

Properties and phenomena relevant to CH₄-CO₂ replacement in hydrate-bearing sediments

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[1] The injection of carbon dioxide, CO₂, into methane hydrate-bearing sediments causes the release of methane, CH₄, and the formation of carbon dioxide hydrate, even if global pressure-temperature conditions remain within the CH₄ hydrate stability field. This phenomenon, known as CH₄-CO₂ exchange or CH₄-CO₂ replacement, creates a unique opportunity to recover an energy resource, methane, while entrapping a greenhouse gas, carbon dioxide. Multiple coexisting processes are involved during CH₄-CO₂ replacement, including heat liberation, mass transport, volume change, and gas production among others. Therefore, the comprehensive analysis of CH₄-CO₂ related phenomena involves physico-chemical parameters such as diffusivities, mutual solubilities, thermal properties, and pressure- and temperature-dependent phase conditions. We combine new experimental results with published studies to generate a data set we use to evaluate reaction rates, to analyze underlying phenomena, to explore the pressure-temperature region for optimal exchange, and to anticipate potential geomechanical implications for CH₄-CO₂ replacement in hydrate-bearing sediments.

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1. Introduction

[2] Global sustainability, in terms of energy needs and climate stress from greenhouse gases, requires new sources of energy and the management of CO₂ emissions. Methane hydrate is a potential energy source, with worldwide reserves on the order of 500–10,000 Gt of carbon [Collett, 2002; Kvenvolden, 1988; Milkov, 2004; Ruppel and Pohlman, 2008]. Methane can be recovered from hydrate-bearing sediments by depressurization, heating or chemical injection. In particular, the injection of carbon dioxide, CO₂, into hydrate-bearing sediments can liberate methane, CH₄, and sequester CO₂ in hydrate form [McGrail *et al.*, 2007; Ota *et al.*, 2005a; Stevens *et al.*, 2008; Svandal *et al.*, 2006; Zhou *et al.*, 2008a].

[3] The chemical potential difference between CH₄ and CO₂ hydrate indicates that CH₄-CO₂ gas replacement is thermodynamically favorable [Seo and Lee, 2001; Svandal *et al.*, 2006]. However, the extent of the reaction and its efficiency in real systems is determined by multiple factors and coexisting processes, such as (1) pressure and temperature-dependent solubilities and interfacial properties, (2) relative viscosity, permeability, and density between water and CO₂, (3) invasion patterns and specific surface of the hydrate phase, (4) fluid expansion after replacement, and (5) changes in effective stress. These phenomena couple

to determine replacement efficiency and the geomechanical response of the sediment mass.

[4] In this study, we review previous CH₄-CO₂ replacement studies, identify and analyze underlying processes, present new experimental results, and anticipate potential implications.

2. Physical and Thermodynamic Properties

[5] The process of replacing CH₄ with CO₂ in hydrate must be understood at both the molecular scale and the macroscale to anticipate conditions for efficient CH₄-CO₂ replacement and its consequences on thermal, mechanical and electrical properties. In this section, we summarize physical parameters in tabular form and highlight the most relevant observations in the text.

2.1. Structure: Geometry and Length Scales

[6] Both CH₄ and CO₂ form structure I hydrate (Table 1a). This crystallographic structure is composed of 2 small cages for every 6 large cages, so the stoichiometric formula is 6X·2Y·46H₂O, i.e., a maximum of 6 gas molecules X in large cages plus a maximum of 2 gas molecules Y in small cages, and 46 water molecules. The lattice repeats every ~12 Å [Sloan and Koh, 2008]. Thus, gas molecules make up a significant molar fraction ~15% of the hydrate structure (compare to the gas solubility in liquid water ~0.1% molar fraction, section 2.5).

[7] The stoichiometric ratio (number of water molecules per number of gas molecules) often deviates from the theoretical value $n = 46/8 = 5.75$ for structure I hydrate. In particular, the occupancy of CO₂ molecules in small cages

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Table 1a. Physical Properties of CH₄ and CO₂ Hydrate, Pure CO₂ and Water Relevant to CH₄ Replacement by CO₂ in Hydrate-Bearing Sediments: Structure^a

Property	CH ₄ Hydrate (sI)	CO ₂ Hydrate (sI)	CO ₂ Liquid ^b	H ₂ O Liquid ^b
Stoichiometric ratio or hydration number, (number of H ₂ O molecules per number of gas molecules)	5.75 (100% cage occupancy) ^c (1); 5.81–6.10 [1.9–9.7 MPa, 263–285 K] (2)	5.75 (100% cage occupancy) ^c (1); 6.57 [1.5 MPa, 273 K] (3)		
Cage occupancy	~100% Large cage; ~70% Small cage; [10 MPa, 273 K] (3)	~100% Large cage; ~50% Small cage, [1.5 MPa, 273 K] (3)		
Cavity size (Å)	7.9, 8.66 (1)	7.9, 8.66 (1)		
Guest size (Å)	4.36 (1)	5.12 (1)		
Lattice constant <i>a</i> (Å)	11.95 [10 MPa, 271.15 K] (3)	12.07 [273.2 K] (4)		

^aNumbers in parentheses indicate sources as follows: 1, *Sloan and Koh* [2008]; 2, *Circone et al.* [2005]; 3, *Klapproth et al.* [2003]; 4, *Uchida et al.* [1999].

^bRefer to Figure 1.

^cComputed value.

increases with pressure and the stoichiometric ratio decreases from ~6.6 at 1.3 MPa and 273.15 K, to a value closer to the theoretical limit 5.75 at 4.5 MPa and 283.15 K [Anderson, 2003; Klapproth et al., 2003]. The CH₄ molecule is slightly smaller than CO₂ and fits more easily in small cages, so the stoichiometric ratio for CH₄ hydrate is typically $n = 5.81$ – 6.10 [Circone et al., 2005]. As a result, the stoichiometric ratio of CH₄ hydrate is less sensitive to pressure than the stoichiometric ratio of CO₂ hydrate.

[8] Figure 1 shows hydrate-forming molecules and related molecular structures; they are drawn using the corresponding van der Waals radii and are shown at the same scale. The size of the opening between water molecules that form the face of big cages is smaller than the size of both CO₂ and CH₄ molecules. This simple observation leads us to conclude that the hydrate cage must separate to release the CH₄ molecule before it can trap CO₂. The molecule of nitrogen N₂ is smaller than CO₂ and fits more easily in the small cages of sI hydrate; this explains the enhanced CH₄ replacement efficiency obtained when a mixture of CO₂ and N₂ is used in a water-limited CH₄ hydrate system of structure I, or of structure II if combined with C₂H₆ [Park et al., 2006].

2.2. Thermal Properties

[9] In agreement with Le Châtelier's principle, hydrate formation is an exothermic reaction (Table 1b). In particular, the heat liberated during the formation of a mol of CO₂ hydrate varies between $H_{\text{CO}_2\text{-hyd}}^f = 57.7$ and 63.6 kJ mol^{-1} (note that a mol of CO₂ hydrate is $44 \text{ g} + n \text{ 18 g}$, where $n = 5.75$ – 6) [Anderson, 2003]. Conversely, hydrate dissociation is endothermic as heat is needed to disorganize the crystal structure. The heat adsorbed during the dissociation of a mol of CH₄ hydrate is $H_{\text{CH}_4\text{hyd}}^d = 52.7$ – 55.4 kJ mol^{-1} , where a mol of CH₄ hydrate is $16 \text{ g} + n \text{ 18 g}$ and $n \sim 5.75$ [Anderson, 2004]. Therefore, CH₄-CO₂ replacement is exothermic. The path assumed here involves complete CH₄ hydrate dissociation before CO₂ hydrate formation. Molecular dynamic simulations for CH₄-CO₂ replacement in the first monolayer (interface between CH₄ hydrate and liquid CO₂) show only partial dissociation of the hydrate cage and lower enthalpy change for the complete replacement reaction (B. Kvamme, personal communication, 2010). Experimental and numerical data are still needed to assess the evolution of the

reaction when a large hydrate mass is involved, as in the pore space of sediments, where the characteristic length scale is much greater than the crystal nanometer scale.

[10] The thermal conductivity λ and diffusivity κ of liquid CO₂ are significantly lower than the corresponding values for either hydrates or water. In addition, water has the highest heat capacity c among all participating phases. This combination of thermal properties suggests reduced heat dissipation and increased local heating where liquid CO₂ displaces water and contacts CH₄ hydrate.

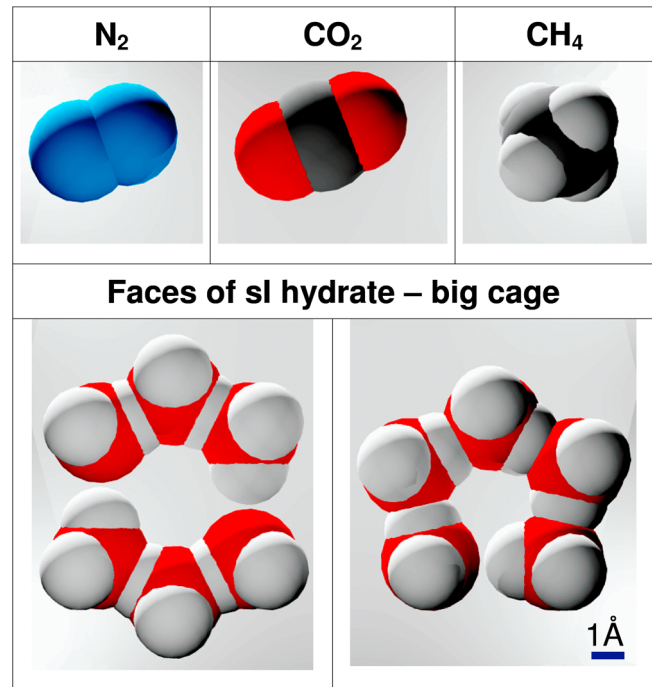


Figure 1. Hydrate-forming molecules (N₂, CO₂, and CH₄) and two faces of the big cage in sI hydrate. All molecules are drawn using van der Waals radii to the same scale. Hexagonal and pentagonal faces are not regular polygons. Notice that the opening between water molecules is smaller than the size of N₂, CO₂, and CH₄ molecules.

Table 1b. Physical Properties of CH₄ and CO₂ Hydrate, Pure CO₂ and Water Relevant to CH₄ Replacement by CO₂ in Hydrate-Bearing Sediments: Thermal Properties^a

Property	CH ₄ Hydrate (sI)	CO ₂ Hydrate (sI)	CO ₂ Liquid	H ₂ O Liquid
Heat capacity c (kJ kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)	2.031 [263 K] (1); 2.080 sI (2); 2.250 sI (3); 2.077 [270 K] (4)	No data found	2.280 [280 K, 10 MPa] (highly variable) (5)	4.218 [273 K]; 4.192 [283 K] (1)
Thermal conductivity λ (W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)	0.68 [273 K] (1); 0.49 [263 K] (2)	0.49 [263 K] (2)	~0.13 [12.5 MPa, 270 K] (6)	0.56 [273 K]; 0.58 [283 K] (1)
Thermal diffusivity $\kappa =$ $\lambda/\rho c$ (m ² s ⁻¹)	3.1×10^{-7} (7)	No data found	6.07×10^{-8} b	1.33×10^{-7} [273 K]; 1.38 $\times 10^{-7}$ [283 K] (1)
Heat or enthalpy of dissociation and formation H (kJ mol ⁻¹)	52.7–56.9 [273 K] (1); ~53 (independent of P-T) (8)	63.6–57.7 (±1.8) (at quadruple points) (8)	Does not apply	(water to ice) ~6 (1)

^aNumbers in parentheses indicate sources as follows: 1, *Waite et al.* [2009]; 2, *Sloan and Koh* [2008]; 3, *Makogon* [1997]; 4, *Handa* [1986] and *Yoon et al.* [2003]; 5, *Span and Wagner* [1996]; 6, *Vesovic et al.* [1990]; 7, *Waite et al.* [2007]; 8, *Anderson* [2003, 2004].

^bComputed value.

2.3. Mechanical Properties

[11] The viscosity of water is 1–2 orders of magnitude higher than the viscosity of liquid CO₂; this pronounced difference in viscosity will affect fluid invasion flow paths (Table 1c). Bulk densities are similar for hydrate and water, ordered as $\rho_{\text{CH}_4\text{hyd}} < \rho_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} < \rho_{\text{CO}_2\text{hyd}}$. The density of liquid CO₂ may exceed that of water, $\rho_{\text{CO}_2(l)} > \rho_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ (e.g., at 273.15 K for pressures above 25 MPa); differences in fluid density contribute to buoyancy effects on fluid flow. Liquid CO₂ is heavier than water in deep sea locations, but remains lighter than water near the continental shelf.

[12] The volume of water V_w increases when hydrate forms: $V_{\text{hyd}} \sim 1.234 V_w$ for CH₄ hydrate and $V_{\text{hyd}} \sim 1.279 V_w$ for CO₂ hydrate. Such a large volumetric change within the

pore space causes volumetric strains in the sediment during hydrate formation and promotes skeletal instability and contraction during dissociation [*Lee et al.*, 2010]. The shear stiffness of CH₄ hydrate is $G \approx 3.5$ GPa (a similar value is expected for CO₂ hydrate). Bulk moduli for liquid H₂O and CO₂ are lower than that of solid hydrates, and the bulk modulus of liquid CO₂ is 1 order of magnitude lower than that of water. Correspondingly, the P wave velocity is ~3 times slower in liquid CO₂ than in water. The addition of CO₂ in hydrate reservoirs could increase measured seismic wave velocities by forming additional hydrate, or it could lower the measured velocity by displacing pore water. The interpretation of seismic data gathered during CO₂ injection

Table 1c. Physical Properties of CH₄ and CO₂ Hydrate, Pure CO₂ and Water Relevant to CH₄ Replacement by CO₂ in Hydrate-Bearing Sediments: Mechanical Properties^a

Property	CH ₄ Hydrate (sI)	CO ₂ Hydrate (sI)	CO ₂ Liquid	H ₂ O Liquid
Viscosity μ (Pa s)	Does not apply	Does not apply	$(2-8) \times 10^{-5}$ [5–30 MPa, 318 K] (1)	$\sim 1.5 \times 10^{-3}$ [293 K] (2)
Density ρ (kg m ⁻³)	929 [263 K] (3); 940 (4); 910 [273 K] (3, 5)	1110–1090 (6) [30 MPa]; 1054 (7)	~938–800 kg m ⁻³ [10 MPa, 280–300 K] (highly variable) (8)	999.9 [0.1 MPa, 273 K]; 1003 ± 1.5 [10 MPa, 280–300 K]; 1030 ± 2 [3.5% salinity; 10 MPa, 280 –300 K] (9) $V_{\text{ice}}/V_w = 1.09$
Water volume expansion upon hydrate formation V_{hyd}/V_w	1.234 ^b ($n = 6$; $\rho_{\text{CH}_4\text{hyd}}$ = 930 kg m ⁻³ ; 100% occupancy)	1.279 ^b ($n = 6$; $\rho_{\text{CO}_2\text{hyd}}$ = 1100 kg m ⁻³ ; 100% occupancy)	Does not apply	
Coefficient of thermal expansion α (K ⁻¹)	sI hydrate 7.7×10^{-5} [200 K] (4); 2.64 $\times 10^{-4}$ (10)	sI hydrate 7.7×10^{-5} [200 K] (4)	No data found	$2 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-4}$ [50 MPa, 273.15–283.15 K] (11)
Bulk modulus (GPa)	7.2 [277 K] (12); ~9 [273 K] (10); 8.73 [273 K] (13)	No data found	0.338–0.124 GPa [10 MPa, 280–300 K] ^b	2.1–2.3 GPa [10 MPa, 280–300 K] ^b
Shear modulus (GPa)	3.2 [277 K] (12); 3.54 [273 K] (13)	No data found	0	0
Poisson ratio ν_P (m s ⁻¹)	0.32 [273 K] (13) 3775 [273 K] (13)	No data found No data found	~0.5 ~600–400 m s ⁻¹ [10 MPa, 280–300 K] (8)	~0.5 1450–1518 [10 MPa, 280–300 K] (14)
V_S (m s ⁻¹)	1954 [273 K] (13)	No data found	0	0

^aNumbers in parentheses indicate sources as follows: 1, *Thomas and Adams* [1965]; 2, *Fenghour et al.* [1998] and *Netherton et al.* [1977]; 3, *Waite et al.* [2009]; 4, *Sloan and Koh* [2008]; 5, *Kieft et al.* [1985]; 6, *Aya et al.* [1997]; 7, *Uchida et al.* [1999]; 8, *Span and Wagner* [1996]; 9, *Millero and Poisson* [1981]; 10, *Klapproth et al.* [2003]; 11, *Bradshaw and Schleicher* [1970]; 12, *Handa* [1986] and *Yoon et al.* [2003]; 13, *Helgerud et al.* [2009]; 14, *Belogol'skii et al.* [2002].

^bComputed value.

Table 1d. Physical Properties of CH₄ and CO₂ Hydrate, Pure CO₂ and Water Relevant to CH₄ Replacement by CO₂ in Hydrate-Bearing Sediments: Electrical Properties^a

Property	CH ₄ Hydrate (sl)	CO ₂ Hydrate (sl)	CO ₂ Liquid	H ₂ O Liquid
Electrical conductivity (S m ⁻¹)	0.01 (1)	No data found	<10 ⁻² at less than 3000 K (2)	depends on ionic concentration Seawater: ~5
Dielectric permittivity (frequency < 1 GHz)	~2.5 [273 K] (1)	No data found	1.0 to 1.5 from 1 to 20 MPa [308 K] (3)	79–80 [293 K] (4)

^aNumbers in parentheses indicate sources as follows: 1, *Galashev et al.* [2006]; 2, *Tanaka et al.* [2008]; 3, *Goldfarb et al.* [1999] and *Obriot et al.* [1993]; 4, *Israelachvili* [1991].

must account for changes in both hydrate saturation and pore fluid composition.

2.4. Electrical Properties

[13] The permittivity of liquid water is determined by the orientational polarization of water molecules (Table 1d). The water dipole rotation is hindered in hydrates. In addition, CH₄ and CO₂ are nonpolar molecules and do not contribute to orientational polarization. Hence, gas hydrates have much lower permittivity compared to liquid water [Galashev et al., 2006]. The electrical conductivity of water increases almost linearly with ionic concentration at low salt concentration and it is much higher than the electrical conductivity of hydrates. The electrical conductivity of liquid CO₂ is even lower than the electrical conductivity of hydrate. As with seismic surveys, resistivity surveys must account for pore fluid changes as well as hydrate saturation changes. In contrast to seismic results, in which added hydrate formation and CO₂ displacement of pure water have opposing effects on the measured velocity, the electrical properties are reduced both by added hydrate formation and pore water displacement. Tracking hydrate saturation and pore water chemistry is essential for correctly interpreting electrically based monitoring techniques.

2.5. Chemical Properties: Phase Boundaries, Solubilities, and Diffusivities

[14] Hydrate stability and gas solubility in water are pressure and temperature dependent (Tables 2, 3, and 4).

2.5.1. Phase Boundaries

[15] We develop regression equations for CO₂ and CH₄ hydrate phase boundaries, and for the liquid-vapor (L-V) boundary for CO₂ by fitting values predicted using experimentally validated thermodynamic models by *Duan and*

Sun [2003] and *Sun and Duan* [2005] (Table 2). Hydrate grown from a mixed CH₄-CO₂ gas atmosphere exhibits an intermediate phase boundary, between the boundary for pure CH₄ and CO₂ hydrates, where the relative position scales with the mixture ratio [Adisasmito et al., 1991; Seo and Lee, 2001]. The L-V boundary shown in Figure 2 corresponds to pure CO₂. Even small amounts of CH₄ in CO₂ cause the gas mixture L-V boundary to shift toward higher pressures, e.g., CO₂ with 10% CH₄ condenses at a pressure ~2 MPa higher than the pressure needed for pure CO₂ [Donnelly and Katz, 1954]. It can be observed from Figure 2 that: CH₄ hydrate stability requires higher pressures than CO₂ hydrate for temperatures $T \leq 283.67$ K. These boundaries partition the P-T space into four regions: CH₄ hydrate may be surrounded by liquid CO₂ (zone A) or by gaseous CO₂ (zone B) if $T < 277.1$ K; CO₂ hydrate can coexist with either liquid CO₂ (zone C) or with gaseous CO₂ (zone D).

2.5.2. Solubility in Liquid Phases

[16] Table 3 shows a summary of solubility values for all participating species in different media; the simultaneous presence of CH₄ and CO₂ in water alters the solubilities shown for simple binary systems [Qin et al., 2008]. The solubility of CH₄ and CO₂ in water affects gas transport, hydrate formation and hydrate dissolution in water that is not fully saturated with gas. The solubility of CO₂ in water is about 10 times greater than that of CH₄; both solubilities increase as pressure increases and temperature decreases. The presence of hydrate in water inverts these trends. The amount of dissolved water in liquid CO₂ is not negligible, and can be as high as 0.003–0.006 mol mol⁻¹, that is ~1 kg of water per m³ of liquid CO₂ at $T = 285$ – 293 K and $P = 10$ – 20 MPa [Spycher et al., 2003]. Hence, liquid CO₂ can remove water, effectively “drying” the sediment.

Table 2. Phase Boundaries for Pure CH₄ and CO₂ Hydrates, and Liquid-Vapor Boundary for Pure CO₂, Calculated by Fitting Values Predicted Using the Experimentally Validated Formulation of *Duan and Sun* [2003] and *Sun and Duan* [2005]^a

CH ₄ Hydrate Stability Boundary	CO ₂ Hydrate Stability Boundary	CO ₂ Liquid-Vapor Phase Boundary
Ice-hydrate-CH ₄ gas; $P^* = 17.126T^*$ –14.584, if $263 < T \leq 273.15$ K	Ice-hydrate-CO ₂ gas; $P^* = 8.082 T^*$ –7.020; if $263 < T \leq 272.15$ K	$P^* = 3.45 (T^*)^{7.00}$; if $263 \text{ K} < T \leq T_{\text{critical}}$ = 304.1 K (note that boundary shifts to higher pressures in CH ₄ /CO ₂ gas mixtures) ^b
Liquid water-hydrate-CH ₄ gas; $T^* = 0.0396 e^{(-0.000646 P^*)}$ [24.348 + ln (P^*)] if $273.15 < T < 290$ K	Liquid water-hydrate-CO ₂ gas; T^* = $0.0358 e^{(-0.00285 P^*)}$ [27.829 + ln (P^*)] if $272.15 < T \leq 283.17$ K Liquid water-hydrate-CO ₂ liquid; $P^* = 3.34 \times 10^{-4} (T^*)^{264.4}$ if $283.17 < T < 290$ K	

^aDefinitions $P^* = P/1$ MPa; $T^* = T/273.15$ K.

^bDonnelly and Katz [1954].

Table 3. Mutual Solubilities in Binary Mixtures for Liquid and Gaseous Media^a

Rich Phase Medium	Solute	Concentration (mol kg ⁻¹)		
		3 MPa, 273 K	6.6 MPa, 274 K	10 MPa, 285 K
Liquid Medium				
H ₂ O (without hydrate)	CH ₄	0.11 ^b	0.12 ^b	0.13 ^b
	CO ₂	1.39 ^b [~0.025 mol mol ⁻¹]	1.66 ^b [~0.030 mol mol ⁻¹]	1.72
H ₂ O (with hydrate)	CH ₄	0.060	0.063	0.116
	CO ₂	0.89 [0.016 mol mol ⁻¹]	0.83 [0.015 mol mol ⁻¹]	Outside HSZ
CO ₂	H ₂ O	Does not apply (Gas CO ₂)	0.050 ^c [2.2 × 10 ⁻³ mol mol ⁻¹]	0.056 [2.5 × 10 ⁻³ mol mol ⁻¹]
	CH ₄	Does not apply (Gas CO ₂)	Bubble point for 12% molar CH ₄ /CO ₂ mixture	Supercritical mixture
Gas Medium				
CH ₄	H ₂ O	0.016 [~2.5 × 10 ⁻⁴ mol mol ⁻¹]	0.008 [1.34 × 10 ⁻⁴ mol mol ⁻¹]	0.012 [2.0 × 10 ⁻⁴ mol mol ⁻¹]
CO ₂	H ₂ O	0.011[~5 × 10 ⁻⁴ mol mol ⁻¹]	Does not apply (Liquid CO ₂)	Does not apply (Liquid CO ₂)
CO ₂	CH ₄	Gas mixture	Does not apply (Liquid CO ₂)	Does not apply (Liquid CO ₂)

^aSources are *Donnelly and Katz* [1954], *Duan and Sun* [2003], *Folas et al.* [2007], *Hashemi et al.* [2006], *Spycher et al.* [2003], and *Sun and Duan* [2007].

^bThese values are extrapolations of solubility without hydrate to lower temperatures.

^cValue for 285 K.

[17] Similarly, CH₄ is highly soluble in liquid CO₂; for example, a molar mixture of 12% CH₄ and 88% CO₂ remains liquid above a line defined between [6.6 MPa, 273.1 K] and [7.2 MPa, 278.1 K], as can be estimated from the bubble point line [*Donnelly and Katz*, 1954]. This observation explains experimental results at 8.7 MPa and 277.1 K where no CH₄ bubbles were observed during CH₄-CO₂ replacement ($\sim 2/40$ mol of CH₄ per mol of CO₂) [*Dunk et al.*, 2006] as the liquid CO₂ was able to contain CH₄ molecules in solution preventing the formation of a separate phase. Finally, we observe that, the mixture CH₄-CO₂ has remarkably different bubble point and dew point lines as function of the molar ratio between CH₄ and CO₂ [see *Austegard et al.*, 2006; *Donnelly and Katz*, 1954; *Mraw et al.*, 1978]. As a result, gaseous CO₂ and CH₄ will coexist in equilibrium with liquid CO₂ and CH₄ in a fairly large pressure interval.

2.5.3. Water Vapor Concentration in Gaseous Phase

[18] Water evaporates into gaseous atmospheres (Table 3). For example, 0.016 kg of H₂O can be found per cubic meter of CO₂ gas at 3 MPa-273 K (0.011 mol H₂O per kg of CO₂) [*Spycher et al.*, 2003], and 0.005 kg of H₂O can be found per cubic meter of CH₄ gas at 3 MPa-273 K (0.012 mol H₂O per kg of CH₄) [*Folas et al.*, 2007]. We have consistently observed in separate experimental systems that water vapor in either CO₂ or CH₄ atmospheres can crystallize on hydrate surfaces promoting hydrate growth in relatively short time scale (days).

2.5.4. Mutual Diffusivities

[19] Diffusion controls most long-term phenomena, including hydrate formation and CH₄-CO₂ replacement [*Davies et al.*, 2008; *Svandal et al.*, 2006] (Table 4). The diffusivities of CO₂ and CH₄ in water are about the same, however, the diffusivity of H₂O in liquid CO₂ is up to 2 orders of magnitude higher [*Espinoza and Santamarina*, 2010]. High water diffusivity and solubility in liquid CO₂ make liquid and supercritical CO₂ an effective water-drying fluid agent.

[20] The diffusivity of CO₂, CH₄ or H₂O molecules through the solid hydrate mass is much slower than through liquids (note that preferential diffusive transport is expected along crystal imperfections and along the adsorbed water layer between hydrate and minerals). Therefore, CO₂ or CH₄ transport through solid hydrate will be much slower than through water. If the CH₄-CO₂ replacement is limited by diffusive transport, laboratory experiments and field implementations must seek to increase the surface contact area.

3. Previous Studies: Rates of Reaction

[21] Previous CH₄-CO₂ replacement studies documented in the literature are summarized in Table 5 and P-T conditions are plotted on Figure 2. As noted in Table 5, we describe the time-dependent replacement of CH₄ by CO₂ using the replacement ratio in the hydrate: CO₂/(CH₄+CO₂) = $A(1-e^{-t/\alpha})$, with A being the maximum replacement ratio at

Table 4. Mutual Diffusivities in Binary Water-CO₂ and Water-CH₄ Systems

Rich Phase Medium ^a	Diffusing Substance	Diffusivity (m ² s ⁻¹)	Pressure (MPa)	Temperature (K)	Method	Reference
<i>Liquid</i>						
H ₂ O	CO ₂	1.37×10^{-9} to 1.64×10^{-9}	0.1	291.5–298	Experimental	<i>Thomas and Adams</i> [1965]
	CH ₄	0.85×10^{-9} to 1.49×10^{-9}	0.1	277–293	Experimental	<i>Witherspoon and Bonoli</i> [1969]
CO ₂	H ₂ O	6×10^{-8} to 18×10^{-8}	7–15	298	Experimental	<i>Espinoza and Santamarina</i> [2010]
H ₂ O (I)	CO ₂	0.9×10^{-10}	No data	270	Molecular dynamics	<i>Ikeda-Fukazawa et al.</i> [2004]
H ₂ O (I)	CH ₄	1.0×10^{-10}	No Data	270	Molecular dynamics	<i>Ikeda-Fukazawa et al.</i> [2004]
<i>Solid</i>						
CH ₄ (H)	CH ₄	3.4×10^{-13} to 7.6×10^{-13}	3–15	263–268	Experimental	<i>Davies et al.</i> [2008]
CO ₂ (H)	CO ₂	1.0×10^{-12}	No data	273	Molecular dynamics	<i>Demurov et al.</i> [2002]
CO ₂ (H)	H ₂ O	1.0×10^{-23}	No data	200	Molecular dynamics	<i>Demurov et al.</i> [2002]

^aI, ice; and H, hydrate.

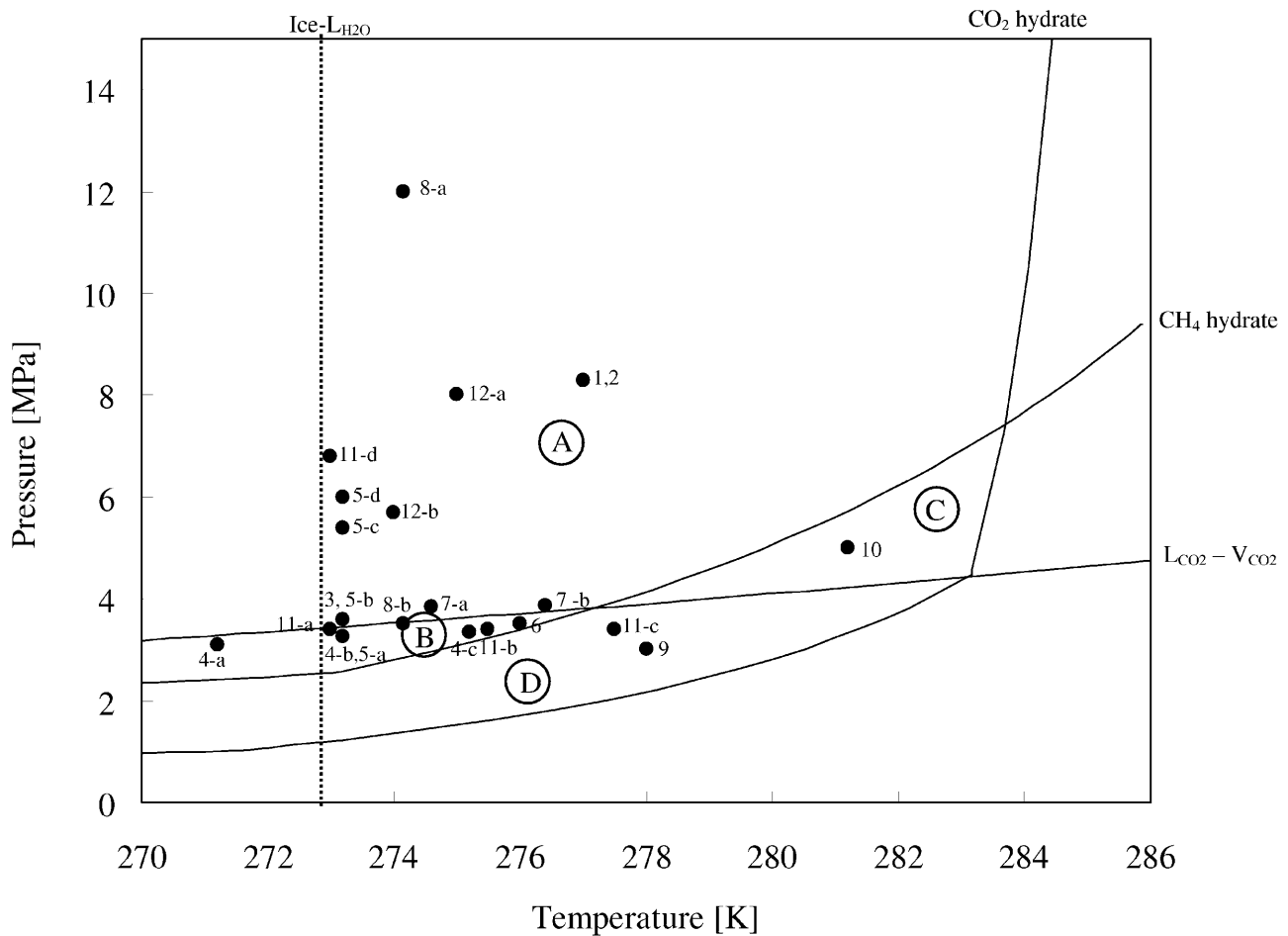


Figure 2. Dissociation phase boundaries for CO₂ and CH₄ hydrates, liquid-vapor phase boundary for pure CO₂, and liquid water-ice boundary. Data points show fluid pressure and temperature conditions for CH₄-CO₂ replacement studies reported in the literature (numbers correspond to tests listed in Table 5). Notice that CO₂ and CH₄ hydrate phase boundaries cross at ~7.5 MPa and 283.7 K. Furthermore, the CO₂ liquid-vapor boundary intersects the two dissociation lines creating four different zones inside the CO₂ hydrate stability field, above the liquid water-ice boundary.

long times, t . We obtain both A and the characteristic time, α , by fitting the published reaction time data. The following preliminary observations can be made from these studies: (1) hydrate replacement rates increase near the CH₄ hydrate phase boundary (data of *Ota et al.* [2005a], also mentioned by *McGrail et al.* [2007]), and (2) the reaction rate increases with increasing CO₂ gas pressure, eventually becoming constant when CO₂ liquefies (data of *Ota et al.* [2007]). We can also anticipate that high specific surface CH₄ hydrate experiences relatively fast replacement rates (refer to *Kim et al.* [1987]). There is some supportive evidence in the listed studies, but they are not conclusive due to lack of experimental details.

4. New Pore Scale Experimental Studies

[22] Multiple coexisting processes take place during CH₄-CO₂ replacement, including heat release, dissolution of participating species into different phases, volume change and mass transport. The following two experimental studies

document these pore-scale processes. Figure 3 shows the experimental devices and P-T trajectories. Both experiments are monitored using time-lapse photography. We use digital image processing to estimate length and volume information (resolution: 1 pixel~10 μ m), and we infer mass changes from measured volumes and the known density of the phases.

4.1. Water Droplet

[23] A water droplet (initial mass 36.1 mg) rests on a hydrophobic PTFE substrate and forms a quasi-spherical body (~2.5 mm radius). Air is evacuated from the chamber by imposing a partial vacuum, followed by CH₄ pressurization ($P = 5.9$ MPa, $T = 293$ K, Figure 3b) and subsequent cooling. Some water evaporates into the methane atmosphere; we predict a ~1.2 mg water mass loss from the droplet (based on gas medium solubility information in Table 3). Given a water density of ~1000 kg m⁻³ (Table 1c), this agrees with the volume reduction we measured after 5 days (± 0.1 mg precision). The first hydrate formation event follows transient ice formation. Later, we dissociate

Table 5. Previous CH₄-CO₂ Replacement Studies^a

Test	<i>P</i> (MPa)	<i>T</i> (K)	CH ₄ Hydrate Formation Method	Medium	Duration (h)	Replacement Ratio <i>A</i> ^b	Characteristic Time α ^b (h)	Monitoring	Reference
1	8.3	277	-	Sandstone	300	0.64	128	MRI	Husebo et al. [2008]
2	8.3	277	-	Sandstone	350	-	-	MRI	Stevens et al. [2008]
3	3.6	273.2	Stirring	No sediment	300	0.34	85	Raman spectroscopy	Ota et al. [2005b]
4-a	3.10	271.2	Stirring	No sediment	150	0.16	48	Raman spectroscopy	Ota et al. [2005a]
4-b	3.26	273.2	Stirring	No sediment	150	0.16	42	Raman spectroscopy	Ota et al. [2005a]
4-c	3.34	275.2	Stirring	No sediment	150	0.21	39	Raman spectroscopy	Ota et al. [2005a]
5-a	3.26	273.2	Stirring	No sediment	300	0.26	98	Raman spectroscopy	Ota et al. [2007]
5-b	3.6	273.2	Stirring	No sediment	300	0.34	94	Raman spectroscopy	Ota et al. [2007]
5-c	5.4	273.2	Stirring	No sediment	300	0.17	94 ^c	Raman spectroscopy	Ota et al. [2007]
5-d	6.0	273.2	Stirring	No sediment	300	0.31	94 ^c	Raman spectroscopy	Ota et al. [2007]
6	3.5	276	Powder ice: 100 μ m	No sediment	12	0.92	1.0	Raman spectroscopy	Komai et al. [2000]
7-a	3.85	274.6	Stirring	No sediment	800	0.55	222	Water and gas produced	Hirohama et al. [1996]
7-b	3.88	276.4	Stirring	No sediment	800	0.64	329	Water and gas produced	Hirohama et al. [1996]
8-a	12.0	274.15	Powder ice: 5–50 μ m	No sediment	30	0.92	4.2	NMR	Park et al. [2006]
8-b	3.5	274.15	Powder ice: 5–50 μ m	No sediment	30	0.85	5.2	NMR	Park et al. [2006]
9	3.0	278	Powder ice: 100–250 μ m	No sediment	150	1.00	22	Raman spectroscopy	Yoon et al. [2004]
10	5.0	281.2	-	Quartz sand	100	0.19	33 (L-CO ₂)	Gas produced	Zhou et al. [2008b] ^d
			-	Quartz sand		0.27	31 (90% emulsion)	Gas produced	Zhou et al. [2008b] ^d
			-	Quartz sand		0.26	29 (70% emulsion)	Gas produced	Zhou et al. [2008b] ^d
			-	Quartz sand		0.24	26 (30% emulsion)	Gas produced	Zhou et al. [2008b] ^d
11-a	3.4	273	Stirring	No sediment	11	No data	No data	Raman spectroscopy	McGrail et al. [2007]
11-b	3.4	275.5	Stirring	No sediment	11	No data	No data	Raman spectroscopy	McGrail et al. [2007]
11-c	3.4	277.5	Stirring	No sediment	11	No data	No data	Raman spectroscopy	McGrail et al. [2007]
11-d	6.8	300–273	-	Sand	1.7	No data	No data	Raman spectroscopy	McGrail et al. [2007]
12-a	8.0	275.0	See section 4	No sediment	-	No data	No data	Time-lapse photography	This study
12-b	7.2	274.0	See section 4	No sediment	-	No data	No data	Time-lapse photography	This study

^aCases are plotted in Figure 2 using the same test numbers listed here.^bReplacement ratio = $A(1 - e^{-t/\alpha})$, *A*, final replacement ratio; α , replacement rate.^cLimited data available.^dIll-defined test.

this CH₄ hydrate by heating (not shown in Figure 3b), and we cool the sample back into the CH₄ hydrate stability field. CH₄ hydrate nucleates again in the form of a hydrate film that grows at the water-gas interface and propagates along the interface at a velocity of $\sim 0.02 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$, forming a complete hydrate shell in less than 5 min (data shown in the auxiliary material).¹ For this growth velocity, heat transfer models predict a hydrate film thickness greater than 40 μm [Mochizuki and Mori, 2006]. We estimate the initial film thickness is equal to $\sim 60 \mu\text{m}$ based on the droplet volume expansion $V_{\text{final}}/V_{\text{initial}} = 1.016$ and the theoretical volume change from water to hydrate $V_{\text{hyd}}/V_{\text{w}} = 1.234$ (Table 1c). Stable P-T conditions are maintained for ~ 2 days; during this period, further hydrate growth is controlled by CH₄ diffusion through the hydrate layer (Figure 4a). The shell remains stable (note that shell depressions were observed in hydrate-coated droplet experiments by Servio and Englezos [2003]).

[24] We flood the chamber with liquid CO₂, displacing CH₄ gas through a vent (Figure 4b); the pressure and temperature conditions are inside the CH₄ hydrate stability field ($P = 7 \pm 1 \text{ MPa}$, $T = 275 \pm 1.5 \text{ K}$ during the short injection

period). The amount of water needed to saturate the liquid CO₂ in the absence of any hydrate in the chamber is $\sim 45 \text{ mg}$ (based on solubility data for a liquid medium in Table 3). We measure $\sim 15 \text{ mg}$ of water migration from the droplet to the surrounding liquid CO₂ in a period of 2 days; this is a form of “drying” in a CO₂ atmosphere (Figure 4). Thereafter, the droplet size remains constant for ~ 4 days under stable P-T conditions ($P = 6 \text{ MPa}$, $T = 274 \pm 1 \text{ K}$; Figure 4i). These measurements suggest a lower solubility of water in CO₂ in the presence of hydrate than the value reported in the absence of hydrate (similarly to gas solubility in water, Table 3). While we assume replacement is taking place, no CH₄ gas bubbles form in the liquid CO₂ due to the high solubility of CH₄ in CO₂ (Table 3). We depressurize the chamber gradually. The hydrate shell remains stable after CO₂ vaporizes and also across the CH₄ hydrate phase boundary. We hold stable P-T conditions above the CO₂ hydrate boundary for $\sim 30 \text{ min}$. Finally, we depressurize the chamber further and hydrate dissociates across the CO₂ hydrate phase boundary at $\sim 1.8 \text{ MPa}$ and 276.5 K .

4.2. Water Meniscus

[25] In this second study, the water droplet rests between two water-wet hydrophilic transparent glass surfaces, creating a cylindrically shaped body of water similar to a water

¹Auxiliary materials are available in the HTML. doi:10.1029/2009JB000812.

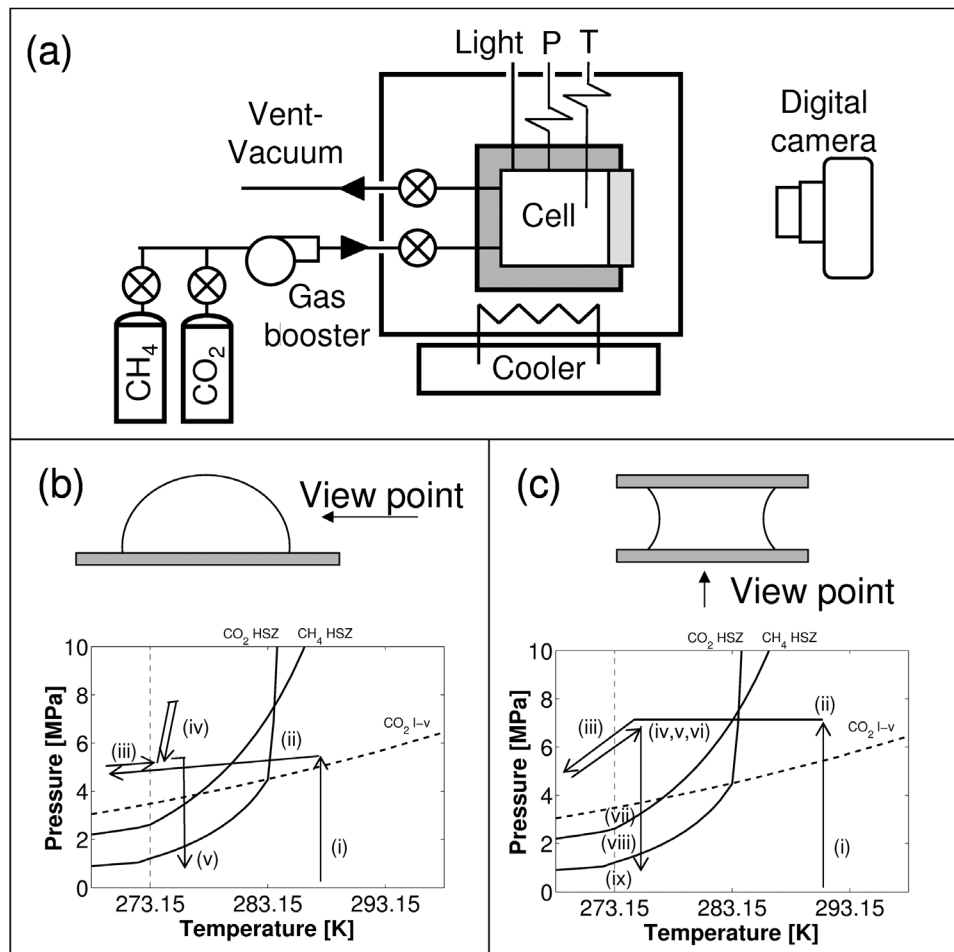


Figure 3. Experimental studies. (a) Pressure cell and devices. (b) Droplet experiments: path i, CH₄ pressurization; path ii, cooling; path iii, CH₄ hydrate formation; path iv, liquid CO₂ injection; and path v, CH₄-CO₂ hydrate dissociation. (c) Meniscus experiments: path i, CH₄ pressurization; path ii, cooling; path iii, ice formation; path iv, ice melting; path v, CH₄ hydrate formation; path vi, injection of liquid CO₂; path vii, liquid CO₂ to gas; path viii, exit CH₄ hydrate stability field; and path ix, exit CO₂ hydrate stability field. Both experiments are conducted using deionized water and research purity gases.

meniscus between two grains (8.7 mm diameter, 1.97 mm in height; and 120 mg water mass). Figure 3c shows the P-T trajectory imposed during the test. The evolution of the droplet is observed through the lower plate (Figure 5a). We trigger nucleation by causing transient ice formation (Figure 5b). Methane hydrate starts forming at the interface (similar to observation by *Stern et al.* [1998]). Hydrate does not grow homogeneously but advances in the form of lobes that invade the water meniscus (Figures 5c and 5d; needle-type growth is observed in the results reported by *Subramanian and Sloan* [2002]). Volume expansion during hydrate growth ($V_{hyd}/V_w = 1.234$, Table 1c) causes water to flow out of the meniscus along the hydrophilic glass surfaces, readily forming a thin hydrate layer on the glass plates (Figures 5c, 5d, and 5e). The hydrate growth rate inside the meniscus is between 0.05 and 0.11 mm h⁻¹. This fast growth rate suggests that gas reaches the water through cracks in the hydrate shell rather than by diffusion through the hydrate layer.

[26] The injection of liquid CO₂ is expected to trigger CH₄-CO₂ replacement and water dissolution into the liquid CO₂ (the amount of water needed to saturate the liquid CO₂ in this chamber is 171 mg, Table 3). Hence, the CO₂ hydrate film observed coating the glass plates in Figure 5f appears to be thinner (i.e., more transparent) than the CH₄ hydrate film in Figures 5d and 5e. Once again, CH₄ gas bubbles are not observed. The lobular hydrate structure remains inside the meniscus, that is, the overall geometry of the solid hydrate mass is preserved. Depressurization from liquid CO₂ to gaseous CO₂ causes the water dissolved in liquid CO₂ to precipitate as CO₂ hydrate on the glass plate (Figure 5g). Depressurization out of the CH₄ phase boundary has no “observable” effect on the hydrate phase within the meniscus or coating the glass surfaces (Figure 5h). Finally, hydrate dissociates during depressurization below the CO₂ hydrate phase boundary.

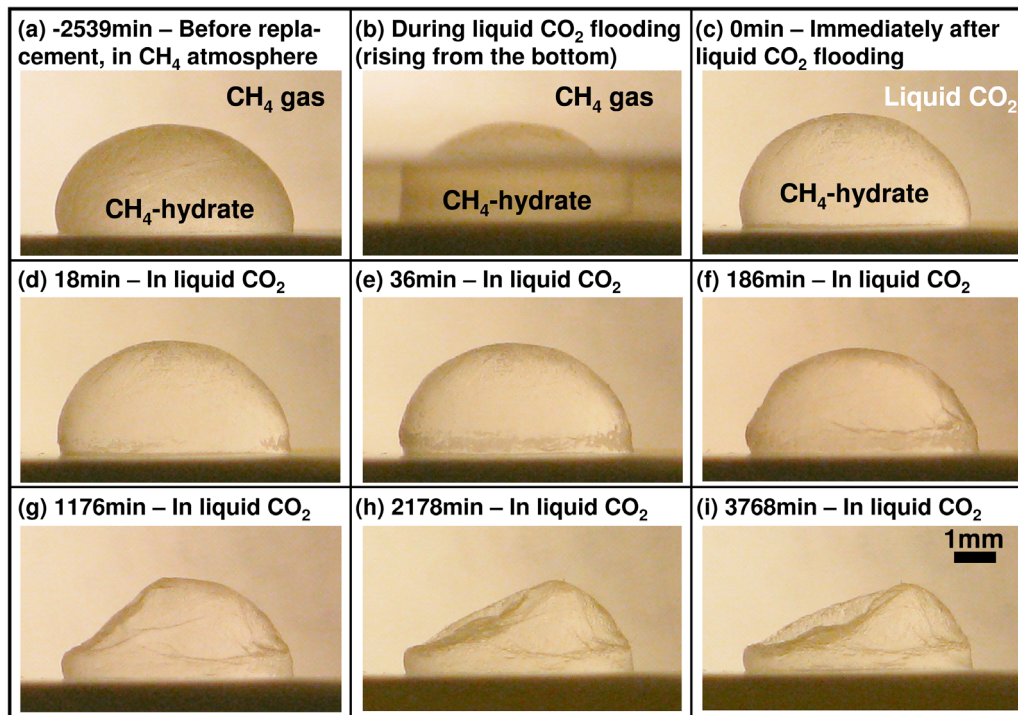


Figure 4. Droplet experiment: time evolution of the CH₄ hydrate shell after flooding with liquid CO₂. Pressure is 6 MPa, and the chamber temperature stays at 274 ± 1 K, after point iv in Figure 3b. This sequence of images suggests that liquid CO₂ “dries” the water either in the hydrate shell and/or inside the hydrate droplet.

4.3. Summary

[27] These two experiments reveal marked differences in CH₄ hydrate formation behavior on hydrophilic and

hydrophobic substrates, and show the significance of mutual solubilities during CH₄-CO₂ replacement. There is no visual evidence of CH₄-CO₂ replacement when the CH₄ atmo-

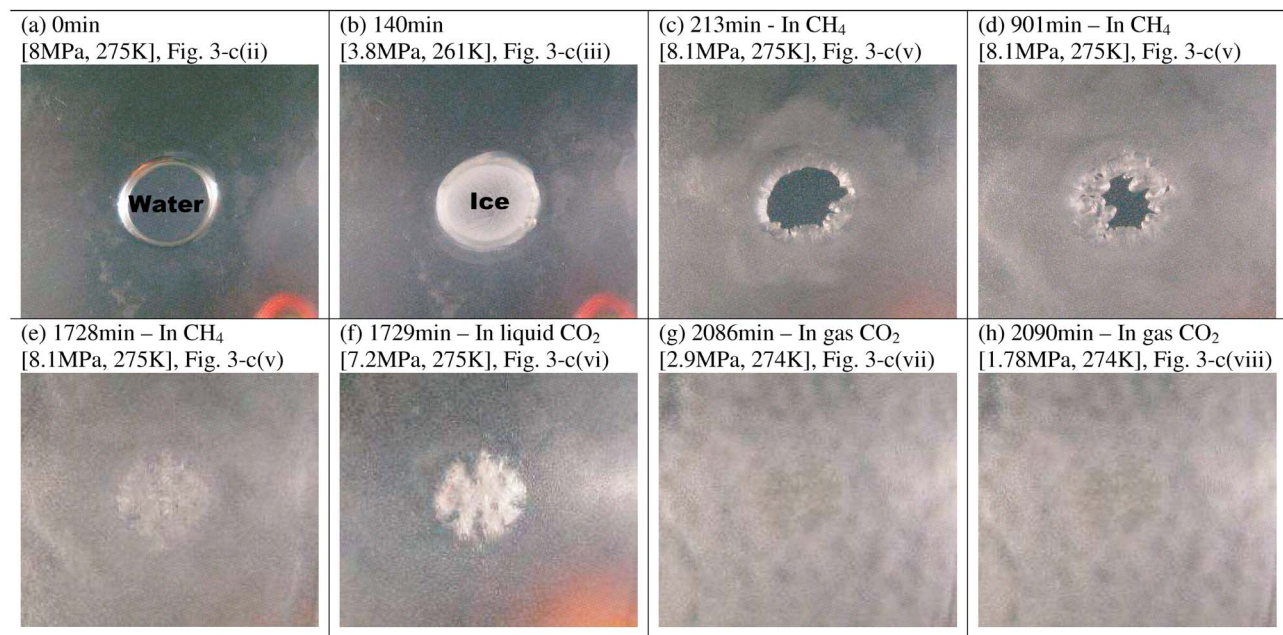


Figure 5. Meniscus experiment. (a) Water droplet, scale 8.7 mm diameter, (b) ice formation, (c–e) CH₄ hydrate formation and growth, (f) injection of liquid CO₂, (g) depressurization from liquid CO₂ to gas CO₂, and (h) image for P-T conditions outside the CH₄ hydrate stability field.

sphere is changed for CO₂ gas or liquid, i.e., there is no bubbling, volume change or alterations in the solid phase. The final depressurization stage confirms the presence of CO₂ hydrate at the CO₂ hydrate dissociation boundary.

5. Analysis: Sediment Scale Implications

[28] Analyses and experimental results presented in sections 2–4 allow us to anticipate potential thermohydro-mechanical coupled processes during CH₄-CO₂ replacement in hydrate-bearing sediments.

5.1. Molecular Scale CH₄-CO₂ Replacement Process

[29] Molecular scale observations (section 2), diffusion rates (Tables 1 and 4), and experimental results (Table 5) point to a “local” solid-liquid-solid transition during CH₄-CO₂ replacement. Inside the stability field, CH₄ hydrate in equilibrium is constantly forming and breaking down at the interface, releasing and capturing CH₄ molecules (see molecular dynamics insight by *Báez and Clancy* [1994], *Báez and Clancy* [1995], and *Walsh et al.* [2009]). In a CO₂-rich medium, freed CH₄ molecules may be replaced by CO₂ molecules, forming CO₂ hydrate and releasing excess heat. This released heat causes a positive feedback by locally raising the temperature of neighboring hydrate cages toward the CH₄ hydrate phase boundary to facilitate the atomic-scale solid-liquid-solid CH₄-CO₂ replacement in a form of “chain reaction.”

[30] This hypothetical replacement process allows us to identify two end-member replacement scenarios. First, constant hydrate break down and formation make CH₄-CO₂ replacement possible within the CH₄ hydrate stability field (zone A in Figure 2); in this case, reaction rates will be strongly dependent on the contact area between CO₂ and CH₄ hydrate. Second, excess heat liberated in the CH₄-CO₂ replacement transformation may sustain a high solid-liquid-solid reaction rate; in this case we anticipate a lower reaction rate as P-T conditions are further inside the CH₄ hydrate stability field.

5.2. Bound for Excess Heat-Assisted Reaction Within the CH₄ Stability Field

[31] The second end-member is analyzed next, taking into consideration all the phases involved. We assume that local P-T conditions reach the CH₄ hydrate dissociation boundary driven by the excess heat liberated in the total reaction (section 2, Tables 1a–1d). How far inside the stability field can the hydrate-bearing sediment be to experience this excess heat-assisted reaction?

[32] Consider CH₄ hydrate at initial pressure P_o , temperature T_o and surrounded by CO₂ (liquid in zones A and C; and gas in zone B, Figure 2), water, and the mineral structure of the host sediment. Let us also assume that all hydrate cages undergo gas replacement so that the liberated heat is proportional to the difference between the heat of dissociation of CH₄ hydrate, $H_{CH_4hyd}^d$ [kJ kg⁻¹], and the heat of formation of CO₂ hydrate, $H_{CO_2hyd}^f$ [kJ kg⁻¹]. We consider isobaric conditions and 100% replacement to calculate the increase in temperature ΔT from the in situ condition T_o to

the temperature T_b on the CH₄ hydrate stability boundary corresponding to pressure P_o ,

$$\begin{aligned} & (M_{CO_2}c_{CO_2} + M_{CH_4hyd}c_{CH_4hyd} + M_w c_w + M_m c_m) T_o \\ &= (M_{CH_4}c_{CH_4} + M_{CO_2hyd}c_{CO_2hyd} + M_w c_w + M_m c_m) T_b \\ &- \left(H_{CO_2hyd}^f M_{CO_2hyd} - H_{CH_4hyd}^d M_{CH_4hyd} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where subscripts for specific heat c and mass M , are m for mineral and w for water. In this analysis, we do not consider changes in P-T phase boundary conditions for gas mixtures (refer to section 2.5.1). All masses M convert to volume V through the corresponding bulk densities ρ , and partial volumes are related to the total sediment volume V_T through the sediment porosity ϕ , and the volumetric fractions of hydrate S_{hyd} , water S_w , and gas S_g (CH₄ gas or CO₂ gas/liquid) in the pore space,

$$\begin{aligned} V_{hyd} &= S_{hyd}\phi V_T, \quad V_w = S_w\phi V_T, \quad V_g = S_g\phi V_T, \\ V_m &= (1 - \phi)V_T \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $S_{hyd} + S_w + S_g = 1$. A simple close form analytical expression is obtained assuming that the heat stored in CO₂ and CH₄, and hydrates is similar before and after replacement $\rho_{CO_2}S_{CO_2}\phi c_{CO_2} + \rho_{CH_4hyd}S_{hyd}\phi c_{CH_4hyd} \approx \rho_{CH_4}S_{CH_4}\phi c_{CH_4} + \rho_{CO_2hyd}S_{hyd}\phi c_{CO_2hyd}$. Then, the CH₄-CO₂ replacement rate within the sediment will be maximized if the initial temperature of the reservoir is equal or greater than

$$\begin{aligned} T_o &= T_b(P_o) \\ &- \frac{\left(H_{CO_2hyd}^f \rho_{CO_2hyd} - H_{CH_4hyd}^d \rho_{CH_4hyd} \right) S_{hyd}\phi}{\rho_{CO_2}S_{CO_2}\phi c_{CO_2} + \rho_w S_w\phi c_w + \rho_{CH_4hyd}S_{hyd}\phi c_{CH_4hyd} + (1 - \phi)\rho_m c_m} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Numerical results are presented in Figure 6 for a CH₄ hydrate volume fraction $S_{hyd} = 0.5$. This equation is a lower bound for the excess heat-assisted CH₄-CO₂ replacement, since we assume that the liberated heat warms up the whole sediment mixture. The upper bound corresponds to the CH₄-CO₂ replacement for pure hydrate (line on the upper left corner in Figure 6). Local heating during replacement is between these two bounds.

5.3. Hydrate Dissolution in Liquid CO₂

[33] Liquid CO₂ will draw water and methane from the CH₄ hydrate until it reaches the solubility limit of water in CO₂ $y_{CO_2}^{H_2O}$ (section 2.5.2). The change in hydrate saturation in the sediment ΔS_{hyd} due to hydrate dissolution in liquid CO₂ is

$$\Delta S_{hyd} = (1 - S_{hyd}) \left(\frac{1}{y_{CO_2}^{H_2O}} \frac{\rho_{CH_4hyd}}{\rho_{CO_2}} \frac{n \cdot m_{H_2O}}{m_{CH_4} + n \cdot m_{H_2O}} \frac{m_{CO_2}}{m_{H_2O}} + 1 \right)^{-1} \quad (4)$$

where m represents molar mass, n represents the stoichiometric ratio, and ρ_{CH_4hyd} and ρ_{CO_2} are the mass densities of CH₄ hydrate and liquid CO₂ at the prevailing P-T conditions. A change in hydrate saturation of $\Delta S_{hyd} \sim 0.001$ is

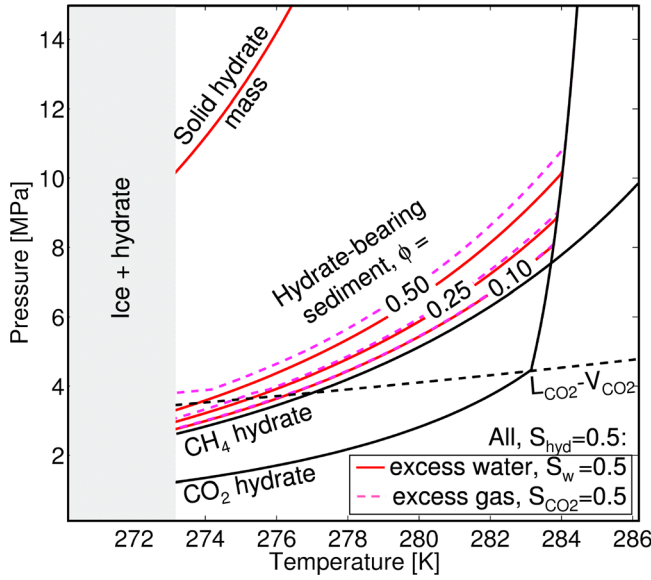


Figure 6. Pressure-temperature upper and lower bounds for initiating excess heat CH₄-CO₂ hydrate replacement by raising the local temperature to the CH₄ hydrate dissociation boundary. The temperature increases due to the heat released after CH₄ hydrate dissociation and CO₂ hydrate formation. At the upper bound, the reaction can begin far inside the CH₄ hydrate stability zone for a solid hydrate mass (upper bound ~10 K from the CH₄ hydrate dissociation boundary). At the lower bound, the reaction must begin closer to the CH₄ hydrate phase boundary in hydrate-bearing sediments where minerals and water absorb liberated heat. Bounds are computed using equation (3) and parameters from Table 1, porosity $\phi = 0.5, 0.25, 0.10$; $c_m = 0.83$ kJ (kg K)⁻¹; $H^f_{CO2hyd} = 395$ kJ kg⁻¹; $H^d_{CH4hyd} = 440$ kJ kg⁻¹; $\rho_{CO2hyd} = 1100$ kg m⁻³, and $\rho_{CH4hyd} = 930$ kg m⁻³. Note that this analysis does not consider intermediate hydrate phase boundaries for hydrate grown from gas mixtures (section 2.5.1).

estimated for reservoir conditions $S_{hyd} < 0.3$, $P = 5$ –8 MPa, and $T = 273$ –278 K. While this is a small number, continuous flow of pure liquid CO₂, can cause significant hydrate dissolution, for instance near the CO₂ injection well.

5.4. Methane Gas Bubble Formation

[34] CH₄-CO₂ replacement releases CH₄ into the pore space. The critical CH₄ hydrate saturation S_{hyd}^* required to cause CH₄ bubble formation depends on the bubble point molar ratio R_{BP} for the CH₄-CO₂ fluid mixture at the specific P-T conditions. The value of S_{hyd}^* can be estimated as

$$S_{hyd}^* = (1 - S_w) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{R_{BP}} \frac{\rho_{CH4hyd}}{\rho_{CO2}} \frac{m_{CH4}}{m_{CH4} + n \cdot m_{H2O}} \frac{m_{CO2}}{m_{CH4}} + \frac{\rho_{CO2hyd}}{\rho_{CO2}} \frac{m_{CO2}}{m_{CO2} + n \cdot m_{H2O}} + 1 \right)^{-1} \quad (5)$$

For reservoir conditions $P = 7.25$ MPa and $T = 278.15$ K, the bubble point is $R_{BP} = 0.12$ [Donnelly and Katz, 1954],

and the critical hydrate saturation for gas bubble formation is $S_{hyd}^* \sim 0.21$ (100% replacement is assumed, see Figure 7b).

5.5. Fluid Volume Expansion During CH₄-CO₂ Replacement

[35] Above bubbling conditions, CH₄-CO₂ replacement involves either volume change at constant fluid pressure, or pressure change under isochoric conditions. Let us compute first the change in volume during hydrate formation as a function of the hydration number n , mass densities ρ , and molar masses m

$$\frac{V_{hyd}}{V_w} = \frac{m_{hyd}/\rho_{hyd}}{m_w/\rho_w} = \frac{m_g + n \cdot m_w}{n \cdot m_w} \cdot \frac{\rho_w}{\rho_{hyd}} \quad (6)$$

where the density of water is $\rho_w = 1000$ kg m⁻³, and molar masses are $m_w = 18$ g mol⁻¹, $m_{CH4} = 16$ g mol⁻¹ and $m_{CO2} = 44$ g mol⁻¹. As shown in Figure 7a, an initial volume of water expands by $V_{hyd}/V_w = 1.234$ to form CH₄ hydrate ($n = 6$, $\rho_{CH4hyd} = 930$ kg m⁻³), and $V_{hyd}/V_w = 1.279$ to form CO₂ hydrate ($n = 6$, $\rho_{CO2hyd} = 1110$ kg m⁻³).

[36] The volume change of the hydrate mass during 100% CH₄-CO₂ replacement can be analyzed following a similar formulation and using experimentally measured macroscale quantities n and ρ (note that ρ is a function of n). Let us assume all CH₄ in hydrate exchanges with the injected liquid CO₂. The change in hydrate volume is

$$\frac{V_{CO2hyd}}{V_{CH4hyd}} = \frac{m_{CO2} + m_w \cdot n_{CO2}}{m_{CH4} + m_w \cdot n_{CH4}} \cdot \frac{\rho_{CH4hyd}}{\rho_{CO2hyd}} \quad (7)$$

The volume occupied by the hydrate mass expands about 1–6% after CH₄-CO₂ hydrate replacement ($n_{CH4} = 6$, $n_{CO2} = 6$, and pressure-dependent mass densities $\rho_{CH4hyd} = 910$ –940 kg m⁻³, $\rho_{CO2hyd} = 1090$ –1110 kg m⁻³). The change in lattice size ~2.9% is in agreement with this macroscale analysis (refer to values in Tables 1a–1d).

[37] On the other hand, released CH₄ gas after replacement occupies a volume that is strongly dependent on pressure and initial hydrate saturation. The final volume occupied by the released methane V_g^{CH4} which did not dissolve into the liquid CO₂, relative to the volume occupied by the CO₂ that became trapped in hydrate V_l^{CO2} is

$$\frac{V_g^{CH4}}{V_l^{CO2}} = \frac{\left[\frac{\rho_{CH4hyd}}{\rho_{CH4}} \frac{S_{hyd} \cdot m_{CH4}}{m_{CH4} + n \cdot m_{H2O}} - \frac{R_{BP}}{m_{CO2}} \left((1 - S_{hyd}) \rho_{CO2} - \frac{\rho_{CO2hyd} \cdot S_{hyd} \cdot m_{CO2}}{m_{CO2} + n \cdot m_{H2O}} \right) \right] \frac{m_{CH4}}{\rho_{CH4}}}{S_{hyd} \frac{\rho_{CO2hyd}}{\rho_{CO2}} \frac{m_{CO2}}{m_{CO2} + n \cdot m_{H2O}}} \quad (8)$$

There is a very pronounced increase in pore fluid volume associated with CH₄-CO₂ replacement at constant pressure. The volumetric ratio V_g^{CH4}/V_l^{CO2} is plotted in Figure 7b as a function of S_{hyd} for reservoir conditions $P = 7.25$ MPa, $T = 278.15$ K, $R_{BP} = 0.12$ [Donnelly and Katz, 1954]; for example, $V_g^{CH4}/V_l^{CO2} \sim 390\%$ for $S_{hyd} = 50\%$. Conversely, a marked increase in fluid pressure and decrease in effective stress will take place if constant volume is imposed during CH₄-CO₂ replacement. Field conditions will be between these two extreme scenarios. If replacement conditions result in a CH₄/CO₂ mixture, the volume of the mixture fluid

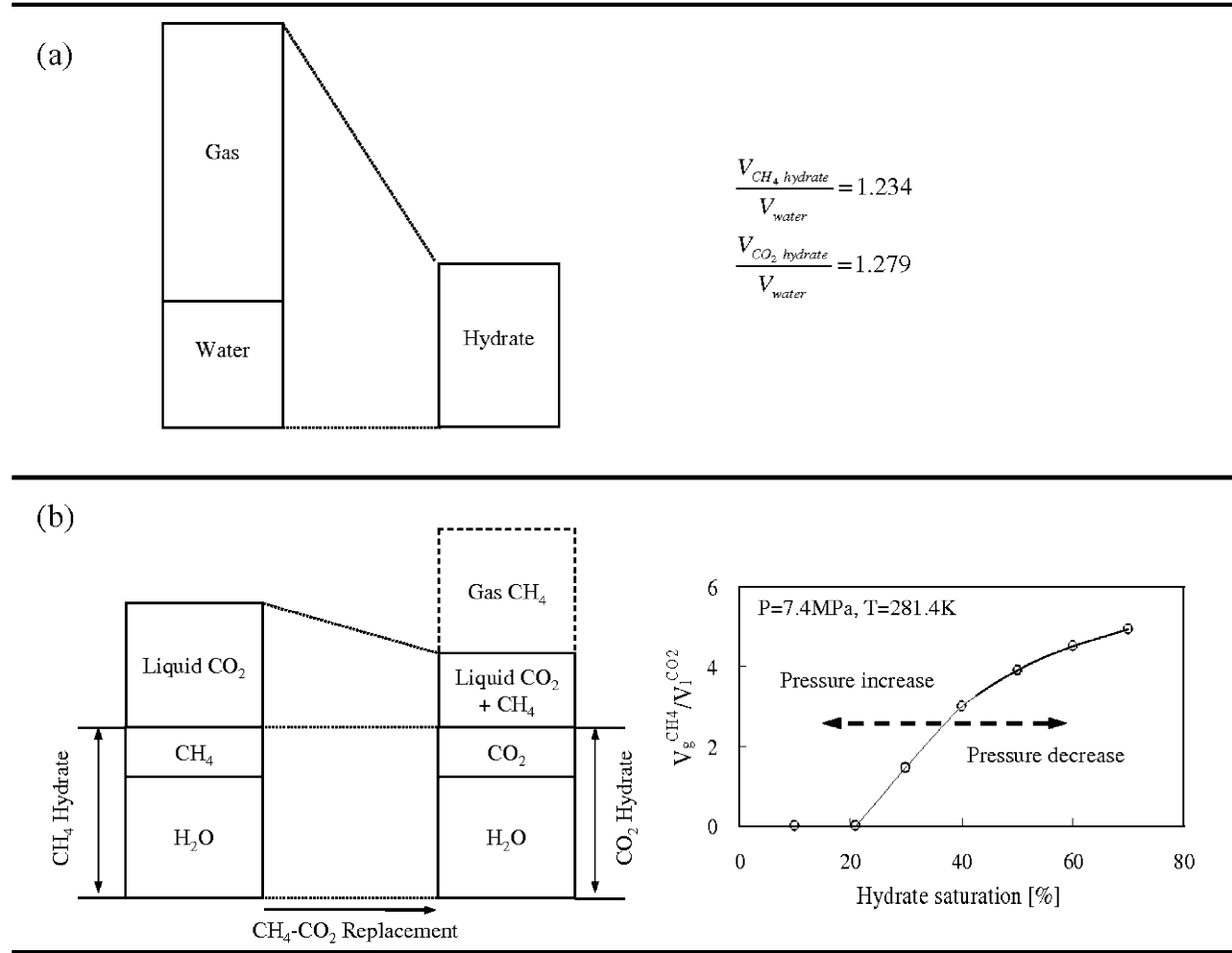


Figure 7. Volume change analysis. (a) During hydrate formation/dissociation, i.e., equation (7). (b) During CH₄-CO₂ replacement, i.e., equation (8) ($P = 7.4 \text{ MPa}$, $T = 281.4 \text{ K}$, $\rho_{CO_2} = 906 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, bubble point for CH₄/CO₂ mixture $R_{BP} = 12\% \text{ mol CH}_4/\text{mol CO}_2$).

can be computed using cubic equations of state [Li and Yan, 2009].

5.6. Sediment Volume Change During CH₄-CO₂ Replacement

[38] A soil subjected to an increase in effective stress $\Delta\sigma'$ from an initial effective stress σ'_o to a final stress $\sigma'_o + \Delta\sigma'$ experiences a volumetric strain $\varepsilon_{vol} = C_c^* \log[(\sigma'_o + \Delta\sigma')/\sigma'_o]$ that is proportional to the compression index C_c^* . The presence of hydrates stiffens the soil skeleton so that lower values of the compression index are expected for hydrate-bearing sediments than for the same sediment without hydrates [Lee et al., 2010]. The stiffening effect of hydrate depends on the pore habit: pore-filling (smallest effect), load-bearing and cementing (largest effect) [Waite et al., 2009]. While CH₄-CO₂ replacement involves transient “local” dissociation, preliminary experimental evidence we have gathered using cementing CH₄ hydrate-bearing sands with hydrate saturation $S_{hyd} = 5\%–10\%$ shows no significant change in global stiffness when wave propagation velocity data are gathered during CH₄-CO₂ gas replacement. Thus, low volumetric strains should be expected during CH₄-CO₂

replacement under free draining flow conditions. Fluid volume change may affect sediment stability if free draining conditions are lost during replacement. The following sequence of events may take place [Santamarina and Jang, 2009]: fluid volume expansion during the CH₄-CO₂ replacement causes an increase in fluid pressure, a decrease in effective stress, and a loss in sediment strength leading to shear failure, gas driven fractures, and/or collapse of the sediment skeleton.

5.7. Mixed Fluid Flow

[39] CO₂ is considerably less viscous than water, and CO₂ will tend to produce viscous fingering in excess-water reservoirs. Some recent numerical simulations show finger-like patterns when CO₂ invades water-saturated formations [Kang et al., 2005; Qi et al., 2009], while other simulations show minimal CO₂ fingering [Chang et al., 1994]. The analysis of pore scale capillary and viscous forces suggests a higher tendency to viscous fingering in the near field of the injection well where flow velocities are high [Lenormand et al., 1988].

Table 6. Anticipated Sediment Scale Phenomena During CH₄-CO₂ Gas Replacement^a

Injected Fluid	Reservoir Type	
	Gas-Limited, Excess Water	Water-Limited, Excess Gas
Gas CO ₂	Gas buoyancy affects invasion (1) Slow gas replacement rate due to low gas activity (3) Expect viscous fingering of CO ₂ gas (5, 6)	CH ₄ hydrate is found at contacts (2) Low hydrate volume expansion (1%–6%) (4) High CO ₂ gas permeability CO ₂ and CH ₄ mix, and flow together (7)
Liquid CO ₂	Released CH ₄ gas lowers the mixture bulk modulus (if above bubble point concentration) (8) Large fluid volume expansion if released methane exceeds bubble point concentration (10) Expect viscous fingering of liquid CO ₂ (5, 6)	Some of the water in CH ₄ hydrate will dissolve into the liquid CO ₂ and the final hydrate saturation will decrease; in fact, liquid CO ₂ might “dry” hydrate near the injection well (9) Some CH ₄ gas will remain trapped in the sediment
Either gas or liquid CO ₂	Replacement rate is limited by spatial invasion of gas/liquid CO ₂ At low injection rates or due to flow interruptions, CO ₂ will react with the excess water to form hydrate during injection, plugging the formation and shielding CH ₄ hydrate at reservoir and pore scales (3, 5) Hydrate saturation increases and hydraulic conductivity decreases (11) Water acidifies (12)	The sediment is water limited so it does not clog by forming new hydrate

^aNumbers in parentheses are sources as follows: 1, *Lu et al.* [2009]; 2, *Waite et al.* [2009]; 3, *McGrail et al.* [2007]; 4, this study, equation (7); 5, *Kang et al.* [2005]; 6, *Lenormand et al.* [1988]; 7, *Donnelly and Katz* [1954]; 8, *Span and Wagner* [1996] and *Trusler and Zarari* [1992]; 9, this study, section 4, Figure 4; 10, this study, equation (8); 11, *Kleinberg et al.* [2003]; 12, *Kneafsey and Pruess* [2010].

5.8. Anticipated Sediment-Scale Emergent Phenomena

[40] Four different injection scenarios are identified in Table 6 in terms of P-T conditions that control either liquid CO₂ or gas CO₂ injection (zones A and B in Figure 2), and either excess-water (gas-limited) or excess-gas (water limited) hydrate-bearing sediments. Phenomena and properties listed above help us identify the following processes that may take place during injection:

[41] 1. The release of CH₄ above the bubble point leads to gas formation $S_g > 0$ and lowers the relative permeability of the liquid phase (van Genuchten’s equation as in the work by *Kleinberg et al.* [2003]).

[42] 2. A low velocity of the invading CO₂ front, compared to the rate of CO₂ hydrate formation, will promote the growth of new CO₂ hydrate in excess-water reservoirs, occlude regions with CH₄ hydrate, prevent the direct contact of CH₄ hydrate with CO₂, and hinder CH₄-CO₂ replacement (see numerical simulation of CO₂ hydrate clogging of *Kang et al.* [2005]).

[43] 3. The replacement rate in both excess-gas and excess-water reservoirs will be controlled by the spatial distribution of CO₂ during injection and the replacement reaction rate.

[44] Clogging by CO₂ hydrate formation can be analyzed by comparing the velocity of the invading CO₂ advective front and the growth velocity of CO₂ hydrate at the water-CO₂ interface. The advection fluid velocity in pores v_A [m s⁻¹] = $q/(2\pi r H_r \phi)$ is determined by the injection flow rate q [m³ s⁻¹], the distance from the well to the front r , the hydrate-bearing reservoir thickness H_r [m], and the sediment porosity ϕ . The velocity of diffusion-

controlled growth of the hydrate plug in pores is approximately $v_D = D/\delta$, where D is the diffusion coefficient [m² s⁻¹] of CO₂ through hydrate and δ [m] the length of the hydrate plug. The ratio of these two velocities $v_D/v_A = 2\pi Dr H_r \phi / (\delta q)$ determines whether hydrate clogging ($v_D/v_A > 1.0$) or unconstrained advection ($v_D/v_A < 1.0$) will take place. For example, clogging is not anticipated in sandy sediments and sandstones near the injection well during continuous injection, (assuming $\delta \sim 10^{-4}$ m, i.e., the plug length is similar to the pore size). However, a stagnant CO₂ fluid front will promote hydrate formation and a differential pressure $p_{\text{CO}_2} - p_w$ will be needed to break the CO₂ hydrate seal in order to continue injecting CO₂. Assuming cylindrical pore geometry, the additional CO₂ pressure is $p_{\text{CO}_2} - p_w = 4\beta\delta/d$, where β is the hydrate-mineral bonding strength, d is the pore diameter and δ the plug thickness. For plugs $d \sim \delta$ and a bonding strength $\beta \sim 250$ kPa, the differential pressure to reinitiate pumping is $p_{\text{CO}_2} - p_w \sim 1$ MPa.

[45] The complex interaction among coexisting processes may give rise to emergent bifurcation phenomena such as viscous fingering and gas-driven fractures. On the other hand, self-homogenizing effects may also arise; for example, CH₄ gas production during CO₂ injection will reduce the local permeability and hinder the formation of CO₂ fingers.

6. Conclusions

[46] The replacement of CH₄ by CO₂ in hydrate-bearing sediments involves multiple coexisting processes, such as mass and heat transport, heat liberation, dissolution, gas production, and fluid volume change.

[47] The CH₄ hydrate cage must separate to release the CH₄ molecule and trap the CO₂ molecule. This transient and local solid-liquid-solid transition within the stability field is assisted by the excess heat liberated during CH₄-CO₂ replacement and can extend as far as ~10 K inside the stability field. The presence of minerals, water, and excess gas can limit this self-sustaining reaction to within ~3 K of the CH₄ hydrate boundary. While available data are limited, experimental and theoretical considerations suggest that replacement rates increase near the CH₄ hydrate phase boundary, with increasing pore fluid pressure until the CO₂ liquefies, and, when CH₄ hydrate masses are small so the contact surface available for CO₂ exchange is high.

[48] New experimental results highlight the high solubility of water and CH₄ in liquid CO₂. Hydrate-forming water dissolves into liquid CO₂, so that lower hydrate saturation is expected after CH₄-CO₂ replacement in water-limited reservoirs. The transient in hydrate stiffness that should accompany local solid-liquid-solid CH₄-CO₂ replacement has a very small effect on macroscale skeleton stiffness and the sediment should experience low volumetric strains during CH₄-CO₂ replacement under drained conditions.

[49] Processes and properties reviewed in this study allow us to anticipate various reservoir scale phenomena during CH₄-CO₂ replacement, including potential decrease in water saturation, decrease in the liquid relative permeability, pronounced increase in fluid volume when a CH₄ gas phase is formed, CO₂ hydrate clogging when the velocity of the invading front is low and there is enough water to supersaturate the CO₂, and the possibility of CO₂ fingering leading to CH₄ hydrate occlusion within the reservoir. Excess-gas methane hydrate reservoirs should be more amenable to CH₄-CO₂ replacement because of high permeability to CO₂, large interface between CH₄ hydrate and CO₂, and no early CO₂ hydrate clogging. Volume-pressure changes associated to CH₄-CO₂ replacement in excess-water reservoirs may cause increase in fluid pressure, decrease in effective stress and strength loss, volume expansion, and gas-driven fractures if a CH₄ gas phase develops and the permeability is low enough to prevent pressure dissipation.

Notation

n	stoichiometric ratio.
H	heat energy [kJ mol ⁻¹].
λ	thermal conductivity [W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹].
ρ	density [kg m ⁻³].
ϕ	porosity.
V	volume [m ³].
T	temperature [K].
G	shear stiffness [Pa].
P	pressure [Pa].
M	mass [g].
m	molar mass [g mol ⁻¹].
S	volumetric fractions.
R	gas constant [J (mol K) ⁻¹].
c	specific heat [J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹].
σ'	effective stress [Pa].
C_c^*	compression index.
ε	volumetric strain.
R_{BR}	bubble point ratio [mol mol ⁻¹].

$y_{CO_2}^{H_2O}$	solubility of water in CO ₂ [mol mol ⁻¹].
v_A	advection fluid velocity [m s ⁻¹].
q	flow rate [m ³ s ⁻¹].
r	distance to the center of the wellbore [m].
H_r	hydrate reservoir thickness [m].
v_D	diffusion front velocity [m s ⁻¹].
δ	hydrate plug length [m].

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