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The effects of gas-fluid-rock interactions on CO₂ injection and storage: insights from reactive transport modeling

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Abstract

Possible means of reducing atmospheric CO₂ emissions include injecting CO₂ in petroleum reservoirs for Enhanced Oil Recovery or storing CO₂ in deep saline aquifers. Large-scale injection of CO₂ into subsurface reservoirs would induce a complex interplay of multiphase flow, capillary trapping, dissolution, diffusion, convection, and chemical reactions that may have significant impacts on both short-term injection performance and long-term fate of CO₂ storage. Reactive Transport Modeling is a promising approach that can be used to predict the spatial and temporal evolution of injected CO₂ and associated gas-fluid-rock interactions. This presentation will summarize recent advances in reactive transport modeling of CO₂ storage and review key technical issues on (1) the short- and long-term behavior of injected CO₂ in geological formations; (2) the role of reservoir mineral heterogeneity on injection performance and storage security; (3) the effect of gas mixtures (e.g., H₂S and SO₂) on CO₂ storage; and (4) the physical and chemical processes during potential leakage of CO2 from the primary storage reservoir. Simulation results suggest that CO₂ trapping capacity, rate, and impact on reservoir rocks depend on primary mineral composition and injecting gas mixtures. For example, models predict that the injection of CO₂ alone or co-injection with H₂S in both sandstone and carbonate reservoirs lead to acidified zones and mineral dissolution adjacent to the injection well, and carbonate precipitation and mineral trapping away from the well. Co-injection of CO_2 with H_2S and in particular with SO_2 causes greater formation alteration and complex sulfur mineral (alunite, anhydrite, and pyrite) trapping, sometimes at a much faster rate than previously thought. The results from Reactive Transport Modeling provide valuable insights for analyzing and assessing the dynamic behaviors of injected CO2, identifying and characterizing potential storage sites, and managing injection performance and reducing costs.

Keywords: CO2 injection and storage, gas-fluid-rock interactions, reactive transport modeling, ccs.

1. Introduction

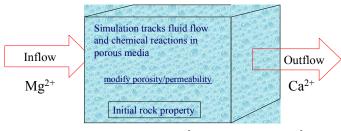
Possible means of reducing atmospheric CO_2 emissions include injecting CO_2 in petroleum reservoirs for EOR or storing CO_2 in deep saline aquifers. Sequestering raw CO_2 containing H_2S and/or SO_2 requires less energy to separate from flue gas or a coal gasification process and therefore might be the preferred disposal option [1, 2]. Large-scale injection of CO_2 and other gases into subsurface reservoirs may induce a complex interplay of multiphase flow, dissolution, precipitation, diffusion, convection, and other chemical reactions [3, 4]. Compared to CO_2 residual and solubility trapping, mineral trapping of CO_2 is potentially attractive because it could immobilize CO_2 for long time scales and increase storage security. Depending on the spatial distribution and temporal evolution of the CO_2 injection and associated mineral dissolution and precipitation (artificial diagenesis), the gas-fluid-rock interactions could have a significant impact on injection performance and storage capacity and security. Alteration of the predominant host rock minerals is usually very slow and therefore is not experimentally accessible under deep reservoir or aquifer conditions. Reactive Transport Modeling (RTM) is a promising approach that can be used to predict the spatial and temporal evolution of injected $CO_2/H_2S/SO_2$ and associated formation alteration [1, 2]. The objective of this study was to conduct reactive transport simulations to investigate mineral alteration and sequestration of mixed CO_2 , H_2S and SO_2 in a siliciclastic and a carbonate reservoir.

2. Reactive Transport Modeling Approach

A reactive transport model relies on a mathematical formulation to describe geochemical processes involving fluid-rock interactions. The general governing equation can be written as:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\phi C_i) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\phi D \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial x}\right) - \phi v \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial x} + \phi \sum_k \left(\frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t}\right)_k$$
(1)

Where C_i is the concentration of a specific species in the pore fluid, D is the combined diffusion and dispersion coefficient term, v is the linear fluid flow rate, and ϕ is the porosity. The first two terms on the right hand side describe the transport process (diffusion, dispersion, and advection) while the last term describes the effect of geochemical reactions (Figure 1).



Dolomitization: $2CaCO_3 + Mg^{2+} = CaMg(CO_3)_2 + Ca^{2+}$

Figure 1. Schematic diagram showing the reactive transport process involving dolomitization.

For example, the reaction of dolomitization can be expressed as:

$$\frac{\partial C_{dolo}}{\partial t} = S A e^{\frac{E_a}{RT}} \left(\frac{Q}{K_{eq}} - 1\right)^{2.26}$$
(2)

Where S represents the reactive surface area, A is the rate constant, Ea is the activation energy, Q/K_{eq} is the saturation index, and 2.26 is the reaction order [5].

Due to complex boundary conditions and complicated coupling between the transport and reaction terms, it is impossible to provide analytical solutions to equation (1) for even the simplest geochemical system. Therefore numerical solutions have to be used. Fortunately, due to the exponential increase in computational power, realistic reactive transport models are beginning to provide new insights to CO_2 injection and storage at both injection and geological time scales. The simulations in this study were carried out using the non-isothermal reactive geochemical transport code TOUGHREACT [6]. The program treats multi-phase fluid and heat flow, advection and diffusion. It models geochemical reactions including aqueous complexation, mineral dissolution and precipitation, gas dissolution and exsolution, and ion exchange. Special modeling considerations include CO_2 solubility dependence on P, T, and salinity, changes in porosity and permeability due to mineral dissolution and precipitation, gas phase and gaseous species are active in flow, transport, and other reactions. Two previous studies [1, 2] applied reactive transport modeling to investigate mixed $CO_2/H_2S/SO_2$ injections in sandstone reservoirs, this study covered gas injection and storage in both siliciclastic and carbonate reservoirs.

3. Reactive Transport Modeling Design

The 1D radial reactive transport models represent CO_2 injection in a siliciclastic and carbonate reservoir at 2 km depth and 70 °C. CO_2 and other gases were injected in the reservoir at a rate of 1 million ton per year over a period of 100 years. The reactive transport models simulate the system from 0 to 10,000 years. There are three scenarios of mixed gas injected: CO_2 only, $CO_2 + H_2S$, and $CO_2 + SO_2$. [You need to say something about how the gases are introduced; I presume that both H2S and SO2 are injected as aqueous solutes, because TOUGHREACT currently is not able to inject them directly as "free" gases.] The reservoirs are specified to have an initial porosity of 0.30 and initial permeability of 100 mD. The siliciclastic and carbonate reservoirs were defined by hypothetical mineral assemblages, representing an oligoclase/feldspar-rich sandstone reservoir and a limestone-rich reservoir, respectively (Table 1). Other primary and secondary minerals are listed in Table 1 as well.

Mineral	Chemical formula	Volume percent	
		Siliciclastic	Carbonate
		Reservoir	Reservoir
Primary:			
Quartz	SiO ₂	40.6	1.0
Kaolinite	$Al_2Si_2O_5(OH)_4$	1.41	0.15
Calcite	CaCO ₃	1.35	63.0
Illite	K _{0.6} Mg _{0.25} Al _{1.8} (Al _{0.5} Si _{3.5} O ₁₀)(OH) ₂	0.7	0.06
Oligoclase	$Ca_{0.2}Na_{0.8}Al_{1.2}Si_{2.8}O_8$	13.86	0.05
K-feldspar	KAlSi ₃ O ₈	5.74	0.12
Na-smectite	Na _{0.290} Mg _{0.26} Al _{1.77} Si _{3.97} O ₁₀ (OH) ₂	4.8	0.06
Chlorite	$Mg_{2.5} Fe_{2.5}Al_2Si_3O_{10}(OH)_8$	3.19	0.39
Hematite	Fe_2O_3	0.35	0.00
Porosity		30	30
Secondary:			
Anhydrite	CaSO ₄		
Magnesite	MgCO ₃		
Dolomite	CaMg(CO ₃) ₂		
Low-albite	NaAlSi ₃ O ₈		
Siderite	FeCO ₃		
Ankerite	$CaMg_{0.3}Fe_{0.7}(CO_3)_2$		
Dawsonite	NaAlCO ₃ (OH) ₂		
Ca-smectite	Na _{0.145} Mg _{0.26} Al _{1.77} Si _{3.97} O ₁₀ (OH) ₂		
Alunite	$KAl_3 (OH)_6 (SO_4)_2$		
Pyrite	FeS ₂		
Opal-A	SiO ₂		

Table 1. Initial mineral compositions of the siliciclastic and carbonate reservoirs and secondary minerals considered in the simulation (after Xu et al, [1]).

4. Simulation Results: Sandstone Reservoir Injection

4.1 pH Evolution

The simulation results from the CO₂ only case are similar to those from CO₂ + H₂S. The results from CO₂ + SO₂ case are however, significantly different (Figure 2). CO₂ and CO₂ + H₂S injection leads to lower pH (~4) near the well bore, resulting from the dissolution of CO₂ and H₂S in the formation water. Once the injection stops, the pH is quickly buffered by the reservoir minerals and goes back to a more neutral value (~6). Co-injection of SO₂ with CO₂ leads to very low pH (~0), presumably due to the dissolution of SO₂ and the formation of sulphuric acid zone close to the injection well. Corrosion and well abandonment are potential issues. After injection, the pH is buffered but still remains considerably low near the well bore.

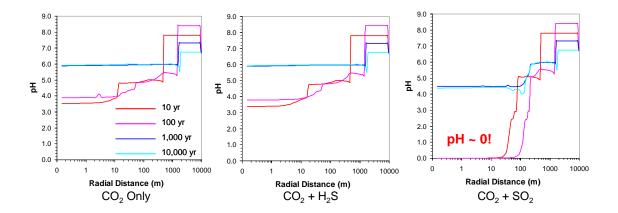


Figure 2. Simulated pH distribution as a function of radial distance at 10, 100, 1,000, and 10,000 years for the three mixed gas injection scenarios in a siliciclastic reservoir (after Xu et al, [1]).

4.2 Mineral Dissolution/Precipitation

Simulation results reveal that both CO_2 and $CO_2 + H_2S$ injections would dissolve oligoclase and precipitate smectite, although at a relatively slow rate (~0.1%/yr) with a gradual reaction front extending 100 meters. The $CO_2 + SO_2$ injection however, dissolves both minerals at much faster rates (~1%/yr) with a sharp reaction front (Figure 3).

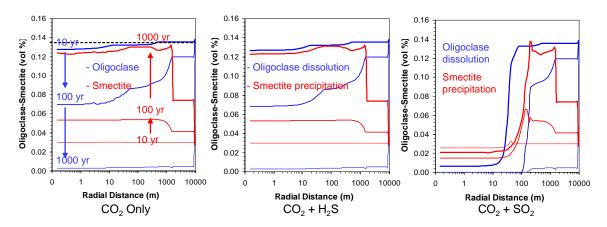


Figure 3. Simulated mineral (oligoclase and smectite) evolution as a function of radial distance at 10, 100, 1,000, and 10,000 years for the three mixed gas injection scenarios in a siliciclastic reservoir.

4.3 CO₂ Sequestration Capacity

Simulation results indicate that most sequestered CO_2 is in the form of ankerite and dawsonite, and can reach 80 kg/m³ or ~5% of bulk mineral weight over 10,000 years (Figure 4). The mineral trapping zones associated with CO_2 and $CO_2 + H_2S$ injection are broader while $CO_2 + SO_2$ injection leads to a narrower trapping zone farther away from the injection well. The RTM results are consistent with field observations [7, 8] and natural analogue studies [9].

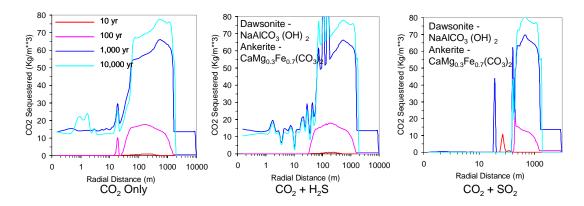


Figure 4. Simulated mineral trapping capacity (via dawsonite and ankerite) as a function of radial distance at 10, 100, 1,000, and 10,000 years for the three mixed gas injection scenarios in a siliciclastic reservoir (after Xu et al, [1]).

5. Simulation Results: Carbonate Reservoir Injection

5.1 pH Evolution

The simulation results from the CO₂ only case are similar to those from CO₂ + H₂S. The results from CO₂ + SO₂ case are however, significantly different (Figure 5). CO₂ and CO₂ + H₂S injection leads to lower pH (~4.5, less so comparing to siliciclastic reservoir) near the well bore, resulting from the dissolution of CO₂ and H₂S in the formation water and quicker buffering reactions. Once the injection stops, the pH increases slightly (~5) but does not rebound to more neutral pH due to limited buffering capability. Co-injection of SO₂ with CO₂ leads to very low pH (~0), presumably due to the dissolution of SO₂ and the formation of a sulphuric acid zone close to the injection well. Corrosion and well abandonment can be potential issues. After the injection, the pH is buffered but still remains considerably low near the well bore.

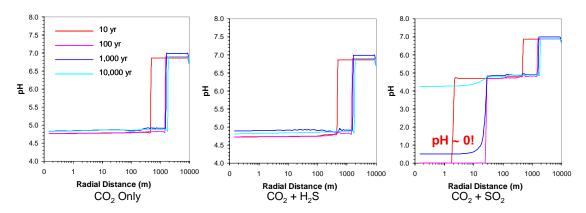


Figure 5. Simulated pH distribution as a function of radial distance at 10, 100, 1,000, and 10,000 years for the three mixed gas injection scenarios in a carbonate reservoir.

5.2 Mineral Dissolution/Precipitation

Simulation results reveal that calcite dissolution occurs in all cases at a much faster rate compared to the siliciclastic reservoir injection. Under mixed $CO_2 + SO_2$ injection, significant and rapid calcite dissolution and anhydrite precipitation occurs near the well bore with a sharp reaction front. The latter could lead to

significant loss of injection performance due to porosity reduction. The simulation results are comparable with field observations of acid gas injections in carbonate reservoirs [10].

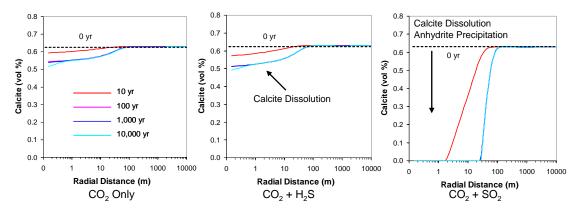


Figure 6. Simulated mineral (calcite) evolution as a function of radial distance at 10, 100, 1,000, and 10,000 years for the three mixed gas injection scenarios in a carbonate reservoir.

6. Porosity Evolution

Siliciclastic Reservoir: The gas injection leads to an increase in porosity close to the well due to net mineral dissolution, and a decrease at distances due to mineral trapping in all three cases (Figure 7). However, the porosity gains associated with CO_2 and $CO_2 + H_2S$ injection are much smaller (0.30 to 0.32) compared to the $CO_2 + SO_2$ injection (0.30 to 0.50) at 100 years. The same trend is observed for mineral trapping.

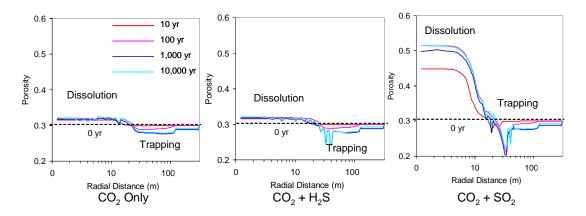


Figure 7. Simulated porosity evolution as a function of radial distance at 10, 100, 1,000, and 10,000 years for the three mixed gas injection scenarios in a siliciclastic reservoir (after Xu et al, [1]).

Carbonate Reservoir: Simulation results indicate that there are significant porosity increases (0.30 to 0.40 at 100 years) associated with CO_2 and $CO_2 + H_2S$ injection due to calcite dissolution near the well bore (Figure 8). However, there is significant porosity decrease (0.30 to 0.20) associated with $CO_2 + SO_2$ injection due to anhydrite precipitation. There is little mineral trapping in all three mixed gas injection scenarios, suggesting limited CO_2 sequestration capacity in a limestone dominated carbonate reservoir.

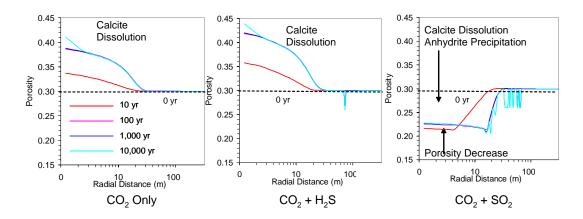


Figure 8. Simulated porosity evolution as a function of radial distance at 10, 100, 1,000, and 10,000 years for the three mixed gas injection scenarios in a carbonate reservoir.

7. Summary and Conclusions

- The behavior of CO₂ and acid gas injection and storage is controlled by gas mixtures, reservoir mineralogy, timing, and injection design.
- Co-injection of H₂S yields similar behavior compared to CO₂ injection. Co-injection of SO₂ results in the formation of sulfuric acid close to the well. Corrosion of pipes and well abandonment are potential issues.
- Significantly more CO_2 is sequestered as ankerite and dawsonite in siliciclastic reservoirs than in carbonate reservoirs, with the mineral trapping capability reaching as much as 80 kg/m³.
- Most injection scenarios result in porosity increase close to the well and decrease at distances. However, co-injection of SO₂ in a carbonate reservoir leads to significant anhydrite precipitation and porosity reduction in the near-well region.
- The results from Reactive Transport Modeling provide valuable insights for describing, analyzing, interpreting, and assessing the physical properties and dynamic behaviours of injected CO₂ and facilitating the screening and evaluation of CO₂ storage strategy.

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