



Title	Predicting the electrokinetic properties of the crude oil/brine interface for enhanced oil recovery in low salinity water flooding
Author(s)	Takeya, Miku; Shimokawara, Mai; Elakneswaran, Yogarajah; Nawa, Toyoharu; Takahashi, Satoru
Citation	Fuel, 235, 822-831 <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2018.08.079">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2018.08.079</a>
Issue Date	2019-01-01
Doc URL	<a href="http://hdl.handle.net/2115/80085">http://hdl.handle.net/2115/80085</a>
Rights	© 2019. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <a href="http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/">http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/</a>
Rights(URL)	<a href="http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/">http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/</a>
Type	article (author version)
File Information	Accepted-Predicting the electrokinetic properties of the crude oil.brine interface for enhanced oil recovery in low salinity water flooding.pdf



[Instructions for use](#)

1 **Predicting the electrokinetic properties of the crude oil/brine interface for**  
2 **enhanced oil recovery in low salinity water flooding**

3

4 Miku Takeya <sup>1</sup>, Mai Shimokawara <sup>1, 2</sup>, Elakneswaran Yogarajah <sup>1, \*</sup>, Toyoharu Nawa <sup>3</sup>, Satoru  
5 Takahashi <sup>2</sup>

6

7 <sup>1</sup> Division of Sustainable Resources Engineering

8 Faculty of Engineering, Hokkaido University

9 Kita 13, Nishi 8, Kita-ku, Sapporo, 060-8628, Japan

10

11 <sup>2</sup> Japan Oil, Gas and Metals National Corporation (JOGMEC)

12 Technology Department

13 Oil & Gas Upstream Technology Unit

14 1-2-2 Hamada, Mihama-ku Chiba-city, Chiba, 261-0025, Japan

15

16 <sup>3</sup> Hokkaido University

17 Kita 8, Nishi 5, Kita-ku, Sapporo, 060-0808, Japan

18

19 \* Corresponding author

20 E-mail: [elakneswaran@eng.hokudai.ac.jp](mailto:elakneswaran@eng.hokudai.ac.jp)

21 Tel: +81-11-706-7274

22

23

24

25

26

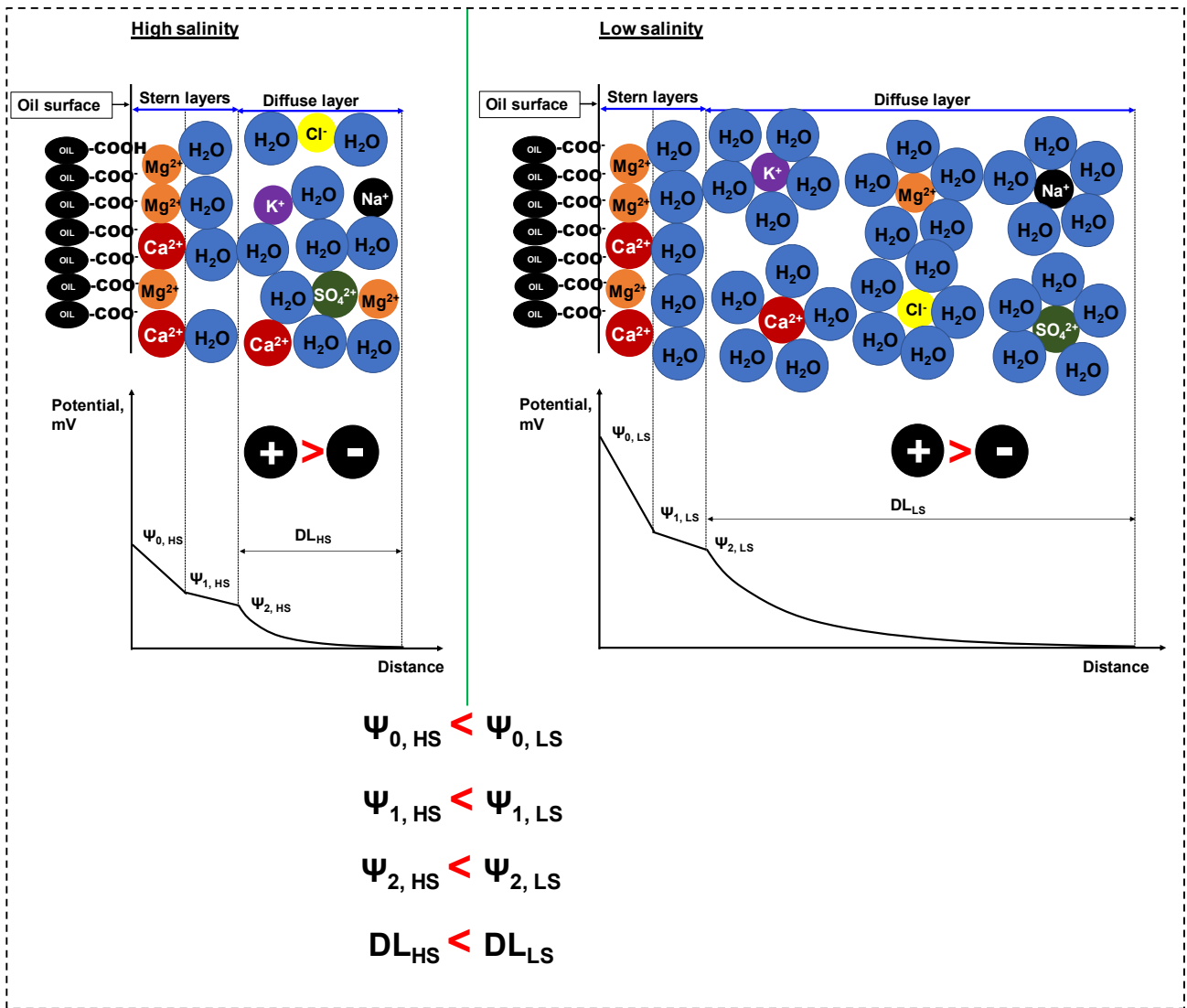
27 **Highlights**

- 28 ✧ A triple-layer surface complexation model is proposed for the crude oil/brine interface.
- 29 ✧ The electrokinetic properties are determined and verified by experimental data.
- 30 ✧ The ions' affinity toward the crude oil follows the order:  $\text{Ca}^{2+} < \text{Mg}^{2+} < \text{OH}^-$ .
- 31 ✧ Electrical triple-layer expansion impacts more than just the surface charge at the crude oil/brine
- 32 interface for EOR in LSWF.

33

34

35 **Graphical abstract**



36

37

38

39 **Abstract**

40 The low-salinity waterflooding (LSWF) technique during enhanced oil recovery has received  
41 increasing attention over the last decade. Several studies have attempted to understand the effects of  
42 LSWF through both experiments and modelling, but their results are inconsistent due to a lack of  
43 understanding of the crude oil/brine and brine/rock interfaces. In this paper, the crude oil/brine  
44 interface was studied by developing a triple-layer surface complexation model. The carboxyl groups  
45 (-COOH) were attributed to the surface charge and electrical triple-layer development of the crude  
46 oil in LSWF. The zeta potentials of the emulsion at various pH levels and the calcium and magnesium  
47 concentrations were measured to examine the interface. These data were then directly fitted to the  
48 simulated zeta potentials to determine the surface site density of -COOH and the associated  
49 equilibrium constants for the dissociation and adsorption of calcium and magnesium. The -COOH  
50 site density was determined by fitting the pH-independent zeta potential, while the equilibrium  
51 constant values were estimated from the variations in the zeta potential with the changes in pH and  
52 the concentrations of calcium and magnesium. The determined surface complexation parameters were  
53 validated by comparing the experimental zeta potential data from different ionic solutions. The  
54 developed surface complexation model was used along with the estimated parameters to predict the  
55 interface of crude oil in seawater, formation water, and their dilutions. The simulated zeta potential  
56 results agreed well with the experimental data, demonstrating that the model is applicable to  
57 understand the crude oil/brine interface in LSWF. Finally, the importance of the prediction of the  
58 surface and zeta potentials in the evaluation of the interface and the estimation of electrostatic forces,  
59 and thus the wettability alteration, was discussed.

60

61 **Keywords:** Zeta potential; Electrical triple-layer; Surface complexation model; Low salinity water;  
62 IOR/EOR

63

64

65 **1. Introduction**

66 Over 65% of oil persists after the first and second recovery processes; therefore, a cost-effective and  
67 environment-friendly method of oil recovery is necessary to meet the increasing energy demand.  
68 Many researchers and industries have been investigating a variety of Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR)  
69 techniques to meet the demand for oil [1–4]. Low salinity water flooding (LSWF), or smart water  
70 flooding, has recently received interest as an economical EOR method, which involves the injection  
71 of low-salinity brine, such as seawater or formation water, into a reservoir under secondary or tertiary  
72 conditions [1–12]. Several field and laboratory experiments and simulations have demonstrated  
73 improved oil recovery by LSWF after the secondary recovery [5–12], but some have not [13]. Oil  
74 recovery by LSWF is strongly dependent on the types of brines used and their salinity [7–11, 14].  
75 Therefore, a clear understanding of the crude oil/brine and rock/brine interfaces is essential for  
76 determining the effect of LSWF on EOR.

77  
78 Various mechanisms have been suggested that could explain the effect of LSWF such as, fines  
79 migration and permeability reduction, pH, mineral dissolution, osmotic effects, desorption of polar  
80 oil components, micro-dispersion formation, viscoelasticity, expansion of the electrical double layer  
81 (EDL), multi component ionic exchange (MIE), and wettability alteration [1–4, 15–20]. Although  
82 several mechanisms have been proposed, the dominant mechanisms are still unclear. Researchers  
83 have recently agreed that wettability alteration is the most accepted mechanism regarding the effect  
84 of LSWF [1, 18–21], and that EDL expansion, MIE, and electrostatic repulsion between the crude  
85 oil/brine and brine/rock interfaces can alter the wettability. The polar components of crude oil are  
86 adsorbed to the rock’s surface, through divalent cation bridging or directly to the surface. A decrease  
87 in the salinity expands the EDL between the crude oil and rock surfaces, and also removes cations  
88 adsorbed on the rock’s surface, resulting in the release of adsorbed oil. In addition, lowering the  
89 salinity creates more negative oil/brine and rock/brine surfaces, which increases the repulsive forces

90 between them. These LSWF effects alter the wettability from oil-wet to mixed-wet or mixed-wet to  
91 water-wet, increasing the release of oil from rock surfaces [18–21].

92  
93 Wettability alteration strongly depends on the surface electrical charge at the crude oil/brine and  
94 rock/brine interfaces: oppositely charged surfaces attract one another, while the same surface charges  
95 generate a highly repulsive force. The surface charges of the interfaces are closely related to the  
96 measurable zeta potential, which is the electrical potential at the slipping plane of the EDL. The ionic  
97 strength and types of ions in the solution affect the zeta potential, and subsequently affecting the  
98 thickness of the EDL and the surface charge, which alter the wettability of the crude oil-brine-rock  
99 system. Several studies have investigated the impacts of pH, ionic strength, and cation type on the  
100 zeta potential of the crude oil and rock surface and have related the potential to the adsorption and  
101 desorption of crude oil on the rock surface [21–27]. However, the measurable zeta potential differs  
102 from the surface potential, which cannot be measured. The surface potential has been formulated in  
103 various theories, such as Derjaguin–Landau–Verwey–Overbeek (DLVO) theory, to understand the  
104 interface and its interactions, but many studies have used the measured zeta potential instead of the  
105 surface potential to calculate the electrostatic forces in the DLVO theory and explain the changes in  
106 the disjoining pressure due to varying brine composition [27–29]. Therefore, separate computation  
107 of the surface and zeta potentials is necessary to understand the electrostatic interactions between the  
108 crude oil/brine and brine/rock interfaces.

109  
110 Surface complexation models provide insight into the surface coordination reactions at the crude  
111 oil/brine and brine/rock interfaces. Diffuse double-layer surface complexation models have been used  
112 to predict the impact of the brine composition on the adsorption and desorption of crude oil and double  
113 layer expansion [12, 30–35]. Although the diffuse double layer model allows the prediction of the  
114 surface behaviour of the interfaces, it cannot directly compare the measured zeta potential of the  
115 interfaces at different solution compositions as it can only predict the surface potential. Therefore,

116 the main objective of this study is to propose an electrical triple-layer surface complexation model  
117 for the crude oil/brine interface. The surface chemistry of both the crude oil/brine and rock/brine  
118 interfaces affects the oil recovery in LSWF, but this study only focuses on the crude oil/brine interface.  
119 A methodology is proposed to determine the surface complexation modelling parameters, such as the  
120 density of surface functional groups of the crude oil and the equilibrium constants for the surface  
121 species interaction with pH, calcium, and magnesium. The surface complexation modelling results  
122 were compared with the measured zeta potential for the crude oil emulsion in different solutions to  
123 validate the model and the determined surface complexation modelling parameters. Finally, the  
124 proposed model is used to explain the behaviour of the crude oil/brine interface in terms of wettability  
125 alteration in LSWF.

126

## 127 **2. Materials and methods**

### 128 **2.1 Experimental**

129 The properties of the crude oil used in the experiment are given in **Table 1**. It should be noted that  
130 this crude oil has waxy characteristics, which can fluidify above 35 °C and solidify at room  
131 temperature. Very recent research has investigated the effect of LSWF in waxy crude oil [36]. Sample  
132 preparation and the experiments were conducted at 50 °C. The electrolyte solutions used in the  
133 experiments were prepared by mixing the chemical reagents with deionised water. In this study,  
134 NaOH, NaCl, CaCl<sub>2</sub>, and MgCl<sub>2</sub> solutions with different concentrations were used. Further, formation  
135 water and seawater were prepared using NaCl, CaCl<sub>2</sub>:2H<sub>2</sub>O, MgCl<sub>2</sub>:6H<sub>2</sub>O, Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, and  
136 then diluted 3, 7, 20, and 30 times using deionised water. The concentrations of the prepared  
137 formation water and seawater are presented in **Table 2**.

138

139 The zeta potential of the crude oil/brine interface was measured using Zeta-potential & Particle size  
140 analyser ELSZ-1000, manufactured by Otsuka Electronics. All zeta potential measurements were  
141 conducted at 50 °C. The crude oil to solution ratio was constant for each measurement: 0.1 mL (0.5%)

142 of crude oil in 20 mL of solution. The crude oil and solution were emulsified by mixing the sample  
 143 with a vortex mixer for one minute and then an ultrasonic cleaner for two minutes. The emulsion was  
 144 extracted with a syringe and injected into a standard cell for measurement. The pH of each sample  
 145 was measured before and after the addition of crude oil to the solution using a pH meter.

146 **Table 1**

147 Crude oil properties

<b>Property</b>	<b>Value</b>
Density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	0.818
Viscosity (cP)	8.398
Acid number (mgKOH/g)	0.39
Base number (mgKOH/g)	1.86
<b>Composition</b>	<b>wt. (%)</b>
Saturates	46.4
Aromatics	16.9
Resins	12.5
Asphaltenes	24.2

148

149 **Table 2**

150 Compositions of seawater and formation water used for zeta potential measurement

Ion	Concentration (mg/L)	
	Formation water	Seawater
Na <sup>+</sup>	12153	11345
Ca <sup>2+</sup>	2133	441
Mg <sup>2+</sup>	320	1075
K <sup>+</sup>	137	439
Cl <sup>-</sup>	22519	18966



HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	141	119
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	72	2676

---

151

152 **2.2 Description of the surface complexation model: CD-MUSIC**

153 The charge distribution-multi site complexation model (CD-MUSIC), built-in geochemical code  
 154 PHREEQC, is used for the surface complexation calculations [37-39]. This model can be considered  
 155 as a triple-layer surface complexation model for a single site on one surface. Each ion differs in size  
 156 and has different interactions towards the charged surface; thus, there are various locations from the  
 157 surface for the ions. Many studies have highlighted the self-assembly of oil components at the  
 158 oil/water interface [40-42]. The accumulation of asphaltenes and resin components or their single  
 159 molecule forms active surfaces at the interface. The other oil components distribute throughout the  
 160 oil phase and do not contribute to the formation of active surfaces even if they accumulate at the  
 161 interface. In this study, the emulsion prepared for zeta potential experiment was assumed to have  
 162 uniform characteristics, and possible accumulation may not have changed the properties of the active  
 163 surfaces of the oil components. Therefore, consistent with numerous studies [12, 30–35], the active  
 164 surfaces of oil components could be treated as a solid surface with a constant site density. The  
 165 carboxyl groups (-COOH) and nitrogen bases (-N) are the main polar components of the crude oil  
 166 from asphaltenes and resins and can contribute on the surface charge development of crude oil  
 167 through the dissociation and adsorption of ions [1, 12, 20, 43]. It was assumed that only the resin  
 168 components of the oil have -COOH surface groups that controls the surface charge and electrical  
 169 triple-layer formation at crude oil/brine interface during LSWF, while the nitrogen bases (-N) surface  
 170 groups were not considered as LSWF in slightly basic or basic conditions, based on previous studies  
 171 [1, 12].

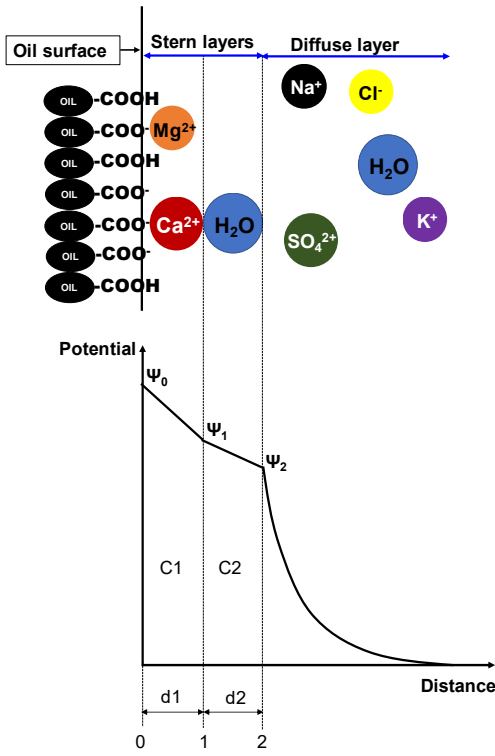
172

173 On the basis of the results reported on the zeta potential experiments and the diffuse double layer  
 174 surface complexation model, divalent calcium and magnesium cations and hydroxyl ions are the

175 potential determining ions in the crude oil/brine interface [12, 25, 27, 30, 31]. The divalent cations  
176 lose some of their water molecules and create an innersphere surface complex with the carboxyl  
177 groups of crude oil forming a Stern or adsorbed layer, while other ions diffuse through the diffuse  
178 layer. The sodium and chloride ions affect surface adsorption by modifying the ionic strength and  
179 forming aqueous complexes [12]; thus, they do not directly adsorb on the surface. The triple layer  
180 (CD-MUSIC) at the crude oil/solution interface in LSWF is illustrated in **Fig. 1**. The surface has three  
181 planes: the 0-, 1-, and 2-planes. The surface groups are located at the 0-plane, and the diffuse layer  
182 begins at the 2-plane. The potential at the 0-plane is the surface potential, and the zeta potential can  
183 be directly compared to the potential at the 2-plane. The CD-MUSIC model requires the capacitance  
184 of the layers and change in charge at three layers due to dissociation of surface sites and adsorption  
185 of ions on the sites, in addition to surface site density and equilibrium constants which are needed for  
186 double layer model as well. The capacitance of the first (0- to 1-plane) and second (1- to 2-plane)  
187 Stern layers can be calculated by [38]

$$189 \quad C = \frac{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r}{d} \quad (1)$$

190  
191 where  $\epsilon_0$  and  $\epsilon_r$  are the absolute ( $8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ CV}^{-1}\text{m}^{-1}$ ) and relative dielectric constants, respectively,  
192 and  $d$  is the distance between the planes. It is assumed that the dissociation reaction takes place at the  
193 0-plane, whereas the innersphere complex adsorption of calcium and magnesium changes the charge  
194 at 0- and 1-planes. Therefore, the distance  $d1$  is the size of an adsorbed ion: the size of a calcium or  
195 magnesium ion for its adsorption or the size of a water molecule for the dissociation of -COOH. The  
196 size of a water molecule is considered for the distance  $d2$ . The positions of the ions in the Stern layers  
197 change the charge of three layers. The focus of this study is to determine the surface site density of -  
198 COOH and its associated equilibrium constants for the dissociation and adsorption of calcium and  
199 magnesium. Thus, the charge distribution at three layers for -COOH dissociation and the adsorption  
200 of calcium and magnesium were assumed as given in **Table 3**.



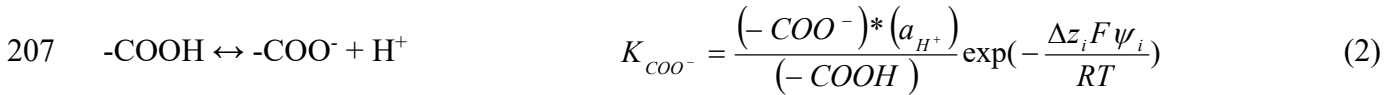
201

202 **Fig. 1.** Schematic of the electrical triple-layer used in the CD-MUSIC model

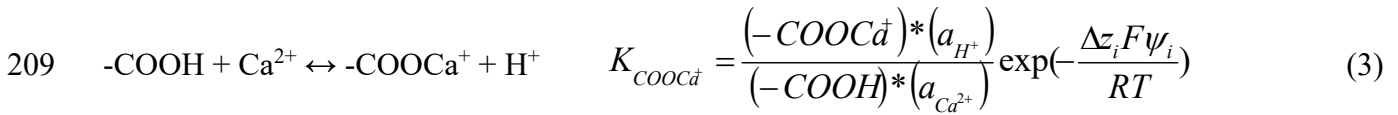
203

204 The dissociation of surface carboxyl groups and the adsorption of divalent cations on the groups can  
 205 be written as

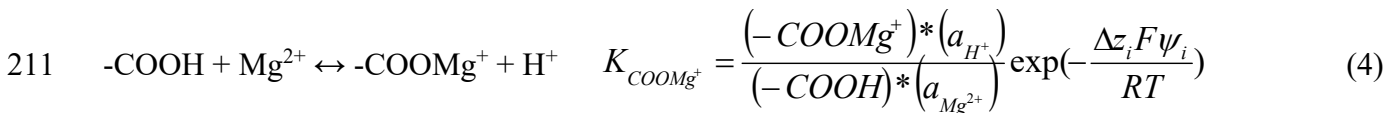
206



208



210



212

213 where  $K_{\text{COO}^-}$ ,  $K_{\text{COOCa}^+}$ , and  $K_{\text{COOMg}^+}$  are the intrinsic equilibrium constants for dissociation, calcium  
 214 adsorption and magnesium adsorption, respectively;  $(-\text{COO}^-)$ ,  $(-\text{COOH})$ ,  $(-\text{COOCa}^+)$ , and  $(-$

215  $COOMg^+$ ) are the concentrations ( $\text{mol/m}^2$ ) of the surface species of the carboxyl groups;  $a_j$  is the  
 216 activity of ionic species  $j$ ;  $\psi_i$  is the potential at the 0-, 1-, or 2-plane (V);  $\Delta z_i$  is the charge distribution;  
 217  $R$  is the universal gas constant equal to  $8.31451 \text{ J}/(\text{mol}\cdot\text{K})$ ; and  $T$  is the absolute temperature (K). This  
 218 model is implemented in PHREEQC using the SURFACE and SURFACE\_SPECIES keyword data  
 219 blocks with the specification of charge distribution and the capacitance of the first and second Stern  
 220 layers [39].

221

### 222 **Table 3**

223 Charge distribution values for the dissociation and adsorption of calcium and magnesium on  
 224 carboxylic sites

<b>Ions</b>	$\Delta z_0$	$\Delta z_1$	$\Delta z_2$	<b>Eq.</b>
OH <sup>-</sup>	-1	0	0	(2)
Ca <sup>2+</sup>	-1	2	0	(3)
Mg <sup>2+</sup>	-1	2	0	(4)

225

## 226 **3. Results and discussion**

### 227 **3.1 Site density and deprotonation of carboxylic groups: determination and verification**

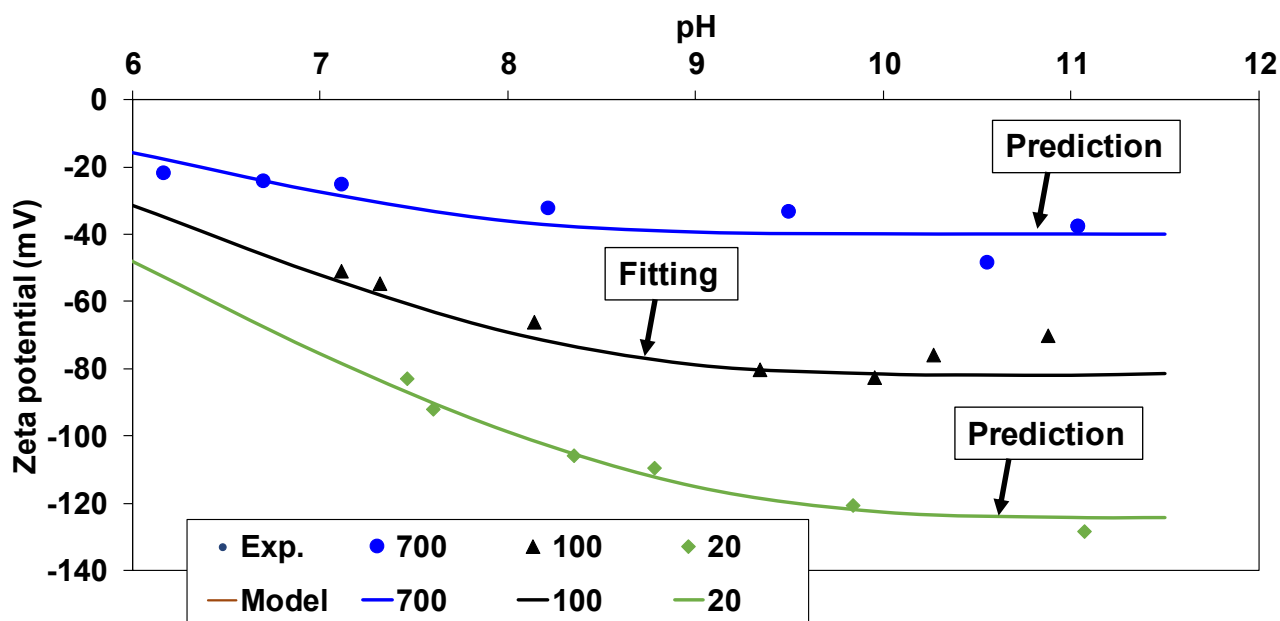
228 The density of the -COOH surface groups and the equilibrium constant ( $K_{COO}$ - in Eq. (2)) value for  
 229 the dissociation of carboxyl groups were determined from the measured zeta potentials and the results  
 230 of CD-MUSIC surface complexation modelling. This model can separately predict the surface (at the  
 231 0-plane) and zeta potentials (at the 2-plane), the latter of which is directly comparable to the measured  
 232 zeta potential. This is not possible with the diffuse layer surface complexation model that can only  
 233 predict the surface potential, which is completely different from the zeta potential. The electrical  
 234 properties of the surface and the solution composition affect the difference between these potentials,  
 235 which will be discussed in section 3.3.

236

237 The effects of pH and ionic strength on the zeta potential of crude oil are shown in **Fig. 2**. The pH of  
238 the solution was adjusted using NaOH while NaCl was added appropriately to maintain the ionic  
239 strength. Therefore, the concentration of Na is constant over the pH and Cl concentration decreases  
240 with pH. The increase in the pH enhances the dissociation of -COOH, causing the surface to become  
241 more negatively charged. The figure shows that pH does not influence the dissociation above a pH of  
242 9. This is due to the complete dissociation of the -COOH surface groups. The pH required to fully  
243 dissociate -COOH depends on the ionic strength: a high ionic strength requires a lower pH to fully  
244 dissociate -COOH than that for a low ionic strength. This characteristic is used to determine the  
245 density of -COOH. The CD-MUSIC model can predict the zeta potential of the emulsions given the  
246 inputs of site density, equilibrium constant ( $K_{COO-}$ ), capacitance (C1 and C2), and amount and specific  
247 surface area of oil. The specific surface area of oil is calculated from the measured size of the oil  
248 particles in the solution, equal to 0.5 m<sup>2</sup>/g of resins. C1 and C2 are equal to 2.253 F/m<sup>2</sup>, assuming  
249 that there is a water molecule (diameter of 2.75Å) attached to the first and second Stern layers (Eq.  
250 (1) and **Fig. 1**). Dissociation only changes the charge at the 0-plane (**Table 3**). The measured zeta  
251 potential data at an ionic strength of 100 mM were fitted to the predicted values in two different pH  
252 ranges. Initially, the simulation was performed with a  $\log_{K_{COO-}}$  of zero, and the predicted zeta  
253 potentials were fitted to the measured values by only changing the -COOH site density in a pH range  
254 (above 9) where the zeta potential is independent of pH. The estimated site density was used to fit  
255 other zeta potential values (below a pH of 9), where the values are pH-dependent, by only adjusting  
256 the  $\log_{K_{COO-}}$ . The determined -COOH site density and  $\log_{K_{COO-}}$  values are 0.47 sites/nm<sup>2</sup> and -5.6,  
257 respectively. The optimised equilibrium constant and site density were obtained when an R<sup>2</sup> value  
258 close to one for the plot of experimental versus predicted zeta potential values. This methodology  
259 will be used to optimise the equilibrium constants for calcium and magnesium adsorption (section  
260 3.2). The estimated site density and  $\log_{K_{COO-}}$  values do not differ much from those reported in the  
261 literature [12, 30, 31, 33, 34]. These values, together with C1 and C2, were used to predict the zeta  
262 potential of the emulsions at the ionic strengths of 20 and 700 mM. The simulation results agree well

263 with the measured zeta potential data at low and high ionic strengths, indicating the predictive  
264 capability of the model for LSWF.

265



266

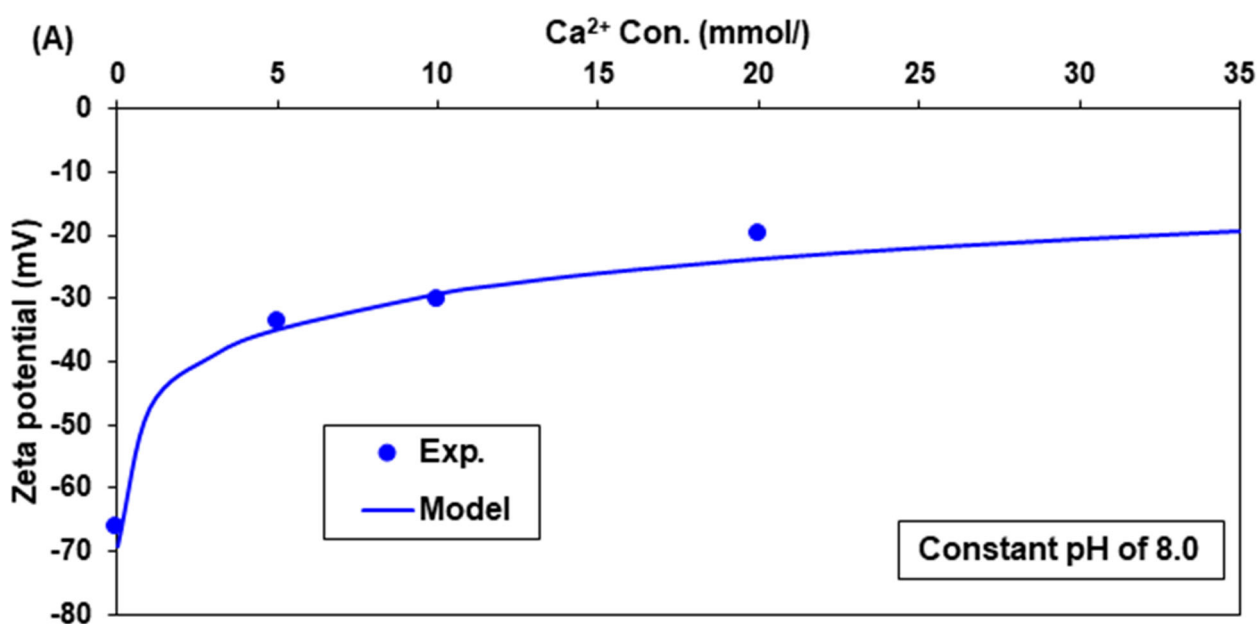
267 **Fig. 2.** Measured and predicted zeta potentials of crude oil as a function of pH at ionic strengths of  
268 20, 100, and 700 mM. The ionic strength was adjusted with an NaCl solution.

269

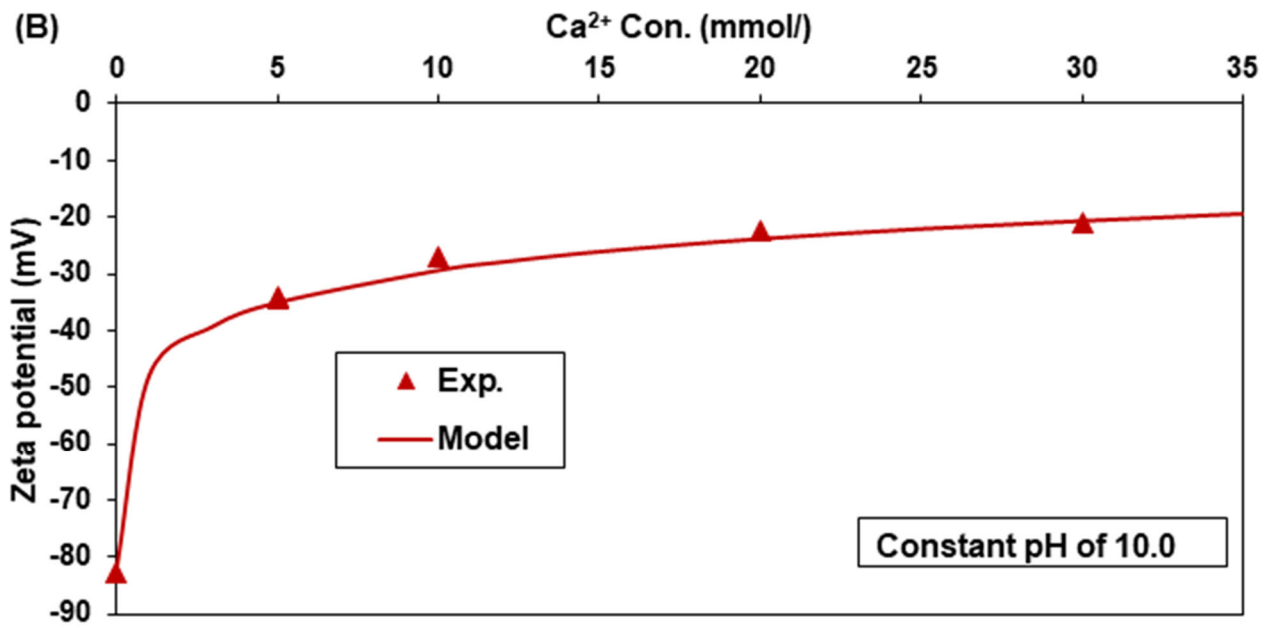
### 270 **3.2 Interactions between calcium and magnesium ions and crude oil: determination of** 271 **equilibrium constants and prediction of zeta potentials**

272 Divalent calcium and magnesium cations can adsorb on the surface of  $-\text{COOH}$ , and cause both the  
273 surface and zeta potentials toward positive. The zeta potentials of crude oil emulsions in solutions  
274 with varying  $\text{CaCl}_2$  concentrations at constant pH values of 8 and 10 and a constant ionic strength of  
275 20 mM are shown in **Fig. 3**. The higher pH value was selected considering the dissociation of  $-\text{COOH}$ ,  
276 which produces more than 70 % of the  $-\text{COO}^-$  at a pH of 8 and an ionic strength of 100 mM, and a  
277 low ionic strength was selected to understand the adsorption in LSWF. NaOH and NaCl solutions, as  
278 in section 3.1, were used to fix the pH and ionic strength, respectively. The addition of calcium to the  
279 emulsion dramatically increased the zeta potential, which in turn gradually increased with the calcium  
280 concentration. The calcium adsorption on  $-\text{COOH}$  surfaces was modelled by CD-MUSIC taking the

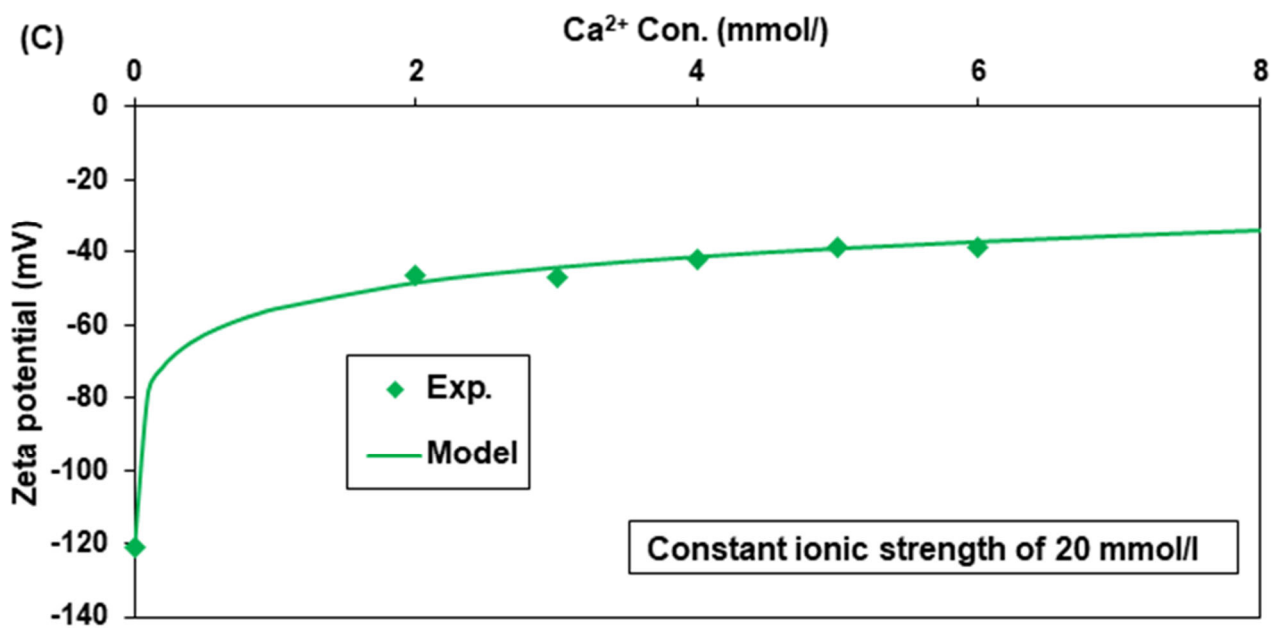
281 reactions given in Eqs. (2) and (3) and the charge distribution for calcium adsorption given in **Table**  
 282 **3**. The density of -COOH and the  $\log_{10} K_{COO}$  value determined in section 3.1 were used to predict the  
 283 calcium interactions. The thicknesses of the first and second Stern layers were determined by the  
 284 respective presence of calcium ions and water molecules in the layers (**Fig. 1**), giving the values of  
 285 C1 and C2 as 3.098 F/m<sup>2</sup> and 2.253 F/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively. The only parameter required to predict the  
 286 zeta potential of the emulsion in the calcium-containing solution is the  $\log_{10} K_{COOCa^{2+}}$ , which was  
 287 determined by fitting the measured zeta potential values at a pH of 8.0 with the modelling results (**Fig.**  
 288 **3(A)**). A value of -4.7 was obtained for the assumed positions of both calcium ions and water  
 289 molecules in the Stern layers. To understand the effects of the widths of the first and second Stern  
 290 layers on  $\log_{10} K_{COOCa^{2+}}$ , the fitting was carried out for different cases. The detail of the thicknesses of  
 291 the Stern layers and the estimated  $\log_{10} K_{COOCa^{2+}}$  values are presented in **Table 4**. The widths of the  
 292 Stern layers did not significantly affect  $\log_{10} K_{COOCa^{2+}}$ ; thus, a value of  $-4.8 \pm 0.1$  was determined to be  
 293 the most suitable for  $\log_{10} K_{COOCa^{2+}}$ . The interactions between the CaOH<sup>+</sup> and -COOH surface groups  
 294 were not considered as there was very little CaOH<sup>+</sup> (less than 1%) in the solution, even at a high  
 295 CaCl<sub>2</sub> concentration and a pH of 10. The calculated surface complexation modeling parameters  
 296 predicted the measured zeta potentials well at a pH of 10 and an ionic strength of 20 mM (**Figs. 3(B)**  
 297 and **3(C)**).



298



299



300

301 **Fig. 3.** Measured and predicted zeta potential of crude oil as a function of Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration for (A)  
 302 a constant pH of 8.0; (B) a constant pH of 10.0; and (C) a constant ionic strength of 20 mM. The ionic  
 303 strength was adjusted with a NaCl solution.

304

305

306



307 **Table 4**

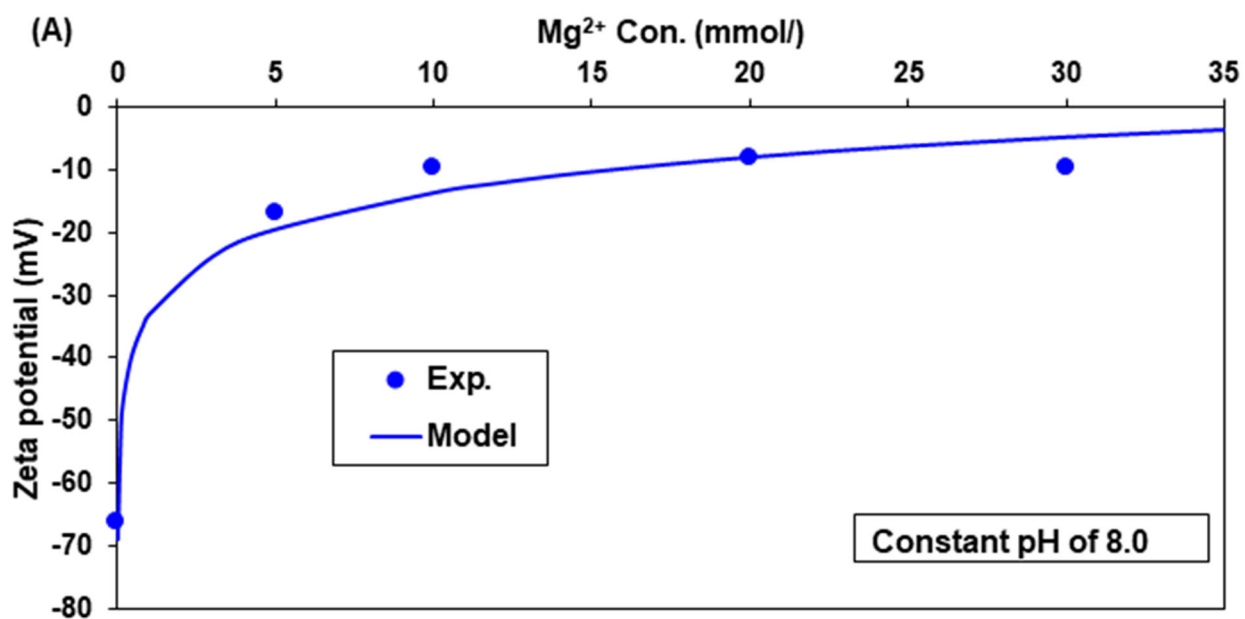
308 Thicknesses of the first and second Stern layers and the estimated  $\log_{10} K_{COOCa^+}$  values for four  
 309 different scenarios

	<b>d1</b>	<b>d2</b>	$\log_{10} K_{COOCa^+}$
<b>Case 1</b>	Diameter of calcium	Diameter of water	-4.7
<b>Case 2</b>	Radius of calcium	Radius of calcium + diameter of water	-4.8
<b>Case 3</b>	Diameter of calcium + diameter of water	Diameter of water	-4.7
<b>Case 4</b>	Diameter of calcium + diameter of water	Diameter of water * 2	-4.9

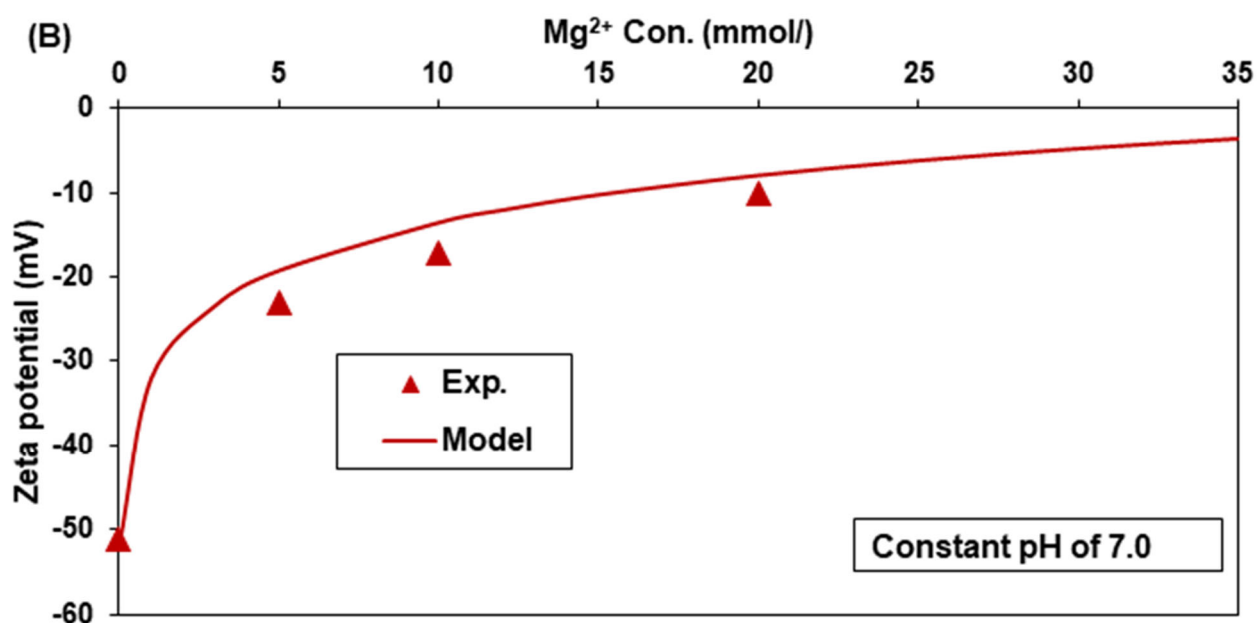
310

311 As for calcium, the influence of the magnesium ions on the zeta potential of a crude oil emulsion was  
 312 also studied. The zeta potential increases with the concentration of magnesium ions for the crude oil  
 313 in MgCl<sub>2</sub> solution at pH levels of 7 and 8 and an ionic strength of 20 mM (**Fig. 4**). A similar tendency  
 314 was obtained with calcium. To prevent the formation of brucite, a pH below 8 was selected. The  
 315 simulation was performed in the CD-MUSIC model considering the reaction given in Eq. (4) and the  
 316 parameters estimated in section 3.1. However, the calculated value of C1 for the adsorption of  
 317 magnesium on the first Stern layer was 4.302 F/m<sup>2</sup>, and C2 was the same as used in the calcium  
 318 interaction, 2.253 F/m<sup>2</sup>. The zeta potential measured at a pH of 8 was used to fit the modelling results  
 319 and the determined value of  $\log_{10} K_{COOMg^+}$  was -3.85 (**Fig. 4(A)**). As was carried out for calcium  
 320 (**Table 4**), four different scenarios for the widths of the Stern layers were assumed to estimate the  
 321  $\log_{10} K_{COOMg^+}$ , and the most suitable  $\log_{10} K_{COOMg^+}$  was -3.9±0.05. To verify the estimated parameters,  
 322 the calculation was carried out at a pH of 7 and an ionic strength of 20 mM. As explained for calcium,  
 323 MgOH<sup>+</sup> was not considered in the calculation as it had a negligible concentration in the solution. A  
 324 comparison between the model-predicted and measured zeta potentials is shown in **Figs. 4(B)** and

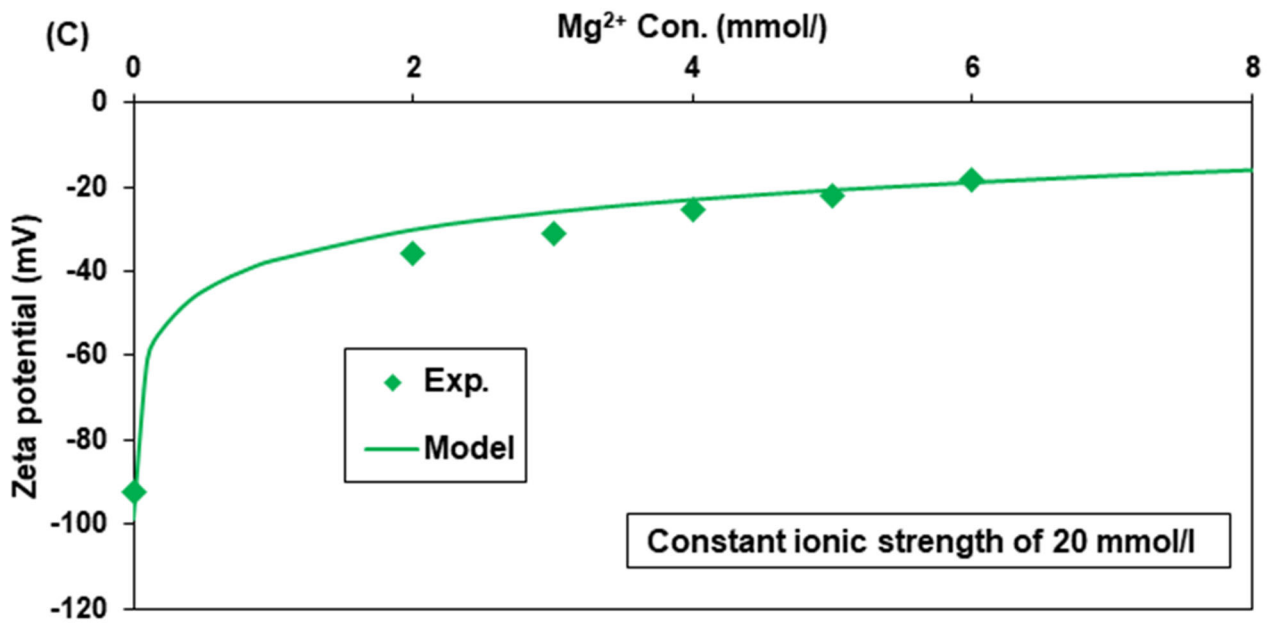
325 4(C). The good agreement between the model-predicted and experimental data for both calcium and  
326 magnesium interactions strongly suggests that the estimated surface complexation modeling  
327 parameters are applicable for LSWF. Furthermore, both the experimental and modeled zeta potential  
328 results show that magnesium ions adsorb onto crude oil with a higher affinity than calcium ions.  
329



330



331



332

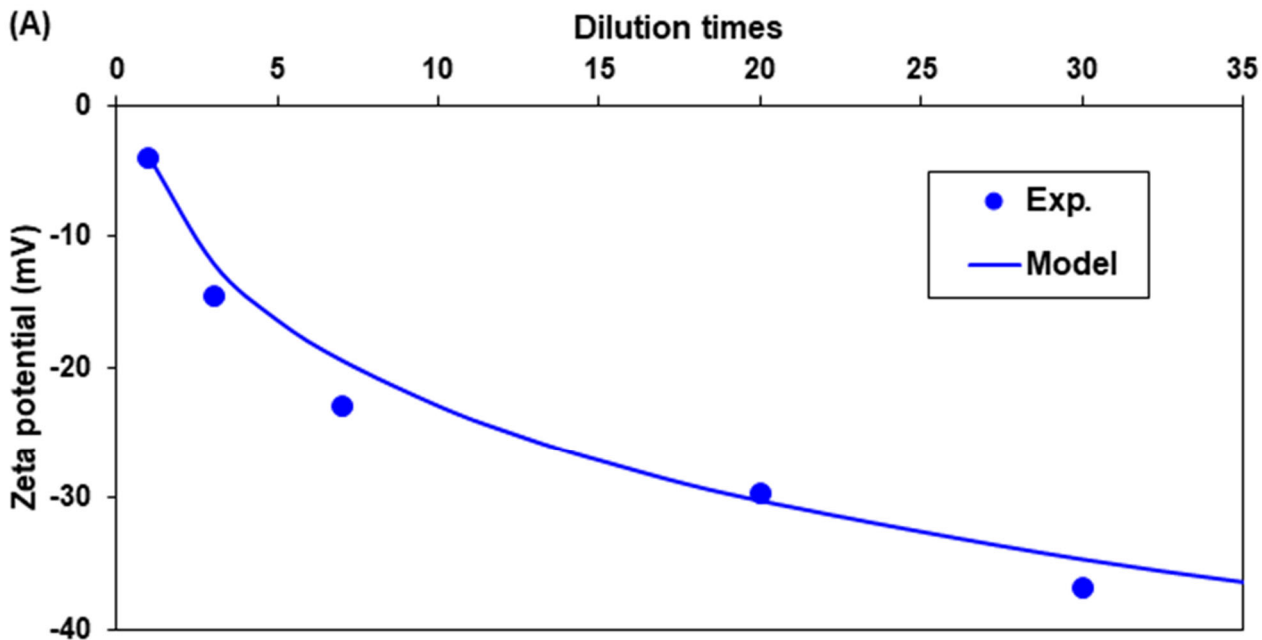
333 **Fig. 4.** Measured and predicted zeta potentials of crude oil as a function of Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentration for  
 334 (A) a constant pH of 8.0; (B) a constant pH of 7.0; and (C) a constant ionic strength of 20 mM. The  
 335 ionic strength was adjusted with a NaCl solution.

336

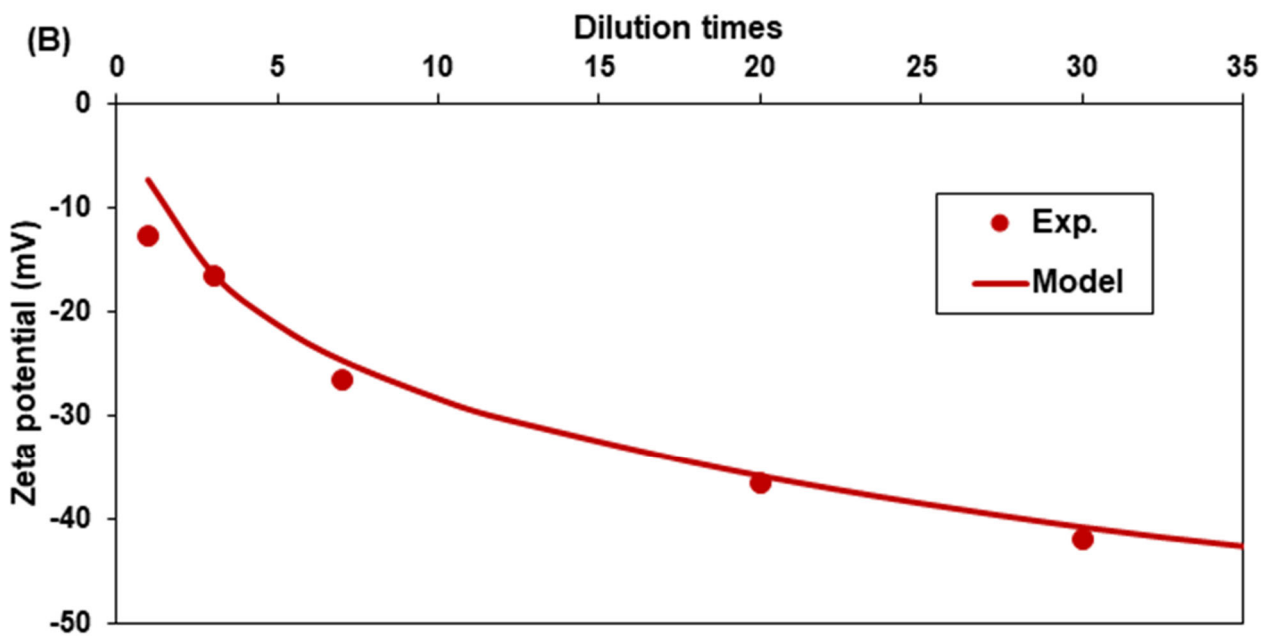
### 337 3.3 Prediction of the zeta potential of crude oil in diluted seawater and formation water

338 The estimated surface complexation parameters, such as the -COOH surface site density and the  
 339 equilibrium constants for the dissociation and adsorption of calcium and magnesium ions, in sections  
 340 3.1 and 3.2 were used to predict the zeta potentials of the emulsions in seawater, formation water, and  
 341 their dilutions. Although these solutions consisted of multi-ions (**Table 2**), the pH and divalent cations  
 342 are the potential-determining ions that strongly impact the electrical triple-layer at the oil/brine  
 343 interface. The presence of calcium ions, whose hydration radius is higher than that of magnesium  
 344 ions, and water molecules in the Stern layers determines the values of C1 and C2 (Case 1 in **Table**  
 345 **4**). **Figure 5** compares the experimental zeta potential with the simulation results for emulsions of  
 346 crude oil with seawater and formation water. The model predictions agreed well with the experimental  
 347 results. The results indicate that the zeta potential of oil in seawater or formation water is weakly  
 348 negative owing to the high concentrations of calcium and magnesium. This supports the results  
 349 described in sections 3.1 and 3.2; the zeta potential does not become positive at a high concentration

350 because the pH has more of an impact on the zeta potential than the concentration of divalent ions.  
351 Furthermore, a reduction in the salinity or dilution causes the zeta potential to become more negative.  
352



353



354

355 **Fig. 5.** Comparison of the predicted and measured zeta potentials of crude oil in (A) seawater; (B)  
356 formation water, as a function of dilution times.

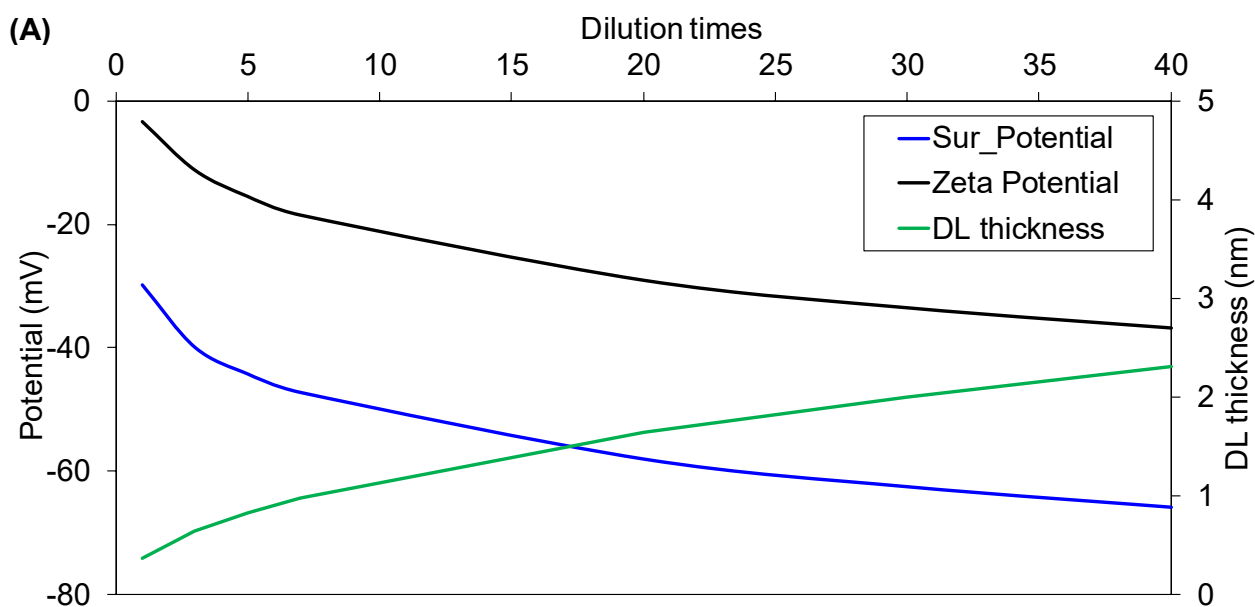
357

358 The surface complexation model was applied to understand the effects of the surface charge and  
359 potential at the crude oil/brine interface, which influence the wettability change in LSWF. **Figure**  
360 **6(A)** compares the computed zeta potential with the surface potential together with the calculated  
361 diffuse layer thickness for the crude oil emulsions with seawater and its dilutions. As discussed  
362 previously, the measurable zeta potential differs from the surface potential. The absolute surface  
363 potential was more than double the zeta potential up to a dilution of 20 times, and the potentials  
364 became more negative with increasing dilution. The zeta and surface potentials could be positive and  
365 negative, respectively, or vice-versa for different brine compositions, though both potentials were  
366 negative in this study. The calculation of the adhesion forces in DLVO theory using the zeta potential  
367 values rather than surface potential may cause incorrect prediction. Therefore, the surface potential  
368 should be used instead of the zeta potential to evaluate the crude oil/brine interface and hence the  
369 wettability alteration.

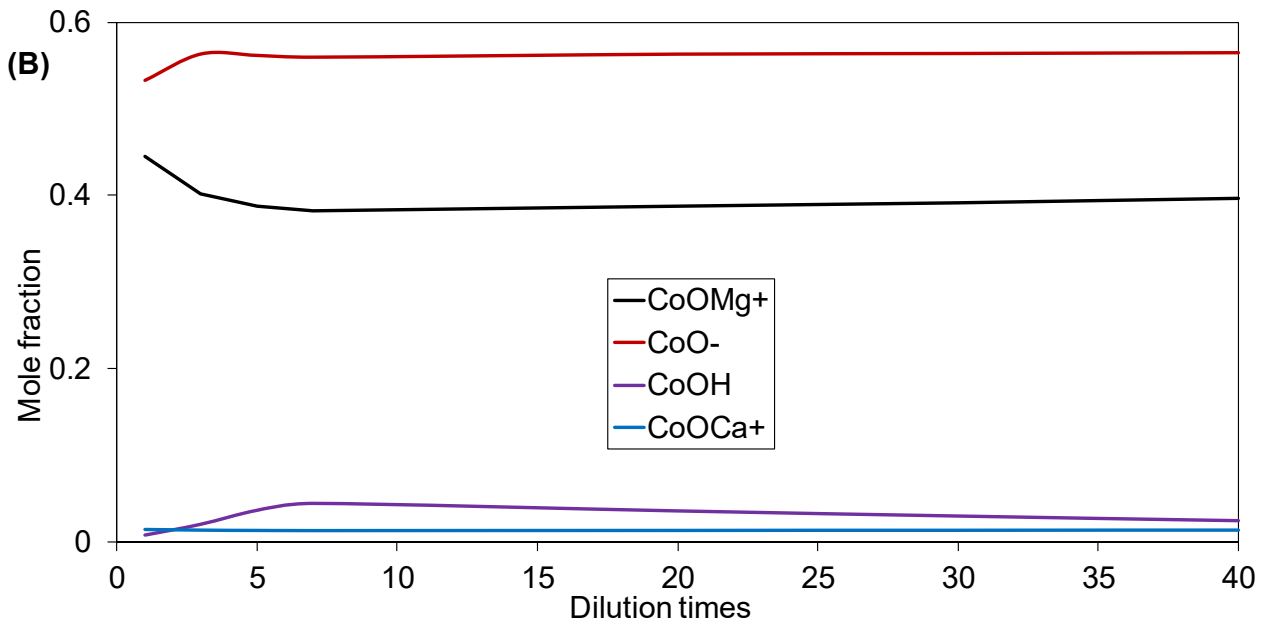
370

371 The concentration or amount of surface species on the -COOH surface affects the surface potential  
372 and then the zeta potential. The simulation results of the surface species distribution with reducing  
373 seawater salinity are shown in **Fig. 6(B)**. The higher concentration of -COO<sup>-</sup> than that of the other  
374 species causes negative surface and zeta potentials. The distribution is insensitive to the salinity after  
375 the seawater is diluted more than seven times; however, the absolute potential increases with dilution.  
376 As shown in **Fig. 6(A)**, dilution strongly affects the expansion of the diffuse layer, consequently  
377 causing more negative potentials. The proposed crude oil/brine interface at high and low salinities  
378 are schematically presented in **Fig. 7** along with the potential distribution, and the surface  
379 complexation modelling parameters for crude oil at a low salinity are summarised in **Table 5**. Dilution  
380 does not significantly change the concentrations of surface species (-COOH, -COO<sup>-</sup>, -COOCa<sup>+</sup>, and  
381 -COOMg<sup>+</sup>), but it causes the potentials to become more negative at each plane due to the decreasing  
382 ionic strength. The increases in the potentials and the electrical triple-layer expansion as result of the  
383 lowered ionic strength affect the interaction of oil with the rock surface. It was shown that the

384 potential at the mineral/brine interface is highly negative at a low salinity [25, 27, 44]. This negative  
385 electrical potential can create a large repulsive force with crude oil and enhance the oil detachment  
386 from the mineral surface, leading to more water-wet conditions. In addition, the ions are more  
387 hydrated in the diluted solution than they are in a high-salinity solution, which may also support  
388 water-wet conditions [45-46]. Thus, the increase of surface potential at the crude oil/brine interface  
389 and the electrical triple-layer expansion are the more pronounced mechanisms for wettability  
390 alteration at a low salinity than the dissociation of -COOH and the adsorption of ions on the -COOH  
391 surface.  
392



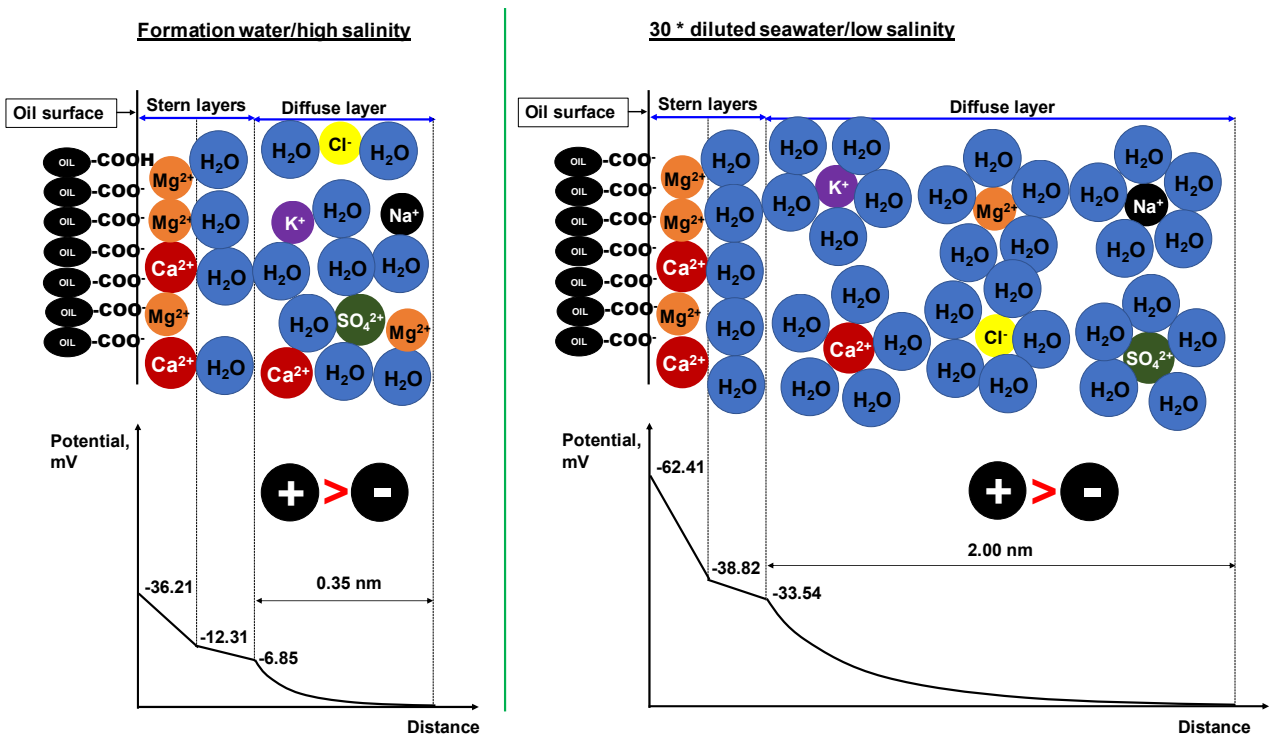
393



394

395 **Fig. 6.** Simulated (A) surface potential, zeta potential, and diffuse layer thickness; (B) molar fraction  
 396 of surface species, as a function of dilution times at the crude oil/seawater interface

397



398

399 **Fig. 7.** Illustration of ionic and potential distributions at the crude oil/brine interface

400

401

402

403 **Table 5**

404 Determined surface complexation parameters of crude oil

	<b>Value</b>
-COOH surface site density (sites/nm <sup>2</sup> )	0.47
Specific surface area of oil in water (m <sup>2</sup> /g of resins)	0.50±0.1
-COOH ↔ -COO <sup>-</sup> + H <sup>+</sup>	<i>log<sub>10</sub> k</i> at 50 °C = -5.6
-COOH + Ca <sup>2+</sup> ↔ -COOCa <sup>+</sup> + H <sup>+</sup>	<i>log<sub>10</sub> k</i> at 50 °C = -4.8±0.1
-COOH + Mg <sup>2+</sup> ↔ -COOMg <sup>+</sup> + H <sup>+</sup>	<i>log<sub>10</sub> k</i> at 50 °C = -3.9±0.05
C1	3.10
C2	2.25

405

406 **4. Conclusions**

407 The crude oil/brine interface was studied using a triple-layer surface complexation model. The model  
 408 permits the specification of the charge distribution in each plane due to the dissociation of the surface  
 409 functional groups of crude oil and the adsorption of calcium and magnesium ions onto them. Only  
 410 the carboxyl group (-COOH) contributes to the charge development of the crude oil emulsion in  
 411 various solutions. The density of the carboxyl group and the associated equilibrium constants for the  
 412 dissociation and adsorption of calcium and magnesium were determined by fitting the experimental  
 413 zeta potential data to those of the simulation. The independence of the zeta potential at a high pH and  
 414 constant ionic strength due to the complete dissociation of the carboxyl group allowed the  
 415 determination of its density, while the equilibrium constant for dissociation was calculated from the  
 416 pH-dependent zeta potential. The estimated values were verified by predicting the zeta potential of  
 417 the crude oil emulsion at different pH levels in two solutions with different ionic strengths. These  
 418 values were used to model the interactions of calcium and magnesium with the carboxyl group. Four  
 419 different cases for the positions of calcium and magnesium near the carboxyl group were considered  
 420 to estimate the equilibrium constants of adsorption. The determined equilibrium constants were



421 verified for the emulsion with varying calcium or magnesium concentrations at a constant pH and  
422 ionic strength. Separately determined surface complexation modelling parameters were used to  
423 predict the zeta potential of crude oil in seawater and formation water as a function of the dilution  
424 times. The simulation results agreed well with experimental data, which demonstrates that the model  
425 is capable of predicting the interface properties. The proposed model was used to understand the  
426 effects of LSWF. A decrease in the salinity causes the surface potential to become more negative and  
427 expands the electrical triple-layer, thus resulting in mixed-wet or mixed-wet to water-wet conditions  
428 in the reservoir for EOR.

429

### 430 **References**

- 431 [1] Afekare DA, Radonjic M. From Mineral Surfaces and Coreflood Experiments to Reservoir  
432 Implementations: Comprehensive Review of Low-Salinity Water Flooding (LSWF). *Energy*  
433 and Fuels 2017;31:13043–62.
- 434 [2] Sohal MA, Thyne G, Sogaard EG. Review of Recovery Mechanisms of Ionically Modified  
435 Waterflood in Carbonate Reservoirs. *Energy and Fuels* 2016;30:1904–14.
- 436 [3] Sheng JJ. Critical review of low-salinity waterflooding. *J Pet Sci Eng* 2014;120:216–24.
- 437 [4] Al-Shalabi EW, Sepehrnoori K. A comprehensive review of low salinity/engineered water  
438 injections and their applications in sandstone and carbonate rocks. *J Pet Sci Eng* 2016;139:137–  
439 61.
- 440 [5] Morrow N, Buckley J. Improved Oil Recovery by Low-Salinity Waterflooding. *J Pet Technol*  
441 2011;63:106–12.
- 442 [6] Shariatpanahi SF, Strand S, Austad T. Evaluation of water-based enhanced oil recovery (EOR)  
443 by wettability alteration in a low-permeable fractured limestone oil reservoir. *Energy and Fuels*  
444 2010;24:5997–6008.
- 445 [7] Austad T, Shariatpanahi SF, Strand S, Black CJJ, Webb KJ. Conditions for a low-salinity  
446 Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR) effect in carbonate oil reservoirs. *Energy and Fuels*, vol. 26,

- 447 2012, p. 569–75.
- 448 [8] Alameri W, Teklu TW, Graves RM, Kazemi H, AlSumaiti AM. Wettability Alteration During  
449 Low-Salinity Waterflooding in Carbonate Reservoir Cores. SPE Asia Pacific Oil Gas Conf.  
450 Exhib., 2014.
- 451 [9] McMillan MD, Rahnema H, Romiluy J, Kitty FJ. Effect of exposure time and crude oil  
452 composition on low-salinity water flooding. *Fuel* 2016;185:263–72.
- 453 [10] Yousef AA, Al-Saleh SH, Al-Kaabi A, Al-Jawfi MS. Laboratory Investigation of the Impact of  
454 Injection-Water Salinity and Ionic Content on Oil Recovery From Carbonate Reservoirs. *SPE*  
455 *Reserv Eval Eng* 2011;14:578–93.
- 456 [11] Suijkerbuijk B, Hofman J, Ligthelm DJ, Romanuka J, Brussee N, van der Linde H, et al.  
457 Fundamental Investigations into Wettability and Low Salinity Flooding by Parameter Isolation.  
458 *SPE Improv Oil Recover Symp* 2013:1–23.
- 459 [12] Qiao C, Johns R, Li L. Modeling Low-Salinity Waterflooding in Chalk and Limestone  
460 Reservoirs. *Energy and Fuels* 2016;30:884–95.
- 461 [13] Aladasani A, Bai B, Wu Y, Salehi S. Studying low-salinity waterflooding recovery effects in  
462 sandstone reservoirs. *Journal of Petroleum Science and Engineering* 2014; 120:39-51.
- 463 [14] Hua Z, Li M, Ni X, Wang H, Yang Z, Lin M. Effect of injection brine composition on  
464 wettability and oil recovery in sandstone reservoirs. *Fuel* 2016;182:687–95.
- 465 [15] Mahzari P and Sohrabi M. Crude oil/brine interactions and spontaneous formation of micro-  
466 dispersions in low salinity water injection. Paper SPE-169081 presented at the SPE Improved  
467 Oil Recovery Symposium held in Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA, 12–16 April 2014.
- 468 [16] Sohrabi M, Mahzari P, Farzaneh S. A, Mills J. R, Tsolis P, and Ireland S, Novel insights into  
469 mechanisms of oil recovery by use of low-salinity-water injection, *SPE Journal*, April 2017,  
470 407-416.
- 471 [17] Alvarado V, et.al. Impact of polar components on crude oil-water interfacial film formation: A  
472 mechanisms for low-salinity waterflooding, Paper SPE-170807 presentation at the SPE Annual

- 473 Technical Conference and Exhibition held in Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 27–29 October  
474 2014.
- 475 [18] Jackson MD, Vinogradov J, Hamon G, Chamerois M. Evidence, mechanisms and improved  
476 understanding of controlled salinity waterflooding part 1: Sandstones. *Fuel* 2016;185:772–93.
- 477 [19] Mahani H, Keya AL, Berg S, Bartels WB, Nasralla R, Rossen WR. Insights into the mechanism  
478 of wettability alteration by low-salinity flooding (LSF) in carbonates. *Energy and Fuels*  
479 2015;29:1352–67.
- 480 [20] Austad T, RezaeiDoust A and Puntervold T. Chemical Mechanism of Low Salinity Water  
481 Flooding in Sandstone Reservoirs. paper SPE 37236 presented at the 2010 SPE Improved Oil  
482 Recovery Symposium held in Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA, 24–28 April 2010.
- 483 [21] Tian H, Wang M. Electrokinetic mechanism of wettability alternation at oil-water-rock  
484 interface. *Surf Sci Rep* 2018;72:369–91.
- 485 [22] Chow RS, Takamura K. Electrophoretic mobilities of bitumen and conventional crude-in-water  
486 emulsions using the laser Doppler apparatus in the presence of multivalent cations. *J Colloid*  
487 *Interface Sci* 1988;125:212–25.
- 488 [23] Buckley JS, Takamura K. Influence of Electrical Surface Charges on the Wetting Properties of  
489 Crude Oils. *Soc Pet Eng* 1987:332–40.
- 490 [24] Myint PC, Firoozabadi A. Thin liquid films in improved oil recovery from low-salinity brine.  
491 *Curr Opin Colloid Interface Sci* 2015;20:105–14.
- 492 [25] Nasralla RA, Nasr-El-Din HA. Impact of cation type and concentration in injected brine on oil  
493 recovery in sandstone reservoirs. *J Pet Sci Eng* 2014;122:384–95.
- 494 [26] Matthew D. Jackson, Dawoud Al-Mahrouqu & Jan Vinogradov. Zetapotential in oil-water-  
495 carbonate systems and its impact on oil recovery during controlled salinity water-flooding.  
496 *Scientific Reports* 2016.1-13.
- 497 [27] Xie Q, Liu Y, Wu J, Liu Q. Ions tuning water flooding experiments and interpretation by  
498 thermodynamics of wettability. *J Pet Sci Eng* 2014;124:350–8.

- 499 [28] Xie Q, Saeedi A, Pooryousefy E, Liu Y. Extended DLVO-based estimates of surface force in  
500 low salinity water flooding. *J Mol Liq* 2016;221:658–65.
- 501 [29] Hirasaki GJ. Wettability: Fundamentals and Surface Forces. *SPE Form Eval* 1991;6:217–26.
- 502 [30] Brady P V., Krumhansl JL. A surface complexation model of oil-brine-sandstone interfaces at  
503 100 °C: Low salinity waterflooding. *J Pet Sci Eng* 2012;81:171–6.
- 504 [31] Brady P V., Morrow NR, Fogden A, Deniz V, Loahardjo N, Winoto A. Electrostatics and the  
505 low salinity effect in sandstone reservoirs. *Energy and Fuels* 2015;29:666–77.
- 506 [32] Eftekhari AA, Thomsen K, Stenby EH, Nick HM. Thermodynamic Analysis of Chalk-  
507 Brine-Oil Interactions. *Energy and Fuels* 2017;31:11773–82.
- 508 [33] Xie Q, Brady P V., Pooryousefy E, Zhou D, Liu Y, Saeedi A. The low salinity effect at high  
509 temperatures. *Fuel* 2017;200:419–26.
- 510 [34] Chen Y, Xie Q, Sari A, Brady P V., Saeedi A. Oil/water/rock wettability: Influencing factors  
511 and implications for low salinity water flooding in carbonate reservoirs. *Fuel* 2018;215:171–7.
- 512 [35] Qiao C, Li L, Johns RT, Xu J. A Mechanistic Model for Wettability Alteration by Chemically  
513 Tuned Waterflooding in Carbonate Reservoirs. *SPE J* 2015:17.
- 514 [36] Mahzari P, Sohrabi M, Cooke A. J, Carnegie A, Direct pore-scale visualization of interactions  
515 between different crude oils and low salinity brine, *J Pet Sci Eng* 2018;166:73–84.
- 516 [37] Hiemstra T, Wolthers M. A Surface Structural Approach to Ion Adsorption: The Charge  
517 Distribution (CD) Model. *J Colloid Interface Sci* 1996;179:488–508.
- 518 [38] Rahnemaie R, Hiemstra T, Riemsdijk, W. H, A new surface structural approach to ion  
519 adsorption: Tracing the location of electrolytes, *J Colloid Interface Sci* 2006;293:312-321.
- 520 [39] Parkhurst BDL, Appelo C a J. User’s Guide To PHREEQC (version 2) — a Computer Program  
521 for Speciation, and Inverse Geochemical Calculations. *Exch Organ Behav Teach J* 1999;D:326.
- 522 [40] Kunieda, M et.al. Self-accumulation of aromatics at the oil-water interface through weak  
523 hydrogen bonding, *J. AM. CHEM. SOC.* 2010, 132, 18281–18286.
- 524 [41] Andrews A. B, et.al. Molecular orientation of asphaltenes and PAH model compounds in

- 525 Langmuir-Blodgett films using sum frequency generation spectroscopy, *Langmuir*, 2011, 27,  
526 6049-6058.
- 527 [42] Ruiz-Morales, Y and Mullins, O. C. Coarse-grained molecular simulations to investigate  
528 asphaltenes at the oil-water interface, *energy & fuel*, 2015, 29, 1597-1609.
- 529 [43] Shehata, A. M.; Nasr El-Din, H. A. Spontaneous Imbibition Study: Effect of Connate Water  
530 Composition on Low-Salinity Waterflooding in Sandstone Reservoirs. Society of Petroleum  
531 Engineers: Houston, TX, 2015.
- 532 [44] Takahashi S, Kavscek AR. Wettability estimation of low-permeability, siliceous shale using  
533 surface forces. *J Pet Sci Eng* 2010;75:33–43.
- 534 [45] Nicolini JV, Ferraz HC, Borges CP. Effect of seawater ionic composition modified by  
535 nanofiltration on enhanced oil recovery in Berea sandstone. *Fuel* 2017;203:222–32.
- 536 [46] Yang G, Chen T, Zhao J, Yu D, Liu F, Wang D, et al. Desorption Mechanism of Asphaltenes  
537 in the Presence of Electrolyte and the Extended Derjaguin-Landau-Verwey-Overbeek Theory.  
538 *Energy and Fuels* 2015;29:4272–80.