

Monitoring and detecting CO₂ injected into water-saturated sandstone with joint seismic and resistivity measurements

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Abstract. As part of basic studies of monitoring carbon dioxide (CO₂) storage using electrical and seismic surveys, laboratory experiments have been conducted to measure resistivity and P-wave velocity changes due to the injection of CO₂ into water-saturated sandstone. The rock sample used is a cylinder of Berea sandstone. CO₂ was injected under supercritical conditions (10 MPa, 40°C). The experimental results show that resistivity increases monotonously throughout the injection period, while P-wave velocity and amplitude decrease drastically due to the supercritical CO₂ injection. A reconstructed P-wave velocity tomogram clearly images CO₂ migration in the sandstone sample. Both resistivity and seismic velocity are useful for monitoring CO₂ behaviour. P-wave velocity, however, is less sensitive than resistivity when the CO₂ saturation is greater than ~20%. The result indicates that the saturation estimation from resistivity can effectively complement the difficulty of CO₂ saturation estimations from seismic velocity variations. By combining resistivity and seismic velocity we were able to estimate CO₂ saturation distribution and the injected CO₂ behaviour in our sample.

Key words: Berea sandstone, carbon dioxide (CO₂) storage, CO₂ saturation, P-wave velocity, resistivity, seismic tomography.

Introduction

Greenhouse gases, a main cause of global warming, are a serious issue in various countries around the world. As global warming is a serious problem, reduction technologies for CO₂, the most abundant greenhouse gas, have become urgent business. In 1997, the Kyoto Protocol defined an implementation goal that most of the world's countries should reduce CO₂ by 5.2% of 1990 totals. Currently, trading of carbon credits are seen to be one way to meet the goals of the Kyoto Protocol. In European Union (EU) countries, CO₂ credit trades are executed in earnest and technologies such as Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) have become an important topic of discussion. Geological sequestration is thought as an effective way to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions. Geological sequestration can be classified by methods such as disposal into the deep sea as a hydrate, injection into saline aquifers or depleted oil or gas fields, and adiabatic underground injection. The sequestration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in saline aquifers has been proposed as an effective and advanced technology. To ensure the safety and effective storage of CO₂ sequestration, it is necessary to monitor injected CO₂ in the subsurface, and to quantify the mass of CO₂ in reservoirs.

Geophysical surveys play an important role in CO₂ monitoring. Seismic surveys have shown great results at sites in Sleipner, Weyburn, and Nagaoka (Bunge, 2000; Arts et al., 2002, 2004; Davis et al., 2002; Xue et al., 2006). At the Nagaoka pilot site, time-lapse induction and sonic logging successfully detected CO₂ breakthrough at two observation wells, and monitored the behaviour of injected CO₂ in the permeable zone of the reservoir (Xue et al., 2006). Experiments have been conducted in the laboratory to monitor

resistivity or seismic velocity while injecting supercritical CO₂ into various sandstones under in-situ reservoir conditions (Xue et al., 2002, 2005; Xue and Ohsumi 2004a, 2004b, 2005; Onishi et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2009; Nakatsuka et al., 2009).

Seismic surveys provide the most attractive approach for obtaining the spatial coverage required for mapping the location and movement of CO₂ in the subsurface. Crosswell seismic surveys has been successfully applied to map the movement of injected CO₂ at the Nagaoka and Frio pilot sites (Xue et al., 2005; Saito et al., 2006; Daley et al., 2007). Seismic tomography is efficient for imaging CO₂ migration in reservoirs. Gassmann's theory is often used to estimate CO₂ saturation from seismic velocity (Gassmann, 1951). From sonic and resistivity logging results, P-wave velocity becomes less sensitive when CO₂ saturation is greater than 20%, while the resistivity keeps increasing with increasing CO₂ saturation (Nakatsuka et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2009). P-wave velocity is not sensitive to gas saturation in high gas saturation regimes (>20%) for either homogenous saturation or patchy saturation with patch sizes much smaller than a wavelength (Xue and Lei, 2006; Lei and Xue, 2009). From this result, when saturation becomes more than 20%, the variation in P-wave velocity becomes too weak for estimating CO₂ saturation quantitatively. In order to overcome the weak point of seismic monitoring for estimating CO₂ saturation, resistivity monitoring is considered.

In this paper, we report laboratory experiments conducted to measure resistivity and P-wave velocity changes simultaneously, while injecting supercritical CO₂ into water-saturated sandstone. For better understanding of the relationship between P-wave velocity or resistivity and CO₂ saturation, P-wave velocity and resistivity changes associated with CO₂ migration in a porous

structure were determined. Here, we also present field results obtained from the Nagaoka pilot site.

Sample and experimental details

A cylindrical sample of Berea sandstone (50 mm in diameter and 100 mm in length, 19% porosity) is utilised in the study. Figure 1 shows the configuration of piezoelectric transducers and electrodes attached to the Berea sandstone for seismic velocity and resistivity measurements, respectively. The figure indicates the zone utilised for resistivity measurements as well as a diagram of ray paths for P-wave velocity measurements and P-wave velocity tomography.

Two flat current electrodes, 50 mm in diameter, were attached at the top and the bottom of the sample, and four ring-shaped potential electrodes of 2.5 mm width were attached to the sample's surface at a spacing of 25 mm. These electrodes are made of copper mesh coated with silver, which to avoid corrosion due to contact with acid.

For seismic velocity monitoring, eight transducers (ch 1–8) as transmitters are attached on one side of the sample and another eight transducers (ch 9–16) are on the other side of the sample as receivers (Figure 1). Each piezoelectric transducer has a characteristic frequency of 1 MHz. Stainless steel end pieces are attached to both ends of the sample, and a grooved plate is placed between the end piece and the sample at either end. Concentric grooves connected by radial grooves are carved onto the plate surface to enable uniform CO₂ injection over the entire surface of the sample's end. Nylon mesh is put between the end piece and the current electrode for insulation. The sample assembly is then sealed with silicon sealant, ~5 to 10 mm in thickness, to prevent the leakage of CO₂ from the sample and also to prevent the infiltration of oil (used as a hydrostatic pressure medium) into the sample.

The experimental apparatus consists of the injection system, pressure vessel, resistivity and seismic measurement equipment, and data recording system. Figure 2 shows a simplified configuration of experimental equipment in this study. To simulate temperature and pressure conditions in deep saline reservoirs, the sample is set into a high-pressure vessel. Three syringe pumps are used to control the confining pressure, the pore pressure, and the injecting CO₂ pressure, respectively. A syringe pump for confining pressure is utilised to keep the hydrostatic

pressure constant. A syringe pump for pore pressure is utilised to keep the pore pressure (back pressure) constant at the top end, and is set to reduce the pre-pressure build-up, which can be caused by CO₂ injection. A syringe pump for CO₂ is utilised to inject the CO₂ from the bottom end of the sample at a pre-set constant pressure. The temperature is controlled with a band heater covering the surface of the vessel.

The experimental procedures for CO₂ injection under in-situ conditions in a reservoir involved the following steps. After placing the sample in the pressure vessel, the pressure is increased to 13 MPa under hydrostatic pressure conditions. The sample is then saturated with a KCl solution with a resistivity of 1 Ω .m. The pore pressure is increased to 10 MPa and is kept constant during CO₂ injection. Supercritical CO₂ is injected into the water-saturated sandstone at 10.5 MPa. To ensure that the injected CO₂ is in the supercritical phase, the temperature is set at 40°C.

Waveforms of electric potential and P-waves were recorded at every 3 min during CO₂ monitoring. Figure 3 shows an example of recorded waveforms for the electric potential and the compressional wave obtained before and after CO₂ injection. CO₂ injection causes an increase of electric potential (Figure 3a), and an increase in traveltime and higher damping in P-wave propagation.

Experimental results and discussion

As shown in Figure 1, the main body of the Berea sandstone sample is divided into three zones (zones 1–3). Figure 4 shows changes in resistivity, P-wave velocity and amplitude during the CO₂ injection (and drainage). When CO₂ is injected into a sample, pore water in the sandstone will be partially displaced by CO₂.

Figure 4a shows the resistivity changes obtained in the three zones during injection of supercritical CO₂ from the bottom of the sample. CO₂ injection started at 0 min. Resistivities of the lower (zone 1), middle (zone 2), and upper (zone 3) parts of the sample are shown in different colours. The resistivity for the initial water-saturated condition ranged from 12.5 to 13.6 Ω .m, while the resistivity increased due to CO₂ substitution for pore water, consequently ranging from 23 to 33 Ω .m in zones 1–3.

Figure 4b shows the P-wave velocity and amplitude obtained along the eight shortest paths during injection. P-wave velocities are measured directly from the arrival times, and amplitudes are

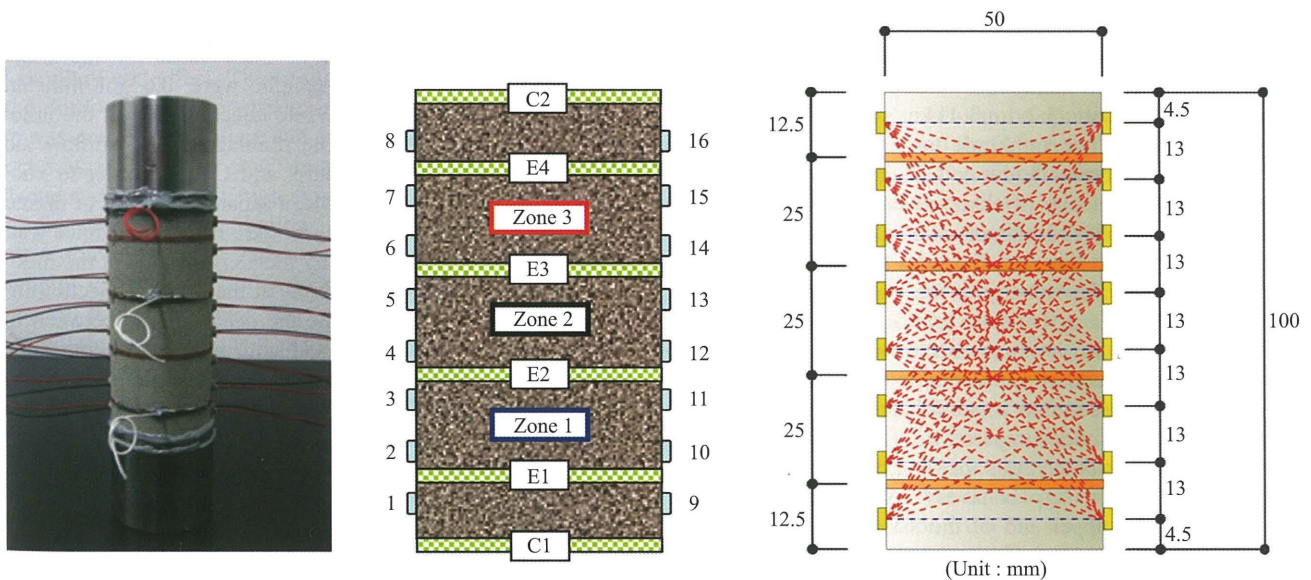


Fig. 1. Configuration of piezoelectric transducers and electrodes with a Berea sandstone sample (Kim et al., 2009).

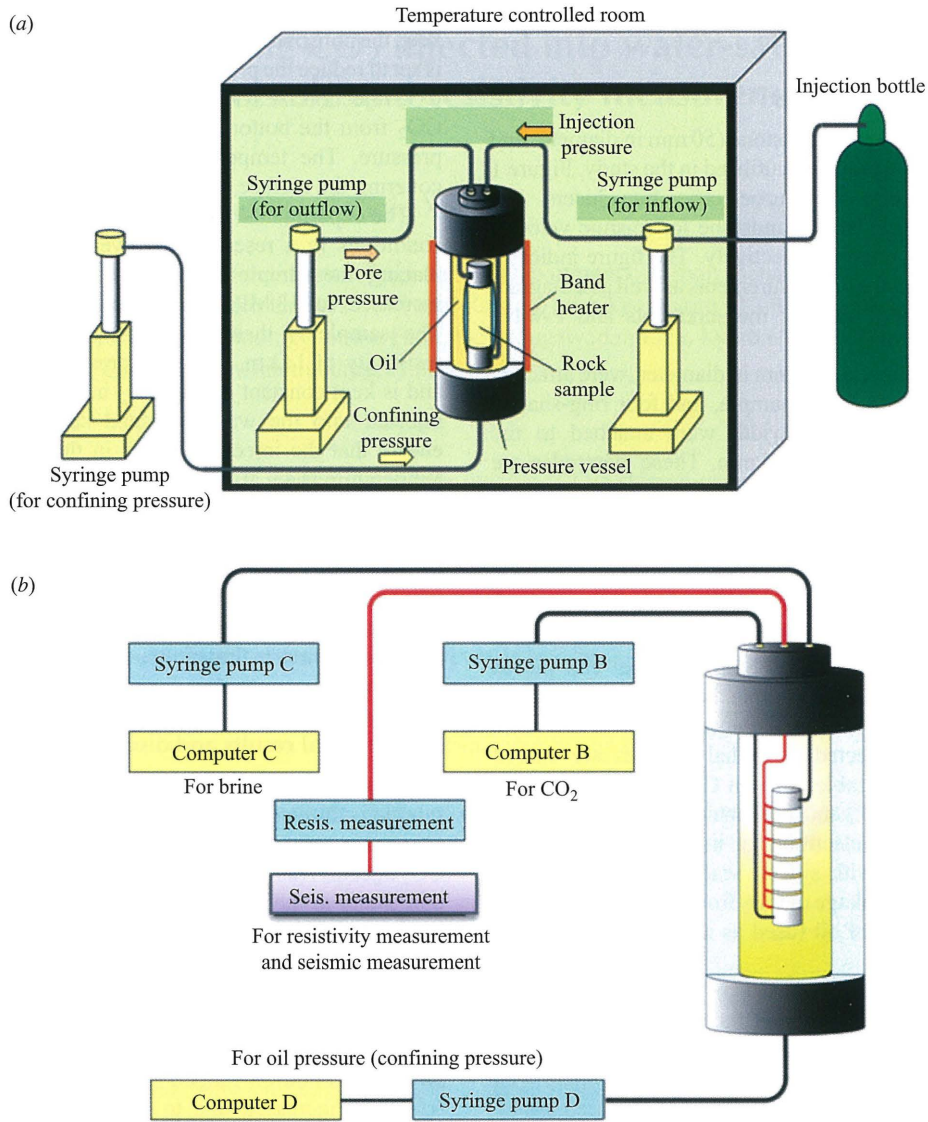


Fig. 2. Configuration of (a) the experimental apparatus and (b) the measurement system (Kim et al., 2009).

measured as the maximum magnitude of the observed waveforms. When the front face of migrating CO₂ reaches a ray path, a significant decrease is observed in the P-wave velocity and amplitude along that path. The P-wave velocity for the initially water-saturated condition ranged from 3.51 to 3.71 km/s, and the velocity for the partial CO₂-saturated sandstone ranged from 3.2 to 3.41 km/s at eight ray paths (ch 1–9 ~ch 8–16). The amplitude for the first arrival of the P-wave decreased drastically due to CO₂ injection. Comparing the amplitude and velocity of observed P-wave, the amplitude decrease (average 63%) is larger than the velocity decrease (8% in average), which in turn indicates that the amplitude is more sensitive than the velocity to the characteristics of pore fluid. The result indicates that there is an advantage in detecting CO₂ in a sample from the amplitude than from the velocity. However, the amplitude is impossible to monitor over a long period of CO₂ migration into a sample, due to rapid reduction of a change in amplitude, compared with a change in velocity. Therefore, such a result suggests that P-wave velocity is useful for monitoring how CO₂ behaves. As the injected CO₂ moves towards the upper end of the sample, the changes in resistivities and P-wave velocities and amplitudes get smaller. The magnitudes of measured results are reduced because the amount of injected CO₂ is small, as a fingering type of CO₂

movement took place from the bottom of the sample due to gravity.

Figure 5 shows flow rates and volumes at the inflow and outflow sides against CO₂ injection time for the experiment. CO₂ injection started at 0 min. Flow rates for the inflow and outflow sides of the sample were 0.05 mL/min and –0.05 mL/min, respectively. While injecting CO₂ at the inflow side, the order of fluids in the drainage at the outflow side was water, a water/CO₂ mixture, and CO₂. In order to know the volumes of CO₂ in a sample, a separate analysis of drained water and a drained water/CO₂ mixture is required, since water at the outflow side is drained by the CO₂ injected at the inflow side. In order to know the volume at the time of injection in a sample one needs to determine the dead volume between the pipeline of fluid flow connected with a syringe pump and a pressure vessel at the bottom of the sample at the CO₂ injection point. The dead volume can be calculated as the time difference between the start time of the injection of CO₂ and the initial time of P-wave velocity change at the first set of transducers (ch 1–9) attached at the lowest point of the sample surface (Figure 6). In this experiment, the total volume of the sample was 196.25 mL, and the pore volume was 37.3 mL. The dead volume was 5.1 mL. Figure 6 shows changes in resistivity for the three zones and the changes in

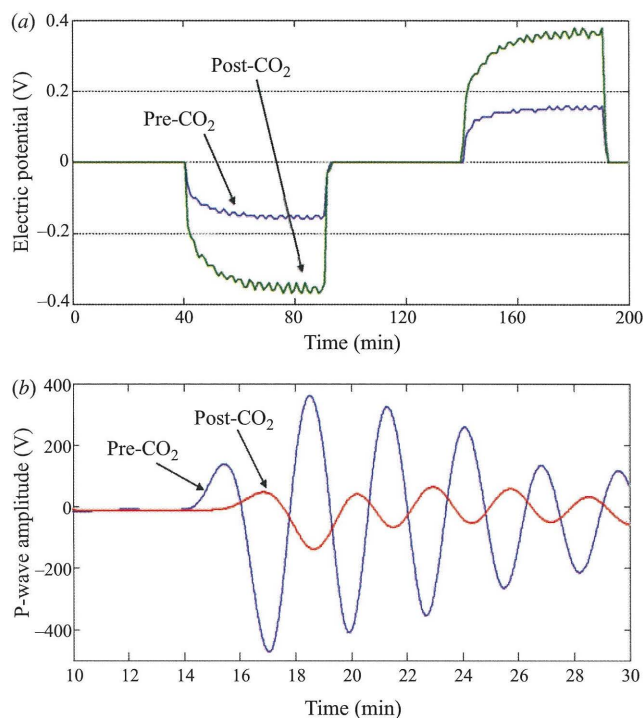


Fig. 3. (a) Electric potential for resistivity and (b) the measured P-wave for seismic tomography, before and after CO₂ injection.

P-wave velocity for eight ray paths against injected volumes after starting CO₂ injection.

Figure 7 shows the average P-wave velocity and the resistivity measured at zones 1–3 against CO₂ saturation. CO₂ saturation was calculated from the pore volume in the pore space of a sample divided into the injected CO₂ volume, ignoring the dead volume. The resistivity changed when CO₂ was saturated, by up to 37% at zone 1, up to 33% at zone 2, and up to 18% at zone 3. The P-wave velocity became less sensitive when the CO₂ saturation was not less than ~20%, generally in zones 1–3. Resistivity showed a monotonous increase with increasing CO₂ saturation when the CO₂ saturation was not more than ~20%. These results suggest that electric monitoring could be utilised as a monitoring method.

As seen in Figure 7, during injection, the change in resistivity did not continue after CO₂ saturation reached ~18% at zone 3. Furthermore, the resistivity response was delayed and the resistivity variation was small by comparison with zones 1 and 2. The non-uniform saturation profile at steady-state is called the capillary end effect. The capillary end effect was observed at the outflow face. The variation of CO₂ saturation along the core was due to the capillary end effect at the outflow end. This effect was found to be small in relatively long porous cores and under conditions of high flow rates and leads to a more uniform saturation distribution. Capillary end effects can explain some resistivity variations in zone 3, compared with resistivity variations in zones 1 and 2 due to CO₂ saturation. However, P-wave velocity variations cannot be explained by the capillary end effect, as it is difficult to distinguish changes in velocity-saturation in zones 1–3. It is necessary to estimate uniform saturation or non-uniform saturation from P-wave velocity based on the theories of Gassmann fluid substitution. In the future, a study will be conducted to explain capillary end effects with the purpose of better understanding the relationship between the CO₂ saturation distribution and P-wave velocity.

Figure 8 shows reconstructed P-wave velocity images during the injection of supercritical CO₂ in Berea sandstone, using time-

lapse seismic tomography, indicating the distribution of P-wave velocity changes at selected time intervals during injection. In this case, the upward CO₂ migration in the sample was clearly imaged. The injection of supercritical CO₂ in this sample clearly caused the distribution of P-wave velocity changes along the profile. The common outcomes are summarised as follows: most parts of the profiles showed negative P-wave velocity changes, ranged from 0 to -0.4 km/s. After breakthrough of CO₂ at the top end, P-wave velocity continued to decrease slowly, and finally reached a stable level after 393 min for this Berea sandstone sample. During the injection, a P-wave velocity decrease appeared around the bottom end 123 min after starting injection (Figure 8). The area of negative P-wave velocity change expanded with increasing elapsed time, and reached the top end after 369 min.

Figure 8 also shows the distribution of the CO₂ saturation ratio versus CO₂ injection behaviour in the sample by comparing the relationship between the CO₂ saturation calculated using Archie's equation (Figure 9) and velocity images reconstructed using time-lapse seismic tomography. Tomographic images of VP change were reconstructed from differential travel times using difference tomography methods as outlined by Lei and Xue (2009). For CO₂ monitoring, we are more interested in the relative change of seismic velocity caused by CO₂ injection than the absolute velocity distribution. The effect of CO₂ injection on the P-wave velocities measured in the laboratory has been examined for CO₂ in the supercritical phase. By directly using differential arrival times, determined manually by the comparison of two consecutive waveforms along the same path, the differential tomography method is able to image the P-wave velocity change during injection of CO₂. Temporal-spatial distributions of relative velocity change were well imaged. Such distributions of P-wave velocity change reflect supercritical CO₂ migration in the water-saturated sample.

As seen in Figure 8, the reconstructed P-wave velocity tomogram images clearly showed CO₂ migration in the sandstone sample. It is also notable that the present experimental results show a wide distribution of the P-wave velocity change during CO₂ injection. The results indicate that the homogeneity of pore distribution plays an important role on governing CO₂ migration. This suggests that the migration of CO₂ in the rock sample is homogenous. Homogenous pore distribution or homogenous distribution of fluid flow channels may cause homogenous CO₂ migration. The results indicated the changes in resistivity and P-wave velocity associated with the movement of injected CO₂ in the pore structure. Seismic tomography results for monitoring CO₂ migration depend strongly on resistivity increases and velocity reductions caused by injecting CO₂. The result can be applied to simultaneously evaluate CO₂ saturation and the behaviour of CO₂ migration.

To overcome the weakness of seismic monitoring for estimating CO₂ saturation, there is a need for accurate estimation of CO₂ saturation using resistivity. A study was conducted as a part of basic studies with the purpose of better understanding how one should estimate the saturation of CO₂ during sequestration, using resistivity. All water-saturation determinations from resistivity in clean (non-shaly) formations with homogenous intergranular porosity are based on the most commonly and widely used water saturation equation as proposed by Archie (1942). The equation relates the resistivity of the formation to the porosity, the water saturation, and the resistivity of pore water. We considered the parameters needed to calculate CO₂ saturation from the resistivity result. Archie's equation is utilised to determine the CO₂ saturation:

$$R = \alpha \cdot \phi^{-m} \cdot S_w^{-n} \cdot R_w, \quad (1)$$

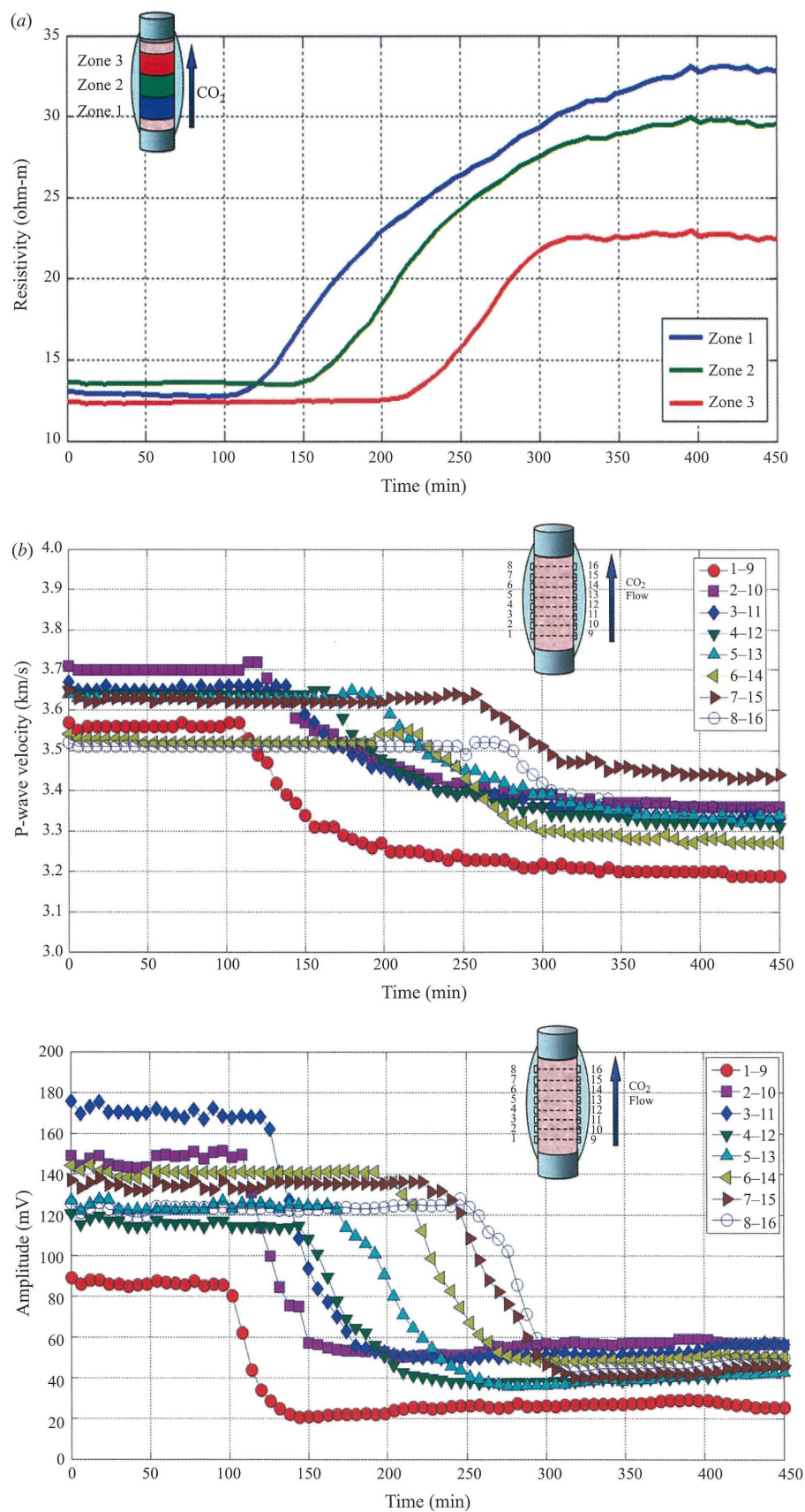


Fig. 4. Time variation in (a) resistivity and (b) seismic properties (velocity, amplitude) obtained while injecting supercritical CO₂ into water-saturated Berea sandstone.

where S_w is the water saturation (fraction), n is the saturation exponent (usually taken as equal to 2), R_w is the formation water resistivity (Ωm), R is the true formation resistivity (Ωm), and F is the formation factor ($F = \alpha \cdot \phi^{-m}$), where ϕ is the porosity, α is the cementation factor, and m is the cementation exponent. By transforming

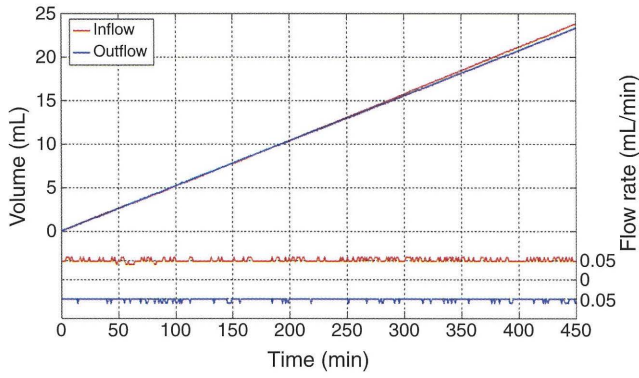


Fig. 5. Flow rates and volumes at the inflow and outflow sides plotted against CO₂ injection time during the experiment conducted with Berea sandstone.

equation 1, the saturation of CO₂ (S_{CO_2}) can be expressed as equation 2:

$$S_{CO_2} = 1 - S_w = 1 - \left(\frac{\alpha \cdot R_w}{R \cdot \phi^m} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}}. \quad (2)$$

Relevant parameters were provided from an experimental study and are the following: $a=1$, $m=1.59$, and $R_w=1$. The porosity was measured in this study and was determined to be 0.19.

Figure 9 shows the CO₂ saturation as calculated by equation 2 from the resistivity results. CO₂ saturations increased by up to 37% at zone 1, by up to 33% at zone 2, and by up to 26% at zone 3. In the experiment, the CO₂ saturation calculated from resistivity using Archie's equation showed a good match with CO₂ saturation from the CO₂ volume injected into the water-saturated sandstone. For Berea sandstone, Archie's equation showed a good match with the real saturation estimated from replaced brine (Onishi et al., 2006).

As seen in Figures 4a and 9, the resistivity and CO₂ saturation increased due to CO₂ injection, but the resistivity and CO₂

saturation at zone 1 decreased a little in the early stages of injection. Before injecting CO₂ into a sample, the injecting CO₂ reacted with the injected water in the pipeline between the syringe pump and the bottom of the sample. When a little dissolved CO₂ reaches the electrode at zone 1, the resistivity at zone 1 decreased a little from the initial resistivity of water-saturated sandstone. The resistivity increased when the undissolved CO₂ reached zone 1 later. The CO₂ saturation calculated from the resistivity at zone 1 also become negative. The Nagaoka pilot CO₂ injection project provided a similar result, with an experimental result that confirmed the presence of dissolved CO₂ within the reservoir, as evidenced by low resistivity observed from induction logging after starting supercritical CO₂ injection (Xue et al., 2006). Furthermore, the results confirmed that the decrease in resistivity could provide a specific tool to detect dissolved CO₂ when water and CO₂ were reactive. In the longer term, the solubility and reactivity of the CO₂ will increase the stability of the storage with dissolution mechanism of trapped liquid CO₂. The results can provide the possibility to obtain a better understanding of dissolved CO₂ saturation distribution in a reservoir rock, and a monitoring tool may be able to detect dissolved CO₂ from changes in resistivity.

Figure 10 shows relationships between P-wave velocity and resistivity change against CO₂ saturation from (a) experiment results and (b) logging results from the Nagaoka site (Nakatsuka et al., 2008; Xue and Watanabe, 2008). In the experiment the CO₂ saturation of Berea sandstone calculated from resistivity using Archie's equation was very well matched with the CO₂ saturation from the injected CO₂ volume in sandstone with the same conditions of the reservoir. The experiment and the Nagaoka results showed similar responses when CO₂ saturation was less than roughly 20%, both the resistivity and the P-wave velocity are sensitive. However, when the CO₂ saturation was more than ~20%, the increase in resistivity showed constant sensitivity, while reduction of the P-wave velocity became less sensitive. The result indicates that the saturation estimation from resistivity can effectively complement the difficulty of over 20% CO₂ saturation estimations from seismic velocity variations.

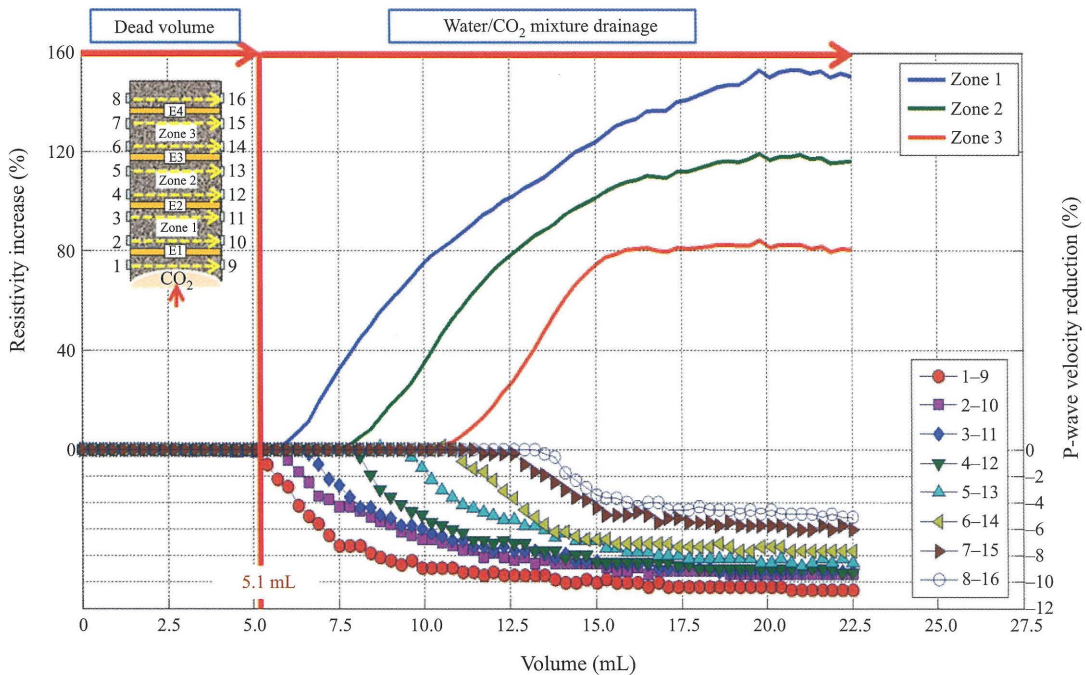


Fig. 6. Changes in the resistivity and P-wave velocities for the three zones and eight ray paths plotted against injection volume after a CO₂ injection.

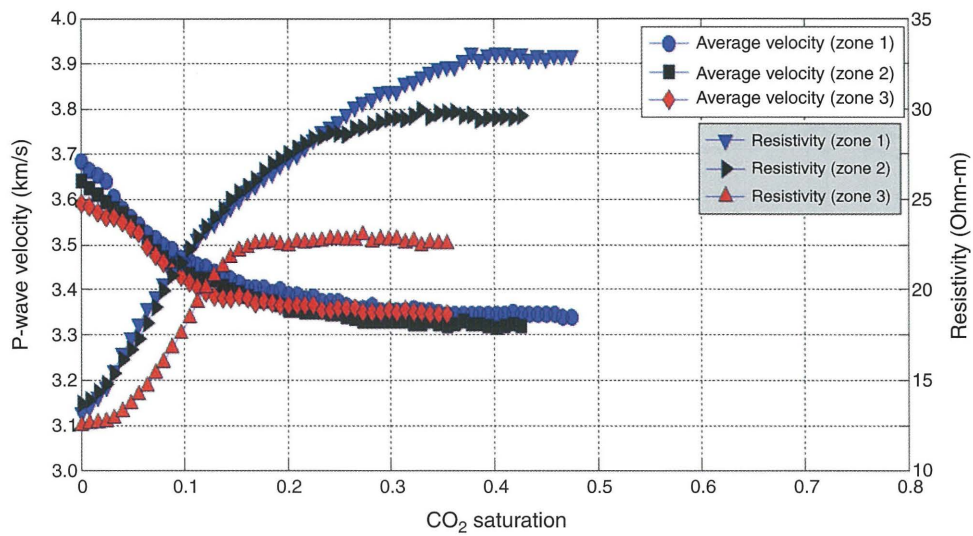


Fig. 7. Variations of P-wave velocity and resistivity plotted against CO₂ saturation calculated from CO₂ volume during the injection of supercritical CO₂ into water-saturated Berea sandstone.

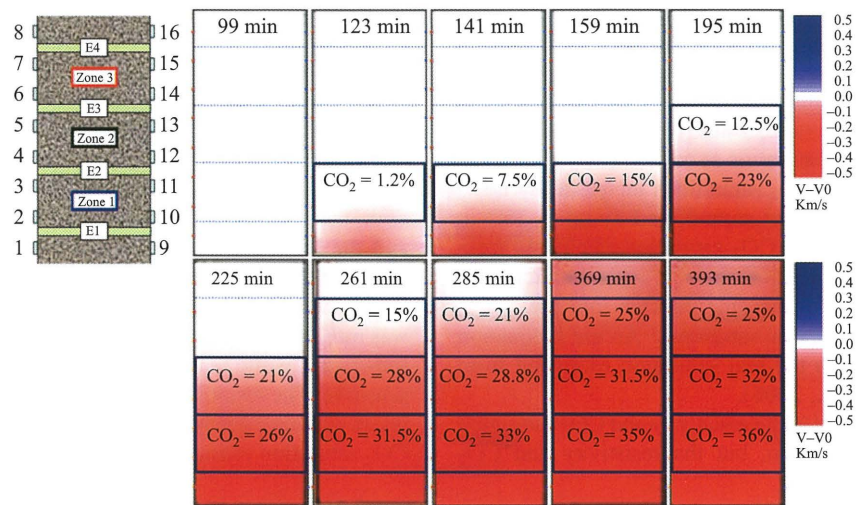


Fig. 8. The reconstructed velocity images and CO₂ saturation distributions from seismic tomography during the injection of supercritical CO₂ into Berea sandstone.

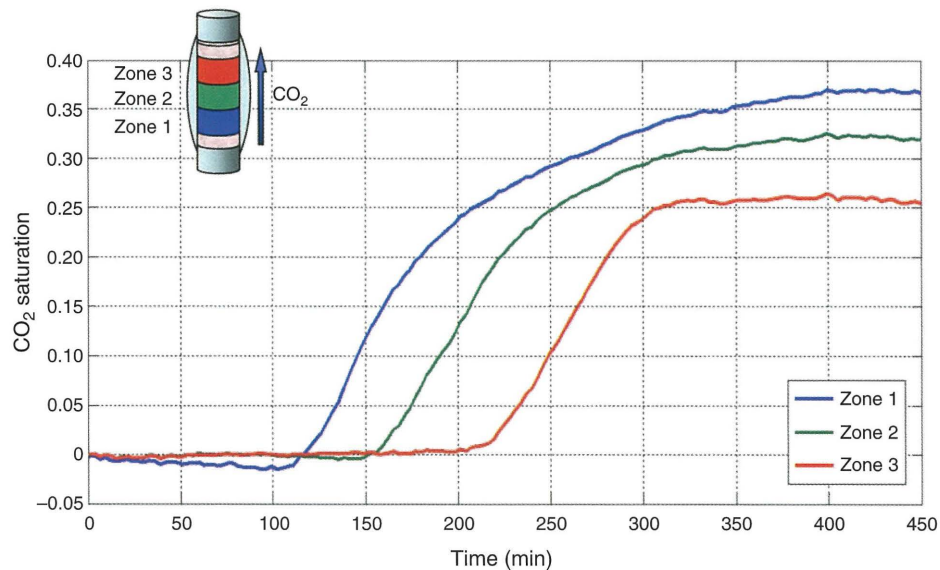


Fig. 9. CO₂ saturation from resistivity (calculated by Archie's equation) during CO₂ injection in water-saturated sandstone.

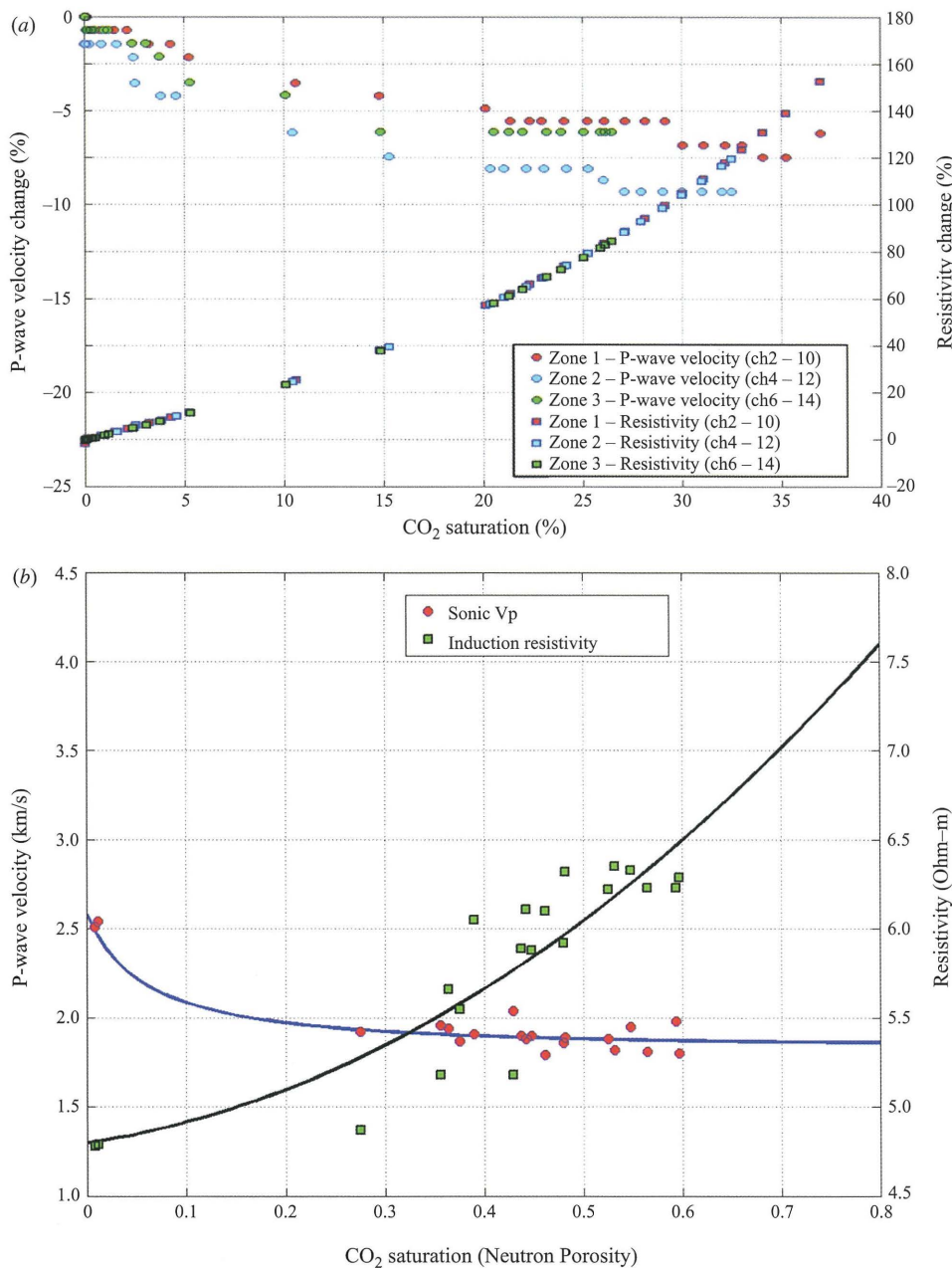


Fig. 10. (a) The relationship between P-wave velocity and resistivity change versus CO₂ saturation in the experiment; and (b) the relationship between P-wave velocity and resistivity change versus CO₂ saturation at the Nagaoka site (Xue and Watanabe, 2008; Nakatsuka et al., 2008).

Figure 11 provides the percentages for the resistivity increase and the P-wave velocity reduction as a combined resistivity and seismic velocity variation graph. The resistivity increase ranged from 80.5% to 152.9%, and the P-wave velocity reduction ranged from 5.4% to 10.6%. Resistivity increases and velocity reductions depend strongly on CO₂ migration. When the injected CO₂ reached each zone and path, the resistivity and velocity changed, beginning from zone1 and path ch 1–9.

As seen in Figures 4 and 11, we have confirmed CO₂ migration from the changes in P-wave velocity, amplitude, and resistivity when supercritical CO₂ was injected into water-saturated sandstone, and when CO₂ saturation increased due to CO₂ injection. When the front of migrating CO₂ reached the ch 1–9 ray path in the sample, the P-wave velocity decreased along that path after 106 min and the amplitude after 94 min. The results indicate that the amplitude change was faster than the P-wave

velocity change when the front of migrating CO₂ reached a ray path. When the front of migrating CO₂ reached the ch 2–10 ray path, the P-wave velocity decreased along that path after 118 min and the amplitude after 106 min. When compared to the initial P-wave velocity and resistivity in zone 1, the resistivity increased by more than 0.6 Ω.m that of the initial resistivity, as the CO₂ saturation was 1% at that time. The resistivity change was slightly faster than the P-wave velocity change when the front of migrating CO₂ reached this ray path. When the front of migrating CO₂ reached the ch 4–12 ray path, the P-wave velocity decreased along that path after 162 min and amplitude after 144 min. When compared to the initial P-wave velocity and resistivity in zone 2, the resistivity increased by more than 1.2 Ω.m, as the CO₂ saturation was 2.4%. The resistivity change was slightly faster than the P-wave velocity change when the front of migrating CO₂ reached this ray path. When

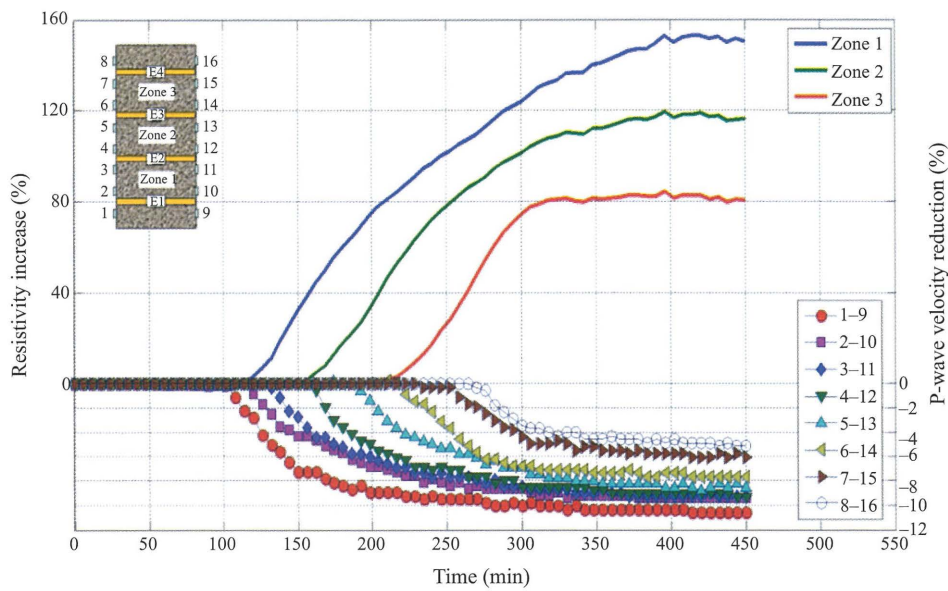


Fig. 11. The combined resistivity and seismic velocity change plotted against CO₂ injection.

the front of migrating CO₂ reached the ch 6–14 ray path, the P-wave velocity decreased along that path after 224 min and the amplitude after 200 min. When compared to the initial P-wave velocity and the resistivity in zone 2, the resistivity increased more than 1.9 Ω.m as the CO₂ saturation was 4.8%. The resistivity change was slightly faster than for the P-wave velocity change when the front of migrating CO₂ reached this ray path.

By comparing changes in P-wave velocity and amplitude while CO₂ was injected into water-saturated sandstone, we observed that the time intervals between changes in P-wave velocity and amplitude due to the front of migrating CO₂ reaching a ray path increased towards the upper side of the sample. The results indicate that the change in amplitude was larger than the change in the P-wave velocity due to CO₂ injection. As a result of comparing changes in resistivity and P-wave velocity at the same time while CO₂ was injected, we observed that the magnitudes of the resistivity changes and the CO₂ saturation increased due to the fact that the front of migrating CO₂ reached a ray path as each channel increased towards the upper side of the sample. The results indicate that CO₂ saturation and CO₂ migration can be evaluated as the cause of the time interval change in P-wave velocity if they increase towards the upper side of a sample. Experimental studies will be carried out to measure resistivity and seismic properties using samples with different porosity and pore structure. The study will be undertaken in order to evaluate the relationship between estimated CO₂ saturation and the behaviour of CO₂ migration using a range of different homogeneous Berea sandstones.

Conclusions

Laboratory experiments were conducted to simultaneously measure combined resistivity and seismic tomography while injecting supercritical CO₂ in water-saturated Berea sandstone.

Our conclusions about our laboratory experiments are as follows:

- 1. Resistivity increased monotonically, and seismic velocity and amplitude were reduced drastically during the injection of CO₂, suggesting this possibility as a monitoring method for CO₂ underground storage sites.
- 2. Seismic tomography results depend strongly on the velocity reductions caused by CO₂ injection. The results show that

- high-resolution seismic methods could be applied to evaluate the behaviour of CO₂ migration for CO₂ monitoring.
- 3. P-wave velocity became less sensitive when the CO₂ saturation was over ~20%, while the resistivity kept increasing with an increase in CO₂ saturation. The result indicates that the saturation estimation from resistivity can effectively complement CO₂ saturation estimation from seismic velocity variations.
- 4. By joint interpretation of CO₂ saturation from resistivity and seismic tomography we were able to estimate CO₂ distribution and injected CO₂ behaviour in a sample. The result suggests that combined resistivity and seismic surveys can be applied to simultaneously evaluate CO₂ saturation and CO₂ migration.

In the future, experimental studies will be carried out to estimate CO₂ saturation from P-wave velocity based on the theory of Gassmann fluid substitution with the purpose of better understanding the prediction of CO₂ saturation from resistivity and P-wave velocity. Additionally, such studies will evaluate the relationship between estimated CO₂ saturation and the behaviour of CO₂ migration using reconstructed P-wave velocity images. To better understand the residual (immobile) trapping mechanism, laboratory experiments will be conducted to measure the monitoring with resistivity and P-wave velocity during the imbibition (water injection) stage. This study will be conducted to evaluate residual trapped CO₂ saturation using resistivity and P-wave velocity.

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탄성과 및 비저항 동시측정에 의한 수포화 암석시료에 주입된 CO₂ 모니터링 및 탐지

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요약: 전기 및 탄성과 탐사를 이용한 이산화탄소 지중저장의 모니터링의 기초연구로써, 수포화 암석시료에 CO₂주입시 비저항과 P파속도를 측정하였다. 암석시료는 Berea사암이며, CO₂는 초임계상태(10 MPa, 40 °C)로 주입하였다. 초임계 CO₂주입에 의해 비저항의 증가 및 P파속도와 진폭이 감소하였다. P파 속도 토모그램은 암석시료에 주입한 초임계 CO₂의 거동양상을 보여주었다. 비저항과 탄성파속도는 CO₂거동 모니터링하는데 유용하다. 그러나 P파 속도는 비저항 변화에 비해 CO₂포화도가 20% 이상 일때 변화를 보이지 않았다. 비저항으로부터 CO₂포화도 예측은 탄성과 속도로부터 CO₂포화도 예측의 어려움을 보완할 수 있다. 비저항과 탄성파 속도의 동시측정에 의해 암석시료에 주입한 초임계 CO₂ 거동 및 CO₂포화도 분포를 예측할 수 있다.

주요어: 이산화탄소(CO₂) 지중저장, Berea 사암, CO₂ 포화도, P 파 속도, 비저항, 탄성파토모그래피

弾性波と比抵抗の同時測定による水飽和砂岩に注入された CO₂ モニタリング及び探知

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要 旨: 電気及び弾性波探査を利用した二酸化炭素地中貯留のモニタリングの基礎研究として、水飽和砂岩に CO₂ 注入時の比抵抗と P 波速度の測定実験を実施した。岩石試料はベリア砂岩である。CO₂ は超臨界状態(10 MPa, 40 °C)で注入した。超臨界 CO₂ の注入によって、比抵抗の増加及び P 波の伝搬速度と振幅が減少した。弾性波トモグラフィの結果は砂岩試料に注入された超臨界 CO₂ 挙動を示した。従って、比抵抗と弾性波速度は CO₂ 挙動のモニタリングにおいて有用である。しかし、P 波速度は比抵抗と比較して、CO₂ 飽和度が 20% 以上の時に変化が見えなかった。以上より、比抵抗を用いた CO₂ 飽和度の予測は、弾性波速度による CO₂ 飽和度の予測の難しさを効果的に補うことができることが示される。比抵抗と弾性波速度 を結合することによって、砂岩試料に注入された超臨界 CO₂ 挙動及び CO₂ 飽和度分布が予測できた。

キーワード: 二酸化炭素 (CO₂) 地中貯留, 베리아砂岩, CO₂ 飽和도, P 波速度, 比抵抗, 弾性波トモグラフィ