

Chapter 18

[[Ch. Heading]] Closing Remarks: Future Research Needs for Geological Carbon Storage

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[[H2]] Abstract

13 Geological carbon storage (GCS) is a rapidly-evolving technology, which can become vital in
14 mitigating the increasing concentrations of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂). While we
15 understand overall phenomena associated with injecting and storing CO₂ in porous subsurface
16 formations, unknowns persist. For successful geological carbon storage, trapping of CO₂ over
17 extended time periods (10³ to 10⁴ years) is required. Existing predictive models examining these
18 time scales include large uncertainties and require improvement. Addressing challenges
19 associated with temporal and spatial scales, characterizing and controlling mechanisms, and
20 kinetics of individual, as well as coupled processes are central to this technology. One of the key
21 future research areas is developing fundamental science to understand process coupling at
22 relevant temporal and spatial scales, and being able to predict, anticipate, and mitigate emergent
23 behavior (e.g. development of preferential flow paths). This chapter summarizes the current
24 state-of-the-art knowledge detailed in the previous chapters and presents future research needs
25 for successful GCS.

Keyword: *Geological carbon storage (GCS), coupled processes*

32 [[H1]] CO₂ storage in saline formations: scientific discoveries and challenges

33

34 Subsurface systems targeted for geological carbon storage (GCS) are heterogeneous and react
35 dynamically to injection of large volumes of CO₂. For GCS to have an impact on atmospheric
36 CO₂ concentration, annual injection of supercritical carbon dioxide (scCO₂) on the order of
37 billions of metric tons into deep subsurface reservoirs is required (IPCC, 2014, NETL, 2015).
38 For safe and successful GCS, CO₂ should remain in the subsurface for thousands of years. The
39 injection of such large volumes of CO₂ perturbs the pore pressure, state of stress, chemical,
40 mechanical, thermal, and biological steady-state or equilibrium conditions of subsurface
41 reservoirs. Since scCO₂ is immiscible with brine in reservoir, two-phase fluid flow with CO₂
42 fingering develops and bypasses some of the available pore space. The initially dry scCO₂ phase
43 dehydrates the formation and forms a partially wet scCO₂ front. Wet scCO₂ is chemically
44 reactive, along with the CO₂-acidified formation brines. Following the injection of CO₂, the
45 subsurface starts re-equilibrating towards new equilibrium or steady-state conditions. This re-
46 equilibration proceeds along different time scales for different processes.

47

48 Laboratory-scale studies show that carbonation reactions proceed in CO₂-acidified brines, as well
49 as in the wet scCO₂ phase, in which the activity of water dictates the resulting products and
50 reaction rates. Carbonation of mineral surfaces exposed to wet scCO₂ is as important as
51 reactions in the aqueous phase, with the extent of carbonation dependent on the thickness of the
52 water film (Loring et al., this volume). While sheet silicates are not susceptible to chemical
53 attack by CO₂, expandable clay minerals can undergo shrinkage because of dehydration by neat
54 scCO₂, and swelling due to intercalation of water and CO₂ in the interlayer (Loring et al., this
55 volume). These physical changes in swelling clay minerals can impact the bulk mechanical and
56 fracture properties of caprock.

57

58 The alteration of brine chemistry and the invading scCO₂ phase can alter native microbial
59 communities. Microbial processes have a strong impact on matrix permeability, wettability,
60 solution chemistry, and carbonation reaction rates (Thompson et al., this volume). Field
61 injection tests and laboratory studies of mesocosms show that some microorganisms are resilient
62 and thrive in environments with high CO₂ fugacity.

63

64 Field-scale CO₂ injection tests showed that observed changes in reservoir brine chemistry agreed
65 with those predicted based on pre-injection geochemical characterization and modeling.

66 Dissolution of CO₂ into brine takes place rapidly, and the amount of dissolved CO₂ is on the
67 order of laboratory-predicted concentrations (Hovorka and Lu, this volume). In terms of
68 geochemical characterization during field-scale tests, the main difficulty is obtaining
69 representative pore-fluid samples from a multi-phase deep reservoir. Reservoir-scale predictive
70 models for geochemical changes have not been validated at the corresponding field scale so far.
71 For example, it is not possible to quantify the amount of brine within a rock formation that
72 encounters scCO₂ at the reservoir scale.

73

74 Important lessons for GCS can be learned from experience with CO₂ injections in oil reservoirs
75 for enhanced oil recovery (EOR). The volumetric sweep efficiency observed in CO₂-EOR was
76 low; however, sufficient CO₂ injection rates were achievable without over-pressurizing the
77 reservoirs, and the retention of a significant portion of CO₂ in the subsurface at these EOR sites
78 was observed (Lake et al., this volume).

79

80 Understanding multi-phase flow is of paramount importance for successful GCS. Multi-phase
81 flow is complicated due to contrasts in relative permeability, density, viscosity, and capillary
82 entry pressure between different fluids (Jia and McPhearson this volume, Pini and Krevor, this
83 volume, and Bandilla and Celia, this volume). Field tests indicated that years to decades are
84 required for a CO₂ plume to stabilize in the subsurface. The time required for the onset of
85 gravity-driven convection due to density contrast between native and CO₂-acidified brines varies
86 from months to thousands of years (Ennis-King et al., 2005). Depending on the flow conditions,
87 the size of viscous fingers formed by scCO₂ can be on the order of millimeters to centimeters,
88 and can only be observed in cm-scale laboratory studies or simulations with sufficiently fine
89 grids. Larger-scale channeling was also observed and was governed by compositional and
90 textural heterogeneities in the target formation. Wettability of reservoir rocks and caprocks may
91 be altered due to interfacial chemical reactions triggered by CO₂, which affects scCO₂ plume
92 migration and trapping. Field observations and laboratory core-scale CO₂-flood studies illustrate

93 complexity of the porosity-permeability relationships, which can follow different scaling laws,
94 depending on the location within a reservoir (Pawar and Guthrie, this volume).

95
96 Geochemical modeling studies indicate that re-equilibration of mineral systems and carbonation
97 reactions may proceed for hundreds to thousands of years, which is mainly due to slow
98 dissolution rates of most minerals encountered in CO₂ storage reservoirs and caprocks (Dai et al.,
99 this volume). Carbonate minerals, however, have relatively fast dissolution kinetics, compared
100 to silicates, and carbonate dissolution and re-precipitation have been quantified in laboratory
101 studies and linked to geomechanical alteration of reservoirs and caprocks (Vilarassa et al., this
102 volume, and Ilgen et al., this volume). Geochemical modeling coupled to laboratory experiments
103 have also highlighted an additional risk of CO₂ leakage, namely, if the scCO₂ plume reaches
104 shallow groundwater, it may mobilize trace metals and compromise water quality (Dai et al., this
105 volume).

106
107 Field, laboratory, and numerical experiments relevant to GCS have recognized that individual
108 processes cannot be viewed independently. Strong coupling has been identified between
109 hydrological, mechanical, thermal, and chemical processes in subsurface reservoirs and caprocks
110 (Zhang and Wu, this volume, and Kim et al., this volume). Core-scale laboratory and field tests
111 indicate that mechanical response to CO₂ injection is dictated by pore pressure changes, thermal,
112 and chemical processes (Vilarassa et al., Rutqvist et al., this volume, Ilgen et al., this volume).
113 The injected scCO₂ is typically cooler compared to the formation temperature, and a cooled
114 region is usually observed near an injection well, resulting in an increased density and viscosity
115 of CO₂ in this region (Ivanova et al., this volume). This rock cooling can also create thermal
116 stress near the wellbore, which may push the system closer to shear and/or tensile failure
117 conditions.

118
119 Fluid flow in fractured formations is another example of observed coupled phenomena. Recent
120 scientific advances have identified a critical link between fluid flow through fractures, fracture
121 deformation and seismic response (Pyrak-Nolte, this volume). Fracture stiffness can be used to
122 describe both deformation and flow in fractures at multiple length scales.

123

124 Induced seismicity is a concern for large-scale CO₂ storage sites. Limited data exists on
125 microseismicity in critically-stressed basements underlying CO₂ injection formations, and it is
126 anticipated that with CO₂ storage reaching the required volumetric scales, induced seismicity
127 may become an important process to consider (Vilarassa et al., this volume, and Rutqvist et al.,
128 this volume).

129

130 **[[H1]] Future research needs for geological carbon storage**

131 Based on the properties of saline storage systems, current challenges for safe and economical
132 storage include, but not limited to: (i) sustaining large CO₂ injection rate and volume, capable of
133 keeping up with the rates of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions; (ii) efficient use of available pore
134 space to avoid a large subsurface footprint of CO₂ storage sites, and (iii) avoiding leakage of
135 CO₂, ground deformation, and seismic events. To address these challenges, some major
136 fundamental research needs are outlined below.

137

138 **[[H2]] Fundamental science needs**

- 139 • One of the fundamental science challenges is establishing porosity-permeability
140 relationships with appropriate scaling laws, applicable to relevant time scales.
141 Heterogeneity ranging in scale from individual mineral grains, to cm-, m-, and km-scales,
142 multi-phase flow, and flow through matrix and fractures makes this a complex task.
- 143 • More data is needed for flow characterization in mixed-wet systems, and for assessing the
144 hysteretic behavior of capillary pressure and relative permeability, and their effects on
145 CO₂ mixing with brine. This data can be used to develop transport parameters describing
146 mixing and migration of supercritical and dissolved CO₂ at storage sites.
- 147 • The need to understand leakage through fractures in heterogeneous shale caprocks
148 necessitates extending the flow-stiffness relationship to non-elastic rocks and mixed
149 mineralogy fracture-matrix systems.
- 150 • Development of new constitutive models for rock formations is necessary; for instance,
151 caprocks may display visco-elastic or plastic behavior due to contributions from swelling
152 clay minerals.
- 153 • Additional data is needed for identifying the microbial feedback to long-term carbon
154 storage. Microbial populations that persist in environments with high CO₂ fugacity could

155 modify permeability of reservoir and caprock, mineral trapping capacity, and secondary
156 minerals from carbonation reactions.

157 • More data needs to be acquired to predict the effect of CO₂ injection on crystalline
158 basements, faulted and damaged rocks, and the potential for induced seismicity.
159 • Thermo-mechanical effects due to cooling-induced contraction near wellbores and its
160 effect on caprock integrity are not fully understood and require further research.

161
162 [[H2]] Needs for improving existing tools

163 • Cross-well seismic surveys to map subsurface CO₂ flow have measurement resolution of
164 1-2 m, with the imaging area limited to the space between the two monitoring wells.
165 Both 2D and 3D seismic surveys have spatial resolutions exceeding 10 m, while allowing
166 CO₂ plume monitoring at the reservoir-scale. For predicting the CO₂ flow path, both
167 effects of local heterogeneity and viscous fingering must be accounted for. The scale of
168 heterogeneity ranges from mm, to cm, to m, to km. The scale of seismic surveys (meters)
169 is typically much larger than the scale of viscous fingering of CO₂ (millimeters to
170 centimeters) and local heterogeneity, and therefore both viscous fingering and flow
171 deviation due to local heterogeneity cannot be directly probed in the field. Future
172 research needs to improve measurement resolution to minimize uncertainties when
173 measuring subsurface migration of CO₂.
174 • Further advancement in imaging stress and chemical constituents in brine and scCO₂
175 plume are necessary to understand stress state and distribution of CO₂ and brine in the
176 subsurface.
177 • To decrease the uncertainties of assessing geochemical reactions in the subsurface, and to
178 quantify the amount of CO₂ dissolved in formation brine, improved sampling approaches
179 are necessary. Also, the development of sensing techniques that would allow quantifying
180 the “contact area” between brine and scCO₂ during (i) the injection period, (ii) CO₂
181 plume development due to gravitational and capillary forces, and (iii) long-term
182 convective flow would be beneficial.
183 • Advancement in existing mathematical, numerical, and statistical frameworks to extend
184 geological parameters from core and boreholes to locations far from the boreholes are
185 essential for safe GCS.

186 • Advances are needed in computational tools to simultaneously and seamlessly aid
187 interpretation and integration of data collected across all length-scales.

188

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198 **[[H1]] References**

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