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CO₂ Leakage Prevention by Introducing Engineered Nanoparticles to the In-situ Brine

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Abstract

Introducing engineered nanoparticles into an aquifer or reservoir can potentially increase the storage efficiency and mitigate the risk of leakage of stored CO₂. We have measured flow pattern and pressure drop during core floods in which high pressure liquid CO₂ or a CO₂ analogue fluid displaces an aqueous suspension of nanoparticles. The displacement front is more spatially uniform and travels more slowly compared to a control displacement with no in-situ nanoparticles. Pressure measurements are consistent with generation of a viscous phase such as an emulsion during the displacement. These observations suggest that a nanoparticle stabilized emulsion is formed during the displacement which acts to suppress the viscous instability.

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CO₂ storage, Nanoparticle, Leakage prevention, Mobility control, Emulsion formation

1. Introduction

Carbon capture, utilization, and storage (CCUS) can play an important role in reducing the growing threat of global warming [1]. However, implementing CCUS requires capturing and storing of order a billion metric tons of CO₂ annually [2]. To ensure this large amount is stored securely in depleted reservoirs and/or deep saline aquifers, the long term fate of CO₂ needs to be studied. Typically, CO₂ trapping in a geologic strata is categorized by a) dissolution of CO₂ in brine phase, also known as dissolution trapping, b) residual trapping, where CO₂ is trapped as disconnected blobs because of the capillary pressure, and c) mineralization, where CO₂ reacts with calcium and magnesium and precipitates on the rock surfaces. Large scale storage by these mechanisms carries a negligible risk of leakage over a geologically significant time frame [3]. Structural trapping (trapping of CO₂ as a bulk phase beneath the caprock), however, introduces some uncertainty about the long term fate of CO₂. This phenomenon constitutes a key concern for CO₂ storage in subsurface saline aquifers, as CO₂ is less dense and less

viscous than the in-situ brine at the depths it is planned to be emplaced [4]. A potential solution is engineering the CO₂ storage projects in such a way that any potential leaks would be self-sealing.

Our method to prevent leakage from storage sites is inspired by the observation that suitably chemically coated nanoparticles can be used to stabilize CO₂-in-water emulsions [5, 6]. Surface treated nanoparticles adhere to the surface of CO₂ bubbles and prevent their coalescence. However, due to large adhesion energy [5] mechanical work must be applied to bring the nanoparticles from bulk phases to the CO₂/water interface. Previous observations show that co-injection of CO₂ and nanoparticle suspension at high flow rates (and thus high energy) will produce CO₂/brine foam, while co-injection at low flow rates does not produce foam [5, 7]. In terms of CO₂ storage, foam generation by co-injecting CO₂ and nanoparticle solution may be less than ideal as it reduces the injectivity of the well and discourages other CO₂ trapping mechanisms (capillary and dissolution trapping) from occurring during the course of CO₂ injection. However, as the CO₂ displaces the nanoparticle suspension along a leakage path, the formation of foam will reduce the mobility of the CO₂ and potentially prevent catastrophic leaks [8].

To use this idea for secure sequestration, one could first inject nanoparticles along the leakage path of the prospective storage structure or even into an overlying formation. Therefore, if the buoyant CO₂ were to rise through any of the nanoparticle treated rock, the nanoparticles would be attracted to the CO₂/brine interface and form a CO₂-in-brine foam and eventually seal the leak.

In this work, we investigate the mechanism for this form of leak prevention. We conduct core floods in which CO₂ or a CO₂-analogue fluid displaces brine with and without dispersed nanoparticles. The in-situ saturation distribution of both phases is captured in real time by placing the core horizontally in a modified medical scanner. Pressure transducers were used to measure the pressure gradient during displacement, from which the mobility of the invading phase along the core can be inferred. The proof of concepts describe here offers a new form of passive barrier against CO₂ leakage whether driven by pressure (viscous forces) or by buoyancy. It also suggests a remediation strategy whereby nanoparticle dispersion could be injected into a leakage pathway after CO₂ escape has been discovered.

2. Materials and Method

In this study, we used silica nanoparticles with a nominal diameter of 5 nm, from 3M® (Minneapolis, MN). The nanoparticles were surface-modified with polyethylene-glycol (PEG) ligand. Previous experiments have shown that the PEG-coated nanoparticles stabilized CO₂-in-water foams and *n*-octane-in-water emulsions. The coating also enhanced the transportability of the nanoparticle through the porous media by minimizing its retention in the porous media [9]. The nanoparticles were received as a 19 wt% dispersion which was diluted to 5 or 10 wt% with brine for the total salinity of 2 wt%. Each diluted dispersion was stirred for 30 minutes with a magnetic stirrer to ensure homogeneity of the dispersion.

The core flooding setup was a modified version of the apparatus described in [10, 11]. A schematic diagram of the set-up is shown in Figure 1. The Boise sandstone core sample was wrapped in a heat-shrinkable Teflon tube, 4 layers of aluminum foil, another layer of Teflon shrinking tube, and an AFLAS rubber sleeve, before it was placed in to an aluminum core holder. The Teflon layers provide a barrier to water, while the aluminum foils prevent the leakage of CO₂. The aluminum core holder was used to avoid high-density contrast between the core holder and the rock, which can be detrimental for CT scan measurement [12].

A dual Teledyne Isco pump was used to inject brine and CO₂ continuously to the core through CO₂ and brine accumulators (Figure 2). The accumulators were also used to pre-equilibrate initial and injected fluid before the experiment, by injecting 100 ml of CO₂ per liter of the brine into the brine accumulator, and 10 ml of brine per liter of CO₂ over 5 hours and letting the fluids equilibrate for 40 hours before usage.

Table 1. Viscosity μ , density ρ , interfacial tension with respect to brine σ , and capillary number N_{Ca} at the experiment flux. 5% nano and 10% nano refer to the nanoparticle suspensions in brine that were used. The CO₂ properties are at experimental condition $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$ and $P = 1350\text{ psi}$; all other properties are at room temperature and pressure [14, 15]

	Brine	5% Nano	10% Nano	<i>n</i> -octane	CO ₂
μ (cP)	1.05	1.2	1.3	0.54	0.075
ρ (kg/m ³)	1010	1040	1080	703	792
σ (mN/m)	N/A	N/A	N/A	51	24
N_{Ca}	N/A	N/A	N/A	4×10^{-8}	2×10^{-7}

In all the experiments, the working porous media were 30 cm long, 7 cm diameter cylindrical Boise sandstone core (porosity 27.5% and permeability about 1 D). High pressure liquid CO₂ or *n*-octane was injected at 0.02 cm/min to displace brine (hereafter called control experiment) or nanoparticle (hereafter called nanoparticle experiment) for approximately 1 PV. *n*-Octane was used as a low pressure analog to high pressure CO₂, as it mimics the key features of CO₂ in the sense that both fluids a) form nanoparticle stabilized droplets, b) have roughly the same density, c) give displacements that are capillary dominated, and d) cause an unstable displacement. The relevant fluid parameters are listed in Table 1.

The in-situ saturation was captured in real time by placing the core horizontally in a Universal Systems HD-350 modified medical scanner. CT scanning measures the local electron density and therefore mass density of the materials occupying each voxel. Since the non-wetting phase is less dense than the brine or nanoparticle suspension (see Table 1) the measured density can be converted to saturation. This can be done by linear interpolation between CT values of the voxel saturated with the wetting phase and non-wetting phase.

The scanning procedure consisted of taking scans every 1 cm along the core. The resolution of the scanner after image filtration (to reduce the noise associated with the image construction [13]) was 1 mm. The core was scanned every 5 minutes for early time during the displacement and every 15 minutes after the invading fluid had broken through.

3. Results

Figure 2a shows lateral CT scans (*x*-*y* plane) at different longitudinal (*z*) positions along the core after injecting 0.10 PV of *n*-octane with brine (2 wt% salinity) as the initial fluid. Images are at equal intervals of 1 cm along the core starting at the distance of 2 cm from the inlet. In these figures full brine saturation is illustrated by red, and *n*-octane is blue. These scans show that the displacement front is not uniform, with regions of high water saturation next to the regions which are mostly saturated with *n*-octane. In particular, going from the inlet towards the center of core, at a distance of 2-3 cm the left hand side of the column is still filled with brine, at a distance of 5-7 cm *n*-octane fingers are seen branching out, and at a distance of 8-9 cm a single finger of *n*-octane is seen in the 4 o'clock position. Within the long *n*-octane

fingers the average brine saturation is roughly $S_w \sim 0.23$ (e.g., see 3 cm position), adjacent to upswept regions have an average brine saturation of $S_w \sim 0.94$ (e.g., see 3 cm position).

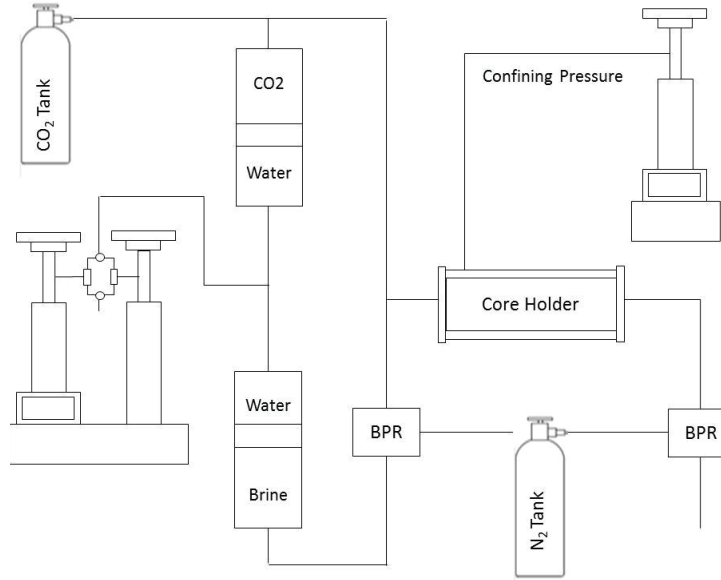


Figure 1: Schematic diagram of the core flooding set-up

Figure 2b shows the saturation profiles at the same time and position as in Figure 2a with 10 wt % nanoparticle suspension as the initial fluid. The core is identical in Figures 2a and 2b. The only difference is the nanoparticle suspension as the initial fluid in Figure 2b, as opposed to the brine in Figure 2a. These scans show a much more distinct and uniform front. Comparing to the control experiment in Figure 2a, these images show much less lateral variations of *n*-octane and thus little or no fingering. Moreover, in the regions behind the front that are most filled with *n*-octane, the water saturation is still rather high at $S_w \approx 0.42$, indicating mixing of water and *n*-octane rather than displacement. Uniform saturation distribution along the core and mixing between water and oil is likely the sign of formation of high viscosity fluid mixture of water and *n*-octane.

Figure 3a shows the side view of the core after injecting 0.25 PV of CO₂ with brine as the initial fluid. This *x*-*z* image was obtained by averaging the saturation over the middle 1 cm of the core in the *y*-direction. The gravity segregation is evident with a leading tongue of CO₂ along the top of the core near the outlet. The heterogeneity can also be observed with a large region of CO₂ between 15 and 20 cm in the longitudinal *x*-direction. As a result of high viscosity ratio ($\mu_{\text{CO}_2}/\mu_{\text{brine}} = 14$), the preferential movement of CO₂ is evident.

Figure 3b shows the saturation distribution at the same time and position as in Figure 3a with nanoparticle suspension as the initial fluid. Because the core is the same, some of the same heterogeneity-dominated flow can be seen in Figure 3b with a large CO₂ region in the lower half between 15 and 20 cm. The effect of nanoparticles can be seen as a) the leading CO₂ tongue ($x > 30$ cm) is not visible in the nanoparticle case and b) the entrance region ($x < 10$ cm) has a higher saturation of CO₂ in the nanoparticle case than the control case. Moreover, the results show wider fingers, leading to a slower front movement, and a higher overall CO₂ saturation behind the front.

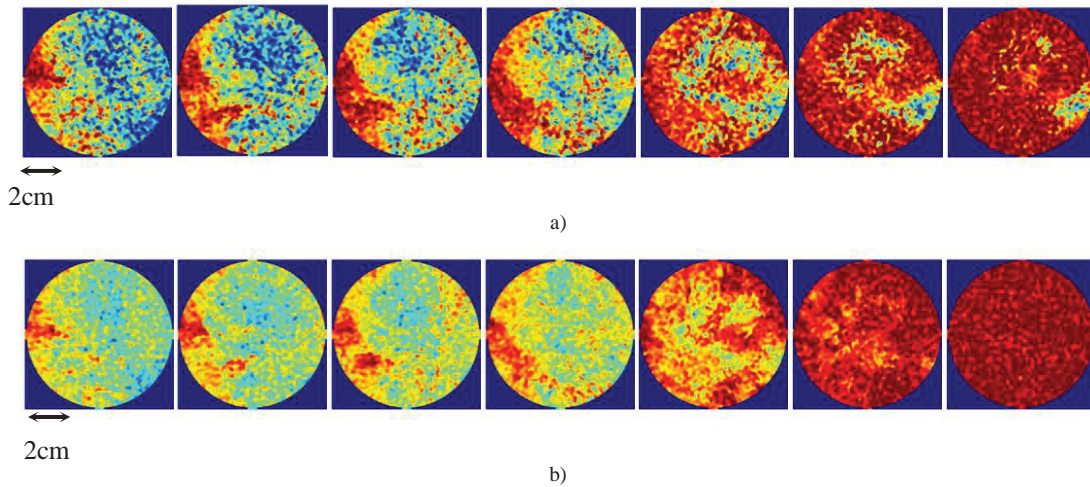


Figure 2. CT scans of water saturation distribution along the core after injecting 0.1 PV *n*-octane. Each slice is 1 cm apart longitudinally. a) Core is initially filled with brine. b) Same core in initially filled with 2% brine containing 10 wt% silica nanoparticles.

Moreover, in order to compare Figure 3a with Figure 3b more quantitatively, the point-by-point difference in CO₂ saturation is shown in Figure 3c. Figure 3c shows different flow pattern in the presence of nanoparticles. The results show more uniform saturation distribution in the presence of nanoparticles, which is also evident in the high permeability region between 15 – 20 cm in x-direction.

In summary, although by adding nanoparticles to the in-situ brine the viscosity ratio and density contrast become more unfavourable, the flow is observed to be more stable with less gravity segregation when compared with the control case.

4. Discussion

The results of the experiments with and without nanoparticles can be summarized as follows:

a) In the presence of nanoparticles, the displacement front becomes stable or self-regulating when *n*-octane was used as the displacing fluid. This is associated with more uniform saturation distribution behind the front, higher pressure drop, and more remaining water saturation.

b) CO₂ displacing nanoparticle-laden brine shows slower displacement front with more uniform CO₂ saturation near the inlet. Moreover, in the presence of nanoparticle the displacement shows less gravity override.

In the classical analysis of fluid displacement, the flow front will be viscously unstable if the viscosity of the invading phase is less than the viscosity of the initial phase. This is the case for both *n*-octane and CO₂ when they displace the nanoparticle-free brine, but not to the same extent. *n*-Octane displacing brine has a viscosity ratio of 2 and the CO₂ displacing brine at the experimental pressure and temperature has a viscosity ratio of 14. As expected, in both displacement experiments without nanoparticles, noticeable viscous fingering can be observed. On the other hand, the flow will become stable if the mobility ratio becomes less than 1, i.e. if the presence of the nanoparticles were enough to

cause the apparent mobility of the invading fluid (be it *n*-octane or CO₂) to become greater than the nanoparticle suspension. To achieve stability for either fluid, the nanoparticles would only have to viscosify *n*-octane by a factor of 2.6 while for the CO₂ the increase in viscosity would have to be a factor of 18. Therefore, stable displacement in the *n*-octane experiment can be interpreted as less than unity viscosity ratio. However, in the CO₂ experiment the nanoparticles reduce the mobility of the CO₂, but not enough to completely stabilize the front.

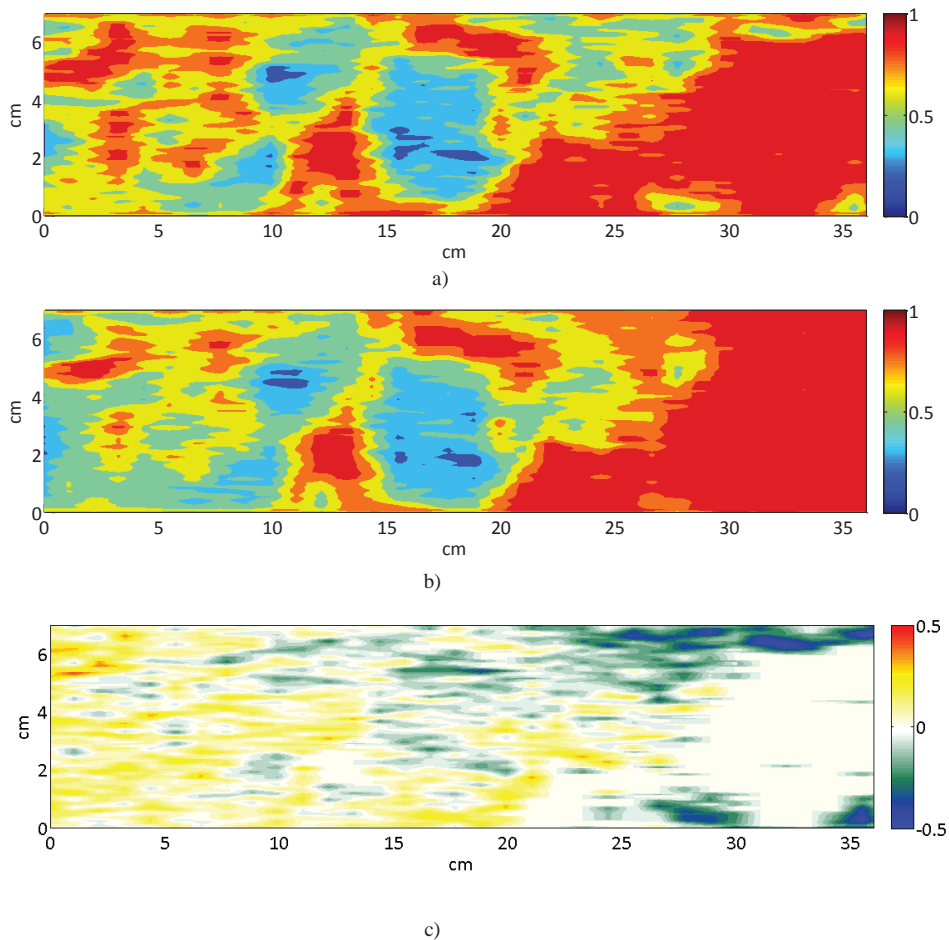


Figure 3. Longitudinal slice through the Boise sandstone core after 0.25 PV of CO₂ injection. a) Initial fluid is 2 wt% brine, b) Initial fluid is 2 wt% brine with 5% silica nanoparticle, and c) the difference between Figure a and b.

There is another subtle difference between CO₂ experiments with and without nanoparticles. Figure 4a shows the CO₂ saturation change over time (in this image, between 0.22 and 0.25 of pore volume of CO₂ injection) with brine as the initial fluid. Classically, it is believed that during a drainage experiment the saturation of wetting phase decreases monotonically with time. However, in this experiment water saturation increased in many regions, including some far upstream of the front. This cannot be due solely to the buoyancy forces, as the increase in water saturation happens at the top part of the core as well as the bottom. Figure 4b shows the CO₂ saturation change between 0.2 and 0.25 PV of CO₂ injection with

5% nanoparticle suspension as the initial fluid. The amount of water imbibition behind the front is less significant in this case.

We propose that this observation has to do with heterogeneity within the core. As CO₂ encounters high-permeability regions inside the core, the capillary pressure required for CO₂ to invade the high-streak region reduced, which ultimately results in a rapid movement of CO₂. This will create a temporary decrease in the local capillary pressure behind the front. This decrease is great enough for the wetting phase to imbibe into the small pores behind the front. On the other hand more uniform saturation distribution in the presence of nanoparticles reduces the capillary pressure drop behind the front, which in turn greatly mitigates this tendency. Moreover, in the presence of nanoparticles CO₂ may be trapped behind the front as the disconnected droplets [8], which discourage the imbibition of water behind the front.

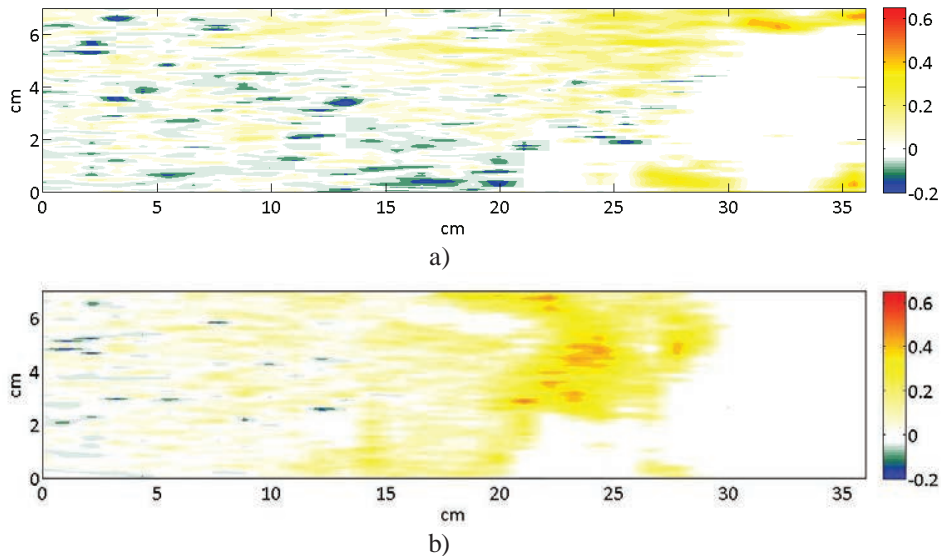


Figure 4. Side view of the CO₂ saturation change between a) 0.22 and 0.25 PV of CO₂ injection with brine as the initial fluid and b) 0.2 and 0.25 PV of CO₂ injection with 5wt% nanoparticle suspension as the initial fluid.

5. Summary and Conclusion

We performed sets of high-pressure liquid CO₂ and CO₂ analogue fluid (*n*-octane) injections into sandstone cores initially filled with brine with and without suspended nanoparticles. When surface treated nanoparticles are in the brine, the propagation of the injected phase displacement front is altered. The alteration increases the sharpness and slows the speed of the front; this behavior is consistent with a reduction of the mobility of the CO₂ or *n*-octane in the presence of nanoparticles. The mechanism appears to be spontaneous generation of nanoparticle-stabilized droplets of the injected phase, which increases the effective viscosity of that phase. Nanoparticles completely stabilized the front when *n*-octane was the injected fluid. Because the CO₂ viscosity is so much smaller than the *n*-octane viscosity, the same particles altered but did not completely stabilize the liquid CO₂ displacement front.

The results suggest that pre-positioning a dispersion of nanoparticles above or within potential leakage paths (e.g. fractures, faults, and abandoned wells) would enable CO₂/brine foam to form if CO₂ enters the path. This could slow or even prevent the leak.

Acknowledgements

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