

# Geological performance evaluation of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in depleted oil reservoirs: A simulation study on the effect of water saturation and vertical to horizontal permeability ratio

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## ABSTRACT

Human consumption of fossil fuel as a primary source of energy has led to the net increase of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) emission into the atmosphere. The magnitude of its contribution to global warming and climate change is unprecedented. Carbon capture and storage (CCS) in geological formations technology has merged as the key approach towards potential CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, and depleting oil and gas reservoirs appear to be promising candidates. Various researchers studied the concepts and processes about reservoirs' performance upon CO<sub>2</sub> injection and storage with little attention on variations of reservoir water saturation and permeability ratio (vertical versus horizontal permeability). In this study, with the use of 3-dimensional (3D) numerical simulations the safe and long term evaluation of reservoir performance on CO<sub>2</sub> storage in terms of storage capacity, trapping mechanism, injection rate, and operational pressures were performed at Liaohe basin, China. Results revealed that CO<sub>2</sub> stored in a supercritical form was dominant of all and that at the end of 100 years more than 70% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> existed as free gas in supercritical form, the tendency which decreased to less than 65% after 1000 years of its storage. Conversely, the storage of CO<sub>2</sub> in trapped and dissolved forms was increased by 6% and 3% respectively. The results from this work provide valuable insights on CO<sub>2</sub> phase relative storage potentiality for enhanced and safe CO<sub>2</sub> storage in a depleted oil reservoir. It also provides an improved long term CO<sub>2</sub> storage sequestration strategy which incorporated hysteresis metrics. The study recommends an optimum CO<sub>2</sub> storage scheme with controlled pressure buildup in a depleted oil reservoir.

## 1. Introduction

The world's energy demand increase is directly proportional to the global population growth and it is entirely tied up with global social and economic development (World Bank, 2017). Fossil fuels (coal, oil, and gas) extraction and burning practices performed by human beings to date have been by far the most common way to satisfy the energy needs in modern economies since the start of the industrial era (IPCC, 2013; World Bank, 2017). However, these activities have generated a tremendous amount of CO<sub>2</sub> into the Earth's atmosphere (Rotty, 1983; IPCC, 2013). According to the World Bank (2017) estimates, 81% of the world's energy production in 2014 was supplied by fossil fuel. The burning of fossil fuels indubitably leads to the emission of greenhouse gases. The major component of greenhouse gases emitted into the atmosphere is CO<sub>2</sub>, which accounts for approximately 64% of the greenhouse gases (Bachu, 2000). Its concentration in the atmosphere is

continuously increasing to the extent that it approaches one half of its pre-industrial era (IPCC, 2013). Records reveal that CO<sub>2</sub> concentration by volume was 404 parts per million volume (ppmv) in 2016, while the pre-industrial concentration was 280 ppmv, about 50% increment (IPCC, 2013; EPA, 2017). If immediate and appropriate mitigation measures are not taken, it may lead to serious global climatic changes and disruptions. Carbon capture and storage (CCS) appears as the most recent and promising strategy that can be adopted to overcome the existing challenge. The technique involves the application of technology to capture carbon dioxide, transporting it to an appropriate place, and finally, store it beneath the Earth's surface for long-term isolation from the atmosphere (IPCC, 2005). The main geological sites for CCS include deep saline formations, mature and depleted oil and gas fields, unmined coal bed formations, and mined salt domes (IPCC, 2005; Raza et al., 2016b). The deep saline aquifers are naturally widely spread and possess a huge potential of storing anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> (IPCC, 2005). But the fact

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that little exploration work has been done worldwide to ascertain its storage capacity and its economic viability has been a challenge (Leung et al., 2014; Zhang, 2015). Depleted oil and gas reservoirs have shown substantial results in terms of storage integrity, safety, economy and environmental friendliness as compared to other CO<sub>2</sub> storage options, such as enhanced coal-bed methane, ocean and deep aquifers (Lai et al., 2015; Zhang and Huisinh, 2017). Its application has been reported attractive due to several reasons including detailed explored geology with sufficient information related to its properties, fluid contents, and characteristics that were previously captured during its operation era, another reason is possession of sufficient overburden which discourages shallower resources contamination and increased safety insurance. Moreover, they experienced different varying subsurface conditions such as elevated pressure, temperature, and stresses for sound field operation time. Further, they have favorable CO<sub>2</sub> injection conditions such as supercritical temperature and pressure, and have available useful surface and sub-surface facilities and infrastructure which can be adopted and customized to fit into CO<sub>2</sub> storage projects and incremental oil recovery (CO<sub>2</sub>-EOR) at reasonable additional costs. (Bachu and Adams, 2003; Lai et al., 2015; Raza et al., 2016a; Aminu et al., 2017; Jia et al., 2018). Table 1, show examples of the US sequestration storage records presenting attractiveness and suitability of oil and gas reservoirs as far as storage integrity and environmental risk potentiality is concerned (Shukla et al., 2010).

Various researchers studied the potential of reservoir performance on CO<sub>2</sub> injection and storage through numerical modeling and simulation. Maneeintr et al. (2017) employed simulation models to study CO<sub>2</sub> injection and its related fluid dynamics in a depleted oil field in the Northern part of Thailand. Results showed that the sequestration process was successful and that injection parameters were within the designed safe project storage limits. Therefore, the flow rate was within the designed range to cause formation damage and pressure build-up didn't reach its maximum allowable pressure of 32.29 MPa. Raza et al. (2016b) presented a method of estimation of CO<sub>2</sub> residual saturation during the trapping mechanism process. The method described restriction of CO<sub>2</sub> movement in the reservoir to ensure optimized long term safety of the injected fluid. Moreover, it was observed that increasing salinity and injection pressure led to increased amount of free and residual CO<sub>2</sub>. In optimizing CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and enhanced oil recovery Dai et al. (2013) developed an integrated framework for a depleted oil reservoir in Texas. Using field parameter distributions, they simulated multi-phase, multi-component and reactive fluid flow with the use of multiphase reservoir simulator SENSOR (CEI, 2011), geologic models and statistical data. Results indicated that reservoir petrophysical parameters (mainly porosity and permeability), reservoir thickness and depth were the principal controller of CO<sub>2</sub> injection, sequestration and recovery rate for oil/gas. Moreover, it was revealed that the distance between injection and production wells and the sequence of alternating water and CO<sub>2</sub> injected played a vital role for a five-spot CO<sub>2</sub>-EOR project design. Welkenhuysen et al. (2017), developed a techno-economic simulator to forecast and assess feasibility and practicability of CO<sub>2</sub>-EOR offshore

project in the North Sea. They used limited foresight together with Real Options Analysis to guide on decision making which involves investment on projects regardless of the project's degree of uncertainties and risk. And it was observed that different oil field can be analyzed as a single group project to reduce investment difficulties. Jiang et al. (2019) developed an integrated model to assess CO<sub>2</sub> EOR technical and economic performance based on historical field data. Six scenarios with varying design parameters were simulated under the net present value variable. Based on sensitivity analysis it was revealed that the net pay, porosity, oil saturation, CO<sub>2</sub> injection, depth and oil formation factor were the key parameters in the economic performance of the CO<sub>2</sub> EOR project. Dai et al. (2016) performed CO<sub>2</sub> accounting and risk analysis for a commercial CO<sub>2</sub>-EOR project at the Farnsworth Unit, Texas. The study explored CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential and its economic and environmental risks. Multiple scale statistical framework was developed and simulations were run to quantify uncertainty boundaries of the risk involved. Their results showed profit viability from the economic model. In a continual effort to study performance and prediction of CO<sub>2</sub> storage, Jia et al. (2018) generated 50 realizations by using a sequential Gaussian simulation approach to describe the variation of porosity and permeability in the reservoir based on site seismic survey and well logs data. In their work, they studied the impact of 3-phase relative permeability as well as hysteresis models on forecasting storage in CO<sub>2</sub>-EOR projects. Among other important simulation results of the study revealed that CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity was affected by the choice of the model and that there was a small impact on CO<sub>2</sub> trapping during CO<sub>2</sub>-EOR injection period as compared to post injection period where it was observed to rise. Ampomah et al. (2016) performed CO<sub>2</sub> storage numerical simulation for a CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced oil recovery site in the Morrow sandstone reservoir in the Farnsworth Unit, Texas. In their study, they evaluated CO<sub>2</sub> Storage Mechanisms and tested different hypothetical injection schemes. They observed that residue oil accommodated a significant amount of CO<sub>2</sub> injected. Moreover, supercritical-phase CO<sub>2</sub> amounts in the reservoir depended on the CO<sub>2</sub> injection scheme, furthermore, it was revealed that hysteresis had a significant impact on residual trapping. Parameters such as pressure, reservoir fluid volume, water-alternating-gas (WAG) schemes, and caprock integrity showed a substantial contribution in CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity. It was finally concluded that caprock integrity had enough storage and withstanding capacity. Raza et al. (2018) studied the effect of residual gas on the injection process through the use of simulation models, results showed proportionality between residual gas quantity and reservoir fluids in the formation. According to IPCC (2005), the storage of CO<sub>2</sub> in geological formations is mainly achieved through injection of the fluid via ground created wells in both onshore and offshore basins. Injection is done when CO<sub>2</sub> is in its supercritical condition. The trapping mechanism for CO<sub>2</sub> storage process are mainly: (i) structural and stratigraphic trapping, which occurs when CO<sub>2</sub> plume migration is trapped by the seal or impermeable rock, (ii) residual trapping, which obeys the principle of fluid displacement mechanism, where CO<sub>2</sub> displaces fluid in the pores of the reservoir formation and renders it immobile within pore spaces (Aminu et al., 2017), (iii) solubility trapping, where CO<sub>2</sub> dissolves in brine water in the reservoir formation causing density increment and lowering of pH of the contacted brine water (Xu et al., 2004), (iv) mineral trapping, which involves the process of turning CO<sub>2</sub> immobile by geochemical reactions that it undergoes with carbonate minerals, leading to chemical precipitations of immobile secondary carbonate phases. This process is slow and takes a long time, which may span considerable geological time (Hellevag et al., 2017).

In this study, a 3-dimensional (3D) homogeneous reservoir model was built and reservoir layer storage performance was analyzed based on field data. Reservoir CO<sub>2</sub> storage performance in terms of storage capability, trapping mechanism incorporating hysteresis influences, injection rate, and operational pressures was performed with the application of 3D numerical simulations. Generalized Equation of State Model Reservoir Simulator (GEM) from the CMG - Computer Modeling

**Table 1**

Storage capacities and potential environmental risks associated with various forms of CO<sub>2</sub> geological storage.

Storage Strategy	Capacity (Gt-CO <sub>2</sub> )	Storage integrity	Environmental potential risk
Depleted oil and gas fields	25–30	High	Low
Active oil wells (EOR)	Low	High	Low
Enhanced coal-bed methane	5–10	Medium	Medium
Deep aquifers	1–150	Medium	Medium
Ocean (global)	1000–10,000	Medium	High
Carbonate storage (no transport)	Very high	Highest	High

Group (CMG-GEM, 2012) has been employed to perform simulations for 1000 years. The simulator proved a strong capability to model CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration mechanisms in both saline aquifer and CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced oil recovery (CO<sub>2</sub>-EOR) processes. It is a multiphase, multicomponent, compositional simulator solving a variety of fluid dynamic processes of miscible and immiscible injection, including phase physical and chemical equilibrium reactions, centered on a fully coupled and adaptive implicit approach (Nghiem et al., 2004).

The main objective of this article is to present multiphase, multi-component reservoir simulations describing typical CO<sub>2</sub> storage trapping mechanisms based on CO<sub>2</sub> phase relative storage potentiality for enhanced and safe CO<sub>2</sub> storage in a depleted oil reservoir at Liaohe basin, China. It shows CO<sub>2</sub> phase storage, spatial distribution and its migration in relation to reservoir water saturation and permeability changes in vertical and horizontal directions. Moreover, it provides an enhanced safe and long term CO<sub>2</sub> storage sequestration technique that incorporated hysteresis metrics. Further, it gives invaluable insights on performing CO<sub>2</sub> injection processes at pressure-controlled mode to limit reservoir pressure build-up which may trigger fracture and faults activities. The study provides a base and serves as a reference for storage projects in depleting oil reservoirs at Liaohe basin and projects of similar geological settings nature in the world.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Geological description of the study area

Liaohe basin in China is the largest heavy and extra heavy oil field and the third-largest oil-producing region in the country. It is located in the North-Eastern part of the Bohai bay rift basin series, with an exploration area of 12,400 km<sup>2</sup> (Zhu et al., 2010). Shen 84 Block is within the Liaohe basin in the Jinganbao oil-rich structural region of Damingtun depression in Xinmin city (Liaoning Province) (Fig. 1). Shen 84 is a faulted structure, anticlinal in nature and occupying an area of approximately 2.24 km<sup>2</sup>. It is of the Paleogene period (Eocene) of Shahejie formation. It has a complex depositional system characterized by fluvial and deltaic origin with some small sand body (Peng et al., 2014).

Table 2, shows a generalized stratigraphy of the Damingtun depression. The average formation depth is at 215 m and the minimum reservoir depth is 1000 m from the ground surface. This depth is very significant as it allows CO<sub>2</sub> injection in its supercritical state. Liaohe Oilfield formation has been spotted for CO<sub>2</sub> injection since 1998, therefore, since then several pilot-scale projects related to enhanced oil recovery and CO<sub>2</sub> injection have been tested and conducted with comprising results (Jin et al., 2012). The average porosity of the formation is 20.9%, and its permeability is  $3 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{m}^2$  (3 mD). The average formation pressure and temperature are 19.5 MPa and 67.5 °C respectively.

**Table 2**  
Generalized stratigraphy of Damingtun depression (modified after Xiaoguang and Zuan (1991)).

Age/System	Formation	Member	Formation lithology	Thickness (m)
Paleogene	Dongying Shahejie	Sha-1	Sandy conglomerate	500±
			Mudstone, gas, sandstone	500-1000
		Sha-3	Mudstone, oil, gas, sandstone, sand conglomerate	1500 - 3500+
		Sha-4	Mudstone, oil, oil shale, basalt	300 - 1500+
Cretaceous			Sandstone	0-40
Proterozoic	Gaoyuzhuang	Gao-1	Quartzite, oil-bearing fractures	0-1000+
		Gao-2	Dolomite, oil-bearing fractures, clay slate, quartzite	
		Gao-3	Dolomite, oil-bearing fractures	
	Dahongyu		Dolomite, oil-bearing fractures	
Archean			Oil-bearing fractures, metamorphic rocks, lamprophyre, diabase	

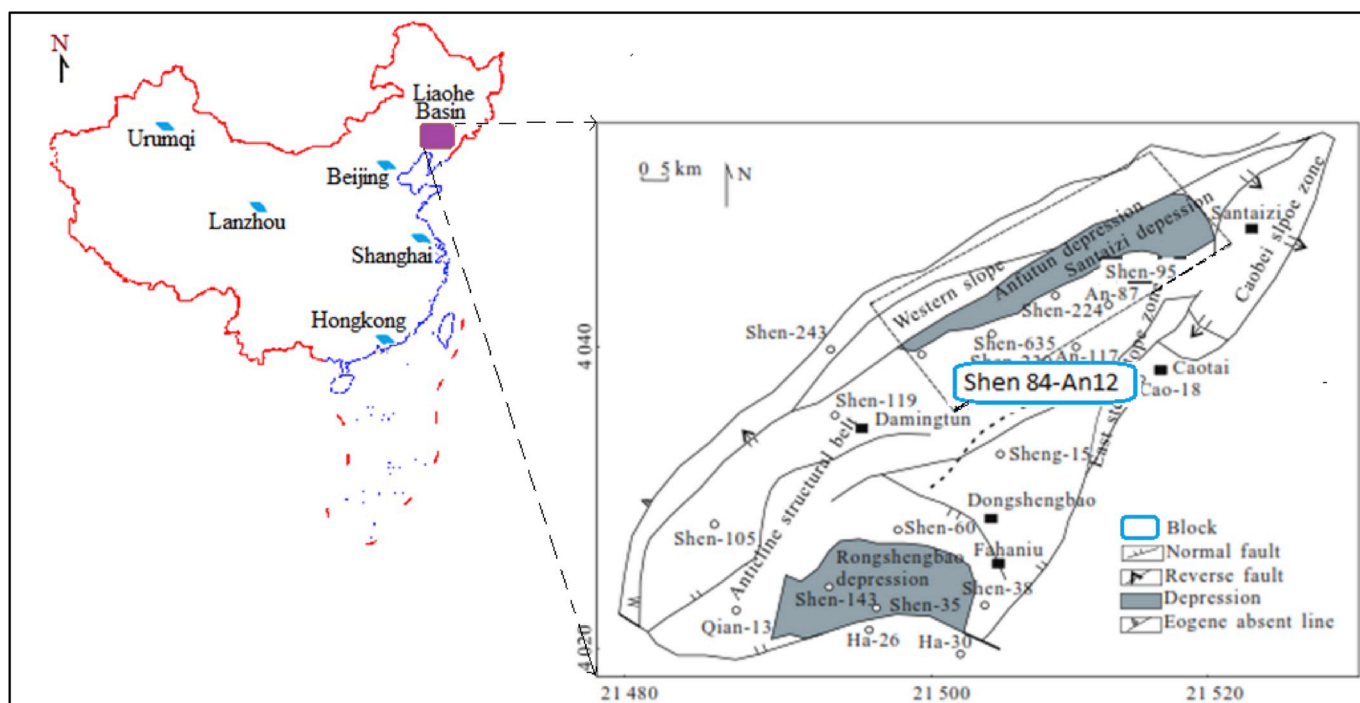


Fig. 1. The geological description of the study area Block Shen95, modified from Zhu et al. (2010).

## 2.2. Numerical simulation method

Generalized Equation of State Model Reservoir Simulator (GEM) from the CMG - Computer Modeling Group (CMG-GEM, 2012) has been used to perform simulations in this study. The GEM simulator has a great ability to model various important mechanisms involved in CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration as well as enhanced hydrocarbon recovery processes. It is a 3-Dimension, multiphase, multicomponent, numerical compositional simulator solving variety of mechanisms of miscible and immiscible gas injection process, including phase physical and chemical equilibrium reactions such as mineral dissolution/precipitation, swelling of oil, viscosity reduction along with multiphase multicomponent mass transfer, which is centered on a fully coupled and adaptive implicit approach (Nghiem et al., 2004).

## 2.3. Mathematical fluid flow models

The dynamics of CO<sub>2</sub> flow and transport with its interaction with porous media are governed by mass and momentum conservation laws. The equations governing the dynamics of multi-phase flow under the isothermal condition is controlled by a combination of some very crucial partial differential equations (Liu et al., 2014).

$$\frac{\partial M^{\kappa}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot F^{\kappa} + q^{\kappa} \quad (1)$$

where  $M$  is the mass buildup in the system (kg/m<sup>3</sup>),  $F$  is the mass flux (kg/m<sup>2</sup> s),  $q$  is the source or sink (kg/m<sup>3</sup> s),  $t$  is time in seconds,  $\nabla$  is the divergence,  $\kappa$  one of the mass components such as CO<sub>2</sub>, air and water.

If Eq. (1) involves water component in the fluid system, the following governing equation is used

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \phi \left( X_l^w S_l \rho_l + X_g^w S_g \rho_g \right) \right] = -\nabla \cdot \left\{ X_l^w \rho_l \left( -k \frac{k_{rl}}{\mu_1} (\nabla P_l - \rho_l g) \right) + X_g^w \rho_g \left( -k \frac{k_{rg}}{\mu_g} (\nabla P_g - \rho_g g) \right) \right\} + (q_l^w + q_g^w) \quad (2)$$

where  $\phi$  is the porosity,  $X_l$  with superscript  $w$  is the mass fraction of component  $w$  in phase  $l$ ,  $S$  is the saturation,  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration [LT<sup>-2</sup>],  $w$  represents water,  $k$  is permeability [L<sup>2</sup>],  $\rho$  is a density [ML<sup>-3</sup>],  $k_{rg}$  refers to a relative permeability,  $P$  stands for pressure [ML<sup>-1</sup>T<sup>-2</sup>],  $l$ ,  $g$  and  $s$  stand for liquid, gas and solid phases respectively and  $\mu$  is the viscosity [ML<sup>-1</sup>T<sup>-1</sup>]. The governing equations for the CO<sub>2</sub> component in the multiple phase fluid systems can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \phi \left( X_l^c S_l \rho_l + X_g^c S_g \rho_g \right) \right] = -\nabla \cdot \left\{ X_l^c \rho_l \left( -k \frac{k_{rl}}{\mu_1} (\nabla P_l - \rho_l g) \right) + X_g^c \rho_g \left( -k \frac{k_{rg}}{\mu_g} (\nabla P_g - \rho_g g) \right) \right\} + (q_l^c + q_g^c + q_s^c) \quad (3)$$

where  $c$  stands for CO<sub>2</sub>

Eq. (3) is the key governing equation describing the composition of CO<sub>2</sub> in three-phase fluid systems.

## 2.4. Model descriptions and setup

The reservoir parameter and properties of the site as shown in Table 3 were used to construct the numerical model. The developed 3D homogeneous compositional model was numerically simulated based on field dimensions of 2.8 km by 0.8 km at a total formation thickness of 106 m. The average porosity was 20.9% and horizontal permeability (K<sub>h</sub>) was 3 mD (Orodu et al., 2009; Peng et al., 2014). The ratio of vertical to horizontal permeability (K<sub>v</sub>/K<sub>h</sub>) was 0.1 for the base case (Kasap, 2001). The main reason for setting the permeability ratio was based on the model restriction on vertical fluid flow. K<sub>v</sub>/K<sub>h</sub> ratio is an important fluid flow factor when creating consistent models for

**Table 3**

Reservoir rock and fluid petrophysical properties and its hydrogeological parameters (Orodu et al., 2009; Peng et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2018a).

Rock properties		Fluid properties	
Property/Parameter (units)	Value	Property/Parameter (units)	Value
Reservoir dimensions	2800 × 800 × 106	Water saturation, Sw (%)	50
Grid size	30 × 25 × 6	Initial oil saturation	50
Average Perm, K (μm <sup>2</sup> )	0.53	Water density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	1030
Porosity, (%)	20.9	Water viscosity (cp)	0.5
Perm. V/Perm. H, Kv/Kh	0.1	Formation water salinity, (mg/L)	10,000
Reservoir temperature, (°C)	67.5	Oil specific gravity (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	870
Initial reservoir pressure (MPa)	19.5		
Formation depth (m)	1000		
Rock compressibility (/kPa)	3.03 × 10 <sup>-8</sup>		

anticipating field performances. When it is greater than 1, more flow takes place in a vertical direction as compared to the horizontal direction and when it is less than 0.1 more restrictions are set to the fluid flow in a vertical direction. Moreover, as discussed by Kasap (2001), an empirically derived K<sub>v</sub>/K<sub>h</sub> ratio of 0.1 is commonly recommended in the industry to account for the fluid flow movement.

Thus, different values for K<sub>v</sub>/K<sub>h</sub> ratios were tested to study its effect on the storage capacity and performance of the reservoir. Reservoir depth with reference to the surface was at 1000 m and the initial reservoir pressure was 19.5 MPa. Initial water saturation of 50% was recorded, and the formation water salinity was 10,000 ppm. The model was assumed to be isothermal at 67.5 °C and there was no dissolved gas at the beginning, except during the injection process. Moreover, the process of the geochemical reaction was not taken into account during modeling. The model grids were designed at 30 cells × 25 cells × 6 cells for the x-y-z directions, making the total grid block equals to 4500 cells. The model is a sandstone reservoir with low permeability and zero dip. Additionally, it was assumed that CO<sub>2</sub> injection was conducted at supercritical conditions.

## 2.5. Rock-fluid properties

Water-gas relative permeability parameters are vital data during model simulation processes as they provide guidance on the fluid dynamics in the reservoir. Furthermore, they have a significant influence on CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity as the formation region around the wellbore is normally high water saturated (Liu et al., 2010). In this study, Van Genuchten (1980) and Corey (1954) functions applicable in sandstone and mudstone were adopted to estimate relative permeability of aqueous phase and gas in the reservoir. Additionally, Van Genuchten's functional form was applied to estimate capillary pressure curves (Akaku, 2008; Liu et al., 2010). The curves representing relative permeability for the rock-brine-CO<sub>2</sub> used in this study are shown in Fig. 2(a) and (b).

In the model, well injector location was at block (x, y) = (15, 13), of which the flow process was centered. The vertical injector well was perforated and located at block model position (x, y, z) equals to (15, 13, 2–6), with the depth from 1010 m to 1060 m. Pure supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> was injected for 10 years followed by 100 years of a shut-in. Further, 1000 years post shut-in was simulated to study the long term effect and spatial distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> storage under different forms within the reservoir. The reservoir model constraints were set at maximum bottom hole pressure (BHP) of 35 MPa and a maximum injection rate of 2500m<sup>3</sup>/day at standard conditions of pressure and temperature.



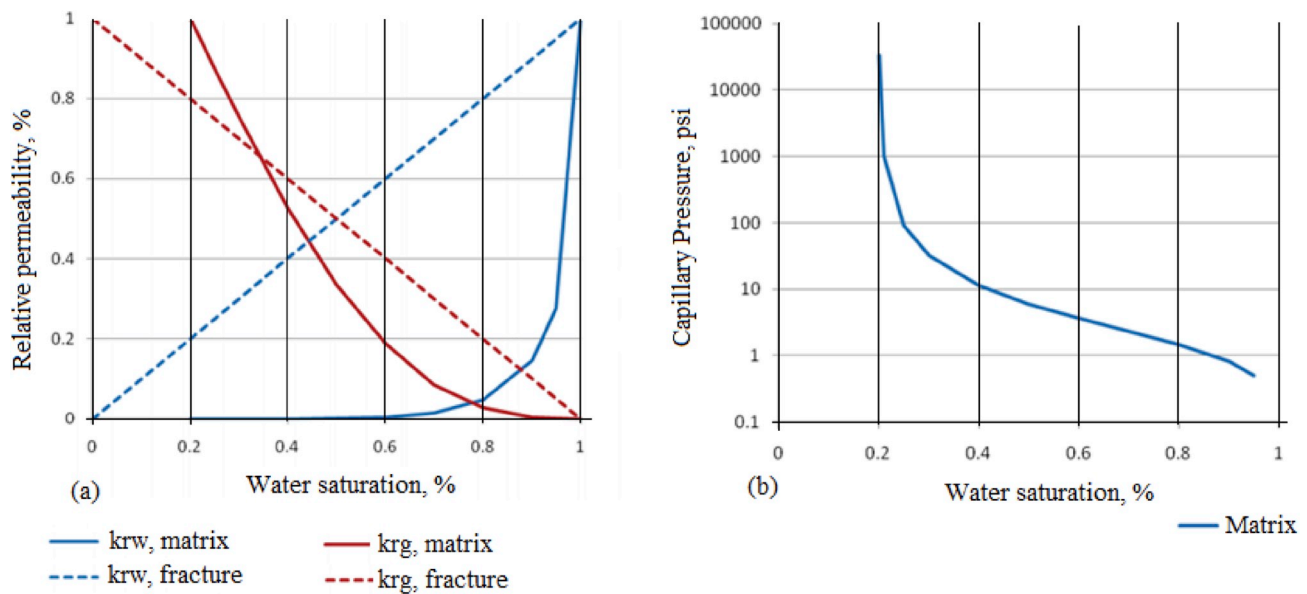


Fig. 2. (a) Relative permeability curve (b) A curve for reservoir capillary pressure.

2.6. Reservoir model construction and fluid phase behavior descriptions

Fluid modeling was performed by using the Peng-Robinson equation of state (EOS) for typical fluid from Liaohe Oilfield. Table 4 presents the fluid model parameters used in the study. CMG-WinProp was employed to describe the properties and phase behavior of reservoir fluids (CMG-WinProp, 2012).

2.6.1. CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the brine

Peng-Robinson Equation of State (Peng and Robinson, 1976b) was tuned to fit the site available experimental data as presented in the study performed by Yang et al. (2018b). The reservoir fluid component properties such as density, pressure, and temperature as well as CO<sub>2</sub> solubility, brine density and viscosity were estimated by using the same Peng-Robinson equation of state. The dissolution of CO<sub>2</sub> was estimated through Henry’s law (Li and Nghiem June, 1986) for brine at a salinity of 10,000 ppm. The dissolution rate in the brine was assumed to be in thermodynamic state of equilibrium and its equation is the equality of fugacities of the component in CO<sub>2</sub> and brine (Nghiem et al., 2004), that is,

$$g_i = f_{ig} - f_{iw}, \quad I = 1 \dots n_g \quad (4)$$

Equation (4) is mainly applicable when injected CO<sub>2</sub> is not 100% pure, meaning that it is mixed up by some components n<sub>g</sub>. Again Peng-Robinson equation was employed to calculate fugacity f<sub>ig</sub>. Henry’s law (Peng and Robinson, 1976a) was used to estimate the fugacity of gaseous components dissolved in brine, that is,

$$f_{iw} = y_{iv} \cdot H_i, \quad (5)$$

where H<sub>i</sub> in eq. (5) is Henry’s constant which it’s set up was conducted

Table 4  
Reservoir compositional fluid system and parameters (Yang et al., 2018b).

Component name	Mole (%)	Pc (atm)	Tc (K)	Acentric factor	Molecular Weight
CO <sub>2</sub>	0.020	72.800	304.200	0.2250	44.0
N <sub>2</sub> - CH <sub>4</sub>	20.539	45.045	188.488	0.0090	16.4
C <sub>2</sub> - C <sub>5</sub>	3.600	39.357	401.770	0.1757	52.6
C <sub>6</sub> - C <sub>12</sub>	22.654	19.917	613.414	0.4235	130.0
C <sub>13</sub> - C <sub>35</sub>	42.140	13.709	797.799	0.8515	299.7
C <sub>36+</sub>	11.047	5.227	1262.265	1.6124	1415.0

by assuming that only CO<sub>2</sub> dissolved in the system. It was also assumed that the formation is an open system meaning that apart from vertical movement of injected CO<sub>2</sub> it can also migrate horizontally in the layers after shut-in. The phase viscosity of the brine was estimated by using Rowe and Chou (1970) correlation and Kestin et al. (1981) correlation.

Reservoir fluid model results after fluid model lumping, splitting and regression are shown in Table 5. As it was sourced from the study conducted by Yang et al. (2018b) at Liaohe Oilfield.

3. Simulation results and discussion

After 1000 years post-injection of CO<sub>2</sub>, the higher concentration level of CO<sub>2</sub> was observed at the upper part of the reservoir below its cap-rock as can be seen in Fig. 4. The accumulation was mainly due to the buoyancy effect of CO<sub>2</sub> plume which led to its spread and accumulation beneath the seal rock of the reservoir (Agada et al., 2017). As more CO<sub>2</sub> was injected through the wellbore, more pressure was created in the reservoir especially beneath the seal rock. With the impermeable seal rock layer, the lateral spread of the CO<sub>2</sub> plume was a necessary option for the plume. The intensity of the gas accumulated below the seal rock varies depending on factors such as time of storage and reservoir layers’ permeability. It can be seen that gas saturation at the top of the reservoir in the early 100 years was lower at approximately 0.6–0.7 as compared with the saturation at 1000 years, where the saturation range was 0.7–0.8 (see Fig. 3).

Fig. 5(a) shows the reservoir dimensions and the location of the injector well, and Fig. 5(b) is the global CO<sub>2</sub> mole distribution display indicating that within 100 years most of the injected gas was trapped as free gas in its supercritical state.

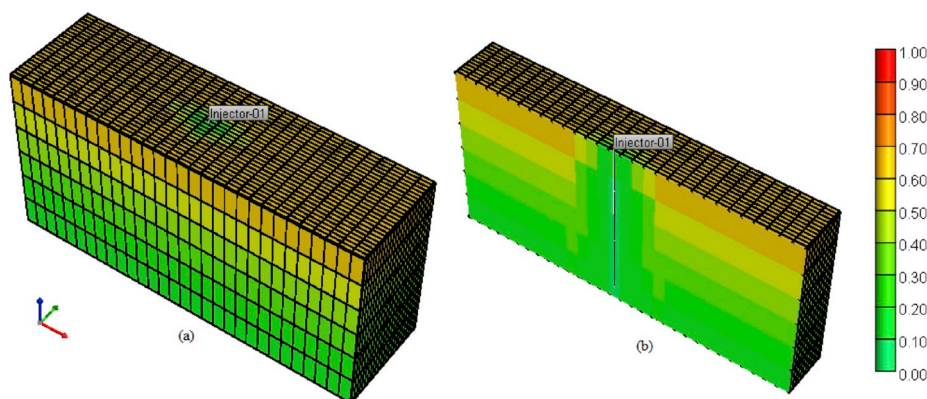
It was observed in both cases (100 and 1000 years post shut-in) that there was an immediate decrease in bottom hole pressure after the shut-in of the wellbore (Fig. 6). This was possibly associated with two factors (i) dissolution of CO<sub>2</sub> in the brine and (ii) its imbibition as it got trapped in the reservoir pores during its insitu migration processes horizontally and vertically (Basbug and Gumrah, 2007). Moreover, the gas rate at surface conditions rose slowly to its peak and then dropped to zero at the time of shut-in.

3.1. Difference in CO<sub>2</sub> phase storage capacity and trapping mechanism

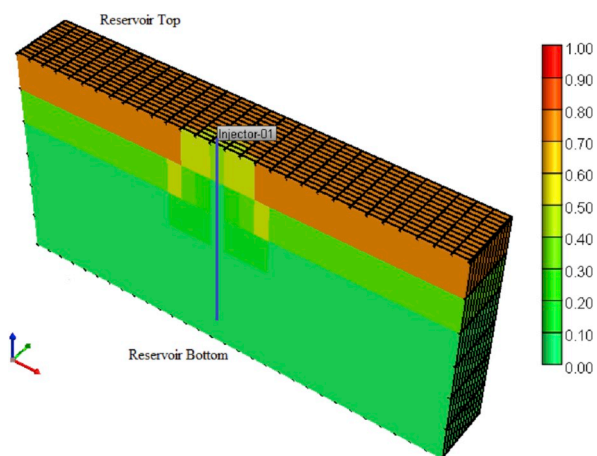
The CO<sub>2</sub> stored in the reservoir was in three different forms (i) free/

**Table 5**  
Compositional reservoir parameters based on the reservoir system.

Component	Mole (%)	Pc (atm)	Tc (K)	Acentric factor	Molecular Weight	Omega A	Omega B	SG
CO <sub>2</sub>	0.020	72.800	304.200	0.2250	44.01	0.4572	0.0778	0.8180
N <sub>2</sub> to CH <sub>4</sub>	20.539	39.743	158.406	0.0236	21.87	0.4572	0.0778	0.4937
CH <sub>2</sub> to NC <sub>5</sub>	3.600	39.339	398.404	0.1709	52.28	0.4572	0.0778	0.5308
C <sub>6</sub> to C <sub>12</sub>	22.654	26.909	594.723	0.3916	120.48	0.4572	0.0778	0.7636
C <sub>13</sub> to C <sub>35</sub>	42.140	12.271	827.599	0.9379	329.94	0.4572	0.0778	0.8887
C <sub>36+</sub>	11.047	5.227	304.200	1.6124	1415.00	0.4572	0.0778	0.2433



**Fig. 3.** A 3D spatial CO<sub>2</sub> distribution (a) a full model gas saturation distribution (b) a half model gas saturation distribution stipulating details of gas profiles for 100 years post shut-in.



**Fig. 4.** A half-cut CO<sub>2</sub> spatial distribution gas saturation model showing the inner part of the reservoir 1000 years after the injection process.

supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, (ii) trapped or residual CO<sub>2</sub>, and (iii) was a dissolved form of CO<sub>2</sub>. Mineral storage is also among the forms in which CO<sub>2</sub> can be stored but it was not covered in this study, this is mainly because the mineral dissolution reaction and precipitation are slow and takes a long time (Nghiem et al., 2009).

It was observed that the variation in water saturation led to varying amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> phase stored in the reservoir. Moreover, CO<sub>2</sub> was observed to be stored at lower water saturation conditions as compared to higher water saturation conditions.

Fig. 7 shows three CO<sub>2</sub> forms stored cumulatively in 100 years period. Simulation results revealed that a total of  $6.3 \times 10^8$  kg of CO<sub>2</sub> was stored in the reservoir at the water saturation of 0.5, while  $5.02 \times 10^8$  kg and  $4.08 \times 10^8$  kg of CO<sub>2</sub> were stored at a water saturation of 0.7 and 0.9 respectively. This indicated a decrease of 20% and 35% of reservoir total storage capacity at 0.7 and 0.9 water saturation respectively as compared to the base case of 0.5 water saturation. The reason

for storage capacity decrease may be attributed to the pore space limitation (occupied by water) that would otherwise be taken by CO<sub>2</sub> injected under the constraints of pressure and time. It was observed that for the first 100 years of storage the dominant form of CO<sub>2</sub> stored was in the supercritical phase, followed by trapped/residual, and then dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>.

As previously stated that the total amount of stored CO<sub>2</sub> was a combination of three forms: supercritical, trapped/residue and dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>. The CO<sub>2</sub> phase which dominated the reservoir in terms of storage ability for 100 years was the supercritical phase followed by trapped/residue and ten dissolved form, its cumulative amount in terms of percent and their corresponding saturation are shown in Fig. 8.

From Fig. 9, it was revealed that the total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> stored in the reservoir in a supercritical form decreased with time as water saturation increased. For instance, the reservoir water saturation of 0.5, 0.7 and 0.9 resulted in total stored supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> of 74%, 70%, and 55% respectively. The decrease of stored supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> with water saturation was mainly caused by dissolution and trapped gas in pores during its migration in the reservoir. On the other hand, it was observed that the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> stored in the trapped and dissolved form increased as the water saturation decreased. For instance, the total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> stored in the trapped form in 100 years post shut-in at saturation of 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9 was recorded as 20.4%, 22.8%, and 36.8% while that of dissolved form was 5.8%, 7.2%, and 7.9% respectively. The additional explanations of the decrease in storage amount of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> and an increase of trapped and dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> was that injected gas experienced a buoyancy effect which made it finds its way to the roof of the reservoir beneath the seal rock, and during the movement, it gets trapped in the reservoir pores and at the same time dissolved in brine.

Simulation results for 1000 years revealed that there was a decrease of 2% of the total supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> injected as compared to the period of 100 years. However, there was an increase of 26% of residue/trapped CO<sub>2</sub> and 19% dissolved in the brine. These findings are corroborated by some other researchers such as Heinemann et al. (2018) who performed their study on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration with limited sealing capability in the Pearl River Mouth Basin. Finally, it was observed that as the time elapsed from the date of injection, the amount of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>

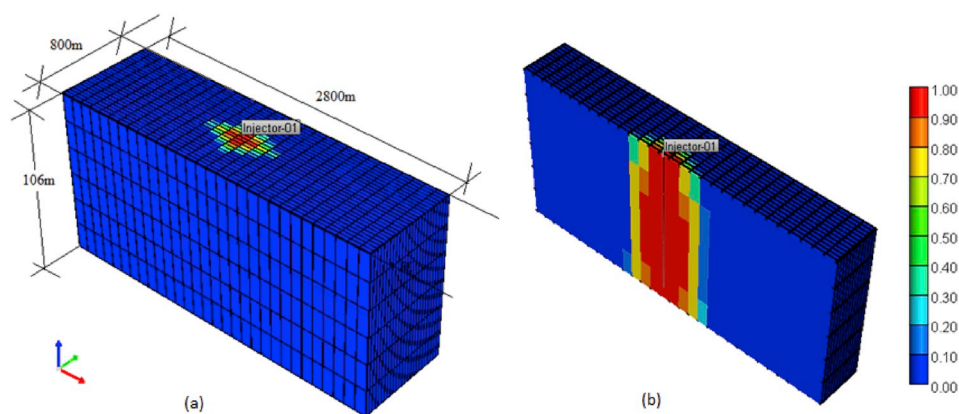


Fig. 5. Reservoir full and a half model showing (a) model dimensions and CO<sub>2</sub> injection well location (b) CO<sub>2</sub> global mole fraction distribution profile, 100 years after shut-in.

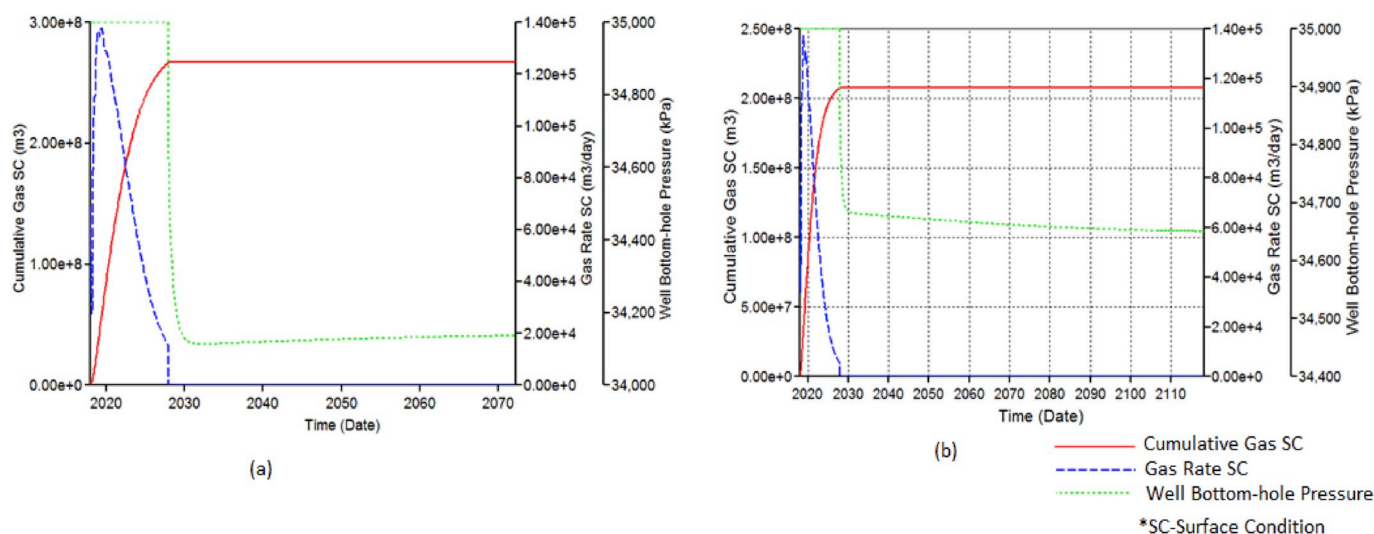


Fig. 6. Injection history profile with peak values of cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> stored (a) 100 years after injection and shut-in, (b) 1000 years after shut-in, zoomed and displayed to 2110.

stored in the reservoir decreased, while the amount of trapped and dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> increased.

Injection rates were observed to vary subject to the level of saturation, and the trending showed a decrease of injection rate towards the shut-in period, Fig. 10. The decrease in injection rate was possibly due to a decrease in pore spaces which were gradually occupied by CO<sub>2</sub> plume during the injection process. Moreover, increased pore pressure which resulted in counter injection pressure was also observed. It was additionally revealed that as the reservoir water saturation increased, the gradient of the CO<sub>2</sub> injection rate became steeper with time. This was mainly due to pore water pressure which exerted an opposed pressure during injection. The ratio of vertical to horizontal permeability ( $K_v/K_h$ ) was analyzed and its effect was described in the subsequent section.

### 3.2. Vertical to horizontal permeability ratio ( $K_v/K_h$ ) effect on CO<sub>2</sub> storage

In this study, the base case  $K_v/K_h$  value was 0.1 and the maximum  $K_v/K_h$  was at 1 with a step incremental variation of 0.1 as can be stipulated in Table 6. Simulation results revealed that the increase of the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio led to an increased amount of trapped CO<sub>2</sub> in dissolved form. Moreover, the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> stored in a residue/trapped form was rising as the permeability ratio increased.

A simulation study conducted for the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio of 0.1–1 revealed

that the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio of 0.1 had a total CO<sub>2</sub> stored amount of  $6.28 \times 10^8$  kg, while the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio of 1 had a total sum of  $6.65 \times 10^8$  kg CO<sub>2</sub>. Fig. 11 displayed the trend of CO<sub>2</sub> stored amount. This implied that there was an increment of 5.8% of CO<sub>2</sub> stored at the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio of 1 compared to the  $K_v/K_h$  of 0.1 (Table 7).

Simulation results revealed that the amount of trapped/residue and dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> stored in the reservoir was proportional to  $K_v/K_h$  ratios while the amount of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> remained almost unchanged for the entire post shut-in period. A similar observation was reported by Ghanbari et al. (2006). The percentage increase in trapped/residue and dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> was 27.1% and 4.1%, respectively. The increased  $K_v/K_h$  ratio implied that a more vertical permeable environment was created, which in turn favored the migration of CO<sub>2</sub> in a vertical direction. The more the vertical migration is favored by increased buoyancy force towards beneath the cap-rock, the more it interacts with the formation brine then facilitates the dissolution of CO<sub>2</sub>.

Fig. 12 was created to have a detailed understanding of behaviors stipulated by three different CO<sub>2</sub> forms stored over the wide range of  $K_v/K_h$  ratios. Results showed a constant amount of dissolved and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> forms stored in a whole period of 100 years of post-shut-in. However, it was observed that cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> stored in the trapped/residue form at  $K_v/K_h$  ratio of 20 was 1.27 times that at the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio of 0.5. The increase, in this study named region A in Fig. 12, was probably caused by the fact that  $K_v/K_h$  ratio at 20 favors gas mobility in the

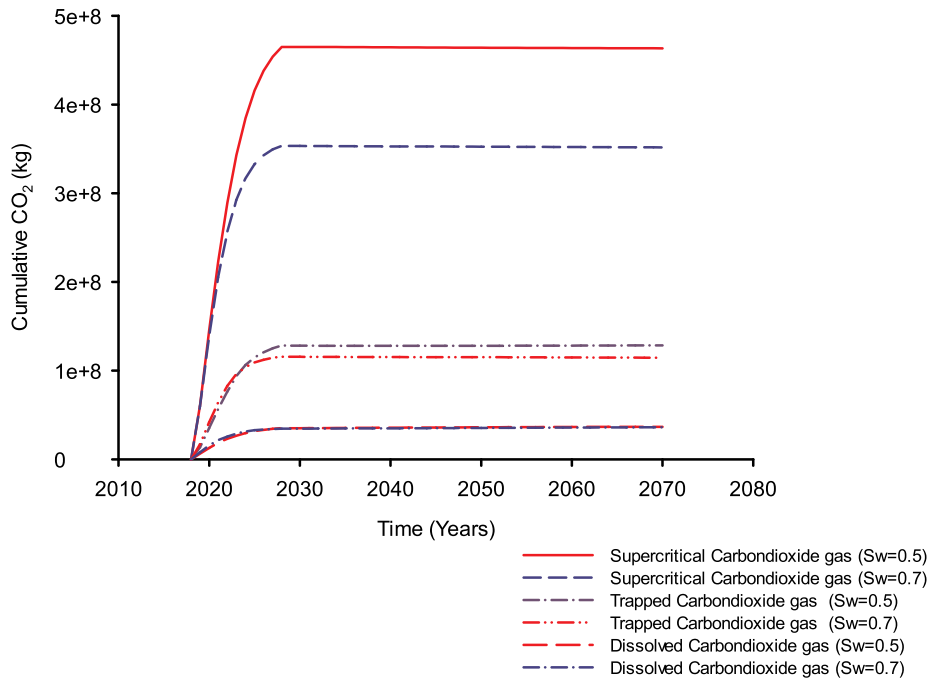


Fig. 7. Cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> storage characteristic curves resulted due to variation in water saturation for 100 years shut-in period.

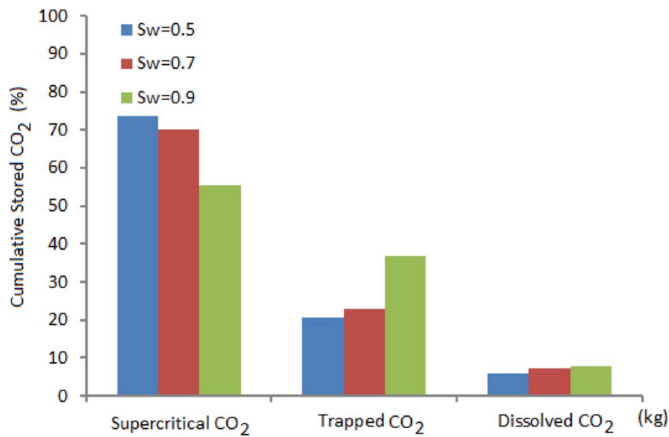


Fig. 8. CO<sub>2</sub> gas stored in supercritical trapped/residue and dissolved form in brine at 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9 water saturation respectively, for 100 years post shut-in.

reservoir and during the gas migration towards the top beneath impermeable rock it displaced brine in pores and hence get trapped. It was also observed that besides the general trend of the increased amount of stored CO<sub>2</sub> with the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio, region A had an extraordinary high  $K_v/K_h$  ratio for trapped/residue CO<sub>2</sub>. For both cases, it was observed that more CO<sub>2</sub> was accumulated below the caprock of the reservoir. The accumulation led to formation pressure build-up, however, the lateral movement of CO<sub>2</sub> reduced the effect and the seal rock crack initiation pressure was controlled not to exceed the threshold. To this end, the integrity and safety of the reservoir cap-rock was maintained for the entire period of study. Some additional sensitivity parameters were incorporated to explore more about the study, bottom hole pressure (BHP) and salinity were tested. And the following simulation results were observed.

3.3. The effect of salinity

Salinity was tested as shown in Table 8. In the study, 50% salinity

was added in one case and reduced in the other. Simulation results revealed that an increase in salinity led to a decreased amount of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in the brine. In this case, a 20% reduction from the base case was observed. In contrary, the decrease in salinity resulted in the increased dissolution of injected CO<sub>2</sub> as compared to the base case. This observation coincides with studies done by those which was conducted by Ghanbari et al. (2006), Omambia and Li (2010) and Ampomah et al. (2015).

3.4. The effect of bottom hole pressure (BHP)

The BHP was tested by altering about 25% lower and above the base case as shown in Table 8. Simulation results revealed that the decrease of BHP led to a decrease of CO<sub>2</sub> amount stored in the dissolved form, likewise, the increase of BHP resulted in an increase of the dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in brine as compared to the base case. It was generally observed that as the BHP increases, the amount of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in the reservoir also increases. However, monitoring and control of BHP remain to be a very important task as disregarding it may result in reservoir pressure build-up and create initiation of fractures and faults within the reservoir which in turn may trigger gas leakage and endanger the CO<sub>2</sub> storage safety of the site. Nevertheless, increased pressure enhances the interaction between the injected gas molecules and the brine; it also facilitates the lateral movement of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> in the reservoir.

4. Conclusion

Geological CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in depleted oil reservoirs is among the very impressive strategy for anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation. It becomes more attractive when the risks and hazards associated with the site geology and environments are minimized or eliminated during and after the process. Risk of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage, pressure buildup, fault activities, and seismicity are crucial to be prior evaluated for the safe and long term storage of CO<sub>2</sub> in a reservoir. This study presents a 3D numerical model that was developed and simulated to analyze reservoir performance and storage capacity for a depleted oil reservoir. Various storage mechanisms were studied and three CO<sub>2</sub> phase storage form analysis with respect to formation water saturation at Jinganbao site was conducted. The following were the findings of the study.



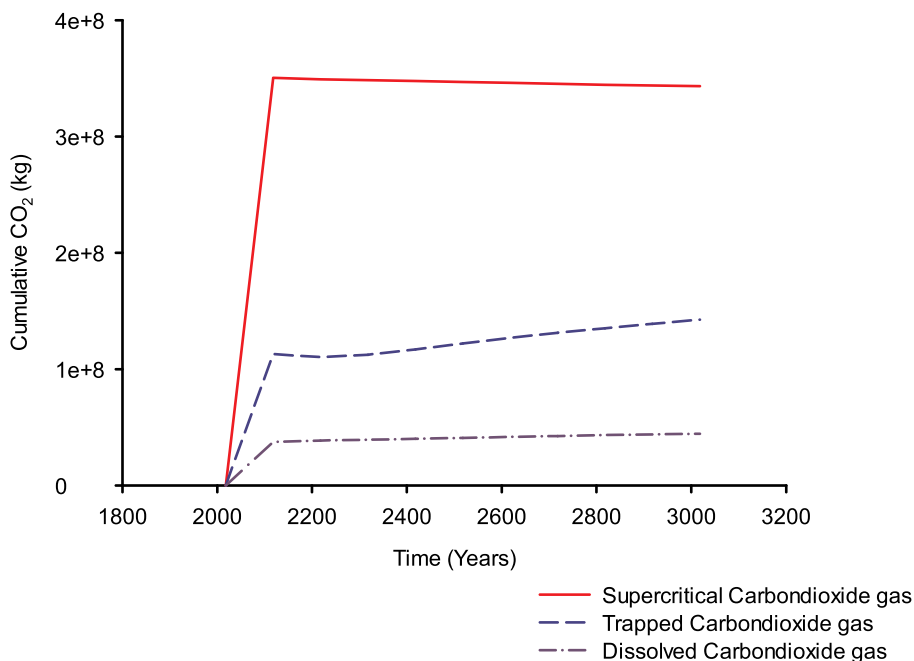


Fig. 9. Characteristic curves of different forms of cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> stored in 1000 years.

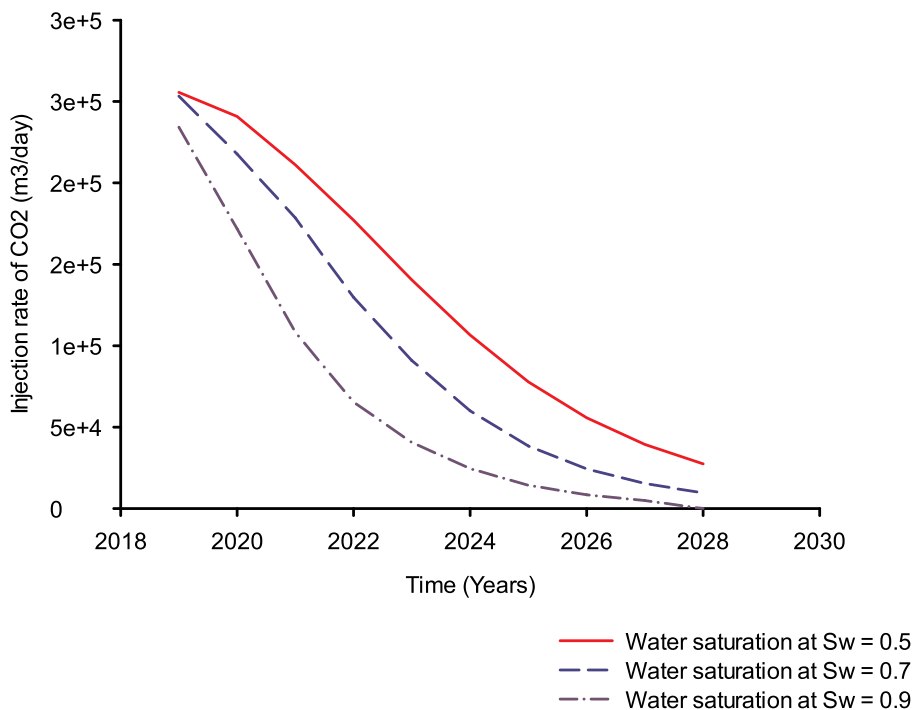


Fig. 10. CO<sub>2</sub> injection rates to shut-in period.

- Different formation water saturation has varying corresponding phase CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity. The more the water saturation the lower the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> to be accommodated in the reservoir. This is most likely due to the reason that saturated water limits the number of formation pores to be accessed by CO<sub>2</sub> in the sequestration process.
- Simulation results revealed that different CO<sub>2</sub> storage period has different CO<sub>2</sub> phase storage capacity. For example, for the simulation period of 100 years post shut-in, 73.7% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was stored in form of supercritical, 20.5% as residue/trapped CO<sub>2</sub> and 5.8% were

stored as dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in the formation brine. While for a simulation period of 1000 years post shut-in, 64.8% of CO<sub>2</sub> was stored in supercritical form, 26.9% in trapped/residue form and 8.3% of CO<sub>2</sub> was stored in dissolved form.

- As far as formation water saturation is concern, it was observed that a total of  $6.3 \times 10^8$  kg of CO<sub>2</sub> was stored at 0.5 water saturation, while  $5.02 \times 10^8$  and  $4.08 \times 10^8$  kg of CO<sub>2</sub> was stored at 0.7 and 0.9 water saturation respectively. This observation indicated a decreasing trend of total CO<sub>2</sub> stored compared to the amount stored at 0.5 water

**Table 6**  
The effect of  $K_v/K_h$  to  $CO_2$  storage, 100 years post shut-in.

$K_v/K_h$ ratio	Supercritical $CO_2$ ( $\times 10^8$ ) (kg)	Trapped $CO_2$ ( $\times 10^8$ ) (kg)	Dissolved $CO_2$ ( $\times 10^7$ ) (kg)
0.1	4.63	1.28	3.67
0.2	4.63	1.31	3.72
0.3	4.63	1.35	3.74
0.4	4.63	1.39	3.76
0.5	4.63	1.43	3.77
0.6	4.63	1.47	3.78
0.7	4.63	1.51	3.79
0.8	4.63	1.55	3.80
0.9	4.63	1.59	3.81
1.0	4.63	1.63	3.82

saturation. Therefore, water saturation has a direct effect on the storage capacity of the reservoir. Higher formation water saturation value limits reservoir pores accessibility, and hence lowers reservoir storage.

- There was an increase in  $CO_2$  phase change storage as  $K_v/K_h$  increased. The increase of  $K_v/K_h$  ratio implied vertical reservoir permeability enhancement, and in turn, caused the migration of  $CO_2$  in a vertical direction, and the more  $CO_2$  migrates to the seal rock, favors interaction with the formation brine hence facilitate dissolution of  $CO_2$ .
- At higher ratios of  $K_v/K_h$ , the impact of trapped/residue  $CO_2$  is higher compared to all other  $K_v/K_h$  ratios performed in the study. This effect led to an impact on the overall total stored amount of  $CO_2$  in the reservoir. Simulation results revealed a total increase of 1.25 times of the cumulative amount of trapped  $CO_2$  stored at the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio of 20 as compared to the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio of 0.5. This result reflects a 28.6% increase in the total cumulative  $CO_2$  stored in the reservoir.
- Simulation results revealed that an increase in reservoir water salinity led to a decreased amount of dissolved  $CO_2$  in the brine.

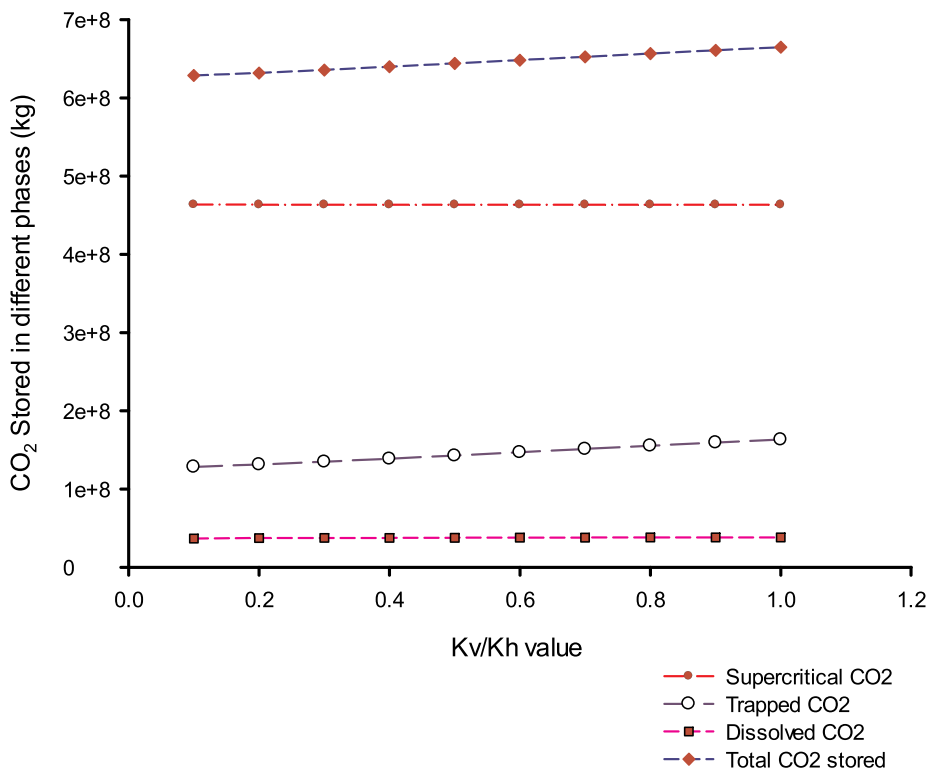
This study reveals that Shen 84 in Jinganbao Liaohe basin has adequate capability to store anthropogenic  $CO_2$  at varying stages of its life as long as proper monitoring of formation pressure build-up and  $CO_2$  plume migration control is guaranteed. Moreover, different storage period at altered water saturation has different  $CO_2$  phase amount stored in the reservoir. The estimated safe values of this study may function as benchmark information for various similar projects in Liaohe basin or elsewhere in the world. However, detailed feasibility work needs to be conducted to increase confidence for the new CCS project start-up and implementation. This is crucial to avoid  $CO_2$  leakage through old closed wells, fractures, and problems related to induced seismicity.

**Author contributions**

R.M conceived and planned the research study and set the first draft

**Table 7**  
Effect of  $K_v/K_h$  ratio on  $CO_2$  storage 100 years post shut-in at 0.5 water saturation.

$K_v/K_h$	Supercritical $CO_2$ ( $\times 10^8$ ) (kg)	Trapped $CO_2$ ( $\times 10^8$ ) (kg)	Dissolved $CO_2$ ( $\times 10^7$ ) (kg)	Total Stored $CO_2$ ( $\times 10^8$ ) (kg)
0.001	4.59	1.22	3.52	6.16
0.01	4.63	1.27	3.56	6.25
0.1	4.63	1.28	3.67	6.28
0.5	4.63	1.43	3.77	6.44
1	4.63	1.63	3.82	6.65
1.8	4.62	2.19	3.99	7.20
3	4.62	2.51	4.02	7.53
5	4.61	2.79	4.03	7.81
10	4.63	3.03	3.98	8.06
20	4.66	3.25	3.78	8.28
50	4.69	3.28	3.66	8.33
100	4.74	3.40	3.72	8.51
300	4.69	3.46	3.78	8.53
1000	4.69	3.43	3.82	8.50



**Fig. 11.** Variation of  $CO_2$  forms storage capacity based on the  $K_v/K_h$  ratio ranging from 0.1 to 1 for 100 years post shut-in.

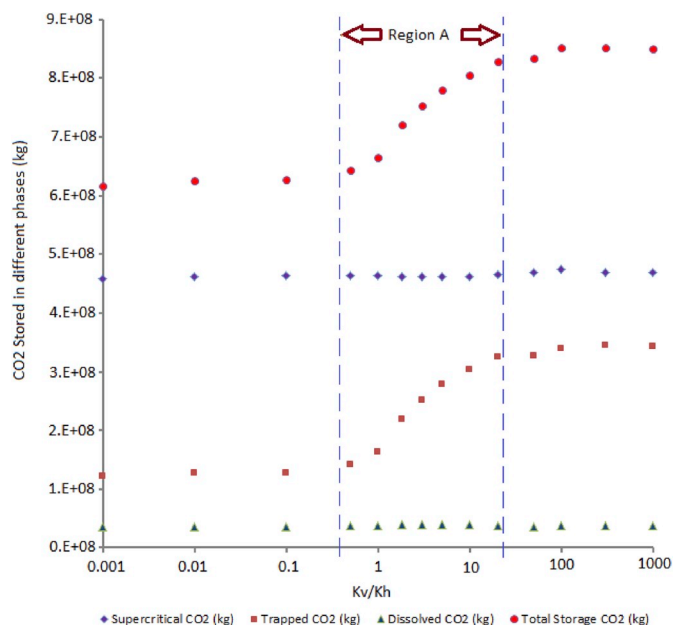


Fig. 12. Storage capacity variation caused by the change in  $K_v/K_h$  ratio tested for a water saturation range of 0.001–1000 for 100 years post shut-in.

Table 8

Parameter and values used for sensitivity analysis and their results for 100-year model simulation.

CO <sub>2</sub> stored in different phases with their corresponding sensitivity from the base case					
Sensitivity (Parameter)	Value	Supercritical CO <sub>2</sub> (%)	Trapped CO <sub>2</sub> (%)	Dissolved CO <sub>2</sub> (%)	
BHP (Mpa)	14.5	15.7	9.5	43.3	Base case
	19.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	
	24.5	48.6	48.9	21.8	
Salinity (g/L)	5	−5.3	−5.0	20.4	Base case
	10	0	0	0	
	15	12.5	11.2	−20	

of the research. G.B. supervised the research and evaluated data and results. R.M prepared the data and implemented the modeling and simulation. G.B analyzed the results and edited and revised the draft. G. B. contributed to the experiment design and data analysis.

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## Declaration of competing interest

All authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interest in this study. Also, this article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jngse.2020.103196>.

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