

Evidence of Facilitated Transport in Crowded Nanopores

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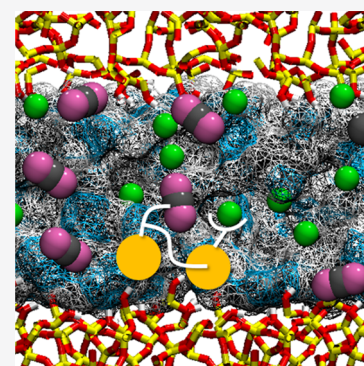


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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Fluid transport in nature often occurs through crowded nanopores, where a number of phenomena can affect it, because of fluid–fluid and fluid–solid interactions, as well as the presence of organic compounds filling the pores and their structural fluctuations. Employing molecular dynamics, we probe here the transport of fluid mixtures (CO_2 – CH_4 and H_2S – CH_4) through silica nanopores filled with benzene. Both CO_2 and H_2S are strongly adsorbed within the organic-filled pore, partially displacing benzene. Unexpectedly, $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ adsorption facilitates CH_4 transport. Analysis of the trajectories suggests that both CO_2 and H_2S act as vehicle-like carriers and might swell benzene, generating preferential transport pathways within the crowded pore. The results are useful for identifying unexpected transport mechanisms and for developing engineering approaches that could lead to storage of CO_2 in caprocks.



Carbon dioxide (CO_2) injection in geologic reservoirs could provide one solution for carbon capture and storage (CCS).^{1–3} Fine-grained sedimentary rocks (shales and mudstone) can provide caprocks in CCS sites.^{4,5} These rocks also play important roles in shale gas production.⁶ As-produced shale gas from Haynesville and Barnett shales in the United States and Horn River in western Canada contains various amounts of CO_2 ,^{7–11} and up to several hundred parts per million of hydrogen sulfide (H_2S), even in sites in which H_2S was absent in initial assessments.¹² The produced gas is “sweetened”^{8,10} to avoid harmful effects on health, safety, and the environment.¹³ In some cases, it might be attractive to reinject both H_2S and CO_2 into the formation.¹⁴

A comprehensive understanding of the fundamental mechanisms responsible for carbon bearing-fluid migration in the presence of $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ is crucial for risk assessment and site selection for geologic CCS, monitoring H_2S emissions, and perhaps identifying innovative enhanced oil recovery (EOR) processes that use CO_2 and H_2S .^{15,16} Because a thorough quantification of the phenomena that govern fluid transport in the complex heterogeneous pore networks found in organic-rich shale caprocks, which consist of crowded nanopores that provide poor connections between dispersed pockets of organic matter, remains elusive, because of practical difficulties in observing fluid transport in such complicated systems, computational approaches could be helpful.^{17–20}

This study probes transport of systems containing CO_2 , H_2S , and methane (CH_4), through a realistic ~ 2 nm amorphous silica nanopore saturated with benzene molecules, a model to mimic organic-rich shale caprocks. The number of benzene molecules introduced in the system (400) was sufficient to fill the pore volume and form thin layers on the solid substrate outside the pore (see Figure S1 of the Supporting Information, panel A).

The transport results are complemented by careful analysis of mutual solubility, free-energy profiles, and structure of the confined systems. Atomistic molecular dynamics (MD) simulations are conducted at geological temperature (300 K) and pressure (~ 13.9 MPa) conditions.^{21,22} Various system compositions in the bulk reservoirs are considered, as shown in Figure S1, panel B. Once equilibrium was achieved, system properties such as density profiles for CO_2 , H_2S , CH_4 , and benzene molecules were determined within the pore as well as in the bulk reservoirs (see Table 1). Details regarding simulation models, algorithms, methods, and computational procedures are reported in the Supporting Information.

We calculated the solubility of CO_2 , H_2S , and CH_4 in confined benzene as a function of system composition. The results (Figure 1A, left panel) suggest that CO_2 and H_2S solubility increase linearly when the respective bulk mole fractions increase to 0.21 and 0.12. H_2S (yellow) is more soluble in confined benzene than CO_2 (blue), achieving a solubility coefficient of 7.26 (0.33 MPa^{-1}) compared to 2.38 (0.13 MPa^{-1}) for CO_2 . For comparison, H_2S is more soluble in bulk benzene than CO_2 , with experimental solubility coefficients being 0.56 MPa^{-1} for H_2S and 0.15 MPa^{-1} for CO_2 at ~ 300 K.^{23,24} Because bulk simulations overestimate the experimental solubility, the results in Figure 1A suggest that confinement strongly reduces the solubility of H_2S and CO_2 in benzene, which is contrary to many results for other confined systems, in which confinement increases solubility.^{25,26} It is possible that

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Table 1. Mole Fraction of CH₄, CO₂, and H₂S in the Bulk Reservoirs as Well as Number of CH₄, CO₂, H₂S, and Benzene Molecules Confined in the Pore for All Systems Simulated after Equilibration Was Achieved

system	bulk reservoirs		pore		
	x_{CO_2}	x_{CH_4}	n_{CO_2}	n_{CH_4}	$n_{\text{C}_6\text{H}_6}$
0	0.0	1.0	0	97	236
1C	0.03	0.97	13	98	231
2C	0.05	0.95	28	96	227
3C	0.10	0.90	51	88	220
4C	0.21	0.79	102	77	204
5C	0.27	0.73	122	78	192
6C	0.30	0.70	151	72	184
7C	0.34	0.66	167	71	176
8C	0.40	0.60	183	64	175
	$x_{\text{H}_2\text{S}}$	x_{CH_4}	$n_{\text{H}_2\text{S}}$	n_{CH_4}	$n_{\text{C}_6\text{H}_6}$
1H	0.02	0.98	21	100	227
2H	0.03	0.97	43	95	221
3H	0.06	0.94	80	89	208
4H	0.12	0.88	152	83	180
5H	0.15	0.85	170	84	172
6H	0.19	0.81	196	80	160
7H	0.21	0.79	220	79	152

confined benzene cannot solvate CO₂ and H₂S molecules as effectively as it does in the bulk, a mechanism similar to the one invoked to explain the lower H₂S solubility in confined water.²⁷

Our results show that loading H₂S into the benzene-filled SiO₂ pore enhances the solubility of CH₄ in the same pore, while adding CO₂ reduces CH₄ solubility (Figure 1A, right panel). This observation could have ramifications for improving shale gas extraction. Our simulations also suggest that CH₄ is less strongly adsorbed in the SiO₂ pore filled with benzene compared to H₂S and CO₂ (see Figure S2).

The amount of benzene confined in the nanopore decreases as the bulk mole fraction of CO₂ (blue) and H₂S (yellow) increases (Figure 1B). In particular, our analysis suggests that 10 H₂S molecules displace 4 C₆H₆ molecules from the pore, while 10 CO₂ molecules displace 3 C₆H₆ molecules (see Figure S3). These results suggest that varying the minority fluids mixed with CH₄ strongly affects the structure of organics trapped in caprock nanopores and might also be responsible for the pronounced differences observed for CH₄ solubility in confined benzene (Figure 1A, right panel).

To assess whether the results shown in Figure 1A,B are representative of equilibrated systems, we carried out adsorption–desorption cycles. By employing the “evaporate” and “deposit” procedures available in the software package,²⁸ we extracted CO₂/H₂S molecules and simultaneously inserted CH₄ molecules into the simulated systems. The results in Figure 1A,B show negligible adsorption–desorption hysteresis, suggesting that all simulated processes are reversible and that the results represent equilibrated systems. The results show (Figure 1B) that reducing the bulk CO₂/H₂S mole fraction prompts benzene re-adsorption into the SiO₂ nanopore.

To document the molecular structure of benzene inside the crowded pore, we calculated in-plane surface density distributions of benzene carbon atoms within layers parallel to the pore surfaces. The results for CO₂–CH₄ (left) and H₂S–CH₄ (right) mixtures are shown in Figure 1C. Details regarding the layer positions are presented in Figure S4. The first and fourth layers

are near the bottom and top silica surfaces, respectively, while the second and third layers are approximately in the middle of the pore. The high-density areas (red-yellow spots) of the contour plots indicate positions where the benzene molecules preferentially reside. The results strongly suggest that the distributions of benzene molecules in the first and fourth layers are not altered by the presence of CO₂ and H₂S, indicating that the adsorbed CO₂/H₂S molecules are not able to displace the benzene molecules adsorbed on the pore surfaces. Rather, they displace the benzene molecules accumulated in the middle of the pore, with the result that the distribution of corresponding benzene molecules changes significantly as the CO₂/H₂S bulk mole fraction increases. The density profiles suggest that H₂S displaces more benzene than CO₂ does, which is consistent with the results of Figure 1B. We conducted additional simulations for some systems in which the SiO₂ pore was initially exposed to CO₂/H₂S and subsequently to benzene. The results for the distributions of benzene molecules near the silica surfaces were similar to those shown in Figure 1C, which suggests preferential adsorption of benzene on silica for the systems considered here.

To understand the results shown in Figure 1, we calculated the adsorption energy of benzene, CH₄, CO₂, and H₂S in the nanopore filled with benzene and CH₄ (system 0 in Table 1 and Figure S1) using the two-box approach proposed by Heinz.²⁹ This method involves the simulation of the adsorbate within the pore and in bulk (Figure 2A). The results in Figure 2B show that H₂S is more strongly adsorbed than the other species, achieving an adsorption energy of −2.13 eV. To compare the values in Figure 2, we refer to ab initio studies of H₂S–benzene, CO₂–benzene, CH₄–benzene, and benzene–benzene dimers.^{30–33} The corresponding interaction energies are approximately −2.83, −2.55, −1.47, and −1.81 to −2.78 kcal/mol, respectively.^{30–33} The results in Figure 2 explain why benzene is displaced more effectively by H₂S than by CO₂. The interaction energies for benzene–benzene dimers with the T-shaped and parallel-displaced configurations are −2.74 and −2.78 kcal/mol,³² both stronger than that reported for CO₂–benzene dimers (−2.55 kcal/mol);³⁰ the highly positive adsorption energy calculated here (0.44 eV, see Figure 2B) suggests that benzene is unlikely to be adsorbed in the nanopore considered, probably because the pore is already filled.

A pressure gradient is imposed through the benzene-filled nanopore via implementing boundary driven nonequilibrium simulations (see Figure S5). As a function of the pressure gradient, a molecular flux is established. Once the steady-state flow is achieved, we extracted molar fluxes, permeability, and transport diffusivity (D_t). The latter is quantified in the limit of the external force approaching zero, when the structure of the benzene-filled pore should remain unchanged in response to the applied pressure. This is confirmed via in-plane density distributions at equilibrium and during flow (Figure S6).

In Figure 3A, the permeabilities are shown for CO₂ and H₂S (left panel, blue and yellow, respectively) as well as CH₄ mixed with CO₂/H₂S (right panel, blue/yellow) as a function of system composition. We considered only those systems with CO₂ (/H₂S) mole fraction <0.21 (/0.12) as these exhibit linear changes in the adsorption isotherms (see Figure 1A) and because the CH₄ mole fraction in shale gas is typically >0.8.^{34,35} The results in Figure 3A show that H₂S permeates the pore much faster than CO₂ and CH₄. Increasing both CO₂ and H₂S bulk mole fraction enhances the permeability of all species, probably because CO₂ and H₂S displace benzene from the pore, opening preferential pathways across the crowded nanopore.

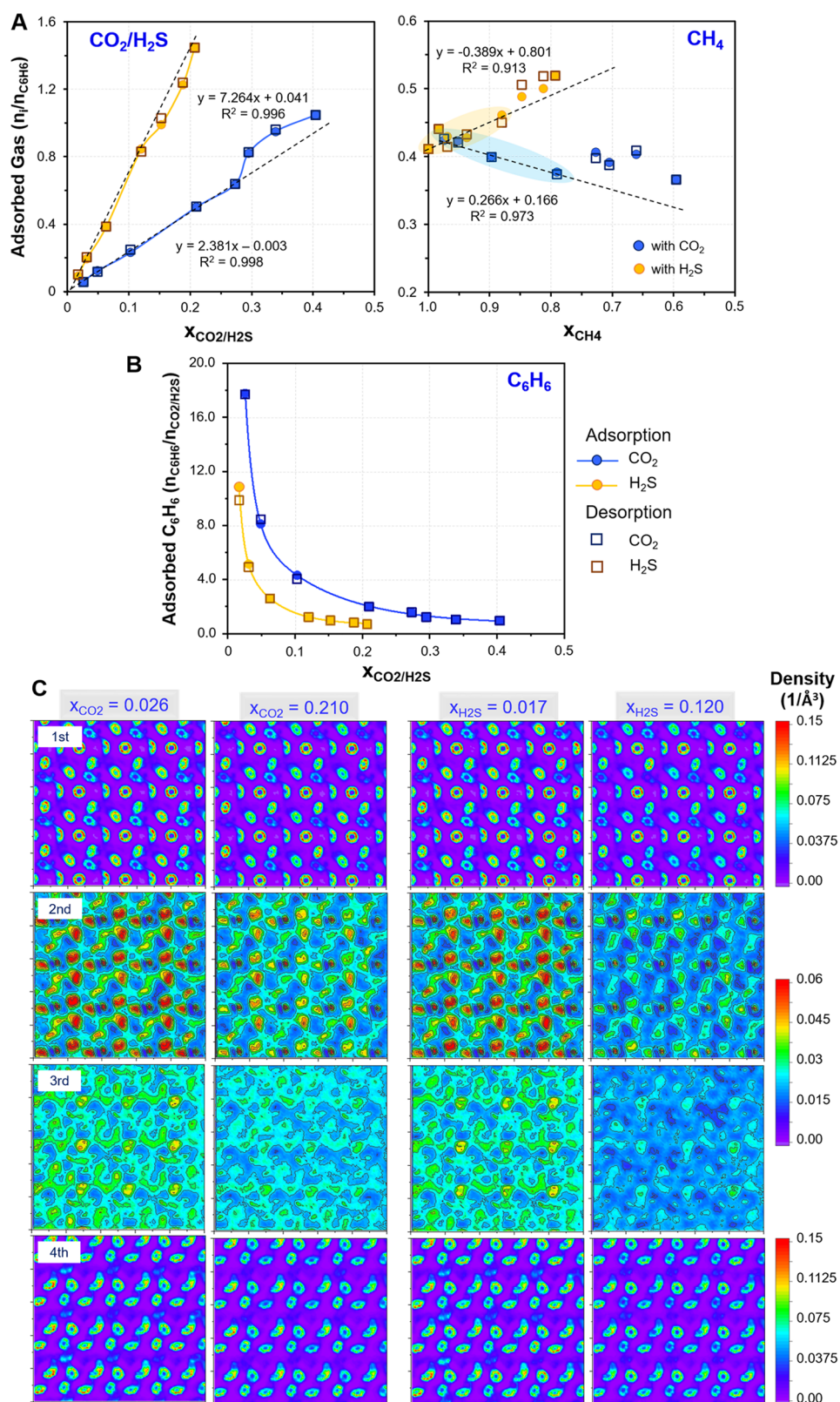


Figure 1. (A) Solubility of CO₂/H₂S (blue/yellow, left panel) and CH₄ (blue/yellow, right panel) inside the benzene-filled pore at 300 K as a function of CO₂/H₂S and CH₄ mole fractions, respectively, in the bulk reservoirs. (B) Amount of confined benzene per adsorbed CO₂/H₂S molecule as a function of CO₂ (blue) and H₂S (yellow) bulk mole fractions. Closed and open symbols represent data obtained during adsorption and desorption of CO₂/H₂S, respectively. (C) In-plane surface density distributions of benzene molecules within first, second, third, and fourth layers formed within the amorphous silica pore. Results are obtained for CO₂–CH₄ (left) and H₂S–CH₄ (right) mixtures at various CO₂/H₂S bulk mole fractions, as indicated above the panels. Details on computational procedures are available in the [Supporting Information](#).

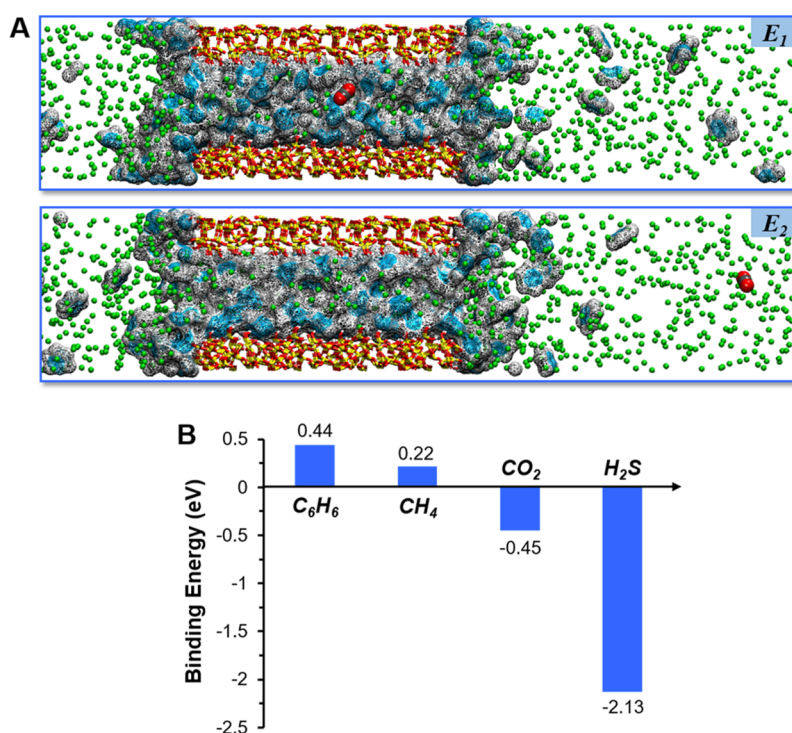


Figure 2. (A) Representative simulation snapshots for the calculation of average energies (one benzene, CH₄, CO₂, and H₂S molecule) within the SiO₂ pore filled with benzene and CH₄ (top) and in the bulk reservoirs containing only CH₄ (bottom) at 300 K. (B) Adsorption energies of benzene, CH₄, CO₂, and H₂S in the pore filled with benzene and CH₄.

The permeability of CO₂, H₂S, and CH₄ depends linearly on CO₂/H₂S bulk concentrations. Notably, the results show a decline in the rates of permeability increase for CH₄ mixed with CO₂ at CO₂ bulk mole fractions >0.05. The permeability of CH₄ mixed with H₂S is greater than that of CH₄ mixed with CO₂ at $x_{\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}} > 0.05$, indicating that utilizing H₂S could be advantageous for improving shale gas extraction.

The transport diffusivity for the various gases can be extracted by dividing the permeability by the solubility within the nanopore.³⁶ We report solubility data for each species in Table S1. In interpreting those results, it should be noted that, as the bulk mole fraction of CH₄ decreases, the amount of benzene in the pore also decreases (see Figure 1B). We also computed the self-diffusivity for the various species inside the crowded pore using the Green–Kubo formulation.³⁷

In Figure 3B, we present transport- (closed circles) and self- (open squares) diffusivity for CO₂ and H₂S (left panel, blue and yellow, respectively) and for CH₄ (right panel) for the various systems simulated. Similar to the permeability results, we observe a linear relation between transport (/self) diffusivities of CO₂/H₂S and the corresponding bulk mole fractions. However, the transport (/self) diffusivity of CH₄ first decreases upon loading CO₂/H₂S, and then increases. The results show that CH₄ diffuses faster than CO₂ and H₂S, achieving transport (/self) diffusivity of $\sim 2.4 \div 6.8 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, as opposed to $\sim 2.25 \div 3.5 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ for CO₂ and H₂S when the CO₂ (/H₂S) mole fraction is <0.21 (/0.12). This is probably a consequence of the weaker attraction between CH₄ and the benzene-filled pore (see Figure 2). In contrast, although H₂S is more strongly adsorbed inside the pore than CO₂, it moves faster than CO₂, possibly because H₂S displaces more benzene from the pore than CO₂ does (see Figure 1B). At infinitely diluted conditions ($x_{\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}} \rightarrow 0$), the transport diffusivity of CO₂ and

that of H₂S are similar ($\sim 2.3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$). Recently, An et al.³⁸ conducted nuclear magnetic resonance experiments to measure methane diffusion in seven organic-rich shale samples from a Middle Eastern source rock. At $\sim 13.9 \text{ MPa}$ and ambient temperature, the methane diffusion coefficient was found to be $\sim 2 \div 6 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, comparable to the results obtained here.

For isothermal mass transfer of pure species through a porous medium, transport diffusivity is generally greater than self-diffusivity, because interparticle correlations affect collective diffusivity, positively contributing to transport.³⁹ Our results differ from this general trend, because the transport diffusivity of all gases considered is slower than the corresponding self-diffusivity. This unexpected result is probably due to molecular clustering. Molecular clustering within pores is often ascribed to hydrogen bonding.⁴⁰ A recent experimental study provided evidence that the H₂S dimer has an anisotropic structure exhibiting one S–H...S hydrogen bond (HB).⁴¹ In addition, the interactions between benzene and H₂S are due to SH- π interactions, a type of HB abundant in biological systems.⁴² Preferential interactions between benzene and CO₂ (ref 30) could lead to clustering. Indeed, the surface density distributions for H₂S and CO₂ within various layers inside the crowded nanopore (Figure S8) provide conclusive proof of the existence of molecular clusters in our systems. These clusters appear to be more pronounced in the presence of H₂S rather than CO₂.

Although the value for the transport diffusivity of CO₂ (/H₂S) should approach the corresponding self-diffusivity, D_s , at low mole fraction, we observe a small deviation between D_t and D_s at $x_{\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}} \rightarrow 0$. This discrepancy is ascribed to uncertainties in the calculation of self-diffusivity using the Green–Kubo method, which is based on the integration of velocity–velocity autocorrelation functions over infinite times.⁴³

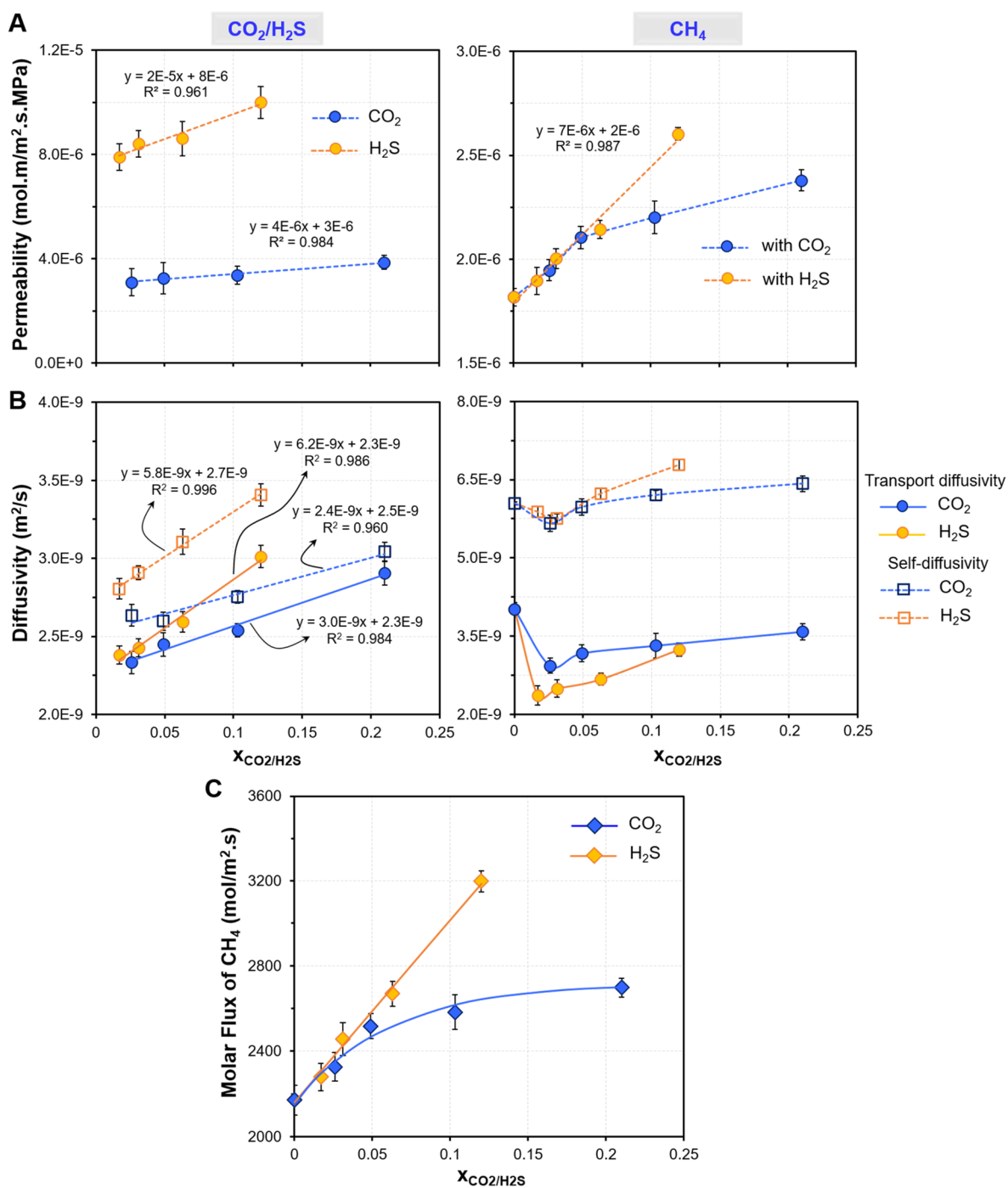


Figure 3. (A) Permeability and (B) transport diffusivity as determined by boundary driven nonequilibrium MD simulations across the benzene-filled pore for CO₂ and H₂S (blue and yellow closed symbols in the left panels, respectively) and CH₄ (right panels) for the various systems considered. Self-diffusivity data (open symbols), as determined by the Green–Kubo formulation, are also reported for CO₂/H₂S and CH₄ in panel B. (C) Molar flux of methane in CO₂–CH₄ (blue) and H₂S–CH₄ (yellow) mixtures across the benzene-filled SiO₂ nanopore as a function of CO₂/H₂S bulk mole fraction.

Although the transport diffusivity of CH₄ in the presence of either CO₂ or H₂S is slower than that for pure CH₄ (Figure 3B, right panel), we observe an increase of CH₄ molar flux when loading CO₂ or H₂S (Figure 3C). This confirms that CO₂ and H₂S play the role of carriers, facilitating CH₄ transport through the crowded nanopore.^{44,45} The facilitated transport factors are estimated to be ~ 1.46 and 1.77 , respectively.

For solute transport through pores filled with solvents (i.e., our crowded SiO₂ pore), the local distribution of solvent molecules yields preferential transport pathways for the

solute.^{46,47} To better understand the transport behavior of CO₂, H₂S, and CH₄, we quantified free-energy (FE) landscapes by implementing well-tempered metadynamics.^{48,49} The results for CO₂ and H₂S (panels A and B of Figure 4, respectively), show that the path connecting neighboring FE wells for CO₂ is longer and more tortuous than the one encountered by H₂S. However, to traverse the pore, H₂S molecules can jump only from one FE well to another, across barriers of ~ 9 kcal/mol, whereas CO₂ encounters barriers of only ~ 6.4 kcal/mol.⁴⁷ This suggests that the CO₂ molecule can travel more easily,

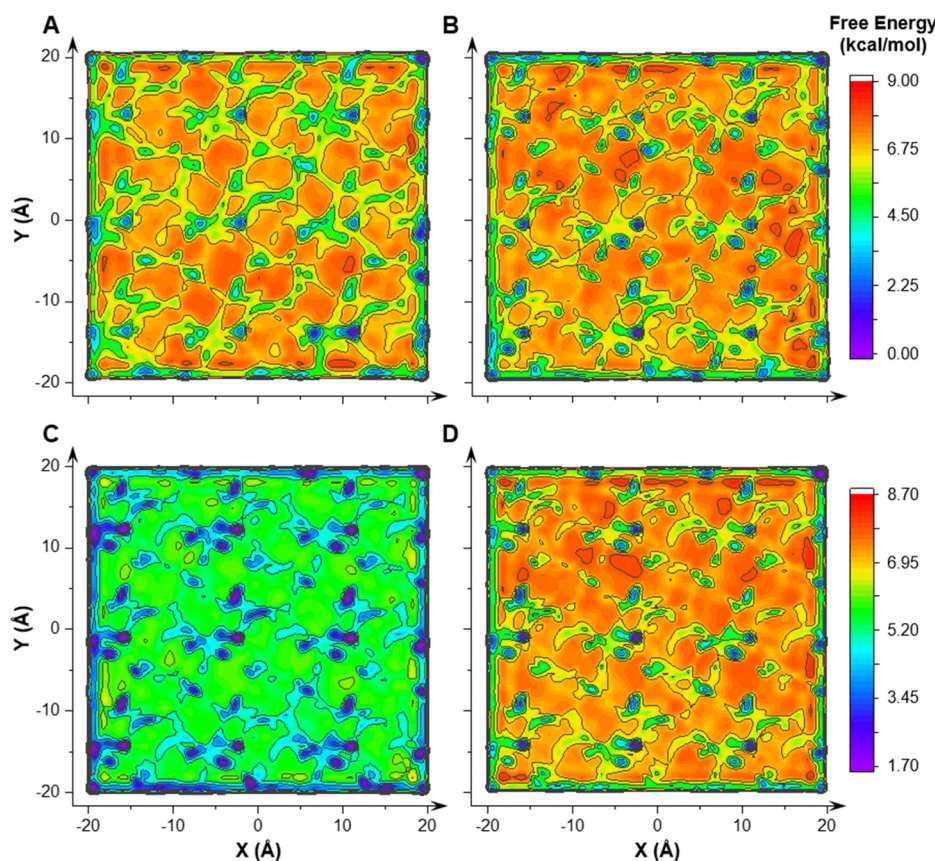


Figure 4. Free-energy landscapes projected onto planes parallel to the pore surface for one CO₂ (panel A) and one H₂S (panel B) molecule traveling inside the crowded nanopore (system 0, with composition shown in Table 1 and Figure S1), and that for one CH₄ molecule moving inside the pore of system 1C (panel C) and 1H (panel D). The results are obtained from well-tempered metadynamics simulations. The collective variables chosen are the components of the distance along the three Cartesian coordinates (x, y, z) between one molecule species i and the center of the benzene-filled pore.

notwithstanding the more tortuous path, compared to H₂S. In our systems, it appears that the longer path length that characterizes CO₂ transport is balanced by the lower FE barriers, as the pore diffusivity of CO₂ is similar to that for H₂S ($\sim 2.3 \times 10^{-9}$ m²/s) at $x_{\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}} \rightarrow 0$.

In Figure 4C,D we found similar patterns connecting FE wells as experienced by CH₄ in systems 1C and 1H (in the presence of CO₂ and H₂S, respectively); however, in the presence of CO₂, deep FE wells appear, within which CH₄ molecules accumulate. Lower FE barriers are found in system 1C (~ 4.4 kcal/mol) compared to those observed for system 1H (~ 6.3 kcal/mol), likely due to the benzene–CO₂ interactions, which are weaker than those between benzene and H₂S. This difference in barriers seems to be correlated and potentially explains why the diffusivity of CH₄ in the pore of system 1C (50CO₂–1080 CH₄) is greater than that in system 1H (50H₂S–1090CH₄) (Figure 3B, right panel).

In conclusion, our simulations demonstrate that adding fluids such as CO₂ or H₂S impacts significantly fluid transport mechanisms in organic-rich sedimentary rocks. Particularly, CO₂/H₂S adsorption displaces and perhaps swells the organics, leading to noticeable differences for CH₄ solubility in confinement. More importantly, CO₂ and H₂S facilitate CH₄ transport through organic-rich caprock pores, acting as mobile carriers. Our results emphasize the importance of fluid–fluid and fluid–pore interactions, compounded by changes in the structure of confined fluids, in determining transport mechanisms of importance for geo-energy applications such as carbon

sequestration in caprocks and enhanced hydrocarbon production and provide a general understanding of fluid transport in crowded pores frequently encountered in nature.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcllett.9b03751>.

Details about simulation models, algorithms, implementation methods, calculation procedures and results for properties of interest such as density profiles, in-plane surface density distributions, adsorption isotherms, amount of benzene displaced, cross-sectional area, and solubility of all species (CO₂, H₂S, CH₄, and benzene) (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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