Prediction of CO₂ diffusivity in brine using white-box machine learning

Menad Nait Amar, Ashkan Jahanbani Ghahfarokhi

PII: S0920-4105(20)30131-5

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.petrol.2020.107037

Reference: PETROL 107037

To appear in: Journal of Petroleum Science and Engineering

Received Date: 9 October 2019

Revised Date: 1 February 2020

Accepted Date: 5 February 2020

Please cite this article as: Amar, M.N., Ghahfarokhi, A.J., Prediction of CO₂ diffusivity in brine using white-box machine learning, *Journal of Petroleum Science and Engineering* (2020), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.petrol.2020.107037.

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2020 Published by Elsevier B.V.



Prediction of CO₂ Diffusivity in Brine Using White-Box Machine Learning 3

Menad Nait Amar^a and Ashkan Jahanbani Ghahfarokhi^{b*}

^a Département Etudes Thermodynamiques, Division Laboratoires, Sonatrach, Avenue 1^{er} Novembre, 35000, Boumerdes,
 Algeria

^b Department of Geoscience and Petroleum, Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU), S. P. Andersens veg
 15b, 7031 Trondheim, Norway

10

4

5

- 11
- 12

13 Abstract

Accurate knowledge of the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in brine has a significant effect on 14 the design success and monitoring of CO₂ storage in saline aquifers, which is a part of carbon 15 capture and sequestration (CCS). Frequently applied experimental approaches for determining 16 17 this parameter are expensive and time-consuming, and empirical models cannot ensure accurate predictions. Therefore, there is a need to establish cutting-edge correlations for 18 19 prediction of the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in brine under various operating conditions. In this work, two white-box machine learning techniques, namely group method of data handling 20 (GMDH) and gene expression programming (GEP) were implemented for correlating the 21 diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in brine with pressure, temperature and the viscosity of the 22 solvent. The obtained results demonstrated the accuracy of the proposed correlations. In 23 addition, statistical and graphical analysis of the performances revealed that GEP correlation 24 outperforms the GMDH correlation, decision trees (DTs), random forest (RF) and all the 25 previous predictive models. GEP correlation exhibited an overall average absolute relative 26 deviation (AARD) of 4.3014% and coefficient of determination (\mathbb{R}^2) of 0.9979. Finally, by 27 28 performing the outliers detection, the validity of the GEP correlation was confirmed and only two experimental data points were identified as outliers. 29

30 31

Keywords – CO₂-brine; diffusivity coefficient; empirical correlations; GEP; GMDH.

33

34 *Corresponding author: <u>ashkan.jahanbani@ntnu.no</u>

- 35
- 36 37
-
- 38
- 39
- -
- 40

41 **1. Introduction**

The increased amount of CO_2 in the atmosphere is considered the most important 42 concern of the 21st century around the globe (Boot-Handford et al., 2014). This issue results 43 mainly from fossil fuels being used continuously in different sectors of industry (Azzolina et 44 al., 2015; Boot-Handford et al., 2014; Nait Amar et al., 2019a; Venkatraman and Alsberg, 45 2017). Therefore, some new approaches have emerged as promising means for reducing the 46 CO₂ levels in the atmosphere, among which, carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) in 47 geological formations is still the most attractive one (Amini et al., 2012; Grude et al., 2014; 48 Shahkarami et al., 2014). 49

CCS has gained much interest within many fields of engineering, environment and 50 energy (Bhakta et al., 2015; Davarazar et al., 2019; Gibbins and Chalmers, 2008; Lee et al., 51 2010; Mohagheghian et al., 2019; Riahi et al., 2004). The sequestration of the captured CO_2 in 52 saline aquifers is the most frequently applied strategy while implementing CCS (Gershenzon 53 et al., 2015, 2014). In addition, some other applications of CO₂ such as enhanced oil recovery 54 55 methods based on CO₂ injection, have served as useful and vital means in reduction of CO₂ levels in the atmosphere (Bachu et al., 2004; Ettehadtavakkol et al., 2014; Gozalpour et al., 56 2005; Holtz et al., 2001; Nait Amar and Zeraibi, 2019). 57

58 The process of CO_2 injection in saline aquifers is subjected to some mechanisms, namely the contact of CO₂ with the in-situ water and its dissolution in brine through 59 molecular diffusion. Therefore, accurate knowledge and determination of the parameters that 60 play important role while monitoring CCS are of vital interest. Diffusivity coefficient which 61 characterizes the diffusivity of fluid is one of these parameters (Cadogan et al., 2014a; 62 Guzmán and Garrido, 2012). Indeed, this parameter has a noticeable effect on the chemical 63 reactions and the interfacial mass transfer occurring deep underground, in addition to 64 impacting the flow path, transport behavior and the quantitative description of diffusion 65

during CO₂ injection (Farajzadeh et al., 2009; Guzmán and Garrido, 2012; Mutoru et al.,
2011; Trevisan et al., 2014).

Determination of diffusivity coefficient of the CO₂ in brine can be done by two 68 distinguished approaches. The first one consists of performing experimental measurements 69 and the second approach is by means of the empirical models. The lab measurements are 70 divided into direct and indirect tests (Lu et al., 2013). The direct procedures are based on the 71 accurate knowledge of the gas concentration in the solvent (Cadogan et al., 2014b; Frank et 72 al., 1996), while the indirect tests exploit the gained information related to the diffusivity of 73 gas such as interfacial tension, volumes of gas and liquids, and the operational conditions 74 (Jang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016). The experimental approaches are known to deliver accurate 75 results. However, their implementation is time-consuming and demands sophisticated 76 equipment. As a result, several researchers have developed empirical models for estimating 77 78 the diffusivity coefficient of CO2 in brine. Wilke and Chang (1955) established a predictive correlation for estimating the diffusivity coefficient in numerous dilute solutions. The model 79 80 employs viscosity and temperature as input parameters. Lu et al. (2013) developed a model for estimating the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in water without considering the pressure 81 effect. There model is applicable to cases with temperatures between 268K and 473K. An 82 extended version of Lu et al. (2013) model at high pressure and temperature conditions, was 83 proposed by Moultos et al. (2016) by applying the concept of molecular dynamics 84 simulations. Although the correlations developed by Lu et al. (2013) and Moultos et al. (2016) 85 are accurate for the CO₂-pure water system, they cannot be applied to cases where brine is the 86 solvent. Cadogan et al. (2014a) utilized experimental results for CO₂ diffusivity coefficients 87 against brine viscosity at temperature of 298K for establishing a modified Stokes-Einstein 88 relation. Table 1 reports the mathematical formulations of the above models for predicting the 89 diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in water and brine. 90

91

An in-depth review of the available correlations for predicting the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in brine reveals the limitations of these techniques from the applicability and accuracy perspectives (Feng et al., 2019).

95 In recent years, researchers have shown an increased interest in the application of machine learning techniques for modeling complex systems (Jeong et al., 2018; Nait Amar et 96 al., 2019b; Nait Amar and Zeraibi, 2019; Nomeli and Riaz, 2017; Piotrowski and 97 98 Napiorkowski, 2012). Machine learning techniques can be divided into computer-aided methods such as support vector regression (SVR) and decision tree, and explicit methods such 99 100 as gene expression programming (GEP) and group method of data handling (GMDH). The first category is known as black-box approaches, and this means that their paradigms are 101 dependent on a computer-aided technique, while the second category is recognized as white-102 103 box methods which means that they deliver explicit expressions (Nait Amar et al., 2019c). Recently, Feng et al. (2019) developed a predictive model for estimating the diffusivity 104 coefficient of CO_2 in brine by coupling genetic algorithm with mixed kernel SVR and they 105 106 obtained satisfactory performances. However, the application and accuracy of their established model depend on calculability efforts, and this presents an issue in terms of 107 flexibility for further utilization. 108

The main contribution and novelty of this study consist of establishing two distinct 109 explicit and simple-to-use correlations for accurate prediction of diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ 110 111 in brine under various operational conditions. To do so, group method of data handling (GMDH) and gene expression programming (GEP) were implemented with three input 112 parameters, namely pressure, temperature and viscosity of the solvent, using a representative 113 114 experimental database. Besides, decision trees (DTs) and random forest (RF) were considered for comparison with the best-result explicit correlation. Statistical and graphical assessment 115 criteria were applied for evaluating the newly proposed correlations and compared their 116

performances with prior paradigms. Lastly, Leverage approach was performed to verify the quality of the employed experimental data points and define the realm of application for the best fit established correlation.

The rest of the paper includes 4 sections. Section 2 describes the database which was utilized for developing the correlations. Section 3 briefs the two applied white-box machine learning techniques, namely GMDH and GEP, and the procedure of their implementation in our study. Results are given and discussed in Section 4. The paper ends with Section 5 which summarizes the main findings.

125 **2. Data collection and preparation**

In the present work, a representative experimental database was collected from the 126 published literature (Cadogan et al., 2015; Cadogan et al., 2014b; Choudhari and 127 Doraiswamy, 1972; Frank, Marco J W and Swaaij, 1996; Lu et al., 2013; Maharajh, 1975; 128 Maharajh and Walkley, 1972; Nijsing et al., 1959; Reddy and Doraiswamy, 1967; Tamimi et 129 al., 1994; Tan and Thorpe, 1992; Thomas and Adams, 1965; Versteeg and van Swaal, 1988; 130 131 Vivian and Peaceman, 1956; Yang et al., 2006) to develop accurate explicit correlations for estimating the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in brine at different operating conditions. The 132 database englobes 92 experimental data points with different operating conditions, namely 133 134 pressure, temperature and viscosity of the solvent. In the context of the affecting variables, salinity affects the solubility, interfacial tension and phase equilibria, thus influencing the 135 diffusivity. In addition, salinity of the solvents affects brine's viscosities (Cadogan, 2015; 136 Feng et al., 2019); therefore, the salinity effect on diffusivity of CO_2 in brine is emulated by 137 considering the brine's viscosities as an input parameter while establishing the correlations 138 and the paradigms. The data points collected from previous experimental studies were 139 obtained using various techniques and equipments such as Taylor dispersion, a modified 140 version of Ringborm's apparatus, laminar jet apparatus, laminar falling film, laser-induced 141

fluorescence (LIF), 13C pulsed-field gradient NMR, physical absorption experiments in a 142 stirred vessel operated with a horizontal gas-liquid interface, optical capillary cell via time-143 dependent Raman spectroscopy, wetted sphere apparatus, Taylor-Aris dispersion method and 144 see-through windowed high-pressure cell. Table 2 reports a detailed statistical insight about 145 the collected data points. In addition, to provide an insightful description of the database, Fig. 146 1 illustrates frequency histograms of the collected dataset and Fig. 2 demonstrates the 147 correlation between diffusivity coefficient and the considered independent variables through 148 cross plots. According to the histograms shown in Fig. 1, it can be seen that the pressure and 149 temperature are mainly distributed in the medium and low ranges, while viscosity shows a 150 symmetric distribution near its mean. According to Fig. 2 (a), pressure exhibits moderate 151 direct relation with diffusivity coefficient. This analogy is more significant for temperature as 152 can be seen from Fig. 2 (b). From Fig. 2 (c), it can be noted that viscosity of solvent has a 153 154 negative direct relation with diffusivity coefficient.

155 **3. Methodology**

156 **3.1. Group Method of Data Handling (GMDH)**

Group Method of Data Handling (GMDH) is one of the artificial neural network (ANN) 157 types, which is known to generate explicit correlation between input and output parameters of 158 a given system. The resulting correlation by applying a GMDH model takes the form of a 159 polynomial (Dargahi-Zarandi et al., 2017). As an ANN type, GMDH structure involves nodes 160 as basic elements for processing the information. These nodes are arranged in different layers 161 from the input layer to the output layer, with or without intermediate layers (Nait Amar et al., 162 2019c). The GMDH hybrid version (HGMDH) allowed the improvement of the predictability 163 which was somehow insufficient in the first version developed by (Ivakhnenko, 1971). In 164 HGMDH, the interactions among nodes from different layers are allowed. This procedure 165

166brings more robustness when modeling complex cases (Rostami et al., 2019). The167mathematical form of HGMDH is expressed as shown below:168
$$y_i = a + \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^d \dots \sum_{k=1}^d \vartheta_{ij\dots k} x_i^m x_j^m \dots x_k^m \quad m = 1, 2, \dots, 2^p$$
 (1)169where x and y stand for the input and the output parameters, respectively; $\vartheta_{ij\dots k}$ correspond to170the polynomial coefficients; p is the number of layers and d is the number of variables.171The following points summarize the calculation procedure in HGMDH with a second order:172- The following equation defines the expression of a node N_i covering two inputs:173 $N_i^{GMDH} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_2 x_j + \alpha_3 x_i x_j + \alpha_4 x_i^2 + \alpha_5 x_j^2$ (2)174- Calculation of polynomial coefficients: least square method is applied to calculate the175resulting coefficients in the expressions of the different nodes. The following formula176is adapted:

177
$$\Delta_j^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(N_i^{GMDH} - y_i \right)^2 \qquad j = 1, 2, \dots, \binom{d}{2}$$
(3)

where d and N are the number of variables and data points, respectively.

Matrix transformation: in order to achieve the final expression, the above equation is
transformed to a matrix form (Dargahi-Zarandi et al., 2017; Hemmati-Sarapardeh and
Mohagheghian, 2017):

$$Y = A^T X (4)$$

183 - The final solution is obtained as follows:

$A^T = y X^T (X X^T)^{-1}$

185 where $y = \{y_1, y_2, ..., y_d\}$ and $A = \{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_5\}$.

186 **3.2. Gene Expression Programming (GEP)**

(5)

Gene expression programming (GEP) is a prevalent evolutionary technique which aims 187 at modeling the systems with accurate explicit expressions. GEP, introduced by Ferreira 188 (Ferreira, 2001), can be regarded as the improved version of genetic programming (GP) which 189 was proposed by Koza (Koza, 1992). GEP employs the standard genetic operators, namely 190 selection, crossover, elitism and mutation, in addition to new implemented actions such as 191 insertion and transposition to search for the reliable correlations. Besides, the codification of 192 the individuals in GEP is performed in the form of chromosomes. In addition, Expression 193 Tree (ET) is introduced for transforming the individuals to real expressions. It is worth 194 mentioning that the genes have a fixed length with terminals which show the variables, such 195 as $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$, and operators such as $\{+, /, \times, -, \sqrt{.}, ln\}$ (Teodorescu and Sherwood, 2008). 196

197 The main steps of GEP are briefed below:

Initial population: an initial population of correlations codified in the form of
 chromosomes is generated randomly. The prediction quality of the correlations differs
 according to a fitness function.

Standard operators: the well-known genetic operator including elitism, selection,
 crossover and mutation are applied. Elitism consists of safeguarding the best
 correlations for the next generations. Selection allows identification of the correlations
 to be subjected to reproduction for giving new correlations. Crossover is summarized in
 the process of exchanging parts between two or more correlations, while mutation is
 done by means of modifying parts of correlations.

- Transposition and insertion: it consists of jumping and activating parts of the genome in
the chromosome (Ferreira, 2001).

209 The resulting population is assessed and the operators are reiterated until satisfying a210 stopping condition.

211

8

212 **3.3. Implementation procedure**

As previously highlighted, the aim behind applying GMDH and GEP as white-box machine learning method is to develop an explicit correlation for accurate prediction of CO₂ diffusivity in brine under various conditions including pressure, temperature and viscosity. Therefore, the following form is admitted for the two correlations:

217

$$D_c = f(P, T, \mu) \tag{6}$$

In the above equation, D_c points out the CO₂ diffusivity coefficient in brine expressed in m²/s, and *P*, *T* and μ represent the input parameters of the correlations, viz. pressure, temperature and viscosity, respectively. The input parameters are expressed in MPa, K and mPa.s, respectively.

222 The collected experimental data points that describe these conditions and the obtained diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in brine were prepared for the development of these 223 correlations. The database was divided randomly into a training set with 80% of the whole 224 experimental data points and a testing set which covers the remaining 20%. This dataset 225 partitioning exhibits usually very satisfactory results (Aminu et al., 2019; Benamara et al., 226 227 2019; Dargahi-Zarandi et al., 2017; Hemmati-Sarapardeh et al., 2018; Mirjalili, 2015; Yan et al., 2006). Besides, in order to substantiate the better performance and robustness of applied 228 techniques, sensitive analysis of the latter on database were performed. 229

During the development of the GEP correlation, mean square error (MSE) was the considered fitness function for assessing the chromosomes. MSE is expressed as:

232
$$MSE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - o_i)^2}{n}$$
(7)

where t_i and o_i stand for the measured and the predicted diffusivity coefficient of the CO₂ in brine, respectively, and *n* represents the number of data points.

While developing the GMDH-based correlation, the number of inputs that can be introduced in the hidden and output nodes was specified to three, while the best highest order of the model was investigated by performing a sensitivity analysis.

As indicated, the control parameters of GEP affect the prediction capability. During the 238 establishment of the GEP-based correlation for the prediction of the diffusivity coefficient of 239 CO_2 in brine, it was noticed that an increase in the number of chromosomes in the population, 240 the numbers of genes as well as the maximum depth of ET, influence the run-time, the 241 accuracy and the complexity of the generated correlations. Accordingly, these control 242 parameters were tuned. Table 3 reports the final setting of GEP. Consequently, we applied 243 tree encoding, 100 chromosomes, 12 genes, MSE as fitness functions, a function set including 244 $+, -, \times, /$, exp., $\sqrt{-}$, *INV*, *ln*, and two point mutation, while the stopping criterion was the 245 246 maximum number of generations (420).

247 **4. Results and discussion**

248 **4.1. Development and evaluation of the correlations**

Several statistical indexes including average absolute relative deviation (AARD), coefficient of determination (R^2) and root mean square error (RMSE), were considered for assessing the quality of the predictions of the newly proposed correlations. These statistical criteria are defined as follows:

253
$$AARD\% = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| \frac{t_i - o_i}{t_i} \right| \times 100$$
(8)

254
$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_{i} - o_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (o_{i} - \bar{t})^{2}}$$
(9)

255
$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(t_i - o_i)^2}$$
(10)

The graphical representations of the outcomes of the correlations were illustrated for a 256 visual evaluation and a comparison of the performances. The graphical assessment of the 257 performances was done by means of cross plots, relative error distribution, cumulative 258 frequency distribution of the absolute relative error and bar plots. Cross plots give an insight 259 about the reliability of the correlations by representing their predictions against the real values 260 of the output, and then comparing the obtained distribution against the line Y = X which 261 shows the perfect paradigm. The diagram of relative error distribution details the repartition 262 of the relative error through the output values. Satisfactory distribution of the relative error 263 around the zero-error line indicates the reliability of the correlations. The cumulative 264 265 frequency diagram of the absolute relative error allows the identification of portions of the data points which are predicted with some pre-specified values of the absolute relative error. 266 Predicting a great portion of the data points with a low absolute relative error value ensures 267 the high reliability of the correlations. Bar plots summarize the statistical criteria of the 268 correlations in visual comparative schemes. 269

270 As stated in the previous section, sensitivity analyses were conducted to find the best highest order for GMDH and to investigate GEP and GMDH robustness according to samples 271 considered for training and testing phases. To this end, ten realizations were run at each 272 different GMDH highest order, namely two, three and four. The performance comparison 273 through final overall AARD values is depicted in the box plot of Fig. 3. In this figure, the box 274 exhibits specific interquartile range. The red horizontal line denotes the median value, while 275 the lower and higher black horizontal lines represent the best and worst overall AARD values. 276 As can be seen from this figure, considering three as the highest GMDH order results in the 277 best performance with lowest overall AARD value. Therefore, the highest order of the model 278 was set to three. Fig. 4 shows a bar plot comparing AARD values of GEP and GMDH during 279 training and testing phases in the considered ten runs (with different training and testing 280

281 samples). According to this figure, the best performance of GEP was achieved in the fourth run while GMDH showed its best reliability in the third run. Accordingly, these two best-282 result models were kept for further comparison. 283

Fig. 5 schematizes the best resulted GMDH model for predicting the diffusivity 284 coefficient of CO₂ in brine. 285

According to this figure, no middle nodes were resulted in the model. In the same 286 context, the following equation defines the explicit expression of the GMDH model: 287

288
$$D_{c} = 10^{-9} \times [C_{0} + C_{1} \times \mu + C_{2} \times T + C_{3} \times P + C_{4} \times T \times \mu + C_{5} \times P \times \mu + C_{6} \times P \times T + C_{7} \times P \times \mu + C_{6} \times P \times T + C_{7} \times P \times \mu + C_{6} \times P \times T + C_{7} \times P \times \mu + C_{6} \times P \times T + C_{7} \times P \times \mu + C_{6} \times P \times T + C_{7} \times P \times \mu + C_{7} \times \mu + C_{7}$$

$$289 \qquad \mu^{2} + C_{8} \times T^{2} + C_{9} \times P^{2} + C_{10} \times P \times T \times \mu + C_{11} \times T \times \mu^{2} + C_{12} \times T^{2} \times \mu + C_{13} \times P \times \mu^{2} + C_{14} \times \mu^{2} +$$

290
$$P \times T^2 + C_{15} \times P^2 \times \mu + C_{16} \times P^2 \times T + C_{17} \times \mu^3 + C_{18} \times T^3 + C_{19} \times P^3$$
] (11)
291 where $C_0 = -207.739284$; $C_1 = -201.432367$; $C_2 = 1.1500875$; $C_3 = 0.678161$; $C_4 = -201.432367$; $C_5 = 0.678161$; $C_4 = -201.432367$; $C_5 = 0.678161$; $C_6 = -20.7739284$; $C_6 = -20.7739284$; $C_7 = -20.1432367$; $C_8 = -20$

291 where
$$C_0 = -207.739284$$
; $C_1 = -201.432367$; $C_2 = 1.1500875$; $C_3 = 0.678161$; $C_4 = -207.739284$; $C_4 = -207.739284$; $C_4 = -207.739284$; $C_5 = -207.739284$; $C_7 = -201.432367$; $C_8 = -207.739284$; $C_8 = -207.739284$; $C_8 = -201.432367$; $C_$

292 1.834310;
$$C_5 = -1.309668$$
; $C_6 = -0.002251$; $C_7 = -25.879322$; $C_8 = -0.00201$; $C_9 = -0.002001$; $C_9 = -0.002000$; $C_9 = -0.002000$; $C_9 = -0.002000$; $C_9 = -0.002000$; $C_9 =$

293
$$-0.011747$$
; $C_{10} = 0.004118$; $C_{11} = 0.038415$; $C_{12} = -0.003692$; $C_{13} = 0.082021$; $C_{14} = 0$

294
$$-2.664159 \times 10^{-7}$$
; $C_{15} = 0.001794$; $C_{16} = 3.978117 \times 10^{-5}$; $C_{17} = 3.600267$; $C_{18} = 0.001794$; $C_{16} = 0.001794$; $C_{16} = 0.001794$; $C_{17} = 0.001794$; $C_{18} = 0.0$

 1.477156×10^{-6} ; and $C_{19} = -2.412235 \times 10^{-5}$ 295

After rearrangement, the best resulting correlation based on GEP is expressed as 296 follows: 297

298
$$D_c = 10^{-9} \times \left[\frac{A_1}{\mu} + \frac{A_2}{\sqrt{\mu}} + A_3 \times \sqrt{T} + A_4 \times P + A_5\right]$$
(12)

299 The terms A_1 , A_2 , A_3 , A_4 , and A_5 are defined as shown below:

$$A_{1} = -0.0001564 \times P^{3} + 0.01113 \times P^{2} + 0.02935 \times P - 2.83 \times \sqrt{P} + 8.362$$
$$A_{2} = 0.02426 \times (P + T) - 2.466 \times \sqrt{P}$$
$$A_{3} = 0.4583 + 0.123 \times P$$

$$A_4 = 6.832 \times 10^{-5} \times P^2 + 0.003955 \times P + 19.34 \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{P}} - 3.801$$

$$A_5 = \frac{30.95 \times \ln(P)}{5.629 \times (P-\mu)} - \frac{0.0006024 \times T \times \sqrt{\mu}}{P} - 4.259 \times \ln(P^2 \times T) - 7.945$$

Fig. 6 illustrates the cross plots of the proposed correlations. The two cross plots demonstrate a promising consistency between predictions of the correlations and the real data, as very satisfactory alignments nearby the unit slope line are noticed for both GMDH and GEP predictions. The fit is surprisingly trustworthy for the two correlations for both training and testing data.

Furthermore, Fig. 7 shows the distribution of the percentage relative error between the 305 306 real values of the diffusivity coefficient of the CO_2 in brine and the values predicted by GMDH and GEP correlations. According to this figure, the distributions of the relative error 307 around the zero-error line for both correlations at the training and testing phases are deemed 308 satisfactory. However, the reported results in this figure reveal that GEP correlation seems to 309 have a better predictive capability compared to GMDH correlation. For a detailed 310 quantification of the performances, Table 4 states the statistical criteria, namely AARD, R^2 311 and RMSE, for the proposed correlations. Moreover, a graphical comparison between the 312 global performances of the two correlations is reported in Fig. 8. It is clear from the 313 314 evaluation reported in Table 4 that the newly proposed correlations exhibit promising predictive capabilities with overall values of AARD of 8.0404% and 4.3015% for GMDH and 315 GEP, respectively. Besides, the overall determination coefficient of the models indicates the 316 trustworthiness of the correlations fit. The analyses shown in Figs. 6-8 and Table 4 claim the 317 superiority of the GEP-based correlation in the prediction of the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ 318 in brine by considering the whole employed data points. Therefore, GEP correlation is used 319 for the rest of this paper. 320

The impact of the employed independent variables, namely pressure, temperature and 321 viscosity on the group error of the GEP-based correlation for prediction of the diffusivity 322 coefficient is investigated in Fig. 9 for the whole database. In Fig. 9(a), the GEP correlation 323 shows its worst predictions with an AARD of 5.31% where pressure is in the range of 20–40 324 MPa, while other intervals of pressure are predicted with an AARD value of less than 4.6%. 325 In Fig. 9(b), the maximum AARD value of the GEP correlation is obtained when temperature 326 is in the range of 298-323 K, while the rest of the intervals are estimated with an AARD value 327 that does not exceed 4.6%. In Fig. 9(c), the values of the diffusivity coefficient for viscosity 328 of less than 0.3 mPa.s are predicted with an AARD value of about 1%, while the AARD 329 values of other viscosities are between 4.5 and 5.5%. Consequently, the performance of the 330 proposed GEP is deemed again very sufficient in predicting the diffusivity coefficient. 331

4.2. Comparison of the developed GEP correlation with decision trees (DTs), random 332 forest (RF) and the prior models 333

It would be of interest from the reliability perspective to compare the results of the 334 proposed GEP correlation with other soft computing techniques, namely decision trees (DTs) 335 and random forest (RF) as well as the prior paradigms reported for the prediction of the 336 diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in brine. To keep the work concise, more details about DTs and 337 338 RF can be found in published literature (Breiman, 2017; Guo et al., 2011; Peters et al., 2007; Wilkinson, 2004). The final tuned control parameters of RF and DTs models are reported as 339 follows: 340

341

• RF: number of grown trees: 20; min leaf size: 5; min parent size: $2 \times \min$ leaf size; 342 predictor selection: interaction-curvature; splitting criterion: MSE.

• DTs: min leaf size: 1; min parent size: 5; quadratic error tolerance: 1E-6; predictor 343 selection: all-splits; prune criterion: MSE. 344

While developing DTs and RF models, 80% of the database was used for their training and 20% of testing. The performance evaluation of the best-result DTs and RF paradigms after various runs is reported in Table 5. By comparing the stated results in Tables 4 and 5, it can be deduced that GEP based correlation outperforms both DTs and RF models.

The comparison includes the empirical models, namely those of Othmer and Thakar 349 (1953), Wilke and Chang (1955) and Cadogan et al. (2014a). In addition to the empirical 350 models, the implemented GEP correlation was compared with one of the most recent 351 intelligent paradigms proposed by Feng et al. (2019) based on hybrid genetic algorithm and 352 mixed Kernels-based support vector machine. It is worth mentioning that when performing 353 the comparison with the pre-existing approaches, we included only the points that satisfy the 354 applicability conditions in each correlation. Table 6 and Fig. 10 report the comparison of the 355 proposed GEP correlation and the models based on previously described statistical criteria. 356 357 According to these statistical analyses, among the existing models, the hybrid model proposed by Feng et al. (2019) outperforms the available empirical models for predicting the diffusivity 358 359 coefficient with a global predictive AARD of 7.91%. Despite the exhibited accuracy of Feng 360 et al. (2019) model, it is worth mentioning that this model (based on mixed kernel SVR coupled with GA) is resulted through performing some calculability efforts such as the 361 included quadratic programming involved in the establishment of the final solution. Besides, 362 as this paradigm is of the black box type, it is difficult to apply it to other related tasks. 363

The reported statistical quality measures in Table 6 and Fig. 10 demonstrate the superiority of the newly proposed GEP correlation, as it outperforms both the prior intelligent model and the empirical paradigms.

Being explicit based approaches, the performances of the empirical models and the white-box GEP correlation were compared through the plot of the absolute relative error distribution as shown in Fig. 11. As seen in this figure, 90% of the data points were predicted

15

by GEP correlation with an AARD value of less than 8.5%. The equivalent percentage of the
datapoints predicted with this AARD cutoff value by the empirical models are 50%, 25% and
24% for Cadogan et al. (2014a), Othmer and Thakar (1953), and Wilke and Chang (1955),
respectively.

As demonstrated in these comparative analyses, the newly implemented GEP 374 correlation was able to predict more reasonable values of the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in 375 brine. In addition, the GEP-based correlation has an explicit and simple form which can 376 predict the diffusivity coefficient of CO_2 in brine more directly than the other intelligent 377 schemes, and hence, it can be applied to other related tasks or implemented in different 378 379 softwares. The improvement brought by GEP based correlation in the prediction of the coefficient of CO₂ diffusivity in brine can be explained by the followed learning strategy 380 during GEP steps which is based on the use of chromosomes, genes, functions, variables, and 381 the traditional and the new genetic operators, which result in more flexibility for capturing the 382 complexity of the modeled phenomenon. 383

384 **4.3. Trend Analysis**

To assess the efficiency of the implemented GEP correlation for accurate prediction of 385 diffusivity coefficient as a function of the input parameters, three different sets of 386 experimental measurements included in our study and the values predicted by GEP 387 correlation are depicted as function of the input parameters in Fig. 12. In Fig. 12(a), the 388 comparison is performed with respect to viscosity variation where pressure and temperature 389 are constant. In Fig. 12(b), the comparison is illustrated for different pressures and constant 390 391 temperature and viscosity. In Fig. 12(c), the comparison is shown for the case where pressure is constant, and temperature and viscosity vary. Furthermore, additional comparison is 392 depicted in Fig. 13 by presenting the real measurements and the predictions of GEP as 393

function of pressure for the whole considered database. As shown in the plots of Figs. 12 and 13, the predicted and real diffusivity coefficient values of CO_2 in brine overlap properly regardless of the operating conditions.

397

4.4. Relative importance of input parameters

A sensitivity analysis using the relevancy factor (r) (Chen et al., 2014; Hajirezaie et al., 2015; Shateri et al., 2015), was performed to assess the relative importance of the input variables on the diffusivity coefficient. The relevancy factor is expressed as follows:

401
$$r(I_j, 0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (I_{j,i} - \bar{I}_j)(o_i - \bar{o})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (I_{j,i} - \bar{I}_j)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (o_i - \bar{o})^2}}$$
(13)

where the subscripts i and j refer to the data index and the variable, respectively; I and \overline{I} represent the input parameter and its average, respectively, while O and \overline{O} refer to the predicted output and its average, respectively. It is worth noting that a high absolute (r) value for an input parameter indicates its noteworthy impact on the output. Furthermore, achieving positive/negative r values for an input suggests a positive/negative effect on the output.

The obtained results regarding the relevancy factor for the diffusivity coefficient of CO_2 in brine are exhibited in Fig. 14. According to this figure, temperature has the biggest impact on the outputs. In addition, it can be deduced that viscosity has a negative effect on the output, while pressure and temperature positively affect the diffusivity coefficient.

411 **4.5. Outliers detection**

In the last part of this study, outliers detection was conducted to assess the quality of the employed experimental data points employed for the establishment of the GEP correlation, and also to define the applicability domain. The well-known Leverage approach was applied (Rousseeuw and Leroy, 2005). The results from the Leverage approach are converted to the famous graphical representation known as William plot (Nait Amar et al., 2019a, 2019b). This plot scatters the standardized residual (R) of the predicted values versus the so-called hat (H)

values which corresponds to the diagonal elements of the hat matrix defined as (Gramatica,
2007; Rousseeuw and Leroy, 2005):

$$H = X(X^t X)^{-1} X^t \tag{14}$$

where X is a matrix with $(n \times d)$ size, with n and d represents the number of samples and 421 the variables, respectively, and X^t is the transpose matrix of X. To delineate the applicability 422 in the Williams plot after presenting standardized residual as function of hat values, a 423 Leverage limit value (H*) calculated as $\frac{3(d+1)}{n}$ is utilized. In addition, the data points are 424 425 selected in the range of ± 3 of standard deviation from the mean, where the cut-off value of 3 covers 99% of the distributed data (Gramatica, 2007; Rousseeuw and Leroy, 2005). The 426 suspected data points known as outliers are defined as the points which are situated in the 427 range of R > 3 or R < -3 regardless of their hat value in comparison with H*. Hence, 428 existence of great accumulation of the data points in the ranges $0 \le H \le H^*$ and $-3 \le R \le 3$ 429 430 indicates the high reliability of the model.

Fig. 15 shows the obtained Williams plot for the newly proposed correlation. This plot reveals that 90 data points are in the intervals of $0 \le H \le 0.1304$ and $-3 \le R \le 3$, while only two data points are found outside these margins, and hence, they are detected as doubtful data. The Leverage approach confirms the statistical validity of the implemented GEP correlation for predicting the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂ in brine.

436 5. Conclusions

In this paper, two new correlations were developed using GMDH and GEP for accurate prediction of the diffusivity coefficient of CO_2 in brine. For developing the correlations, a representative experimental database was collected from the published literature, based on pressure, temperature and the viscosity of the solvent, as inputs. According to this study, the following conclusions are drawn:

		Journal Pre-proof
442	1.	Both GMDH and GEP correlations showed very close prediction capabilities.
443	2.	GEP correlation outperforms the GMDH correlation with an overall AARD value of
444		4.3014%.
445	3.	The newly implemented GEP correlation exhibited very low AARD values with
446		respect to different intervals of input parameters.
447	4.	The proposed GEP correlation can provide a fast and reasonably-priced estimation
448		of the coefficient of CO_2 diffusivity in brine.
449	5.	The developed GEP correlation was compared with DTs, RF, mixed Kernels-based
450		support vector machine coupled with GA and other pre-existing models. The
451		accuracy of the developed correlation was superior to all these models.
452	6.	The trends of the GEP outputs are logical in terms of the independent variables.
453	7.	Temperature was found the most impacting parameter in the prediction of
454		diffusivity coefficient by GEP correlation.
455	8.	The Leverage approach demonstrated the statistical validity of the model and only
456		two data points were detected as outliers.

457

458 **References**

- Amini, S., Mohaghegh, S.D., Gaskari, R., Bromhal, G., others, 2012. Uncertainty analysis of a co2
 sequestration project using surrogate reservoir modeling technique, in: SPE Western Regional
 Meeting.
- Aminu, K.T., McGlinchey, D., Chen, Y., 2019. Optimal design for real-time quantitative monitoring
 of sand in gas flowline using computational intelligence assisted design framework. J. Pet. Sci.
 Eng. 177, 1059–1071.
- Azzolina, N.A., Nakles, D. V, Gorecki, C.D., Peck, W.D., Ayash, S.C., Melzer, L.S., Chatterjee, S.,
 2015. CO2 storage associated with CO2 enhanced oil recovery: A statistical analysis of historical
 operations. Int. J. Greenh. Gas Control 37, 384–397.
- Bachu, S., Shaw, J.C., Pearson, R.M., others, 2004. Estimation of oil recovery and CO2 storage
 capacity in CO2 EOR incorporating the effect of underlying aquifers, in: SPE/DOE Symposium
 on Improved Oil Recovery.
- 471 Benamara, C., Nait Amar, M., Gharbi, K., Hamada, B., 2019. Modeling Wax Disappearance
 472 Temperature Using Advanced Intelligent Frameworks. Energy & Fuels.
- 473 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.energyfuels.9b03296
- Bhakta, J.N., Lahiri, S., Pittman, J.K., Jana, B.B., 2015. Carbon dioxide sequestration in wastewater
 by a consortium of elevated carbon dioxide-tolerant microalgae. J. CO2 Util. 10, 105–112.
- 476 Boot-Handford, M.E., Abanades, J.C., Anthony, E.J., Blunt, M.J., Brandani, S., Mac Dowell, N.,
- 477 Fernández, J.R., Ferrari, M.-C., Gross, R., Hallett, J.P., others, 2014. Carbon capture and storage

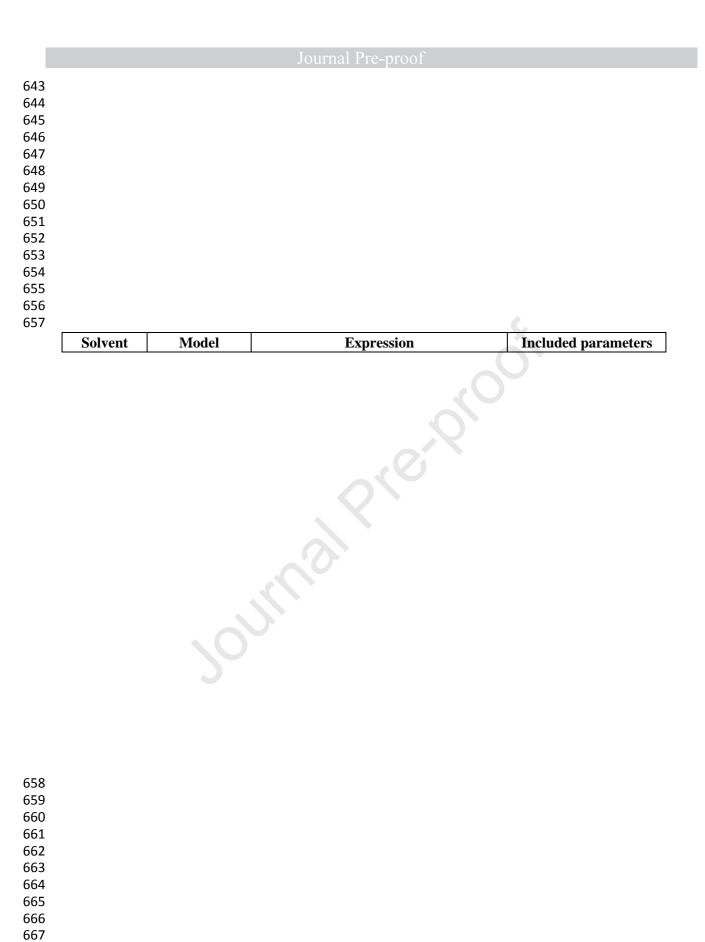
urnal	D	nr		1
uman			U	

- 478 update. Energy Environ. Sci. 7, 130–189.
- 479 Breiman, L., 2017. Classification and regression trees. Routledge.
- Cadogan, S., 2015. Diffusion of CO2 in fluids relevant to carbon capture, utilisation and storage. PhD
 thesis, Imp. Coll. London.
- 482 Cadogan, S.P., Hallett, J.P., Maitland, G.C., Trusler, J.P.M., 2015. Diffusion coefficients of carbon
 483 dioxide in brines measured using 13C pulsed-field gradient nuclear magnetic resonance. J.
 484 Chem. Eng. Data 60, 181–184. https://doi.org/10.1021/je5009203
- 485 Cadogan, Shane P, Hallett, J.P., Maitland, G.C., Trusler, J.P.M., 2014a. Diffusion coefficients of
 486 carbon dioxide in brines measured using 13C pulsed-field gradient nuclear magnetic resonance.
 487 J. Chem. Eng. Data 60, 181–184.
- Cadogan, Shane P, Maitland, G.C., Trusler, J.P.M., 2014b. Diffusion coefficients of CO2 and N2 in
 water at temperatures between 298.15 K and 423.15 K at pressures up to 45 MPa. J. Chem. Eng.
 Data 59, 519–525.
- Chen, G., Fu, K., Liang, Z., Sema, T., Li, C., Tontiwachwuthikul, P., Idem, R., 2014. The genetic
 algorithm based back propagation neural network for MMP prediction in CO2-EOR process.
 Fuel 126, 202–212.
- Choudhari, R. V., Doraiswamy, L.K., 1972. Physical Properties in Reaction of Ethylene and Hydrogen
 Chloride in Liquid Media: Diffusivities and Solubilities. J. Chem. Eng. Data 17, 428–432.
 https://doi.org/10.1021/je60055a012
- 497 Dargahi-Zarandi, A., Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Hajirezaie, S., Dabir, B., Atashrouz, S., 2017.
 498 Modeling gas/vapor viscosity of hydrocarbon fluids using a hybrid GMDH-type neural network
 499 system. J. Mol. Liq. 236, 162–171.
- Davarazar, M., Jahanianfard, D., Sheikhnejad, Y., Nemati, B., Mostafaie, A., Zandi, S., Khalaj, M.,
 Kamali, M., Aminabhavi, T.M., 2019. Underground carbon dioxide sequestration for climate
 change mitigation--A scientometric study. J. CO2 Util. 33, 179–188.
- Ettehadtavakkol, A., Lake, L.W., Bryant, S.L., 2014. CO2-EOR and storage design optimization. Int.
 J. Greenh. Gas Control 25, 79–92.
- Farajzadeh, R., Zitha, P.L.J., Bruining, J., 2009. Enhanced mass transfer of CO2 into water:
 experiment and modeling. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 48, 6423–6431.
- Feng, Q., Cui, R., Wang, S., Zhang, J., Jiang, Z., 2019. Estimation of CO2 diffusivity in brine by use
 of the genetic algorithm and mixed kernels-based support vector machine model. J. Energy
 Resour. Technol. 141, 41001.
- Ferreira, C., 2001. Algorithm for solving gene expression programming: a new adaptive problems.
 Complex Syst. 13, 87–129.
- Frank, Marco J W, K.J. a M., Swaaij, W.P.M. Van, 1996. Marco J. W. Frank,* Johannes A. M.
 Kuipers, and Wim P. M. van Swaaij. J. Chem. Eng. Data 41, 297–302.
 https://doi.org/10.1021/je950157k
- Frank, M.J.W., Kuipers, J.A.M., van Swaaij, W.P.M., 1996. Diffusion coefficients and viscosities of
 CO2+ H2O, CO2+ CH3OH, NH3+ H2O, and NH3+ CH3OH liquid mixtures. J. Chem. Eng.
 Data 41, 297–302.
- 518 Gershenzon, N.I., Ritzi, R.W., Dominic, D.F., Soltanian, M., Mehnert, E., Okwen, R.T., 2015.
 519 Influence of small-scale fluvial architecture on CO2 trapping processes in deep brine reservoirs.
 520 Water Resour. Res. 51, 8240–8256.
- Gershenzon, N.I., Soltanian, M., Ritzi Jr, R.W., Dominic, D.F., 2014. Influence of small scale
 heterogeneity on CO2 trapping processes in deep saline aquifers. Energy Procedia 59, 166–173.
- 523 Gibbins, J., Chalmers, H., 2008. Carbon capture and storage. Energy Policy 36, 4317–4322.
- 524 Gozalpour, F., Ren, S.R., Tohidi, B., 2005. CO2 EOR and storage in oil reservoir. Oil gas Sci.
 525 Technol. 60, 537–546.
- Gramatica, P., 2007. Principles of QSAR models validation: internal and external. QSAR Comb. Sci.
 26, 694–701. https://doi.org/10.1002/qsar.200610151
- 528 Grude, S., Landrø, M., Dvorkin, J., 2014. Pressure effects caused by CO2 injection in the Tubåen Fm.,
 529 the Snøhvit field. Int. J. Greenh. Gas Control 27, 178–187.
- 530 Guo, L., Chehata, N., Mallet, C., Boukir, S., 2011. Relevance of airborne lidar and multispectral image
- data for urban scene classification using Random Forests. ISPRS J. Photogramm. Remote Sens.
 66, 56–66.

- Guzmán, J., Garrido, L., 2012. Determination of carbon dioxide transport coefficients in liquids and
 polymers by NMR spectroscopy. J. Phys. Chem. B 116, 6050–6058.
- Hajirezaie, S., Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Mohammadi, A.H., Pournik, M., Kamari, A., 2015. A smooth
 model for the estimation of gas/vapor viscosity of hydrocarbon fluids. J. Nat. Gas Sci. Eng. 26,
 1452–1459.
- Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Mohagheghian, E., 2017. Modeling interfacial tension and minimum
 miscibility pressure in paraffin-nitrogen systems: Application to gas injection processes. Fuel
 205, 80–89.
- Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Varamesh, A., Husein, M.M., Karan, K., 2018. On the evaluation of the
 viscosity of nanofluid systems: Modeling and data assessment. Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev. 81,
 313–329.
- Holtz, M.H., Nance, P.K., Finley, R.J., 2001. Reduction of greenhouse gas emissions through CO2
 EOR in Texas. Environ. Geosci. 8, 187–199.
- 546 Ivakhnenko, A.G., 1971. Polynomial theory of complex systems. IEEE Trans. Syst. Man. Cybern.
 547 364–378.
- Jang, H.W., Yang, D., Li, H., 2018. A Power-Law Mixing Rule for Predicting Apparent Diffusion
 Coefficients of Binary Gas Mixtures in Heavy Oil. J. Energy Resour. Technol. 140, 52904.
- Jeong, H., Sun, A.Y., Lee, J., Min, B., 2018. A learning-based data-driven forecast approach for
 predicting future reservoir performance. Adv. Water Resour. 118, 95–109.
- Koza, J.R., 1992. Genetic programming II, automatic discovery of reusable subprograms. MIT Press,
 Cambridge, MA.
- Lee, J.W., Hawkins, B., Day, D.M., Reicosky, D.C., 2010. Sustainability: the capacity of smokeless
 biomass pyrolysis for energy production, global carbon capture and sequestration. Energy
 Environ. Sci. 3, 1695–1705.
- Li, H., Yang, D., others, 2016. Determination of individual diffusion coefficients of solvent/CO 2
 mixture in heavy oil with pressure-decay method. SPE J. 21, 131–143.
- Lu, W., Guo, H., Chou, I.-M., Burruss, R.C., Li, L., 2013. Determination of diffusion coefficients of
 carbon dioxide in water between 268 and 473 K in a high-pressure capillary optical cell with in
 situ Raman spectroscopic measurements. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 115, 183–204.
- 562 Maharajh, D.M., 1975. Solubility and Diffusion of Gases in Water.
- Maharajh, D.M., Walkley, J., 1972. The Temperature Dependence of the DiEusion Coefficients of Ar,
 COz, CH4, CH3CI, CH3Br, and CHCB2F in Water. Can. J. Chem. 51, 944–952.
- Mirjalili, S., 2015. How effective is the Grey Wolf optimizer in training multi-layer perceptrons. Appl.
 Intell. 43, 150–161.
- Mohagheghian, E., Hassanzadeh, H., Chen, Z., 2019. CO2 sequestration coupled with enhanced gas
 recovery in shale gas reservoirs. J. CO2 Util. 34, 646–655.
- Moultos, O.A., Tsimpanogiannis, I.N., Panagiotopoulos, A.Z., Economou, I.G., 2016. Self-diffusion
 coefficients of the binary (H2O+ CO2) mixture at high temperatures and pressures. J. Chem.
 Thermodyn. 93, 424–429.
- Mutoru, J.W., Leahy-Dios, A., Firoozabadi, A., 2011. Modeling infinite dilution and Fickian diffusion
 coefficients of carbon dioxide in water. AIChE J. 57, 1617–1627.
- 574 Nait Amar, M., Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Varamesh, A., Shamshirband, S., 2019a. Predicting
 575 solubility of CO2 in brine by advanced machine learning systems: Application to carbon capture
 576 and sequestration. J. CO2 Util. 33, 83–95.
- 577 Nait Amar, M., Zeraibi, N., 2019. An efficient methodology for multi-objective optimization of water
 578 alternating CO2 EOR process. J. Taiwan Inst. Chem. Eng. 99, 154–165.
- Nait Amar, M., Zeraibi, N., Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Shamshirband, S., 2019b. Modeling
 temperature-based oil-water relative permeability by integrating advanced intelligent models
 with grey wolf optimization: Application to thermal enhanced oil recovery processes. Fuel 242,
 649–663.
- Nait Amar, M., Zeraibi, N., Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Shamshirband, S., Mosavi, A., Chau, K., 2019c.
 Modeling temperature dependency of oil-water relative permeability in thermal enhanced oil
 recovery processes using group method of data handling and gene expression programming. Eng.
 Appl. Comput. Fluid Mech. 13, 724–743.
- 587 Nijsing, R.A.T.O., Hendriksz, R.H., Kramers, H., 1959. Absorption of CO2 in jets and falling films of

588 589	electrolyte solutions, with and without chemical reaction. Chem. Eng. Sci. 10, 88–104. https://doi.org/10.1016/0009-2509(59)80028-2
589 590	Nomeli, M.A., Riaz, A., 2017. A data driven model for the impact of IFT and density variations on
591	CO2 storage capacity in geologic formations. Adv. Water Resour. 107, 83–92.
592	Othmer, D.F., Thakar, M.S., 1953. Correlating diffusion coefficient in liquids. Ind. Eng. Chem. 45,
593	589–593.
594	Peters, J., De Baets, B., Verhoest, N.E.C., Samson, R., Degroeve, S., De Becker, P., Huybrechts, W.,
595	2007. Random forests as a tool for ecohydrological distribution modelling. Ecol. Modell. 207,
596	304–318.
597	Piotrowski, A.P., Napiorkowski, J.J., 2012. Product-Units neural networks for catchment runoff
598	forecasting. Adv. Water Resour. 49, 97–113.
599	Reddy, K.A., Doraiswamy, L.K., 1967. Estimating liquid diffusivity. Ind. Eng. Chem. Fundam. 6, 77–
600	79. https://doi.org/10.1021/i160021a012
601	Riahi, K., Rubin, E.S., Taylor, M.R., Schrattenholzer, L., Hounshell, D., 2004. Technological learning
602	for carbon capture and sequestration technologies. Energy Econ. 26, 539–564.
603	Rostami, A., Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Karkevandi-Talkhooncheh, A., Husein, M.M., Shamshirband,
604	S., Rabczuk, T., 2019. Modeling heat capacity of ionic liquids using group method of data
605	handling: A hybrid and structure-based approach. Int. J. Heat Mass Transf. 129, 7–17.
606	Rousseeuw, P.J., Leroy, A.M., 2005. Robust regression and outlier detection. John wiley & sons.
607	Shahkarami, A., Mohaghegh, S., Gholami, V., Haghighat, A., Moreno, D., 2014. Modeling pressure
608	and saturation distribution in a CO2 storage project using a Surrogate Reservoir Model (SRM).
609	Greenh. Gases Sci. Technol. 4, 289–315.
610	Shateri, M., Ghorbani, S., Hemmati-Sarapardeh, A., Mohammadi, A.H., 2015. Application of
611 612	Wilcoxon generalized radial basis function network for prediction of natural gas compressibility factor. J. Taiwan Inst. Chem. Eng. 50, 131–141.
613	Tamimi, A., Rinker, E.B., Sandall, O.C., 1994. Diffusion Coefficients for Hydrogen Sulfide, Carbon
614	Dioxide, and Nitrous Oxide in Water over the Temperature Range 293–368 K. J. Chem. Eng.
615	Data 39, 330–332. https://doi.org/10.1021/je00014a031
616	Tan, K.K., Thorpe, R.B., 1992. Gas diffusion into viscous and non-Newtonian liquids. Chem. Eng.
617	Sci. 47, 3565–3572. https://doi.org/10.1016/0009-2509(92)85071-I
618	Teodorescu, L., Sherwood, D., 2008. High energy physics event selection with gene expression
619	programming. Comput. Phys. Commun. 178, 409–419.
620	Thomas, W.J., Adams, M.J., 1965. Measurement of the diffusion coefficients of carbon dioxide and
621	nitrous oxide in water and aqueous solutions of glycerol. Trans. Faraday Soc. 61, 668–673.
622	https://doi.org/10.1039/tf9656100668
623	Trevisan, L., Pini, R., Cihan, A., Birkholzer, J.T., Zhou, Q., Illangasekare, T.H., 2014. Experimental
624	investigation of supercritical CO2 trapping mechanisms at the intermediate laboratory scale in
625	well-defined heterogeneous porous media. Energy Procedia 63, 5646–5653.
626	Venkatraman, V., Alsberg, B.K., 2017. Predicting CO2 capture of ionic liquids using machine
627	learning. J. CO2 Util. 21, 162–168.
628	Versteeg, G.F., van Swaal, W.P.M., 1988. Solubility and Diffusivity of Acid Gases (CO2, N2O) in
629	Aqueous Alkanolamine Solutions. J. Chem. Eng. Data 33, 29–34.
630	https://doi.org/10.1021/je00051a011
631	Vivian, J.E., Peaceman, D.W., 1956. Liquid side resistance in gas absorption. AIChE J. 2, 437–443.
632	https://doi.org/10.1002/aic.690020404
633	Wilke, C.R., Chang, P., 1955. Correlation of diffusion coefficients in dilute solutions. AIChE J. 1, 264–270.
634 635	Wilkinson, L., 2004. Classification and regression trees. Systat 11, 35–56.
636	Yan, Y., Xu, L., Lee, P., 2006. Mass flow measurement of fine particles in a pneumatic suspension
637	using electrostatic sensing and neural network techniques. IEEE Trans. Instrum. Meas. 55, 2330–
638	2334.

- Yang, D., Tontiwachwuthikul, P., Gu, Y., 2006. Dynamic interfacial tension method for measuring
 gas diffusion coefficient and interface mass transfer coefficient in a liquid. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.
 45, 4999–5008. https://doi.org/10.1021/ie060047e
- 642



- **Table 1.** Summary of the existing empirical models for predicting the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂

			Journal Pre-proof	
		(Othmer and Thakar, 1953)	$D_{CO_2} = \frac{14 \times 10^{-9}}{\mu^{1.1} V_m^{0.6}}$	 Molar volume of the diffusing substance (V_m in cm³/gmol). Viscosity of the solvent (μ in mPa · s)
	Brine	(Wilke and Chang, 1955)	$D_{CO_2} = 7.4 \times 10^{-8} \frac{T\sqrt{\emptyset M}}{\mu V_m^{0.6}}$	 Temperature (<i>T</i> in K). The association parameter φ. Molecular weight of solvent (M).
		(Cadogan et al., 2014a)	$D_{CO_2} = \frac{k_B T}{n_{SE} \pi \mu a}$	• $k_B=1.38065 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K. • n_{SE} is the Stokes- Einstein number. The hydrodynamic radius of the solute (a in pm): $a =$ $168[1 + 2.0 \times 10^{-3}(T - 298)]$
		(Lu et al., 2013)	$D_{CO_2} = 13.942 \times 10^{-9} \left[\frac{T}{2.27} - 1 \right]^{1.7094}$	• Temperature (T in K).
	Pure water	(Moultos et al., 2016)	$D_{CO_2} = D_0(P) \left[\frac{T}{Ts} - 1\right]^{m(P)}$	• $D_0 = a_1 \ln(P) + a_2$, $m = b_1 \ln(P) + b_2$, where $a_1 = -2.3097 \times 10^{-9}$, $a_2 = 2,1064 \times 10^{-8}$, $b_1 = -0.17812$ and $b_2 = 2.59406$; <i>P</i> is the pressure.
670 671		0		the pressure.
672 673 674 675 676 677 678 679				
580				
581 582 583 584 585 586 587 588				

690 691 692

Table 2. Summary of the gathered data

Journal Pre-proof

	Max	Avg.	Min	SD
P (MPa)	49.30	9.64	0.1000	14.8030
T (K)	473.15	317.76	273	39.8
Viscosity (mPa.s)	1.9500	0.9003	0.1390	0.4720
Diffusivity coefficient (×10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s)	16.1000	3.3522	0.3100	3.0874

693	I	•	•	•
694				
695 696				
697				
698				
699				
700				
701 702				
702				
704				
705				
706				
707 708				
708				
710				
711				
712				
713 714				
715				
716				
717				
718 719				
720				
721				
722				
723 724				
725				
726				
727				
728 729				
729				
731				
732				
733 734				
134				

Parameters	Value/setting
Chromosome	100
Gene	12
Operators used	+, -,×,/, exp., $$, INV, lr
Generations	420
Mutation rate	0.45
Inversion rate	0.12

Table 4. Performance analysis of the implemented models.

		GEP	GMDH
Training data	AARD (%)	3.8584	8.6269

		Journal Pre-p	proof	
		\mathbb{R}^2	0.9980	0.9943
		RMSE ($\times 10^{-9}$ m ² /s ⁾	0.1427	0.2479
		AARD (%)	6.0035	5.6292
	Test data	\mathbb{R}^2	0.9978	0.9874
		RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m^2/s^3)	0.1245	0.2271
		AARD (%)	4.3014	8.0404
	All data	\mathbb{R}^2	0.9979	0.9937
		RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m^2/s^3)	0.1391	0.2440
Ta	ible 5. Performar	nce analysis of the impl	emented decisio	on trees (DTs) and r

		DTs	RF
Training data	AARD (%)	4.2969	6.3627

		Louwool Duo	man of	
		Journal Pre-	prool	
823		\mathbb{R}^2	0.9980	0.9973
824		RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s ⁾	0.1598	0.1647
024		AARD (%)	8.8426	9.0015
825	Test data	\mathbb{R}^2	0.9924	0.9940
		RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m^2/s^3)	0.2532	0.2764
826		AARD (%) R ²	5.1862	6.8790
827	All data	$\frac{K}{RMSE (\times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s})}$	0.9969 0.1785	0.9966 0.1870
		KIVISE (×10 III/S	0.1765	0.1870
828				
829				
830				
831				
832				
833				
834				
835				
836				
837				
838				
839				
000				
840				
841				
842				
843				
044				
844				
01E				
845				
846				
0 10				
847				
848				
849				
850				
851	Table	6. Comparison of the p	erformances wit	h prior models

		GEP	Feng et al.	Othmer	Wilke	Cadogan
--	--	-----	-------------	--------	-------	---------

and and and chang AARD (%) 4.3014 7.91 12.75 12.60 13.84 R ² 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858 RMSE 0.1391 0.1954 0.5661 0.7311 0.3661	Thakar Chang AARD (%) 4.3014 7.91 12.75 12.60 13.84 R ² 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858	Thakar Chang AARD (%) 4.3014 7.91 12.75 12.60 13.84 R ² 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858	Thakar Chang AARD (%) 4.3014 7.91 12.75 12.60 13.84 R ² 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858	AARD (%) 4.3014 7.91 12.75 12.60 13.84 R ² 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858
AARD (%) 4.3014 7.91 12.75 12.60 13.84 R ² 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858	AARD (%)4.30147.9112.7512.6013.84R²0.99790.99600.96610.94340.9858	AARD (%)4.30147.9112.7512.6013.84R^20.99790.99600.96610.94340.9858	AARD (%)4.30147.9112.7512.6013.84R^20.99790.99600.96610.94340.9858	AARD (%) 4.3014 7.91 12.75 12.60 13.84 R ² 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858
R2 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858	\mathbf{R}^2 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858	$\mathbf{R}^2 \qquad 0.9979 \qquad 0.9960 \qquad 0.9661 \qquad 0.9434 \qquad 0.9858$	\mathbf{R}^2 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858	\mathbf{R}^2 0.9979 0.9960 0.9661 0.9434 0.9858
RMSE 0.1391 0.1954 0.5661 0.7311 0.3661				

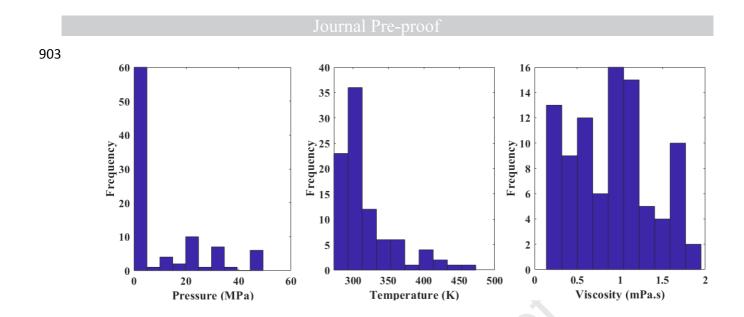
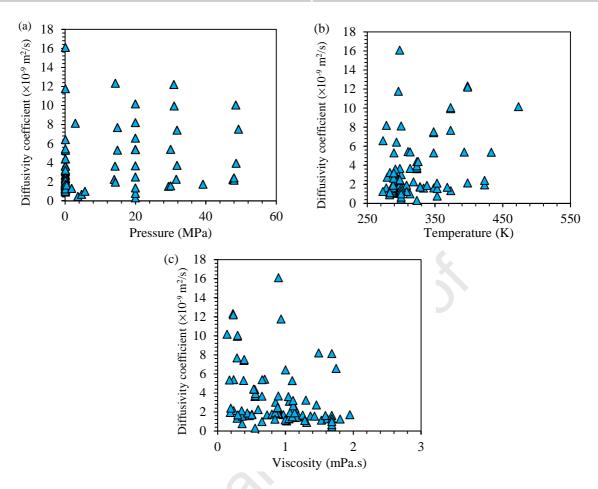
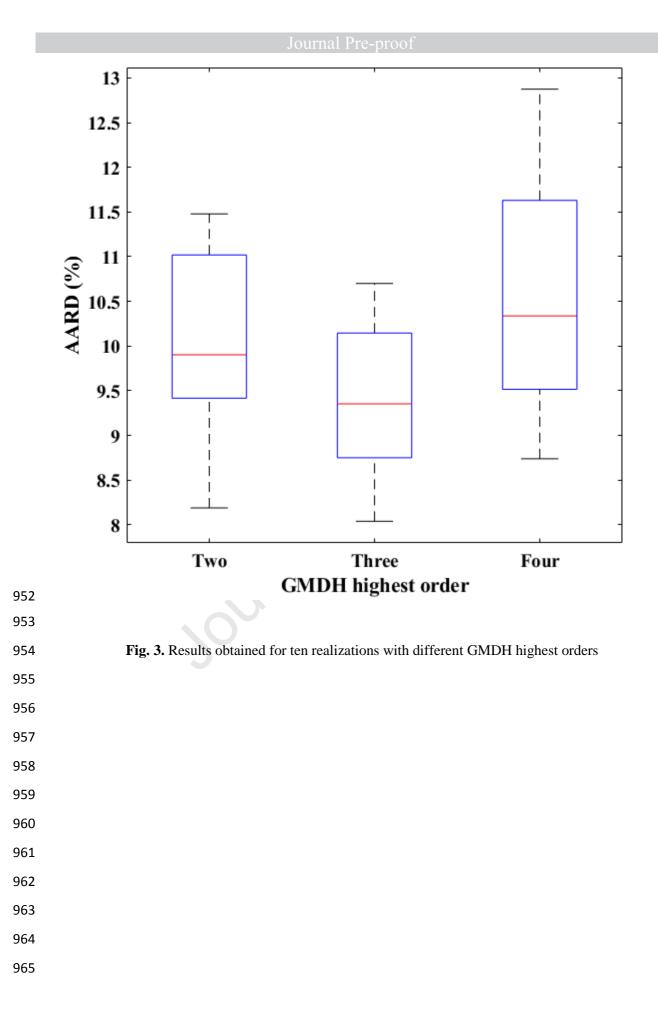


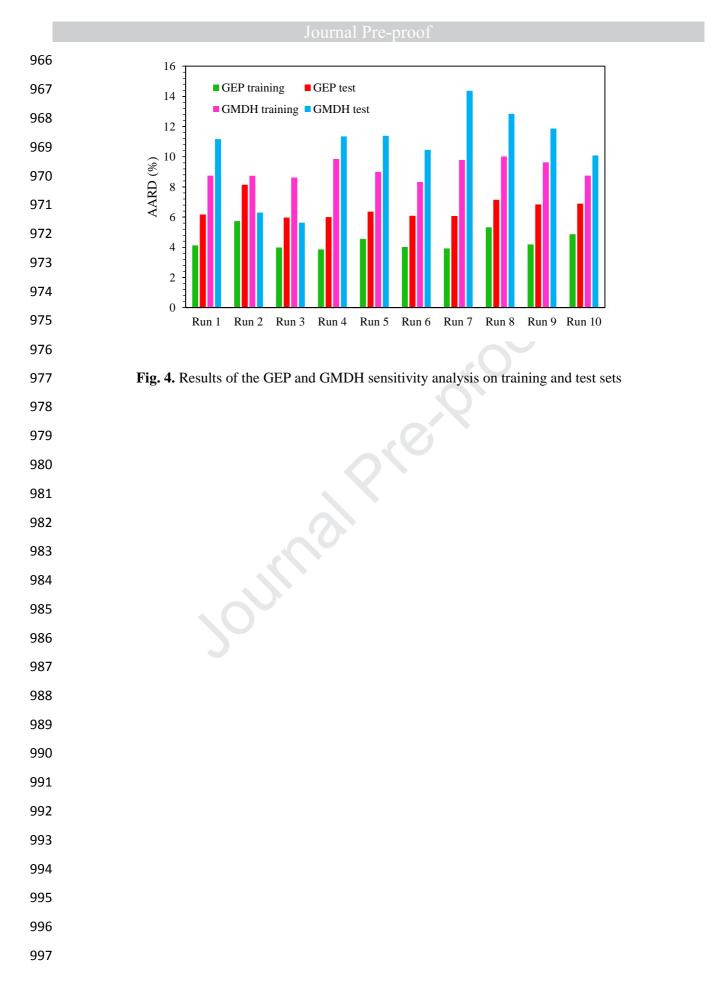
Fig. 1. Frequency histograms of the collected dataset





937	
938	Fig. 2. Variation of diffusivity coefficient versus the independent variables
939	
940	
941	
942	
943	
944	
945	
946	
947	
948	
949	
950	
951	





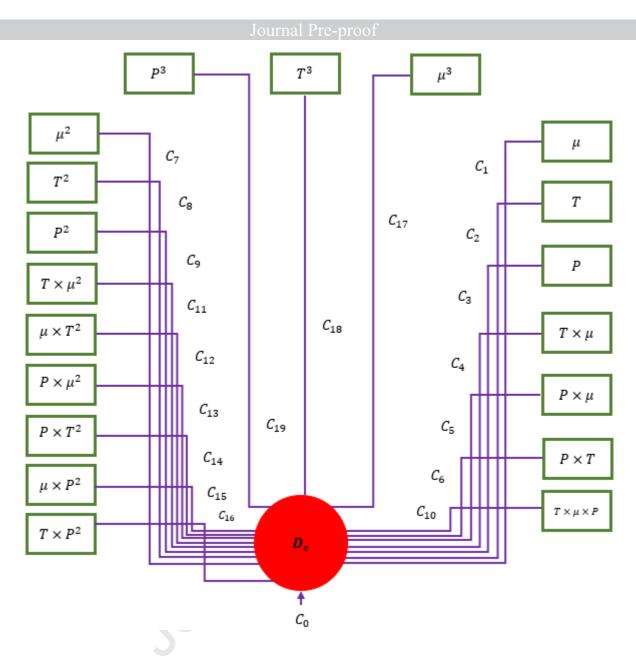
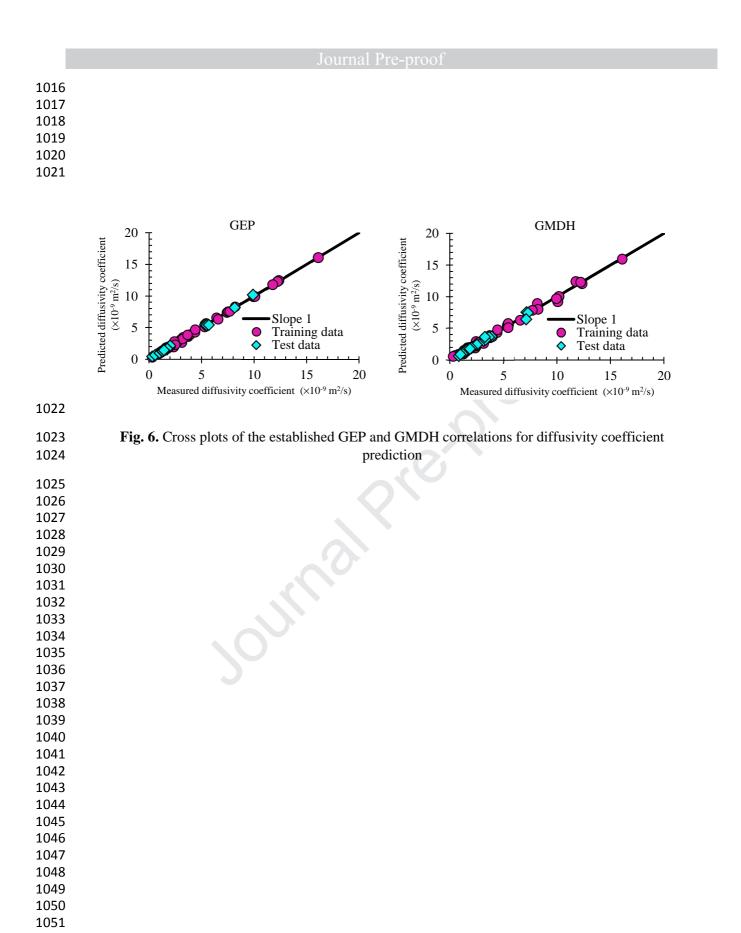
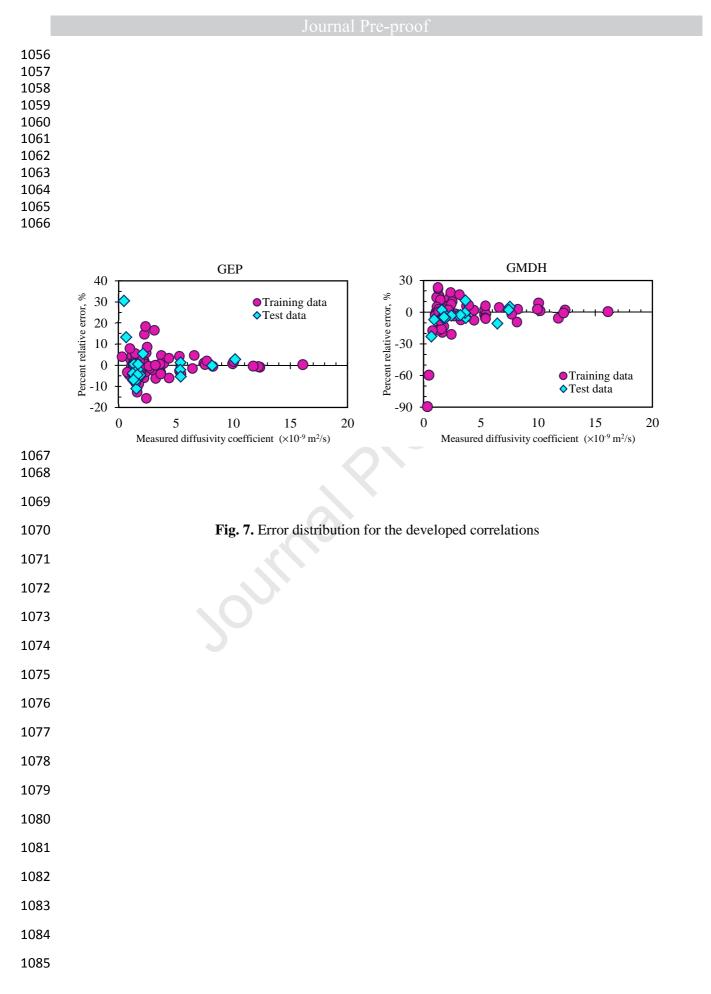
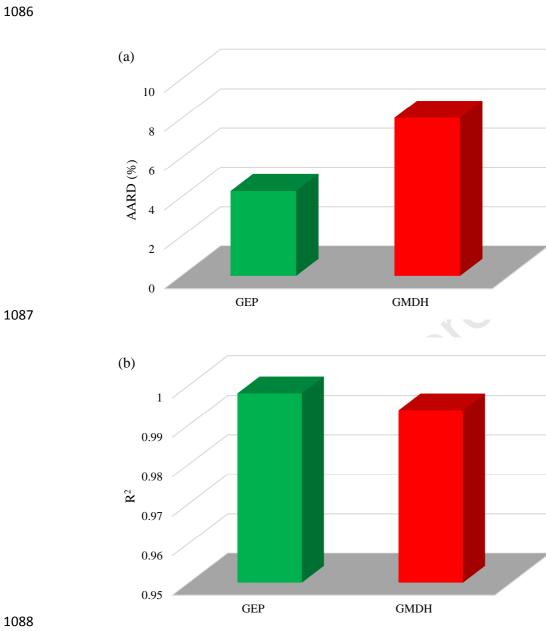


Fig. 5. A schematic structure of the implemented GMDH for predicting diffusivity coefficient

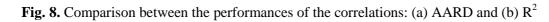


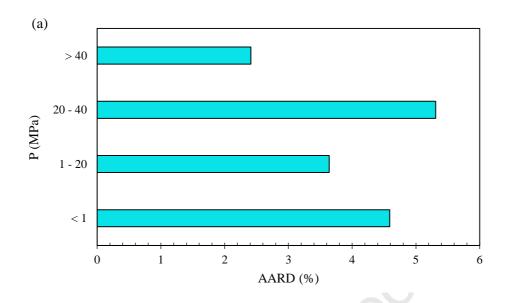


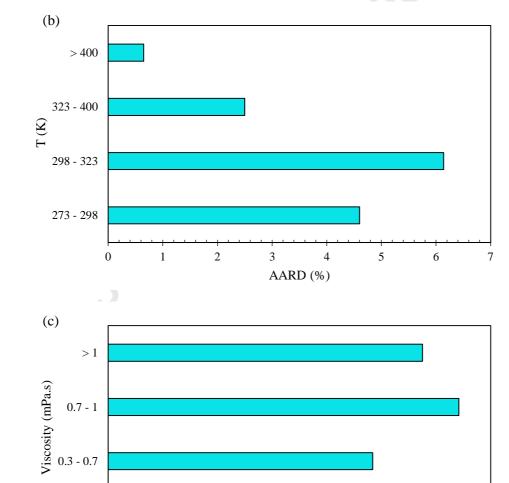










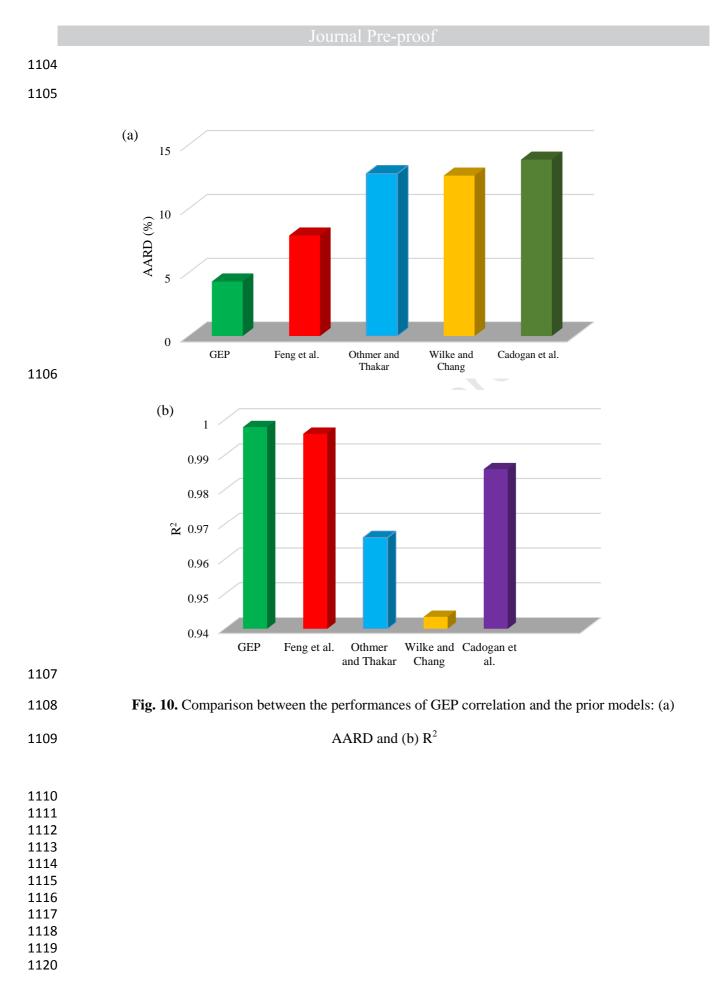




< 0.3

Fig. 9. Comparison of the error distribution of the models with respect to input parameters

AARD (%)





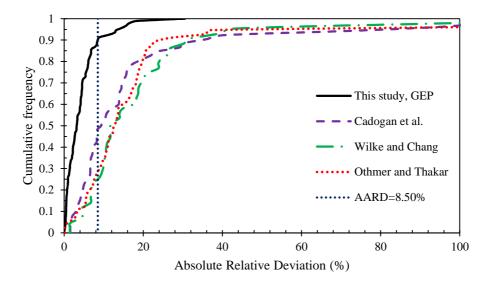
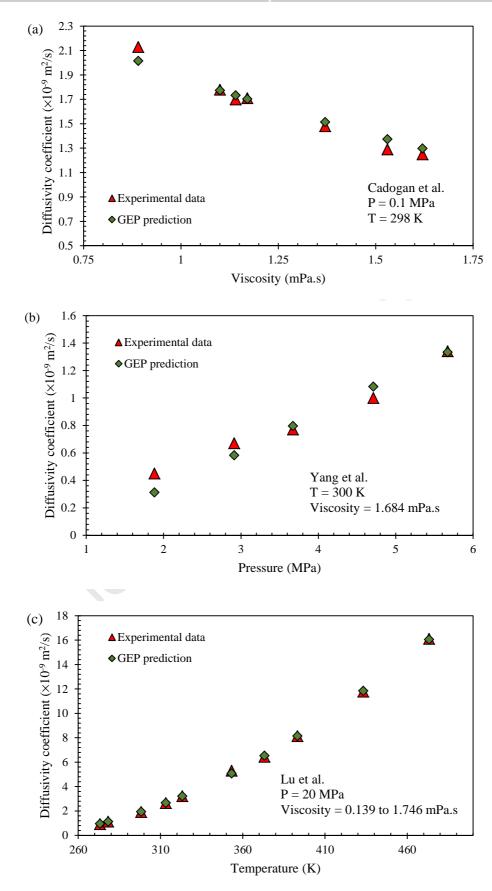
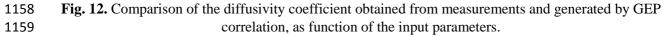
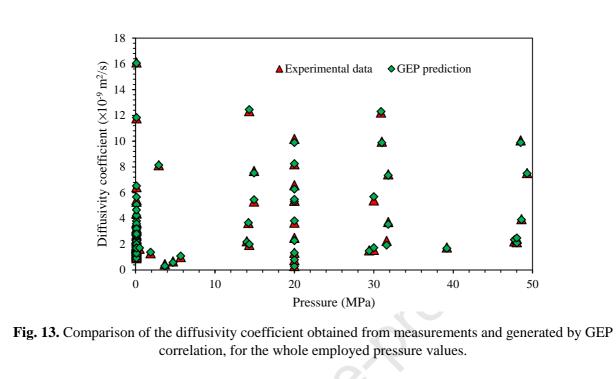
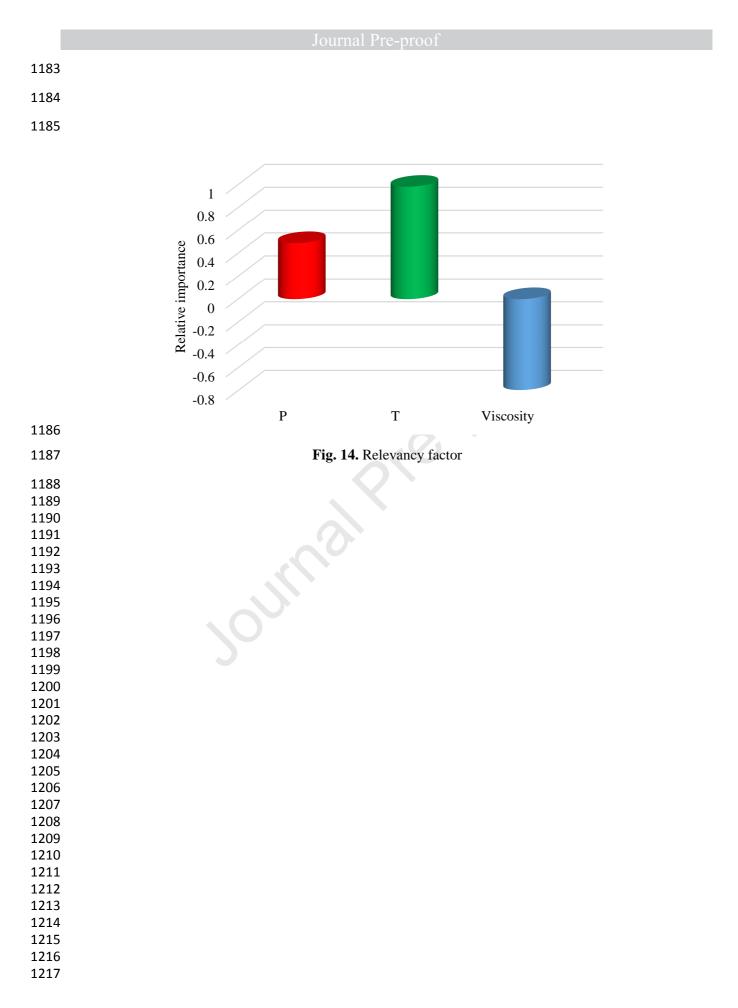


Fig. 11. Cumulative frequency vs. absolute percent relative deviation of GEP correlation and the prior
 empirical models.









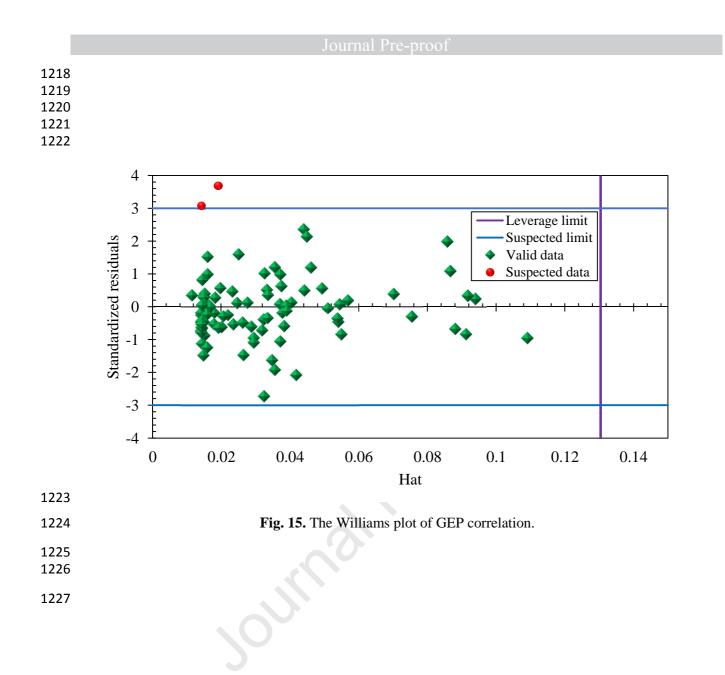


Table 1. Summary of the existing empirical models for predicting the diffusivity coefficient of CO₂

Solvent	Model	Expression	Included parameters
Brine	(Othmer and Thakar, 1953)	$D_{CO_2} = \frac{14 \times 10^{-9}}{\mu^{1.1} V_m^{0.6}}$	 Molar volume of the diffusing substance (V_m in cm³/gmol). Viscosity of the solvent (μ in mPa · s)
	(Wilke and Chang, 1955)	$D_{CO_2} = 7.4 \times 10^{-8} \frac{T\sqrt{\phi}M}{\mu V_m^{0.6}}$	 Temperature (<i>T</i> in K). The association parameter φ. Molecular weight of solvent (M).
	(Cadogan et al., 2014a)	$D_{CO_2} = \frac{k_B T}{n_{SE} \pi \mu a}$	 k_B=1.38065×10⁻²³ J/K. n_{SE} is the Stokes-Einstein number. The hydrodynamic radius of the solute (a in pm): a = 168[1 + 2.0 × 10⁻³(T - 298)]
Pure water	(Lu et al., 2013)	$D_{CO_2} = 13.942 \times 10^{-9} \left[\frac{T}{227} - 1 \right]^{1.7094}$	• Temperature (T in K).
	(Moultos et al., 2016)	$D_{CO_2} = D_0(P) \left[\frac{T}{Ts} - 1 \right]^{m(P)}$	• $D_0 = a_1 \ln(P) + a_2$, $m = b_1 \ln(P) + b_2$, where $a_1 = -$ 2.3097×10^{-9} , $a_2 = 2,1064 \times 10^{-8}$, $b_1 = -0.17812$ and $b_2 = 2.59406$; <i>P</i> is the pressure.



 Table 2. Summary of the gathered data

	Max	Avg.	Min	SD
P (MPa)	49.30	9.64	0.1000	14.8030
T (K)	473.15	317.76	273	39.8
Viscosity (mPa.s)	1.9500	0.9003	0.1390	0.4720
Diffusivity coefficient (×10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s)	16.1000	3.3522	0.3100	3.0874



Table 3. GEP setting parameters used in the study

Parameters	Value/setting		
Chromosome	100		
Gene	12		
Operators used	$+, -, \times, /, \exp_{-}, \sqrt{-}, INV, ln$		
Generations	420		
Mutation rate	0.45		
Inversion rate	0.12		

	GEP	GMDH	
AARD (%)	3.8584	8.6269	
\mathbb{R}^2	0.9980	0.9943	
RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m^2/s^3)	0.1427	0.2479	
AARD (%)	6.0035	5.6292	
\mathbb{R}^2	0.9978	0.9874	
RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s)	0.1245	0.2271	
AARD (%)	4.3014	8.0404	
\mathbb{R}^2	0.9979	0.9937	
RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m^2/s^3)	0.1391	0.2440	
	$ \begin{array}{c} R^{2} \\ \hline RMSE (\times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^{2}/\text{s}) \\ \hline AARD (\%) \\ \hline R^{2} \\ \hline RMSE (\times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^{2}/\text{s}) \\ \hline AARD (\%) \\ \hline R^{2} \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	

Table 4. Performance analysis of the implemented models.

Table 5. Performance analysis of the implemented decision trees (DTs) and random forest (RF) models.

		DTs	RF
	AARD (%)	4.2969	6.3627
Training data	\mathbb{R}^2	0.9980	0.9973
	RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m^2/s^3	0.1598	0.1647
	AARD (%)	8.8426	9.0015
Test data	\mathbb{R}^2	0.9924	0.9940
	RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m^2/s^3)	0.2532	0.2764
	AARD (%)	5.1862	6.8790
All data	\mathbb{R}^2	0.9969	0.9966
	RMSE (×10 ⁻⁹ m^2/s^3	0.1785	0.1870

	GEP	Feng et al.	Othmer and Thakar	Wilke and Chang	Cadogan et al.
AARD (%)	4.3014	7.91	12.75	12.60	13.84
\mathbb{R}^2	0.9979	0.9960	0.9661	0.9434	0.9858
RMSE	0.1391	0.1954	0.5661	0.7311	0.3661

Table 6. Comparison of the performances with prior models

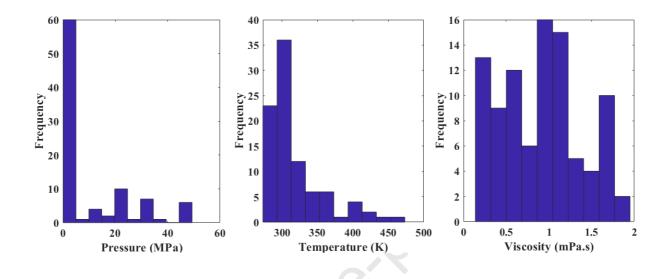


Fig. 1. Frequency histograms of the collected dataset

Onus

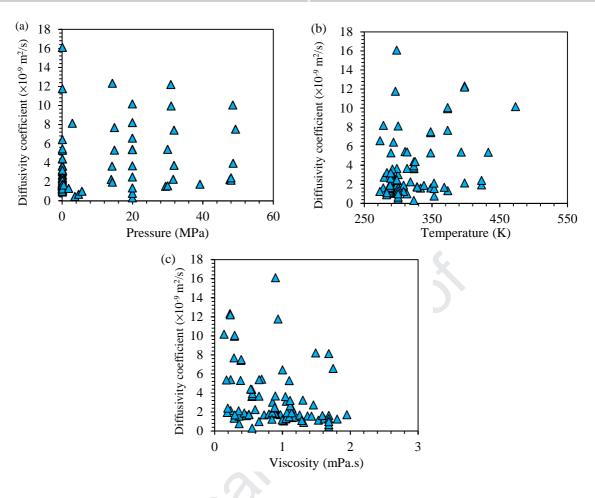


Fig. 2. Variation of diffusivity coefficient versus the independent variables

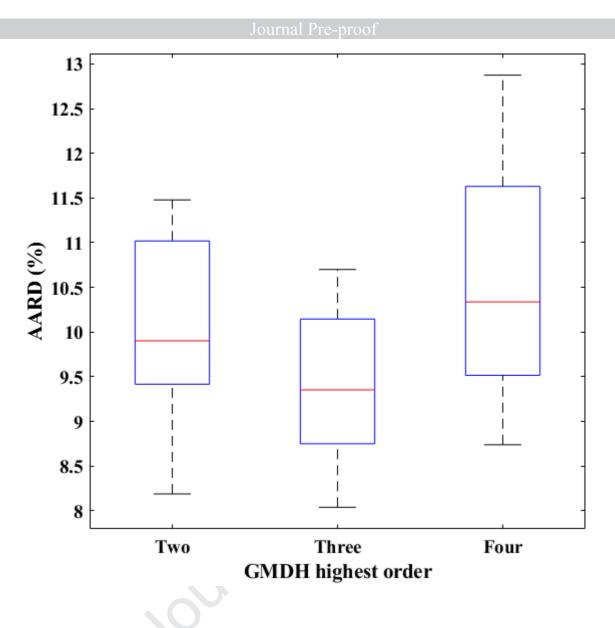


Fig. 3. Results obtained for ten realizations with different GMDH highest orders

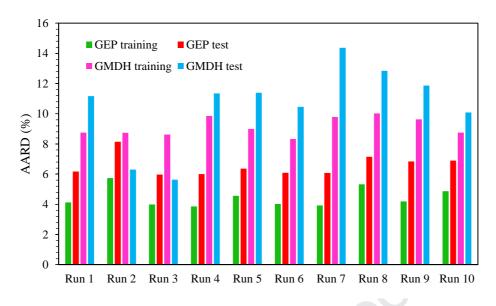


Fig. 4. Results of the GEP and GMDH sensitivity analysis on training and test sets

Journal Prest

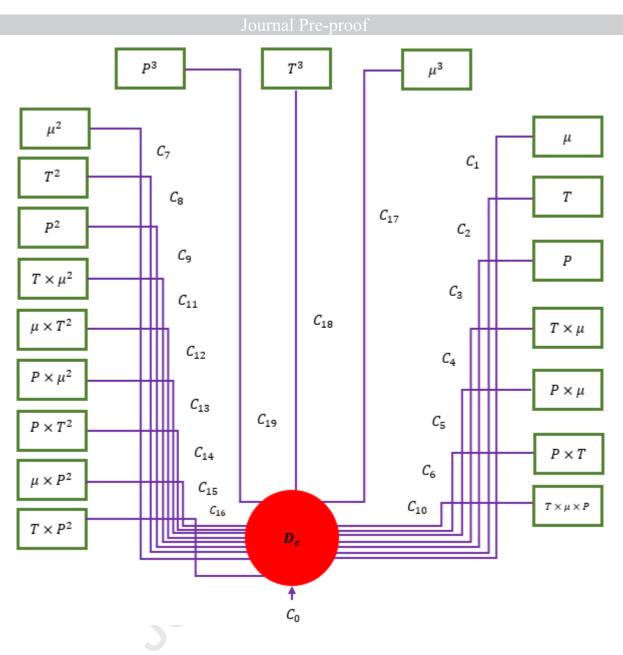


Fig. 5. A schematic structure of the implemented GMDH for predicting diffusivity coefficient

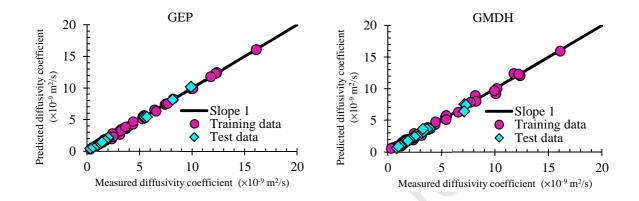


Fig. 6. Cross plots of the established GEP and GMDH correlations for diffusivity coefficient prediction

Johngik

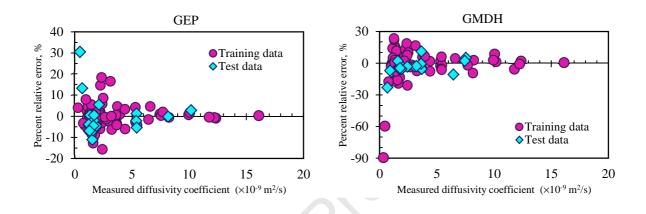


Fig. 7. Error distribution for the developed correlations

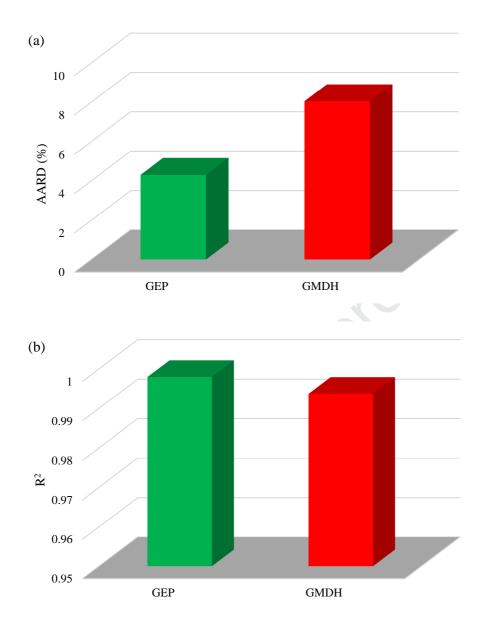


Fig. 8. Comparison between the performances of the correlations: (a) AARD and (b) R^2

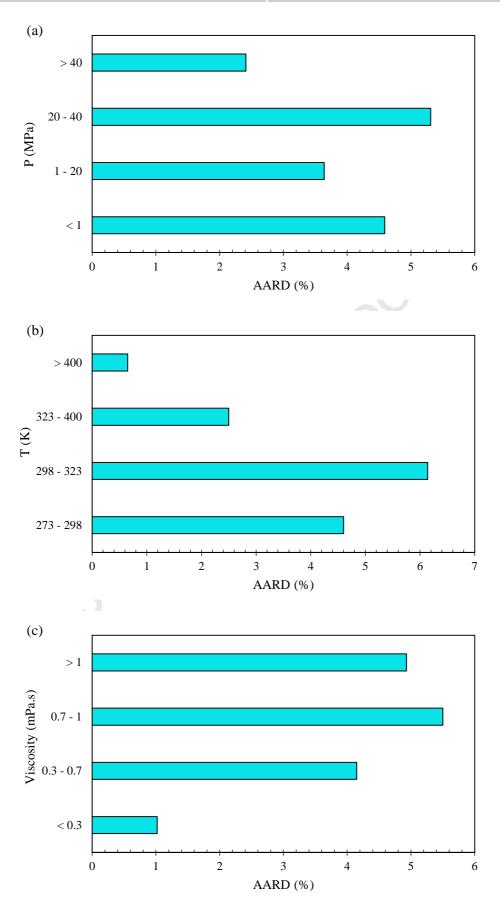


Fig. 9. Comparison of the error distribution of the models with respect to input parameters

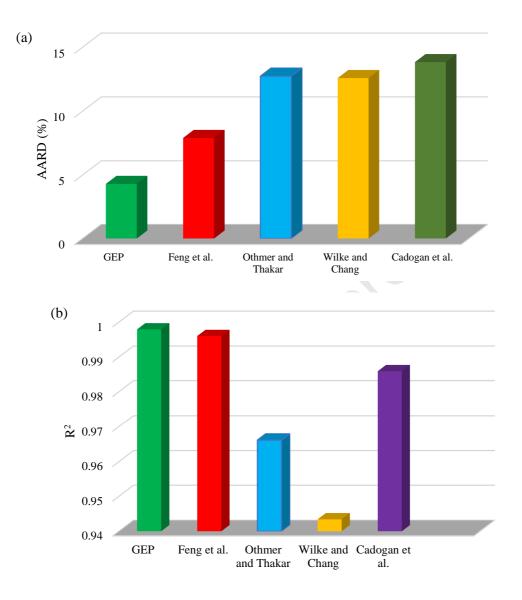


Fig. 10. Comparison between the performances of GEP correlation and the prior models: (a)

AARD and (b) R^2

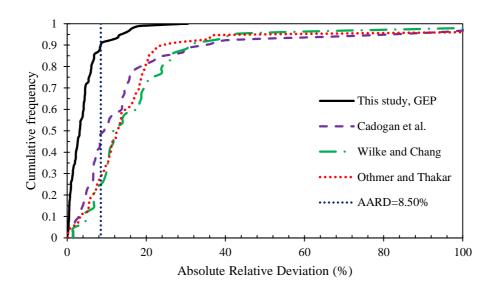


Fig. 11. Cumulative frequency vs. absolute percent relative deviation of GEP correlation and the prior empirical models.

.....

Jour

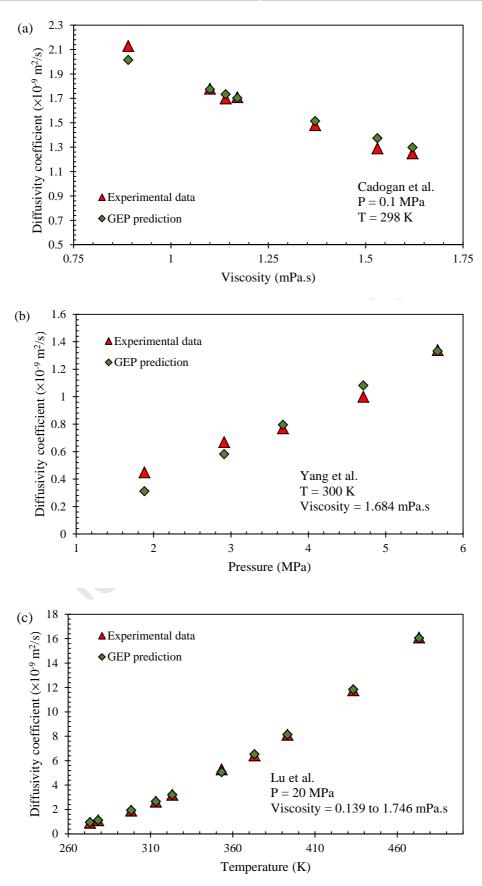


Fig. 12. Comparison of the diffusivity coefficient obtained from measurements and generated by GEP correlation, as function of the input parameters.

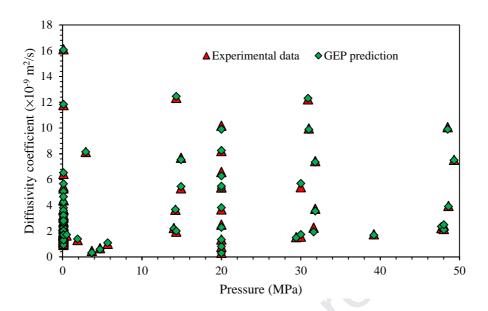
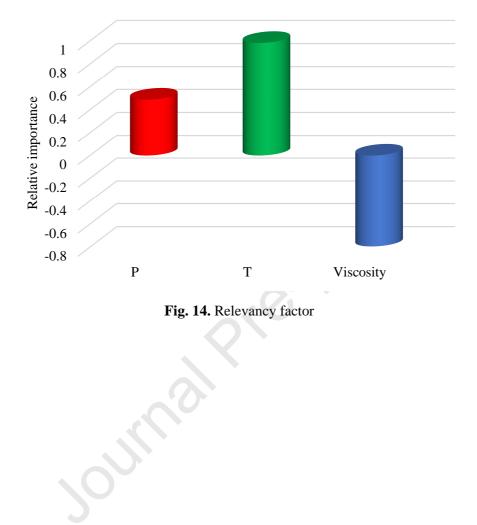


Fig. 13. Comparison of the diffusivity coefficient obtained from measurements and generated by GEP correlation, for the whole employed pressure values.

Jonulual



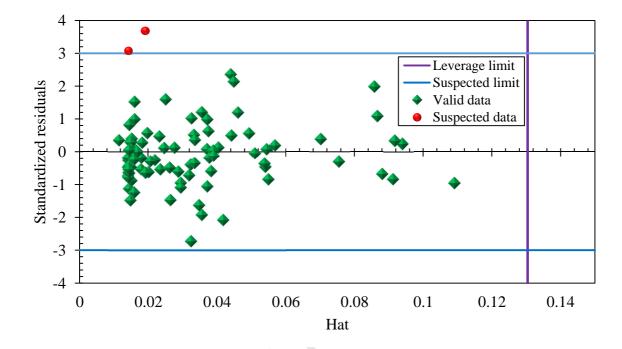


Fig. 15. The Williams plot of GEP correlation.

Highlights

- Two white-box machine learning techniques were implemented for predicting the diffusivity of CO₂ in brine.
- GEP is the best developed correlation.
- GEP correlation outperforms the prior paradigms.

Journal Prevention

Authors' contributions

Menad Nait Amar: Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Investigation and Modeling, Software, Writing.

Ashkan Jahanbani Ghahfarokhi: Supervision, Methodology, Writing, Reviewing and Editing.

Journal Prevention

Declaration of interests

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

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Journal Prerk