1 Solid/CO₂ and solid/water interfacial tensions as a function of pressure, temperature,

salinity and mineral type: Implications for CO₂-wettability and CO₂ geo-storage

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Abstract:

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Wettability of CO₂/brine/mineral systems plays a significant role in the underground geological storage of CO₂ as it governs the fluid flow and distribution mechanism within the porous medium. Technically, wettability is influenced by CO₂ pressure, the temperature of the storage formation, formation water salinity and the type of mineral under investigation. Although a growing number of studies report wettability data for CO₂/water/mineral systems, yet the factors responsible for wettability variation with pressure and temperature remain unclear. In this work, we used the concept of surface energy to explain dependency of wettability on pressure, temperature and salinity. Neumann's equation of state approach was used to compute solid/CO₂ and solid/water interfacial energies using reliable contact angle and CO₂/brine interfacial tension data from the literature at a wide range of operating conditions for quartz, water-wet mica, oil-wet mica and high, medium and low-rank coals. Moreover, the allimportant question that why different minerals offer different wettability to CO₂/water systems at the same pressure and temperature of investigation is addressed by comparing the interfacial energies of the minerals. We found that for all minerals solid/CO₂ interfacial energy decreased with pressure and increased with temperature, and solid/water interfacial energy decreased with temperature except for quartz for which solid/water interfacial energy increased with temperature. Furthermore, the solid/CO2 interfacial energy was lowest for the oil-wet mica

34 surface and highest for quartz which is due to higher hydrophobicity of oil-wet mica surface.

The results of the study lead to a better understanding of the wetting phenomenon at the

CO₂/brine/mineral interface and thus contribute towards the better evaluation of geological

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1. Introduction

Carbon capture and storage in depleted hydrocarbon reservoirs or deep saline aquifers contributes significantly towards the reduction of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2005). CO2 is also injected into subsurface reservoirs for enhanced oil and gas recovery (e.g. Blunt et al., 1993; Iglauer et al., 2013, 2016; Lackner, 2003). In this context the wettability of CO₂-brine-mineral systems plays a crucial role in deciding the fate of the injected CO2 within the geological formation (Iglauer et al., 2015a). The existing literature has reported experimental CO₂-wettability data as a function of pressure, temperature and salinity for rock forming minerals such as quartz (Al-Yaseri et al., 2016a; Saraji et al., 2014; Sarmadiyaleh et al., 2015), mica (Arif et al., 2016a, b; Broseta et al., 2012; Chiquet et al., 2007) and coals (Arif et al., 2016c; Shojai Kaveh et al., 2012; Siemons et al., 2006). Further, molecular dynamics simulations also computed contact angles for CO₂brine-quartz systems (Chen et al., 2015; Iglauer et al., 2012; Javanbakht et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2010; McCaughan et al., 2013). However, no significant attention has been given to evaluate the factors which are responsible for wettability variation with pressure, temperature and salinity despite the variations in trends observed in studies on CO₂ wettability of minerals (e.g. θ increased in temperature for quartz/CO₂/brine, Al-Yaseri et al., 2016a and decreased with temperature for mica/CO₂/brine and coal/CO₂/brine systems, Arif et al., 2016a.c).

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Recently, a few studies attempted to explain the factors responsible for wettability variation. For instance, Al-Yaseri et al. (2016b) reported that wettability of quartz/gas/brine systems is a strong function of gas density and a mathematical correlation was developed to determine contact angles from gas densities. However, the methodology was applicable to a limited set of operating conditions only. Roshan et al. (2016) developed a physical model based the concept of the diffuse double layer to provide a theoretical framework for changes observed in wettability as a function of pressure, temperature and salinity and found that wettability is strongly related to CO₂/water interfacial tensions and density changes. Ameri et al. (2013) computed sandstone/CO₂ interfacial tension as a function of pressure using Neumann's equation of state (Neumann et al., 1974) and found that the solid/CO₂ interfacial tension

decreased with pressure and they formulated that such change in solid surface energy is responsible for wettability changes. Nevertheless, the factors responsible for wettability variation with pressure, temperature and salinity remain unclear and require further attention. Theoretically, it is well-established that the contact angle is a function of the interplay of the three interfacial tensions (solid/CO₂, solid/brine and brine/CO₂) as related by Young-Laplace equation below:

$$cos\theta = \frac{\gamma_{sc} - \gamma_{sw}}{\gamma_{cw}} \tag{1}$$

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In equation (1), γ_{sc} , γ_{sw} and γ_{cw} denote solid/CO₂, solid/water and CO₂/water interfacial tensions respectively. To assess the wettability dependence on these interfacial interactions, the quantification of the three interfacial tensions (γ_{sc} , γ_{sw} and γ_{cw}) is essential. In this context, CO_2 /water interfacial tensions (γ_{cw}) can be determined experimentally (many studies reported this data e.g. Arif et al., 2016a; Li et al., 2012; Lun et al., 2012), however, an independent experimental measurement of solid/fluid interfacial tension is not possible because a solid interface is very different from a fluid-fluid interface due to absence of mobility (Li and Neumann, 1992). Consequently, the use of numerical/empirical techniques such as Neumann's equation of state becomes essential (Neumann et al., 1974). They applied this method to compute surface energies of low energy polymers (Neumann et al., 1974, Kwok and Neumann, 1999). We, thus, extend the use of Neumann's equation of state to compute mineral/CO₂ and mineral/water interfacial tensions as a function of pressure, temperature, salinity and mineral type. Essentially, three important issues are addressed in this work: 1) Computation of surface energy of solid/CO₂ and solid/brine as a function of pressure, temperature and salinity, 2) How these computed interfacial tensions explain the dependence of wettability on pressure, temperature and salinity and 3) To answer a very important question, i.e. why different minerals exhibit different wettability at the same operating conditions. In this context, we used advancing and receding contact angle (θ_a and θ_r respectively) data for CO₂/brine systems for quartz (from Al-Yaseri et al., 2016a), water-wet mica (from Arif et al., 2016a; and the mica chosen is muscovite mica), oil-wet mica (from Arif et al., 2016b) and coal (from Arif et al., 2016c) at a wide range of operating conditions and computed mineral/CO₂ and mineral/water interfacial tensions and analysed the associated trends. Our results depict that mineral/CO₂ interfacial tension decreased with pressure and increased with temperature for all minerals. However, mineral/water interfacial tension decreased with temperature for mica and coals but increased with temperature for quartz. The computed data in this paper can also be used to estimate contact angle from Young's equation at any pressure, temperature and salinity using known values of surface energies. Finally, we conclude that the quantification of surface energies is not only helpful in understanding the CO₂/solid interactions but also adequately explain the factors influencing wettability and thus considerably improve the understanding of geological storage processes and provide independent estimates for surface energies for various other engineering applications.

2. Methodology

We used the equation of state approach by Neumann (Neumann et al., 1974) to compute mineral/CO₂ and mineral/water surface energies for a wide range of operating conditions for quartz, water-wet mica, oil-wet mica, and coals of high, medium and low ranks. Following sections describe the methodology in detail.

2.1. Contact angle data

We selected the water advancing and receding contact angle (θ_a and θ_r) data from our previous publications (quartz: from Al-Yaseri et al., 2016a, water-wet mica from Arif et al., 2016a, and oil-wet mica from Arif et al., 2016b; high, medium and low rank coals: from Arif et al., 2016c; Table 1). Surface energy calculations require equilibrium contact angles (see detail in section 2.2 below); these have been computed from Tadmor's empirical method (Tadmor, 2004, Table 2). Tadmor's correlation allows the calculation of equilibrium contact angles using the corresponding values of advancing and receding contact angles. The equations are as follows:

$$\theta_e = \arccos\left(\frac{\Gamma_{\rm A}\cos\theta_A + \Gamma_{\rm R}\cos\theta_R}{\Gamma_{\rm A} + \Gamma_{\rm R}}\right) \tag{2}$$

In equation (2), θ_e is the equilibrium contact angle while θ_A and θ_R are the advancing and receding contact angles respectively, whereas, Γ_R and Γ_A are defined as follows:

$$\Gamma_{R} = \left(\frac{\sin^3 \theta_R}{2 - 3\cos \theta_R + \cos^3 \theta_R}\right)^{1/3} \tag{3}$$

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$$\Gamma_{A} = \left(\frac{\sin^{3}\theta_{A}}{2 - 3\cos\theta_{A} + \cos^{3}\theta_{A}}\right)^{1/3} \tag{4}$$

Neumann et al.'s equation of state approach also requires CO_2 /water interfacial tension data which was taken from Sarmadivaleh et al. (2015) and CO_2 /brine interfacial tension was taken from Arif et al. (2016a), Table 3.

Table 1: Contact angle data for CO₂-deionized (DI) water systems for minerals investigated in this study.

		Qu	artz	Wate	er-wet	Oil-	wet	High	rank	Med	lium	Low	rank
Temperature	Pressure			mi	ica	mi	ca	cc	al	rank	coal	co	al
(K)	(MPa)	θ_a	$\theta_{\rm r}$										
		(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)	(°)
	0.1	0	0	10	5	90	65	37	30	32	25	43	32
	5	15	11	33	25	125	107	94	80	77	63	75	60
308*	10	23	17	55	50	148	128	140	126	127	115	103	87
	15	30	20	71	63	170	159	146	134	128	118	112	96
	20	37	23	80	72	172	160	151	139	137	121	122	110
	0.1	0	0	4	0	74	64	51	45	28	22	38	27
	5	19	13	30	24	118	102	89	79	69	49	50	42
323	10	30	25	48	40	143	125	129	114	108	98	94	78
	15	38	28	59	54	170	157	136	123	114	102	102	91
	20	42	35	70	62	170	158	141	129	122	112	116	107
	0.1	0	0	0	0	73	65	58	53	18	12	27	18
	5	22	19	27	22	99	82	86	74	48	33	45	36
343	10	42	30	43	36	108	91	109	97	95	85	92	77
	15	45	38	52	48	128	110	119	111	102	89	102	87
	20	50	42	62	53	156	134	125	114	113	95	110	97

*contact angles are interpolated at 308 K for quartz

Table 2: Equilibrium contact angles for all minerals calculated using Tadmor's correlation.

Temperature	Pressure	Equilibrium contact angle θ _e (°)						
	(MPa)	Quartz	Water-wet	Oil-wet	High rank	Medium	Low rank	
			mica	mica	coal	rank coal	coal	
308	0.1	0	6	74.1	33.3	28.2	36.9	
	5	12.9	28.7	112.8	85.8	69	66.4	
	10	19.8	52.4	131.8	130	119	93.2	

	15	24.2	66.7	159.9	137	122	102
	20	29	75.7	160.5	142	126	115
	0.1	0	2	68.49	47.8	24.8	31.9
	5	15.7	26.8	107.7	83.4	57.1	45.7
323	10	27.4	43.7	129.3	119	102	84.4
	15	32.5	56.4	157.8	127	107	95.6
	20	38.3	65.7	158.8	133	116	111
	0.1	0	0.5	68.67	55.4	14.7	22
343	5	20.4	24.3	88.62	79.2	39.4	40.1
	10	35.3	39.3	97.35	102	89.3	83.1
	15	41.3	49.9	115.6	114	94.3	92.9
	20	45.7	57.1	136.6	118	101	102

Table 3: CO₂/DI-water and CO₂/brine interfacial tension data used.

Temperature	Pressure	CO ₂ /DI-water IFT ^a	CO ₂ /brine* IFT ^b
(K)	(MPa)	(mN/m)	(mN/m)
	0.1	75.8	72.9
	5	40.2	50.1
308	10	28.4	38.2
	15	22.7	33.9
	20	21.0	32.3
	0.1	73.1	72.0
	5	49	55.3
323	10	35.5	42.6
	15	29	38.7
	20	26	36.0
	0.1	65	69.2
	5	52.18	57.7
343	10	43	44.8
	15	34.5	39.7
	20	27	37.7

^a experimental data from Sarmadivaleh et al. (2015), values interpolated at 308 K and 323 K

^b experimental data from Arif et al. (2016a)

*20wt% NaCl in DI water

2.2. Surface free energy computation

The surface free energy of solids has been investigated by a growing number of studies (e.g. Ameri et al., 2013; Dickson et al., 2006; Kwok and Neumann, 2000; Zenkiewicz, 2007) as it is of great practical significance for many engineering applications including catalysis, coatings, flotation, printing and polymer sciences (Zenkiewicz, 2007). The most common approaches include the Zisman method (Fox and Zisman, 1952), the Fowkes method (Fowkes, 1964), the geometric-mean approach (Owens and Wendt, 1969), the harmonic-mean approach (Wu, 1971), the equation of state approach or Neumann's method (Neumann et al., 1974) and the acid-base approach or van Oss-Good method (van Oss et al., 1986). We chose Neumann's equation of state method because of convenience in its application as it requires the knowledge of experimental contact angle, θ , and CO_2 /water interfacial tension (γ_{cw}) data for which reliable data is available.

Thermodynamically, solid/CO₂, solid/water and CO₂/water interfacial tensions (γ_{sc} , γ_{sw} and γ_{cw}) are interrelated by an equation of state (Neumann et al., 1974), such that:

$$\gamma_{SW} = f(\gamma_{SC}, \gamma_{CW}) \tag{5}$$

Neumann et al. (1974) used the hypothesis that the free energy of adhesion per unit area of a solid-liquid pair is equal to the work required to separate a unit area of solid-liquid interface and that free adhesion energy was proposed to be equal to the geometric mean of the solid cohesion work and the liquid cohesion work. These geometric means were combined so that equation (6) resulted (for a complete derivation the reader is referred to Ameri et al., 2013).

$$\gamma_{sw} = \gamma_{sc} + \gamma_{cw} - 2\sqrt{\gamma_{cw}\gamma_{sc}} \left[1 - \beta(\gamma_{cw} - \gamma_{sc})^2\right]$$
 (6)

The equation (7) below was then derived by Ameri et al., (2013) to find an expression for γ_{sc} instead of γ_{sw} as shown:

$$\gamma_{sc} = \gamma_{sw} + \gamma_{cw} - 2\sqrt{\gamma_{cw}\gamma_{sw}} \left[1 - \beta(\gamma_{cw} - \gamma_{sw})^2\right]$$
 (7)

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'B' is a constant which is related to the fit of the original experimental data (Neumann et al., 186 1974) to the model and in the present case it can be determined by non-linear regression of contact angle (θ) and CO₂/water interfacial tension data (γ_{cw}) as further explained below. 187

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189 Combining Eq. (1) and (7), one obtains:

$$\cos \theta_e = 1 - 2 \sqrt{\frac{\gamma_{sw}}{\gamma_{cw}}} \left[1 - \beta (\gamma_{cw} - \gamma_{sw})^2 \right]$$
 (8)

Ameri et al., (2013) applied equation (7) and (8) to determine solid/CO₂ interfacial tension of oil-wet Bentheimer sandstone as a function of pressure and they reported the corresponding values of solid/liquid interfacial tension derived by non-linear regression. To account for a systematic evaluation of wettability dependence on pressure, temperature and salinity, we express equations (7) and (8) to clearly demonstrate that these are functions of pressure, temperature and salinity:

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$$\gamma_{sc(P,T,S)} = \gamma_{sw(T,S)} + \gamma_{cw(P,T,S)} - 2\sqrt{\gamma_{cw(P,T,S)}\gamma_{sw(T,S)}} \left[1 - \beta \left(\gamma_{cw(P,T,S)} - \gamma_{sw(T,S)} \right)^2 \right]$$
(9)

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$$\cos \theta_{e(P,T,S)} = 1 - 2 \sqrt{\frac{\gamma_{sw(T,S)}}{\gamma_{cw(P,T,S)}}} \left[1 - \beta \left(\gamma_{cw(P,T,S)} - \gamma_{sw(T,S)} \right)^2 \right]$$
 (10)

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The scripts P, T and S refer to pressure, temperature and salinity, respectively, and are added to the interfacial energy terms to elucidate their dependence on them. It is notable that γ_{sw} is dependent on temperature and salinity but not on pressure (Ameri et al., 2013; Neumann et al., 1974). This is the basic assumption of the Neumann's equation of state.

Our computations begin with input data acquisition which includes a) advancing and receding contact angle data for quartz (Al-Yaseri et al., 2016a), water-wet mica (Arif et al., 2016a), oilwet mica (Arif et al., 2016b) and coals of high medium and low ranks (Arif et al., 2016c) listed in Table 1, and b) CO_2 /water interfacial data (Sarmadivaleh et al., 2015), listed in Table 3. Then, $cos\theta_e$ (cosine of the equilibrium contact angle) is calculated using advancing and receding contact angle data for all cases analysed (results in Table 2). In the next step, $\gamma_{sw}(T)$ and the constant ' β ' are determined by least squares fitting of the $cos\theta_e$ and γ_{cw} data. To accomplish this, $cos\theta_e$ is first calculated by using equation (10) for any trial values of $\gamma_{sw}(T)$ and ' β ' and is plotted against γ_{cw} (this data is referred as model data). Moreover, the experimental $cos\theta_e$ (Table 2) is also plotted against γ_{cw} (such a plot is shown in Figure 1 for all minerals analysed at 343 K), the regression analysis of these data-sets yield final values of $\gamma_{sw}(T)$ and ' β ' corresponding to the best-fit (note: such plots are created at all three analysis temperatures and for all minerals, and directly provide values of $\gamma_{sw}(T)$ as a function of temperature). Finally, using these calculated values, solid/ CO_2 interfacial tension is computed using equation (9) as a function of pressure, temperature, salinity and type of the mineral.

2.3. Regression fit of data

As a first step, $\cos\theta_{\rm e}$ (experimental) is plotted against γ_{cw} and on the same plot $\cos\theta_{\rm e}$ (calculated using equation 10 for arbitrary values of γ_{sw} and ' β ') is also plotted against γ_{cw} . Such plots are constructed corresponding for each temperature and for all five cases analysed. An example is shown in Figure 1, where, for simplicity, only a temperature of 343 K is shown, but for all five minerals investigated. The model and experimental data are in a good agreement, however the model predictions are sensitive to CO_2 /water interfacial tension values and thus reliable CO_2 /interfacial tension input is required for reliable modelling of solid/fluid interfacial tensions.

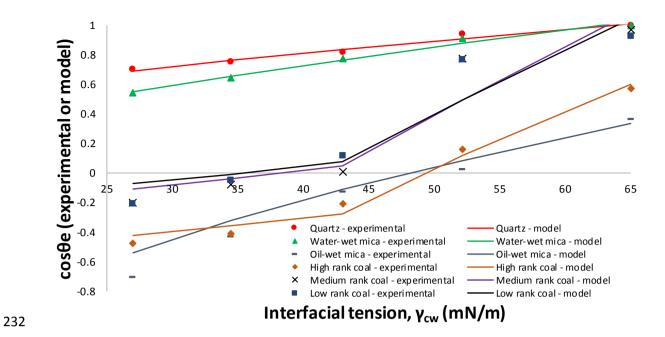


Figure 1: Regression fit of experimental and model data for all minerals investigated at 343 K.

The R²-values, fitting parameters ' β ' and γ_{sw} were computed for each case from the regression fits and the results are tabulated in Table 4. The standard deviations in experimental contact angle and interfacial tension data used were $\pm 3^{\circ}$ and ± 3 mN/m respectively.

Table 4: Results obtained from regression fit of the experimental and model data.

Case	Temperature (K)	\mathbb{R}^2	β	γ _{sw} (mN/m)
Quartz	308	0.898	0.000205	0.058
	323	0.943	0.000219	0.284
	343	0.988	0.0002524	0.952
Water-wet mica	308	0.899	0.00022	2.178
	323	0.935	0.00023	2.048
	343	0.992	0.00027	1.98
Oil-wet mica	308	0.9857	0.000166	20.19
	323	0.988	0.00022	25.47
	343	0.92	0.000145	16.53
High rank coal	308	0.9778	0.00033	20.25
	323	0.952	0.00028	19.23

	343	0.944	0.00021	15.37
Medium rank coal	308	0.994	0.00031	16.17
	323	0.974	0.0003	13.87
	343	0.93	0.00034	10.81
Low rank coal	308	0.989	0.00022	11.22
	323	0.954	0.0003	10.38
	343	0.946	0.00032	10.12

3. Results and discussion

We computed solid/CO₂ interfacial tension as a function of pressure, temperature and salinity and solid/water interfacial tension as a function of temperature and salinity via Neumann's equation of state (Neumann et al., 1974) for quartz, mica and coals using experimental contact angle data and CO₂/brine interfacial tension data. The results broaden the understanding of rock/fluid interaction properties. Specifically, the results of this study allow the understanding of the influence of surface energy on rock wettability as a function of pressure, temperature, salinity, and type of mineral. Thus, the results contribute to a better understanding of storage mechanisms which ensure containment security (Iglauer et al., 2015); Krevor et al., 2012; Krevor et al., 2015).

3.1. Effect of pressure on solid/CO₂ interfacial tension

3.1.1 *Case 1: quartz*

 γ_{sc} (solid/CO₂ interfacial tension) decreased with pressure at all temperatures and for all cases analysed (Figure 2-4). As the pressure increased from 0.1 MPa to 10 MPa, quartz/CO₂ interfacial tension decreased sharply from 75 mN/m to 31 mN/m at 323 K (Figure 2). However, the decrease flattened for an additional pressure increment (from 15 MPa to 20 MPa it changed from 24.6 mN/m to 21.6 mN/m, a reduction of only 3 mN/m). A similar trend was found at elevated temperature, 343 K. Physically, as the pressure increases, the cohesive energy density of CO₂ increases and approaches to the cohesive energy of the substrate (Dickson et al., 2006).

Eventually, the interactions between solid and CO_2 become more favourable and as a result quartz/ CO_2 interfacial energy decreases with pressure. Note that at pressure = 0.1 MPa, a switch in temperature occurs due to a switch in CO_2 /water interfacial tensions; Table 3 (Arif et al., 2016a).

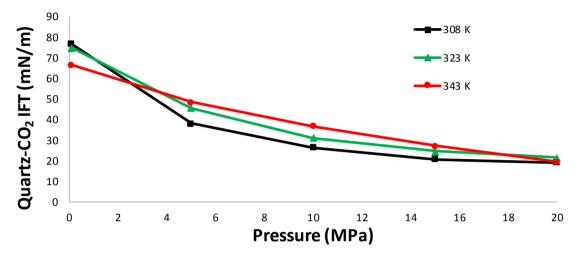


Figure 2: Quartz/CO₂ interfacial tension as a function of pressure and temperature.

A few studies report surface free energies of quartz at ambient conditions. Janczuk and Zdziennicka, (1994) calculated the surface energy of quartz at ambient conditions against air using the van Oss-Good method (van Oss et al., 1986) and the values ranged from 57 mN/m to 126 mN/m, consistent with our value (~74 mN/m) estimated for a similar condition (0.1 MPa and 308 K).

Dickson et al. (2006) is the only major study which computed surface energies as a function of pressure for silica (glass)/CO₂ systems and found that for a partially methylated glass surface (63% of the surface was covered by methyl groups, the remaining 37% by SiOH groups) surface solid/CO₂ interfacial tension decreased with pressure. The values reported were 38 mN/m at a CO₂ activity of 0 (equivalent to a pressure of 0.1 MPa) and reduced to ~10 mN/m at a CO₂ activity of 1.4 (equivalent to 20 MPa) at 296 K. The decrease in quartz/CO₂ interfacial tension with pressure is thus consistent with Dickson et al. (2006), however, the difference in values is due to the fact that the surface they used had only 37% silanol group coverage (while in our case it is 100%, i.e. pure quartz). Furthermore, Dickson et al. (2006) reported solid/CO₂ interfacial tension for a 12% SiOH surface (now 88% of the surface was methylated), for which lower γ_{sc} values were reported (20 mN/m at 0.1 MPa and ~0 mN/m at 20 MPa) which is due to

the higher hydrophobicity of the 12% SiOH surface (when compared with the 37% SiOH surface). Due to the limited number of silanol groups available, only a minimal amount of CO_2 is expected to cap these hydrophilic sites, thus γ_{sc} values were lower for lower silanol coverage (e.g. for our case γ_{sc} = 20 mN/m at 20 MPa, and for Dickson et al. γ_{sc} = 10 mN/m for 37% SiOH surface, and ~0 mN/m for 12% SiOH surface).

The higher values of quartz/CO₂ interfacial tensions as compared to mica (see below) at a given pressure and temperature imply that quartz is more hydrophobic in nature.

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3.1.2 Case 2: Mica

Two mica surfaces were analysed: a) naturally water-wet mica (Arif et al., 2016a) and b) oilwet mica (treated with silane to achieve oil-wet conditions, ambient air/water contact angle = 120°, Arif et al., 2016b). The results indicate that, likewise quartz, mica/CO₂ interfacial tension decreased with pressure for both water-wet and oil-wet mica surfaces (Figure 3). When pressure increased from 0.1 MPa to 5 MPa, mica/CO₂ interfacial tension decreased sharply from 78 mN/m to 41 mN/m, for water-mica. Gradually, the decrease flattened out with further increase in pressure (24 mN/m at 10 MPa and 16 mN/m at 20 MPa). Similar trends were found for oil-wet mica surface. However, at any given pressure, the mica/CO₂ interfacial tension was considerably higher for water-wet mica. For example, at 10 MPa and 343 K, mica/CO₂ interfacial tension was 40 mN/m for water-wet mica and only 4.6 mN/m for oil-wet mica surface. This result is quite remarkable – as it demonstrates that the hydrophobic surfaces (e.g. oil-wet mica - higher water contact angles) have considerably lower solid/CO2 interfacial energies in comparison to the hydrophilic surfaces (e.g. water-wet mica, lower water contact angles, and quartz, even lower contact angles than water-wet mica). The permanent oil coating on the mica (to be precise: the C12 alkyl rests chemically bonded to the surface) is responsible for the low surface energy of the oil-wet mica surface. Moreover, it can also be established that the higher the solid/vapour surface energy, the higher is the tendency of the surface to wet with water (i.e. lower contact angles, e.g. Table 1). The results are consistent with Ameri et al. (2013) who used a similar methodology and computed interfacial interaction of CO2 and oilwet Bentheimer. Their results show that at any pressure, solid/CO₂ interfacial tension was lower for the more oil-wet cores. For instance, at 10 MPa and 318 K, solid/CO₂ interfacial tensions were 20 mN/m for relatively more water-wet Bentheimer (SB-1) and 1 mN/m for oilwet Bentheimer (SB-6, Ameri et al. 2013).

These results are significant for understanding the fluid flow dynamics in oil-wet and water-

wet reservoir and caprocks (Iglauer et al. 2015a), and also for material design and development

where the physicochemical surface characteristics (e.g. surface energy) play a key role for a wide range of operating conditions (Zenkiewicz, 2007).



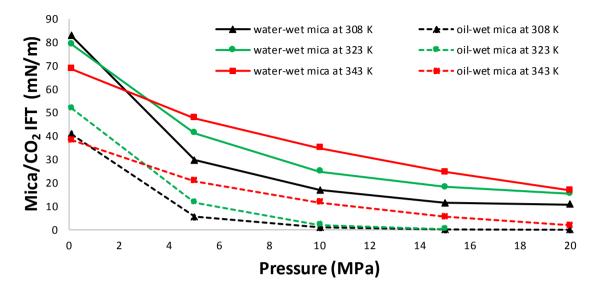


Figure 3: Mica/CO₂ interfacial tension as function of pressure and temperature.

3.1.3 Case 3: Coals

Three coal samples [high rank (semi anthracite; from Hazelton, Pennsylvania, USA), medium rank (medium volatile bituminous; from Morgantown, West Virginia, USA), and low rank (lignite; from North Dakota, USA] were analysed for surface energy calculations. Advancing and receding contact angle data for the three coals is taken from our previous work (Arif et al., 2016c, Table 1). The detailed description of the properties of these coal sample can be found elsewhere (Arif et al., 2016c), however the mineral identified by XRD in the three samples revealed that the major minerals present were illite, quartz and kaolinite. We note that the measured contact angles may slightly vary with the minerology of coal; thus the results reported here must be accompanied with the minerology of the specific sample under investigation. Results showed that $coal/CO_2$ interfacial tension also decreased with pressure irrespective of the coal rank (Figure 4). For all coals, the $coal/CO_2$ interfacial tension decreased sharply for the pressure interval 0.1 MPa-5 MPa, e.g. for high rank coal, at 308 K, $coal/CO_2$ interfacial tension decreased from 84 mN/m to ~12 mN/m when pressure increased from 0.1 MPa to 5 MPa. However, γ_{sc} turned almost constant for the pressure interval 10 MPa – 20 MPa (Figure 4). Moreover, at a given pressure, the low rank coals exhibited the highest $coal/CO_2$

interfacial tension values, while the high rank coal had the lowest coal/CO₂ interfacial tension, e.g. at 10 MPa and 323 K, coal/CO₂ interfacial tensions were 4.7 mN/m, 7.4 mN/m, and 10.2 mN/m for high, medium and low rank coals, respectively. At ambient conditions, Staszczuk (1989) determined surface free energy of coal, and found that the dispersion component was 45 mN/m and polar component measured 13 mN/m, thus a total surface energy of 58 mN/m comparable to our results ~ 70 mN/m for low rank coal at 308 K and 0.1 MPa.

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> In order to explain the variation of coal/CO₂ interfacial tension with coal rank, we conducted FTIR (Fourier Transformed infrared) spectroscopy measurements on the coal samples (Figure 5). Low rank coal demonstrated the largest peak beginning at about 2800 cm⁻¹ and ending at 3800 cm⁻¹ which is attributed to the O-H and N-H stretch vibrations (Socrates, 2004) while high rank coal exhibited negligible O-H and N-H stretch vibrations at 3800 cm⁻¹. The abundance of these hydrophilic sites in low rank coal and absence of these sites in high rank coal is responsible for higher coal/CO₂ interfacial tensions for low rank coal and low coal/CO₂ interfacial tension for high rank coal. The band at ~2900 cm⁻¹ observed for low and medium rank coal is due to the presence of aliphatic C-H stretching vibrations (Wu et al., 2014); however, its absence in high rank coal is unusual and is perhaps due to C-H stretching where the carbon is in a C=C bond. The rough part of the spectra for 2000-2400 cm⁻¹ should be ignored as this is where the ATR crystal is absorbing itself (diamond) and the bands don't always perfectly cancel out.

> Moreover, the sharp band observed at 1500-1800 cm⁻¹ for low and medium rank coal is attributed to aromatic ring vibrations, which are enhanced by oxygen groups (Sarwar et al., 2012). The corresponding shoulder peaks at 1600 cm⁻¹ for low and medium rank coals is attributed to C=O stretching vibrations and these represent all C=O functionalities, e.g. carboxylic acids or phenolic esters (Manoj et al., 2009). Furthermore, low and medium rank coal (medium volatile bituminous) exhibited significantly stronger bands (in comparison to high rank coal) at wave numbers from 600-800 cm⁻¹ and 1000-1100 cm⁻¹ indicating presence

of more C-S stretching vibrations and C-H out of plane bending.

Thus, low rank coal has more polar functional groups on the surface than medium rank coal, and thus fewer attractive forces between the more polar surface and the non-polar (here in the sense of no external dipole moment) CO₂ generated, which lead to the higher coal/CO₂ interfacial tension for low rank coal at any pressure as compared to medium and high rank coals (Figure 4).

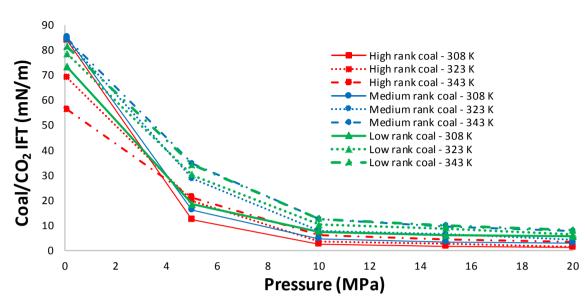


Figure 4: Coal/CO₂ interfacial tension as a function of pressure, temperature and coal rank.

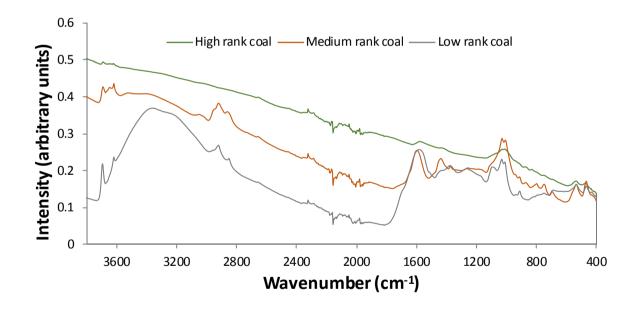


Figure 5. ATR-Infrared spectra for low, medium and high rank coals.

Note that high surface energy corresponds to strong cohesive forces and higher boiling points (Tripp and Combes, 1998). Moreover, high energy surfaces tend to reduce energy by adsorption of contaminants from the environment (Tripp and Combes, 1998).

For all cases analysed, the solid/CO₂ interfacial tension increased with temperature (Figures 2-4). For simplicity, a plot of solid/CO₂ interfacial tensions for the temperature range 308-343 K at 15 MPa is presented in Figure 6.

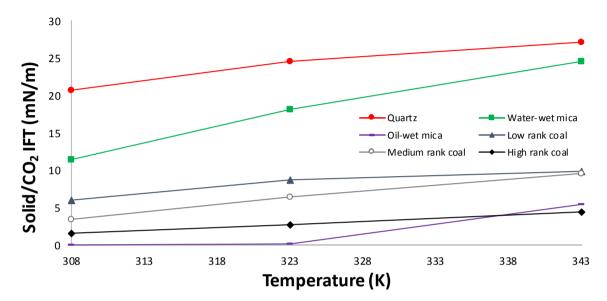


Figure 6: Solid/CO₂ interfacial tension as a function of temperature at 15 MPa for various substrates.

Quartz/CO₂ interfacial tension increased from 21 mN/m to 27 mN/m when temperature increased from 308 K to 343 K (Figure 6). Moreover, solid/CO₂ interfacial tension was highest for quartz, and lowest for oil-wet mica at any pressure and temperature.

Mica/CO $_2$ interfacial tension also followed a similar trend. For water-wet mica, mica/CO $_2$ interfacial tension increased from 11.5 mN/m to 24 mN/m when temperature increased from 308 K to 343 K, while for the same temperature interval, for oil-wet mica, mica/CO $_2$ interfacial tension increased from ~ 0 mN/m to 5 mN/m. Moreover, oil-wet mica demonstrated the lowest values of mica/CO $_2$ interfacial tension out of all cases at any pressure and temperature which is again attributed to reduced number of polar sites on oil-wet mica surface.

 $Coal/CO_2$ interfacial tension also decreased with temperature, (Figure 6). For instance, for low rank coal, $coal/CO_2$ interfacial tension increased from 6 mN/m to ~ 9.5 mN/m when temperature increased from 308 K to 343 K. Moreover, high rank coal had the lowest $coal/CO_2$ interfacial tension at any temperature which is due to the lower concentration of polar surface

groups on the high rank coal (see above and Figure 5). Moreover, we point out that higher coal/ CO_2 interfacial tensions reduces CO_2 -adsorption in coals (because CO_2 -adsorption in coals also decreases with temperature, Bustin and Clarkson, 1998). For all cases analysed, the increase in γ_{sc} with temperature is attributed to a decrease in cohesive energy density of CO_2 with temperature (Barton, 1991) while the cohesive energy density of the solid is expected to stay approximately constant with temperature (Kittel, 2005), which leads to an increase in the difference of solid/ CO_2 cohesive energies with temperature. Consequently, the interactions between solid and CO_2 become less favourable, thus γ_{sc} increases with temperature which promotes water-wetting of the surface. Moreover, reduction in CO_2 density with temperature leads to fewer van der Waals interactions which leads to an increase in γ_{sc} with temperature.

Solid/water interfacial tension is directly computed from the regression fit of the experimental

3.3. Effect of temperature on solid/water interfacial tension

and model data and the results are shown in Table 4. For all cases, the solid/water interfacial tension decreased with increasing temperature except for quartz, for which it increased with temperature. However, the absolute quartz γ_{sw} was very low and so were the changes in γ_{sw} . When temperature increased from 308 K-343 K the quartz/water interfacial tension increased from 0.058 mN/m to 0.952 mN/m. Recently, Shojai Kaveh et al. (2016) calculated interfacial energy of shale/water systems and found that the values of shale/water interfacial tension was also quite low (0.58 mN/m at 318 K), consistent with our results. The increase in quartz/water interfacial tension with temperature is due to desorption of water molecules from the surface (Janczuk and Zdziennicka, 1994). For mica, at any temperature, the solid/water interfacial tensions were notably higher for oil-wet mica and lower for water-wet mica (e.g. $\gamma_{sw} = \sim 25$ mN/m for oil-wet mica (21% carbon coverage, Arif et al., 2016b), and ~2 mN/m for water-wet mica (0% carbon coverage, unaltered surface, Arif et al., 2016b) at the same temperature, 323 K and pressure, 10 MPa). The larger solid/liquid interfacial tension values for the more hydrophobic surface is consistent with Dickson et al. (2006) who reported that the glass surface with higher silanol coverage had lower solid/liquid interfacial tensions (note: a higher concentration of surface silanol groups creates a more hydrophilic surface (Chen et al., 2015; McCaughan et al., 2013). Specifically, the calculated γ_{sw} values for the 37% SiOH and 12% SiOH surfaces were 13.2 and 29.2 mN/m

respectively (Dickson et al., 2006), quite comparable to our results for the oil-wet mica surfaces. The results are also consistent with Ameri et al. (2013) who reported that γ_{sw} was significantly lower for water-wet sandstones ($\gamma_{sw} = 2.88$ mN/m) as compared to oil-wet sandstones ($\gamma_{sw} = 27.22$ mN/m).

Coal surfaces also exhibited similar trends, i.e. γ_{sw} decreased with increasing temperature, and the values of coal/water interfacial tension were higher for high rank coal and lower for low rank coal (e.g. at 323 K, γ_{sw} was 19.23 mN/m for high rank coal, 13.87 mN/m for medium rank coal and 10.38 mN/m for low rank coals, Table 4). This effect is attributed to an abundance of hydrophilic sites (OH functional groups, typically silanol) in low rank coal and absence of hydrophilic sites in high rank coal. Essentially, presence of silanol sites leads to favourable interactions between coal surface and water, thereby resulting in a reduction of γ_{sw} for low rank coal

467 rank coal.

Further, we point out that the proposed methodology assumes that γ_{sw} is constant versus pressure. In reality, however, the solid/water interactions are expected to change due to increase in solubility of CO₂ in water with pressure (El-Maghraby et al. 2012), and associated lower pH values (Schaeff and McGrail, 2004), which leads to increased protonation of the silanol surface groups (Brown et al., 2012).

3.4. Effect of salinity on solid/CO₂ interfacial tension

We compared solid/CO₂ interfacial tension (as function of pressure and temperature) for 20 wt% NaCl brine in mica/CO₂ systems and compared it with that of mica/water systems. The results showed that the mica/CO₂ interfacial tension for DI-water at a particular pressure and temperature is quite similar to the mica/CO₂ interfacial tension for 20 wt % NaCl brine case (Figure 7). For instance, at 323 K, and 10 MPa, the mica/CO₂ interfacial tensions were 22.4 mN/m for liquid comprising of 20 wt% NaCl brine, and 24.8 mN/m for DI-water, thus a difference of only 2.4 mN/m (Figure 7). Moreover, at the same temperature but at 15 MPa, mica/CO₂ interfacial tension for two different liquids (DI water and 20 wt % NaCl brine) is the same (~18.5 mN/m, Figure 7). In summary, the R²-values for the correlation between mica/CO₂ interfacial tensions for the two liquids were 0.997, 0.998 and 0.985 at 308 K, 323 K and 343 K, respectively, indicating a strong correlation. This implies that solid/CO₂ interfacial tension is not much changed by altering the type of the liquid in the same system. We point out that

this result verifies this methodology and our predictions (of mineral/CO₂ and mineral/water interfacial tensions) to some extent.



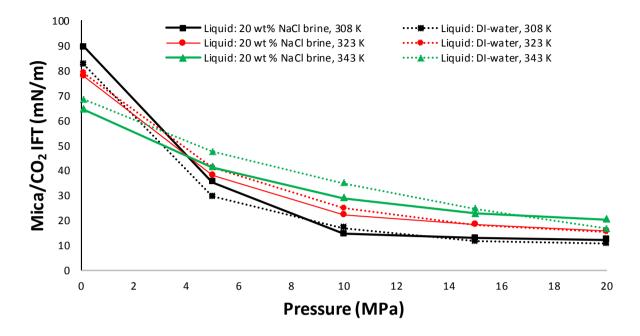


Figure 7: Mica/CO₂ interfacial tension as a function of pressure and temperature for two different liquids (DI-water and 20 wt% NaCl brine)

3.5. Effect of salinity on solid/water interfacial tension

To analyse the effect of salinity on the solid-water interfacial energies, we compared γ_{sw} results for DI water (see above) with that of 20 wt% NaCl brine. The β values from the non-linear regression fit of cosine of the equilibrium contact angle data were 0.000267, 0.000284, and 0.00034 at 308 K, 323 K and 343 K, respectively. The Pearson coefficients were 0.846, 0.921 and 0.941, indicating good fits. The mica/brine (20wt% NaCl) interfacial tensions were 10.5 mN/m, 6.27 mN/m and 4.4 mN/m at 308 K, 323 K and 343 K, respectively implying that mica/brine interfacial tension decreased with temperature, consistent with the solid/DI-water system (discussed above). However, at any given temperature, mica/brine interfacial tension was larger than the mica/water interfacial tension. For instance, at 308 K, mica/brine (20 wt% NaCl brine) interfacial tension was 10.5 mN/m in comparison to 2.1 mN/m for mica/DI water at the same temperature (308 K). This result is consistent with Ameri et al. (2013) who found that when salinity increased from 0wt% NaCl to 3.5 wt% NaCl, γ_{SW} increased slightly. However, Shoaji Kaveh et al. (2016) found a slight reduction in γ_{SW} with salinity. The increase

in solid/brine interfacial tension with salinity is related to the intermolecular forces and the zeta potential which arises due to charged species on the surface. As salinity increases, more counter ions are available to reduce the net charge and thus reduces the polarity of the surface, which again leads to a reduction in water-surface van der Waals forces. Lower van der Waals interactions result in higher interfacial tensions. Moreover, Roshan et al. (2016), recently introduced a model to describe the physical processes for wettability variation as a function of salinity in which they related electric potential at the mineral surface to the contact angle. Their results showed that as salinity increased the surface became more hydrophobic due to a decrease in the dielectric constant of liquid with salinity.

In order to evaluate the net effect of these interfacial tensions on contact angle, the right hand

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3.6. Wettability dependence on surface energies

side (RHS) of Young's equation (the value of $\cos\theta$) was calculated for all cases analysed using the computed values of γ_{sc} , γ_{sw} and experimental values of γ_{cw} . For quartz, $\cos\theta$ decreases with pressure and temperature because quartz/CO₂ interfacial tension decreases with pressure and increases with temperature, and the quartz/water interfacial tension increases with temperature. Thus the net effect of the three interfacial tension results in decrease in a $\cos\theta$ with pressure and temperature and consequently θ increases with pressure and temperature for quartz (consistent with experimental data, Table 1). For all other cases (mica and coals), $\cos\theta$ decreases with pressure and increases with temperature because solid/CO2 interfacial tension decreases with pressure and increases with temperature and the solid/water interfacial tension also decreases with temperature (for mica and coals), thus θ increases with pressure and decreases with temperature (consistent with experimental data, Table 1). Moreover, for water-wet mica, $\cos\theta$ stays positive for all tested pressures and temperatures, because the mica surface remains either strongly water-wet or weakly water-wet (contact angle $< 90^{\circ}$, cp. Iglauer et al., 2015a, Table 1); however for the oil-wet mica surface, $\cos\theta$ reaches negative values for a wide range of tested pressures and temperatures which indicates CO₂-wet conditions exhibited by this surface (contact angle > 90°, Iglauer et al., 2015a, Table 1). Moreover, θ increased more rapidly for oil-wet mica (as compared to water-wet mica), because of the low CO₂-solid interfacial energy, which promotes de-wetting of the surface by water (Dickson et al., 2006). Because high energy fluids (e.g. water), do not tend to spread on lowenergy surfaces, the presence of a low energy CO₂ layer will cause the solid/water contact angle to increase above 90° to increase the interfacial area between water and CO₂. Furthermore, for mica and coals, θ decreases with temperature because the net effect of solid/fluid and fluid/fluid interfacial tensions gives rise to an increase in the $\cos\theta$ with temperature.

In summary, the increase in contact angle with pressure is due to a reduction in the difference of solid and CO_2 cohesive energies with pressure which leads to more favourable interactions between solid and CO_2 . Consequently, γ_{sc} decreases with pressure and thus promotes dewetting of the surface (i.e. higher water contact angle).

4. Implications

We predicted solid/ CO_2 and solid/water interfacial tensions for various rock forming minerals including quartz, mica and coals for a wide range of pressure and temperature conditions. The results imply that the surfaces which are more non-wetting to water exhibit lower values of solid/ CO_2 interfacial tension than the surfaces which are more water-wet (e.g. 18 mN/m for water-wet mica in comparison to ~3mN/m for oil-wet mica at 15 MPa and 323 K). Moreover, the less water-wet surfaces have higher solid/water interfacial tensions than the water-wet surfaces (24.8 mN/m for oil-wet mica and ~2 mN/m for water-wet mica, Figure 5). Computations of these surface energies in conjunction with Young Laplace's equation enables us to predict contact angles. As an example, θ values are predicted using Young's equation (Equation 1) using the calculated values of the interfacial tensions and the results are shown at 343 K for all samples analysed (Figure 8). The results show a good match between experimental contact angle and the predicted contact angles. This implies that the methodology considered in this work to compute surface energies is correct and that the predicted solid-fluid interfacial tensions correctly reproduced experimental contact angle data.

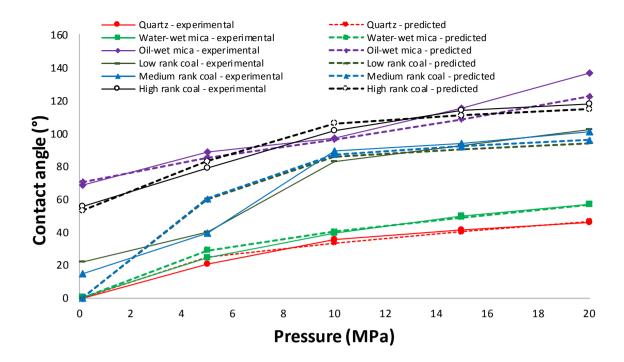


Figure 8: Experimental and predicted water contact angles as a function of pressure at 343 K for all substrates.

In terms of a broader interpretation, the solid/fluid interfacial tensions reported in this study are useful for relating CO₂ storage potential to rock/fluid interfacial tension. For instance, water-wet rocks are better for CO₂ storage (Iglauer et al., 2011) because of higher solid/CO₂ (solid = rock in this case) interfacial tension and oil-wet rocks exhibit poor CO₂-storage potential in terms of structural and residual trapping (Iglauer et al., 2016) due to lower solid/CO₂ interfacial tension (e.g. pure quartz have higher solid/CO₂ interfacial tension than 37% SiOH quartz, section 3.1). Physically, due to higher solid/CO₂ interfacial tension for water-wet rocks, CO₂ tends to stick to the rock (rock offers more resistance to the flow/leakage of buoyant CO₂) and CO₂ is thus rendered immobile within the pores (leading to higher capillary/residual trapping in water-wet rocks; Iglauer et al., 2011). However, the detailed investigation of trapping potential must also account for solubility of CO₂ in the oil phase, sealing tendency of the caprock, and the pore geometry etc. to device suitable field scale storage plans.

5. Conclusions

We used Neumann's equation of state (Neumann et al., 1974) to compute the interfacial tensions of mineral/CO₂ and mineral/water systems for important rock forming minerals (quartz, water-wet mica and oil-wet mica) and for coals of high to low rank as a function of pressure, temperature and salinity. It was found that mineral/CO₂ interfacial tension decreased with pressure (consistent with Ameri et al. 2013 and Dickson et al. 2006), which is due to increased CO₂-mineral intermolecular interactions (e.g. Iglauer et al., 2012, Al-Yaseri et al. 2016b). It was also found that mineral/CO₂ interfacial tensions increased with temperature which is due to an increase in the difference of solid/CO₂ cohesive energies with temperature which thus leads to less favourable interactions between solid and CO_2 (thus higher γ_{sc}). Moreover, the more non-wetting to water the surface was, the lower were the mineral/CO₂ interfacial tensions and the higher were the mineral/water interfacial tensions, e.g. oil-wet mica showed a lower mica/CO₂ interfacial tension than water-wet mica at the same pressure and temperature. Similarly, high rank coal had a lower coal/CO2 interfacial tension than the low rank coal, because of greater hydrophobicity of high rank coal. This behaviour is attributed to fewer hydrophilic sites in high rank coal as opposed to abundance of hydrophilic sites in low rank coal (confirmed by IR spectroscopy). For all systems, solid/water interfacial tension decreased with temperature, except for quartz, where the quartz/water interfacial tension increased with temperature. The effect of salinity was also analysed and it was found that solid/water interfacial tension increased with salinity. Moreover, contact angles were predicted by Young's equation using the computed values of interfacial energies, and the predicted θ values were in good agreement with the experimental θ values.

We conclude that the Neumann equation of state is adequate to quantify the solid surface energy and that the results demonstrated significant influence of surface energy in controlling the wettability dependence on pressure, temperature and salinity.

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