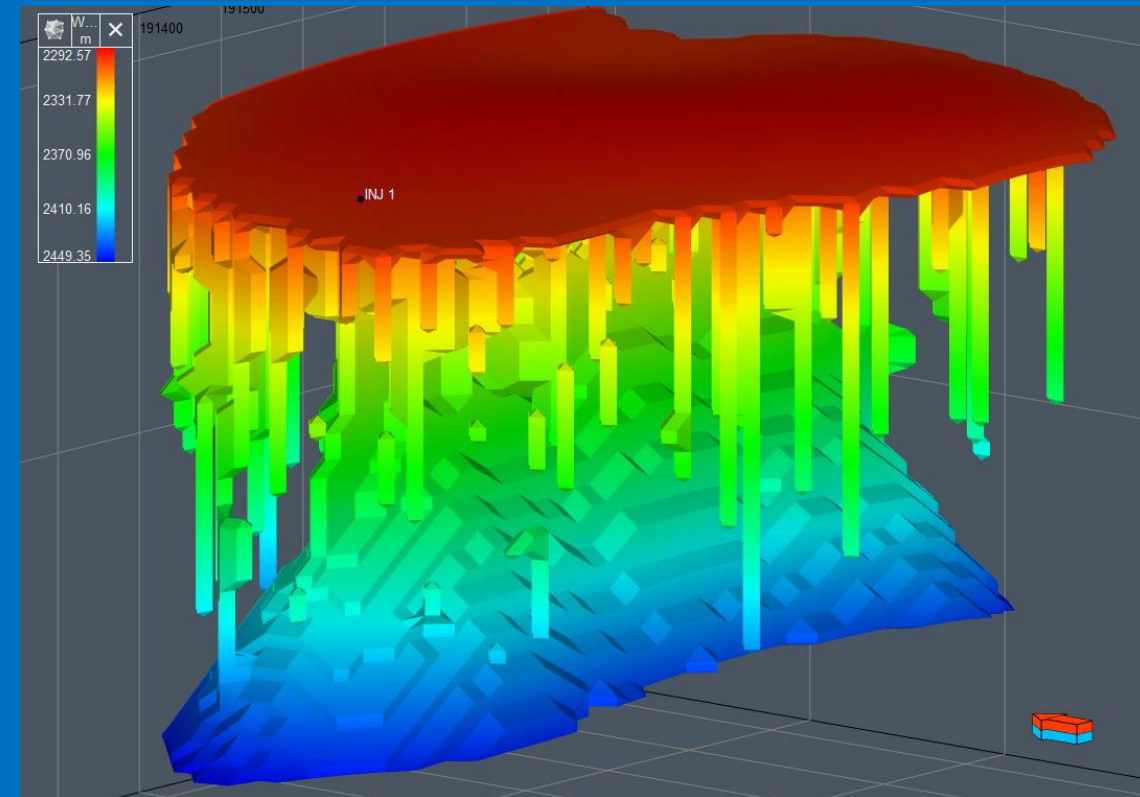


Modelling CO2 Flux Regimes Post-Injection – Diffusion, Convection and Gravity Slumping

Understanding dissolution flux
regimes, convective instability, and
their implications for simulation
modelling & CCS/GCS project design



CO2 Dissolution not just as a safeguard, but as a strategy



Europe Carbon Capture Activity and Project Map

Filter by

Subsector

Storage Type



Zoom to

United States

Europe

MENA

Global

Europe Carbon Capture Project Map – Clean Air Task Force

© Mapbox © OpenStreetMap Improve this map



Storage Type

- Basalt
- Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR)
- Dedicated Saline Storage (DSS)
- EOR & DSS
- Depleted Oil or Gas Reservoir
- Other or Unavailable

Geological Formations

- CO₂ Storage Capacity

Legend

Project circles sized by known capture capacity in metric tons of CO₂/year

- Unavailable
- 200K
- 2MM
- 20MM

Border sizes denote project status

- In Development
- Operational

2024-2034 CCS Projects in UK and EU Scenarios

Scenario	Total CO ₂ Storage (2024–2034, <i>Mt</i>)	Investment (10 Years) <i>£ Billion</i>
Planned Projects Only	346	£24-£30
“Worst-Case”	450–550	£32–53
Low-Range	750–800	£55–65
Mid-Range	800–950	£75-£100
High-Range	950–1,050	£103-£125

SCCS (2024) and other sources – Scenarios ranges based on key uncertainties related to cost, CO₂ price, capacity, deliverability etc

CO₂ Transport Processes

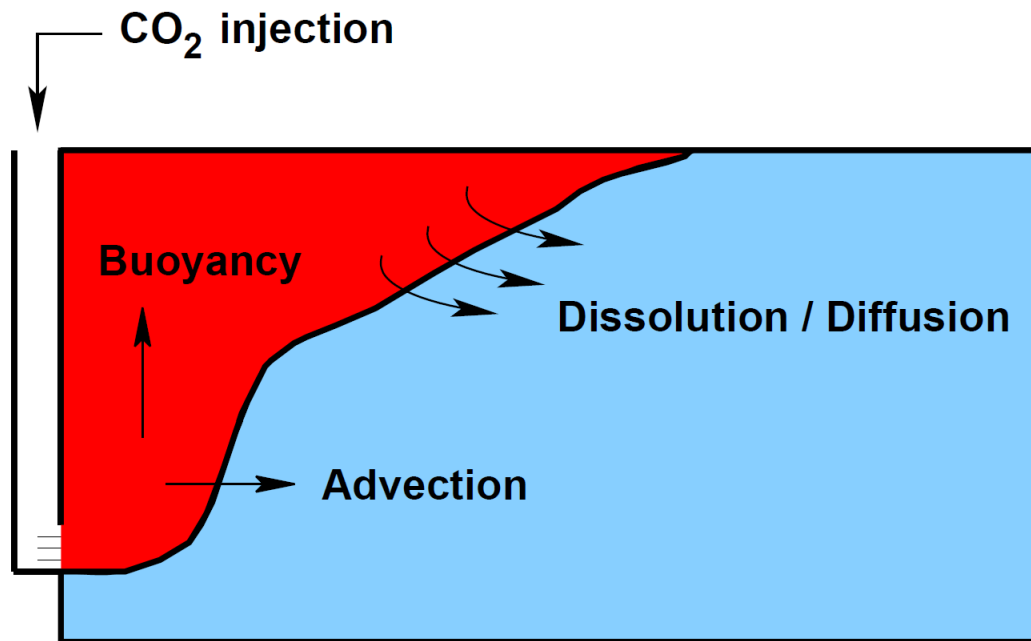


Figure 3.14: Relevant transport processes of CO₂.

Advection & Buoyancy

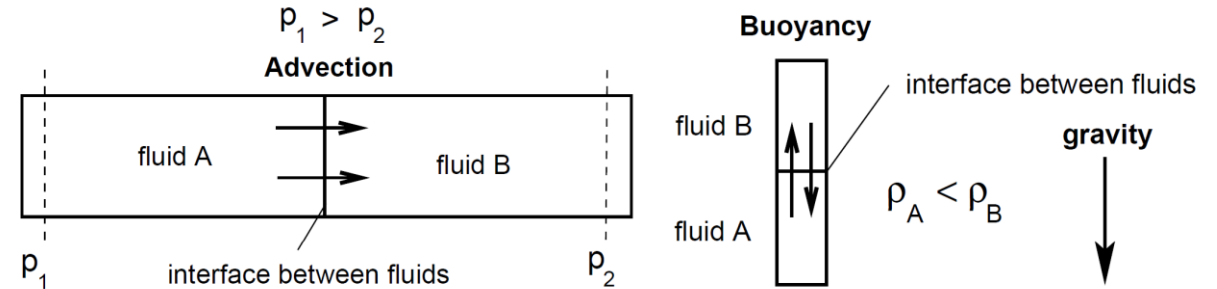
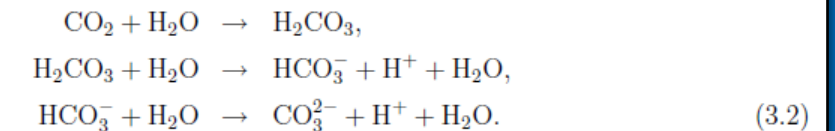


Figure 2.8: Advection and buoyancy in multi-phase flow. Advection is caused by pressure gradients. In this example, fluids A and B are displaced from left to right. Density differences cause buoyancy flow. Here, fluid A flows upwards, because it has a lower density than fluid B.

Dissolution

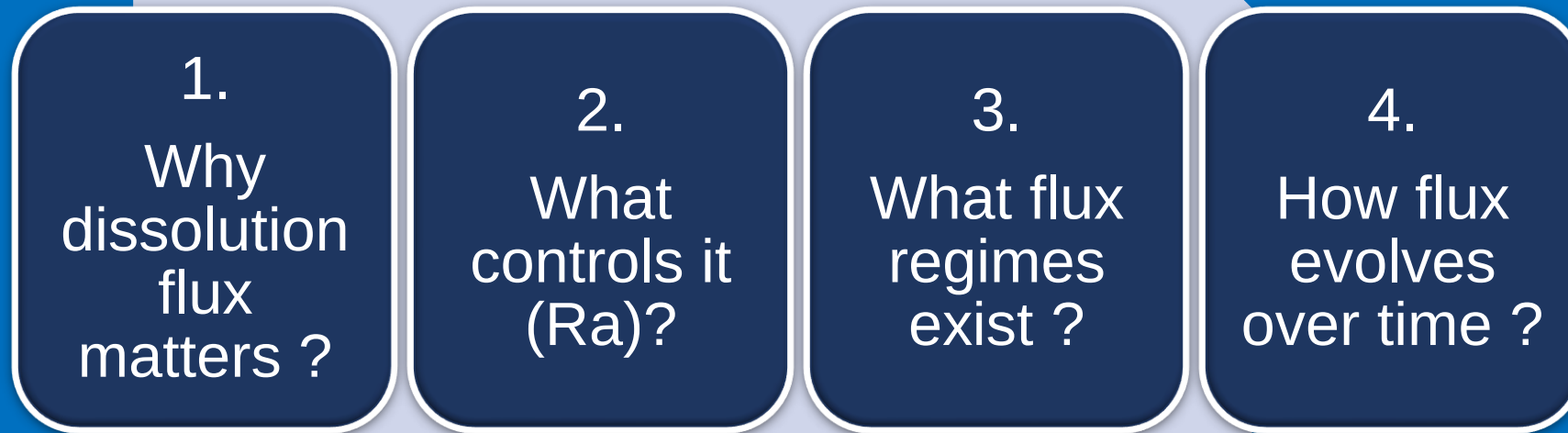
Dissolution of CO₂ in water: CO₂ dissolves in water, forming carbonic acid (H₂CO₃), hydrogen carbonate (HCO₃⁻), and carbonate (CO₃²⁻) in accordance with the reaction equation



Diffusion

Diffusion is the equilibration of differences in density or velocity of molecules due to Brownian molecular movement (e.g. MESCHÉDE (2004) [73]). Thus, diffusive fluxes are driven by concentration gradients or temperature gradients. In contrast to advection and buoyancy, diffusion is independent of orientation, i.e. it behaves the same in all spatial directions. A

CO₂ Dissolution Flux



Analytical
Modelling

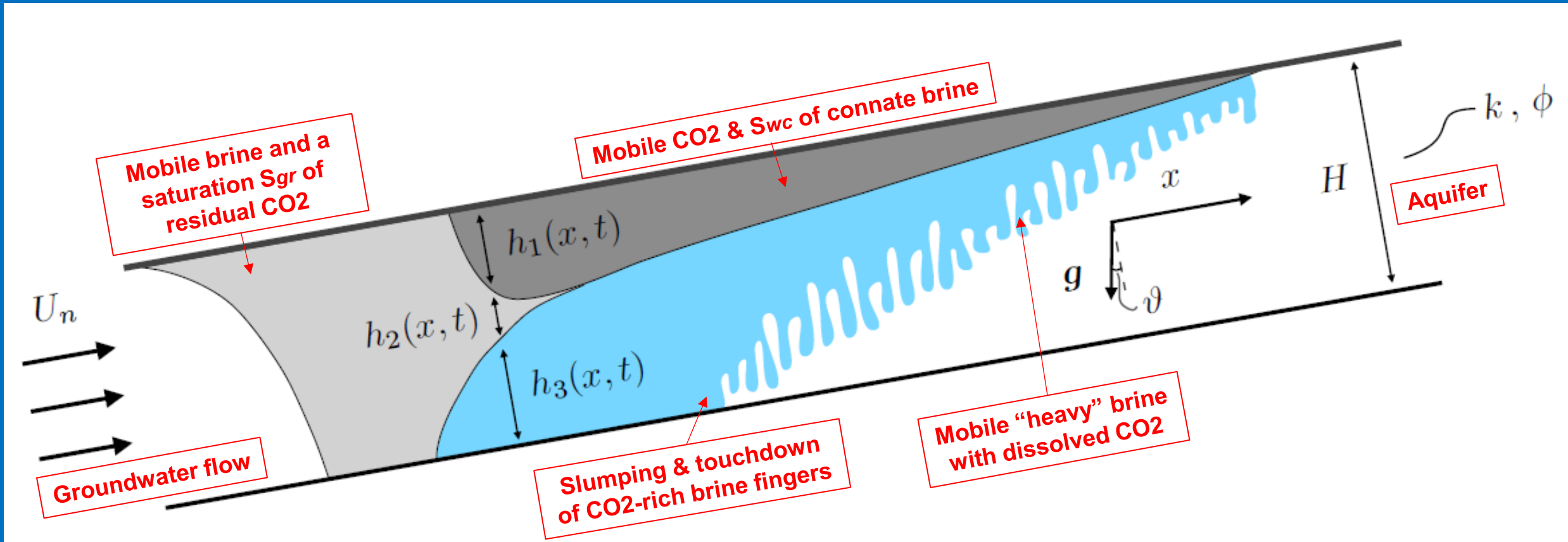
Reservoir
Simulation

CCS/GCS
Design

Sleipner

- Total injected CO₂ (as of ~2024): ~21–22 Mt
- Dissolved mass (13% first ~13 years injection): ≈ 1.8 Mt CO₂

Post-Injection Migration Processes



Fundamentals of CO₂ Dissolution in the Subsurface

Convective Mixing:

Dense, CO₂-rich brine sinks, initiating convection that enhances mass transfer.

Formation of carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) as CO₂ dissolves in brine.

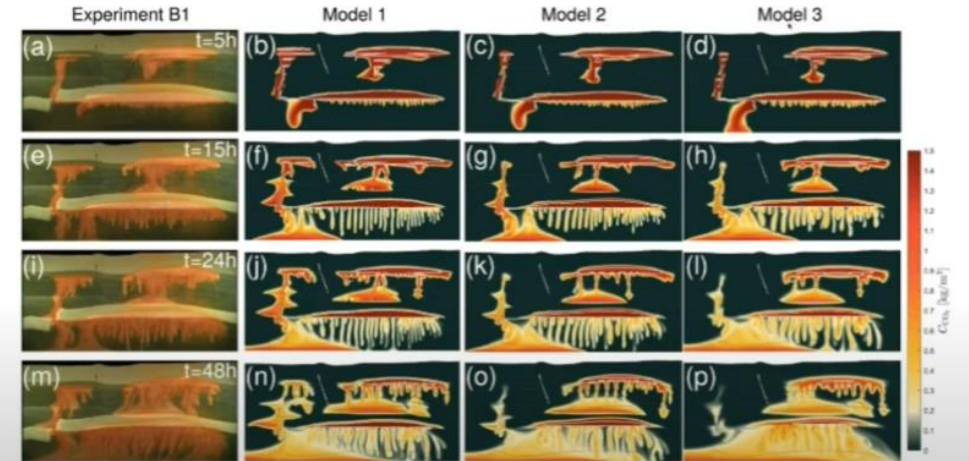
- Density increase due to dissolved CO₂ is slight (0.1-1%) but sufficient to drive convection.
- CO₂-saturated brine is denser → sinks under gravity
- Promotes convective fingering and slumping
- Enhances dissolution by renewing contact with fresh brine

Result:

- Plume becomes increasingly stabilized, improving storage security.
- Dissolution reduces the buoyancy of CO₂, minimizing leakage risk.
- Combined effect significantly reduces mobile CO₂ and leakage risk over time.
- Dissolution trapping reduces mobile-phase CO₂, enhancing seal integrity

Analog for a longer injection in a different geologic setting (Experiment B1)

- Qualitatively, all models approximate CO₂ migration well, except at the top left of the domain



Saló-Salgado et al., TIPM (2023)

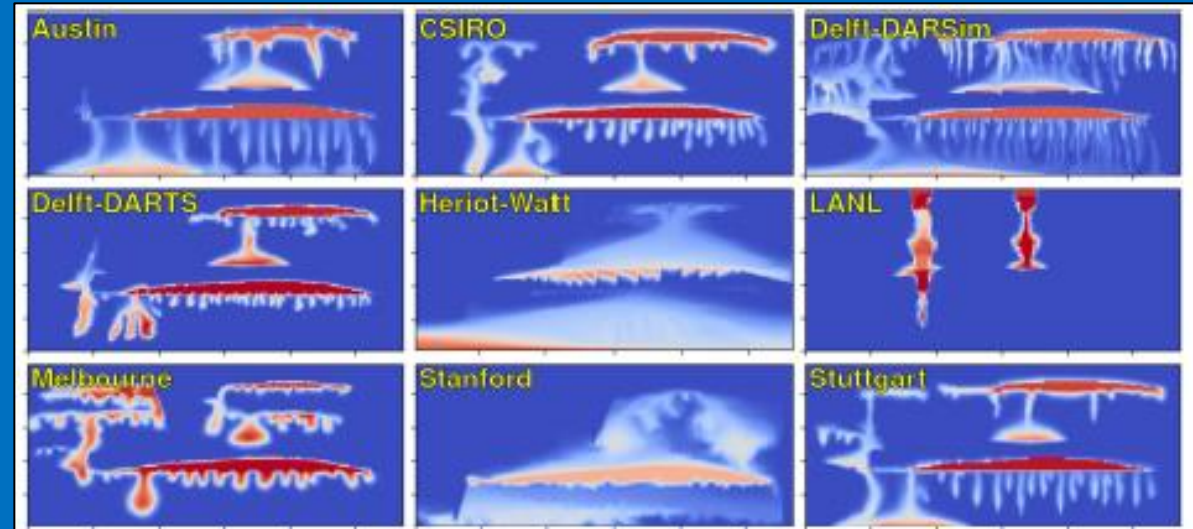


Fig. 7 Spatial distribution of CO₂ concentration in the liquid phase after 24 h. The minimum for the color map is at 0 kgm⁻³ indicated by blue, the maximum at 1.8 kgm⁻³ indicated by red

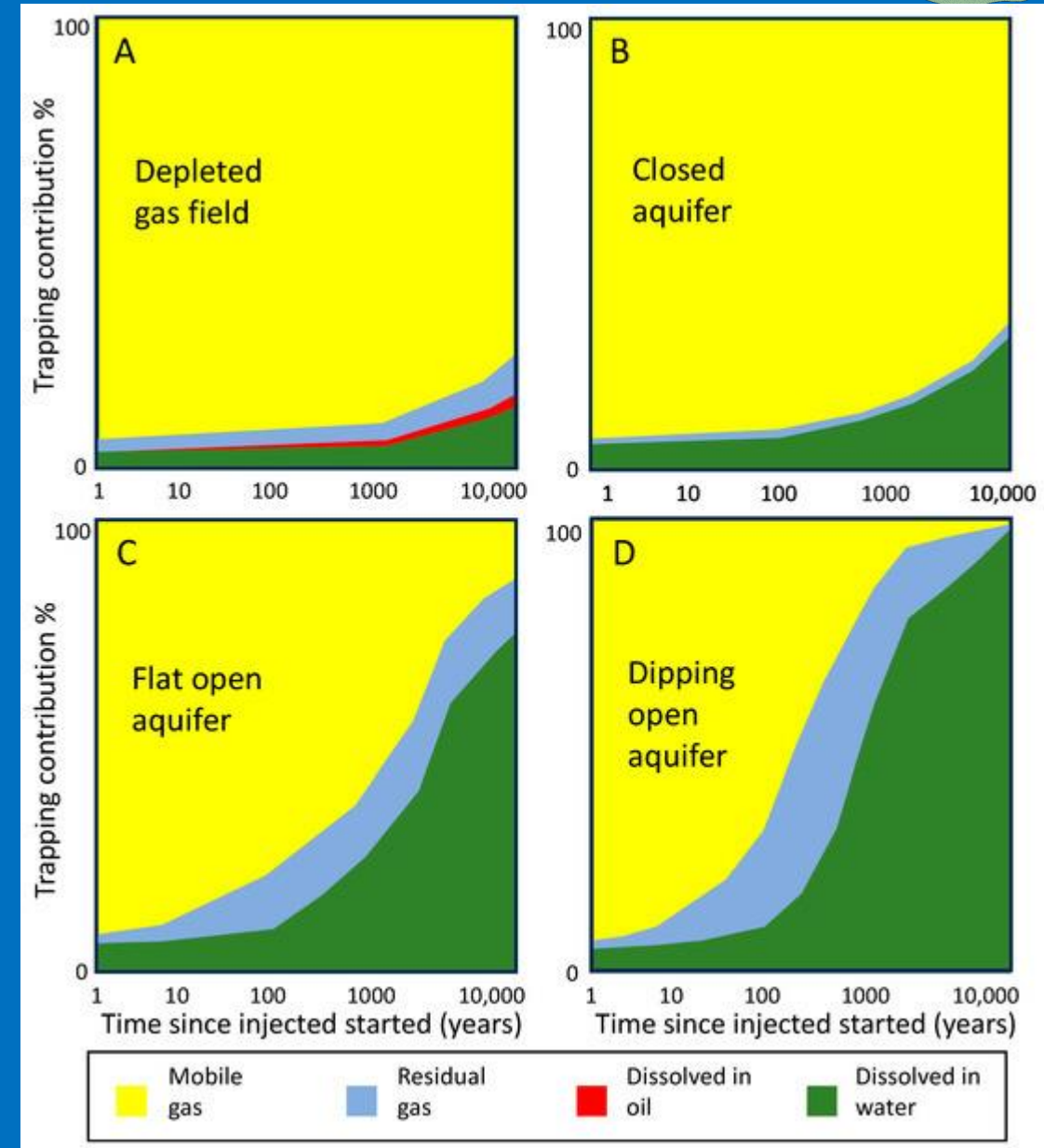
Dissolution Trapping

Introduction

Carbon capture and storage (CCS) relies on several trapping mechanisms. Among them, **dissolution trapping** plays a crucial long-term role by reducing buoyancy and immobilizing CO₂ in formation brine.

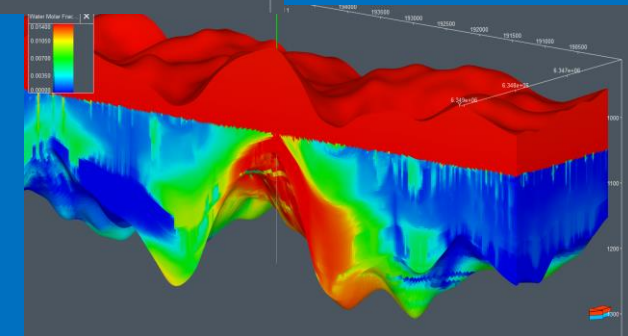
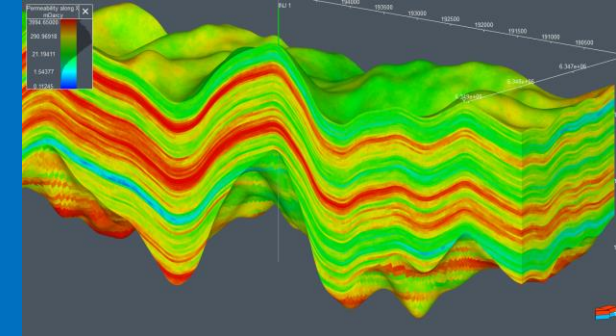
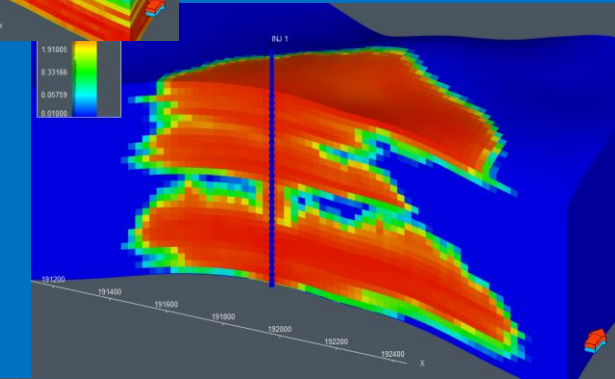
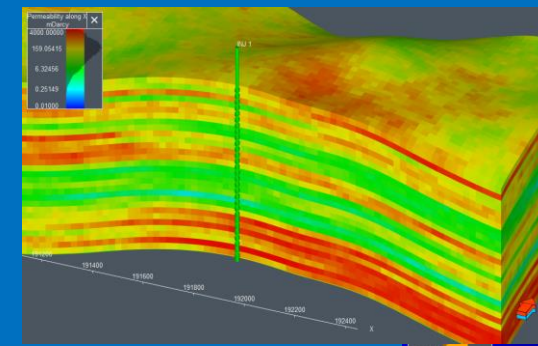
However:

- It is often underrepresented in simulations
- It plays out over **long timescales**
- It is influenced by complex geological and thermophysical factors
- This presentation focuses on **how and why dissolution occurs, what controls it**, and how to design better CCS projects to leverage it.



Controls on CO₂ Dissolution

Parameter	Effect on Dissolution
Permeability	Promotes fingering and convective mixing Higher k promotes convection onset
Porosity	Governs brine volume available to dissolve CO ₂
Brine Salinity	Reduces solubility and $\Delta\rho$ (density contrast)
Interface Area	Larger interface = higher dissolution flux
Heterogeneity	Alters plume paths; may suppress or focus mixing
Temperature/Pressure	High P = $\uparrow$ solubility; high T = $\downarrow$ solubility
Wettability	Affects CO ₂ trapping and brine distribution Water-wet rocks promote brine dominance and dissolution contact efficiency



- Properties
- Mass Density of W
- Mass Density of Oi
- Mass Density of Ga
- Molar Density of W
- Molar Density of O
- Molar Density of G
- Rel. Perm. of Water
- Rel. Perm. of Oil
- Rel. Perm. of Gas
- App. Press. of Oil-V
- App. Press. of Gas
- Core Volume at Re
- critical temperat
- critical temperat
- Component 'WATE
- Molar Density
- Water Molar Fr
- Gas Molar Frac
- Component 'CO2'
- Molar Density
- K-values V/L
- K-values W/L
- Solubility in W
- Water Molar Fr
- Oil Molar Fract
- Gas Molar Frac
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☐ Well Names

☐ Well Status

☐ Show All Wells

☐ Draw Trajectories

☐ Fractures

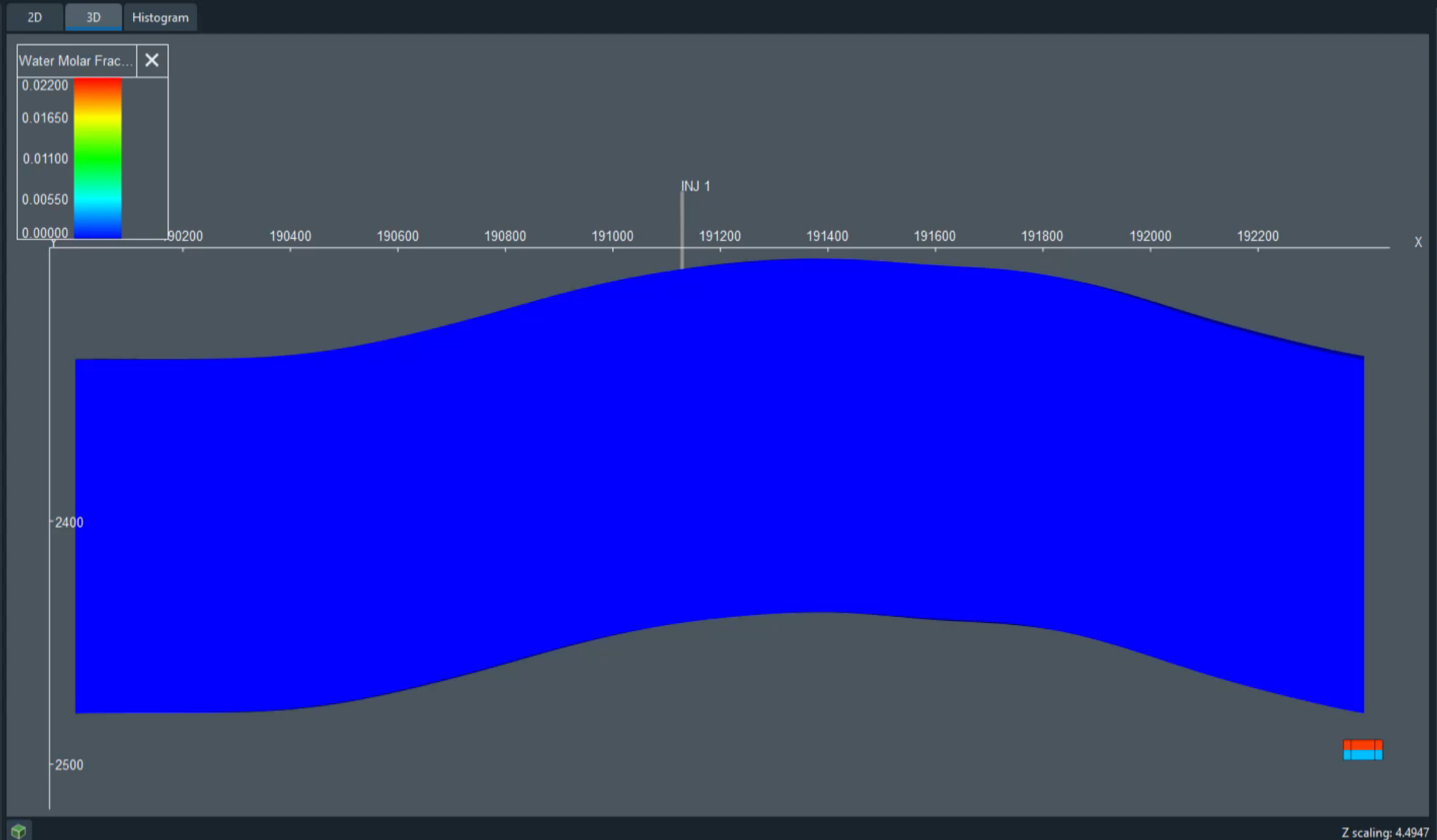
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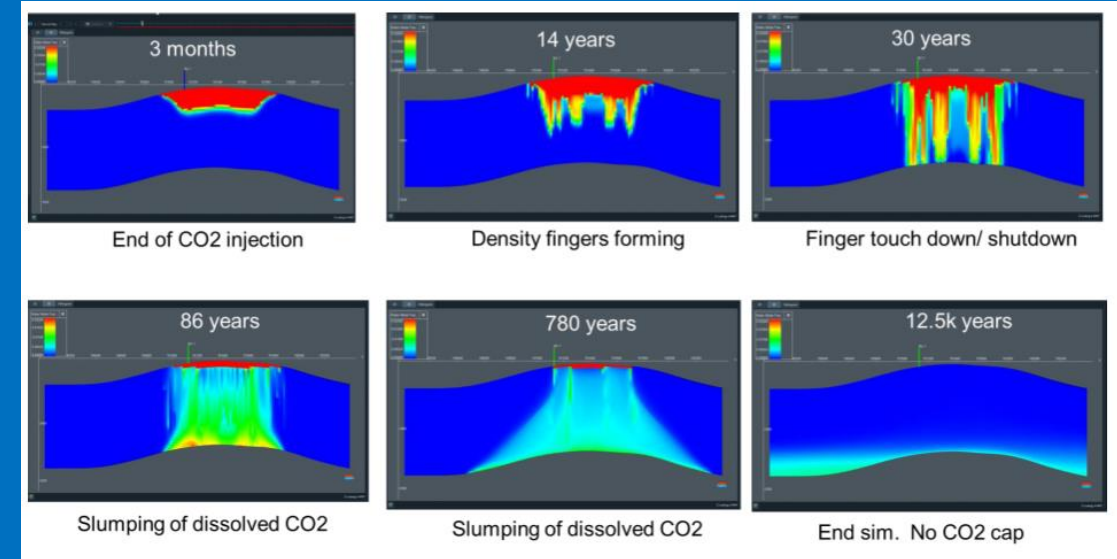
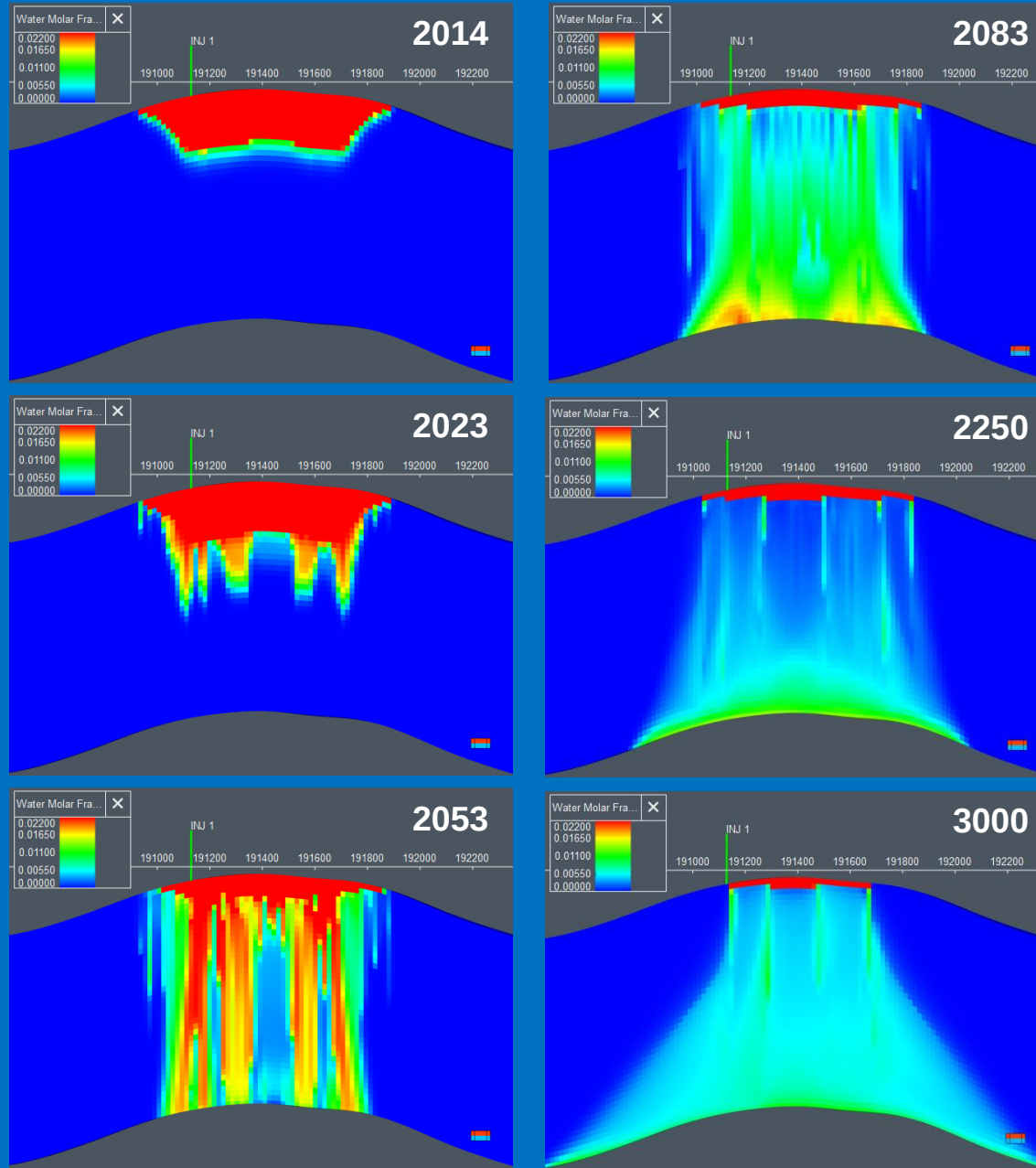
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Cross-Section 1

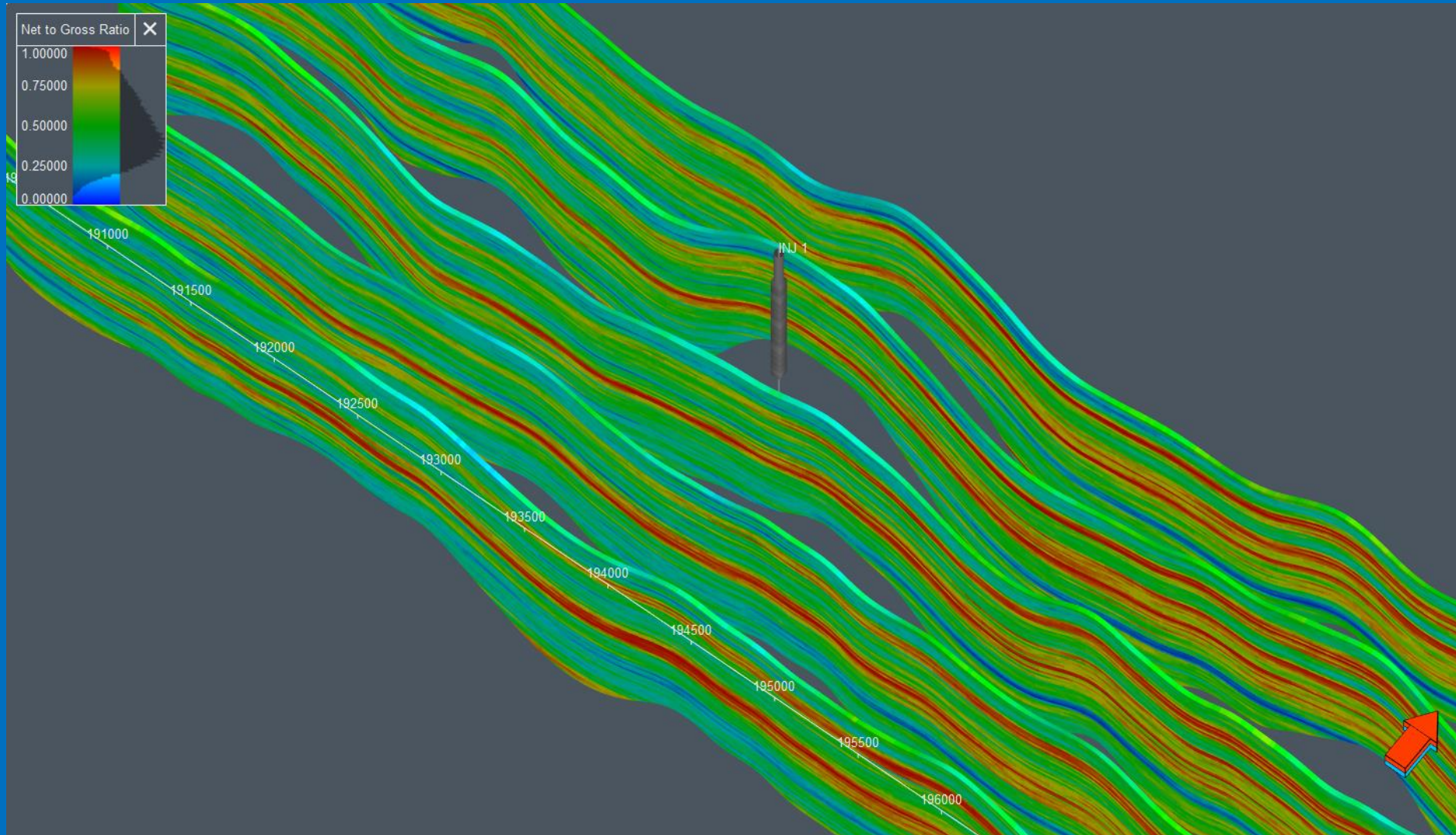


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Test Model – CO₂ Water Molar Fraction



Model SCA3



Properties

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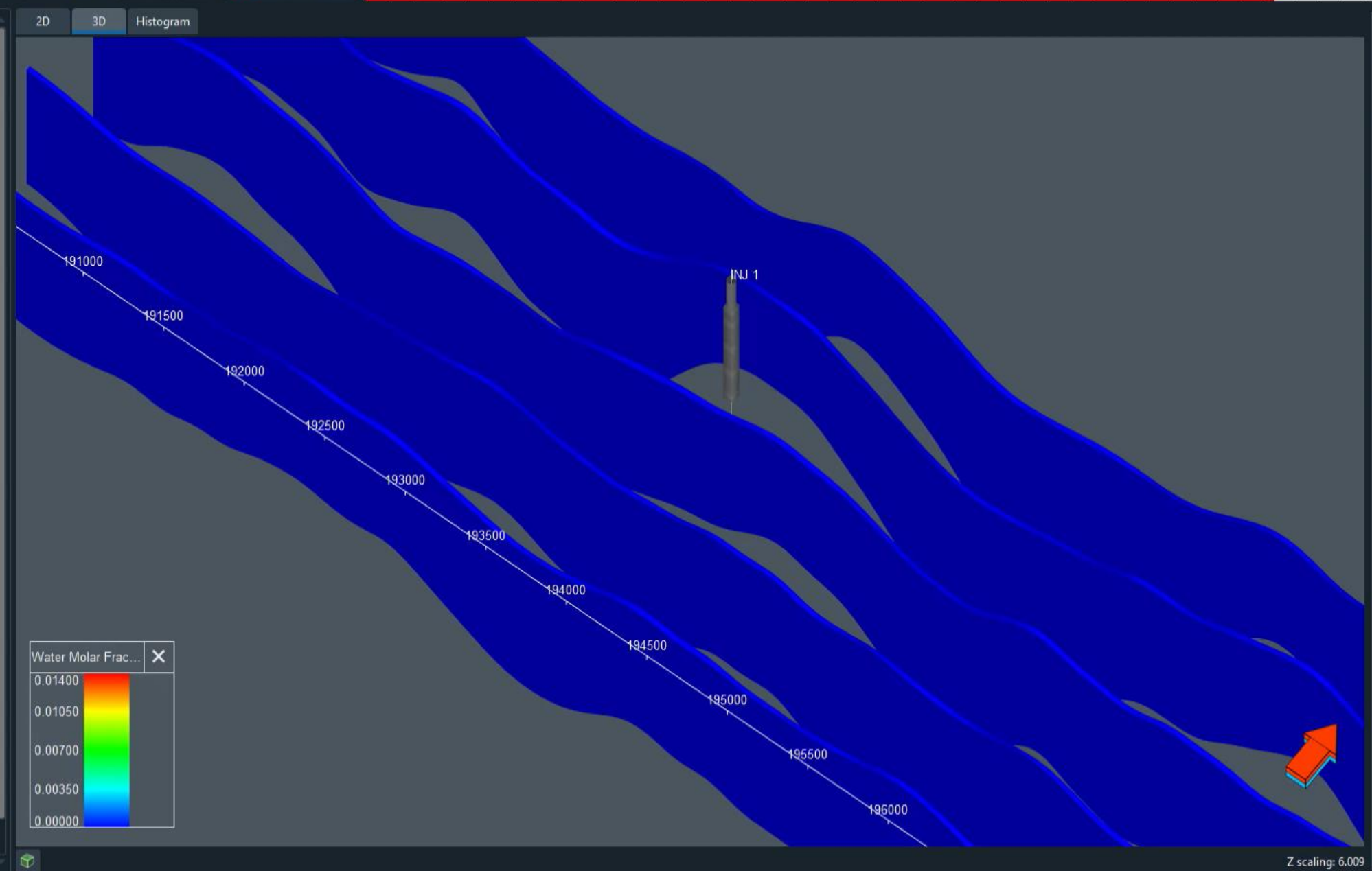
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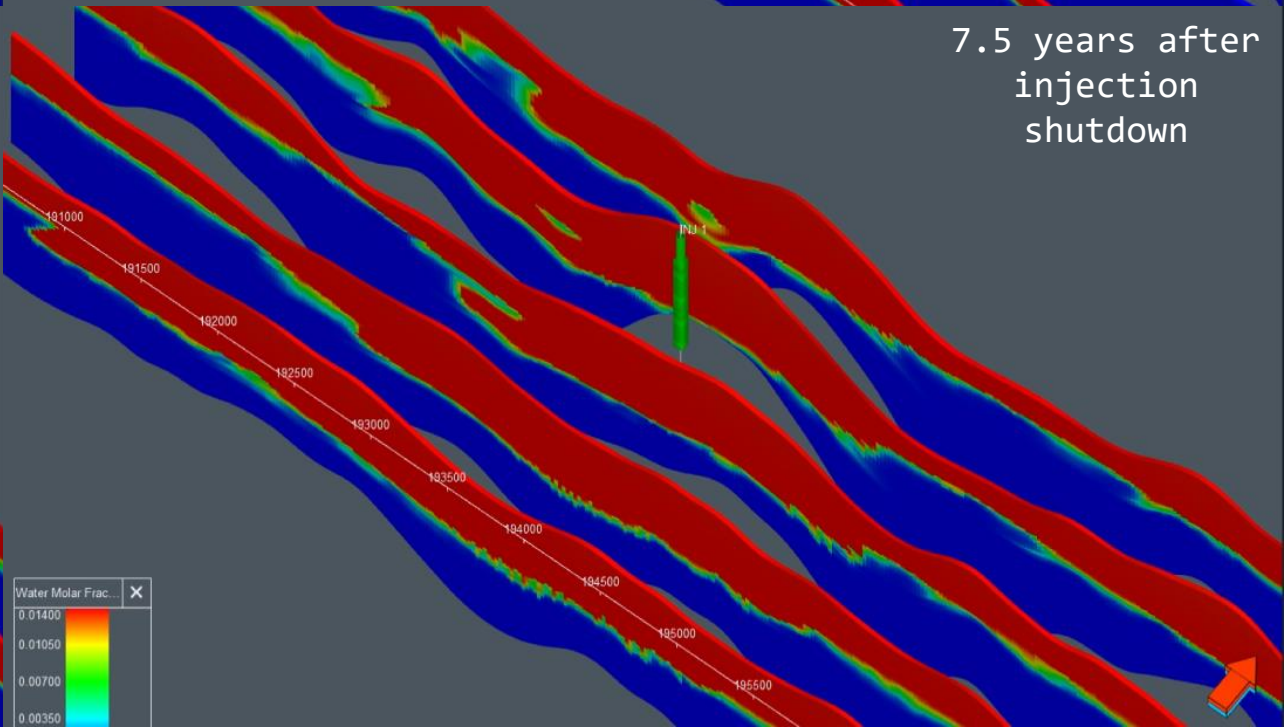
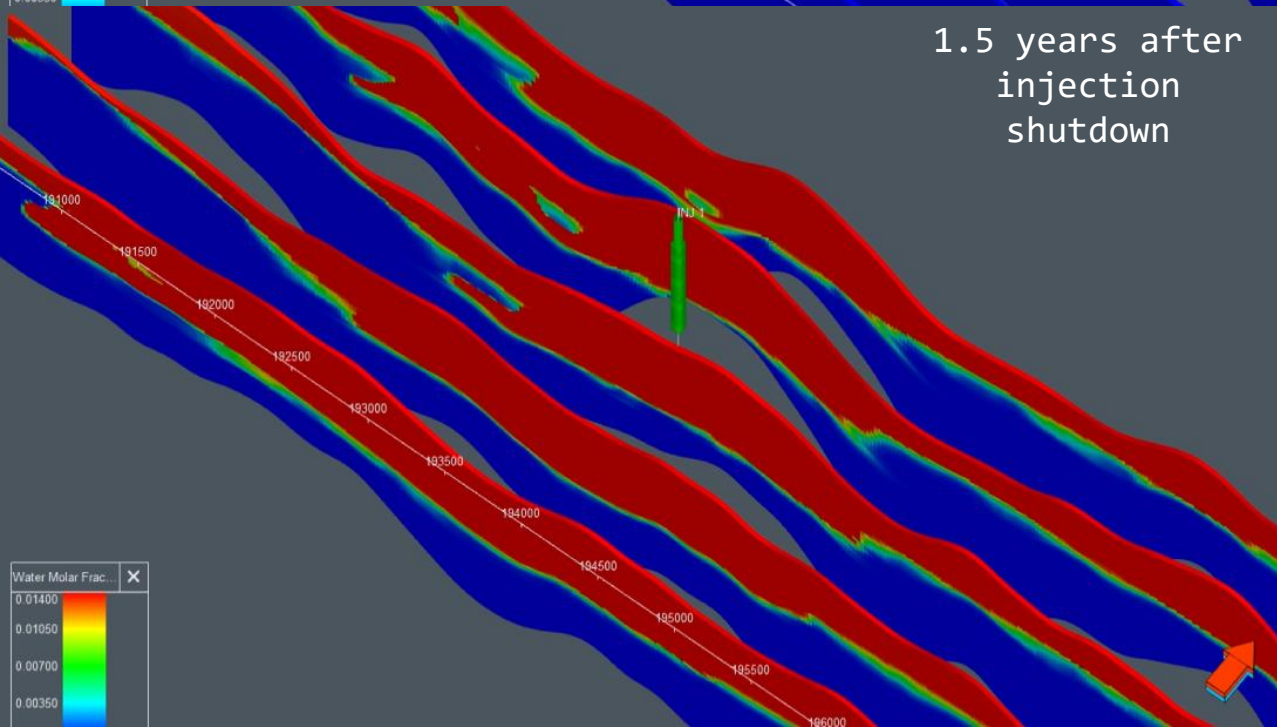
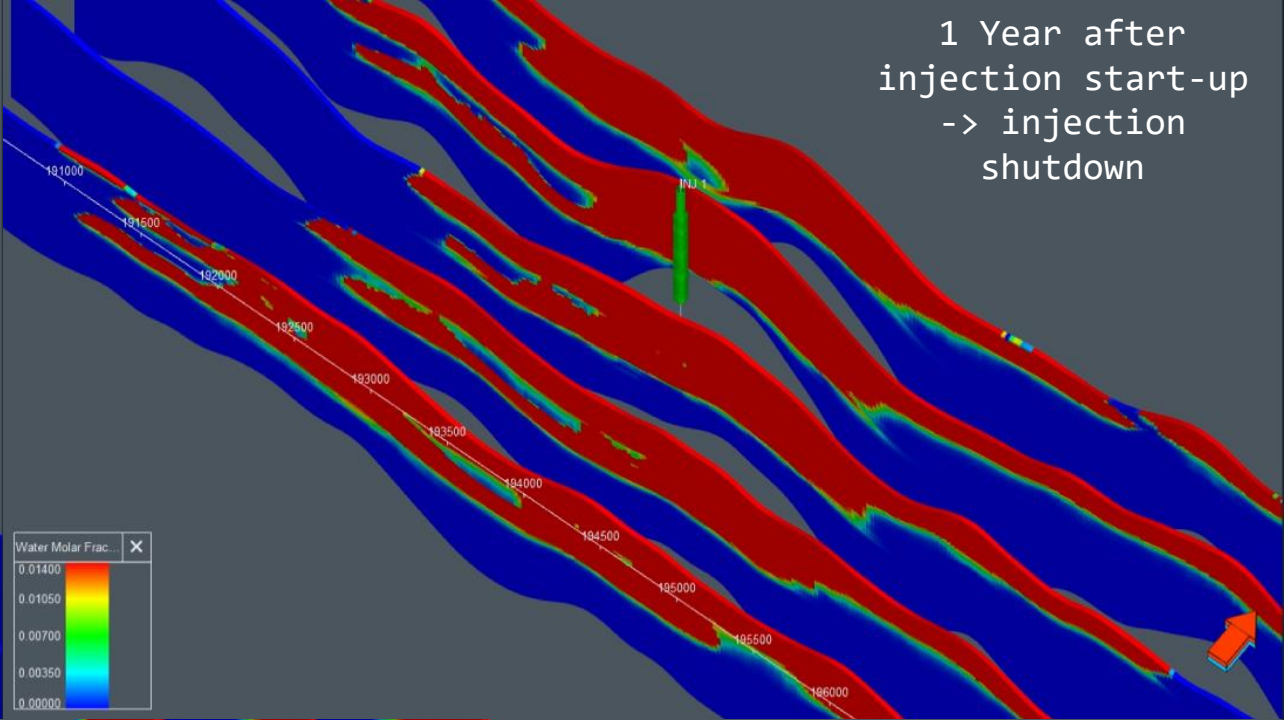
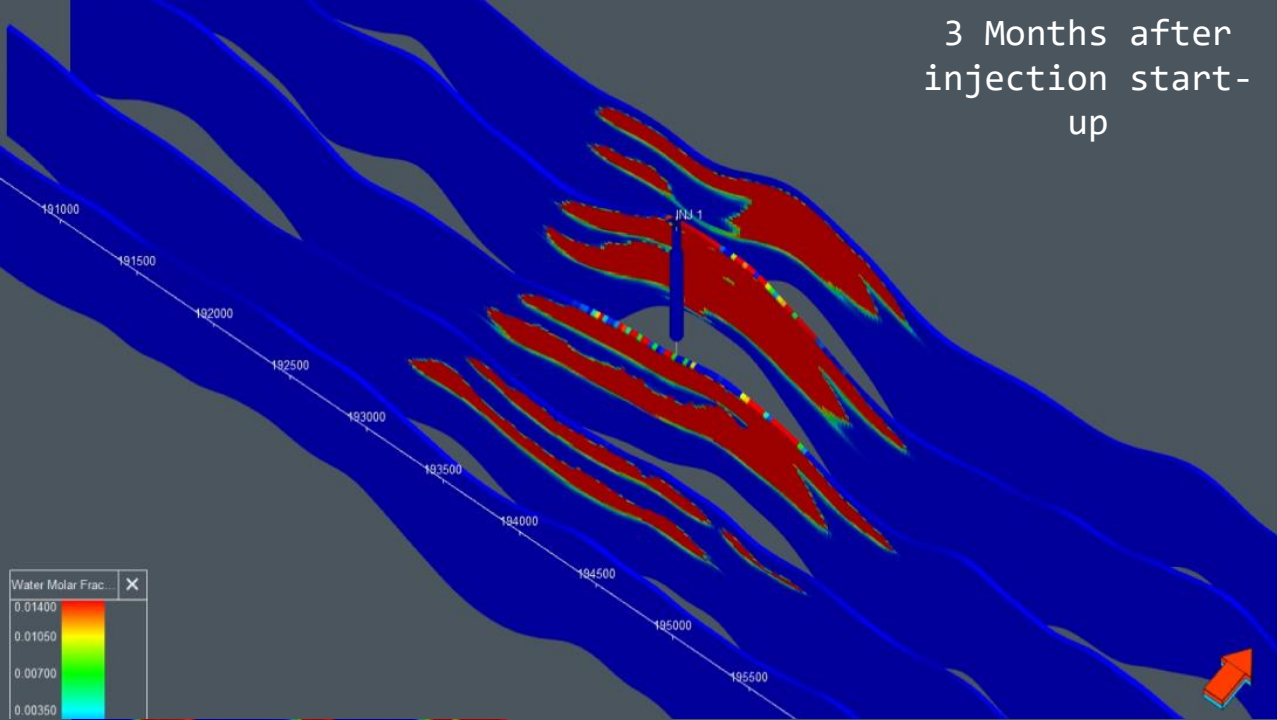
Cross-Section 1

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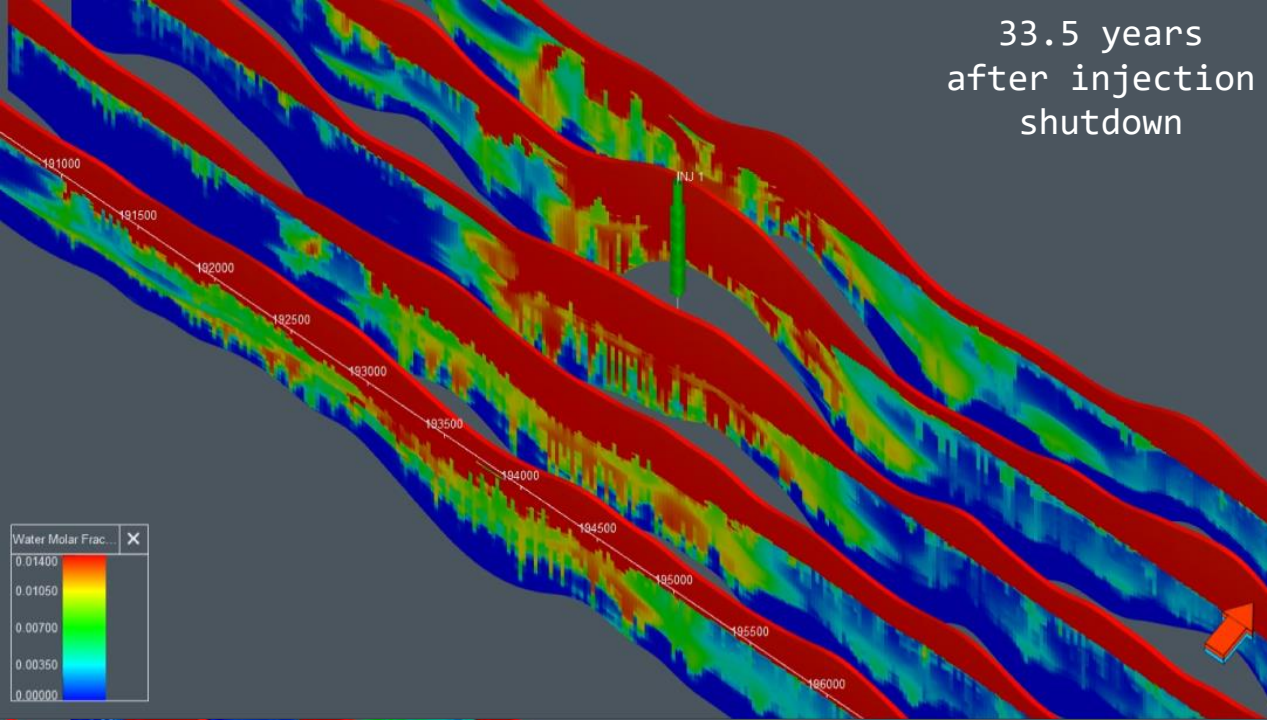
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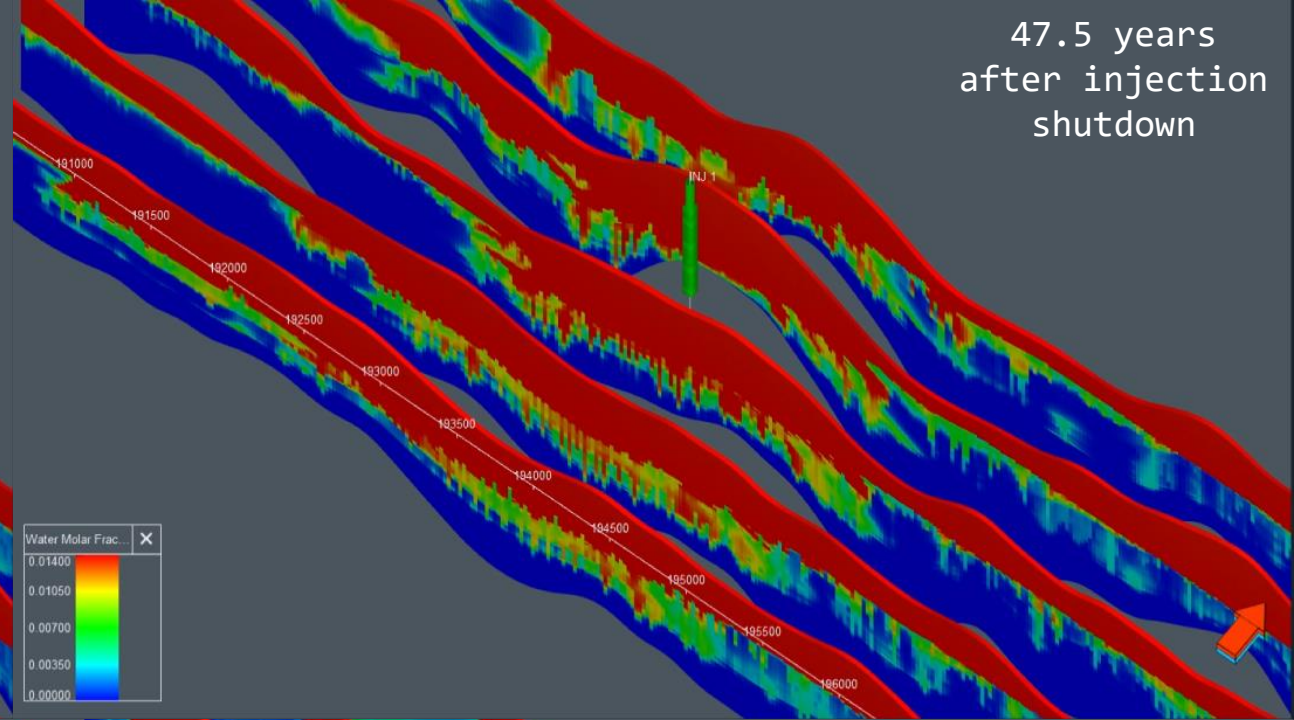




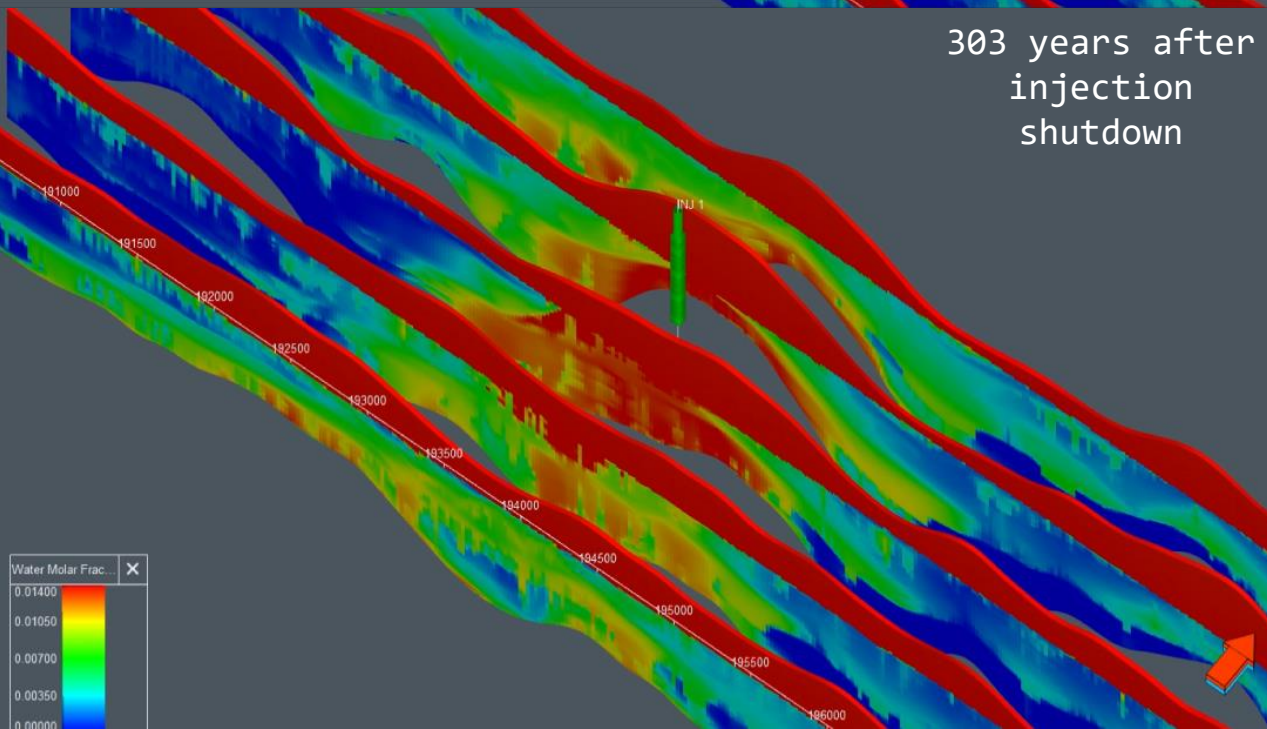
33.5 years
after injection
shutdown



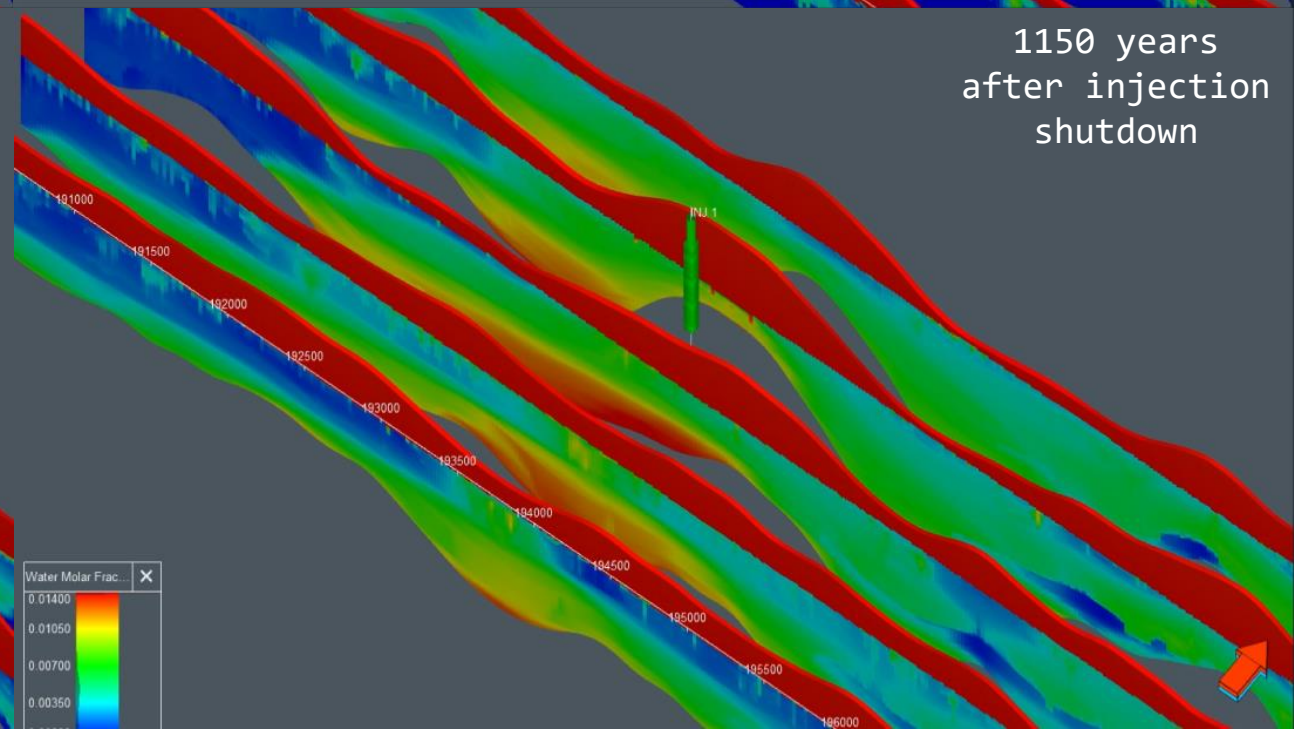
47.5 years
after injection
shutdown



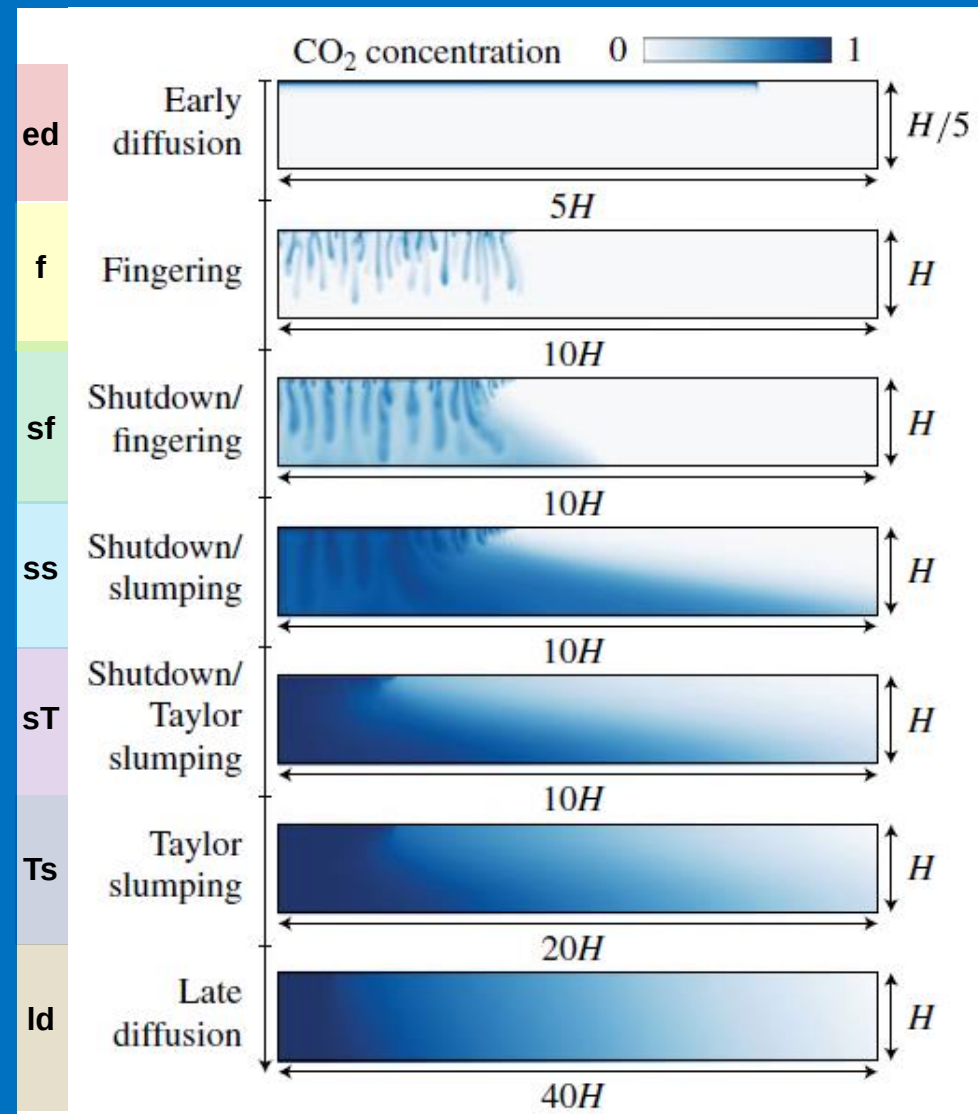
303 years
after injection
shutdown



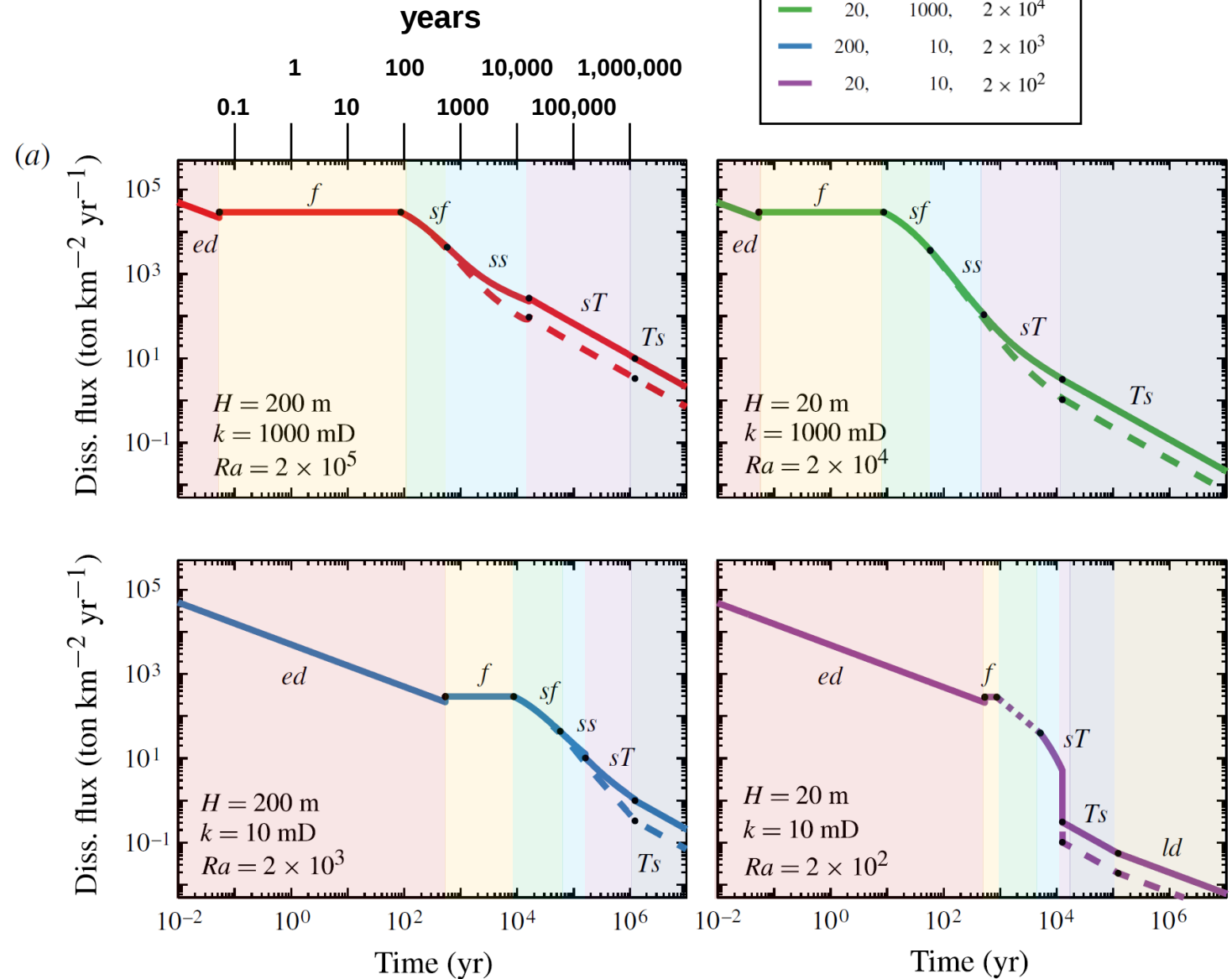
1150 years
after injection
shutdown



Flux Regimes



Szulczewski et al. 2013



Rayleigh Number (Ra) & Dissolution Flux Regimes

- **Key variable for convection onset**
- **Geology:** Reservoir heterogeneity causes local Ra variability

$$V = \frac{\Delta\rho \cdot g \cdot k}{\mu \cdot \phi} \quad Ra = \frac{V \cdot H}{D} = \frac{\Delta\rho \cdot g \cdot k \cdot H}{\mu \cdot \phi \cdot D}$$

Where:

- $\Delta\rho$ = density contrast (CO₂-rich vs fresh brine)
- k = permeability
- H = interface thickness
- μ, D, ϕ = viscosity, diffusivity, porosity

Regime	Dominant Process	Ra Range
Early Diffusion	Molecular diffusion only	$Ra < 100$
Transition	Onset of unstable fingers	$100 < Ra < 2000$
Fingering	Fully developed convection	$Ra > 2000$
Shutdown/Taylor Slumping	Saturation-controlled	—

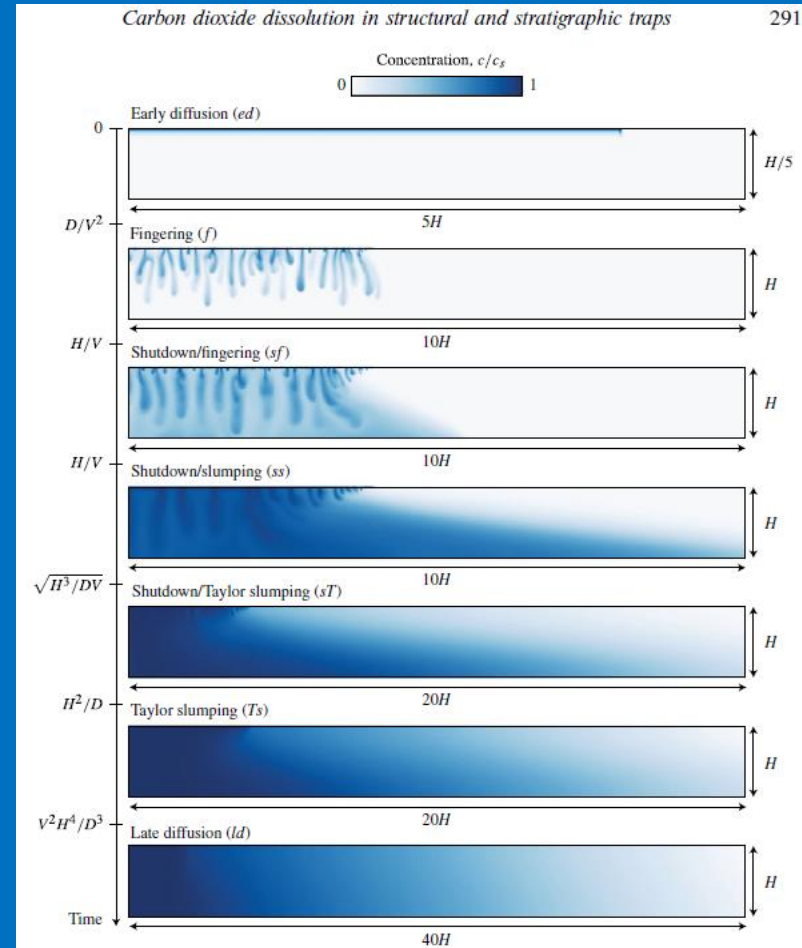


FIGURE 2. (Colour online) Dissolution evolves through the seven regimes shown here ($Ra = 3000$). The colour scale represents the concentration of CO₂, c , normalized to the saturated concentration, c_s . The scalings of the transition times between the regimes are shown in terms of the layer thickness, H , the effective diffusion coefficient, D , and the characteristic velocity, $V = \Delta\rho g k / \mu \phi$ (see § 2). When $Ra = VH/D$ is sufficiently small, the first and final transition times become equal, the duration of the intermediate regimes becomes zero, and the system transitions directly to the late diffusion regime.

Szulczewski et al. 2013

H : layer thickness

D : effective diffusion coefficient

V = characteristic pore velocity $\Delta\rho g k / \mu \phi$

$Ra = VH/D$

c : CO₂ concentration

c_s : saturation concentration

k : permeability

μ : dynamic viscosity

ϕ : porosity

p : pressure

g : gravitational acceleration

ρ : density

$\Delta\rho$: difference between freshwater and CO₂-saturated water

take the following as constants:

D, k, μ, ϕ

Flux Regime Durations & Rates

Regime	Typical Duration	Flux Formula (kg/m ² /s)	Description / Trigger
Early Diffusion (ed)	$0 - t_f \approx D/V^2$	$f(t) = c_s \sqrt{\frac{D}{\pi t}}$	Diffusion from a fixed CO ₂ -brine interface; no convection yet
Fingering (f)	t_f to $t_{sf} \approx 15H/V$	$f = 0.017 \cdot c_s \cdot V$	Onset of convection (Ra > 2000); steady fingering flux
Shutdown / Slumping (sf)	t_{sf} to $t_{sT} \sim (H^3/VD)^{1/2}$	$f(t) \approx c_s V \left(\frac{H}{Vt}\right)^{1/2}$	Interface becomes saturated; mixing slows
Taylor Slumping (sT)	t_{sT} to $t_{ld} \sim H^2/D$	$f(t) \sim \frac{c_s H}{W} \left(\frac{H^4 V^2}{Dt^3}\right)^{1/4}$	Edge-driven convective mixing
Late Diffusion (ld)	$> H^2/D$	$f(t) \sim t^{-1/2}$	Final decline; no fresh brine available to convect

How to Calculate Regime Transition Times

Onset of Fingering (end of early diffusion):

$$t_f = \frac{D}{V^2}$$

Start of Shutdown / Slumping:

$$t_{sf} = \frac{15 \cdot H}{V}$$

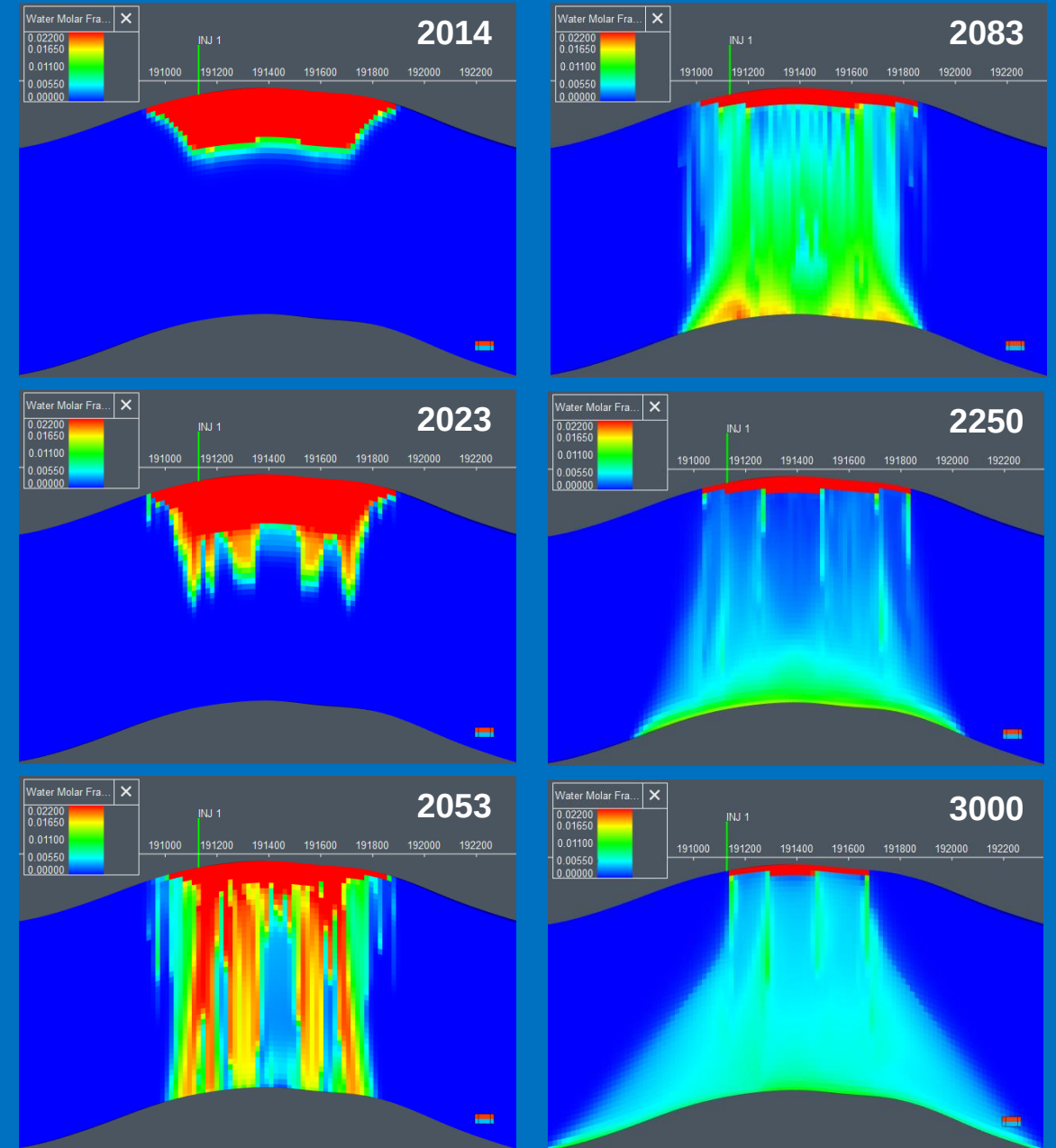
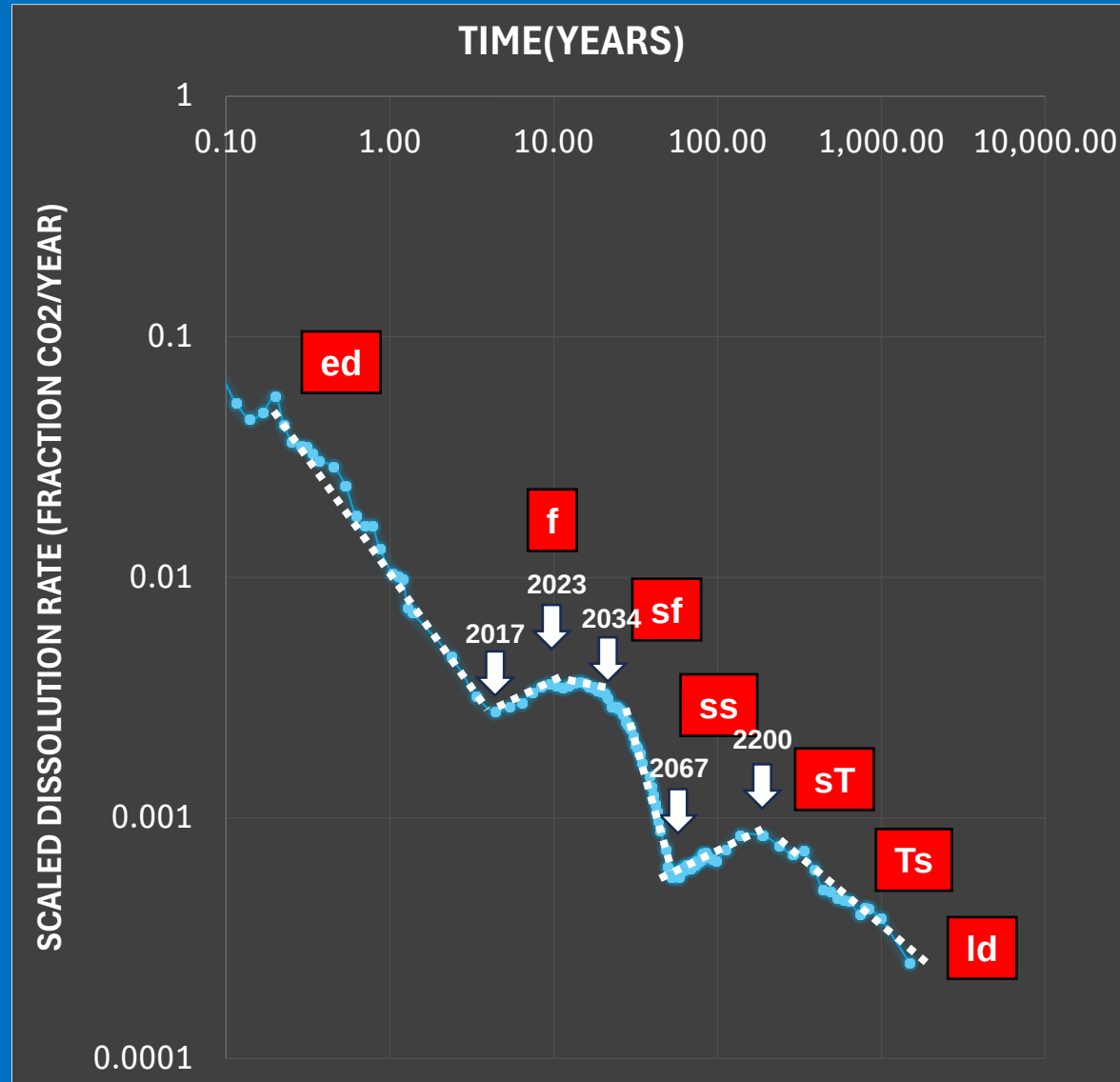
Taylor Slumping Onset:

$$t_{sT} = \left(\frac{H^3}{V \cdot D}\right)^{1/2}$$

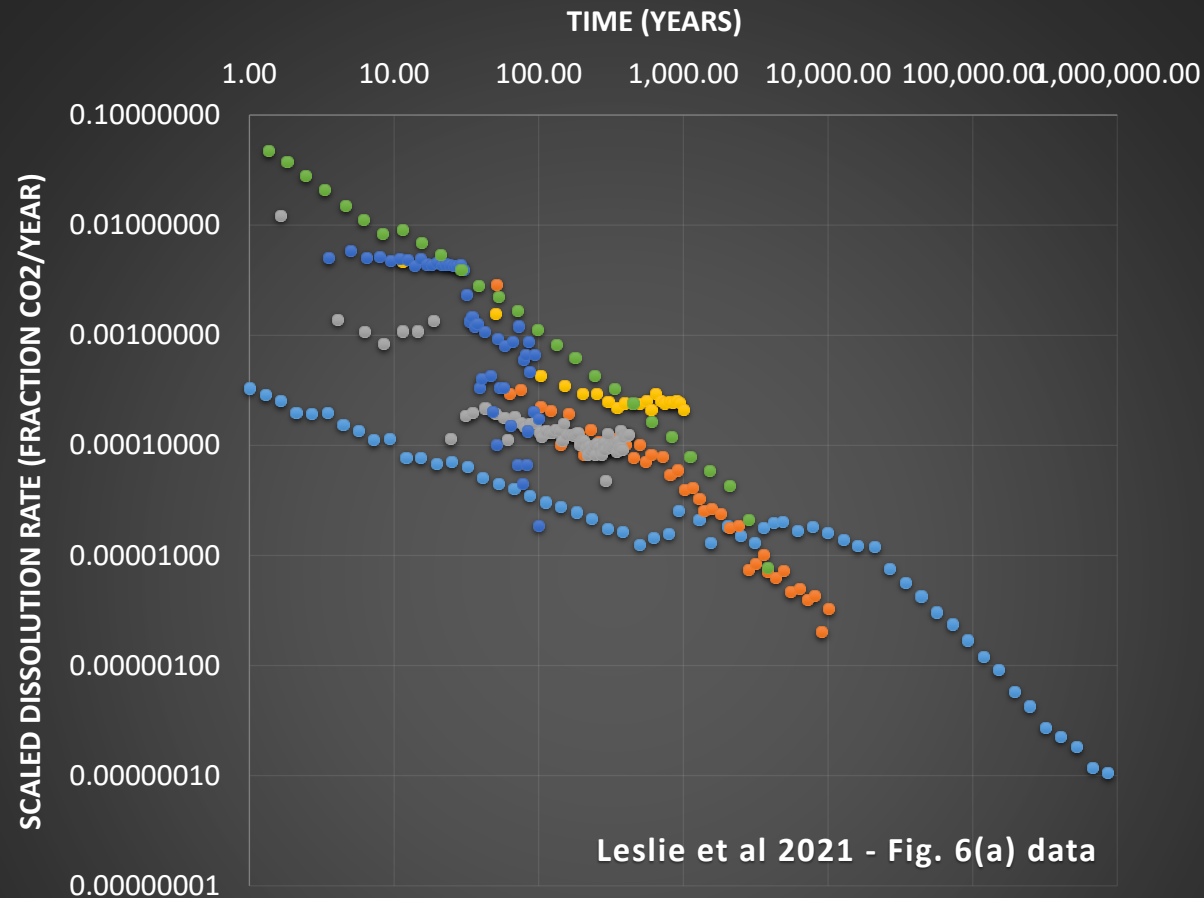
Late Diffusion Onset:

$$t_{ld} = \frac{H^2}{D}$$

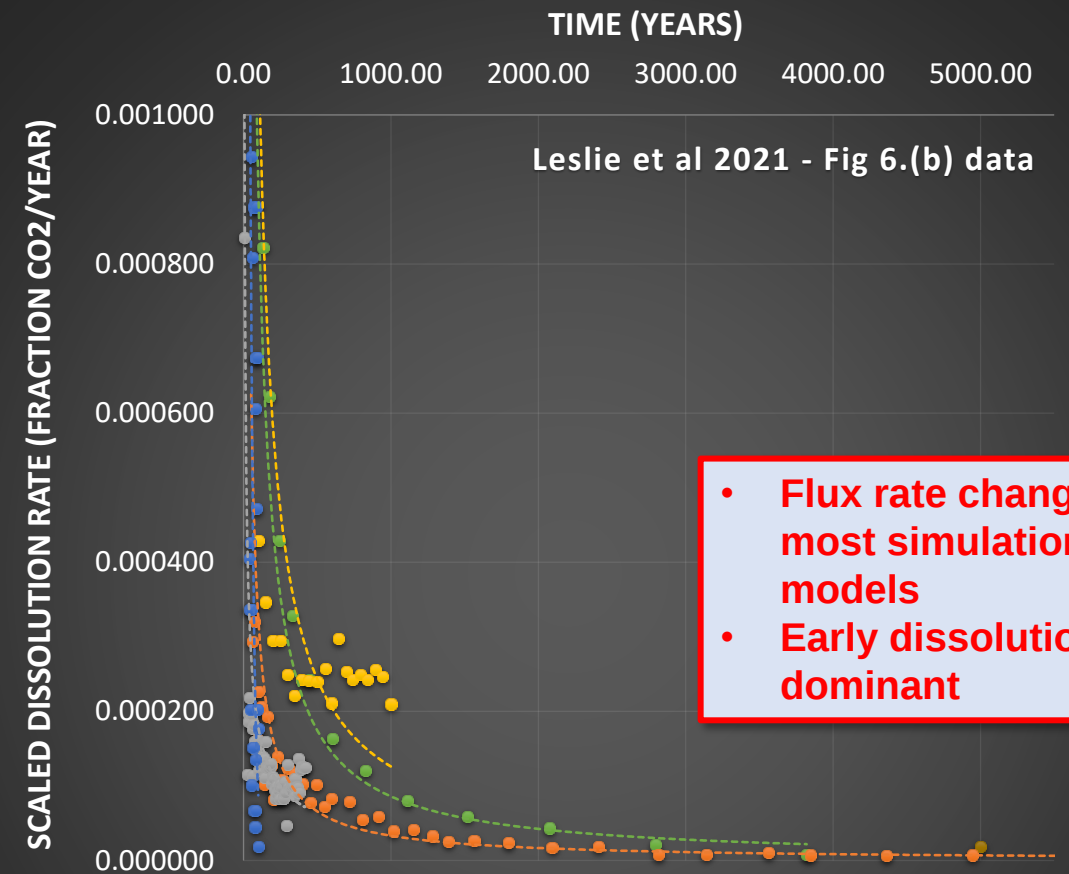
Test Model



CO₂ Flux Quantification

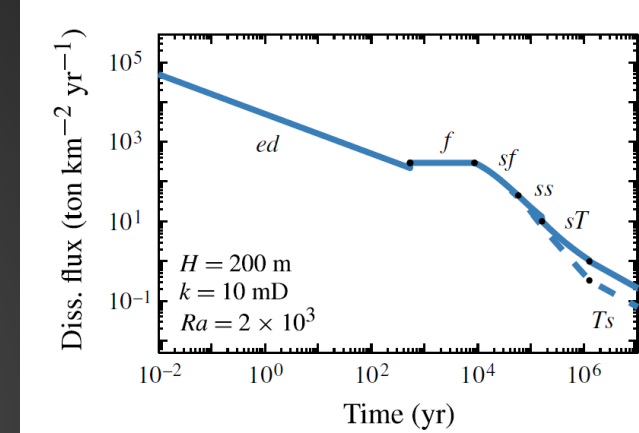
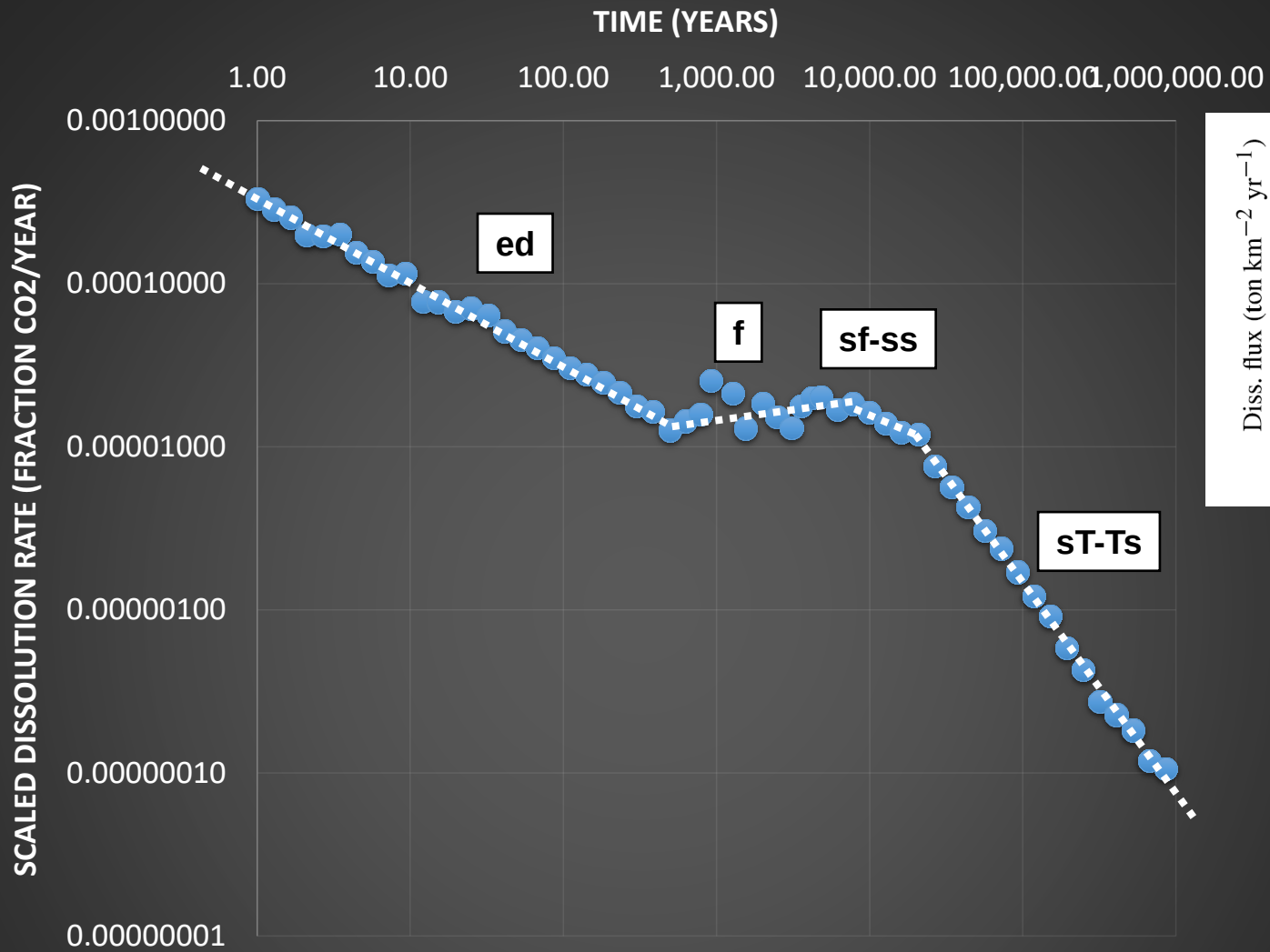


- Szulczewski et al 2013 time series
- Ozah et al 2005 time series
- Pruess & Nordbotten time series
- Sato et al 2011 time series
- Bonneville et al 2013 time series
- Kempka et al 2014 time series



- Flux rate changes in most simulation models
- Early dissolution dominant

- Kempka et al 2014 time series
- Sathaye et al 2014 first 5Ka
- Ozah et al 2005 time series
- Pruess & Nordbotten time series
- Sato et al 2011 time series
- Bonneville et al 2013 time series
- Power (Kempka et al 2014 time series)
- Power (Ozah et al 2005 time series)
- Power (Pruess & Nordbotten time series)
- Power (Sato et al 2011 time series)
- Expon. (Bonneville et al 2013 time series)



- Szulczewski et al 2013 time series

Summary of Key Variables Affecting CO₂ Dissolution Flux

Variable	Influence on Dissolution Flux	Direct or Indirect Effect?	Notes
CO₂ Solubility (c_s)	Increases flux linearly: $f \propto c_s$ $\uparrow P (\uparrow c_s)$; $\uparrow T$ & $\uparrow$ Salinity ($\downarrow c_s$)	✓ Direct	Determines max CO ₂ that can dissolve into brine
Density Contrast ($\Delta\rho$)	Increases buoyancy velocity V , hence flux: $f \propto \Delta\rho$	✓ Direct	Drives convective fingering; depends on c_s
Permeability (k)	Increases velocity $V \propto k$, hence flux	✓ Direct	Higher k = faster convection
Viscosity (μ)	Higher viscosity decreases V , hence reduces flux	✓ Direct (inverse)	Viscosity increases with salinity and temperature
Porosity (ϕ)	Higher porosity reduces V , hence reduces flux	✓ Direct (inverse)	Appears in denominator of velocity term
Diffusivity (D)	Higher D delays fingering onset, reduces early-time Ra	⚠ Indirect	Affects regime transitions, not flux directly. $\uparrow T$ and $\uparrow P (\uparrow D)$; Sal $\downarrow \mu \downarrow (\uparrow D)$
Salinity (g/L)	Reduces c_s ($\downarrow$ solubility) but increases $\Delta\rho$	⚠ Both (nonlinear)	Flux first increases, then declines with salinity
Temperature / Pressure	Affects c_s , μ , and $\Delta\rho$	⚠ Indirect	Elevated T typically $\downarrow$ solubility; $\uparrow P$ increases it

Note: Interface Area and Reservoir Heterogeneity also key

Down-Dip Injection

Critical Role of Dissolution:

Dissolution is a key trapping mechanism for CO₂ in geological storage. It immobilizes the CO₂ by converting it into a denser, dissolved phase within the brine, significantly reducing the risk of upward migration and leakage.

Impact of Background Flow:

Background flow initially enhances dissolution by bringing fresh brine into contact with CO₂.

Strong flows can slow dissolution by transporting dissolved CO₂ away, reducing interaction at the CO₂-brine interface.

Plume Dynamics:

The CO₂ plume decelerates as dissolution and residual trapping reduce its mobility.

Over time, convective mixing dominates, leading to further plume fragmentation and dissolution.

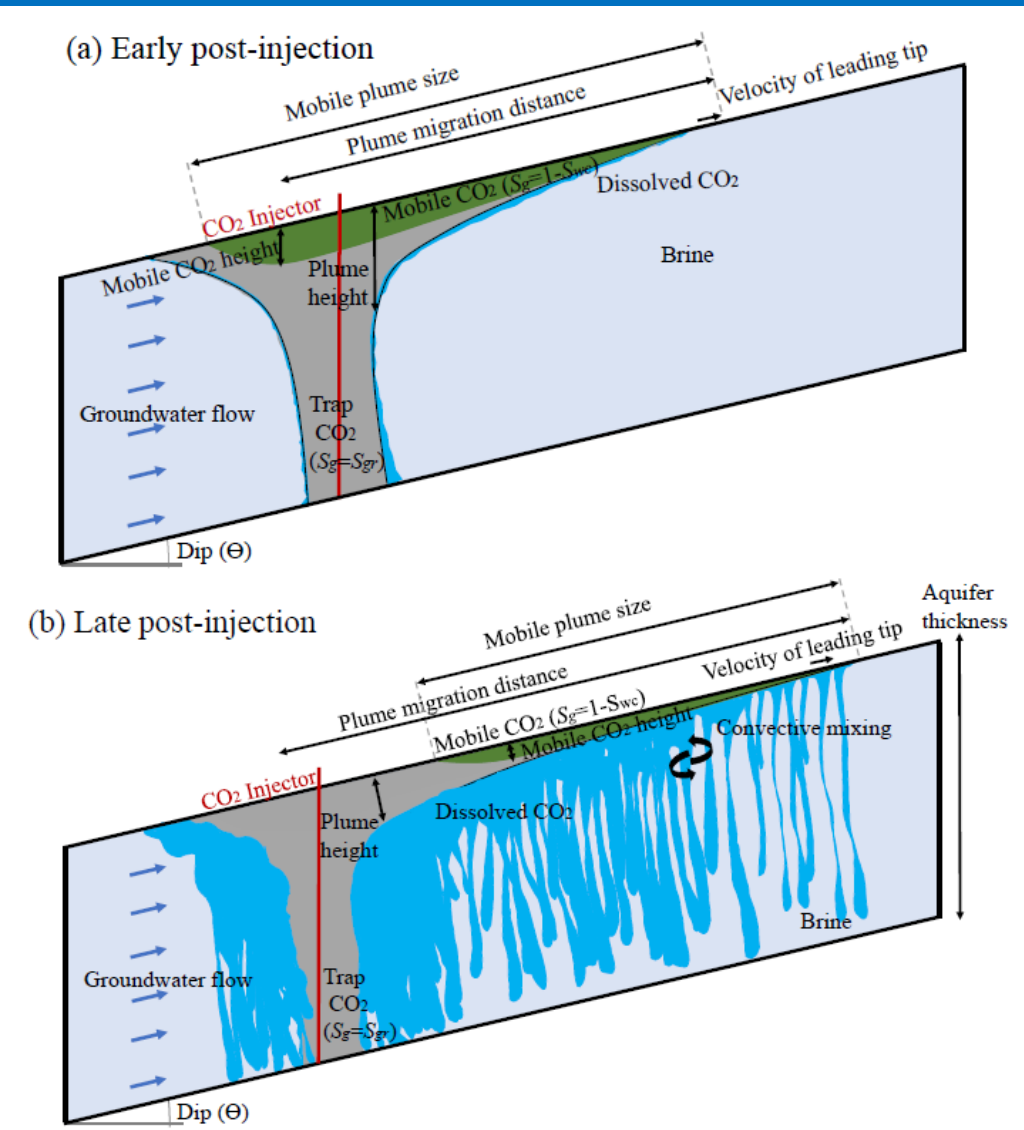


Fig. 1. the migration of a plume of CO₂ in a conceptual dipping aquifer system with updip groundwater flux during the early and late post-injection periods. Region 1 comprises mobile CO₂ and a connate water saturation S_{wc} (green); Region 2 contains the residual CO₂ S_{gr} and mobile water (grey); Region 3 indicates the dissolved CO₂ in water (blue). (a) Early post-injection and (b) Late post-injection.

Promotes up-dip migration and contact with more brine

Awag et al. 2024

Stacked Reservoirs

Benefits of Injecting CO₂ into Stacked Multiple Reservoirs vs. a Single Reservoir

Pressure Management:

- Stacked reservoirs distribute pressure across multiple layers, reducing the risk of overpressure in a single formation. This prevents fracturing and maintains seal integrity.

Enhanced Storage Capacity:

- Utilizing multiple reservoirs increases the overall storage volume, as each layer contributes independently to the total capacity.

Improved Efficiency:

- Stacked systems allow for concurrent injection in separate layers, optimizing the injection process and mitigating the risk of injection interference.

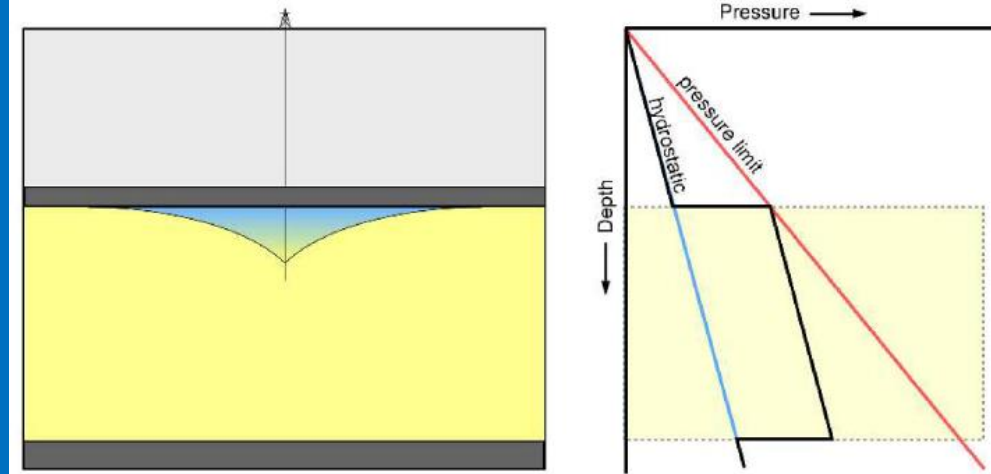
Reduced Risk of Leakage:

- The presence of interbedded seals between stacked reservoirs adds additional barriers to CO₂ migration, enhancing long-term containment security.

Scalability:

- Stacked systems are more adaptable to varying injection rates and capacities, offering flexibility for scaling up storage operations.
- This approach leverages the geological heterogeneity of reservoirs to optimize storage while minimizing risks and operational challenges

A. Single, thick reservoir



B. Multiple thin reservoirs

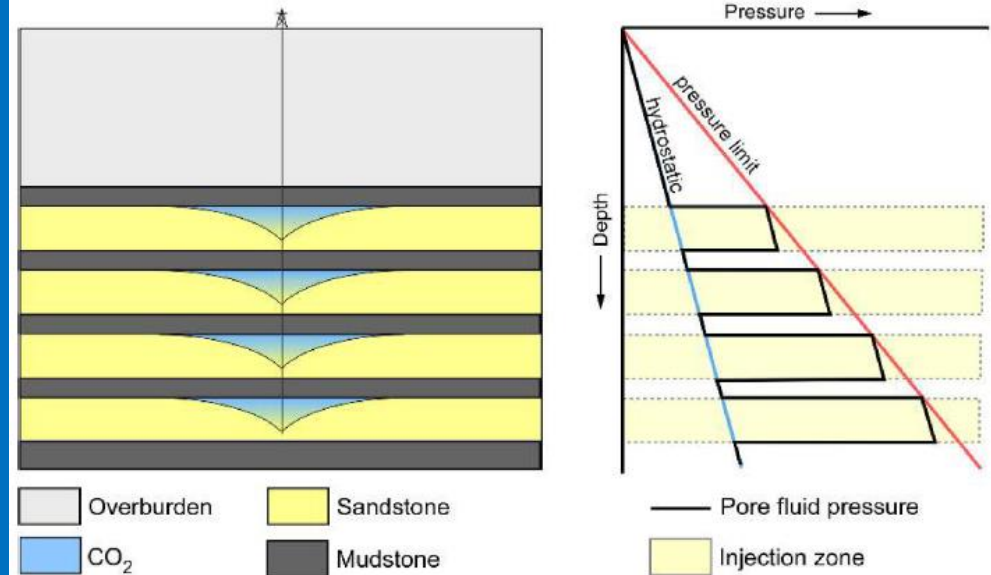


Fig. 6. Illustration of end-member reservoir scenarios and their implications for choice of depth to base storage resource calculations on. A) In a uniform reservoir, where CO₂ can rise quickly and pressure equilibrates easily, CO₂ density and allowable pressure increase are determined by the properties at the top of the injection zone; B) Given a stack of discrete reservoir intervals, where CO₂ and pressure do not migrate from one interval to another, storage resource of the stack as a whole is best modelled using properties at the midpoint depth of the stack.

Bump et al. 2024

Enhances plume spread across different permeability layers

Summary

CO₂ injection and storage can now be reliably modelled using 2-phase 3D reservoir simulation frameworks.

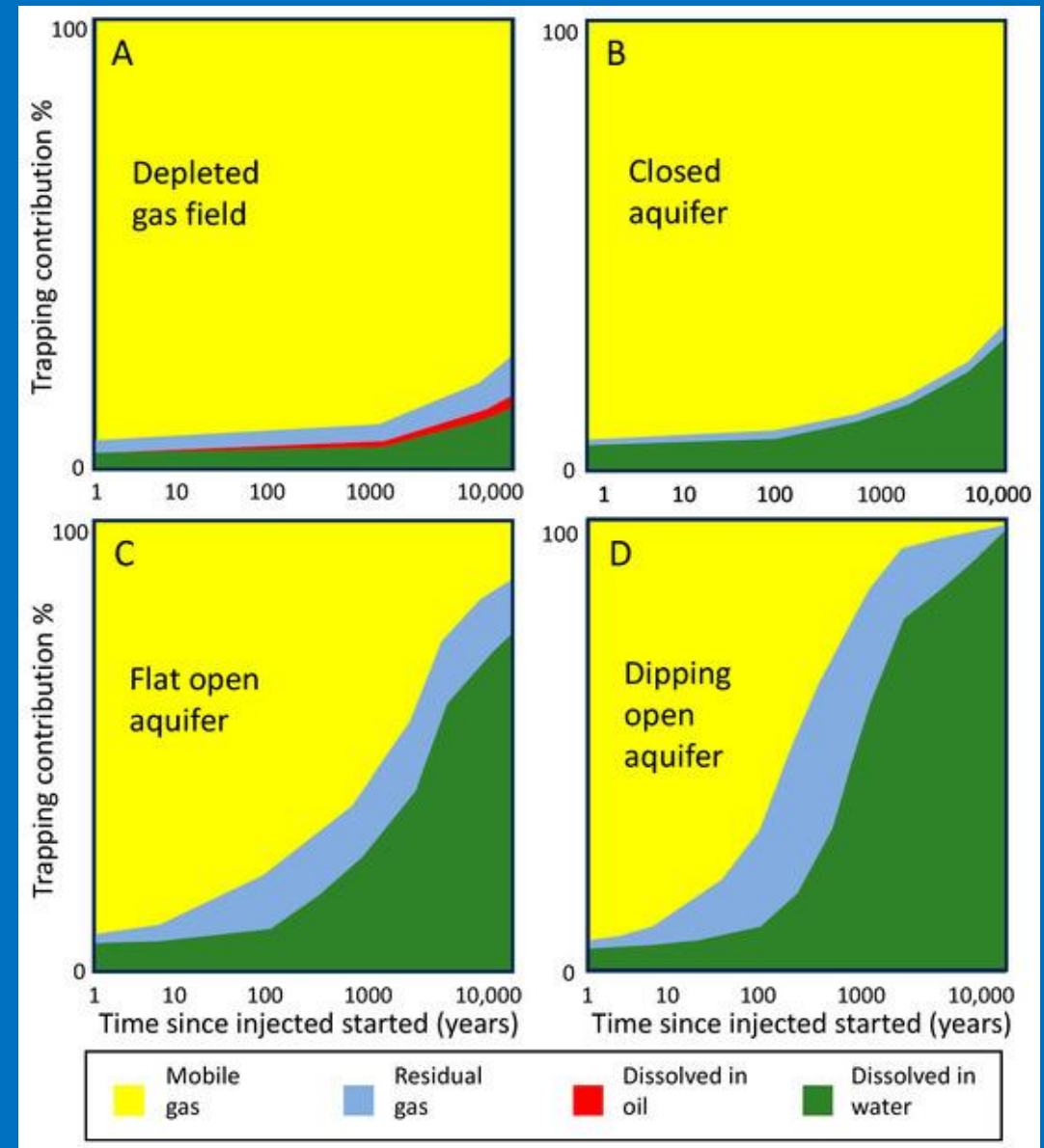
These models capture key **flux regimes** such as:

- **Plume initiation and growth**
- **Early diffusion and Rayleigh–Taylor fingering**
- **Convective shutdown, slumping, and late-time diffusion**

Each has characteristic timescales and flux behaviours that depend on reservoir properties and geometry.

Dissolution trapping is slow but powerful, and remains underutilized in many CCS projects.

CO₂ dissolution provides irreversible immobilization and reduces free-phase mass over time, enhancing long-term storage security.



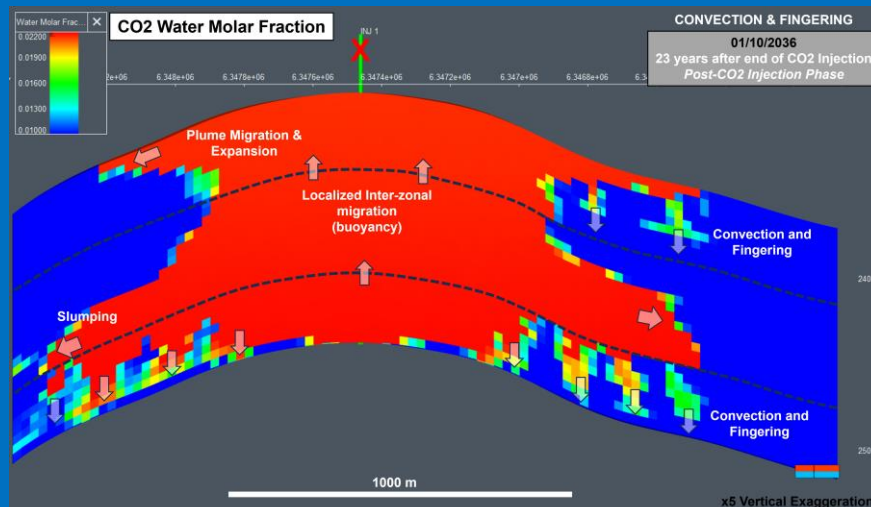
Conclusions

Rayleigh number (Ra) is a critical predictive tool for:

- *Diagnosing onset and strength of convection*
- *Pre-screening reservoir suitability*
- *Guiding injection and monitoring strategies*

Reservoir heterogeneity and architectural layering have a **first-order control** on:

- Convective onset and shutdown
- Slumping behaviour
- Dissolution surface area and interface longevity



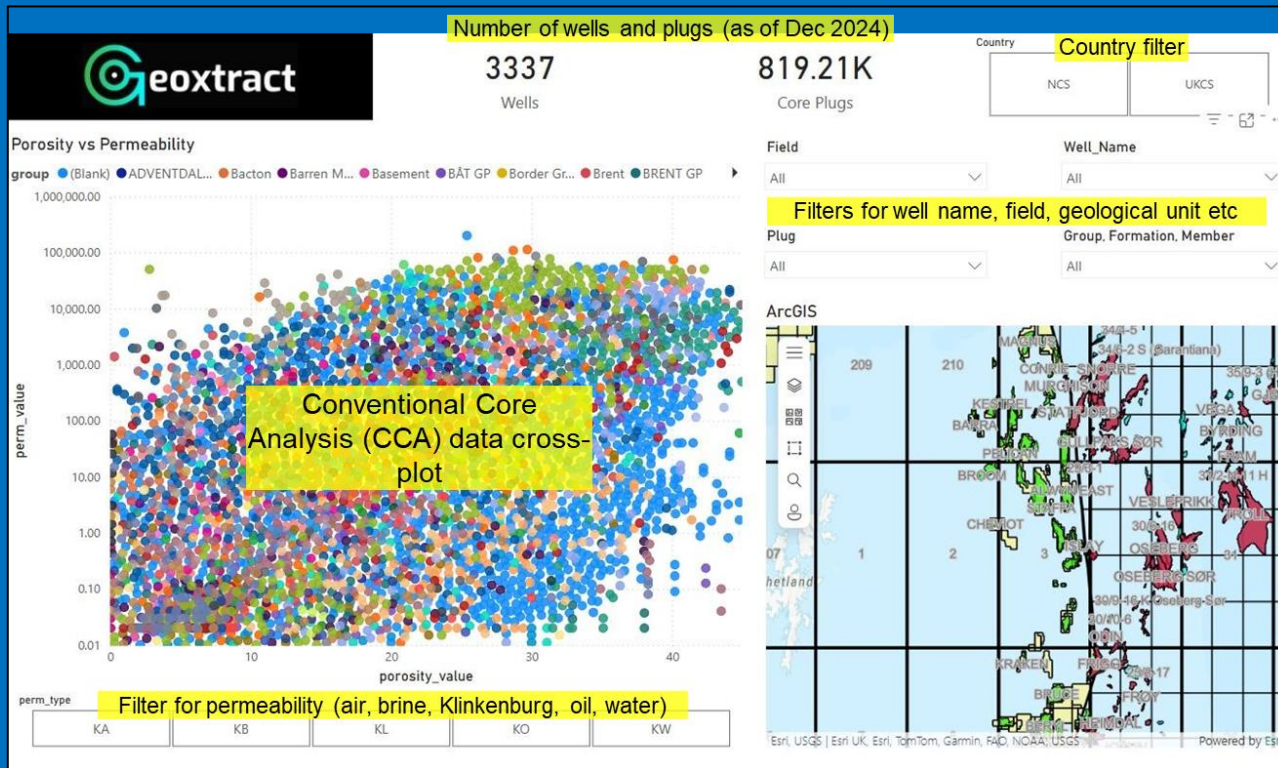
Simulation and monitoring should ideally match the physical regimes expected:

- **Fine-gridded models** and **long durations** for high-Ra systems
- **Brine chemistry calibration, EOS accuracy,** and **saturation tracking** are essential

Alternative engineered injection strategies:

- **Downdip well placement, multi-zone targeting** can enhance interface growth and drive more dissolution.
- Engineer for **higher Ra to boost early dissolution**
- Prefer **downdip injection** to maximize interface
- Use **Ra + D + cs maps** to pre-screen reservoir quality

→ Shift from **containment-only thinking** and design to **dissolution-enhanced CCS**.



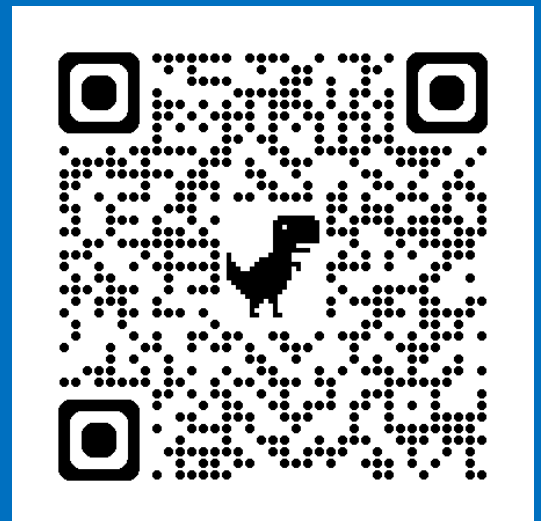
<https://www.geoxtract.com/>

GeoXtract – North Sea Core Database

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matthew.brettle@abdn.ac.uk

- By Q2 2025 ALL North Sea CCA data (+5000 wells) loaded
- Stratigraphy applied per plug for cored wells
- Dean Stark analysis (Saturation, Fluid summation)
- Core photographs (Concatenated original operator's and BGS)
- RFT formation pressure data
- Well log viewer
- Planned future data packages: SCAL, fluid properties, petrographic data ++

Scan QR code for
a video or a free
demo of the
database



UoA GCS Research Project Proposal

1495



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ABERDEEN

PROPOSAL FOR RESEARCH FUNDING

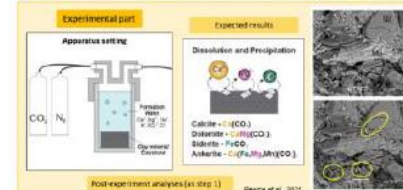
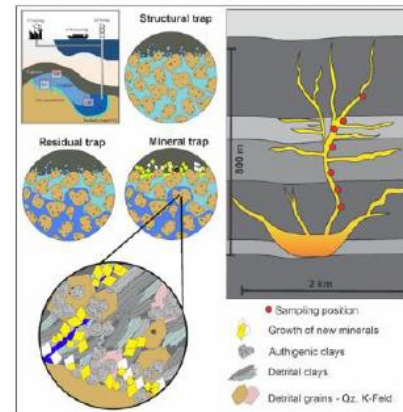
Short and long-term containment of CO₂ associated with Geological Carbon Storage in Saline Aquifers and Depleted Fields:

Delivery of data, workflows, cellular models and dynamic simulation results in the northern North Sea post-rift succession

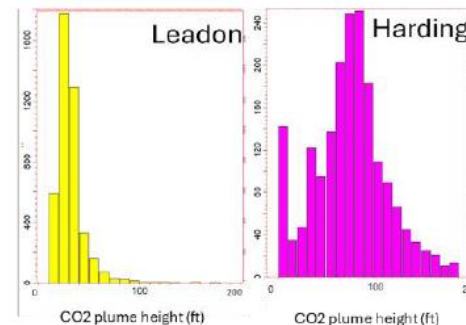
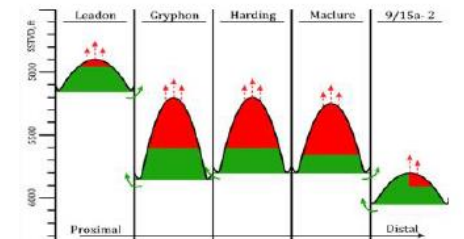
Dr. Matt Brettle, Dr. Rene Jonk, Dr. Danica Jablonska,
Dr. Sean Kelly

Small-scale experiments/modeling → Core, log and field property calibration → Reservoir model construction & simulation

Chemical reactions between CO₂ and adjacent shales Allow for trapping, BUT also alter mechanical properties



core-log seal capacity measurements integrated with field column heights constrains CO₂ retention plume heights



Reservoir architecture (heterogeneity) is critical for understanding plume migration and dissolution flux

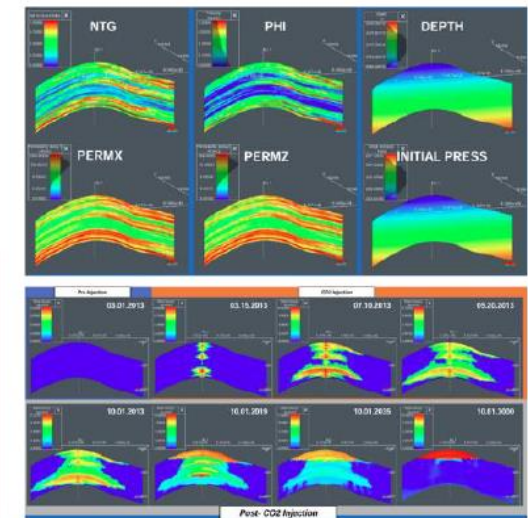


Figure 1. Scoping work completed which was used to guide this proposal. Left to right, Geochemical storage of mudstones, seal capacities of mudstones, dynamic simulation of CO₂ right

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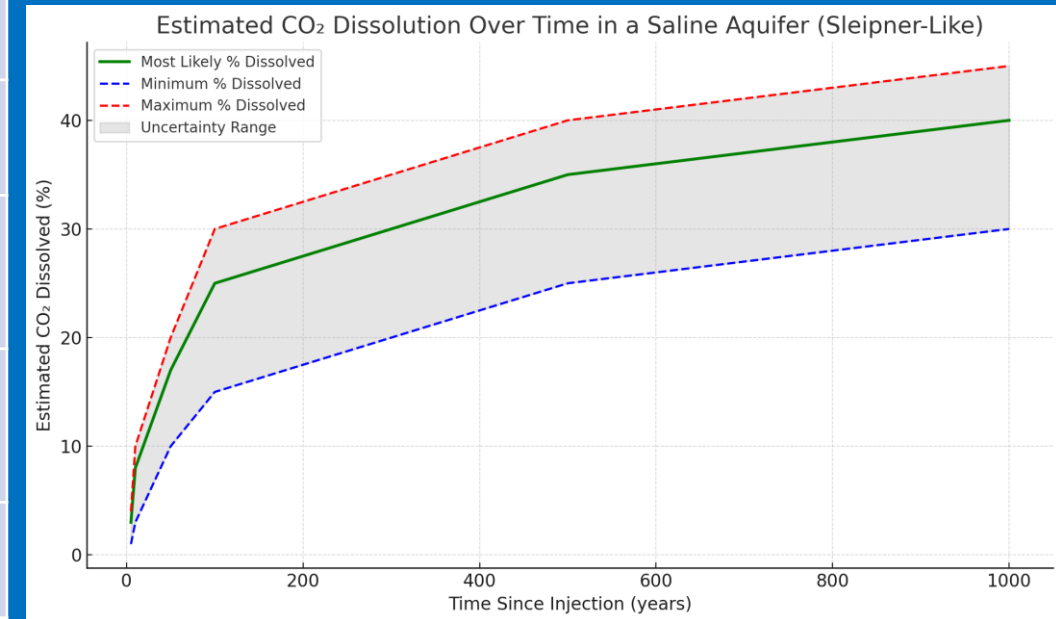
END

% of CO₂ Dissolved Over Time

Estimated *Maximum* % of CO₂ Dissolved Over Time

(Assumes a moderately high Ra number system like Sleipner, with ongoing interface growth)

Time Since Injection	Likely Max % Dissolved	Notes & Reference Points
5 years	~2–4%	Early diffusion phase; small interface area. Dissolution is starting.
10 years	~7–10%	Convection begins. Onset of fingering increases flux.
50 years	~15–20%	Most of the rapid fingering and slumping phases occur within this period.
100 years	~25–30%	Some plume fragmentation and Taylor slumping. Flux slowing but still active.
500 years	~35–40%	System transitions to late diffusion. Most available CO ₂ is dissolved.
1000 years	~40–45% (plateau)	Asymptotic behavior; remaining free-phase CO ₂ is minimal or structurally trapped.



Sleipner type saline aquifer - assume **injection stops after a defined period** (e.g., ~20-30 years)

With vs. Without Dissolution in Saline Aquifer Site Evaluation

Aspect of Site Evaluation	With Dissolution Considered	Without Dissolution Considered
Estimated Storage Capacity	Higher effective capacity due to solubility trapping (up to 30% in monitoring period)	Capacity underestimated; design conservatism or early abandonment
Plume Size and Migration	Smaller plume footprint over time as mass dissolves	Larger plume overestimated; potential for overlap or interference
Risk of Seal Breach	Lower risk due to reduced buoyancy and plume thinning	Higher leakage risk perceived due to plume size and pressure
Pressure Management Forecast	More gradual pressure buildup; longer safe injection window	Pressure buildup may appear too fast; risk of unnecessary constraints
Monitoring Design	Monitoring optimized for saturation and flux trends	Monitoring misaligned with plume evolution; false positives or blind spots
Post-Injection Behavior	Flux transitions through well-defined regimes (e.g., shutdown, tailing)	Overestimation of mobile-phase CO ₂ duration
Operational Lifespan	Extended operational lifespan; delayed saturation	Shortened modeled lifespan; overly conservative closure plans
Long-Term Security	Improved security through irreversible CO ₂ immobilization	Long-term stability undervalued; containment appears more risky



Rayleigh Number

What is the Rayleigh Number (Ra)?

In the context of **geological carbon storage (GCS/CCS)**, the Rayleigh number describes the **relative strength of buoyancy-driven flow (convection)** compared to **diffusion** in a porous medium saturated with brine.

- It quantifies the **instability** of the system and helps determine when **convective fingering** (which greatly accelerates CO₂ dissolution) will occur.

In its standard form for porous media:

$$Ra = \frac{g \cdot \Delta\rho \cdot k \cdot H}{\mu \cdot \phi \cdot D}$$

- Some formulations include porosity ϕ in the denominator, depending on whether **pore velocity** or **Darcy velocity** is used

Symbol	Definition	Units
g	Gravitational acceleration	m/s ²
$\Delta\rho$	Density difference between saturated and unsaturated brine	kg/m ³
k	Permeability of the porous medium	m ²
ϕ	Porosity	-
H	Vertical height of the CO ₂ -brine interface (aquifer thickness)	m
μ	Dynamic viscosity of brine	Pa·s
D	Effective molecular diffusivity of CO ₂ in brine	m ² /s



Rayleigh Number

Why is Ra So Important in CCS?

1. Predicts Onset of Convection

- If Ra is **low** (e.g., <100), the system is **diffusion-dominated**.
- If Ra exceeds a critical threshold ($Ra \approx 2000$ for CO_2 -brine systems), **convective fingering** occurs.
- **Convection accelerates CO_2 dissolution by orders of magnitude.**

2. Controls Regime Transitions

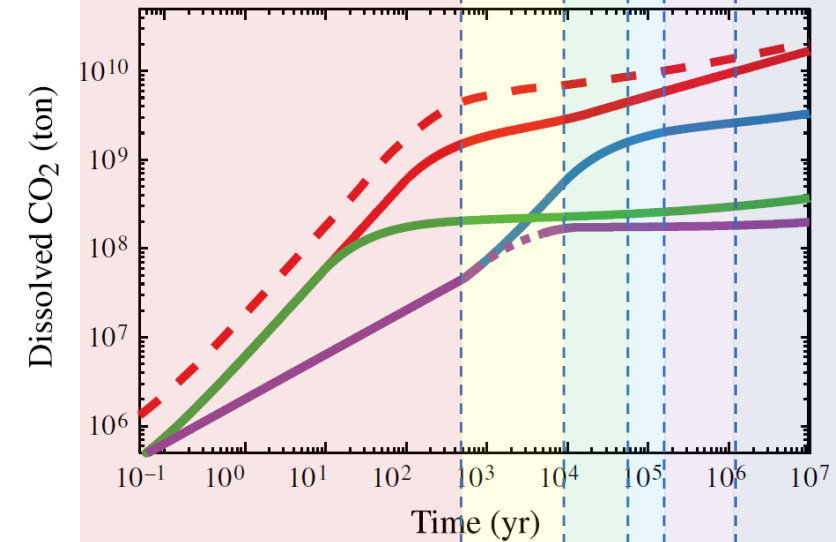
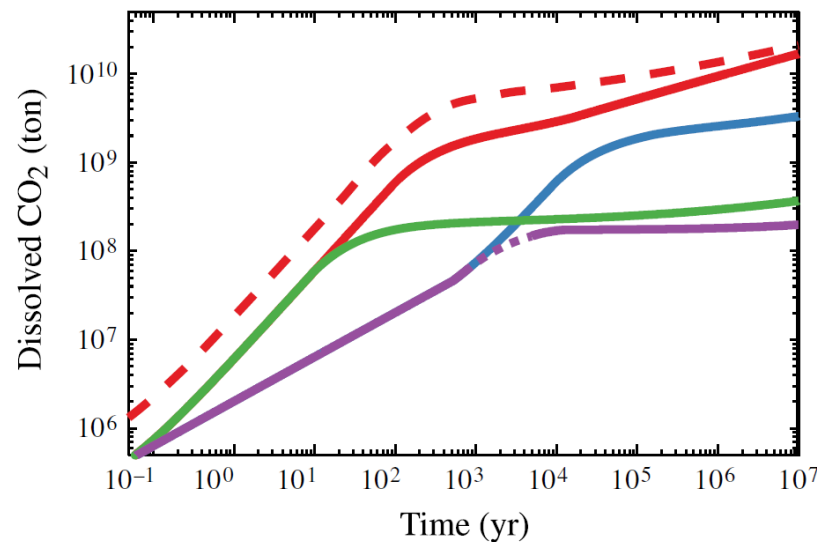
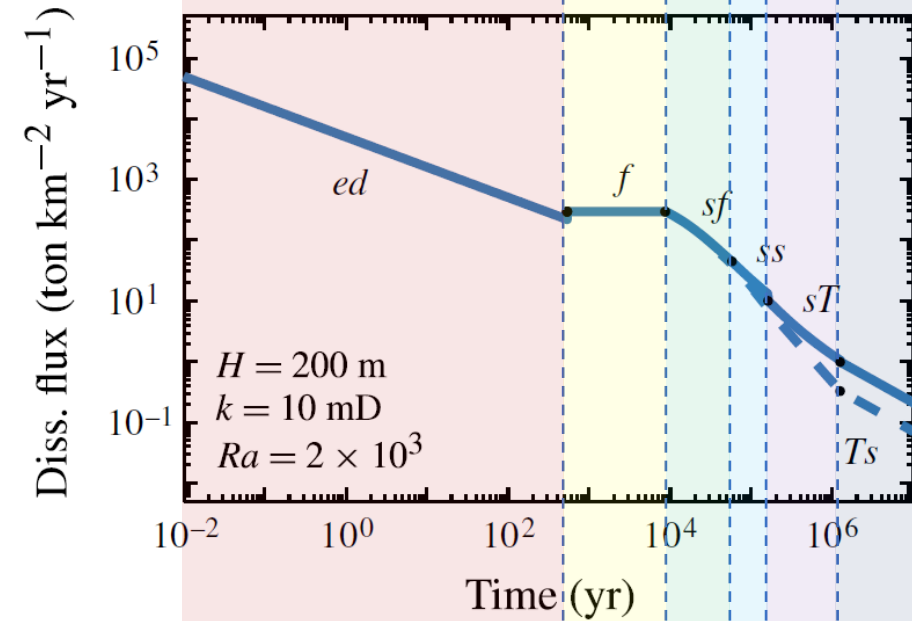
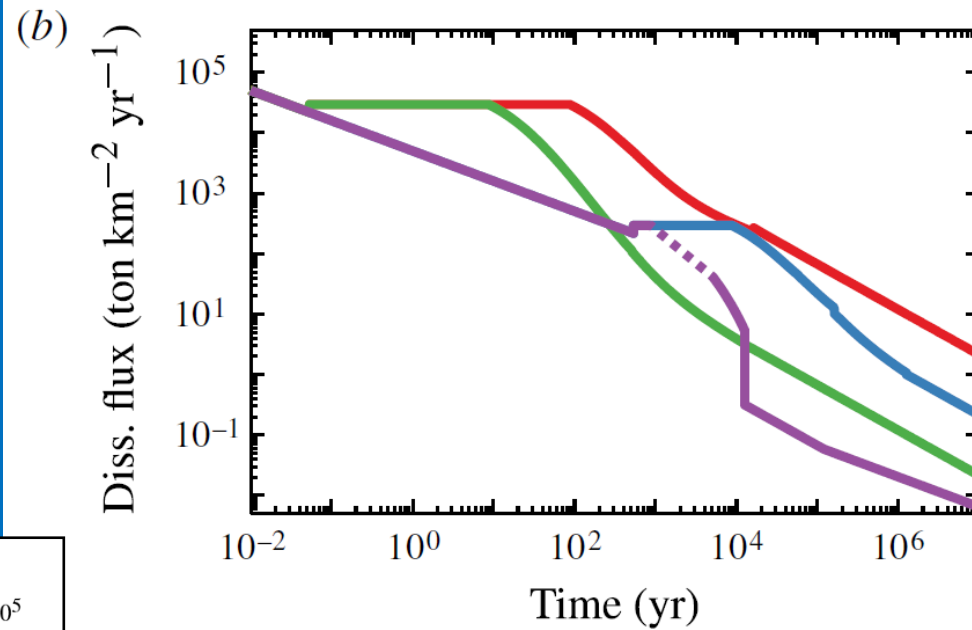
- Rayleigh number determines **which regime** of Szulczewski's flux model the system will occupy:

Regime	Dominant Process	Ra Range
Early Diffusion	Molecular diffusion only	$Ra < 100$
Transition	Onset of unstable fingers	$100 < Ra < 2000$
Fingering	Fully developed convection	$Ra > 2000$
Shutdown/Taylor Slumping	Saturation-controlled	—

Use Ra in Practice

- **Site Screening:** Helps assess if a formation is suitable for long-term solubility trapping.
- **Reservoir Modeling:** Guides whether high-resolution modeling of fingers is needed.
- **Injection Strategy:** Encourages designing plumes with high H , k , or temperature-adjusted μ to increase Ra.
- **Monitoring Planning:** High-Ra systems may require monitoring for finger spread; low-Ra systems evolve too slowly.

CO₂ Flux Regimes & Timescales



Each regime or phase has a characteristic timescale & flux rate, partly depending on reservoir properties



Salinity, Solubility & CO₂ Flux

Why the Flux First Rises, Then Falls with Salinity

The fingering flux is given by:

$$f = 0.017 \cdot c_s \cdot \frac{\Delta\rho \cdot g \cdot k}{\mu \cdot \phi}$$

So flux increases linearly with both:

- CO₂ solubility c_s (which decreases with salinity),
- Density difference $\Delta\rho$ (which increases with salinity).

Competing Effects:

- At **low salinity**, c_s is high, but $\Delta\rho$ is small → low buoyancy, weak convection.
- At **moderate salinity**, c_s is still reasonably high and $\Delta\rho$ has increased → optimal convection.
- At **high salinity**, $\Delta\rho$ keeps rising, but c_s drops sharply → **not enough CO₂ to dissolve**, reducing total flux.

Peak Dissolution Rate

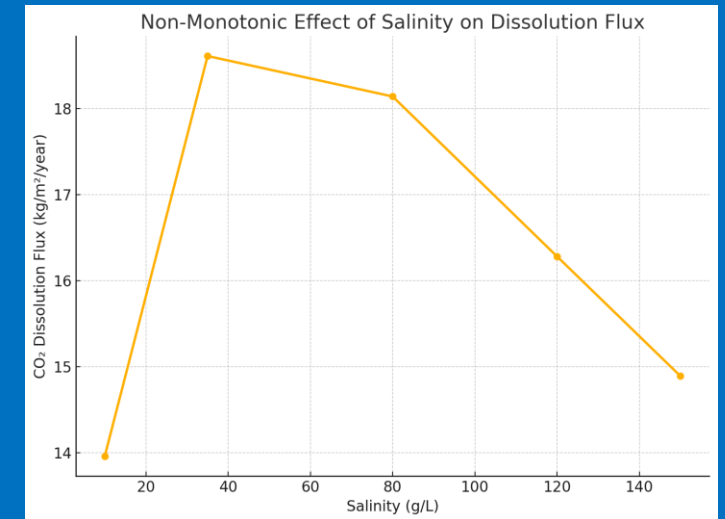
- The **maximum flux** occurs at **moderate salinities** (e.g., 35–80 g/L), where $c_s \cdot \Delta\rho$ is maximized.

Summary

- The **non-monotonic response of dissolution flux to salinity** is a **well-established behavior**, supported by experimental work and analytical theory (e.g., Hidalgo et al. 2013, Agartan et al. 2015).
- This is why reservoirs with **intermediate salinity (~seawater levels)** often show **higher dissolution efficiency** than freshwater or hypersaline systems.

CO₂ solubility (c_s) is **directly and linearly linked to dissolution flux**, especially in the **fingering regime**, and is one of the most influential variables in predicting and interpreting dissolution behavior.

Parameter	Symbol	Value	Units	Notes
Gravitational acceleration	g	9.81	m/s ²	–
Dynamic viscosity	μ	0.000688	Pa·s	Brine viscosity at ~1000 m depth
Porosity	ϕ	0.37	–	Sleipner/Utsira
Aquifer thickness	H	200	m	Typical for Utsira
Effective diffusion	D	2×10^{-9}	m ² /s	Moderate estimate
Interface area	A	4.5e6	m ²	Based on top plume layer at Sleipner
Duration	–	30 years	–	Fingering regime duration



Salinity (g/L)	CO ₂ Solubility c_s (kg/m ³)	$\Delta\rho$ (kg/m ³)	Notes
10	75	6	Near-freshwater, low $\Delta\rho$
35	60	10	Seawater-like
80	45	13	Moderate salinity reservoir
120	35	15	High salinity (e.g., In Salah)
150	30	16	Very high salinity

Salinity, Solubility & CO₂ Flux

1. Direct Relationship Between Solubility and Flux

In the **Szulczewski et al. (2013)** fingering regime, the dissolution flux is given by:

$$f = 0.017 \cdot c_s \cdot V \quad \text{where} \quad V = \frac{\Delta\rho \cdot g \cdot k}{\mu \cdot \phi}$$

So:

- $f \propto c_s$ when all other parameters are held constant.
- If you **double solubility**, you **double the dissolution flux**.
- It also means that **total CO₂ mass dissolved** over a time period t is directly proportional to c_s :

$$M = f \cdot A \cdot t \propto c_s$$

2. Solubility Role in Onset of Convection (Indirect Link)

While c_s is not explicitly in the Rayleigh number:

$$Ra = \frac{\Delta\rho \cdot g \cdot k \cdot H}{\mu \cdot \phi \cdot D}$$

it is **functionally tied to $\Delta\rho$** , because:

- The **density contrast $\Delta\rho$** is caused by the **dissolution of CO₂ into brine**.
- This means **higher c_s** allows **higher potential $\Delta\rho$** , which can:
 - Increase Rayleigh number
 - Reduce fingering onset time
 - Strengthen convection once it begins

So: **Higher $c_s \rightarrow$ More CO₂ dissolves $\rightarrow$ Greater density contrast $\rightarrow$ Earlier and stronger fingering.**

Salinity, Solubility & CO₂ Flux

3. Dependency on Salinity, Pressure, and Temperature

CO₂ solubility c_s is not constant; it's a **function of**:

- **Salinity**: $\uparrow$ salinity $\Rightarrow \downarrow c_s$
- **Pressure**: $\uparrow P \Rightarrow \uparrow c_s$ (until close to critical point)

Temperature: Complex — but often $\uparrow T \Rightarrow \downarrow c_s$ at typical reservoir depths

Example from Sensitivity Analysis

If:

- $c_s = 70 \text{ kg/m}^3$: high flux (e.g., $22 \text{ kg/m}^2/\text{yr}$)
- $c_s = 60 \text{ kg/m}^3$: moderate flux ($18.6 \text{ kg/m}^2/\text{yr}$)
- $c_s = 45 \text{ kg/m}^3$: low flux ($\sim 13.8 \text{ kg/m}^2/\text{yr}$)

Total mass dissolved over 30 years also scales directly.

Key Insight on Salinity:

Salinity affects **both**:

- **CO₂ solubility** $c_s \rightarrow$ **lowers** it
- **Density contrast** $\Delta\rho \rightarrow$ **raises** it

Because $f = 0.017 \cdot c_s \cdot V$, and $V \propto \Delta\rho$, flux has a **non-monotonic relationship with salinity**:

- **Increases at first** (due to rising $\Delta\rho$)
- **Decreases at high salinity** (because c_s drops sharply)

Variable	Influence on Flux	Direct or Indirect?
Solubility c_s	Proportional to flux and total mass dissolved	Direct
$\Delta\rho$	Proportional to flux and Ra	Direct
k, μ , ϕ	Control buoyancy velocity V	Direct via V
D	Affects regime onset and Ra	Indirect

Flux Regime Duration Example Calculation (Sleipner-Like Composite Plume Case)

Example Calculation (Sleipner-Like Case)

Assume:

- $H = 200 \text{ m}$
- $D = 2 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$
- $k = 1.5 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2$
- $\mu = 0.000688 \text{ Pa}\cdot\text{s}$
- $\phi = 0.37$
- $\Delta\rho = 10 \text{ kg/m}^3$

Symbol	Definition	Units
c_s	CO ₂ solubility in brine	kg/m ³
V	Characteristic buoyancy velocity	m/s
H	Thickness of aquifer	m
D	Effective diffusion coefficient (including tortuosity)	m ² /s
Ra	Rayleigh number: ratio of buoyancy to diffusion	–
A	Interface area (CO ₂ –brine contact)	m ²
$f(t)$	Dissolution flux at time t	kg/m ² /s
t	Time since injection started	s or years

Step 1: Compute Velocity

Compute Velocity

$$V = \frac{10 \cdot 9.81 \cdot 1.5 \times 10^{-12}}{0.000688 \cdot 0.37} \approx 5.78 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m/s}$$

Step 2: Regime Times

- $t_f = \frac{2 \times 10^{-9}}{(5.78 \times 10^{-7})^2} \approx 6.0 \times 10^3 \text{ s} \approx 0.07 \text{ days}$

In real reservoirs, convection likely begins a bit later due to vertical constraints; field data suggests ~2–5 years for fingering onset.

- $t_{sf} = \frac{15 \cdot 200}{5.78 \times 10^{-7}} \approx 5.2 \times 10^9 \text{ s} \approx 165 \text{ years}$

- $t_{sT} = \left(\frac{(200)^3}{5.78 \times 10^{-7} \cdot 2 \times 10^{-9}} \right)^{1/2} \approx 1.66 \times 10^8 \text{ s} \approx 5.3 \text{ years}$

- $t_{ld} = \frac{(200)^2}{2 \times 10^{-9}} = 2 \times 10^{10} \text{ s} \approx 635 \text{ years}$



Flux Rate and Total Example Calculation (Sleipner-Like Composite Plume Case)

Step 1: Characteristic Buoyant Velocity V

From Szulczewski et al.:

$$V = \frac{\Delta\rho \cdot g \cdot k}{\mu \cdot \phi}$$

Substitute values:

$$V = \frac{10 \cdot 9.81 \cdot 1.5 \times 10^{-12}}{0.000688 \cdot 0.37}$$

$$= \frac{1.4715 \times 10^{-10}}{2.5456 \times 10^{-4}} = 5.78 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m/s}$$

Step 2: Fingering Flux Rate per Area

Fingering regime flux (Szulczewski):

$$f = 0.017 \cdot c_s \cdot V = 0.017 \cdot 60 \cdot 5.78 \times 10^{-7} = 5.89 \times 10^{-7} \text{ kg/m}^2/\text{s}$$

Convert to **kg/m²/year**:

$$f_{\text{year}} = f \cdot \text{seconds per year} = 5.89 \times 10^{-7} \cdot 31,557,600 = \boxed{18.61 \text{ kg/m}^2/\text{year}}$$

Step 3: Total Mass Dissolved over 30 Years

We are targeting:

$$M_{\text{total}} = 2.94 \text{ Mt} = 2.94 \times 10^6 \text{ tonnes} = 2.94 \times 10^9 \text{ kg}$$

Let:

A_{eff} = unknown effective interface area

$f = 5.89 \times 10^{-7} \text{ kg/m}^2/\text{s}$ (from above)

t = total duration in seconds = $30 \times 365.25 \times 86400 = 946,728,000 \text{ s}$

We solve:

$$M = f \cdot A_{\text{eff}} \cdot t \Rightarrow A_{\text{eff}} = \frac{M}{f \cdot t} = \frac{2.94 \times 10^9}{5.89 \times 10^{-7} \cdot 9.467 \times 10^8} = \boxed{5,267 \text{ m}^2}$$

Convert to km²:

- $A_{\text{eff}} = 0.00527 \text{ km}^2$

Quantity	Value
Characteristic velocity V	$5.78 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m/s}$
Fingering flux f	18.6 kg/m ² /year
Effective area A_{eff}	5,267 m ² (0.0053 km ²)
Duration	30 years
Total dissolved CO ₂	2.94 Mt

Salinity & Viscosity

1. Salinity (How salty the water is)

- **What it is:** How much dissolved salt is in the brine.
- **Impact on dissolution:**
 - **↓ Reduces CO₂ solubility** → salty brine can hold **less CO₂**.
 - **↑ Increases brine density** → makes CO₂-saturated brine **even denser**, which helps **trigger convection**.
 - **↑ Increases viscosity slightly** → makes the brine more resistant to flow.
- **Analogy:** Salt water is "thicker" and "heavier" than fresh water — it can slow things down but also set up stronger sinking when CO₂ dissolves.

2. Viscosity (How thick or resistant the brine is)

- **What it is:** A measure of how easily the fluid flows.
- **Impact on diffusion and convection:**
 - **↑ Higher viscosity = slower movement** (including convection).
 - Appears in the **denominator of the Rayleigh number**, so **higher viscosity reduces the likelihood of convection**.
- **Rule of thumb:** The more viscous the brine, the **less mobile** the CO₂-rich fingers will be.

Solubility & Diffusivity

3. Solubility (c_s) – How much CO_2 can dissolve in the brine

- **What it is:** The maximum amount of CO_2 that can dissolve in the brine at given pressure, temperature, and salinity.
- **Dependence on other factors:**
 - $\uparrow$ Increases with pressure.
 - $\downarrow$ Decreases with temperature.
 - $\downarrow$ Decreases with salinity.
- **Why it matters:** Higher solubility means more CO_2 enters solution per unit time — **directly boosts flux**.
- **Key point:** Solubility is the “fuel” for dissolution. Less solubility = smaller flux ceiling.

4. Diffusivity (D) – How fast CO_2 molecules spread in brine

- **What it is:** The molecular diffusion coefficient — how fast dissolved CO_2 spreads through brine **before convection begins**.
- **Impact:**
 - Sets the rate of **early diffusion** (slow phase before fingering).
 - Affects the **onset time of convection**: higher D slightly **delays** the density instability.
 - Lower D = faster convection onset (sharper density contrast builds up sooner).
- **Key point:** Diffusivity controls the **early behavior** of CO_2 dissolution, before the system “kicks into gear.”

Salinity, Viscosity, Solubility & Diffusivity

- How They Work Together in Real Aquifers

Parameter	What Happens When It's High	Net Effect on Dissolution
Salinity	↓ solubility, ↑ density, ↑ viscosity	Mixed: reduces solubility but can strengthen convection
Viscosity	Slows flow and fingering	Generally slows dissolution
Solubility	More CO ₂ can dissolve	Increases dissolution flux directly
Diffusivity	Smoother gradients, slower fingering onset	Speeds early diffusion, delays convection onset

In Summary – Natural Aquifer Scenarios

In natural aquifers:

- Moderate salinity** (e.g. 30–60 g/L) often gives the **best balance**: decent solubility, strong density contrast.
- High salinity** (e.g. 100–150 g/L) may **limit CO₂ solubility too much**, reducing the overall effectiveness of dissolution trapping.
- Lower viscosity** brines (warmer, less saline) promote better convection and faster mixing.
- Solubility and diffusivity are **temperature- and pressure-dependent**, so deeper aquifers may perform better despite higher temperature, due to **high pressure** boosting c_s .

Key challenges in simulating CO₂ dissolution in CCS/GCS projects - I

1. Capturing Density-Driven Convective Mixing

- **Description:** Convective dissolution—driven by the density contrast between CO₂-rich and ambient brine—is a key mechanism that accelerates CO₂ solubility trapping.
- **Challenges:**
 - Requires **high spatial and temporal resolution** to resolve fine-scale “gravity fingers.”
 - **Numerical dispersion** in coarse grids can artificially mimic or obscure fingering.
 - Difficult to simulate **both fingering instability and large-scale plume migration** simultaneously.
 - Existing commercial simulators often smooth out these instabilities unless adapted with specialized modules or fine meshes.

2. Integrating Dissolution with Multiphase Flow and Transport

- **Description:** CO₂ dissolution is governed by a combination of advection, diffusion, and convection, each occurring at different scales.
- **Challenges:**
 - **Coupling molecular diffusion, advective flow, and convective mixing** remains a complex task, especially when feedbacks are nonlinear.
 - Misrepresentation of this interplay can result in incorrect predictions of plume evolution and dissolution efficiency.
 - Modeling of **residual trapping and hysteresis** also interacts with dissolution processes.

3. Accurate Representation of Fluid Properties

- **Description:** CO₂ solubility, density, and viscosity depend strongly on **pressure (P)**, **temperature (T)**, and **salinity**.
- **Challenges:**
 - Slight variations (e.g., <1% in density) can control whether convective mixing is triggered.
 - **Non-isothermal conditions** influence solubility and buoyancy but are often neglected for simplicity.
 - Lack of site-specific P–T–x data (especially for **formation-specific brines**) hampers accurate model calibration.

4. Modeling Reservoir Heterogeneity

- **Description:** Subsurface heterogeneity governs the structure of the CO₂ plume and the brine-CO₂ contact area.
- **Challenges:**
 - Requires **multi-scale representation** of features like thin baffles, layered heterogeneity, or anisotropy.
 - Impacts **convective onset**, fingering structure, and lateral spreading of dissolved CO₂.
 - Traditional grid-based models struggle to represent fine-scale heterogeneity without excessive computational cost.

Key challenges in simulating CO₂ dissolution in CCS/GCS projects - II

5. Uncertainty in Petrophysical Properties

- **Description:** CO₂-brine-rock interaction is governed by permeability, porosity, capillary pressure, and relative permeability.
- **Challenges:**
 - These properties are **difficult and expensive to measure** at relevant scales.
 - **Large uncertainties** in relative permeability and capillary pressure can affect predictions of residual trapping and plume mobility.
 - The spatial variability in these parameters introduces **input uncertainty** that propagates through simulations.

6. Coupling Geochemical Reactions with Fluid Flow

- **Description:** Dissolved CO₂ can react with minerals, affecting long-term trapping and reservoir properties.
- **Challenges:**
 - Geochemical reactions can **alter porosity/permeability**, affecting fluid movement and subsequent dissolution.
 - **Kinetics of mineral trapping** (e.g., calcite, dawsonite) are slow and uncertain, but must be captured for long-term predictions.
 - Fully coupled **reactive transport models** are computationally intensive and require detailed kinetic and thermodynamic data.

7. Multi-Scale Integration (Time and Length Scales)

- **Description:** Dissolution occurs at the mm–m scale over timeframes from minutes to >10⁴ years.
- **Challenges:**
 - Requires **upscaling** of pore-scale processes to reservoir scale without losing key features (e.g., convective onset).
 - Many simulation tools cannot resolve fine-scale behavior (e.g., diffusion layers) within large domains.
 - Modelers often resort to **heuristic or semi-analytical approximations** (e.g., enhanced effective diffusivity) that may not generalize.

8. Numerical Artifacts and Grid Sensitivity

- **Description:** Simulation results are sensitive to **grid resolution, discretization schemes**, and numerical solvers.
- **Challenges:**
 - Coarse grids may **underpredict dissolution rates** due to missed fingering or **overpredict** due to artificial dispersion.
 - Simulation **stability** is sensitive to time-step size and phase transition handling (e.g., supercritical to aqueous).
 - Discretization can impose directional bias in fingering or underestimate saturation gradients.

Key challenges in simulating CO₂ dissolution in CCS/GCS projects - III

9. Lack of Long-Term Field Calibration

- **Description:** Most CCS projects are <30 years old, while dissolution evolves over centuries.
- **Challenges:**
 - Limited data for **validating long-term model predictions** (e.g., over 1000+ years).
 - Geophysical monitoring (e.g., seismic, gravity) typically cannot resolve dissolved CO₂ distributions directly.
 - Direct **sampling of in-situ formation water** to measure CO₂ content is rare and difficult.

10. Computational Expense

- **Description:** Full-physics 3D models with high resolution and coupled reactive transport are **computationally intensive**.
- **Challenges:**
 - Fine-grid simulations that resolve convection can require **millions of grid cells** and **weeks to months of compute time**.
 - **Monte Carlo or UQ analyses** (for risk assessment) become intractable unless surrogate models or upscaled simplifications are used.

Recommendations for Overcoming Challenges

- **Adaptive meshing** or local grid refinement (LGR) to resolve fingering where it matters most.
- **Hybrid models** combining fine-scale dissolution modules with coarse reservoir flow models (e.g., vertical equilibrium (VE) approximation).
- **Upscaling of fingering dynamics** into enhanced dissolution terms (e.g., Sherwood number-based corrections).
- Development of **field-calibrated effective models** using controlled injection pilot tests.
- **Improved brine sampling methods** (e.g., wireline formation testers with downhole chemistry tools) for field validation.

Conclusion

- Simulating CO₂ dissolution in CCS/GCS is a multi-faceted challenge that blends fundamental fluid physics with the practical limitations of field-scale reservoir modeling.
- Addressing these issues requires a **balance between physical fidelity and computational feasibility**, and hinges on better site characterization, improved monitoring, and integrated modeling frameworks that resolve fine-scale physics within large-scale domains.

