External Shape: A better shape indicates that the diamond is stronger and hence longer.

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.17

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.24

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.25

Figure: 0.25

Text: 0.25

Figure: 0.25

Text: 0.25

Figure: 0.25

Text: 0.22

The Diamond Bit

A diamond bit (either a drilling bit or a reamer) consists of diamonds, matrix and shank. The diamonds are held in place by the matrix which is bonded to the shank. Tungsten carbide infiltrated with tungsten carbide is used for its massive wear and erosion resistant properties (but far from a diamond in this aspect).

Equation: 0.19 is to attach the bit to the drill string.

Diamond bits are sold by the carat weight (1 carat = 0.2 grams) of the diamonds in the bit. The price will vary depending on the size of the diamonds, the number of diamonds, the quality of the diamonds and the quality of the matrix. The setting charge is to cover the cost of the diamonds and the matrix. The cost of the bit is generally returned to salvage value when the bit is discarded.

Text: 0.18 is frequently as much as 50% of the original bit cost.

Uses of Diamond Bits

As with any bit, the choice of a diamond bit should be based on a detailed cost analysis. There are, however, certain drilling situations which indicate the use of diamond bits.

- **Very short bit life.** The bit life is very short due to bearing failure. This is usually caused by an increase in torque and each diamond has a strength of 1,261,000 psi (approximate).

Equation: 0.16

Table: 0.18

Text: 0.26

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.21

relative cost, reusing the bit, and the cost of tungsten carbide.

- Low penetration rates with roller cone bits: Frequently, when roller cone bits are used, the cost of the bit is high, due to high mud weights or low bit durability. However, its can provide a savings.

The "plowing" action generally produces higher penetration rates.

Fluid is distributed uniformly over the face of the bit, creating a clean under a clean surface.

- Deep, small holes: limited life due to low bit durability, etc. It will last longer in very soft formations.

- Directional drilling: "sideways" drilling, which is "biting off" in directional drilling situations.

- Limited weight: with less weight, it will last longer in the same size range.

- Downhole failures: failures on most roller cone bits in the same size range.

- Cutting casing: window cutting through casing using diamond bits is faster than older window cutting techniques, or directional drilling techniques.

- Specialized designs: and longer windows are cut when sidetracking.

- Coring: operations is essential for smooth, whole bottom hole an diamond bits are used.

There are some disadvantages to diamond bits:

- Very hard, brittle material can cause severe shock loading on the bit, short bit life.

- Formations can break apart in large pieces, causing damage.

Equation: 0.26

Equation: 0.24

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.21

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.17

Text: 0.16

Figure: 0.19

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Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.21

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Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.24

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Text: 0.21

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Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.17

Equation: 0.20

Table: 0.20

Remaining bit life is dependent on the number of nozzles, the size of the nozzles, and the bit matrix on the other hand. Nozzles are extremely poor during cumulating, and the resulting bit breakage in the gauge area is increased.

Diamond Bit Operating Parameters

Hydraulics

Text: 0.25

Hydraulic fluid must be supplied at a sufficient rate and pressure to the bit. The flow rate depends on the operating conditions.

Flow rates are determined by the amount of fluid required to clean under the bit. This is dependent on the size of the hole area.

Equation: 0.20
The amount of fluid required to clean under the bit is given by the equation, where A is the area of the hole in square inch of hole area.

Equation: 0.18
 $A = \frac{Q}{C}$ is if the hole or operating conditions are such that the bit is designed for such conditions.

Each diamond cutter has a different flow requirement, continually doing work, therefore the emulsion must be kept clean.

Figure: 0.19
The amount of fluid required to keep the bit cool, continually doing work, is given by the equation, where A is the area of the hole in square inch of hole area.

Table: 0.22
The amount of fluid required to keep the bit cool, continually doing work, is given by the equation, where A is the area of the hole in square inch of hole area.

Figure: 0.22
The amount of fluid required to keep the bit cool, continually doing work, is given by the equation, where A is the area of the hole in square inch of hole area.

Text: 0.21
The amount of fluid required to keep the bit cool, continually doing work, is given by the equation, where A is the area of the hole in square inch of hole area.

Text: 0.20
The amount of fluid required to keep the bit cool, continually doing work, is given by the equation, where A is the area of the hole in square inch of hole area.

Pressure is required to move the fluid through the system, high enough to move the fluid from the bottom, the fluid must pass through the bit matrix and the hole itself (cleaning the formation). When the bit is off bottom, the fluid must pass through the bit matrix and the hole itself (cleaning the formation).

Equation: 0.22
The pressure required to move the fluid through the bit matrix and the hole itself (cleaning the formation) is given by the equation, where P is the pressure difference in a range of 100 to 1,000 psi, depending on the operating conditions (mud weight, etc.).

Chart: 0.20
The pressure required to move the fluid through the bit matrix and the hole itself (cleaning the formation) is given by the chart, where P is the pressure difference in a range of 100 to 1,000 psi, depending on the operating conditions (mud weight, etc.).

Table: 0.20
The pressure required to move the fluid through the bit matrix and the hole itself (cleaning the formation) is given by the table, where P is the pressure difference in a range of 100 to 1,000 psi, depending on the operating conditions (mud weight, etc.).

Weight-on-Bit

Equation: 0.18
The weight on diamond bits should be greater than for roller cone bits. A good average weight-on-bit is 750 pounds per square inch of bit area.

Chart: 0.19
The weight on diamond bits should be greater than for roller cone bits. A good average weight-on-bit is 750 pounds per square inch of bit area.

Figure: 0.20
The weight on diamond bits should be greater than for roller cone bits. A good average weight-on-bit is 750 pounds per square inch of bit area.

Equation: 0.19
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Header: 0.17
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Chart: 0.16
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Equation: 0.21
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Text: 0.22
The weight on diamond bits should be greater than for roller cone bits. A good average weight-on-bit is 750 pounds per square inch of bit area.

Text: 0.20
The weight on diamond bits should be greater than for roller cone bits. A good average weight-on-bit is 750 pounds per square inch of bit area.

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.20

Bit Technology

Drilling Engineering

Rotary Speed

Rotary speed should be relatively high, with 100 rpm being average,

although 200 rpm in downhole motors are used. Penetration

and no rough

Drill rate, will increase with rotary speed. Drilling

increased. These limits are usually imposed by safety considerations for the

drill pipe.

Text: 0.20

Torque

Torque indicates the absolute value of the torque applied to the bit. The previous

three factors are well coordinated.

Text: 0.19

Bit Stabilization

A diamond is relatively weak in shear, and needs to be stabilized. The rake of the bit keeps an even flow of coolant fluid over the bit face. If there is lateral movement or tilting of the bit, an uneven flow of coolant will occur on the opposite side of the bit.

Any of the stabilizers shown in Figure 0.32 are suitable for stabilizing the bit.

Figure: 0.20

Gauge stabilizers are suitable for running the bit 10 feet and 40 feet from the bottom.

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.24

General Diamond Bit Running

Prior to running the bit, the last roller cone bit should be run by running a junk basket on

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.22

Running a Diamond Bit

Place the bit in the hole with enough weight on the collar, to eliminate the same torque required to turn the bit.

Table: 0.21

Use care going around ledges and pushing through tight places which may catch the bit.

Table: 0.18

Text: 0.21

Although diamond bits are very hard, certain signs must be taken, especially the first time a diamond bit is run. Remember, diamond

Text: 0.20

bits are very hard and have no "give" as do roller cone bits. In a

running situation, most of the drilling fluid escapes through the junk slots

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.16

Text: 0.18

gauge zone. During reaming, the bit may become over heated.

When reaming, the bit weight of about 2,000 to 5,000 pounds maximum should be used to prevent bit damage. The reaming speed should be slow to avoid overheating the bit. When reaming in hard, abrasive formations, the diamond bit should be pulled and replaced frequently.

Starting a Diamond Hole

It is recommended that extreme care be taken to start the hole to bottom, or if possible, with full volume circulation, bottom for a period of time.

After circulating minimum bit weight and full volume circulation, the contour. This is to clean the bottom of the hole to form a new bottom hole.

Under some conditions, it is necessary to touch bottom with full pump force but no rotation in order to try to crush any irregular large foreign particles.

This procedure, however, should not be used several times before rotating the drill bit.

Drilling

After the bit has been started, the weight should be increased to the practical limit in increments of 1000 to 2000 pounds and depth should be increased in 100 foot increments.

Weight should be increased in 1000 pound increments. Observations of the rate of penetration should be made to avoid overloading the bit. As the rate of penetration with weight, the weight should be reduced. If the weight does not increase the rate of penetration, the weight should be reduced back to 2000 to 3000 pounds, to avoid packing and balling-up of the space between the bit and the rock face.

After making a cut for five minutes, as the bit length may change,

Figure: 0.19

absorb all applied weight and

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.18

using the diamond bit, and the rotary speed should be increased to avoid reaming in hard, abrasive formations.

Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.25

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.18

Header: 0.17

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.20

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Text: 0.18

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.18

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Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.18

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Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.18

Chart: 0.16

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Equation: 0.17

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Diamond Equation- 0.28

The difference between good quality can mean the
difference between a costly bit run.

Some formations and their drillability change from area to area. Diamond bits normally plow active formations, because it is easier to keep the bit clean.

Diamond bits are equivalent to, or greater than other bits in order to stay

Equation- 0.24 because of hydraulics
Since the cutting surface of a diamond bit runs very close to the formation,

Equation: 0.23 With one greater amount of

Text: 0.20
Text: 0.19 ceration rate unless hydrolysis are

Text: 0.21
Font Size: 0.21

Special designs, or standard

1. Lo **Text: 0.26**
 2. Fla **Text: 0.23**
downhole motors
 3. De **Figure: 0.21** for whipstock jobs or
sidetrack operations
 4. Co **Text: 0.25** into most styles where cone wear is a
problem **Text: 0.19** when no cones are used
 5. De **Figure: 0.21**

In addition, the apex angle of the cone is 2α . In **TextEquation: 0.20**, the

formations eventually leaving a void in the bit cone. Thereafter the form

In fracturing type comminutions, a smaller cone angle of about 90° for 18°

Text: 0.18

FigText: 0.21

Chart: 0.18

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Selection Guide**Text: 0.22**

Because formations of the same size and composition change in character, with depth, and different bit selection guide can be prepared. However,

Soft formations

Sand, shale, salt, anhydrite or limestone require a bit with a radial fluid course set with small diamonds.

depending on formation thickness, the size of bit should be set with a single row of diamonds ranging from 30 to 40 carats each are used,

Header: 0.17**Table: 0.17****Text: 0.22**

aligned to handle mud velocities

Medium formations

Sand, shale, anhydrite or limestone require a bit with a double radial style bit with double rows of diamonds.

Diamond sizes range from 2-5 carats per carat.

velocity. Good penetration rates can be expected in interbedded sand and shale formations.

Text: 0.20**Text: 0.18****Hard, dense formations**

Mudstone, siltstone, dolomite, or limestone require a crowsfoot fluid course design. This provides better cleaning and cooling and allows a higher concentration of diamonds.

average about 8 carats per carat.

Extremely hard formations

Schist, chert, volcanic rock, sandstone or quartzite require a bit set with small diamonds.

of diamonds. The diamonds (carat) are set in concentric "metal protected" and protection from

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.20

Diamond Bit Salvage

When returning to the surface, report on the bit condition with its condition.

The manufacturer can then inspect the bit with a better understanding of its condition.

Salvage, or recovery of the bit, is done by the manufacturer.

The binder material is removed, leaving tungsten carbide particles out of the resulting matrix, which allows the tungsten

carbide particles to be cleaned.

When brought to the manufacturer, the stones are screened for sizing,

then each stone is weighed and a sample is sent to a metallurgist by an expert.

Text: 0.22**Figure: 0.19****Text: 0.20**

Self Test: 0.26

1. What are the types of bearings used on all roller cone bits?

Equation: 0.213

- b. Text: 0.21

- c. Text: 0.20

2. The "skew" direction of the teeth will always be in a direction that permits the tooth to move the hole to full gauge.

3. What tooling is used to make the bits for these types of formations?

Equation: 0.18

Header: 0.16

Text: 0.17

Medium Formation

Soft Formation

Equation: 0.24

4. Steel mill teeth have a distinct advantage in weight, in size, most roller cone bits drill the hole in a condition.

Chart: 0.18

Chart: 0.19

Table: 0.19

5. What type of teeth on a roller cone bit provide the greatest amount of surface area?

Equation: 0.20

6. In mill teeth there is a distinct advantage in that it utilizes the load bearing capacity.

Equation: 0.19

Table: 0.17

Other: 0.19

7. Insert drill bits have a distinct advantage in that there is virtually no change in

Equation: 0.18

Chart: 0.22

Table: 0.18

9. What are the

head feature?

a.



b.

c.

9. PDC bits are sensitive to the amount of RPM used to optimize the drill rate. A soft, plastic formation would require a _____ RPM, while a harder formation would require a _____ RPM.

10. What three types of natural diamonds are used in diamond bits?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Notes

Drillstring Basics

Text: 0.22

Upon completion of this section you will be able to:

- Explain how drill pipe grades define the yield strength and tensile strength of steel.
- Explain how **Figure: 0.30** is used to calculate the weight of drill pipe.
- Calculate the weight of a section of drill pipe.
- Explain the **Figure: 0.24** and **Text: 0.17** for calculating the buoyed weight (or hookload) in a vertical hole.
- Explain the effect of buoyancy on the weight of the drill string during the drilling process.
- Explain overpull and its effect on the maximum allowable tensile pull.
- Calculate required hookload to overcome the weight of the drill string when run in a vertical hole.
- Explain calculated hookload when running a section of drill pipe.
- Explain calculated hookload when running a section of drill pipe.
- Explain neutral point of a section of drill pipe.
- Explain the effect of eccentricity on the calculated hookload of a section of drill pipe.
- Describe some of the factors affecting bending, axial load, and torque, and the effect of drill pipe length on these factors.

Figure: 0.23



cross-sectional area results in a lower Total Yield Strength in pounds. This yield strength can be calculated by using the following formula:

$$\text{YIELD STRENGTH} = \text{Yield Strength} \times \pi/4 (\text{OD}^2 - \text{ID}^2)$$

(in pounds) (in psi)

Example 4.1

Text: 0.19

5" grade G-105, class 12.2 drill pipe has a nominal weight of 19.5 lb/ft and a

Table: 0.18

$$\text{Minimum Yield Strength} = 120,000 \times \pi/4 \times (5^2 - 4.275^2)$$

- 553,831

This same information is contained in the API RP 7G. This publication contains data on the properties of drill pipe and tool joints for all common sizes in class 12.2. The yield strength for all sizes and grades of interest is informative. In addition, "Drill Pipe Torsional and Tensile Data" (Table 2.2). The table states the maximum twisting force (torque) in foot-pounds the drill pipe can withstand before permanent damage can occur.

Text: 0.29
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.20
Text: 0.18
Text: 0.19
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.25
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.21
Text: 0.23
Text: 0.20
Text: 0.27
Text: 0.25
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.20
Text: 0.21
Text: 0.26
Text: 0.22
Text: 0.25
Text: 0.17
Text: 0.18
Text: 0.20
Text: 0.19
Text: 0.17

Tool Joints

Tool joints are added to the tubing portion of drill pipe to connect externally threaded tool joints to internally threaded tool joints if the "pin".

API specifies two types of tool joints:

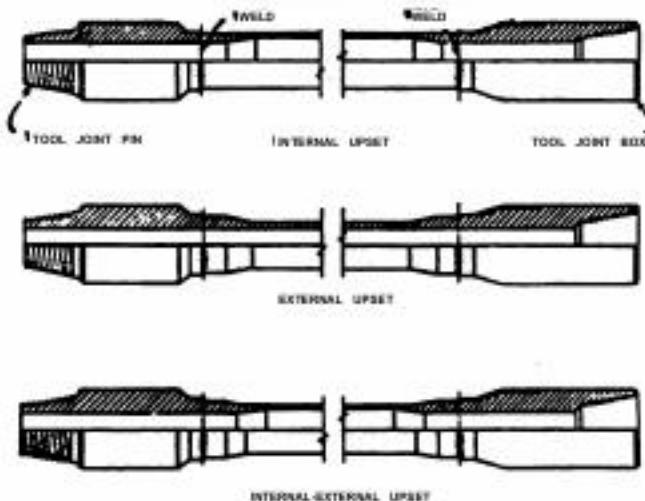
- Minimum Yield Strength = 120,000 psi

Text: 0.20
Tensile Strength = 140,000 psi

Because tool joints are added to drillpipe, the weight of given to pipe in many tables is not the exact weight will require adding the weight of the tool joint. Since two joints do not weigh the same the weight of a joint or drillpipe and so an "approximate" weight is used in many calculations.

The tool joint upset is an internal and/or external upset. An upset is a decrease in the ID and/or an increase in the OD of the pipe which is used to strengthen the pipe and the tool joint. It is

important to note that under tension, the tool joint is stronger than the tubular.



Make-Up Torque

Part of the strength of the drillstring and the seal for the fluid conduit are both contained in the tool joints. It is very important therefore, that the correct make-up torque is applied to the tool joints. If a tool joint is not torqued enough, bending between the box and pin could cause premature failure. Also, the shoulder seal may not be properly seated, resulting in mud leaking through the tool joint, causing a washout. Exceeding the torsional yield strength of the connection by applying too much torque to the tool joint could cause the shoulders to bevel outward or the pin to break off the box. Recommended make up torques for drill pipe and tool joints are listed in the API RP 7G.

This method for calculating hookload is not normally used. Instead, the following equation, which uses a buoyancy factor, is used and recommended.

$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.21}$$

MW
65.5

$= 1 - \frac{\text{MW}}{65.5}$

$= 1 - \frac{65.5}{65.5}$

$= 0.817$

$= 1 - \frac{65.5}{65.5}$

$= 0.817$

MW=Mud Density (ppg)

$$\text{Hookload} = \text{Air Weight} \times \text{Buoyancy Factor}$$

$$= 97,300 \times 0.817$$

$$= 79,494 \text{ pounds}$$

Buoyancy Factors for various mud densities can be found in the API RP 7G (Table 2.12).

$$\text{Equation: 0.16}$$

Text: 0.20

Note: The following equations do not account axial drag. Hookload, as determined from these equations, is the weight of the string that would be balanced by the weight indicated vertically, assuming the weight of the tray.

$$\text{Figure: 0.25}$$

Text: 0.20

In practice, hookload is often referred to as "up load" or "up pull." Up Load refers to the hookload when pulling the string. Up Load is the highest hookload normally encountered with a string. Slack-Off Load refers to the hookload when slackening the string. Drag Load refers to the hookload when running the string. Other references to hookload are Rotating Drilled Pipe Load and Rotating Drillstring Load.

Overpull

In tight holes or stuck pipe situations, the operator must know how much additional tension can be applied to the string before exceeding the yield strength of the string. Overpull is the maximum tensile force over the yield strength of the string. Overpull is calculated as the sum of the pull force over the yield strength of the string and the weight of the string. For example, in a vertical hole with a 7.25-inch x 2.25-inch drill collar and 6,000 ft of 12 1/4-inch pipe with a minimum yield strength of 19.5 kips per square inch, the maximum allowable overpull is 19.5 kips per square inch times the area of the pipe.

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.17}$$

First, the hookload is:

$$\text{Equation: 0.24}$$

$$\text{Hookload} = \text{Air Weight} \times \text{Buoyancy Factor}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.29}$$

$$(600 \times 127) / 0.817$$

Referring to Table API RP 7G, the yield strength in pounds per square inch for the class, size and nominal weight of drill pipe is 395,595 pounds. Therefore:

Maximum Overpull:

$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

$$= 395,595 \text{ pounds} - \text{Hookload}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

$$= 395,595 - 34,658$$

The operator must consider the hookload before reaching the limit of elastic deformation. As the overpull increases, hookload increases, at a certain depth the hookload equals the yield strength.

It is often thought of as the maximum depth that can be reached without causing permanent elongation.

Figure: 0.21 shows the prediction of hookload as a function of overpull.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of hookload as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.25 shows the prediction of hookload as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of hookload as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.17 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.16 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.21 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.17 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.16 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.21 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.17 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.16 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.21 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.17 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.16 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.21 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.17 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.16 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.21 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.17 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.16 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.21 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.17 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.16 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.21 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.17 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Example 4.2

For a horizontal well, calculate the maximum tensile load that can be applied to the end of the bit.

Using the program assuming that 5-inch drill pipe will be used, the results are:

Equation: 0.18 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Equation: 0.22 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Figure: 0.22 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

Text: 0.20 shows the prediction of pick-up load as a function of overpull, including the effect of yield strength.

| Overpull (lb) | Pick-up load (lb) |
|---------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 0 |
| 1000 | 34,658 |
| 2000 | 69,316 |
| 3000 | 103,974 |
| 4000 | 138,632 |
| 5000 | 173,290 |
| 6000 | 207,948 |
| 7000 | 242,606 |
| 8000 | 277,264 |
| 9000 | 311,922 |
| 10000 | 346,580 |

Figure: 0.20

Table: 0.20

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Using 90% of the tensile yield strength of 100,000 lbs on each joint of 5-inch, 19.5 lb/in² P7G and including a margin of 100,000 lbs on the tensile loads which can be applied (worst case) are:

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.22

| Drill Pipe Grade | E75 | X95 | G105 | S135 |
|-------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| RPTG | 243,389 | 308,293 | 340,745 | 438,100 |
| 90% of RPTG Value | 218,050 | 277,414 | 306,667 | 404,290 |
| less 100,000 lbs | 143,289 | 208,293 | 240,745 | 328,100 |

Chart: 0.16

Figure: 0.2

Text: 0.1

Example

Equation: 0.24

A directional well has been drilled vertically to the kick-off point at 3,000 ft. Premium class pipe (nominal weight 19.5 lbs/ft) is used until it reaches the kick-off point. At that point the pipe used is premium class pipe (nominal weight 19.5 lbs/ft).

Calculate the weight of the pipe in all the pipe above the kick-off point.

Solution

From API RP 10A:

(nominal weight 19.5 lbs/ft) is 21.92 lbs./ft.

Weight of 3,000 ft of pipe = 65,760 lbs

Yield strength = 346,000 lbs

90% of yield strength = 311,400 lbs

maximum

i.e. approx. = 346,000 lbs

(For comparison, the X95 pipe is 394,612 lbs)

90% of that weight

Higher Grade Pipe

The previous analysis assumed that the wellbore was vertical. In the simple case where the riggers grade pipe is used throughout the wellbore, the calculation becomes more difficult. A rough approximation could be obtained by treating each stand length as a straight line segment, using the average inclination of that course length.

Equation: 0.18Weight acting along borehole = weight of stand \times cos (true incl.)**Equation: 0.20**

which may be significant.

Similarly, if the air-weight of the pipe is constant, the weight per unit length of the pipe will be constant.

Figure: 0.17 shows the air-weight of the pipe.**Equation: 0.21**

This is the density factor. This is because

Figure: 0.20

air density varies with temperature and affects the weight pulling

Text: 0.22

upward from below, but not the weight of

Text: 0.19

upward from above, so the air-weight of the pipe does not affect the weight of the pipe in the string.

Text: 0.21

It must be emphasized that higher grade pipe exerts less force in the vertical part of the wellbore than lower grade pipe, due to the reduced air-weight of the

Text: 0.18

use of "Tong" joints.

Table: 0.17**Table: 0.20**

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BHA Weight-on-Bit

One important consideration in designing the BHA is determining the number of drill elements required to provide the desired weight-on-bit. Lubinski in 1956 recommended that the "beam load" of the drill pipe exceed the maximum weight-on-bit. This would allow the BHA to directionally drill.

In other types of BHA's, the weight acts vertically, or acts horizontally. Drill elements will cause horizontal forces. The problem this creates is that if high WOB is required, the drillpipe will be subjected to long (and expensive) compressions. It is common practice to use a low inclination.

On highly deviated wells, it is common running drillpipe in compression for a number of reasons. Lubinski (1956) has shown that drillpipe can tolerate high inclination angles without damage to the "low-side" of the pipe.

Drillpipe is always run in horizontal wells without apparent causing damage to the drillpipe.

Required BHA Weight-on-Bit

When two contacting surfaces move relative motion, friction will act along a line normal to the motion. Therefore, friction will act circumferentially (in torque), with only a small component acting axially.

Measurements of the BHA are rotated in the borehole. This reduction is due to drag.

$$\text{Equation: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.16}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.16}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.17}$$

Consider a short element of the BHA which has a weight "W" (see following figure). Neglecting drag in the hole:

Effective weight in mud = $W(BF)$

Component of weight acting along borehole = $W(BF) \cos \theta$
... where θ is the borehole inclination

Extending this discussion to the whole BHA,

$$W_{BIT} = W_{BHA} (BF) \cos \theta$$

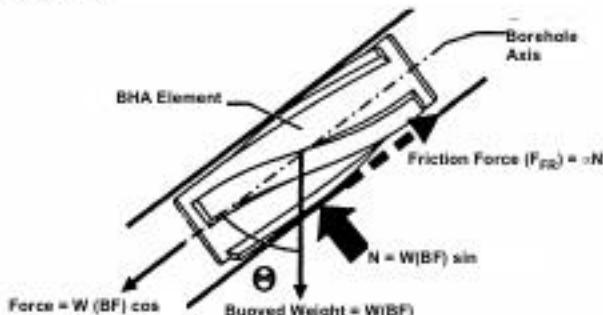
... where W_{BHA} is the total air weight of the BHA and W_{BIT} is the weight on bit.

Therefore, if **no** drill pipe is to be run in compression

$$\text{Required air weight of BHA} = \frac{\text{Maximum WOB} \times \text{safety factor}}{\text{buoyancy factor} \times \cos \theta}$$

$$\text{where the safety factor} = 1 + \frac{\text{percentage safety margin}}{100}$$

For example, to allow a 10% safety margin the safety factor in the formula would be 1.1



Example 4.4

- A. Drilling 17.5-inch hole with a roller cone bit, we want to use 45,000 lbs WOB in the tangent section at 30° inclination. What air weight of BHA is required to avoid running any drill pipe in

compression? The margin.

$$\text{Equation: 0.24}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Required air weight of BHA} = \frac{10,640}{(0.84) \cos 30^\circ} = 67,500 \text{ lbs}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

- B. Suppose we have 180' of 9.5-inch tubulars with a 10.640 lbs per foot, a 9.5-inch MWD tool weighing 3,400 lbs, and 100' of 5.5-inch tubulars weighing 154 lbs per foot. How many joints of HWDP would be required to support the BHA? (Refer to Example 4.4A.)

$$\text{Figure: 0.20}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Required air weight of HWDP} = 10,640 \text{ lbs}$$

$$\text{Weight of one 30 ft joint of 5.5 in.} = 154 \times 30 = 4,620 \text{ lbs}$$

$$\text{Therefore, number required} = \frac{10,640}{4,620} = 2.27$$

$$\text{Text: 0.26}$$

Therefore a minimum of 3 joints of HWDP are required.

$$\text{Text: 0.17}$$

Running Drill Pipe In Compression

$$\text{Text: 0.25}$$

Example 4.5

Prior to drilling in a hard formation using an insert bit, the directional driller estimates that they expect to use 50,000 lbs WOB. The hole inclination is 60° and the mud density is 11 ppg.

What air weight is required to avoid running any air in the pipe in compression?

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.20}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.25}$$

This is roughly the weight of ten stands of 8-inch drill collars, or alternatively, six stands of 10-inch collars plus 44 joints of HWDP!

This is just not practical, so it is better to run air in the pipe and experience BHA

$$\text{Text: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Table: 0.23}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.18}$$

Critical Force

Equation: 0.24

Dawson and Paclay developed the following formula for critical buckling force in drill

Equation: 0.30

Equation: 0.26

$$F_{CR} = 2 \cdot \frac{I}{W}$$

where

$$I = M \cdot I_{axial} + m \cdot I_{borehole}$$

I is axial moment of inertia.

W is buoyed weight per unit length.

Equation: 0.17

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.18

is borehole inclination.

r is radial clearance between the pipe/tool joint and the

borehole wall.

If the compressive load reaches the F_{CR} , then sinusoidal buckling occurs.

This sinusoidal buckling formula can be used to develop graphs and tables (see pages 4-18 through 4-23). If the borehole inclination lies below the graph, the

reason that pipe in an inclined hole is supporting and constrained by the side of the hole tends to form a trough that resists even a slight

displacement of the pipe from its initial straight configuration.

The graphs and tables in this section are for specific pipe/hole configurations. Look up the critical buckling force. The following example illustrates how to calculate the critical buckling force.

Calculating Critical Buckling Force

Calculate the critical buckling force for a 10-inch outer diameter grade E drill pipe with a nominal weight of 6.375 inches per foot in an 8.5-inch hole at 50°

inclination. Young's modulus for steel is $E = 29 \times 10^6$ psi.

- Young's modulus, E , for steel is 29×10^6 psi

Equation: 0.18

- I_{axial} is the axial moment of inertia

Equation: 0.20

Text: 0.18

- Calculate the axial moment of inertia

Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.16

Header: 0.17

Figure: 0.16

A 5-inch drill pipe with an ID of 3.826 inches. This information can be found under "New Drill Pipe Dimensional Data" in the API RP-7A, (Table 2.11)

$$I = \frac{\pi}{64} (4.5^4 - 3.826^4) = 9.61 \text{ in}^4$$

3. The approximate air weight in pounds per cubic foot can also be found in the API RP-7A.

$$\text{Air weight} = 17.02 \text{ lb/in}^3$$

Buoyancy factor for 14 ppg

$$W = 1.498 \times 0.766$$

$$4. \quad \sin 50^\circ = 0.766$$

$$5. \quad \text{Radial clearance} = 0.0025$$

Note: The values obtained in steps 1 through 5 may now be substituted in the previous

maximum

$$FCR = 2 \sqrt{\frac{24}{13062}}$$

$$Figure: 0.21 \quad Text: 0.21$$

$$Figure: 0.18 \quad Text: 0.18$$

Critical Buckling

$$Figure: 0.19 \quad Text: 0.19$$

$$Figure: 0.16 \quad Text: 0.16$$

Calculating BHA Weight With Drag

This means that on high-angle wells in smaller hole sizes, a reduction in the weight on bit can safely be provided by having a lower FCR. It is suggested that 90% of the maximum contribution to the weight on bit is a good starting point.

Denoting the total air weight of the BHA by W_{BHA} , the weight on bit by W_{BIT} and the critical buckling load by F_{CR} ,

$$W_{BIT}(SF) = W_{BHA}(BF) \cos + 0.9F_{CR}$$

Therefore,

$$W_{BIT}(SF) = 0.9F_{CR}$$

$$Figure: 0.21 \quad Text: 0.21$$

Note: This account of drag.

Continuing on
(assuming so)

Suppose we
connections

Referring to
the critical h

Our formula

Figure 8.24

Figure: 0.22

Thus, a total air weight of 82,000 lbs feasible than the value of 138 Tons.

Figure: 0.177 part: 0.230

BHA Requirements When The ~~Part~~ ~~Section~~ Is Not Required

As stated earlier, when the drillstring is rotated, friction (drag) is generated between the rotating surfaces in BHA weight mainly affects the motor system and drillstring. Figure 0.18 shows how the axial force on rotary assemblies will increase as the weight increases. Figure 0.26 shows how the axial force on the oriented mode) axial drag can become very significant and

Figure 0.19 A proposed system showing elements in more complex and various sizes according to the work of S. Goto et al., 1998, p. 115.

BHA Weight %

Figure 0.19 Embryo on typical directional wells is not rotated.

- The WOB increases significantly when a PDC bit is used.
 - When the bit is not used, the drill pipe is not subjected to the cyclic stresses which occur during rotary drilling. Therefore, sinusoidal stresses in the drill pipe will be reduced.

Helical buckling occurs at $F_{CR} = F_{L0}$ where F_{CR} is the compressive force at which circumferential buckling

The results should be valid for steerable systems in the oriented mode except for unbalance.

Figure 10.19

Text: 0.18

The standard operating procedure for running steerable assemblies has resulted in a significant increase in the incidence of drillstring failure.

Equation: 0.24 and weight for steerable assemblies has resulted in a significant increase in the incidence of drillstring failure.

Figure: 0.22 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Text: 0.22 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Summary

Text: 0.19 In vertical wells, ordinary drill pipe must NEVER be run in compression, in any hole size. Therefore, sufficient BHA weight must be used to overcome the weight of the bit with an acceptable safety factor.

Figure: 0.22 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Text: 0.18 Drill pipe should not be run in compression.

Chart: 0.18 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Figure: 0.21 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Figure: 0.21 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Text: 0.20 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

Text: 0.23 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

Text: 0.18 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

Figure: 0.17 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Text: 0.23 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

Text: 0.20 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

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Figure: 0.17 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

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Figure: 0.17 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

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Text: 0.23 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

Equation: 0.18 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

Equation: 0.22 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

Figure: 0.18 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Equation: 0.18 is useful in the calculation of axial drag, however, axial drag is not a major factor when running in compression.

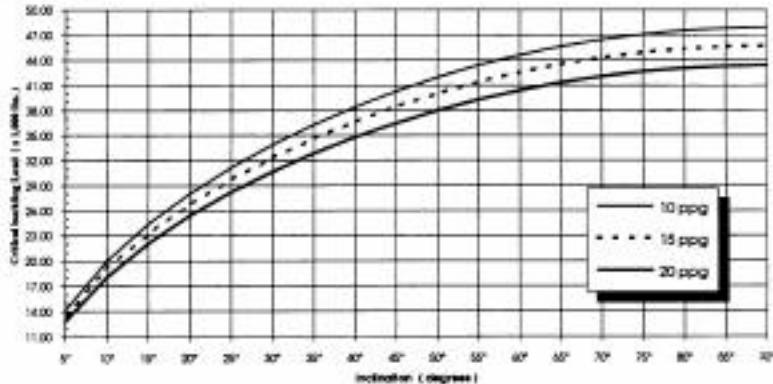
Figure: 0.19 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

Figure: 0.18 illustrates the effect of increased weight on the orientation mode.

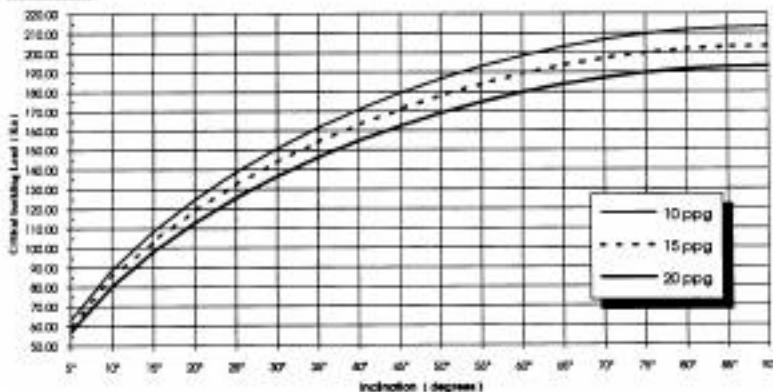
Figure: 0.18

NEW 5" GRADE E DRILL PIPE
Nom wt. 19.5 lb/ft - 4½" IF CONNECTIONS
8½" HOLE

lbf



kN



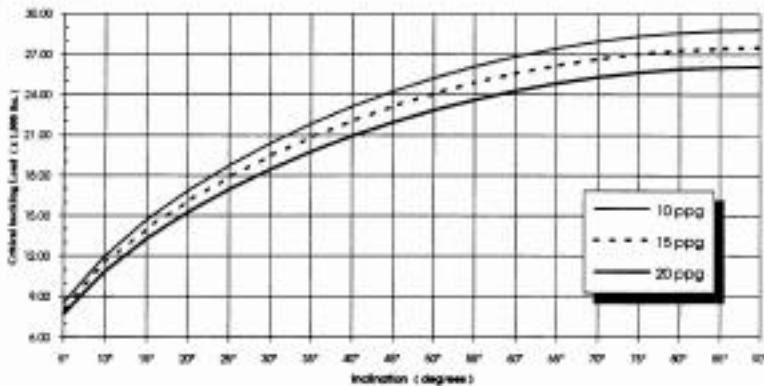
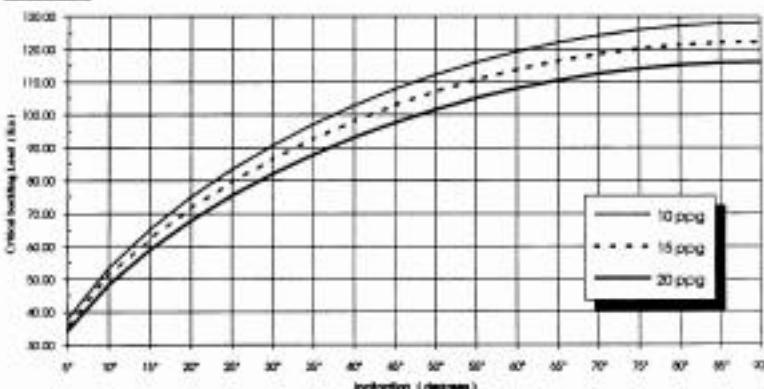
NEW 5" GRADE E DRILL PIPE**Nom wt. 19.5 lb/ft - 4½" IF CONNECTIONS****lbf****12½" HOLE****kN**

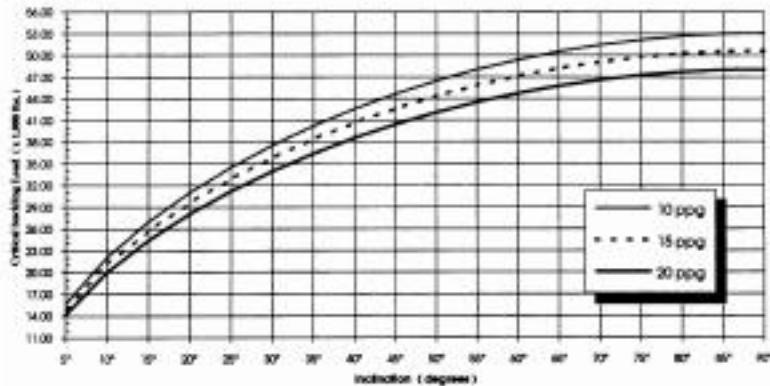
Figure: 0.17

NEW 5" GRADE S-135 DRILL PIPE

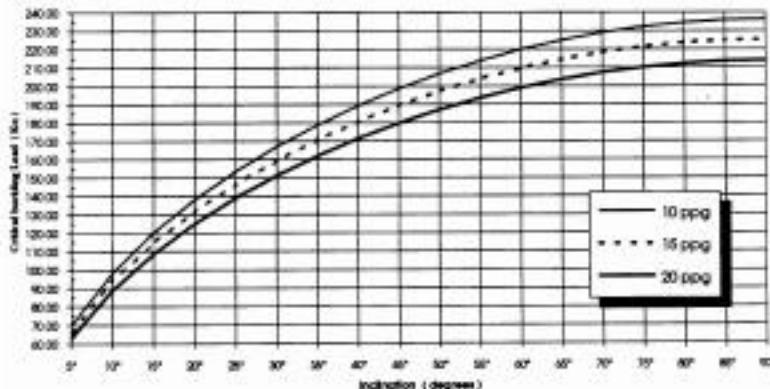
Nom wt. 19.5 lb/ft - 4½" IF CONNECTIONS

Ibf

8½" HOLE



kN



NEW 5" GRADE S-135 DRILL PIPE
Nom wt. 19.5 lb/ft - 4½" IF CONNECTIONS

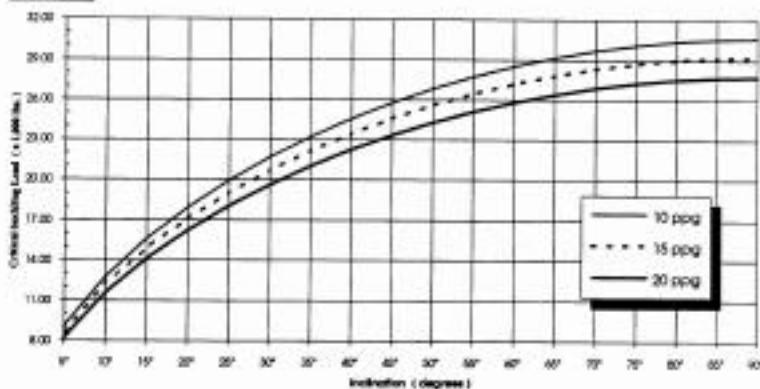
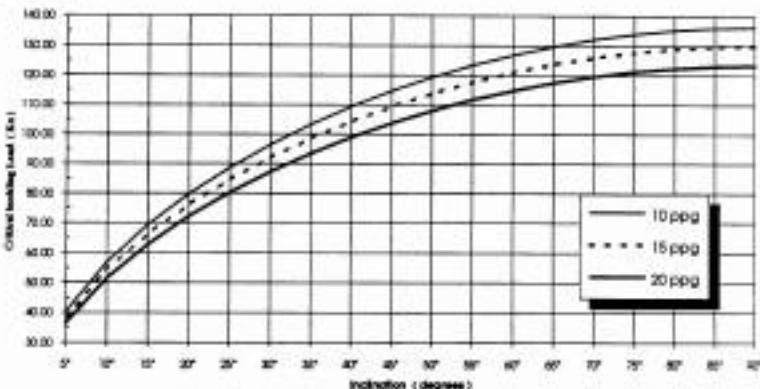
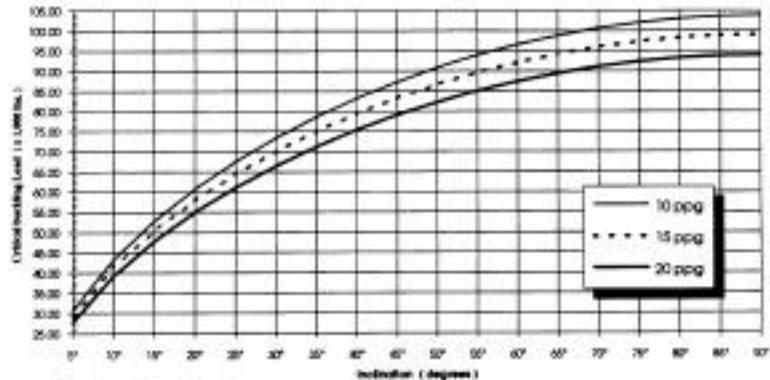
Ibf**12½" HOLE****kN**

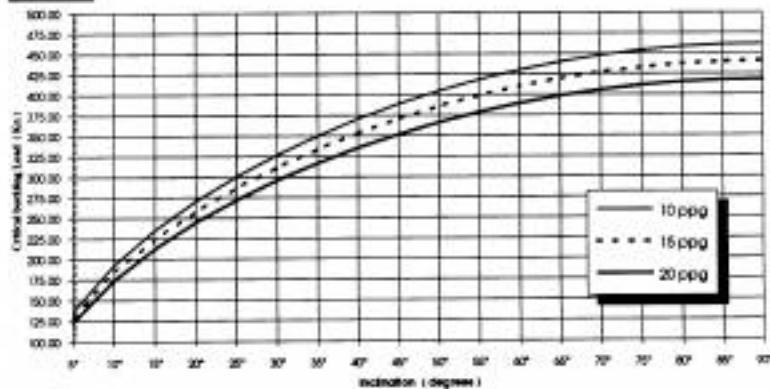
Figure: 0.18

NEW 5" HWDP DRILL PIPE
49.3 lb/ft - 4½" IF CONNECTIONS
8½" HOLE

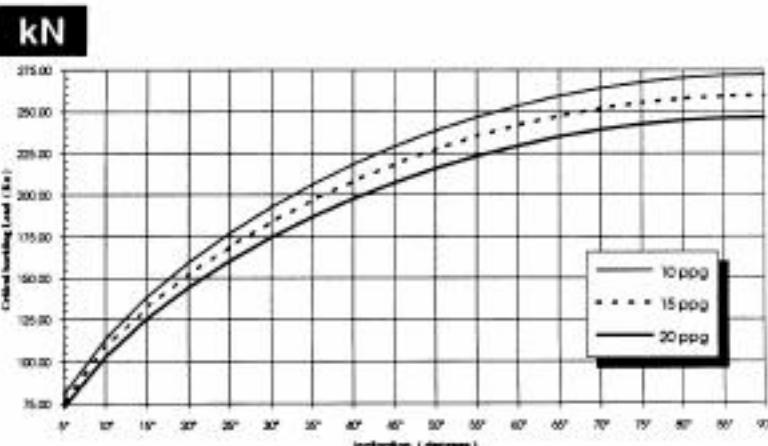
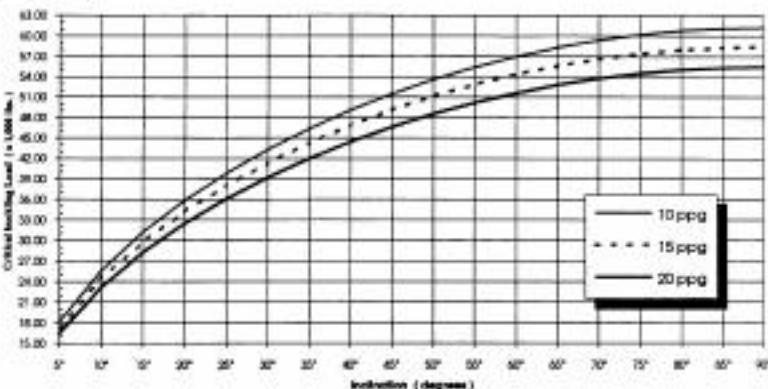
lbf



kN



NEW 5" HWDP DRILL PIPE
49.3 lb/ft - 4½" IF CONNECTIONS
12½" HOLE



Neutral Point

The neutral point is usually defined as the point in the drillstring where the axial stress changes from compression to tension. The location of this neutral point depends on the buoyancy factor of the drilling fluid. It is common to refer to a "transition zone" as the "neutral point zone" because the position of the neutral point changes from compression to tension.

Drillstring components located in the transition zone may, therefore, alternately experience compression and tension. This can damage components and may be disastrous. It is also important to run in compression to the neutral point.

Calculation**Case 1: Vertical**

where:

$$\text{Equation: 0.27}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.24}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.20}$$

$$\text{Chart: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Chart: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

Example:

Determine the neutral point in

if the weight-on-bit is 30,000 lbs and the density is 10 ppg.

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

$$127 \quad 0.832$$

therefore:

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

$$L_{np} \text{ is } 284 \text{ feet up into the}$$

$$\text{Chart: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Chart: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.16}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

Case 2: Vertical

Equation: 0.24 weight drill pipe

If drill collars and heavy weight are both being used, calculate the

location of the neutral point by using the following formula:

Equation: 0.21 First, you should use**Figure: 0.21** to determine the length of the neutral point.than the length of the collars, then the neutral point is in the collars. If L_{apw}

is more than the length of the collars, then the neutral point is in the heavy weight.

to determine how far up in the heavy weight the neutral point is located.

Figure: 0.21**Figure: 0.19**

where:

 L_{apw} is the distance from the bottom of the collars to the top of the

WOB is weight on bit

W_{DC} is weight per foot of the collarsL_{DC} is length **Figure: 0.21**W_{hw} is weight per foot of the heavy weightBF is Buoyancy **Text: 0.20****Text: 0.18**

Example: Determining the location of the neutral point using the following:

Mud density = 13.4 ppg **Figure: 0.19**Weight-on-Bit = 40,000 lb **Equation: 0.23**

400 of 7-inch x 2.25-in

600 of 5-inch heavy weight **Figure: 0.23****Chart: 0.20** $L_{apw} = 0.0075$ **Other: 0.16****Text: 0.16****Table: 0.17****Chart: 0.18****Equation: 0.18**

Since L_{up} is 426 feet and we want the neutral point must be at

$$\text{Equation: 0.28}$$

$$W'_{bf}R = W_{bf}I_{bf}(RF)$$

$$\frac{L_{up}}{W_{bf}(RF)} = \frac{W'_{bf}(RF)}{W_{bf}(RF)}$$

$$= \frac{40,000 - (117 \times 50)}{50 \times 0.993}$$

$$= 61.51 \text{ feet}$$

Thus, the neutral point is 62 feet up the 426 foot length of the drill pipe.

Case 3: Directional Well, Neutral point in the drill collar's

When the neutral point is in the drill collar section and the collars are all of one diameter

$$\text{Figure: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

$$\frac{L_{up}}{W_{bf}} = \frac{W_{bf}}{W_{bf} + (I_{bf} \times \cos i)}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.23}$$

where:

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.20}$$

L_{up} = distance from top to neutral point in feet

WDC = weight per foot of the drill collar's

BF = buoyancy factor

WOB = weight on bit

i = borehole inclination

$$\text{Figure: 0.20}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.23}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.24}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.25}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.26}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.27}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.28}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.29}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.30}$$

Case 4: Drill pipe

When the neutral point is in the HWDP but all the drill collars are of the same diameter, the following formula can be used:

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.20}$$

$$L_{\text{appr}} = \frac{W_{\text{OB}} - W_{\text{DC}} L_{\text{DC}} (BF) \cos I}{W_{\text{hw}} (BF) \cos I}$$

where:

L_{appr} is the distance from the bottom of the HWDP to the neutral point.

L_{DC} is the total length of the drill collar section.

W_{hw} is the weight per foot of the

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

General Formula for Directional Weight

The last formula can be expanded in the case of directional weight for drill collars of more than one diameter. For example, if there were two sizes of drill collars but the neutral point was in the top collar, the formula would become:

$$L_{\text{appr}} = \frac{W_{\text{OB}} - (BF) \cos I (W_{\text{DC1}} L_{\text{DC1}} + W_{\text{DC2}} L_{\text{DC2}})}{W_{\text{hw}} (BF) \cos I}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

where W_{DC1} and W_{DC2} are the weight per foot and total length of the two sizes of drill collars.

$$\text{Figure: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.23}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Table: 0.160}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.20}$$

$$\text{Table: 0.209}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Table: 0.211}$$

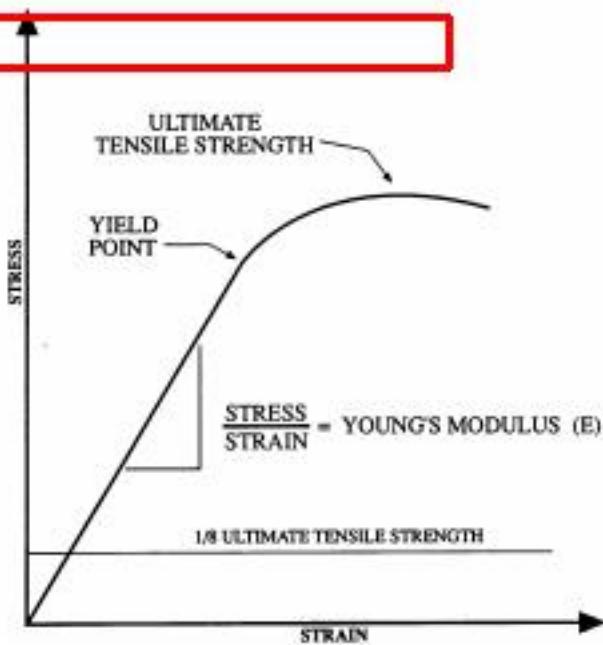
$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.23}$$

Drillpipe Failure

**Bending Stress**

$$\text{SIGMA} = \frac{ED}{2R}$$

where E is Young's modulus (psi)

D is Diameter of tubular (inches)

R is Radius of curvature (inches)

Header: 0.17

Figure: 0.18
Equation: 0.18
Figure: 0.19
Equation: Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.22

| Pipe Grade | SIGMA Ultimate | SIGMA Min Tensile Yield |
|------------|----------------|-------------------------|
| E | 100,000 psi | 75,000 psi |
| X | 120,000 psi | 95,000 psi |
| G | 130,000 psi | 105,000 psi |
| S-135 | 160,000 psi | 135,000 psi |
| S-165 | 175,000 psi | 165,000 psi |

Fatigue Damage

Note: Fatigue damage will ultimately lead to pipe failure.

Case 1

$\Sigma \sigma_i < 1/8 \text{ Sigma Ultimate}$

Equation: 0.20

- Life should be infinite.

Case 2

$\Sigma \sigma_i = 1/8 \text{ Sigma Ultimate}$

Equation: 0.23

- Fatigue damage may occur.
- Life may be as low as 1,000,000 cycles.

Case 3

$1/4 \text{ Sigma} < \Sigma \sigma_i < 1/8 \text{ Sigma}$

Figure: 0.19

Equation: 0.19

- Fatigue damage will occur.
- Life will be limited.

Case 4

$\Sigma \sigma_i > 1/4 \text{ Sigma}$

TexEquation: 0.17

ChFigure: 0.23

- Fatigue damage will occur.
- Do not rotate.

Torque

Several factors affect hole drag, including hole inclination, dogleg severity, hole condition, sizes and planforms, and the orientation of the BHA. In particular, in drilling situations where the drillstring is oriented, the effect of the orientation on the torque and drag of the drillstring component types, sizes and planforms is significant and should be evaluated using computer programs. Drillstring component types, sizes and planforms can be evaluated using computer programs such as DRILLPLAN.

Along Hole Components

$$\text{Equation: 0.30}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.26}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

Consider a short element of a BHA which has a weight W .

Effective weight in drilling mud = $W(BF)$

$$\text{Figure: 0.25} \quad \text{Friction along borehole} = W(BF) \cos \phi$$

Figure 0.25 illustrates the friction coefficient of friction along the borehole on the BHA element.

$$\text{Text: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21} \quad \mu = \frac{\text{Friction force}}{\text{Normal force}}$$

N is the normal reaction force between the BHA element and the borehole wall. If this normal reaction is due only to the weight of the BHA element itself, then:

$$\text{Text: 0.23} \quad N = W(BF)$$

$$F_{FR} = \mu N \cos \phi$$

The net contact force is therefore $W_{NET} = W(BF) \sin \phi$. The friction force is therefore

$$W_{NET} = W(BF) (\cos \phi - \mu \sin \phi)$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

Computer Models

$$\text{Text: 0.20}$$

Proper evaluation of the effects of hole drag requires the use of a computer program. The most common computer programs used for calculating friction for rotary drilling are

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Text: 0.100

- Normal force per each drillstring element
- Average torsional and tensile load acting upon each drillstring element

The E*C TRAK Torque and Drag Program

This program, developed at the Wyoming Jet Center in Casper, Wyoming, calculates torque and drag when a friction factor (coefficient of sliding friction) is known or estimated. It will calculate the friction factor when the torque and drag is known.

Software accepts input from the user and outputs hand calculations.

General Uses

The program may be used to:

- Optimize rig size for minimum torque and drag
- Analyze problems either current or post-well
- Determine design limitations
- Determine rig size requirements

Inputs Required

- Drillstring configuration
- Survey data (horizontal distance)
- Friction factor calculation

Outputs

Information such as torque and stresses are calculated for discrete sections of the wellbore. These results are output in both tabular (cumulative or detailed) and graphical formats:

- Drag load (pick up load)
- Pick up load
- Slack off load
- Rotating off load
- Drilling load

- Rotating weight **Text**: 0.18
- Rotary torque (drilling and off-bottom) **Text**: 0.19
- Maximum allowed down force (based on minimum yield) **Text**: 0.19
- Drillstring weight **Text**: 0.15
- Bit to neutral point **Equation**: 0.22
- Drillstring twist **Chart**: 0.15
- Axial stress **Chart**: 0.15
- Torsional stress **Equation**: 0.18
- Bending stress **Equation**: 0.21
- Total equivalent stress **Equation**: 0.21

Typical Drillstring - Weight & Torque

| Well Environment | Weight per foot | Torque per foot |
|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Casing | 0.10 - 0.16 | 0.23 - 0.44 |
| Drill Pipe | 0.13 - 0.26 | 0.13 - 0.26 |

Use Of Computer Programs For BHA Weight Evaluation

The programs listed below can be used to evaluate drillstring weight and torque requirements for vertical, horizontal wells or complex, unusual directional wells. However, these programs can be used to calculate the position of the neutral point in the drillstring. In addition, they will "flag" any values of compressive load which exceed the axial buckling force for the drill pipe.

Chart: 0.19

Figure: 0.16

Figure: 0.15

Chart: 0.23

Chart: 0.19

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Table: 0.19

Chart: 0.19

Figure: 0.19

Self-Coupling: 0.24

1. Determine the static hookload of a drill string consisting of 9,000 ft of 4.5-in. 16.6 lb/in (approx.) inch heavy-weight drill pipe and eight 2.5-in. H. collar Disregard effects of full of fluid

A. What is the air
B. What is the buoyancy
C. What is the net buoyant force acting on the drillstring

Final Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.24

2. Allowing for a safety factor of 1.05, what can be drilled with the drill pipe specified in the following case?

3. In all the following examples, assume the pipe runs in compression and ignore drag in the calculation. Find the air weight required.

A. Desired weight 10,000 lbs; hole angle 20°; safety margin 13 ppg; hole angle REQUIRED =

B. Desired weight 10,000 lbs; mud weight 13 ppg; hole angle 20°; safety margin 13 ppg; hole angle REQUIRED =

C. Find the number of joints needed to get the air weight. 62,000 lbs air weight is required. If 10 lbs per joint collar weight are needed, how many joints are required?

4. Calculate the critical buckling load for the drill pipe specified in the following case.

A. 3.5-inch new, high strength steel with an approximate weight of 11.5 ppg and a 6 inch hole with a 9° taper.

5. In the following problem, assume the drill string can be run in compression but not tension. A 100 ft section of the string has a critical buckling load of 100 kips. The string consists of 10 joints of 3 1/2" diameter, 12.5 lb/ft weight, and 100% new, S-135 grade steel. Find the maximum allowable BHA air weight if the string is to be run in compression.

A. Desired maximum air weight = 1000 lbs/ft.

Borehole Inclination = 30°.

Mud Density = 1.1 g/cm³.

Hole Size = 4 1/2".

Use a safety factor of 1.5.

B. Suppose you have a 100 ft section of string with a critical buckling load of 150 kips.

It has a mud density of 1.0 g/cm³ and a hole size of 4 1/2".

How many joints would be required?

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.25

Figure: 0.26

Figure: 0.27

Figure: 0.28

Figure: 0.29

Figure: 0.30

Drill Collar Weights
(pounds per foot)

| OD/ID | 1" | 1-1/4" | 1-1/2" | 1-3/4" | 2" | 2-1/4" | 2-1/2" | 2-13/16" | 3" | 3-1/4" | 3-1/2" | 3-3/4" |
|--------|----|--------|--------|--------|-----|--------|--------|----------|-----|--------|--------|--------|
| 3" OD | 21 | 20 | 18 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3-1/8" | 22 | 22 | 20 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3-1/4" | 26 | 24 | 22 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3-1/2" | 30 | 29 | 27 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3-3/4" | 35 | 33 | 32 | | | | | | | | | |
| 4" OD | 40 | 39 | 37 | 35 | 32 | 29 | | | | | | |
| 4-1/8" | 43 | 41 | 39 | 37 | 35 | 32 | | | | | | |
| 4-1/4" | 46 | 44 | 42 | 40 | 38 | 35 | | | | | | |
| 4-1/2" | 51 | 50 | 48 | 46 | 43 | 41 | | | | | | |
| 4-3/4" | | | 54 | 52 | 50 | 47 | 44 | | | | | |
| 5" OD | | | 61 | 59 | 56 | 53 | 50 | | | | | |
| 5-1/4" | | | 68 | 65 | 63 | 60 | 57 | | | | | |
| 5-1/2" | | | 75 | 73 | 70 | 67 | 64 | 60 | | | | |
| 5-3/4" | | | 82 | 80 | 78 | 75 | 72 | 67 | 64 | 60 | | |
| 6" OD | | | 90 | 88 | 85 | 83 | 79 | 75 | 72 | 68 | | |
| 6-1/4" | | | 98 | 96 | 94 | 91 | 88 | 83 | 80 | 76 | 72 | |
| 6-1/2" | | | 107 | 105 | 102 | 99 | 96 | 91 | 89 | 85 | 80 | |
| 6-3/4" | | | 116 | 114 | 111 | 108 | 105 | 100 | 98 | 93 | 89 | |
| 7" OD | | | 125 | 123 | 120 | 117 | 114 | 110 | 107 | 103 | 98 | 93 |
| 7-1/4" | | | 134 | 132 | 130 | 127 | 124 | 119 | 116 | 112 | 108 | 103 |
| 7-1/2" | | | 144 | 142 | 139 | 137 | 133 | 129 | 126 | 122 | 117 | 113 |
| 7-3/4" | | | 154 | 152 | 150 | 147 | 144 | 139 | 136 | 132 | 128 | 123 |
| 8" OD | | | 165 | 163 | 160 | 157 | 154 | 150 | 147 | 143 | 138 | 133 |
| 8-1/4" | | | 176 | 174 | 171 | 168 | 165 | 160 | 158 | 154 | 149 | 144 |
| 8-1/2" | | | 187 | 185 | 182 | 179 | 176 | 172 | 169 | 165 | 160 | 155 |
| 9" OD | | | 210 | 208 | 206 | 203 | 200 | 195 | 192 | 188 | 184 | 179 |
| 9-1/2" | | | 234 | 232 | 230 | 227 | 224 | 220 | 216 | 212 | 209 | 206 |
| 9-3/4" | | | 248 | 245 | 243 | 240 | 237 | 232 | 229 | 225 | 221 | 216 |

Heavy Weight Drill Pipe - Range II

Figure: 0.21

| Nominal Size (in) | ID | Connection Type & OD | Approximate Weight (lb) | Make-Up Torque (ft/lb) | Capacity (bbl/100ft) | Displacement (bbl/100ft) |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 3-1/2" | Figure: 0.18 | Figure: 0.19 | 25.3 | 9,900 | 0.421 | 0.923 |
| 4" | | N.C.40(4 F.H.) / 5-1/4" | 29.7 | 13,250 | 0.645 | 1.082 |
| 4-1/2" | | N.C.46(4 1/2 F.P.) / 6-1/4" | 41.0 | 21,300 | 0.743 | 1.493 |
| 5" | 3" | N.C.50(4-1/2 F.P.) / 6-1/2" | 49.3 | 29,400 | 0.883 | 1.796 |

Directional Drilling

Table: 0.16

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Describe the general aspects involved in well planning.
- Describe the common well patterns and list the applications and disadvantages of each.
- State the two main components of the operating mechanism of a well.
- Explain what is meant by the term "Fulcrum".
- List the main factors which affect the directional behavior of rotary assemblies.
- Explain what is meant by the terms "steerable motor" and "Navigation System".
- Explain the components of a "Theoretical Model" of a Navigation System.
- Explain the difference between "Conventional" and "Navigation" tools.
- Additional Review

Baker Hughes INTEQ, Directional Drilling Operations Manual, P/N 80319H

Baker Hughes INTEQ, Directional Drilling Handbook

Bourgoyne Jr., Adam, *Drillers' Handbook*, 2nd Ed., SPE Textbook Series, Vol. 2, 1986

Moore, Preston, *Drilling Practices Manual*, PennWell Publishing Co., Tulsa, 1986

App: Equation: 0.21 Directional Drilling**Definition of Directional Drilling****Equation: 0.15**

Directional drilling can generally be defined as the science of intersecting a subsurface target at a pre-determined angle from a point on the designated surface target.

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.24

Applications

Header: 0.17

Multiple wells from offshore structures

Equation: 0.17 One of the main applications of directional drilling techniques is in offshore drilling. Many oil and gas deposits are situated well beyond the reach of land based rigs. Drilling a large number of vertical wells from individual platforms is impractical and uneconomical. The obvious approach for a large oilfield is to install a fixed platform on the seabed, from which numerous wells can be drilled. The bottomhole locations of the

Table: 0.17 wells are planned to ensure optimum recovery.

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.23

Equation: 0.17

Chart: 0.17

Header: 0.17

Text: 0.16



Figure 5-1: Multiple wells from offshore structures.

In conventional development, wells cannot be drilled until the platform has been constructed and installed. This can mean a delay of several years before production begins. Such delay can be considerably reduced by pre-drilling some of the wells through a subsea template while the platform is being constructed. These wells are directionally drilled from a semi-submersible rig and tied back to the platform once it has been installed.

Relief Wells**Chart: 0.18**

Directional techniques are used to drill relief wells in order to "kill" blowouts. Relief wells are drilled as close as possible to the uncontaminated wellbore to divert the reservoir to overcome the pressure and control.

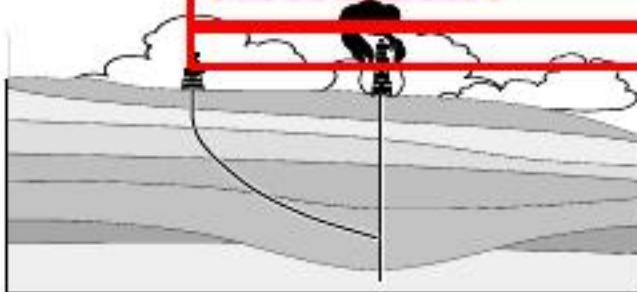


Figure 5-2: Relief wells.

Controlling Vertical Wells

Directional techniques are used to "straighten crooked holes". When deviation occurs in a well which is supposed to be vertical, various techniques can be used to bring the well back to vertical. This was one of the earliest applications of directional drilling.

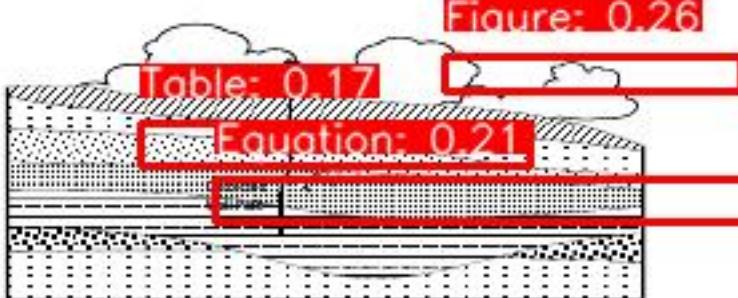


Figure 5-3: Controlling vertical wells.

Sidetracking

Sidetracking out of an existing wellbore is another application of directional drilling. This is done to bypass an obstruction ("fish") in the original wellbore, to explore the extent of a producing zone in a certain sector of a field, or to sidetrack a dry hole to a more promising target. Wells are also sidetracked to access more reservoir by drilling a horizontal hole section from the existing well bore.

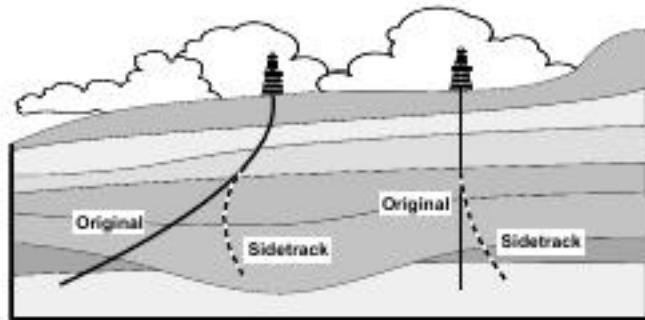


Figure 5-4: Sidetracking.

Inaccessible locations

Directional wells are often drilled because the surface location directly above the reservoir is inaccessible, either because of natural or man-made obstacles.

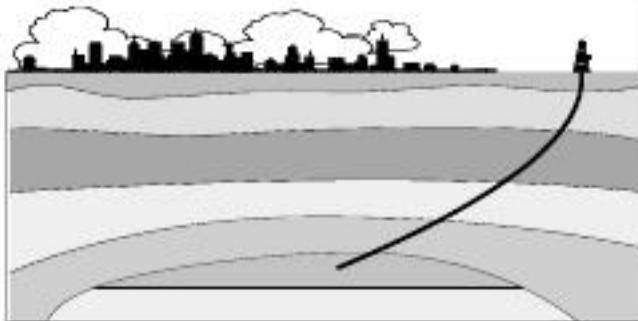


Figure 5-5: Inaccessible locations.

Fault Drilling

Directional wells are also drilled to avoid drilling a vertical well through a steeply inclined fault plane which could slip and shear the casing.

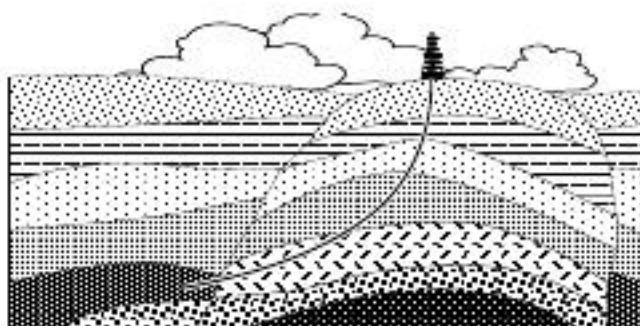


Figure 5-6: Fault drilling.

Salt Dome Drilling

Directional drilling programs are sometimes used to overcome the problems of drilling near salt domes. Instead of drilling through the salt, the well is drilled at one side of the dome and is then deviated around and underneath the overhanging cap.

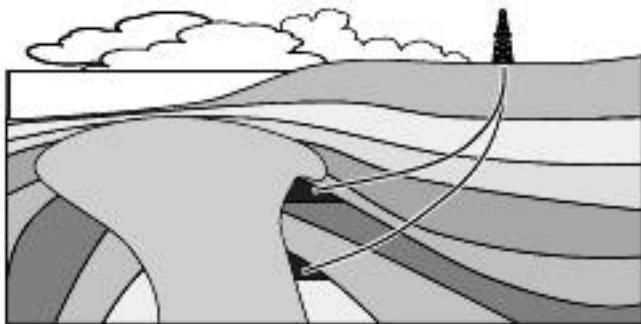


Figure 5-7: Salt dome drilling.

Shoreline Drilling.

In the case where a reservoir lies offshore but quite close to land, the most economical way to exploit the reservoir may be to drill directional wells from a land rig on the coast.

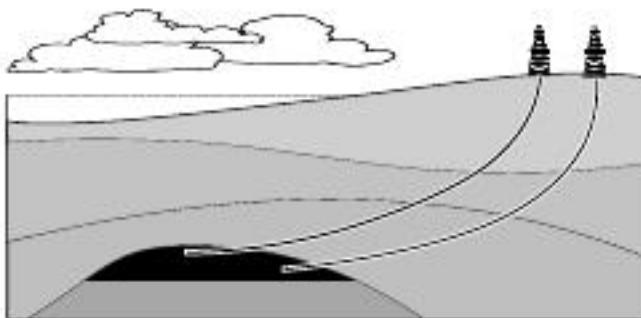


Figure 5-8: Shoreline drilling.

These are only some of the many applications of directional drilling. Although it is not a new concept, one type of directional drilling, horizontal drilling, is the fastest growing branch of drilling, with major advances occurring in tools and techniques. As with directional drilling, there are numerous specific applications for horizontal drilling.

Well Planning**Introduction****Equation: 0.23**

There are many aspects involved in well planning, and many individuals from various disciplines are involved in designing various programs for the well planning process.

This section will focus on the role of survey systems in well planning.

This section will also discuss the role of well planning which have always been the responsibility of the geologist.

Reference Systems and Coordinates

With the exception of gyroscopic survey systems, all survey systems measure inclination and azimuth relative to a measured "along hole" axis. These measurements are tied to fixed reference systems so that locations on the borehole can be calculated and recorded.

Text: 0.21**Borehole**

- Inclination
- Azimuth

Text: 0.21**Text: 0.21****Text: 0.22****Depth References**

During the course of drilling there are two kinds of depths:

- Measured Depth (MD) is the distance measured along the actual course of the borehole to the survey point. This depth is usually measured in units such as pipe tally, wireline depth or feet.
- True Vertical Depth (TVD) is the vertical distance from the depth reference level to the bottom of the borehole. Depth is always calculated from the deviation point.

In most countries, **Equation: 0.22** deviation is used as the working depth reference. The abbreviation BRT (below rotary table) and RKB (rotary kelly bushing) are depths measured from the rotary table. This can also be referred to as deck floor elevation. For floating drilling rigs the deck floor elevation is known as the mean rotary table elevation because it is not fixed.

In order to compare individual wells in the same field, a common depth reference must be established. This is done by well into a blow-out well.

Equation: 0.16 is the common depth reference.

Figure: 0.22

Directions! Drilling

Drilling Engineering

Fau

wellbore is sometimes used.

Equation: 0.24 mean sea level (MSL) is

Equation: 0.27 from MSL can be read from tide tables or

Equation: 0.24

Inclination References

The inclination angle is the angle (in degrees) between the vertical and the well bore axis at a particular point. The vertical reference is the direction of gravity, which could be indicated by a plumb bob.

Text: 0.18

Azimuth Reference

For direction:

Figure: 0.27

Figure: 0.24

• Magnetic North

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

All directions are given in azimuth (true direction) referenced to Magnetic North. Horizontal angles are always referenced to either True, South, or East North.

True (Geographic)

Figure: 0.20

This is the direction of the horizontal projection of the Earth's axis of rotation. Directions are given on maps using meridians of longitude.

Grid North

Table: 0.18

Drilling operations are based on grid north, the surface of the Earth, but when calculating directions, a flat surface is assumed.

Since it is not possible to represent the surface of a sphere on a flat wellbore, different methods must be used to calculate this difference. Two such methods can be used:

UTM System

Figure: 0.24

One example is the Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) System. In this system, the horizontal projection of the spheroid chosen to represent the Earth is projected onto a rectangular grid that touches the equator. (This projection cannot be applied to the poles.)

Header: 0.20

These meridians are called grid lines and do not produce a rectangular grid. The grid lines on a map form the rectangular grid.

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.20 The location of a point on the Earth's surface is determined by its latitude and longitude. The horizontal distance between two points along a meridian.

Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.23

The relationship between True North and Grid North is indicated by the angles 'a' in Figure 5-9. Convergence is the angle difference between grid north and true north for the location being considered.

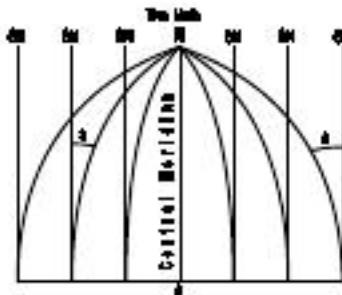


Figure 5-9: Relationship between True North and Grid North

The reference meridians are 6 degrees apart, starting at the Greenwich meridian, which means the world is divided into 60 zones. The zones are numbered 0 to 60 with zone 31 having the 0 degree meridian (Greenwich) on the left and the 6 degree East on the right. Each zone is then further divided into grid sectors - a grid sector covering 8 degrees latitude starting from the equator and ranging from 80° South to 80° North. The sectors are given letters ranging from C to X (excluding I and O).

Therefore, each sector is uniquely identified by a number from 0 to 60 (zone number) and a letter. For example, sector 31U shown in Figure 5-10, is the Southern North Sea.

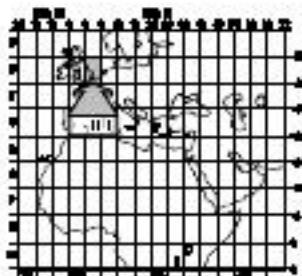


Figure 5-10: Sector Identification

Figure: 0.19

Directions: Drilling

Drilling Engineering

Coordinates being measured are 10° N latitude and 10° E longitude. The equator is taken as the reference line for latitude, and the central meridian is taken as the reference line for longitude. Each zone is 6° wide, so each zone avoids negative numbers.

So UTM coordinates are always positive numbers.

Equation: 0.23 meters. North coordinates in the Northern hemisphere, the South coordinates in the Southern hemisphere (see Figure 0.23).

Equation: 0.26

Equation: 0.24

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.25

Survey tools measure the direction of the wellbore on the horizontal plane with respect to North or Grid North. There are two systems:

Azimuth.

In the azimuth system, directions are expressed as clockwise angle from 0° to 359.99° , with North being 0° .



Figure 5-12: The Azimuth System

Quadrant Bearings

In the quadrant system (Figure 5-13), the directions are expressed as angles from 0° - 90° measured from North in the two Northern quadrants and from

South in the Southern quadrants. The diagram in Figure 5-14 illustrates how to convert from the quadrant system to azimuth, and vice versa.



Figure 5-13: The Quadrant System



Figure 5-14: Conversion from Quadrant to Azimuth Systems

Planning Equation: 0.28

The number of wells planned to be drilled from a single platform are closely involved is the planning of the well pattern. This is not as simple as it sounds, as it must be carefully considered before calculating the target zones.

The Target

The target is usually specified by the geologist, who will not merely define a certain point as the target, but also specify the acceptable tolerance (\pm) as a circle of radius R centered at the target (act target as its center). Target zones should be selected as large as possible to achieve the objective. If multiple zones are to be planned, the tolerance must be small enough so that the planned pattern does not overlap, thus causing drilling problems.

Types of Direction

The advent of steerable directional drilling has made directional wells much easier to drill with complex patterns. This is particularly true when the well is drilled to new target zones.

These complex directional well paths are harder to drill and the old adage that "the simplest paths are the best" holds true. Therefore, most directional wells are drilled with simple patterns which have been in use for many years. Common patterns for vertical projections are shown on the following pages.

Figure: 0.19**Figure: 0.19****Text: 0.20****Figure: 0.17****Figure: 0.24****Figure: 0.25****Text: 0.20****Figure: 0.22****Text: 0.23**

Figure: 0.21
TYPE 1 - BUILD and HOLD

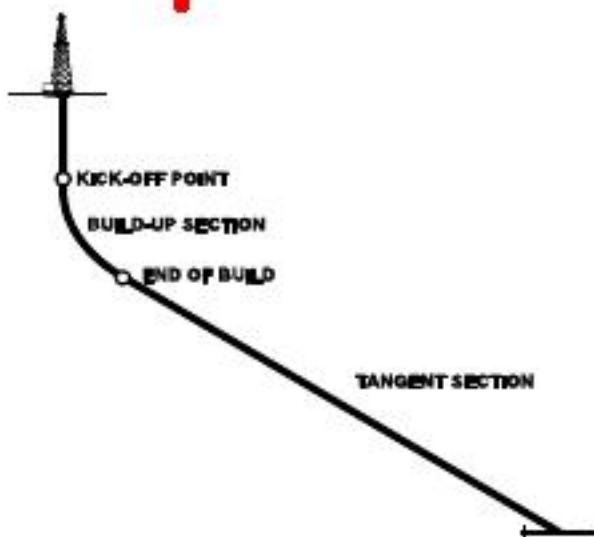


Figure 5-15: Type 1 (Build and Hold)

Features:

Shallow kick-off point (KOP)

Build-up section (which may have more than one build up rate)

Tangent section

Applications:

Deep wells with large horizontal displacements

Moderately deep wells with moderate horizontal displacement, where intermediate casing is not required

Figure: 0.18

Chart: 0.18

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.21

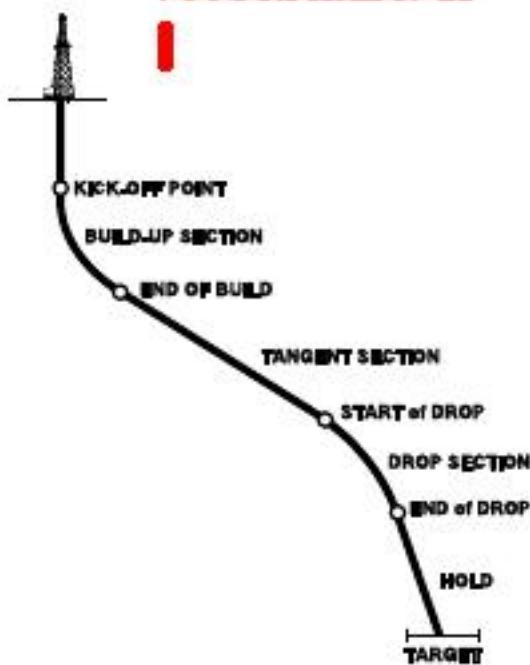


Figure 5-16: Type 2 (S Type Well)

Features: There are several variations:

- Shallow KOP - Build, hold & drop back to vertical
- Build-up section - Build, hold, drop & hold (illustrated above)
- Tangent section - Build, hold & continuous drop through reservoir
- Deep-off section

Applications:

- Multiple pay zones
- Reduces final angle in reservoir
- Lease or target limitations
- Well spacing requirements
- Deep wells with small lateral displacements

Disadvantages:

- Increased torque & drag

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0 Table: 0.15

Table: 0.16

Equation: 0.18

Table: 0.17

Figure: 0.19**Figure 5-17: Type 3 (Deep Kickoff and Build)****Features:**

- Deep KOP
- Build-up section
- Short tangent section (optional)

Applications:

Appraisal wells to assess the extent of a newly discovered reservoir

Repositioning of the bottom part of the hole or re-drilling

Salt dome drilling

Figure: 0.20**Disadvantages:**

- Formations are harder so the initial deflection may be more difficult to achieve
- Harder to achieve desired tool face orientation with downhole motor deflection assemblies (more reactive torque)
- Longer trip time for any BHA changes required

On multi-well platforms, the well path is planned because of the space available and the need to keep wells vertical in firm rock. It is also used to minimize the risk of collisions.

Equation: 0.27 deep kick-off points, the ability of keeping wells vertical in firm rock, and to minimize the risk of collisions.

Equation: 0.21 shallow kick-off points, the ability of keeping wells vertical in firm rock, and to minimize the risk of collisions.

Text: 0.17 the ability of keeping wells vertical in firm rock, and to minimize the risk of collisions.

Text: 0.19 the ability of keeping wells vertical in firm rock, and to minimize the risk of collisions.

Text: 0.18 the ability of keeping wells vertical in firm rock, and to minimize the risk of collisions.

Catenary Curve Well Path

One suggestion

for planning the well path for directional wells would be to

plan the well path as a catenary curve, all the way from KOP to target. This is the catenary method. A catenary curve is the natural curve that a chain, chain-like cable or weight assumes when suspended between two points.

The tension in the drill string would also form a catenary curve.

Proponents of the catenary method argue that it produces a more gradual incline than a traditional well plan, and that there is less chance of key seat formation during drilling.

However, in practice it is hard to pick BHAs which produce a smooth catenary curve well plan than a traditional well plan. Also, the catenary curve method produces a higher maximum inclination than a traditional well plan.

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.18

Table: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Table: 0.23

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.16

Table: 0.24

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.21

Horizontal wells

For many applications, horizontal wells are drilled to reduce the cost of drilling and completion. A horizontal well is built to 90° or less from the vertical.

Text: 0.19

Table: 0.19

Allocation of slots to targets

Even this is not always possible. From a directional driller's viewpoint, slots are allocated to targets on the East side of the platform or on the North side of the platform.

Text: 0.19

Unfortunately the targets may not be grouped together (e.g. water injection wells may have to be grouped together for manifolding requirements). Also, as more wells are drilled and the reservoir model is upgraded, targets can be changed.

Table: 0.19

Inner slots are allocated to targets with the smallest horizontal distance from the platform, and these wells will be given slightly deeper kick-off points.

Text: 0.18

Outer slots are allocated to targets which are furthest from the platform. These wells will be given shallower kick-off points and higher make-up rates to keep the maximum inclination below the critical value.

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.16

Equation: 0.23

Kick-off

Equation: 0.25

The selection of both the kick-off point and the build-up rate depends on many factors.

Choice of kick-off point depends on required bottom hole assembly (BHA) length.

Build-up rate depends on maximum inclination requirements to keep the well path at a safe distance from other wells.

Build-up rate depends on maximum inclination requirements to keep the well path at a safe distance from other wells.

Build-up rate depends on maximum inclination requirements to keep the well path at a safe distance from other wells.

In practice, well paths are planned for several receipts and build-up rates and the final choice is one which gives a safe clearance within desired limits.

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Tangent Section

During the early stages of drilling, the well path is completed. If the well path is to be horizontal, it can be covered by a single tangent section.

However, high initial inclination angles can result in excessive torque and drag on the drill string, resulting in tripping, joggling, casing, cementing and production problems. These problems generally be avoided with current technology.

Experience of directional control problems are aggravated when there is more time spent rotating below the dogleg.

On S-type wells, the initial inclination angle is selected to ease casing problems and to drilling below the dogleg.

On S-type wells, the initial inclination angle is selected to ease casing problems and to drilling below the dogleg.

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On S-type wells, the initial inclination angle is selected to ease casing problems and to drilling below the dogleg.

The path of the wellbore is plotted by plotting total North/South coordinates versus total East/West coordinates (East = E, West = W).

Equation: 0.23

total projection by plotting total North/South coordinates versus total East/West coordinates (E = East, W = West).

Equation: 0.21

| Well Name | Survey No. | Survey Date | Survey Type | Survey Method | Survey Data |
|-----------|------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|--------------|
| WELL A | 1 | 1995-01-01 | Initial | RTK GPS | RTK GPS Data |

Figure: 0.21

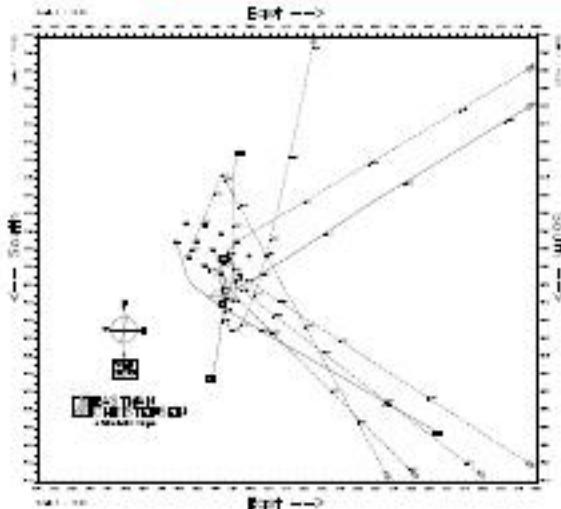


Figure 5-18: This is a 3-dimensional turn on the horizontal plane.

Lead angle

In the old days (pre 1985) it was normal practice to allow a "lead angle" when kicking off. Since roller cone bits used with rotary assemblies tend to "walk to the right", the wells were generally kicked off in a direction several degrees to the left of the target direction. In extreme cases the lead angles could be as large as 20°.

The greatly increased use of steerable motors and PDC bits for rotary drilling have drastically reduced the need for wells to be given a "lead angle". Many wells today are deliberately kicked off with no lead angle (i.e. in the target direction).

Figure: 0.21

Nudging

Figure: 0.22

The technique of "nudging" is used on platforms in order to "spread our conductors and surface cables which minimizes the chance of a collision."

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.16

Chart: 0.14

Text: 0.18

Chart: 0.18

Previously we discussed how a wave can be represented by a sine or cosine function. Now we will learn how to represent waves using complex numbers.

In addition to "spreading viruses out," other reasons for "padding" are:

- to drill a hole in the side of the platform from the target
 - to keep the direction as far apart as possible
 - if the results are the total

Techniques for

Planning a nuclei

The direction maximum necessarily be nudged in their target directions.

Nudges will but a structural surface coating individual well plans for each well.

Proximity (anti-correlation)

On multi-level projects, you ultimately determine where are suitable distances between levels. The following table lists the distances directly beneath the platform, the proposed we calculated at be performed. These calculations are based on the following assumptions:

Equation: 0.18 on the proposed well and spans have established criteria for the minimum number of wells, which are usually linked to "cone of influence".

Text-019

Downhole

Equation: 0.26

The idea of using downhole motors to directly turn the bit is not a new one. One of the first downhole motor concepts was developed by the British company, Turbomotors, in 1938. The first patent for a turbodrill was issued in 1941. Since that time, many companies have continued to use turbines extensively in the development of downhole motors. The use of turbines has been more on rotary drilling than on directional drilling. The main reason for this is that the increased specific torque of turbines is better suited for the low torque requirements of rotary drilling.

A turbine consists of a housing, bearing section, a central shaft, a rotor and stator assembly. The rotor is connected to the central shaft, which is connected to the bit. The stators are stationary, locked to the housing. The central shaft rotates the bit. The flow of drilling mud passes through the turbines which are also forced to turn by the mud flow. This causes the central shaft to rotate, which in turn causes the bit to rotate.

Positive Displacement

A positive displacement motor is a type of motor that uses fluid pressure to move the bit. It is a motor that uses fluid pressure to move the bit, independent of drill string rotation.

- By-pass
- Motor

Chart: 0.17

Universal joint or connecting rod section.

- Bearing

Text: 0.15

Chart: 0.19

Figure: 0.21

Chart: 0.22

Figure: 0.22

Other: 0.17

Other: 0.17

Chart: 0.19

Other: 0.17

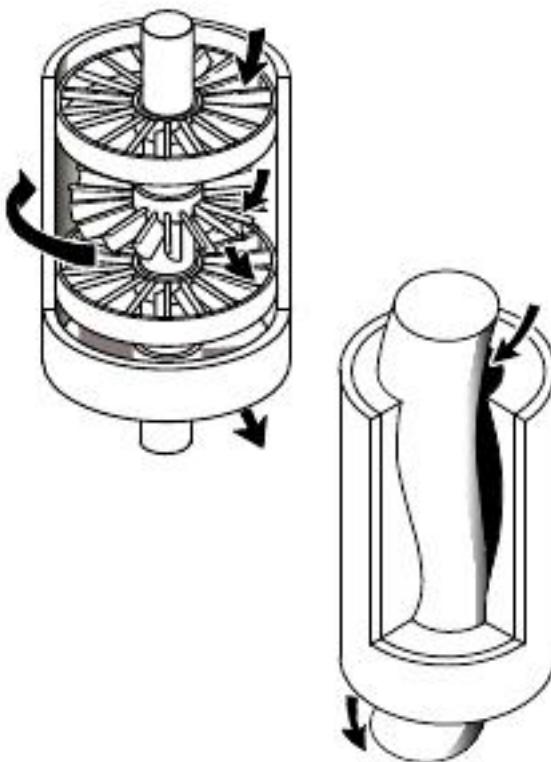


Figure 5-19: Differences between the turbine motor (left) and positive displacement motor (right) designs.

By-Pass Valve

The by-pass valve allows fluid to fill the drill string while tripping in the hole and to drain while tripping out. When mud is pumped, the valve closes causing fluid to move through the tool. Most valves are of a spring piston type which closes under pressure to seal off ports to the annulus. When there is no downward pressure, the spring forces the piston up so fluid can channel through the ports to the annulus. (Figure 5-20).

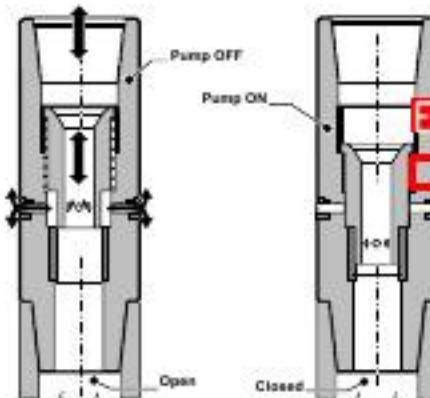


Figure 5-20: Bypass Valve.

Motor Section

This is a reverse application of Rene Moineau's pump principle. The motor section consists of a rubber stator and steel rotor. The rotor is a helical rotor which is continuous and round. This is the single lobe type. The stator is molded inside the outer steel housing and is an elastomer compound. The stator will always have one more lobe than the rotor. Hence motors will be described as 1/2, 3/4, 5/6 or 9/10 motors.

Both rotor and stator have certain pitch angles and the axial length is equal to the ratio of the number of lobes on the rotor to the number of lobes on the stator.

As mud is pumped through the motor, it fills the cavities between the dissimilar shaped lobes. The rotor is forced to give way by turning on, in other words, the rotation of the rotor shaft is transmitted to the bit.

Figure: Equation: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Equation: 0.17

Text: 0.17

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.15

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.16

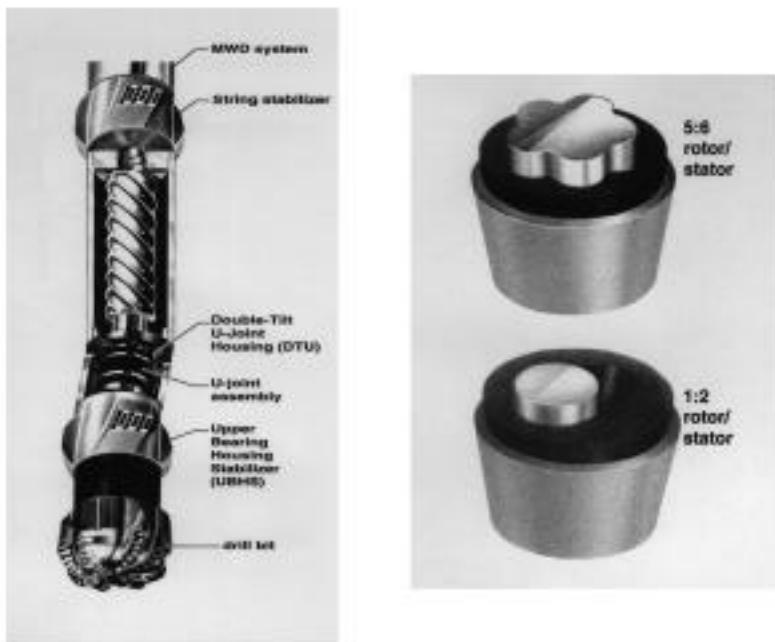


Figure 5-21: Parts of Downhole Motors

Connecting rod assemblies

Since the rotor is spiral shaped, it does not rotate concentrically, rather it traces a back and forth motion. This motion must be converted to a concentric motion to be transmitted to the bit via the drive sub. This is achieved by a connecting rod assembly. There are several types.

Universal-joint

U-joint assemblies (Figure 5-22a) have been utilized by the industry and are still used in most positive displacement motors. The assembly consists of two universal joints, each grease filled, and sealed with oil-resistant reinforced rubber sleeves to **Equation: 0.18** junction. A drawback of the U-joint assembly is the lack of sufficient strength for higher torque applications, those encountered with recent gene

Figure: 0.21

This inherent weakness is a result of the manufacturing process whereby the U-joint is "flame-cut" rather than machined.

Flex rod

A recent development in connecting rod assembly technology has been the utilization of flexible steel or titanium "flex rods" (Figure 5-22b). While flex rods are limited by the degree of allowable lateral bending, they have the advantage of low maintenance, since they do not require lubricants or rubber sleeves. Flex rods are now standard on most smaller Navi-Drills. One recent approach has been to mount the flex rod inside the hollow rotor of a short, high torque steerable PDM, rather than connecting it to the bottom of the rotor. By connecting a long flex rod to the inside of the top end of the rotor and extending it through the rotor, to connect to the top of the drive sub assembly, the overall rate of bend is decreased due to its increased length.

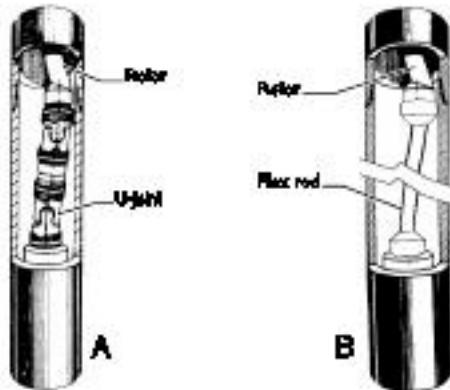


Figure 5-22: Type of Connecting Rod Assemblies

Bearing Section

A typical positive displacement motor utilizes three sets of bearings attached to a drive shaft. There are two sets of radial bearings ("upper" and "lower") with one set of axial thrust bearings.

The axial thrust bearing section supports the on and off bottom loading and hydraulic thrust. It consists of a series of ball bearings stacked one on top of the other, each set being contained in its own race (groove). The number of these bearings will vary, depending on the size of the tool.

The upper assembly contains two bearing sections. These bearing sections support the lateral loads, which are generated by the amount of flow diverted from the annulus. This diversion of flow creates a pressure drop across the bearing sections in the drive shaft. The bearing housing is supported by two bearings. These bearings are supported by the lower bearing housing, depending upon the configuration of the PDM. Figure 5-23 illustrates typical bearing sections found in PDMs.

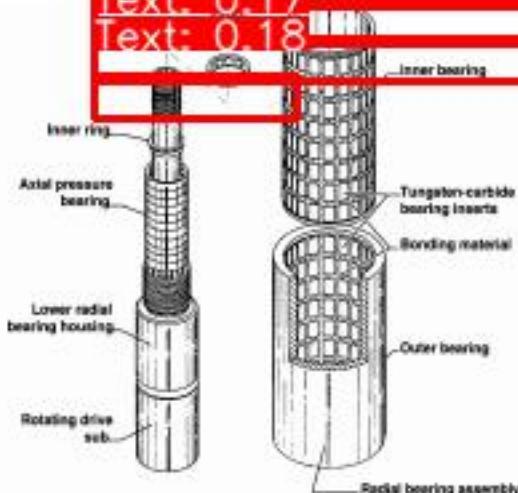


Figure 5-23: Various bearings in PDMs.

Types of Positive Displacement Motors

PDMs come in various configurations. As has been mentioned previously, the stator will have one more lobe than the rotor. The first types of PDMs, and the simplest, are 1/2 motors. These generally give medium to low torque output and medium to high rotary speed. Torque output is directly proportional to pressure drop across the motor. The 1/2 motors have good applications in performance drilling with a PDC, diamond, or TSP-type bits. Some shorter models are used for directional purposes.

Multi-lobe motor

Therefore, they have more torque at low speeds. Such motors are used for drilling, especially the large cutter types which require high torque at low speeds. Being fairly short, the deflection due to the weight of the motor and a nozzle allows for high flow rates.

PDM Observations

- Motor stall torque. Motor stall torque should be avoided as it erodes the service life of the motor.
- LCM can be pinched easily; enough care should be taken that the material does not become damaged. The system should not be lagged.
- Sand content in the water should be kept to a minimum.
- Temperature limits. As the temperature rises, coil insulation and stators have been breached.
- Pressure drop information. Flowing is typically around 50 psi to 800 psi.
- Allowable wear or erosion. This is dependent upon tool size.
- The tool should be flushed with water prior to laying down.

In general, drilling fluid should not exceed 150°F (60°C). Usually, this is related to the aromatic content which should be equal to or less than 10% of the total oil if there is any doubt.

If a by-pass nozzle is fitted to a multi-lobe motor, care must be taken very carefully to allow the flow to develop the necessary power. Any variation in flow will compromise the motor's performance.

Characteristics

- Torque is directly proportional to the motor's differential pressure. This makes them very efficient.
- RPM is directly proportional to the motor's differential pressure.

Equation- 0.24) $\sqrt{1714}$, where P is the pressure drop (Pa) and ΔP is the rate (atm).

Navi-Drill Mach 1C

The **Text: 0.20** placement motor that develops high torque at the bit at relatively low speed ranges (80-340 rpm). This makes it ideal for directional ap **Figure: 0.21** weight-on-bit, navigation drill, or with **Text: 0.21** PDC bits, and coring operations.

The motor has a four-pole, two-phase, star-stator configuration, which generates high torque at low speeds, permitting stable weight support at low speeds, and can improve bit performance without accelerating wear on the bearings.

A unique benefit of the stator have in extending the operating life of the pump is to be run at 5% higher speed than the rated speed. The additional speed allows the pump to pass through its natural resonance frequency without causing damage to the pump or its hydraulics.

Although primarily designed for use with a high performance drilling motor, the Mach 1C can also be used with a standard power drill.

Tables 5-1 and Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.20

Figure 0.2

Figure 0.23

Figure: 0.19

T-1-001

Text 017

100

Figure 0.18

Table 5-1: Mach 1C Specifications (US Standard)

| Tool Size (OD) (in) | 3% | 4% | 6% | 8 | 9% | 11% |
|--------------------------------|------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|------------|------------|
| Length (ft) | 16.1 | 17.4 | 19.8 | 22.9 | 24.8 | 26.3 |
| Weight (lbs) | 440 | 710 | 1320 | 2430 | 4080 | 6070 |
| Recommended Bore Size (in) | 4½ - 5 7/8 | 6 - 7 7/8 | 8 - 9 7/8 | 9½ - 12½ | 12½ - 17½ | 17½ - 26 |
| Pump Rate (gpm) minimum | 45 | 80 | 185 | 315 | 195 | 325 |
| Pump Rate (gpm) maximum | 185 | 185 | 475 | 685 | 740 | 1135 |
| Bit Speed Range (rpm) | 120 - 340 | 100-300 | 100-260 | 85-190 | 100-190 | 80-170 |
| Operating Drill Pres. (psi) | 800 | 725 | 725 | 580 | 800 | 855 |
| Operating Torque (ft/lbs) | 850 | 1380 | 2800 | 4500 | 6870 | 9770 |
| Maximum Torque ** (ft/lbs) | 1420 | 1890 | 4480 | 7200 | 10,970 | 15,570 |
| Horsepower Range (hp) | 20-58 | 22-67 | 53-139 | 73-163 | 131-248 | 149-318 |
| Efficiency (max%) | 67 | 68 | 70 | 70 | 72 | 73.5% |
| Thread Connection | | | | | | |
| By-Pass Valve Box-Up | 2 7/8" Reg | 3 ½" Reg | 4 ½" Reg | 6 5/8" Reg* | 7 5/8" Reg | 7 5/8" Reg |
| Bit Sub Box Down | 2 7/8" Reg | 3 ½" Reg | 4 ½" Reg | 6 5/8" Reg | 7 5/8" Reg | 6 5/8" Reg |

* Available with 5½" Reg in US only.

** Operating above this level can shorten tool life.

Table 5-2: Mach 1C Specifications (Metric)

| Tool Size (OD) (in) | 3 1/4 | 4 1/4 | 6 1/4 | 8 | 9 1/4 | 11 1/4 |
|------------------------------|---------------|------------|------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Length (m) | 5.1 | 5.3 | 6.1 | 7.0 | 7.5 | 8.1 |
| Weight (kg) | 200 | 320 | 781 | 1100 | 1850 | 2750 |
| Recommended Hole Size (in) | 4 1/4 - 5 7/8 | 6 - 7 7/8 | 8 - 9 7/8 | 9 1/2 - 12 1/2 | 12 1/2 - 17 1/2 | 17 1/2 - 26 |
| Pump Rate (lpm) | | | | | | |
| minimum | 250 | 300 | 700 | 1200 | 1500 | 2000 |
| maximum | 700 | 900 | 1800 | 2600 | 2900 | 4300 |
| Bit Speed Range (rpm) | 120 - 540 | 100-1000 | 100-260 | 85-190 | 100-190 | 80-170 |
| Operating D.H.P. Pres. (bar) | 55 | 50 | 50 | 40 | 55 | 45 |
| Operating Torque (Nm) | 1200 | 1800 | 3800 | 6100 | 9300 | 13,200 |
| Maximum Torque ** (Nm) | 1920 | 2560 | 6000 | 9760 | 14,880 | 21,120 |
| Horsepower Range (kW) | 15-43 | 17-50 | 40-103 | 54-121 | 97-185 | 109-235 |
| Efficiency (max%) | 67 | 68 | 70 | 70 | 72 | 73.5% |
| Thread Connection | | | | | | |
| By-Pass Valve Box-Up | 2 7/8" Reg | 3 1/4" Reg | 4 1/2" Reg | 6 5/8" Reg* | 7 5/8" Reg | 7 5/8" Reg |
| Bit Sub Box Down | 2 7/8" Reg | 3 1/4" Reg | 4 1/2" Reg | 6 5/8" Reg | 7 5/8" Reg | 6 5/8" Reg |

* Available with 5 1/2" Reg in US only.

** Operating above this level can shorten tool life

Navi-Drill Mach 2

The Navi-Drill Mach 2 is a positive-displacement motor that can improve drill rates in both straight-hole and directional applications.

The Mach 2 has a multi-stage, 1/2 rotor/stator configuration, which generates low to medium torque at medium speeds for higher penetration rates with less weight-on-bit. This makes it a good choice for drilling straight and directional holes in difficult formations. The motor is particularly suited for long-interval performance drilling with natural diamond, TSP, or PDC bits.

Mach 2 motors also come in 1-3/4", 2-5/8" and 4-3/4" ODs for slimhole applications.

Tables 5-3 and 5-4 list the Mach 2 specifications.

Table 5-3: Mach 2 Specifications (US Standard)

| Tool Size (OD) (in) | 1 1/4 | 2 5/8 | 3 1/2 | 4 1/2 | 6 1/2 | 8 | 9 1/2 | 11 1/2 |
|---------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|------------|------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Length (in) | 6.9 | 13.1 | 21.5 | 37.4 | 56.7 | 76.5 | 100 | 121 |
| Weight (lbs) | 49 | 100 | 180 | 310 | 510 | 810 | 1220 | 1700 |
| Recommended Hole Size (in) | 1 5/8 - 2 1/2 | 2 5/8 - 3 1/2 | 4 1/2 - 5 1/2 | 6 - 7 1/2 | 8 - 9 1/2 | 9 1/2 - 12 1/4 | 12 1/2 - 17 1/2 | 17 1/2 - 24 |
| Pump Rate (gpm) minimum to maximum | 30 50 | 25 35 | 40 50 | 60 80 | 105 130 | 240 340 | 360 560 | 525 1130 |
| Bit Speed Range (rpm) | 100-2100 | 250-1600 | 250-3000 | 195-600 | 190-350 | 155-410 | 230-400 | 150-100 |
| Operating Drill Press (psi) | 400 | 870 | 225 | 125 | 325 | 580 | 910 | 580 |
| Operating Torque (lb-in) | 30 | 95 | 480 | 740 | 1800 | 2800 | 4100 | 5000 |
| Maximum Torque ** (lb-in) | 40 | 110 | 730 | 2100 | 2950 | 3810 | 7610 | 10500 |
| Horsepower Range (hp) | 4.7-12 | 10.30 | 23-73 | 27-92 | 65-190 | 71-206 | 101-262 | 160-387 |
| Efficiency (max%) | 71 | 70 | 80 | 80 | 85 | 80 | 80 | 80 |
| Thread Connection: | | | | | | | | |
| Re-Pass Valve Run-Up | NW Seal | 1/8 Seal | 2 1/8" Reg | 3 1/2" Reg | 8 1/2" Reg | 8 1/2" Reg* | 7 1/2" Reg | 7 1/2" Reg |
| Bit Seal Run Down | NW Seal | 1/8 Seal | 2 1/8" Reg | 3 1/2" Reg | 8 1/2" Reg | 8 1/2" Reg | 7 1/2" Reg | 7 1/2" Reg |

* Available with 5 1/2" Reg in US only.

** Operating above this level can shorten tool life.

Table 5-4: Mach 2 Specifications (Metric)

| Bore Size (OD) (in) | 1 1/8 | 2 5/8 | 3 1/2 | 4 1/2 | 6 1/2 | 8 | 9 1/2 | 11 1/4 |
|---------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Length (in) | 27 | 48 | 63 | 83 | 103 | 114 | 138 | 153 |
| Weight (lbs.) | 21 | 38 | 230 | 380 | 980 | 1270 | 2360 | 3118 |
| Recommended Bit Size (in) | 1 1/8 - 2 1/4 | 2 1/8 - 3 1/2 | 4 1/2 - 5 7/8 | 6 - 7 1/2 | 8 - 8 7/8 | 10 1/2 - 12 1/4 | 12 1/4 - 15 1/2 | 17 1/2 - 20 |
| Pump Rate (GPM) minimum maximum | 75 180 | 180 380 | 250 580 | 380 1080 | 700 1800 | 900 2680 | 1500 3880 | 2000 4000 |
| RPM Speed Range (RPM) | 810-2000 | 530-1650 | 250-930 | 185-1600 | 190-510 | 125-430 | 200-400 | 150-300 |
| Operating BHP Press. (psi) | 40 | 40 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 40 | 40 | 40 |
| Operating Torque (Nm) | 11 | 180 | 650 | 1000 | 2500 | 3200 | 4050 | 7900 |
| Maximum Torque ++ (Nm) | 46 | 240 | 1840 | 3000 | 4000 | 3200 | 16,320 | 12,300 |
| Horsepower Range (kW) | 3.9-8 | 7.5-22.5 | 15.54 | 20.5-68 | 50-144 | 53-153 | 118-278 | 122-268 |
| Efficiency (max%) | 71 | 10 | 61 | 82 | 86 | 80 | 80 | 80 |
| Electrical Connection | | | | | | | | |
| By-Pass Valve Run-Up | AW Rad | EW Rad | 2 1/8" Reg | 3 1/2" Reg | 4 1/2" Reg | 6 1/2" Reg* | 7 3/8" Reg | 7 5/8" Reg |
| Bit Sub Run Down | AW Rad | EW Rad | 2 1/8" Reg | 3 1/2" Reg | 4 1/2" Reg | 6 1/2" Reg | 7 3/8" Reg | 6 3/4" Reg |

* Available with 5 1/2" Reg in US only.

** Operating above this level can shorten tool life

Navi-Drill Mach 1 P/HF

The Navi-Drill Mach 1 P/HF (High Torque/High Flow) is a positive displacement motor that develops high torque at the bit at relatively low to medium speed range (80-310 RPM). This makes it ideal for directional applications, drilling with high weight-on-bit, or in areas where formations require high torque due to specialized PDC bits.

The Navi-Drill Mach 1 P/HF motor has a multi-lobe rotor/stator configuration which generates more torque than other motors.

A unique bearing assembly and improved elastomer compounds have increased the Mach 1 P/HF's hydraulic horsepower and extended its operating life. The rotor/stator design allows a larger than normal flow rate to be pumped through the motor, generating the higher torques. There is a rotor nozzling system that allows the motor to run over the higher

maximum flow speed. These high hydraulics.

The Navi-Drill Mach 1 P/HF has a maximum wicket angle of 12°/100 ft. It allows the highest bearing assembly.

Although primarily designed for directional drilling, the Navi-Drill Mach 1 P/HF can also be used for straight hole drilling.

Table 5-1: Specifications for Mach 1 P/HF

| Tool Size (OD) (in) | Figure: 0.18 | Chart: 0.21 | Text: 0.18 | Equation: 0.20 | Figure: 0.20 (Chart: 0.21) | Text: 0.18 | Equation: 0.21 | Figure: 0.21 |
|-----------------------|--------------|-------------|------------|----------------|----------------------------|------------|----------------|--------------|
| Flow rate (lpm) | minimum | maximum | 88 | 506 | 1308 | 2008 | 2501 | 3000 |
| Bit Speed Range (rpm) | 155-310 | 150-280 | 160-180 | 90-120 | 80-150 | | | |
| BHP, Pres. (bar) | | | | | | 11,700 | 16,000 | |
| Max. Torque (N·m) | | | | | | | | |
| Power Output (kW) | | | | | | | | |
| Efficiency (max) | | | | | | | | |
| Rotar/Statue | | | | | | 9:10 | 9:10 | |

Navi-Drill

The Navi-Drill Mach 1 P/HF motor is designed specifically for use in horizontal wells and mist. With an AKO, the steerable motor drilling system combines directional and straight hole drilling capabilities to provide precise directional control. Generally, in one run it can establish the desired direction and inclination for the surface interval of a directional well.

The AKO places the bend close to the bit, and can be adjusted so the motor housing tilt angle can be configured on the rig floor to settings from 0° - 2.5°. The resulting dogleg capability can be as high as 12°/100 ft. The unique AKO design requires no shims to adjust the bent housing angle, so a single motor can achieve a variety of build rates.

This motor is capable of performing directional work when oriented in a particular direction, and is capable of drilling straight ahead when the drillstring is rotated by the motor alone or applied by tilting the bit relative to the motor while maintaining a minimum amount of bit off-set.

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.22

When an air gun is used in conjunction with a building angle and drillstring, the maximum bore length is 100 ft.

Equation: 0.19 The top of the motor and configuration can be used for
Equation: 0.23 evaluation of the initial
Equation: 0.26 or not rotation. The
Equation: 0.23 rotation is approximately 20°.

Motor Orientation

Page 024

All directional wells require steering during initial kick offs, corrections runs, and the final stages of the well. Once the desired direction in which the tool should travel has been determined, the next step is to actually face the tool in that direction in order to drill the predetermined course.

For the Mach-1 system, a data transmission (CDT) system has been developed which transmits data from the probe tool. This CDT system uses a ring tool which provides continuous orientation while drilling ahead.

A "hard wire" connection relays the information transmitted from the sensors through the drillstring to the surface equipment. Data is collected, relayed and converted instantly to any necessary corrections to the motor.

Table

Text: 0.20

| Tool Size OD (in) | 4% | 5% | 8% |
|-----------------------|--------------|------|------|
| Flow rate (gpm) | Text: 0.19 | 5000 | 4250 |
| minimum: | | | |
| maximum: | Text: 0.22 | 5000 | 4250 |
| Bit Speed Range (rpm) | Figure: 0.18 | | |
| Diff. Pres. (bar) | Figure: 0.23 | | 24 |
| Max. Torque (Nm) | Chart: 0.17 | 5000 | 4250 |
| Power Output (kW) | Text: 0.19 | 5000 | 4250 |

Figure 0-19

Text- 017

Table C-1

Text: 018

~~TOAT. 0.15~~

Text-025
Ch-01-01

CHUNG U.P.

Lexicon

Equation-Figure- 0-Fig

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Table: O'Equation-Sch

Table- 0 Text- 0.1 Ch

ANSWER

Chart-0 Chart-0 'Eig'

Turbine Equation: 0.28

- Drive stages or motor section.

- Axial thrust bearing.
- Bit drive sub.

As stated earlier, the drive stage or motor section consists of a series of stators and rotors of a brushless DC motor. These components form a stage. Turbines consist of many stages. In other words, the number of stages determines the power output of the motor.

Theoretically, applying torque to the control shaft will cause each stage to rotate. This will result in a net torque applied to the control shaft and it is the sum of those individual torques.

The drive sub is located at the bottom of the tool. It contains bearings protect the control shaft from axial load. The bearings support the down hole assembly, the control shaft, the tool and the bit. Theoreticaly, when the bit rotates, it creates a reaction force or thrust, which unloads the bearings and prolongs their life.

Drive Section

This will consist of a series of stators and bladed rotors, fixed to the outer tool housing. The stators are positioned at a pre-determined angle to the shaft. This causes the shaft to turn at a pre-determined speed output of the motor.

Bearing Section

Usually, there are two bearing sections made up of rubber discs (Figure 5-24) which are non-rotating (being fixed to the outer housing) or the rotary and rotating steel discs. These are known as cartridge bearing sections. These bearing sections have a maximum point load. If the bearing wear past the maximum point load, the bearing will crash into the shaft. Long bearing sections will be inflicted as the steel rotors

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.16

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.16

Text: 0.19

Chart: 0.20

Chart: 0.19

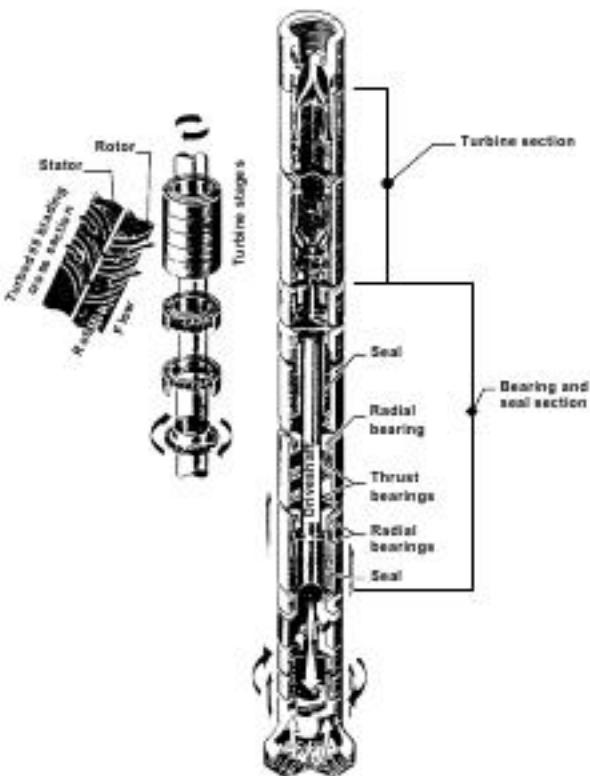


Figure 5-24: Cross-section of a turbine motor

Directional Turbine

This is a short tool which has a set number of stages and its bearing section entirely within one housing. That is, it is not a sectional tool and will be typically less than 30 feet long. It is designed for short runs to kick off or correct a directional well, using a bent sub as the deflection device. Steerable turbodrills do exist and will be discussed later.

Turbine Obj:

Equation: 0.23

- There is minimal surface indication of a turbine stalling.
- Turbines do not normally operate in flow rates of less than 2 CM.
- Sand content is kept to a minimum.
- Due to minimum sand content, the sand particles are exposed to high temperatures.
- Pressure drop across the turbine is relatively high and can be anything from 500 p.s.i. up to 1000 p.s.i.
- Turbines do not require a bypass valve.
- Usually, the size of the bypass valve is of the order of 4mm.

Turbine Characteristics

- Torque and RPM are inversely proportional (i.e. as RPM increases, torque decreases and vice versa).
- RPM is directly proportional to torque (constant torque).
- Torque is a function of flow rate, fluid density, blade angle and the number of blades if weight-on-bit varies.
- Optimum performance occurs when the bearing are balanced.
- Change in direction causes the turbine to shift.
- Off bottom, the turbine RPM will reach "run away speed" and torque is zero.
- On bottom, and just above bottom, the torque is maximum and RPM is zero.
- Optimum performance occurs when the bearing are balanced. At runaway speed, the turbine then achieves maximum horsepower.
- A stabilized borehole will not allow the turbine to rotate and eventually cause the hole to "wall off".

Equation: 0.17

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.18

Definition: Techniques**Whipstocks****Equation: 0.29**

The whipstock was the basic direction tool from c. 1920-1950. It is still used nowadays, but it has not disappeared completely.

Whipstocks are used for directional drilling. There are 3 types of whipstocks:

Equation: 0.25**Figure: 0.19****Standard removal**

The Standard Removal whipstock can also be used for sidetracking. It consists of a long inverted steel marker which is used to hold and guide the drilling assembly. It is also used to prevent the bit from being pulled out of the hole during turning and a heavy collar at the nose to withdraw the tool from the hole. It will usually be held in place by a stabiliser, and withdrawn by means of a slip.

The whipstock is orientated. When the whipstock is then drilled, a "rat hole" or "rat hole" is drilled. This hole is then pulled out of the hole to open the rat hole. A rat hole is then tripped out and run in to "follow up" the initial deflecting hole. This whole procedure may have to be repeated several times in the hole.

It is obvious that the standard whipstock is the number of "rat holes" required. The whipstock provides a dogleg - which is a problem. The advantages are that it is relatively little equipment which requires

Text: 0.19**Text: 0.21****Figure: 0.22****Figure: 0.24****Figure: 0.23****Text: 0.19****Text: 0.21****Figure: 0.22****Figure: 0.20****Figure: 0.19****Figure: 0.20****Figure: 0.22****Figure: 0.20****Table: 0.17****Figure: 0.23****Figure: 0.22****Figure: 0.19**



Figure 5-25: Standard removable Whipstock.

Circulating Whipstock

The "Circulating Whipstock" is run, set and drilled like the standard whipstock. However, in this case the drilling mud initially flows through a passage to the bottom of the whipstock which permits more efficient cleaning of the bottom of the hole and ensures a clean seat for the tool. It is most efficient for washing out bottom hole fills.

Permanent Casing Whipstock

The "Permanent Casing Whipstock" (Figure 5-26) is designed to remain permanently in the well. It is usually run in the same manner as the standard whipstock. A side slot or "window" is to be cut in casing for a side port to be used in setting the whipstock. The whipstock is set using a Baker Model "D" Packer. A special stinger at the base of the whipstock slips into the packer assembly, and a Text: 0.16 anchor holds the whipstock in place during drilling.

The normal procedure is to run the whipstock and then set the packer. After this, the side port is cut and the whipstock is run in the well. The whipstock assembly run slot is then closed.

Table: 0.19 **Table: 0.16**

Table: 0.16

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.24, it is good practice to orientate the packer. This will ensure that a faster **Equation: 0.27** is achieved by minimising the shear modulus.

This assembly is now complete. A hole has been cut through the diamond plate and the rest of the window. Once the window is in place, the remaining holes can be drilled. The last step is to drill a hole at the bottom of the window. Finally, the bottom of the window. Finally, the bottom of the window. Finally,

In recent years, the need for Header: 0.16

Equation: 0.20

Table: Q.21

Figure 0.20

Table 1:

Header: 0/5

executive

Text: 0-19

Text: 0.21

Equation: 0.21

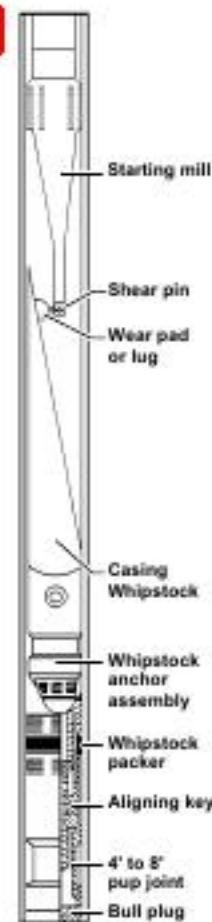


Figure 5-26: Permanent casing Whipstock.

Figure: 0.21

Chart: 0.19

Chart: 0.21

Figure: 0.17

Chart: 0.20

Chart: 0.18

Equation: 0.2

Chart: 0.18

Table: 0.17

Equation: 0.1

Equation: 0.1

Equation: 0.2

Jetting **Equation: 0.19**

Jetting (or hydrojetting) is a technique used to deviate wellbores in soft formations. It was developed in the mid 1950s and superseded the use of wireline tools.

Although jetting has been supplanted by downhole motor deflection as a primary technique, it is still used frequently and offers several advantages:

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.23 A special jet bit has one very large nozzle and two smaller ones.

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.19

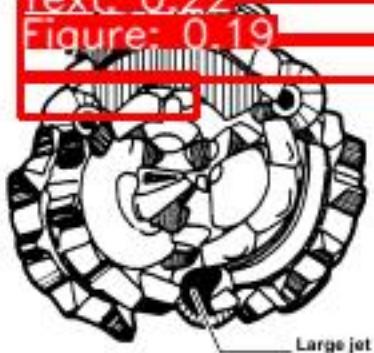


Figure 5-27: Bit set-up for jetting

Requirements for jetting

- The formations must be soft enough to be eroded by the mud exiting the large nozzle. As a rough rule of thumb, if formations cannot be drilled at penetration rates of greater than 80 ft/hr using normal drilling parameters, they are not suitable for jetting. Jetting is most effective in soft, sandy formations, and its effectiveness is reduced as depth increases, since the formations become more compacted.
- Adequate rig hydraulic horsepower must be available. For jetting to be successful there must be adequate hydraulic energy available at the bit to erode the formation. A rule of thumb for jetting is that mud velocity through the large jet should be at least 500 ft/sec.

Text: 0.20

jetting assembly

Equation: 0.28

A typical jetting assembly used to drill a 12 $\frac{1}{4}$ " pilot hole is:

- 1) 12 $\frac{1}{4}$ " bit
- 2) extension sub,
- 3) 12 $\frac{1}{4}$ " stabilizer
- 4) UBHO sub,
- 5) 3 x 8" Drill Collars,
- 6) 12-1/4" stabilizer
- 7) a Drill Collar
- 8) HWDP as required

This is essential assembly with a suitable bit for jetting. The stabilizers often omitted.

Nozzling the Jetting Assembly

There are three alternatives:

1. Use a standard nozzle in place of one of the stabilizers.
2. Fit on a nozzle which is drilled through the top.
3. Fit on a nozzle which is drilled through the bottom.

Text: 0.17

Flow through nozzles may be determined in large hole sizes (e.g. 17-1/2") because of the large weight of the jet.

Text: 0.20

near bit stabilizer. Both (A) and (B) are near bit stabilizers which are commonly jet drilled. (C) is the preferred method as it uses standard bits and nozzles and results in a bit dressed in such a way as to be suitable for both jetting and drilling.

Text: 0.18

A 12-1/4" bit dressed for jetting has a diameter of 26/32" or 28/32" at the nozzle.

Text: 0.21

Procedure for Jetting

The assembly weight is taken and the large jet nozzle (the "toothing") is fitted.

Text: 0.20

Maximum circulation is obtained in 12-1/4" holes and a controlled wash.

Text: 0.19

The drill string is lowered vertically, but not rotated, until several feet off bottom. The bit is then run and clear the stabilizers have been forced to the bottom. The string is then lowered 5 to 10 feet off bottom and then let it fall, catching it with the brake so that the string is held on bottom rather than the bit.

Text: 0.23

After the bit has been lowered to the bottom, the string is then lowered to the bottom again.

Text: 0.18

After the bit has been lowered to the bottom again, the string is then lowered to the bottom again.

Text: 0.26

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

effective movement right and left by about a few degrees (15°)

Having jettied, the build rate and now reduced drilling the next rotary speed to follow the hole difficult at first irregularly should

After approximately increased to High WOB and to the next survey point.

A survey is taken section should

At the start of angle has been drilling each tool face setting every single until about 3° of be re-orientated to the desired direction.

The principle of this, during the initial quenching and washing process, a pocket is produced. WOB is then

stabilizer with collars above This causes a pivot or fulcrum direction in which

is rotated, the bit and near bit

the low side of the hole.

the annulus which acts as a

as originally orientated).

Table: 0.17

Chart: 0.17

Table: 0.18

Table: 0.19

Equation: 0.23

Chart: 0.20

Table: 0.21

Footer: 0.15

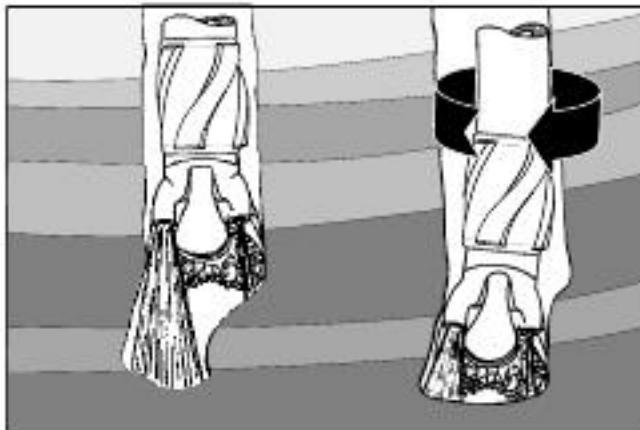


Figure 5-28: Jetting and drilling actions

Advantages of Jetting

- It is a simple and cheap method of deflecting well bores in soft formations. No special equipment is needed.
- Dogleg severity can be partly controlled from surface by varying the number of feet "jetted" each time.
- The survey tool is not far behind the bit, so survey depths are not much less than the corresponding bit depths.
- Orientation of tool face is fairly easy.
- The same assembly can be used for normal rotary drilling.

Disadvantages of Jetting

The technique only works in soft formation and therefore at shallow depths. For this reason, jetting is mainly used to kick wells off at shallow depths.

In jetting, high dogleg severities are often produced. Deviation is produced in a series of sudden changes, rather than a smooth continuous change. For this reason, it is normal practice to jet an undergauge hole and then open it out to full gauge, which smooths off the worst of the doglegs.

Equation: 9.23

The bent sub as well as down the motor a tendency to drill a curved path, provided there is no rotation of the drill string. The sub angle and the diameter

Figure 0.21 Text-0.22

Notice the air vents in the lower part of this assembly. Usually there are at least 90 feet above the base slab.

Figure 0.19 In fact, it is now believed the central idea is to be "shock" which if broken and bent only slightly can bring about a plastic fracture.

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.20

Figure 0.20

Figure: 0.22

Figure 3.22
Equation: 0.18

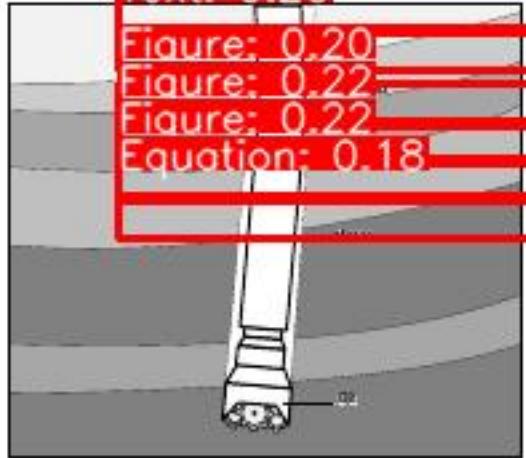


Figure 5-29: Downhole motor and bent sub assembly.

Text: 0.20

Reactive torque

Equation: 0.28

Reactive torque is created by the drilling fluid pushing against the stator.

Since the stator is fixed, the effect of this force is to twist the motor. As weight-on-bit is increased, the differential pressure increases, and reactive torque increases. In a very simplistic way, the reactive torque at the bit is the same as the reactive torque in the housing is the "twisting moment." The reactive torque on the motor is equal to the drilling torque.

Reactive torque is also created by the motor using a motor at the bottom of the BHA caused by a bent sub. If they are not aligned during surveys, the directional driller has to estimate how much turn to the left they will get due to reactive torque.

Figure: 0.24 set the tool face that number of degrees round so that the reactive torque will bring the well-bore back to orientation or the

Table: 0.17 tool face, so that the reactive torque will bring the well-bore back to orientation or the

Figure: 0.17 tool face that number of degrees round so that the reactive torque will bring the well-bore back to orientation or the

Text: 0.23 twisting becomes more critical at greater BHA angles.

When drilling is being done to keep the drilling parameters constant, reactive torque is critical at greater BHA angles.

Figure: 0.19 torque of downhole motors produce higher reactive torque.

Figure: 0.20 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to

Text: 0.19 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to the differential pressure.

- Motor torque
- Bit characteristics
- Formation
- Weight

Text: 0.20 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to the differential pressure.

Text: 0.22 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to the differential pressure.

Text: 0.20 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to the differential pressure.

Estimation of reactive torque is a problem for directional drillers. Several charts and rules of thumb have evolved. One is:

EXPECTED REACTIVE TORQUE = $(10^{\circ} + 20^{\circ} / 1000 \text{ ft M.D.})$

Text: 0.17 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to the differential pressure.

Text: 0.21 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to the differential pressure.

Text: 0.20 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to the differential pressure.

Text: 0.20 reactive torque will be in direct proportion to the differential pressure.

Pannier

Equation: 0.24

- The motor is connected and tested using standard procedures.

Before connecting the motor to the pump and base unit assembly, the bent pipe must be bent in the desired direction.

3. The pipe is worked until the best results are obtained by using movement. It is recommended that the bit be kept a minimum of 5 feet from the wall.

4. Make a reference table and take a survey orientation.

5. Turn the pipe to a new orientation. This should be done to accommodate reactive forces and differential pressure across the motor.

lower torque than motors (1/2 inch).

function of WOB and differential pressure across the motor.

6. When operating the pump, less the turn is less than 90° left of the vertical so that the turn remains relatively.

7. Lock the rotary unit.

PDMs vs Turbines with a B

For directional work with a turbines. When drilling with pressure as a weight differential pressure across constant. It is also much easier will be an immediate increase than turbines because of LCM whereas turbines with a small bend at the bit, a smaller angle of sub angle, while tripping in and out.

The only real
temperatures
Years ago, sl
PDMs, but th
turbine with

Table- 0.21 [What are elements at higher atomic number?](#)

Table 0.16

Table 0.18 Text 0.20^{ult}

ext. 020

Equation: Q

Equation: Q

Text: 0.17

Table: 0.24

Chart 019

Downhole Motor

Equation: 0.27

A downhole motor and bent sub combination will drill a smooth,

continuous curve.

other decisions

since there is no

"steering tool"

MWD system or

any other

One drawback of

face when drilling

steady tool face.

Equation: 0.20

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.26

Figure: 0.25

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

PDM with Kick-Off

An alternative to a PDM with a single bend in the universal joint housing is a "kick-off".

Drill and a bent housing by some other PDM manufacturers. Historically,

these "simply tilted" were used for difficult deviated jobs such as

sidetracking a horizontal wellbore into hard formation. Since the

bend is closer to the bit than when a bent sub is used, a smaller tilt angle

can be used but a larger motor tends to

Nowadays, single universal joint motors. If this

drill string is rotated, then a fairly

straight path is drilled if the face is oriented in a

desired direction.

drill a controlled

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Equation: 0.17

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Toolface

The "Toolface" of a deflection tool, or a steerable motor system, is the part (usually marked) of the tool which is oriented in a particular direction to move the wellbore. There are two ways of expressing toolface:

Magnetic or gyro toolface.

If the toolface is measured by a magnetic survey device, it is called magnetic toolface; whereas if it is measured by a gyroscopic survey device, it is called gyro toolface. To measure an angle between the vertical and the toolface, the inclination must be known.

High Side Toolface is the angle measured from the high side of the borehole to the vertical.

It must be pointed out that the above version of "toolface" is different from the magnetic or gyro toolface reading can be converted to a high side toolface reading using:

$$\text{High side toolface} = \text{mag/gyro toolface} - 90^\circ$$

A negative angle indicates a low side toolface, and a positive angle indicates a high side. The above formula is based on the fact that the high side direction is the same as the positive angle.

The following chart is applicable to deflection tools and steerable systems in mud motor, helical motor, and other sub assemblies in soft formations. It is also applicable to slick mud and borehole walls in hard formations. Figure 0.18 is also applicable to hard formations in which the borehole wall is relatively smooth.



It should be noted that the tool face should be positioned on the high side of the hole.

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.20

Hole Direction

(Tool Face)

Maximum Build

0°



Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.16

Rule of thumb for orientation of Tool Face (at low inclinations, less than 30°).

Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.22

Direction: 0.26 Rotary Assemblies

An important aspect of directional drilling is the BHA design which is to drill the planned wellbore. It will concentrate on the basic principles used in directional drilling with rotary assemblies, and the typical parameters (Figures 0.24 to 0.29).

Historically, the control of the direction of the wellbore has been limited to using well-stabilized assemblies to practice to get familiar with this right.

Side Force and Tilt

Directional tools are designed to control the direction of the resultant force at the bit. It has been shown that the angle between the bit axis and the hole axis is called the bit tilt angle. In rotary assemblies where there is a near bit stabilizer, the bit tilt angle is small causing the magnitude of side force at the bit to be very small.

Text: 0.36

Text: 0.26

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.24

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.20

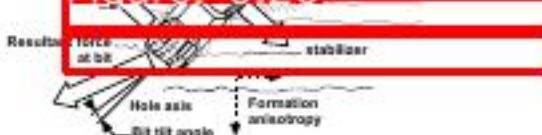


Figure 5-30: Forces acting at the bit which influence the direction of the borehole.

Factors Affecting

Equation: 0.29

Factors which can affect the directional behavior of rotary assemblies include:

Equation: 0.22**Text: 0.20**

- Gauge
- Diameter
- Weight
- Rotary speed
- Bit type
- Formation anisotropy
- Formation hardness
- Flow rate
- Rate of penetration

Many of these factors are interrelated.

Equation: 0.18**Figure: 0.20****Equation: 0.20****Text: 0.177****Equation: 0.15****Equation: 0.14****Text: 0.20****Figure: 0.17****Basic Directional Control Techniques**

- The Fulcrum Principle (reduce borehole inclination)
- The Stabilization Principle (reduce borehole angle and direction)
- The Pendulum Principle (mainly reduces angle)

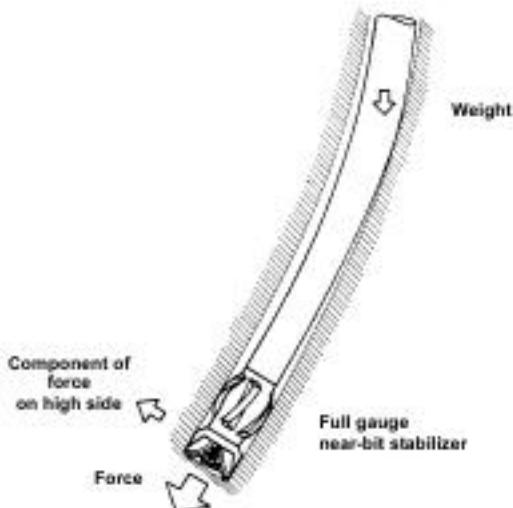
Chart: 0.23

Assemblies with a full near-bit stabilizer will follow a 40 to 120 degree arc of drill collar rotation. **Chart: 0.24** shows no string stabilizer at the bit.

Figure: 0.24

As illustrated in Figure 0.31, the collars above the near-bit stabilizer bend, partly due to the weight of the string. The near-bit stabilizer acts like a pivot point, pushing the bit to the high side. The bit increases down a path which is gradually curving to the left.

Equation: 0.22**Figure: 0.23****Figure: 0.20****Table: 0.21****Equation: 0.16****Chart: 0.16****Equation: 0.18****Equation: 0.20**



Equation: 0.20

Figure 5-34: Bu

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.20

The rate of build will be increased by the following:

- Increasing the distance from the near-bit stabilizer to the first string stabilizer
- Increase in hole inclination
- Reduction of drill collar diameter
- Increase in weight on bit
- Reduction in $\tan \theta$
- Reduction in $\sin \theta$ ($\theta = 0.5 \times \text{inclination}$)

Table: 0.21

The distance from the near-bit stabilizer to the first string stabilizer is the main design feature in a fulcrum assembly which will affect the build.

The build rate increases as this distance is increased, because a longer fulcrum section will

Figure: 0.22 fulcrum effect and the side force on high side.

Equation: 0.19 upper stabilizer is more than 120° leaning on

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.23

Equation: 0.23

hole size, collar hole and any further build rate.

The rate of build increases because there is a larger component of the collar weight causing them to bend. The mechanics involved are proportional to the actual response which built at a rate of $4^{\circ}/100' = 4^{\circ}/100'$.

Drill Collar Diameter: The fourth power of the drill collars used in the assembly increases their innocuousness and hence the rate of build according to build rate requirements. Usually, standard collar sizes for the given hole size are used.

Weight-on-Bit: Weight-on-bit behind the near-bit will increase the rate of build.

Rotary Speed: The higher the rotary speeds (70 - 100 rev/min), the less the tendency to 'straighten' the drill.

Flow Rate: Increasing the flow rate of fluid ahead of the bit which reduces the build tendency.

Equation: 0.28 the low side of the curve has no additional effect.

Equation: 0.22

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.20 the rate of build should increase in direct proportion to the strength of the assembly.

Figure: 0.22

Equation: 0.22 the rate of build was only 1.5 times greater than the original.

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.20 the rate of build increased due to the reduction in the OD of the drill.

Table: 0.21

Figure: 0.19 the rate of build increased as the number of collars increased.

Table: 0.22

Chart: 0.20 the rate of build will increase as the weight-on-bit increases.

Figure: 0.23 the rate of build will increase.

Text: 0.18 the rate of build will increase as the rotary speed increases.

Figure: 0.18 the rate of build will decrease as the rotary speed decreases.

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.22 the rate of build will decrease as the flow rate increases.

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

Workbook

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5-55

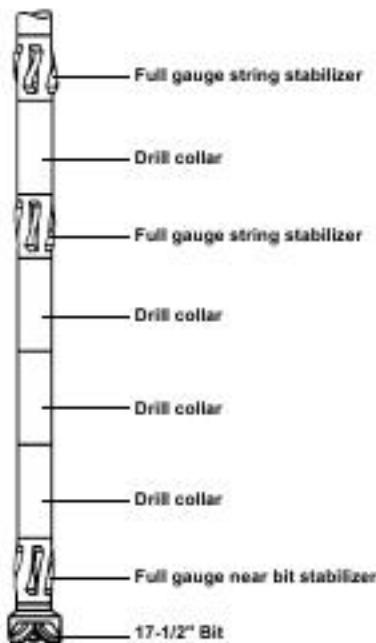


Figure 5-32: 90 ft Build Assembly

17 $\frac{1}{2}$ " bit / 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ " NB stab 3 x 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 30" DCs / 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ " stab / 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 30" DCs
as needed / etc. This assembly will build angle rapidly, typically at
2.0° - 3.5°/100', depending on the inclination and the drilling parameters.

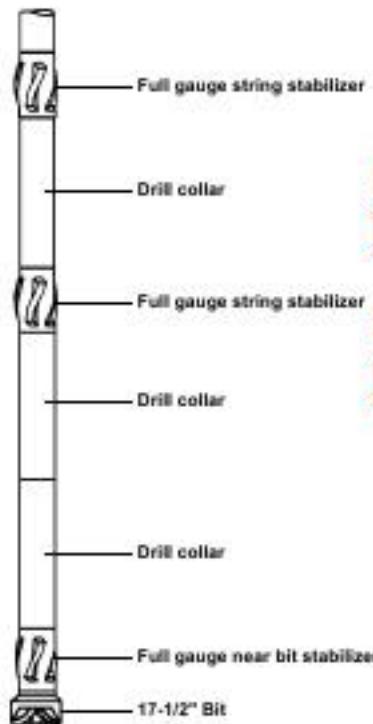


Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.20

Figure 5-33: 60 ft Build Assembly
17-1/2" bit / 17-1/2" NB stab 2 x 9-1/2" x 30° DCs / 17-1/2" stab / 9-1/2" x 30° DCs
as needed / etc. This assembly will build angle at the rate of 1.5° - 2.5°/100',
depending on the inclination and the drilling parameters

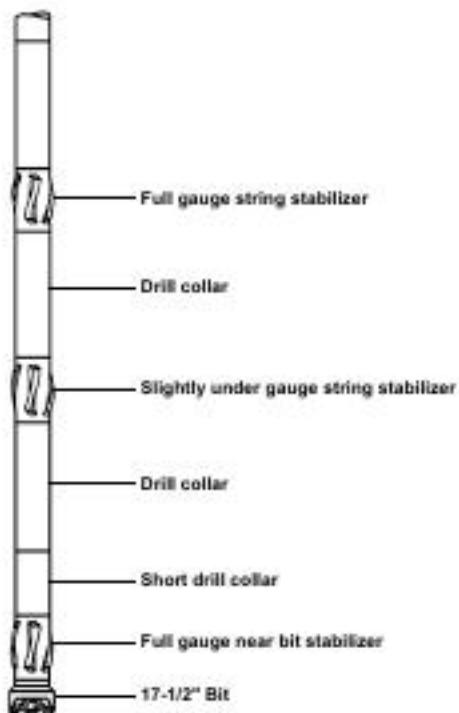
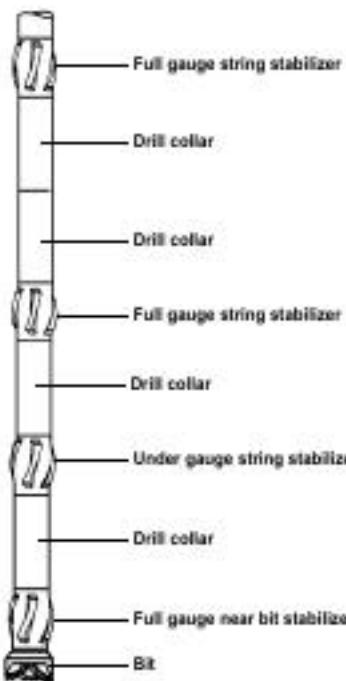


Figure 5-34: Gradual Angle Build Assembly
 17½" bit / 17½" NB stab / 9½" x 12' DC / 9½" x 30' DC / 17½" stab / 9½" x 30' DCs
 as needed / etc. This assembly will build typically at 0.5° - 1.5°/100',
 depending on the inclination and the drilling parameters



Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Figure 5-35: Gradual Angle Build Assembly
 $12\frac{1}{4}''$ bit / $12\frac{1}{4}''$ NB stab / $8'' \times 30''$ DC / $12\frac{1}{4}''$ stab / $8'' \times 30''$ DC
 as needed / etc. This assembly would be used in the tangent
 section when it was necessary to build angle gradually.
 It would build typically at $0.5^\circ - 1.0^\circ/100'$

The Stabilization (Packed Hole) Principle

This principle states that if there are three stabilizers in quick succession behind the bit separated by short, stiff drill collar sections, then the three stabilizers will resist going around a curve and force the bit to drill a

Equation: 0.21

reasonably straight path. The first of the three stabilizers should be immediately behind the bit (a near-bit stabilizer) and should be full gauge.

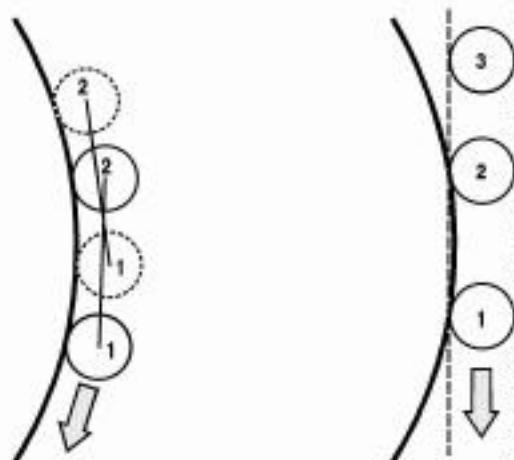


Figure 5-36: Packed Hole (Stabilization) principle

Assemblies which utilize this principle are called packed hole assemblies and are used to drill the tangent sections of directional wells, maintaining angle and direction. High rotary speed (120-160+) will assist the tendency to drill straight.

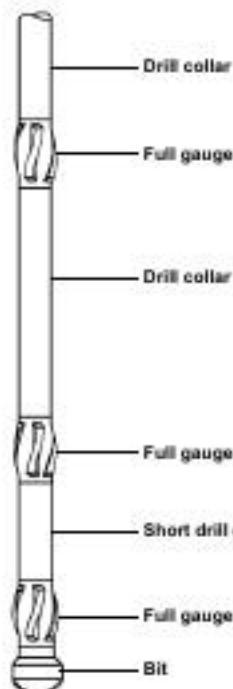
**Figure: 0.16****Figure: 0.15****Equation: 0.18****Figure: 0.15**

Figure 5-37: Rate equals $0.1^{\circ} - 0.5^{\circ}/100'$ depending on various factors such as formation characteristics, WOB, RPM, bit type, etc.

Text: 0.17**Figure: 0.16****Equation: 0.18**

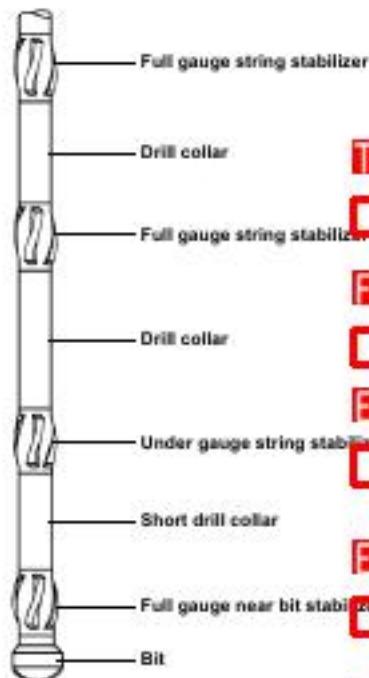
**Table: 0.18****Figure: 0.22****Equation: 0.16****Equation: 0.19****Equation: 0.20**

Figure 5-38: This assembly should hold angle depending on the exact gauge of the first string stabilizer.

Equation: 0.22**Figure: 0.18****Chart: 0.19**

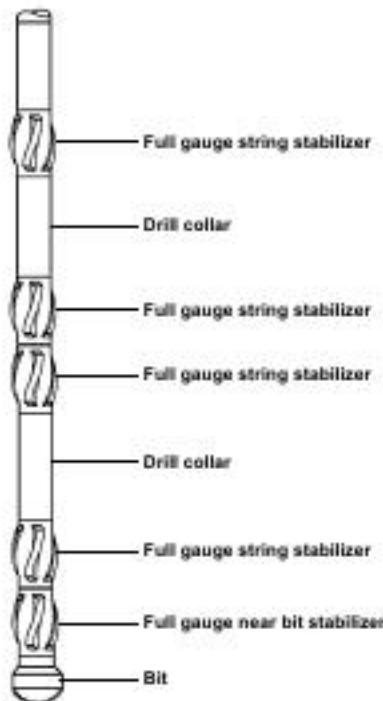


Figure 5-39: The tandem stabilizers make this assembly very rigid.

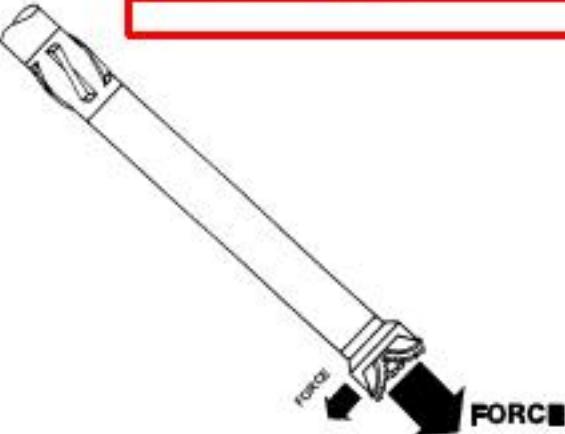
In the past it was more common to use tandem stabilizers to control the bit walk of roller cone bits. Presently, its use is limited to areas where extreme bit walk is common. Rotation of an assembly such as this will generate high rotary torque.

Generally, as the number of stabilizers in the BHA increases, so does the possibility of hole sticking.

The Pendulum

Equation: 0.24

This was the first directional control principle to be formulated and was originally applied to straight holes. We shall concentrate on **Equation: 0.27** inclined wells.

Equation: 0.24**Figure: 0.20****Figure 5-40: The pendulum principle.**

The portion of the BHA from the bit to the first string stabilizer hangs like a pendulum and, because of its own weight, presses the bit towards the low side of the hole. The major design feature of a pendulum assembly is that there is either no near-bit stabilizer or an undergauge near-bit stabilizer. In most cases where a pendulum assembly is used, the main factor causing deviation is the force at the bit acting on the low side of the hole. The length of collars from the bit to the first string stabilizer (the "pendulum") must not be allowed to bend too much towards the low side of the hole.

If the collars make contact with low-side as shown in the Figure 5-41, then the effective length of the pendulum is reduced. This situation is also undesirable because the bit axis has been tilted upwards in relation to the hole axis which will reduce the dropping tendency.

Careful selection of the **Figure: 0.22** required to prevent this. High rotary speed

Figure: 0.22**Figure: 0.23****Text: 0.18****Text: 0.19****Equation: 0.22****Equation: 0.17**

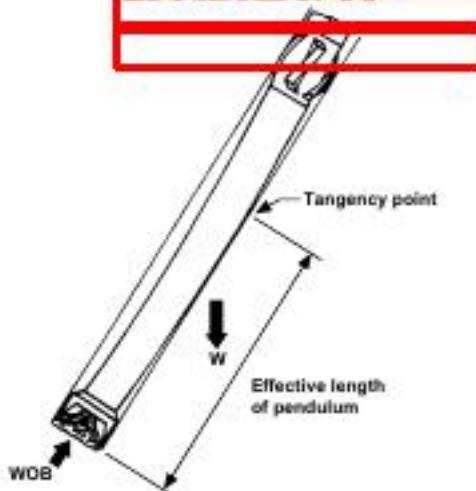
above situation bending the pendulum trend has been established to achieve a respectable pen-

$$\text{Equation: 0.27}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.20



$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

Figure 5-41: Reduction of pendulum force due to wall contact.

Some elementary texts on directional drilling depict the pendulum effect shown in Figure 5-42. The implication being that part of the down傾ing tendency is produced by a downward tilt of the bit axis. It is interesting to note that if this picture were true, the tendency would be increased by increasing WOB and reducing rotary speed, the precise opposite of what is recommended.

Figure 5-42 is possible for certain lengths of pendulum when there is no near-bit stabilizer and only one string stabilizer. The collars above the upper stabilizer will sag towards the low side of the hole causing a fulcrum effect about the upper stabilizer, causing the upper portion of the pendulum towards the high side of the hole. Experience has shown instances of pendulum assemblies dropping faster with high WOB and low rotary speed.

$$\text{Equation: 0.15}$$

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.21



Figure 5-42: One possible interpretation of the pendulum effect.

It must be emphasized, however, that this is not what would normally occur. The gauge of the bit is effectively a point of support, so that most pendulum assemblies, especially longer pendulums, the pendulum section is most likely to bend towards the low side of the hole.

Summary and Recommended Practices.

- The safest approach to designing and using a pendulum assembly is to concentrate on producing a side force at the bit on the low side of the hole. This is achieved by running an assembly where the pendulum portion is as long as possible. It is also desirable that the section immediately above the first string stabilizer be stiff and straight and that a second string stabilizer be within 30 feet of the first.
- Omit the stabilizers if smooth control is not a concern or when drilling with a roller cone bit, use Figure: 0.21
Figure: 0.19

an under-gauge no consideration. Typically, a 2" undergauge in a

$$\text{Equation: 0.26}$$

assembly may only be 1/4" to 1/2" away.

- The assembly should be run with the stabilizer no more than 20 feet above the bit.
- Initially use low rotary speeds until the pendulum line is established, then gradually increase speed until the desired penetration rate is achieved.
- Use high rotary speeds to penetrate the formation.
- If possible, do not penetrate the formation.

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.20

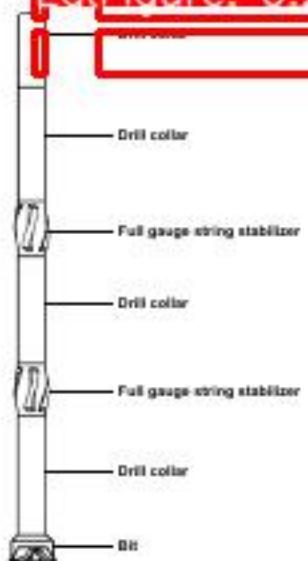
Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.22



$$\text{Equation: 0.18}$$

| |
|--------------------|
| Table: 0.18 |
| |

$$\text{Figure: 0.23}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.23}$$

Figure 5-43: 30 foot Pendulum Assembly.
The rate of drop depends on the wellbore inclination and the diameter and weight of the bottom drill collar, as well as the drilling parameters. At 45° inclination, this assembly would typically drop at 1.5° - 2.0°/100'.

$$\text{Equation: 0.21}$$

Text: 0.16

Figure: 0.17

Directions: Drilling

Drilling Engineering

Figure

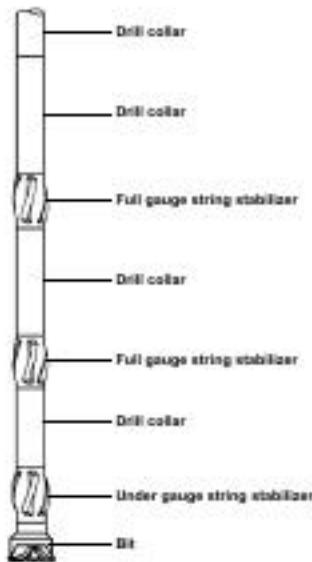


Figure 5-44: 30 foot Pendulum Assembly
with under-gauge near bit stabilizer. This will give a slightly lower
rate of drop than the previous BHA, but should reduce bit walk
and thereby give better azimuth control.

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

Figure

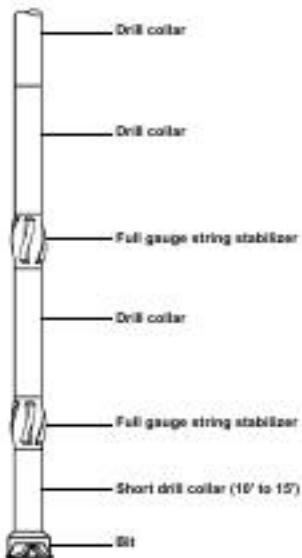
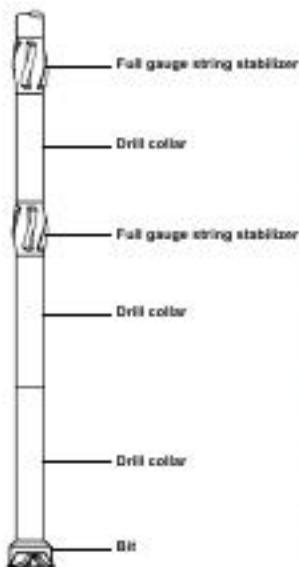


Figure 5-45: Gradual Angle Drop Assembly.
This short pendulum hook-up would give a more gradual drop rate approximately $1^{\circ}/100'$ depending on inclination, etc.

Equation: 0.18
Figure: 0.23

**Text: 0.19****Table: 0.19****Chart: 0.23****Text: 0.20****Table: 0.17**

Bit Type Effects on Rotary Assemblies

Roller Cone Bits

Text: 0.19

When rotary drilling with roller cone bits, the type of bit makes very little difference to whether an assembly builds, holds or loses angle. Mainly because directional control is determined by the configuration of stabilizers and collars and by varying the $\Delta\theta$.

Equation: 0.23

However, the bit type does have an influence on walk rates.

Conventional roller cone bits are used in normal rotary drilling.

Generally, they are considered to be the best choice for most applications.

give a good description of the bit types.

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.22

formation. This cut the rock by a

Equation: 0.28 larger cone offset and

Equation: 0.22

PDC Bits

During **Text: 0.21** common practice to use PDC bits, or rotary drilling, with low WOB and high rotary speeds. When rotary drilling with PDC bit, it has hold the **Text: 0.16** (the assemblies affected by PDC

The gauge length of a rotary assembly is greater than that of a tri-cone bit. On the other hand, a longer gauge stabilizes the bit, which tends to reduce the rate of build. The low WOB typical of PDC bit assemblies, long gauge length and direction due to

When used with previously obtained length, the lower similar to a full gauge. It can be used effectively in a rotary penta-bit. Most PDC bit ap-

Figure: 0.22 at inclination angle is

Text: 0.19

Table: 0.19

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Chart: 0.17

Equation: 0.16

Table: 0.19

Text: 0.17

Table: 0.23

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.17

Stiffness of drill collar

The behavior of pendulum assembly collars used in the

It is generally accepted that the modulus of elasticity of the

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.22

Table: 0.28

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.19

Chart: 0.20

Figure: 0.21

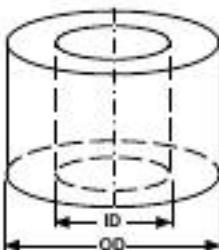


Figure 5-47: Collar strength determination

A collar's axial moment of inertia I_z is determined by:

$$I = (\pi \sqrt{64}) \times (OD^4 - ID^4)$$

The weight per unit length, W , is calculated from:

$$W = (\pi \sqrt{4}) \times OD^2 - \text{Equation: 0-20}$$

where θ is the **Figure: 9-19**

Notice that the collar weight is proportional to the outside diameter, while the collar weight is proportional to the **Figure:** outside diameter. **Figure: 0.18** set an collar weight.

Table 5-7: Relative abundance of elements in the Sun

| Collar OD (in) | Memory Dimension | Memory Capacity |
|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 4.75 | Text: 0.20 | 100 |
| 6.5 | Text: 0.17 | 160 |
| 8.0 | Equation: 0.16 | 160 |
| 9.5 | Chart: 0.19 | 160 |

For example the moment of inertia of a 9-1/2" collar is double that of an 8"

Equation: 0.18

The component of weight unit length resulting in bend the stiff collar and contributing to the bending moment is

Figure 11-12: Schematic Diagram of the W-W' Chart

where $W =$ weight in lb/foot of the drill collar in air.

BE = busy Equation: 0

BR - Subya Education
- indication of the well-being

Equation: C

5-72

For example, if the density was 10 ppg
then the value of W_x for 8-inch drill collars would be:

$$W_x = 160 \times 0.847 \times \sin 50^\circ$$

$$W_x = 160 \times 0.847 \times 0.766$$

(Buoyancy factor for 10 ppg)

The following table gives the modulus of elasticity for various metals which can be used to manufacture drill collars.

Table 5-8: Modulus of Elasticity and density of Various Metals

| Metal | Modulus of Elasticity (10^6 psi) | Density (lb/ ft^3) |
|--------------------|--|---------------------------------|
| Steel (low carbon) | 29.0 | 491 |
| Stainless Steel | 28.0 | 501 |
| K Monel | 26.0 | 529 |
| Aluminum | 10.6 | 170 |
| Tungsten | 51.5 | 1205 |

The thing to notice is that most types of steel and monel which are actually used in drill collars have about the same modulus of elasticity and density. So in practice the stiffness of a drill collar depends almost entirely on its outside diameter and is proportional to the fourth power of the OD. However, aluminum drill collars would be more limber than steel drill collars of the same dimensions whereas tungsten collars would be much stiffer.

In general, it is recommended that standard drill collar diameters should be used for each hole size.

Effects of Drill Collar O.D.

When using a fulcrum (build) assembly, reducing the collar OD will dramatically increase the build tendency, because the collars will be more limber and will bend more. Another factor is the clearance between the outside of the drill collars and the wall of the hole. The greater the clearance, the more the collars can bend before they contact the low side of the hole. Once the collars contact the low side of the hole, further increases in WOB will have only a marginal effect on build rate by moving the contact point down the hole.

When using a packed assembly, reducing collar OD may give a slight build tendency because the collars can bend more.

When swinging the bit, it is important to keep the pendulum as stiff as possible. Reducing control forces towards the bottom of the pendulum will increase the rate of penetration and the rate of bottom collar wear.

Equation: 0.25 the pendulum portion becomes stiffer as the diameter of the bottom collar increases.

Equation: 0.27 the collars will bend more as the pendulum offset increases.

Equation: 0.25 the pendulum offset reduces the weight of the bottom collar and the time to trip.

Equation: 0.18 the pendulum offset and the time to trip.

Equation: 0.17

Formation Effects

Text: 0.16

The nature and hardness of the rock being drilled can have a pronounced effect on the rate of penetration.

Text: 0.19 may be exaggerated. A main point is whether the rock is isotropic or anisotropic, which has the same properties in all directions.

behaves in the

Figure: 0.18 direction. Most sandstones are isotropic, but some are not.

Figure: 0.20

Most oilfield

Figure: 0.20 rocks, due to the nature of their deposition.

Figure: 0.22

most sedimentary rocks are dipping (tilted) at a

Text: 0.17 degree of anisotropy. Drilling into formations where the dip is greater than the angle of friction means that the drill bit is forced towards a preferential direction.

Table: 0.19

The trends are

Text: 0.23 especially in formations with pronounced structure.

A number of theories have been proposed over the years to explain the

Text: 0.18 theory.

Lubinski and others developed a model which related an index of the rock strength to the size of the grain.

Text: 0.22 ability model which related an index of the rock strength to the size of the grain.

Figure: 0.22

Another theory suggests that the rock will fracture when the grain size is smaller than a certain value.

Text: 0.23 formation classes which could be used as a guide in selecting the appropriate bit size or weight per unit length.

Text: 0.23

Another theory suggests that the rock will fracture when the grain size is smaller than a certain value.

Text: 0.19 the hard layer will not allow the bit to drill into the dip.

Text: 0.21

Another explanation, by Amore and others, is that of

Figure: 0.19 preferential planes of failure. As the bit moves through the rock, it creates a compressive stress area around the bit teeth.

Figure: 0.21

it impacts the rock at a single tooth. It impacts the rock at a single tooth.

Text: 0.21 it creates a compressive stress area around the bit teeth.

Figure: 0.19

it creates a compressive stress area around the bit teeth.

Text: 0.25 When the bit is drilling an anisotropic rock, it will cut rapidly on one side of the bit and slowly on the other.

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.22 the bit teeth.

Table: 0.21

the bit teeth.

Equation: 0.19 Baker Hughes INTEQ

Table: 0.24

the bit teeth.

Table: 0.18

the bit teeth.

Using Figure 5-48 as an example, the forces between the bit tooth and the rock will be greater on the right side of the tooth. Therefore, there will be a resultant force on the bit acting to the left. This is F_d , the deviation force. It follows that the deviation force will depend on the angle of dip.

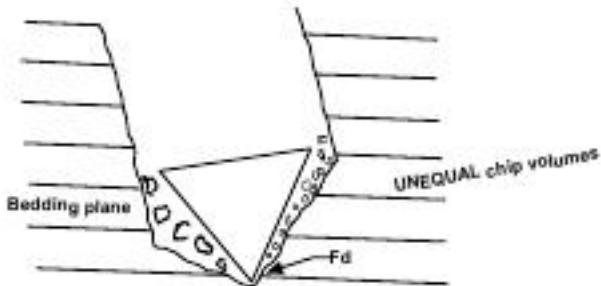


Figure 5-48: Generation of drill cuttings in a directional well

Relationship Between Dip Angle and Deviation Force.

Based on the preferential chip formation theory, the graph shown below has been derived from experimental work.

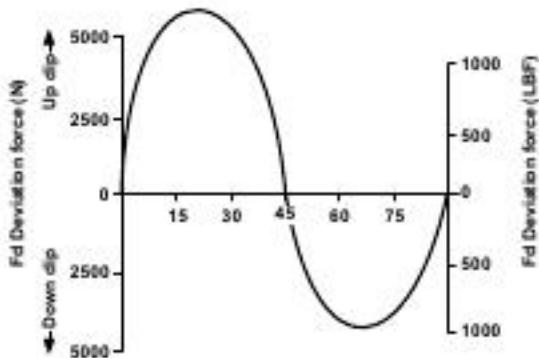


Figure 5-49: Maximum deviation force as a function of formation dip.

The effective dip angle is the angle at which the bit strikes the bedding plane. The graph predicts that when the effective dip angle is less than 45° ,

Figure: 0.20

Directions: Drilling

Drilling Engineering

the direction
is greater than

Equation: 0.23 When the effective dip angle
force is down-dip.

The meaning of up-dip and down-dip is illustrated in Figure 5-50. In
practice, it has been observed at c

Equation: 0.23 Up-dip tendency is
Text: 0.16

Footer: 0.17

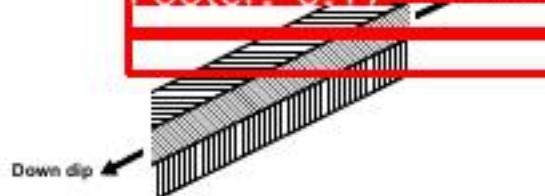


Figure 5-50: Up-dip versus down-dip.

The unwanted deviation in vertical wells has borne out the predictions of the graph shown in Figure 5-50. Drilling through alternately hard and soft formations with a steel-jointed, stabilized bit and weights high enough to cause collar flexure, usually results in a course perpendicular to the bedding planes.

Figure 5-51 illustrates the tendency of the bit to deviate in the up-dip direction when the formation

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Other: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.15

Text: 0.16

Figure 5-51: At low dip angles, deviation tendency is up-dip.

The formation attitudes will have a similar effect on directional tendencies. For dip angles less than 45° , if the direction is up-dip, the bit will tend to maintain direction, but build angle. If the borehole direction is left of up-dip, the bit may tend to walk to the right; whereas if the direction is right of up-dip the bit tends to walk to the left. These are just special cases of the up-dip tendency.

Text: 0.20

When the formation dip angle is greater than 60° , the usual tendency of the bit is to drill parallel to the bedding plane or down-dip.

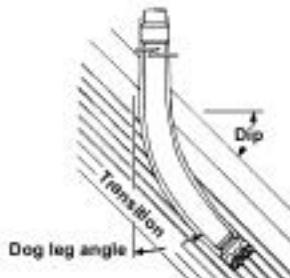


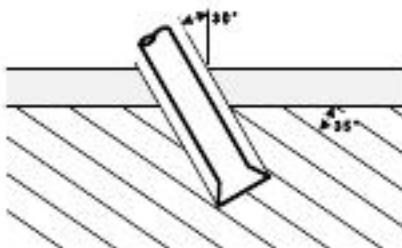
Figure 5-52: At high dip angles, deviation tendency is down-dip.

In cases where the dip angle is greater than 60° , if the hole direction is right of down-dip direction then the bit tends to walk to the left. If the hole direction is left of down-dip direction, the bit tends to walk to the right. Again, these are simply special cases of the down-dip tendency.

There will be no deflection of the bit caused by the formation at 0° or 90° dip. This is because the bit is cutting into a structure that is essentially uniform and is constantly cutting into the same layers at the same time or constantly drilling between layers.

Effective Dip Angle in a Deviated Hole

In a directional well, the effective dip angle is the angle at which the bit strikes the bedding planes.



**Figure 5-53: Hole inclination = 30° ;
Real dip angle = 35° ; Effective dip angle = $30^{\circ} + 35^{\circ} = 65^{\circ}$;
There will be a down-dip deviation force.**

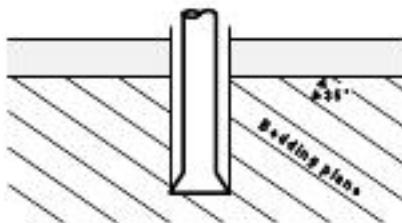


Figure 5-54: Hole inclination = 0°;
Effective angle of dip equals real dip angle (35°);
There will be an up-dip deviation force.

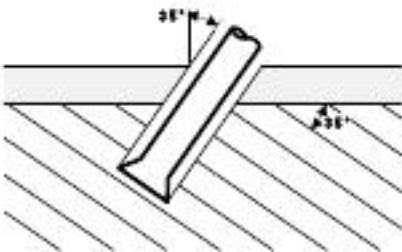


Figure 5-55: Hole inclination = 35°;
Real dip angle = 35°; Effective dip angle = 0;
There will be no deviation force.

Formation Hardness

The preceding discussion has concentrated on the effects of rock anisotropy and changes in hardness between layers. There are a few general points concerning the effect of rock hardness on directional behavior which should be mentioned.

In very soft formations, the formation can be eroded by the drilling fluid exiting from the bit nozzles, creating an overgauge hole. This can make it hard to build angle, even with a strong build assembly. If this problem is anticipated then fairly large nozzles should be fitted into the bit. If it occurs while drilling, the pump rate should be reduced and prior to making each connection, increase the flow rate to clean the hole with the bit one joint off bottom. Hole washing or enlargement in soft formations may also cause packed assemblies to give a dropping tendency at high inclinations.

This can be counteracted by anticipated before assembly.

BHAs tend to respond differently to different directional behavior in harder formations. This is mainly because the rock is more likely to be in gauge. In medium to hard formations, the bit is more responsive as maximum bit weight is increased. The main directional response is from the pendulum assembly. In soft formations, the lateral force is more likely to be in gauge. This may also be a conflict between the bit and the pendulum assembly. The trend established is that as the bit weight increases, the penetration rate decreases. In hard formations, the use of large bits is recommended.

Summary of Formation Properties

It should be emphasized that formation properties have a minimal effect on directional response.

In soft to medium formations, the rock properties have little influence on directional response.

In medium to hard formations, the rock properties have an appreciable degree of influence on directional response. This is significantly affected by formation attitude and in particular by the effective dip angle of the bedding planes. If the effective dip angle is greater than 45°, the bit tends to drill up-dip. When the effective dip angle is less than 45°, the bit tends to drill down-dip. When the effective dip angle is approximately 0°, there is no tendency to deviate.

Unwanted deviation can be reduced by packer placement. The use of gauge near-bit stabilizers definitely reduces bit roll. In cases where siltstone formations often have been observed or predicted, the BHA design should be suitably modified.

Equation: 0.28

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Equation: 0.21

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Text: 0.18

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Header: 0.19

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Figure: 0.18

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Text: 0.24

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Equation: 0.21

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Equation: 0.20

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Text: 0.20

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Figure: 0.21

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Figure: 0.22

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Text: 0.19

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Figure: 0.23

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Figure: 0.20

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Table: 0.20

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Equation: 0.19

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Table: 0.23

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Figure: 0.24

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Table: 0.16

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Figure: 0.19

Reducing flow rate. If

the flow rate is too high, it will be run a mild build

rate to maintain the build.

Navigation Items

Most conventional directional drilling operations will require extra trips to change the BHA. However, bit performance can be reduced by the use of certain techniques.

Several methods exist for directional drilling using the axis of the bit. One method is to rotate the bit with respect to the axis of the tool to create a side force at the surface, the bit being rotated by the motor, is rotated at the surface, the bit is not rotated by the orientation of the motor.

Most steerable bits currently used are based on a positive displacement principle. In this case, the majority of directional drilling companies use a single bend camber on the G-joint housing. Nowadays this single bend is typically adjustable on the rig floor, enabling the tilt angle to be varied between zero and some maximum.

There are also bits which have no bend.

Advantages of Positive Displacement Bits

- Eliminate the need for costly changes, saving rig time
- More control over the bit's orientation
- Wells are drilled more accurately than at all times
- Smaller directional targets can be hit

Steerable Turbine Bits

Steerable turbine bits use a different method by having an eccentric (or offset) camber built into the bearing section (in the bottom end) of the turbine body, units close to the bit. The three blade version shown below is the most common, a four blade version exists and is used if a larger bit is required.

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.18

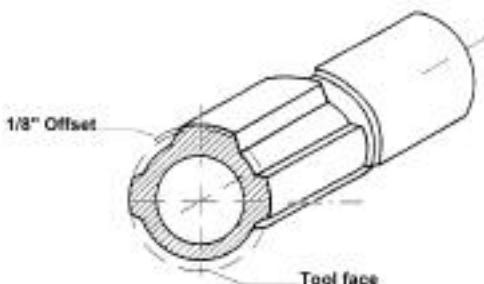


Figure 5-56: Three blade steerable turbine

As illustrated in Figure 5-56, one blade is larger in surface area and is offset by 1/8-inch. When the drill string is rotated, the offset stabilizer has no effect on the well path. When it is desired to deflect the well path, the toolface (the point opposite the center of the offset blade) is orientated using an MWD tool. Drilling continues with no rotation from surface and the turbine drills a curved path.

Steerable turbines have been used to perform various types of deflections including kick-offs. Their most successful applications have been tangent section drilling and performing correction runs as required to keep the well on course.

The DTU Navigation Drilling System

This drilling system consists of the following:

- Suitable drill bit
- Navi-Drill motor with a bearing housing stabilizer and DTU
- Underguide string stabilizer just above the motor
- Survey system (usually MWD)

Modes of Operation

The capability to drill either oriented or rotary with the same tool is made possible by incorporating a Double-Tilted U-joint housing (DTU) and a longer U-joint assembly on a standard Mach 1 or Mach 2 PDM. The DTU creates a small tilt much closer to the bit than a conventional bent sub assembly, producing a lower bit offset.

Bit tilt and offset changes can be performed.

The low bit tilt and offset produced by the sub, means the string can be rotated when the bit is tilted. This negates the horizontal component of the inclination.

Equation: 0.24

(or inclination) changes to

Equation: 0.26

DTU Basic Components

- By using Vane with box connection

Text: 0.20 Action Mach 1 or 2

Double vane 0.175 in diameter

Text: 0.17

Upper housing Standard with end cap (UBHS)

Text: 0.19

- Drive sub

Only the DTU housing components will be new, all other components are standard Navi-Drill parts. Navi-Drill performs the same function as the DTU, but is controlled by the addition of these components. The Navi-Drill system is shown in Figure 5-5.

Text: 0.22**Figure: 0.18****Text: 0.19****Table: 0.18****Text: 0.18****Table: 0.18**

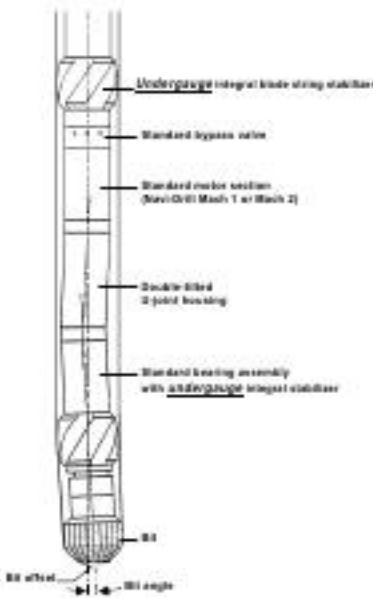


Figure 5-57: DTU Configuration

The double tilted universal joint housing:

- Replaces the straight universal joint housing on a standard Navi-Drill. The universal joint is slightly longer than the straight housing and universal joint.
- Is available in various tilt angles and identified by the t_{tilt} , which is the mathematical resultant angle computed from the two opposing tilt angles.
- Produces a desired bit tilt angle while reducing actual bit offset.
- Allows for extended rotation of the motor with a low ~~overrun torque~~ as compared to conventional universal joint housing. ~~Because of the reduced rotation of the drill string, negative bit angles can be achieved theoretically~~
- Is available in various sizes ranging from 10° to $11-1/4^{\circ}$.

With the exceptions of the 8" and the 9-1/2" tools, each diameter has three standard tilt angles designed to provide approximately 2°, 3° and 4° per hundred feet theoretical dogleg rates when configured with a Mach 2 motor. TGDS is theoretically higher when using the shorter Mach 1.

As illustrated in Figure 5-58, the concept behind the double tilt is that by having the two tilts in the same plane but opposed (at 180°) to each other, the bit offset is minimized. Bit offset is the distance from the center of the bit to the axis of the motor section (extrapolated down to the bit).

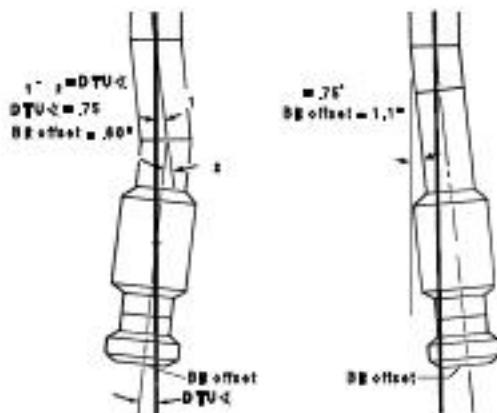


Figure 5-58: DTU and Bit Offset

A stabilizer can be mounted on the upper bearing housing. This stabilizer:

- Is used to centralize the motor and bit in the center of the hole.
- Is usually manufactured as an integral part of the housing and is referred to as the UBHS 9-1/2" and 11-1/4". Motors are available with either integral or sleeve type stabilizer UBHS.
- Is always undergauge.
- Has a special design to reduce drag between the blade and the wellbore, allowing sliding when the motor is drilling in the oriented mode.

The design of the UBHS includes:

- A double taper or watermelon-shape profile with rounded edges to reduce stabilizer hangup and drag.

- Blade orientation: **Equation: 0.22**
ploashing action by the oriented mode.
- Blade wraps varying from straight ribbed to a maximum of 30° to reduce contact pressure. **Figure: 0.20**
- Gauge lengths vary in length being less than or equal to bit gauge length. **Text: 0.17**
- Three blades at 1/2" hole sizes, or four blades at 5/8-in. **Chart: 0.17**
- UBHS with 5 straight blades are now the preferred design. **Text: 0.18**

Theoretical geometric dogleg

This angle is defined by three points on a drilled arc:

1. The bit tip. **Text: 0.22**
2. The upper stabilizer or Upper Bearing Housing Stabilizer. **Figure: 0.23**
3. The Dogleg Saver. **Figure: 0.20**

TGDS = $\frac{L}{R}$ (where L = length between the two points)

Tilt angle = Bit tilt in **Equation: 0.17**

L = length between the two points **Text: 0.21**

Note: The above formula is based on a system which contains full gauge string. **Equation: 0.18**

Dogleg Severity is based on a system which contains full gauge string. **Text: 0.19**)



Text: 0.19

Table: 0.23

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.17

- Rig floor unit
Equation: 0.21
- Standard Mach 1 or Mach 2 motor section
Text: Equation: 0.22
- Standard bypass valve
Text: Figure: 0.18
- String stabilizer (optional)
Figure: 0.21

Dogleg Capabilities

The dogleg capability for the AKO is variable and is a function of the adjustable U-joint housing. The range of AKO dogleg capabilities for both oriented-only and steerable (mixed mode) operation, are detailed in the NaviDrill Operations handbook.

Text: 0.21

Using lower DLS, the AKO can be rotated and used as a

Table: 0.22 steerable motor.

Table: 0.16

The AKO motor has three configurations:

Figure: 0.16

- partially stabilized system with bearing housing and top stabilizer

- fully stabilized system with bearing housing and top stabilizer

- slick system where a wear protection hard-

- banding ring is used to support the

- tool inside the hole.

Text: 0.18 Maximum allowable dogleg angle for the AKO sub may be limited

when contact of the U-joint housing with the wellbore wall exceeds mechanical

limitations. This is referred to as the "Intended Maximum Angle".

Table: 0.17 Intended Maximum Angle

Text: 0.17 The NaviDrill AKO is designed for directional drilling applications in 3-3/4",

4-3/4", 6-3/4", 8-1/2", 10-3/4", 12-1/4", 13-3/8", 15-5/8", 17-1/2", and

26". Mechanical characteristics for the AKO are identical to those for

Text: 0.19 the AKO sub.

Text: 0.19

Tilt Angle

The proper tilt angle technique is usually

dependent upon the characteristics of the well

plan.

When kicking off, a higher rate of change is recommended. The

severity in the oriented mode than the rate of change specified in the well

plan.

Figure: 0.19 By getting high rates of change, the directional driller

can "get ahead" of the requirements and begin utilizing the

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

practice of directional drilling of footage drilled.

Typically, the oriented mode should theoretically reduce dogleg severity. However, it must be kept in mind that the tool face orientation in high torque orientation, the

- When a tool with a higher dogleg capability can increase drilling requirements.
- When the tool may be more difficult to use, especially in high torque orientation, the anticipated

First String Stabilizer

It is normal practice to run the stabilizer directly above the motor or with a positive set-back.

Reasons for doing this:

- It defines the three-dimensional response of the assembly.
- It produces a predictable three-dimensional response.
- It provides a better kick-off.

Placement

The stabilizer is normally run directly above the motor. According to the 3-point theory, moving the stabilizer high increases the Theoretical Geometric Dogleg Severity. This

does not always work in practice. It has been found that moving the stabilizer high does not necessarily increase the TD.

In fact, some improvements have been achieved, the rate of build is often increased by increasing "L" without increasing "T" as the theory predicts.

Size and Design

The diameter of the first string stabilizers must not be greater than the diameter of the BHA. It should have preferably the same physical design as the UBHs.

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.26

Figure: 0.18

First string stabilizer

Equation: 0.21

If the first string stabilizer diameter is decreased to less than the UBHS and an upward toolface orientation is present, then the oriented dogleg rate is increased. This is shown in Figure 5-59.

**Equation: 0.20****Figure: 0.22****Figure: 0.25****Figure 5-59: Upward Toolface**

If the first string stabilizer diameter is decreased to less than the UBHS and a downward toolface orientation is present, then the oriented dogleg rate is reduced.

**Figure 5-60: Downward Toolface**

In either of the above cases, the more undergauge the first string stabilizer, the greater the effect. The same basic effect is seen with both the AKO and the DTU steerable systems.

First string stabilizer size - rotary mode

Field results have shown that an undergauge first string stabilizer is required to produce a holding tendency when NDS is run in the rotary mode. The requirements for the first string stabilizer gauge diameter will be a function of formation trends and hole inclination.

The following table can be used as a general guideline for determining the required diameter for the first string stabilizer so that inclination is maintained.

Table 5-9: Required Diameter for First String Stabilizer

| Hole Size (in) | First String Stabilizer Gauge (in) |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 8 1/2 | 8 - 8 1/4 |
| 9 7/8 | 9 1/8 - 9 5/8 |
| 12 1/4 | 11 1/2 - 12 |
| 14 1/2 | 14 1/8 - 14 1/2 |
| 17 1/2 | 16 - 17 |

Table 5-10 –
stabilizer char
 $0.25^\circ/100'$ i

Equation: 0.19 for determining first string

Equation: 0.20 significant change (minimum of

Table 5-10: **Figure: 0.18** **Introducing Gauge of First String Stabilizer**

| Hole Size (in) | Charge Required in Gauge of First (in) |
|-------------------|---|
| 8% | 1/8 |
| 12% | 1/4 |
| 17% | 3/8 |

These guidelines apply to both AKO and DTU steerable systems.

Kicking-Off

Bottomhole Assemblies

During kick-off, **Equation: 0.19** will determine general NDS assembly design.

Equation: 0.19

* Expected length of run

The following example hole assembly for a 7-1/2" hole is designed to have a minimum weight of 10.5 kips per foot.

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.19 BHS

Equation: 0.18

• 16-1/2" First String Stabilizer

• Flowline

• 9-1/2" Casing

• 9-1/2" Casing

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

• Crossover

• 2 x 8" Steel Drill Collar

• Crossover

• HWDP (sufficient amount to provide weight on bit)

The following assembly is designed to have a

Equation: 0.27 rotary build tendency.

Equation: 0.20

- 17-1/2" PDC Bit
- 11-1/4" Mach 1
- Crossover
- 12-1/4" First String Stabilizer
- Float Sub
- 9-1/2" NMDC
- 9-1/2" MWD
- 16-1/2" Non-magnetic
- 2 x 9-1/2" NMDC
- Crossover
- 2 x 8" Steel Drill Collar
- Jars
- 8" Steel Drill Collar
- Crossover
- HWDP (sufficient amount to provide weight-on-bit)

This assembly is designed to have a **Equation: 0.20** build tendency. A good estimate would be **Equation: 0.20**.

The following example is designed to have a **Equation: 0.20** rotary hold tendency.

- 12-1/4" Bit
- 9-1/2" Mach 1
- Crossover
- 12" First String Stabilizer
- 8" NMDC
- 8" MWD
- 12" Non-magnetic Stabilizer
- 2 x 8" NMDC
- Jars
- 8" Steel Drill Collar
- Crossover
- HWDP (sufficient amount to provide weight-on-bit)

The following tendency.

- 12- $\frac{3}{4}$ " Kick Bit
- 9-1/2" Mac Crossover
- 11" First Stabilizer
- 8" NMDC
- 8" MWD
- 11-3/4" No crossover Stabilizer
- 2 x 8" NMD
- Jars
- 8" Steel Drilled Collar
- Crossover
- HWDP (su)

Equation: 0.26 signed for a rotary build
Equation: 0.29

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.17

Chart: 0.17

Figure: 0.20

Chart: 0.20

Text: 0.15

Recommended Guidelines

- When beginning a kick-off, have the first string stabilizer in open hole and follow up in the casing to prevent hanging up or any other anomalies.
- When using a stabilizer in vertical holes, the actual dogleg may be less than the enhanced GDS.

Equation: 0.20

subsequent intervals.

- Minimizing run time between intervals is good practice in reducing the severity of oriented drilling.
- During the initial stage of a kick-off from vertical, stabilizer hangup can occur if the wellbore is inclined and the first string is not aligned.
- Consider beginning the kick-off early; this can reduce oriented drilling.

Interval drilling

An estimate of the required interval length can be determined using:

% Footage Of

Chart: 0.23

Equation: 0.17

where:

$$\text{Equation: 0.28}$$

DL = required dogleg ($^{\circ}/100'$)DLO = actual dogleg ($^{\circ}/100'$)DLR = actual dogleg ($^{\circ}/100'$)

Example:

Text: 0.17

Planned build-up

Build-up rate

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

Build-up rate ($^{\circ}/100'$)

Figure: 0.16

% Footage On Course: $(0.5 - 0.5) \times (3.5 - 0.5) / 100 = 67\%$

Text: 0.20

Tangent Section Drilling

Tangent or hold sections are recommended for directional drilling, although NDS performance is not as good as for tangent drilling. Long sections of hole can be drilled faster than with conventional rotary assemblies, and corrections can be performed at a much slower rate of course. Basic design principles include:

Figure: 0.24

- An underground first string stabilizer is required to maintain inclination.

Figure: 0.24

The stabilizer must be located so as to allow for an acceptable dogleg rate to allow for corrections between mounted intervals.

- Decreasing the length of the first string stabilizer versus increasing "L" is preferred.

Figure: 0.21

Figure 0.21 shows the stabilizer versus increasing "L".

Figure: 0.20

Figure 0.20 shows the effect of the length of the first string stabilizer.

A typical BHA for tangent section drilling is:

- 12-1/4" PDC bit
- 9-1/2" Bush hammer, 175 GPM PDC, 12-1/4" LWD
- Cross-over
- 11-3/4" string
- 8" NMD
- 8" MWD tool
- 11-3/4" down-mud
- 2 x 8" NMD
- 2 x 8" DC
- Jars
- 8" DC

Figure: 0.15**Figure: 0.17****Figure: 0.20****Figure: 0.24****Figure: 0.20****Figure: 0.15****Figure: 0.20****Figure: 0.21****Figure: 0.24****Figure: 0.20****Figure: 0.21****Figure: 0.19****Figure: 0.19****Figure: 0.24****Figure: 0.19****Figure: 0.24****Figure: 0.19****Figure: 0.23****Chart: 0.17****Figure: 0.23****Figure: 0.18****Figure: 0.17****Figure: 0.17**

Continued

- HWDP as required.

When drilling a tangent and secant wellbore, the following should be observed:

- After observing a minimum of rotary drilling distance, a plan for drilling long distances between orientation points should be developed.
- Oriented drilling is used. Oriented drilling in a tangent wellbore is used to hold the wellbore tangent and to compensate for the rotation rate.
- Never let the drilled wellbore get too far from the planned trajectory because surveys are significantly more expensive. As horizontal wells become longer, there must be a feasible course to drill.

Drop Sections

Text: 0.18

When a drop section is required, the recommended diameter is increased to 12". It is recommended to use the recommended diameter of this stabilizer.

Typical rotary drop sections are shown in Figure 0.18. When a drop section is required, then oriented drilling will be mandatory.

The following is a general design for a drop assembly while rotary drilling.

- 12"
- AK
- Cn
- 12"
- 8"
- MDC
- 12"
- 8"
- Etc.

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.18

The following sections discuss:

- Except in stringent circumstances, the drilled wellpath can be positioned by the use of oriented drilling tools.
- In hard to drill or poor quality formations, stabilizers should be minimized or avoided.
- Actual dogleg severity in the system is usually less than the NDS assembly.
- The NDS assembly should be designed such that the TGD is at least 125% of the TD.
- Stabilizers should be used to assist in achieving desired, anular, or produce a neutral tendency.

Azimuth Control

Rotary Mode

Rotary drilling with NDS

The dip and strike of the formation will affect the tendency of the NDS assembly to walk.

Figure: 0.17

The conventional directional concept of increasing rotary ROP to sustain an assembly is applicable with NDS.

Oriented mode

Changes in azimuth are achieved in oriented mode.

Due to the stability of the assembly, the tendency to walk is reduced. An orientated 90° turn can be made in a minimum turn without dropping inclination (a typical problem in soft formations).

A reduction in TD is achieved due to the effect of the undrilled section.

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.27

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.16

Table: 0.16

Chart: 0.22

Self Equation: 0.19

1. List six applications of directional drilling.

(a)

Figure: 0.23

(b)



(c)

(d)

(e)

(f)

2. Define the following terms for "north".

(i) True North:

(ii) Magnetic North:

(iii) Grid North:

3. Convert the following quadrant bearings into azimuth.

| Quadrant Bearing | Azimuth |
|------------------|---------|
| S64-1/2°E | |
| N 35°E | |
| S 88-3/4°W | |
| N 68.5°W | |
| S 22.25°E | |
| N 35.5°W | |
| S 88°E | |
| N 71 1/2°E | |
| S 25.5°W | |
| N 3-3/4°W | |
| S 11.5°E | |

4. State one advantage of a

removable whipstock.

Advantage: Disadvantages: a. b.

5. Explain what is meant by

Equation: 0.21**Equation: 0.20****Figure: 0.20****Text: 0.24****Equation: 0.19****Figure: 0.20**

6. What is meant by "multi-lateral"?

Figure: 0.16**Equation: 0.18****Text: 0.20**

7. State the relationship between PDM's

Figure: 0.23**Figure: 0.25**

8. What is the relationship between whole motors?

Equation: 0.17**Chart: 0.22**

9. Explain what

and why it causes problems.

Table: 0.20**Equation: 0.18****Text: 0.18**

10. List three advantages of a

Text: 0.191. **Text: 0.17**2. **Figure: 0.17**3. **Equation: 0.17****Equation: 0.20**

11. Explain what

Equation: 0.22**Figure: 0.22****Equation: 0.17**

Figure: 0.19

Directions: Drilling

Drilling Engineering

11. How can **Equation: 0.27** be drilled in an oriented mode? **Equation: 0.24**

Figure: 0.19

12. List six factors which **Text: 0.25** assembly.

a. Text: 0.19**b. Chart: 0.21****c. Figure: 0.22****d.****e. Text: 0.19****f. Equation: 0.18**

13. Explain the effect of **Equation: 0.19** a pendulum assembly. **Figure: 0.17**

Figure: 0.20**Figure: 0.21****Chart: 0.24**

14. What are the guidelines for NDS? **Chart: 0.18**

Equation: 0.17**Chart: 0.22****Equation: 0.17**

15. Describe how the place **Equation: 0.18** the response of an NDS. **Figure: 0.17**

Chart: 0.26**Figure: 0.17****Text: 0.16****Figure: 0.16**

16. How does the

assemblies when drill



17. What are the guidelines to be followed when drilling the tangent section with a NDS?
-
-
-

Notes

Horizontal Wells

Figure: 0.18

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the general classifications of horizontal wells and the major factors which dictate a well's profile.

Figure: 0.15

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the conditions under which horizontal wells may be an option and when they may not be an ideal option.
- Provide information on removal of cuttings.
- Use drilling air when the zone of interest has left this zone.

Figure: 0.20

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

Figure: 0.20

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

Figure: 0.20

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

Equation: 0.17

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

Text: 0.20

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

Text: 0.21

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

Figure: 0.19

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

Figure: 0.17

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

Table: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

Brochure:

Figure: 0.20

Oil & Gas Journal - Horizontal Wells - December 30, 1990

Innovative Horizontal Drilling Technology - EC - x-229

Eau

Self-Check: 0.19

1. What are the typical build rates for the following types of horizontal wells?

Short Radius:



Text: 0.22

Medium Radius:



Equation: 0.19

Long Radius:



Text: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

2. What are some of the design improvements that have improved the overall efficiency of horizontal wells over the last decade?



3. What are four major challenges associated with drilling horizontal wells?

a.



Table: 0.17

b.



Table: 0.18

c.



Text: 0.18

d.



Figure: 0.16

4. What are the length of radius categories used for horizontal wells?



5. What are three parameters that must be considered to ensure that the wellbore remains within a reservoir boundary?

a.



Figure: 0.18

b.



Figure: 0.20

c.



Figure: 0.21



6. What are three reasons why drill rate is not a true indicator of lithology?

Fau**Equation: 0.25**a. **Equation: 0.22**b. **Figure: 0.17**c. **Figure: 0.20**

7. Why is it a bad sign if there is a large theoretical lag in the

Figure: 0.21**Figure: 0.26****Figure: 0.21**

8. What type of carbide steel is used in horizontal wells and why is it necessary?

Equation: 0.18**Equation: 0.18**

9. When the  reservoir, a large increase in  the reservoir  small increase likely means the bit is penetrating

Equation: 0.19**Figure: 0.20**

Stuck Pipe

Text: 0.21

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the importance of preventing stuck pipe.
- Understand how the causes of stuck pipe can be prevented.
- Recognize the symptoms of stuck pipe.
- Calculate the stuck point.
- Calculate the stuck point.
- Understand the remedial actions taken when stuck pipe problems arise.

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

Equation: 0.22

Additional References, References Deleted

Adams, Neal, *How to Control Stuck Pipe*, Petroleum Engineer, Sept. 17 - Oct. 1986

BP Research, *Guidelines for the Removal of Stuck Pipe*, Sudbury Research Center, Aug. 1986

Baker Hughes INTEQ, *Drilling Fluids Manual*, 1991

Kemp, Gore, *Oilwell Fishing Operations: Tools and Techniques*, Gulf Publishing Company, 1986

Moore, Preston, *Drilling Practices Manual*, 2nd Edition, PennWell Publishing Company, 1986

Chart: 0.19

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.25

Equation: 0.21

Stuck Pipe**Introduction****Text: 0.19**

Drill rig operators and personnel can be valuable members of the drilling team in potential stuck pipe problems. Having access to the

drilling information (i.e., bit location), the geological data (from

the geologist), and analytical approach, INTEQ

personnel can bring stuck pipe problems to a

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.22

The types and causes of stuck pipe have been mentioned and described in

the "Advanced Drilling Problems" textbook (EES 002011). This

section will continue the unit's analysis of the

information presented in the previous stuck pipe discussions.

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.19

| DRILLING INSTRUMENTATION | BORING LOGS | GEOPHYSICAL DATA | PERSONNEL RESPONSE |
|--|---|---|--------------------|
| Lithology Identification and Description | a. Formation Related b. Drill Bit Related c. Cement d. Underreaming e. Poor Hole Cleaning | a. Identification of Rock Types and Characteristics b. Identification of Cement in Cuttings Samples c. Identification of Abnormal Formations | |
| Depth and Drill Rate Recorder | a. Formation Related b. Wellbore Geostatistics c. Poor Hole Cleaning | a. Identification of Stuck Pipe problems from drill rate b. Reduced drill rate due to stuck, hanging up or bridge c. Reduced drill rate due to poor transfer of WOB | |
| Monitor Calculations | All Types of Borehole Problems | Monitor trends in hole conditions, and relating trends to lithology, hole deviation and BHA configuration. | |
| Pump Stroke Counter | Text: 0.21 | Text: 0.21 | Text: 0.22 |
| Pore Pressure Evaluation | Text: 0.21 | Text: 0.21 | Text: 0.10 |
| Lag Time Determination | Text: 0.17 | Text: 0.17 | Text: 0.18 |
| Hydrocarbon Response | Text: 0.19 | Text: 0.19 | Text: 0.16 |

| INDICATOR CLASS | Change | Time | Shale Density | Gas | Fluid In Temperature | Shale Drilling | Shale Factor (SF) |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| REACTIVE (INTERACTING) FORMATIONS | Large Quantities | No Indication | No Indication | No Indication | No Indication | Final Indication | High Values |
| CHIPIFYING REACTIONS | Large Quantities | Decrease in Trend | Decrease in Value | Increase in Value | Increase in Trend | Some Indication | High Values |
| FRACUTURED & FAULTED FORMATIONS | Not Present | No Indication | No Indication | Increase in Percent | No Indication | No Indication | No Indication |
| MESILE (SILT) FORMATIONS | Small Quantities | No Indication | No Indication | No Indication | No Indication | No Indication | No Indication |
| UNCONSOLIDATED FORMATIONS | Not Present | Large Decrease in Trend | No Indication | Increase in Percent | No Indication | No Indication | No Indication |

Table 7-2: Indicators Available to the Field Personnel.

Recognizing Problem Situations

During the course of a well, many drilling and non-drilling operations can potentially cause stuck pipe. Careful observation of the various parameters monitored by DrillByte can pin-point many troublesome zones. Several of the more common

Figure: 0.21

During Connections and Surveys

The major indication of a potential problem will be increased drag, when the drillstring is moved.

| Questions to Answer | Response |
|--|--|
| 1. Are problem formations exposed? | 1. Check lag time |
| 2. Was the borehole adequately cleaned before the connection/survey? | 2. Check drill rate before connection/survey |
| 3. Are there indications of sticking? | 3. Check lithology |
| | 4. Check annular velocities |
| | 5. Check filter cake thickness |
| | 6. Check hydrostatic overbalance |
| | 7. Check if permeable formations are exposed |

Tripping Out

During trips out of the hole, the common indication of stuck pipe problems will be increased drag and overpull.

| Questions to Answer | Response |
|---|---|
| 1. Are problem formations exposed above the bit? | 1. Review records of previous trips. Is there a trend which can be related to a possible cause? |
| 2. Are high swab pressures resulting in hole instability? | 2. Check if the proper lag time was completed when circulating bottoms up? |
| 3. Was the hole adequately cleaned prior to the trip? | 3. Check swab pressures, should the trip speed be reduced. |
| 4. Were similar conditions experienced on previous trips? If so, is the hole getting worse? | 4. Check the lithology |
| | |
| 1. Can the problem be related to deviation or the BHA? | 1. Check if overpulls are increasing on each trip |
| 2. Is a keyseat developing? | 2. Check the nature of any interbedded sequences |
| 3. Are there sequences of hard/soft formations which may result in ledges? | 3. Relate doglegs to BHA configuration |
| | 4. Check if conditions exists which would encourage keyseating |

Reaming Operations (Reaming In & Reaming Out)

During reaming operations, the primary indication of hole problems will be increased torque.

| Questions to Answer | Response |
|---|---|
| 1. Are problem formations exposed? | 1. Check the BHA configuration. How does it compare to the last assembly? |
| 2. Can the problem be related to deviation and BHA? | 2. Check for hard/soft interbedded sequences. |
| 3. Can the problem be related to ledges? | 3. Check for problem formations |
| 4. Is it possible that a cuttings bed has formed on the low side of the borehole? | 4. Correlate trends from previous trips. Is the problem still occurring? |
| 5. Was the hole adequately cleaned? | 5. Correlate deviation with BHA configuration. |
| | 6. Check annular velocities during circulation. |
| | 7. Check the drill rate prior to reaming. |
| | 8. Check lithology and location of problem formations. |

Drilling Operations

Equation: 0.20

Though few stuck pipe problems occur while drilling, it is wise to keep in mind that they can occur.

Figure: 0.25 shows how stuck pipe problems are usually monitored during

drill rate. Changes in the measured parameters are correlated with known data.

Equation: 0.23 lists correlations used for stuck pipe detection.

Equation: 0.21 lists correlations used for stuck pipe detection.

Several problems are listed in the following table:

Figure: 0.19 lists correlations used for stuck pipe detection.

Equation: 0.20 lists correlations used for stuck pipe detection.

| INDICATOR PROBLEM | MEASURE MATERIAL | CHARGE INCREASE | DRILL RATE |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|--|
| Poor Hole Cleaning | Gradual Increase | No Change | Gradual Increase |
| High Overbalance & Permeable Sands | Gradual Increase | No Change | Gradual Decrease |
| Mobile Formations | Gradual Increase | Increase | Gradual Decrease |
| Fractured and Faulted Formations | Sudden Erratic Increase | May Be Unaffected | Sudden Increase |
| Gaspressured Formations | Increase | Increase | Initial Increase with a Gradual Decrease |
| Reactive Formations | Gradual Increase | Increase | Gradual Decrease |
| Unconsolidated Formations | Increase | Increase | Decrease |
| Junk | Sudden Increase | No Change | Sudden Decrease |
| Cement Blocks | Sudden Increase | No Change | Sudden Decrease |

Table 7-3: Stuck Pipe Indicators During Drilling Operations

Mechanics of Differential Sticking

Even when all precautions are taken, stuck pipe may occur. Should this situation develop, there are still ways in which the INTEQ personnel can be of assistance.

To free a differentially stuck drillstring, the driller must overcome the restraining force of the drilling fluid, which is pushing the drillstring

against a borehole wall will soon become corrective action.

The force needed to move the pipe is proportional to the area of contact and gradually increases as filter cake builds up, the area of contact can double by the time the stuck pipe is freed.

The force increases very quickly; if the force is greater than the weight of the drillstring, the pipe will "magically" move the drillstring and free it.

The equation:

where:

Figure: 0.18 Drilling (drillpipe or collars) will penetrate the permeable zone if the pressure differential is greater than the critical pressure differential.

Equation: 0.23 The critical pressure differential is proportional to the area of contact.

Equation: 0.28 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Equation: 0.23 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Equation: 0.18 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.18 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Equation: 0.18 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.16 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Figure: 0.22 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Figure: 0.29 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Figure: 0.22 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Chart: 0.17 or the total pulling force that would be required to free the pipe (lbs)

Chart: 0.18 The critical pressure differential between the drilling fluid and the formation.

A = The area of contact between the drillstring and the formation (in²)

f = The coefficient of friction between the drillstring and the formation.

Table: 0.17 Critical pressure differential between the drilling fluid and the formation.

Chart: 0.22 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Equation: 0.19 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.18 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.19 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.21 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.19 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Equation: 0.18 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Table: 0.16 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.19 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Table: 0.19 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.16 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.16 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Text: 0.16 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Equation: 0.18 The critical pressure differential will increase with time because of the build-up of the area of contact.

Determining the Variables in the Stuck Pipe Equation

Pressure Differential (ΔP)

The pressure differential between the circulating fluid and the formation is determined using the hydrostatic pressure of the drilling fluid ($0.0519 \times MD \times TVD$) and the estimated pressure of the formation.

Chart: 0.18

Table: 0.19

Area of Contact

The effective area of contact is the chord length of the imbedded portion of the drillstring in the permeable formation. The most acceptable

Text 0.22

Text 0.21

Text: 0721

where P_C is the shoe length or circumference of the pipe stuck against the formation (inches), T_F is the thickness of the formation core (feet) and L is the length of the core (feet).

Coefficient of Friction (μ)

Though very seldom, *cohesion* only occurs in muds (e.g., barite, sand, bentonite, etc.) which increases the coefficient of friction.

The coefficient called a "stickiness" of a filter cake at 5 torque wrench units measured.

f Figure: 0.19

Preventing Stuck Pages

If the driller is unable to free the pipe, then other remedial measures may be required. If the pipe is "spotted" in the mud, then the Spotting procedure described in the "Advanced Log Calculations" section of this chapter can be used to determine the additional volume of fluid required to free the pipe.

[Calculations](#) | [Simplifications](#) | [Equation Solving](#) | [Calculus](#)

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Education - 19

Equation: 0.17

Stuck Pipe

Drilling Engineering

There exist two equations which the pipe length can be calculated from. With reference to Figure 0.17, the following:

1. An upward force F_1 is applied to the stuck point location. This must be greater than the weight of the entire string.

2. A greater upward force F_2 is applied, causing the free portion of the drillstring to stretch.

3. A greater upward force F_2 is applied, causing the free portion of the drillstring to stretch. The stretch is measured above the stuck point.



Figure 7-1 Determination of Stuck Pipe Variables

Once the measurements have been taken, they are used in the following equation:

$$SPL = (735 \times 10^3) \frac{(w)(e)}{(F_2 - F_1)}$$

where: SPL = Stuck Pipe Location

735×10^3 = Derivation of Young's Modulus for steel

w = Drillpipe weight (lbs/ft)

e = Length of stretch (inches)

Text: 0.17

F_1 = Force applied when pipe is in tension (lbs)

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.24

Table: 0.19

the drilling rig.

Secondly, re-consideration of spotting a fish.

If these methods must be considered. The fish can then be recovered using washover pipe,

Geopressure

These formations have the hydrostatic pressure of the drilling fluid. If these formations are not permeable (for example, shale), then the pressure will "leak" into the borehole. Pressure

apply right-hand torque.

be an option (well control third operation involves

Equation: 0.24

Equation: 0.27

in Figure 0.23 in Figure

Equation: 0.23

the pressure known by

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.18

Equation: 0.21

ceed the hydrostatic

pressure of the

drilling fluid. If these formations are not permeable (for

example, shale), then the pressure will "leak" into the

Table: 0.21

- Click

- Observe

- Inc

- Re

- Per

- Mon

- Cont

- Min

- Rec

- Mon

well not casuar

it large and convey

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.23

able

Figure: 0.28

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.23

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.23

Figure: 0.22

these applied

forces. Once full

unrestricted, an in

case

develop. The first

step in correcting the situation

is to stop the hole, pipe

movement should

be applied

calculated

to the stuck pipe

unrestricted, an in

re.

Text: 0.193

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.193

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.22

Retrogressive Formation**Figure: 0.22**

These are naturally occurring bentonitic shales, generally known as "gumbo shales". They contain montmorillonite clay which reacts with the mud filtrate and hydrate. The hydration of the clay causes it to expand and stick to the borehole. When drilling, the bit tends to stick to the borehole wall and the BHA can become stuck. Prevention is best achieved by avoiding the use of bentonite clays. When tripping, the BHA can become stuck in the borehole. Prevent this by using a stabilizer or a stabilizer bar.

Figure: 0.21**Equation: 0.21****Text: 0.20****Equation: 0.19****Text: 0.19****Text: 0.20**

1. Avoid excessive circulation rates.

2. Be prepared to reverse circulation.

3. Plan to reverse circulation if stuck.

4. Carefully monitor circulation rates.

5. Be prepared to reverse circulation.

6. Carefully monitor circulation rates.

Figure: 0.20**Text: 0.20****Equation: 0.22**

If the drillstring is stuck in reverse circulation, reverse circulation must be established. Concentrate on working the drillstring downwards. Rotation may help dislodge the sticking off borehole material. Increasing the mud density, if possible, may help.

Equation: 0.19**Unconsolidated Formations****Equation: 0.22**

These naturally occur in unconsolidated formations. Material will dislodge into the borehole when drilling. This material will form a bridge across the borehole. Measures include:

Text: 0.20

1. Control circulation rates.

2. Use air to dislodge material.

3. Be prepared for static bottom hole pressure.

4. Use vibration to dislodge material.

5. Reram the borehole.

6. Avoid excessive shear/crush pressures.

7. Avoid excessive circulation opposite those zones.

Figure: 0.18**Text: 0.20****Equation: 0.21****Equation: 0.18****Figure: 0.22**

If sticking does occur, establish circulation first. Then concentrate on working the drillstring downwards to disturb the bridge/mound. Once the drillstring is free, ensure the material is circulated out before drilling. Increase the mud density if possible.

Mobil's Form

These are naturally occurring plastic formations. Most commonly shales and salt. When stuck, they can be very difficult to free.

Preventive measures:

1. Remove the stuck pipe from the borehole.
2. Regular mud circulation.
3. Condition the mud.
4. Use "eccentric" pipe.
5. Increase the mud weight.
6. Minimize the time the pipe is stuck.

If the drillstring becomes stuck in a shale formation, the annulus may become packed-off. If communication is lost, mud circulation will stop.

The driller must be prepared to take action as soon as possible.

If circulation is possible, increase the mud weight. If circulation is not possible, a water/detergent spacer should be injected at the wellhead during the kill procedure every 2 hours.

Once the drillstring is freed, the mud weight should be reduced.

Fractured/Faulted Formations

These are natural formations where the fractured or faulted formation is clogged with rock fragments.

When the fractured or faulted formation is clogged with rock fragments, it may fall into the borehole. These fragments vary from pebbles to boulders. The size of the fragments depends on the size of the fracture.

Preventive measures:

1. Clean out excess gill before drilling.
2. Minimize the amount of cuttings.
3. Place the jar in the heavy-weight pipe section.
4. Be careful when tripping in.
5. Decrease the mud weight.
6. Use a mud cleaner to clean the borehole.

If it is determined that fractured formations are the cause of the sticking, the pieces of rock may be too large to be cleaned up.

Use a mud cleaner to clean the borehole.

Text: 0.26 Baker Hughes INTEQ

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EauTable: 0.20

Figure: 0.23

acid (HCl) pill to spot limestone. The pill should be spotted with a lag.

Key Seating

Key seats are the notches cut into the side of the borehole wall. They may have the I.D. of the drillpipe's tool joint or be larger. They do not pass through this extra hole when tripping.

1. Minimize key seat severity.

2. Use wellbore stabilizers.

3. Minimize key seat severity.

4. Carefully design the BHA.

5. Minimize the number of changes.

6. Have a surface safety plan.

7. If the problem is not resolved, run a key seat remediation ahead.

If the drillstring becomes stuck in a key seat, it will be worked upwards gradually, this will decrease chances of further jamming if the BHA is not jammed in the key seat. Try to bring the BHA up and out of the key seat.

Borehole Geometry

The borehole is seldom perfectly vertical. Changes in direction are common, especially when horizontal sections are drilled.

Problems with borehole geometry can occur during drilling operations. Remember that the weight of the drillstring is in compression, making it more likely to jam in a borehole that has been bent, making it more difficult to free.

1. Minimize the number of BHA changes.

2. Reduce the number of BHA changes.

3. Ream the borehole before changing BHA.

4. Do not trip the string in a borehole that has been bent.

5. Be prepared for stuck pipe.

If borehole geometry is not considered when tripping in or out upwards working against the downward force of the drillstring, upwards forces will increase, causing further jamming. This occurs when tripping out, as the weight of the drillstring acts downwards, pulling the BHA further into the borehole. It also occurs when tripping in, as the downward force of the drillstring acts upwards, pushing the BHA further into the borehole.

If borehole geometry is considered when tripping in or out, the upward force of the drillstring will be reduced, decreasing the chance of further jamming.

If borehole geometry is considered when tripping in or out, the downward force of the drillstring will be increased, increasing the chance of further jamming.

Under gauge

Figure: 0.19

When drilling long sections of abutting formations, the gauge protection on the bit and string becomes ineffective. Any additional hole protection measures include:

1. Pull the string after each run
2. Run in back to bottom if an undergauge hole is suspected
3. Never run in reverse
4. Select bit type to reduce cone bit
5. Carefully monitor the bit

If the new bit is run in reverse, avoid jarring forces shot

Text: 0.23

Inadequate Hole Cleaning

Inadequate hole cleaning can result in highly deviated or horizontal wells. This is because fluid circulation through a cuttings bed on the low side of the annulus is inefficient.

1. Circulate bottoms-up until shakers are clean
2. Allow time for cuttings coming over the shaker
3. Monitor mud properties
4. Circulate bottoms-up until shakers are clean
5. Circulate bottoms-up until shakers are clean
6. Repeat until shakers are clean
7. Allow time for cuttings to settle and rotate using annular circulation
8. Use viscosifiers
9. Recognize signs of poor circulation
10. Plan to use the mud pump to circulate
11. On float valves, use the mud pump to circulate

If the annulus becomes plugged, circulation must be attempted. In addition, the drillstring should be rotated to stir the cuttings.

In low angle holes, the mud pump may be required to "float out" the cuttings. Drilling mud viscosity must be increased to

Text: 0.20

discards the cuttings and pulls the pipe to carry the cuttings out of the hole.

Junk in the Borehole

Junk is a foreign object in the borehole that is not meant to be there. Since the clearance between the borehole and collar/stabilizers is not great, even a small piece of junk can cause problems.

1. Ensure the bit is clean.
2. Inspect the bit.
3. Be careful when tripping.
4. Leave the bit in the hole for as long as possible.
5. Install drilling tools correctly.

If junk sticking is suspected, the following steps should commence to free the stuck pipe and dislodge the obstruction. These forces should be gradually increased until the stuck pipe is freed.

Cement Blocks

After a leak-off test has been completed and the well has been resumed, the large sized collars or stabilizers can fall into the borehole and easily jam against the drillstring. Preventive measures include:

1. Minimize the number of trips down the casing shoe.
2. Always run a wash or cement plug before drilling ahead.
3. Be certain to clean mud from the casing shoe.

If jamming occurs, the following steps can be used to break up the obstructions by using alternating jarring and jarring. These forces should be gradually increased until the drillstring is freed and, if available, a cement plug can be run to hold the cement.

Green Cement

A rare occurrence of stuck pipe is due to "green" cement. This occurs when the cement is mixed with incorrect additives and equipment, the cement does not set properly. After the cement has set, the cement can "flash set" when the cement is exposed to air. Preventive measures include:

1. Pre-treat the cement.
2. Know the cement properties.

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Header: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.24

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.22

Figure: 0.16

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.23

Table: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Table: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.24

Table: 0.21

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.16

Table: 0.21

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.17

Stuck Pipe

Drilling Engineering

3. Begin circulate

4. Monitor cement returns at the choke shaker

5. Realize low/high expansion with lost circulation

6. Restrict

If problems develop from setting. Upward circulation should commence as soon as possible. If circulation is not possible, attempt to try and dislodge.

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.19

Self-Check: 0.18

1. What should be the response of INTEC personnel if borehole problems occur?

Figure: 0.19**Text: 0.19****Text: 0.21****Equation: 0.19**

2. How can Shale Factor help solve borehole problems?

Figure: 0.19**Figure: 0.17****Figure: 0.16**

3. What is the most common problem when a stuck pipe is performing real time analysis?

Equation: 0.16**Equation: 0.23****Equation: 0.22**

4. When using the $\frac{F}{W}$ method, what is determined?

Equation: 0.17**Equation: 0.21****Equation: 0.20****Equation: 0.22**

5. What piece of mud test data is used to calculate the "friction coefficient"?

Figure: 0.25**Figure: 0.21****Figure: 0.19****Text: 0.21****Figure: 0.26**

Equation: 0.17

Stuck Pipe

Drilling Engineering

Fau

6. What is **Figure: 0.18** in geopressured, reactive or unconsolidated rock?



Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.28

Equation: 0.24

7. What two operations can cause a drillstring to become stuck in a faulted limestone?



Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.21

8. What type of pillar should be used when drilling a high angle hole due to its shape?



Text: 0.22

Equation: 0.18



9. What is meant by **Text: 0.23**?

Equation: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.24



Figure: 0.24

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Well Control

Equation: 0.15

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand what knowledge to assist in preventing kick problems from occurring.
- Recognize the warning signs of kicks.
- Understand the effects of kicks on different well components.
- Calculate the need for proper kill procedures.
- Adapt to the correct methods when control room problems occur.

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.24

Chart: 0.21

Additional References

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Petroleum Extension Service AV #106, *Causes And Prevention Of Blowouts, Part III. Equipment*, The University of Texas at Austin.

Equation: 0.21

Table: 0.17

Intr
Equation: 0.20

A kick is defined as an undesirable influx of formation fluid into the borehole. If left uncontrolled it can lead to a blowout (an uncontrollable loss of control of the borehole).

While kicks are not necessarily an emergency, they do require action. However, the penalty for failing to take action can be severe, and quite possibly loss of the well, and the future of the company.

Well control is the responsibility of the driller, and company to company, but the rig operator and the oil company are normally considered.

Rig Control: This includes the DOP's, pump, drawworks and other rig equipment.

Text: 0.21: responsibility of the driller, and any other personnel involved.

Text: 0.22: responsibility of the driller.

Mud Control: This involves the addition of weighting material (most commonly barite), but also includes the correct chemical additives.

Equation: 0.18: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Figure: 0.20: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.25: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.20: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Equation: 0.21: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.25: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.27: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.26: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.22: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.18: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.23: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Text: 0.20: responsibility of the mud engineer.

Kicks

Equation: 0.22

Causes of Kicks

Equation: 0.20

Listed are major reasons why kicks occur:

Failure To Keep

Kicks occur when the bit is off bottom, while tripping. When the pumps are shut down prior to tripping, there is a pressure transient due to the equivalent circulating density and the pore pressure. If the equivalent circulating density and the pore pressure are nearly equal, no kick occurs. When the pump is removed, the mud column is compressed, causing a reduction in hydrostatic pressure. This pressure must be converted into pump strokes so the bottom hole pressure can be known.

Swabbing of Fo

When mud is pulled it acts like a piston, increasing the viscosity of the mud. When mud is swabbed, the mud cake is removed, the nozzles are blocked, or a bar is hit, the pipe is pulled at a high speed.

In INTEQ logging units, a software program provides a range of pipe pulling speeds and minimum fracture pressures. If swabbing does not remove all the mud cake back to bottom and the invading fluid comes from the pipe or casing, the fracture pressure of a weak formation. The pipe is run at a speed greater than the fracture pressure holds the minimum pressure below the minimum fracture pressure. Remember that this is necessary anywhere in borehole, as pressures are transmitted to the open hole even when the bit is in the hole.

Insufficient Mud

than the previous section. Insufficient mud weight, poor engineering, and plots will have no effect on any event, pressure trends formation without an unconformity in lithology or drilling practices may have a great bearing on well control.

Poor Well Plan

on well control, progressively deeper wells will arise where it is necessary otherwise a situation may arise where it is necessary to kick or lost circulation. Well

Equation: 0.23

Kicks occur when the bit is off bottom, while tripping. When the pumps are shut down prior to

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.23

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.23

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.23

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.23

Table: 0.17

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Table: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.19

Table: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

control is on the point that it should not be overstated to the point that it is reduced.

Lost Circulation: Raising the mud density to a value that exceeds the lowest fracture pressure, set near 0.15 g/cm³, was in the 40's. A kick can occur if the mud is likely to be displaced by an abnormally pressured formation.

through a geological setting, casing after drilling. The pore pressure must be kept high to balance these formations. It is likely to be due to lost circulation and the abnormal pressure may allow an influx or infiltration.

Text: 0.30 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.24 some significance, more lower down the hole section. If a kick occurs,

Text: 0.20 due to lost circulation and the abnormal pressure may allow an influx or infiltration.

Text: 0.21 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.18 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Figure: 0.19 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Figure: 0.20 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Figure: 0.22 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Figure: 0.19 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.18 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Figure: 0.25 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

lost circulation. The annulus is not full and cannot be filled. When the rate of loss is greater than the rate at which mud is pumped into the hole, it will not be displaced.

be shut in, and the well can be controlled. This requires a choke and a kill line.

Text: 0.20 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.23 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.20 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.23 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.19 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Equation: 0.18 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Equation: 0.20 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.19 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Equation: 0.19 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.21 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Recognition of Kick

The only time that a kick can occur is when there is no control over the wellbore and mud line (e.g.,

However, the most common cause of a kick is occurring. In a closed circulation system, the addition of any fluid from the formation will result in a change in the mud weight.

Figure: 0.25 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

lost circulation. The annulus is not full and cannot be filled. When the rate of loss is greater than the rate at which mud is pumped into the hole, it will not be displaced.

be shut in, and the well can be controlled. This requires a choke and a kill line.

Text: 0.20 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.23 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.20 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.23 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.19 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Equation: 0.18 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Equation: 0.20 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.19 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Equation: 0.19 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Text: 0.21 same hole section are ingredients for a kick. The mud weight and observation are necessary.

Sequence of Events

In most cases, a kick can occur while drilling, and the potential hazards and costs.

remedial actions can be taken to minimize the potential hazards and costs.

1. The kick is detected. The first action is to stop the drilling, and the next step is to determine the magnitude of the kick.

2. The kick is controlled. The next step is to determine the potential hazards and costs.

3. The kick is eliminated. The final step is to eliminate the kick.

characteristics, a legal drilling break should

This is done by: (1) picking up the kelly so the kelly bushings are about 10 ft above the wellhead, (2) observing the fluid level flowing. This may be fluctuate with the heave. A flowcheck should be conducted by circulating the volume observed for shut-in and any resulting

2. The second indication that a kick is taking place, is flowline. Flow of formation fluid or return flowrate to indicate that shortly after the drillstring is lighter than the column and return flowrate allows the invasion rate to increase with the proper formation.
3. Hookload may be seen as the invading fluid and fluid is great enough that the drillstring is lifted.
4. An increase in pit volume mechanisms: (1) the increase in mud volume expansion in the annulus.

5. A pump pressure increase becomes noticeable as displaced some distance.
6. A reduction in flowline reach the surface. The may be large or unmeasurable with a water kick (depending on the mud density).

During drilling operations, it is sensors as possible. However, unwise to depend on only one

$$\text{Equation: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.20}$$

Text: 0.27 if the pump, and (3)

Text: 0.21 if the well is

Text: 0.19 as the never been

Text: 0.19 stances the

Text: 0.22 rates, or be

Text: 0.22 and the trip basic

Text: 0.22 to be used for

Figure: 0.21 nation that a

Text: 0.23 to indicate we are

Figure: 0.21 currently with,

Figure: 0.21 in turn,

Figure: 0.18 to indicate

Figure: 0.21 cation into the

Chart: 0.20 is the lower density

Text: 0.19 in hookload, as

Table: 0.19 in hookload, as

Text: 0.21 to separate

Figure: 0.19 into air

Figure: 0.21 e and pit

Figure: 0.23 e

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

Text: 0.21 kick fluid has been

Text: 0.16 invading fluids

Other: 0.17 invading fluids

Figure: 0.20 involved in the kick

Chart: 0.21 involved in the kick

Chart: 0.20 involved in the kick

Table: 0.17 events. For

example, can increase, or pressure increases, while

$$\text{Equation: 0.20}$$

tem may mask a volume of flowrate and volume difficult.

$$\text{Equation: 0.24}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.27}$$

During Connections

Equation: 0.24 between equivalent circulating density and pore pressure), flow into the annulus may occur when the pumps are shut off. This is caused by the annular pressure loss, which increases the

increased, swab pressure in hookload and dense invading

Text: 0.22

the kelly is circulating. When the kelly is

inhibited, swab pressure

in bottomhole pressure. An increase

has invaded the hole as the less

density fluid has been displaced by the more dense drilling fluid.

the higher hole

A kick taken during connections is the same as when

the pumps are first shut off. This can be

detected by a return flow sensor and a PVT (Pvt Volume

To

Text: 0.19

1. The

connections are first shut off. This can be

monitored by a return

flow sensor and a PVT (Pvt Volume

To

Text: 0.19

2. An

connection indicates that some of the

connections are first shut off. Some of the

return flow will flow back into the active

pit. When the levels have stabilized, after the pumps are

restarted, a connection indicates

that the

had from the surface

equipment it should

part of each new job and

re-established per

Text: 0.17

increase on a connection may be normal, while a 3 bbl increase

may be significant.

Text: 0.27

3. Pump pressure an-

connections.

However, the flow

connection.

4. Mud density reduc-

white drilling.

Text: 0.21

Recognition of kicks during

monitoring of the

return flow sensor. After the

should indicate an absolute

long sloping flowline may

be present, however, on some rigs a

pumps have been shut down,

trickle will indicate a kick.

disclose small mud cuts caused

by connection gases, but co-

nection gases alone are not an indication of a

kick during a con-

Text: 0.19

Whiteboard Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0-19

Text: 0.17 standing on the rig floor, it is
impossible to get a clear view of the hole. During trips, the
same annular pressure is maintained.

Figure 0.19 shows the volume of mud to replace

the volume of pipe withdrawn, it is an indication that formation fluid is displacing mud.

Table: 0.17 A decrease in trip mile volume, while tripping or common while driving, will circulate through a triplex.

against the calculator. The examination of discrepancies can be noticed. In INTL Chart 8-1B, a minor program provides

"comparison volume log" provides a chart: 0.18 Text: 0.24

Figure 2.21 Geostrophic balance in a rotating fluid.

Figure 0.19 A 3D rendering of the PV monitoring system showing the PV array and the monitoring station.

Figure 0.22 is and stroke-rates, and num-

Figure 0.22 A diagram showing a cross-section of a sandstone bed being eroded by a stream. The bed dips at an angle, and the water is shown flowing from left to right, carrying away material from the upper part of the bed.

If a kick occurs, every effort must be made to

annular prevents the ball from being hit to be run back to TD.

Kick Tolerance

Kick tolerance is ~~Equation: 0.20~~ ~~Equation: 0.18~~ ~~Equation: 0.16~~ ~~Equation: 0.14~~ ~~Equation: 0.12~~ ~~Equation: 0.10~~ ~~Equation: 0.08~~ ~~Equation: 0.06~~ ~~Equation: 0.04~~ ~~Equation: 0.02~~ ~~Equation: 0.00~~ ~~Equation: -0.02~~ ~~Equation: -0.04~~ ~~Equation: -0.06~~ ~~Equation: -0.08~~ ~~Equation: -0.10~~ ~~Equation: -0.12~~ ~~Equation: -0.14~~ ~~Equation: -0.16~~ ~~Equation: -0.18~~ ~~Equation: -0.20~~.

Equation: 0.18 **Text: 0.20** downhole fracturing occurring.

During drilling, the maximum safe distance that an underground blowout will exceed because if a kick occurs there is a

Equation: 0.20

A complete dust pressure evaluation manual

(P/N 80824H). **Module 017**

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.24

B-7

Text: 0.20

Kic Equation: 0.20

Within the oil industry, there are three recognized kick control procedures.

- 1) Driller's selection of which to use will depend on how well the rig can open hole, and Determination of company policy demands of the oil sands that have entered the market pressure in the oil well control policies method (assuming their concerned by one consideration).

It is the responsibility of the local provider or agent's representative to decide which method(s) to use in accordance with the law. Under no circumstance should INTEO personnel edit or alter any document.

Each of the previous points to the kick situation method. In the following figure, we illustrate the reasoning behavior of the system.

The Time Factor

The total amount of water that will percolate through soil is important because it affects infiltration rates. This is because the "gas bubble" effect limits infiltration rates.

There may also be a mud system to flocculate and sticking.

Equation: 0.20 flocculation is a process where particles may cause the mud cake to become more stable and reduce the risk of sticking.

Equation: 0.17 flocculation is a process where particles may cause the mud cake to become more stable and reduce the risk of sticking.

Figure: 0.18 flocculation is a process where particles may cause the mud cake to become more stable and reduce the risk of sticking.

Equation 0.17 is used, but more importantly is the time for the kill operation to be completed. The strains and pressures

Figure: 0.23 Surface equipment and personnel should be of safety and cost. Therefore, depending on the kick situation, the decision as to which method to use must be based on these priorities. **Figure: 0.24**

Figure 0.21

Equation: 0.20

Text-017

The kill procedure for the two circulation methods is similar. In both of these methods, pressures are reduced to less than one circulation pressure. In the two circulation method, however, it may cause excessive pressure.

Surface Pressures

If a gas kick is taken during the course of the kill operation, this is due to gas expansion as it

Equation: 0.19 expansion is not all wed to occur, surface pressures will be placed on the annulus and surface equipment. For increasing the drillpipe pressure through a variable

The kill procedure for the kick tolerance pressure requires one circulation and two circulation

The first difference with kill mud. With constant pump rate, the casing pressure begins to decrease as a result of the kill mud hydrostatic pressure.

This initial decrease in mud density has increased as the pressure difference between the surface and the bottom hole increases. The two circulation methods result in higher pressures which is the result of circulating the oil and gas mixture.

Also, after one circulation mode, the oil circulation method has killed the well. The two circulation method has shut in drillpipe.

Table: 0.17

Equation: 0.15

Table: 0.16

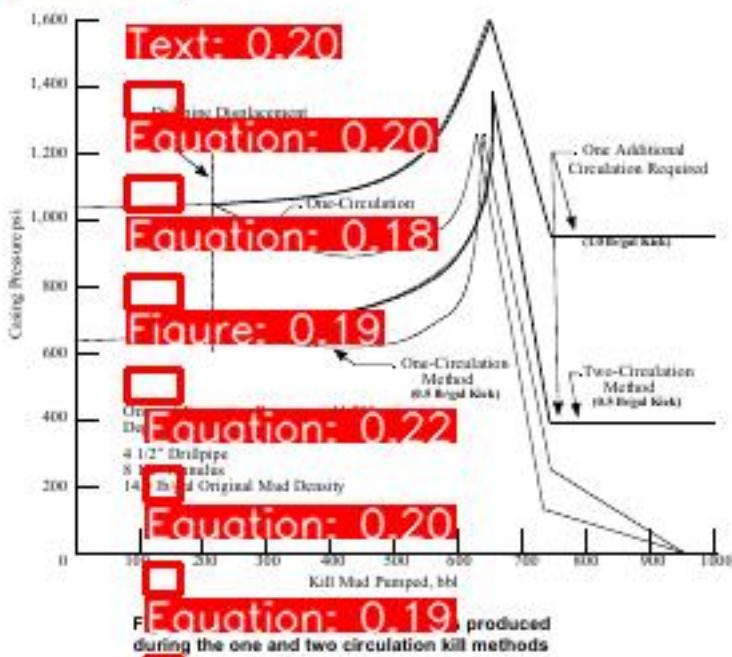
Equation: 0.17

Chart: 0.17

Text: 0.14

Equation: 0.20

Chart: 0.22



Downhole Stress

Downhole stresses are prime concern during kill operations. If the extra stresses imposed by the kick are greater than the minimum fracture pressure in the formation, a fracture will occur.

Similarly, procedures which through its implementation, places high stresses on the wellbore should not be used in preference to others which impose lower stresses.

Figure: 0.21 illustrates that the one circulation kill method imposes maximum stresses on both the wellbore and the formation. This is particularly true for wells with higher pressures. At any point in the borehole, the maximum

Equation: 0.27 occurs when the top of the kick fluid reaches the point.

Generally, if in, they will not occur on initial shut-in, they will not occur during the kill process (if the correct procedure is chosen and

Equation: 0.23

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.16

Equation: 0.22

Formulas that are to be calculated and predicted are pre-

Equation: 0.22 to be calculated and

Equation: 0.21

Procedural Complexity

Figure: 0.18 is dependent on the kill method which it may be reliably executed. If a kill procedure is difficult to comprehend and implement, its reliability is reduced.

The one and only factor that influences the reliability of a kill procedure is the complexity of its execution. Choice of kill method, time factor, surface equipment, wellbore configuration, and many other limitations are considered when determining the reliability of a kill procedure. The reliability of a kill procedure is relatively compromised if it is complex and intricate. Because of its intricacy, its reliability is reduced.

It is important to note that the reliability of a kill procedure must use vertical measurements for ECD calculations. Vertical measurements are used for the hydrostatic pressure calculations.

Situations may arise where the minimum pressure required for a kill is slightly exceeding the actual or estimated minimum fracture pressure. In such cases, the minimum pressure must be smaller, and an alternate method of kill control must be used. Minimum pressures and the methods of kill control are determined by the following:

1. The maximum pressure that can be measured with mud
2. The maximum pressure the casing will hold (burst pressure)
3. The maximum pressure the wellbore will hold

Figure: 0.21 or wellbore

Figure: 0.18 or wellbore

Table 1: Formulas for Determining Kill Procedures

Hydrostatic Pressure (psi) = $(\rho \times g \times VD)$

where: ρ = Mud Density (lb/gal)

g = Gravity (386 ft/lb)

VD = True Vertical Depth (ft)

Circulating Pressure (psi) = **Figure: 0.23**

where: $P_{ca} = A \times \text{Circulating Line Pressure}$

Initial Circulating Pressure (psi) = **Figure: 0.18**

where: $SPR = \frac{V}{M}$

$SIDP = \frac{V}{M} \times \text{Initial Circulating Pressure (psi)}$

Final Circulating Pressure (psi) = $(KMW / MW) \times SPR$

where: $KMW = \text{Kilometer Weight}$

Kill Mud Weight (lb/in^3) = $\frac{SPR + SIDP + (KMW / MW)}{0.05130}$

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.21

Equation: 0.20

Fia

Formation Pressure (psi): $SIDP + (MW \cdot \text{Density of influx (ppg)})$ Density of influx (ppg): $MW - [(SICP - Shut-in Casing Pressure) / 0.0519]$

where: SICP = Shut-in casing pressure (psi)

 $L = \text{Length}$

Length of kick around drill collar

Pit Gain (bbls)/ Annular Volume around collars (bbls/ft)

Length of kick, drill collars and drill pipe (ft):

Collar Length + [Text: 0.19] $\text{Volume} / (D_1^2 - D_2^2 \times 0.001413)$ where: $D_1 = \text{hole diameter (inches)}$ $D_2 = \text{drillpipe diameter (inches)}$ Gas bubble migration rate (psi/hr): $\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial t} / (0.0519 \times MW)$ where: $\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial t}$ = pressure change over time interval (hr)

Barite required (sl/100 bbls mud):

1490 x (KMW - MW) / (3.8 - KMW)

Volume increase caused by weighing up:

100 x (KMW - MW) / (3.8 - KMW)

The drill pipe pressure can be used as a reference point while the casing pressure is affected by the type and amount of fluid influx. When the density of the kick fluid is known, the

Influx Density (psi/ft) Influx Type

0.05 - 0.2 gas

0.2 - 0.4 combination of gas/oil and/or seawater

0.4 - 0.5 oil or seawater

Text: 0.18

Kick Control Methods

All kill procedure

geometry, mud weight, wellbore pressure losses, and fracture pressure.

Important data for calculating pressure losses

1. Circumference of bore

2. Surface area of bore (ft²) and fluid properties (viscosity, density)

3. Bit to bit distance

4. Maximum allowable pressure drop

5. Formation pressure (psi) and mud weight

6. Economic factors concerning the change in circulating pressure due to heavier mud

Figure: 0.27

Figure: 0.26

Figure: 0.28

Figure: 0.18

7. The client

Equation: 0.19

For a well to be killed successfully, the pressure in the formation must be kept under control.

Figure: 0.20

The only exception is in cases when the reservoir pressure is very low.

The simplest method to control the formation pressure is to control the drillpipe pressure by running the kill fluid.

Figure: 0.22

Regulating the circulation rate will also regulate the pressure by controlling the flow rate.

Figure: 0.24

The three main methods are:

1. The Driller's Method
2. The Weighted Method (using a weighted mud circulation)
3. The Circumferent Method

Text: 0.18**Figure: 0.24**

The EAP Kick and Kill software provides printouts of the circulation data and plots a record of progress during the kill.

Text: 0.20**Figure: 0.20****Text: 0.193****Text: 0.19****Figure: 0.17****Figure: 0.19****Figure: 0.22**

The Drilling Engineer's Handbook

When a kick occurs, the recommended procedure is as follows:

1. Pick up the wireline gun. The position of tool joints in relation to the mud line.
2. Stop the pump.
3. Open the choke line.
4. Close the kill valve.
5. Close the annular preventer.
6. Record the kill mud.
7. Record the initial mud density.

Once the well is shut in, the mud density, initial and final circulation pressures, and the kick fluid gradient. If the kick fluid is gas, the build up will be slow. This will cause a slow rise in the pressure in both annulus and casing. If the pressures begin to rise, the pressure can be released from the choke, to release this "trap" pressure. This process should be repeated until the drillpipe pressure is constant.

The first circulation of kill mud. The choke is manipulated up to the kill point. The mud is manipulated up the drillpipe. As the mud rises, the pressure will drop slightly. When the initial mud is pumped out, the mud is stopped and the choke closed. At this time, the two surface pressures (SIDP & SICP) should be the same.

During the first circulation of kill mud, the mud has been achieved, the kill mud is circulated. A speed increase is maintained until the annular pressure is constant. The annular pressure is manipulated until the final circulation pressure is equal to the initial circulation pressure to the final circulation.

Chart: 0.24

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.23

Equation: 0.19

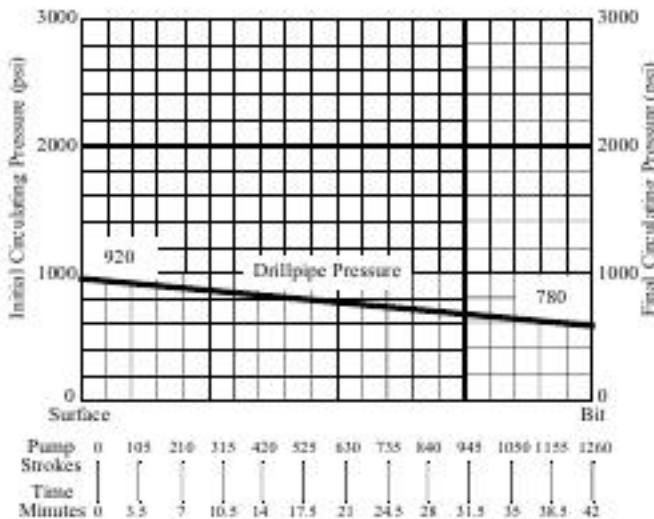


Figure 0-2 Drillpipe pressure plot of kill mud being pumped down the drillpipe

When kill mud reaches the bit, it is good practice to shut-in the well. The drillpipe pressure should fall to zero; if it doesn't, a few more barrels should be pumped to ensure that the kill mud has reached the bit. If the drillpipe pressure is still greater than zero when the pump is stopped and the choke closed, the kick control figures should be rechecked. When satisfied, pumping is restarted, but now the drillpipe pressure is kept constant as the kill mud displaces the mud in the annulus. When the kick fluids and original mud have been displaced, the choke should be wide open. The pump should be shut down and both SIDP & SICP should read zero. If so, the well should then be observed for flow. The kick is now killed and mud should be circulated to condition the hole, and at the same time the trip margin (if any) should be added.

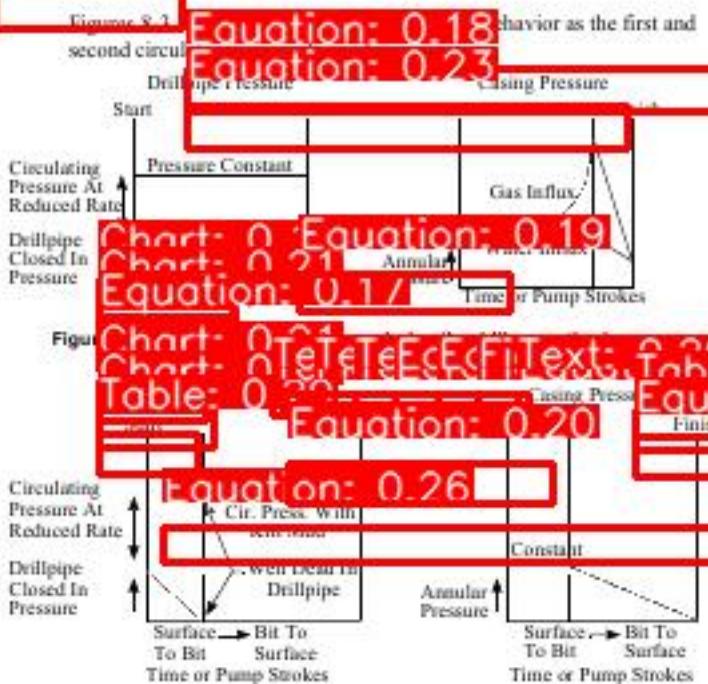


Figure 0-4 Second circulation during the driller's method.

The Engineer's Method

This is usually a more effective method of killing a kick than the driller's method, if time is not a prime concern (Figure 8-5). Kill mud is pumped into the drillpipe as soon as it is ready, which tends to reduce the high annular pressures associated with gas kicks. The same shut-in procedures are used as outlined in the previous section.

When all the calculations have been performed, the mud density is raised immediately to the calculated kill mud density. When the kill mud volume is ready, the pumps are started and the choke slowly opened, while keeping the annular pressure at the required rate. The choke is then regulated in such a way as to decrease the drillpipe pressure

Figure 0.26 The bit, at which point the final circulating pressure is measured.

Figure- Q.19

Text-022

Text: 0.20

Table- 0.20

Figure 0.18

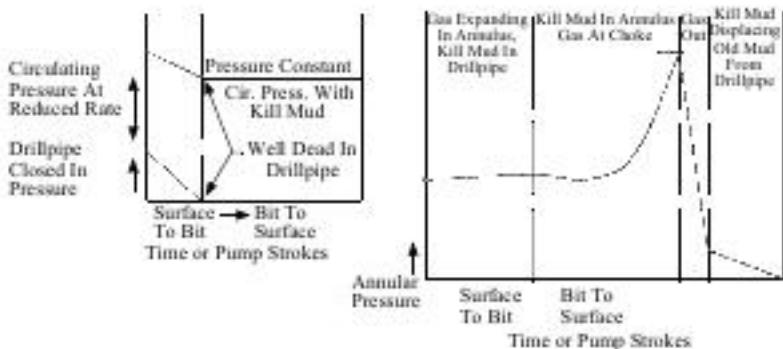


Figure 0-5 Drillpipe and annular pressure curves during the engineer's kill method

Pumping is continued, holding the drillpipe pressure constant by adjusting the choke. When the kick fluids have been displaced, and further volume has been displaced equal to the pipe volume, the SIDP should be zero. The kick should be killed and the well checked for flow. Further circulations can be performed to condition the hole and to add any trip margin. Figure 8-6 shows the variations in drillpipe and casing pressures as the kill procedure is implemented.

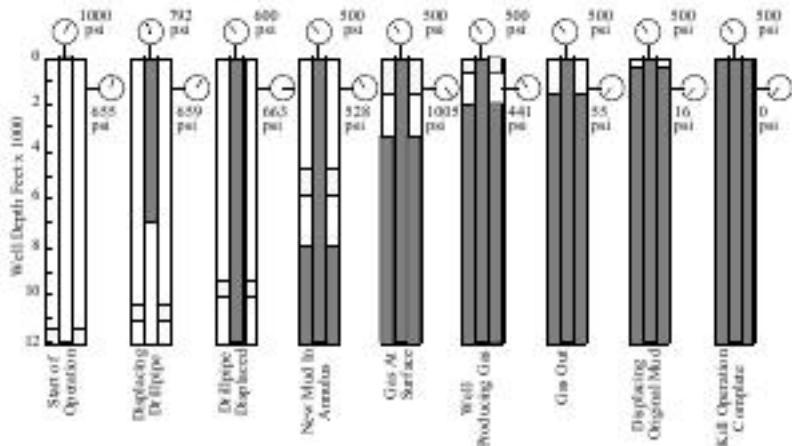


Figure 0-6 Shows diagrammatically the displacement of the original mud with kill mud, with example pressures, using the engineer's method.

The Equation: 0-19

The **Equation: 0.25** method is a reliable method of the three. Its main value lies in its simplicity.

Equation: 0.25

Equation: 0.27

Equation: 0.24

Table: 0.17 The ratio at which the number of facilities available and the density is raised.

Figure: 0.20 Inclined drilling makes calculation of the bottom hole pressure difficult.

Figure 0.21 communication, and the
Figure 0.21 can be a very effective way in

killing a kick
with kill mud

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.21

different densities of the mud. The

Text- 0.16 attached at the designated kill rate. The

Figure: 0.23 shows changes in the mud should be informed. The total pump

Figure 0.25

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.19
Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.23
Text: 0.25

Table: 0.19

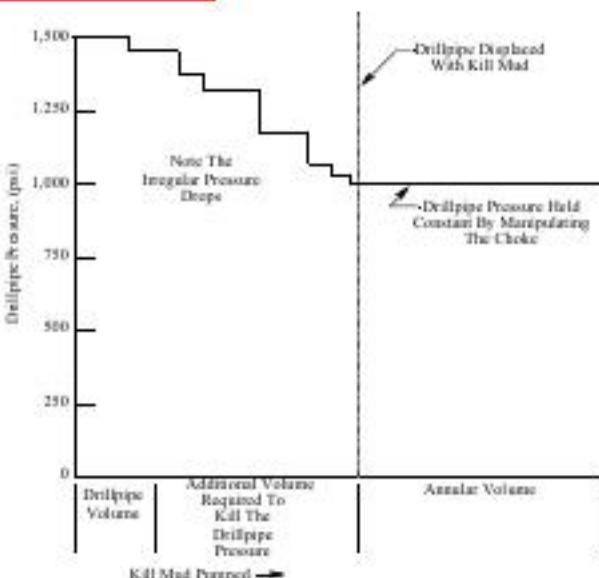


Figure 0-7 Typical irregular drillpipe pressure reductions during concurrent method

When the final kill mud reaches the bit, the final circulating pressure will be reached and from this point on the drillpipe pressure should be kept constant until the operation is completed.

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.19**Shut-in Procedures****Equation: 0.19**

Upon detection of a kick, as soon as indications of a kick are noticed, steps should be taken to shut-in the well if tripping, under no circumstances should the pipe be pulled.

Figure: 0.17

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.17

about stuck pipe or other problems, the primary concern is to kill the well, any concerns about stuck pipe or other problems should be secondary. Two types of shut-in are possible:

Hard Shut-In

Figure: 0.20**Text: 0.20**

Soft Shut-In

Equation: 0.23

The choke is then closed.

Equation: 0.19

One argument against soft shut-in is that it can cause damage to the wellbore during the water-hammer effect of abruptly stopping fluid flow. Another argument against soft shut-in is that it can be less effective means of well control than hard shut-in. I should the casing pressure became excessive. The primary argument against hard shut-in is that it occurs while the shut-in procedures are executed.

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Within the industry, there is still disagreement as to which shut-in method should be used. In general, no has not been determined what method should be used.

Text: 0.23**Figure: 0.22**

Shut-in procedures are dependent upon whether the rig is floored or not. These are the basic shut-in procedures:

Figure: 0.23**Figure: 0.21****Figure: 0.22**

Drilling on land

Table: 0.18

These include:

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.20

1. Once a kick has been observed, the kelly should be raised until the master joint is above the rotary table. This allows the master joint to be seated in the bore of the kelly. The annular preventer also develops a better seal around drillpipe than the shear preventer.

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Table: 0.23

Table: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.22

Tripping on a fixed rig

Once the warning signs of a kick have been observed, the top tool joint should be set in the following sequence:

1. An open safety valve should be installed onto the pipe. This is easier to install than a float valve because any flow up the pipe will blow the valve open.

2. The safety valve should be closed.

3. Pick up, and make up the tool joint.

4. Open the safety valve.

5. Record the SIDP, SISI, and SISI.

Drilling on a floating rig

These are semi-submersible and semi-tensioned drilling rigs.

The major difference is that the well is on the seafloor and pipe movement results in the rams being closed (by a compensator). To solve this problem, the well is drilled onto a set of closed rams and the well is then tensioned (annular or bore) rams. With the BOP stack so far from the seafloor, the problem of the preventers interfering with the closing of the preventers always exists.

This procedure is performed prior to the possibility of taking the well off the closed and the drill string lowered until a tool joint is tripped.

The following sequence is recorded.

- 1-3. These steps are the same as for a fixed rig.

4. Close the annular preventer.

5. Reduce the pressure on the annular preventer.

6. Lower the drill string until it is supported entirely by the rams.

7. Record the SIDP, SISI, and SISI.

Tripping on a floating rig

1-4. These steps are the same as for a fixed rig.

5. Open the annular preventer.

6. Close the bore preventer.

7. Reduce the pressure on the annular preventer.

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.18

Text Figure: 0.23

Figure: 0.17

Text Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.17

Text Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.18

Text Figure: 0.18

9. Record the SUDS, SUDC, and the exit rating.

Diverter procedure: **flexible**

During initial spudding and early drilling, a significant amount of effort must be applied to control the rig. Care must be taken to ensure that the diverter lines are opened.

- As
 - Sh
 - Op
 - Clo
 - Start pumping at a fast rate.

When kicks occur **TextEquation: 0.20** sometimes becomes necessary to lower the **TextEquation: 0.21** the proper surface pressures. The correct procedure is to either strip or close the well and set **P** closed.

The difference between the two is based on the relationship between the string weight and the upward force exerted by the bow. This is, pressure will be greater than the weight of the string, so the string will run in. If the string weight is greater than the upward force, the string will run out.

Drillpipe Flow Charts - 0.16

If a kick occurs and pressure impossible to control, the well will be lost. The well must be killed in the drillstring. Both fluid movement up the string will be prevented. It is therefore

If the day of **Education Day** is a Sunday, the day of **Education Day** is a Saturday.

- DP as follows:

 1. Shareholders' meeting at the SCR.
 2. State the SICP at the SCR.
 3. As per the SICP, the shareholders will be asked to regulate the SICP at the shareholders' meeting.
 4. After the shareholders' meeting, the share rate and the causing procedure will be published as at due to the process on the drilling.

Chart- 021

Equation: 0.21

Edition: 0.21
Edition: 0.20

Equation: 0.20

5 The purpose

EDUCATION: 0.20

If the SCR is not known, the S-DP cannot be taken as zero.

- 1 Shot in Text- 019

2. Line up the top edge of the pipe.

- ### 3. Start PrimeFaces

4. Gradually increase the fluid volume until the patient begins to move fluid down the tube.

5. The SIDP is a movement. It is assumed

Floater Operations:

In shallow water open to the sea, that on land, with respect to

Char

the small choke line lies from the lab to the thorough understanding of choke lines.

(loss) is an important aspect of subsea we

Choke line fracture

The choke line is
choke and up the

Equation:

Equation:
Table: 0-19

Table 6.1
Equation:

Equation-

Equation-

Education

The choke line has been used to circulate pressures recorded while circulating down the drillpipe and up

In addition, the pressure loss when fluid is circulated through the hole to the surface, through the annulus, is:

For example:

Using a slow circulation rate of 1000 gpm, the choke line pressure loss can be calculated when the following pressures are recorded:

All of the necessary standard procedures have been followed and brought up to speed, maintaining the casing pressure constant; the gauge would read 300 psi.

However, this will not be true on the entire well system. The 300 psi reading is only valid while shut-in. Once fluid moves from the wellhead, the casing pressure must be used as the starting point. An extra 300 psi would have been imposed.

What should happen is that the choke should be closed until the pressure drops to zero. The casing pressure will be the same as the pressure drop of 300 psi.

In another example, consider the following (Figure 5-9):

Shut-in pressure = 300 psi
Choke line pressure drop = 300 psi

The casing pressure will be 300 psi when the pumps are brought up to speed. The desired pressure is 300 psi or 100 psi while the choke is closed. To bring the pressure down to 100 psi, the choke must be opened up and adjusted to 200 psi.

Text: 0.23

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.17

Equation: 0.20

Table: 0.16

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.19

Chart: 0.19

Chart: 0.22

Equation: 0.21 added to the annular pressure loss when fluid is circulated through the hole to the surface, through the annulus, is:

Text: 0.21

Equation: 0.17 or 1500 psi, and a slow circulation rate of 1000 gpm, the choke line pressure loss is taken and the following

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.19 300 psi

Equation: 0.21 to circulating. If the pump were stopped, the pressure would drop to 300 psi.

Equation: 0.16

Figure: 0.25 on the entire well system.

Text: 0.20

Equation: 0.21 circulating, the kill line pressure would drop to 300 psi, an extra 300 psi would be required.

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.22 300 psi is deducted from the pressure to drop to zero.

Figure: 0.25 300 psi and the kill line pressure would drop to 300 psi.

Text: 0.18 1150 psi. The choke line friction factor is calculated for the SICP of 300 psi.

Text: 0.20

Equation: 0.17 (Figure 5-9):

Shut-in pressure = 300 psi

Table: 0.16

Choke line pressure drop = 300 psi

Figure: 0.21 the pumps are brought up to speed. The desired pressure is 300 psi or 100 psi while the choke is closed.

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Equation: 0.19

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Equation: 0.17

Equation: 0.20

Table: 0.16

retain the 40
and initial circ

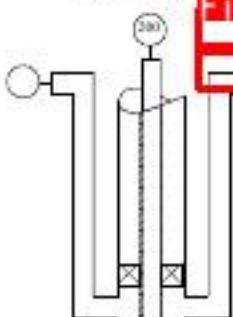


Figure 8-9a

Figure: 0.21 and 8-9b show the shut-in
Figure: 0.21

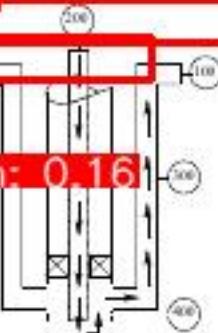


Figure 8-9b

$$\text{Equation: 0.16}$$

As the water depth increases, the pressure drop through the choke line increases. For example:

$$\text{SIDP} = 200 \text{ psi} \quad \text{SICP} = 300 \text{ psi}$$

Choke line: Figure: 0.19

Note that the choke line pressure drop is greater than the SICP. In this instance, it is impossible to open the choke to substitute all of the choke pressure loss

Chart: 0.18 surface choke pressure will read zero but 100

Figure: 0.17 low the BOP stack. This is in effect an "overshoot" of 100 psi. This will result in the drillpipe pressure increasing by 100

as the choke is still already open. Figures 8-9c through 8-9e illustrate this overshoot. To reduce the "overshoot" Figure: 0.17

$$\text{Equation: 0.16}$$

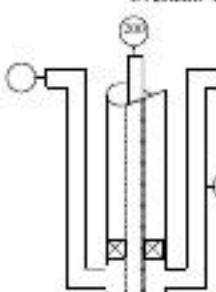


Figure 8-9c

$$\text{Equation: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

Chart: 0.20

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.16

Chart: 0.18

Text: 0.16

Figure: 0.19

reduced. This is accomplished by either reducing the slow circulating rate

Figure 8-9c

or by circulating
circulating with

If the SICP is greater than the choke line friction pressure loss, it is possible to circulate out the well. If the SICP is less than the choke line friction pressure loss, it is possible to circulate in the well. The difference between the SICP and the choke line friction pressure loss is the choke line friction pressure loss.

Figure: 0.19 illustrates the choke line friction pressure loss through choke lines. **Figure: 0.19** illustrates the choke line friction pressure loss measured by the shear force ratio of the kill mud density to the original mud. For example, if the shear force ratio is 1.000, the choke line friction pressure loss will be zero.

This gives a choke line friction pressure loss of 300 psi. If the kill mud density was 10 ppg, the choke line friction pressure loss would become:

$$300 \times 11/10 = 330 \text{ psi}$$

This will occur when the kill mud rate is too high. If the kill mud rate is reduced to a slower rate or by using both the choke and kill lines simultaneously, the optimum rate will be reduced. It may be necessary to use the cementing pump to circulate the kill mud. This will be taken with the cementing unit prior to this.

As stated earlier, the most common cause of kick detection is a kick occurring while drilling. Drilling rig will usually give high flow rates. However, only a small portion of the flow goes through the choke line and bypasses the flow sensors. The length of the kick detection line will determine how rapidly as possible the kick can be detected. It is important to detect kicks as rapidly as possible. It is also important that return flow sensors be located near the wellhead.

In deep water situations, the following factors must be considered:

1. It is always important to have a mud pump available to circulate the kill mud.
2. The mud weight must be increased as the water is displaced from the wellbore.
3. "Gas bubbles" must be removed from the kill mud.
4. The kill mud must be circulated at a rate that will overcome the hydrostatic pressure of the gas bubbles.
5. Circulation must be continued until the gas bubbles are removed.
6. Slow circulation rates will result in a large amount of gas being entrained in the kill mud. This will result in a low shear force ratio, which will give a false reading. The kill mud must be circulated at a rate that will overcome the hydrostatic pressure of the gas bubbles.

Slow circulation rates will result in a large amount of gas being entrained in the kill mud. This will result in a low shear force ratio, which will give a false reading. The kill mud must be circulated at a rate that will overcome the hydrostatic pressure of the gas bubbles.

7. Formation pressure
8. Diverter uses is discussed except when displacing the rig with mud.

Well Control Equipment

Text: 0.19 In the well caused by a kick is stopped by using the blowout preventers. Multiple blowout preventers used in a series is recommended. A BOP stack should be capable of terminating flow under all conditions.

A BOP stack consists of several components, including annular preventers, safety valves, and blowout preventers.

Annular preventer

Commonly referred to as a bag type or spherical preventer, it consists of a flexible bag that contacts around the drill pipe. The bag is inflated to grip the pipe firmly as it shears the bore hole. It is operated hydraulically, utilizing a piston acting on the packer. Once the piston is moved outward, the bag will expand to grip the pipe.

Annular preventers are available in various sizes ranging from 2,000 to 10,000 psi. They can be used without piping, and the entire element will be reduced to a small size.

The initial recommended hydraulic pressure for an annular preventer is 1,500 psi. Once the well is shut in, the pressure should be reduced slightly to reduce the chance of rupturing the packer. One special feature of the annular preventer is that it allows for the removal of joints during stripping operations to be carried out while the pipe is being moved slowly through the preventer. This is done by moving the preventer assembly slowly through the pipe.

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Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.16

Equation: 0.19

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Text: 0.16

Table: 0.17

Equation: 0.18

Some of the most common annular preventers are manufactured by Hydril. These preventers are designed for different applications:

Chart: 0.19

Chart: 0.20

| Packing Type | Color | Notes |
|------------------|----------------|---|
| Natural rubber | Text: 0.20 | greater than -30°F |
| Synthetic rubber | Equation: 0.21 | Oil base mud w/ annealing points between 165° and 245°F, operating temperatures >20°F |
| Neoprene | green | Oil based mud, operating temperatures between 20°F and -30°F |

All of the above are suitable for H₂S use.

Both NL Schaffer and Cameron Iron Works also make annular preventers.

Ram Preventers:

Ram type preventers have two opposing packing elements that are closed by moving them together. Rubber packing elements again, form the seal. A major difference between these and the annular preventer is that they are designed for square pipe. They are designed for a certain size of pipe and will only work on that type of pipe. Also, these preventers seal in only one direction.

These preventers are designed for square pipe and will not function on round pipe. It is important to know that they may accept a range of pipe sizes.

Pipe rams: These have a ram that matches the diameter of the pipe. For different pipe sizes, such as 3 1/2" and 4 1/2", would require two sets of rams for each size of pipe. These are used to close around the tubing.

Blind rams: These are used when there is no pipe in the hole. I am not sure if it flattens the pipe, but no pipe is in the hole.

Shear rams: These are designed to cut drill pipe when closed. This will result in the dropping of the drillstring. The ram stack is designed in such a way that it drops below the shear rams or shear rams drop below the shear rams. They will stop the flow of fluid.

Equation: 0.22

Well Control

Drilling Engineering

Final

only used as a last resort if all other preventer have failed.

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.23

The ram preventers will have a manual screw-type locking device that can be used in the event of a power failure.

Other Components

In addition to the annular and ram type components, the BOP stack must contain some other components to allow the safe control of the well.

The BOP stack will also contain choke and kill lines.

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.19

In certain cases it may be necessary to allow the well to blowout in a controlled manner. This may occur in shallow sections due to a kick or a stuck pipe. A diverter system, often using the annular preventer, will divert the flow around the line. The diverter line will then be opened below the annular preventer to allow the flow to exit the well.

Figure: 0.16

Figure: 0.17

Figure: 0.16

Kelly cocks are valves located at the top and bottom of the kelly. These

Table: 0.17

Chart: 0.18

Text: 0.20

Kelly cocks are manually controlled and then connect to a spring loaded ball type, a flapper valve

Chart: 0.19

Chart: 0.20

Chart: 0.23

A manual valve, usually installed onto the drillpipe after a kick occurs. They

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.21

Table: 0.16

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Text: 0.20

aristic, such as in
during kill operations,
as few bends as
conditions.

The system used
accumulator. Hy-
draulic fluid is stored under pressure, the pressure being
Figure: 0.24 provided by an
accumulator by being
compressed, stored in pressurized oil is then used to
pumps replenish
used to operate the
varying pressure
constant pressure
packing element
pressures of 1200
and 3000 psi.

ence vibrations occur
y anchored down, with
high pressure flow

Figure: 0.26

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.24

Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.20

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Text: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Special Considerations And Procedures

The majority of problems which occur during well control operations are caused by equipment breakdown or improper operating procedures.

Excessive Casing Pressure

Mechanical failure at the surface can occur if excessive casing pressure is applied.

Equation: 0.18

Mechanical failure at the surface can be catastrophic, while initiation breakdown can lead to lost circulation, an underground fracture, or surface fracturing. A "maximum allowable casing pressure" must be determined and if casing pressure rises above this value, a decision must be made whether to:

1. Thicken the casing
2. Turn the well back to the surface
3. Close in the well and consider abandonment

With the completion of the well, frequent selection and frequent testing of the surface equipment will help to reduce the risk of damage.

Formation breakdown occurs when the last casing shoe is shallow enough for the possibility of fractures reaching the surface.

If the maximum casing pressure is exceeded, a kick may occur.

1. Controll

allowable casing pressure while monitoring for control loss and/or formation breakdown.

2. Add

minimum allowable casing pressure and/or formation breakdown. However, the control of a high volume gas flow using the low choke rate may result in a kick.

3. Close

in the well and bring the annulus to reduce casing pressure or spot a pill of heavy mud or cement. This will prevent further breakdown.

If the casing pressure is exceeded, the possibility of surface fracturing due to casing or formation failure exists, the well must be abandoned.

These considerations are discussed in more detail in [Text: 0.19](#).

**Kick or Surge
Equation: 0.19**

Running kick

Kicks that occur while running line, or a liner, into the wellbore. To prevent a kick that occurs while running line, an attempt should be made to run the hole conditioned.

Equation: 0.27

Equation: 0.24

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.20

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.23

Text: 0.19

Running cas

A kick that occurs

Stripping the

within a few

the annular gap

will need to be

long section of

tensional force

BOP's (in sub

preventers ab

small annulus)

slower and the

Gas entering

complicate p

underground

resort to gain

not at bottom

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.17

Equation: 0.17

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Equation: 0.16

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.20

Parted or Washed Out

If the drill string

to preventing

movement sh

string parting

out string, or

The following

1. Lo

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Equation: 0.16

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

2. Observe the influx rate. If it is lower than the SICP, then the well may be washed out or bit if the bit is off bottom.
3. If the influx is below the SICP, then the influx will be allowed to percolate upwards. Circulating allows the influx to rise to the surface. The purpose in rising is to allow the influx to expand upwards. It will expand and then rise to the surface. This will help to prevent further influx.
4. When the influx rises higher than the SICP, then the well must be controlled. The SICP will be determined by the following equation:

$$\text{KMD (ppg)} = \text{SIDP} / (0.051 - \text{SICP})$$

The well will not have been shut in long enough for the annulus pressure to drop back to bottom and allow influx flow. A suitable drilling fluid to maintain the well bore pressure should be used.

Stuck Pipe

An influx of formation fluid occurs when the drillstring becomes stuck in the hole. Pipe movement (if possible) should be made to dislodge the stuck pipe. The well must be controlled first. A suitable control should be used to bring the drillstring recover.

Plugged or Blocked

If one or more bit jets become plugged, the SIDP will increase suddenly. The choke should not be opened to maintain a constant SIDP. This is because as this will allow the influx of formation fluid to enter the wellbore and the well shot in. The SICP should be reduced until the wellbore pressure is maintained as the pumps are brought up to the required rate, without encouraging excessive drill pipe rotation. The well should continue the kill.

If the bit becomes completely plugged, drilling pressure cannot be used to move the stuck pipe. The annulus pressure and the casing pressure will be lost.

The wellbore pressure should be allowed to rise 100 psi above the initial SICP and small amounts of fluid should be added to the wellbore. The wellbore pressure may be given to the following equation:

$$\text{F} = \frac{\text{C}_1 + \text{C}_2}{\text{C}_1} \text{V}$$

$$\text{C}_1 = \frac{\text{P}_c - \text{P}_a}{\text{G}}$$

$$\text{C}_2 = \frac{\text{P}_a - \text{P}_w}{\text{G}}$$

$$\text{V} = \frac{\text{F}}{\text{G}}$$

Under Figure: 0.18

The annular pressure is reduced into a lower pressure zone. This may occur due to the annular pressure of drilling fluid or the annular pressure of kill fluid. A common cause is the loss of annular pressure due to the loss of LCM in a low pressure zone. In some cases, it may be possible to pump down the annulus while killing the well.

The direction of flow during a control procedure depends on the direction of flow of the kill fluid due to shutting off the annulus. If the flow is upward (assumed), then the flow will be from deeper zones to shallower zones. Formation fluids will be carried along by the kill fluid.

If, however, the flow is downward, it may be from shallower zones. The head may increase in the shallower zones of the wellbore.

One method of determining the direction of flow is:

1. As the kill fluid is pumped:
 - a. Text: 0.25
 - b. Figure: 0.26
 - c. Text: 0.19
 - d. Header: 0.17
 - e. Text: 0.20

2. Rig up to wireline the kill line and go down the derrick.

- a. Determine the point of entry of the kill line into the wellbore.
- b. Calculate the mud density at the point of entry and the point of exit. The calculated mud density may be higher than the original mud density.

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Text: 0.20

This procedure is known as a **bottom kill**. As the annular density increases, the annular pressure will increase. As the bottom pressure on the formation, resulting in a decrease in the limited volume of mud in the annulus. A running kill is accomplished if the mud weight is only 1 to 2 psi heavier than the estimated bottom pressure.

Lost Circulation

Loss of fluid ret-
the wellbore, the
surface or into the
naturally occurring
pressure depletion
fracturing due to
lost circulation,
be filled with either
fluid pumped sh-

Figure 0.18 An annular blowout or ground blowout, which is immediate, or an underground blowout has started, a wire plug may be used to seal the thief zone from the kick. In addition, fine sand can be used to control slow losses (coarse material that may be used). Occasional use of a choke line should not be used when bulkheading down the annulus. A circulation zone should be sealed once the loss zone is controlled.

Weight **Figure: 0.20**

In the case of a well kick or blowout, lost circulation, or situations requiring the attempt to circulate deflocculated mud, circulation rates between 18 and 26 ppg are required to prevent rapid settling of the cuttings. It is recommended that circulation rates be held at 20 ppg during influx containment (removing the cuttings from the wellbore).

If circulation pressure and annular pressure are equal, the influx must be held by the weight of the cuttings.

In blowout, lost circulation, or situations where a settling plug is required to control circulation, it is necessary to add a weighting agent to water or oil, weighing between 18 and 26 ppg. These are usually hematite or magnetite, which have densities greater than 22 ppg and/or if the cuttings are very heavy.

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.17

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.16

Text: 0.26

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

Figure: 0.19^c

Text: 0.20

Bullheading

This is defining the surface. To the surface. To the surface, or both. In most cases, it will occur at the top of the casing shoe.

Figure: 0.19 can prove useful since the fracture or loss zone already exists.

Wells with shallow zones of high permeability and zones of low permeability will have long open hole sections and the quicker the kick will be pumped out, the less damage to the formation fracturing. This will occur at the top of the casing shoe.

There are no guidelines for pumping rates (the pump rate should be increased until the higher pressure will become detrimental to the wellbore). The influx away from the wellbore should be avoided.

Once the influx has been removed, normal circulation should be resumed to establish a balanced fluid column. The circulation of kill fluid should be at a rate of 10-15 ppg. If the wellbore continues to leak further, further steps should be taken to stop the leak. If the leak is present as a problem, bullheading provides a useful means of limiting the amount of fluid lost at the surface.

Text: 0.23

Table: 0.22

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.22

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.26

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.26

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.18

Header: 0.17

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.17

Text: 0.21

Dullheading has
be considered:

Advantages

1. Prevents wellbore collapse
2. Keeps bottom hole pressure constant
3. Lower surface pressures are commonly used
4. Useful when underground blowouts occur
5. Can be used with or without pipe in the hole
6. Can be used to kill liner-top leaks

Disadvantages

1. Fractures formations
2. Can burst the casing
3. May break liner top
4. Can plug drillpipe
5. Will lose mud to formations (may therefore be expensive)
6. May pressure up formations, causing a back-flow when circulation is stopped

Equation: 0.19 disadvantages that must

Equation: 0.18

Other: 0.18 reaching the surface

Equation: 0.20

Kick and Kill Analysis**Input Data**

| | | | |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-------------|
| Depth | 12000.0 ft. | Pump Rate | 30 str/min |
| V. Depth | 11980.0 ft. | Flow Rate | 126 gal/min |
| Inclination | 2.00 deg | Pressure | 250 psi |
| Mud Density | 10.00 lb/gal | | |
| Leak Off EQMD | 15.10 lb/gal | | |

| Influx Data | |
|----------------------------|---------|
| Kick Volume | 10 bbls |
| Shut In Casing Pressure | 450 psi |
| Shut In Drillpipe Pressure | 400 psi |

Calculated Results

| Volumes | bbls | Strokes | Minutes |
|----------------------|------|---------|---------|
| Pipe Capacity | 208 | 2085 | 69 |
| Hole Annular Volume | 1398 | 14027 | 466 |
| Riser Annular Volume | 180 | 1801 | 60 |
| Choke Volume | 6 | 61 | 2 |

| Total Volumes | bbls | Strokes | Minutes |
|---------------------------|------|---------|---------|
| Circulating through Riser | 1785 | 17913 | 505 |
| Circulating through Choke | 1612 | 16173 | 537 |

| Kill Data | Units |
|------------------------------------|--------------|
| Pore Pressure at TD | 6624. psi |
| Kill Mud Density | 10.81 lb/gal |
| Maximum Allowable Annular Pressure | 2649. psi |
| Initial Circulating Pressure | 650. psi |
| Final Circulating Pressure | 270. psi |
| Length of Influx | 119.6 ft. |
| Vertical Length of Influx | 119.5 ft. |
| Estimated Influx Density | 1.95 lb/gal |
| Influx Fluid Type | Gas |

Self-CFigure: 0.19

1. List five major causes of kicks.

TextText: 0.20

- b.

Equation: 0.18

- 2

Equation 0.18

- 3

Equation: 0.17

- Figure: 0.19** observed if a kick is taken during a ~~penalty~~ ~~penalty~~

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.18

Equation- 0.17

3. Which of the kill methods is used in Equation 0.20?

Table- 0.19

4. What information is needed to calculate the total cost of the project?

Figure 0.22

- [View Details](#) [Edit](#) [Delete](#)

Page 1

5. While killing a well with the "Driller's Method", the first circulation is used to _____ and the second circulation is used to _____.

6. Why is the "concurrent method" usually not chosen to kill a well?

Equation: 0.27

Well Control

Drilling Engineering

7. When the annular preventers are closed, what is the annular striping and snubbing pressure in the pipe?



Equation: 0.15

Equation: 0.20

Figure: 0.16

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.17

Equation: 0.18

8. How do pipe rams differ from borehole rams?

Figure: 0.21

Equation: 0.16?

9. What are the disadvantages of:

Chart: 0.16

Chart: 0.21

Table: 0.20

10. Calculate the kill mud density (no safety factor).

Equation: 0.16

SIDP = 800 psi MD = 10.0 ppg



SICP = Text: 0.18 10,000 ft.

answer:

Text: 0.17

11. If the following data is entered into the computer, what answer will be entered into the well bore (assume no column)?

SIDP = 800 psi MD = 15.0 ppg

Table: 0.17

MD = 3.5 inch

answer:



Figure: 0.18

Text: C

Table: 0.15

Chart: F

Equation: 0.17

Choice: 0.21

Equation: 0.21

Chart: 0.19

Cost Analysis

Figure: 0.17

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the limitations and inaccuracies of using older methods of analyzing drilling costs.

Figure 0.21

appreciate the variables in the E_t -per-hour analysis equations and be able to use them.

- Draw a cost per foot equation used in economics evaluation. **Text: 0.21**
 - Perform a graph when a bit is no longer cost effective. **Equation: 0.18**
 - Suggest the proper type of bit and drilling variables to obtain the most cost-effective results. **Text: 0.20**
 - Describe the best methods for bit selection. **Figure: 0.21**
 - Explain how to select the best bit for a given application. **Figure: 0.22**

Additional Benefits

Figure 0.17

Baker Hughes INTEQ | Figure 0.19

Bourgoyn Jr., Adam, et al. Figure: 0.18 PE Textbook Series, Vol. 2, 1986

Fig. Figure: 0.20

Whittaker, Alun, *Mud Logging*, © 1997 Blackie & Son Ltd. All rights reserved.

Figure- 017

Equation: 0.19

Chart- 017

Intr **Equation: 0.20**

The value of accurate drilling data cannot be over-emphasized. Reliable, factual data is essential for bit evaluation and review. All information analyzed until the moment it is useful, from the moment it is available, is planning more, less time is spent on the job, and the driller through the operator and service companies.

Computers are playing an increasingly important role in drilling operations and the old adage "pride goes before the fall" is still true. In the final "priorities" section of this chapter, the final "priorities" will be discussed.

At the field level, the Bit Data Record (Figure 9-1) can be one of the well planners must have. It is a standard form required to complete this task and readily available on the rig.

Dull bit evaluations are not always objectively performed. The results can be inaccurate. In fact, at times, reveal erroneous entries in other parts of the form. This is particularly true during rotating time calculations.

The recent trend toward faster drilling rates on costlier wells has led to the development of new technologies such as the hydrodynamic bit cleaner. These eliminate expensive rig-time and excessive trips. As a result, ever-increasing numbers of new bit types have become available, including many for specific applications.

With these changes in bit design and/or performance, hours, penetration rate, and significance of the bit data record have changed.

To make the most of the new bit designs, more emphasis must be placed on bit performance.

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.19

Table: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.22

Cost-Equation: 0.20

The introduction of advanced drill bit designs has not always had the effect of obsoleting existing designs. In fact, it has increased the number of choices available from the various bit manufacturers.

Selection of the correct bit depends on the variable performance criteria. The question which needs to be answered is: How can the correct bit be selected for a given application?

The decision could be based on some performance criteria, such as minimum cost-per-footage, or maximum penetration rate. Other times, a cost-per-footage approach may be satisfactory in a particular situation, but it may not be satisfactory where drilling costs are changing, and drilling practices and bit selection variables are changing.

A realistic approach is to base the selection on the minimum cost-per-footage relationship between bit cost and cost.

Cost-per-footage is determined by the following equation:

$$\text{cost/foot} = \frac{\text{Hourly Rig Cost}(\text{Trip Time} + \text{Drilling Time}) + \text{Bit Cost}}{\text{Footage}}$$

Note: The above calculation does not take into account the cost of rig time, time spent changing bits, and so forth, is ignored in the calculations.

The example below evaluates the performance of two different bits. First the bit records 15 and 16 are evaluated. Bit number 15 is a journal-bearing bit and bit number 16 is a journal-bearing insert bit.

| Bit No. | Bit Cost | Depth Out (ft) | Footage | Rotating | Penetration | Cost/foot |
|---------|----------|----------------|---------|----------|-------------|------------|
| 15 | \$950 | 7,547 | 264 | 14 | Text: 0.20 | Text: 0.18 |
| 16 | \$3145 | 8,510 | 963 | 13 | Text: 0.20 | Text: 0.19 |

Rig Cost = \$400/hour Trip Time = 1 hr/1000 feet

$$\text{Bit}\#15 \text{ cost/ft} = \frac{\$400/\text{hr} \quad (7.5 \text{ hr} + 18.5 \text{ hr}) + \$950}{264 \text{ feet}} = \$42.99/\text{ft}$$

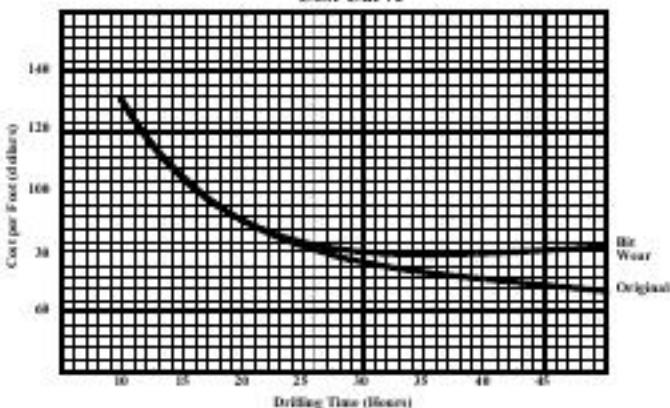
$$\text{Bit}\#16 \text{ cost/ft} = \frac{\$400/\text{hr} \quad (8.5 \text{ hr} + 76 \text{ hr}) + 3145}{963 \text{ feet}} = \$38.36/\text{ft}$$

If performance is based on using penetration rate as the criteria, bit #15 would appear to be superior. Referring to the cost-per-foot comparison, bit #16 gave the best performance, at \$4.63/ft cheaper than bit #15.

It has been demonstrated that by using this cost-per-foot formula, a bit can be pulled when it no longer becomes economical to drill. When the drilling time-per-foot begins to increase, and the footage drilled-per-time decreases, the cost-per-foot will begin to increase. When that increase is first noticed, it would be economical to pull the bit.

This analysis can also be represented graphically (see below). As drilling begins, the cost-per-foot will decrease rapidly. The longer the bit is in the hole, the more straight the curve becomes. When the curve begins to increase, it becomes necessary to pull the bit.

Cost Curve



The following

Equation: 0.20

$$C_{\text{Run}} = £ 2,000 \text{ per hour}$$

$$t_1 = 1,000 \text{ ft/hr}$$

$$C_{\text{Bit}} = £ 4,000 \text{ per insert bit}$$

$$= £ 19,000 \text{ per rated cutter bit}$$

$$C_{\text{Motor}} = £ 200 \text{ per } \square$$

Equation: 0.21

In the following table, the client's cost per foot for drilling the conglomerate section has been calculated for all the insert bit runs, for two PDC bit runs and for one run with a diamond bit.

In this exercise calculate the client's cost per foot for drilling with the impregnated diamond bit.

| Well No. | Bit Style | C (rig) (£/hr) | t ₁₀ (hrs) | t _d (hrs) | C (bit) (£) | C (motor) (£/hr) | d (ft) | Cost (ft) (£/ft) |
|----------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-------------|------------------|--------|------------------|
| 1 | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 13.2 | 16.0 | 4,000 | - | 68 | 917.60 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 13.8 | 13.0 | 4,000 | - | 26 | 2215.40 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 13.8 | 26.5 | 4,000 | - | 65 | 1,301.50 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 13.9 | 30.0 | 4,000 | - | 93 | 987.10 |
| | PDC Bit | 2,000 | 14.0 | 24.5 | 19,000 | - | 52 | 1,846.20 |
| | PDC Bit | 2,000 | 14.1 | 13.0 | 19,000 | - | 63 | 1,161.90 |
| | PDC Bit | 2,000 | 14.2 | 30.0 | 4,000 | - | 101 | 949.00 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 14.3 | 29.0 | 4,000 | - | 117 | 774.40 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 14.4 | 18.0 | 4,000 | - | 60 | 1,146.70 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 14.5 | 23.0 | 19,000 | 200 | 134 | 735.80 |
| 2 | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 13.4 | 41.3 | 4,000 | - | 125 | 902.20 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 13.8 | 19.4 | 4,000 | - | 67 | 1,050.70 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 13.9 | 13.4 | 4,000 | - | 53 | 1,105.70 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 14.0 | 9.2 | 4,000 | - | 32 | 157.50 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 14.0 | 28.9 | 4,000 | - | 152 | 590.80 |
| 3 | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 12.6 | 2.4 | 4,000 | - | 23 | 1,478.00 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 12.8 | 23.0 | 4,000 | - | 212 | 356.80 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 12.9 | 3.0 | 4,000 | - | 18 | 1,968.00 |
| | Insert Bit | 2,000 | 12.9 | 19.2 | 4,000 | - | 120 | 588.30 |
| 4 | Impregnated Bit | 2,000 | 15.1 | 58.5 | 19,000 | 200 | 495 | |
| | Impregnated Bit | 2,000 | 14.2 | 39.5 | 19,000 | 200 | 403 | |
| | Impregnated Bit | 2,000 | 15.4 | 39.5 | 19,000 | 200 | 317 | |
| | Impregnated Bit | 2,000 | 15.7 | 42.0 | 19,000 | 200 | 358 | |
| 5 | Impregnated Bit | 2,000 | 14.2 | 57.5 | 19,000 | 200 | 540 | |
| | Impregnated Bit | 2,000 | 14.2 | 68.5 | 19,000 | 200 | 283 | |

These calculated cost per foot for

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

determine the average
the shows the results.

| Bit Type | Number of Bits | Bit Rents (£/ft) | Section of Condominiums (ft) |
|---------------|----------------|------------------|------------------------------|
| Insert Bits | 1 | Chart: 0.20 | Other: 0.20 |
| PDC Bits | 1 | 1,504.00 | Figure: 0.2 |
| PDC Bits (in) | 1 | 735.00 | Other: 0.16 |
| Impregnated | 1 | 424.16 | Header: Table: 0.19 |
| | | | Table: 0.18 |
| | | | Chart: 0.19 |
| | | | Table: 0.22 |
| | | | Text: 0.15 |
| | | | Figure: 0.22 |
| | | | Table: 0.2 |
| | | | Text: 0.15 |

Target Cost Per Foot and Target ROP

Competitor's cost per foot can be used to generate performance proposals for clients. This target cost can be calculated based on information from the market that used competitor products.

This target cost is generated by applying a sliding scale hourly rate for motor operations. If the target is met or exceeded, it is charged at normal list price; if it is not, then the hourly rate is adjusted until the target figure is reached. This type of proposal has been used several times to persuade clients.

Before we can generate a proposal, we must be reasonably sure what the minimum ROP is required to meet the proposed cost per foot.

Note: All figures are based on a cost per foot of £1000.

example, the target cost per foot is £1000, the target ROP necessary, and so forth.

Text: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Since:

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.16

Equation: 0.25

Cost Analysis

Drilling Engineering

Fin

then:

$$\text{Equation: 0.20}$$

$$t_D = \frac{C_d - C_{BH} - C_{Rig} t_f}{C_{Rig} + C_{Motor}}$$

Cost Chart: 0.21

Equation: 0.20, Figure: 0.21, Figure: 0.19

Example 1, Baker Hughes INTEQ

Offset-well cost /h

$$\text{Equation: 0.24}$$

Rig Cost £ 2,083 per hour

Bit Cost

$$\text{Equation: 0.27}$$

Section Length

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

Drilling Time

$$\text{Equation: 0.17}$$

Trip Time

$$\text{Text: 0.15}$$
 hrs

Cost per foot £ 26.18 + 101 + 2,000

$$\text{Text: 0.17}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.18}$$
 £ 3,753

Baker Hughes Drilling Performance reduction in the

$$\text{Text: 0.23}$$

$$\text{Text: 0.23}$$

Target cost £ 1,294.72

$$\text{Text: 0.23}$$

The performance parameter used is Mach 1C Navi-Drill. The section length is actual

Calculation of Target ROR

Rig Cost

$$\text{Figure: 0.23}$$

Bit Cost

$$\text{Chart: 0.21}$$

Motor Cost

$$\text{Text: 0.23}$$
 £ 225 per hour

Section length

$$\text{Text: 0.18}$$

Trip Time

$$\text{Text: 0.20}$$
 hours (2 round trips)

Target cost

$$\text{Text: 0.18}$$
 £ 1,294.72

Target cost of drilling interval = £ 1,106,092 (294.72 x 3,753 feet)

Cost

$$\text{Text: 0.16}$$
 £ 2,083 x 21.8 = £ 45,409

Bit Costs

$$\text{Text: 0.23}$$
 £ 48,500

Target cost of drilling interval

$$\text{Text: 0.25}$$
 £ 1,106,092 - (45,409 + 48,500)

$$\text{Figure: 0.25}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.18}$$

$$\text{Chart: 0.21}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.22}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.20}$$

$$\text{Figure: 0.19}$$

Baker Hughes International

Cost Analysis

Break Equation: 0.22

The standard cost of operating a bit depends on the number of trips, time for reaming, severity of hole conditions, and hole diameter. The best approach is to use a bit which matches the required price per trip. There is no allowance for the variations in operating costs between different lengths. These equations are based on the assumption that the mud treatment prior to operating conditions (more WOBs requires more collars), and Figure 0.17 shows a comparison, and lends itself well to the need for a formula. The formula invariably favors using a bit which matches the required price per trip.

Figure 0.23 Root formulas in determining
Figure 0.22 The time value of money according to the
Text: 0.20 exponential basis.

The first step in costs of previous (or series of hits per-foot) is determined by determining the unit formula and considering the bit rate of penetration, a target cost per foot, and the cost per hour. The calculated \$33.46/ft is the target which must be equated or bettered to prove

Figure: 0.25 **Text: 0.22** will be used and that a trip will still require 7 hours. The bit value 21 hours.

Figure: 0.19 to feet of hole at the "target" cost and plotted in Figure 0.19. In this example, combined unit cost

able: 0.1 /

Text: 021

Table: 0.18

OPERATION

Test 034

exit USA

Figure 0.2

第二章 会议礼仪

Equation: 0.26

Cost Analysis

Drilling Engineering

Finally, a line is drawn through the grid to represent the break-even drilling cost. Any cost less than this line is cost, a combination of cost, and a combination of cost, and a combination of cost; if a bit costs \$53.45 per foot, it will exceed this cost.

Based on location and time, it is possible to determine the accuracy either the hours which can be expected or the probable penetration rate. If probable hours are estimated, the chart indicates the required footage to break-even.

If it is known that the bit cost is \$53.45 per foot, the intersection of the break-even line with the horizontal axis will indicate the required hours to break-even. This chart can be used to determine the required hours to make a profit against less than the target cost.

This chart can also be used to determine the required hours to make a profit against less than the target cost.

Example 3:

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.25

Rig Cost/Hr

Trip Time, Hrs = 8 Days @ 7 hrs. each = 56 hrs.

Total Footage

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Total # Bits

8 @ \$710 = \$5680

Avg. Cost/Ft

$$C = \frac{B + R(F - 1)}{F}$$

Equation: 0.19

$$C = \frac{5680 + 250(103 + 56)}{56} = \$53.45 \text{ per ft. ("target" cost)}$$

Equation: 0.21

Text: 0.25

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.24

Break-even Point Performance Equation: 0.22

$$1. \quad \text{trip hrs} + \frac{\text{Insert Bit Cost}}{\text{Ft/hr}} = \text{fms} \quad \text{Figure: 0.10}$$

Final Figure: 0.11
Figure: 0.12

$$\frac{S3317}{250} = 21 \text{ hrs}$$

* Plot to left of zero on 'X' the **Figure: 0.20**
Figure: 0.21

$$2. \quad \frac{\text{Insert Bit Cost} + \text{Trip Cost}}{\text{Offset Cost/Ft}} = \text{Ft/hr}$$

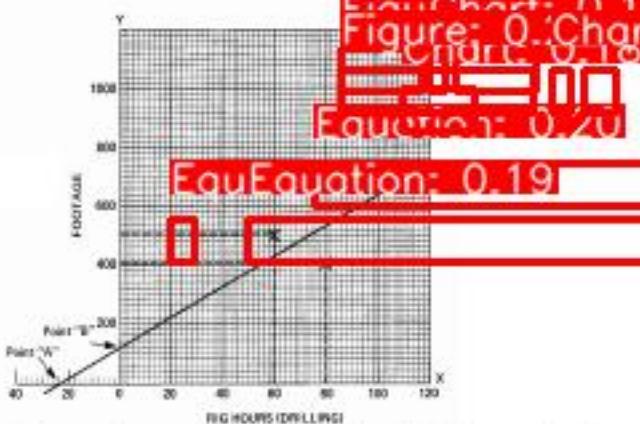
Final Figure: 0.13

$$S3317 + S1750$$

Final Figure: 0.14
Figure: 0.15

** Plot footage on 'Y'
Figure: 0.16

3. Draw a straight line extending from the intersection point to the top of the chart.



Final Figure: 0.17
Figure: 0.18

Final Figure: 0.19
Figure: 0.20

Any footage and hour combination on this line is a breakeven point; above the line is the lower cost/ft, below is the higher cost/ft.

Equation: 0.28

Cost Analysis

Drilling Engineering

Diamond Bit

Equation: 0.20

& Breakeven Pt.

Comparison Drilling Cost Data Points

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.17

| Item | Description | Rig Hours Diamond Bit | Cost per ft. Diamond Bit |
|------|---|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| A | Bit Size | | |
| B | Number of Bits | | |
| C | Total rig time all bits being considered (of B) | 48 hrs. | 8 Hrs. |
| D | Cost of Rig | \$100.00 | \$100.00 |
| E | Chart: Chart: 0.18 | \$4,800.00 | \$800.00 |
| F | Chart: Chart: 0.21 | \$54 ft. | 1350 Ft. |
| G | Chart: Chart: 0.21 | 29 ft. | 165 Hrs. |
| H | Equation: Equation: 0.18 | 100.00 | \$3,350.00 |
| I | Other: Equation: 0.18 | 65 | \$15.30 |

Break even Performance Diamond Bit



$$J = \text{Rig Hours} = C(\text{Diamond Bit}) + \frac{H(\text{Diamond Bit})}{D(\text{Diamond Bit})} = 8 + \frac{3350}{100} = 41.5$$

$$K = \text{Footage} = \frac{H(\text{Diamond Bit}) + E(\text{Diamond Bit})}{I(\text{Roller Bits})} = \frac{3350 + 800}{23.65} = 175.48$$

Directions for use of graph: Figure: 0.21

1. Plot "J" value to left of zero on "X" (horizontal) axis.
2. Plot "K" value on "Y" (vertical) axis.
3. Draw a straight line extending through points "J" and "K".
4. Any footage and hour combination on this line is the breakeven point for the diamond bit. Any point above the line extending through "J" and "K" indicates a cheaper cost per foot. Any point below the line indicates higher cost per foot for the diamond bit.

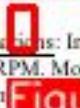
Equation: 0.20

Drilling Engineering**Equation: 0.20**

One of the primary parameters which directly affects cost analysis is the efficiency of the drilling variables. Those variables which are varied to achieve the best drill rate for each drilling operation are the weight on bit (WOB) and the rotary speed (RPM). These two variables are to be manipulated, but this should be done in conjunction with the bit being tripped into the borehole.

Many tests have been conducted to determine the optimum WOB and RPM for several results:

1. Soft Formations: Increasing rotary speed can improve the penetration rate with little effect on bit cutter wear. Relatively low WOB will yield the best results.
2. Medium Formations: Increasing RPM will not have the same result as in soft formations. Moderate RPM with moderate WOB should begin to yield the best results. Increase WOB to maintain the drill rate.
3. Hard Formations: Increasing both WOB and RPM yields the best results.



Text: 0.17

Figure: 0.15

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.18

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.22

Text: 0.24

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.20

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Figure: 0.22

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.21

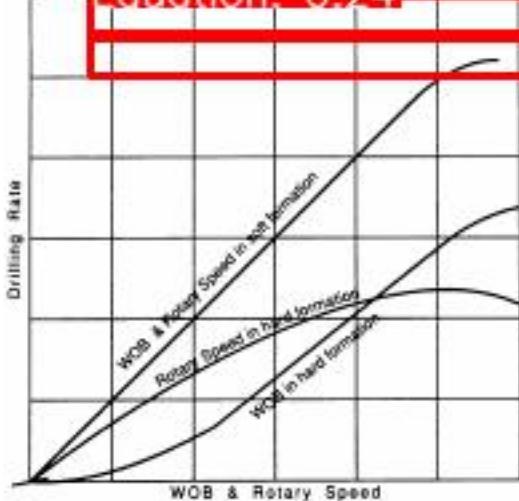
Text: 0.23

The relationship between penetration rate and WOB is:

$$\text{Equation: 0.20} \quad \text{WOB} = \frac{\text{Penetration Rate}}{\text{Rate of Penetration}}$$

penetration rate = $\frac{\text{WOB}}{\text{Rate of Penetration}}$

$$\text{Equation: 0.24}$$



Additional WOB and RPM considerations must be kept in mind. A very high rotary speed can drastically reduce the life of many roller cone bits, thereby increasing their cost per foot (because of the cost of extra bits and extra trips). Similarly, running excessively high weight-on-bit may buckle the drill pipe as well as damage the bit, and will almost certainly cause problems because of excessive drilling torque. It would be best, therefore, to use values of WOB and rotary speed corresponding to the top end of the linear portions of the previous graph. The actual values of WOB and RPM at the point at which the graph departs from linearity depends on the type of bit and the hardness of the formation (as well as on the efficiency of the hydraulics in the hole).

$$\text{Equation: 0.27}$$

Drill-Off Tests

A drill-off test is used to determine the most appropriate WOB and RPM, using the following process to accomplish this:

Preliminary

Text: 0.19

1. Be sure the

the

Chart: 0.20

$$\text{Equation: 0.19}$$

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Chart: 0.16

2. Drill-in and **Figure: 0.17** calculate before the start of the test - logg **Text: 0.17** in one second intervals. **Text: 0.22**
3. Lift bit off bottom up **Figure: 0.18** and stop pumps and rotary speed **Text: 0.19**
4. Start pumps - wait ten seconds **Figure: 0.17**
5. Start rotary speed - wait ten seconds **Figure: 0.21**
6. Start drill-off test **Figure: 0.18**

Example Drill-Off Test Parameters

1. Maintain each WOB for 60 seconds
2. Flow rate: 520 gpm
3. Bit Type: 126S

Test #1: RPM 120
WOB 48, 36, 24, 18 klbs

Test #2: RPM 60
WOB 48, 36, 24, 18 klbs

Test #3: RPM 90
WOB 48, 36, 24, 18 klbs

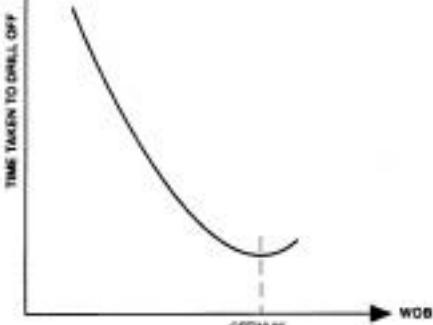
Test #4: RPM 90
WOB 24, 36, 48 klbs

After the completion of the drill-off test, select the RPM and WOB which provided the best penetration rate. A graph like that shown below should be

obtained if the
average WOB

Equation: 0.19

ment is plotted against the

Equation: 0.23

The lowest point on the graph indicates the optimum WOB. A variation of the drill off test is to mark off the kelly in one inch segments and (with the brake locked) measure the time and weight for each inch drilled off.

As shown above, the test is repeated for several different values of rotary speed in order to find the optimum rotary speed also.

Surface Indicators

Once the drill rate has been optimized and drilling has commenced, there are several surface indicators monitored to ensure this drill rate remains optimum. Usually, problems with the drill rate can be detected by several surface indicators, and cross-referencing them.

As mentioned earlier, there are several parameters, a few of which are the following indicated below:

Equation: 0.16

Their interaction with the

Equation: 0.18

TORSION

Equation: 0.17

Torque is usually measured in foot pounds. When diesel or SCR rigs are being used, the torque is measured in amperes (amps), which is the amount of electrical current required by the motors to rotate the drillstring.

Chart: 0.17

Torque is a force applied to the drillstring in foot pounds and will be increased into the drillstring as the weight on bit is increased. Some of the torque comes from the bit, the remainder from the interaction with the borehole.

Chart: 0.22**Chart: 0.20**

Rexius Driller IMTEC

Confidential

80278H Rev. B / December 1995

Chart: 0.21**Chart: 0.19**

There is no baseline from which to measure.

Equation: 0.20
Text: 0.21

Constant Torque

In soft formations, torque is relatively low. The harder the formation, the higher the torque.

Irregular Torque

Changes from the constant value(s) may indicate:

- Interference
- Stability
- Keyseating
- Excessive Weight on Bit
- The bit is buried
- Junk in the hole

Increases in Torque

- A formation change
- Increasing hole inclination
- Increasing filter cake
- The bit becomes stuck

Decreases in Torque

- A formation change
- Decreasing hole inclination
- Decreasing filter cake
- Bit balling

Bump Pr.

Equation: 0.19

Pump Pressure is measured in pounds per square inch (psi), with readings being taken at:

Equation: 0.24

Constant Pump

Equation: 0.28

This should be:

Equation: 0.24

Irregular Pump

Equation: 0.24

Changes from:

Figure: 0.21

- A

Figure: 0.22

- The

Header: 0.18

Increases in Pump Pressure

Equation: 0.20

- The annual

Equation: 0.17

- The bit is

Equation: 0.17

- Inadequate

Equation: 0.17

- A plugged

Equation: 0.17

Decreases in Pump

Equation: 0.18

- A washout in the nozzles or drillstring

Equation: 0.18

- Losing circulation

Equation: 0.22

- Aerated fluid

Equation: 0.22**Pump Strokes****Equation: 0.20**

The pistons on the mud pump push the fluid up the system to push the drilling fluid through the system. The stroke rate is measured in strokes per minute (spm). A set number of strokes per minute are needed to maintain pressure at the predetermined level. Constant variations in the stroke rate can indicate problems.

Increased Pump Strokes**Equation: 0.19**

- A washout

Equation: 0.21

- Losing circulation

Equation: 0.24**Decreased Pump Strokes** indicates:**Equation: 0.23**

- An

Equation: 0.20

- The

Figure: 0.21

Pulling the Bit **Equation: 0.22**

All the previous factors discussed in this section do not make a bit last for the entire well. Pulling a worn bit will increase the cost of drilling operations more than the cost of a new bit. Some factors to consider when determining when to pull the bit are:

Cost-per-Foot

This value, mentioned earlier, is a reliable guide in predicting when to pull a bit. The cost per foot of a bit is determined by the cost per foot value. When the cost per foot begins to increase, it may be necessary to put a new bit into the hole.

Breakeven Analysis

This value can be calculated by dividing the cost of a new bit by the cost per foot. If the calculated value is not being met, then a new bit may have to be run.

Drill Rate

A gradual decrease in the rate of penetration generally indicates a worn bit.

Drilling Parameters

A sudden change in any of the drilling parameters, or a value beyond acceptable limits, may point to a worn bit or some other type of borehole problem which may require the

Summary

Wellsite personnel are responsible for maximizing the efficiency of the drilling operation and recommending ways to optimize the drill rate.

Monitoring the critical drilling parameters will help the井site personnel become more effective members of the drilling team.

Table: 0.17**Equation: 0.16****Equation: 0.18**

Text: 0.16

Equation: 0.20**Equation: 0.21****Equation: 0.20****Equation: 0.18****Text: 0.18**

DRILLING COST ANALYSIS

Bit Number 24.0 Bit Cost 24000.00 \$
 Bit Start Depth 578.0 ft Rig Cost/hr 1000.00 \$
 Average Trip Speed 9.00 ft/min

| Record No. | Depth ft | Interval ft | Bit Time min | Interval min | Average ROP ft/hr | Instantaneous Cost \$/ft | Cumulative Cost \$/B |
|------------|----------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 0 | 578.0 | 2.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 12.0 | 21.37 | 23273.84 |
| 1 | 579.0 | 5.0 | 15.0 | 6.0 | 50.0 | 26.00 | 2663.84 |
| 2 | 580.0 | 5.0 | 21.0 | 5.0 | 60.0 | 16.67 | 3807.06 |
| 3 | 580.0 | 5.0 | 27.0 | 6.0 | 50.0 | 26.00 | 2557.71 |
| 4 | 580.0 | 5.0 | 37.0 | 10.0 | 50.0 | 33.33 | 2139.66 |
| 5 | 580.0 | 5.0 | 45.5 | 9.5 | 31.6 | 31.68 | 1749.68 |
| 6 | 581.0 | 5.0 | 58.0 | 11.5 | 50.0 | 38.35 | 1462.83 |
| 7 | 581.0 | 5.0 | 71.0 | 13.0 | 50.0 | 41.33 | 1268.15 |
| 8 | 582.0 | 5.0 | 81.0 | 10.0 | 50.0 | 33.33 | 1139.76 |
| 9 | 582.0 | 5.0 | 93.0 | 6.0 | 50.0 | 26.00 | 1023.95 |
| 10 | 583.0 | 5.0 | 95.0 | 9.0 | 50.0 | 33.33 | 925.64 |
| 11 | 583.0 | 5.0 | 109.0 | 13.0 | 23.1 | 41.33 | 848.87 |
| 12 | 584.0 | 5.0 | 125.0 | 16.0 | 18.7 | 53.33 | 764.99 |
| 13 | 584.0 | 5.0 | 139.0 | 14.0 | 21.4 | 46.67 | 710.14 |
| 14 | 585.0 | 5.0 | 151.0 | 12.0 | 25.0 | 46.67 | 662.45 |
| 15 | 585.0 | 5.0 | 167.0 | 16.0 | 18.7 | 53.33 | 641.82 |
| 16 | 586.0 | 5.0 | 187.0 | 20.0 | 18.0 | 188.64 | 569.08 |
| 17 | 586.0 | 5.0 | 200.0 | 23.0 | 8.1 | 116.64 | 560.52 |
| 18 | 587.0 | 5.0 | 212.0 | 42.0 | 5.1 | 148.64 | 556.76 |
| 19 | 587.0 | 5.0 | 223.0 | 21.0 | 3.9 | 178.67 | 517.00 |
| 20 | 588.0 | 5.0 | 230.0 | 47.0 | 6.4 | 156.13 | 518.53 |
| 21 | 588.0 | 5.0 | 422.0 | 52.0 | 3.8 | 173.49 | 502.56 |
| 22 | 589.0 | 5.0 | 488.0 | 66.0 | 4.3 | 228.64 | 460.16 |
| 23 | 589.0 | 5.0 | 510.0 | 72.0 | 4.2 | 248.64 | 419.53 |
| 24 | 590.0 | 5.0 | 645.0 | 95.0 | 3.3 | 281.45 | 411.67 |
| 25 | 590.0 | 5.0 | 779.0 | 134.0 | 2.2 | 446.85 | 470.52 |
| 26 | 591.0 | 5.0 | 923.0 | 154.0 | 1.9 | 513.34 | 472.51 |
| 27 | 591.0 | 5.0 | 1087.0 | 154.0 | 1.9 | 513.34 | 474.16 |
| 28 | 592.0 | 5.0 | 1255.0 | 168.0 | 1.8 | 566.22 | 477.34 |
| 29 | 592.0 | 5.0 | 1480.0 | 255.0 | 2.1 | 573.15 | 470.84 |
| 30 | 593.0 | 5.0 | 1690.0 | 200.0 | 1.5 | 666.83 | 477.19 |
| 31 | 594.0 | 5.0 | 1730.0 | 340.0 | 18.0 | 188.64 | 465.56 |
| 32 | 594.0 | 5.0 | 1780.0 | 50.0 | 6.0 | 188.64 | 456.81 |
| 33 | 595.0 | 5.0 | 1835.0 | 75.0 | 4.0 | 256.10 | 450.96 |
| 34 | 595.0 | 5.0 | 1965.0 | 130.0 | 2.1 | 433.31 | 450.96 |
| 35 | 596.0 | 5.0 | 2185.0 | 140.0 | 2.1 | 466.85 | 451.08 |
| 36 | 5985.0 | 5.0 | 2225.0 | 120.0 | 2.5 | 466.18 | 449.78 |
| 37 | 5985.0 | 5.0 | 2355.0 | 130.0 | 2.3 | 433.51 | 449.44 |
| 38 | 5975.0 | 5.0 | 2470.0 | 115.0 | 2.6 | 383.49 | 447.85 |
| 39 | 5986.0 | 5.0 | 2625.0 | 165.0 | 1.8 | 558.22 | 450.47 |
| 40 | 5985.0 | 5.0 | 2867.0 | 232.0 | 1.3 | 773.64 | 458.56 |

Self-Check: 0.18

1. The least expensive type of bit may be the proper choice when practices an **Figure: 0.25**

2. Since the ultimate goal is to make a profit, any cost comparison should be tied to _____ or _____.
3. Those factors not included in the cost-per-foot formula invariably favor _____.
4. What is the first step in making a breakdown analysis?

5. Which of the following bits would be the most economical?

| Bit No. | Bit Cost | Depth Out | Footage | Rotating Hours | ROP |
|---------|----------|-----------|---------|----------------|------|
| 3 | 10000 | 12100 | 500 | 20.5 | 24.3 |
| 4 | 12600 | 12700 | 600 | 18.3 | 32.7 |

Rig Cost = \$1000/hr

Trip Time = 1.2 hr/1000 ft

6. Determine which series of bits was most economical for the operator, then graph the breakeven analysis.

| | | Case #1 | Case #2 |
|---|--|----------|---------|
| A | Bit size | 8.5" | 8.5 |
| B | # of bits to be compared | 5 | 3 |
| C | Total trip time all bits being compared (of B) | 90 Hrs. | 45 Hrs. |
| D | Rig cost per hour | \$1250 | \$1250 |
| E | Total trip cost all bits being compared (of B) C X D | \$112500 | \$56250 |
| F | Total footage drilled all bits being compared (of B) | 1000 ft | 900 ft |
| G | Total rotating hours all bits being compared (of B) | 100 hrs | 70 hrs |
| H | Total bit cost all bits being compared (of B) | \$25000 | \$35000 |

Graph:

Technical Writing

Text: 0.19

Upon completion of this chapter, you should know how to:

- Follow correct procedures for organizing and writing engineering sections of technical reports.
- Proof technical reports to ensure the contents are accurate, complete, and relevant to the client's requirements.
- Correctly use section headings such as Introduction, Methodology, Results, and Conclusion.
- Include all the required figures and tables in the Drilling and Engineering section of the "Final Well Report."

Fig Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.20

Fig Figure: 0.22
Text: 0.19

Additional Review:

Hicks, G., and C. Valente, *Engineering Communications*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1982.

Houp, K., and T. Pearson, *Report Writing*, The Free Press, Macmillan Publishing Co., New York, 1980.

Murray, Melba, *Engineered Report Writing*, PennWell Publishing Co., Tulsa, 1969.

Shipley Associates, *Writing In Technical Reports*, Shipley Associates, Salt Lake City, Utah, 1985.

The American Geological Institute, *Geological Report Writing*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1960.

Watkins, F., et al., *Practical English Handbook*, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1978.

Figure: 0.18

Chart: 0.16

Techniques

The most efficient, and easiest, way to produce good written material is to follow a proven checklist. This checklist will help you to make sure that your document meets all the requirements presented below. It can also help you to write technical reports faster. If you are just beginning to write technical reports, it may take many years to develop the techniques used by experienced writers.

Checklist For Technical Reports

1. **Begin with a title page.** The title page is the first page of the report. It should include the title of the report, the author's name, and the date the report was completed.

Text: 0.22 the desired length of the written work. The length of the FWR is determined by company recommendations, modified by the amount of time available to present the report.

2. **Prepare a front page report (FWR).** The FWR is used to report findings, conclusions, and recommendations concerning the well. It was prepared for the client to persuade the client to continue to use our services, and to publicize our services.

3. **Classify the typical reader.** The FWR will be read by people who have at least a Master's degree. They will probably be an engineer or geologist.

4. **Collect data you will need.** Most of the data will come from the logs, computers, charts, and the logging geologists working at the wellsite.

5. **Get additional information.** Well much information can be obtained from others at the well site as they are in production. Visiting the Baker Hughes INTEQ office for discussions.

6. **Figure: 0.21** and/or operations and cell permeability, and

7. **Figure: 0.20** office for discussions with

8. **Figure: 0.20** and/or operations and cell permeability, and

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100. **Figure: 0.21** office for discussions with

7. Determine the FWR format and it's questions/statement.

Equation: 0.24

There is an FWR format and it's questions/statement.

8. Determine deadlines.

Equation: 0.26

Normally, rough data point and at a time when the final version or plots/printouts are due.

Equation: 0.21

9. Estimate the writing time to prepare the report.

Figure: 0.20

running the plots/printouts incurred for copying.

Equation: 0.21

10. Establish criteria for preparing the final document.

Text: 0.18

there are technical standards for preparing the final document. They should be able to be revised and corrected during the preparation.

Equation: 0.17

11. Assemble your data: workstation.

Text: 0.17

The unit diary will produce temporary headings during the course of the drill, so

Text: 0.21

12. Prepare a rough outline.

Figure: 0.20

temporary headings discussed (i.e. hole sections, casing operations, surveys, borehole problems, etc.).

Text: 0.22

13. List the available data: bits, casing types, drilling programs, parameters and modes.

Figure: 0.22

should be entered under the heading.

Text: 0.22

14. Regroup the data under "Conclusion" and specific hole sections.

Figure: 0.22

"Conclusion" and specific hole sections.

Text: 0.21

15. Prepare the final output in proper form.

Figure: 0.20

order of importance, usually uses an order-of-events arrangement to present the data in chronological order.

Equation: 0.23

phrases in this section. Lots/illustrations will be referenced.

Text: 0.21

16. **How many pertinent technical specialists:**
Again, the region of the country who routinely check the input and recommendations who make changes.

17. **Collect and evaluate plots/printouts and brief reports:**
Study these plots/printouts in the wrong part of the second, etc. Each plot (i.e. 8.5 x 11, 8.5 x 17, etc.) has three labels: title, axis labels, and units. Make sure they illustrate what you want them to illustrate.

18. **Begin your writing:**

 - Be certain you know what you are writing about.
 - Write for your readers.
 - Use words that your readers understand.
 - Try to keep short sentences. Sentence length should not exceed 20 words.
 - Alternate short and long sentences.
 - Define any words you do not think your readers understand.
 - Be specific, avoid generalities.
 - Use exact numbers.
 - Provide part numbers previously mentioned.
 - Refer to plots and tables.
 - Use clear language.
 - Be brief.
 - Write out the equations for the plots, graphs, and tables.
 - Write the conclusions in simple terms, etc.

19. **Finish the writing:**
Leave a gap between the end of the writing and the start of the review. Read the text again to check its comprehensiveness.

 - Check the technical correctness.
 - Check all main and secondary points.

c. Evaluate the grammar.

d. Check the proportion of the entire written piece. Is any portion too long or too short?

e. See that all plots are legible.

f. Check the plot caption. Will it be understood by someone else reading it? Does it describe the plot and usage?

20. Ensure that your report is typed and a copy is made. If you are using a regional/Baker Hughes report, make sure that the report is typed and copied to the appropriate section of the regional report.

Figure: 0.19

If you use this checklist regularly, you will find that you will produce better reports. Most technical writers spend approximately 20% of their time preparing to write (i.e. collecting data, organizing the material, etc.) and only 20% of their time doing the actual writing. If you follow this checklist, you will have more time to devote to the writing.

Text: 0.23

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.18

Table: 0.25

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.19

You need not memorize the meaning of sentence, subject, verb, and the like. But read chance. After thirty-five key speech, a plus correct the errors those you'll run and easy to understand grammar can

Active Voice

Figure: 0.18 glossary, whenever you have a meaning of most of these

Equation: 0.19 one of the pairs or

Equation: 0.24 more alert, and you'll

Equation: 0.27 needed for this glossary are

Equation: 0.24 the definitions are shown

Equation: 0.18 words have been useful

Figure: 0.18 the subject of the sentence acts.

Text: 0.18 (not direct, personalized expression.)

Text: 0.17 charges 300 gal/min.

The borehole collapsed during a trip.

Equation: 0.20

Chart: 0.17

Adjective Word that modifies a noun or pronoun; used to describe, tell or number.

The *large noisy* helicopter took off quickly.

(Two adjectives, both modifying *helicopter*.)

Business was *good* during the *last* month of the year.

Three rigs sank off the *reef*.

Adjective Cl

Text: 0.19

Subordinate clause

noun or pronoun.

Equation: 0.19

He is the engineer *whom we met* in Texas.

They use chromatographs *that have automated* systems.

Adverb Modifies verb, adjective, or other adverbs; shows manner, degree, time, or place.

The burner ignited *quickly*. (Manner)

There is *only* one petroleum engineer. (Degree)

Begin your writing *now*.

The logging unit *is located* in the field.

Equation: 0.20

Adverbial Clause

Subordinate clause used to express how, why, when, where.

The rig will be built *as the engineers specified*. (How)

A fire started *after the motor failed*. (When)

Antecedent

Word or group of words to which a pronoun refers.

The motor that failed was new.

Article

Either definite (*the*) or indefinite (*a, an*); used as adjectives.

Auxiliary

Verbs used to form the verbs: *will, shall, can, do, must, and ought* are typical auxiliaries.

Clause

Text: 0.23 A group of subject and verb, used as part of a sentence. May be independent (a sentence) or dependent (a subject and predicate but does not express a complete thought).

The collar fell but it didn't injure anyone.

(Two independent clauses; each is a sentence.)

Complex Sentence

Contains one independent clause.

The helicopter crashed while it was approaching the platform.

Compound Sentence

Contains two or more independent clauses and no dependent clauses.

The well was tested and the pipe was repaired.

Conjunction

Word used to connect clauses, phrases, or words or, for, nor, so, yet (coordinating conjunctions) connect clauses, phrases, or words.

Equation: 0.23

Equation: 0.24

Equation: 0.27

Figure: 0.22

Either definite (*the*) or indefinite (*a, an*); used as adjectives.

Verbs used to form the verbs: *will, shall, can, do, must, and ought* are typical auxiliaries.

Figure: 0.22

She will design the pilot format.

Text: 0.23 A group of subject and verb, used as part of a sentence. May be independent (a sentence) or dependent (a subject and predicate but does not express a complete thought).

The collar fell but it didn't injure anyone.

(Two independent clauses; each is a sentence.)

Figure: 0.21

When the company-man was fired, the crew cheered.

Figure: 0.18

Express a contingent condition.

Figure: 0.22

Contains one independent clause.

Table: 0.17

Header: 0.15

The helicopter crashed while it was approaching the platform.

Chart: 0.18

Contains two or more independent clauses and no dependent clauses.

The well was tested and the pipe was repaired.

Equation: 0.18

Word used to connect clauses, phrases, or words or, for, nor, so, yet (coordinating conjunctions) connect clauses, phrases, or words.

Equation: 0.19

or, for, nor, so, yet (coordinating conjunctions) connect clauses, phrases, or words.

Figure: 0.21

Word used to connect clauses, phrases, or words or, for, nor, so, yet (coordinating conjunctions) connect clauses, phrases, or words.

Table: 0.18

Word used to connect clauses, phrases, or words or, for, nor, so, yet (coordinating conjunctions) connect clauses, phrases, or words.

Equation: 0.17

Word used to connect clauses, phrases, or words or, for, nor, so, yet (coordinating conjunctions) connect clauses, phrases, or words.

She went to the logging unit but she returned immediately.

After, although, as (not like), because, if, since, that, unless, when, while

Figure: 0.21
(dependent) clauses
connect subordinate

The report will be ready.

Either...or, neither...nor, both...and
used in pairs.

Either the Field Supervisor or his assistant will write
the report.

Dependent Clause

Contains subject and verb but does not express a complete thought.

Ellipsis

Omission of words from a sentence without affecting the clarity of the sentence.

Use gas detector.

Mercury is heavy.

Gerund

Noun formed by adding *ing* to a verb. Used like a noun but

Text: 0.21
Figure: 0.19

Writing a FWR.

Using logging tools.

Independent Clause

Contains subject and verb. Can stand alone. Can be a simple sentence or part of a complex sentence connected by coordinating conjunctions.

Figure: 0.21
All geologists do their best to get good results.

writing.

Infinitive

Verb preceded by *to*. Used as a noun, adjective or adverb. Can form the verb. Can be used as a noun, adjective or adverb.

His greatest desire is to design logging units.

To plan the job, he works.

This helicopter

Text: 0.22
Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.25
Figure: 0.25

Text: 0.20
Figure: 0.20

Modifier

Equation: 0.23
quality, limit, or descriptor

The engineer wrote the report at his office.

Object

Word or words (noun, pronoun, phrase, or clause) which receives the action of a verb or is governed by a preposition.

Figure: 0.21

Figure: 0.19
They placed the sample in the sample tray.

sample is the object of placed.
sample is the object of placed.

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.21

Participle

Word derived from a verb, which can function as both verb and adjective. Present participle ends in -ing; past participle can end in -ed, -en, -t, -n, -d.

Text: 0.24

The rising pressure caused a head loss.

The recorded pressure was 20.

Equation: Text: 0.22

Parts of Speech

Names of the words used in a sentence. There are eight parts of speech: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. The interjection is probably the least used in technical writing.

Text: 0.20

Text: 0.24

Passive Voice Verb form which indicates the subject is being acted upon.

The report was written by the logger.

(The same thought expressed in active voice would be:

Figure: 0.18)

Person

Relationship between the verb and the person who is speaking (first person), or is spoken of (third person).

Figure: 0.20

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.19

Figure: 0.23

I am a technical writer.

You are a technical writer.

He (or she) is a technical writer.

Figure: 0.20

Text: 0.21

Figure: 0.21

Text: 0.21

Equation: Table: 0.17

Equation: 0.17

Figure: 0.20

Equation: 0.25

Technical Writing

Drilling Engineering

Fau

Phrase

Text: 0.1

Figure: 0.20

as a part of speech.

Text: 0.20

Figure: 0.19

Hundred writing of *Final Well Reports* causes confusion.

(*Of Final Well Reports* is a participle phrase used as a noun.)

Predicate

Word or words in a sentence

about the subject.

Equation: 0.24

Equation: 0.18

Most well-written

Equation: 0.16

thought from the known to the unknown.

Preposition

Relation word that connects a noun or pronoun element in the sentence.

Header: 0.19

The work-boat crashed *into* the rig.

Text: 0.22

Make an outline of every proposed report.

Pronoun

Text: 0.1

Equation: 0.17

are:

(1) personal (*I, we, you, he, she, it, who, whom, whom, what, which, whom, that*); (4)

demonstrative (*this, that, these, those*); (5) interrogative

nobody, someone, anything, etc.) (6) reflexive (*myself*, *yourself, himself, etc.*).

Table: 0

Sentence

Text: 0.2

Figure: 0.21

(No subject; subject is me, predicate is logged.)

Text: 0.20

Mad-Dog, the driller, smiled broadly as he began to

chew the tobacco. (Subject in italic, predicate in roman.)

Subject

Text: 0.2

Figure: 0.20

Some engineers

(Simple subject)

Equation: 0.20

Some engineers

(Complex subject)

Equation: 0.18

Some engineers and geologists write their own reports.

(Compound subject)

Table: 0

Equation: 0

Equation: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Text: 0.19**Text: 0.20**

English language has six tenses: past, present, future, perfect, past perfect, future perfect.

Verb**Text: 0.21**

Word or group of words expressing action or a state of being.

Figure: 0.19

The note the paper for a geological society.

Note: A verb should always agree with its subject in number and person. Examples: I am; You are.

Verbal

Having the nature of or derived from a verb, but used as a noun or adjective, e.g., infinitives, gerunds, and participles.

Text: 0.21**Text: 0.22****Voice**

Form of a verb that shows whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

Text: 0.23

The logging geologist opened the sample bag.

(Active voice)

The sample bag was opened by the logging geologist.

(Passive voice)**Figure: 0.18**

The sample bag was opened by the logging geologist.

(Passive voice)**Text: 0.19****Text: 0.20****Text: 0.21****Text: 0.22****Text: 0.23**

Final Equation: 0.19**Information Collection****Figure: 0.19.**

During the course of a well, there is a tremendous amount of engineering information collected. It is important to keep accurate and comprehensive records of this information when writing the Drilling Report.

Final Well Report

Equation: 0.20 when writing the Drilling Report.

Drillstring Log

Equation: 0.25 of information is best suited for Table 1.

the section of

Equation: 0.28 references at the end of

Drillstring/

Equation: 0.25

Drill Bit - type

Figure: 0.22

Drill Collars

Text: 0.20

Specialized Tools

Text: 0.18

Heavyweight

Equation: 0.18

Drillpipe - size

Text: 0.16

Reasons for

Text: 0.16 Central Point, Build/Hold/Drop

Assembly, Detached Assembly, etc.

Equation: 0.21

Casing Program

Equation: 0.22

Hole Size - a

Equation: 0.16 size

Casing Size

Text: 0.17

Casing Shoe

Equation: 0.20

Accessories

Text: 0.17

Possible Plot

Equation: 0.20

casing running speeds (surge pressures) make-up torque
gradient of casing depth, borehole diameter

Equation: 0.19

Cementing Program

Equation: 0.19

Cement Class

Equation: 0.22

Washes and

Equation: 0.22

Additives - type

Figure: 0.17

Cement Volume

Text: 0.20, weight, yield

Mixing Waste

Text: 0.20 per sack

Displacement

Figure: 0.24

Possible Plot

Equation: 0.17

Completion factors, running Times

Drilling Fluids - Type

Equation: 0.22

Type of Mud System - depth, channel or modified

Additives - depth, which additives are made, why added

Mud Rheology

Equation: 0.26

Possible Plots: P

Equation: 0.22

R

images

Bit Program

Figure: 0.20

Type of Bits - Size, IADC code and Manufacturer name

Bit Operating Parameters - Weight-on Bit, Rotary Speed, Pump Pressure

Bit Hydraulics

Text: 0.20

Bit Grading - IADC

Text: 0.18

Possible Plots: Cost per Foot vs. Instantaneous Cost

P

Equation: 0.18

Number of bits vs. Depth

Equation: 0.18

N

Equation: 0.18

Directional Drilling

Text: 0.19

Location - Coordinates

Figure: 0.22

Drillstring Assembly

Text: 0.22

Type of Well - Vertical, Directional, J

Text: 0.19

Survey Data and Calculations

Equation: 0.20

Type of Survey - Single-shot, MWD, Gyro

Text: 0.20

Borehole Trajectory - Build-and-Hole

Text: 0.20

Target Location

Equation: 0.18

Well Problems

Equation: 0.19

Stuck Pipe - Ty

Text: 0.21

Fishing Operations

Text: 0.19

Lost Circulation

Text: 0.19

Well Kicks - Pro

Text: 0.21

Twist-Off - Cau

Text: 0.15

Shale Problems

Text: 0.21**Figure: 0.20**

10-13

Brochure

General Catalog EC - 1990-1991

Self-Check: 0.18

1. Who is the typical reader of the drilling and engineering section of the Final

Figure: 0.22

1. Who is the typical reader of the drilling and engineering section of the Final
2. What determines the length of the FWR?

3. What data can be integrated into the FWR, in addition to that available from the logging unit, and where can it be obtained?

4. List several rules that should be followed to ensure that the client will have a readable, useful FWR.

5. Once the FWR text is read for clarity and conciseness, what is the next step to follow?

6. What type of cementing information should be included in the FWR?

7. What are some deadlines that should be used when preparing the FWR?

8. Once the available data for the FWR has been listed in a random order, it should be regrouped under three general headings. What are these headings?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

End Of Manual Return Exercises

Text: 0.20

1. Name the classifications of drilling fluid systems.

2. Excess filter **TextEquation:** 0.18 them.

3. Give the generalizations that have been made concerning cuttings transport. **TextFigure:** 0.22

4. Compute the volume and density of a mud composed of 25 lb of bentonite, 60 lb of barite, and 115 lb of water. **Figure:** 0.19

Where:

- Figure:** 0.18

- Figure:** 0.18

- Density of Water = 62.4 lb/bbl **Figure:** 0.19

5. There are 50 bbls of mud with the following composition: Oil = 5%, Water = 9%, Solids = 40% **Figure:** 0.21

Determine:

- 1) The oil/water ratio.

- 2) The fluid type and amount to increase the oil ratio to 90/10.

- 3) The fluid type and amount to decrease the oil ratio to 80/20.

6. What is the velocity (ft/min and ft/sec) of the mud inside drill collars with an I.D. of 2 inches and a pump rate of 300 gpm?

7. Assume a flow rate of 920 gpm in a 17.5-inch hole with 4.5-inch drill pipe. What is the annular velocity (ft/min and ft/sec) of the mud?

Equation: 0.19

End Of Manual Return Exercises

Drilling Engineering

8. If the borehole has a depth of 8000 ft and 10.0 p.s.i. effective mud density at the bottom of the hole is 1.05 p.s.i., calculate the hydrostatic pressure at the bottom of the hole.

Figure: 0.18

9. What is the maximum standard cement burst strength?

Figure: 0.18

10. What three important properties of cement must be known when water is added to hydration?

Figure: 0.24

11. What is the weight of one sack of cement (94 lb.)?

Figure: 0.22

12. Determine the water requirement and yield for the following cement sack.

Figure: 0.19

Text: 0.17

13. Calculate the absolute volume, mixing water, yield, density, and mixing water per sack for the following class H cement:

Cement: 70: 20: 10: 0.45: 0.05: 0.05

Figure: 0.17

Given:

Figure: 0.18

| | Bulk Vol. | Abs. Vol. | Abs. Volum. | Needed |
|---------|-----------|--------------|--------------|----------------|
| Fly Ash | 74 | Text: 0.24 | Figure: 0.24 | % of ash |
| Cement | 94 | Figure: 0.18 | Figure: 0.18 | 100% of cement |
| Gel | 94 | 1.650 | 0.00691 | 530% of gel |

14. Describe the circuit diagram for a tri-cone bit and explain how it is used.

Other: 0.16

15. What nozzle sizes would you fit into a 12.25-inch tri-cone bit for jetting purposes?

Equation: 0.18

16. List a possible BHP sequence to jet well 12-15 pilot holes starting from vertical.

Other: 0.21

Equation: 0.17

17. You are going to perform a kick-off in a 17.5-inch hole with a Navi-drill and a bent sub. The required build-up is $2.5^{\circ}/100$ ft. List the BHA you would use.

18. Design two specific NDS assemblies to drill the two well sections defined by the plan below.

| Well Section | Build Rate | Hole Size | Bit Type |
|------------------------|----------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 1,500' to 7,000' M.D. | $2.0^{\circ}/100$ ' | 17 1/2" | Rock |
| 7,000' to 11,000' M.D. | $-1.0^{\circ}/100$ ' | 12 1/4" | PDC |

19. What is the sequence of events that normally leads to a kick being detected during the drilling process?
20. What are four major considerations when deciding upon the best manner to kill a kick?
21. What three factors determine the maximum casing pressure that can be allowed during the killing process?
22. What general procedures should be followed to shut-in an onshore well once a kick has been recognized?
23. Why is the choke opened prior to closing the annular preventer or pipe rams?
24. How can you obtain the SIDP when a float valve is in the drillstring (assume the slow circulation rate pressure is known)?
25. What options are available if the maximum casing pressure is reached while circulating out a kick?

Equation: 0.20

End Of Manual Return Exercises

Drilling Engineering

26. Calculate **Equation: 0.19** ft stands of drill pipe per hole.
- Given: **Equation: 0.25**
- Hole Size = **Figure: 0.17**
- Drillpipe = **Equation: 0.29**
- Collars = **Equation: 0.17** inch
- Mud Density = **Equation: 0.173** Chart: 0.17
27. Determine:
A) The maximum shut-in pressure
B) The reservoir pressure
C) The initial circulation pressure
D) The final circulating pressure
E) The length of **Equation: 0.23**
F) The density of **Equation: 0.22**
- Given:
Depth **Equation: 0.21**
MW **Equation: 0.21** mm
Hole Size **Figure: 0.17**
Collars **Equation: 0.17**
Pipe **Equation: 0.19**
Leak Off **Equation: 0.19**
SCP **Equation: 0.18**
SIDP **Equation: 0.20**
SICP = **Equation: 0.20**
Pit Gain **Equation: 0.20** Chart: 0.18
28. Journal angles in tri-cone bits can depend on the relative hardness of the rock. What are the three angles that are used with soft, medium, and hard lithologies?
29. Discuss the three types of jet nozzles used in tri-cone bits.
30. What are the six components of the bearing structure in a sealed roller bearing bit?

31. What are the formation bits? **Figure: 0.18**
 Figure: 0.18
32. When using PDC bits, there are many predictions and drilling parameters that should be used so the bit will run as efficiently as possible. **Figure: 0.19**
 Figure: 0.18
33. What are the five criteria for choosing a diamond bit? **Figure: 0.22**
34. What are the five major operating parameters that must be considered when deciding run a diamond bit?
35. What will cause the cost per foot to increase?
36. The standard cost-per-foot formula makes no allowance for miscellaneous variations in operating costs. List four items that are included in these variations:
37. A recommended bit program is being prepared for a new well using bit performance records from nearby wells. Drilling performance records for three bits are shown for a thick limestone formation at 9,000 ft. Determine which bit would be the best choice.

Rig Cost = \$400/hr

| Bit | Cost Bit (\$) | Drilling Time | Trip Time | Feet Drilled |
|-----|---------------|---------------|-----------|--------------|
| A | 800 | 14.8 | 7.0 | 204.2 |
| B | 4900 | 57.7 | 7.0 | 727.0 |
| C | 4500 | 95.8 | 7.0 | 977.2 |

38. What are four disadvantages of long-radius horizontal wells?
39. What are six characteristics of an ideal reservoir for a horizontal drilling?

45. Write down a packed assembly which could be used to hold angle in the tangent section of a directional well. Assume the inclination angle is in the range $45^\circ - 50^\circ$ and that the $12\frac{1}{4}''$ hole section is being drilled. Indicate the gauge of all stabilizers. Suggest possible drilling parameters, assuming you are drilling medium hardness formation. State whether a PDC or roller cone bit is to be used.

Drill Collar Weights
(pounds per foot)

| OD/ID | 1" | 1-1/4" | 1-1/2" | 1-3/4" | 2" | 2-1/4" | 2-1/2" | 2-13/16" | 3" | 3-1/4" | 3-1/2" | 3-3/4" |
|--------|----|--------|--------|--------|-----|--------|--------|----------|-----|--------|--------|--------|
| 3" OD | 21 | 20 | 18 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3-1/8" | 22 | 22 | 20 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3-1/4" | 26 | 24 | 22 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3-1/2" | 30 | 29 | 27 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3-3/4" | 35 | 33 | 32 | | | | | | | | | |
| 4" OD | 40 | 39 | 37 | 35 | 32 | 29 | | | | | | |
| 4-1/8" | 43 | 41 | 39 | 37 | 35 | 32 | | | | | | |
| 4-1/4" | 46 | 44 | 42 | 40 | 38 | 35 | | | | | | |
| 4-1/2" | 51 | 50 | 48 | 46 | 43 | 41 | | | | | | |
| 4-3/4" | | 54 | 52 | 50 | 47 | 44 | | | | | | |
| 5" OD | | 61 | 59 | 56 | 53 | 50 | | | | | | |
| 5-1/4" | | 68 | 65 | 63 | 60 | 57 | | | | | | |
| 5-1/2" | | 75 | 73 | 70 | 67 | 64 | 60 | | | | | |
| 5-3/4" | | 82 | 80 | 78 | 75 | 72 | 67 | 64 | 60 | | | |
| 6" OD | | 90 | 88 | 85 | 83 | 79 | 75 | 72 | 68 | | | |
| 6-1/4" | | 98 | 96 | 94 | 91 | 88 | 83 | 80 | 76 | 72 | | |
| 6-1/2" | | 107 | 105 | 102 | 99 | 96 | 91 | 89 | 85 | 80 | | |
| 6-3/4" | | 116 | 114 | 111 | 108 | 105 | 100 | 98 | 93 | 89 | | |
| 7" OD | | 125 | 123 | 120 | 117 | 114 | 110 | 107 | 103 | 98 | 93 | |
| 7-1/4" | | 134 | 132 | 130 | 127 | 124 | 119 | 116 | 112 | 108 | 103 | |
| 7-1/2" | | 144 | 142 | 139 | 137 | 133 | 129 | 126 | 122 | 117 | 113 | |
| 7-3/4" | | 154 | 152 | 150 | 147 | 144 | 139 | 136 | 132 | 128 | 123 | |
| 8" OD | | 165 | 163 | 160 | 157 | 154 | 150 | 147 | 143 | 138 | 133 | |
| 8-1/4" | | 176 | 174 | 171 | 168 | 165 | 160 | 158 | 154 | 149 | 144 | |
| 8-1/2" | | 187 | 185 | 182 | 179 | 176 | 172 | 169 | 165 | 160 | 155 | |
| 9" OD | | 210 | 208 | 206 | 203 | 200 | 195 | 192 | 188 | 184 | 179 | |
| 9-1/2" | | 234 | 232 | 230 | 227 | 224 | 220 | 216 | 212 | 209 | 206 | |
| 9-3/4" | | 248 | 245 | 243 | 240 | 237 | 232 | 229 | 225 | 221 | 216 | |

Answers to Self-Help Exercises**Figure: 0.22 Liquids And Fluid Hydraulics****Figure: 0.23**

b) Dispersed Solids

c) Dissolved Solids

TextEquation: 0.23

2. a) Will not hydrate **Figure: 0.15**

b) Good lubricating properties

c) Normally, higher viscosities

TextText: 0.16

3. Emulsifier

FigureEquation: 0.20

4. Electrical Stability **TextText: 0.18**

5. Shear Stress

FigureEquation: 0.19

6. Yield Stress **Equation: 0.25**

7. Weak

Figure: 0.21

8. a) Dilution c) Centrifuge

b) Shaker Screens d) DeSander or DeSilter

9. Weak

10. H₂S and CO₂

11. $V = W \cdot$ **Equation: 0.18**12. Total lb = 37400 lb (Or, 374 sacks)

Volume

Equation: 0.1913. $V_s = 1.5 \text{ cu sc}$ **Figure: 0.20**14. $PV = 10$ $YP = 20$ **Figure: 0.22**15. $n = 0.41$ $k = 2.40$ **Equation: 0.21****Figure: 0.17**

16. Hole Cleaning

Figure: 0.17

17. a) Flow

Chart: 0.23

b) Operating Pressure

Chart: 0.16

18. 1587 hhp

Table: 0.1819. $H_{hp} = 2.80 \text{ psi}$ $H_{if} = 1.20 \text{ psi}$ **Equation: 0.20**

20. PDC Bit

Diamond Bit

Equation: 0.22

21. Water-Based

Oil-Based

Equation: 0.21

22. a) Fluid Course Area

Figure: 0.21

b) Diamond Exposure Area

Text: 0.19

23. a) Cross Drilled
b) Radial Flow System

Equation: 0.21

Equation: 0.23

24. It damages the face of the borehole, causing "washout" and creates higher permeability.

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.21

Chapter 0.18: Casing

1. The weight of a casing joint with threads on both ends and a coupling.

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.21

2. a.) P-10 / 125k psi

- b.) N-80 / 100k psi

- c.) H-4 / 100k psi

Equation: 0.18

3. Clinker

Equation: 0.25

Equation: 0.28

4. Absolute volume(gal) = $3.14 \times \text{d}^2 \times \text{L}$

 $\text{ft}^3/\text{gal} \times 5.616/\text{barrel}$

5. 60: fly ash

Figure: 0.17

- 40: cement

- 2: additive

Header: 0.23

- a) Low gel strength, low PV and YP

- b) Low density

- c) Low viscosity

- d) Chemical reaction

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.18

Text: 0.19

7. 500 psi

Figure: 0.19

8. Reduce

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.18

9. The total carry weight

Text: 0.17

- $2102 \text{ ft}^3 + 559.2 \text{ cu in}$

Equation: 0.19

- The total sacks:

Table: 0.19

- $901 \text{ sks} + 473 \text{ sks}$

Table: 0.19

10. Short pieces of casing used to connect the individual casing joints.

Figure: 0.19

1. a.) Heel bearings are roller bearings which carry most of the load as **Equation: 0.23**
b.) Middle bearings are held in the journal and resist thrust on longitudinal loads in either direction. **Equation: 0.20**
c.) Nose bearings consist of two bearing units pressed into the nose of the bit. They are hard faced with tungsten carbide. **Header: 0.18**
Text: 0.21
Equation: 0.17
2. Positive
3. a.) Soft Formations = 32 to 36°
b.) Medium Formations = 43 to 46°
c.) Hard Formations = 46 to 50°
4. 75%, 1/2 to 3/4 dull
5. "T" type teeth
6. Solid metal bushings or direct cone to journal contact.
7. The cutting configuration
8. a.) No bearings to wear out.
b.) No matrix to come apart.
c.) No broken cones to fish out of the hole.
9. a.) Higher
b.) Lower
10. a.) Single crystal
b.) Coated
c.) Carbonado

Chapter: 0.21 Drilling Basics

1. a.) 201,960 lbs

b.) 165

Fau Fia Fia Figure: 0.19

- c.) 36,000 lbs



2. 14,412 feet

3. a.) 58,386 lbs

- b.) 61,040 lbs

- c.) 33 joints

4. 32,400 lbs

5. a.) 66,739 lbs

- b.) 29 joints

Chapter 0.21 Drilling

1. a. Multiple wells from offshore platforms

b. $\text{N} 30^\circ \text{E}$

Equation: 0.23

c. Controlling vertical

Equation: 0.17

d. Sidetracking

Text: 0.18

e. Inaccessible locations

Equation: 0.17

f. Fault drilling

Equation: 0.17

g. Salt dome drilling

TextTable: 0.16

h. Shoreline drilling

Equation: 0.20

2. True North - this is the direction of the geographic north pole, which lies on the Earth's axis.

Figure: 0.22

Magnetic North - The

Equation: 0.22

which lies in northern Canada

Grid North - the normal direction as depicted on a flat surface (i.e. a map)

Equation: 0.23

- 3.

$S64.75\text{E} = 115.25$

$N35\text{E} = 35$

$S88.75\text{W} = 268.75$

$N66.5\text{W} = 293.5$

$S22.25\text{E} = 157.75$

$N35.5\text{W} = 324.5$

$S89\text{E} = 91$

$N71.5\text{E} = 71.5$

$S25.5\text{W} = 205.5$

$N3.75\text{W} = 356.25$

$S11.5\text{E} = 168.5$

4. Advantages of **Text: 0.19** maintenance and no temperature increase.

Disadvantages:

- A large number of parts are taken off.
- It produces more waste.

5. Nudging is used to move the rig's conductor casings to minimize the chance of collisions.

6. This is a **Text: 0.16** inverse of the Moineau principle. It employs a power section which consists of a rotor and a stator. The stator will have one more tooth than the rotor.

7. Torque output is proportional to **Text: 0.24** the motor's differential pressure.

Text: 0.20
Text: 0.25

8. There is no direct relationship between RPM and **Text: 0.22** RPM is directly proportional to fluid flow rate (q) ($\propto \text{q}^n$ constant torque).

9. Reactive forces are caused by fluid pushing against the stator. **Text: 0.21** A twist counter-clockwise (turn to the left) effect changes the tool face orientation of bent stabs and other directional drilling tools.

10. a. They drill a smooth, continuous curve, which minimizes doglegs and **Text: 0.21**
b. They can be steered **Text: 0.21**
c. There is no limit to the turn radius, allowing the use of **Text: 0.21** steering.

11. % Footage = **Text: 0.19** \times $\frac{[(\text{LDR} - \text{DLO}) / (\text{DLO} - \text{DLR})] \times 100}{100}$

where: $\text{LDR} = \text{Total length}$

$\text{DLO} = \text{Length of long狗leg}$ (°/100')

$\text{DLR} = \text{Length of dogleg}$ (°/100')

Equation: 0.20 $\text{Footage} = \frac{\text{LDR} - \text{DLO}}{\text{DLO} - \text{DLR}} \times 100$

Equation: 0.17 $\% \text{Footage} = \frac{[(\text{LDR} - \text{DLO}) / (\text{DLO} - \text{DLR})] \times 100}{100}$

Text: 0.19

12. a. Increase

first string stabilizer

Equation: 0.22

b. Increase in hole inclination

Equation: 0.24

c. Reduction of dr

Equation: 0.234j

d. Increase in weig

Equation: 0.18

e. Reduction in rota

Equation: 0.20

f. Reduction in flo

Equation: 0.24

13. Initially, low WOB is

towards the low side.

Equation: 0.20

established, increase WOB

Equation: 0.20

Use high RPM (based on bit type).

Equation: 0.20

14. a. When beginning

first string stabili

Equation: 0.22

up in the casing to

Equation: 0.19

prevent hangin

Equation: 0.24

reactions.

Equation: 0.17

b. When using a steerable motor assembly in vertical or near

vertical holes, the actual dogleg may be less than the

Equation: 0.20

calculated TGD.

Equation: 0.20

c. Initiall

dogleg severity for the

Equation: 0.22

of at least 6° per foot.

Equation: 0.19

on oriented dogleg severit

Equation: 0.20

y oriented/rotary drilling

Equation: 0.20

d. Minimizing rotat

effect. This practice

Equation: 0.17

will slightly increase the follow-

Equation: 0.17

e. During the initial stage

hang-up can occur. Th

Equation: 0.21

wellbore is inclined an

Equation: 0.20

for the first string stabilizer enters

Equation: 0.20

the curved, oriente

Equation: 0.20

f. Consider beginning the

oriented drilling requir

Equation: 0.21

of the wellpath.

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.17

Equation: 0.17

15. By making **Equation: 0.18** harder to get away from the wellbore, however, once an initial inclination angle is oriented greater than the GOR, the stabilizer will reduce the dogleg.

16. If the first string of oriented gamma is decreased so less than the UBHS, 1) in an upward orientation, the dogleg will be increased; 2) in a downward orientation, the oriented dogleg is reduced.

17. a. After observing the minimum dogleg angle over a drilling long enough, the orientation should be established. This plan should minimize the number of orientation changes and maximize penetration rate.

- b. Oriented drilling is more expensive than unoriented. Oriented drilling is used to correct the present wellpath trends.

- c. Never let the drilled hole deviate from the planned trajectory, because it is more expensive. As shown in the figure, the position on both horizontal and vertical plans. At all times there must be a vertical line from the current location to the target point.

- Figure: 0.18**
Figure: 0.22
Text: 0.21

- Text: 0.20**
Figure: 0.22
Figure: 0.19
Figure: 0.20
Figure: 0.25
Text: 0.17

Chapter 0.22: Horizontal wells1. Short Radius: $100^\circ / 100 \text{ ft}$

Medium Radius:

Long Radius:

1. Long Radius: $180^\circ / 100 \text{ ft}$

2. a.) Downhole tools are now portable and can make measurements while drilling.

b.) Downhole motors are now reliable and have extended lives.

c.) Drilling fluids can be tailored to meet specific formation or stabilization requirements.

d.) Bending stresses on the drill pipe in horizontal holes can be reduced.

e.) Evacuation of cuttings from horizontal holes is now achieved through the use of air.

f.) Horizontal holes can now be selectively treated.

3. a.) Accelerated field production.

b.) Increased ultimate recovery.

c.) Reduced drilling infrastructure.

d.) Improved reservoir knowledge.

4. Short Radius: $40 \text{ to } 20 \text{ ft}$

Medium Radius: $700 \text{ to } 1,500 \text{ ft}$

Long Radius: $2,000 \text{ to } 3,000 \text{ ft}$

5. a.) The hole is vertical.

b.) The location of the wellbore.

c.) The presence of lateral wells.

6. a.) Bit **Figure: 0.19** (ring modes)

b.) Bit weights vary widely (see photo)

c.) Surface weight is determined from cuttings WOB.

Equation: 0.19**Equation: 0.23**

7. It may indicate that the cutting fluid has not been effectively circulated past the build section.

Equation: 0.22

8. You need a solid **Text: 0.20** similar to cuttings. The cuttings will take longer to reach the surface because they will roll along the bottom of the hole until they reach the build sections.

Figure: 0.23

9. Leaving a finger **Text: 0.22**

Text: 0.19**Text: 0.21****Text: 0.22****Text: 0.23****Text: 0.24****Text: 0.25****Text: 0.26****Text: 0.27****Text: 0.28****Text: 0.29****Text: 0.30****Text: 0.31****Text: 0.32****Text: 0.33****Text: 0.34****Text: 0.35****Text: 0.36****Text: 0.37****Text: 0.38****Text: 0.39**

Chapter 0.21

1. a.) Monitor the drill rate for changes

b.) Change the bit

c.) Check mud borehole

d.) Monitor annular pressure

e.) Determine the amount of cuttings

2. High CEC values can indicate the presence of clay minerals and geopressured zones.

3. Increased torque is the most common indicator during drilling.

4. The difference between bottom hole pressure and formation pressure and

5. A stickometer

6. The first step is to establish circulation.

7. a.) work the drillstring to remove the cuttings
b.) pump down an

8. A low viscosity fluid is used, followed by a high viscosity fluid to remove the cuttings.

9. Soft cement

Figure: 0.18

Equation: 0.22

Equation: 0.19

Figure: 0.18

Figure: 0.22

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.16

Text/Chart: 0.15

Text: 0.17

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19

Text/Figure: 0.17

Text/Figure: 0.19

Text/Figure: 0.23

Table: 0.19

Equation: 0.20

Equation: 0.18

Chapter: 0.19

1. a.) Failure to keep the hole full.

Equation: 0.22

- c.) Insufficient

Equation: 0.18

- d.) Poor well planning

Equation: 0.25

- e.) Lost circulation

Figure: 0.19

2. a.) The well may become unbalanced.

Text: 0.20

- b.) An increase in pressure is needed only after the connection.

Text: 0.19

- c.) Similar pump rates are required due to those expected from successive connections. However, the flow rate will increase during each connection.

Text: 0.20

- d.) Mud density which is associated with the connection period is circulated to the surface.

Text: 0.21

Text: 0.19

3. The Engineer's Method

Table: 0.17

Figure: 0.18

- a.) The circulating pressure at the kill rate.

Equation: 0.18

- b.) The surface pressure at the kill rate.

Equation: 0.19

- c.) The bit to surface pressure.

Equation: 0.18

- d.) The maximum allowable surface annular pressure.

Text: 0.24

- e.) The formulas used for calculating the kill mud density.

Equation: 0.24

- f.) Formation fracture pressure due to drilling pressure.

Equation: 0.24

- g.) The client's notices on safety factors and trip margins.

Text: 0.22

5. To circulate out the kick material by creating around the proper mud weight to kill the well.

6. It is the most killing procedures.

Equation: 0.21 type of

Equation: 0.22



7. Snubbing means that downward force must be applied to counteract the upward If the kick is not exerting up weight of the drill string can hole.

Equation: 0.34

Text: 0.19

Text: 0.16



8. Pipe rams have a hemi-drillpipe. Shear rams shear the drillpipe and seal against themselves.

Equation: 0.18 around the



9. a.) It can shear the pipe.
 b.) It can shear the pipe.
 c.) It may break the pipe in a hard spot.
 d.) It can plug the annulus.
 e.) It can be run into the wellbore.
 f.) It may pressure up the formation, resulting in back-flow when circulation.

Text: 0.18

Equation: 0.19

Equation: 0.19



Text: 0.19

Text: 0.19



Text: 0.16



10. $MW_{\text{dr}} = 11.1 \text{ g/cm}^3$

Figure: 0.22



11. $D_{\text{sh}} = 0.08 \text{ in.}$

Figure: 0.22



Figure: 0.16



Figure: 0.22



Figure: 0.22



Figure: 0.22



Figure: 0.22



Figure: 0.22



Chapter 0: Drilling Economics

1. Are constants

Figure: 0.19

2. Total drilling cost = running cost per foot.

Figure: 0.20

3. The use of

Figure: 0.22

4. Determined by the

Figure: 0.17

5. Bit #4 is more economical.

Text: 0.20

6. Case #2 was more economical.

Figure: 0.20**Figure: 0.20****Figure: 0.20**

1. a.) Between 25 and 50 years old.

b.) No, he is

c.) Geologist or en

d.) Will use the FWL or

2. The company recom
information to be presented

3. a.) Discuss the wellsite.

b.) Observing equipment they are in
progress.

c.) By studying the well prognosis.

d.) Visiting the DPL

4. a.) Be certain your

b.) Be sure you know the

c.) Write for your

d.) Use words that will be of interest.

e.) Try to avoid ex

f.) Alternate long and short sentences and paragraphs.

g.) Define any words

h.) Be specific in your

5. a.) Check the techni

b.) Check all the manag

c.) Evaluate the su

d.) Check to see if the

e.) Be sure that all

f.) Check the plot

6. a.) Cement
Figure: 0.18
b.) Washes and Snaps - per truck trip, volume
Figure: 0.20
c.) Admixtures
Figure: 0.24
d.) Cement Volume
Equation: 0.24
e.) Mixing water
Equation: 0.27
f.) Displacement
Figure: 0.17
7. a.) Rough draft
Figure: 0.23
b.) When the final version of the report due.
Figure: 0.23
c.) When the illustrations or plots/prints are due.
Figure: 0.18
d.) When the report is due.
Figure: 0.18
8. a.) Introduction
Figure: 0.22
b.) Body
Figure: 0.24
c.) Conclusion
Text: 0.16
Figure: 0.21
Figure: 0.18
Figure: 0.21