

1 Flood Characteristic and Fluid Rock  
2 Interactions of a Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, Brine,  
3 Rock System: South West Hub, Western  
4 Australia

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## 16 **1 Abstract**

17 Chemical and/or physical interactions between the storage rock and injected and in-situ created solutes  
18 are expected to occur during many underground CO<sub>2</sub> storage projects. The intensity of the reactions,  
19 however, depends on the abundance of susceptible minerals (e.g. carbonates, clays) in the pore space  
20 of the host rock. Such interactions may impact on the multiphase flow characteristics of the underground  
21 fluids-rock system over short as well as long time frames.

22 In this research the in-situ multiphase flow characteristics of four sandstone samples have been  
23 investigated using a set of laboratory measurements. The samples tested were taken from the Wonnerup  
24 Member of the Triassic Lesueur Sandstone which is under consideration as a storage formation in the  
25 South-West Hub CO<sub>2</sub> geo-sequestration site in Western Australia.

26 All the samples tested show favourable characteristics in terms of storage capacity in the form of  
27 residual capillary trapping with residual CO<sub>2</sub> saturation varying between 23% and 43%. They  
28 underwent a degree of alteration to their petrophysical characteristics which was most significantly  
29 pronounced in the case of their absolute gas permeability which showed drops of 25% to 60% in the  
30 post-flood samples. Formation damage by fines migration is proposed as a mechanism for the observed  
31 reduction in permeability. The fines are believed to have originated from the kaolinite particles present  
32 in the pore space of the samples.

## 33 **2 Introduction**

34 Geologic carbon sequestration, i.e. the storage of CO<sub>2</sub> into buried geologic reservoir formations, is being  
35 developed worldwide and considered as a large scale greenhouse gas mitigation technology (IPCC,  
36 2005). In Western Australia, the Perth Basin is being investigated as a potential site for CO<sub>2</sub> injection  
37 due to the presence of large and relatively deeply buried saline aquifer in the proximity of industrial  
38 emitters.

39 The successful operation and management of industrial scale projects require, among others, accurate  
40 characterization of the injectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> into the reservoir rocks and of their storage potential in  
41 advance during the planning stage of the projects. Injectivity is affected by the rock properties, the  
42 nature of the fluids and the in-situ conditions at depth and a proper assessment of these variables is  
43 therefore critical for the planning of any geo-sequestration project.

44 The South-West CO<sub>2</sub> Geo-sequestration Hub project (the South-West Hub) is one of the Australian  
45 Flagship Carbon Capture and Storage Projects, a government funded initiative in partnership with major  
46 local industrial CO<sub>2</sub> emitters. The project aims to explore the potential of storing commercial quantities  
47 of CO<sub>2</sub> in a deep saline aquifer as part of a precompetitive data gathering effort. As part of the early  
48 stages of the South-West Hub project, a stratigraphic well (Harvey-1) was drilled in 2012 by the  
49 Geological Survey of Western Australia (Millar and Reeve, 2014) to confirm the stratigraphy of the  
50 area and recover core material to be tested in the laboratory (Figure 1).

51 The potential storage target in the South-West Hub area consists of the Triassic Lesueur Sandstone  
52 subdivided into the upper Yalgorup and the lower Wonnerup Members (Figure 1). Due to the lack of  
53 outcrops, the knowledge of the potential reservoir rocks properties is limited to the sparse available  
54 material sampled from old exploration wells (see Delle Piane et al., 2013a; Delle Piane et al., 2013b;  
55 Dillinger and Esteban, 2014 and Timms et al., 2015), the new core material extracted from the Harvey-  
56 1 well is therefore invaluable for the progress of the South-West Hub project.

57 Relative permeability of the underground rock-fluids system influences the injectivity and subsurface  
58 movement of CO<sub>2</sub> and reservoir simulations are usually used to predict the CO<sub>2</sub> injection capacity and  
59 plume migration at a full reservoir scale. The key parameters used to determine the multiphase  
60 (formation brine and CO<sub>2</sub>) fluids mobility and distribution in the subsurface are relative permeability in  
61 addition to porosity and permeability of the host rock (e.g. Doughty and Pruess, 2004; Kopp et al. 2009).  
62 Whereas porosity and permeability can be readily obtained from inversion of wireline log parameters  
63 or routine laboratory measurements, relative permeability is inherently more difficult to derive and  
64 requires special experimental protocols and equipment (e.g. Muller, 2011).

65 Two principal approaches are used to obtain a relative permeability data from laboratory measurements:  
66 i) steady state (SS) and ii) unsteady state (USS) core flooding experiments. A SS experiment consists  
67 of a number of steps with every step consisting of simultaneous injection of the two fluids at a fixed  
68 ratio through a porous rock sample. For every ratio, the constant flow rate injection continues until  
69 saturation and differential pressure along the sample stabilise and the produced ratio equals the injected  
70 ratio (Bear, 1988; Dullien, 1992). Usually, SS experiments are very time consuming and require a long  
71 time for flow stabilization.

72 During USS experiments, there is no simultaneous injection of the two fluid phases and one fluid phase  
73 is displaced from the saturated core sample by injecting another fluid. Contrary to the steady-state  
74 techniques, there is only one injection step involved in an USS experiment, making this type of  
75 experiment less time consuming (Dullien, 1992; Bear, 1988).

76 Laboratory based studies aimed at measuring the residually trapped amount of CO<sub>2</sub> in brine saturated  
77 sandstones and supercritical conditions include the works of Bennion and Bachu (2005), Suekane et al.  
78 (2008), Pentland et al. (2011), Saeedi et al. (2011), Shi et al. (2011), Lu et al. (2012), Saeedi (2012),  
79 Akbarabadi and Piri (2013), Ruprecht et al. (2014), Zuo and Benson (2014), Li et al. (2015). The data  
80 available in the literature globally indicates that the saturation of residually trapped CO<sub>2</sub> is likely to be  
81 at least 10% of the pore volume and many rocks are capable of residual trapping at saturations between  
82 30 and 40% of the pore volume; this is predominantly controlled by the pore scale structure of a given  
83 rock type and less by the external conditions acting on the reservoirs (Krevor et al., 2015). It is worth

84 noting that the above figures are stated based on the statistical analysis of results from the core-scale  
85 experiments conducted in the laboratory. At the much larger field-scale, other factors such as large scale  
86 formation heterogeneities in all three directions and slower frontal displacement velocities are expected  
87 to impact on the capacity of the rocks to residually trap CO<sub>2</sub>. The impact of such factors needs to be  
88 taken into account when upscaling the core-scale laboratory results to the full field-scale using  
89 numerical simulation modelling techniques.

90 The main objective of this study was to investigate the multiphase flow characteristics of the  
91 supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (scCO<sub>2</sub>)-brine-rock system pertinent to the South-West Hub project. Four core-  
92 flooding experiments were conducted under reservoir conditions on four representative plugs sampled  
93 from the core material recovered from the Harvey-1 well. All four core-plugs belonged to the Wonnerup  
94 Member of the Lesueur Formation and were chosen as characteristic of the lithofacies type likely to  
95 represent the injection target (for details on lithofacies characteristics see Delle Piane et al., 2013b;  
96 Olierook et al., 2014 and Timms et al., 2015). The core-flooding experiments were performed using a  
97 conventional USS procedure (as briefly described earlier) with the main focus of obtaining the relative  
98 permeabilities and residual saturations.

99 In addition to the main core-flooding experiments, a number of auxiliary petrophysical measurements  
100 were also carried out on the samples before and after the floods (e.g. helium porosity-permeability and  
101 pore body size distribution converted from relaxation time T<sub>2</sub> spectra by low field nuclear magnetic  
102 resonance (NMR) measurements). The purpose of these complementary measurements was to  
103 investigate any potential alterations of the petrophysical properties of the samples induced by the  
104 flooding procedure.

### 105 **3 Experimental Measurements**

#### 106 **3.1 Material and initial sample characterisation**

107 Four horizontal (i.e. cored perpendicular to the whole-core axis) core-plugs were selected from the  
108 cored sections of Harvey-1 at depths considered relevant to the injection operations in the proposed

109 South-West Hub. The samples belonged to the lithofacies type of the Wonnerup Member of the Triassic  
110 Lesueur Sandstone described as interbedded coarse to gravelly cross-bedded sandstones, deposited in  
111 high-energy river channel fill and barforms (facies Ai and Aii as described by Delle Piane et al., 2013a;  
112 Olierook et al., 2014, Timms et al., 2015).

113 The core plugs were drilled dry from the whole-cores recovered from well Harvey-1. Upon recovery,  
114 the whole-cores were depressurised at the well site and laid into standard core trays before being  
115 transferred to the core storage facility where core plugs were drilled dry using a 3.81 cm (1.5") coring  
116 bit. Upon cutting and trimming, the core plugs were subjected to a core cleaning process using warm  
117 toluene and methanol in a temperature controlled Dean-Stark apparatus to remove any possible  
118 contaminants (e.g. salts, possible hydrocarbons) from the samples before they undergo any of the  
119 subsequent experimental measurements. Subsequently the samples were dried in an oven for 48 hours  
120 under a temperature of 105°C. The post-flood samples were dried and their salt residues were cleaned  
121 using an approach similar to the above but only in the last stage when gas porosity-permeability  
122 measurements were performed. From the initial saturation stage to some of the analysis performed on  
123 the post-flood samples, the plugs never underwent any dehydration to avoid salt precipitation from the  
124 brine. Therefore, NMR, brine permeability and core flooding before and after experiments were  
125 acquired with the same hydration status.

126 A general characterization was performed on three of the four samples (206647, 206660 and 206669)  
127 by means of X-ray diffraction (XRD), mercury injection, Helium porosity and permeability and nuclear  
128 magnetic resonance (NMR), while sample 206655 underwent helium porosity and permeability  
129 measurements only and 206669 underwent NMR on pre-flooding experiments only.

130 Porosity and gas permeability were measured using an automated helium porosimeter-permeameter (AP  
131 608 from Coretest Systems Inc.) at effective stresses of 1.72, 5.2 and 32.7 MPa; at each level of pressure  
132 the measurements were repeated three times to assess their reproducibility. Brine permeability of each  
133 sample was also measured at the beginning of the core-flooding experiments under in-situ reservoir  
134 conditions using a synthetic formation brine with salinity of 30,000 ppm NaCl. This formation water

135 salinity was chosen based on the interpretation results of the resistivity logs run in well Harvey-1 only  
136 as no representative formation water samples could be collected from the well.

137 X-ray tomographic (XCT) images of three of the four samples were acquired using a Toshiba Asteion  
138 medical scanner to evaluate the internal structures and the integrity of the plugs. The processed XCT  
139 images were oriented at the maximum bedding angle within each plug sample and show well developed  
140 sedimentary beds in the three plugs; these are either parallel or slightly inclined to the plugs axes (Figure  
141 2a).

142 Mercury Injection Capillary Pressure curves (MICP) were acquired on cubic offcuts (with side of  
143 approximately 0.7 cm) of three of the core plugs to analyse their pore size distribution. The offcuts were  
144 cut from the core plugs after undergoing the earlier outlined cleaning procedure. The offcuts were  
145 placed in a Micromeritics Autopore IV porosimeter under vacuum and injected with mercury at about  
146 120 increasing capillary pressure steps to a maximum pressure of 413 MPa (equivalent to 2-3 nm pore  
147 throat size).

148 Finally, the sample characterization was completed by low field NMR measurements conducted using  
149 a Maran 2 MHz Ultra-spectrometer (Oxford Instruments Ltd) on three core plugs (206647, 206660 and  
150 206669) before and after flooding experiments to evaluate possible changes in porosity and pore size  
151 distribution induced by the flooding tests. For NMR measurements before the flooding experiments,  
152 the samples were brine saturated under vacuum for 48 hours and then analysed. After the flooding  
153 experiments, the brine saturated samples were reanalysed using the protocol previously applied on the  
154 same samples. Note that samples 206669 and 206655 could not be properly preserved after core  
155 flooding and the post-flood NMR was not recorded for these samples. The difference in mass between  
156 the dry and brine-saturated core-plugs was used to calculate their water-filled porosity (Water  
157 Imbibition Porosity - WIP). Also, assessment of full saturation was made by comparing the WIP to the  
158 helium porosity. Once saturated, the samples were tested in the NMR spectrometer using a Carr–  
159 Purcell–Meiboom–Gill (CPMG) pulse sequence following the protocol described in the literature (e.g.  
160 Dillinger and Esteban, 2014). This spin-echo method records the pore size distribution, similar to

161 mercury porosimetry, using the transverse magnetic relaxation time ( $T_2$ ). In an NMR test the  
162 magnetization and transverse relaxation time ( $T_2$ ) of hydrogen nuclei contained in the pore fluid is  
163 measured. Different pore sizes in fluid saturated rocks will produce characteristic  $T_2$  distributions as the  
164 amplitude of transverse magnetization is proportional to the number of hydrogen nuclei (Dunn et al.,  
165 2002). As a consequence, the observed  $T_2$  distribution of a saturated core sample can be converted into  
166 pore size distribution of the rock using literature data transform from sandstones (Jorand et al., 2011;  
167 Kleinberg et al., 2003a; Kleinberg et al., 2003b). The Maran 2 MHz and the experimental protocol  
168 ensure a resolution of pore body size about 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  assuming that no or little amount of paramagnetic  
169 and ferromagnetic minerals, such as magnetite or metalloids, perturbate the  $T_2$  relaxation (Nicot et al.,  
170 2006).

### 171 **3.2 Core-flood Setup**

172 Table 1 lists the pressure and temperature values used during the experiments; for each sample, the  
173 pressure, temperature and salinity values correspond to those at the depth from which the sample was  
174 recovered. The fluids used during the various stages of this experimental work consisted of deaerated  
175 dead formation brine (i.e. formation brine with no gas content),  $\text{CO}_2$ -saturated brine and water vapour-  
176 saturated sc $\text{CO}_2$ . The  $\text{CO}_2$  gas used was of at least 99.9 mol % purity. Formation brine and  $\text{CO}_2$  were  
177 mutually saturated with each other in a stirred Parr reactor under in-situ conditions. The formation brine  
178 was prepared in the lab using distilled water and appropriate amounts of analytical grade sodium  
179 chloride (NaCl) supplied by Sigma-Aldrich.

180 The experiments were carried out using a high pressure-high temperature, three-phase steady-state core-  
181 flooding apparatus. A schematic of the core-flooding rig is presented in Figure 3. Comprehensive details  
182 on the specifications of the core-flooding apparatus can be found elsewhere (Saeedi, 2012; Saeedi et  
183 al., 2011).

### 184 **3.3 Core-flood Procedure**

185 During the core-flooding experiments a specially designed multi-layered combination sleeve was used.  
186 This combination sleeve was utilised to prevent the diffusion of  $\text{CO}_2$  which normally occurs through

187 most conventional flexible rubber sleeves. A full description of various components of the sleeve is  
188 presented elsewhere (Saeedi et al., 2011). In order to eliminate the effect of gravity segregation (i.e.  
189 underrun or override of the injected fluids) the core-holder containing the sample was placed vertically  
190 so the injection would be performed from the base to the top. In order to apply overburden pressure to  
191 the sample, after loading the wrapped sample into the core-holder, using a hand pump, the overburden  
192 fluid was pumped slowly into the annular space of the core holder.

193 Below is an outline of the steps involved in carrying out the conventional USS core-flooding  
194 experiments. This procedure has been designed based on the standard procedures and protocols  
195 available in the literature (Bennion and Bachu, 2005; Izgec et al., 2008; Perrin and Benson, 2010; Saeedi  
196 et al., 2011).

- 197 1. After loading a sample into the core-holder and gradually increasing the overburden pressure to the  
198 reservoir net effective stress, low pressure CO<sub>2</sub> gas was passed through the sample for at least 20  
199 minutes to displace and replace the air present in the sample's pore space. Compared to air, the  
200 CO<sub>2</sub>, due to its small sized molecules and higher diffusivity (Baker and Low, 2014), could be  
201 evacuated from the sample more effectively when required. Furthermore, any remaining CO<sub>2</sub> after  
202 evacuation would readily dissolve in the saturating dead brine and removed from the sample during  
203 the later in-situ saturation and initial brine permeability measurement process.
- 204 2. After flushing the sample with CO<sub>2</sub>, all the flow-lines and the sample inside the core-holder were  
205 vacuumed using a vacuum pump for at least 24 hours. Then the back pressure was brought to full  
206 in-situ reservoir pressure, and the air bath temperature was raised to the reservoir temperature. Then  
207 the core sample was saturated using dead formation brine while the confining pressure was  
208 increased and then maintained equal to its in-situ reservoir value. The sample was left under  
209 reservoir conditions in contact with brine for another 48 hours to become completely saturated with  
210 dead brine and to establish adsorption equilibrium. The full saturation was confirmed by the  
211 constant pressure reading from the injection pump, which maintained the pore pressure of the core  
212 sample during the above 48 hours. For some of the experimental work where the sample could be  
213 accessed during the saturation with minimum effort (e.g. core saturation for the NMR tests), the

214 volume of injected brine was also tracked from mass intake assuming a brine density of 1.03 g/cc  
215 and compared to pore volume from gas porosity measurements to ensure complete saturation (>  
216 98% in all the tested plugs).

217 3. In the next step, the CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated brine was injected into the core sample at constant flow-rate to  
218 displace the dead formation brine. The CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated brine injection continued until steady-state  
219 conditions were achieved (i.e. constant and steady differential pressure across the sample and  
220 production flow-rate was equal to injection flow-rate).

221 4. Then, the injection of the vapour-saturated scCO<sub>2</sub> began at constant flow-rate (primary drainage  
222 flood). The displacement continued until steady-state conditions were reached. At the conclusion  
223 of this drainage process there was a so called “bump flow” (i.e. a short period of high injection  
224 flow-rate) performed to examine and quantify the existence of any capillary end-effect (Rapoport  
225 and Leas, 1953; Heaviside and Black, 1983; Grigg and Svec, 2006).

226 5. After the conclusion of the primary drainage, the core-sample was subjected to the primary  
227 imbibition flood. CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated brine was injected into the sample at constant flow-rate. The brine  
228 injection continued until the steady-state conditions were achieved.

229 6. In the next step, for two of the experiments, the sample underwent another cycle of drainage-  
230 imbibition floods (secondary drainage and imbibition). For this purpose, steps number 5 and 6 were  
231 repeated again.

232 7. At the conclusion of the experiment, the core-holder was depressurised and the core sample was  
233 removed.

234 It is worth noting that during the procedure outlined above all the injected fluids passed through a 0.5  
235 micron sintered stainless steel line filter before entering the core samples. This was to prevent any  
236 external fines being pushed into the pore space of the samples and potentially block and/or bridge the  
237 samples' pore channels.

## 238 **4 Results**

### 239 **4.1 General characterization**

240 Quantitative mineralogy by X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) indicates quartz and K-feldspar as the main  
241 constituents of these sandstones, with accessory kaolinite (up to 7% in sample 206660) (Table 2).  
242 Furthermore, sample 206660 contained 4% of ankerite, a calcium, iron, magnesium, manganese  
243 carbonate.

244 Table 2 summarizes the petrophysical properties of the pre-flood core-plugs, i.e. mercury porosity,  
245 helium porosities and permeabilities measured at the lowest effective stress (1.72 MPa) and brine  
246 permeability as well as mineralogy as measured by XRD. All the core-plugs displayed comparable  
247 values of porosity but a wider range of helium permeability (from 25 to 532 mD) and brine permeability  
248 (from 4.65 to 238 mD); also there is a good agreement between porosity measured by mercury injection  
249 on small offcuts (Figure 2c) and the values retrieved via He-porosimetry on the full core plugs. On the  
250 other hand, there is a significant difference between the values of He and water permeability. This is  
251 due the well-known Klinkenberg effect which is well described in the literature (Tiab and Donaldson,  
252 2004).

253 Following the definition outlined by Sing et al. (1984), pore sizes can be classified as follows:

- 254 • Micropores: with widths smaller than 2 nm.
- 255 • Mesopores: with widths between 2 and 50 nm.
- 256 • Macropores: with widths larger than 50 nm.

257 MICP results show similar pattern for the three analysed samples (Figure 2b) with a narrow population  
258 of mesopores (cumulatively 2.5 to 3.5 % of the pore volume) while the rest of the pore sizes fall in the  
259 macropores range ( $> 50$  nm); micropores could not be detected in the analysed samples. Samples  
260 206647 and 206669 have a dominant pore population with throat diameter of  $\approx 40$   $\mu\text{m}$ , while sample  
261 206660 has a broad distribution of pores and the largest detected throat size of  $\approx 30$   $\mu\text{m}$  which can  
262 explain its lower permeability with respect to the other samples.

## 263 **4.2 Core flood tests**

264 As indicated earlier, samples 206647 and 206669 underwent successive primary and secondary  
265 drainage and imbibition floods but samples 206655 and 206660 were tested for primary drainage and  
266 imbibition floods only. For all four samples, the end-point residual saturations obtained at the end of  
267 the drainage and imbibition floods are presented in Table 3 along with the corresponding end-point  
268 relative permeabilities for the displacing fluids.

269 Figure 4 shows the brine productions versus pore volumes of scCO<sub>2</sub> injected through the samples for  
270 the primary drainage floods conducted on all four samples. As may be expected, there is considerable  
271 volume of brine produced after scCO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough in the case of sample 206647. This may be  
272 attributed mainly to the high permeability of this sample leading to a more non-uniform or dispersed  
273 displacement (Saeedi et al., 2011; Saeedi, 2012) compared to other samples whose post breakthrough  
274 brine production profiles are comparable. The relative permeability curves corresponding to the above  
275 mentioned brine production profiles for three of the samples are also shown in Figure 5. While the end-  
276 point scCO<sub>2</sub> relative permeabilities for all samples are comparable, the curvature of the plots changes  
277 according to the samples permeabilities (i.e. the higher the permeability the higher the curvature). It is  
278 worth noting that the relative permeability data provided here were calculated using a numerical history  
279 matching technique (Archer and Wong, 1973; Sigmund and McCaffery, 1979; Bennion and Bachu,  
280 2005). Sendra software from PRORES AS, which is based upon a two-phase, 1D black-oil simulation  
281 model together with an automated history matching routine, was used to reconcile time and spatially  
282 dependent experimental data and generate the relative permeabilities. This technique has three primary  
283 advantages over other relative permeability derivation techniques such as the JBN (Johnson, Bossler,  
284 and Naumann): 1. The relative permeability data can be derived directly for the full range of mobile  
285 scCO<sub>2</sub> and brine saturations and there is no need for extrapolation of this data as commonly done in  
286 other techniques such as the JBN, 2. Unlike other techniques such as the JBN where the effect of  
287 capillary pressure is ignored, the technique used here takes into account the effect of capillary pressure  
288 data. If such data is not available, a suitable model can be chosen to be used during the modelling and  
289 history matching procedure, 3. The output relative permeability data are automatically matched using

290 one of the most commonly used relative permeability correlations (e.g. Corey, Sigmund and McCaffery,  
 291 LET, etc.). This facilitates the integration of the derived relative permeability data into a full field  
 292 numerical simulation model.

293 After performing the history matching routine for relative permeability calculation, the model proposed  
 294 by Sigmund and McCaffery (1979) (Equations 1 to 3) was found to closely reproduce the measured  
 295 data. This model was initially developed for interpretation of USS relative permeability measurements  
 296 in heterogeneous cores where viscous–capillary effects are expected to be large and gravity effects are  
 297 expected to be negligible. Thus, the Sigmund and McCaffery model is an ideal tool for interpreting the  
 298 core–flood experiments performed here. Table 4 presents the values of the model parameters which  
 299 resulted in the best match of the lab measured data by the Sigmund and McCaffery (1979) model.

$$k_{rw} = k_{rw}^0 \frac{(S_w^*)^{N_w} + AS_w^*}{1 + A} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

$$k_{rg} = k_{rg}^0 \frac{(1 - S_w^*)^{N_g} + B(1 - S_w^*)}{1 + B} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

$$S_w^* = \frac{S_w - S_{wi}}{1 - S_{wi} - S_{gi}} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

300 where:  $k_{rw}$  and  $k_{rg}$  are the water and gas relative permeabilities at any saturation level.

301  $k_{rw}^0$  and  $k_{rg}^0$  are the end-point (maximum) water and gas relative permeabilities.

302  $S_w^*$  is the normalised water saturation as determined by Eq. 3.

303  $S_{wi}$  and  $S_{gi}$  are the fixed residual water and gas saturations, respectively.

304  $S_w$  is the variable water saturation measured during an USS experiment.

305  $N_w$ ,  $N_g$ ,  $A$  and  $B$  are empirical constants used for the calculation of the relative permeabilities.

306 With regards to the experiments conducted in this work, in the above equations, subscript *w* would refer  
307 to the brine and subscript *g* would refer to scCO<sub>2</sub>.

308 In an attempt to compare the results of the modelling work performed using Sendra with the output of  
309 another widely used numerical simulation software package, for Sample 206655, Eclipse simulation  
310 software (Schlumberger Inc.) was used to perform a core scale numerical simulation. For this task, after  
311 constructing a core scale grid model in Eclipse and populating the model with basic rock and fluid  
312 properties, the relative permeability data derived from Sendra were used as input data to simulate and  
313 generate the brine production and differential pressure profiles. Then a comparison was made between  
314 the experimental pressure and brine production data, which were fed into Sendra in the first place, and  
315 their simulated counterparts. As can be seen from figures 6 and 7, there is a very close agreement  
316 between the two sets of data. The rock and fluid properties used in the core scale model created using  
317 Eclipse are provided in Table 5.

318 Helium porosity and permeability as well as NMR porosity (and computed permeability) measured  
319 before and after core flooding experiments are summarized in Table 6. While porosity, measured by  
320 Helium and NMR, does not seem to be affected by the flooding procedure, permeability values  
321 significantly differ when measured on the same sample before and after flooding. Indeed, for sample  
322 206647, the helium permeability measurement conducted on the post-flood dry sample showed a  
323 reduction of almost 25% compared to that of the pre-flood conditions. Samples 206655, 206660 and  
324 206669 also showed permeability reductions of 60%, 51% and 44%, respectively. Using a classical T<sub>2</sub>  
325 surface relaxivity in sandstones from literature of about 20 μm/s (Marschall et al, 1995; Liu et al., 2014),  
326 the relaxation time T<sub>2</sub> distribution can be transformed into pore diameter distribution (Figure 8)  
327 assuming sphere-model for the pore network topology (Dunn et al., 2002; Sorland et al., 2007) as:

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = \rho \frac{S}{V} \cong \rho \frac{3}{r} \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

328 where *S* and *V* represent the surface and volume of the pore network, *ρ* is the surface relaxivity and *r* is  
329 the pore radius. Therefore, the equation 4 can be re-arranged as:

$$d_{NMR} = 6T_2\rho_{T_2} \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

330 where  $d_{NMR}$  is the pore body diameter (in  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and  $\rho_{T_2}$  is the surface relaxivity of about 20  $\mu\text{m/s}$  for  
331 sandstones.

332 The converted NMR pore size distribution from the  $T_2$  spectra using the equation 5 collected on  
333 samples 206647 and 206660 are shown in Figure 8 before and after flooding. The NMR pore size  
334 distribution and MICP pore throat size distribution (Figure 2a) give the same range of pore size on the  
335 pre-flooded samples with most of the pore size (or pore throat size) between 10 and 100  $\mu\text{m}$  for 206647  
336 and between 1 and 10  $\mu\text{m}$  in 206660. The integrated NMR  $T_2$  spectra curves give porosity values of  
337 about 14 and 15 % for samples 206647 and 206660, respectively, very similar to MICP and helium  
338 porosity data; remarkably the distributions collected in the samples after flooding show significant  
339 difference with respect to those collected before flooding. Specifically, it is observed that in both  
340 samples the curves are shifted towards shorter  $T_2$  relaxation times; assuming a similar surface relaxivity  
341 (i.e. similar mineralogy and surface texture of the mineral in the pre- and post-flood samples), changes  
342 in the NMR  $T_2$  relaxation time distribution in post-flood samples reflect alteration to the pore size  
343 distribution in the samples. In both samples, the larger pores observed at the right end of the spectrum  
344 seem to have disappeared after the flooding tests ( $> 80 \mu\text{m}$  in 206647 and  $> 4 \mu\text{m}$  in 206660) in favour  
345 of a higher relative proportion of medium size pores occurring at  $T_2 = 2 \times 10^5$  and  $10^4$  ms for sample  
346 206647 and 206660, respectively; which correspond after conversion into pore diameter at 30  $\mu\text{m}$  in  
347 206647 and 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$  in 206660 (Figure 8).

## 348 **5 Discussion**

### 349 **5.1 Residual trapping potential of the Lesueur Sandstone**

350 The experimental results presented above provide the first assessment of multi-phase fluid flow  
351 behaviour in the potential reservoir of the South West Hub project, onshore Western Australia. As such,  
352 the relative permeability functions and measured end-point residual saturations can be used to populate  
353 large scale reservoir models to predict  $\text{CO}_2$  injectivity and plume mobility over time. It is worth noting

354 that the flood characteristics of the fluid-rock system (e.g. relative permeabilities) change continuously  
355 during the CO<sub>2</sub>-brine flooding performed in the laboratory. Such changes are induced by the fluid-rock  
356 interactions which occur during such experiments. According to the Darcy's Law, with the occurrence  
357 of such reactions, the concept of relative permeability (which is based on and calculated using the  
358 Darcy's Law) may lose its meaning. Therefore, the application of the data reported in this study and  
359 perhaps other similar studies, is subject to the inherent uncertainties introduced due to the above  
360 mentioned reactions and transient effects.

361 In discussing the results of the core flooding tests, the maximum CO<sub>2</sub> saturation achieved during the  
362 drainage and the trapped saturation after the imbibition floods are referred to as  $S_{max}$  and  $S_t$ , respectively,  
363 following the nomenclature commonly used in the literature (e.g. Burnside and Naylor, 2014) and use  
364 the ratio of  $S_t$  to  $S_{max}$  (i.e.  $R$ ) to assess the fraction of CO<sub>2</sub> immobilised in the pore space of a sample.  
365 These parameters are useful to quantify the residual trapping potential of the Lesueur Sandstone and  
366 help predict its impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> storage security at the reservoir scale.

367 Figure 9 illustrate the relationship between  $S_{max}$  and  $S_t$  obtained on the four samples of Lesueur  
368 Sandstone tested in this study in comparison with experimental data obtained on sandstone samples  
369 from different studies available in the open literature (Bennion and Bachu, 2008; ; Mackay et al., 2010;  
370 Pentland et al., 2011a, b; Shell, 2011; Shi et al., 2011a, b; Krevor et al., 2012; Bachu, 2013). Laboratory  
371 derived values available for sandstone reservoirs show  $S_{max}$  ranging between 0.31 and 0.85 and  $S_t$   
372 between 0.1 and 0.52; the Lesueur Sandstone samples tested in this study show a relatively narrow  
373 range of  $S_{max}$  ( $0.55 < S_{max} < 0.61$ ), while residual CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is more variable ( $0.23 < S_t < 0.44$ ).

374 Finally, the percentage of the residually trapped CO<sub>2</sub> with reference to  $S_{max}$  (i.e.  $R = \frac{S_t}{S_{max}}$ ) ranges  
375 between 41.58 and 73.20 % for the Lesueur Sandstone samples (Table 7) with an average value of 61.02  
376 %, in good agreement with the mean sandstone value of 61 % reported by Burnside and Naylor (2014).

377 The relationship between the maximum and residual saturations of the non-wetting fluid is often  
378 estimated using the empirical trapping model developed by Land (1968) to predict the trapped gas

379 saturation as a function of the initial gas saturation. According to the model, residual saturation can be  
380 calculated as:

$$S_t = \frac{S_{max}}{1 + CS_{max}} \quad \text{Eq. 6}$$

381 Where  $C$  is the trapping coefficient calculated as:

$$C = \frac{1}{S_t} - \frac{1}{S_{max}} \quad \text{Eq. 7}$$

382 It can be seen in Figure 9 that experimental observations of residual trapping of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>  
383 reported in sandstone reservoirs are generally bounded by the Land's trapping coefficient range of 0.2  
384  $< C < 5$  and that the Lesueur Sandstone samples exhibit a range of  $C$  between 0.63 and 2.55 (Table 7).

## 385 **5.2 Fluid-rock interaction and resulting permeability degradation**

386 The characterization analysis conducted on the samples before and after core flooding tests indicate a  
387 significant alteration of some of their petrophysical properties. While the overall porosity remains  
388 almost unchanged, the most evident modifications are seen in a systematic reduction of permeability  
389 (measured by He permeametry) observed on the four samples analysed after flooding (Figure 10 and  
390 Table 6) and in the NMR T<sub>2</sub> spectra collected on the brine saturated samples showing shorter T<sub>2</sub> (i.e.  
391 less movable water) (Figure 8). The observed variations could be attributed to the fluid-rock interactions  
392 occurred during the flooding experiments.

393 Fluid rock interactions during flooding of siliciclastic reservoirs with supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>-  
394 saturated brines can be observed in nature (e.g. Bowker et al., 1991; Emberly et al., 2005; Assayag et  
395 al., 2009) and in laboratory experiments (e.g. Berrezueta et al., 2013; Huq et al., 2014; Pudlo et al.,  
396 2015) with consequences reported on the permeability (Sayegh et al., 1990; Pudlo et al., 2015; Yasahura  
397 et al., 2015) and elastic/mechanical properties of the host rock (Daley et al., 2007; Oikawa et al., 2008;  
398 Zheng et al., 2015; Delle Piane and Sarout, submitted).

399 Injection of carbon dioxide into a brine saturated reservoir will result in the formation of carbonic acid  
400 which, in turn, will likely react with the minerals constituting the porous frame of the rock, inducing  
401 mineral dissolution and/or precipitation. Common reactions within quartz rich sandstone reservoirs  
402 include the dissolution of carbonate and evaporite cements and the dissolution of alkali feldspar and  
403 clay minerals (e.g. Gaus, 2010 and references therein). Mineral dissolution would result in an increase  
404 in porosity which was not observed in our samples indicating that this fluid-rock interaction mechanism  
405 was not dominant at the experimental conditions explored in this study.

406 Alternative mechanisms that could explain the observed decrease in permeability and shift in NMR  
407 spectra are mineral precipitation and particle migration within the pore space of the rocks. Based on the  
408 mineralogy of the Lesueur samples, potential reactive phases identified in all tested samples are K-  
409 feldspar and kaolinite, while the only sample with quantifiable carbonate material was 206660 (see  
410 Table 2). While feldspar reaction rates are rather sluggish at the experimental conditions explored in  
411 this study, clay minerals and carbonates can react with carbonic acid quite rapidly, which can lead to  
412 pore space geometry changes in a relatively short time (e.g. Vialle and Vanorio, 2011; Pudlo et al.,  
413 2015). Clay minerals, in particular, are very susceptible to changes in the surface layer chemistry, and  
414 recent experimental studies pointed out that CO<sub>2</sub> can be adsorbed onto kaolinite (Schaefer et al. 2014)  
415 and that interactions between clay minerals and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> and acidified brines can lead to  
416 detachment and partial removal of inter-granular clay from the rock matrix as a consequence of CO<sub>2</sub>  
417 diffusion within the clay layer structures and related changes in the interlayer electrical forces  
418 (Berrezueta et al., 2013; Wilson et al., 2014).

419 Kaolinite is the one of the clay minerals identified in the Lesueur Sandstone (Olierook et al., 2014) and  
420 is detected by XRD in the samples used for core flooding (Table 2); it occurs as an authigenic phase  
421 showing different habits including fine grained, pore occluding (Figure 11a) and pore bridging (Figure  
422 11b) aggregates; booklets and vermicules growing on quartz grain surfaces (Figure 11c) and euhedral,  
423 well crystallized and coarse grained (Figure 11d). It is evident that even within the same sample,  
424 kaolinite crystals display considerable variation in terms of morphology and size and therefore specific  
425 surface area, a critical parameter dictating the capacity of interactions with pore fluids.

426 Alteration of brine salinity and pH has been shown to modify the electrical charge of kaolinite and cause  
427 repulsive forces leading to dispersion from its aggregate form and mobilization within the pore space,  
428 i.e. fines migration (Lemon et al., 2011; Wilson et al., 2014), which in turn can negatively affect  
429 permeability in sandstone as previously reported for example by Bennion et al. (1992), Kummerow and  
430 Spangenberg (2011), Sell et al. (2013) and Pudlo et al. (2015)

431 The role of fines migration in the permeability reduction of the post-flood samples is further reaffirmed  
432 by the fact that while permeability values of the samples were reduced after undergoing the flooding  
433 procedure, the changes in their porosity values were not appreciable. This is in line with what has been  
434 reported in the literature by other researchers (Morris and Shepperd, 1982; Priisholm et al., 1987;  
435 Hayatdavoudi and Ghalambor, 1996; Musharova et al., 2012). In fact, existence of kaolinite particles  
436 in the pore space of sample 206669 is evident from the Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images  
437 taken from the offcuts of this sample (Figure 11). During the flooding process, these particles could  
438 dislodge and while moving towards the samples downstream could plug and/or bridge the samples pore  
439 throats.

## 440 **6 Summary and Conclusions**

441 Four conventional USS core-flooding experiments were conducted on different core-plugs from the  
442 Wonnerup Member of the Lesueur Formation. The main data generated by the experiments included  
443 residual scCO<sub>2</sub> and brine saturations and relative permeabilities for the drainage and imbibition floods.

444 Overall, the experimental results indicate that significant quantities of CO<sub>2</sub> were trapped in the Lesueur  
445 Sandstone samples by capillary forces, as a result of imbibition under in-situ reservoir conditions. While  
446 the residual scCO<sub>2</sub> saturations obtained were relatively high, they are inversely proportional to the  
447 samples' absolute permeabilities, as one may expect. Initial and residual saturations measured in this  
448 study seem consistent with values published in the literature from sandstones reservoir samples.

449 Once flooded, the samples showed about 25%-60% reduction in permeability while the changes in their  
450 porosity values were almost negligible. The results of all the auxiliary analysis performed point towards  
451 fines migration to be the likely cause of the permeability reductions observed. This phenomenon can

452 have a significant and detrimental effect on CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity, and most likely can affect the near wellbore  
453 region where fluid flow and chemical/physical alteration of the formation brine are maximised.

454

455 Given the petrological and petrophysical nature of the Lesueur Sandstone, it is believed that the results  
456 presented here could be relevant for other sandstone reservoirs with similar mineralogy, being  
457 considered for CO<sub>2</sub> geo-sequestration. A better understanding of the influence of isolated variables (e.g.  
458 fluid pH or salinity) on the magnitude of permeability reduction should be the focus of future research.

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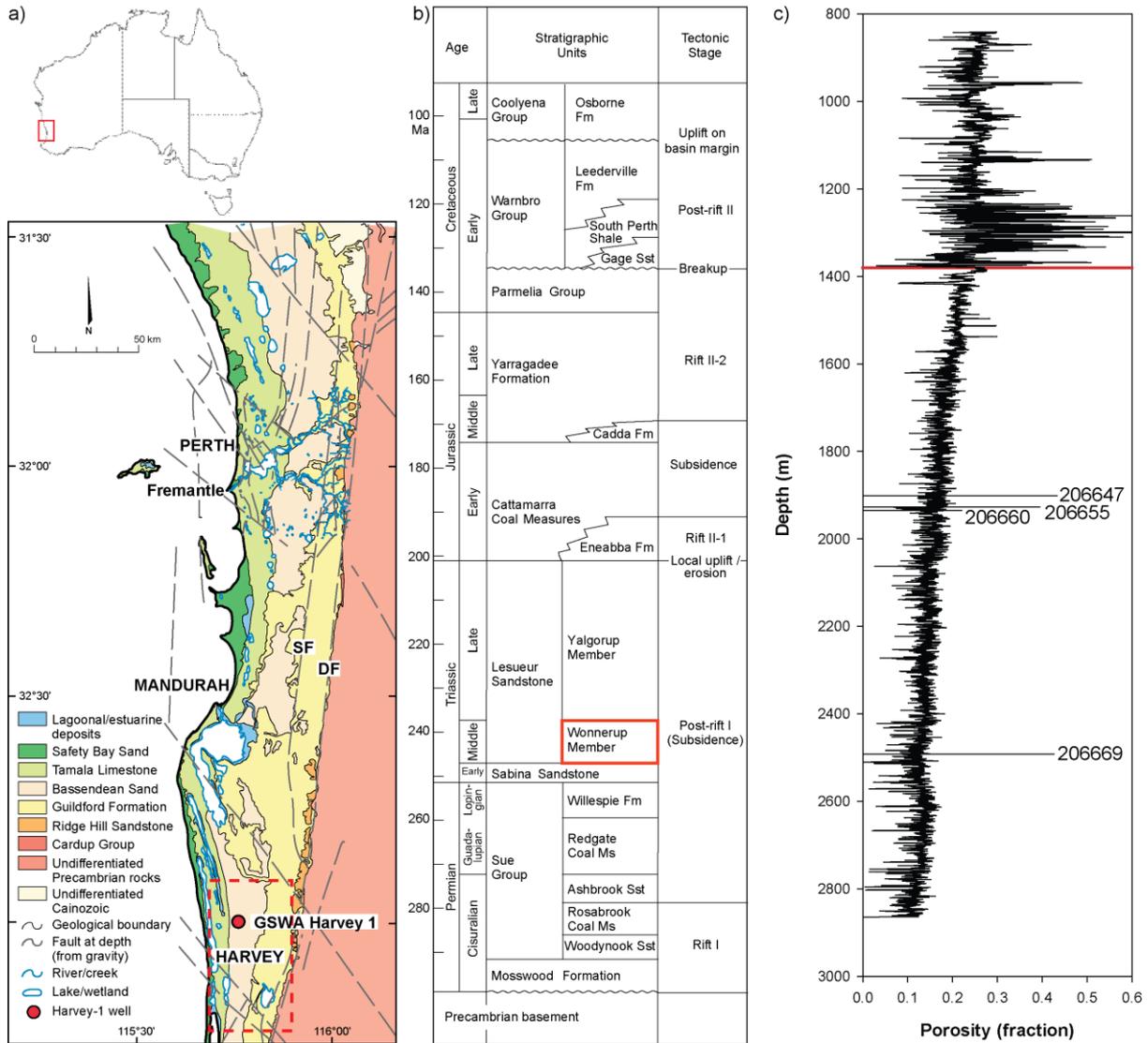
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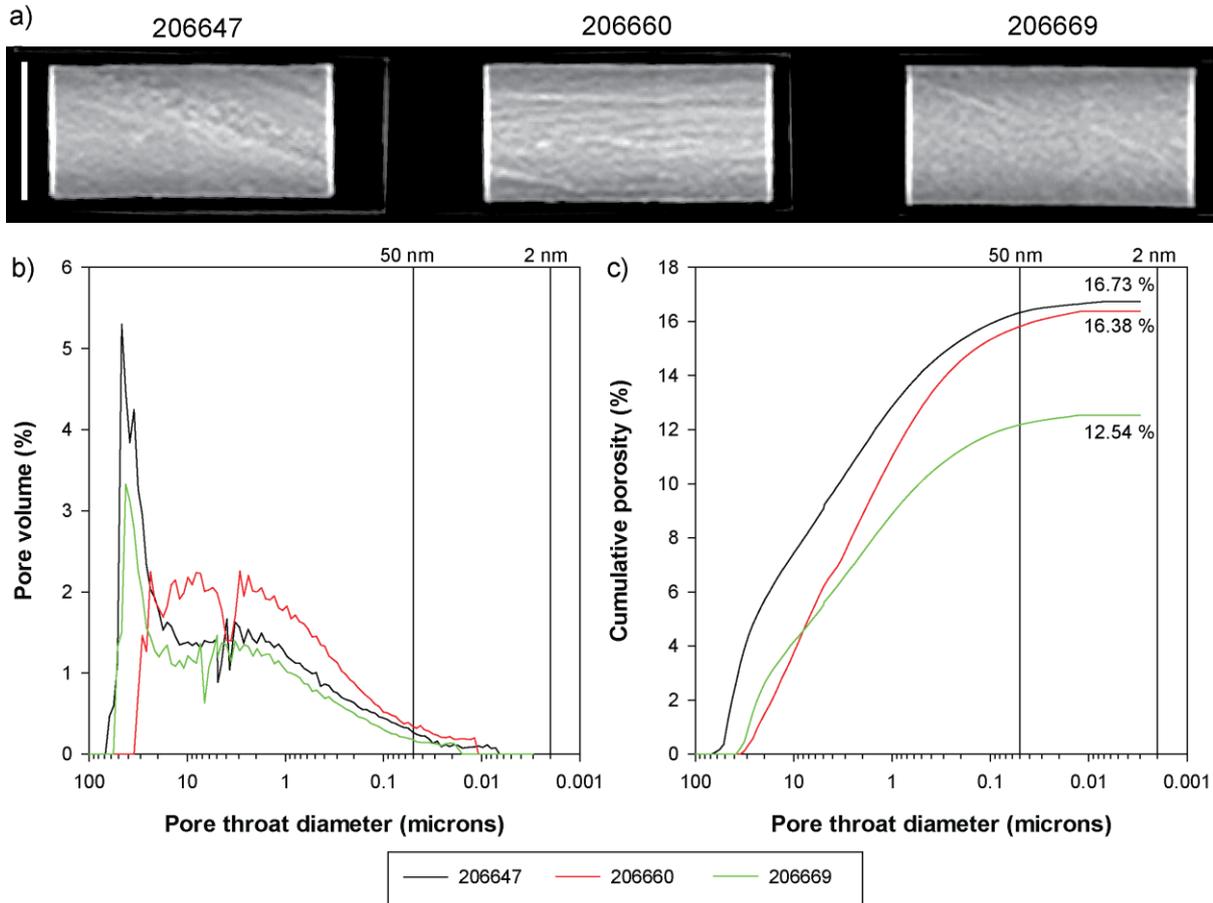
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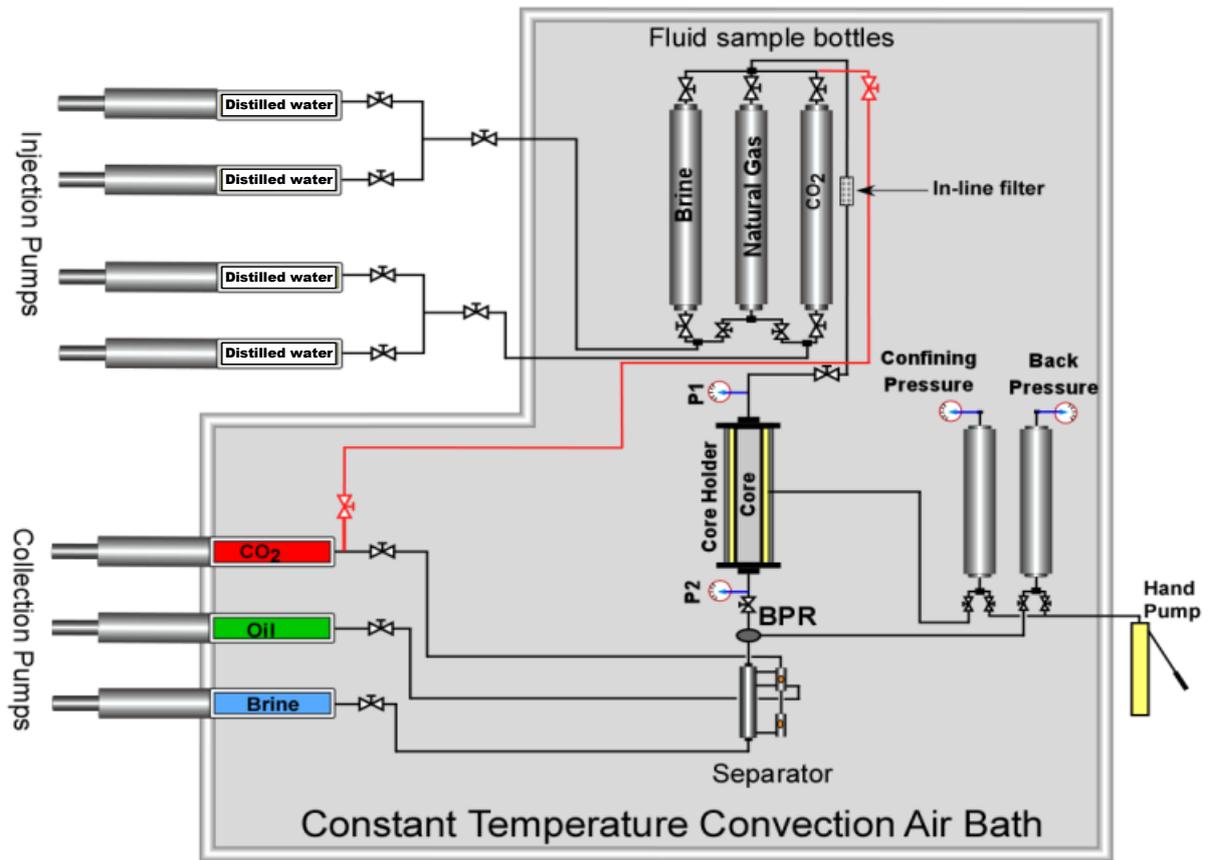


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 689 **Figure 1 (a) Location of the Harvey-1 well and surface geology of the Perth Basin, the red dashed box indicates the**  
 690 **approximate location of the proposed South-West Hub; (b) Stratigraphy of the Central and Southern Perth Basin, the**  
 691 **studied section is highlighted in red (modified after Olierook et al., 2014); (c) wireline log of porosity along the Harvey**  
 692 **1 well: black horizontal lines indicate the depth of each sample used in this study; red horizontal lines marks the**  
 693 **transition between the Wonnerup and the Yalgorup Members of the triassic Lesueur Sandstone**



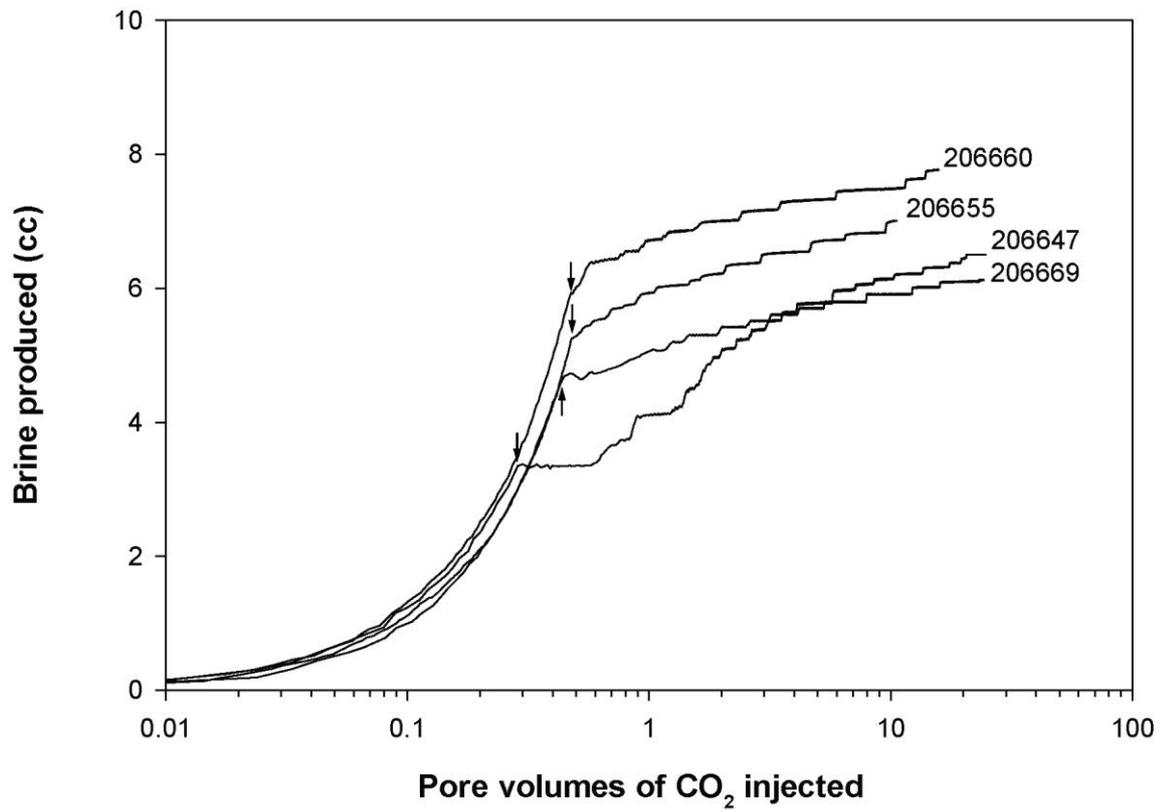
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Figure 2 (a) X-ray CT images of three samples prior to core-flooding tests with their corresponding bulk density. (b) pore size distribution as measured by mercury injection porosimetry on offcuts of the three samples; vertical lines mark the boundaries between micropores (< 2 nm), mesopores (2-50 nm); and macropores (> 50 nm); (c) cumulative porosity as a function of pore throat size as measured by mercury injection.



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Figure 3. The schematic diagram of the experimental apparatus used to run the core-flooding experiments.



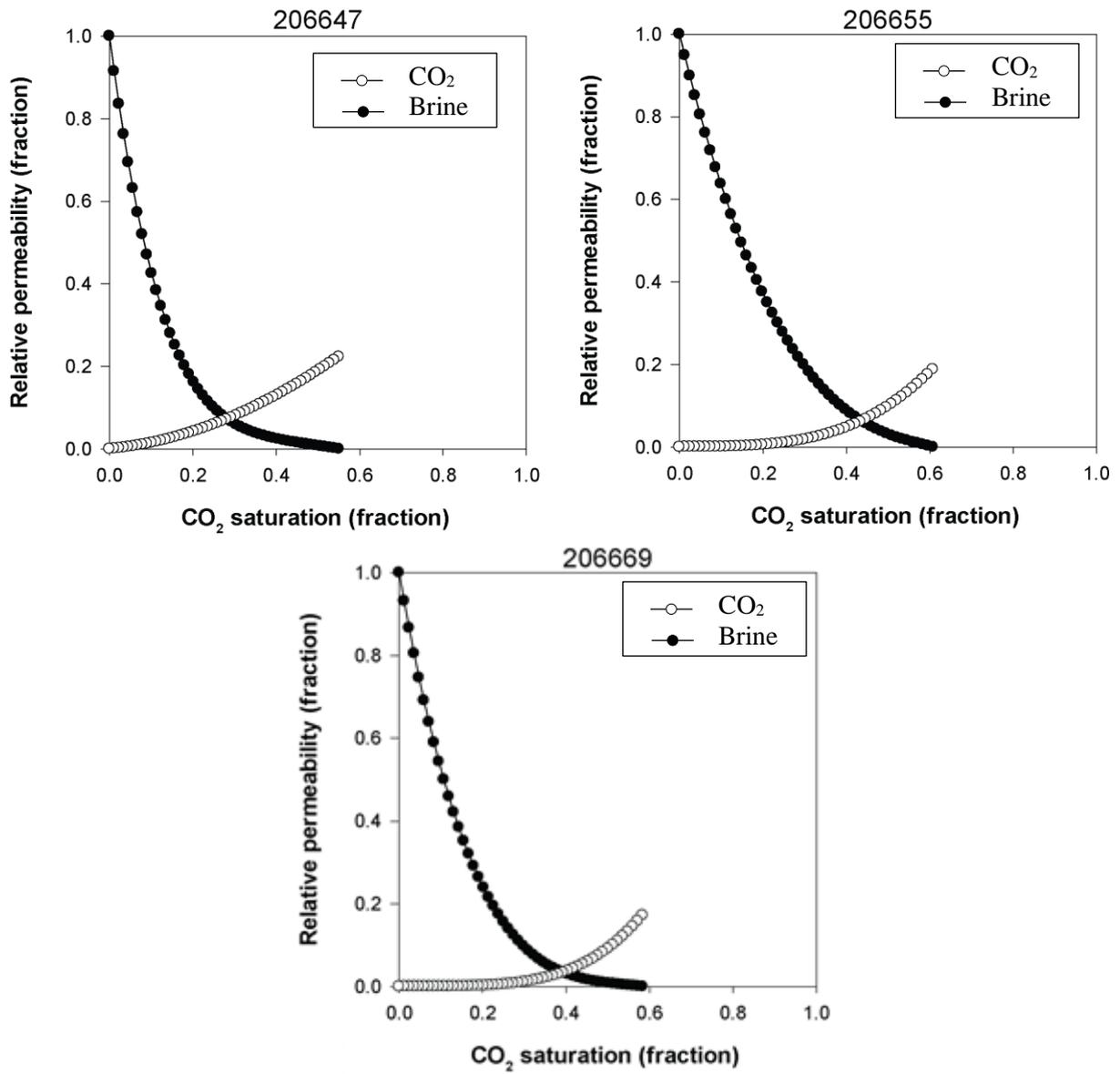
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**Figure 4. Brine production profiles for the primary drainage conducted on three out of the four samples; breakthrough of CO<sub>2</sub> is indicated by the black arrow and corresponds to the change in slope of the production curves.**

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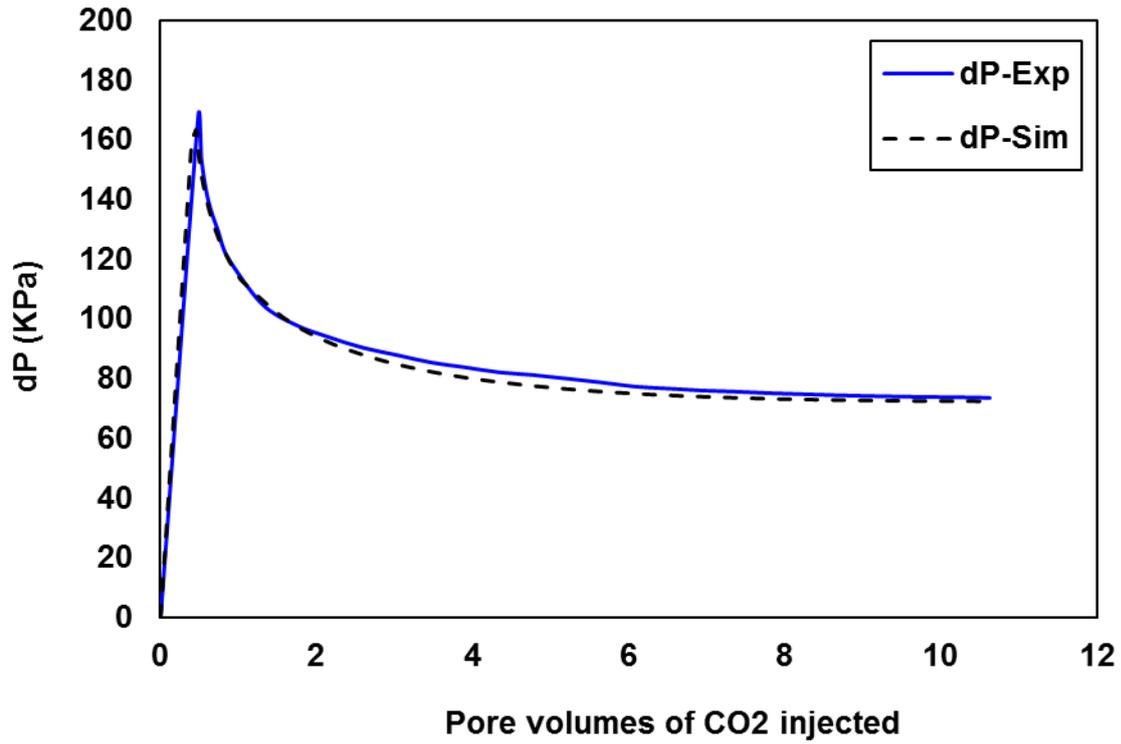
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Figure 5. Relative permeability curves for the primary drainage conducted on the four samples.

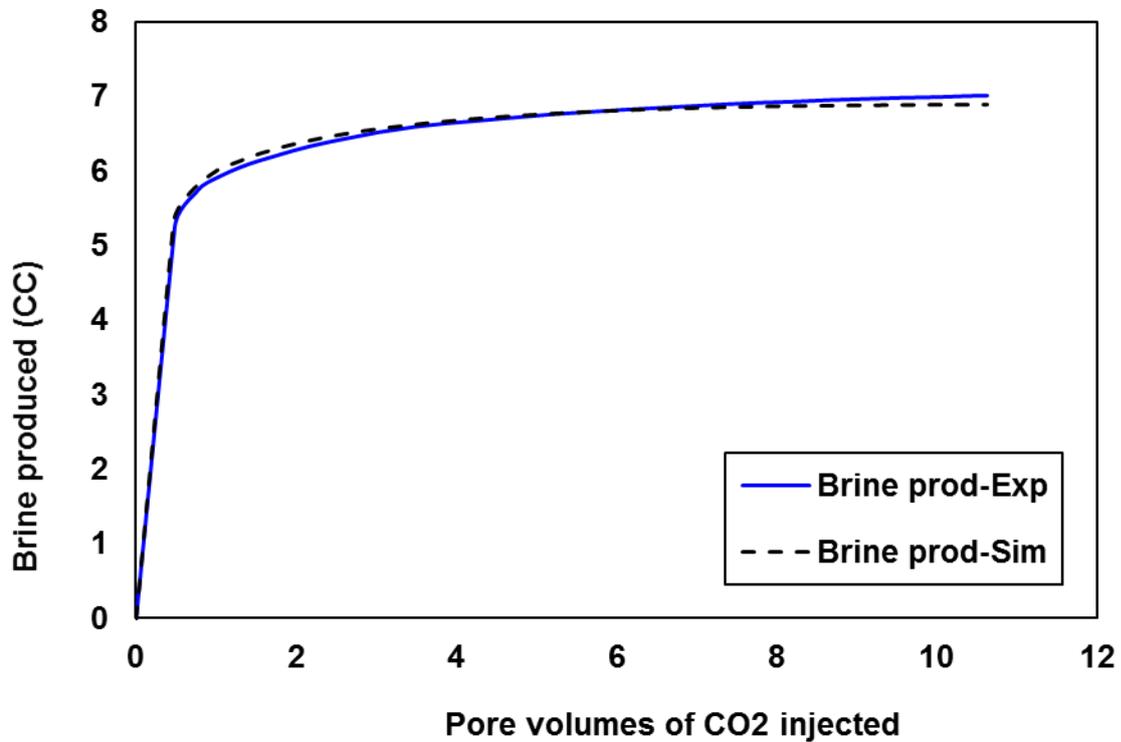
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711 Figure 6. Comparison between the differential pressure profiles for Sample 206655: blue: experimental data (used in  
 712 Sendra software), black: numerical simulation results (Eclipse software (Schlumberger)).

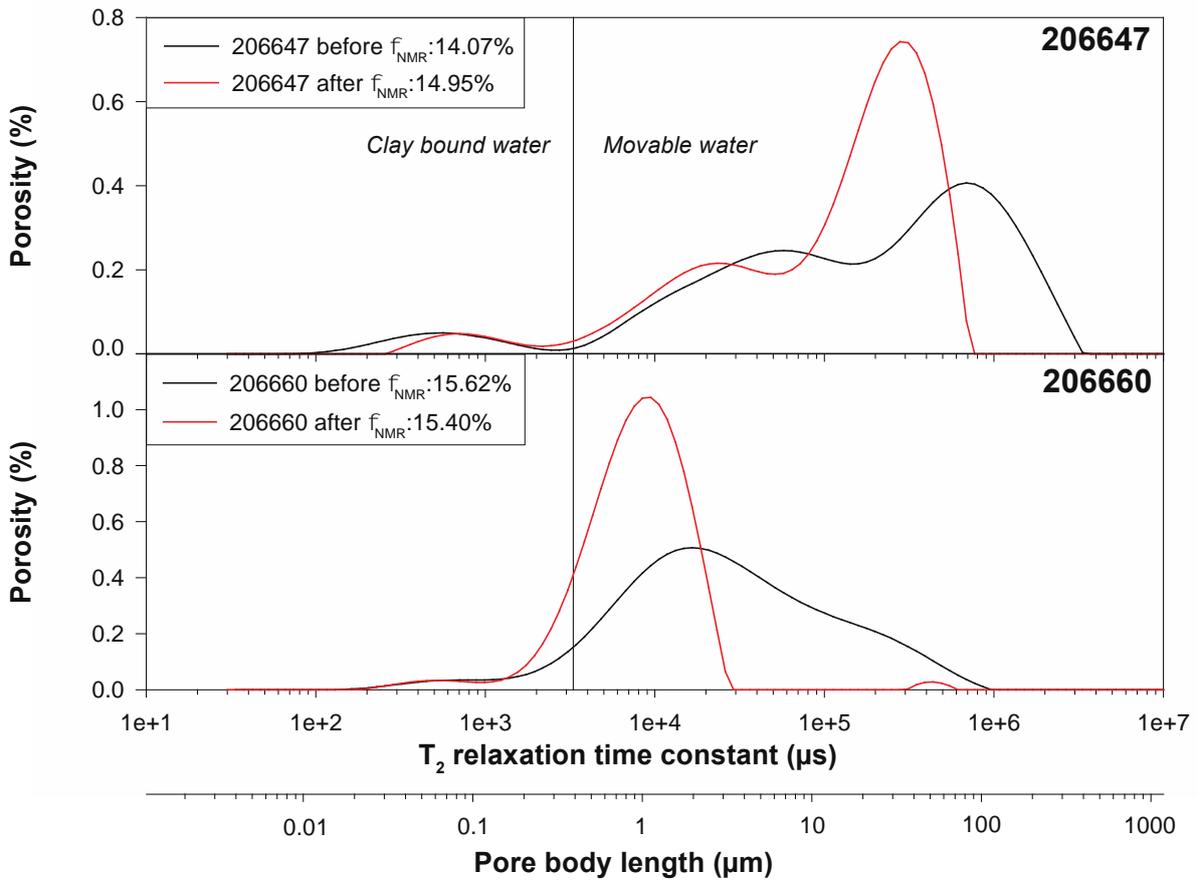
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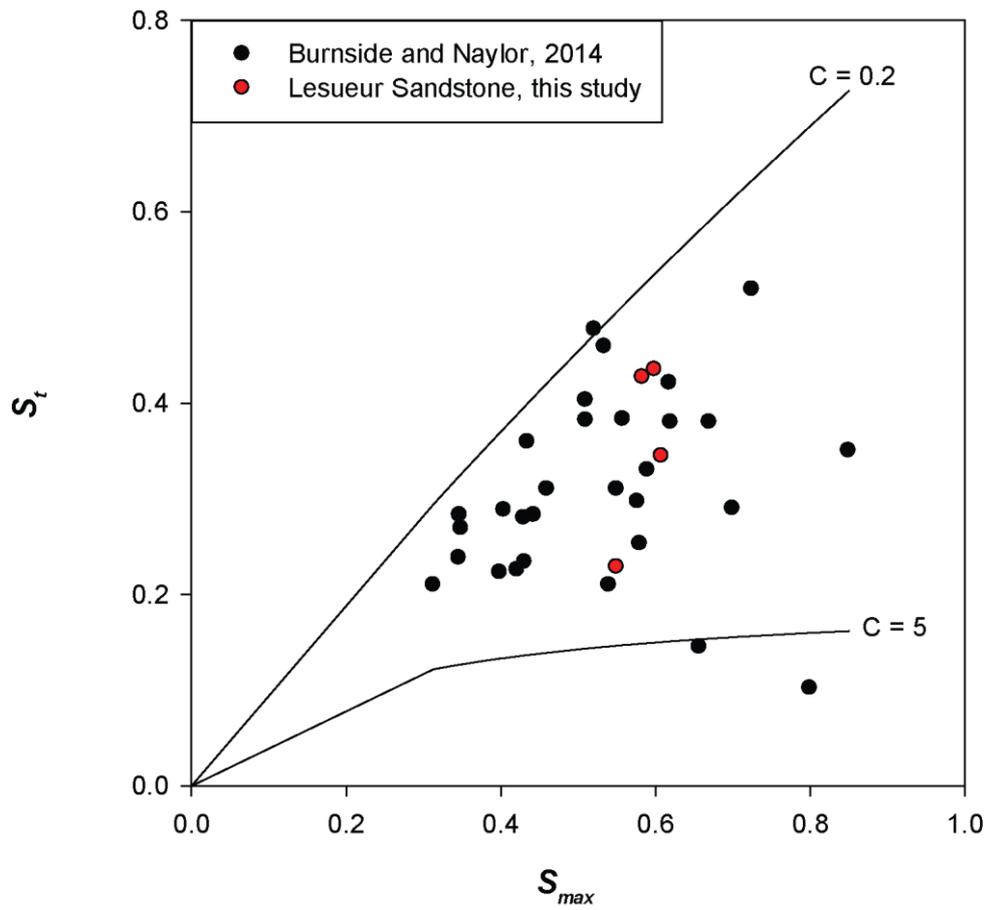
715 Figure 7. Comparison between the brine production profiles for Sample 206655: blue: experimental data (used in  
 716 Sendra software), black: numerical simulation results (Eclipse software (Schlumberger)).

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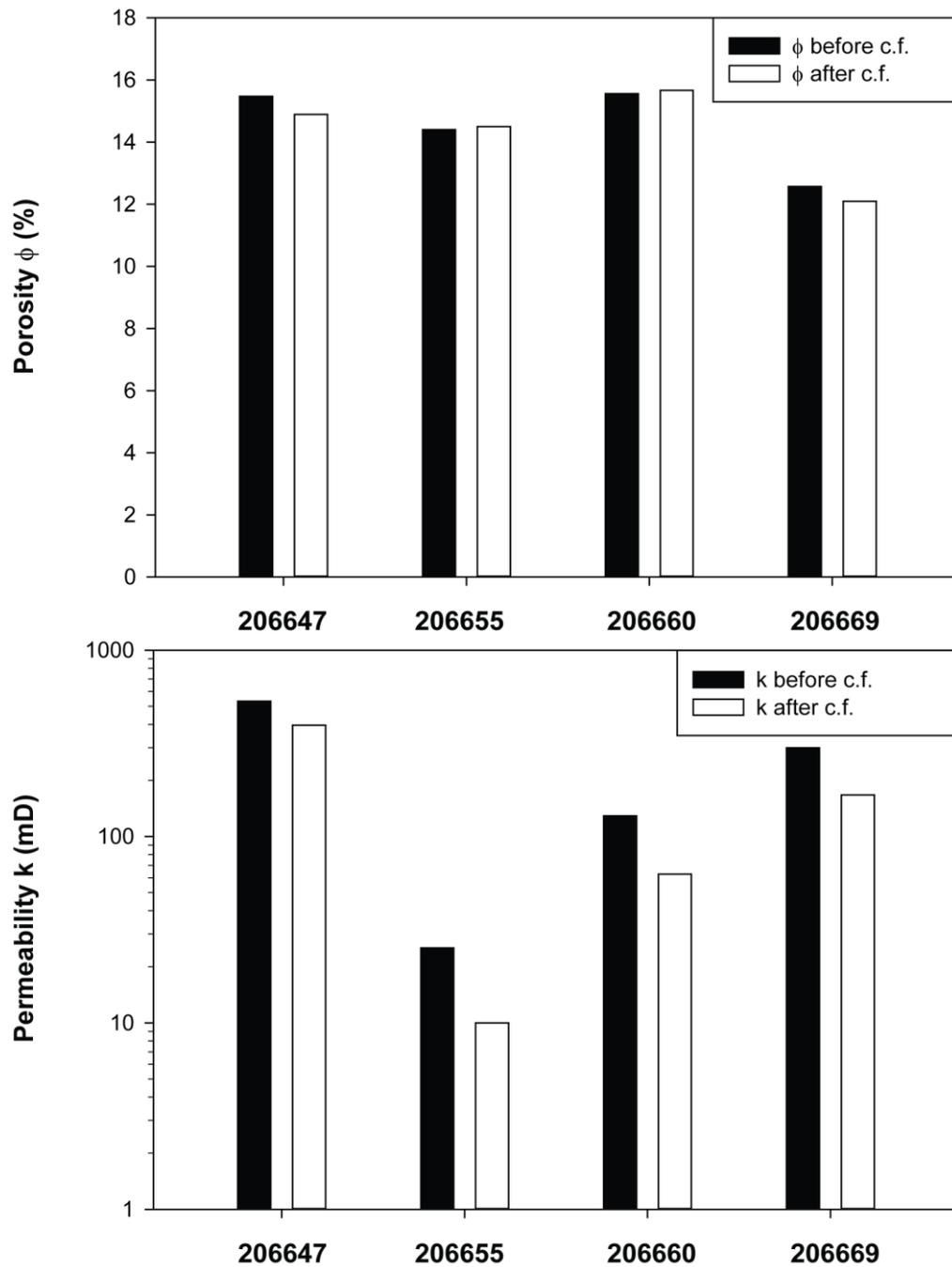
Figure 8. NMR T<sub>2</sub> relaxation time distribution for two samples before and after core-flooding experiments. The total porosity is almost not affected by the flooding tests but the relaxation time curve for the same sample is significantly different..



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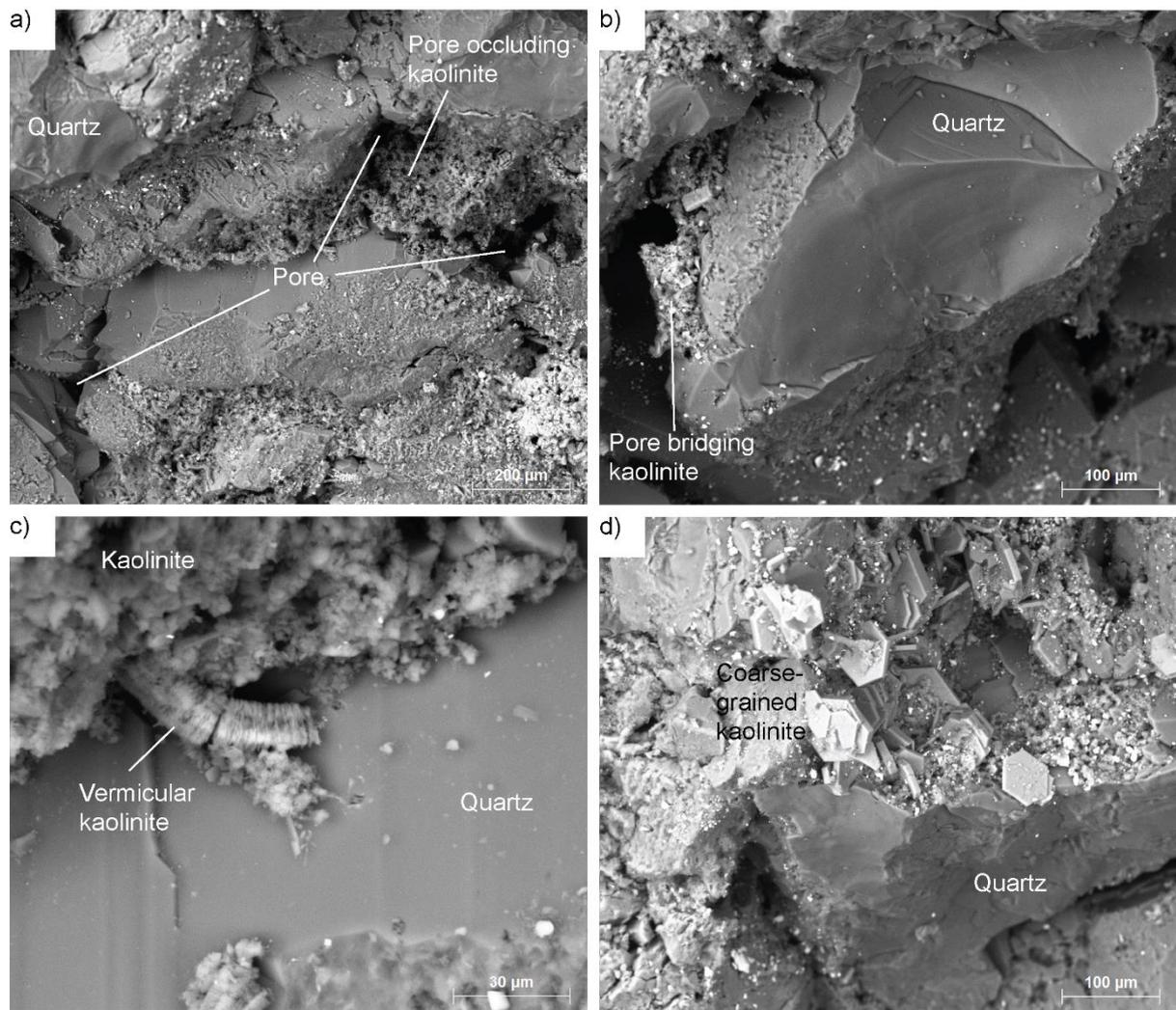
725 **Figure 9. Scatter plot of residual ( $S_r$ ) versus initial CO<sub>2</sub> saturation ( $S_{max}$ ) obtained during core flooding experiments.**  
 726 **Black dots represent sandstone related experimental data available in the open literature synthesised in the review**  
 727 **from Burnside and Naylor, 2014. Continuous lines represent Land's model curves with trapping coefficient (C) of 0.2**  
 728 **and 5.**

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 731 **Figure 10. Porosity (Top) and gas permeability (Bottom) measured using the helium on four core plugs before and after**  
 732 **core flooding experiments. Note that while the variation in porosity is minimal, there is a significant decrease in**  
 733 **permeability of all four sample.**

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736 **Figure 11. SEM images of sample 206669 showing the occurrence of diagenetic, kaolinite (Kaol in the figure) partially**  
 737 **occluding the pores between detrital quartz grains (a); bridging pores between detrital grains (b). (c) vermicular**  
 738 **diagenetic kaolinite growing on a quartz crystal surface. (d) well crystallized coarse-grained kaolinite.**

739

740 **Table 1. Reservoir P-T conditions during the experiment on the four core-plugs.**

Reservoir parameter	Sample ID			
	206647	206647	206660	206669
Depth, m	1,901.6	1,927.0	1,935.5	2,491.6
Pore pressure (MPa)	19.05	19.06	19.39	24.95
Overburden pressure (MPa)	43.02	43.59	43.78	56.36
Reservoir temperature (°C)	60.7	61.0	61.2	69.2
Formation water salinity (ppm NaCl)	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000

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742 **Table 2. Characteristics of the core-plugs used for the experiments and XRD derived mineralogy (in weight %). No**  
 743 **XRD data is available for core-plug 206655. He  $\phi$  = helium porosity; He k = helium permeability; Qz = quartz; K-feld**  
 744 **= K-feldspar; Kaol = kaolinite; Ank = ankerite.**

Sample ID	Depth (m)	He $\phi$ (%)	He k (mD)	Hg $\phi$	Brine k (mD)	Qz	K-feld	Kaol	Ank
206647	1,901.6	15.47	532	16.73	48.0	86	10	4	-
206655	1,927.0	14.33	25		4.65	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
206660	1,935.5	15.56	129	16.38	16.5	77	12	7	4
206669	2,491.6	12.57	299	12.54	238	90	8	2	-

745 **Table 3. End-point residual saturations and relative permeabilities.**

Sample ID	End-point Residual Saturation of the Displaced Fluid, %			End-point Relative permeabilities for the Displacing Fluid, fraction		
	Primary Drainage	Primary Imbibition	Secondary Drainage	Primary Drainage	Primary Imbibition	Secondary Drainage
206647	45.00	22.87	44.22	0.223	0.353	0.230
206655	39.2	43.5	-----	0.188	0.25	-----
206660	40.12	42.71	-----	0.206	0.125	-----
206669	41.65	34.47	41.84	0.172	0.096	0.15

747 **Table 4. Best-fit relative permeability parameters for core-floods fit to the Sigmund and McCaffery (1979) model**

Sample ID	$N_w$	$N_g$	A	B
206647	4.6335	1.9109	0.0895	0.2336
206655	2.8124	3.3497	0.1581	0.0051
206669	3.5880	4.1398	0.0538	0.0018

750 **Table 5. Rock and fluid properties used to construct the numerical model for Sample 206655 in Eclipse.**

Fluid properties		
Fluid	Density, kg/m <sup>3</sup>	Viscosity, Pa.s
scCO <sub>2</sub>	705	0.58 x 10 <sup>-4</sup>
Brine	1010	4.8 x 10 <sup>-4</sup>
Rock properties		
Permeability, mD	Porosity, %	
4.65	14.3	

754 **Table 6. Porosity and permeability measurements on pre- and post-core flooding experiments from the four core-**  
 755 **plugs using helium and NMR methods. He  $\phi$  = Helium porosity; NMR  $\phi$  = NMR porosity; He k = Helium**  
 756 **permeability; b.f. = before flooding; a.f. = after flooding.**

Sample ID	He $\phi$	He $\phi$	NMR $\phi$	NMR $\phi$	He k	He k
	b.f.	a. f.	b. f.	a. f.	b.f.	a. f.
	(%)	(%)	%	(%)	(mD)	(mD)
<b>206647</b>	15.47	15.87	14.07	14.95	532	464
<b>206655</b>	14.33	14.4	-	-	25	10
<b>206660</b>	15.56	16.4	15.62	15.4	129	72
<b>206669</b>	12.57	12.75	11.95	-	299	188

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760 **Table 7. Initial CO<sub>2</sub> saturation ( $S_{max}$ ), residual CO<sub>2</sub> saturation ( $S_t$ ), percentage of residually trapped CO<sub>2</sub> (R) and**  
 761 **Land's trapping coefficient C for the Lesueur Sandstone sample tested in this study**

Sample ID	$S_{max}$	$S_t$	R ( $S_t/S_{max}$ )	C
	(-)	(-)	%	(%)
<b>206647</b>	0.55	0.23	41.58	2.55
<b>206655</b>	0.60	0.44	72.62	0.63
<b>206660</b>	0.58	0.43	73.20	0.63
<b>206669</b>	0.61	0.34	56.69	1.26

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