

CO₂ Sequestration Studies in Ocean and Deep Sea Sub-seabed Formations*

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Search and Discovery Article #70119 (2012)

Posted April 9, 2012

*Adapted from extended abstract prepared for a poster presentation at AAPG Annual Convention and Exhibition, Long Beach, California, April 22-25, 2012.
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Introduction

Since the beginning of the industrial age, CO₂ concentrations have risen from 280 ppm to about 390 ppm as of 2010 and are forecasted to continue increasing at a rate of 2 ppm per year in the near future. According to the Energy Information Administration, human industrial activity through the consumption and flaring of fossil fuel has resulted in the emission of nearly 30 billion tons of CO₂ for the year 2010. In addition, scientific publications have estimated that the Earth's oceans and deep seas have naturally sequestered, by dissolving and mixing with deep waters, between 40% and 50% of the anthropogenic CO₂ emitted during the same period of time. Therefore, carbon dioxide capture and storage (CCS) techniques which involve capturing the CO₂ coming from the combustion of fossil fuels or industrial processes; then transporting and injecting this CO₂, either in a supercritical or liquid state, in geological formations need to be investigated and demonstrated to ensure that these methods could help reduce or mitigate CO₂ emissions in the Earth's atmosphere.

Thus far, a large part of the CO₂ sequestration studies and pilot projects have looked at capturing the CO₂ and injecting it either onshore in deep saline aquifers, in shallow offshore depleted oil and gas fields or un-mined coal seams. In all these different CO₂ sequestration methodologies, carbon dioxide is supposed to remain trapped because of the presence of a physical trap such as a shale cap layer which does not allow, in principle, any leakage or migration of the injected CO₂ from the geological formation in which it was injected. However, at the relatively high pressures (greater than 1200 psi or 83 bars) and temperatures (greater than 80°F or 27°C) present at these formation depths, the CO₂ becomes buoyant and therefore, can easily migrate if the formation is not perfectly sealed. As a result, any existing micro-fractures or rock property changes due to excessive CO₂ injection pressure, any physical properties of the formations (i.e., high porosity, high permeability), and abandoned wells or regional tectonics could represent a potential leakage mechanism or pathway for the buoyant CO₂. Therefore, monitoring is required to ensure that the upward and lateral migration of the supercritical CO₂ due to buoyancy effects and capillarity does not reach any aquifers, or enter faults and fractures eventually to being released back to the surface and thus becoming a potential hazard to the ecosystems. Consequently, the viability of other „safer“ carbon sequestration alternatives need to be investigated.

The complex natural process where the Earth's oceans and seas sequester a significant part of atmospheric CO₂ has been studied thoroughly and it has been found that the CO₂ is slowly moved and dissolved from surface waters to deeper waters; mainly because the solubility of CO₂ in water increases with increasing pressure. In addition, theoretical and experimental analyses have been conducted over the last three decades to find out if the Earth's oceans and marginal seas could potentially sequester more anthropogenic CO₂ if it were directly injected in the deep waters. Thus, it was shown that when CO₂ in a liquid state is sprayed at depths greater than 9000 feet (2743 meters), this greenhouse gas becomes denser than seawater because of the low temperatures (ranging between 35°F or 1°C and 40°F or 4°C) and high pressures (greater than 4000 psi or 276 bars) present at these depths, and that the CO₂ slowly sinks to the bottom of the ocean floor and eventually forms a „lake“ type of structure (Fer and Haugen, 2003). However, numerical simulations have also demonstrated that due to the effect of deep oceans or deep sea currents, part of the CO₂ may be displaced and transported back to the water surface after several years and gets released into the Earth's atmosphere and also that, at the seafloor, the deep-sea marine ecosystems may be harmed.

Thus, in order to retain the advantages of storing CO₂ in the deep ocean where low temperatures and high pressures make liquid CO₂ denser than seawater, it has been proposed that liquid CO₂ could be injected below the Earth's deep seafloors and, therefore, benefit from gravitational trapping mechanism and, in some instances, CO₂ hydrates formation could impede the eventual flow of liquid CO₂ (House et al., 2006 and 2008; Schrag, 2009; Goldberg, 2010). With this methodology, the lower density pore-fluid which is the fluid present within the sediments may act as a buoyancy cap on the „liquid CO₂ – pore-fluid“ system and ensure its gravitational stability. Hence, CO₂ sequestration in deepwater sub-seabed formations seems to provide an attractive alternative by ensuring a superior trapping mechanism not sensitive to fractures or geomechanical perturbations occurring within the deepwater sediment column and is being investigated, with results to date being presented here as several case studies (from simulations) located in the Gulf of Mexico, the Pacific Ocean, the North Atlantic Ocean, and the Sea of Japan. Large time-scale reservoir simulations for up to 250 years have been conducted and show that injected liquid CO₂ can remain permanently trapped in deepwater sediments under certain sediment physical properties.

Possible Deepwater CO₂ Injection Sites

Over 5000 large sources are emitting more than 100,000 tons of CO₂ annually. These sources can be divided into five main clusters, as shown in on the left side of [Figure 1](#) : The United States (on the East and West Coasts and in the Midwest), Western Europe, the Far East with China and Japan and the Indian sub-continent and are located relatively close to the Earth's deep seas (Arabian Sea, Bay of Bengal, Mediterranean Sea, South China Sea, East China Sea and Sea of Japan) and oceans (North Atlantic Ocean and Northwest Pacific Ocean) where potential deepwater and ultra-deepwater CO₂ injection sites are numerous. The left side of [Figure 1](#) is a high resolution world seafloor map which is based upon both data from GEBCO one minute grid (GEBCO, 2003) and continent topographic map taken from the U.S. National Aeronautics and Space Administration Blue Marble data set (NASA, 2002 and 2005) that show and confirm that a large part of the world's oceans and seas is deeper than 10,000 feet. Then, to select a suitable deepwater CO₂ injection site, an overview of the oceans and deep-sea seafloor lithology and sediment thicknesses has been carried out by using the National Geophysical Data Center's map of total sediment thickness of the world's oceans and marginal seas (shown on the right side of [Figure 1](#)). It represents which compilation of three main set of data: isopach maps, results from the Deep Sea Drilling Project and the Ocean Drilling Program, and seismic reflection from the National Geophysical Data Center. The right side of [Figure 1](#) (NGDC, 2010) clearly indicates that the major part of the deepwater sediments

that are located at relative close distance (less than 200 miles) from the five main regions emitting the largest quantities of anthropogenic CO₂ have sufficient thicknesses (over 2000 feet in average) to enable deepwater CO₂ injection in these sediments.

Additionally, based on the numerous boreholes that have been drilled, monitored and cored in different deepwater regions of the world by the Deep Sea Drilling Project (DSDP between 1968 and 1983), the Ocean Drilling Program (ODP between 1985 and 2004), and the Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP since 2004), eight potential deepwater CO₂ injection sites are selected across the northern hemisphere and are located relatively close to three of the five main clusters that release a significant part of CO₂ annually, as shown in [Figure 2](#).

Furthermore, in order to conduct reservoir-engineering-feasibility studies that can demonstrate the viability of this CO₂ sequestration solution, the following deepwater sediment types and properties are selected and listed as follows:

- i. Sediment type. Deepwater ocean sediments, also called “pelagic sediments,” are composed of three main classes: abyssal clay, calcareous and siliceous oozes. Except for the deepest waters of the Pacific Ocean composed of abyssal or red clays, generally, calcareous ooze dominates the composition of the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans, but siliceous oozes can be found in deepwater sediments at certain latitudes. Also, terrigenous or lithogenous sediments which can be sand, mud or silts and carried to the oceans and seas by rivers and wind notably account for an important part near the shores.
- ii. Sediment thickness greater than 300 feet or 100 meters. The major part of the ocean and deep sea waters located within 200 miles of the shores from the five main regions have sediment thicknesses greater than 1000 feet and therefore can form a sufficiently large geological trap if the void pore volume of the sediments is sufficiently large.
- iii. Sediment porosity for deepwater sediments is relatively high with values ranging between 40% and 90% for sediment columns less than 1500 feet below the seafloor.
- iv. Sediment permeability for deepwater sediments because of the different types of sub-seabed formations can take a wide range of values going from a few microDarcies to hundreds of milliDarcies.
- v. As depth increases, temperature of the sediments, which is a function of the thermal properties of the rock and regional tectonics, changes pore-fluid and CO₂ densities. Therefore, the geothermal gradient in the sediments, which is a function of the heat flow and the thermal conductivity of the sediments, is critical data to compute in the reservoir model. Values for geothermal gradients in deepwater sub-seabed formations are broad, with the lowest being 0.5°F/100 feet and the highest being 9°F/100 feet, depending on local heat flow in the sediments and the regional activity in the oceanic crust.

The main parameters that have been used from the CO₂ injection sites located around the coasts of Japan, the United States and Central America are summarized in [Table 1](#). Three of the sites are situated around the Japanese archipelago: one being located in the Sea of Japan, injecting CO₂ in lithogenous sediments in about 9300 feet of water with a high geothermal gradient averaging 6°F/100 feet; the second site is positioned in the Northwest Pacific Ocean, offshore of the main island of Shikoku in pelagic sediments with similar water depth and geothermal gradient as the Sea of Japan injection site; the third site is placed farther out in the Northwest Pacific Ocean (N40°, E150°) in ultra-deepwater, greater than 18,000 feet, and with relatively low geothermal gradient, averaging 2°F/100 feet, in pelagic sediments as well.

Four of the injection sites are located not too far from the coasts of the United States. One injection site is situated in the Gulf of Mexico, in lithogenous sediments, in water depths approximating 11,000 feet and where the maximum geothermal gradient is about 2°F/100 feet; two other sites are located on the west coast of the U.S. in the Pacific Ocean in ultra-deepwater, close to 15,000 feet, in pelagic sediments for one and red-clay sediments for the other with geothermal gradient averaging 2°F/100 feet for the northern location as shown on the map in [Figure 2](#) and geothermal gradient averaging 4°F/100 feet for the location near Juan de Fuca ridge.

Finally, the eighth injection site is positioned in the Central Pacific Ocean, offshore Costa Rica in water depths as deep as 12,000 feet, in pelagic clays with a high geothermal gradient, averaging 6°F/100 feet. Thus, a wide range of site features has been chosen with all types of deepwater sediments (lithogenous, lithogenous-basaltic, pelagic with calcareous ooze, pelagic with siliceous ooze, abyssal red clay) which have different porosities and permeabilities, respectively, ranging between 40% and 90% for porosity and with values of permeability between 0.1 mD and 40 mD for the most part, except for some sediments in the Gulf of Mexico (1 μ D), the Pacific Ocean (2 μ D), having very low values, and the Central Pacific (1000 mD), having very high values.

Also, water depths fluctuate between deepwater sites ($\leq 10,000$ feet) and ultra-deepwater sites ($\approx 15,000$ feet), which influence directly the pressure of the formations at seafloor (4000 psi to 8000 psi). In addition, the temperature at seafloor is chosen as a constant value of 35°F for all the locations. Moreover, various geothermal gradients with values between 2°F/100 feet and 6°F/100 feet can be present within the deepwater sediments of the eight injection sites chosen and, thus, may affect significantly the CO₂ density. Finally, the same injection rate of 5000 tons of CO₂ per day, which result in injecting over 1.8 million tons of CO₂ per year in the deepwater sediments, is selected for the nine case studies at eight sites.

Reservoir Model and Simulation Parameters

The goal of this study is to demonstrate the viability of CO₂ sequestration in deepwater sediments by modeling the liquid CO₂ plume mobility once injected in the sediments, using an equation of state 3D compositional reservoir simulator (GEMTM) with the additional greenhouse gas module (GHG). The analyses also evaluate the effects of CO₂ on the geochemical and petrophysical properties of the sub-seabed formations. The results of the simulation models show the variations in CO₂ concentration in the sediments pore-volume and the immobility or migration of the CO₂ plume as a function of sediments' petrophysical properties, temperature, pressure and injection rate. In addition, The greenhouse gas module of the reservoir simulator allows for modeling not only the various transport phenomena associated with the sequestration of liquid CO₂ in deepwater sediments, such as convective and dispersive flow in porous media, but also chemical equilibrium between the CO₂ and the pore-fluid, the kinetic reactions and mineral dissolution among the carbonates and aqueous species in order to calculate and predict the composition and densities of the CO₂ and the pore-fluid. Further, the compositional simulator works under the assumptions that the CO₂ and the pore-fluids in the deepwater sediments are in thermodynamic equilibrium; also for stoichiometry, it divides the chemical reactions into two categories, with the first being the chemical reactions that take place between the liquid CO₂ and the different sediment pore-fluid components and the second being the heterogeneous geochemical reactions occurring between the sediment minerals and the sediments pore-fluid. Besides, the petrophysical properties of the deepwater sub-seabed formations, such as porosity,

permeability and reactive surface of the sediment minerals, are accounted for in the reservoir model. Thus, because of the geochemical reactions and sediment dissolution or precipitation processes can be estimated, the change in the pore volume is calculated within the entire model. At first, the simulator calculates the porosity changes due to sediment mineral precipitation and accounts for the effects of minerals dissolution. Then, the mineral and precipitation processes that yield the calculations of the change in deepwater sediment absolute permeability are computed in the reservoir model. To do so, the reservoir simulator solves both implicitly and simultaneously all the equations for flow modeling, mass balance, geochemical reactions, phase equilibrium, mineral dissolution and precipitation that describe the sediment pore-volume transformations. The numerical solution is given through the use of the rate annihilation matrix method and finite difference analysis where all the reactions that are involved in the CO₂ sequestration in sediments are solved simultaneously and for each grid block. Additionally, the simulator requires that CO₂ and aqueous species initially present within the deepwater sediments be specified. However, since physical and chemical properties of water are already built within the simulator library, these data need not be defined. Finally, the simulations have been run after building a three-dimensional reservoir model with a 25x25x60 Cartesian grid blocks for heterogeneous deepwater sediments with the injection well positioned at grid (13, 13) and completed in the lower grid blocks. In eight illustrative, simulative cases taking place in Sea of Japan, the North Atlantic Ocean, the Central Pacific and Northwest Pacific Oceans, the CO₂ is injected in the deepwater sub-seabed formations, at water depths ranging between 9300 feet and 18,100 feet, with a rate of 5000 tons per day for 25 years. Then, the injection operations are stopped and the simulations are run for another 225 years (total timeframe of 250 years since the beginning of the injection operations).

A multiple porosity, multiple permeability model has been used in the reservoir simulation in order to create a heterogeneous model of the deepwater sediments. Therefore, Gaussian distributions for both the porosity and the permeability have been generated using unconditional Gaussian geostatistical simulations, which, based on a set of known measurements of permeability and porosity and given as input the mean, variance and standard deviation values for permeability and porosity for each of eight case studies with similar depth conditions, generate a new set of spatial variables for each grid block of the reservoir model. The left side and center of [Figure 3](#) show a three-dimensional representation of the reservoir model for deepwater sediments illustrating how the unconditional Gaussian geostatistical simulations can generate 3D heterogeneous matrices of the permeability and the porosity in the case of deepwater clays located offshore in the Northwest Pacific Ocean. Additionally, the right side of [Figure 3](#) represents the three-dimensional „reservoir + well“ system, showing a top view of the deepwater sediments with the CO₂ injection well positioned at the center of the parallelepiped model. The well is injecting CO₂ at a constant rate of 5000 tons per day for 25 years and therefore is aiming to sequester a large quantity of CO₂ at a single offshore location. Then, the injection operations stop, and the numerical model run simulations for another 225 years.

Case Studies: Simulation Results

Case Study No. 1: Gulf of Mexico, USA

Case study No. 1 considers a reservoir constituted of deepwater sub-seabed lithogenous sediments with a total thickness of 328 feet (100 meters) located in the Gulf of Mexico in 11,000 feet of water. The temperature and pressure at the seafloor are, respectively, 35°F and 4,919 psi, and the geothermal gradient in the first few hundreds feet of sediments is 2°F per 100 feet. The results of the numerical simulations that

show the global mole fraction of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater lithogenous sediments after a timeframe of 250 years are displayed in [Figure 4](#). It can be seen that the CO₂ migrates slowly both in the lateral and vertical directions but also that a large part of it remains trapped within the sediments, staying at the bottom part of the reservoir model because of the effect of a relatively low geothermal gradient of 2°F per 100 feet. Global CO₂ mole fraction takes values of 1.0 (red color on [Figure 4](#)) in the vicinity of the injection zone for a volume representing about 5x5x9 grid blocks. However, CO₂ mole fraction values in the upper and farthest lateral parts of the sediments model are null, indicating that the CO₂ is quasi-immobile and gravitationally trapped in the bulk volume (blue color on [Figure 4](#)).

Case Study No. 2: Pacific Ocean, Offshore West Coast of the U.S.

Case study No. 2 looks at a reservoir composed of deepwater red clay sediments with a total thickness of 328 feet (100 meters) located in the Pacific Ocean, near the west coast of the U.S in 15,022 feet of water. The temperature and pressure at the seafloor are, respectively, 35°F and 6718 psi, and the geothermal gradient in the first few hundreds feet of sediments is 4°F per 100 feet. For this case study No. 2, the results of the numerical simulations that show the global mole fraction of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater red clay sediments after a timeframe of 250 years are presented in [Figure 5](#). Similarly to the previous case study, it can be seen that the CO₂ migrates slowly both in the lateral and vertical directions but get diffused a little more both laterally and vertically. This is partly due to higher geothermal of 4°F per 100 feet. However, the CO₂ still remains gravitationally trapped within the sediments, with the major part of the plume staying at the bottom part of the reservoir model. Also, CO₂ mole fraction takes values of 1.0 (red color on [Figure 5](#)) in the vicinity of the injection zone but for a smaller volume than for the case study No. 1, thus, representing about 3x3x9 grid blocks. Likewise, CO₂ mole fraction values in the upper and farthest lateral parts of the sediments model are null, also indicating that the CO₂ is quasi immobile and gravitationally trapped in the bulk volume (blue color on [Figure 5](#)).

Case Study No. 3: Northwest Pacific Ocean, Offshore West Coast of the U.S. and Canada

Case study No. 3 is similar to the previous case study No. 2 because it is located in the Northwest Pacific Ocean, near the west coast of the U.S in 14,857 feet of water and the temperature and pressure at the seafloor are, respectively, 35°F and 6,644 psi. However, it simulates a reservoir model containing pelagic sediments with a total thickness of 328 feet (100 meters) and the geothermal gradient in the first few hundreds feet of sediments is lower than in the case study No. 2, with 2°F per 100 feet. In this case study No. 3, the results of the numerical simulations that show the global mole fraction of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater pelagic sediments after a timeframe of 250 years are presented in [Figure 6](#). Similarly to the case study No. 1, it can be seen that the CO₂ migrates slowly both in the lateral and vertical directions because of the effect of a relatively low geothermal gradient of 2°F per 100 feet and also that a large part of it remains trapped within the sediments staying at the bottom part of the reservoir model. Further, CO₂ mole fraction takes value of 1.0 (red color on [Figure 6](#)) in the vicinity of the injection zone but for a volume representing about 4x4x9 grid blocks. Likewise, CO₂ mole fraction values in the upper and farthest lateral parts of the sediments model are null, indicating that the CO₂ is quasi immobile and gravitationally trapped in the bulk volume (blue color on [Figure 6](#)).

Case Study No. 4: Central Pacific Ocean, Offshore Costa Rica

Case study No. 4 investigates a reservoir constituted of deepwater pelagic sediments with a total thickness of 328 feet (100 meters) located in the Central Pacific Ocean, near Costa Rica in about 12,000 feet of water. The temperature and pressure at the seafloor are, respectively, 35°F and 5366 psi, and the geothermal gradient in the first few hundreds feet of sediments is relatively high with 6°F per 100 feet. In the following case study No. 4, the results of the numerical simulations that show the global mole fraction of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater pelagic sediments after a timeframe of 250 years are displayed in [Figure 7](#). Unlike the previous case studies Nos. 1, 2 and 3, the CO₂ migrates more rapidly both in the lateral and vertical directions but still remains gravitationally trapped within the sediments on the lower part of the reservoir model. Indeed, due to a much higher geothermal gradient of 6°F per 100 feet, the CO₂ moves upward until reaching a gravitational equilibrium. Thus, CO₂ mole fraction still takes values of 1.0 (red color on [Figure 7](#)) in the vicinity of the injection zone but for a much smaller volume than for the previous case studies Nos. 1, 2 and 3, thus, representing about 3x3x2 grid blocks. Then, CO₂ mole fraction values greater than zero can be seen in the upper and farthest lateral parts of the reservoir model with, for instance, grid blocks (6, 6, 60) and (0, 0, 15) (light blue and green colors on [Figure 7](#)).

Case Study No. 5: Sea of Japan

Case study No. 5 considers a reservoir constituted of deepwater sub-seabed lithogenous sediments with basaltic deposits, also having a total thickness of 328 feet (100 meters) located in the Sea of Japan in 9281 feet of water. The temperature and pressure at the seafloor are, respectively, 35°F and 4150 psi, and the average geothermal gradient in the first few hundreds feet of sediments is as high as 6°F per 100 feet. For this case study No. 5, the results of the numerical simulations that show the global mole fraction of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater lithogenous sediments after a timeframe of 250 years are presented in the upper part of [Figure 8](#). Similarly to the previous case study No. 4, it can be seen that the CO₂ migrates more rapidly both in the lateral and vertical directions but still remains gravitationally trapped within the sediments on the lower part of the numerical model. Again, the relatively high geothermal gradient of 6°F per 100 feet has a direct effect on the migration of the CO₂ plume. Thus, it can be seen that CO₂ mole fraction takes values of 1.0 (red color on the upper part of [Figure 8](#)) in the vicinity of the injection zone but for a slight larger volume than for the case study No. 4 representing about 2x2x6 grid blocks. Likewise, CO₂ concentration values in the upper and farthest lateral parts of the sediments model are greater than zero, indicating that the CO₂ has migrated upward and then stayed gravitationally trapped in the bulk volume and can, therefore, be considered as immobile (light blue and green colors in the upper part of [Figure 8](#)).

Case Study No. 6: Northwest Pacific Ocean, Offshore Shikoku, Japan

Case study No. 6 looks at a reservoir composed of deepwater pelagic sediments with a total thickness of 328 feet (100 meters) located in the Northwest Pacific Ocean, near the island of Shikoku, Japan in 9850 feet of water. The temperature and pressure at the seafloor are, respectively, 35°F and 4,405 psi, and the average geothermal gradient in the first few hundreds feet of sediments is 6°F per 100 feet. In the following case study No. 6, the results of the numerical simulations that show the global mole fraction of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater pelagic sediments after a timeframe of 250 years are displayed in the middle part of [Figure 8](#). Similarly to the previous case studies No. 4

and 5, the CO₂ migrates more rapidly in the lateral and vertical directions because of the relatively high geothermal gradient of 6°F per 100 feet; but, again, remains trapped within the sediments after reaching a gravitational equilibrium in the last one-third part of the reservoir model. As before, CO₂ mole fraction takes value of 1.0 (red color in the middle part of [Figure 8](#)) in the vicinity of the injection zone for a slightly larger volume than for the previous case studies No. 4, and 5, representing about 3x3x7 grid blocks. Likewise, CO₂ concentration values in the upper and farthest lateral parts of the sediments model are greater than zero, indicating that the CO₂ plume has moved in the vertical direction and then has been gravitationally trapped in the bulk volume and is now (after 250 years in the simulations) immobile (light blue and green colors in the middle part of [Figure 8](#)).

Case Study No. 7: Northwest Pacific Ocean, (N40°, E150°)

Case study No. 7 is similar to the previous case study No. 6 because it is located in the Northwest Pacific Ocean, near the coast of Japan and because it simulates a reservoir model containing pelagic sediments with a total thickness of 328 feet (100 meters). However, it is located in 18,158 feet of water and the temperature and pressure at the seafloor are, respectively, 35°F and 8,120 psi, and the geothermal gradient in the first few hundreds feet of sediments is lower than the case study No. 6, with 2°F per 100 feet. For this case study No. 7, the results of the numerical simulations that show the global mole fraction of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater lithogenous sediments after a timeframe of 250 years are presented on the lower part of [Figure 8](#). Similarly to the previous case study No. 6, it can be seen that the CO₂ has not migrated as much in the vertical direction, remaining trapped for the most part within the sediments in the bottom part of the reservoir model because of the presence of a relatively low geothermal gradient of 2°F per 100 feet at this location. Also, CO₂ mole fraction takes values of 1.0 (red color on the lower part of [Figure 8](#)) in the vicinity of the injection zone but for a larger volume than for the previous case studies Nos. 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, representing about 4x4x8 grid blocks. Likewise, CO₂ mole fraction values in the farthest lateral parts of the numerical model are not null, indicating that the CO₂ has slightly moved laterally due to the much lower permeability of these sediments (ranging between 2μD and 1.6mD), but the gravitational trap is still functional (light blue color on the lower part of [Figure 8](#)).

Case Study No. 8: Atlantic Ocean, Offshore East Coast of the U.S.

Case study No. 8 investigates a reservoir constituted of deepwater pelagic sediments with a total thickness of 328 feet (100 meters) located in the Atlantic Ocean, near the East Coast of the U.S. in about 9855 feet of water. The temperature and pressure at the seafloor are, respectively, 35°F and 4,407 psi, and the geothermal gradient in the first few hundreds feet of sediments is 2°F per 100 feet. For this case study No. 8, the results of the numerical simulations that show the global mole fraction of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater lithogenous sediments after a timeframe of 250 years are presented in [Figure 9](#). Similarly to the previous case study No. 7, it can be seen that the CO₂ migrates slightly both in the lateral and vertical directions and remains gravitationally trapped within the sediments staying at the bottom part of the reservoir model for the majority. Also, CO₂ mole fraction takes value of 1.0 (red color on [Figure 9](#)) in the vicinity of the injection zone but for a volume representing about 4x4x8 grid blocks. However, CO₂ mole fraction values in the upper and farthest lateral parts of the sediments model are greater than zero, indicating that the CO₂ has migrated through the pore volume and the connected pores until becoming gravitationally trapped with the surrounding pore-fluids (light blue and green colors on [Figure 9](#)).

Case Study No. 9: Sea of Japan with Deeper Injection Depth

To show the effect of temperature on the CO₂ and pore-fluid properties, a ninth case study has been investigated. It considers a thicker reservoir (≈3,000 feet) constituted of deepwater sub-seabed lithogenous sediments located in the Sea of Japan in 9281 feet of water with a temperature and pressure at the seafloor, respectively, of 35°F and 4,150 psi (please refer to case study No. 5). However, the injection depth has been changed. Indeed, the temperature in the sediments for this case study is fixed at 200°F at the bottom of the reservoir which corresponds to a depth of about 3000 feet if a linear geothermal of 6°F per 100 feet is assumed. The values of the main parameters for the ninth case study are displayed in [Table 2](#).

For the case study No. 9, [Figure 10](#) and [Figure 11](#) present the results of the numerical simulations and the evolution of the injected CO₂ in the deepwater lithogenous sediments at different time steps: right after injection, after 10 years of injection, after 25 years of injection, and, respectively, after 50 years, 100 years, 150 years, 200 years and 250 years from the beginning of the operations. Thus, unlike all the previous case studies, it can be seen on [Figure 10](#), which is a snapshot of the CO₂ plume migration between the depths 3000 feet and 2700 feet below the seabed that the CO₂ injected at 3000 feet, in the sediment column, below the seafloor, is present as a supercritical phase (P=5450 psi and T=200°F at 3000 feet), and therefore it migrates relatively rapidly in the vertical direction. However, [Figure 11](#) illustrates in a similar manner as in the previous case studies (No. 1 through No. 8) that the CO₂ moves upwards until changing phase from supercritical to liquid at a depth below the seafloor where the temperature in the sediments is much cooler than 200°F (i.e., where temperature is lower than 80°F). Therefore, at this relatively shallow depth; CO₂ becomes gravitationally trapped within the sediments due to its liquid phase being greater than the surrounding pore-fluid density.

Conclusions

Results from the computer models show that the storage of liquid CO₂ as an immobile fluid is viable because of the gravitational trapping mechanism occurring at high pressures and low temperatures that reign in deepwater sub-seabed formations. At these pressure and temperature conditions, the surrounding pore-fluid density remains greater than that the CO₂ density for all of the nine case studies investigated. Thus, if the injection of the CO₂ is at depths greater than 300 feet, the local geothermal gradient value influences greatly the migration of the CO₂ plume in the sediments. Indeed, when geothermal values are relatively low (between 1°F/100 ft and 2°F/100 ft), signifying that the liquid CO₂ density is either slightly lower or greater than the sediments pore-fluid, the CO₂ plume rapidly reaches a gravitational equilibrium and becomes immobile within the deepwater formations. However, when geothermal values are moderate (between 3°F/100 ft and 5°F/100 ft) or relatively high (between 6°F/100 ft and 8°F/100 ft), the CO₂ density is much lighter than the surrounding pore-fluid, and therefore, the CO₂ plume can migrate through the effective porosity (interconnected sediment pores) and by capillarity until it reaches gravitational equilibrium at shallower depths where the temperature of sediments is cooler than the one reigning at the injection depth. At that point, the CO₂ density becomes slightly greater than the ambient pore-fluid and carbon dioxide remains immobile and trapped.

Hence, it appears that from these studies, injecting CO₂ in deepwater sediments is a „safer“ technique for storing CO₂ than depending on the structural cap rock overlying an aquifer in which supercritical CO₂ is injected or even where anthropogenic CO₂ is injected into depleted oil

and gas field reservoirs for storage. Indeed, this alternative CO₂ sequestration solution appears not to be sensitive to any structural geology or regional tectonics because at relatively shallow depth below the deep ocean floor, or deep seafloor, the liquid CO₂ is denser than the „air+seawater“ pore-volume and remains at the bottom of the bulk volume. Moreover, even though not all sediment regions located at 9000 feet below the mean sea level should be appropriate for CO₂ storage; for instance, sediments must be permeable and porous enough to inject large quantities of liquid CO₂ in the void space at relatively high flow rates, CO₂ should not be injected below steep slopes since landslides may expose the CO₂ to be released into the ocean. The nine case studies presented in this article have demonstrated through the use of numerical simulations that CO₂ injected in deepwater sub-seabed formations remains immobile and gravitationally trapped within the sediments pore-volume for a various range of reservoir conditions (temperature, pressure, porosity and permeability, notably). In addition, further studies and numerical simulations need to investigate the effects of the presence or formation of CO₂ hydrates when injecting CO₂ in deepwater sediments. CO₂ hydrates could, on one hand, limit the injection rate by impeding the mobility of the liquid CO₂ but, on the other hand could constitute a second trapping mechanism by crystallizing and filling part of the pore volume.

Therefore, it seems that deepwater sub-seabed CO₂ storage could be used on a global scale to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions and store efficiently the captured CO₂ from various industrial processes. Pilot projects will be needed in the near future actually to demonstrate both the viability and feasibility of this CO₂ storage solution.

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LOCATION	Sediment Types	Porosity	Permeability	Water depth (Feet)	Sediment Thickness (Feet)	Pressure at Seabed (psi)	Temperature at Seafloor	Average Geothermal Gradient	Injection Rate (Tons/day)
Gulf of Mexico, U.S.A.	Lithogenous (Siliclastic)	70% to 85%	1 μ D to 11 mD	11,000	328	4,919	35°F	2°F/100 ft	5,000
Pacific, U.S. West Coast	Red Clay (Mixed with Silt and Sand)	60% to 85%	1 mD to 40 mD	15,022	328	6,718	35°F	4°F/100 ft	5,000
North-West Pacific	Pelagic Clay (Calcareous Ooze)	68% to 81%	0.5 mD to 15 mD	14,857	328	6,644	35°F	2°F/100 ft	5,000
Central Pacific	Pelagic Clay (Siliceous Ooze)	63% to 91%	0.4 mD to 1000 mD	12,000	328	5,366	35°F	6°F/100 ft	5,000
Japan Sea	Continental Margin (Basaltic/Doleritic)	60% to 80%	0.1 mD to 40 mD	9,281	328	4,150	35°F	6°F/100 ft	5,000
Offshore Japan, Pacific Ocean	Pelagic Clay (Calcareous Ooze)	42% to 66%	7.5 mD to 18.5 mD	9,850	328	4,405	35°F	6°F/100 ft	5,000
Offshore Japan, Pacific Ocean	Pelagic Clay (Siliceous Ooze)	67% to 83%	2 μ D to 1.6 mD	18,158	328	8,120	35°F	2°F/100 ft	5,000
Atlantic Ocean	Pelagic Clay (Calcareous Ooze)	55% to 72%	0.1 mD to 2 mD	9,855	328	4,407	35°F	2°F/100 ft	5,000

Table 1. Summary of the main parameters for the eight cases studies.

CASE STUDY N°9	Sediment Types	Porosity	Permeability	Water depth (Feet)	Sediment Thickness (Feet)	Pressure at Seabed (psi)	Pressure at Bottom of Sediments (psi)	Temperature at Seafloor	Average Geothermal Gradient	Temperature at Seafloor	Injection Rate (Tons/day)
Japan Sea	Lithogenous	60% to 80%	0.1 mD to 40 mD	9281	3000	4150	5450	35°F	6°F/100 ft	200°F	5000

Table 2. Summary of the main parameters for the nine cases study.

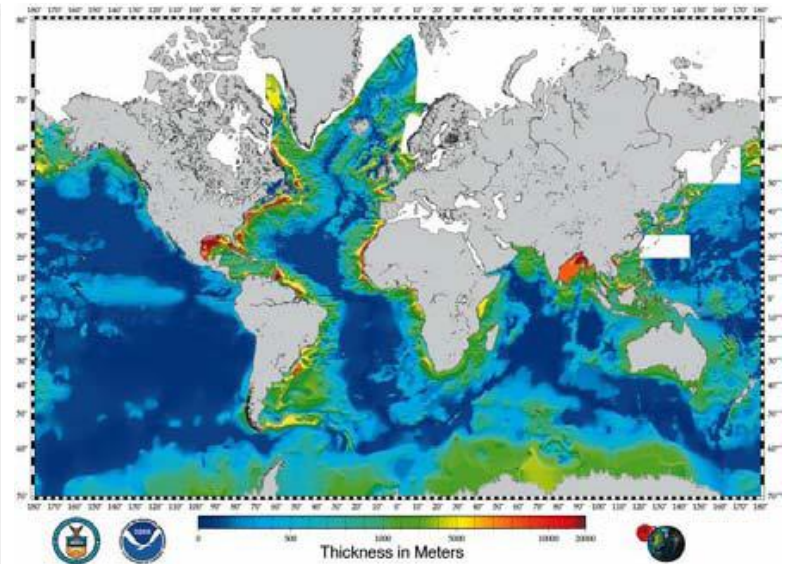


Figure 1. Bathymetric chart of the oceans (left) with five large regions emitting CO₂ (image modified from the GEBCO world map) and total sediment thickness of the world's oceans and marginal seas (right) (source: National Geophysical Data Center).



Figure 2. Locations of the eight CO₂ injection sites (modified image reproduced from the GEBCO world map).

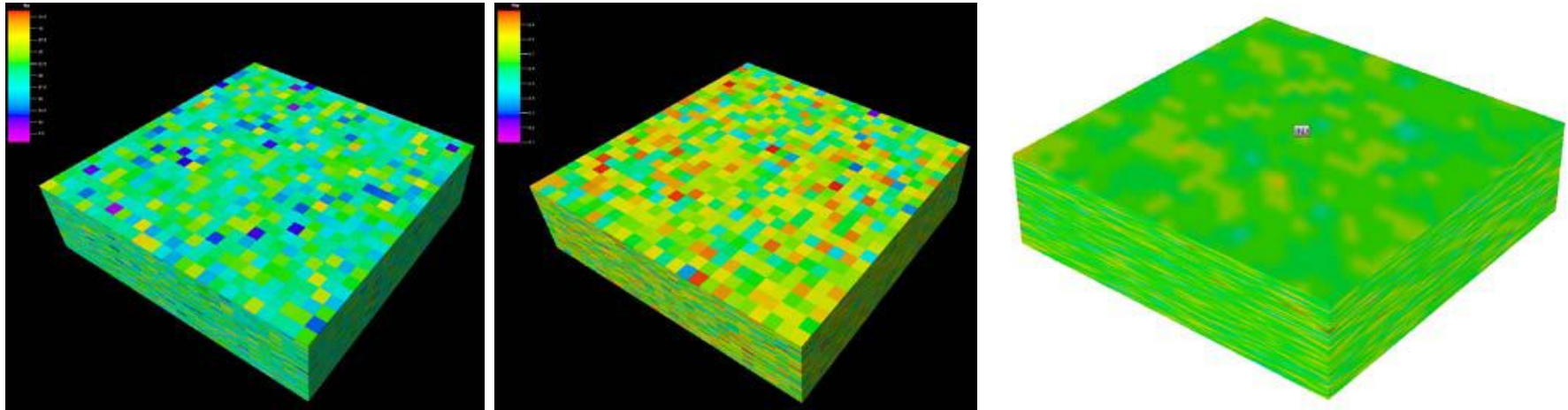


Figure 3. 3D representation of the heterogeneous permeability (left) and porosity (center) for deepwater sediments and 3D reservoir model with injection well positioned at the center (right).

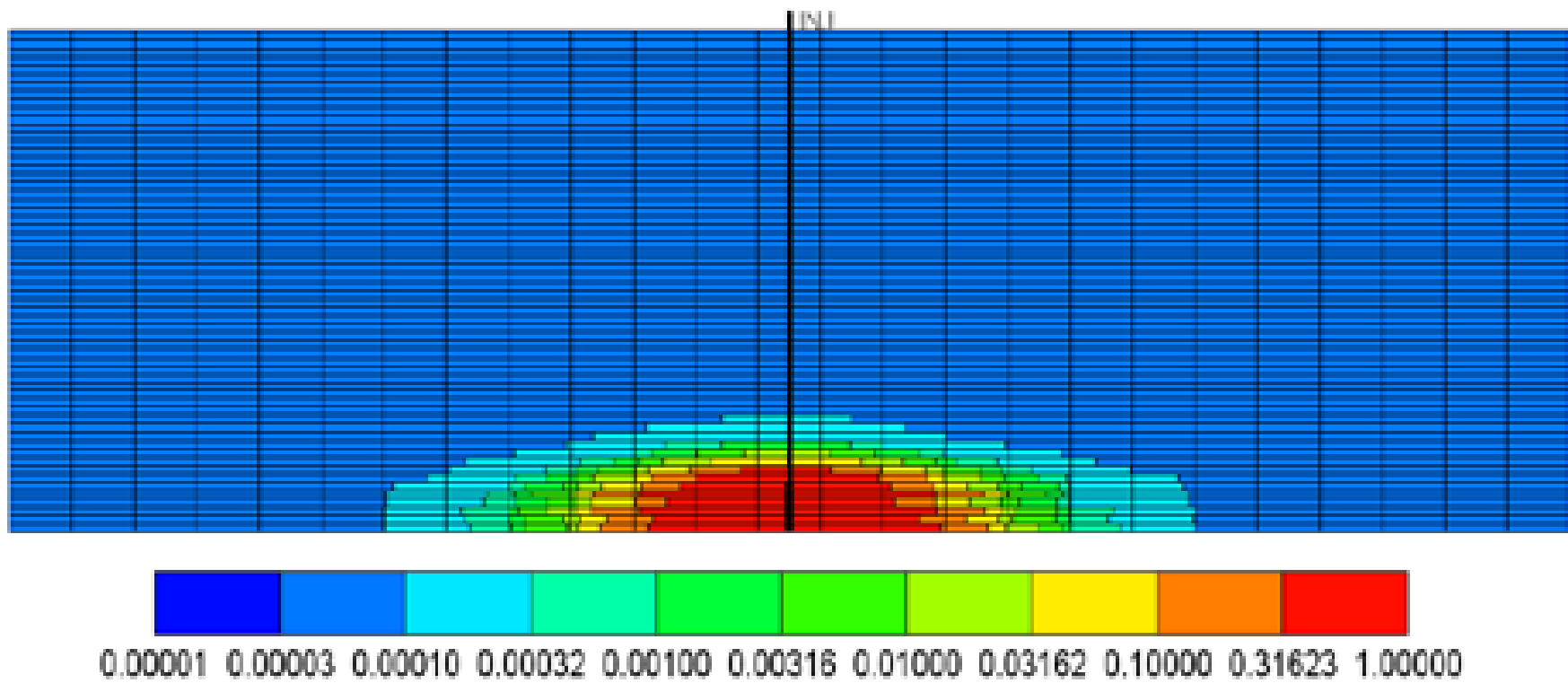


Figure 4. CO₂ mole fraction profile in the lithogenous sediments of the Gulf of Mexico.

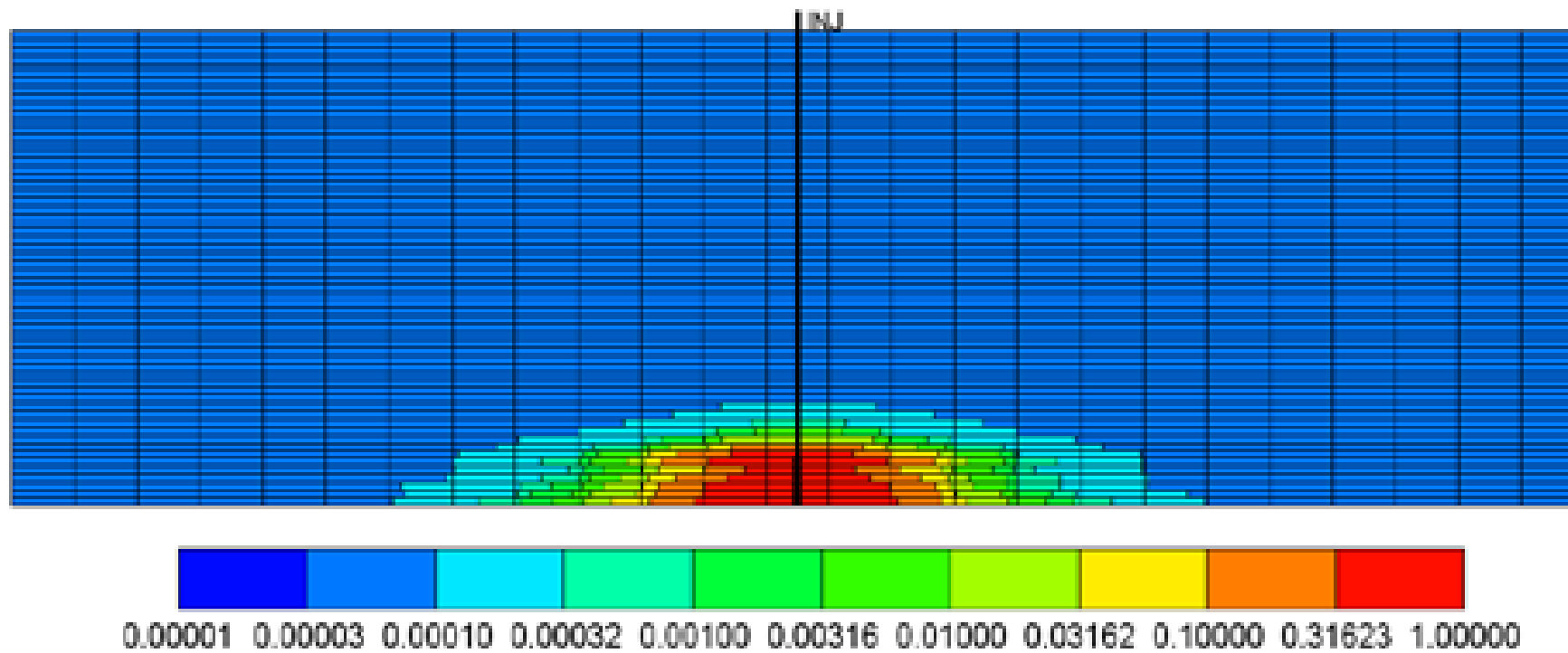


Figure 5. CO₂ mole fraction profile in the red clay sediments of the Pacific Ocean near the U.S. West Coast.

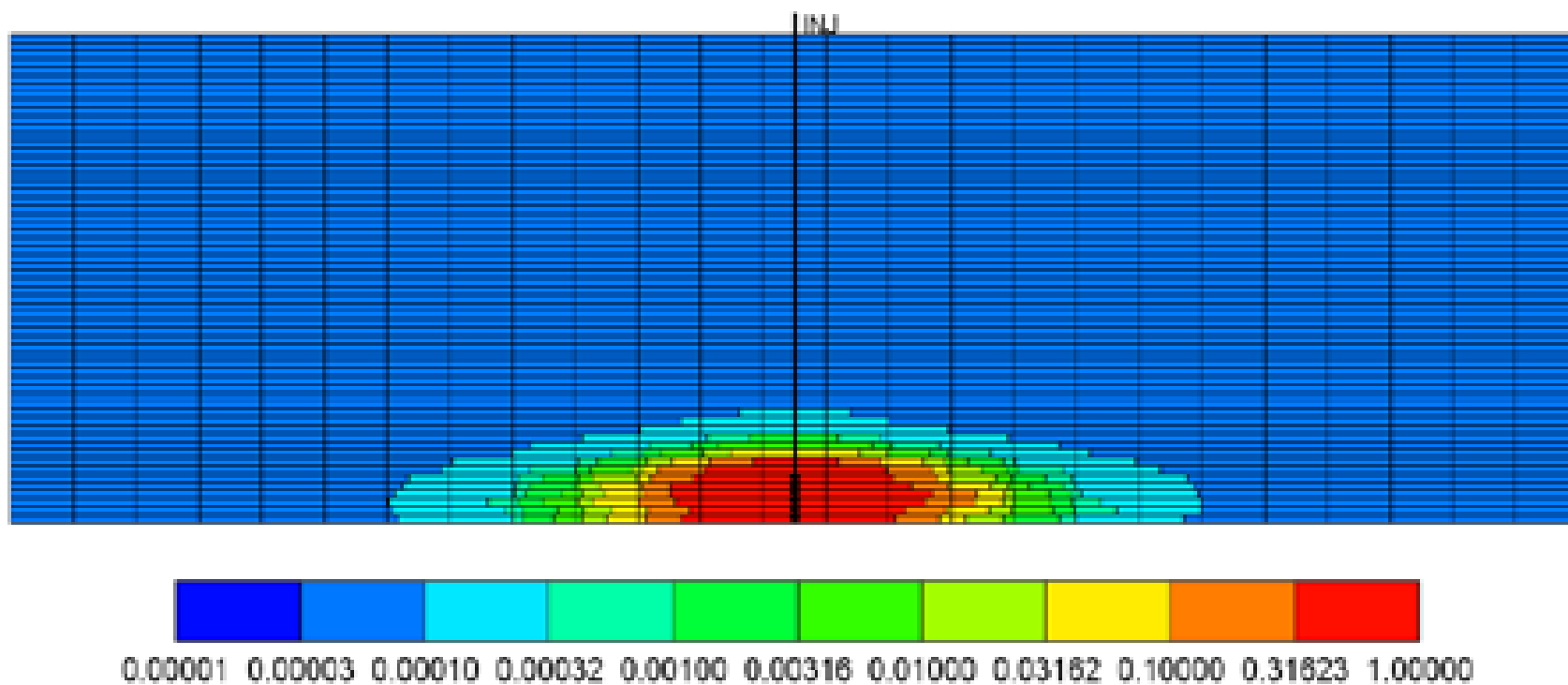


Figure 6. CO₂ mole fraction profile in the pelagic sediments of the Northwest Pacific Ocean near the U.S.

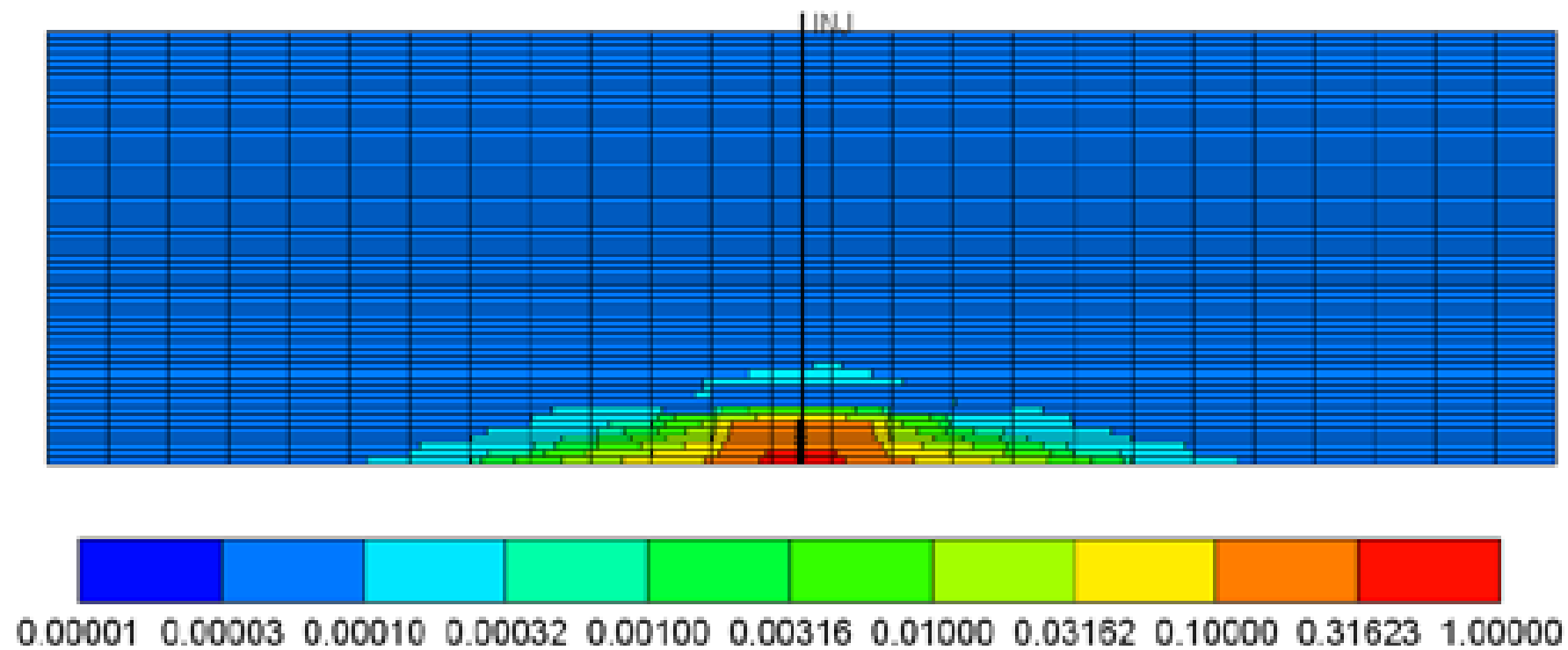


Figure 7. CO₂ mole fraction profile in the pelagic sediments of the Central Pacific Ocean near Costa Rica.

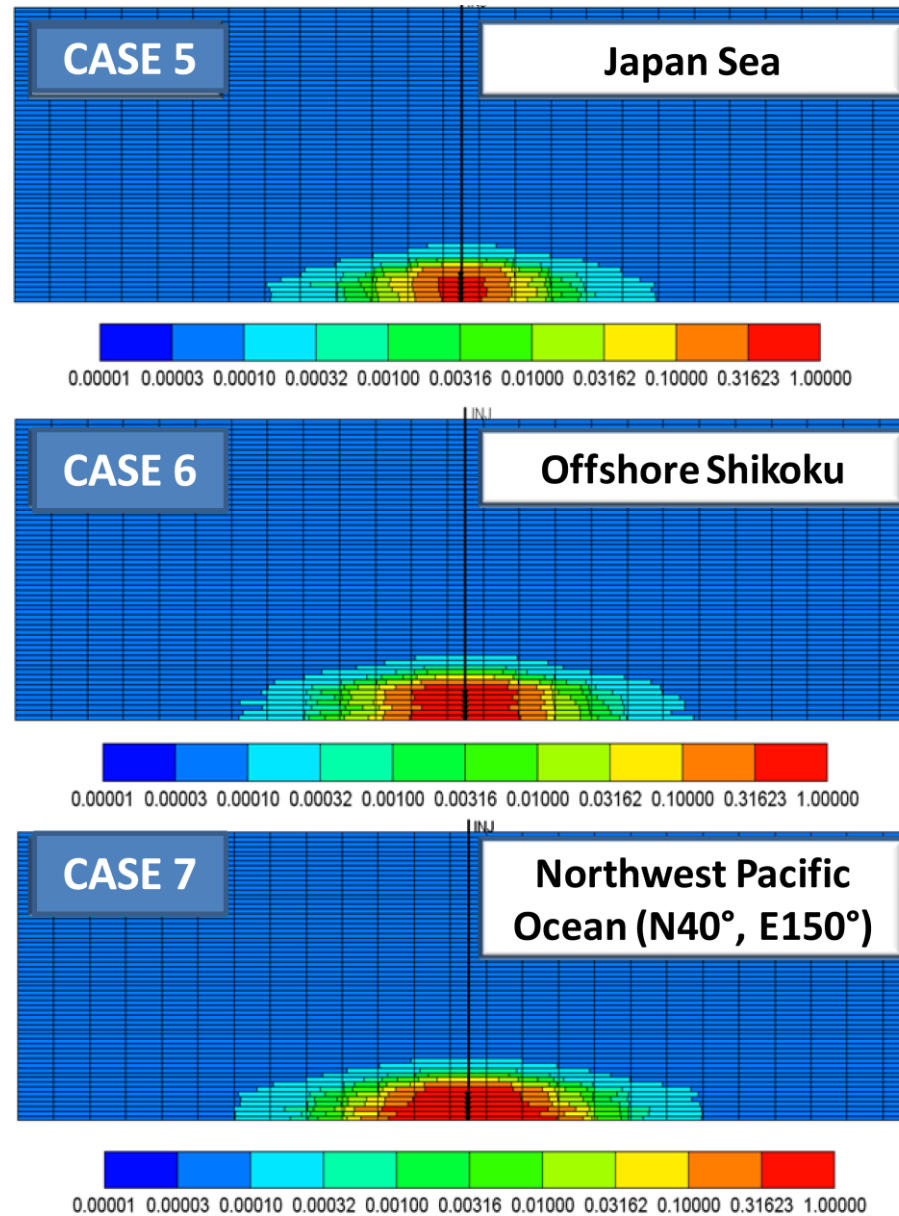


Figure 8. CO₂ mole fraction profile in the sediments located offshore Japan.

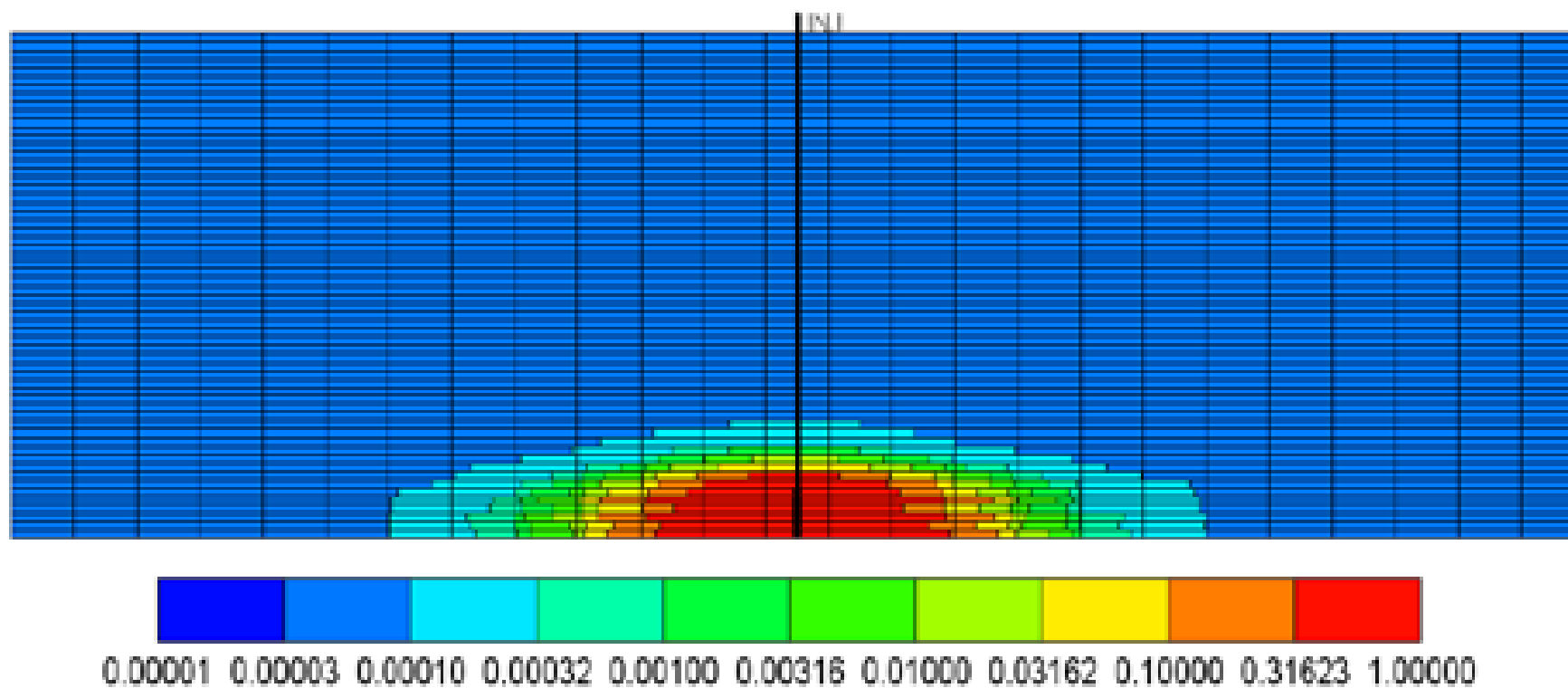


Figure 9. CO₂ mole fraction profile in the pelagic sediments of the Atlantic Ocean near the U.S. East Coast.

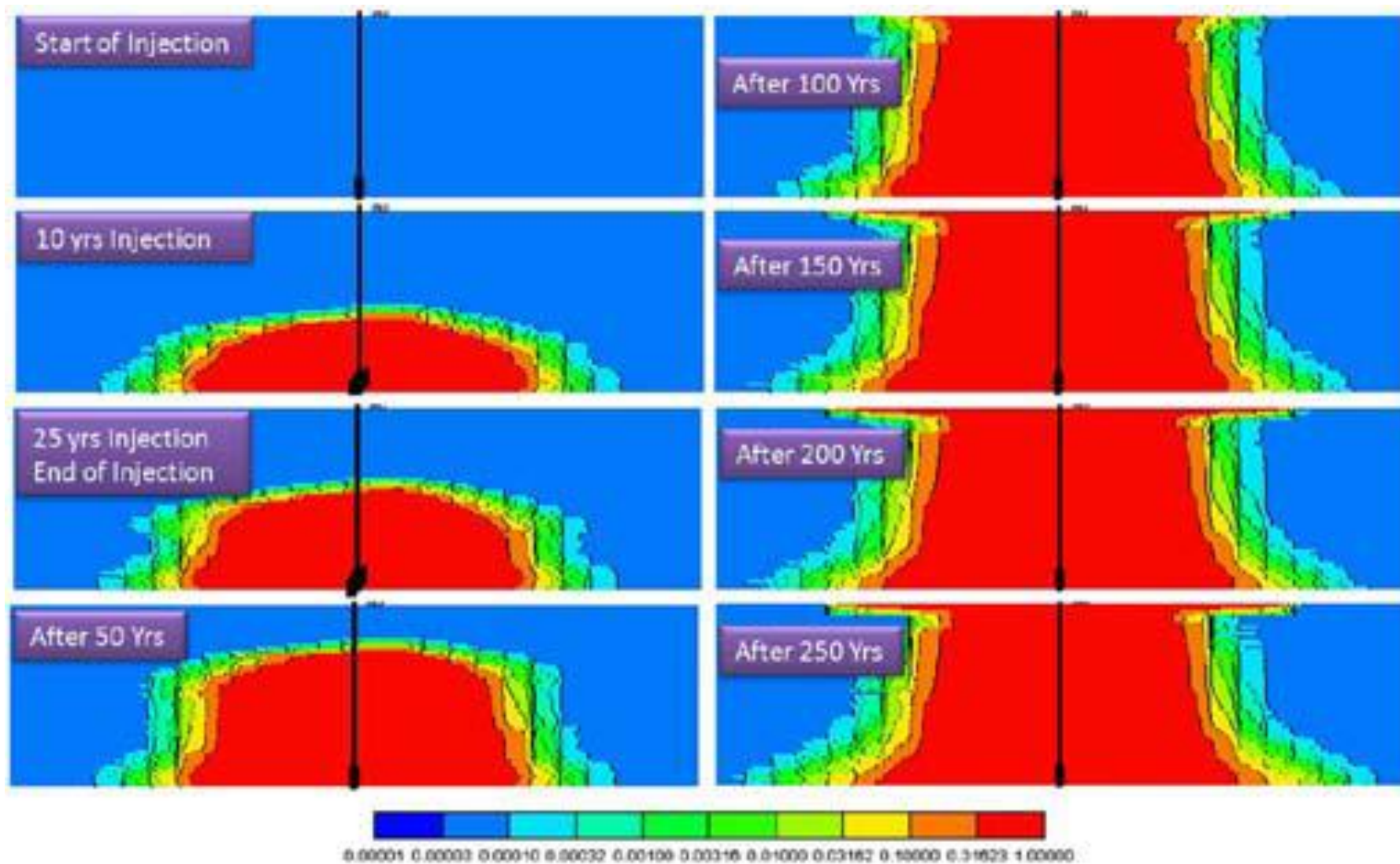


Figure 10. Migration of the CO₂ from 3000 feet to 2700 feet at reservoir temperature of 200°F.

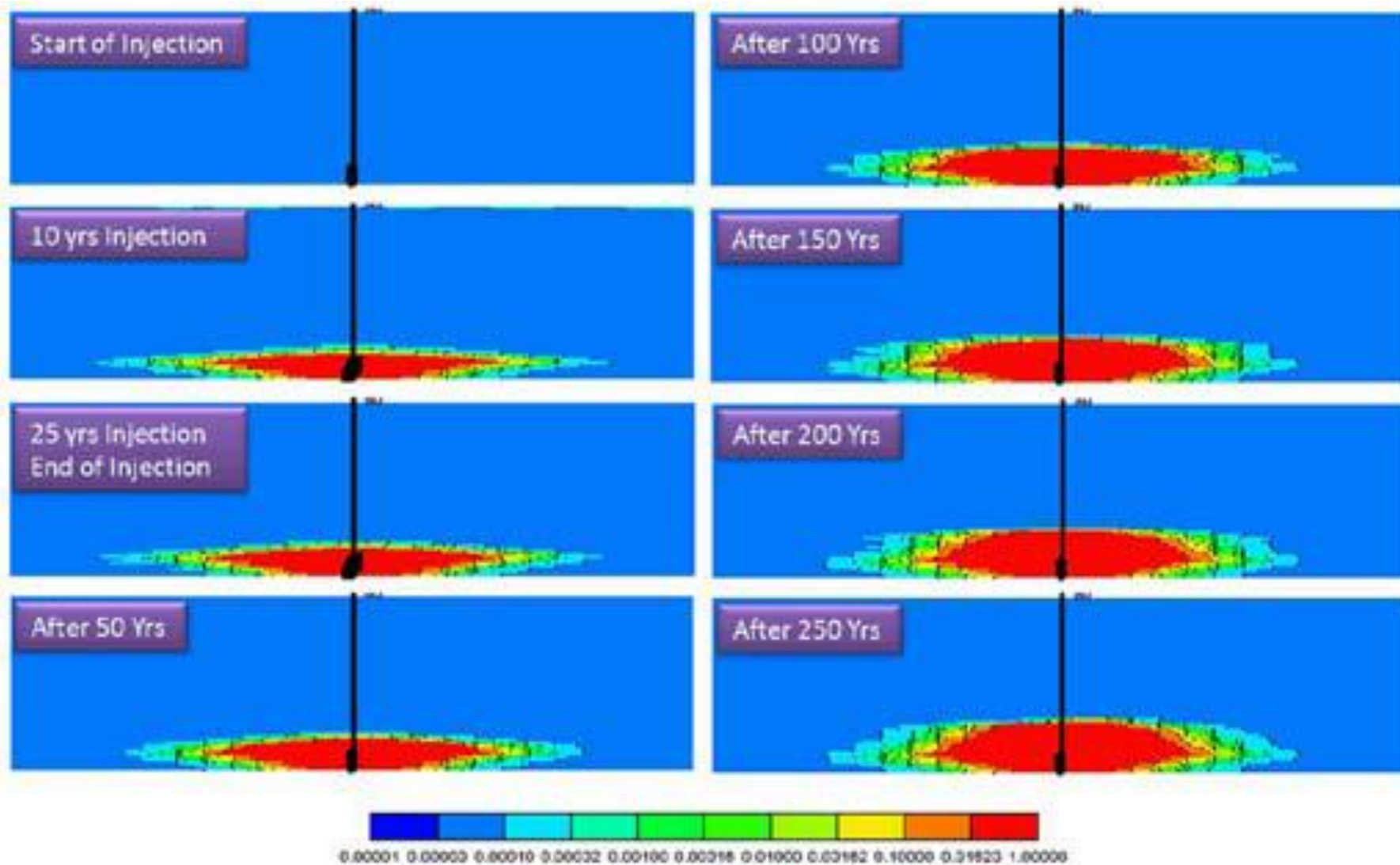


Figure 11. Evolution of the CO₂ plume between 3000 feet below the seabed and the seafloor.