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Supercritical CO₂ Behaviour during Water Displacement in a Sandstone Core Sample

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Abstract: CO₂ injection into underground formations involves the flow of CO₂ in subsurface rocks which already contain water. The flow of CO₂ into the target formation is governed mainly by capillary forces, viscous forces and interfacial interactions. Any change in subsurface conditions of pressure and temperature during injection will have an impact on the capillary and viscous forces and the interfacial interactions, which, in turn, will have an influence the injection, displacement, migration, and storage capacity and security of CO₂. In this study, an experimental investigation has been designed to explore the impact of fluid pressure (74-90 bar), temperature (33-55 °C), and injection rate (0.1-1 ml/min) on the dynamic pressure evolution and displacement efficiency when supercritical CO₂ is injected into a water-saturated sandstone core sample. The study also highlights the impact of the capillary forces and viscous forces on the two-phase flow characteristics and shows the conditions where capillary forces or viscous forces become dominant. The authors are not aware of similar experimental studies conducted in the literature so far. The results revealed a moderate to considerable impact of the parameters investigated on the differential pressure profile, cumulative produced volumes, endpoint CO₂ relative (effective) permeability and residual water saturation. The extent of the impact of each parameter (e.g. fluid pressure) was a function of the associated parameters (e.g. temperature and injection rate). Increasing fluid pressure caused the differential pressure profile of supercritical CO₂-water displacement to transform to the likeness of liquid CO₂-water displacement, while, increasing temperature transforms it to the likeness of gaseous CO₂-water displacement. Increasing fluid pressure caused a considerable reduction in the maximum and quasi-differential pressures, an increase in the endpoint CO₂ relative permeability (K_{CO_2}) and a reduction in the residual water saturation (S_{wr}) and

31 cumulative produced volumes. Overall, the impact of temperature is opposite to [that](#) of fluid pressure.
32 However, with increasing temperature, the K_{rCO_2} showed a declining trend at high-fluid pressures (90
33 bar) but an increasing trend at low-fluid pressures (75 bar). Increasing injection rate caused a
34 considerable increase in the maximum and quasi-differential pressures, a rise in the K_{rCO_2} , a reduction
35 in the S_{wr} , and an increase in the cumulative produced volumes. The S_{wr} was in range of 0.34-0.41 while
36 K_{rCO_2} was less than 0.37, depending on the operational conditions. Changing the operational conditions
37 caused a higher impact on K_{rCO_2} than that on S_{wr} . The results indicate that capillary forces dominate the
38 multiphase flow characteristics as fluid pressure and temperature are increased.

39 **1 Introduction**

40 The storage of carbon dioxide in deep saline aquifers, abounded or depleted oil and gas reservoirs
41 ([Delshad et al., 2010](#); [Gozalpour et al., 2005](#); [Kaveh et al., 2012](#)), and unminable coal bed seams ([Kaveh](#)
42 [et al., 2012](#); [Plug and Bruining, 2007a](#)) is increasingly viewed as a promising technology to mitigate the
43 increasing emissions of anthropogenic CO₂ into the atmosphere due to fossil fuel burning and other
44 human activities ([Bachu, 2001](#); [Hangx et al., 2013](#); [Kazemifar et al., 2015](#)), enhance hydrocarbon recovery
45 or extract geothermal heat ([Kaveh et al., 2012](#); [Tutolo et al., 2015](#)).

46 During the injection process, supercritical (Sc) CO₂ will displace formation water in an immiscible
47 drainage displacement process ([Bachu, 2000](#); [Basbug et al., 2005](#)). The multiphase flow properties are
48 controlled by the interplay of many factors including capillary forces, viscous forces, gravity forces
49 ([Roof, 1970](#); [Rostami et al., 2010](#)), interfacial interactions, solubility of CO₂ in formation water, phase
50 densities and viscosities of the injected and present fluids, petrophysical properties of the aquifer, and
51 injection rate and its duration ([Pentland et al., 2011](#)). Due to the small pore sizes of subsurface rocks
52 and sands, the capillary forces at the CO₂-water interface will have a considerable influence on the two-
53 phase flow through a porous medium ([Roof, 1970](#)). The interplay between the capillary forces, viscous
54 forces as well as gravity forces governs the displacement front behaviour, which potentially has an
55 impact on fluids distribution, in turn, will have a potential influence on the macroscopic transport

56 characteristics such as relative permeability and capillary pressure ([Rostami et al., 2010](#)). Change in
57 fluid pressure, temperature, and injection rate will have a direct impact on most of the aforementioned
58 factors; therefore, changing the operational conditions will have a moderate to significant influence on
59 the injectivity ([Müller, 2011](#)), migration, storage and long-term integrity efficiency of CO₂ processes
60 ([Saraji et al., 2013](#)). The CO₂ injectivity is a key factor in determining the amount, pace, and period of
61 CO₂ injection in a saline aquifer ([Mijic et al., 2014](#)).

62 Multiphase flow corresponding with CO₂ injection into subsurface formations is a complex
63 process, thus conducting core-scale displacements under a wide range of parameters (e.g. different
64 pressure, temperature and injection rate conditions) will provide us with a deeper understanding of
65 the behaviour of immiscible flow through natural porous media, thereby enabling us to build models
66 that approximate physics more closely ([Aryana and Kavscek, 2012](#)). Despite its importance, the
67 multiphase flow properties of CO₂-water (brine) systems are poorly investigated in comparison to CO₂-
68 oil systems ([Bahralolom et al., 1988](#); [Perrin and Benson, 2010](#)). Our literature review shows a large
69 research effort has been allocated to CO₂ wettability ([Al-Menhali and Krevor, 2014](#); [Bikkina, 2011](#);
70 [Farokhpoor et al., 2013a](#); [Kaveh et al., 2012](#); [Li, 2015](#); [Sakurovs and Lavrencic, 2011](#); [Saraji et al., 2013](#);
71 [Yang et al., 2007](#)) and CO₂ interfacial tension ([Aggelopoulos et al., 2010](#); [Bachu and Bennion, 2008, 2009](#);
72 [Busch and Müller, 2011](#); [Chiquet et al., 2007](#); [Li et al., 2012](#); [Yu et al., 2012](#)). Cinar and Riaz in their
73 literature review pointed out the need to more investigations on multiphase flow characteristics of CO₂-
74 (water) brine-solid systems ([Cinar and Riaz, 2014](#)).

75 The limited investigations of the multiphase flow characteristics of ScCO₂-(water) brine systems
76 are mainly classified into computational modelling ([Jobard et al., 2013](#); [Ma et al., 2013](#); [Mijic et al., 2014](#);
77 [Xu et al., 2011](#)) and laboratory experiments ([Berg et al., 2013](#); [Levine et al., 2011](#); [Pini et al., 2012](#); [Song
78 et al., 2012](#); [Suekane et al., 2005](#); [Zheng et al., 2017](#)). The laboratory ScCO₂-brine (water) experiments
79 have been conducted on various porous media that include synthetic and natural core samples ([Berg
80 et al., 2013](#); [Edlmann et al., 2013](#); [Levine et al., 2011](#); [Pini et al., 2012](#)), micromodels ([Zheng et al., 2017](#)),
81 and packed bed of glass beads ([Song et al., 2012](#); [Suekane et al., 2005](#)). In these experiments, researchers

82 investigated the multiphase flow properties by measuring various parameters that include: relative
83 permeability curves ([Berg et al., 2013](#); [Chang et al., 2013](#); [Krevor et al., 2013](#); [Suekane et al., 2005](#);
84 [Suenaga and Nakagawa, 2011](#)), capillary pressure curves ([Herring et al., 2014](#); [Wang et al., 2013](#)), CO₂
85 residual saturation and distribution ([Alemu et al., 2011](#); [Chang et al., 2013](#); [Herring et al., 2014](#); [Pentland
86 et al., 2011](#); [Saeedi et al., 2011](#); [Suekane et al., 2005](#)), heterogeneity impact ([Ott et al., 2015](#); [Perrin and
87 Benson, 2010](#); [Shi et al., 2011](#); [Wang et al., 2013](#)), flow regimes ([Armstrong et al., 2017](#)), water
88 displacement efficiency ([Cao et al., 2016](#)), and formation dry out ([Ott et al., 2011](#)).

89 Nevertheless, despite the wide research on CO₂-water (brine) systems and despite its high
90 importance, the literature provided shows that the analysis of the pressure data in core flooding has
91 been widely overlooked ([Rezaei and Firoozabadi, 2014](#)). In this paper, laboratory dynamic drainage
92 experiments were performed by injecting pure CO₂ in its supercritical state into the core sample to
93 investigate the impact of fluid pressure, temperature and injection rate on the multiphase flow
94 characteristics, especially focusing on the differential pressure profile, water production profile,
95 residual water saturation, and endpoint effective and relative permeabilities of CO₂. One of the main
96 objectives of this investigation is to shed more light on the impact of capillary forces and viscous forces
97 on the two-phase flow characteristics and highlights the conditions at which the capillary forces or
98 viscous forces become dominant. To the authors' best knowledge, no such experimental investigation
99 has been conducted to explore the dynamic pressure evolution and displacement efficiency when
100 supercritical CO₂ is flooded into a deionised water-saturated sandstone core sample. The results of this
101 study would be of importance for evaluating CO₂ injectivity, fluid migration and entrapment,
102 displacement efficiency, CO₂ storage capacity ([Levine et al., 2011](#); [Wang et al., 2015](#)), and efficiency and
103 integrity of the CO₂ sequestration processes ([Busch and Müller, 2011](#); [Rathnaweera et al., 2015](#)).

104

105 2 Materials

106 The unsteady state dynamic drainage experiments (ScCO₂-water displacements) were conducted
107 on a sandstone core sample from Guillemot A Field in the North Sea. The core sample used in this work
108 is of 2.54 cm diameter and 7.62 cm length. The average porosity and absolute water permeability of the
109 core sample are about 14% and 15.8 millidarcys, respectively. To calculate the core sample pore volume
110 and porosity, the core was saturated with deionized water and then the weight difference between the
111 dry and the wet core sample was used. This study is one in a series, therefore, the core sample
112 description, core sample setup and CO₂-water displacements procedures can be found in Al-Zaidi et
113 al. ([Al-Zaidi et al., 2018b](#)).

114 3 Results and Discussions

115 To gain a proper understanding of the two-phase flow characteristics of ScCO₂-water drainage
116 displacements, the differential pressure profile, production profile, residual water saturation and
117 endpoint relative and effective permeabilities of CO₂ were measured and analysed.

118 The differential pressure refers to the difference between the readings of the pressure transducers
119 at the inlet and the outlet sides of the core sample. The capillary and viscous forces are the most
120 influential forces that govern the differential pressure profile when CO₂ is injected in a horizontal
121 direction. Espinoza and Santamarina related the capillary and viscous forces with the differential
122 pressure ([Espinoza and Santamarina, 2010](#)) as follows:

$$123 \quad \Delta P = P_{CO_2} - P_{water} = 4 \frac{\sigma_{CO_2-water} \cos\theta}{d} + v \frac{32L}{d^2} \left(\frac{l_{CO_2}\mu_{CO_2} + l_{water}\mu_{water}}{L} \right) \quad (1)$$

124 where ΔP is the differential pressure across the core sample (Pa). P_{CO_2} and P_{water} are the CO₂ phase
125 and water bulk pressures, respectively; $\sigma_{CO_2-water}$ is the CO₂-water interfacial tension (mN/m), θ the
126 contact angle between fluids and core sample surface, d (m) the diameter of the largest effective pore
127 ([Chiquet et al., 2007](#); [Farokhpoor et al., 2013b](#)), v (m/sec) the fluid velocity in the pores, L (m) the length
128 of the core sample, l (m) length of CO₂ or water phase inside the core sample, and μ (Pa·s) the viscosity

129 of the fluids. The first term of Eq.1 refers to the Young-Laplace equation, which accounts for the
130 capillary forces, while the second term refers to the Poiseuille's equation ([Espinoza and Santamarina,](#)
131 [2010](#); [Li, 2015](#)), which accounts for the viscous forces. The capillary forces [which exist](#) because of the
132 presence of the CO₂-water interface inside pore network ([Bikkina et al., 2016](#)) govern the multiphase
133 flow during immiscible displacements ([Schembre and Kovscek, 2003](#)) and leads to the trapping of one
134 phase by another during immiscible displacements ([Akbarabadi and Piri, 2013](#); [Chatzis and Morrow,](#)
135 [1984](#)). The capillary forces are determined by CO₂-water interfacial tension, wettability of the system as
136 well as the core sample pore size distribution ([Alkan et al., 2010](#); [Bikkina et al., 2016](#); [Chatzis and](#)
137 [Morrow, 1984](#); [Fulcher Jr et al., 1985](#)). The viscous forces are governed by the injection rate, the viscosity
138 of the displacing and displaced fluids, and the core sample properties such as cross sectional area, core
139 sample length, and permeability.

140 In this study, the experimental data has been categorized into four main sections. The first three
141 sections deal with the impact of fluid pressure (75-90 bar), temperature (33-55 °C) and injection rate
142 (0.1- 1ml/min) on the differential pressure profile and production behaviour; while the fourth section
143 deal with their influence on the endpoint CO₂ effective (relative) permeability and residual water
144 saturation. It should be noted that during this study, the corresponding time refers to the time required
145 to reach the maximum-differential pressure at the start of the experiment. The quasi-differential
146 pressure refers to the differential pressure measured at the end of the core flooding. [For the pump](#)
147 [injection rates of 0.1, 0.4, 0.6, and 1 ml/min, the Darcy flux is around 0.0197, 0.079, 0.118, and 0.197](#)
148 [cm/min while the average linear velocity is around 0.141, 0.564, 0.846, and 1.41 cm/min.](#) It is worth
149 stating that for comparative purposes, we will maintain the use of injection rate from the pump as our
150 reference "flowrate" in this study.

151 ***3.1 Effect of Fluid Pressure on the Differential Pressure Profile of ScCO₂-Water*** 152 ***Displacements.***

153 To have a thorough understanding about the effect of fluid pressure on the differential pressure
154 and water recovery of ScCO₂-water displacements, experiments were conducted under various fluid

155 pressures (75-90 bar), temperatures (33 and 45 °C) and injection rates (0.1,0.4, and 1 ml/min). The
156 discussion of the pressure data will be presented in two sections. [The first section deals with](#)
157 [experiments conducted at 33 °C while the second one deals with experiments performed at 45 °C.](#)

158 *3.1.1 Effect of Fluid Pressure on the Differential Pressure Profile of ScCO₂-Water* 159 *Displacements Conducted at 33 °C.*

160 The results from [Figure 1-3](#) show that for all fluid pressures, the differential pressure increased
161 sharply; then, it dropped steeply (under low pressure and high temperature conditions) or gradually
162 (under high pressure and low temperature conditions) until it reached a nearly quasi-steady drop.
163 Increasing fluid pressure caused a substantial drop in the maximum and quasi-differential pressures;
164 [the extent of](#) this drop decreased as CO₂ injection rate increased. The reduction in the maximum
165 differential pressure was always greater than the reduction in the quasi-differential pressure. The
166 increase or a decrease in the corresponding time with increasing fluid pressure is dependent on the
167 injection rate. Increasing fluid pressure led the differential pressure profile of the ScCO₂-water
168 displacements to transform from the likeness of a gaseous CO₂ behaviour to a liquid-like CO₂
169 behaviour. It caused also a slight increase in the differential pressure profile of the 90 bar-experiment
170 until it became slightly higher than the differential pressure profile of the 80 bar-experiment at the end
171 of the displacements.

172 The data from [Figure 1-3](#) present the effect of increasing fluid pressure on the differential pressure
173 profile. The data shows that the profile of the differential pressure is characterized by a sharp increase
174 that is followed by a strong or gradual reduction (depending on the pressure and temperature range)
175 until it reached an almost quasi-steady profile. In general, a similar behaviour has been reported by
176 Bikini et al. and Ott et al. ([Bikkina et al., 2016](#); [Ott et al., 2015](#)). The sharp increase in the differential
177 pressure occurred because the injected CO₂ entered the pore network of the sandstone core sample for
178 the first time and had to overcome the entry pressure of the sandstone pore network. According to Eq.1,
179 the strong reduction in the differential pressure can be attributed to the reduction in both capillary and
180 viscous forces. The reduction in the capillary forces is expected to occur when capillary pore throats are

181 opened to flow, i.e. after CO₂ breakthrough ([Kwelle, 2017](#)). On the other hand, the reduction in the
 182 viscous forces can be associated with the replacement of a more viscous fluid (water) by a less viscous
 183 fluid (CO₂) and with the increase in the CO₂ relative permeability at the expense of water relative
 184 permeability ([Chang et al., 2013](#)).

185 The gas expansion effect can occur as a result of the change in the injected CO₂ density due to the
 186 temperature difference inside and outside the water bath ([Carpenter, 2014](#); [Perrin and Benson, 2010](#)).
 187 During this study, the density of the injected CO₂ varies as the CO₂ enters the water bath. The density
 188 change, i.e. density ratio, is a function of the injection rate, fluid pressure and the temperature difference
 189 from the pump (under room temperature) to the core sample inside the water bath. The density ratio
 190 (d_r) suggested by Perrin and Benson ([Perrin and Benson, 2010](#)) has been used to calculate the volumetric
 191 injection rate inside the core sample. For instance, at a fluid pressure of 40 bar, an injection rate of 1
 192 ml/min at 20 °C becomes 1.108 ml/min at 33 °C.

$$193 \quad d_r = \frac{d_{CO_2}^{20^\circ C, 40 \text{ bars}}}{d_{CO_2}^{33^\circ C, 40 \text{ bars}}} \quad (3)$$

194 The data from [Figure 1-3](#) reveal that the increase in the fluid pressure led to a considerable
 195 reduction in the maximum and quasi-differential pressures along with the increase or a decrease in the
 196 corresponding time depending on the injection rate; the corresponding time increased with increasing
 197 fluid pressure at an injection rate of 0.1 ml/min and decreased at an injection rate of 0.4 ml/min and
 198 higher. For illustration, the data from [Figure 1](#) exhibits that as the fluid pressure increased (from 75 to
 199 90 bar) at 0.1 ml/min injection rate, the maximum-differential pressure dropped by around 72% (from
 200 0.36 to 0.102 bar) and the quasi-differential pressure decreased by around 69.5% (from 0.154 to 0.047
 201 bar) but the corresponding time increased by around 66% (from 6.5 to 10.8 min). The data from [Figure](#)
 202 [2](#) shows that as the fluid pressure increased (from 75 to 90 bar) at 0.4 ml/min, the maximum-differential
 203 pressure dropped by around 46.6% (from 1.121 to 0.599 bar), the quasi-differential pressure declined
 204 by around 39% (from 0.363 to 0.221 bar), and the corresponding time reduced by around 68.4% (from
 205 1.9 to 0.6 min). [The data from Figure 3](#) shows that increasing the fluid pressure (from 75 to 80 and then

206 to 90 bar) at 1 ml/min, caused the maximum-differential pressure to drop by around 40% (from 2.492
207 to 1.496 bar), the quasi-differential pressure to decline by around 38% (from 0.994 to 0.614), and the
208 corresponding time to decline by around 15.6% (from 3.2 to 2.7 min).

209 The reduction in the differential pressure of supercritical CO₂-water systems is also observed by
210 us with supercritical CO₂-oil systems, for more information see Al-Zaidi et al. ([Al-Zaidi et al., 2018a](#)).
211 According to Eq.1, the reduction **observed** in the differential pressure profile is the net result of the
212 reduction in the capillary forces and the increase in the viscous forces with increasing fluid pressure.
213 The reduction in the capillary forces with increasing fluid pressure is due to the reduction in the CO₂-
214 water interfacial tension, as shown in [Figure 4](#), and the increase in contact angle because of the increase
215 in CO₂ solubility ([Jung and Wan, 2012](#); [Plug and Bruining, 2007b](#); [Yang et al., 2007](#)). The increase in the
216 viscous forces with increasing fluid pressure is due to the increase in CO₂ viscosity ([Peace software,](#)
217 [2017](#)). For illustration, as the fluid pressure increased from 75 to 90 bar, the ScCO₂ viscosity increased
218 from 33.3095 to $53.837 \times [10^{-6} \text{ (Pa}\cdot\text{s)}]$ ([Peace software, 2017](#)), and the CO₂-water interfacial tension (IFT)
219 reduced **slightly, by around 3 Nm/m**, from around 28 to 25 mN/m as shown in [Figure 4](#) ([Bachu and](#)
220 [Bennion, 2008](#)). As a result, the reduction **observed** in the differential pressure with increasing fluid
221 pressure might be related mainly to the increase in contact angle. This is in agreement with the findings
222 by Yang et al. ([Yang et al., 2005](#)), Liu et al. ([Liu et al., 2010](#)), and Jung and Wan ([Jung and Wan, 2012](#)).
223 Yang et al. ([Yang et al., 2005](#)) and Liu et al. ([Liu et al., 2010](#)) noticed that using a supercritical CO₂ phase
224 with reservoir rocks leads to a higher alteration towards less water-wetting status **compared** to gaseous
225 and liquid CO₂ phases. Moreover, Jung and Wan ([Jung and Wan, 2012](#)) found that contact angle
226 increases significantly with increasing fluid pressure up to 100 bar when the fluid pressure is higher
227 than the critical pressure of CO₂ (larger than 73.8 bar) but remains fairly constant when the fluid
228 pressure is less than the critical pressure or above 100 bar.

229 Regarding the change in the corresponding time, the increase **observed** in the corresponding time
230 at low injection rate (0.1 ml/min) can be linked to the transformation of a supercritical CO₂-water
231 behaviour to a liquid-like CO₂-**water** behaviour; **this** transformation can result in reducing the mobility

232 ratio and the expansion impact effect due to the low sensitive nature of liquid CO₂ to pressure and
233 temperature change, more discussion will follow later. However, the reduction in the corresponding
234 time with higher injection rate (0.4 ml/min) is likely to be related to the reduction in the magnitude of
235 the maximum differential pressure with increasing fluid pressure.

236 The data from Figure 1-2 showed that the drop in the maximum-differential pressure with
237 increasing fluid pressure was always higher than that in the quasi-differential pressure. This can be
238 related to fact that the dynamic reduction in both capillary and viscous forces at the end of the
239 displacement is less than that at the start of the displacement.

240 The results from Figure 1-2 showed also that as the CO₂ injection rate increased, the reduction in
241 the differential pressure, due to increasing fluid pressure, decreased. This is because the reduction
242 observed in the differential pressure profile is the net result of the increase in the viscous forces and the
243 reduction in the capillary forces with increasing fluid pressure. Thus, with increasing injection rate, the
244 contribution of the viscous forces to the net pressure drop increase while the contribution of the
245 capillary forces decreases (Rezaei and Firoozabadi, 2014), thereby leading to a less reduction in the
246 differential pressure.

247

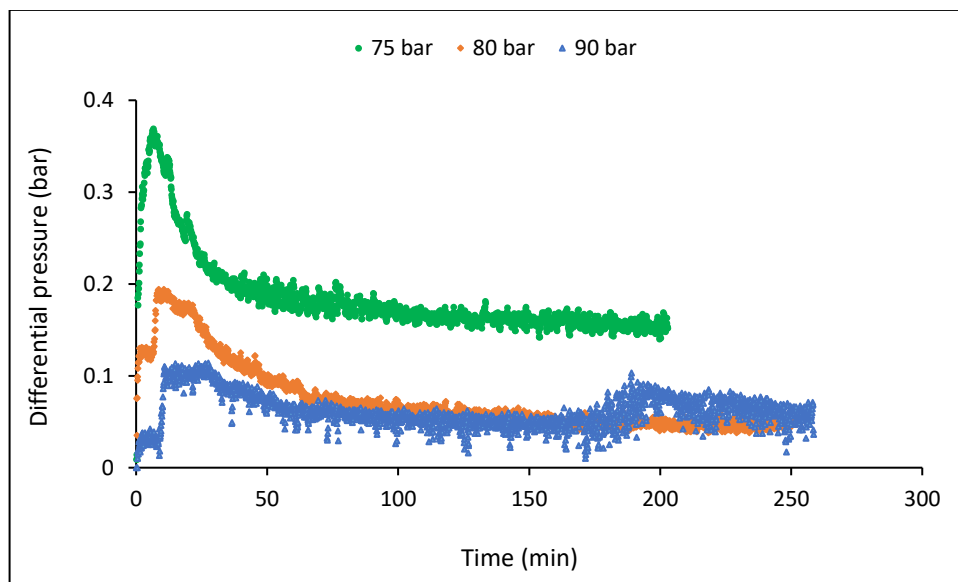
248 The data from Figure 1-2 show also that as the fluid pressure increased, the differential pressure
249 profile of the ScCO₂-water displacements transformed from the likeness of a gaseous CO₂ behaviour to
250 a liquid CO₂ behaviour; this transformation occurs at lower-fluid pressures with increasing injection
251 rate. For instance, the differential pressure profile of the 75 bar-experiment is very similar to that of a
252 typical high-fluid pressure gaseous CO₂-water displacement while that of 90 bar-experiment is virtually
253 identical to that of a typical liquid CO₂-water displacement (Al-Zaidi et al., 2018b). Increasing the CO₂
254 injection rate from 0.1 to 0.4 ml/min caused the transition from a gaseous to liquid CO₂ behaviour to
255 occur at lower fluid pressure. For the 0.1 ml/min-displacements, the transition towards liquid CO₂
256 behaviour occurred at 90 bar. Nonetheless, for the 0.4 ml/min-displacements, it started from 77 bar. The
257 similarity to a gaseous or a liquid CO₂ behaviour has been decided mainly on the rate of reduction in

258 the differential pressure profile during early times of flooding; the gaseous CO₂ displacements are
259 characterized by a high-pressure drop at early stages while the liquid CO₂ displacements are
260 characterized by a slight drop ([Al-Zaidi et al., 2018b](#)). The transformation of the differential pressure
261 profile at low pressures with increasing injection rate can be related to the increase in viscous pressure
262 drop (with increasing injection rate) that leads to a reduction in the total pressure drop (as stated above);
263 this, in turn, caused the appearance of the liquid CO₂ like differential pressure profile, which is
264 characterized by a gradual pressure drop at early stages.

265 The transformation of the differential pressure profile with increasing fluid pressure proposes that
266 the capillary and viscous properties of a supercritical CO₂ phase become similar to that of gaseous CO₂
267 phase at low fluid pressures and similar to that of liquid CO₂ phase at high fluid pressures; liquid CO₂
268 is characterized by higher viscous forces and lesser capillary forces compared to gaseous CO₂. With
269 increasing fluid pressure, the viscous forces of supercritical CO₂ phase become higher while the
270 capillary forces become lesser. This is because the increase in the fluid pressure leads to the increase in
271 the CO₂ viscosity as well as the decrease in the interfacial tension and the increase in the contact angle
272 due to the increasing CO₂ solubility ([Espinoza and Santamarina, 2010](#); [Plug and Bruining, 2007a](#)).
273 Moreover, the transformation towards liquid CO₂ behaviour might have occurred because the
274 wettability behaviour of liquid and supercritical CO₂ phases become very close to each other at high-
275 pressure conditions. The wettability of the core sample with supercritical and liquid CO₂ might have
276 been altered towards hydrophobic wetting status at high pressures. This potential wettability alteration
277 might have occurred due to the fluid pressure increase in case of supercritical CO₂ ([Jung and Wan, 2012](#);
278 [Yang et al., 2005](#)) (as illustrated above), and CO₂ phase transformation in case of liquid CO₂ ([Yang et al.,](#)
279 [2007](#)). Yang et al. observed that as gaseous CO₂ phase transforms to liquid CO₂, the wetting status
280 becomes hydrophobic ([Yang et al., 2007](#)).

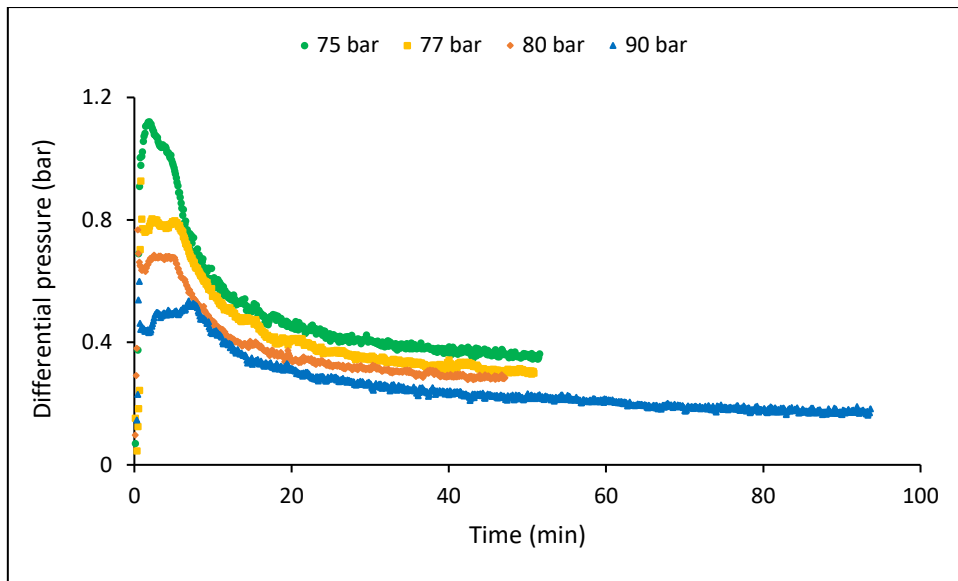
281 The data from [Figure 1](#) show that after about 170 min, the differential pressure profile of the 90
282 bar-experiment experienced a gradual increase until it became slightly higher than the differential

283 pressure profile of the 80 bar-experiment. The reason is not entirely clear. However, the first possible
284 explanation is that as water depletion progressed and, hence, the viscous pressure drop across the core
285 sample diminished, the flow of CO₂ through non-depleted capillaries was partially blocked by the
286 capillary forces (Nutt, 1982), more discussion can be seen in in Al-Zaidi et al. (Al-Zaidi et al., 2018a; Al-
287 Zaidi et al., 2018b). As a result, the pressure of the CO₂ had to build up to a certain level to overcome
288 the capillary forces (Hildenbrand et al., 2002; Nutt, 1982). The second possible explanation is that, after
289 around 170 min, the impact of viscous forces became higher than that of capillary forces as most of the
290 water was displaced; thereby CO₂ was flowing through opened pores. The result was less impact for
291 capillary forces (Kwelle, 2017).



292

293 **Figure 1:** Effect of fluid pressure on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements
294 conducted at 0.1 ml/min and 33 °C.

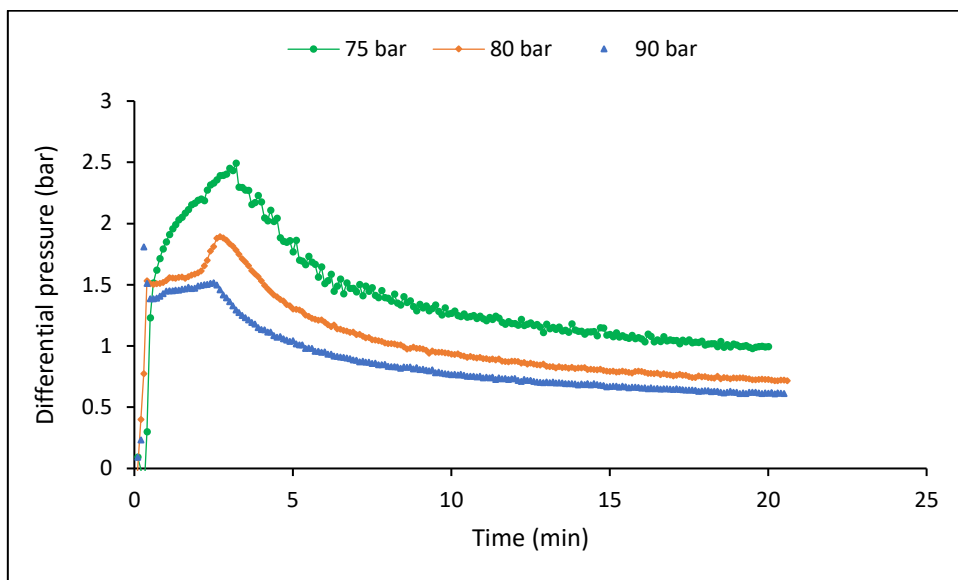


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Figure 2: Effect of fluid pressure on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements conducted at 0.4 ml/min and 33 °C.

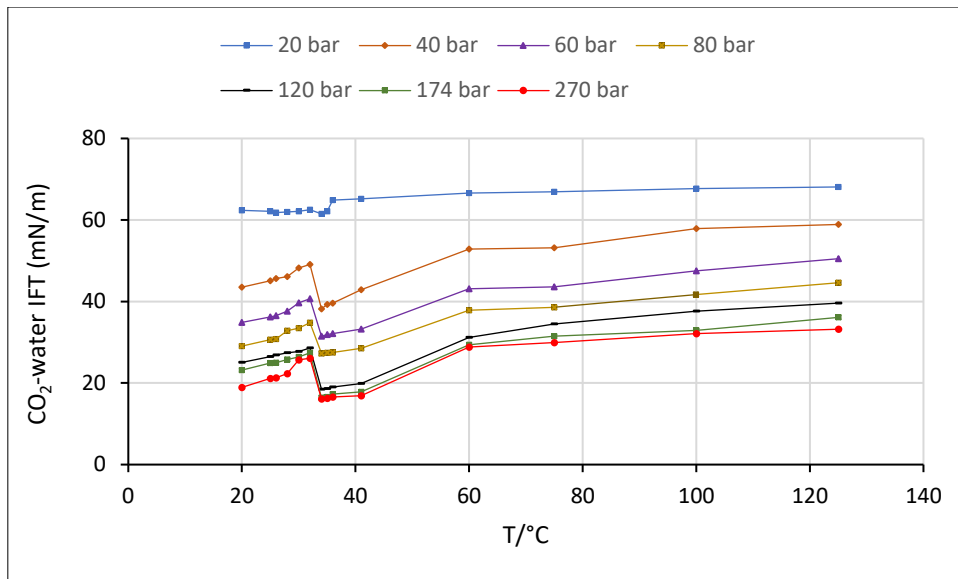


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Figure 3: Effect of fluid pressure on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements conducted at 1 ml/min and 33 °C.



301

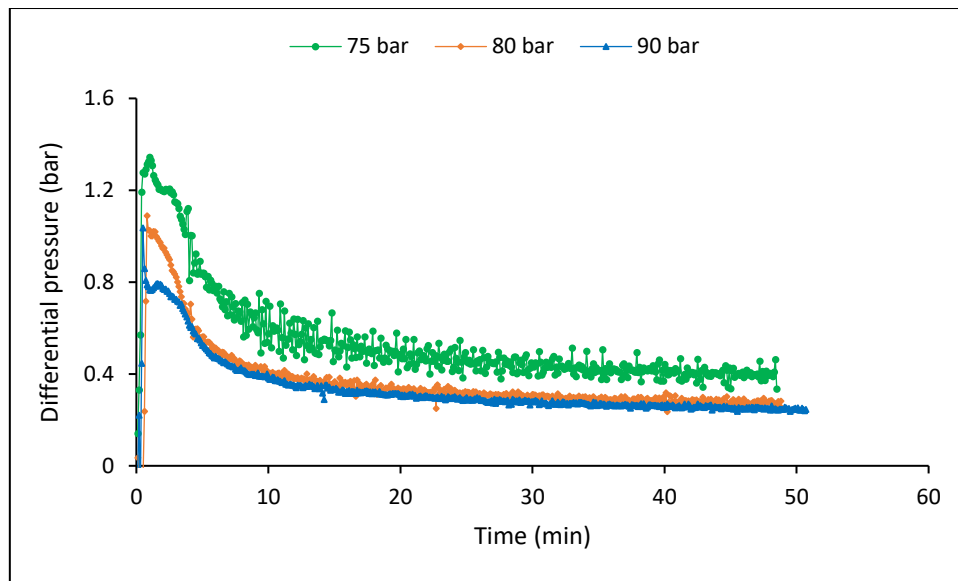
302 [Figure 4](#): Experimental interfacial tension for CO₂-Pure Water Systems adopted from ([Bachu and](#)
 303 [Bennion, 2008](#)).

304 **3.1.2 Effect of Fluid Pressure on the Differential Pressure Profile of ScCO₂-Water**
 305 **Displacements Conducted at Higher Temperatures (45 °C).**

306 [Figure 5](#) presents the effect of increasing fluid pressure on the differential pressure at a higher
 307 temperature (45 °C). Overall, in comparison to experiments conducted under lower temperature (33
 308 °C) conditions, the differential pressure profile of the higher temperature (45 °C) displacements
 309 becomes more similar to gaseous CO₂ behaviour than liquid CO₂ behaviour.

310 The data from [Figure 5](#) reveals also that the differential pressure profile experienced the highest
 311 reduction within the first three to five minutes of running the experiments and reached a quasi-pressure
 312 state after around 20 min. This indicates that most of the water recovery happened during the first five
 313 minutes of running the coreflooding. As a result, the differential pressure profile of the 80 and 90 bar
 314 became almost identical after 3.3 min. These nearly identical pressure profiles might have occurred
 315 because the reduction in the differential pressure profile (due to the decline of the capillary forces with
 316 increasing pressure) was equalled by the increase in the differential pressure profile (owing to the
 317 increase of the viscous forces with increasing pressure). This suggests that in comparison to capillary
 318 forces, the viscous forces played a vital role at later stages of the displacements. During these stages, it
 319 is expected that the bypassed water was concentrated inside the smallest pores and the larger pores

320 were occupied by the injected CO₂ (Chang et al., 2013). Consequently, the impact of the capillary forces
321 was significantly reduced (Kwelle, 2017).



322

323 **Figure 5:** Effect of fluid pressure on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements
324 conducted at 0.4 ml/min, and 45 °C.

325 **3.1.3 Effect of Temperature on the Differential Pressure Profile of ScCO₂-Water Drainage** 326 **Displacements.**

327 To have a deep understanding of the effect of temperature on the differential pressure and water
328 recovery of ScCO₂-water displacements, a series of experiments were conducted under different
329 temperatures (33 and 45 °C), different injection rates (0.1, 0.4, and 1ml/min), and different fluid
330 pressures (75-90 bar) conditions.

331 The data from Figure 6-9 show that increasing temperature caused the differential pressure profile
332 to transform to the likeness of gaseous CO₂ behaviour. Increasing temperature caused a significant
333 increase in the maximum and quasi-differential pressures; the extent of this increase increased with the
334 injection rate. The corresponding time decreases or increases depending on the CO₂ injection rate.
335 Increasing temperature at a lower fluid pressure (75 bar) led to the appearance of the differential
336 pressure oscillations in addition to the increase in the maximum and quasi-differential pressures.

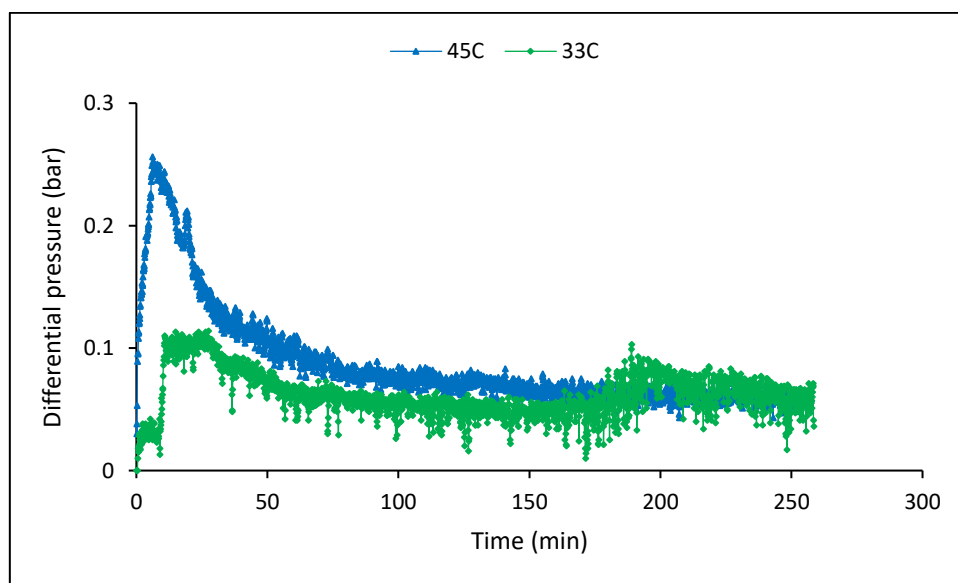
337

338 The data from [Figure 6-9](#) show the effect of increasing temperature on the differential pressure at
339 different fluid pressures and injection rates. Contrary to the fluid pressure effects, the increase in
340 temperature, from 33 to 45 °C at 90 bar, caused the differential pressure profile to transform to the
341 likeness of gaseous CO₂ behaviour, as shown in [Figure 6](#). The increase in temperature produced a
342 notable increase in the maximum and quasi-differential pressures; the extent of this increase increased
343 with the injection rate. The reduction or increase in the corresponding time is dependent on the CO₂
344 injection rate; the corresponding time decreased with increasing temperature at an injection rate of 0.1
345 ml/min and increased with increasing temperature at an injection rate of 0.4 ml/min and higher; which
346 is opposite to the impact of fluid pressure as stated above. For illustration, the data from [Figure 6](#) shows
347 that as the temperature increased (from 33 to 45 °C) at 0.1 ml/min and 90 bar, the maximum-differential
348 pressure increased by around 133% (from around 0.11 to 0.256 bar) but the corresponding times
349 dropped by around 44.5% (from around 11 to 6.1 min). The quasi-differential pressure was almost
350 identical, apart from the gradual increase of the differential pressure profile after about 170 min, see
351 [Section 3.1.1](#) above for [more information](#). The data from [Figure 7](#) shows that increasing the temperature
352 (from 33 to 55 °C) at 0.4 ml/min and 90 bar, caused the maximum-differential pressure to rise by around
353 75.5% (from 0.599 to 1.051 bar), the quasi-differential pressure to increase by 54% (from 0.224 to 0.345
354 bar), and the corresponding time to extend by around 17% (from 0.6 to 0.7 ml/min). The corresponding
355 time of both 33 and 45 °C-displacements was equal and their differential profiles were almost identical
356 during the last period. The data from [Figure 8](#) shows that for the displacements conducted at 1 ml/min
357 and 90 bar, increasing the temperature (from 33 to 55 °C) led the maximum-differential pressure to
358 increase by around 246.6% (from 0.786 to 2.724 bar), the quasi-differential pressure to increase by about
359 201% (from 0.299 to 0.901 bar), and the corresponding time to extend by 47% (from 1.7 to 2.5 min).

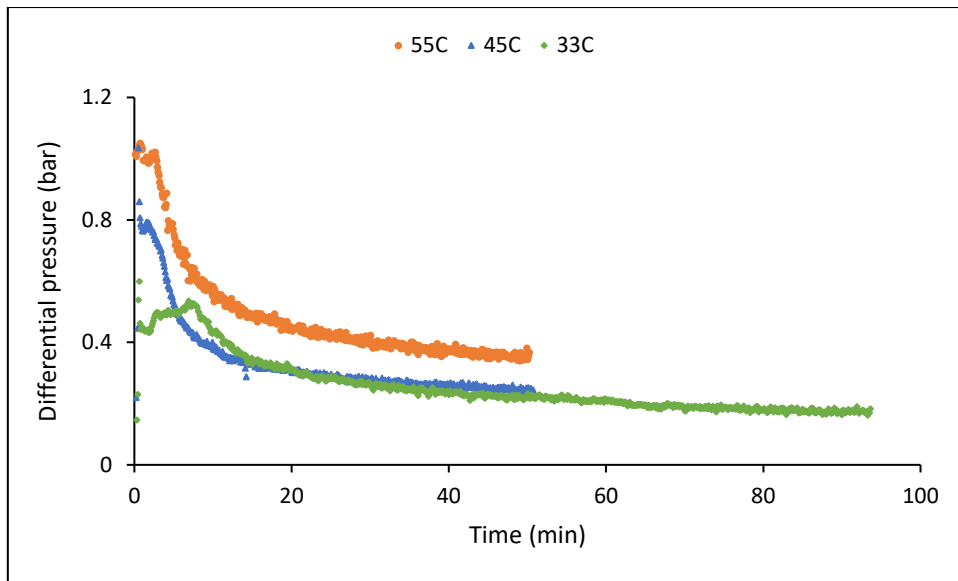
360 According to Eq.1, the increase [observed](#) in the differential pressure profile with increasing
361 temperature can be related mainly to the increase in the capillary forces and slightly to the increase in
362 the applied viscous forces. The increase in the capillary forces with increasing temperature is due to the
363 increase in the CO₂-water interfacial tension and the reduction in the contact angle because of the

364 reduction in CO₂ solubility ([Bachu and Bennion, 2008](#); [Yang et al., 2007](#)). On the other hand, the slight
365 increase in the viscous forces with increasing temperature, despite the reduction in the CO₂ dynamic
366 viscosity, is because of increasing the CO₂ injection rate due to expansion impact. For the experiments
367 conducted at 90 bar-0.4 ml/min, as the temperature increased from 33 to 55 °C, the IFT increased from
368 25 to 28 mN/m and the CO₂ injection rate inside the core sample increased from 0.506 to 1.296 ml/min
369 but the CO₂ viscosity decreased from 53.837 to 22.26 × [10⁻⁶ (Pa·s)]([Peace software, 2017](#)).

370 The results from [Figure 9](#) show the effect of increasing temperature on the differential pressure at
371 a lower fluid pressure (75 bar). Increasing temperature from 33 to 45 °C led to the appearance of the
372 differential pressure oscillations for the first time. As the temperature further increased to 55 °C, the
373 magnitude of the oscillations increased. Moreover, increasing temperature from 33 to 55 °C caused the
374 maximum-differential pressure to increase by around 29% (from 1.12 to 1.444 bar), the quasi-differential
375 pressure to increase by about 21% (from 0.367 to 0.444 bar) and the corresponding times to prolong by
376 175% (from 1 to 1.17 min). The differential pressure oscillations are likely to appear because of the
377 reduction in the ratio of the viscous forces to capillary forces. Thus, the capillary forces became higher
378 than the viscous forces and; a result, the water flow paths were closed ([Nutt, 1982](#)).



379
380 [Figure 6](#): Effect of temperature on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements
381 conducted at 90 bar and 0.1 ml/min.

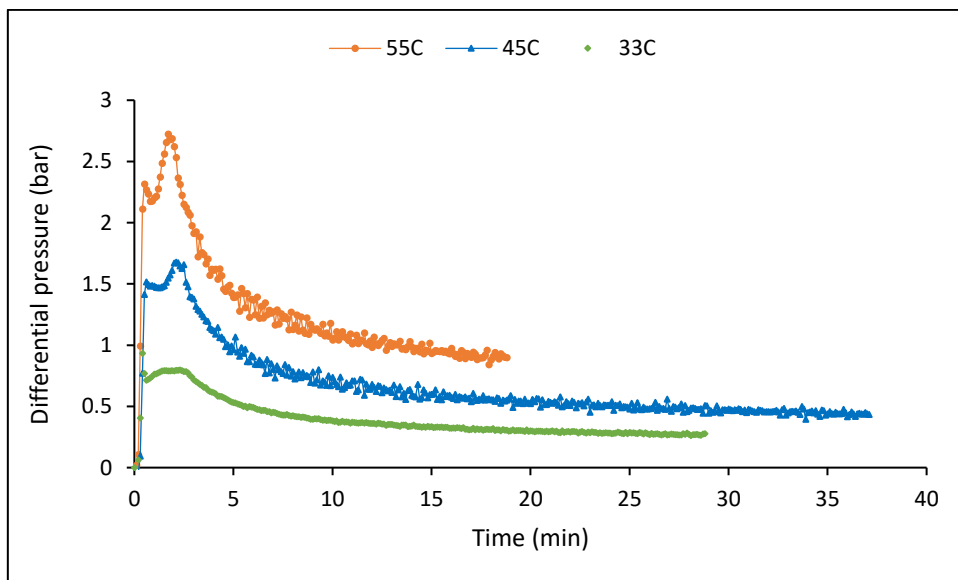


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383

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Figure 7: Effect of temperature on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements conducted at 90 bar and 0.4 ml/min.

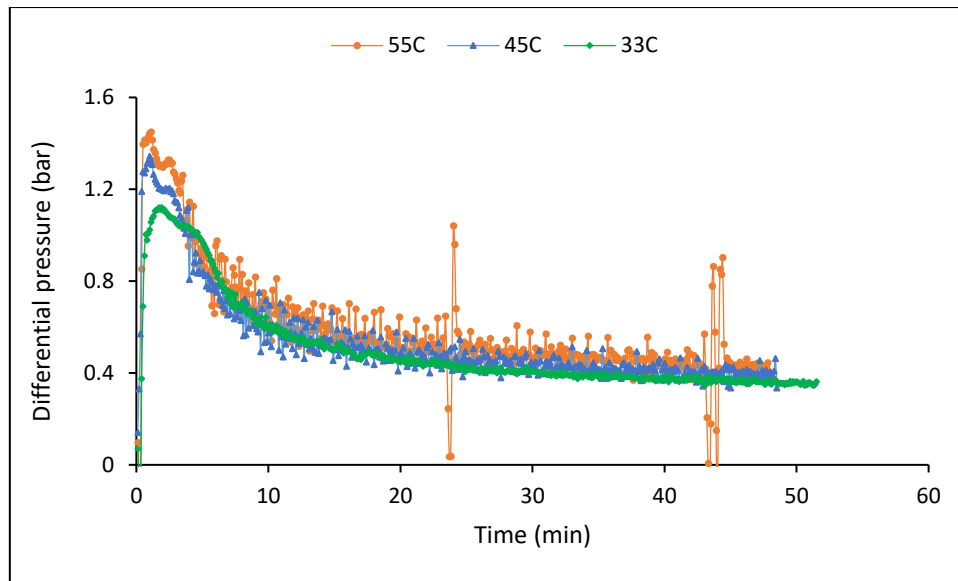


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386

387

Figure 8: Effect of temperature on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements conducted at 90 bar and 1 ml/min.



388

389 **Figure 9:** Effect of temperature on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements
 390 conducted at 75 bar and 0.4 ml/min.

391 **3.1.4 Effect of Injection Rate on the Differential Pressure Profile of ScCO₂-Water Drainage**
 392 **Displacements.**

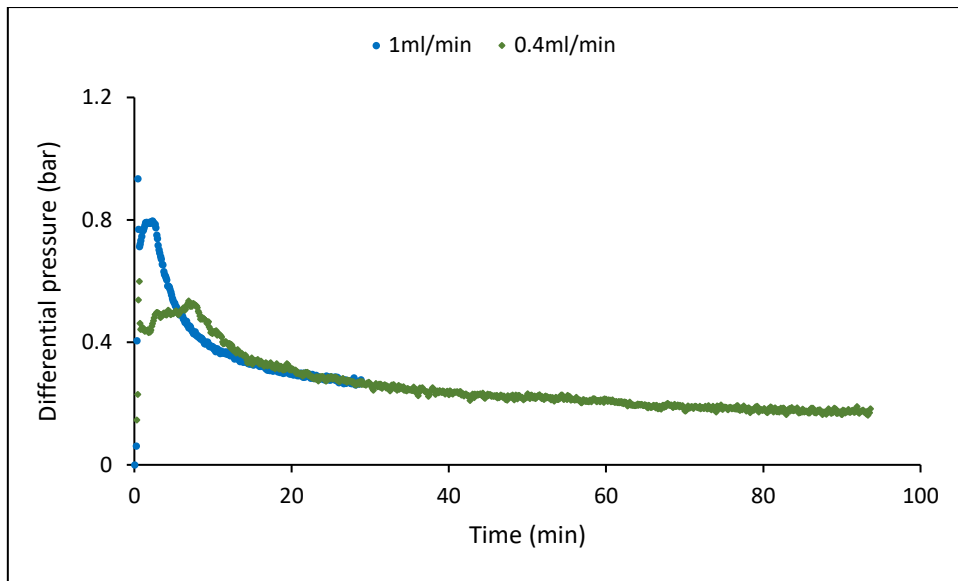
393 To investigate the effect of CO₂ injection rate on the differential pressure profile and water recovery
 394 of ScCO₂-water displacements, three series of experiments were performed under various fluid
 395 pressures (74-90 bar), temperatures (33 and 45 °C) and injection rates (0.1, 0.4, and 1ml/min).

396 **Figure 10-12** present the effect of increasing CO₂ injection rate on the differential pressure profile
 397 at different conditions. The data show that increasing injection rate caused a considerable increase in
 398 the maximum and quasi-differential pressures, the extent of this increase increased with the
 399 temperature and reduced with the fluid pressure. The decrease or increase in the corresponding time
 400 with increasing injection rate is dependent on the fluid pressure and temperature; the corresponding
 401 time decreased at low-temperature (33 °C) and high-fluid pressure (90 bar) conditions but increased at
 402 high-temperature (45 °C) and high-fluid pressure (90 bar) conditions. The data show that as the
 403 injection rate increased from 0.4 to 1 ml/min: (I) the maximum-differential pressure increased by 56%
 404 (from 0.599 to 0.935 bar), the quasi-differential pressure was constant, and the corresponding time
 405 reduced by 33.33% (from 0.6 to 0.4 min) for the displacements conducted at 90 bar and 33 °C, as shown
 406 in **Figure 10**; (II), the maximum-differential pressure increased by around 62% (from 1.035 to 1.674 bar)
 407 and the quasi-differential pressure increased by around 85.5% (from 0.234 to 0.434 bar), the

408 corresponding time increased by 340% (from 0.5 to 2.2 min) for the displacements conducted at 90 bar
409 and 45 °C, as shown in [Figure 11](#); and (III) the maximum-differential pressure increased by about 111%
410 (from 1.16 to 2.4446 bar), the quasi-differential pressure by 129% (from around 0.271 to 0.621 bar), and
411 the corresponding time was constant for the displacements conducted at 74 bar and 45 °C, as shown in
412 [Figure 12](#).

413 According to Eq.1, the increase [observed](#) in the differential pressure can be related to the increase
414 in the viscous forces owing to increasing the injection rate; however, the extent of the increase is
415 dependent on the associated fluid pressure and temperature conditions. The reduction in
416 corresponding time at low-temperature and high-pressure conditions can be related to the low
417 maximum-differential pressure because of the transformation of the ScCO₂-water displacement
418 behaviour to the likeness of a liquid CO₂-water displacement ([Al-Zaidi et al., 2018b](#)); while the increase
419 in the corresponding time at high-temperature and high-pressure conditions can be associated with the
420 high maximum-differential pressure because of the transformation of the ScCO₂-water displacement
421 profile to the likeness of a gaseous CO₂-water displacement ([Al-Zaidi et al., 2018b](#)).

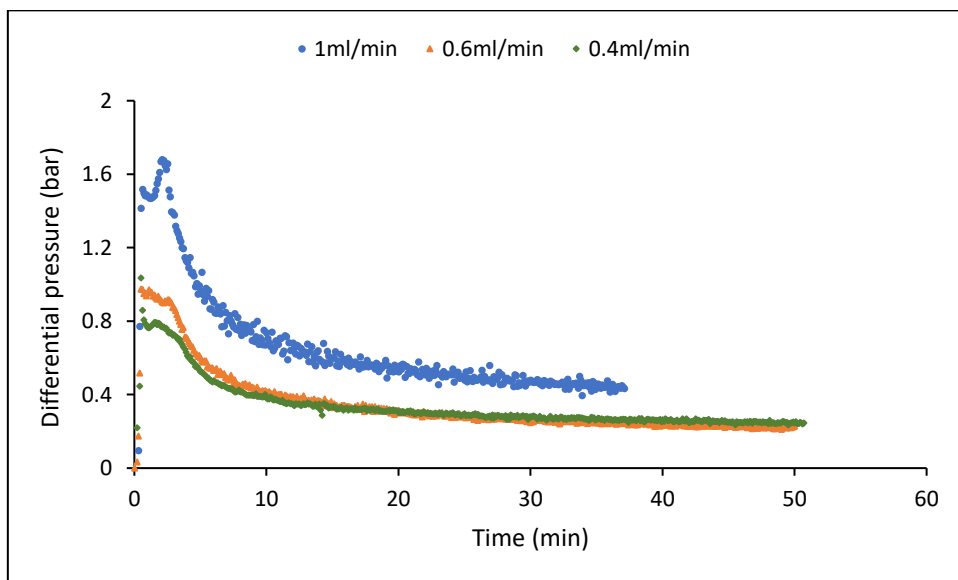
422 The data in [Figure 11](#) also show that the increase in the injection rate caused a slight change in the
423 differential pressure profile. After its first reduction, the differential pressure increased for a small
424 period, then continued its reduction until the end of the displacements; the rate of the reduction
425 decreased with time. The increase in the differential pressure profile for a small period means that the
426 injected CO₂ had to open new flow paths after the initial entry. This depends on the core sample
427 properties [and operational conditions due to their direct impact on capillary and viscous forces](#).
428 Moreover, the data from [Figure 11](#) also show that the differential pressure profile of the 0.4 and 0.6
429 ml/min experiments became nearly identical, during the last period, after around 14 min. This suggests
430 that the effect of pressure drop due to viscous forces became negligible after around 14 min [as the](#)
431 [majority of water was depleted](#).



432

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434

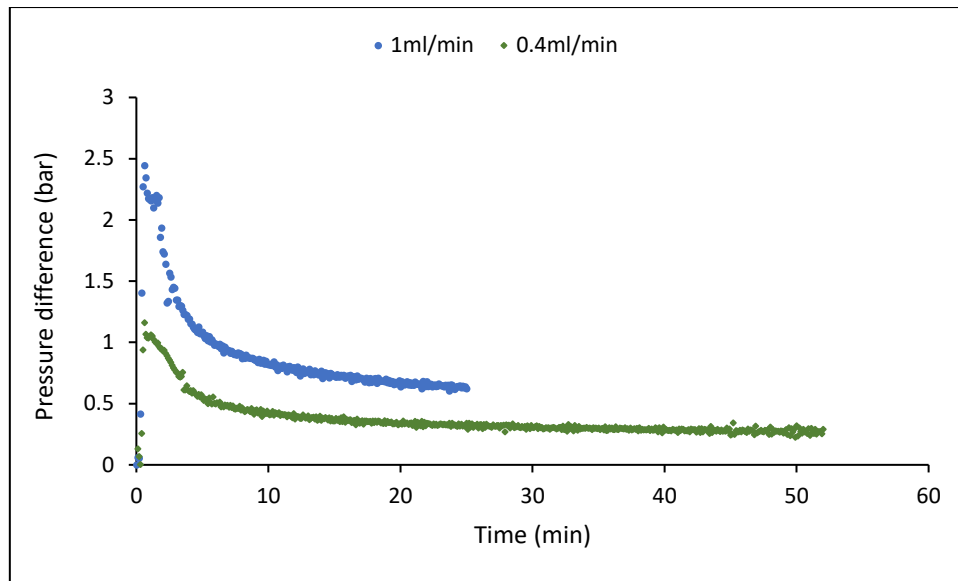
Figure 10: Effect of CO₂ injection rate on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements conducted at 90 bar and 33 °C.



435

436
437

Figure 11: Effect of CO₂ injection rate on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements conducted at 90 bar and 45 °C.



438

439 **Figure 12:** Effect of CO₂ injection rate on the differential pressure profile of ScCO₂-water displacements
 440 conducted at 74 bar and 45 °C.

441 In summary, the results show that for all fluid pressures, temperatures and CO₂ injection rates the
 442 differential pressure increased sharply; then, it dropped steeply (under low pressures and high
 443 temperature conditions) or gradually (under high pressures and low temperature conditions) until it
 444 reached an almost quasi-steady status. Increasing fluid pressure caused the differential pressure profile
 445 of the ScCO₂-water displacements to transform to the likeness of liquid CO₂ behaviour. On contrary,
 446 increasing temperature caused it to transform to the likeness of gaseous CO₂ behaviour. Increasing
 447 injection rate caused the transition from gaseous to liquid CO₂ behaviour to occur at lower fluid
 448 pressures. Increasing fluid pressure caused a slight change in the differential pressure profile; the
 449 differential pressure profile of the 90 bar-experiment increased gradually until it became slightly higher
 450 than the differential pressure profile of the 80 bar-experiment at the end of the flooding. Increasing
 451 temperature at a lower fluid pressure (75 bar) caused the appearance of the differential pressure
 452 oscillations. The increase in the injection rate caused a slight change in the differential pressure profile.
 453 After its first reduction, the differential pressure increased for a small period, then continued its
 454 reduction until the end of the displacements.

455 Increasing fluid pressure caused a substantial drop in the maximum and quasi-differential
 456 pressures; the extent of this drop decreased with the injection rate. On the other hand, increasing

457 injection rate and temperature caused a considerable increase in the maximum and quasi-differential
458 pressures; this considerable increase is dependent on the concomitant operational conditions. For
459 increasing temperature, the maximum and quasi-differential pressures increased with the injection
460 rate. For increasing injection rate, the maximum and quasi-differential pressures increased with the
461 temperature and reduced with the fluid pressure. *The results indicate that capillary forces have more
462 impact on the differential pressure profiles than viscous forces when fluid pressure and temperature
463 increased but the viscous forces have more impact when injection rate increased significantly.*

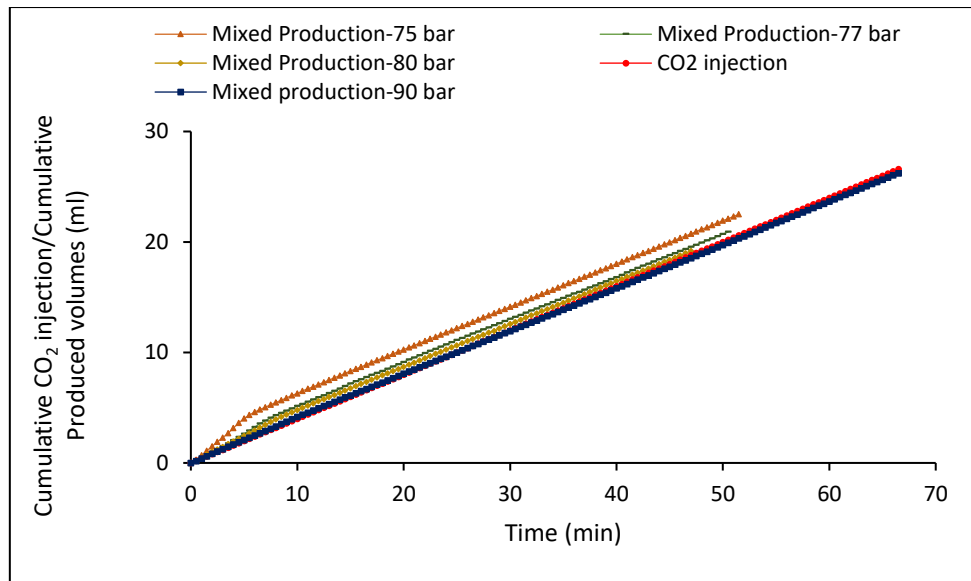
464 The magnitude of the corresponding time is dependent on many factors such as the operational
465 conditions (e.g. CO₂ injection rate, fluid pressure and temperature) and the core sample and fluids
466 properties. This is because of the direct impact of the above factors on the capillary entry pressure (due
467 to their influence on the CO₂-water interfacial tension and core sample wettability) as well as their direct
468 impact on the density of the injected fluid and the expansion effect. For illustration, *a displacement
469 characterized by lower entry pressure, dense CO₂ and high injection rate will reach its maximum-
470 differential pressure faster.* Increasing injection rate caused the corresponding time to decrease at low-
471 temperature (33 °C) and high-fluid pressure (90 bar) conditions but increase at high-temperature (45
472 °C) and high-fluid pressure (90 bar) conditions. For increasing fluid pressure and temperature, the
473 decrease or increase in the corresponding time is dependent on the injection rate. For increasing fluid
474 pressure, the corresponding time increased at an injection rate of 0.1 ml/min but decreased at an
475 injection rate of 0.4 ml/min and higher. However, for increasing temperature, the corresponding time
476 decreased at an injection rate of 0.1 ml/min but increased at an injection rate of 0.4 ml/min and higher.

477 **3.2 Water Production Behaviour**

478 This section deals with the impact of fluid pressure, temperature, and CO₂ injection rate on the
479 production behaviour of supercritical CO₂-water displacements.

480 3.2.1 *Effect of Fluid Pressure on ScCO₂-Water Production Behaviour*

481 [Figure 13](#) shows the effect of increasing fluid pressure on the cumulative produced volumes. The
482 data reveal that increase in fluid pressure led to a reduction in the cumulative produced volumes. As
483 the fluid pressure increased, the difference between the cumulative produced volumes and the
484 cumulative injected volumes decreased. The difference was 1.9, 0.75, 0.38, and -0.363 for the
485 experiments performed at 75, 77, 80, and 90 bar, respectively. The 75 bar-experiment corresponded to
486 the highest difference while the 90 bar-experiment corresponded to the lowest. For the experiments
487 performed at 75, 77, and 80 bar, the cumulative produced volumes were higher than the cumulative
488 injected volumes. As the fluid pressure increased to 90 bar, the cumulative produced volumes became
489 less than the cumulative injected volumes. The high cumulative produced volumes at low pressures
490 mean less volume of CO₂ can be stored at these conditions. However, if the goal is to enhance oil
491 production by reducing the cost of CO₂ then low pressures is a better choice. The increase [observed](#) in
492 the cumulative produced volumes can be related mainly to the water production. This is because after
493 about 5 min until the end of the displacements the cumulative produced volumes and the cumulative
494 injected volumes were identical. The similarity between the cumulative injected and produced volumes
495 means that CO₂ volumes cannot cause an increase in the cumulative volumes under our experimental
496 rig configuration. This is because the produced CO₂ shrinks again to its original injected volume after
497 leaving the core sample. Thus, the increase in the cumulative volumes at early stages might reflect the
498 displacement efficiency and the impact of CO₂ expansion.



499

500 **Figure 13:** Effect of fluid pressure on the cumulative produced volumes of water and CO₂ of ScCO₂-
 501 water displacements conducted at 0.4 ml/min, and 33 °C.

502 **3.2.2 Effect of Temperature on ScCO₂-Water Production Behaviour**

503 The effect of increasing temperature on the cumulative produced volumes is shown in **Figure 14**.

504 The data reveal that as temperature increased, the cumulative produced volumes increased

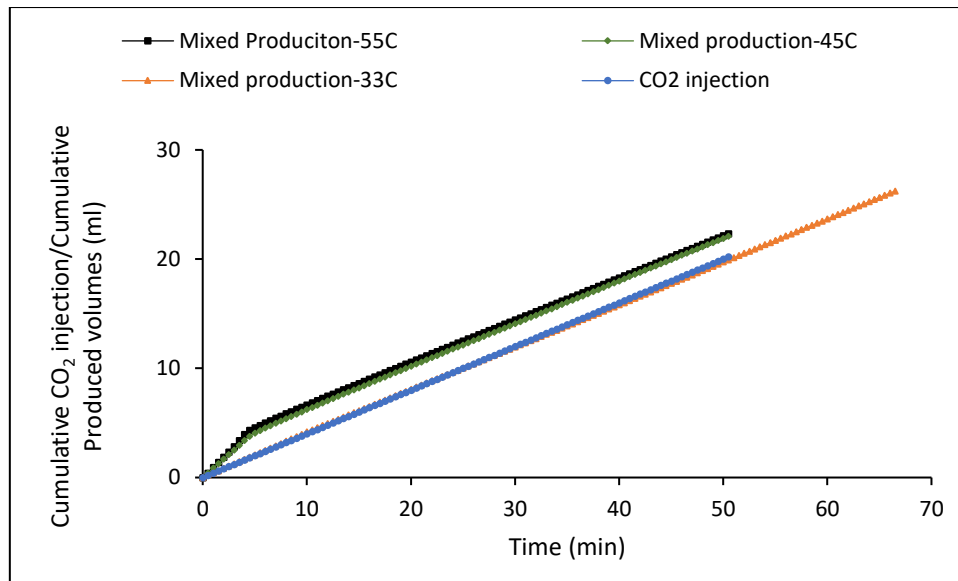
505 considerably. As the temperature increased from 33 °C to 55 °C, the cumulative produced volumes

506 increased by around 10.6% (from 20.2 to 22.338 ml). The increase in the cumulative produced volumes

507 can be attributed to the increasing gas expansion and the reducing CO₂ solubility because of increasing

508 temperature ([Bachu and Bennion, 2008](#); [Yang et al., 2007](#)). The increase in cumulative produced means

509 less CO₂ can be stored in hot temperature environment.

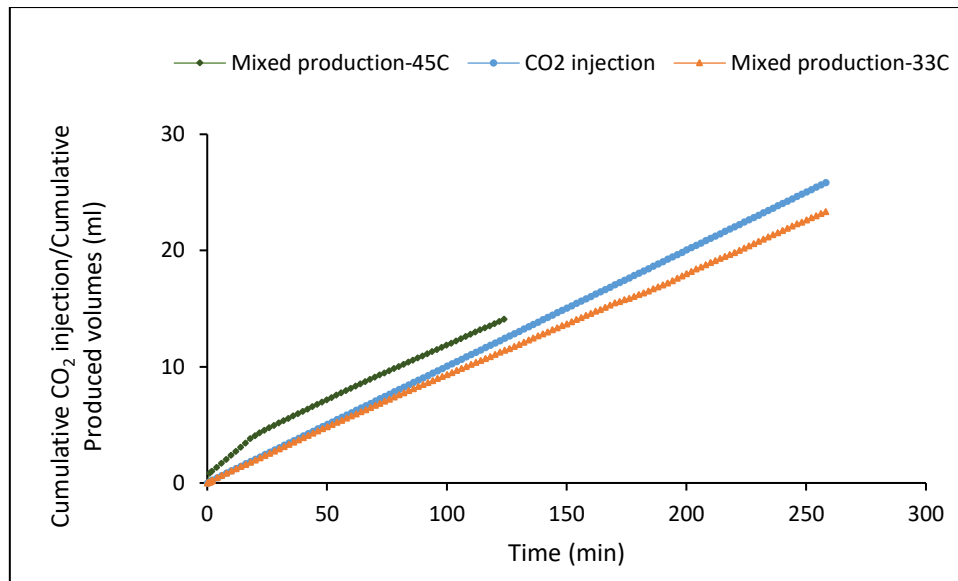


510

511 **Figure 14:** Effect of temperature on the cumulative produced volumes of water and CO₂ of ScCO₂-water
 512 displacements conducted at 90 bar and 0.4 ml/min.

513 **3.2.3 Effect of Injection Rate on Water Production Behaviour during ScCO₂ injection.**

514 **Figure 15** shows the effect of increasing injection rate on the cumulative produced volumes. The
 515 data from **Figure 14** and **Figure 15** reveal that as the injection rate increased, from 0.1 to 0.4 ml/min, the
 516 cumulative produced volumes increased. The cumulative produced volumes increased by around 9%
 517 (from 22.627 to 24.662 ml) at 33 °C and increased by around 2.7% (from 13.711 to 14.078 ml) at 45 °C.
 518 The increase in the cumulative volume with increasing injection rate can be related to the increase in
 519 water recovery due to the increase in the viscous forces at the expense of capillary forces, which try to
 520 reduce production.



521

522 **Figure 15:** Effect of temperature on the cumulative produced volumes of water and CO₂ of ScCO₂-water
 523 displacements conducted at 90 bar and 0.1 ml/min.

524 In summary, the increase in fluid pressure led to a reduction in the cumulative produced
 525 volumes while increasing temperature and injection rate caused an increase in them.

526 **3.3 Effect of Fluid Pressure, Temperature, and Injection Rate on Endpoint CO₂**
 527 **Effective (Relative) Permeability and Residual Water Saturation**

528 The determination of the effective and relative permeability of CO₂ is of practical interest for CO₂
 529 sequestration processes in subsurface formations ([Rathnaweera et al., 2015](#)) such as determining the
 530 efficiency and integrity of CO₂ storage ([Busch and Müller, 2011](#)). At the end of the flooding experiment,
 531 the volume of the produced water was measured, and the residual water saturation was calculated
 532 using the mass balance concept. Then, the core sample was weighed to confirm the calculated residual
 533 water saturation. To calculate the endpoint effective permeability and endpoint relative permeability
 534 of supercritical CO₂ using Darcy's law, the average differential pressure and the average CO₂ outflow
 535 rate of the last period were used ([Akbarabadi and Piri, 2011](#); [Chang et al., 2013](#)). The CO₂ viscosity at
 536 the fluid pressure and temperature was calculated using the Peace software website ([Peace software,](#)
 537 [2017](#)).

538 **Table 1** presents the endpoint effective (K_{fCO_2}) and relative permeabilities (K_{rCO_2}) of supercritical
 539 CO₂ as well as the residual water saturation (S_{wr}) as a function of fluid pressure, temperature, and

540 injection rate. The results show that both K_{rCO_2} ([Armstrong et al., 2017](#)) and S_{wr} are dependent on the
541 experimental conditions at which they are measured. The S_{wr} was in range of 0.34 to 0.41 while K_{rCO_2}
542 was less than 0.37. Akbarabadi and Piri, as well as, Busch and Müller observed a low relative
543 permeability for CO₂ ([Akbarabadi and Piri, 2011](#); [Busch and Müller, 2011](#)), too. Such low relative
544 permeability would tend to decrease injectivity while increasing displacements efficiency ([Levine et al.,](#)
545 [2011](#)). The results showed a remarkable impact for the parameters investigated on the K_{rCO_2} with a lesser
546 impact on the S_{wr} . The data from [Table 1](#) show also that the amount of the injected volumes showed no
547 impact on the S_{wr} trend. Based on the logarithmic values of the viscosity ratio (M) and capillary number
548 (Ca), the invasion pattern of this study is capillary fingering regime, as shown in [Figure 16](#).

549 In general, increasing fluid pressure led to an increase in the K_{rCO_2} . This is in agreement with the
550 findings of Bennion and Bachu ([Bennion and Bachu, 2006a](#)). The magnitude of the increase in the K_{rCO_2}
551 with increasing fluid pressure depends on the concomitant injection rate and temperature; the endpoint
552 decreased with increasing the injection rate and temperature. The highest increase occurred with low
553 injection rate and low-temperature. As the fluid pressure increased from 75 to 90 bar at 33 °C, the K_{rCO_2}
554 increased: (I) by about 0.114 for the 0.1 ml/min-displacements, (II) by around 0.08 for the 0.4 ml/min-
555 displacements, and (III) by approximately 0.07 for the 1 ml/min-displacements. However, as the fluid
556 pressure increased from 75 to 90 bar at 45 °C, the K_{rCO_2} increased by about 0.046 for the 0.4 ml/min-
557 displacements. The reduction in the K_{rCO_2} as the temperature increased from 33 to 45 °C might be
558 associated with the increase in the capillary forces which hinder the flowrate of the injected CO₂. It
559 should be noted that Liu et al also observed an increase in the K_{rCO_2} with increasing fluid pressure ([Liu](#)
560 [et al., 2010](#)). Bennion and Bachu observed also an increase in the K_{rCO_2} and the maximum endpoint CO₂
561 saturation (i.e. reduction in the S_{wr}) and attributed that to decreasing interfacial tension with increasing
562 pressure ([Bennion and Bachu, 2006a](#)).

563 The results from [Table 1](#) show that in comparison to its impact on K_{rCO_2} , the fluid pressure showed
564 a lesser influence on the S_{wr} . Overall, the increase in fluid pressure led to decrease the S_{wr} ([Bennion and](#)
565 [Bachu, 2006a](#)). Increasing the fluid pressure from 75 to 90 bar at 33 °C resulted in decreasing the S_{wr} : (I)

566 by 0.027 for the 0.1 ml/min displacements, (II) by 0.015 for the 0.4 ml/min displacements, and (III) by
567 0.016 for the 1 ml/min displacements. Increasing the fluid pressure from 75 to 90 bar at 45 °C and 0.4
568 ml/min produced a reduction in the S_{wr} by 0.025. The main reasons behind the reduction in the S_{wr} are
569 the increase in the Ca and the reduction in the M as illustrated in [Table 1](#). It should be noted that the
570 displacement conducted at 80 bar-0.1 ml/min-33 °C showed the lowest S_{wr} of 0.343 and the highest K_{rCO_2}
571 of around 0.223, the reason is not entirely clear. However, this might be related to the transition from
572 the likeness of gaseous to liquid CO₂ behaviour as the fluid pressure increased from 75 to 80 and then
573 to 90 bar, as shown in [Figure 1](#).

574 The results from [Table 1](#) reveal that the impact of the temperature on the K_{rCO_2} depends largely on
575 the associated fluid pressure and injection rate. The K_{rCO_2} showed a declining trend with increasing
576 temperature at high-fluid pressures (90 bar) but an increasing trend at lower-fluid pressures (75 bar).
577 With increasing fluid temperature, the percentage of the reduction in the K_{rCO_2} at high-fluid pressures
578 increased with the injection rate. For the 90 bar-core floodings, increasing temperature from 33 to 45 °C
579 at low injection rate (0.1ml/min) caused the K_{rCO_2} to decrease by around 0.081. As the temperature
580 increased from 33 to 55 °C, the K_{rCO_2} dropped by about 0.121 for the 0.4ml/min-displacements, and by
581 0.239 for the 1 ml/min-displacements. On the other hand, for the 75 bar-core floodings, as the
582 temperature increased from 33 to 55 °C, the K_{rCO_2} increased slightly by around 0.015; the reason is not
583 clear. However, it might be also associated with the slight increase in pressure drop despite the high
584 reduction in CO₂ viscosity with increasing temperature; the slight increase in pressure drop might be
585 associated with the transfer of supercritical CO₂ behaviour towards gaseous CO₂ behaviour, especially
586 [under high-temperature and low-fluid pressure conditions](#), as shown in [Figure 9](#). It should be noted
587 that there is no consensus in the literature about the effect of temperature on the relative permeability.
588 For illustration, Bennion and Bachu ([Bennion and Bachu, 2006b](#)) observed a reduction in the relative
589 permeability with increasing temperature. On the other hand, Lee et al. observed almost no change in
590 the relative permeability with increasing temperature ([Lee et al., 2009](#)).

591 Generally, the results from [Table 1](#) reveal that the increase in temperature led to an increase in the
592 S_{wr} . The magnitude of the increase depends on the associated fluid pressure and injection rate. Overall,
593 as the temperature increased, the increase in the S_{wr} increased with the injection rate and fluid pressure.
594 As the temperature increased from 33 to 45 °C, the S_{wr} increased by 0.004 for the experiments conducted
595 at 90 bar and 0.1 ml/min. When the temperature increased from 33 to 55 °C, the S_{wr} increased by 0.021
596 for the experiments conducted at 90 bar and 0.4 ml/min, by 0.041 for the experiments conducted at 90
597 bar and 1 ml/min, and by 0.018 for the experiments conducted at 75 bar and 0.4 ml/min and. Overall,
598 the reduction in the K_{rCO_2} and the increase in S_{wr} can be related to the reduction in the Ca and the increase
599 in the M .

600 In general, the results from [Table 1](#) reveal that the increase in the CO₂ injection rate caused a rise
601 in the K_{rCO_2} and a reduction in the S_{wr} . These findings agree qualitatively with those [obtained](#) by Chang
602 et al. and Akbarabadi and Piri ([Akbarabadi and Piri, 2011](#); [Chang et al., 2013](#)). As the injection rate
603 increased, the change in the K_{rCO_2} and S_{wr} increased with the fluid pressure but decreased with the
604 temperature. Overall, as the injection rate increased from 0.1 to 1 ml/min, the K_{rCO_2} increased by about
605 0.038 for the 75 bar-33 °C-core floodings, by around 0.134 for the 90 bar-33 °C-core floodings, by about
606 1.68 for the 74 bar-45 °C-core floodings, and by 0.084 for the 90 bar-45 °C-core floodings. The S_{wr}
607 decreased by 0.033, 0.034, 0.006, and 0.012 for the above experiments, respectively. [Since \$M\$ is constant](#),
608 the reduction in the S_{wr} can be related mainly to the increase [observed](#) in the Ca . On the other hand, the
609 displacements conducted at 80 bar showed an opposite behaviour. As the injection rate increased from
610 0.1 to 1ml/min, the K_{rCO_2} decreased by 0.08 and the S_{wr} increased by 0.041. The reason is not entirely
611 clear. However, this might be related to the transition of supercritical CO₂ behaviour from gaseous to
612 liquid-like CO₂ behaviour as the fluid pressure increased from 75 to 80 and then to 90 bar, see [Figure 1](#).

613

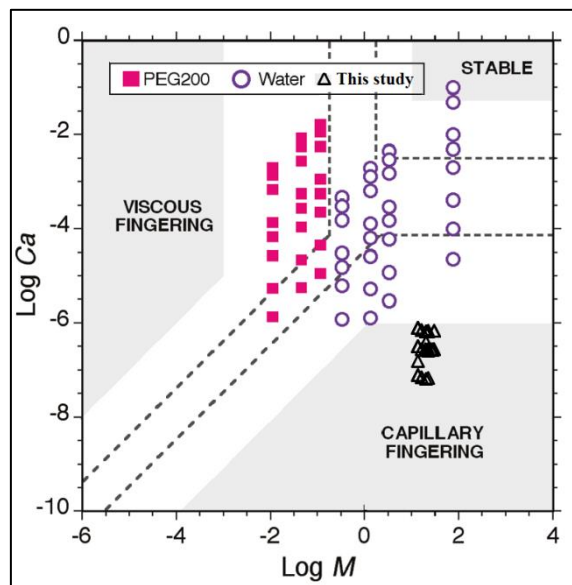
614

Table 1: Effect of fluid pressure, temperature, and injection rate on the endpoint effective permeability (K_{fCO_2}), endpoint relative permeability (K_{rCO_2}) and residual water saturation (S_{wr}).

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Experiment</i>	K_{fCO_2} (mD)	K_{rCO_2}	S_{wr}	Ca	M	<i>Injected CO₂ (ml)</i>	
Fluid Pressure Effect	75 bar-0.1 ml/min-33°C	1.095	0.06982	0.411	6.417E-08	22.47	20.19	
	80 bar-0.1ml/min-33°C	3.495	0.22287	0.343	6.613E-08	16.31	24.7	
	90 bar-0.1ml/min-33°C	2.880	0.18370	0.384	7.413E-08	13.91	25.82	
	75 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C	1.858	0.11849	0.372	2.566E-07	22.47	20.6	
	77 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C	2.207	0.14077	0.374	2.594E-07	19.53	19.84	
	80 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C	2.388	0.15228	0.372	2.645E-07	16.31	18.36	
	90 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C	3.128	0.19949	0.357	2.965E-07	13.91	37.36	
	75 bar-1ml/min-33°C	1.696	0.10818	0.366	6.417E-07	22.47	20	
	80 bar-1ml/min-33°C	2.307	0.14715	0.362	6.613E-07	16.31	20.5	
	90 bar-1ml/min-33°C	2.815	0.17951	0.35	7.413E-07	13.91	20.3	
	75 bar-0.4ml/min-45°C	1.897	0.12099	0.39	2.577E-07	29.59	19.52	
	80 bar-0.4ml/min-45°C	2.714	0.17306	0.363	2.497E-07	27.93	19.24	
	90 bar-0.4ml/min-45°C	2.619	0.16701	0.365	2.467E-07	20.62	20.04	
	Temperature Effect	90 bar-0.1ml/min-33°C	3.677	0.23451	0.384	7.413E-08	13.91	25.82
		90 bar-0.1ml/min-45°C	2.404	0.15330	0.388	6.168E-08	20.62	25.14
90 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C		4.019	25.632	0.357	2.965E-07	13.91	37.36	
90 bar-0.4ml/min-45°C		2.629	0.16769	0.365	2.467E-07	20.62	20	
90 bar-0.4ml/min-55°C		2.123	0.13538	0.378	2.445E-07	22.73	20.08	
90 bar-1ml/min-33°C		5.780	0.36862	0.35	7.413E-07	13.91	20.3	
90 bar-1ml/min-45°C		2.918	0.18607	0.374	6.168E-07	20.62	36.7	
90 bar-1ml/min-55°C		2.032	0.12.960	0.391	6.114E-07	22.73	18.8	
75 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C		1.921	0.12254	0.372	2.566E-07	22.47	20.6	
75 bar-0.4ml/min-45°C		1.995	0.12722	0.39	2.577E-07	29.59	19.4	
75 bar-0.4ml/min-55°C	2.160	0.13777	0.39	2.641E-07	25.91	19.16		
Injection Rate Effect	75 bar-0.1ml/min-33°C	1.095	0.06982	0.411	6.417E-08	22.47	20.19	
	75 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C	1.921	0.12254	0.372	2.566E-07	22.47	20.6	
	75 bar-1ml/min-33°C	1.696	0.10818	0.378	6.417E-07	22.47	20	
	90 bar-0.1ml/min-33°C	3.677	0.23451	0.384	7.41E-08	13.91	25.82	

90 bar-0.2ml/min-33°C	1.755	0.1119	0.386	1.48E-07	13.91	17.24
90 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C	4.019	0.25632	0.357	2.97E-07	13.91	37.36
90 bar-1ml/min-33°C	5.78	0.36862	0.35	7.41E-07	13.91	20.3
74 bar-0.4ml/min-45°C	2.902	0.18508	0.39	2.60E-07	29.94	25
74 bar-1ml/min-45°C	3.166	0.20192	0.384	6.50E-07	29.94	20.56
90 bar-0.1ml/min-45°C	2.404	0.1533	0.368	6.17E-08	20.62	25.14
90 bar-0.4ml/min-45°C	2.629	0.16769	0.365	2.47E-07	20.62	19.76
90 bar-0.6ml/min-45°C	4.333	0.27636	0.353	3.70E-07	20.62	29.63
90 bar-1ml/min-45°C	3.711	0.23666	0.356	6.17E-07	20.62	37.1
80 bar-0.1ml/min-33°C	3.569	0.22761	0.343	6.613E-08	16.31	24.7
80 bar-0.4ml/min-33°C	2.388	0.15228	0.372	2.645E-07	16.31	18.36
80 bar-1ml/min-33°C	2.307	0.14715	0.384	6.613E-07	16.31	20.5

617



618

619 Figure 16: Stability diagram showing three flow regimes and the locations of the PEG200, water displacement, and
620 the data of this study. The dashed lines indicate the flow regimes according to Zhang et al., and the shaded areas
621 indicate flow regimes according to Lenormand et al. (Lenormand et al., 1988; Zhang et al., 2011).

622 4 Conclusion

623 This study investigated the impact of fluid pressure, temperature, and CO₂ injection rate on the
624 dynamic pressure evolution, displacement efficiency, and endpoint CO₂ effective (relative)
625 permeability during the injection of supercritical CO₂ into a water-saturated sandstone core sample.
626 The experiments highlight the importance of the balance between capillary and viscous forces on the

627 pressure and production data. The results reveal that the extent of the impact of each parameter (e.g.
628 fluid pressure) on the pressure and production profiles is a function of the associated parameters (e.g.
629 temperature and injection rate). The results indicate that capillary forces dominate the multiphase flow
630 characteristics as fluid pressure and temperature are increased.

631

632 Importantly, the results demonstrate that increasing fluid pressure caused a considerable reduction in
633 the differential pressure and a transformation of the profile of the ScCO₂-water displacements to be
634 similar to that of liquid CO₂-water displacements; while, increasing temperature resulted in a
635 significant increase in the differential pressure profile and a transition towards that of gaseous CO₂-
636 water displacements. Increasing the injection rate caused the transformation to occur at lower
637 pressures, and led to a substantial increase in the differential pressure; the extent of this increase
638 increased with increasing temperature and reduced with increasing fluid pressure. The changes
639 observed in the differential pressure with varying fluid pressure and temperature reflect a change in
640 the influence of the capillary forces. The change in the capillary forces will have a direct impact on the
641 displacement efficiency and the entry pressure. For illustration, the reduction in the capillary forces
642 with increasing fluid pressure will reduce the entry pressure; thereby, it will have a reduction impact
643 on the storage capacity and sealing efficiency of the target formation by enhancing the upward
644 migration of CO₂. The reduction observed in the differential pressure as CO₂ transformed to a liquid-
645 like behaviour means less energy is required for the displacement of fluids in host formations, which
646 can reduce the cost of production significantly.

647

648 Also, of particular importance is that increasing temperature at a lower fluid pressure (75 bar) caused
649 the appearance of the differential pressure oscillations. The appearance of the oscillations can increase
650 CO₂ residual saturation due to the re-imbibition process accompanied with these oscillations, thereby
651 increasing the storage capacity and integrity of CO₂. The differential pressure required to open the

652 blocked flow channels during these oscillations can be useful in calculating the largest effective pore
653 diameters and hence the sealing efficiency of the rock.

654

655 The time required to reach the maximum differential pressure, i.e. the corresponding time, is dependent
656 on fluid pressure, temperature, and injection rate. The change in the corresponding time might give an
657 indication whether the change in the operational conditions can hasten or delay the time of CO₂
658 breakthrough out of the system.

659

660 The increase in fluid pressure led to a reduction in the cumulative produced volumes. On the other
661 hand, increasing temperature and injection rate caused an increase in the cumulative produced
662 volumes.

663

664 The results show that both endpoint relative CO₂ permeability (K_{rCO_2}) and residual water saturation
665 (S_{wr}) are dependent on the experimental conditions at which they are measured. The S_{wr} was in range
666 of 0.34 -0.41 while K_{rCO_2} was less than 0.37. Increasing pressure and injection rate caused an increase in
667 K_{rCO_2} and a reduction in S_{wr} . K_{rCO_2} showed a declining trend with increasing temperature at high fluid
668 pressures (90 bar) but an increasing trend at lower fluid pressures (75 bar). S_{wr} increased as temperature
669 increased.

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