

# Optimizing CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate storage and avoiding leakage: Numerical analysis of the self-restoring formation process of hydrate caps in submarine sandy silts

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## ABSTRACT

The sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> in the form of hydrate within submarine sediments represents a promising strategy in Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS). However, the internal mechanisms governing CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate formation in sandy silty strata remain unclear. This paper established a multi-field coupled numerical model to simulate the formation process of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate cap in a sandy silty layer in medium-depth seawater depth in the South China Sea for the first time and to evaluate the effects of different formation and injection parameters on the sealing capacity and leakage capacity. The results show that the optimum formation parameters are an initial permeability of 100mD and water saturation of 0.3. The porosity has the least effect on the sealed storage in the range of 0.2–0.4. The pressure of the injection well is slightly higher than the formation pressure and the temperature is close to the phase equilibrium temperature to achieve the ideal sealing effect. The region with high liquid CO<sub>2</sub> saturation shows horizontal diffusion between 200 and 400m. In addition, the high-pressure zone extended approximately 150m from the wellhead, with the final temperature diffusion matching the injection well up to about 20m from the wellhead. In the range of 150–400mbsf, a higher injection well location forms a broader lateral hydrate cap and a wider liquid CO<sub>2</sub> seepage range. This study provides theoretical guidance for selecting suitable formations and ensuring effective leakage control of specific sandy silty strata in the South China Sea at medium depth.

## 1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) capture and storage (CCS) is widely recognized as a key technology for mitigating adverse climate change (Ali et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2024), providing low-carbon fuel and electricity (Bistline and Blanford, 2021), decarbonizing industrial processes, and facilitating the removal of CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere (Bui et al., 2018; Krevor et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2021). An accurate understanding of potential capture and storage mechanisms is essential for the successful implementation of a safe, reliable, and widely accepted CCS program (Matter et al., 2016; Tyne et al., 2021).

Gas hydrate is formed by methane, CO<sub>2</sub>, and other gases dissolved in water at high pressure and low temperature (Sloan, 2003; Sun et al., 2024b). It has a strong gas storage capacity (1 volume of hydrate can store 180 vol of gas) and a large storage potential (the stored fuel is 2–3 times that of the fossil energy that has been discovered) (Yu et al., 2021).

CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in the form of hydrates within submarine sediments presents a unique CCS strategy with several advantages over traditional geological sequestration methods. First, the main capture mechanisms of terrestrial sequestration, such as residual capture (Ajayi et al., 2019), dissolution capture (Li et al., 2023b), and mineral capture (Fu et al., 2023; Kalam et al., 2021; Snæbjörnsdóttir et al., 2020) are also applicable in this context (Khandoozi et al., 2023). Secondly, in most Marine sediments, pore fluid closely resembles seawater, meaning that the replacement of pore fluid during CO<sub>2</sub> storage poses minimal environmental risks. However, for terrestrial storage, the pore fluids typically exhibit higher salinity and may contain toxic metals, such as lead and arsenic, due to geological processes like evaporation and the hydrological cycle (Schrage, 2009). The third advantage is the abundance of pore space and the loose skeletal structure of seafloor sediments, which negates the need for complex drilling techniques, thus reducing both costs and the risk of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage (Ali Hussein et al., 2023). The fourth point is

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that the formation of the CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate cap can also protect the geological stability of the depleted methane hydrate zone and store a large amount of CO<sub>2</sub> (Sambo and Gupta, 2025; Sun et al., 2019). Compared with the direct depressurized exploitation of gas hydrate, the CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate cap increased gas production by 146.56 % and decreased water production by 37.47 % (Guo et al., 2024). Finally, an effective containment barrier can be established by combining the negative buoyancy zone (NBZ) and the hydrate formation zone (HFZ) within the sediment (Li et al., 2022c). This storage barrier significantly differs from the issues of ocean acidification and marine ecosystem damage associated with the direct storage of seawater (Hofmann and Schellnhuber, 2010).

Research on CO<sub>2</sub> storage through the hydrate method has made preliminary progress (Bhati et al., 2025). In terms of the prevention of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage, Li et al. (2022c) assumed the occurrence of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage, through experimental simulation, and found that as CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate gradually forms in sediments, it obstructs the migration of leaked CO<sub>2</sub> to the seabed. This results in a gradual reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> injection from the seabed. The formation of a hydrate cap with appropriate high saturation in the sediments above the leakage point facilitates secondary storage of CO<sub>2</sub>. Qanbari et al. (2011) reported that CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from power plants injected at depths of approximately 800m below the seabed will rise until a depth of about 360m below the seabed, at which point CO<sub>2</sub> forms a hydrate cap layer, preventing further upward migration. CO<sub>2</sub> can migrate an additional 135m before reaching the negative buoyancy zone. Teng and Zhang (Teng and Zhang, 2018) observed low buoyancy and high viscosity slow the formation of rising plumes, while the formation of hydrate sealing layers effectively reduces permeability, ensuring the safe and permanent sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> in marine sediments. Zhao et al. (2023) found that the strength of hydrate cover increases as hydrate formation continues. When hydrate saturation falls below 27.8 %, the hydrate cap becomes unstable, and liquid CO<sub>2</sub> may break through, leading to leakage.

During the storage process, the formation of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate affects the multiphase flow of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> and water within porous media. In this regard, Yamada et al. (2024) proposes a new method for hydrate risk assessment in the CO<sub>2</sub> process based on machine learning. Nakashima and Sato (Nakashima and Sato, 2016) discovered that hydrate primarily forms at the leading edge of gas fluid. After the gas front passes, significant hydrate formation occurs in the sediment. Whether the gas flow is obstructed depends on the remaining water saturation of the water in front of the gas and the formation rate under specific temperature and pressure conditions. Yu and Uchida (Yu and Uchida, 2020) highlighted the importance of the injection conditions and hydrating formation rates for the storage of CO<sub>2</sub> in seafloor sediments. Their study revealed that vertical extension strain near the well immediately follows fluid injection due to the increase in pore pressure. However, the strain gradually decreases as CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate forms. Sawano et al. (2022) provided a numerical model to simulate hydrate formation in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>-water two-phase flow in microscopic sand and stone pores. The simulation results show that at low hydrate saturations, particle-coated hydrates form more readily, while the injection flow rate has minimal impact on the permeability reduction. As hydrate growth progresses and most of the water converts to hydrate, the effect of flow rate on permeability becomes more pronounced. At high flow rates, water removes additional water from the surface of the sand and deposits it behind the sand grains, creating more pores to be filled by the hydrate. Liu et al. (2023) investigated the feasibility and storage capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> storage in the mined hydrate reservoirs. Their findings suggest that increasing reservoir pore volume and reducing hydrate plugging can significantly enhance storage capacity. In addition, hydraulic fracturing can partially mitigate the impact of hydrate plugging around the wellbore, increasing gas storage volume. Almennigen et al. (2018) analyzed hydrate growth at the pore level through direct imaging of pore space in micromodel chips. High-field MR Imaging was employed to visualize the flow of CO<sub>2</sub> water drainage and hydrate formation, confirming significant hydrate growth when liquid CO<sub>2</sub> was injected

into sandstone filled with unsaturated water. CO<sub>2</sub> hydrates can grow at the phase interface or in dissolved water. Sun et al. (2024a) found that the hydrate cap layer mainly expands along the flow direction and is significantly affected by the CO<sub>2</sub> phase state, operating pressure, and flow rate. Higher flow rates and pressures accelerate hydrate formation, which reduces the risk of injection well clogging and improves cap stability.

To sum up, the storage of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate in submarine sediments involves the redistribution of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> and seawater after CO<sub>2</sub> enters the sediments, as well as the growth of hydrate at the CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O interface (Chen et al., 2024). However, systematic research on the formation of hydrate by liquid CO<sub>2</sub> is still lacking (Agrawal et al., 2023), particularly regarding the formation of solid hydrate in unenclosed submarine sediments (Chen et al., 2024). Although preliminary studies have explored CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in the form of hydrate (Yang et al., 2024), the internal mechanism of closed cap formation in sandy silty strata remains unclear. Key questions include whether leakage occurs during storage, the extent of any potential leakage, whether leakage can be mitigated or even halted through the formation of a hydrate cover, and whether CO<sub>2</sub> can be permanently stored. Additionally, the regulation of hydrate formation kinetics within sediment layers needs further investigation (Dhamu et al., 2023), particularly the nucleation and growth of hydrate in porous media under temperature and pressure gradients at specific injection temperatures of CO<sub>2</sub> (Li et al., 2022a; Liu et al., 2024a). The formation of a hydrate cover layer alters the pore structure, affecting CO<sub>2</sub> transport. Finally, the effect of changes in reservoir porosity and permeability of the reservoir on the final CO<sub>2</sub> sealing volume and sealing stock is unclear.

Therefore, a multi-physical coupled modeling framework tailored to the marine geological sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> in hydrate form is required to study the internal mechanisms of closed cap formation. This framework will help determine the optimal formation parameters and injection conditions for maximizing storage and ensuring minimal CO<sub>2</sub> leakage or effective leakage control.

## Numerical Method

## 2. Numerical Method

### 2.1. Theoretical model

The finite element numerical method has been proven reliable in hydrate research (Wang et al., 2023; Wei et al., 2022). This study developed a large-scale numerical simulator using COMSOL Multiphysics. We developed the mathematical model using the multiphase flow control equation, the hydrate nucleation growth kinetic reaction equation, and the energy conservation equation.

#### 2.1.1. Multiphase flow control equation

The mass balance and momentum equations for the two-phase displacement process in porous media can be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\phi \rho_i S_i) + \nabla \cdot (\rho_i u_i) = \dot{m}_i, i = c, w \quad (1)$$

$$u_i = -\frac{\kappa k_{r_i}}{\mu_i} (\nabla p_i - \rho_i g), i = c, w \quad (2)$$

In the above formulae,  $\phi$  is the porosity,  $S_i$  is the saturation of component  $i$ ,  $\rho_i$  is the density of component  $i$ ,  $u_i$  is the speed of component  $i$ ,  $\kappa$  is the intrinsic permeability tensor,  $k_{r_i}$  is the relative permeability of component  $i$ ,  $\mu_i$  is the dynamic viscosity of component  $i$ ,  $p_i$  is the fluid pressure, and  $\dot{m}_i$  is the local mass rate generated per unit volume of hydrate formation. The subscripts 'c' and 'w' refer to liquid CO<sub>2</sub> and seawater, respectively.

For liquid CO<sub>2</sub> with a density of 9–20 MPa and a temperature of 274–303 K, the procedure of Sawano et al. (2022) was adopted. Fitting

the polynomial for easy numerical simulation calculation:

$$\rho_c(T, P) \approx \sum_{i=1}^4 \left( \sum_{j=1}^4 a_{ij} T^{j-1} \right) P^{i-1} \quad (3)$$

Since the velocity  $u$  of the CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate phase is zero, the mass preservation equation of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate formation can be written as:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\phi \rho_h S_h) = -\dot{m}_h \quad (4)$$

In the above formula,  $\dot{m}_h$  represents the local mass rate of hydrate formation per unit volume, while the subscript 'h' refers to the hydrate phase. The hydrate stoichiometry relates the hydrate formation rate to the consumption of CO<sub>2</sub> and water as follows:

$$\dot{m}_h = \dot{m}_c \frac{N_h M_w + M_c}{M_c} \quad (5)$$

$$\dot{m}_w = \dot{m}_c \frac{N_h M_w}{M_c} \quad (6)$$

$M_w$  and  $M_c$  are the molecular weights of water and CO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. Each stage's saturation follows the following relationship:

$$S_c + S_w + S_h + S_g = 1 \quad (7)$$

In the above formula,  $S_g$  is the free gas saturation in the sediment. The sum of the initial water saturation is 1; that is,  $S_{w0} + S_g = 1$ . Free gas is not involved in the hydrate reaction or displacement process. We used the Van Genuchten-Mualem (VGM) model to describe each phase's relative permeability in a three-phase CO<sub>2</sub>-seawater hydrate displacement formation system (Chen et al., 1999).

$$k_{rw} = S_e^\eta \left[ 1 - \left( 1 - S_e^m \right)^m \right]^2 \quad (8)$$

$$k_{rc} = (1 - S_e)^\eta \left( 1 - S_e^m \right)^{2m} \quad (9)$$

The model shows the following correlation between effective saturation and  $P_c$ :

$$S_e = \frac{1}{[1 + (\alpha P_c)^\eta]^{1/m}} \quad (10)$$

Capillary pressure distinguishes the injection and non-injection stages. This relationship is described as follows:

$$P_c = P_c - P_w \quad (11)$$

### 2.1.2. Hydrate nucleation growth and formation model

The dynamic formation process of hydrate cap can be divided into four stages: (a) fluid injection-migration-diffusion; (b) formation of local hydrates; (c) local area blockage; The plugging range gradually expands until a zero permeable hydrate cap is formed (d) The formation of a hydrate cap (Yang et al., 2024). To describe this process, it is necessary to accurately describe the hydrate nucleation growth equation in the numerical simulation. The formation of hydrate nuclei is a random process. The classical nucleation theory (CNT) has been shown to accurately predict the position of the hydrate nucleus using numerical simulation (Fukumoto et al., 2018). The Arrhenius equation (Ke et al., 2019) defines the nucleation rate  $J$  in CNT as the number of nuclei formed per unit volume per unit of time:

$$J = A \cdot \exp \left( -\frac{\Delta \Psi^*}{k_B T} \right) \quad (12)$$

In the above formula,  $A$  is a pre-exponential factor or reaction frequency with a possible value of  $0.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Wei and Nobuo, 2023).  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant.  $\Delta \Psi^*$  is the nucleation barrier for forming critical

nuclei. We previously investigated the effects of temperature gradient, wall curvature, and roughness on the hydrate nucleation barrier (Li et al., 2022a, 2022b, 2023a). Our previous study (Li et al., 2024) determined that the  $\Delta \Psi^*$  of homogeneous CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate nucleated with a sphere can be obtained as  $1.92 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$ .

Micro-scale scale induction time  $t_{mic}$  can be expressed by nucleation rate  $J$  as follows (Yuhara et al., 2015):

$$t_{mic} = \frac{1}{JV_{mic}} \quad (13)$$

In the above formula,  $V_{mic}$  is the nuclei volume on a micro-scale. Similarity criteria can be used to estimate the site-scale induction time  $t$  for marine carbon sequestration:

$$\frac{t}{t_{mic}} = \frac{r}{r_{cc}} = \eta \quad (14)$$

$r$  represents the effective radius for site-scale numerical simulation.  $r_{cc}$  is the critical radius for the nucleation of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate at the micro-scale, while  $\eta$  is the amplification factor. Formulae (13-14) can then be used to calculate the induction time for site-scale nucleation as follows:

$$t = \frac{\eta}{JV_{mic}} \quad (15)$$

The Kim-Bishnoi model (Clarke and Bishnoi, 2005) can describe the rate function of CO<sub>2</sub> consumption due to hydrate formation as follows:

$$\dot{m}_c = k_f \cdot A_s (f_c - f_{eq}) \quad (16)$$

In the above formulae,  $k_f$  is the formation constant,  $A_s$  is the surface area of the porous medium involved in the reaction,  $f_c$  is the fugacity of CO<sub>2</sub> under the corresponding pressure  $P_c$ , and  $f_{eq}$  is the fugacity at equilibrium at temperature  $T$  and equilibrium pressure  $P_{eq}$ . The classical Chen-Guo model (Chen and Guo, 1998) is used in this study to calculate  $f_c$  and  $f_{eq}$ .

Formula 17 calculates the macroscopic and microscopic particle volumes of hydrate.

$$V = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \quad (17a)$$

$$V_{mic} = \frac{4}{3} \pi r_{cc}^3 \quad (17b)$$

We can assume that the number of voids ( $N_v$ ) for a macroscale hydrate particle volume  $V$  equals the number of solid particles, and the corresponding voids ( $V_v$ ) can be calculated as follows:

$$V_v = \frac{\phi}{N_v} \quad (18)$$

$$N_v = \frac{(1 - \phi)}{V_p} \quad (19)$$

The surface area of the hydrate formation reaction region can be expressed as follows:

$$A_s = N_v (4\pi r^2) S_h^{2/3} \quad (20)$$

At the microscopic scale, the critical CO<sub>2</sub> nucleation radius  $r_{cc}$  is 1.54 nm (Li et al., 2024). The Kozeny-Carman equation estimates the effective radius  $r$  of macro-scale hydrate particles as follows:

$$r = \left[ 45 \kappa_0 \frac{(1 - \phi)^2}{\phi^3} \right]^{1/2} \quad (21)$$

$\kappa_0$  is the inherent permeability of porous media. Hydrate formation in a porous brine aquifer reduces its porosity and permeability. The permeability change was calculated using the Masuda model (Masuda et al., 1999).

$$\kappa = \kappa_0 \cdot (1 - S_h)^n, n = 10, 15 \quad (22)$$

### 2.1.3. Thermal field control equation

Hydrate formation is an exothermic process that influences the temperature distribution during hydrate formation. Therefore, we must use the thermal energy balance equation to describe the temperature field change during hydrate formation. We can write the heat-energy balance equation as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[ \sum_i \phi \rho_i S_i C_i + (1 - \phi) \rho_s C_{ps} \right] \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + (\rho_c u_c C_c + \rho_w u_w C_w) \cdot \nabla T - \phi \rho_c S_c \sigma_c \frac{\partial p_c}{\partial t} \\ & - \rho_c u_c \sigma_c \cdot \nabla p_c \\ & = \nabla \cdot (\lambda \nabla T) + \dot{m}_h \Delta H_h, i = c, w, h \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

In the above formula,  $H_i$  is the enthalpy of phase  $i$ ,  $T$  is the local temperature of the system region,  $\lambda$  represents the thermal conductivity of the hydrate-bearing medium, and  $q$  indicates the surrounding heat resources. The subscript 's' indicates the sandy silt phase.  $\Delta H_h$  is the enthalpy change of hydrate formation.  $\sigma$  represents the Joule-Thomson coefficient of the system phase due to the Joule-Thomson effect we studied (Castaneda et al., 2025).

### 2.2. Initial and boundary conditions

The pressure distribution within seafloor sediments is proportional to hydrostatic pressure. The empirical formula for hydrostatic pressure is given below:

$$P_{pw} = P_{atm} + \rho_w g(h + z) \quad (24)$$

In the above formula,  $P_{atm}$  is the atmospheric pressure at 0.101325 MPa,  $\rho_w$  is the water's density,  $g$  is gravity's acceleration, and  $h$  and  $z$  are the sediment and seawater depths, respectively.

The reservoir's temperature distribution is determined by the following equation that considers both the seafloor temperature and geothermal gradient:

$$T = T_{sf} + \text{grad} T \cdot h \quad (25)$$

In the above formula,  $T_{sf}$  is the seafloor temperature, and  $\text{grad} T$  is the geothermal gradient, which is 0.04 °C/m. We set the seawater layer's temperature to 2 °C.

The Dirichlet boundary condition determines the reservoir model's boundary while keeping the constant temperature and pressure values. Fig. 1(A) shows the schematic diagram of the model. The size of the model is 800 m × 500 m. The top of the model is a seawater layer with a water depth of 1200 m. The middle is a hydrate cambium with a depth of

150 m, and the lower layer is a CO<sub>2</sub> injection well area with a thickness of 250 m. Fig. 1(B) depicts the initial distribution of pressure and temperature in the reservoir. The top is a marine layer (ML), the middle is a hydrate formation layer (HFL), and the bottom is a CO<sub>2</sub> injection layer (IL). The marine layer is simulated as a pseudo-porous medium, with porosity set to 1 and permeability set to  $5.0 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2$ . Table 1 shows the parameters used in the simulation.

### 2.3. Model verification

There is no publicly available data on the implementation of the South China Sea CO<sub>2</sub> storage project (Xia et al., 2024). To verify the accuracy of the simulation, we compared the developed model with the small-scale experiment implemented by Inui et al. (2011) as shown in Fig. 2(A) and considered by Yu et al. (2016) to be suitable for numerical simulation, as shown in Fig. 2(B). The results obtained in Fig. 2(B–C) show that there is a gap between the numerical simulation and the actual experiment in simulating temperature drops, and the accuracy of the simulation needs to be improved. In short, the simulation results of the model proposed in this work as shown in Fig. 2(C) can reproduce the experimental results and can be applied to the research of the actual site scale.

## 3. Results and discussion

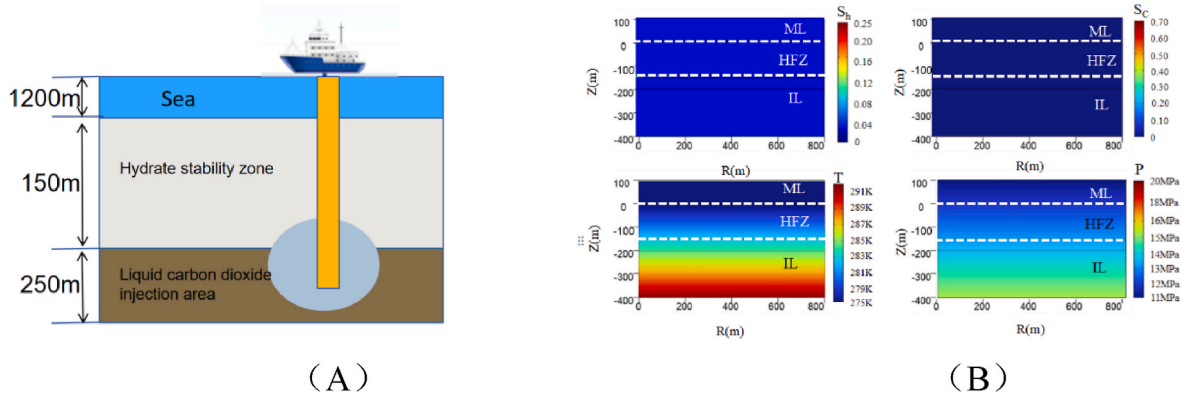
### 3.1. Dynamic evolution law of hydrate formation process

The study of the dynamic evolution of hydrate saturation, CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, formation temperature, and formation pressure during the

**Table 1**

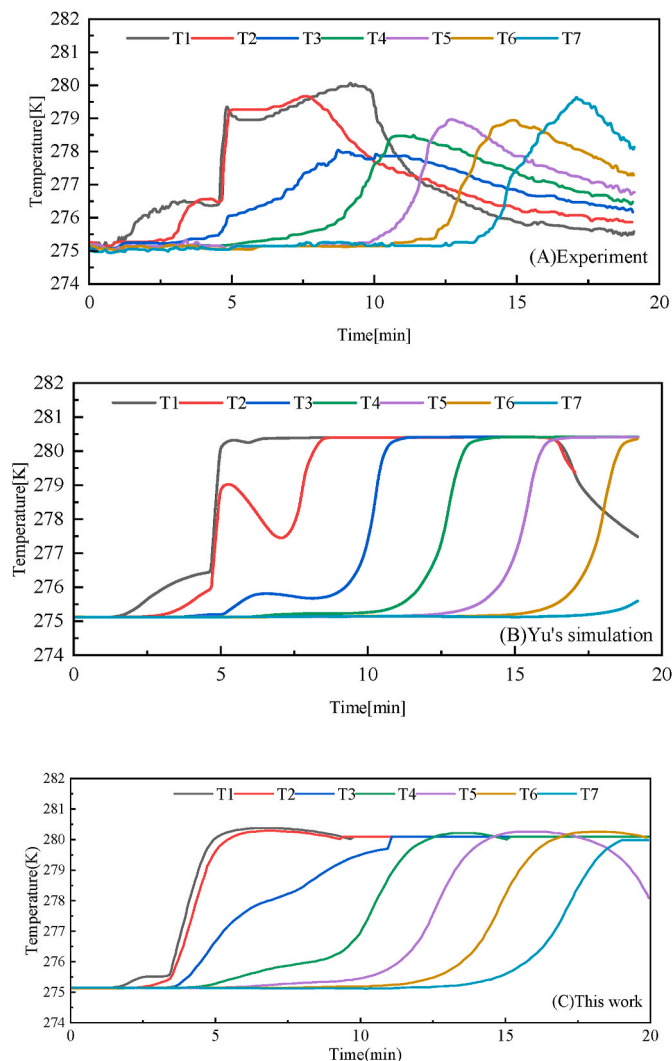
Parameters of mid-depth sandy silty formation in the South China Sea for simulation.

symbol	Value	Description
$\eta_n$	$3.95 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Pa s}$	Dynamic viscosity of CO <sub>2</sub>
$\rho_w$	1045 kg/m <sup>3</sup>	Sea water density
$\eta_w$	$2.54 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa s}$	Hydrodynamic viscosity
$K_f$	$2.59 \times 10^{-13} \text{ kg/Pa}\cdot\text{s}\cdot\text{m}^2$	Kinetic constant
$\rho_h$	1117 kg/m <sup>3</sup>	CO <sub>2</sub> hydrate density
$C_{ph}$	2220 J/kg·K	Hydrate heat capacity
$C_{pn}$	860 J/kg·K	Specific heat capacity of CO <sub>2</sub>
$C_{pw}$	4200 J/kg·K	Specific heat capacity of water
$C_{ps}$	920 J/kg·K	Heat capacity of silty sand formation
$\rho_s$	2650 kg/m <sup>3</sup>	Sand silt formation density
$k_w$	0.50 W/m·K	The thermal conductivity of water
$k_c$	0.060 W/m·K	Thermal conductivity of liquid CO <sub>2</sub>
$k_s$	2.31 W/m·K	Thermal conductivity of sand silt
$k_h$	0.39 W/m·K	Thermal conductivity of hydrate



**Fig. 1.** (A) Marine sandy silty carbon dioxide injection well storage diagram (B) Initial distribution of hydrate saturation, CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, pressure, and temperature in the reservoir.





**Fig. 2.** Comparison of simulation results of this model with experimental data and other simulation work. (A) Experimental results of temperature changes detected at T1-T7 (Inui et al., 2011); (B) Simulation results by Yu et al. (Yu et al., 2016); (C) Simulation results of this exercise.

formation of hydrate cap is critical for understanding the behavior of key parameters in CO<sub>2</sub> storage simulations. This understanding helps to clarify the internal mechanisms of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate sequestration and the formation of a closed system in sandy silty strata. For this analysis, the conditions considered include a CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure of 16 MPa, an injection temperature of 8 °C, permeability of 100mD, water saturation of 0.8, and porosity of 0.3. These parameters were applied to marine sediment strata for detailed investigation. The injection well is positioned 200m below seafloor, corresponding to a depth of  $d_{\text{msf}} = 200\text{m}$ , with coordinates (0,-200m).

Fig. 3 reveals the dynamic evolution process of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation and temperature and pressure before forming the hydrate cover. By the 200th day of injection, CO<sub>2</sub> saturation near the injection well begins to change, reaching approximately 0.3. CO<sub>2</sub> diffuses in a semi-elliptical pattern with a radius of about 20m. During this period, the formation temperature decreases from 283K to 281K, while the formation pressure rises significantly from 14 MPa to 16 MPa. Temperature changes are not as obvious as pressure changes. Experiments also indicate that the heat transfer during CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate formation in porous media is limited (Hosseini Zadeh et al., 2023). From day 200 to day 600 of injection, the trends become more pronounced, indicating that CO<sub>2</sub> continues to spread within the sandy silty strata. At this stage, the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation at

the injection point reaches its peak value of 0.7, diffusing outward from the injection point, with the formation temperature following a similar decreasing trend. The formation pressure near the injection well remains around 16 MPa, with slight increases in the surrounding formation pressure. The pressure increase is more pronounced below the injection depth than above.

Fig. 4 illustrates the changes in hydrate and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, along with variations in formation temperature and pressure during the formation of the hydrate cap. After the formation of the hydrate cap layer (By day 1953), the edge of the liquid CO<sub>2</sub> saturation zone reaches 50msf, and the hydrate cap layer prevents the further upward flow of CO<sub>2</sub>. The 281K isotherm around the injection well expands slightly, although most of the formation remains in its initial thermal state due to the high thermal conductivity (3.1W/m·K) of the sandy silt. Finally, due to the heat exchange with the surrounding environment, the final formation temperature tends to the initial injection well temperature (during in the days 4000–5000). This result is validated by recent simulation work using the Tough + Hydrate software (Gu et al., 2025). As the cap layer grows (2000–5000 days), the high saturation range of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> in the center of the injection storage area expands significantly, and the marginal range of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation spreads laterally in the 100–200 mbsf region. The hydrate cover extends laterally to 150 m and longitudinally to 20 mbsf, showing a trapezoidal shape with a wide upper boundary and a narrow lower boundary. The area and volume of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate are key factors in determining the effectiveness of CO<sub>2</sub> sealing and assessing the risk of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage (Guo et al., 2024). At the completion stage (By day 5000), the hydrate cap extends laterally to 400 m and longitudinally to –150 mbsf. The highly saturated region of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> diffuses horizontally to 200–400 m.

### 3.2. Efficient CO<sub>2</sub> formation parameters

This section analyzes the effects of formation conditions such as initial permeability, porosity, and water saturation on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, and provides a reference for selecting suitable reservoir conditions. The injection well parameters remain constant, with the well located at 175m below the seafloor ( $d_{\text{msf}} = 175\text{m}$ ), corresponding to coordinates (0,-175m). To comprehensively assess parameter influences on well injection under representative conditions, randomized screening within the experimental ranges (8–11 °C, 14–20 MPa) was conducted to select typical working conditions: 20MPa/8 °C for permeability analysis, 14MPa/10 °C for porosity studies, and 18MPa/10 °C for water saturation investigations. This randomized selection approach ensures the simulation conditions effectively capture the overall system behavior while maintaining experimental validity. The chosen parameters (temperature varying between 8 and 10 °C and pressure ranging from 14 to 20 MPa) were strategically distributed across the operational envelope to provide a representative characterization of the injection process.

#### 3.2.1. Impact of initial permeability

Fig. 5 presents the simulated results for CO<sub>2</sub> injection at a pressure of 20 MPa and a temperature of 8 °C, with permeability of 100mD, 200mD, 300mD, and 400mD respectively. The figure illustrates changes in CO<sub>2</sub> storage rate and gas storage capacity in the sandy silty formation. As permeability increases, the time required for hydrate formation and sequestration decreases. Specifically, when the permeability is 100 mD, sealing capacity reaches its maximum, which is the most favorable condition for CO<sub>2</sub> storage.

#### 3.2.2. Influence of initial porosity

As shown in Fig. 6, changes in CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration rate and gas storage capacity in the sandy silty formation are analyzed for initial porosities of 0.3, 0.35, and 0.4 under a CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure of 14 MPa and a temperature of 10 °C. The figure shows a slight decrease in sealed stock with increasing porosity. When the porosity is 0.3, the maximum net CO<sub>2</sub> storage is achieved. Although higher porosity theoretically allows

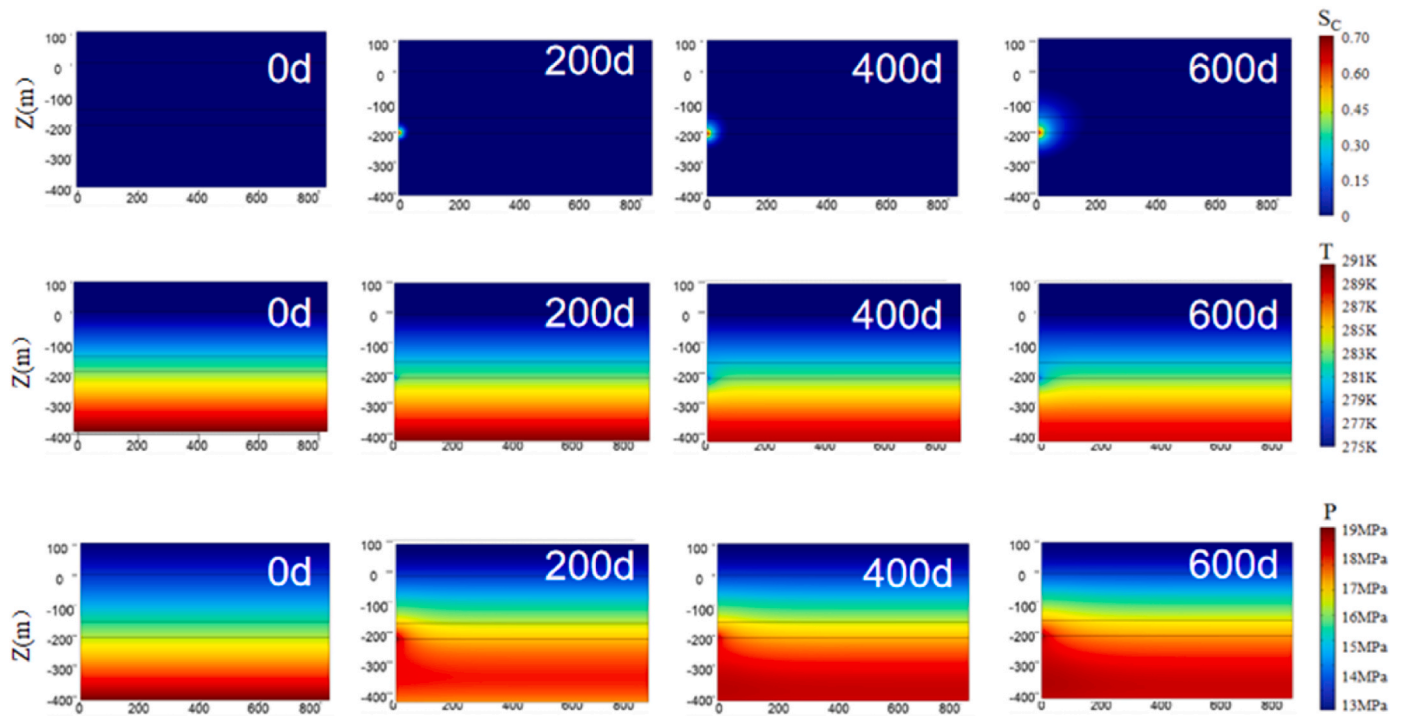


Fig. 3. Changes of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, temperature, and pressure before the formation of the hydrate cap layer in the sandy silty formation.

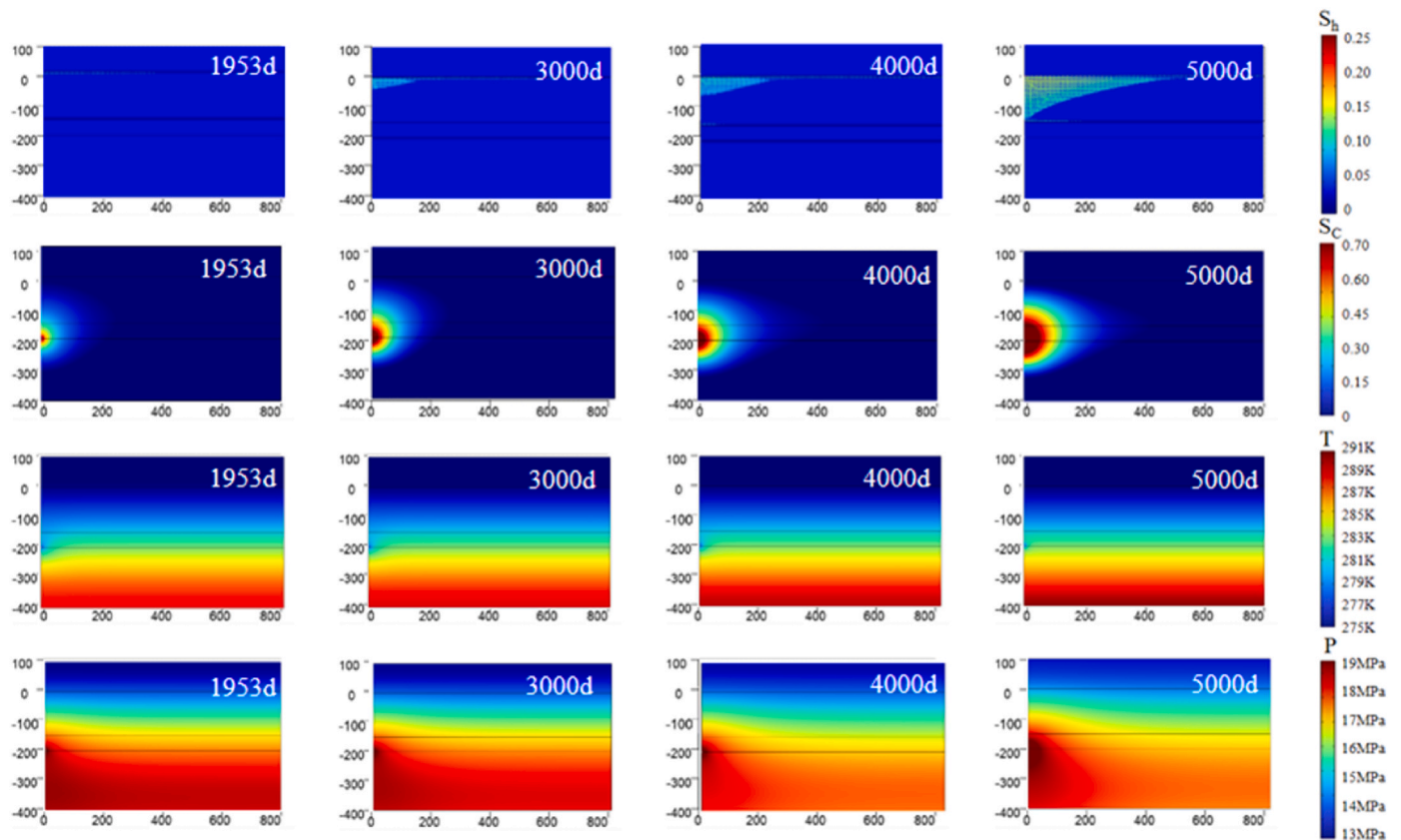
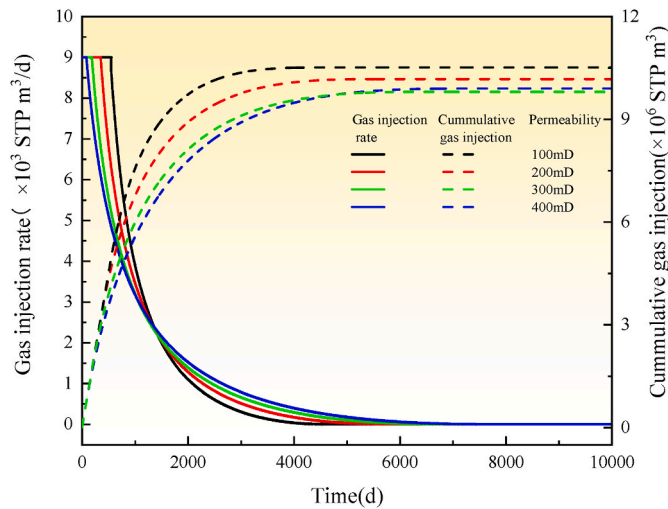


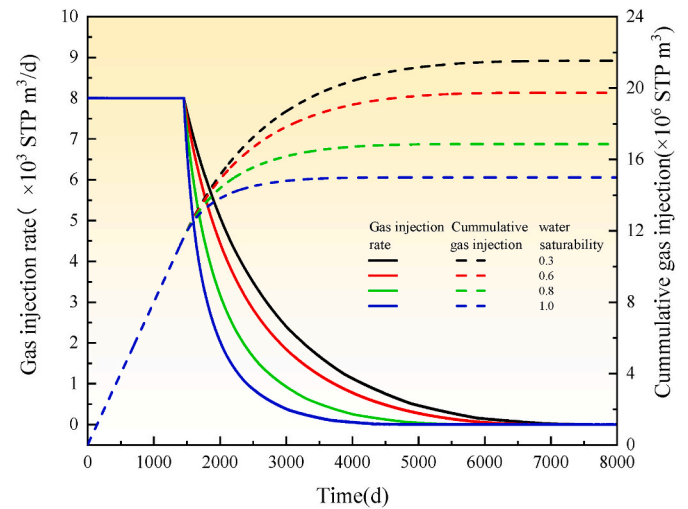
Fig. 4. Changes in hydrate saturation, CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, temperature, and pressure during the formation of hydrate cap layer in the sandy silty formation.

for greater gas storage, leading to increased sealed stock, the saturation of the sealed gas does not reach its maximum. Excess water and air remain in the pore space, so the actual results indicate that the initial

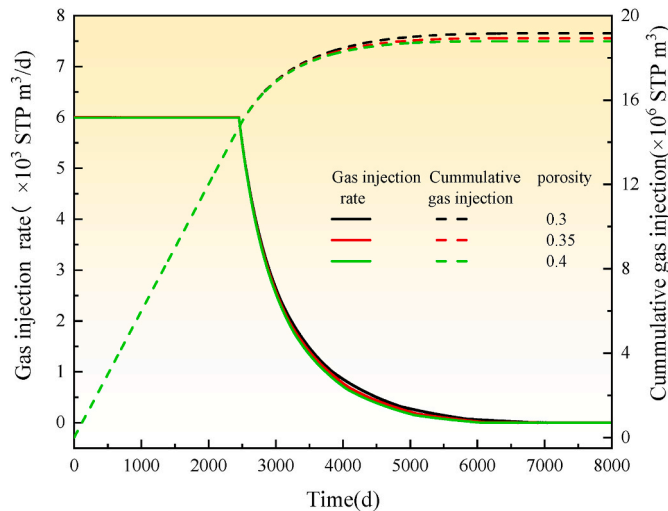
porosity has a minor effect on the final sealed stock and a greater impact on the permeability. In addition, it is important to note that the model only modified the formation porosity, without altering the absolute



**Fig. 5.** Effects of sandy silty formation and different initial permeability on sealing rate and sealing quantity (injection pressure 20 MPa, temperature 8 °C).



**Fig. 7.** Effect of initial water saturation on storage rate and storage capacity (CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure 18 MPa, temperature 10 °C).



**Fig. 6.** Effects of sandy silty formation and different initial formation porosity on sealing rate and storage volume (injection pressure 14 MPa, temperature 10 °C).

permeability of the cap layer. In practical scenarios, absolute permeability and porosity are positively correlated, meaning that higher porosity often corresponds to higher absolute permeability.

### 3.2.3. Influence of initial water saturation

As shown in Fig. 7, the effects of initial water saturation on CO<sub>2</sub> storage rate and gas storage capacity in the sandy silt-sand formation were analyzed under an injection pressure of 18 MPa and an injection temperature of 10 °C, with water saturations of 0.3, 0.6, 0.8, and 0.9, respectively. When the water saturation is less than 1, the initial formation contains gases other than pore water that do not participate in the reaction, and its composition can be dominated by air, such as nitrogen. At the same temperature and pressure, hydrate nucleation occurs at 1453 days. The final sealed stock decreases with increasing initial water saturation. Liu et al. (2024b) found that in the residual area of seawater (where water saturation is relatively low), hydrate predominantly forms in sheet-like structures, forming granular cement, whereas in the saturated seawater zone, hydrate forms from the center of the pores and is distributed in a granular manner. Poor pore connectivity and limited gas-liquid contact in the saturated zone hinder further

hydrate formation, resulting in a final hydrate saturation that is at least 25 % lower than that in the residual area of seawater. Aghajanloo et al.'s experiment also showed that the saturation of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate increased with water saturation, and the hydrate would clog the pore faster (Aghajanloo et al., 2024). These studies explain why CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity is the largest when water saturation is low. In conclusion, formations with low water saturation are optimal for CO<sub>2</sub> storage in sandy silty strata.

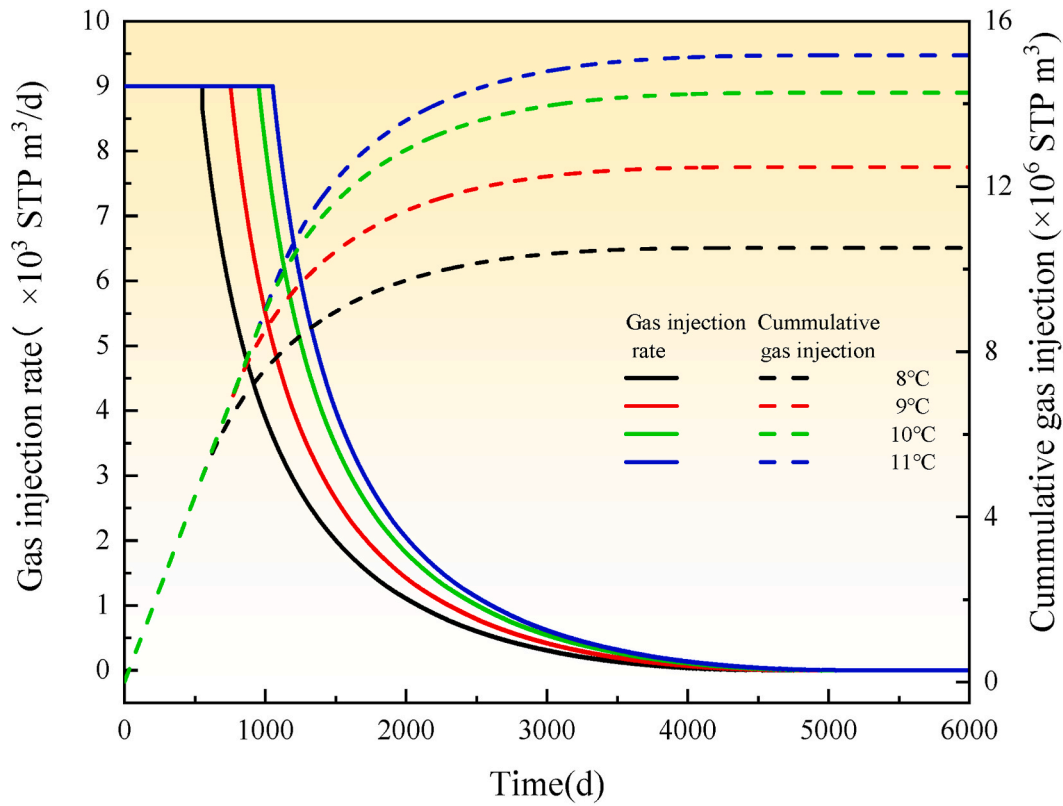
### 3.3. Efficient CO<sub>2</sub> injection well parameters

The initial phase of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in a reservoir typically involves assessing the geological structure, including factors such as volume, injection rate, capping mechanisms, and capacity characteristics. These assessments are crucial for determining the feasibility of reservoir CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration (Aminnaji et al., 2024). In this section, a formation with an initial permeability of 100 mD, porosity of 0.3, and water saturation of 0.8 is selected to examine the effect of efficient injection temperature and pressure parameters on sealing rate and capacity. It is worth noting that the reason for selecting the hydrate saturation of 0.8 for the study is that although it was found in previous studies that low saturation can store more CO<sub>2</sub>, the water saturation of sandy strata suitable for sequestration in the potential reservoir sandstone in the South China Sea at a depth of 1200 m is around 0.8.

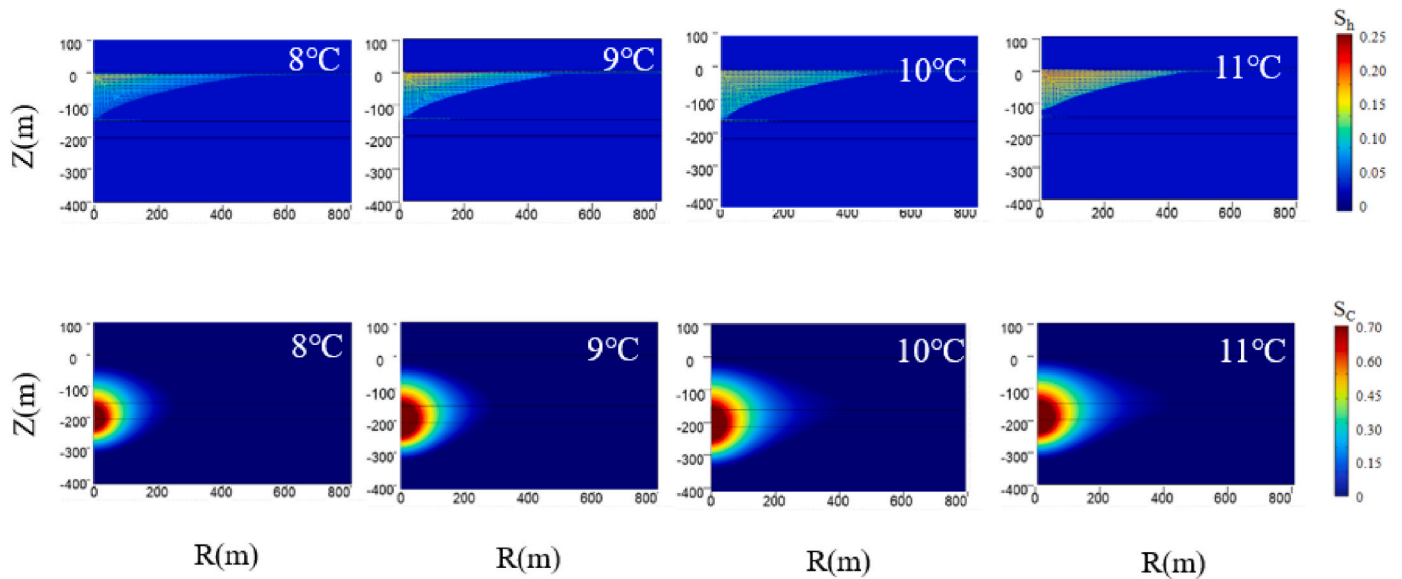
#### 3.3.1. Injection well temperature

As shown in Fig. 8(A), the injection well is located 175m below the seafloor ( $d_{\text{mbsf}} = 175\text{m}$ ), with an injection pressure of 20 MPa. The impact of injection well temperature on gas storage rate and capacity during CO<sub>2</sub> storage in sandy silt-sand formation is analyzed. The trapped stock initially increases at a constant rate before hydrate formation, but slows down and eventually reaches 0 after hydrate formation.

At a CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure of 20 MPa, Fig. 8(B) illustrates the changes in hydrate and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation under different injection temperatures after forming the closed hydrate layer. Following the formation of the closed layer, the hydrate cover layer presents an approximately arc-shaped distribution. At 8 °C, the hydrate diffuses laterally to 450m and longitudinally to -150m, with maximum hydrate saturation reaching approximately 0.15. The hydrate saturation at the edge of the cap layer is around 0.1. As the increase of injection temperature, the hydrate saturation within the cap layer increases gradually, with maximum hydrate saturation reaching 0.2–0.25 at 11 °C. The CO<sub>2</sub> saturation distribution forms an elliptical pattern. At 8 °C, CO<sub>2</sub> spreads 250 m horizontally and 50–300 mbsf longitudinally. The CO<sub>2</sub>



(A)



(B)

**Fig. 8.** CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure is 20 MPa and  $d_{mbfz} = 175\text{m}$ : (A) Relationship between storage rate and storage capacity at different injection temperatures (B) Relationship between hydrate saturation and carbon dioxide saturation distribution at different injection temperatures after the formation of the closed layer.

saturation is highest at the center, around 0.7, and gradually decreases outward until it reaches 0. At 9 °C, CO<sub>2</sub> diffuses horizontally to 300 m, with a longitudinal diffusion range of 20~300mbsf longitudinally. At 10 °C and 11 °C, CO<sub>2</sub> diffuses 400 m horizontally and between -0 and

300mbsf longitudinally. The cloud diagram indicates that the CO<sub>2</sub> approaches the seabed, with some CO<sub>2</sub> leaking into the seawater layer. Due to the constraints imposed by the cap layer, CO<sub>2</sub> at 10 °C and 11 °C exhibits lateral seepage. The light blue region of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is



observed between 100 and 200 mbsf, and the lateral diffusion increases to nearly 400 m.

In general, the diffusion range of CO<sub>2</sub> expands with the increase of temperature, but the increase of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is not obvious at 10 °C and 11 °C. This is due to excessive CO<sub>2</sub> leakage on the one hand, and when the initial injection temperature approaches or begins to exceed the phase equilibrium temperature, the amount of hydrate formation will decrease (Zhang et al., 2024). CO<sub>2</sub> saturation reaches its peak at 11 °C.

As shown in Fig. 9, the injection well is located 175 m below sea level ( $d_{\text{mbfs}} = 175\text{m}$ ), with a CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure of 20 MPa. The effect of injection temperature (8 °C, 9 °C, 10 °C and 11 °C) on the leakage rate and amount during CO<sub>2</sub> storage in the sandy silt-sand formation is analyzed. As the temperature increases, the time to the onset of leakage shortens. At 8, 9, 10, and 11 °C under 20 MPa pressure, carbon dioxide diffuses beyond the hydrate formation zone, with leakage into the ocean occurring after 403, 323, 253, and 192 days. After maintaining a steady rate for some time, the leakage experiences a period of fluctuation and gradual decline as the hydrate cap layer forms. By around 4000–5000 days, as the cap layer becomes fully established, the leakage approaches 0. The simulation indicates that the hydrate cover effectively mitigates CO<sub>2</sub> leakage. The simulation results of Sawano et al. (2022) show that when the formation permeability exceeds  $10^{-12} \text{ m}^2$  (1 mD), leakage phenomenon occurs and leaked CO<sub>2</sub> can reach the seafloor. In this paper, the permeability of sandy silt is 100–400 mD, and leakage phenomenon also occurs. However, Sawano et al. (2022) believe that the formation of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate cannot inhibit the leakage of liquid CO<sub>2</sub>, and the simulation in this paper shows that the complete formation of hydrate cap can effectively prevent the leakage of CO<sub>2</sub>. This was also verified experimentally: Zhao et al. (2023) used MRI visualization system to observe that the formation of the cap layer of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate can effectively prevent the leakage of dioxide. Overall, CO<sub>2</sub> leakage increases with rising injection temperature and the hydrate seal can effectively reduce the leakage of CO<sub>2</sub>.

### 3.3.2. Injection well pressure

As shown in Fig. 10(A), when the injection well is located 175 m below seafloor ( $d_{\text{mbfs}} = 175\text{m}$ ) and the CO<sub>2</sub> injection temperature is 8 °C, the impact of injection well pressure on the sequestration rate and gas storage during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in the sandy silt-sand formation is analyzed. Before the formation of the hydrate cap layer, the sealed stock increases at a constant rate, but this growth slows down and approaches zero after the cap layer forms. The sealed stock decreases as injection

pressure increases. The reason is that although higher initial pressure is high allows for faster CO<sub>2</sub> injection, excessive pressure can lead to significant CO<sub>2</sub> seepage and leakage into the ocean. Additionally, rapid hydrate cap formation hinders further CO<sub>2</sub> injection. In conclusion, for sandy silty formations with high permeability, moderate CO<sub>2</sub> injection under lower injection pressure is more suitable.

Under a CO<sub>2</sub> injection well temperature of 8 °C and different injection pressures, changes in hydrate and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation after the formation of the closed layer are depicted in Fig. 10(B). Following the formation of the closed layer, the hydrate cover layer forms a curved structure. At 14 MPa, lateral hydrate diffusion reaches 450 m, and the longitudinal diffusion reaches 150 mbsf. The saturation of the hydrate reaches the maximum in the 0–10 mbsf range at around 0.2, while saturation at the edge of the cap layer is approximately 0.15. As injection pressure increases, hydrate saturation in the cap layer rises, with a maximum value of 0.25 at 20 MPa. The CO<sub>2</sub> saturation distribution forms an oval pattern. At 14 MPa, CO<sub>2</sub> spreads 250 m laterally and 50–300 mbsf longitudinally, with a center saturation of approximately 0.7, gradually decreases outward until it drops to 0. At 16 MPa, lateral CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion reaches 400 m, with longitudinal diffusion from 0–300 mbsf. At 10 °C and 11 °C, the transverse diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> reaches 400 m, with a longitudinal diffusion range of 0–300 mbsf. The cloud image shows that CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion extends close to the seabed, with some CO<sub>2</sub> leaking into the seawater layer. Due to the restriction of the cap layer, at injection pressures of 18 MPa and 20 MPa, CO<sub>2</sub> exhibits a lateral seepage trend. The light blue CO<sub>2</sub> saturation area is located between 100 and 200 mbsf area, and the transverse area expands to nearly 400 m. Overall, with the increase of pressure, the diffusion range of CO<sub>2</sub> gradually expands, and the center area of CO<sub>2</sub> high saturation increases accordingly.

As shown in Fig. 11, the injection well is located 175 m below seafloor ( $d_{\text{mbfs}} = 175\text{m}$ ), with a CO<sub>2</sub> injection temperature of 8 °C and injection pressures of 14, 16, 18 and 20 MPa. The effect of these pressures on the leakage rate and amount during CO<sub>2</sub> storage in the sandy silt-sand formation is analyzed. As injection pressure increases, the time to the onset of leakage decreases. At 8 °C, 14, 16, 18, and 20 MPa, CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion exceeds the hydrate formation zone, and the corresponding times of leakage into the ocean are 1153, 853, 553, and 403 days, respectively. For approximately 150 days, leakage occurs at a constant rate, after which, with the formation of the hydrate cap layer, the leakage experiences fluctuations followed by a slow decline. Since the rate of flow of CO<sub>2</sub> in the water and sedimentary layers is basically close to the formation initial temperature pressure. The generation of hydrate is dominated the characteristic kinetics. So the leakage rate is very close, and the rate curve is close to consistent. By 4000–5000 days, as the cap layer becomes fully formed, the leakage approaches zero.

Fig. 12 presents the three-dimensional column charts of (A) sealed quantity and (B) leakage quantity under different injection temperatures and pressure with the well located 175 m below sea level ( $d_{\text{mbfs}} = 175\text{m}$ ). At the same pressure, both the sealed and leakage quantities increase as the temperature rises (Fig. 12(A)). At the same temperature, the storage volume generally decreases with increasing pressure, except at 11 °C, where the sealing capacity increases slightly from  $19.19$  to  $19.28 \times 10^6$  STPm<sup>3</sup>. Chen et al. (2024) experimentally demonstrated that the CO<sub>2</sub> storage in the form of hydrate in the muddy silt systems was 60 % higher than in the sandy systems. This numerical simulation confirms that conclusion, showing that the maximum storage capacity of muddy silt at the site scale could reach  $25.84 \times 10^6$  STPm<sup>3</sup>, exceeding that of sandy silt. Leakage quantity increases with rising pressure, and the leakage amount increases significantly at 18–20 MPa, as shown in Fig. 12(B). Overall, the total leakage and storage quantities increase with rising temperature and pressure, aligning with physical expectations. By selecting conditions that optimize both a higher sealed quantity and a lower leakage quantity, the most suitable conditions for CO<sub>2</sub> storage in sandy silty formations are at a temperature of 10 °C and a pressure of 14 MPa. Under these conditions, the sealing quantity is  $19.19 \times 10^6$  STPm<sup>3</sup> and the leakage amount is  $1.84 \times 10^6$  STPm<sup>3</sup>.

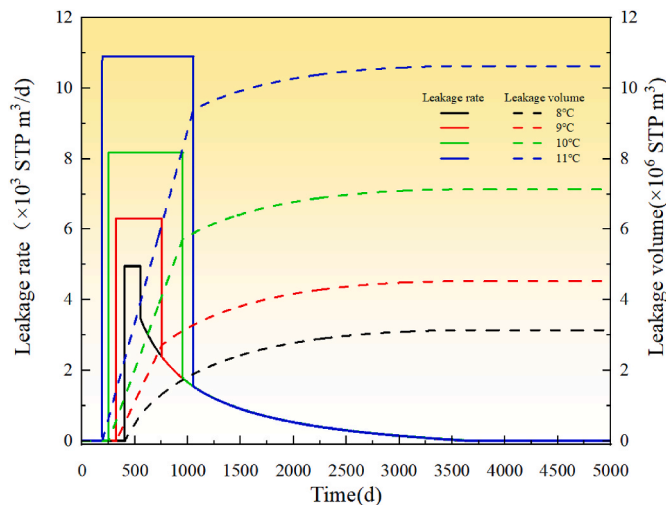
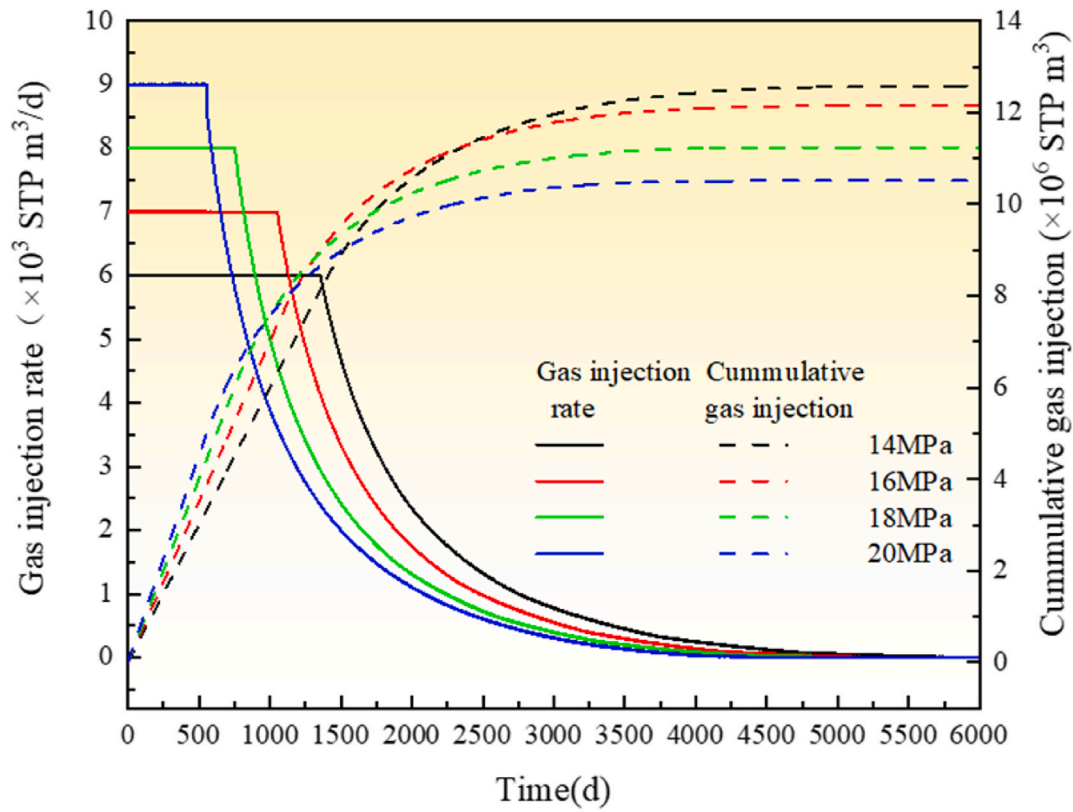
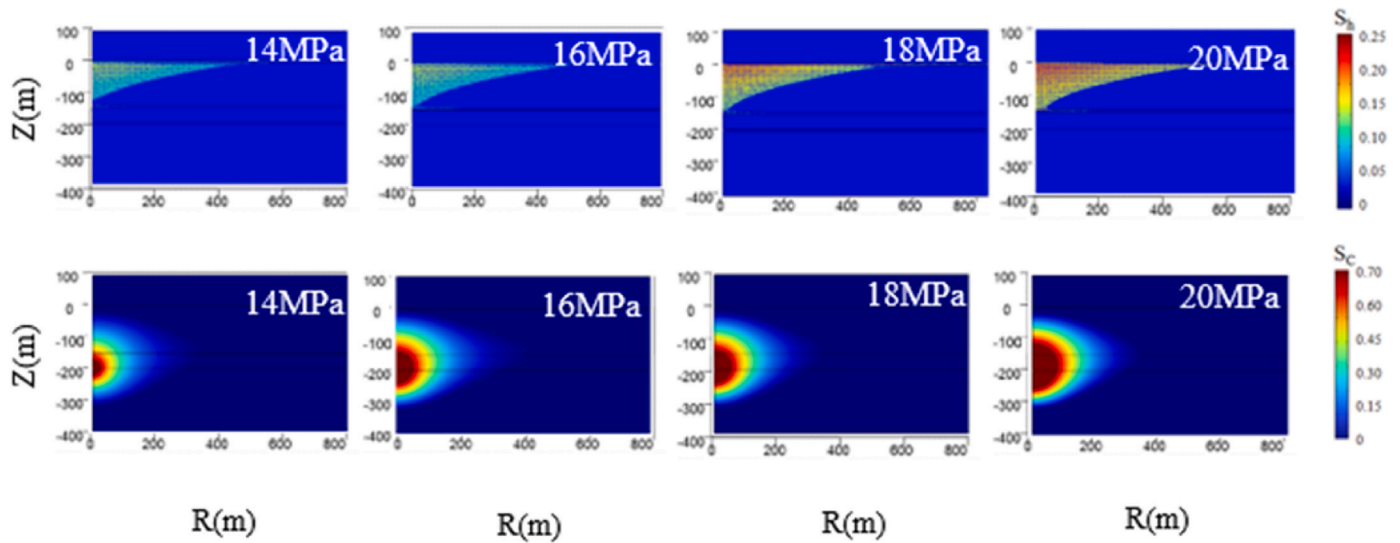


Fig. 9. The relationship between the leakage rate, leakage amount, and different injection temperatures at a CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure of 20 MPa and  $d_{\text{mbfs}} = 175\text{m}$ .



(A)



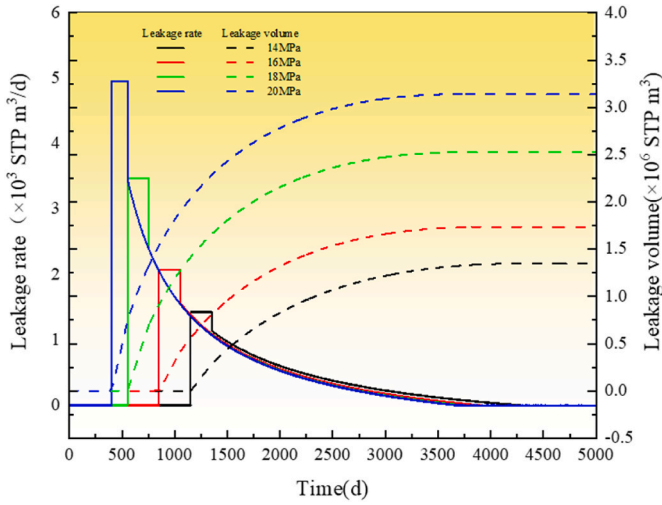
(B)

**Fig. 10.** CO<sub>2</sub> injection temperature of 8 °C and  $d_{mbfz} = 175\text{m}$  (A) Relationship between storage rate and storage capacity at different injection pressures (B) Relationship between hydrate saturation and carbon dioxide saturation distribution at different injection pressures after the formation of the closed layer.

### 3.3.3. Injection well location

According to previous studies, selecting moderate temperature and pressure conditions is suitable for CO<sub>2</sub> injection in sandy silt formations. As the formation pressure increases from 13.75 MPa ( $d_{mbfz} = 175\text{m}$ ) to 15.5 MPa ( $d_{mbfz} = 350\text{m}$ ) with the rise of the formation, the unified

injection well condition of 14 MPa cannot be maintained due to excessive formation pressure. Therefore, in this section, the CO<sub>2</sub> injection temperature of 8 °C and the injection pressure of 16 MPa were selected to investigate the effects of different vertical well locations on the gas storage rate and capacity during CO<sub>2</sub> storage in the sandy silt-sand



**Fig. 11.** Relationship between the leakage rate, leakage amount, and different injection pressures at a CO<sub>2</sub> temperature of 8 °C and  $d_{mbsf} = 175m$ .

formation, as illustrated in Fig. 13. The injection rate is first injected at a constant rate of  $7 \times 10^3 \text{ STP m}^3/\text{d}$ . As the injection position moves further from seafloor, corresponding to hydrate formation at depths of 175 m, 200 m, 250 m, and 350 m hydrates, the sequestration time increases to 1,052, 1203, 1513, and 1813 days, respectively. Once the hydrate cap layer forms, the injection rate declines to 0 between 5000 and 6000 days, marking the completion of the sealing process.

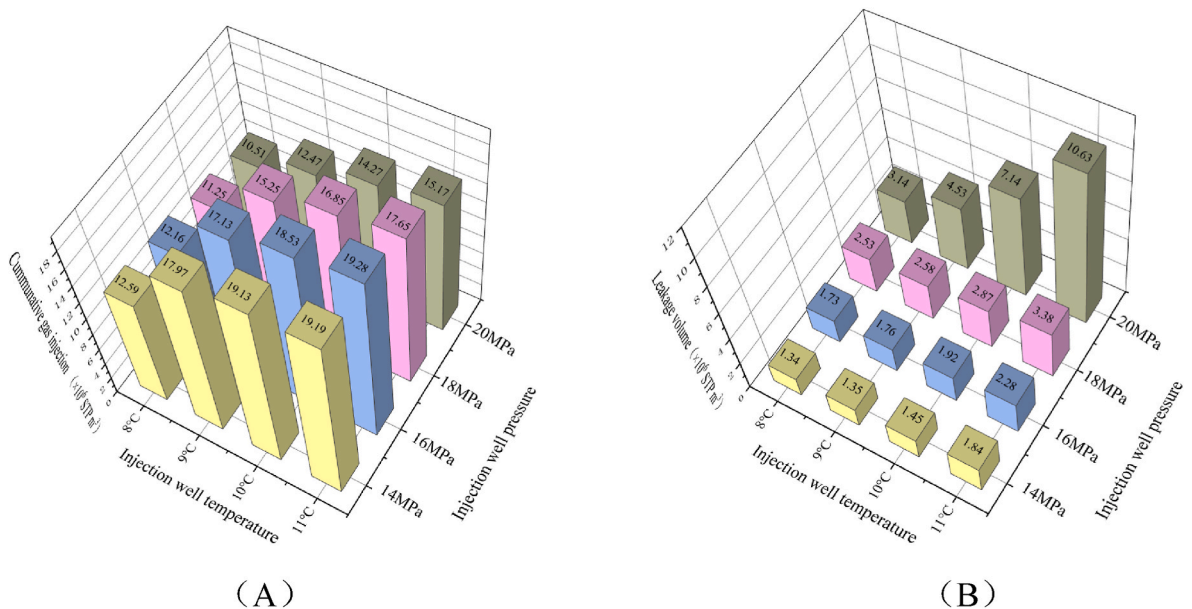
Fig. 14 shows the simulation results of the effects of a CO<sub>2</sub> injection temperature of 8 °C, pressure of 16 MPa, and vertical well location at 175 m, 200 m, 250 m, and 350 m below seafloor on the leakage rate and leakage amount during CO<sub>2</sub> storage in sandy silty formation. As the distance from the seafloor to the injection location increases, the CO<sub>2</sub> leakage time increases gradually. At 16 MPa at 8 °C, the CO<sub>2</sub> leakage times corresponding to well depths of 175 m, 200 m, 250 m, and 350 m below seafloor are 1153, 1303, 1613 and 1313 days, respectively, which occur slightly after the formation of the hydrate cap layer. The rate of decline is relatively close, mainly because the location of the leak is far from the injection well, and the temperature and pressure conditions are

similar to the initial silty sand formation. The leakage quantity decreases as the distance from the injection well increases.

As shown in Fig. 15, increasing the injection depth results in a corresponding increase in the sealed stock and a decrease in the leakage volume. The increase in sealed stock is attributed to the longer time required for the sequestration rate to decline with greater injection depth (As shown in Fig. 13). The decrease in leakage is due to the longer time it takes for CO<sub>2</sub> to migrate to the seafloor as injection depth increases, thus extending the leakage time (As shown in Fig. 14). Increasing the injection well depth appropriately facilitates higher CO<sub>2</sub> storage in the sandy silty formations with higher permeability, while also reducing CO<sub>2</sub> leakage.

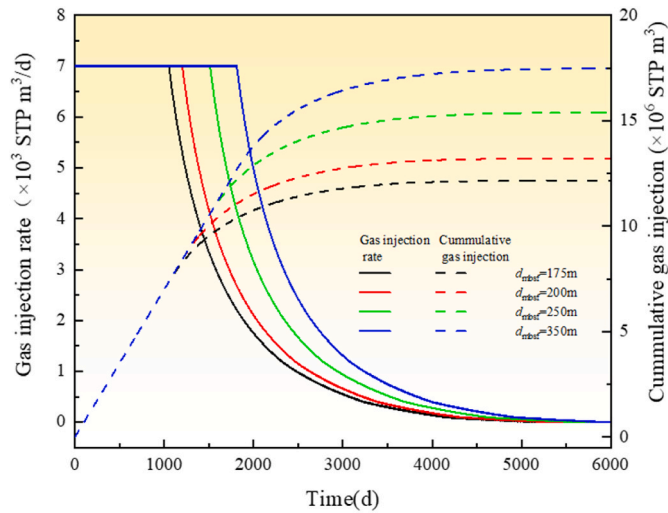
Under an injection well temperature of 8 °C and pressure of 16 MPa, the distribution cloud maps of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate saturation (a-d) and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (e-h) after the formation of the hydrate cap layer are shown in Fig. 16. In Fig. 16(a-d), the shape of the cap layer is approximately curved. When the injection well is located 175 m below seafloor ( $d_{mbsf} = 175m$ ), the lateral radius of the hydrate cap layer is 200 m and the longitudinal diameter is 40mbsf (As shown in Fig. 16(a)). When  $d_{mbsf} = 200m$ , the lateral radius and longitudinal diameter of the hydrate cover layer expand to 450 m and 150 mbsf (As shown in Fig. 16(b)), and the hydrate saturation is higher compared to the  $d_{mbsf} = 175m$ . Hydrate saturation reaches its maximum within the range of -10m~0m. At  $d_{mbsf} = 250m$ , the lateral radius increases to 550m, and the longitudinal diameter is 120 mbsf, though hydrate saturation decreases (As shown in Fig. 16(c)). When  $d_{mbsf} = 350m$ , the lateral radius of the hydrate cover is approximately 500 m, and the longitudinal diameter is 100 mbsf (As shown in Fig. 16(d)), with a further decrease in hydrate saturation compared to  $d_{mbsf} = 250m$ . The analysis shows that as the depth of the injection well increases, the formation range of the hydrate cap initially increases and then decreases, while hydrate saturation follows a similar trend, peaking when the injection well location is  $d_{mbsf} = 200 m$ .

When  $d_{mbsf} = 175m$ , the fluid CO<sub>2</sub> percolation shape is approximately elliptical, with a transverse percolation of 220 m and a longitudinal percolation of 50-300mbsf, where most of the CO<sub>2</sub> percolation occurs in the range of 50~220 mbsf (as shown in Fig. 16(e)). When  $d_{mbsf} = 200m$ , the fluid CO<sub>2</sub> percolation shape becomes roughly rugby ball shape, with a transverse CO<sub>2</sub> percolation of 400m, and a longitudinal CO<sub>2</sub> percolation of 0-320mbsf. The percolation distance increases within the range of 120-250 mbsf due to the influence of the cap layer (as

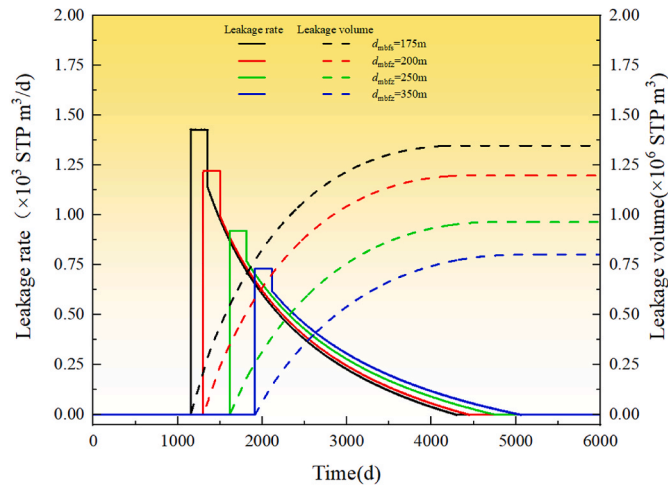


**Fig. 12.** Three-dimensional histogram of (A) containment volume and (B) leakage volume at different injection temperatures and pressures with the injection well located 175 m below sea level.





**Fig. 13.** Relationship between the sequestration rate and gas storage at different injection locations with CO<sub>2</sub> temperature of 8 °C and a pressure of 16 MPa.

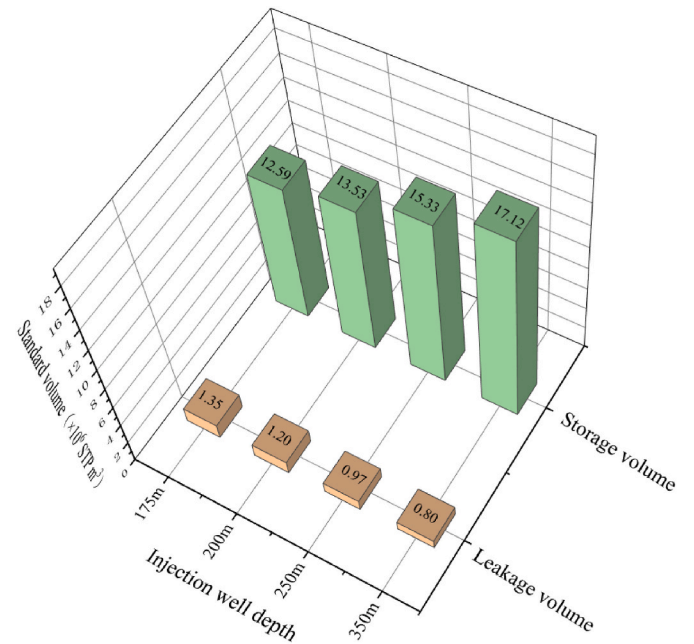


**Fig. 14.** Relationship between the leakage rate and leakage volume at different injection positions with CO<sub>2</sub> temperature of 8 °C and the pressure of 16 MPa.

shown in Fig. 16(f)). At  $d_{\text{mbsf}} = 250\text{m}$ , the center of gravity of the rugby ball-shaped CO<sub>2</sub> percolation drops, with transverse percolation reaching 400m and longitudinal percolation extending from 0 to 120mbsf. The diffusion is significant at the edge, within the 200m–280 mbsf range (as shown in Fig. 16(g)). When  $d_{\text{mbsf}} = 350\text{m}$ , the flow shape of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> resembles a mushroom cloud, with a transverse flow of CO<sub>2</sub> of 400m, and a longitudinal flow ranging from 50 to 400mbsf. In the low saturation range of 300–400 mbsf, the cap layer enhances transverse flow, leading to the highest CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (as shown in Fig. 16(h)).

The cloud image analysis reveals that the location of the injection well and the hydrate cap layer together affect the final distance and morphology of CO<sub>2</sub> seepage. As the injection well depth increases, a larger lateral diameter hydrate cap layer and a broader CO<sub>2</sub> seepage range are formed. This explains the result shown in Fig. 15, where increasing injection depth leads to higher sealed stock and reduced leakage. In other words, the larger cap zone and expanded CO<sub>2</sub> range contribute to increased sealed stock and reduce leakage. This further supports the conclusion that CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in sandy silty formations is enhanced as the injection depth increases in the range of 150–400 mbsf.

The comparative analysis in Fig. 17 demonstrates distinct trends in



**Fig. 15.** Comparison of sealed stock and leakage at different injection well locations in sandy silty formation.

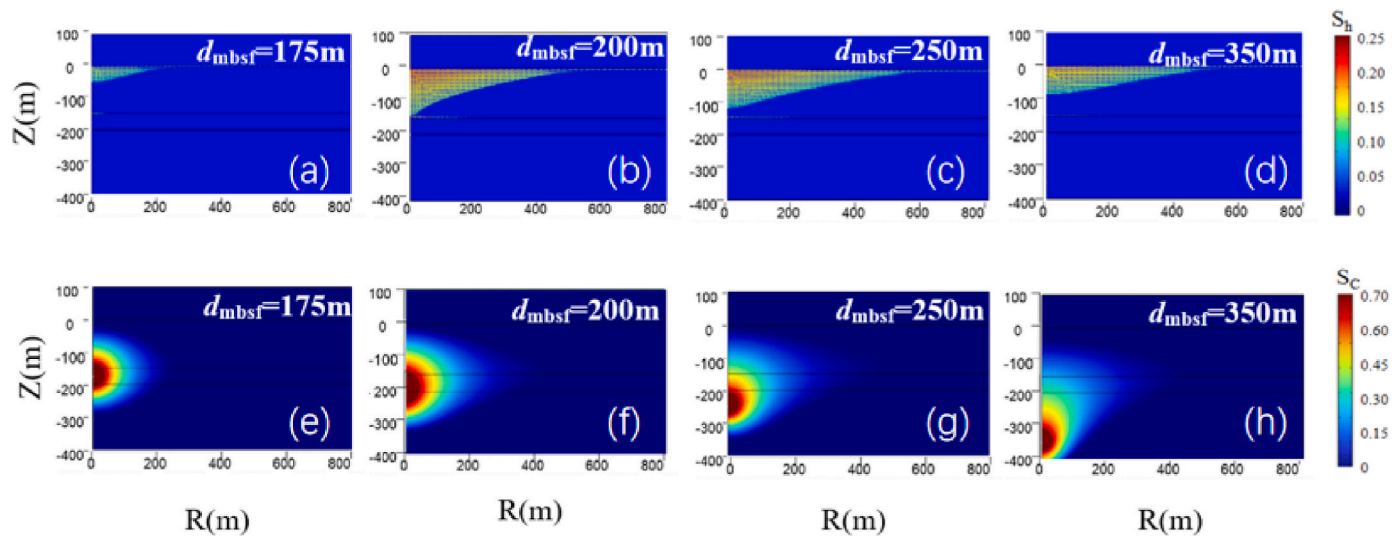
CO<sub>2</sub> phase distribution across the six-stage sealing period (each stage lasting 1000 days), revealing that the stockpile growth rate during 0–2000 days was approximately 3.5 times faster than during 2000–6000 days. As shown in Fig. 17, the proportion of CO<sub>2</sub> stored in hydrate form increased progressively from less than 3 % in initial stages to about 30 % when storage completion was achieved at 5000–6000 days. The figure further illustrates depth-dependent variations in hydrate phase storage efficiency (hydrate-bound CO<sub>2</sub> to total stored CO<sub>2</sub> ratio), with values of 25 % at 175mbsf (corresponding to the smallest storage area of  $3.04 \times 10^6$  STP m<sup>3</sup> in Figs. 16a), 33 % at 200mbsf, 37 % at 250mbsf, and 31 % at 350mbsf (representing the largest storage area of  $5.41 \times 10^6$  STP m<sup>3</sup> in Fig. 16d, where printability was highest). Throughout the process documented in Fig. 17, the dissolved phase maintained a stable about 29 % proportion of CO<sub>2</sub> capture (Xia et al., 2025), while the liquid CO<sub>2</sub> phase dominated initial storage (40–70 %) before decreasing as hydrate formation increased in later stages. These findings highlight the complementary storage mechanisms, with liquid CO<sub>2</sub> being crucial for early injection, dissolved phase providing stable retention, and hydrate formation becoming increasingly significant for long-term sequestration, particularly at optimal depths around 350mbsf where both storage capacity and efficiency peak.

#### 4. Conclusion

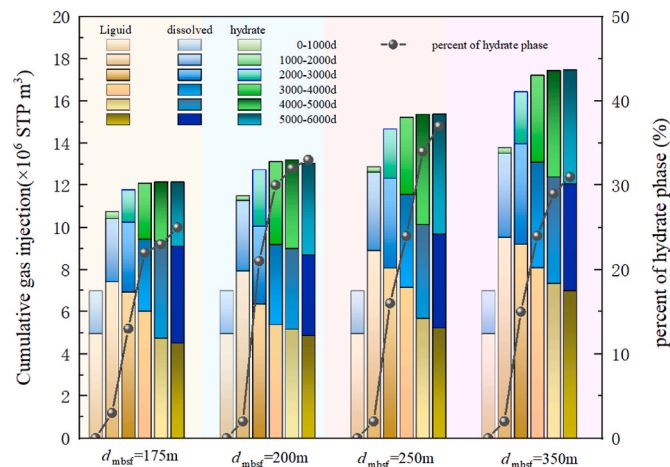
This article investigates whether there will be any leakage during the storage of CO<sub>2</sub> in suitable marine formations in the South China Sea, the extent of any potential leakage, and whether it can be mitigated or even completely avoided by forming hydrate cover layers to address the aforementioned issues.

Research shows the final sealed stock decreases with increasing initial formation permeability and the sealed stock also decreases as initial water saturation increases. Formation porosity has little effect on storage capacity. At the same injection pressure, sealed stock and leakage will increase with the increase in injection temperature. At the same injection temperature, increasing injection pressure results in a decrease in sealed stock and an increase in leakage. As injection depth increases, the time for the sequestration rate to decline increases, leading to an increase in sealed stock, a longer time for CO<sub>2</sub> to percolate to sea level, and a corresponding reduction in leakage. The final shape of





**Fig. 16.** CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate saturation (a–d) and liquid CO<sub>2</sub> saturation distribution (e–h) at different injection locations in sandy silt after hydrate cap formation. (CO<sub>2</sub> injection temperature 8 °C, pressure 16 MPa).



**Fig. 17.** The relationship between the amount and proportion of each phase of liquid, dissolved and hydrate injected into the reservoir to the basic completion (0–6000days) of the storage for every thousand days under different well injection locations.

the marine sandy silt hydrate cap is a cone. The temperature increase in the formation remains minimal, with the final temperature range consistent with that of the injection well extending from the wellhead. The location of the injection well and the hydrate cover affect the final distance and morphology of CO<sub>2</sub> seepage. With the increase of injection well location, a larger lateral diameter hydrate cap layer and liquid CO<sub>2</sub> seepage range can be formed.

This research result is important because it tells researchers on ocean carbon sequestration that controlling CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure and injection position can effectively regulate the formation process of hydrate cap layers, while the influence of injection temperature is relatively small.

In the future, based on the model proposed in this work, the formation process of CO<sub>2</sub> hydrate carbon sequestration cover layers in different depths of marine formations and muddy silt formations can be studied to determine the sequestration effect and leakage situation. The hydrate formation equation could be adapted to satisfy CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration scenarios in extreme conditions as supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Mengyang Li:** Writing – original draft, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Shuanshi Fan:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization. **Yanhong Wang:** Project administration, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Xuemei Lang:** Validation, Resources. **Gang Li:** Writing – original draft, Validation, Methodology, Formal analysis.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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#### Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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