

A numerical study of the impurity effects on CO₂ geological storage in layered formation

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Abstract

The effects of two kinds of common impurities (*i.e.*, N₂ and H₂S) on CO₂ geological storage in layered formations were investigated by numerical simulations. This study was focused on the migration behaviour and spatial distribution of CO₂ plume. The effects of capillary pressure on the spread of CO₂ plume in the layered formations were examined first. The results suggested that the capillary pressure was a minor influence when injecting, but it affected the migration and distribution of CO₂ plume significantly during post-injection period in which, the contact area between CO₂ plume and formation brine became smaller with increased capillary pressure, leading to a decrease of dissolved CO₂ mass fraction. In the case of co-injection of CO₂ with N₂ impurity, it was found that as the N₂ concentration rose up, the horizontal migration distance of CO₂ plume extended, and the plume inclined to accumulate below the impermeable caprock. The phenomena were due to the enhancement of buoyancy effect of CO₂ plume and accordingly, the contact area between the CO₂ plume and the formation brine enlarged, resulting in an increase of dissolved CO₂ mass fraction. However, the effects of H₂S impurity were less obvious compared with N₂, and only a little shrinkage of the distribution range of CO₂ plume could be observed when H₂S was co-injected.

Keywords: Layered formation; Impurity; Carbon capture and storage; Numerical simulation.

1. Introduction

Carbon capture and storage (CCS) has been regarded as one of the most promising technologies to reduce CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere [1-3]. Among various potential storage options, CO₂ storage in geological formations such as deep saline aquifers is considered as the most effective method in the short-to-medium term [2]. The geological formations suitable for CO₂ storage are usually below 800 m, where CO₂ may exist in the supercritical form (the supercritical fluid is sometimes referred to as “gas” for simplicity and easier reference) and its density ranges from 50% to 80% of that of water [1]. Under these conditions, CO₂ will migrate upwards due to buoyancy effects until it is blocked by impermeable caprock [2]. Most potential formations suitable for CO₂ storage are stratified, which means that the geological formations are composed of a number of alternating high-permeability and low-permeability layers, such as sands and shales. For example, the formations of the storage site at Sleipner, Norway are layered, with low-permeability shale layers embedded in high-permeability sand layers. Although these low-permeability layers may not be tight enough to prevent the upward movement of most CO₂ [4], these layers play an important role in preventing CO₂ leakage as there might be unexpected faults in the caprock [5-8]. Using the geological conditions at Sleipner, numerical simulations have been carried out to investigate the distribution and evolution of the CO₂ plume as well as the dissolved CO₂ concentration [9,10]. Their results confirmed that the ascent rate of the plume was limited by these low-permeability layers. More importantly, based on the same model, they compared the results of different software packages. Predictions for shape and growth of the CO₂ plume showed good agreement, which gives much confidence to the model.

Currently, different aspects of CO₂ storage in stratified formations have been investigated including the pressure response to CO₂ injection. By numerical simulation, it was found that the pressure buildup was considerably large when a single injection site was used in a large sedimentary multilayered formation [11].

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An analytical solution was also developed and demonstrated to be efficient for the prediction of the pressure buildup in the corresponding stratified system [12,13]. Li et al. suggested that injection through multiple layers is preferable for these basin-scale sites to increase the injectivity and storage efficiency, and to reduce the risk of overpressure [14]. Simulation results of a multilayer injection in Shenhua CCS demonstration project in China showed a much wider range of the pressure perturbation compared with that of the supercritical CO₂ plume [15]. Different injection schemes for layered reservoirs were investigated and compared to find a balance between economic benefit and trapping efficiency [16]. Besides, the ambient mudrocks were suggested to influence both the lateral and vertical pressure evolution in layered system [17].

It should be noted that the model adopted can influence the simulation results. Liu and Zhang [18] compared the results of three stratigraphic models (*i.e.*, facies, layered and formation) with that of detailed heterogeneous models and found that the layered model was optimal for predicting gas flow and storage. Although the pressure response obtained by a simple one-layer and a refined multi-layer model was similar, the plume spread in the refined multi-layer model was larger [19]. Figueiredo et al. pointed out that an equivalent single-layer formation was inadequate to substitute a three-layer formation due to the significant differences in the spread of CO₂ plume [20].

Investigations related to the impact of many parameters on the morphology of CO₂ plume have also been documented. For example, the injection rate was suggested to be the dominant factor controlling both the upward and outward movement of the CO₂ plume from an injection point, and specifically, a higher rate could facilitate the vertical penetration of CO₂ through the thin low-permeability layers [21]. The distribution of CO₂ saturation in low-permeability layers was shown to be more sensitive to the injection rate than that in high-permeability layers, which suggests that an increase of the injection rate would more effectively improve the storage capacity in low-permeability layers [22]. Well placements in stratified formations were found to impact total amount of CO₂ sequestered in the geological formations [23]. Moreover, different layering sequences resulted in distinct evolution of the gas phase [24]. Kano and Ishido pointed out that the thickness of alternating sandstone and shale layers had rather large impact on the distribution of the supercritical plume and the long-term behavior of CO₂ [25]. Cavanagh and Haszeldine suggested that the threshold pressures of shale layers were responsible for the pattern of multiple thin layers of CO₂ within the Utsira Formation [26]. Sung et al. conducted a field scale simulation and suggested that the sloping of stratified formations had a significant effect on the migration behaviours of CO₂ plume [27].

Injected CO₂ will gradually dissolve in the formation brine that makes it safer than CO₂ in supercritical mobile form [28], and this is known as the solubility trapping mechanism. The multilayer property of the storage formation also affects this mechanism [29]. It is suggested that the layering of aquifer storage formation increased the dissolution rate of CO₂ because the two-phase contact area was larger [30]. In the low-permeability layer in stratified systems, in spite of the fact that the dominant mixing mechanism may be the diffusive mixing process instead of the much faster convective mixing process, the horizontal distribution of the plume spread under low-permeability layers increased the contact area and thus the dissolved CO₂ mass [31].

Although CO₂ storage in layered formations has been investigated extensively, the studies rarely take impurities into consideration. As a matter of fact, no matter which capture technology is adopted, the captured CO₂ streams always contain a proportion of non-CO₂ species, such as N₂, O₂, Ar, H₂S, SO₂, etc. [32-34]. Since purity requirements significantly increase the total cost of CCS, most CCS projects employ impure CO₂. However, impurities will influence CO₂ storage security and effectiveness due to their distinctly different properties from that of CO₂ [e.g., 34-40]. It is thus necessary to investigate the coupling effects of multilayered formation and impurity on CO₂ storage to obtain a better understanding of CCS. In the present study, numerical simulations were carried out to investigate the effects of capillary pressure and two common impurities, N₂ and H₂S, on CO₂ storage in stratified formations. Three aspects were mainly considered: (1) The evolution of the spatial distribution of CO₂ plume; (2) The distribution of CO₂ and impurity in the supercritical plume, including the partitioning phenomenon between CO₂ and the co-injected impurity; (3) Phase partition of CO₂ in the aqueous and non-aqueous phases. The study is expected to provide insights on the effects of impurities on geological carbon storage in multilayered formations, which can help the deployment of CCS technology.

2. Physical model

This study is patterned after the CO₂ injection project in Utsira Formation at the Vest field of Sleipner. Many features of the actual injection are captured, including the geometry and permeability of the host formation. However, in order to make a tractable problem, some simplifications have been made, including the assumption of isothermal conditions and the simplification of permeability details in the real situation [9,10]. As shown in Figure 1, it is a symmetric two-dimensional model, with the height of 184 m and width of 6000 m. Four layers of low-permeability shale are distributed in the high-permeability sand layers. The horizontal injection well is located 30 m beneath the fourth shale layer. Both the top and bottom boundaries are impermeable. The left boundary permits no flux through it while the right boundary condition is hydrostatic pressure, preventing possible overpressure of the formation. In the present study, the compositional reservoir simulator CMG-GEM [41] is adopted to carry out the computational simulations. The fluid properties and the model parameters are listed in Table 1. The correlations of relative permeability and capillary pressure are the same as those in the simulations of Pruess et al. [10].

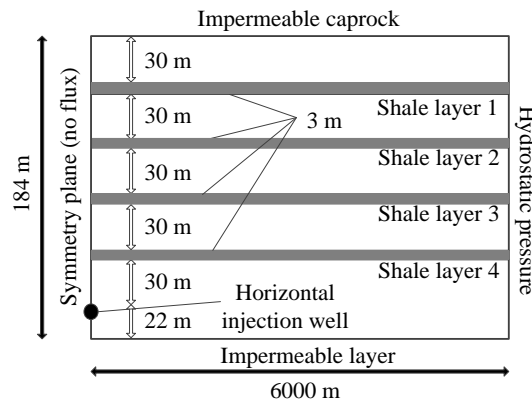


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the geometry in Utsira Formation [10].

The permeability and porosity of the formations are usually determined by practical measurement, while the capillary pressure is often provided by empirical or semi-empirical formula such as the correlation of Van Genuchten [42].

$$p_c = -P_0 \left(\left[S^* \right]^{-1/\lambda} - 1 \right)^{1-\lambda} \quad (1)$$

where P_0 stands for the intensity factor. In order to evaluate the effect of capillary pressure on the migration and distribution of the supercritical CO₂ plume in layered saline formations, different combinations of the intensity factor in sand and shale layers are adopted in this study, as listed in Table 2. The intensity factors in Case 4 are the same as those in the simulations of Pruess et al. [10].

It should be noted that the injected stream is pure CO₂ in the investigation of the effects of capillary pressure. For the investigation of the effects of impurity, the injected stream is the CO₂-N₂ and CO₂-H₂S mixture respectively, while the capillary pressures are set as the values in Case 4. Since the maximum possible mole fraction of N₂ in most practical CCS operations is 10% [33,43], the upper limit of N₂ concentration is chosen to be 10%. The concentrations of H₂S in the injected CO₂ streams are usually lower than 10%, except for the case of acid gas injections [e.g., 2,38]. However, in order to compare and analyze the effects of these two different impurities at equal concentration, the same initial feed gas compositions are adopted for CO₂-N₂ and CO₂-H₂S mixtures. Furthermore, the impurity mole fractions of 2% and 5% are also chosen in order to evaluate the effects of the variation of impurity concentrations.

Table 1. Fluid properties and model parameters.

Temperature	37 °C
Pressure at well	110 bar
Density of injected CO ₂	721.63 kg/m ³
Density of injected N ₂	117.79 kg/m ³
Density of injected H ₂ S	770.67 kg/m ³
Viscosity of injected CO ₂	5.8950×10 ⁻⁵ Pa·s
Viscosity of injected N ₂	2.0530×10 ⁻⁵ Pa·s
Viscosity of injected H ₂ S	1.3516×10 ⁻⁴ Pa·s
Salinity	3.2 wt.-%
Sand permeability	3×10 ⁻¹² m ²
Shale permeability	10 ⁻¹⁴ m ²
Sand porosity	0.35
Shale porosity	0.1025
Injection rate	17.23 m ³ /day
Injection time	2 years
Simulation time	10 years

Table 2. Cases for the investigations of capillary pressure.

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4
Sand layer P_0 (kPa)	0	3.58	3.58	3.58
Shale layer P_0 (kPa)	0	3.58	31.0	62.0

3. The effects of the capillary pressure

Figure 2 shows the distribution of gas saturation after 2 years' injection for different cases of capillary pressures, with the leading edge of CO₂ plume highlighted. The injected CO₂ plume tends to migrate upwards because its density is lower than that of the formation brine. However, the low-permeability and low-porosity shale layers hinder the rise of CO₂ plume. As a result, the plume accumulates and horizontally migrating away from the injection well under these shale layers. The phenomena are consistent with time-lapse seismic monitoring results that CO₂ would be retained in large thin clouds under the semi-permeable shale layers [4,26,44-47].

Comparing Figure 2a and 2b, it is found that the existence of capillary pressure affect the migration and distribution of the CO₂ plume in layered formations. When the capillary pressures in the sand and shale layers are the same but relatively small (Case 2), the maximum horizontal migration distance of the supercritical plume is less than 1800 m, shorter than that in Case 1 (about 2200 m). The shrinkage of the maximum horizontal migration distance is mainly because the capillary pressure in the sand layers makes it harder for CO₂ to displace the formation brine. Furthermore, the capillary pressure in the shale layers impedes the ascent of the CO₂ plume. As a result, CO₂ that has penetrated through the shale layers is less, resulting in shorter migration distance under shale layers 1-3. On the whole, when capillary pressure is not taken into account, the distribution range of high gas saturation ($S_g > 0.5$) is larger than that in the cases considering capillary pressure.

With the same capillary pressure in the sand layers, the variation of capillary pressure in the shale layers would alter the distribution range of the supercritical plume (from Case 2 to Case 4). When the capillary pressure in the shale layers increases, the upward movement of the CO₂ plume becomes more difficult. As a result, more CO₂ would be retained under shale layer 4 and migrate horizontally farther away. At the meantime, the amount of CO₂ that has ascended through the shale layers decreases, particularly the amount of supercritical CO₂ that has reached and accumulated under the caprock (Figures 2b-d). Anyway, during the injection period, the effects of capillary pressure are insignificant since the main driving force for the migration of the CO₂ stream is the pressure buildup caused by injection.

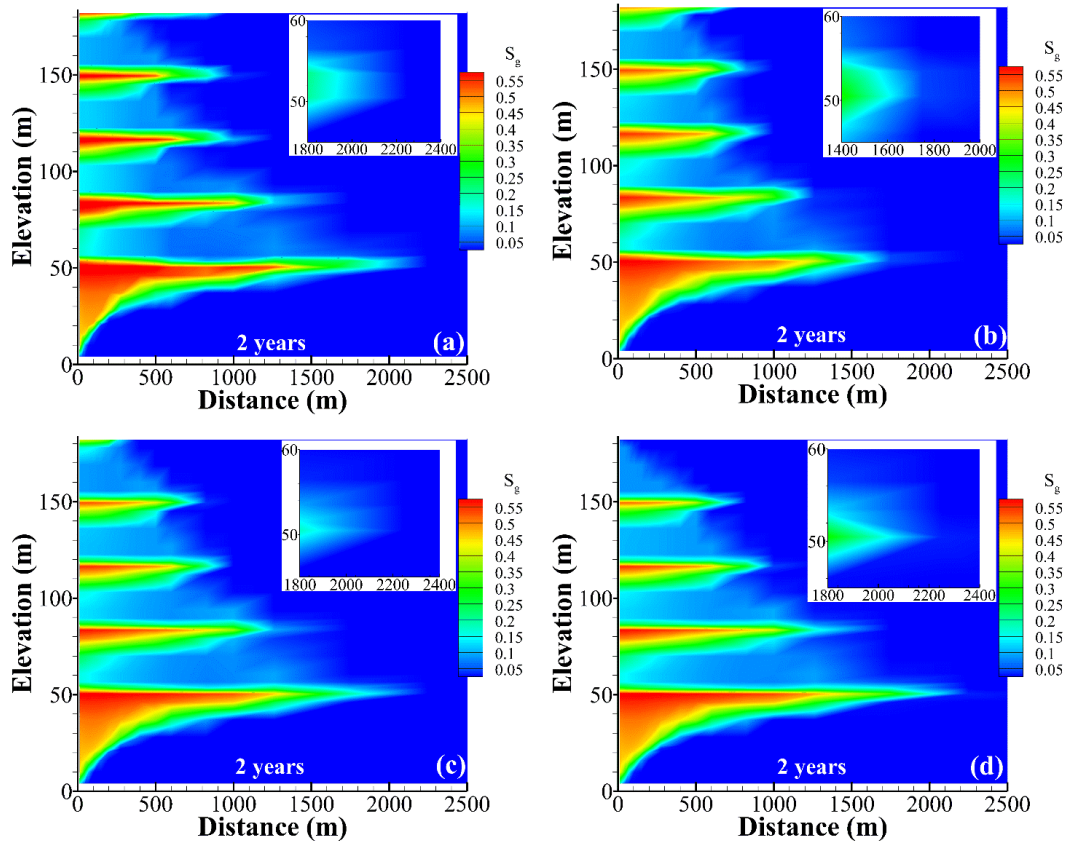


Fig. 2. The distribution of gas saturation after 2 years' injection for different cases of capillary pressures: (a) Case 1; (b) Case 2; (c) Case 3; (d) Case 4.

Figures 3 and 4 illustrate the distribution of gas saturation after 5 years and 10 years, respectively. When the 2 years' injection has stopped, the pressure buildup caused by CO₂ injection decreases gradually. During the first few years of the post-injection period, CO₂ stream continues migrating farther away, but at a rather slow pace. For instance, the leading edge of CO₂ plume in Case 1 only advances 200 m in 3 years after the injection has stopped (Figure 3a). Moreover, the formation brine would backflow during the post-injection period. At the meantime, CO₂ plume continues rising up due to buoyancy effects. As a result, the migration distance of CO₂ under shale layers decreases, while the migration distance of CO₂ under the impermeable caprock increases considerably. As a matter of fact, with more and more CO₂ accumulating under the caprock, it becomes the leading edge of CO₂ plume (Figure 4a).

When the capillary pressure is relatively small (Case 2), the distribution of gas saturation shares a similar pattern with that in Case 1, except that the migration distance is shorter. By careful examination between Figure 3a and 3b, it is found that difference of the migration distance is less than 300 m after 5 years, while the difference is more than 400 m after 2 years (Figures 2a and 2b). This is because the capillary pressure in the sand layers hinders the backflow of the formation brine during the post-injection period.

The capillary pressure in the shale layers plays an important role in the evolution of the CO₂ plume in layered formations after the injection has stopped. As can be seen in Figures 4c and 4d, instead of shrinking like that in Case 1 or 2, the supercritical CO₂ plume under the shale layers migrates gradually outwards from the injection site during the post-injection period. This is mainly because the relatively large capillary pressure in the shale layers limits the upward moving of the CO₂ plume, and thus more CO₂ is kept under the shale layers. As a consequence, the gas pressure of the remaining CO₂ stream is large enough to keep the stream migrating forwards.

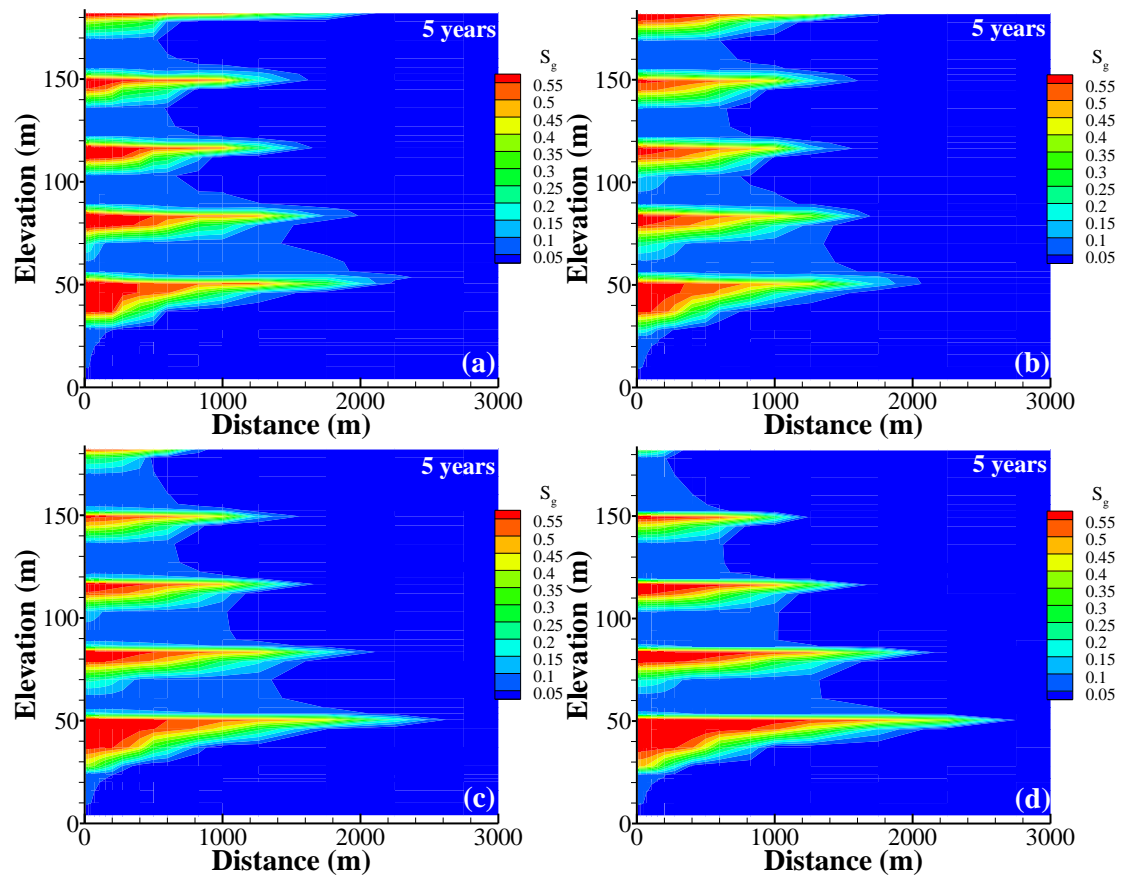
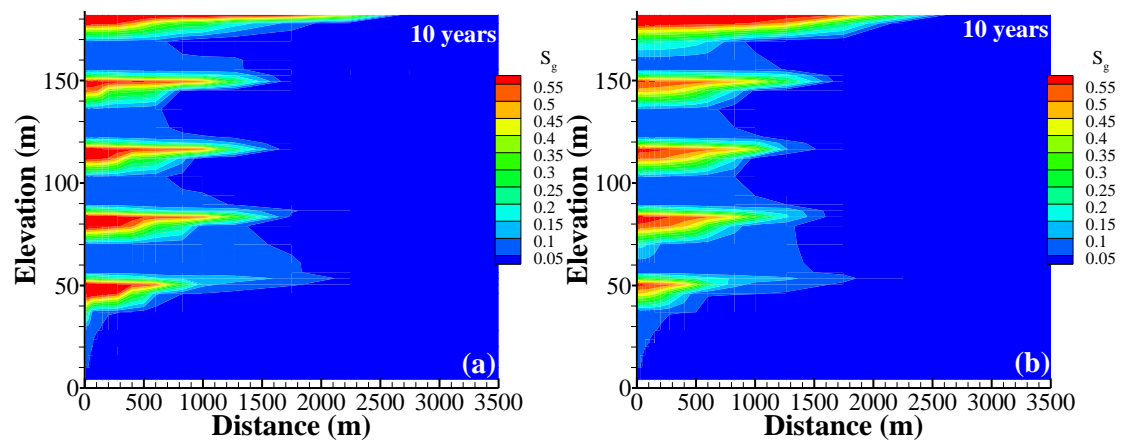


Fig. 3. The distribution of gas saturation after 5 years for different cases of capillary pressures: (a) Case 1; (b) Case 2; (c) Case 3; (d) Case 4.



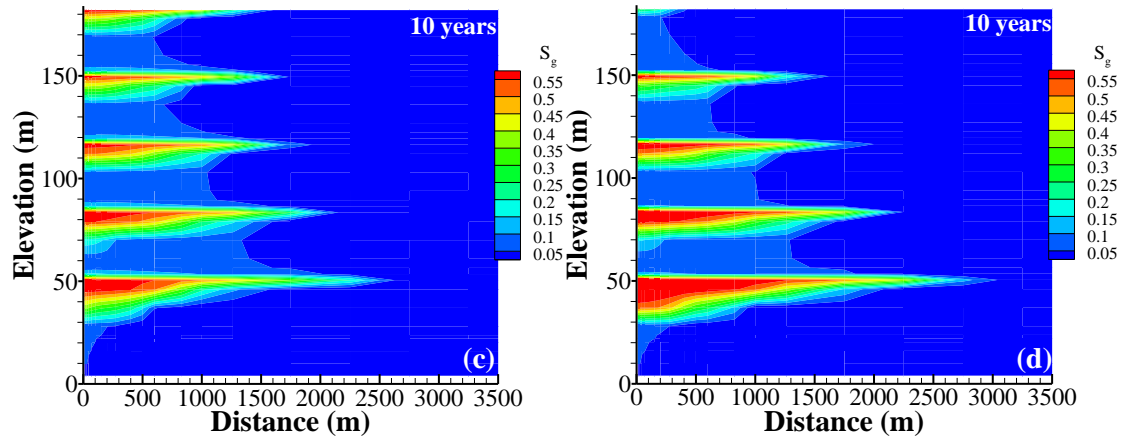


Fig. 4. The distribution of gas saturation after 10 years for different cases of capillary pressures: (a) Case 1; (b) Case 2; (c) Case 3; (d) Case 4.

CO₂ would slowly dissolve in the formation brine at the two-phase contact area after injection. Figure 5 presents the variation of dissolved CO₂ mass and dissolved CO₂ ratio for the four cases, and Table 3 lists the dissolved CO₂ ratio for different cases of capillary pressures at 10 years. Since the same amount of CO₂ has been injected, the variation trend of dissolved CO₂ ratio is the same as that of dissolved CO₂ mass. During the injection period, the dominant force for the CO₂ stream to displace the formation brine is the pressure buildup caused by injection, while the effect of capillary pressure can be neglected. As a result, the variation of capillary pressure does not have noticeable effects on the evolution of dissolved CO₂ mass during the first 2 years. It should be noted that the dissolved CO₂ mass in Case 2 is the least at 2 years. This can be explained by the distribution range of the CO₂ plume: as shown in Figure 2, the spread of CO₂ plume in Case 2 is the smallest at 2 years, which means the smallest two-phase contact area and the least amount of dissolved CO₂ mass.

During the post-injection period, the capillary pressure has significant influence on the dissolved CO₂ mass and ratio. In Case 1 without regard to capillary pressure, the amount of CO₂ dissolved in the formation brine is the highest. With increasing capillary pressure in the shale layers (from Case 2 to Case 4), dissolved CO₂ mass decreases correspondingly. The main reason is that the capillary pressure in the sand layers hinders the backflow of the formation brine while the capillary pressure in the shale layers limits the upward migration of the CO₂ plume, and thus the contact area between the CO₂ plume and the formation brine declines (Figure 4). As a result, the amount and ratio of CO₂ dissolved in the formation brine is reduced accordingly.

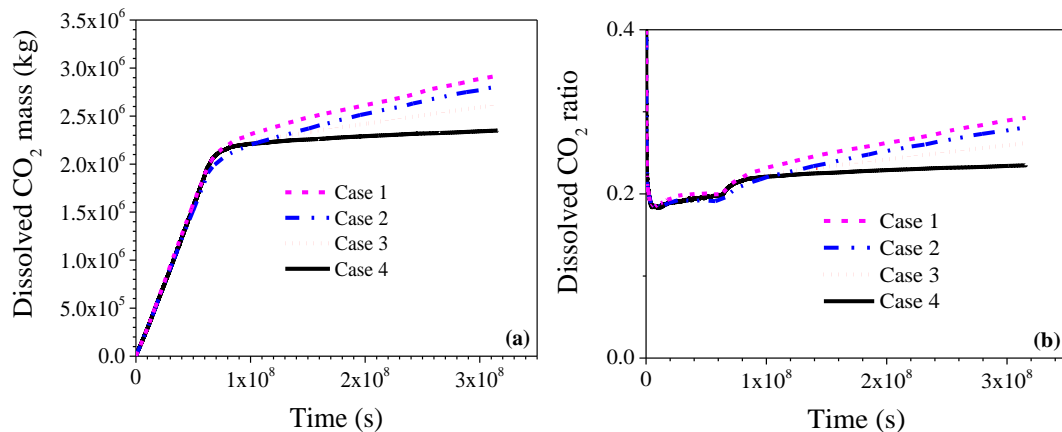


Fig. 5. The variation of (a) dissolved CO₂ mass and (b) dissolved CO₂ ratio for different cases of capillary pressures.

Table 3. Dissolved CO₂ ratio for different cases of capillary pressures at 10 years.

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4
Dissolved CO ₂ ratio	29.27%	28.10%	26.19%	23.48%

4. The effects of the N₂ and H₂S impurities

4.1 The variation of the spread of CO₂ plume

Figure 6 shows the distribution of the supercritical CO₂ plume after 2 years' injection for different injected mixtures, with the leading edge of the CO₂ plume highlighted. The horizontal migration distance of the CO₂ plume increases with increasing N₂ mole fraction during injection. For instance, when N₂ concentration is 10%, the leading edge of the CO₂ plume has reached about 3100 m after 2 years while it is only about 2200 m in the pure CO₂ case. Furthermore, CO₂ tends to accumulate under the impermeable caprock, especially at higher N₂ concentrations (Figures 6d and 6f). However, the effects of the H₂S impurity at all the investigated concentrations on the distribution range of the CO₂ plume can hardly be observed during the first 2 years.

Figure 7 compares the distribution of the supercritical plume after 10 years for different injected mixtures. It shows that the CO₂ plume under the shale layers continues migrating outwards from the injection well during the post-injection period, which could be ascribed to the relatively large capillary pressure (equals the values in Case4, Table 2). With increasing N₂ concentration, the horizontal migration distance increases considerably during the post-injection period. Specifically, the migration distance of the 10% N₂ case, about 5500 m, is almost 2 times of that of the pure CO₂ case (3000 m) at 10 years. On the contrary, with increasing H₂S concentration in the injected stream, the migration distance of the plume away from the injection well reduces a little bit after 10 years: when the co-injected CO₂ stream contains 10% H₂S, the migration distance of the CO₂ plume reduces to about 2800 m which is 200 m shorter than that of the pure CO₂ case.

The distinct evolution of the plume could be explained by the different properties of these species. The viscosity of N₂ is much smaller than that of CO₂ (Table 1). The inclusion of N₂ increases the mobility of the CO₂ plume, and thus the plume could displace the formation brine more effectively [40]. Furthermore, since the density of N₂ is lower than that of CO₂, the buoyance force experienced by the CO₂-N₂ mixture is larger than that of pure CO₂. As a consequence, with increasing N₂ concentration in the injected stream, more supercritical plume would have accumulated under the top caprock. On the contrary, the viscosity of H₂S is relatively larger than that of CO₂, and the migration rate of the CO₂ plume decreases consequently. Moreover, since the density of H₂S is slightly larger than that of CO₂, the amount of the CO₂-H₂S mixture that have migrated upward is supposed to decrease. However, since the solubility of H₂S is better than CO₂, most H₂S at the leading edge of the CO₂-H₂S plume has dissolved preferentially in the formation brine, which explains why the distributions of the gas saturation are similar at different H₂S concentrations in the injected stream. On the other hand, since the solubility of N₂ is much lower than that of CO₂, the effect of the N₂ impurity on the spread of the CO₂ plume is pretty significant.

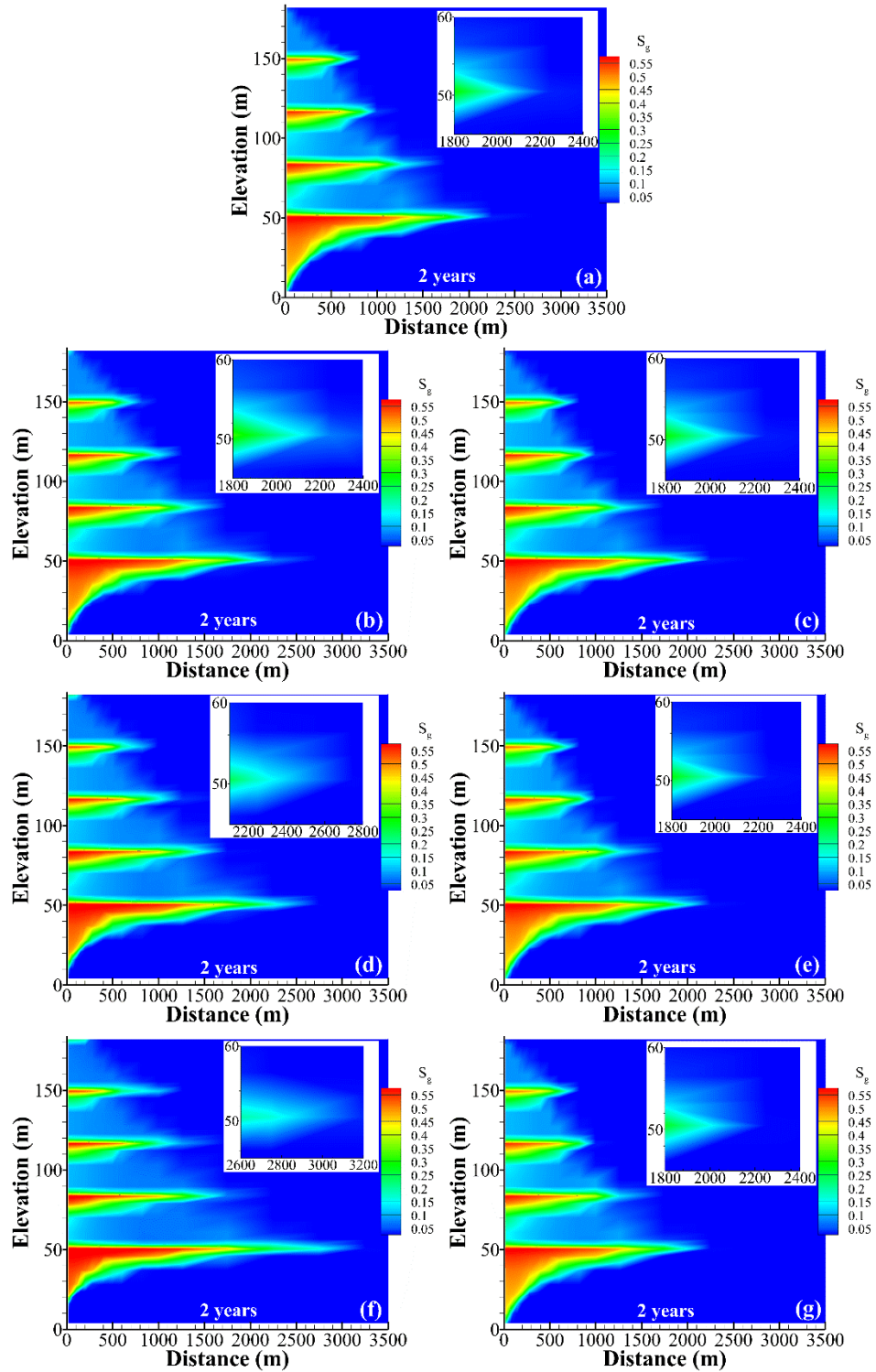


Fig. 6. The distribution of gas saturation after 2 years, (a) 100% CO₂, (b) 2% N₂, (c) 2% H₂S, (d) 5% N₂, (e) 5% H₂S, (f) 10% N₂, (g) 10% H₂S.

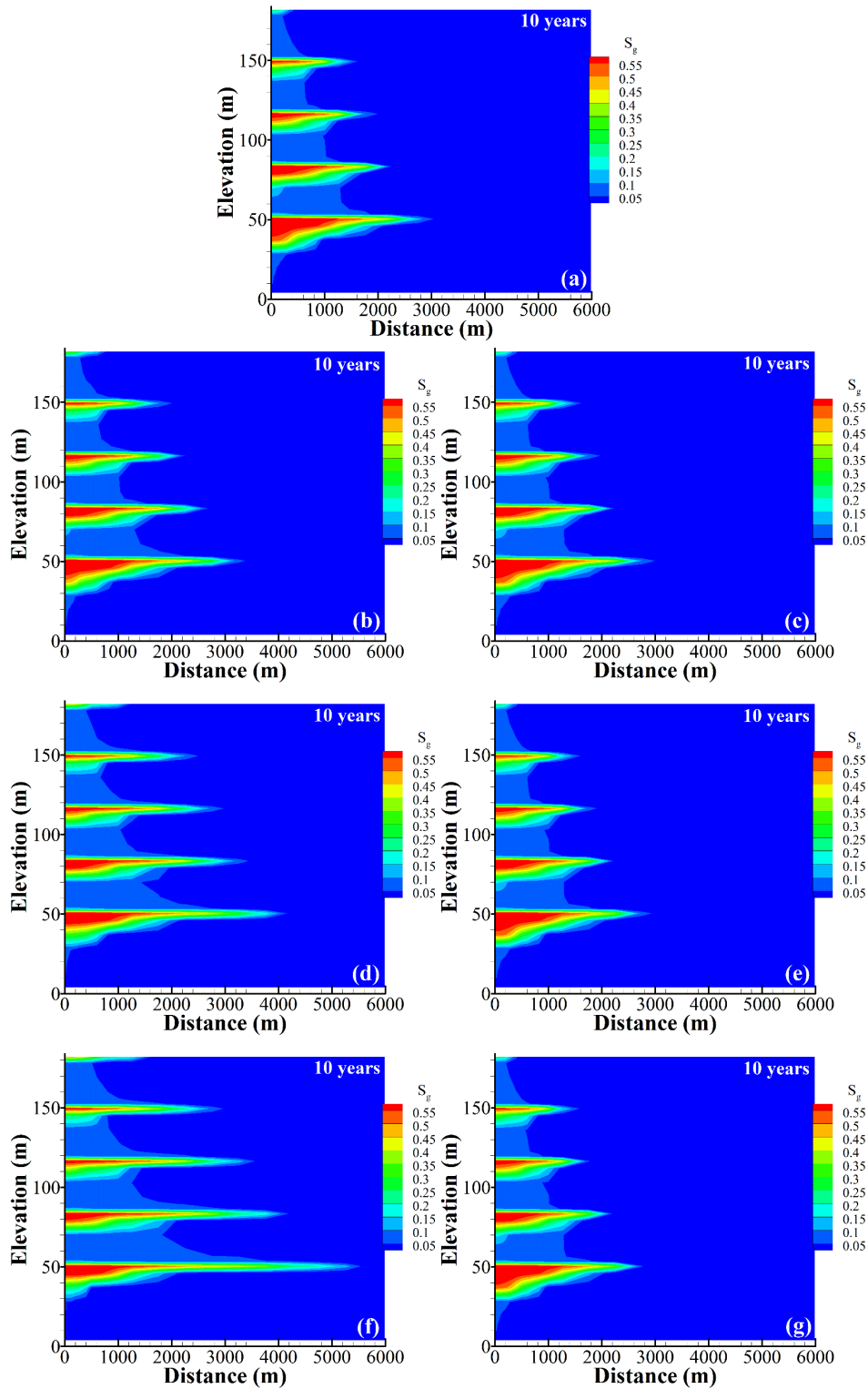


Fig. 7. The distribution of gas saturation after 10 years, (a) 100% CO₂, (b) 2% N₂, (c) 2% H₂S, (d) 5% N₂, (e) 5% H₂S, (f) 10% N₂, (g) 10% H₂S.

4.2 The partitioning phenomenon between CO₂ and the corresponding impurity

Figure 8 displays the distribution of the CO₂ concentration in the supercritical plume after 2 years, and Figure 9 presents the concentration distribution of the corresponding impurity (N₂ or H₂S) in the supercritical plume for different CO₂-impurity mixtures. When N₂ is co-injected with CO₂, higher concentration of CO₂ is found in the rear area of the advancing supercritical plume (Figures 8b, 8d and 8f), while N₂ dominates the

leading edge of the plume with much higher concentration than that in the injected mixture (Figures 9a, 9c and 9e). This is mainly because of the preferential dissolution of CO₂ compared with that of N₂. More CO₂ would dissolve in the formation brine at the leading edge of the plume, resulting in higher N₂ concentration in the gas phase. These results suggest that the partitioning phenomenon [40] could also take place in the layered formation. Due to the lower viscosity of N₂, the distribution range of the CO₂ concentration as well as the N₂ concentration in the gas phase increases with increasing N₂ concentration in the injected stream. Furthermore, since its density is smaller, the buoyancy force experienced by N₂ is larger, which is the main reason why a higher concentration of N₂ is mainly found under the caprock. In the case of the H₂S impurity, since its solubility is higher than CO₂, CO₂ with higher concentration is mainly distributed at the leading edge of the supercritical plume, while H₂S is mainly found behind the leading edge with concentrations not exceeding that in the injected stream. H₂S hardly reaches the caprock after 2 years, because the density and solubility of H₂S is higher than that of CO₂. Besides, when the impurity is at the same concentration in injected stream, N₂ mole fraction in the supercritical plume at 2 years is much higher than H₂S (Figure 9).

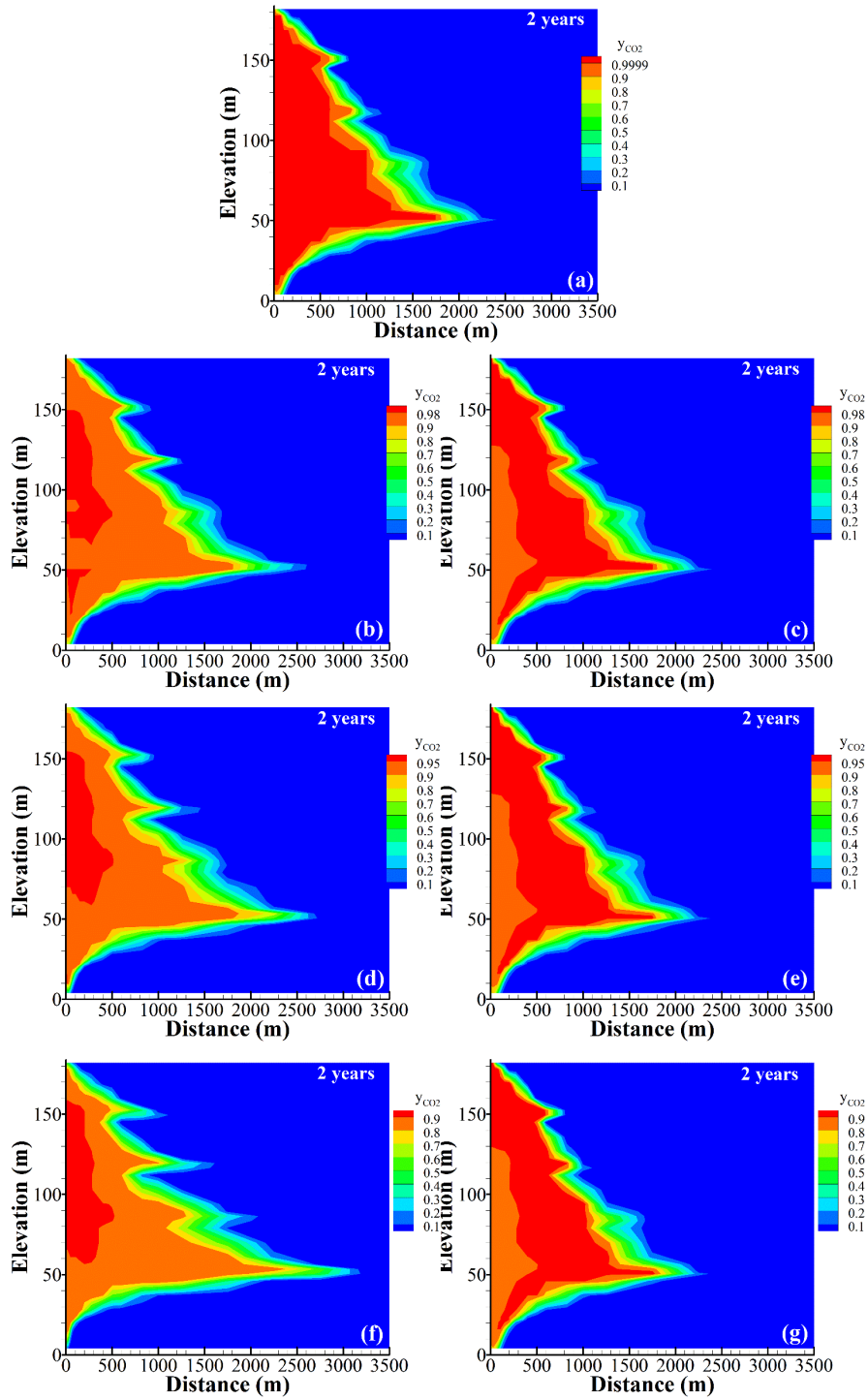


Fig. 8. The concentration distribution of CO₂ in the supercritical plume after 2 years, (a) 100% CO₂, (b) 2% N₂, (c) 2% H₂S, (d) 5% N₂, (e) 5% H₂S, (f) 10% N₂, (g) 10% H₂S.

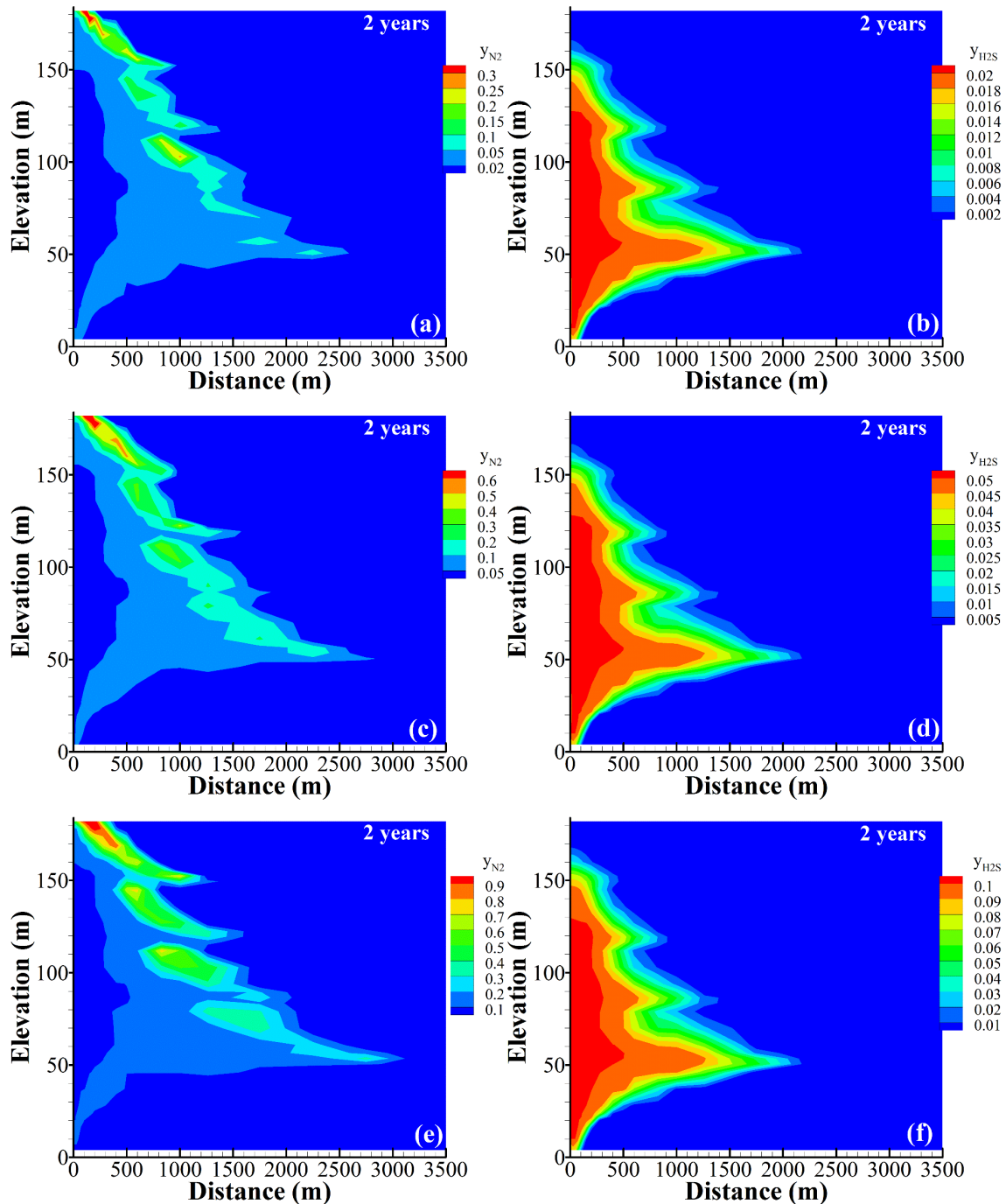


Fig. 9. The concentration distribution of impurity in the supercritical plume after 2 years, (a) 2% N₂, (b) 2% H₂S, (c) 5% N₂, (d) 5% H₂S, (e) 10% N₂, (f) 10% H₂S.

Figures 10 and 11 demonstrate the concentration distribution of CO₂ and the corresponding impurity (N₂ or H₂S) in the supercritical plume after 10 years, respectively. During the post-injection period, the plume continues migrating horizontally under the shale layers and displace the formation brine. Compared with the results at 2 years, the “viscous fingering” pattern of the CO₂ and impurity concentration is enhanced in the next 8 years.

Since the viscosity of N₂ is smaller than that of CO₂, the inclusion of N₂ would result in larger mobility of the CO₂-N₂ mixture, which means faster migration speed. As a result, with higher N₂ concentration in the injected stream, the horizontal migration distance of the CO₂-N₂ plume increases, leading to larger contact area between the formation brine and the plume. Consequently, more CO₂ would dissolve preferentially in

the brine due to its higher solubility, giving rise to a larger area of high N_2 concentration (>0.3). For instance, N_2 concentration at the leading edge of the displacing plume could reach more than 0.9 when the injected stream contains 10% N_2 (Figure 11e).

On the other hand, even though the viscosity of H_2S is much larger than that of CO_2 , the horizontal migration distance of CO_2 or H_2S only decreases slightly with increasing H_2S concentration because of the preferential solubility of H_2S . After 10 years, there is still no H_2S that has arrived at the caprock resulted from the higher solubility of H_2S and the relatively larger density than that of CO_2 . Moreover, H_2S concentration in the plume is basically the same as that in the injected stream.

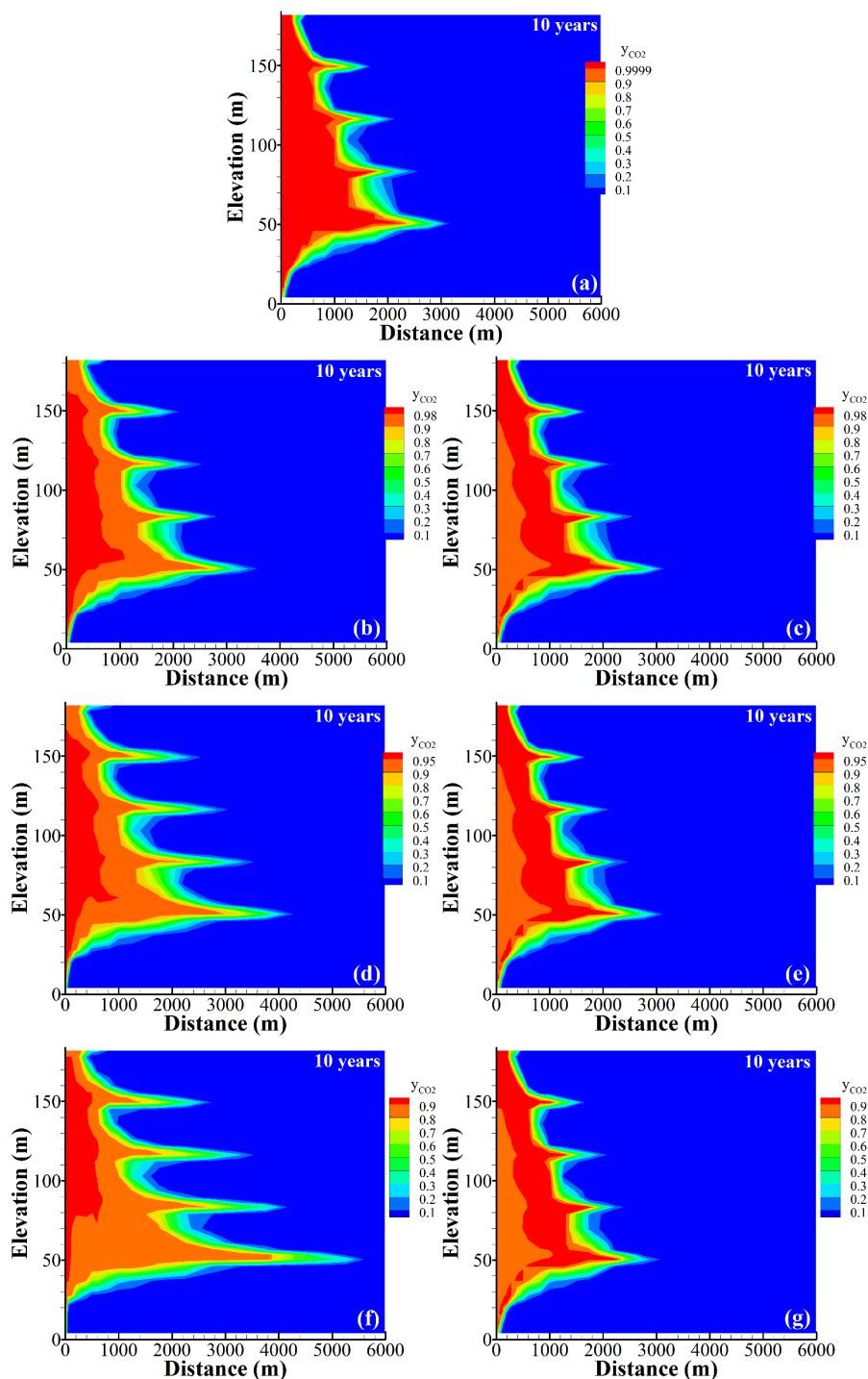


Fig. 10. The concentration distribution of CO_2 in the supercritical plume after 10 years, (a) 100% CO_2 , (b) 2% N_2 , (c) 2% H_2S , (d) 5% N_2 , (e) 5% H_2S , (f) 10% N_2 , (g) 10% H_2S .

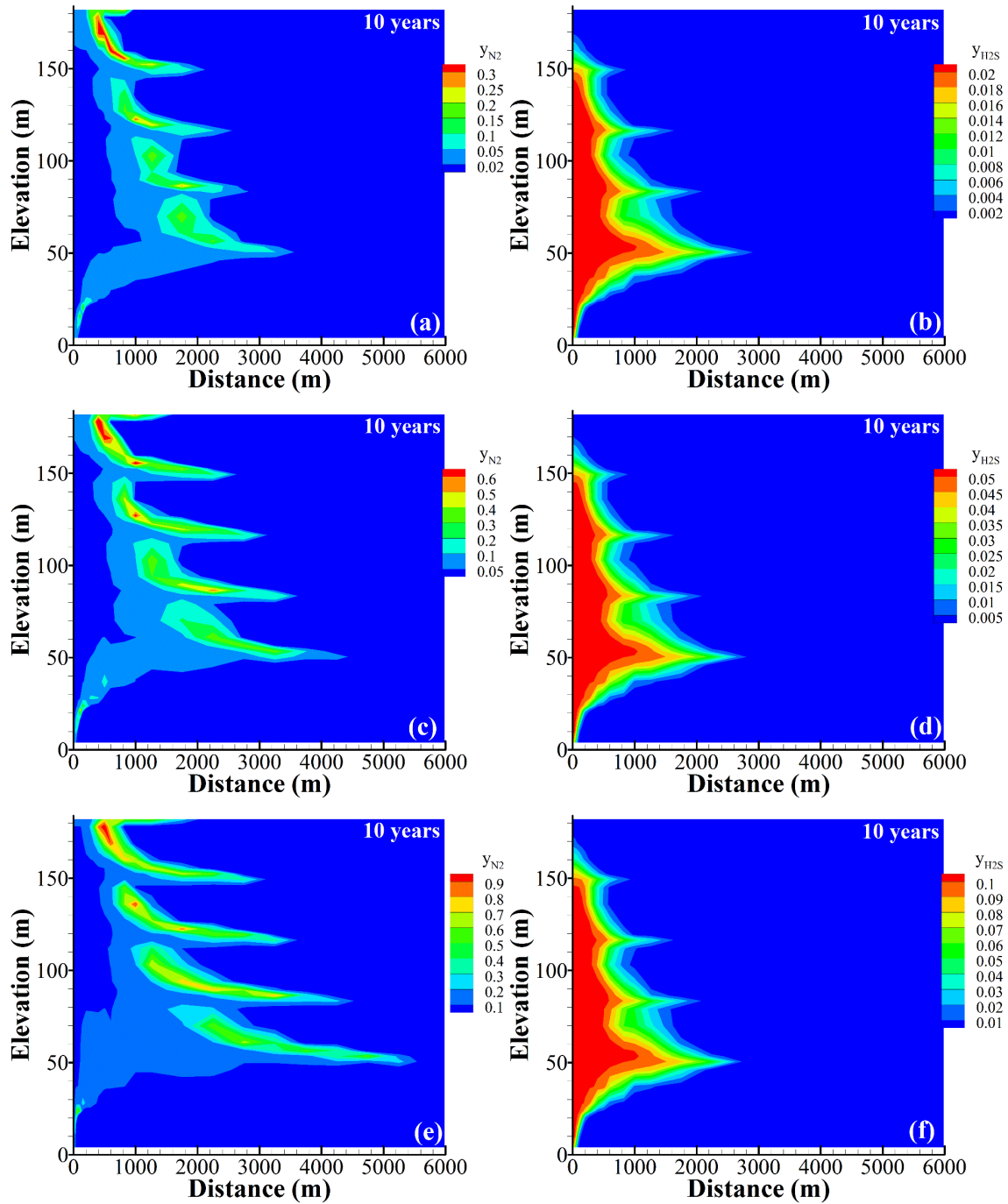


Fig. 11. The concentration distribution of impurity in the supercritical plume after 10 years, (a) 2% N₂, (b) 2% H₂S, (c) 5% N₂, (d) 5% H₂S, (e) 10% N₂, (f) 10% H₂S.

4.3 The variation of the dissolved CO₂ mass and ratio

Figure 12 presents the variations of the total injected CO₂ inventory, dissolved CO₂ mass and dissolved CO₂ ratio at different N₂ and H₂S concentrations, respectively. No matter what kind of impurity is co-injected, total amount of injected CO₂ decreases, which means a reduction of storage capacity of CO₂. Furthermore, with increasing impurity concentration, total injected CO₂ mass decreases accordingly (Figure 12a). Since N₂ is a non-condensable impurity, it reduces CO₂ capacity not only by replacement of CO₂, but also because it

does not compress to as great a degree as CO₂. As a result, the effect of N₂ on the reduction of total injected CO₂ mass is much stronger than that of H₂S.

The effect of N₂ on the dissolved CO₂ mass or ratio is opposite with that of H₂S. During the 2 years' injection period, neither the impurity species nor the impurity concentrations have made distinct difference in the dissolved CO₂ mass. During the post-injection period, however, the dissolved CO₂ mass increases considerably with increasing N₂ concentration in the injected CO₂ streams (Figure 12b). For example, although the 10% N₂ impurity cause the total injected CO₂ mass to reach its minimum (Figure 12a), it results in the maximum CO₂ mass dissolved. This is mainly due to the larger distribution range of the supercritical CO₂ plume with higher N₂ concentration (Figure 7), that is, the contact area between the CO₂ plume and the formation brine is larger, and thus more CO₂ dissolves. The effect of H₂S on the dissolved CO₂ mass is opposite with that of N₂ because of the shrinkage of the two-phase area (Figure 7).

As can be seen in Figure 12c, the proportion of dissolved CO₂ increases with increasing N₂ concentration while effects of H₂S concentration on the dissolved CO₂ ratio is limited. Table 4 lists the results of dissolved CO₂ ratio for different injected mixtures at 10 years. It can be seen that although the effects of H₂S is minor, the dissolved CO₂ ratio decreases slightly with increasing H₂S concentration. In general, the effect of N₂ is much more obvious than that of H₂S at the same concentration.

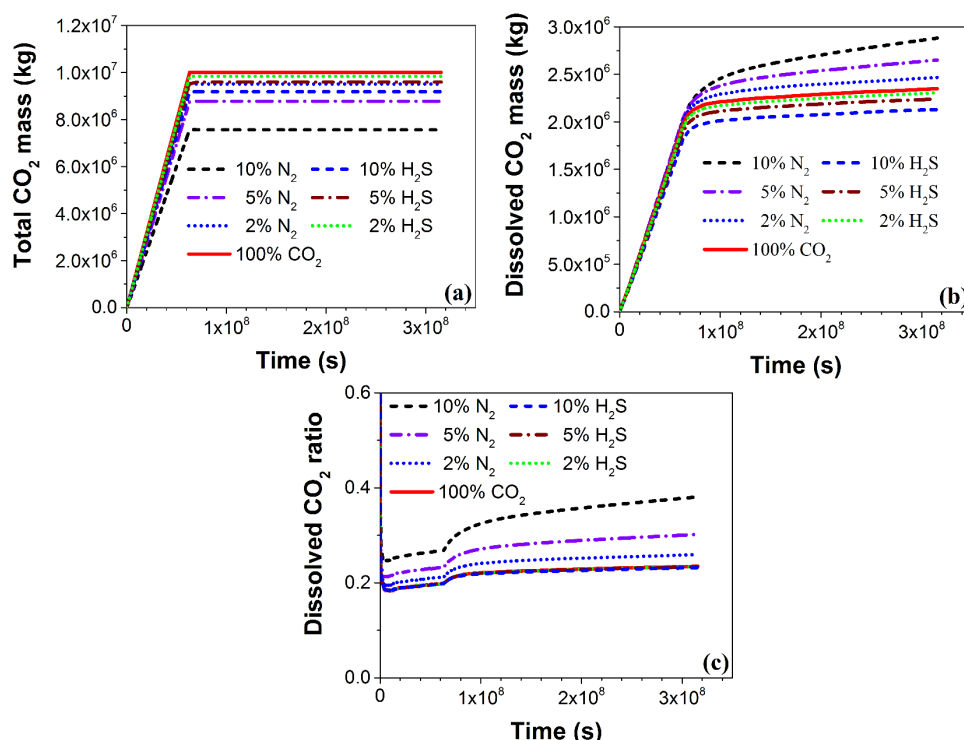


Fig. 12. The variations of (a) total CO₂ injected mass, (b) dissolved CO₂ mass and (c) dissolved CO₂ ratio, with N₂ or H₂S mole fractions varying from 0 to 10%.

Table 4. Dissolved CO₂ ratio for different injected mixtures at 10 years.

	100% CO ₂	2% N ₂	5% N ₂	10% N ₂	2% H ₂ S	5% H ₂ S	10% H ₂ S
Dissolved CO ₂ ratio	23.48%	25.94%	30.20%	38.09%	23.45%	23.37%	23.18%

5. Conclusions and future work

Most potential geological formations suitable for CO₂ storage are stratified. More importantly, non-CO₂ species are often co-injected with CO₂ to reduce costs in practical CCS projects. The properties of both the multilayered formations and the impurities would affect the security and effectiveness of CO₂ geological storage. In this study, the effects of N₂ and H₂S impurity on CO₂ geological storage in multilayered brine

formations were investigated numerically, by using the basic geological conditions in the Vest Field at Sleipner, Norway. This work firstly investigated the effects of capillary pressure in layered formations on the migration behaviour of injected CO₂, in terms of the distribution of the supercritical CO₂ plume and the dissolved CO₂ mass/ratio. It was found that the capillary pressure did not make much difference during injection but the impact became much bigger during the post-injection period. The existence of the capillary pressure in the sand layers would hinder the backflow of the saline brine to some extent, resulting in smaller contact area between the plume and the brine. The capillary pressure in the shale layers, on the other hand, would limit the upward moving of the CO₂ plume. As a result, the dissolved CO₂ mass decreased with increasing capillary pressure.

When CO₂ was injected with the low-viscosity N₂ impurity, the horizontal migration distance of the CO₂-N₂ plume was longer when the concentration of the N₂ impurity was higher. In addition, the existence of the N₂ impurity enhanced the upward movement of the CO₂ plume due to its lower density. Consequently, the distribution range of the CO₂ plume was larger when N₂ concentration was higher. More CO₂ dissolved in the formation brine due to the larger contact area between the CO₂ plume and the formation fluids, and the dissolved CO₂ ratio was also larger. On the contrary, the effect of the H₂S impurity was opposite with that of the N₂ impurity: the lateral plume spread slightly decreased with increasing H₂S concentration as a result of the higher viscosity of H₂S than that of CO₂. The total dissolved CO₂ mass in the formation brine also decreased with increasing H₂S content. At the same impurity mole fraction, the effect of N₂ was much stronger than that of H₂S, partially because H₂S at the leading edge has preferentially dissolved in the formation brine. Because of the preferential dissolution of the other species in the saline brine, the leading edge of the plume was mainly made up of the species with relatively lower solubility, such as N₂ in the CO₂-N₂ mixture and CO₂ in the CO₂-H₂S mixture. Furthermore, the concentrations of the dominant species, *e.g.*, N₂, at the leading edge was much higher than that in the injected stream.

Our results could provide reference for the kinds and concentrations allowed in the impure CO₂ storage in layered formations. Take N₂ as an example: on the one hand, non-condensable N₂ decreases the storage capacity of CO₂, and increases the leakage risk of the injected plume because it leads to a larger distribution range of the plume both in the vertical and horizontal direction. On the other hand, the larger distribution range also results in an increase of the dissolved CO₂ mass and ratio. Furthermore, the partitioning phenomenon between CO₂ and N₂ could be used for devising monitoring procedures of possible leakage since N₂ flows ahead of CO₂ and would be detected earlier than CO₂ if leakage happens. Combined with the consideration of the effects of N₂ impurity on capture and transportation, the optimal range of N₂ impurity allowed in the injected stream could be determined.

In the present study, isothermal conditions were employed in the simulations for simplicity. In the future, the impact of temperature and multiple impurities will be taken into account since most impure CO₂ storage involves more than one kind of non-CO₂ species. In addition, fully three-dimensional simulations will be needed for practical storage scenarios.

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