

Effect of reactive surface area of minerals on mineralization trapping of CO₂ in saline aquifers

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Abstract: The reactive surface area, an important parameter controlling mineral reactions, affects the amount of mineralization trapping of CO₂ which affects the long-term CO₂ storage. The effect of the reactive surface area on the mineralization trapping of CO₂ was numerically simulated for CO₂ storage in saline aquifers. Three kinds of minerals, including anorthite, calcite and kaolinite, are involved in the mineral reactions. This paper models the relationship between the specific surface area and the grain diameter of anorthite based on experimental data from literature (Brantley and Mellott, 2000). When the reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite decrease from 838 to 83.8 m²/m³, the percentage of mineralization trapping of CO₂ after 500 years decreases from 11.8% to 0.65%. The amount of dissolved anorthite and the amounts of precipitated kaolinite and calcite decrease significantly when the reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite decrease from 838 to 83.8 m²/m³. Calcite is initially dissolved in the brine and then precipitates during the geochemical reactions between CO₂-H₂O and the minerals. Different reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite lead to different times from dissolution to precipitation. The pH of the brine decreases with decreasing reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite which influences the acidity of the saline aquifer. The gas saturation between the upper and lower parts of the saline aquifer increases with decreasing reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite. The mass density distribution of brine solution shows that the CO₂+brine solution region increases with decreasing reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite.

Key words: Reactive surface area, mineralization trapping, dissolution; precipitation, brine mass density, CO₂ geological storage

1 Introduction

Greenhouse gas emissions especially CO₂ emissions have become a critical environmental issue and the reduction of CO₂ emissions is now a global concern. Various approaches have been developed to reduce CO₂ emissions, including developing renewable energy source (Mohibullah and Imtiaz, 2006), increasing energy efficiency (Markus et al, 2007) and carbon dioxide capture and storage (CCS) (IPCC, 2005). CCS has great potential for large-scale CO₂ disposal. Geological CO₂ storage in saline aquifers has the greatest CO₂ storage potential due to its large capacity and proximity to CO₂ emission sources. Tore and Gale (2004) reported the first CO₂ geological storage demonstration project.

Full-field simulations of CO₂ geological storage have been used to evaluate the storage capacity and injection issues. A variety of simulators have been developed by the petroleum industry (Johnson et al, 2005), including ECLIPSE (Exploration Consultants Limited Implicit Program for

Simulation Engineering), TOUGH (Transport of Unsaturated Groundwater and Heat), NUFT (Nonisothermal, Unsaturated Flow and Transport) and CMG-GEM (Canada Modeling Group-Generalized Equation of State Model), for numerical simulation study. Asghari et al (2006) used CMG-GEM for investigating the effect of the operating parameters on the CO₂ storage capacity in a heterogeneous oil reservoir, and found that a combination of two vertical injection wells and one horizontal production well will give the optimal storage capacity. After being injected into saline aquifers, CO₂ is trapped by four trapping mechanisms, namely structural trapping, residual trapping, solubility trapping and mineral trapping (IPCC, 2005; Yang, 2010). The simulators mentioned above are used to model the movement of the CO₂ plume, the flow characteristics and the rate of the four trapping mechanisms during and after CO₂ injection. Mineralization trapping is assumed to be permanent (IPCC, 2005).

Several researchers have investigated the trapping mechanisms to evaluate the storage capacity and the leakage risk of CO₂ geological storage projects (Doughty, 2010). Nghiem et al (2004; 2005) used an advanced geochemical equation of state (EOS) compositional simulator (GEM) to

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Received September 13, 2011

numerically simulate the complex process associated with CO₂ enhanced oil recovery (CO₂ EOR), CO₂ storage and CO₂ enhanced coal bed methane (CO₂ ECBM) processes. Basbug and Gumrah (2005) used software CMG-GEM for studying the ability of aquifers to capture CO₂ injected in a supercritical state for a long period of time (200 years). Frangeul et al (2004) used CMG-GEM for evaluating long term migration of CO₂ in the Sleipner/Utsira CO₂ geological storage project. Thibeau and Nghiem (2007) modelled the CO₂ mineralization process, taking various possible reactions into consideration. Shekhar et al (2006) conducted numerical simulation of geochemical processes with fluid flow and seismic models.

Many parameters can influence the CO₂ plume and flow characteristics, including temperature, pressure, permeability, aquifer dip angle and heterogeneity. Kumar et al (2004) investigated the effects of the average permeability, the vertical to horizontal permeability ratio, the residual gas saturation, salinity, temperature, aquifer dip angle and permeability heterogeneity on CO₂ geological storage. Green and King (2010) studied the effect of the vertical heterogeneity on long-term migration of CO₂ in saline formations. Ozah et al (2005) investigated the influences of heterogeneity, dip angle and the vertical to horizontal permeability ratio on the storage potential and injection of a CO₂-H₂S gas mixture. Bryant et al (2006) studied the buoyancy dominated multiphase flow and its effect on CO₂ geological storage. Doughty (2007) investigated the influence of the relative permeability hysteresis on CO₂ geological storage using TOUGH2. Juanes et al (2006) investigated the effect of the relative permeability hysteresis on CO₂ geological storage, and the results showed the importance of the relative permeability model for predicting the distribution and the migration of CO₂ in the formation. The effects of the residual gas and water saturation, hysteresis and permeability anisotropy on CO₂ distribution between the gaseous and aqueous phases were investigated (Ukaegbu et al, 2009). Saadatpoor et al (2007) studied the effect of heterogeneity distribution of the capillary pressure curve on a buoyancy driven CO₂ plume. Chang and Bryant (2007) investigated the effect of faults on the buoyancy driven CO₂ plume and the residual CO₂ trapping.

The effect of reactive surface area of minerals on CO₂ geological storage has rarely been reported. Most researchers used a constant reactive surface area of minerals to simulate CO₂ geological storage. However, as one important parameter controlling the mineral reactions, the reactive surface area of minerals affects the level of mineralization trapping of CO₂ and long-term CO₂ storage. In this study, the effect of the reactive surface area of anorthite and calcite on mineralization trapping of CO₂ in saline aquifers was investigated by using the software CMG-GEM.

2 Model description

2.1 Geometric model and geochemical reactions

The 2D model developed with CMG (shown in Fig. 1) was used to investigate the effect of the reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite on the mineralization trapping of CO₂.

The static grid model parameters and reservoir parameters are given in Table 1. The injection well perforation location was at the left bottom. The geochemical reactions between the gaseous and aqueous phases and between aqueous and solid phases are the following four solubility reactions and three liquid-mineral reactions:

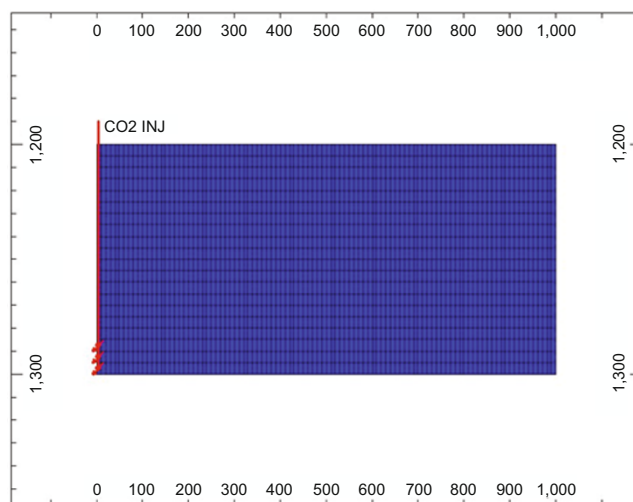
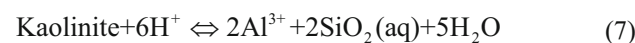
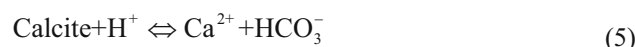


Fig. 1 The numerical model developed using CMG

Table 1 Aquifer parameters and model parameters

Aquifer size	1000m×10m×100m
Grid	100×1×20
Porosity	0.18
Permeability	100 mD
Aquifer depth	1200 m
Reservoir temperature	50 °C
Salinity (NaCl)	0.1%
Maximum injection rate	8000 m ³ /day (under standard surface gas state)
Injection period	1 year
Rock compressibility	5.8×10 ⁻⁷ kPa ⁻¹ (at reference pressure:11800 kPa)
Water compressibility	4.5×10 ⁻⁷ kPa ⁻¹ (at reference pressure:13100 kPa)

The minerals in the geochemical reactions are calcite, anorthite and kaolinite. The gaseous CO₂ fugacity (f_{g,CO_2}) was calculated using the Peng-Robinson equation of state. The aqueous CO₂ fugacity (f_{aq,CO_2}) is the same as the gaseous CO₂ fugacity. The CO₂ mole fraction in the aqueous phase y_{aq,CO_2} was calculated by Henry's law as follows:

$$f_{g,CO_2} = f_{aq,CO_2} = y_{aq,CO_2} \cdot H_{CO_2} \quad (8)$$

Henry's law constant H_{CO_2} is a function of the pressure, temperature and salinity and was calculated by using the method reported by Li and Nghiem (1986).

The mineral reaction rate was calculated by using Eq. (9) reported in literature (Bethke, 1996):

$$r_\alpha = A_\alpha k_\alpha \left(1 - \frac{Q_\alpha}{K_{eq,\alpha}}\right) \quad (9)$$

where r_α is the reaction rate, A_α is the reactive surface area, k_α is the reaction rate constant, Q_α is the mineral reaction activity product, and $K_{eq,\alpha}$ is the chemical equilibrium constant of the mineral reaction.

2.2 Model for relative permeability

Corey's model (Corey, 1976) is used to calculate the relative permeability of CO₂ and brine during the drainage process. The relative permeability of water (K_{rw}) and the relative permeability of CO₂ (K_{rg}) versus water saturation (S_w) are shown in Fig. 2. The hysteresis effect on the relative permeability of CO₂ is modeled by using the modified Land equation which is integrated into CMG-GEM. In this paper the maximum CO₂ residual saturation is assumed to be 0.2.

3 Reactive surface area of minerals

The mineralization trapping is influenced by the reactive surface area of minerals. For a clastic rock, the reactive surface area of an individual mineral grain is dependent on the grain size. The specific surface area of anorthite with different grain diameters was measured (Brantley and Mellott, 2000). The specific surface area of kaolinite was investigated

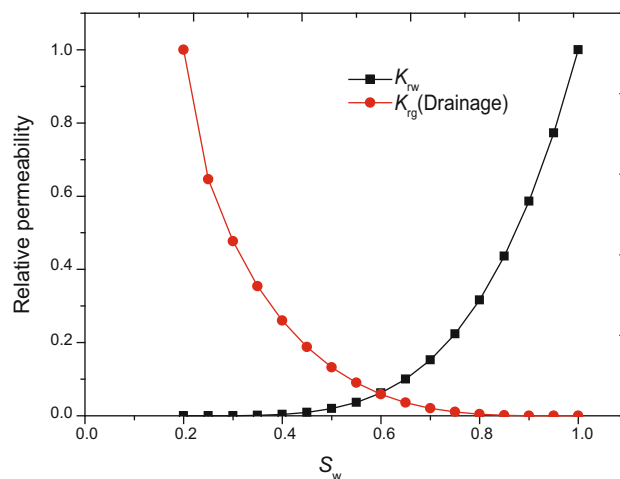


Fig. 2 Relative permeability curves versus water saturation

(Raman and Mortland, 1966). In our work, Brantley and Mellott's experimental data (Brantley and Mellott, 2000) were used to fit the relationship between the specific surface area of anorthite and its grain diameter as follows:

$$\log S = -1.19542 \log D + 8.44891 \quad (10)$$

where S is the specific surface area, D is the anorthite grain diameter.

The data and the fitting line are shown in Fig. 3. The volume fraction and the reactive surface area of calcite are assumed to be the same as those of anorthite (Nghiem et al, 2004). However, Nghiem assumed the reactive surface area was a constant. In this paper the relationship between the reactive surface area and grain diameter is investigated. This paper also assumed that the volume fraction and the reactive surface area of calcite are the same as those of anorthite. Table 2 lists the reactive surface areas of calcite and anorthite with seven grain sizes and their other parameters. The kaolinite grain diameters are assumed to be 1-2 μm with a specific surface area of $1.04 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$. The kaolinite volume fraction in the saline aquifer is 1.76% and the reactive surface area is $1.83 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$.

Table 2 The reactive surface areas of calcite and anorthite with different grain sizes

Case ID	Grain diameter μm	Specific surface area of Calcite, m^2/m^3	Specific surface area of Anorthite, m^2/m^3	Volume fraction of Calcite	Volume fraction of Anorthite	Reactive surface area of Calcite, m^2/m^3	Reactive surface area of Anorthite, m^2/m^3
Case 1	50	2.62×10^6	2.62×10^6	0.88%	0.88%	2.30×10^4	2.30×10^4
Case 2	100	1.14×10^6	1.14×10^6	0.88%	0.88%	1.01×10^4	1.01×10^4
Case 3	200	4.99×10^5	4.99×10^5	0.88%	0.88%	4.39×10^3	4.39×10^3
Case 4	300	3.07×10^5	3.07×10^5	0.88%	0.88%	2.71×10^3	2.71×10^3
Case 5	500	1.67×10^5	1.67×10^5	0.88%	0.88%	1.47×10^3	1.47×10^3
Case 6	800	9.52×10^4	9.52×10^4	0.88%	0.88%	838	838
Case 7	800	9.52×10^4	9.52×10^4	0.088%	0.088%	83.8	83.8

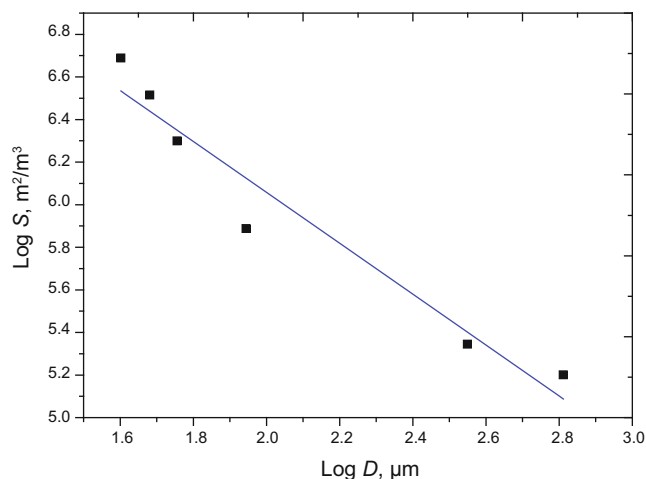


Fig. 3 The relationship of the specific surface area of anorthite and its grain diameter

4 Results and discussion

4.1 CO₂ trapping mechanism

When CO₂ is injected underground, the CO₂ is trapped by structural trapping, residual trapping, solubility trapping and mineral trapping. According to the four trapping mechanisms, there are three states in which CO₂ exists underground, namely supercritical CO₂ which includes free gas under caprock and the residual trapped gas, the aqueous CO₂ which is the dissolved gas, and the mineralized CO₂ which is the mineral trapped gas. The quantities of supercritical, aqueous and mineralized CO₂ with time are shown in Figs. 4-6 for seven anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. It can be seen that quantity of the supercritical CO₂ decreases with time. The quantities of the aqueous CO₂ and mineralized CO₂ increase with time. The supercritical CO₂ quantity increases with the decrease of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas; The aqueous CO₂ concentration increases with the decrease of anorthite and calcite reactive surface area, since the mineral-trapped CO₂ increases with the reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite as displayed in Fig. 6, leading to less aqueous CO₂. Table 3 shows the estimated amounts of trapped CO₂ for different trapping mechanisms after 500 years. For mineral-trapped CO₂, cases 1-6 do not vary significantly. However, after 500 years, the mineralized

Table 3 The quantity of CO₂ trapped by different mechanisms after 500 years

	Residual Trapped CO ₂	Dissolved CO ₂	Mineralized CO ₂	Free gaseous CO ₂
Case 1	24.4%	33.5%	18.9%	23.2%
Case 2	22.9%	33.3%	18.5%	25.2%
Case 3	23.1%	33.0%	18.2%	25.6%
Case 4	23.8%	33.5%	17.7%	25.0%
Case 5	24.4%	34.2%	15.7%	25.7%
Case 6	25.2%	35.5%	11.8%	27.5%
Case 7	27.5%	41.1%	0.65%	30.7%

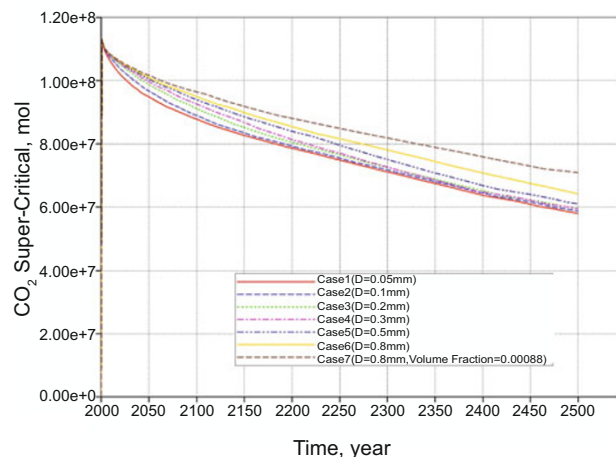


Fig. 4 Quantity of supercritical CO₂ with time for anorthite and calcite with different reactive surface areas

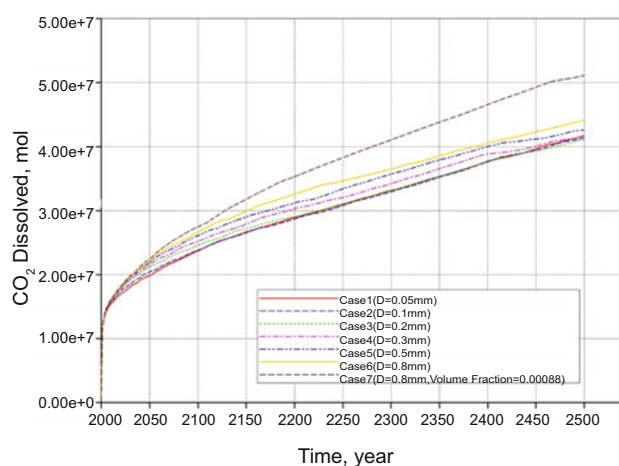


Fig. 5 Quantity of aqueous CO₂ with time for anorthite and calcite with different reactive surface areas

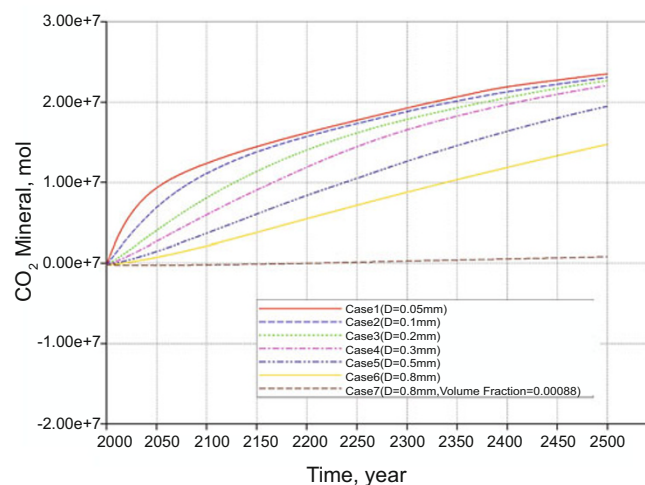


Fig. 6 Quantity of mineralized CO₂ with time for anorthite and calcite with different reactive surface areas

CO₂ decreases significantly from 11.8% to 0.65% when the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas decrease from 838 to 83.8 m²/m³. The amount of free gaseous CO₂ is nearly the same for different anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas since much of CO₂ is dissolved in saline aquifers.

4.2 Analysis of minerals

The variations in the amounts of anorthite and kaolinite with time are shown in Figs. 7-8. The change in the amount of calcite with time is shown in Figs. 9 and 10. It can be seen that the anorthite is dissolved in the brine aquifer while the kaolinite is precipitated (Figs. 7-8); The calcite is dissolved at the beginning stage and then precipitated with time due to the continued geochemical reactions between $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and the minerals (Figs. 9-10). The amount of dissolved anorthite increases with the increase of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas, and the amounts of precipitated calcite and kaolinite also increase with the increase of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. The mineral reaction rate slows with time as more CO_2 reacts with the brine at the beginning of the injection as shown in Fig. 7-9. The dissolved anorthite, and the precipitated kaolinite and calcite, significantly increase as the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas increase from 83.8 to $838 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$ (The kaolinite grain diameters are assumed to be $1\text{-}2 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ with a specific surface area of $1.04 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$. The kaolinite volume fraction in the saline aquifer is 1.76% and the reactive surface area is $1.83 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$). So the mineral formation is influenced significantly by the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. Thus, accurate measurement of the reactive surface areas is important for assessing the long-term CO_2 geological storage and the safety of CO_2 geological storage.

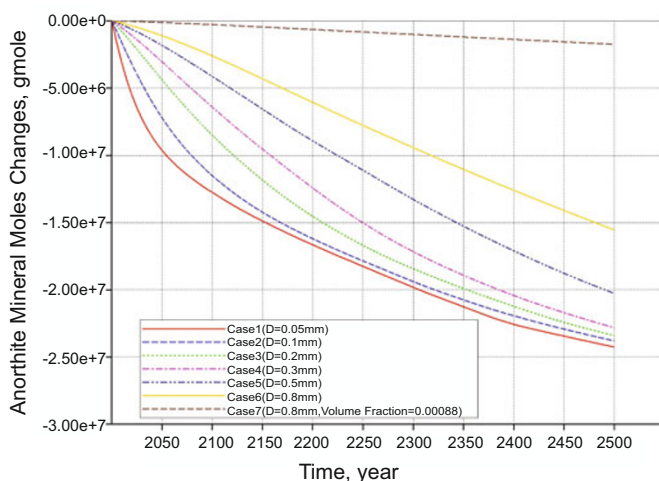


Fig. 7 The quantity of Anorthite with time

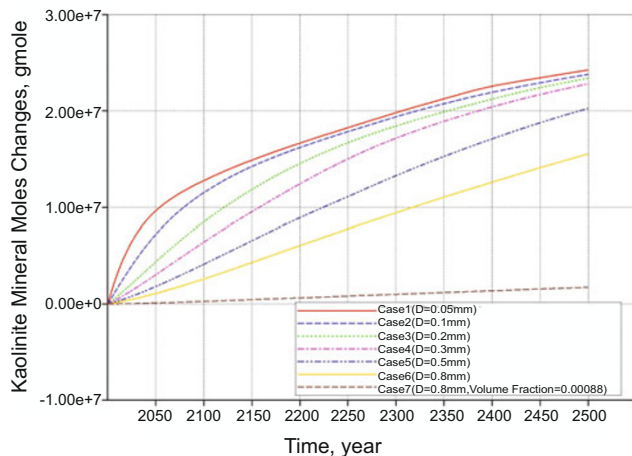


Fig. 8 The quantity of Kaolinite with time

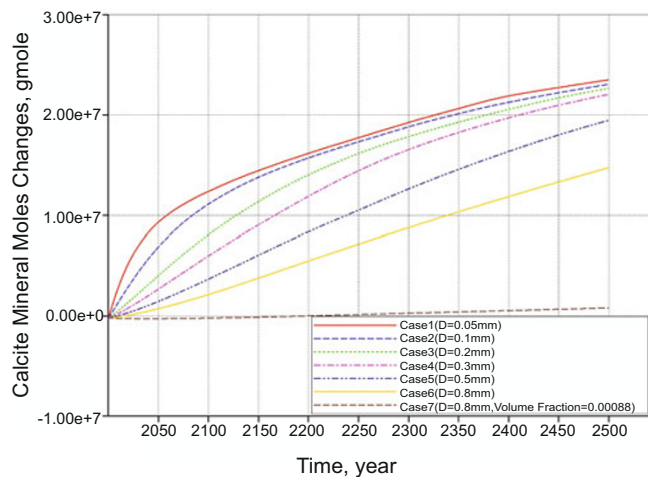


Fig. 9 The quantity of Calcite with time

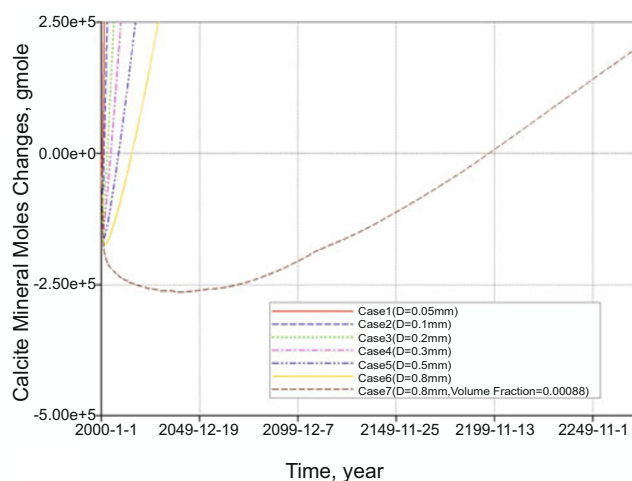


Fig. 10 The quantity of Calcite with time (early stage)

4.3 Effect of volume fraction

The changes in the amounts of anorthite, calcite and kaolinite with time are shown in Figs. 11 and 12 for different volume fractions (case 6 and case 7). When the anorthite and calcite volume fractions decrease to 0.088% , the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas decrease from 838 to $83.8 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$. Calcite is dissolved at the beginning and then precipitated with the continued geochemical reactions between the $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and the minerals. Different anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas lead to different times from dissolution to precipitation. The time becomes short with the increase of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas, such as the conversion time of 200 years after injection for an anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas of $83.8 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$ compared to 15 years. In addition, the amount of net precipitated calcite reflects the mineralization trapping of CO_2 . Figs. 11 and 12 show that the precipitation of calcite and kaolinite increase with increasing volume fractions of calcite and anorthite. The amount of precipitated calcite for case 6 is about ten times that of case 7, which influences the long-term CO_2 geological storage significantly.

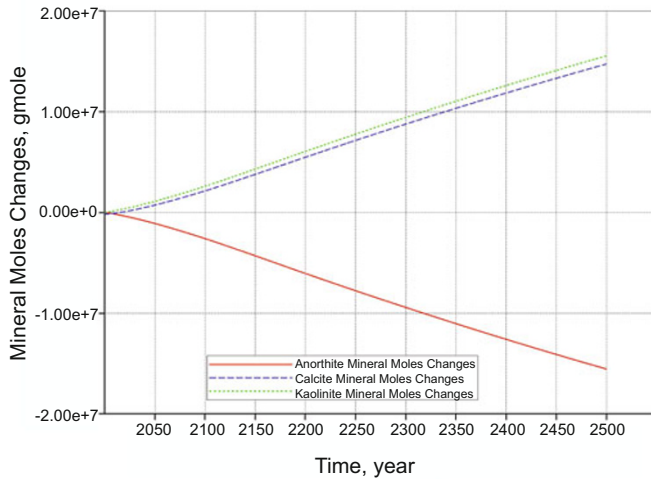


Fig. 11 Change of mineral quantities with time for case 6

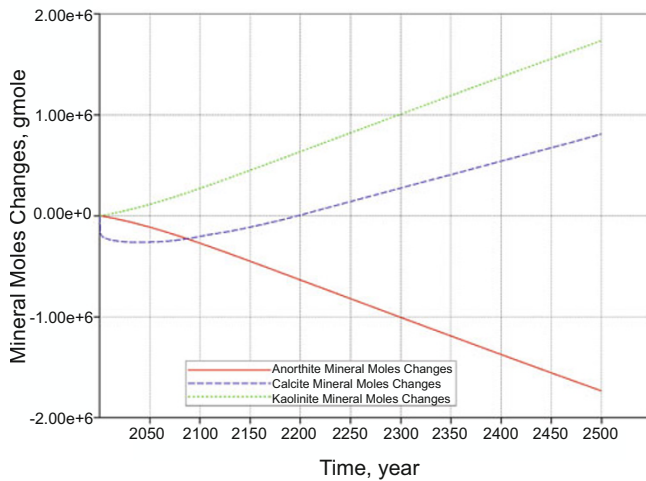


Fig. 12 Change of mineral quantities with time for case 7

4.4 Gas saturation distribution

The variation in the number of H^+ moles with time which indicates the brine pH is shown in Fig. 13. The brine pH decreases with the decrease in the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. The dissolution of CO_2 into the brine leads to the formation of H^+ and HCO_3^- . Then lower anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas mean that less H^+ react with the minerals so there is more H^+ in the brine and the pH decreases.

The CO_2 saturation distributions for the seven cases after 500 years are shown in Figs. 14-20. The CO_2 gathering at the top part each figure is because of the structural trapping while the CO_2 gathering at the bottom part of each figure is because of the residual trapping. The gas saturation between the top and bottom parts increases with the decrease of the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. Larger reactive surface areas in anorthite and calcite results in quicker formation of minerals that promote the dissolving of CO_2 into the brine, leading to the disappearance of free gaseous CO_2 between the top and bottom parts. Therefore, the gas saturation between

the top and bottom parts decreases with the increase of the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. More CO_2 is trapped by residual trapping with less anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas due to less aqueous CO_2 reacting with the brine.

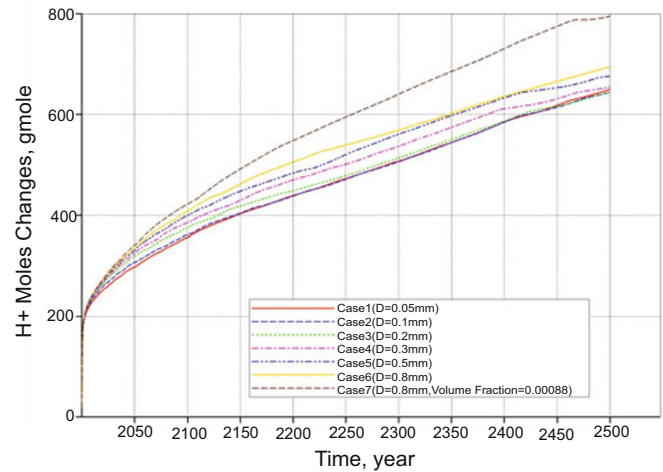


Fig. 13 The Changing in the amount of H^+

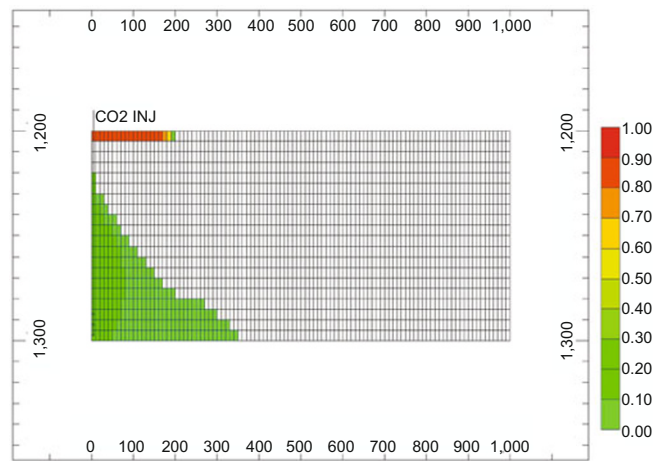


Fig. 14 CO_2 saturation for case 1

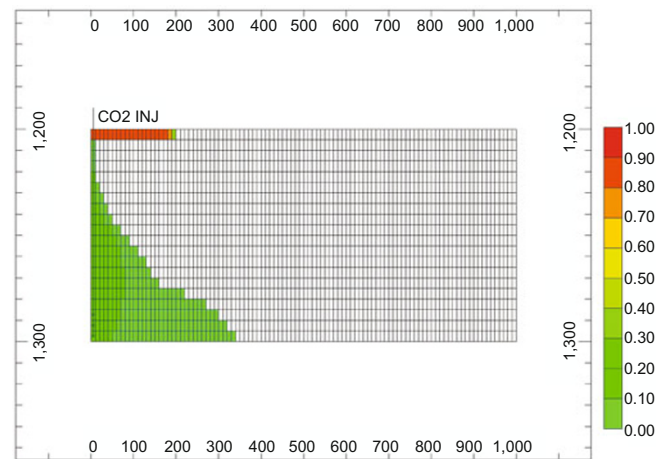


Fig. 15 CO_2 saturation for case 2

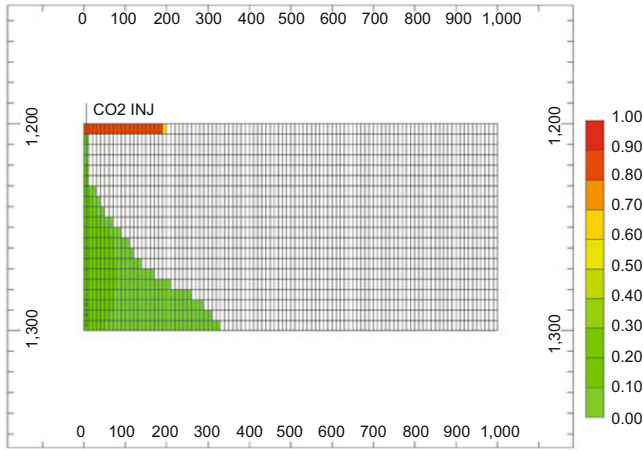


Fig. 16 CO₂ saturation for case 3

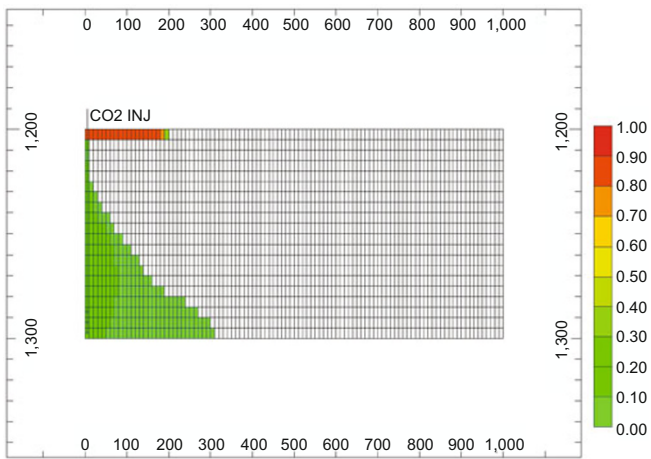


Fig. 17 CO₂ saturation for case 4

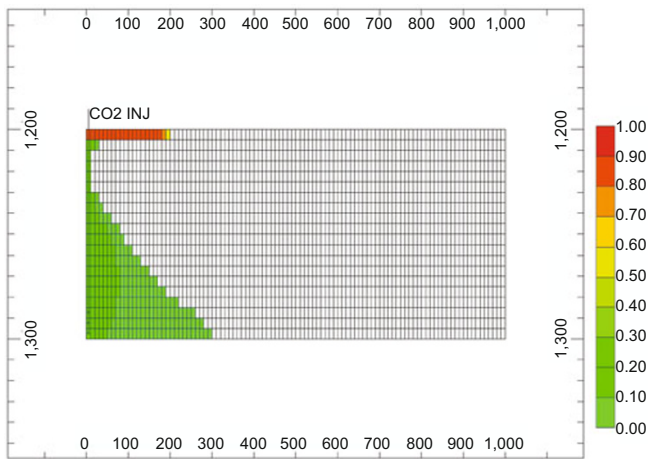


Fig. 18 CO₂ saturation for case 5

4.5 Brine mass density

The variations in brine mass density distributions for case 6 and case 7 after 500 years are shown in Figs. 21 and 22. The brine mass density is very large near the bottom. Supercritical CO₂ moves upwards due to the buoyancy effect after the CO₂ injection. Some CO₂ dissolves into the brine, which increases the brine mass density. The CO₂+brine solution then

flows downwards due to gravity, promoting the upward flow of brine in the bottom part. This convection flow promotes the dissolution of CO₂ into the brine. Less carbonic acid reacts with the mineral ions when there is less anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas, leading to more carbonic acid remaining in saline aquifers. The CO₂+brine solution volume then becomes larger with less anorthite and calcite reactive surface area, which also influences the long-term geological storage of CO₂.

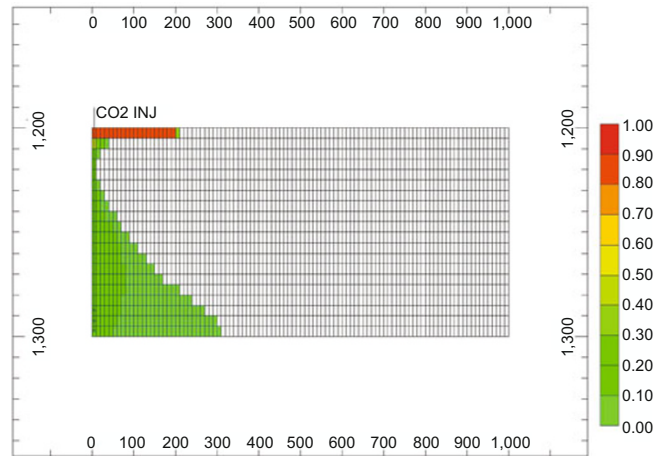


Fig. 19 CO₂ saturation for case 6

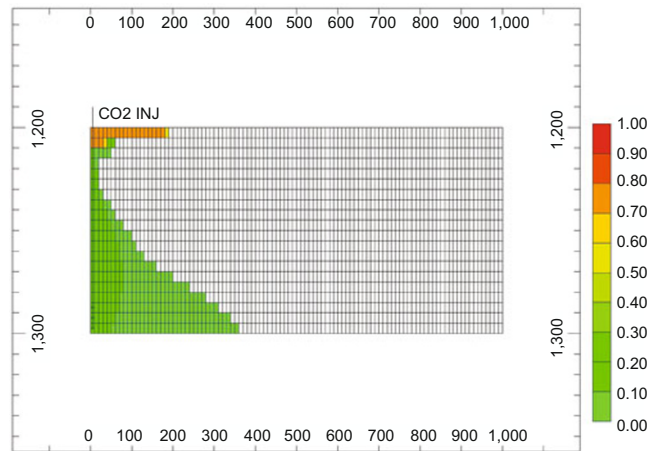


Fig. 20 CO₂ saturation for case 7

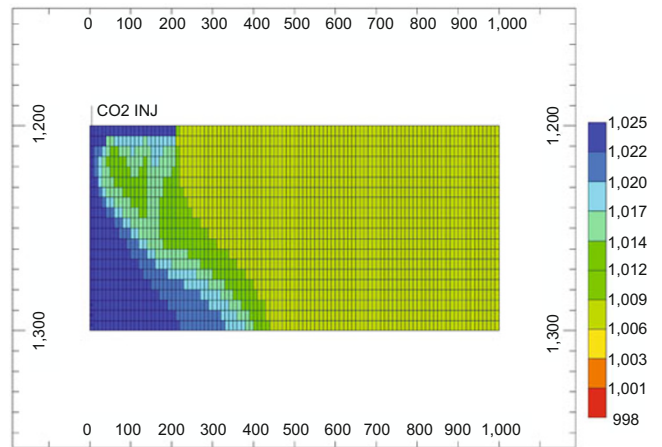


Fig. 21 The brine mass density for case 6

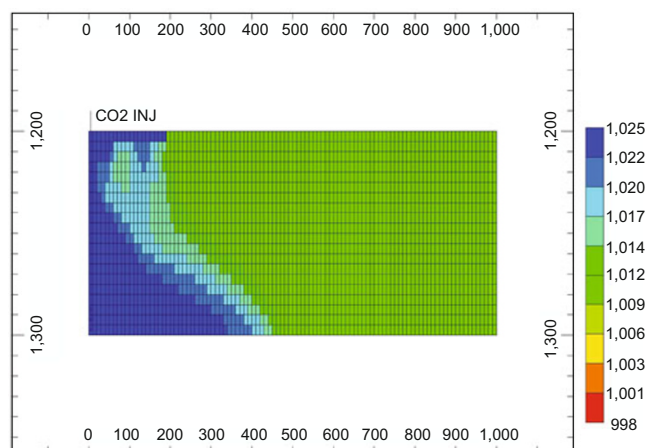


Fig. 22 The brine mass density for case 7

5 Conclusions

This study modelled the effect of the reactive surface areas of anorthite and calcite and the grain size on mineralization trapping of CO₂ in saline aquifers. The percentage of CO₂ stored after 500 years due to mineralization trapping decreases from 11.8% to 0.65% when the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas reduced from 838 to 83.8 m²/m³. The conversion time from dissolution to precipitation of calcite is influenced by the anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. The quantity of dissolved anorthite increases with the increase of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas and the amounts of precipitated calcite and kaolinite also increase with the increase of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. The pH value decreases with the decrease of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas which influences the brine acidity. The gas saturation between the top and bottom parts increases with the decrease of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas. The brine mass density distribution shows that the CO₂+brine solution region becomes larger with the decrease of anorthite and calcite reactive surface areas, which influences the long-term CO₂ geological storage.

Acknowledgements

This project was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 50906043) and the Tsinghua University Initiative Scientific Research Program (2009THZ02232). The first author did this study while at Geoscience Australia sponsored by CAGS (China-Australia Geological Storage of CO₂ Project).

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