

Enhanced Oil Recovery using carbon dioxide directly captured from air does not enable carbon-neutral oil

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The paper is a non-peer reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv. The paper was submitted to PNAS for peer review.

This study evaluates the feasibility of producing carbon neutral oil via CO₂ Enhanced Oil Recovery (CO₂-EOR) coupled with direct air capture. Existing analyses often provide case-specific insights based on short-term operations that do not encompass the full life cycle of reservoir exploitation. In contrast, we propose a novel, top-down approach based on mass and volume conservation, expanding system boundaries to include emissions from primary, secondary, and tertiary oil recovery phases – the latter being CO₂-EOR. Supported by field data, the analysis demonstrates that CO₂-EOR cannot achieve carbon-neutral oil production. Only 30 % of projects produced carbon-neutral oil during EOR, but all of them were significantly carbon-positive when considering the full reservoir life-time. The volume occupied by the emitted CO₂ exceeded by at least 3 times the pore space freed by reservoir fluids production, namely oil, water and gas. Considering CO₂-EOR in isolation from earlier stages of oil production creates the temporal illusion of carbon-neutral oil, as significant water is co-produced during this phase, freeing storage space without causing direct emissions. The reservoir conditions when CO₂-EOR is carried out, however, are the direct consequence of extensive oil extraction and water injection in earlier exploitation phases. Only residual oil zones may offer potential for carbon-neutral oil due to their low oil saturation and lack of legacy emissions. Although CO₂-EOR may replace conventional oil production methods, potentially reducing carbon emissions, it risks promoting and perpetuating fossil fuel production, thereby undermining critical climate targets.

CO₂-EOR | Direct air capture (DAC) | Oil and gas reservoir | Climate impact assessment | Carbon dioxide utilization and storage (CCUS)

To maximize oil extraction from a reservoir, oil production typically proceeds in three stages (Fig. 1). The first stage, primary recovery, relies on the natural reservoir pressure to produce oil. This is followed by secondary recovery, which involves injecting water, possibly seawater, to maintain the reservoir pressure and displace additional oil. Finally, tertiary recovery, or Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR), employs miscible fluids such as natural gas or carbon dioxide (CO₂) to mobilize trapped oil and enhance production (1). After oil extraction, depleted reservoirs can serve as sites for permanent CO₂ storage (2, 3). This work focuses specifically on CO₂-EOR, where CO₂ is used as the miscible fluid.

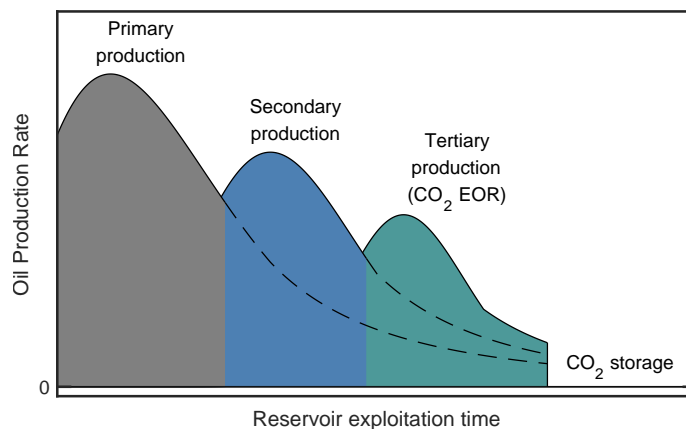


Fig. 1. Qualitative illustration of the oil production phases. Water is injected during secondary production, while CO₂ is injected during tertiary production, i.e., CO₂-EOR, and for storage in the depleted reservoir. Dashed lines represent oil production without transitioning to subsequent production phases.

Significance Statement

Some experts claim that using CO₂ from direct air capture (DAC) in enhanced oil recovery (EOR) can produce carbon-neutral oil by permanently storing more CO₂ than is emitted from the extracted fossil fuels. However, these claims are often poorly evidenced and ignore the carbon-intensive legacy of earlier reservoir exploitation. Using a novel general framework, supported by field data, our analysis reveals that total CO₂ emissions across the entire oil production life cycle far exceed the reservoir's storage capacity. While a few EOR projects appear carbon-neutral in isolation, this perspective overlooks earlier production phases creating a misleading narrative. Producing carbon-neutral oil through CO₂-EOR is not feasible within the reservoir exploitation limits, and achieving net-zero emissions requires transitioning away from fossil fuels.

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A.G. and M.M. designed research; A.G., R.P., and M.M. performed research; A.G. and R.P. analyzed data; and A.G., R.P., V.B., and M.M. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no competing interests.

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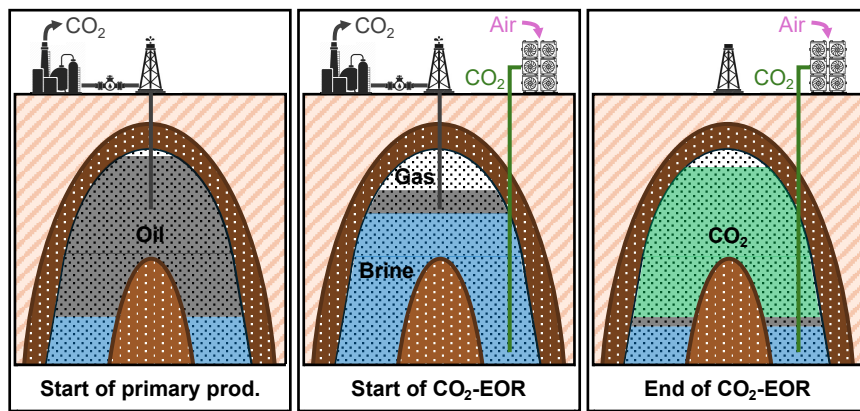


Fig. 2. Schematic representation of an oil and gas reservoir at the start of primary production, at the start of CO₂-EOR (i.e., after water-flooding during secondary production), and at the end of CO₂-EOR.

For decades, the oil industry has employed CO₂ in EOR operations to maximize oil recovery per unit of CO₂ injected, thus minimizing operational costs (4). It is estimated that approximately 180 Gt of oil could be recovered globally through CO₂-EOR in known oil fields (5). As Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) technologies gained attention for their potential to reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and mitigate climate change, CO₂-EOR was considered as a possible method for permanently storing CO₂ underground (6, 7). Thus, the goal of CO₂-EOR became that of maximizing the volume of CO₂ stored per unit of oil recovered (8–10). However, using and thus burning the oil produced through EOR results in CO₂ emissions that reduce or annul the climate benefits of CO₂ storage itself. Therefore, CO₂-EOR is now considered a form of CO₂ utilization, whose attractiveness stems from being a profitable business rather than a means of counteracting climate change (11).

In recent years, Direct Air Capture (DAC) has gained significant attention as a Carbon Dioxide Removal (CDR) technology, which enables the direct removal of CO₂ from the atmosphere by technical means (12–16). At least one corporation engaged in hydrocarbon exploration has invested in DAC, viewing DAC as a way to offset the CO₂ emissions generated by its products (17). Proponents of using CO₂ derived from DAC in EOR argue that the oil produced in this manner could be carbon neutral (18, 19). This argument hinges on the claim that the amount of CO₂ ultimately stored in the reservoir exceeds that emitted during the refining and use (i.e., burning) of the extracted oil. If the CO₂ has been captured from the atmosphere, using it for EOR could close the carbon cycle for the oil produced in this manner.

Robust, bottom-up approaches have assessed the climate impact of oil produced through EOR using Life Cycle Analysis (LCA). These methods use operational field data or reservoir fluid dynamics models to estimate the amounts of both CO₂ stored and hydrocarbons produced. The system boundaries are then extended to include factors such as emissions from oil utilization, EOR operation, and the source of CO₂ (20–23). While LCA-based assessments provide detailed insights, they also rely heavily on case-specific data and assumptions, which can limit their ability to support broad conclusions about the feasibility of carbon-neutral oil.

One critical factor in these assessments is the time frame considered. CO₂-EOR starts carbon-negative, meaning that more CO₂ is stored than emitted, as significant volumes of CO₂ are injected to pressurize the reservoir and displace

fluids (24). Over time, the operation transitions to a net climate-positive impact, typically after about 10 years, as hydrocarbons are produced and less new CO₂ is injected, with CO₂ produced at the extraction well being re-injected. Given that EOR operations usually last about 20 years, analyses focusing on shorter periods, such as under ten years (22), may be misleading in terms of net climate impact of EOR. Moreover, traditional LCAs typically consider only the EOR phase, which represents a much shorter period than the entire life cycle of reservoir exploitation. Since EOR follows primary and secondary recovery phases (Fig. 1), we argue that assessments must cover the full life cycle of the reservoir to account properly for the overall climate impact.

This paper proposes a novel top-down framework to evaluate the net climate impact of DAC-based CO₂-EOR. This approach enables drawing widely applicable conclusions about CO₂-EOR and the feasibility of producing carbon-neutral oil. Though less detailed than bottom-up models, our analysis remains accurate and expands system boundaries to account for the temporal dimension of reservoir exploitation.

The conceptual framework

The feasibility of carbon neutral oil through CO₂-EOR could be simply dismissed based on two figures: (1) burning one ton of oil generates at least three tons of CO₂ (25), and (2) under reservoir conditions, the density of oil is higher than that of CO₂, with an oil-to-CO₂ density ratio between 1.0 and 1.5 (26). This means that all the CO₂ generated by burning the recovered oil would occupy between 300% and 450% of the volume made available by extracting oil; thus, attaining carbon neutrality would be physically impossible given the reservoir's volume constraints.

However, this perspective is incomplete, as it overlooks that injecting CO₂ displaces not only oil but also other fluids present in the reservoir, namely a gas phase and an aqueous phase. In other words, there is an additional fraction of the pore space, previously occupied by less carbon-intensive fluids, that could be occupied by CO₂. Here, we analyze the CO₂-EOR system using a novel top-down approach, based on mass and volume conservation principles, accounting for all reservoir fluids. A schematic of the reservoir before and during exploitation is shown in Fig. 2.

Description of the reservoir. The analysis considers the reservoir as a fixed control volume, namely as a porous rock body with constant pore volume, V_p .

Initially, the pore volume contains fluids at initial temperature and pressure, T_i and P_i . Based on the black-oil model, these fluids are grouped in three phases (see Fig. 2): an aqueous phase (w), a gaseous phase (g), and an oleic phase (o). For the sake of simplicity but without loss of generality, we assume that each phase consists of one pseudo-component only, namely water, methane, and oil. The initial state is described as:

$$V_p = V_o^i + V_g^i + V_w^i \quad [1]$$

where V_o^i , V_g^i , and V_w^i are the corresponding volumes of oil, gas, and water; these are called in-place volumes by practitioners.

After CO₂-EOR, the pore volume is occupied by the residual fluids, not recovered, and by a dense phase, assumed to consist of pure CO₂ only, at the final reservoir conditions, T_f and P_f . The final state is described as:

$$V_p = V_o^r + V_g^r + V_w^r + V_{CO_2}^{\text{stored}} \quad [2]$$

where $V_{CO_2}^{\text{stored}}$ is the volume of CO₂ stored and V_j^r is the residual volume of phase j remaining in the reservoir.

Equation 2 assumes that all the stored CO₂ exists at its dense phase density, even though it is partially evaporated or dissolved in the liquids. This assumption overestimates the CO₂ storage potential and could be refined by considering a lower CO₂ density that accounts for these phases.

Exploitation of the reservoir. The extraction of in-place fluids results in CO₂ emissions upon their utilization. The emitted CO₂, $V_{CO_2}^{\text{emit}}$, is calculated using emission factors, f_j , representing the volume of CO₂ emitted, from gate to grave, per unit volume of phase j used (27):

$$V_{CO_2}^{\text{emit}} = V_o^{\text{prod}} f_o + V_g^{\text{prod}} f_g + V_w^{\text{prod}} f_w \quad [3]$$

Here, $V_j^{\text{prod}} = (V_j^i - V_j^r \beta_j)$ is the volume of phase j produced, where β_j is the density ratio after and before exploitation.

DAC and EOR operations have a site-specific carbon footprint, accounted for through an overall CO₂ removal efficiency, η_{CO_2} . Thus, the target volume of CO₂ to be stored is given by:

$$V_{CO_2}^{\text{target}} = \frac{V_{CO_2}^{\text{emit}}}{\eta_{CO_2}} \quad [4]$$

Emission factors. The emission factors are calculated as:

$$f_j = \frac{1}{\eta_j} \frac{\rho_j(T_i, P_i)}{\rho_{CO_2}(T_i, P_i)} \frac{M_{CO_2}}{M_j} \quad [5]$$

Here, ρ_j and ρ_{CO_2} are the densities of phase j and of CO₂ at relevant temperature and pressure levels, respectively, while M_j and M_{CO_2} are their molar masses, in mass per mole of carbon. We use $M_o = 14$ g/mol (for CH₂, the building block of oil), $M_g = 16$ g/mol (methane), and $M_w = 0$ g/mol (water, being carbon-free).

The densities and molar masses estimate direct emissions from fuel combustion, while the variable η_j denotes the carbon efficiency in the utilization of phase j , accounting for indirect emissions. Such efficiency depends on conditions and events outside the scope of this analysis. Thus, we use a conservative value of 1 in our analysis.

Carbon balance of the reservoir. The production of reservoir fluids may not provide enough pore volume to store the entire quantity of CO₂. The number of displaced fluid volumes needed to store the target amount of CO₂, ξ , is expressed as:

$$\xi = \frac{V_{CO_2}^{\text{target}}}{V_{CO_2}^{\text{stored}}} = \frac{1}{\eta_{CO_2}} (\phi_o f_o + \phi_g f_g + \phi_w f_w) \quad [6]$$

where the volume fraction of each phase produced, ϕ_j , can be defined either as a function of the produced volumes, V_j^{prod} , or as a function of the fluid saturations in the reservoir, $S_j = V_j/V_p$, through Equation 2:

$$\phi_j = \frac{V_j^{\text{prod}}}{V_o^{\text{prod}} + V_g^{\text{prod}} + V_w^{\text{prod}}} = \frac{S_j^i - S_j^r \beta_j}{1 - (S_o^r + S_g^r + S_w^r)} \quad [7]$$

Note that $\phi_j = S_j^i$ if there are no residual fluids remaining.

If $\xi = 1$ the volume of displaced fluids is exactly sufficient to store the target amount of CO₂, enabling carbon-neutral oil production; if $\xi < 1$, there is excess storage capacity, allowing for negative emissions; and if $\xi > 1$, the storage capacity is insufficient, and EOR using DAC-derived CO₂ ultimately emits more CO₂ than it can store.

The climate impact of reservoir exploitation

Case study assumptions. For this analysis, a CO₂ removal efficiency, η_{CO_2} , of 0.85 is considered in Equation 4. The efficiency of DAC with storage typically ranges from 0.80 to 0.95 depending on the energy source and geographical location (28, 29). Additionally, CO₂ is co-produced alongside other fluids during EOR, requiring separation and re-injection to ensure effective storage, which further decreases η_{CO_2} (23).

Emissions factors are reported in Table 1, for a typical reservoir at identical initial and final conditions of $P = 180$ bar and $T = 70$ °C. Assumed densities for the calculations are 690 kg/m³ for the oleic phase (30) (including dissolved

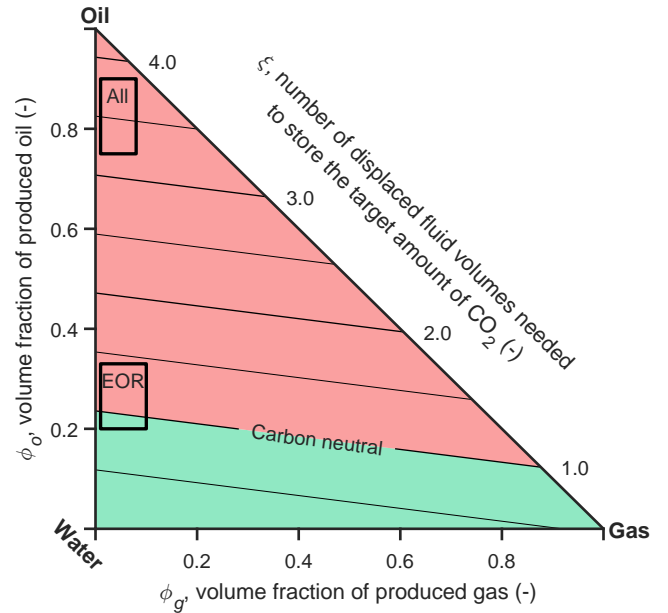


Fig. 3. Ternary diagram of the volume fraction of produced fluids (oil, gas, and water). The squares illustrate typical phase distributions produced during the entire reservoir lifetime (labelled 'All') and during EOR only (labelled 'EOR').

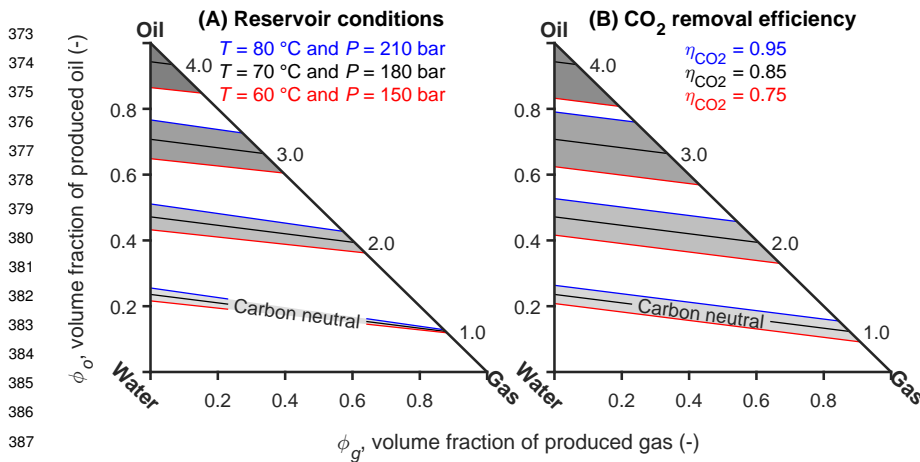


Fig. 4. Sensitivity of the ξ isolines to: (left) reservoir conditions, namely T and P within the ranges of 60 to 80 °C and 150 to 210 bar, and (right) CO₂ removal efficiency of DAC and EOR between 0.75 and 0.95. Black lines are the central values; blue and red lines are the best and worst climate impact scenarios within the ranges.

Table 1. Emissions factors for a reservoir at 180 bar and 70 °C.

Oil (f_o)	Methane (f_g)	Water (f_w)
3.6	0.46	0.0

gas), 600 kg/m³ for the CO₂ dense phase (26), and 101 kg/m³ for the gas phase (ideal gas law). The oil emission factor is significantly larger than one, primarily due to stoichiometry rather than assumptions: even assuming same CO₂ and oil densities, and unitary efficiency, Equation 5 yields $f_o = M_{CO_2}/M_o = 3.14$.

Geometrical representation. The state of any reservoir can be represented as a point on the ternary diagram shown in Fig. 3, where the horizontal and the vertical coordinates are the volume fractions of gas and oil produced – ϕ_g and ϕ_o , respectively. The water fraction is the complement to one. The vertices of the triangle represent reservoirs filled with only one fluid phase, while the edges represent two-phase mixtures, with the excluded phase opposite the edge.

Equation (6) constrains the combination of produced phases, ϕ_j , compatible with a given value of ξ . By varying ξ one obtains straight isolines in the ternary diagram that define loci of points where the volume occupied by the target CO₂ to be stored is ξ times the pore volume made available in the reservoir upon extraction of the in-place fluids. The isolines for the case study considered are shown in Fig. 3. Reservoir operations corresponding to points above the $\xi = 1$ isoline (red region) ultimately emit more CO₂ than the reservoir can store, while those mapping in points below it (green region) may store more CO₂ than they emit.

The ternary diagram may be used to effectively illustrate specific scenarios of interest:

1. **Saline aquifer** ($\phi_o = \phi_g = 0$): Only water is displaced, providing CO₂ storage capacity without extracting fossil fuels, resulting in $\xi = 0$.
2. **Gas reservoir** ($\phi_o = 0$): Only gas and water are produced; since $\eta_{CO_2} > f_g > f_w$, more CO₂ is stored than emitted, resulting in $\xi < 1$.
3. **Oil reservoir** ($\phi_g = 0$): Only oil and water are produced, with any extracted gas re-injected into the

reservoir; since $f_o > \eta_{CO_2} > f_w$, achieving carbon neutrality requires producing more than 70 % water, an economically unattractive proposition for an oil operator.

Sensitivity to assumptions. Fig. 4 illustrates the sensitivity of the ξ -isolines to variations in reservoir conditions, namely temperature and pressure with ranges based on reservoir data from (26) (panel A), and in CO₂ removal efficiency (panel B). The blue and red dash-dotted lines represent the best and worst climate impact scenarios within the considered sensitivity range. The effects of pressure and temperature were accounted for by modifying the densities of the dense CO₂ phase (from 550 to 650 kg/m³, according to (26)) and of the gaseous phase (from 87 to 115 kg/m³, according to the ideal gas law), while the oil density remained unchanged.

It is readily observed that the sensitivity of the position of the ξ -isolines, particularly of the $\xi = 1$ isoline, to reasonable changes of the above parameters is qualitatively and quantitatively rather small. This allows arguing that the conclusions drawn based on the specific scenario considered in Fig. 3 are indeed general.

Existing CO₂-EOR projects. Fig. 5 illustrates the carbon balance of reservoir exploitation as a function of the incremental oil recovered for 16 CO₂-EOR projects reported in (31), supplemented with additional data from (32, 33) for the box plots (reported in Table S1). The carbon balance is also presented for these projects when accounting for emissions from oil produced before CO₂-EOR, assuming a recovery of 35 % of the original oil in place (OOIP) during primary and secondary production; this is considered to be a representative median value for reservoirs globally (1).

Considering only EOR, all projects start carbon negative, as injected CO₂ pressurizes the reservoir and displaces fluids before significant incremental oil production. The carbon balance then rises steeply due to increased oil production (effective mobilization) and reduced CO₂ retention in the reservoir (down to 40–60 %) as CO₂ breaks through at the production well, necessitating separation and re-injection. The curve eventually flattens as the remaining oil becomes increasingly difficult to mobilize, thus requiring more injected CO₂ per unit of oil produced. Most projects (11 out of the 16 considered) surpassed the $\xi = 1$ threshold within the temporal boundary of the CO₂-EOR operation, typically after 5–10 %

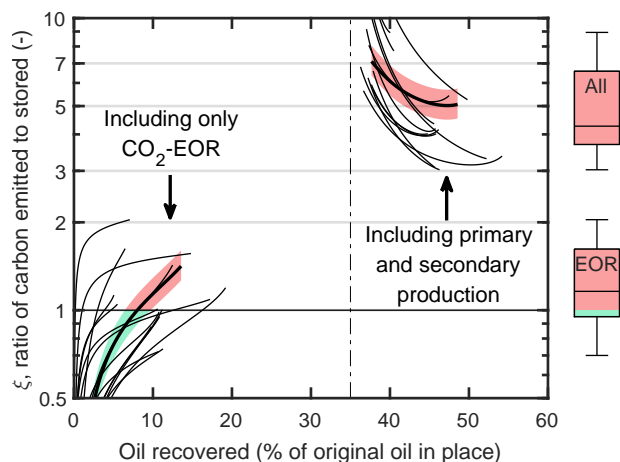


Fig. 5. Ratio of carbon emitted to stored, ξ , as a function of oil recovery for 16 CO₂-EOR projects from (31). The bottom-left lines represent ξ considering only CO₂-EOR, for each project, while the top-right lines include the entire reservoir lifetime, assuming 35 % oil recovery before EOR. Colored areas illustrate the sensitivity to CO₂ removal efficiency between 0.75 and 0.95 for one specific project. Box plots show the final ξ values of each project, supplemented with data from (32, 33).

recovery of OOIP, indicating that the oil produced during EOR ultimately emitted more CO₂ than what was stored.

When emissions from primary and secondary production phases are also accounted for, the overall reservoir exploitation becomes significantly carbon-positive. All projects start with an infinite value of ξ at 35 % OOIP, due to the CO₂ emitted before EOR without associated storage. Then, the value of ξ decreases as more CO₂ is stored, thus progressively reducing the average climate impact of the oil produced. It should be noted that half of the reservoirs emitted between 370 and 660 % of the stored CO₂ over their lifetime.

The temporal delusion of carbon-neutral oil

Two key observations are worth making based on the results presented in Figs. 3 and 5.

First, the exploitation of oil reservoirs during their entire lifetime falls within the region where $\xi > 1$, which makes sense because oil reservoirs are developed and exploited due to the large quantities of recoverable oil. Notably, the maximum allowable volume fraction of oil produced, or oil saturation if all reservoir fluids are recovered, that could enable carbon-neutral oil is only 28 % (with $\eta_{\text{CO}_2} = 1$). Such saturation levels are only found naturally, namely without prior exploitation, in residual oil zones, which are deep saline aquifers containing oil at residual saturation levels and are currently unexploited (34, 35). These observations support the argument that oil reservoirs do not have sufficient capacity to store all the CO₂ generated from the refining and combustion of the extracted fossil fuels. Thus, producing carbon-neutral oil is not possible within the reservoir boundaries.

Second, as oil production advances through its various phases, the phase distribution of the reservoir changes. The volume made available by the extracted oil is replaced by gas, which had remained dissolved at higher pressures, and by water injected during secondary recovery. Consequently, the corresponding point in the ternary diagram of Fig. 3 moves downwards, reflecting a decrease in the fraction of oil produced. By the time CO₂-EOR starts, the reservoir

composition may fall below the $\xi = 1$ threshold, depending on reservoir conditions, CO₂ removal efficiency, and the extent of EOR exploitation, consistent with previous LCA studies (22, 24). At this stage, the volume of fluids produced when injecting CO₂ may generate less CO₂ than the injected amount, providing arguments to EOR advocates who claim that operational field data demonstrate the potential for carbon-neutral oil.

However, this observation is short-sighted. The carbon negativity of CO₂-EOR operations is quickly exhausted, with only 30 % of EOR projects ultimately achieving $\xi < 1$ (Fig. 5). Moreover, EOR can not be considered in isolation from the earlier stages of oil production. Over the entire life cycle of an oil reservoir, spanning 40 to 80 years, far more CO₂ is emitted than can be stored in the reservoir. In fact, all EOR projects are carbon-positive when the oil recovered during primary and secondary production exceeds just 5 % OOIP (Fig. S2), much lower than typical recovery rates of 25 to 50 % OOIP (1). While DAC-based CO₂-EOR may reduce the carbon footprint of oil by 10 to 32 % (Fig. S2), these findings confirm the unfeasibility of achieving carbon-neutral oil.

The long time frames of oil exploitation, often involving multiple companies and operational phases, lead assessments to artificially decouple the different stages of reservoir exploitation. This practice provides a narrow and potentially misleading perspective, contributing to the false narrative that oil exploitation can achieve carbon neutrality.

Discussion

We developed a general top-down approach that enables to consistently and efficiently assess the climate impact of oil production operations by mapping the produced fluids onto a ternary diagram. Life cycle analyses can provide project-specific insights, which may be used to refine the model parameters of our framework.

Our analysis demonstrates that CO₂-EOR does not enable the production of carbon-neutral oil over the entire reservoir lifetime. While carbon neutrality might be achieved within limited time intervals, such as part of or the whole CO₂-EOR phase, these findings underscore the need for transparent and coherent frameworks to address legacy emissions.

Excess CO₂ that cannot be stored in the reservoir could be stored in alternative sites to offset fossil fuel emissions, such as saline aquifers commonly located beneath oil reservoirs or other suitable geological formations. Our results bring clarity to the debate on the intrinsic feasibility of carbon-neutral oil through CO₂-EOR, directing attention to the broader question of whether fossil fuel emissions should be offset through carbon removals.

CO₂-EOR has the potential to replace part of conventional oil production while financing the development of subsurface CO₂ injection technology (11, 36). However, the prospect of significant oil recovery and CO₂ storage could be misused as a pretext to continue promoting or funding fossil fuel production, which must be phased out to meet critical climate targets (37, 38).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

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1 **Supporting Information for preprint submitted to EarthArXiv**

2 **Enhanced Oil Recovery using carbon dioxide directly captured from air does not enable**
3 **carbon-neutral oil**

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7 **This PDF file includes:**

8 Supporting text

9 Figs. S1 to S2

10 Table S1

11 SI References

12 Supporting Information Text

13 **Data from existing CO₂-EOR projects.** Figure 5 presents the data on reservoir exploitation for 16 CO₂-EOR projects that has
14 been reported by Azzolina et al. (1). The study developed models fitted to the field data for each project, providing key values:

- 15 • The net CO₂ utilization, U_{CO_2} , defined as the mass of CO₂ stored per unit mass of oil produced.
- 16 • The cumulative incremental oil recovery, R_{EOR} , expressed as % of the original oil in place (OOIP), and defined as the
17 additional oil produced due to CO₂ injection.
- 18 • The CO₂ retention, defined as the fraction of injected CO₂ retained in the reservoir.

19 The net CO₂ utilization and the CO₂ retention are average values calculated from the start of the EOR operation up to a
20 specific point in time during the operation. Fig. reffig:otherParams illustrates the evolution of these values as a function of
21 the total cumulative injected volume of CO₂ and H₂O, expressed as a percentage of the hydrocarbon pore volume (HCPV).
22 The EOR operation progresses over time as the injected volume increases. Based on these parameters, the fraction of carbon
23 emitted relative to stored, ξ , is computed using Equation 6 (the reader is referred to the manuscript for the nomenclature):

$$24 \quad \xi = \frac{V_{CO_2}^{\text{target}}}{V_{CO_2}^{\text{stored}}} = \frac{1}{\eta_{CO_2}} \frac{M_{CO_2}}{M_o} \left(\frac{1}{U_{CO_2}} \frac{R_{TOT}}{R_{EOR}} \right) \quad [1]$$

25 Here, the term in parentheses represents the real net CO₂ utilization. If oil produced before EOR is ignored, then
26 $R_{TOT} = R_{EOR}$, and the climate impact is denoted as ξ_{EOR} . Otherwise, $R_{TOT} = R_{EOR} + R_{PRE}$, where R_{PRE} denotes the oil
27 recovered before EOR. A value of 35 % OOIP was assumed for R_{PRE} (2), and the climate impact is referred to as ξ_{TOT} . Table
28 S1 summarizes the operating variables and the calculated ξ_{EOR} and ξ_{TOT} for CO₂-EOR projects from various studies. For
29 data from (1), the field data at the end of operation, i.e., at the maximum injected volume, were utilized.

30 **Carbon footprint of produced oil.** Using data from Azzolina et al. (1) and Equation 1, we can estimate the average carbon
31 footprint of the produced oil, C_{oil} , in tons of CO₂ emitted per ton of oil used, as follows:

$$32 \quad C_{oil} = \frac{M_{CO_2}}{M_o} - \eta_{CO_2} U_{CO_2} \frac{R_{EOR}}{R_{TOT}} \quad [2]$$

33 Fig. S2 illustrates the carbon footprint of the produced oil as a function of the oil recovered before EOR, R_{PRE} , namely
34 during the primary and secondary production phases, for $\eta_{CO_2} = 0.85$. In the United States, where the CO₂-EOR projects
35 were conducted, most oil reservoirs recover 25 to 49% OOIP before EOR (2), as shown by the grey area in Fig. S2. For these
36 recovery rates, most CO₂-EOR projects would have produced oil with a carbon footprint ranging from 2.1 to 2.8 tons of CO₂
37 per ton of oil, if the stored CO₂ had been captured from the air. Consequently, DAC-based CO₂ EOR reduced the carbon
38 footprint of oil by 10 to 32 %. However, all projects produced carbon-positive oil when the oil recovered before EOR exceeded
39 only 5 % OOIP, highlighting the unfeasibility of achieving carbon-neutral oil within the reservoir's boundaries.

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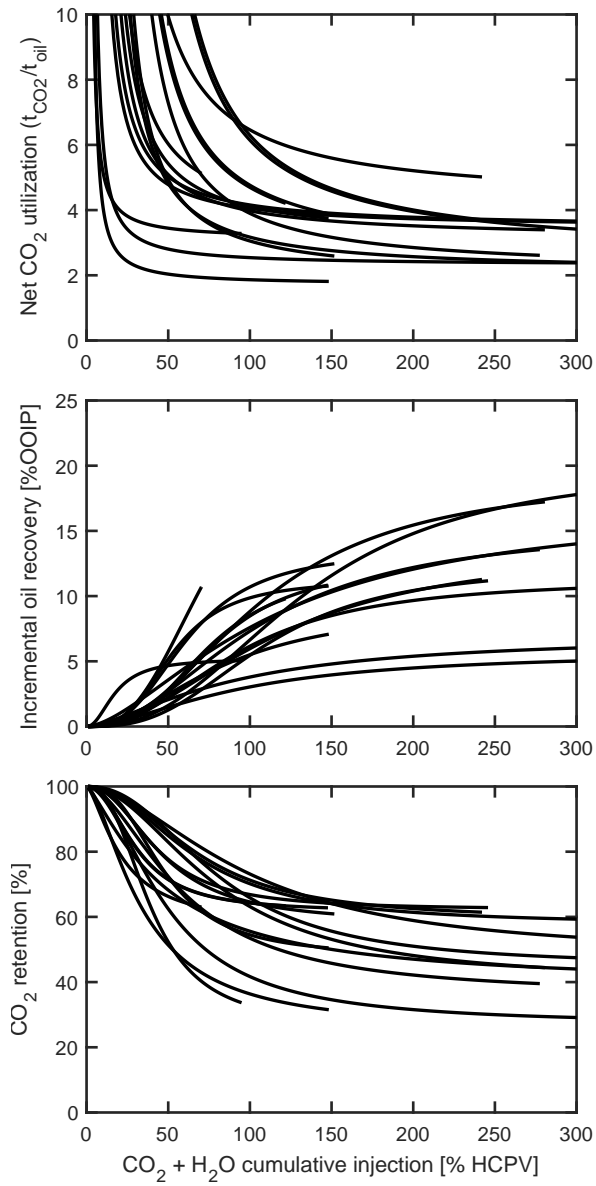


Fig. S1. Evolution of the net CO₂ utilization (top), the incremental oil recovery (middle), and the CO₂ retention (bottom), as a function of the cumulative volume of injected CO₂ and H₂O, expressed as a percentage of the hydrocarbon pore volume (HCPV). Each line represents one of the 16 CO₂-EOR projects reported in (1).

Table S1. Data for CO₂-EOR projects used to generate Figure 3 and Figure 5 in the manuscript. Taken from Table 1 in (1), Table 1 in (3), and Table 1 in (4). The value ξ_{TOT} can not be computed for datasets missing an oil recovery value.

Project name (ref.)	Injected volume (% HCPV) ¹	Oil recovery (% OOIP) ²	Net CO ₂ utilization (tCO ₂ /t _{oil})	ξ_{EOR} (-)	ξ_{TOT} (-)
Site A (1)	246	9.7	11.2	1.0	4.2
Site B (1)	281	8.9	17.2	1.1	3.3
Site C (1)	148	10.2	10.8	1.0	4.0
Site D (1)	450	8.1	19.2	1.2	3.4
Site E (1)	242	13.2	11.3	0.7	3.0
Site F (1)	302	9.6	10.6	1.0	4.3
Site G (1)	148	4.8	7.1	2.0	12.1
Site H (1)	152	6.8	12.5	1.4	5.4
Site I (1)	478	6.0	6.5	1.6	10.4
Site J (1)	70	13.5	10.7	0.7	3.1
Site K (1)	650	9.3	5.5	1.0	7.7
Site L (1)	122	11.0	9.8	0.9	4.0
Site M (1)	95	8.6	5.0	1.1	8.9
Site N (1)	148	9.9	10.8	1.0	4.2
Site R (1)	378	6.2	14.8	1.6	5.3
Site W (1)	278	6.9	13.6	1.4	5.1
Southwest USA average (3)	N/A	N/A	10.0	1.0	N/A
Northwest USA average (3)	N/A	N/A	8.0	1.2	N/A
Oklahoma average (3)	N/A	N/A	7.5	1.3	N/A
Southeast USA average (3)	N/A	N/A	13.3	0.7	N/A
Garber (4)	35	14	6.0	1.6	5.7
Little Creek (4)	160	21	12.6	0.8	2.1
Maljamar (4)	30	8.2	10.7	0.9	4.8
Maljamar (4)	17	0.7	6.1	1.6	N/A
Slaughter Estate (4)	26	20	3.7	2.6	7.2
Weeks Island (4)	24	8.7	3.3	2.9	14.8

¹ Injected fluids include CO₂ and H₂O, and HCPV refers to the to the hydrocarbon pore volume. ² Oil recovered during CO₂-EOR only, and OOIP refers to the original oil in place.

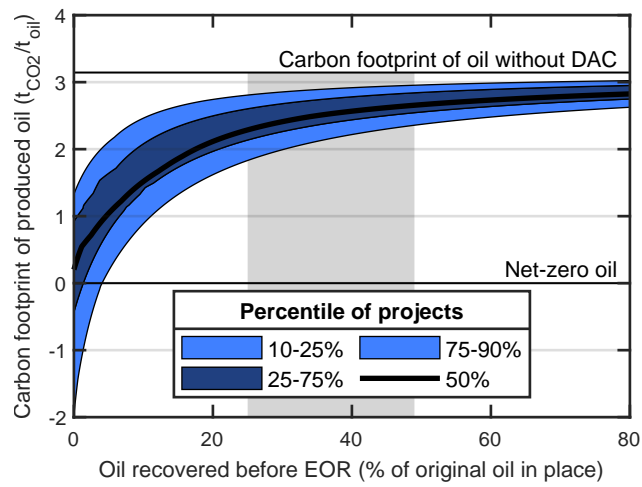


Fig. S2. Carbon footprint of the oil produced, C_{oil} , as a function of oil recovered before EOR, R_{PRE} , for 16 CO₂-EOR projects reported in (1). The black line is the median, the dark blue area indicates the interquartile range (25th to 75th percentiles), and the light blue areas show the 10th to 25th and 75th to 90th percentiles. The grey area represents a typical range of oil produced before EOR for reservoirs in the US (2).