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Key Points:

- We observe cyclic pore-scale behavior of supercritical CO₂ (scCO₂) via synchrotron X-ray microtomography
- Residual scCO₂ saturation increases over multiple drainage-imbibition (D-I) cycles reaching a value of 50% after three cycles
- The ultimate driver for this behavior may be a combination of cycling and associated surface chemistry reactions

Supporting Information:

- Supporting Information S1

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Enhancing residual trapping of supercritical CO₂ via cyclic injections

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Abstract We utilize synchrotron X-ray tomographic imaging to investigate the pore-scale characteristics and residual trapping of supercritical CO₂ (scCO₂) over the course of multiple drainage-imbibition (D-I) cycles in Bentheimer sandstone cores. Capillary pressure measurements are paired with X-ray image-derived saturation and connectivity metrics which describe the extent of drainage and subsequent residual (end of imbibition) scCO₂ trapping. For the first D-I cycle, residual scCO₂ trapping is suppressed due to high imbibition capillary number ($Ca \approx 10^{-6}$); however, residual scCO₂ trapping dramatically increases for subsequent D-I cycles carried out at the same Ca value. This behavior is not predicted by conventional multiphase trapping theory. The magnitude of scCO₂ trapping increase is hysteretic and depends on the relative extent of the sequential drainage processes. The hysteretic pore-scale behavior of the scCO₂-brine-sandstone system observed in this study suggests that cyclic multiphase flow could potentially be used to increase scCO₂ trapping for sequestration applications.

1. Introduction

Multiphase flow of supercritical carbon dioxide (CO₂) and brine within porous media has recently been a topic of intensive research for application to carbon capture and storage (CCS), a climate change mitigation strategy. During CCS operations, CO₂ is first captured from the waste stream of a large point source of carbon emissions (e.g., a coal-fired power plant), then pressurized and injected into the subsurface. As the pressurized CO₂ is pumped underground, it warms to in situ temperature of the storage reservoir; under the pressure and temperature conditions of most reservoirs targeted for CO₂ sequestration, the injected CO₂ will exist in a supercritical state (denoted scCO₂ in the present study) [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2005; Benson and Cole, 2008]. Sandstones and other sedimentary formations provide favorable storage conditions [Bachu, 2003; Gunter et al., 2004]; and although wettability measurements of scCO₂-brine-geologic media systems are thus far inconclusive [Wan et al., 2014], for sandstone formations, aqueous brine has been observed to be the dominant wetting phase while scCO₂ is the nonwetting phase [Pentland et al., 2011; Krevor et al., 2012; Pini and Benson, 2013; Herring et al., 2014; Kaveh et al., 2014]; these observations are supported by measurements of water-wet (or weakly water-wet) contact angles on surfaces representative of sandstones [Chaudhary et al., 2015]. The nomenclature used in the following reflects this assumption of water-wet porous media.

Of particular importance to the storage safety and success of a sequestration operation is the amount of scCO₂ which is immobilized by “residual” or “capillary” trapping, that is, the amount of scCO₂ trapped as isolated ganglion in rock pores after the completion of scCO₂ injection (a drainage process) and subsequent brine reinvasion (imbibition). The residual trapping mechanism hinders large-scale mobilization of scCO₂ in the subsurface, reducing the possibility of upward CO₂ migration and accidental release to groundwater or the atmosphere and also breaks up the relatively large continuous scCO₂ plume into many small ganglia with larger surface area to volume ratios, thus enhancing long-term dissolution and precipitation reactions which further improves storage security.

Numerous experimental studies have been conducted to investigate immiscible scCO₂ flow and residual trapping behavior at the pore-to-core (i.e., μm to cm) scale within porous media such as two dimensional (2-D) micromodels [Wang et al., 2012; Kazemifar et al., 2015], bead columns [Chaudhary et al., 2013], sand packs [Plug and Bruining, 2007], sandstones [Bachu and Bennion, 2008; Al Mansoori et al., 2009; Perrin and Benson, 2010; Iglauer et al., 2011; Akbarabadi and Piri, 2013; Ruprecht et al., 2014; Herring et al., 2014;

Reynolds *et al.*, 2014; Manceau *et al.*, 2015; Niu *et al.*, 2015; Reynolds and Krevor, 2015], shales [Bachu and Bennion, 2008], and carbonates [Bachu and Bennion, 2008; Andrew *et al.*, 2013, 2014; El-Maghraby and Blunt, 2013]. On larger scales, ambient condition studies using analogue fluids and gaseous CO₂ have been performed at the meter scale [Plampin *et al.*, 2014; Trevisan *et al.*, 2014], and modeling simulations have been utilized to predict basin-scale transport and fate of injected scCO₂ plumes [Spiteri *et al.*, 2005; Juanes *et al.*, 2006, 2010; Kumar *et al.*, 2005].

While extensive characterization has been carried out on the primary flow processes, i.e., primary drainage and main imbibition, the potential for repeated drainage-imbibition (D-I) processes (injection-waterflood) during geologic sequestration and the hysteretic nature of multiphase flow processes necessitate further investigation of the trapping potential of multiple D-I cycles on scCO₂ flow and trapping. Results from reservoir condition core-scale experiments consisting of three D-I cycles indicate that although measured pressure profiles and relative permeability are cycle dependent parameters, cycle number has no discernible impact on residual scCO₂ saturations [Saeedi *et al.*, 2011]; a similar result was found by Li *et al.* [2015], who measured initial-residual saturation levels over two D-I cycles in Berea sandstone and found that the results conformed to the expected monotonic trapping curve. This conclusion has been echoed by ambient condition experiments that indicate that residual trapping is limited by the shape of the main imbibition curve [Raeesi *et al.*, 2014]. In contrast, results from recent pore-scale studies have suggested that intermittent injection patterns, or cyclic injections similar to water-alternating-gas schemes, could be utilized to break up the scCO₂ plume and enhance residual trapping of scCO₂ [Herring *et al.*, 2013, 2015]; cyclic injection schemes have also previously been suggested by researchers performing basin-scale simulations [Spiteri *et al.*, 2005]. Additional studies of scCO₂ flow processes have produced observations of time-dependent wettability alteration [Kim *et al.*, 2012; Wang and Tokunaga, 2015], an impact which would certainly influence cyclic flow processes.

Given chemical and geochemical impacts on flow processes, and the complicated hysteretic nature of immiscible flow processes, additional work must be undertaken in order to fully characterize and predict the behavior of cyclic scCO₂-brine interactions and scCO₂ residual trapping beyond the primary flow processes. This study provides three-dimensional (3-D) pore-scale X-ray computed microtomography (X-ray CMT) visualization of reservoir-condition scCO₂ and brine movements, paired with capillary pressure values measured in the bulk fluid phases, in Bentheimer sandstone cores during multiple D-I cycles. Experiments were conducted at the Advanced Photon Source at Argonne National Laboratory; the utilization of synchrotron-based imaging of the experiments allowed for rapid acquisition of high-resolution images of six experiments in Bentheimer sandstone cores. New, unfired Bentheimer cores were utilized for each experiment, and various injection pressure-saturation patterns were investigated.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Experimental Procedure

We used the experimental setup and experimental process previously described by Herring *et al.* [Herring *et al.*, 2014]; deviations from that system and the general experimental process for this study are briefly described below. All experiments were conducted under the same temperature and pressure conditions (38°C and 8.3 MPa) which render the CO₂ phase supercritical (scCO₂); fluid properties under these conditions are displayed in Table S1 in the supporting information. An updated schematic and detailed description of the experimental process relevant to the experiments reported here are included in the supporting information.

A Bentheimer sandstone core was installed within a Hassler-type core holder (Phoenix Instruments; Splendora, TX, United States) with two layers of semipermeable hydrophilic membrane with 1.2 μm pore size (General Electric Company; Fairfield, CT, United States) set flush to the bottom of the core and compressed onto the core axial face by the use of Kalrez® perfluoroelastomer o-rings (McMaster-Carr; Elmhurst, IL, United States). The semipermeable membrane prevents scCO₂ breakthrough of the core and allows for drainage to high capillary pressure values even with the relatively short cores (approximately 40 mm long; see Table S2 in the supporting information) used in this study. Additionally, the use of a hydrophilic membrane provides a level of control of the extent of the drainage process; we utilize this capability to manipulate the drainage process during experiments to achieve a range of initial saturations. The core-holder was mounted on the stage in the beamline, and polyether ether ketone (PEEK) material flow lines (IDEX Health & Science

LLC; Oak Harbor, WA, United States) were used to connect the fluid accumulators and pumps to the inlet and outlet ports of the core holder.

Two ISCO pumps (Teledyne ISCO, Lincoln, NE, United States) were used for working fluid control: the pump controlling the CO₂-saturated brine was attached via brine-filled flow lines to the bottom of the core holder; the pump controlling the scCO₂ phase was attached via scCO₂-filled lines to the top of the core holder. Overburden pressure was applied via a third ISCO pump and was set to 12.4 MPa (1800 PSI) for the duration of the experiment. A differential pressure transducer (Teledyne ISCO, Lincoln, NE, United States) with a range of ± 55 kPa (560 cmH₂O) was connected to the brine flowline via one port and to the scCO₂ flowline on the other, thus providing measurement of the capillary pressure ($P_C = P_{scCO_2} - P_{brine}$) of the fluids during experiments. Prior to flow experiments, the core was saturated with CO₂-saturated brine at the experimental conditions of 38°C and 8.3 MPa (Text S1). The scCO₂ pump was set to maintain constant pressure at the top port of the core holder for both drainage and imbibition processes. Drainage was conducted by setting the brine pump to constant withdrawal flow rate, and the brine pump was halted once the desired differential pressure value was reached. For imbibition, the brine pump was set to a constant infusion flow rate; approximately 30 pore volumes of CO₂-saturated brine were pumped through the core to establish residual conditions. The D-I cycle was repeated two or three times, depending on beam time constraints. Scans were acquired to characterize the core and/or internal scCO₂ phase at several points during experiments: after pressurized saturation but prior to any flow experiments to confirm complete brine saturation of the core (denoted $S_{O,scCO_2}$, “original saturation”); after drainage ($S_{Ii,scCO_2}$, “initial saturation”, where i refers to the cycle number); and after imbibition ($S_{Ri,scCO_2}$, “residual saturation,” where i refers to the cycle number). Two scans (at two vertical positions along the core) were acquired for each scanning point and are represented as separate data points in the results presented in section 3.

2.2. X-Ray Microtomographic Image Collection and Data Processing

Tomographic imaging was performed at the GeoSoilEnviroCARS (GSECARS) beamline 13-BMD; details of the beamline configuration have been previously reported [Rivers *et al.*, 1999; Wildenschild *et al.*, 2002, 2005]. All image-based data presented in this study were acquired at a monochromatic energy of 35.9 keV, and were reconstructed into a 3-D volume with GSECARS-developed reconstruction code.

The reconstructed 3-D grayscale volumes were processed using the commercial Avizo™ software suite (details in Text S2 and Figure S3 in the supporting information). A 3-D nonlocal means filter was applied to the raw grayscale data to reduce noise and smooth the images, and simple histogram segmentation was accomplished by setting the threshold equal to a grayscale value corresponding to the local minimum between the scCO₂ and solid phases of the grayscale histogram. Postsegmentation noise removal was utilized by removing isolated scCO₂-identified clusters smaller than $2.4 \times 10^4 \mu\text{m}^3$ (i.e., equivalent to a spherical pore with radius of 18 μm) and also removing cavities (i.e., non-scCO₂ identified voxels) from within the scCO₂ phase. Quantification of final scCO₂ phase volume (fluid-phase saturation), connectivity, and topology was performed on the final denoised, segmented volume.

3. Results and Discussion

Residual scCO₂ saturation ($S_{R,scCO_2}$) as a function of initial CO₂ saturation ($S_{I,scCO_2}$) (i.e., the “trapping curve”) is shown for all cycles of all experiments in Figure 1.

We find that residual scCO₂ saturations are suppressed during the first drainage-imbibition (D-I) cycle in these experiments, potentially due to the relatively high capillary number of these brine imbibition flows (i.e., $\log Ca = -6.1$ and -5.7 ; see Text S1 and Tables S1 and S2 in the supporting information). However, subsequent cycles were conducted at the same capillary number and yet demonstrate significant increases in residual scCO₂ saturations compared to the first D-I cycle and even approach a 1:1 initial-residual saturation relationship. The 1:1 relationship represents 100% trapping efficiency: all of the scCO₂ which has been injected and is present at the endpoint of drainage remains stable during imbibition and the full injected volume is completely residually trapped. For repeat cycles, we achieve relatively high $S_{R,scCO_2}$ values of approximately 0.50, compared to our first cycle values of 0–0.27 and the first cycle trapping values of 0.35 of Pentland *et al.* [2011], 0.30 of Saedi *et al.* [2011], and 0.33 of Krevor *et al.* [2012]. Isosurfaces of trapped scCO₂ are shown to the right of Figure 1 for one particular experiment (data indicated by circles) for which

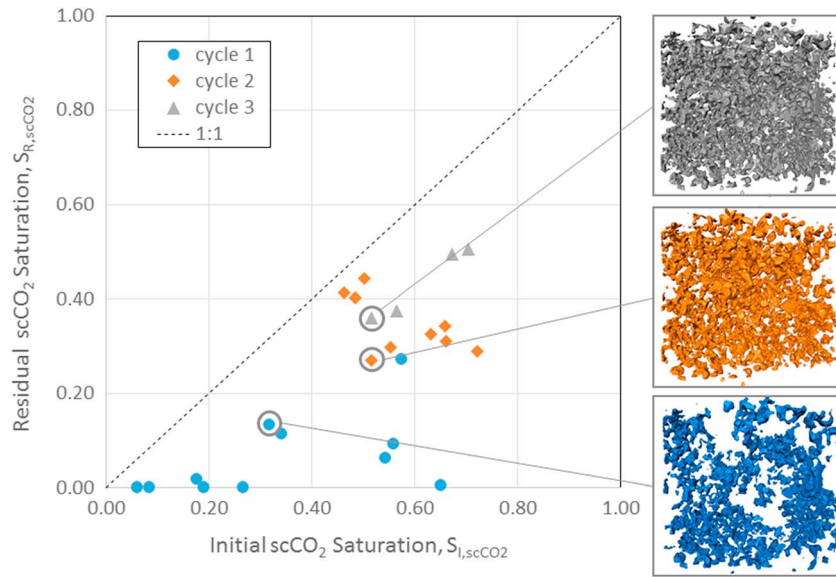


Figure 1. Relationship between residual and initial supercritical CO₂ saturation ($S_{R,scCO_2}$ and $S_{I,scCO_2}$, respectively). Values are differentiated by cycle number. The dashed line indicates a 1:1 residual-initial relationship, which represents complete trapping (100% trapping efficiency). Three-dimensional visualizations of trapped scCO₂ ($S_{R,scCO_2}$) for one particular three-cycle experiment are shown to the right; this experiment is further presented in Figure 3.

three D-I cycles were conducted; as shown, trapped scCO₂ volume increases with each cycle, even when comparing the results of the second cycle and the third cycle which both show $S_{I,scCO_2}$ values of 0.52.

Many previous studies of scCO₂-brine floods have reported experimental results suggesting a positive (monotonic) correlation between residual saturation and initial saturation for water-wet media during a single D-I cycle [Spiteri et al., 2005; Al Mansoori et al., 2010; Pentland et al., 2011; Krevor et al., 2012; Akbarabadi and Piri, 2013]. For the experiments reported in this study, residual scCO₂ saturation increases as cycle number increases for all experiments, but the magnitude of increase is not predicted by a monotonic residual-initial relationship (as demonstrated in Figure 1). Rather, a hysteretic dependency is uncovered: the order and pattern of extent of sequential drainage processes has a significant effect (Figure 2).

In the context of multicyclic flow processes, the initial (postdrainage) state of the multiphase system cannot be identified solely by a single parameter; i.e., saturation and capillary pressure are not single-valued quantities for the drainage process due to the existence of scanning curves. Thus, in order to compare differences between the initial states of the sequential D-I cycles and to acknowledge that our data lie along scanning curves as well as the primary drainage curve, we use the qualitative term “extent of drainage” to express the degree to which scCO₂ has invaded the pore spaces of the sandstone medium. We quantify the extent of drainage using four variables: (1) saturation (S_{scCO_2}), (2) capillary pressure (P_C), (3) connectivity as measured by the gamma metric (Γ), and (4) topology as measured by the Euler characteristic (χ). A high extent of drainage is associated with high scCO₂ saturation, high capillary pressure, and high scCO₂ connectivity and topology; but extent of drainage cannot necessarily be determined from any one of these parameters alone. Further, we utilize the term “relative extent of drainage” to describe the difference in drainage extent between the second and first drainage processes (i.e., the difference between the second and first “initial” states).

To demonstrate the hysteretic dependency of the trapping increase, we focus on the results of the second and third D-I cycles in Figure 2. Residual scCO₂ saturation ($S_{Ri,scCO_2}$) is a function of the difference in drainage extent between the i th and i th – 1 drainage processes. The relative extent of drainage is quantified in Figure 2 via (a) change in initial capillary pressure, ΔP_{Ci} ; (b) change in initial saturation level, $\Delta S_{I,scCO_2}$; (c) change in initial connectivity of scCO₂ as quantified by the gamma metric, $\Delta \Gamma_i$; and (d) change in initial topology, or interconnectivity, of scCO₂ as quantified by the Euler value, $\Delta \chi_i$. As shown, for higher ΔP_{Ci} (i.e., $P_{Ci} > P_{C(i-1)}$), or for higher $\Delta S_{I,scCO_2}$ ($S_{Ii,scCO_2} > S_{I(i-1),scCO_2}$); the amount of residually trapped scCO₂ decreases.

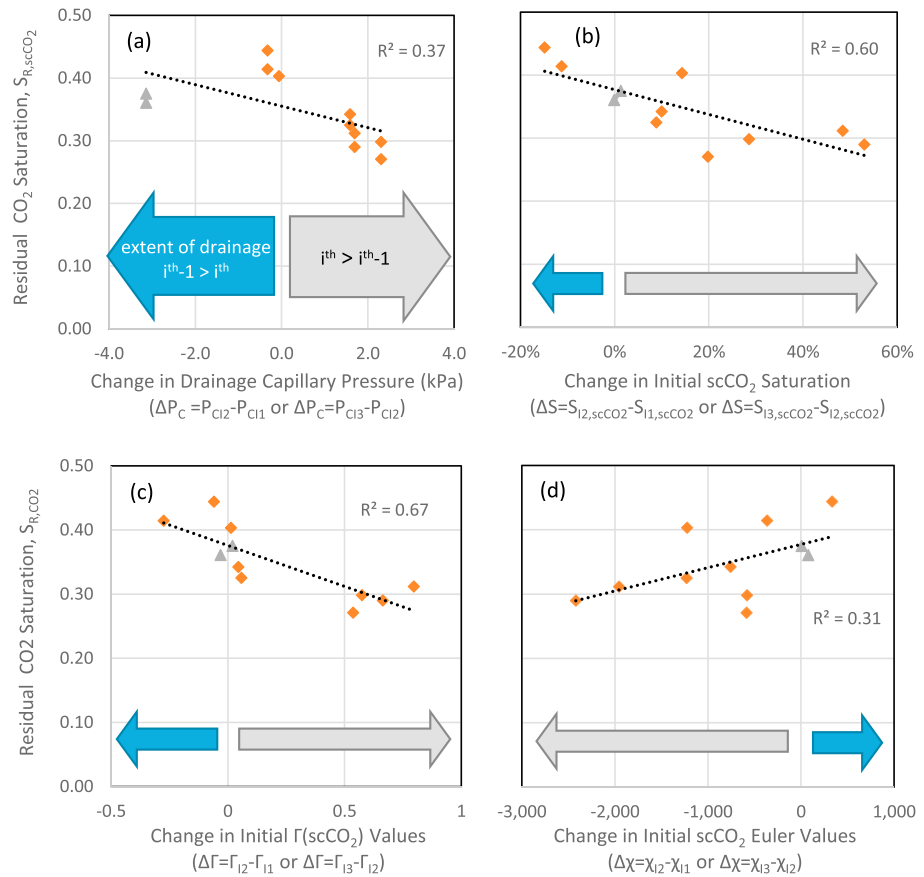


Figure 2. Total residual supercritical CO₂ (scCO₂) saturation of the second drainage-imbibition (D-I) cycle as a function of metrics describing the relative extent of the first (primary; cycle number $i = 1$), second ($i = 2$), and third ($i = 3$) drainage processes. The relative extent of drainage is quantified by the difference between measured quantities at the i th and i th - 1 initial states, i.e., the end of the drainage processes: (a) initial capillary pressure ($P_{C(i)}$); (b) initial scCO₂ saturation ($S_{i,scCO_2}$); (c) initial connectivity of the scCO₂ phase quantified by Γ_{ii} ; and (d) initial topology of the scCO₂ phase quantified by the Euler number (χ_{ii}). Gray arrows indicate that the i th drainage process was carried out to greater extent relative to the i th - 1 drainage process, blue arrows indicate that the i th drainage process was carried out to lesser extent relative to the i th - 1 drainage.

That is, if the extent of drainage of the i th cycle is greater than that of the i th - 1 cycle, less total scCO₂ is trapped at the end of the i th D-I cycle. Notably, in Figure 2a, the results for the third cycle do not conform to those for the second cycle; this is potentially due to a shift in capillary pressure relationships over time, an effect which is further discussed in hypothesis (1) below.

This result is corroborated when drainage extent is quantified via scCO₂ connectivity (c) and topology (d): for experiments where the i th drainage process was carried out to greater extent, the initial scCO₂ was better connected relative to the i th - 1 drainage process, and less total scCO₂ is trapped at the end of the i th D-I cycle. The Γ and Euler values have been previously used to quantify fluid connectivity and topology (i.e., interconnectivity), respectively, within porous media [Vogel *et al.*, 2010; Herring *et al.*, 2013, 2014, 2015; Rücker *et al.*, 2015; Schlüter *et al.*, 2016] and are explicitly defined in the supporting information (Text S2). For interpretation of Figure 2 we note that Γ values for fluid within a porous medium range from 0 to 1.0, with 0 representing no connectivity and 1.0 representing maximum connectivity; highly negative Euler values indicate a well-interconnected fluid phase with a high number of internal connections via redundant pore throats, while positive Euler values indicate many disconnected fluid bodies with few redundant internal connections [Herring *et al.*, 2015]. Because Figure 2 presents residual trapping as a function of the change in initial state between the i th and i th - 1 D-I cycles, a high $\Delta\Gamma_1$ or highly negative $\Delta\chi_1$ value indicates that the second drainage resulted in a more highly connected initial scCO₂ phase than the first drainage process. As described by Herring *et al.* [2013, 2015], a more highly connected/interconnected nonwetting phase at the postdrainage

stage provides extra redundant “pathways” through which nonwetting phase is likely to be mobilized during imbibition. The trends shown in Figures 2c and 2d thus complement those presented in Figures 2a and 2b, namely, that for experiments where the i th drainage process was carried out to greater extent, the $scCO_2$ demonstrated higher connectivity/interconnectivity, and the total residual $scCO_2$ saturation at the end of the i th cycle is lower.

We hypothesize that a combination of two mechanisms contribute to this hysteretic effect:

1. Time-dependent surface chemistry reactions (e.g., heterogeneous wettability alteration to a more CO_2 -wet surface, clay mineral dissolution and redistribution, or adhesion of $scCO_2$ to the solid surface as proposed by Wang and Tokunaga [2015]) occurred upon prolonged exposure to $scCO_2$, which rendered the $scCO_2$ phase to become increasingly more stable in the pore spaces over time. Pore bodies in which CO_2 was trapped during the early cycles were more likely to retain CO_2 over subsequent D-I cycles; however, regions which were exposed to CO_2 for a shorter time period, or not at all, retained original surface characteristics. As cycle number increased, the solid surface experienced additional contact time with $scCO_2$, and thus, surface reactions progressed further (and occurred on additional surfaces within the sandstone core) each time a D-I cycle was accomplished. Surface chemistry reactions may have also impacted the measured capillary pressure relationships, resulting in a shift in measured values as the experiments progressed (e.g., Figure 2a). In support of this hypothesis, a recent study by Wang and Tokunaga [2015] presented similar observations of significant increases in residual trapping (attributed in that study to time-dependent wettability alteration due to $scCO_2$ exposure).
2. Initial state fluid connectivity and topology have been linked to fluid mobilization during imbibition in ambient condition studies [Herring et al., 2013, 2015]. For experiments where the second drainage process was carried out to further extent than the first drainage process (as indicated by the gray arrow in Figure 2), the elevated connectivity of $scCO_2$ at the second initial state enabled the mobilization of previously trapped $scCO_2$, resulting in less residual trapping overall at the end of the second cycle. For experiments where the second drainage process was carried out to lesser extent than the first (as indicated by the blue arrow in Figure 2), the previously trapped $scCO_2$ remained stable, and newly introduced $scCO_2$ only contributed to additional residual trapping.

The combination and potential competition of these two mechanisms explains our observations: temporally, progressive surface chemistry reactions (but only of pore spaces where $scCO_2$ is stable for relatively long timeframes) leads to dramatically increased residual trapping, and high extents of drainage result in more extensive spatial distribution of surface reactions; at the same time, high extent of drainage results in increased connectivity and contributes to mobilization of $scCO_2$. Thus, there are both collaborative and competitive impacts due to surface chemistry and extent of drainage.

Visualization of the cyclic trapping behavior is exhibited in Figure 3 which shows a filtered tomographic cross-sectional slice of a sample over the course of three D-I cycles. In these images, the X-ray attenuating brine appears as light gray, sandstone grains appear as a moderate gray, and $scCO_2$ appears as a darker shade. For this particular experiment, the first drainage was conducted to a moderate capillary pressure (resulting in a low S_{1,CO_2} value of 0.13); the second was conducted to a high capillary pressure (resulting in a moderate S_{2,CO_2} value of 0.27, which is the sum of previously trapped $scCO_2$ as well as newly introduced $scCO_2$); and the third drainage to a low capillary pressure (which resulted in a moderate S_{3,CO_2} value of 0.36, again the sum of previously trapped $scCO_2$ as well as newly introduced $scCO_2$). An orange circle highlights a particular $scCO_2$ ganglion: although trapped after the first D-I cycle (Figure 3b), the second drainage process (Figure 3c) was carried out to a higher extent than the first (Figure 3a), resulting in mobilization of the ganglion during the second imbibition process (Figure 3d). The third drainage process (Figure 3e) was carried out to similar extent relative to the second, but allowed for reentry of the $scCO_2$ to that particular pore body, and subsequent entrapment of the $scCO_2$ ganglion during the third and final imbibition (Figure 3f). Overall, a clear trend of increasing residual saturation as cycle number increases is shown in the cross-sectional slices Figures 3b, 3d and 3f. The capillary pressure-saturation relationship for this particular experiment is included in Figure S4 in the supporting information.

The results and time-dependent surface chemistry hypothesis presented here are supported by dewetting observations in silica micromodels [Kim et al., 2012] and the results of recent flow studies conducted in

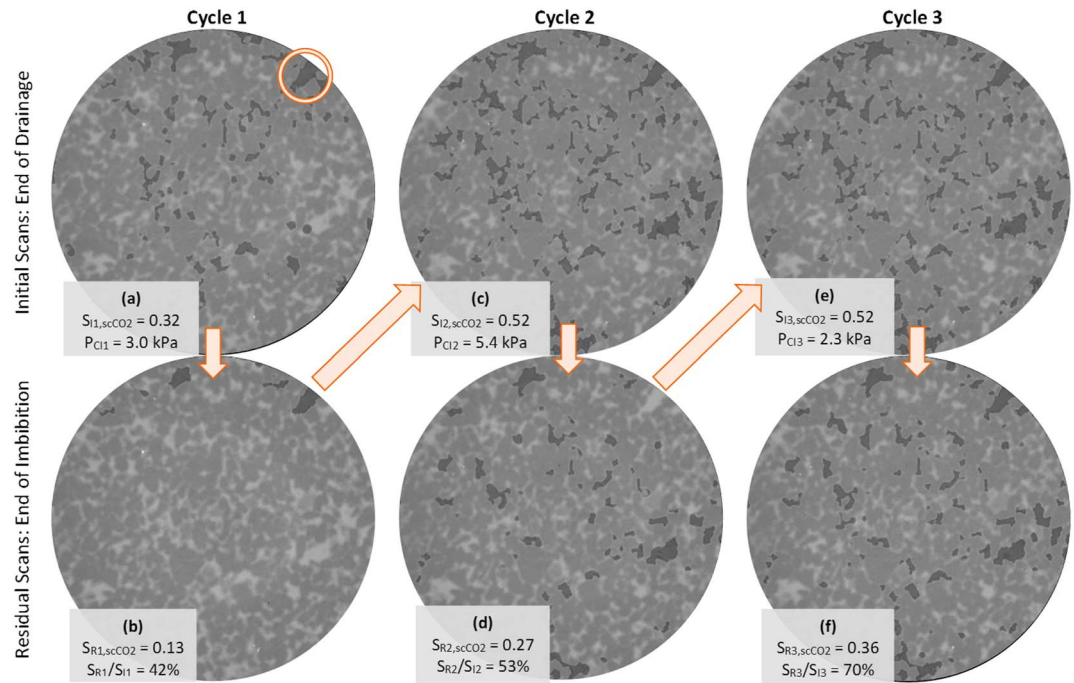


Figure 3. A cross-sectional slice of grayscale data over the course of three drainage-imbibition (D-I) cycles. Highly attenuating 1.0 M KI brine presents as light gray, the sandstone grains appear to be moderate gray, and the lower attenuating supercritical CO₂ (scCO₂) phase is identified by the dark gray. (a, c, and e) The core at the end of drainage (“initial state”) and (b, d, and f) the same core at the end of the subsequent imbibition (“residual state”); the cycle number (*i*) increases from left to right. For the initial states, the scCO₂ saturation ($S_{i,scCO_2}$) and drainage endpoint capillary pressure (P_C) are given; For residual states, scCO₂ saturation ($S_{R,scCO_2}$) and trapping efficiency (S_{R_i}/S_{i_i}) are given. The first D-I cycle, Figures 3a and 3b, results in relatively low residual trapping; after the second cycle, Figures 3c and 3d, residual trapping and trapping efficiency increases; and the third cycle, Figures 3e and 3f, results in the highest values for scCO₂ trapping and trapping efficiency.

scCO₂-aged quartz, limestone, and dolomite sands [Wang and Tokunaga, 2015]; but are in contrast to previous multicycle ambient-condition [Raeesi et al., 2014] and reservoir-condition [Saedi et al., 2011; Li et al., 2015] experiments in sandstones, which have indicated that repeated cycling has no impact on nonwetting phase (air and scCO₂) trapping. Differences in observed wettability conditions and trapping behavior could be due to chemical differences in the nonwetting fluids due to different pressure-temperature conditions among the experiments or to different samples or sample preparation methods resulting in different geochemical conditions. As reported by Wan et al. [2014], wettability in particular is a notoriously difficult parameter to control in experiments with scCO₂ and minor differences in sample preparation could lead to dramatic variations in surface chemistry behavior; in addition, contact order (i.e. whether the first substrate contact was by brine or scCO₂), contact time, and number of incidences of scCO₂-substrate contacts were also shown to impact contact angle measurements [Wan et al., 2014].

While the causes of the discrepancy in trapping behavior between this study and previous research certainly warrant additional investigation, the results provide compelling evidence and motivation for using cyclic injection schemes to enhance trapping and safe storage of CO₂ in the subsurface.

4. Conclusions

This study utilized synchrotron X-ray tomographic imaging to demonstrate that use of a cyclic injection scheme significantly increased residual trapping of scCO₂ in Bentheimer sandstone cores. The magnitude of increase in scCO₂ residual trapping over multiple cycles exhibits a hysteretic dependency: increased total residual scCO₂ saturation values are associated with experiments where the first drainage process was carried out to higher extent (drainage performed to relatively high capillary pressure and initial overall saturation of

scCO₂) with subsequent drainage processes carried out to lesser extent (drainage performed to relatively low capillary pressure and initial overall saturation of scCO₂). However, for all experiments, regardless of pattern of drainage extent, residual scCO₂ saturations increased significantly as D-I cycle number increased; indicating that cyclic scCO₂ and brine injections may be utilized to increase residual trapping during sequestration operations. Residual scCO₂ saturations of up to 0.50 are achieved after the third D-I cycle, significantly higher than any previous reports.

The trapping behavior reported here is not predicted by conventional multiphase theory and suggests that scCO₂ exposure may induce time-dependent surface chemistry reactions in certain geologic materials. Additional studies are necessary to fully understand the kinetics of, and underlying mechanisms responsible for, this behavior.

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