

Original article

Petrophysical recipe for in-situ CO₂ mineralization in basalt rocks

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Abstract:

In-situ carbon dioxide mineralization in basalt rocks has been identified as a scalable, fast, safe, permanent, and cost-effective method to offset the anthropogenic carbon dioxide emissions. In-situ carbon dioxide mineralization refers to underground carbon dioxide transformation to carbonate minerals in basalt reservoirs. Although current field applications achieved fast in-situ carbon dioxide mineralization, limited petrophysical criteria have been proposed to screen a potential site to implement in-situ carbon dioxide mineralization. To fill this knowledge gap, geochemical modellings were performed to find an optimal petrophysical recipe, including pressure, temperature, pH, and mineral composition, to conduct in-situ carbon dioxide mineralization. The geochemical modellings showed that increasing pressure was favourable to increase water uptake of carbon dioxide, host rock dissolution, and in-situ carbon dioxide mineralization. However, a higher temperature depressed the in-situ carbon dioxide mineralization. Furthermore, the in-situ carbon dioxide mineralization was unravelled to be heavily pH dependent. Most magnesite precipitated in pH range from 9 to 11. Moreover, the forsterite was identified as the major contributing minerals while anorthite, fayalite, and diopside played a minor role in the in-situ carbon dioxide mineralization. This investigation provided a general protocol to screen the optimal petrophysical conditions for in-situ carbon dioxide mineralization.

1. Introduction

To achieve net-zero goal by 2050, at least 107 Gt carbon dioxide (CO₂) is required to be removed from air (data from IEA Clean Technology Scenario (Agency, 2019)). Surface storage of such amount of CO₂ is a significant challenge. Underground CO₂ storage is thus put forward to mitigate the anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions. CO₂ captured from direct air capture or large point source emitters (e.g., coal power plants) is injected into underground reservoirs for permanent storage (Chen et al., 2021, 2023; Zhong et al., 2023).

Conventional CO₂ geological storage mainly holds CO₂ in saline formations (Bentham and Kirby, 2005; Michael et al., 2009; Bachu, 2015) and depleted oil and gas reservoirs. The conventional CO₂ geological storage keeps CO₂

underground by four major mechanisms: 1) residual trapping (capillary force immobilizes CO₂ ganglions in pores) (Saeedi et al., 2012); 2) structural trapping (caprock blocks upward CO₂ migration by high capillary entry pressures) (Bradshaw et al., 2007; Nilsen et al., 2012; Gasda et al., 2013); 3) dissolution trapping (CO₂ dissolves in brine) (Anchliya et al., 2012; Agartan et al., 2015; Soltanian et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018); and 4) mineral trapping (or geochemical trapping, CO₂ converts to minerals) (Underschultz et al., 2011; Hannis et al., 2017; Pearce et al., 2022a, 2022b). Although large amount of CO₂ can be injected into underground reservoirs (Bradshaw et al., 2007), most CO₂ exists in a liquid or supercritical status, which is not stable and is likely to leak to surface. To mitigate this leakage risk, in-situ CO₂ mineralization method was thus proposed, where the CO₂ is injected into highly reactive

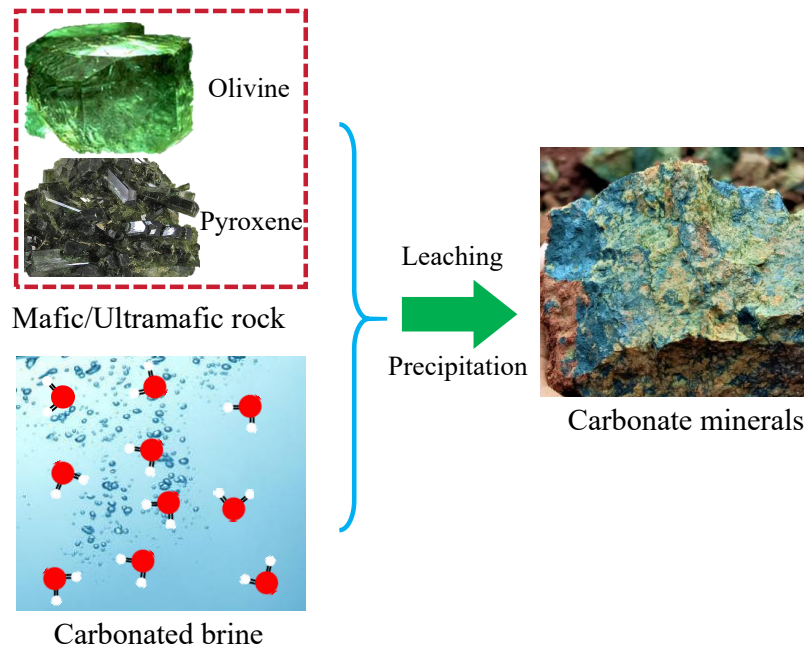


Fig. 1. Schematic graph of in-situ “carbon locking” process.

basaltic rocks to convert the gaseous CO_2 to inactive solid carbonate minerals.

The basalt rocks include mafic and ultramafic minerals, which can be magnitudes more reactive than the conventional sandstone rocks (Schaefer et al., 2011). This character enables a rapid in-situ CO_2 conversion to carbonate minerals. This rapid in-situ CO_2 mineralization in mafic and ultramafic rocks can be achieved through two key processes: host rock leaching and carbonate mineral precipitations (as shown in Fig. 1) (Raza et al., 2022). In the leaching process, the reactive minerals (especially Ca, Mg, and Fe bearing minerals) dissolve and release cations once exposed to acidic CO_2 -rich brine. This leaching process is much faster than the natural weathering due to the vulnerable character of mafic and ultramafic rocks in acidic CO_2 -rich brine (Hartmann et al., 2013). The leached cations (Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and Fe^{2+}) then combine with the CO_3^{2-} to form the carbonate precipitations and thus achieve in-situ CO_2 mineralization (Kanakiya et al., 2017).

The fast leaching is crucial to achieve efficient in-situ CO_2 mineralization. As Goldich dissolution series predicted, the dissolution rate of mafic and ultramafic rocks follows a sequence of olivine, pyroxene, amphibole, and biotite. For example, the forsterite (a family member of olivine) dissolution rate can reach over 10^{-12} mol/cm²/s (from Oelkers et al. (2018)). This fast dissolution accelerates cations releasing for subsequent formation of carbonate minerals. In addition to dissolution reaction, serpentinization releases cations from host rock to aqueous phase. The serpentinization produces Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and Fe^{2+} through hydrolysis reaction at low-temperature (Klein et al., 2013), which combine with CO_3^{2-} to form carbonate minerals. Collectively, in the carbonated brine, the dissolution and serpentinization reactions weaken the host mafic rocks and promote fast cation leaching. The leached cations, including Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and Fe^{2+} (and Fe^{3+}),

combine with CO_3^{2-} to form carbonate minerals, which enables permanent in-situ CO_2 mineralization.

Fast in-situ CO_2 mineralization was reported to accomplish in basalt reservoirs within 2-4 years, such as the CarbFix project and Wallula Basalt Pilot Project. Specifically, the CarbFix project reported a substantially fast in-situ CO_2 mineralization in Iceland (Gunnarsson et al., 2018; Pogge von Strandmann et al., 2019). A total of 165 ± 8.3 t CO_2 was mineralized, 93% dissolved Ca was precipitated as calcite, and $72 \pm 5\%$ injected carbon was mineralized within two years (Pogge von Strandmann et al., 2019). Wallula Basalt Project injected supercritical CO_2 into the Columbia River Basalt Group (McGrail et al., 2014). The Columbia River Basalt Group is one of the best-preserved continental flood basalt provinces on Earth. They estimated that 10-50 Gt CO_2 can be converted to minerals in the Miocene Columbia River Basalt Group (McGrail et al., 2014). They proved the feasibility to implement the in-situ CO_2 mineralization in the continental flood basalt, which can extend the application to in-situ CO_2 mineralization in India, U.S. and Australia. In addition, the 44.01 project started commercial CO_2 injection in periodate rocks in Oman in 2023. Kelemen and Matter (Kelemen and Matter, 2008) estimated that carbonating CO_2 with only 1 wt% periodate in Oman would lock 25% of all atmospheric CO_2 , which is almost the increased amount of CO_2 since industrial revolution. Collectively, current projects proved that fast and secure in-situ CO_2 mineralization is feasible in basalt formations.

Knowledge gaps and operational risks still exist in large-scale in-situ CO_2 mineralization. Firstly, current research has not determined an effective petrophysical recipe to implement in-situ CO_2 mineralization. For example, the effects of temperature and pressure have not been evaluated for their role in in-situ CO_2 mineralization. Secondly, the kinetics of host

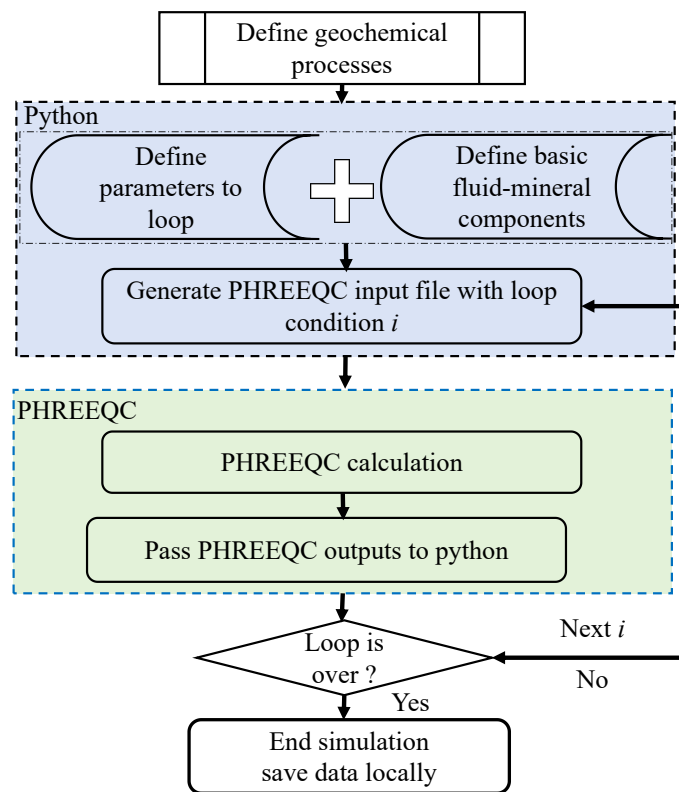


Fig. 2. Schematic diagram for coupling PHREEQC and Python to batch model the in-situ CO₂ mineralization under various temperature and pressure conditions.

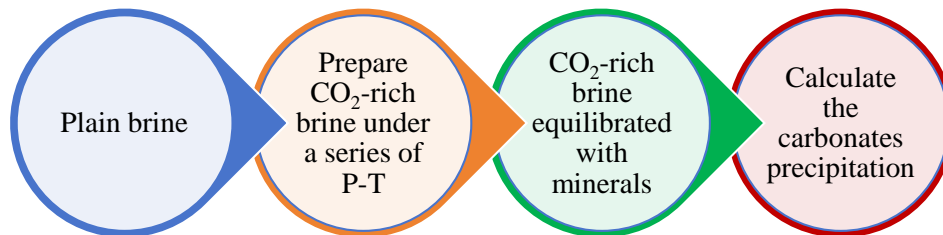


Fig. 3. Procedure to batch model the in-situ CO₂ mineralization (plain brine refers to the non-carbonated brine).

rock leaching and carbonate precipitation have not been well understood. The kinetic in-situ CO₂ mineralization has not been delineated at time scale. Thirdly, due to the dissolution of minerals, the dynamic evolution of fluid chemistry (e.g., pH) can yield various carbonate minerals. However, limited evaluation was performed to understand this process. To mitigate the potential risks and standardize the operation procedure, this investigation aims to find an effective petrophysical recipe to implement the in-situ CO₂ mineralization, including temperature, pressure, kinetics, pH, and brine compositions.

2. Methodology

2.1 Model description and assumptions

To model the in-situ CO₂ mineralization, a series of equilibrium reactions (batch reactions) were set up to evaluate the carbonate precipitations under multiple temperature and pressure conditions. The PHREEQC (Charlton and

Parkhurst, 2011) (version: IPhreeqcCOM-3.7.3-15,968) was coupled with Python (version 3.9.13 distributed with Anaconda). In this coupling, the PHREEQC was the chemical reaction engine while the Python facilitated the iterations over temperature and pressure conditions (Fig. 2). The PHREEQC can simulate the batch reactions at a specific temperature and pressure. However, the built-in looping capacity in the PHREEQC is limited with I/O (input/output) capacity. Python was thus coupled to assist the batch modelling with its full looping and file operation capacities.

To evaluate the in-situ CO₂ mineralization at field scale, the batch modellings were prepared based on the procedure of field operation. As shown in Fig. 3, the in-situ CO₂ mineralization was modelled with three steps against the data from CarbFix project: 1) brine was equilibrated with CO₂ under the field temperature and pressure to obtain the CO₂ saturated brine, 2) the CO₂ saturated brine was equilibrated with host rock at the same field pressure and temperature,

Table 1. Geochemical reactions of in-situ CO₂ mineralization.

Reaction location/type	Mineral	Reaction	Log <i>K</i>
Host rock/dissolution	Albite	$\text{NaAlSi}_3\text{O}_8 + 4\text{H}^+ = \text{Al}^{3+} + \text{Na}^+ + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 3\text{SiO}_2$	2.7645
	Anorthite	$\text{CaAl}_2(\text{SiO}_4)_2 + 8\text{H}^+ = \text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{Al}^{3+} + 2\text{SiO}_2 + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	26.578
	Fayalite	$\text{Fe}_2\text{SiO}_4 + 4\text{H}^+ = \text{SiO}_2 + 2\text{Fe}^{2+} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	19.1113
	Forsterite	$\text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4 + 4\text{H}^+ = \text{SiO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{Mg}^{2+}$	27.8626
	Diopside	$\text{CaMgSi}_2\text{O}_6 + 4\text{H}^+ = \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{SiO}_2$	20.9643
Aquifer/Mineral precipitation	Calcite	$\text{CaCO}_3 + \text{H}^+ = \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{HCO}_3^-$	1.8487
	Magnesite	$\text{MgCO}_3 + \text{H}^+ = \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{Mg}^{2+}$	2.2936
	Brucite	$\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2 + 2\text{H}^+ = \text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	16.298
	Siderite	$\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{Fe}^{2+} = \text{FeCO}_3 + \text{H}^+$	0.192
Aquifer/Carbonation	Carbonation	$\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{H}^+ = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	6.3447

Notes: The thermodynamic data are from Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory hermos.com. V8.R6.230 thermodynamic database.

and 3) the generation of carbonate minerals was calculated at equilibrium status. In the batch modellings, the rock/water volume ratio was 4:1 for a 20% porosity scenario. The same rock/water ratio applied to the kinetics modelling.

To evaluate the time-elapsed in-situ CO₂ mineralization, the generations of mineral species were evaluated through the kinetic calculations in PHREEQC. To be specific, the KINETICS and RATES module in PHREEQC were utilized to evaluate the dynamic dissolution and precipitation process. The mathematical equations of reaction rates were defined in the RATES module. The rate equations were then integrated over each time step with the Runge-Kutta algorithm. The kinetic calculation was facilitated by the BASIC library compiled by Zhang et al. (2019).

2.2 Batch geochemical reaction settings

To evaluate the host rock dissolution and carbonate precipitation, the dissolution reactions were modelled for the major minerals in mafic and ultramafic rocks, including plagioclase, fayalite (Fe₂SiO₄), and forsterite (Mg₂SiO₄). Given the albite (NaAlSi₃O₈) and anorthite (CaAl₂Si₂O₈) are sodium-rich and calcium-rich end members of plagioclase family, this model included the albite and anorthite to examine the effects of plagioclase in in-situ CO₂ mineralization. Furthermore, fayalite and forsterite are iron-rich and magnesium-rich end members of olivine family. To evaluate the effects of ultramafic rocks in in-situ CO₂ mineralization, fayalite and forsterite were included as the representative ultramafic minerals. The geochemical reactions were listed in Table 1.

2.3 Kinetic geochemical reaction settings

To model the dynamic mineralization process, a general rate equation was employed (as shown in Eqs. (1)-(4)). As indicated in the mathematical equation, the kinetics is a function of reactive surface area, species activity, activation energy, and saturation index. The reaction rates were from

Palandri and Kharaka (2004). In this kinetic calculation, the reactive surface area was assumed to be 20 cm²/kgw (kilogram water) (Aradóttir et al., 2012):

$$r_a = S_A A_{\text{H}} e^{-E_{a,\text{H}}/RT} a_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}} (1 - \Omega^{p_1})^{q_1} \quad (1)$$

$$r_w = S_A A_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} e^{-E_{a,\text{H}_2\text{O}}/RT} (1 - \Omega^{p_2})^{q_2} \quad (2)$$

$$r_b = S_A A_{\text{OH}} e^{-E_{a,\text{OH}}/RT} a_{\text{OH}}^{\text{OH}} (1 - \Omega^{p_3})^{q_3} \quad (3)$$

$$r_n = r_a + r_w + r_b \quad (4)$$

where r_n is the net dissolution rate of a mineral phase, r_a is the mineral dissolution rate caused by H⁺, r_w is the mineral dissolution rate caused by H₂O, r_b is the mineral dissolution rate caused by OH⁻, S_A is the surface area of per unit water mass (m²/(kgw)), A is the pre-exponential factor (mol/(m²·s)), E_a is the activation energy (J/mol), T is the absolute temperature (K), a is the species activity, R is the ideal gas constant, Ω is the saturation index, p_1 , p_2 , p_3 , q_1 , q_2 , and q_3 are dimensionless empirical parameters. The subscripts H, H₂O, and OH represent H⁺, H₂O, and OH⁻, respectively.

2.4 Input data from CarbFix field in-situ CO₂ mineralization project

To verify the fast in-situ CO₂ mineralization, the in-situ CO₂ mineralization process was calculated against the field observation data from CarbFix project. The rock composition was from Aradóttir et al. (2012) with 13% olivine, 43% plagioclase, 39% pyroxene, and 5% basalt glasses in weight, respectively. The olivine was composed of 20% fayalite and 80% forsterite. The plagioclase was composed of 30% albite and 70% anorthite. Diopside was the major component of pyroxene. All the information was extracted from Tables 3-4 of Aradóttir et al. (2012) and references therein.

To evaluate the effects of brine composition in in-situ CO₂

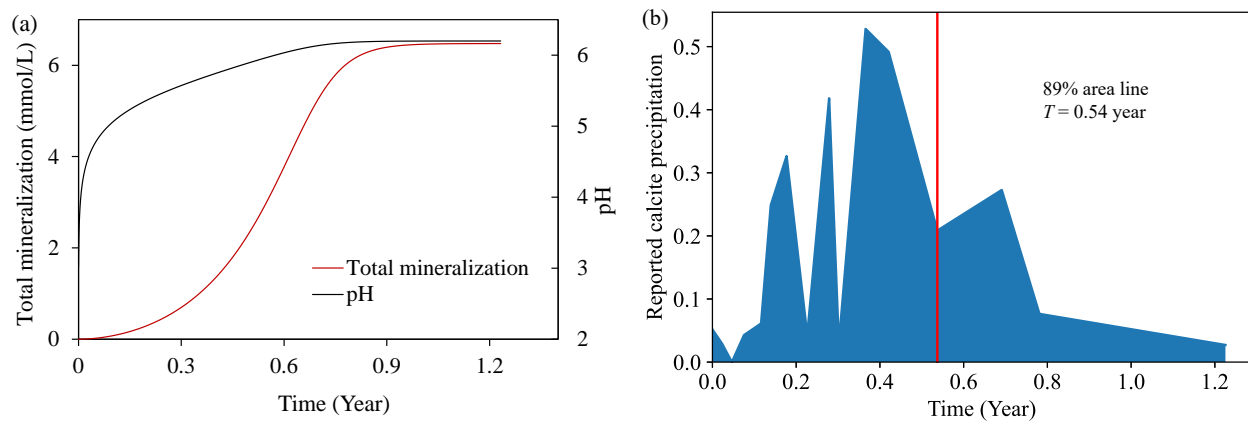


Fig. 4. Kinetics of in-situ CO₂ mineralization. (a) is the kinetic modelling of in-situ CO₂ mineralization with input petrophysical data from CarbFix project at the pressure of 1,469.5 psi and temperature at 25 °C; and (b) is the data retrieved and digitalized from Pogge von Strandmann et al. (2019), horizontal axis is time of the fluid sampling, vertical axis is the normalized calcite precipitation rate, the area in the left of the red line occupies 89% of the total area.

Table 2. Brine composition of CarbFix project (data from Well HN-01 in Table 1 of Pogge von Strandmann et al. (2019)).

Ion type	Na	Si	Ca	Sr	Li	pH
Concentration (ppm)	43.5	14.1	5.37	18.4	0.16	9.26

mineralization, the brine composition (in Table 2) reported from CarbFix project was used in the simulation. In the original CarbFix project, the brine from an aquifer was pumped out through the Well HN-01 and co-injected with CO₂ into target reservoirs through Well HN-02. In Well HN-01, the major cations were Na⁺ and Sr²⁺ with a slight alkaline condition (pH = 9.26). Due to the absence of anion data, the Cl⁻ was assumed as the primary anion.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Kinetics of in-situ CO₂ mineralization of CarbFix field pilot tests

To benchmark the geochemical model, the geochemical modelling results were compared with the field sampling data from CarbFix project. In the benchmark modellings, the amount of generated carbonate minerals was calculated by a kinetic geochemical modelling. The simulation results were compared with the reported calcite precipitation. The kinetic modellings in this study agreed well with the field sampling from CarbFix project. Both showed a fast in-situ CO₂ mineralization within 2 years (Fig. 4).

The data from Fig. 3 of Pogge von Strandmann et al. (2019) was digitalized and analysed, which was the calcite precipitation calculated from fluid sampling in CarbFix project. As shown in Fig. 4, the horizontal axis was the reaction time while the vertical axis was the mineralization rate. To get the amount of CO₂ precipitation, an integration was performed to get the area between the precipitation rate line and horizontal axis. A total amount of 89% of injected CO₂ was found to be

mineralized at 0.54 year within the reservoir. Furthermore, at around 0.4 year of CO₂ injection, the in-situ CO₂ mineralization reached peak rate.

This kinetic modelling result was in line with the above field observations from CarbFix project. Both showed that the CO₂ can be mineralized in 1 year. In the kinetic modelling, the dynamic precipitation of carbonate minerals (e.g., CaCO₃, FeCO₃, and MgCO₃) was calculated. These kinetic simulations proved that 90% of CO₂ mineralization can be achieved in 0.9 year (Fig. 4). The brine pH increased from 3.5 at the beginning to 6.3 at the equilibrium, respectively. This kinetic simulation demonstrated that the maximal precipitation rate reaches at 0.6 year, which is close to the field observation (at 0.4 year). The slight difference could be due to the high percentage of basalt glass minerals in CarbFix reservoirs, the non-reactive transport of the batch modelling, or an enlarged surface area during the reactive transport flow.

3.2 Effect of temperature and pressure in in-situ CO₂ mineralization

The batch geochemical modelling was performed to find the “sweet spot” of temperature and pressure to accelerate the in-situ CO₂ mineralization. To evaluate the effect of pressure in CO₂ mineralization, the generation of MgCO₃, FeCO₃, and CaCO₃ was calculated in function of pressure. The mineral and fluid composition were from CarbFix project (Table 2). The generation of carbonate mineral was found to increase with increasing pressure for all three species (Fig. 5). To be specific, the generated MgCO₃ was the major carbonate mineral following by FeCO₃ and CaCO₃. For example, the MgCO₃ generation increased from 2.06×10^{-3} to 1.28×10^2 mmol/L with pressure increasing from 0.01 to 826.4 psi. At the same pressure range, the CaCO₃ generation increased from 1.04×10^{-6} to 2.66×10^{-4} mmol/L. The increased carbonate mineral generation was due to the increased CO₂ uptake in the brine with increasing pressure. With increasing pressure, the CO₂ uptake in the brine increased, which generated more

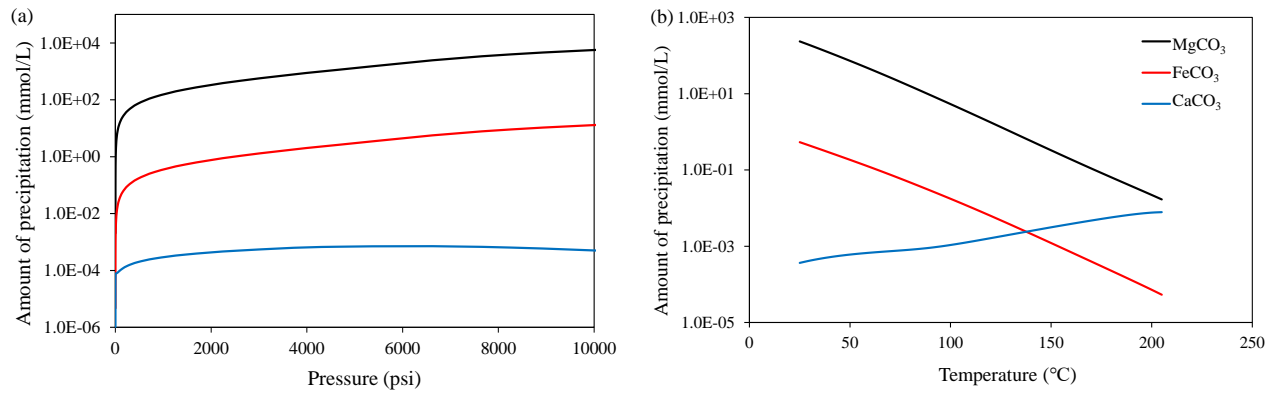


Fig. 5. Effect of pressure (a) and temperature (b) in mineral generations during in-situ CO₂ mineralization (based on field data from CarbFix project).

HCO₃⁻. This reaction promoted the reaction HCO₃⁻ + Mg²⁺ = MgCO₃ + H⁺ to the right and thus obtain more carbonate mineral precipitation. However, the mineral precipitation did not increase dramatically with pressure over 826.4 psi. This non-linear CO₂ water uptake vs pressure was due to the relation between CO₂ fugacity and pressure. The fugacity coefficient of CO₂ was calculated by PHREEQC with the Peng-Robinson equation of state. At high pressure, the fugacity coefficient of CO₂ dropped rapidly, which caused gradual increasing dissolved CO₂ concentration (see example 22 in Parkhurst and Appelo (2013)). This mineralization pathway indicated that 600 m is an optimal depth to implement in-situ CO₂ mineralization, where the cost for gas compression is low while the amount of in-situ CO₂ mineralized is not compromised substantially compared to deep wells.

To evaluate the effect of temperature in CO₂ mineralization, the generation of MgCO₃, FeCO₃, and CaCO₃ was calculated with increasing temperature. The MgCO₃ and FeCO₃ were found to decrease with increasing temperature. However, the generation of CaCO₃ increased with increasing temperature. The different responses to temperature can be explained by enthalpy changes of geochemical reactions. The enthalpy change of Ca²⁺ + HCO₃⁻ = CaCO₃ + H⁺ is 30.5767 kJ/mol while the enthalpy change of Mg²⁺ + HCO₃⁻ = MgCO₃ + H⁺ is -23.8279 kJ/mol (from LLNL thermodynamic database). This enthalpy change indicated that the generation of CaCO₃ was promoted by the increasing temperature while the generation of MgCO₃ was suppressed by increasing temperature (as shown in Fig. 5). However, the total amount of carbonate minerals generation decreased with increasing temperature, which indicated a lower reservoirs temperature would be favourable for the in-situ CO₂ mineralization.

3.3 Effect of pH in in-situ CO₂ mineralization

The pH played a critical role in the formation of carbonate minerals. The carbon species distribution was calculated to identify the major precipitated carbonates against pH. Fig. 5 indicated that the production of MgCO₃ was magnitude higher than CaCO₃ and FeCO₃. In Fig. 6, the pH affected concentration of MgCO₃ and other soluble carbon species we-

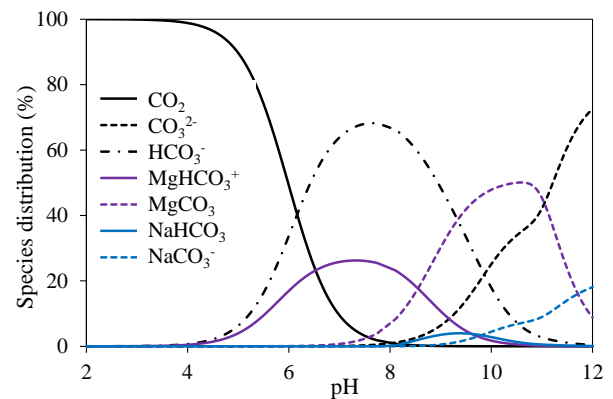


Fig. 6. Carbon species distribution versus pH (plotted with PhreePlot (Kinniburgh and Cooper, 2011)).

re analysed in the aqueous solution. At pH < 4, most carbon species existed in the brine as free CO₂. With pH increasing from 4 to 7.69, the percentage of free CO₂ decreased while the HCO₃⁻ and MgHCO₃⁺ increased to the peak percentage at 68.2% and 25.8%, respectively. Furthermore, at pH > 8, the percentage of MgCO₃ increased significantly from nearly 0 to 50.8% at pH = 10.6. Most precipitation of MgCO₃ was generated in pH between 8 and 11. This effect of pH in CO₂ mineralization was in line with literature observation. For example, Saldi et al. (2012) observed that the major magnesite precipitation occurred at pH > 7. Ji et al. (2022) found that increasing pH raised the activity of CO₃²⁻, which promoted the transition of hydromagnesite to magnesite. The pH dependant character of in-situ CO₂ mineralization indicated that manipulating pH (or increasing alkalinity) can accelerate in-situ CO₂ mineralization in basalt reservoirs.

3.4 Effect of mineral composition in in-situ CO₂ mineralization

To evaluate the effects of each mineral composition in in-situ CO₂ mineralization, the amount of carbonate precipitation was calculated as a function of mineral compositions. Given that the albite does not release cations during leaching, the effects of active minerals with fayalite, forsterite, and diopside

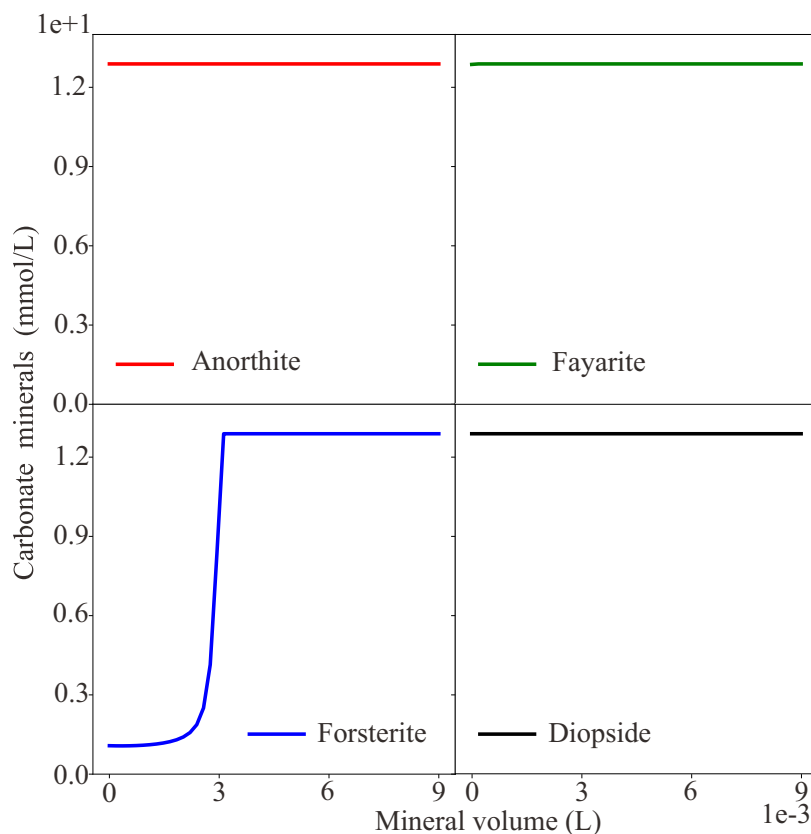


Fig. 7. Effect of mineral composition in in-situ CO₂ mineralization.

were estimated. In the analysis, the amount of carbonate minerals was calculated to evaluate the in-situ CO₂ mineralization. The volume of one mineral (e.g., fayalite) slightly increased from 0 to 0.01 L. At the same time, the total rock volume kept constant to achieve a fixed rock/water ratio. The constant rock volume was accomplished by correspondingly decreasing the volume of the non-contributing albite while keeping the volumes of other minerals constant. The rock/water ratio was one of the key parameters to affect CO₂-water-rock interactions (Rosenbauer et al., 2012), which was the reason to use constant rock/water ratio in the sensitivity simulations.

As shown in Fig. 7, the magnesium bearing forsterite was the primary mineral to convert the aqueous carbon (CO₃²⁻) to magnesite (MgCO₃). With increasing volume of forsterite from 0 to 0.0029 L (equivalent to 0.068 mol), the total CO₂ precipitation increased from 1.08 to 8.37 mmol/L. However, other mineral compositions (e.g., anorthite, fayalite, and diopside) showed negligible effects in in-situ CO₂ mineralization. By increasing the volume of anorthite, fayalite, and diopside from 0 to 0.009 L, the amount of carbon mineralization increased less than 0.1 mmol/L. The total contribution of anorthite, fayalite, and diopside to mineralization can be approximated to 1.08 mmol/L when the amount of forsterite is 0. Considering that the maximal amount of mineralization can reach 12.89 mmol/L, the 1.08 mmol carbonate precipitation from anorthite, fayalite, and diopside approximately contributed 8.4% of total carbonate mineralization, which was a minor contribution to the in-situ CO₂ mineralization. This

sensitivity analysis was consistent with Snæbjörnsdóttir et al. (2020). Their excellent review showed that the forsterite released Mg²⁺ faster than diopside and basalt glass (Fig. 3(b) of Snæbjörnsdóttir et al. (2020)). The leached Mg²⁺ then reacted with CO₃²⁻ to form magnesite precipitation.

4. Conclusion and implication

In-situ CO₂ mineralization is a promising technology to achieve fast carbon removal at large scale. However, the research of in-situ CO₂ mineralization is in its infancy. Establishing a petrophysical criterion is thus crucial to implement in-situ CO₂ mineralization at large scale. In this investigation, the geochemical modelling was benchmarked with field data from CarbFix project to determine an optimal petrophysical recipe to accelerate in-situ CO₂ mineralization. The role of pressure, temperature, pH, and mineral compositions was evaluated for generation of carbonate minerals, including CaCO₃, MgCO₃, and FeCO₃.

Increasing pressure accelerated the in-situ CO₂ mineralization. The CaCO₃ generation increased from 1.04×10^{-6} to 2.66×10^{-4} mmol/L with pressure increasing from 0.01 to 826.4 psi. However, the mineral generation did not increase dramatically with pressure over 826.4 psi. This indicated that the pressure increase did not significantly affect the in-situ CO₂ mineralization deeper than 600 m. With increasing temperature, the generation of MgCO₃ and FeCO₃ decreased while the formation of CaCO₃ increased. However, the total amount of carbonate minerals decreased with increasing tem-

perature. Thus, a colder basalt reservoir performs better for in-situ CO₂ mineralization.

Most in-situ CO₂ mineralization can be achieved at pH between 9 and 11. At pH < 4, most carbon species existed in the aqueous as free CO₂. With pH increasing to 7.69, free CO₂ transmitted to HCO₃⁻ and MgHCO₃⁺. With pH ranging between 8 and 11, most carbon species precipitated as MgCO₃. pH between 8 and 11 is thus a favourable “pH window” for in-situ CO₂ mineralization. Moreover, forsterite is the major contributing minerals for CO₂ mineralization. With increasing volume of forsterite from 0 to 0.0029 L (equivalent to 0.068 mol), the total mineralization increased from 1.08 to 8.37 mmol/L. This means that only 1.08 mmol/L carbonate mineralization was from anorthite, fayalite, and diopside, which contributed only 8.4% of total amount of mineralization (total amount of mineralization is 12.89 mmol/L). Forsterite is therefore a major contributing mineral to the in-situ CO₂ mineralization.

Collectively, a basalt reservoir deeper than 600 m, temperature below 50 °C, alkaline brine, and high percentage of forsterite was recommended as a “sweet” potential site to implement in-situ CO₂ mineralization. This investigation provided a pipeline to utilize geochemical modelling to find a potential reservoir for in-situ CO₂ mineralization.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interest.

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