Modeling Infinite Dilution and Fickian Diffusion Coefficients of Carbon Dioxide in Water

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We propose a new model for calculating infinite dilution diffusion coefficients for carbon dioxide and water mixtures. The model takes into account temperature dependence of the dipole moment of water and polarizability of CO_2 , and fits experimental CO_2 — H_2O data at low and high pressures with an accuracy of 4.9%. Remarkably, the proposed model also accurately predicts infinite dilution diffusion coefficients for other binary water mixtures where solute polarizability is close to that of CO_2 , such as CH_4 , C_2H_6 , C_3H_8 , and H_2S . Moreover, we present—to the best of our knowledge—the first predictions of composition-based Fickian diffusion coefficients for CO_2 — H_2O mixtures over the temperature range 298.15–413.15 K, and pressures up to 50 MPa. © 2010 American Institute of Chemical Engineers AIChE J, 57: 1617–1627, 2011 Keywords: diffusion coefficients, carbon dioxide, classical thermodynamics

Introduction

The increase in atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ is believed to be a key player in global warming, necessitating identification of viable technological options for its capture and storage. Perhaps, the most promising of these options is geoengineering which aims at the capture, transport, and injection of CO2 into geologic strata and oceanic ecosystems with large sink capacities.^{1,2} Injection of CO₂ into deep geological formations is not a new technique; it has been used in enhanced oil recovery (EOR), and recovery of coal-bed methane from unmineable coal seams.³ For CO₂ sequestration and EOR, reservoir simulations are used to provide detailed insights on the process-its dimensions and complexities-and to help predict the long-term fate of the injected CO₂. In fact, numerical modeling studies^{4,5} in porous media have shown that competing diffusion mechanisms, often neglected in such simulations, affect the flow path of injected species such as CO₂.

Quantitative description of diffusion mechanisms requires diffusion coefficients, including infinite dilution (denoted as

 D^{∞}) and Fickian (denoted as *D*) diffusion coefficients. However, experimental diffusion coefficients data available in literature for CO₂—H₂O mixtures are all at infinite dilution and limited to low temperatures and pressures. There are a few data points⁶ at extremely high pressures and temperatures for applications in studies of metamorphic systems. In particular, temperatures and pressures of oil and saline formations can be up to 420 K and 50 MPa or higher; conditions at which there are no experimental diffusion data available. Hence, there is need for both infinite dilution and Fickian diffusion coefficients models that include these temperature and pressure conditions. A general formalism for Fickian diffusion coefficients is already well-established.⁷

Currently, there are no accurate models for predicting diffusion coefficients of CO_2 in water. This can be attributed to two limiting factors: one, the lack of an appropriate equation of state (EOS); and two, the absence of an accurate model for predicting infinite dilution diffusion coefficients for such mixtures that is unified at both infinite dilution extremes. The former limitation was recently resolved with the development of an accurate cubic-plus-association EOS (CPA-EOS) that explicitly accounts for association of water molecules and their cross-association with CO_2 molecules;⁸ while the latter is the subject of this work.

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to A. Firoozabadi at

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In this work, we develop a simple semi-empirical model that accurately describes D^{∞} for CO₂ in water at both infinite dilution limits. Furthermore, we provide to the best of our knowledge the first estimates of composition-based Fickian diffusion coefficients in CO₂-rich and water-rich mixtures. This article is organized as follows: experimental D^{∞} data in literature is outlined, followed by a brief overview of literature models and their performance in estimating D^{∞} for CO₂—H₂O mixtures. Next, details of the proposed D^{∞} model are given, followed by results and discussion of the proposed D^{∞} model and predictions for D. Finally, concluding remarks on the key findings are provided.

Experimental D^{∞} data

We conducted a survey of literature diffusion coefficients of CO₂-H₂O mixtures and found 187 data points.⁹⁻⁴⁴ Table 1 presents a summary of all CO2-H2O experimental data found in literature. All the data found are at infinite dilution. Note that for mixtures where composition is specified, the solute concentration is less than 5% by mole which is possibly in the infinite dilution limit. Of these, 157 experimental data points are for CO₂ infinitely diluted in water: 150 of which are from 273 to 368 K at 0.1 MPa, with the exception of two data points at high pressures of 29.4 and 39.2 MPa at 286 K (Supporting Information Table 1). There are 30 data points for water infinitely diluted in CO₂: six are at 0.1 MPa over a temperature range of 307.45-352.45 K, and 24 are in the range of 283.15-308.15 K and 13-30 MPa (Supporting Information Table 2). The remaining seven data points are for CO₂ in water at extremely high temperatures and pressures of 759.15 to 961.15 K and 1000 MPa, respectively (Supporting Information Table 3).

The interpretation of measurable quantities is simplified at the infinite dilution limit. Therefore, the reported diffusion coefficients at this limit are usually more accurate than in concentrated mixtures. Reported D^{∞} were measured using a number of experimental techniques: diaphragm cell, Stefan tube, laminar jet, wetted-wall column, wetted sphere, and horizontal film. Diffusion data at extreme temperatures and pressure found in the literature⁶ were determined using an unconventional diffusion measurement technique known as a differential solubility and diffusion. Note that for this experimental technique, the errors reported in D^{∞} are large (33.3– 62.5%) compared to those reported for conventional experimental techniques (3–10%).

Literature models

A number of models exist to predict the diffusion coefficients in gas and liquid mixtures as summarized by Taylor and Krishna,⁷ Poling, et al.,⁴⁵ and Skelland,⁴⁶ among others. Of these models, we tested the ones relevant for CO_2 —H₂O mixtures at infinite dilution (Supporting Information Table 4); most of which are semi-empirical correlations based on either the kinetic theory of Chapman-Enskog or the hydrodynamic theory of Stokes-Einstein.^{47–58}

Of the tested models, two are worth mentioning here: those of Brokaw⁵⁷ and Wilke and Chang,⁴⁸ which attempt to account for association of water molecules. The former estimates D^{∞} by adding a polarity effect term to the diffusion collision integral of the Chapman-Enskog's equation that is

Table 1	1.	Summary of Infinite Dilution Diffusion Coefficients
		Experimental Data for CO ₂ —H ₂ O

			No. of Data	
State	Solvent	Solute	Points	Conditions
Gas	CO ₂	H ₂ O	6	<i>T</i> : 307.45 – 352.45 K <i>P</i> : 0.1 MPa D^{∞} : 1.74 – 2.45 $\times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$
Liquid	CO ₂	H ₂ O	16	<i>T</i> : 283.15 – 298.15 K <i>P</i> : 13.2 – 29.8 MPa D^{∞} : 9.6 × 10 ⁻⁹ – 2.07 × 10 ⁻⁸ m ² /s
	H ₂ O	CO ₂	150	<i>T</i> : 273 – 368 K <i>P</i> : 0.1 – 39.2 MPa D^{∞} : 8.91 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ – 8.2 × 10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s
Supercritical	CO ₂	H ₂ O	8	<i>T</i> : 308.15 K <i>P</i> : 13.47 - 29.8 MPa D^{∞} : 1.82 - 2.81 $\times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$
	H ₂ O	CO ₂	7	T: 759.15 - 961.15 K P: 1000 MPa D^{∞} : 1.0 - 6.1 $\times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$

explicitly related to the dipole moment of the polar molecule. The latter is essentially an empirical modification of the Stokes-Einstein relation; it uses an empirically-determined association factor (ϕ) for mixtures with an associating solvent such as water or alcohol. When applied to CO_2 —H₂O mixtures, both Brokaw and Wilke-Chang models are hardly adequate at both infinite dilution extremes. The main limitations of these two models is that they neither account for change in the total dipole moment of water molecules with temperature, nor include the water-induced dipole moment in CO₂ molecules. The effect of polarity and induced polarity become important with temperature and pressure changes, respectively.

The performance of the models was tested against CO_2 —H₂O data and the results are summarized in Tables 2 and 3. Note that not all models were tested at each infinite dilution extreme. The reason for this is twofold: one, the models are developed specifically for either gas or liquid mixtures; and two, input parameters for some models are undefined for CO_2 as a solvent (for example, the solvent association factor ϕ for the Wilke-Chang model). Models for liquid mixtures were also tested on mixtures in supercritical state. At low pressure, the tested models perform satisfactorily for D^{∞} of CO_2 in water (Figure 1a), but deviate considerably from experimental data at high pressure (Figure 1b). Similarly, for D^{∞} of water in CO_2 , the models perform well at 0.1 MPa (Figure 2), but most of these models fail to capture D^{∞} at high pressure (Figure 3).

It may appear that for CO_2 infinitely diluted in water at low to high pressures, literature models would be sufficient (Table 2); however, even the best of these models—Scheibel⁴⁹—is highly inaccurate at 1000 MPa (Table 3). For water infinitely diluted in CO₂, only the Riazi and Whiston⁵⁸ model is applicable at both low and high pressures (Table 2); but, its errors (21.9 and 31.7% at low and high pressures, respectively) are large for the high accuracy desired for infinite dilution calculations. Although the Tyn and Calus⁵¹ (AAD = 15.4%) and Nakanishi⁵² (AAD = 16.3%) models

Table 2. Summary of the Performance of Models in Estimating D^{∞} for CO₂—H₂O Data Used in the Development of the Proposed D^{∞} Model

Model	AAD (%)*
CO_2 in water at low pressure (P = 272 $\leq T \leq 2(9 \text{ K})$	= 0.1 MPa,
Othmor Theker $(1052)^{47}$	7.0
Wilke Chang $(1955)^{48}$	7.9
Scheibel $(1054)^{49}$	5.1
Havduk-I audie $(1074)^{50}$	87
Typ_Calus $(1975)^{51}$	7.8
Nakanishi $(1078)^{52}$	11.8
Havduk-Minhas (1982) ⁵³	13.5
Siddiai-Lucas (1986) ⁵⁴	28.1
Proposed model	4 9
CO_2 in water at high pressure $(P = 2)$	9.4 39.2 MPa
T = 286 K	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
Othmer-Thakar (1953) ⁴⁷	5.1
Wilke-Chang (1955) ⁴⁸	4.9
Scheibel (1954) ⁴⁹	5.2
Hayduk-Laudie (1974) ⁵⁰	4.9
Tyn-Calus $(1975)^{51}$	10.3
Nakanishi (1978) ⁵²	15.3
Hayduk-Minhas (1982) ⁵³	7.3
Siddiqi-Lucas (1986) ⁵⁴	25.7
Proposed model	5.6
Water in CO ₂ at low pressure ($P = 207.45 \le T \le 252.45$ K	= 0.1 MPa,
$507.43 \le T \le 552.43$ K Chanman Englog	.)
Wilke Lee $(1055)^{55}$	23.3
Fuller et al $(1966)^{56}$	22.3
$Brokaw (1960)^{57}$	66
$\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}$	21.0
Proposed model	62
Water in CO ₂ at high pressure (13.2 \leq	$P \leq 29.8$ MPa,
$283.15 \le T \le 308.15$ K	.)
Othmer-Thakar (1953) ⁴⁷	97.3
Scheibel (1954) ⁴⁹	153.2
Hayduk-Laudie (1974) ⁵⁰	111.7
Tyn-Calus $(1975)^{51}$	15.4
Nakanishi (1978) ⁵²	16.3
Siddiqi-Lucas (1986) ⁵⁴	21.9
Riazi-Whitson (1993) ⁵⁸	31.7
Proposed model	4.5

*Absolute average deviation from N data points, AAD (%) = $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{1}^{N} \left[\left| \frac{(D_{\text{model}}^{\infty} - D_{\text{exp}}^{\infty})}{D_{\text{exp}}^{\infty}} \right| \right] \times 100.$

may be sufficient for water infinitely diluted in CO₂ at high pressure, they are not strictly applicable in the gas phase; when tested at low pressure for water in CO₂, they each have an AAD > 99%. Therefore, we emphasize that to the best of our knowledge, there is currently no single model that is applicable in estimating D^{∞} for CO₂—H₂O mixtures at low and high pressures for both infinite dilution extremes. Unlike these models, our proposed model is accurate for CO₂—H₂O at both D^{∞} limits and is applicable at low and high pressures. High accuracy of D^{∞} is desirable since the calculation of D involves D^{∞} (see Appendix).

Proposed D^{∞} model

We believe that a D^{∞} model for CO₂—H₂O mixtures that is accurate at both infinite dilution limits should adequately account for the polar nature of water molecules and the polarizability of CO₂ molecules. As our results show, these contributions become important with changing temperatures and pressures, respectively. Intrinsically, water molecules have a large permanent dipole moment that causes formation of aggregates of its molecules. On the contrary, CO_2 has no net dipole moment, but due to its polarizability, it can have one induced in the presence of an electric field.⁵⁹ When a water molecule approaches a CO_2 molecule, a dipole-induced-dipole interaction is produced—resulting in the formation of water- CO_2 clusters—that affects the solvation of CO_2 in water.^{60,61} Molecular dynamic studies have confirmed distinct hydrogen bonding between the oxygen of CO_2 and the hydrogen of water.⁶²

The unified D^{∞} model proposed here—that is semi-empirical and based in part on corresponding-state theory—takes into account the temperature effect on the total dipole moment of water and the induced-dipole moment on CO₂, along with other thermodynamic variables. A single expression describing D^{∞} of water infinitely diluted in CO₂ as well as CO₂ infinitely diluted in water as a function of temperature, pressure, molecular mass, dipole moment, molar density and viscosity was found to be,

$$D_{12}^{\infty} = \frac{k_1 (M_{12}\mu_{12})^{k_2} T_{r,2}^{k_3}}{P_{r,2}^{k_4} (\eta_2 c_2)^{k_5}},$$
(1)

where,

$$M_{12} = \left(\frac{1}{M_{\rm H_2O}} + \frac{1}{M_{\rm CO_2}}\right)^{-1},\tag{2}$$

$$\mu_{12} = \frac{\mu_2}{\mu_1},\tag{3}$$

$$k_{1} = 10^{-7.23389},$$

$$k_{2} = 1.35607 \times 10^{-1},$$

$$k_{3} = 1.84220 \times 10^{0},$$

$$k_{4} = 2.41943 \times 10^{-3},$$

$$k_{5} = 8.58204 \times 10^{-1}.$$
(4)

In Eqs. 1–3, subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the component at infinite dilution (solute), and of the dominant component (solvent) in the mixture, respectively; M is the molecular mass in g/mol; μ is the total dipole moment in C.m; $T_{r,2}$ and $P_{r,2}$ are reduced temperature and pressure of the solvent, respectively; η_2 is solvent viscosity in Pa s, and c_2 is solvent molar density in mol/m³. Equation 4 shows the five constants used in Eq. 1. These parameters were obtained via nonlinear least squares minimization of the 180 data points provided in Supporting Information Tables 1 and 2 for

Table 3. Summary of the Performance of Models in Estimating D^{∞} for CO₂—H₂O Mixtures not Used in the Development of Proposed D^{∞} Model (759.15 $\leq T \leq$ 961.15 K, P = 1000 MPa)

Model	AAD (%)
Othmer-Thakar (1953) ⁴⁷	44.7
Wilke-Chang (1955) ⁴⁸	164.4
Scheibel (1954) ⁴⁹	178.7
Hayduk-Laudie (1974) ⁵⁰	52.1
Tyn-Calus (1975) ⁵¹	197.3
Nakanishi (1978) ⁵²	210.7
Hayduk-Minhas (1982) ⁵³	205.2
Siddiqi-Lucas (1986) ⁵⁴	120.4
Proposed model	84.9

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Figure 1. (a,b) Diffusion coefficients of CO_2 infinitely diluted in water (D^{∞}) at (a) 0.1 MPa and (b) high pressure: experimental data (circles, dashed line) and literature models (various shapes).

The performance of the models is between 8.1 and 28.1% AAD for 148 experimental data points at 0.1 MPa ($273 \le T \le 368$ K), and between 35.9 and 167.3% AAD for the two data points at 29.4 and 39.2 MPa (T = 286 K) and the seven data points at 1000 MPa ($759.15 \le T \le 961.15$ K). [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

 CO_2 —H₂O mixtures in the gas, liquid, and supercritical states over the temperature range 273–368 K and pressure range 0.1–39.2 MPa. Note that the seven data points at 1000 MPa were not used in generating the model constants due to their high experimental errors.

Analysis of the constants in Eq. 4 makes it apparent that for CO₂—H₂O mixtures, D^{∞} is a stronger function of temperature than of pressure. However, the small pressure contribution cannot be neglected because the experimental data considered is limited mainly to atmospheric pressure with only a few data points at higher pressures (13.2–39.2 MPa). Intuitively, at higher pressure this contribution becomes more pronounced; high pressure influences equilibrium compositions, and the extent of intermolecular interactions and, therefore, substantially affects D as seen in the results



Figure 2. Diffusion coefficients of water infinitely diluted in CO_2 (D^{∞}) at a low pressure of 0.1 MPa: experimental data (circles, dashed line) and literature models (various shapes).

The performance of the models is between 6.6 and 23.5% AAD for 6 data points (307.45 $\leq T \leq$ 352.45 K). [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

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Figure 3. Diffusion coefficients of water infinitely diluted in CO₂ (D^{∞}) at high pressure (13.2 $\leq P \leq$ 29.8 MPa): experimental data (circles, dashed line) and literature models (various shapes).

The performance of the models is between 15.4 and 153.2% AAD for 24 data points (283.15 $\leq T \leq$ 308.15 K). [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

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section. Moreover, both η_2 and c_2 are strong functions of temperature and weak functions of pressure; their small pressure dependence is important when dealing with high pressures of saline aquifers and oil/natural gas reservoirs.

In Eq. 1, the solvent molar density and viscosity are determined from specific correlations based on experimental data.⁶³ The total molecular dipole moment for water in liquid phase ($\mu_{\rm H_2O}$) is calculated as a function of temperature based on Gubskaya and Kusalik.^{64,65} The formulation itself is mathematically involved, but can be succinctly reproduced in the form of an interpolation equation:

$$\mu_{\rm H_2O} = -1.2142 \times 10^{-32} T + 2.1236 \mu_{\rm o}, \tag{5}$$

where, *T* is the temperature in *K* and μ_0 is the dipole moment in C.m of water molecules in vapor phase.

The water-induced total dipole moment in CO₂ is determined from the electric field (E_{field}) generated by water molecules and the polarizability (α) of CO₂ molecules⁵⁹:

$$\mu_{\rm CO_2} = \alpha_{\rm CO_2} E_{\rm field},\tag{6}$$

Molecular polarizability used in Eq. 6 is obtained from the CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics,⁶⁶ and the $E_{\rm field}$ is calculated from the dipole moment of water as a function of temperature ($\mu_{\rm H_2O}$), the dielectric constant of water ($\epsilon_{\rm H_2O}$), and the separation between CO₂ and water molecules (*r*):

$$E_{\rm field} = \frac{\mu_{\rm H_2O}}{2\pi\varepsilon_{\rm H_2O}r^3},\tag{7}$$

The dielectric constant of water (ε_{H_2O}) in Eq. 7 is estimated as function of temperature from the interpolation equation given by Uematsu and Frank⁶⁷:

$$\varepsilon_{\rm H_2O} = 1 + \left(\frac{a_1}{T^*}\right)\rho^* + \left(\frac{a_2}{T^*} + a_3 + a_4T^*\right)\rho^{*2} \\ + \left(\frac{a_5}{T^*} + a_6T^* + a_7T^{*2}\right)\rho^{*3} + \left(\frac{a_8}{T^{*2}} + \frac{a_9}{T^*} + a_{10}\right)\rho^{*4}, \quad (8)$$

where,

$$T^* = \frac{1}{298.15}T,$$
(9)

$$\rho^* = c_{\rm H_2O} M_{\rm H_2O} \times 10^{-6}, \tag{10}$$

$$a_{1} = 7.62571 \times 10^{0},$$

$$a_{2} = 2.44003 \times 10^{2},$$

$$a_{3} = -1.40569 \times 10^{2},$$

$$a_{4} = 2.77841 \times 10^{1},$$

$$a_{5} = -9.62805 \times 10^{1},$$

$$a_{6} = 4.17909 \times 10^{1},$$

$$a_{7} = -1.02099 \times 10^{1},$$

$$a_{8} = -4.52059 \times 10^{1},$$

$$a_{9} = 8.46395 \times 10^{1},$$

$$a_{10} = -3.58644 \times 10^{1}.$$
(11)

The challenge to using Eq. 7 is determining the separation, *r*. We assume that *r* can be estimated as half the collision diameter given by an intermolecular force law as suggested by $Cussler^{68}$:

$$r \approx \frac{1}{2}\sigma_{12},\tag{12}$$

In our work, we account for both the dipole moment of water and polarizability of CO_2 as functions of temperature. Therefore, we chose to work with the tabulated pure component Lenard-Jones and Stockmayer potentials⁶⁹ for the length (σ) and energy (ζ) parameters for CO_2 and water, respectively. We use the combination law by Hirschfelder, et al.⁶⁹ to calculate σ_{12} :

$$\sigma_{12} \approx \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{\rm CO_2} + \sigma_{\rm H_2O}) \xi^{-1/6},$$
 (13)

where, ξ is calculated from the polarizability of the nonpolar molecule (α), dipole moment (μ) of the polar molecule, and pure component ζ :

$$\xi = \left[1 + \frac{1}{4} \alpha_{\rm co_2}^* \mu_{\rm H_2O}^{*2} \sqrt{\frac{\zeta_{\rm H_2O}}{\zeta_{\rm co_2}}}\right],\tag{14}$$

where,

$$\alpha_{\rm co_2}^* = \frac{\alpha_{\rm co_2}}{\sigma_{\rm co_2}^3},\tag{15}$$

$$\mu_{\rm H_2O}^* = \frac{\mu_{\rm H_2O}}{\sqrt{\zeta_{\rm H_2O}\sigma_{\rm H_2O}^3}}.$$
 (16)

Results and Discussion

Performance of the proposed D^{∞} model

The proposed D^{∞} model (Eq. 1) fits well to the 180 experimental data points for CO₂—H₂O mixtures used in its development as shown in Figure 4. The model accurately captures the experimental data with an accuracy of 4.9% AAD.^{*} Note that the model covers four orders of magnitude of D^{∞} from 10^{-9} to 10^{-5} m²/s. Performance of the proposed D^{∞} model is compared to experimentally reported data for four classes of binary water mixtures not used in the model development with the solutes: CO₂ at 1000 MPa; nonpolar, but polarizable alkane molecules, methane (CH₄) and ethane (C₂H₆); slightly polar linear alkane molecules, propane (C₃H₈), *n*-butane (*n*C₄H₁₀), and *n*-pentane (*n*C₅H₁₂); and fairly polar hydrogen sulfide (H₂S). The results of our proposed D^{∞} model on these binary mixtures are shown in Figures 5–8.

Figure 5 compares the proposed D^{∞} model to CO₂—H₂O experimental data⁶ not used in its development (last row of Table 1) taking into account the extreme pressure. For this data set, concentration of CO₂ was determined to be 3% (by mole) or less; a composition indicative of infinite dilution. As shown in Figure 5, the predictions of our proposed model are acceptable. Moreover, the model makes the linearity in D^{∞} apparent; a trend that is obscured by the large scatter in experimental data. As noted earlier, reported errors in

*Absolute average deviation from N data points, $AAD(\%) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{1}^{N} \left[\left| \frac{(D_{madel}^{m} - D_{exp}^{o})}{D_{exp}^{o}} \right| \right] \times 100.$

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Figure 4. Diffusion coefficients of CO₂ and water at infinite dilution (D^{∞}) : 180 experimental data (circles) and the model given in Eq. 1 (solid line) for $273 \le T \le 368$ K, $0.1 \le P \le 39.2$ MPa, and $8.91 \times 10^{-10} \le D^{\infty} \le 2.45 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s. The AAD of the proposed D^{∞} model is 4.9%. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

experimental data are high; hence, 84.9% AAD in our D^{∞} model predictions is not necessarily a reflection of its inadequacy. Although it appears that the Othmer and Thakar⁴⁷ and Hayduk and Laudie⁵⁰ models perform better than the proposed model for this data set (Table 3), these models have higher AAD than the proposed D^{∞} model at low and high pressures, especially for water infinitely diluted in CO₂ (Table 2).



Figure 5. Infinite dilution diffusion coefficients (D^{∞}) vs. temperature (*T*) for CO₂-H₂O at 1000 MPa.

The AAD of the proposed D^{∞} model is 84.9%, and the reported error in experimental data (7 data points) varies from 33.3 to 62.5%. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

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Table 4. Summary of Experimental Data for Infinite Dilution of Alkanes and H_2S in Liquid Water Used to Test the Proposed D^{∞} Model

Solute	No. of Data Points	Conditions
CH_4	17	Т: 274.9 – 342.8 К
C_2H_6	8	D^{∞} : 8.13 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ - 4.48 × 10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s T: 277.15 - 333.15 K D^{∞} : 6.9 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ - 2.94 × 10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s
C_3H_8	8	T: 277.15 - 333.15 K
nC_4H_{10}	8	D^{∞} : 5.5 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ - 2.71 × 10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s T: 277.15 - 333.15 K D^{∞} : 5.0 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ - 2.51 × 10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s
nC_5H_{12}	4	$D : 5.0 \times 10^{-9} - 2.31 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m/s}$ T: 277.15 - 333.15 K $D^{\infty}: 4.6 \times 10^{-10} - 2.24 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^{2}/c$
H_2S	11	T: 288.15 - 368 K $D^{\infty}: 1.53 - 5.49 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$

All Data are at 0.1 MPa.

Table 4 summarizes the mixture conditions and range of D^{∞} data for alkane—water and H₂S—H₂O mixtures.^{24,70–75} The data points are provided in Supporting Information Table 5. We chose to use linear alkane molecules and H₂S due to their similarity to CO₂ in polarizability⁶⁶ and low-pressure solubility,⁷⁶ the availability of their respective D^{∞} over a range of temperature, and their applicability in natural gas and oil reservoir systems. In testing the proposed D^{∞} model, the polarizability (α) and collision diameter (σ) of CO₂ in Eqs. 6, and 13–15, were replaced with those of the alkane or H₂S.

Figure 6 compares experimental data to the proposed D^{∞} model for CH₄—H₂O and C₂H₆—H₂O mixtures as a function of temperature at 0.1 MPa. As shown, our proposed D^{∞} model accurately reproduces the reported experimental values. Both CH₄ and C₂H₆—like CO₂—have zero dipole moment, but have polarizabilities ($\alpha_{CH_4} = 2.60 \times 10^{-30} \text{m}^3$, $\alpha_{C_2H_6} = 4.45 \times 10^{-30} \text{m}^3$) close in value to the polarizability



Figure 6. Infinite dilution diffusion coefficients (D^{∞}) vs. temperature (7) for CH₄-H₂O and C₂H₆-H₂O mixtures at 0.1 MPa.

The AAD of the proposed D^{∞} model is 8.1% for CH₄—H₂O (17 data points) and 10.6% for C₂H₆—H₂O (eight data points). [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

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Figure 7. Infinite dilution diffusion coefficients (D°) vs. temperature (7) for C₃H₈—H₂O, nC_4H_{10} —H₂O, and nC_5H_{12} —H₂O mixtures at 0.1 MPa.

The AAD of the proposed D^{∞} model is 9.2% for C_3H_8 — H_2O (eight data points), 21% for nC_4H_{10} — H_2O (eight data points), and 25.3% for nC_5H_{12} — H_2O (four data points). [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

of CO₂ ($\alpha_{CO_2} = 2.91 \times 10^{-30} \text{m}^3$); thus, the proposed model performs equally well for CH₄—H₂O and C₂H₆—H₂O mixtures. Figure 7 shows the plot of D^{∞} over the temperature range of 277.15–333.15 K for C₃H₈—H₂O, nC_4H_{10} —H₂O, and nC_5H_{12} —H₂O mixtures at 0.1 MPa. As shown, the model reproduces experimental values for C₃H₈—H₂O quite well, but has higher deviations for nC_4H_{10} —H₂O and nC_5H_{12} —H₂O. It is worth noting the large disparity in reported D^{∞} between the two data sets for nC_4H_{10} —H₂O at temperatures from 310 to 320 K.^{73,74}

There is a trend in the performance of the model based on the polarizability of the alkane (Table 5): for small alkane molecules (CH₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₈) whose polarizability is close to that of CO₂—regardless of their net dipole moment—the model predictions are fairly accurate (AAD ~ 10%) for a comparable temperature range. However, for the longer linear alkanes (nC_4H_{10} and nC_5H_{12}), whose polarizability is almost three times or more that of CO₂, performance of the model deteriorates (AAD > 20%). Fortunately, smaller alkane molecules have a higher probability of being present as impurities in CO₂ injection streams than larger alkane molecules. Our proposed D^{∞} model can describe

Table 5. Summary of the Performance of Proposed D^{∞} Model for Infinite Dilution of Alkane and H₂S in Water

Mixture	Polarizability (10^{-30} m^3)	Dipole Moment at STP (Debye)	AAD (%)
$\begin{array}{c} CH_4 - H_2O \\ C_2H_6 - H_2O \\ C_3H_8 - H_2O \\ nC_4H_{10} - H_2O \\ nC_4H_{10} - H_2O \end{array}$	2.6 4.45 6.29 8.2	0 0 0.084 0.05 0.27	8.1 10.6 9.2 21.0
$hC_5H_{12}-H_2O$ H_2S-H_2O	9.99 3.8	0.37	25.3 8.9



Figure 8. Infinite dilution diffusion coefficients (D^{∞}) vs. temperature (7) for H₂S—H₂O mixtures at 0.1 MPa.

The AAD of the proposed D^{∞} model is 8.9% for 11 data points. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

accurately their diffusion in water if their amounts are nonnegligible and need to be accounted for.

Figure 8 shows experimental and predicted D^{∞} for H_2S-H_2O mixtures at 0.1 MPa over the temperature range of 288.15–368.15 K. Remarkably, the proposed D^{∞} model works well for H_2S-H_2O mixtures. It is interesting to note that the model has higher accuracy for the more polar H_2S (AAD = 8.9%) than it does for the less polar nC_4H_{10} and nC_5H_{12} (Table 5). This can be explained in terms of the differences in polarizability; molecular polarizability of H_2S ($\alpha_{H_2S} = 3.80 \times 10^{-30}m^3$) is close to that of CO_2 ($\alpha_{CO_2} = 2.91 \times 10^{-30}m^3$) unlike nC_4H_{10} ($\alpha_{nC_4H_{10}} = 8.2 \times 10^{-30}m^3$) and nC_5H_{12} ($\alpha_{nC_5H_{12}} = 9.99 \times 10^{-30}m^3$) whose polarizabilities are higher than that of CO_2 . Clearly, accounting for dipole-induced-dipole interactions between water and polarizable molecules is important for D^{∞} calculations.

Predictions of the effect of composition on D

All the available CO₂—H₂O data are given at the infinite dilution limits; therefore, we assess the effect of increasing composition on diffusion coefficients. To this end, we have employed the general formalism (see Appendix) frequently used for calculating Fickian diffusion coefficients (*D*) from $D^{\infty,7}$ The formalism itself is sequential: starting from D^{∞} , the composition-dependent Maxwell-Stefan diffusion coefficients (\wp) are calculated. Subsequently, the mixture's nonideality (Γ) is accounted for to determine *D*. Indeed, this approach was successfully used recently to model diffusion coefficients of hydrocarbon mixtures.⁷⁷

The composition of CO_2 in water at saturation is a function of temperature and an even stronger function of pressure; CO_2 solubility in water decreases slightly with increases in temperature, but increases markedly with increases in pressure.^{78,79} Hence, for given initial mixture

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Figure 9. Calculated compositions of water (x_{H_2O}) and CO_2 (x_{CO_2}) vs. pressure (*P*) in the CO₂-rich and water-rich phases, respectively, at 298.15, 352.15, and 413.15 K.

[Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

conditions (composition of CO_2 and water, temperature, and pressure), we use the CPA-EOS to perform a two-phase flash calculation that provides—by density difference—the equilibrium compositions of the CO_2 -rich and water-rich phases. Subsequently, we assess the composition-dependence of *D* using the established Fickian diffusion model—over a pressure and temperature range of 50 MPa, and 298.15 to 413.15 K, respectively. Figure 9 shows the phase compositions over this temperature and pressure range.

The CPA-EOS used in this work was initially tested to a maximum pressure of 18.17 MPa at a temperature of 533.15 K for phase compositions of CO_2 —H₂O mixtures;⁸ a pressure too low for the purposes of this work. Therefore, it was necessary to test the CPA-EOS at higher pressures to ensure its validity at high temperature (~420 K) and pressure (\geq 50 MPa) conditions of interest in this work. To this end, performance of the CPA-EOS was tested against phase equilibria data available in literature^{80,81} for CO₂—H₂O mixtures. As shown in Table 6, the predicted composition of CO₂ from the CPA-EOS agrees well with experimental data. Conclusively, the CPA-EOS phase-equilibria calculations are

Table 6. Predicted Composition of CO₂ (in CO₂-H₂O Mixtures) from the CPA-EOS Compared to Experimental Values at Given Temperatures and Pressures

P (MPa)	T (K)	Calc. Composition $(x_{CO.})$	Exp. Composition (x_{CO})	Dev. (%) ^a
169.2	500.95	0.765	0.789 ^b	3.1
264.5	534.95	0.625	0.625 ^b	0
280.0	538.15	0.608	0.578 ^c	5.2
300.0	538.15	0.607	0.670 ^c	9.4
311.1	546.45	0.562	0.530 ^b	6.1

^aPercent deviation, Dev (%) = $\left(\frac{x_{CO_2,exp} - x_{CO_2,CPA-EOS}}{x_{CO_2,exp}}\right) \times 100.$ ^bRef. 80. ^cRef. 81.

sufficiently accurate at high temperature and pressure. It is worth noting the availability of a recently published cubic EOS based on the Gibbs-Helmholtz equation.⁸² This EOS was tested against experimental densities of CO_2 and CO_2 water mixtures, as well as specific volumes of water, at low temperatures and high pressures; however, it was not tested for phase composition predictions like the CPA-EOS used in this work.



Figure 10. Calculated Fickian diffusion coefficients (D_{calc}) vs. the equilibrium concentration of CO₂ (x_{CO_2}) in the CO₂-rich and water-rich phases at 298.15, 352.15, and 413.15 K.

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Figure 10 shows the computed results of D as a function of concentration of CO₂ (x_{CO_2}) at 298.15, 352.15, and 413.15 K in the CO₂-rich and water-rich phases. As expected, D is a strong function of temperature in the CO₂-rich and waterrich phases; in the water-rich phase, there is an order of magnitude increase in D with temperature increase from 298.15 to 413.15 K. At high temperature, the extent of association of water molecules is lower, which contributes to the higher D. Composition-dependence of D is strong in the CO_2 rich phase, particularly at high x_{CO_2} where D decreases rapidly. The pressure range in Figure 10 is from 0.1 to 50 MPa. Hence, the effect of composition on D is mutually coupled with that of pressure, since for CO2-H2O mixtures, increased CO₂ concentration cannot be achieved without increasing pressure (Figure 9). Note that at high pressure, there is a higher degree of intermolecular cross-association between CO_2 and water molecules, which plays a role in the lower *D*.

Concluding Remarks

In this work, a simple model is proposed for calculating infinite dilution diffusion coefficients, D^{∞} , of CO₂-H₂O mixtures. The proposed model takes into account the intrinsic dipole moment of water molecules as a function of temperature, and the polarizability of CO2 molecules (which induces a dipole moment on the CO₂ molecule in the presence of an electric field created by surrounding water molecules). The proposed model is applicable at both infinite dilution extremes-unlike all other models in literature-and fits well to CO₂-H₂O experimental data at low and high temperatures and pressures with an accuracy of 4.9% on average.

Comparing the proposed D^{∞} model to CO_2 —H₂O experimental data at 759.15 to 961.15 K and 1000 MPa gives results comparable in accuracy of reported experimental data. The performance of our D^{∞} model highlights the feasibility of its extension to extreme pressures; an indication that the model would work well at high pressures typical of oil reservoirs and saline aquifers. Moreover, the proposed D^{∞} model, with the adjustable parameters based on CO2-H2O data, performs equally well for binary mixtures of water with short alkane molecules (CH₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₈) as well as H₂S whose polarizability and low-pressure solubility are comparable to that of CO₂. This points to the importance of dipoleinduced-dipole interactions on diffusion at infinite dilution.

It should be noted that since our proposed D^{∞} model accurately predicts D^{∞} for CO₂-H₂O, H₂S-H₂O, and CH_4 — H_2O , it could potentially be generalized to model D in ternary mixtures such as CO₂-H₂S-H₂O. In practice, CO₂ injected in saline aquifers might contain non-negligible amounts of either H₂S or CH₄ as contaminants; therefore, being able to model a third component would be useful. The only limitation to such a generalization is the lack of experimental data to verify infinite dilution diffusion coefficients for three-component mixtures.

Predictions for composition-based Fickian diffusion coefficients, D, for CO₂-H₂O mixtures reveal the competing effects of temperature and pressure on D. Whereas increase in temperature increases D in both the CO₂-rich and waterrich phases, increasing pressure noticeably decreases D in the CO2-rich phase. This large pressure effect is mutually coupled with that of increased CO₂ composition. Moreover, the extent of intermolecular associations (which are functions of temperature, pressure, and composition) affect D. These composition-based results imply that greatly varying rates of diffusion should be expected for specific composition, temperature, and pressure conditions of a given oil reservoir or saline aquifer.

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Notation

 $a_1 - a_{10}$ = regression constants for interpolation equation for $\varepsilon_{\rm H_{2}O}$ c = molar density (mol/m³)

- D = Fickian diffusion coefficients in binary mixtures (m²/s)
- D^{∞} = diffusion coefficient at infinite dilution (m²/s)
- $f_{\underline{i}}$ = fugacity of component i (Pa) \overline{J} = molar diffusive flux (mol/m²s)
- k_i = regression constants for Eq. 1
- k_B = Boltzmann's constant (m² kg/s² K)
- M_i = molecular mass of component *i* (g/mol)
- n = number of carbon atoms in linear alkane molecules
- N = total number of data points
- P = pressure (MPa)
- r = separation between diffusing molecules (m)
- T =temperature (K) x_i = mole fraction of component *i*

Greek letters

- α = polarizability of the nonpolar molecule (m³)
- Γ = nonideality factor
- $\varepsilon = dielectric constant$
- ζ = characteristic energy of the intermolecular force law (J)
- n = viscosity (Pa.s)
- μ = dipole moment (C.m)
- $\rho = \text{mass density } (\text{kg/m}^3)$
- σ = characteristic length of the intermolecular force law (m)
- ∇x_i = gradient of mole fraction of component i (m⁻¹)
- $\wp =$ Stefan-Maxwell diffusion coefficient (m²/s)

Subscripts

- calc = D calculated from the general Fickian diffusion coefficients framework
- $exp = D^{\infty}$ from experimental measurements found in literature $model = D^{\infty}$ calculated from the proposed model (Eq. 1)
 - - r = reduced temperature or pressure
 - 1 =component at infinite dilution, the solute
 - 2 = dominant component, the solvent

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Appendix: Framework for Calculating Fickian Diffusion Coefficients in Binary Mixtures

In any mixture, diffusive flux is driven by concentration gradient (molecular diffusion), temperature gradient (thermal diffusion), and pressure gradient (pressure diffusion). In a binary mixture under isothermal and isobaric conditions, molecular diffusion—appropriately termed Fickian diffusion—can be expressed via Fick's law^{7,83} as,

$$\vec{I}_1 = -cD\nabla x_1,\tag{A1}$$

where, $\vec{J_1}$ is the molar diffusive flux (mol/m²s) of component 1, ∇x_1 is the gradient of mole fractions of component 1 (m⁻¹), *c* is mixture's molar density (mol/m³), and *D* is the Fickian diffusion coefficient (m²/s) for the mixture.

Alternatively, Fickian diffusion at constant temperature and pressure, can be written using the Stefan-Maxwell (SM) approach⁷:

$$\vec{J}_1 = -c\wp \Gamma \nabla x_1, \tag{A2}$$

where, \wp is the SM diffusion coefficient, and Γ is the thermodynamic factor that represents the mixture's nonideality as a function of the fugacity⁷⁷ of component 1, f_1 :

$$\Gamma = x_1 \frac{\partial \ln f_1}{\partial x_1} \Big|_{T,P}.$$
(A3)

A general practice in literature is to use activity coefficients⁷ to calculate nonideality; however, in our work, we use fugacity calculated from an appropriate EOS, since it more accurately predicts pressure effects on nonideality.

Comparison of Eqs. A1 and A2 provides the relation between SM and Fickian diffusion coefficients:

$$D = \wp \Gamma. \tag{A4}$$

Equality of \wp and D is achieved at the infinite dilution limit (at $\Gamma = 1$), where the diffusion coefficient is denoted as D^{∞} . In concentrated mixtures, D is calculated from Eq. A4, where \wp is estimated from the proposed D^{∞} model (Eq. 1) by accounting for the mixture's composition. In general, either the geometric mean, proposed by Vignes⁸⁴ or the arithmetic mean suggested by Caldwell and Babb⁸⁵ are commonly used. In this work we use the Vignes mixing rule:

$$\wp = \left(D_{12}^{\infty}\right)^{x_2} \left(D_{21}^{\infty}\right)^{x_1}.$$
 (A5)

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