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Application of CO₂-water-rock reaction transport simulation in NPs-CO₂ flooding and storage

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Abstract: As a hot issue in geological engineering, CO₂ flooding and sequestration still face many challenges. Injection of nanoparticles into CO₂ can improve the injectability and effective reserves of CO₂. However, the migration law of the mixed fluid of CO₂ and nanoparticles (NPs-CO₂) in the reservoir under the condition of chemical reaction is still unclear. Based on chemical reaction kinetics, a mass transfer model of NPs-CO₂ nanofluid in reservoir is established by combining the micro-pore structure change of porous media under CO₂-water-rock reactions condition and the migration law of NPs-CO₂ fluid. The geochemical reaction process between CO₂ and reservoir and the influence of heterogeneity caused by rock microstructure on the miscibility and migration of NPs-CO₂ brine fluid are simulated. The results show that the CO₂-water-rock reaction increases the heterogeneity of reservoir, and the porosity and permeability are rising as a whole; the increase of reservoir heterogeneity caused by chemical reaction can makes the migration of NPs-CO₂ selective. The local accumulation of NPs-CO₂ in the unconnected pores will weaken the original oil displacement efficiency to some extent; in the process of CO₂ sequestration, the density difference between NPs-CO₂ and formation water can not only promote the miscibility of NPs-CO₂-brine fluid, but also inhibit the acid fluid under buoyancy. The upward diffusion is moved to the cover layer to prevent the chemical reaction of the rocks in the cap layer, so as ensuring the permanent storage of greenhouse gases.

Keywords: CO₂ flooding and sequestration; nanoparticles; geochemical reaction; solute transportation

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31 **Conflicts of interest/Competing interests**

32 The author(s) declare(s) that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

33 **Availability of data and material**

34 The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

35 **Code availability**

36 No code were generated during the study.

37 **Authors' contributions**

38 Fuping Feng, Xu Han: Conceptualization; Fuping Feng, Xu Han, Shengyuan Liu: Data curation, Writing-
39 Original draft preparation; Shengyuan Liu, Jing Dong, Yanxin Wang: Visualization, Investigation; Fuping Feng,
40 Xu Han: Supervision; Xu Han: Methodology, Software, Validation; Xu Han: Writing- Reviewing and Editing

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Since the successful implementation of CO₂ flooding and storage project in 1972 in the United States,
43 nearly 140 related projects have been large-scale implemented in oil fields around the world (Bergmann et al.
44 2016; Hu et al. 2019). It has been proved that CO₂ flooding, as a kind of gas flooding, can improve the fluid
45 properties of the reservoir, extract the oil and gas resources stored in the pores and micro fractures, and greatly
46 improve the oil recovery (Emberley et al. 2004). Meanwhile, Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) is the best
47 way to achieve greenhouse gas emission reduction under the current economic and technological conditions
48 (Huang et al. 2016). However, after CO₂ injection, some undissolved fluids in formation water will move
49 upward and diffuse under the action of buoyancy, which not only reduces the oil displacement efficiency, but
50 also has the risk of leakage (Zhang et al. 2014).

51 Aiming at these problems, Farzam et al. (2011) proposed for the first time that a kind of nanoparticles
52 should be added into injected CO₂. Depleted uranium can be generated as a very small volume of nanoparticles.
53 When CO₂ is added for treatment, it will form a nonreactive mixture which can increase the density of storage
54 fluid, shorten the mixing time, reduce the buoyancy, and make CO₂ safely sealed in the reservoir. Furthermore,
55 they can be added to CO₂ used in oil fields to form a homogeneous dispersion system, which has become a new
56 technology for EOR in recent years (Zhan et al. 2016; Hendraningrat et al. 2013; Wang 2018; Guo and Aryana
57 2016; Prigiobbe et al. 2016; Yang et al. 2014). The above results show that CO₂-nanofluid can not only improve
58 oil displacement efficiency, but also increase the safety of greenhouse gas storage. It is worth noting that no

59 CO₂-water-rock reactions have been considered in the above studies. However, the common calcite, feldspar,
60 quartz, and clay minerals in reservoir can react with CO₂ in a complex way (Ahmad et al. 2016; Jung et al. 2013;
61 Mohammad et al. 2015; Iglauer et al. 2015; Andrew et al. 2014; Harpreet et al. 2012; Rathnaweera et al. 2016;
62 Lasaga et al. 1994; Plummer and Busenberg 1999; Ranganathan et al. 2011; Rosenbauer et al. 2012; Daval et
63 al. 2013; Ward et al. 2014). With long-term CO₂ flooding/seal process possible mineral composition, the change
64 of pore structure, porosity and permeability, the migration law of NPs-CO₂ is unclear, likewise, in under the
65 action of water rock reaction should not be neglected, NPs-CO₂ flooding effect and reflected in the safety of the
66 storage advantage may deviate from the original thought.

67 In order to clarify the migration rule of NPs-CO₂ under CO₂-water-rock reactions and its influence on oil
68 displacement/geological sequestration project, the chemical reaction equilibrium equation is used to quantify
69 the physical property changes such as porosity and permeability of reservoir, and the mass transfer model of
70 NPs-CO₂-brine system is established based on the percolation equation. The geochemical reaction process of
71 shale reservoir after NPs-CO₂ fluid injection is simulated, and the influence of rock microstructure changes on
72 the miscibility and migration of NPs-CO₂-brine fluid is reached. According to the previous similar studies on
73 NPs-CO₂, CO₂ will form a non-reactive stable mixture with NPs and will not participate in chemical reaction
74 under formation conditions, so the chemical properties of nanoparticles were not considered in this study.

75

76 **2. Theory and Modeling**

77 *2.1. Theoretical description*

78 For the percolation process including the chemical reactions of heterogeneous porous media, the flow
79 pattern is determined by the density difference between the mixed fluids, the reaction rate of the fluid and the
80 change of the porous media porosity. That is to say, after NPs-CO₂-brine injection into the formation, the solvent
81 moves to the lower part of the reservoir, and dissolution or precipitation reactions occur between solvent and
82 formation rock particles, resulting in the porosity and permeability of the reservoir changes. The injected fluid
83 is easier to flow down driven by the density difference, when the fluid flows from the area with large
84 permeability to the area with small permeability, there is a small disturbance at the front edge, and the amplitude
85 of the disturbance will increase with time, forming an unstable flow pattern of reactive and transport (Chadam
86 et al. 1986; Chadam et al. 1991), and the rock matrix are further dissolved, these three processes promote and
87 couple with each other, which further increases the instability at the interface.

88 2.1.1. Chemical reaction kinetics

89 When ions migrate to the surface of minerals, they react with minerals, dissolve to form free ions, or
 90 precipitate to form secondary minerals. According to the chemical kinetics law, for a series of solid-liquid
 91 surface reactions, the mineral reaction rate can be expressed as follows (Bethke 1996):

$$92 \quad R_{\beta} = \hat{A}_{\beta} k_{\beta} \left(1 - \frac{Q}{K_{eq,\beta}} \right), \beta = 1, \dots, \zeta_{mn} \quad (1)$$

93 Where, ζ_{mn} is the amount of reactions; R_{β} is the velocity of reactions, mol/L·s⁻¹; A is the reactive surface
 94 area of mineral, m²; k_{β} is the reaction rate constant; K_{eq} is the equilibrium constant of reaction, Kharaka
 95 (1992) listed the numerical value of K_{eq} as a function of temperature; $\frac{Q}{K_{eq,\beta}}$ is the saturation index of the
 96 reaction, if $\frac{Q}{K_{eq,\beta}} < 1$, mineral dissolution occurs, Otherwise mineral precipitation occurs; Q is an activity
 97 product [30]:

$$98 \quad Q_{\beta} = \prod_{k=1}^{n_{aq}} a_k^{v_{k\beta}} \quad (2)$$

99 Where, n_{aq} is the number of ions in the solution, a_k is the activity of the reactive component, $v_{k\beta}$ is the
 100 stoichiometric coefficient of equilibrium reaction, the stoichiometric coefficient of reactants is negative, and
 101 product is positive.

102 2.1.2 Material transport equilibrium

103 After NPs-CO₂ injection into the reservoir, convection and diffusion occur. Convection is the migration
 104 process of ions in solution flowing with pore water. The process of fluid flow and miscibility driven by density
 105 difference in porous media can be expressed as follows:

$$106 \quad \phi \frac{\partial \rho_l}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(\rho_l u_x)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(\rho_l u_z)}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (3)$$

107 Where, ϕ is porosity; ρ_l is the density of liquid, kg/m³; u_x (u_z) is the velocity along x-axis(z-axis), m/s; t is
 108 time, s.

109 Darcy's law (Cardoso and Andres 2014):

$$110 \quad u = -\frac{k}{\mu}(\nabla p - \Delta \rho g z) \quad (4)$$

111 Where, k is permeability, m^2 ; μ is the viscosity, $kg/m \cdot s^{-1}$; p is pressure, Pa; g is gravitational acceleration,
112 m/s^2 .

113 Density (Smith et al. 2005) and viscosity (Kim et al. 2004) of mixed fluid:

$$114 \quad \frac{\rho_{NPs-CO_2-brine}}{\rho_{CO_2-brine}} = (1-f) + f \frac{\rho_{NPs}}{\rho_{CO_2-brine}} \quad (5)$$

$$115 \quad \frac{\mu_{NPs-CO_2-brine}}{\mu_{CO_2-brine}} = \frac{1}{(1-f)^{2.5}} \quad (6)$$

116 Where, f is volume fraction of NPs to that of base fluid; NPs are nanoparticles; CO_2 -brine is brine saturated
117 with CO_2 ; $NPs-CO_2$ -brine is brine saturated with NPs and CO_2 .

118 The transport and chemical reaction processes of ions in solution follows the law of mass conservation
119 (Zhang et al. 2016), that is to say the decrease of solute concentration in any unit is equal to the sum of
120 convection, diffusion and reactions, and the ions diffuse from high concentration area to low concentration area,
121 and finally tend to balance. The equation of mass transport equilibrium can be obtained by combining the
122 diffusion phenomenon caused by the change of concentration gradient with flow and chemical reactions,
123 according to the mass conservation principle of each ion concentration in chemical solution passing through
124 any unit of porous media. The change of substance concentration in porous media includes three parts on the
125 right side of the equation. The first term on the right side of the equation is the change of substance diffusion,
126 the second term is the change of flow and migration, and the third term is the change of water-rock reactions.

$$127 \quad \frac{\partial(\phi C_i)}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (\phi D_i \nabla C_i) - \nabla \cdot (u C_i) - \sum_{\beta=1}^{N_\beta} v_{i\beta} R_\beta \quad (7)$$

128 Where, C_i is the concentration of material i mol/m^3 ; D is diffusion coefficient, m^2/s ; $v_{i\beta}$ is the stoichiometric
129 coefficient of material i in equilibrium reaction β .

130 *2.2.3 Initial and boundary conditions*

131 The initial saturation of NPs-CO₂ solution in the reservoir was set to 0, only considering the inflow of
 132 fluid. The whole reaction process was carried out in a closed environment without mass exchange. The
 133 concentration of ions in the initial formation water was evenly distributed in the grid, they changed with the
 134 time of chemical reaction, which was subject to the chemical rate equation of water-rock reaction.

$$135 \quad Sg_{\text{CO}_2}(t)|_{\partial t} = 0 \quad (11)$$

$$136 \quad C_i(x, y, z)|_{t=0} = C_0 \quad (12)$$

$$137 \quad C_i(t)|_{\partial \Omega} = C_0 - R_m \quad (13)$$

138 2.1.3 Changes of rock microscopic physical properties

139 According to the chemical equilibrium equation, the change quantity of a certain mineral quality
 140 participating in chemical reaction in reservoir rock can be obtained:

$$141 \quad \frac{\partial m}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial(n \cdot M)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial(\rho V \cdot \phi)}{\partial t} \quad (8)$$

142 Where, m is the quality of a substance participating in a chemical reaction, g; M is the molar mass of the mineral
 143 component, mol/g; V is the molar volume of the mineral component, mol/cm³; n is the amount of mineral
 144 substance participating in the chemical reaction, mol.

145 There are many kinds of minerals in the reservoir rock that have chemical reaction at the same time, the
 146 pore volume reduction of various minerals participating in chemical reaction in the reservoir rock can be
 147 superposed and simplified as follows:

$$148 \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{V} \cdot \sum \frac{\partial n_i}{\partial t} \cdot \frac{M_i}{\rho_i} \quad (9)$$

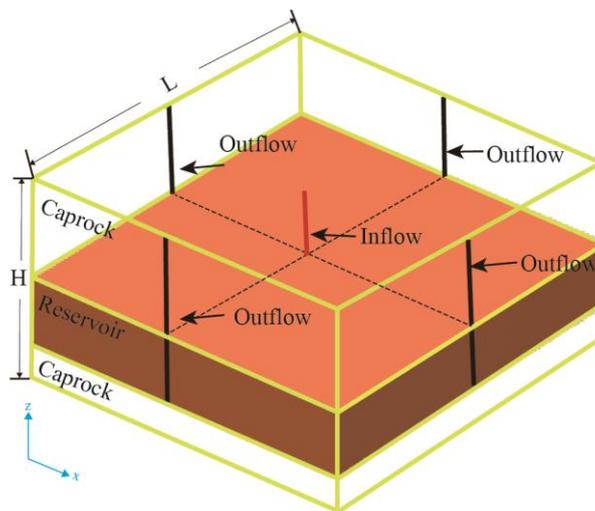
149 The change of matrix permeability of a single rock reference unit can be calculated by the change of
 150 porosity. The change of permeability with porosity is calculated according to Carman-Kozeny formula (Xu et
 151 al. 2014; Xu et al. 2012):

$$152 \quad k = k_0 \frac{(1-\phi_0)^2}{(1-\phi)^2} \left(\frac{\phi}{\phi_0} \right)^3 \quad (10)$$

153 Where, ϕ , ϕ_0 are the porosity of rocks in the grid after and before the reaction respectively; k , k_0 are the
154 permeability of rocks in the grid after and before the reaction respectively, m^2 .

155 2.2 Model description

156 The numerical simulation model was established in the mainly refers to the actual situation of the typical
157 CO₂ buried block, which is a three-dimensional saturated formation water area, and the height and length of the
158 model are H and L respectively (Fig.1). Geochemical reaction process was used to quantify the microstructure
159 change of shale reservoir, and the vertical and horizontal diffusion processes of CO₂ fluid from injection point
160 with the increase of formation heterogeneity were discussed. The flow field and concentration field of
161 groundwater under the condition of steady flow are used as the initial conditions of the unsteady flow model.
162 The lateral boundary near the injection point is set as symmetry, the upper and lower part of the reservoir is set
163 as impermeable boundary, and the lateral boundary of the far well formation is set as outflow boundary.



164

165 **Figure 1.** Three-dimensional stratigraphic model

166 2.2.1 Model assumption

- 167 (1). There was no adsorption on the surface of the reservoir;
168 (2). The chemical reactions all take place under isothermal condition;
169 (3). The minerals in the reservoir are evenly distributed, and the physical properties conform to their initial
170 porosity and permeability;
171 (4). The inhibition of convection caused by the consumption of CO₂ in chemical reactions is ignored;
172 (5). The nano particles are uniformly dispersed in CO₂, which will not agglomerate or precipitate due to
173 the consumption of CO₂ in chemical reactions.

174 2.2.2 Parameters used in the simulation

175 Table 1 shows the initial data set generally applicable to CO₂ storage.

176 Table 1. Reservoir Parameters

Thickness /m	Density / kg·m ³	Average Porosity	Average Permeability /mD
190~280	2500	0.12	0.15
The ratio of horizontal to vertical permeability	Average temperature /°C	Median pore radius/μm	Pressure /MPa
10	100	0.1	25

177 Initial mineral content of reservoir is consulted with the potential saline aquifers in North America which
178 are suitable for the storage of CO₂ (Zhang et al. 2015).

179 Table 2. Initial parameters used in chemical reaction model

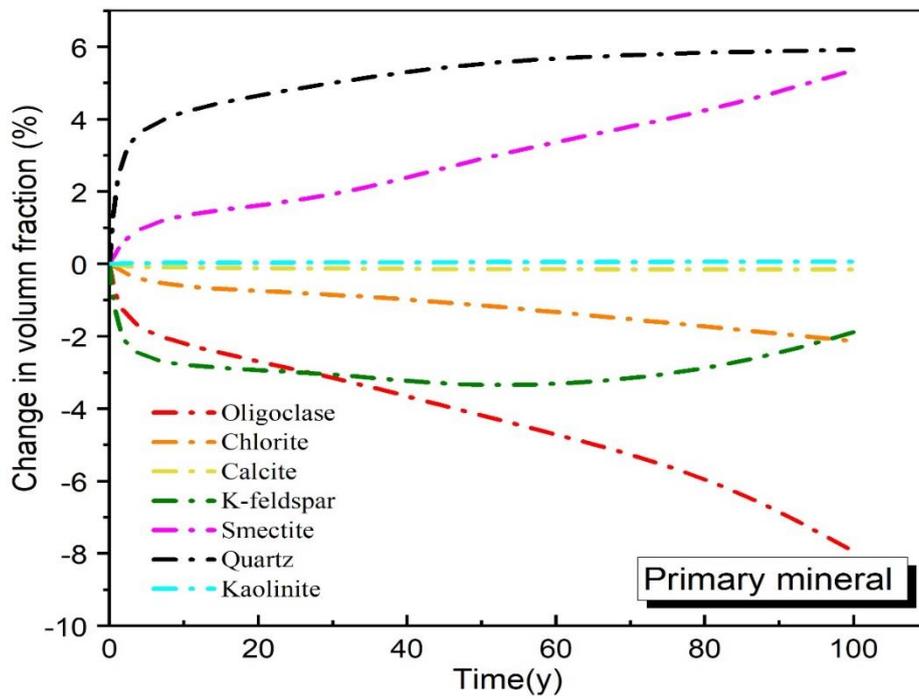
Initial mineral content of reservoir /%							
Quartz	Oligoclase	Calcite	K-feldspar	Kaolinite	Chlorite	Smectite-Na	
59.181	10.662	1.929	8.179	2.015	10.031	8.003	
Initial composition of formation water /mol·kg ⁻¹ H ₂ O							
H ⁺	0.432×10 ⁻¹	Na ⁺	0.989	Fe ²⁺	0.302×10 ⁻⁶	K ⁺	0.596×10 ⁻²
SiO ₂	0.103×10 ⁻²	HCO ₃ ⁻	0.456×10 ⁻¹	Ca ²⁺	0.473×10 ⁻²	Mg ²⁺	0.267×10 ⁻⁴
Reaction equation (Yu 2015; Mangold and Tsang 1999; Busenberg and Plummer 2011)					A (Zhang et al. 2015)	Log Keq (Palandri et al. 2004)	
Quartz ⇌ SiO ₂ (aq)					9.8×10 ⁻⁴	-9.36	
Oligoclase+H ₂ O+CO ₂ +2Na ⁺ ⇌ 2Dawsonite+Ca ²⁺ +6SiO ₂					9.8×10 ⁻⁴	-11.63	
Calcite+H ₂ O+CO ₂ ⇌ Ca ²⁺ +2HCO ₃ ⁻					9.8×10 ⁻⁴	-0.30	
K-Feldspar+2H ⁺ +9H ₂ O ⇌ 2K ⁺ +4H ₄ SiO ₄ +Kaolinite					9.8×10 ⁻⁴	-5.76	
Kaolinite+6H ⁺ ⇌ H ₂ O+2Al ³⁺ +2SiO ₂ (aq)					151.6×10 ⁻⁴	-11.31	

$\text{Chlorite} + 2.5\text{Ca}^{2+} + 5\text{CO}_2 + 1.5\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{Ankerite} + \text{Kaolinite} + \text{Mg}^{2+} + 3\text{H}^+$	9.8×10^{-4}	-11.11
$\text{Albite} + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{Dawsonite} + 3\text{SiO}_2$	9.8×10^{-4}	-9.87
$\text{Smectite-Na} + 6\text{K}^+ + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{Kaolinite} + 2\text{Na}^+ + \text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{H}^+ + \text{Si}(\text{OH})_4$	151.6×10^{-4}	-10.98

180 **3. Results and discussion**

181 *3.1 Change of each mineral content*

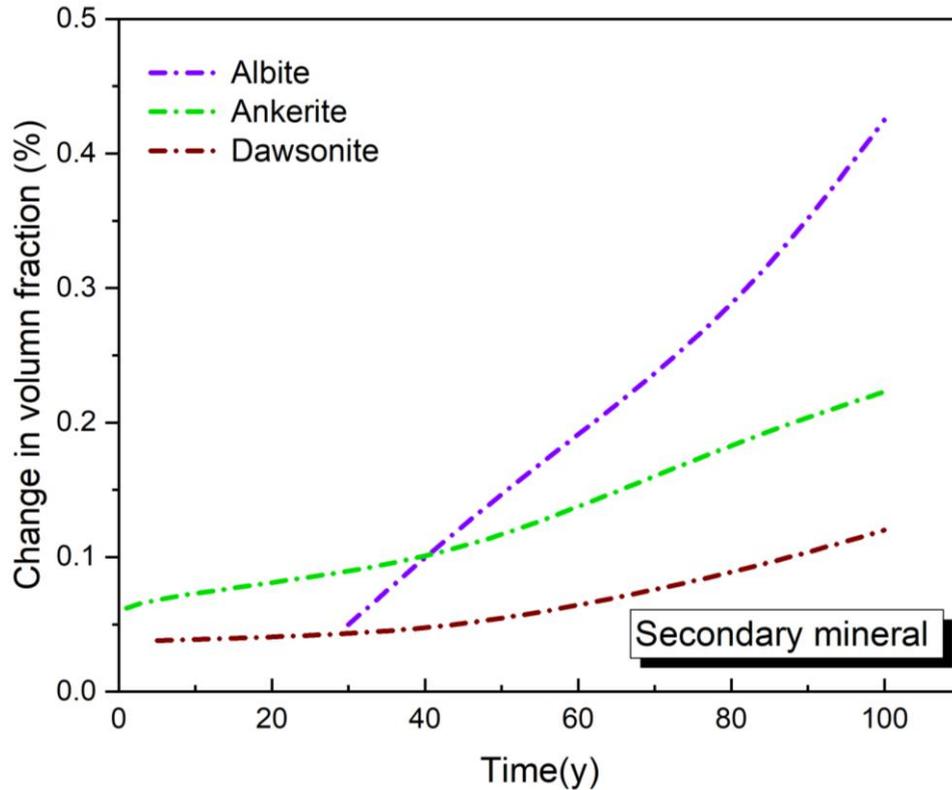
182 The chemical reaction process was shown in Table 2 and the simulation time is 100 years.



183

184

(a) Primary mineral



(b) Secondary mineral

Figure 2. Volume fraction changes of minerals

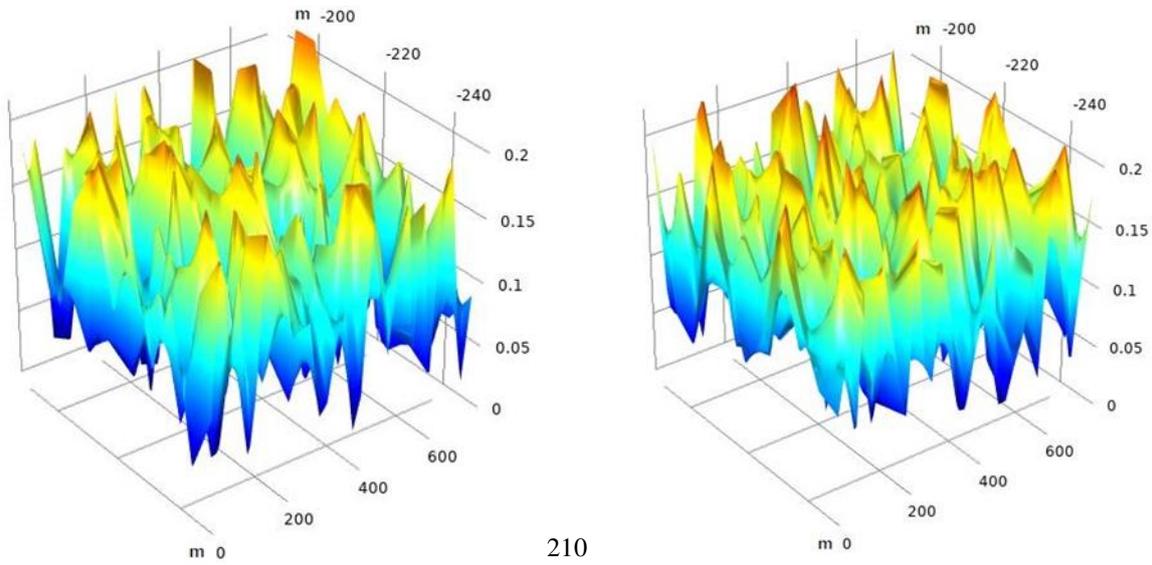
In the simulation process, the minerals that have the dissolution reactions are oligoclase, chlorite, calcite and K-feldspar; the minerals with precipitation reactions are smectite, quartz and kaolinite. In addition to the above minerals, there are three kinds of secondary minerals. The generation is ankerite, dawsonite and albite.

The results showed that the dissolution of oligoclase and K-feldspar mainly provides Ca^{2+} and K^+ for formation of aqueous solution. SiO_2 , Al^{3+} and Na^+ formed by the dissolution reactions of feldspar contributed to the precipitation reactions of montmorillonite and the formation of albite and dawsonite in the later stage, while the dissolution of chlorite also provided enough cations for ankerite. Quartz was affected by the process of dissolution and precipitation. The solid particles on the surface of quartz dissolve in formation water could form a solution, while the precipitation was due to the SiO_2 which was produced by the dissolution of primary minerals, which made quartz in formation water saturated and precipitated. Although the change degree of mineral volume fraction varied in about 100 years, the amount of mineral dissolution was always greater than that of precipitation.

The change of mineral content in reference (Zhang et al. 2015) can verify the correctness of this chemical reaction model. Different from Zhang (2015), Different from Zhang (2015), the effect of density difference of

202 carbonate fluid formed after CO₂ dissolution on solute diffusion and the heterogeneity of formation porosity
203 and permeability after chemical reaction were additionally considered in this paper, which would be further
204 discussed below.

205 *3.2 Porosity, permeability and heterogeneity*



206

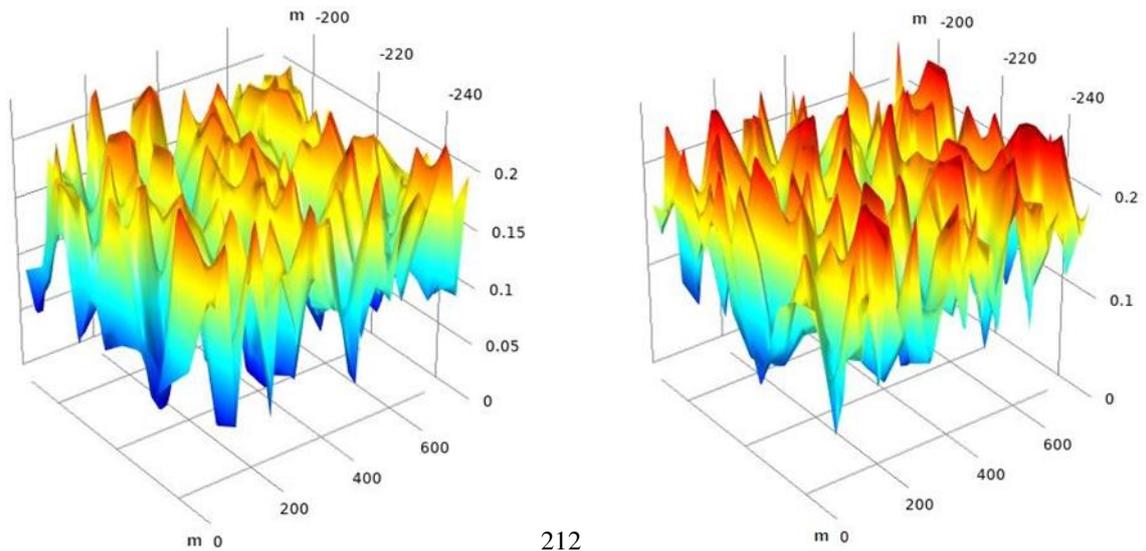
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207

(a) 10 years

211

(b) 40 years



208

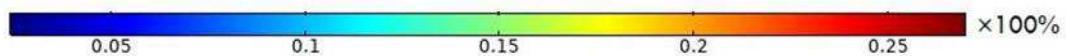
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(c) 70 years

213

(d) 100 years



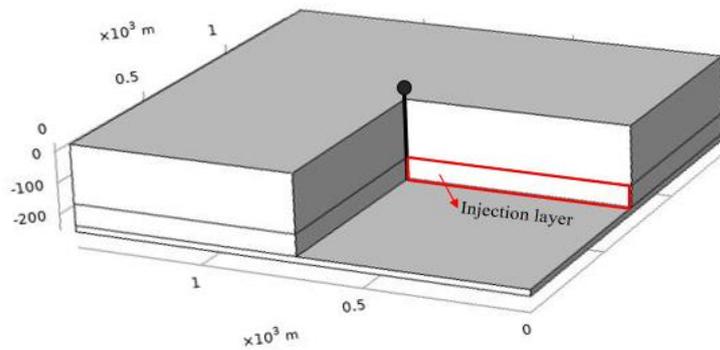
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215

Figure 3. Change of reservoir porosity

216 During 100 years of simulated chemical reaction process, the porosity of different reservoir locations had
217 increased or decreased, which was attributed to the dissolution and precipitation reaction of different minerals.
218 The porosity range changed from 2.40% to 21.58% after 10 years of injection (Fig.3a), from 3.34% to 22.20%
219 after 40 years (Fig.3b), from 4.55% to 23.50% after 70 years (Fig.3c), and from 6.43% to 25.84% after 100
220 years (Fig.3d). However, the physical properties of the reservoir are improved, the average porosity increased
221 from 12% to 16%, indicating that the dissolution reaction played an important role after CO₂ injection.

222 The permeability of reservoir can be regarded as the concentrated expression of reservoir heterogeneity.
223 Therefore, in order to describe the change process of reservoir heterogeneity more intuitively, in the study of
224 formation rock permeability, the injection layer section at Y(700m)-Z(90m) section is taken as the research
225 object (Fig.4).



226

227

Figure 4. Schematic diagram of injection layer model section

228

The simulation result of permeability change with time at the reservoir section is shown as Figure 5.

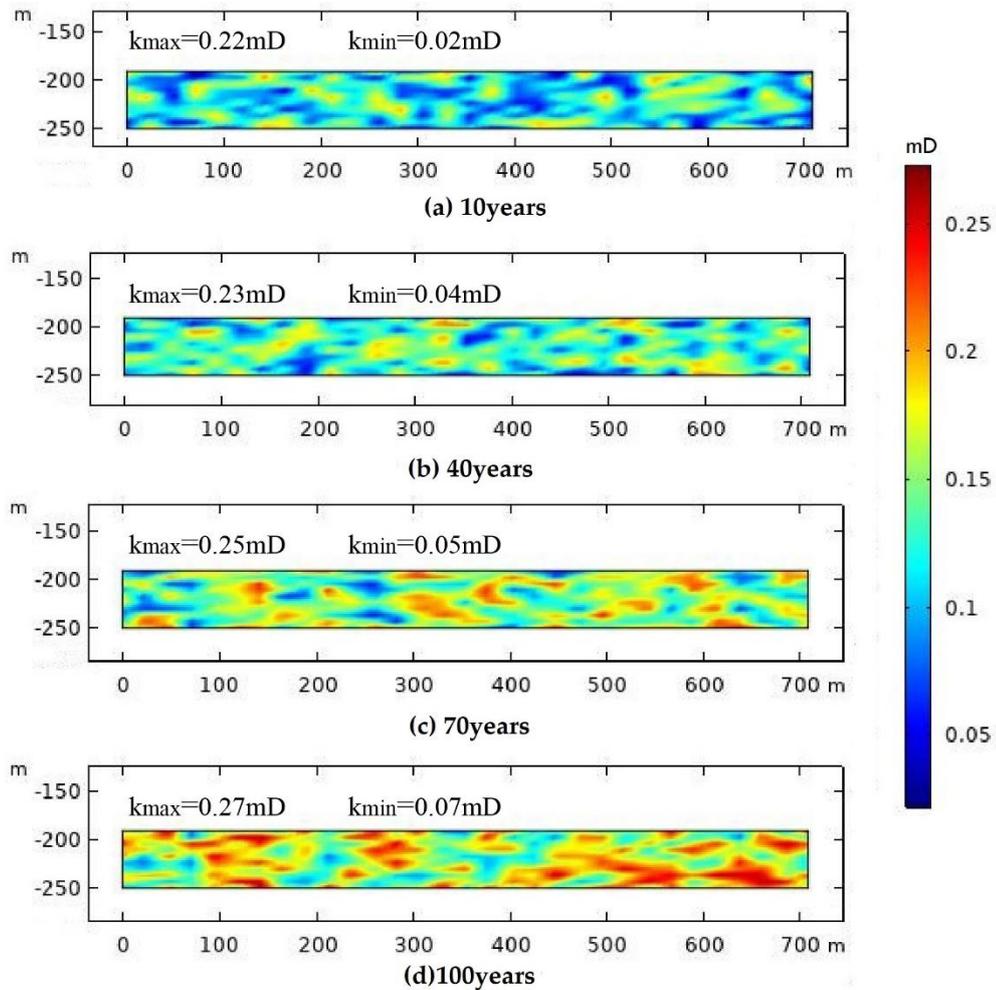


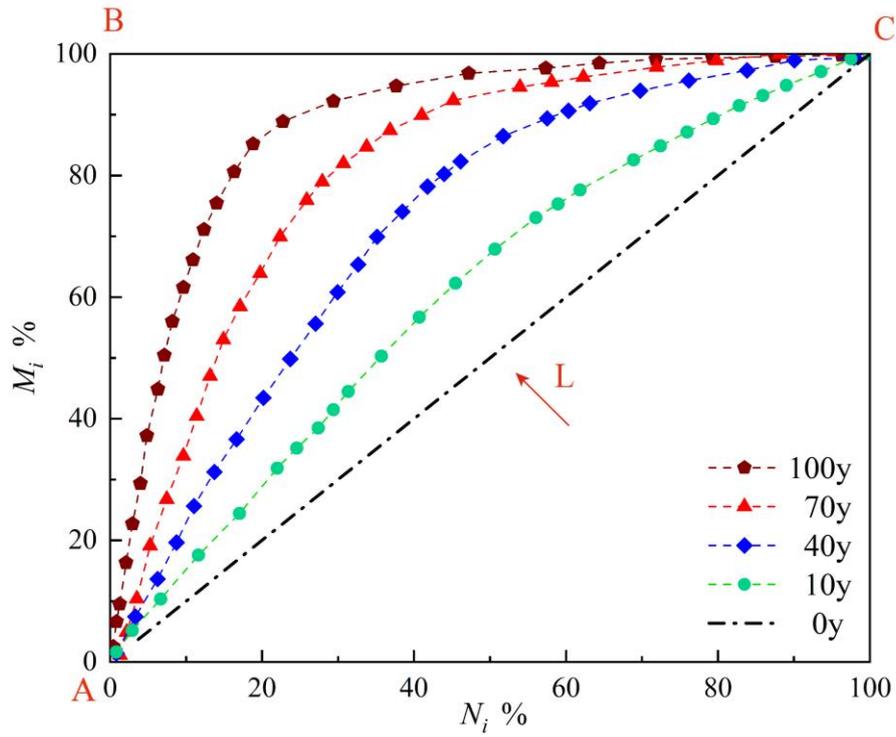
Figure 5. Change of reservoir permeability

229
230

231 The change rule of permeability at different reservoir locations was directly proportional to porosity. The
 232 permeability range changed between 0.02~0.22mD after 10 years of injection(Fig.5a), between 0.04~0.23mD
 233 after 40 years(Fig.5b), 0.05~ 0.25mD after 70 years (Fig.5c), and from 0.07~0.27mD after 100 years (Fig.5d).
 234 The average permeability increased from 0.013 mD to 0.017 mD.

235 In this study, Lorenz coefficient (Fitch et al. 2010) is introduced as the calculation method of permeability
 236 variation coefficient (see Appendix A).

237 The permeability variation coefficient at the injection section changes with time as shown in Figure 6.



238

239

Figure 6. Lorentz curve of rock heterogeneity

240

With the increase time of chemical reactions, the heterogeneity of the injection layer increased gradually.

241

This is because the dissolved minerals increase the pore throat radius of the reservoir, while the precipitated

242

mineral particles will adhere to the pore throat or flow with the fluid, blocking the small pores, changing the

243

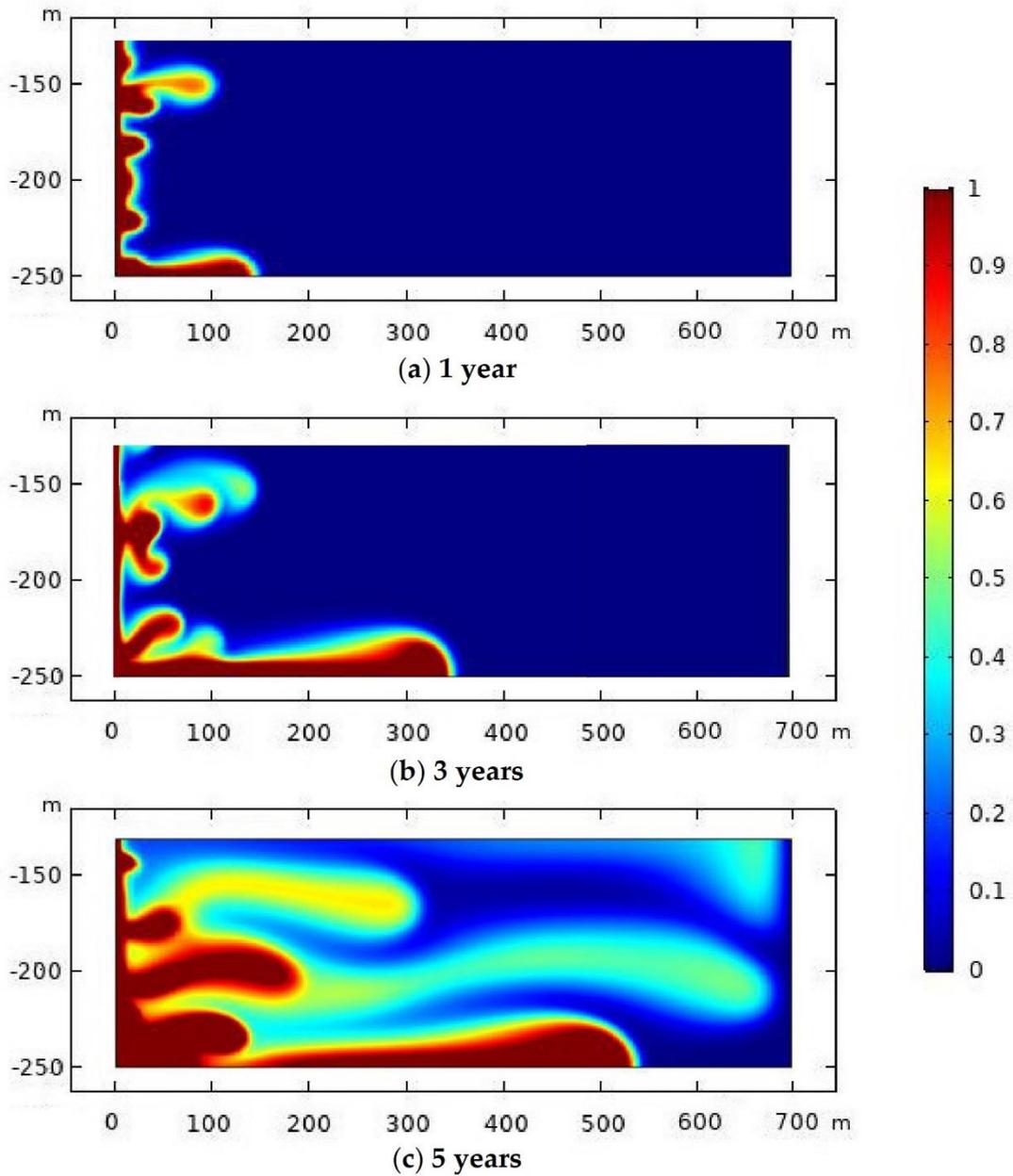
permeability at different positions, and then CO₂-water-rock reaction affects the migration path and path size

244

of fluid by changing the micro-structure of rock.

245

3.3 Fluid flow and mixing



246

247

Figure 8. Change of NPs-CO₂ saturation after chemical reactions

248

As the density of NPs-CO₂ is slightly higher than the formation water. After injection (Fig.8), it moved

249

downward under the action of gravity overcoming buoyancy and spread along the horizontal direction. Because

250

of the density difference of miscible fluid, the miscible interface did not move forward as a flat interface under

251

the action of gravity, but developed into a fingerlike shape, namely, Rayleigh Taylor instability. With the

252

increasing mixing of NPs-CO₂-brine, the density difference at the front edge was decreasing, which weakened

253

the downward movement of fluid front interface. This phenomenon of slowing down CO₂ fingering can achieve

254

the expected stable displacement of CO₂. However, with the development of chemical reaction, the pore

255

structure of reservoir rock changes, and the dissolved solid part is more likely to form a fluid flow channel. This

256 effect and the Rayleigh Taylor instability caused by density difference superimposed, which further leads to the
257 instability of the interface.

258 3.4 Velocity of flow

259 In order to reduce the iteration times and internal degrees of freedom, a $500 \times 1000 \mu\text{m}$ rectangle near the
260 injection point ($x = 0 \sim 500 \mu\text{m}$, $z = 0 \sim 1000 \mu\text{m}$) is selected as the research object. The rock matrix of rock
261 before reaction was assumed to be uniformly distributed, the porosity difference before and after the reaction
262 was calculated, and the data (i.e. the secondary minerals formed by precipitation reaction) at the position with
263 the difference less than 0 is eliminated (Figure 9), Based on the new geometric model, the numerical simulation
264 of fluid flow is established (Figure 10).

265

266

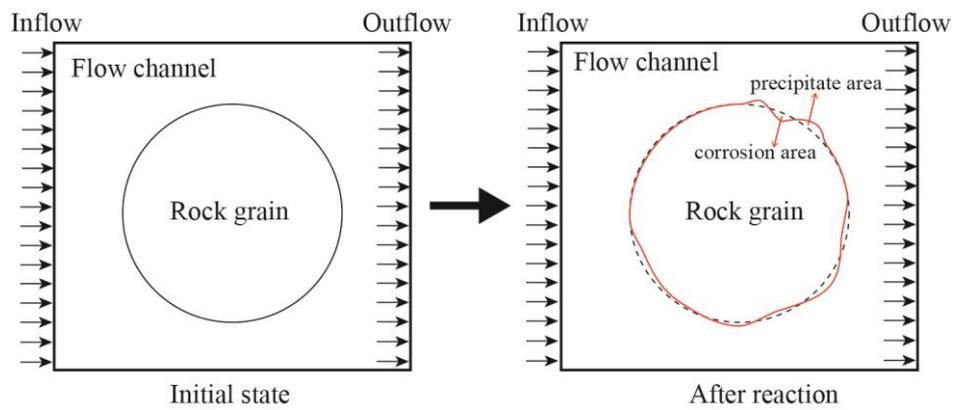
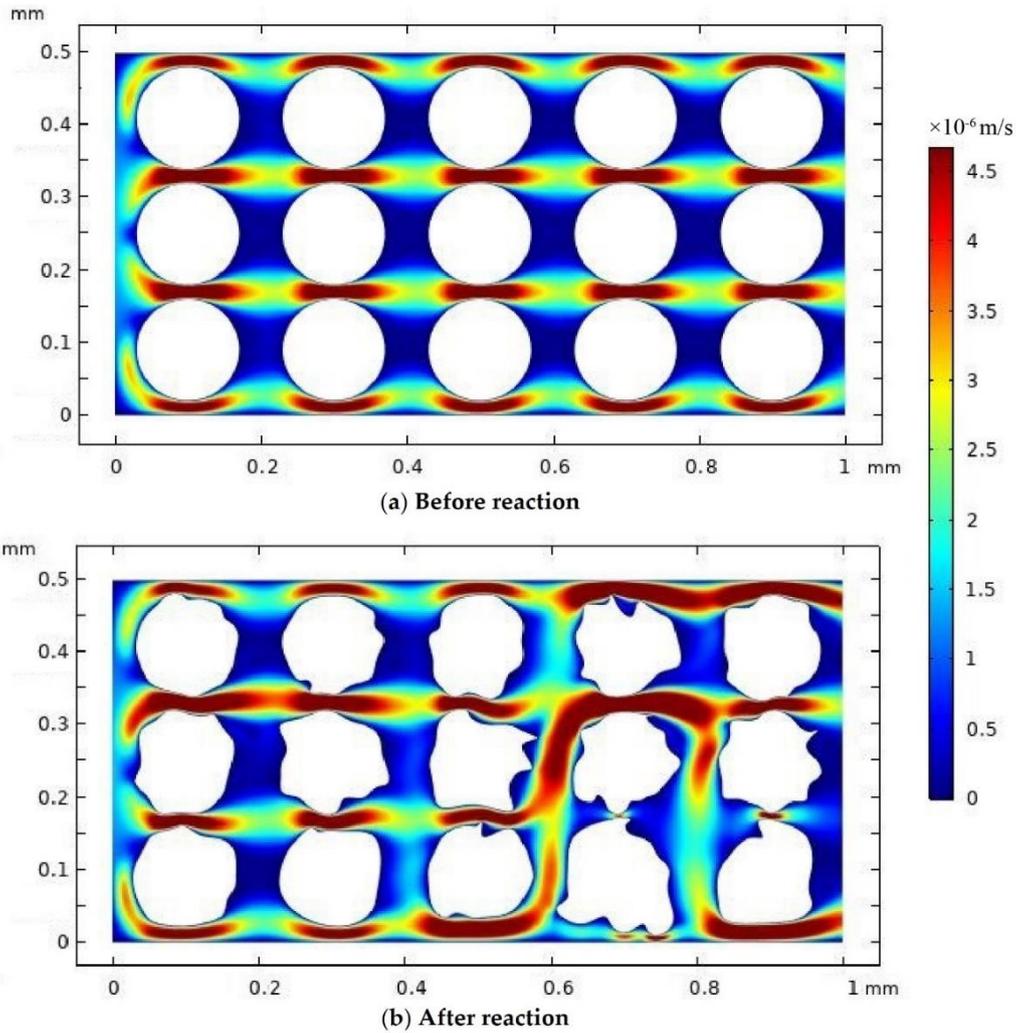


Figure 9. Geometric model after microstructure change



267
268 **Figure 10.** Velocity change of NPs-CO₂ flow

269 With the increase of formation heterogeneity, the microstructure of rocks in different positions also
 270 changes correspondingly, which shows that the primary mineral dissolution area appears to depression, and
 271 some positions appear to bulge due to attached secondary mineral precipitation. The heterogeneity of rock
 272 increases and the fluid flow path changes. In other words, the smaller the cross-sectional area of the fluid
 273 channel is, the greater the velocity is, which promotes the selective migration of NPs-CO₂. After the chemical
 274 reaction, the roughness around the rock skeleton increases obviously, and the fluid velocity in the rock
 275 depression is close to 0, which means the local accumulation of NPs-CO₂. The local velocity fluctuation of fluid
 276 can improve the mixing time and degree of NPs-CO₂ with formation water.

277 Therefore, after considering the influence of geochemical reaction, different conclusions appear in the
 278 process of oil displacement and carbon sequestration. In the process of oil displacement, the change of micro
 279 pore fine structure makes the migration of NPs-CO₂ selective, the local accumulation of NPs-CO₂ in the
 280 unconnected pores weakens the original oil displacement efficiency to some extent; In the process of CO₂

281 sequestration, the density difference between NPs-CO₂ and formation water can not only promote the
282 miscibility of NPs-CO₂-brine fluid, but also inhibit the acid fluid under buoyancy. The upward diffusion is
283 moved to the cover layer to prevent the chemical reaction of the rocks in the cap layer, to ensure the permanent
284 storage of greenhouse gases.

285 **4. Conclusions**

286 In this paper, the chemical reaction and fluid flow model of NPs-CO₂ fluid injected into shale reservoir
287 are established, the mechanism of CO₂-water-rock reaction, the law of mineral transformation and rock physical
288 property evolution are revealed, and the law of NPs-CO₂ fluid reaction and migration under the condition of
289 heterogeneous reservoir is obtained. Through this work, three important conclusions can be drawn, which are:

290 (1) The primary mineral composition of the reservoir is the key factor affecting the CO₂-water-rock
291 reaction. The micro mechanism of the reaction and the change of pore structure directly affect the overall
292 efficiency of CO₂ flooding and storage. The simulated formation rock dissolution reaction and precipitation
293 reaction are carried out at the same time, and three kinds of secondary minerals are generated in the first 30
294 years of simulation. With the extension of chemical reaction time, the sedimentation rate gradually increases,
295 but the average porosity and permeability show an overall upward trend, indicating that the mineral dissolution
296 amount is always greater than the precipitation amount, and the reservoir physical properties are improved.

297 (2) In the process of oil displacement, the change of rock microstructure caused by CO₂-water-rock
298 reaction will have a negative impact on fluid migration. The location of secondary mineral precipitation will
299 narrow the fluid migration channel, and then block up. The corrosion pit will cause the local accumulation of
300 solute, making the fluid migration rate close to 0, resulting in the failure of NPs-CO₂ mixed fluid to achieve the
301 expected oil displacement efficiency.

302 (3) In the process of storage, the enhancement of reservoir heterogeneity caused by chemical reaction and
303 the improvement of physical properties can improve the local velocity fluctuation and miscibility degree of
304 nanofluids, and by increasing the density of mixed fluids, most acidic fluids are located at the bottom of the
305 reservoir and diffuse along the horizontal direction, which is more conducive to the safe storage of CO₂.

306 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

307 **Appendix A**

308 In the Lorentz curve drawn, the actual cumulative permeability distribution curve is between AC and BC,
309 showing a convex curve L. The more the curve L deviates from AC, the more serious the heterogeneity is.

310 The specific calculation method is as follows (Li 2006).

311 (1) Calculate the relative permeability contribution percentage of each unit rock:

$$312 \quad W_i = \frac{K_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n K_i} \times 100 \quad (14)$$

313 Where, W_i is the permeability contribution value of unit i , %; K_i is the permeability of unit i , $10^{-3}\mu\text{m}^2$; n is the
314 total number of permeability units in the target layer.

315 (2) Calculate the cumulative permeability contribution of sample k :

$$316 \quad M_i = \sum_{i=1}^k W_i \quad k \in (1, 2, 3, \dots, n) \quad (15)$$

317 (3) Calculate the cumulative percentage of each rock sample:

$$318 \quad Q_i = \frac{P_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n P_i} \times 100 \quad (16)$$

$$319 \quad N_i = \sum_{i=1}^k Q_i \quad (17)$$

320 Where, Q_i is the percentage of sample i , %; P_i is the unit number of sample i ; N_i is cumulative percentage of
321 rock sample corresponding to sample i , %.

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Figures

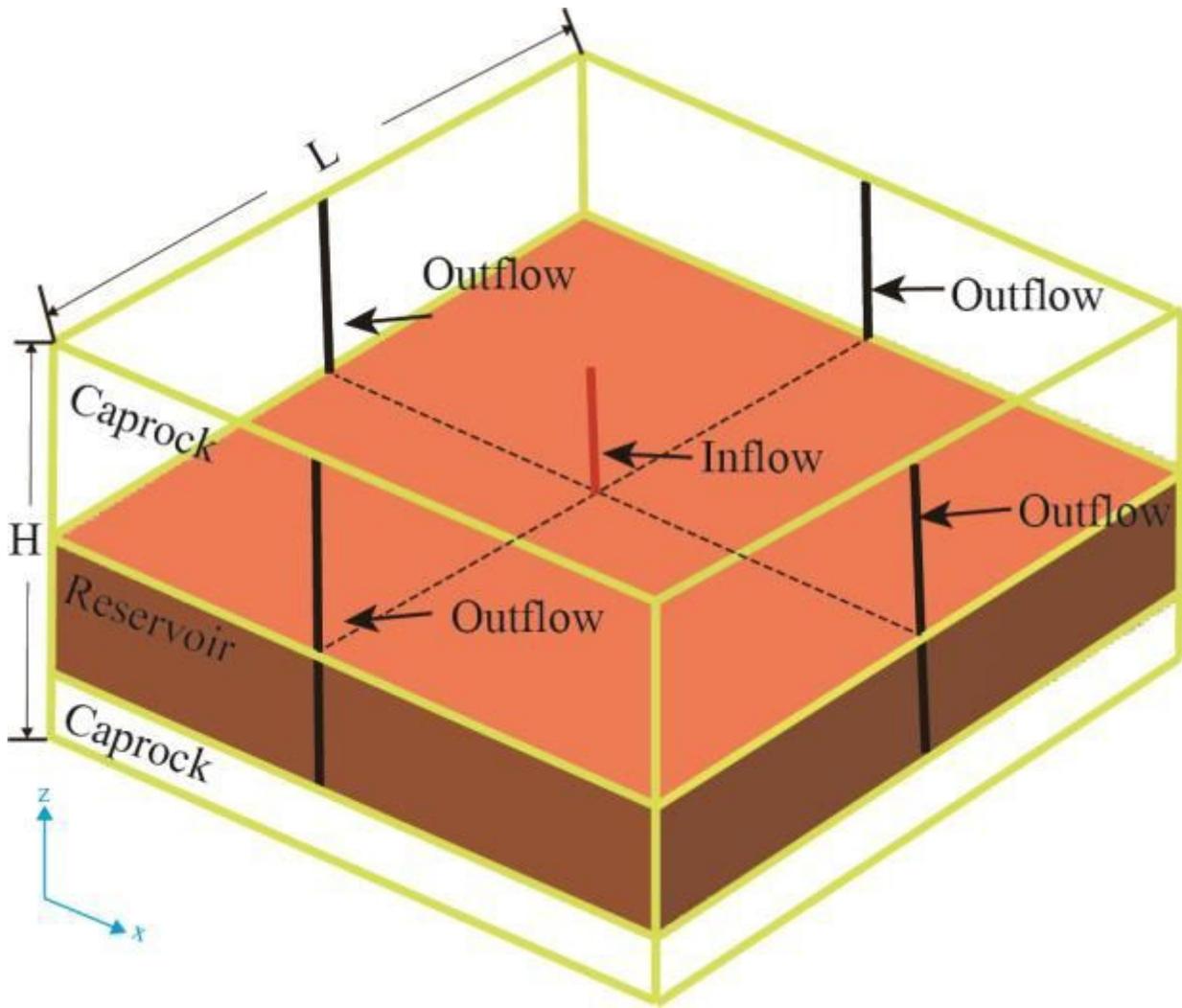
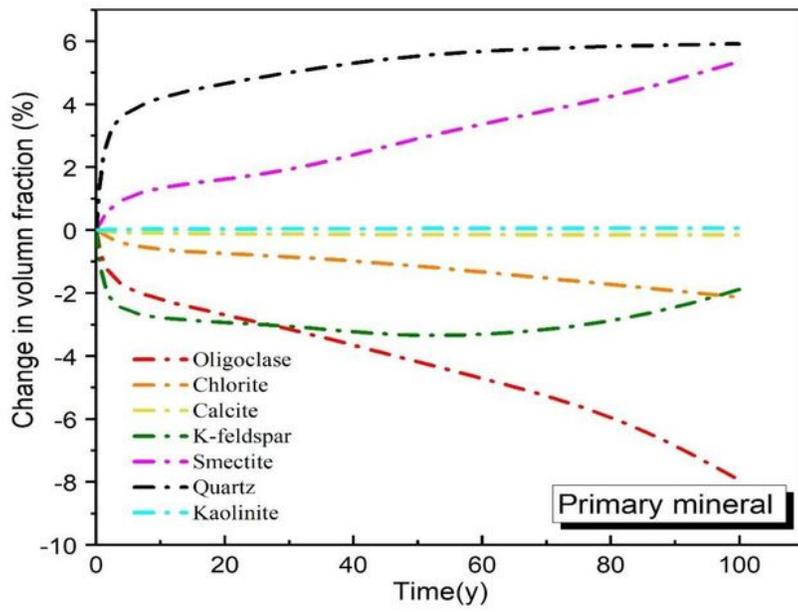
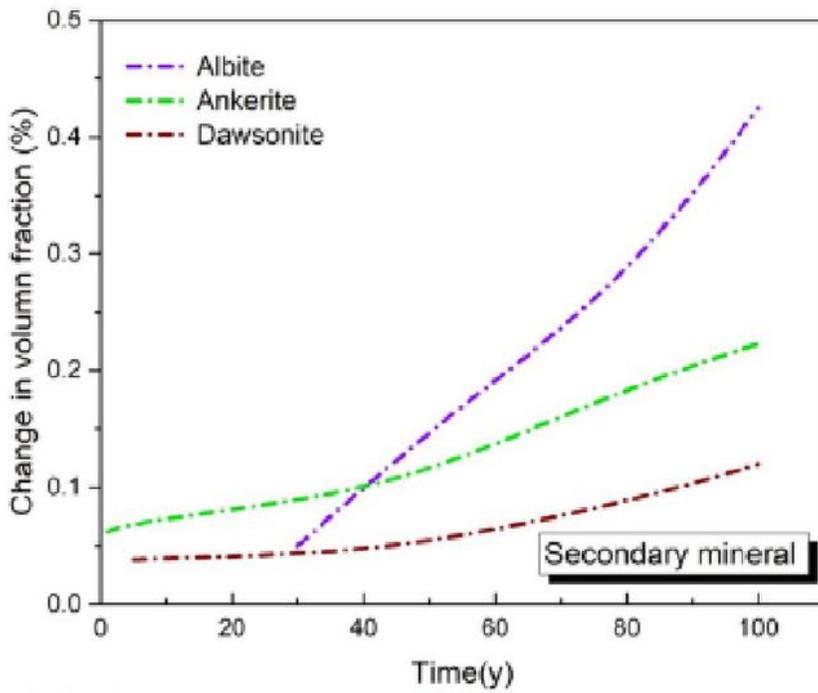


Figure 1

Three-dimensional stratigraphic model



(a) Primary mineral



(b) Secondary mineral

Figure 2

Volume fraction changes of minerals

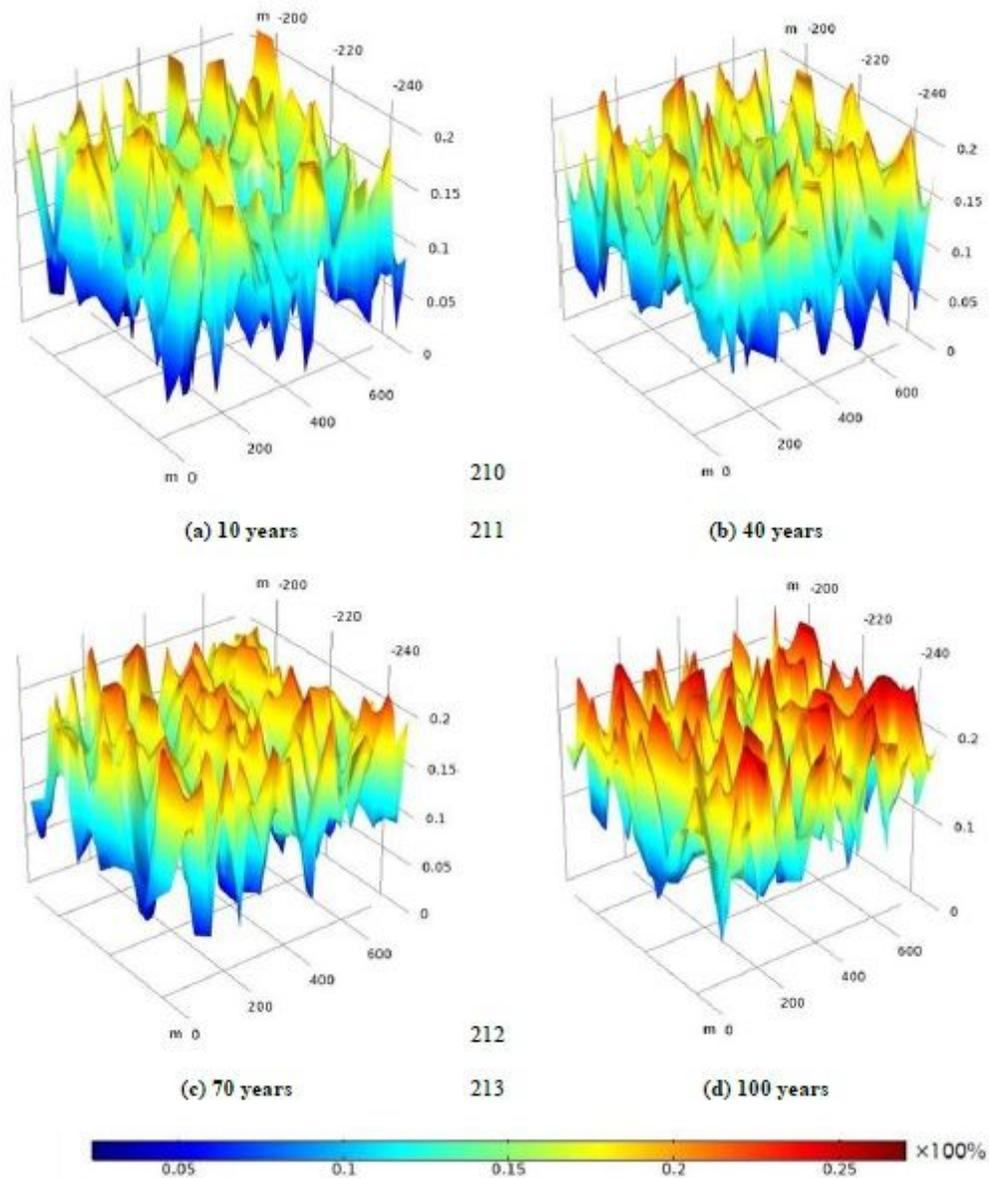


Figure 3

Change of reservoir porosity

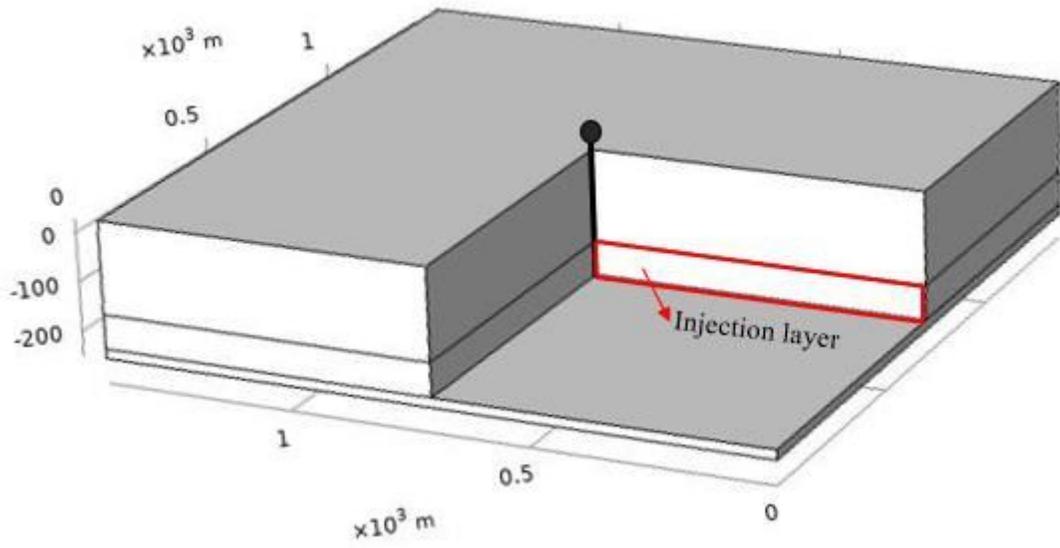


Figure 4

Schematic diagram of injection layer model section

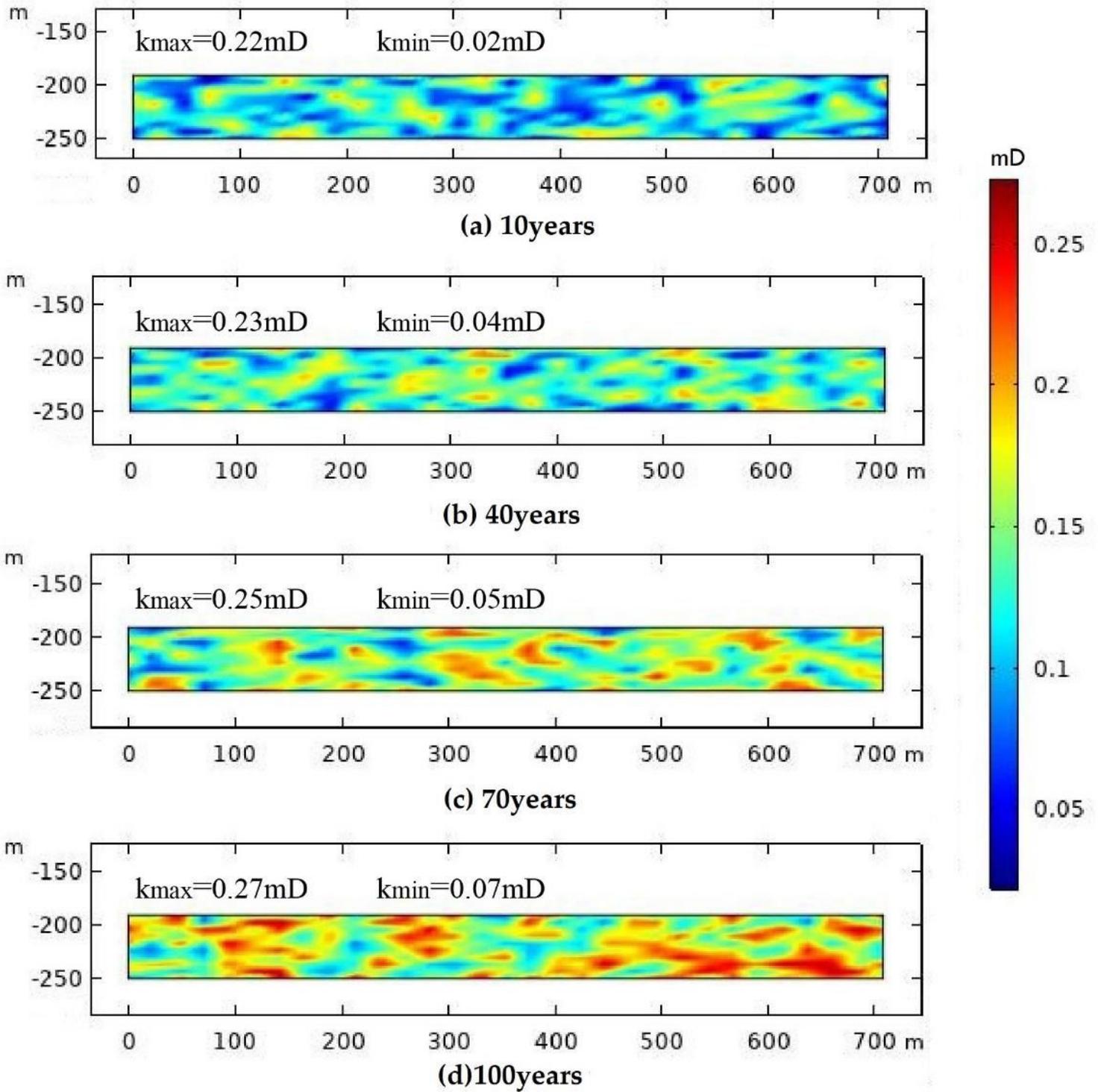


Figure 5

Change of reservoir permeability

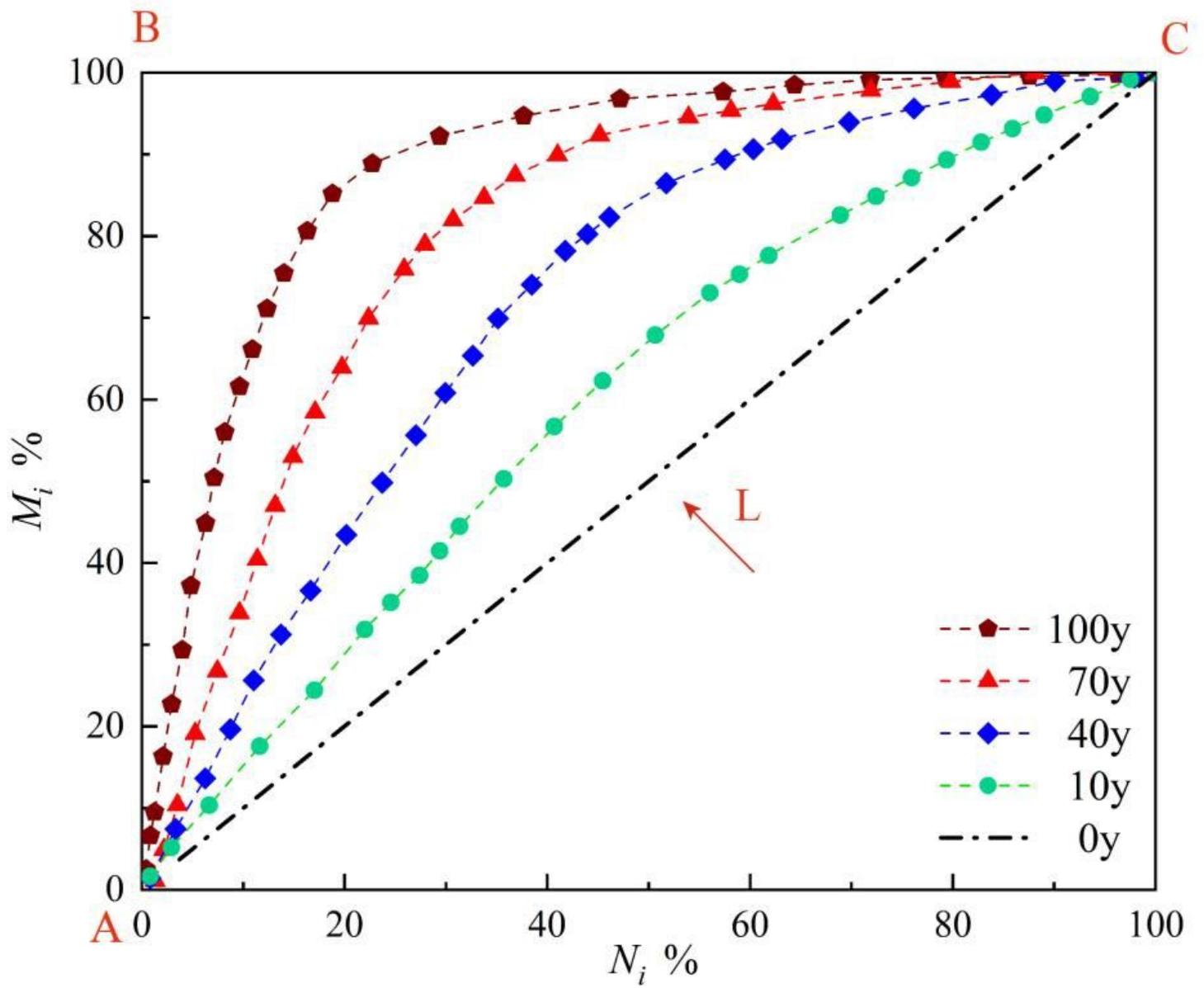


Figure 6

Lorentz curve of rock heterogeneity

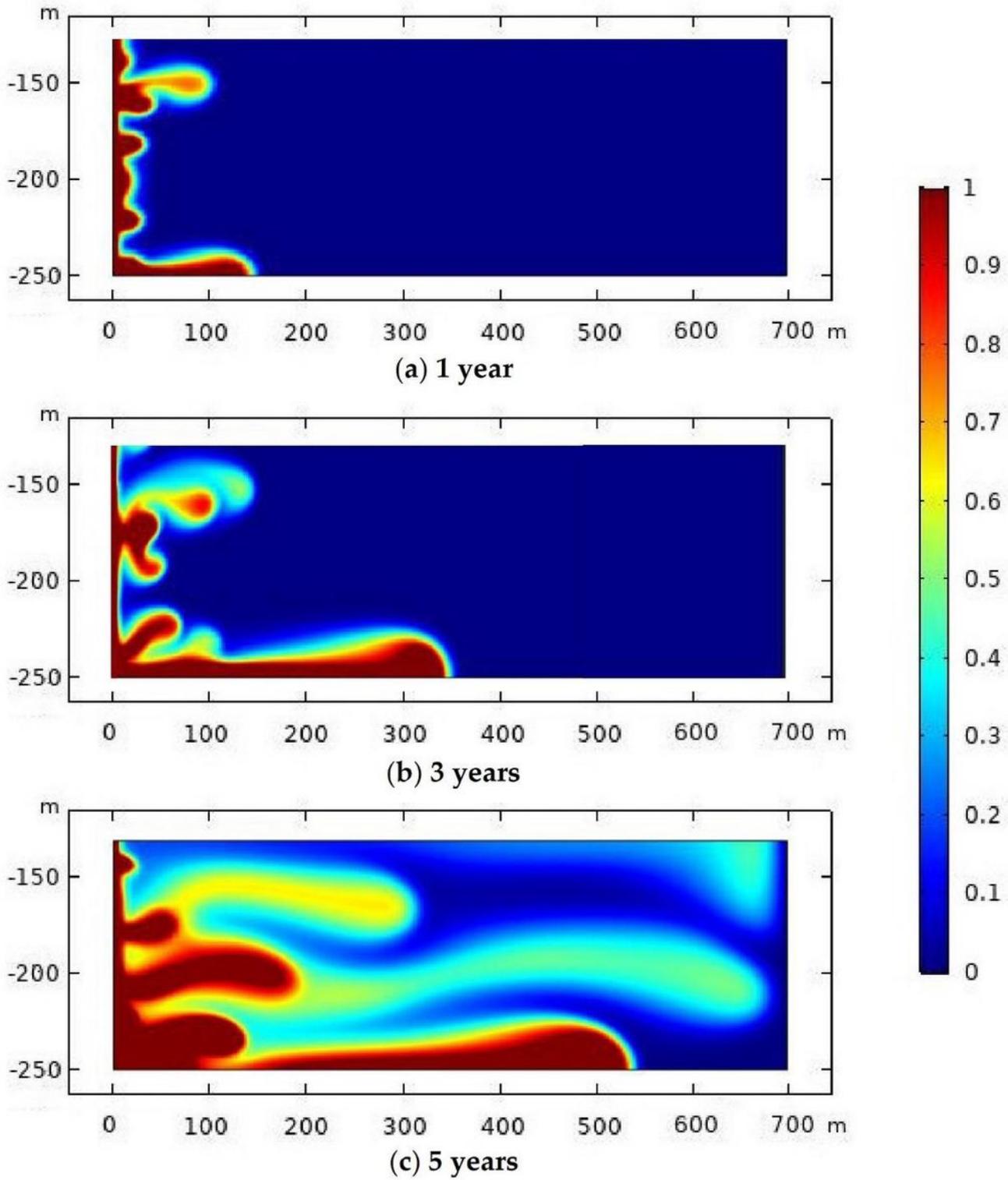


Figure 7

Change of NPs-CO₂ saturation after chemical reactions

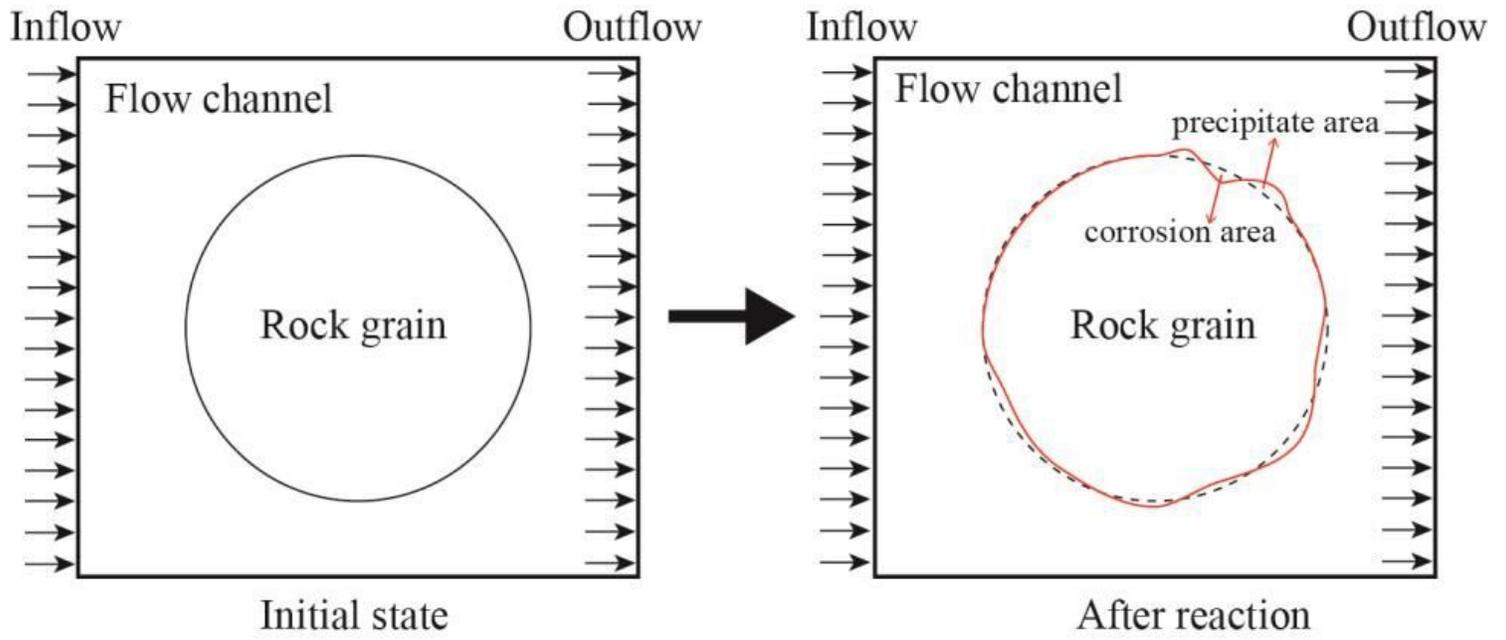


Figure 8

Geometric model after microstructure change

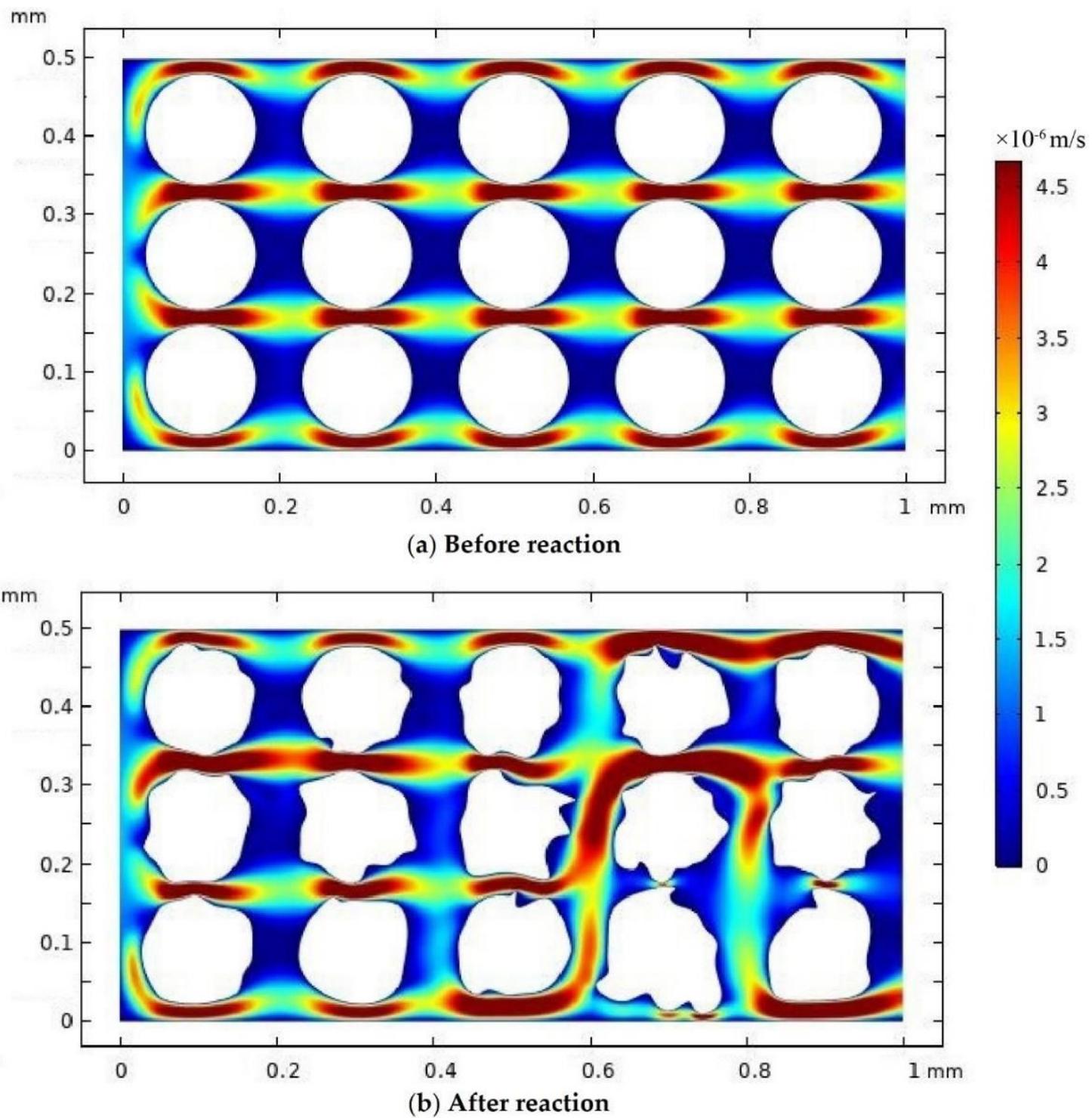


Figure 9

Velocity change of NPs-CO₂ flow