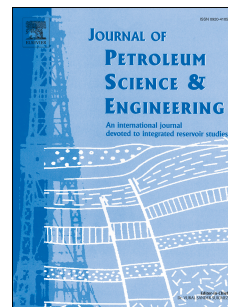


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Experimental investigation of hole cleaning in directional drilling by using nano-enhanced water-based drilling fluids

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Abstract

Inadequate hole cleaning often leads to challenges in drilling and well completion operations such as low rates of penetration, pipe sticking, losing tools, difficulties in liner/casing placements, etc. Designing a drilling fluid with improved rheological properties would be a solution to increase cuttings transportation efficiency. This study investigates the performance of nanosilica water-based drilling fluids for the hole cleaning process in directional drilling operations. Different inclination angles have been considered in a flow loop system with different rotational speeds (0 and 150 rpm) to simulate the drilling conditions in a wellbore. The performance of nano-enhanced drilling fluids in the cuttings removal process was compared with conventional water-based drilling fluids, and it was found that silica nanoparticles increased the cuttings transport efficiency in all experiments. The results indicated that the presence of nanosilica in the mud increased the colloidal interactions with cuttings and contributed to the improvements in cuttings transportation efficiency by 30.8 to 44% for different nano-enhanced water-based drilling fluids used in this study. The implementation of nanosilica in water-based drilling fluids showed promising results in the hole cleaning process which demonstrates the feasibility of using them in extended reach drilling operations.

Keywords: Directional drilling; Hole cleaning; Cuttings transport efficiency; Nano-enhanced drilling fluids

1. Introduction

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36 Oil and gas exploration has been improved by new levels of technologies and deeper and
37 harsher environments are being drilled more than ever before. Drilling fluids play a vital role
38 in drilling operations, such as cooling and lubricating the bit and drill string, cleaning the
39 bottom hole, controlling formation pressure, improving rate of penetration, among others
40 (Bourgoyne et al., 1986). In recent years, drilling in harsh conditions, such as extended- reach
41 and deep-water drilling operations, highlighted the unsuitability of conventional muds for the
42 successful drilling and hole cleaning processes. Therefore, there is a demand for new drilling
43 fluids that can perform efficiently in such conditions. Oil producers and service companies
44 have been investigating more effective ways to tackle challenging environments, in order to
45 drill and produce in a safe and feasible manner. For example, oil-based drilling fluids, treated
46 with micronized barite, were tested in the North Sea (Kageson-Loe et al., 2007). Also, they
47 showed promising performance in shale inhibition, bit lubrication and torque reduction
48 (Caldarola et al., 2016). However, drilling with an oil-based mud is associated with high costs
49 of procurement and toxic waste management. Thus, extensive research has gone into
50 improving water-based muds because of their low cost and environmental friendly attributes
51 (Rafati et al., 2017).

52
53 Water was the first drilling fluid used in drilling operations (Brantly, 1961). However, water
54 was not able to suspend cuttings in static conditions, build an impermeable layer on
55 permeable formations, nor was it dense enough to balance formation pressure. According to
56 Apaleke et al. (2012), increased drilling activities provided a market for heavy muds, made by
57 adding heavy minerals into the mud for pressure control purposes, and this led to
58 improvements of water-based muds. However, there are still significant limitations of water-
59 based muds in their stability and cuttings lifting abilities.

60
61 Hall et al. (1950) stated that the removal of cuttings and sloughs is one of the most important
62 functions of drilling fluids. According to Hakim et al. (2018), drilled cuttings removal is
63 critical, especially in horizontal wells. In addition to reductions in the rates of penetration by
64 the accumulated cuttings in wellbores, inefficient hole cleaning increases the possibility of
65 stuck pipe. Therefore, the wellbore cleaning process is highly affected by the mud rheology.
66 However, previous studies showed contradictory findings regarding the mud rheology and its
67 performance in the hole- cleaning process. In a study conducted by Ford et al., (1990) it was
68 shown that high viscosity values increased the cuttings lifting performance in inclined
69 boreholes. Kelessidis & Bandelis (2007), on the other hand, concluded that the performance

70 of the hole- cleaning process worsened when the viscosity of drilling mud was increased in
71 horizontal wellbores. This contradiction might be due to the transition of turbulent flow to
72 laminar flow when viscosity increases, which deteriorates the performance of drilling fluids to
73 clean the wellbores. In another study, Walker & Li (2000) showed an efficient hole cleaning
74 with low viscosity fluids requires having a turbulent flow regime in the annulus. They
75 reported this condition works mainly in horizontal or highly deviated wellbores. It was
76 recommended that for vertical or slightly deviated wellbores, a viscous drilling mud with a
77 laminar flow regime should be used.

78
79 The effect of hole inclination plays a tremendous role in determining the ability of drilling
80 mud to carry cuttings out of the borehole. There are many complex well trajectories targeting
81 deep reservoirs. Typical well designs, in extended reach drilling operations, have high
82 inclination and dog-leg severity to reach pay zones. Many researchers have reported that
83 inclination angles between 40° and 60° (deviation from vertical position) are critical angles,
84 where most of the accumulation of cuttings may happen, and it is difficult to transport
85 cuttings out of the hole (Seeberger et al., 1989; Peden et al., 1990; Brown et al., 1989; Onuoha
86 et al., 2015; Ogunrinde & Dosunmu, 2012). The formation of cuttings beds is one of the most
87 common problems that occurs at critical angles, when a drilling fluid fails to transport cuttings
88 up to the surface. In deviated or horizontal drillings, transportation of the cuttings is mainly
89 influenced by the magnitude of the net vertical force. If the net vertical force is acting
90 downwards, there will be formation of cuttings beds in the annulus.

91
92 The shape and size of cuttings determine their dynamic behaviour in a flowing drilling mud
93 and affect their removal from downhole to the surface. There are different findings based on
94 previous studies on the effect of cuttings size on the hole cleaning process. Martins et al.
95 (1996) found that cuttings with large sizes are difficult to transport to the surface; other
96 researchers (Peden et al., 1990 & Walker & Li, 2000) stated that cuttings with smaller sizes
97 are the most difficult to transport. However, if the viscosity of the drilling mud and rotational
98 speed are high, cuttings that are smaller in size can be transported efficiently to the surface
99 (Sanchez et al., 1999).

100
101 Duan et al. (2009) suggested that various fluids are required for different purposes. Water is
102 usually required for cleanout and polymer solutions are required for drilling operations. They
103 also reported that the increasing number of highly inclined and horizontal wells through

104 unconsolidated reservoirs signifies the challenge for the transportation of smaller cuttings
105 during drilling operations. Based on the results from a study conducted by Ozbayoglu et al.
106 (2004), the most effective drilling parameter in the development of cuttings beds is the flow
107 rate of mud, or the annular fluid velocity. As the flow rate increases, cuttings bed
108 development can be prevented. Therefore, the most effective hole cleaning process is during
109 turbulent flow regime, which reduces the chance of cuttings bed formation by efficient
110 cuttings transportation (Piroozian et al., 2012; Busahmin et al., 2017). Other researchers like
111 Sifferman et al. (1974) and Larsen et al. (1997) found that the acceptable annular velocity for
112 cuttings transport for typical drilling mud is in the range of 1 to 4 ft/sec. The annular velocity
113 of the fluid depends on the pump rate and hole diameter. Flow rate is usually monitored to
114 ensure the risk of cuttings bed formation is minimized in dynamic conditions.

115

116 Furthermore, in drilling operations, the drill string has the tendency to rest on the lower side
117 of the borehole because of gravity, especially in the inclined section of the hole. This creates
118 an eccentric narrow gap in the annulus below the pipe, where fluid velocity will be extremely
119 low. Effectively, the ability of the drilling fluid to transport cuttings to the surface from this
120 part of the annulus will be low. As the eccentricity increases, the particle and fluid velocities
121 would decrease in the narrow gap, especially in the case of high-viscosity drilling fluids.
122 However, such adverse impacts on the hole cleaning process may be unavoidable, because the
123 pipe eccentricity is governed by the well trajectories during drilling operations. Therefore, as
124 pipes shift away from concentric status, cuttings removal efficiency decreases (Tomren et al.,
125 1986).

126

127 Dynamic tests on the mud performance in a flow loop system are especially crucial, because
128 the results from static tests (rheological properties) may not necessarily translate to the
129 dynamic performance of drilling fluids. An experimental study conducted by Wang et al.
130 (1995) showed that drill string rotation could significantly reduce cuttings bed height.
131 Rotational speed is more effective in inclined wells compared to vertical wells (Tomren et al.,
132 1986; Sanchez et al., 1999; Yu et al., 2007). This indicates that cuttings transportation at the
133 narrow side of an eccentric wellbore can be improved by rotating drill pipes. Sifferman et al.
134 (1992) concluded that at highly deviated wellbores, low rates of penetration and small
135 cuttings are the most desirable conditions for using pipe rotation effectively. Formation of
136 Taylor vortices (beyond a specific rotational speed) can further increase the lifting efficiency
137 in horizontal sections (Sanchez et al., 1999). Therefore, for the removal of small drilled

138 cuttings, the drill pipe rotation factor is a very important parameter to be considered (Duan et
139 al., 2006; Saeid and Busahmin 2016).

140

141

142 In recent years, the application of nanomaterials has been on the rise, especially within the
143 scientific community. There is a broad range of applications for nanomaterials in the field of
144 drilling fluids and reservoir protection that is beneficial for petroleum development and
145 production (Li et al., 2012). There are studies that show significant rheological improvements
146 of water-based drilling fluids, due to the presence of nanomaterials (Abdo & Haneef, 2013;
147 Cedola et al., 2016 Noah et al., 2016; Samsuri & Hamzah, 2011; Sharma et al., 2012; Smith et
148 al., 2018; William et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015). A study conducted by Yasir (2016) found
149 that nano-based drilling fluids performed better in terms of bit cooling, reduced torque and
150 drag, enhanced viscous behaviour and low- friction factors, compared to the conventional
151 drilling fluids. Furthermore, improvements in thermal stability, up to 160°C, were reported by
152 different studies, in which nanoparticles such as silica, carbon nanotubes and aluminium
153 oxide were added to water-based drilling fluids (Cai et al., 2012; Kang et al., 2016; Smith et
154 al., 2018; Yang et al., 2015; Yuan et al., 2013). Hoelscher et al., (2012) reported physical
155 plugging of nano-sized Marcellus and Mancos shale pores, by using nanosilica, which
156 resulted in a reduced pressure transmission in shales. Overall, nanoparticles have been used to
157 overcome a variety of issues related to drilling fluids, such as enhancing the thermal stability
158 of mud at high-temperature conditions, reducing filtrate volume and thickness of mud cake,
159 modifying friction factor, among others; a detailed review of these studies can be found
160 elsewhere (Rafati et al., 2017; Sharma et al., 2016). Although there are a large number of
161 studies in literature focused on the use of nanoparticles to enhance the rheological properties
162 of drilling fluids, to the best of our knowledge there is no investigation on the use of
163 nanomaterials to enhance the cuttings transport in wellbores, during hole- cleaning processes.

164

165 In this study, we combined important factors discussed in the hole cleaning processes, and
166 developed an experimental flow loop simulator to analyse the impact of nanoparticles on the
167 cutting transport efficiency in directional drilling operations. The setup is capable of
168 simulating the hole -cleaning process in the annulus, with different rotational speeds and
169 inclinations. Furthermore, we used different cuttings sizes to understand the effect of cuttings
170 size on dynamics of flow. It is assumed there is no pipe eccentricity and mud properties

171 remain unchanged during the hole- cleaning process. Through analysis of the results, the
 172 performance of nano-enhanced water-based muds can be summarised.

173

174 2. Materials and Methodology

175 2.1 Drilling fluid formulation

176 In our experiments, drilling fluids with two densities of 9 and 12 ppg (pounds per gallon)
 177 were considered. The water-based mud in this study was prepared based on the
 178 Recommended Practice for Field Testing Water-based Drilling Fluids (API RP 13B-1). For
 179 one laboratory barrel, which is equal to 350 ml of water-based mud, 15 g of bentonite is
 180 required. Tables 1 and 2 represent the formulation for the 9 ppg and 12 ppg water-based muds
 181 with different concentrations of nanosilica, respectively.

182

183 Table 3 shows the coding for the drilling fluids used in this study. There were a total of 8
 184 different mud types of varying densities and concentrations of nanosilica in our experiments.

185 The properties of nanosilica used in this study are tabulated in Table 4.

186

187 **Table 1:** Formulations of 9 ppg water-based muds

| Additives | Basic mud | 0.5 ppb SiO ₂ | 1.0 ppb SiO ₂ | 1.5 ppb SiO ₂ |
|---------------------|-----------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Distilled water, ml | 333.59 | 333.47 | 333.35 | 333.23 |
| Soda ash, ppb | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Bentonite, ppb | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 |
| Pac-HV, ppb | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| Xanthan gum, ppb | 0.75 | 0.75 | 0.75 | 0.75 |
| Nanosilica, ppb | 0 | 0.5 | 1 | 1.5 |
| Caustic soda, ppb | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Barite, ppb | 28.12 | 27.74 | 27.36 | 26.98 |

188

189

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191

192 **Table 2:** Formulations of 12 ppg water-based muds

| Additives | Basic mud | 0.5 ppb SiO ₂ | 1.0 ppb SiO ₂ | 1.5 ppb SiO ₂ |
|---------------------|-----------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Distilled water, ml | 295.39 | 295.27 | 295.15 | 295.03 |
| Soda ash, ppb | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Bentonite, ppb | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 |

| | | | | |
|-------------------|--------|--------|-------|--------|
| Pac-HV, ppb | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| Xanthan gum, ppb | 0.75 | 0.75 | 0.75 | 0.75 |
| Nanosilica, ppb | 0 | 0.5 | 1 | 1.5 |
| Caustic soda, ppb | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Barite, ppb | 192.36 | 191.98 | 191.6 | 191.22 |

193

194

195

196 **Table 3:** Coding for mud samples used in this experiment

197

| | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|----|-----|-----|-----|
| SiO ₂ concentrations (ppb) | 0 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 1.5 |
| 9 ppg | A0 | A1 | A2 | A3 |
| 12 ppg | B0 | B1 | B2 | B3 |

198

199 **Table 4:** Properties of Nanosilica

| Properties | Specifications |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Appearance | White powder |
| Density | 2.4 g/cm ³ |
| Purity of SiO ₂ | 99.90% |
| Particle size | 14 nm |
| pH (5 % suspension) | 4.5 |
| Heating loss (105°C for 2 hr.) | 0.90% |
| Ignition loss (1000°C for 2 hr.) | 1.20% |
| Absorption value | 230 ml/100g |
| Specific surface area | 202 m ² /g |
| Heavy metals (pb) | < 0.001 % |
| Sodium sulfate | < 0.02 % |
| Lead content | < 0.0001 % |
| Fe | 149 mg/kg |
| Mn | 3 mg/kg |
| Copper | 1 mg/kg |
| Arsenic | < 0.00001 % |

200

201 **2.2** *Static tests*

202 Fluid rheology is an important factor that influences the performance of drilling fluids. In our
 203 study, we used a variable-speed Baroid Rheometer to determine the apparent viscosity (AV),
 204 plastic viscosity (PV), yield point (YP), and gel strength (GS). Equations 1-3 are used to
 205 calculate these properties. The filtration loss of mud was measured by using a standard API
 206 filter press test i.e., low-pressure low-temperature (LPLT) OFITE filter press equipment.

207 Furthermore, rheological model data (shear stress and shear rates) were measured using
 208 Brookfield RST-CC Touch Rheometer (ASTM D4648) at a constant temperature of 50°C.

209

$$AV = RPM_{600}/2 \quad (1)$$

$$PV = RPM_{600} - RPM_{300} \quad (2)$$

$$YP = RPM_{300} - PV \quad (3)$$

210

211 2.3 Dynamic tests

212 The experimental flow loop was designed to investigate the efficiency of drilling fluids in the
 213 cuttings transport process (Figures 1 and 2). In an experimental investigation of cuttings
 214 transport efficiency that was conducted by Ozbayoglu & Sorgun (2010), it was concluded that
 215 experimental data produced in a 12 ft. annular test section could give reasonable accuracies
 216 (within 10% from the empirical correlations). Thus, in this work, the flow loop is consisted of
 217 a 20 ft. long test section, in an attempt to gain a higher accuracy of cuttings transport
 218 performance. It is made from an acrylic pipe, with an inner diameter of 2.75 in., in addition, a
 219 rotatable drill pipe with an outer diameter of 1.05 in. is placed inside it to create a concentric
 220 annulus model. These dimensions are scaled down (by a factor of ~ 80%) from a real well,
 221 where a 17.8 ppg mud with a flow rate of 380 gpm was used to drill a 9.625 in. borehole with
 222 an outer diameter of the drill string equals to 5.5 in. (Ming et al., 2014). In our scale down
 223 process of flow parameters, we considered a dimensionless number (Reynold Number) in the
 224 annulus, such that the flow is turbulent, as suggested by other studies for efficient hole
 225 cleaning operations (Ming et al., 2014; Loeppeke et al., 1992; Kristensen, 2013). This could be
 226 achieved with a 30-50% scale-down of the mud weight, while using a 10-hp centrifugal pump
 227 that provided flowrates and velocities at the scale down ranges of 80%. Thus, we used mud
 228 weights of 9 and 12 ppg in our experiments, these densities are in a comparable range of
 229 densities reported in other studies (Ahmed & Meehan, 2016; Fattah & Lashin, 2016; Akpabio
 230 et al., 2015). A cuttings transport efficiency (CTE) is defined as the weight percent of the
 231 cuttings cleaned out of the hole. This efficiency is used to evaluate the ability of mud to
 232 transport cuttings out of the borehole. The performance of different drilling fluids in the
 233 cuttings transport process were studied at various inclination angles (0°, 30°, 60° and 90°).
 234 These inclination angles were chosen to study the cuttings transportation efficiency,
 235 specifically targeting critical angles (30-60°). In this study, drilling fluids were tested at 0 and
 236 150 rpm pipe rotational speeds, which is in the range suggested by Sanchez et al. for hole
 237 cleaning studies in deviated wells (Sanchez *et al.*, 1999).

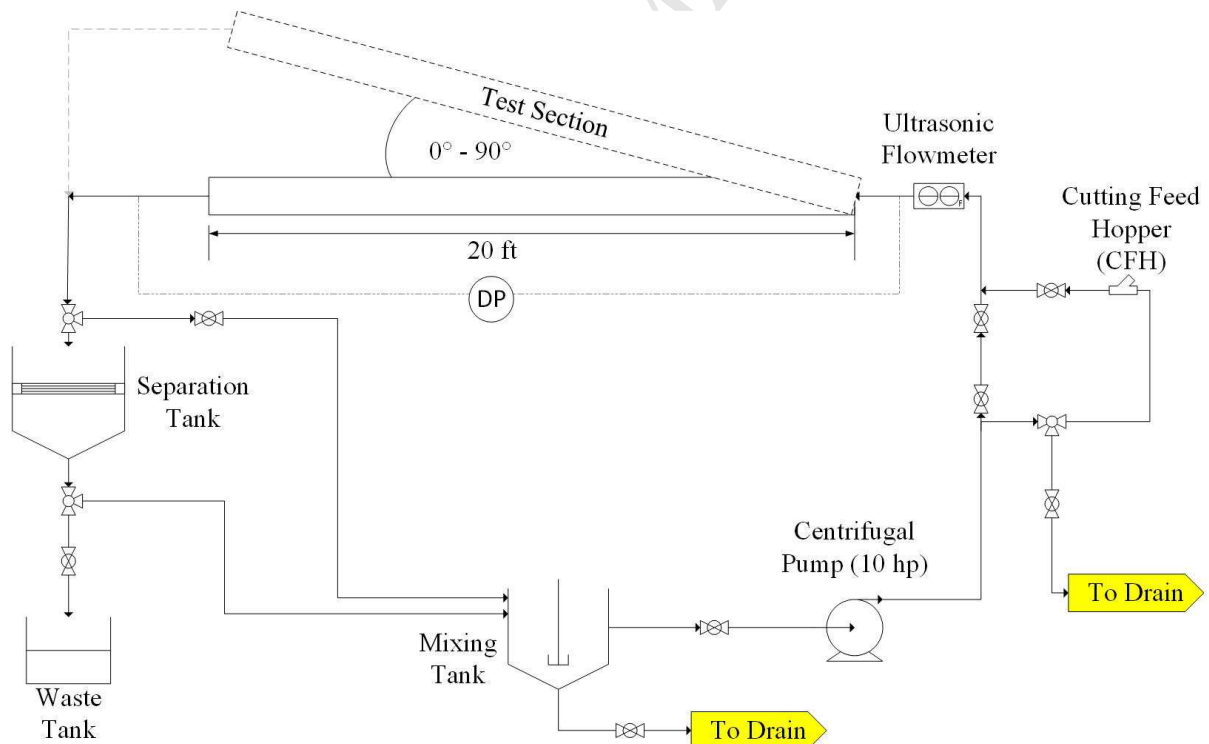
238

239 As shown in Figure 1, the 9 and 12 ppg muds were formulated in the mixing tank, before
 240 the 10-hp centrifugal pump circulated them through the flow loop. The flow regime remained
 241 turbulent at a velocity of 4.7 ft/s throughout the whole test section. Mud was circulated for
 242 five minutes, to ensure that the mud flows in a steady state mode, before cuttings were
 243 injected. After the steady state mode was achieved, mud with cuttings was allowed to
 244 circulate for another five minutes to ensure the cuttings were well distributed in the system.
 245 Then after, the separator valve was opened for seven minutes and the CTE measurement was
 246 obtained. There were no significant marginal differences in the CTE increment after that
 247 period. Thus seven minutes was used in all of the tests. The separation tank, separated
 248 transported cuttings and the cuttings transport efficiency (CTE) was obtained. Figure 3 shows
 249 the flow chart of the dynamic experimental procedure. To calculate the CTE, Equation (4)
 250 was used:

251

$$CTE = \frac{\text{Weight of recovered drilled cuttings}}{\text{Initial weight of injected drilled cuttings}} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

252

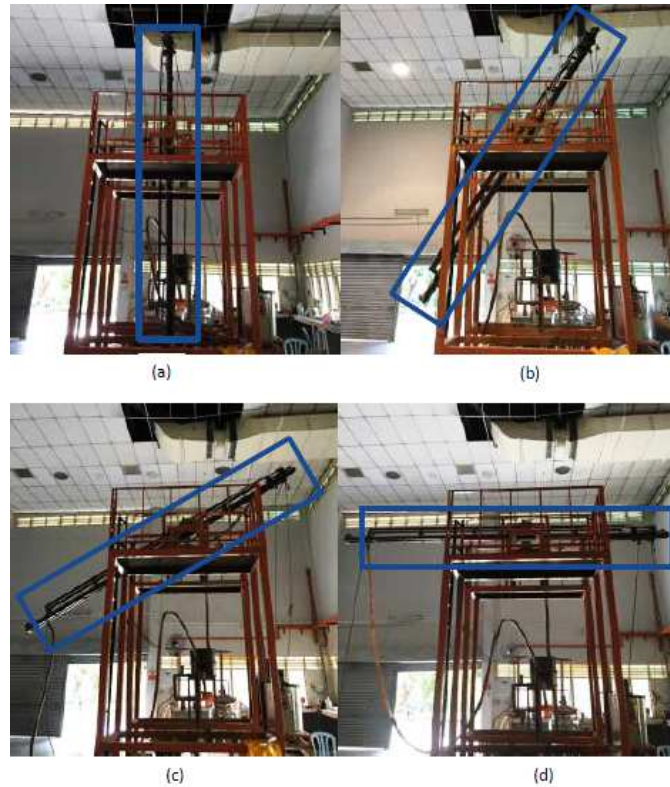


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Figure 1: Schematic diagram of flow loop simulator

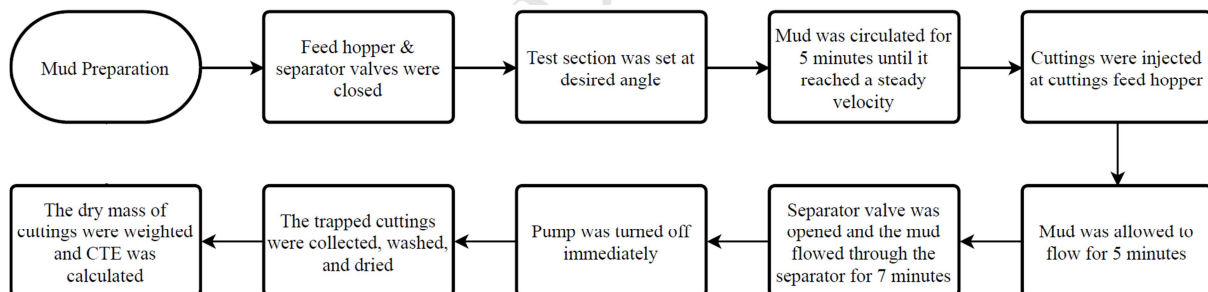


256

257 **Figure 2:** Flow loop simulator (a) Test section set to 0° (vertical), (b) Test section set to 30° ,
 258 (c) Test section set to 60° and (d) Test section set to 90° (horizontal)

259

260



261

262

263 **Figure 3:** Flow chart of the dynamic experimental procedure

264

265 2.4 *Cuttings preparation*

266 In this study, rocks with the density of 2.56 g/cc were used to generate drilled cuttings based
 267 on an ASTM standard method (ASTM D4253-00, 2006). Then, cuttings with a concentration
 268 of 1 vol% were added to the cuttings feed hopper, for each experiment. Four different sizes of
 269 simulated drilled cuttings, ranging from 1.40 to 4.00 mm as shown in Table 5, were used in
 270 our experiments. They were washed and dried thoroughly, before being separated into their
 271 groups, using a sieve shaker.

272
273
274
275

Table 5: Simulated drilled cuttings sizes

| Sand No. | Particle diameter, mm |
|----------|-----------------------|
| Sand 1 | 1.40 - 1.69 |
| Sand 2 | 1.70 - 1.99 |
| Sand 3 | 2.00 - 2.79 |
| Sand 4 | 2.80 - 4.00 |

276

277 3. Results and Discussion

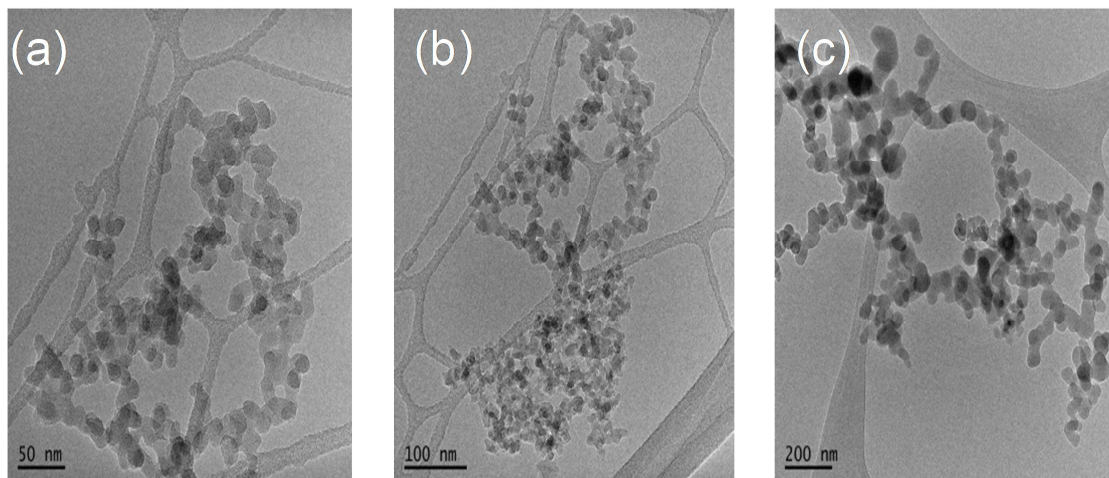
278 3.1 TEM images and zeta potential analysis of nanosilica

279 The silica nanoparticles used in this study were procured from Shanghai Honest Chem Co.,
280 Ltd with the CAS no.7631-86-9. Figure 4 shows the Transmission Electron Microscopy
281 (TEM) images of the 14 nm nanosilica with different concentrations in 100 ml solution of the
282 distilled water and 0.25 ppb of caustic soda. The nanosilica used in this study was spherical in
283 shape and, as shown in Figure 4, they are well dispersed without the need for long
284 ultrasonication.

285

286 Ultrasonication is one of the most common ways to disperse nanomaterials, yet this technique
287 may not always seem practical on a rig site, as a large volume of nanomaterials would require
288 a long time to be dispersed. Thus, practical solutions are needed to make this process feasible
289 for implementation. This study includes one of the easy ways to disperse hydrophilic
290 nanosilica, by increasing the pH level of the water to 12.6. This was achieved by mixing a 100
291 ml of distilled water (with drawn from the required total amount of water in Table 1 and 2)
292 with 0.25 ppb caustic soda. This solution was added before adding barite to the drilling fluid.
293 The dispersion of nanosilica was further confirmed by the zeta potential tests, as shown in
294 Table 6. According to data shown in Table 6, the values of the zeta potential of nanosilica in
295 aqueous solution, with 0.25 ppb caustic soda, demonstrate good dispersions. Experiments
296 were repeated three times, for each concentration of nanosilica. Sample number 1, 2 and 3
297 contained 0.5, 1 and 1.5 ppb of nanosilica respectively. As the concentration of nanosilica
298 increased from 0.5 to 1.0 ppb, the value of zeta potential remained stable, at over 30 mV. The
299 results indicated that, even at higher concentrations of nanosilica, the zeta potential remained
300 almost unchanged and its value was high (negative). This proved that hydrophilic silica
301 nanoparticles dispersed well, in an alkaline solution with no requirement of ultrasonication or

302 chemical treatments, that are not practical in field applications. The final pH values of the
 303 drilling fluids were within the range of 11.5 to 12.0.



304

305 **Figure 4:** TEM Images of nanosilica in aqueous solution with different concentrations: (a)
 306 0.5 ppb, (b) 1.0 ppb, (c) 1.5 ppb

307 **Table 6:** zeta potential for different concentrations of nanosilica

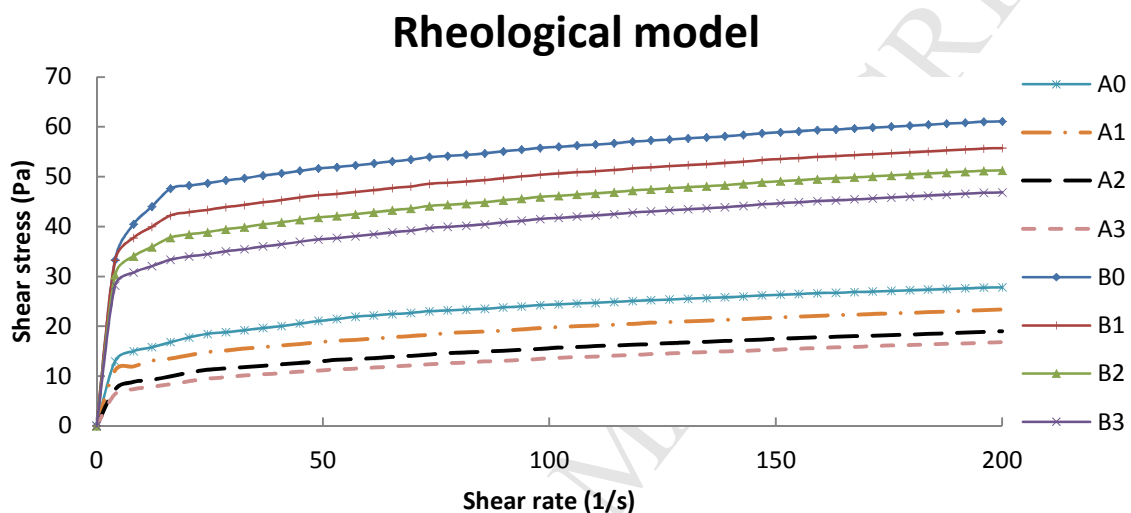
308

| Sample No. | Sample type | T (°C) | ZP (mV) |
|------------|------------------------------------|--------|---------|
| 1 | Water + caustic soda + Nano 0.5ppb | 25 | -42.2 |
| 2 | Water + caustic soda + Nano 1.0ppb | 25 | -43.4 |
| 3 | Water + caustic soda + Nano 1.5ppb | 25 | -44.0 |

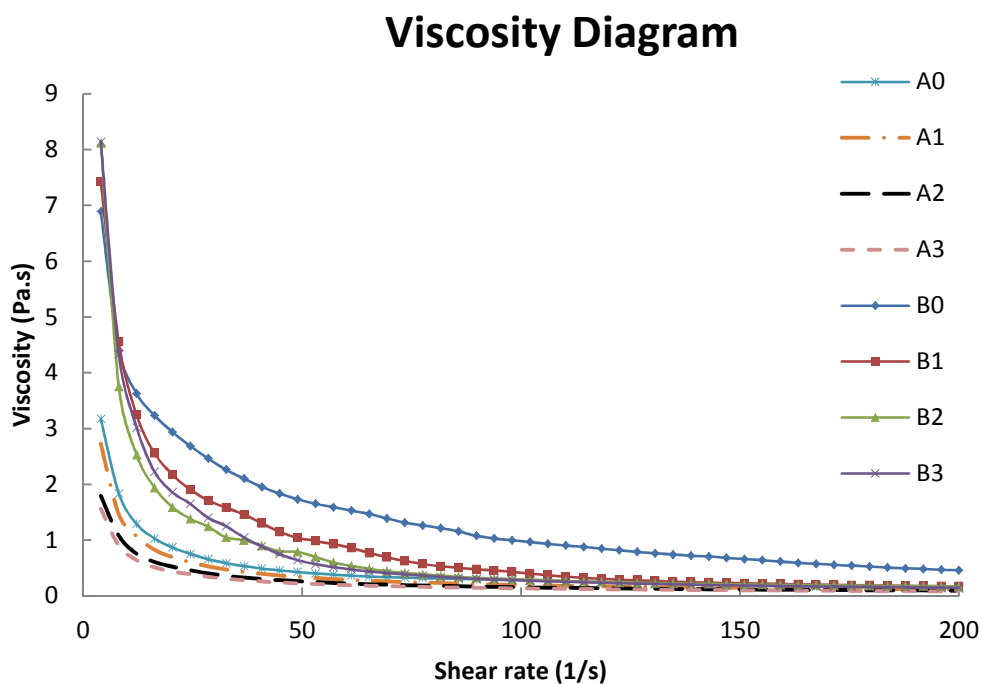
312 3.2 Rheological model

313 To understand the behaviour of a drilling fluid and its carrying capacity, a relationship
 314 between shear rate and shear stress is needed. Drilling fluids are non-Newtonian fluids; this
 315 means that there is a non-linear relationship between the shear stress and shear rate. As shown
 316 in Figure 5, drilling fluids, with the density of 9 ppg, have lower shear stress when compared
 317 to the higher density muds, 12 ppg. This is because the 12 ppg drilling fluids are heavier than
 318 9 ppg drilling fluids, thus requiring a higher force to sustain fluid flow, i.e., heavier muds
 319 require higher pump pressure. Figure 5 also shows that, with increasing the concentration of
 320 nanosilica, the shear stress reduces in both 9 and 12 ppg drilling fluids. As the concentration
 321 of nanosilica was increased from 0 to 1.5 ppb in 9 ppg drilling fluids, the shear stress was
 322 reduced to between 16 to 39.6 %. A similar trend was observed in 12 ppg drilling fluids,
 323 where the shear stress reduced between 8.7 to 23.2 % by increasing the concentration of
 324 nanosilica. This confirms that the addition of nanosilica into water-based drilling fluids could
 325 reduce the pump pressure required for mud circulation in drilling operations, especially when

326 heavy mud is needed to drill deep formations. The rheological model, developed from our
 327 measurements, suggests that nano-enhanced drilling fluids in our study behave as a Power
 328 Law model. Figure 6 shows a decrease in viscosity, as the shear rate was increased, in all the
 329 experiments. This is consistent with the behaviour of a non-Newtonian pseudo-plastic fluid,
 330 which is also known as shear- thinning behaviour of fluids. As the shear rate reaches zero,
 331 drilling fluid thickens (increase in viscosity) and possesses the ability to suspend cuttings
 332 while drilling operations are halted.
 333



334
 335 **Figure 5:** Shear stress vs shear rate of different drilling fluids
 336



337
 338 **Figure 6:** Viscosity vs shear rate of different drilling fluids

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340
341

3.3 *Rheological properties and filtration loss*

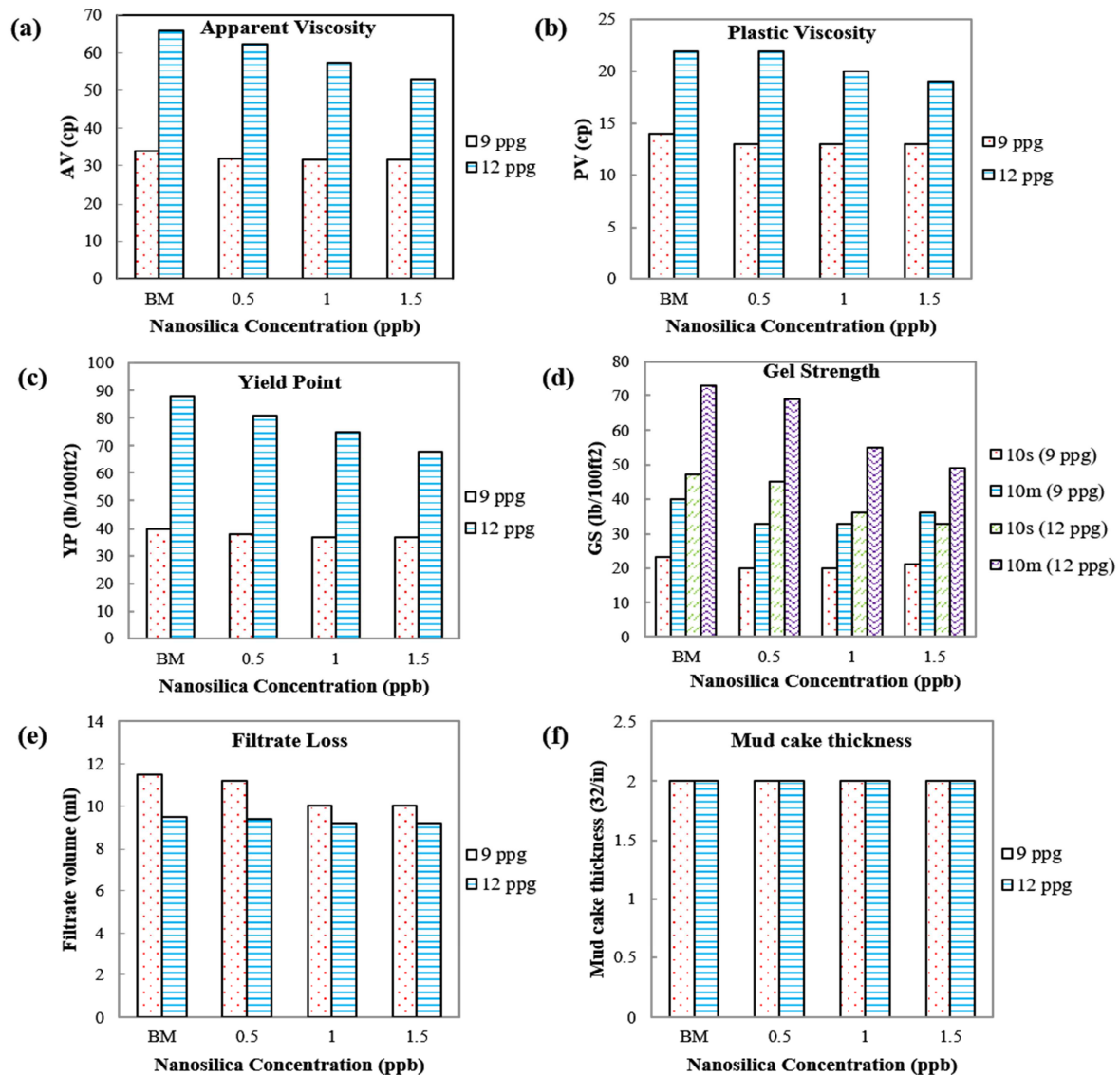
342 Other rheological tests on water-based mud were conducted to predict their performance in
343 cuttings transportation. These rheological properties are shown in Figure 7. As shown in
344 Figure 7(a), the apparent viscosity (AV) which is known as the ratio of shear stress to shear
345 rate of a fluid, for both 9 and 12 ppg drilling fluids, decreases, by increasing the concentration
346 of nanosilica. When the concentration of nanosilica in the 9 ppg drilling fluids was increased
347 from 0 to 1.5 ppb, the AV was decreased, between 5.9 to 7.2%. Similarly, for the 12 ppg
348 drilling fluids, the AV values decreased between 5.3 to 19.7% as the concentration of
349 nanosilica was increased. Figure 7(b) shows the plastic viscosity (PV), for both 9 and 12 ppg
350 drilling fluids, where PV values decreased with the increase in nanosilica concentration. The
351 PV of the 9 ppg drilling fluids decreased by 7.1%, by adding 0.5 ppb of nanosilica. As the
352 concentration of nanosilica was increased to 1.5 ppb, the PV remained the same, at 13 cp. The
353 PV for 12 ppg muds, on the other hand, showed a slight decrease, from 22 to 19 cp, which is
354 equivalent to 13.6 % reduction. These reductions are because of the distribution of nanosilica
355 in the drilling fluid; they reduce the internal friction between molecules, hence decreasing the
356 AV and PV. This means that the introduction of nanosilica lowers the resistance of the
357 drilling fluid to deformation, under shear stress.

358
359 Addition of nanoparticles decreased the yield point (YP) values as demonstrated in Figure
360 7(c). Furthermore, it shows that the 12 ppg drilling fluids have a higher reduction in the YP
361 values, compared to the 9 ppg drilling fluids. The YP values for 12 ppg drilling fluids were
362 generally higher than the reported values for the 9 ppg drilling fluids, because, as density
363 increases, there is a higher resistance for initial flow of the fluid. Addition of nanosilica could
364 reduce the required pump pressure, through reducing the resistance for initial flow of the
365 fluid. Increasing the concentration of nanosilica from 0.5 to 1.5 ppb resulted in a reduction in
366 the YP of the 9 ppg drilling fluids between 5 to 7.5 %, and this reduction for the 12 ppg
367 drilling fluids was between 7.9 to 22.7%. The decreasing trends of AV, PV, and YP, with an
368 increase in the concentration of nanosilica, were consistent with the observations reported by
369 Smith et al. (2018).

370
371 Figure 7(d) shows that the gel strength (GS) values for the 9 and 12 ppg drilling fluids were
372 decreased, as the concentration of nanosilica was increased. The 12 ppg drilling fluids have

373 higher gel strengths, compared to the 9 ppg drilling fluids, because there are higher fractions
374 of inert solids (barite), which means that attractive forces (gelation) are higher. Increased
375 amounts of barite decrease the distance between particles in drilling fluids; therefore, higher
376 solid concentrations in drilling fluids would lead to excessive gelation and flocculation. The
377 12 ppg basic drilling fluid had a large difference in 10 seconds and 10 minutes gel strength
378 values. This means that the 12 ppg basic drilling fluid had progressive gels that are
379 unfavourable. The progressive gels occur when there is a high gel strength development with
380 time. The GS should not be much higher than necessary, but high enough to suspend the
381 cuttings, especially at critical angles. According to the results in this study, the 12 ppg drilling
382 fluids with 1.0 and 1.5 ppb nanosilica concentrations satisfy the good suspensions of cuttings
383 at highly deviated wells, while the difference between 10 seconds and 10 minutes gels are not
384 too high.

385
386 The other rheological property reported in this study is the mud filtrate volume. as shown in
387 Figure 7(e). The filtrate volumes for the 9 ppg drilling fluids were higher than the 12 ppg
388 drilling fluids, because a higher particle size distribution in heavier mud can provide a better
389 sealing through the mud cakes. As the concentration of nanosilica was increased, there were
390 no significant improvements in filtrate volume for drilling fluids tested in this study. This was
391 probably because when nanosilica plugged the pore spaces of the filter paper, water was still
392 able to seep through the hydrophilic layer of nanosilica, which provided a pathway for water
393 to escape. The mud- cake thickness for all the drilling fluids are shown in Figure 7(f), where
394 there was no significant difference observed, with increasing the concentrations of nanosilica.
395



396
 397 **Figure 7:** Rheological properties of the 9 and 12 ppg drilling fluids with different
 398 concentrations of nanosilica (a) Apparent Viscosity, (b) Plastic Viscosity, (c) Yield Point, (d)
 399 Gel Strength (10 seconds and 10 minutes), (e) Filtrate volume and (f) Mud cake thickness
 400

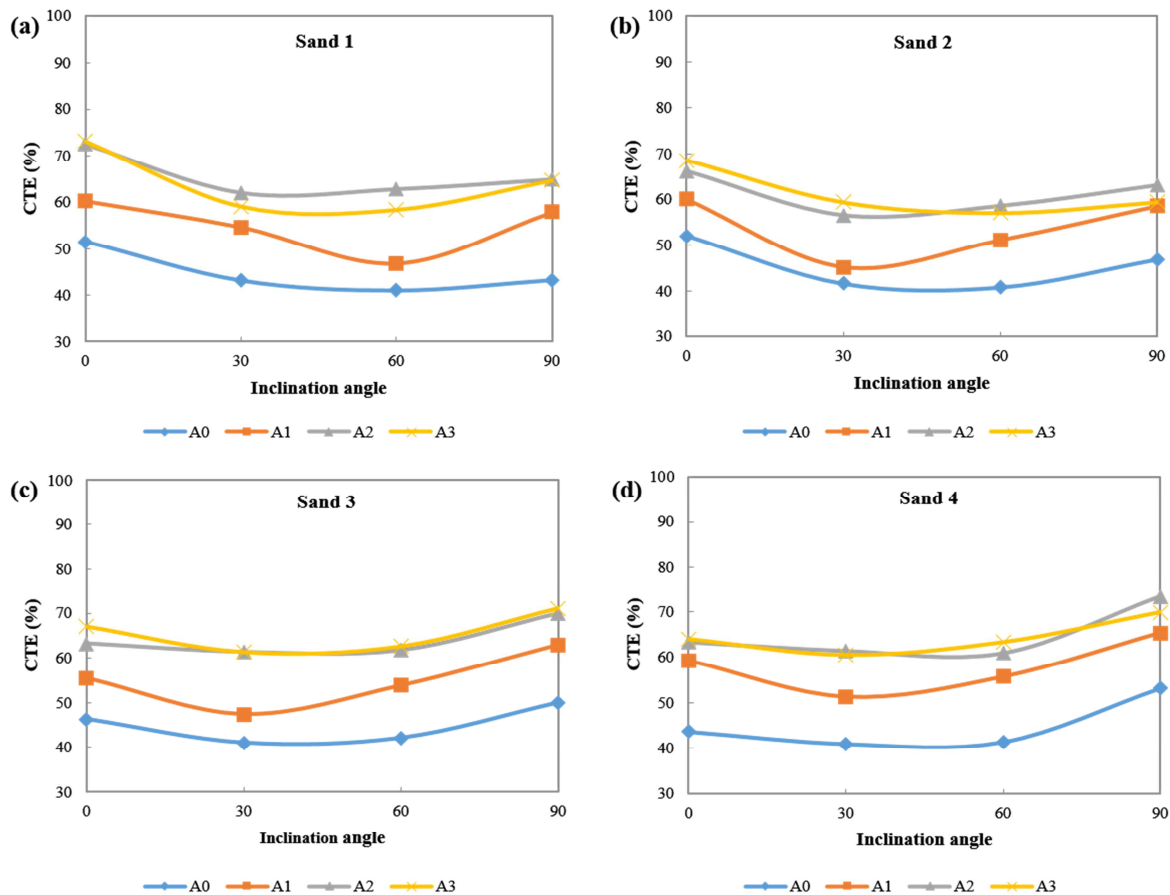
401 3.4 Cuttings transport efficiency (CTE)

402 3.4.1 Effect of inclination angle on the CTE with no drill pipe rotation

403 The calculated CTEs for different drilling fluids, through our experimental set up, are shown
 404 in Figures 8-9. Based on Figure 8, the same CTE trends were observed, for all cuttings sizes.
 405 The lowest CTE was observed at critical angles between 30° to 60°. The drilling fluid with
 406 the composition of A0 performed the least, while A2 and A3 performed superior for all
 407 cuttings sizes. It was also observed that drilling fluids were able to lift smaller cuttings more
 408 efficiently in vertical wellbores, while they lifted larger cuttings better in horizontal
 409 wellbores. Based on Figure 9, there is a significant reduction in the CTE for 12 ppg drilling

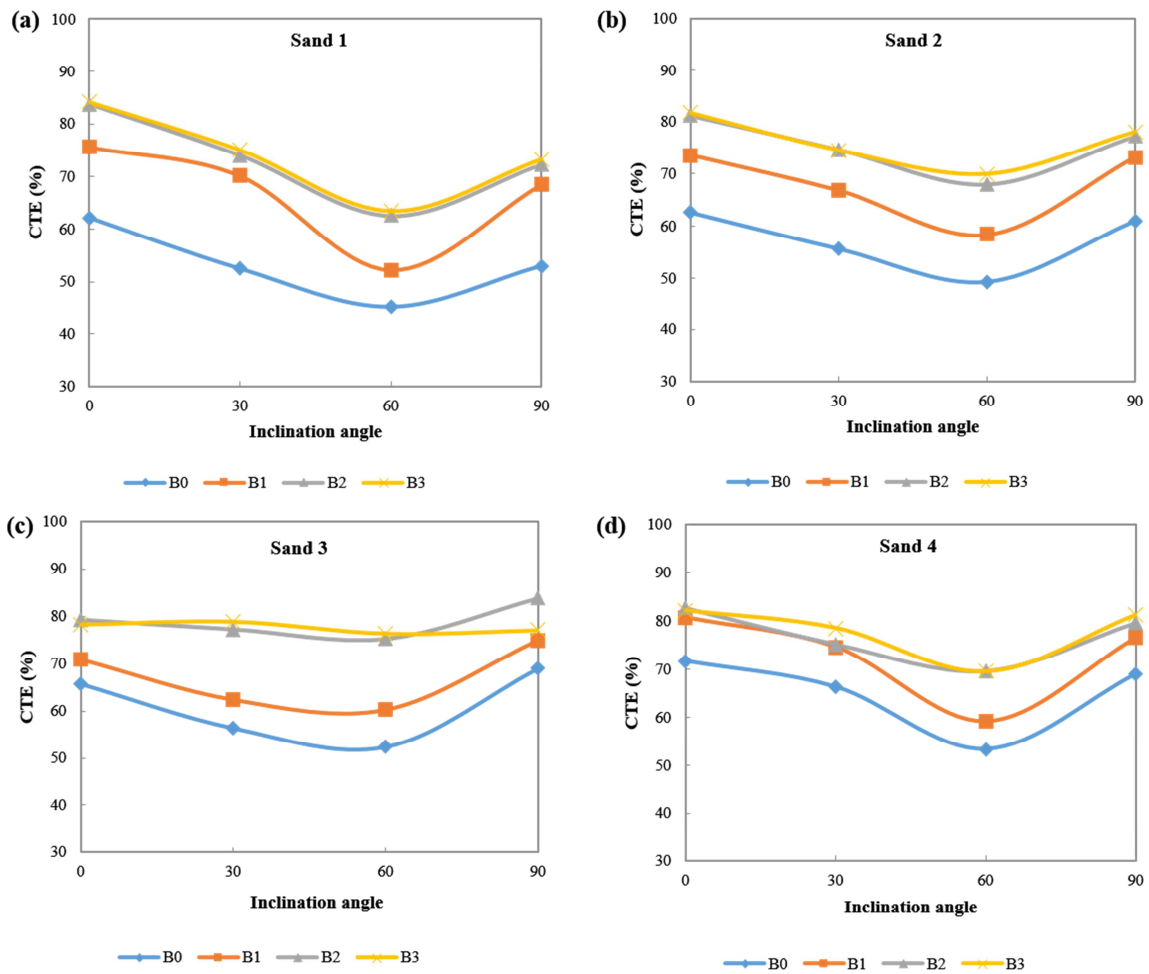
410 fluids at 60° angles, for all cuttings sizes. At this critical angle, B0 and B1 produced lower
 411 CTEs, compared to drilling fluids with nanosilica concentrations of 1.0 and 1.5 ppb. This
 412 proved that drilling fluids with 1.0 and 1.5 ppb nanosilica concentrations were able to
 413 improve the CTE at all inclinations, for different cuttings sizes. Drilling fluids with nanosilica
 414 concentrations of 1.0 and 1.5 ppb (B2 and B3 respectively) showed there was no significant
 415 difference in their CTEs, at different inclinations.

416 The introduction of nanosilica offers a wide distribution of particles in the mud. When mud
 417 flows upwards in the annulus at a turbulent rate, the presence of nanosilica provides a better
 418 interaction with cuttings and enhanced colloidal forces. The movement of nanosilica in the
 419 mud follows the flow direction of the mud. As the flow transports nanosilica and cuttings
 420 toward the surface at a turbulent rate, the interparticle interactions between nanosilica and
 421 cuttings are increased (Figure 10). Nanosilica particles are extremely light and possess high
 422 surface area to volume ratio characteristics that increase drag and lift forces on cuttings to
 423 overcome gravitational and cohesion forces, which further enhances cuttings transportation
 424 efficiency.

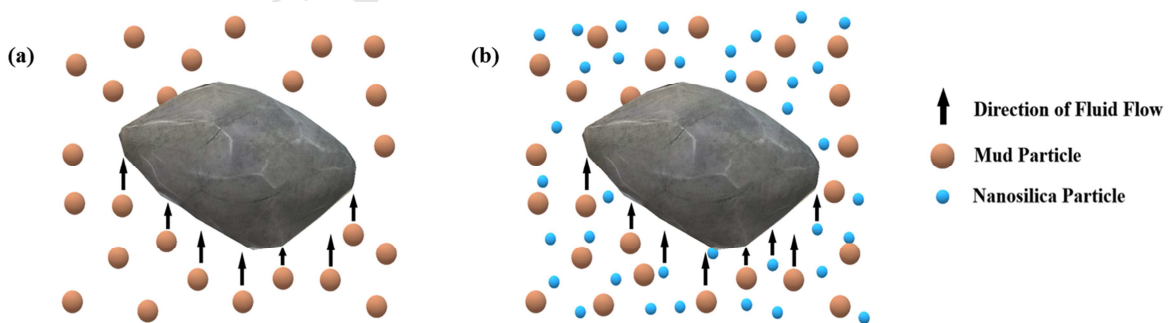


425
 426 **Figure 8:** The CTEs of the 9 ppb drilling fluids transporting different cuttings sizes: (a) 1.40-

427 1.69 mm, (b) 1.70-1.99 mm, (c) 2.00-2.79 mm, and (d) 2.80-4.00 mm at different inclination
 428 angles with no pipe rotation
 429



430
 431 **Figure 9:** The CTEs of the 12 ppg drilling fluids transporting different cuttings sizes: (a)
 432 1.40-1.69 mm, (b) 1.70-1.99 mm, (c) 2.00-2.79 mm, and (d) 2.80-4.00 mm at different
 433 inclination angles with no pipe rotation
 434

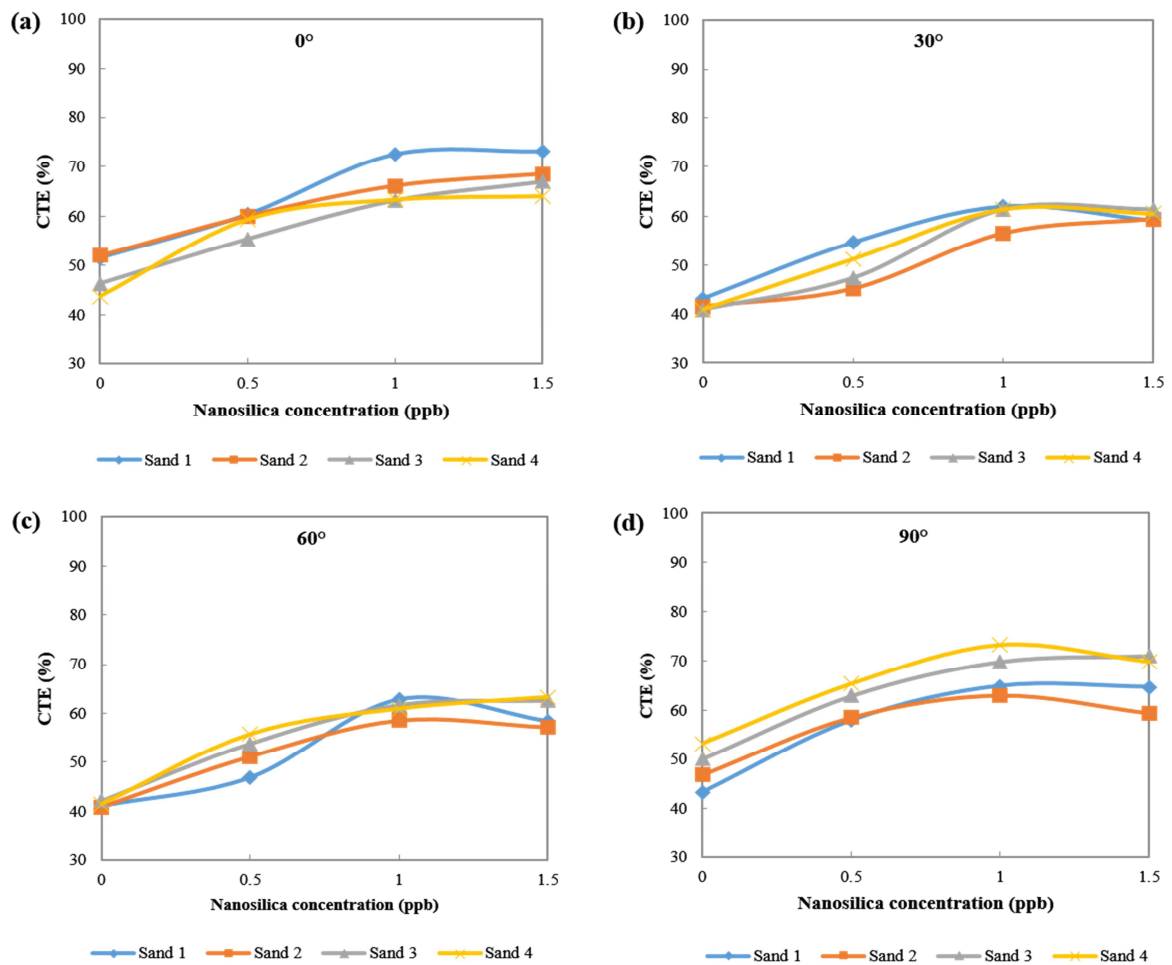


435
 436 **Figure 10:** Distribution of particles in flowing mud: (a) Basic mud and (b) Mud with
 437 nanosilica
 438

439 3.4.2 Effect of the concentration of nanosilica on the CTE with no drill pipe rotation

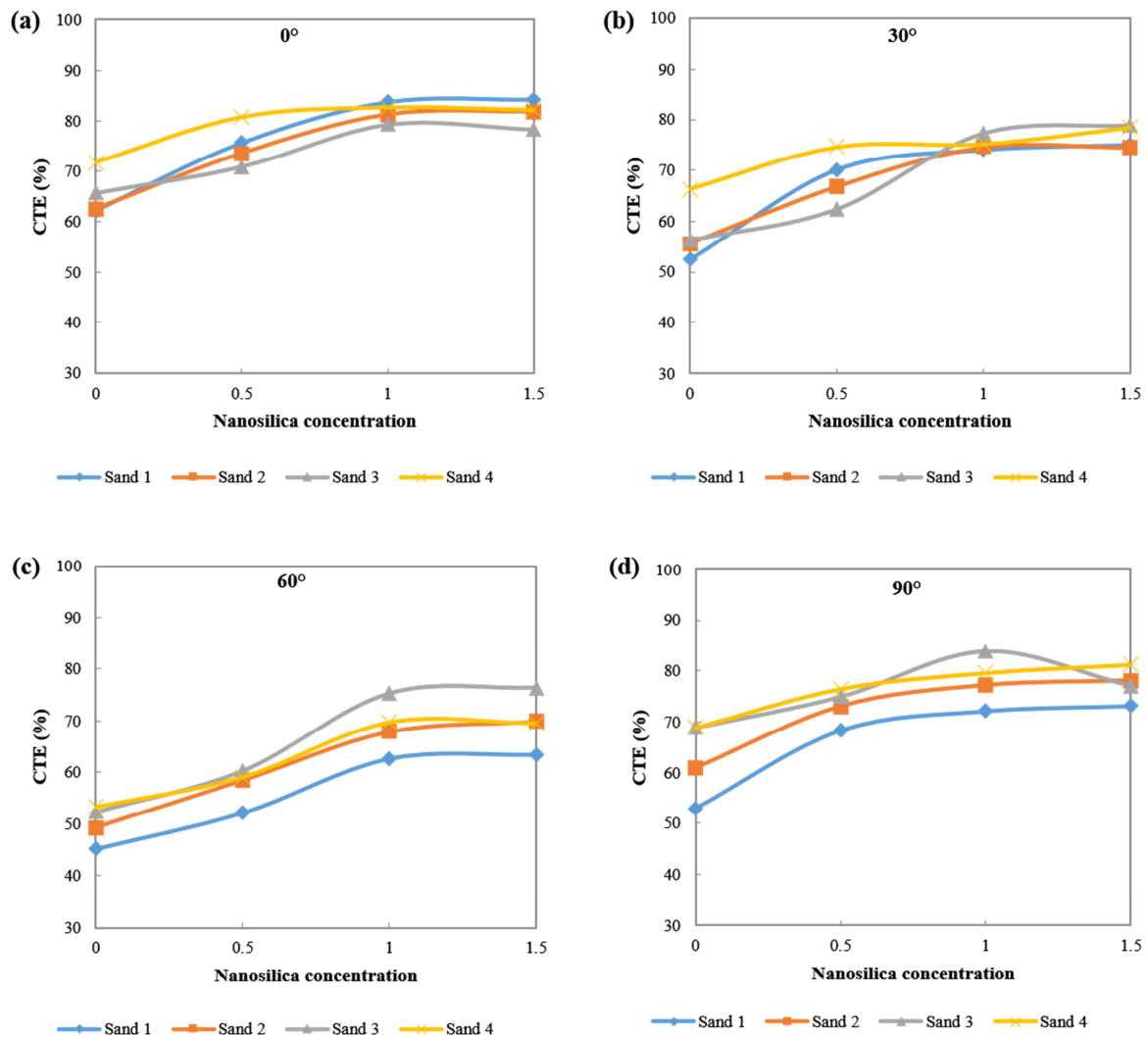
440 To understand the effect of the nanosilica concentration on the CTE improvements, we
441 separately compared the CTEs, for each inclination angle. Figure 11 shows that Sand 1 was
442 the easiest cuttings size to be transported in a vertical wellbore, using drilling fluids with the
443 nanosilica concentrations of 1.0 and 1.5 ppb. However, in the horizontal wellbore, the largest
444 cuttings (2.80-4.00 mm) were the easiest to be transported, with nanosilica concentrations of
445 1.0 and 1.5 ppb. Results showed that for the 9 ppg drilling fluids with the nanosilica
446 concentration of 1.0 and 1.5 ppb, the CTEs were improved at critical angles (30° to 60°),
447 between 17 to 21%.

448
449 Furthermore, observations from Figure 12 confirms that the 12 ppg drilling fluids performed
450 better when compared to the 9 ppg drilling fluids, especially in critical angles where the CTEs
451 between 45.2-78.5% were reported. According to Figures 11 and 12, increasing the
452 concentration of nanosilica improves the cuttings transport efficiency, for all cases of drilling
453 fluids, in different inclination angles and cuttings sizes. It can be concluded that, at 1.0 ppb
454 nanosilica concentration, the CTEs reach a plateau, where further increases in the nanosilica
455 concentration produce minimal effects. In addition, the pressure drop readings during the
456 experiments showed that there was between 9 to 12.3% reduction in the pressure drop, after
457 the addition of 1.0 ppb of nanosilica. Therefore, 1.0 ppb nanosilica concentration was the
458 optimum concentration, and further increases in nanosilica concentration would not have an
459 effect on the CTE.



460

461 **Figure 11:** The CTEs of the 9 ppg mud with different concentrations of nanosilica at different
 462 inclination angles: (a) 0°, (b) 30°, (c) 60°, and (d) 90° with no drill pipe rotation



463

464 **Figure 12:** The CTEs of the 12 ppg mud with different concentrations of nanosilica at
 465 different inclination angles (a) 0° (b) 30° (c) 60° and (d) 90° with zero drill pipe rotation
 466

467

467 3.4.3 The CTE for optimum concentration of nanosilica with 150 rpm drill pipe rotation

468

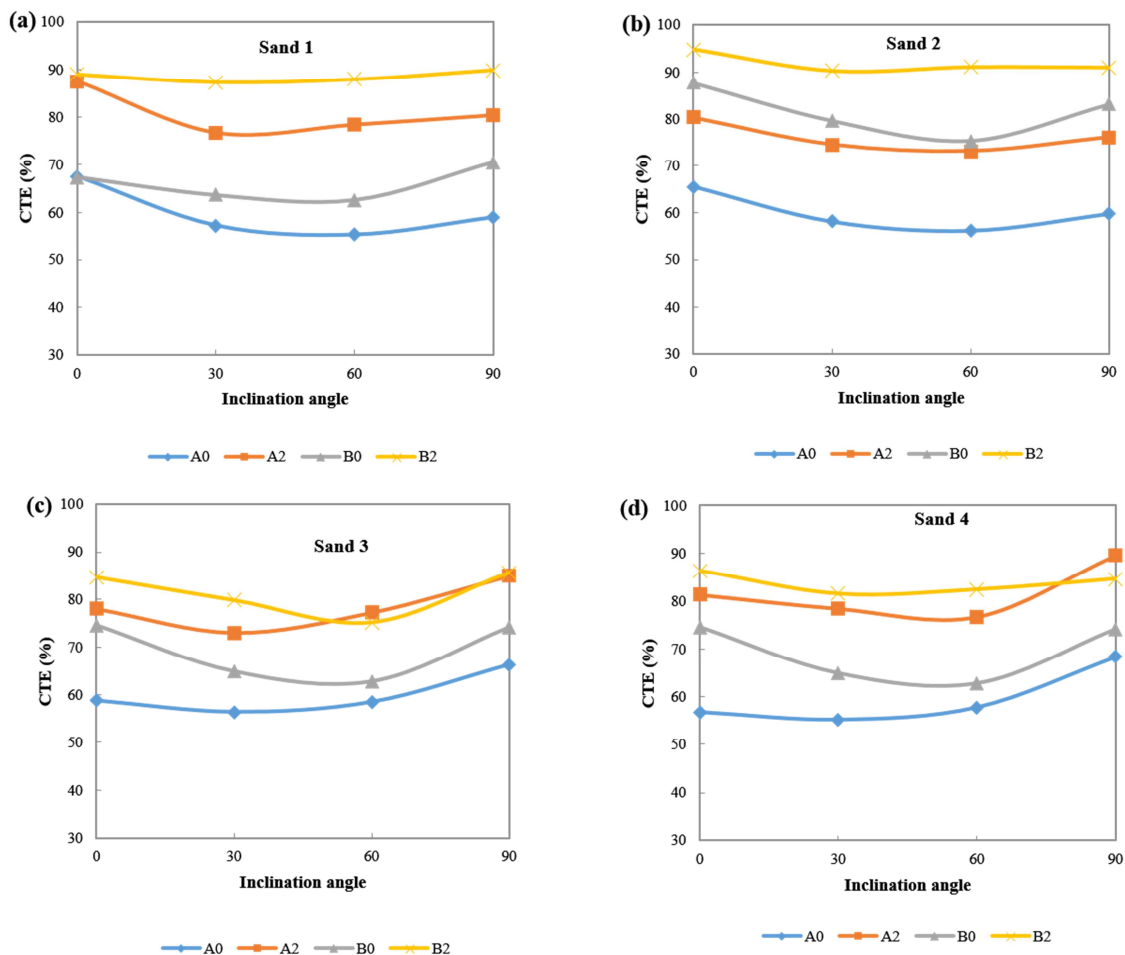
469 Pipe rotation is one of the main factors that contribute to a higher CTE. This is because the
 470 pipe rotation introduces centrifugal force within the annulus, which can assist the
 471 transportation of cuttings up to the surface. Therefore, we used the optimum nanosilica
 472 concentrations (A2 and B2) and compared the CTEs with basic muds in the flow loop system,
 473 with a rotational speed of 150 rpm. Based on the results shown in Figure 13 (a), drilling fluids
 474 with 1.0 ppb nanosilica concentration performed superior to the basic muds, because CTEs
 475 between 76-90% could be achieved, whereby using the basic muds, the measured CTEs were
 476 between 55-70%. This finding is in accordance with the findings of Duan et al. (2008) and Li
 477 et al. (2010), where they highlighted that the pipe rotation has a significant impact on the
 478 hole- cleaning process, especially for small cuttings sizes.

479 Analyses of the nano-enhanced drilling fluids in this study, when considering the whole
 480 ranges of cuttings sizes and borehole angles, show that applying the rotational speed of the
 481 pipe can produce a CTE range between 75-95%.

482

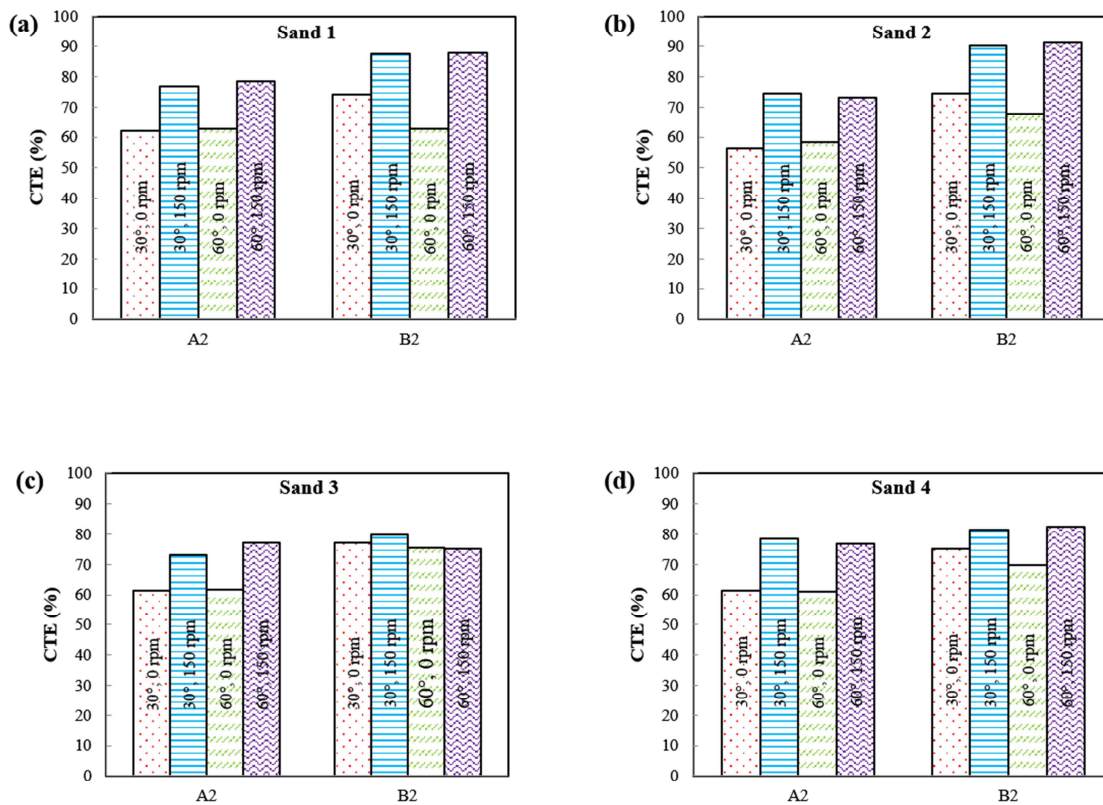
483 It should be noted that these improvements are a combined effect of the pipe rotation and
 484 nano-enhanced drilling fluids. Figure 14 compares the effect of pipe rotation on the CTEs at
 485 critical angles. It shows that, for drilling fluids with the optimum concentration of nanosilica,
 486 and for both densities of 9 and 12 ppg, the pipe rotation improved the CTEs by 18 and 25.4%,
 487 respectively. There was also a decrease in pressure drop, in the range of 15 to 18.3%, when
 488 pipe rotation of 150 rpm was present. Therefore, in hole- cleaning designs, the rotational
 489 speed of drill string needs to be considered, to predict the performance of drilling fluids in
 490 cuttings removal processes.

491



492

493 **Figure 13:** The CTEs of the 9 and 12 ppg mud transporting different cuttings sizes: (a) 1.40-
 494 1.69 mm, (b) 1.70-1.99 mm, (c) 2.00-2.79 mm, and (d) 2.80-4.00 mm at different inclination
 495 angles with 150 rpm pipe rotation



496
 497 **Figure 14:** The CTE improvements of mud with optimum concentration of nanosilica with
 498 150 rpm pipe rotation for different cuttings sizes: (a) 1.40-1.69 mm, (b) 1.70-1.99 mm, (c)
 499 2.00-2.79 mm, and (d) 2.80-4.00 mm at critical angles

500
 501 **4. Conclusions**

502 In this study, we investigated the effect of nanosilica on the cuttings transport efficiency
 503 (CTE) in vertical and deviated wells. Two typical densities of drilling fluids were considered
 504 to test the removal of four different sizes of cuttings, from downhole to the surface, in a flow
 505 loop that simulated flow in the annulus of a well. This research demonstrated that the addition
 506 of nanosilica into water-based muds could provide a good alternative for oil-based muds in
 507 directional drilling operations. The presence of nanosilica was able to reduce the AV, PV, YP,
 508 and GS, especially for high mud weights, which would significantly reduce the required pump
 509 pressure during drilling, without compromising sufficient rheological properties for cuttings
 510 removal. This is because nanosilica introduced a wide range of particles size distribution in
 511 the mud and increased colloidal interactions, when the mud was flowing. Furthermore, we
 512 found that nanosilica increased the CTEs in all inclinations, especially at critical angles. The
 513 CTEs at critical angles (30° and 60°) increased between 14.9 - 21.7 and 8.9 – 23, for the 9 and

514 12 ppg drilling fluids, respectively. Further extra improvements in the CTEs (improvements
515 between 16.3- 23.2 and 10.7- 25.4, for the 9 and 12 ppg muds compared to the basic mud)
516 were observed, when a pipe rotation of 150 rpm was applied. This supports the use of nano-
517 enhanced water-based drilling fluids, for extended reach and deep water drilling operations,
518 where efficient hole- cleaning processes are vital.

519

520 **Recommendations for Future Work**

521 This research only limits its findings to the turbulent flow conditions in a concentric pipe.
522 Pipe eccentricity is an important factor to be considered, especially in deviated sections.
523 Future work should include pipe eccentricity along with other variables as part of a dynamic
524 test study.

525

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534

535 **Conflicts of Interest**

536 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

537

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Highlights

- Hole cleaning is a critical issue in directional drilling due to the formation of cuttings beds
- Nano-enhanced drilling fluids can improve the performance of hole cleaning process
- Optimum concentration of nanosilica was found through analysis of the rheological properties of drilling fluids
- Combined effects of drill string rotation and nanosilica mud improved the cuttings transport efficiency up to 25% in deviated wells