

Introduction to Reservoir Geomechanics

1 Introduction

Definitions and some challenges of reservoir geomechanics. Modeling of coupled phenomena.

2 Constitutive Laws: Behavior of Rocks

Fundamentals of Pore-Mechanics.

3 Constitutive Laws: Behavior of Fractures Geomechanics of Fractured Media.

4 Reservoir Geomechanics

Elements of a geomechanical model and applications.

5 Unconventional Reservoirs

Naturally fractured reservoirs, hydraulic fracture, proppant and fracture closure model, validation (microseismicity).

6 Advanced Topics

Injection of reactive fluids and rock integrity.

Constitutive Laws





Deformable Porous Media

Stresses

Continuum mechanics deals with deformable bodies.

✓ The stresses considered in continuum mechanics are only those produced by deformation of the body.

✓ Stress is a measure of the average force per unit area of a surface within a deformable body on which internal forces act.

✓ It is a measure of the intensity of the internal forces acting between particles of a deformable body across imaginary internal surfaces.

✓ These internal forces are produced between the particles in the body as a reaction to external forces applied on the body.

 \checkmark In general, stress is not uniformly distributed over the cross-section of a material body, and consequently the stress at a point in a given region is different from the average stress over the entire area.

 \checkmark Therefore, it is necessary to define the stress not over a given area but at a specific point in the body.



Deformable Porous Media

Normal and Shear Stresses:

Definition:

 $\sigma = \lim_{\Delta A_i \to \infty} \frac{\Delta F_i}{\Delta A_i}$

stress vector (acting in a infinitesimal surface)





Decomposition of stress vector:

Normal stress:
$$\sigma = \frac{F_n}{A''}$$

Shear stress:
$$au = \frac{F_p}{A''}$$





Stress Representation



UFPE

Stress Representation





Deformable Porous Media

Cauchy Stresses

✓ According to Cauchy, the stress at any point in an object assumed to behave as a continuum is completely defined by the nine components of a second-order tensor of type known as the Cauchy stress tensor.



✓ The Cauchy stress tensor is used for stress analysis of material bodies experiencing small deformations.

✓ For large deformations, also called finite deformations, other measures of stress, such as the first and second Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensors, the Biot stress tensor, and the Kirchhoff stress tensor, are required



✓ Stress Sign Convention

In Soil/Rock Mechanics compression is considered as positive and tension as negative.





Compressive stresses are positives

Tensile stresses are negatives



Stress, stress changes in space and time

In 3 dimensions :



$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{x} & \tau_{xy} & \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{xy} & \sigma_{y} & \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{xz} & \tau_{yz} & \sigma_{z} \end{bmatrix}_{xyz}$$

Rotation of reference axes



Principal stresses:

$$\sigma_1 = \max(\sigma_a, \sigma_b, \sigma_c)$$

$$\sigma_3 = \min(\sigma_a, \sigma_b, \sigma_c)$$

 σ_2 = the remaining component



diagonal tensor

full tensor



Stress, stress changes in space and time

Principal Stresses

✓ The Cauchy stress tensor obeys the tensor transformation law under a change in the system of coordinates.

✓ A graphical representation of this transformation law is the Mohr's circle for stress

✓ At every point in a stressed body there are at least three planes, called principal planes, with normal vectors , called principal directions, where the corresponding stress vector is perpendicular to the plane and where there are no normal shear stresses.

✓ The three stresses normal to these principal planes are called principal stresses

$$\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \sigma_3 \quad \rightarrow \text{Principal stresses} \quad \sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_3 \end{bmatrix}$$



Stress Representation

Stress state in lab experiments:





TRIAXIAL TEST





TRIAXIAL TEST

Test	σ΄ ₃ (kPa)	(σ' ₁₋ σ' ₃) (kPa)	σ΄ ₁ (kPa)	1/2(σ' ₁ - σ' ₃) (kPa)	1/2(σ' ₁ + σ' ₃) (kPa)
1	50	200	250	100	150
2	140	335	475	168	308
3	300	520	760	260	500



Stress Fields



Principal stresses and principal planes of stress:

Very useful because

i) the position of principal surfaces of stress can often be identified

ii) the orientation of structures (faults etc) depends on the position

of the principal stresses











In 2D analysis: stress field and displacement field:

Finite element analysis of a tunnel excavation:





Mesh

Stress field



Axial behavior

✓ Example of elasto-plastic behaviour: tensile test (1D) in metals







Strain Tensor

Cauchy's infinitesimal strain tensor:



$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{vmatrix} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{x} & \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{xy} & \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{xz} \\ \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{xy} & \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{y} & \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{yz} \\ \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{xz} & \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{yz} & \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{z} \end{vmatrix}$$



Compatibility conditions:

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T \right)$$

Strains





Strains are related to Displacements



Strain Tensor

- Compression +
- ✓ Small deformations :





Symmetric part of the displacement gradient tensor

Displacement vector $\mathbf{u} = (u, v, w)^{\mathrm{T}}$ Component x: *u* Component y: *v* Component z: *w*

$$\varepsilon_x = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$$
 $\varepsilon_y = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$ $\varepsilon_z = \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}$



$$\gamma_{xy} = \theta_{xy} + \theta_{yx} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \varepsilon_{xy} + \varepsilon_{yx} = 2\varepsilon_{xy}$$
$$\gamma_{xz} = \theta_{xz} + \theta_{zx} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \varepsilon_{xz} + \varepsilon_{zx} = 2\varepsilon_{xz}$$
$$\gamma_{yz} = \theta_{yz} + \theta_{zy} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = \varepsilon_{yz} + \varepsilon_{zy} = 2\varepsilon_{yz}$$

Strains are related to Displacements







MOMENTUM BALANCE (EQUILIBRIUM)

> Consider a volume of a porous medium.

> If inertial terms are neglected, the distribution of total stress within this volume can be shown to satisfy the equilibrium equation.

$$\frac{\partial \sigma_{ij}}{\partial x_j} + F_i = 0 \qquad i = 1, 2, 3$$

or

 $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{\sigma} + b = 0$



>Where the σ_{ij} (or σ) is the total stress on the medium and F_i (or b) is the body force per unit volume of the medium.





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$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{\sigma'} + \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}_{f} \cdot \mathbf{I}) + b = 0$$



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Equilibrium Equation

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or
$$\nabla \cdot (\underbrace{\mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{\varepsilon}}_{f} + \alpha \cdot p_{f} \cdot \mathbf{I}) + b = 0$$

σ

*x*₃ *σ*₃₁ *σ*₃₁ *σ*₃₂ *σ*₃₂ *σ*₃₂ *σ*₂₃ *σ*₂₃ *σ*₂₂ *σ*₂₁ *σ*₂₂ *σ*₂₂ *σ*₂₁ *σ*₂₂ *σ*₂₂ *σ*₂₃ *σ*₂₄ *σ*₂₅ *σ*₂₆ *σ*₂₆ *σ*₂₇ *σ*₂₇

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Equilibrium Equation

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Pore Water Pressure, Total & Effective Stresses

Effective Stress

- Terzaghi (1936) proposed the principle of effective stress^(*), the most important equation in soils mechanics.
- ✓ The effective stress (σ ') is the component of the normal stress taken by the soil skeleton.
- It is the effective stress which controls the volume and the strength of the soil.



Karl Terzaghi (1883 - 1963)

It is assumed saturated soil, water incompressibility and rigid soil particles.

$$\sigma' = \sigma - u_w$$

efective stress total stress pore water pressure

(*)"All the measurable effects of a change of stress, such as compression, distortion and a change in the shearing resistance are exclusively due to changes in effective stress...every investigation of the stability of a saturated body of earth requires the knowledge of both the total and the neutral stresses." (Terzaghi, 1936)





>Normal Stress in the Stress Tensor:

$$\sigma' = \sigma - p_w$$



- Multiphase material (solid and liquid)
- Incorporation of an additional variable: pore pressure
- Coupled phenomena (mechanical & hydraulic)



The concept of effective stress is based on the pioneering work in soil mechanics by Terzaghi (1923) who noted that the behavior of a soil (or a saturated rock) will be controlled by the effective stresses, the differences between total stresses and pore pressure. The socalled "simple" or Terzaghi definition of effective stress is:





- A saturated porous medium comprises two phases:
- the soil particles
- the pore water



Saturated soil



Solid Skeleton





The strengths of these two phases are very different:

- ✓ the soil skeleton can resist shears. Two basic mechanisms:
 - inter particle friction
 - particles interlocking
- \checkmark the shear strength of water is zero
 - water can only sustains isotropic pressure.



✓ Physical Interpretation



 σ : total stresses externally applied

 σ : stresses that act through the contacts between particles (A_m)

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p_w: water pressure (A_w)
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 A_t : total area

$$A_t = A_m + A_w$$

 $\mathbf{\sigma'} = \mathbf{\sigma} - p_f \cdot \mathbf{I}$

 $\sigma' = \sigma - p_f$ In terms of normal components:

It is relatively straightforward to see that the stresses acting on individual grains result from the difference between the externally applied normal stresses and the internal fluid pressure. If one considers the force acting at a single grain contact, for example, all of the force acting on the grain is transmitted to the grain contact. Thus, the force balance is

 $F_{\rm T} = F_{\rm g}$

which, in terms of stress and area, can be expressed as

 $\sigma \cdot A_T = \sigma_c \cdot A_c + (A_T - A_c) p_f$

where A_c is the contact area of the grain and σ_c is the effective normal stress acting on the grain contact. Introducing the parameter $a = A_c/A_T$, this is written as

$$\sigma = a\sigma_c + (1-a)p_f$$

The intergranular stress can be obtained by taking the limit where a becomes vanishingly small

 $\lim_{a\to 0} a\sigma_c = \sigma'$ such that the "effective" stress acting on individual grains, σ' is given by

 $\sigma' = \sigma - (1 - a) p_f = \sigma - p_f$, for very small contact areas.









The strength of the soil skeleton and the pore water are so different, therefore it is necessary to consider the stress acting in each phase separately





> Based on experimental information it can be concluded that Terzaghi's definition of effective stresses works well for a number of soils, but for other cases it needs an upgrade.

> A more general law for effective stresses can be expressed as:

$$\mathbf{\sigma'} = \mathbf{\sigma} - \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}_f \cdot \mathbf{I}$$

It is and extension of the one proposed by Terzaghi $(\sigma' = \sigma - p_w)$ where α is a physical constant known as Biot parameter.

> Geertsma (1957) and Skempton (1960) suggested:

$$\alpha = 1 - \left(\frac{K}{K_s}\right)$$

where:

K: is the drained bulk modulus of the dry aggregate or rock

(i.e. porous medium skeleton).

 K_s : is the bulk modulus of the soil's/rock's individual solid grains



- > Based on experimental information it can be concluded that Terzaghi's definition of effective stresses works well for a number of soils, but for other cases it needs an upgrade.
- > A more general law for effective stresses can be expressed as:



Bulk modulus of the overall skeleton Solid phase (rock grains) bulk modulus

For rocks, it is important to take into account the Biot's constant. $\alpha < 1$ For soils, it is equal to one. $\alpha = 1$ For unconsolidated or weak rocks, it is close to one. $\alpha \sim 1$



$$\alpha = 1 - K / K_s$$

> It is clear that: $0 \le \alpha \le 1$

> For solid rock (i.e. practically no interconnect pores): $K \approx K_s$

$$\lim_{\phi \to 0} \alpha = 0 \qquad \qquad \sigma_{ij} \approx \sigma_{ij}$$

Therefore the pore pressure has no influence on porous media behavior.

> For a highly porous soil (e.g. soil with an open structure): $K \ll K_s$

$$\lim_{\phi \to 1} \alpha = 1 \qquad \sigma'_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} - p \delta_{ij}$$

Therefore the pore pressure has the maximum influence and the Terzaghi principle of effective stress is recovered.



Biot's Effective Stresses

 $\sigma_{ij} = \sigma'_{ij} - \alpha p \, \delta_{ij}$

- > Measured values of α (Biot's parameter) for two porous materials:
 - ✓ Uncemented Sand
 - ✓ Sandstone
- \succ In both cases α decrease with confining pressure


Effective Stress Principle

Biot's Effective Stresses (Lade & De Boer, 1997) (a) Separate → (b) Solid rock with Gradual grains with transition interconnected contact points pores Soil Rock Porosity Strength 🦰





Derivation of Biot's Constant

(Lewis and Schrefler, 1998)

Elasticity (solids): $d\sigma = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\epsilon$

Poro-elasticity for soils: $d\sigma' = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\epsilon$ (incompressible grains) $(d\sigma' = d\sigma - dp_f \cdot \mathbf{I})$ Incremental form

For rocks, we have to consider that the pore pressure p_f induces hydrostatic stress distribution in the solid phase (compressible). The ensuing deformation is a purely volumetric strain:

$$d\varepsilon_v^s = \frac{dp_f}{K_s}$$
 or in tensorial form $d\varepsilon_v^s = \mathbf{I} \frac{dp_f}{3K_s}$

The effective stress causes all relevant deformations of the solid skeleton. The constitutive relationship should be rewritten as

Elastic strain tensor Total strain tensor

$$d\mathbf{\sigma}' = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{\varepsilon}^{e} = \mathbf{D} \cdot (d\mathbf{\varepsilon} - d\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{v}^{s} - d\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{c} - d\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{T} - d\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{mechanisms}^{other}) = \mathbf{D} \cdot (d\mathbf{\varepsilon} - d\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{v}^{s})$$



Derivation of Biot's Constant

(Lewis and Schrefler, 1998)

So, considering the deformations of the solid skeleton as new deformational mechanism:

$$d\mathbf{\sigma}' = \mathbf{D} \cdot (d\mathbf{\varepsilon} - d\mathbf{\varepsilon}_v^s) = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{\varepsilon} - \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \frac{dp_f}{3K_s}$$

Biot's definition of effective stress

On the other hand, using Terzaghi's definition of effective stress:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}' + \mathbf{I} \cdot p_f \quad \Rightarrow \quad d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = d\boldsymbol{\sigma}' + \mathbf{I} \cdot dp_f$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad d\mathbf{\sigma} = \mathbf{D} \cdot (d\mathbf{\varepsilon} - d\mathbf{\varepsilon}_v^s) = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{\varepsilon} - \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \frac{dp_f}{3K_s} + \mathbf{I} \cdot dp_f$$

1

Biot's constant:

$$\alpha \longrightarrow d\mathbf{\sigma} = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{\varepsilon} + \left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \frac{1}{3K_s}\right) dp_f$$

$$\Rightarrow d\mathbf{\sigma} - \left(1 - \frac{K}{K_s}\right) \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot dp_f = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{\varepsilon} \implies \begin{array}{c} \text{Corrected} \\ \text{effective} \\ \text{stress!!} \end{array}$$



Derivation of Biot's Constant

(Lewis and Schrefler, 1998)

Biot's effective stress: $d\sigma''$



This is the stress which directly induces rock deformation:

$$d\mathbf{\sigma}'' = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{\varepsilon}$$

Stress Path



Stress path in 3D



- It is generally complicate to draw the stress path in 3D
- We tend to work with invariant if stresses rather with the full stress tensor
- ✓ We use a lot trixial conditions, in which $\sigma_2 = \sigma_3$
- ✓ Under this condition we can work in 2D, with σ_1 & σ_3 only
- This is what we generally do with the Mohr circle.



✓ The components of the stress tensor depend on the orientation of the coordinate system at the point under consideration.

✓ However, the stress tensor itself is a physical quantity and as such, it is independent of the coordinate system chosen to represent it.



✓ There are certain invariants associated with every tensor which are also independent of the coordinate system.

 \checkmark A vector is a simple tensor of rank one. The value of the components will depend on the coordinate system chosen to represent the vector, but the length of the vector is a physical quantity (a scalar) and is independent of the coordinate system chosen to represent the vector.

✓ Similarly, every second rank tensor (such as the stress and the strain tensors) has three independent invariant quantities associated with it.

✓ One set of such invariants are the principal stresses of the stress tensor.



Invariants of the Stress Tensor (o)

$$I_{1} = \sigma_{kk} = \sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y} + \sigma_{z} = \sigma_{1} + \sigma_{2} + \sigma_{3}$$

$$I_{2} = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{ij}\sigma_{ij} - \sigma_{kk}^{2}) = -(\sigma_{x}\sigma_{y} + \sigma_{x}\sigma_{z} + \sigma_{y}\sigma_{z}) + \tau_{xy}^{2} + \tau_{xz}^{2} + \tau_{yz}^{2}$$

$$= -(\sigma_{1}\sigma_{2} + \sigma_{1}\sigma_{3} + \sigma_{2}\sigma_{3})$$

$$I_{3} = \det \mathbf{\sigma} = \sigma_{x}\sigma_{y}\sigma_{z} + 2\tau_{xy}\tau_{xz}\tau_{yz} - \sigma_{x}\tau_{yz}^{2} - \sigma_{y}\tau_{xz}^{2} - \sigma_{z}\tau_{xy}^{2} = \sigma_{1}\sigma_{2}\sigma_{3}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x} & \boldsymbol{\tau}_{xy} & \boldsymbol{\tau}_{xz} \\ \boldsymbol{\tau}_{yx} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{y} & \boldsymbol{\tau}_{yz} \\ \boldsymbol{\tau}_{zx} & \boldsymbol{\tau}_{zy} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z} \end{bmatrix}$$



Stress Deviator Tensor

\checkmark The stress tensor can be expressed as the sum of two other stress tensors:

A mean hydrostatic stress tensor or volumetric stress tensor or mean normal stress tensor, which tends to change the volume of the stressed body;

$$\sigma_m = \frac{1}{3}I_1 = \frac{1}{3}\left(\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z\right)$$

• A deviatoric component called the stress deviator tensor, S, which tends to distort it.

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{S}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\phi} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{S}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} \\ \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} \\ \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} \end{bmatrix}}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{deviator} = \mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} & \boldsymbol{\tau}_{xy} & \boldsymbol{\tau}_{xz} \\ \boldsymbol{\tau}_{yx} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{y} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} & \boldsymbol{\tau}_{yz} \\ \boldsymbol{\tau}_{zx} & \boldsymbol{\tau}_{zy} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{m} \end{bmatrix}}$$



Invariants of the stress deviator tensor

 $\mathbf{s} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_m \mathbf{I}$

 $J_{1} = 0$ = 0 because , the stress deviator tensor is in a state of pure shear $J_{2} = \frac{1}{2} s_{ij} s_{ij} = -(s_{x} s_{y} + s_{x} s_{z} + s_{y} s_{z}) + \tau_{xy}^{2} + \tau_{xz}^{2} + \tau_{yz}^{2}$ $=\frac{1}{2}(s_{x}^{2}+s_{y}^{2}+s_{z}^{2})+\tau_{xy}^{2}+\tau_{xz}^{2}+\tau_{yz}^{2}$ $= \frac{1}{6} \left[(\sigma_{x} - \sigma_{y})^{2} + (\sigma_{x} - \sigma_{z})^{2} + (\sigma_{y} - \sigma_{z})^{2} \right] + \tau_{xy}^{2} + \tau_{xz}^{2} + \tau_{yz}^{2}$ $J_3 = \det \mathbf{s}$

$$J_2 = I_2 - \frac{1}{3} (I_1)^2$$



Effective mean stress (volumetric behavior):

$$p' = \sigma_m = \overline{\sigma} = \frac{\sigma'_x + \sigma'_y + \sigma'_z}{3}$$

Deviatoric tensor (shear behavior): S =

$$\begin{pmatrix} s_x & s_{xy} & s_{xz} \\ s_{xy} & s_y & s_{yz} \\ s_{xz} & s_{yz} & s_z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x - \bar{\sigma} & \tau_{xy} & \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{xy} & \sigma_y - \bar{\sigma} & \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{xz} & \tau_{yz} & \sigma_z - \bar{\sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$

Deviatoric (shear) stress:
$$J = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \sqrt{(\sigma'_x - p')^2 + (\sigma'_y - p')^2 + (\sigma'_z - p')^2 + \tau'_{xy}^2 + \tau'_{yz}^2 + \tau'_{zx}^2}$$

Lode angle:

$$\theta = -\frac{1}{3} \arcsin\left(\frac{\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2} \det(\mathbf{S})}{J^3}\right)$$

 $-30^{\circ} \le \theta \le 30^{\circ}$







Lode angle:

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 $-30^{\circ} \le \theta \le 30^{\circ}$



Schematic diagram of a triaxial compression apparatus

Stress state in cylindrical specimens in compression and extension tests





Potts & Zdravkovic (2001)









Representation of Constitutive Models



Mohr Coulomb Model in terms of Principal Stresses (2D)

The relationship between the principal stresses at failure and the shear strength parameters is:



Mohr Coulomb Model in Principal Stress Space (3D)





Representation of Constitutive Models

Mohr Coulomb Model in Principal Stress Space (3D)



Representation of Constitutive Models



Mohr Coulomb Model in Principal Stress Space (3D)



The plane (p',q) is the one that pass thought OO'F



> Mohr Coulomb Model in Principal Stress Space (3D)



✓ Yielding/failure for TCT (00'A) corresponds to a stress path with θ =+30°.↑

✓ Yielding/failure for TET (OO'F) corresponds to a stress path with θ =-30°. ↑

✓ We may need to predict yielding or failure for any stress path (i.e. any θ) ↑

Ve can use a function $g(\theta)$ that generalize the yield/failure surface to any stress path (i.e. any θ)

$$F \equiv J - (-p + a)g(\theta) = 0; \text{ where}$$
$$g(\theta) = \frac{\sin \phi}{\cos \theta + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \sin \theta \sin \phi}; a = \frac{c}{g(\theta)}$$



Mechanical Constitutive Behaviour

More about stress-strain relationship...

$\sigma' = \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{\epsilon}$



Linear Elasticity – Isotropic Materials

Compression test:





Deformed sample subjected to uniaxial stress:





Linear Elasticity – Isotropic Materials

Physical interpretation of elastic modulus:





Relationship between elastic modulus:

$E = 3K(1 - 2\nu)$	$K = \lambda \frac{1+\nu}{3\nu}$	$\frac{\lambda}{\lambda+G} = 2\nu$
$E = 2G(1+\nu)$	$K = \frac{2}{3}G\frac{1+\nu}{1-2\nu}$	$\frac{G}{\lambda + G} = 1 - 2\nu$
$E = \frac{9KG}{3K+G}$	$K = \lambda + \frac{2}{3}G$	$\frac{\lambda + 2G}{\lambda + G} = 2(1 - \nu)$
$E = G \frac{3\lambda + 2G}{\lambda + G}$	$K = \frac{GE}{9G - 3E}$	$\frac{3\lambda + 2G}{\lambda + G} = 2(1 + \nu)$
$E = \frac{\lambda}{\nu}(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)$	$\frac{\lambda}{G} = \frac{2\nu}{1 - 2\nu}$	$\frac{3\lambda + 4G}{\lambda + G} = 2(2 - \nu)$
$H = \lambda + 2G$	$H = K + \frac{4}{3}G$	$\nu = \frac{3K - 2G}{2(3K + G)}$
$H = E \frac{1 - \nu}{(1 + \nu)(1 - 2\nu)}$	$H = 2G\frac{1-\nu}{1-2\nu}$	$H = 3K\frac{1-\nu}{1+\nu}$

Lamé constants:

 λ G

Uniaxial compaction modulus:

Н

Bulk modulus:

$$K = \frac{\sigma_p}{\varepsilon_{vol}} = \lambda + \frac{2}{3}G$$



Linear Elasticity – Isotropic Materials

Homogeneous isotropic material:

$$\sigma_{x} = (\lambda + 2G)\varepsilon_{x} + \lambda\varepsilon_{y} + \lambda\varepsilon_{z} \quad \text{or:} \quad \sigma_{ij} = \lambda\varepsilon_{vol}\delta_{ij} + 2G\varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$\sigma_{y} = \lambda\varepsilon_{x} + (\lambda + 2G)\varepsilon_{y} + \lambda\varepsilon_{z}$$

$$\sigma_{z} = \lambda\varepsilon_{x} + \lambda\varepsilon_{y} + (\lambda + 2G)\varepsilon_{z}$$

$$\tau_{yz} = 2G\Gamma_{yz}$$

$$\tau_{xz} = 2G\Gamma_{xz}$$

$$\tau_{xy} = 2G\Gamma_{xy}$$
Kronecker delta
$$\tau_{xy} = 2G\Gamma_{xy}$$

Using tensorial notation:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{D} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$
 or $d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (incremental form)

where: D(E,v) is the elastic constitutive tensor that relates the stress and strain tensors.

Anisotropy



If the elastic response of a material is not independent of the material's orientation for a given stress configuration, the material is said to be anisotropic. Thus the elastic moduli of an anisotropic material are different for different directions in the material.

Most rocks are anisotropic to some extent...

The origin of the anisotropy is always heterogeneities on a smaller scale than the volume under investigation.

Sedimentary rocks are created during a deposition process where the grains normally are not deposited randomly. Seasonal variations in the fluid flow rates may result in alternating microlayers of fine and coarser grain size distributions.

Due to its origin, anisotropy of this type is said to be lithological or intrinsic. Another important type is anisotropy induced by external stresses. The anisotropy is then normally caused by microcracks, generated by a deviatoric stress and predominantly oriented normal to the lowest principal stress.

Note (Fjaer et al., 2008): In calculations on rock elasticity, anisotropy is often ignored. This simplification may be necessary rather than just comfortable, because—as we shall see—an anisotropic description requires much more information about the material—information that may not be available. However, by ignoring anisotropy, one may in some cases introduce large errors that invalidate the calculations.

Anisotropy





Illustration of intrinsic (lithological) and stress induced anisotropy

For a general anisotropic material, each stress component is linearly related to every strain component by independent coefficients:

$$\sigma_{ij} = \sum_{k,l} C_{ijkl} \varepsilon_{kl}$$

Since the indices *i*, *j*, *k* and *l* may each take the values **1**,**2** or **3**, there are all together **81** of the constants C_{iikl}

Some of these vanish and others are equal by symmetry, however, so that the number of independent constants is considerably less: $C_{ijkl} = C_{jikl} = C_{ijlk} = C_{jilk}$ and $C_{ijkl} = C_{klij}$

with that, the number of independent constants reduces to 21.

Orthorhombic symmetry: Rocks can normally be described reasonably well by assuming that the material has three mutually perpendicular planes of symmetry.

 $\sigma_{x} = C_{11}\varepsilon_{x} + C_{12}\varepsilon_{y} + C_{13}\varepsilon_{z} \qquad \tau_{yz} = 2C_{44}\Gamma_{yz}$ $\sigma_{y} = C_{12}\varepsilon_{x} + C_{22}\varepsilon_{y} + C_{23}\varepsilon_{z} \qquad \tau_{xz} = 2C_{55}\Gamma_{xz}$ $\sigma_{z} = C_{13}\varepsilon_{x} + C_{23}\varepsilon_{y} + C_{33}\varepsilon_{z} \qquad \tau_{xy} = 2C_{66}\Gamma_{xy}$

or using vetorial notation of stress and strains:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{C} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ c_{12} & c_{22} & c_{23} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ c_{13} & c_{23} & c_{33} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & c_{44} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & c_{55} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & c_{66} \end{pmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{x} \\ \sigma_{y} \\ \sigma_{z} \\ \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{xy} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{x} \\ \varepsilon_{y} \\ \varepsilon_{z} \\ 2\Gamma_{yz} \\ 2\Gamma_{xz} \\ 2\Gamma_{xy} \end{pmatrix}$$

These stress-strain relations generally describe most types of rocks.

This model describes the elastic properties of any linear elastic material with orthorhombic or higher symmetry. Thus they may also describe an isotropic rock:

$$C_{11} = C_{22} = C_{33} = \lambda + 2G$$
 $C_{12} = C_{13} = C_{23} = \lambda$ $C_{44} = C_{55} = C_{66} = G$

Anisotropy: orthorhombic symmetry



Example: consider the uniaxial stress state defining Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio. In this example, $\sigma_y = \sigma_z = 0$ and $\tau_{xy} = \tau_{xz} = \tau_{yz} = 0$. The stress–strain relations become:



Solving the equations above (2,3) for $v = -\varepsilon_y/\varepsilon_x$, we find

$$\nu = -\frac{\varepsilon_y}{\varepsilon_x} = \frac{C_{12}C_{33} - C_{13}C_{23}}{C_{22}C_{33} - C_{23}^2}$$

while for $v = -\varepsilon_z/\varepsilon_x$ we find (by interchanging indices 2 and 3):

$$\nu = -\frac{\varepsilon_z}{\varepsilon_x} = \frac{C_{13}C_{22} - C_{12}C_{23}}{C_{22}C_{33} - C_{23}^2}$$

Thus the value of Poisson's ratio depends not only on the direction of the applied stress, but also on the direction in which lateral expansion is measured.



Anisotropy: transverse isotropy

Transverse isotropy: A special type of symmetry, which is relevant for many types of rocks, is full rotational symmetry around one axis. Rocks possessing such symmetry are said to be Transversely isotropic. It implies that the elastic properties are equal for all directions within a plane, but different in the other directions. This extra element of symmetry reduces the number of independent elastic constants to 5.

Assuming that the x- and y-directions are equivalent while the z-direction is the different one, we may rotate the coordinate system any angle around the z-axis without altering the elastic constants. For this to be possible it is required that $C_{11} = C_{22}$, $C_{13} = C_{23}$, $C_{12} = C_{11} - 2C_{66}$, and $C_{44} = C_{55}$. The stiffness matrix for a transversely isotropic material having the z-axis as the unique axis is then

	C.	$C_{11} = 2C_{12}$	Cu	0	Ο	0 \	Note: linear elasticity
		$C_{11} = 2C_{66}$	C_{13}	0	0	$\left(\begin{array}{c} 0\\ 0\end{array}\right)$	$\left(\begin{array}{cccc} rac{1}{E} & -rac{ u}{E} & -rac{ u}{E} & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$
	$C_{11} = 2C_{66}$	C_{11}	C_{13}	0	0	0	$-\frac{\nu}{E}$ $\frac{1}{E}$ $-\frac{\nu}{E}$ 0 0 0
$\mathbf{C} =$	C_{13}	C_{13}	0	C	0	0	$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} -rac{ u}{E} & -rac{ u}{E} & rac{1}{E} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
	0	0	0	0	C	0	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
		0	0	0	0	C_{α}	$\left(\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{G} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{array}\right)$
		0	0	0	U	C 00 /	2 constants

Transverse isotropy is normally considered to be a representative symmetry for horizontally layered sedimentary rocks.

Stress induced anisotropy may often be described by transverse isotropy as well.

Realistic stress-strain relationship

Realistic stress-strain relationships: based on experiments

The experimental apparatus:



- temperatures typically up to >1000°C
- high pressures more challenging and results more questionable
- strain normally < 10%
- Typical duration of experiments < weeks
- typical strain rates = $10^5 \sec^{-1}$ (in nature ca. $10^{-15} 10^{-14}$)

Experiments are under *uniaxial* or *triaxial* (rare)

Stress is applied along the axis of the sample with varying confining pressure (Pc).

Before Failure



Stage I: the slope of the curve is low and tends to increase (more $\Delta \sigma$ needed per unit deformation). The volume decreases *(fractures close)*

Stages II-III: The sample follows the correct elastic behaviour *Fractures are closed and new fractures are created spread in the body.*

Stage IV: Things get "out-of-hand" and the moment of failure is approaching. More and more fractures are created and start linking creating longer fractures. Volume starts increasing (dilatancy)



Very important!! (associated to shear FAILURE)



Rock Failure



The strength of rocks = The stress you need to apply to have failure

Various factors

Lithology: Important but typically overshadowed by other factors such as porosity, state of alteration etc etc

Temperature: Not important as long as deformation remains in the brittle field

strain rate: not very important

Anisotropy of rocks: Quite important!

confining pressure: THE MOST IMPORTANT

Triaxial testing: typical influence of the confining pressure on the shape of the differential stress (axial stress minus confining pressure) versus axial strain curves





Realistic stress-strain relationship





Schematic representation of brittle failure styles in triaxial tests (Griggs and Handin, 1960a).

a) Extension test.

b) – e) Compression test with confining pressure increasing to the right.



Rocks: It depends on the confining stress!!




Shear Failure



Experiment monitored with the Mohr circle: A critical circle is obtained which defines the conditions at which failure occurs





Repeating the same experiment under different confining pressures one obtains a series of critical circles

The failure envelope the stable field. This is the Mohr criterion

This is a purely **empirical** result based on the results of experiments







Tensile Failure



Tensile failure occurs when the effective tensile stress across some plane in the sample exceeds a critical limit. This limit is called the tensile strength (T_0) and has the same unit as stress. The tensile strength is a characteristic property of the rock. Most sedimentary rocks have a rather low tensile strength, typically only a few MPa or less. In fact, it is a standard approximation for several applications that the tensile strength is zero. (Fjaer et al., 2008)

$$\sigma' \ge -T_0$$











∆h = compactação





Irreversibility...



Rock compaction :

Volume deacrease due to compression

- Incorporation of elastic-plastic compressive limit in failure surface:









CAP model: Multi-mechanism model



FAULT REACTIVATION





HYDRAULIC FRACTURING

RESERVOIR COMPACTION

Coupling Between Deformation and Permeability



Figura 2.1: Esquema da variação da permeabilidade na compressão hidrostática (David *et al.* 1994). São observadas três fases: (1) fechamento de fissuras, (2) compactação dos poros e (3) esmagamento dos grãos.

Coupling Between Deformation and Permeability



Figura 2.2: Ensaio de compressão hidrostática de Kiyama *et al.* (1996) para obtenção das permeabilidades em diferentes direções: (a) Planos considerados nas medições da permeabilidade; (b) Resultados em tensão confinante efetiva versus permeabilidade.

Coupling Between Deformation and Permeability

Triaxial Compression:



σ

 σ_3

We have five distinct regions:

- I closure of pre-existing micro-cracks
- II zone of elastic behavior
- **III** steady growth of cracks
- **IV** unstable growth of cracks
- V- post-peak zone characterized by the loss of resistance (softening followed by rupture) of the material



Anisotropy on permeability:



Fluid Flow in Deformable Porous Media



Volumetric strain:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = d\varepsilon_x + d\varepsilon_y + d\varepsilon_z$$

$$\nabla \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \frac{d\varepsilon_x}{dt} + \frac{d\varepsilon_y}{dt} + \frac{d\varepsilon_z}{dt}$$



MASS BALANCE OF SOLID

Mass balance of solid present in the medium is written as:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\rho_s \left(1 - \phi \right) \right) + \nabla \cdot \left(\mathbf{j}_s \right) = 0$$

where ρ_s is the mass of solid per unit volume of solid and j_s is the flux of solid.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\rho_{s} \left(1 - \phi \right) \right) + \nabla \cdot \left(\rho_{s} \left(1 - \phi \right) \mathbf{u} \right) = 0 \tag{1}$$

$$(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\rho_s}{\partial t} - \rho_s\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \rho_s(1-\phi)\nabla\cdot\mathbf{u} + (1-\phi)\mathbf{u}\nabla\rho_s - \rho_s\mathbf{u}\nabla\phi = 0$$
(2)

Fluid Flow in Deformable Porous Media



MASS BALANCE OF SOLID

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\boldsymbol{\rho}_{s} \left(1 - \boldsymbol{\phi} \right) \right) + \nabla \cdot \left(\boldsymbol{\rho}_{s} \left(1 - \boldsymbol{\phi} \right) \mathbf{u}^{\bullet} \right) = 0 \quad \text{(Eulerian description)}$$

✓ When the description of motion is made in terms of the spatial coordinates is called the spatial description or Eulerian description,



✓That is, the current configuration is taken as the reference configuration.

✓ In the Lagrangian description the position and physical properties of the particles are described in terms of the material or referential coordinates & time.

✓ The material derivative (or substantial time derivative) can serve as a link between 'Eulerian' and 'Lagrangian' descriptions of motion

✓ A more convenient form of the balance equations is obtained considering the definitions of material derivate with respect to the solid velocity; which can be expressed generically as:

$$\frac{D(\circ)}{Dt} = \frac{\partial(\circ)}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla(\circ)$$
(3)



Definitions:

- Spatial point: fix point in the space
- ✓ Material point: a particle.

✓ The particle can be at different spatial points during its movement in time.

✓ Configuration (Ω): space occupied by the particles (that conform the continuum medium) at certain instant 't' $x = x_i \hat{e}_i + x_j \hat{e}_j + x_j \hat{e}_j = x_i \hat{e}_i$

(current

 $t=t_{o}$ is the reference time

- Ω_0 = initial material or reference configuration.
- Ω_{t} = current configuration
- Material coordinates (X1, X2, X3)

Spatial coordinates (x_1, x_2, x_3) configuration).

 X_{3}, Z $t = t_{0}$ t a_{0} P a_{1} p \hat{e}_{1} \hat{e}_{2} X_{2}, Y X_{1}, X t



 \checkmark The movement of the particles (which conform the continuum medium) can be described by the evolution of their spatial coordinates (or their 'position vector') in time.

✓ We need to know a function for each particle (identify by a 'label'), which provide the spatial coordinates x_i (or the corresponding vector) in the successive instants of time.

✓ As a label, to characterize unequivocally each particle, it is possible to use the 'material coordinates'.

✓ In this manner, the 'movement equations' are obtained:

$$\mathbf{x} = \boldsymbol{\varphi} \quad (\text{particula}, t) = \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{X}, t) = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X}, t)$$
$$x_i = \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i(X_1, X_2, X_3, t) \quad i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$$

Which provide the spatial coordinates as a function of the material ones.

✓ The 'inverse movement equations' are given by:

$$\mathbf{X} = \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}, t) \stackrel{not}{=} \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{x}, t)$$
$$X_{i} = \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{i}^{-1}(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, t) \quad i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$$

Which provide the material coordinates as a function of the spatial ones.



>Description of the movement

✓ Material description: A property is described (i.e. density ρ) using as argument the material coordinate.

$$\rho = \overline{\rho}(\mathbf{X},t) = \overline{\rho}(X_1, X_2, X_3, t)$$

Note that if we fix $X=(X_1, X_2, X_3)$, we are following the density variation specific particle.

✓ Because of that the name of 'material description'(Lagrangian description).

✓ Spatial description: A property is described (i.e. density ρ) using as argument the spatial coordinate (Eulerian description).

$$\rho = \rho(\mathbf{x},t) = \rho(x_1,x_2,x_3,t)$$

Note that if we fix $x=(x_1, x_2, x_3)$, we focus the attention on one point of the space; and we follow the density evolution for the different particles that are passing for this fix spatial point.





Olivella and Argelet (2000)



Temporal, local, material and convective derivative.

Consider a given property and their respective descriptions material and spatial. $\Gamma(\mathbf{X},t) = \gamma(\mathbf{x},t)$

 \checkmark We pass from one description to the other by using the 'movement equations'

✓Local derivative: it is the variation of a property in time of a fix point in the space.

is possible to write
$$\frac{\partial \gamma(\mathbf{x},t)}{\partial t}$$

local derivative $\frac{\partial \gamma(\mathbf{x},t)}{\partial t}$

✓ Material derivative: it is the variation of a property in time following a specific particle (material point) of the continuum medium.

✓ It is possible to write this derivative as:

material derivative
$$\frac{d}{dt} \Gamma = \frac{\partial \Gamma(\mathbf{X}, t)}{\partial t}$$

√I†

also denoted as:
$$\frac{D \Gamma}{Dt}$$

Fluid Flow in Deformable Porous Media



✓ If we start with the spatial description of the property and we consider implicit in this equation the 'movement equation':

$$\gamma(\mathbf{x},t) = \gamma(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X},t),t) = \Gamma(\mathbf{X},t)$$

✓ We can obtain the material derivative (i.e. following the particle) from spatial description:

material derivative
$$= \frac{d}{dt} \gamma(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X},t),t) = \frac{\partial \Gamma(\mathbf{X},t)}{\partial t}$$

✓ Velocity is the derivative of movement equations respect to time:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X},t)}{\partial t} = \mathbf{V}(\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{x},t),t) = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x},t)$$

✓Finally:

$$\frac{d\gamma(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X},t),t)}{dt} = \frac{\partial\gamma(\mathbf{x},t)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial\gamma}{\partial x_i}\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial\gamma(\mathbf{x},t)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial\gamma}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\frac{\partial t}{\partial t}}$$

We can generalized that definition for any property (scalar or vectorial):

$$\frac{D\chi}{Dt} = \frac{d\chi(\mathbf{x},t)}{dt} = \frac{\partial\chi(\mathbf{x},t)}{\partial t} + \underbrace{\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x},t) \cdot \nabla\chi(\mathbf{x},t)}_{\text{convective derivative}}$$

material derivative local derivative convective derivative

Fluid Flow in Deformable Porous Media







$$\dot{\mathbf{u}} = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt}$$

Volumetric strain:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = d\varepsilon_x + d\varepsilon_y + d\varepsilon_z$$

$$\nabla \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \frac{d\varepsilon_x}{dt} + \frac{d\varepsilon_y}{dt} + \frac{d\varepsilon_z}{dt}$$



MASS BALANCE OF SOLID

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\boldsymbol{\rho}_{s} \left(1 - \boldsymbol{\phi} \right) \right) + \nabla \cdot \left(\boldsymbol{\rho}_{s} \left(1 - \boldsymbol{\phi} \right) \overset{\bullet}{\mathbf{u}} \right) = 0$$

$$\frac{D(\circ)}{Dt} = \frac{\partial(\circ)}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla(\circ)$$

(Eulerian description)

(Material derivative)

$$(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\rho_{s}}{\partial t} - \rho_{s}\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \rho_{s}(1-\phi)\nabla\cdot\mathbf{u} + (1-\phi)\mathbf{u}\nabla\rho_{s} - \rho_{s}\mathbf{u}\nabla\phi = 0 \quad \text{(equation 2)}$$

$$\rho_{s}(1-\phi)\nabla\cdot\mathbf{u} + (1-\phi)\frac{\partial\rho_{s}}{\partial t} + (1-\phi)\mathbf{u}\nabla\rho_{s} - \rho_{s}\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + -\rho_{s}\mathbf{u}\nabla\phi = 0$$

$$\underbrace{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\rho_{s}}{\partial t}}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\rho_{s}}{\partial t}} - \underbrace{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\rho_{s}}{\partial t}}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\rho_{s}}{\partial t}} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\cdot\mathbf{u}}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t}} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t}} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t}} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t}} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t}} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \underbrace{(1-\phi)\nabla\phi}_{(1-\phi)\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \underbrace{(1-\phi$$



$$\frac{D_s \phi}{Dt} = \frac{1}{\rho_s} \left[(1 - \phi) \frac{D_s \rho_s}{Dt} \right] + (1 - \phi) \nabla \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt}$$





Detailed description of solid density variation (including rock compressibility C_r) can be found in Lewis and Schrefler (1998).

Volumetric strain:

$$\nabla \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \frac{d\varepsilon_x}{dt} + \frac{d\varepsilon_y}{dt} + \frac{d\varepsilon_z}{dt}$$

Fluid Flow in Deformable Porous Media





This term considers the velocity of the liquid respect to the solid skeleton (q_I) + the velocity of the solid respect to a fix reference system (\dot{u}) . This is because the solid is moving now and drag the liquid phase with it.

$$\phi \frac{\partial \rho_{l}}{\partial t} + \rho_{l} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \nabla \rho_{l} \cdot \mathbf{q}_{l} + \rho_{l} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q}_{l} + \phi \dot{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \nabla \rho_{l} + \rho_{l} \dot{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \nabla \phi + \rho_{l} \phi \nabla \cdot \dot{\mathbf{u}} = 0$$
Using (3)
$$\phi \frac{D_{s} \rho_{l}}{Dt} + \rho_{l} \frac{D_{s} \phi}{Dt} + \nabla \rho_{l} \cdot \mathbf{q}_{l} + \rho_{l} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q}_{l} + \rho_{l} \phi \nabla \cdot \dot{\mathbf{u}} = 0$$

Replacing (4) i.e. solid mass balance in material description $\frac{D\phi}{Dt} = \frac{(1-\phi)}{\rho_s} \frac{D\rho_s}{Dt} + (1-\phi)\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}$ $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \frac{D\phi}{\rho_s} \frac{D\rho_s}{Dt} + \rho_l (1-\phi)\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} + \nabla \rho_l \cdot \mathbf{q}_l + \rho_l \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q}_l + \rho_l \phi \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$



Flow Equation – Water Saturated Porous Media

> Water Mass Balance Equation

$$\phi \frac{D_s \rho_l}{Dt} + (1 - \phi) \frac{\rho_l}{\rho_s} \frac{D_s \rho_s}{Dt} + \rho_l \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} + \nabla \rho_l \cdot \mathbf{q}_l + \rho_l \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q}_l = 0$$

$$\phi \frac{D_s \rho_l}{Dt} + (1 - \phi) \frac{\rho_l}{\rho_s} \frac{D_s \rho_s}{Dt} + \rho_l \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} + \nabla \cdot (\rho_l \mathbf{q}_l) = 0$$

(Lagrangian description Mass Balance of Water)

If there is a source or sink of water

$$\phi \frac{D_s \rho_l}{Dt} + (1 - \phi) \frac{\rho_l}{\rho_s} \frac{D_s \dot{\rho_s}}{Dt} + \rho_l \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} + \nabla \cdot (\rho_l \mathbf{q}_l) = f_l$$

If solid density is constant

If liquid density is constant

$$\phi \frac{D_s \rho_l}{Dt} + \rho_l \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} + \nabla \cdot (\rho_l \mathbf{q}_l) = 0$$

 $\mathbf{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{.} \mathbf{q}_{I} = \mathbf{0}$



SUMMARY



HM FORMULATION

Mechanical problem for geomaterials:

Equilibrium Equation:

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \boldsymbol{b} = \boldsymbol{0}$$

Principle of Effective Stresses:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}' + \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}_f \cdot \mathbf{I}$$

Stress-strain relationship:

$$d\sigma' = D \cdot d\epsilon$$

Specific for each geomaterial

FAULT REACTIVATION





HYDRAULIC FRACTURING

RESERVOIR COMPACTION



HM FORMULATION

HYDRO-MECHANICAL COUPLINGS:

Rock porosity:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} [(1-\phi)\rho_s] + \nabla [(1-\phi)\rho_s.\dot{\mathbf{u}}] = 0 \qquad \text{(mass conservation of solids)}$$
$$\frac{d \bullet}{dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \dot{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \nabla \bullet$$
$$\frac{d \phi}{dt} = \frac{(1-\phi)}{\rho_s} \frac{d\rho_s}{dt} + (1-\phi) \frac{d\varepsilon_v}{dt} \qquad \text{(porosity update)}$$
$$\frac{d\varepsilon_v}{dt} = \dot{\varepsilon}_v = \nabla \cdot \dot{\mathbf{u}}$$

Rock permeability:

$$\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k}_{i} \exp[b(\phi - \phi_{i})]$$

Other: Kozeny-Carman

$$\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k}_{o} \frac{\phi^{3}}{(1-\phi)^{2}} \frac{(1-\phi_{o})^{2}}{\phi_{o}^{3}}$$

 $\begin{aligned} \phi_o: \text{reference porosity} \\ \mathbf{k}_o: \text{intrinsic permeability for matrix } \phi_o \end{aligned}$

HM FORMULATION

Hydraulic problem: two phase flow equations for deformable porous media

$$\phi \frac{D_s S_\alpha \rho_\alpha}{Dt} + (1 - \phi) \frac{S_\alpha \rho_\alpha}{\rho_s} \frac{D_s \rho_s}{Dt} + S_\alpha \rho_\alpha \nabla \cdot \dot{\mathbf{u}} + \nabla \cdot (\rho_\alpha \mathbf{q}_\alpha) = 0 \qquad \alpha = w, o$$
$$\mathbf{q}_\alpha = -\frac{\mathbf{k} k_{r\alpha}}{\mu_\alpha} (\nabla p_\alpha - \rho_\alpha \mathbf{g})$$

here:
$$S_w + S_o = 1$$
 $p_c = p_o - p_w$ $\lambda_\alpha =$

- ϕ porosity
- s_{α} fluid saturation
- ρ_{α} fluid density
- Darcy flow q_{α}
- phase viscosity μ_{α}
- ù Solid velocity

$$\lambda_{\alpha} = \frac{k_{r\alpha}}{\mu_{\alpha}}$$

- k permeability tensor $k_{r\alpha}$ fluid relative permeability λ_{α} fluid mobility
- p_{α} Fluid pressure
- capillary pressure p_c
- \widetilde{g} gravity

APPLICATION:

Primary Recovery – Reservoir Depletion



HM FORMULATION







HM FORMULATION

Numerical scheme to solve the coupled problem:







Geomechanics Simulator FEM



Reservoir Flow Simulator FDM

L. C. Pereira (MSc, 2007)



Coupling Schemes



I C Pereira (MSc 2007)


Coupling Schemes

3

	Implicit	Iterative	Explicit	Pseudo
Computational costs		Le la	1	A B
Changes in numerical code		A B	1	
Convergence control				
Accuracy	10	Les la		
Speed			<u>Se</u>	
Iterations	10	1 m		



Disadvantages



Advantages

I C Pereira (MSc 2007)

OTC 19530

Geomechanics in Integrated Reservoir Modeling

A. (Tony) Settari, SPE, and Vikram Sen, SPE, University of Calgary

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Coupling with commercial reservoir simulators

Answers to Some Questions About the Coupling Between Fluid Flow and Rock Deformation in Oil Reservoirs

Nelson Inoue, GTEP PUC-Rio, and Sergio A. B. da Fontoura, DEC PUC-Rio

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A new locally conservative numerical method for two-phase flow in heterogeneous poroelastic media

Marcio A. Murad^{a,*}, Marcio Borges^a, Jesus A. Obregón^b, Maicon Correa^c







Workflows to exchange parameters between individual modules



Stress-split Method