

Formation integrity evaluation for geosequestration of CO₂ in depleted petroleum reservoirs under cyclic stress conditions.

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ABSTRACT

The geological storage of carbon dioxide (CO₂), also referred to as CO₂ geosequestration, represents one of the most promising options for reducing greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. However, most of the time, CO₂ is captured with small amounts of other industrial gases such as sulphur dioxide (SO₂) and hydrogen sulphide (H₂S), which might be compressed together and stored in depleted petroleum reservoirs or aquifers. Moreover, during CO₂ geosequestration in reservoirs, pressure variations during injection could force some amount of CO₂ (with or without other acid gas impurities) into the caprock; thereby, altering the petrophysical, geochemical, and geomechanical properties of the caprock. Thus, the brittleness index of the reservoir and caprock might be impacted during CO₂ geosequestration due to the chemical reactions between the rock minerals and the formation fluid. Furthermore, to meet the world net-zero carbon target, the promotion of CO₂ utilization is paramount. This could be possible by developing an effective technology for cyclic CO₂ geosequestration (with or without gas impurities). Therefore, studies on the co-injection of CO₂ with other acid gases from industrial emissions, their withdrawal from the porous medium, and their impact on reservoir and caprock integrity are paramount. In this study, a dual-tubing string well completion technology was designed for cyclic injection and withdrawal of CO₂ (with or without another acid gas), and numerical simulations were performed using TOUGHREACT codes, to model the cyclic process and investigate the co-injection of SO₂ and H₂S (separately) with CO₂ in sandstone formations overlain by shale caprock. A novel technique of converting the volume fraction of minerals to their weight fraction was developed in this study, to evaluate the brittleness index of the sandstone reservoir and shale caprock during CO₂ geosequestration. The findings of the study indicate that the porosity and permeability increase for the CO₂ only and CO₂-H₂S injection cases, in the shale caprock; while for the CO₂-SO₂ injection case, porosity and permeability only decreased in the layers of the shale caprock contacted by SO₂ and due to anhydrite precipitation. In all the injection cases, the porosity and permeability of the sandstone reservoir decreased in a few layers directly below the perforation interval of the production zone. However, in other regions in the sandstone reservoir, the porosity and permeability increased for the CO₂ only and CO₂-H₂S injection cases. In contrast, for the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case, porosity and permeability decreased in the layers of the sandstone rock contacted by SO₂. In all the CO₂ geosequestration cases, the brittleness of the shale and sandstone rocks investigated decreased slightly, except in the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case where the brittleness of the sandstone rock decreased significantly. Based on the mineralogical composition of the formations in this study, co-injection of SO₂ gas with CO₂ gas, only decreased the brittleness index of the shale caprock slightly, but significantly decreased the brittleness of the sandstone reservoir.

Keywords: Cyclic, injection, withdrawal, geosequestration, brittleness index, dual-tubing string.

1 **FORMATION INTEGRITY EVALUATION FOR GEOSEQUESTRATION OF CO₂ IN**
2 **DEPLETED PETROLEUM RESERVOIRS UNDER CYCLIC STRESS CONDITIONS**

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1 1. Introduction

2 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) geosequestration represents one of the most promising options for reducing
3 atmospheric emissions of CO₂ (Bachu, 2002). It has been proposed as one solution to global
4 climate change caused by the heat-trapping of anthropogenic gases in the atmosphere (Wei et
5 al., 2015; Klokov et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2020). What is fascinating about geosequestration is that
6 CO₂ can be stored underground in caverns (salt caverns or engineered caverns) or porous media
7 (aquifer and depleted oil or gas reservoirs). For long-term storage of gases, underground storage
8 in aquifers or depleted oil (or gas) reservoirs is preferable due to the large storage capacity of
9 gases in aquifers and depleted oil or gas reservoirs (Panfilov, 2016). Nonetheless, caprock
10 integrity ascertained based on its petrophysical, geochemical, and geomechanical properties is
11 vital to ensuring safe and sustainable storage of CO₂ (Pearce et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2020).

12 Meanwhile, CO₂ geosequestration could involve a non-cyclic or cyclic process. On the one hand,
13 the non-cyclic process entails the injection of CO₂ over a period, then stopping the injection and
14 allowing the injected CO₂ to be trapped in the reservoir. On the other hand, the cyclic process of
15 geosequestration involves the injection of CO₂ for some period (in some cases, withdrawing some
16 of the injected CO₂ and leaving behind some amount of CO₂ in the reservoir), and repeating the
17 process over the geosequestration period. Cyclic injection and withdrawal of CO₂ in reservoirs
18 might be an effective technology to promote CO₂ utilization, as this technology would enable
19 seasonal injection and withdrawal of CO₂. Following this approach, CO₂ can be produced from
20 the reservoir when needed for electrochemical hydrogen production (Kim et al., 2018; Koomson
21 et al., 2023), to produce renewable methanol (Sánchez-Díaz, 2017; Sollai et al., 2023; Wang et
22 al., 2023), in CO₂ plume geothermal (CPG) systems for heat and power production
23 (Schifflechner et al. 2022), or other forms of energy. Thus, the utilization of CO₂ for energy
24 creation will reduce the world's reliance on fossil fuels (Wang et al., 2023). The cyclic injection
25 and withdrawal of CO₂ will promote its storage and utilization.

1 CO₂ storage is possible by its different trapping mechanisms including solubility trapping, residual
2 trapping, mineral trapping, and structural/stratigraphic trapping mechanisms (Sun et al., 2016).
3 The purity of the injected fluid influences brine-rock interactions during CO₂ geosequestration. To
4 save the cost of carbon capture and storage, small amounts of some other acid gases (such as
5 SO₂ and H₂S) may be co-injected with CO₂. When the gas mixture comes into contact with water,
6 each gas in the mixture exhibits a different level of solubility in water due to differences in their
7 polarity and net dipole moment (López-Rendón and Alejandre, 2008; Miri et al., 2014; Wang et
8 al., 2020). Theoretically, water (H₂O), SO₂, and H₂S are polar molecules (electrons are not shared
9 equally between the atoms and there is an electronegativity difference between the bonded
10 atoms), while CO₂ is a linear non-polar molecule and the electrons are shared equally between
11 the atoms (López-Rendón and Alejandre, 2008; Wang et al., 2020). Thus, CO₂ has no net dipole
12 moment (as the two C-O bond dipoles are equal in magnitude and cancel out each other); while
13 the dipole moments of H₂S, SO₂, and H₂O are 0.97 Debye, 1.63 Debye, and 1.83 Debye,
14 respectively (López-Rendón and Alejandre, 2008; Shen et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020). Also,
15 substances whose polarities (or net dipole moment) are similar tend to be more soluble in each
16 other, and a polar substance is more soluble in a polar solvent than in a non-polar solvent (López-
17 Rendón and Alejandre, 2008, Wang et al., 2020). Thus, for the same initial amount of CO₂ at the
18 same temperature and pressure conditions, the solubility of H₂S or SO₂ in water is higher than
19 that of CO₂ (López-Rendón and Alejandre, 2008; Miri et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2020). Moreover,
20 it is expected that the solubility of SO₂ in water should be higher than that of H₂S at the same
21 temperature and pressure conditions, as the dipole moment of SO₂ is closer to that of water. Also,
22 the solubility of gases in water is dependent on temperature; as temperature increases, the
23 solubility of CO₂, H₂S, or SO₂ in water increases (López-Rendón and Alejandre, 2008; Miri et al.,
24 2014).

1 It is worth noting that a gas can separate from a mixture with non-polar gases, due to their
2 difference in property. This concept drives the industrial separation of SO_2/CO_2 in ionic liquid or
3 aqueous phase (Wang et al., 2020). However, the level of solubility of CO_2 or impurities in a brine-
4 rock system or the separation of impurities from CO_2 might be different when gas mixtures are
5 injected in a rock composed of different minerals, thereby resulting in the trapping of the dissolved
6 gases in the aqueous phase for mineral precipitation. More or less fraction of each gas in the
7 mixture might dissolve in the aqueous phase at different temperature and pressure conditions.
8 So, the solubility trapping of CO_2 in a brine-rock system would depend on the initial mineralogical
9 composition of the formation.

10 Residual trapping of CO_2 increases during cyclic CO_2 injection (Herring et al., 2016; Edlmann et
11 al., 2019). During cyclic CO_2 injection, about 40-50% of CO_2 can be stored mainly through residual
12 and solubility trappings in the porous medium (Abedini and Torabi, 2014). Water alternating gas
13 (CO_2) and CO_2 cyclic injection strategies provide significantly higher effective CO_2 storage
14 capacities compared to the continuous CO_2 injection strategy (Li et al., 2021). However, residually
15 trapped CO_2 might reconnect with injected CO_2 mainly close to the large pore clusters in
16 subsequent injection cycles, as observed during cyclic hydrogen (H_2) injections (Lysy et al.,
17 2023). Moreover, increased residual trapping of CO_2 during cyclic injection, could result in a
18 reduction in effective permeability, thereby limiting flow and injectivity after several cycles of CO_2
19 injection (Edlmann et al., 2019).

20 The exposure of supercritical CO_2 in certain geologic materials may induce surface chemical
21 reactions that are time-dependent (Herring et al., 2016). Thus, the surface chemical reactions can
22 influence the pore structure of the rock, as dissolution-dominant reactions of rock minerals would
23 result in increased porosity and permeability, while precipitation-dominant reactions would result
24 in decreased porosity and permeability of the rock. Dissolution of primary minerals in carbonate
25 rock increases the porosity and permeability of the rock (Wang et al., 2022, Fatima et al., 2021).

1 Bolourinejad and Herber (2014) conducted an experimental study on the storage of CO₂ and
2 impurities in a depleted gas field in the northeast Netherlands. Experiments were conducted on
3 Permian Rotliegend sandstone reservoir (no initial calcite content) and Zechstein caprock
4 (anhydrite and carbonate component) core samples at 300 bar and 100 °C for 30 days. Anhydrite
5 precipitation was observed in H₂S or SO₂ co-injection case with CO₂, as the geochemical reaction
6 with the formation water provided additional sulphur; while anhydrite dissolved in the pure CO₂
7 injection case. Pyrite and halite precipitated for the CO₂-H₂S co-injection case. In the CO₂-SO₂
8 co-injection case, enhanced levels of dissolution of carbonate and feldspar minerals were
9 observed due to the formation of sulphuric acid from the geochemical reaction. Furthermore, after
10 CO₂ injection, the permeability of the reservoir samples increased by 10-30%; while the
11 permeability of caprock samples increased by a factor of 3-10, which indicates a significantly
12 higher increase in the permeability of the caprock samples compared to the sandstone reservoir
13 rock samples. CO₂ co-injection with 5000 ppm H₂S (higher concentration of the gas impurity,
14 different from the other cases with 100 ppm gas impurity) reduced the permeability of the reservoir
15 and caprock samples significantly (due to significant halite precipitation and small amount of pyrite
16 and anhydrite precipitation), while only minimal change in permeability (less than 3% increase in
17 permeability of the sandstone reservoir sample, and an increase in permeability up to 30% in the
18 caprock sample) was observed when the concentration of H₂S was reduced to 100 ppm as the
19 dissolution of minerals resulted in corresponding precipitation of secondary minerals. It is worth
20 noting that after 17 days of CO₂ co-injection with 100 ppm H₂S, the permeability of the reservoir
21 and caprock samples decreased as the precipitation of halite dominated the dissolution of feldspar
22 and carbonate minerals. However, over time, the mineral dissolution process dominated, resulting
23 in an increase in permeability of the rock samples after 30 days. In the case of CO₂ co-injection
24 with 100 ppm SO₂, the permeability of reservoir rock samples increased by a factor of 1.18 to 2.2,
25 while the permeability of the caprock samples changed by a factor of 0.8 to 23 (permeability
26 increased in caprock samples with a higher ratio of initial carbonate mineral concentration to

1 anhydrite content, due to the carbonate dissolution). The increase in the permeability of the
2 sandstone reservoir could be attributed to the lack of calcite (mineral) in the initial composition of
3 the rock. Thus, the release of Ca^{2+} from dolomite dissolution was not enough to precipitate a
4 significant amount of anhydrite (which could have decreased the permeability of the reservoir rock
5 in the CO_2 - SO_2 case). So, the initial mineralogical composition of the rock, duration of the
6 geochemical reactions, and concentration of impurities in a CO_2 gas stream in reservoir and
7 caprock samples impact the amount of change in permeability of reservoir and caprock.

8 A similar experimental study was conducted by Aminu et al. (2018) to evaluate the effect of
9 impurities on sandstone reservoir permeability. The impurities considered are NO_2 , H_2S , and SO_2 .
10 The experiment was conducted at 70°C and 140 bar for 9 months. They found that the effect of
11 H_2S on the rock permeability is relatively small. CO_2 increased the reservoir rock permeability by
12 5.83%, while CO_2 - H_2S increased it by 6.25%. CO_2 co-injection with SO_2 slightly decreased
13 permeability by 6.25%; while CO_2 co-injection with NO_2 significantly decreased permeability by
14 41.67%. The changes in the rock permeability are significantly influenced by the dissolution and
15 precipitation of existing rock minerals, as well as the precipitation of some secondary minerals.
16 So, the CO_2 -brine-rock interactions depend on the purity of the CO_2 gas as well as the initial
17 mineralogical composition of the rocks. The changes in permeability and porosity result from the
18 dissolution of these gases in water, thus reducing pH which enhances chemical reactions in the
19 rock and results in the dissolution of minerals (such as ankerite, siderite, dolomite, etc.), and
20 precipitation of minerals (such as pyrite, dawsonite, kaolinite, anhydrite, etc.) in the rock (Li et al.,
21 2016; Pearce et al., 2016; Pearce et al., 2019).

22 Elwegaa et al. (2019) conducted a study on cyclic cold carbon dioxide injection for improved oil
23 recovery from shale oil reservoirs. They found that injection of cold CO_2 increased both porosities
24 and permeabilities of the core samples by up to 3.5% and 8.8%, respectively. The porosity and
25 proportion of macropores of coal (carbonate-rich rock) increase after treatment on cyclical

1 injection of supercritical CO₂, as new pores were formed and some small pores possibly converted
2 into macropores (Su et al., 2021). Moreover, the microporosity of sandstone increases during the
3 cyclic wetting-drying process, similar to cyclic CO₂ injection, as the microstructure of the rock
4 changes. The driving force of the changes in the microstructure of the sandstone is water-rock
5 interaction including physical, mechanical, and chemical interactions (Ke et al., 2023). The
6 chemical interaction that causes the dissolution and precipitation of some minerals in the rock can
7 increase or decrease the porosity of the rock. For instance, in a study conducted by Badrouchi et
8 al. (2022), after four CO₂ injection cycles, the effective porosity of the rock samples decreased,
9 as the dissolved CO₂ could react with rock minerals and form precipitates that block some pores.
10 These changes in the microstructure impact the petrophysical (porosity and permeability) and
11 mechanical (elastic and strength parameters) properties of the rock. The strength and elastic (or
12 deformation) parameters of the rock are dependent on its mineral compositions (Li et al., 2023).
13 The change in the strength and elastic parameters (Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio) as the
14 mineral compositions of the rock change during cyclic injection of CO₂ (Su et al., 2020; Xu et al.,
15 2021) could impact the brittleness of the reservoir and cap rocks.

16 Elwegaa et al. (2019) conducted a study on cyclic cold carbon dioxide injection for improved oil
17 recovery from shale oil reservoirs. They observed an increase in the brittleness indices of the core
18 samples. However, in the study, cold CO₂ was injected into the shale rock (reservoir), and
19 brittleness index was calculated mainly by the ratio of the sum of the volume fractions of quartz
20 and dolomite (which are not the only major brittle minerals in the rock samples); and the brittleness
21 ratio was evaluated based on dynamic elastic modulus and Poisson's ratio, which do not
22 accurately reflect the brittleness of rocks (Meng et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016). Moreover, Lyu
23 et al. (2018) developed a damage constitutive model for the effects of CO₂-brine-rock interactions
24 on the brittleness of a low-clay shale (tested in a non-cyclic injection process). They found that
25 the CO₂-brine-shale interactions in the soaked shale sample decreased the brittleness values.

1 Therefore, the development of a more robust mathematical model to evaluate the brittleness of
2 reservoir and cap rocks during the non-cyclic and cyclic CO₂ injection process is paramount.

3 Previous studies have considered the impact of CO₂ and impurities (H₂S, SO₂, or NO₂) on
4 porosity, permeability, and mineralogical changes in different rock lithologies, as well as the
5 impact of pure CO₂-brine interaction on geomechanical properties and brittleness of rocks.
6 Furthermore, several studies on the cyclic approach of CO₂ geosequestration have been based
7 on CO₂ injection as a drainage-imbibition process in which case CO₂ is injected followed by water,
8 from the same end of the rock sample and similar to water alternating gas approach of enhanced
9 oil recovery; or periodic injection of CO₂ and producing from the other end of the reservoir (in a
10 cartesian coordinate system) or observing the impact of the injected CO₂ in the reservoir. The
11 cyclic injection-withdrawal of CO₂ during geosequestration is different in the present study.

12 In the present study, a novel approach of cyclic CO₂ geosequestration (with or without the addition
13 of H₂S or SO₂ impurity) was developed to promote CO₂ utilization and storage by injecting CO₂ at
14 the bottom of the well in a reservoir and producing CO₂ from the top part of the reservoir using
15 the same well for both operations, to save cost and produce a purer form of CO₂. The proposed
16 technology could be replicated on a laboratory scale by injecting CO₂ from one end of a water-
17 saturated rock sample, followed by the injection of water from the other end of the rock sample
18 [after the CO₂ injection period], making a cycle. This cycle can be repeated and therefore referred
19 to as cyclic injection-withdrawal of CO₂ in the present study. This technology can be applied to
20 several wells in the same reservoir, enabling the production of a purer form of CO₂ (with minimal
21 chance of producing a large amount of brine together with the gas) as a larger amount of gas is
22 few meters away (laterally) from the injection zone and at the top part of the reservoir; while
23 multiphase mixture of CO₂-brine is found farther away from the injection well with a thin layer at
24 the top of the reservoir having relatively low amount of CO₂ gas. Therefore, producing CO₂ gas
25 from the same well used for injection, would save cost and enhance the production of a purer

1 form of CO₂ for the development of renewable resources or energy (CO₂ utilization for hydrogen
2 and methanol production, as well as for heat and power generation).
3 Also, to the best knowledge of the authors, no study has been conducted to investigate the impact
4 of CO₂ impurities (H₂S or SO₂) on the brittleness of reservoir or cap rocks during cyclic CO₂
5 injection and withdrawal from the same wells and enabling CO₂ storage at the same time.
6 Therefore, it is against this background that the authors have conceived the idea to design a dual-
7 tubing string well completion approach for cyclic injection and withdrawal of CO₂ and evaluate the
8 impact of CO₂ impurities on the brittleness of reservoir and cap rocks under cyclic stress
9 conditions, during CO₂ geosequestration. This study investigates the impact of CO₂ impurities on
10 the porosity, permeability, geochemical composition, and brittleness index of a sandstone
11 reservoir and shale caprock during underground injection, withdrawal, and storage of CO₂. This
12 study adopted a novel technique for converting the volume fraction of minerals to weight fraction
13 for the evaluation of the brittleness index of rocks.

14 **2. Theoretical Framework**

15 During CO₂ injection, stresses are induced in the rock as the cement that binds the rock grains
16 are impacted. Thus, creating pathways for CO₂-brine-rock interaction in the [rock] cement and
17 enhancing the dissolution of some of its minerals. Hence, resulting in deformation and a decrease
18 in strength of the rock. The decrease in strength of the rock results in a change in the brittleness
19 of the rock, as the rate of decrease in the tensile and compressive strengths of the rock, as well
20 as changes in the rock minerals are different. Brittleness is the lack of ductility or plasticity of a
21 material, while ductility is the property of a material that allows it to be drawn out by tension to a
22 smaller section (Hucka and Das, 1974; Hou et al., 2018). In other words, brittle materials can
23 hardly be drawn into shapes. Instead, they fracture or break when such an amount of stress is
24 applied to them. Most rocks exhibit brittle behaviour. However, their degrees of brittleness vary
25 by lithology and conditions subjected to during fluid-rock interactions.

1 Brittleness is a relative term as there are no accepted values of strength and elastic parameters
 2 ratios or brittle minerals ratio below which a material is considered ductile and above which it is
 3 considered as brittle (Hucka and Das, 1974). The brittleness of a material is compared by its
 4 brittleness index at one time or condition to another to ascertain whether the material has become
 5 more or less brittle. The factors that influence the brittleness of rocks include the type and
 6 composition of brittle minerals, the content and maturity of organic matter, and the formation
 7 temperature and confining pressure (Meng et al., 2015; Li, 2022). The brittleness index of rocks
 8 can be expressed based on rock strength parameters (Hucka and Das, 1974; Gong and Zhao,
 9 2007; Meng et al., 2015; Li, 2022), elastic parameters (Rickman et al., 2008; Luan et al., 2014;
 10 Kang et al., 2020), and weight fraction of rock minerals (Jin et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2016; Kang
 11 et al., 2020; Li, 2022). Based on these parameters, the brittleness index of rocks is expressed as
 12 follows:

$$13 \quad BI_1 = \frac{\sigma_c}{\sigma_t} \quad (1)$$

$$14 \quad BI_2 = \frac{(\sigma_c - \sigma_t)}{(\sigma_c + \sigma_t)} \quad (2)$$

$$15 \quad BI_3 = \frac{E}{\nu} \quad (3)$$

$$16 \quad BI_4 = \frac{W_{quartz} + W_{feldspar} + W_{calcite} + W_{dolomite} + W_{pyrite} + W_{mica}}{W_T} \quad (4)$$

$$17 \quad BI_5 = \frac{W_{quartz} + 0.49W_{feldspar} + 0.51W_{calcite} + 0.44W_{dolomite}}{W_T} \quad (5)$$

18 where σ_c represents uniaxial compressive strength and σ_t represents uniaxial tensile strength of
 19 the rock; E and ν represent Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio of the rock, respectively; W and
 20 W_T represent weight (or mass) of individual mineral and total weight (or mass) of minerals in the
 21 solid part of the rock, respectively; and specifically, BI_5 is mineralogical brittleness index
 22 developed by Kang et al. (2020) based on the bulk modulus of brittle minerals. Generally, brittle

1 minerals include quartz, feldspar group of minerals, calcite, dolomite, pyrite, and mica. Fluid-rock
 2 interaction results in dissolution and precipitation of minerals, thereby altering the amount of brittle
 3 minerals in the rock. In the case of co-injection of CO₂ with SO₂, in the presence of water (H₂O)
 4 sulphates (or SO₄²⁻) are formed, resulting in the precipitation of anhydrite (CaSO₄) and some
 5 amount of pyrite (FeS₂); while co-injection of CO₂ with H₂S in the presence of oxygen and
 6 increased iron (Fe) concentration (possibly due to the dissolution of siderite and/or ankerite) could
 7 result in the precipitation of pyrite (Hedayati et al., 2018) as follows:



11 Therefore, the co-injection of gases (H₂S, SO₂, etc.) during CO₂ geosequestration may impact the
 12 brittleness of porous rocks as brittle and non-brittle minerals are precipitated during the co-
 13 injection of CO₂ with different impurities. Hence, it is vital to evaluate the impact of CO₂ impurities
 14 on the brittleness of rocks during geosequestration.

15 **3. Methodology**

16 The research design involves numerical simulations. Numerical simulations were performed by
 17 modelling cyclic injection-withdrawal technology during CO₂ geosequestration. This strategy
 18 involves numerical simulations using sandstone formation as reservoir and shale formation as
 19 caprock, to model the process of cyclic injection-withdrawal of CO₂ in the reservoir. The results of
 20 the numerical simulations were analyzed for the brittleness index using the mathematical model
 21 developed by Aminaho and Hossain (2023). The mathematical model and the simulation
 22 approach are presented in this section.

1 3.1 Mathematical modelling

2 Change in the porosity of rocks is calculated based on mineral precipitation and dissolution, while
 3 the change in permeability is calculated from Carman-Kozeny relation, using the following
 4 equations (Xu et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2014):

$$5 \quad \phi = 1 - \sum_{m=1}^{nm} fr_m - fr_u \quad (9)$$

$$6 \quad k = k_0 \left(\frac{1-\phi_0}{1-\phi} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\phi}{\phi_0} \right)^3 \quad (10)$$

7 where, ϕ and k represent current porosity and permeability, ϕ_0 and k_0 represent initial porosity and
 8 permeability, parameters fr_m and fr_u represent volume fraction of mineral m in the rock (volume of
 9 mineral to volume of the medium including porosity) and volume fraction of non-reactive mineral,
 10 respectively. So, the output volume fraction of each mineral is the volume of the mineral divided
 11 by the volume of the medium including porosity (V_{frac}). Thus, the volume of each mineral divided
 12 by the total volume of the solid [part of the rock] is calculated as follows (Xu et al., 2014):

$$13 \quad f_m = \frac{V_{frac}}{1-\phi_{med}} \quad (11)$$

14 where ϕ_{med} represents [current] porosity of the medium, and f_m represents the volume of mineral
 15 per volume of [the solid part of] the rock.

16 The mass fraction of composite materials has been calculated to determine their mechanical
 17 properties (Ezema et al., 2015) using their densities and volume fractions. Therefore, it is possible
 18 to determine the mass fraction of minerals in a rock using a similar approach. The mass fraction
 19 of each material that forms a composite structure is the mass of that material to the total mass of
 20 materials that form the structure. Similarly, the mass fraction of each mineral that forms a rock is
 21 the mass of each mineral to the total mass of minerals that form the rock and can be expressed
 22 as follows:

$$1 \quad \text{Mass fraction of a mineral, } x_i = \frac{\text{mass of the mineral,}}{\text{total mass of minerals in the rock,}} = \frac{m_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{nm} m_i} \quad (12)$$

$$2 \quad m = V\rho \quad (13)$$

$$3 \quad x_i = \frac{v_i \rho_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{nm} v_i \rho_i} \quad (14)$$

4 where V and ρ represent the volume and density of the solid, respectively; v_i represents the
5 volume fraction of each mineral in the solid part of the rock (same as f_m). Density can be expressed
6 as molecular weight divided by molar volume.

$$7 \quad \rho = \frac{\bar{M}}{\bar{V}} \quad (15)$$

8 Thus, the mass fraction becomes:

$$9 \quad x_i = \frac{\frac{v_i \bar{M}_i}{\bar{V}_i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{nm} \frac{v_i \bar{M}_i}{\bar{V}_i}} \quad (16)$$

10 where \bar{M} and \bar{V} represent molecular weight (g/mol) and molar volume (m^3/mol) of mineral. Hence,
11 the mineralogical brittleness index by a simple sum of brittle minerals becomes:

$$12 \quad BI_{min} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{nB} \frac{v_j \bar{M}_j}{\bar{V}_j}}{\sum_{i=1}^{nm} \frac{v_i \bar{M}_i}{\bar{V}_i}} \quad (17)$$

13 where j represents each brittle mineral in the rock, i represents any mineral in the rock, and nB
14 represents the number of brittle minerals in the rock.

15 To simplify the derived brittleness index equation, the same molar volume can be assumed for all
16 minerals, depending on the mineralogical composition of the rock. However, some clay minerals
17 such as smectite-Ca, smectite-Na, illite, and kaolinite may have larger mineral surface areas
18 (Fatah et al., 2022) and significantly different molar volumes. Assuming equal molar volume of

1 minerals, the brittleness index in terms of the simple sum of brittle minerals in a rock can be
2 expressed as:

$$3 \quad BI_6 = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{nB} v_j \bar{M}_j}{\sum_{i=1}^{nm} v_i \bar{M}_i} \quad (18)$$

4 Brittle minerals considered in this study are quartz, feldspar (as albite, k-feldspar, oligoclase,
5 orthoclase, and anorthite), calcite, dolomite, pyrite, and mica (as muscovite). Their relative level
6 of brittleness among themselves (brittle minerals) is not considered in the simple sum of brittle
7 minerals approach given above. Thus, to consider their relative level of brittleness, the bulk
8 modulus (Table 1) of the brittle minerals was incorporated into the equation using weighting
9 coefficients (Table 2) following the mineralogical brittleness index developed by Kang et al.
10 (2020).

11 Table 1: Bulk modulus of different brittle minerals (Fjaer et al., 2008).

| Brittle mineral | Quartz | Feldspar | Calcite | Dolomite |
|--------------------|--------|----------|---------|----------|
| Bulk modulus (GPa) | 37.5 | 76 | 74 | 76-95 |

12 Table 2: Weighting coefficients of different brittle minerals (Kang et al., 2020).

| Brittle mineral | Quartz | Feldspar | Calcite | Dolomite |
|-----------------------|--------|----------|---------|----------------|
| Weighting coefficient | 1 | 0.49 | 0.51 | 0.39-0.49/0.44 |

13 The mineralogical brittleness index, considering the bulk modulus of minerals, developed by Kang
14 et al. (2020) is given as:

$$15 \quad BI_{BMod} = \frac{W_Q + 0.49W_F + 0.51W_C + 0.44W_D}{W_T} \quad (19)$$

16 where W_Q , W_F , W_C , and W_D represent the weights of quartz, feldspar, calcite, and dolomite,
17 respectively; W_T represents the total mineral weight. The brittleness index in this case considers
18 only quartz (Q), feldspar (F), calcite (C), and dolomite (D) as brittle minerals, assuming the level
19 of brittleness of pyrite and mica is negligible compared to other brittle minerals. Thus, in the
20 present study, the brittleness index becomes:

$$1 \quad BI_{bm} = \frac{\frac{v_Q \bar{M}_Q}{\bar{V}_Q} + \frac{0.49 v_F \bar{M}_F}{\bar{V}_F} + \frac{0.51 v_C \bar{M}_C}{\bar{V}_C} + \frac{0.44 v_D \bar{M}_D}{\bar{V}_D}}{\sum_{i=1}^{nm} \frac{v_i \bar{M}_i}{\bar{V}_i}} \quad (20)$$

2 So, assuming the same molar volume of minerals in this present study, the brittleness index can
3 be expressed as:

$$4 \quad BI_7 = \frac{v_Q \bar{M}_Q + 0.49 v_F \bar{M}_F + 0.51 v_C \bar{M}_C + 0.44 v_D \bar{M}_D}{\sum_{i=1}^{nm} v_i \bar{M}_i} \quad (21)$$

5 The models developed in this study (accounting for the molar volume of each mineral and
6 assuming the same molar volume for all minerals) are used to evaluate the mineralogical
7 brittleness index of the sandstone reservoir and shale caprock before and after CO₂
8 geosequestration.

9 To test the statistical significance of differences in tests or observations at different stages or
10 conditions, the concept of reliable change index (RCI) with 95% confidence (Blampied, 2016) can
11 be adopted as follows:

$$12 \quad RCI = 1.96(\sigma)\sqrt{2}\sqrt{(1-r)} \quad (22)$$

13 where, r and σ are Pearson correlation coefficient (or reliability index) and standard deviation of
14 the variable dataset, respectively.

15 **3.2 Numerical approach**

16 This study employed the TOUGHREACT code for non-isothermal multiphase reactive
17 geochemical transport (Xu et al., 2006), which was developed by incorporating reactive chemistry
18 into TOUGH2 code for multiphase fluid and heat flow (Pruess, 2004). A detailed description of
19 the TOUGHREACT code can be found in a study conducted by Zhang et al. (2010) and the
20 program reference manual (Xu et al., 2014).

1 3.2.1 Model setup

2 A simple two-dimensional (2-D) radial well model was used in this study. The 2-D model is a
 3 vertically heterogeneous formation of 40 m thickness with a cylindrical geometrical configuration
 4 (Figure 1). In the vertical direction, the model domain is discretized into 20 regular increments
 5 with a 2 m constant spacing (Δz). The top and bottom model boundaries are close to flow. The
 6 top model layers represent a shale caprock, while the remaining model layers at the bottom
 7 represent reservoir rock(s). The model layers are shown in Table 3.

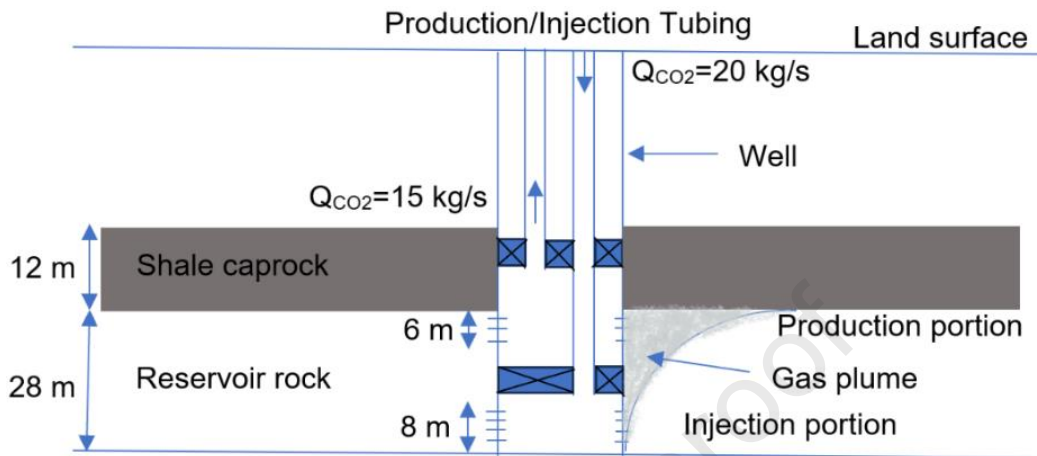
8 Table 3: Mesh generation of the model.

| Rock formation | Vertical mesh number | Mesh thickness (m) |
|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| Shale caprock | 6 | 2.0 |
| Sandstone reservoir | 14 | 2.0 |

9 In the horizontal direction, a 100 km radial distance was modelled with a radial grid spacing
 10 increasing logarithmically from the injection well. A total of 56 radial grid elements were generated.
 11 A large volume of 10^{30} m³ is assigned to the outer grid element to represent an infinitive lateral
 12 boundary (a constant hydrostatic pressure boundary). The interface between the reservoir and
 13 caprock in this study is 12 m from the top of the caprock considered in this model. The depleted
 14 petroleum reservoir considered in this study was assumed to be under a strong aquifer, such that
 15 a very large fraction of the hydrocarbon in the reservoir has been produced and the reservoir pore
 16 spaces were replaced by water. Therefore, the reservoir simulation is similar to CO₂
 17 geosequestration in aquifers, which TOUGHREACT can handle effectively. Thus, the effect of
 18 hydrocarbon reactions with the injected gases and formation water were not considered in this
 19 study.

20 CO₂ only (also referred to as CO₂ alone, in this study) or impure CO₂ (containing H₂S or SO₂)
 21 injection was applied at the bottom of the well, and produced (or withdrawn) at the upper part of
 22 the well in the same reservoir (close to the caprock zone), to produce relatively pure CO₂ gas

1 (and limit the production of aqueous-phase fluid). The thickness of the injection portion is 8 m,
 2 while the thickness of the production portion is 6 m as shown in Figure 1.



3
 4 Figure 1: Cyclic injection-withdrawal of CO₂.

5
 6 The initial reservoir and caprock temperature and pressure are 40°C and 10 MPa (100 bar),
 7 respectively. The CO₂ injection-withdrawal profile is shown in Figure 2. The injection-withdrawal
 8 process was completed over seven (7) cycles. For each cycle, CO₂ gas (with or without H₂S/SO₂
 9 gas) is injected (at the 8 m injection portion/zone) into the reservoir for a period of 10 years, using
 10 a CO₂ injection rate of 20 kg/s (with or without a gas impurity) and with a 0.025-mole fraction of
 11 H₂S or SO₂ (for the co-injection cases). The mole fraction of 0.025 for H₂S and SO₂ was selected
 12 as it is within the range of CO₂ co-capture from Pet Coke (SNC-Lavalin Inc., 2004). CO₂ injection
 13 is stopped for 3 months (0.25 year), then CO₂ is withdrawn from the reservoir at the rate of 15
 14 kg/s (at the 6 m production portion/zone) over a period of 2 years and withdrawal is stopped for 3
 15 months before the next cycle commences. So, each cycle lasted for 12.5 years. The longer period
 16 of production compared to the shut-in time is based on field applications of cyclic gas injection in
 17 reservoirs (Reeves, 2001). The hydrogeological parameters used in this study are shown in Table
 18 4.

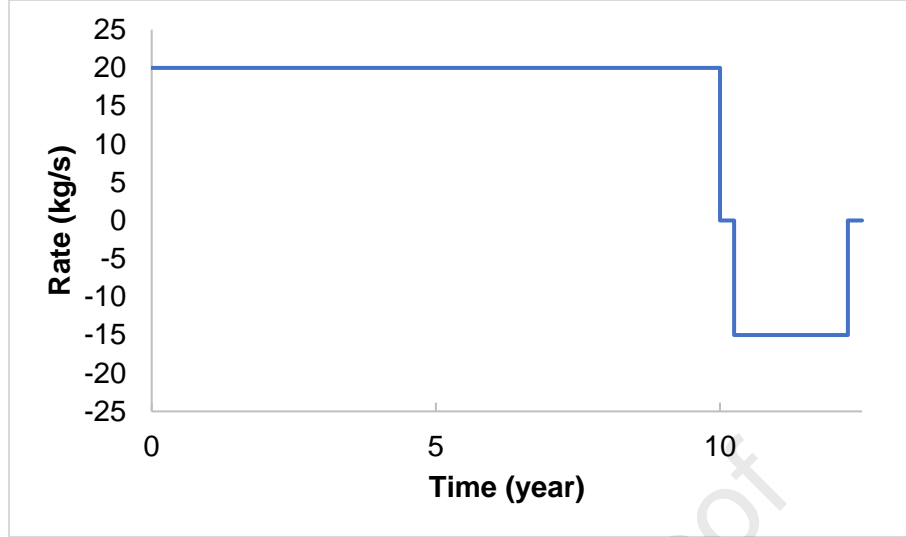
Figure 2: CO₂ injection-withdrawal profile.

Table 4: Hydrogeological parameters used in the simulation at formation temperature and pressure of 40°C and 100 bar, respectively.

| Parameters | Formation | |
|---|--|-------------------------|
| | Sandstone | Shale caprock |
| Porosity | 0.34 | 0.07 |
| Horizontal permeability (m ²) | 2.264x10 ⁻¹³ | 2.264x10 ⁻¹⁶ |
| Vertical permeability (m ²) | 2.264x10 ⁻¹⁴ | 2.264x10 ⁻¹⁷ |
| Pore compressibility (Pa ⁻¹) | 2.10x10 ⁻⁹ | 2.10x10 ⁻⁹ |
| Rock grain density (kg/m ³) | 2600 | 2600 |
| Formation heat conductivity (W/m °C) | 2.51 | 2.51 |
| Rock grain specific heat (J/kg °C) | 920.0 | 920.0 |
| Temperature (°C) | 40.0 | 40.0 |
| Salinity (mass fraction) | 0.06 | 0.06 |
| Pressure (bar) | 100 | 100 |
| Initial gas saturation | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| CO ₂ injection rate (kg/s) | 20.0 | - |
| CO ₂ withdrawal rate (kg/s) | 15.0 | - |
| Relative permeability Liquid: Van Genuchten function $k_{rl} = \sqrt{S^*} \left\{ 1 - \left(1 - [S^*]^{1/m} \right)^m \right\}^2$ S _{ir} : residual water saturation m: exponent Gas: Corey $k_{rg} = (1 - \hat{S})^2 (1 - \hat{S}^2)$ S _{gr} : residual gas saturation | $S^* = (S_l - S_{lr}) / (1 - S_{lr})$ $S_{lr} = 0.30$ $m = 0.457$ $\hat{S} = (S_l - S_{lr}) / (1 - S_{lr} - S_{gr})$ $S_{gr} = 0.05$ | |
| Capillary pressure Van Genuchten function $P_{cap} = -P_0 ([S^*]^{-1/m} - 1)^{1-m}$ S _{ir} : residual water saturation m: exponent | $S^* = (S_l - S_{lr}) / (1 - S_{lr})$ $S_{lr} = 0.03$ $m = 0.457$ | |
| P ₀ : strength coefficient | 19.61 kPa | 19.61 kPa |

5 The initial mineralogical composition of the sandstone reservoir was obtained and modified from
6 Zhang et al. (2010), while the initial mineralogical composition of the shale caprock was obtained

1 and modified from Ma et al. (2019). The molar volumes of the minerals were obtained from Robie
 2 et al. (1967) and Wang et al. (2021), except the molar volumes of dawsonite, smectite-Ca and
 3 ankerite that were assumed. The molar volume of dawsonite was obtained from Marini (2007);
 4 the molar volume of smectite-Ca was estimated within the range of density of Smectites (2.6
 5 g/cm³) (Deer et al., 1966; Totten et al., 2002), while the molar volume of ankerite was estimated
 6 using a density of 2.97 g/cm³ (Shafiq et al., 2022). The mineralogical compositions of the rocks
 7 are shown in Table 5.

8 Table 5: Initial volume fractions of the minerals and their molecular weight and molar volume.

| Mineral name | Chemical formula | Molecular weight (g/mol) | Molar volume (cm ³ /mol) | Sandstone formation (volume percent of solid) | Shale Caprock (volume percent of solid) |
|--------------|--|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| Illite | $K_{0.6}Mg_{0.25}Al_{1.8}(Al_{0.5}Si_{3.5}O_{10})(OH)_2$ | 383.899 | 138.900 | 2.80 | 65.30 |
| Kaolinite | $Al_2Si_2O_5(OH)_4$ | 258.159 | 99.520 | 0.90 | 1.11 |
| Smectite-Ca | $Ca_{0.145}Mg_{0.26}Al_{1.77}Si_{3.97}O_{10}(OH)_2$ | 365.394 | 140.536 | 0 | 6.96 |
| Chlorite | $Mg_{2.5}Fe_{2.5}Al_2Si_3O_{10}(OH)_8$ | 634.648 | 210.260 | 2.70 | 6.40 |
| Quartz | SiO_2 | 60.084 | 22.688 | 25.80 | 8.00 |
| K-feldspar | $KAlSi_3O_8$ | 278.33 | 108.900 | 23.30 | 2.80 |
| Albite | $NaAlSi_3O_8$ | 262.222 | 100.070 | 41.50 | 3.20 |
| Calcite | $CaCO_3$ | 100.087 | 36.934 | 3.00 | 0.80 |
| Pyrite | FeS_2 | 119.98 | 23.940 | 0 | 1.43 |
| Dolomite | $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ | 184.401 | 64.341 | 0 | 0 |
| Anhydrite | $CaSO_4$ | 136.142 | 45.940 | 0 | 4.00 |
| Siderite | $FeCO_3$ | 115.856 | 146.800 | 0 | 0 |
| Alunite | $KAl_3(OH)_6(SO_4)_2$ | 414.214 | 69.522 | 0 | 0 |
| Ankerite | $CaMg_{0.3}Fe_{0.7}(CO_3)_2$ | 206.48 | 58.520 | 0 | 0 |
| Dawsonite | $NaAlCO_3(OH)_2$ | 143.995 | 28.018 | 0 | 0 |
| Magnesite | $MgCO_3$ | 84.314 | 29.378 | 0 | 0 |
| Smectite-Na | $Na_{0.290}Mg_{0.26}Al_{1.77}Si_{3.97}O_{10}(OH)_2$ | 366.25 | 132.510 | 0 | 0 |
| Hematite | Fe_2O_3 | 159.692 | 30.274 | 0 | 0 |
| Anorthite | $CaAl_2Si_2O_8$ | 278.206 | 100.790 | 0 | 0 |
| Muscovite | $KAl_2(AlSi_3O_{10})(F,OH)_2$ | 398.306 | 140.710 | 0 | 0 |
| Oligoclase | $CaNa_4Al_6Si_{14}O_{40}$ | 1327.094 | 502.480 | 0 | 0 |

9
 10 Before the simulation of reactive transport, a batch geochemical modelling of water-rock
 11 interaction was performed to obtain an aqueous-phase chemical composition similar to the
 12 composition of a typical formation brine. So, synthetic brine formulated by AL-Ameri et al. (2016)
 13 with very little amount of other necessary ions based on the mineral compositions considered in
 14 the simulations was used. The synthetic brine was equilibrated separately for the different
 15 formations and injection conditions considered, in the presence of the primary minerals listed in

1 Table 5. The batch geochemical modelling was conducted for 100 years to obtain a quasi-stable
2 (or nearly steady-state) aqueous solution composition as shown in Table 6.

3 Table 6: Initial chemical composition of the formation water at formation conditions of 40°C and
4 100 bar.

| Component | Concentration (mol/kg H ₂ O) | |
|-------------------------------|---|---------------|
| | Sandstone formation | Shale caprock |
| Ca ²⁺ | 4.7137E-01 | 4.8163E-01 |
| Mg ²⁺ | 1.0038E-01 | 9.7547E-02 |
| Na ⁺ | 2.5868E+00 | 2.6006E+00 |
| K ⁺ | 2.8166E-03 | 3.3113E-03 |
| Fe ²⁺ | 4.9784E-04 | 2.7904E-08 |
| SiO ₂ (aq) | 2.9555E-03 | 1.3991E-03 |
| HCO ₃ ⁻ | 2.1733E-03 | 1.2688E-04 |
| SO ₄ ²⁻ | 3.6425E-03 | 1.7486E-02 |
| AlO ₂ ⁻ | 1.3611E-11 | 6.1835E-11 |
| Cl ⁻ | 3.7245E+00 | 3.7264E+00 |
| pH | 6.1989 | 7.3919 |

5
6 Dissolution and precipitation of minerals are considered under kinetic conditions based on the
7 rate law (Lasaga et al., 1994) expressed as:

$$8 \quad r_n = \pm k_n A_n \left[1 - \left(\frac{Q_n}{K_n} \right)^\theta \right]^\eta \quad (23)$$

9 where k_n is the rate constant (in moles per unit mineral surface area and unit time) which is
10 temperature-dependent, A_n denotes the specific reactive surface area per kilogram H₂O, Q_n is the
11 reaction quotient, K_n is the equilibrium constant for the mineral-water written for the destruction of
12 one mole of mineral n , and η represents kinetic mineral index. The parameters θ and η which are
13 determined by experiments, are more often assumed to equal to one. Positive values of r_n indicate
14 dissolution, while negative values indicate precipitation.

15 A general form of species-dependent rate constants implemented in TOUGHREACT is expressed
16 as:

$$17 \quad k = k_{25}^{nu} \exp \left[\frac{-E_a^{nu}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{298.15} \right) \right] + \sum_i k_{25}^i \exp \left[\frac{-E_a^i}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{298.15} \right) \right] \prod_j a_{ij}^{n_{ij}} \quad (24)$$

1 where superscripts or subscripts i represents the additional mechanism index, and j represents
2 the species index involved in one mechanism that could be primary or secondary species.

3 In this study, calcite and anhydrite are assumed to react with aqueous species at local equilibrium.
4 This is because the reaction rates of calcite and anhydrite are typically quite rapid (Zheng et al.,
5 2009). The kinetic parameters were taken from Xu et al. (2006) and Zhang et al. (2010) and are
6 shown in Table 7.

7 Table 7: List of parameters for calculating the kinetic rate of minerals.

| Mineral name | Initial reactive surface area (cm ² /g) | Neutral mechanism | | Acid mechanism | | | Base mechanism | | |
|--------------|--|--|-----------------------------------|--|-------------------------|---|--|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | | K ₂₅ (mol/m ² s) | E _a (kJ/mol) | K ₂₅ (mol/m ² s) | E _a (kJ/mol) | n(H ⁺) | K ₂₅ (mol/m ² s) | E _a (kJ/mol) | n(H ⁺) |
| Calcite | Assumed in equilibrium | | | | | | | | |
| Anhydrite | Assumed in equilibrium | | | | | | | | |
| Quartz | 9.8 | 1.0233E-14 | 87.7 | | | | | | |
| Kaolinite | 151.63 | 6.9183E-14 | 22.2 | 4.8978E-12 | 65.90 | 0.777 | 8.9125E-18 | 17.90 | -0.472 |
| Illite | 151.63 | 1.6596E-13 | 35.00 | 1.0471E-11 | 23.6 | 0.34 | 3.02E-17 | 58.9 | -0.40 |
| Pyrite | 12.87 | 2.8184E-05 | 56.90 n _{O2(aq)} =0.5 | 3.02E-08 | 56.9 | n _{H+} =-0.5 n _{Fe3+} =0.5 | | | |
| K-feldspar | 9.8 | 3.8905E-13 | 38.0 | 8.7096E-11 | 51.7 | 0.5 | 6.3096E-22 | 94.1 | -0.823 |
| Dolomite | 9.8 | 2.9512E-08 | 52.20 | 6.4565E-04 | 36.1 | 0.5 | | | |
| Siderite | 9.8 | 1.2598E-09 | 62.76 | 6.4565E-04 | 36.1 | 0.5 | | | |
| Ankerite | 9.8 | 1.2598E-09 | 62.76 | 6.4565E-04 | 36.1 | 0.5 | | | |
| Albite | 9.8 | 2.7542E-13 | 69.80 | 6.9183E-11 | 65.0 | 0.457 | 2.5119E-16 | 71.0 | -0.572 |
| Muscovite | 9.8 | 3.160E-13 | 58.6 | | | | | | |
| Hematite | 12.87 | 2.5119E-15 | 66.2 | 4.0738E-10 | 66.2 | 1.0 | | | |
| Chlorite | 9.8 | 3.020E-13 | 88.0 | 7.7624E-12 | 88.0 | 0.5 | | | |
| Oligoclase | 9.8 | 1.4454E-13 | 69.8 | 2.1380E-11 | 65.0 | 0.457 | | | |
| Magnesite | 9.8 | 4.5709E-10 | 23.5 | 4.1687E-07 | 14.4 | 1.0 | | | |
| Dawsonite | 9.8 | 1.2598E-09 | 62.76 | 6.4565E-04 | 36.1 | 0.5 | | | |
| Smectite-Na | 151.63 | 1.6596E-13 | 35.0 | 1.0471E-11 | 23.6 | 0.34 | 3.0200E-17 | 58.9 | -0.40 |
| Smectite-Ca | 151.63 | 1.6596E-13 | 35.0 | 1.0471E-11 | 23.6 | 0.34 | 3.0200E-17 | 58.9 | -0.40 |
| Alunite | 9.8 | 1.0000E-12 | 57.78 | | | | 1.0000E-12 | 7.5 | -1.00 |
| Anorthite | 9.8 | 1.5000E-14 | 18.4 | | | | | | |

8
9 A temperature of 40^oC was used in the reservoir which may represent shallow formation
10 temperature at a depth of about 800 m, given a land surface temperature of 16^oC and a
11 geothermal gradient of 30^oC/km. The temperature in the reservoir and cap rocks are assumed to
12 be initially the same as the rock thickness considered in the simulation is only 40 m. Also, the
13 numerical simulations were conducted under isothermal condition.

14 3.2.2 Simulations

15 Three groups of numerical simulations were performed (as shown in Table 8) to investigate the
16 effect of CO₂ injection or CO₂ co-injection with other gases (H₂S or SO₂) on the petrophysical

1 (porosity and permeability) and geochemical (aqueous composition and mineral
 2 dissolution/precipitation) changes of the rocks, and evaluate the brittleness of the rocks during
 3 the cyclic technique of CO₂ geosequestration.

4 Table 8: Three groups of simulations in this study.

| Simulation groups | Injection scenarios | Formation | Formation salinity |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1 | CO ₂ only | Sandstone and shale | 0.06 |
| 2 | CO ₂ and H ₂ S | Sandstone and shale | 0.06 |
| 3 | CO ₂ and SO ₂ | Sandstone and shale | 0.06 |

6 3.3 Model Validation

7 The numerical simulations performed and the mathematical model adopted for the evaluation of
 8 brittleness index of rocks in this study were validated using experimental data published by
 9 Mavhengere et al. (2022) on the influences of SO₂ contamination in long-term supercritical CO₂
 10 treatment on the physical and structural characteristics of sandstone rock. Mavhengere et al.
 11 (2022) conducted two types of storage experiments on sandstone core samples (Cenomanian
 12 Sandstone, ZG and Siltstone lateral seal Aptian Sandstone, ZC) from Zululand Basin in South
 13 Africa, using pure CO₂ gas (purity of 99.9% by weight); and another case using a mixture of 99%
 14 (weight) CO₂ and 1% (weight) SO₂ gas. Non-stirred Teflon lined N4766 Parr reactors were used
 15 to simulate geosequestration conditions of 17.5 MPa and 346 K for the ZC core samples, and 10
 16 MPa and 316K for the ZG core samples for 2 months. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analyses were
 17 conducted on the samples before and after treatment with CO₂ or CO₂-SO₂ mixture to investigate
 18 any mineral phase alterations. The ZC core sample exhibited mineral phase alteration after
 19 treatment (fluid-rock interaction) similar to the sandstone rock in the present study. Therefore, to
 20 validate the mathematical models adopted in the present study, to evaluate the impact of
 21 contaminant (SO₂) in CO₂ on the brittleness index of sandstone, the mineral phases (weight
 22 fraction) of the ZC core samples (shown in Table 9) were incorporated into existing models that
 23 are based on simple weight fraction of brittle minerals (Jin et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2016; Li, 2022)
 24 and weight fraction considering the relative brittleness of brittle minerals (Kang et al., 2020). In

1 this case, the brittle minerals are quartz, plagioclase (feldspar), calcite, pyrite, and orthoclase
2 (feldspar).

3 Table 9: ZC and ZG core samples XRD results before and after ScCO₂-water and ScCO₂-SO₂-
4 water treatment (Mavhengere et al., 2022).

| Sample | Quartz (wt. %) | Plagioclase (wt. %) | Smectite (wt. %) | Calcite (wt. %) | Pyrite (wt. %) | Stilbite (wt. %) | Diopside (wt. %) | Gypsum (wt. %) | Orthoclase (wt. %) |
|---|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| ZC untreated | 44.1 | 44.7 | 1.0 | 3.5 | 0.4 | 3.6 | 2.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| ZC CO ₂ treated | 47.5 | 42.5 | 2.5 | 1.7 | 0.4 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| ZC CO ₂ -SO ₂ treated | 49.1 | 28.6 | 11.8 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 4.9 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 0.0 |
| ZG untreated | 21.5 | 46.0 | 22.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 8.3 |
| ZG CO ₂ treated | 22.3 | 50.5 | 16.3 | 2.9 | 0.0 | 4.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 3.2 |
| ZG CO ₂ -SO ₂ treated | 26.1 | 53.4 | 12.1 | 2.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 6.2 |

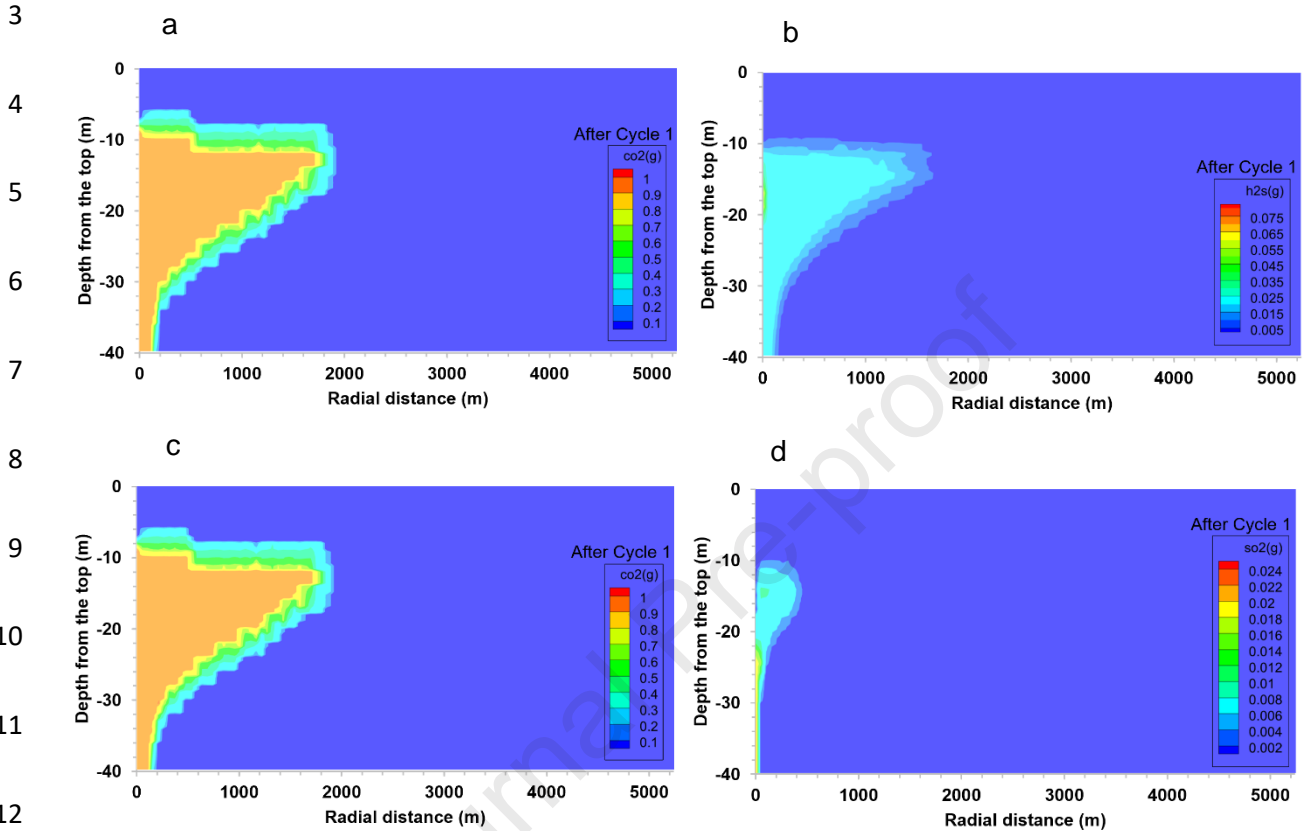
5

6 4. Results and Discussion

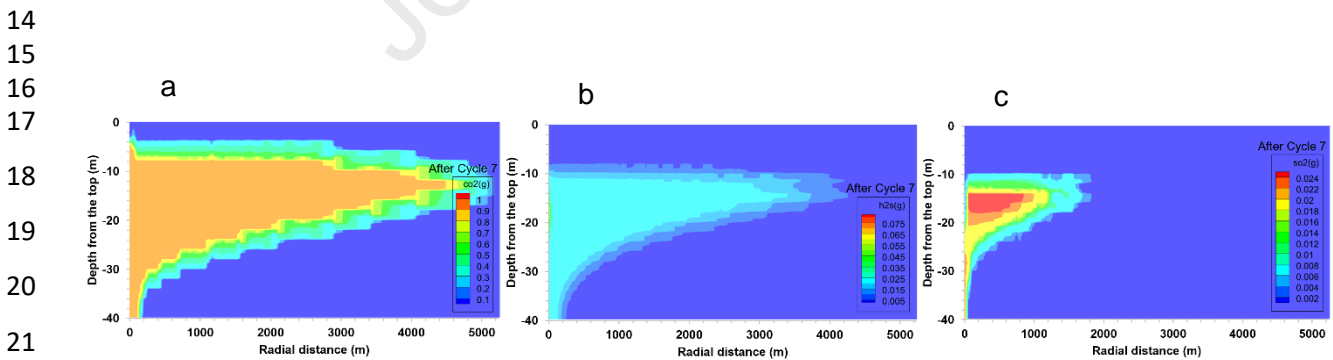
7 4.1 Impact of impurities on porosity, permeability, and geochemical composition of 8 reservoir and cap rocks during CO₂ injection, withdrawal, and storage

9 The supercritical CO₂ fluid (referred to as 'gas' in this study for simplicity) is injected or co-injected
10 with H₂S (or SO₂) near the bottom of the sandstone reservoir and withdrawn near the top of the
11 reservoir, in a cyclic process (in a total of seven cycles). The injected fluid migrates rapidly upward
12 by buoyant forces. After every cycle of injection, a small fraction of CO₂ gas is trapped in the
13 reservoir as residual gas; while the mobile gas continues to migrate into the shale caprock by the
14 action of buoyant forces. At the same time, some amount of the gas continues to dissolve into
15 brine (formation water). Hence, the residual gas slowly disappears at the bottom of the reservoir.
16 After some time, most of the free CO₂ gas accumulates in the shale caprock layers, a few metres
17 from the reservoir-caprock interface, and spreads laterally. The SO₂ gas front is far behind that of
18 CO₂ gas compared to the front of H₂S gas with respect to CO₂ gas as shown in Figure 3. This is
19 because the solubility of SO₂ gas in formation water is higher than that of H₂S and CO₂. This
20 difference in their solubility level can be attributed to their difference in polarity and net dipole
21 moment, as the net dipole moment of SO₂ is closer to that of water molecule, compared to the
22 closeness of the net dipole moment of H₂S to water molecule (López-Rendón and Alejandre,
23 2008; Miri et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2020). However, some amount of H₂S gas and SO₂ gas

1 remain in the reservoir even after the seventh cycle, as they continue to be replenished due to
 2 the cyclic injection process (Figure 4).



13 Figure 3: Gas front of (a) CO_2 in $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{S}$ (b) H_2S (c) CO_2 in $\text{CO}_2\text{-SO}_2$ (d) SO_2 in cyclic process

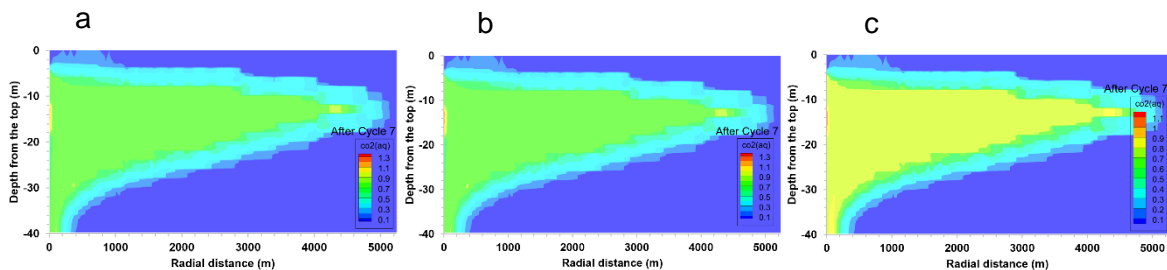


22 Figure 4: (a) CO_2 gas (b) H_2S gas (c) SO_2 gas in the formation after seven cyclic injection-
 23 withdrawal process.

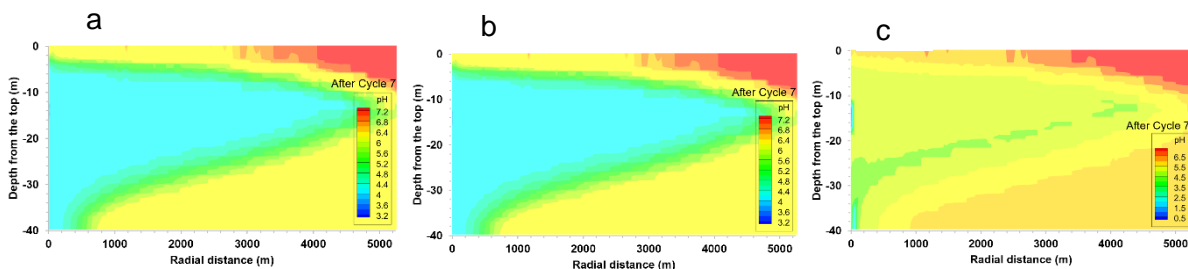
24 Figure 4 shows that H_2S gas hardly penetrated up to 4 m vertical thickness of the shale caprock,
 25 while SO_2 gas only penetrated up to 2 m vertical thickness of the caprock after seven (7) cyclic

1 injection-withdrawal of CO₂ stream. Only CO₂ gas penetrated over 8 m vertical thickness of the
 2 shale caprock during the period of geosequestration.

3 There is no notable difference in the distribution of total dissolved carbon (TDC) for the
 4 geosequestration cases (after seven cyclic injection-withdrawal process of fluid), as the initially
 5 displaced formation water during supercritical fluid injection flows towards the injection-production
 6 well and provides sufficient pressure needed for the gas production. Thus, convective mixing of
 7 the CO₂ with formation water during the withdrawal process might have made the TDC for all the
 8 injection cases similar. It is also possible that some residually trapped CO₂ might have
 9 reconnected with the injected CO₂ in subsequent injection cycles mainly close to the large pore
 10 clusters, as Lysy et al. (2023) observed for hydrogen during cyclic hydrogen (H₂) injections. The
 11 concentration of dissolved CO₂ increased up to 0.9 mol/kg H₂O in the two-phase region due to
 12 the CO₂ gas migration (Figure 5). The dissolution of the injected CO₂ (with or without cases of
 13 H₂S or SO₂ gas co-injection) in the surrounding formation water yields H₂CO₃, HCO₃⁻, and CO₃²⁻,
 14 and decreases pH (increases acidity). The pH profiles of all the injection cases are similar, as
 15 shown in Figure 6. However, for the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case, the pH of the reservoir at and
 16 near the perforations in the production zone is relatively very low compared to the other injection
 17 cases. This could be attributed to severe calcite dissolution in those regions resulting in very low
 18 pH. In other regions of the formations, the pH values are similar for all the injection cases.



23 Figure 5: TDC for (a) CO₂ alone (b) CO₂-H₂S (c) CO₂-SO₂ cases in the formation after seven (7)
 24 cyclic injection-withdrawal process.



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Figure 6: pH for (a) CO₂ alone (b) CO₂-H₂S (c) CO₂-SO₂ cases in the formation after seven (7) cyclic injection-withdrawal process.

The low pH induces the dissolution and precipitation of minerals. Dissolution of the minerals increases concentrations of cations including Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, and Fe²⁺, which then form aqueous complexes with the carbonate ions and further precipitation of minerals (including secondary minerals). Examples of such aqueous complexes are NaHCO₃, CaHCO₃⁺, MgHCO₃⁺, and FeHCO₃⁺; and examples of precipitated secondary minerals are ankerite, dawsonite, siderite, smectite-Na, pyrite, and anhydrite (CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case). As the aqueous complexes are formed, more CO₂ goes into the solution and enhances solubility trapping. However, mineral trapping of CO₂ was not considered in this study as it is a slow process that occurs over hundreds to thousands of years, while the numerical simulations in this study were performed up to a maximum of 87.5 years. So, the CO₂ trapping mechanisms in the present study are structural/stratigraphic trapping (caprock), residual trapping, and solubility trapping.

Minerals such as anhydrite, albite, chlorite, illite, k-feldspar, and kaolinite in the shale formation dissolve in the two-phase region and near the front of the single aqueous-phase zone. The mineral reactions are consistent with the findings in the study conducted (up to 5000 years of sequestration) by Ma et al. (2019). Calcite, albite, chlorite, and k-feldspar in sandstone reservoir dissolve in the two-phase region and near the front of the single aqueous-phase zone. On the other hand, calcite, ankerite, quartz, siderite, smectite-Ca, smectite-Na, and small amounts of hematite and pyrite precipitated in the shale caprock; while illite, kaolinite, quartz, and smectite-Na precipitated in the sandstone reservoir during the cyclic injection and withdrawal of CO₂ (Figures 7 to 10). For the CO₂-H₂S co-injection case, pyrite precipitated in the sandstone reservoir and shale caprock; while for the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case, anhydrite, pyrite, and a small amount

1 of dawsonite precipitated in the shale and sandstone formations. This result is in line with the
2 findings of Zhang et al. (2010), and the precipitation of ankerite and siderite can be attributed to
3 the fact that Fe^{2+} is required and supplied by the dissolution of iron-bearing minerals such as
4 chlorite. Very large amount of calcite dissolved in the $\text{CO}_2\text{-SO}_2$ case compared to the other
5 injection cases. In fact, complete to significant dissolution of calcite mineral was observed at and
6 near the perforations in the production zone for all the injection cases. Thus, erosion of the calcite
7 mineral during CO_2 withdrawal resulted in the deposition of some of the calcite mineral in reservoir
8 layers directly below the perforation interval in the production zone. Consequently, the porosity of
9 those few reservoir layers directly below the perforation interval in the production zone decreased
10 during the CO_2 geosequestration. Moreover, the large amount of calcite dissolution at and near
11 the perforation interval of the production zone resulted in significant precipitation of anhydrite in
12 that region for the $\text{CO}_2\text{-SO}_2$ co-injection case. Changes in the composition (volume fraction of the
13 solid rock) of calcite, anhydrite, and pyrite during the cyclic process of the CO_2 geosequestration
14 are shown in Figure 7.

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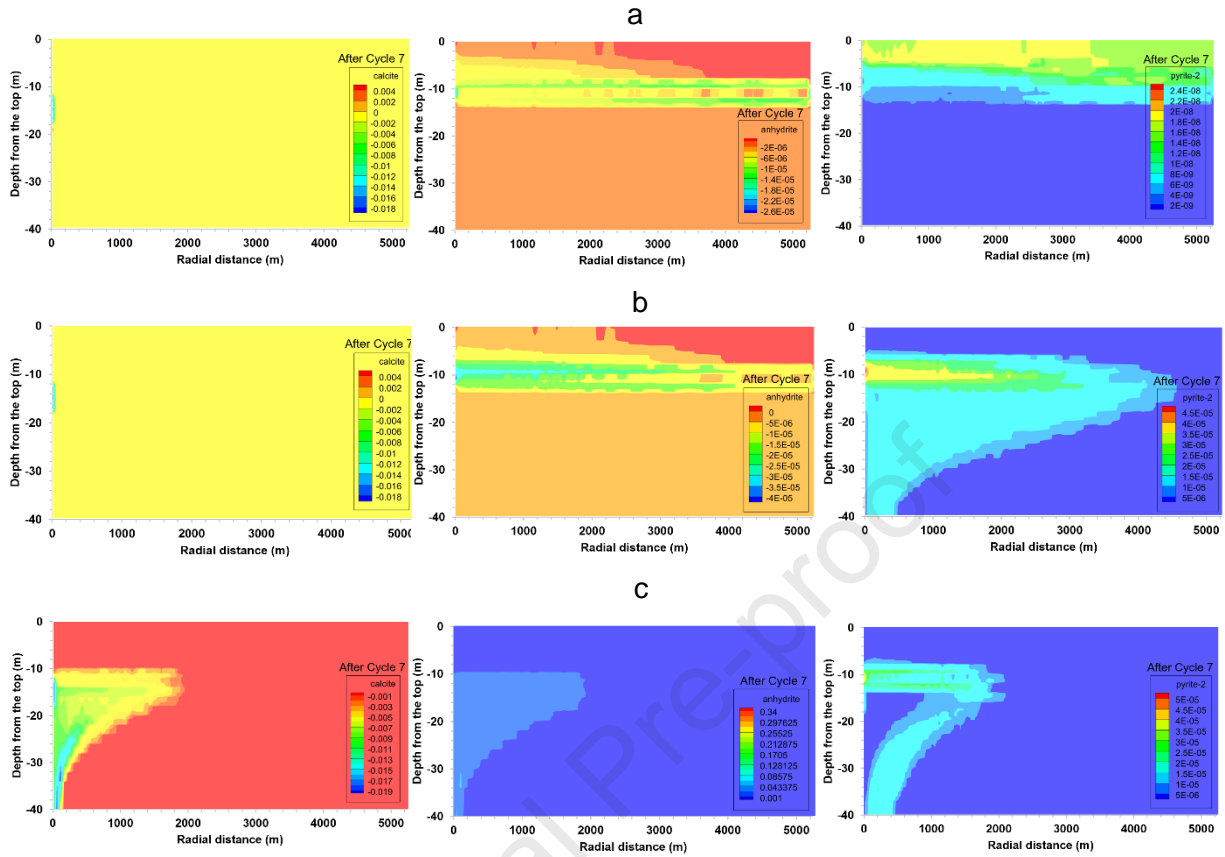
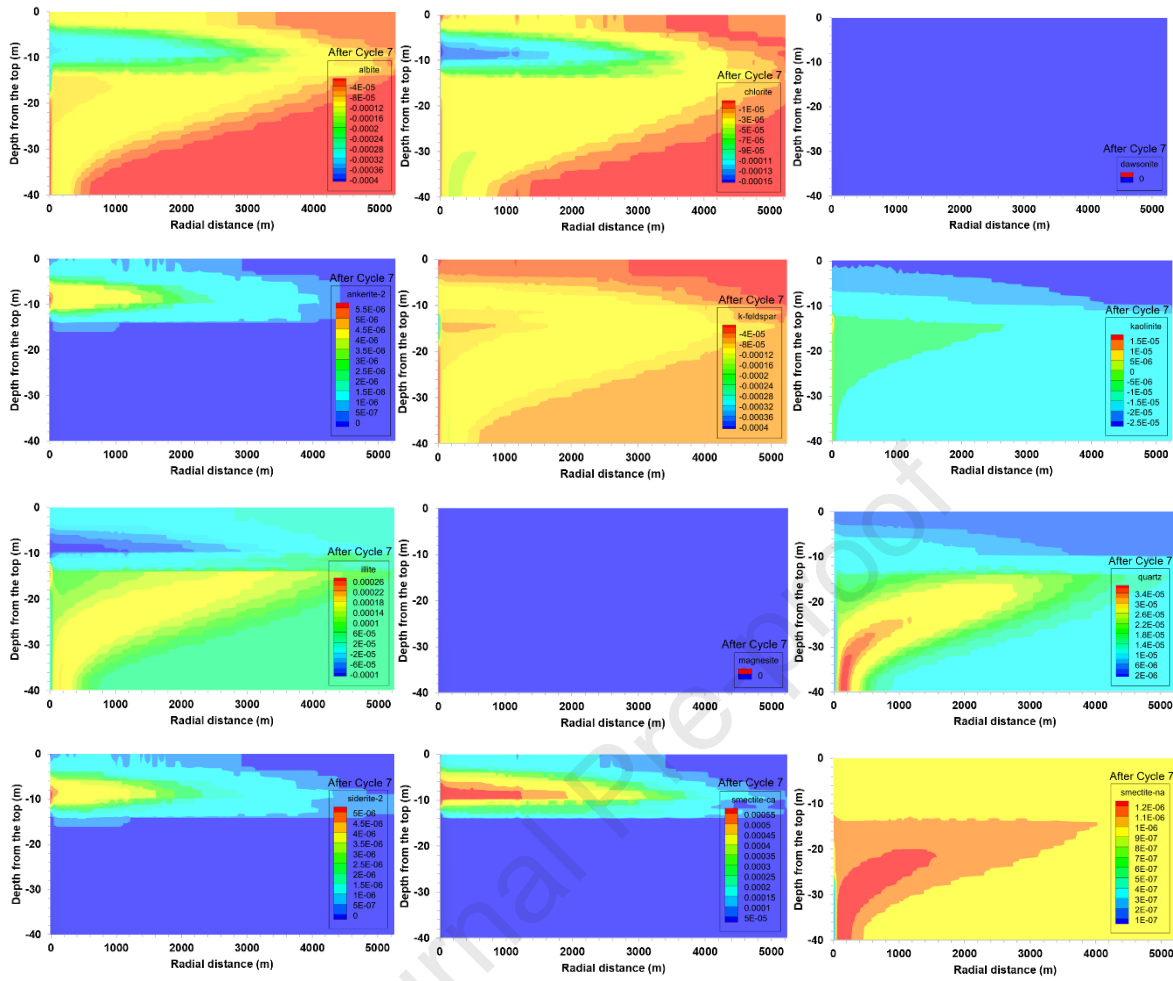


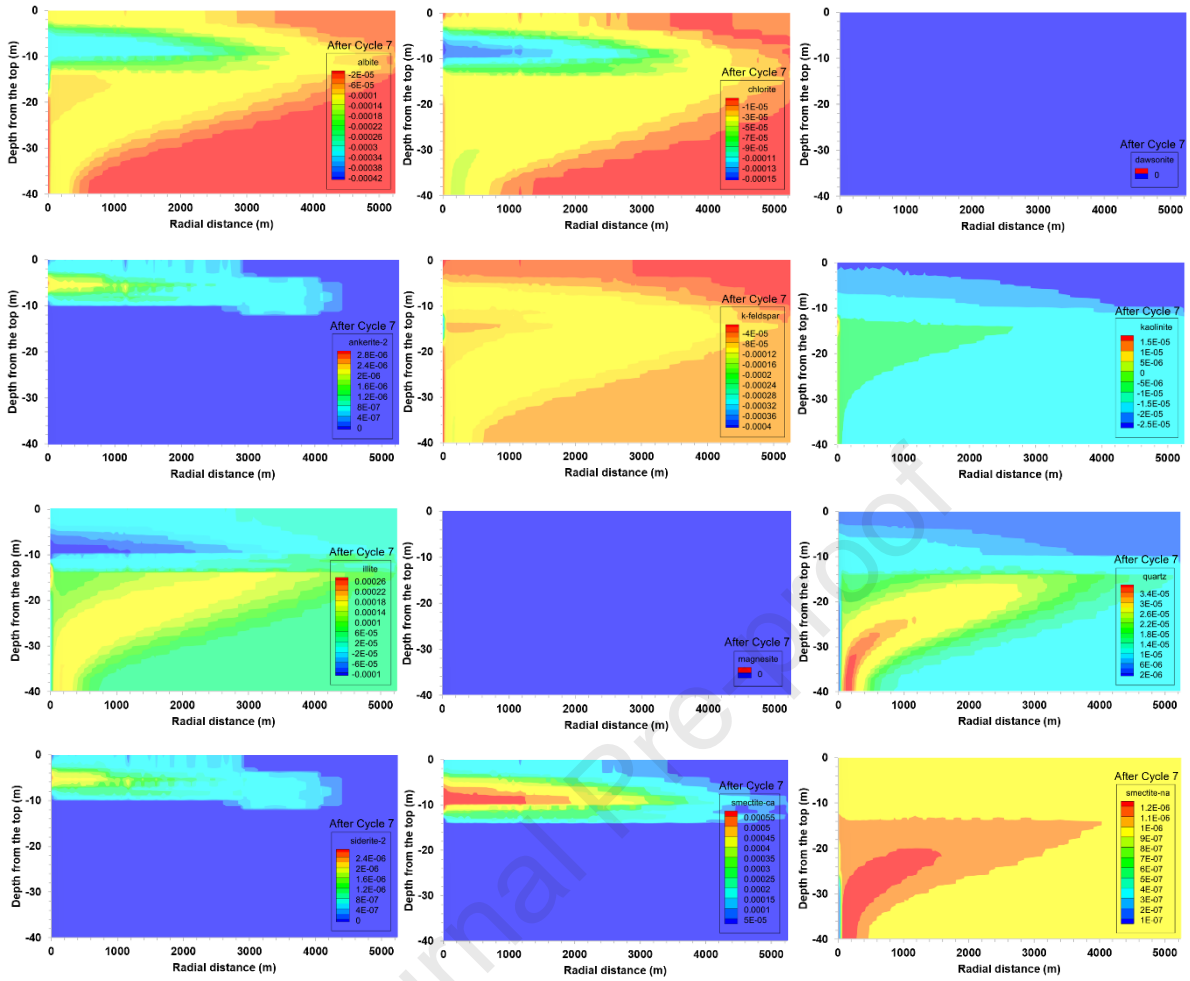
Figure 7: Changes in calcite, anhydrite, and pyrite composition for (a) CO₂ alone (b) CO₂-H₂S (c) CO₂-SO₂ injection cases in the formations after seven (7) cyclic injection-withdrawal process.

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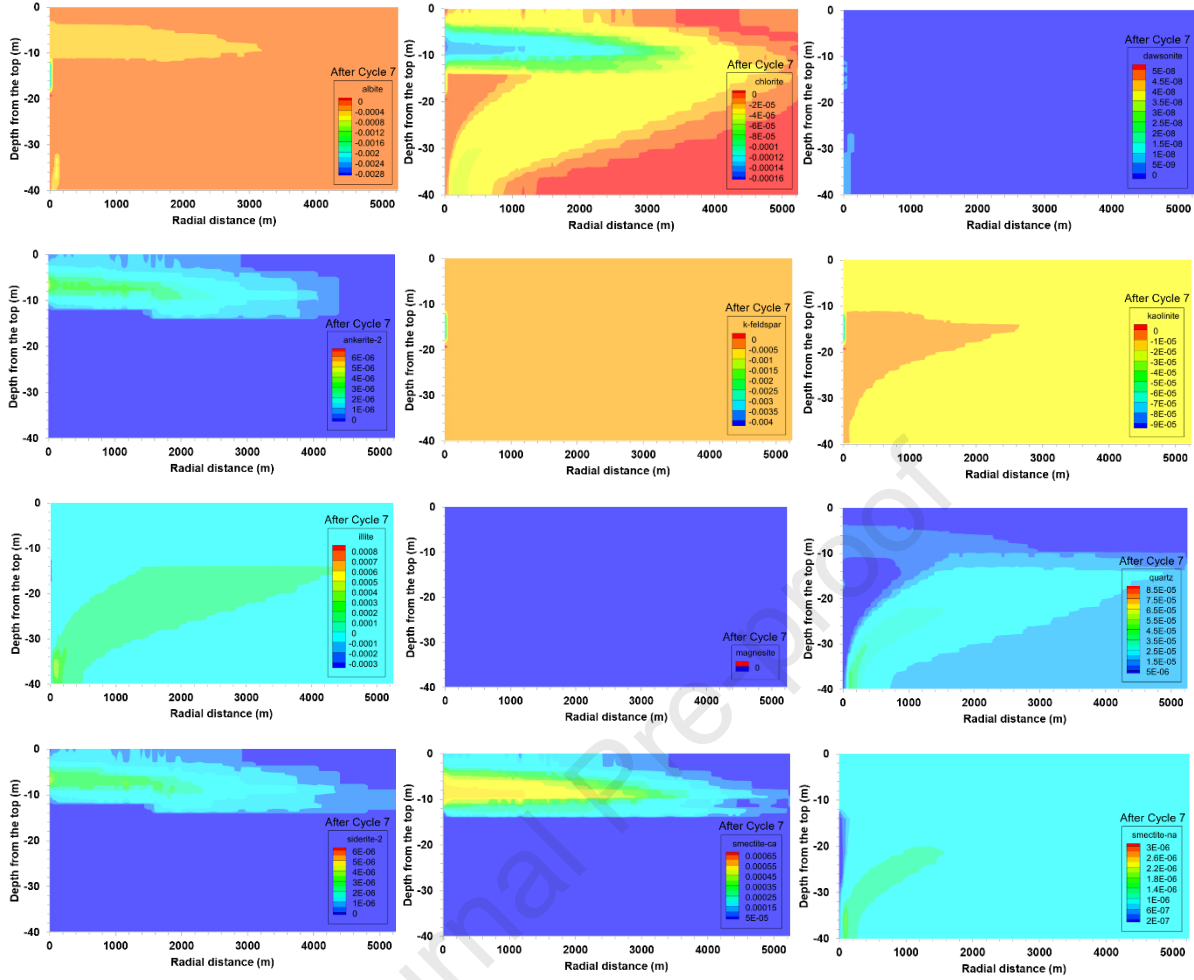
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Figure 8: Mineral dissolution and precipitation in the sandstone reservoir and shale caprock for the CO₂ alone case after seven (7) cycles of injection and withdrawal.



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Figure 9: Mineral dissolution and precipitation in the sandstone reservoir and shale caprock for the CO₂-H₂S case after seven (7) cycles of injection and withdrawal.



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2 Figure 10: Mineral dissolution and precipitation in the sandstone reservoir and shale caprock for
 3 the $\text{CO}_2\text{-SO}_2$ case after seven (7) cycles of injection and withdrawal.

4 Changes in porosity are calculated from variations in the volume fraction of the minerals, while
 5 the permeability ratios are calculated by the changes in the porosity using the Kozeny-Carman
 6 relation. In the two-phase region, due to dominant mineral dissolution caused by low pH, porosity
 7 increases slightly in the shale and sandstone rocks, in the cases of CO_2 alone and $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{S}$ co-
 8 injection, while in the case of $\text{CO}_2\text{-SO}_2$ co-injection, porosity increases in most part of the shale
 9 rock (except in the layer contacted by SO_2 and where anhydrite precipitated) and decreases in
 10 the sandstone reservoir due to anhydrite precipitation.

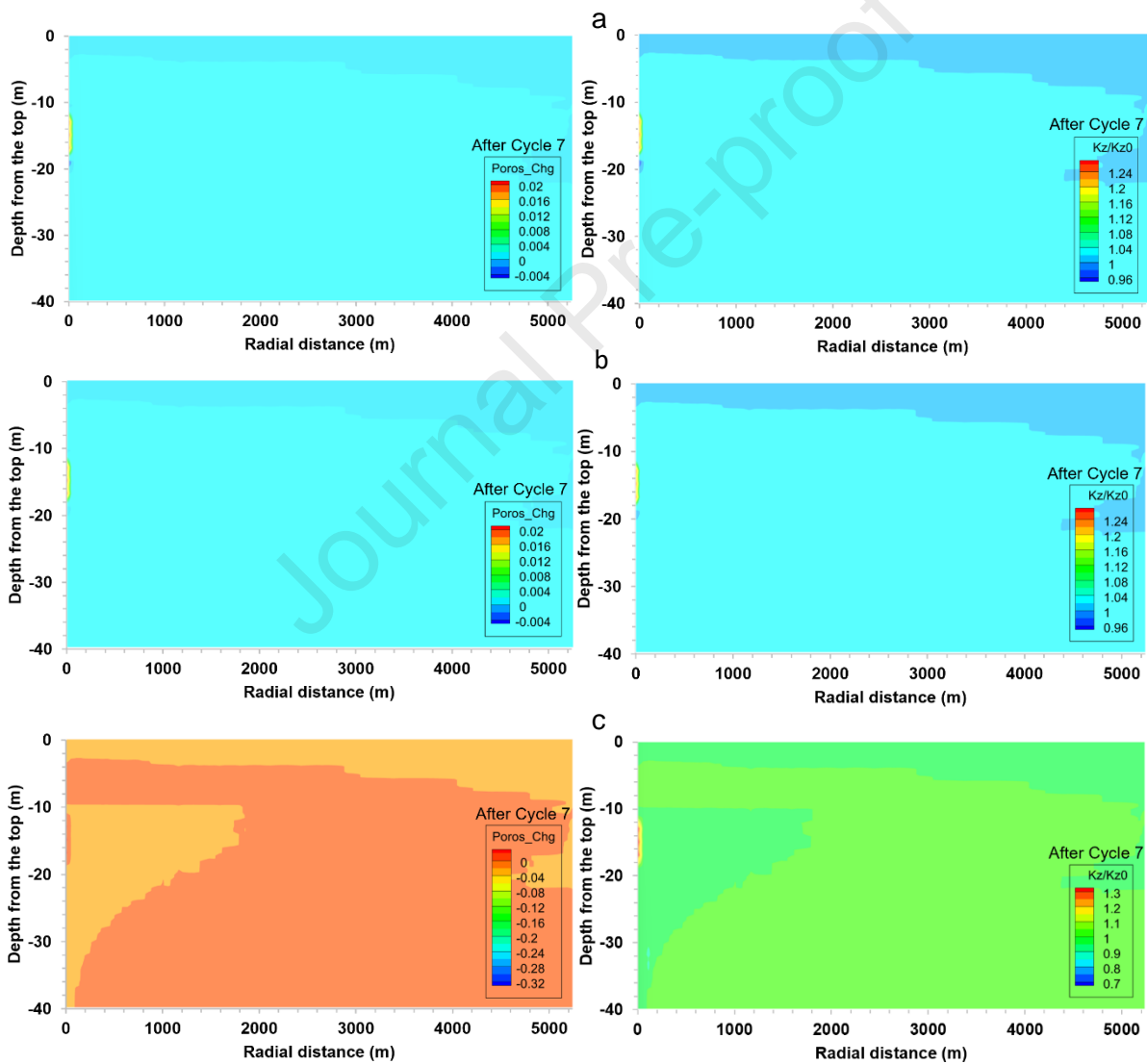
11 For the $\text{CO}_2\text{-SO}_2$ co-injection case, at the perforations in the production zone, the reservoir
 12 porosity increased and it is between 0.36120 and 0.36672, while in every other region where SO_2

1 dissolved in water, porosity decreased (the lowest porosity observed is 0.32496). Beyond the
2 regions contacted by SO_2 (mainly dissolved CO_2), porosity increased up to 0.34891 (the
3 corresponding permeability increase is 11.05%). In the shale caprock, porosity decreased in the
4 layer contacted by SO_2 (about 2 m vertical thickness); in other areas of the caprock contacted
5 mainly by CO_2 , porosity increased slightly. For the CO_2 - H_2S co-injection case, at the perforations
6 in the production zone, porosity increased and it is between 0.36018 and 0.36031. From the lower
7 perforation layer at the perforation zone down to 2-6 m vertical thickness and up to about 7 m
8 lateral distance in the reservoir, porosity decreased. This decrease in porosity can be attributed
9 to the deposition of fines or minerals due to the erosion of some minerals or rock materials in the
10 production zone during CO_2 gas withdrawal from the perforation interval. This result is in line with
11 the submission of Saeedi et al. (2011) that rocks susceptible to formation damage (including fines
12 migration) may experience reduced injectivity during cyclic CO_2 -brine injection, even though the
13 level of damage would stabilize after several cycles of injection. However, porosity increased in
14 other areas contacted by CO_2 . For the CO_2 alone case, at the perforations in the production zone,
15 porosity increased and it is between 0.36019 and 0.36032. From the lower perforation layer at
16 the perforation zone down to 2-6 m vertical thickness and up to about 9m lateral distance in the
17 reservoir, porosity decreased, while porosity increased in other areas contacted by CO_2 . In all the
18 injection cases, the porosity and permeability of the shale caprock decreased slightly in the
19 regions that were not contacted by any of the gases. The porosity and corresponding changes in
20 the permeability of the formations are shown in Table 10 and Figure 11.

1 Table 10: Porosity and permeability ratio of the formations after seven (7) cycles of CO₂
 2 injection and withdrawal.

| Formation type | Petrophysics | After Cycle 7 | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ |
| Shale caprock | Porosity | 0.06998-0.07013 | 0.06998-0.07015 | 0.06979-0.07009 |
| | Permeability ratio | 0.99904-1.00590 | 0.99903-1.00660 | 0.99078-1.00400 |
| Sandstone reservoir | Porosity | 0.33470-0.36032 | 0.33475-0.36031 | 0.32496-0.36672 |
| | Permeability ratio | 0.93881-1.26700 | 0.93943-1.26680 | 0.83462-1.36290 |

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4 Figure 11: Porosity changes and permeability ratios for (a) CO₂ alone (b) CO₂-H₂S (c) CO₂-SO₂
 5 injection cases in the formations after seven (7) cyclic injection-withdrawal processes.

1 After seven (7) cycles of CO₂ injection and withdrawal, for the CO₂ alone case, the maximum
2 increase in porosity is 0.19% and 5.98% (corresponding to permeability increase of 0.59% and
3 26.70%) in the shale caprock and sandstone reservoir, respectively; while the maximum decrease
4 in porosity is 0.03% and 1.56% (corresponding to permeability decrease of 0.10% and 6.12%) in
5 the caprock and reservoir, respectively (Table 11). Similarly, for the CO₂-H₂S co-injection case,
6 the maximum increase in porosity is 0.21% and 5.97% (corresponding to permeability increase
7 of 0.66% and 26.68%) in the shale caprock and sandstone reservoir, respectively; while the
8 maximum decrease in porosity is 0.03% and 1.54% (corresponding to permeability decrease of
9 0.10% and 6.06%) in the caprock and reservoir, respectively. In the case of CO₂-SO₂ co-injection,
10 the maximum increase in porosity is 0.13% and 7.86% (corresponding to permeability increase
11 of 0.40% and 36.29%) in the shale caprock and sandstone reservoir, respectively; while the
12 maximum decrease in porosity is 0.3% and 4.42% (corresponding to permeability decrease of
13 0.92% and 16.54%) in the caprock and reservoir, respectively. For the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case,
14 the significant increase in porosity and permeability at the perforations in the production zone can
15 be attributed to the severe dissolution of calcite, albite, chlorite, k-feldspar, and kaolinite minerals
16 in that region, while the significant decrease in porosity and permeability in other regions of the
17 sandstone reservoir contacted by SO₂ can be attributed mainly to the precipitation of anhydrite.
18 These results are consistent with the results of some scholars (Bolourinejad and Herber, 2014;
19 Pearce et al., 2016; Aminu et al., 2018), although they investigated the non-cyclic technique of
20 CO₂ geosequestration. However, in the studies conducted by Bolourinejad and Herber (2014) and
21 Aminu et al. (2018), porosity and permeability decreased in the reservoir during CO₂-H₂S co-
22 injection. This result is different in the present study, as only a small amount of pyrite precipitated
23 due to the low concentration of Fe²⁺ in the formation.

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1 Table 11: Changes in porosity and permeability of the formations after seven (7) cycles of CO₂
 2 injection and withdrawal.

| Formation type | Petrophysics | After Cycle 7 | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ |
| Shale caprock | Percentage change in porosity | -0.03 - 0.19 | -0.03 - 0.21 | -0.30 - 0.13 |
| | Percentage change in permeability | -0.10 - 0.59 | -0.10 - 0.66 | -0.92 - 0.40 |
| Sandstone reservoir | Percentage change in porosity | -1.56 - 5.98 | -1.54 - 5.97 | -4.42 - 7.86 |
| | Percentage change in permeability | -6.12 - 26.70 | -6.06 - 26.68 | -16.54 - 36.29 |

3 **4.2 Impact of impurities on the brittleness index of the sandstone reservoir and shale**
 4 **caprock during CO₂ geosequestration**

5 The brittleness of sandstone and shale formations was evaluated at temperature and pressure
 6 conditions of 40°C and 100 bar, respectively. The brittleness index of the rocks, considering the
 7 relative level of brittleness of brittle minerals as well as the simple sum of the fraction of brittle
 8 minerals is presented in Table 12 and Table 13. Table 12 shows the brittleness index of the rocks
 9 where the same molar volume of minerals are assumed to simplify the mineralogical brittleness
 10 index equations (equivalent to brittleness index without incorporating molar volume of minerals),
 11 while Table 13 shows the brittleness index of the rocks where the molar volumes of each mineral
 12 that makes up the rock are substituted in the mineralogical brittleness index equations (equivalent
 13 to brittleness index incorporating molar volume of minerals). So, Table 12 and Table 13 show that
 14 the initial brittleness index of the sandstone reservoir is significantly higher than that of the shale
 15 caprock. The relatively higher brittleness of sandstone formation before CO₂ sequestration is due
 16 to the high amount of the initial quartz and feldspar minerals, and some amount of calcite.

17 During CO₂ geosequestration, supercritical CO₂ (with or without impurities) was injected and
 18 withdrawn in cycles (up to seven cycles) for 87.5 years. SO₂ (or H₂S) gas hardly contacted the
 19 shale caprock up to 2-4 m vertical thickness from the reservoir (very low mole fraction, as higher
 20 concentration of SO₂ or H₂S is in the reservoir due to preferential dissolution of SO₂ (or H₂S) gas
 21 in the formation water. Thus, the brittleness of the shale caprock is largely dependent on the

1 reaction of CO₂ with the rock minerals. Hence, the brittleness of the shale caprock for all the
 2 injection cases decreased slightly during the period of CO₂ geosequestration.

3 Table 12: Brittleness index of the formations before and after the first and seventh cycles of CO₂
 4 injection and withdrawal (eliminating molar volume).

| Formation type | Brittleness index | Before sequestration, t=0 | | | After cycle 1 | | | After cycle 7 | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ |
| Shale caprock | BI _{bm} | 0.0377 | 0.0377 | 0.0377 | 0.0377 | 0.0377 | 0.0376-0.0377 | 0.0375-0.0377 | 0.0375-0.0377 | 0.0373-0.0377 |
| | BI _{min} | 0.0674 | 0.0674 | 0.0674 | 0.0673-0.0674 | 0.0673-0.0674 | 0.0673-0.0674 | 0.0671-0.0674 | 0.0671-0.0674 | 0.0666-0.0674 |
| Sandstone Reservoir | BI _{bm} | 0.4593 | 0.4593 | 0.4593 | 0.4585-0.4594 | 0.4585-0.4594 | 0.3457-0.4593 | 0.4582-0.4594 | 0.4582-0.4594 | 0.4433-0.4593 |
| | BI _{min} | 0.8642 | 0.8642 | 0.8642 | 0.8622-0.8644 | 0.8622-0.8644 | 0.6499-0.8642 | 0.8616-0.8645 | 0.8615-0.8645 | 0.8334-0.8642 |

5
 6 Applying the brittleness index equations developed in the present study (and assuming all the
 7 minerals have the same molar volume and eliminating the molar volume parameter), the initial
 8 brittleness index (considering the relative level of brittleness of brittle minerals, BI_{bm}) of the shale
 9 caprock is 0.0377 (corresponding to brittleness index of 0.0674 using the simple sum of the
 10 fraction of brittle minerals, BI_{min}), while the initial brittleness index (BI_{bm}) of the sandstone reservoir
 11 is 0.4593 (BI_{min} = 0.8642).

12 In this study, the brittleness index of the rocks was evaluated mainly by considering the relative
 13 level of brittleness of brittle minerals, using BI_{bm}. For the CO₂ alone and CO₂-H₂S co-injection
 14 cases, after the first cycle of gas injection and withdrawal, the brittleness index of the shale
 15 caprock remained 0.0377 (BI_{min} = 0.0673-0.0674). At the perforations in the production zone, the
 16 brittleness index (BI_{bm}) decreased from 0.4593 to 0.4585, representing a slight change in the
 17 brittleness index. A slight increase in brittleness index from 0.4593 to 0.4594 was observed at the
 18 vertical distance up to about 0-2 m reservoir thickness below the lower production perforation
 19 layer and less than 2 m lateral distance. The slight increase in the brittleness index might be
 20 attributed to the high amount of calcite dissolution close to the production perforations due to

1 severe erosion of the calcite mineral as CO_2 is produced in the production zone. Hence, some
2 fraction of the calcite (brittle mineral) is deposited at the layers slightly below the production zone.
3 In the CO_2 - SO_2 co-injection case, after the first cycle of gas injection and withdrawal, the
4 brittleness index of the shale caprock decreased slightly to about 0.0376 at the caprock layer
5 contacted by SO_2 . At the top two production perforations the brittleness index of the reservoir is
6 0.4586 and at the lowest production perforation the brittleness index is 0.3457, corresponding to
7 significantly low porosity as all calcite minerals dissolved and precipitated large amount of
8 anhydrite in that region as that region of the perforation interval has dissolved SO_2 ; while notable
9 decrease in brittleness index down to 0.4499 was observed in other areas of the reservoir
10 contacted by SO_2 . However, at the perforations and regions in the reservoir [vertically and
11 horizontally] close to the well perforations, the brittleness index might not be accurate for all the
12 cycles of fluid injection and withdrawal, as the dissolved minerals in those regions or minerals that
13 are deposited below the perforation interval close to the well are mainly unconsolidated materials
14 (wellbore instability and fines deposition). Therefore, brittleness index evaluation based on the
15 mineralogical composition from the numerical simulation would be more accurate farther away
16 from the perforations (vertically and horizontally).

17 In the CO_2 alone and CO_2 - H_2S co-injection cases, after the seventh cycle of gas injection and
18 withdrawal, the brittleness index of the shale caprock decreased to about 0.0375. At the
19 perforations in the production zone, the brittleness index is between 0.4582 and 0.4584,
20 representing a negligible change in brittleness index after 75 years of CO_2 geosequestration (from
21 the end of the first gas injection-withdrawal cycle). A slight increase in brittleness index up to
22 0.4594 (the same after the first cycle) was observed at the vertical distance up to about 0-4 m
23 reservoir thickness and less than 2 m lateral distance below the lower production perforation layer.
24 In the CO_2 - SO_2 co-injection case, after the seventh cycle of gas injection and withdrawal, the
25 brittleness index of the shale caprock decreased to about 0.0373 at the caprock layer contacted

1 by SO₂. At the production perforations, the brittleness index of the reservoir is 0.4588 (slightly
 2 higher than the first cycle), representing a negligible change in the brittleness index. However, a
 3 significant decrease in the brittleness index to about 0.4433 was observed in other areas of the
 4 reservoir contacted by SO₂.

5 Table 13 shows that incorporating the different molar volumes corresponding to each mineral in
 6 the rock (which converts the volume fraction of the minerals to the actual weight fraction of the
 7 minerals and is expected to be more accurate for estimating the brittleness index of rocks if the
 8 actual molar volumes of the minerals are incorporated) gives a higher brittleness index compared
 9 to when the molar volume parameter is eliminated from the brittleness index equation.

10 Table 13: Brittleness index of the formations before and after the first and seventh cycles of CO₂
 11 injection and withdrawal (with molar volume).

| Formation type | Brittleness index | Before sequestration, t=0 | | | After cycle 1 | | | After cycle 7 | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ |
| Shale caprock | BI _{bm} | 0.1073 | 0.1073 | 0.1073 | 0.1072-0.1073 | 0.1072-0.1073 | 0.1071-0.1073 | 0.1071-0.1073 | 0.1071-0.1073 | 0.1063-0.1073 |
| | BI _{min} | 0.1653 | 0.1653 | 0.1653 | 0.1651-0.1653 | 0.1651-0.1653 | 0.1649-0.1653 | 0.1649-0.1652 | 0.1649-0.1652 | 0.1633-0.1652 |
| Sandstone Reservoir | BI _{bm} | 0.5892 | 0.5892 | 0.5892 | 0.5887-0.5917 | 0.5887-0.5917 | 0.3672-0.5919 | 0.5885-0.5917 | 0.5885-0.5917 | 0.5575-0.5933 |
| | BI _{min} | 0.9307 | 0.9307 | 0.9307 | 0.9310-0.9285 | 0.9311-0.9285 | 0.5760-0.9307 | 0.9312-0.9280 | 0.9312-0.9280 | 0.8749-0.9307 |

12
 13 Applying the brittleness index equations developed in the present study (and incorporating the
 14 different molar volume corresponding to each mineral in the rock), the initial brittleness index
 15 (considering the relative level of brittleness of brittle minerals, BI_{bm}) of the shale caprock is 0.1073
 16 (corresponding to brittleness index of 0.1653 using the simple sum of the fraction of brittle
 17 minerals, BI_{min}), while the initial brittleness index (BI_{bm}) of the sandstone reservoir is 0.5892 (BI_{min}
 18 =0.9307). The change in brittleness index in the shale caprock is similar to what is observed when
 19 the molar volume parameter is eliminated from the equation. After seven cycles of CO₂ injection
 20 and withdrawal, the brittleness index decreased to about 0.1071 (BI_{min} = 0.1649) for the CO₂ alone

1 and CO₂-H₂S cases and decreased to about 0.1063 ($BI_{\min} = 0.1633$) for the CO₂-SO₂ case. The
2 percentage decrease in brittleness index (BI_{bm}) in the sandstone reservoir and shale caprock after
3 seven cycles of injection and withdrawal for the CO₂-SO₂ case is 5.38% and 0.93%, respectively.
4 The change in the brittleness index of the shale caprock, as well as the change in its porosity and
5 permeability, during CO₂ geosequestration is negligible for all the cases considered. Therefore,
6 the integrity of the caprock is maintained during cyclic CO₂ geosequestration. Overall, the
7 decrease in brittleness of the shale caprock is consistent with the results of Lyu et al. (2018),
8 although they adopted a non-cyclic technique of CO₂ sequestration. Lyu et al. (2018) applied the
9 energy-balance method together with the Weibull distribution-based constitutive model to
10 calculate the brittleness values of shale rock samples with or without [CO₂-brine] soaking
11 conditions. They found that CO₂-brine-shale rock interactions decrease the brittleness values of
12 the shale rock as well as its peak axial strength and Young's modulus.

13 Furthermore, the change in brittleness index in the sandstone reservoir is similar to what is
14 observed when the molar volume parameter is eliminated from the equation, except at the
15 perforations and regions in the reservoir [vertically and horizontally] close to the well perforations
16 where the brittleness index by the simple sum of the fraction of brittle minerals did not correspond
17 to the brittleness index by the relative level of brittleness of brittle minerals. For all the
18 geosequestration cases (with or without impurities), BI_{\min} decreased at the perforations, while BI_{bm}
19 increased at the perforations. For the CO₂ alone and CO₂-H₂S cases, in the regions where it
20 appears that minerals are deposited or precipitated minerals are unconsolidated (a few layers
21 below the perforation interval and close to the well), BI_{\min} increased, while BI_{bm} decreased, except
22 for the CO₂-SO₂ case where both BI_{\min} and BI_{bm} decreased mainly due to anhydrite precipitation.
23 So, mineralogical brittleness index models might not be accurate at the perforations and regions
24 in the reservoir [vertically and horizontally] close to the well perforations. Therefore, XRD analysis
25 and mechanical tests on the change in the mineralogical and geomechanical properties of

1 sandstone rock samples and their fracture behaviour upon treatment with pure CO₂ or CO₂
2 mixture would be required to evaluate the correlation between the mineralogical brittleness index
3 and mechanical brittleness index of the rock samples.

4 To quantify the reliable change between the brittleness index of rocks for the CO₂ alone and CO₂-
5 SO₂ co-injection cases, the reliable change index was computed using brittleness index results
6 (assuming all the minerals have the same molar volume and eliminating the molar volume
7 parameter) from the CO₂ alone and CO₂-SO₂ co-injection cases at 87.5 years. The first column
8 contains the brittleness index for the CO₂ alone case, while the second column contains the
9 brittleness index of rocks for the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case (a total of 1120 rows or observations).
10 The Pearson's correlation coefficient (reliability coefficient, r) is 0.999747 (representing excellent
11 reliability of the brittleness index), and the calculated standard deviation (σ) of the distribution of
12 the brittleness index for the CO₂ alone case is 0.220965. Therefore, the reliable change index
13 (with 95% confidence) is 0.009745. Hence, the absolute change in brittleness index between the
14 CO₂ alone case and the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case greater than 0.009745 is considered
15 significant. Therefore, in the present study, the change in the brittleness index of the sandstone
16 reservoir for the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case is significant.

17 The brittleness index calculated in this study based on the results from the numerical simulation
18 for the CO₂ alone and CO₂-SO₂ co-injection cases were validated using an existing brittleness
19 index model (BI_{BMod}) that utilizes the weight fraction of brittle minerals and considers relative bulk
20 modulus of brittle minerals (Kang et al., 2020), and brittleness index model (BI₄) that considers
21 the simple sum of weight fraction of brittle minerals, using the experimental data published by
22 Mavhengere et al. (2022). The estimated brittleness index using the existing models is shown in
23 Table 14. The existing models applied to the experimental data and the model adopted in the
24 present study (based on the molecular weight, molar volume, and volume fraction of minerals)
25 account for the significant change in the brittleness of the sandstone reservoir when SO₂ is co-

1 injected with CO₂. With pure CO₂, the change in the brittleness index of both ZC and ZG is
 2 negligible but changes significantly with the CO₂-SO₂ mixture.

3 Table 14: Brittleness index of ZC and ZG rock samples.

| Sample | BI ₄ | BI _{BMod} |
|---|-----------------|--------------------|
| ZC untreated | 0.93 | 0.68 |
| ZC CO ₂ treated | 0.92 | 0.69 |
| ZC CO ₂ -SO ₂ treated | 0.79 | 0.63 |
| ZG untreated | 0.76 | 0.52 |
| ZG CO ₂ treated | 0.79 | 0.52 |
| ZG CO ₂ -SO ₂ treated | 0.88 | 0.60 |

4 The alteration in the mineral phases of the ZC rock sample is similar to the sandstone reservoir
 5 in the present study, as the CO₂-SO₂ mixture resulted in a decrease in brittleness index of the
 6 rock; therefore, ZC sandstone was used to validate the mathematical model in the present study.
 7 Unlike ZC, for ZG, smectite (clay mineral) and stilbite dissolution were observed, while plagioclase
 8 and calcite precipitated, thereby inhibiting the precipitation of gypsum and increasing the
 9 brittleness index in the CO₂-SO₂ mixture case. The difference in the chemical reaction in the ZC
 10 and ZG sandstones is due to their mineralogical composition. For example, the ZG rock sample
 11 does not have calcite, pyrite, and diopside as primary minerals; whereas those are some of the
 12 primary minerals in ZC rock sample. Hence, only gypsum precipitated as a secondary mineral in
 13 ZC rock sample, while calcite precipitated as a secondary mineral in the ZG rock sample.
 14 Therefore, the impact of contaminants on the brittleness index of rocks depends on their (rocks')
 15 mineralogical composition. Furthermore, although the samples (sandstone samples from
 16 Zululand Basin) were held in the reactors in the CO₂ and gas mixture only for 2 months, this
 17 analysis confirms that the change in the brittleness index of rocks during the storage of pure CO₂
 18 is negligible compared to how much CO₂-SO₂ mixture alters the brittleness of rocks.

19 However, sufficient laboratory experiments would be required to treat sandstone rock samples
 20 with CO₂-brine or CO₂-brine with gas impurities, followed by detailed XRD analyses and
 21 mechanical tests of the samples, to ascertain the change in their mineralogical and

1 geomechanical properties as well as the change in their fracture behaviour. These experiments
2 and tests could also be extended to different shale and carbonate rocks.

3 **5. Conclusions and Recommendations**

4 **5.1 Conclusions**

5 In this study, a 2-D reactive transport model was developed for a cyclic approach of CO₂
6 geosequestration in a sandstone reservoir overlain by shale caprock. Furthermore, mathematical
7 models were applied to evaluate the mineralogical brittleness index of the formations before and
8 after CO₂ sequestration (with or without SO₂ or H₂S). Based on the key findings in this study, the
9 conclusions are summarized as follows:

- 10 1. The preferential dissolution of SO₂ or H₂S gas into formation water (compared with CO₂ gas)
11 leads to the delayed breakthrough of SO₂ or H₂S gas, and the separation between CO₂ and
12 SO₂/H₂S gases at the moving front. In both co-injection cases, more SO₂/H₂S contains in the
13 interior of the gas plume (during the CO₂ co-injection period, the mole fraction of SO₂/H₂S gas
14 diminishes gradually from the injection well or perforation interval, laterally and upward as the
15 CO₂ gas moves).
- 16 2. The total dissolved carbon (TDC) for all the geosequestration cases is nearly the same. This
17 could be attributed to the convective mixing of the CO₂ (with or without H₂S/SO₂) with the
18 formation water during the gas (supercritical fluid) withdrawal process, as additional pressure
19 to produce the gas through the perforations in the production zone comes from the formation
20 water. Thus, residually trapped CO₂ might have reconnected with the injected CO₂ in
21 subsequent injection cycles, and water in rock pores containing dissolved H₂S or SO₂ might
22 be flooded with water from different zones in the reservoir, enabling more CO₂ to be dissolved
23 and resulting in a similar TDC for all the injection cases.
- 24 3. In all the injection cases, the porosity and permeability of the reservoir at the perforations in
25 the production zone increased due to the severe dissolution of calcite and dissolution of some

1 of the primary minerals, creating more flow paths for the gas production. The porosity and
2 permeability of the sandstone reservoir decreased in a few layers (and a small lateral distance
3 in the reservoir) directly below the perforation interval in the production zone for all the injection
4 cases. This decrease in porosity and permeability could be attributed to the deposition of
5 dissolved (or eroded) minerals (especially calcite) or fines from the production zone in those
6 layers. In other regions in the reservoir, the porosity and permeability increased for the CO₂
7 alone and CO₂-H₂S co-injection cases and decreased for the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case.

8 4. The brittleness index of the sandstone reservoir and shale caprock decreased for all the
9 injection cases, except at the perforations and regions in the reservoir [vertically and
10 horizontally] close to the well perforations where the brittleness index models cannot account
11 for accurately as the minerals in that region might constitute unconsolidated materials. A
12 significant change (or decrease) in the brittleness index of the formations was observed only
13 in the CO₂-SO₂ co-injection case due to a significant amount of anhydrite precipitation. The
14 change in brittleness index in the formations for the CO₂ alone and CO₂-H₂S co-injection cases
15 is negligible. Also, the change in brittleness index of the shale caprock, as well as its change
16 in porosity and permeability during the cyclic CO₂ geosequestration is negligible. Therefore,
17 the integrity of the caprock is maintained during CO₂ geosequestration (with or without the
18 addition of small amount of H₂S or SO₂).

19 **5.2 Recommendations for future study**

20 1. Future studies should consider performing experiments to determine changes in the
21 mechanical strengths (compressive and tensile strengths) and fracture behaviour of rocks
22 subjected to cyclic injection and withdrawal, and their corresponding changes in the
23 mechanical brittleness index of the rocks during CO₂ co-injection with H₂S or SO₂ gas.

- 1 2. Future studies should perform numerical simulations of cyclic injection and withdrawal over
2 thousands of years and determine the impact of mineral trapping of CO₂, with solubility and
3 residual trapping mechanisms, on the brittleness of rocks.
- 4 3. Further studies should be conducted to investigate fines migration from the reservoir to the
5 well or tubing string during cyclic injection and withdrawal of CO₂.

6 **Author credit statement**

7 **Efenwengbe Nicholas Aminaho:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Validation,
8 Analyses, and Writing. **Mamdud Hossain:** Supervisor. **Nadimul Haque Faisal:** Supervisor. **Reza**
9 **Sanaee:** Supervisor.

10 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

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Table 1: Bulk modulus of different brittle minerals (Fjaer et al., 2008).

| Brittle mineral | Quartz | Feldspar | Calcite | Dolomite |
|--------------------|--------|----------|---------|----------|
| Bulk modulus (GPa) | 37.5 | 76 | 74 | 76-95 |

Table 2: Weighting coefficients of different brittle minerals (Kang et al., 2020).

| Brittle mineral | Quartz | Feldspar | Calcite | Dolomite |
|-----------------------|--------|----------|---------|----------------|
| Weighting coefficient | 1 | 0.49 | 0.51 | 0.39-0.49/0.44 |

Table 3: Mesh generation of the model.

| Rock formation | Vertical mesh number | Mesh thickness (m) |
|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| Shale caprock | 6 | 2.0 |
| Sandstone reservoir | 14 | 2.0 |

Table 4: Hydrogeological parameters used in the simulation at formation temperature and pressure of 40°C and 100 bar, respectively.

| Parameters | Formation | |
|---|--|-------------------------|
| | Sandstone | Shale caprock |
| Porosity | 0.34 | 0.07 |
| Horizontal permeability (m ²) | 2.264x10 ⁻¹³ | 2.264x10 ⁻¹⁶ |
| Vertical permeability (m ²) | 2.264x10 ⁻¹⁴ | 2.264x10 ⁻¹⁷ |
| Pore compressibility (Pa ⁻¹) | 2.10x10 ⁻⁹ | 2.10x10 ⁻⁹ |
| Rock grain density (kg/m ³) | 2600 | 2600 |
| Formation heat conductivity (W/m °C) | 2.51 | 2.51 |
| Rock grain specific heat (J/kg °C) | 920.0 | 920.0 |
| Temperature (°C) | 40.0 | 40.0 |
| Salinity (mass fraction) | 0.06 | 0.06 |
| Pressure (bar) | 100 | 100 |
| Initial gas saturation | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| CO ₂ injection rate (kg/s) | 20.0 | - |
| CO ₂ withdrawal rate (kg/s) | 15.0 | - |
| Relative permeability Liquid: Van Genuchten function $k_{rl} = \sqrt{S^*} \left\{ 1 - \left(1 - [S^*]^{1/m} \right)^m \right\}^2$ S _{ir} : residual water saturation m: exponent Gas: Corey $k_{rg} = (1 - \bar{S})^2 (1 - \bar{S}^2)$ S _{gr} : residual gas saturation | $S^* = (S_l - S_{lr}) / (1 - S_{lr})$ $S_{lr} = 0.30$ $m = 0.457$ $\bar{S} = (S_l - S_{lr}) / (1 - S_{lr} - S_{gr})$ $S_{gr} = 0.05$ | |
| Capillary pressure Van Genuchten function $P_{cap} = -P_0 ([S^*]^{-1/m} - 1)^{1-m}$ S _{ir} : residual water saturation m: exponent | $S^* = (S_l - S_{lr}) / (1 - S_{lr})$ $S_{lr} = 0.03$ $m = 0.457$ | |
| P ₀ : strength coefficient | 19.61 kPa | 19.61 kPa |

Table 5: Initial volume fractions of the minerals and their molecular weight and molar volume.

| Mineral name | Chemical formula | Molecular weight (g/mol) | Molar volume (cm ³ /mol) | Sandstone formation (volume percent of solid) | Shale Caprock (volume percent of solid) |
|--------------|--|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| Illite | $K_{0.6}Mg_{0.25}Al_{1.8}(Al_{0.5}Si_{3.5}O_{10})(OH)_2$ | 383.899 | 138.900 | 2.80 | 65.30 |
| Kaolinite | $Al_2Si_2O_5(OH)_4$ | 258.159 | 99.520 | 0.90 | 1.11 |
| Smectite-Ca | $Ca_{0.145}Mg_{0.26}Al_{1.77}Si_{3.97}O_{10}(OH)_2$ | 365.394 | 140.536 | 0 | 6.96 |
| Chlorite | $Mg_{2.5}Fe_{2.5}Al_2Si_3O_{10}(OH)_8$ | 634.648 | 210.260 | 2.70 | 6.40 |
| Quartz | SiO_2 | 60.084 | 22.688 | 25.80 | 8.00 |
| K-feldspar | $KAlSi_3O_8$ | 278.33 | 108.900 | 23.30 | 2.80 |
| Albite | $NaAlSi_3O_8$ | 262.222 | 100.070 | 41.50 | 3.20 |
| Calcite | $CaCO_3$ | 100.087 | 36.934 | 3.00 | 0.80 |
| Pyrite | FeS_2 | 119.98 | 23.940 | 0 | 1.43 |
| Dolomite | $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ | 184.401 | 64.341 | 0 | 0 |
| Anhydrite | $CaSO_4$ | 136.142 | 45.940 | 0 | 4.00 |
| Siderite | $FeCO_3$ | 115.856 | 146.800 | 0 | 0 |
| Alunite | $KAl_3(OH)_6(SO_4)_2$ | 414.214 | 69.522 | 0 | 0 |
| Ankerite | $CaMg_{0.3}Fe_{0.7}(CO_3)_2$ | 206.48 | 58.520 | 0 | 0 |
| Dawsonite | $NaAlCO_3(OH)_2$ | 143.995 | 28.018 | 0 | 0 |
| Magnesite | $MgCO_3$ | 84.314 | 29.378 | 0 | 0 |
| Smectite-Na | $Na_{0.290}Mg_{0.26}Al_{1.77}Si_{3.97}O_{10}(OH)_2$ | 366.25 | 132.510 | 0 | 0 |
| Hematite | Fe_2O_3 | 159.692 | 30.274 | 0 | 0 |
| Anorthite | $CaAl_2Si_2O_8$ | 278.206 | 100.790 | 0 | 0 |
| Muscovite | $KAl_2(AlSi_3O_{10})(F,OH)_2$ | 398.306 | 140.710 | 0 | 0 |
| Oligoclase | $CaNa_4Al_6Si_{14}O_{40}$ | 1327.094 | 502.480 | 0 | 0 |

Table 6: Initial chemical composition of the formation water at formation conditions of 40°C and 100 bar.

| Component | Concentration (mol/kg H ₂ O) | |
|-------------------------------|---|---------------|
| | Sandstone formation | Shale caprock |
| Ca ²⁺ | 4.7137E-01 | 4.8163E-01 |
| Mg ²⁺ | 1.0038E-01 | 9.7547E-02 |
| Na ⁺ | 2.5868E+00 | 2.6006E+00 |
| K ⁺ | 2.8166E-03 | 3.3113E-03 |
| Fe ²⁺ | 4.9784E-04 | 2.7904E-08 |
| SiO ₂ (aq) | 2.9555E-03 | 1.3991E-03 |
| HCO ₃ ⁻ | 2.1733E-03 | 1.2688E-04 |
| SO ₄ ²⁻ | 3.6425E-03 | 1.7486E-02 |
| AlO ₂ ⁻ | 1.3611E-11 | 6.1835E-11 |
| Cl ⁻ | 3.7245E+00 | 3.7264E+00 |
| pH | 6.1989 | 7.3919 |

Table 7: List of parameters for calculating the kinetic rate of minerals.

| Mineral name | Initial reactive surface area (cm ² /g) | Neutral mechanism | | Acid mechanism | | | Base mechanism | | |
|--------------|--|--|------------------------------------|--|-------------------------|---|--|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | | K ₂₅ (mol/m ² s) | E _a (kJ/mol) | K ₂₅ (mol/m ² s) | E _a (kJ/mol) | n(H ⁺) | K ₂₅ (mol/m ² s) | E _a (kJ/mol) | n(H ⁺) |
| Calcite | Assumed in equilibrium | | | | | | | | |
| Anhydrite | Assumed in equilibrium | | | | | | | | |
| Quartz | 9.8 | 1.0233E-14 | 87.7 | | | | | | |
| Kaolinite | 151.63 | 6.9183E-14 | 22.2 | 4.8978E-12 | 65.90 | 0.777 | 8.9125E-18 | 17.90 | -0.472 |
| Illite | 151.63 | 1.6596E-13 | 35.00 | 1.0471E-11 | 23.6 | 0.34 | 3.02E-17 | 58.9 | -0.40 |
| Pyrite | 12.87 | 2.8184E-05 | 56.90 n _{CO2(aq)} =0.5 | 3.02E-08 | 56.9 | n _{H+} =-0.5 n _{Fe3+} =0.5 | | | |
| K-feldspar | 9.8 | 3.8905E-13 | 38.0 | 8.7096E-11 | 51.7 | 0.5 | 6.3096E-22 | 94.1 | -0.823 |
| Dolomite | 9.8 | 2.9512E-08 | 52.20 | 6.4565E-04 | 36.1 | 0.5 | | | |
| Siderite | 9.8 | 1.2598E-09 | 62.76 | 6.4565E-04 | 36.1 | 0.5 | | | |
| Ankerite | 9.8 | 1.2598E-09 | 62.76 | 6.4565E-04 | 36.1 | 0.5 | | | |
| Albite | 9.8 | 2.7542E-13 | 69.80 | 6.9183E-11 | 65.0 | 0.457 | 2.5119E-16 | 71.0 | -0.572 |
| Muscovite | 9.8 | 3.160E-13 | 58.6 | | | | | | |
| Hematite | 12.87 | 2.5119E-15 | 66.2 | 4.0738E-10 | 66.2 | 1.0 | | | |
| Chlorite | 9.8 | 3.020E-13 | 88.0 | 7.7624E-12 | 88.0 | 0.5 | | | |
| Oligoclase | 9.8 | 1.4454E-13 | 69.8 | 2.1380E-11 | 65.0 | 0.457 | | | |
| Magnesite | 9.8 | 4.5709E-10 | 23.5 | 4.1687E-07 | 14.4 | 1.0 | | | |
| Dawsonite | 9.8 | 1.2598E-09 | 62.76 | 6.4565E-04 | 36.1 | 0.5 | | | |
| Smectite-Na | 151.63 | 1.6596E-13 | 35.0 | 1.0471E-11 | 23.6 | 0.34 | 3.0200E-17 | 58.9 | -0.40 |
| Smectite-Ca | 151.63 | 1.6596E-13 | 35.0 | 1.0471E-11 | 23.6 | 0.34 | 3.0200E-17 | 58.9 | -0.40 |
| Alunite | 9.8 | 1.0000E-12 | 57.78 | | | | 1.0000E-12 | 7.5 | -1.00 |
| Anorthite | 9.8 | 1.5000E-14 | 18.4 | | | | | | |

Table 8: Three groups of simulations in this study.

| Simulation groups | Injection scenarios | Formation | Formation salinity |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1 | CO ₂ only | Sandstone and shale | 0.06 |
| 2 | CO ₂ and H ₂ S | Sandstone and shale | 0.06 |
| 3 | CO ₂ and SO ₂ | Sandstone and shale | 0.06 |

Table 9: ZC and ZG core samples XRD results before and after ScCO₂-water and ScCO₂-SO₂-water treatment (Mavhengere et al., 2022).

| Sample | Quartz (wt. %) | Plagioclase (wt. %) | Smectite (wt. %) | Calcite (wt. %) | Pyrite (wt. %) | Stilbite (wt. %) | Diopside (wt. %) | Gypsum (wt. %) | Orthoclase (wt. %) |
|---|----------------|---------------------|------------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|----------------|--------------------|
| ZC untreated | 44.1 | 44.7 | 1.0 | 3.5 | 0.4 | 3.6 | 2.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| ZC CO ₂ treated | 47.5 | 42.5 | 2.5 | 1.7 | 0.4 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| ZC CO ₂ -SO ₂ treated | 49.1 | 28.6 | 11.8 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 4.9 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 0.0 |
| ZG untreated | 21.5 | 46.0 | 22.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 8.3 |
| ZG CO ₂ treated | 22.3 | 50.5 | 16.3 | 2.9 | 0.0 | 4.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 3.2 |
| ZG CO ₂ -SO ₂ treated | 26.1 | 53.4 | 12.1 | 2.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 6.2 |

Table 10: Porosity and permeability ratio of the formations after seven (7) cycles of CO₂ injection and withdrawal.

| Formation type | Petrophysics | After Cycle 7 | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ |
| Shale caprock | Porosity | 0.06998-0.07013 | 0.06998-0.07015 | 0.06979-0.07009 |
| | Permeability ratio | 0.99904-1.00590 | 0.99903-1.00660 | 0.99078-1.00400 |
| Sandstone reservoir | Porosity | 0.33470-0.36032 | 0.33475-0.36031 | 0.32496-0.36672 |
| | Permeability ratio | 0.93881-1.26700 | 0.93943-1.26680 | 0.83462-1.36290 |

Table 11: Changes in porosity and permeability of the formations after seven (7) cycles of CO₂ injection and withdrawal.

| Formation type | Petrophysics | After Cycle 7 | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ |
| Shale caprock | Percentage change in porosity | -0.03 - 0.19 | -0.03 - 0.21 | -0.30 - 0.13 |
| | Percentage change in permeability | -0.10 - 0.59 | -0.10 - 0.66 | -0.92 - 0.40 |
| Sandstone reservoir | Percentage change in porosity | -1.56 - 5.98 | -1.54 - 5.97 | -4.42 - 7.86 |
| | Percentage change in permeability | -6.12 - 26.70 | -6.06 - 26.68 | -16.54 - 36.29 |

Table 12: Brittleness index of the formations before and after the first and seventh cycles of CO₂ injection and withdrawal (eliminating molar volume).

| Formation type | Brittleness index | Before sequestration, t=0 | | | After cycle 1 | | | After cycle 7 | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ |
| Shale caprock | BI _{bm} | 0.0377 | 0.0377 | 0.0377 | 0.0377 | 0.0377 | 0.0376-0.0377 | 0.0375-0.0377 | 0.0375-0.0377 | 0.0373-0.0377 |
| | BI _{min} | 0.0674 | 0.0674 | 0.0674 | 0.0673-0.0674 | 0.0673-0.0674 | 0.0673-0.0674 | 0.0671-0.0674 | 0.0671-0.0674 | 0.0666-0.0674 |
| Sandstone Reservoir | BI _{bm} | 0.4593 | 0.4593 | 0.4593 | 0.4585-0.4594 | 0.4585-0.4594 | 0.3457-0.4593 | 0.4582-0.4594 | 0.4582-0.4594 | 0.4433-0.4593 |
| | BI _{min} | 0.8642 | 0.8642 | 0.8642 | 0.8622-0.8644 | 0.8622-0.8644 | 0.6499-0.8642 | 0.8616-0.8645 | 0.8615-0.8645 | 0.8334-0.8642 |

Table 13: Brittleness index of the formations before and after the first and seventh cycles of CO₂ injection and withdrawal (with molar volume).

| Formation type | Brittleness index | Before sequestration, t=0 | | | After cycle 1 | | | After cycle 7 | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ | CO ₂ | CO ₂ -H ₂ S | CO ₂ -SO ₂ |
| Shale caprock | BI _{bm} | 0.1073 | 0.1073 | 0.1073 | 0.1072-0.1073 | 0.1072-0.1073 | 0.1071-0.1073 | 0.1071-0.1073 | 0.1071-0.1073 | 0.1063-0.1073 |
| | BI _{min} | 0.1653 | 0.1653 | 0.1653 | 0.1651-0.1653 | 0.1651-0.1653 | 0.1649-0.1653 | 0.1649-0.1652 | 0.1649-0.1652 | 0.1633-0.1652 |
| Sandstone Reservoir | BI _{bm} | 0.5892 | 0.5892 | 0.5892 | 0.5887-0.5917 | 0.5887-0.5917 | 0.3672-0.5919 | 0.5885-0.5917 | 0.5885-0.5917 | 0.5575-0.5933 |
| | BI _{min} | 0.9307 | 0.9307 | 0.9307 | 0.9310-0.9285 | 0.9311-0.9285 | 0.5760-0.9307 | 0.9312-0.9280 | 0.9312-0.9280 | 0.8749-0.9307 |

Table 14: Brittleness index of ZC and ZG rock samples.

| Sample | Bl₄ | Bl_{Mod} |
|---|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| ZC untreated | 0.93 | 0.68 |
| ZC CO ₂ treated | 0.92 | 0.69 |
| ZC CO ₂ -SO ₂ treated | 0.79 | 0.63 |
| ZG untreated | 0.76 | 0.52 |
| ZG CO ₂ treated | 0.79 | 0.52 |
| ZG CO ₂ -SO ₂ treated | 0.88 | 0.60 |

HIGHLIGHTS

- SO_2 gas front is far behind that of CO_2 in the sandstone reservoir, compared to the H_2S case.
- The porosity of the reservoir decreases a few layers directly below the production zone.
- The brittleness of the shale caprock decreases slightly during CO_2 geosequestration.
- The decrease in brittleness of the sandstone reservoir is negligible except for CO_2 - SO_2 case.
- Compared to H_2S , SO_2 significantly decreases the brittleness of the sandstone reservoir.

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