



Impact of gas/liquid phase change of CO₂ during injection for sequestration

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ABSTRACT

CO₂ sequestration in deep saline formations is an effective and important process to control the rapid rise in CO₂ emissions. The process of injecting CO₂ requires reliable predictions of the stress in the formation and the fluid pressure distributions – particularly since monitoring of the CO₂ migration is difficult – to mitigate leakage, prevent induced seismicity, and analyze wellbore stability. A key aspect of CO₂ is the gas–liquid phase transition at the temperatures and pressures of relevance to leakage and sequestration, which has been recognized as being critical for accurate predictions but has been challenging to model without *ad hoc* empiricisms.

This paper presents a robust multiphase thermodynamics-based poromechanics model to capture the complex phase transition behavior of CO₂ and predict the stress and pressure distribution under super- and sub- critical conditions during the injection process. A finite element implementation of the model is applied to analyze the behavior of a multiphase porous system with CO₂ as it displaces the fluid brine phase. We find that if CO₂ undergoes a phase transition in the geologic reservoir, the spatial variation of the density is significantly affected, and the migration mobility of CO₂ decreases in the reservoir. A key feature of our approach is that we do not *a priori* assume the location of the CO₂ gas/liquid interface – or even if it occurs at all – but rather, this is a prediction of the model, along with the spatial variation of the phase of CO₂ and the change of the saturation profile due to the phase change.

1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) sequestration and storage in geological formations is among the most promising available approaches to reduce CO₂ emissions (National Academies of Sciences Engineering and Medicine, 2019). The CO₂ emitted from different industrial sources can be collected and isolated in deep underground formations (Chen et al., 2017), or injected into depleted natural gas reservoirs to enhance gas recovery (Oldenburg et al., 2001). Of the various types of geological formations that are considered for CO₂ storage, saline aquifers appear to provide the most storage capacity for CO₂ (Ahmad et al., 2016). However, there remain several fundamental challenges (National Academies of Sciences Engineering and Medicine, 2019).

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CO₂ is typically injected into deep, brine-saturated formations in a dense, super-critical state, as the lower viscosity of super-critical CO₂ compared to its liquid phase makes it easier to inject. The higher density of the resident brine drives the injected CO₂ to migrate upward toward the top of the reservoir, where it is ideally trapped beneath the caprock. The migration of CO₂ and brine involves more complex processes over longer timescales. CO₂ can gradually dissolve into the resident brine, forming a denser and more reactive fluid that sinks through convective mixing, reducing the risk of leakage. The CO₂-brine interaction is coupled with a series of geochemical reactions with the surrounding subsurface material, leading to alteration in transport properties such as porosity and permeability through dissolution and precipitation processes (Fu et al., 2015; Ilgen et al., 2019; Balashov et al., 2015; Ahmad, 2016; Wang et al., 2023; Karimi and Bhattacharya, 2024).

Prior work. Reliable predictions, based on numerical simulations, are needed to predict CO₂ propagation in deep underground formations and estimate the capacity of storage to reduce possible leakage risks (Vilarrasa et al., 2019). Further, injecting super-critical CO₂ into deep geological formations can increase fluid pressure near injection wells, alter the stress regime along pre-existing faults, potentially leading to fault activation and induced seismicity (Rutqvist et al., 2016; Vilarrasa et al., 2019). Such seismic events can compromise the integrity of the underground reservoir and caprock, posing a risk of CO₂ leakage to shallower layers (Chang et al., 2019; Newell and Martinez, 2020). Consequently, accurately predicting the spatial distribution of pressure, CO₂ phase, and density is essential for ensuring the safety of CO₂ storage.

Several studies have proposed numerical models to investigate the subsurface transport of injected CO₂, focusing primarily on fluid transport while often neglecting the effect of deformation of the porous medium (Hosseini et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2015; Giorgis et al., 2007; Preisig and Prévost, 2011; Sun et al., 2018). These models usually simplify fluid saturation-pressure relationships and CO₂ properties, commonly assuming CO₂ to remain in a super-critical state at constant temperatures (Negara et al., 2011; Rabinovich et al., 2015; Song et al., 2014; Nordbotten and Celia, 2010). While other studies account for coupled fluid transport and matrix deformation, they still depend on simplified constitutive models for pressure-saturation relations and fluid properties (Huang et al., 2015; Preisig and Prévost, 2011; Okwen et al., 2011; Vilarrasa et al., 2016; Piao et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2018, 2021; Singh et al., 2011).

In general, simulation of phase transformation in fluids is challenging because of the significant change in the density and viscosity values, the evolving interfaces between liquid and gas, and the complex behavior of the liquid/gas mixture. Recently, free energy-based approaches have been proposed to predict the phase transformation of fluids for different applications. For instance, Ateshian and Shim developed an energy-based formulation with particular emphasis on the jump conditions across the interface of liquid and gas phases (Ateshian and Shim, 2022); Hu et al. proposed a formulation based on the Navier-Stokes-Korteweg equations to simulate the liquid-vapor phase transition under non-equilibrium conditions (Hu et al., 2022); and we presented a variational energy-based model for multi-phase flow which models the behavior of phase-changing fluids in a porous medium (Karimi et al., 2022).

Most prior studies of CO₂ sequestration ignore the CO₂ phase transition to simplify the flow analysis; however, it can cause considerable error, specifically for short-term, high-rate injections and in shallower reservoirs. Some studies consider the phase transition of CO₂ during injection and can be broadly categorized into three approaches. The first approach assumes a constant density for the liquid phase of CO₂ and typically combines the empirical Brooks-Corey model, that provides a relationship between fluid pressure and phase saturation, with the equation of state for CO₂ e.g., Kolditz et al. (2012) and Goerke et al. (2011); this assumption can introduce considerable errors in predicting pressure and density profiles. The second approach employs a multi-phase flow by considering phase partitioning criteria to simulate the CO₂ phase change. This approach considers a pressure threshold to define different phases (e.g., TOUGH simulators (Pruess, 2004, 2011b,a)); however, the use of a sharp threshold in the subcritical regions, where CO₂ pressure is close to the critical pressure, can lead to unstable behavior, abrupt changes in properties, and CO₂ phase change with small perturbations. The third approach focuses on studying the phase change of CO₂ during injection by using multi-phase flow models to simulate the behavior of CO₂ in both its liquid and gas states and accounting for the phase transition of CO₂ by considering the variation in the enthalpy of the CO₂ liquid and gas phases, which requires the calculation of internal energy for each phase, e.g. Lu and Connell (2014), Wan et al. (2021) and Sasaki and Sugai (2011); however, these models are typically limited to simulating the behavior of CO₂ in the injector.

Contributions of this paper. Typically, CO₂ is stored in the super-critical phase in deep saline formations at depths of 800 m to 3 km. However, in a large reservoir, CO₂ can migrate to shallower depths (van der Meer et al., 2009), and also leakage of CO₂ from the reservoir to faults or abandoned wellbores and upward migration of CO₂ to the ground surface can decrease the temperature and pressure and lead to sub-critical conditions (Pruess, 2011b, 2004; Vilarrasa and Rutqvist, 2017). Sub-critical conditions of CO₂ at depths shallower than 500–750 m can provide a mixture of CO₂ phases (gas, liquid, and super-critical), creating a complicated multi-phase flow process.

In this work, we investigate the complex behavior of multiphase CO₂ flow that consistently accounts for the CO₂ phase transition using an approach based on the thermodynamical free energy (Karimi et al., 2022). Our approach enables accounting of the entire mixture of CO₂ phases without any *ad hoc* assumptions on the behavior of CO₂ and using a minimal set of state variables. We use the simple yet effective van der Waals (vdW) model to simulate the complex behavior and phase transition of CO₂ under sub-critical conditions. The free-energy-based formulation and the vdW model allow us to simulate the transition from the gas to the liquid phase of CO₂ at different temperatures. This approach consistently provides fluid pressure-density relations without relying on additional *ad hoc* assumptions, therefore preventing unstable behavior and oscillations during the phase transition. We study the impact of the CO₂ phase transition on the pressure, saturation, density distributions, and migration mobility of CO₂ in a geological formation. We also investigate the upward mobility of gas-liquid CO₂ and super-critical CO₂ in the event of leakage. In Appendix B, we briefly compare the approach proposed in this paper with conventional multiphase methods.

2. Model formulation

We consider CO₂ injected into a saturated saline reservoir containing incompressible brine with a deformable solid skeleton. To simulate this multiphase fluid unsaturated system, we use the energetic formulation developed by Karimi et al. (2022). We assume that our system consists of three distinct immiscible components: the solid skeleton, CO₂, and the brine fluid phases, indexed by subscripts s , c , and b , respectively. For simplicity, we neglect chemical reactions and assume isothermal conditions.

The overall structure of our approach is variational; while different from the usual Coleman-Noll procedure, it provides an approach that is equally consistent with thermodynamics (Naghizadeh et al., 2025). We begin with a free energy that is formulated in Section 2.2 and has contributions from the solid skeleton as well as the fluid phases. From this energy, the mechanical response, corresponding to momentum balance, is obtained by setting to zero the variation of the energy with respect to the deformation. The fluid response is obtained by defining the chemical potential as the variation of the energy with respect to the fluid density, and then relating to fluid velocity to the gradient of the chemical potential. Finally, the variation of the energy with respect to the volume fraction provides the local balance of fluid pressure, i.e., at a given spatial location, the pressure must be equal in all of the fluid phases. Finally, we discuss briefly in Section 2.7 the non-negativity of the dissipation.

2.1. Kinematics and notation

We use the subscript \cdot_0 to refer to quantities and differential operators in the reference configuration. We define the deformation through the referential position \mathbf{x}_0 , the deformed position $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{x}_0, t)$, and the displacement $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_0, t) := \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{x}_0, t) - \mathbf{x}_0$. Then, we have the deformation gradient tensor $\mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_0}$ and the Jacobian $J = \det \mathbf{F}$.

We define two densities for each fluid phase i : the mass of the fluid phase per unit deformed volume of the entire mixture, denoted \mathcal{R}_i ; and the mass of the fluid phase per unit deformed volume occupied by that phase, denoted the “true” density ρ_i . These are related by $\mathcal{R}_i = \phi_i \rho_i$, where ϕ_i is the volume fraction of phase i . The relations between referential and current quantities, following the assumption of affine transformation (Karimi et al., 2022; Gajo, 2010; Li et al., 2004; Hong et al., 2008), are $\mathcal{R}_i = J^{-1} \mathcal{R}_{0i}$ and $\rho_i = \frac{\phi_{0i}}{\phi_i} J^{-1} \rho_{0i}$.

2.2. Energetics

The thermodynamic free energy of the system is defined as:

$$\mathcal{E}[\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{R}_{0c}, \phi_c] = \int_{\Omega_0} \left(W_{0s}(\mathbf{F}) + W_{0c}(\mathcal{R}_{0c}, \phi_c, J) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} |\nabla_0 \mathcal{R}_{0c}|^2 - \mathbf{b}_0 \cdot \mathbf{x} \right) d\Omega_0 \quad (2.1)$$

where W_{0s} and W_{0c} are the (Helmholtz) free energies per unit referential volume of the skeleton and the CO₂, respectively; the brine is assumed to be incompressible, and therefore, its free energy does not appear. The potential due to gravity is given by $\mathbf{b}_0 \cdot \mathbf{x}$, where $\mathbf{b}_0 = \mathcal{R}_0 \mathbf{g} = (\mathcal{R}_{0s} + \mathcal{R}_{0c} + \mathcal{R}_{0b}) \mathbf{g}$ is the body force due to gravity \mathbf{g} . The gradient term with the coefficient ϵ is a phase-field-like regularization to account for the surface energy of the CO₂ gas/liquid interface and provide smoothing to allow the use of straightforward computational methods that do not need to track free boundaries (Fu et al., 2016). This energy includes contributions due to the deformation of the solid skeleton as well as due to changes in volume of the (compressible) fluid phases.

The solid skeleton is modeled using a simple compressible Neo-Hookean free energy:

$$W_{0s}(\mathbf{F}) = \phi_s \left(\frac{\mu}{2} (\text{tr}(\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}) - 2) - \mu \log J + \frac{\lambda}{2} (\log J)^2 \right) \quad (2.2)$$

where μ and λ are the Lamé elastic constants. The CO₂ is modeled using the vdW free energy in the setting of hyperelasticity by the expression (Karimi et al., 2022; Abeyaratne and Knowles, 2006):

$$W_{0c}(\mathcal{R}_{0c}, \phi_c, J) = c \mathcal{R}_{0c} \bar{R} T (1 - \log(c \bar{R} T)) - \mathcal{R}_{0c} \bar{R} T \log \left(\frac{J \phi_c}{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} - b \right) - a \frac{\mathcal{R}_{0c}^2}{J \phi_c} \quad (2.3)$$

where \bar{R} is the ideal gas constant; T is the temperature; c is a non-dimensional constant, and a and b are constants that relate to the phase transition.

While we have made specific constitutive choices above, the proposed framework is general and allows for the use of different free energy models. In Appendix A, we compare the simple vdW model against the for an explanation of simulating CO₂ phase using the Peng-Robinson free energy model.

2.3. Incompressibility of brine

The incompressibility of brine introduces a geometric constraint. The volume fractions of CO₂, skeleton, and brine must satisfy $\phi_s + \phi_c + \phi_b = 1$. Since the solid phase deforms affinely, we have that $\phi_s = \phi_{0s}$, i.e., the volume fraction in the deformed configuration is equal to the volume fraction in the reference configuration. For the incompressible brine, we require that the true density in the current configuration have a fixed value ρ_b , giving $\phi_b = \frac{\mathcal{R}_{0b}}{J \rho_b}$. Together, these provide the relation $\phi_c + \phi_{0s} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_{0b}}{J \rho_b} = 1$. We enforce the

constraint by using a Lagrange multiplier p that corresponds to the fluid pressure in the brine. We define the Lagrangian functional as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}[\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{R}_{0c}, \mathcal{R}_{0b}, \tilde{\phi}_c, p] = \int_{\Omega_0} \left(W_{0s}(\mathbf{F}) + W_{0c}(\mathcal{R}_{0c}, \tilde{\phi}_c) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} |\nabla_0 \mathcal{R}_{0c}|^2 - \mathbf{b}_0 \cdot \mathbf{x} + p \left(\tilde{\phi}_c + J\phi_{0s} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_{0b}}{\rho_b} - J \right) \right) d\Omega_0 \quad (2.4)$$

For mathematical simplicity, we define $\tilde{\phi}_c = J\phi_c$ as a primary variable.

2.4. Fluid transport

We obtain the chemical potentials of the CO₂ and brine by taking the variational/functional derivative of the Lagrangian (2.4) with respect to \mathcal{R}_{0i} (Gajo, 2010; Coussy, 2004; Karimi et al., 2022):

$$\eta_{0c} = -\frac{\partial W_{0c}}{\partial \mathcal{R}_{0c}} + \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{x} - \epsilon \operatorname{div}_0(\nabla_0 \mathcal{R}_{0c}) \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_{0b} = -\frac{p}{\rho_b} + \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{x} \quad (2.5)$$

The referential relative velocity vector for each fluid phase is defined as $\mathbf{v}_{0i} = \mathbf{K}_i \nabla_0 \eta_{0i}$, where \mathbf{K}_i is the referential permeability. The permeability in the current configuration is $\mathbf{k}_i = \mathbf{J}^{-1} \mathbf{F} \mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{F}^T$, and $\mathbf{k}_i = \frac{\kappa}{\gamma_i} \rho_i \mathbf{I}$ with κ the true permeability; γ_i the dynamic viscosity of the fluid; and \mathbf{I} is the second-order identity tensor. The viscosity of each fluid phase is assumed to be constant. Consequently, using the relation $\mathbf{q}_{0i} = \mathcal{R}_i \mathbf{v}_{0i}$ for the referential fluid flux vector, we have the flux vectors for the CO₂ and brine:

$$\mathbf{q}_{0c} = -\mathbf{K}_c \left(\mathcal{R}_c \nabla_0 \frac{\partial W_{0c}}{\partial \mathcal{R}_{0c}} - \mathcal{R}_c \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{g} + \epsilon \mathcal{R}_c \nabla_0 \operatorname{div}_0(\nabla_0 \mathcal{R}_{0c}) \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{q}_{0b} = -\mathbf{K}_b (\phi_b \nabla_0 p - \mathcal{R}_b \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{g}) \quad (2.6)$$

Finally, using the conservation of mass for each fluid phase, we can write the governing (partial differential equation) PDE:

$$-\int_{\partial\Omega} \mathbf{q}_i \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{\Omega} \mathcal{R}_i dV \right) \implies -\operatorname{div}_0 \mathbf{q}_{0i} = \frac{d}{dt} \mathcal{R}_{0i} \quad (2.7)$$

which is the generalization of the standard Darcy law, which is the simplest model for fluid transport in rigid porous media.

We highlight that the surface energy contribution leads to a third-order derivative in the CO₂ flux vector in (2.6)₁ and, consequently, a fourth-order derivative in the balance of mass for the CO₂ phase (2.7). To be able to use a standard finite element approach, we use a mixed method by introducing $\psi := \operatorname{div}_0(\nabla_0 \mathcal{R}_{0c})$, as discussed further in Section 2.8.

2.5. Balance of linear momentum

Setting to zero the variational derivative of the Lagrangian functional (2.4) with respect to \mathbf{x} gives the balance of momentum:

$$\operatorname{div}_0 \mathbf{T} + \mathbf{b}_0 = \mathbf{0} \quad (2.8)$$

where we have defined $\mathbf{T} := \frac{\partial W_{0s}}{\partial \mathbf{F}} + \frac{\partial W_{0c}}{\partial \mathbf{F}}$, the first Piola stress tensor. This corresponds to the total stress and consists of contributions from the elasticity of the solid skeleton and from the volume changes of the compressible fluids. For the constitutive choices in (2.2) and (2.3), we have the expression:

$$\mathbf{T} = \phi_{0s} (\mu \mathbf{F} - \mu \mathbf{F}^{-T} + \lambda \log J \mathbf{F}^{-T}) - (1 - \phi_{0s}) p \mathbf{J} \mathbf{F}^{-T} \quad (2.9)$$

The balance of angular momentum is automatically satisfied by the choice of a frame indifferent energy density in (2.1). That is, since the energy densities in (2.2) and (2.3) are invariant under the transformation $\mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{F}$, for every rotation \mathbf{Q} , it follows that the stress $\mathbf{T} := \frac{\partial W_{0s}}{\partial \mathbf{F}} + \frac{\partial W_{0c}}{\partial \mathbf{F}}$ satisfies the symmetry requirement $\mathbf{T} \mathbf{F}^T = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{T}^T$.

2.6. Balance of fluid pressure

To find the balance of fluid pressure, we set the variation of the Lagrangian (2.4) with respect to $\tilde{\phi}_c$ to 0, while imposing the constraint that the volume fractions must sum to 1 (Section 2.3). This provides the relation:

$$\phi_{0c} \frac{\partial W_{0c}}{\partial \phi_c} = \phi_{0b} \frac{\partial W_{0b}}{\partial \phi_b} \quad (2.10)$$

Using the relation that the pressure is related to the Helmholtz free energy density per unit volume by $p = W(\rho) - \rho \frac{dW}{d\rho}$, we have that $\phi_{0c} \frac{\partial W_{0c}}{\partial \phi_c} = J p_{0c}$ and $\phi_{0c} \frac{\partial W_{0b}}{\partial \phi_b} = p + p_{0b}$ (Chua et al., 2024), where p_{0b} is the initial pressure of brine. Combining these relations results in the balance of fluid pressure, i.e., the fluid pressure in the brine is equal to the fluid pressure in the CO₂. For the vdW model, we can write this explicitly.

$$-\frac{RT\rho_c}{1 - b\rho_c} + a\rho_c^2 + p + p_{0b} = 0 \quad (2.11)$$

We note that we have ignored capillary pressure effects but including these effects would not change the overall structure of our argument.

2.7. Non-negativity of dissipation

To ensure compatibility with thermodynamics, it is sufficient in the isothermal setting to ensure that the dissipation is non-negative for any process (Penrose and Fife, 1990; Abeyaratne and Knowles, 2006). Following (de Macedo et al., 2018; Agrawal and Dayal, 2015a,b; Naghibzadeh et al., 2025), we compute the time derivative of the energy from (2.1):

$$\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dt} = \int_{\Omega_0} \left(\delta_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{E} \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} + \delta_{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} \mathcal{E} \frac{d\mathcal{R}_{0c}}{dt} + \delta_{\phi_c} \mathcal{E} \frac{d\phi_c}{dt} \right) d\Omega_0 \quad (2.12)$$

where $\delta_{(\cdot)} \mathcal{E}$ is the variational derivative of \mathcal{E} with respect to (\cdot) .

In our approach, we have set $\delta_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{E} \equiv \mathbf{0}$ to obtain linear momentum balance, and $\delta_{\phi_c} \mathcal{E} \equiv 0$ to obtain fluid pressure balance. Further, substituting for $\frac{d\mathcal{R}_{0c}}{dt}$ from (2.7) and using that $\mathbf{q}_{0c} = \mathcal{R}_c \mathbf{v}_{0c} = -\mathbf{K}_c \nabla_0 \delta_{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} \mathcal{E}$, we can write:

$$\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dt} = \int_{\Omega_0} \delta_{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} \mathcal{E} \frac{d\mathcal{R}_{0c}}{dt} d\Omega_0 = \int_{\Omega_0} \delta_{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} \mathcal{E} \operatorname{div}_0 \left(\mathbf{K}_c \nabla_0 \delta_{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} \mathcal{E} \right) d\Omega_0 = - \int_{\Omega_0} \nabla_0 \delta_{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} \mathcal{E} \cdot \mathbf{K}_c \nabla_0 \delta_{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} \mathcal{E} d\Omega_0 \quad (2.13)$$

where we have used integration-by-parts to obtain the final expression. From the positive-definiteness of \mathbf{K}_c we have that the integrand is non-negative pointwise above, leading to the conclusion that $\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{dt} \leq 0$ for every process, in accord with thermodynamics.

2.8. Weak form and finite element implementation

Our numerical solution is performed using the Finite Element Method in the open-source framework FEniCS (FEniCS, 2025).

We have six unknowns: \mathbf{x} , \mathcal{R}_{0c} , \mathcal{R}_{0b} , $\tilde{\phi}_c$, p , and ψ . We denote the corresponding test functions by $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$, $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_c$, $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_b$, $\hat{\phi}$, \hat{p} , and $\hat{\psi}$. These are governed by 3 PDEs, 2 pointwise constraints, and one substitution to provide a mixed method to deal with higher-order derivatives. The weak forms are as follows:

$$\text{Momentum Balance (2.8): } \int_{\Omega_0} (-T \cdot \nabla_0 \hat{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{b}_0 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}) d\Omega_0 + \int_{\partial\Omega_0} (\mathbf{T}\mathbf{n}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}} dS = \mathbf{0} \quad (2.14)$$

$$\text{CO}_2 \text{ Transport (2.7): } \int_{\Omega_0} \left(-\mathbf{q}_{0c} \cdot \nabla_0 \hat{\mathcal{R}}_c + \frac{\mathcal{R}_{0c}^n - \mathcal{R}_{0c}^{n-1}}{dt} \hat{\mathcal{R}}_c \right) d\Omega_0 + \int_{\partial\Omega_0} (\mathbf{q}_{0c} \cdot \mathbf{n}) \hat{\mathcal{R}}_c dS = 0 \quad (2.15)$$

$$\text{Brine Transport (2.7): } \int_{\Omega_0} \left(-\mathbf{q}_{0b} \cdot \nabla_0 \hat{\mathcal{R}}_b + \frac{\mathcal{R}_{0b}^n - \mathcal{R}_{0b}^{n-1}}{dt} \hat{\mathcal{R}}_b \right) d\Omega_0 + \int_{\partial\Omega_0} (\mathbf{q}_{0b} \cdot \mathbf{n}) \hat{\mathcal{R}}_b dS = 0 \quad (2.16)$$

$$\text{Incompressibility of Brine (2.4): } \int_{\Omega_0} \left(J \phi_{0s} + \tilde{\phi}_c + \frac{\mathcal{R}_{0b}}{\rho_b} - J \right) \hat{\phi} d\Omega_0 = 0 \quad (2.17)$$

$$\text{Fluid Pressure Balance (2.11): } \int_{\Omega_0} \left(-\frac{RT\rho_c}{1-b\rho_c} + a\rho_c^2 + p + p_{0b} \right) \hat{p} d\Omega_0 = 0 \quad (2.18)$$

$$\text{The substitution } \psi := \operatorname{div}_0 (\nabla_0 \mathcal{R}_{0c}): \int_{\Omega_0} (\psi \hat{\psi} + \nabla_0 \mathcal{R}_{0c} \cdot \nabla_0 \hat{\psi}) d\Omega_0 - \int_{\partial\Omega_0} \hat{\psi} \nabla_0 \mathcal{R}_{0c} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = 0 \quad (2.19)$$

where \mathbf{n} is the unit normal to the boundary $\partial\Omega_0$.

We use a triangular mesh with roughly constant refinement throughout the domain. We use continuous interpolations of order 1 for \mathbf{x} , $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_{0c}$, $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_{0b}$, and $\tilde{\phi}_c$; discontinuous Galerkin (DG) interpolations of order 0, which are piecewise constant within each element, for p ; and DG interpolations of order 1, which are piecewise linear, for ψ . This follows the general heuristic that Lagrange multipliers are interpolated at lower-order to satisfy the inf-sup condition (Strang, 2007).

For time evolution, we use an implicit Euler finite-difference scheme and use Newton methods to solve the resulting nonlinear problem at each time step.

3. Numerical results

3.1. CO₂ injection into an underground layer

We consider a model situation of CO₂ injection from a well into an underground saline layer and find that CO₂ propagation into the layer slows down if phase transformations occur.

We consider a porous layer at the depth of 500 m, which is initially saturated with brine at an initial pressure of $p_0 = 6$ MPa. We consider porosity of 0.2 ($\phi_s = 0.8$), and inject super-critical CO₂ from the right boundary with constant rate $q_c = 0.088$ kg/m² s. We assume a symmetric domain in the left and right side of the injection well with the geometry and boundary conditions shown in Fig. 1, and the material properties of the solid skeleton, brine, and CO₂ are listed in Table 1. We use $\epsilon = 0.01$.

Fig. 2 illustrates the variation of CO₂ pressure versus the inverse of CO₂ density ρ_c^{-1} at different temperatures, at various points along the horizontal dashed line shown in Fig. 1; as expected, it resembles closely the vdW phase diagram. In this calculation, for simplicity, we do not consider heat transfer between CO₂ and the porous medium following Goerke et al. (2011), and the temperature consequently refers to the temperature of CO₂. We consider temperatures below and above the CO₂ critical temperature ($T_c = 303.4$ K). Our results show that close to the injection well and for temperatures below the critical temperature ($T < T_c$), CO₂

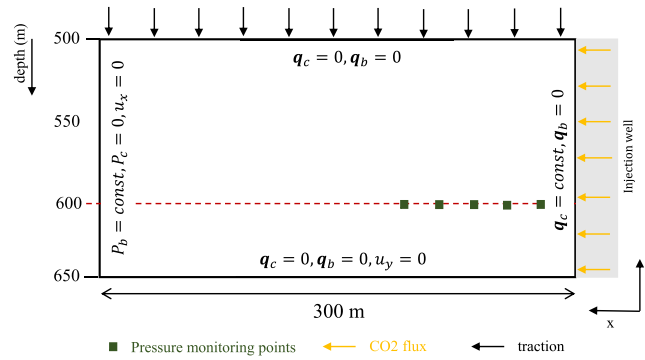
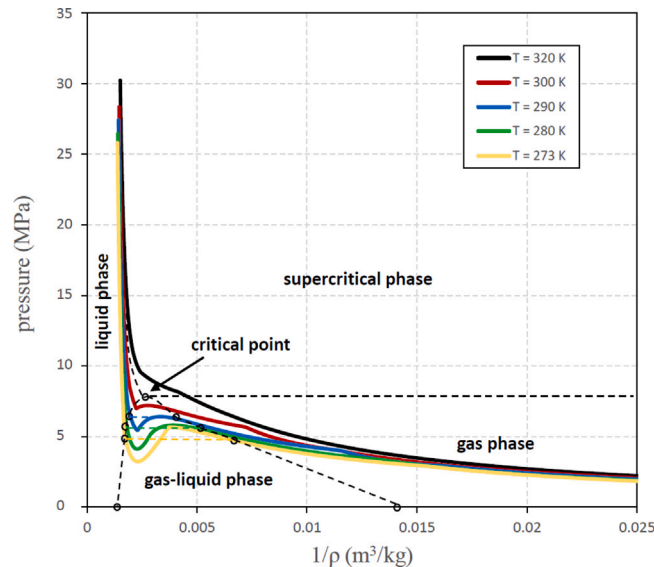


Fig. 1. The geometry of the porous layer and injection well.

Table 1

Properties of the solid phase, brine, and CO₂.

Property	Value
Solid phase Lamé constant, λ	144.2 MPa
Solid phase Lamé constant, μ	96.1 MPa
Solid density, ρ_s	2000 kg/m ³
Intrinsic permeability, κ	2×10^{-12} m ²
Brine density, ρ_b	1100 kg/m ³
Brine viscosity, γ_b	0.001 Pa s
CO ₂ viscosity, γ_c	3×10^{-5} Pa s
Gas constant, \bar{R}	8.32 m ³ Pa/K mol
CO ₂ constant, a	0.364 Pa m ⁶ /mol ²
CO ₂ constant, b	42.67×10^{-6} m ³ /mol
Critical temperature, T_c	303.4 K
Gravitational acceleration, g	10 m/s ²

Fig. 2. CO₂ pressure v. the inverse of CO₂ density at different temperatures at $t = 10000$ s. Dashed lines represent the phase boundaries.

experiences a phase transition from liquid to gas phase. The dashed lines in Fig. 2 represent the saturated liquid line, critical point, and saturated gas line. We find that for lower temperatures, CO₂ experiences a sharper change in pressure.

Fig. 3 shows the CO₂ pressure versus distance from the injection well for different temperatures at a depth of 600 m (the red dashed line shown in Fig. 1) and at 10000 s after injection initiation. Our findings clearly show the phase transition of CO₂ close to the injection point for temperature values below the CO₂ critical temperature. The distance from the well is not sensitive to the injection temperature over the range studied.

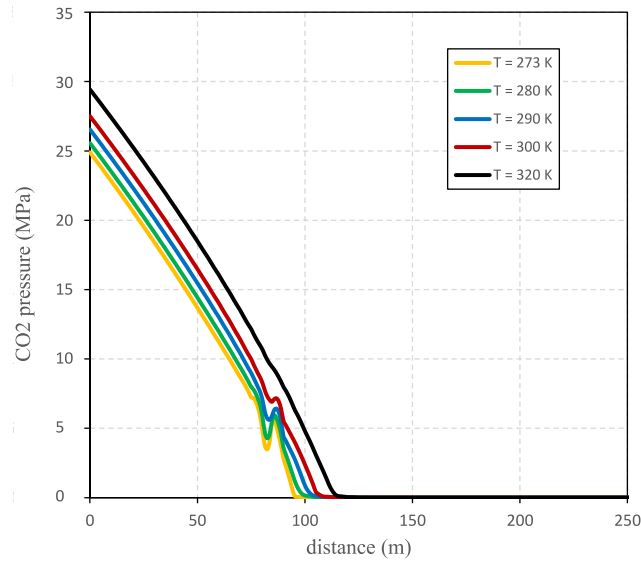


Fig. 3. CO₂ pressure (p_c) v. distance at different temperatures at $t = 10000$ s, and at depth 600 m.

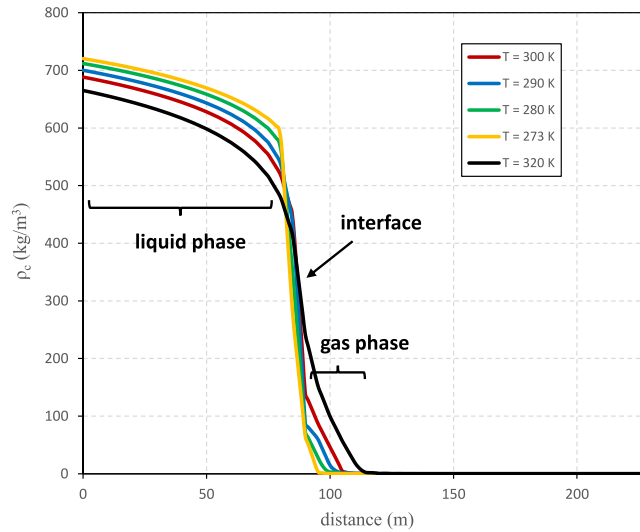


Fig. 4. CO₂ density ρ_c v. distance for different temperatures at $t = 10000$ s, and at depth 600 m.

Fig. 4 shows the CO₂ density ρ_c versus distance from the injection well for different temperatures at 10000 s after the start of injection. The abrupt change in the CO₂ density highlights clearly the interface between the gas and liquid phases; thus, at 10000 s after injection the interface has migrated to approximately 85 m away from the injection well. We find that for lower temperatures, CO₂ experiences a larger jump in density. Based on this plot, we can precisely locate the phase transition interface at different temperatures.

Fig. 5 shows the total fluid pressure versus time at distances from the injection well for the monitoring points shown in Fig. 1. The pressure increases with time throughout the domain near the injection well once the plume migrates to a monitoring location. As expected, the points closer to the injection well have higher fluid pressures.

Fig. 6 shows the CO₂ saturation – defined as $S_c = \phi_c / (1 - \phi_s)$ – contours for two temperatures, one below ($T = 280$ K) and one above ($T = 320$ K) the critical temperature. This Figure compares the CO₂ migration in the reservoir under super-critical ($T = 320$ K) and sub-critical conditions ($T = 280$ K). In this simulation, CO₂ is injected to a brine saturated reservoir with initial pressure less than the critical pressure of CO₂. In the super-critical case (Fig. 6, left), CO₂ undergoes phase transition from super-critical to gas phase, as the migration in the reservoir. In the sub-critical condition (Fig. 6, right) CO₂ undergoes a phase transition from liquid to gas phase. We find that the phase transformation CO₂ in the subcritical phase causes to slower propagation in the reservoir.

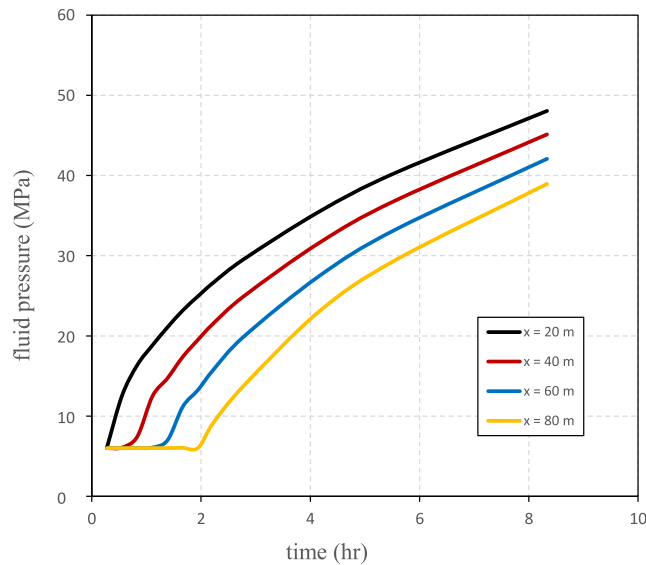


Fig. 5. Total fluid pressure v. time at different distances from the injection well at depth 600m.

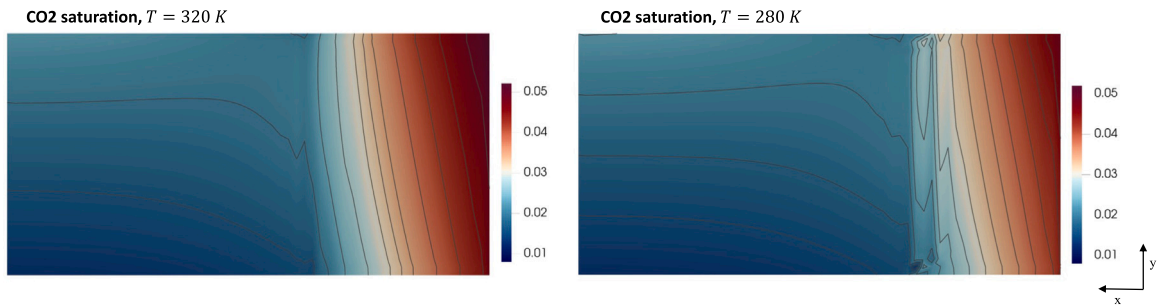


Fig. 6. CO₂ saturation contours at $t = 10000$ s for temperatures above (320 K, left) and below (280 K, right) the critical temperature.

3.2. Upward mobility of CO₂ in a reservoir

In this section, we investigate the upward mobility of CO₂ in a reservoir by injecting CO₂ in the corner of the domain. In a geological reservoir, CO₂ leakage through faults and movement upward to shallower depths decreases the pressure and temperature of the fluid. Therefore, CO₂ experiences sub-critical conditions which can result in forming a mixture of gas-liquid phases. We consider temperatures both above and below the critical temperature of CO₂ to compare the upward mobility of CO₂ in the super and sub-critical conditions. We find that if CO₂ experiences a phase transition, the upward mobility of CO₂ decreases.

For the simulations, the assumed geometry and boundary conditions are shown in Fig. 7. We use a constant CO₂ injection rate of $q_c = 0.0088$ kg/m²s at the right-bottom corner of the reservoir. We consider a 200 m \times 100 m reservoir, which is initially saturated with brine at an initial pressure of 6 MPa. The properties of the solid skeleton, brine, and CO₂ are from Table 1.

Fig. 8 compares the simulations considering $T = 320$ K (without phase transition), and $T = 290$ K (with phase transition) to investigate the effect of CO₂ phase change on the upward mobility and migration of CO₂ in the reservoir. The saturation profiles in Fig. 8 show that as the injection continues, CO₂ migrates to the upper parts of the reservoir due to gravity and the difference in the densities of CO₂ and resident fluid (brine). At $T = 320$ K, when the CO₂ is in the super-critical phase, CO₂ propagates faster in the domain. In the sub-critical condition at $T = 290$ K, due to the phase transition of CO₂ that forms a gas-liquid mixture and a significant increase of density, we see a slower migration rate and lower value of saturation.

In these simulations, we assumed that the viscosity of CO₂ is constant. However, in real soils, the viscosity typically varies, with the liquid phase having a higher viscosity, so it would act to further decrease the mobility of gas-liquid CO₂ in comparison to the super-critical phase. However, if CO₂ undergoes a complete transition to the gas phase under sub-critical conditions, the migration mobility of CO₂ will increase in the geological reservoir in comparison to the super-critical phase (van der Meer et al., 2009). We note that, in general, the CO₂ saturation depends on the elastic properties of the solid skeleton, permeability, injection rate, and temperature.

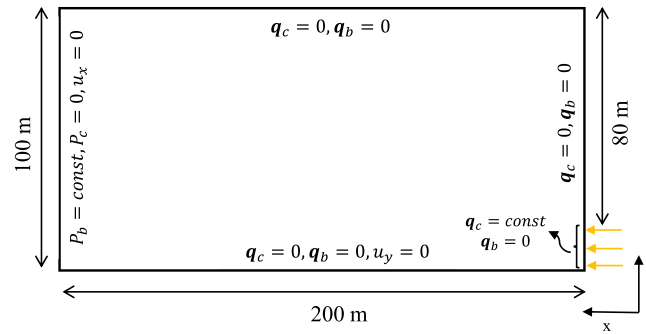


Fig. 7. Geometry and boundary condition of the reservoir.

Fig. 9 shows the CO_2 density profile considering ($T = 290 \text{ K}$), below the critical temperature of CO_2 . We find a clear signature of the migrating interface between the CO_2 liquid and gas phases during the injection as it propagates both upward and horizontally.

4. Concluding remarks

In this study, we used a variational energy-based poromechanics model (Karimi et al., 2022) to simulate CO_2 sequestration in a porous deformable medium. An important advantage of the proposed variational formulation is that we can use the van der Waals model for CO_2 to model the phase change in a consistent thermomechanical formulation. It consequently enables us to conduct an investigation of the complex behavior of the CO_2 gas-liquid mixture, the moving interface between gas and liquid phases, and the sharp change in the CO_2 saturation profile due to the phase change, during the injection and migration into geological formations. We use the model to compute the pressure, density, and CO_2 saturation distributions after injecting dense CO_2 into an underground saline formation and examine the liquid-gas CO_2 phase transition and its effect on pressure and saturation profiles at different temperatures.

We studied numerically two model problems that correspond to simplified versions of realistic injection processes. First, we modeled CO_2 injection from a well into an underground saline layer and found that CO_2 propagation into the layer slows down if phase transformations occur. Second, we investigated the upward mobility of CO_2 in a reservoir and found that if CO_2 experiences a phase transition to form a mixture of gas and liquid phases, the upward mobility of CO_2 decreases. Finally, we note certain limitations of our work and outline potential future directions. First, heat exchange between the fluid phases and the solid porous domain is a significant effect, and the model can be extended beyond the isothermal setting. Second, while our current assumptions include a constant viscosity for CO_2 , the model can be extended by considering viscosity changes associated with phase transformations. Finally, although our focus has been on a two-phase flow, the energetic formulation allows us to study unsaturated systems by introducing an additional gas phase.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Mina Karimi: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Validation, Software, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Elizabeth S. Cochran:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Mehrdad Massoudi:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Noel Walkington:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Matteo Pozzi:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Kaushik Dayal:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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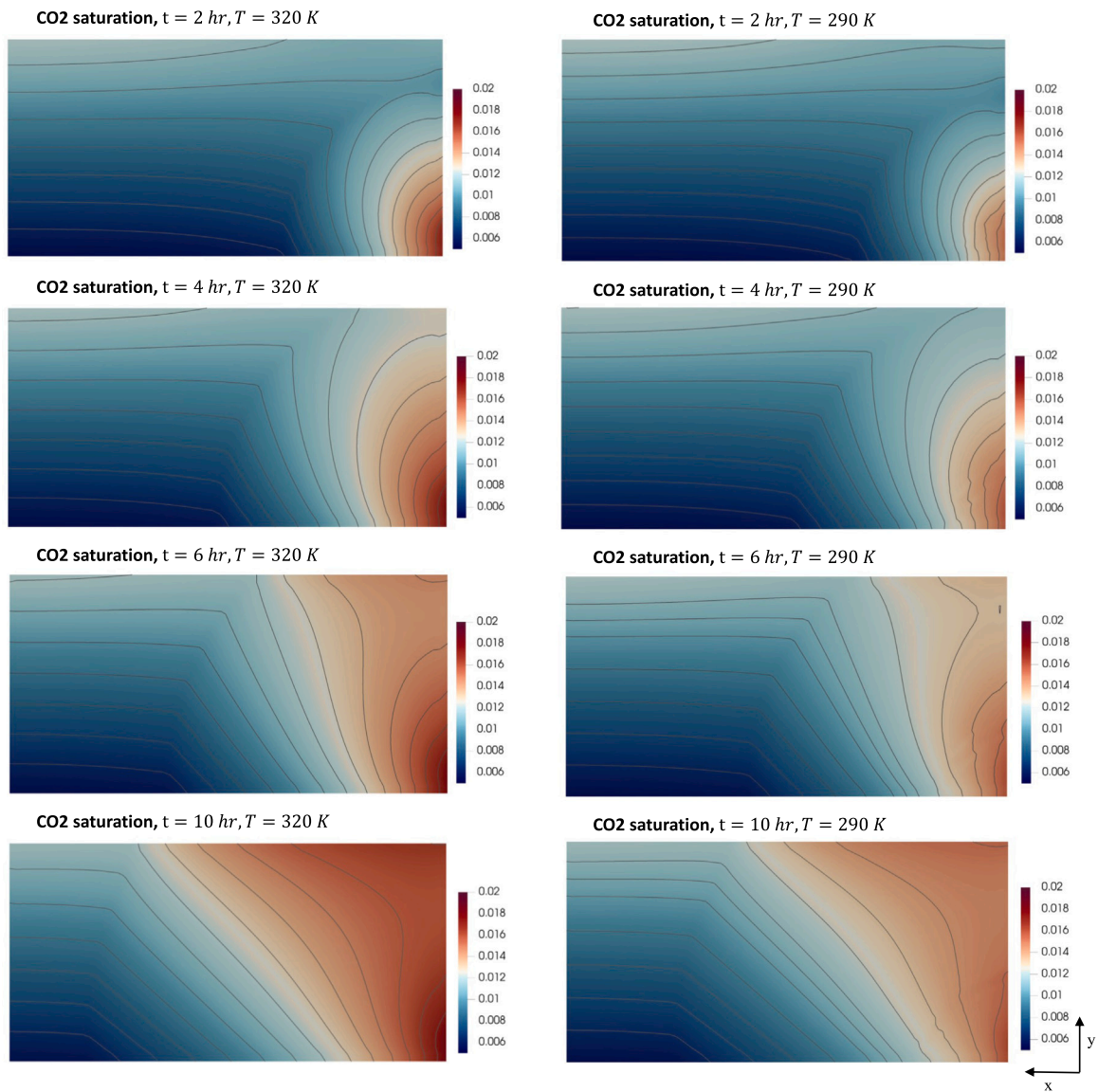


Fig. 8. CO₂ saturation profiles during injection at super-critical $T = 320$ K (left) and sub-critical $T = 290$ K (right) conditions.

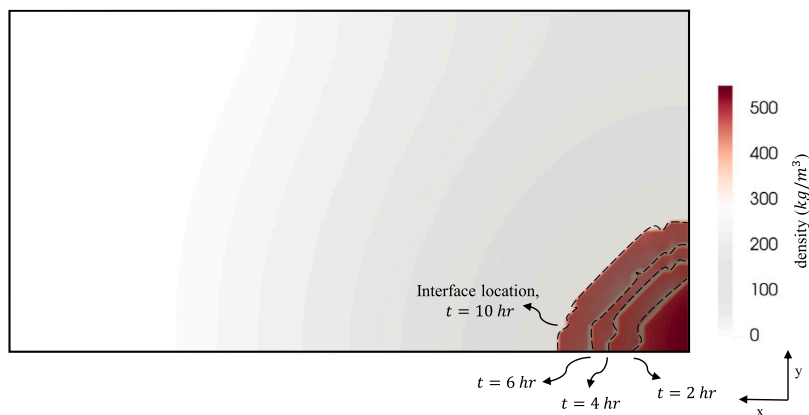


Fig. 9. CO₂ density profiles and the migrating interface between the CO₂ liquid and gas phases during the first 10 h of injection, at $T = 290$ K.

Appendix A. The Peng-Robinson Model for CO₂

In this section, we demonstrate the ability of the approach to handle different free energy functions. Specifically, we use the Peng-Robinson free energy (Poling et al., 2001) to simulate CO₂. The Peng-Robinson has a better fit than vdW to the properties of CO₂, at the cost of introducing more empirical features.

$$W_{0c}(\mathcal{R}_{0c}, \phi_c, J) = c\mathcal{R}_{0c}\bar{R}T(1 - \log(c\bar{R}T)) - \mathcal{R}_{0c}\bar{R}T \log\left(\frac{J\phi_c}{\mathcal{R}_{0c}} - b\right) - \frac{a\alpha\mathcal{R}_{0c}}{2b\sqrt{2}} \log\left(\frac{\sqrt{2} + \left(\frac{b\mathcal{R}_{0c}}{J\phi_c} - 1\right)}{\sqrt{2} - \left(\frac{b\mathcal{R}_{0c}}{J\phi_c} - 1\right)}\right) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

where \bar{R} is the ideal gas constant, c is a non-dimensional constant, a , b and α are constants that relate to the phase transition and are defined as follows:

$$a = 0.4572 \frac{\bar{R}^2 T_c^2}{P_c}, \quad b = 0.0778 \frac{\bar{R} T_c}{P_c}, \quad \alpha = \left(1 + m \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{T}{T_c}}\right)\right), \quad \text{where } m = 0.3746 + 1.5422w - 0.2699w^2$$

where T_c and P_c are critical temperature and pressure of CO₂, respectively, and w is the acentric factor of the fluid.

We substitute the Peng-Robinson free energy (A.1) in the Lagrangian functional (2.4), and obtain the chemical potential of CO₂ by taking the variational derivative of Lagrangian with respect to \mathcal{R}_{0c} :

$$\eta_{0c} = -c\bar{R}T(1 - \log(c\bar{R}T)) + \bar{R}T \log\left(\frac{1}{\rho_c} - b\right) - \frac{\bar{R}T}{1 - b\rho_c} + \frac{a\alpha}{2b\sqrt{2}} \log\left(\frac{\sqrt{2} + (b\rho_c - 1)}{\sqrt{2} - (b\rho_c - 1)}\right) \quad (\text{A.2})$$

We further obtain the balance of fluid pressure by setting to zero the variational derivative of the Lagrangian with respect to $\tilde{\phi}_c$:

$$-\frac{RT\rho_c}{1 - b\rho_c} + \frac{a\alpha\rho_c^2}{1 - b^2\rho_c^2 + 2b\rho_c} + p + p_{0b} = 0 \quad (\text{A.3})$$

Fig. 10 compares the saturation profiles resulting from vdW and Peng-Robinson models. In this simulation, the temperature is set to = 320 K, and the material properties and the vdW constants are taken from Table 1. For the Peng-Robinson model, we assume $w = 0.224$. The boundary and initial conditions are assumed to be similar to Section 3.2.

Appendix B. Comparison with conventional multiphase models

The movement of CO₂ and brine, assumed as two immiscible fluid phases, has been studied using the conventional multiphase method. This method combines an extended form of Darcy's law with mass conservation equations (Bear, 2013; Nordbotten and Celia, 2006). The multiphase extension of Darcy's law describes the relative velocity of each immiscible phase as follows (Court et al., 2012; Dentz and Tartakovsky, 2009):

$$\mathbf{v}_i = -\frac{k k_{ri}}{\mu_i} (\nabla p_i - \rho_i \mathbf{g}) \quad (\text{B.1})$$

where k is the true permeability of the medium, and k_{ri} is the relative permeability of each phase. The relative permeability is a function of saturation S_i and varies between zero and one, i.e., $0 < k_{ri}(S_i) < 1$. The function $k_{ri}(S_i)$ is typically determined empirically based on experimental measurements. For details on different relative permeability relations, we refer to Court et al. (2012).

The conservation of mass for each fluid phase can be written as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\phi_i \rho_i) + \text{div}(\rho_i \mathbf{v}_i) = 0 \quad (\text{B.2})$$

where ϕ_i is the porosity of each fluid phase and can be defined as $\phi_i = \phi S_i$, where ϕ is the porosity of medium and for simplicity can be assumed constant. Under this assumption, the system has six unknowns: S_c , S_b , ρ_c , ρ_b , p_c , and p_b , where subscripts c , and b refer to CO₂ and brine phases. The system is constrained by the saturation condition $S_c + S_b = 1$. The compressibility conditions for each fluid phase relate the density of each fluid phase to pressure. Additionally, the capillary pressure, $p_{\text{capillary}} = p_c - p_b$, provides a relationship between the CO₂ and brine pressure. $p_{\text{capillary}}(S_i)$ is a function of saturation, which follows empirical relations such as Brooks-Corey (Kolditz et al., 2012).

In this work, we neglect the capillary pressure. Based on the van der Waals (vdW) free energy, the pressure of CO₂ is a function of ρ_c . We note that our definition of the flux and velocity vectors for each fluid phase (Section 2.4) leads to a linear relative permeability formulation, given by $k_{ri} = \phi S_i$. However, the framework in this paper is general and can be adapted to incorporate capillary pressure effects, nonlinear relative permeability relations, and compressibility of the brine phase, which are topics for future work.

Data availability

A version of the code developed for this work is available at doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10820190.

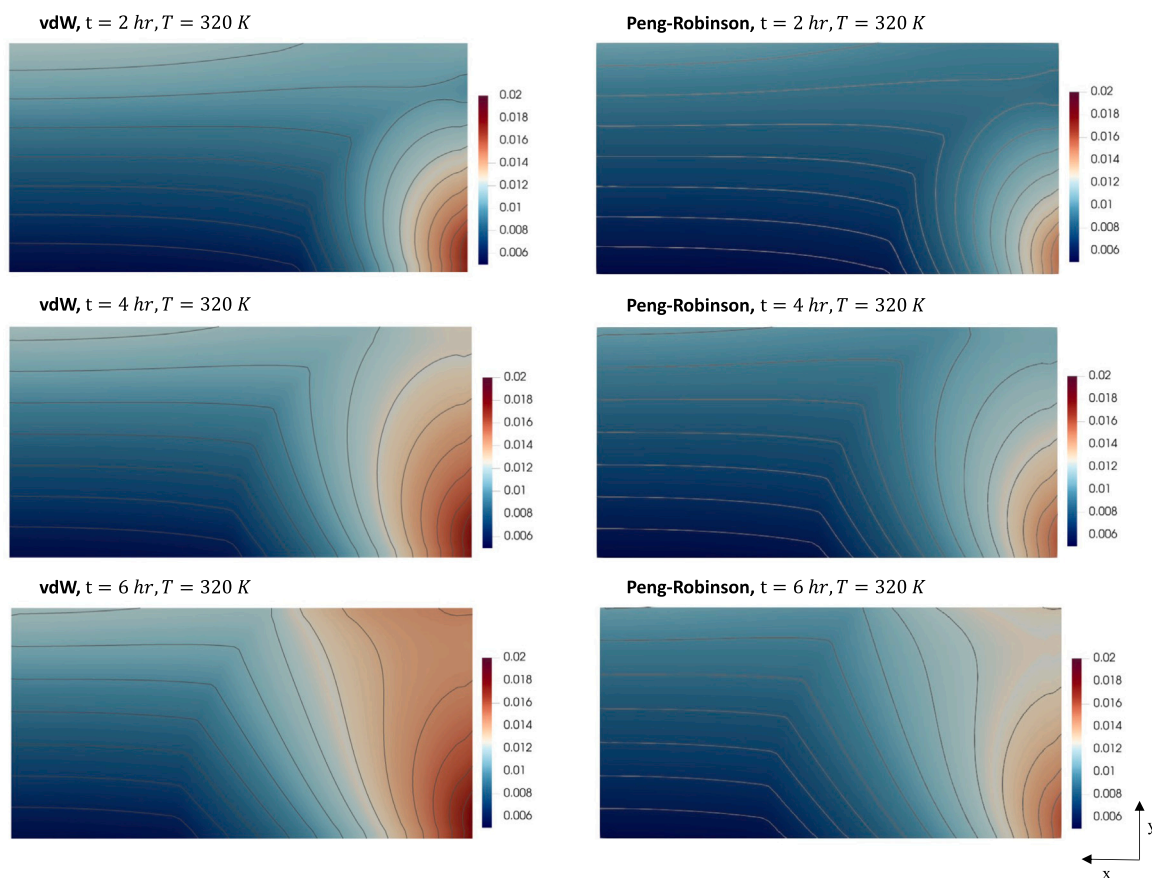


Fig. 10. Comparison of CO₂ saturation profiles using the vdW model (right) and the Peng-Robinson model (left), at a temperature $T = 320$ K.

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