

Estimating Plume Volume for Geologic Storage of CO₂ in Saline Aquifers

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Typically, when a new subsurface flow and transport problem is first being considered, very simple models with a minimal number of parameters are used to get a rough idea of how the system will evolve. For a hydrogeologist considering the spreading of a contaminant plume in an aquifer, the aquifer thickness, porosity, and permeability might be enough to get started. If the plume is buoyant, aquifer dip comes into play. If regional groundwater flow is significant or there are nearby wells pumping, these features need to be included. Generally, the required parameters tend to be known from pre-existing studies, are parameters that people working in the field are familiar with, and represent features that are easy to explain to potential funding agencies, regulators, stakeholders, and the public.

The situation for geologic storage of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in saline aquifers is quite different. It is certainly desirable to do preliminary modeling in advance of any field work since geologic storage of CO₂ is a novel concept that few people have much experience with or intuition about. But the parameters that control CO₂ plume behavior are a little more daunting to assemble and explain than those for a groundwater flow problem. Even the most basic question of how much volume a given mass of injected CO₂ will occupy in the subsurface is non-trivial. However, with a number of simplifying assumptions, some preliminary estimates can be made, as described below.

To make efficient use of the subsurface storage volume available, CO₂ density should be large, which means choosing a storage formation at depths below about 800 m, where pressure and temperature conditions are above the critical point of CO₂ ($P = 73.8$ bars, $T = 31^\circ\text{C}$). Then CO₂ will exist primarily as a free-phase supercritical fluid, while some CO₂ will dissolve into the aqueous phase.

A mass balance for CO₂ may be written as

$$M = \langle \phi S_g \rho_g \rangle V + \langle \phi S_l X_l \rho_l \rangle V \quad (1)$$

where M is the total mass of CO₂ injected, ϕ is the porosity of the storage formation, S_g is the saturation of free-phase CO₂ (that is, the fraction of pore space filled with free-phase CO₂), $S_l = 1 - S_g$ is the saturation of the aqueous phase (water plus dissolved salt plus dissolved CO₂), ρ_g and ρ_l are densities of the CO₂ and aqueous phases, respectively, X_l is the mass fraction of CO₂ dissolved in the aqueous phase, and V is plume volume. Angle brackets represent a spatial average over the plume. The first term of Equation (1) represents the mass of free-phase CO₂ and the second term the mass of dissolved CO₂. Assuming that ϕ , S , ρ , and X_l are not correlated enables the angle brackets to be dropped,

with the understanding that each variable represents the average value over the plume. Solving for V yields

$$V = \frac{M}{\phi(S_g \rho_g + (1 - S_g) X_l \rho_l)} \quad (2)$$

To determine V , first we need a value for ϕ , the average porosity of the storage formation, which is typically known, at least approximately, based on the geological setting.

Next, we need ρ_g , the density of the free-phase CO₂, at the pressure and temperature conditions of the storage formation. Often (P, T) information is unknown for candidate sites, but assuming a hydrostatic pressure gradient and a geothermal temperature gradient provide a good first guess. In the absence of any site-specific information, $P = 1 + 0.1z$, with P in bars and depth z in meters, and $T = 15 + 0.025z$, which gives T in degrees C, may be used. Armed with (P, T) conditions, a standard CO₂ equation-of-state package (for example, <http://lnx.lbl.gov/gaseos/gaseos.html>) provides the density of free-phase CO₂, ρ_g , as illustrated in Figure 1. Values of ρ_g for a range of conditions considered reasonable for geologic storage are shown in Table 1.

Next, we need X_l , the mass fraction of dissolved CO₂ in the aqueous-phase fluid. We approximate X_l as the solubility of CO₂ in brine. That is, we assume that all dissolved CO₂ is in equilibrium with free-phase CO₂. With this assumption, X_l depends only on pressure, temperature, and brine salinity, as illustrated in Table 1.

Next, we need ρ_l , the density of the aqueous phase, at the pressure, temperature, and salinity conditions of the storage formation. The aqueous-phase density ρ_l depends weakly on P , T , and X_l and varies more strongly with brine salinity, as illustrated in Table 1.

Finally, we need an estimate for CO₂ saturation, S_g . Recall that when CO₂ is injected into a saline aquifer, the brine is not simply pushed away from the well and replaced with CO₂. A two-phase flow region develops, with CO₂ bypassing some of the brine. The pore-scale details of interaction between the CO₂ phase and the aqueous phase are generally represented at the macro-scale by what are known as characteristic curves: capillary pressure and relative permeability as functions of phase saturation. The parameters and functional forms of the characteristic curves, along with the viscosity ratio of the CO₂ and brine, determine S_g within the CO₂ plume. Basic arguments about molecular structure indicate that for saline aquifers, supercritical CO₂ is the non-wetting phase and brine is the wetting phase. Thus CO₂ is analogous to oil in oil/water two-phase systems, enabling us to tap into the extensive petroleum literature for information on characteristic curves. Two key parameters of the characteristic curves are the residual phase saturations: the saturations below which a phase is immobile. In practical terms, residual liquid saturation S_{lr} determines how much water is bypassed as CO₂ invades the pore space, and residual gas saturation S_{gr} determines how much CO₂ is trapped when water imbibes back into the pore space (Doughty et al., 2007). The value of S_g to use in Equation (2) can best be determined by numerical simulation, but theoretically it should fall between S_{gr} and $(1 - S_{lr})$.

$- S_{lr}$). However, it is unlikely that these parameters will be known at the early stage of an investigation. To make matters worse, there is no single value of S_{gr} that can be specified for the CO₂ plume as a whole – S_{gr} depends on the saturation history of each location within the plume. For moderate to high permeability saline aquifers that are typical CO₂ storage targets, literature values of S_{lr} are generally less than 0.3 and S_{gr} is generally less than 0.4. Thus, it is reasonable to expect S_g to be in the range 0.4–0.7. A good first guess is $S_g = 0.5$.

Substituting estimated values of ϕ , S_g , ρ_g , ρ_l , and X_l into Equation (2) provides an estimate of V , the volume that a mass M of injected CO₂ occupies in the subsurface. Moreover, because S_g and S_l are comparable, ρ_g and ρ_l differ by less than a factor of two, and X_l is just a few percent, we find that the fraction of CO₂ in the supercritical phase is much larger than the fraction that is dissolved.

The next natural question is when are these estimates of V and phase partitioning applicable? For early-stage investigations, we are likely most interested in the time period during and shortly after CO₂ injection. For this time frame, we can safely neglect slow processes such as mineral reactions (Xu et al., 2004) and aqueous-phase convection (Ennis-King and Paterson, 2005). Then the only parameter in Equation (2) likely to change significantly as the CO₂ plume evolves is S_g .

The variation of S_g is intimately connected with the functional form of the characteristic curves (Doughty, 2007). In the petroleum industry, it is well accepted that characteristic curves are hysteretic. That is, the drainage process (non-wetting-phase CO₂ replacing wetting-phase brine) is not simply reversed in the imbibition process (wetting-phase brine replacing non-wetting-phase CO₂). The key parameter of the characteristic curves for trapping CO₂, the residual gas saturation S_{gr} , is considered to be zero during drainage, and to be non-zero and history-dependent during imbibition (Land, 1968).

As shown in the top frame of Figure 2, while CO₂ injection is occurring, the CO₂ plume is growing everywhere, so drainage is the dominant process and $S_{gr} = 0$. To calculate V at the end of the CO₂ injection period, the Buckley-Leverett (1942) analytical solution for a radial-geometry plume may be used to approximate S_g . For viscosity ratios in the range shown in Table 1, the simple relation $S_g = 0.5(1 - S_{lr})$ provides a reasonable fit to the Buckley-Leverett solution employing the commonly-used Corey (1954) relative permeability functions.

Once injection ceases, and the plume moves upward and updip due to buoyancy forces, different locations experience drainage and imbibition at different times, as illustrated in the bottom frame of Figure 2. At the leading edge of the plume, drainage continues with $S_{gr} = 0$. At the trailing edge, imbibition occurs with $S_{gr} > 0$. Thus the plume is more mobile at the leading edge than at the trailing edge, so it stretches out as it moves, which lowers S_g . When saturation everywhere drops to S_{gr} , the entire plume becomes immobilized, a phenomenon known as capillary trapping. To estimate V at this time, the maximum value of S_{gr} , a material property denoted S_{grmax} , provides an upper limit for S_g . The petroleum literature (Holtz, 2005) suggests that S_{grmax} decreases as porosity increases,

and typically ranges between 0.2 and 0.4 for moderate to high permeability saline aquifers.

Note from Equation (1) that as S_g decreases, the fraction of injected CO₂ that is dissolved increases. This leads to an interesting trade-off between capillary trapping and dissolution. For smaller values of S_{grmax} , capillary trapping is less effective in that the plume moves farther and spreads more before becoming immobilized, but this exposes the CO₂ plume to more native brine, enabling more dissolution (Doughty and Myer, 2008).

The simple methodology described here for estimating plume volume can provide a useful starting point for subsequent numerical modeling, which is necessary to capture the complex interplay between phase interactions, buoyancy flow, and geologic heterogeneity that occurs as CO₂ is injected into a saline aquifer.

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Table 1. Properties of free-phase CO₂ and CO₂-saturated brine for a range of conditions considered reasonable for geologic storage of CO₂ in saline aquifers. Pressure P (bars) and temperature T (°C) determined using hydrostatic and geothermal gradients, respectively. Density ρ (kg/m³), viscosity μ (Pa·sec), and dissolved CO₂ mass fraction X_l calculated with the TOUGH2 numerical simulator (Pruess et al., 1999) using the ECO2N equation of state package (Pruess, 2005; Spycher and Pruess, 2005).

Depth (m)	CO ₂		0 mg/L Brine			50,000 mg/L Brine			100,000 mg/L Brine		
	ρ_g	μ_g	ρ_l	μ_l	X_l	ρ_l	μ_l	X_l	ρ_l	μ_l	X_l
z=1000 $P=101$ $T=40$	635	0.49E-4	1007	0.65E-3	0.052	1037	0.72E-3	0.042	1069	0.80E-3	0.033
z=1500 $P=151$ $T=52.5$	681	0.55E-4	1004	0.53E-3	0.052	1034	0.58E-3	0.041	1067	0.65E-3	0.033
z=2000 $P=201$ $T=65$	694	0.57E-4	1000	0.44E-3	0.052	1030	0.48E-3	0.041	1063	0.54E-3	0.033
z=2500 $P=251$ $T=77.5$	701	0.58E-4	995	0.37E-3	0.053	1025	0.41E-3	0.042	1058	0.46E-3	0.034

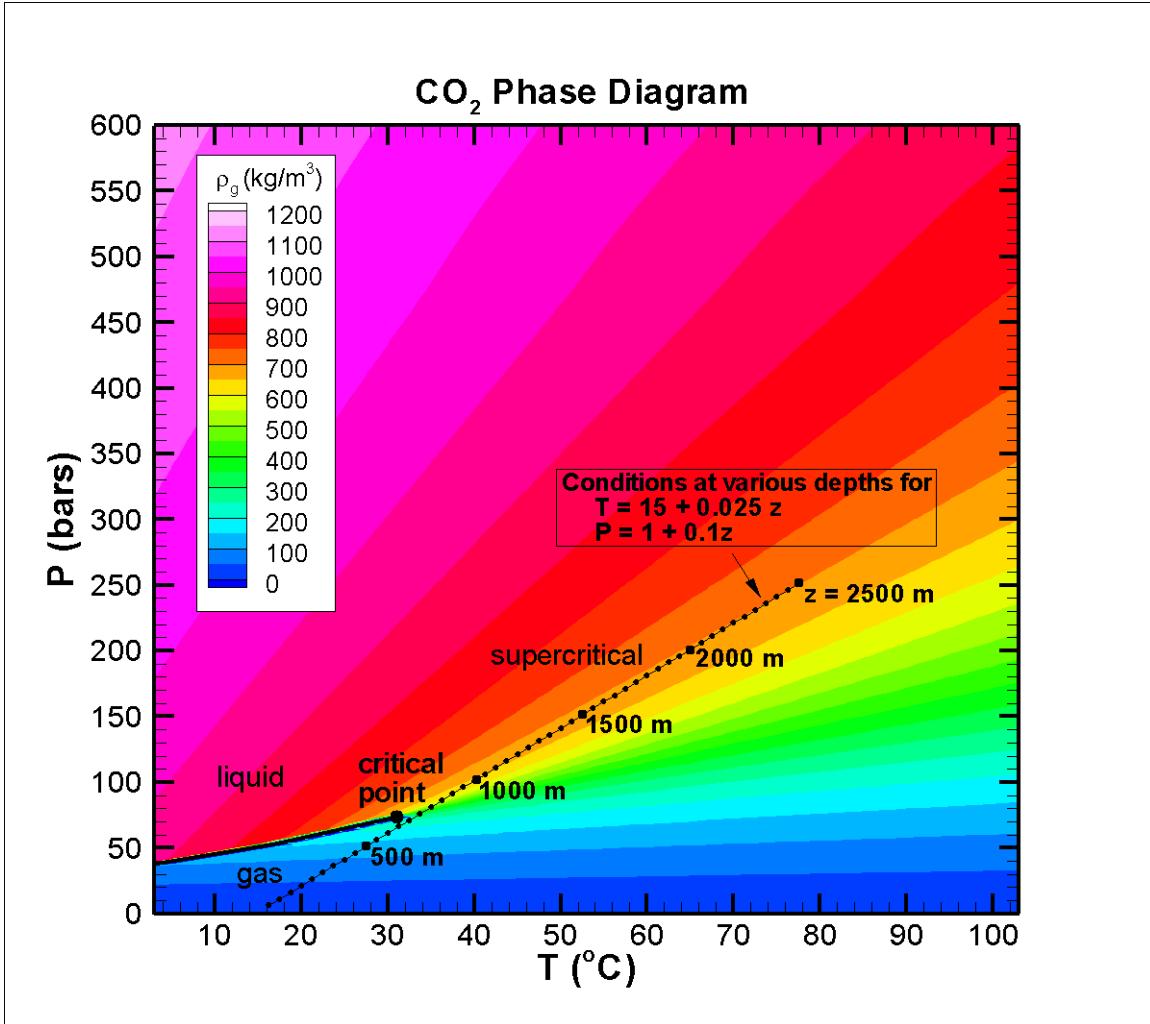


Figure 1. Density of CO₂ as a function of pressure P and temperature T . The black line shows the saturation line, which separates liquid and gaseous phases. Beyond the critical point, CO₂ exists as a supercritical phase. Assuming functional forms for the dependence of P and T on depth enables CO₂ density at various depths to be estimated, as shown by the dashed line.

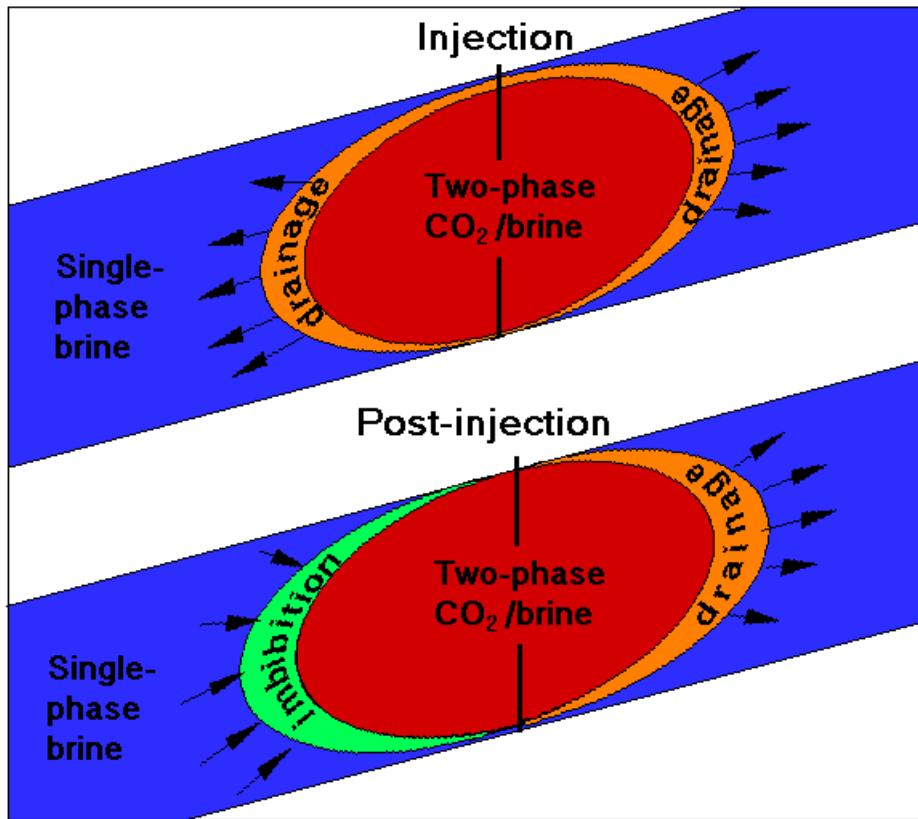


Figure 2. Schematic of CO₂ injection period (top), in which drainage occurs at all plume boundaries (orange), and post-injection period (bottom), in which drainage occurs at the leading edge of the plume on the right (orange) and imbibition occurs at the trailing edge of the plume on the left (green) as the plume migrates, e.g. by buoyancy forces.