

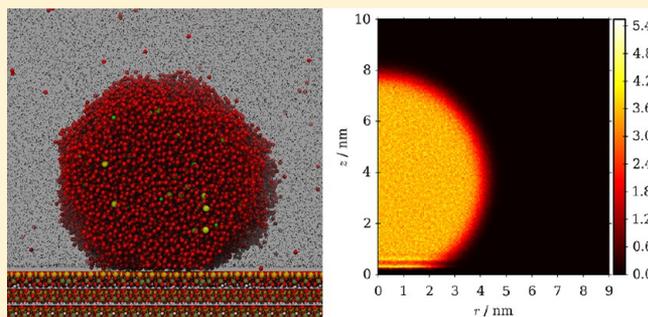
Molecular Simulation of Carbon Dioxide, Brine, and Clay Mineral Interactions and Determination of Contact Angles

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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Capture and subsequent geologic storage of CO₂ in deep brine reservoirs plays a significant role in plans to reduce atmospheric carbon emission and resulting global climate change. The interaction of CO₂ and brine species with mineral surfaces controls the ultimate fate of injected CO₂ at the nanoscale via geochemistry, at the pore-scale via capillary trapping, and at the field-scale via relative permeability. We used large-scale molecular dynamics simulations to study the behavior of supercritical CO₂ and aqueous fluids on both the hydrophilic and hydrophobic basal surfaces of kaolinite, a common clay mineral. In the presence of a bulk aqueous phase, supercritical CO₂ forms a nonwetting droplet above the hydrophilic surface of kaolinite. This CO₂ droplet is separated from the mineral surface by distinct layers of water, which prevent the CO₂ droplet from interacting directly with the mineral surface. Conversely, both CO₂ and H₂O molecules interact directly with the hydrophobic surface of kaolinite. In the presence of bulk supercritical CO₂, nonwetting aqueous droplets interact with the hydrophobic surface of kaolinite via a mixture of adsorbed CO₂ and H₂O molecules. Because nucleation and precipitation of minerals should depend strongly on the local distribution of CO₂, H₂O, and ion species, these nanoscale surface interactions are expected to influence long-term mineralization of injected carbon dioxide.



INTRODUCTION

Capture and subsequent geologic storage of CO₂ in deep brine reservoirs plays a significant role in plans to reduce atmospheric

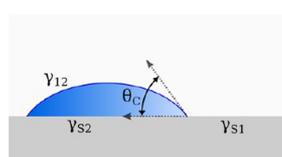


Figure 1. Contact angle θ_C resulting from the balance of forces between interfacial tensions γ_{ij} between two fluids (subscripts 1 and 2) and a solid surface (subscript S).

carbon emission and resulting global climate change.¹ Evaluation and implementation of proposed scenarios for injecting CO₂ into sedimentary reservoirs requires understanding the interactions between supercritical CO₂, aqueous brines, and the mineral phases found in the reservoir and overlying caprock. In particular the relative wetting of pore surfaces in the rock matrix by CO₂ and brine, characterized macroscopically by contact angles, controls the capillary pressure of the fluids in the pore and strongly influences the transport and ultimate distribution of CO₂ in the reservoir.^{2,3} Knowledge of molecular interactions between fluid and mineral phases can be used to develop larger-scale conceptual models

for multiphase surface wetting to help evaluate the fate of supercritical CO₂ in the reservoir.^{4,5}

A contact angle θ_C is defined here as the angle formed between the interface of a droplet and solid surface and the interface of the droplet and the surrounding bulk fluid phase (see Figure 1). For wetting fluids $\theta_C < \pi/2$ and for nonwetting fluids $\theta_C > \pi/2$. As described by Young's equation,

$$\gamma_{S1} = \gamma_{S2} + \gamma_{12} \cos \theta_C \quad (1)$$

the equilibrium contact angle results from the balance of forces between the interfacial tensions (or surface free energies) γ_{ij} between two fluids (subscripts 1 and 2) and a solid surface (subscript S). Note that this definition and eq 1 only truly apply to macroscopic systems, and complications may arise when contact angle is considered at the nanoscale. For example, as droplet size decreases, the free energy associated with creating the three-phase contact line may become significant and needs to be added to eq 1.^{6–8} Also, near the three-phase line molecular interactions between two phases can be altered by the presence of the third phase, resulting in a local nanoscale contact angle that may differ from its macroscopic value. While the work described in this paper is primarily concerned with

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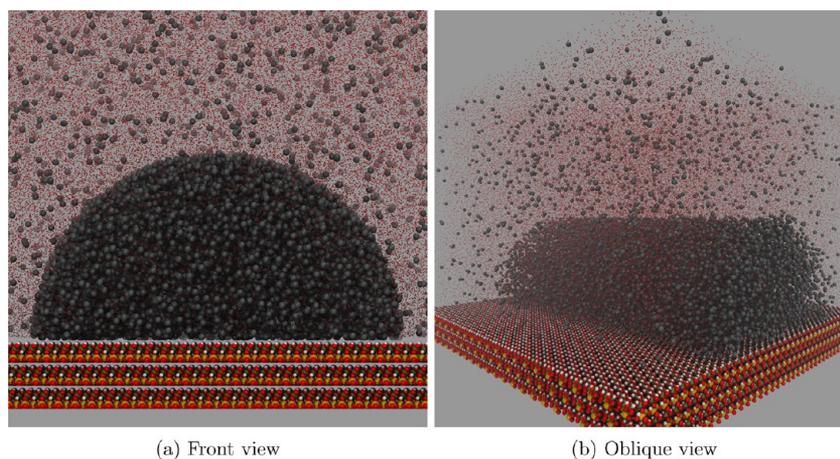


Figure 2. Initial configuration of an infinitely long CO₂ “droplet” on the gibbsite surface of kaolinite in the presence of water containing dissolved CO₂. Aluminum, silicon, oxygen, and hydrogen atoms within the kaolinite slab are represented as brown, yellow, red, and white spheres, respectively. Above the kaolinite slab black spheres are CO₂ carbon atoms and red dots are H₂O oxygen atoms. Atoms represented as spheres are rendered at 60% of their van der Waals radius.

general wetting trends and details of molecular ordering at interfaces, we attempted to minimize the potential for nano-versus macro-scale complications by simulating relatively large systems with cylindrical, as opposed to spherical, droplet geometries. The systems used in this study are described in greater detail in the next section. For the purposes of this paper, we will generally assume an interpretation of contact angle akin to that depicted in Figure 1.

In addition to influencing relative flows of CO₂ and brine during both injection and postinjection periods, interfacial tension and wetting behavior also determine the potential CO₂ storage capacity of a reservoir.^{9,10} The Young–Laplace equation

$$P_C = \gamma_{12} \frac{2 \cos \theta_C}{r} \quad (2)$$

describes the capillary pressure P_C across the interface of two fluids as a function of the surface tension γ_{12} , contact angle θ_C , and effective capillary (or pore) radius r . Each potential leakage pathway through the caprock has a minimum effective capillary radius, or tightest restriction, at some point along the path. As more CO₂ is injected, pressure exerted on the reservoir caprock by the buoyant CO₂ increases. Leakage will occur when the pressure due to buoyancy exceeds the capillary pressure of the pathway with the least restriction to flow. This critical capillary pressure is calculated from eq 2 using the minimum effective capillary radius of this flow path with the least restriction.

Experimental studies have been conducted to determine the wettability of caprock and reservoir materials in CO₂–brine systems,^{11–16} but reported wetting trends with respect to temperature, pressure, and brine composition are not always consistent.^{17,18} The main objective of this research is to provide nanoscale resolution of interactions at fluid–fluid and fluid–solid interfaces through molecular simulation to clarify some of the issues behind conflicting experimental results. Previous studies of contact angles using molecular simulation include water on graphene,^{19–21} water and surfactant on hydrocarbon surfaces,²² water on gold,²³ epoxy on SiO₂,²⁴ CO₂ and brine on quartz,²⁵ and water on kaolinite.²⁶ Molecular simulation has also been used to study interfacial tension in CO₂–water systems.^{27,28}

In this study we used molecular dynamics simulations^{29,30} to investigate interfacial behavior and evaluate contact angles for CO₂–brine–mineral systems. Accurate interatomic potentials^{31,32} were used to evaluate the energy and forces associated with hundreds of thousands of atoms for various fluid droplet configurations on the basal surfaces of kaolinite, a common clay mineral. Clay minerals are present in many potential sites being considered for carbon sequestration, where the clay phases occur as coatings on sandstone grains and as the dominant mineral phase of shale caprocks. Some clay phases provide relatively uniform basal surfaces that are suitable for experimental determinations of contact angles. Kaolinite is characterized by both hydrophilic and hydrophobic basal surfaces, which allows investigation of contrasting wetting behavior for CO₂ and aqueous phases that would exist in the reservoir. Although recent experimental evidence has shown that supercritical CO₂ intercalates and expands low-charge smectite minerals such as montmorillonite,^{33–35} kaolinite does not appear to swell with CO₂ at such conditions. In addition to providing the foundational science for understanding the molecular control in wetting processes, such results can be used to improve capillary flow and capillary trapping models to better assess the disposition of CO₂ in sequestration reservoirs.

■ SIMULATION DETAILS

Kaolinite was chosen as the model mineral surface for this study because it provides a relatively simple substrate for studying surface adsorption, due to its lack of interlayer mineral sites and the presence of both hydrophilic and hydrophobic basal surfaces. Kaolinite^{36–39} (Al₂Si₂O₅(OH)₄) is a 1:1 layer clay wherein each layer is made up of an AlO₆ octahedral sheet and a SiO₄ tetrahedral sheet. Figure S1 in the Supporting Information shows the structure for a kaolinite unit cell. Throughout this paper the octahedral sheet will be referred to as the gibbsite surface, and the tetrahedral sheet as the siloxane surface. The basal siloxane surface is relatively hydrophobic, while the basal gibbsite surface is quite hydrophilic and capable of significant hydrogen bonding.²⁶ Layers are held together by hydrogen bonds between hydroxyl groups extending from the gibbsite surface of one layer to the basal oxygens on the siloxane surface of the next layer. The systems studied in this work focus solely upon the basal surfaces of kaolinite. Carbon

Table 1. CO₂-Brine-Mineral Simulation Systems Referred to in This Study

	number of molecules			
	CO ₂	H ₂ O	NaCl	CaCl ₂
Kaolinite Gibbsite Surface				
CO ₂ droplet in H ₂ O	15 000	130 000		
CO ₂ droplet in 0.78 M NaCl	14 000	118 000	1650	
CO ₂ droplet in 0.26 M CaCl ₂	14 000	118 000		550
Kaolinite Siloxane Surface				
CO ₂ droplet in H ₂ O	7000	150 000		
CO ₂ droplet in 0.78 M NaCl	7000	150 000	2100	
CO ₂ droplet in 0.26 M CaCl ₂	7000	150 000		700
H ₂ O droplet in CO ₂	52 000	32 000		
0.78 M NaCl droplet in CO ₂	40 000	32 000	450	
0.26 M CaCl ₂ droplet in CO ₂	40 000	32 000		150

dioxide is expected to be more reactive at kaolinite edges, where protonation–deprotonation reactions with the brine or CO₂ fluid can control reactions with the clay. While it is known that charge density on the basal surfaces of kaolinite can vary with pH,⁴⁰ we did not attempt to explicitly account for this, and instead allowed the initial, experimentally derived crystal structure⁴¹ to relax and adsorb fluid species as dictated by the simulation force field.

Figure 2 shows the initial configuration used for the simulation of a CO₂ droplet in contact with the gibbsite surface of kaolinite in an environment of water and dissolved CO₂. The simulation cell contains a three-layer slab of kaolinite (approximately 2 nm thick) with fluid located adjacent to the gibbsite surface. For the half-cylinder droplet shown in Figure 2, periodic boundary conditions result in an infinitely long droplet or filament. Cylindrical droplet geometries have been used previously for determination of contact angle via molecular simulation and study of the effects of the three-phase line tension.²¹ A cylindrical droplet geometry was chosen in favor of conventional spherical geometry to reduce two potential scale effects. First, use of cylindrical geometry reduces droplet curvature, which reduces the pressure differential across the liquid–liquid interface of these nanoscale droplets (eq 2), which improves the match between nano- and macroscale pressures interior to the droplet. Second, use of cylindrical geometry eliminates the influence of the three-phase line tension, which can significantly influence contact angle results at small length scales.^{6–8} Previous simulations using spherical droplets (not shown) showed no preferential wetting direction

on either basal surface of kaolinite, and the effect of different orientations of the cylindrical droplet axis was not explored.

Similar initial configurations were used for most of the systems described in this paper. These other systems may include the use of NaCl or CaCl₂ brines instead of pure water, an aqueous droplet surrounded by CO₂ instead of CO₂ surrounded by water, or the siloxane surface instead of gibbsite. Table 1 summarizes the CO₂-brine-mineral simulation systems referred to in this paper. Na⁺, Ca²⁺, and Cl[−] are the most common ionic constituents found in deep brine reservoirs of interest for CO₂ sequestration.⁴² Simplified NaCl and CaCl₂ brines were used in this study to isolate the behavior of monovalent and divalent cations. Brine compositions were chosen to result in approximately identical ionic strengths.

All systems were simulated at a temperature of 330 K and a pressure of 20 MPa, which is above the critical point for carbon dioxide and represents a realistic temperature and pressure for a deep saline aquifer. Further details regarding the methods and parameters used for simulation and analysis in this study can be found in the Supporting Information.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 3a shows the final configuration of an infinitely long cylindrical supercritical CO₂ droplet interacting with the basal gibbsite surface of kaolinite in the presence of water and dissolved CO₂. Figure 4 shows the time- and space-averaged relative densities of CO₂ and H₂O around the droplet for the same system. Figure 4b shows clearly that the CO₂ droplet is separated from the mineral surface by a thin, dense water layer (the bright, white line) at approximately $z = 0.15$ nm and a second, much more diffuse water film located at approximately $z = 0.5$ nm. Slightly enhanced mixing of CO₂ at the bottom of the droplet into the top of the diffuse water film at $z = 0.5$ nm can be seen in Figure 4a. These observations suggest that the wetting behavior of CO₂ on the hydrophilic surface of kaolinite is strongly influenced by intervening water at the mineral surface.

Replacing water with brine in the simulation system reduces CO₂ wetting of the gibbsite surface of kaolinite. Figure 3b and c show supercritical CO₂ droplets floating freely above the gibbsite surface of kaolinite in the presence of CaCl₂ and NaCl brines, respectively. In contrast to the CO₂-water system shown in Figure 3a, which started from a similar initial configuration, CO₂ droplets in the presence of brine detached completely from the mineral surface. Figures 5 and 6 show the time- and space-averaged relative densities of CO₂, H₂O, and ions around

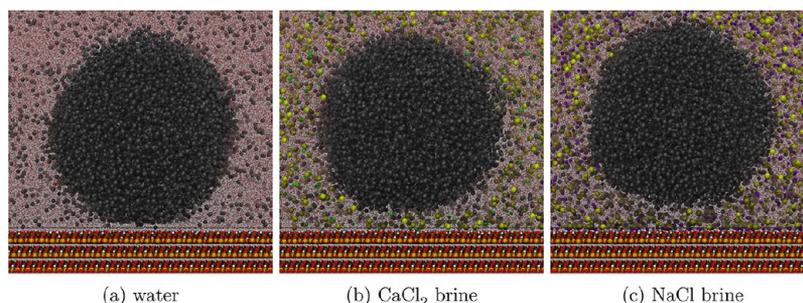


Figure 3. Snapshots of CO₂ droplets on the gibbsite surface of kaolinite in the presence of (a) water, (b) 0.26 M CaCl₂ brine, or (c) 0.78 M NaCl brine at 330 K and 20 MPa. Aluminum, silicon, oxygen, and hydrogen atoms within the kaolinite slab are represented as brown, yellow, red, and white spheres, respectively. Above the kaolinite slab black spheres are CO₂ carbon atoms; small red dots are H₂O oxygen atoms; and yellow, green, and purple spheres are Cl[−], Ca²⁺, and Na⁺ ions, respectively. Atoms represented as spheres are rendered at 60% of their van der Waals radii.

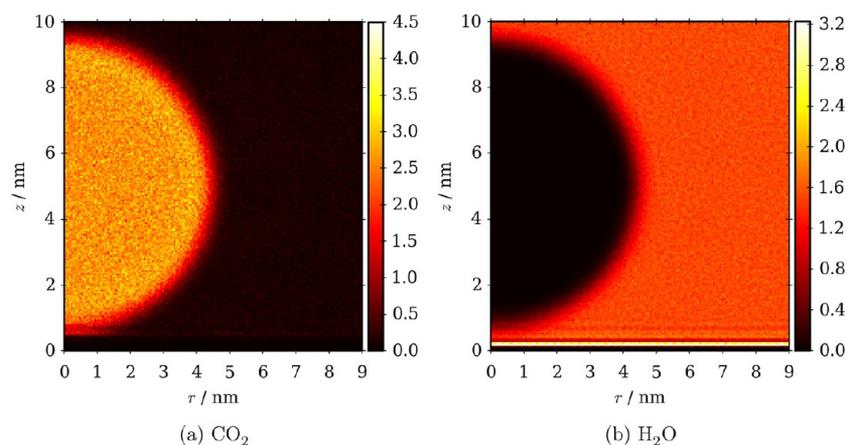


Figure 4. Relative density of CO₂ and H₂O averaged over the final 2 ns of simulation around and along the plane of (approximate) system symmetry passing through the long axis of the CO₂ droplet on the gibbsite surface of kaolinite in the presence of water pictured in Figure 3a. Relative densities vary from 0 (black), through intermediate values (red to yellow), to the maximum value observed in the system (white). A relative density of 1 corresponds to the mean density of the indicated species within the simulation box. For the vertical axis $z = 0$ nm corresponds to the initial z position of the hydrogen atoms in the outer gibbsite surface of the kaolinite slab.

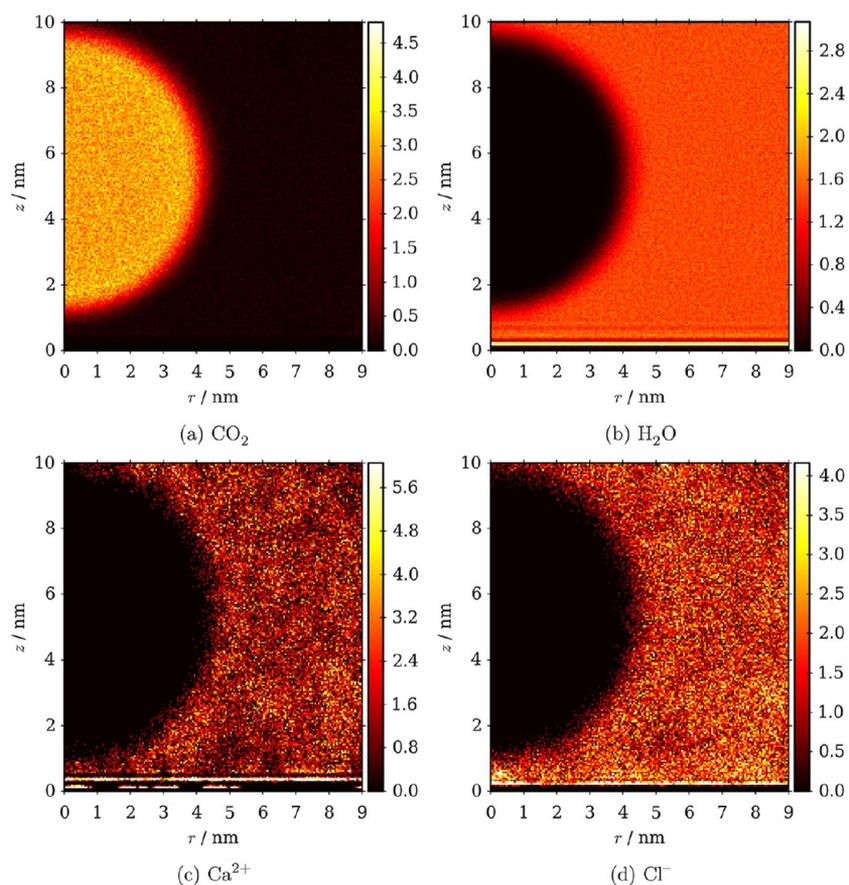


Figure 5. Relative density of various species for the CO₂ droplet on the gibbsite surface of kaolinite in the presence of CaCl₂ brine pictured in Figure 3b. Averaging methodology, color scales, and axes are as described for Figure 4

the CO₂ droplet for the CaCl₂ and NaCl brine-containing systems, respectively. Significant adsorption of water, cations, and anions at the mineral surface is evident. Figure 5c shows formation of a distinct layer of Ca²⁺ interacting with the mineral surface through a layer of intermediate water molecules. The highest density of Cl⁻ anions (Figure 5d) in this system occurs between the mineral surface and the layer of Ca²⁺. This contrasts with the behavior seen in Figure 6c, where a distinct

layer of Na⁺ interacts directly with the mineral surface and Cl⁻ density (Figure 6d) is highest just outside this Na⁺ layer. The relative adsorption behavior of Ca²⁺ and Na⁺ is consistent with their hydration energies, where the divalent cation prefers coordination by water molecules, rather than adsorbing directly to the surface as Na⁺ does in these simulations. Figures 5a and 6a show no association of CO₂ with the mineral surface or water/ion layers just above the mineral surface. This contrasts

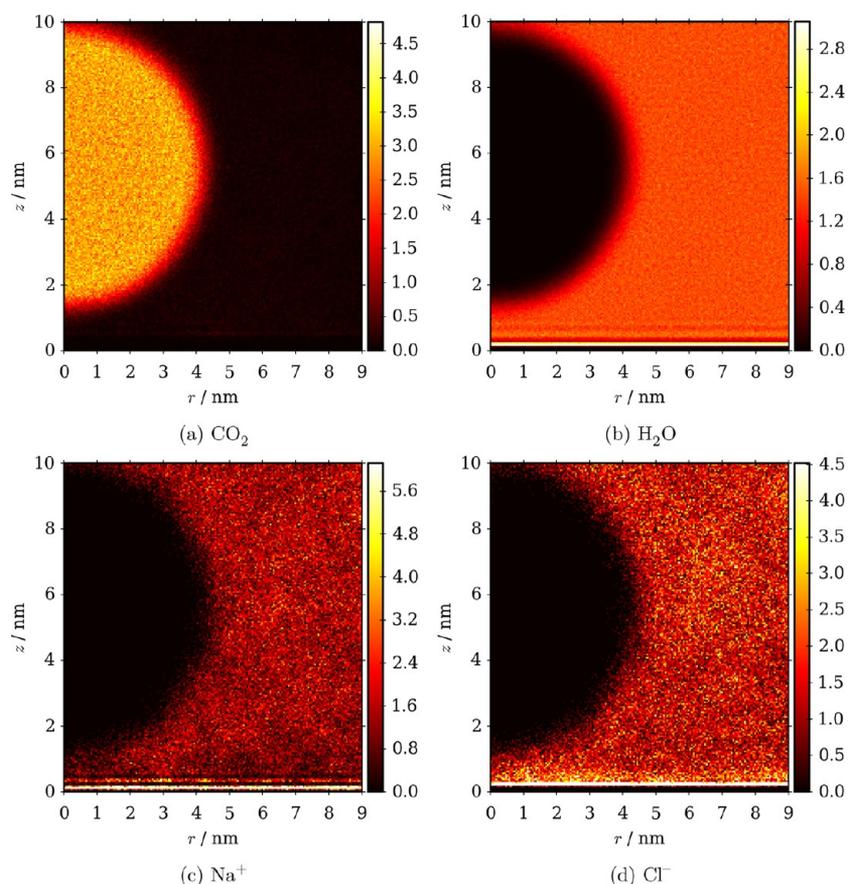


Figure 6. Relative density of various species for the CO₂ droplet on the gibbsite surface of kaolinite in the presence of NaCl brine pictured in Figure 3c. Averaging methodology, color scales, and axes are as described for Figure 4

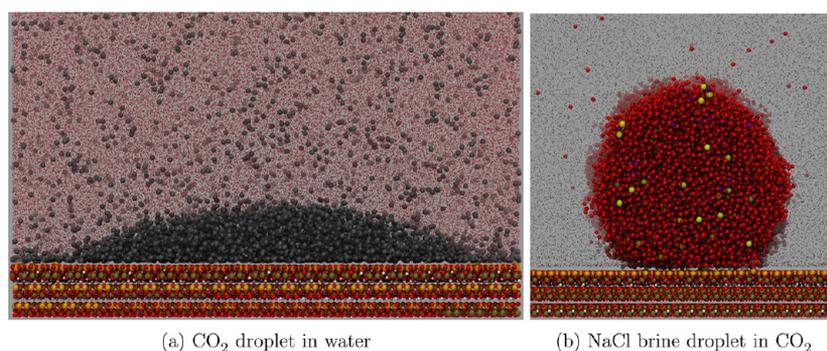


Figure 7. Droplets on the siloxane surface of kaolinite at 330 K and 20 MPa. (a) CO₂ droplet in the presence of water. Above the kaolinite slab, black spheres are CO₂ carbon atoms and red dots are H₂O oxygen atoms. (b) NaCl brine droplet in the presence of CO₂. Above the kaolinite slab black dots are CO₂ carbon atoms, red spheres are H₂O oxygen atoms, yellow spheres are Cl⁻, and purple spheres are Na⁺. For both figures aluminum, silicon, oxygen, and hydrogen atoms within the kaolinite slab are represented as brown, yellow, red, and white spheres, respectively. Atoms represented as spheres are rendered at 60% of their van der Waals radii.

with observations from Figure 4a, which showed slightly enhanced mixing of CO₂ from the droplet with the diffuse water layer just above the mineral surface. The reduced interaction and resulting detachment of the CO₂ droplet from the surface may be due to the lower solubility of CO₂ in brine, an effect which may be further enhanced near the mineral surface due to the increased presence and ordering of ions.

Simulations of water or brine droplets on the gibbsite surface of kaolinite in the presence of CO₂ all resulted in essentially complete wetting of the surface by the aqueous phase and are not shown. As required by eq 1, (nearly) complete wetting of

the surface by the aqueous phase is consistent with (nearly) complete nonwetting of the surface by the CO₂ phase, which is the behavior described above.

Figure 7a shows the final configuration of a supercritical CO₂ droplet interacting with the siloxane surface of kaolinite in the presence of water. The droplet geometry indicates strong wetting of the siloxane surface by CO₂. Similar systems using brine instead of water displayed similar behavior and are not shown. Unlike other systems described in this paper, the initial configuration for this system was a hemisphere of CO₂ on the outer siloxane surface of the kaolinite slab, rather than an

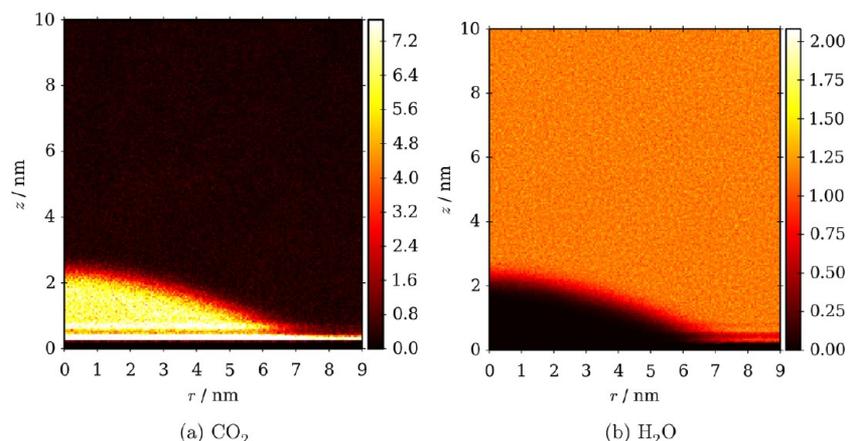


Figure 8. Relative density of CO₂ and H₂O averaged around and along the plane of (approximate) system symmetry passing through the long axis of the CO₂ droplet in Figure 7a for the final 2 ns of the simulation. Relative densities vary from 0 (black), through intermediate values (red to yellow), to the maximum value observed in the system (white). A relative density of 1 corresponds to the mean density of the indicated species within the simulation box. For the vertical axis $z = 0$ nm corresponds to the initial z position of the oxygen atoms in the outer siloxane surface of the kaolinite slab.

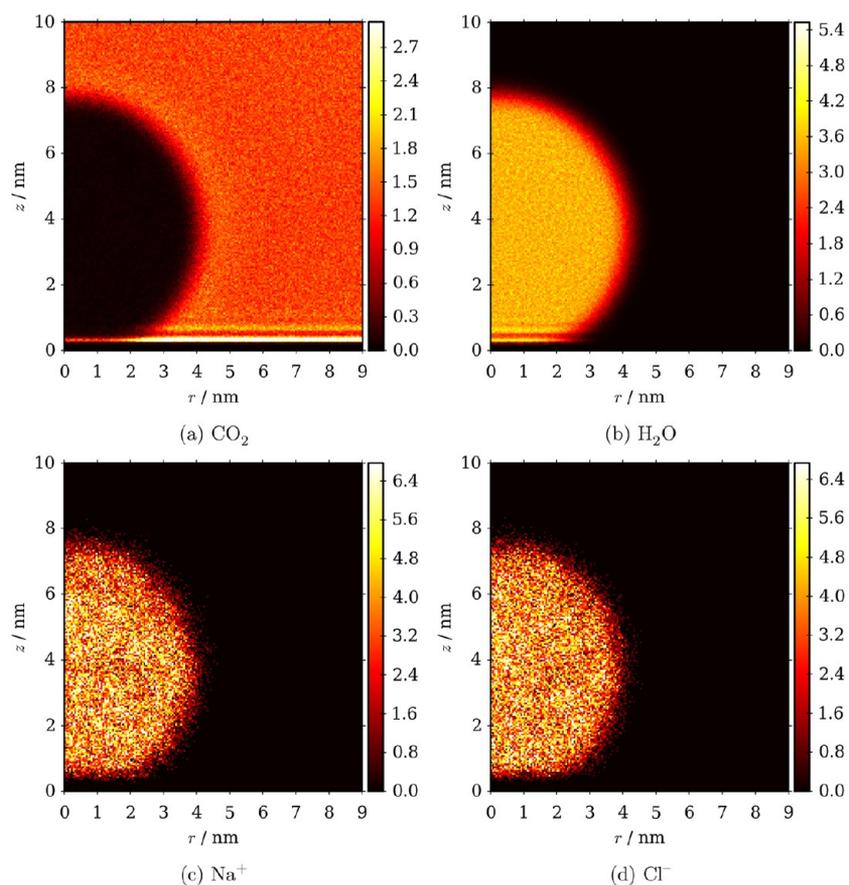


Figure 9. Relative density of various species for a NaCl brine droplet on the siloxane surface of kaolinite in the presence of supercritical CO₂. Averaging methodology, color scales, and axes are as described for Figure 8.

infinite half cylinder like that shown in Figure 2. Although the droplet started as a hemisphere, it spontaneously rearranged into the infinitely long mound of CO₂ pictured in Figure 7a. The evolution and long-term behavior of similar CO₂-on-siloxane systems with greater or lesser numbers of CO₂ molecules (not shown) were strongly dependent upon the number of CO₂ molecules present in the system. If too few CO₂ molecules were available, an isolated (i.e., finite) mound or

scattered clusters of adsorbed CO₂ formed instead of an infinitely long mound. If too many CO₂ molecules were present, droplet edges interacted with periodic images of the droplet, and an infinite sheet of CO₂ formed over the entire siloxane surface. Figure 8 shows the time- and space-averaged relative density of CO₂ and H₂O around the droplet for the system shown in Figure 7a. Figure 8a shows a distinct layer of CO₂ interacting directly with the entire siloxane surface. Under

Table 2. Contact Angles at 330 K and 20 MPa Measured from Simulation Results.^a

	aqueous phase		
	H ₂ O	0.78 M NaCl	0.26 M CaCl ₂
kaolinite gibbsite surface			
CO ₂ droplet in aqueous phase	169° ± 3°	180°	180°
aqueous droplet in CO ₂	–	–	–
kaolinite siloxane surface			
CO ₂ droplet in aqueous phase	31° ± 6°	26° ± 6°	34° ± 6°
aqueous droplet in CO ₂	145° ± 3°	141° ± 3°	145° ± 3°

^aUncertainties were estimated based upon measurement uncertainties of droplet dimensions. Systems for which a contact angle could not be determined are denoted by “–”.

the droplet this CO₂ layer completely excludes water, as shown by Figure 8b. Above the CO₂ layer interacting directly with the mineral surface is a region of depleted CO₂ density, followed by a region of slightly enhanced CO₂ density, which forms the base of the droplet. Beyond the edge of the CO₂ droplet, CO₂ and H₂O both interact directly with the siloxane surface. This contrasts with what is seen for gibbsite surfaces, where only H₂O interacts directly with the mineral (cf. Figure 4)

Figure 7b shows a snapshot of a NaCl brine droplet interacting with the siloxane surface of kaolinite in the presence of supercritical CO₂. Similar systems using water or CaCl₂ brine instead of NaCl brine displayed essentially identical behavior and are not shown. Figure 9 shows the time- and space-averaged relative density of CO₂, H₂O, Na⁺, and Cl⁻ around the droplet for the NaCl brine system. Results for the CaCl₂ system were similar and are not shown. Many of the observations made previously in the discussion of CO₂ droplets on the siloxane surface of kaolinite (Figure 8) also apply to Figure 9. Specifically, there exists a distinct CO₂ layer that interacts directly with the entire mineral surface. The formation of a second high-density region of CO₂ approximately 0.5–1.0 nm above the mineral surface in the bulk CO₂ region is also apparent in Figure 9a. As seen previously in Figure 8 and again now in Figure 9a and b, both H₂O and CO₂ interact directly with the siloxane surface when an aqueous phase, in this case the brine droplet, is present above the surface. Unlike the behavior of brines over the gibbsite surface of kaolinite (Figures 5 and 6), Figure 9c and d display no preferential ordering of ions relative to the siloxane surface. Instead, ions appear to be distributed uniformly throughout the aqueous droplet. Also unlike the case seen with the gibbsite surface, wetting behavior did not appear to be greatly altered when switching the aqueous phase from water to NaCl or CaCl₂ brines.

Table 2 summarizes the contact angles measured from simulations of the systems studied in this work. The gibbsite surface of kaolinite is very strongly water-wetting and the siloxane surface strongly CO₂-wetting. As required by theory (eq 1), contact angles observed for CO₂-on-siloxane systems are the 180° supplement of contact angles for the water- or brine-on-siloxane systems. The strong water-wetting behavior of the gibbsite surface of kaolinite prevented direct determination of aqueous phase contact angles for that surface, but based upon contact angles measured for CO₂ droplets on the gibbsite surface, aqueous droplet contact angles would be less than 10°.

Using the definition of contact angle depicted in Figure 1, experimental measurements of contact angles for carbon

dioxide on kaolinite in the presence of water or brine are approximately 160° ± 5°,⁴ indicating that kaolinite is water-wetting. Unlike the model kaolinite surfaces used in this simulation study, these experimental contact angles were not measured for either the gibbsite or siloxane basal surfaces. Instead, experimental results correspond to contact angles measured over macroscopic surfaces composed of a likely random distribution of micro- or nanoscale crystals, which could present a hydrophobic or hydrophilic face or edge to the fluid phase. Consequently, direct comparison of experimental and simulation contact angles on basal surfaces is not practical for kaolinite.

This work predicts that the nanoscale distribution of wetting and nonwetting species can differ significantly for different mineral surfaces, in spite of similar macroscopic contact angles. Because nucleation and precipitation of carbonate minerals depend on the local distribution of CO₂, H₂O, and dissolved ion species, nanoscale surface interactions can influence mineralization of injected carbon. While mineral trapping is desired for secure sequestration of CO₂, precipitation and dissolution of minerals necessarily alter pore structure within the rock matrix, thereby influencing fluid transport. The long-term fate of CO₂ will ultimately be controlled by the mixing of the injected CO₂ with reservoir brine to achieve thermodynamic saturation. Reliably understanding, predicting, and controlling CO₂ sequestration will require accounting for complex, coupled mechanisms of reaction and transport over a wide range of time and length scales.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

📄 Supporting Information

Additional simulation setup and analysis details, force field parameters, and example LAMMPS input scripts are included in the Supporting Information. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org/>.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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