

Invited review

CO₂ injection for enhanced oil recovery: A review of existing methods, challenges and promising solutions

Valentin A. Morenov, Kirill V. Shchigolev^{✉*}

Petroleum Department, Empress Catherine II Saint Petersburg Mining University, Saint Petersburg 199106, Russia

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Abstract:

Carbon dioxide injection for enhanced oil recovery is a key technology that combines increased hydrocarbon extraction with CO₂ storage. However, existing literature mostly describes isolated solutions and rarely offers a comparative systematization of methods considering their practical limitations and industrial results. The purpose of this review is to systematize CO₂ enhanced oil recovery methods and summarize the experience of the world largest projects to develop a comprehensive approach to selecting injection schemes under various geological and technological conditions. Based on an analysis of more than 100 studies, carbon dioxide enhanced oil recovery methods in this work are classified by injection type and additives used. For each method, the main recovery mechanisms are summarized, including fluid mobility control, wettability modification, and asphaltene deposition inhibition. An analysis of major industrial projects in North America, China, and Europe, conducted in the paper, showed up to 25% increase in oil recovery with optimized water-alternating-gas schemes. Pore-scale visualization studies show that CO₂ flow involves unsteady effects like snap-off and cyclic bubble dilation. These phenomena explain channel formation and early gas breakthrough, justifying the need for mobility control methods. Synthesis of the results identified three prioritized technological limitations: First, the reliability of CO₂ infrastructure and supply; second, control of the displacement profile in heterogeneous reservoirs; and third, long-term well integrity and CO₂ balance management. These findings support the selection of optimal carbon dioxide enhanced oil recovery schemes and future research priorities.

1. Introduction

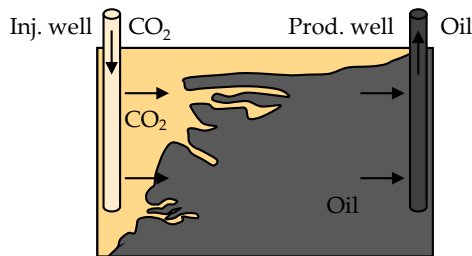
With the ever-growing demand for energy resources and the immediate depletion of easily accessible oil reserves, the global energy community is faced with the need to develop hard-to-recover hydrocarbon reserves (Litvinenko et al., 2022; Petrakov et al., 2024). According to the reports of the International Energy Agency, the share of hard-to-recover oil reserves in global energy balance is increasing every year, which calls into question the sustainability of traditional approaches to production (Cozzi et al., 2021). This, in turn, requires oil producing companies and countries to pay increased attention to the development and application of new

technologies to increase the recovery factor of hydrocarbons (Bratskikh and Romasheva, 2025). Global strategic agendas in the field of energy and environment, such as the Paris Agreement (Zharikova et al., 2025), stimulate not only the search for alternative energy sources, but also the development of more efficient and environmentally friendly technologies in conventional energy (Taber et al., 1997; Metz et al., 2005; Kovyazin et al., 2026). In this regard, enhanced oil recovery (EOR) methods are of particular relevance, as they allow maximizing production from already explored fields, whereas reducing environmental impact.

Among the various EOR techniques, gas methods are the

Table 1. Comparison of the cost of CO₂-EOR with other EOR methods.

Method	Original oil in place (OOIP)	Costs (\$/BBL) (Liu and Wei, 2017)
Waterflood	5%-20%	2-8
CO ₂ -EOR	7%-25%	10-30
Chemical	10%-20%	11-50
Thermal	20%-50%	9-25
Microbial	5%-15%	3-9

**Fig. 1.** CCI.

leading ones due to their cost- efficiency and high performance. The use of natural gas, nitrogen and, in particular, carbon dioxide for injection into formations allows not only to increase the pressure in the reservoir, but also significantly improve the physical and chemical properties of oil, facilitating its recovery (Taber et al., 1997). The method of carbon dioxide enhanced oil recovery (CO₂-EOR) has gained considerable attention in recent years because of its potential to improve oil recovery (a comparison of CO₂-EOR with other EOR methods is presented in Table 1) and its ability to capture and store carbon dioxide, which helps reducing the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere (Cherepovitsyn and Ilinova, 2016). Historically, the CO₂-EOR method started to be actively developed in the second half of the twentieth century in the United States, and since then the technology has undergone a long path of modernization and optimization, adapting to different operating conditions and field types (Metz et al., 2005).

This review article is intended to provide an in-depth analysis of existing CO₂-EOR methods, drawing on the experience from worldwide projects, assess their efficiency, explore new opportunities and challenges, and discuss the prospects and limitations of their application in various conditions.

2. CO₂-EOR methods

There are many ways to use carbon dioxide for injection into the reservoir to increase oil recovery (Bai et al., 2019). In global enhanced oil recovery practice, carbon dioxide injection methods are traditionally classified into two fundamental approaches: Continuous injection mode and cyclic injection mode. This division reflects not only differences in the organization of injecting the working agent into the reservoir, but also a fundamental difference in hydrodynamics,

mass transfer, the mechanism of interaction between CO₂, oil, and rock, as well as in the requirements for the composition of the injected fluid. This classification, based on the nature of the flow (continuous or cyclic), is widely accepted in the works of Society of Petroleum Engineers, International Energy Agency Enhanced Oil Recovery, and the DOE Carbon Storage Program.

2.1 Continuous CO₂ injection methods

Carbon dioxide can be present in different phase states when it is injected into the formation, depending on pressure and temperature: Liquid, gaseous or supercritical. At temperatures below 31.1 °C and pressures below 73.8 bar, CO₂ is in gaseous form. CO₂ becomes liquid when the temperature is below the critical point with the pressure above it. At the supercritical state, when the temperature exceeds 31.1 °C and the pressure exceeds 73.8 bar, CO₂ combines the properties of both a liquid and a gas. In this state it has a high density similar to a liquid and a low viscosity similar to gas. These properties allow CO₂ to effectively penetrate porous media, reduce oil viscosity and improve oil displacement. A recent study showed that pulsed supercritical CO₂ jets with adjustable frequency can induce microcracks and enhance permeability, accelerating and stabilizing gas flow between wells (Shen et al., 2023).

2.1.1 Continuous CO₂ injection

Continuous CO₂ injection (CCI) (Fig. 1) involves the sustained delivery of carbon dioxide into the reservoir, either in liquid (liquid injection) or gaseous (gas injection) form, depending on temperature and pressure conditions. This method is operationally simple and relatively easy to control compared to alternating or chemical injection schemes, which makes it economically attractive at the early stage of field implementation. In homogeneous reservoirs, continuous injection can achieve stable displacement and high incremental oil production. Although it typically requires a larger total CO₂ volume, long-term results may surpass other CO₂-based flooding strategies in terms of flow rate and cumulative recovery. In heterogeneous formations, CCI performance is often constrained by an unfavorable mobility ratio between CO₂ and oil. The resulting viscous fingering, gravity segregation, and early gas breakthrough lead to poor sweep efficiency. The dependence on reservoir architecture and pressure-temperature regime makes this process highly site-specific and limits its large-scale applicability.

Recent micro-scale visualization studies have revealed that even under immiscible conditions, continuous CO₂ flow in porous media is governed by transient phenomena (such as jumping displacement, gas-to-oil-to-gas multiple displacement, and cyclic compression-release of CO₂ bubbles in narrow throats). These pore-scale instabilities, identified by Wang et al. (2020), explain the formation of irregular channels and early CO₂ breakthrough observed in field practice, emphasizing the need for mobility control during prolonged injection. Field experience confirms these observations. Laboratory work on Jilin sandstone cores (China) showed that once gas chan-

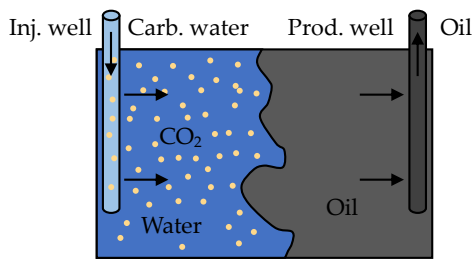


Fig. 2. CWI.

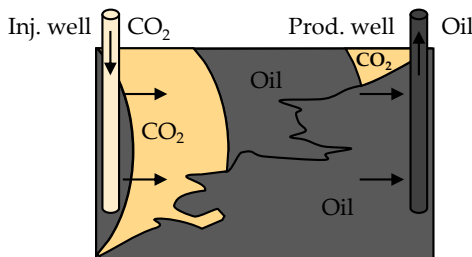


Fig. 3. Cyclic Injection into injection wells (Pure CO₂).

neling occurs during CCI, subsequent transition to miscible CO₂-water alternate gas (WAG) can increase final oil recovery from 51.97% to 73.15%. Similarly, at the Reinecke field (USA, Chevron), continuous injection delivered strong initial productivity but soon suffered from excessive gas recirculation due to vertical high-permeability streaks. Simulation studies indicated that CO₂ flux exceeded the gravity-stable threshold; converting the scheme to tapered WAG (TWAG) restored conformance and stabilized injectivity. Overall, CCI remains an effective yet unstable displacement process. Its success depends on controlling channel growth and integrating it with alternating or tapered injection cycles that mitigate gravity override and viscous fingering.

2.1.2 Carbonated water injection

The method is an EOR technique that uses carbon dioxide-saturated water for injection into the reservoir (Fig. 2). Carbonated water injection (CWI) has a higher efficiency in enhancing oil recovery compared to conventional waterflooding (with optimal application, oil recovery can be increased by 7%-15%). According to a recent study conducted on glass micromodels, CWI was found to EOR for a longer period of time than water flooding (WF), even after water breakthrough to the production well. The main mechanism is the continuous dissolution of CO₂ in the oil phase and subsequent oil swelling and viscosity reduction, resulting in improved mobility of residual oil in the micromodel. Moreover, the water cut of the final product is lower with CWI than with conventional WF.

Investigations on wettability established that pH level of the injected water affects the efficiency of the process. Lower pH level of carbonated water changes the wettability state of the “formation water-oil-rock” system and thus improves oil recovery. The process of displacement by carbonated water also depends on the properties of the oil itself. For example, if the oil is light and has ultra-low viscosity, it is possible to achieve miscible displacement at the first contact with

carbonated water, whereas wettability at CWI in heavy oils also has a positive effect, but with a lesser intensity.

The efficiency of the CWI process, as previously stated, is affected by CO₂ solubility in the oil. In this case, the CWI rate has minimal effect on the process efficiency. With respect to sequestration, the amount of CO₂ that can be stored at the end of CWI for different operating pressures ranges from 22% to 42% of the total CO₂ injected (Mosavat and Torabi, 2014; Salehpour et al., 2020). The most important advantage of the CWI method is the low risks of free phase migration of carbon dioxide to the ground surface, which are due to low chance of carbon dioxide leaks (Mosavat and Torabi, 2014). A key limitation of the CWI method is that the CO₂ concentration front lags behind the oil displacement front, resulting in a time delay in obtaining the expected results from the technology implementation. Thus, CWI has great potential to permanently store injected CO₂ and simultaneously significantly improve oil recovery.

Recent investigations on crude oil samples from a field in southeastern Iran confirmed the results of earlier research (Lashkarbolooki and Ayatollahi, 2016) that the decrease in the interfacial tension (IFT) of the oil-water system is caused by adsorption of natural surfactants (components of asphaltenes and resins) at the interface between the two phases (Golkari et al., 2022). Experimental results also show higher IFT values at 50 °C than at 40 °C. This is due to the lower dissolution of CO₂ in the oil phase at higher temperatures.

2.2 Cyclic CO₂ injection methods

This class of technologies is based on regular alternation of slugs of different fluids: CO₂, water, polymers, surfactants, nanoparticles, small self-interacting molecules. Each slug interacts with the zone modified by the previous one, forming a multilayer displacement front. All the methods discussed in this section are cyclic, since they are based on phase or chemical alternation, without which their movement mechanisms cannot function.

2.2.1 Cyclic injection into injection wells (Pure CO₂)

This method represents the injection of alternating cycles of carbon dioxide in gaseous, liquid, or supercritical form with varying intervals Cyclic CO₂ injection (Fig. 3) is carried out through the injection well to develop low-permeability zones when CCI is inefficient and uneconomical (Raupov et al., 2025). The basic concept of the method is to select a productive zone with permeability from 0.001 to 2 mD and to apply cyclic CO₂ injection into the injection well when the reservoir pressure drops to 50%. CO₂ injection should be stopped after the reservoir pressure level is restored to the initial state. Application of cyclic carbon dioxide injection in an injection well in a carbonate reservoir section with low permeability and porosity increased oil recovery by 11.6% (Pavlova et al., 2022). A specific case of cyclic injection is also the injection of a single slug of liquid or gaseous carbon dioxide, followed by its subsequent displacement through the reservoir by continuous WF.

In 1960-1980 a series of field experiments on the ef-

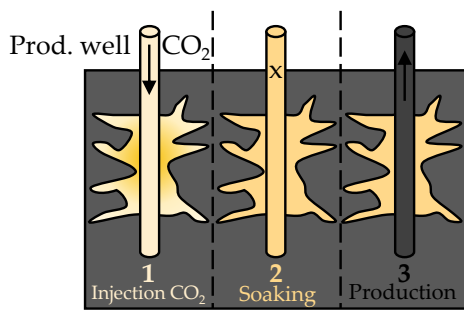


Fig. 4. Huff-n-Puff process.

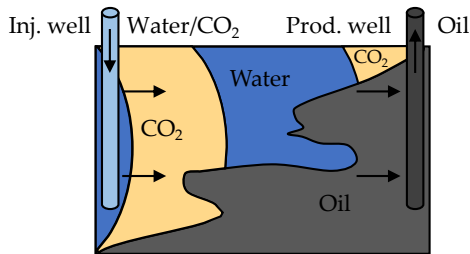


Fig. 5. WAG.

fect of CO₂ on the formations of the Romashkinskoye, Chashkinskoye, Olkhovskoye, Radaevskoye, Kozlovskoye and Sergeevskoye fields of the USSR were carried out. It was found that CO₂ injection followed by water or CWI resulted in higher hydrocarbon recovery than conventional CWI (Ryazantsev and Lozin, 2020). However, the implementation of CO₂ injection faced significant challenges: Frequent pipeline ruptures caused by carbonic acid corrosion and unstable gas supplies rendered the technology economically unviable, leading to the termination of trials in 1988. Additional constraints included the high costs of corrosion-resistant materials, extended pay-back periods, and the lack of reliable equipment for continuous injection in such an aggressive environment. In 1964, a similar field test project was conducted in the Mead Strawn field, involving the injection of a large volume of CO₂ (25% of pore volume) followed by the injection of carbonated water under formation conditions. The results showed that the CO₂ flooding produced between 53% and 82% more oil than was produced from the best Mead Strawn sections with conventional WF.

As mentioned above, when pure CO₂ is injected into a reservoir, its concentration lags behind the oil displacement front. However, by injecting pure CO₂ in volumes up to 30% of the pore volume and then continuing the process with carbonated water or conventional water, this lag can be eliminated. Thus, the method using liquid CO₂ becomes limited only by the critical temperature. The intensive dependence of oil displacement process by CO₂ gaseous front on gravity segregation limits the application of this method in formations with high vertical permeability (Kalinin and Morozuk, 2019).

2.2.2 Huff-n-Puff

Carbon dioxide gas cycling (CO₂ Huff-n-Puff) is an EOR technique that involves three main steps (Fig. 4): CO₂ injection into the production well, a soak period for CO₂ diffusion into

meso-, micro- and nanopores, which helps swell the oil and reduce its viscosity, and subsequent operation of the well to produce a mixture of CO₂ and oil (Shi et al., 2024). The Huff-n-Puff cycles are usually repeated several times. CO₂ can be injected into the production well either in a liquid or supercritical state.

Investigations have shown that Huff-n-Puff method can significantly increase the oil recovery factor by 20%-80% (Ding et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022). Experiments have confirmed that CO₂ can improve oil recovery by reducing viscosity, increasing volume by dissolving CO₂, and cleaning the bottomhole zone from asphaltene-resin-paraffin deposits (Ipatov et al., 2023). Molecular dynamic modelling has indicated the formation of stable aggregate structures of asphaltenes, which have a positive effect on oil recovery efficiency in the presence of CO₂ (Zhang et al., 2023; Korobov et al., 2024).

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) is often used to experimentally quantify changes in fluid saturation during shale oil production. The results of NMR spectrometry on tight shale oil reservoirs using Huff-n-Puff showed an increase in oil recovery of more than 40% (Zeng et al., 2020). NMR experiments of CO₂ injection into rock samples from Shengli oil field (China) at a constant pressure of 25 MPa, well soaking for three hours, and five injection and production cycles resulted in a cumulative recovery efficiency of 45.9%.

Research has been conducted on the efficiency of using the CO₂ “Huff-n-Puff” process in tight oil reservoirs of the Lukaogou field (China) after hydraulic fracturing. For this purpose, historical fractured wells were simulated in rock samples using a mixture of fracturing fluid and CO₂. After soaking, the rock samples with fracturing fluid and implementing CO₂ Huff-n-Puff the oil recovery factor improved with increasing soaking time and number of cycles. However, due to the complex pore structure, the ultimate oil recovery factor for the samples averaged 25%. After injection, the carbon dioxide reacted first with the fracturing fluid and afterwards with the oil in the shallower pores. Therefore, it is necessary to exclude fracturing fluid or formation water from the zones of influence before carbon dioxide injection into the formation (Blinov et al., 2025; Dvoynikov and Kutuzov, 2025).

2.2.3 WAG

The CO₂-WAG (Fig. 5) method involves alternate injection of carbon dioxide and water into oil reservoirs. In the CO₂-WAG method carbon dioxide is injected first, which, with its high mobility and ability to dissolve in oil, reduces its viscosity and increases its volume that helps to displace hydrocarbons from the rock more efficiently. CO₂ injection is followed by the introduction of water, which displaces both dissolved carbon dioxide and oil to the production wells. The water acts as a buffer, reducing segregation of CO₂, which is a frequent problem when CO₂ is injected alone. The alternation of the two fluids favours uniform pressure distribution in the reservoir and improves oil displacement efficiency compared to WF or CCI, as well as providing mobility control.

The CO₂-WAG method contributes to efficient use of carbon dioxide, minimizing its loss and improving the overall economic efficiency of CO₂-EOR projects. However, the suc-

successful application of this technology requires careful injection planning, including optimization of injection modes, calculation of the volume and quantity of water and gas slugs, and adaptation to the specific conditions of the oil reservoir with further control and monitoring of the flood process (Wang et al., 2017). Chen and Reynolds (2016), based on net present value (NPV) analysis, optimized the target gas and water injection rates and target bottomhole pressure of production wells with different numbers of WAG cycles and concluded that the maximum NPV is achieved by increasing the injection cycles, whereas fixing the injection cycles for the whole period of technology application is not reasonable (dos Santos et al., 2023).

The increase in recovery efficiency is particularly evident under conditions of miscibility. In this regard, fields with light oil are often favoured because miscibility can be achieved at relatively low pressure (Orujov et al., 2023). Tests of the method in carbonate subsalt reservoirs of the Brazilian field also showed that the use of CO₂-WAG promoted multi-contact miscibility between CO₂ and oil in the reservoir. It was found that due to the better mobility coefficient, the formation of viscous fingers was reduced. At the same time, recovered oil fraction increased as more fluid was injected. However, the increase in oil recovery is not always proportional to the increase in injected fluid, which also highlights the importance of proper injection organization and selection of the volume and number of slugs.

A specific case of the WAG method is the simultaneous water alternate gas (SWAG) method. In the SWAG process, water and CO₂ are injected through the same well simultaneously. There are two different SWAG schemes: Water over gas and co-injection. In the first case, water is injected from the upper perforations and gas is injected from deeper perforations. In this way, the rapid upward movement of the gas is reduced by the water phase injected from above. Dual completion can be used for such injection in an injection well. In co-injection, the two phases are mixed and injected together. For layered reservoirs, this injection scheme is the most suitable (Karimaie et al., 2017).

The results of CO₂-WAG and CO₂-SWAG implementation in the Tight Bakken formation, USA, showed that the WAG method with a water-gas ratio (WGR) of 1:3 showed a slightly higher oil recovery ratio relative to CO₂-SWAG. However, several investigations determined that the CO₂-SWAG method with a WGR of 1:3 showed the best results with the highest oil flow rate, oil recovery factor, controlled gas production and low water consumption (Han and Gu, 2014; Gong and Gu, 2015). The results of CO₂-WAG implementation in terrigenous reservoirs of sandstone and carbonate reservoirs of dolomites and limestones at Iranian fields showed optimal WGR of 1:1 (optimal conditions - maximum oil production with minimum amount of formation water). It is noted that in carbonate rocks under CO₂-SWAG conditions with high WGR, increasing the volume of injected gas does not lead to a significant increase in the oil recovery factor, but this observation is not confirmed in the case of CO₂-WAG.

CO₂ and water co-injection methods are also possible in the presence of the chemical reagents: Chemical water

alternate gas (SAG (Active water alternate gas), foam-assisted WAG (FAWAG), PAG) and Chemical carbonated water injection (ACWI), which will be discussed in the following sections (Kumar and Mandal, 2017; Chen et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021). Another key modification of the conventional WAG technique is the TWAG process. Tapered WAG method is a variation of WAG technique, in which the duration of gas injection cycles is varied: Longer cycles are used at the beginning of the process, which are shortened over time. The method is applicable to both homogeneous and heterogeneous reservoirs. This technology proved its superiority over conventional WAG in heterogeneous low-permeability reservoirs of Xinjiang field (China) both in terms of final oil recovery and NPV. Reservoir modelling of a real field in the Middle East under conventional WAG and TWAG using the same WGR (4:1) in homogeneous and heterogeneous areas shows that 4-year water injection followed by 1-year CO₂ injection shows the highest oil recovery. Due to existing disadvantages CO₂-EOR (early breakthrough of carbon dioxide to production wells because of its high mobility, formation of viscous fingers and others), in recent years there have been numerous investigations on the application of disperse systems using thickeners, foam-forming surfactants, polymers, nanoparticles and low molecular weight compounds capable of eliminating these drawbacks.

2.2.4 Surfactant assisted WAG

Surfactant-assisted WAG (Fig. 6) is an EOR method based on the cyclic injection of a surfactant solution and gas without implying foam generation as a governing displacement mechanism. In this approach, surfactants are primarily used to reduce oil-water IFT, thereby mobilizing residual oil, while the injected gas serves as an energy carrier that improves macroscopic displacement efficiency and supports reservoir pressure. The alternation of surfactant and gas slugs enables the combination of capillary desaturation and improved sweep without the need for surfactant-induced gas mobility control. Unlike foam-assisted processes, Surfactant-assisted WAG does not require the use of foaming surfactants or stable gas-liquid lamellae formation in the reservoir, making it applicable in formations where foam stability is limited by oil composition, salinity, or reservoir temperature.

Surfactant-assisted WAG aims to reduce gas mobility at the displacement front. In the front, the low water saturation causes the foam to collapse (partially or completely); thus, gas mobility is gradually increased to the original mobility in the injection well. Potentially, this could result in high-mobility gas entering an area with low-mobility gas in the form of foam. The alternate injection of gas and surfactants on tight rock samples from the Pazanan oil field (southern Iran) showed better oil recovery factors compared to WAG (54% vs. 46%).

The FAWAG method can be considered a specific implementation of the Surfactant-assisted WAG concept, in which the injected surfactant is intentionally selected for its foam-forming capability. In contrast to conventional Surfactant-assisted WAG, FAWAG employs foaming surfactants that promote the generation of stable gas-liquid lamellae in the porous medium, thereby enabling effective gas mobility con-

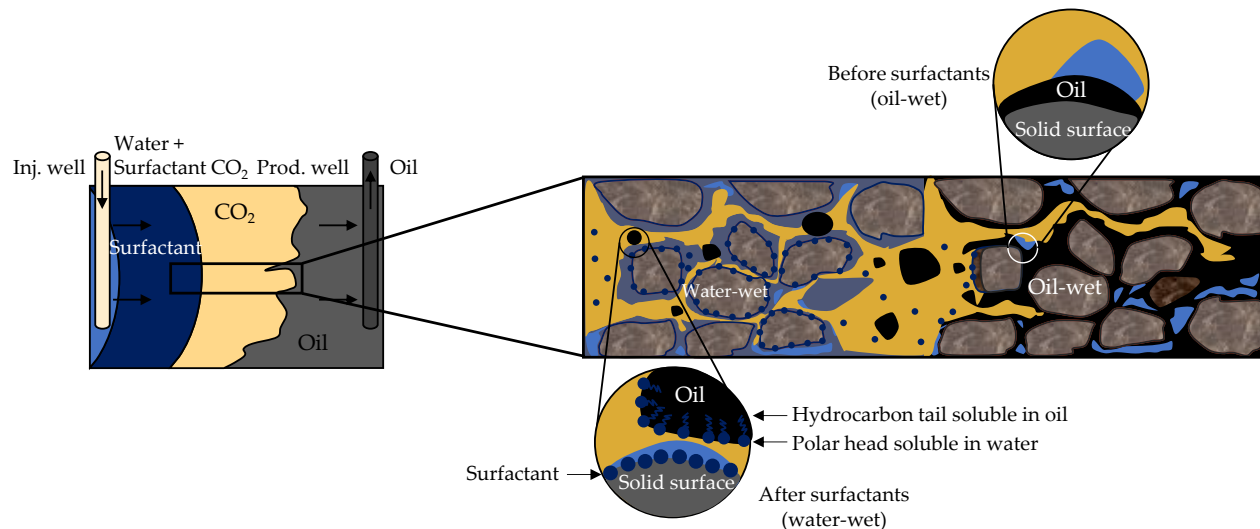


Fig. 6. Surfactant assisted WAG.

trol and improved sweep efficiency. Foam stability is typically enhanced through the use of surfactants formulated with foam-boosting additives, such as co-surfactants (e.g., alcohol ethoxylates or betaines), stabilizing polymers, or inorganic salts, which increase lamella elasticity and resistance to coalescence under reservoir conditions.

Foam can be injected into the formation using two methods: The first one is Co-Injection of foam, in which the foam is formed before entering the formation, and the second one is the gas and surfactant-assisted WAG, in which gas and surfactant solutions are injected sequentially (Afsharpoor et al., 2010; Podoprigora et al., 2025). Parameters such as flow velocity, foam structure, surfactant concentration, capillary pressure, temperature, wettability, IFT, ion exchange and degree of saturation influence foam spreading and stability.

Conventional foam flooding methods have been studied since the middle of the twentieth century and have been widely used around the world. Later investigations revealed a direct correlation between foam stability and the initial wettability of reservoir rocks. For example, mixed or hydrophilic environments produce much less stable foam, which slows down the foaming process. The surfactant-assisted WAG foam test in the Norwegian Snorre field went without significant complications, whereas co-injection of foam was complicated by operational difficulties resulting in unstable injectivity. From an operational point of view, the surfactant-assisted WAG process is similar to the water-gas alternation method and requires minimal additional effort.

Further research has revealed the prospects of improving the process of conventional foaming through the use of CO₂-philic additives in the composition of surfactants. The use of CO₂-philic surfactants can reduce their adsorption on the rock, decrease the redistribution of surfactants between water and oil, and increase foam stability (Adkins et al., 2010). Experiments on rock samples from the Malaysian field confirmed that CO₂-philic surfactant, which is more active at the gas/water interface, is more stable in the presence of oil compared to other hydrocarbon surfactants such as alpha-olefin sulfonate

(Talebian et al., 2015).

CO₂-philic surfactants interact with CO₂ at the molecular level due to the presence of CO₂-affine fragments in their structure, such as fluorinated chains, silicone segments, and polyether groups. These functional groups exhibit high solubility in CO₂ or the ability to engage in specific interactions with CO₂ molecules (e.g., via dispersion forces and dipole-induced interactions). Under elevated pressure conditions typical of oil reservoirs, such surfactants are capable of forming stable supramolecular structures (namely micelles and interfacial layers at the gas-liquid boundary) in which CO₂ molecules can become partially incorporated into the molecular shell. This results in a significant reduction of IFT, enhanced surfactant adsorption at the gas-liquid interface, and the formation of more stable and elastic foam films. In the presence of crude oil, these films exhibit increased resistance to rupture, which is critical for maintaining foam integrity within the porous medium. Foam stability directly influences mobility control: Stable foams mitigate gas breakthrough, reduce filtration heterogeneities, and promote uniform oil displacement. Thus, the molecular interactions between CO₂-philic surfactants and CO₂ underlie both the physicochemical stability of foam and its effectiveness in EOR applications.

Another study considered the use of resistivity method for monitoring the distribution of foam solutions in sandstone reservoirs. The analysis of data obtained from modelling and practical experiments allowed establishing a correlation between the duration of foam injection and the specific electrical resistivity, as well as the degree of saturation of the reservoir with water and gas. It is emphasized that an increase in the content of surfactants in the foam is accompanied by an increase in the resistivity. The use of foam with surfactant content of 0.5% mass demonstrates excellent results, reducing residual oil saturation to 11.37% and increasing oil recovery factor to 66.99%, which distinguishes it among other experimental concentrations (Khan et al., 2024).

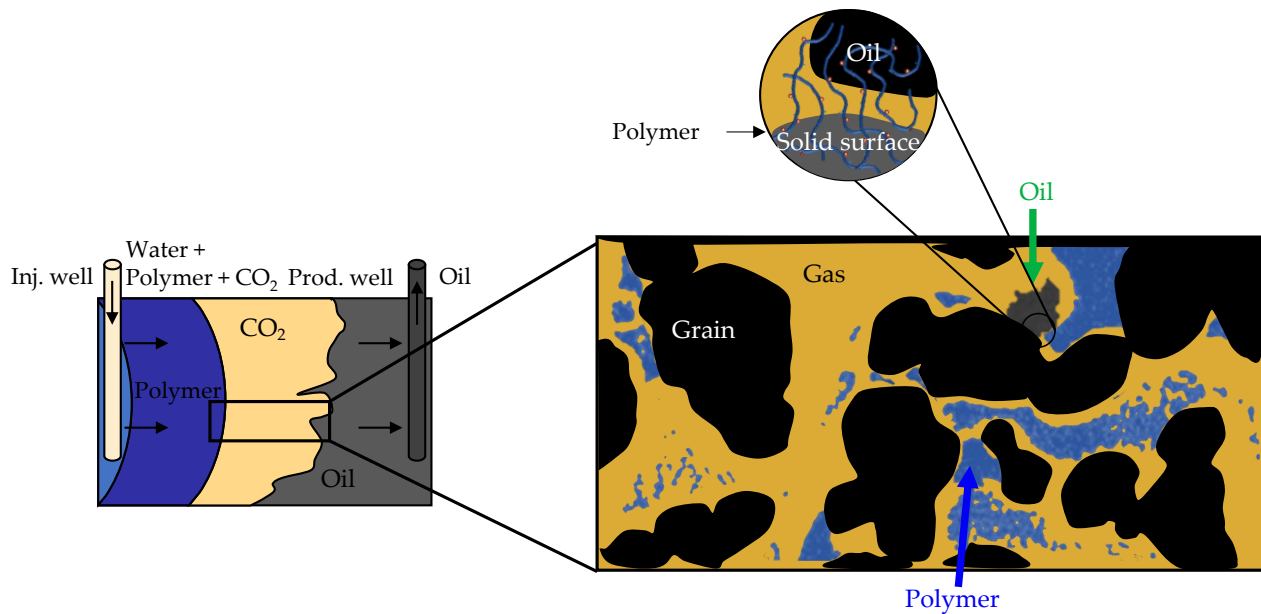


Fig. 7. Polymer-assisted WAG.

2.2.5 Polymer assisted WAG

The use of polymer thickeners is a key method to increase the CO₂ viscosity (Fig. 7). Research on thickening CO₂ with polymers has been ongoing since the 1970s. Many investigations have been carried out to find suitable polymer thickeners. Research shows that polymeric thickeners are more potent due to their stability under reservoir conditions. Polymers containing heteroatoms (O, N, Si, F) are considered to be more efficient as they are more compatible with CO₂ compared to polymers consisting of only carbon and hydrogen. There are also polymers based on hydrocarbons. The solubility and thickening properties of polymers in CO₂ are largely determined by the interactions between the polymer and CO₂. The stronger the polymer- CO₂ interaction and the weaker the polymer-polymer interaction, the higher the probability of polymer dissolution and thickening of the CO₂ solution. Polymers usually contribute to CO₂ thickening through polymer tangle expansion, intermolecular interactions, entanglement, aggregation, and structuring (Fig. 7).

Polymer injection experiments with CO₂ on rock samples from the Alaska North Slope viscous oil field have concluded that polymer injection using solvents (e.g., low-salinity water) can simultaneously improve both displacement and recovery. However, the interaction of CO₂ with clay minerals in the formation can produce large amounts of cations that cause polymer precipitation. To prevent polymer precipitation, it is recommended to introduce a layer of low salinity water between the CO₂ and the polymer plug. All the solvent EOR methods in this study showed remarkable performance with the lowest recovery factor of 78.44% and maximum recovery factor of 92.23% (Cheng et al., 2023).

Polymer-enriched CO₂ and gel-forming systems are a promising approach to improve the efficiency of CO₂-EOR and ensure reliable CO₂ storage in oil reservoirs. In one study,

the use of a CO₂-responsive, temperature-resistant polymer surfactant in low-permeability cores (5-20 mD) increased oil recovery by 8.2% compared to the traditional WAG (water-alternating-gas) method, due to enhanced viscosity and reduced gas channeling (Chen et al., 2023). A recent review highlighted various gel systems (including polymer-based, silicate, and CO₂-sensitive gels) used for fracture sealing, leakage control, and improved sweep efficiency in both EOR and CO₂ storage operations (Bai et al., 2007). Another field-scale study showed that polymer gels effectively reduce CO₂ mobility and improve both oil recovery and long-term CO₂ containment (Brattekaas and Seright, 2023).

2.2.6 Small self-interacting molecules

Low molecular weight compounds form macromolecular networks through intermolecular associations, which increases the viscosity of the solution (Carpenter, 2014; Pal et al., 2022). The use of small self-acting molecules is considered as an alternative to polymers for CO₂ thickening. These compounds include CO₂-philic and CO₂-phobic groups that facilitate their dissolution in CO₂ and interaction with adjacent molecules (Pal et al., 2022). Their advantages include a significant increase in the viscosity of CO₂ at low concentrations and ease of gel formation in bulk liquids, resulting in a more viscous solution (Ricky et al., 2023).

However, there are disadvantages: Some low molecular weight compounds require heating and co-solvent to dissolve in CO₂, and their ability to increase viscosity decreases at elevated temperatures. Low-CO₂ gels become more viscous and difficult to pass, and fluorinated molecules are expensive and environmentally harmful. Overly strong associating groups can make the thickener insoluble in CO₂, while excessively weak groups can increase viscosity only slightly. Special attention should be paid to temperature conditions. Elevated temperatures lead to the breakdown of intermolecular attractions.

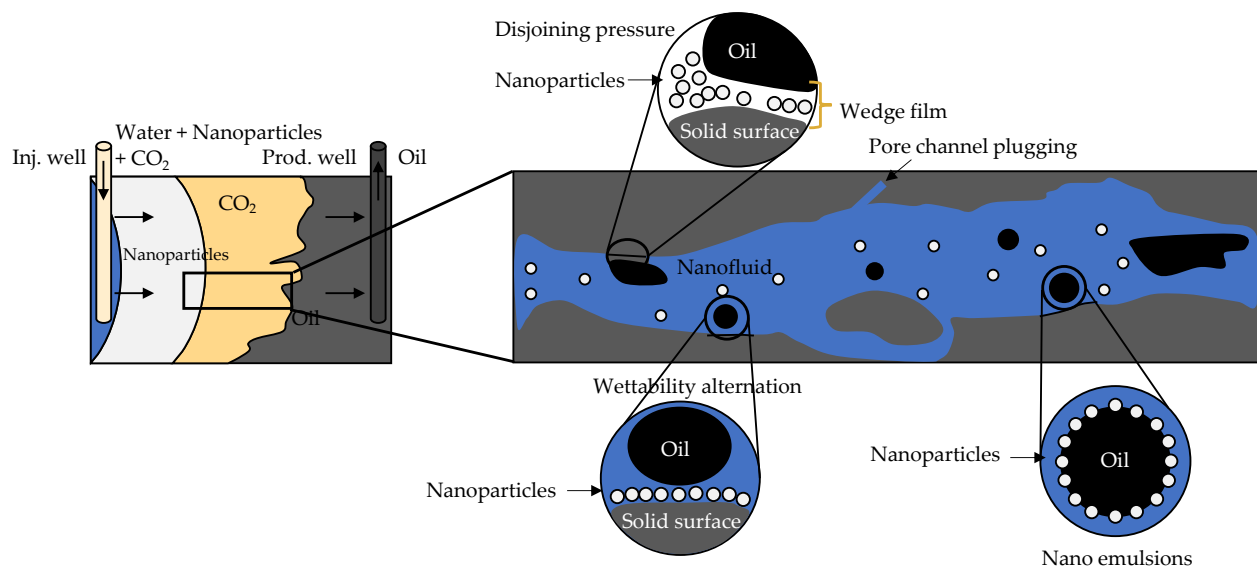


Fig. 8. Waterflooding mechanism using nanoparticles.

Optimal CO₂ thickener should be soluble under formation conditions without the use of co-solvents and increase CO₂ viscosity by a factor of 2-100 at concentrations less than 1% mass (Jangda et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2014; Ricky et al., 2023).

2.2.7 Nanoparticle-assisted WAG

Nanotechnology offers innovative solutions to overcome challenges associated with EOR methods due to the unique properties of nanoparticles, such as a high surface-to-volume ratio, nanoscale dimensions, and significant adsorption capacity. Nanoparticles are tiny particles of matter with diameters ranging from 1 to 100 nm. Various types of nanoparticles, including silver (Ag), silicon dioxide (SiO₂), palladium (Pd), copper oxide (CuO), iron oxide (Fe₃O₄), titanium dioxide (TiO₂), nickel oxide (NiO), aluminum oxide (Al₂O₃), cobalt oxide (Co₃O₄), boron nitride (BN), graphene oxide (GO), and magnesium oxide (MgO), have been investigated under laboratory conditions. The main mechanisms of EOR during WF with nanofluids (nanoparticles dispersed in the aqueous phase) include creation of wedging pressure, reduction of IFT and changes in rock wettability (Fig. 8) (Koca et al., 2018; Korobov et al., 2026). Nanoparticles enhance the hydrophobicity of CO₂ dispersions, which, in turn, promotes viscosity enhancement (Pal et al., 2022). In this scenario, the size, shape, and surface functionalization of the nanoparticles influence the thickening ability of CO₂.

In brief, nanofluids enhance CO₂-EOR via three primary levers: (i) Interfacial-tension reduction, (ii) wettability alteration toward more water- or gas-wet states, and (iii) mobility control through foam stabilization and, in some systems, effective CO₂ viscosification. Silica (SiO₂) mitigates the IFT penalties of elevated temperature and salinity and strengthens foams (up to 2-18× higher flow resistance), although foam stability decreases with temperature; Fe₃O₄ (PVA/HAp) shifts carbonates toward gas-wet behavior; and surface-modified TiO₂ (AEAPTMS) remains colloidally stable up to 90 °C and 30 wt% salinity while markedly reducing contact angles.

γ-Al₂O₃ at 0.06 wt% inhibits asphaltene precipitation (onset 6.8 MPa), and GO-based modifiers at 0.05 wt% lower contact angle (from approximately 161° to approximately 35°) and IFT (from approximately 18.45 mN/m to approximately 8.8 mN/m), improving displacement. Effective dosage typically lies near 0.05-0.1 wt%; higher loadings increase aggregation and pore-blocking risks, especially for particles > 100 nm in brines. Synergistic blends (NP+surfactant/polymer) and emerging nanofluid + CO₂ microbubble schemes further enhance sweep and delay breakthrough, but most results remain laboratory-scale, underscoring the need for core- and pilot-level validation.

Nanoparticles have shown promising results under laboratory conditions, particularly in their ability to thicken carbon dioxide. However, current research remains largely confined to laboratory-scale experiments. Moreover, nanoparticles such as silver (Ag), palladium (Pd), nickel oxide (NiO), cobalt (III) oxide (Co₃O₄), boron nitride (BN), and magnesium oxide (MgO) are either underrepresented or entirely absent in studies focused on CO₂ flooding modeling and core-scale displacement experiments, with their use being limited to adjacent fields (Li et al., 2023; Medina et al., 2023; González et al., 2024). To validate their potential as CO₂ thickeners, broader and more comprehensive investigations are required.

To conclude the review, we provide a comparative table that systematically organizes the fundamental characteristics of different CO₂-EOR technologies. This comparative analysis, drawn from extensive evaluation of both laboratory experiments and field applications, offers a holistic perspective on the capabilities and constraints of each method for reservoir oil recovery enhancement (Table 2). The described CO₂-EOR mechanisms have been tested at varying scales (from laboratory experiments to full-field deployments). To evaluate their real-world effectiveness and identify operational best practices, the following section reviews large-scale case studies across major producing regions.

Table 2. Comparative analysis of CO₂-EOR methods.

Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
CCI	Simple design; effective in homogeneous reservoirs	High gas recirculation; early breakthrough in heterogeneities
CWI	Lower CO ₂ loss; safe storage; effective in light oils; pH effect improves wettability	Lag of CO ₂ front behind oil front; efficiency depends on oil properties
Cyclic injection into injection wells	Boosts pressure in low-perm zones; cost-effective in late-stage recovery; applicable at low reservoir pressure	Limited to 0.001-2 mD permeability; requires pressure control; lower sweep than WAG
Single-slug CO ₂	Higher recovery with combined CO ₂ +H ₂ O; simple injection design	Corrosion; unstable CO ₂ supply; high material cost
Huff-n-Puff	Bottomhole cleanup; viscosity reduction; repeatable cycles	Efficiency drops in complex pore structures; requires shut-in time
WAG	Mobility control; better sweep efficiency; improved economics	Complex design; risk of early breakthrough; optimized cycles needed
SWAG	Simplified injection; controlled mobility; dual perforation possible	Less efficient than WAG in some fields; gas/water separation complex
TWAG	Better gravity stability; adaptable for heterogeneities	Longer gas cycles needed early; complex modeling
Surfactant- assisted WAG	Operationally simple; good for unstable injectivity	Foam collapse risk at displacement front
FAWAG	Improved mobility control; stable foam; reduced gas bypassing	Foam stability sensitive to salinity and surfactant
Polymer-assisted WAG	Increases CO ₂ viscosity; good thermal stability	Precipitation risk; clay interaction; cost of solvents
Small self-interacting molecules	Effective at low concentrations	Temp sensitivity; solubility issues; high cost of fluorinated compounds
Nanoparticle-assisted WAG	Wettability alteration; asphaltene inhibition; IFT reduction	Agglomeration; sensitivity to salinity/temp; lab-scale only

3. Large-scale world experience in CO₂-EOR

This section reviews only the largest and best-documented CO₂-EOR case studies for which high-quality, traceable information is publicly available (Table 3). The article examines three major regional projects for each of the key basins, selected based on the availability of the most reliable and extensive operational data. For each project, we synthesize the most reliable data from peer-reviewed articles, operator and regulator reports (including monitoring, reporting and verification (MRV) plans), and national laboratory/agency technical documents, and we present a consistent set of metrics (OOIP and stage-wise recovery, injection regime, monitoring and integrity/corrosion controls, and operational lessons). Emphasis is placed on parameters and outcomes that can be directly referenced to primary sources, with units normalized and uncertainties noted where the literature diverges.

3.1 North America

3.1.1 Weyburn-Midale

The Weyburn-Midale Project (Canada) is one of the most thoroughly documented industrial demonstrations of CO₂ in-

jection for EOR coupled with geological storage. Between 2000 and 2004, a coordinated research program (combining laboratory experiments, pressure-volume-temperature/equation of state modeling, and field surveillance) was executed to resolve the physicochemical behavior of the coupled CO₂-oil-brine-rock system (Whittaker et al., 2004). Under reservoir conditions ($T \approx 61-63$ °C, $P = 15-18$ MPa), CO₂ is in the supercritical state (high density, low viscosity). The minimum miscibility pressure (MMP) for the Weyburn crude is 14-17 MPa, indicating that multicontact miscibility is attainable at *in-situ* conditions. Multicontact phase-equilibrium experiments showed that the CO₂ content in the oil phase can reach 70 mol%, while the CO₂-enriched phase contains up to ~80-90 mol%. For overall CO₂ concentrations below 60 mol%, single-phase (miscible) behavior was observed; above this threshold a separate CO₂-rich phase appeared. Pressure-volume-temperature analysis also recorded an increase in oil density attributable to extraction of light ends by supercritical CO₂.

Eight coreflood experiments on Berea sandstone core plugs saturated with Weyburn crude were conducted to quantify process efficiency. The sequences comprised an initial water-

Table 3. Large-scale world CO₂-EOR projects.

Project	Depth (m)	Conditions	Type of CO ₂ -EOR	Increase RF (CO ₂ , %)	Reservoir type
Weyburn-Midale (Canada)	1,450	63 °C, 12.5-18 MPa	WAG	34	Carbonate
SACROC Unit (USA)	2,040	56-71 °C, 19-21.5 MPa	CO ₂ +WAG	10	Carbonate
West Ranch (USA)	1,525-1,920	69 °C, 14.7 MPa	WAG	/	Sandstone
Jilin (China)	2,300-2,600	66 °C, 16-23 MPa	WAG + Foam	20-25	Sandstone
Xinjiang (China)	2,400-2,671	64 °C, 24 MPa	WAG	5-8	Sandstone
Yanchang (China)	2,000	44 °C, 12 MPa	WAG	12	Sandstone
Ivanic and Zatica (Croatia)	1,500-2,000	18-21 MPa	WAG	15-20	Sandstone
Szank (Hungary)	2,000	17-21 MPa	WAG	1.5-2	Carbonate/Sandstone
Rusanda (Serbia)	1,000-2,200	/	CCI	/	Sandstone

flood, followed by CO₂ injection and a subsequent water drive. The incremental oil recoveries spanned 2.3%-46.2% of OOIP, underscoring strong sensitivity to rock heterogeneity and permeability. These measurements were used to calibrate field-scale flow simulators, which, for the first development phase, predicted an incremental recovery of 16% OOIP (Whittaker et al., 2004).

Geochemical surveillance of produced formation waters over the first 930 days of CO₂ injection revealed pronounced shifts: Alkalinity increased by +155% (from 429 to 1,094 mg/L), Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ concentrations rose by 39% and 60%, respectively, specific resistivity decreased by 43%, and pH dropped from 6.7 to 6.6. The trends are consistent with dissolution of CO₂ in brine, formation of carbonic acid, and subsequent reactions with carbonate minerals (CaCO₃, CaMg(CO₃)₂), which elevate total dissolved solids and mobilize divalent cations (Whittaker et al., 2004).

Alongside the confirmed EOR effectiveness, several operational challenges were documented. Case studies published in International Journal of Greenhouse Gas Control report casing corrosion in CO₂ injectors (ranging from localized pitting to full perforation of the lower casing string within a few years in CO₂-saturated aqueous environments) as well as packer replacements due to CO₂-induced elastomer degradation. Experimental and review studies show that corrosion rates depend strongly on the phase state of CO₂, water availability and salinity, and the presence of H₂S; for carbon steel exposed to “water-saturated supercritical CO₂ + H₂S,” peak laboratory rates up to ~0.2 mm/yr have been measured, although *in-situ* film formation can reduce effective rates. Systematic reviews also support the efficacy of Cr-bearing alloys, corrosion inhibitors, and high-quality cementing; the cement-steel-rock triad ultimately governs long-term well integrity given the roles of microannuli, interfacial sealing, and secondary mineralization (Laumb et al., 2017). Operational practice at

Weyburn included periodic integrity logging (Cement bond log / Ultra sonic imaging tool), management of the aqueous phase to minimize “wet” corrosion, inhibitor programs, material/coating selection for packers and tubing, and “dry” operating modes with periodic blowdowns.

Although no critical injectivity failures were reported for the carbonate reservoir, the literature emphasizes the need to control near-wellbore salt precipitation (dry-out) under high-salinity conditions, which can impair permeability and damage completions; risk-based injection/wetting schedules and appropriately designed WAG are standard mitigations. Collectively, Weyburn-Midale demonstrates that CO₂-EOR can deliver substantial incremental recovery while simultaneously storing CO₂ geologically, provided that long-term success is underpinned by robust corrosion control and well integrity management, proactive injectivity management, and explicit control of geochemical processes in the near-wellbore region.

3.1.2 SACROC Unit

SACROC Unit (Scurry Area Canyon Reef Operators Committee), commissioned in January 1972, is the first large-scale commercial CO₂-EOR project in the Permian Basin. The producing reservoir is the carbonate Canyon Reef, discovered in 1948, with an estimated OOIP of 2.8 billion barrels (Reeves, 2008). Waterflooding began in 1954; however, the step change in oil production occurred after the implementation of CO₂-EOR. CO₂ supply initially came from gas-processing plants and was later augmented by pipelines delivering natural CO₂ (e.g., from the Bravo Dome field) (Duda et al., 2010; Melzer, 2012).

According to the simulation report, black-oil models yielded an ultimate recovery of up to 46% of OOIP (whereas the literature had cited a maximum of 39%) (Schepers et al., 2007). This supports a substantial CO₂-EOR contribution, amounting to approximately 10 to 20 percentage points of

incremental recovery factor above primary and waterflood baselines (Reeves, 2008). Geologically, SACROC is a complex fractured carbonate reef with numerous intra-reservoir flow barriers that partition the accumulation into blocks with lateral communication. CO₂ injection has been implemented both as continuous gas injection and as WAG, mitigating gas breakthrough and improving displacement efficiency.

The enabling infrastructure comprises CO₂ pipelines spanning hundreds of kilometers (e.g., 270 km) with capacities up to 6.8 million m³/d (Taber, 2000). As reported in the public domain, SACROC has utilized more than 600 Mt of CO₂, and ongoing CO₂-EOR production amounts to thousands of barrels per day (Meyer, 2010). Overall, SACROC has become a technical and economic benchmark, demonstrating that CO₂-EOR in complex carbonate reservoirs can deliver roughly 10%-20% of OOIP in incremental recovery, albeit requiring large-scale infrastructure, rigorous engineering management, and carefully optimized injection strategies.

3.1.3 West Ranch

The Petra Nova/West Ranch (Texas) project implements CO₂-EOR in Frio Formation reservoirs at depths of approximately 1.5-1.9 km, the Anahuac Formation provides regional seal capacity, and the development area is a simple anticlinal trap with no significant internal faulting, as documented in BEG appendices to the NEPA/EIS record and Department of Energy materials. In the BEG engineering basis, the operating constraints adopted for design and surveillance were: An average current reservoir pressure of 16.6 MPa, a maximum allowable bottom-hole injection pressure of 24.1 MPa, a minimum allowable bottom-hole flowing pressure in producers of 13.8 MPa, and a total CO₂ supply on the order of 1.7 Mt/yr (54 kg/s).

Railroad commission orders specify authorized Frio injection intervals across injector groups at 1.54-1.93 km and establish maximum surface injection pressures on the order of 17.4-19.8 MPa (by injector subgroup). According to the Railroad Commission of Texas for the West Ranch 41-A/98-A Consolidated Unit, as of March 2015 cumulative production amounted to approximately 13.39×10^6 m³ from the 41-A horizon and approximately 7.15×10^6 m³ from the 98-A horizon (total approximately 20.54×10^6 m³), and the operator's expected incremental recovery from CO₂-EOR was approximately 9.54×10^6 m³ of oil.

The project has demonstrated the technical feasibility of large-scale post-combustion CO₂ capture integrated with CO₂-EOR in a Frio sandstone oilfield. The capture facility reaches its nameplate rate at nominal operation (approximately 54 kg/s), and approximately 3.54 Mt of CO₂ were captured over the three-year demonstration. Year-to-year outcomes were limited not by capture chemistry per se but by the aggregate availability of the following chain: Power unit, CCS, compression, approximately 130-km pipeline, and field. This provides a key lesson on integration reliability and planned downtime management (Nakatsuka, 2023).

In terms of storage monitoring, the approved Monitoring, reporting and verification plan and the 2023 annual report indicate no pressure anomalies, compliance with planned

WAG cycling, and use of scheduled blowdowns to restore injectivity (with emissions accounting for those operations). Operationally, the suspension of new CO₂ delivery on 1 May 2020 and resumption on 7 September 2023 highlight the sensitivity of long-term performance to base-plant availability and external market/infrastructure factors, consequently, economic robustness requires priority on power-unit reliability, compression/transport serviceability, and pre-planned injectivity maintenance procedures.

3.2 China

China's CO₂-EOR practice has been developed on several low- and ultra-low-permeability clastic targets (Jilin (Songliao Basin), Yanchang (Ordos Basin), and Xinjiang (Junggar Basin)).

3.2.1 Jilin

At Jilin (Qing-1 reservoir, depths 2.0-2.6 km, $T \approx 100$ °C, reservoir pressure 28-32 MPa), in addition to conventional WAG the operator implemented tapered-WAG sequences and CO₂-foam treatments to improve conformance; typical single-well injection rates were 20-50 t/d at bottom-hole pressures of 16-23 MPa. On the upscaled Hei-79 North sector, 10 injectors and 27 producers were placed on stream with a total design CO₂ supply of 600 t/d; relative to baseline waterflood, average oil recovery was 20% higher (central area 25%), cumulative recovery increased by 15.6%, and CO₂ retention reached up to 95% (Wang, 2023).

3.2.2 Yanchang

At Yanchang (Chang-6, Qiaojiawa/Jingbian area), by July 2015 mobile surface facilities had been deployed for five well groups and pilots of WAG and cyclic CO₂ injection were executed; in aggregate, on the order of several-tens-of-thousands of tonnes of CO₂ were injected (the report cites 48 kt), and the expected incremental recovery from the pilot was 5%-8%.

3.2.3 Xinjiang

In Xinjiang (Cainan/Di-2), single-well field tests indicated that after one week of CO₂ injection the average daily oil rate remained 3.1 t/d higher for roughly four months; the incremental oil produced was 372 t, corresponding to an 12% gain in oil recovery (Shi, 2017). With respect to integrity and corrosion control, Jilin is the most comprehensively documented: A combined program of materials selection (stainless steels for wellheads/packers/valves, carbon steels with inhibitors in the wellbore, seamless pipelines with corrosion-resistant spools), continuously dosed inhibitor/biocide formulations, and multi-tier monitoring (autoclave tests, mass-loss coupons, ultrasonic thickness gauging, electrochemical probes in completions) is described. Under routine operation the target annual corrosion rate is maintained below 0.076 mm/yr, as verified by field surveillance (Cai and Li, 2019).

3.3 Europe

3.3.1 Ivanic and Zutica

Since October 2014, INA, Oil Industry Ltd. has run a large-scale CO₂-EOR scheme on the mature Ivanic and Zutica fields using alternating CO₂ and water (WAG). CO₂ captured at the Molve Gas Processing Plant is dehydrated, compressed to 30 bar and moved via a DN500 (20-inch), 88-km onshore pipeline to the Fractionation Facilities Ivanic-Grad (compression and liquefaction unit (CLU Etan)), where it is recompressed to 90 bar, liquefied, and then pumped/injected at approximately 200 bar; nameplate injection capacity is 600,000 Sm³/d (0.41 Mtpa) (Blecich et al., 2024). Over the planned 25-year life, about 5×10^9 Sm³ of CO₂ are scheduled for injection, targeting 3.4×10^6 t of incremental oil and 5.99×10^8 Sm³ of gas; due to reservoir conditions, roughly 50% of injected CO₂ is expected to remain permanently trapped and 50% to be produced with associated gas and recycled (Novak Mavar et al., 2021). Early field performance (2014-2019) included 1×10^9 Sm³ injected, 1,579,429 boe from Ivanic (approximately 35% uplift attributable to CO₂-EOR) and 390,136 boe from Zutica-North (approximately 77% EOR share); MMP was 200 bar, versus initial reservoir pressure of 190 bar at Zutica-North and 120 bar at Ivanic, so WAG was adopted promptly to control mobility and mitigate early gas channeling as the CO₂ cut rose faster than expected (Blecich et al., 2024). In 2019 the surface system was upgraded with membrane separation and methyldiethanolamine units at Fractionation Facilities Ivanic-Grad to capture CO₂ from associated gas and return it to the injection system (total separation capacity 500,000 Sm³/d; recompression of recycled CO₂ 360,000 Sm³/d), effectively phasing out routine venting and closing the loop. By 2024, cumulative injected CO₂ had surpassed approximately 3.3 Mt, with about 78% estimated as permanently retained in the subsurface. A new compressor station at the Fractionation Facilities Ivanic-Grad (FFIG) has been built to route captured CO₂ back into the EOR grid. Due to technical issues, start-up is expected in 2025. Overall, the project demonstrates material incremental recovery while building a high-recycle, WAG-managed CO₂ flood; key operational lessons include maintaining injection above MMP where feasible, conformance control to limit viscous fingering and channeling, and high-reliability compression/cooling trains for both primary and recycled CO₂ streams (Blecich et al., 2024).

3.3.2 Szank

Hungary reports more than four decades of CO₂-EOR practice spanning multiple injection strategies (continuous CO₂, WAG, and deliberate gas-cap creation) implemented on sandstone and karstified carbonate reservoirs. Two well-documented projects at Budafa and Lovasi (1972-1996) applied non-miscible CO₂-WAG in several sandstone compartments; the CO₂ source was the Budafa-Deep natural CO₂ reservoir directly underlying the oil and gas pays, which enabled technically and economically robust operations. Cumulative CO₂ injected reached 2.1 billion m³ (Budafa) and 1.2 billion m³ (Lovasi); incremental oil totaled 893,000 m³ and 442,000 m³, corresponding to +6-14 percentage points in recovery factor across different reservoirs. At Nagylengyel

(blocky, karstified limestone with an active aquifer), early water breakthrough was addressed by engineering a CO₂ gas cap delivered via a 30 km pipeline from Budafa-Deep; the project yielded 2.5 million m³ of additional oil (an additional 7.5 percentage points recovery, ultimate RF > 55%). Pustaföldvár (SE Hungary) leveraged a local high-CO₂ associated gas stream (70% CO₂) for pressure maintenance (1973-1984), transitioned to CO₂-WAG (1989-1997) and then to continuous waterflood (to 2004), delivering 109,000 m³ of incremental oil and lifting RF by 11.1 percentage points to 38.7%.

At Szank (Szank-SE and Szank-NE; Miocene breccia and limestone), production had declined to 1/8 of peak by 1990; nearby gas fields contained 20%-30% CO₂. In 1992, an acid-gas removal (amine treating) unit was commissioned to separate CO₂ from the hydrocarbon gas stream and feed it for injection, first at Szank-SE and then Szank-NE. The combined incremental oil reached 115,000 m³, with RF increases of 2.0 percentage points (SE) and 1.5 percentage points (NE). Collectively, the Hungarian casebook shows: (i) Local CO₂ sourcing (natural CO₂ pools or acid-gas removal at gas-processing plants) can obviate long-haul CO₂ pipelines; (ii) matching injection mode to rock type is critical, specifically water-alternating-gas (WAG) for mobility control in heterogeneous sandstones and gas-cap creation in fractured/karstic carbonates; and (iii) success hinges on conformance management (WAG/tapered WAG), integrity/corrosion control, and adaptation to active water drive conditions.

3.3.3 Rusanda

The industrial-scale CO₂-EOR project at the Rusanda field (Vojvodina, Serbia) has been operational since 2015. CO₂ is separated at the Elemir Gas Processing Plant using a HiPACT amine unit and delivered by pipeline as a 99% CO₂ stream. Plant design figures indicate 880,000 Sm³/d inlet gas, up to 220,000 Sm³/d separable CO₂, and discharge pressures up to 90 bar; the Rusanda scheme injects 140,000 Sm³/d of fresh CO₂ with 80,000 Sm³/d recycled from produced gas. Injection is CCI into the field's gas cap of the Pg-1, naturally fractured oil-gas reservoir (associated gas contains up to 52% CO₂) to provide pressure support and CO₂ displacement; wells are equipped with dehydration and corrosion-control hardware due to the high-CO₂ environment. Cumulative injected volumes reached 51.14 million Sm³ by end-2019 and 70.18 million Sm³ by 2024, with injection ongoing in 2025. The operator reports production uplift on the Rusanda-2 block after start-up; the project's EOR mechanism is pressure maintenance with miscible/near-miscible displacement locally, rather than WAG, with closed-loop recycle to improve conformance.

This section reviews only the largest and best-documented cases; in practice there are at least 150 CO₂-EOR projects worldwide (i.e., projects explicitly targeting EOR), and in the United States alone 139 were operating by late 2022. Taken together, the cases considered indicate that when operated above the minimum miscibility pressure and under disciplined conformance management (water-alternating-gas with tapered slugs, selective layered injection, and, where appropriate, CO₂-foam treatments), miscible CO₂-EOR consistently yields a material increase in oil recovery on the order of 10%-20%

of OOIP, with higher local gains where pattern design and reservoir heterogeneity are carefully managed. However, practical performance is governed not only by reservoir physics: The rate-limiting step is often the reliability of the entire capture/supply-compression-transport-injection-recycle chain, and sustained injectivity requires explicit control of near-wellbore processes (including prevention of dry-out and salt precipitation in saline systems). Equally critical is long-term integrity (materials and cement design, inhibitor/biocide programs, and regular verification of well integrity), without which corrosion and loss of containment can rapidly erode EOR gains.

4. Conclusions

This review synthesized results from more than 100 laboratory, pilot, and field studies to evaluate the effectiveness, mechanisms, and operational constraints of major CO₂-EOR technologies. Application of various CO₂-EOR methods represents a significant intersection of economic, environmental, and technological considerations in the modern energy production. CO₂-EOR is not just a method to enhance oil recovery from depleted reservoirs, but also a significant component of a world strategy to mitigate carbon emissions and counter climate change.

Global field experience with CO₂-EOR demonstrates several consistent technological and operational patterns across different geological settings. The highest recovery gains are typically achieved under miscible conditions, when reservoir pressure exceeds the MMP. Most documented projects report incremental oil recovery of approximately 10%-20% of OOIP, although higher local values are possible when injection patterns and reservoir heterogeneity are effectively managed. At the same time, WAG injection remains the dominant field strategy, as it improves sweep efficiency and mitigates early CO₂ breakthrough caused by the unfavorable mobility ratio of gas. Field implementations increasingly employ modified WAG schemes (e.g., tapered WAG, selective layered injection, or foam-assisted treatments) to control gas channeling and improve conformance in heterogeneous reservoirs, which could be complicated by near-wellbore processes. Such processes as salt precipitation and injectivity decline must be actively managed through injection scheduling, water management and periodic well maintenance to ensure efficient operation. Furthermore, long-term well integrity and CO₂ balance management are reinforced by the susceptibility of carbon steel components to corrosion in water-saturated CO₂ environments, necessitating the use of corrosion-resistant alloys, inhibitor programs, and regular integrity monitoring.

Another important trend in the CO₂-EOR approach is the critical role of infrastructure and supply chain reliability. Large-scale projects in North America demonstrate that the long-term success of CO₂-EOR depends not only on reservoir performance but also on the stability of the entire capture-compression-transport-injection-recycling system. Interruptions in CO₂ supply, compressor performance, or pipeline constraints directly impact injectivity, reservoir pressure maintenance, and overall sweep efficiency. Building

on these infrastructure considerations, operational experience further refines the understanding of the prioritized technological limitations identified in this study.

Although all considered methods showed high efficiency under laboratory conditions, their successful application in the field requires additional research. Future development of CO₂-EOR technologies should focus on integrated mobility-control strategies and reservoir-specific process design that combine optimized injection schemes (e.g., WAG, cyclic injection, and tapered schedules) with advanced chemical or dispersed systems such as surfactants, polymers, nanoparticles, and CO₂ thickeners. Particular attention should be given to scaling laboratory findings to pilot and field applications, improving the stability and transport of functional additives under reservoir conditions, and developing adaptive injection strategies capable of managing heterogeneity, gravity segregation, and early gas breakthrough. Such integrated approaches are expected to simultaneously enhance oil recovery efficiency, CO₂ utilization and long-term geological storage performance, thereby strengthening the role of CO₂-EOR in the transition toward lower-carbon hydrocarbon production.

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Supplementary file

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Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no competing interest.

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