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Peer reviewed

- 1 CO₂ Flow Modeling in a Coupled Wellbore and Aquifer System: Details of Pressure, Temperature, and
- 2 Dry-Out
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1 Abstract:

In order to understand the details of thermal and hydrologic processes attending CO₂ injection into a deep aquifer in the context of Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS), we have carried out coupled wellreservoir simulations of CO₂ injection using the simulator T2WELL-ECO2M. We focus on the injection of cold, dry CO₂ into a warm aquifer and analyze in detail the thermal and hydraulic processes of the coupled well-reservoir system. The results demonstrate the effectiveness of T2WELL in accurately modeling non-isothermal, multiphase flow, phase changes, and identifying dry-out regions in porous media.

9 We simulated heat exchange with the ambient environment, friction effects, convection, exothermic 10 dissolution in brine, and cooling due to both Joule-Thomson effect and water vaporization. The 11 temperature profile within the wellbore deviated from the geothermal profile, impacting CO₂ 12 properties at the bottomhole. The simulation revealed the presence of three fronts in the formation: 13 the CO₂ saturation, thermal, and evaporation fronts. The thermal and evaporation fronts were located 14 farther behind the saturation front, indicating limited dry-out and thermal effects near the wellbore.

This simulation capability and insights gained in this study form a foundation for ongoing work such as sensitivity analyses, injection optimization, performance assessment, and operational decision support.

18

19 Keywords: Coupled well-reservoir system, T2WELL-ECO2M, Thermal processes, Dry-out region,
20 Injectivity

1 1. Introduction

2 Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) is a practical approach to decreasing the concentration of CO_2 in the 3 atmosphere and mitigating the greenhouse effect, as well as a transitional step towards renewable 4 energy sources. (e.g., Vilarrasa & Rutqvist, 2017). CCS includes capturing CO₂ from industrial sources, 5 transport to a storage site, and injection through the wellbore into specific geologic underground 6 formations. The injection of CO_2 into subsurface formations is a well-established technology in the oil 7 and gas industry, serving as an enhanced oil recovery method for several decades (Hill et al., 2013; 8 Kumar et al., 2022). Despite relatively slow development of CCS worldwide, several pilot and 9 commercial scales CO₂ storage projects have been or are being performed to prove the reliability and 10 applicability of CO₂ injection and to reduce knowledge gaps in providing safe CCS technology (Alkan et 11 al., 2023; Finley et al., 2013; Hovorka et al., 2006; Litynski et al., 2013; Mathieson et al., 2011; 12 Movahedzadeh et al., 2021; Page et al., 2020; Preston et al., 2005; Rangriz Shokri et al., 2021; Sato et 13 al., 2011; Torp & Gale, 2004; Würdemann et al., 2010). Nevertheless, significant CO₂ injection over an 14 extended period for storage purposes may pose multiple challenges, including impairments to 15 injectivity and potential leakage from the storage complex. These challenges may hinder the fast 16 implementation of CCS projects (Kelemen et al., 2019).

17 Proper assessment of a CCS project requires accurately evaluating reservoir behavior in response to 18 physical, chemical, and thermal perturbation induced by large-scale CO₂ injection over a long injection 19 period (André et al., 2010). Thermophysical properties of pure CO₂, such as density, viscosity, enthalpy, 20 and phase behavior, depend on pressure and temperature, and play a crucial role in CO₂ injectivity, 21 storage capacity, and storage safety (Sokama-Neuyam et al., 2020, 2022, Buursink, 2014; Al-22 Khdheeawi et al., 2018). Due to significant variations in temperature and pressure profiles along the 23 wellbore, thermophysical properties of CO₂ at the bottomhole are different from its properties at the 24 wellhead (Henninges et al., 2011; Lindeberg, 2011; Lu & Connell, 2014b; Vilarrasa et al., 2013). Multiple 25 processes can influence the temperature profile along the wellbore. Heat exchange through the casing

walls during CO₂ flow in the wellbore through different geological formations is the primary source of
temperature change. This heat exchange depends on flow rate, well completion and isolation status,
geothermal gradient, and thermal properties of the surrounding formations (Vilarrasa et al., 2013). In
addition, frictional loss, thermal conduction, convection, and the Joule-Thomson effect can alter
temperature profiles (André et al., 2010; Vilarrasa & Rutqvist, 2017).

6 In addition, mutual interaction between the wellbore and storage formation, strong transient flow 7 during CO₂ injection operation start-up and shut-in, phase transition along the wellbore, dominancy of 8 inertia force within the wellbore, and possible leakage of fluid through casing and cement near the 9 wellbore emphasize the importance of having a reliable simulation tool that can adequately describe 10 CO_2 flow in the wellbore. Despite its importance for evaluating CO_2 storage, only a few papers have 11 addressed CO₂ flow in the well (Liu et al., 2016; Lu & Connell, 2014b; Pan et al., 2011; Piao et al., 2018; 12 Strpic et al., 2021). Most CO_2 injection simulation studies have focused on CO_2 flow in porous media, 13 while the flow in the wellbore has either been disregarded (Dalkhaa et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2014) or 14 coupling separate software for wellbore and reservoir simulation (Aakre et al., 2018), or treated as a 15 part of porous media by assigning equivalent parameters (André et al., 2010). This latter approach is called the equivalent porous media approach (EPM). However, this approach overlooks the distinct 16 17 nature of flow in porous media and the wellbore, which we will elaborate on further below.

18 As CCS gains attention as a viable solution for mitigating global warming, there is a growing need for 19 reliable simulation tools to design and optimize CCS projects, particularly in the near-wellbore region. 20 The success of CCS projects relies on the ability to predict the behavior of CO₂ in the near wellbore 21 region, which is influenced by complex thermodynamic and fluid flow processes. One of the critical 22 challenges in CCS projects is accurately modeling the behavior of CO₂ as it flows through the wellbore 23 and storage formation. To address this challenge, we investigate the strength and limitations of 24 T2WELL-ECO2M, a simulation code from the TOUGH family, for modeling non-isothermal flow in the 25 wellbore and storage formation, focusing on answering critical industrial questions related to the

1 injection of CO_2 into saline aquifers. Specifically, we aim to understand how T2WELL-ECO2M can be 2 used to model the behavior of CO_2 during injection, including thermal effects, phase changes, 3 multiphase flow, and the occurrence of the dry-out region in the near wellbore region. By doing so, we 4 hope to provide insights into the capabilities and limitations of this simulation tool and the potential 5 challenges and opportunities for designing and optimizing CO₂ storage projects. The finding of this 6 study serves as the basis for ongoing research on parameter sensitivity analysis for CO₂ flow in the 7 wellbore and reservoir to address some of the fundamental industrial challenges summarized as 8 follows:

Near-wellbore effect: Under what conditions does a dry-out region emerge, and how far does
 it extend into the reservoir? What is the impact of cold CO₂ injection on the integrity of the
 caprock/wellbore and surrounding reservoir, and how can this impact be minimized?

How do thermodynamic processes, such as heat transfer and phase change, affect CO₂ flow
 behavior during injection into the reservoir and subsequent propagation within the storage
 formation?

15

16 2. Method

17 2.1. Numerical simulator

18 The T2WELL-ECO2M simulator (Pan & Oldenburg, 2014; Strpic et al., 2021) has been used for this study 19 because it provides coupled well-reservoir simulation capabilities for CO₂-brine systems over a wide 20 range of P-T conditions. T2WELL is an extension to TOUGH2, a general-purpose numerical simulation 21 code for non-isothermal flows of multi-component, multiphase fluids in multi-dimensional porous and 22 fractured media (Pruess et al., 2012). T2WELL-ECO2M uses an explicit tabulated file to describe the 23 density, viscosity, and enthalpy of pure CO₂. It allows modifying this file and including a new data set 24 based on a different equation of state (EOS). Compared with the earlier version of T2WELL, where the 25 ECO2N module is applied, ECO2M covers the thermophysical properties of CO₂ in a broader range of

temperature (between -18 and 360 °C) and pressure (between 0.001 MPa and 200 MPa). The simulation tool uses Altunin's correlation (1975) to describe the thermophysical properties of CO₂ in its original state. One of the main advantages of ECO2M is its capability to describe all possible phase changes of CO₂ between gaseous, supercritical, and liquid states, which is crucial for studying different operational pressure and temperature conditions.

6 The other necessary functionality of T2WELL is coupling the wellbore and reservoir by considering two 7 different sub-domains controlled by different underlying flow physics and the ability to solve strongly 8 non-linear and non-isothermal multiphase CO₂ flow equations within the wellbore and storage 9 formation. The multiphase Darcy's law describes three-dimensional flow through the porous media 10 (i.e., reservoir). Viscous flow within the wellbore is modeled by a one-dimensional momentum 11 equation known as the drift flux model (Shi et al., 2005). In addition, brine evaporation and CO2 12 solubility are included as analytical functions. The partitioning of H₂O and CO₂ among co-existing 13 aqueous and CO₂-rich phases are derived from the equality of the chemical potential of all components 14 in various phases as a function of pressure, temperature, and salinity. T2WELL-ECO2M utilizes a semi-15 analytical heat exchange calculation approach to model the heat exchange between wellbore fluid and 16 confining beds and regions outside the flow domain. This approach significantly enhances 17 computational efficiency. Further details of the formulations used in the T2WEII-ECO2M simulator can 18 be found in Pan and Oldenburg 2014. Below we focus on demonstrating the applicability of the code 19 by focusing on the details of the interesting behavior of a model well-reservoir system undergoing CO₂ 20 injection and dry out.

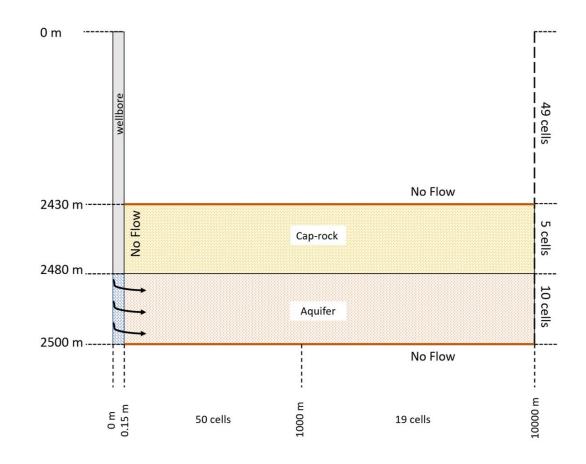
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23 2.2 Conceptual model description

A synthetic two-dimensional radial model of 10 km in radius is considered, schematically shown in Figure 1. The storage reservoir consists of a 20 m thick permeable formation (ϕ = 0.2 and K = 250 mD)

1 with a depth range of 2480 to 2500 meters, overlaid by a 50 m thick cap rock ($\phi = 0.1$ and K = 0.01 mD) 2 with the depth range 2430 to 2480 meters. Homogeneous domains are assumed for both the storage 3 formation and cap rock. The ratio of horizontal to vertical permeability is set to 1. The wellbore and 4 porous media are initially filled with water. The water salinity was set to zero to study only the dry-out 5 phenomenon due to evaporation in the well-near reservoir region and to decouple salt precipitation 6 and its potential effects on pore blockage and pressure build-up. The assumed surface conditions of 7 20 °C and 1 atm, hydrostatic pressure gradient of 10.4 kPa/m, and geothermal gradient of 0.016 °C/m 8 resulted in storage formation pressure and temperature equal to 26 MPa and 60°C, respectively. In the 9 model, the wellbore is situated on the far-left side and extends from the surface down to the reservoir, 10 positioned at a depth of 2500 meters. The internal diameter of the wellbore is 15 cm. The wellbore is 11 solely connected to the storage section located between 2480 and 2500 meters, with no connection 12 assumed along other parts. In these regions, a semi-analytical approach for heat exchange is utilized 13 instead.



1

Figure 1: Schematic illustration of the model with the wellbore, storage formation, and cap rock

2 The wellbore is discretized into 49 grids, each with a uniform length of 50 meters, up to the top of the 3 cap rock at a depth of 2430 meters. Beyond that point, the cap rock section is divided into five layers 4 with thicknesses that vary from 30 meters at the top to 2 meters at the bottom. The storage formation 5 is divided into ten layers, each with a constant thickness of 2 meters. The porous medium is also 6 discretized radially with variable mesh size so that finer mesh is used near the wellbore to capture 7 different phenomena more accurately and gradually becomes coarser towards the outer boundary. 8 The simulation model comprises a total of 1100 cells, including both the reservoir and wellbore. Of 9 these cells, 65 are located within the wellbore, while 690 and 345 are within the reservoir and cap rock 10 sections, respectively.

11 An infinite volume grid is utilized at the rightmost side of the reservoir and caprock (i.e., the Dirichlet 12 boundary condition) to maintain constant pressure and temperature at the initial reservoir conditions. 13 No-flow boundaries are assumed for the caprock's upper portions and the reservoir's lower portions. The leftmost boundary condition is governed by the injection rate assigned to the topmost cell in the 14 15 wellbore. Dry CO_2 is injected from the topmost wellbore grid, entering the reservoir along the ten 16 bottommost cells (Figure 1). An extra high-volume cell above the wellhead is considered to maintain 17 the operational condition. The Van Genuchten-Mualem model (Genuchten, 1980; Mualem, 1976) is 18 used for capillary pressure and relative permeability inside the reservoir, and Corey's model for relative 19 permeability inside caprock. Typically, the capillary pressure is more significant in the caprock than in 20 the sandstone reservoir because the cap rock has smaller pore sizes. The parameters of the Van Genuchten model are selected to imitate this phenomenon. Additional information about the 21 22 conceptual model can be found in Table 1, while capillary pressure and relative permeability curves 23 are depicted in Figure 2.

Formation Properties	Values	
	Storage	Cap rock

		-	
Thickness [m]	20	50	
Porosity [-]	0.2	0.1	
Permeability [mD]	250	1e-2	
Thermal conductivity [W/m.ºC]	2.5	1.72	
Rock grain Specific Heat [J/Kg °C]	1000	1000	
Compressibility [1/Pa]	8.5e-10	8.5e-10	
Transport Parameters	Val	Values	
	Storage	Cap rock	
Relative permeability	Van Genuchten model:	Corey's model:	
	$\lambda \text{= }0.7\text{, }S_{\text{lr}} \text{= }0.3\text{,}$	S _{Ir} = 0.3, S _{gr} = 0.05	
	$S_{ls} = 0.95, S_{gr} = 0.05$		
Capillary pressure	Van Genuchten model:	Van Genuchten model:	
	λ = 0.457, S _{Ir} = 0.25, 1/P ₀ =	λ = 0.5, S _{Ir} = 0.25,	
	8*10 ⁻⁵ , P _{max} = 10 ⁷ , S _{Is} =	1/P ₀ =10 ⁻⁵ , P _{max} = 10 ⁸ , S _{Is} = 2	
	0.999		
Wellbore Properties	Values		
Internal diameter (I.D.) [m]	0.15		
Length [m]	2500		
Injection temperature [°C]	5		
Wellbore roughness [m]	5e-5		
Injection rate [kg/s] @ wellhead	10		
Thermal Conductivity [W/m. °C]	2.5		
General Properties	Values		
Temperature gradient [°C/m]	0.016		
Pressure gradient [Pa/m]	1.04e4		
Surface pressure [Pa]	1.01e5		
Surface temperature [°C]	20		
able 1: Model properties			

1

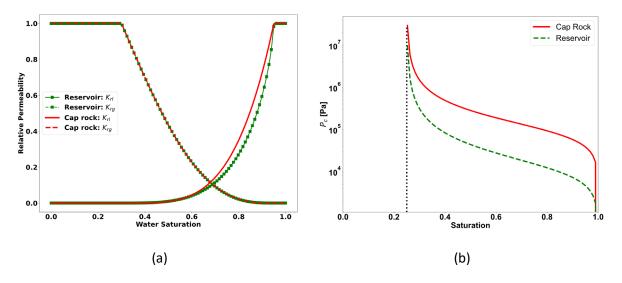


Figure 2: (a) relative permeability curves and (b) capillary pressure curves used within cap rock and reservoir.

2 Case description

1

3 A synthetic case is utilized to investigate the CO₂ flow inside the wellbore, comprising phase transitions, pressure/temperature profiles, and the resulting CO2 front, thermal front, and dry-out region within 4 5 the reservoir. The injection of dry CO_2 at a constant mass flow rate of 10 kg/sec as a boundary 6 condition, a temperature of 5°C, and a pressure of 10.1 MPa right above the wellhead is considered for 7 this purpose. This injection condition results in a liquid CO₂ state above the wellhead. Liquid CO₂ 8 injection is selected for several reasons, including testing the minimum temperature that T2WELL-9 ECO2M can handle, accounting for phase changes in the wellbore, and potentially offering an energy-10 efficient injection concept (Vilarrasa et al., 2013). When injection starts, CO₂ flows 2500 meters to 11 reach the bottomhole while experiencing thermal processes such as heat convection, conduction, 12 Joule-Thomson, and frictional flow. As a combined result of these processes, the bottomhole temperature may significantly differ from the initial injecting temperature (i.e., 5 °C) and initial 13 reservoir temperature (i.e., 60 °C), which affect CO₂ propagation within the storage formation. 14

This study investigates the flow and heat propagation within the reservoir along three lines at distinct depths. The top layer is the first row of cells beneath the interface between the cap rock and storage formation at 2480 meters, while the center layer is in the middle of the reservoir at a depth of 2490

meters. The bottom layer is positioned at the bottommost row of the reservoir at a depth of 2500
 meters (Figure 1).

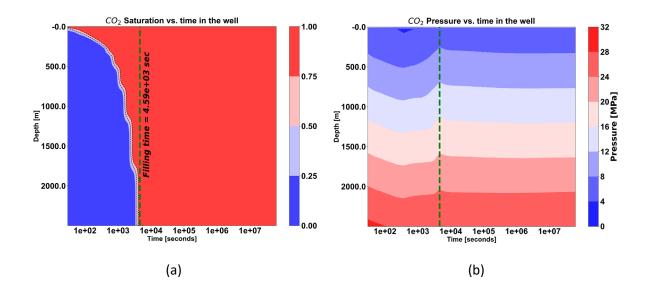
3 3. Results

4 **3.1.** Characterization of CO₂ flow within the wellbore

5 Figure 3 shows the evolution of CO₂ a) saturation, b) pressure, and c) temperature within the wellbore 6 over the whole simulation time (i.e., two years). The double dashed line represents the front between 7 water that initially filled the wellbore and injected CO₂, and the vertical dashed line reflects the filling 8 time. Filling time refers to the required time for CO₂ to push the water from the wellbore into the 9 reservoir. In these figures, three regions are recognized, summarized as follows: (I) at the initial state 10 (t = 0 sec), the well is filled by water and pressure, and temperature follows the hydrostatic pressure 11 and geothermal gradient along the wellbore. (II) after injection starts, a narrow transition zone can be 12 recognized where the wellbore flow changes into a multiphase where both CO₂ and brine are flowing together. As injection starts, CO₂ saturation within the wellbore increases, displacing the water within 13 14 the wellbore into the reservoir (Figure 3-a). In this period, according to Figure 3-b, for a short time, ca. 15 500 seconds (ca. 8.5 mins), the overall pressure profile decreases, and then until the filling time, 16 pressure build-up is observed. It can be attributed to the higher flow resistance within the porous 17 medium compared to the wellbore. The pressure build-up reaches its peak at the time of filling. The 18 whole transient time lasts for 77 minutes. From the practical point of view, before starting the CO₂ 19 injection, water within the wellbore will be replaced by injecting cushion gas to prevent contact of 20 water with CO₂ and possible corrosion within the tubing. However, T2WELL-ECO2M only models CO₂, 21 water, and salt and therefore cannot model this procedure. (III) after filling time, only CO₂ is flowing 22 within the wellbore. Following the filling time, the pressure profile along the wellbore approaches a 23 steady state and remains relatively stable.

Figure 3-c shows the temperature profile evolution over time in the wellbore. Initially, the water
temperature in the wellbore follows the assigned geothermal gradient. According to the temperature

gradient, colder water (20 °C) is located at a shallower depth and gradually becomes warmer and 1 2 reaches 60 °C at the bottomhole. As the injection starts, cold CO₂ at the wellhead pushes the water 3 column within the wellbore into the storage formation. First, the warmer water enters the reservoir, 4 and gradually, colder water from further up in the column enters the reservoir. Due to the high 5 injection rate in the wellbore, the heat transfer mechanism is mainly controlled by convection 6 compared to other mechanisms, such as conduction and frictional effect. The decrease in temperature 7 before the filling time can be captured in Figure 3-c. At the filling time, the CO₂ temperature at the 8 bottomhole is around 40 °C which is significantly higher than the temperature of the injected CO₂ at 9 the surface (5 °C) but still lower than the temperature of the reservoir (60 °C). As illustrated in Figure 3-c, after filling time, even though the temperature at the wellhead reaches the steady state, the 10 11 temperature at the bottomhole is still changing due to convection heat transfer. As injection continues, 12 colder CO₂ will cool down the surrounding formation, reducing the transfer of heat from the formation to the CO₂ flowing in the wellbore. This leads to the continuous arrival of colder CO₂ to the bottomhole. 13



12

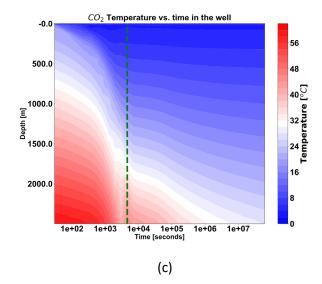


Figure 3: (a) saturation, (b) pressure, and (c) temperature profiles vs. time within the wellbore

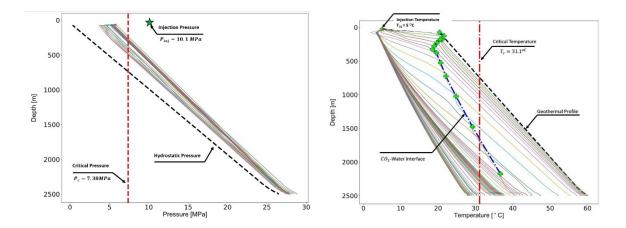
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2 As a complement to Figure 3, we present Figure 4 to illustrate the pressure and temperature profiles 3 along the wellbore at different times. The thick dashed lines correspond to the initially assigned 4 geothermal temperature and hydrostatic pressure. According to Figure 4a-b, it is shown that the 5 pressure profile quickly deviates from the initial hydrostatic pressure, and during the injection, the 6 pressure profile remains constant. It is due to the injection conditions that the CO₂ density becomes 7 large at 940 kg/m³ which is very close to the original brine density (999 kg/m³), which was used to 8 calculate the hydrostatic pressure profile (Figure 4-c). Conversely, the temperature profile deviates 9 very slowly from the geothermal gradient, and this is due to an interplay between different heat 10 processes, including convective flow in the wellbore and heat transfer from the ambient formation. 11 The temperature profile clearly illustrates that CO₂ is heating up as it goes down the wellbore but with 12 a slower gradient than the geothermal gradient. Therefore, the temperature at the bottomhole is 13 significantly lower than the reservoir temperature, consistent with field observations reported in 14 numerous articles(Bissell et al., 2011; Lu & Connell, 2014a, 2014b; Paterson et al., 2008, 2010).

In addition, the data in Figure 4a, b can be used for two purposes: (a) To indicate at which depth phase transition can occur and track its development, and (b) to show how fast phase changes arise/diminish, and the pressure and temperature reached at steady-state conditions. In this case, phase transitions can be captured twice: the first is at the early stages, when phase change involves the transition from

liquid (at the wellhead) to gaseous state. This phase change happened right after the injection started
and gradually expanded within the wellbore. After 244 seconds, the phase-change front expanded up
to 300 meters, and after that, the expansion length reduced and completely diminished after 858
seconds. The second transition occurred at a depth of 1750 meters at *t* = 3019 s, marking the initial
point at which CO₂ achieved the conditions for a supercritical state (Figure 4-b). Over approximately
40 days, CO₂ flowed in a supercritical state below a depth of 1750 meters, gradually diminishing until
it flowed solely in the liquid state.

8 Phase transition and CO₂ properties continuously change over the injection period, initially from liquid 9 to gas and later from liquid to supercritical and vice versa. To gain a more comprehensive 10 understanding of the phase transitions and behavior during the injection period, we plotted 11 temperature and pressure profiles on the CO₂ phase transition diagram, as shown in Figure 4-d. It 12 highlights three different times, (I) first, the initial condition as injection starts (Time = 0 s), (II) second, 13 when all of the water in the wellbore is replaced by CO_2 , which is stated by the filling time (Time = 4592 14 s) and (III) third, at the end of the injection after two years. However, the temperature and pressure 15 variation rate after the filling time is significantly reduced compared to the initial transient flow period. 16 Meanwhile, the Pressure-Temperature profile follows the iso-enthalpy lines. This behavior aligns with 17 previous findings in various studies, indicating that pressure and temperature profiles within the 18 wellbore can transiently change during CO₂ injection. (Li et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015; Lu & Connell, 19 2008, 2014a, 2014b).



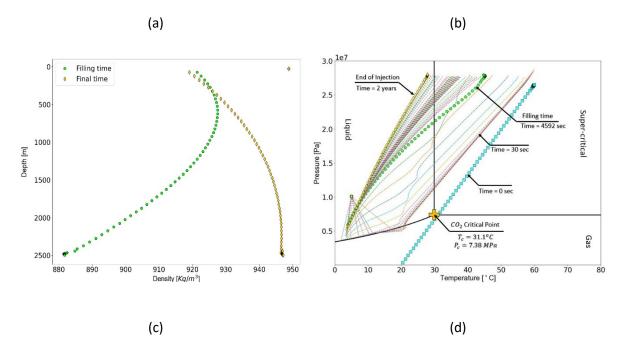
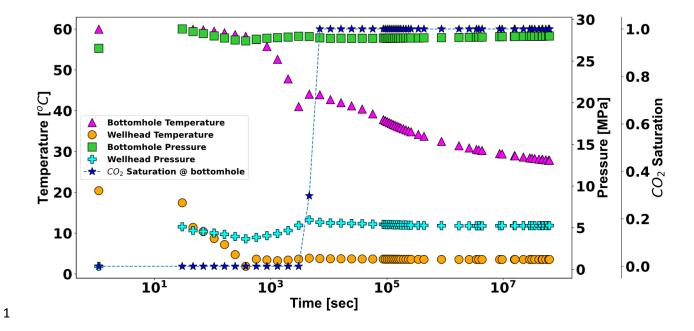


Figure 4: Pressure and temperature profile evolution along the wellbore: (a) temperature profile vs. depth, (b) pressure
 profile vs. depth and (c) density profile, and (d) pressure-temperature plot vs. CO₂ phase behavior

3 Figure 5 illustrates the CO₂ saturation, pressure, and temperature evolution at the wellhead and 4 bottomhole. The CO₂ saturation profile is used to track the location of CO₂ within the wellbore. The 5 temperature profile at the bottomhole is mainly influenced by the colder water in the wellbore before 6 the filling time. As the CO_2 is injected into the reservoir, the colder water is displaced toward the 7 reservoir resulting in a downward trend in the temperature profile. However, just before the filling 8 time, there is a slight uptick in the bottomhole temperature, with a rise of 3 °C from 41 to 44 °C. This 9 increase in temperature can be attributed to the compression of the CO₂ as it enters the storage 10 formation. Following the filling time, a sustained cooling effect is observed, which persists throughout 11 the injection period. This cooling effect is significant, with the bottomhole temperature gradually 12 decreasing to around 30 °C after two years of injection, which is half the actual bottomhole 13 temperature of 60 °C and six times higher than the injection temperature. This continuous cooling can 14 be attributed to the decreasing heat transfer capabilities of the surrounding environment, which 15 reduces its ability to heat the fluid in the wellbore.

1 In contrast to the bottomhole, the temperature profile at the wellhead displays a distinctly different 2 pattern. Initially, the CO₂ cools down after injection begins, but the temperature remains higher than 3 the injected temperature (5°C) due to heat exchange with the surrounding environment (20°C). The 4 cooling observed downstream is a result of decompression or expansion. The pressure at surface (one 5 cell above wellhead) is maintained at 10.1 MPa to keep the CO₂ in a liquid state, whereas the pressure 6 at the wellhead drops to approximately 5 MPa. This sudden pressure drop causes expansion, leading 7 to a phase transition from liquid to gas and a decrease in temperature due to the Joule-Thomson effect. 8 The cooling effect at the wellhead stabilizes within a few hundred seconds, reaching a steady 9 temperature of around 3.5°C. The combined effect of these heat processes results in a temperature at 10 the wellhead significantly lower than the ambient temperature (20°C) and slightly lower than the 11 injection temperature.

The pressure profile at the bottomhole is mainly governed by the injection rate. In contrast, the pressure value at the wellhead includes the pressure profile within the wellbore and overpressure from the reservoir. As illustrated in Figure 5, the pressure profile at the bottomhole is relatively constant and around 2 MPa higher than reservoir pressure. The pressure profile at the wellhead shows little pressure build-up due to higher resistance toward flow within the reservoir. This variation is limited to the filling time; after that, no pressure change is observed in the wellhead.



2 *Figure 5: Tracking the pressure, temperature, and saturation profile at the wellhead and bottomhole as a function of time.*

3

4 **3.2.** Characterization of CO₂ flow within the storage formation

5 Monitoring pressure, temperature, and saturation propagation within the reservoir is crucial for 6 practical purposes such as tracking CO₂ plume migration and identifying potential issues related to 7 wellbore and storage integrity. The properties of CO₂ in the wellbore can impact the flow 8 characteristics and features of the reservoir, including heat propagation, the dry-out region near the 9 wellbore, and the movement of CO₂ away from the wellbore. The dynamics of CO₂ plume are primarily governed by the density of CO2, which in turn is controlled by temperature. Figure 6 depicts the 10 11 propagation of CO₂ saturation, temperature, and pressures over four different time frames, 100 days, 12 one year, 1.5 years, and two years. The gravity override caused by the difference between CO_2 and 13 water densities is evident in Figure 6 a-d. (Alkan et al., 2023).

As cold CO₂ is injected into the reservoir, it creates a cool zone near the wellbore. However, as it travels deeper into the reservoir, its temperature gradually increases, causing a change in density. The CO₂ density is higher near the wellbore (916 kg/m³) and lower at the plume front (790 kg/m³). This change in density causes the CO₂ to migrate preferentially through the upper portion of the reservoir and

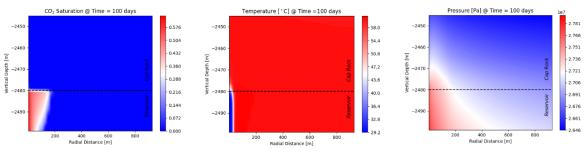
exhibit a more stable front near the wellbore. Another notable observation is that even though the
caprock has considerably lower permeability than the storage formation, the CO₂ still advances slightly
into the caprock near the wellbore. This region is of practical importance, as it could potentially result
in leakage, and further investigation is necessary.

5 Temperature propagation is illustrated in Figure 6 e-h, which shows a significantly lower rate of 6 propagation in comparison with CO₂ migration. To better understand the low propagation of heat in 7 comparison with CO₂ saturation, thermal and pressure diffusivity can be compared (Pruess et al., 8 2012). Thermal diffusivity can be defined by Equation 1, in which λ is thermal conductivity, ρ_r is rock 9 density, and C_r is rock-specific heat. Pressure diffusivity is calculated by Equation 2, in which K is 10 permeability, ϕ is rock porosity, c is fluid compressibility, and μ is the fluid density. The corresponding 11 parameter values are summarized in Table 1, and based on the values, pressure diffusivity is around one $[m^2/s]$ while thermal diffusivity is $10^{-6} [m^2/s]$, several orders smaller than pressure diffusivity. 12

$$\Theta = \frac{\lambda}{\rho_r C_r}$$
Equation 1
$$D_p = \frac{K}{\phi c \mu}$$
Equation 2

13 The cooling of the storage formation is limited to a relatively small area near the wellbore and back of 14 the casing, as Rutqvist (2012) noted. This cooling can cause a significant decrease in temperature, 15 which may alter the stress state and activate new fractures closer to failure conditions. Furthermore, 16 cooling the lower part of the cap rock that is in contact with the storage formation can also activate or 17 destabilize fractures within the cap rock, leading to safety concerns and the risk of leakage (Sagu & 18 Pao, 2013; Vilarrasa & Laloui, 2016). In light of these observations, it is crucial to consider coupled 19 thermal-hydrologic-mechanical (THM) geomechanical simulations when planning CO₂ storage, as this 20 can help identify potential issues with cap rock stability, cap rock leakage, and induced seismicity 21 (Rutqvist, 2012).

Figure 6 i-l illustrates the propagation of pressure waves within storage formation and caprock resulting from CO₂ injection. The pressure distribution follows the expected pattern of higher pressure at the bottom and lower pressure at the top, which also causes lower fluid density at the top and higher density at the bottom. On the other hand, from a geomechanical standpoint, pressure propagation through the cap rock may activate fractures and increase the risk of CO₂ leakage from the storage formation. Therefore, it is crucial to consider the impact of pressure propagation on the caprock stability and potential leakage when planning CO₂ storage.





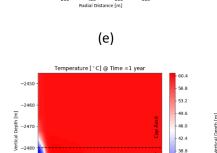
-245

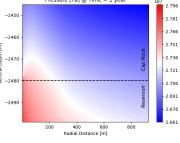
-2470

U 1 2480

-249

Depth |





(i)

Pressure [Pa] @ Time = 1 year



(c)

400 600 Radial Distance [m] 0.504

0.432

0.360

0.288

0.216

0.144

0.072

-2490



400 600 Radial Distance [m]

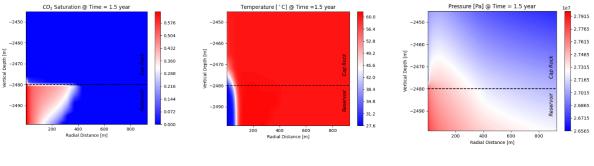
(f)



35.2

31.6





(g)



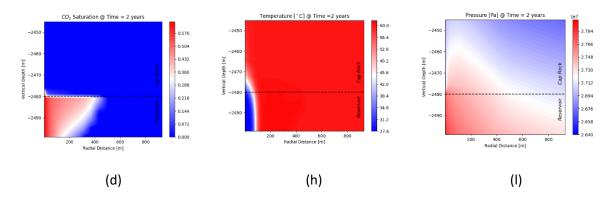


Figure 6: CO₂ Saturation, temperature, and pressure profiles within cap rock and storage formation at four different times:
 100 days, 1, 1.5, and 2 years.

3 Figure 7 demonstrates the propagation of pressure, temperature, and saturation of both CO2 and water along the center of the reservoir as a function of distance from the wellbore after two years of 4 5 injection. To better visualize the profiles near the wellbore, the x-axis is shown on a logarithmic scale. 6 When CO_2 injection reaches the reservoir, a two-phase region forms where the CO_2 -rich phase and 7 brine flow together. Behind this front, residual brine will remain trapped and be exposed to dry CO₂, 8 initiating the evaporation regime. As a result, the molar water fraction in the CO_2 stream increases. If 9 the injection continues for a sufficient period, all the remaining water will evaporate and dissolve into 10 dry CO₂, forming a dry-out region.

Figure 7 presents three different fronts, namely the CO₂ front, thermal front, and evaporation front. 11 12 The CO_2 front is where the CO_2 saturation becomes zero, and water saturation becomes one. The 13 thermal front represents where the reservoir temperature decreases from its initial value. Just ahead 14 of this front, there is a slight increase in temperature due to the exothermic reaction of CO₂ dissolution in water (e.g., up to 5°C). The evaporation front is where all the water in the reservoir is evaporated 15 16 by dry CO₂, creating a dry-out region. In this zone, the water saturation gradually decreases below the 17 irreducible water saturation and eventually reaches zero, whereas the CO₂ saturation reaches one as 18 no salt is included in this simulation. Along the CO₂ profile, four regions can be identified, which include 19 the dry-out region, the transition region where CO_2 flows at irreducible water saturation and causes 20 continuous evaporation of water, the two-phase region where both CO₂ and brine flow simultaneously, 21 and the single-phase brine flow that occurs far deep in the reservoir where no CO_2 has yet arrived.

The evaporation front is determined by two key parameters: (a) the evaporation onset time and (b) the extent of the dry-out region. Two main factors govern these parameters: i) the migration speed of the dry-out zone, which is influenced by viscous forces such as injection rate and horizontal permeability of the storage formation, and ii) the buoyancy force, which is affected by factors such as CO₂ density, vertical permeability, and the rate of brine counterflow. (Miri & Hellevang, 2016).

6 The relative migration rates of the various fronts in our simulations are as follows: CO₂ front >> thermal 7 front > evaporation front. The thermal front lags behind the CO_2 front due to the rock heat capacity 8 causing a delay in heat propagation. The evaporation front is much farther behind and may not occur 9 during injection in some cases. Figure 8 illustrates the location of the CO₂ and thermal fronts at different layers within the reservoir over time to highlight the discrepancies between them. The speed 10 11 of the thermal front is far lower than the CO_2 front, which agrees with the pressure and thermal 12 diffusivity calculation presented earlier and simulation results (Rayward-Smith & Woods, 2011). The migration speed of the fronts also varies at different depths. The migration rate of the CO₂ front is 13 14 higher in the top layer due to the buoyancy force, while the thermal front propagates slower due to 15 its interaction with the cap rock.

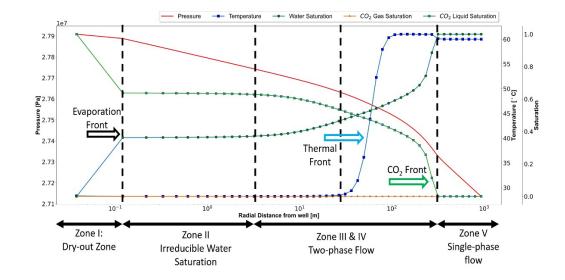
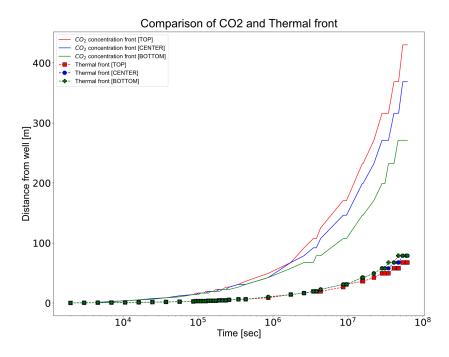




Figure 7: Radial propagation of main reservoir parameters after two years of continuous CO₂ injection



1

2

Figure 8: Mapping location of CO_2 front and thermal front as a function of time along layers located at different depth

3

4 4. Discussion

Numerical investigations of cold CO₂ injection in a deep aquifer using T2WELL-ECO2M reveal distinct 5 6 thermal and hydraulic processes. In the wellbore, CO2 experiences heating due to ambient heat 7 exchange, compression, and frictional loss during its downward flow. However, the heating rate is 8 typically lower than the geothermal gradient, resulting in CO₂ arriving at the bottomhole with a lower 9 temperature (30 °C) than the reservoir temperature (60 °C). Upon entering the reservoir, the colder 10 CO₂ cools down the surrounding rock. Additionally, minor cooling (1-2 °C) can occur due to the Joule-11 Thomson effect and water vaporization. However, in the aquifer, the Joule-Thomson effect is less 12 pronounced than we expect it to be in depleted hydrocarbon reservoirs. Dissolving CO₂ into brine is exothermic and can raise the temperature by up to 5 °C, consistent with prior simulation findings and 13 14 field observations. (Bissell et al., 2011; Han et al., 2010; Lu & Connell, 2014b, 2014a; Paterson et al., 15 2008, 2010).

1 The reservoir can be divided into five regions around the wellbore based on hydraulic and thermal 2 processes, as shown in Figure 7. Initially, CO₂ dissolves in the reservoir brine at the interface between 3 brine and CO_2 front, resulting in a local temperature increase, pH reduction, and improving injectivity 4 by mineral dissolution, shown by region IV. Once the dissolution process is complete, CO₂ displaces the 5 brine, creating a two-phase region (region III) where both fluids co-flow. When the CO_2 ultimately 6 pushed the brine into the reservoir away from the wellbore, immobile water was left as water films. 7 The extent of this region is controlled by relative permeability and capillary pressure curves. In region 8 II, irreducible water is exposed to dry CO₂, and the vaporization process occurs continuously. After a 9 while, when irreducible water is sufficiently exposed to dry CO₂, the whole water will be vaporized, 10 and a dry-out region will be formed (region I).

11 In this study, CO₂ phase conditions vary during the injection, leading to a short dry-out region near the 12 wellbore (10 cm) where CO₂ at the bottomhole was in supercritical condition. The extent of this region 13 is highly dependent on various parameters, including reservoir properties, CO₂ injection rate, and 14 phase condition. Preliminary results confirm that the dry-out region only extends a relatively short 15 distance from the wellbore, even over a long injection period.

16 5. Conclusions

17 This study demonstrated the capability of T2WELL-ECO2M, a numerical code from the TOUGH family 18 of codes, to accurately model the CO₂ injection process in the wellbore and storage formation. The 19 code successfully captured phase transitions, including gaseous to liquid, liquid to supercritical, and 20 vice versa, which is challenging in numerical simulations. The successful modeling of phase transitions 21 by T2WELL-ECO2M opens up opportunities to study various conditions for CO2 injection, such as 22 injecting cold CO₂ into the system. The code also simulated thermal processes, such as heat exchange 23 with the ambient, Joule-Thomson effect, water vaporization, CO₂ dissolution in the brine, frictional 24 flow, and convection, providing reliable data.

One advantage of T2WELL is its semi-analytical approach to modeling heat exchange, improving computational efficiency. The study observed minor cooling from the Joule-Thomson effect and CO₂ heating due to dissolution in brine. Water vaporization caused by dry CO₂ exposure was adequately captured, but in this specific study, the dry-out region was relatively small, depending on injection conditions and reservoir properties. These findings lay the foundation for further research on the impact of parameters like reservoir heterogeneity, injection rate, CO₂ condition, and wellbore properties on CO₂ flow, which is essential for proper CCS project design.

8 However, some limitations of using T2WELL-ECO2M were also encountered. First, assigning proper 9 initial conditions, including pressure and temperature profiles within the wellbore, is crucial for 10 obtaining realistic outcomes. Another perspective is that the code's ability to simulate field operations 11 precisely may be limited from a practical standpoint. For example, injection of a different gas as a 12 cushion gas is typically done before CO₂ injection to prevent corrosion, but T2WELL-ECO2M only allows 13 the simulation of a CO₂-NaCl-water system. Clearly the needs of current applications in the area of 14 detailed design of geologic storage systems for CCS motivate further developments of numerical 15 simulation capabilities.

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