Analysis of in situ combustion of oil with pyrolysis and vaporization

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Abstract

We study one-dimensional flows, when air is injected into a porous medium filled with inert gas, medium or high viscosity oil and water, giving rise to a combustion wave in a process known as high-temperature oxidation (HTO). In the oil we distinguish three pseudo-components: asphaltenes, medium and light oil. At high temperatures, the heaviest components (“precoke”) are converted to coke, which undergoes combustion. Medium oil components are cracked at intermediate temperatures releasing gaseous oil. Light oil components and water are vaporized. The oxidation rate of gaseous oil components is negligible. Combustion regimes are described in the form of a sequence of waves. We develop a simple mathematical model for the combustion process leading to maximal energy accumulation were investigated in [22].

1. Introduction

There is renewed interest in developing methods to recover “difficult oil”. One of the options to recover medium viscosity oil, i.e., oil with a viscosity lower than 10⁶ [cP], is the application of air injection [1–7]. It is proposed that the oxygen in the air burns the heavier components of oil, generating a heat wave leading to cracking and vaporization of lighter components. Studying a one dimensional version of this flow would reveal some mechanisms in the combustion process. Even in 1-D this is not a trivial problem, because combustion, cracking, etc., occur in regions with narrow width, leading to a tough multi-scale problem [8–12]. For this reason it is useful to develop analytical models that can be used to validate numerical results and for assessing the risk of oxygen breakthrough [13,14]. A serious hazard in the application of this technique.

Note that in petroleum field applications of in situ combustion heat losses are very small. However, they may become significant in laboratory experiments. The effect of heat losses for coke combustion was studied in [23]. Heat losses also prevent unlimited increase of temperature in the resonance regime [20].

A wave structure analysis within a narrow combustion layer is necessary, which represents the major mathematical difficulty. The typical approach uses a sheet approximation for the reaction region, e.g., [24], or large activation energy asymptotic expansion, e.g., [15]. Reaction-leading or reaction-trailing wave structures are usually identified, which correspond to complete fuel or complete oxygen consumption in the reaction for our problem. Additional physical processes may influence the combustion, e.g., multiple reactions [25–29], effects of solid conversion [30], gas-solid nonequilibrium [24], and vaporization of liquid (water) initially present in the reservoir [31] or injected with air [32,33]. Similar analyses have been applied in problems of polymerization [34,35] and smoldering of polyurethane foam, e.g., [36].

We analyse a three pseudo-component model for crude oil in situ combustion presented in [14]. The pseudo-components are distinguished according to the types of reaction in which they participate, viz., HTO, cracking and vaporization. The gas phase contains oxygen, gaseous oil, steam, combustion products (carbon dioxide) and inert gas, e.g., N₂. In some combustion regimes, oxygen may be present in the gas together with gaseous light oil, potentially leading to oxidation. However, the oxidation in the gaseous phase can be ignored in
in situ combustion applications; this reaction is suppressed because of small pore size. Such a model allows describing the internal structure of the combustion wave relative to HTO, cracking and vaporization, which is our contribution.

We approximate the solution of the combustion process as a sequence of thermal and combustion waves traveling with constant speeds and separated by a constant state (hot) region in between. In this paper we take the reservoir state ahead of the sequence of waves as given. Otherwise, one would require an extension of the present model to include flow, condensation and slow oxidation reactions in the reservoir at relatively low temperatures, which is a separate problem. Based on a large activation energy asymptotic approach, we develop a simplified method for the analysis of combustion waves. It allows a simple mathematical pathway providing a series of analytical expressions for in situ combustion.

Using this method, we derive explicit formulae for the dependent variables in the waves and classify possible combustion regimes. As in previous studies (e.g., [15,24,32]), we distinguish the reaction-leading and reaction-trailing structures. For both structures, our method allows to identify a relatively wide range of parameters, corresponding to essentially complete consumption of both oxygen and coke in the HTO reaction. We also describe in detail the structure of the cracking region, and estimate the effect of oil vaporization. Stability of the resulting solutions is studied analytically.

The structure of the paper is as follows. Section 2 describes the model and the reduction of its equations to a dimensionless form. In Section 3, we study combustion solutions with a reaction-leading wave sequence, i.e., where the HTO reaction occurs at the upstream part of the sequence. Section 4 studies solutions with a reaction-trailing wave sequence. In Section 5 we give stability conditions for the solutions obtained. Section 6 presents the results of numerical calculations with typical reservoir data for in situ combustion. We end with some conclusions. The Appendices provide the study of the cracking layer in more detail and the stability analysis of steady combustion waves.

2. Model

Models of in situ combustion in oil reservoirs have several properties distinguishing them from smoldering problems in other environments like polyurethane foams, SHS, etc. The usual set of assumptions includes (see, e.g., [23]): large volumetric rock heat capacity, limited fuel availability in certain cases, small pore sizes suppressing reactions in the gas phase, small heat radiation effects in the rock, large prevailing pressures with small relative variations, small changes of porosity and permeability in the combustion process, and small heat losses.

The subject of our study are flows possessing a combustion wave when a gaseous oxidizer (air) is injected into a porous medium, a rock cylinder thermally insulated preventing lateral heat losses and filled with gas, some crude (medium viscosity) oil, and water. The case of forward combustion when the ignition occurs at the injection side is considered. In our study of combustion, the mobility of any components other than gas will be ignored, because it is assumed that the speed of the reaction wave exceeds substantially the speed of any liquids.

Oil consists of multiple components: asphaltenes, volatiles, saturates, aromatics, resins, etc. We will consider a reaction scheme comprising high-temperature oxidation (HTO), cracking and vaporization. The oil components will be grouped accordingly into three pseudo-components called pre coke, medium and light oil.

Precoke includes the heaviest (asphaltenic) components, which are converted to coke at high temperatures, releasing gaseous hydrocarbons. The gaseous mass and heat exchanges in this process are small and can be neglected, so we include coke into the same pre coke pseudo-component. We describe pre coke in terms of the corresponding carbon concentration \( n_h \). The combustion of coke in the presence of oxygen (HTO) gives rise to the highest temperatures present in the combustion process. We model HTO as a single reaction

\[
C + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2. \tag{2.1}
\]

The lighter components, which are vaporized ahead of the combustion layer, are grouped into the light oil pseudo-component with concentration \( n_v \). If water is present, we include it into the \( n_v \) component. The remaining parts form a medium oil pseudo-component with concentration \( n_c \). As temperature increases, the medium oil cracks into lighter components, which are released as vapor. The concentrations \( n_h, n_c, n_v \) are expressed in terms of \([\text{kg/m}^3]\) of porous medium.

Transport of oil by convection is disregarded, as explained above. Therefore, it is possible to write the rate of change of the
oil concentrations in terms of the reaction rates $W$ [kg/m$^3$s] as follows

$$\frac{\partial n_s}{\partial t} = -W_h, \quad \frac{\partial n_t}{\partial t} = -W_c, \quad \frac{\partial n_v}{\partial t} = -W_v. \quad (2.2)$$

As to the gas composition, we distinguish between the molar fraction $Y$ of oxygen and the remaining non-reactive gas fraction $1 - Y$, which consists of vaporized oil, steam, combustion products and initial inert gas. The mass balance equations for the gas fractions are

$$\varphi \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (1 - Y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (1 - Y) \rho u = \frac{W_h}{M_h} + \frac{W_c}{M_c} + \frac{W_v}{M_v}, \quad (2.3)$$

$$\varphi \frac{\partial Y}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} Y \rho u = -\frac{W_h}{M_h}, \quad (2.4)$$

with a constant rock porosity $\varphi$ and gas density $\rho = P_{\text{out}} / RT$. Pressure variations are assumed to be small, so we take $P_{\text{out}} = \text{const}$. We ignored diffusion in (2.3), (2.4). For the most typical reaction-leading wave structure, diffusion effects are unimportant as will be justified later. For the reaction-trailing wave structure, the case when diffusion is dominant in the HTO layer requires a separate study. The sum of (2.3) and (2.4) gives the mass balance for the total gas

$$\varphi \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho u}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{W_h}{M_h} + \frac{W_c}{M_c} + \frac{W_v}{M_v}. \quad (2.5)$$

Here the $W_h$ term cancels out as the HTO reaction (2.1) produces no net gas in moles.

Assuming that the temperature of solid rock, liquid oil/water and gas are equal and neglecting heat losses, we write the heat transport equation as

$$C_m \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + c_g \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \rho H(T - T_i) = \dot{\lambda} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + Q_h W_h - Q_c W_c - Q_v W_v. \quad (2.6)$$

The heats $Q_h$, $Q_c$ are positive; in most situations $Q_v$ is also positive. In the accumulation term, we ignore gas, water and oil heat capacities compared to rock heat capacity. Therefore, the heat capacity per unit volume of the porous medium is taken approximately equal to the constant heat capacity of the rock $C_m$. The gas heat capacity is taken approximately as $c_g \approx 3.5R$, ignoring small variations of heat capacity among different gas components. The fact that heat capacities are constant is used to write (2.6) in a simple form.

Note that the form of the left-hand side of (2.6) corresponds to constant reaction heats (enthalpies) $Q_h$, $Q_c$, $Q_v$ taken at standard conditions for the temperature $T_i$. If these reaction heats are evaluated at the actual temperature $T$, the left-hand side becomes $C_m \partial T / \partial t + c_g \rho H(T - T_i) / \partial x$, as one can show using the mass balance equations (2.2)-(2.5).

Arrhenius’ law and the assumption of a linear dependence on the fuel concentration and oxygen concentration lead to

$$W_h = K_h n_h \exp \left( -\frac{E_h}{RT} \right). \quad (2.7)$$

For the cracking reaction rate, one can assume

$$W_c = K_c n_c \exp \left( -\frac{E_c}{RT} \right). \quad (2.8)$$

We will not need an expression for the vaporization rate, because it affects only the internal structure of the condensation wave, which is not relevant here.

The variables to be found are the temperature $T$, the concentrations $n_h$, $n_c$, $n_v$, $Y$ and the Darcy velocity $u$. All the coefficients in the equations ($C_m$, $C_p$, $\lambda$, etc.) are assumed to be constant. The air injection is characterized by the Darcy velocity $u_{\text{air}}$, oxygen fraction $Y_{\text{air}}$ and temperature $T_{\text{air}}$.

2.1. Dimensionless equations

The governing equations are non-dimensionalized by introducing dimensionless dependent and independent variables as ratios of dimensional quantities and reference quantities:

$$\bar{t} = \frac{t}{T}, \quad \bar{x} = \frac{x}{x^*}, \quad \theta = \frac{T - T_i}{T}, \quad m = \frac{\rho u}{m^*}, \quad \bar{n}_h = \frac{n_h}{n_h^*}, \quad \bar{n}_c = \frac{n_c}{n_c^*}, \quad \bar{n}_v = \frac{n_v}{n_v^*}, \quad (2.9)$$

where $m^* = u_{\text{air}} P_{\text{out}} / (c_0 R T)$. The injected gas flux. We take $v^* = c_m m^* / c_0$, which turns out to be the speed of the thermal wave in a reservoir with no oil. Then we introduce the reference length $x^* = \sqrt{(c_0 m^* / v)}$, which is related to the length of the condensation zone of the combustion wave, and the corresponding reference time $t^* = x^* / v^*$. We choose $T = Q_h n_h^*/c_0$ which is the temperature change for combustion under adiabatic conditions. As the model presented here does not include the condensation zone, the reference concentrations $n_h^*, n_c^*, n_v^*$ will be specified later as input concentrations far downstream of the combustion wave.

In the left-hand side of (2.3)-(2.5), the accumulation terms are negligible relative to the flux terms because the relation between the gas speed $u$ and wave speed $v = dx/dt$ turns out to be $v u_{\text{air}} \approx 10^{-3}$ in our applications. Therefore, we neglect these small terms from now on. Using (2.9) and omitting the tildes in the dimensionless quantities, Eqs. (2.4)-(2.6), (2.2) are written in dimensionless form as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{t}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{x}} \left( \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial \bar{x}} + \rho u \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial \bar{x}} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial \bar{x}^2} + Q_h \bar{n}_h - Q_c \bar{n}_c - Q_v \bar{n}_v, \quad (2.10)$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{m}}{\partial \bar{t}} = \gamma_c \bar{n}_c + \gamma_v \bar{n}_v, \quad (2.11)$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{m}}{\partial \bar{x}} = -\gamma_h \bar{n}_h, \quad (2.12)$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{n}_h}{\partial \bar{t}} = -\bar{w}_h, \quad (2.13)$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{n}_c}{\partial \bar{t}} = -\bar{w}_c, \quad (2.14)$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{n}_v}{\partial \bar{t}} = -\bar{w}_v, \quad (2.15)$$

with dimensionless parameters

$$\bar{q}_c = \frac{Q_c n_c^*}{c_m T^*}, \quad \bar{q}_v = \frac{Q_v n_v^*}{c_m T^*}, \quad \bar{w}_h = \frac{T_{\text{air}}}{T}, \quad \bar{w}_c = \frac{T_{\text{air}}}{T}, \quad \bar{w}_v = \frac{T_{\text{air}}}{T}, \quad \bar{\gamma}_h = \frac{\gamma_h n_h^*}{c_m M_h}, \quad \bar{\gamma}_c = \frac{\gamma_c n_c^*}{c_m M_c}, \quad \bar{\gamma}_v = \frac{\gamma_v n_v^*}{c_m M_v}, \quad (2.16)$$

Here $q_c(q_v)$ are the ratios between the heat of cracking (vaporization) and the heat of combustion. The quantities $\gamma_h$, $\gamma_v$, $\gamma_c$ characterize reduced fluxes with which the pre coke, the intermediates and the volatiles enter the moving combustion structure. They are normalized with respect to the air injection flux. For this interpretation we use $c_g / c_m = v^*/m^*$, where $m^*$ is the air injection flux. The quantities $\bar{w}_h$ and $\bar{w}_c$ are related to Damköhler numbers, the ratios between reaction rates and the convective transport rate. The quantities $\bar{\gamma}_h$ and $\bar{\gamma}_c$ relate the activation temperatures $E_c/R$ and $E_c/R$ to the temperature increase due to the reaction. The dimensionless reaction rates are $\bar{w}_h = \bar{t}^{\gamma_h} / n_h^*$, $\bar{w}_c = \bar{t}^{\gamma_c} / n_c^*$, and $\bar{w}_v = \bar{t}^{\gamma_v} / n_v^*$, with

$$\bar{w}_h = N_h n_h \exp \left( -\frac{\bar{E}_h}{\bar{\theta} + \bar{\gamma}_h} \right), \quad \bar{w}_c = N_c n_c \exp \left( -\frac{\bar{E}_c}{\bar{\theta} + \bar{\gamma}_c} \right). \quad (2.17)$$

$$\bar{w}_v = N_v n_v \exp \left( -\frac{\bar{E}_v}{\bar{\theta} + \bar{\gamma}_v} \right). \quad (2.18)$$
The boundary condition expressing air injection is described as
\[ x = 0 : \quad \theta = \theta_{\text{inj}}, \quad m = 1, \quad Y = Y_{\text{inj}}. \] (2.19)

The initial reservoir is characterized by uniform distributions of temperature \( \theta \) and oil concentrations \( n_0, n_c, n_v \), except for the fact that at \( t = 0 \) there must be a small region of ignition near the injection point that allows for the formation of the combustion wave. We will study the solution as a sequence of separate waves that develop at long times.

3. Reaction-leading structure

The solution with the reaction leading structure is shown schematically in Fig. 1. Here the (slowest) thermal wave is determined by heat convection only. Along this wave the temperature decreases from a high combustion temperature \( \theta_h \) to the injected gas temperature \( \theta_{\text{inj}} \). All oil has been removed from the region where this wave moves, so that the reaction rates are zero \( w_0 = w_c = w_v = 0 \) and the mass flux remains constant, \( m = 1 \). Then (2.10) has solution \( \theta(t, x) = \frac{1}{2} (\theta_h + \theta_{\text{inj}}) + \frac{1}{2} (\theta_h - \theta_{\text{inj}}) \text{erf}(x - t/2\sqrt{t}) \) describing a thermal wave moving with dimensionless speed \( n = 1 \).

Ahead of the intermediate hot zone there is a reaction wave with speed \( v > 1 \). This wave occurs in a wide range of temperatures and encompasses the HTO reaction, oil cracking, and vaporization. The HTO reaction takes place in a thin layer corresponding to a small interval of the highest temperatures. The HTO layer is preceded by layers where cracking and vaporization occur, see Fig. 2. The presence of a hot zone containing oxygen behind the reaction wave ensures that all coke is consumed in the HTO reaction. Oxygen consumption is not necessarily complete, so the HTO reaction is coke limited.

Ahead of the reaction wave the temperature drops to the vapor zone value \( \theta_v \). The vapor zone contains oil and water in both liquid and gaseous forms. In the presence of oxygen (which may partially pass through the reaction wave), slow oxidation occurs in the vapor zone at lower temperatures. When the gas reaches the original cold reservoir, part of the oil vapor condenses. The oil concentrations in the vapor zone as well as the temperature \( \theta_v \) are determined by the condensation and flow processes far ahead of the reaction wave, which represent a separate problem. In our study of combustion, we assume these quantities to be given.

Such a solution structure is called reaction-leading because combustion occurs ahead of the hot zone. As we will see below, the reaction-leading structure occurs when
\[ Y_{\text{inj}} > \gamma_h. \] (3.1)

This condition was also derived, e.g., in [15,37–39] for similar problems. Note that (3.1) is satisfied in most practical situations, unless the injected gas contains very little oxygen. Physically, \( \gamma_h/Y_{\text{inj}} \) is the “flux” of coke with respect to the moving thermal wave divided by the oxygen flux. If this ratio is smaller than one, we need a higher coke “flux” and hence the reaction wave moves ahead of the thermal wave.

The unknown parameters of the reaction wave to be determined are the temperature \( \theta_v \), the wave speed \( v \), the flux change in the wave and \( Y_{\text{inj}} \), the amount of oxygen that passes unburned through the reaction wave. We assume that the reaction wave has a traveling wave form, i.e., all quantities depend on a single traveling variable \( \xi = x - vt \). In the hot zone behind the reaction wave, the porous medium contains only injected air: \( m = 1, Y = Y_{\text{inj}}, \theta_h = n_c = n_v = 0 \). In the vapor zone ahead of the wave, there are liquid oil, liquid water and gas. The gas contains combustion products, light oil vapor, steam, and possibly some oxygen. We take the

Fig. 1. Temperature versus distance for the reaction-leading structure. The reaction wave is faster than the thermal wave; the narrow layer in the reaction wave, where the HTO reaction occurs, is shown by the black bar. The cold and hot zones contain injected air. The vapor zone contains oleic, aqueous and gaseous phases. The latter contains oil vapor, steam and combustion products. The internal structure of the reaction wave is described in Fig. 2.

Fig. 2. Blow-up of Fig. 1 with \( \xi = x - vt \). The reaction wave internal structure: HTO, cracking and vaporization layers (indicated in gray). The HTO reaction occurs in a narrow layer at the highest temperatures. Cracking of each component occurs at a certain temperature \( \theta_i \), within the cracking layer. The values of the oxygen flux \( Y_{\text{inj}} \) and the oil components concentrations \( n_0, n_c, n_v \) are specified in each region.
concentrations of the oil pseudo-components in the vapor zone as the reference quantities \( n^0, n', n'' \) in (2.9). Thus, in the vapor zone, the dimensionless concentrations are \( n_0 = n_r = n_v = 1 \).

### 3.1. High-temperature oxidation layer

The layer where HTO takes place contains coke, injected gas with oxygen, combustion products and some inert gas. As all medium and light oil components have been cracked and vaporized ahead of the HTO layer, \( n_r = n_v = 0 \), hence, \( w_r = w_v = 0 \). The molar gas flux \( m \) is equal to one, as follows from (2.11). It remains constant because one mole of \( O_2 \) is converted to one mole of \( CO_2 \).

The coke concentration in the layer changes from \( n_0 = 1 \) to 0 and the oxygen fraction in the gas changes from the mole fraction left unburned after passing the HTO layer to the injected mole fraction, i.e. from \( Y_{unb} \) to \( Y_{inj} \).

The reaction rate \( w_0 \) in (2.17) has a strong temperature dependence determined by the argument of the exponential factor. Therefore we can only afford a very small temperature variation \( \delta n_0 \) in the HTO layer, before the reaction rate becomes negligible. Expanding the exponent near the temperature of the hot zone \( n_0 \), for small \( \delta n_0 = \theta_0 - \theta \) we find

\[
\exp \left( \frac{-E_h}{\theta_0 + \theta} \right) \approx \exp \left( \frac{-E_h}{\theta_0} \right) \exp \left( \frac{-Z_n \delta n}{\theta_0 - \theta} \right),
\]

(3.2)

where \( Z_n \gg 1 \), because the activation energy \( E_h \) is large (a typical value is \( Z_n \approx 15 \)). The exponential containing \( Z_n \) is a reduction factor in the reaction rate. When the reduction factor becomes small enough the reaction no longer contributes. Arbitrarily we choose this threshold at \( \exp(-1) \). Thus, the reaction occurs within a small temperature interval \( \delta \theta_0 \sim (\theta_0 - \theta_0)Z_n \) corresponding to a change of order 1 in the exponent; the reaction rate decreases exponentially and can be neglected for \( \theta_0 - \theta \gg \delta n_0 \). The quantity \( Z_n \) is the Zeldovich number, the ratio between the total temperature variation in the wave and the temperature variation in the HTO layer [9]. Using the expression for \( \delta n_0 \), we find that the HTO reaction is confined within the space interval

\[
\delta \theta_0 \sim \delta n_0 \sim \frac{1}{Z_n},
\]

(3.4)

where \( |\theta|' \) is the effective temperature gradient in the HTO layer. For \( Z_n \gg 1 \), \( \delta \theta_0 \) is much smaller than the width of the whole wave, estimated as \( (\theta_0 - \theta_0)'/|\theta|' \). Thus, the HTO layer is narrow indeed.

Substituting \( w_0 \) from (2.17) into (2.12) with \( m = 1 \) and using the traveling wave coordinate \( \xi = x - vt \), we obtain

\[
\frac{\partial \log Y}{\partial \xi} = \frac{d \log Y}{d \xi} = -\gamma_h n_0 \exp \left( \frac{-E_h}{\theta_0 + \theta_0} \right).
\]

(3.5)

Since \( n_0 \) changes from 1 to 0, its average value is \( n_0 \sim 1/2 \). Taking

\[
\frac{d \log Y}{d \xi} = \frac{\log Y_{inj} - \log Y_{unb}}{\delta \xi_0} = \frac{1}{\delta \xi_0} \log \left( \frac{Y_{inj}}{Y_{unb}} \right)
\]

and \( \theta \approx \theta_0 \) in (3.5) with \( Z_n \) and \( \delta n_0 \) and from (3.3), (3.4) gives

\[
\log Y_{unb} \sim n_0 \gamma_h A_0 \frac{Y_{inj}}{Y_{unb}}\exp \left( -\frac{E_h}{\theta_0 + \theta_0} \right),
\]

(3.6)

\[
A_0 = \frac{(\theta_0 + \theta_0)^n N_unb N_{inj}}{2 \xi_0 |\theta|'} \exp \left( -\frac{E_h}{\theta_0 + \theta_0} \right).
\]

(3.7)

Using the estimate in (3.6), we can distinguish two regimes according to the values of ratio \( Y_{unb}/Y_{inj} \) between the oxygen fraction remaining downstream of the HTO layer (unburned oxygen) and the oxygen fraction in the injected air. The importance of this ratio has been recognized in different contexts, e.g. [24,26,28,36].

The first regime is characterized by almost complete consumption of oxygen in the HTO layer, \( Y_{unb} \ll Y_{inj} \) and corresponds to high combustion temperatures \( \theta_0 \) (and according to Eq. (3.6) to large \( A_0 \)). The condition for this regime follows from (3.6); it is approximately

\[
\gamma A_0 \frac{Y_{inj}}{Y_{unb}} > 1.
\]

(3.8)

Due to the strong exponential dependence of \( A_0 \) on the combustion temperature \( \theta_0 \) in (3.2), one can show that this approximation distinguishes the two regimes with an uncertainty of order \( Z_n^{-1} \). This number is also the width of the narrow transition zone between the regimes. Since almost all the oxygen is consumed, the reaction ahead of the HTO layer stops primarily due to lack of oxygen. Hence, the HTO layer width is smaller than \( \delta \xi_0 \) obtained in (3.4) based on the temperature dependence of the reaction rate. Note that, in this regime, coke is consumed completely too, giving rise to an “optimal” combustion regime with consumption of both reactive components. Such regimes are called stoichiometric or filtration-controlled, see, e.g. [15,24]. As we will see later, the complete coke and oxygen consumption regime occurs for a relatively wide range of problem parameters separating the cases of oxygen limited and coke limited combustion.

In the second regime (3.8) is not satisfied. In this case, the HTO reaction stops due to low temperatures when both coke and oxygen are still present (kinetically-controlled regime, see, e.g. [15,24]). Since a substantial part of the oxygen is not consumed in the HTO, we can use \( Y \sim Y_{inj} \) and \( n_0 \approx 1/2 \) estimating the reaction rate in (2.17) as

\[
w_0 \approx N(Y_{inj}/2) \exp(-E_h/(\theta_0 + \theta_0)).
\]

Then Eq. (2.13) with \( (\theta_0/\theta_v) \approx 1 \) and \( \delta n_0 \sim v \delta \xi_0 \) and (3.4), (3.3) yield the relation \( v = A_0 \) with \( A_0 \) given by (3.7). Using (3.2), one can show that pretending that \( v = A_0 \) are actually equal leads to an error of order \( Z_n^{-1} \) in the temperature value \( \theta_0 \). This justifies writing this relation approximately as

\[
v = A_0.
\]

(3.9)

Note that (3.9) can also be obtained by solving the differential equations for the traveling wave in the HTO layer as in [15,24,31].

The unburned oxygen fraction \( Y_{unb} \) can be found from the mass balance. Eq. (2.12) with \( w_0 \) expressed from (2.13) yields \( Y_{inj} = Y_{unb} \), where the prime denotes the derivative with respect to the traveling coordinate \( x = x - vt \) and we used \( \partial/\partial x = d/d\xi \), \( \partial/\partial \xi = v d/d\xi \). Integrating this equation across the HTO layer, where \( Y \) changes from \( Y_{inj} \) to \( Y_{unb} \) changes from 0 to 1, and \( m = 1 \) remains unchanged (see Fig. 2), we obtain

\[
Y_{unb} = Y_{inj} - \gamma_h v.
\]

(3.10)

Using the conditions \( v > 1 \) and \( Y_{unb} > 0 \) in (3.10), we confirm the inequality (3.1). Note that (3.10) with \( v \) from (3.9) yields \( Y_{unb} = 0 \) at the threshold given by (3.8) written as an equality.

Similarly, using rates expressed from (2.13)–(2.15) and \( \partial/\partial x = d/d\xi \), \( \partial/\partial \xi = v d/d\xi \) in (2.10), we obtain

\[
(\theta + (v - m)\theta) + v(n_0 - q_n - q_{n'}) = 0.
\]

(3.11)

Integration of (3.11) across the HTO layer, where \( n_0 \) changes from 0 to 1, \( v \) changes from 0 to \( v_0 \), while \( m = 1 \) and \( n_r = n_v = 0 \) remain unchanged (see Fig. 2), yields

\[
\delta n_0 = -v,
\]

(3.12)

ignoring a small temperature variation \( \delta n_0 \). Since the temperature gradient in the HTO layer changes from (3.12) to \( \delta \theta = 0 \), its average value to be used in (3.7) is

\[
|\delta \theta'| = v/2.
\]

(3.13)
Finally, let us consider the effect of oxygen diffusion, which was neglected in Eq. [2.4]. One can show that diffusion has no influence on the description of the HTO layer we presented, within the accuracy of the method. Indeed, in the case of partial oxygen consumption, when \( Y_{\text{amb}} \sim Y_{\text{m}} \), the variation of \( Y \) due to diffusion is not important for the result (3.9), which was obtained using order-of-magnitude estimates and exploiting the strong exponential dependence of combustion rate on temperature. Using (3.9) in (3.10), we obtain

\[ Y_{\text{amb}} > 0 \quad \text{only if} \quad \gamma_3 A_0 Y_{\text{m}} < 1. \]

Therefore, the condition (3.8) for complete oxygen consumption remains valid when gas diffusion is taken into account.

### 3.2. Reaction wave for complete coke/oxygen consumption

Let us consider the case (3.8), when all oxygen is consumed in the HTO layer. The wave speed is found by taking \( Y_{\text{amb}} = 0 \) in (3.10) as

\[ v = Y_{\text{m}}/\gamma_h. \]  

Integrating (3.11) across the whole reaction wave yields

\[ \left[ v' + \gamma_h - m \left[ n_1 \gamma_{\text{m}} - q \right] \right] = 0, \]

where the square brackets denote the variation of the quantity in the wave. Using in (3.15) the conditions \( v' = 0, \gamma_h = \gamma_r - \gamma_c \), \( m = \rho_g \gamma_{\text{c}} - \theta_h \), \( n_1 = n_{\text{c}} - n_{\text{h}} = 1 \), where \( m \) denotes the gas flux ahead of the wave, we obtain

\[ \theta_h = \frac{v' + \gamma_h - \gamma_c m_c}{v - 1} \quad \text{with} \quad q = 1 - q_c - q_c. \]  

The quantity \( q \) describes the total heat production rate in the wave due to HTO cracking and vaporization.

Similarly, integration of (2.11) across the reaction wave yields \( \theta_r \) by (2.14), (2.15) and using the moving coordinate \( \xi = x - vt \) yields

\[ m = v \left[ \gamma_h + \gamma_c \right]. \]  

Since \( |m| = m_c - 1 \), we find

\[ m_c = 1 + v \left[ \gamma_h + \gamma_c \right]. \]  

Using (3.13) and (3.14), we write condition (3.8) as

\[ \frac{\gamma_3^2 \left( \theta_h + \theta_c \right)^2 N_h}{Y_{\text{m}}^2} \exp \left( \frac{-E_h}{\theta_h + \theta_c} \right) > 1. \]  

Together with expression (3.16), all quantities in this condition are expressed through the known problem parameters. The reaction wave parameters are given by (3.14), (3.16) and (3.18). Note that in this solution we did not use any kinetic relations for cracking and vaporization. However, the kinetic coefficients for the HTO reaction are important, as they appear in the necessary condition (3.19). The assumption \( v = Y_{\text{m}}/\gamma_h > 1 \) yields the inequality (3.1) mentioned above.

### 3.3. Wave parameters for partial oxygen consumption

Now, let us consider the case when condition (3.8) or, equivalently, (3.19) are not satisfied and, therefore, part of oxygen passes through the HTO layer, such that \( Y_{\text{amb}} > 0 \). This is the only difference relative to the previous case, so the formulæ (3.15)-(3.18) are still valid.

Substituting (3.18) into (3.16), we express \( v \) as

\[ v = \frac{\theta_h - \theta_c}{\theta_h - \theta_c} \left( 1 - \gamma_r - \gamma_c \right). \]  

Substituting \( A_0 \) from (3.7), (3.13) and \( Z_0 \) from (3.3) into (3.9) we obtain

\[ \exp \left( \frac{-E_h}{\theta_h + \theta_c} \right) = \frac{E_h \gamma_{\text{m}}^2}{N_h Y_{\text{m}} \left( \theta_h + \theta_c \right)^2}. \]  

where the speed \( v \) is given by (3.20). This is an implicit equation for the HTO temperature \( \theta_h \). Because we are considering the reaction-leading structure \( v < 1 \) and the condition \( Y_{\text{m}} > 0 \) in (3.10), we find the wave speed interval \( 0 < v < Y_{\text{m}}/\gamma_h \). Using (3.16), this range of \( v \) determines the interval for \( \theta_h \) where Eq. (3.21) must be solved. This can be done numerically. Once \( \theta_h \) is found, the other wave parameters are determined by (3.10), (3.20).

### 3.4. Cracking layer

Due to its high activation energy, the cracking reaction in our model occurs in a narrow layer near the corresponding temperature \( \theta_c \), see Fig. 2 (narrow dark interval). The analysis of the cracking layer will be presented in short form, because it has much in common with the analysis of the HTO layer. The cracking layer is narrow due to the simple expression taken for cracking rate (2.18). A more realistic study of cracking for distributed medium oil components is presented in Appendix A giving a wider cracking layer shown in Fig. 2.

The reaction is mostly confined within a small temperature interval \( \theta_r \approx (\theta_h - \theta_0) Z_c \) with large Zeldovich number \( Z_c = \theta_h / \theta_0 \). As in (3.4), the width of the cracking layer is \( \delta \approx (\theta_h - \theta_0) / Z_c \), where \( \delta \) is the effective temperature gradient in the layer. The analog of formula (3.9) in this case is

\[ v = \frac{(\theta_h + \theta_0)^2 N_c}{2E_c \theta_r} \left( -\frac{E_r}{\theta_h + \theta_0} \right). \]  

The parameters \( q \) and \( \gamma_r \) describing heat and gas production in cracking are usually very small in applications to in situ combustion. Then, in the region between the HTO and cracking layers, we can take the effective constant parameters, \( m = 1 \) and drop the heat source term in (3.11), which leads to \( \theta_r \approx (v + v) \theta_r \). Integration in the region between the HTO layer and the cracking layer, where \( \theta_r \) change from \( \theta_h \) to \( \theta_0 \), yields the estimate

\[ \theta_r \approx -v \left( v + 1 \right) \left( \theta_h - \theta_c \right). \]  

The position of the cracking layer in the wave can also be computed, see Appendix A.

Using (3.23), Eq. (3.22) can be solved numerically, furnishing the cracking temperature \( \theta_r \). Of course, for the existence of our solution, it is important that the condition \( \theta_r < \theta_h \) is satisfied. Otherwise, medium oil remains in the HTO layer and, therefore, participates in the HTO reaction.

### 4. Reaction-trailing structure

When the coke concentration is large (or oxygen concentration in the injected air is small), so that \( Y_{\text{m}} < \gamma_h \) and (3.1) fails, the solution has the structure shown in Fig. 3. The HTO reaction occurs in a slow HTO wave traveling with speed \( v = 1 \). The temperature in this wave changes from high value \( \theta_h \) in the hot zone ahead of the wave to the injected air temperature \( \theta_{\text{inj}} \) behind. The cracking reaction and oil vaporization take place in another wave traveling with higher speed \( v_t \). If there were neither medium oil nor light oil/water in the reservoir, this wave would be just a thermal wave with speed \( v = 1 \) similar to that mentioned at the beginning of Section 3. The hot region between the two waves contains coke with dimensionless concentration \( n_0 = 1 \), with neither medium oil nor light oil/water. As in Section 3, we assume that the oil component concentrations \( n_i, n_j, n_k \) and the temperature \( \theta_r \) in the vapor zone ahead of the thermal wave are given.
Since the hot region ahead of the HTO wave contains coke, the oxygen is consumed completely in the HTO reaction. Coke consumption is not necessarily complete, so the HTO reaction is oxygen limited. This solution structure is called reaction-trailing because combustion occurs behind the hot zone.

4.1. HTO wave

High-temperature oxidation is the only reaction in the HTO wave. Such a combustion wave was studied in [15,24,31], for instance. Here we present a simpler method for the analysis of this wave, similar to that of Section 3, and we show that there are two different combustion regimes, characterized by partial or complete coke consumption in the HTO reaction. The profile is assumed to have a traveling wave form in the coordinate $x$.

The wave contains a narrow HTO layer at about the highest temperature $\theta_h$ in the flow. The reaction is confined within a space interval

$$\delta h \sim (\theta_h + \theta_b)^2 / \mathcal{E} \theta_h |\theta_b|$$

as in (3.2), (3.4). Taking $d \log n_b / d \zeta \sim \log (1/n_{\text{inj}}) / \delta h$, and $Y \sim Y_{\text{inj}} / 2$ in (4.1), we obtain

$$v \log (1/n_{\text{inj}}) \sim \theta_h$$

with the same expression (3.7) for $\theta_h$.

The condition for complete coke consumption, $n_{\text{inj}} \ll 1$, analogous to condition (3.8), takes the form

$$A_h > \nu. \tag{4.3}$$

In this case the analysis of the HTO wave is completed as in Section 3.2, but the absence of medium and light oil components as well as of water lead to simplification. In the reaction-trailing situation we need to replace $\theta_l$ by $\theta_{unb}$, $m_r$ by 1, and $q_c = q_c = \gamma_c = \gamma_r = 0$ in the expressions (3.14), (3.13), (3.16), yielding

$$v = \frac{Y_{\text{inj}}}{\theta_h}, \quad |\theta_h| = \frac{Y_{\text{inj}}}{\Theta_h}, \quad \theta_h = \theta_{unb} + \frac{\nu}{1 - \nu}. \tag{4.4}$$

Then condition (4.3) takes the form (3.19). Therefore, (3.19) becomes the general condition for complete coke/oxygen consumption in the HTO reaction. Of course, the expression for $\theta_h$ to be used in (3.19) in the reaction-leading case (3.16) is different from the reaction-trailing case (4.4).

In the opposite case of incomplete coke consumption, i.e., $A_h < \nu$, we can take $n_b \sim 1$, i.e., close to the initial concentration, in the HTO layer. Then using $\partial H_m/\partial x = dY/\delta \zeta \sim -Y_{\text{inj}} / \delta h$ with

$$\delta h \sim (\theta_h + \theta_b)^2 / \mathcal{E} \theta_h |\theta_b|$$

and the reaction rate (2.17) with $n_b \sim 1$ and $Y \sim Y_{\text{inj}} / 2$ in Eq. (2.12) yields

$$Y_{\text{inj}} = \gamma_c \theta_h \tag{4.5}$$

with $A_h$ from (3.7). In this equation we took the equality sign disregarding a small error as in (3.9). Integration of (3.11) in the narrow HTO layer as in Section 3.2 yields the temperature gradient $\theta_{unb} = \nu (1 - n_{\text{inj}}) / 2$ behind the layer and, thus, $[\theta_h] = \nu (1 - n_{\text{inj}}) / 2$. Eq. (3.15) takes the form $(\nu - 1)(\theta_h - \theta_{unb}) + \nu (1 - n_{\text{inj}}) = 0$. Integration of (2.12) with $w_h$ from (2.13) gives $[Y] = -Y_{\text{inj}}$ and $Y_{\text{inj}} = Y_{\text{inj}} / (1 - n_{\text{inj}})$.

As a result, we get

$$n_{\text{inj}} \frac{1 - Y_{\text{inj}}}{\theta_h} = Y_{\text{inj}} / \gamma_c \theta_h,$$

and expression (4.4) for $|\theta_h|$. Then (4.5) with $A_h$ from (3.7) takes the form

$$\text{exp} \left( - \frac{\theta_h}{\theta_h + \theta_0} \right) = \frac{\mathcal{E} \theta_h Y_{\text{inj}}}{N_c \gamma_c^2 (\theta_h + \theta_0)^2}. \tag{4.7}$$

This equation determines $\theta_h$ implicitly and can be solved numerically.

As our analysis leading to (4.2) used only order estimates for the oxygen fraction $Y$, diffusion has no effect within the accuracy of the method, unless it is dominant in the HTO layer. The latter case may result in extinction and requires a separate study.

4.2. Thermal wave

Cracking and vaporization are heat absorbing processes, which decrease the thermal wave speed: $\nu < 1$. The heat Eq. (2.10) for a traveling wave depending on the single variable $\zeta = x - \nu t$ is (3.11) with $n_0 = 0$ and $v_T$ instead of $v$. Integrating this equation across the wave as in (3.15) taking into account the conditions $[\delta \zeta] = 0, [\Theta] = \Theta_0 - \Theta_h, [m] = m_0 - m_r - \Theta_h$, and $[n] = [n_c] = 1$, we obtain

$$v_T (\theta_h - \theta_0) = (m_0 - m_r - \Theta_h) - v_T (q_c + q_r) = 0. \tag{4.8}$$

The gas flux ahead of the wave is $m_r = 1 + v_T (q_c + q_r)$, as in (3.18). Using this expression in (4.8), we find the wave speed

$$v_T = \frac{\theta_h - \theta_0}{\theta_h - \theta_0 (1 - \gamma_c - q_r) + q_c + q_r}. \tag{4.9}$$

Note that the existence of the hot zone between the HTO and thermal waves ensures that complete cracking of the medium oil occurs ahead of the HTO wave.

5. Stability of steady combustion

In this section we study stability of the combustion waves with respect to small perturbations of the dependent variables. The

Fig. 3. Temperature versus distance for the reaction-trailing structure. The HTO wave is slower than the thermal wave; a narrow layer where the HTO reaction occurs is shown by the black bar. Cracking and vaporization occur in the thermal wave. The cold zone contains air. The hot zone contains coke and gas with combustion products. The vapor zone contains oleic, aqueous and gaseous phases. The latter contains oil vapor, steam and combustion products.
stability problem has a simple solution when oxygen is completely consumed in combustion (both in the complete and partial coke consumption cases). In this case the amount of coke converted is controlled by the injected oxygen flux. Hence, the total conversion rate is not affected by a small perturbation in the temperature profile. This implies that there is no source of instability, and the steady combustion regimes with complete oxygen combustion are stable.

In the case of partial consumption of oxygen, instability may occur leading, for example, to a pulsating combustion regime. Let us consider the case when the cracking and vaporization have a minor effect on the temperature and gas flux, so that the corresponding terms can be neglected in Eqs. (2.10), (2.11), and (2.13). Then the problem is equivalent to the combustion in a reservoir with a single solid fuel component. Stability analysis for this case with the reaction rate approximated by the Dirac delta function was carried out in [40]. A similar analysis adapted to our model is presented in Appendix B.

We assume that a small perturbation of the steady combustion solution depends on time via the complex factor exp(αt). The complex quantity α is found from the equation derived in Appendix B as

\[(v(K - 1) + (v - 1)\Omega)\sqrt{1 + 4\Omega} = v(K - 1 - 2\Omega) + (v - 1)(2K - 1)\Omega,\]

where

\[\Omega = \frac{\alpha}{(v - 1)^2}, \quad K = \frac{C_b(\theta_b - \theta_f)}{v(\theta_b + \theta_f)}\left(2 + \frac{\theta_b + \theta_f}{\theta_b}\right).\]

For \(\Omega \neq 0\), Eq. (5.1) can be reduced to \(\Omega^2 + b_1\Omega + b_2 = 0\) with

\[b_1 = -K^2 + K\left(1 + \frac{4v}{v - 1}\right) - \frac{(3 - 4v)v}{(v - 1)^2},\]

\[b_2 = \frac{v(K - 1)(K + v - 1)}{(v - 1)^2}.\]

The perturbation decays in time when \(Re\alpha < 0\), which requires \(b_1 > 0\) and \(b_2 > 0\). Using \(Z_2\) from (3.3) in the second expression in (5.2), we see that \(K > Z_2/2\). Since \(v > 1\) and in the derivations of Section 3 we assumed \(Z_2 > 1\), we conclude that the condition \(b_2 > 0\) is satisfied and the condition \(b_1 > 0\) yields the stability condition

\[K < \frac{5v - 1 + \sqrt{9v^2 + 2v + 1}}{2(v - 1)}.\]

This condition implies that the steady combustion regime with partial consumption of oxygen becomes unstable for sufficiently large Zeldovich numbers.

Stability to small perturbations in transverse directions can also be studied. It reduces to the substitution \(\Omega \rightarrow \Omega + k^2[(v - 1)^2]\) in (5.1), where \(k\) is a wave number of a transverse harmonic perturbation, see [40].

6. In situ combustion for typical reservoir parameters

Consider the representative reservoir data in Table 1. The numbers quoted there correspond to octane (C₈H₁₈) as a single effective light oil component, to hexadecane (C₁₆H₃₃) as a medium oil component, and to an average vaporization heat \(Q_r\) for equal mass densities of light oil and water in the vapor zone. We use alkenes for stoichiometric convenience.

Assume that air with an oxygen fraction of \(Y_{air} = 0.21\) is injected into the reservoir. The condition (3.1) written in dimensional form using (2.16) as \(n_k < Y_{air}C_kM_k/Q_k\) is satisfied for the precore concentrations \(n_k < 173\ \text{kg/m}^3\) in the vapor zone. This is the case of the reaction-leading wave structure and computations must be carried out using formulae of Section 3. Figure 4 shows the reaction wave parameters versus the initial precore concentration \(n_k\), when the other parameters in the vapor zone are taken as \(n_k = 100\ \text{kg/m}^3\), \(n_k = 60\ \text{kg/m}^3\), and \(T_p = 350\ \text{K}\) in \(\theta_c = (T_p - T_m)/T\). Complete coke/oxygen consumption in the HTO reaction occurs for high precore concentrations \(n_k > 35.5\ \text{kg/m}^3\), as found by checking inequality (3.19). For lower precore concentrations, a considerable part of the injected oxygen passes through the reaction wave, as shown in Fig. 4. The passage from complete to partial oxygen consumption regime is characterized by an abrupt change in the dependence of the variables relative to the coke concentration \(n_k\).

Computations show that changes in medium and light oil/water concentrations have a minor influence on the combustion and cracking temperatures \(\theta_b\) and \(\theta_c\). Indeed, the corresponding Eqs. (3.21) and (3.22) have strong exponential dependence on temperature, so the solutions are weakly affected by the change of coefficients. On the contrary, the speed \(v\) of the reaction wave decreases when medium and light oil/water concentrations are higher. Extinction occurs when \(q = 1 - q_c - q_v\) becomes small, i.e., when the combustion heat \(Q_c\) becomes close to the heat \(Q_v\), necessary for cracking and vaporization. At the extinction point, the speeds of the reaction and thermal waves coincide, i.e., \(v = 1\) in dimensionless form.

Consider now the same reservoir parameters in the vapor zone, but using an injected gas with very low initial oxygen fraction \(Y_{air} = 0.025\). The numerical results are shown in Fig. 5. Condition (3.1) is satisfied for precore concentrations \(n_k < 20.6\ \text{kg/m}^3\) and corresponds to the case discussed in Section 3. For higher concentrations, the reaction-trailing wave structure occurs and calculations use the formulae of Section 4. These two cases are separated by a resonance point, where the speeds of the two waves coincide: \(v = \pi\). The complete coke/oxygen consumption regime is determined by inequality (3.19) and corresponds to a range of initial coke concentrations given by \(14.5 < n_k < 44.9\ \text{kg/m}^3\). Temperatures in this regime become very high, so that the effects not taken into account in our model may become important, e.g., heat losses. On the contrary, the partial oxygen \(n_k < 14.5\ \text{kg/m}^3\) and partial coke \(n_h > 44.9\ \text{kg/m}^3\) consumption regimes are characterized by a more or less constant combustion temperature. When the regime changes, there is a singularity in the dependence of the HTO wave parameters on the initial coke concentration \(n_k\).

Table 1

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
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<tr>
<td>(Q_r)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>(K_2)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R)</td>
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<td>(C_{inj})</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>(P_{inj})</td>
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<td>(\rho)</td>
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<td>(T_m)</td>
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</table>
consumption. Otherwise, oxygen is only partially consumed. The reaction-trailing wave structure is determined by the opposite of condition (3.1). Then (3.19) with \( \theta_0 \) from (4.4) determines the combustion regime with complete coke and oxygen consumption. Otherwise, coke is partially consumed. Extinction occurs for small combustion regime with complete coke and oxygen consumption. Otherwise, oxygen is only partially consumed. The reaction-leading and reaction-trailing wave structures were indicated by dotted lines in the dark-gray region to the right of the dashed line in the oscilatory solutions with partial oxygen consumption in the dark-gray zone. Here we use \( n_{\text{c}} = 100 \) kg/m\(^3\), \( n_{\text{b}} = 60 \) kg/m\(^3\) and injection of air with 21% oxygen. The vapor zone temperature is \( T_v = 77^\circ \text{C} \). Indicated are the hot zone temperature \( T_h \), the cracking temperature \( T_c \), the reaction wave speed \( v \) (m/day), the thermal wave speed \( v_T \) (m/day), and the unburned oxygen fraction \( Y_{\text{unb}} \text{(mol-O}_2\text{/mol-air)} \). The dotted segments correspond to unstable steady combustion waves. Results of numerical simulations are presented for \( n_{\text{c}} = 10, 25, 40 \) kg/m\(^3\) and indicated by diamonds and circles.

Checking numerically the stability condition (5.4), we find oscillatory solutions with partial oxygen consumption in the dark-gray region to the right of the dashed line in Fig. 6. Oscillatory solutions are also indicated by dotted lines in Fig. 4.

The chart of combustion regimes has the qualitative form shown in Fig. 6 for a wide range of parameters. Note that a similar chart of combustion regimes for different parameters \( (Y_{\text{inj}}, m_{\text{inj}}) \) and without instability region was obtained in [15].

6.1. Numerical simulations

We performed direct numerical simulations of the PDE system (2.10)–(2.15) using a split-implicit finite difference numerical scheme. In order to define the vaporization rate \( w_{\text{v}} \), we introduce the molar fraction \( X \) of light oil vapor together with steam in the gas. Cracked and vaporized components form the part \( mX \) of the total gas flux \( m \). The remaining part \( m(1 - X) \) corresponds to the injected gas flux, which is equal to 1. This gives \( X = 1 - 1/m \). As we already mentioned above, the details of the vaporization process have minor influence on the reaction waves of interest here. So we can use a simplified model for numerical purposes that reflects only qualitative properties of vaporization. We take the vaporization rate \( w_{\text{v}} \) proportional to the liquid oil and water concentrations \( n_{\text{l}} \) and to the difference between the equilibrium and actual vapor fractions \( X_{\text{eq}} - X \). The equilibrium vapor fraction is determined by the relation \( X_{\text{eq}} = \exp(h(\theta - \theta_0)) \), which is the approximation of the Clausius–Clapeyron relation with the linearized exponential expression. The effective boiling temperature \( \theta_0 \) satisfies the equilibrium condition in the vapor zone \( X_{\text{eq}} = \exp(h(\theta_0 - \theta_0)) \). The constant coefficients are taken to be \( \kappa = 100, h = 20 \).

The reaction-leading and reaction-trailing wave structures were observed in numerical simulation for initial temperatures high enough for ignition to occur in a reasonable time span, with different
oil concentrations in the initial reservoir and oxygen fractions in the injected gas. The dimensional parameters of the reaction and thermal waves obtained in this simulation are shown in Fig. 6. These simulations form a straight line that separates combustion regimes with different wave structures: reaction-leading (above the line) and reaction-trailing (below the line). The gray regions correspond to combustion regimes with partial oxygen or partial coke consumption. The upper dark gray region to the right of the dotted line corresponds to oscillatory solutions. The white region corresponds to essentially complete coke and oxygen consumption. Thin white strips near the axes correspond to extinction.

The combustion waves were found to be stable waves with fixed profile in the numerical simulation, except for the case of $n_{\infty} = 25 \text{ kg/m}^3$ in Fig. 4. In the latter case the reaction wave speed $v$ oscillates periodically in time; Fig. 4 shows the average values of the corresponding quantities. Oscillation amplitudes are about 7% of the average value for $T_h$ and about 30% for $v$ and $Y_{\text{comb}}$. These simulation results agree with the theoretical stability study, see Fig. 6.

7. Conclusions

In this paper, we developed a simplified mathematical approach that provides approximate analytical solutions for steady combustion waves. In this method, rather than explicitly integrating wave equations, we use general estimates and exploit the strong exponential dependence of combustion rate on temperature to simplify the results. This procedure is general and can be applied to the analysis of combustion characterized by large Zeldovich numbers.

This method was used for the analysis of combustion by air injection in porous media containing oil and water, taking into account different chemical and physical processes. The oil is modeled as a composition of three pseudo-components: asphaltenes (pre-coke), medium and light oil. Precoke is converted to coke at high temperatures, medium oil components are cracked at slightly lower temperatures releasing gaseous oil. Finally, light oil components and water are vaporized. Heat is released in the high-temperature oxidation of coke. Cracking of separate components in the medium oil is also studied (see Appendix A).

The solutions are found in the form of sequences of traveling waves. The wave structure is conventionally distinguished according to the position of the hot zone relative to the combustion wave: reaction-leading and reaction-trailing wave structures. The reaction-trailing structure corresponds to high precoke concentrations or low injected oxygen fractions. Otherwise, one finds the reaction-leading structure. Each structure occurs in two different combustion modes. In the first mode, both coke and oxygen are completely consumed in combustion. In the second mode, only a part of oxygen is consumed in the case of the reaction-leading wave structure, or a part of coke is consumed in the case of the reaction-trailing wave structure.

We derived explicit analytical conditions for each combustion regime, stability conditions, and formulae describing dependent variables in the wave sequence solutions. Additionally we described the internal structure of the oil cracking layer for the reaction-leading wave structure.

Numerical computations with typical reservoir data for in situ combustion lead to the following observations. The most typical wave structure is reaction-leading. With increasing coke concentration, a mode with partial oxygen consumption changes into a mode with complete coke/oxygen consumption. The first mode is characterized by a weak dependence of the combustion temperature on the reservoir parameters, while temperatures may become much higher in the mode with complete coke/oxygen consumption. The reaction-trailing structure can also be found when the injected air contains reduced oxygen fractions (for example, for injection of a mixture of air and flue gases). It is shown that instability can only occur in the regime with partial oxygen consumption. Numerical simulation of the full system of governing equations was carried out showing the expected accuracy of our asymptotic formulae; the simulations confirmed the existence of combustion in a periodically pulsating wave in the instability region.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A. Cracking of multiple components

A more realistic description of cracking process requires considering a distribution of hydrocarbon components in the medium oil. Let us denote these components by the index $x$ with corresponding dimensionless concentrations $n_{xa}$ normalized so that $n_{xa} = 1$ downstream in the vapor zone. The cracking rate $w_{xa}$ of each component is described by expression (2.18) with specific kinetic coefficients $N_{xa}$ and $N_{ca}$. Finally, one should write (2.14) in the form $\partial n_{xa}/\partial t = -w_{xa}$ and substitute $q_{ca}w_{ca}$ by $\sum n_{xa}w_{xa}$ and $\gamma_{ca}w_{ca}$ by $\sum n_{xa}w_{xa}$ in (2.10), (2.11).

Each medium oil component cracks independently near the corresponding temperature $\theta_{xa}$ within the cracking layer, see Fig. 2. An analysis similar to that in Section 3.4 yields an equation similar to (3.22):

$$v = \left(\epsilon_{ca} + \theta_0\right)^2 N_{ca} \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon_{ca}}{\theta_0 + \theta_0}\right).$$  
(A.1)

The temperature gradient $\theta_{xa}$ must be estimated by solving the heat balance equation ahead of the HTO layer. The approximate form of this equation is $(v + (v - 1)A) = 0$, as shown in Section 3.4. Integration yields the relation...
\[ \theta_{x} = -\nu + (\nu - 1)(\theta_{0} - \theta_{x}) \]  
(A.2) similar to (3.23). Using (A.2), Eq. (A.1) can be solved numerically for \( \theta_{x} \) giving the cracking temperature of component \( x \). Setting \( \xi = 0 \) in front of the HTO layer, where \( \theta(0) = \theta_{h} \) and \( \theta'(0) = \theta_{h+} = -\nu \), we find

\[ \theta(\xi) = \theta_{h} + \frac{\nu - \nu \exp((1 - \nu)\xi)}{1 - \nu} \]  
(A.3)

Given \( \theta(\xi) = \theta_{x} \), this equation determines the position \( \xi \) of the \( x \)-component cracking layer in the wave.

**Appendix B. Stability analysis**

The analysis below applies the method developed in [40] to the model under consideration. We study the reaction-leading wave structure when all coke and part of oxygen burn in the HTO layer \( (\nu > 1) \). When cracking and vaporization are neglected \( (w_{c} = w_{p} = 0) \), Eq. (2.11) yields \( \partial m/\partial x = 0 \), so the gas flux is fixed by the injection condition and by our choice of nondimensional parameters as \( m = 1 \). The temperature profile is governed by Eq. (2.10) taking the form

\[ \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^{2} \theta}{\partial x^{2}} + w_{h} \]  
(B.1)

The HTO layer is narrow. Neglecting its width, we can write the reaction rate as proportional to Dirac’s delta function \( \delta(x) \). Using (2.13) with \( n_{0} \) changing from the initial value 1 to 0 (complete consumption of coke), we find

\[ w_{h}(x, t) \approx \delta(t - t_{h}(x)) \frac{dx_{h}}{dt} \delta(x - x_{h}(t)), \]  
(B.2)

where \( x = x_{h}(t) \) denotes the HTO layer position at time \( t \), and \( t = t_{h}(x) \) is its inverse. The second equality in (B.2) exploits transformation properties of delta functions. Note that the assumption of a single narrow HTO layer is valid for small perturbations considered in our stability analysis. However, as indicated in [35], there is no clear connection between the value of \( \delta(x_{h}) \) in (3.4) and the width of the HTO layer for pulsating fronts.

The delta function (B.2) in (B.1) is balanced by the second derivative. This implies a jump of the first derivative of the temperature at the HTO layer and the continuity of the temperature \( \theta \). That is,

\[ \theta_{x} = \theta_{-}, \quad \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right)_{-} - \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right)_{+} = \frac{dx_{h}}{dt} \]  
(B.3)

where the subscripts \( \pm \) denote the values on different sides of the HTO layer, \( x \to x_{h}(t) \pm 0 \). The third condition is (3.9) with \( \theta_{h} \) from (3.7), \( \nu = dx_{h}/dt \), and \( \theta_{-}: \theta_{+} = \theta_{h}: \theta_{h+} \):

\[ \frac{dx_{h}}{dt} = \frac{\left( \theta_{h} + \theta_{h-} \right) N_{h} Y_{w}}{2 \xi_{h} \theta_{h}} \exp \left( - \frac{\xi_{h}}{\theta_{h} - \theta_{h-}} \right) \]  
(B.4)

Expressing \( dx_{h}/dt \) from (B.3) and taking \( 2dx_{h}/dt \sim (\partial \theta/\partial x)_{+} - (\partial \theta/\partial x)_{-} \), which is negative, we write this condition as

\[ \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right)_{+} = \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right)_{-} = \frac{\theta_{h} + \theta_{h-} N_{h} Y_{w}}{2 \xi_{h} \theta_{h}} \exp \left( - \frac{\xi_{h}}{\theta_{h} - \theta_{h-}} \right) \]  
(B.5)

The steady solution \( \theta(x, t) = \delta_{0}(\xi) \) with \( \xi = x - vt \) was found in Section 3.3. With the simplifications stated above, the steady solution is determined by equations (B.1)–(B.3) as

\[ \theta_{h}(\xi) = \theta_{h} + (\theta_{h} - \theta_{h+}) \exp(-(\nu - 1)\xi) \]  
for \( \xi > 0 \);
\[ \theta_{h}(\xi) = \theta_{h} \]  
for \( \xi < 0 \).

The temperature \( \theta_{h} \) is found from (B.3), (B.6) as
\[ \theta_{h} - \theta_{h+} = v/(\nu - 1) \]  
(B.7)

in agreement with (3.20) for \( q = 1 \) from (3.16). The speed \( v \) is determined by (3.21), which can also be derived from (B.5)–(B.7).

Consider a small perturbation of the temperature profile and the HTO layer position in the form
\[ \theta(x, t) = \theta_{0} + \theta_{1}(\xi) \exp(\omega t), \]  
(B.8)

The latter also implies the change of inequalities in (B.6) as \( x > \exp(\omega t) \) and \( \xi < \exp(\omega t) \). We are looking for solutions with \( \text{Re} \omega > 0 \). Such solutions grow in time and imply the instability of the steady combustion wave. Eq. (B.1) with \( w_{h} = 0 \) for \( x = x_{h} \) gives the bounded solution as

\[ \theta_{1}(\xi) = A \exp(z_{1}\xi) \]  
for \( x > x_{h}(t) \);
\[ \theta_{1}(\xi) = B \exp(z_{2}\xi) \]  
for \( x < x_{h}(t) \), with

\[ z_{1} = -\frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \sqrt{1 + 4\Omega} \right), \]  
(B.10)

and \( z_{2} \) defined in (5.2).

For \( x > x_{h} \), using (B.8) and the first expressions in (B.6), (B.9), we obtain
\[ \theta(x, t) = \theta_{h} + (\theta_{h} - \theta_{h+}) \exp(-(\nu - 1)(x - vt)) + A \exp(z_{1}(x - vt) + \omega t). \]  
(B.11)

Assuming that \( A, B \) and \( x_{h} - vt = \exp(\omega t) \) are small, and considering the limit \( x \to x_{h}(t) + 0 \), we find up to first order terms
\[ \theta_{+} = \theta_{h} + (A - \nu v) \exp(\omega t). \]  
(B.12)

where the last equality follows from (B.7). Analogous derivations using the second expressions in (B.6), (B.9) in the limit \( x \to x_{h}(t) - 0 \) yield
\[ \theta_{-} = \theta_{h} + B \exp(\omega t). \]  
(B.13)

For spatial derivatives, the corresponding limits are found similarly as

\[ \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right)_{+} = v + \left( z_{1} A + \frac{v^{2} \xi_{h}}{\theta_{h} - \theta_{h+}} \right), \]  
(B.14)

\[ \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right)_{-} = z_{2} B \exp(\omega t). \]  
(B.15)

Substituting (B.12)–(B.14) and \( x_{h} \) from (B.8) into (B.3), (B.5), zero order terms cancel due to (3.21), and for first order terms we obtain equations
\[ A - v \xi_{h} = B, \]  
(B.15)

\[ z_{1} A + v^{2} \xi_{h} \left( \theta_{h} - \theta_{h+} \right) - z_{2} B = -v \xi_{h}, \]  
(B.16)

\[ -2 v \xi_{h} A + v^{2} \xi_{h} \left( \theta_{h} - \theta_{h+} \right) \]  
\[ = N_{h} Y_{w} \exp \left( \frac{-\xi_{h}}{\theta_{h} + \theta_{h+}} \right) \left( 1 + 2 \frac{\theta_{h} - \theta_{h+}}{\xi_{h}} \right) B, \]  
(B.17)

Multiplying both sides of (B.17) by \( \left( \theta_{h} - \theta_{h+} \right) / 2v \) and using (3.21), we find
\[ -2 (\theta_{h} - \theta_{h+}) A / v - \nu v = KB \]  
(B.18)

with \( K \) defined in (5.2). Eqs. (B.15), (B.16), and (B.18) have nonzero solution for \( A, B, v \) if the determinant of the coefficient matrix vanishes. Using (B.7) and (B.10), this gives Eq. (5.1).

**References**
