

## Review article

# Different ways to approach shale reservoirs' CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential in America

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## ARTICLE INFO

## Keywords:

Shale  
CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption  
CO<sub>2</sub> storage

## ABSTRACT

To achieve the Net Zero Carbon Emissions (NZCE) target by 2050, Carbon Capture, Utilization, and Storage (CCUS) is a major method. Gathering and injecting CO<sub>2</sub> into shale reservoirs is an effective way to reduce the CO<sub>2</sub> amount in the air and thus, release the greenhouse effect. CO<sub>2</sub> injection into organic-rich shales could provide dual benefits of incremental oil or gas recovery and secure CO<sub>2</sub> storage. When planning the CO<sub>2</sub> injection project, the most important question is how much gas could be stored in the reservoir. Methods for calculating CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential in shale reservoirs have been studied by many researchers. However, few researchers put those methods together and make comparisons to each other. This paper summarized five methods for evaluating CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential in five shale reservoirs by using the literature published in recent years. This paper aims to discuss and evaluate the technical aspects related to gas storage. Those geomechanical properties, petrophysical properties, and construction parameters were discussed. Among those parameters, CO<sub>2</sub> injection rate, skin factor, and Knudsen diffusion could significantly affect CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential evaluation results. Also, if well integrity, especially cement quality, and permeability could be taken into consideration, CO<sub>2</sub> storage simulation models' results will be more realistic. The significances of this study are: (1) served as guidance in calculating CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in shale oil plays; (2) provides analyses in evaluating nowadays methods' limitations; (3) gives recommendations to researchers on how to improve those methods or create a new one.

## 1. Introduction

Mingxing Bai et al. [1] mentioned that greenhouse gas such as CO<sub>2</sub> is a major villains of global warming and climatic changes. Take the United States for example, since 1970, the temperature has increased by 2.6 °F (1.4 °C) due to climate change [2]. Fig. 1 shows the rate of Temperature Change in the United States from 1901 to 2021 [3]. In 2020, 5.2 billion metric tons of carbon dioxide equivalent greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions were produced by the United States [4]. There are many works and methods to do in reducing greenhouse gas, CO<sub>2</sub> geological storage is a part of the work and a fatal method [5]. In order to achieve the Net Zero Carbon Emissions (NZCE) target by 2050, Carbon Capture, Utilization, and Storage (CCUS) is a major method (M Rashad Amir Rashidi et al., 2022) [6]. Among all of the reservoirs, gas reservoirs, depleted oil, coal seams, and saline aquifers are all good choices [1]. Bao Jia et al. [7] mentioned that CO<sub>2</sub> storage in unconventional reservoirs has excellent potential since the nanoporous structure could enlarge the adsorptive capacity, and organic matter has a strong affinity for CO<sub>2</sub>. Storing CO<sub>2</sub> in shale formations that are producing

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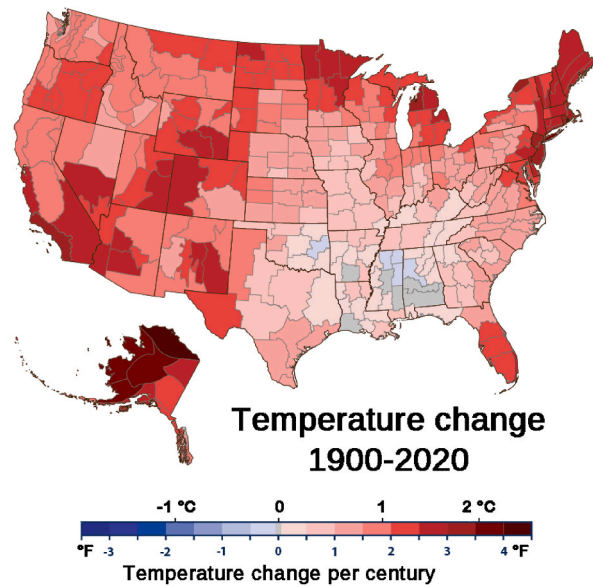


Fig. 1. Rate of temperature change in the United States, 1901–2021 [3].

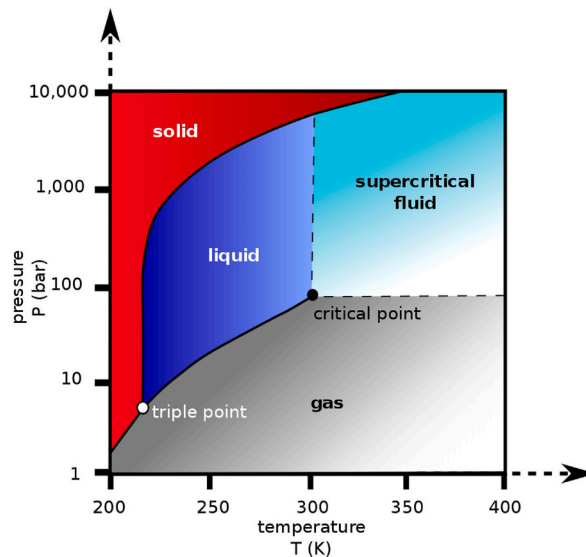


Fig. 2. Carbon dioxide pressure-temperature phase diagram [10].

unconventional gas reservoirs is also effective but receives limited attention [8].

Carbon dioxide is colorless and odorless gas at standard temperature and pressure. At this condition, the density of carbon dioxide is  $1.98 \text{ kg/m}^3$ . However, it will become a sharp, acidic odor when the concentration is high enough [9]. When the pressure and temperature are at or higher than carbon dioxide's critical temperature and critical pressure as Fig. 2 shows, it will change into an adopt properties midway between a gas and a liquid [10]. This situation is known as supercritical carbon dioxide. According to Span and Wagner [11], the  $\text{CO}_2$  will expand to fill its container like a gas but the density is similar to liquid when it is under supercritical carbon dioxide.

The geosequestration techniques are based on knowledge and experience gained from underground natural gas storage, coal-bed methane, and oil and gas production [12]. Several researchers pointed out that hydrodynamic and geochemical processes are responsible for trapping  $\text{CO}_2$  in target formations [13–15]. Soong et al. [16] analyzed  $\text{CO}_2$  trapping with brine by mineral trapping. Their samples were from the Oriskany Formation, which is in Indiana County, Pennsylvania. They found that pressure and temperature are not fatal to  $\text{CO}_2$  trapping. Kharaka et al. [17] pointed out that rapid mineral dissolution can create pathways for fluid flow in carbonate rock and cement. That will cause  $\text{CO}_2$  and brine leak from target formations. Richa Shukla et al. [12] believed that  $\text{CO}_2$



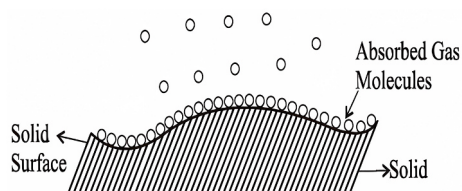


Fig. 4. Gas molecules adsorbed by solid surface [49].

## 2. Geologic setting of shale plays

This article chooses five shale reservoirs that have been researched for CO<sub>2</sub> storage in America. They are Bakken (Williston Basin), Eagle Ford, Marcellus, Permian, and New Albany shale plays. Their locations are shown in Fig. 3.

Table 1 shows the reservoir properties of those five shale plays.

The Bakken Formation is a classical unconventional tight oil play. The oil-in-place of the Bakken Formation is around several hundred billion barrels. The basin is north to southern Saskatchewan and south to northern South Dakota. The middle part of North Dakota and eastern Montana compose the basin's east and west boundary. From north to south, Williston Basin is around 475 miles long and 300 miles wide from east to west boundary. Williston basin is under the southeastern part of Saskatchewan, the southwestern part of Manitoba, the northeastern part of Montana, the east and middle part of North Dakota, and the northwestern part of South Dakota [32].

In the Middle Devonian, the Marcellus Shale was deposited in the Appalachian Basin. The collision between the Avalonian terrain and a part of the North American plate causes Acadian orogeny's movement, which is related to Marcellus shale's deposit [33,34]. Timothy R Carr et al. [35] mentioned that the Marcellus Shale is the largest shale-gas play in North America. The Marcellus shale play locates in the northeastern U.S. and across six states. Its total area is 95,000 square miles (246,000 km<sup>2</sup>). The production zone of the Marcellus shale play is around 4000 and 6000 feet (1200–1800 m) in depth.

The Eagle Ford shale is mainly under the South-Western part of Texas state. The length of this shale play is 400 miles and the width is 50 miles [36]. There are four boundaries of Eagle Ford Play, which are the International border to Mexico in the southwest, Frio County and counties east compose the northwest boundary, Sligo Reef Margin is the southeast boundary, and the northeastern boundary is at the lower Eagle Ford [37]. The Eagle Ford overlies on the Buda limestone while overlain by the Austin chalk non-conformably [38]. Shelley et al. [39] mentioned that the productive depths of Eagle Ford range from 5000 to 18,000 ft and the thickness is from 50 to 300 ft.

The Permian basin is mainly situated in the West part of Texas and southeastern New Mexico. The Permian basin has three parts. Delaware Basin is the west part. Permian basin's center part is the Central Basin Platform. The east part is Midland Basin [17,27]. Kuuskraa et al. [17] focused on two parts of the Permian basin: The Midland and Delaware Basin. The Delaware Basin covers an area of around 10,000 square miles (25,000 km<sup>2</sup>). Its surface elevations are ranging from roughly 3000–4500 ft (1000–1400 m) above mean sea level [40–42].

The New Albany shale is under the southeastern part of Illinois state, most counties of Indiana state, and a slim area of the northwest part of Kentucky state. According to the U.S. Department of Energy [43], the New Albany shale's area is roughly 43,500 square miles. The depth of the New Albany shale is shallow, which is from 0 to 5000 ft (0–1524 m). In southeastern Indiana, the New Albany shale's thickness is 100–140 ft (30.5–42.7 m). At the intersection of Indiana, Kentucky, and Illinois, the thickness of the Illinois Basin reaches more than 460 ft (140.2 m) [44,45].

## 3. Different methods for assessing CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential

### 3.1. Principles of different evaluation methods

#### 3.1.1. A function of OOIP

Nicholas A. Azzolina et al. [46] found this method in their research. Jose A. Torres et al. [47] used this method in estimating CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential in Bakken. The fundamental of this method is assuming that CO<sub>2</sub> will replace oil during gas injection. When the CO<sub>2</sub> EOR method is started in the target formation, the gas is injected and oil will be produced. During this period, CO<sub>2</sub> will occupy the space in which oil was stored.

This method could be written in the following equation [46]:

$$\text{CO}_2\text{stored} = (\text{OOIP} \times \text{RF}) \times \text{UF}_{\text{CO}_2,\text{net}} \quad (1)$$

where: OOIP is original oil in place, STB; RF is incremental oil recovery factor, %;  $\text{UF}_{\text{CO}_2,\text{net}}$  is net CO<sub>2</sub> utilization factor, Mscf/STB. Azzolina et al. [46] calculated net CO<sub>2</sub> utilization as a function of total inject volume CO<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O by multi-site empirical percentile estimates.



### 3.1.2. Optimized simplified local density (OSLD) model

All solid substances could attract or solute gases by solids' surface molecules when they contact with gases. This phenomenon is called "Adsorption". Adsorbent means the solids which could adsorb gases or dissolved substances. For example, the gas mask uses charcoal as an adsorbent to adsorb toxic gas to protect the wearer [48]. The adsorption could be described in Fig. 4.

Yinghui Li and Hui Pu [50] considered CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption amounts in shale formations based on pore size distribution. The following formula shows how they calculated the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption amount:

$$\Gamma = A \int_{\sigma_{ff}/2}^{L-\sigma_{ff}/2} [\rho(z) - \rho_b(z)] dZ \quad (2)$$

where:  $\Gamma$  is the adsorption amount in one unit adsorbent's weight area;  $A$  is the surface area of one unit weight of the adsorbent;  $L$  is the slit width used in the model to simulate shale's pores;  $\sigma_{ff}$  is the molecular diameter of fluid;  $\rho(z)$  is the local density at any point can be calculated;  $\rho_b(z)$  is the local density of the bulk fluid.

### 3.1.3. Adsorbed and non-adsorbed gas

Non-adsorbed gas, which is also called "free" gas by Michael Godec et al. [25], is stored in formations' pores and fractures. The fundamental is similar to the first method. However, Michael Godec et al. [25] assume that gas is stored in all pores and fractures which not saturated by water. Similar to the previous method, effective (gas-filled) porosity could be used in calculating the volume of non-adsorbed gas in place by a volumetric approach.

Different from Yinghui Li and Hui Pu [50], Michael Godec et al. [25] calculated adsorbed gas content amount through the Langmuir adsorption model, the following equation could be used in calculating adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> content:

$$V_A = (V_L \times P_R) / (P_L + P_R) \quad (3)$$

where:  $V_A$  is adsorbed gas content, scf/ton;  $V_L$  is Langmuir volume from adsorption isotherm, scf/ton;  $P_R$  is reservoir pressure, psia;  $P_L$  is average Langmuir pressure, psia.

In their theory, adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> in place for each well is calculated by multiplying adsorb gas content, which could be get by the previous equation, and the tons of shale (tons per unit area). Tons of shale could be calculated by the following equation [25]:

$$\text{tons shale} = (\text{area} \times \text{thickness} \times \text{conversion factor} \times \text{shale density}) \quad (4)$$

where: tons shale is the shale mass per unit area, Mt/km<sup>2</sup>; thickness is target area thickness, m; area is the research area's area, km<sup>2</sup>; shale density is 2.73 t/m<sup>3</sup> in Marcellus Shale; conversion factor is the factor that converts t/m<sup>3</sup> into Mt/km<sup>2</sup>.

For each unit volume of the reservoir, tons of shale should be computed and multiplied by adsorbed gas content. This step should be repeated for each study well. The study well's computed log curves of theoretical maximum adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> could be indicated by this result. At last, sums up each study well's calculated curves, their theoretical maximum adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity could be get. Thus, the total maximum adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of all 149 study wells could be calculated [25].

By using shale's water saturation, Michael Godec et al. [25] calculated gas-filled porosity and non-adsorbed gas in place. They also assumed that all saturated water is immobile. Thus, effective (gas-filled) porosity could be get by the following equation [25]:

$$\varphi_{\text{effective}} = \varphi_{\text{density}} \times (1 - S_w) \quad (5)$$

where:  $\varphi_{\text{effective}}$  is effective (gas-filled) porosity, -;  $\varphi_{\text{density}}$  is the porosity from density logs, -;  $S_w$  is the water saturation, -.

The result of each well's "free" (non-adsorbed) CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity is a computed log curve. Summarizing each study well's calculated curve like calculus is the next step. In this step, we can get each well's "free" CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity. Comprising "free" CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity and adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity, we can get the total CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity at last [25].

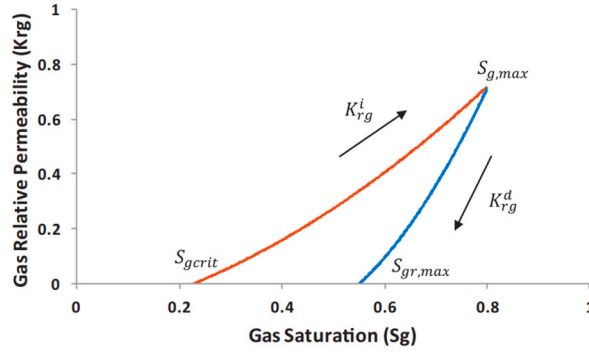
### 3.1.4. Adsorption, residual trapping, and solubility trapping

Different from the previous three simulation models, Faye Liu et al. [51] considered three CO<sub>2</sub> trapping mechanisms, which are gas adsorption, residual CO<sub>2</sub> trapping, and CO<sub>2</sub> solubility trapping, in their models. Faye Liu et al. [51] chose New Albany Shale as their study area. They also used numerical simulation to estimate the CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential.

**3.1.4.1. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.** The fundamental of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption has discussed in chapter 3.1.2. The adsorption theory is the same as the previous method, which is Langmuir isotherm. This method calculated the extended multi-component as the following equation shows [52].

$$\omega_i = \frac{\omega_{i,\max} \bullet B_i \bullet y_{ig} \bullet p}{1 + p \bullet \sum_i B_i \bullet y_{ig}} \quad (6)$$

where:  $\omega_i$  is the moles of adsorbed component  $i$  per unit mass of rock, mol/ton;  $\omega_{i,\max}$  is the maximum moles of adsorbed component  $i$  per unit mass of rock, mol/ton;  $B_i$  is the parameter for Langmuir isotherm relation, psi<sup>-1</sup>;  $p$  is the pressure, psi;  $y_{ig}$  is the molar fraction of adsorbed component  $i$  in the gas phase, - [53]. Among those parameters,  $B_i$  and  $\omega_{i,\max}$  are rely on lab experiments by those core samples from oil fields [30].



**Fig. 5.**  $S_g$  vs  $K_{rg}$  during gas injection and after injection (The blue line shows the drainage curve; the red line is the imbibition curve) [51]. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

**3.1.4.2. Residual  $CO_2$  trapping and free  $CO_2$  saturation.** According to Lenormand et al. [54], the wettability and capillary effects could cause the flow dynamics of  $CO_2$  is path-dependent when  $CO_2$  is flowing through the water-wet reservoir. Thus, the  $CO_2$  volume which could be drained from the reservoir is less than the  $CO_2$  volume injected and imbibed by the reservoir. In the nonwetting phase,  $CO_2$  will show residual entrapment. When the injection stops, the imbibition process will start. A part of nonwetting  $CO_2$  will get disconnected and immobilized since they will become like blobs or similar to ganglia shape [55,56]. According to the theory from Land [57], Faye Liu et al. [51] assumed that the reservoir will undergo a typical drainage process and increasing gas saturation until reaches a maximum as a result. When injection stops, the imbibition process will start and causes the residually trapped gas saturation. We can calculate the residually trapped gas saturation by the following equation:

$$S_{gt} = S_{gct} + \frac{S_{g,max} - S_{gct}}{1 + C \bullet (S_{g,max} - S_{gct})} \tag{7}$$

where:  $S_{g,max}$  is the maximum gas saturation, -;  $S_{gt}$  is the residually trapped gas saturation, -;  $C$  is Land’s parameter, -;  $S_{gct}$  is the critical gas saturation, -.

For your better understanding, Fig. 5 shows the meaning of those parameters in equation [7].

According to CMG [52], the following equation is for calculating the gas’s relative permeability which shows in the drainage to imbibition curve in Fig. 5:

$$K_{rg}^i(S_g) = K_{rg}^d(S_{gr}) \tag{8}$$

where:  $K_{rg}^d$  is the gas relative permeability from the drainage part in Fig. 5, -;  $K_{rg}^i$  is the gas relative permeability from the imbibition part in Fig. 5, -;  $S_{gr}$  is the “free” gas saturation, -;  $S_g$  is the gas saturation, -.

The “free” gas saturation can be calculated by equation [9,52]:

$$S_{gr} = S_{gct} + \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (S_g - S_{gr}) + \sqrt{(S_g - S_{gr})^2 + \frac{4}{C} (S_g - S_{gr})} \right\} \tag{9}$$

where:  $S_{gr}$  is the free gas saturation, -;  $S_{gct}$  is the critical gas saturation, -;  $S_g$  is the gas saturation, -;  $S_{gr}$  is the residual gas saturation, -.

**3.1.4.3. Solubility trapping.** Carbon dioxide is soluble in water. According to Stumm and Morgan [58], Henry’s law could give us instruction in calculating reservoir fluid’s solubility of injected  $CO_2$ . Henry’s law could be written by the following equation:

$$x_{CO_2} = \frac{f_{CO_2}}{H_{CO_2}} \tag{10}$$

where:  $x_{CO_2}$  is the mole fraction of  $CO_2$  dissolved in brine, -;  $f_{CO_2}$  is the  $CO_2$  fugacity, psi;  $H_{CO_2}$  is  $CO_2$  Henry’s law constant, psi.  $f_{CO_2}$  is a factor that could be get by Peng and Robinson’s equation of state.

$H_{CO_2}$  is calculated by equation [11]. In equation [11],  $H_{CO_2}^*$  and  $V_{CO_2}^\infty$  can be get by the method found by Li and Nghiem’s [59]:

$$H_{CO_2} = H_{CO_2}^* \bullet \exp \left[ V_{CO_2}^\infty \bullet \frac{p - p_{ref}}{RT} \right] \tag{11}$$

where:  $H_{CO_2}^*$  is Henry’s law constant under the reference pressure, psi;  $p_{ref}$  is the reference pressure, psi;  $V_{CO_2}^\infty$  is the partial molar volume of  $CO_2$  when the  $CO_2$  is in infinite dilution, mol;  $p$  is the pressure, psi;  $T$  is the thermodynamic temperature, K;  $R$  is the gas constant, which is equal to  $0.082057 \text{ L}\cdot\text{atm}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ .

At the same time, Faye Liu et al. [51] pointed out that gas solubility will decrease with salinity increases and this is called the

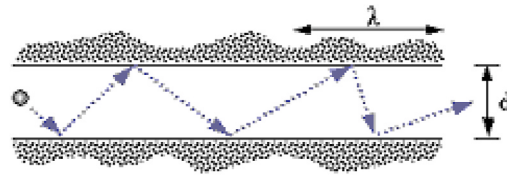


Fig. 6. Knudsen diffusion in a cylindrical pore [62].

“salting-out effect”. This phenomenon was also taken into consideration in their model and it could be calculated by using the method from Bakker [60]:

$$\ln\left(\frac{H_{\text{salt,CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}}\right) = k_{\text{salt,CO}_2} \cdot m_{\text{salt}} \quad (12)$$

where:  $H_{\text{salt,CO}_2}$  is Henry’s constant of  $\text{CO}_2$  which is solute in brine, psi;  $H_{\text{CO}_2}$  is Henry’s constant of  $\text{CO}_2$  which is solute in distilled water, psi;  $m_{\text{salt}}$  is the salt’s molality which is dissolved in pure water, mol/kg;  $k_{\text{salt,CO}_2}$  is the  $\text{CO}_2$  salting-out coefficient, kg/mol.

### 3.1.5. Multiple mechanisms

Chen Zhiming et al. [61] published a method to evaluate New Albany Shale’s  $\text{CO}_2$  storage capacity that takes gas adsorption, the effect of stress-sensitivity, Knudson diffusion, the size of hydraulic fractures, and other factors which relate to hydraulic fractures into consideration.

When particles are involved in a system, take shale’s pore, for example, they will have a free path. If the pore’s scale length is smaller or similar to the particles’ free path, Knudson diffusion occurs. Particles will collide with the pores’ wall many times if particles flow into long and narrow pores (2–50 nm) and Knudson diffusion occurs. Fig. 6 shows the case of Knudson diffusion [62]. When  $\text{CO}_2$  flows into shale matrix from natural fractures, the Knudson diffusion could be used in calculating the flow speed as a factor.

The gas adsorption is already discussed in chapter 3.1.2. It means the shale matrix’s ability in adsorbing  $\text{CO}_2$ .

Rock’s petrophysical parameters will change if the effective stress is alternating. Rock stress sensitivity shows how much they will change. Those parameters include porosity, permeability, and electrical resistivity [63]. In their method, only the effect of stress sensitivity related to sensitivity between reservoir permeability and pressure was taken into consideration. Both reservoir pressure and shale permeability will increase when  $\text{CO}_2$  is injected. This increase has a positive effect on  $\text{CO}_2$  storage.

As for hydraulic fractures, Chen Zhiming et al. [61] believed that the fracture length is larger than the fracture width and  $\text{CO}_2$  mainly flows in formations from fracture faces. Thus, they assumed that hydraulic fractures’ tips are sealed boundaries. To build the mass conservation equation and figure out how much the gas flow rate in fractures is, they built a dimensionless mathematical model in their study based on Pedrosa’s substitution [64]. Mukherjee and Economides [65] found a method that considered the wellbore storage effect and skin factor due to hydraulic fractures. This method is also used in the article from Chen Zhiming et al. [61].

The estimated  $\text{CO}_2$  storage capacity is shown in equation [13].

$$Q_D = 4n_F T_D \quad (13)$$

where:  $Q_D$  is total  $\text{CO}_2$  injection volume,  $\text{m}^3$ ;  $n_F$  is hydraulic fracture number, -;  $T_D$  is total injection time, days;  $q_{\text{inD}}$  is injection rate,  $10^5 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$  [61].

In this equation, the total injection time  $T_D$  is a function of Knudson diffusion, adsorption index, stress-sensitivity coefficient, and hydraulic fractures’ size.

## 3.2. Different ways to use $\text{CO}_2$ storage potential evaluation methods

### 3.2.1. A function of OOIP

**3.2.1.1. Calculate directly.** According to Jose A. Torres et al. [47], the OOIP in Bakken ranges from 300 billion to 900 billion barrels. The estimated incremental oil recovery range of 0.6%–5.4%. The net  $\text{CO}_2$  utilization is 1.8 Mscf per barrel.  $\text{CO}_2$  in Bakken formations is 19.25 Mscf per t under reservoir conditions, which is the same as Nicholas A. Azzolina et al. [46]. They believed that  $\text{CO}_2$  storage volume ranged from 169 Mt to 1.5 Gt in Bakken.

**3.2.1.2. Cyclic  $\text{CO}_2$  injection with numerical simulation.** Kuuskraa et al. [24] calculated  $\text{CO}_2$  storage potential in their study area by using numerical simulation. In chapter 3.1.1, we have already discussed the mechanism of  $\text{CO}_2$  storage potential which is used in this numerical simulation model. Their steps are to build a simulation model and validated the model by history matching. At last, provide recovery estimates and  $\text{CO}_2$  storage volume during the  $\text{CO}_2$  injection. Four shale oil reservoirs in America were selected by them, which are Midland Basin’s Wolfcamp Shale, Delaware Basin, Williston Basin Bakken Shale, and Lower Eagle Ford Shale.

Cyclic  $\text{CO}_2$  injection was used in their model. The injection was assumed to start after five years and 272,000 barrels of primary production. 17 MMcf  $\text{CO}_2$  was injected in two months at the first cycle. The bottom hole pressure was limited to 4800 psia. After the

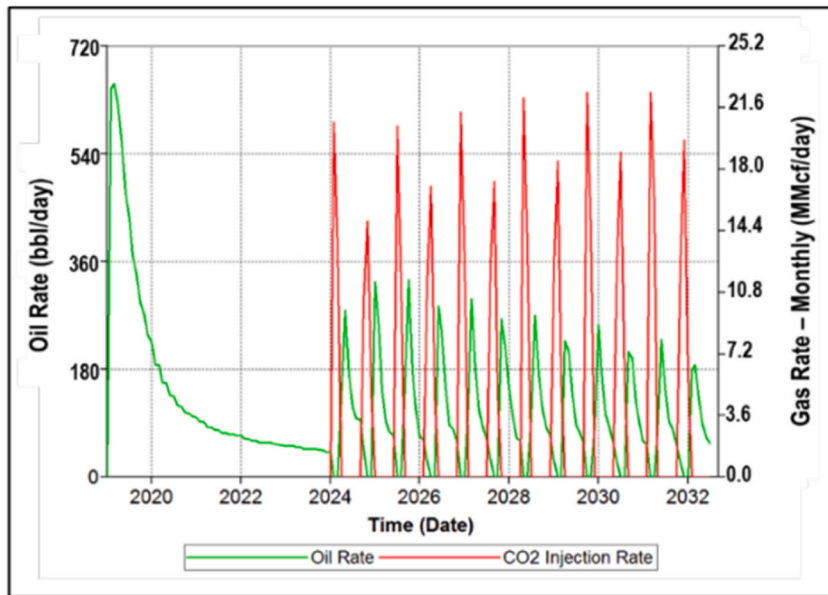


Fig. 7. Cyclic CO<sub>2</sub> injection rate in simulation model [24].

Table 2

CO<sub>2</sub> Storage from CO<sub>2</sub> Cyclic injection EOR: Four Shale Oil Basins [24].

Shale Basin/Formation	Storage of CO <sub>2</sub> , Gt
Williston Basin/Bakken Shale	2.3
South Texas/Eagle Ford Shale	2.9
Midland Basin/Wolfcamp Shale	9.8
Delaware Basin/Wolfcamp Shale	15.1

Table 3

Parameters of OSLD model [50].

Parameters	Value
Reservoir permeability, $\mu\text{D}$	1
Reservoir temperature, $^{\circ}\text{F}$	240
Initial reservoir pressure, psi	3200
Porosity, %	20
Initial water saturation, %	10
Inject time, days	100
Inject amount, pore volume, PV	0.57

injection, 2 weeks of soaking and 6 months of production followed. As Fig. 7 shows, there were 12 cycles were simulated in their model.

By processing cyclic CO<sub>2</sub> injection, 9.8 Gmt of CO<sub>2</sub> would be stored in Midland Basin. They also simulated the CO<sub>2</sub> storage amount in other different basins by cyclic CO<sub>2</sub> injection as Table 2 shows.

We can see that the CO<sub>2</sub> storage amount from Kuuskraa et al. [24] is not the same as Jose A. Torres et al. [47], not even close. The reason is reservoir properties used by Jose A. Torres et al. [47] are different from those by Kuuskraa et al. [24]. For example, Jose A. Torres et al. [47] believed that the OOIP in Bakken ranges from 300 billion to 900 billion barrels while Kuuskraa et al. [24] used 90.8 billion barrels in their model.

### 3.2.2. Optimized simplified local density (OSLD) model

Yinghui Li and Hui Pu [50] built a 1-D model in their paper and the size is  $6.25 \text{ ft} \times 0.25 \text{ ft} \times 0.5 \text{ ft}$ , which are length, width, and thickness. Those parameters used in their model are shown in Table 3.

According to their simulation model's result, the total CO<sub>2</sub> storage amount is 0.36 PV, which is equal to  $0.05625 \text{ ft}^3$  ( $0.0016 \text{ m}^3$ ).



**Table 4**  
The total maximum CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in the study area [25].

	New York	Pennsylvania	West Virginia	Eastern Ohio & West Virginia Panhandle	Total
Potential CO <sub>2</sub> storage area, km <sup>2</sup>	14,151	49,472	34,167	9108	106,898
Adsorbed gas in place, km <sup>3</sup>	$1.485 \times 10^{21}$	$9.838 \times 10^{21}$	$3.663 \times 10^{21}$	$0.949 \times 10^{21}$	$15.935 \times 10^{21}$
Non-adsorbed, 'free', gas in-place, km <sup>3</sup>	$1.447 \times 10^{21}$	$14.07 \times 10^{21}$	$4.16 \times 10^{21}$	$1.184 \times 10^{21}$	$20.861 \times 10^{21}$
Total gas in-place, km <sup>3</sup>	$2.931 \times 10^{21}$	$23.908 \times 10^{21}$	$7.823 \times 10^{21}$	$2.133 \times 10^{21}$	$36.796 \times 10^{21}$
Maximum CO <sub>2</sub> storage, adsorbed, t	$1.0926 \times 10^{10}$	$5.9083 \times 10^{10}$	$2.2434 \times 10^{10}$	$0.629 \times 10^{10}$	$98.733 \times 10^{10}$
Maximum CO <sub>2</sub> storage, 'free', t	$0.6268 \times 10^{10}$	$4.4455 \times 10^{10}$	$1.6548 \times 10^{10}$	$0.5226 \times 10^{10}$	$72.496 \times 10^{10}$
Total CO <sub>2</sub> storage capacity, t	$1.7194 \times 10^{10}$	$10.3538 \times 10^{10}$	$3.8982 \times 10^{10}$	$1.1516 \times 10^{10}$	$171.229 \times 10^{10}$
Total maximum CO <sub>2</sub> storage capacity per unit area, t/km <sup>2</sup>	1,220,000	2,090,000	1,140,000	1,260,000	1,600,000

**Table 5**  
Reservoir parameters [66].

Parameters	Value
Reservoir permeability, μD	0.63
Permeability fracture, μD	2
Langmuir adsorption CO <sub>2</sub> , 1/psi	0.004
Langmuir adsorption Fracture CO <sub>2</sub> , 1/psi	0.002
Depth, ft	6508
Porosity, %	9.71
Porosity fracture, %	0.1
Fracture stages, –	21
Fracture width, ft	0.001
Fracture half length, ft	350

**Table 6**  
CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration amount under different injection pattern, ft<sup>3</sup> [66].

Inject type	Continuous injection	Cyclic injection
Inject pressure, psi		
2000	$8.64 \times 10^9$	–
3000	$1.78 \times 10^{10}$	$1.40 \times 10^{10}$

### 3.2.3. Adsorbed and non-adsorbed gas

As we discussed in chapter 3.1.3, this method calculates the CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential by adding adsorbed gas and non-adsorbed gas. All data were got from well logging and adsorption isotherm data.

According to Michael Godec et al. [25], the maximum CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of each part of Marcellus Shale is shown in Table 4.

Qin He et al. [66] also chose Marcellus Shale play as their study area. Their basic theory is the same as Michael Godec et al. [25] and their parameters for simulation model are shown in Table 5.

Different from Michael Godec et al. [25], Qin He et al. [66] tried two inject type and two inject pressure, which are continuous injection and cyclic injection, 2000 psi and 3000 psi. The total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> storage is shown in Table 6.

### 3.2.4. Adsorption, residual trapping, and solubility trapping

This model is based on the New Albany Shale. Faye Liu et al. [51] only focused on a 62-acre (250,905 m<sup>2</sup>) with two hydraulic fracture networks since the software will cost too much time in simulating if the study area is 326 acres. Table 7 shows reservoir properties inputted in their simulation model.

Faye Liu et al. [51] performed three simulated cases of CO<sub>2</sub> injection and storage as Table 8 shows. In the first case, it only considered CO<sub>2</sub> injection, without hysteresis and CO<sub>2</sub> solubility. The second case considered both CO<sub>2</sub> injection and hysteresis, but without CO<sub>2</sub> solubility. The third case calculated all three CO<sub>2</sub> trapping mechanisms, which are CO<sub>2</sub> injection, hysteresis, and CO<sub>2</sub> solubility. However, the third case was built in 2-D, which is different from the previous two cases. The first and second cases are calculated in 3-D. Their model has to solve those involved chemical reaction equations simultaneously. As a result, computational demand must be added. This is why the third case was built-in 2-D, to speed up the calculation process.

### 3.2.5. Multiple mechanisms

Chen Zhiming et al. [61] also chose New Albany Shale to verify their theory. The geological setting of New Albany Shale has been

**Table 7**  
Reservoir and wells' parameters used in the simulation [51].

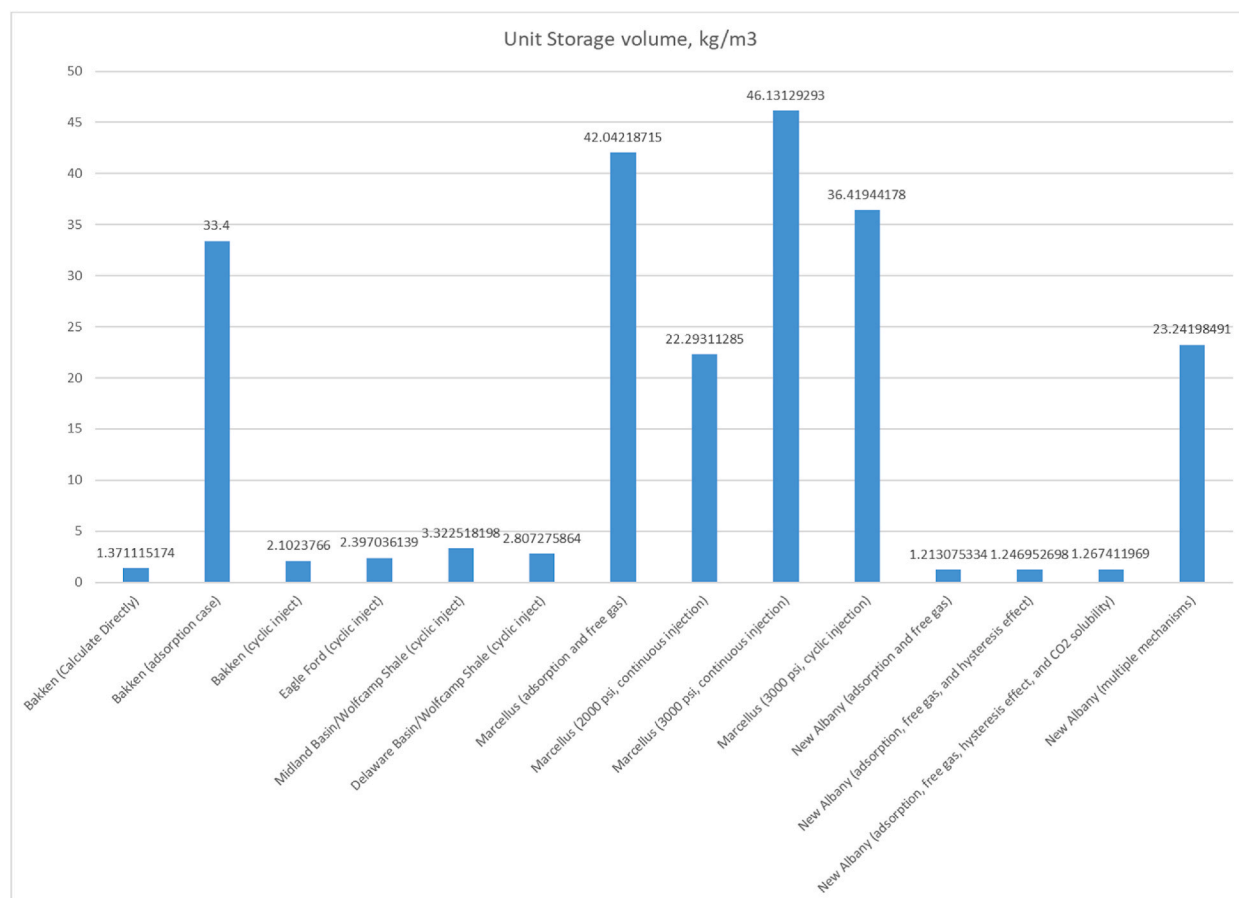
	Properties	Values	
Reservoir properties	Temperature, °C	30 (86 °F)	
	Thickness, m	30 m (100 ft)	
	Depth, m	420 m (1378 ft)	
	Initial pressure gradient, kPa/m	6.8 (0.3 psi/ft)	
	Porosity, %	10–14	
	Pressure gradient, kPa/m	20.4 (0.9 psi/ft)	
	Diffusivity, m <sup>2</sup> /s	$1 \times 10^{-9}$	
	Permeability, nD	150	
	Rock density, g/cm <sup>3</sup>	2.4	
	Water saturation, %	40	
	Natural fracture conductivity, μD-m	6 (20 μD-ft)	
	Rock geochemistry properties	Total organic content (TOC), %	12
		Maximal adsorbed gas (CO <sub>2</sub> ), m <sup>3</sup> /ton	14.4 (510.1 scf/ton)
Langmuir adsorption constant (CO <sub>2</sub> ), psi <sup>-1</sup>		0.000896	
Rock geomechanical properties	Matrix compressibility, Pa <sup>-1</sup>	$4.35 \times 10^{-10}$ ( $3 \times 10^{-6}$ psi <sup>-1</sup> )	
	Fracture compressibility, Pa <sup>-1</sup>	$4.35 \times 10^{-8}$ ( $3 \times 10^{-4}$ psi <sup>-1</sup> )	
Well properties	Well length, m	1280 (4200 ft)	
	CO <sub>2</sub> injection rate, m <sup>3</sup> /day	2832 (100,000 MMscf/day)	
	Fracture stages, -	4	
	Fracture conductivity, mD-m	30 (100 mD-ft)	
	Fracture half-length, m	137 (450 ft)	
	Fracture width, m	0.61 (2 ft)	

**Table 8**  
Simulation Result [51].

	First Case	Second Case	Third Case
Adsorption Gas Amount, m <sup>3</sup>	$4.98 \times 10^6$	$4.89 \times 10^6$	$4.90 \times 10^6$
Free Gas Amount, m <sup>3</sup>	$0.2075 \times 10^6$	$0.22 \times 10^6$	$2.28 \times 10^5$
Residual Gas Amount, m <sup>3</sup>		$1.13 \times 10^4$	$1.84 \times 10^4$
Dissolved Gas Amount, m <sup>3</sup>			$5.66 \times 10^4$

**Table 9**  
CO<sub>2</sub>, well, rock, and reservoir's average parameters in the study area [61].

Items	Properties	Value
Rock	Matrix compressibility, MPa <sup>-1</sup>	$4.4 \times 10^{-4}$
	Knudsen diffuse coefficient, -	0.0162
	Natural fracture compressibility, MPa <sup>-1</sup>	0.042
	Porosity, %	12
	Matrix permeability, D	$1.5 \times 10^{-7}$
	Density, ton/m <sup>3</sup>	2.4
	Natural fracture permeability, D	0.001
Reservoir	Depth, m	420
	Depleted pressure, MPa	0.6
	Temperature, K	303.15
	Control area, m <sup>2</sup>	$7.07 \times 10^6$
	Thickness, m	30
Well	Hydraulic fracture stages, -	4
	Well length, m	1280
	The storage coefficient of wellbores, -	1
	Constrained pressure, MPa	7.2
	The injection rate of CO <sub>2</sub> , m <sup>3</sup> /d	$1 \times 10^5$
	Hydraulic fractures' half-length, m	137
	Fracture number, -	4
	Skin factor, -	0.1
CO <sub>2</sub>	Viscosity, mPa·s	0.01
	Adsorption index, -	4.8
	Maximal adsorbed gas, m <sup>3</sup> /ton	13.8
	Compressibility, MPa <sup>-1</sup>	0.048
	Z-factor, -	0.8



**Fig. 8.** Unit storage capacity of each shale reservoir.

discussed in chapter 2. Table 9 listed those parameters which are necessary for the simulation.

Chen Zhiming et al. [61] assumed the whole study area is homogenous and the reservoir is already depleted. During the injection and storage, they supposed that the CO<sub>2</sub> is kept gas phase. The reason is that the New Albany Shale is relatively shallow and the target formations' lithostatic pressure is around 8.55 MPa. If they used liquid-phase CO<sub>2</sub>, the wellbore pressure will be higher than the lithostatic pressure and causes geological damage. The CO<sub>2</sub> injection they used is 7.2 MPa.

#### 4. Discussion

This article calculated unit storage capacity, which is how much gas can be stored in one cubic meter, for all five methods. Fig. 8 shows the unit storage capacity.

By reading this figure, we can see that the Marcellus shale play used the “adsorbed and non-adsorbed gas” method, continuous inject pattern and 3000 psi inject pressure shows the most optimistic result. We can say that the Marcellus shale play is more suitable than other shale plays. At least, Marcellus shale play is better than New Albany. We can also compare the result between continuous injection and cyclic injection under 3000 psi pressure. It shows that continuous injection pattern could store two times amount of CO<sub>2</sub> than cyclic injection pattern. Let us see the result of New Albany which also used the “adsorbed and non-adsorbed gas” method in the simulation. Its unit storage volume is far less than that in Marcellus.

Comparing those three cases in Bakken shale, the unit storage capacity calculated by the OSLD model is over ten times larger than the other two cases. Among those three cases, only the OSLD considered pore size distribution. Compared with the cyclic inject case, the OSLD model did not use the Langmuir adsorption model but the cyclic inject case was used. In my opinion, this is why the OSLD model's result is different from the cyclic inject case. According to Masel and Richard (1996) [67], the Langmuir adsorption model has the following assumptions:

- i. The adsorbing sites' surface is perfectly flat plane and homogeneous.
- ii. The adsorbing gas is adsorbed into immobile state.
- iii. All sites are energetically equivalent and equally adsorb the energy.

**Table 10**  
Parameters used in New Albany simulation models [51,61].

Methods Parameters	Adsorption, residual trapping, and solubility trapping	Multiple mechanisms
Reservoir properties		
Depth, m	420	420
Thickness, m	30	30
Temperature, °C	30	30
Porosity, %	10–14	12
Matrix permeability, nD	150	150
Rock density, g/cm <sup>3</sup>	2.4	2.4
Rock geomechanical properties		
Matrix compressibility, MPa <sup>-1</sup>	$4.35 \times 10^{-4}$	$4.4 \times 10^{-4}$
Fracture compressibility, MPa <sup>-1</sup>	$4.35 \times 10^{-2}$	$4.2 \times 10^{-2}$
Well properties		
Well length, m	1280	1280
Fracture stages, –	4	4
Fracture half-length, m	137	137
CO <sub>2</sub> inject rate, m <sup>3</sup> /day	2832	100,000

- iv. Each site has can hold one or more molecules.
- v. No (or ideal) interactions between adsorbate molecules and their adjacent sites.

For the first assumption, the pores' surface of shale cannot be perfectly flat and homogeneous. Also, the pores' surface cannot be immobile. Sai Wang et al. (2019) [68] mentioned that carbonic acid will react with shale's minerals. Their experiments result also pointed out that the pore size distribution will change after CO<sub>2</sub> submerge. Thus, the OSLD model can do better in simulating the real situation during CO<sub>2</sub> injection and storage than the Langmuir adsorption model. Furthermore, building a model which takes how will pore size distribution changes during CO<sub>2</sub> injection and storage could be a good choice.

Let us compare these four cases of New Albany. The results of the “adsorption and free gas” method, “adsorption, free gas, and hysteresis effect” method, and “adsorption, free gas, hysteresis effect, and dissolved gas” method are similar to each other, which is more than 1.2 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. However, the “multiple mechanisms” method's simulation result is 23.24 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. Why their results are so different? The reason could be complex. The following Table 10 shows their parameters.

We can see in Table 10, those parameters used by the two methods are almost the same, except for the CO<sub>2</sub> inject rate. Besides, the “adsorption, residual trapping, and solubility trapping” method assumed that water saturation is still 40% but the “multiple mechanisms” method does not take consider the formation water.

In my opinion, there might be three reasons that could cause their results different:

- i. The CO<sub>2</sub> inject rate is fatal to the unit storage volume since the more optimistic one injects CO<sub>2</sub> 35 times quicker than the other one.
- ii. The Knudsen diffusion plays an important role in CO<sub>2</sub> storage. If we can deplete water in the reservoir and let Knudsen diffusion happens more frequently, the CO<sub>2</sub> storage volume could increase many times.
- iii. Chen Zhiming et al. [61] considered the skin factor but Faye Liu et al. [51] did not. Formation damage and near-well vicinity situation could also affect CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential.

In fact, the Knudsen diffusion is an important factor that could affect gas permeability in shale. Thus, the method from Chen Zhiming et al. [61] has only one more factor than the method from Michael Godec et al. [25], which is stress-sensitivity.

Almost all of nowadays simulation models for calculating CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential focus on reservoir properties, but nearly nobody considered well integrity. Those five methods discussed in this paper supposed that all CO<sub>2</sub> will stay in the target formation during gas injection. However, CO<sub>2</sub> will leak from the subsurface to the surface through different pathways [1,69,70]. Mingxing Bai et al. [1] believed that the vertical permeability of cement plays the most critical role. Ana Widyanita and W Ahmad Rafael B W Zairudin [70] also mentioned that long-term reaction between carbonic acid and cement will increase the cement's permeability. Thus, assuming no gas is leaking, which is used by those methods in this paper, is not realistic.

## 5. Conclusions

- i. Marcellus shale play is the most suitable place in CO<sub>2</sub> storage among the five shale plays discussed in this paper.
- ii. CO<sub>2</sub> inject rate could affect formations' storage potential. The higher the CO<sub>2</sub> injection rate, the more CO<sub>2</sub> can be stored in the reservoir.
- iii. Knudsen diffusion happens in dry pores while CO<sub>2</sub> solubility trapping needs water. As we know that the water saturation can be neither 0% nor 100%. Taking adsorption, residual trapping, solubility trapping, and Knudsen diffusion into consideration is a more realistic way to evaluate CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential.

## Recommendations

- i. Knudsen diffusion is one of the important factors in CO<sub>2</sub> storage. However, it is not the only transport mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub>. If we can base on pore size distribution data and add more transport mechanisms for those pores larger than 50 nm, the result would be more accurate.
- ii. During CO<sub>2</sub> injection and storage, formations' pore size distribution, and thus, relative permeability will also change. If we can figure out how the pore size distribution could change and bring the variation trend into the simulation, the simulation result could be more accurate than before.
- iii. Most researchers focused on numerical simulation but few of them proved their results in lab experiments or an oil field. If we can process some experiments in the lab or choose one well to see how much CO<sub>2</sub> could be stored, that will be more convective.
- iv. Not all of the oil fields will choose CO<sub>2</sub> injection as the first EOR method. It could be a valuable topic to simulate CO<sub>2</sub> storage potential in those oil fields which processed other EOR methods like polymer, alkali, surfactant, and so on.
- v. Few researchers have studied formations' geomechanical properties. How those properties will change during CO<sub>2</sub> injection and storage could be a fruitful topic for our researchers.

- iv. Taking well integrity, especially cement quality, and permeability into the simulate model would be tallying with the real situation in shale fields.
- v. Shale's geomechanical properties, such as permeability, young's modulus, and Poisson's ratio, could also be fatal to CO<sub>2</sub> injection.

### Author contribution statement

All authors listed have significantly contributed to the development and the writing of this article. </p>

### Data availability statement

Data included in article/supp. material/referenced in article.

### 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.

### Acknowledgment

The author wants to say thank you to Dr. Ling for his patience and great guidance in this work. Special thanks to the University of North Dakota (UND) for its financial support.

### Nomenclature

area	research area's area, km <sup>2</sup>
B <sub>i</sub>	parameter for Langmuir isotherm relation, psi <sup>-1</sup>
C	Land's parameter, –
conversion factor	the factor that converts mass per unit volume into mass per unit area
f <sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub>	CO <sub>2</sub> fugacity, psi
H <sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub>	Henry's law constant for CO <sub>2</sub> , psi (in equation [3.10]); Henry's constant of CO <sub>2</sub> which is solute in pure water, psi (in equation [3.12])
H <sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub> <sup>*</sup>	Henry's law constant of CO <sub>2</sub> at the reference pressure, psi
H <sub>salt,CO<sub>2</sub></sub>	Henry's constant of CO <sub>2</sub> which is solute in brine, psi
K <sub>rg</sub> <sup>d</sup>	gas relative permeability from the drainage part, –
K <sub>rg</sub> <sup>i</sup>	gas relative permeability from the imbibition part, –
k <sub>salt,CO<sub>2</sub></sub>	CO <sub>2</sub> salting-out coefficient, kg/mol
m <sub>salt</sub>	salt's molality which is dissolved in pure water, mol/kg



$n_F$	hydraulic fracture number, –
OOIP	original oil in place, STB
$p$	pressure, psi
$P_L$	average Langmuir pressure from adsorption isotherm data, psia
$P_{ref}$	reference pressure, psi
$P_R$	reservoir pressure, psia
$Q_D$	total CO <sub>2</sub> injection volume, m <sup>3</sup>
$q_{ind}$	injection rate, 10 <sup>5</sup> m <sup>3</sup> /d
$R$	gas constant, 0.082057 L·atm·K <sup>-1</sup> ·mol <sup>-1</sup>
RF	incremental oil recovery factor, %
shale density	2.73 g/cc in Marcellus Shale
$S_g$	gas saturation, –
$S_{gct}$	critical gas saturation, –
$S_{gf}$	free gas saturation, –
$S_{g,max}$	maximum gas saturation, –
$S_{gr}$	residual gas saturation, –
$S_{gt}$	residually trapped gas saturation, –
$S_w$	water saturation, –
$T$	temperature, K
$T_D$	total injection time, days
thickness	target area thickness, ft
Tons shale	shale mass per unit area, Mt/km <sup>2</sup>
$UF_{CO_2,net}$	net CO <sub>2</sub> utilization factor, Mscf/STB
$V_A$	adsorbed gas content, scf/ton
$V_{CO_2}^\infty$	partial molar volume of CO <sub>2</sub> when the CO <sub>2</sub> is in infinite dilution, mol
$V_L$	Langmuir volume from adsorption isotherm, scf/ton
$x_{CO_2}$	mole fraction of CO <sub>2</sub> dissolved in the aqueous phase, –
$y_{ig}$	the molar fraction of adsorbed component $i$ in the gas phase, –
$\Phi_{density}$	porosity from density logs, –
$\Phi_{effective}$	effective (gas-filled) porosity, –
$\omega_i$	moles of adsorbed component $i$ per unit mass or rock, mol/ton
$\omega_{i,max}$	maximum moles of adsorbed component $i$ per unit mass of rock, mol/ton

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