

1 **Coupling effects of native H₂S and different co-injected impurities on CO₂**
2 **sequestration in layered saline aquifers**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Impurity effects are an intricate issue in CO₂ geological storage, involving both pre-dissolved
12 impurities in the geological medium and co-injected impurities. Numerical simulations were
13 carried out in this study to investigate the coupling effects of pre-dissolved H₂S and different co-
14 injected impurities (H₂S, CH₄ and N₂) on CO₂ sequestration in layered sour saline aquifers. The
15 native H₂S would be exsolved out of the sour formation brine and pushed ahead by the injected
16 plume. The exsolved H₂S reduced the concentrations of the injected gases at the two-phase
17 interface. Particularly, when H₂S was co-injected with CO₂ into the sour saline aquifers, both
18 dissolved CO₂ inventory and dissolved CO₂ ratio would reduce by nearly half compared with that
19 in the regular saline aquifers without native H₂S. It was observed that the decrease of the dissolved
20 CO₂ ratio due to the existence of the native H₂S is much compensated by the co-injection of CH₄
21 or N₂. Nevertheless, the native impurity seems to have more profound effects on CO₂ sequestration
22 than the co-injected impurities. The results should be considered in selecting appropriate
23 sequestration sites and establishing risk assessment strategies.

24 **Keywords:** CO₂ geological sequestration, native H₂S, co-injected impurity, numerical
25 simulation

26 1. Introduction

27 CO₂ geological storage (CGS) is one of the promising options to reduce CO₂ emissions from
28 power plants based on fossil fuels (mainly natural gas and coal) into the atmosphere (Bachu 2008,
29 Jiang 2011). Furthermore, CGS is regarded as the only available technology that addresses this
30 greenhouse gas issue while allowing for the continued use of fossil fuels (Celia 2017, Oh et al.
31 2019). There are different candidate reservoirs for CGS, including deep saline aquifers, depleted
32 oil and gas reservoirs, and unminable coal beds (Aminu et al. 2017). Amongst them, CGS in the
33 deep saline aquifers is expected to be the most promising option in the short-to-medium term (Jiang
34 2011). While non-CO₂ species could be commonly included in the injected CO₂ streams in order
35 to reduce the total cost of CGS, they could also be found within the formation reservoir prior to
36 CO₂ injection. It has been proven that some potential deep saline aquifers suitable for CO₂
37 geological storage may contain a combination of dissolved CO₂, H₂S and/or light hydrocarbons
38 such as methane (Ghaderi et al. 2011a, b, Talman 2015). For example, the Nisku aquifer in Canada
39 which is designated for large-volume CO₂ injection and storage contains certain concentration of
40 dissolved H₂S (Hutcheon 1999).

41 Similar to the co-injected impurities, these pre-existing species are expected to affect the
42 transport and long-term fate of the injected CO₂ streams and certainly are worthy of attention.
43 However, the impurity effects on CGS are intricate and have not been fully understood. In fact, the
44 available investigations mainly focused on pure CO₂ injection in to reservoirs containing pre-
45 dissolved CH₄ or H₂S. Both field observations and simulation results suggested that the pre-existing
46 species would exsolve out of the formation brine in response to CO₂ injection (Battistelli and
47 Marcolini 2009, Doughty and Freifeld 2013, Li and Li 2015). For example, it has been confirmed
48 that CO₂ is capable of removing less soluble components such as CH₄ from the formation brine
49 (Qafoku et al. 2017). It was unlikely for the extracted CH₄ to dissolve back into the formation brine
50 (Taggart 2010). Field observations and sampling also confirmed the emergence of an anomalously
51 increased CH₄ concentration near the plugged and abandoned wells (Hovorka et al. 2011). There
52 could be a nearly pure CH₄-rich plume ahead of the CO₂ displacement front (Hosseini et al. 2012,

53 Soltanian et al. 2018). The extraction of native CH₄ and the resulting CH₄ plume ahead of the CO₂
54 plume could be useful in monitoring leakage (Qafoku et al. 2017). The extraction of CH₄ may also
55 provide additional methane mobilization and recovery. In the case of geopressured-geothermal
56 aquifers with large quantities of dissolved methane and geothermal energy, the application of the
57 produced CH₄ along with geothermal energy had the potential to offset the cost of capture and
58 storage (Ganjdanesh et al. 2015). For natural gas reservoirs, injecting CO₂ would result in enhanced
59 gas recovery and effective CO₂ sequestration at the same time (Zangeneh et al. 2013). However,
60 for most potential storage reservoirs, the feasibility of the beneficial use of the produced CH₄ was
61 pretty low because the gas-phase saturations in the CH₄-rich bank were too small (Oldenburg et al.
62 2013).

63 Apart from the low-solubility CH₄, dissolved H₂S in the saline aquifers prior to CO₂ injection
64 was also implied to be extracted from the formation aquifers during gas injection. Since H₂S has a
65 more preferential solubility in the formation brine than CH₄, the amount of H₂S which has the
66 potential to partition into the gas phase was also more significant (Talman 2015). Depending on
67 the thermodynamic equilibrium at the two-phase boundary, it was suggested that there was
68 substantial fraction of H₂S accumulating at the leading edge of the advancing plume during CO₂
69 injection (Ghaderi et al. 2011a, b, Ghaderi and Leonenko 2015). The leading edge of the plume
70 may even contain pure H₂S depending on the reservoir conditions (Cholewinski et al. 2016).

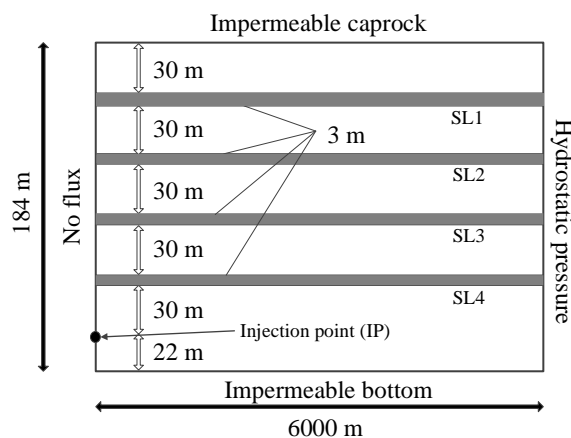
71 The aforementioned investigations play an important role in establishing monitoring strategies
72 as well as risk assessment for potential leakage during CO₂ sequestration, especially for projects in
73 the sour saline aquifers containing toxic H₂S. However, investigations about the interplay of the
74 native impurity and the co-injected impurity on CO₂ sequestration are much lacking, especially for
75 the coupling effects of the pre-dissolved H₂S in saline aquifers and different co-injected impurities.
76 Furthermore, most previous studies investigating the effects of native H₂S on CO₂ sequestration
77 have adopted one-dimensional radial system which was assumed to be homogeneous and isotropic,
78 while most potential geological formations are layered due to deposition and erosion in the strata
79 forming process. In the present study, we evaluate and compare the coupling effects of native H₂S

80 and different co-injected impurities, including H₂S, N₂, and CH₄, on CO₂ sequestration in layered
81 saline aquifers. Our goal is to provide insights on the transport and fate of both co-injected and pre-
82 existing impurities in more realistic layered reservoirs, which might be helpful in the deployment
83 of large-scale CGS technology.

84 2. Simulation methodology

85 2.1 Model setup

86 Numerical simulations are performed in the layered formation with alternating high-
87 permeability (as well as high-porosity) and low-permeability (as well as low-porosity) layers to
88 simply mimic real reservoirs in a realistic way. As shown in Figure 1, the present model is mainly
89 patterned after the Sleipner project in the Utsira Formation (Pruess et al. 2002). The two-
90 dimensional (2D) vertical section is 184 m in height and 6000 m in length. The width of the 2D
91 section is one-meter thick. The adopted model embeds four layers of low-permeability shale in the
92 high-permeability sand to represent the main features of the host formation. For simple reference,
93 the four shale layers are naming as SL1 to SL4 from top to bottom. The injection well which is
94 represented by IP (injection point) for simplicity, is 30 m below SL4 and 22 m above the bottom
95 boundary. The left boundary condition is set as no flux while the right boundary 6000 m away is
96 set to have constant hydrostatic pressure in order to prevent potential overpressure. Both the top
97 and bottom boundaries are set as impermeable.



98

99 Figure 1. Schematic representation of the modelling domain, modified from Pruess et al. (Pruess et al. 2002).

100 Generally, CO₂ sequestration in deep saline aquifers is expected to occur at depths below 800
 101 m where CO₂ has a high density ranging from 500-800 kg/m³, which is beneficial to the storage
 102 efficiency and security (Metz et al. 2005). Assuming the injection point in the present model is at
 103 depth below 1200 m, the temperature at the injection well is taken as 61 °C, given that the
 104 temperature at the land surface is 25 °C and that the geothermal gradient is 30 °C/km. The
 105 hydrostatic pressure at depth below 1200 m is assumed to be 110 bar. The details of the formation
 106 and fluid properties are listed in Table 1. The salinity and injection rate are the same as those in the
 107 investigation of Ghaderi et al. (Ghaderi et al. 2011a), while the values of porosity and permeability
 108 for both the sand and shale layers are adopted from a sample problem using similar model (Pruess
 109 et al. 2002). All the other properties are taken from our previous investigation of the co-injected
 110 impurities in stratified formation (Li et al. 2017, 2018).

111 Table 1. Fluid properties and model parameters.

Property	Value
Temperature at injection well	61 °C
Pressure at injection well	110 bar
Salinity	118950 mg/L
Sand permeability	3×10^{-12} m ²
Shale permeability	1×10^{-14} m ²
Vertical to horizontal permeability ratio	0.1
Sand porosity	0.35
Shale porosity	0.1025
Residual gas saturation	0.05
Irreducible liquid saturation	0.2
Injection rate	4 m ³ /day
Injection time	2 years
Simulation time	10 years

112 It has been suggested that the possible upper limit of the co-injected impurity in most practical
 113 CGS projects is 10% (mole fraction) (Li et al. 2011). In the present study, the concentration of all
 114 the co-injected impurity in the CO₂ stream is chosen to be 10% to compare the effects of different
 115 co-injected impurities in the sour saline aquifers. Five scenarios with different injected
 116 compositions and pre-existing H₂S conditions are selected, as listed in Table 2. The first four

117 scenarios are set to investigate the coupling effects of different co-injected impurities and native
 118 H₂S while the last scenario is used to evaluate the effects of native H₂S on sour gas (CO₂ and H₂S
 119 mixture) injection into the regular saline aquifers. It can be seen that two concentrations are chosen
 120 for the pre-dissolved H₂S, *i.e.*, saturated or none at all. In practical, considering the high solubility
 121 of H₂S in the formation brine and the tremendous capacity of potential reservoirs, along with the
 122 economic and secure concerns, it is unlikely that the sour reservoirs chosen for CO₂ sequestration
 123 are saturated with H₂S. In fact, previous investigation suggested that the concentration of dissolved
 124 H₂S was only “measurable” rather than “saturated” (Hutcheon 1999). Still, as a preliminary and
 125 sensitivity investigation, the case of saturated dissolved H₂S is adopted to obtain understanding of
 126 extreme consequences of pre-dissolved H₂S. The density and viscosity of the chosen species under
 127 the condition at the injection point are listed in Table 3.

128 Table 2. Injected compositions and pre-existing H₂S conditions for different simulation scenarios.

Scenario No.	Scenario name	Injected composition	Pre-existing H ₂ S
a	Base	100% CO ₂	Saturated
b	10% H ₂ S	90% CO ₂ + 10% H ₂ S	Saturated
c	10% CH ₄	90% CO ₂ + 10% CH ₄	Saturated
d	10% N ₂	90% CO ₂ + 10% N ₂	Saturated
e	10% H ₂ S without pre-H ₂ S	90% CO ₂ + 10% H ₂ S	None

129 Table 3. Density and viscosity of different species at the injection point.

Species	Density (kg/m ³)	Viscosity (Pa·s)
CO ₂	349.10	2.687×10 ⁻⁵
H ₂ S	706.59	1.048×10 ⁻⁴
CH ₄	70.06	1.473×10 ⁻⁵
N ₂	108.14	2.137×10 ⁻⁵

130 2.2 Modelling approach

131 The compositional reservoir simulator CMG-GEM (Computer Modelling Group, 2012),

132 capable of multiphase multicomponent flow simulations, is employed to perform the computational
 133 simulations. Assuming local thermodynamic equilibrium of the gaseous and aqueous phase, the
 134 general Henry's law (Li and Nghiem, 1986) is used to calculate the dissolution and exsolution of
 135 the gas components in and from the formation brine,

$$136 \quad f_i = x_i H_i \quad (1)$$

137 where f_i is the fugacity of component i in the gaseous phase, x_i is the mole fraction of component i
 138 in the aqueous phase, and H_i is the Henry's constant of component i . The gas fugacity is calculated
 139 by the Peng-Robinson equation of state (EOS) (Peng and Robinson 1976) while the Henry's
 140 constant at pressure p and temperature T is calculated using the Harvey's correlation (Computer
 141 Modelling Group 2012, Harvey 1996),

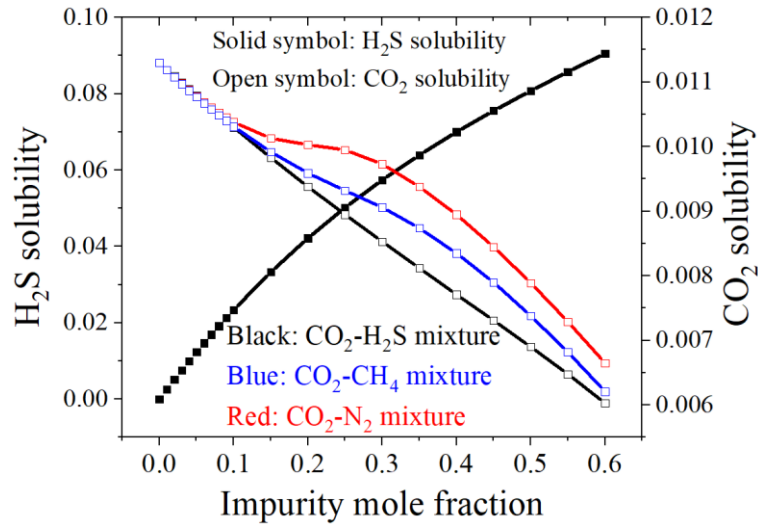
$$142 \quad \ln H_i = \ln H_i^s + \frac{1}{RT} \int_{p_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^s}^p v_i dP \quad (2)$$

$$143 \quad \ln H_i^s = \ln p_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^s + A(T_{r,\text{H}_2\text{O}})^{-1} + B(1 - T_{r,\text{H}_2\text{O}})^{0.355} (T_{r,\text{H}_2\text{O}})^{-1} + C[\exp(1 - T_{r,\text{H}_2\text{O}})](T_{r,\text{H}_2\text{O}})^{-0.41} \quad (3)$$

$$144 \quad T_{r,\text{H}_2\text{O}} = \frac{T}{T_{c,\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \quad (4)$$

145 where H_i^s is Henry's constant of component i at the saturation pressure of H_2O ($p_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^s$) and
 146 temperature T , v_i is the partial molar volume of component i in the aqueous phase, $T_{r,\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ and $T_{c,\text{H}_2\text{O}}$
 147 is the reduced temperature and critical temperature of H_2O , respectively. For the selected gas
 148 components in the present study, the values of parameters A , B and C in Eq. (3) can be found in
 149 Harvey's study (Harvey 1996). The partial molar volume of each component is obtained by
 150 temperature-dependent correlation (Computer Modelling Group 2012). The Harvey's correlation
 151 has demonstrated its ability to successfully fit with available data and even to extrapolate data to
 152 higher temperatures. Its mean standard deviation can be as low as 0.0087 and it is applicable over
 153 large temperature ranges (Harvey 1996). Furthermore, in order to consider the salting-out effects,
 154 the salting-out coefficient as a function of temperature is also adopted for each component to obtain
 155 the corresponding Henry's constant in brine (Computer Modelling Group, 2012).

156 As an example to illustrate the impact of gas composition on solubility, Figure 2 shows the
 157 solubility of CO₂ in different binary mixtures with impurity mole fraction up to 0.6 at fixed
 158 temperature 61 °C and pressure 110 bar with the salinity of 118950 mg/L. The solubility of H₂S is
 159 also shown while both the solubility of CH₄ and N₂ under the chosen conditions is lower than 1×10⁻
 160 ⁴ and is thus neglected in the figure. It can be seen that when the impurity concentration is no more
 161 than 0.1, the solubility of CO₂ in different binary mixtures is similar. When the impurity
 162 concentration increases, however, the reduction of CO₂ solubility by different non-CO₂ species is
 163 slightly different. Compared with the gradual decrease of CO₂ solubility, H₂S solubility increases
 164 significantly with its increasing concentration in the CO₂-H₂S mixture because of its preferential
 165 solubility.



166
 167 Figure 2 Solubility of CO₂ and H₂S in different binary mixtures at temperature 61 °C and pressure 110 bar with the
 168 salinity of 118950 mg/L.

169 The capillary pressure p_c is provided by the van Genuchten correlation (van Genuchten 1980)
 170 as follows,

171
$$p_c = -P_0 \left([S^*]^{-1/\lambda} - 1 \right)^{1-\lambda} \quad (5)$$

172
$$S^* = \frac{S_l - S_{lr}}{1 - S_{lr}} \quad (6)$$

173 where P_0 is the strength coefficient which is 3.58×10^3 Pa for sand 62.0×10^3 Pa for shale, while the
174 exponent λ is set as 0.4 (Pruess et al. 2002). S_l and S_{lr} represent the saturation of the liquid (aqueous)
175 phase and the irreducible liquid saturation, respectively. The cutoff value of p_c is set as 10^7 Pa. The
176 relative permeability of the aqueous phase is also described by the van Genuchten function (van
177 Genuchten 1980) while that of the gaseous phase is computed by the Corey correlation (Corey
178 1954). The density and viscosity of the aqueous phase is obtained using the Rowe and Chou (Rowe
179 and Chou 1970) correlation and Kestin et al. (Kestin et al. 1981) correlation respectively, while the
180 density and viscosity of the gaseous phase are calculated by the Peng-Robinson EOS and the Lee-
181 Eakin formula (Lee and Eakin 1964) respectively.

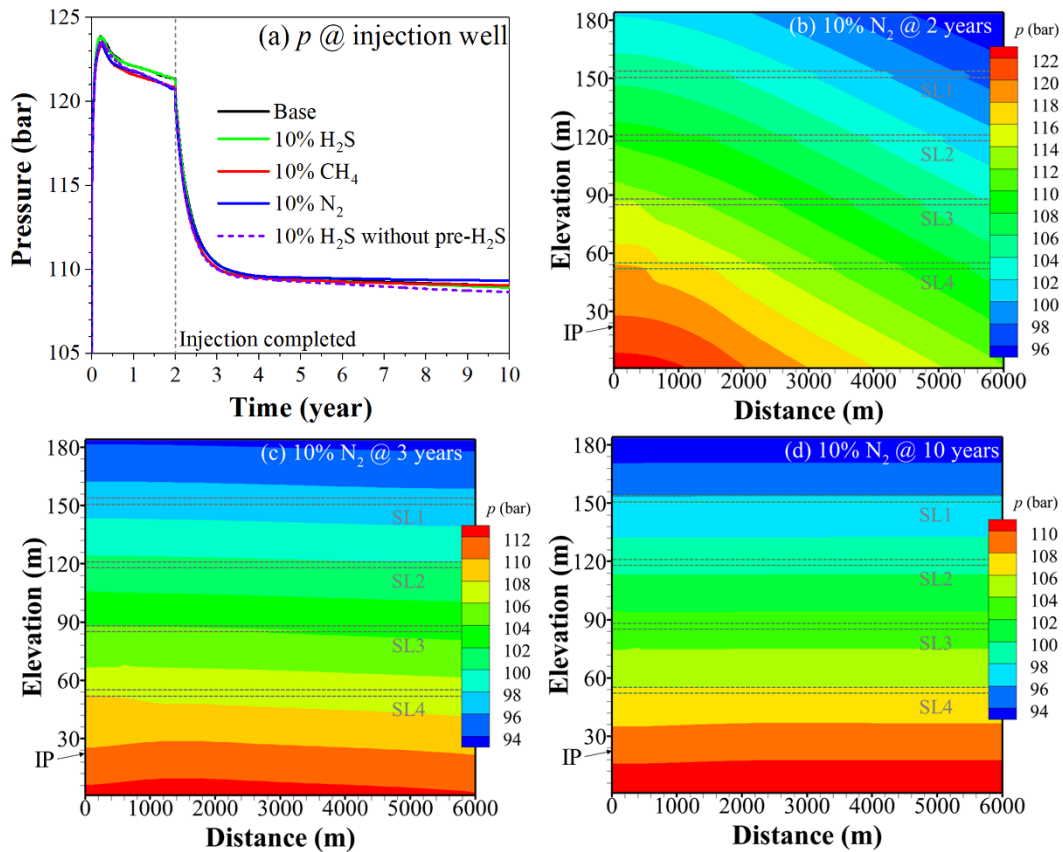
182 The Cartesian grid is used to discretize the present 2D model, consisting of 113 columns and
183 136 layers, while the one-meter width is represented by one grid block. Both the vertical and
184 horizontal grid sizes near the injection point are as small as 0.25 m to capture the plume behavior
185 of the injected streams. Apart from the injection point, significant gradients are also expected to
186 occur near the shale layers. Therefore, a small vertical gridding of 0.75 m is implemented in the
187 shale layers as well as the sands above and below them. Lower vertical resolution up to 3 m is
188 adopted away from the injection point and the shale layers. Considering that the horizontal size of
189 the model is 6000 m, the horizontal grid spacing away from the left boundary gradually increases
190 to 125 m to achieve better computational efficiency. A very small grid size of 0.001 m is employed
191 at the right boundary to implement the constant-hydrostatic-pressure profile. Furthermore, grid
192 independence analysis in previous investigation using similar grid discretization without pre-
193 dissolved impurities (Li et al. 2018) implies that the selected grid resolution is adequate to obtain
194 reasonable results.

195 **3. Results and discussions**

196 *3.1 Pressure profile*

197 Pressure in the reservoir is expected to increase in response to the gas injection. Figure 3a
198 demonstrates the pressure evolution at the injection well where it is expected to experience

199 significant pressure build-up. The general patterns for all the five scenarios are similar, *i.e.*, the
 200 pressure at the injection point increases rapidly due to the injection at the early stage and then
 201 gradually decreases during the rest of the injection period. Once the injection has stopped, the
 202 pressure decreases sharply. The pressure profiles in the whole field for the five scenarios are also
 203 similar and thus only the pressure profile for the 10% N₂ scenario is illustrated as an example
 204 (Figure 3b-d). As expected, the pressure buildup around the injection well is distinctly higher than
 205 the rest of the domain. In addition, the shale layers are implied to have an influence in the pressure
 206 propagation and distribution, *e.g.*, there are sharp edges in the pressure contour in shale layer SL1
 207 in Figure 3b. After the injection has stopped for only one year, the pressure profile in the domain
 208 has almost reduced to the hydrostatic one.

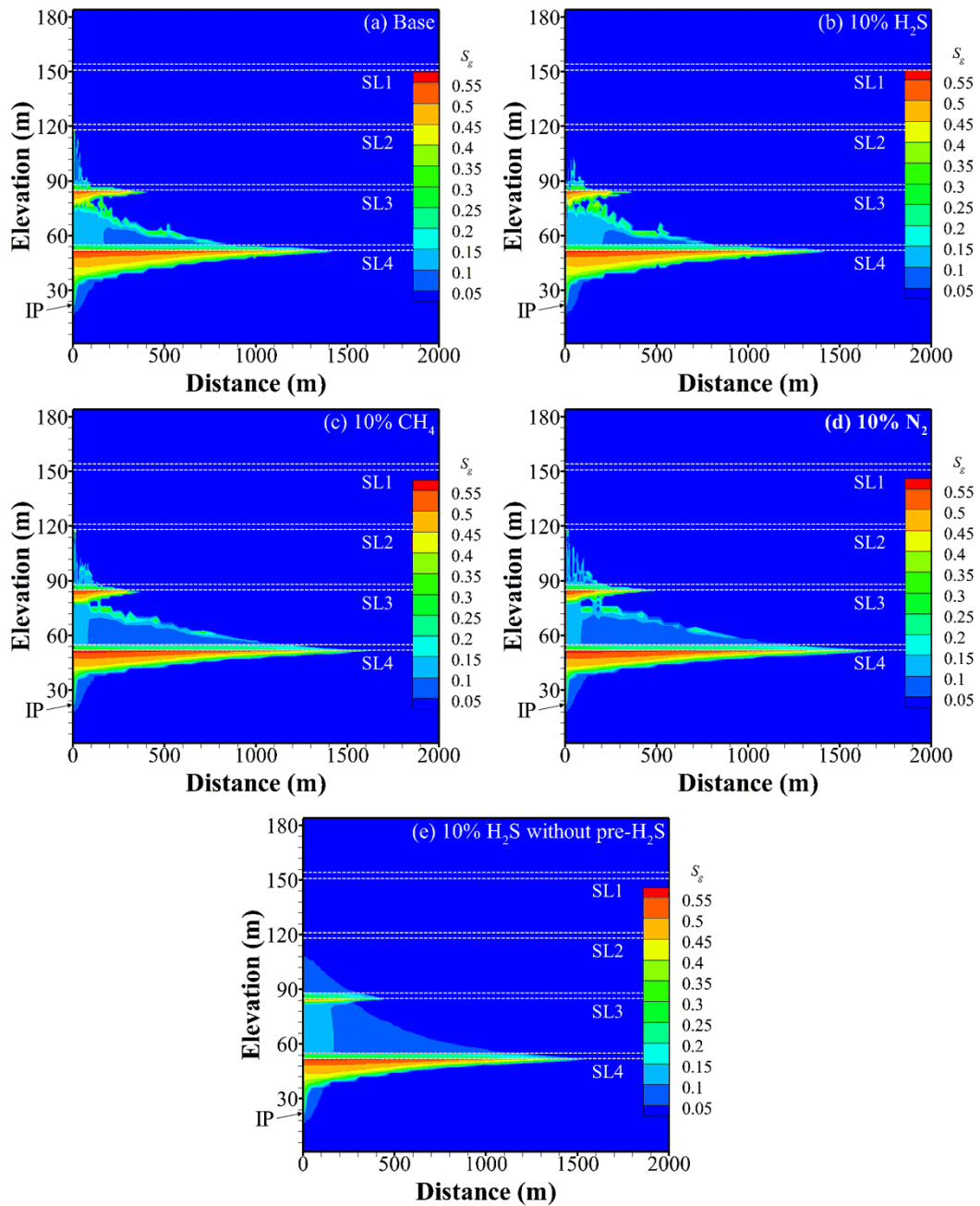


209
 210 Figure 3 Pressure profile. (a) Pressure evolution at the injection well for all the scenarios, and (b)-(d) pressure profile
 211 for the 10% N₂ scenario at 2, 3, and 10 years respectively. The 3-meter shale layers (SL) embedded in the sand layers
 212 are manifested by the short dashed lines with their respective names shown beneath them. The following figures
 213 inherit the meaning of the short dashed lines presented here.

214 3.2 Plume profile

215 As shown in Figure 4, the plume footprint (S_g represents the fraction of pore volume occupied
216 by the gas phase) is used to track the position of the displacement front. For all the five scenarios,
217 the injected plume mainly distributes under the low-permeability shale layers SL3 and SL4 after 2
218 years injection. There is only a very small portion of the CO₂ stream that has penetrated up through
219 SL3 and spreading in the sand formation under SL2. To be more specific, the higher gas saturation
220 ($S_g > 0.5$) mainly distributes in the sand layers immediately under SL3 and SL4 while the gas
221 saturation in the shale layers is much smaller.

222 Comparing the four scenarios injected into the sour (H₂S-saturated) aquifers with that into the
223 regular (H₂S-free) aquifer (Figure 4a-d vs. Figure 4e), it is obvious that the plume edges in the sour
224 saline aquifers are much oscillated. As for the four scenarios with different injected compositions
225 in the sour aquifers, the co-injection of 10% H₂S weakens the uprising of the leading plume to a
226 certain degree, partially due to the fact that the density of the H₂S impurity is over twice higher
227 than that of CO₂ under the reservoir conditions (Table 3), thus reducing the buoyance force of the
228 uprising plume. Besides, the plume mobility which is inversely proportional to phase viscosity
229 would decrease with the high-viscosity H₂S. The effects of co-injected impurity on the plume
230 mobility are more significant in terms of the horizontal migration. Since the viscosity of the non-
231 condensable gas impurities, *i.e.*, CH₄ and N₂, is smaller than that of CO₂, the leading edge of the
232 plume under SL4 is distinctly longer in the 10% CH₄ and 10% N₂ scenarios than in the other two
233 scenarios. The area with higher gas saturation ($S_g > 0.5$) in these two scenarios is also relatively
234 larger. Despite the differences in the properties of CH₄ and N₂, including density, viscosity, and
235 solubility, the overall plume footprint in the 10% CH₄ and 10% N₂ scenarios is comparable.



236

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Figure 4. Plume footprint of different scenarios after 2 years injection.

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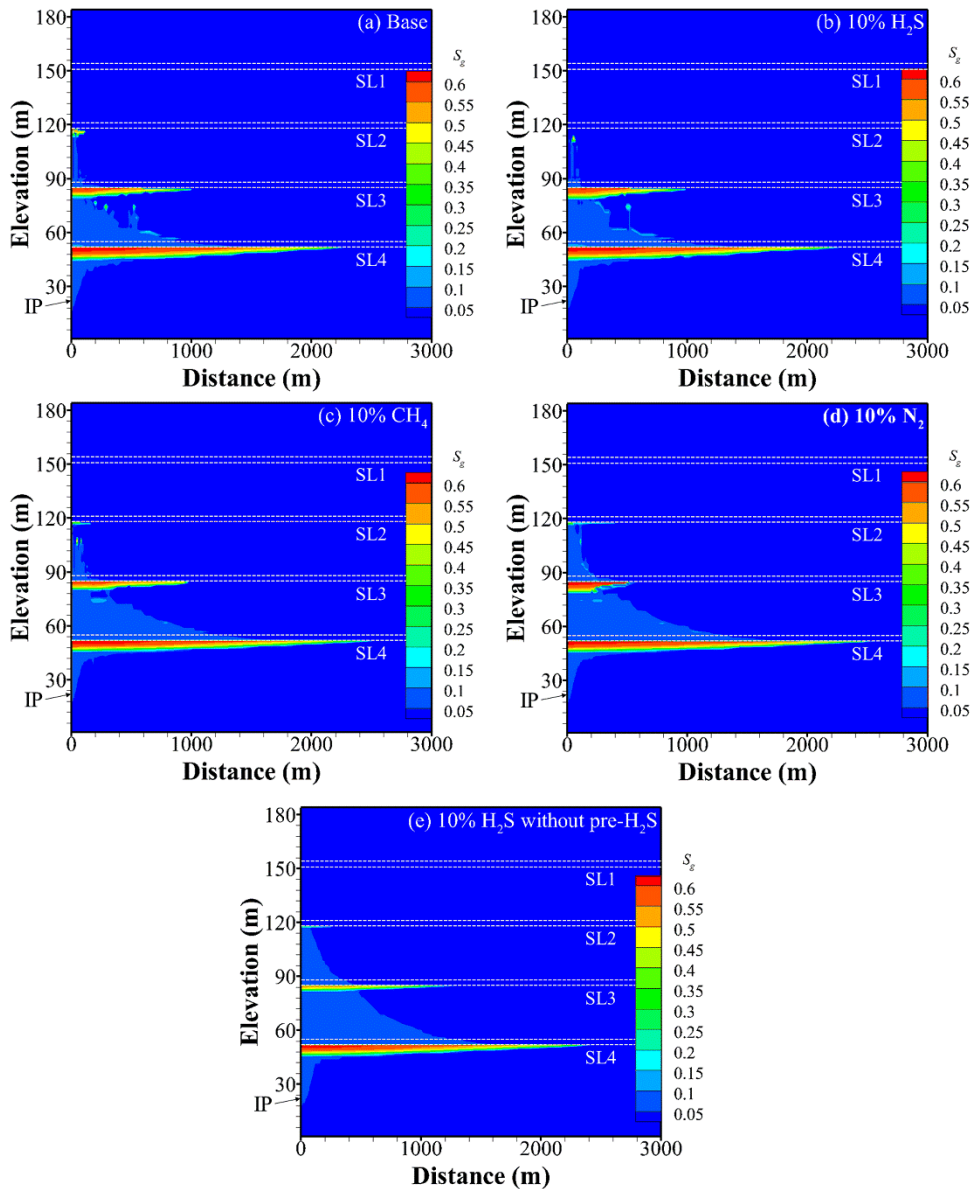
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Figure 5 shows the plume distribution after 10 years, including the 2 years injection and 8 years post-injection periods. The irregular plume edges observed in Figure 4a-d are smoothed to a certain degree after 10 years. The majority of the mobile plume accumulates immediately under the low-permeability shale layers SL3 and SL4 as a thin and horizontal layer while there is nearly no mobile gas left in the low-permeability shale layers. It can be seen that there is a small portion

243 of the plume starting to accumulate and spread under SL2 after 10 years, except for the 10% H₂S
 244 scenario in which the plume has not yet reached the shale layer SL2. In other words, the plume still
 245 could not penetrate through the shale layer SL2 even after 8 years post-injection period, partially
 246 because the pressure buildup caused by the gas injection rapidly decreases when the injection stops
 247 (Figure 3) while the buoyance force is not strong enough to overcome the capillary force of the
 248 shale layer with gases continuously dissolving into the formation brine.



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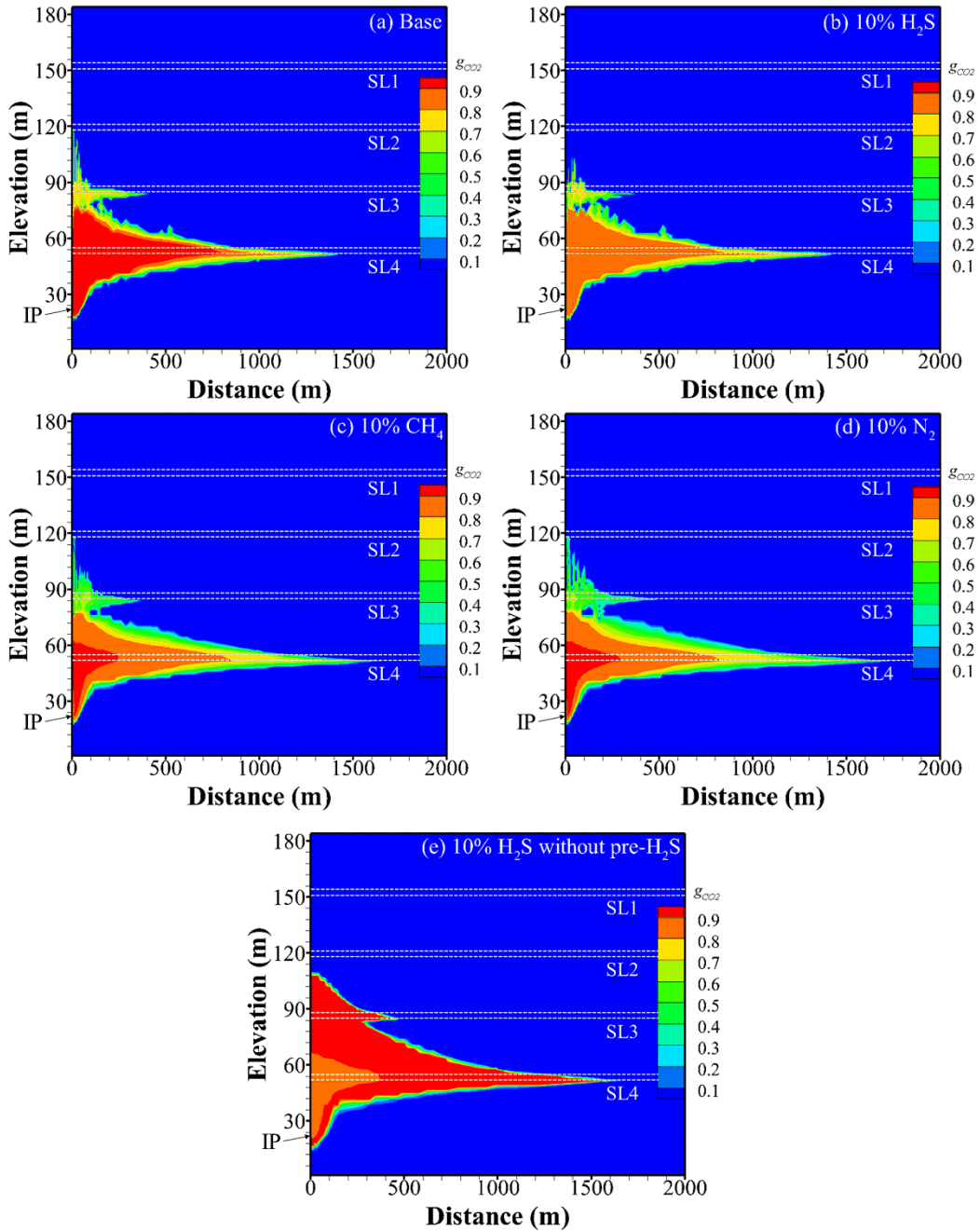
Figure 5. Plume footprint of different scenarios after 10 years.

251 3.3 Phase compositions

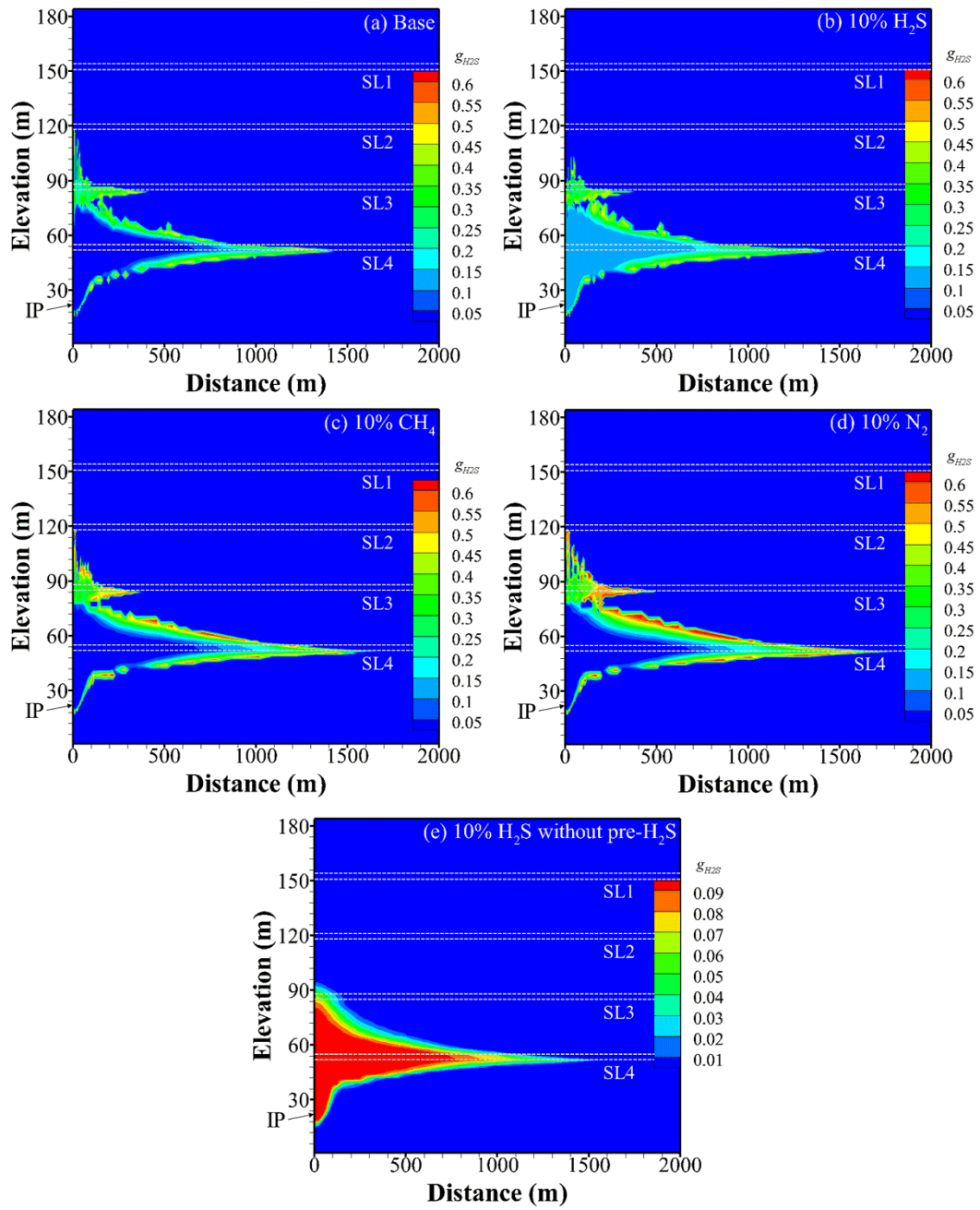
252 The compositions of different species in the plume after 2 years injection are shown in Figures
253 6-8 while Figure 9 shows the corresponding dissolved H₂S concentration in the formation brine. It
254 should also be noted that in the upper half of the sour aquifer, the saturated H₂S concentration is
255 slightly lower (Figure 9), which is because of the geothermal gradient and hydrostatic pressure
256 gradient adopted in the model and thus the relatively lower temperature and pressure in the
257 shallower section. Comparing the sour saline aquifers and the regular saline aquifers (*e.g.*, Figure
258 6a-d vs. Figure 6e), there are distinct differences in the patterns of the phase compositions.
259 Specifically, if native H₂S is absent in the aquifer, CO₂ dominates in the leading plume (≥ 0.9) while
260 it has slightly lower concentration around the injection well (Figure 6e). In the meantime, H₂S
261 concentration at the leading plume is rather low mainly due to its preferential solubility (Figure 7e).
262 In addition, H₂S concentration in the plume could not exceed its concentration in the injected
263 stream (0.1). In the sour saline aquifer, however, higher CO₂ concentration mainly distributes in
264 the rear part of the plume (Figure 6a-d), while the H₂S mole fraction in the leading plume is
265 generally higher than 0.1 because of the exsolved H₂S out of the aquifers (Figure 7a-d).

266 In the sour saline aquifers, the region swept by the plume can be divided into two sub-regions
267 according to phase compositions. First, there is an inner sub-region that extends from the injection
268 well in which the plume is determined by the injected gas compositions (Figure 6 and Figure 8).
269 Except for the 10% H₂S scenario where H₂S is co-injected (Figure 7b), H₂S is almost absent in this
270 inner sub-region. In fact, closer examination of scenarios a, c, and d in the inner sub-region reveals
271 that the dominant mole fraction of H₂S in the plume and in the aqueous phase is lower than 0.001
272 (Figure 7a, c, and d) and 0.0001 (Figure 9a-d) respectively. This is mainly because that the gas
273 injection has exsolved the pre-dissolved H₂S out of the formation brine and pushed it outwards.
274 Second, there is an outer sub-region that extends from the outer edge of the inner sub-region to the
275 two-phase interface. The plume composition in the outer sub-region is more complex than in the
276 inner sub-region. Generally, the plume is still dominated by CO₂, especially in the parts near the
277 inner sub-region (Figure 6). H₂S concentration in the plume gradually increases towards the leading

278 edge of the outer sub-region and reaches a peak value (Figure 7a-d). Particularly, when 10% CH₄
 279 or N₂ is co-injected into the sour aquifers, the peak concentration of H₂S in the leading plume could
 280 even exceed 0.5 (Figure 7c and d), *i.e.*, the leading plume might be dominated by H₂S in some
 281 particular scenarios, while the concentration of CH₄ or N₂ in the leading plume is hardly over their
 282 corresponding mole fraction in the injected streams (Figure 8).

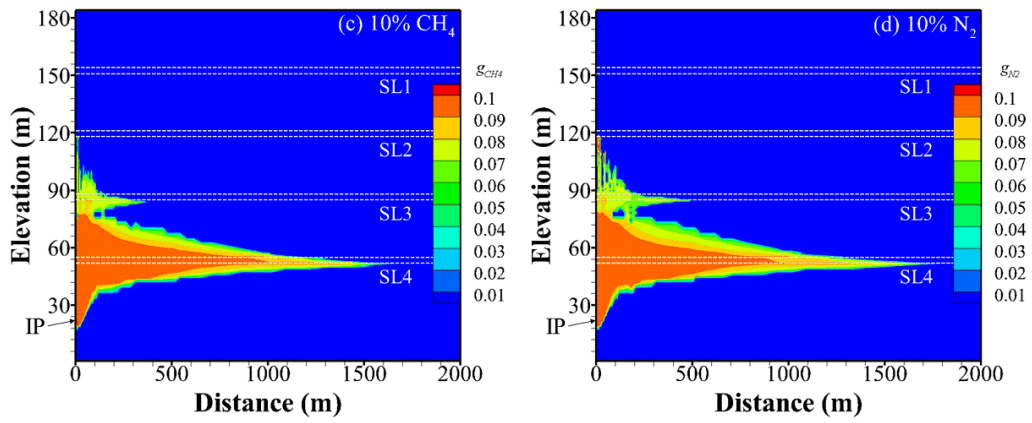


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 284 Figure 6. Mole fraction of CO₂ in the plume after 2 years injection for different scenarios.



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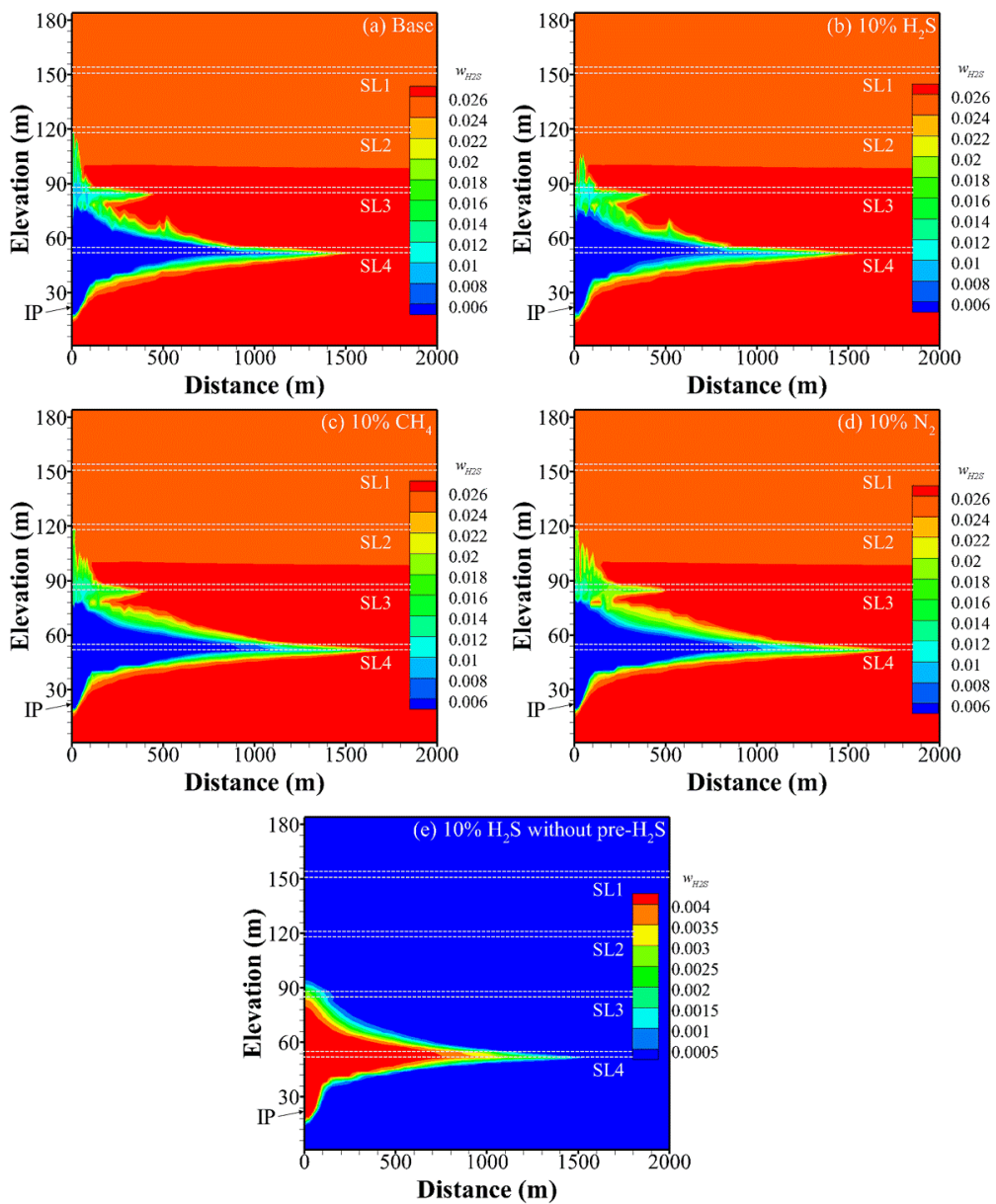
286 Figure 7. Mole fraction of H_2S in the plume after 2 years injection for different scenarios.



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Figure 8. Mole fraction of co-injected non-condensable impurity in the plume after 2 years injection.



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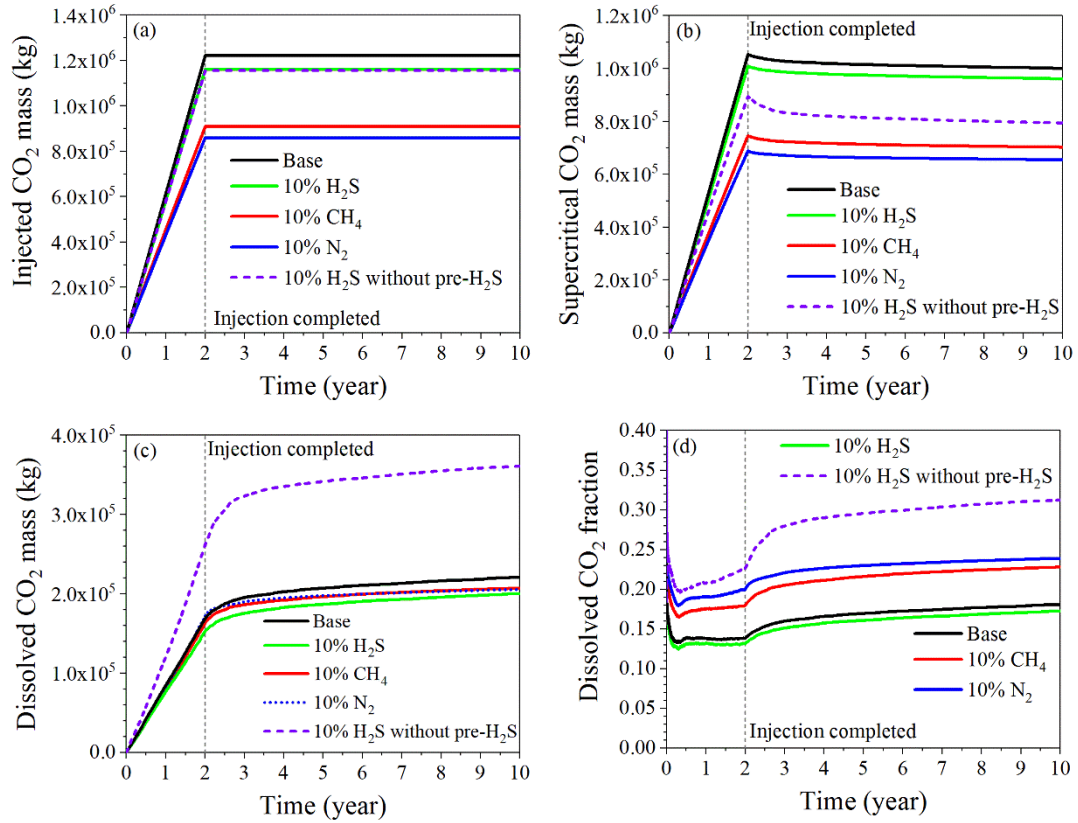
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Figure 9. Dissolved H₂S mole fraction after 2 years injection for different scenarios.

291 3.4 CO₂ dissolution

292 Figure 10 shows the time evolution of the total injected CO₂ mass, supercritical CO₂ mass,
293 dissolved CO₂ mass, and dissolved CO₂ fraction for different scenarios. For sour gas sequestration,
294 the same amount of CO₂ is injected into the sour saline aquifer (10% H₂S) and the regular saline
295 aquifer (10% H₂S without pre-H₂S) (Figure 10a). It can be seen that the existence of native H₂S
296 results in much less dissolved CO₂ and thus more mobile CO₂. This may result from potential
297 dissolution competition between H₂S (both exsolved and injected) and CO₂ in the sour saline
298 aquifer and the smaller two-phase interface (Figure 4 and Figure 5). The pre-existing H₂S in the
299 saline aquifers could be a strong competitor for potential CO₂ dissolution because of its preferential
300 solubility in the formation brine. More importantly, the exsolved H₂S is often found ahead of the
301 injected CO₂ plume in the outer sub-region (Figure 7), which makes the dissolution of CO₂ into the
302 formation brine much harder. In fact, dissolved CO₂ fraction in the sour aquifers may be only half
303 that in the corresponding scenario without native H₂S (Figure 10d). Moreover, the increase rate of
304 the dissolved CO₂ fraction in the sour saline aquifer is also slower.

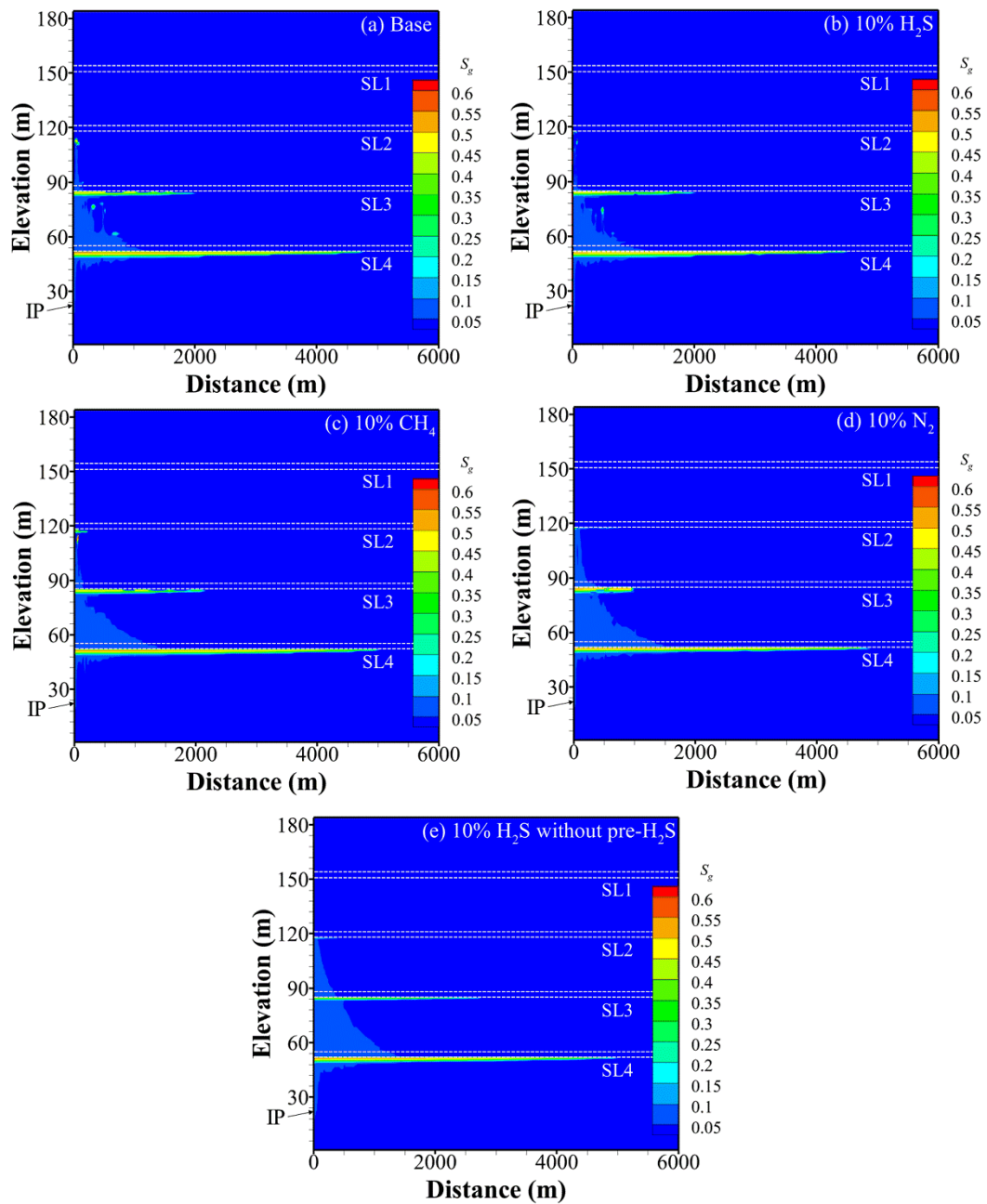
305 In the sour saline aquifers, the inclusion of different impurities decreases the total injected
306 CO₂ mass to different degrees, with the largest reduction in the 10% N₂ scenario and the least
307 reduction in the 10% H₂S scenario (Figure 10a). Both the supercritical and dissolved CO₂ mass
308 increases linearly with time during the injection period. After the injection stops, the supercritical
309 CO₂ mass decreases gradually while both the dissolved CO₂ mass and fraction increase accordingly.
310 The inclusion of all the co-injected impurities is expected to reduce the dissolved CO₂ mass.
311 However, the inclusion of the N₂ and CH₄ impurity could increase the dissolved CO₂ ratio
312 compared with the pure CO₂ scenario. Still, even for the 10% N₂ scenario, CO₂ dissolution fraction
313 is distinctively lower than in the 10% H₂S scenario without native H₂S in the saline aquifers.



314
 315 Figure 10. Evolution of (a) total injected CO₂ mass, (b) supercritical CO₂ mass, (c) dissolved CO₂ mass, and (d)
 316 dissolved CO₂ fraction for different scenarios during 10 years.

317 *3.5 Long-term evaluation*

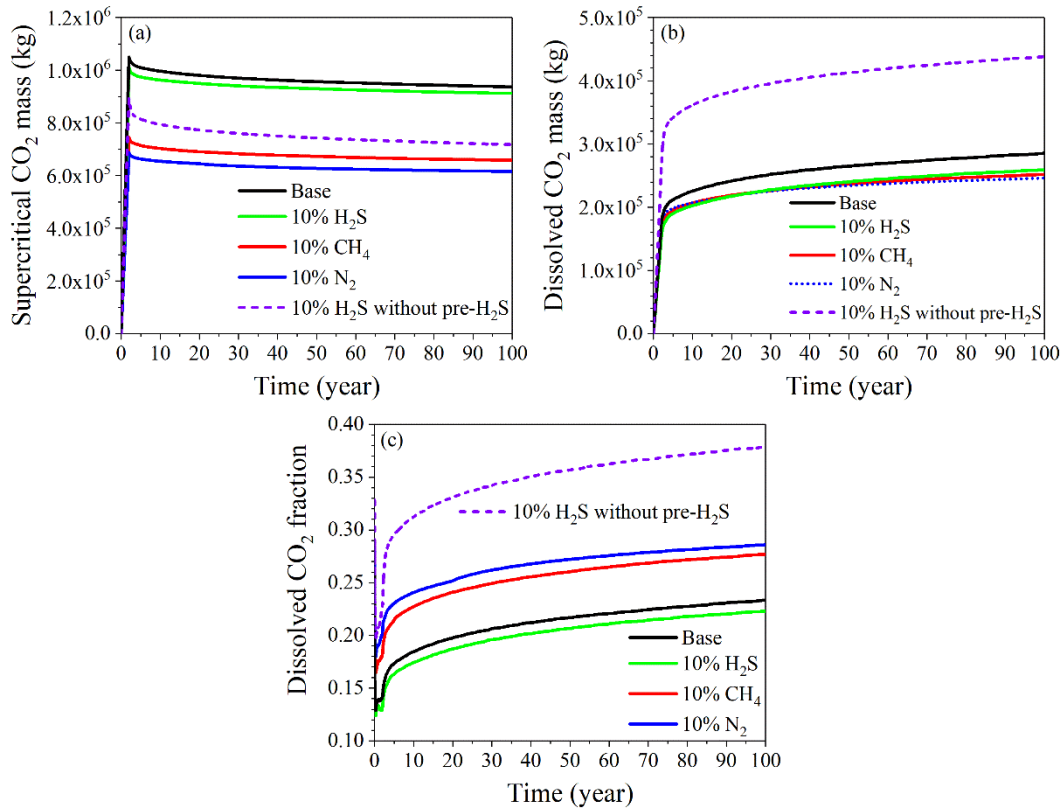
318 The time scale in practical CO₂ sequestration projects is generally up to hundreds to thousands
 319 of years. To evaluate the long-term fate of the plume spread and the dissolved CO₂ in the deep
 320 saline aquifers, the simulation time in this subsection has been extended to 100 years, including 2
 321 years injection and 98 years post-injection periods. As shown in Figure 11, even after an extra 90
 322 years, the plume is still not able to penetrate through the shale layer SL2 and the plume profile for
 323 different scenarios seems similar after 10 years (Figure 5). However, the plume saturation reduces
 324 (Figure 11) and the dissolved CO₂ inventory increases (Figure 12) with the extended plume
 325 migration and the continuous dissolution of CO₂ in the aqueous phase.



326

327

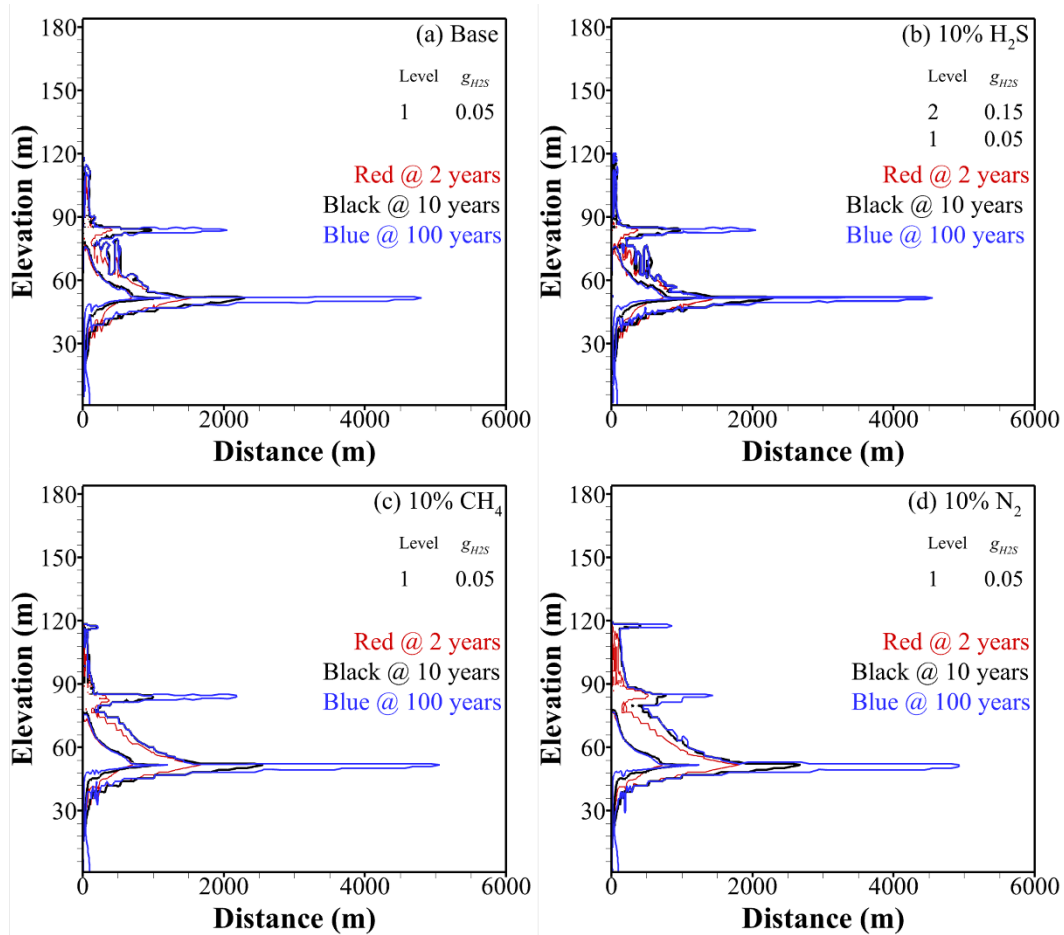
Figure 11. Plume footprint of different scenarios after 100 years.



328
 329 Figure 12. Evolution of (a) supercritical CO₂ mass, (b) dissolved CO₂ mass, and (c) dissolved CO₂ fraction for
 330 different scenarios during 100 years.

331 In the sour aquifers, the profile of H₂S concentration in the plume (Figure 13) is used to
 332 illustrate the coupling effects of different co-injected impurities and the native H₂S on the
 333 development of the advancing plume footprint as well as the evolution of the inner and outer sub-
 334 regions as mentioned above. There is no definite boundaries between these two sub-regions which
 335 are more of a theoretical conception than a quantification. In the present study, two levels of contour
 336 lines (0.05, 0.15) of H₂S mole fraction in the plume are selected to separate the inner and outer sub-
 337 regions for the 10% H₂S scenario (Figure 13b) while one level (0.05) is enough for all the other
 338 scenarios. Generally speaking, the distribution area of the plume increases with time, especially in
 339 the horizontal direction. In the vertical direction, the plume migrates upwards gradually while the
 340 migration is much affected by the low-permeable shale layers. Comparing the area covered by the
 341 innermost red contour line (2 years), the innermost black contour line (10 years), and the innermost
 342 blue contour line (100 years), it can be seen that the area of the inner sub-region increases

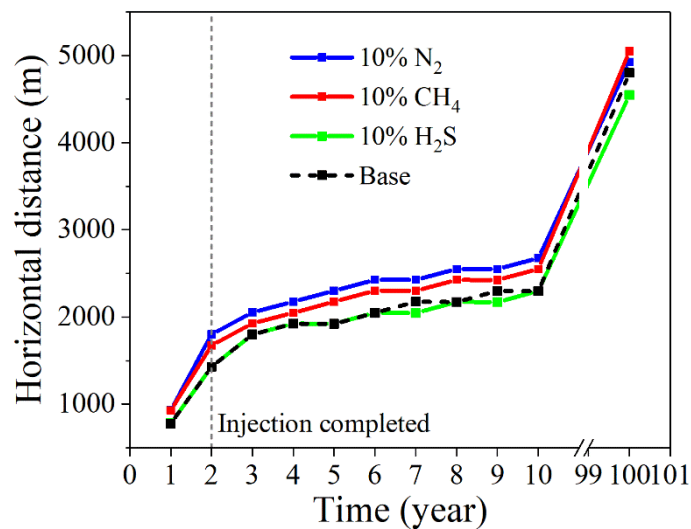
343 indistinctively with time or injection compositions. Closer examination shows that the horizontal
 344 distance of the inner sub-region increases with time while its bottom contour migrates slightly
 345 upwards. In contrast, the outer sub-region in the 10% CH₄ and 10% N₂ scenarios is much extended
 346 with time, especially in the horizontal direction of the 10% N₂ scenario. |



347
 348 Figure 13. Development of plume edges as well as the inner and outer sub-regions for different scenarios in the sour
 349 saline aquifers.

350 Figure 14 further illustrates the evolution of the horizontal plume migration for different
 351 scenarios in the sour saline aquifers and Table 4 compares their mean migration rate during different
 352 time periods. Generally speaking, the migration rate in the post-injection period is distinctively
 353 weakened because of the cessation of the injection. For example, the total horizontal migration
 354 distance of the advancing plume in the 8 years post-injection period is only approximately half of
 355 that in the 2 years injection period. The inclusion of the N₂ or CH₄ impurity is favorable for the

356 horizontal migration in the sour saline aquifers mainly due to their low viscosity and thus their
 357 positive effects on the plume mobility. During the injection period, the mean migration rate of the
 358 10% CH₄ or N₂ scenario is distinctively higher than that of the other two scenarios. After the
 359 injection stops, however, the differences of the mean migration rate between different scenarios are
 360 insignificant and mainly depend on the plume compositions and properties. For instance, the
 361 exsolved H₂S with high concentration ahead of the injected plume might reduce the potential
 362 enhancement of the more mobile and buoyant CH₄ or N₂ on the plume migration. Because of the
 363 pressure buildup caused by the injection (Figure 3), the mean migration rate during the early stage
 364 of the post-injection (*i.e.*, 3-10 years) is higher than that during the late one (*i.e.*, 11-100 years).
 365 Above all, there is no significant differences in the mean migration rate between the plumes with
 366 different compositions during the post-injection period.



367
 368 Figure 14. Evolution of horizontal migration distance for different scenarios in the sour saline aquifers.

369 Table 4. Mean migration rate in the horizontal direction during different time periods.

Scenario	0-2 years (m/yr)	3-10 years (m/yr)	11-100 years (m/yr)
Base	714.64	108.51	27.80
10% H ₂ S	714.60	108.73	24.98
10% CH ₄	836.92	109.73	27.76
10% N ₂	901.18	109.22	25.00

370 3.6 Discussions

371 Some potential reservoirs for CO₂ sequestration may contain pre-existing species and the sour
372 saline aquifers containing dissolved H₂S attracts our attention due to the high toxicity of H₂S.
373 According to the one-dimensional numerical and analytical simulation results in the previous
374 studies (Cholewinski et al. 2016, Ghaderi et al. 2011a, b), gas injection would exsolve the native
375 H₂S out of the aqueous phase and the exsolved H₂S would then be pushed outwards along with the
376 formation brine by the injecting CO₂ plume. On the other hand, most practical carbon sequestration
377 projects involve co-injected impurities, and the injected gases are expected to dissolve into the
378 formation brine at the two-phase interface. Particularly, in regular aquifers without native H₂S, the
379 partitioning phenomenon of different co-injected gas species is likely to occur at the two-phase
380 interface, leaving low-solubility and low-viscosity species such as N₂ or CH₄ as the dominant ones
381 in the leading plume while the co-injected H₂S would be stripped off at the leading plume because
382 of its preferential solubility (Li et al. 2017, 2018). **Therefore**, when both the co-injected and the
383 native impurities exist, their coupling effects on CO₂ sequestration should be evaluated in order to
384 obtain a better understanding of impure CO₂ storage.

385 To begin with, the plume edges in the sour aquifers are observed to have distinct oscillations
386 in comparison with that in the H₂S-free aquifers, especially during the injection period. When CO₂
387 and/or non-CO₂ species are injected, the reservoir conditions such as pressure change rapidly and
388 the plume continuously displaces the formation brine. It is suggested that all the relevant species
389 simultaneously seek to attain equilibrium at the advancing two-phase boundary, including the
390 exsolution and/or dissolution of the native H₂S, and the dissolution competition between the
391 injected components. Above all, the leading plume experiences rapid and continuous changes
392 during the injection period, which might be the reason for the oscillated plume edges. After the
393 injection stops, the migration of the leading plume weakens distinctively and thus the oscillation
394 of the plume edges would become smoothed (*e.g.*, Figure 4 vs. Figure 5). Since the plume
395 patterns and the phase compositions at the two-phase interface play an important role in the plume
396 migration, the potential dissolution and thus the security of the long-term CO₂ sequestration, further

397 experiments are needed to confirm these predictions.

398 While the partitioning phenomenon of different injected species is not obvious at the leading
399 plume, our results in the stratified formation confirm the exsolution of the pre-existing H₂S and the
400 generation of two distinguishable sub-regions in the plume (Ghaderi et al. 2011a). In the inner sub-
401 region, the native H₂S is almost removed out of the brine, *i.e.*, plume compositions in the inner sub-
402 region are generally determined by the injection stream. In the outer sub-region, on the other hand,
403 the exsolved H₂S concentration gradually increases towards the leading plume edge, which might
404 exceed 50% depending on the reservoir conditions. Since the potential dissolution mainly happens
405 at the two-phase interface, the existence of the outer sub-region especially the high-solubility
406 exsolved H₂S with high-concentration is not favorable for the dissolution of the injected gases
407 including CO₂. Actually, the native H₂S has negative effects on both CO₂ dissolution inventory and
408 ratio, especially when H₂S is co-injected with CO₂. However, when less soluble impurities such as
409 CH₄ or N₂ are co-injected into the sour saline aquifers, CO₂ dissolution ratio would be enhanced.
410 It should be noted here that while the dissolution of CO₂ may not increase the storage capacity, it
411 is expected to increase the storage security (Bachu 2008, Metz et al. 2005). In addition, CO₂
412 dissolution provides the preconditions of geochemical reactions that could converse dissolved CO₂
413 into carbonate minerals. This discussion does not suggest that the dissolution trapping mechanism
414 is more secure than the static trapping mechanism of mobile and buoyant CO₂ in stratigraphic and
415 structural traps. It only implies that if the dissolution trapping mechanism increases its contribution,
416 the storage security is expected to increase in time (Bachu 2008).

417 In general, compared with the co-injected impurities, the native impurity like H₂S seems to
418 have more profound effects on CO₂ sequestration in the saline aquifers. The present study could
419 provide references for CO₂ sequestration in the sour saline aquifers. For example, the reservoirs
420 with native H₂S may not be ideal sequestration sites for sour gas disposal involving H₂S. Although
421 the co-injection of CH₄ or N₂ decrease CO₂ storage capacity and may relatively increase the leakage
422 risk because of the extended plume spread, the dissolution CO₂ ratio increases significantly
423 compared with the pure CO₂ injection. Besides, the increase of the plume migration rate is

424 insignificant after the injection has stopped. On the other hand, the formation and evolution of two
425 sub-regions in the plume could also be useful for making monitoring management plans. These
426 results should be considered in the selection of suitable sequestration site and the determination for
427 the injection plans of impure CO₂ injection in the sour saline aquifers.

428 **4. Conclusions and future work**

429 In the present study, the coupling effects of the native H₂S and different co-injected non-CO₂
430 species on CO₂ sequestration in layered saline aquifers were examined and compared. Apart from
431 the more expected result that the low-permeability shale layers could affect the pressure
432 propagation and particularly the plume migration and distribution, our simulation results and
433 discussions about the coupling effects of the co-injected and native impurities suggest that:

434 1) There is an obvious oscillation in the plume edges when the CO₂ streams are injected into
435 the sour aquifers containing native H₂S, which is much alleviated after the injection has stopped.

436 2) The plume could be divided into two sub-regions according to the phase compositions
437 while the existence of the outer sub-region with high concentration of exsolved H₂S is negative to
438 CO₂ dissolution.

439 3) The co-injection of less soluble impurities such as N₂ or CH₄ into the sour aquifers could
440 increase CO₂ dissolution ratio. In addition, these two impurities could enhance the plume spread
441 during the injection period, while there is an insignificant difference in the plume migration pattern
442 or rate between different scenarios during the post-injection period.

443 4) Compared with the co-injected impurities, the native impurities such as H₂S are expected
444 to have more profound impact on CO₂ dissolution and thus the security and permanency of CO₂
445 sequestration.

446 The simulations in this study are limited by the simplification of the 2D model and the
447 thermodynamic and transport models. For example, the molecular diffusion which affects both the
448 plume spread and the back-mixing mechanism is neglected. In future work, the effects of the

449 diffusivity of different species on the plume alternation will be investigated. In addition, the details
450 of the permeability structure including reservoir heterogeneity, the angle of the layers, and the
451 multi-injection scheme which are practically relevant in the stratified formations should also be
452 taken into account.

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