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## Residual trapping of CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and a CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> mixture in Indiana limestone using robust NMR coreflooding: Implications for CO<sub>2</sub> geological storage

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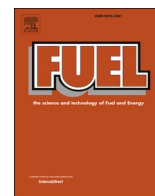
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## Full Length Article

Residual trapping of CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and a CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> mixture in Indiana limestone using robust NMR coreflooding: Implications for CO<sub>2</sub> geological storageAmer Alanazi<sup>a,\*</sup>, Auby Baban<sup>b,\*</sup>, Muhammad Ali<sup>a</sup>, Alireza Keshavarz<sup>b</sup>, Stefan Iglauer<sup>b</sup>, Hussein Hoteit<sup>a</sup><sup>a</sup> Physical Science & Engineering Division, King Abdullah University of Science and Technology, Thuwal 23955, Saudi Arabia<sup>b</sup> School of Engineering, Edith Cowan University, 270 Joondalup Drive, Joondalup WA 6027, Australia

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## ABSTRACT

Carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) in geological formations is a prominent solution for reducing anthropogenic carbon emissions and mitigating climate change. The capillary trapping of CO<sub>2</sub> is a primary trapping mechanism governed by the pressure difference between the wetting and nonwetting phases in a porous rock, making the latter a key input parameter for dynamic simulation models. During the CCS operational process, however, the CO<sub>2</sub> is prone to contamination by impurities from various sources such as surfaces (e.g., pipelines and tanks) and the subsurface (e.g., existing natural gas). Such contamination can strongly influence the overall CO<sub>2</sub> wettability, storage capacity, and containment security. Hence, the present study uses the nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) core flooding technique to investigate and compare the residual saturations of pure CO<sub>2</sub>, pure N<sub>2</sub>, and a 50:50 CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> mixture in an Indiana limestone. The longitudinal and transverse relaxation times (T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub>) are measured to examine the displacement process of the pore network, and the trapping mechanism is evaluated at the pore scale as a determinant of the field-scale flow behavior. The NMR T<sub>1</sub>-T<sub>2</sub> and 2D maps are used to observe the fluid configurations in the pore network, and the T<sub>1</sub>/T<sub>2</sub> ratios are used to evaluate the microscopic wettability of the limestone grains by the pore-space fluids following each drainage/imbibition process step. The results indicate substantial residual gas trapping in the rock for the CO<sub>2</sub>-brine, N<sub>2</sub>-brine, and CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>-brine systems, corresponding to gas saturations of 25%, 27%, and 26%, respectively. In the CO<sub>2</sub>-brine system, the intermolecular interplay between the CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched brine and limestone grains results in a higher T<sub>1</sub>/T<sub>2</sub> ratio and significantly reduces the hydrophilicity of the limestone. Furthermore, the NMR T<sub>2</sub> distribution reveals the occurrence of preferential water displacement into the large pores (r > 1 μm) and from the intermediate pores (0.03 μm < r < 1 μm), whereas water remains immobile in the smaller pores (r < 0.03 μm). The insignificant difference in residual trapping saturation between pure CO<sub>2</sub> and the CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> mixture indicates the potential to allow for impurities in the CO<sub>2</sub> phase in CCS without reducing the residual trapping capacity. Thus, the present work provides comprehensive information on the impact of gas injection on residual gas trapping in subsurface geological formations at the pore scale, thereby aiding in the development of CCS and other potential applications in enhanced oil recovery (EOR).

## 1. Introduction

The rapid increases in energy demand and anthropogenic carbon emissions impose global, governmental, environmental, and technological challenges [1–4]. As a result, decarbonization plans and strategies must be expedited to curb the observed carbon emissions [5]. Carbon geological sequestration (CGS) technology is highly regarded as part of the strict environmental regulations adopted by countries and

governments to reduce carbon emissions and limit global warming [6,7]. In this approach, carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) is captured from high-emission sectors and injected into geological formations such as deep saline aquifers and depleted hydrocarbon reservoirs [8–11]. The primary trapping mechanisms for the sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> in geological formations are stratigraphic (structural), capillary, solubility, and mineral trapping [12,13]. In structural trapping, the captured CO<sub>2</sub> is injected in its supercritical phase (scCO<sub>2</sub>) so that it percolates upward

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due to the buoyancy difference with respect to the formation fluids and is trapped under a caprock [14,15]. Meanwhile, in capillary trapping (also known as residual trapping), the CO<sub>2</sub> is trapped in the pore space as isolated bubbles at the trailing edge of the plume independently of the caprock, as it is naturally displaced by groundwater as the plume migrates upwards due to buoyancy forces [16]. In the larger pores, where CO<sub>2</sub> is the non-wetting phase, water preferentially fills the narrower areas of the pore space and traps the gas by snap-off [17]. In either case, the CO<sub>2</sub> wettability of the reservoir rock or the caprock significantly impacts the petro-physical properties (capillary pressure, relative permeability, saturation, and pore-size distribution) of the system [18], and is crucial for predicting the CO<sub>2</sub> geo-storage capacity and containment security. The CO<sub>2</sub> wettability controls the distributions and flow characteristics of fluids (brine and CO<sub>2</sub>) in the pore network of the formation rock, which strongly affects the residual trapping mechanism [19]. For instance, oil and gas reservoirs often range from oil-wet to weakly water-wet [20,21] due to the attraction between the rock surface and the polar water molecules, which is detrimental to their CO<sub>2</sub> trapping and storage capacities [22–26].

However, despite the continuing advancements in CO<sub>2</sub> geo-storage, there remain significant uncertainties regarding the fundamental aspects of multiphase flow mechanics and the prediction of subsurface trapping and CO<sub>2</sub> migration. For instance, while numerous studies have used experimental techniques such as core flooding [27,28], microfluidics [29–32], micro-CT scan and X-ray [33–35], and contact angle measurements [5,36,37] to investigate the injection of pure scCO<sub>2</sub>, the fundamental impact of impurities on CO<sub>2</sub> residual trapping and containment security remain largely uncertain [38–41]. Such impurities alter the thermo-physical properties of the pure scCO<sub>2</sub> and directly influence the hydrodynamic, solubility, and capillary CO<sub>2</sub> trapping mechanisms [38,39,42–45]. Meanwhile, field CGS projects are expensive and entail conveyance, underground injection, and CO<sub>2</sub> capture from industrial operations. The capture and separation of CO<sub>2</sub> from common contaminants such as nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>), oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>), argon (Ar), and sulfate groups (SO<sub>x</sub>) remain costly, even though CGS projects are frequently combined with enhanced oil recovery (EOR) to offset the cost [2,46,47]. Consequently, it is more economical to tolerate some impurities in the CO<sub>2</sub> during the injection process, even though such impurities may reduce the CO<sub>2</sub> geo-storage capacity and containment efficiency [48]. Moreover, the co-storage of CO<sub>2</sub> with pollutants removed from other sources is presently being investigated for potential environmental and economic applications [49–54].

In the present work, nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) combined with core flooding is used to study three gases (namely, CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and a 50:50 CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> mixture) within brine-saturated core plugs to examine the effect of impurity on the residual trapping of CO<sub>2</sub> [55]. The longitudinal and transverse relaxation times (T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub>) are measured, and the in-situ NMR T<sub>1</sub>-T<sub>2</sub> 2D images are obtained for an initial brine-saturated plug and after multiple drainage/imbibition cyclic processes to determine the initial and residual CO<sub>2</sub> saturations (S<sub>CO<sub>2</sub>,i</sub> and S<sub>CO<sub>2</sub>,r</sub>, respectively). The present work aims to provide an improved understanding of the scCO<sub>2</sub> flow processes through water-saturated porous rock in CO<sub>2</sub>-brine-rock systems. The results provide insights into the relative performances of CGS with pure CO<sub>2</sub>, pure N<sub>2</sub>, and an impure CO<sub>2</sub> proxy (50:50 CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub>). Furthermore, the work represents the first comprehensive dataset showing that the use of CO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of a contaminant may be a cost-effective technology.

## 2. Experimental procedures and materials

### 2.1. Rock sample, fluids, and testing conditions

Indiana limestone has been used in laboratory experiments as a representative reference for carbonate reservoirs. It is quarried from the Salem Formation in Indiana, USA, which was formed during the Mississippian age [56]. It mainly comprises calcite-cemented grainstone

of fossil fragments and oolites [57,58]. In the present work, cylindrical core Indiana limestone samples with lengths of 5 cm and diameters of 3.7 cm were used in all experiments. The morphology of the Indiana limestone was examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM; Quattro SEM instrument), and its chemical composition was determined via X-ray diffraction (XRD; Bruker-AXS D8 Advance Diffractometer). Thus, the Indiana limestone is a heterogeneous rock type with a broad pore size distribution including intergranular and intragranular micropores (Fig. 1) and consists of 88 wt% calcite, 11 wt% magnesium, and 1 wt% quartz (Fig. 2). Moreover, the sample has a porosity of  $17.4 \pm 0.5\%$  and a permeability of 50 mD (as measured using a CoreLab UltraPoroPerm-910 instrument).

Ultra-pure (99.999%) CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> (BOC Industrial Gases, WA) were used as the nonaqueous fluid phases in the core-flooding experiments. Pure N<sub>2</sub> was used as a benchmark nonwetting phase for comparison with the results obtained using CO<sub>2</sub>, and was selected because of its well-constrained thermophysical properties, its closer viscosity to that of CO<sub>2</sub> than that of liquid hydrocarbons, and the lack of any need for a cleaning step between each repeat measurement [59,60]. Brine (2 wt% NaCl + 1 wt% KCl in deionized water) was used as the aqueous phase, while N<sub>2</sub>, scCO<sub>2</sub>, and a 50:50 mixture of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> were used as the nonaqueous fluid phases. To simulate reservoir conditions, high pressure and high temperature (HPHT) values of 8 MPa and 333 K were applied so that the CO<sub>2</sub> was in its supercritical state with a higher density, viscosity, and enhanced wettability [61–63]. Notably, the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> in its supercritical state is commonly used to increase the mass of stored CO<sub>2</sub> [64–66].

### 2.2. Core-flooding experimental setup and procedure

The limestone core sample was first vacuum-dried at 333 K for 24 h, then wrapped in a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) heat-shrink rubber sleeve with the ends left open for the injection and desaturation of fluids. The sleeve was sealed in such a way as to overlap with the top and bottom platens of the core holder to adequately separate the core fluids from the confining fluid, and to prevent any leakage of the confining fluid (Fluorinert™ FC-40) into the sample. The latter was used to apply a confining pressure, and each fluid was controlled by an individual ISCO pump. Fluorinert™ FC-40 was selected as a non-hydrogenated fluid that does not interfere with the NMR signal and has superior heat transmission characteristics. The sealed plugs were mounted in the NMR apparatus, as depicted in Fig. 3. Before starting the core flooding experiment, the fluid lines and core were flushed with CO<sub>2</sub> to remove air from the system while applying a confining pressure of 1 MPa. The core was then pressurized to 8 MPa with a confining pressure of 13 MPa, and the system was isothermally heated to 333 K. The core flooding experiment was started by injecting 10 pore volumes (PV) of 'dead' (i.e., gas-free) brine at a low flow rate of 0.5 mL/min to allow the flow process to be dominated by the capillary force (capillary number (N<sub>c</sub>) =  $4.75 \times 10^{-6}$ ) [67]. After acquisition of the background NMR T<sub>2</sub> scans, the core was flooded at 0.5 mL/min with 10 PV of 'live' brine (i.e., brine that was thermodynamically equilibrated (saturated) with CO<sub>2</sub> at 8 MPa and 333 K [58]) until all of the dead brine was displaced. The displacement of the dead brine was confirmed by performing multiple T<sub>2</sub> scans that showed a constant T<sub>2</sub> value [18]. This step was necessary to ensure that no mass transfer effects interfered with the experiment [68]. Experiments were then performed with either scCO<sub>2</sub> and water, N<sub>2</sub> and water, or a CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> mixture as the fluid phase. The core-flooding commenced with the injection of the selected fluid (10 PV) at a constant flow rate of 0.5 mL min<sup>-1</sup> (N<sub>c</sub> =  $9.5 \times 10^{-7}$ , drainage) [18,55] into the fully live-brine saturated core at 8 MPa and 333 K to displace the local brine until steady-state conditions were reached (i.e., no more brine displacement and no variation in T<sub>2</sub> were observed). Throughout the experiments, the outlet pressure was maintained at 8 MPa by using an ISCO pump as a back-pressure source. Once the pressure drop had stabilized, the T<sub>1</sub>-T<sub>2</sub> spectra and multiple NMR T<sub>2</sub> scans for the core at this initial gas

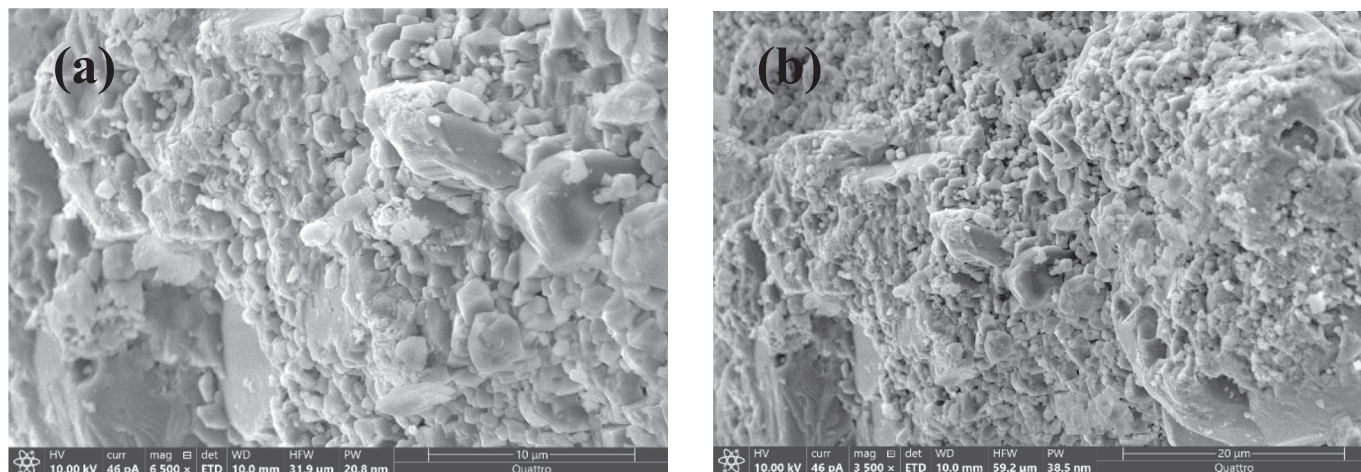


Fig. 1. SEM images of a thin section taken from the Indiana limestone core sample: (a) scale bar = 10  $\mu\text{m}$ ; (b) scale bar = 20  $\mu\text{m}$ .

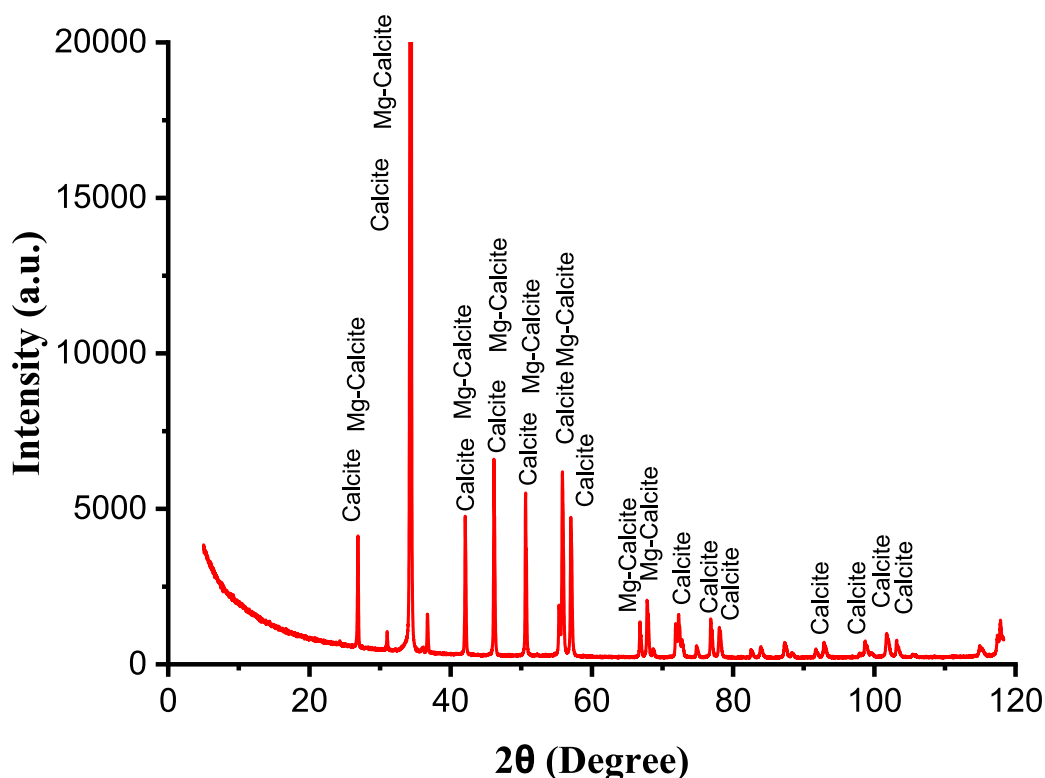


Fig. 2. The XRD pattern of the Indiana limestone core sample, indicating high contents of calcite and magnesium.

saturation ( $S_{gi}$ ) were acquired. Subsequently, 10 PV of live brine was re-injected at  $0.5 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$  (i.e.,  $N_c = 4.75 \times 10^{-6}$ ) to mimic the replacement of the buoyant injected  $\text{sCO}_2$  by brine (imbibition either by natural water influx or water injected by pumps). This represents the capillary trapping process in which residual  $\text{CO}_2$  saturation ( $S_{gr}$ ) is achieved.

### 2.3. NMR $T_1$ - $T_2$ 2D map and $T_2$ relaxation time measurements

In accordance with the literature, the fluid saturations, pore size distributions, and pore-fluid distributions were determined by measuring the longitudinal and transverse relaxation times ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , respectively) [59,69,70] and obtaining the corresponding  $T_1/T_2$  ratios from the 2D  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps [18,72,73]; the latter were used to evaluate the

surface affinity between the wetting phase and the rock (i.e., the microscopic wettability) [71,87]. The  $T_2$  relaxation time distribution is primarily governed by surface relaxation processes, which depend on the interactions between the fluids in the pore space [74,75]. Hence, the surface relaxation rate ( $1/T_{2,\text{surf}}$ ) of the pore fluid in the fast diffusion limit is given by Eq. (1) [76]:

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = \rho_2 \left( \frac{S}{V} \right)_{\text{pore}} \quad (1)$$

where  $\rho_2$  is the effective surface relaxivity (SR),  $S$  is the interstitial surface area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ ), and  $V$  is the pore volume (PV;  $\mu\text{m}^3$ ). The SR ( $\rho_2$ ) relates the pore voids to  $T_2$  and depends on the rock mineralogy; for Indiana limestone,  $\rho_2 \approx 7 \mu\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  [77]. The ratio  $S/V$  can be rewritten as a function of the dimensionless shape factor ( $C_s$ ) and pore radius ( $r$ ) in

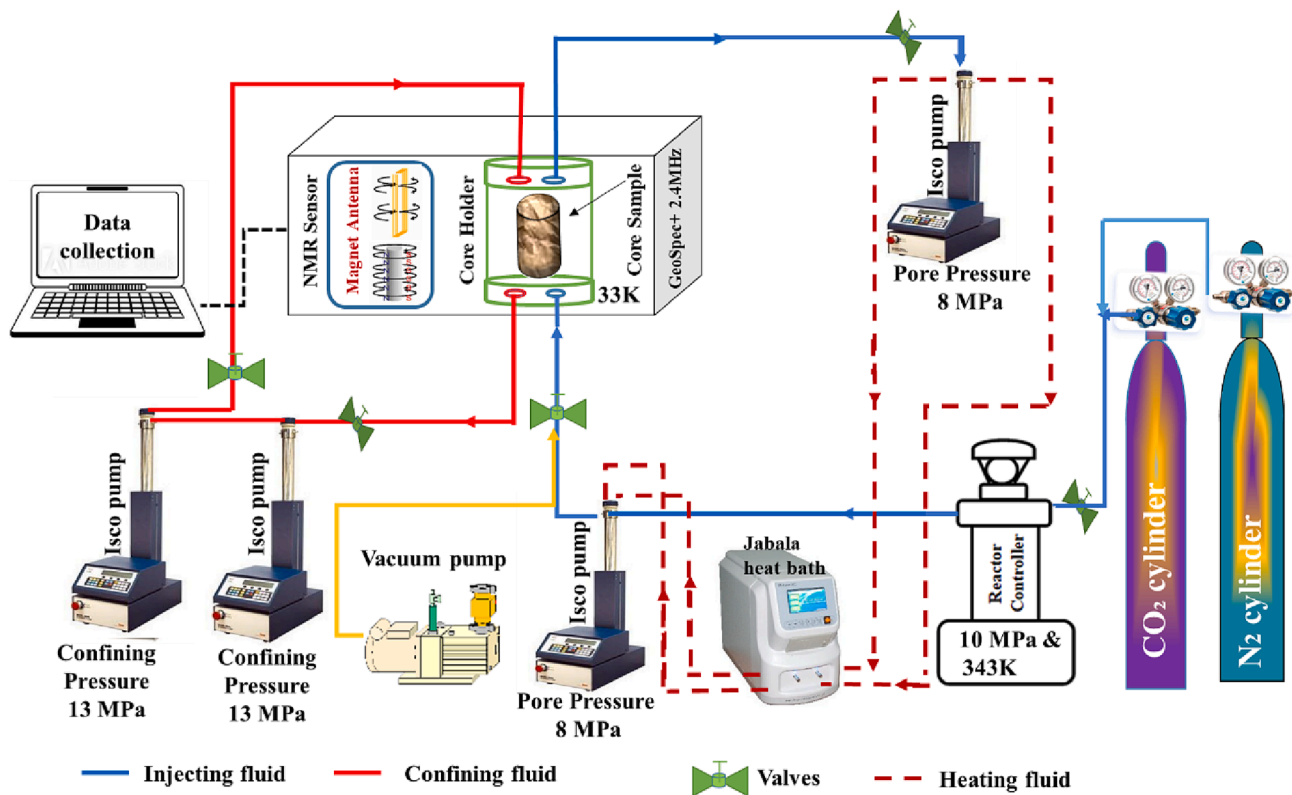


Fig. 3. A schematic diagram of the of NMR core flooding apparatus.

$\mu\text{m}$ . Assuming that the pores are spherical ( $C_s = 3$ ) and that  $T_{2,\text{surf}} \ll T_{2,\text{bulk}}$  [78], the pore size distribution can be approximated using Eq. (2):

$$r = C_s \rho_2 T_2 \quad (2)$$

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. $T_1$ - $T_2$ Mapping and fluid configuration

To quantify the  $\text{CO}_2$  residual trapping capacities, the NMR 2D  $T_1$ - $T_2$  spectra and transverse relaxation times ( $T_2$ ) of the hydrogen nuclei in the water-wet limestone core were measured under reservoir conditions (333 K and 8 MPa), and the results are presented in Tables 1 and 2, and Figs. 4 and 5. Thus, when fully saturated with water, the core exhibits an initial  $T_1/T_2$  value of 1, thereby indicating that the rock is hydrophilic (strongly water-wet). It should be noted that single-phase low viscosity fluids (e.g., water) and light hydrocarbons have similar  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  relaxation times (i.e.,  $T_1/T_2 = 1$ ) because of their rapid correlation times ( $\tau_c$ ) at the Larmor frequency (Fig. 4a) [18,55,59,72,73,79]. Moreover, the  $T_1/T_2$  ratio of the core sample remains unchanged after  $\text{N}_2$  injection (Fig. 4b), but is considerably increased to  $T_1/T_2 = 3$  after the

Table 1

The NMR  $T_1/T_2$  ratios of a water-wet Indiana limestone sample after the processes of dead brine saturation,  $\text{N}_2$  injection,  $\text{CO}_2$  injection, 50:50  $\text{CO}_2$ - $\text{N}_2$  injection, and live brine injection (imbibition).

Process	Live brine	$\text{N}_2$ injection	$\text{CO}_2$ injection	$\text{CO}_2$ - $\text{N}_2$ mixture (50-50%) injection	Live brine re-injection
$T_1/T_2$ for water-wet Indiana Limestone sample	1	1	3	2	1.8

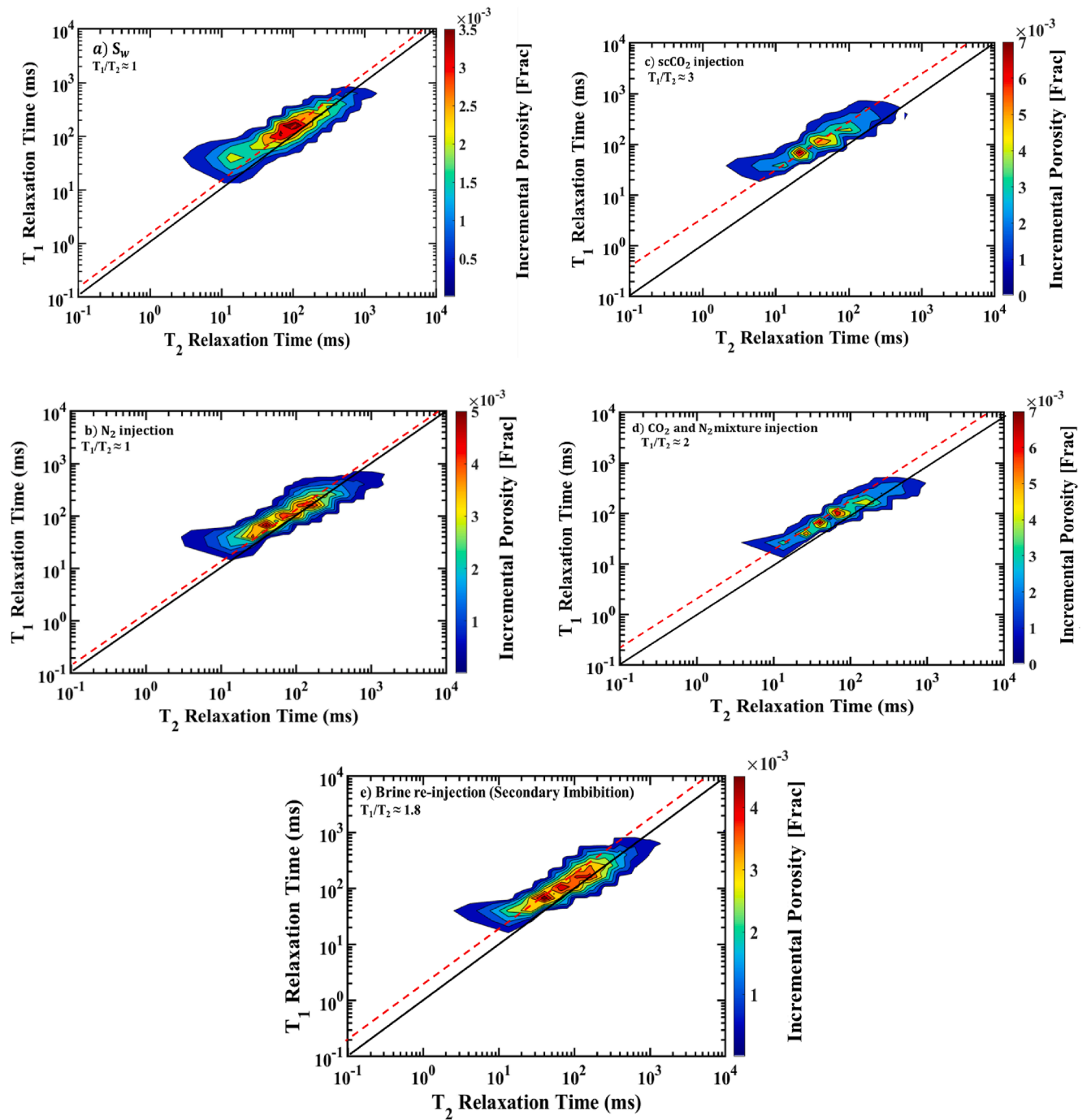
Table 2

The measured saturations of  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{N}_2$ , and 50:50  $\text{CO}_2$ - $\text{N}_2$  at 8 MPa and 333 K during secondary drainage ( $S_{\text{nonwetting},i}$ ) and imbibition ( $S_{\text{nonwetting},r}$ ) as a function of injected pore volume (PV) for a water-wet Indiana limestone core plug.

Injected PV	$\text{CO}_2$	$S_{\text{CO}_2,i}$	$\text{N}_2$	$S_{\text{N}_2,i}$	50:50 $\text{CO}_2$ - $\text{N}_2$	
	$T_2$ (ms)		$T_2$ (ms)		$T_2$ (ms)	$(S_{\text{CO}_2-\text{N}_2,i})$
0.5	0.16	0.087	0.16	0.087	0.15	0.143
1	0.15	0.146	0.147	0.156	0.14	0.201
2	0.14	0.189	0.133	0.237	0.125	0.282
3	0.13	0.252	0.12	0.315	0.116	0.335
4	0.11	0.370	0.1	0.415	0.109	0.377
5	0.09	0.507	0.083	0.526	0.087	0.499
10	0.085	0.52	0.073	0.584	0.081	0.536

introduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  (Fig. 4c). This suggests a significant decrease in the hydrophilicity and, hence, the physicochemical surface affinity of the rock grains to water [26,80,81]. This, in turn, is due to the much higher density of  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $191.95 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$ ) compared to that of  $\text{N}_2$  ( $79.81 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$ ) under the selected reservoir conditions [82], and is consistent with earlier contact angle studies showing that the de-wetting of the rock surface is caused by an increase in the pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  [83,84]. The results are also consistent with a previous study in which the contact angle of a water-wet carbonate rock surface was shown to increase significantly with the increase in  $\text{CO}_2$  density [85].

Mechanistically, the water-wetness of the rock is significantly lowered via the interaction between the limestone rock grains and the excess protons ( $\text{H}^+$ ) generated by the chemical reaction of the dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  in the formation brine to form carbonic acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$ ), which partially dissociates into  $\text{H}^+$  and negatively-charged ions such as  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  [59,86]. When the  $\text{scCO}_2$  advances in the pore space, it displaces the water from the large pores and confines it to forming thick wetted layers in the restricted narrow throats [66,88,89]. Thus, the dense macroscopic water layers that form and coat the grain surfaces due to the rock's strong affinity for the water phase occupy the smallest



**Fig. 4.** The NMR  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps of the water-wet Indiana limestone core at 8 MPa and 333 K: (a) in the initial fully brine-saturated state ( $S_w$ ), (b) after  $N_2$  injection, (c) after  $CO_2$  injection, (d) after injection of the 50:50  $CO_2$ - $N_2$  mixture, and (e) after the re-injection of brine for secondary imbibition. In each case, the black diagonal line represents  $T_1 = T_2$ .

pores of the Indiana limestone, while the nonwetting phase ( $CO_2$ ) occupies the large pores [88,89]. However, the  $T_1/T_2$  ratio does not return to its initial value of 1 after secondary imbibition (Tables 1 and 2, Fig. 4e), remaining at  $\sim 1.8$  even after the injection of the 50:50  $CO_2$ - $N_2$  mixture (Table 1), and the rock exhibits a decreased hydrophilicity (Fig. 4d).

### 3.2. The $T_2$ relaxation time and pore-scale fluid distributions

#### 3.2.1. Gas coreflooding – Initial gas saturation ( $S_{gi}$ )

The NMR  $T_2$  time distributions during injection of the various gases ( $N_2$ ,  $CO_2$ , and 50:50  $CO_2$ - $N_2$ ) are compared in Fig. 5. Here, the solid lines

represent the incremental porosity, while the dashed lines represent the cumulative porosity. Each plot exhibits a trimodal distribution after the introduction of the nonwetting phase. The first measurement represents the Indiana Limestone rock sample in its initial fully water-saturated state ( $S_w$ ; black lines, Fig. 5a–c), and subsequent  $T_2$  measurements were obtained for each pore volume (0.5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 10) of injected gas. These measurements are summarized in Table 2. Thus, the incremental  $T_2$  (which is proportional to the cumulative  $T_2$ ) decreases as the injected gas progresses further into the pore system until no more water displacement is observed ( $S_w = 0.085$  ms) at 10 PV (green curves, Fig. 5a–c). Due to the different gas densities, the measured cumulative  $T_2$  relaxation times for  $CO_2$  are slightly lower than those for  $N_2$ .

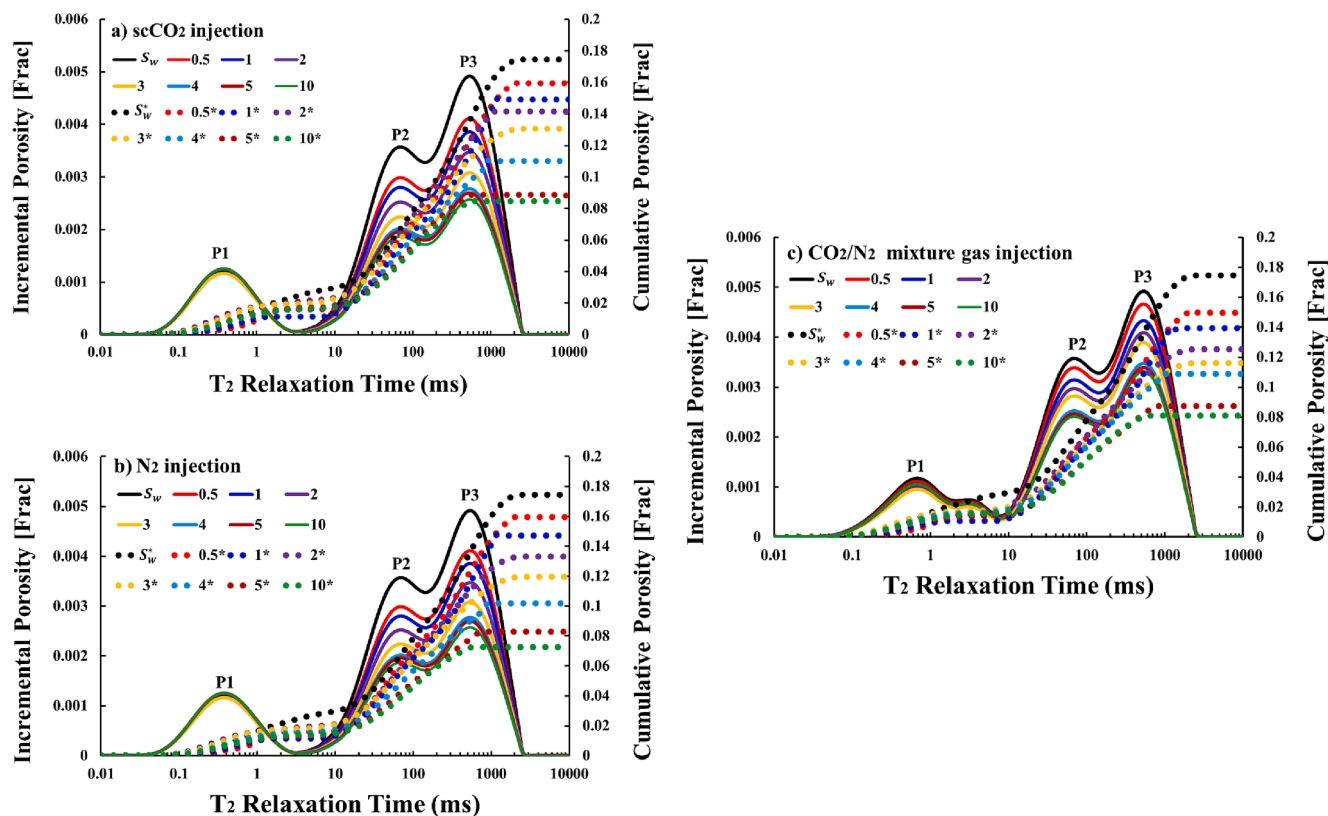


Fig. 5. The  $T_2$  relaxation time profiles of the water-wet Indiana limestone core at 8 MPa and 333 K after coreflooding with various non-wetting gases: (a)  $scCO_2$ , (b)  $N_2$ , and (c) 50:50  $CO_2$ - $N_2$ . The asterisk (\*) in the key represents the cumulative porosity, which is indicated by the dashed lines, while the solid lines represent the incremental porosity.

Moreover, as the contact angle is linearly related to the gas density [85], the higher density of  $CO_2$  relative to that of  $N_2$  means that the  $CO_2$ /brine/rock system has a larger contact angle (and, hence, a significantly lower hydrophilicity) than does the  $N_2$ /brine/rock system. Furthermore, although exposure to  $CO_2$  renders the core sample less water-wet, the same initial gas saturation ( $S_{gi}$ ) is measured for  $CO_2$ ,  $N_2$ , and the  $CO_2$ - $N_2$  mixture. This is primarily because the dissolution of the limestone surface during live brine flooding decreases the water-wetness of the  $CO_2$ /brine/rock system due to changes in the microstructures (morphological connectivities) of the intermediate-sized pores (P2;  $0.03 \mu m < r < 1 \mu m$ ) and of the large pores (P3;  $1 \mu m < r$ ) [90–92]. Specifically, the thinner pore walls are dissolved by the acidic brine, which then flows down the newly-formed larger channels. Thus, the surface potential and polarity of the rock surface are reduced, resulting in a more electrically neutral surface with a correspondingly lower affinity for the polar  $H_2O$  molecule (i.e., a lower hydrophilicity) [26,59,80,93]. This, in turn, effectively reduces the bulk  $T_2$  relaxation time of the brine. This is manifested by the reduction in  $T_2$  (water saturation) for peaks P2 and P3 in Fig. 5a–c as the  $CO_2$  displaces water predominately from the macro-pores and also from the mesopores [18,59,95,96]. By contrast, no variation is observed in the  $T_2$  signals for the small pores (P1;  $r < 0.03 \mu m$ ), thereby indicating that water remains in the smallest pores, which is characteristic of a hydrophilic system. This is predominantly due to the constrained geo-mechanical characteristics of the fluid in the small, tightly-packed pore network, which lead to minimal (or negligible) changes in the tensile and shear strength of the fine pore system and, hence, to a very low probability of bond-breaking or detachment of microparticles from the pore surface [94]. Finally, after the injection of 10 PV of  $CO_2$ ,  $N_2$ , or 50:50  $CO_2$ - $N_2$ , the water content in the core has decreased to irreducible water saturation ( $S_{wirr}$ ) values of 48%, 42%, and 46%, respectively (Fig. 5; Table 3), which is consistent with the literature [90,95,97]. Consequently, significant initial gas saturations ( $S_{CO_2,i} = 52\%$ ,  $S_{N_2,i} =$

Table 3

The gas saturations of the water-wet Indiana limestone core plug during secondary drainage and secondary imbibition as a function of injected pore volume at 8 MPa and 333 K.

Gas	Initial gas saturation after secondary drainage ( $S_{g,i}$ ) (%)	Water saturation after secondary drainage ( $S_w$ ) (%)	Residual gas saturation after secondary imbibition ( $S_{g,r}$ ) (%)	Water saturation after secondary imbibition ( $S_w$ ) (%)
$CO_2$	52	48	25	75
$N_2$	58	42	27	73
50:50 $CO_2$ - $N_2$	54	46	26	74

58%, and  $S_{CO_2\&N_2,i} = 54\%$ ) were achieved, in good agreement with previous  $\mu$ -CT studies on water-wet limestone [92,98] and similar studies on other water-wet systems [99–101].

### 3.2.2. Pore-size distribution and capillary trapping

The results in Fig. 6 and Table 4 indicate that after live brine injection (re-imbibition), water has invaded the pore space and displaced the nonwetting phase ( $CO_2$ ,  $N_2$ , or 50:50  $CO_2$ - $N_2$ ) to reoccupy the intermediate-sized pores ( $0.03 < r < 1 \mu m$ ) and the large pores ( $r > 1 \mu m$ ). With the re-injection of 10 PV of live brine, the water saturation is seen to increase gradually from 52%, 58%, and 54% for the  $CO_2$ /brine,  $N_2$ /brine, and 50:50  $CO_2$ - $N_2$ /brine system, respectively, before re-imbibition, to 76%, 74%, and 75%, respectively, afterwards (Fig. 6a–c). However, as expected, brine re-injection does not remove all of the gas, but leaves a residual gas saturation ( $S_{g,r}$ ) of 25%  $CO_2$ , 27%  $N_2$ , and 26% 50:50  $CO_2$ - $N_2$  (Table 3), which is predominately stored in the large and



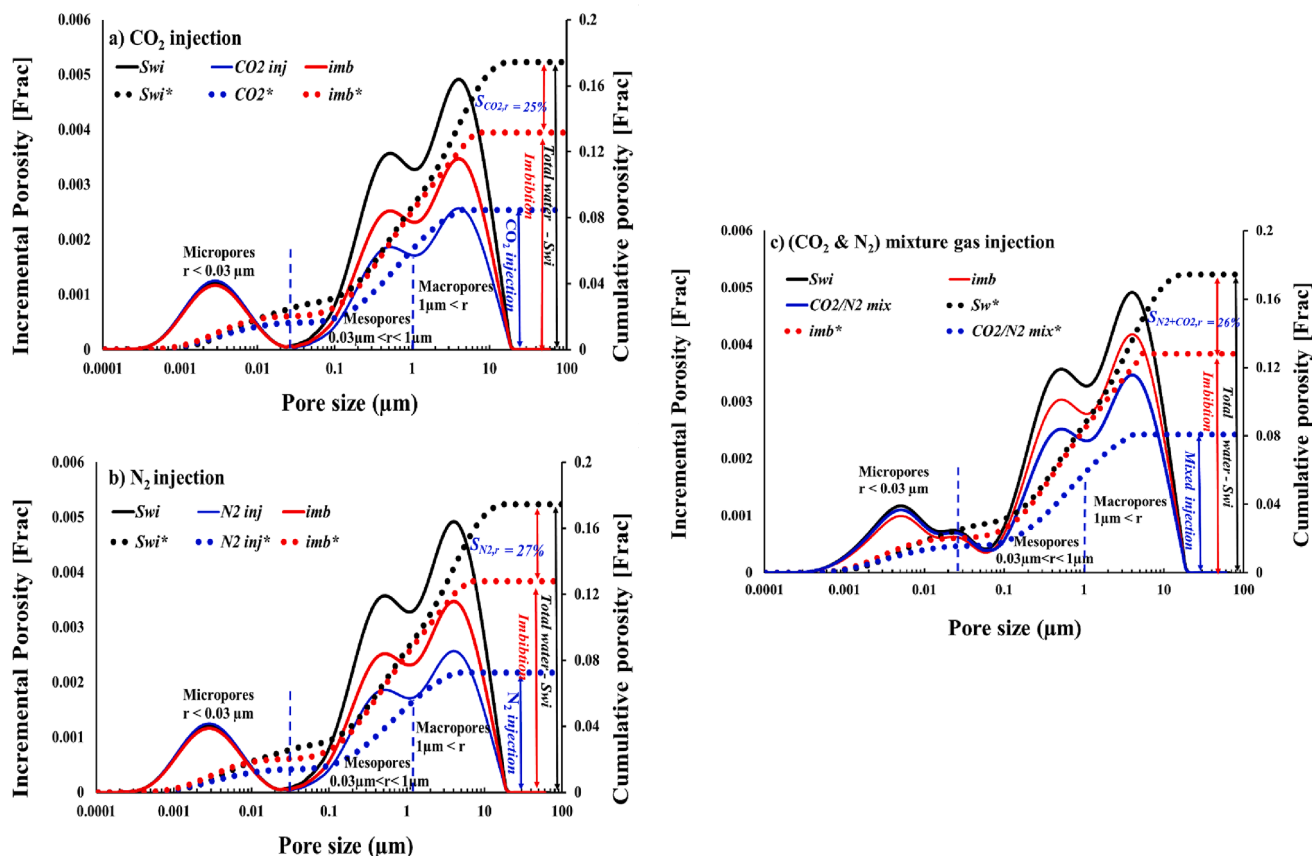


Fig. 6. The NMR profiles of water-wet Indiana limestone at 8 MPa and 333 K after secondary drainage and imbibition with each nonwetting gas: (a) scCO<sub>2</sub>, (b) N<sub>2</sub>, and (c) 50:50 CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub>. Here, the T<sub>2</sub> relaxation times were converted into pore radii by using Eq. (2). The solid curves represent the incremental volumes, while the dashed curves correspond to the cumulative volumes.

Table 4

The relationship between the relaxation time (T<sub>2</sub>), pore type, and pore radius (r).

T <sub>2</sub> relaxation time (ms)	Pore type	Pore radius (r, μm)
≤ 3	micropores	r ≤ 0.03
3–200	mesopores	0.03 < r < 1
200–2000	macropores	1 < r

intermediate pores. This is consistent with the literature and is typical of hydrophilic systems, where the relative position of each fluid in the pore system is controlled by the wettability and morphological properties of that system [102]. Mechanistically, the surface layer of water in the pore throat swells and eventually coalesces to fill the entire throat, while the nonwetting phase is left stranded in the form of large clusters (ganglia) in the pore space, thus resulting in disconnection and trapping (snap-off) of the nonwetting phase in the centers of the adjacent pores [18,103–106]. Subsequently, the water advances from the narrow throat to a broader site (i.e., a pore), thus leading to an abrupt saturation fluctuation and redistribution of the fluids in the pore space (Figs. 4 and 5).

#### 4. Conclusions and implications

Carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) in geological formations is a prominent solution for effectively reducing the anthropogenic carbon emissions that mainly arise from the high consumption of fossil fuels. In this respect, the capillary trapping of CO<sub>2</sub> is a primary trapping mechanism that is governed by the pressure difference between the wetting and nonwetting phases in a porous rock, which makes the latter a key input parameter in dynamic simulation models. However,

contamination of the CO<sub>2</sub> by impurities from various surface and subsurface sources can occur throughout the CCS operational process. Such contamination may highly impact the overall CO<sub>2</sub> wettability, storage capacity, and containment security. Hence, the present study used a robust gas-brine coreflooding system to acquire the nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) longitudinal–transverse relaxation time (T<sub>1</sub>-T<sub>2</sub>) profiles, 2D maps, and absolute T<sub>2</sub> values in order to quantify the capillary trapping effect, wettability, and residual gas saturation of a water-wet Indiana limestone after cyclic secondary drainage/imbibition at 8 MPa and 333 K. To this end, three distinct gas-brine coreflood experiments were performed by using pure CO<sub>2</sub>, pure N<sub>2</sub>, and a 50:50 CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> mixture. Thus, when 10 pore volumes (PV) of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (scCO<sub>2</sub>) were injected into the fully brine-saturated limestone sample, a significant amount of CO<sub>2</sub> was found to displace the brine and become trapped in the large (meso- and macro-scale) pores. The NMR T<sub>2</sub> relaxation time distributions indicated that the non-wetting phase (gas) displaced the wetting phase (water) from both the large pores (r > 1 μm) and the intermediate pores (0.03 μm < r < 1 μm), while the water content of the small pores (r < 0.03 μm) remained unchanged. Further, the residual saturations of CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and 50:50 CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> after the 10 PV injections were 25%, 27%, 26%, respectively, with the coreflooding of 50:50 CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> providing an almost identical residual gas saturation to that of the CO<sub>2</sub>-brine system. The negligible effect of the investigated impurity (N<sub>2</sub>) in the mixed gas on the capillary trapping capacity clearly demonstrates that the presence of some impurities in the CO<sub>2</sub> for injection into carbonate formations during large-scale CCS projects can be tolerated without affecting the overall geo-storage containment effect. This has the potential benefit of substantial cost reduction due to the reduced amount of processing required for the removal of N<sub>2</sub> from the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich flue gas.

In brief, the main findings of the present study were as follows:

- Allowing some impurities (such as N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, or SO<sub>x</sub>) can be a financially feasible and cost-effective choice in the future planning and implementation of CCS schemes;
- The core flooding with CO<sub>2</sub> or mixed CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> gases lower the hydrophilic characteristics of Indiana limestone, which is detrimental to the geo-storage and containment security. Hence, further study is required in order to optimize the core-flooding process.

Thus, the present work provides fundamental insights into various implications of the geo-storage of CO<sub>2</sub> that should be considered in the large-scale implementation of CCS projects in geological formations.

### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

### Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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