Pressure Volume Temperature Evaluation of Sapele Field, Niger Delta, Southern Nigeria

Mujakperuo B.J.O. & *Airen O.J.

Department of Physics, Faculty of Physical Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria *Corresponding author: osariere.airen@uniben.edu; 08039591347

Received: 17/05/2024 Revised: 26/05/2024 Accepted: 31/05/2024

Sapele field is a large, brown field with complex subsurface structure that has led to heavy compartmentalization of its reservoirs which has also resulted to low reservoir pressure in some parts of the field leading to low production output. Reservoirs were delineated at various depth, some at near surface area (Benin formation) while others at greater depth (Agbada formation), hence the field was further subdivided into two (Sapele Shallow and Sapele Deep) due to its structural complexity. Pressure Volume Temperature (PVT) laboratory analysis on different wells was available for this study and the viscosity of the reservoir fluid was measured using an Electromagnetic Viscometer (EMV) at reservoir temperatures of 129 ^oF and 207 ^oF. These data were used in determining hydrocarbon chemical composition, its viscosity, specific gravity, density, and American Petroleum Institute (API) unit. Sapele Shallow reservoir is made up of heavy oil as its hydrocarbon content as a result of biodegradation process in which micro-organisms degrade the light hydrocarbons due to the shallow nature of the reservoir in the field, making it rich in heavy molecular weight hydrocarbon compounds. While Sapele Deep is made up of heavily compartmentalized reservoirs with gas and light oil as its hydrocarbon content. Hence the field requires different exploitation and production approach to fully annex its reservoir hydrocarbon content. **Keywords:** Pressure Volume Temperature (PVT), Electromagnetic Viscometer (EMV),

viscosity, specific gravity, compartmentalization, biodegradation

https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/etsj.v15i1.17

INTRODUCTION

The oil and gas industry is a technology-driven industry, our ability to locate and extract hydrocarbons from beneath the ground surface is tied directly to the evolution of technologies, concepts, and interpretative sciences (Schlumberger, 2009). These technologies are seismic-based methods for imaging features beneath the ground's surface, advances in well logging techniques, improvements in the ability to drill in deep water beyond the continental shelf, the advent of horizontal drilling, micropaleontology, biostratigraphy, pressure volume temperature determination and so on (Airen & Mujakperuo, 2023). Hydrocarbon chemical composition study has evolved over the past decades from a simple engineering evaluation to multidisciplinary teams of geologists, petrophysicists, geophysicists, and petroleum engineers working together. The integration of these various disciplines has changed our perception of the characteristics of oil and gas reservoirs. Whereas it used to be commonly perceived that hydrocarbon were relatively simple chemical components, the reality is that they are quite complex, and they can be subdivided into light and heavy hydrocarbons on the basis of several chemical components and features (Mujakperuo & Airen, 2024).

The physical and chemical properties of hydrocarbon in the Niger Delta are extremely unpredictable and the hydrocarbon within the Niger Delta has a gravity range of 16-50° API, with the lighter oils having a greenish brown colour (Whiteman, 1982). However, heavy oils are formed because of biodegradation and usually occur in giant shallow formations in marginal geological basins formed by non-consolidated sand (Santos et al., 2014), and microbial degradation reaches optimal temperatures below 80°C, promoting oil oxidation, reduction of the gas/oil ratio (GOR), and reduction of API value (Head *et al.*, 2003).

Sapele field is an onshore field of OML 41, located in the Northwestern part (Greater Ughelli depobelt) of the Niger Delta oil province (Figures 1 and 2). It lies within Latitude 50 53' 54.43" N and Longitude 50 33' 42.22" E.



Figure 1: Base map of oil wells in the study area (Using Petrel®2016)



Figure 2: Niger Delta Depobelts, Showing the Study Area (Reijers, 2011).

Santos *et al.* (2012) undertook an overview of heavy oil properties and its recovery and transportation method using Pressure Volume Temperature (PVT) data. They established that heavy oils are formed because of biodegradation and usually occur in giant shallow formations in marginal geological basins formed by non-consolidated sand.

Head *et al.* (2003) carried out a study on biological activity in the deep subsurface and the origin of heavy oil. They established that microbial degradation reaches optimal temperatures below 80°C, promoting oil oxidation, reduction of the gas/oil ratio (GOR), and reduction of API value. Whiteman (1982) established that the physical and chemical properties of oil in the

Niger Delta are extremely unpredictable. He established that the oil within the Niger Delta has a gravity range of $16-50^{\circ}$ API, with the lighter oils having a greenish brown colour. While Thomas, 1995 stated that 56% of Niger Delta oils have an API gravity between 30° and 40°, and that oils with less than 25° API account for only 15% of the Niger Delta reserves.

Ologe *et al.* (2013) delineated the complexity of faulted subsurface structural features and retaining capacity of the reservoir for hydrocarbon in a 3D seismic structural analysis of part of Aloo-Field, Southwestern Niger Delta. The 3D seismic data was analysed, using Petrel software where horizons and

fault interpretations from the seismic section were used to generate structural maps which revealed different structural styles present in the studied area. They mapped three distinct horizons. Depth structural maps generated for all surfaces of interest show subsurface features such as the geometry of the identified horizons, W-E trending growth fault and fault strata of which most of them dip to the east and fault assisted closures at the north-western-central part of the studied section. The dipping pattern of the identified faults coincides with that of the growth fault which enhances trapping mechanism for the hydrocarbon. Two principal structural trapping mechanisms presents are growth fault and rollover anticline which are synonymous with Niger Delta. According to them, the study demonstrated the importance of seismic structural interpretation in understanding the structural styles present and their retentive ability for hydrocarbon.

Soronnadi et al. (2013)undertook а palaeoenvironmental and sequence stratigraphic study of the D7000 sand 'Erne' field of the Niger Delta using integrated core samples, biostratigraphic data and wireline logs analyses of the D7000 sand. The environments of deposition were established as marine to estuarine settings which revealed that a period of regression was followed by a transgressive phase. Core analysis revealed the existence of ten lithofacies, which were grouped into facies association in a vertical sequence with genetic significance using primary structures and shape of wireline logs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Pressure Volume Temperature (PVT) Data

PVT laboratory analysis by Schlumberger on well 06 (1975), well 17 (1978), well 18 (1989), well 19 (1989), well 23 (1989), well 27 (2014), well 29 (2015) and well 30 (2015) were available for this study and these data were useful in determining hydrocarbon

chemical composition, its viscosity, specific gravity, density, and API unit.

The bottomhole samples were restored and homogenized at specified respective reservoir temperatures provided by Seplat Petroleum Development Company PLC. Following sample conditioning, the bottomhole samples were subjected to heat cycling at elevated temperatures and pressures above specified reservoir conditions of temperature and pressure to help break down water/emulsion in the samples. Once the samples got cleared of water/emulsion, they were stabilized at the specified respective reservoir temperatures and at 3515 Psi. The Constant Composition Expansion (CCE) experiment were performed by transferring a sub-sample of reservoir fluid into the PVT cell at reservoir temperatures of 129°F and 207°F, and suitable working pressure (3517 Psi).

The viscosity of the reservoir fluid was measured using an Electromagnetic Viscometer (EMV) at reservoir temperatures of 129°F and 207°F. The pressure of the reservoir fluid is reduced in the singlephase region and the viscosity measured at predetermined steps. The pressure of the reservoir fluid is then reduced to a predetermined pressure below saturation pressure, the evolved gas removed. and the viscosity of the equilibrated oil measured (Schlumberger, 1989). This process is repeated by use of a Solid Detection System (SDS) as shown in Figure 3 at selected pressure until atmospheric pressure is reached. Reservoir fluid density were measured at a suitable working pressure and calculated at other single-phase pressures using the measured relative volume. A controlled atmospheric flash was conducted on the various samples, the gas-liquid ratio was measured and both flashed gas and flashed liquid were collected for further compositional analysis. These subsamples were analysed using Gas Chromatograph to obtain chemical compositions of the reservoir fluids.



Figure 3: Schematic Diagram of Schlumberger PVT Cell Equipped with Solid Detection System (SDS) (Schlumberger, 2015)

For the viscosity measurement of the reservoir fluid at selected pressures in single phase above the saturation pressure, and liquid phase during the DL test, a Cambridge Electromagnetic Viscometer (EMV) is used. In some special cases, a capillary viscometer is also used in addition to the EMV as shown in Figure 4.



Figure 4: Schematic Diagram of Cambridge Electromagnetic Viscometer (Schlumberger, 2015).

The test fluid is charged to the pre-cleaned and evacuated vessel, and the piston is surrounded by fluid. Subsequently, the piston is moved inside the vessel by imparting a force on the piston using two electromagnetic coils inside the sensor body. After traveling the length of the test vessel, the piston is returned to its starting location by reversing the magnetic field of the electromagnet. The motion of the piston inside the vessel is impeded by viscous flow around the annulus between the piston and the measurement chamber wall. Viscosity is determined by measuring the piston transit time for a complete cycle of piston movement and comparing this to times obtained using calibrated standards.

Capillary Viscometer (CV)

Oven

The CV is rated to 10000.0 psi and 374.0 °F. The CV set-up consists of two high pressure cylinders (50 cm³ each) connected to a 183 ft, 0.076 cm diameter capillary coil. A differential pressure transducer is used to monitor the pressure drop across the capillary coil. The fluid sample is pumped from one cylinder to the other through the capillary coil by an opposed pump (as shown in Figure 5). From the measured fluid flow rate and pressure drop, the viscosity can be determined using the Hagen-Poiseuille relationship for laminar flow in tubes as shown in equation 1.

$$\mu = \frac{\Delta p}{Q} \left(\frac{\pi r^4}{8L}\right) = \frac{\Delta p}{Q} k \qquad (1)$$

Where:

 $\mu \Box$ is the fluid viscosity

 \Box p is the pressure drop across the capillary tube of length

L is the length of the tube

r is the radius

Q is the volumetric flow rate.

The tube constant k is determined by calibrating the viscometer using standards of known viscosity at test pressures and temperatures.





RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Pressure Volume Temperature Analysis (PVT)

PVT data were available for 8 wells across both fields (five wells from Sapele deep and three wells from Sapele shallow). With the aid of this data, the fields were further categorized into

1. Conventional (Sapele deep) field

2. Unconventional (Sapele shallow) field.

According to Kulke (1995), majority of oils fall within two groups. The first being light paraffin based, waxy oils from deeper reservoirs (wax content up to 20%, but commonly around 5%; high n-paraffin/naphthene of 0.86). The second being oils that are biodegraded and from shallow reservoirs. They are of lower API gravity (average API of 26°) and are naphthenic nonwaxy oils (n-paraffin/naphthene = 0.37). Biodegradation and washing are extreme in some Pleistocene sands of the Benin formation, forming extra heavy oils with API range of 8-20°. (Kulke, 1995; Doust & Omatsola, 1990).

Conventional (Sapele Deep) field

PVT data available for five wells (Well 06, 17, 18, 19 and 27) from the field, shows that the hydrocarbon possesses high content of light molecular weight hydrocarbon compounds such as Methane, Ethane, Propane, Butane, Pentane, Hexane, Heptane, Octane and contains small number of impurities such as N_2 and CO_2 (Table 1). The presence of these light hydrocarbon fractions resulted in the low density, low viscosity, low specific gravity and

high API gravity of the crude oil samples from the field, which implies that the hydrocarbon will flow at ease to well heads due to these aforementioned properties. With API unit ranging within 32.0 - 49.30 across the field, the hydrocarbon type present in Sapele deep are light hydrocarbon (Conventional Oil).

Table 1: Sapele Deep Hydrocarbon Chemical Components

Also, the extreme high amount of methane presents also suggest that the field is made up of not just oil but both oil and wet gas (Sour or Lean Gas). This agrees with the work of Jin *et al.* (2010) who stated that if CO_2 is greater than 2% or H_2S is greater than 0.1%, then the gas can be described as Sour/acidic/lean gas.

Component	Formula	Mole Mass	Sapele 06	Sapele 17	Sapele 18	Sapele 19	Sapele 27
Nitrogen	N_2	28.01	0.09	0.37	0.09	0.11	0.07
Carbon Dioxide	CO_2	44.01	3.15	3.47	5.45	5.91	2.23
Hydrogen Sulfide	H_2S	34.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Methane	CH_4	16.07	83.87	80.55	80.38	78.19	54.06
Ethane	C_2H_6	30.07	7.08	6.22	5.88	6.33	6.85
Propane	C_3H_8	44.10	3.53	3.28	2.89	3.37	4.53
i-Butane	iC_4H_{10}	58.12	0.66	0.64	0.54	0.63	1.11
n-Butane	nC_4H_{10}	58.12	0.84	0.99	0.85	0.99	1.90
i-pentane	iC_5H_{12}	72.15	0.24	0.40	0.63	0.37	1.50
n-Pentane	nC_5H_{12}	72.15	0.17	0.34	0.37	0.33	1.34
Hexane	$C_{6}H_{14}$	84.00	0.10	0.43	0.49	0.45	2.76
Methylcyclopentane	$C_{6}H_{12}$	84.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Benzene	C_6H_6	78.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Cyclohexane	$C_{6}H_{12}$	84.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Heptane	C7H16	98.19	0.05	0.68	0.41	0.84	2.05
Methylcyclohexane	C_7H_{14}	98.19	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Toluene	C7H8	92.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Octane	C_8H_{18}	112.22	0.01	0.58	0.77	0.99	1.56
Ethylbenzene	C_8H_{10}	106.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
M & P-Xylene	$C_{8}H_{10}$	106.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
O-Xylene	$C_{8}H_{10}$	106.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Nonane	C_9H_{20}	122.50	0.21	0.52	0.50	0.56	1.31
Decane	$C_{10}H_{22}$	134.00	0.00	0.27	0.38	0.33	1.23
Undecane	$C_{11}H_{24}$	147.00	0.00	0.21	0.26	0.17	1.17
Dodecane	$C_{12}H_{26}$	161.00	0.00	1.05	0.00	0.43	1.14
Tridecane	C13H28	175.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.28
Tetradecane	$C_{14}H_{30}$	190.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.24
Pentadecane	C15H32	206.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.19
Hexadecane	$C_{16}H_{34}$	222.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.97
Heptadecane	C17H36	237.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.95
Octadecane	C18H38	251.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.87
Nonadecane	$C_{19}H_{40}$	263.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.85
Icosane	$C_{20}H_{42}$	275.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.82
Heneicosane	$C_{21}H_{44}$	291.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.79
Docosane	C22H46	305.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.75
Tricosane	C23H48	318.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.75
Tetracosane	$C_{24}H_{50}$	311.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.72
Pentacosane	C25H52	345.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.69
Hexacosane	C ₂₆ H ₅₄	359.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.65
Heptaeicosane	C27H56	374.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.59
Octaeicosane	C ₂₈ H ₅₆	388.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.51
Nonaeicosane	$C_{29}H_{60}$	402.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.41
Triacontane Plus	$C_{30}H_{62}+$	750.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.16
Total			100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
I-Reservoir Press			5142	5430	6053	5649	5818
Reservoir Temp			228 ⁰ F	224 ⁰ F	236°F	231 ⁰ F	232 ⁰ F
Viscosity (cP)			0.45	0.43	0.35	0.39	0.40
API Unit			42.10	47.05	53.41	49.30	51.96

Unconventional (Sapele Shallow) field

PVT data from well 23, well 29 and well 30 of the field, indicates that the hydrocarbon has high content of heavy molecular weight hydrocarbon compounds such as Dodecane, Tridecane, Tetradecane,

Pentadecane, Hexadecane, Heptadecane Octadecane, Nonadecane, Icosane, Heneicosane, Docosane, Tricosane, Tetracosane, Pentacosane, Hexacosane, Heptaeicosane, Octaeicosane, Nonaeicosane, Triacontane Plus and contains small number of

173

impurities (N_2 and CO_2). The presence of these heavy hydrocarbon fractions resulted in the high density, high viscosity, high specific gravity and low API gravity of the crude oil samples from the field, which implies that the hydrocarbon will not flow at ease to well heads except external stimulation is applied to enable hydrocarbons flow. The API unit value across the field is within 12.80 – 19.82, which denotes heavy hydrocarbon (Unconventional oil). Also, the low or near absence of methane suggests that the field is made up of only oil as seen in Table 2. The results obtained align with Oliveira and Carvalho (1993) and Santos *et al.* (2012) who concluded that microbial degradation reaches optimal temperatures below 80° C (176°F), promoting oil oxidation, reduction of the gas/oil ratio (GOR), and reduction of API value. Thereby, increasing density and viscosity as well as the relative proportion of sulfur and heavy metals.

Table 2: Sapele Shallow Hydrocarbon Chemical Components

Component	Formula	Molecular Mass	Sapele 23	Sapele 29	Sapele 30
Nitrogen	N_2	28.01	0.020	0.072	0.050
Carbon Dioxide	CO_2	44.01	0.130	0.002	0.140
Hydrogen Sulfide	H_2S	34.08	0.000	0.000	0.000
Methane	CH_4	16.07	3.660	0.093	2.530
Ethane	C_2H_6	30.07	0.790	0.000	0.440
Propane	C ₃ H ₈	44.10	1.070	0.001	0.900
i-Butane	iC_4H_{10}	58.12	0.360	0.000	0.210
n-Butane	nC_4H_{10}	58.12	0.880	0.000	0.530
i-pentane	iC_5H_{12}	72.15	1.420	0.001	1.720
n-Pentane	nC_5H_{12}	72.15	1.450	0.001	1.246
Hexane	$C_{6}H_{14}$	84.00	3.180	0.022	2.891
Methylcyclopentane	$C_{6}H_{12}$	84.16	0.001	0.002	0.001
Benzene	C_6H_6	78.11	0.002	0.001	0.001
Cyclohexane	$C_{6}H_{12}$	84.16	0.002	0.001	0.001
Heptane	C7H16	98.19	0.004	0.028	0.005
Methylcyclohexane	$C_{7}H_{14}$	98.19	0.006	0.002	0.003
Toluene	C7H8	92.14	0.087	0.007	0.064
Octane	C8H18	112.22	0.043	0.055	0.087
Ethylbenzene	C8H10	106.17	0.001	0.002	0.002
M & P-Xylene	C_8H_{10}	106.17	0.006	0.004	0.004
O-Xylene	C8H10	106.17	0.005	0.003	0.005
Nonane	C9H20	122.50	0.090	0.088	0.182
Decane	C10H22	134.00	0.524	0.376	0.304
Undecane	C11H24	147.00	0.221	1.527	0.151
Dodecane	C12H26	161.00	2.891	3.483	3.316
Tridecane	C13H28	175.00	5.174	6.102	3.924
Tetradecane	C14H30	190.00	8.525	8.448	7.725
Pentadecane	C15H32	206.00	8.525	8.372	7.725
Hexadecane	$C_{16}H_{34}$	222.00	5.446	6.800	5.619
Heptadecane	C17H36	237.00	5.446	6.135	5.619
Octadecane	$C_{18}H_{38}$	251.00	4.274	5.200	3.173
Nonadecane	C19H40	263.00	4.274	5.560	3.173
Icosane	C20H42	275.00	4.361	4.940	4.614
Heneicosane	C21H44	291.00	4.193	5.458	4.114
Docosane	C22H46	305.00	3.512	4.036	5.941
Tricosane	C23H48	318.00	3.365	3.859	5.242
Tetracosane	C24H50	311.00	2.453	3.294	3.093
Pentacosane	C25H52	345.00	2.752	2.988	3.100
Hexacosane	C26H54	359.00	3.154	3.668	2.958
Heptaeicosane	C27H56	374.00	2.900	2.561	2.001
Octaeicosane	C28H56	388.00	2.468	2.764	1.885
Nonaeicosane	$C_{29}H_{60}$	402.00	2.274	2.484	2.004
Triacontane Plus	$C_{30}H_{62}+$	750.00	10.061	11.559	13.307
Total			100.00	100.00	100.00
I-Reservoir Press			2175.09	2557.98	2420
Reservoir Temp			129 ⁰ F	140 ⁰ F	134.0°F
Viscosity (cP)			45.62	39.94	42.41
API Unit			12.80	19.82	16.47

CONCLUSION

The heavy oils found in the Sapele Shallow field are as a result of biodegradation process in which microorganisms degrades the light hydrocarbons due to the shallow nature of the reservoir in the field, making it rich in heavy molecular weight hydrocarbon compounds resulting to the low pressure and generally lower recovery factors in comparison to the light oil found in Sapele deep field. Also, the heavy oil found in Sapele shallow is more complex and expensive to produce because it requires novel or unconventional production technologies and is also a low-quality oil that must be upgraded to a lower density, viscosity, and specific gravity before been sent to the refineries (Synthetic crude or Syncrude) compared to the light oil of Sapele deep which does not need any of these processes. However, volumetric loss occurs when upgrading the lower quality oil to a standard conventional oil, which therefore implies that the shallow field reserve cannot be accurately estimated. Also, light crude oil receives a higher price than heavy crude oil on commodity markets because it produces a higher percentage of gasoline and diesel fuel when converted into products by an oil refinery. Heavy crude oil has more negative impact on the environment than its light counterpart since its refinement requires the use of more advanced techniques and the use of contaminants.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge Seplat Energy Plc for the data used for this study

REFERENCES

- Airen, O.J. & Mujakperuo, B.J.O. (2023). Reservoir Hydrocarbon Volumetric Analysis of Sapele Deep Field, Niger Delta, Southern Nigeria, Arid Zone Journal of Engineering, Technology & Environment, 19(4), 847-864.
- Doust, H., & Omatsola, E. (1990). Niger Delta, in, Edwards, J. D., and Santogrossi, P.A., eds., Divergent/passive Margin Basins, AAPG Memoir 48: Tulsa, American Association of Petroleum Geologists, 239-248.
- Head, I. M., Jones, D. M. & Larter, S. R., (2003). Biological activity in the deep subsurface and the origin of heavy oil, *Nature*, 426, 344-352.
- Kulke, H., (1995). Nigeria, in, Kulke, H., ed., Regional Petroleum Geology of the World. Part II: Africa, America, Australia, and

Antarctica. Berlin: Gebrüder Borntraeger, 143-172.

- Jin, S., Shuichang, Z., Guangyou, Z., Zhi, Y., Bin, Z., Anguo, F. & Debin, Y., (2010). Geological reserves of sulfur in China's sour gas _elds and the strategy of sulfur markets. *Petroleum Exploration and Development*, 37(3), 369-377.
- Mujakperuo, B.J.O. & Airen, O.J. (2024). Hydrocarbon Volumetric Evaluation of Sapele Shallow Field, Niger Delta, Southern Nigeria. *Journal of Engineering for Development*, 16(1), 14-33.
- Oliveira, R. C. G. & Carvalho, C. H. M., (1993). Influência do tipo de emulsão sobre a reologia do petróleo de Marlim. I Seminário de Tecnologia de Produção. Petrobrás (In Portuguese).
- Ologe, O., Ola-Buraimo, A. O. & Bankole, S. A., (2013). 3-D Seismic Structural Interpretation of a Part of Aloo-Field, Southwestern Niger-Delta, Nigeria. *Journal of Science Research*, 12, 305-313.
- Reijers, T. R. A., (2011). Stratigraphy and sedimentology of the Niger Delta. *Geologos*, 17(3), 133–162. doi:10.2478/v10118-011-0008-3.
- Santos, R. G., Loh, W., Bannwart, A.C. & Trevisan, O.V. (2012). An overview of heavy oil Properties and its recovery and transportation methods, *Brazilian Journal of Chemical Engineering*, 31(3), 571 – 590.
- Schlumberger, (1989). Log interpretation principles and application, *Schlumberger wire line and testing Houston, Texas*, 21-89.
- Schlumberger, (2009). Geological significance of seismic attribute, *Oilfield glossary*, 2-3.
- Schlumberger, (2015). The Defining Series: Measuring Porosity Downhole, *Oilfield Review*, 9-13.
- Soronnadi-Ononiwu, G. C., Omoboriowo, A. O., Yikareboga, Y. & Madu, V.C., (2013). Paleoenvironmental and sequence stratigraphic studies of the D7000 sand, 'Erne' field, Niger Delta, Nigeria. Greener Journal of Physical Sciences, 3, 6-18.
- Thomas, J. (1995). Meaning in Interaction: An Introduction to Pragmatics, London: Longman.
- Whiteman, A. (1982). *Nigeria: Its Petroleum geology, resources and potentials* (1 & 2). London: Graham and Trotman Ltd.