

Effect of the fractal distribution of the radius of CO₂ patches on the ultrasonic velocity and attenuation of tight rocks

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ABSTRACT

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) injection is currently being carried out to improve hydrocarbon recovery and reduce carbon emissions. In this study, we measure the ultrasonic velocity and attenuation during supercritical CO₂ injection into three oil-saturated tight rock samples (one sandstone and two carbonates). The experiments indicate that P-wave velocity is very sensitive to the pore-fluid substitutions, whereas the shear modulus and velocity are independent of it. Using the classical Gassmann model, the bulk moduli at different CO₂ saturations obtained from the data exceed the Gassmann-Voigt upper bound, which is attributed to elastic stiffening. To model the P-wave velocity and attenuation, we use a poroelastic (mesoscopic-loss) model with a fractal distribution of the radius of the CO₂ patches, and find that this model performs better than the White model, which is based on a single radius.

INTRODUCTION

Carbon dioxide (CO₂), an important component of the earth's atmosphere, has attracted considerable attention in recent years due to its crucial role in global warming and climate change (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2022). Carbon capture and storage, which involves the injection of CO₂ into subsurface formations or hydrocarbon reservoirs, is considered an optimal strategy to mitigate this problem (Schrage, 2007; Alemu et al., 2013; Vasco et al., 2019). To achieve effective long-term storage of subsurface CO₂, time-lapse seismic methods have been used to map the movement of CO₂ in the subsurface and estimate CO₂ saturation (Arts et al., 2004; Daley et al., 2008; Chadwick et al., 2010; Caspari et al., 2011;

Li et al., 2013). However, CO₂ injection creates a complex system of CO₂, pore fluid, and mineral grains in the rock (Thomas and Benson, 2005; Lei and Xue, 2009; Yu et al., 2019), especially under additional temperature and pressure conditions (Yang et al., 2022, Deng et al., 2023, 2024; Li et al., 2024). This complicates the understanding of the relationship between CO₂ saturation/spatial distribution and elastic wave velocity/attenuation. This complexity poses a major challenge for the time-lapse seismic monitoring of CO₂ storage in subsurface reservoirs.

CO₂ injection can lead to the dissolution or precipitation of mineral grains (Le Guen et al., 2007; Vialle and Vanorio, 2011; Alam et al., 2014; Delle Piane and Sarout, 2016; Foroutan et al., 2021), changes in pore fluid properties (Batzle and Wang, 1992; Han et al., 2012), and changes in pore structure (Jiang et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2023). Eventually, these changes may affect the porosity and elastic properties of the rock, which have been investigated through a series of laboratory tests. Wang and Nur (1989) conduct pioneering work measuring the P- (V_P) and S-wave (V_S) velocities of eight sandstones saturated with n-hexadecane before and after CO₂ flooding. Given that CO₂ injection gradually displaces pore fluid, the elastic properties of a partially saturated rock can be described by Gassmann's (1951) equation, incorporating the fluid bulk modulus from Wood's (1941) equation (GW bound). Their findings indicate that the results of the GW bound closely agreed with the measurements. Xue and Ohsumi (2004) and Shi et al. (2007) investigate the changes in V_P of water-saturated Tako sandstone under different types of CO₂ flooding scenarios, comparing their measurements with predictions estimated from the GW bound. Siggins (2006) and Siggins et al. (2010) perform experimental investigations of P-wave velocity and attenuation in synthetic and field sandstone samples during CO₂ injection. Lebedev et al. (2013) measure the acoustic velocity of five shaley sandstones from the Otway Basin during supercritical CO₂ (scCO₂) displacement, revealing a transition from the GH bound to the GW bound at varying scCO₂ saturations (The effective bulk

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modulus of a partially saturated rock is estimated from the Hill (1963) equation by using the bulk modulus of each phase obtained with the Gassmann equation.) Kitamura et al. (2014) inject CO₂ into a porous sandstone under in situ pressure and temperature conditions, and monitor the changes in V_P and V_S with saturation. Mohapatra et al. (2019) experimentally measure the ultrasonic velocity of Tuscaloosa sandstone during sequential displacement of pore fluids (brine, oil, and CO₂), and analyze the applicability of the Gassmann equation in rocks saturated with different fluid mixtures.

It is known that the elastic properties of partially saturated rocks are influenced not only by saturation levels but also by pore fluid distribution (Cadoret et al., 1995; Müller et al., 2010; Ba et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2022). Xue and Lei (2006) measure the V_P of water-saturated sandstones during CO₂ injection, demonstrating that P-wave velocity tomograms obtained from differential seismic tomography were associated with CO₂ migration, which was governed by the heterogeneity of pore distribution. Using the same experimental method, Lei and Xue (2009) find that the White and Dutta and Odé (1979) model align well with the measured velocity and attenuation at various CO₂ saturations, under the assumption that patch sizes are uniform. They suggested that CO₂ injection might create CO₂ patches of varying sizes within the formation, potentially exhibiting a fractal distribution pattern. This conclusion was corroborated by Zhang et al. (2015), who illustrated the distribution of CO₂ and brine in porous sandstone using computed tomography (CT) images during CO₂/brine injection and estimated the fractal dimension of the P-wave modulus based on these images. In addition, they found that the predictions of the continuous random patchy saturation model (Toms et al., 2007; Müller et al., 2008) were consistent with their measurements. Furthermore, Zhang et al. (2017) compare the CO₂ distributions in one sandstone and one tuff during CO₂ injection and find that the distribution in the former was more heterogeneous during drainage. Yun and Song (2022) conduct experimental investigations of pore fluid substitutions of CO₂ and H₂O in Berea sandstone and discuss the effects of pore fluid distribution on V_P .

Pore fluids with gas mixture affect both elastic and electrical properties in fractured rocks (Liu et al., 2022; Sheng et al., 2024). Because CO₂ injection also affects the electrical property of the rock, it can provide additional and complementary information to better understand how CO₂ injection affects seismic attributes. Alemu et al. (2013) measure the electrical resistivity and ultrasonic velocities of reservoir rock during the imbibition and drainage of CO₂, as well as simultaneously mapping fluid distribution using an X-ray CT scanner. They compared the measured velocity with the mode prediction of GW, using the Gassmann equation with fluid bulk modulus from the Voigt equation (GV), and Brie et al. (1995). Their results demonstrated how subcore scale heterogeneities and fluid distribution patterns impact elastic and electrical properties. Kim et al. (2011) report the changes in resistivity and V_P during CO₂ injection into water-saturated sandstone. Their findings indicated that the saturation estimated from resistivity can clarify the relationship between CO₂ saturation and V_P . Based on this conclusion, Falcon-Suarez et al. (2018) remark that the measured ultrasonic P-wave velocities and attenuations are influenced by CO₂ distribution and squirt flow effects. In a subsequent study on the elastic behavior of CO₂-brine saturated fractured rocks, Falcon-Suarez et al. (2020) measure ultrasonic P- and S-wave velocity and attenuation and electrical resistivity of synthetic fractured sandstone. They analyzed the dependence of these measurements on

CO₂ saturation using the model proposed by Jin et al. (2018), which combines patchy fluid distribution and the squirt flow phenomenon for partially saturated anisotropic rocks. To further understand the relationship of CO₂ saturation and elastic wave velocity and attenuation at seismic frequencies, Nakagawa et al. (2013) conduct seismic measurements of sandstones in a frequency band of 1–2 kHz during scCO₂ injection and compare their measurements with the predicted results from Gassmann and White models. Mikhaltsevitch et al. (2014) experimentally measure the elastic moduli of sandstone flooded with scCO₂ at seismic (0.1–100 Hz) and ultrasonic (approximately 0.5 MHz) frequencies. They found that the Gassmann model has the ability to interpret the measurements. Agofack et al. (2018) investigate the effect of CO₂ on V_P and V_S of Castlegate sandstone at seismic (1–155 Hz) and ultrasonic frequencies (approximately 500 kHz). They found that P-wave velocity dispersion and attenuation can be described by the Cole and Cole (1941) model.

The effects of rock-pore fluid-CO₂ interactions on the elastic properties were not considered in the preceding studies. However, understanding these interactions is crucial, particularly in the contexts of CO₂ sequestration, hydrocarbon recovery, and other subsurface applications. Several studies have investigated how these interactions influence the mechanical and elastic properties of reservoir rocks. Chapman et al. (2021) conduct CO₂ exsolution experiments on a Berea sandstone sample, demonstrating that numerical simulations incorporating CO₂ saturation distributions derived from X-ray CT scans closely matched measurements of attenuation and modulus dispersion across frequencies ranging from 0.1 to 1000 Hz. Hangx et al. (2013, 2015) investigate the effect of CO₂/brine/rock interactions on the mechanical behavior of sandstone samples. Their research highlighted that prolonged exposure to CO₂-rich brine could lead to mineral dissolution and precipitation reactions, which weaken the rock matrix. This alteration, in turn, affects the elastic moduli and strength of the rock. Falcon-Suarez et al. (2024) measure the elastic and electrical properties of three sandstone samples with similar mineralogy but different physical properties using CO₂ flow-through tests. Their findings revealed that CO₂ distribution correlates with the clay fraction, CO₂-clay chemical interactions, and the porosity of the samples. In addition, they showed that the measured P-wave velocity (V_P) during drainage was well described by the White and Dutta-Odé model, whereas the measurements during imbibition were adequately explained by the GW bound.

CO₂ injection has proven to be an effective method of enhancing oil and gas recovery in tight reservoirs that have significant resource potential. Most previous studies concentrate on injecting CO₂ into water-saturated high porosity sandstone, but few studies pay attention to elastic wave velocity and attenuation of oil-saturated tight rocks during CO₂ injection. In this work, we selected three tight rock samples — two carbonate and one sandstone — to measure ultrasonic wave velocity and attenuation at varying scCO₂ saturation. The effects of CO₂ saturation and distribution were then analyzed according to a theoretical model of partially saturated rocks proposed by Zhang et al. (2022). Finally, we compared the predicted result of the White model and measurements.

EXPERIMENTS

Samples

Two tight carbonate samples (Met 16 and Met 17) from the Metajan district were prepared as cylinders with dimensions of

43.3/50.0 mm in length and 38.02/38.03 mm in diameter, respectively. Both samples primarily consist of calcite (>95%) and clay (<5%) (Yu et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2024). In addition, one tight sandstone sample (2–8) from Member 7 of the Yanchang Formation in the Ordos Basin has a length of 36.25 mm and a diameter of 25.19 mm. Its composition, determined from X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis, includes quartz (54.88%), potassium feldspar (9.74%), plagioclase (21.87%), calcite (1.96%), iron dolomite (1.97%), dolomite (3.16%), siderite (1.07%), and clay (5.35%). The physical properties of the samples are provided in Table 1. The thin section of sample 2–8 (Figure 1) shows that the rock particles have good sorting and roundness (subangular), and contain a number of pores and microcracks.

Experimental procedure

To investigate the effect of CO₂ injection on elastic properties of the oil-saturated samples, we conducted ultrasonic experiments under varying CO₂ saturation using an experimental apparatus shown in Figure 2. The procedure consisted of the following steps: (1) The samples underwent an oil-salt washing treatment, and were placed in a constant temperature chamber and dried to a constant weight at 105 ± 2°C. (2) The cold-cut samples were positioned in a holder, and the confining pressure (P_c) was increased to 20 MPa using a control unit. Simultaneously, a heating device raised the chamber temperature (T) to 35°C, and CO₂ was injected from both ends through the pore pressure control unit, and the pore pressure (P_p) was subsequently increased to 9 MPa. Throughout the injection process, real-time monitoring of gas volume changes occurred, and the sample was considered fully saturated when the injected gas volume no longer increased. These conditions were maintained for 4 h. Then, the ultrasonic P- and S-wave velocities and attenuation were measured using the pulse transmission method. (4) The samples were then removed from the holder and subjected to oil saturation by vacuum extraction and pressure application until their weight stabilized. The fully oil-saturated samples were then returned to the holder, where the same experimental conditions as in the step (3) were applied to measure the P- and S-wave velocities and attenuation. (5) Because the pressure at the outlet is lower than the critical pressure of scCO₂ (7.39 MPa), the phase at the outlet may turn to gas during the oil displacement process, resulting in some oil loss and affecting the accurate calculation of the oil saturation of the samples. Therefore, this experiment first used nitrogen gas for displacement at the room temperature and a constant pore pressure of 1.5 MPa. A measuring tube was installed at the outlet to quantify the volume of oil displaced. After calculating the oil saturation of the samples, the outlet was sealed, and scCO₂ was then injected from both ends. Under the high-pressure conditions of scCO₂, the volume of nitrogen is significantly compressed by the CO₂, which does not affect the CO₂ saturation. Once the injected gas volume stabilized, the sample was considered saturated. These conditions were maintained for 4 h before measuring the P- and S-wave velocities and attenuation. This procedure was repeated sequentially to measure the P- and S-wave velocities and attenuation of the samples with varying scCO₂

saturation. The properties of the pore fluids used in the tests are provided in Table 2.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The experimental results of three samples as a function of scCO₂ saturation are shown in Figure 3. Figure 3a shows that the V_p of samples Met 16 and Met 17 decrease with increasing scCO₂ saturation. A similar trend has been reported by Alemu et al. (2013) and Yun and Song (2022). The corresponding V_s increase slowly with increasing saturation (Figure 3b), which contrasts with the observed V_p trend. This behavior is primarily attributed to the scCO₂, having a lower density than oil. In contrast, the V_p of sample 2–8 first

Table 1. Physical properties of the samples.

Sample	Met 16	Met 17	2–8
Porosity ϕ (%)	8.384	4.638	10.345
Dry-rock density ρ_{dry} (kg/m ³)	2428.9	2553.4	2340
Permeability κ (mD)	2.612	0.398	0.096

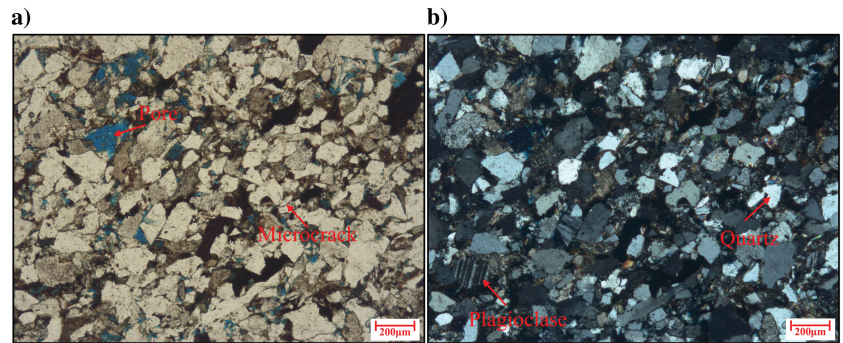


Figure 1. Thin section of sample 2–8 under orthogonal (a) single and (b) polarization images.

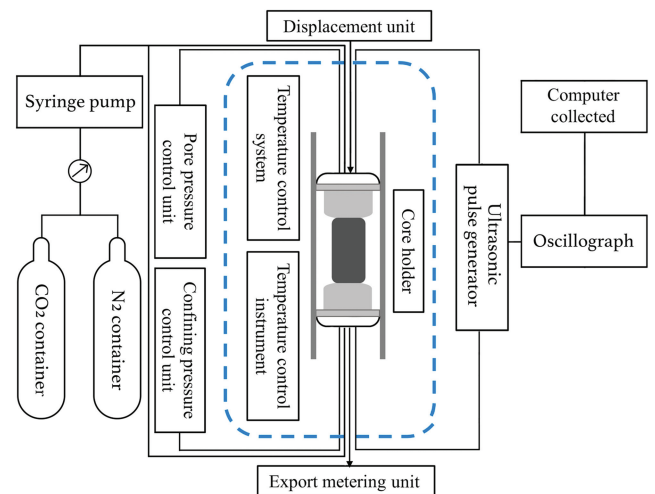


Figure 2. Diagram of the apparatus with ultrasonic P- and S-wave measurement system (modified from Zhang et al. 2024).

increases and then decreases, indicating a nonlinear behavior, reflecting complex interactions. Falcon-Suarez et al. (2024) report similar effects, and suggest that this behavior arises from a decrease in effective mobility, leading to stronger velocity dispersion at lower scCO₂ saturation. Sample 2–8, which has the highest porosity, shows the most significant decrease in V_P , followed by samples Met 16 and Met 17. This behavior is consistent with the sample porosities.

Table 2. Physical properties of the pore fluids at $P_p = 9$ MPa and $T = 35^\circ\text{C}$.

Fluid type	Density (kg/m ³)	Bulk modulus (GPa)	Viscosity (cP)
scCO ₂ ³	662.13	0.0503	0.0514
Oil	801.7	1.6234	2.0

³The density, viscosity, and sound velocity of scCO₂ are obtained from the National Institute for Standards and Technology (Lemmon et al., 2012), and the bulk modulus is calculated from density and sound velocity.

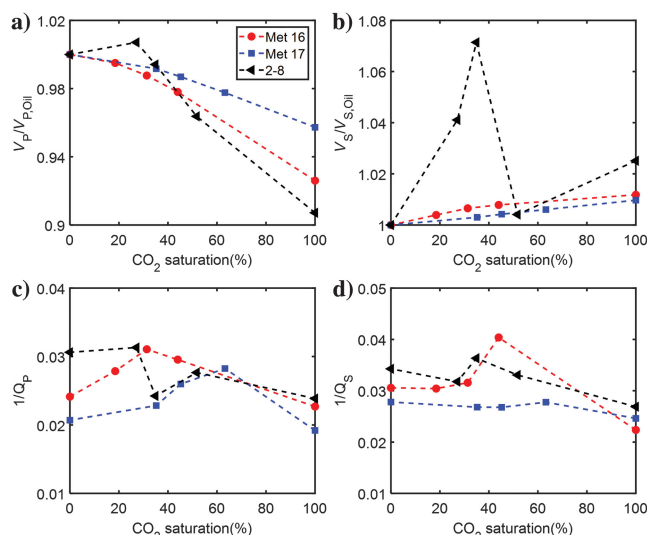


Figure 3. Experimental ultrasonic P- and S-wave velocities and attenuation of samples Met 16, Met 17, and 2–8 as a function of scCO₂ saturation, where the velocities are normalized with respect to the corresponding values of the oil-saturated samples ($V_{P,oil} = 5405$, 6030, 4264 m/s and $V_{S,oil} = 2809$, 3005, 2466 m/s).

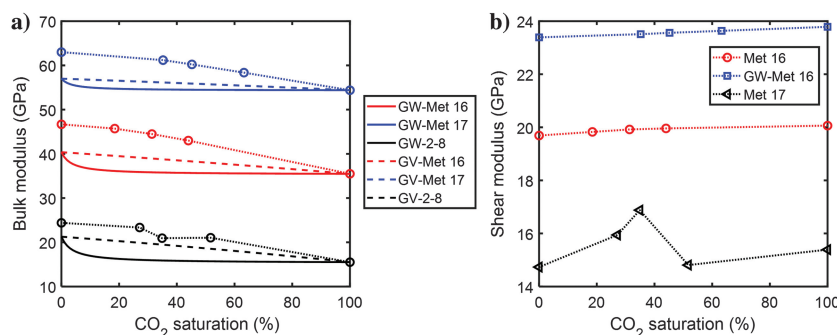


Figure 4. (a) Bulk and (b) shear moduli of samples Met 16, Met 17, and 2–8 as a function of CO₂ saturation. The dotted lines with circles are the measurements, and the solid and broken lines are the predicted values by the GW and GV bounds.

The corresponding P- and S-wave attenuations ($1/Q_P$ and $1/Q_S$) are shown in Figure 3c and 3d, respectively. For sample Met 16, $1/Q_P$ is highest at scCO₂ saturation of 31.4%, whereas $1/Q_S$ peaks at scCO₂ saturation of 44%. In the case of sample Met 17, $1/Q_P$ and $1/Q_S$ reach their maximum values at scCO₂ saturation of 63.3%. For sample 2–8, attenuation $1/Q_P$ and $1/Q_S$ have maxima reaching at saturations of 27.1% and 35%, respectively. This complex attenuation behavior may reflect localized zones of higher or lower scCO₂ concentration, leading to uneven seismic energy dissipation and potentially influencing wave propagation (Papageorgiou et al., 2018). It is also noted that the attenuation peak shifts to higher scCO₂ saturation as porosity increases. The attenuation at full oil saturation shows a correlation with porosity.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Effect of the pore fluid on the elastic moduli

Figure 4 shows the effect of the pore fluid, where the elastic moduli are calculated from the experimental V_P , V_S , and $\rho = \rho_{dry} + \phi(\rho_o S_o + \rho_{CO_2} S_{CO_2})$, where ρ_{dry} is the dry-rock density; ρ_o and ρ_{CO_2} are the oil and CO₂ densities, respectively; and S_o and S_{CO_2} are the corresponding saturations. Figure 4b shows that the shear moduli of the rock fully saturated with oil and scCO₂ are nearly identical. This indicates that the CO₂ injection does not change the shear moduli of the skeleton. A similar behavior has been reported (Lebedev et al., 2013; Yun and Song, 2022). At $P_p = 9$ MPa and $T = 35^\circ\text{C}$, the bulk modulus (viscosity) of scCO₂ is in the same order of magnitude as that of air, which leads to minimal differences in experimental measurements between dry and scCO₂-saturated rocks. This conclusion can also be found in Figure 10 of Lebedev et al. (2013). It is therefore reasonable to assume that fluid dispersion effects in the scCO₂-saturated samples in this work can be considered negligible. Consequently, we assume that the dry-rock elastic moduli can be estimated from measurements of fully CO₂-saturated rocks by applying the inverse Gassmann equation. For samples Met 16, Met 17, and 2–8, the inverted dry-rock bulk/shear moduli are 35.31/20.07, 54.3/23.78, and 15.4/15.3 GPa, respectively. These values are incorporated into the GW and GV bounds. The grain bulk/shear moduli of samples Met 16 and Met 17 are 76.8/32 GPa, corresponding to the elastic moduli of calcite. The bulk/shear Voigt-Reuss-Hill averages of sample 2–8 are 46.8/33.2 GPa (Mavko et al., 2009), based on a mineralogical composition determined by XRD analysis.

Figure 4a shows that the experimental bulk moduli exceed the predictions of the upper (i.e., GV) bound, with the discrepancy increasing as the CO₂ saturation decreases. This behavior differs from previous results for high-porosity sandstone (e.g., Lebedev et al., 2013; Lei and Xue, 2009; Yun and Song, 2022), suggesting that when the rock is saturated with oil, part of it saturates the microcracks and the stiffness of the rock skeleton increases (Mavko and Jizba, 1991). Furthermore, the presence of local fluid flow resulting from fabric heterogeneities contributes to this discrepancy, which is not accounted for in this study.

The effect of pore fluid distribution

To investigate the effect of the pore fluid distribution, we use a fractal distribution of the size and volume fractions of the CO₂ fluid patches (Zhang et al., 2022) into a fully oil-saturated medium (or host). The corresponding equations of wave propagation can be found in Appendix A.

In this model, the CO₂ patches are assumed to follow a self-similar distribution with

$$v_l = 1 - \left(\frac{r_{\min}}{r_{\max}} \right)^{D_E - D_f}, \quad (1)$$

where v_l is the inclusion volume fraction, which is equal to the scCO₂ saturation; $r_{\max}$ and $r_{\min}$ are the maximum and minimum inclusion radii, respectively; $D_E = 3$ is the Euclidean dimension; and D_f is the fractal dimension ($2 < D_f < 3$).

Figure 5a shows that the velocity does not depend of the fractal dimension at ultrasonic frequencies (i.e., $f = 10^6$ Hz) because the CO₂ modulus is much smaller than that of oil. In contrast, the velocity shows significant changes with the range of the inclusion radii (r), as shown in Figure 5b. Zhang et al. (2015) report that the relation between the fractal dimension D_f and saturation is nonunique. In what follows, we assume $D_f = 2.65$ and the distribution range of the inclusion radius is treated as a fitting parameter, which change as S_{CO_2} varies (Zhang et al., 2022).

Because the elastic stiffening of the skeleton, described previously, cannot be described by this model, we assume that the dry-rock shear modulus is a constant, and consider the dry-rock bulk modulus a fitting parameter. Figure 6 compares the measurements of samples Met 16, Met 17 and 2–8 and the theoretical results. The inverted dry-rock bulk moduli are provided in Table 3. Note that these moduli for samples Met 16 and Met 17 increase with decreasing S_{CO_2} , whereas those of sample 2–8 increase initially and then decrease. These moduli are input to the GW, GV, and Gassmann-Brie equations. (In the Brie model Brie et al. [1995] model, the effective fluid modulus is $K_f = (K_{oil} - K_{CO_2})(1 - S_{CO_2})^n + K_{CO_2}$). Figure 6a, 6c, and 6e shows that the theoretical V_P agrees with the measurements for the distribution ranges of the CO₂ patches radii provided in Table 3. The radii of the CO₂ patches increase as S_{CO_2} increases. The distribution range of radii for samples Met 17 and 2–8 differs noticeably at $S_{CO_2} = 35\%$. This indicates that the pore fluid distribution is affected by the rock heterogeneity (Zhang et al., 2017). This means that the ultrasonic attenuation and velocity strongly depends on CO₂ saturation and inclusion radii. Although V_P obtained with the Gassmann-Brie equation ($n = 1.8, 1.8$, and 1.4 for samples Met 16,

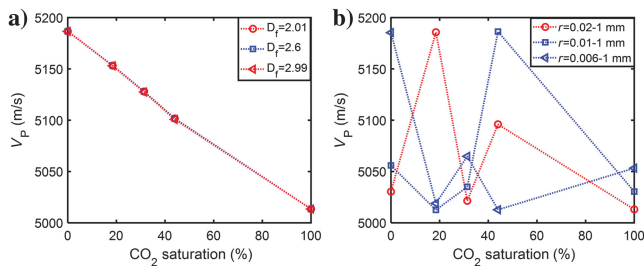


Figure 5. (a) Theoretical V_P at ultrasonic frequencies as a function of scCO₂ saturation with varying D_f and (b) distribution range of the inclusion radii, according to the parameters of sample Met 16.

Met 17, and 2–8, respectively) shows a good agreement with the measurements, it does not provide detailed information on the distribution of CO₂ patches. Moreover, the measurements are within the GW and GV bounds.

Figure 6b, 6d, and 6f shows that the predicted $1/Q_P$ are smaller than measurements, which may be attributed attenuation associated with the skeleton (Tisato and Quintal, 2013; Kuteynikova et al., 2014), as well as attenuation due to fabric heterogeneities (Ba et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2021). For samples Met 16 and Met 17, the theoretical $1/Q_P$ follow the same trend as those of the measurements. The predicted and measured $1/Q_P$ of sample Met 16 have a maximum at the same saturation. In contrast, the predicted $1/Q_P$ of sample 2–8 differs in trend from the measurements.

Comparison with the White model

In previous studies (Carcione et al., 2003; Lei and Xue, 2009; Nakagawa et al., 2013; Falcon-Suarez et al., 2024), the White model has been extensively used to assess the effect of pore fluids on wave attenuation, generally assuming a constant patch radius. Carcione et al. (2018) use the White mesoscopic-loss model with normal, Rayleigh, and uniform distributions of patch sizes. The radius of the CO₂ patches (denoted by a) can be estimated by fitting the experimental data with the White model using a least-squares regression. Figure 7 shows that this model performs well with $a = 0.62, 0.17$, and 0.18 mm for samples Met 16, Met 17, and 2–8, respectively. Here, a can be considered as an effective radius, approximating the actual pore fluid distribution, and its value is within the distribution range (see Table 3). However, Figure 7b, 7d, and 7f shows that the theoretical $1/Q_P$ performs worse than the proposed model in this work, particularly for sample 2–8.

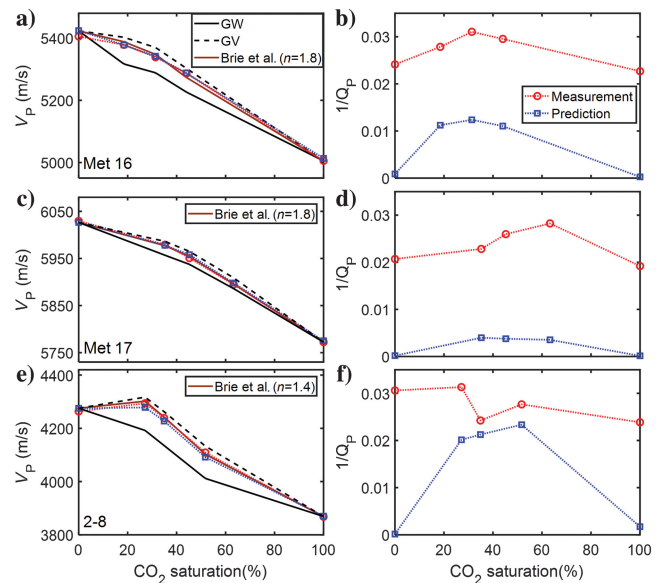


Figure 6. (a, c, and e) P-wave velocity and (b, d, and f) attenuation of samples Met 16, Met 17, and 2–8, respectively, as a function of scCO₂ saturation. The dotted lines with circles are the measurements, the dotted lines with squares are the theoretical results of Zhang et al. (2022), the brown line corresponds to the Brie model, and the solid and broken lines are the GW and GV bounds.

Table 3. Inverted dry-rock bulk moduli and distribution range of the inclusion radii of samples Met 16, Met 17, and 2–8.

Met 16					
S_{CO_2} (%)	100	44	31.4	18.5	0
K_b (GPa)	35.31	41	42.6	43.2	43.27
r	0.06–3 mm	0.048–3 mm	0.03–3 mm	0.024–3 mm	—
Met 17					
S_{CO_2} (%)	100	63.3	45.2	35.2	0
K_b (GPa)	54.3	57.8	59.4	60	61
r	0.03–3 mm	0.024–3 mm	0.024–3 mm	0.019–3 mm	—
2–8					
S_{CO_2} (%)	100	51.7	35	27.1	0
K_b (GPa)	15.3	18	20.4	21.5	19
r	0.012–1.5 mm	0.075–1.5 mm	0.006–1.5 mm	0.0047–1.5 mm	—

uration. Combining laboratory measurements with a proper theoretical model provides valuable insights for estimating CO_2 saturation and patch sizes from seismic time-lapse data due to fluid injection. This approach can also provide more inferences and valid scenarios on pore properties from measurements to explain the effects on seismic velocities and attenuation. Based on these results, several follow-up research pieces will address: (1) the effects of CO_2 injection on rock-physical properties for different rock types, and as a function of temperature and pressure; (2) the influence of rock microstructure on the macroscopic physical properties during CO_2 injection; and (3) the improvement of theoretical models to better account for the complex fluid-rock interactions in tight reservoirs.

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DATA AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

Data associated with this research are available and can be obtained by contacting the corresponding author.

APPENDIX A

WAVE PROPAGATION OF PARTIALLY SATURATED ROCKS WITH A FRACTAL DISTRIBUTION OF FLUID PATCHES

The corresponding equations for wave propagation are (Zhang et al., 2022)

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (N + NZ\phi_0 dS) \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + (A + N) \nabla e + (A_d + NZ) \phi_0 dS \nabla e \\
 & + Q_H \phi_0 S \nabla (\xi_H + \zeta \phi_0 dS) \\
 & + R_H \left(\frac{Q_1}{K_f^1} - \frac{Q_1}{K_s} - 1 \right) \phi_0 dS \nabla \xi_H + Q_1 \phi_0 dS \nabla (\xi_1 - \phi_0 S \zeta) \\
 & = \rho_{00} \ddot{\mathbf{u}} + (\rho_{00} Z - \rho_s - \rho_{02}) \phi_0 dS \ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \rho_{01} \phi_0 S \ddot{\mathbf{u}}_H \\
 & + \rho_{01} \phi_0^2 Z S dS \ddot{\mathbf{u}}_H + \rho_{02} \phi_0 dS \ddot{\mathbf{u}}_1 \\
 & + \frac{\phi_0^2 S \eta_f^H}{\kappa_H} (\ddot{\mathbf{u}} - \ddot{\mathbf{u}}_H) + \frac{\phi_0^3 S \eta_f^H}{\kappa_H} Z dS (\ddot{\mathbf{u}} - \ddot{\mathbf{u}}_H) + \frac{\phi_0^2 \eta_f^H dS}{\kappa_H} (\ddot{\mathbf{u}} - \ddot{\mathbf{u}}_1),
 \end{aligned} \tag{A-1a}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & Q_H \nabla e + R_H \nabla (\xi_H + \zeta \phi_0 dS) + \frac{R_H}{\phi} (\nabla \xi_H - \nabla e) \phi_0 dS \\
 & = \left(1 + \frac{R_H}{S} \left(\frac{1}{K_f^H} - \frac{1}{K_s} \right) dS \right) \left(\rho_{01} \ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \rho_{11} \ddot{\mathbf{u}}_H - \frac{\phi_0 \eta_f^H}{\kappa_H} (\ddot{\mathbf{u}} - \ddot{\mathbf{u}}_H) \right),
 \end{aligned} \tag{A-1b}$$

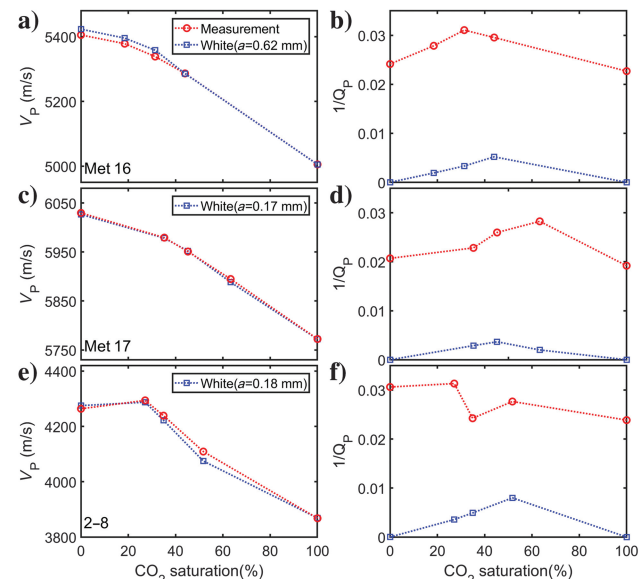


Figure 7. (a, c, and e) P-wave velocity and (b, d, and f) attenuation of samples Met 16, Met 17, and 2–8, respectively, as a function of $scCO_2$ saturation. The dotted lines with circles are the measurements, and the dotted lines with squares are the results of the White model with a single CO_2 patch radius.

CONCLUSION

We conducted experiments to measure the ultrasonic velocity and attenuation of oil-saturated tight rocks during CO_2 injection. The experimental data show that the P-wave velocities decrease significantly with increasing saturation, whereas the S-wave velocities show only a minimal change. This indicates that the elastic properties of the rock skeleton remain largely unchanged during injection. We also found a phenomenon of elastic stiffening due to oil trapped in the cracks, causing the classical Gassmann model to fail in accurately describing the measurements. Comparisons with theoretical models show that the velocity and attenuation of P waves depend on saturation and a fractal distribution range of the CO_2 patch radii. We find that this range decreases with increasing sat-

$$Q_1 \nabla e + R_1 \nabla (\xi_1 - \phi_0 S \zeta) = \rho_{02} \ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \rho_{22} \ddot{\mathbf{U}}_1 - \frac{\phi_0 \eta_f^H}{\kappa_H} (\dot{\mathbf{u}} - \dot{\mathbf{U}}_1), \quad (\text{A-1c})$$

$$\begin{aligned} & (Q_H e + R_H (\xi_H + \zeta \phi_0 dS)) - (Q_1 e + R_1 (\xi_1 - \phi_0 S \zeta)) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} r^2 \phi_0^2 S \left(\frac{\rho_f^H}{\phi_0} \ddot{\zeta} + \frac{\eta_f^H}{\kappa_H} \dot{\zeta} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A-1d})$$

where $\mathbf{u}$ is the solid displacement. Here, $\mathbf{U}_H$ and $\mathbf{U}_1$ are the fluid displacements of the two pore phases saturated by oil and scCO₂, respectively; ξ_H (S) and ξ_1 (dS) are the corresponding fluid strains (volume fractions); η_f^H and η_f^I are the viscosities of the host and inclusion fluids, respectively; and ρ_f^H is the fluid density of the host fluid. Moreover, the scalar ζ denotes the fluid strain increment between the two pore phases; K_s and ρ_s are the grain bulk modulus and density, respectively; K_b and G_b are the dry-rock bulk and shear moduli, respectively; κ_H is the permeability of the skeleton; and ϕ_0 is the porosity of the host phase. The expressions of the stiffnesses are

$$A = (1 - \phi_0 S) K_s - \frac{2}{3} N - K_s / K_f^H Q_H \phi_0 S, \quad (\text{A-2a})$$

$$\begin{aligned} A_d &= (1 - \phi_0 S) K_s Z - \frac{2}{3} N Z - Q_1 R_H (K_s / (K_f^H K_f^I) - 1 / K_f^I) \\ &\quad - Q_1 K_s / K_f^I + R_H K_s / K_f^H - K_s, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A-2b})$$

$$N = G_b, \quad (\text{A-2c})$$

$$Q_H = \frac{K_s (1 - \phi_0 S - K_b / K_s)}{1 - \phi_0 S - K_b / K_s + K_s / K_f^H \phi_0 S}, \quad (\text{A-2d})$$

$$Q_1 = \frac{K_s (1 - \phi_0 S - K_b / K_s)}{1 - \phi_0 S - K_b / K_s + K_s / K_f^I \phi_0 S}, \quad (\text{A-2e})$$

$$R_H = \frac{K_s \phi_0 S}{1 - \phi_0 S - K_b / K_s + K_s / K_f^H \phi_0 S}, \quad (\text{A-2f})$$

$$R_1 = \frac{K_s \phi_0 S}{1 - \phi_0 S - K_b / K_s + K_s / K_f^I \phi_0 S}, \quad (\text{A-2g})$$

$$Z = R_H / (\phi_0 S) (1 / K_f^H - 1 / K_s) + R_1 / (\phi_0 S) (1 / K_f^I - 1 / K_s), \quad (\text{A-2h})$$

and

$$\rho_{00} = (1 - \phi_0 S) \rho_s - \phi_0 \rho_{01}, \quad (\text{A-3a})$$

$$\rho_{01} = (1 - \alpha) \rho_f^H, \quad (\text{A-3b})$$

$$\rho_{02} = (1 - \alpha) \rho_f^I, \quad (\text{A-3c})$$

$$\rho_{11} = \alpha \rho_f^H, \quad (\text{A-3d})$$

$$\rho_{22} = \alpha \rho_f^I, \quad (\text{A-3e})$$

where K_b and G_b are the dry-rock bulk and shear moduli, respectively; α is the tortuosity; and ρ_f^I is the density of the inclusion fluid.

The complex P- and S-wave wave numbers (k_p and k_s , respectively) are obtained with a plane-wave analysis of equation A-1 (see equations B-1–B-4 in Ba et al., 2011). Then, the complex bulk and shear moduli of the composite porous medium are

$$K_{\text{sat}} = ((1 - \phi_0 (S + dS)) \rho_s + \phi_0 (S + dS) \rho_f) \left(\frac{\omega}{k_p} \right)^2 - \frac{4}{3} G_{\text{sat}}, \quad (\text{A-4a})$$

$$G_{\text{sat}} = ((1 - \phi_0 (S + dS)) \rho_s + \phi_0 (S + dS) \rho_f) \left(\frac{\omega}{k_s} \right)^2, \quad (\text{A-4b})$$

where ω is the angular frequency, and ρ_f is the effective fluid density.

In the subsequent addition, the equivalent homogeneous medium is modeled as a porous medium saturated with an effective fluid with a complex bulk modulus. This is obtained from the Gassmann equations and serves to define the bulk modulus of the host fluid in the next step. Upon completing the final iteration, which incorporates all CO₂ patches, we can determine V_p and $1/Q_p$ of the partially saturated medium.

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Biographies and photographs of the authors are not available.